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Harbor and coastal structures: A review of mechanical fatigue under random wave loading

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ABSTRACT

Harbor and coastal structures are essential in maritime connections. Additionally, some offshore structures near the coast are important for supplying energy as a material or transforming the natural resources into energy, as in wind turbines. One of the main issues that needs to be overcome in terms of these structures is mechanical fatigue due to the loads of the structure by its function and waves, wind, the current seawater level, and ice. Structural design has to meet high target loads to ensure that structures can endure extreme marine conditions under the assumption of the probability of loads and based on marine conditions, can mask damage where component immersions are not available for inspection. In this work, the wave loads and fatigue damage under random processes are reviewed.

1. Introduction

Coastal structures are located on the shore or near the coast (sea dikes, sea walls, bulkheads, groynes, jetties, break water), and involve coastal modeling at depths greater than 20-50 m and locations 50-100 km from the shore. A port is a location on a coast or shore containing harbors where ships can dock and transfer. A harbor is a sheltered area of the sea in which vessels can be launched, built, or repaired [1, 2]. To include waves effect, a sea state is used integrating its parameters as period and height, including the wind, water levels and wave transformation considering fluctuations due to storms. In coastal engineering models considers information from the current (tidal, wind-driven, wave-driven currents, hydrographic data, sediment (gravel, sand, silt, or clay), data erosion (alongshore, cross-shore), and sediments which are a mixture of sand and gravel. Fig. 1 presents a simple coastal subsystem.

Based on the high mechanical stresses generated in offshore structures, these designs require a high reliability common evaluated in an annual probability to prevent failures as cracks [3, 4, 5, 6]. Wave heights distribution depends on the physical phenomenon associated with it; for example, monsoonal extremes are different from extremes in typhoons [7, 8, 9]. Standardized wave load histories known as WASH (Wave Action Standardized History), combine load aspects and sea state considerations [10]. Offshore wind farms could become an important source of energy due to it has higher capacity than onshore. Monopile

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Beach Profile Variations Pollutants System boundaries Plan GeometryVariations Sediment transport Cross-Shore Wave Breaking Currents Sediment Transport Water levels, Refraction, Diffraction Tides, Surges Shoaling and Wind and waves Attenuation Vegetation Diffusion effect Currents Dispersion ,0,0,0, Sediment transport



Offshore Wind Turbines OWTs are frequently subjected to unexpected loads [11, 12, 13] (see Fig. 2), it can reduce its fatigue life in deeper regions due to flow-structure interaction [14, 15], it also happens in flexible risers [16, 17] dampers can be used to reduce load amplitude controlling the oscillations [18].

Rubbers in a marine environment have to be designed to be used in marine environment [19]. Environmental effects reduce the material properties due to wave climate change and marine corrosion [20, 21, 22, 23], pitting corrosion is the most dangerous [24]. In a very high cycle fatigue region for martensitic-bainitic hot rolled steel the main fatigue process is by corrosion [25], this is a time-dependent mechanism. Although corrosion protection mechanism as cathodic protection

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Fig. 2. Offshore Wind Turbine (OWT) model under loads.

or surface coating is applied on parts in contact with seawater, it can be damaged or wear by structure operation or external impacts [26], to prevent it, the structure deformation mechanism has been analyzed in marine structures [27, 28, 29, 30]. To minimize its effect on structure strength and corrosion protection, foamed metals can be used in marine structures due to its ability to absorb impact energy [31]. Liu et al. [32] proposed a crashworthy design to monopile foundation of OWTs. Thickness has an effect to enhance the cathodic polarization due to differences in plasticity between the outside and inside components [33], the corrosion mechanism can be modified by temperature increase accelerating the crack growth [34]. The cathodic protection depends on applied loads and potential for T-joints of a quenched and tempered steels [35]. In seawater, the mean stresses have an effect on crack propagation [36, 37]. Cheng and Chen [38] proposed a corrosion-crack model to improve the Engineering critical assessment for structures in seawater.

