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# A study of storage tank accidents

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## Abstract

This paper reviews 242 accidents of storage tanks that occurred in industrial facilities over last 40 years. Fishbone Diagram is applied to analyze the causes that lead to accidents. Corrective actions are also provided to help operating engineers handling similar situations in the future. The results show that 74% of accidents occurred in petroleum refineries, oil terminals or storage. Fire and explosion account for 85% of the accidents. There were 80 accidents (33%) caused by lightning and 72 (30%) caused by human errors including poor operations and maintenance. Other causes were equipment failure, sabotage, crack and rupture, leak and line rupture, static electricity, open flames etc. Most of those accidents would have been avoided if good engineering have been practiced.

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*Keywords:* Fishbone Diagram; Accident statistics, fire and explosion

## 1. Introduction

Storage tanks in refineries and chemical plants contain large volumes of flammable and hazardous chemicals. A small accident may lead to million-dollar property loss and a few days of production interruption. A large accident results in lawsuits, stock devaluation, or company bankruptcy. In last 50 years, trade organizations and engineering societies such as American petroleum institute (API), American institute of chemical engineers (AIChE), American society of mechanical engineers (ASME), and national fire protection association (NFPA) have published strict engineering guidelines and standards for the construction, material selection, design and safe management of storage tanks and their accessories (AIChE, 1988; 1993; API, 1988; 1990; ASME, 2004; NFPA, 1992; UL, 1986; 1987). Most companies follow those standards and guidelines in the design, construction and operation, but tank accidents still occur. Learning from the past history is definitely important for the future safe operation of storage tanks.

The purpose of this paper is to categorize the causes that lead to 242 tank accidents occurred in last 40 years. The fishbone diagram (The cause and effect diagram) invented by Dr Kaoru Ishikawa (Ishikawa and Lu, 1985) is used to summarize the effects and the causes that create or contribute to those effects. We hope that this work will be beneficial to tank operators and engineers.

## 2. Overall statistics

The information of 242 tank accidents reviewed in this work was collected from published reports (March and McLennan, 1990; 1997; 2002; Persson and Lonnermark, 2004), books (CPC, 1983; 2002; Pekalski, 1997; Lees, 1996), CSB incident news (USCSB, 2000–2003) and databases (UQ, 2001; USCHSIB, 2004; IChemE, 2002; PAJ, 2004; USNOAO, 1999). There were 114 occurred in North America, 72 in Asia and 38 in Europe (Table 1). USA had 105 accidents reviewed because of the easy accessibility to accident information. As indicated in Table 2, accidents occurred more frequently at petroleum refineries with 116 cases (47.9%). The second most frequently involved place was terminals and pumping stations (64 cases, 26.4%). Only 25.7% of accidents occurred in petrochemical plants (12.8%), oil fields (2.5%), and other types of industrial facilities (10.3%) such as power plants, gas plants, pipelines, fertilizer plants,

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Table 1  
Continents where accidents occurred

Year	North America <sup>a</sup>	Asia and Australia <sup>b</sup>	Europe <sup>c</sup>	South America	Africa <sup>d</sup>	Total
1960–1969	3	7	6	1	0	17
1970–1979	18	9	6	1	2	36
1980–1989	26	9	9	5	4	53
1990–1999	36	33	12	2	2	85
2000–2003	31	14	5	0	1	51
Total	114	72	38	9	9	242

<sup>a</sup> South Africa:5.

<sup>b</sup> USA:105, Mexico:6, Canada:3.

<sup>c</sup> Taiwan:19, Japan:10, China:6.

<sup>d</sup> UK:6, Italy:4.

Table 2  
Type of complex where accidents occurred

Year	Refinery	Terminal/Storage	Chemical Plant <sup>a</sup>	Oil Field	Misc. <sup>b</sup>	Total
1960–1969	10	5	1	0	1	17
1970–1979	22	11	0	0	3	36
1980–1989	25	17	5	2	4	53
1990–1999	41	22	16	1	5	85
2000–2003	18	9	9	3	12	51
Subtotal	116	64	31	6	25	242

<sup>a</sup> Petrochemical plants included.

<sup>b</sup> Other industrial facilities such as power, gas, pipeline, fertilizer, and plating plants.

Table 3  
Type of tank contents

Year	Crude oil	Oil products <sup>a</sup>	Gasoline /Naphtha	Petro-chemicals	LPG <sup>b</sup>	Waste oil water	Ammonia	Hydrochloric acid	Caustic soda	Molten sulfur	Total
1960–1969	6	3	0	3	3	2	0				17
1970–1979	8	7	13	3	3	2	0				36
1980–1989	17	14	17	4	1	0	0				53
1990–1999	23	19	21	11	5	4	0	1		1	85
2000–2003	12	16	6	6	1	1	3	2	3	1	51
Subtotal	66	59	55	27	15	9	3	3	3	2	242

<sup>a</sup> Fuel oil, diesel, kerosene, lubricants.

