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APPLICATIONS OF . OCEAN-GOING TUG-BARGES TO MILITARY OPERATIONS

> By Jonathan D. Kaskin







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Under the General Supervision of

Ernst G. Frankel

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Given that OGTB's can be efficiently and effectively utilized in both MSC's peacetime and wartime operations, it is recommended that MSC consider adopting an overall OGTB fleet strategy that would integrate peacetime OGTB assets with contingency/mobilization assets. This would require MSC's peacetime fleet of ships to be gradually replaced with OGTBs capable of augmentation with existing commercial and mobilization OGTBs during contingency/mobilization operations. This strategy would result in a peacetime fleet that could be rapidly expanded for wartime operations with the integration of commercial/reserve OGTB assets.

The report is organized so that the reader is led from a point where no knowledge of OGTBs is assumed to a point where the concept of an overall OGTB fleet strategy is established as a reasonable and logical method of providing contingency and mobilization sealift capacity. This is done through the use of five chapters that (1) introduce the OGTB concept and related technology, (2) discuss the commercial economics involved in their operation, (3) establish their usefulness in military operations, and (4)suggest what National Defense Features that should be included on OGTBs constructed with subsidies. Chapter 5 suggests how a peacetime military fleet of OGTBs using their commercial advantages discussed in (2) can be expanded by use of commercial/reserve OGTB assets during contingency/mobilization operations so that the military advantages discussed in (3) can be achieved most expeditiously. The text is augmented by five appendices that list particulars on (1) Tank Barges over 50,000 Bbl capacity (2) Cargo Barges over 2,500 GRT, (3) Ocean-Going Tugs over 3,000 HP, (4) A computer model to evaluate the economics of operating OGTBs in a deop-and-swap versus integral mode, and (5) a bibliography of OGTB literature.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this report is to identify the potential military roles of the commercial Ocean-Going Tug-Barge (OGTB) fleet and to suggest how it may be efficiently used in military operations. The overall conclusion is that the commercial fleet of OGTBs in conjunction with our nation's extensive tug and barge building facilities provides a substantial sealift capability in support of Military Sealift Command (MSC) peacetime, contingency, and mobilization operations. In many instances it is determined OGTBs are superior to ships in fulfilling cargo transport, that Naval Fleet Auxiliary, and scientific support missions due to unit their ability to separate propulsion (tug) from cargo/functional unit (barge). This separability allows drop-and-swap operation where specialization of function: tugs for transport and barges for storage and shoreside operations may result in mission accomplishment at less cost than if ships were Additionally, this flexibility of separability allows the used. same propulsion unit to be used in any of MSC's three mission areas as demands and priorities dictate.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Scope

Today, the U.S. Merchant Marine fleet contains several thousand ocean-going tugs and barges. They range from small, slow-speed, hawser-towed systems suitable for outsize cargo and shallow water movements to very large (up to 55,000 DWT), moderate speed (up to 16 knots), push-towed systems capable of performing the same roles as ships of equal size and speed. Although these vessels, especially the new shiplike systems, have significant military potential for use in contingency and mobilization operations, they have received little attention by military planners.

It is therefore the purpose of this report to identify the potential military roles of the commercial Ocean-Going Tug-Barge (OGTB) fleet and to suggest how it may be efficiently utilized by the military in peacetime, contingency, and mobilization operations. (1) The report concentrates on OGTBs with bulk (primarily POL), deck, and RO/RO barges and makes no mention of special purpose (derrick, pipelay, and sludge, etc.) barges. Neither are river or other tugs and barges not classed for ocean service considered. And, only those military missions performed by the Navy's Military Sealift Command, that is, cargo transport, Naval Fleet Auxiliary and scientific support operations, are discussed.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It is the overall conclusion of this report that the commercial fleet of OGTBs in conjunction with our nation's extensive tug and barge building facilities provides a substantial sealift capability in support of military peacetime, contingency, and mobilization operations. In many instances OGTBs are superior to ships in fulfilling cargo transport and fleet support missions because of their ability to separate propulsion unit (tug) from cargo/functional unit (barge). This separability allows special-

(1) A contingency operation would involve only U.S. flag ships that are voluntarily chartered to the military or are called up via the Strategic Readiness Program. A mobilization operation would involve U.S. flag and allied shipping being requisitioned for military use via the imposition of national emergency measures as well as the construction of specially designed mobilization vessels.

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ization of function: tugs for transport and barges for storage and shoreside operations.

It is also concluded that all of MSC's peacetime missions, cargo transport, Naval Fleet Auxiliary and scientific support operations, can be currently accomplished by OGTBs at little or no additional cost compared to ships. Missions involving long distance and/or transoceanic movements can be handled best by shiplike mechanically-linked push-towed OGTB systems while the shuttle and intra-area missions can be satisfactorily handled by sophisticated OGTB linkage systems. less Even if the separability of propulsion and cargo/functional unit did add to the construction cost as would be expected in the long run, the overall systems costs would be lower through efficient use of the interchangeable propulsion and cargo/functional units. Additionally, this flexibility of separability allows the same propulsion unit to be used in any of MSC's three mission areas as demands and priorities dictate.

Given that OGTBs can be efficiently and effectively utilized in both MSC's peacetime and wartime operations, it is recommended that MSC consider adopting an overall OGTB fleet would integrate peacetime OGTB assets with strategy that contingency/mobilization assets. This would require that MSC's peacetime fleet of ships to be gradually replaced with OGTBs capable of being augmented with existing commercial and mobilization OGTBs during contingency/mobilization operations. This strategy would result in a peacetime fleet that could be rapidly expanded for wartime operations with the integration of commercial/reserve OGTB units. However, prior to the implementation of such a strategy, the following additional research, study, and/or action would be needed to ensure the success of the concept:

(1) Evaluation of current commercial OGTB linkage designs to compare their relative military and commercial performance to include: linkage drags, costs of installation and retrofit, ease of retrofit on pull-towed designs, ease of linking/unlinking in various sea states, and ability to remain in push-tow operation in various sea states. The best system should be selected as MSC's standard linkage design.

(2) Inclusion of the MSC standard linkage design(s) as a National Defense Feature on OGTBs constructed with subsidy funds. This would ensure that these OGTBs are compatible with those in MSC's peacetime fleet and so would be immediately available to augment that fleet in contingency operations.

(3) Promotion of a standard linkage design(s) for non-subsidized OGTBs by the use of tax credit or other types of incentives. This would provide many commercial OGTB assets capable of immediately augmenting MSC's peacetime fleet in case of expanded operations.

(4) Identification of potential locations and configurations of barge yard facilities during a mobilization. This would ensure that these facilities could be rapidly brought online to expand the MSC wartime OGTB fleet. (Sufficient tug building facilities do appear to exist as a result of the offshore oil industry.)

(5) Evaluation of the disruption/impact on domestic commerce resulting from tank and deck OGTBs being committed to contingency operations. This would require a market survey of the commercial OGTB fleet to determine the amount of surplus/deficit capacity available presently and in the future as well as the ability of other transport modes to absorb the loss of OGTBs to military operations.

(6) Evaluation of the costs/benefits resulting from the conversion of obsolete ships of the National Defense Reserve Fleet (NDRF) into barges with linkages compatible with MSC's active and reserve OGTB fleet. This concept might extend the life of the NDRF fleet as well as provide reliable cargo transport capacity at rather low cost compared to other alternatives.

It is recognized that such a comprehensive OGTB fleet strategy is very ambitious and would require significant changes to current military planning concepts. The idea of revamping the military sealift fleet to make it more compatible with commercial assets, especially OGTBs, is just the opposite of the traditional strategy of using National Defense Features to make commercial vessels into military vessels. But such a change of thinking is required since the majority of the ships being built with the U.S. flag for foreign commerce are just not readily capable of serving as military auxiliaries due to their deep drafts and non-selfsustaining designs. Practically the only new vesses1s capable of operating in an austere military environment are the growing number of OGTBs, especially those with shiplike capability. As seen in this report, these OGTBs can provide the necessary sealift capacity at low cost if they are incorporated into an overall OGTB sealift strategy.

It should be realized that in the case of POL movements, OGTBs may offer the only means of providing shallow draft discharge capability in the future. This is either via direct shiplike port-to-port operation or via a drop-and-swap shuttle discharge of a supertanker. (The latter method should be more efficient since it uses the tug for transport and the barges for storage/transport.) Given all their military potential, OGTBs certainly deserve a hard look before they are dismissed as an interesting but infeasible concept. Unless some other less expensive alternative can be found to provide equivalent sealift capabilities, the OGTB strategy presented here should be investigated further with vigor.

Report Organization

The text of the report is organized so that the reader is led from a point where no knowledge of Ocean-Going Tug-Barge systems is assumed to a point where the concept of an overall OGTB fleet strategy is established as a reasonable and logical method of providing contingency and mobilization sealift capacity. This is done through the use of five chapters that (1) introduce the OGTB concept and related technology, (2) discuss the commercial economics involved in their operation, (3) establish their usefulness in military operations, and (4) suggest what National Defense Features that should be included on OGTBs constructed with subsidies. Chapter 5 suggests how a peacetime military fleet of OGTBs utilizing the commercial advantages of OGTBs discussed in (2) can be expanded by use of commercial/reserve OGTB assets during contingency/mobilization operations so that the military advantages discussed in (3) can be achieved most expeditiously.

Chapter Summaries

In the first chapter the reader is introduced to OGTBs through a quick review of their availability and their military and commercial capabilities, as well as a review of all previous military research on OGTB systems. This is followed by a brief historical/economical summary of the development of various OGTB systems that are described in detail at the end of the chapter.

In the second chapter a detailed review of commercial OGTB economics is provided to compare the various types of OGTBs with each other and with ships. In addition, two different modes of operation are considered: the shiplike integral mode where the tug and barge remain continually together, and the drop-and-swap mode where the tug drops off a barge at a port and swaps it for one that has completed cargo operations. The comparison of the two modes is made with the use of an economic computer model that is described in detail in the appendices. Using the outputs of the model in conjunction with general economic principles, a prediction of the future of commercial OGTB operations is given in view of the probable regulatory environment.

In the third chapter the commercial economics of the previous chapter are evaluated against possible military peacetime. contingency, and mobilization cargo operations. It is determined that most military cargo transport operations via low throughput, shallow draft ports are especially suited to the drop-and-swap operation. In addition, it is demonstrated OGTR that OGTBs are very appropriate for shuttle/lightering and intra-area type operations. Then, the benefits of using OGTBs for MSC's other two missions, Naval Fleet Auxiliary and scientific support operations, are discussed. It is shown how Naval Fleet Auxiliary operations can use OGTBs as combination storage/transport facilities that eliminate the need for shoreside advanced bases, and how short term scientific support operations could use OGTBs to eliminate the costly inactivation of propulsion machinery.

At this point it has been determined that during peacetime OGTBs coold be successfully used in all military sealift missions and during contingency and mobilization operation commercial OGTBs could provide substantial sealift capability. The fourth chapter then considers how these commercial assets could be made compatible with peacetime military assets with the use of National Defense Features. Following this, it is demonstrated that standardization of linkage design is desirable; however, since so few OGTBs are required to be built with National Defense Features some other means of incentive will have to be developed to ensure the desired flexibility.

In the last chapter it is shown how the transition from peacetime to wartime operation can be most expeditiously accomaugmenting a plished by peacetime OGTB fleet with commercial/reserve OGTB assets. Several strategies are considered on how to obtain sufficient OGTB assets of compatible design for the peacetime to wartime expansion. These strategies include shifting tugs from low priority scientific support operations to cargo transport/Naval Fleet Auxiliary missions, use of Navy active and reserve tugs, use of NDRF barges, and use of commercial tug and barge fleet assets. Finally, it is demonstrated how any combination of these strategies may provide sufficient OGTB components until newly constructed mobilization components are delivered.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this report is to review the military potentia' of ocean-going tug-barges (OGTBs) for peacetime and wartime operations. Although it may be thought that OGTBs are a known technology and that they have been discussed sufficiently elsewhere, this is not the case. Recent advances in push-towed OGTB technology which make these vessels much more useful for military purposes have been barely considered by military planners. Thus, this report will highlight the new OGTB technology and suggest how OGTBs may be utilized for various military operations.

This objective will be accomplished by first reviewing OGTB linkage development and technology in this chapter. The next chapter will consider how OGTBs equipped with these linkages have been beneficial to commercial operators. This will be followed by a chapter on how these same OGTBs could be of use to military operators. Additionally, OGTBs of special military configuration will be considered. Then, in the fourth chapter a listing of National Defense Features that could be added to commercial OGTBs to make them more useful for military operations will be provided. Finally, in the last chapter several strategies on how to obtain a fleet of OGTBs for military use in peacetime and wartime will be developed.

1.1 The Rationale for a Report on Ocean-Going Tug-Barges (OGTBs)

Ocean-going tug-barge systems (OGTBs) are not the most elegant or exciting of vessels. They are not among the fastest, largest, or most sophisticated of ocean-going vehicles. But with the recent developments in push-tow linkages, they have become one of the most versatile. This versatility makes these OGTBs of special military interest at this time and provides the motivation for the report. It is the purpose of this section to first show the impact of the new linkage technology on OGTB operations. This will be followed by a discussion on how such new OGTB systems are much more versatile than ships for many military operations. After this, a review of previous military and government studies on OGTBs will be given to show that this report will provide new useful material for military planners.

1.1.1 Recent Advances in OGTB Technology

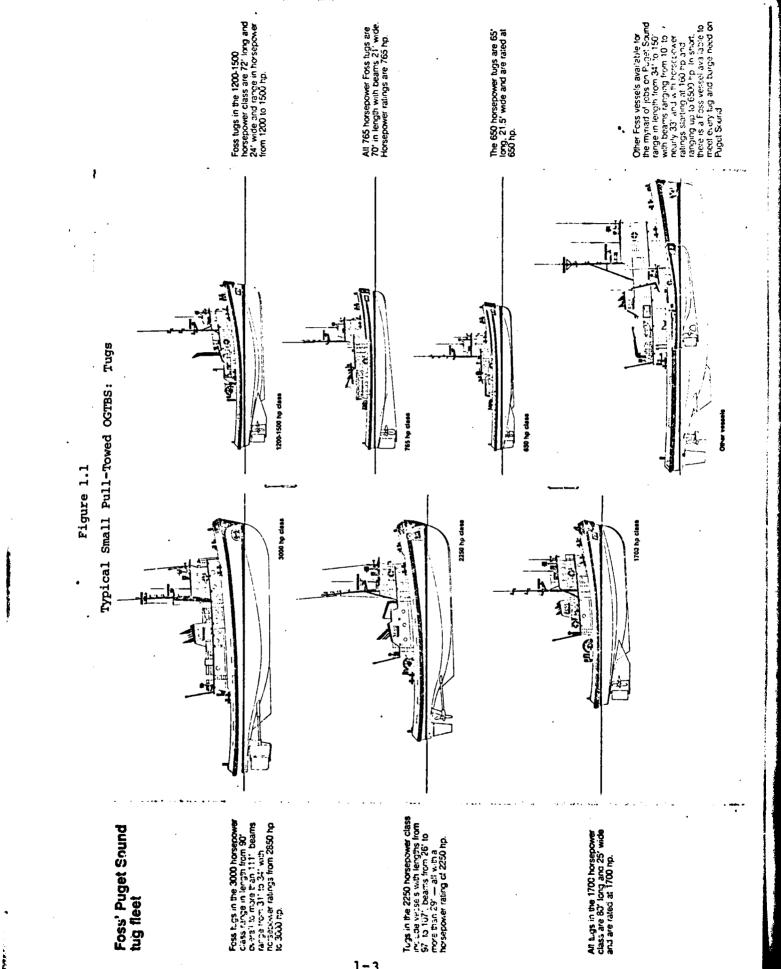
Usually when a military planner thinks of an ocean-going tug-barge system, he thinks of the types of tugs and barges that were used in Viet Nam or are used today in Arctic and Caribbean resupply missions. These OGTBs consist of shallow draft deck barges of less than 400 feet in length towed on a wire by a tug of few thousand horsepower. These OGTBs are primarily used for the trans-ocean transport of outsized cargoes such as construction equipments and for the movement of materièl through shallow draft waterways. The shallow draft and flat bottoms of these barges make them capable of beaching and of rapid discharge at unimproved port facilities.

These types of OGTBs are not usually considered for long distance carriage of general cargo or material because of their small size (usually less than 5000 GRT) and slow speed (usually less than eight knots). However, due to the recent advances in push-tow linkage technology discussed in Section 1.3, OGTBs can no longer be considered only for such specialized applications. They are now capable of carrying large cargoes (more than 55,000 long tons) of various types (Petroleum, Oil and Lubricants (POL); Dry-Bulk; Wheeled; and Containerized) at moderate speeds (at least sixteen knots) on either transoceanic or coastal trades. Such a transition from the small deck barges shown in Figure 1.1 to ship like ocear/coastal capable pushed-towed OGTBs shown in . Figure 1.2 in just a decade is certainly remarkable and how it occurred is explained in Section 1.2. In any case, the OGTBs of today not only are just as capable as ships of equivalent size and speed but they also have the added versatility inherent in separable propulsion and cargo units. The advantages of such versatility are discussed in the next subsection.

1.1.2 Military Advantages of OGTBs over Ships

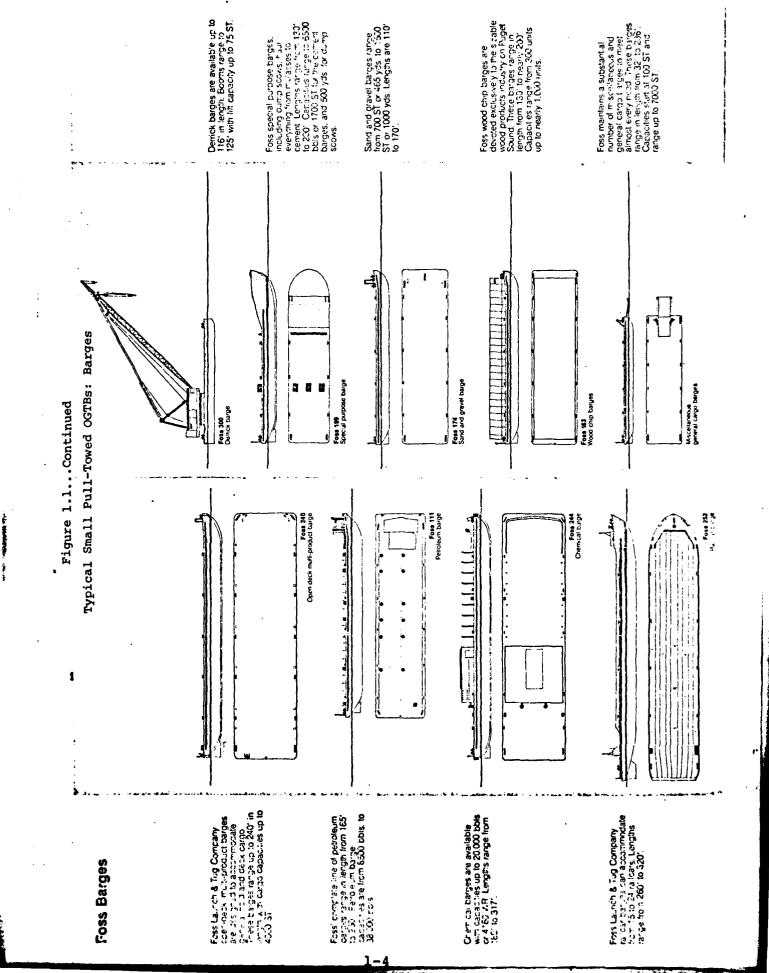
Many modern OGTBs have linkages that give them the same capability as ships of the same size and speed in either trans-ocean or coastal operations. It is this linkage that also gives them the added flexibility that is the result of separate propulsion and cargo components. Such versatility results in three significant advantages over ships. They are in (1) operational flexibility, (2) peacetime availability, and (3) wartime

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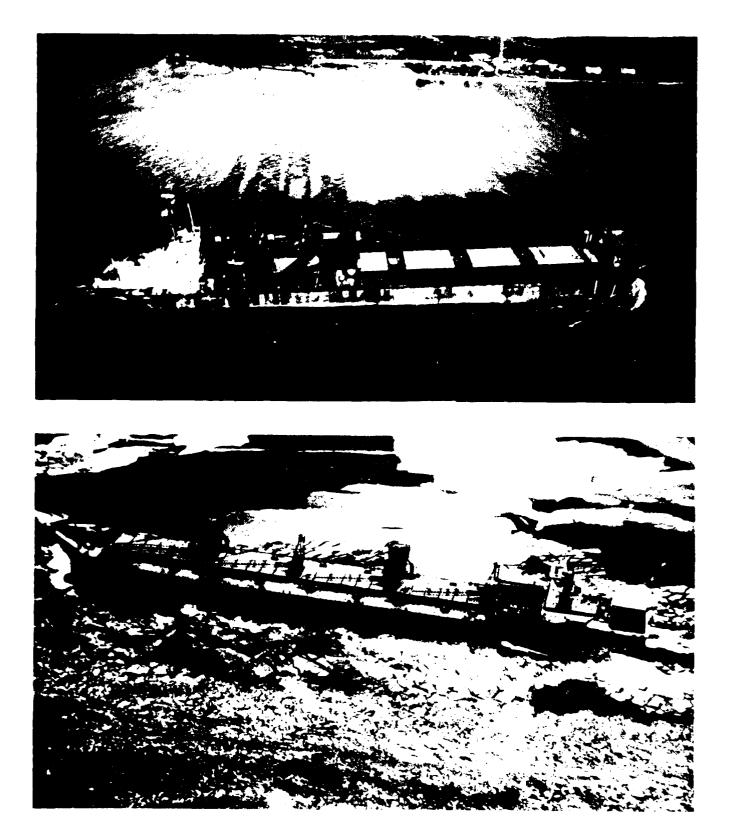


Figure 1.2

Typical Modern Large Push-Towed OGTB's

Source: Tug Barge Systems, Inc. Company Brochure

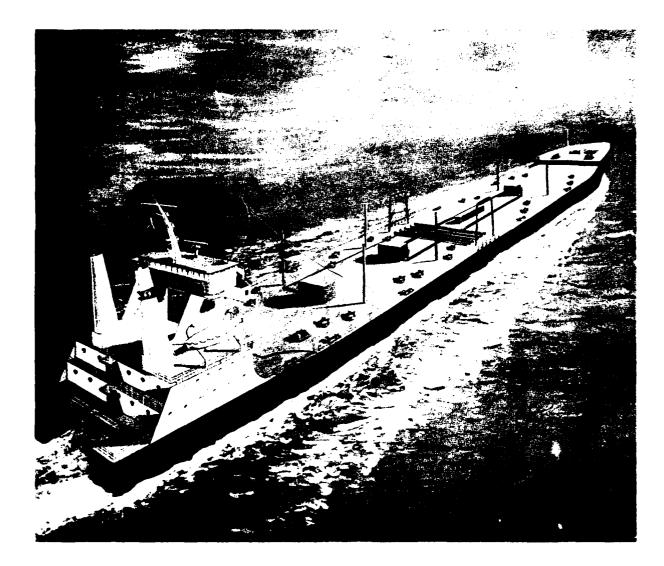


Figure 1.2 ... Continued

Source: Seabulk Corporation Company Brochure availability. Each of these advantages is considered separately below.

Operational Flexibility

The primary advantage of propusion and cargo unit the ability of OGTBs to operate in separability is а drop-and-swap mode. In this method of operation the tugboat drops off the barge at a port to be unloaded and then proceeds independently or with an empty/loaded barge to another port or operating area. This allows the costly tug and its crew to be utilized more efficiently since they will be spending more time transporting cargo rather than awaiting cargo operations. On the other hand, in many commercial operations this also results in lower barge utilization since it has to await the return of a tug before it can be moved. As shown in Section 2.2, this lower barge productivity may make drop-and-swap operation uneconomical commercial trades where port times are short compared to sea in times and/or where only a few large OGTBs or ships can handle the cargo movement requirements. However, many military operations have very long port calls at the discharge port. This is due to the queues that form at the beginning of an operation when a great amount of materiel arrives at the same time at a port unable to sustain a substantial increase in cargo throughput. Also, many military operations require discharge at shallow, undeveloped ports. This results in many small units being used which can only be discharged rather slowly via primitive cargo handling equipments, i.e., rough terrain forklifts. Thus, drop-and-swap operation would seem to be particularly appropriate for the initial stages of military cargo operations where it could improve propulsion unit utilization substantially. Further consideration of this hypothesis will be given in Chapter 3.

There is another considerable advantage that results from drop-and-swap operation in military mobilization actions. The barge that remains in port may be used as a seaside storage facility. That is, the barge does not have to be discharged immediately since no crew or propulsion unit is being tied up with Instead, the cargo can remain onboard until required so that it. the barge is used as a warehouse. In this manner, it able to replace shoreside storage facility, saving the cost of а constructing such a facility. This floating warehouse may have other advantages, especially for the storage of POL. For example, the barges may be moved offshore to various locations, making it less vulnerable to hostile actions and making it less dangerous in case of explosion/damage. Also, it should be mentioned that since the barge does not require rapid discharge, cargo may be handled at a slower rate using less sophisticated

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and less expensive port equipment. The barge can even be beached in locations that would damage ships and discharged via a simple pass-pass system using forklifts or barge mounted cranes.

There are also several safety advantages that result from drop-and-swap operation. One is that the tug crew may leave a warzone immediately after delivery of its cargo barge since it does not have to await the barge's discharge. Not only does this lessen the danger to the tug crews, it reduces the government's cost of operations since the tug crews will not be collecting war bonuses nor the insurance companies war-risk premiums for as long a period of time. Also, in case of enemy action, only the component that is damaged need be lost. The other component can be used as the crew lifeboat and later used with a replacement tug or barge.

Although the above discussion has been only with respect to military eargo movements, OGTBs operating in the drop-and-swap mode have many other potential military applications, particulary as Naval Fleet Auxiliaries. As discussed in Hawkins (1973) and Tomassoni (1974), vessels such as tenders, military hospitals, etc., which spend most of their time in port are amenable to be dropped off by a propulsion unit and picked up later when an occasional move is required. Also, as discussed in U.S. Navy (1977), drop-and-swap operation may be a very economical method of providing fleet support in the absence of a nearby advanced base for consolidating commercially carried cargoes. More mention of these studies will be made in the next subsection.