Chang et al. [39], proposed a fatigue estimation methodology using Dynamic Bayesian Network for subsea wellheads. Additionally, Piedras Lopes and Ebecken [40] proposed a process to monitor the fatigue on fixed components. The cumulative fatigue damage induced by vortexinduced vibration is determined using the Palmgren Miner rule [41]. Numerical tools can be implemented to improve fatigue prediction for wide-bands using Artificial Neural Network (*ANN*) [42]. Machado et al. [43] proposed a spectral shaker model for fatigue assessment. Linear damage rule is used in the design of maritime structures, and relates material properties to the loads to evaluate the mechanical fatigue strength [44, 45]. To review the phenomenological effect of fatigue in coastal and harbor structures, this work is organized based on concepts in harbors, waves, and fatigue prediction under a random process.

2. Geometry of the harbor region

In a harbor region, the fluid domain is split into a harbor (bounded) region, an unbounded region, and a ship region, as is shown in Fig. 3.

The form of the velocity potential is

$$\phi(x, y, z, t) = -\frac{ig}{\omega} f(x, y) Z(z) e^{-i\omega t}$$
(1)

where ω is an angular wave frequency and Z(z) is the depth function. The wave function f_b at point (x, y) inside the harbor is



Fig. 3. Schematic model in a moored ship.

$$f_{b}(x,y) = C \int_{S_{W}} \left\{ f_{b}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial n} H_{0}^{1}(kr) - H_{0}^{1}(kr) \frac{\partial}{\partial n} f_{b}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \right\} ds\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$$

$$(2)$$

where S_W is the harbor boundary [46].

3. Wave description

Waves are changes of the water level, which depend on the wind's interaction with the gravity force. They can be represented by a simple form of sinus [47].

A wave description depends on systems (wind sea and swells). The significant wave height is represented by H_s and the spectral wave period is represented by T_p (T_z) [48] (Fig. 4). Wave spectra can be represented by their spectral moment M_n

$$M_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \omega_e^n S(\omega) \, d\omega \tag{3}$$

where ω_e is the wave encounter frequency, spectral moment of order n=0 is the displacement, n=2 is the velocity and n=4 is the acceleration. The fatigue damage is [3]:

$$D = \frac{T\omega_{z\sigma}}{K} \left(2\sqrt{2M_0}\right)^m \Gamma(1+m/2)$$
(4)

where $\omega_{z\sigma}$ is the zero-crossing frequency of the load, *T* is the time at sea, *m* and *K* are mechanical properties parameters

The spectrum for sea state generated by wind is given by directional wave as

$$S_{\eta}(\omega,\theta) = S_{\eta}(\omega) D(\omega,\theta)$$
(5)

The effects among current velocity \dot{v}_c , fluid (water density ρ), and structure velocity \dot{u} is

$$p_{h} = C_{m}\rho \cdot V_{p}\ddot{v} + \frac{1}{2}C_{d}\rho A_{p}\left(\dot{v} + \dot{v_{c}} - \dot{u}\right)\left|\dot{v} + \dot{v_{c}} - \dot{u}\right|$$
(6)

where C_d is the drag coefficient and C_m is inertia coefficient. The vertical bending stress, $RAO_{\sigma,ver}$ is

$$RAO_{\sigma,ver} = SCF \cdot \frac{z - z_0}{I_{vv}} RAO_{M,ver}$$
⁽⁷⁾

where the vertical distance from the baseline is z for the vertical distance from the structural detail and z_0 from the neutral axis.



Fig. 4. Wave classification by frequency.

The stress transfer function, $H_{\sigma}(\omega|\theta)$, is used to get:

 $S_{\eta}\left(\omega|H_{s},T_{z},\theta\right) = \left|H_{\sigma}\left(\omega|\theta\right)\right|^{2}S_{\eta}\left(\omega|H_{s},T_{z}\right)$ (8)

where the spectral moments (μ_n) , of the response process are expressed by

$$\mu_n = \int_{\omega} \sum_{\theta = \pi/2}^{\theta + \pi/2} f_s(\theta') \cdot \omega^n S_\sigma(\omega | H_s, T_z, \theta) d\omega$$
(9)

The single moment spectral method is useful for predicting fatigue life in offshore structures under random loads, other used spectral methods are: Wirsching and Light, Zhao and Baker, Steinberg three-band method, Fu-Cebon, Gao and Moan, and Lalanne. [49, 50, 51]. On ship structures the load response (Fs_{ij}) is

$$Fs_{ij}\left(\Delta\sigma_{k}\right) = 1 - exp\left(\frac{\Delta\sigma_{k}^{2}}{8\mu_{0,ij}}\right)$$
(10)

$$f_{0,ij} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_{2,ij}}{\mu_{0,ij}}}$$
(11)

