

1 Article

2 Stochastic modeling of forces on jacket-type offshore 3 structures colonized by marine growth

4 Hamed Ameryoun ^{1*}, Franck Schoefs ², Laurent Barillé ³, Yoann Thomas ⁴

5 ¹ Université de Nantes, IXEAD/CAPACITES Society, Nantes, France; hamed.ameryoun@capacites.fr

6 ² Université de Nantes, Research Institute in Civil Engineering and Mechanics - GeM - UMR CNRS 6183, Sea
7 and Littoral research Institute, IUML - FR CNRS 3473Nantes, France; franck.schoefs@univ-nantes.fr

8 ³ Université de Nantes, Mer Molécules Santé EA 2160, Sea and Littoral research Institute, IUML - FR CNRS
9 3473Nantes, France; laurent.barille@univ-nantes.fr; yoann.thomas@ird.fr

10 ⁴ IRD LEMAR - IUEM, rue Dumont d'Urville 29280 Plouzané, France +33 2 98 49 86 43

11 * Correspondence: franck.schoefs@univ-nantes.fr

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13 **Abstract:** The present paper deals with the stochastic modeling of bio-colonization for the
14 computation of stochastic hydrodynamic loading on jacket-type offshore structures. It relies on a
15 multidisciplinary study gathering biological and physical research fields that accounts of
16 uncertainties at all the levels. Indeed, bio-colonization of offshore structures is a complex
17 phenomenon with two major but distinct domains (i) marine biology whose processes are modeled
18 with biomathematics methods and (ii) hydrodynamic processes. This paper aims to connect these
19 two domains. It proposes a stochastic model for the marine organism's growth and then continues
20 with transfers for assessment of drag coefficient and forces probability density functions that
21 accounts for marine growth evolution. A case study relies on the characteristics (growth and shape)
22 of the blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) in northeastern Atlantic.

23 **Keywords:** marine growth; biofouling; wave loading; stochastic modeling; reliability; jacket
24 structures
25

26 1. Introduction

27 Actual challenges for requalification of existing offshore structures through the reassessment
28 process emphasizes the importance of updating information about the state of structural safety. One
29 of the most important phases during the design or re-assessment level is a re-evaluation of
30 environmental loads and updating data concerning the state of biocolonization, structural damage,
31 and corrosion. The random nature of biofouling and the uncertainty inherent to biological processes
32 make modeling of environmental loading complicated. Biofouling is a complex phenomenon
33 involving a diversity of marine species, which constitute communities whose dynamic is driven by
34 physical and biological processes. It has many negative impacts on offshore structures such as
35 loading excess, structures occlusion, increase in drag coefficient, and corrosion. Therefore, it
36 represents a challenge for engineers with respect to design and maintenance programs. Several
37 standardized methods of inspections and *in-situ* measurements of the marine growth have been
38 developed to obtain relevant information about species composition, percent cover, weight,
39 thickness and roughness allowing the determination of structural design, cleaning and maintenance
40 strategies. Biocolonization processes show spatial and temporal variations related to several
41 environmental factors (water temperature, hydrodynamics, turbidity, distance from the shore,
42 bottom characteristics) acting at regional and local scales. However, the results are often more
43 qualitative than quantitative and suffer from a lack of consistent modeling for structural engineers
44 except when a big database is available. Cost-effective, safety management of offshore structures
45 involves allocating the optimal amount of resources to periodical inspections and maintenance
46 activities in order to control risks (expected life of the structure). The present paper considers the

47 biocolonization as a cumulative deterioration process and defines two phases for it: an initiation
48 phase and a propagation phase. It reviews meta-models, describes database construction which
49 consists of the influencing factors. It proposes a stochastic modeling of biofouling based on
50 non-stationary, state-dependent Gamma process for the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis*. The developed
51 Gamma process provides individual shell length time series for blue mussels in the first year of
52 colonization. The results reveal that the method can capture the distribution and especially extreme
53 values of observed shell length. Thereafter, the study focuses on the drag term of the Morison's
54 equation. It reviews a response surface method to model the drag force as well as the effect of
55 physical characteristics of structural members such as surface roughness (k) and average thickness of
56 marine growth (Th). Moreover, the drag force exerted by extreme waves for colonized structural
57 members during the typical macro-colonization years is determined. The probabilistic
58 macro-colonization, shell length time-series considering the occurrence probability of typical
59 macro-colonization years are provided. The evolution of the drag coefficient with regard to the
60 probabilistic shell length time series is evaluated and the results are discussed.

61 The growth of marine organisms on offshore structures has long been a significant issue for the
62 oil and gas industry ([1]-[2]). In the 70's and 80's, studies focused on the effect of biofouling on
63 hydrodynamic forces acting on offshore structures. Numerous experimental studies were carried
64 out with different types of marine growth, cylinder diameter, and hydrodynamic conditions to
65 provide a better understanding of their interactions with hydrodynamic forces and to highlight the
66 key relationships. Despite the great variability due to the complexity and instabilities of the flow
67 regime around structures, abacus were built and are still recommended by offshore standards such
68 as API [3] and DNV [4]. Only a few studies considered the global modeling of the loading in a
69 probabilistic context ([5]; [6]) and none of them consider the modeling of the organismal growth
70 itself. In fact, there are few available databases containing on-site measurements with time ([7]; [8]).
71 This paper proposes a modeling of characteristics of the external marine growth layer consistent
72 with structural engineering needs. As the first year is crucial for future colonization patterns, we
73 focused here on the building of the first layer of biofouling by a macro-fouler. The blue mussel
74 *Mytilus edulis* was considered for the modeling, as it is an ubiquitous bio-fouler in European waters
75 ([9]; [10]).

76 A biological model based on the Dynamic Energy Budget (DEB) theory ([11]; [12]) was used to
77 simulate the variations of individual mussel shell size depending on environmental data. A
78 case-study site was chosen offshore the Loire Estuary (France) corresponding to a future offshore
79 wind farm site. In order to model the colonization during the first year, two main phases of
80 bio-colonization were considered: 1) an initiation phase without any macro-fouling on the structure
81 and 2) a propagation phase or macro-colonization phase, corresponding to the growth of mussels.
82 The key influencing factors affecting these two stages were hydrological data (water temperature
83 and chlorophyll-a concentration, as proxy of mussel food). Mussel growth was used to derive two
84 geometrical characteristics describing marine growth: average thickness (Th) and surface roughness
85 (k). A case study is considered in view to illustrate the role of these biofouling geometrical variables
86 on the computation of hydrodynamic forces (drag force) for colonized structures and study the
87 effect of bio-colonization on the drag force.

88
89 The next step was to shift from this deterministic approach to a full probabilistic context. A
90 non-stationary state-dependent Gamma process ([13]; [14]) was therefore developed to model the
91 mussel colonization of the first year. As far as the authors know, it is the first time that
92 bio-colonization is considered as a consecutive stochastic jumps governed by a gamma process. In
93 order to obtain geometrical characteristics of colonized surfaces, state-dependent non-stationary
94 Gamma process generated individual shell length growths trajectories for blue mussels in the first
95 colonization year with a probabilistic approach. The parameters of the state-dependent
96 non-stationary Gamma process were estimated after identification of key environmental factors.
97 Modeling individual shell growth as a cumulative degradation phenomenon during the
98 colonization process was used to compute the biofouling geometrical variables (Th and k). Finally,

99 the effect of blue mussel colonization on the evolution of drag coefficient and loading exerted by the
100 extreme waves was analyzed. It should be noted that the added mass and inertia forces are beyond
101 the scope of this paper.

102 The objective of this work is to propose a meta-model, which combines different disciplinary
103 approaches accounting for several types of uncertainty and variability amongst: (a) the temporal
104 variability of the main influencing environmental factors; (b) the biological uncertainty of the
105 individual's growth; (c) the uncertainty due to the modeling of geometrical parameters of structural
106 components caused by biofouling and needed for structural computations; (d) the uncertainty of
107 wave characteristics to compute the loading on structural components. To propagate the
108 uncertainty, a physical matrix response surface was used in view to provide a probabilistic model of
109 the environmental loading on jacket type offshore structures based on Schoefs & Boukinda (2010)
110 [1]. This method was applied for quasi-static calculations of wave forces in presence of marine
111 growth.

112 2. Materials and Methods

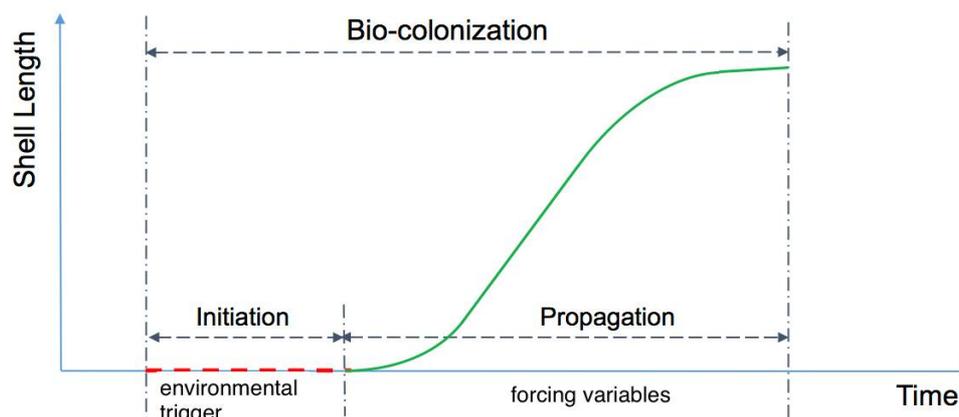
113 2.1 Requirements for a meta-model

114 To develop the macro-colonization model for structural computation several properties should
115 be considered: the main trends of growth with time should be captured using time step compatible
116 with sensitivity to input parameters; it should be sensitive to the environmental parameters that
117 govern the ecophysiology of the biofouling: temperature and food availability; it should provide
118 intermediate parameters (shell size) from which required outputs can be easily computed
119 (roughness and thickness) to perform a reliability analysis (stochastic processes); it should be
120 versatile to modify the trends depending on site specificity. The next sections detail the way these
121 requirements have been taken into account in this work.

122 2.2 Description of bio-colonization temporal dynamic

123 Bio-colonization is a complex process depending on biotic and abiotic variables with many
124 interactions ([15]; [16]). Actually, it would be unrealistic to envisage a complete model involving a
125 multilayer of various marine organisms that have complex interactions for survival, growth, and
126 reproduction. We propose here a model that accounts for the temporal variability of the main
127 influencing factors in a simplified but realistic case. It focuses on the growth of a single species, the
128 blue mussel *Mytilus edulis*.

129 The bio-colonization process depends on two early stages: (1) the reproduction of adults, which
130 spawn in the water column and produce larvae that will become part of the plankton transported by
131 currents; (2) larval survival and development in the water column. The bio-colonization itself starts
132 with the larval settlement on a structure (micro-colonization) and corresponds mainly to the
133 macro-colonization step i.e. growth of individuals up to the adult state. It is important to estimate
134 the spawning date(s) and to assess the conditions allowing larval survival. This is a prerequisite
135 before modeling macro-colonization. Consequently, the model needs to take into account (1) an
136 initiation phase (no macro-organism present on the structures) with no significant effect on
137 structural reliability and (2) propagation phase corresponding to the growth of macro-organisms
138 (Figure 1). With these two phases, an analogy can be made with the dynamic of degradation
139 processes like corrosion of steel rebars in reinforced concrete [17]. In this study, we considered that
140 the larval settlement corresponds to the beginning of the propagation phase.