<sup>b</sup> Propane and butane included.

etc. Crude oil, gasoline and oil products such as fuel oil, diesel, etc. were major contents (Table 3). The atmospheric external floating roof tank was the most frequent type and the atmospheric cone top tank was the second most frequent

type. Both types were used extensively for the storage of crude oil, gasoline, and diesel oil (Table 4).

Fire was the most frequent type of loss with 145 cases and explosion was the second most frequent type of loss

Table 4  
Type of tanks and contents

Content	External floating top	Cone top	Sphere	Cone roof internal floating top	Refrigerated tank	Wooden top	Fiber glass	Total
Crude Oil	23	5	0	2	0	2	0	32
Oil products	3	10	0	1	0	0	0	14
Gasoline	20	3	0	3	0	0	0	26
LPG	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	11
Propane	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
Hydrochloric acid	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Methyl cyanate	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Subtotal	46	18	11	6	2	0	3	88

Table 5  
Type of accidents

Year	Fire	Explosion	Spill	Toxic gas Release	Misc.	Subtotal
1960–1969	8	8	0	0	1 <sup>a</sup>	17
1970–1979	26	5	5	0		36
1980–1989	31	16	3	2	1 <sup>a</sup>	53
1990–1999	59	22	2	1	1 <sup>b</sup>	85
2000–2003	21	10	8	10	2 <sup>c</sup>	51
Subtotal	145	61	18	13	5	242

<sup>a</sup> Tank body distortion.

<sup>b</sup> Personal fall.

<sup>c</sup> 1 Person fell and 1 person was electrified to death.

with 61 cases as indicated in Table 5. Fire and explosion together accounted for 85% of total cases. Oil spill and toxic gas/liquid release were the third and the fourth most frequent, respectively. The tank body distortion and the worker's falling only occurred a few times. Property losses were rarely reported and the information was difficult to find. The average property loss of the 10 largest storage tank damage losses listed in Table 6 is 114 million in January 2002 dollars.

### 3. Causes of accidents

As indicated in Table 7, lightning was the most frequent cause of accident and the maintenance error was the second

most frequent cause. The rest were operational error, equipment failure, sabotage, crack and rupture, leak and line rupture, static electricity, open flames etc. To illustrate causes and effects, a fishbone diagram as shown in Fig. 1 was developed. A fishbone diagram as shown in Fig. 2 was also developed for the prevention of accidents.

#### 3.1. Lightning

There are two major causes of lightning related fires. The first one is a direct strike and the second is the secondary effects such as the bound charge, the electromagnetic pulse, the electrostatic pulse and the earth currents (Carpenter, 1996). A direct lightning strike zone has a radius between 10 and 10 m. When a storage tank is in the direct strike zone,

Table 6  
Ten largest tank accidents between 1963 and 2002

Item	Date	Location	Loss <sup>a</sup>	Description
1	2/24/86	Thessaloniki Greece <sup>b</sup>	330	Sparks from a flame cutting torch ignited fuel from a tank spill in a dike of a fuel tank. The fire spread to other areas resulting in destruction of 10 out of 12 fuel tanks.
2	4/3/77'	UMM said Qatar	179	A 260,000-barrel tank containing 236,000 barrels of refrigerated propane at -45°F failure massively. An adjoining refrigerated butane tank and most of the process area were also destroyed by fire.
3	1/20/68	Pernis Netherlands	141	Frothing occurred when hot oil and water emulsion in a slop tank reacted with volatile slop, causing a violent vapor release and boil-over. The fire destroyed 3 hydrocarbon, a sulfur plant, and 80 storage tanks.
4	9/1/79'	Deer Park, Texas, USA	138	Nearly simultaneous explosions aboard a 70,000 DWT tanker off-loading and in an 80,000-barrel ethanol at a refinery occurred during a electric storm.
5	5/30/78'	Texas City Texas, USA	120	An unidentified failure led to the release of light hydrocarbons which spread to an ignition source. 11 tanks in this alkylation unit were destroyed.
6	8/20/81	Kuwait	73	Fire destroyed 8 tanks and damaged several others. The cause of the fire has not been disclosed.
7	" 9/14/97	Vishakhapatnam, India	64	LPG ignited during tank loading from a ship. A thick blanket of smoke spreading panic among the residents resulted in 37 people died and 100 injured. 15 storage tanks burned for two days.
8	12/21/85'	Naples, Italy	60	Twenty four of the 32 tanks at a marine petroleum products terminal destroyed by fire that began with a tank overflow. Explosion caused complete destruction of the terminal buildings and nearby industrial and residential structures.
9	1/7/83'	Newark, New jersey, USA	52	A overflowing of a floating roof tank spilled 1300 barrels of gasoline into the tank dike. The vapor cloud carried by wind to a nearby incinerator and was ignited. The resulting explosion destroyed two adjacent tanks and the terminal.
10	5/26/83'	Prodhoe, Bay, Alaska, USA	47	A low-pressure NGL feed drum ruptured in a crude oil station, resulting in fire damage to one third of the module and exterior of surrounding structure within 100 ft.
Avg.			114	

