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## Evaluation of Safety Instrumented System in a petroleum plant and its impact on the environment

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### ABSTRACT/RESUME

**Abstract:** The purpose of this work is to check the calculations to consolidate the safety instrumented system (SIS) in order to preserve the safety of the plant and the environment, and consider the consequences in case of failure. The application of our study will be focused on the Naphta Stabilizer-B Reflux Drum in Skikda refinery using the combination of HAZOP-LOPA-Fault Tree methods. The aim of this paper is to verify that the intended safety integrity level of a safety instrumented system is achieved. Otherwise propose a solution to ameliorate the safety instrumented system to mitigate the studied scenario. In case of failure of the safety instrumented system, severe damage to the installation and serious impact on the environment will be considered; the use of Petri nets allows us to model the behavior of the system. So the objective of our work is to ensure that the appropriate and efficient safety system is installed.

### I. Introduction

The petroleum industry can roughly be divided into four sectors: 1) exploration, development and production; 2) hydrocarbon processing (refineries and petrochemical plants); 3) storage, transportation, and distribution; and 4) retail or marketing [1–3]. These four sectors are also known as upstream, midstream and downstream processes [4, 5]. Environmental impacts are associated with every sector of the industry [3].

The environment protection is needed, and to achieve that, risk analysis must be carried out using some methods such as HAZOP, FTA and LOPA.

Risk analysis is a process to comprehend the nature of risk and to determine the level of risk [6]. It is a systematic use of available information to identify hazards and to estimate the risk to persons, property, and the environment [7].

The use of Petri Nets allows modeling the behavior of a system.

Petri Net is a graph model for the control behavior of systems [8]. Petri nets are excellent net works with great characteristics of combining a mathematical theory with a graphical representation of the dynamic behavior of systems. The theoretical

aspect of Petri nets allows precise modeling and analysis of system behavior, at the same time, the graphical representation enable visualization of state changes of the modeled system [9].

HAZOP is one of the process hazard analysis techniques [10]. It is a systematic examination of a process or operation [11], the primary purpose of HAZOP study is to identify and evaluate hazards [12]. In addition, recommendations to reduce the probability and consequences of an incident should be offered [13].

The fault tree analysis is typically applied in the reliability analysis [14–16]. FTA is a graphical design technique [17]. It is concerned with the identification and analysis of conditions and factors that cause the occurrence of a defined top event [18]. FTA is a systematic safety analysis tool that proceeds deductively from the occurrence of an undesired event [19]. It represents basic causes of an unwanted event and estimates the like lihood (probability) as well as the contribution of different causes leading to the top event [20–23].

LOPA is a semiquantitative tool for analyzing and assessing risk [24]. It is a risk assessment methodology to define risk as function of both frequency and potential consequence severity [25];

itis typically used to approximate the risk [26].LOPA starts with data developed in qualitative hazard evaluation such as HAZOP and accounts for each identified hazard by documenting the initiating cause and the protection layers. If risk reduction is required in the form of a Safety Instrumented Function, LOPA allows determining the appropriate Safety Integrity Level (SIL) for the SIF [27]. Safety Instrumented System (SIS) is an independent system to reduce potential risk of process. SIS includes sensors, transmitters, logic solver and final control elements [28].A typical composition of a SIS is represented in Figure1.

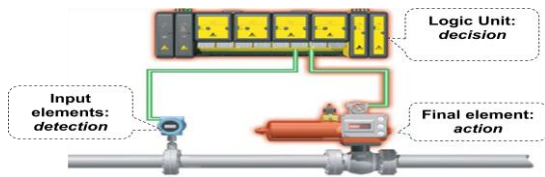


Figure 1. Typical composition SIS

Safety Integrity Level is classification of failures into specific levels. IEC61508 standard establishes four risk levels as shown in the Table 1[28].

Table 1. Safety integrity level based on PFD [28]

SIL	PFD <sub>avg</sub>	Availability Required
4	$\geq 10^{-5}$ to $< 10^{-4}$	99.99% ~ 99.999%
3	$\geq 10^{-4}$ to $< 10^{-3}$	99.90% ~ 99.99%
2	$\geq 10^{-3}$ to $< 10^{-2}$	99.00 ~ 99.90%
1	$\geq 10^{-2}$ to $< 10^{-1}$	90.00% ~ 99.00%

IEC 61508 is a standard that provides a structured approach relying on hazards identification in order to establish the safety requirements for SIS. It aims at designing and operating the SIS within reliability confidence that meets these requirements [29]. IEC 61508 procedure diagram is shown in Figure 2.

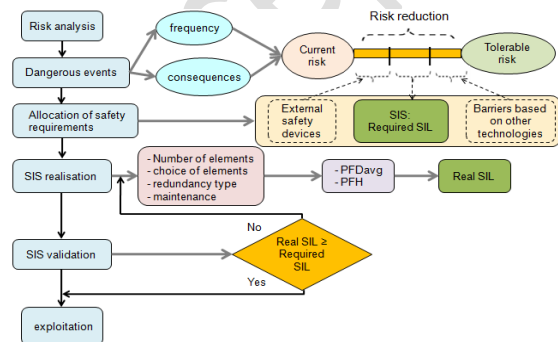


Figure2. IEC 61508 approach: risk and safety integrity level [30].

In the context of what said before, the main purpose of this paper is to evaluate a safety instrumented system starting with risk analysis, and then allocate

a safety integrity level to the SIS and finally, validation of the SIS. The main work is organized as follows: in the section II we present the proposed methodology: First, risk analysis using HAZOP to identify risks, and then Fault Tree to calculate the frequency, and using ALOHA to appreciate the severity. The second step is to illustrate the allocation of the required SIL using LOPA method, and finally, we verify and validate the real SIL using Fault Tree analysis. After that we describe the system in the section III and apply the proposed methodology in section IV. The section V presents the obtained results and discussion. Finally, the recommendations are given in the section VI and conclusion in the section VII.

## II. Proposed methodology

The proposed methodology is performed to achieve the objective of study as follow:

- Risk analysis.
- Allocation of safety integrity level (required SIL).
- Realization and validation of the SIS (real SIL).

The methodology steps are represented in figure 3.