141
142 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of bio-colonization phases and their influencing parameters.
143

144 The model should be able to capture the initiation phase and then simulate a propagation phase
145 (macro-colonization). The latter allows for obtaining the individual size and accordingly the physical
146 characteristics of the colonized surface needed for the hydrodynamic calculations [6]. The initiation
147 phase includes spawning date, larval survival, development, and settlement. We considered that
148 this phase was mainly driven by temperature while the propagation phase (macro-colonization)
149 corresponding to the juvenile growth was driven by both, the temperature and the concentration of
150 chlorophyll-a, proxy of the food available in the water column for mussels. These drivers are related
151 to the bivalve ecophysiology, which is detailed in the following paragraph.

152 2.3 Description of bio-colonization temporal dynamic

153 The blue mussel *Mytilus edulis* was chosen to develop a simplified (single organism
154 colonization) but realistic bio-colonization model for the North-Atlantic coasts. *M. edulis* is an
155 ubiquitous and abundant species in the coastal waters of the North and Mid-Atlantic Regions [18],
156 and has been reported as a main macro-colonizer of offshore structures ([19]; [20]). When found as a
157 dominant hard fouler, it has an influence on the composition of external layer of marine growth [15].
158 It is a suspension-feeding bivalve that attaches to substrata by byssal threads and is traditionally
159 cultivated on ropes or wooden poles on the Western Atlantic coasts [21]. *M. edulis* is eurythermal
160 (adaptable to a wide range of temperatures) and under the latitude of our case-study site, is well
161 acclimated to a 5 to 20°C temperature range [22]. It is very common in the intertidal area forming
162 beds on rocky and hard substrates but can be found in subtidal environment down to -10 m. Mussels
163 feed on suspended particulate matter and their main food resource is phytoplankton cells ([23]-[25]).
164 Phytoplankton is also considered as the dominant food source for all life stages of *M. edulis* since
165 larvae also rely on phytoplankton for their development. The concentration of chlorophyll-a is a
166 widely used proxy of phytoplankton biomass, and this variable was used in this study to assess the
167 food available for the mussel's growth. For more details on *M. edulis* morphology, physiology and
168 ecology, the reader is referred to Gosling (2003) [21].

169 2.4 Initiation phase and propagation phases

170 The spawning date, larval survival, and development are the most important stages for the
171 initiation phase modeling. Blue mussels, like the majority of shallow water bivalves, produce large
172 numbers of pelagic planktotrophic larvae that spend several weeks in the surface waters [25]. *M.*
173 *edulis* sexes are separated and gametes are shed into the water where fecundation occurs. At the
174 latitude of the study site, mussels can spawn up to three times a year from April to September
175 successively, depending on environmental factors. In bivalves, an essential condition related to
176 spawning is a thermic threshold corresponding to a minimum water temperature [26]. Indeed, the
177 temperature is the strongest exogenous factor controlling *M. edulis* reproduction [21]. In this work,
178 we considered only the spring period when the mussel producers submerge ropes to collect
179 planktonic larvae. In Pertuis Breton, which is the closest area to our study site, Barillé-Boyer (1996)

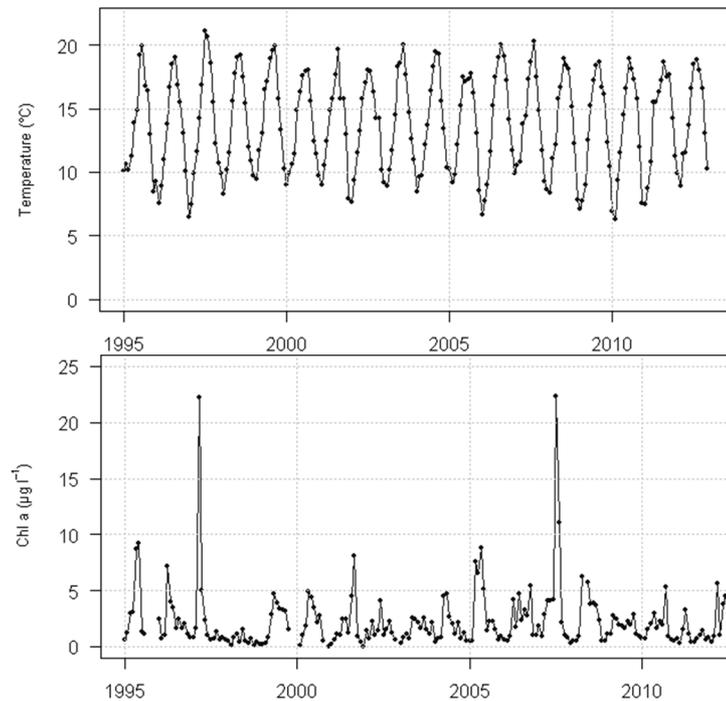
180 [22] found a threshold of 10.5 °C and it has been considered that spawning was not triggered below
181 this temperature. Above this temperature, the spawning dates are not modeled but forced with
182 observed datasets [24]. In this study, observations from mussel producers are used. A 30-day
183 interval between two spawning was adopted in relation to the mussel gametogenesis dynamic. This
184 delay is linked to the time necessary to reconstitute reproductive tissues [22]. Other exogenous
185 factors such as storms, shock, rain, etc., which can randomly trigger bivalve's spawning, were not
186 considered. The second important step following spawning is the larval survival and development.
187 For mussels, Bayne (1965) [27] observed that *M. edulis* larvae could reach its development within 20
188 to 40 days, depending on the temperature. A slower (S) larval growth and metamorphosis can take
189 40 days if spawning happened in early spring with the water temperature of around 10°C, while a
190 faster (F) larval development of around 20 days is possible at a higher temperature of 14°C [22].
191 Therefore, it was considered that if during the next 20 days after spawning water temperature was >
192 14°C, larvae survival and development was completed in 20 days, otherwise in 40 days. For each
193 year in our database, the spawning occurrence times and initiation phase typologies are determined
194 by post-processing the temperature time-series.

195 As mentioned before geometrical parameters (thickness and roughness) are required for load
196 computation. They depend on geometrical specifications (shape) of organisms colonizing the
197 structure. In this study, these parameters are linked to the shell length of blue mussel individuals.
198 Shell growth of blue mussel has an asymmetric sigmoid shape curve ([28]; [29]). The growth rate of
199 blue mussel individuals is, therefore, neither monotonic nor stationary, and the growth curve can be
200 described by the acceleration and deceleration phases (Figure A1, in appendix A). No clear
201 relationship between the individual shell growth and the water temperature has been observed,
202 while the concentration of chlorophyll-a appeared to be the main driver. This observation is
203 consistent with several studies showing that the food supply was the most important variable
204 explaining mussel growth ([30]-[32]).

205 2.5 Database post-treatment, Virtual database, and aggregation of influencing factors

206 2.5.1 Environmental data at the case-study site

207 In order to model the initiation and propagation phases, water temperature and chlorophyll-a
208 (*Chl. a*) concentrations were obtained for the site of Le Croisic (47°17'33" N, 2°31'15" W) western
209 Atlantic coast of France. This location was chosen for its proximity to the future offshore wind farm
210 site of Banc de Guérande (47°19'41" N, 2°25'46" W). Data were collected by the French Phytoplankton
211 Monitoring Network (REPHY) implemented and managed by the French Research Institute for the
212 Exploitation of the Sea (Ifremer). Bimonthly samples were collected at sub-surface depth (between 0
213 and 1 m) during high tides between 1996 and 2012 (Figure 2). Chlorophyll a display higher
214 concentration between March to June corresponding to the spring phytoplanktonic bloom
215 characteristic of northern hemisphere temperate waters. In 2004, a single spring peak was observed,
216 while in 1996, three peaks of lower concentrations were detected. It should be noted that the water
217 temperature cannot change abruptly in a short time. For an overview of the REPHY network, the
218 reader is directed to Hernández Fariñas (2015) [33] and Hernández Fariñas et al., (2013) [34].



219

220 **Figure 2.** Inter-annual variations (1996 - 2012) of water temperature (°C), and chlorophyll-a (chl a, µg L⁻¹) at Le
 221 Croisic sampling station (Loire-Atlantique, France). Data from Ifremer/Quadrigue/Rephy©.

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In order to model bio-colonization and to standardize the time intervals of data acquisition, each month has been divided into three 10-days periods. The database used hereafter has been therefore constructed from periodic observations at established time intervals τ equal to 10 days. It should be noted that the water temperature could not change abruptly in each 10-days period. The number of the database time-series [Year Time-step] is defined by N , representing the number of years for which the database base has been prepared, and t , which represents the number of observations each year depending on the data acquisition time intervals τ ; in our case $N=17$, $t=37$ and $\tau=10$. The long-term time-variant modeling of input factors being out of the scope of this work, we assumed that N is statistically sufficient for computing the frequency of each macro-colonization scenario. Therefore, the database has been constituted from the regular measurements of water temperature (T) and $Chl. a$ (C), and can be denoted as:

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$$\left\{ \left(T_{t,\tau}^i, C_{t,\tau}^i \right); t \geq 0, i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket \right\} \quad (1)$$

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Hereafter, $T_{t,\tau}^i$ is used for the initiation phase determination and $C_{t,\tau}^i$ for the modeling of the propagation phase. Four types of larval development combining the slow (S) and fast (F) growth possibilities are presented in the Table 1 for the three initiation times (corresponding to the three spawning periods) obtained from the database considering key factors and thresholds described in the previous section. The first larval development is always slow due to water temperature below 14°C during early spring, and the third one can be slow only if the second one is also slow (because the water temperature cannot fluctuate abruptly). These results come from the natural seasonal variations of temperature during one year. These frequencies will be considered as discrete probabilities for the modeling. At the end of this larval growth period, we considered that larvae settled on the structures, and that was the start of the propagation phase (macro-colonization) described in Table 1 for the 17 annual chronicles.

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247 **Table 1.** Inter-annual development types for three main spawning events (S: slow initiation phase, F: fast
248 initiation phase)

Development type	Occurrence	Probability
SSS	2	0.12
SSF	10	0.59
SFS	0	0.00
SFF	5	0.29

249

250 Table 2 shows the date of start of macro-colonization, expressed in 10-days periods (1 = first 10
251 days of January), for three main spawning events of blue mussel between March and June.
252 Occurrence and probability were calculated from the 17-year time-series of temperature data at the
253 study site. Calculations revealed that macro-colonization starting date spanned from the 11th to the
254 20th 10-days period. The most probable macro-colonization inception times for the three spawning
255 events corresponded to the combination of 10-days periods of 12-15-16 and 13-16-17 with 18%
256 probability. The first macro-colonization inception occurred between the 11th and the 16th 10-days
257 periods with the highest probability of 29% for 11th period and the lowest probability of 6% for the
258 16th period. The second macro-colonization inception occurred between the 14th and 17th periods
259 with the lowest probability of 12% for the latter. The third macro-colonization inception occurred
260 between the 17th and the 20th periods with the highest probability of 35% for the 17th period and the
261 lowest (6%) for the 20st.

262 **Table 2.** Date of start of macro-colonization, expressed in 10-days periods, for three main spawning events
263 of blue mussel.

