

# Analytic Probabilistic Safety Analysis Under Severe Uncertainty

Jonathan Sadeghi<sup>1</sup>, Marco De Angelis<sup>2</sup>, and Edoardo Patelli<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>PhD candidate, Institute for Risk and Uncertainty, Chadwick Building, University of Liverpool,  
Peach Street, Liverpool L69 7ZF, United Kingdom

<sup>2</sup>Post-doctoral researcher, Institute for Risk and Uncertainty, Chadwick Building, University of  
Liverpool, Peach Street, Liverpool L69 7ZF, United Kingdom

<sup>3</sup>Senior Lecturer, Institute for Risk and Uncertainty, Chadwick Building, University of Liverpool,  
Peach Street, Liverpool L69 7ZF, United Kingdom, edoardo.patelli@liverpool.ac.uk

## ABSTRACT

Exact analytic expressions are given to evaluate the reliability of systems consisting of components, connected in parallel or series, subject to imprecise failure distributions. We also proposed a simplified version of the first order reliability method to deal with imprecision. This development allows engineers to evaluate the reliability of systems without having to resort to optimisation techniques and/or Monte Carlo simulation. In addition, this framework does not need to assume a distribution for the epistemic uncertainty, which permits a robust analysis even with limited data. In this way, the approach removes a significant barrier to the modelling of epistemic uncertainties in industrial probabilistic safety analysis workflows.

## INTRODUCTION

Probabilistic safety analysis (PSA) was first introduced in the 1970s as a means of establishing the probability of a certain amount of radiation release to the environment from a nuclear structure. It is perceived to address many of the weaknesses of deterministic analysis (Modarres and Kim 2010). For example, deterministic analysis relies heavily on engineering conservatism which could

23 be difficult to quantify in practice. In addition, it is not always clear what the most conservative  
24 value for a particular parameter is when performing a black box analysis.

25 In recent years, techniques from the area of imprecise probability have been increasingly  
26 applied to Probabilistic Safety Analysis studies in academic literature (Karanki et al. 2009) (Beer  
27 and Patelli 2015). Imprecise probabilities offer a natural framework to model uncertainty due  
28 to lack of knowledge (epistemic uncertainty). Epistemic uncertainty is particularly important  
29 in the nuclear industry where there is often a lack of sufficient data to completely model relevant  
30 phenomena. This uncertainty can be modelled as interval uncertainty in the parameters of traditional  
31 probability distributions, which is known as probability bounds analysis, where the imprecise  
32 distributions themselves are referred to as probability boxes (Ferson et al. 2003). This approach  
33 strikes a pragmatic compromise between engineering conservatism and overly optimistic analyses.  
34 However, the techniques proposed usually require sophisticated simulation techniques (Patelli 2016;  
35 Patelli et al. 2017a). For example, to propagate uncertainty through a complex black box model  
36 computationally expensive Monte Carlo or optimisation methods are used (Patelli et al. 2015).  
37 Although efficient simulation approaches for dealing with imprecision have recently been proposed  
38 (e.g. using Line Sampling (de Angelis et al. 2015), Subset simulation (Patelli et al. 2011) and tools  
39 to deal with probability boxes (Patelli et al. 2014; Patelli et al. 2017b; Faes et al. 2019)), their use  
40 in the nuclear industry is not yet widespread. In Ref. (Le Duy et al. 2010) recommendations are  
41 made for how available data can be used to define probability boxes. In Ref. (Qiu et al. 2008)  
42 approximate results were derived for structural systems where the First Order Reliability Method  
43 (FORM) could be applied. In the United States the nuclear regulator (Budnitz et al. 1985) refers  
44 to the work of Kennedy who provides many analytic relationships to establish the fragility curve  
45 for a containment with a conventional probabilistic treatment (Kennedy et al. 1980). The effect of  
46 epistemic uncertainty in PSA with conventional probability was considered in (Prinja et al. 2017;  
47 Sun and Yao 2008).

48 In (conventional) structural probabilistic safety analysis often the relations used are simple  
49 analytic expressions which, in contrast to the methods based on imprecise probability, allow the

50 failure probability of the system to be computed with no Monte Carlo simulation at all. This offers  
51 two significant advantages. Firstly, the computational time required to complete the calculations  
52 is greatly reduced, which allows projects to be completed on shorter timescales and less money to  
53 be spent on High Performance Computing. Secondly, the time of engineers is saved as they are  
54 not required to spend large amounts of time programming Monte Carlo simulations, which reduces  
55 expenditure for their employer, and consequently benefits the industry as a whole.

56 In this paper, we will propose imprecise probabilistic analogues to many of the probabilistic  
57 formulae proposed in Kennedy's paper which have become standard expressions used in proba-  
58 bilistic safety analysis. In this way, we hope to unite the conventional literature which is applied  
59 to PSA in industry with relatively recent developments in imprecise probability. The analysis will  
60 make extensive use of the probability boxes introduced in probability bounds theory. We will  
61 demonstrate how to establish the fragility curve of a system when components are connected in  
62 parallel or series, and when the failures of the components may have unknown dependencies. We  
63 will demonstrate how to establish a probability box fragility curve when the product of random  
64 variables must be considered. Then, we will also demonstrate how this can be used to calculate  
65 the failure probability when there is additional imprecision in the load distribution. We will also  
66 consider the implications of the imprecise First Order Reliability Method (FORM), and show how  
67 we can analytically obtain results from a simplified calculation when the exact reliability index  
68 is difficult to obtain. All of the above are particularly useful when combined with an event tree  
69 to e.g. yield the expected radiation release to the environment or to calculate the reliability of  
70 complex plant. The proposed approach considers only independence of components or complete  
71 lack of information on dependence. In fact, the framework of imprecise probability enables the  
72 consideration of correlations between events, for example via convex sets or copula functions. This  
73 would be a useful future generalisation of the work in this paper, as any additional information  
74 available will allow the bounds on the probability of failure to be tightened.

75 The merit of this approach is that the entire fragility curve can be constructed by one analyst  
76 using conventional spreadsheet packages, without the requirement to use complicated simulation

77 techniques which would require large amounts of time spent programming by the analyst. Therefore  
78 the benefits of traditional PSA approaches are retained whilst also obtaining the advantages of using  
79 probability bounds theory.

80 In Section 2 an brief overview is presented of a typical PSA calculation used to determine the  
81 fragility curve of a system. In Section 3 we propose analogues to the expressions from Section  
82 2 using probability bounds analysis. In Section 4 a simple example is presented. In Section 4  
83 we show how similar methods can be applied to obtain partial information about a more complex  
84 system. In Section 5 a brief summary is given.

## 85 **PROBABILISTIC SAFETY ANALYSIS**

86 Probabilistic safety analysis is broken down into three levels. Level 1 PSA studies the reactor  
87 and determines accident sequences which are likely to result in a release from the reactor pressure  
88 vessel. Level 2 considers the containment structure, and how likely this is to fail in an accident. This  
89 is done by creating a fragility curve for the containment, which quantifies the failure probability at  
90 a particular load. Level 3 PSA combines the information produced by level 1 and level 2 PSA to  
91 provide the probability of radiation release to the environment (Commission et al. 2005).

92 In PSA level 2 the main goal is to establish the fragility curve of a (nuclear) structure (Pellisetti  
93 et al. 2017). In seismic hazard analysis the fragility curve expresses the failure probability of the  
94 structure as a function of the peak ground acceleration. This can then be used to conduct safety  
95 analysis once the conditions inside the reactor (the ‘source term’) and the external conditions are  
96 known (Sundararajan 2012).