Peacetime Availability

Ocean-going tugs and barges make up a major component of our U.S. flag fleet. To show how important they really are, consider the following statistics:

In calendar year 1977, 33% of all U.S. waterborne commerce (including foreign flag traffic) and 66% of all U.S. domestic waterborne commerce was carried by harge. Additionally, 26% of all coastal domestic commerce was in OGTBs. Table 1.1 provides a breakdown of the types of cargo moved by barge. (Source: Department of the Army Corps of Engineers, Waterborne Commerce of the United States--Calendar Year 1977, Part 5, National Summaries)

As of today the U.S. flag ocean capable barge fleet consists of approximately 184 dry cargo barges of greater than 5,000 GRT capacity and 90 tank barges of greater than 50,000 Bbl. capacity. This is out of a total of approximately 5000 dry cargo barges and 600 tank barges operating on coastal trades. (Sources: Appendix A for large dry cargo barges, Appendix B for large tank barges, and The American Waterways Operators,

Table 1.1

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DOMESTIC BARGE TRAFFIC+1 COMMODITY BY TYPE OF TRAFFIC

CALENDAR VEAM 1977

EIN TONS OF 2,000 FOUNDS)

			BAR	GE TRAFFIC			PERCENT	TOTAL
COMMODITY	COASTWISE	LAKEW1SE	INTERNAL	LOCAL	INTRA- TERRITORY	TOTAL	TO TOTAL DOMESTIC	DC-ESTIC TRAFFIC
FARM PRODUCTS								1
6101 COTTON, RAN	41		3.775			3.816	54.3	7,031
DID2 BARLEY AND RYE	1,865		63,600			65,465	42.0	155,771
0103 CORN	344,438		23.150.204	65.171		23.579.813	99.9	23.595.326
0104 JATS	25,100		138,945			163.945	99.5	164.760
C165 SORGHUM GRA145	3,152		332.923		1,022	36,075	99.5	337.911
0107 #HEAT	224,817		10.098.460	55.461		10.378.738	88.1	11,779,120
0111 SOVEEANS	19,122		11.448.051	212,986		11,680,159	99.8	11,703,420
dile diuseens, were	2.896		146.415	2.600		151.911	93.1	163,19
0121 TUBACCO, LEAF]		10.01
0122 HAY AND FODUER	325		28,232			28.557	94.7	30.16
BIST FRESH FRUITS AND TREE NUTS	295.212		3.0/7		20 349	11,711	43.0	25,78 446,11
133 COFFEE	952		3,607	137,677		142,236	85.7	165,92
0134 COCOA BEANS			21			21	1.5	1.33
DIGI PRESH AND FROZEN VEGETABLES	20 20			300	21,122	21,922	10.6	206.63
0161 ANIMALS AND PRODUCTS. NEC	545		22		13	580	97.8 3.1	29.57
8191 MISCELLANEOUS FARM PRODUCTS	20		:			20	.3	6,49
FARM PRODUCTS 01010 BA3LEY AND RYE 0102 BA3LEY AND RYE 0103 CONV 0104 DATS 0105 BA3LEY AND RYE 0105 BA3LEY AND RYE 0105 BA3LEY AND RYE 0107 M*TS 0111 SONGER 01121 COADACON, LEAF 01211 COADACON, LEAF 01211 COADACON, LEAF 01311 COCOA SEANS 01311 COCOA SEANS 01311 COCOA SEANS 0141 RFSIN AND PROCUCTS, NEC- 01511 LIYE ANIMALS 01511 LIYE ANIMALS 01511 MISCELLANEOUS FARM PRODUCTS 01511 MISCELLANEOUS FARM PRODUCTS					j	1		
0841 CRJDE RUBBER AND ALLIED GUMS 0861 FOREST PROSUCTS, NEC						12.063		15,14
	82		597	2,800		3,479	2.5	138,92
FRESH FISH & OTHER MARINE PRODUCTS	21.750		7			28.942	3.0	979.04
0912 SHELFISH. EXCEPT PREPARED	645					645		795,46
0913 MENHADEN			1.276			1,276	.2	762.01
0911 FRESH FISH, EXCEPT SHELLFISH 0912 SHELLFISH, EXCEPT PREPARED 0913 MENATER	•••••		10,690.842	1,080,697		11,771,539	96.9	12,148,05
METALLIC ORES					1		1	
1011 IRON ORE AND CONCENTRATES 1021 COPPER ORE AND CONCENTRATES 1051 Alim:Num DRES, CONCENTRATES	50	1,031,700	4,744,953			5,776,703		49,998,77
1021 COPPER ORE AND CONCENTRALES			19.217	11.020		19.217 930.884	100.0	19,21
1001 TANGANESE JHES, SJALENIKAIES		**********	611,833	11,020		611,833	190.0	612,11
1991 NONFERROUS DRES, CONCENT, NEC	4,182		789.489			793,671	99.3	799.64
COAL					}			
1121 COAL AND LIGNITE	3,606,804		127,626.815	2,757,900		133.991.519	85.7	156,298.498
CRUDE PETROLEUM	14.145		47.751 440			48 18. 440		
NONVETALLIC MINERALS, EXCEPT FUELS	101742		4477721949	313041440		49,151,642	58.0	84.816.614
411 LINESTONE	\$ 1	541	1.709.535			1.709.826	6.0	28,667,13
1412 BUILDING STONE, UNWORKED 1442 SAND, SRAVEL, CRUSHED ROCK								12
1442 SAND, GRAVEL, CRUSHED ROCK	2.939.966	541	48,674,231	5,178,626		56,793,364		58,982,57
1451 CLAY	3,529		1,435,966	10,425	83	1,450,003	79.1 96.7	1,833,04
1479 NATURAL FERTILIZER HATS, NEC	19.602		1.189		18	20.809		21.07
1479 NATURAL FEATILIZER HATS, NEC 1492 SULPHUR, DRY	11,047						99.8	18,94
1493 SULPHUR, LIGUID 1494 Gypsum, C ^p ud <u>e</u> and plasters	763		4,403,879	102,000	23	4,505,879	53.4	8,436,58
1499 NOWMETALLIC MINERALS, NEC			5,052,668	53,494		5,210,490		1,132,11
ORDNANCE & ACCESSORIES							1	
1911 ORCHANCE AND ACCESSORIES	129					129	10.4	1,24
FOOD & KINDRED PRODUCTS								
2011 MEAT, FRESH, CHILLED, FROZEN	710				21,262	21,972	9.8	223.94
2012 WEAT AND PRODUCTS, NEC	95		6,402	74,227	74			119.31
2315 ANIMAL BY-PRODUCTS, NEC	137		163,195	74,227	42	264.668	12.9	269.04
2021 DAIRY PRODUCTS. NEC			867			3,296	5.0	55.23
2022 DRIED HILK AND CREAM	922				47	1,190		43,60
2034 VESETABLES AND PREP. NEC	18.694		16	2/		65,084		308,40
2039 PREP FRUIT AND VES JUICE, NEC						2,005	.2	838.85
2041 WHEAT FLOUR AND SCHOLINA	6 . 119		102.822		150	169.091	72.0	234.87
2042 PREPARED ANIMAL FEEDS	38,128		516,877					836,74
	147.711	!	617.451	27,000		787.765		1.932.80
061 51342			777.870	38,042	32,807	885+073	63.7	1,388.84
2061 SJ347	36,356				26.301	87.025		751.49
2061 SJ347	47,164		11,560	374 512	20,301			
2001 SJ147	47,164 37,503		852,740	276,012	*******	1,100,255	97.3	1,198,38
2061 SJ347 2062 NGLASSES 2061 Algonglig Bererages 2091 Algonglig Bererages 2091 Vegetable Oils, Magg, Shcrt 2092 Animal Oils and Fats, Neg 2092 Animal Oils and Fats, Neg	47,164 37,503 37,983		852,740 47,696 16	276,612	2,706	1,166,255	97.3 94.3	1,198,38
2061 SJ147	47,164 37,503 37,963		852,740 47.696 16	276,612	2,706	1,166,255 59,501 40,705	97,3 94.3 16.5	1,198.38

+NON-SELF PROPELLED VESSELS,

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Table 1.1...Continued

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DOMESTIC BARGE TRAFFIC+: COMMODITY BY TYPE OF TRAFFIC--CONTINUED

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CALENDAR YEAR 1977

C E N	TONS	0F	2.000	POUNDSI	

				BARC	E TRAFFIC			PERCENT	
COMMODITY						INTRA-		BARGE TO TOTAL	DC-ESTIC
••••••	COAST	W1SE	LAKEWISE	INTERNAL	LOCAL	TERRITORY	TOTAL	DOMESTIC	TRAFT
TOBACCO PROD	UCTS								11
	}								
2111 TOBACCO MANUFACTURES		1,565		1.394			2,959	11.0	26.870
BASIC TEXTL	LES								ſ
	·								
2211 BASIC TEXTILE PRODUC 2212 TEXTILE FIBERS, NEC-				19.897		182 6,029	20.954		77,741
		1.0.2		4,070		0,027	121014		
APPAREL & OTHER FINI									1
PRODUCTS, INCLUD									ļ
2311 APPAREL	1	3.922				124	14.046	16.5	84.911
LUNBER & WOOD PRODS.,E	AC. FORMITURE								11
2411 LOSS		562	17,779	611,022	24.714		654+977	97.4	658.297
A12 RAFTED LOGS- A13 FUEL NCOD, CHARCOAL. A14 TIHBER, POSTS, POLES A15 PULPHODD, LOG				547 894			542,194	98.5	16.272.12
414 TINBER. POSTS. POLES	PILING 1	0,641		57,408	26 1,627 82,388 943		69.676		550.2
415 PULPHOOD. LOG		1		1,394,648			1.394.649	97.6	1,428,43
416 HOOD CHIPS, STAVES, 421 LUMBER	HOLDINGS 1	4,680		2,119,374	82,388		2,216,442	99.5	2,224,754
431 VENSER, PLYNDC JOR	KED WOOD 7	1.295		126,415	**3	100	1,299,200	83,8	1,549, 3
431 VENEER, PLYNOC - HOR 491 Hood Manufactus 5, N	EC 8	9.132		20.658			109.953		184.14
	•		j					1	
FURNITURE & FI	TIUNES							[ii
511 FURNETURE AND FIXTUR	ES 1	9.678	•	2,593		12,041	34,312	29.6	116,014
)	J. J	}]			
- PULP, PAPER & ALLIE	D PHODUCTS							l	
611 PULP	11	2.671		843.623	1.150		957,444	95.2	1.005.763
611 PULP	APER	7,616		117,284		49	124,949	63.7	196.18
631 PAPER AND PAPERHOARD	2	4,358					686-421		1,133,33
691 PULP AND PAPER PRODU	CIS: NEC 6	3.745		1.378.982	4,467	2.209	1,449,403	63.6	1.729.84
PRINTED HAT	TER					ļ			
711 PRINTED MATTER		617		********			417	3.0	20.401
CHEMICALS & ALLIED	PRODUCTS	1			1)]			1
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	_			_					1
BIG SODIUM MYDROXIDE	70	2.874	8,217	3.702.605	278,629 302,636		4+684+108		5,375,214
611 CRJDE TAR, OIL, GAS 812 DYES, PIGMENT, TANNI	NG MATS	6+830 Aŭ	0,217	1,410,9/5	302,030	3,795	1,942,454		2.243.235
B12 DYES, FIGHENT, TANNI B13 ALCOHOLS	7				72,959		2+476+281		4,174,235
013 ALCONDUS 016 RADIOACTIVE MATEPIAL 017 DEVZEVE AND FOLLENE 018 SULPHURIC AJIO 018 SULPHURIC AJIO 018 SULPHURIC AJOER 023 SYNTHETIC (MAN-MADE) 031 DRJGS 033 SANTHETIC (MAN-MADE) 034 SUAP 046 SUM AND MODD CHEMICA	S, WASTES				361,009				11 513
RIA SULPHURIC ADDIDLUEHEH	10	4.440	13,313	2,032,620	361,009	2,975	3,807,739 2,585,903		4,597,82
819 BASIC CHEMICALS AND	PROD. NEC 77	0.647	209,639	12.457,243	613,575	28.939	14,080,043		17.264.3
821 PLASTIC MATERIALS		7.564		72,766		. 45	8. 787	22.4	365.52
822 STRINETIC RUDDER	C TREPS	90		128,502			128,592 196		167.12
831 DRJGS		1.589				152	1,741		1,95
841 SOAP	1	2,569				1.809	14,378		215.15
851 PAINTS		1.969		10		3,370	5,349	20.3	52.17
661 GUN AND NOOD CHEMICA 871 MITROGENOUS THEM FER	T1: 17685 31	2		326,546	16.657		343,205 3,327,237	87.7	391,14 3,417,62
871 NITROGENOUS CHEM FER 872 POTASSIC CHEM FERTIL 873 PHOSPHATIC CHEM FERT 876 INSECTICIDES, DISINF	12E85 13	7.601		333.612	16.657 76,160		471,213	90.8	518.67
873 PHOSPHATIC CHEM FERT	1L12ER5 7	7.575		537,657			0121625	99.9	619.34
878 INSECTICIDES, DISINF 879 FERTILIZER AND MATER	ECTANTS	124		1,920			2.044		27.44
891 HISCELLANEOUS CHEMIC	AL PROD 5			3.062.093 475.248	2,979	214	3+223+751 538+432		3,232.08
	1		[
PETROLEUH & COAL			1						<u> </u>
911 GASOLINE	16,92	8,415	462.693	30.982.758	5,620,055	149,407	54.135.328	57.1	94.880.05
12 JET FUEL	71	2.252		4,071,177	1,557,941		6,341,400	50.1	12.655.83
911 GASOLINE 912 JET FUEL 913 KEROSENE 914 DISTILLATE FUEL OIL 914 RESIDUAL FUEL OIL	31	2,621	27,229	1,365,675	708,203	16,325	2,428,053	44.5	5,453,24
PAN DISTICLATE FUEL DIL-	····· 10.45	7,317	730.599		12,931,320 27,782,596		49,767,164	55.5	89,654,15
VIO LUSAILA IING UILS AND	PAC #25 2 ****** 20.	5.369	•;•20	2.472.242	192,735		2,075,456	49.7	5.741.43
ATA AVHIMU' NELSOFFAL	CLVENTS 20	6,763	1,590	2.657.985	280,305	321,059	3.469.705	59.3	1 5,854.67
918 ASPHALT, TAR, AND P1 928 COKE, PETROLEUM COME	1.68	5,795 7,680		4,185,490 2,327,657	315,820 251,773	1,676	6,269,308 2,587,110	66,3 93,8	9,455,75
921 LIQUEFIED GASES	20	7.809		995,794	81,788		1,285,198		1.289.85
951 ASPHALT BUILDING MAT	ERIAL3	5.610		1.172			6,982	33.4	2:.93
993 PETROLEUM AND COAL P	RUD, NEC 5	0.430	11,445	\$75,622	1,541,443	4,868	2,303,808	86.6	2.661.65
RUBBER & MISC. PLAST	IC PRODUCTS							1	1
			1.						
911 RUBBER AND HISC PLAS	-	9.677		13,487	********	4,132	39,296	29.0	135,46
LEATHER & LEATHER									
	PRODUCT\$	402		1,129	****		1,531	9,1	16,903
									Li .
STONE, CLAY, GLASS.& C	ONCRETE PROD.								
BIII LEATNER AND LEATNER BTOME, CLAY, GLASS, & C B211 BLASS AND GLASS PROU D241 BUILDING CEMENT	GNCRETE PROD.	9.063 9.981		J1.011 4.100.010	\$3,857	351 \$7	34,425 6,969,319		104,919 9,696,497

NON-SELF PROPELLED VESSELS.

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Table 1.1...Continued

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DOMESTIC BARGE TRAFFIC+: COMMODITY BY TYPE OF TRAFFIC--CONTINUED

CALENDAR YEAR 1977

	1		OF 2,000 PC	GE TRAFFIC			PERCENT	
	J				r	T	BARGE	TOTAL
C04#0D114	COASTHISE	LAKEWISE	INTERNAL	LOCAL	INTRA- TERRITORY	TOTAL	TO TOTAL DOMESTIC	DOMESTIC TRAFFIC
STONE, CLAY, CLASS.& CONCRETE PROD. (CONTINUED)								
3251 STRUCTURAL CLAY PRODUCTS	2.304		29,545		413	32.262	39.4 99.2	81,88 879,36
3281 CUT STONE AND STONE PHODUCTS 3291 4150 NONHETALLIC MINEMAL PROD	62		594,183			872,270 82 665,453	2.3	3,57 909,85
PRIMARY METAL PRODUCTS	Į			ļ.		{		
3311 PIG IRON 3312 SLAG	5.385	3,505	101.482 428.020 503.725 1.000.274	271,613	41	101,482 705,018 516,443 1,125,384	53.6 55.7 91.6 95.3	189,15 1,266,35 566.02 1,180,50
3316 IRON AND STEEL PLATES, SHEETS 3317 IRON AND STEEL PIPE AND TUBE 3314 FERGALLOYS	13.869 27.114	45,345	2.747.382	0,717	32	2.815.345 1.175.939 763.794	97.3 81.8 99.9	2,892.71 1,437,34 764.49
3310 IRDS AND STEEL PRODUCTS, NEC 3321 NOVFERROUS METALS, NEC 3322 COPPER ALLOTS, UNNORKED	1.932		160.183 13.323 70.275			162-112 13-575 204-539	85.0 12.8 96.0	190.75 105.96 212.95
3323 LEAD AND ZINT, UNDRKED	82		109.754 82.570	13,478	37	123.314 91.003	93.5 47.2	131,65 192,81
FABRICATED METAL PRODUCTS, EXCEPT ORDNANCE, MACHINERY,4 TRANS, EQUIP,				1				
3411 FABRICATED HETAL PRODUCTS	492,573	1,512	502,413	2,346	4., 872	1,003,716	77.9	1,287,82
MACHINERY, EXCEPT ELECTRICAL				Į		}		
3511 HACHINERY, EXCEPT ELECTRICAL ELECTRICAL MACHINERY.	70.737		251,442	14,602	2,112	338,893	\$7.8	499,86
EQUIPMENT & SUPPLIES								
3611 ELECTRICAL MACH AND EQUIP TRANSPORTATION EQUIPMENT	23.30/		112,498	248	3,448	139,501	46.6	299,37
3711 NOTOR VEHICLES, PARTS, EQUIP 374: Alrcraft and Parts	826		24.815	23		148,951	30.9 91.5	482,52
3731 SHIPS AND BOATS 3791 HISC TRANSPORTATION EQUIPMENT	12,430		37,480 3.871		36	51,013 75,421	40.7 91.5	125,47 82,43
INSTRUMENTS, PHOTOGRAPHIC & OPTICAL Goods, Watches & Clocks								
SELL INSTR. TIME. PHOTO, OPT GODDS HISC, PRODUCTS OF HANUFACTURING	1,778				32	1,810	10.3	17.55
3911 4ISC MANUFACTURED PRODUCTS	4.350		158,341	2,905	175	165,771	8.2	2,013,19
WASTE & SCRAP MATERIALS	1			Į.		-		
4011 IRON AND STEEL SCRAP	110-652	78,297	1.213.525		2,124	1,871,325	94.5 50.2	
4022 TEXTILE WASTE, SCRAP, SHEEP 4024 PAPER WASTE AND SCRAP	20		2,714		17	12 2,751 9,383,319	.1 7.3 76.6	
SPECIAL ITENS		1						
4111 WATER				120.016		1 - 357 - 020 867 - 276	38.8 31.2	3,499.69
101AL	64.606.058	4.366.196	494.142.113	1	1	640+163+135		
TOTAL DOMESTIC TRAFFIC	245.083.336	109.079,945	528.704.658	83,444,472	3.654.395	972,966,806		
PERCENT BARGE TO TOTAL DOMESTIC	26.4	4.0	93.5	88.3	91.5	65.8	·	

.NON-SELF PROPELLED VESSELS.

Source:

Waterborne Commerce of United States, Calendar Year 1977 Pact 5 - National Summaries; Lower Mississippi Valley Division U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Vicksburg, Mississippi

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Inc., 1975 Inland Waterborne Commerce Statistics for the total number of coastal barges)

As of today there are 364 U.S. flag ocean-capable tugboats of greater than 3000 horsepower certified for ocean towing service out of approximately 1600 tugboats of greater than 3000 horsepower operated in coastal waters. Additionally there at least 142 tugboats of greater than 3000 horsepower not certified for ocean tow service that could become ocean tow capable with little modification. (Source: Appendix C for the number of high horsepower tugs, certified or non-certified for ocean tow service; <u>1975 Inland Waterborne</u> Commerce Statistics for the total number of tugs)

Of the 36 U.S. flag tankships of less than 25,000 DWT, none are less than 25 years of age. Of the 134 U.S. flag tankships between 25,000 and 50,000 DWT, only 16 are less than 10 years old, 27 less than 15 years old, and 52 less than 20 years old. Of the tank barges between 50,000 Bbl and 25,000 DWT only none is greater than 25 years of age and seventeen more than 10 years old. Of all the tank barges between 25,000 and 55,000 DWT, only one is more than 10 years of age. Additionally, most of these tank barges have some type of push-tow linkage that allows speeds of greater than 12-15 knots to be achieved when they are pushed by a high horsepower tug. (Sources: MSC P504, <u>Military Sealift Command Ship Register</u>, <u>April 1979</u>, for the tankship data; <u>Appendix B for the tank barge data</u>)

Of the 41 tankships built under U.S. flag in the last five years, only 13 have been of less than 50,000 DWT and none have been smaller than 35,000 DWT. Of the 27 tankships built between 1970 and 1974, only 3 were less than 50,000 DWT, two of 40,000 DWT and one of 27,000 DWT. In comparison, all of the tank barges built have been less than 55,000 DWT and of the 69 of greater than 50,000 Bbl capacity built since 1970, 55 have been less than 25,000 DWT (175,000 Bbl). (Sources: Same as the previous statistic)

As of today only four of the nine tank ships currently under construction in U.S. yards are less than 150,000 DWT. In comparison, there are five CATUG OGTBs being built of less than 50,000 DWT. Additionally, four deep notched tank barges between 20,000 and 55,000 DWT are under construction. (Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Maritime Administration, U.S. Merchant Marine data sheet of April 1. 1979, for tank ship and CATUG construction; industrial sources for other tank barge construction)

As of today there are four roll-off/roll-on (RO/RO) ships being built in U.S. yards. In comparison there are two ARTUBAR

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linked and two pull-towed OGTBs of significant size being built at this time. (Sources: Same as the previous statistic)

Some of the last statistics should point out a very important trend. More and more of the coastal liquid bulk traffic is being carried in barges. Today, only barges are being built to move liquid cargoes of less than 25,000 DWT and more barges than tankships are being built to move cargoes between 25,000 and 50,000 DWT. Therefore, it is apparent that the lack of new hardy sized tankers has been caused by OGTBs being built in their place. Fortunately, many of these OGTBs, especially those of the mechanically-linked variety, have the same commercial capabilities as ships they replace. Others of the loose-linked push-tow type have at least ship-type capabilities or coastal trades. Thus, these tark OGTBs should be seriously considered by military planners for use in military contingencies as handy sized tankers.

The availability of OGTBs to military shipping operators is about the same as for ships of the same size. Some, such as the RO/RO barges are committed to common carrier trades between the continental United States and Caribbean, Alaskan, or Hawaiian ports. Removal of these assets from commercial trade for military operations could cause some severe disruptions in the flows of commerce to those areas if there were insufficient surplus capacity in those trades. Deck barges, on the other hand, are normally in the spot market and could be obtained without difficulty for military actions. The tank barges are in an intermediate position. Some, especially the chemical barges, are often company owned and have been built for dedicated coastal service. A1though their removal from service could be compensated by increased truck and rail movements, transportation costs would increase dramatically for these companies. On the other hand most of the medium sized and some of the large POL barges are in the spot and short term charter markets. Thus, they could be obtained rather easily for military operations. The amount of this tonnage available has never been compiled (1) so it i s recommended that a continuous market survey should be initiated to monitor this very important military asset. The impact of the removal of a large amount of this POL tank barge tonnage could be partially compensated by truck and rail movements. But it would be certain that POL distribution would be disrupted seriously since the other modes would not be able to handle the increased transport requirements. A study is warranted to estimate the magnitude of the impact of such a disruption.

(1) MTRB (1979) indicates that tank and deck barge supply exceeds current demands but this study does not provide a detailed supply/demand breakdown.

Wartime Availability

In case of a full scale mobilization, it is certain that OGTBs can and will play an important part. Currently, the Office of Ship Construction of the Maritime Administration is developing mobilization designs for ocean-going tug-barges and this is discussed in detail in Annex A and in Maritime Administration (1979b). In order to point out how much mobilization potential OGTBs have, consider the following statistics:

In 1978 there were at least 45 yards delivering more than 230 tugboats and other vessels of more than 100 feet in length. Most of these yards could construct medium and large sized ocean-going tug components of OGTBs. (Source: <u>The Workboat</u>, December 1978)

As of November 1979 there were several yards that could construct mobilization barges but would be too small to build mo-Specifically, there are 47 building bilization ships. locations capable of building a 600'x90' RO/RO barge, 14 more than are capable of building RO/RO mobilization ships. Total construction capability for RO/RO mobilization barges is 70 barges simultaneously, with mutiple utilization of large building basins. There are also a total of 63 ways or basins capable of building the 540'x75' general purpose mobilization cargo barge, 30 more than are capable of building the Jumbo general purpose mobilization ship. Total simultaneous construction capability is 87 barges. (Source: Maritime Administration (1979b))

There are a considerable number of yards too small to build the large mobilization barges but are capable of constructing smaller general purpose cargo barges of about 300 feet in length and 75 feet in breadth. The Maritime Adminsitration has identified U.S. yard capability to build 121 of these shorter barges simultaneously. (Source: Maritime Administration (1979b))

There are at least 506 ocean-going tugs and service craft of greater than 3000 horsepower, 74 of greater than 5000 horsepower, and 38 greater than 7000 horsepower. These power units could be used to push deep notched barges at rather respectible speeds if the barges are equipped with shipshape bows. For example, as seen in Table 1.2 only 6000 and 8500 horsepower were required to propel a 10,7000 DWT Victory ship at 15.5 and 16.5 knots respectively; 1400 HP were required to propel a 3925 DWT T-1 tanker at 10.0 knots; 6000 HP were required to propel a 16628 DWT T-2 tanker at 14.5 knots and 18,600 HP to propel a 26575 DWT T-5 tanker at 18 knots. Such speeds should be achieved by OGTBs of the same horsepower and deadweight if the barge were provided with a shipshape form and if the linkage drag were not too severe. (Source: Appen-

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Table 1,2 AVERAGE CHARACTERISTICS CEXTAIN MARITIME ADMINISTRATION DESIGNS

1

PROPULSION/	BBL	PASS	M		REP	DRY	R R	LOA	ą		SPD W	WTR FL	FUEL D	LMO	DET 0	GROSS	CLASS	SC	SS	DESIGN	DES
OWNER				٦ı						5				i					· SM		
								DR	DRY CARGO	~											
LASH			500	2		1735		893	15 3			•	4	0090	88	12269	¥	-	SS	C9-S-81d	C981
SEABEE	227	44	2000			1774	106	876	16 3	360 2(20.0 6	697 63	5346 3	18410	•••	21667	AK	-	SS	C8-S-82a	C832
LASH	80	\$	200	و		1516		820	13 13				~		••	6406	AK	1	SS	C8-S-81b	C231
FARRELL (CONT)	m	12		12	1006	1185		813	18 2			~				12000	¥	-	SS	C8-S-85d	C885
SEALAND (CONT)		12		ŝ		1590		721	21 3			Ĩ				64000	XX		SS	C7-S-33a	C785
STATES (RO/RO)	4	-12	90	7		1944		684	11 3			• •				6000	AKR		SS	C7-S-95a	C795
US LIFES (CONT)		4		9		1335		201	10 2			•••				8376	X	-	SS	C7-S-63a	C762
FAREL (CONT)	m	12	5	6	224	1207		668	18 2						•••	21150	X	-		C6-S-854	C583
US LINES (CONT)		4		Ŷ		1047		661	13 1			•••				5864	¥	-1	SS	C6-S-1	C614
EXPORT (RO/RO, CONT)	14	12	2	2		1194		601				••	-			1757	AKR	-1		C5-S-78a	C573
AYL	17	12	20	~	22	1018		605	17 2			•••				5949	XX		SS	C5-S-758	C575
EXFORT (CONT) .				Ś		952		910				••				7902	¥			C5-S-73b	C573
TYYES	9 0	12	9	ŝ		290	69	592				••				1691	ΥX	-	SS	C5-S-37e	C527
LYES	\$	4	80	9		750		540								0723	XX	-	SS	C4-S-65a	C465
PRUDENTIAL	1	12	80	2	15	737		560				••	_			9322	AK	-		C4-S-65e	C465
US LINES	2	4	2	Ŷ	152	504		544				• •				1202	¥	-	SS	C4-S-643	5:52
MUKKAC	•	12	75	9	40	628		551	[4]				_			C484	¥	-	SS	C4-S-60a	0770
FARRELL	80	12	60	2	29	630		572				•••	-			1309	X	-1	SS	C4-S-58a	C453
US LINES	8		20	ç	44	643		561			-	••				1105	AK			C4-S-578	0457
STATES	17	12	60	9	39	673	76	565				• •		4349	32	2693	¥K	~		C4-S-lu	Ctlu
TUNBINE	80	12	60	~	ő	736		564					-			9214	¥K.	٦		C4-S-1a	C41a
DELTA	11	t	22	9	77	603		522	15 1			••	-			0396	¥	~		C3-S-76a	C 375
EKPCHT	12		60	¢	25	663	-	¢93								1000	Ā			C3-S-46a	C345
120023	6	12	ŝ	•	24	575	-	493	13 1			••	-			7848	¥K	-	SS	c3-s-32a	C3 33
LYJES	ø	12	60	ŝ	18	546		195					-			9459	X	-	SS	C3-S-37d	C333
LYKES	80	4	60	ŝ		565	-	195				••	-			9236	¥K	-	ss	C3-S-37c	C337
POLAC	20	12	75	ŝ	39	425	68 68	483				••	-			9259	ΥX	-	SS	C3-S-33A	C333
DELTA	1	12	60	~	22	632	20	506				•••	-			9827	AK	-	SS	C3-S-43a	C3 43
T RSINE	11	12	ñ	ŝ		672	202	492	12				_			7950	AX	-	SS	C3-S-A2	ច
TCKSTR		æ	õ	ŝ		546	3	459					_			6132	AK	-	SS	C2-S-B1	ដ
TURDINE	4	12	30	ŝ		437	9 9	418								6711	X	~	SS	Clb	CIB
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TUREINE			20	ŝ		453	62	455	24			••	-			7612	X	~	SS	VC2-S-AP2	V#2
1/ 10 - M-t 2 1 1 2 2 2												•									
I HO - MURDER OF HOLDS OF VALUE OF STEER TO	11 20 o)			r lankert						 71		TERT	HOLBE	Normal Horsepower in hundreds	ine ul	dreap					

Source: U.S. Navy, Military Sealift Command, Ship Register, April 1979

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Table 1.2...Continued

	IFT CROSS CLASS SC SS DESIGN MS
	SS MS
	S
	CLASS
	CROSS
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DESICNS	BBL PASS BM HO REF DRY BR LOA RAD HP SPD WIR FUEL DWT DFT 11
RATION DESIG	FUEL
INISTR	Ĩ
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DES

TANKERS TANKERS 1689 2 178 1100 2 205 15,1 2000 M0 1 55 1055 13 2 178 1100 2 350 15,2 94 12267 564073 67 117288 A0 1 55 1055 13 2 178 1100 2 500 15,2 94 12267 564073 67 117288 A0 1 55 106 894 22 245 16,5 206 16,1 50 157 544913 57 117288 A0 1 55 203 10 2 2 84 627 18 18,0 253 10 57 10 1 55 51 10 55 51 10 57 10 57 10 57 201 50 153 55 51 10 55 55 55 <td< th=""><th>PROPULSION/ OWNER RECIP-STEAN</th><th>8 11 11 11</th><th>SSVA</th><th>8 8 20</th><th>871 24</th><th>REF 10</th><th>DRY 459 228</th><th>BR 2 DR1 25</th><th>LOA F 14 CAR(142 339</th><th>LOA RAD HP > 2/ DRY CARGO (Cont'd) 442 9 25 1</th><th>nt'd) 5 11.0 7 10.5</th><th>0 M</th><th>1611 4</th><th>-</th><th>10750 28 5995 23</th><th></th><th>- 7176 3805 A</th><th>XXX</th><th>WS WS</th><th></th><th>C1-P</th><th>EC2-S-C1 EC2 C1-M-AV1 C1M</th></td<>	PROPULSION/ OWNER RECIP-STEAN	8 11 11 11	SSVA	8 8 20	871 24	REF 10	DRY 459 228	BR 2 DR1 25	LOA F 14 CAR(142 339	LOA RAD HP > 2/ DRY CARGO (Cont'd) 442 9 25 1	nt'd) 5 11.0 7 10.5	0 M	1611 4	-	10750 28 5995 23		- 7176 3805 A	XXX	WS WS		C1-P	EC2-S-C1 EC2 C1-M-AV1 C1M
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1/ 80 - Mumber of Holds or Cargo Systems for Tankers

2/ NP - Normal Hursepover in Hundreds

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>

dix C for numbers of tugs of greater than the specified horsepower)

As estimated by the Shipbuilder's Council, about half of the \$8.1-13.6 billion expected to spent annually on merchant ship construction from January 1979 to December 1983 will be spent on the building of small and non-propelled vessels (including barges).