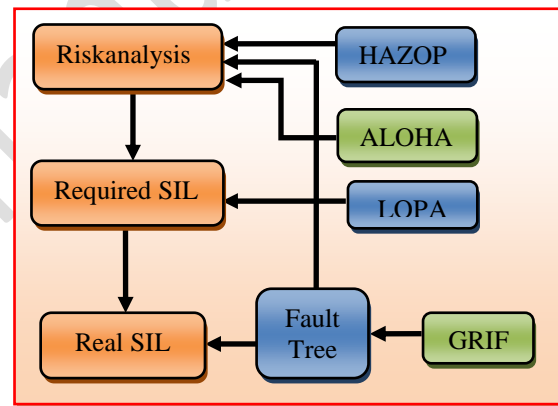


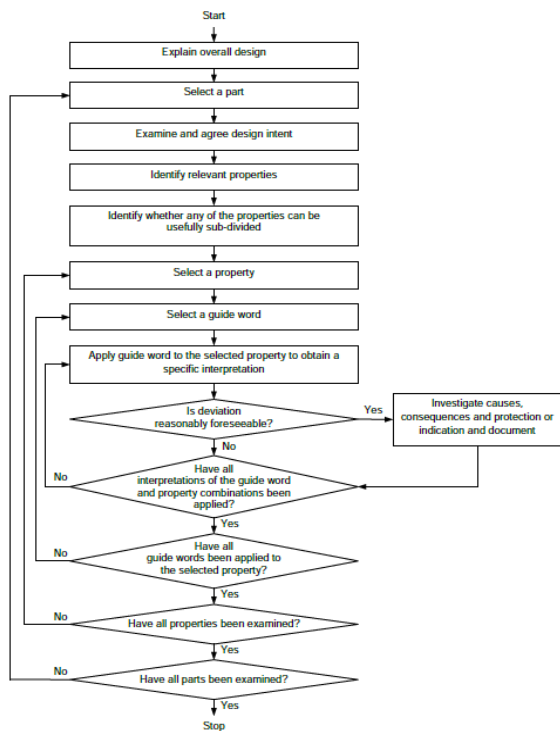
Figure 3. Methodology steps.

### II.1. Risk analysis

Risk analysis is the development of a quantitative risk estimation based on engineering evaluation and mathematical techniques to combine between the incident consequences estimation and its frequencies [31].

During this step, all the dangerous situations (accident scenarios) are established in terms of severity and probability (frequency) of occurrence, in order to compare their criticality with a limit value constituting the safety objective to be achieved. If this criticality exceeds the aforementioned threshold value, then it will be necessary to reduce it. The extent of this reduction is broken down into specific safety requirements allocated to the various means of risk reduction. For SIS, these requirements are established in terms of safety functions and safety integrity levels (required

SIL). The greater the risk reduction to be achieved, the higher the SIL will be. This observation underlines the importance and the capital role that risk analysis plays in the IEC 61508 approach. It should be noted that the determination of the accident scenarios can be carried out using conventional methods such as HAZOP [29]. HAZOP study is a highly disciplined procedure that identifies how a process may deviate from its design intent [32]. It is a structured and systematic technique for examining a defined system [33], for which detailed design information is available, carried out by a multidisciplinary team [12]. This is done by using a set of guidewords in combination with the system parameters to seek meaningful deviations from the design intention. A meaningful deviation is one that is physically possible—for example, no flow, high pressure... It's a method used for hazard identification [7]. The steps to develop hazop study are shown in the flowchart of the HAZOP examination procedure which is represented in figure 4.



**Figure 4.** The flow chart of the HAZOP examination procedure [33].

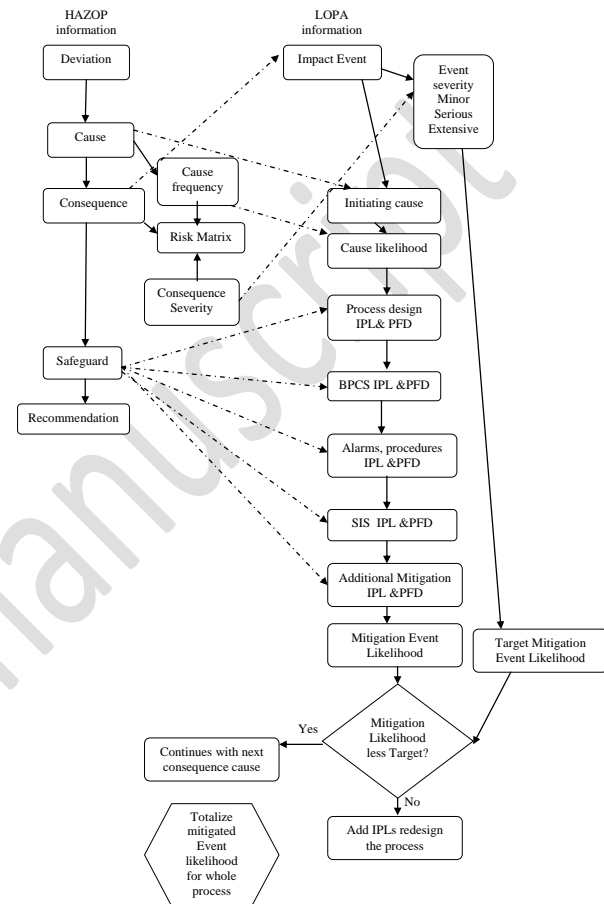
## II.2. Allocation of safety integrity level (required SIL)

This allocation is carried out according to certain specific methods making it possible to define the required SIL for a safety function: SIL must be reached by a SIS in order to achieve the necessary

reduction of risk level [29]. One of the most used methods is LOPA.

LOPA is an analytical tool that builds on hazard identification and characterization information developed during a HAZOP [24].

The relationship between HAZOP and LOPA information is represented in figure 5.



**Figure 5.** Relationship between HAZOP and LOPA information [34].

LOPA (layers of protection analysis) is widely used as quantitative (semi-quantitative) method for the allocation of safety integrity levels. This method integrates all protection layers of the installation, both technical and organizational. It assesses the risk reduction by analyzing the contribution of the different layers. Its principle is to estimate the residual risk, expressed in frequency of accidents, by quantifying the frequency of the initiating event and the (average) probabilities of failure on demand of each layer. A major condition that must be satisfied is the independence of the different layers of protection (IPL: independent protection layers) [24]. Table 2 below shows an example of the spreadsheet format that can be used in a LOPA study [27].

Table2. Spreadsheet format of LOPA

Ref no?	1	2	3	4	5			6	7	8	9	10
					General design	Control system	alarms					
	Impact event description	Severity level	Initiating cause	Initiation likelihood				Additional mitigation restricted access	Additional mitigation	Intermediate event likelihood	PFD <sub>avg</sub> and required SIL	Tolerable mitigated event likelihood
1	Overspeed of rotor leading to fracture of casing	Loss of life of persons located adjacent to casing; fatalities will not exceed 2	Speed control system fails Loss of load Cutch failure	0.1 1 0.1	1 1 1	1 0.1 0.1	1 1 1	0.1 0.1 0.1	0.1 0.1 0.1	10 <sup>-3</sup> 10 <sup>-3</sup> 10 <sup>-4</sup>	5.10 <sup>-3</sup> (SIL 2 will a minimum PFD <sub>avg</sub> of 5.10 <sup>-5</sup> )	10 <sup>-5</sup> <b>FT</b>
2	Repeat above case for environmental risk analysis											
3	Continued as required											
.												
.												
N												

Note 1: severity levels maybe classified as C (catastrophic), E (extensive), S (serious), M (minor). Tolerate mitigated event likelihood will depend on severity level.

Note 2: units in columns 4, 8 and 10 are events per year.

Note 3: units in columns 5 to 7 and 9 are dimensionless. The numbers between 0 and 1 are the factors by which event likelihood maybe multiplied to represent the mitigating effect of the associated protection layer. Thus 1 means no mitigating effect and 0.1 means a factor of 10 risk reduction.