Start of macro-colonization			Occurrence	Probability
11	14	15	2	0.12
11	14	17	2	0.12
11	15	16	1	0.06
12	15	16	1	0.18
13	14	17	1	0.06
13	16	17	3	0.18
14	15	18	1	0.06
14	17	18	1	0.06
15	16	19	2	0.12

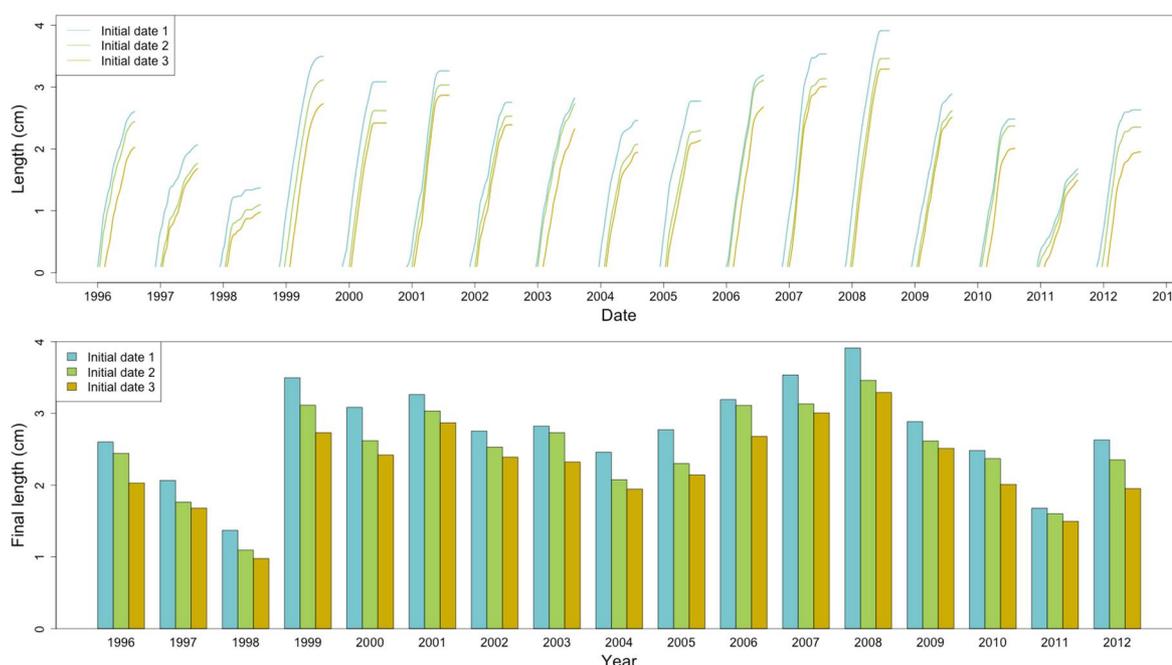
264 2.5.2 Environmental data at the case-study site

265 There was no observation available for blue mussel shell lengths close to our study site and
266 more generally, no database for the annual growth of mussels during the considered 17-year period.
267 To fill this gap, we applied a bioenergetics growth model to simulate the individual shell length
268 using environmental time-series data available at the study site. Different bioenergetics models have
269 been developed to model the growth of bivalves depending on the environmental conditions, and
270 among them, Dynamic Energy Budget (DEB) models [11] have been successfully applied to several
271 bivalve species ([24]; [35]-[38]). DEB models do not use empirical allometric relationships, but
272 simply state that feeding is proportional to surface area, whereas maintenance is scaled according to
273 structural body volume [11]. DEB theory proposes a generic energy budget approach that assumes

274 common physiological processes among species and life stages via a set of parameters, the only
 275 difference among species lying in the values of those parameters.

276 In this study, we used the DEB model developed by Thomas et al. (2011) [31] to simulate the
 277 growth of *Mytilus edulis* in the Mont Saint-Michel Bay. A single parameter, the half-saturation
 278 coefficient of the food ingestion function term (XK) had to be adjusted to local hydrologic and
 279 trophic conditions. For our study, the half-saturation coefficient was calibrated at $2.9 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ from
 280 growth data by Garen et al. (2004). Simulations started for 1 mm individuals (0.02 g of Dry Flesh
 281 Mass - DFM), a biometry corresponding to post-settled organisms. Results of the calibration are
 282 presented in Figure A2 in Appendix A. A good level of agreement between observations and
 283 simulations was obtained for shell length and dry flesh mass, a biological variable often used in
 284 bioenergetics models to assess the consistency of the simulations.

285 The model was then used to obtain individual growth trajectories with the 17-year time-series
 286 of *Chl. a* concentration measured at Le Croisic (Loire-Atlantique, France). Three starting dates were
 287 chosen, corresponding to the three spawning events and related macro-colonization starting dates
 288 (Figure 3).

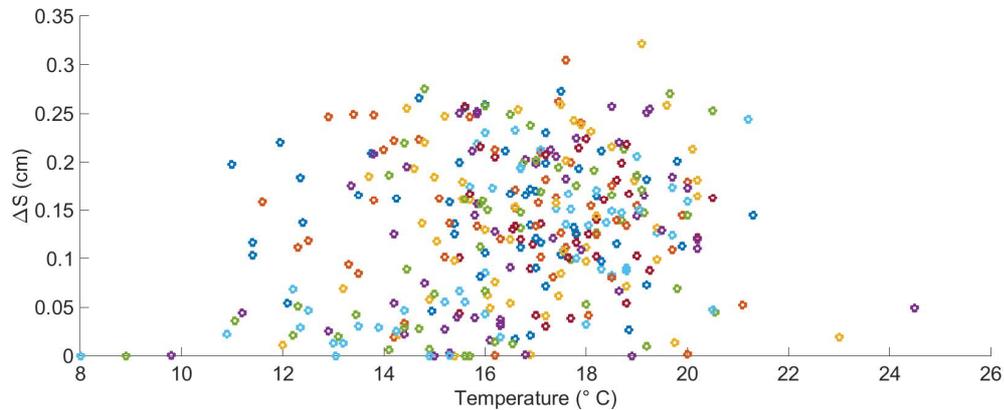


289
 290 **Figure 3.** (a) Individual annual shell length trajectories simulated by a mussel DEB model and (b)
 291 corresponding final length.

292 2.6 The relation between environmental factors, growth, and the start of macro-colonization

293 The Gamma process simulates increments for each time interval of τ which correspond here to
 294 variations in mussel shell length ($\Delta S_{i,\tau}$). The parameterization of the function can integrate the
 295 environmental variables. Temperature is a variable of the DEB model, but *Chl. a* concentration is the
 296 main driver of growth. It was therefore decided to parameterize the Gamma process only with *Chl. a*.
 297 However, due to potential coupled effects between temperature and *Chl. a*, we analyzed the
 298 correlation between temperature and growth over the time-series. From ΔS obtained from DEB
 299 simulations, the scatter diagram of ΔS vs. temperature showed that there was no significant
 300 correlation between these two variables with a Pearson correlation coefficient $\rho=0.21$ (Figure 4). On
 301 the contrary, there was a structured relationship between growth and *Chl. a* (Figure 5). It can be
 302 noted that uncertainty increases when *Chl. a* increases. Moreover, there is a ΔS plateau showing that
 303 the capability of an individual to grow is limited whatever the additional food supply: a

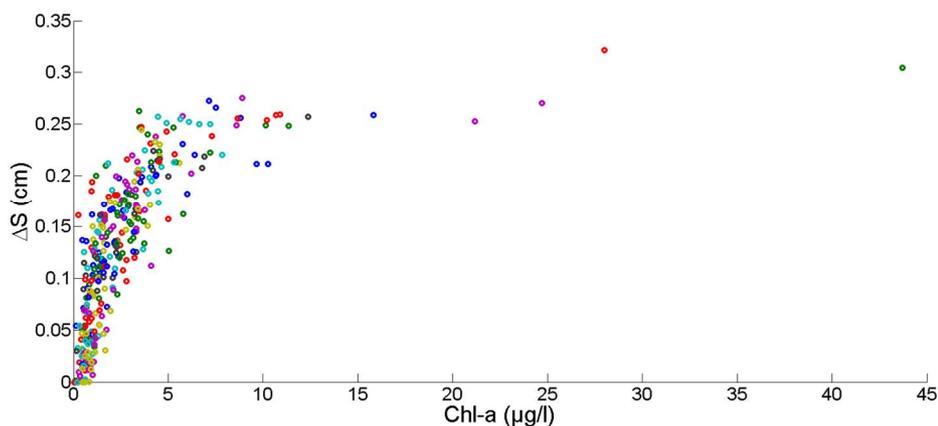
304 concentration higher than $8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ does not lead to larger ΔS . This is due to a well-described
 305 physiological phenomenon of maximum somatic growth in bivalves ([39]; [40]).



306

307 **Figure 4.** Scatter diagram of the variations of mussel shell length (ΔS) vs. temperature for 10 days periods
 308 during the 17-year time series (each color represents a year of the 1996-2012 time-series).

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310

311 **Figure 5.** Scatter diagram of the variations of mussel shell length (ΔS) vs. Chlorophyll a for 10 days periods
 312 during the 17-year time series (each color represents a year of the 1996-2012 time-series).

313

314 The relationship between the start of macro-colonization and the concentration of *Chl. a* is
 315 presented in Figure A3 in Appendix A. There is no significant correlation between these two
 316 variables with a Pearson correlation coefficient $\rho = -0.02$. This property is of first importance, as it will
 317 govern the simulation strategy. Simulation of inception times (start of macro-colonization) requires
 318 temperature time-series only and the modeling of mussel growth will be carried out independently
 319 using *Chl. a* time-series.

320 2.7 Chlorophyll data aggregation for growth computation

321 In order to improve the biological consistency of our simulations, we tested the possibility to
 322 link the individual growth of blue mussels to *Chl. a* concentration aggregated over a time-step
 323 instead of using instantaneous values. The integrated value of *Chl. a* was simply defined as:

$$324 \quad C_{(T(i);T(i+n))} = \frac{1}{n} \int_{T(i)}^{T(i+n)} Chl(t) dt, \quad i=1 : 36-n \quad (2)$$

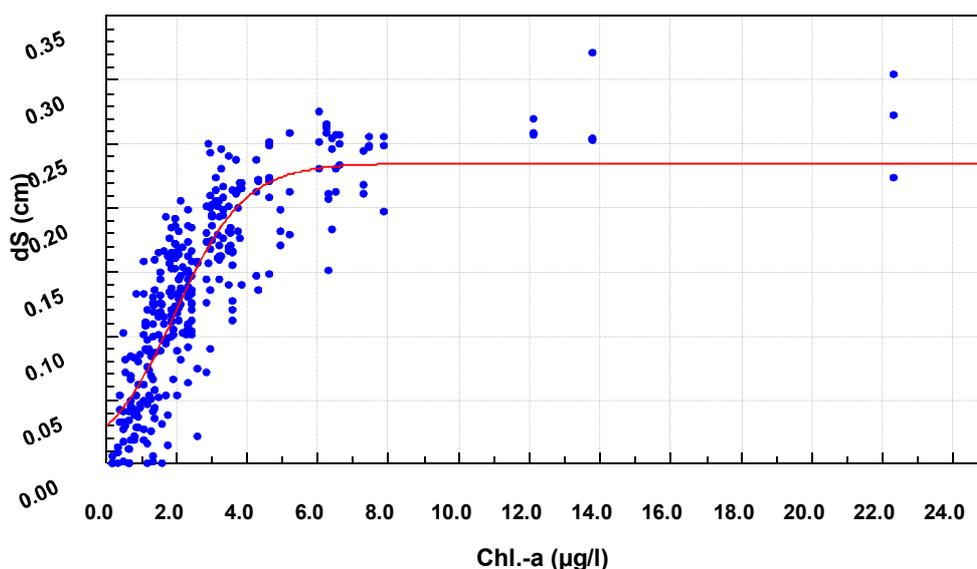
325 where $C(t)$ is the aggregated *Chl. a*; $T(i)$, is a 10-days period and $Chl(t)$, is the linear equation of
 326 *Chl. a* obtained from linear interpolation between adjacent measured values for a colonization

327 period, and n is the number of 10-day time intervals after (i), in which the data aggregation is
 328 performed. The best correlation between ΔS and $Chl. a$ have been obtained for a monthly
 329 aggregation (3-time intervals, $n=2$ in (2)). This time-step preserved the spring bloom typical of the
 330 seasonal dynamic of phytoplankton at the study site latitude.