97 The fragility of a system is its probability of failure conditioned on a particular load. Therefore,  
98 in the context of this section of the paper, bounds on failure probabilities may be taken as bounds  
99 on fragilities. For a system,  $S$ , of components,  $c_i$ , connected in series (i.e. the system will fail if one  
100 component fails) the fragility of the system,  $f(s|a)$ , at a damage measure  $a$  (i.e. the peak ground  
101 acceleration) is given by

$$102 \quad f(s|a) = 1 - \prod_{c_i \in S} [1 - f(c_i|a)], \quad (1)$$

103 when the fragilities of the individual components are independently distributed (Kennedy et al.  
104 1980).

105 If the dependence is not known then the value of  $f(s|a)$  given by Eqn. (1) is an upper bound  
106 which, for the small probabilities relevant to this type of analysis, approaches the value given by  
107 the more general Boole's inequality, in what is known as the rare event approximation (Collet  
108 1996). Boole's inequality can be used to calculate an upper bound on the probability that at least  
109 one event from a set of events occurs, i.e. the probability that a series system fails, when the  
110 dependence between different events is unknown. The Fréchet inequalities are similar upper and  
111 lower bounds that apply to the union and intersection of events when no information is available  
112 about the dependence of events (Rüschendorf 1991).

113 Boole's inequality is equal to the right hand side of the Fréchet inequality for the upper bound  
114 of the union of  $n$  events:

$$115 \quad \max(P(A_1), \dots, P(A_n)) \leq P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) \leq \min(1, P(A_1) + \dots + P(A_n)). \quad (2)$$

116 The other Fréchet inequality (which applies for components connected in parallel) being

$$117 \quad \max(0, P(A_1) + \dots + P(A_n) - (n - 1)) \leq P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) \leq \min(P(A_1), \dots, P(A_n)). \quad (3)$$

118 Note that both Boole's inequality and the Fréchet inequalities are conservative bounds which should  
119 be used when the dependence between failure events is unknown.

120 If the fragilities of the components are independently distributed and the components are  
121 connected in parallel (i.e. the system has redundancy and fails if every component fails) then the  
122 system's fragility is given by

$$123 \quad f(s|a) = \prod_{c_i \in S} [f(c_i|a)], \quad (4)$$

124 If the dependence between component fragilities is not known then the value of  $f(s|a)$  given  
125 by Eqn. (4) is an upper bound (Kennedy et al. 1980). These formulae can also be applied to

126 connected systems which form super systems, in which case the unknown dependence versions on  
127 the equations should be used (Kennedy et al. 1980).

128 In probabilistic safety analysis  $f(c_i|a)$  is usually modelled as a log normally distributed random  
129 variable, because the physical quantities being modelled must be greater than zero, i.e.

$$130 \quad f(c_i|a) = \phi \left( \frac{\log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right)}{\sigma_i} \right), \quad (5)$$

131 where  $\beta_i$  represents the median failure value and  $\sigma_i$  is the logarithmic standard deviation of  
132 component  $c_i$ , and  $\phi$  is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of a standard normal variable.  
133 Typically in probabilistic safety analysis aleatory uncertainty can be distinguished from epistemic  
134 uncertainty by modelling the  $\beta$  for any particular component as a lognormally distributed random  
135 variable with parameters  $\beta_e$  and  $\sigma_e$ . Hence the outer distribution (i.e. Eqn. (5), with logarithmic  
136 standard deviation  $\sigma_a$ ) will describe aleatory uncertainty, and epistemic uncertainty is modelled by  
137 the nested distribution (i.e. the inner distribution, the CDF over  $\beta$ , with parameters  $\beta_e$  and  $\sigma_e$ ).

138 In order to allow this model to be used for computation, typically the mean distribution is ob-  
139 tained (more widely known as the ‘composite’ distribution), which is also log-normally distributed.  
140 This is an averaged distribution obtained by combining the aleatory uncertainty (i.e.  $\sigma_a$  from the  
141 outer distribution) and the epistemic uncertainty (our uncertainty in the distribution parameters,  
142  $\sigma_e$ ) (Kim et al. 2010). For the composite distribution, the logarithmic standard deviation,  $\sigma_c$ , is the  
143 euclidean norm of the two lognormal logarithmic standard deviations, i.e.  $\sigma_c = \sqrt{\sigma_a^2 + \sigma_e^2}$  and the  
144 median is simply the median of the inner (epistemic) distribution,  $\beta_c = \beta_e$  (a detailed derivation  
145 is provided in Ref. (Kaplan et al. 1994)). This distribution is assumed to be conservative, since it  
146 approaches the asymptotic values in the tails of the distributions described by the extrema of the  
147 epistemic distribution (Kennedy et al. 1980). However, in many cases there may be insufficient  
148 data to truly know that our epistemic uncertainty is log-normally distributed.

149 Figure 1 shows an example of a composite distribution compared to the median fragility curve

150 and the 5th and 95th percentiles of the epistemic uncertainty. As discussed, the mean curve  
 151 approaches the extreme outer distributions' tails (obtained by taking  $\beta$  from the 5th and 95th  
 152 percentiles of the nested epistemic distribution and  $\sigma = \sigma_a$ ). Clearly the median curve could not  
 153 be used for this purpose as it does not adequately describe the range of our belief in the peak ground  
 154 acceleration.

## 155 PROBABILITY BOUNDS ANALYSIS

### 156 Fragility Curve

157 Let us consider the fragility distribution for a general component given by Eqn. (1). Instead of  
 158 considering  $\beta_i$  as a random variable and finding the composite distribution we will instead consider  
 159 uncertainty in  $\beta_i$  and  $\sigma_i$  as intervals. This enables the random variables to be converted into  
 160 probability boxes, since probability boxes are nothing more than cumulative distribution functions  
 161 with interval imprecision on the distribution parameters. This framework is attractive for several  
 162 reasons. Firstly, we do not need to assume a distribution for our epistemic uncertainty, which  
 163 permits a robust analysis even with limited data. Secondly, instead of having to find the composite  
 164 distribution we can simply find the envelope of our distributions. Note that uniform distributions  
 165 are conceptually different from interval incertitude, since a uniform distribution specifies that each  
 166 value in the support of the distribution is equally likely, whereas an interval describes lack of  
 167 knowledge in a set-like manner, without implications for the likelihood of different elements within  
 168 the set. Furthermore, note that using probability distributions to represent epistemic uncertainty  
 169 has been shown to have undesirable consequences (Balch 2016) (Balch et al. 2017).