Therefore, based on the linear damage rule its durability assessment can be evaluated by

$$D = \sum_{k=1}^{n_b} \frac{n_k}{N_k} = \frac{N_d}{A_\alpha} \int_0^\infty \left(\Delta \sigma_k\right)^{m_\alpha} f_\sigma \left(\Delta \sigma_k\right) d\Delta \sigma = \frac{N_d}{A_\alpha} E\left[\left(\Delta \sigma_k\right)^{m_\alpha}\right]$$
(12)

The cumulative damage for a one-slope can be evaluated with eq. (13) and for a S-N curve with two slopes with eq. (14) [44, 52]:

$$D = \frac{v_0 T_d}{A_1} \sum_{x=1}^{n_x} r_x q_x^{m_1} \Gamma\left(1 + \frac{m_1}{h_x}\right)$$
(13)
$$D = v_0 T_d \sum_{x=1}^{n_x} r_x \left\{\frac{q_x^{m_1}}{A_1} \Gamma\left[1 + \frac{m_1}{h_x}; \left(\frac{\Delta \sigma_{slope}}{q_x}\right)^{h_x}\right]$$

$$+ \frac{q_x^{m_2}}{A_2} \gamma \left[1 + \frac{m_2}{h_x}; \left(\frac{\Delta \sigma_{slope}}{q_x} \right)^{h_x} \right] \right\}$$
(14)

where n_x is the total number considered load cases and $\Delta \sigma_{slope}$ is the stress range at which the slope changes.

4. Fatigue

Mechanical fatigue is a phenomenological process where the material strength is degraded for stresses [53], its analysis is important in structural components under irregular loads generated by rough roads, waves and wind. Fatigue failure is reached when the damage attained from the loads degrades the life in an accumulated process [54, 55, 56].



Fig. 5. SN curve for aluminum.



Fig. 6. Uniaxial fatigue test.

The evaluation of fatigue load histories is analyzed by cycle counting methods, in which repetitions for different load amplitudes are represented. Fatigue load resistance is evaluated using SN curves, also known as *Wöhler* curves. These fatigue strength properties represent the strength of the material characterized by tests on standard samples, as shown in Fig. 5. These S-N curves of the material are obtained by test equipment as shown in the Fig. 6.

S-N curves also represent the behavior of the component under operating conditions, this allows analysis of the effect of manufacturing processes Fig. 7. For evaluation, durability tests are developed with the aim of reproducing cyclic load failures in an accelerated manner. Fig. 8



Fig. 7. Component S-N curve.



Fig. 8. Torsional component test.

shows a test bench for evaluation of a component under torsional load [57].

Mechanical fatigue analysis is performed to prevent unexpected failures during product service, during which loads not only come from its operation, but are also generated by high-temperature and aggressive environments [58, 59, 60, 61], some areas don't have an easy access it has to support high number of cycles, it is in the very high cycle region [62, 63, 64, 65]. Zalaznik and Nagode [66] proposed a modified Dirlik method to evaluate fatigue damage at elevated temperature in high cycle region. The load frequency can affect the mechanical behavior, which has been investigated by heat generation [67, 68, 69, 70, 71]. In pipelines, fluid temperature changes cause stress fluctuations resulting in damage, which reduce its structural integrity and can lead to leakage [72]. The waveform, load ratio, and hold time also have a fatigue effect [65, 73, 74, 75].

Fatigue analysis has evolved depending on the equipment available to analyze it. In closed-loop fatigue evaluation, it is possible to monitor the damage directly with the measurements of fatigue feedback, meaning when the control is displacement the feedback is force or if the control is force the feedback is the displacement. Another approach is to monitor the stiffness by evaluating stiffness change during the test [76, 77, 78]. The fatigue limit analyzed with high frequency equipment change depending on the material evaluated [68, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83], the component area as in welds [84, 85, 86, 87, 88].