331 In order to identify the non-linear relationship between growth and $Chl. a$, the non-linear
 332 regression (3) has been fitted (Figure 6):

$$333 \quad \Delta S = \frac{0.235}{1 + 6.94e^{-1.005(Chl.-a)}} \quad (3)$$

334 The ratio of $(d\Delta S / dChl. a) \leq 2\%$ has been chosen as a criterion for stabilization based on slope
 335 variations; this ratio is consistent with the accuracy of the DEB model. A concentration of $Chl. a$ of 8
 336 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ was identified as the threshold beyond which ΔS remained constant at 0.235 cm/ time interval.
 337 The $Chl. a$ time-series was then truncated with the mentioned threshold to significantly improve the
 338 convergence of the Gamma process parameterization, without an important degradation of the
 339 database. Note that this threshold depends on the metabolism of the organism and is, therefore,
 340 species-specific.



341
 342 **Figure 6.** Identification of the chl. a threshold beyond which growth saturation is observed.

343 2.8 Non-stationary modeling of shell growth through stochastic Gamma process

344 2.8.1 Growth approximation through gamma processes meta-models

345 Considering the aforementioned characteristics of the mussel's colonization and in order to
 346 model the temporal dynamic of structure deterioration, a stochastic approach based on Gamma
 347 processes has been selected [41]. Since the introduction of the Gamma process in reliability [42], it
 348 has been used commonly to model stochastic cumulative and uncertain deterioration phenomena
 349 for maintenance optimization of various industrial systems. Indeed, the Gamma process is an
 350 analytically tractable stochastic process accumulating over time in a sequence of positive increments.
 351 Recently, it has been widely used to model cumulative degradation processes such as corrosion,
 352 fatigue, crack growth, creep, degrading health, erosion, and wear in engineering systems and
 353 structures ([13]; [41]; [43]; [44]).

354 The Gamma process is a special case of a non-decreasing jump stochastic process that properly
 355 captures the temporal variability associated with the deterioration dynamic. This justified the choice
 356 of the non-stationary state-dependent Gamma process. The non-stationary Gamma process is a
 357 widely used mathematical model to describe degradation process whose growth rate at time t
 358 depends only on the current state of the parameters and not on the accumulated damage up to t [45].
 359 The complete Gamma process function is defined by two parameters: a shape function α_s and a scale
 360 function β_s (4). We discretized time horizon into equal intervals of length $\tau=10$ days. Then, the
 361 state-dependent non-stationary and bivariate Gamma process was represented as a series of
 362 state-stationary Gamma processes in each time interval. The rate of the deterioration process can
 363 thus be considered as the process resulting from the Gamma process variations from one
 364 time-interval to another. The deterioration increment in a given time interval $\Delta S_{t,\tau}$ has been
 365 considered a random variable with a shape function (α_s) dependent of the present deterioration state
 366 $S_{t,\tau}$ and a second variable, the state of chlorophyll-a concentration $C_{t,\tau}$. Thus, for each time step τ , we
 367 have:

$$368 \quad \forall S_{t,\tau} > 0: S_{t,\tau}, \Delta S_{t,\tau}, \tau: \Delta S(\tau; S_t, C_t) \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_s(S_t, C_t), \tau, \beta_s) \quad (4)$$

369 Where, $S_{t,\tau}$ is the shell length for each time interval of τ and α_s and β_s are the shape and scale
 370 functions of the Gamma process, respectively. To simplify the modeling of this process, it has been
 371 assumed that the scale function β_s was constant and Gamma process was only governed by the
 372 shape function [13].

373 2.8.2 Parameter estimation of the Gamma process (learning phase)

374 In order to simulate the growth of blue mussel submitted to fluctuations of *Chl. a* in each time
 375 interval τ , the parameters of the developed Gamma process have to be estimated. The deterioration
 376 increments have been calculated by the simple subtraction of consecutive individual shell lengths
 377 and the resulting database used for deterioration density estimation is denoted as:

$$378 \quad \left\{ \left(C_{t,\tau}^i, S_{t,\tau}^i, \Delta S_{t,\tau}^i \right); t \geq 0, i \in \llbracket 1, N-1 \rrbracket \right\} \quad (5)$$

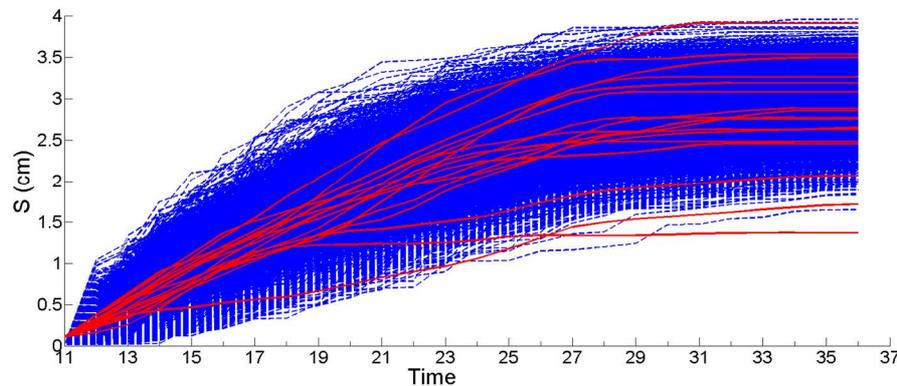
379 Where N is the number of 10-day time periods (in this study $N=17$). In order to estimate the
 380 parameters of the Gamma process, the Expectation-Maximization (EM) method has been employed.
 381 The program starts by scanning the database and indexes the values of $C(t)$ and $S(t)$ time-series; then
 382 using the observed data, initial parameters are estimated and used to start an iterative EM
 383 algorithm. The Gamma process parameters have been estimated and determined as:

$$384 \quad \Delta S(\tau; S_t, C_t) \sim \Gamma(\alpha_s = (0.198 + 1.68 C_t) \times \exp\left(\frac{-(S_t - 0.44)^2}{6.512}\right), \beta_s = 0.039) \quad (6)$$

385 2.8.3 Parameter estimation of the Gamma process (learning phase)

386 Once the Gamma process has been estimated, the DEB data are not needed anymore and we
 387 can use the *Chl. a* database to predict the growth rate of mussels. The macro-colonization can be then
 388 simulated with the Gamma process function (6) and considering the *Chl. a* database for 10 typical
 389 macro-colonization years from the 17-year time-series. We considered this database to be
 390 representative of the dispersion and respecting the frequency of the main phenomena and their
 391 consequences of a richer database. Thus, each environmental input (*Chl. a* time-series $C(t)$) is
 392 considered with the same weight as growth uncertainty (biological process). The 5000 simulated
 393 growth curves obtained by the Gamma process and individual growth curves simulated with the
 394 DEB model are compared in Figure 7. Each growth curve is simulated from one realization of the
 395 Gamma process with *Chl. a* randomly sampled from the 17-year time-series database: uncertainties
 396 for *Chl. a*. and simulation of S at a given time have herein the same weight. After one year of growth,
 397 mussel shell length time-series $S(t)$ simulated with the Gamma process encompassed the extreme
 398 values obtained with the DEB model. At the beginning of the simulations, a higher variability was

399 observed with the Gamma process; this would lead to conservative estimations of marine growth
 400 characteristics colonizing the structure. From an engineering purpose, it is essential to reach a good
 401 representation of the distribution of maximum values of S , which is the case here.

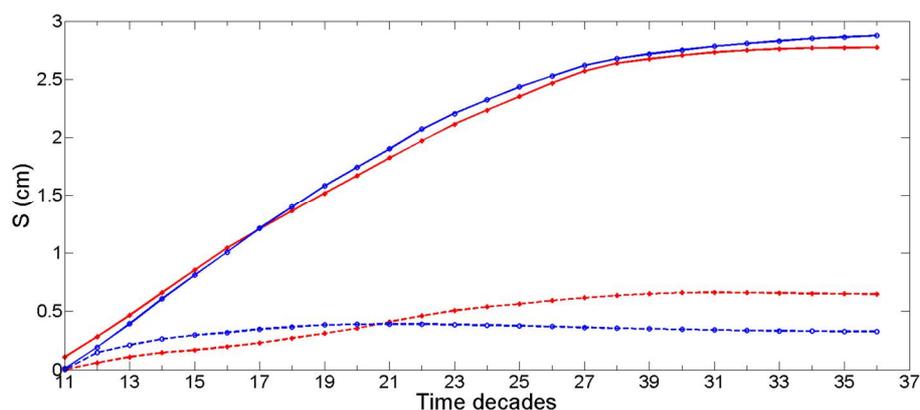


402

403 **Figure 7.** Individual growth trajectories obtained with the DEB model for each year of the 17-year time series
 404 (solid red lines) compared with simulated individual growth obtained with the Gamma process approach
 405 (dotted blue lines). Time unit represents 10-day periods.

406

407 Note that the Gamma process model accounts for stabilization of shell growth during one or
 408 several time steps: that phenomenon is observed in the DEB simulation and actually represents a
 409 lack of available food. To complete this statistical analysis, the average and the standard deviation of
 410 individual shell length curves are presented in Figure 8. They were similar for both methods
 411 throughout the simulation period. The Gamma process simulations were a bit conservative in terms
 412 of shell length overestimation. The standard deviation curves showed differences between the two
 413 approaches. This may be due to the choice of the constant scale parameter β_s , which controls the
 414 response dispersion of the Gamma process. Note that there is also a statistical bias when estimating
 415 standard deviation from DEB time-series due to the limited amount of data (17 trajectories).



416

417 **Figure 8.** Comparison of average and standard deviation (dashed lines) of shell length from Gamma process
 418 (blue lines) and DEB model (red lines). Time unit represents 10-day periods.

419 2.9 Effect of marine growth and hydrodynamic forces on Jackets

420 From the structural point of view, marine growth may affect dynamical behavior, resistance to
 421 fatigue or extreme loading. We focused here on the latter. Offshore platforms are generally gathered
 422 in two families: bottom fixed and floating. Many works studied the effect of marine growth and
 423 hydrodynamic forces on components (cylindrical beams) of fixed steel framed offshore structures
 424 called jackets for which the component diameter (1 m) is small in comparison with wavelength
 425 during storms (100-400 m). This type being, on the one hand, the most popular in oil and gas

426 industry and also for offshore wind turbines substation, and on the other hand very sensitive to
427 marine growth (fatigue and extreme loading). The analysis of marine growth effect on
428 hydrodynamic forces could be categorized into two groups as follows:

429 (i) experimental modeling of hydrodynamic forces for cylinders with different roughness
430 conditions ([46]; [47]). Recent studies are mostly concentrated on the water particles velocity and
431 acceleration measurement techniques.

432 (ii) evaluation of hydrodynamic forces by physical modeling of marine growth characteristics
433 obtained from in-situ measurements ([6]; [48]). These studies were based on inspections carried out
434 during survey campaigns. They advocate guidelines for the probabilistic modeling of hydrodynamic
435 forces at a given time. Biofouling database has been analyzed to propose a model of marine growth
436 evolution and update design criterion. A physical response surface matrix has been proposed in
437 order to provide a probabilistic modeling of the environmental loading on jacket type offshore
438 structures. The key parameter is the increase of structural diameter due to the marine growth
439 thickness.