The frequency of the feared event (accident scenario: column n ° 8 of Table 2) is obtained by multiplying the frequency of the initiating event and the mean probabilities of failure on demand (PFD<sub>avg</sub>) of each IPL opposing this same event.

$$f^C = f^{IE} \times \prod_i PFD_{avg}^i \tag{1}$$

f<sup>C</sup>: occurrence frequency of consequence C  
f<sup>IE</sup>: initiating event frequency

PFD<sub>avg</sub><sup>i</sup>: Average probability of failure on demand of the barrier i.

The assigned risk reduction to the SIS safety function is obtained by comparing the frequency of the feared event to the safety objective (tolerable frequency ft).

$$PFD_{avg}^{SIS} \leq \frac{f_t}{f^{IE} \times \prod_{i \neq SIS} PFD_{avg}^i} \tag{2}$$

The quantity corresponding to the right side of the inequality represents the maximum allowable average probability of failure that the SIS could have, such that the necessary risk reduction is achieved. Reading this quantity in Table 1 makes it possible to define the corresponding SIL.

### II.3. Realization and validation of the SIS (real SIL)

Once the required SIL is determined, it remains to design the SIS that must meet the requirements attached to this required SIL. One of the most used methods to do this Fault Tree [28].

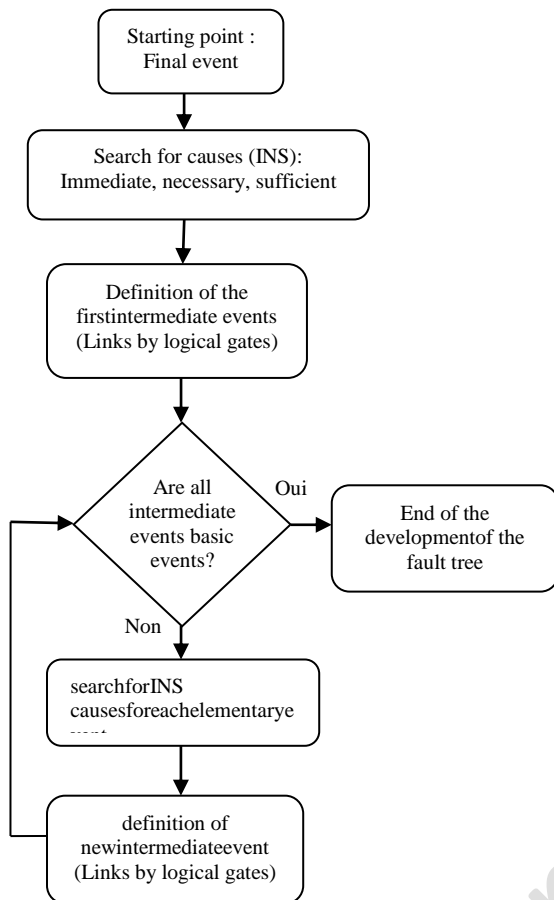
Fault tree is used in reliability and safety risk assessments. It represents graphically the logical interactions and probabilities of occurrence of component failures and other events in a system [35].

It is used to develop the causes of an event. It starts with the event of interest, the top event, such as a hazardous event or equipment failure, and is developed from the top-down. Events that lead to a predefined undesired event (top event).

The fault tree is both a qualitative and a quantitative technique. Qualitatively it is used to identify the individual paths that led to the top event, while quantitatively it is used to estimate the frequency or probability of that event [36].

Fault Tree is chosen because it is a very structured, systematic, and rigorous technique that lends itself well to quantification. It is the best way to prioritize the multitude of potential hazards of loss of production by determining numerically how much each cause contributed to the loss. In this way, solid interactions between the actions taken to improve safety or production and the actual events generated could be established [28].

The construction of the fault tree aims to determine the chain of events that can lead to the selected final event. This analysis ends when all the potential causes correspond to elementary events. The development of the fault tree is shown in diagram represented in the figure 6.



**Figure 6.** flow diagram of Fault Tree [37]

### III. Process description [38]

Before each development of a risk analysis, it is first necessary to define the different dimensions (operation, control loop, safety system, etc.) related to the plant to be studied. In this study the plant concerned is a Naphta stabilizer-b reflux drum (Figure 7) [39], located at crude oil unit in Skikda refinery (Algeria).

Unstabilized naphtha after preheating is divided into two parts. 70% of total unstabilized naphtha is fed into existing Stabilizer column (C-5) & balance 30% is sent to new Stabilizer column (C-62).

Part of preheated naphtha is sent to C-62 via flow control valve in the feed line FV-2151 through cascade control between FIC-2151 and LIC-2152.

The vapors of column C-62 overhead are condensed in air cooler Stabilizer-B Overhead Product Condenser (EA-62A/B/C/D), and Stabilizer-B Overhead Trim Condenser (E-71), and then collected in accumulator Stabilizer-B Reflux Drum (V-62).

The reflux drum is operated at temperature and pressure condition of 43°C and 7.0 kg/cm<sup>2</sup> g. Pressure in the reflux drum V-62 is controlled by PIC-2252 acting in "split control" on valves PV-2252A and PV-2252B.

Uncondensed vapor fuel gas flow is controlled through PV-2252A and further incondensable materials accumulated in stabilizer-B Reflux Drum (V-62) can be discharged to the blow-down through PV-2252B.

The liquid which is accumulated in the receiving tank of overhead V-62 is sucked by pumps MP-63A/B.

A party of the sucked product is sent to the overhead of column C-62 as reflux under flow controlled of FIC-2252 through flow control valve FV-2252.

The other party constituting the production of column overhead in unit 30 with the flow rate controlled by FIC-2251 operating in cascade with level controller LIC-2253, equipped with alarm for low level LAH/LAL-2253.

Interface level between LPG and oily water in V-62 is controlled by LIC-2255 by controlling flow through LV-2255 located in discharge line of boot.

As an extra safety hydrocarbon detector AI-2251 and AI-2252 has been provided near the reflux drum (V-62) bottom and reflux pump (MP-63 A/B).

Further as a part of safety LI-2257 has been provided with High-High and Low-Low level alarm LAHH-2257 & LALL-2257.

In case of LAHH-2257 interlock I-2257 will get actuated and UV-2254 in the overhead line of V-62 will get closed.

In case of LALL-2257 gives signals the interlock I-2257 will get actuated to close the on/off valve UV2252 installed in the suction line of MP-63 A/B and stop the pump MP-63.

For the boot level another interlock I-2259 will be actuated by LALL-2259 to close UV-2255 A/B in order to protect LPG leaking.

All safety systems (pressure safety devices, alarms, interlocks and gas detectors) of the studied system (Naphta stabilize-B reflux drum in crude oil unit at Skikda refinery) are described and represented in table 3.