<sup>a</sup> In million January 2002 US dollars.

<sup>b</sup> The loss quoted in Fewtrell and Hirst (1998) was converted into 2002 US dollars.

Table 7  
Cause of tank accidents

Year	1960–1969	1970–1979	1980–1989	1990–1999	2000–2003	Total
Lightning	4	10	19	37	10	80
Maintenance/hot work	1	5	9	12	5	32
Operational error	1	5	6	8	9	29
Equipment failure	3	1	5	7	3	19
Sabotage	2	5	2	6	3	18
Crack/rupture	0	3	3	3	8	17
Leaks and line rupture	0	3	2	5	5	15
Static electricity	2	1	2	2	5	12
Open flame	1	0	4	2	1	8
Nature disaster	1	2	1	1	2	7
Runaway reaction	2	1	0	2	0	5
Total	17	36	53	85	51	242

flammable vapors exposed to the heating effect or the stroke channel may be ignited. Among the 80 lightning accidents, a dozen tanks were hit directly resulting in roof blowing off and massive destruction. A lightning strike to a floating roof tank containing naphtha on October 24, 1995 in Gilacap, Indonesia resulted in fires and property damages of 38 million dollars in January, 2002 dollars (March and McLennan, 1997). Because of this incident, the refinery operated at approximately 70% of capacity as of July 1995, and was not expected to operate at full capacity until March 1997.

A storm cell induces a charge on the surface of the earth and structures projecting from the surface under the cell. The charged area varies in size from 15 to 150 sq km, which is much larger than a direct strike zone. The risk of secondary effects related fire is far higher than the risk of a direct strike. After the nearby strike, a well-grounded tank

will still take on the storm cell induced charge, but it releases the charge faster.

The rim seal of a floating roof tank is the most likely place to be ignited in a thunderstorm. Most rim seal fires were extinguished in a few hours, but a 1989 lightning strike in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania led to a 360° rim seal fire around an 80,000 barrels external floating roof storage tank containing crude oil that lasted for five days (Persson and Lonnermark, 2004). A rim fire on a Singapore storage tank in 1991 escalated to a full surface and bund fire. Tight sealing to prevent the escape of liquids or vapors is definitely necessary for storage safety. Vent valve is also a likely place to be ignited. Flame arrestor should be installed.

The existing lightning protection standards for the petroleum industry provide little help. The conventional radioactive lightning protection installed on a Nigerian 670,000-barrel crude oil tank did not prevent the tank from