440 In the present study, we are considering the non-linear effect of the roughness of marine growth
441 on the loading during a yearly growth. The results from laboratory studies focused mainly (i) on the
442 regular shape of marine growth and homogeneous colonization around the cylinder and (ii) on
443 mean thickness. Moreover, for time computation constraints (stochastic simulations of wave and
444 marine growth) and because it allows introducing explicitly the role of marine growth, we used the
445 Morison modeling [49] for which the link between homogeneous roughness and loading is available.
446 Roughness being non-homogeneous and random in reality, an uncertainty was added.

447 2.9.1 Effect of marine growth on Morison's equation

448 Usually, the Morison's model [49] is used to estimate hydrodynamic forces on tubular offshore
449 structures like jackets, using the particle kinematics obtained from the wave heights and periods. It
450 should be noted that for the jacket structures the Morison's equation is valid because the structural
451 diameters (D) are small compared to wavelengths λ ($D/\lambda < 0.2$). It can be employed from medium to
452 deep-water depth [49]. It has been shown to be very appropriate for an expansion in the stochastic
453 domain [48]. It is denoted as:

$$454 F_{Morison} = F_D + F_I = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_D D u |u| + C_m \frac{\rho \pi D^2}{4} \dot{u} \quad (7)$$

455 Where, F is hydrodynamic force per unit length of the member (N/m), F_D is the drag force per
456 unit length of the member (N/m), F_I is inertia force per unit length of the member (N/m), C_D is the
457 drag coefficient, C_M is inertia coefficient, ρ is the density of water, D is member diameter (m), u is
458 velocity of wave's water particles (m/s), \dot{u} is the acceleration of wave's water particles (m/s^2). u and \dot{u}
459 are computed by the Stoke's model [50] from the knowledge of metocean data: wave height H and
460 period T .

461 Generally, the inertia term of the mentioned equation becomes important for small waves or for
462 members with large diameters [48] otherwise the drag term will be dominant. Marine growth
463 increases the surface roughness and hence changes both the drag and inertia forces. Their variations
464 induced by the presence of marine growth, impress the hydrodynamic forces in a non-linear way.

465 Considering the effect of biofouling on hydrodynamic coefficients in the Morison's equation,
466 some researchers have proposed a model for the drag coefficient as a linear regression function of
467 the thickness and roughness ([51]; ([52]). According to recommended practice of [3], an additional
468 parameter that affects the drag coefficient of elements with circular cross-sections is the relative
469 roughness, $e = k/D_e$. The surface Roughness k is the average peak-to-valley height of hard growth
470 organisms and the effective member diameter D_e can be obtained as:

$$471 D_e = D_c + 2 Th \quad (8)$$

472 Where D_c is the outer diameter of the clean member and Th is the biocolonization thickness (i.e.
 473 the mean of distributed thickness around the diameter) obtained by circumferential measurements
 474 [3]. API [3] gives the relationship between De and steady-flow drag coefficient (C_{DS}) (9).

475

$$476 \quad C_{DS} = a + \frac{b}{k/D_e + c}; \quad a = 0.07152, \quad b = -2.9 \times 10^{-4}, \quad c = 4.12 \times 10^{-4} \quad (9)$$

477 C_D is then computed from the knowledge of C_{DS} and KC_{mg} according to [3].

478 This approach allows measuring the influence of roughness on the drag coefficient and
 479 therefore the drag force as well as their evolution with time. This brings us to choose an uncertainty
 480 modeling for the relationship between the size of the shell and the roughness in Morison's equation.

481 Coefficients of fluid-structure interactions are modeled from the knowledge of hydraulic flow
 482 regime around the structural components [47]. Reynolds Re and Keulegan-Carpenter KC numbers
 483 are essential for characterizing the flow regime [6]. For most offshore jacket structures in the extreme
 484 conditions, Reynolds numbers are into the post-critical flow regime, where steady-flow drag
 485 coefficient C_{DS} for circular cylinders is independent of Reynolds number [3][53].

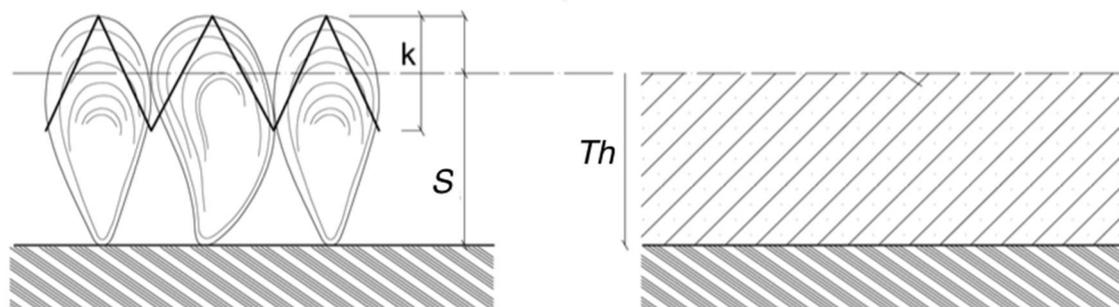
486 2.9.2 Stochastic modeling of marine growth and hydrodynamic parameters

487 There is not enough knowledge and neither observations about the settlement of blue mussels
 488 on offshore structures and a 100% cover was considered on the component. In order to account for
 489 the diameter of the colonized structural member, marine growth thickness time-series $Th(t)$ should
 490 be modeled. Marine growth thickness is modeled as a Gamma process $Th_{i,\tau}$ deduced from the
 491 simulated individual shell length time-series $S_{i,\tau}$ for blue mussels in each time interval. For
 492 simplicity and at this step of modeling, it has been assumed that the individual shell length
 493 time-series $S(t)$ give the average size time-series $Th_{i,\tau}$ with a multiplying uncertain factor (10): it
 494 follows a uniform distribution with support $[0.3; 0.6]$ at each of the i 10-days period.

$$495 \quad Th(t) = \left\{ \left(Th_1, \dots, Th_n \right); 0.3S_i \leq Th_i \leq 0.6S_i, i \in \llbracket 1, 37 \rrbracket \right\} \quad (10)$$

496 This uncertainty accounts for the geometrical arrangement of the shells (Figure 9).

497



498

499 **Figure 9.** From biological reality to mechanical abstraction.

500

501 For roughness, on the one hand, there is a lack of on-site measurements and on the other, the
 502 available relationship between roughness and hydrodynamic forces (9) relies on a uniform
 503 roughness around the component [3]. Hence, roughness is also modeled as a Gamma process $k_{i,\tau}$
 504 based on individual shell length time-series $S_{i,\tau}$ (11), with a random factor following a uniform
 505 distribution with support $[0.2; 1]$. The latter is a model error for modeling the uncertainty when
 506 quantifying the real effect of a randomly distributed roughness around the component. Note that
 507 intensive developments on underwater image processing are emerging ([54]-[56]) enabling to

508 envisage progress in on-site measurements and recent works investigate the relationship between
 509 non-homogenous roughness and loading ([57]; [58]). The wide range of uncertainty will hence
 510 decrease in the next decade. As a consequence, the error of computation of equivalent roughness is
 511 significant and the interval in (11) is large: it includes the stochastic distribution of shells around a
 512 tubular component and the error of model for computing the equivalent roughness.

513 Finally, the time-series of surface roughness $k(t)$ and marine growth average thickness $Th(t)$
 514 have been considered independently as the random value uniformly distributed in an interval
 515 bounded to a ratio of individual shell length $S(t)$.

$$516 \quad k(t) = \left\{ (k_1, \dots, k_n); 0.2S_n \leq k_n \leq S_n, n \in \llbracket 1, 37 \rrbracket \right\} \quad (11)$$

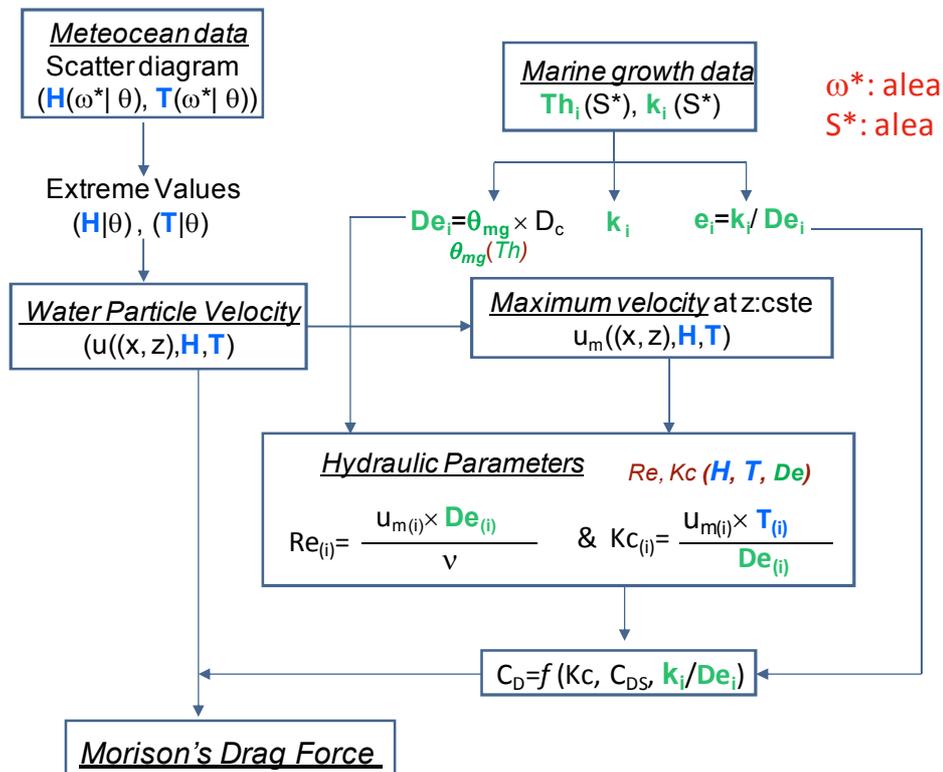
517 The relative surface roughness $e(t)$ time-series are deduced ($e(t) = k(t)/De(t)$) and $C_{Ds}(t)$
 518 time-series have been simulated according to (9).

519 This study deals with two major time variant random variables in the hydrodynamic
 520 calculations, the meteocean data including a couple of wave height and period (H, T), and the
 521 stochastic process generating the individual shell length $S_{t,\tau}$ in each time interval τ from (4).
 522 Parameters of Gamma processes $Th_{t,\tau}$, and $k_{t,\tau}$ are dependent of individual shell length $S_{t,\tau}$ and the
 523 hydraulic parameters (Re_{mg}, KC_{mg}), and therefore drag coefficients C_D depend on individual shell
 524 length $S_{t,\tau}$ and couple of wave height and period (H, T).

525 Thus parameters of $Th_{t,\tau}$ affect the hydrodynamic coefficients through the relationships between
 526 the hydraulic parameters (Re, KC) and the diameter of the elements which is dependent of the
 527 coefficient of $Th_{t,\tau}$ itself [6]. The next section will explain how these cross-effects are accounted for.

528 2.9.3 Stochastic modeling wave loading in the presence of marine growth

529 Figure 10 summarizes the steps of drag forces computation in a flowchart. It should be noted
 530 that the steps of hydrodynamic coefficients calculation are based on an interpolation of experimental
 531 curves [6] presented by [3].



532

533

Figure 10. Schematic flowchart of drag force calculation.