The material or component fatigue strength is represented by the SN curve; this curve is mostly represented by a line due to its log-log scale, as started in the 1850s by *Wohler* [54, 89]. To analyze the mechanical damage or fatigue generated by the loads, counting methods are used,



Fig. 9. Probability density function p(x) for a random process.

this can take a long process to obtain reliable results. Zhao and Baker [90] proposed a model for the probability distribution of the rainflow stress range using only spectral properties. Although a fatigue limit has been considered, there are failures after this hypothetical limit. The failure origin can change from the external area (surface) to the interior [64, 65, 91]. However, most research has been conducted on High Cycle Fatigue (*HCF*). An evaluation of the scatter showed the accuracy and reliability of the fatigue evaluation, as well as the production process [55, 92]. Failures after the theoretical fatigue limit have been found [93]. The increase in temperature can be used to detect a damage [62, 94], and the dynamic modulus might prove to be a valuable indicator of the degree of fatigue damage [95, 96].

The scatter in the prediction of mechanical fatigue comes from the variability of the material, the manufacturing processes, unexpected loads, and the environment. Fatigue predictions using frequency domain techniques are more efficient than time-domain predictions [51].

4.1. Fatigue analysis under a random process

Loads whose outcome at a future instant cannot be predicted are classified as nondeterministic (random), which are the result of a stationary process, for these loads are used the power spectral density (*PSD*) [97]. To classify the random signals s(t) the form of the *PSD* is used if the circular frequency function $G(\omega)$ has a peak around a single frequency, it is a narrow band. In cases where the *PSD* has more peaks it can be defined as bimodal, trimodal or multimodal, usually known wide band process [51]. Its probability function is expressed by

$$P(S) = \frac{\frac{D_1}{Q}e^{\frac{-Z}{Q}} + \frac{D_2Z}{R^2}e^{\frac{-Z^2}{2R^2}} + D_3Ze^{\frac{-Z^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{m_0}}$$
(15)

where

$$D_{1} = \frac{2(x_{m} - \gamma^{2})}{1 + \gamma^{2}} \cdot D_{2} = \frac{1 - \gamma - D_{1} + D_{1}^{2}}{1 - R} \cdot D_{3} = 1 - D_{1} - D_{2} \cdot Z = \frac{S}{\sqrt{m_{0}}}$$

$$Q = \frac{1.25(\gamma - D_{3} - D_{2}R)}{D_{1}} \cdot R = \frac{\gamma - x_{m} - D_{1}^{2}}{1 - \gamma - D_{1} + D_{1}^{2}} \cdot \gamma = \frac{m_{2}}{\sqrt{m_{0}m_{4}}} \cdot x_{m}$$

$$= \frac{m_{1}}{m_{0}} \sqrt{\frac{m_{2}}{m_{4}}}$$
(17)

While in deterministic loads Fig. 9 are used the mean values of loads, in random process is used the ensemble E[x] to mathematically calculate the average. If statistical properties such as the mean standard deviation and the mean square properties are the same along with any sample across the time history ensemble, the process is called ergodic. The area under the x(t) curve in the interval T is

$$E[x] = \int_{0}^{T} x(t) \frac{dt}{T}$$
(18)

To consider all the effects on the response, different measures $x_1(t)$, $x_2(t)$, $x_3(t)$, $x_1(t)$, $x_4(t)$ to get the behavior of t_1 , t_2 , t_n these measures are used to analyze the random process as is shown in Fig. 10



Fig. 10. Ensemble averaging.



Fig. 11. Area under spectral density.

Ensemble averages are evaluated with the autocorrelation function $R_x(\tau)$ through the average value of $x(t)x(x+\tau)$. $R_x(\tau)$ gives information about the frequencies in a random process indirectly, it is related with the spectral density $S_x(\omega)$ of the amplitude x and is function of angular frequency ω

$$R_{\chi}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_{\chi}(\omega) e^{i\omega\tau} d\omega$$
⁽¹⁹⁾

The area under a graph of the mean square spectral density $S_{_X}(\omega)$ against ω is $E\left[\omega^2\right]$

$$S_{x}(\omega) = A(\omega) - iB(\omega)$$
⁽²⁰⁾

where

$$A(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau) \cos\omega\tau d\tau$$
(21)

$$B(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau) \sin\omega\tau d\tau$$
(22)

As is shown in Fig. 11, $S_x(\omega)$ is real and non negative function of ω , so that $B(\omega)$ is therefore zero and $S_x(\omega) = A(\omega)$.

The time history shown in Fig. 12 is an schematic representation of a narrow band process.

Its spectral density is shown in Fig. 13, the frequencies only occupy a narrow band.

The second order probability density function $p(y, \dot{y})$ for the joint probability *y* and its derivative \dot{y} .