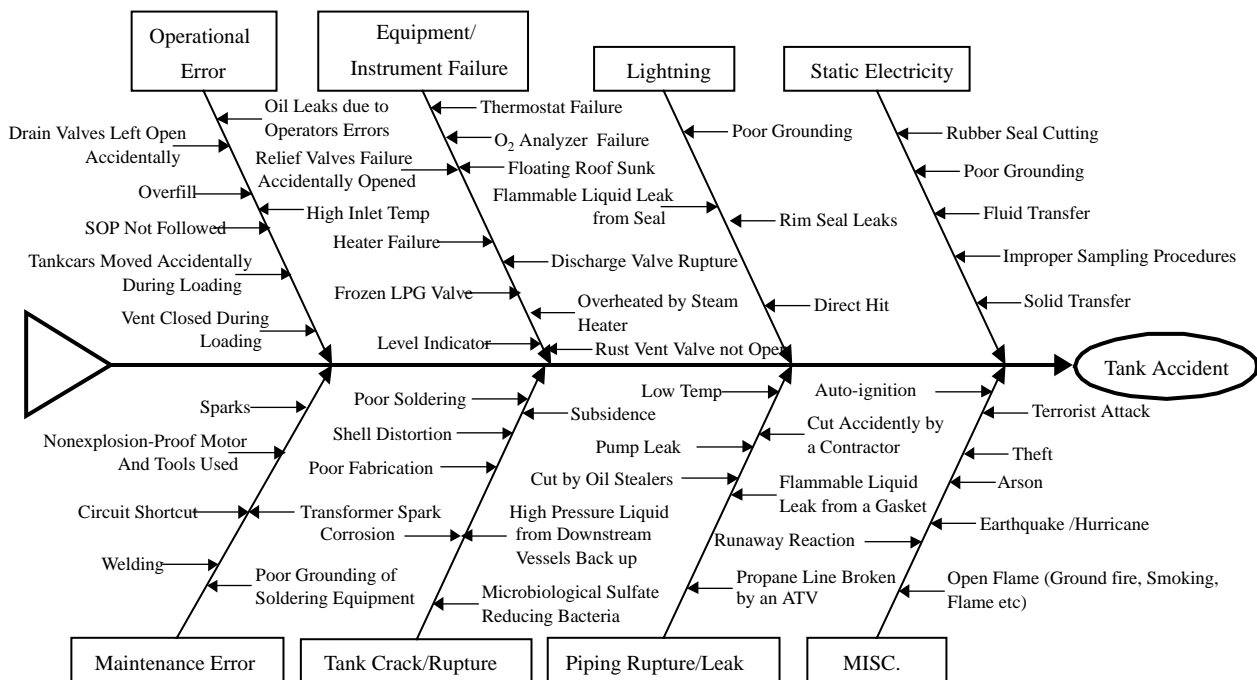


Fig. 1. Fishbone diagram of accident causes.

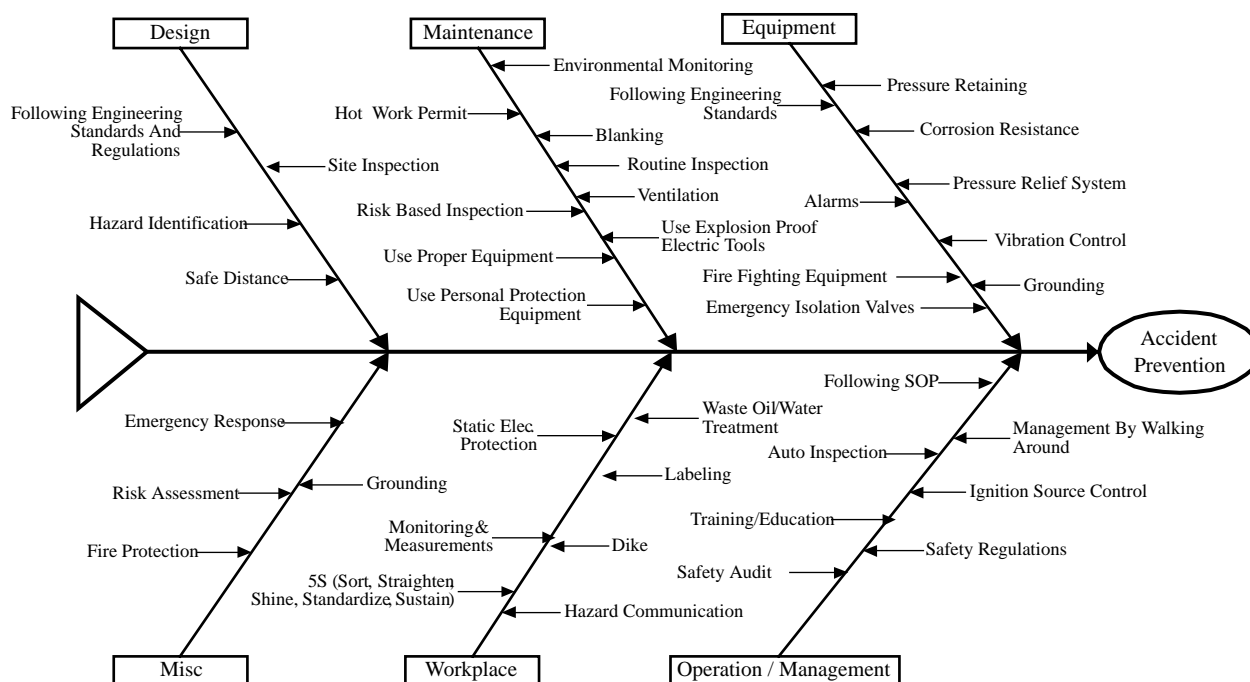


Fig. 2. Fishbone diagram of accident prevention.

the lightning strike in 1990 (Carpenter, 1996). The National Fire Protection Publication on lightning protection, NFPA-78/780, describes the problem and industrial standard policies, but provides no positive protection solutions.