534

535 The main steps of this flowchart are detailed as:

- 536 • Statistical Identification: the employed parameters are the heights of extreme waves H and
 537 associated periods T . They are modeled with a random variable which probability is
 538 conditioned by the wave direction θ ;
- 539 • A kinematic model for the fluid: the Stokes model [50] is used. It assumes that the fluid is
 540 Newtonian and irrotational and the trajectory of fluid particles is elliptical. The kinematics field
 541 deduced from the velocity potential can be defined at any point;
- 542 • Fluid-structure Interaction model: this level is involved in the hydrodynamic coefficients
 543 determined by using the recommendation of [3].
- 544 • For the probabilistic modeling of C_D , in order to avoid multiplying the case studies, only
 545 vertical elements under the wave crest are analyzed. This implies high horizontal speeds and
 546 accelerations that generate very small forces; it means that the inertia forces in (7) are very low
 547 and will be neglected in the following.
- 548 • Colonized diameter $D_e(t)$ is a stochastic process that results from the increase $Th(t)$ of the initial
 549 radius of the clean component. Starting from (8), it is computed by multiplying D_c by factor
 550 θ_{mg} . The latter is computed from the thickness $Th(t)$ (12):

$$551 \quad D_e = D_c + 2 \overline{th} = \theta_{mg} D_c \quad \text{with} \quad \theta_{mg} = \left(1 + \frac{2Th_{t\tau}}{D_c}\right) D_c \quad (12)$$

552 According to API RP 2A WSD [3] and DNV-RP-C20 [4], since the flow regime is post-critical
 553 ($Re > 5 \times 10^5$) by using 100 year-return wave characteristics, the drag coefficient does not depend on Re
 554 but rather on KC_{mg} and C_{Ds} . Note that API ([3], section C2.3.1b7, p. 143 and p. 145) provides, in fact, a
 555 piecewise model on two intervals depending on KC or KC/C_{Ds} and the scales of these models are
 556 different. It results in two effects on the evolution of the drag force (C_D): first for some values of C_{Ds} it
 557 is the cause of discontinuity of the model at $KC=12$ and second, it is very difficult to analyze directly
 558 the effect of C_{Ds} . This is visible in Figure 15.

559 Extreme wave characteristics of Gulf of Guinea have been considered for the hydrodynamic
 560 calculation; it is a specific site with low KC_{mg} values. Using meteocean data from this region allowed
 561 us to cover a large range of KC_{mg} to better illustrate the non-linear effects of marine growth on the
 562 drag coefficient evolution and hence on the load probabilistic distribution. Joint distribution of
 563 extreme height and period for a return period of 100 years for the Gulf of Guinea are simulated
 564 based on [7]. It has been provided by recombination of sea states from the knowledge of $H-T$ scatter
 565 diagram. Representation of the joint distribution for wave height and period of 100-years return
 566 period is presented in [59].

567 We focused on drag forces acting on vertical cylindrical components under the wave crest with
 568 a diameter of 0.762 m (corresponding to the diameter of a $\Phi 30''$ leg). Note that the probability of
 569 storm occurrence is independent of time and it can happen in every 10-days periods of the
 570 macro-colonization period. The time-series of surface roughness $k(t)$ and marine growth thickness
 571 $Th(t)$ obtained from the individual shell length time-series $S(t)$ has been considered for
 572 determination of C_{Ds} (C_D in steady flow) time-series ($C_{Ds}(t) = f(k, \tau / D_e)$). In this paper, a numerical
 573 fitting of the curve given in [3] is used and is plotted in Figure 15 (lower multi-linear curve for the
 574 smooth cylinder).

575 3. Results

576 3.1 Simulation of the drag force evolution from the stochastic time-series of blue mussels

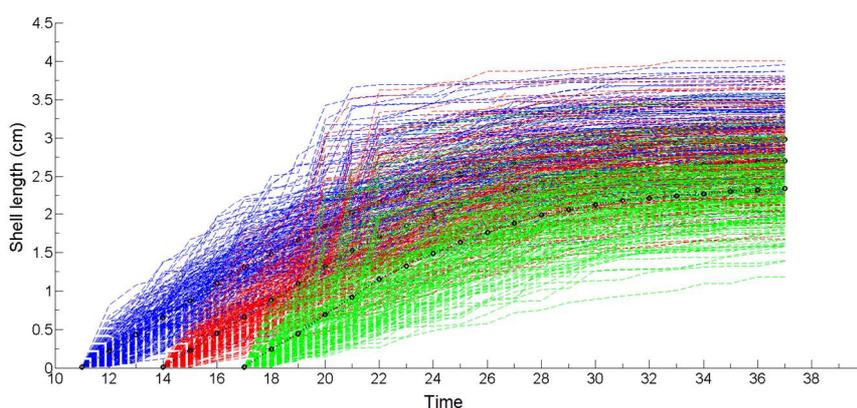
577 This section aims to assess the evolution of the drag coefficient C_D by mixing all of the typical
 578 macro-colonization time-series according to their occurrence probability by considering the
 579 macro-colonization inception times in the initiation phase (section 2.2-2.4). The individual shell
 580 length time-series for all of the typical macro-colonization years are necessary to provide the
 581 probabilistic matrix of individual shell length. It consists of individual shell length time-series for all

582 typical macro-colonization years. They are weighted by the occurrence probability of each typical
 583 macro-colonization year. Therefore, 30,000 simulations (10,000 simulations for each
 584 macro-colonization inception time in one year) have been performed to provide the individual shell
 585 length of blue mussels for each typical macro-colonization year.

586 The individual shell length time-series $S(t)$ of the blue mussels are simulated from developed
 587 Gamma process (section 2.8) from the inception times for typical macro-colonization years. No
 588 correlation between macro-colonization inception time conditioned by the temperature and the
 589 aggregate *Chl. a* ($C(t)$) levels are observed (section 2.6). Therefore, they are simulated independently.
 590 Hence, all of the time-series of aggregate $C(t)$ could be used for the simulation of individual shell
 591 length time-series $S(t)$ for each typical macro-colonization year.

592 The individual shell length time-series simulation procedure is as follows: the typical
 593 macro-colonization year determined by the temperature is first selected. Then the individual shell
 594 length time-series $S(t)$ are simulated from the Gamma process. This simulation is performed
 595 according to the aggregated *Chl. a* time-series which have been selected randomly, generating one
 596 $S(t)$ from one $C(t)$. Thus, we obtain the same statistical weight for the inception and growth by
 597 choosing an aggregated *Chl. a* time-series randomly for each simulation.

598 Figure 11 illustrates the estimated individual shell length time-series for the 2nd typical
 599 macro-colonization (starting date at 11, 14 and 17 10-day periods) and 200 simulations as an
 600 example. The highest jumps are observed for the 18th to 22nd 10-days periods; it is because of the
 601 important peak occurrence in the aggregated *Chl. a* time-series in 2001, 2007 and 2008 (see Figure 12).

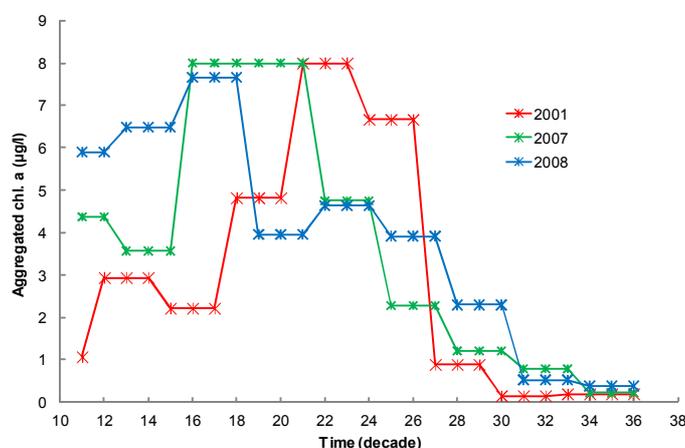


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Figure 11. Simulated individual shell length of blue mussels for the 2nd typical macro-colonization. 200 simulations are presented.



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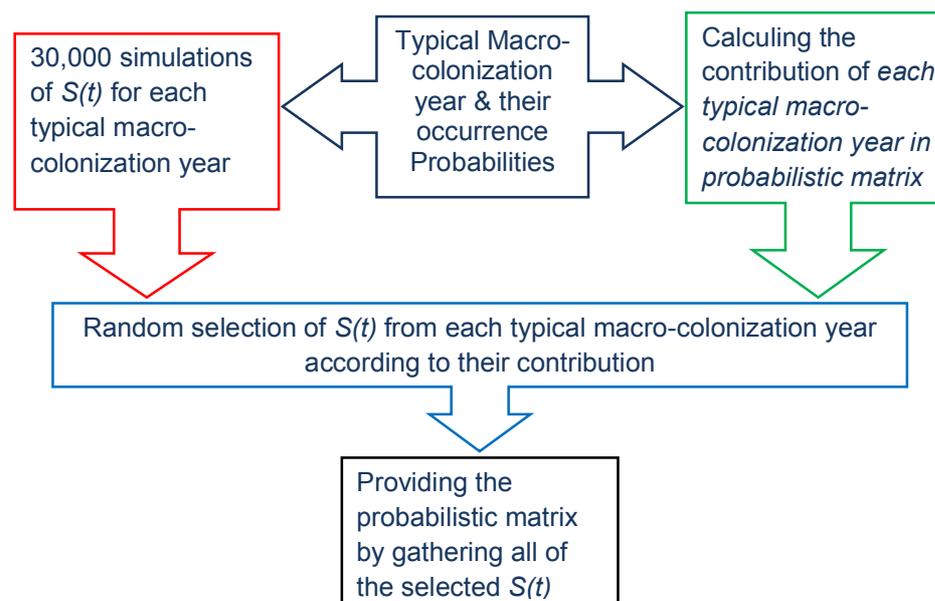
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Figure 12. The aggregated *Chl. a* time-series for the years 2001, 2007 and 2008.

608 The simulation allows having the individual shell length matrix representing all of the typical
 609 macro-colonization years. The contribution of individual shell length time-series could be obtained
 610 as:

$$611 \quad N_t = N_s \times P_t \quad (13)$$

612 where, N_t is the numbers of time-series for the typical macro-colonization year of $S(t)$ which
 613 should be selected randomly, N_s is the sample size (here equal to 30,000) and P_t is the occurrence
 614 probability of the typical macro-colonization year (Table 2). The simulation procedure is illustrated
 615 in Figure 13. The KC , C_D and drag forces are then computed according to the flowchart reported in
 616 Figure 10.