170 In Appendix I we show that if  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \overline{\beta}_i]$  and  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \overline{\sigma}_i]$  then the distributional probability  
 171 box can be converted to a distribution free probability box where the upper bound of the fragility  
 172 is given by

$$173 \overline{f(c_i|a)} = \phi \left( \frac{\log\left(\frac{a}{\underline{\beta}_i}\right) - \left| \log\left(\frac{a}{\underline{\beta}_i}\right) \right|}{2\underline{\sigma}_i} + \frac{\log\left(\frac{a}{\overline{\beta}_i}\right) + \left| \log\left(\frac{a}{\overline{\beta}_i}\right) \right|}{2\overline{\sigma}_i} \right), \quad (6)$$

174

175 and the lower bound of the fragility is given by

$$176 \quad \underline{f}(c_i|a) = \phi \left( \frac{\log\left(\frac{a}{\beta_i}\right) + \left| \log\left(\frac{a}{\beta_i}\right) \right|}{2\overline{\sigma}_i} + \frac{\log\left(\frac{a}{\beta_i}\right) - \left| \log\left(\frac{a}{\beta_i}\right) \right|}{2\underline{\sigma}_i} \right), \quad (7)$$

177

178 where the  $|\cdot|$  operator represents the absolute value of a quantity. These bounds are shown in  
 179 Figure 2. In general converting distributional probability boxes to distribution free probability boxes  
 180 results in loss of information (Alvarez et al. 2017). However, in this case Eqn. (6) and Eqn. (7)  
 181 are a result of taking the natural extension of Eqn. (5) and therefore the values obtained will be the  
 182 tightest bounds possible, so in the specific case of Eqn. (6) and Eqn. (7) there is no consequence  
 183 to making the conversion. The other results in this section provide the tightest possible bound in  
 184 the case of unknown dependence, since we simply apply a Fréchet inequality. Note that the other  
 185 results in the paper, after this section, do not make use of the conversion used in this section, in  
 186 order to avoid the potential information loss.

187 For systems containing components in series or parallel, when the component failures are known  
 188 to be independent, the fragility can be calculated by using Eqn. (1) and Eqn. (4), respectively.  
 189 Alternatively, if the failure dependence is unknown we can use the relevant Fréchet inequality,  
 190 Eqns. (2) and (3), to yield the fragility. Alternatively, in the case of unknown failure dependence,  
 191 the rare event approximation (described in Section 2) can be used to justify the application of  
 192 Eqn. (1) and Eqn. (4) which will be accurate in the tails of the distributions (i.e. for rare events).

193 Therefore, using the natural interval extension of Eqn. (2) with Eqn. (6) and Eqn. (7) it can be  
 194 shown that, for components in series, the probability of failure at a particular ground motion,  $a$ ,  
 195 with certainty falls in the interval given by

$$196 \quad f(s|a) \in \left[ \max_i \left[ \underline{f}(c_i|a) \right], \min \left( 1, \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \overline{f}(c_i|a) \right] \right) \right], \quad (8)$$



i.e.

$$f(s|a) \in \left[ \max_i \left[ \phi \left( \frac{\log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) + \left| \log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) \right|}{2\overline{\sigma_i}} + \frac{\log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) - \left| \log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) \right|}{2\underline{\sigma_i}} \right) \right], \right. \\ \left. \min \left( 1, \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \phi \left( \frac{\log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) - \left| \log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) \right|}{2\overline{\sigma_i}} + \frac{\log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) + \left| \log \left( \frac{a}{\beta_i} \right) \right|}{2\underline{\sigma_i}} \right) \right] \right) \right]. \quad (9)$$

### Product of log-normally distributed random variables

Often the fragility curve for a component must be established by considering the product of a number of random variables with lognormal distributions. If this is the case then the probability bounds analysis approach can be extended to allow us to find the relevant fragility curve. To demonstrate, consider a general random variable  $d$  which is given by the product of other random variables, i.e.

$$d = q \frac{a^r b^s}{c^t}, \quad (10)$$

where  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are lognormal random variables and  $q$ ,  $r$ ,  $s$  and  $t$  are constants. It is clear that  $d$  will be lognormally distributed with median  $\beta_d = q \frac{\beta_a^r \beta_b^s}{\beta_c^t}$ , and logarithmic standard deviation  $\sigma_d^2 = r^2 \sigma_a^2 + s^2 \sigma_b^2 + t^2 \sigma_c^2$  (Kennedy et al. 1980).

In the case of interval imprecision in the distribution parameters of  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  we can obtain

$$\overline{\beta_d} = q \cdot \frac{\overline{\beta_a^r} \cdot \overline{\beta_b^s}}{\underline{\beta_c^t}}, \quad (11)$$

and

$$\underline{\beta_d} = q \cdot \frac{\beta_a^r \cdot \beta_b^s}{\overline{\beta_c^t}}, \quad (12)$$

by using the endpoint formulae for interval multiplication (Moore et al. 2009) with knowledge of the support of the distribution parameters. The logarithmic standard deviation can be obtained

213 from

$$214 \quad \overline{\sigma_d^2} = r^2 \overline{\sigma_a^2} + s^2 \overline{\sigma_b^2} + t^2 \overline{\sigma_c^2}, \quad (13)$$

215 and

$$216 \quad \underline{\sigma_d^2} = r^2 \underline{\sigma_a^2} + s^2 \underline{\sigma_b^2} + t^2 \underline{\sigma_c^2}, \quad (14)$$

217 by taking the interval extension of the expression stated above for the case of no interval imprecision.

218 This is principally of use when computing the response factor,  $F$ , which can be expressed as the  
219 product of a number of response factors applying to different pieces of equipment and processes (for  
220 example damping effects or modelling effects), i.e.  $F = \prod_i F_i$ . The  $F_i$  are modelled as lognormal  
221 random variables and may have interval imprecision in the median (Sundararajan 2012).

## 222 **Failure Probability**

223 Consider a system which fails when the load exceeds the strength. For a general load distribution  
224 the failure probability is given by

$$225 \quad P_f = - \int_0^\infty \frac{dH(a)}{da} f(s|a) da, \quad (15)$$

226 where  $H(a)$  is the seismic hazard curve (i.e. the probability that the ‘load’ exceeds a certain value  
227 in a particular unit of time, which usually takes the form of the complement of a CDF since it must  
228 be monotonically decreasing, and the probability cannot exceed 1) (American Society of Civil En-  
229 gineers 2005). When  $H(a)$  and  $f(s|a)$  are both log normally distributed, it is simple to solve  
230 Eqn. (15) by transforming the integral (Kapur and Lamberson 1977). However, in general this  
231 integral is not solvable analytically and it cannot be solved analytically when the fragility curve is  
232 replaced with the distribution free probability boxes derived in the previous section.

233 Therefore to derive bounds on the failure probability of systems subject to distributional proba-  
234 bility box loads and fragilities we will apply Fréchet bounds and interval arithmetic to well known  
235 results obtained by solving Eqn. (15) for common probability distributions.

236 For example consider the case where the probability distribution function of the load,  $\frac{dH(a)}{da}$ ,

237 is log-normally distributed with parameters  $\beta_l$  and  $\sigma_l$  and the fragility,  $f(s|a)$ , is lognormally  
 238 distributed with parameters  $\beta_i$  and  $\sigma_i$ . In this case, the failure probability can be evaluated as

$$239 \quad P_f = \phi \left( -\frac{\log \beta_i - \log \beta_l}{\sqrt{\sigma_i^2 + \sigma_l^2}} \right). \quad (16)$$

240 A plot of distributions used in Eqn. (16) with example parameters is shown in Figure 3.

241 To calculate an upper bound on the failure probability for a series system we evaluate the  
 242 maximum and minimum of Eqn. (16) with  $\beta_l \in [\underline{\beta}_l, \bar{\beta}_l]$ ,  $\sigma_l \in [\underline{\sigma}_l, \bar{\sigma}_l]$ ,  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \bar{\beta}_i]$ ,  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \bar{\sigma}_i]$   
 243 and Eqn. (2). Analogously, for components in parallel a similar result can be obtained from Eqn. (3).  
 244 For simple systems these bounds provide useful analytic quantification of the reliability of the  
 245 system under epistemic uncertainty. However, for more complex systems the bounds are usually  
 246 not analytically calculable and hence numerical integration may be necessary (e.g. (Samaniego  
 247 2007), (Patelli et al. 2017b), (Feng et al. 2016)).