### 3.2. Maintenance error

Welding is responsible for 18 accidents. Catastrophic failures of aboveground atmospheric storage tanks can occur when flammable vapors in the tank explode. In a 1995 accident, during a welding operation on the outside of a tank, combustible vapors inside two large, 30-ft. diameter by 30-ft. high, storage tanks exploded (USEPA, 1997). In a 1986 accident in Thessaloniki, Greece, sparks from a flame of a cutting torch ignited flammable vapors resulting in a fire spreading to other areas (Fewtrell and Hirst, 1998). The fire extended for seven days resulting in the destruction of 10 out of 12 crude oil storage tanks and five deaths. Both OSHA's regulations concerning hot work and NFPA's standards on welding should be reviewed. Hazard reduction measures include proper hot-work procedures such as obtaining a hot work permit, having a fire watch and fire extinguishing equipment present, and proper testing for explosivity; covering and sealing all drains, vents, man-ways, open flanges and all sewers (USEPA, 1997).

Mechanical frictions also generate sparks that ignite flammable vapors. A 1988 accident in Memphis, Tennessee and a 1989 accident in Sandwich, Massachusetts, USA occurred during insulation installation. On October 28, 1999, a spark from a man lift with two employees in Ponca City, Oklahoma, USA ignited vapors (Persson &

Lonnermark, 2004). The ignition tore the insulated cone roof into several pieces resulting a full surface fire. A fire destroyed an almost empty refinery gasoline tank during a 2002 tank inspection in Superior, Wisconsin (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). In 1983, three Crinto, Nicaragua workers were killed in an explosion while repairing a purification duct on top of an oil storage tank. In a 1994 accident, during a grinding operation on a tank holding petroleum based sludge, the tank was propelled upward, injuring 17 workers and spilling its contents over a containment beam into a river (USEPA, 1997). In a 2000 incident, naphtha trapped in the seal ignited during a cleaning operation of a naphtha storage tank at an Anchorage, Alaska petroleum tank farm, (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). In 1973, 40 workers at a Staten Island, New York City gas plant were killed in an explosion while cleaning an empty LNG tank (Juckett, 2002). The explosion was caused by the ignition of cleaning chemicals.

Electric sparks and shocks also ignite flammable vapors or liquids resulting in fire or explosion also. A 1984 accident at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan refinery and a 2002 accident at a Lanjou, China refinery were caused by the electric sparks generated by electric motors (CPC, 2002). A 1996 accident at a Chaiyi chemical plant was caused by sparks from an electric soldering machine (CPC, 2002). To reduce the electric hazard, each room, section, or area must be considered individually in determining its classification defined in National Electrical Code, NFPA 70, Article 500, Hazardous (Classified) Locations (AIChE, 1993). Engineers must pay attention to the safe application of electric apparatus also.

### 3.3. Operational error

Overfilling is the most frequent cause in this category. Among the 15 overfilling cases, nine of those were from gasoline tanks, two from crude oil tanks, two from oil products tanks, one from a phenol tank, one from a benzene tank. When a tank containing flammable liquid overfills, fire or explosion is usually unavoidable. Any spark nearby may ignite flammable vapors released from the tank. 13 out of 15 overfilling cases led to fire and explosion. In a 1975 incident, vapors from an overfilled internal floating crude oil tank travelled to a boiler stack where they were ignited (Persson and Lonnermark, 2004). In 1983, the wind carried the vapor cloud released from a Newark, New Jersey gasoline tank to a 1000-ft away incinerator (March and McLennan, 1997). Vapors released from the tank overfilling were ignited by electric switches in a 1980 incident in Hawaii, USA and a 1999 incident in Yunnan, China. Vapors released from an overfilled Jacksonville, Florida gasoline tank in 1993 and a Louisiana gasoline tank in 1980 were ignited by automobile engines (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). Incorrect manual setting of the transfer system caused a Wrexham, UK tank overflow in 2001 and resulted in 14 tonnes of toxic phenol released into a bund area (UKHSE, 2001). In 2001, 46 children and 2 villagers were hospitalized, after 50 kilograms of benzene leaked from an over-pressurized storage tank at a chemical plant in Wuyi, Zhejiang, China sent (USCSB, 2001–2003).

Overpressure from the pressure of the pipeline supplying the plant was the probable cause of the rupture of an 8-inch line between a sphere and a series of cylinders in a Mexico City, Mexico LPG facility on November 11, 1984 (Paullin & Santman, 1985). A drop in pressure was noticed in the control room and also at a pipeline pumping station, but the operators could not identify the cause of the pressure drop. The release of LPG continued for 5–10 min when the vapor cloud drifted to a flare stack and ignited. The explosion led to a number of ground fires and explosions that destroyed the facility and killed 500 people. The installation of a more effective gas detection and emergency isolation system could have averted the accident.