In the time history for a broad band process when $\omega_1 \approx 0$ and $\omega_2 \approx 0$ the spectrum is called white. When $\omega_1 = 0$, $R_x(\tau)$ is defined by

$$R_x(\tau) = \frac{4S_0}{\tau} \cos\frac{\omega_2 \tau}{2} \sin\frac{\omega_2 \tau}{2} = 2S_0 \frac{\sin\omega_2 \tau}{\tau}$$
(23)

When $\omega_2 \rightarrow \infty$ the response becomes a vertical spike with zero width, infinite height and the area reach the magnitude $2\pi S_0$.



Fig. 12. Time history from a narrow band process.



Fig. 13. Spectral density from a narrow band process.

For non constant loads, the damage (D) is

$$D = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i}{A} \sum_{i=1}^{k} f_i S_{a,i}^m$$
(24)

Additionally, the expected value of S_a^m is

$$E\left(S_{a}^{m}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} f_{i} S_{i}^{m}$$

$$\tag{25}$$

Therefore,

$$D = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i}{A} E\left(S_a^m\right) \tag{26}$$

If S_a can be evaluated as a continuous random variable. Its expected value is $\cite{[98]}$

$$E\left(S_{a}^{m}\right) = \int_{0}^{\infty} S_{a}^{m} f S_{a}\left(S_{a}\right) dS_{a}$$

$$\tag{27}$$

for S(t) stationary [41].

$$E\left(S_{a}^{m}\right) = \left(\sqrt{2}\sigma_{s}\right)^{m}\Gamma\left(\frac{m}{\beta}+1\right)$$
(28)

where $\sigma_s = \sqrt{M_0}$. The expected total fatigue damage under a narrowband random process D_{NB} is represented as

$$D_{NB} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i}{A} E\left(S_a^m\right) = \frac{E\left[0^+\right] \times T}{A} \left(\sqrt{2M_0}\right)^m \Gamma\left(\frac{m}{2} + 1\right)$$
(29)

The damage $(D_{WB,Wirshing})$ is

$$D_{WB,Wirsching} = \zeta_w D_{NB} \tag{30}$$

where ζ_w is the rainflow correction factor. *Oritz* and *Chen* proposed a damage approach for a wide-band stress as

$$D_{WB,Oritz} = \zeta_0 D_{NB} \tag{31}$$

where

$$\zeta_0 = \frac{1}{\gamma} \sqrt{\frac{M_2 M_k}{M_0 M_{k+2}}}$$
(32)

An approach for the Rainflow amplitude $f_{Sa}(S_a)$ [99, 100], is expressed by Dirlik damage model eq. (33) and the amplitude is described in equation (34):

$$D_{WB,Dirlik} = \frac{E[P]\tau}{A} \int_{0}^{\infty} S_{a}^{m} f S_{a} \left(S_{a}\right) dS_{a}$$
(33)

$$F_{Sa}(S_a) = \frac{D_1}{2\sqrt{M_0}Q} e^{-\frac{Z}{Q} \times S_a} + \frac{D_2 \times Z}{2\sqrt{M_0}R^2} e^{-\frac{Z^2}{2R^2} \times S_a^2} + \frac{D_3 \times Z}{2\sqrt{M_0}} e^{-\frac{Z^2}{2} \times S_a^2}$$
(34)

where

$$Z = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{M_0}}, \gamma = \frac{M_2}{\sqrt{M_0 M_4}}, Xm = \frac{M_1}{M_0}\sqrt{\frac{M_2}{M_4}}, R = \frac{\gamma - X_m - D_1^2}{1 - \gamma - D_1 + D_1^2}$$
(35)

where (γ) is an irregularity factor, that is a measure of the fluctuation of the load with its mean load and X_m is the mean frequency [101].

Fatigue damage that corresponds to a period of T [40]is:

$$D_{T} = \frac{T\sqrt{\frac{M_{4}}{M_{0}}\left(\frac{\varepsilon^{m'+2}}{2\sqrt{\pi}}\Gamma\left(\frac{m'+1}{2}\right) + \frac{3\alpha}{4}\Gamma\left(\frac{m'+2}{2}\right)\right)\left(2\sqrt{2M_{0}}\right)^{m}}}{A_{SN}f_{c}^{m'}}$$
(36)

Due to the random process involved in fatigue, a probabilistic method can be used [102]:

$$\int_{a_0}^{a_N} \frac{da}{GY^m (\pi a)^{0.5m}} = C \bar{\lambda^m} S C F^m \bar{S}^m N$$
(37)

where the initial crack depth is a_0 , a_N is the cumulative crack depth and λ^m is overloading history.