248 It is likely that there is uncertainty in  $\beta_l$  and  $\sigma_l$ . If this is the case then the analysis can be made  
 249 robust using an uncertainty quantification approach for the load distribution which is analogous to  
 250 the approach used for the fragility.

251 In some works, such as ASCE 43-05 (Braverman et al. 2007), the hazard curve has been  
 252 modelled as a power law, since this is a good approximation to the Cauchy-Pareto complementary  
 253 cumulative distribution function (Kennedy 2011). Such an equation takes the form of

$$254 \quad H(a) = k_1 a^{-K_H}, \quad (17)$$

255 where  $k_1$  and  $K_H$  are positive fitted constants.  $K_H$  represents the slope of the mean seismic hazard  
 256 curve when plotted on log-log scale. With a log-normal fragility in the parametrisation used in this  
 257 paper, the failure probability for a single component is given by

$$258 \quad P_f = H(\beta_i) \exp \frac{(K_H \sigma_i)^2}{2}. \quad (18)$$

259 A plot of distributions used in Eqn. (18) with example parameters is shown in Figure 4.

260 When there is interval imprecision in  $K_H$ ,  $k_1$ ,  $\beta_i$  and  $\sigma_i$  we can obtain bounds on the failure  
 261 probability, and this result can be generalised trivially to the case of a parallel or series system  
 262 using the formulae given in Section 2.

### 263 Summary of Failure Probability expressions

264 In order to facilitate the efficient use of this paper, this section provides a list of results which  
 265 can be derived from the previous section. Derivations for these results are provided in Appendix I.

- 266 • Parallel System with unknown dependence; Lognormal load and Strength:

$$\overline{P_f} = \sum_{c_i \subset S} \min \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \overline{\beta}_i - \log \overline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\overline{\sigma}_i^2 + \overline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \overline{\beta}_i - \log \overline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\overline{\sigma}_i^2 + \overline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] - (n - 1) \quad (19a)$$

and

$$\overline{P_f} = \min_{c_i \subset S} \left[ \max \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \right] \quad (19b)$$

267

- Series system with unknown dependence; Lognormal load and Strength:

$$\overline{P_f} = \sum_{c_i \subset S} \max \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \quad (20a)$$

and

$$\overline{P_f} = \max_{c_i \subset S} \left[ \min \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \overline{\beta}_i - \log \overline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\overline{\sigma}_i^2 + \overline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \overline{\beta}_i - \log \overline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\overline{\sigma}_i^2 + \overline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \right] \quad (20b)$$

268

- Series system with independent components (upper bound also valid for dependant rare events); Log-normal load and strength:

$$\bar{P}_f = 1 - \prod_{c_i \subset S} \left[ 1 - \max \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \bar{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\bar{\sigma}_i^2 + \bar{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \bar{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \right] \quad (21a)$$

and

$$\underline{P}_f = 1 - \prod_{c_i \subset S} \left[ 1 - \min \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \bar{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\bar{\sigma}_i^2 + \bar{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \bar{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \right] \quad (21b)$$

269

- Parallel system (independent components - upper bound also valid for dependant rare events); Log-normal load and strength

$$\underline{P}_f = \prod_{c_i \subset S} \min \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \bar{\beta}_i - \log \bar{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\bar{\sigma}_i^2 + \bar{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \bar{\beta}_i - \log \bar{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \quad (22a)$$

and

$$\bar{P}_f = \prod_{c_i \subset S} \max \left[ \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\bar{\sigma}_i^2 + \bar{\sigma}_l^2}} \right), \phi \left( -\frac{\log \underline{\beta}_i - \log \underline{\beta}_l}{\sqrt{\underline{\sigma}_i^2 + \underline{\sigma}_l^2}} \right) \right] \quad (22b)$$

270

- Single Component; Power Law Load, with  $k_1 \in [\underline{k}_1, \bar{k}_1]$  and  $K_H \in [\underline{K}_H, \bar{K}_H]$ ; Lognormal, with median  $\beta \in [\underline{\beta}, \bar{\beta}]$  and logarithmic standard deviation  $\sigma \in [\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]$ :

$$\bar{P}_f = \bar{k}_1 \max \left[ \underline{\beta}^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\bar{K}_H \bar{\sigma})^2}{2}, \underline{\beta}^{-\underline{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\underline{K}_H \bar{\sigma})^2}{2} \right] \quad (23a)$$

and conservative lower bound

$$\underline{P}_f = \underline{k}_1 \bar{\beta}^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(K_H \underline{\sigma})^2}{2} \quad (23b)$$

If  $\underline{K}_H > \frac{\log \bar{\beta}}{\underline{\sigma}^2}$  or  $\bar{K}_H < \frac{\log \beta}{\bar{\sigma}^2}$  a tighter lower bound is obtained from:

$$\underline{P}_f = \underline{k}_1 \min \left[ \bar{\beta}^{-\underline{K}_H} \exp \frac{(K_H \underline{\sigma})^2}{2}, \bar{\beta}^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\bar{K}_H \underline{\sigma})^2}{2} \right] \quad (23c)$$

271

- Parallel system with unknown dependence; Power Law Load, with  $k_1 \in [\underline{k}_1, \bar{k}_1]$  and  $K_H \in [\underline{K}_H, \bar{K}_H]$  Lognormal, with median  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \bar{\beta}_i]$  and logarithmic standard deviation  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \bar{\sigma}_i]$ :

$$\bar{P}_f = \bar{k}_1 \min_{c_i \subset S} \left[ \max \left[ \underline{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\bar{K}_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2}, \underline{\beta}_i^{-\underline{K}_H} \exp \frac{(K_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2} \right] \right] \quad (24a)$$

and

$$\underline{P}_f = \underline{k}_1 \sum_{c_i \subset S} \left[ \bar{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(K_H \underline{\sigma}_i)^2}{2} \right] - (n - 1) \quad (24b)$$

- Series system with unknown dependence; Power Law Load, with  $k_1 \in [\underline{k}_1, \bar{k}_1]$  and  $K_H \in [\underline{K}_H, \bar{K}_H]$  Log-normal, with median  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \bar{\beta}_i]$  and logarithmic standard deviation  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \bar{\sigma}_i]$ :

$$\bar{P}_f = \bar{k}_1 \sum_{c_i \subset S} \max \left[ \underline{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\bar{K}_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2}, \underline{\beta}_i^{-\underline{K}_H} \exp \frac{(K_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2} \right] \quad (25a)$$

and

$$\underline{P}_f = \underline{k}_1 \max_{c_i \subset S} \left[ \bar{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\underline{K}_H \sigma_i)^2}{2} \right] \quad (25b)$$

- Parallel system with independent components ( upper bound also valid for dependant rare events); Power Law Load, with  $k_1 \in [\underline{k}_1, \bar{k}_1]$  and  $K_H \in [\underline{K}_H, \bar{K}_H]$ ; Log-normal, with median  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \bar{\beta}_i]$  and logarithmic standard deviation  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \bar{\sigma}_i]$ :

$$\bar{P}_f = \prod_{c_i \subset S} \underline{k}_1 \max \left[ \bar{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\bar{K}_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2}, \underline{\beta}_i^{-\underline{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\underline{K}_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2} \right] \quad (26a)$$

and

$$\underline{P}_f = \prod_{c_i \subset S} \bar{k}_1 \bar{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\underline{K}_H \sigma_i)^2}{2} \quad (26b)$$