Four out of five accidents occurred during LPG and propane loading was caused by operational error. In a 1964 accident in Japan and a 1998 accident in Kaohsiung, Taiwan, the drivers moved the tankers inadvertently resulting in hose disconnecting, vapor release, fire and explosion. In a 1979 accident in Ypsilanti, Michigan, USA, the hose failed during tank loading (Lenoir and Davenport, 1993). In 1972, a drain valve at the bottom of a LPG sphere in a Brazil refinery was left open by an operator resulting in the destruction of 21 storage tanks and an office building (March & McLennan, 1990). In 1990, the outlet valve on a butane sphere in Korea was inadvertently opened resulting in a tank explosion (CPC, 2002).

Toxic fumes or liquids may also be released if operators make mistakes. On September 10, 2001, a large quantity of

toxic gas was released into the atmosphere from a British factory, when 300 l of sodium hypochlorite was accidentally released into a tank containing 6000 l of hydrochloric acid (USCSB, 2001–2003). About 170 workers were evacuated. 2000 gal of hydrochloric acid spilled from a waste holding tank at a Phoenix, Arizona plating plant on Monday, January 15, 2001 and reached storm drains in a western Phoenix industrial park. No injuries were reported and those who worked in the industrial park were evacuated. Operational errors led to an asphalt tank overheating, a fire and an explosion at a Portland, Oregon plant in 2003 and at a Richland, USA roof company in 1997 (USCSB, 2001–2003).

### 3.4. Sabotage

Sabotage is the fourth frequent cause. There were 15 cases of terrorist attacks or military operations, 1 case of arson, and 3 cases of theft. During Iraqi occupation of Kuwait in 1991, several tank farm facilities were set on fire. Only a few fires were fought while others were allowed to burn out due to war situation. Anhydrous ammonia theft has been a growing problem in the United States in recent years. A 2002 Ammonia leak at a Snohomish county, Washington state food processing plant as well as a 2002 leak at a Bonita, Louisiana storage was also blamed on thieves (USCSB, 2001–2003).

### 3.5. Equipment failure

There were 11 cases of sunken-roof, 4 cases of valve failure, 2-heater malfunctions, 1 analyzer failure, and 1 thermostat failure. A typical external floating roof tank consists of an open-topped cylindrical steel shell equipped with a roof that floats on the surface of the stored liquid. A seal system, which is attached to the roof perimeter and contacts the tank wall, reduces evaporative loss of the stored liquid. The seal system slides against the tank wall as the roof is raised and lowered with the liquid level in the tank. The floating roof may not function normally, if the rooftop is out of balance or the tank body distorts. The roofs of several floating roof tanks sank after a heavy storm as a result of a low capacity of roof drain. Flammable vapors were ignited by lightning or static charge.

In 1962, the body of a Japanese cone roof tank in naphtha service shrunk as a result of vent valve failure. A discharge valve on a LPG sphere at a Feyzin, France refinery froze and unable to close as a result of LPG vaporization after samples were taken. A large quantity of LPG vapors released resulting in a big fire that killed 19 people and the destruction of 5 tanks (March and McLennan, 1990). In 1994, a safety valve on a molten sulfur tank at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan refinery did not open when the tank was overheated resulting in a gas explosion (Lin, 2003). In 2000, a valve on an Ammonia tanker in Jiande city, Zhejiang, China burst, spilling the ammonia and injuring 13 people, and exposing 12 construction workers (USCSB, 2001–2003). Routine

checkup and maintenance to ensure the integrity of all valves on a storage tank is necessary.

In 1990, an oxygen analyzer used to regulate the nitrogen sweep rate of a wastewater storage tank at a Channelview, Texas petrochemical plant malfunctioned and allowed oxygen to accumulate in the tank (March and McLennan, 1997). The explosion and fire resulted in significant equipment damage.

Heavy oil is usually heated to increase its fluidity. When the heater is malfunctioned or the thermostat fails, the oil may be overheated resulting in flammable vapors release. A 1990 fire that destroyed a 60,000-barrel gas oil tank in Lemont, Illinois, USA (Persson and Lonnermark, 2004) and a 1969 explosion that destroyed a fuel oil tank at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan sugar mill were caused by the heater malfunction. A 1983 fire that destroyed a fuel oil tank at a Venezuela power plant was caused by the failure of a thermostat (CPC, 1983).