4.2. Artificial Neural Network in fatigue life assessment

Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) are considered artificial intelligence modeling techniques for complex models only using the study's data. It has interconnected neurons as in the human brain. Each structure or neuron can be connected to another neuron in the next layer and has a relationship based on transfer function, linear, nonlinear, or continuous. It transforms the input by weights to find the relationships among neurons [103, 104, 105]. After developing the network topology, the network is trained. It can be trained through a supervised or unsupervised process, its prediction is validated and tested with a part of the training data.

ANNs have found uses in mechanical fatigue [106], including corrosion [107, 108], and is applicable to modulate the stochastic processes of temporal behavior as in offshore components [109, 110, 111]. [112] perform the fatigue assessment of floating wind turbines integrating environmental conditions using ANN approach. [113] incorporated the corrosion effect to propose a probabilistic solution of Paris' law [114] proposed to use a neural network to detect the damage in offshore jacket platforms. [39] evaluated the wellhead's fatigue life during service life using the dynamic Bayesian network. [115] predict the wind farm power structural fatigue. The offshore structure dynamic can be performed in the frequency or time domain. The former is faster, but the time domain includes the nonlinearities to reduce the variance. [116] used the neural network in the time domain to reduce the variance to predict the damage. [117] proposed a damage detection of offshore structures based on the vibration response; this was used as a damage indicator to get the location and its severity.

Also, ANN can be used to develop transfer functions that can be used to estimate the ocean current velocities along the length of the marine drilling riser [118] to evaluate the Flapwise Blade roof bending moments [119, 120]. [121] proposes the monitoring of human fatigue during a marine operation, ANN is used to maintain marine assets such as ship structures, offshore renewable energy platforms, and subsea oil and gas facilities [122]. A prediction approach based on a backpropagation neural network is proposed to evaluate the stress of floating,



Fig. 14. Schematic representation of a neuron.

production, storage, and offloading (FPSO) units at different oil storage conditions [123, 124, 125].

In the artificial neural network, the main components include inputs, outputs, weights, and activation functions [126]. The configuration of the network depends on the training sample number [127]. The neural network approach usually follows three steps: preparation of the database, design ANN topology, and training. In the training step, the training algorithms and parameters of the network are chosen.

NN can reproduce the behavior of complex nonlinear relationships by applying many nonlinear processing units, sometimes called neurons. A flow chart for a single neuron is shown in Fig. 14.

This neuron produces its output by combining the input signals and transforming it by a transfer function. Each hidden unit y_j sums its weighted input signal and applies a transfer function as is expressed by

$$\mathbf{y}_j = f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{j} \omega_{ij} \mathbf{x}_i + b_i\right) \tag{38}$$

where ω_{ij} is the weight from the connection between the input unit x_i to the hidden unit y_i and b_i is the bias, initially set to random values. The output signal of the hidden unit y_j is sent to all units in the next hidden or output layer. Each output unit o_k sums its weighted input signal and applies its transfer function to compute its output signal.

Back propagation (BP) is employed during training, this technique minimizes the error E for output neuron as follows

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{k=1}^{k} \left(d_{pk} - o_{pk} \right)^2$$
(39)

where d_{pk} is the desired output, o_{pk} is the predicted output. The process is developed adjusting the weights $\Delta \omega_{ij}$ and biases [128], as it is shown

$$\Delta \omega_{ij} = -\alpha \frac{2E}{\partial \omega_{ij}} + \beta \Delta \omega_{ij} \left(s - 1 \right)$$
(40)

This algorithm tries to overfit the data set, to prevent it, is used a regularization function as is shown in eq. (41)

$$F = \beta E_D + \alpha E_w, \quad E_w = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i^2$$
(41)

where E_w is the sum of square errors of the ANN weights and α and β are objective function parameters. The weights are expressed by [129]

$$P(w|D,\alpha,\beta,M) = \frac{P(D,w,\beta,M)P(w|\alpha,M)}{P(D,\alpha,\beta,M)}$$
(42)

Considering that the noise is Gaussian in the input parameters of the network, the distributions of the weights are Gaussian

$$P(D|w,\beta,M) = \frac{1}{Z_D(\beta)} \exp(-\beta E_D)$$
(43)

$$P(w, \alpha, M) = \frac{1}{Z_w(\alpha)} \exp(-\alpha E_w)$$
(44)

where $Z_D(\beta) = (\frac{\pi}{\beta})^{\frac{n}{2}}$ and $Z_w(\alpha) = (\frac{pi}{\alpha})^{\frac{N}{2}}$.

