Risk and Safety in

Civil, Surveying and Environmental Engineering

Prof. Dr. Michael Havbro Faber

Swiss Federal Institute of Technology

ETH Zurich, Switzerland

Contents of Today's Lecture

- The JCSS Framework for Risk Assessment
- Normative Procedure for Risk Assessment
- Techniques for System Identification
 - PHA
 - FMEA
 - FMECA
 - HAZOP
 - Risk screening
- Tools for Risk Analysis
 - Fault trees
 - Event trees



Decisions and decision maker

A decision is:

a committed allocation of resources

the decision maker thus has responsibility for the committed resources – but also responsibility to any third party which may be affected by the decision

the benefit of the decision should at least be in balance with the committed resources – this depends on the preferences of the decision maker – measured in terms of attributes

- Decisions and decision maker
 - Society and decision making for society
- Oxford: society can be defined as:
 - a particular community of people living in a country or region, and having shared customs, laws, and organizations
 - + sharing resources
 - + sharing stakes
 - + sharing values and moral settings e.g. UN charter

- Decisions and decision maker
 - Society and decision making for society
- For the purpose of decision making it is important to establish
 - preferences/values of decision maker
 - available resources, e.g. budget limitations
 - exogenously given boundary conditions
 - rights and responsibilities

Decisions and decision maker

Society – and decision making for society

- It is in principle to define societies at different scale
 - Supranational authority
 - National authority and/or regulatory agencies
 - Local authority
 - Private owner
 - Private operator
 - Specific stakeholders

The differences are given by boundary conditions, resources preferences, responsibilities and rights



Attributes of decision outcomes

Decisions aim to achieve an objective

The degree of achievement is measured by attributes

- natural attributes (measurable, e.g. costs and loss of lives)
- constructed attributes (a function of natural attributes e.g. GDP)
- proxy attributes (indicator which measures the perceived degree of fulfilment of an objective)

Preferences among attributes - utility

The attributes associated with a decision outcome may be translated into a degree of achievement of the objective by means of a utility function

different attributes are brought together on one or several scales

multi attribute decision making implies a weighing of different attributes

Constraints on decision making

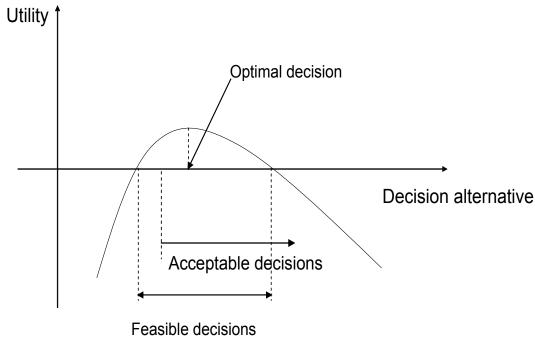
In principle – any society may define what they consider to be acceptable decisions

Typically decisions are constrained – e.g. in terms of maximum acceptable risks to

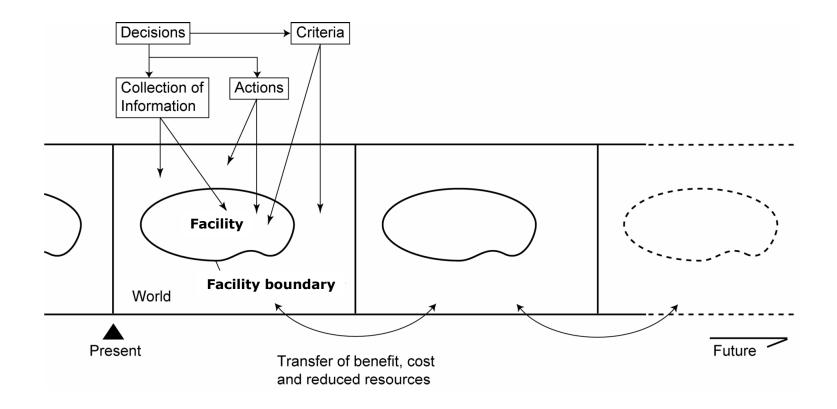
- persons
- qualities of the environment