From the above statistics it is apparent that tug and barge construction make up a large part of our shipyard/boatyard capabilities in peacetime. In the time of a general mobilization these same yards could provide substantial shipping capacity in the form of OGTBs. This could be done by the construction of new tugs and barges or by the conversion of existing tugs and barges into more militarily useful vessels. As an example of the latter possibility, many of the high horsepower offshore oil industry tugs that are currently in exploration service could be retrofitted with a push-tow linkage. These tugs could be mated with pull-towed barges that have been retrofitted with a matching linkage. With its new push-tow linkage, the barge's speed and transport capacity could be doubled from its hawser towed value. Also, many of the deep notched coastal OGTBs could be quickly converted to ocean service by the installation of an improved linkage such as the ARTUBAR discussed in Section 1.3. Such retrofitting of tugs has a very important advantage. It frees new propulsion machinery units, which will certainly be in short supply during a mobilization, for installation in Naval and large mobilization ships.

1.1.3 Previous Military and Goverment Studies on OGTBs

Considering the operational flexibility and the peacetime and wartime availability of OGTBs it would have been expected that much would have already been written on their military usefulness. Unfortunately, this has not been the case. Only three defense related studies have been completed so far, two sponsored by the Navy and the other by the Maritime Transportation Research Board (MTRB).

The first Navy study, U.S. Navy (1977), considered how OGTBs could be used as economic replacements of oilers (AO's) and ammunition ships (AE's) as shuttle ships in fleet support operations, particularly in the absence of advanced bases. An abstract of this report is provided in Annex B.

The other Navy study, Hawkins (1973), and its follow on report, Tomassoni (1974), discussed how OGTBs could be used as replacements for Naval Fleet Auxiliaries such as tenders and hospital ships that rarely move during peacetime or wartime. These reports have recently generated congressional interest in OGTBs as destroyer and submarine tender replacements and there are currently two new studies being conducted (Keenan (1979)) to make an updated evaluation of whether OGTBs would be suitable for these ship missions. Abstracts of the two earlier reports are included in Annex B.

The MTRB study, MTRB (1979), briefly discussed the OGTB industry as part of an overall review of the defense utility of commercial vessels and craft. The report concentrated on pull-towed systems and made little mention of the new push-towed systems. An abstract of this report is provided in Annex B.

Probably the main reason why so little previous work has been done on OGTBs, particulary of the push-towed variety, is because they have had such a low profile since their inception. Even the Maritime Administration had pretty well neglected them since the early seventies when they had conducted some conceptual and preliminary economic studies on their potential. (2) (See Table 1.3 for a listing of MARAD sponsored studies on OGTBs.) The primary reason for OGTB's low visibility is because they had been until recently used exclusively in domestic commerce. This had made them ineligible for subsidies and the close scrutiny involved in the subsidy process. Also, lack of subsidy made them ineligible for National Defense Features, keeping them out of the military review process. Additionally, most OGTBs are operated by privately owned companies which have tended not to publicize their new technology to increase their competitive advantage. And since these OGTB operators have not had until recently any major lobbying organization such as the American Institute of Merchant Shipping to promote their legislative interest, they have tended to remain out of public sight. In actuality, OGTB operators have done their best to shy away from government assistance in order to avoid possible government regulation.

All of these factors have kept OGTBs from government notice. However, since the Maritime Administration sponsored the Ocean-Going Tug-Barge Planning Conference in March 1979 and since more OGTBs are being built with Construction Differential Subsidy funds, it is expected OGTBs will receive the attention they deserve in the future.

(2) The Maritime Administration only began including OGTBs in their U.S. Merchant Marine data sheet since September 1977. This is in spite of the fact that OGTBs of greater than 35,000 DWT had been operating since 1971.

Table 1.3

MARITIME ADMINISTRATION INDEX

The reports which are listed below were either completed by Maritime Administration staff, or under the direction of the Maritime Administration by outside contractors.

> Brown, Donald L., Marriner, John E., and Mc Farland, Doug

COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR THE ANALYTICAL ASSESSMENT OF FLEXIBLY CONNECTED BARGE TRAINS

MARAD Report, Ma-RD-940-77088, Volumes 1 & 2, July 1977

Day, William G., Jr.

EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH RELATIVE TO IMPROVING THE HYDRODYNAMIC PERFORMANCE OF OCEAN-GOING TUG/BARGE SYSTEMS, PHASE II, EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION OF CONCEPT DESIGNS, PART A, RESISTANCE AND PROPULSION EXPERIMENTS

David W. Taylor Naval Ship Research and Development Center, Bethesda, Md., Contract MA-400-2803

Filson, John J.

ADVANCED OCEAN TUG-BARGE SYSTEMS: A PROGRAM FOR EVALUATING OCEAN GOING, CONNECTED TUG BARGE FLOTILLAS BY LARGE SCALE, OPEN WATER MODEL TESTING.

National Maritime Research Center, Galveston, 1972

Hautanen, R. W.

ECONOMIC FEASIBILITY REPORT ON SEMI-RIGID LINKAGES FOR BARGE TRAINS (FLEXCR)

Maritime Administration NMRC-273-31200-R4, April 1975

Hirasaki, M. P.

LITERATURE ON FLEXIBLE CONNECTORS FOR BARGES

National Maritime Research Center, Galveston, 1974

Source: MARAD (1979)

Table 1.3...Continued

MARITIME ADMINISTRATION INDEX

Hirasaki, M. P.

PROGRAMS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF BARGE TRAIN LINKAGE SYSTEMS

National Maritime Research Center, Galveston, 1973

2.

Kazusky, Thomas A.

EXPANDED USE OF TUG BARGE TRANSPORTATION

National Maritime Research Center, Kings Point, 1974

Koeningsberg, E., Lathrop, D. S., Glosten, L. R., and Bringlowe, J. T.

TRANSOCEAN TUG-BARGE SYSTEMS: A CONCEPTUAL STUDY

Maritime Administration, Contract MA-4500 Project 368-110, MT-45-T-Vol: 1-2-3, July 1970

Maritime Administration, Office of Domestic Shipping

AN ANALYSIS OF A POTENTIAL BULK TRADE BETWEEN TAMPA, FLORIDA AND TOLEDO, OHIO

Division of Domestic Ocean Shipping, April 1977

[see Section II of this Program Notebook for a detailed case study]

Maritime Administration, Office of Domestic Shipping COASTWISE CARRIAGE, A COMPARITIVE MODAL ECONOMIC STUDY Division of Domestic Shipping, July 1976

Pross, T. W.

MARINE TRANSPORT: STATE-OF-THE-ART

Reported completed, 1973

Robinson, James H.

EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH RELATIVE TO IMPROVING THE HYDRODYNAMIC PERFORMANCE OF OCEAN-GOING TUG/BARGE SYSTEMS: VOLUME 4

David W. Taylor "aval Ship Research and Development Center, Bethesda

Table 1.3...Continued

MARITIME ADMINISTRATION INDEX

Rossignol, Grant A., Ruth, Lawrence C., and Woo, Everett L.

EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION OF THE SEAWORTHINESS CHARACTERISTICS OF THE BARGE TRAIN

MARAD Report, MA-940-70086, November 1975

Waller, David B., and Filson, John J.

ADVANCED OCEAN TUG-BARGE SYSTEMS (A REVIEW OF THE STATE OF THE ART OF OCEAN BARGE DESIGN AND OPERATION)

Maritime Administration Report COM-74-10121, May 1972

1.2 Historic/Economic Review of OGTB Technology

Probably the primary reason why commercial OGTBs have not been given serious consideration as militarily useful assets in the past is due to their historical use as low value bulk cargo coastal carriers with slow, sometimes unsafe, obsolete and/or surplus equipments. However, in the last two decades OGTBs have developed into ship sized, trans-ocean capable, medium speed carriers of low and high value cargoes with safe, modern and economical equipment. How such a rapid metamorphosis occurred will be explained in the following subsections.

1.2.1 Historical Development of OGTBs

In this country tugs and barges first began to appear on East Coast during the late nineteenth century. This was the the time when steam ships and the developing railroads began displacing the slower and less reliable sailing vessels in the coastal trades. Rather than scrapping all of these sailing ships, the enterprising shipping operators of the day decided to take advantage of their sound hulls and the new steam technology by converting the ships into barges and towing as many as four to six of them behind steam tugs. These tug-barge systems were very successful in low value bulk cargo trades, especially in the carriage of coal between Virginia and New England. Similarly, large ocean sailing vessels were occasionally converted into barges and successfully towed across the Atlantic. However, since such tug-barge systems depended on obsolete hulls, these trades began to fade out as the hulls deteriorated. So, by 1950 tug-barges became practically extinct on the East Coast, most coastal trades being served by WWII surplus Victory ships and T-2 tankers. (3)

However, on the West Coast tug-barge operations began to really take off at this time. This was because the WWII surplus BCLs, barge converted LSTs, 1200 HP Miki class tugs, and 1500 HP Navy ATA tugs were readily available at very low cost to carry the expanding West Coast and Alaskan bulk trades in cement, lumber, and other building materials. These tug-barge systems using converted military equipment continued in operation through the fifties. (4)

By 1960 the tug-barge operators on the West Coast and the coastal ship operators on the East Coast had to consider how to replace their aging WWII surplus equipment. There were several incentives for these operators to invest in new tug-barge systems

(3) For a more extensive history of East Coast tug-barge operations, see Hooper (1973).

(4) For a more extensive history of West Coast tug-barge operations, see Gloster (1965).

rather than ships, particularly in non-liner trades where speed was relatively unimportant. The primary incentive was in the much lower crewing expenses resulting from tug operation. This was because ship manning scales, due to aggressive union pressures and Coast Guard regulations, were more than four times (5) that of tugs and the average ship crewman's wage was significantly more than that of the average tugboat sailor. (6) As this was a time where fuel costs were low, crewing costs were the major operating expense so such savings were significant.

Another important incentive for the operators to choose tug-barge systems was that they cost much less to construct compared to ships of equal capacity. This was because the tugs, if under 300 GRT, were free from expensive governmental inspection procedures. (7) Also, barges which were designed for slow speeds could be built with simple inexpensive hull lines. Thus, in the early sixties several shipping operators built large barges for bulk trades, especially for oil, cement, and lumber. Practically all of these tug-barge systems were operated in the hawser pull-tow mode. But, as described in the next section push-towing was beginning to be seriously considered as an alternative operating method.

1.2.2 Development of Push-Towed OGTBs

The idea of a towboat or tugboat pushing a barge or integrated group of barges is not a new one. For several

(5) Ocean-going tugs under 200 GRT can under U.S. law be manned with approximately seven men on voyages of less than 600 miles. Longer voyages require crews of approximately eleven men. In comparison, in 1977 U.S. flag tankers had an average crew size of 33 men, with new tankers crewed with approximately 26 men. For detailed regulations pertaining to tugboat manning, see Annex A to Chapter 2.

(6) It has often been argued that the ship unions were able to achieve such high manning and wage scales because the liner shipping operators with vessels in foreign trades could pass their crewing expenses back to the government who was subsidizing their operational costs via the MARAD Operating Differential Subsidy (ODS) program. Unfortunately, the ship operators operating in domestic trades had to pay for similar union manning and wage scales, but without the benefit of subsidy due to the cabotage provisions of the "Jones Act". Tugboat crewmen, who are not required to be licensed by the Coast Guard and who are often trained on fishing or inland waterway vessels, have traditionally not been members of these ship unions so the inflated manning and wage scales did not pertain to them.

(7) For a list of the rules pertaining to the inspection of tugboats, see Annex A to Chapter 2.

decades, the river towboat operators have been taking advantage of the better control and lower drag resistance provided by push-towing over pull-towing a barge on a hawser.

The reason why push-towing allows the tug captain to have better control over the barge is obvious. Pulling a large barge at the end of a long wire provides little control over its direction except in the calmest seas or unless an active rudder or high resistance skegs (8) are installed on the barge hull. Additionally, maneuvering the barge in congested areas requires shortening the wire to allow better control. However, this can lead to a dangerous situation if the tug loses power or is underpowered so that the tug is run over or dragged off course by the barge. Due to these factors, hawser towing of barges greater than 20,000 DWT is usually considered impractical.

The reason why push-towing results in significantly less drag than pull-towing is because, when a barge is towed, both hulls develop their own wave making resistance. In push-towing only one hull form generates waves. Additionally, in pull-towing the hawser which forms a catenary in the water develops its own frictonal resistance, and skegs that are used to prevent the barge from yawing too severely also can increase the barge frictional resistance by more than 30%. (9) This additional drag usually limits ocean-going barges towed on a hawser to speeds of 6 to 8 knots although average speeds of up to twelve knots have been achieved by light displacement shipshape RO/RO barges towed by a 9000 HP tugs. On the other hand, push-towed OGTB systems have achieved speeds in excess of 15 knots with tugs of less than 15000 HP and higher speeds could be achieved if desired.

Given these reasons why push-towing is superior to pull-towing, it would be expected that push-towing on the oceans would have developed long ago. However, the simple pin and wire/chain lashings used on the rivers to link the tugs and barges together were not capable of withstanding the forces generated by ocean winds and seas. Nevertheless, the advantages of push-towing were so compelling that in the fifties tug and barge operators began experimenting with push-tow operation.

The first push-tow tug-barge design was by George G. Sharp, Inc., for Cargill Grain Co.'s trade on the Great Lakes and the New York Barge Canal. This system, the Car-Port/G1, had a

(8) Skegs are fins that are added near the stern of the barge's underwater hull which by their lateral drag increase the barge's steerability and stability.

(9) As an example of the resistance penalty paid for pulling, one operator of a loosely-linked push-towed OGTB claims that the same system achieves an average speed of 10.8 knots when pushed and only 8.5 knots when pulled by a 7600 HP tug.

wedge-notch type linkage which was the prototype for the Breit/Ingram linkage design described in the next section. This rather small system (less than 5000 DWT) ran into serious difficulty with USCG manning authonities which eventually demanded that the tug be manned the same as a ship since it was not capable of safe independent operation. This forced the system into foreign-flag service where the tug-barge unit, and later an additional tug and two barges, operated successfully with standard tug crews in a drop-and-swap mode for many years. Although not successful in U.S. trade, the <u>Car-Port</u> system did prove the feasibility of push-tow operation.

Seeing the advantages and the feasibility of push-tow operation, the tug and barge operators began to seek some means of pushing their barges without being levied with increased manning scales similar to those imposed on the Car-Port. So, in the sixties, they began constructing their new large barges (some over 10,000 DWT) with stern notches for their tugs to push in. The notches in these first generation ocean-going barges were rather shallow so that push-tow operation could only be conducted in the calm waters of river estuaries, bays, harbours, and calm However, since standard tugs were used for pushing these seas. barges, no manning penalty was incurred. Later, the tug and barge operators wanted to increase the percentage of time that they could push the barges. This would allow them to take advartage of the increased speed as well as the better maneuverability available with push-towing. Thus, they began deepening the notches and using sophisticated cable/chain linking and chafing gear so that push-tow operation of these second generation OGTBs could be extended to all but severe seas.

The ultimate goal of the tug and barge operators, however, was 100% or all weather push operation with standard tugs with normal tug manning. This was first attempted in 1963 by L.R. Glosten & Associates, Inc., with the <u>Sea-Link</u> articulated tug-barge linkage. The linkage, described in detail in the next section, was prototype tested with only partial success in 1964 and 1965. However, it was shown that push towing with standard tugs was a viable concept so that experimentation continued in the development of improved linkages.

In the early seventies the technology was developed for the high horesepower diesel engines that could drive large barges (greater than 20,000 DWT) at moderate speeds and for linkages that would allow the tug and barge to remain linked together in all types of weather and seas. Three third generation linkages were developed in the U.S., two rigid, the Breit/Ingram and the CATUG designs, and one semi-rigid, the ARTUBAR design. These linkages, described thoroughly in the next section, have been built for OGTBs of up to 55000 DWT and have been designed for barges of up to 80-100,000 DWT. The Coast Guard determined that these tug-barge units were "mechanically linked" ships so that ship manning scales would pertain to them. However, since the

tugs were very highly automated, and had unattended enginerooms, they were certificated for the smallest manning possible--about thirteen men without including stewards and cooks. (10) This meant that these tug-barge units could be manned with approximately fourteen to sixteen men, substantially less than ships of the same capacity.

These low manning scales were very attractive to operators who needed to build new ships. They saw these mechanically linked third generation OGTBs as a way of reducing ship crewing costs substantially. Additionally, they found that they could obtain a tug-barge system at lower capital cost than the equivalent sized ship, even if the tug was built under Coast Guard inspection. (11) For these reasons several of these mechanically linked units were built to operate as psuedo-ships in coastal and foreign trades.

On the other hand, tug and barge companies operating with standard tugs and notched barges did not like these mechanically linked tug-barge systems. The linkages were expensive (12) and caused the tug to be modified so much that it usually could not be used for anything except pushing its own barge. But, the primary reason why operators did not accept these mechanically linked systems was because it would allow Coast Guard inspection of their tugs. This would substantially increase the cost of constructing the tugs and also increase the size and the licensing standards of their crews. This would in turn increase their operating and capital costs significantly, probably making their push-towed units uncompetitive in comparison with pull-towed units with tugs manned with standard tug crews and built without inspection.

Nevertheless, the tug and barge operators wanted to take advantage of push-towing 100% of the time. The better barge con-

(10) A typical manning certificate would require licensed Master, three Mates, Chief and Assistant Engineer, a Qualified Member of the Engine Department, and six Able Bodied Seamen (AB's).

(11) The reason for this construction cost saving is discussed in the next chapter. Basically, it is due to specialization of the tug and barge construction yards and due to the less sophisticated outfit equipment and the lower freeboard of the barge.

(12) Third generation OGTB mechanical linkages require special reinforcement of the barge notch and tug bow to absorb the stresses resulting from the linkage. This reinforcement as well as sophisticated coupling and decoupling gear can add approximately a million dollars to the cost of tug and barge. Additionally, the rigid linkage systems require heavier scantlings overall, increasing the hull steel weight and cost even further. trol and fuel savings available, particulary in the longer distance coastal trades, with push-towing could not be denied. But since mechanical linkages would result in increased manning and capital costs, they instead began to develop improved cable/chain linkages (with some additional hardware) that allowed push-towing in practically all types of sea conditions but would not force their tugs to come under Coast Guard inspection. Recently several of these "loosely-linked" third generation OGTBs with barges of up to 55,000 DWT have been built for coastal liquid bulk replacing the overaged WWII jumboized T-2 tankers. trades Additionally, other linkage designs are being developed. Some of these current and proposed designs will be described in the next section.

So, today we have two different forces stimulating OGTB development. One is exerted by ship operators who are investing in the "mechanically-linked" OGTB designs. They see these pseudo-sip OGTBs as a means of reducing the crewing and construction costs of their domestic and foreign fleets. The other force is exerted by tug and barge operators who are investing in the "loosely-linked" OGTB designs. They see these OGTBs as a means of taking advantage of push-tow operation without any manning penalties for their domestic coastal trades. Therefore, one would expect that except for trades requiring high speeds and/or large vessel capacity that OGTBs would be displacing ships completely. However, small ships of moderate speed are being built in U.S. yards as well as OGTBs. An attempt to explain this situation will be presented in the following chapter.

1.3 Description of Various OGTB Systems

In this section many of the OGTB systems currently in U.S. flag operation or under active development will be discussed. Each system will be first described and then evaluated with respect to its commercial and military potential. The systems will be presented in the chronological order of their development. That is,

- A. Pull-Towed OGTBs: Tug-barge systems designed for towline operation only
- B. 1st Generation Push-Towed OGTBs: Tug-barge systems primarily designed for offshore work on a towline, but the barge will usually have a stern notch with the intention of the tug pushing in rivers, sounds and during good weather, in the open sea.
- C. 2nd Generation Push-Towed OGTBs: Tug-barge systems primarily designed for offshore work with deeper notch and hardware to permit the tug to push over half the time while offshore.
- D. 3rd Generation Push-Towed OGTBs: Tug-barge systems designed to permit the tug to push 100% of the time. (13)

These 3rd generation systems can be further sub-categorized with respect to their type of linkage. Specifically, they can be divided into rigid mechanically-linked (or integrated), semi-rigid mechanically-linked (or articulated), flexibly-linked, and loosely-linked systems.

Information additional to that given below can be obtained from the system operators, owners, or designers listed in Table 1.4.

1.3.1 Pull-Towed and 1st Generation Push-Towed OGTBs

Description and Commercial Potential

Most of the smaller and older barges were designed for hawser towing in which the barge follows the tug on a wire that is controlled by a winch on the after end of the tug. Some of the newer barges have been provided with a shallow stern notch which allows the barge to be push-towed in sheltered areas. These 1st generation push-towed OGTBs can be maneuvered much more safely in and out of port than hawser towed systems.

Although most existing OGTBs are of the pull-towed type because they were built prior to the development of the more so-

(13) This categorization of 1st, 2nd, and 3rd generation push-towed OGTBs was first presented in Wright (1973).

Table 1.4

OGTB Owners, Operators and Designers

Pull-Towed and 1st Generation Push-Towed OGTBs

Crowley Maritime Corporation One Market Plaza San Francisco, CA 94105 (415) 546-2500

Foss Launch & Tug Co. Division of Dillingham Corp. 660 West Ewing Street Seattle, WA 98119 (206) 281-3800

McAllister Brothers, Inc. 17 Battery Place New York, NY 10004 (212) 269-3200

2nd Generation Push-Towed OGTBs

Deep Notch Design

Bulkfleet Marine Corporation 4600 Post Oak Place Suite 161 Houston, TX 77027 (713) 840-1100

Interstate & Ocen Transport Co. Three Parkway Philadelphia, PA 19102 (215) 864-1200

Notchless Design

Krupp International, Inc.
Plants Division
550 Mamaroneck Ave.
Harrison, NY 10528
(914) 381-2000

3rd Generation Mechanically-Linked OGTBs

Breit/Ingram Design

Tug Barge Systems Inc. (An Ingram Company) 4100 One Shell Square New Orleans, LA 70139 (504) 588-2400

Table 1.4 ... Continued

CATUG DESIGN

Hvide Shipping Incorporated 1900 S.E. 17th Street Causeway P.O. Box 13038 Port Everglades Station Fort Lauderdale, FL 33316 (305) 527-1712

ARTUBAR DESIGN

ANDUL Engineering Inc. 2801 Sombrero Blvd. Marathon, FL 33050 (305) 743-6800

Transway International Corporation 747 Third Avenue New York, NY 10017 (212) 371-6464

Sea-Link Design

L.R. Glosten & Associates, Inc. 610 Colman Building 811 First Avenue Seattle, WA 98104 (206) 624-7850

3rd Generation Loosely-Linked OGTBs

Bludworth Design

Mr. Robert Bludworth
Bludco Barge and Towing, Inc.
P.O. Box 12424
Houston, TX 77017
(713) 644-1595

Breit & Garcia Design

Belcher Towing Company P.O. Box 011751 Miami, FL 33101 (305) 858-3400

Breit & Garcia 441 Gravier Street New Orleans, LA 70130 (504) 581-5636

Table 1.4 ... Continued

CABLE-LOC

ANDUL Engineering, Inc. 2801 Sombrero Blvd. Marathon, FL 33050 (305) 743-6800

· 3rd Generation Flexibly-Linked OGTBs

Barge-Train Design

Barge Train, Inc. 555 E. Ocean Boulevard Long Beach, CA 90802 (213) 436-0218

phisticated push-towed OGTB designs, there are still reasons for their construction today. As explained in the next chapter, they are especially suited for short distance trades such as the movement of oil from East Coast refineries to nearby metropolitan ports or the movement of containers from major to minor ports. Barges used in this type of trade are shown in Figure 1.3.

Pull-towed systems also are the most flexible. They allow any tug of sufficient power to pull any barge or pair of barges in tandem. This enables separate ownership of tug and barge fleets which may provide economies due to specialization. This flexibility is also important to large multi-purpose fleet operators who must operate construction equipment barges, RO/RO barges, container barges, train barges, tank barges, pipe barges, and Arctic resupply barges, all with the same tugs. Pull-tow operation is a necessity in some of these operations since the line of sight from the tug's pilothouse would be blocked by the cargo during push-tow operation.

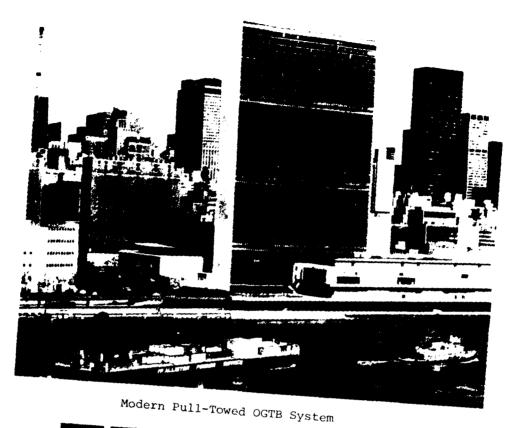
Military Potential

Pull-towed barges have been employed by the military for quite some time. They are still used annually in the Arctic and Caribbean resupply operations and had been used frequently in Viet Nam for the movement of construction equipment, housing modules, and materiel. Therefore, little additional discussion of these OGTBs will be provided here. It is safe to say that they are still useful for the trans-ocean movement of outsized cargoes, especially those which would block the pilothouse visibility of a push tug, even one with a raised pilothouse. Most of these OGTBs have flat bottoms and so are capable of beaching and/or ballasting down for the discharge of their cargo.

Many of these OGTBs, especially with tank and RO/RO barges, can be used for short distance shuttling operations and/or for the shoreside storage of POL, containers, and materiel. Some of the types of pull-towed OGTBs of military usefulness that could be readily obtained from commercial operators are shown in Figure However, since most of these barges, except the newest such 1.1. as the Crowley triple-deck RO/RO barges shown in Figure 1.4, have been built with spoon or other non-shipshape bows, they could not be transported rapidly overseas. (14) Even if they were converted to push-tow operation their hull forms would prevent them from making rapid headway. Thus, these types of barges are much more suited for coastal operations and/or storage after being towed to the operating area.

With respect to mobilization, standard tugs can be easily obtained from the commercial towing fleet (See Appendix C) or

(14) Speeds of advance of less than five knots are not uncommon with hawser towed barges on trans-ocean crossings.