### 3.6. Crack and rupture

There were 13 tank cracks, 2 body ruptures one roof hole and one flange crack resulting in 13 spillages including oils, hydrochloric acid, sulfuric acid, molten sulfur, and sodium cyanide solution, 3 fires and explosions, and the falling of one operator. Most storage tank damage is attributable to age deterioration, corrosion and seismic motions. Cracks usually occur at the bottom or the welding edges. A 1970 crack at the bottom of a crude oil storage tank at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan refinery was attributed to the slow subsidence of the foundation (Lin, 2003). Both crude oil spills from storage tanks into bunds at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan refinery in 2002 and at a Fawley, Hampshire, UK refinery were caused by the corrosion of tank bottom (UKHSE, 2000). The corrosion of a defective weld was attributed to a 1999 spillage of 12 tonnes of sodium cyanide solution from a Cleveland, UK storage tank into the ground and river tees (UKHSE, 2000). The 1977 incident at an Umm Said, Qatar gas processing plant was caused by a weld failure of a 260,000-barrel tank containing refrigerated propane at  $-45$  degree Fahrenheit. The weld failure was attributed to three possibilities, including microbiological sulfate reducing bacteria from hydrotesting the tank with seawater (March and McLennan, 1997). The crack of a flange on the south side of an oil tank at a Houston, Texas oil and chemical company in 2003 let the oil out and led a small fire (USCSB, 2000–2003). The failure of the bottom portion of a newly fabricated tank containing hydrochloric acid at an Illinois lighting plant in 2001 was probably due to malfabrication (USCSB, 2000–2003). The rupture of a tank containing sulfuric acid at a mothballed dye plant in Guangdong, China in 2001 and a collapse of a fiberglass tank containing hydrochloric acid in Pennsylvania, USA were attributed to lack of maintenance (USCSB, 2000–2003).

Most of the spills were restricted to areas around the tanks or within protective bunds, but those located at seashores or riverbanks released a large quantity of tank contents into the water. A crack of a storage tank at a Floreffe, Pennsylvania terminal in 1988 released 92,400 barrels of diesel oil into the river (March & McLennan, 1997) and a 1974 crack at the bottom plate of a tank at a Mizushima port, Japan refinery released 7500 kl of heavy oil into the sea (PAJ, 2004). The tidal wave carried thousands barrels of crude oil into the river, after 4 storage tanks ruptured at a Lima, Ohio refinery in December 1983 (Persson and Lonnermark, 2004). The Umm Said, Qatar incident that resulted in an 8-day fire and property damage over 100,000,000 dollars is the largest property damage loss caused by the crack (Fewtrell and Hirst, 1998). In 1993, an operator at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan refinery fell off from a rust hole on the roof into the tank (Lin, 2003).

### 3.7. Static electricity

12 tank accidents were caused by static electricity. 6 occurred during the sampling of storage tanks containing flammable liquids at the open access ports. The operators in a 1965 accident and a 1972 accident in Japan (Takagi Nobuo, 1994), and a 2002 incident in Kaohsiung, Taiwan (Lin, 2003) used metal devices or container connected with nonconductive threads. To reduce the sampling hazard, avoid operations at the open access port. If the operation at the open access port is unavoidable, use sampling beakers and sampling gauges made of nonconductive material. Do not use any device made of metal. Fluid flow in the connecting line and turbulence in the pump can also lead to charge of the liquid and of the pipe. Sparking is possible between metal parts especially when the pump is inserted or removed (ESCIS, 1988). A 1996 incident at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan plastics plant (CESH, 2003a) and a 2003b incident at a Glennpool, Oklahoma tank farm (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004) were caused by the discharge of static electricity generated during fluid transferring. The containers should be bonded to each other, and the one being dispensed from should be ground during fluid transferring. A 1997 accident at a chemical plant in Kaohsiung, Taiwan was blamed on the ignition of plastic dusts by the discharge of static electricity generated during pneumatically conveying of plastic pellets.

### 3.8. Leak and line rupture

In 1997, LPG leaked for several hours without being detected after a tanker ship pumped it on shore at a Vishakhapatnam, India storage facility. A thick blanket of smoke engulfed the port city resulting in 37 deaths, 100 injuries, and a property loss of 64 million in 2002 dollars (March & McLennan, 2002). In 1990, an initial fuel leak at an operating fuel pump in the valve pit was ignited by the electric motor for the pump resulting in a big fire that damaged 7 storage tanks in the fuel tank farm adjacent to the



Denver international airport. The 2002 fire of a tank containing 30,000 barrels of residual fuel oil at a Houston, Texas terminal was caused by the rupture of an expansion joint on a transfer line (USCSB, 2000–2003). The propane tank explosions at a Tewksbury, Massachusetts gas plant in 1972 (Kearns, 1972) and in Albert, Iowa in 1998 (USCSB, 1998) were caused by line snapping of automobiles. A 2003 tank explosion at a Midland, Texas tank farm was caused the ignition of oil leak from a ‘lack unit’ measuring how much oil moved through the tank (USCSB, 2000–2003). The failure of a rupture disk on the fire protection line of a hydrocarbon storage tank near Red Deer, Canada caused the hydrocarbon leak in the year of 2000 (USCSB, 2000–2003). Four people died in a huge blast at a key oil-producing area in the north of Kuwait on January 31, 2002 (USCSB, 2000–2003). Officials say the explosion was caused by a leak from a pipeline that spread to a power substation. The fire occurred after an explosion rocked the Raudhatain oil field setting ablaze about half of an oil gathering center, a gas booster station and a power substation near the Iraqi border. Officials reported that the fire was a result of a technical fault, not terrorism or sabotage.