Feasibility and optimality

Feasible, optimal and acceptable decisions may be identified from



System modelling





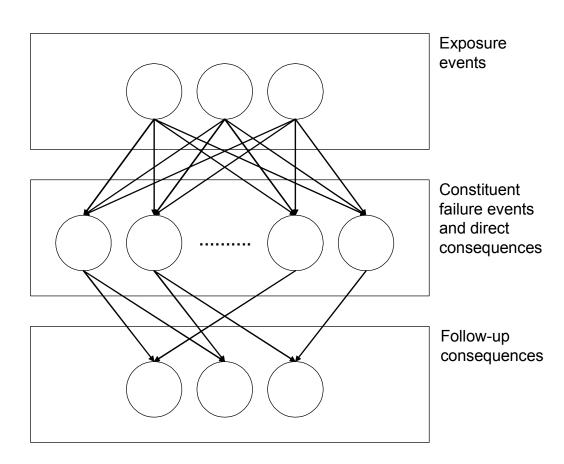
Knowledge and uncertainty

Remember that all uncertainties must be considered when the expected value of the utility is assessed

- aleatory
- epistemic

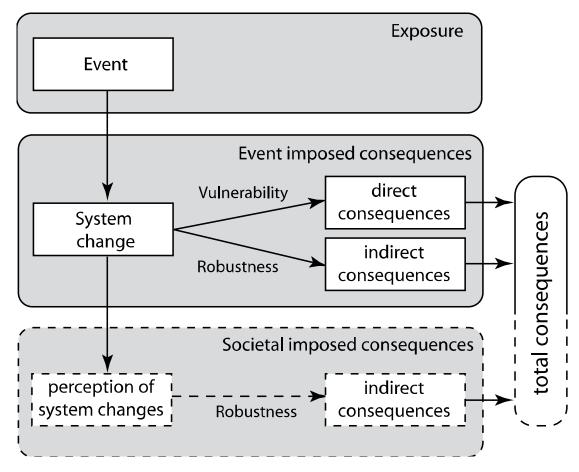
It is important to address the possibility of the existence of different system hypotheses – and take this into account in the decision problem

System representation – scenarios of events

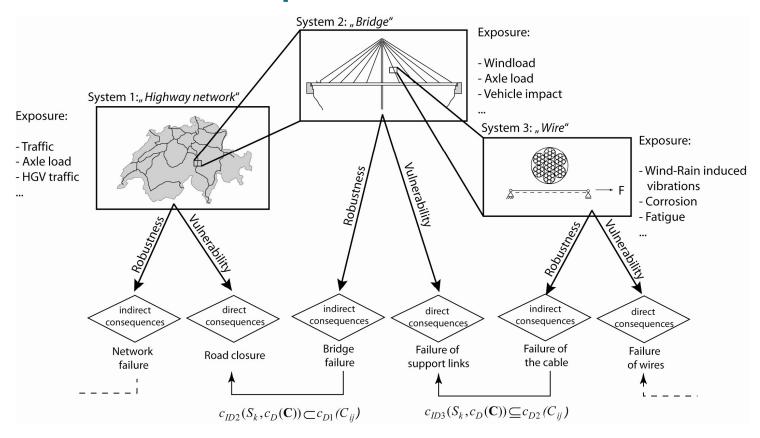


System representation must be refined enough to enable a comparison of the risks or benefits of different decision alternatives

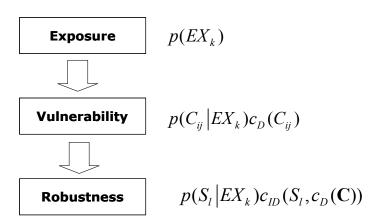
System representation – evolution of consequences