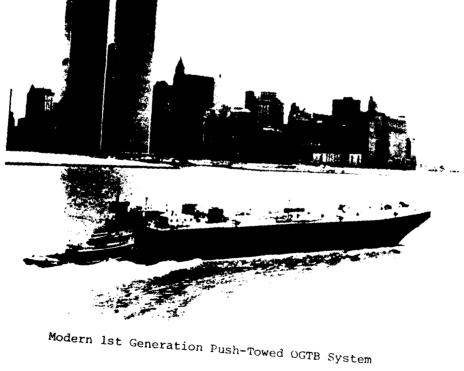
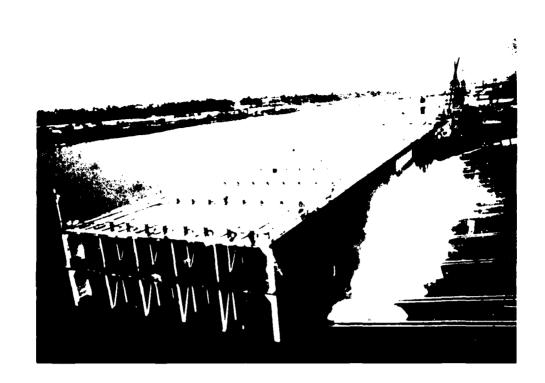


Figure 1.3

Source: McAllister Brothers, Inc. Advertisements in "Maritime Reporter and Engineering News"



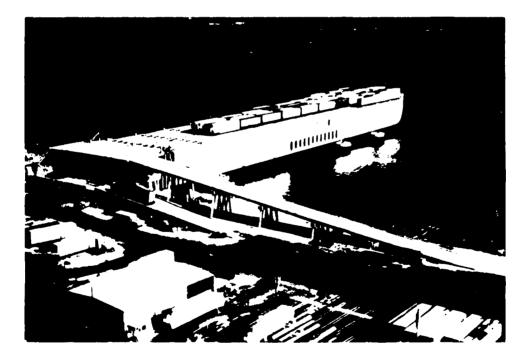


Figure 1.4

Crowley TMT Tri-Deck RO/RO Barge

Source: Trailer Marine Transport Corp.

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they can be rapidly produced at the many dozen tug and boat yards around the country. (15) Additionally, standard deck and tank barges can be readily obtained from the commercial fleet (See Appendices A & B) or can be rapidly produced by specialized barge yards. Delivery of a barge can be obtained much sooner than a ship of equivalent size since it has little machinery and is of rather simple hull shape. For example, even the sophisticated triple-deck RO/RO barges of Crowley Maritime could be completed in six months from keel-laying and only nine months from contracting. Follow on barges could be delivered in less than three months intervals if necessary. There is no doubt that the large U.S. fleet of standard tugs and barges and the boat and barge yard capacity can provide significant numbers of pull-towed OGTBs for mobilization operations. (16)

1.3.2 2nd Generation Push-Towed OGTBs

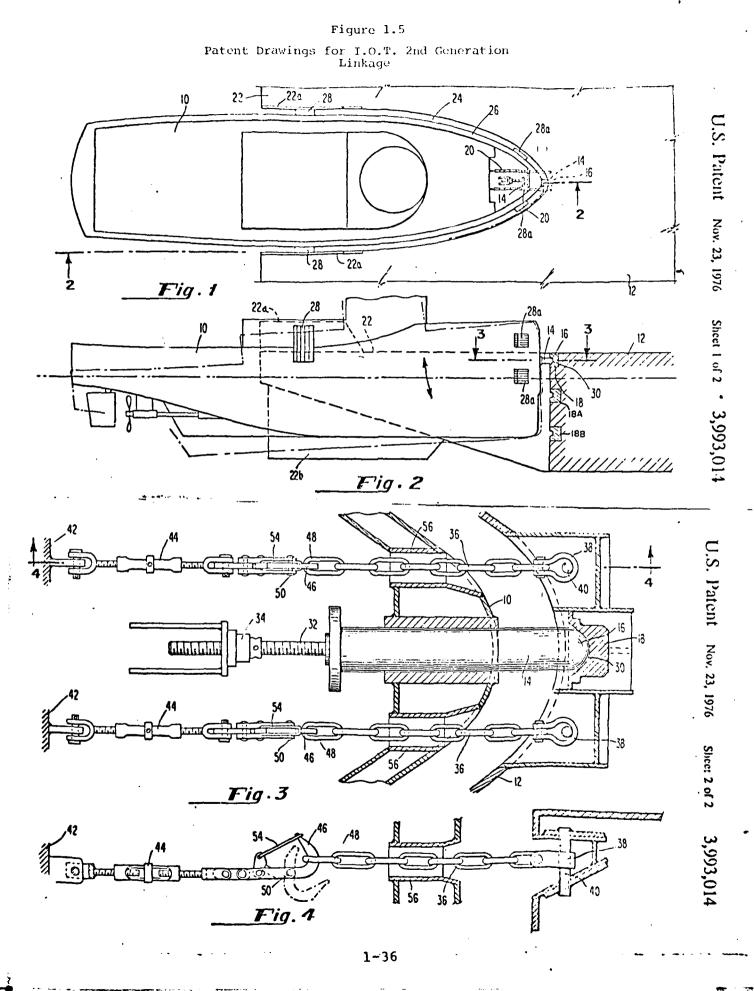
Deep-Notched Designs

Before the recent development of the 3rd generation loosely-linked OGTB designs, many coastal tankship operators, especially on the East and Gulf Coasts, pushed their barges with 2nd generation linkages. Amost all of these designs consisted of the tug pushing the barge in a deep stern notch while tensioned by cables to prevent separation from the barge. Such systems allowed push-towing more than 50% of the time. However, since the development of the loosely-linked designs, very few coastal operators are constructing 2nd generation designs except for those with linkages that allow pushing at least 90% of the time and so are approaching 3rd generation status.

A representative of these new 2nd generation systems is shown in the Interstate and Ocean Transport patent drawings presented in Figure 1.5. This system uses a pin with a hemispherical convex frontal surface that fits into a corresponding concave hemispherical surface in the barge notch to restrain heave. Additionally, the linkage uses chain cables that provide the tension that prevents tug and barge separation. Relative roll between tug and barge is prevented by fenders installed at the after end of the tug. This linkage allows the tug to remain in the notch in up to nineteen foot seas although voluntary separation normally occurs when 12-15 foot seas are expected. Interstate has three barges (Ocean 262, Ocean 190, and Ocean States) and three 5600 HP tugs (Enterprise, Honour, and Valour) fitted with

(15) Most large tugs are twin-screw and powered by high speed diesel engines. Recently, some of the larger tugs have been built with medium or slow speed diesel machinery.

(16) See MTRB (1979) for a more detailed discussion of the availability and distribution of pull-towed OGTBs.



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this linkage. One of these OGTBs operating with this linkage is shown in Figure 1.6. Additionally, two new single-skin 20,000 DWT tank barges currently under construction for this company will be equipped with it. The linkage should be less expensive to install than most of the 3rd generation designs and provide almost the same capability.

Another deep-notched 2nd generation linkage system has been recently developed by Bulkfleet Marine Corporation, a subsidiary of McAllister. At least two and possibly five 25,000 DWT tank barges are expected to be built with this linkage. As shown in preliminary line drawings of Figure 1.7, the tug is the maintained in the close fitting notch by two sets of tensioned cables, one pair leading from the tug's forecastle and the other pair from its stern deck. Linkage forces are distributed over a wide area of the notch through an extensive system of fenders so that the system may operate in 12-13 foot seas without difficu ty. In greater sea states the tug must separate from the The first two tank barges will be powered by 7000 HP MAN barge. medium speed diesel engines and are expected to average 12 knots in their Gulf Coast service.

Other barges with 2nd generation linkages are noted in Appendix B. As explained in the next chapter, it is not expected that many new systems will be constructed with this type of linkage. Some pull-towed systems, however, may be retrofitted with a 2nd generation linkage since it provides these OGTBs with the advantages of push-towing for the majority of operating time at little cost. This has been the case with the Crowley Maritime tank barges $\frac{450-1}{1}$ through $\frac{450-5}{10}$ on which deep notches were installed in the last year to allow them to be almost continuously push-towed on their West Coast and Pacific river trades.

The military potential of 2nd generation OGTBs is practically the same as the 3rd generation loosely-linked systems discussed in the next subsection except they must be hawser towed while transitting the ocean. Unfortunately, such hawser towage may mean that these systems can not participate in the initial stages of a contingency action. However, once they arrive at the operating area, they can provide substantial transport capacity by being used in the pushing mode in coastal and shuttling operations.

Notchless Design

The SEEBECKWERFT 2nd generation linkage of A-G Weser, a subsidiary of Krupp International, Inc., is included here even though it is not of American origin because it has some features that make it of commercial and military interest. The linkage as shown in Figure 1.8 is different from the other 2nd generation linkages in that it does not require a barge notch. Instead, the tug has a double roller fendering head at the bow that can either

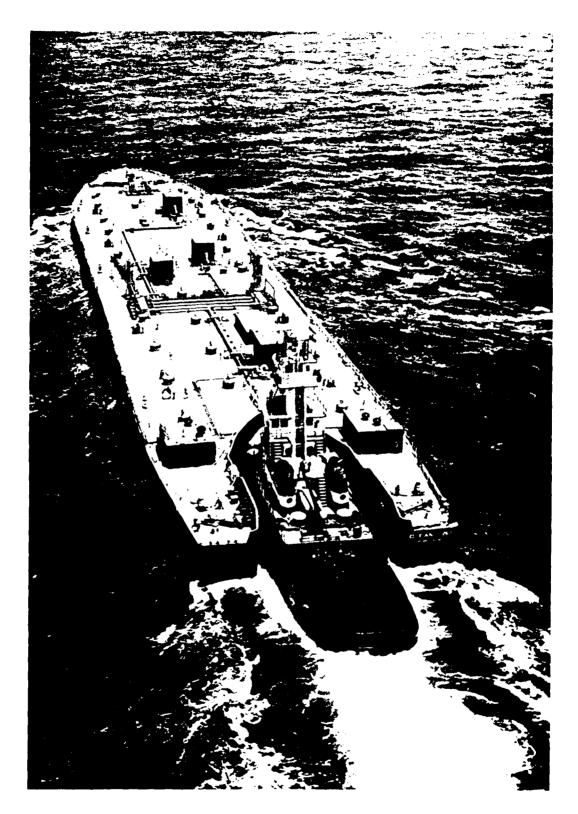
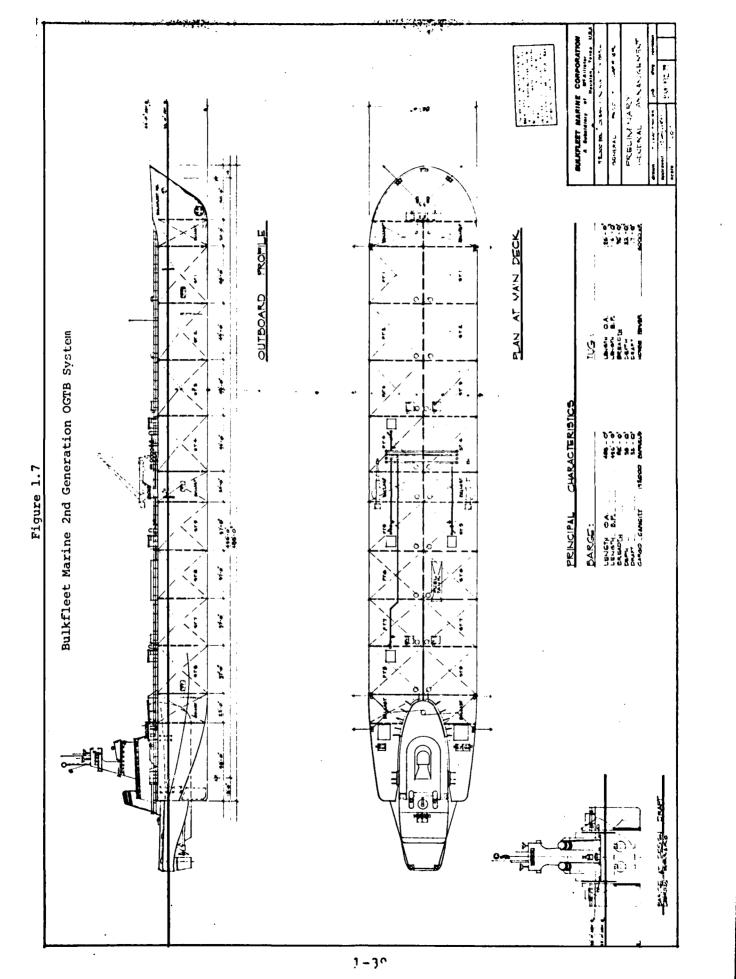


Figure 1.6

I.O.T. 2nd Generation PUSH-Towed OGTB \$1-38\$

Source: Interstate and Ocean Transport 1978 Company Brochure

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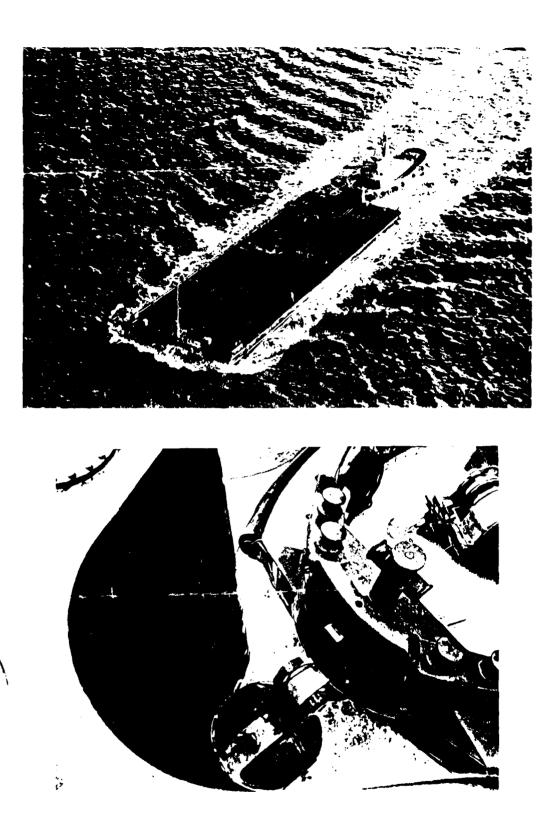


Figure 1.8

Seebeck 2nd Generation OGTB System

Source: A.G. Weser Seebeckwerft Brochure

1

rotate or roll up and down in a semi-cylindrical slide that is attached to the barge stern. This linkage allows the tug to roll, pitch or heave freely, yet retain its own buoyancy so there is no tendency for the tug to become submerged at the stern or lifted out of the water. The tug is kept in the slot by tensioned cables that lead from a twin-head towing winch on the after part of the tug to the corners of the barge stern. The lack of a notch also allows the tug to be used as an active rudder since it can push at an angle with respect to the barge centerline.

The reason that this design is included here is that it provides the ultimate in tug and barge interchangeability with push-tow operation. Any tug having the fender installed can push any notchless barge that has the slot installed. The cost of such an installation for an OGTB with a 20,000 DWT barge pushed by a 5000 HP tug is estimated by the local distributer to be approximately \$350,000.

Although this system has never been used in U.S. trade, it has been successfully operated by several foreign operators. It is very useful for coastwise service where seas no greater that state seven will be encountered. The only apparent disadvartage that this design will have compared to a deep notched 2nd generation OGTB is that it will likely develop greater linkage drag and so will require more horsepower to be propelled at the same The local distributor believes that this is probably not speed. the reason for its lack of acceptance in this country. It is more likely due to its precise fabrication requirements and its foreign origin. Nevertheless, it seems economically beneficial for retrofitting on pull-towed barges that operate on coastal trades.

As for SEEBECKWERFT's military potential, it seems to be the most flexible linkage available for coastwise and shuttling push-tow operations with moderate size barges (<20,000 DWT). It allows any tug to handle any barge and it can be quickly retrofitted (in less than two weeks if proper preparations are made) on most pull-towed barges and standard tugs without difficulty. The fendering head also allows the tug to be used independently for handling ships for docking. Given all of these potential advantages, the SEEBECKWERFT linkage should certainly be investigated thoroughly for its military potential. In particular, it should be determined in what sea states the linkage may operate without failure and how much additional linkage drag is developed compared to deep notched designs.

1.3.3 3rd Generation Mechanically-Linked OGTBs

There are currently three mechanically-linked OGTB system designs being used in U.S. trades at this time. Two, the Breit/Ingram and CATUG, have rigid linkages. The third, the ARTUBAR, has a semi-rigid linkage. Additionally, another semi-rigid design, SEA-LINK, is being used by a foreign operator in coastal service. A summary of the particulars of the U.S. flag mechanically-linked OGTBs is presented in Table 1.5. More detailed information about their design and their commercial and military potential is presented in the following subsections.

Breit/Ingram--Rigid Linkage Design

Description: The Breit/Ingram design was the first to be used in U.S. flag trades after Car-Port and SEA-LINK had left the scene. The linkage system is similar to the Car-Port in that the tug is rigidly wedged into the sides and bottom of the barge stern notch. However, the Breit/Ingram design has the additional capability of rapid emergency tug-barge separation and safe independent tug operation. The details of the linkage system are shown and explained in Figure 1.9.

In addition to the particulars given in Table 1.5 about U.S. flag Breit/Ingram OGTBs in operation, the following information is of interest:

The Martha R. Ingram/IOS 3301 tank OGTB has six product segregation with fourteen epoxy coated tanks. The barge can be discharged in less that 24 hours by the use of six deep-well pumps that can pump a total of 20,000 Bb1/Hour. The barge has a 800 HP bowthruster and the tug has twin controllable-pitch propellers.

The <u>Carole G. Ingram/IOS 3302</u> tank OGTB has four product segregation with twelve epoxy coated tanks. The barge can be discharged in less than 24 hours by the use of four deep-well pumps that can pump a total of 20,000 Bbl/Hr. The barge has a 800 HP bowthruster and the tug has twin controllable-pitch propellers.

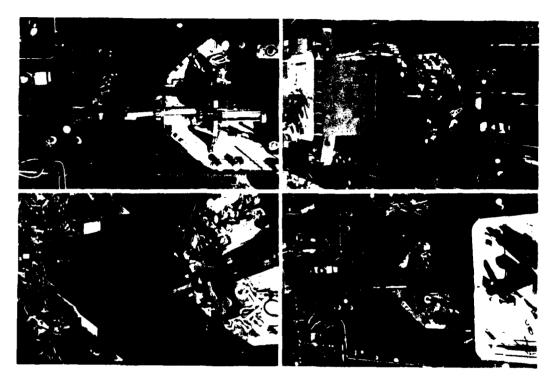
The Jamie A. Baxter has two 40-ton gantries with clamshell buckets onboard which are capable of unloading two separate grades of cargo (phosphate fertilizer) simultaneously. The 25,000 tons of cargo can be unloaded into barges on either or both sides of the vessel in a total of 17 hours.

The Valerie F has four center holds designed to self-unload phosphate rock with four cranes and eight wing holds designed for rice carriage on backhaul voyages. These holds can be discharged via four spouts at a rate of 300 LT per spout per hour.

Considerable other information about the Breit/Ingram design is provided in Hukill (1972) and (1974), Pickersgill (1973), MARINE ENGINEERING/LOG (1976a), and SHIPPING WORLD AND SHIPBUILDER Table 1.5

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Breit/Ingram Fracuite Presque Isle 140.33*54.0*31.25' 29' 14,940/16mph 12/73 Breit/Ingram Dry Bulk Presque Isle 140.33*54.0*31.25' 37'5" 11,126/14.1 Kts 7/71 Breit/Ingram Clean Products Martha R. Ingram 145.64*46.0*30.25' 37'5" 11,126/14.1 Kts 7/71 Breit/Ingram Flank/Ocean 105 3101 584.50*86.0*30.25' 37,500 37,500 37,700 Breit/Ingram Faik/Ocean 145.64*46.0*30.25' 50'0 37,500 37,500 37,700 Breit/Ingram Faik/Ocean 145.64*46.0*30.25' 50'0 37,500 37,500 37,500 Breit/Ingram Faik/Ocean Valerie F 130.6'50' x45.0' 50'0' 37,500 37,200	Desi	kage İgn	Barge Type/ Service	<u>Name</u> : Tug Barge	cuois	Tug-Barge: Draft Length	Tug-Barge: 11P/Design Speed DWT	<u>When Built</u> : Tug Barge	Where Built: Tug Barge	Owner/ Opcrator
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Breit/Ingram Rice-Phosphate Valerie F 150.61'x54.0'x34.0' 561' 25,000 12/76 12/76 Breit/Ingram Pry-Bulk/Ocean Valerie F 620.0'x65.0'x45.0' 555' 25,000 12/75 12/76 12/77 Breit/Ingram Fertilizer Jamie A. Baxter 125.0'x45.0'x27.75' 32' 7200/12.5 Kts 12/77 Breit/Ingram Setult Seabulk Challenger 116.08'x90.44'x38.42' 37' 32,000 12/77 57/77 Curruc Oil Tank/ Sec-3901 18.00'x55.0'x45.0' 659' 35,000 17/75 Kts 1/75 Curruc Sec-3901 Sec-3901 16.08'x90.4'x39' 60'1 14,000/15.5 Kts 1/75 Curuc Superphosphoric Sec-3902 581.1'x95.0'x52.0' 659' 35,000 " " Curuc Superphosphoric Sec-3902 581.1'x95.0'x52.0' 615' 40,000 " " Curuc Superphosphoric Two or Three 56.'x95.0'x52.0' 615' 40'16''''''''''''''''''''''''''	Bre	≜it/Ingram	Clean Products Tank/Ocean	Carole G. Ingram IOS 3302	145.84'x46.0'x30.25' 584.50'x87.0'x46.33'	37'5" 620'	11,128/14.0 Kts 37,500	3/72	Southern Shipbuilding Levingston Shipbuilding	Ingram Corp
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Ro-Ro/ JJ Oberdorf 140'x40'x 19' 7,500/-16 kts 79-80 s) Ocean GR Moir 568'x85'x41'6" 605'6" 6450(155 40' 79-80 s) Ocean Barge Names Unknown 568'x85'x41'6" 605'6" 6450(155 40' 79-80 s) Ocean 58'x85'x41'6" 58'x85'x41'5" 58'cars) 58'cars)	5	DO	Oil Tank/ Ocean	Two Systems to be Named	127'7"x90'4"x39' E45'x95.0'x61.6"	40°6" 699°4"	18,200/15.5 Kts 47,075	80-81	Halter Marine Bethlehem Steel	Amerada Hess
	EN -2	rubar units)	Ro-Ro/ Ocean	JJ Oberdorf GR Moir Barge Names Unknown	4		7,500/-16 Kts 6450(165 40' containers 58 cars)	19-80	Marinette Marine Seatrain Shipbuilding	Coordinated Caribbean Transport



PULTING IT TOGETHER...

clearance. Within the confines of the notch on the barge are two large box girders tapered at the stern end. large notch in the stern into which the forward The barge portion of the unit is built with a two-thirds of the tug fits with a minimum of

with steel pads mounted on blocks of laminated and alt on each of its sides are large wedge-shaped receptacles, integral parts of the entire hull. These wedge-shaped structures are lined There is a hydraulic ram on the tug's bow. elasticized material.

tug's wedge structures and are pulled by the hydraulic ram to a predetermined point that provides the required preloading to keep the tug motionless in relation to the barge. The taper of the barge's boy girders fit the

of the notch. The hydraulic ram extends forward. The tug enters the notch under its own power and goes forward until grounded on the bottom retracts, pulling the tug wedges into a solid locks to a structure on the barge and then connection with the barge's box girders.

time generally is accomplished in less than two minutes, and the entire operation is handled by one man operating a control console on foregoing procedures are reversed. Disconnect To detach the tug from the barge, the the bridge. Breit/Ingram Linkage

Figure 1.9

Ingram Ocean Systems Company Brochure

Title:

Source:

(1974b). Additional information can be obtained from the licensor listed in Table 1.4.

Commercial Potential: This design was an early commercial success. Since the construction of the Martha R. Ingram/IOS 3301 in 1971 four other systems have been put in U.S. trade, the latest being delivered in 1977. Additionally, three systems have been put into foreign flag service. One of these, for Japanese operation, consists of two tugs and six barges which are used in two drop-and-swap mode trades. This proves the ability of the design to operate in the drop-and-swap as well as integral Also, one foreign flag system has the tug designed for mode. high speed independent operation for salvage work. This proves that the tug, although not conventional in bow shape, has the flexibility to be used in non push-tow operations.

Currently no Breit/Ingram design OGTB is under contract or Internationally, this may be due to the general construction. downturn in ship construction; and domestically, it may be due to the tougher competition from other designs. The Breit/Ingram design does have some disadvantages in addition to those generally applicable to mechanically-linked OGTBs as discussed in Chapter The primary disadvantage is that in order for the linkage to 2. remain rigid while withstanding ocean forces, the hull scantlings have been designed heavier than for a comparable ship. Specifically, the tank barges have bottom scantlings 6.5% and deck scantlings 3.3% greater than those for a ship of equivalent size. These scantlings are also 12% greater than for a simple notched barge. These heavier scantlings, the five million pound force hydraulic ram, and the complex tug bow and barge notch lines make the linkage system quite expensive. These factors may have led to the recent interest in the CATUG design for transoceanic trades and the new loosely-linked designs for coastal ·trades.

Military Potential: The Breit/Ingram design has the potential of being used in any application that is handled by a moderate speed (<20 KTs) ship. It is proven trans-ocean capable and may be built to any militarily useful size. One design has even been developed for a 100,000 DWT barge at a 43 foot draft with the ability to carry 82,000 DWT at 38 feet.

As with any OGTB, this system has the flexibility of drop-and-swap and independent tug operation. Unfortunately, none of the U.S. flag tugs and barges are currently interchangeable so drop-and-swap operation with current assets is not feasible.

As there is no relative movement between tug and barge while underway, there is no reason why the barge cannot be manned if necessary. This would allow underway replenishment operations if required. Additionally, fuel and power connections between

the tug and barge can be easily designed to increase cruising range or to support habitability containers or weapons systems.

With respect to a mobilization, a newly constructed system of this type could probably be delivered months earlier than a ship of same size due to concurrent barge and tug construction at specialized yards. However, since this design requires a carefully engineered and complex linkage as well as a ballast system, it should take longer to construct than one of the simpler loosely-linked 3rd generation designs; and, it would not be viable for quick retrofitting onto a standard tug and barge.

CATUG--Rigid Linkage Design

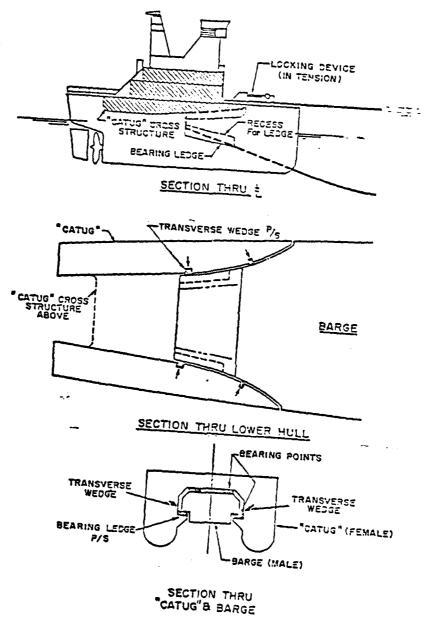
Description: The CATUG design followed the Breit/Ingram linkage by four years, the first CATUG OGTB being delivered in 1975. The linkage is practically the inverse of the Breit/Ingram design. That is, rather than having the tug bow wedged into a barge notch, the CATUG has a protruding barge extension wedged between a catamaran tug's twin hulls and under the connecting platform. The details of the linkage are shown in Figure 1.10.

In the linkage, the CATUG uses a gathering type wedge fit, in that the extension from the barge is tapered. Two tensioned hydraulicly operated latches are provided on the tug foredeck which engage adjustable sockets on the barge afterdeck. These latches hold the tug on the barge extension and preload topside and bottomside bearing points in compression. There are four of these bearing points between the tug and barge units. Two are between the top of the barge and the underside of the catamaran cross structure platform, each off to the side. The other two are beneath, between the barge extension and a ledge-like exten-sion on the inside of the CATUG hulls. These bearing points are surfaced with greenheart, a very dense and moisture-stable wood, and prevent relative transverse movements of the hulls. Separation of tug and barge can be accomplished in less than two minutes.

In addition to the particulars given in Table 1.5 about the U.S. flag CATUG OGTBs in operation or under construction, the following information is of interest:

The <u>Seabulk Challenger</u> tank OGTB has five product segregation with eighteen epoxy coated tanks. The barge can be discharged rapidly by five 4500 gpm diesel-driven deep-well pumps plus a 2500 gpm special products pump. The barge is equipped with a 920 HP bowthruster and each of the catamaran hulls of the tug has a 17 foot propeller.

The Seabulk Magnachem is a special products tank OGTB and thus has a sophisticated cargo arrangement to handle caustic soda, chlorinated hydrocarbons, and solvents. The barge has



SOURCE: Waller (1972)

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Figure 1.10 CATUG OGTB LINKAGE DESIGN

an epoxy coated double-bottom and is divided into 22 tanks, all strengthened to carry cargoes of 1.62 specific gravity. These tanks are serviced by sixteen separate loading and discharging lines and by 20 pumps, 15 of which have 850 gpm pumping rates. All but the small forward center tanks are coated with Amercoat 75 and contain stainless steel heating coils. All deck lines servicing all but the forward tanks are steam traced and insulated. The tug is practically identical to the one on the <u>Seabulk Challenger</u> and the barge has a 1000 HP bowthruster.