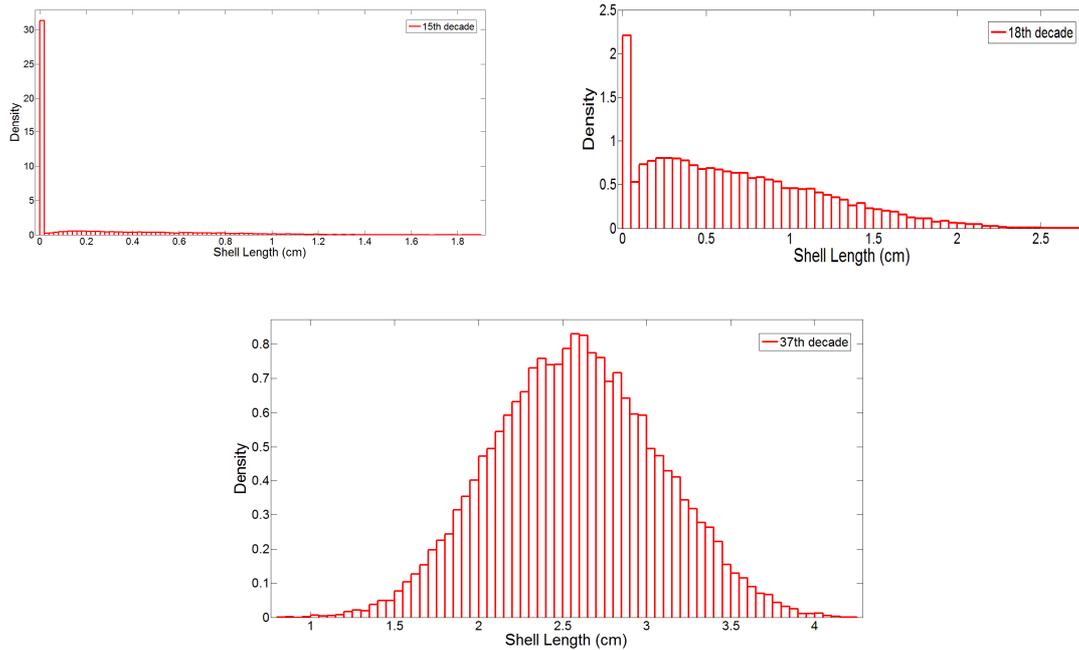
617

618 **Figure 13.** Schematic procedure of probabilistic individual shell length time-series from the typical
 619 macro-colonization year.

620 3.2 Statistical analysis of the transfer of distributions

621 Quality of distribution transfer or uncertainty propagation is a well-known criterion for the
 622 analysis of the change of the distribution (its parameters or probabilistic law), especially for matrix
 623 response surfaces [48]. We focus first on the evolution of shell length distribution. Figure 14
 624 illustrates the 3 most interesting 10-days periods representing insignificant (11th 10-days period),
 625 intermediate (18th 10-days period) and extreme (37th 10-days periods) roughness values. Distribution
 626 of shell length changes from bimodal (11th and 18th 10-days period) to normal (37th 10-days periods),
 627 depending on time. It should be noted that the shape of the shell length distribution evolves strongly
 628 with time; that will lead to significant variations of the distribution of C_D along with its support due
 629 to the dependence of C_{Ds} to k/D_e in (9). The mixing of sources of uncertainties due to independent
 630 macro-colonization inception time and independent growth builds finally a normal distribution as
 631 expected from the Central Limit Theorem.

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Figure 14. Evolution of shell length distribution as a function of time for three selected 10-days periods.

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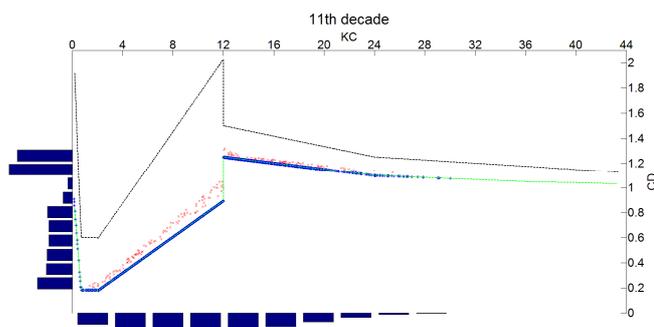
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Figure 15 illustrates distributions of drag coefficients C_D as a function of KC for the 3 above-mentioned 10-days periods. First, we plot the bounds of the relationship (C_D) - (KC) with lower and upper lines that depict respectively the smooth and roughened cylinders drag coefficients. The discontinuity comes from the discontinuity of curves in the standards generated by the various scales (C_D/CDS , C_D , KC , KC/CDS) used around $KC=12$. Note that this discontinuity for the smooth and roughened cylinders follows respectively a potential positive and a negative jump of the C_D . Second the scatter plots are reported in red, moving from the lower part to the upper part from 11th to 37th decade 10-day periods. Consequently, the distribution of C_D is affected. An important point is that the distribution maintains 2 modes; one, the uppermost being around 1.2 and the lowermost follows the shift of non-linear the transfer function, from 0.2 to 0.6 (see 37th 10-days period). It demonstrates the evolution of the drag coefficients C_D for the individual shell length from the non-linear transfer of the distribution of KC and during the probabilistic macro-colonization year (from 11th to 37th 10-days period). Finally, the probability of highest values (typically 1.8) increases with time: that is a key result because it will potentially affect the distribution tail of the corresponding loading and decrease structural reliability. There is not a clear distinction between the macro-colonization inception times because of the mixing of all typical macro-colonization year. Indeed, the mixing of a large amount of potential macro-colonization inception times doesn't allow distinguishing the contribution of each year in terms of the mode in the distribution.

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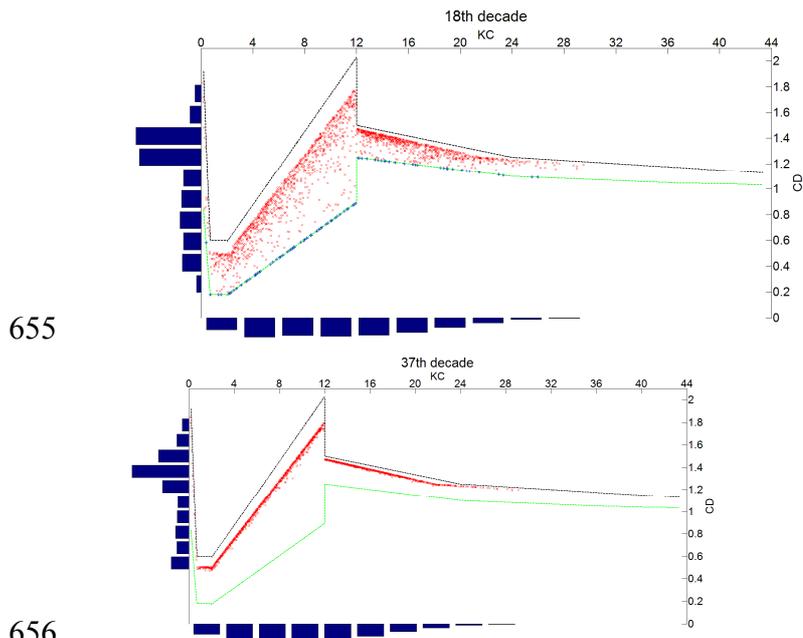


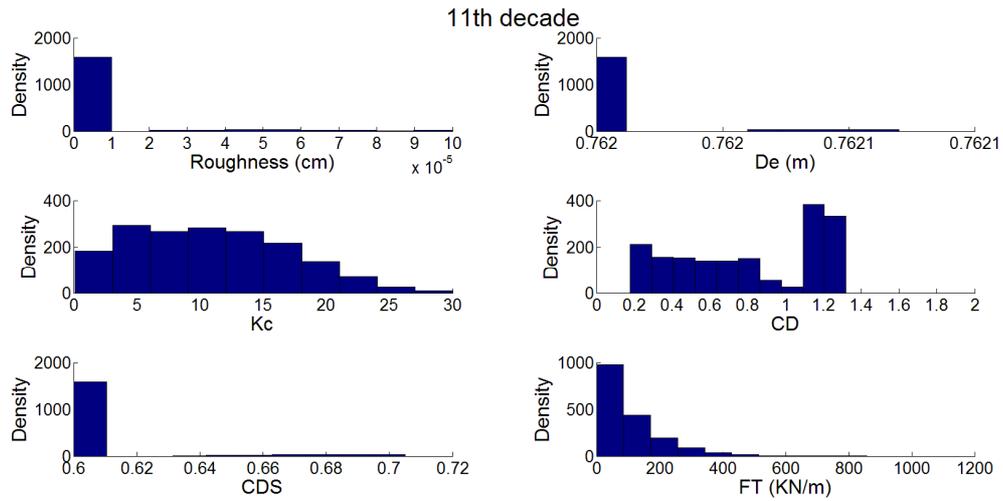
Figure 15. Distributions of drag coefficients (C_D) as a function of (KC) values for three selected time 10-day periods.

659 4. Discussion

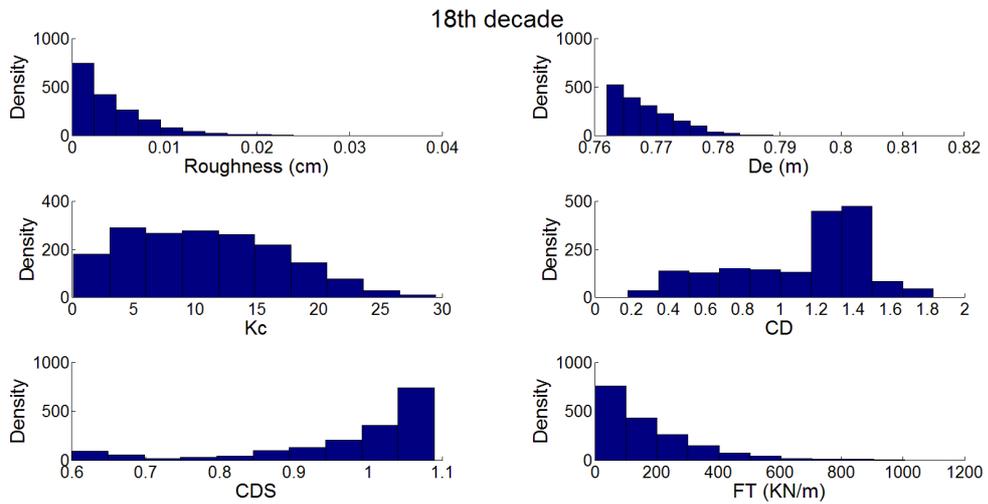
660 Previous results give the opportunity for discussing the effect of our modeling on post-treated
 661 results such as wave loading in presence of marine growth. We compare now the distribution of D_e
 662 and C_{Ds} (Figure 16). The distributions of D_e are mono-modal because of the combination of all typical
 663 macro-colonization years. The distributions of C_{Ds} are bimodal and transform to the mono-modal,
 664 from the smooth to the ultra-roughened condition at the end of the macro-colonization period.

665 Distribution of the drag force F_T is plotted on the same figure 16 for better illustrating
 666 differences in distribution (mode and tails) and transfer of these distributions. The drag force is
 667 exponentially distributed. The right distribution tail moves to higher values according to time,
 668 decreasing the reliability. We analyze this distribution tail after computation of F_{T_MAX} (note that
 669 distributions are bounded) and the fractiles $F_{T(90\%)}$, $F_{T(95\%)}$. Figure 17 shows the evolution of these
 670 statistics after each 10-days period. The latter increase smoothly with time except for the increase
 671 during one month and a half (from 10-days period 11th to 18th). Finally, there is a great difference
 672 between the extreme values (F_{T_MAX}) and the fractiles ($F_{T(90\%)}$ and $F_{T(95\%)}$) confirming a long distribution
 673 tail that was observed already on Figure 16.