System representation – multiple scales



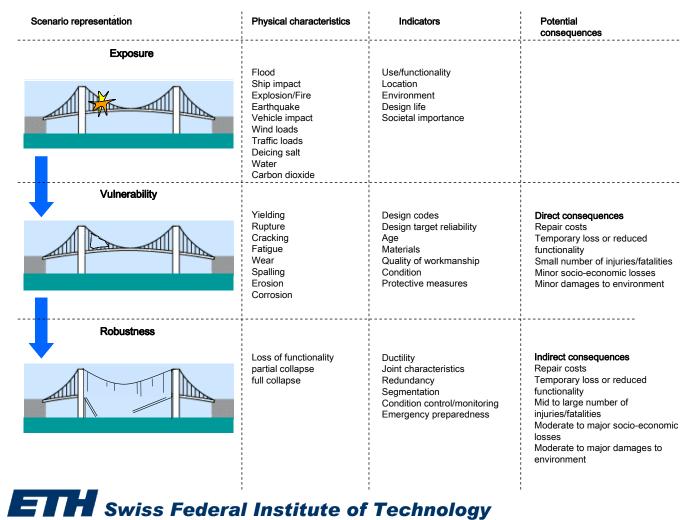
Assessment of risks



Direct risks:
$$R_D = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{EXP}} p(C_{ij} | EX_k) c_D(C_{ij}) p(EX_k)$$

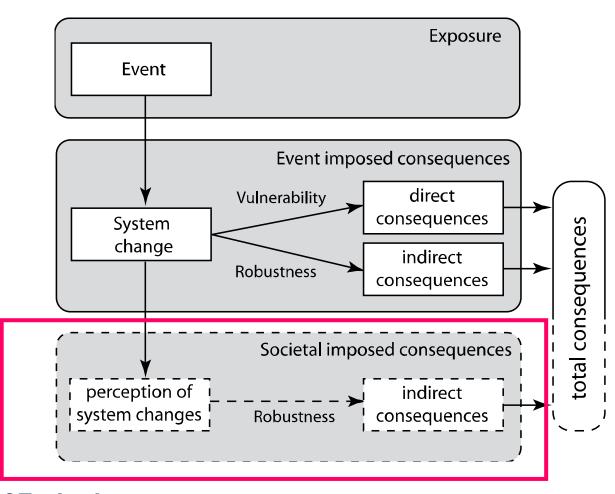
Indirect risks:
$$R_{ID} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{EXP}} \sum_{l=1}^{n_{STA}} p(S_l | EX_k) c_{ID}(S_l, c_D(\mathbf{C})) p(EX_k)$$

Indicators of risks



Risk perception

Due to perception of possible events





Comparison of decision alternatives

Optimal decision alternatives are selected by comparing expected total utility

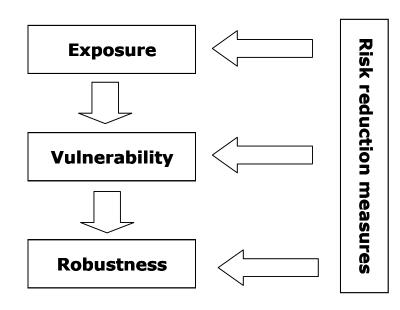
$$\begin{split} E\left[U(a_{j})\right] &= \\ \sum_{k=1}^{n_{EXP}} p(C_{ij} \left| EX_{k}, a_{j} \right) c_{D}(C_{ij}, a_{j}) p(EX_{k}, a_{j}) + \sum_{k=1}^{n_{EXP}} \sum_{l=1}^{n_{STA}} p(S_{l} \left| EX_{k}, a_{j} \right) c_{ID}(S_{l}, c_{D}(\mathbf{C}), a_{j}) p(EX_{k}, a_{j}) \end{split}$$

Discounting

In evaluating the benefit and risk – the time of consequences as well as investments must be taken into account – by discounting

- private discounting should consider long term investment return
- public sector should consider only long term rate of economic growth – presently around 2 percent per annum

- Risk treatment communication and transfer
 - In principle risk may be treated at any level in the systems representation



Collecting more information

Changing the physical characteristics

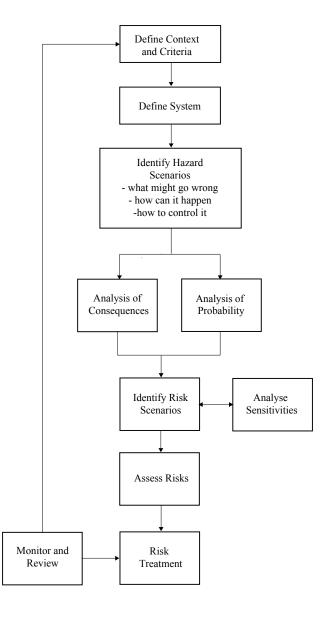
Risk information/communication

Transfer of risks - insurance

The Procedure of Risk Assessment

 Basically the same steps should be performed for any type of facility/application area