The three CATUGs for Occidental Oil are being built with MARAD Construction Differential Subsidy (CDS) funds. They will be operated by a sixteen member crew (without a radio officer) between Florida and the Black Sea. These double-bottomed vessels will carry superphosphoric acid (SPA) in their center tanks and liquid cargoes in the wing tanks during backhaul The five center tanks and associated pumps, piping, legs. heating coils and exchangers are of stainless steel construction. These tanks are also heavily strengthened since SPA has a high specific gravity (2.0). All fifteen tanks are serviced by individual deep-well pumps that feed into two discharge headers, one for the wing tanks and the other for the center tanks. The tanks can be discharged in less than 24 hours at a rate of 2000 LT/Hr. Additionally, it should be mentioned that the barge will not be equipped with a bowthruster since the operator felt it unnecessary due to the maneuverability of the CATUG resulting from its widely spaced twin screws.

The two CATUGs being built for Amerada Hess are double-bottom tank barges carrying in thirteen cargo tanks 40,433 long tons at the 36'0" design draft and 47,075 long tons at the 46'6" maximum draft. Each barge has four product segregation and can discharge a cargo of diesel oil via thirteen 4000 GPM hydraulicly driven deep-well pumps (one in each tank) in sixteen hours. The tanks are epoxy coated and have heating coils to allow carriage of heavy fuels. As with the Occidental CATUGs, no bowthrusters are installed on these barges.

Considerable other information about the CATUG design is provided in PORT OF GALVESTON (1973), JACKSONVILLE SEAFARER (1975), MARINE ENGINEERING/LOG (1976c), SHIPPING WORLD AND SHIPBUILDER (1974f), Stevens (1976), and Seabulk Corporation (1971?). Additional information can be obtained from the licensor listed in Table 1.4.

<u>Commercial Potential</u>: This design is currently the most commercially active of the mechanically-linked OGTBs, especially after the recent orders for five systems from Occidental Oil and Amerada-Hess. Four to six other systems are currently under negotiation with Amerada-Hess. The reason for such recent success may be due to a combination of aggressive marketing and some in-

herent advantages in the CATUG design. The two principal advantages resulting from twin vice monohull construction are (1) it provides better propulsive efficiency and maneuverability due to the wide spacing of the propellers, and (2) it results in smaller transverse and vertical tug-barge interface loads and barge rake torsional loads because the barge and tug rolling periods are more closely matched. This second advantage allows the tug-barge interface to be built with less reinforcement than that needed in the rigid-linked monohull designs. The money saved for this reason and because of the simplicity of the barge extension compared to a notch will at least equal the additional cost that results from the complex catamaran hull construction Thus, the CATUG capital construction costs are for the tug. found not much different than those of monohull designs.

The CATUG design does have less flexibility than the Breit/Ingram design. Its tug, although seaworthy, cannot be used for towing or any other independent mission satisfactorily. The barge could be towed independently if necessary, but it was not really designed for such operation. Besides the above comments, all the information concerning the commercial viability of mechanically-linked OGTBs discussed in Chapter 2 apply.

Military Potential: The CATUG design has the potential of being used in any application that is now handled by a moderate speed ship. It is proven trans-ocean capable and may be built to any military useful size. One design has been developed for a 85-102,000 DWT barge.

As with any OGTB, this system has the flexibility of drop-and-swap operation. Although there are currently an equal number of tugs and barges so that commercial drop-and-swap operation is not planned, the <u>Seabulk Magnachem</u> and <u>Challenger</u> or the Occidental and Amerada Hess CATUGs can exchange tugs and barges. This interchangeability might be useful for some military operations as discussed in Chapter 3.

As there is no relative movement between tug and barge while underway, there is no reason why the barge cannot be manned if necessary. This would allow underway replenishment operations if required. Additionally, fuel and power connections between the barge and tug can be easily added to increase cruising range or to support habitability containers and weapons systems.

With respect to mobilization, a newly constructed system of this type could be delivered months earlier than a ship of the same capacity due to concurrent barge and tug construction at specialized yards. However, since the CATUG is of complex form, this system might take longer to construct than a monohull design in most tug yards. Certainly, the CATUG system is not amenable for retrofit on standard tugs and barges due to its peculiar twin hull design.

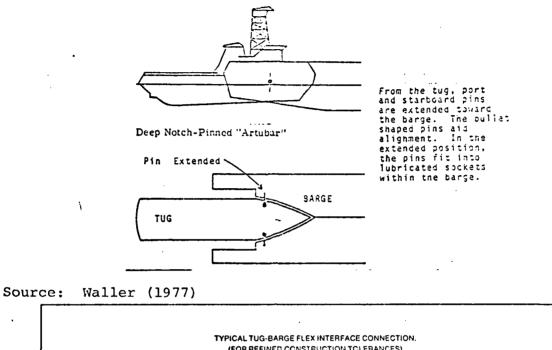
ARTUBAR--Semi-Rigid Linkage Design

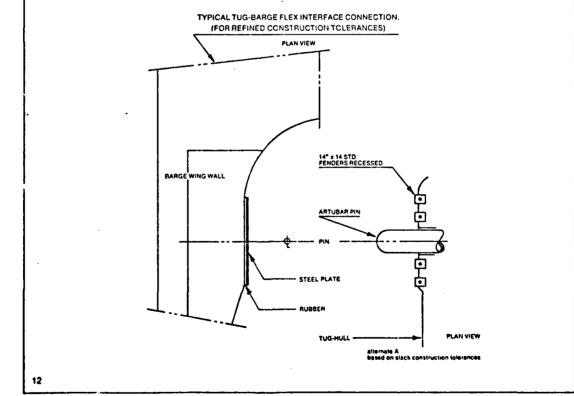
Description: The ARTUBAR (ARticulated TUg BARge) linkage design was developed in the late sixties. However, it will not be until late 1979 that the first ARUTBAR system will be in U.S. flag operation even though a Japanese system has been operating since 1975. Reasons for this delay will be presented later.

The linkage is conceptually simple. It consists of two large transverse pins that are hydraulicly extended from both sides of the tug's bow into corresponding sockets in the barge's notch. The pins allow the tug to pitch in the notch so that the linkage forces are substantially smaller than those produced by a rigid linkage design. Also, there are fenders installed at the bow and side of the tug that prevent damage to the notch during pin alignment. The pins may be retracted in seconds and the tug and barge can be separated in any sea state. Additionally, the system can be designed so that the tug can link with the barge in up to 15 foot seas in just a few minutes. This is beyond the capability of the rigidly-linked designs. It should be noted that several sets of sockets can be installed to match the normal operating drafts in ballast and loaded conditions. This will reduce the need for expensive ballasting equipment for the tug. Besides the pin linkage, the ARTUBAR design may also include wing-wall skegs that make up the barge notch. Such wing-wall skegs reduce the barge's pull-tow frictional resistance by at least 50% compared to barges with standard skegs. Details of the ARTUBAR linkage including wing-wall skegs are shown in Figure 1.11.

The ARTUBAR linkage was originally designed to be installed onboard the Gulfcoast Transit Company's Betty Wood/Marie Flood in 1972. However, when the operator learned that the U.S. Coast Guard refused to reconsider its decision to require the tug to be inspected and have licensed crews, he decided to build the tug and barge with an ARTUBAR system without pins. It operates as a 2nd generation push-towed system with tug and barge linked together by cables. However, in seas greater than twelve feet, the tug must leave the notch and take the barge on a hawser.

Currently there are two RO/RO OGTB systems being built with MARAD CDS funds for Transway International's subsidiary Coordinated Caribbean Transport (CCT). The twin screw tugs have a very high pilot house sightline, 59 feet above the water, to allow good visibility over the light displacement RO-RO barge. The tug-barge profile is shown in Figure 1.12. The barge has the capability of carrying 165 40-foot trailers and 58 automobiles on its spar, upper, and main decks and tank top. It is loaded via a bow ramp and three side ports to the main deck and then through internal fixed ramps to the other decks. The barge is also equipped with a 1200 HP bowthruster.





Source: Fletcher (1974)

Figure 1.11

ARTUBAR Semi-Rigić OGTB Linkage More information about the ARTUBAR design can be found in Fletcher (1968), (1969), (1970), (1974), (1975), MARINE ENGINEERING/LOG (1976e), and SHIPPING WORLD AND SHIPBUILDER (1969) or from the patent owner or designer listed in Table 1.4.

Commercial Potential: As the first units of this design will be put in U.S. flag operation in 1980, their commercial potential in U.S. foreign trades will only be learned later on. However, there are some points that can be made concerning their commercial viability compared to the rigid-linked designs discussed previously.

First, the ARTUBAR design should be significantly less expensive to construct than either of the two rigid designs. This is primarily because the barge scantlings and, consequently, its hull weight can be made quite a bit lighter. This is the result of the AbS rules requiring that the scantling length be determined from two-thirds of notch length forward of the barge stern to the barge bow rather than from the tug stern to barge bow as required for rigid designs. Additionally, the ARTUBAR system should be less expensive to build because it is essentially made up of a standard ocean-going tug and a deep notched barge with only a hydraulic pin assembly added. The designer estimates that the cost of such hardware for a 15-20,000 HP tug and a barge of up to 60,000 DWT would be about \$1,000,000.

The use of standard tug and barge units makes the ARTUBAR more flexible than the rigid designs. The tug could be used for any normal tug function including pushing or pulling (if towing winch is installed). The barge, with wing wall skegs, is especially designed for good steerability with less than usual resistance when pull-towed. Also, since the linkage connection is made via pins only, any ARTUBAR tug could operate with barges of various size and function. For example, the CCT tugs could operate with up to 60,000 DWT barges, if only slow speeds are required. And, as the system can link in moderate seas, it is also more suited for drop-and-swap operations. The Japanese system with two barges and one tug operates in this mode.

The ARTUBAR system does have the disadvantage of being more expensive to operate than the rigid designs since its hull lines are not as smooth. The additional resistance and fuel cost may be as much as 10%, although this might be reduced substantially if fairing flaps are added to smooth over the linkage area.

Military Potential: The ARTUBAR design has the potential of being used in any application that is now handled by a moderate speed ship. From the Japanese system it has been proven trans-ocean capable. It may be built to any military useful size, as one design has been developed for a 70,000 DWT barge.

As with any OGTB, this system has the flexibility of drop-and-swap operation. It is better capable than the rigid-linked designs to connect in moderate seas--up to 15. feet. This may be very useful in shuttle type operations where the barges are anchored offshore. It should be noted that the two CCT systems will have interchangeable tugs and barges although they will not be operated in drop-and-swap mode.

Although there is relative movement between tug and barge while underway, the motion near the pin linkage is practically nil. Thus, there is no reason why the barge cannot be manned and why personnel could not move between tug and barge. This would allow underway replenishment operations from the barge if necessary. Additionally, fuel and power connections between the tug and barge can be designed through the pins to increase cruising range or to support habitability/weapons systems.

With respect to mobilization, a newly constructed system of this type could probably be delivered months earlier than a ship of same capacity due to concurrent barge and tug construction at specialized yards. Additionally, ARTUBAR should be capable of being built more rapidly than the rigid linked designs since the tug and barge can be of standard form. Also, an ARTUBAR linkage is capable of being retrofitted on a standard tug and barge. The designer estimates that a retrofit could take place in 45 working days assuming that the ARTUBAR pin components were available. Such a retrofit could be easily done so that all tugs and barges of various sizes would be interchangeable.

Of all the mechanically-linked systems, the ARTUBAR system seems to have the most potential use for military application since it has an inherently more flexible design. Its tug and barge components not only can be interchanged in drop-and-swap operations but also can be used effectively as independent vessels.

SEA-LINK--Semi-Rigid Linkage Design

Description: The SEA-LINK linkage design was first proto-type tested on some standard tugs and barges in the mid 1960's. At that time, the linkage failed due to problems in fabrication and design. After extensive analysis and investigation, an improved linkage was developed that also restricted rolling movements between the tug and barge as well as yaw, sway, and surge which was restricted in the original design. In 1973 this new linkage was installed on a 1450 HP tug and three 800 DWT barges operated by the San Miguel Corporation (SMC) of the Phillipines. This system allows the tug to push either one barge or two barges in tandem.

The linkage was designed to approximate the ease of operation and rugged simplicity or a railroad coupler. This is of importance in the routine coupling and uncoupling of barge

flotillas in port as well as for emergency disconnect capability for safety.

The linkage between tug and barge is provided by a pushing frame hinged to the stern of the barge and pinned to the tug amidships. The frame acts essentially as a double pinned hinge with the hinge pin axes horizontal and transverse to the vessels. The tug and barge can be separated by either manually or hydraulicly releasing the frame from the barge or the tug. The connection between the barges is the equivalent of a single pin hinge permitting relative pitch only. Thus, the barges must either be at nearly the same draft for linkage or the barges must be provided with a series of fittings at different heights. The linkage as intalled on the SMC tugs and barges is shown in Figure 1.13.

More information about the SEA-LINK system can be found in Glosten (1967), (1972), (1973), (1975), San Miguel Corporation (1977?), MARINE ENGINEERING/LOG (1976d), and SHIPPING WORLD AND SHIPBUILDER (1974d) or by contacting the designers listed in Table 1.4.

Commercial Potential: The SEA-LINK installation for the San Miguel Corporation has been so successful that additional units were recently added to the flotillas. The linkage is capable of being installed on any conventional tug and barge, notchless or not. The cost of the installation depends on the forces expected which is a function of the sea states, speed of operation, and barge size. The SMC linkage weighs about 30 tons and would cost \$100-150,000 to construct. It operates without difficulty in 12 foot seas. Costs for the linkage on larger barges designed to operate in rougher seas are hard to predict, but the designer feels that systems of less than 8,000 DWT operating in non trans-ocean trades would be economically feasible.

The system can also operate with two barges in tandem. More barges are considered impractical due to the lateral bending moments generated at the linkages in long flotillas of linked barges. However, two tandem barge operation has been successful in the Phillipines and might be appropriate for certain coastal trades in the United States.

SEA-LINK has not been successful in U.S. trades probably because the proper conditions for its use were not found--rather small barges operated at low speeds in moderate seas. However, it is certainly an inexpensive system that allows 100% push-towing in trades for which it is suited.

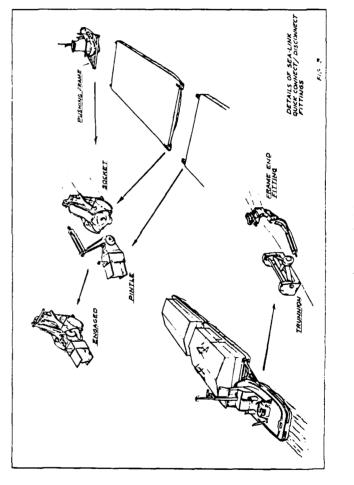
Military Potential The SEA-LINK design does not have the same capabilities as the other 3rd generation mechanical linkages. It is not practical for use in trans-ocean crossings nor for barges of greater than 8,000 DWT. However, the system does seem appro-





Fig. 2 - Sea-Link installation on SAN MIGUEL HOPSTER.

Fig. 1 - 1450 horsepower tug SAN MIGUEL HOPSTER pushing two barges in tandem.



Sea-Link Semi-Rigid 3rd Generation OGTB System

priate for coastwise shuttling operations, i.e., the movement of POL and material from a major port to minor facilities. The tardem barge capability adds additional floatbility by allowing at least two ports to be served on a given voyage. Due to the simplicity of the linkage, a barge could be easily dropped off and used as a floating warehouse and then retrieved later when empty for resupply.

The SEA-LINK system is also militarily attractive in that a linkage could be installed on any standard commercial tug and barge very quickly and cheaply. Since all that is required is the fitting of the frame fittings on the tug and barge, the linkage could probably be installed and even built in the field, if necessary.

Also the linkage could be considered for use in the movement of barges from amphibious ships. Rather than having all the barges s lf-propelled, they could be handled by a fewer number of SEA-LINK equipped tugs, assuming that all the barges are not required at once. This would save money and make more efficient use of the powering units. Alternatively, each barge could have its own SEA-LINK equipped powering unit that could detach from the barge if it is damaged or is needed to remain at the beach. Such flexibility may be worth the additional cost of two component construction.

In any case, the SEA-LINK system should be considered in operations that require the movement of small amounts of cargo in coastwise and/or shallow draft areas under reasonable sea states. It allows the economic, safety, and flexibility advantages of push-towing at reasonable cost.

1.3.4 3rd Generation Flexibly-Linked OGTBs

There is only one flexibly-linked OGTB system under development in the U.S. at this time. Although not currently in commercial use, it has sufficient commercial and military potential to be mentioned here.

FLEXOR--Flexibly-Linked OGTB

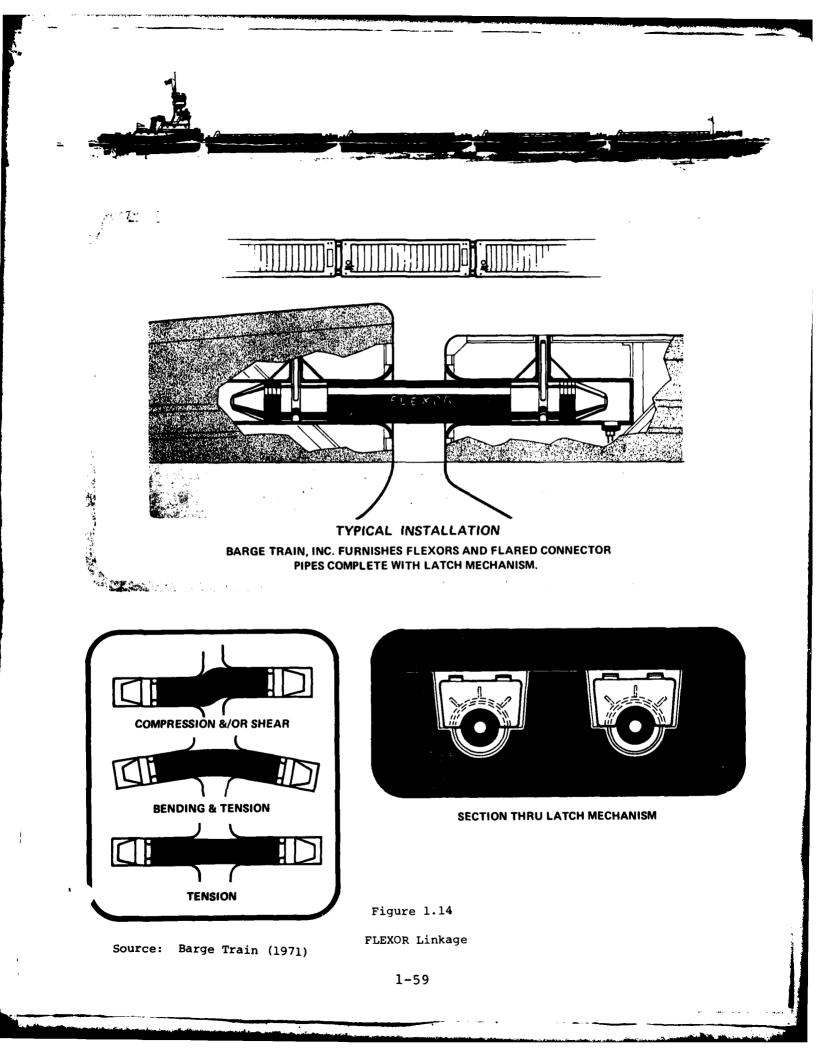
Description: The FLEXOR linkage concept has been under development since the early 1970's. Although it is not used yet in commercial service it has been successfully full-scale proto-type tested and is being used as the new U.S. Navy pontoon bridge connecting device. The normal FLEXOR ocean-going installation consists of up to four barges of up to 8000 DWT per barge, a bow unit, and a tug unit, connected to each other by a pair of longitudinal steel/rubber pins called FLEXORs. The pins fit into recepticles that have been designed with a quick release guillotine mechanism. The FLEXORs have heads made of cast steel which are separated by a urethane body interdisposed with steel plates. This method of construction makes these devices extremely strong and flexible. The body is pretensioned by cables connecting the heads. The flexibility of the FLEXORs allow the different components to have some relative motions in all degrees of freedom which prevents build up of excessive force at the linkage area. Details of the linkage is shown in Figure 1.14 and artist illustrations of how a commercial FLEXOR system might look is shown in Figure 1.15. More information about the FLEXOR linkage system can be found in Marriner (1968) and (1972), Barge Train, Inc. (1971), (1973a), (1973b) and (1978), Appenbrink (1974), Brown (1977) and Hautanen (1975) or from the designer listed in Table 1.4.

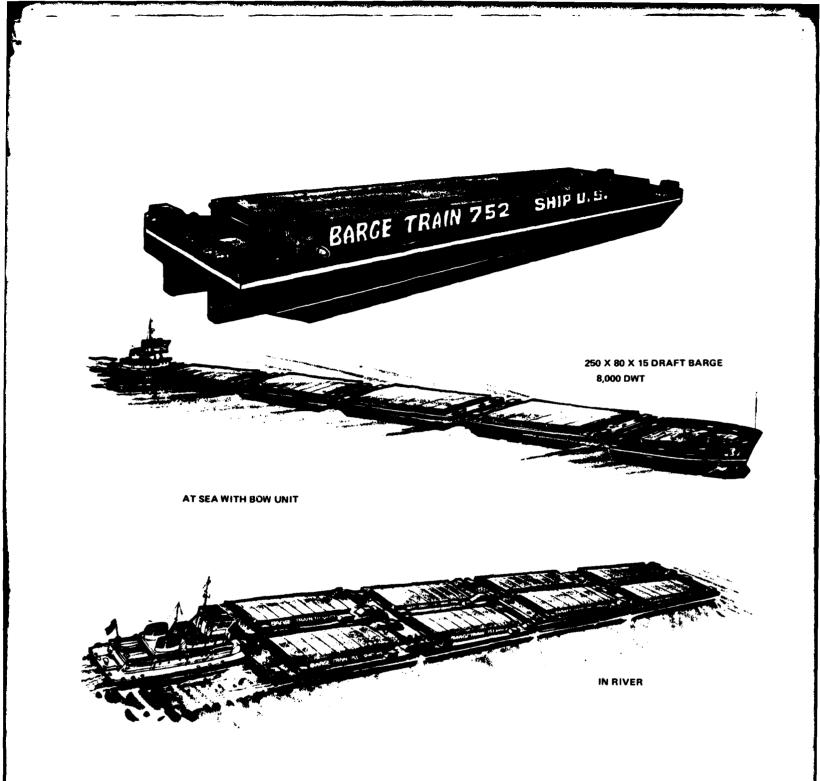
Commercial Potential: The FLEXOR system has been developed for a different type of commercial operation than that suited for the loosely and mechanically-linked designs. Instead of being used single large barge in a point-to-point coastwise trade, to push it has been designed to push a series of smaller barges (<8000 DWT) in a train type operation. In this type of trade the barges would be dropped off and/or picked up at a series of ports during single voyage. The advantages of such a type of operation are obvious. It has been used for quite some time on the great rivers of this country. It allows trains of different types of barges of various origins and destinations to be moved along the The barges could be owned by the consignor, consignee, or coast. compary, barge could be kept for storage as well. and Essentially, FLEXOR allows the typical multibarge river system to become ocean capable.

There are several reasons why the FLEXOR has not yet been used in commercial trades. Probably the major one is that its use demands a type of operation radically different from the usual coastwise tug-barge operation. As the maritime industry is very conservative, such novelty is slow to be accepted. Additionally, in order to implement the barge train concept, several barges have to be built concurretly for diffent shippers who would be willing to coordinate their capital investments and movements. This might be a very difficult task for most U.S. coastal trades. Thus, FLEXOR might be first developed in a Great Lakes-river or river-coastal trade which would allow river barge systems to be moved on rougher waters.

Military Potential: Although the FLEXOR is not designed for long distance or trans-ocean operation, it certainly could be very useful in coastwise or shuttling operations. The ability to push several small barges at the same time would allow several small shallow draft ports to be resupplied from various depots on a single voyage with one or two barges being dropped off and/or picked up at each port.

The FLEXOR system installed on pontoon barges has proven itself in U.S. Navy Civil Engineering Laboratory exercises. Al-







Artist Drawing of FLEXORS in Commercial Flexibly-Linked OGTB Systems

Source: Barge Train (1974)

most two hundred of the 20'x100' contoons which are carried onboard LSTs will be fitted with FLEXCRs. The FLEXORs allow the pontoons to be assembled into LST causeways and then pushed onto the beach as a unit.

FLEXORs could be used also to allow several landing barges to be pushed by the same tug. As the system nears the beach, the units could be separated and individually discharged. The tug then could retrieve the barges, link them up again, and then return. Or the tug could leave immediately to pick up another group of barges or to just be out of the battle zone.

It should be mentioned that a barge train in a coastal run in a danger zone would be less vulnerable than a ship. If one barge is hit, it could be released and the remaining barges reconnected so that the system could continue. And of course, the tug can be used as a lifeboat if the barges explode or catch on fire.

With respect to mobilization, the FLEXOR system can be readily retrofitted onto existing flat-bow tugs and notchless barges. The designer estimates that the retofit could take less than six months including engineering and installation and would cost approximately \$300,000 for a 5-6000 DWT barge. The FLEXOR for such a barge would be approximately 30" in diameter and would weigh about 12,000 pounds and cost about \$25,000 each. It should be mentioned that FLEXORs have to be rerubbberized about every five years at a cost of about \$10,500.

1.3.5 3rd Generation Loosely-Linked OGTBs

There are several 3rd generation loosely-linked OGTB system designs under development at this time. One has been in operation for a few years and others are being installed on or contracted for new construction. The reasons for such a flurry of interest in these types of linkages are explained in detail in the next chapter. But to summarize, they are being built because tney can be operated with 100% push-tow operation in coastal trades at less capital and operating cost than for the mechanically-linked systems and at little additional capital cost than for the 2nd generation OGTBs.

Since these OGTB designs are so new, there has been essentially nothing published about them in the professional journals or the trade literature. Therefore, the information presented in the following subsections has been obtained directly from the designers or operators, either through telephone conversations or company brochures/documents. Consequently, the data presented may not be complete for all designs, but it should be closely representative of the type of linkages that are now under development.

All of these loosely-linked OGTB linkages have the same purpose: to reduce the tug motion in the notch so that separation of the tug from the barge will not be required in aby sea state expected during the voyage. Almost all of the designs utilize the same principles:

(1) to restrict tug heave and pitch motion by the use of some non-jamming restraining device at the tug bow and/or by the use of frictional restraints (usually wedges) on the tug's sides,

(2) to restrict tug surge by the use of tensioned cables connecting tug to barge stern, and

(3) to restrict tug roll, yaw, and sway by closely fitting the tug's lines to the notch shape so that these movements are restrained by fenders or wedges.

Each design performs these functions in a different manner as discussed in the subsections below. These descriptions will be followed by a brief discussion of the commercial and military potential of loosely-linked OGTB systems.

Bludworth Loosely-Linked OGTB Design

The Bludworth linkage design was the first of the loosely-linked OGTB linkages to be put into operation. The first unit, the <u>Ponciana</u>, began operations in 1972. Details of the linkage are not available since the Bludworths are reluctant to divulge any information concerning its design. However, it is believed that the tug is held in the notch by tensioned cables and its movement is restrained by hydraulicly controlled wedges located at the after end of each side of the tug. Additionally, the tug is restrained from heaving by a frictional device on the tug's stem that clamps onto a vertical rail located at the tip of the barge notch. This device is articulated so that the tug may pitch at the bow.

There are currently five OGTBs operating with the Bludworth linkage. The last two to be delivered, the <u>Velasco</u> and the <u>Plaquemine</u>, are 22,000 DWT double-bottomed tank barges. Although built for Dow Chemical they have been under a temporary charter to Belcher Oil since August 1978. The operator claims that when the barge is pushed by its 7000 HP tug, it has averaged 10.8 knots. The tugs and barges have never had to separate even when experiencing twenty foot seas. The operator believes the system capable of withstanding 30 foot seas without difficulty.

Currently two container OGTBs are being built by Union Carbide with this linkage. The 11,000 DWT single deck barges will carry somewhere between 200 and 300 thirty foot containers from Puerto Rico to U.S. ports. These systems will operate with 5600 HP tugs in a 76 1/2 foot deep notch. Delivery is expected in late 1979.

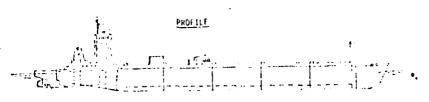
Breit & Garcia Loosely-Linked OGTB Design

The Breit & Garcia linkage design is the second of the 3rd generation OGTB designs to be installed on new construction. The linkage of this system differs from the other designs since the tug's bow is not restricted against heave. Instead, the tug bow is fitted with rubber rollers mounted on a horizontal axis to facilitate relative vertical movement between tug and barge. Additionally, the tug is secured to the barge notch laterally by four hydraulicly operated laminated steel/plastic pads located on either side of the tug, fore and aft of amidships, which mate with matching units on the barge. Tensioning hawsers are led from the barge wings via rollers on each of the tug's quarters to hydraulic tensioning rams. These serve the dual purpose of holding the tug in position longitudinally and of providing the means for transmission of stern power. It should be mentioned that the tug is equipped with a towing winch and hawsers and is fully certified for operating in the towing mode if necessary.