- Series system with independent components (upper bound also valid for dependant rare events); Power Law Load, with  $k_1 \in [\underline{k}_1, \bar{k}_1]$  and  $K_H \in [\underline{K}_H, \bar{K}_H]$ ; Log-normal, with median  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \bar{\beta}_i]$  and logarithmic standard deviation  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \bar{\sigma}_i]$  :

$$\bar{P}_f = 1 - \prod_{c_i \subset S} \left[ 1 - \bar{k}_1 \max \left[ \bar{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\bar{K}_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2}, \underline{\beta}_i^{-\underline{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\underline{K}_H \bar{\sigma}_i)^2}{2} \right] \right] \quad (27a)$$

and

$$\underline{P}_f = 1 - \prod_{c_i \subset S} \left[ 1 - \underline{k}_1 \bar{\beta}_i^{-\bar{K}_H} \exp \frac{(\underline{K}_H \sigma_i)^2}{2} \right] \quad (27b)$$

272

## Imprecise FORM

273

The failure probability of a structural system calculated by Eqn. (15) can be approximated by

274

$P_f = \phi(-\beta)$ , using the well known FORM approximation, where  $\beta$  is the reliability index. The

275 reliability index can be obtained from

$$276 \quad \beta = \frac{\mu_S - \mu_L}{\sigma_L^2 + \sigma_S^2}, \quad (28)$$

277 where  $\mu_S$  and  $\mu_L$  are the mean values of the strength and load and  $\sigma_L$  and  $\sigma_S$  are the standard  
278 deviations of the strength and load. Note that the FORM approximation holds exactly for linear  
279 limit state functions with normally distributed strength and load, but is only an approximation when  
280 the mean and standard deviations of other distributions are used.

281 In (Qiu et al. 2008) this is extended to the case of probability box random variables, so that  
282  $\bar{P}_f = \phi(-\underline{\beta})$  and  $\underline{P}_f = \phi(-\bar{\beta})$  where

$$283 \quad \bar{\beta} = \frac{\bar{\mu}_S - \underline{\mu}_L}{\underline{\sigma}_L^2 + \underline{\sigma}_S^2}, \quad (29)$$

284 and

$$285 \quad \underline{\beta} = \frac{\underline{\mu}_S - \bar{\mu}_L}{\bar{\sigma}_L^2 + \bar{\sigma}_S^2}. \quad (30)$$

286 In more complex cases one may need to use optimisation to find the reliability index using  
287 methods derived from the Hasofer-Lind method (Jiang et al. 2017). For example, one could  
288 imagine a system which fails if the sum of many different products of probability box distributed  
289 variables falls below a threshold. However, even in these cases, we can attempt to analyse in which  
290 conditions the system is likely to fail using a simple analytical method.

291 Consider a load term which is the product of a constant and a random variable, i.e.  $L = CL_d$ ,  
292 where  $C$  is a constant and  $L_d$  is a random variable representing the design load. The system will  
293 have a  $P_f = 0.5$  when  $\beta = 0$ , which implies the strength to load ratio,  $\gamma = \frac{\mu_S}{\mu_L}$ , will be equal to 1.  
294 Clearly, this is only the case when  $C = \gamma_d = \frac{\mu_S}{\mu_{L_d}}$ , i.e. the applied load is scaled by the strength to  
295 design load ratio (Prinja et al. 2017).

296 This can be trivially extended in the case of probability box variables to find an interval load



297 for which  $P_f = 0.5$ , i.e.  $L_{0.5} \in [\underline{L}_{0.5}, \bar{L}_{0.5}] = [\underline{\gamma}_d L_d, \bar{\gamma}_d L_d, ]$  where

$$298 \quad \bar{\gamma}_d = \frac{\bar{\mu}_S}{\underline{\mu}_{L_d}}, \quad (31)$$

299 and

$$300 \quad \underline{\gamma}_d = \frac{\underline{\mu}_S}{\underline{\mu}_{L_d}}. \quad (32)$$

301 Note that the standard deviation of the random variables is not involved in the calculation of  
302 this load.

## 303 **ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES**

### 304 **Reliability analysis of a simple concrete containment**

305 To demonstrate the results described in the previous sections we will consider a modified version  
306 of an example given in (Modarres et al. 2016) with interval imprecision in the coefficient of variation  
307 of the random variables. The random variables will be modelled with lognormal distributions since  
308 lognormal distributions are commonly used to model physical quantities which must always be  
309 positive in the probabilistic safety analysis literature (Sundararajan 2012), (Kennedy et al. 1980).  
310 However note our approach could be applied to similar problems with different distribution types,  
311 and many other distributions exist to ensure positivity of random variables. The problem description  
312 will be briefly replicated in this section for clarity.

313 A concrete containment is a structure designed to prevent radioactive release from nuclear  
314 power plants to the environment. It is therefore important that the reliability of this structure can  
315 be determined accurately, as failing to do so could have severe consequences for the environment  
316 and the general public. During the process of determining the reliability of a containment, engi-  
317 neers wish to determine the relationship between applied pressure and failure probability of the  
318 containment. A simplified performance function is used to perform reliability analysis without  
319 having to run simulations on a complex finite element model. This approach is advantageous as the  
320 computational time required is significantly reduced. The approach assumes that the system will  
321 fail if the load is larger than the strength.

322 The containment's strength is considered to be divided between 7 failure mode contributors, all  
323 of which may cause system failure. Therefore, this example can be treated as a system composed  
324 of 7 components (which are modelled as random variables), connected in series.

325 The probability of failure for the containment is given by

$$326 \quad P_f = \int_{S_t < L_t} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}, \quad (33)$$

327 where  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is the joint probability distribution function of the random variables,  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$  and  
328  $S_t$  and  $L_t$  represent the strength and load terms respectively. The input parameter values assumed  
329 in this analysis were taken approximately from the original example (Modarres et al. 2016), but  
330 modified to fit lognormal variables and include some imprecision as shown in Table 1. The pressure  
331 load inside the containment, for the specific accident being considered, was taken to be lognormally  
332 distributed with mean 0.575 MPa and standard deviation of 0.117 MPa (such that the parameters  
333 for the fitted lognormal distribution were  $\log \beta = -0.5737$  MPa and  $\sigma = 0.2014$  MPa).

334 The fragility of the series system was bounded using Eqn. (9) and compared to the empirical  
335 CDFs obtained by randomly sampling the epistemic uncertainty. The results are shown in Figure 5.

336 The failure probability was calculated using Eqn. (20), since the dependence between failure  
337 modes was unknown. This resulted in a failure probability between 0.0086 and 0.0123, which  
338 contains the precise probability of failure ( $P_f = 0.0122$ ) given in (Modarres et al. 2016). This  
339 result was verified by use of double loop Monte Carlo simulation, which was performed using the  
340 same samples used to generate Figure 5 (100 epistemic samples and 1000 aleatory samples). The  
341 analytic code took 0.027 seconds to run, whilst the double loop Monte Carlo simulation took 0.16  
342 seconds to run on an 2.9 GHz Intel Core i5 processor in MATLAB. In addition the result from double  
343 loop Monte Carlo simulation would require more samples, and hence even greater time, to increase  
344 accuracy in the tails of the p-box to an arbitrary amount already achieved by the analytic approach.