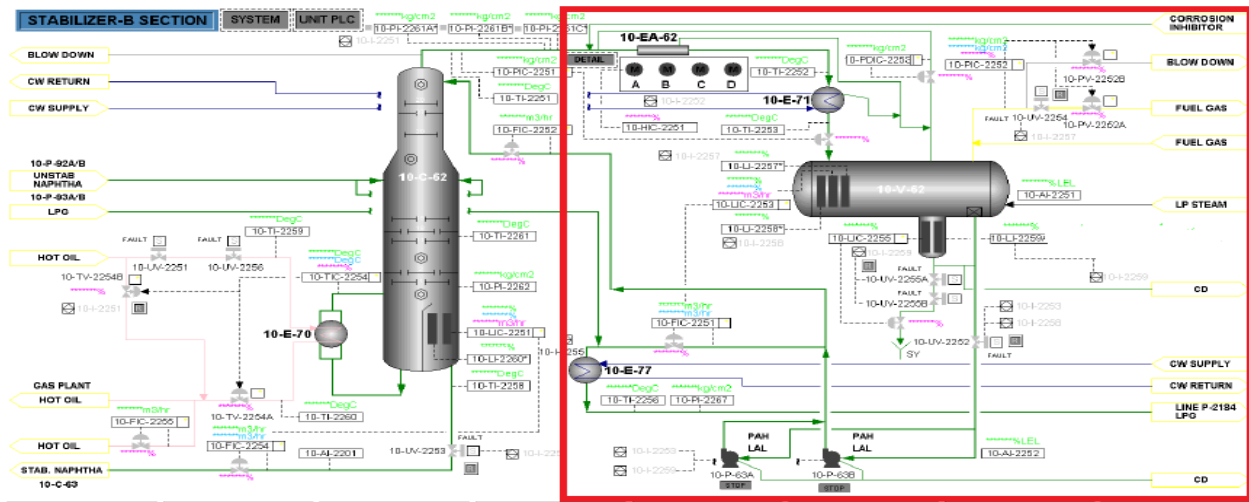


Figure 7. diagram related to the naphta stabilize-B reflux drum [39].

Table 3. Different safety systems protecting stabilizer-b reflux drum [38]

Safety systems	Landmark	Description
Pressure Safety Devices	PV-2252A	Discharge To FG line
	PV2252B	Discharge To Blow down
Interlocks	I-2253	- Activated by HS-2252A/B - Action on: Close UV-2252 Stop MP63
	I-2257	- Activated by LT/LAHH-2257 - Action on: Close UV-2254. Close PV-2252A. Open PV-2252B - Activated by LT/LALL-2257 - Action on: Close UV-2252 Stop Pump P-63A/B
	I-2259	- Activated by LT/LALL-2259 - Action on: Close UV-2155A/B
Alarms	PAH-2252	V-62 Pressure
	PAL-2252	V-62 Pressure
	LALL-2257	V-62 Level
	LAHH-2257	V-62 Level
	LALL-2259	V-62 Boot Level
	LAL-2253	V-62 Level
	LAH-2253	V-62 Level
	LAL-2255	V-62 Interface Level
	LAH-2255	V-62 Interface Level
FAL-2251	LPG Flow ( MP-63 A/B)	
Gas detectors	AI-2251	near the reflux drum (V-62)
	AI-2252	Near pump (MP-63 A/B)

#### IV. Application of the proposed methodology

In this section, we apply the proposed approach on the Naphta Stabilizer-B Reflux Drum in Skikda refinery.

The first step is risk analysis using HAZOP to identify different scenarios, then Fault Tree analysis to estimate and evaluate the risk by determining the frequency of the top event, and in order to appreciate the severity of this event we use ALOHA

to determine the threatened zones. The second step is to determine the required SIL using LOPA.

The final step is to validate the sis by determining the real SIL using Fault Tree which is represented by GRIF software which is used for the interactive charts for reliability.

#### IV.1. Risk analysis

As we said before, the first step of the proposed approach is risk analysis to identify different accident scenarios that may occur in the system to be studied (Naphta Stabilizer-B Reflux Drum). To do that, HAZOP will be used. The end result of HAZOP should express each consequence in terms of severity and probability (frequency) of occurrence.

##### IV.1.1. Identifiryisksby HAZOP

HAZOP study leads to identify different accident scenarios resulting from parameters deviations. Thanks to its global analysis which facilitates the choice of a consequence to be evaluated by using Fault tree [7]. In our case we have chosen two deviations (no level of LPG in the vessel and no level of oily water in the boot). The results are shown in the table 5. Risk Acceptance is based on frequency and severity.

The frequency is obtained by using Fault Tree and the severity is related to the impact event given by the ALOHA simulation results. Risk matrix of SKIKDA Refinery- Algeria is shown in the table 4.

**Table 4.** Risk acceptance matrix for Skikda refinery (RAIK) [40]

Severity	Frequency				
	5: $P < 10^{-5}$	4: $10^{-4} > P > 10^{-5}$	3: $10^{-3} > P > 10^{-4}$	2: $10^{-2} > P > 10^{-3}$	1: $P > 10^{-2}$
G5: disastrous	M	H	H	H	H
G4: catastrophic	M	M	H	H	H
G3: important	M	M	M	H	H
G2: serious	L	L	M	M	H
G1: moderate	L	L	L	L	M

<b>L</b>	Low risk (accepted)
<b>M</b>	Moderate risk (tolerated)
<b>H</b>	High risk (not accepted)

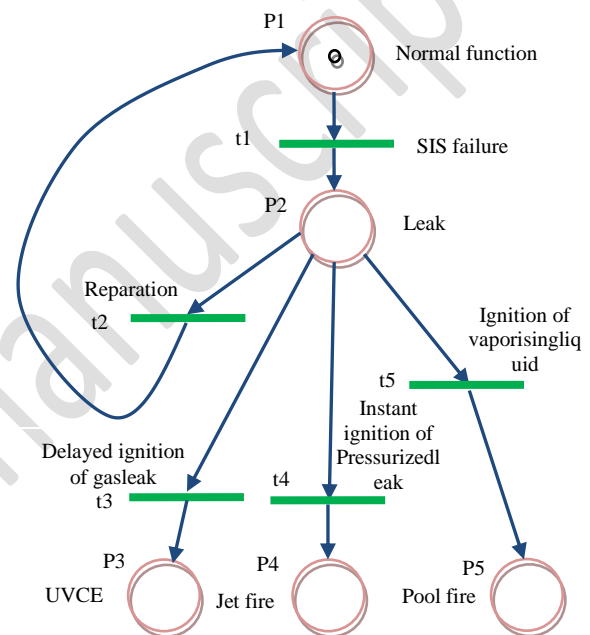
**Table 5.** HAZOP Analysis "no level of LPG" and "no level of oily water" related to reflux drum V-62

deviation parameter	Guide word	Causes	Consequences	Warnings	Protection means	criticality	
						G	P
Level of LPG in V62	NO	- Insufficient cooling of overhead vapor due to EA62 and E11 failure. - BPCS of LPG level failures: LIC 2253 failures LIC 2255 failures FIC 2251 failures FV 2251 failures (does not close) - BPCS of LPG flow failures FT 2251 failures, FIC 2251 failures	- cavitations of MP 63 - gasleaking - fire - UVCE	- Alarm LAL on LIC 2253 - Alarm LALL on LIC 2157 - Alarm AAH on AI 2251	- Interlock 2257 (close UV 2252 and stop pump MP 63) - Interlock 2253 (close UV 2252 and stop pump MP 63)	4	3
						4	3
Level of oily water in boot	NO	- BPCS of oily water level failures: LT 2255 failures, LIC 2255 failures LV 2255 failures (does not close)	- gasleaking - jetfire - poolfire - UVCE	- Alarm LAL on LIC 2255 - Alarm LALL on LIC 2259 (A/B) - Alarm AAH on AI 2252	- Interlock 2259 (close UV 2255 A/B)	4	3

The normal function of our system is ensured by safety barriers. In case of failure of the safety instrumented system which is the most important of our safeguards; LPG could be released to the atmosphere. Then it depends on the condition of the leak and the probability of ignition to determine what could happen, so we have three cases:

- UVCE: delayed ignition of gas leak.
- Jet fire: Instant ignition of Pressurized leak.
- Pool fire: Ignition of vaporising liquid.