Two tank OGTBs are being built with this linkage design for Belcher Oil Company. The profile of this system and some particulars are given in Figure 1.16. The total cost for both systems was approximately \$50,000,000 and they are expected to operate in the push mode 100% of the time on their coastwise trades.

CABLE-LOC Loose-Linked OGTB Design

Recently E. H. Fletcher has developed a loosely-linked OGTB design to be installed on new or existing OGTBs. The linkage design is shown in Figure 1.17. There it is seen that a horizontal, cylindrically-shaped, constant-tension, energy absorption device is mounted on the tug's bow. This rubber device, which is about seven feet long for a 1500 LT displacement tug, transmits the tug's thrust energy evenly into a corresponding horizontal concave cylindrical slot in the barge notch. These slots can be fabricated at several drafts to allow for different ballast conditions. The tug and barge are held tightly together by tensioned chains and the tug's sides are fitted with hydraulic wedges to reduce vertical motions. The cost of the device to be retrofitted on a 23,000 DWT barge pushed by a 7000 HP tug is estimated to be less than \$250,000. Model basin tests have indicated that this system should be capable of operating in the push mode during any sea condition expected in its coastal trade.



PLAN



37,700 SOUT UNIT

PRINCIPAL DIMENSIONS:

PRINCIPAL	01-010-03	
TUG:	L.O.A. Beam Draft GRT	167 53 25 290
BARGE :	L.O.A. Beam Depth GRT T.P.I.	585' 92' 41' 21300 106,
COMBINED UNIT:	L.O.A. Beam Depth	620' 92' 41'

37,700 SONT UNIT

CARGO CAPACITY: (98%)

SDWT 37,700

at 35' S.W. Cubic Capacity 285,000 Bbls

SPEED/CONSUMPTION

12.0 knots/42 tons HVF plus 2.5 tons diesel fuel per day

CLASSIFICATION:

TUG: ABS Class Al Ocean-Towing Service

IMCO (Solas 1960) International Load Line

BARGE: U. S. C. G. Approved ABS Class + Al Dil Barge

PROPULSION MACHINERY:

TUG: One B & W-type 7L67GF 7-cylinder, 2-cycle, maximum continuous rating 13,100 BHP at 119 RFM

AUXILIARY MACHINERY:

- TUG: Two 550 Kw. AC Generators driven by Caterpillar diesels. One emergency generator 135 Kw. A.C. driven by Detroit Diesel.
- SARGE: Two 150 Kw. generators driven by Caterpillar diesels. Cargo pump engines Detroit Diesels.

CARGO TANKS:

Ten, 5 Port, 5 Sthd. Coating: Inorganic Zinc Heating Coils: 2'," Stuel (1500 lin.ft. tunk) Hot Oil Heater:"Vapor' 8.4 million BTU's

Up to 5 segregation available

1-64

55,000 SOWT UNIT

PRINCIPAL	D11151/S10115:

TUG :	L.O.A. Beam Draft GRT	167' 53' 25' 290
BARGE :	L.O.A. Beam Depth GRT J.P.I	640' 105' 46' 31000 135
COMBINED UNIT:	L.O.A. Beam Depth	675' 105' 46'

55,000 SPWT UNIT

CARGO CAPACITY: (98-)

SDWT 55,000

at 39' S.W. Cubic Capacity 417,000 Bbls

SPEED/CONSUMPTION

11.0 knots/42 tons HVF plus 2.5 tons diesel fuel per day

CLASSIFICATION:

- TUG: ABS Class Al Ocean-Towing Service IMCO (Solas 1950) International Load Line
- BARGE: U. S. C. G. Approved ABS Class + Al Oil Barge

PROPULSION MACHINERY:

TUG: One B & W-type 7L67GF 7-cylinder, 2-cycle, maximum continuous rating 13,100 BHP at 119 RPM

AUXILIARY MACHINERY:

- TUG: Two 550 Kw. AC Generators driven by Caterpallar disels. One emergency generator 135 K A.C. driven by Detroit Diesel.
- BARGE: Two 150 Kw. generators driven by Caterpillar diesels. Cargo pump engines Detroit Diesels.

CARGO TANKS:

Ten. S Port, S Sthd. Coating: Inorganic Zinc Heating Colls: 2's' steel (r) lin. ft tank) Hot Oil Heater: "Vapar" In.0 million BTU 's S-grade segregation

and the second
OGTB System Figure 1.16

Generation

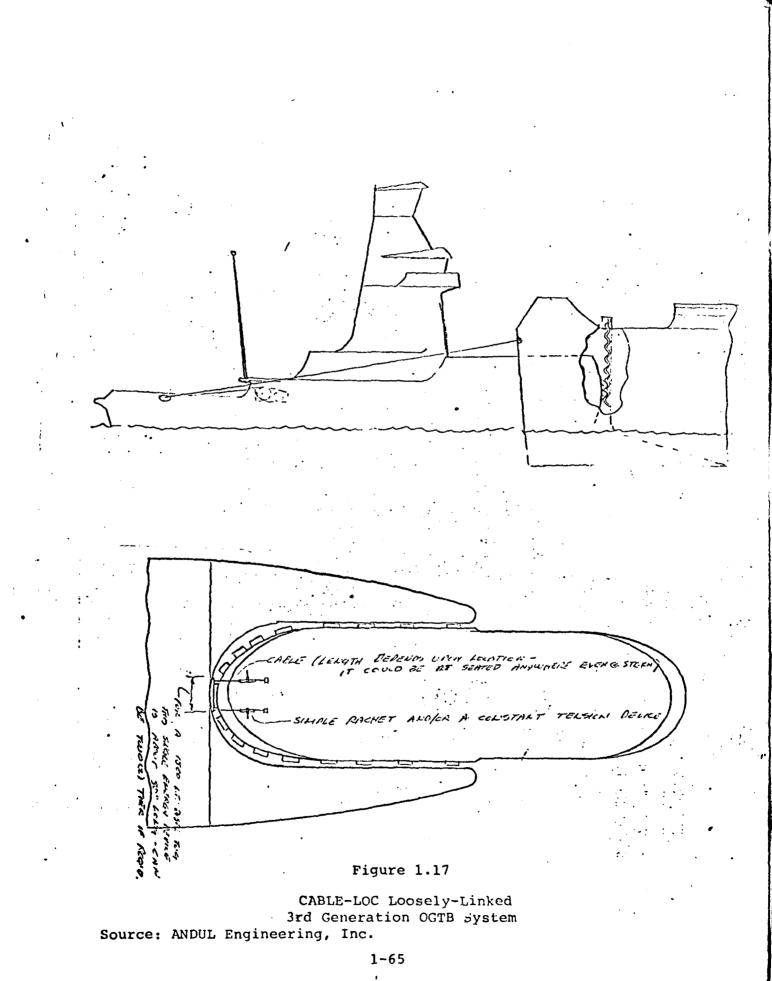
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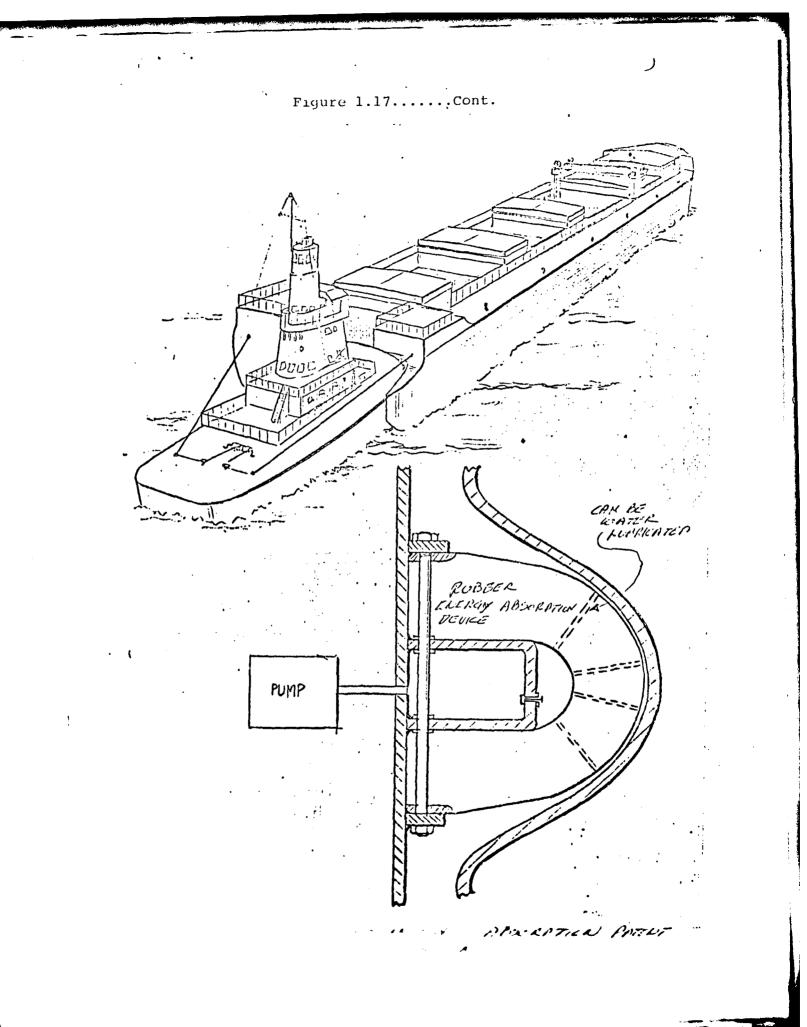
Loosely-Linked

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Commercial Potential

The economic incentive for the development of these loosely-linked OGTBs is discussed in detail in the next chapter. It is their ability to provide 100% push-tow capability at little additional capital cost compared to pull-towed systems that have made them so popular. However, since most systems have not operated for a long period of time, it is not possible to really evaluate the commercial potential of one system over another at Additionally, it is not known whether these systems this time. are truly capable of push operation without damage in all sea Although they seem capable of withstanding between conditions. twenty and thirty foot seas, it is still questionable whether any or all of them could survive a major storm. This may not be of concern to most of the operators since their coastal trades allow their vessels to seek shelter when unfavorable sea conditions are However, this may mean that none of the. are expected. trans-ocean capable or even suitable for some of the Northwest Pacific trades. On the other hand, if these systems are capable of operating in heavy seas, then it should be expected that they would penetrate these trades in the near future.

As for the cost of the linkage, it seems rather small, probably less than \$500,000. Additionally, all linkage systems should not interfere in the use of the tug for independent operation--for salvage, push-towing, or pull-towing. All of the linkage systems allow the barge to operate at different drafts without without major ballasting of the tug.

Military Potential

These loosely-linked OGTBs certainly have the potential to be used in shuttling or coastal operations especially for the movement of POL and vehicles from a coastal port to another coastal port or from a super size ship to a shallow draft port. They are proven capable of moderate speed operation (<16 KTs) and should provide considerably more ton-mile capacity than pull-towed systems due to this increased speed of operation.

Whether these systems are truly trans-ocean capable is yet to be seen. If they are, then they would be very militarily useful in that they could be brought to a warzone in almost half the time that it would take if they were pull-towed. Also, if the relative movement between the tug and barge is not too severe in moderate sea states, then these OGTBs might be capable of replenishment at sea operations as long as some safe connecting platform and some power/fuel linkage could be designed between tug and barge. Alternatively, the barge could be manned and any habitability or weapons equipment could be powered by generators onboard the barge.

All of the loosely-linked designs are capable of drop-and-swap operation. However, none of the systems in operation or being built are to be operated in this way since their barges can be loaded/discharged in a very short time. Unfortunately, none of the linkages allow interchangeability of Only the barges among the different designs. tugs and loosely-linked OGTBs of an individual operator may be exchanged, i.e., the two Bludworth Dow Chemical systems, the two Bludworth Union Carbide systems, or the two Belcher Oil systems. Thus, the potential use of this large commercial fleet of 3rd generation loosely-linked OGTBs for military drop-and-swap operations is not currently feasible.

With respect to mobilization, these systems could be newly constructed several months before a ship of equivalent capacity due to the concurrent construction of tug and barge in specialized yards. One shipyard believes that a large OGTB of this typ could be in operation in less than 18 months after the contract, including engineering and design. signing Retrofitting of these systems can be quickly and easily done for any tug that can fit into the stern notch of a barge--2nd generation OGTBs would be of this type. Of course, if a stern notch must be added or significantly changed so that the tug fits more snugly, then retrofitting costs would be higher. Since today there is no standard tug bow or stern notch shape, there is little possibility of converting a large fleet of tugs and barges to 3rd generation loosely-linked operation with complete tug and barge interchangeability without expensive modification to many standard tug bows and barge notches.

Prior to proceeding to the next chapter one other mobilization advantage of these and the other 3rd generation OGTBs needs to be mentioned. This is with respect to their manning. It is apparent that since these OGTBs can operate in trans-ocean trades with no more than sixteen (mechanically-linked) or eleven (loosely-linked) men, the mobilization of a large fleet of these OGTBs will have a significantly smaller impact on the merchant marine than the mobilization of a large fleet of ships. This may be a very important consideration in times of scarce merchant marine manpower.

ANNEX A TO CHAPTER 1

TUG/BARGE MOBILIZATION MISSIONS (1)

This afternoon amidst all the discussions of the commercial utility and institutional constraints impacting on the future of tug/barges in foreign trade, it is rather easy to overlook an important non-commercial application. My objective today is to create an awareness and appreciation of the utility of ocean-going tug/barges, specifically integrated tug/barges, in the logistics support of U.S. military efforts.

The Declaration of Policy in the Merchant Marine Act of 1936, begins:

"It is necessary for the national defense and development of its foreign and domestic commerce that the United States shall have a merchant marine"

Note that "national defense" is mentioned first and remember that MarAd's mission is to carry out this policy. The Maritime Administration must provide shipping capability during a declared national emergency.

In 1974 MarAd established a "ship designs for mobilization" project to develop modern ship designs for wartime production. The resultant designs were intended to:

a. Improve shipping capability in wartime;

b. Replace wartime shipping losses; and

c. Meet postwar trading requirements.

Working closely with elements of the Navy, the Army, and the Military Sealift Command we identified the design requirements, the constraints, and the mission profile for the required mobilization ship. The Maritime Administration design team then

(1) Remarks by Ronald K. Kiss, Director, Office of Ship Construction," Maritime Administration, on March 26, 1979, at the National Ocean-Going Tug/Barge Planning Conference held in New Orleans on 26-27 March 1979.

developed detailed preliminary designs for a number of optional configurations of a single hull form including a multi-purpose design, a jumbo version, an austere version, and a container oriented version.

After these designs were well along, we received some well reasoned suggestions to consider tug/barges for this mission and began some preliminary studies.

These four ship designs were presented for public review and discussion at a Government/Industry Mobilization Ship Conference last November in Washington, D.C. This Conference was a valuable forum resulting in copious detailed written comments and suggestions on areas where the designs could be improved.

In addition we received some major guidance at the Conference itself. First, the basic multi-purpose ship was too small for anticipated commercial services, and the Navy and MSC also decided the larger ship was more desirable for logistics support. Second, the anticipated 17 month construction period was much longer than we had hoped, for rapid replacement of wartime shipping losses.

Based on these significant conference results, the future steps of the mobilization ship have been altered. The contract design effort of developing detailed bidding plans and specifications will be for a larger multi-purpose vessel with increased beam. Concurrently we will be studying procedures for improving production planning and procurement cycles to reduce the total construction period. For example, Japanese yards indicate that less than 14 months would be required for delivery of this type vessel in peacetime. It is our intention to identify the bottlenecks in U.S. ship production schedules and seek to reduce the U.S. construction time.

The utility of tug/barges was also raised at the Mobilization Ship Conference and they are of considerable interest. Especially in view of the just mentioned findings. Increasing the size of the mobilization ship reduces the number of shipyards which can be used to construct them. Thus there may be a need for another design of smaller dimensions capable of being constructed at smaller shipyards. The need to construct large numbers of vessels in a minimum time period also enhance the attractiveness of ocean-going tug/barges. This will be especially true if the tug and barge can be kept as simple as practical given the mission requirements.

At this point in time, MarAd has prepared a number of concept designs for mobilization ocean-going tug/barges. These will be circulated within government, just as the present mobilization ship was, for review and discussion of its role and its desirability. Clearly the war scenario plays a major role in the design process. Present requirements indicate high speed, 20

knot convoys will be used. As noted earlier, these 20 knot ships are expected to take nearly one and a half years to be delivered. On the premise that some emergency shipping may be continued outside of convoys and that tug/barges should permit earlier deliveries, MarAd is pursuing this alternative. The tug/barge is not a substitute for the mobilization ship in logistics support, any more than it has been proposed as a substitute for a high speed container liner but it does appear to have a mobilization role.

Based on the foregoing, the design goals for a mobilization tug/barge have been initially established as follows:

o Design for immediate replacement of lost shipping.

Here simplicity and ease of fabrication are essential to insure a short production period. Minimizing regions of hull surface double curvature and utilizing simple deck machinery and cargo handling equipment are two specific means towards obtaining this goal.

 Design for cargo handling flexibility. Self-loading and unloading capability will be required to allow the vessel to operate at ports with either sophisticated or primitive facilities.

- Provide multi-purpose capability as a system. This can be accomplished, and still meet reduced construction time goals, by having two or three standard designs, each of different limited cargo handling capability.
- Finally, incorporate features to enhance commercial capability Provision should be made in the design for carrying anticipated commercial cargoes, which will not always be the same as those transported in wartime. An alternative in this respect would be a mobilization hull configuration which could be easily and inexpensively modified at the end of the conflict.

The ocean-going tug/barge has a number of attributes which make it attractive as a complement to the mobilization ship. Consider first the problem of wartime production. Large coastal shipyards are likely to be overloaded with naval work and multi-purpose mobilization ship construction. Production time and expense could be reduced through separate construction of tugs and barges at specialized smaller yards not already operating at peak capacity. For designs below the maximum size limitations of the Saint Lawrence Seaway this could include facilities on the Great Lakes or inland waterways.

Where tug/barges exist, but the barge is not suitable for transporting the cargoes needed, new barges could be designed and built to be compatible with existing tugs. A viable transport

unit could be created without having to order long lead-time machinery.

For new construction of tugs, and also some barges, the use of existing designs and/or new standardized designs will help to maintain low building time. Standardized designs would have the added benefit of being specially configured to maximize construction efficiency.

In addition to production there are wartime operational considerations that are also attractive. The increased survivability accruing from the use of separable hulls will be a significant benefit, provided the de-coupling time is short.

As a system, the tug/barge has the potential of each tug serving more than a single barge. This is not normally done commercially due to the fast on and off loading of the cargoes typically carried, but may result in a decided advantage in military operations. With proper scheduling turn-around times could be minimized, since the power unit can be de-ccupled from the incoming barge and connected to an empty for the return trip without delays for cargo handling. This requires the tug to be totally seaworthy in the disconnected mode.

Finally, at the end of the war all mobilization vessels would be either taken over by commercial owners or assigned to the reserve fleet. Where existing tugs or tug designs are used for mobilization the postwar commercial utility would be already demonstrated. It should also be less expensive and more productive to place barges in the reserve fleet than self-propelled ships.

Cargo anticipated for wartime carriage includes military vehicles and equipment, dry goods, food, and petroleum products. While it has already been stated that a tug/barge design need not have complete multi-purpose cargo handling capability, the transport system as a whole should be able to carry any cargo to any reasonable destination. As a result, several tug/barge variations will be required.

Mobilization tanker needs can be effectively met by existing tug/barge and conventional tankers modified by installing underway replenishment equipment. Therefore, a tank barge design is not being considered for design development.

However, concepts of a RO/RO barge (Figure 1.18) and a general purpose dry cargo barge (Figure 1.19) are being reviewed. A RO/RO vessel is the simplest and most efficient means to transport military vehicles to a war zone. In addition, the advantages ascribed to unitized cargo and quick unloading make the RO/RO vessel well suited for valuable and high priority items, such as electronics, aircraft spare parts, etc., which can



Figure 1.18

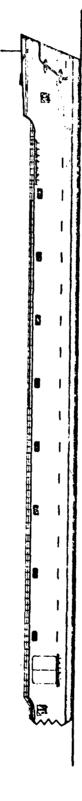
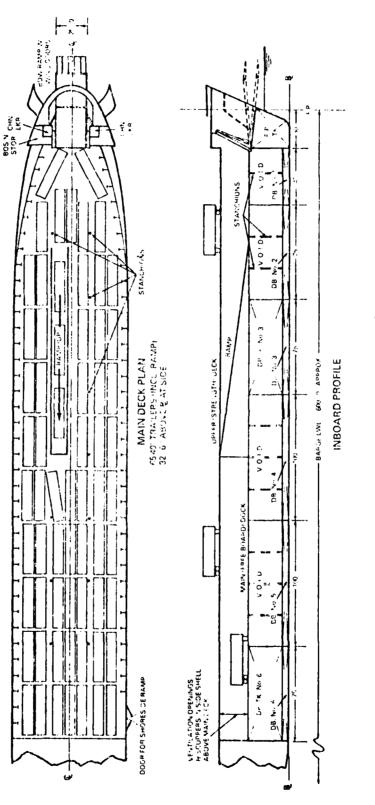




Figure 1.18 cont'd



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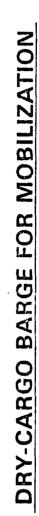
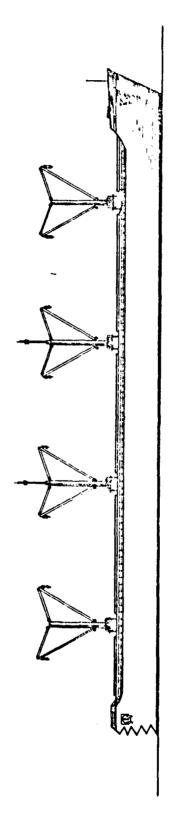


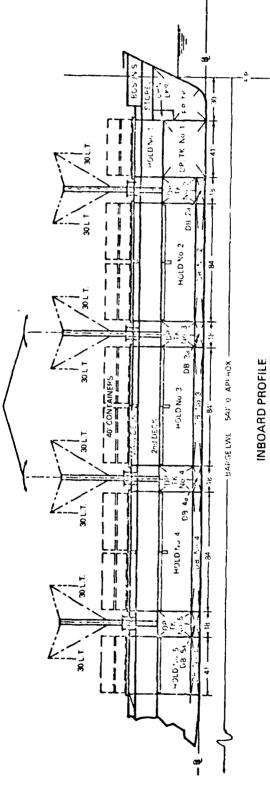
Figure 1.19



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Figure 1.19. cont'd



70 L.T. HEAVY LIFT

be loaded in trailers or containers on chassis. Large items of unusual shape or size, such as helicopters or boats, can also be accommodated.

Because an inexpensive and simple design is desirable, the RO/RO barge will not be equipped with multi-purpose cargo handling capability. In fact, the RO/RO barge has been constrained to have only one self-contained off-loading ramp and a minimum number of internal ramps and watertight doors. The combination of hatch covers, stationary ramps running through holds, numerous watertight doors, and non-RO/RO cargo handling gear which characterize a truly multi-purpose ship, is not compatible with short and inexpensive constructor. The main deck has been designed as no the freeboard deck, there are subdivision bulkheads restricting RO/RO traffic. RO/RO stowage below the main deck has not been provided to avoid the complication of watertight doors in bulkheads and/or elevators.

Primary access is through a single forward ship-contained bow ramp with wing doors. A bow ramp was selected in lieu of somewhat simpler side ramp to permit greater flexibility in cargo discharging, including at-sea transfer to other vessels.

When this design originated a speed of 20 knots was set as a goal mainly to determine if it was in the realm of practicability. Therefore, a low displacement-length ratio and low prismatic coefficient were necessary. To obtain these hull coefficients no provision was made for cargoes other than roll-on/roll-off (thereby keeping displacement low) and as a result there are extensive void spaces below the main deck. Ultimately the service speed with 18,000 HP and a 25 percent power margin was estimated to be approximately 19 knots. The actual required speed is, in my opinion, still an open issue.

The purpose of the dry-cargo barge is to transport containers, neo-bulk, break-bulk, or dry-bulk cargoes. Flexibility for handling these cargoes can be obtained in a variety of ways, not all of which are compatible with mobilization goals. As a general guideline in keeping with the objective of uncomplicated design, the cargo handling system does not include items such as mechanized hatch covers and large sophisticated cranes. The dimensions of the barge make it suitable for transitting the Saint Lawrence Seaway to and from the Great Lakes.

A service speed of 14 knots with 7,000 HP was estimated. At 18,000 HP the service speed would be around 18 knots.

For commercial purposes the hold configuration can be matched

with more sophisticated cargo handling equipment if desirable, such as the rotating crane shown on the mobilization ship earlier. (Figure of mobilization ship not included.)

The tug design and the linkage remain open issues. A special study will be necessary to fully develop a tug design which will be best suited for mobilization construction. Objectives for this tug design will include:

- Quick and inexpensive fabrication including machinery availability
- o Seaworthiness without a barge
- Ability to be utilized for conventional tugboat purposes, for example, towing, marshaling ships and barges, aiding in docking and undocking, and lastly
- o Postwar commercial utility

In conclusion, the tug/barge has the potential to perform an essential role in the event of a mobilization effort. This role will consist of providing quickly available shipping capacity in the early stages of a conflict and also supplementing the services of the mobilization ship with single vessel sailings throughout the duration of the war.

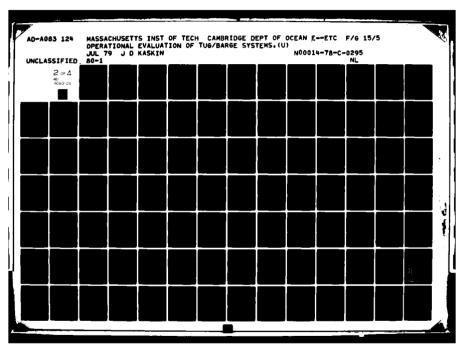
The government is now examining alternative barge and tug configurations.

The eventual goal, after the completion of the preliminary designs, will be the development of a set of contract plans and specifications hopefully followed by construction of a prototype.

During the workship discussions tomorrow and in your independent development of the tug/barge concept I would urge you to keep the mobilization mission in mind. We believe ocean-going tug/barges have a place in that mission and proper planning and development will assure that that place is filled. ANNEX B TO CHAPTER 1

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ABSTRACTS OF MILITARY SPONSORED RESEARCH ON OGTB'S



STAYPOWER: SYSTEM OF TRANSPORT AFLOAT YIELDING PIVOTAL POWER THROUGH WELL BALANCED AND ECONOMIC RESUPPLY

by

U. S. NAVY Commander, Service Group One

30 June 1977

The STAYPOWER study examines the feasibility of increasing fleet readiness for worldwide operations while sharply reducing attendant support costs. The concept entails introduction of integrated tug-barge units to perform interface, storage and transportation functions now performed by fixed advanced bases and UNRE" shuttle ships (AO, AE, T-AO). The integrated tug-barge units would utilize proven hardware such as those already constructed and in operation under INGRAM or CATUG patents.

The barges would have tanker hulls fitted to carry standard containers on deck, disposed so as to permit destuffing at sea. Large merchant tankers and self-sustaining container ships would offload directly to the barges in a sheltered anchorage. (In the absence of self-sustaining capability, a floating crane would be required to handle containers). The loaded barges would be moved as needed by an integrated tug to the task force operating area where it would consolidate with an AOE/AOR "station ship", using the station ship's rigs; isolated units, detached from the task force, would be replenished using a fuel rig and a cargo rig installed on the tug. Number of barges required is related to predicted pipeline ship capacity and arrival frequency; number of tugs needed is related to shuttle resupply requirements for supported task forces and detached units. Fork trucks would be used for destuffing containers aboard the barge during consolidation with the station ship. An AFS could be used to manage incoming and outgoing cargo at the advanced anchorage interface. of the tug would not be adequate for major Crew size consolidation; the station ship would provide personnel to man the barge evolution during consolidation.

The study concludes that the STAYPOWER integrated tug-barge concept is feasible and that a shuttle force comprised of such units is potentially an extremely attractive alternative to current and projected shuttle ship forces in terms of cost, manning, and primary mission accomplishment. The attractiveness of the integrated tug-barge shuttle unit justifies further development of that concept through detailed technical feasibility design and costing studies.

NAVAL APPLICATIONS OF OCEANGOING PUSH TUG/BARGE (MULTI-SECTION SHIP) SYSTEMS

bу

Seth Hawkins Naval Ship Research and Development Center

Report 4224--July 1973

This report documents the results of a study to analyze a surface ship concept of interest to the U.S. Navy; of interest because it saves money, uses fewer people, increases operational flexibility, and requires little development time or money. The concept is that of a multi-section ship and is derived from what are called, commercially, ocean-going push or integrated tug/barge systems. Systems of this type are analogous to tractor trailers in the trucking industry.