Risk assessment procedures are generic





Techniques of System Identification

- Different techniques are available for the purpose of standardizing procedures of systems identification
 - PHA (preliminary hazard analysis)
 - FMEA (failure mode and effect analysis)
 - FMECA (failure mode effect and consequence analysis)
 - HAZOP (hazard and operability analysis)
 - Risk Screening (HAZID meetings)

self study – for further details ©

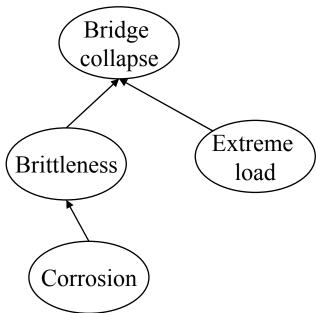
- Different classical tools are available for the quantitative analysis of risks
 - Fault tree analysis
 - Even tree analysis
 - Cause/Consequence charts (a mix of the two above)

Later we will look into an even stronger tool – which is also far more general – namely Bayesian Probabilistic Nets

Fault tree analysis

A state of failure is defined as a top event and by logically interrelated event the sequences of events leading to the top event are modelled

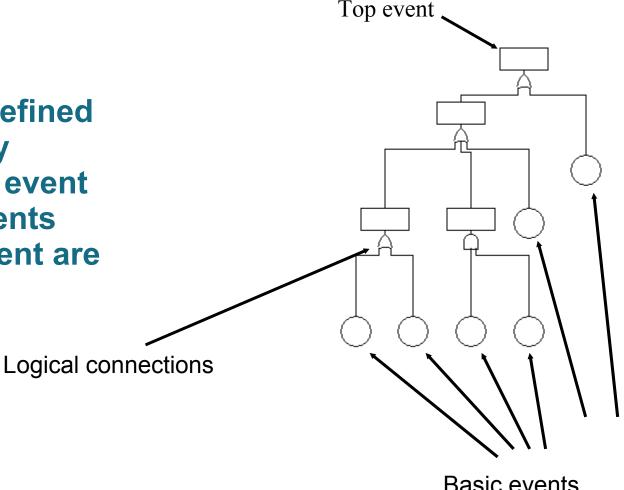




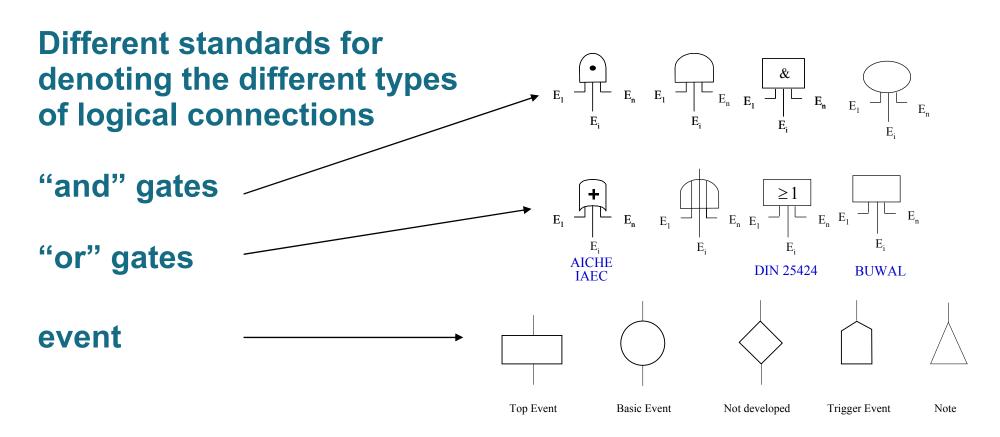


Fault tree analysis

A state of failure is defined as a top event and by logically interrelated event the sequences of events leading to the top event are modelled