The results of developing situation of LPG leak after the safety instrumented system failure is shown in petri net represented in figure 8.



**Figure 8.** Petri net related to the LPG leak

#### IV.1.2. Estimate and evaluate risks by FTA

The Fault Tree allows us to determine quantitative values concerning the reliability and the failure frequency [7]. The computation of these values depends on the complexity of the studied system. In this paper we used the GRIF software [41] to calculate the occurrence frequency of the top event (LPG leak), it is necessary to use reliability and failure data which are shown in Table 6. The chosen scenario is LPG leak; it is represented in Figure 9.

**Table 6.** PFD of components used in GRIF [42, 43]

Component	PFD	Component	PFD
LT	$6,7746.10^{-3}$	FT	$6,7746.10^{-3}$
LU	$2,126.10^{-5}$	FIC	$2,126.10^{-5}$
UV	$1,344.10^{-4}$	LIC	$2,126.10^{-5}$
UY	$4.10^{-7}$	LV	$6,7593.10^{-2}$
LAL	$6,7746.10^{-3}$	HS	$6,3222.10^{-4}$
Human error	$10^{-1}$		

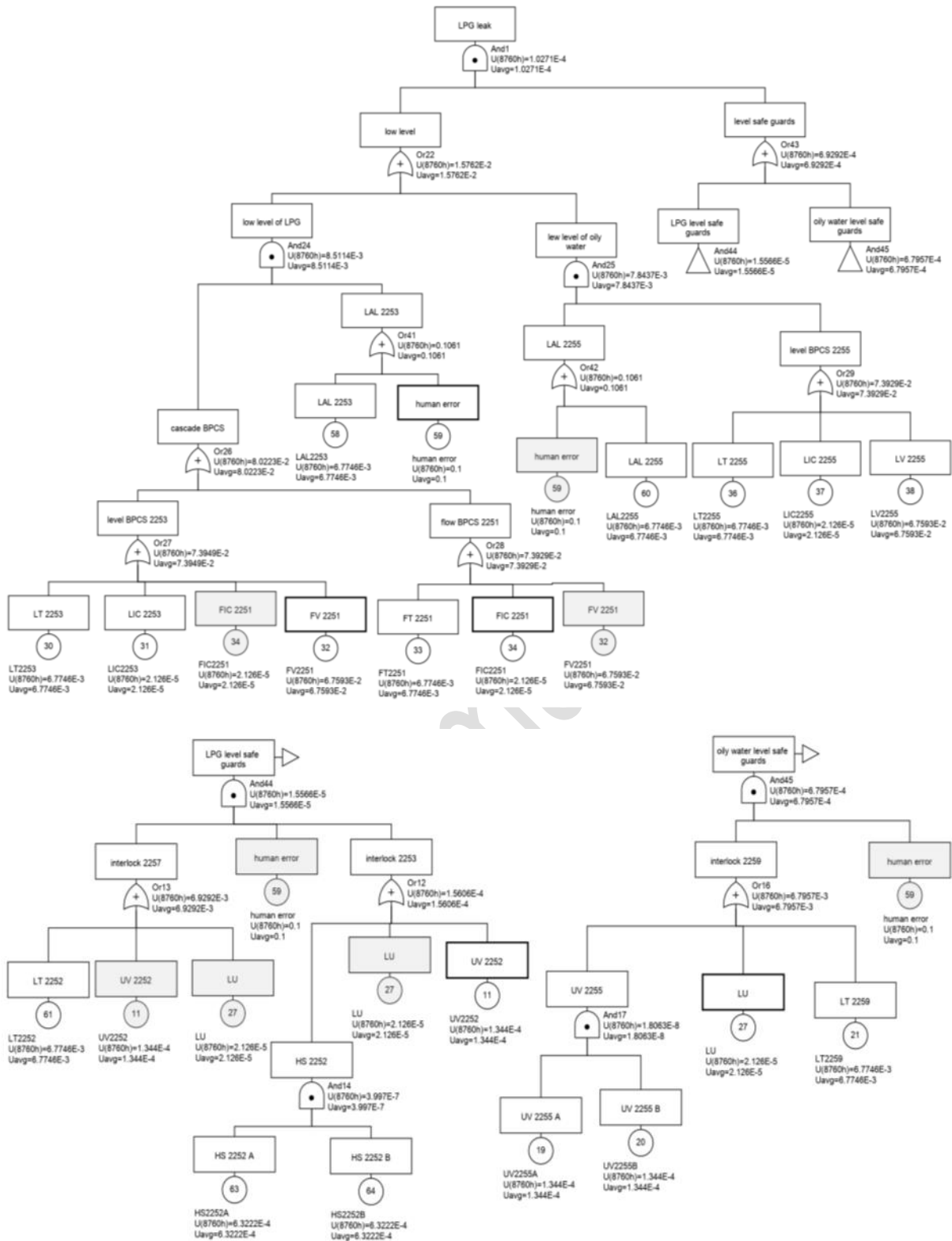


Figure 9. Fault Tree of the consequence "LPG leak from stabilizer B reflux drum V-62".

In case of LPG leak, there is an impact on the environment due to air pollution resulting from gas dispersion or gas combustion. To appreciate the impact of the obtained consequences, we simulate threat zones of thermal

and overpressure effects related to the UVCE, and the dispersion of pollutants resulting from LPG release using ALOHA [44]. Results of thermal effects are shown in figure 10.

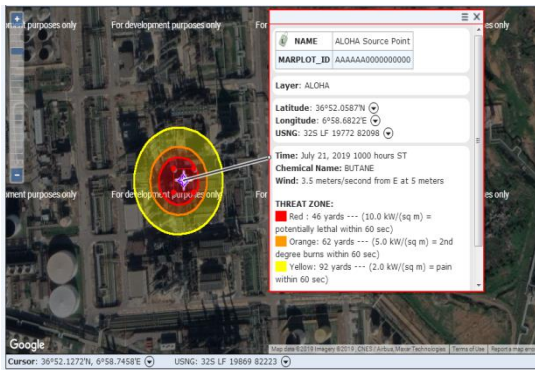


Figure 10. Thermal effects

Thermal effects shown in figure 10 are represented by MARPLOT. Impacted zones could extend to reach 90 m.

Distances and threat zones related to the UVCE thermal effects resulting from LPG leak in stabilizer-B reflux drum are shown in the table 7.