By utilizing a rigid type linkage it is possible **too** approximate conventional surface ship speed-power and other measures of performance for all but the highest speed naval surface ships such as destroyers, escorts, cruisers and aircraft carriers. Thus, the concept appears to be applicable to a wide variety of existing naval support missions.

Dollar savings from utilization of the multi-section ship concept would arise due to lower system first-costs, lower personnel costs because of fewer personnel, more efficient use of equipment (pusher unit power plants), and increased maintenance flexibility. Operational flexibility is enhanced since the motive-force part of a ship system can either remain with the functional unit or proceed elsewhere with another functional unit. Technically, it is concluded that little stands in the way of designing such a system today.

MULTI-SECTION SHIP FEASIBILITY AND CONCEPT DESIGN STUDY

bу

Carlos Tomassoni, Logan Sharrah, Thomas Sauer, Horton Lain and John Slager HYDRAUTICS, INCORPORATED

Technical Report 7224-6 March 1974

Certain technical problem areas are addressed involving the use of the multi-section ship (MSS) concept for naval ships. The MSS concept involves the construction of a ship in two distinct, separable parts, a pusher unit and a functional unit. A standard pusher unit is determined to be feasible for all missions not requiring high speed (above 20-22 knots). One such standard and examined detail pusher is synthesized in as to characteristics, performance, manning and costs. The use of the standard pusher with three selected functional units replacing conventional ships--a submarine tender, a replenishment oiler, and an attack cargo ship--is investigated. The differences are noted between the MSS versions and their existing counterparts with respect to size, speed, manning and cost.

Potential problem areas in the application of the concept identified, studied, and evaluated (i.e., manning, power are supply, fuel storage and handling, auxiliary propulsion requirements, coupling and uncoupling maneuvers). No unsolvable potential problem areas are found that would preclude the successful application of the concept to naval support missions. The capability of the pusher unit is also examined. Four such representative missions are intelligence gathering, anti-submarine warfare, surface warfare and mobile hospital. These missions are accomplished by using modular equipment mounted on the pusher. The performance of the missions is considered acceptable with no detrimental effects on the pusher.

DEFENSE UTILITY OF COMMERCIAL VESSELS AND CRAFT

bу

COMMITTEE ON DEFENSE UTILITY OF COMMERCIAL MARTIME ASSETS MARITIME TRANSPORTATION RESEARCH BOARD of the NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

1979

This report identifies military functions required in contingencies whose performance may require the use of vessels and craft that are not formally included in current contingency planning; and identifies the types, characteristics, and potential availability of vessels and craft that appear to have utility for these functions. Its scope excludes (a) vessels owned or operated by the Department of Defense and the Coast Guard; (b) oceangoing commercial cargo ships, which already are included in national contingency planning; and (c) foreign-owned vessels.

Vessel types included are: ocean-classed tugs, ocean-classed barges, crane and derrick barges, offshore service and supply vessels, drillships and semisubmersibles, five categories of fishing vessels, oceanographic research vessels, dredges, floating drydocks, motor yachts and small craft, passenger-vehicle ferries, marine salvage vessels, and advanced marine vehicles (air cushion vehicles, surface effect ships, and hydrofoils).

The report identifgies 13 general military functions that could be filled in whole or in part by the types of vessels studied and provides eight basic information sources to military planners and concerned industry personnel. Three summary tables permit quick identification of (1) the relative suitability of vessel types for each general military function, (2) the relative essentiality of vessel capabilities for each military function, and (3) the relative capabilities of each vessel type. The report also provides (4) a general description of each industry sector, covering basic vessel uses, manning, commercial arrangements, geographical distribution, and availability; (5) Vessel Characteristics forms that summarize, for each vessel class, typical characteristics that are important for evaluation by military planners; (6) general layout drawings or illustrations of most of the vessel classes; (7) a listing of principal vessel owners, operators, and industry associations, with addresses, from whom more specific information can be obtained; and (8) a selective bibliography of further vessel information sources.

CHAPTER 2

OGTB COMMERCIAL ECONOMICS

In Chapter 1 a brief history of OGTB systems was given with some mention of the economic incentives for their development. The impression was given that 3rd generation OGTBs were, except for high speed and large unit capacity trades, very satisfactory and ine.pensive ship replacements. However, ships of OGTB size and speed are still being built, so either there are a lot of misguided ship operators or OGTBs may really not be so attractive as they first might seem, for certain types of trades. In this chapter the pros and cons of OGTBs, push and pull-towed, will be discussed in comparison with ships. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the economics of the different modes of OGTB operation. And, this will be followed by a discussion of the possible future of OGTBs in U.S. maritime commerce.

2.1 Economic Comparison of OGTBs with Ships

To explain why ships and OGTBs of various linkages are being built today, the economic advantages and disadvantages of each system must first be compared. This is done by different cost/operational categories in the following subsections. For the reader's benefit a summary of these comparisons is provided in Table 2.1.

2.1.1 Manning Size (Refer to Annex A)

The crews onboard U.S. flag ships at the end of 1977 averaged between 30-40 men. Although recently crew sizes have decreased, few ships of over 1000 GRT are manned with less than 25 men. Only a few tank ships are manned with less, notably the 35,000 DWT Chevron gas turbine tankers which are manned with 17 men.

Mechanically-linked OGTBs have been manned with crews of approximately fourteen men. There are three reasons why these

Table 2.1 Economic Comparison of OGTBs and Ship by Cost/Operational Category

Cost/Operational Category	Ship	Mechanically- Linked OGTB	Loosely-Linked OGTB	Pull-Towed OGTB
Manning Size	Highest (20-30)	Intermediate (13-17)	Lowest (7-11)	Same as Loosely- Linked
Coast Guard Crew Licensing Requirements	Most Stringent	Same as Ship (unattended Engine Room)	Few Requirements	Same as Loosely- Linked
Union Control Over Manning	Strong	Weak	Almost None	90 9 0
Crew Costs	Highest	Intermediate	Lowest	** ¥
Coast Guard Inspection Requirements	Most Stringent	Same as Ship	Apply to Barge Only	n n
Freeboard	Ship Rules	25% reduction for Unmanned Barge	Same as Mechanically- Linked OGTB	19 12
Construction Costs	Highest	Somewhat Less (70-90%) than Ship	Somewhat more Than Pull-Towed OGTBS	Lowest
Fuel Cost at a Given Speed	Least	Intermediate (~5% more than Ship)	Intermediate (10-15% more than Ship)	Greatest (~30% more than ship)
Operational Safety	Most safe	About the same as Ship	Somewhat less safe than mechanically linked OGTB	Least Safe
Cargo Insurance Cost	Lowest	About the same as Ship	Frobably somewhat more than mechni- cally-linked OGTB	Highest
Hull & Machinery Insurance Cost	Highest	Somewhat less than Ship	Somewhat more than Pull-Towed OGTB	Lowest
Protection & Indem- nity Insurance Cost	Highest	Intermediate	Intermediate	Lowest
Maintenance & Repair (Not performed by crew)	Lowest	Intermediate	Intermediate	Righest
Flexibility	Least	Little less Flexi- ble than Lossely- Linked OGTB	Little less Flexi- ble than Pull-Towed OGTBs	Most

systems, although Coast Guard inspected and certificated, have substantially smaller crews than ships of equivalent deadweight.

The first reason is because their enginerooms are highly automated, typical of diesel tugs, so that they are classed for unattended service. This means that only a Chief Engineer, an Assistant Engineer, and another Qualified Member of the Engineroom Department are normally required for engineroom staff.

The second reason is that since the barges are classed as unmanned for the purpose of freeboard reduction, no crew is permitted on them for maintenance while underway. This allows the deck department to be reduced to the Master plus nine men who are used primarily for underway watch standing.

The third reason why these mechanically-linked OGTBs have such small crews is because when they first came on the scene the crews either non-union or were company union members. Consequently, they did not pressure the owner to increase the manning level to match the national ship union manning scales. Additionally, they were permanently assigned to the same vessel which increased their familiarity with the ship, resulting in improved productivity and the need for fewer personnel. Later when other systems came into operation, the pattern of small crews had been established so that the national unions accepted them even when manned with their personnel. Besides, the large unions probably have come to the realization that if they attempt to inflate the crew sizes, the operators will tend to invest in the loosely-linked designs which require even fewer personnel.

Loosely-linked 3rd generation OGTBs and pull-towed OGTBs have even smaller crews. Since their tugboats are uninspected and usually under 200 GRT, there are practically no international or Coast Guard regulations pertaining to their manning. Thus, they can operate with two watches, usually of three men each on voyages of less than six hundred miles and three watches on longer voyages. Consequently, crews range from seven to eleven men.

To see how the different OGTBs and ships are currently manned, the reader may refer to Table 2.2. There the manning levels by rate are given for typical tank OGTBs and ships.

2.1.2 Coast Guard Licensing Requirements (Refer to Annex A)

Ships must have officers licensed in accordance with Coast Guard regulations. The deck officer knowledge and experience requirements differ somewhat as a function of the gross tonnage of the ship. Likewise, the engineering officer requirements differ somewhat as a function of the type and size of plant.

Table 2.2

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Typical Manning Scales for Tank OGTBs and Ships

		u i			Loosely-Linked or
Typical Modern Tanker	dern	Chevron Gas Turbine Tanker	Mechanically-Linked Tug-Barges	Loosely-Linked or Pull-Towed Tug-Barges (Voyages less than 600 mi.)	Pull-Towed Tug-Barges (Voyages greate than 600 mi.)
Master Chief Mate 2nd Mate 3rd Mate	44 te te te	Master (3) Mates	Master (2-3) Mates	Uninspected Towboat Operator* 2nd Class Uninspected Towboat Operator*	Uninspected Towboat Operator* (2)2nd Class Uninspected Towboat Operator*
Boatswain (6) AB's	ain s	(6) AB's	(4) AB's or (6) AB's (2) Ordinaries	(3) Ab's	(3) AB's
Chief (2) 2)	Chief Engineer (2) 2nd/3rd Ass't Eng.	. Chief Engineer (3) Assistant Engineers	Chief Engineer (2) Ass't Engineers or Ass't Engineer and QMED		
Pumpman (3) QME	Pumpman (3) ÇMED			Engineer(No license Required) Oiler	Chief Engineer (License suggested but not fe- quired) Ass't Engineer (2) Oiler/Utility
Cook (2) 5	Cook (2) Stewards	(2) Cook/ Stewards	Cook/Steward	Cooking done by Crew	Cook/Ordinary Seaman
Radi (2)	Radio Officer (2) General Utility (D/E)	Radio Officer	General Utility		
	25	ਸ	14-15	7	я .

*Requires Coast Guard Certificate rather than License

Mechanically-linked OGTBs must also have licensed deck and engineering officers. The master and mate requirements are now based on the combined gross tonnage of the tug and barge, so that they are essentially the same as for equivalently sized ships. Engineering officer requirements are the same as those for diesel ship plants of the same horsepower.

pull-towed OGTBs and Loosely-linked 3rd generation 1st and 2nd generation push-towed systems) have rela-(including tively few requirements for the crews if the tug is less than 200 GRT. The deck watch officers must only be a certified Operator or Second-Class Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels. These Operators are required to fulfill substantially less stringent knowledge and experience requirements compared to the licensed officers onboard the mechanically-linked OGTBs. The Coast Guard does no. even consider these certificated men as officers. Engineers, if included, require no license at all. The only requirement on the crew overall is that 65% of the crew must be certificated as AB or above. It should be mentioned that many of the tug and barge operators, for the sake of safety, do hire licensed personnel and urge their crewmen to become licensed.

2.1.3 Overall Crewing Costs

Given the above information concerning manning levels and licensing requirements, it is apparent that ships, having the largest crew sizes and the most stringent licensing requirements, will cost the most to man. Mechanically-linked OGTBs cost substantially less (probably at least one-third less) to man because they have crews that number almost half that orboard the equivalently sized ships. And, loosely-linked OGTBs cost significantly less to man than their mechanically-linked counterparts since they can again reduce their crews almost by half. The crew practically no licensing does remain onboard has that requirements and so can be paid a lower average wage. One tug-barge operator has estimated that he saved at least \$600,000 in crewing expenses by having a loose rather than mechanical linkage in his OGTB system. Such saving in crewing expenses certainly provides strong incentive for many shipping operators to invest in OGTBs, especially of the loosely-linked variety.

2.1.4 Capital Construction Costs

In this subsection the construction costs of large OGTBs (greater than 10,000 DWT) and ships of equivalent capacity and speed are compared in relative terms. That is, the features that make one system inherently different and more or less costly than another is discussed. In addition, one shipyard's estimate of the construction cost of the different systems is provided in Annex B. From this Annex the reader can get some appreciation of the actual pricetag for the differences among the various systems.

Certainly, the cheapest systems to construct are the hawser or pull-towed OGTBs. The tugs are the least expensive of the powering units to build since they are of standard designs that can be built at a great number of small vessel construction yards and without Coast Guard inspection. As these types of yards specialize in small boat construction, they do not require expensive building docks or ways. This allows their overhead costs to be significantly less than those of multi-purpose shipyards. The barges, except for the very largest, car also be built in specialized barge construction yards. These vards also have rather low overhead costs since barges, having little outfit material and machinery, can be built with lesser skilled workers. Additionally, since pull-towed barges can make only slow speeds, they can be designed with very simple hull lines with very little This means that most of the barge can be reduced to curvature. simple flat plate and frame construction which allows for inexpensive automated fabrication techniques. And finally, the linkage between the tug and barge is the cheapest of all systems, being only a towing winch and wire. For all of these factors, pull-towed OGTBs cost the least to construct.

Almost as inexpensive to build are the 1st and 2nd generation push-towed OGTBs. The tugs for these systems are still of standard designs. They require little additional hardware, possibly some extra bits and fairleads, for wires linking the tug and barge during push-tow operation. The deeper notch systems may also have some additional equipment to reduce heave or pitch in moderate seas. As for the barges, their notch will make them a little more expensive to build. But, the notch and other linkage costs should not add more than a couple of percent to the total cost of the system.

The loosely-linked third generation OGTBs will be somewhat more expensive to build than their 1st and 2nd generation counterparts. The tug, although of basically standard design, may require some special care in the fabrication of its hull form SO that it mates closely with the barge notch. The tug may also require special modification to accommodate the machinery for the linkage devices. The barge cost should also be a little more expensive to build than its 1st and 2nd generation counterparts since its notch has to be built with closer tolerances to match the tug bow. Its notch also requires considerable reinforcement to accommodate the forces generated from operation at higher speeds or from severe sea conditions. Also, since these loosely-linked barges are normally operated at significantly greater speeds, their hull forms will require more shape and curvature to reduce hydrodynamic resistance, increasing their cost The linkage will also be substantially more even more. expensive. For example, in most systems the tugs will have some

cable/wire tensioning device to keep the tug snug in the notch. Additionally, some type of friction device that dampens the tug's motions in the notch is usually provided. The cost of these equipments can range from \$250,000 to \$500,000. This is in addition to a towing winch which is usually also installed on the tug for emergency pull-towing purposes or for increasing the operational flexibility of the tugboat. Thus, though loosely-linked push-towed OGTBs are built with uninspected tugs, they are quite a bit more sophisticated and approximately 5% more expensive to build than systems designed mainly for pull-towing.

The mechanically-linked OGTBs are sustantially more expensive to construct than the other OGTBs. This is primarily because they come under all of the extensive construction requirements inherent to all vessels inspected by the Coast Guard. These requirements are designed to ensure that inspected vessels are as safe as possible--but safety costs money. For example, having redundancy in and/or a larger size of steering gear is certainly a nice safety feature, but it makes an inspected tug more expensive compared to its uninspected counterpart. Also, since inspected tugs have much larger crews, they require more accommodation facilities, increasing their cost more. And, since these tugs are designed for 100% push operation, the visibility requirements of the tug's pilothouse is based on the tug-barge combination. This may force the tug to have a very tall pilothouse which may have to be compensated by a costly ballast system to ensure adequate tug stability and Additionally, the tugs are often of very non-standard comfort. and sophisticated designs. The CATUG and Breit/Ingram designs are certainly good examples of such sophistication. This results in their cost being considerably higher than a standard design tug with equivalent horsepower. For all of the above reasons, it is apparent that the tugs of mechanically-linked OGTBs should be considerably more expensive to construct than the the tugs of other OGTBs.

The barges of semi-rigid mechanically-linked OGTBs should not be much more costly than their loosely-linked counterparts. They require only some additional expense for the engineering and fabrication of the notch to ensure it is built to the close The barges of rigid required by the linkage. tolerances mechanically-linked OGTBs should be somewhat more expensive to build than those of their semi-rigid counterparts because they must be built with heavier scantlings in accordance with ABS rules. The linkage of any mechanically-linked system will certainly be a very expensive affair. The cost may range from \$1,000,000 for a semi-rigid linkage to more than twice that amount for the rigid linkages. In all cases, the systems require special hydraulics for establishing the linkage and some form of quick release mechanism to provide emergency separation. Certainly, all of the above considerations make the mechanically-linked OGTB systems considerably more expensive to build than the other OGTB systems.

Ships, however, are the most expensive vessels to build. Probably the major reason why they cost so much more to construct than mechanically-linked OGTBs is because they are built in general purpose shipyards. The lack of specialization of these yards forces them to construct ships with higher overhead rates than those available from the more specialized tug and barge This increased overhead seems to outweigh the linkage vards. constructing costs incurred by the vessel as а mechanically-linked tug and barge. Even in the case that a ship and a mechanically-linked OGTB with identical cargo handling equipment and carrying capacity are built in the same yard with the same overhead rates, there are some reasons why ships might cost more to construct even though they need no expensive linkage. First of all, since ship crews are almost double that onboard mechanically-linked OGTBs, ship accommodations will be considerably more expensive. Secondly, ships cannot take advantage of the 25% freeboard reduction allowed by the 1966 International Convention on Loadlines for unmanned barges. This increases the depth and therefore the cost of weight limited ships by a few percent. Also, ships cannot take advantage of the less heavy scartlings allowed by ABS rules for the semi-rigid mechanically-linked OGTBs. This increases the ships' hull weight and cost by a few more percent.

And finally, another important consideration that makes ship construction more expensive is the time value of money. That is, tugs and barges can be built concurrently and delivered several months earlier than a ship built in a single yard. (1) In this time of high inflation, such early delivery may result in several hundred thousand dollars reduction in capital interest expenses to both the shipyard and the vessel owner.

It should also be mentioned that shipowners usually specify considerably more sophisticated outfit equipment onboard ships than that commonly used on OGTBS. For example, tank barges usually have deep well pumps for their cargo handling equipment while ships normally have more expensive internal piping systems. Such "gold-plating" of ship outfit equipment increases a ship's cost substantially without adding any major real benefit--at least in the OGTB operator's point of view. In any case, all of these factors combine to make OGTB construction from 15% to 30% less expensive than ship construction for vessels of similar deadweight capacity and speed.

(1) This assumes that the ship is not built with modern modular construction practice as will usually be the case when the yard receives an order for only one or two vessels. This is because the engineering costs required in modularization is worthwhile only for large series construction.

2.1.5 Fuel Expenses

The most fuel efficient way to move a given amount of cargo at a given speed at sea is by ship. This is because the ship's lines and propeller are designed to provide the designed speed with the minimum engine power. Care is taken to ensure that the hull form produces the least amount of hydrodynamic resistance and provides good flow to the propeller.

Rigidly-linked OGTBs are designed to have hull forms similar to those of ships. That is, when linked together the tug and barge lines are designed to join into smooth ship-like lines. Although the match is not perfect, the hydrodynamic resistance of these OGTBs should be no more than 5% greater than for a ship of equivalent size driven at the same speed. Consequently, fuel expenses for these OGTBs should not be more than 5% greater than for ships.

Semi-rigid and loosely-linked OGTBs have tugs that resemble the more standard tug forms. Thus, when the tug and barge are mated, the lines of the two vessels do not match well, particularly if there are significant draft differences between the two units. This results in turbulence being generated at the linkage area and in disturbed flow to the tug's propeller. These effects might cause the resistance and power requirements of these OGTBs to be up to 15% greater than for ships of the same size and This 15% figure is based on the model test results speed. presented in Robinson (1976). Since these tests were conducted on rather crude forms, the increased resistance estimates may be high. In any case, linkage fairing flaps can be designed to reduce this added resistance by several percent. Unfortunately, practically no hydrodynamic model test results for currently operating semi-rigid and loosely-linked OGTBs have been published so the true amount of additional resistance caused by various linkage designs is not known.

1st and 2nd generation OGTBs probably have even more linkage drags than the deeper notched loosely-linked OGTBs when in the push-tow mode. Unfortunately, there is again no hydrodynamic resistance data available for these systems so the resistance and fuel consumption penalties incurred by them can only be guessed. Yet, at the slow speeds at which these OGTBs are usually operated, this fuel penalty is probably not significant.

Certainly, the least fuel efficient OGTB system is the pull-towed variety. Here, both tug and barge forms develop waves so that the total wave making resistance of the tug and barge exceeds that which would be developed if the tug pushed the barge. Additionally, barge skegs required for barge steerability and the hawser wire add frictional resistance drag. Thus, the pull-towed tug barge system will usually require at least 25% more power to pull than push the same barge form at the same speed. Although considerable work has been done on reducing the resistance of barge skegs, there has been little work on the resistance developed by the total pull-towed tug-barge system. Only crude resistance algorithms are available to provide the tug-barge operator an estimate of what horsepower is needed for moving a given barge tow at a given speed.

Given the above information about push and pull-towing fuel efficiency, it is apparent that the fuel costs of 1st and 2nd generation OGTBs depend on the percentage of time the tug is pushing or pulling, fuel efficiency improving in proportion to the amount of pushing. And, it should be remembered that due to the control and handling difficulties involved, only barges of less than 20,000 DWT are usually towed for ocean voyages and at speeds lower than 10 knots. Higher speeds are impractical because of the severe frictional and drag resistances developed by the pull-towed system.

2.1.6 Operational Safety

There is no doubt that pull-towed OGTBs are inherently less safe than any other ocean transport system. The tug only has tenuous control over the barge. If the tow wire is severed, the barge may not be recovered before it is grounded or wrecked, particularly in bad weather. If the tug loses power, it may be run over by the barge. And, if the tug has insufficient reserve power, it may be dragged into trouble by the barge when seas or winds are severe. Certainly, the tug captain has much less maneuvering control over his barge when pull-towing rather than push-towing.

In principle, mechanically-linked push-tow operation should be as safe as ship operation. However, there are some differences between the two operating methods. Ships may be considered safer in some respects because they are usually manned with larger crews which can provide more emergency and firefighting manpower. Also, ships usually are provided with more extensive firefighting and ballasting/deballasting equipment than that onboard unmanned barges. On the other hand, tug-barge systems may be considered safer because their separability allows either unit to be used as the lifeboat of the other unit in the case it must be abandoned. As the damage or causes of damage on tankships usually occur in the cargo section of the ship, separability of the manned machinery section, the tug, may be assumed to provide an additional safety margin.

The other push-towed OGTB systems may be considered a little less safe than the mechanically-linked ones. This is because the crew is smaller, providing less firefighting or other emergency manpower. Also, since the tugs are uninspected they are not subject to many of the more stringent safety equipment standards pertaining to inspected vessels. Additionally, when 1st and 2nd generation systems are in the pull-tow mode, they are subject to the same unsafe conditions as other pull-towed OGTBs.

2.1.7 Maintenance and Repair Costs

The maintenance and repair costs of any ocean going vessel will depend on the maintenance policy of the operator. The better maintained the vessel, the less the casualty repair costs. Maintenance can either be provided by the onboard crew or by shoreside personnel.

It has long been the philosophy of ship operators to have the personnel onboard do most of the ship's preventative and corrective maintenance. This makes quite a bit of sense if the ship is deployed on long voyages to ports far from the operator's home base. Shipside personnel can then take care of almost any casualty so that expensive repair delays away from home port can be reduced to the minimum.

Tug and barge operators, on the other hand, have opted to reduce their vessel crews to the minimum needed for operations. They have found it economical to leave most maintenance to less costly shoreside engineering personnel. This is a reasonable policy when the OGTB system makes short voyages to ports where shoreside personnel are readily available. If the maintenance cannot be accomplished without delaying the sailing, shoreside personnel are then sometimes embarked onboard the tug to accomplish tug maintenance. It should be remembered that since the barge is normally classed as an unmanned vessel, no routine maintenance and repair can be done on it while underway at its unmanned freeboard. This may not be a problem since practically no barge equipment is used while underway.

Given the above arguments, it would be expected that maintenance and repair costs of ships and OGTBs would be the least possible for their traditional trades. The question is raised what happens to these costs if OGTBs are sent on long voyages without additional maintenance crew or if ships are operated in short coastal trades. It would seem plausible that OGTBs might be insufficiently maintained by their small crews if they continually remain on long distance trades. This would result in expensive casualties and/or frequent scheduled maintenance delays. Whether this is the fact may only be determined after systems like the Occidental CATUGs have operated for some time on transoceanic trades. On the other hand, coastal ships might be quite overmanned if adequate maintenance can be provided by less costly shoreside personnel as it is done for OGTBs. Whether this is the case may be determined from the maintenance and repair history of the large coastal OGTBs. But, since most coastal systems are only a few months old, it will be some time before it can be determined whether these OGTBs are adequately maintained to prevent expensive casualties or deterioration in the long term.

2.1.8 Insurance Costs

Marine insurance is made up of several different premiums: cargo, protection and indemnity (P&I), and hull and machinery (H&M). Insurance rates are determined by the underwriters, primarily from the operators previous operating record. (2) However, the different OGTB systems and ships have some inherent differences that affect insurance cost. These are discussed below.

First consider cargo insurance where premiums are ultimately based on the safety record of the vessel as well as the value of the cargo. Since pull-towed OGTBs are inherently less safe than other OGTB modes, cargo insurance premiums for these systems are usually significantly higher, sometimes twice that for ships. The push-towed OGTBs have, based on their good safety records, cargo insurance premiums about the same as for ships.

Protection and Indemnity insurance is marine liability insurance. It is predominately a function of the crew size since the larger the crew, the greater the risk of a crewman being injured. Since ships have the largest crews, they would have the largest P&I premiums. Conversely, the uninspected tugs of loosely-linked or pull-towed OGTBs have the smallest crews and thus the lowest P&I premiums. The premiums for mechanically-linked OGTBs would fall between those of ships and uninspected tugs since their crews are of intermediate size.

Hull and machinery insurance protects the operator against casualty or damage to his vessel's hull and machinery. Its premium is a function of the vessel's market value which is usually a function of the its capital cost. Since ships have higher capital costs and market values than OGTBs, they usually experience the highest premiums. It should be mentioned that H&M insurance is also a function of the repair and maintenance policy of the vessel. The better maintained vessels experience fewer casualties resulting in lower H&M claims and premiums. Thus, OGTBs with insufficient crews to maintain them could have such severe repair problems that they will have larger H&M premiums than other more costly and better maintained vessels.

It should also be added that pull-towed systems are also subject to a tower's legal liability insurance. This insurance protects the operator from any damage caused by the barge if the

(2) Since cargo insurance is paid by the shipper to protect himself against loss or damage of his cargo, its premium is based on the shipper's rather than the operator's record. However, if the shipper predominately uses a particular OGTB system type, his cargo insurance premium will reflect the operating record of the operator.

tugboat loses control of it during a voyage. Its premium depends on the safety record of the operator and the type of cargo.

2.1.9 Flexibility

Up to this point we have considered an OGTB as a system of one tug and one barge operating in a shiplike mode, that is, with the tug and barge remaining linked together at all times. However, OGTBs do have the advantage of being able to separate the propulsion component--tug from the cargo component--barge. This flexibility may be advantageous for several reasons. The primary advantage is that it allows tug and barge systems to operate in the same manner as truck tractors and trailers where the propulsion component drops and swaps the cargo components. The trades for which this type of operation is advantageous will be discussed in detail in Section 2.2.

There are several other reasons why tug and barge separability provides useful system flexibility and cost savings. For example, if either a tug or a barge of a system requires repair, the other operating component can be utilized if there are other interchangeable operational components in the overall system available to be mated with it. Also, only the component that requires repair will need to be drydocked for hull repairs. This will result in significant savings if the small-sized tug needs such repairs more often than the large-sized barge.

Separability also provides flexibility in the long term investment policy of the operator. It allows him to trade, scrap or convert a barge if it becomes obsolete or unprofitable and replace it with one that can operate profitably with the same tug unit. Or, the tug component of many of the OGTB designs can be sold or operated as an independent ocean-going tug for pull-towing, salvage, or other purposes. Certainly, such flexibility allows the OGTB operator many more options than that are available to the ship operator. It even allows separate ownership of the tugs and barges.

It should be remembered that as the linkage design becomes more sophisticated, less flexibility is allowed by the system. For example, the most flexibility is provided by pull-towed OGTBS. Any tug of sufficient horsepower can pull any barge. Additionally, since the tugboat is in front, it will not experience any of the pilothouse visibility problems incurred by the push-tow operators when pushing barges with tall deck cargoes. 2nd generation and loosely-linked push-towed OGTBs are not so flexible. Although the tugs and barges are capable of pull-tow operation, the barges can usually only be pushed by tugs and barges designed for their notches. The tugs and barges of mechanically-linked OGTBs, except for the ARTUBAR system, are not designed for pull-towing. The tugs are restricted to pushing barges designed for their linkage system or to salvage operations. But, even these systems have the advantage over ships of having either the tug or barge as the lifeboat for the other vessel in case of emergency.