### 3.9. Open flames

Open flames such as ground fires, cigarette smoking, and hot particles also ignite flammable vapors around storage tanks. Four accidents including a 1981 accident at a Kuwait refinery (March & McLennan, 1997), and a 1989 incident at a Baton Rouge, Louisiana refinery was caused by the ground fires or explosion close by (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). Both a 1997 and a 1999 accident during tank cleanings at a Kaohsiung, Taiwan refinery were blamed on cigarette smoking. A 1983 accident at a Milford Haven UK refinery were caused by incandescent carbon particles discharged from the top of a 250-foot-high flare stack (March & McLennan, 1990). In 2001, a Tonganoxide, Kansas, USA worker struck a match while checking the oil level of a storage tank at night (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). The flame ignited flammable vapors and resulted in an explosion.

### 3.10. Natural disasters

The damage to an oil storage tank in an earthquake is a complex phenomenon involving the characteristics of seismic motions, the tank structure, the characteristics of the ground, the physical properties of a substance contained, etc. all interacting with each. Fortunately, only 4 earthquakes in the past resulted catastrophic oil spills or fires. Among the 4 accidents, 3 occurred in Japan and one in Turkey. The big fire at a Niigata, Japan refinery in 1964 was caused by the ignition of hydrocarbon vapors with sparks generated during an earthquake (Watanabe, 1966). A 1978 earthquake resulted in the cracks of two heavy oil storage tanks and one light oil storage tank at a Shioyama, Japan refinery (PAJ, 2004). A large quantity of oils released into

the sea. The August 17, 1999 earthquake in Turkey killed thousands people and triggered a fire at a refinery resulting in the destruction of 3 naphtha tanks (Persson and Lonnermark, 2004). A September 26, 2003 earthquake damaged 29 tanks and ignited one tank at a Hokkaido, Japan refinery (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). The 1995 Hyogo-ken Nanbu (Kobe) earthquake damaged many small-scale above ground tanks, but did not cause serious fire, explosion or spillage of hazardous materials (NRIFD, 2003).

Hurricanes are quite often in Bahamas, Gulf of Mexico and Southeast Asia, but only three that caused significant damages to storage tanks. A fire in a tank of jet oil at a Cabras Island, Puerto Rico storage tank farm during super hurricane Pongsona in 2003 lasted for 5 days due to limited water supply (USCSB, 2000–2003). The 1989 hurricane Hugo struck St Croix, Virgin Islands and destroyed fourteen storage tanks in the tank farm area (March & McLennan, 2002). Hurricane Celia in 1970 with a wind speed of 150 mile/h struck Corpus Christi, Texas and damaged 30 storage tanks (March & McLennan, 1990).

### 3.11. Runaway reactions

Exothermic runaway reactions may occur when impurities or foreign materials are present in the storage tanks. A 1993 explosion that blew off the lid of a fixed roof tank at a Knell, Australia refinery was caused by the pyrolytic action of caustic soda used for cleaning of pipelines and the diesel oil (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). In 1979, pyrophoric action started a fire in a slop tank at a Joliet, Illinois, USA refinery resulting in the loss of three tanks (Persson & Lonnermark, 2004). In 1962, a small quantity of ammonia gas was mistakenly introduced into a 6500-gal ethylene oxide tank in a Brandenburg, Kentucky ethanolamine plant triggered an exothermic polymerization and an explosion (March & McLennan, 1990). In a 1968 accident at a Pernis, Netherlands refinery, hot oil and water emulsion reacted and resulted in frothing, vapor release and boil-over. The fire engulfed 30 acres, destroyed 2 wax crackers, a naphtha cracker, a sulfur plant and 80 tanks (March & McLennan, 1997). The 1984 release of methyl isocyanate vapor from a storage tank at a Bhopal, India chemical plant was caused by the exothermic reaction of liquid methyl isocyanate with water (March & McLennan, 1990).

## 4. Conclusion

The information of 242 tank accidents occurred in industrial facilities in last 40 years was reviewed. The causes and the contributing failures that led to accidents were expressed with a fishbone diagram in a systematic way. Most of those tank accidents would have been avoided if good engineering in design, construction, maintenance and operation has been practiced and safety management program has been implemented and executed.

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