Table 7. Distances and areas threatened by thermal effects

Threshold	distance	Threat zones
10 KW/M2	45 m	U10, South of U100
05 KW/M2	60 m	U10, U100
02 KW/M2	90 m	U10, North of U11, U100

The results of overpressure effects are shown in figure 11.

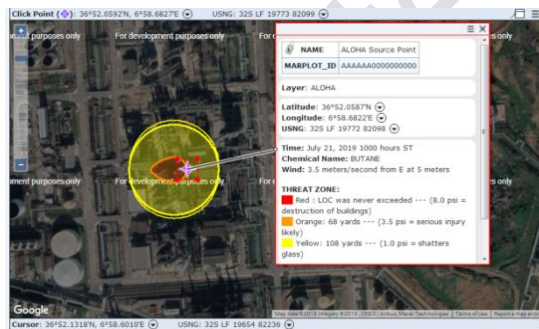


Figure 11. overpressure effects

Overpressure effects shown in figure 11 are represented by MARPLOT. Impacted zones could extend to reach 105 m.

Distances and threat zones related to the UVCE overpressure effects resulting from LPG leak in stabilizer B reflux drum are shown in the table 8.

Table 8. Distances and areas threatened by overpressure effects

Threshold	distance	Threat zones
08 Psi	/	/
3.5 psi	70 m	U10, South of U100
01 Psi	105 m	U10, North of U11, U100

The results related to the dispersion of pollutants are shown in figure 12.

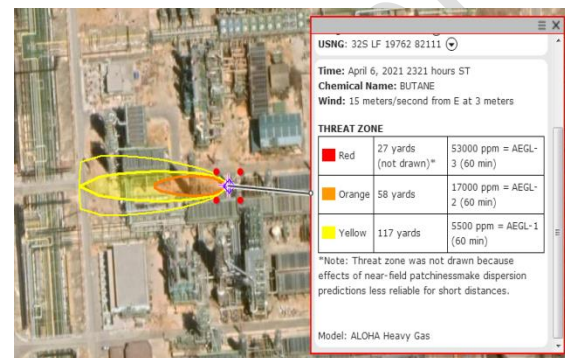


Figure 12. Dispersion of pollutants

Dispersion of pollutants shown in figure 12 is represented by MARPLOT. Impacted zones could extend to reach 107 m.

Distances and threat zones related to the dispersion of pollutants resulting from LPG leak in stabilizer-B reflux drum are shown in the table 9.

Table 9. Distances and areas threatened by pollutants dispersion

Threshold	distance	Threat zones
53000 ppm	25 m	U10
17000 ppm	53 m	U10
5500 ppm	107 m	U10, West of U10

Figures 13, 14, 15 and 16 represent the concentration of pollutants at different points from the release onset.

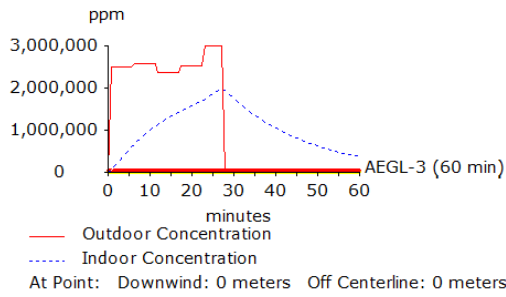


Figure 13. concentration of pollutants at point (0m)

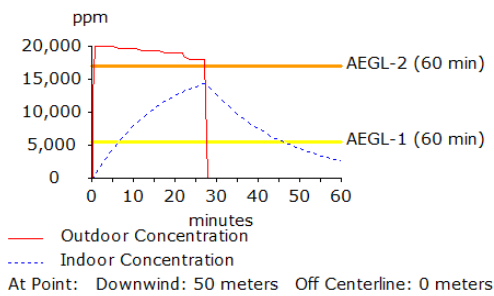


Figure 14. concentration of pollutants at point (50m)

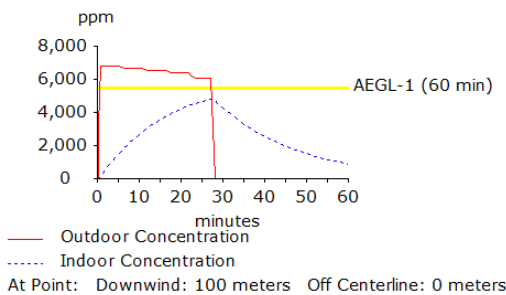


Figure 15. concentration of pollutants at point (100m)

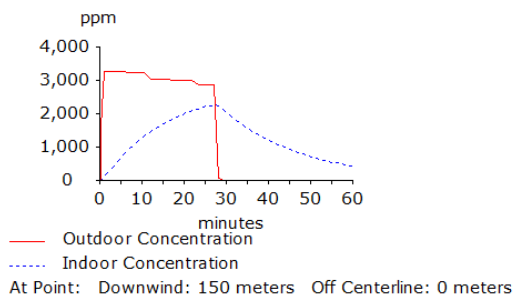


Figure 16. concentration of pollutants at point (150m)

Figure 13 shows that concentration of pollutants reaches the value of 2,500,000 ppm just at the onset of depression, it increases to reach the maximum value of 3,000,000 ppm within 25 min.

Figures 14, 15 and 16 illustrate the displacement of the cloud following an accidental release. It shows the estimated concentration of pollutants (in ppm) in outdoor, the value decreases in time. It reaches 20,000 ppm at point 50 m and decreases to almost 7000 ppm at point 100 m, then to 3400 at 150 m, the estimated time of the concentration at each point is 28 min.

Basing on the frequency obtained by Fault Tree analysis ( $1,0271.10^{-4}$ ) and the severity concluded from the impact simulation using ALOHA (overpressure effects distance reach 105 m, thermal effects reach 90 m and the dispersion of pollutants reach 60 m), then referring to the risk matrix of skikda refinery, the frequency of LPG release is classified (F3) and the severity in case of ignition is (G4), so the risk is judged not acceptable, to reduce the risk to an acceptable level, other protection layers must be taken in consideration or the amelioration of the safety instrumented system might be the solution.

For that it is necessary to verify the SIL of our safety instrumented system. First, we have to determine the required SIL, then we calculate the real SIL.

#### IV.2. Allocation of safety integrity level (required SIL)

The second step of this approach is to allocate the required SIL to the SIS. The most reliable method is LOPA, so it's chosen to define the SIL that must be reached by the SIS in order to achieve the necessary risk reduction. The results are shown in the table 9.

PFDD values are taken from table 6. The chosen impact event is LPG release from the boot of Naphta stabilizer-B reflux (V-62) drum due to failure of BPCS, which leads to an UVCE if it is not mitigated.

Depending on the results that will be obtained from LOPA study, and comparing to the real SIL to be calculated, it will be decided which modification will be taken in order to ameliorate the safety integrity level (SIL) of the safety instrumented system (SIS).