345 These results reveal a good agreement with the expensive simulation procedures in a fraction  
346 (one fifth) of the time. Note that although in this case the double loop Monte Carlo was quick to

347 run, this may not be true in general (such as in high dimensional cases). In addition, the Monte  
348 Carlo simulation could be one nested component in a much larger computation. Even when this  
349 is not the case, it is unrealistic to expect practising engineers to resort to double loop Monte Carlo  
350 simulation for what should be a simple design calculation, even with the inclusion of epistemic  
351 uncertainty. In practical cases it would also be necessary to consider uncertainty in the Logarithmic  
352 Mean of the random variables which can be easily accounted for given the developments in Section  
353 3.

### 354 **Containment with Additive Component Strengths**

355 In many real systems the components' strengths may be added together, rather than combined  
356 in parallel or series. Such an example is given in (Prinja et al. 2017). This poses a challenge  
357 for analytical methods, as in general normal distributions and log normal distributions cannot be  
358 summed easily (except in limited cases such as independently distributed normal random variables).  
359 Therefore, in order to consider such systems in the imprecise PSA framework, we resort to using  
360 the imprecise FORM approximations given in (Qiu et al. 2008).

361 A pre-stressed concrete containment is a concrete structure designed to prevent the release of  
362 radiation from the core of a nuclear reactor to the environment. The structural reliability analysis  
363 of pre-stressed concrete containments is a key component of level 2 PSA.

364 In (Prinja et al. 2017) probabilistic safety analysis of a concrete containment was presented  
365 as part of a round robin international test exercise. Two experimental test cases (Sandia National  
366 Laboratories and Bhabha Atomic Research Centre) are described and the probability of failure for  
367 each containment is calculated. The experiments are compared to a cylindrical concrete containment  
368 model, where the area and strength of the concrete, rebar, tendons and liner are modelled as normally  
369 distributed random variables. In this study, we will focus on the SNL containment, but add some  
370 epistemic uncertainty to the random variables. This epistemic uncertainty could represent lack of  
371 knowledge about the materials used for yield values, or lack of knowledge about the design being  
372 considered for geometric properties. The modified properties of the Sandia National Laboratories  
373 containment are summarised in Table 2.

374 The performance function of the containment is obtained as a load-strength relationship, i.e.

$$375 \quad g = (A_s F_s + A_t F_t + A_l F_l + A_c F_c) - PR. \quad (34)$$

376 We set the applied pressure to be equal to the design pressure, scaled by a constant.

377 Using the strength to design load ratio method from Eqn. (31) and Eqn. (32) with

$$378 \quad \frac{\bar{\mu}_S}{\bar{\mu}_L} = \frac{\bar{\mu}_{A_s} \bar{\mu}_{F_s} + \bar{\mu}_{A_t} \bar{\mu}_{F_t} + \bar{\mu}_{A_c} \bar{\mu}_{F_c} + \bar{\mu}_{A_l} \bar{\mu}_{F_l}}{\bar{\mu}_{P_d} \bar{\mu}_R} \quad (35)$$

379 and

$$380 \quad \frac{\mu_S}{\bar{\mu}_L} = \frac{\mu_{A_s} \mu_{F_s} + \mu_{A_t} \mu_{F_t} + \mu_{A_c} \mu_{F_c} + \mu_{A_l} \mu_{F_l}}{\bar{\mu}_{P_d} \bar{\mu}_R} \quad (36)$$

381 we find that  $P_f = 0.5$  when  $P \in [5.2P_d, 5.24P_d]$ . In other words, because of our epistemic  
382 uncertainty in the structural properties of the system we are unsure which pressure causes  $P_f = 0.5$ .  
383 Clearly the epistemic uncertainty we have considered does not significantly change the pressure at  
384 which  $P_f = 0.5$ .

385 For a more complete understanding of the system (i.e. understanding which pressures cause  
386 large and small failure probabilities) advanced simulation methods would be necessary. This is  
387 because the strength to design-load ratio method only considers the mean values of the random  
388 variable in order to find the pressure at which the structure has  $P_f = 0.5$ , and does not consider  
389 the variability of the structural components. For example, one could resort to the method proposed  
390 in Ref. (de Angelis et al. 2015), where line sampling is applied to structures with epistemic  
391 uncertainties.

## 392 CONCLUSIONS

393 In this paper, we have demonstrated methods to analytically propagate probability boxes in  
394 commonly used probabilistic safety analysis equations. These equations include series and par-  
395 allel systems with unknown dependencies, lognormal fragility distributions and equations where  
396 lognormally distributed factors are multiplied. In addition, Power Law Load load distributions are

397 considered. Crucially, we use intervals to model epistemic uncertainty in the parameters of these  
398 distributions. This enables the robust quantification of epistemic uncertainty when performing  
399 probabilistic safety analysis, particularly in an industrial context. These distributions are sufficient  
400 for the analysis of many industrial problems, but in general the imprecise probability methods  
401 proposed could be generalised to other distributions as well.

402 These expressions are imprecise probabilistic analogues to many of the probabilistic formulae  
403 proposed in Kennedy's paper (Kennedy et al. 1980), which have become standard expressions used  
404 in probabilistic safety analysis. We also demonstrate how similar techniques can be applied to  
405 simplified calculations involving more complex models.

406 Our proposed expressions enable engineers to complete essential design calculations whilst  
407 considering epistemic uncertainty, and avoid the impracticalities of double loop Monte Carlo  
408 simulation which we believe is a significant barrier to the modelling of epistemic uncertainty in  
409 many industrial probabilistic safety assessment workflows.

## APPENDIX I. PROOFS

### Proof of Eqns. (6) and (7)

Firstly, note that  $\phi$  is a monotonic function of its arguments, so finding the maxima and minima of Eqn. (5) is reduced to finding the maxima and minima of  $\frac{\log \frac{a}{\beta_i}}{\sigma_i}$  when  $\beta_i \in [\underline{\beta}_i, \bar{\beta}_i]$  and  $\sigma_i \in [\underline{\sigma}_i, \bar{\sigma}_i]$ . Then note that  $\log \frac{a}{\beta_i} < \log \frac{a}{\underline{\beta}_i} < \log \frac{a}{\bar{\beta}_i}$ . The upper bound is found by noting that if  $0 < \log \frac{a}{\beta_i}$  then  $\frac{\log \frac{a}{\beta_i}}{\sigma_i} < \frac{\log \frac{a}{\bar{\beta}_i}}{\sigma_i}$  and if  $0 > \log \frac{a}{\beta_i}$  then  $\frac{\log \frac{a}{\beta_i}}{\sigma_i} < \frac{\log \frac{a}{\bar{\beta}_i}}{\bar{\sigma}_i}$ . The lower bound is found by noting that if  $0 < \log \frac{a}{\beta_i}$  then  $\frac{\log \frac{a}{\beta_i}}{\sigma_i} > \frac{\log \frac{a}{\bar{\beta}_i}}{\bar{\sigma}_i}$  and if  $0 > \log \frac{a}{\beta_i}$  then  $\frac{\log \frac{a}{\beta_i}}{\sigma_i} > \frac{\log \frac{a}{\bar{\beta}_i}}{\underline{\sigma}_i}$ .

Finally, note that it is trivial to construct a function which takes a different value above and below zero, e.g.  $\frac{f_1(x)-|f_1(x)|}{c_1} + \frac{f_1(x)+|f_1(x)|}{c_2}$  is equal to  $\frac{2f_1(x)}{c_2}$  above zero and  $\frac{2f_1(x)}{c_1}$  below zero. This concludes the proof.