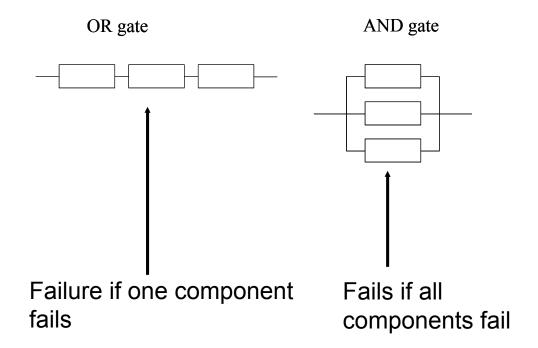
Fault tree analysis



Fault tree analysis

"and" gates will fail only if all components connected fail

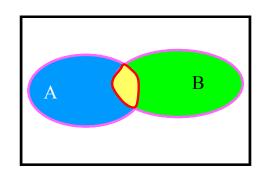
"or" gates will fail if any one of the components connected fail



Fault tree analysis

The probability of gate failure may be calculated easily from

Assumption: component failures are independent



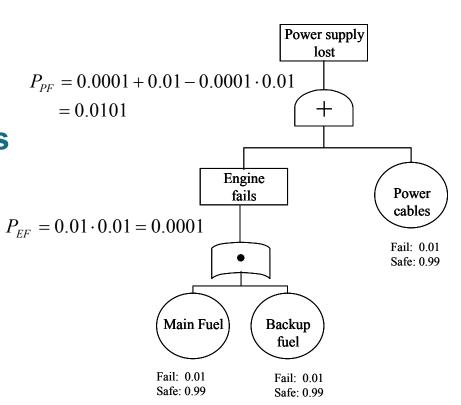
-
$$A \cup B = P(A) + P(B) - P(A)P(B)$$

 $P = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n} (1 - p_i)$

Fault tree analysis

Example: Power Supply System

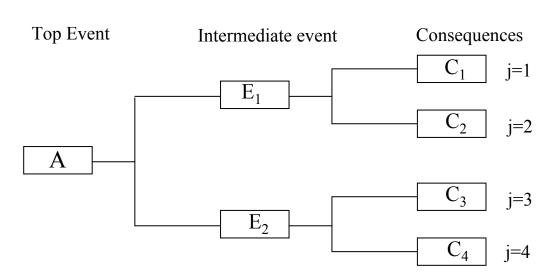
System failure of power supply is lost



Event tree analysis

An event tree typically starts from a top event – and attempts to model the consequences of such an event

propagating the effect of e.g. an exposure or failure event

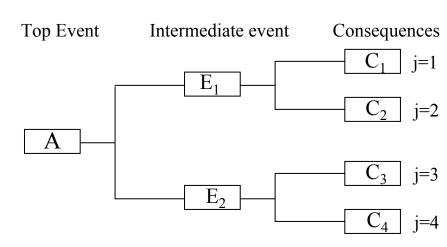


Event tree analysis

Assuming that the events are independent eases analysis – but dependencies must be taken into account!

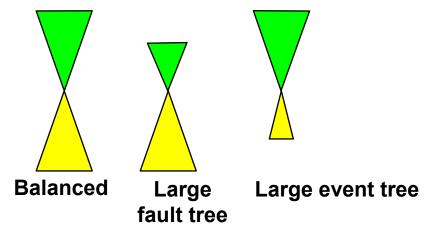
$$P(C_j|A) = \prod_{i=1}^{n_j} P_{ij}$$

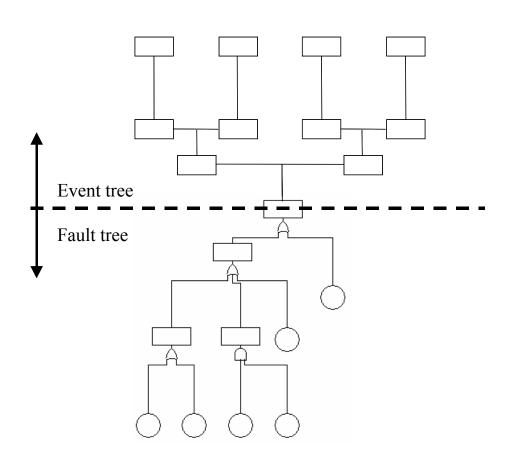
$$P(C_j) = P(A)P(C_j|A) = P(A)\prod_{i=1}^{n_j} P_{ij}$$
Risiko = $R = \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_i P(C_i)$



Event tree analysis

Event trees are often used together with fault trees





Swiss Federal Institute of Technology

Event tree analysis

Example

How is the event of power supply failure propagated to further consequences depending on whether the failure takes place during day or night