TABLE 9. LOPA related to impact event LPG release

10	Tolerable mitigated event likelihood					$10^{-5}$
9	PFD <sub>avg</sub> and required SIL					$1,4643.10^{-4}$ <b>SIL3</b>
8	Intermediate event likelihood	$6,7746.10^{-4}$	$2,126.10^{-6}$	$6,7593.10^{-2}$	Total	$6,8291.10^{-2}$
7	Protection layers (PLs)	Additional mitigation	1	1	1	
6		restricted access	1	1	1	
5		alarms	0,1	1	1	
5		Control system	1	0,1	1	
4	General design	1	1	1		
4	Initiation likelihood	$6,7746.10^{-3}$	$2,126.10^{-5}$	$6,7593.10^{-2}$		
3	Initiating cause	LT-2255 failures	LJC-2255 failures	LV-2255 failures		
2	Severity level					4
1	Impact event	LPG release to atmosphere				

Following the result obtained from LOPA method (table 9), which give us a PFD value of  $1,4643.10^{-4}$ , we conclude the required SIL for our studied system is SIL 3.

To verify this result we can use also a qualitative method using Risk matrix.

The classification methodology comprises of Classification of SIF dangerous failures, it takes into account:

- Demand rate of the SIF (interval between demands)
- Consequences related to personnel health and safety.
- Consequences related to production and equipment loss.
- Consequences related to the environmental impact.

The determination of all categories related to the demand rate, consequences on health and safety, economic and the environment is shown in tables 10, 11, 12 and 13.

TABLE 10. Demand rate category [42]

Category	Demand rate
D0	Negligible
D1	> 20 years
D2	4 to 20 years
D3	6 months to 4 years
D4	< 6 months

TABLE 11. Environmental consequences category [42]

Category	Consequence	Description
E0	No Effect	No environmental damage. No financial consequences.
E1	Slight Effect	Local environmental effect. Within the boundary fence and within systems. Negligible financial consequences.
E2	Minor Effect	Contamination sufficiently large to damage the environment or single complaint. Single exceedance of statutory or prescribed limit. No permanent effect on the environment.
E3	Local Effect	Limited discharge of known toxicity. Repeated exceedance of statutory or prescribed limit. Affecting the neighborhood beyond the boundary fence.
E4	Major Effect	Severe environmental damage. The company is required to take extensive measures to restore the contaminated environment to its original state. Extended exceedance of statutory or prescribed limit.
E5	Massive Effect	Persistent severe environmental damage or severe nuisance extending over a large area. Loss of commercial, recreational use or nature conservancy resulting in major financial consequences. Constant and high exceedance of statutory or prescribed limit.

TABLE 12. Health and safety consequences category [42]

Category	Health and safety consequences
S0	No injury or health effect
S1	Slight injury or health effect
S2	Minor injury or health effect
S3	Major injury or health effect
S4	One to three fatalities
S5	Multiple fatalities

TABLE 13. Economic consequences category [42]

Category	Economic consequences
L0	No loss
L1	Slight loss
L2	Minor loss
L3	Local loss
L4	Major loss
L5	Extensive loss

TABLE 14. Risk matrix [42]

Consequence category			Demand rate category				
S	E	L	D0	D1	D2	D3	D4
Health & safety	environmental	economic					
S0	E0	L0	-	-	-	-	-
S1	E1	L1	-	-	A1	A2	A2
S2	E2	L2	-	A1	A2	1	2
S3	E3	L3	-	A2	1	2	3
S4	E4	L4	-	1	2	3	4
S5	E5	L5	-	2	3	4	X

Basing on previous experiences and results obtained by ALOHA simulation we can determine the categories as follows:

- Demand rate: D3
- Health and safety consequences category: S4
- Economic consequences category: L4
- Environmental consequences category: E3

Using informations in risk matrix (table 14) allows to determine that the overall required SIL is SIL 3.

IV.3. Realization and validation of the SIS (real SIL)

The final step is the validation of the SIS, the purpose of this step is to check the real SIL so we can judge if it is suitable to the SIS in our system, if not, we propose an other safety barrier or modify the architecture of our SIS. The best method to do that is Fault Tree, so it is chosen to evaluate the real SIL. The different reliability data used are shown in Table 6 [42, 43].

The obtained results using GRIF software are shown in figure 17 [41].

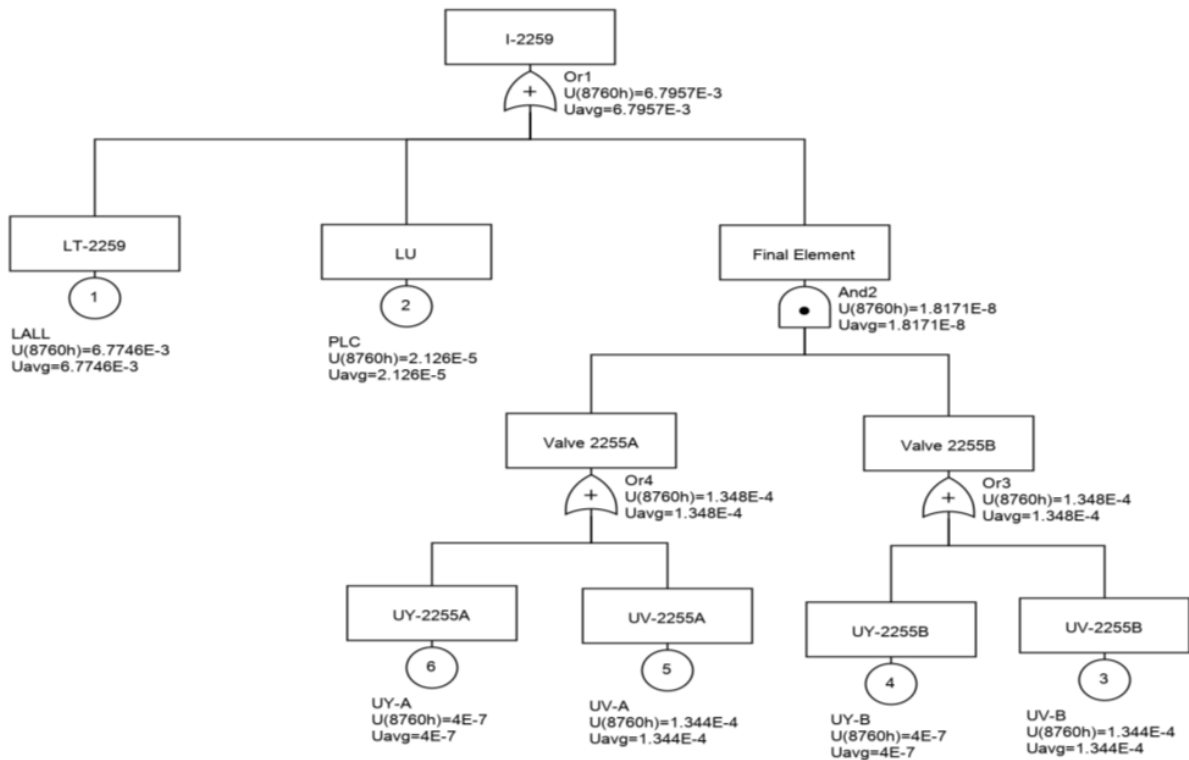


Figure 17. Fault Tree related to the SIS.