### Proof of Equations in Section 3

The failure probability bounds for a parallel system with unknown dependencies and lognormally distributed load and strength, Eqn. (19), can be derived by applying the natural interval extension of the Fréchet inequality for the intersection, Eqn. (3), to the natural interval extension of the failure probability for a lognormal component, Eqn. (16).

Eqn. (20), the series system with unknown dependencies and lognormally distributed load and strength is derived in the same way, except this time the union Fréchet inequality (Eqn. (2)) is applied.

Eqn. (21) and Eqn. (22) can be derived in the same way by applying Eqn. (1) and Eqn. (4), respectively.

The derivation of Eqn. (23) (single component with power law load and log normal fragility) is more complex, due to repeated variables ( $K_H$ ) (Moore et al. 2009). Firstly, note that  $P_f = H(\beta_i) \exp \frac{(K_H \sigma_i)^2}{2} = k_1 \exp(-K_H \log \beta_i + \frac{1}{2} K_H^2 \sigma_i^2)$ . Recall that  $k_1 > 0$ ,  $K_H > 0$ ,  $\beta > 0$  and  $\sigma > 0$ . Note that  $P_f$  is monotonic in  $k_1$ ,  $\sigma_i$  and  $\beta_i$ , so our task is simply to find  $\max_{K_H} \bar{k}_1 \exp(-K_H \log \underline{\beta}_i + \frac{1}{2} K_H^2 \bar{\sigma}_i^2)$  and  $\min_{K_H} \underline{k}_1 \exp(-K_H \log \bar{\beta}_i + \frac{1}{2} K_H^2 \underline{\sigma}_i^2)$ .

The function  $k_1 \exp(-K_H \log \beta_i + \frac{1}{2} K_H^2 \sigma_i^2)$  is quadratic in  $K_H$  and has a global minima in  $K_H$  at  $K_H = \frac{\log \beta}{\sigma^2}$ . Clearly  $\max_{K_H} \bar{k}_1 \exp(-K_H \log \underline{\beta}_i + \frac{1}{2} K_H^2 \bar{\sigma}_i^2)$  takes its maximum value at  $\bar{K}_H$  or  $\underline{K}_H$ .

437 Elementary interval analysis reveals that  $\underline{k}_l \exp(-K_H \log \bar{\beta}_i + \frac{1}{2} K_H^2 \sigma_i^2) > \underline{k}_l \exp(-\bar{K}_H \log \bar{\beta}_i + \frac{1}{2} \underline{K}_H^2 \sigma_i^2)$ .  
438 However in reality  $\bar{K}_H$  and  $\underline{K}_H$  cannot appear in the same expression, as they represent specific  
439 values of the same quantity. A tighter bound is obtained by checking if  $\underline{K}_H < \frac{\log \bar{\beta}_i}{\sigma_i^2} < \bar{K}_H$ . If this  
440 inequality holds then the minimum occurs at  $K_H = \frac{\log \bar{\beta}_i}{\sigma_i^2}$ . Otherwise we must check which of  $\bar{K}_H$   
441 and  $\underline{K}_H$  minimises the failure probability. Then the remaining results can be obtained by applying  
442 the union or intersection Fréchet inequalities, or rare event approximation as appropriate.

443

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Failure Mode	Logarithmic Median, $\mu$ , $\log \beta$ /MPa	Logarithmic Standard Deviation, $\sigma$ /MPa
Liner tear around personnel airlock	-0.0943	[0, 0.0017]
Basemat shear	-0.0141	[0, 0.0016]
Cylinder hoop membrane	0.0853	[0, $8.8641 \times 10^{-4}$ ]
Wall-basemat junction shear	0.1231	[0, 0.0014]
Cylinder meridional membrane	0.2159	[0, $8.3320 \times 10^{-4}$ ]
Dome membrane	0.5911	[0, $5.345 \times 10^{-4}$ ]
Personnel air lock door buckling	0.2159	[0, 0.0013]

**TABLE 1.** Input parameters for the modified Sandia National Laboratories containment test case.

Load and Strength	Mean Value, [ $\mu, \bar{\mu}$ ]	Coefficient of Variation
Concrete tensile strength, $F_c$	[4.3, 4.5]	0.2
Liner yield, $F_l$	[370, 390]	0.2
Rebar yield, $F_s$	[450, 370]	0.2
Tendon yield, $F_t$	[1700, 1800]	0.2
Design Pressure, $P_d$	0.39	0.2
Radius, $R$	5537.5	0.2
Concrete area, $A_c$	312.85	0.2
Liner area, $A_l$	1.6	0.2
Rebar area, $A_s$	6.85	0.2
Tendon area, $A_t$	3.7	0.2

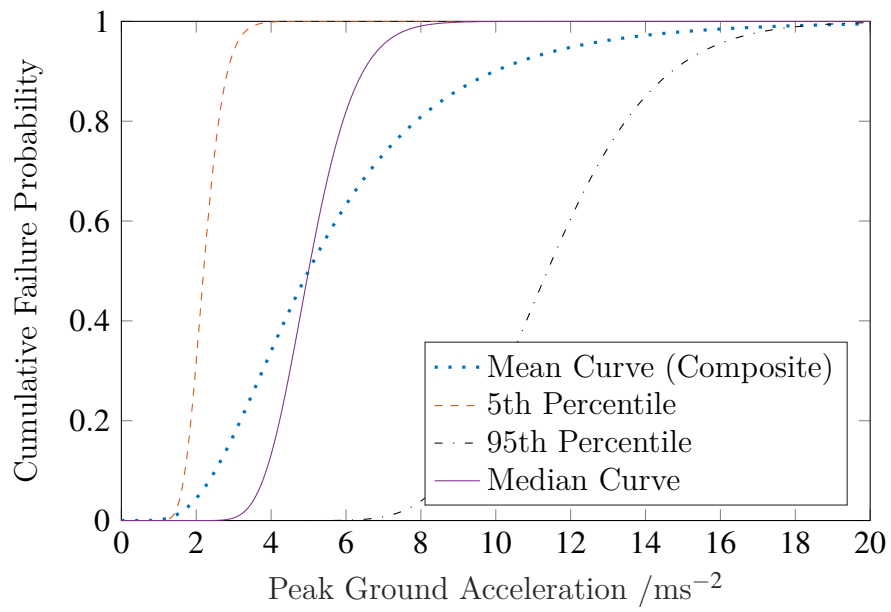
**TABLE 2.** Input parameters for Sandia National Laboratories containment test case with additive component strengths.