Dynamic Bayesian Network (DBN) is an extension of BN, it can be expressed as a generalization of Markov process model. The conditional probability table for a set of stochastic variables *X* at each time step is

then expressed as, $P(X^{i+1})|X^i, Pa(X^{i+1}), Pa(X^i)$ [121]. Finally, the joint distribution of a set of *X* random variables in *i* + 1 time step as:

$$P(X^{i+1}) = \prod_{j=1}^{m} \left(X_{j}^{i+1} \right) | X_{j}^{i}, Pa\left(X_{j}^{i+1} \right), Pa\left(X_{j}^{i} \right) i = 1, ..n; j = 1, ..m$$
(45)

Radial basis function (RBF) normally represented by a Gaussian function by a center and width. The first layer weights are trained to perform a clustering of vectors, through Kohonen learning rule as:

$$i^* W^1(q) = i^* W^1(q-1) + \alpha \left(p(q) - i^* W^1(q-1) \right)$$
(46)

where p(q) is one of the inputs vectors, $i^*W^1(q-1)$ is the closest weight to the input [103, 124].

Convolutional Neural Network used convolutional kernels to convolute the local area of the input [117, 130]. For time series value, o_i is the output of the convolutional layer *i*, which can be expressed as

$$O_i = f\left(O_{i-1} \times W_i + b\right) \tag{47}$$

where O_{i-1} is the output of the convolutional layer i - 1.

General Regression Neural Network (GRNN) is built on the kernel regression Bayes decision to predict the joint probability density function. Random Forest (RF) is a regression approach for parametric and nonparametric classification. Support Vector Machine (SVM) helps to deal with complex systems and corrupted data; this is performed using the structural risk minimization to get the regression hyperplane through nonlinear transformation satisfying the Mercer's condition. Gradient Boosting Regression (GBR) is a prediction approach that combines machine learning and statistical boosting [131, 132, 133]. A Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) has feedback connections to perform the current prediction using the input data and the previous outputs; this can generate large or small gradients [134, 135]. To manage this issue, Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) cells are a designed fate memory with internal mechanics known as gates to regulate the gradients of information flow [115]. Hierarchical models are an effective way of representing systems whose characteristics can be grouped using multiple levels [107].

5. Summary

Fatigue life prediction in maritime areas such as harbor and coastal structures is necessary to prevent unexpected failures. These structures are near located the coast and on the coast, and there is a connection between the sea and the land. The source of loads is mainly the wind and water. It is thus necessary to understand the movement of the water in waves, which can be represented by a sinusoidal waveform. However, its movement is not constant, and depends on natural factors, temperatures, tidal effects, and moon effects. In addition to these variables, there are extreme conditions such as typhoons that can increase the intensity of the loads. Although methods have been proposed to perform fatigue prediction with correction factors, the dispersion associated with fatigue still requires experimental tests to include the effects of temperature, overload and corrosion. There are corrosion protection methods, however they can be damaged by impact. Additionally, there are factors such as the variability in loads that can be considered as deterministic assumptions to analyze the structures. However, in this case, it is necessary to analyze it as probabilistic due to random processes. Is mandatory ascertaining the durability of marine structures as harbor and coastal structures to prevent overdesign and obtain information on environmental effects and type of random variables, such as wind, wave loads, ice, and corrosion effects. To propose new linear or analytical tools, numerical tools can be evaluated to be used as a nonlinear option to predict the fatigue life; however, it is mandatory to conduct training in a long-term process. Highly overstressed situations and typhoons can be trained based on previous phenomena in different places. An additional advantage is that ANN can be used for monitoring during the service life as a nondestructive tool for analysis with a digital twin, it can detect any change in material strength during an acceleration damage process for corrosion, and can identify requirements for maintenance or repairs. Although neural networks are highly adaptable to non-linear systems, such as random loads, and the consideration of environmental effects obtained from experimental tests or monitored data, one of their limitations is the validation only in training ranges.

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