Using informations of table 1 and table 6 and Fault Tree in figure 17 allows us to define the real SIL related to the studied SIS in our system. The obtained result of PFD is  $6,7957 \cdot 10^{-3}$ , so the real SIL of our SIS is SIL 2.

IV.3.1. Illustration of the real SIL using RBD

There are two configurations to define the SIL:

- **NOON** configuration:  
 $SIL = \text{MIN} (SIL (\text{canal } i, i = 1, \dots, N))$
- **KOON** configuration:  
 $SIL = \text{MIN} (\text{MAX} (SIL (\text{canal } i)) + N - K, SIL 4)$

$SIL(LT, LU) = \min(SIL2, SIL4) = SIL2$ .  
 $SIL(UV_A, UV_B) = \min(\max(SIL3, SIL3) + 1, SIL4) = SIL4$ .  
 $SIL(global) = \min(SIL2, SIL4) = SIL2$ .  
 The result of the SIL is represented in figure 18.

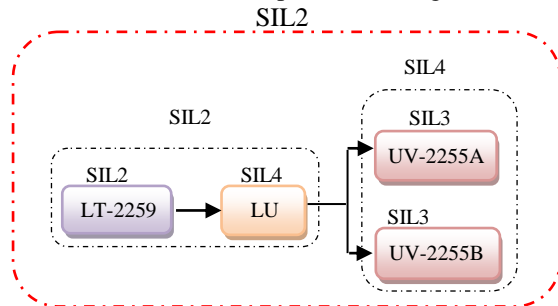


Figure 18. existing architecture of the SIS

**V. Results and discussion**

Following what mentioned before the required SIL for our studied SIS is SIL3 based on the result of PFD obtained by using LOPA ( $1,4643.10^{-4}$ ), while the real SIL is SIL 2 based on the result of PFD obtained by using Fault Tree ( $6,7957.10^{-3}$ ).

As we can see the real SIL is not enough to meet the requirements of our SIS, for that a modification of the SIS is necessary to reach the required SIL. In this context we propose to modify the architecture of the SIS by modifying the architecture of transmitters, the existing is 1001, so

we propose the architecture 2003 as it is represented in figure 19.

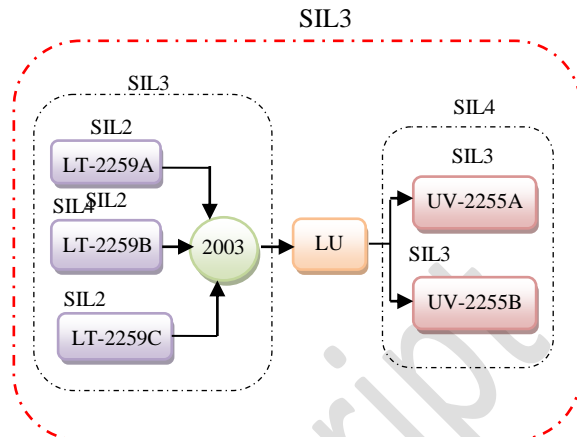


Figure 19. proposed architecture of the SIS

**V.1. Validation of the results using Fault Tree**

After modifying the architecture of the level transmitter from 1001 to 2003, we will use Fault Tree to calculate the new PFD of our SIS, so we can determine the value of the new SIL. The modified architecture of the level transmitter is represented inside the red square in figure 20. The obtained results of Fault Tree are shown in the same figure.

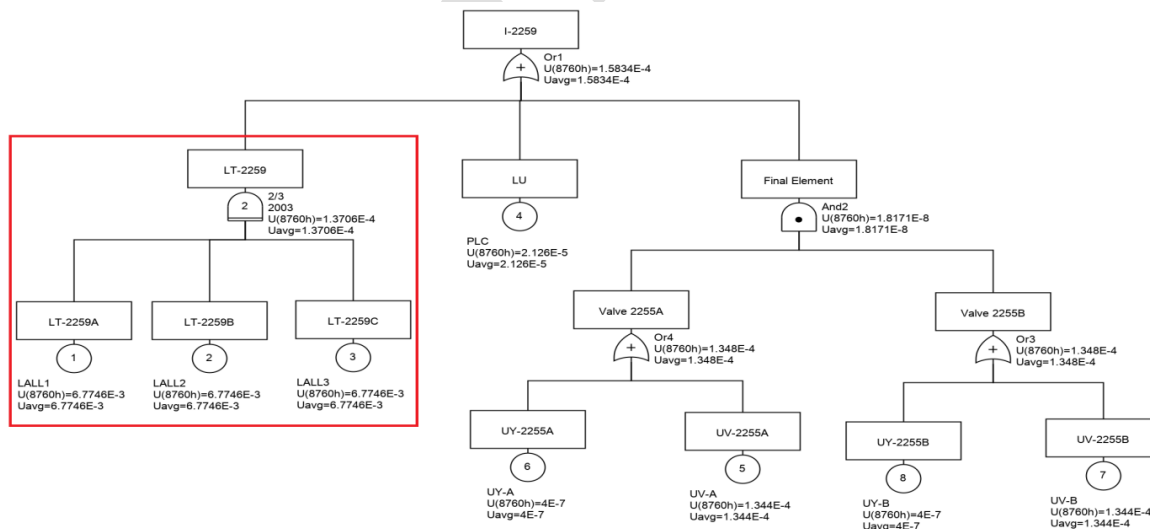


Figure 20. Fault Tree related to the proposed architecture of the SIS.

Using informations of table 1 and table 6 and Fault Tree in figure 20 allows us to define the new real SIL related to our studied SIS. The new obtained

PFD after the modification is  $1,5834.10^{-4}$ , so the new SIL of the modified SIS will be SIL3.

## VI. Recommendations

Based on the obtained results after the proposed modification we confirm the proposed architecture of the level transmitter, so we recommend to:

- Modify the architecture of the level transmitter (LT-2259) of our SIS (I-2259) from 1001 to 2003.
- Increase the test frequency of the SIS, the test should be every six months instead of one year (4380 h instead of 8760 h), that leads to decrease the PFD value, so the SIL could be higher.

## VII. Conclusion

The main objective of this work was to evaluate a safety instrumented system using HAZOP-LOPA Fault Tree methodology. We have first introduced the main steps of the proposed methodology. Then, we have briefly described the system on which we have illustrated this approach. It consists of Naphta stabilizer-B reflux drum of a crude oil unit in Skikda refinery.

The illustration was initiated by a risk analysis conducted using the HAZOP method. It has shown that the failure of the level regulation system constitutes an important source for triggering the accidental process.

The application of LOPA for determining the necessary risk reduction, which must be provided by the safety instrumented system (SIS), gave us as a result SIL3 like a required SIL basing on the obtained PFD ( $1,4643.10^{-4}$ ), while the real SIL was obtained by using Fault Tree based on the calculation of the PFD, the result of PFD ( $6,7957.10^{-3}$ ) allows us to determine the value of SIL2. The real SIL is not enough to reach the required risk reduction.

To reach the SIL target a modification has been proposed. It consists to modify the architecture of the level transmitter from 1001 to 2003. Calculations after the proposed modification gave us the needed value of PFD ( $1,5834.10^{-4}$ ), so the new SIL after modification will be SIL3 as required.

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