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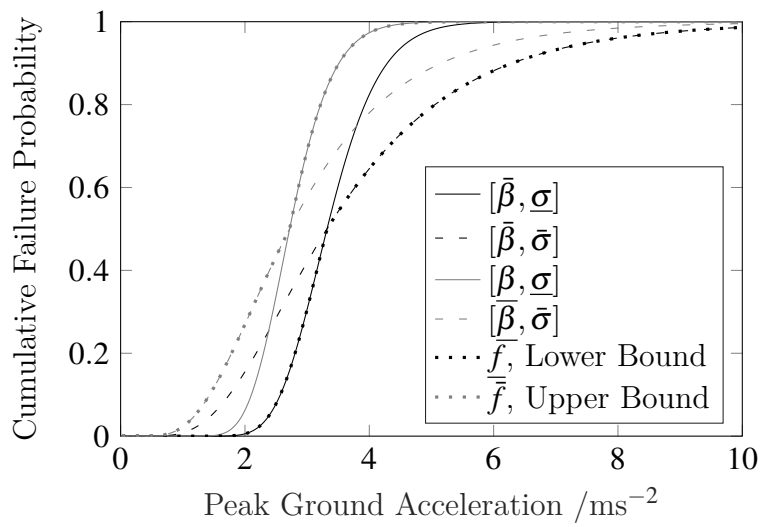
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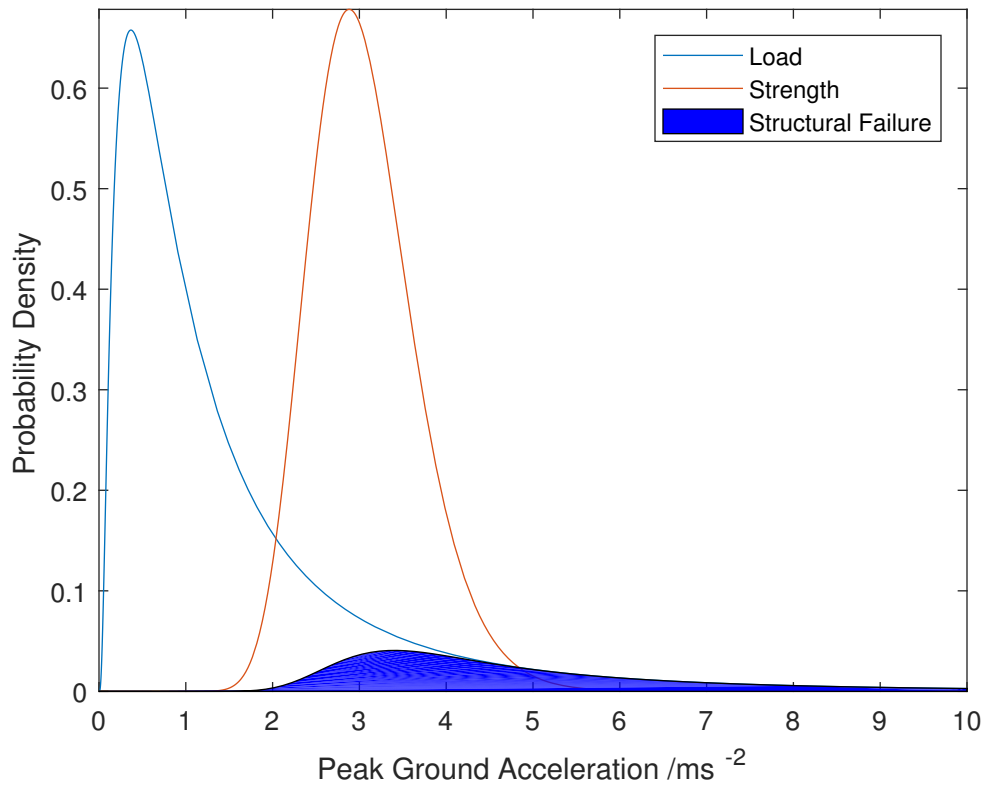




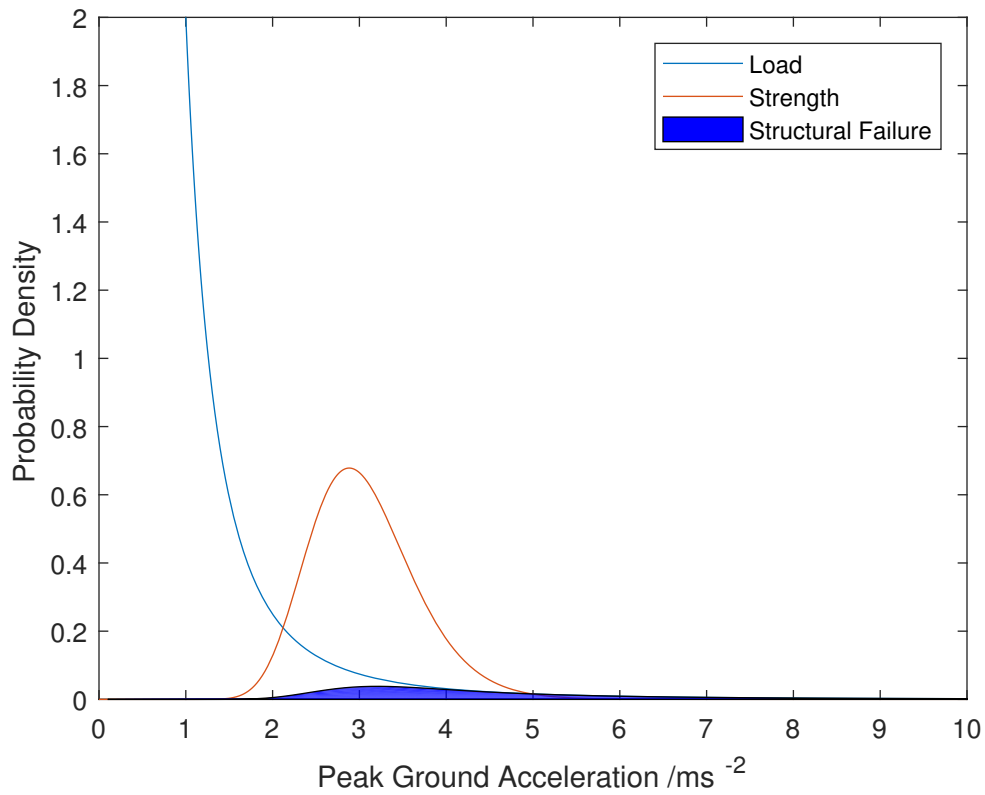
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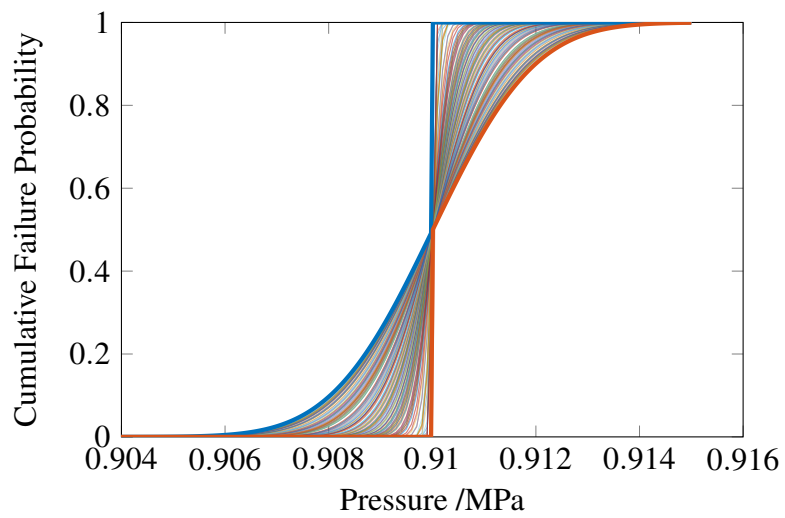
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**Fig. 4.** Demonstration of failure probability calculation with Eqn. (18). The lognormal probability density functions for the stress and strength are shown. The shaded area represents the integrand in Eqn. (15), which yields the failure probability  $P_f = 0.12$ . The example parameter values for the plotted distributions were  $K_H = 2$ ,  $k_1 = 1(\text{ms}^{-2})^{K_H}$ ,  $\beta_i = 3\text{ms}^{-2}$  and  $\sigma_i = 0.2$ .



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