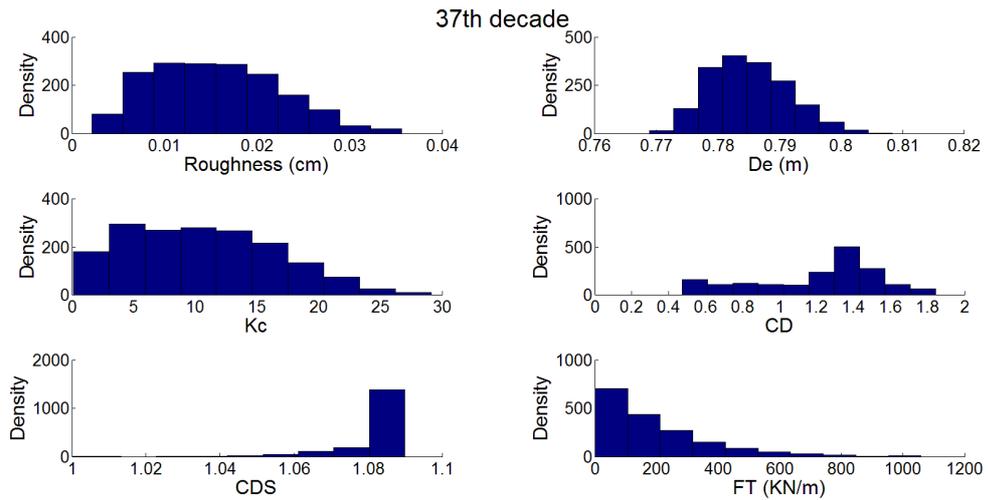
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Figure 16. Comparison of the distribution of hydrodynamic parameters for selected 10-days periods.

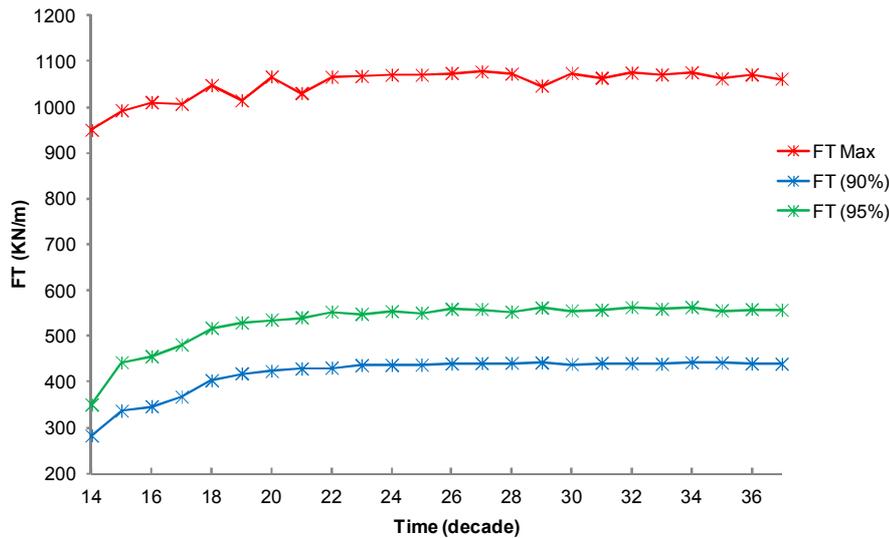


Figure 17. Evolution of F_{Tmax} , and 90%, 95% fractiles with time.

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684 5. Conclusions

685 The originality of this work lies in the choice to consider biocolonization as a cumulative
686 deterioration phenomenon and to simulate trajectories relying on individuals' characteristics
687 through a state-dependent model to compute structural reliability. The developed non-stationary,
688 state-dependent Gamma process was selected as a flexible methodology and simple to perform. It
689 was used to generate individual shell length time-series for blue mussels. The macro-colonization
690 inception times determined in the initiation phase may be considered as one of the criteria for the
691 installation or cleaning time of the structures through the maintenance programs strategy. One of its
692 advantages is that it can be extended to other organisms such as oysters with the possibility of
693 adding or modifying the parameters influencing individual growth and shape.

694 A model was used to investigate the drag coefficient evolution exerted by extreme waves
695 during the mussel's growth. Three types of uncertainties have thus been considered:

- 696 • Environmental: due both to the physics of waves (height, period) and water parameters
697 (temperature and chlorophyll a),
- 698 • Modeling: with an uncertainty of modeling from the shell size to the thickness and the
699 roughness in the sense of API regulation,
- 700 • Biological: accounting for the inter-individual variability.
- 701 • Moreover, calculation of hydrodynamic forces due to the biocolonization using meteo-ocean
702 data as well as biological data is a complex task and generates two types of difficulties:
- 703 • The distribution of input variables that can be pluri-modal (e.g. individual shell length) due to
704 the various macro-colonization inception times;
- 705 • The transfer from Keulegan Carpenter number to drag coefficient being nonlinear generates
706 bimodal distributions from mono-modal ones.

707 A full probabilistic simulation that allows predicting the evolution of drag forces in a reliability
708 context has been developed. The evolution of physical parameters due to the individual growth has
709 been presented in time-series form. Using the empirical curves recommended by API standards to
710 obtain wake amplification factors in a probabilistic context resulted in an abnormal discontinuity
711 when passing the critical value $KC=12$. Hence these curves may not perfectly explain the evolution of
712 drag coefficient in a probabilistic context.

713 This study highlights the site-specific property of biofouling and therefore, constructs a
714 condition-based methodology for the modeling of biocolonization. Considering the site-specific
715 property of biofouling, it is not logical to define a similar strategy for the maintenance and periodical
716 cleaning programs of offshore structures without consideration of the specifications of each site.

717 Therefore, periodical monitoring campaigns could be very useful in understanding the reaction of
718 biofouling to environmental parameters, especially after installation or cleaning programs, and to
719 establishing the adequate maintenance strategy for each site. It allows the model to be updated as
720 well and hence increases the prediction accuracy. For some structures, it may not be necessary to
721 clean all members completely to allow a macro-fouling community to develop and create artificial
722 reefs that would be useful for fisheries and biodiversity. This work can be extended to floating
723 structure once the correlation between thickness and weight is known.

724 6. Patents

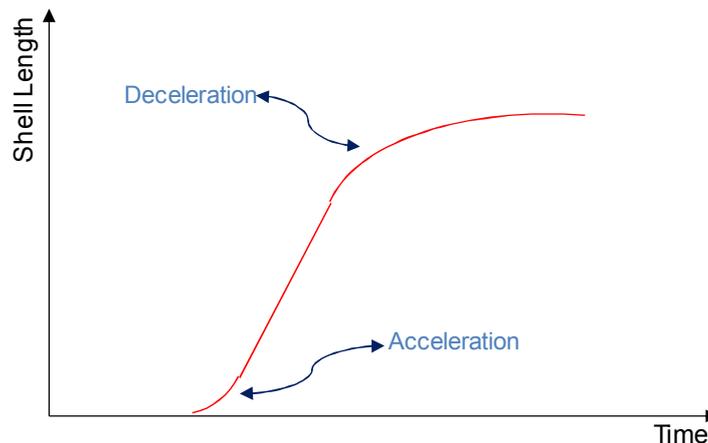
725 A patent was developed in view to measure on site the marine growth and update the model:
726 Schoefs F., Ameryoun H. (2013) « Biocolmar: Offshore Station for Measuring and Collecting Data in
727 an Underwater Environment », october 21th 2013, N° 1360256.

728 **Author Contributions:** F. Schoefs: methodology for coupling the models and developing gamma processes –
729 stochastic computation; H. Ameryoun: methodology numerical implementation; L. Barillé: environmental
730 modeling and metabolism of mussels; Y. Thomas: simulation of MEB model.\$

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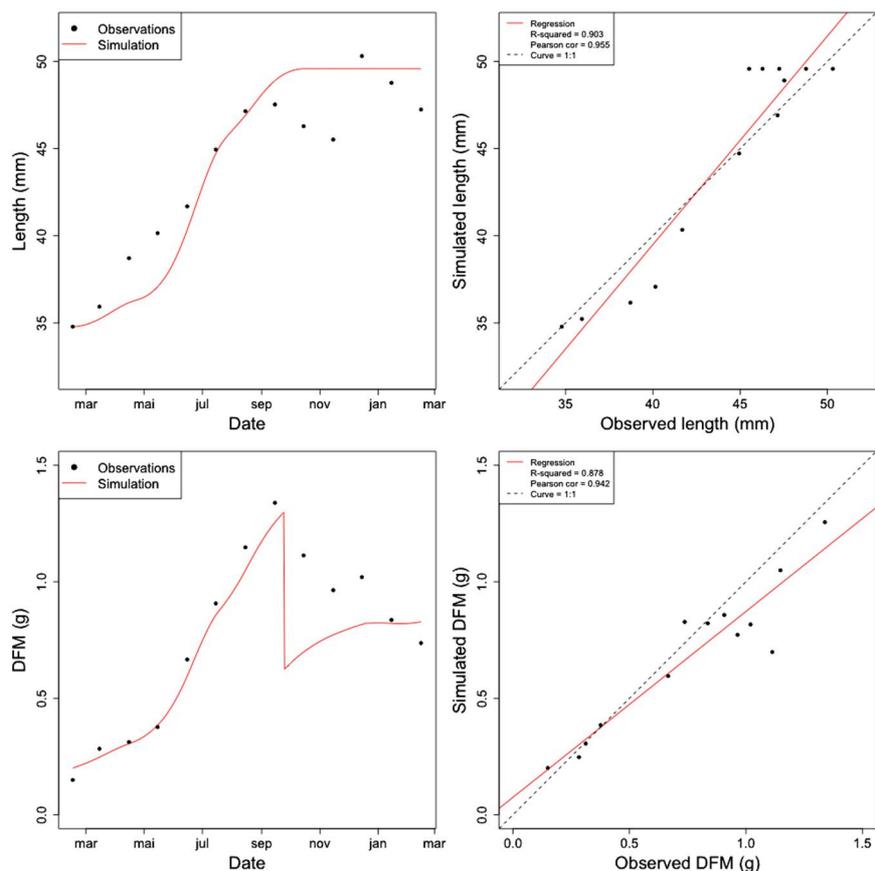
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735 Appendix A



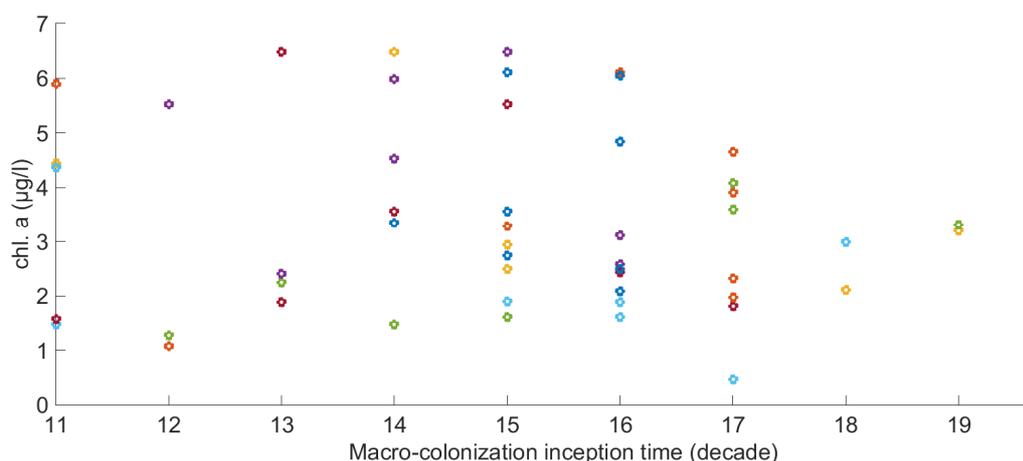
736 **Figure A1.** Schematic annual growth curve of individual blue mussels illustrating the acceleration and
737 deceleration in the growth rate.

738



739 **Figure A2.** Calibration of the mussel DEB model used in this study to simulate shell length. DFM =Dry Flesh
 740 Mass expressed in g.

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742 **Figure A3.** The relationship between macro-colonization starting times (end of the initiation phase) expressed
 743 in 10-days; each color represents a year of the 1996-2012 time-series.

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