2.1.10 Overall Economic Comparison of OGTBs and Ships

After reviewing the comparison of the various OGTB systems and ships by cost/operational categories shown in Table 2.1, some generalizations may be made concerning the trades for which a particular system might be most appropriate. Such generalizations are provided by vessel types in the paragraphs below.

Pull-Towed OGTBs: These types of OGTBs are the least expensive to construct and man but are also the least fuel efficient at sea. Thus, they are most appropriate for trades with short distance voyages where sea time is not a large proportion of the total voyage time or where speed is totally unimportant as in the transport of constructed facilities. In these trades the extra fuel costs are outweighed by capital and crewing savings. These systems are also the most flexible to operate since arv ocean-going tug of sufficient horsepower can be matched with any barge. Thus, operators with large multipurpose tug and barge fleets tend to favor this towing mode. It allows them to use the same tug for towing cargo barges, for moving oversize construction equipment without visibility problems, and for salvage. If necessary, they can charter in or out their tugs and barges from or to other operators without worrying about the linkage match.

1st Generation Push-Towed OGTBs: These are basically pull-towed OGTBs with the additional capability of push-towing with any standard tug in calm waters. This ability to push in congested waters rather than taking the barge on a short wire makes these OGTBs much safer. If the hardware and/or shallow notch of these systems does not interfere with the barge's operational flexibility, it would seem reasonable that the greater safety provided by these systems over pull-towed systems would be well worth the investment. Thus, I would expect that most OGTBs predominately operating in the hawser tow mode to be built as 1st Generation OGTBs.

2nd Generation Push-Towed OGTBS: These systems are transitionally between 1st generation and 3rd generation loosely-linked OGTBS. That is, they allow more than 50% of the sea voyage to be in push-tow mode but in severe seas, say greater than eight to twelve feet, the tug and barge must resort to pull-tow operation. Although these systems are more fuel efficient than 1st generation OGTBs since they can push-tow for a larger percentage of the voyage, such fuel savings would not warrant the extra costs for a deeper barge notch and a sophisticated linkage in short distance trades. They also would not be useful in moderate distance trades when heavy seas might often force the tug out of the notch. This maneuver can be rather dangerous. So for these and longer distance trades, it would probably be worth the moderate additional cost for installation of the new 3rd generation loosely-linked OGTB linkages, assuming that they allow push-towing in all sea-states expected during a voyage. As confirmation of this hypothesis, one 2rd generation OGTB operator has recently contracted for designs to convert his system into a 3rd generation loosely-linked system. It should also be realized that 2rd generation OGTB linkages reduce the operational flexibility of the barge since only tugs designed for the notch can be used for push-towing.

3rd Generation Loosely-Linked Push-Towed OGTBs: These OGTBs allow considerable fuel savings over the previous designs since 100% push-tow operation is achieved. However, continuous push-towing is obtained at the cost of a rather sophisticated and expensive linkage system. Whether this extra cost is warranted depends on how much can be realized in fuel savings. Since fuel savings would be greater the longer the system is at sea, these OGTBs are most suitable for long distance trades with rather short port times. As these systems do require tugs and barges specially designed to match each other and since there are no designs that predominate at this time, the operator has little opportunity to take advantage of the separability of his units except in drop-and-swap mode operation. However, the tugs are basically of standard designs and so could be used for pull-towing if necessary. It should be mentioned that these designs (Bludsworth, Breit/Garcia, Fletcher) have not operated for very long so it has not been proven that they could be operated in the push-mode in very severe seas as would be experienced in transoceanic crossings. This is not of much importance to their owners since they are expected to be only used in coast-However, it may reduce their ability to be speedily al trades. mobilized for foreign area operation.

3rd Generation Mechanically-Linked Push-Towed OGTBs: These OGTBs have little to offer over their loosely-linked counterparts. They are a little more fuel efficient since the tug and barge hull lines are designed for smoothness. They are also certain to be capable of push-towing in all ocean sea states, which has yet to be proved for the loosely-linked designs. And, they probably are somewhat safer since they have larger crews and the tugs are under Coast Guard inspection. However, these improvements built are achieved with a large increase in the system's capital and manning costs which result from the tug being built and manned under Coast Guard supervision. It would seem that these marginal improvements would only be warranted in very long trans-ocean or trans-coastal trades. For these trades the increased fuel efficiency and safety would be most important. The larger crews also be useful for handling the preventative and casualty would maintenance that would normally be done by shoreside personnel for the other OGTB systems.

Ships: Ships are certainly the most fuel efficient of all these systems. Their hull lines are designed for the greatest hydrodynamic efficiency. This would make them most suited for the same types of trades for which the mechanically-linked OGTBs are most economic. But, whether these fuel savings are worth the additional capital and manning costs incurred by ships over those incurred by mechanically-linked OGTBs of equivalent size and speed is subject to careful economic analysis. (3) Consideration must be given to the usefulness with respect to safety and for maintenance of the larger crews onboard ships. On the other hand, consideration must be given to the additional flexibility of operation available with OGTBs--particularly the ability to operate in a drop-and-swap mode. The economic ramifications of such flexibility is explained in the next section.

As of today, more and more mechanically-linked OGTBs are being constructed instead of ships for long distance trades. This indicates that at this time they are more economical to own and operate than ships of small unit capacity (<100,000 DWT) and moderate speed (<20 KTs). For the large unit capacity and faster trades, however, ships still have no competition.

(3) One mechanically-linked OGTB operator estimates that the operating expenses for a 35,000 DWT/11,000 HP system would be 40% less than the equivalent conventional ship operating at the same speed.

2.2 Economic Comparison of OGTB Operation in the

Drop-and-Swap Versus Integral Mode

In the previous section an economic comparison of the different .OGTB systems and ships was made, primarily based on tug-barge operation with the tug remaining with the barge at all This is because almost all OGTBs except for a few of the times. pull-towed and 1st generation OGTBs have been operated in this However, this method of operation does not take advantage way. of the one inherent feature that all OGTBs have that is not available to ships. That is their ability to separate the propulsion unit from the cargo carrying unit. This flexibility can be used to increase system efficiency through increased utilization of expensive propulsion units and through the storage capability of the detached cargo units. It may be that many of the current 3rd generation loosely and mechanically-linked OGTB users, being previously experienced in only ship operations, have just overlooked the potential benefits of the separability of their assets, or it may be that it is not economically profitable to utilize this capability in the trades in which they operate. However, since foreign operators such as Mitsui of Japan have operated fleets of tugs and barges in drop-and-swap operation for several years, it is certain that there are some trades for which this mode of operation is most economical.

It is the purpose of the economic model developed in Appendix D to investigate under just what conditions the separability feature of OGTBs should be utilized. When the model's output indicates that there are few existing or potential trades where this feature may be used, then it would be expected that the economics for OGTB integral mode operations discussed in the last section would solely apply. However, when the model's output indicates that there are many trades which could take economic advantage of this feature, then it might be expected that OGTBs, especially of the mechanically-linked design, would displace ships in these trades.

2.2.1 Detailed Description of the Different Modes of Operation

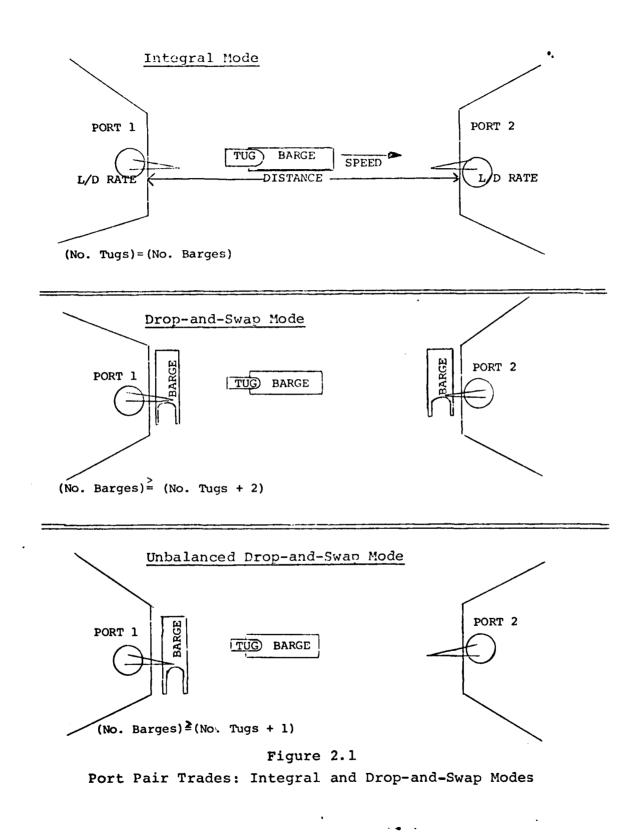
As it is the separability feature of OGTBs that make them more versatile than ships, more mention should be made on how this feature can be profitably used. The major benefit is the same as that enjoyed by tractor trailers over single unit trucks. That is, the propulsion unit (tractor or tug) can be detached from the cargo unit (trailer or barge) while the cargo unit is used for loading, discharging, or storage. It then can be used for transporting another cargo unit that is available for movement. This method of operation, the drop-and-swap mode, obviously increases the utilization of the costly propulsion unit as compared to the integral mode of operation in which the pro-

pulsion unit always remains with the cargo unit. However, as can be seen in the simple port pair system shown in Figure 2.1, the drop-and-swap mode will require at least two more barges than tugs in a balanced trade or at least one more barge than tugs in an unbalanced trade (where the tug remains with the barge in one port). Certainly, the drop-and-swap mode would be of most berefit in those trades in which loading/discharging times make up a significant part of the voyage time. Here, then, is the most potential in increasing tug utilization, especially in multi-tug fleets which can often be scheduled so that a tug arrives with a barge for discharge just at the time when a barge in port has completed its cargo operations and is available for transport. In this case tug utilization can approach 100%. Also, in trades with long port times, the barges remaining in port in the drop-and-swap mode of operation are used essentially as floating warehouses, replacing shoreside assets. Since port time is a function of the barge cargo capacity and both terminals' loading and dis harging rates, and since sea time is a function of port separation distance and OGTB speed, these four parameters are in determining whether the drop-and-swap mode should be critical used over the integral mode. Because the cost relationships that are functions of these parameters (e.g., fuel cost is a function of the tug-barge size and form, OGTB speed, and port separation distance) are rather complicated, it is not intuitively obvious when one mode is superior to another. A systematic analysis, such as that performed by a computer, is required to determine where the tradeoff point is for the modes. A computer model designed to do this analysis is briefly described in the following subsection.

2.2.2 Brief Description of the Drop-and-Swap Computer Model

The economic tradeoff analysis between drop-and-swap and integral mode OGTB operation is accomplished by the computer model described in detail in Appendix D. This model analyzes the simple port pair trade shown in Figure 2.1. This case was chosen since it is the simplest and is appropriate for many of the bulk trades (repetitive voyages from the same loading port to the same discharging port). This port pair trade can be defined essentially by three sets of parameters: (1) port separation distance, (2) terminal loading and discharging rates, and (3) annual cargo flows between ports.

Given the specifics of the trade, the model then determines the barge size (and form) and OGTB speed that will yield the minimum required freight rate (rfr) for both the integral and drop-and-swap modes (balanced and unbalanced). The rfr is defined as the freight rate that should be charged for a unit of cargo that will recover all capital and operating costs plus a desired level of profit on a present-valued discounted cash flow basis (taxes and depreciation ignored). Although specific details on how these costs are obtained is given in Appendix D



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and Kaskin (1979), some mention about the general assumptions used in obtaining them is given here so that the reader can appreciate the results presented in the next section without reading the Appendix. Specifically, with respect to capital and operating costs the following was assumed:

1. Barge capital costs were assumed to be a direct function of barge hull weight with the addition of outfit cost determined via a regression equation found in George G. Sharp (1975). The hull weight as a function of barge size and form was obtained via regression equations developed from output of the barge design program presented in Kaskin (1979). This program is applicable to single-skin tank barges joined by a 3rd generation semi-rigid linkage to the tug. These types of barges were used since they are the simplest to model and since they are most prevalent of the large OGTBs in use. The semi-rigid rather than rigid linkage was used since it results in less stringent scantling requirements under ABS rules, and in less barge cost. Mechanical rather than loose linkages were used since the tugs with these linkages might be more appropriate for military operations that could demand larger crews and more redundant and safe machinery. However, the model can easily be modified to take in account loosely-linked designs if desired. This rather complicated approach was taken since no reliable barge cost estimate could be obtained from the little available data on OGTBs. In addition, the variation in hull weight as a function of barge form parameters provided by the subprogram is needed for weighing the capital versus operating cost aspects of a barge form.

2. Tug capital costs was determined via a regression equation found in George G. Sharp (1975) and adjusted to conform with prices reported in recent trade literature and government publications. Since many tugs have been built recently, this approach seemed reasonable. Some adjustment is made for the cost of the linkage, which is not extraordinary for semi-rigid linkages.

3. Storage capital costs were calculated for oil storage tanks. The costs were based on recent cost figures provided by a major oil company.

4. Tug fuel costs were determined as a function of tug-barge resistance and voyage duration. Tug-barge resistance, a function of barge form and speed, was determined with the use of full-bodied, bulbous bowless, single-screw tank barge resistance data. This was the only series resistance data that could be found to approximate OGTB hull forms. An additional 10% resistance was added to account for linkage interferences to conform with the estimates found in Robinson (1976).

5. Other operating costs were calculated by using the equations found in George G. Sharp (1975) and then inflating them to yield a current estimate--for 1 January 1979.

6. Port facility costs were not considered.

Although the economic model has been specifically developed for the tank barge case, it should still be indicative of costs for other bulk trades. Barge outfit cost would probably be the only major change for other trades. Thus, any results obtained from the tank barge model, even for trades with very long port times which are not usual for oil barge trades, should not be in great error.

2.2.3 Base Case Results of Computer Model

At this point we consider what can be learned from the To do this, the model was run for five one-way trades model. with ar ual cargo flows of 100,000; 600,000; 1,000,000; 6,000,000; and 10,000,000 long tons. The user specified inputs and the values of the semi-fixed parameters used in these runs 2.3 and Figure 2.2, respectively. are shown in Table Essentially, in these base case runs the model finds the optimum barge size, speed, and form within the system parameter ranges specified in Table 2.4 for port pair trades with port separation distances of 500, 2000, 3500 and 5000 nautical miles (NM) and for a reasonable range of loading/discharging rates. In these base trades, it is assumed there are no draft case or beam Barge length, however, is limited to 750 feet restrictions. since the ABS rules used in the barge design model are applicable only to barges less than this length. Additionally, barge size is limited to 100,000 DWT since this is the maximum size that designers have even considered for barge construction. (4) Finally, it is assumed that there are no costs associated with terminal loading/discharging or storage facilities. The value of the cargo is assumed to be \$200 per long ton and the other cost parameters are as discussed in Appendix D.

Graphical output from these runs of the required freight rate as a function of loading/discharging (L-D) rate for four port separation distances (500, 2000, 3500 and 5000 nautical miles) is shown in Figures 2.3-2.7. The printed outputs from these runs are voluminous and so cannot be included here. However, some of the results, including the range of optimum barge deadweights and tug speeds, have been extracted and presented in Table 2.5. In addition, some observations that can be made concerning all the runs are presented in the next subsection. This is followed by a discussion of points of inter-

(4) The largest barge currently in operation is the Breit/Ingram tug-barge system Presque Isle of 53,000 DWT operating on the Great Lakes. The largest ocean-going barge will be the 55,000 DWT tank barge being built for Belcher Oil.

Table 2.3

Summary of Inputs Used in Base Case Runs

aflowavel	minrate	mindist	mindwt	mincb	dlnim	minbt	minspeed	Changes to Semifixed
aflowave2	maxrate delrate	maxdist deldist	maxdwt deldwt	maxcb delcb	max1b del1b	maxbt delbt	maxspeed delspeed	Parameters
100,000	1,000	500	5,000	0.77	6.0	2.0	6.0	
. c	10,000	5,000	50,000	0.84	و.و	3.0	12.0	NONE
>	1,500	1,500	2,500	0.01	0.2	0.5	1.0	
600,000	2,000	500	5,000	0.77	6.0	2.0	6.0	
¢	12,000	5,000	70,000	0.84	6.6	3.0	13.0	allow
-	2,000	1,500	2,500	0.01	0.2	0.5	1.0	
1,000,000	2,000	500	5,000	0.77	6.0	2.0	6.0	
c	14,000	5,000	100,000	0.84	6.6	3.0	13.0	None
5	2,000	1,500	5,000	0.01	0.2	0.5	1.0	
6,000,000	6,000	500	5,000	0.77	6.0	2.0	7.0	
c	54,000	5,000	100,000	0.84	6.6	3.0	14.0	None
5	8,000	1,500	5,000	10.0	0.2	0.5	1.0	
10,000,000	10,000	500	30,000	0.77	6.0	2.0	8.0	
c	80,000	5,000	100,000	0.84	6.6	3.0	16.0	None
2	10,000		5,000	0.01	0.2	0.5	1.0	

This is the semi-fixed parametric data file.

Service and

•	
tugopdays	350.00
bargeopdays	350.00
tlink (hrs)	4.00
tunlink (hrs)	4.00
servmargin	0.20
fuelmargin	0.20
sfc (lb/HP-hr)	0.36
cfuel (\$/LT)	140.00
clube (\$/gal)	1.75
nrcrew	16.00
cwag ² 3 (\$/yr)	65000.00
csubs (\$/yr)	3500.00
csteelt (\$1000/LT)	2.94
coutfitt (\$1000/LT)	15.08
	15.08
csteelb (\$1000/LT)	
coutfitb (\$1000/LT)	12.82
ltug (ft)	140.00
wmisc (LT)	460.00
aother (\$/yr)	30000.00
admin (\$/yr)	150000.00
cfixport1 (\$/call)	0.00
cfixport? (\$/call)	0.00
evarport1 (\$/DWT)	0.00
cvarport2 (\$/DWT)	0.00
cfixterm (\$/DWT-day)	0.00
cvarterm (\$/DWT)	0.00
cfixstor (\$/DWT)	0.00
cvarstor (\$/DWT)	0.00
delay1 (hrs)	4.00
delay? (hrs)	4.00
maxl (ft)	999.00
maxb (ft)	999.00
maxt1 (ft)	99.00
maxt2 (ft)	99.00
disrate	0.10
econlife (yrs)	50.00
inflafetr	0.00
vcargo (\$/DWT)	200.00
ACCURATE CONTRACT	~ 00.00

Base Case Values For Semi-Fixed Parametric Data

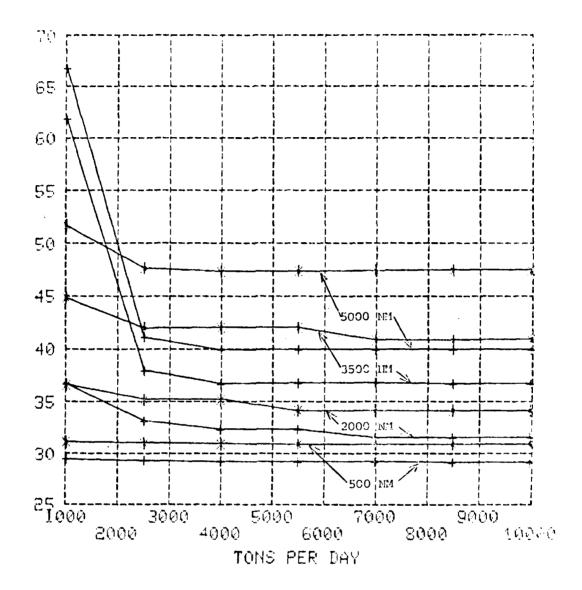
Figure 2.2

Table 2.4

Ranges	for	System	Parameters
--------	-----	--------	------------

Parameter	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Restrictions/ Comments	Reason for Bound
Barge DWT	9,000 6,000	80,000 100,000	Reduced confidence range	Sharp (1975) Valid ranges for operating cost formulae
Barge Length	100'	750'		ABS (1973) Valid ranges for barge hull weight formula
Froude Number	0	0.22	0.298 Tug Speed Fn/Two-Barge Length	Tsuchida (1969) Valid range for re- sidual resistance coefficients
Barge C _B *	0.775	0.835		17 41 47
	0.75	0.85	Reduced confidence range	
Tug-Barge L/B	6.2	7.6		
-	6.0	8.0	Reduced confidence range	
Barge B/T	2.46	2.76		
	2.00	3.25	Reduced confidence range	n n n
Barge L/D	0	16.0		ABS (1973) valid range for barge hull weight formula
Tug IHP	5000 3000	35,000 35,000	Reduced confidence range	Sharp (1975) Valid range for operating cost formulae and tug capital cost formula

*Either C or L/B can be in the reduced confidence range, but not both.



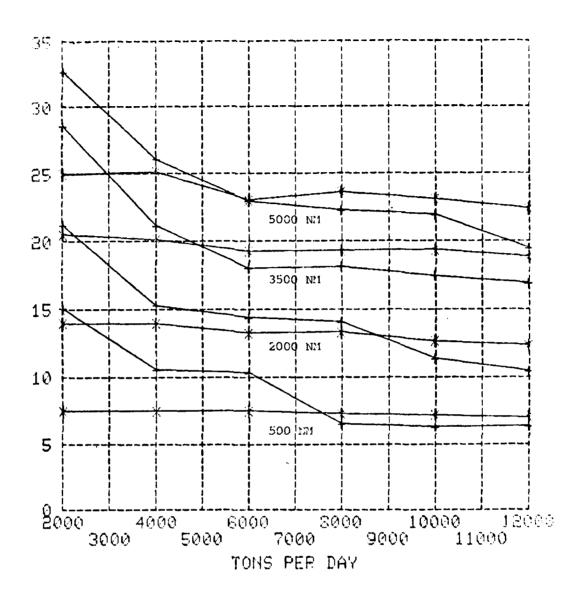
KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE + -- INTEGRAL MODE

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Figure 2.3

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Base Case Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 100,000 LT

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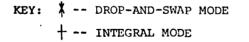
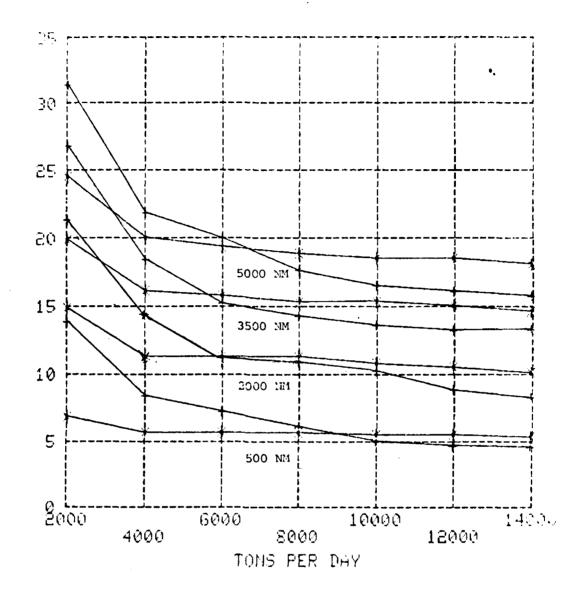


Figure 2.4

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Base Case Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 600,000 LT

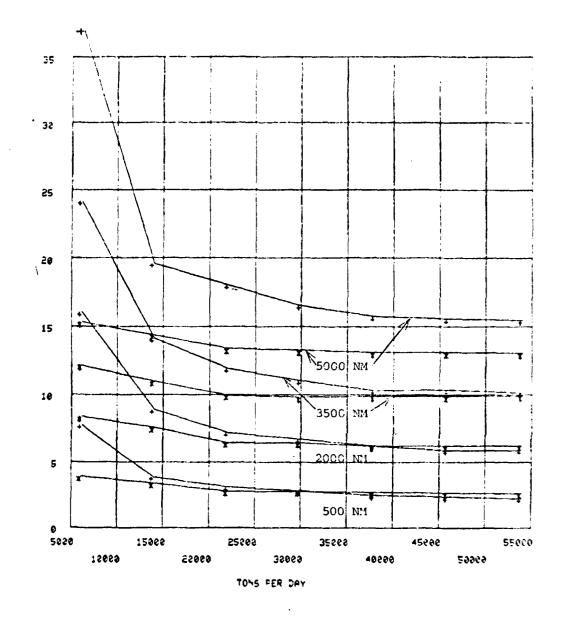


KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE + -- INTEGRAL MODE

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Figure 2.5

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Base Case Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 1,000,000 LT



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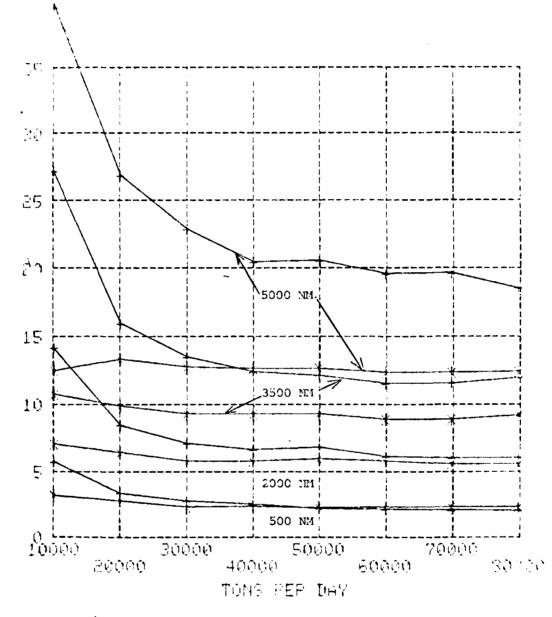
KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE + -- INTEGRAL MODE

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Figure 2.6

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Base Case Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 6,000,000 LT



KEY: ‡ -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE **+** -- INTEGRAL MODE

(1))))) | | | |

Figure 2.7

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Base Case Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 10,000,000 LT

Table 2.5

1

Tabular Output Summary for Base Case Runs

tistance	OUTPUT PARAMETER		aflowavel			
(dautical miles)		160,000	600, 000	1,000,000	6,000,000	13,010,000
025	DES Mode Speed Range (Kts)	6	6-1	7-10	8-10	¢l-a
	ž	•	6-9	6-12		6 7-8
	Dec wade from Bares (1000 TH)		iu-15	15-25		22-30
	Interral Node CWC Range (1000 LT)	v	7.5-20	15-40	40-70	E 60-85
	C4S Integral Mode L-D Rate Tradeoff	none: Interral mode	Betveen 6000	Between 8000	Botween 30,000	Between 40,000
	Point (LT/day)	always favorable	6 B(105	6 1000	e 38000	50° ° 5 3
	APorttime is of Total Voyage Time					·
	at L-D Rute Tradeoff Point	:	44-31	12-59	45~39	37-38
	1		8-12	B-10	8-9	01-6
2360	DES Mode Speed Range (Kts)	8-/		7-12	11-6	10-12
	Integral Mude Speed Range (Kts)	6-9	3 67 3 66		75-95	R5-130
	Das thate DWT Pante (1000 LT)	- 7.5			16-100	85-200
	Irtegral Mode EWI Range (1000 LT)	C.21 - C.7	27.5-42.5			
	UNS INTEGTAL MODE L-D RALE FRAGENT	near 1000		Near burd		NUME: Las
	Point (LT/day)		5 10,000			Node alvays
	Repritime is of Total Voyage Time				;	favorable
	at "P Mate Tradeoff Point	57	35-22	46		1
				R-11	01-6	0
3500	Dis Mode Speed Range (Kts)	10-13	8-9		10-12	
	[Intrural Mudr Gymen Pange (Kta)	. 6-3	H-12	001.01		
	DaS Nove DWT Range (1000 LT)	10 - 12.5	32.5-37.5			001-00
	Interral Mode CWT Range (1000 LT)	10 - 12.5	27.5-37.5	0.01-00	30T- 6	
	D65 Integral Mode L-D Rate Tradeoff	Between 1000 6	Artween 4000	Between 4000	None: D&S	None: 1115
	boint (17/daw)	2500	£ 6000	6 6000	Mode always	Mode always
	Porting is of Total Vourse Time				favorable	favorable
	at Lan Bate Trideoff Doint	29	43-29	48	:	;
5000	Dec Wedn Sound Brunn (Vtel	01-8	8-10	8-10	9-10	21-6
		2	[[-0	8-10	10-13	13-15
	Integral hode speed Kange (Mts)				0-1-06	60-100
	DAS Mode DWT Mange (1000 LT)	12.5-17.5	3/.50		001-00	60-100
	Integral Mode DWT Range (1000)	12.5-22.5	37.5-52.5	10-1000		
	Distinter Mode L-D Rate Tradeoff	Between 1000 6	Near 6000	Between 6000	CULL SUCH	
	Foint (LT/day)	2500		E 8000	Mode always	Mode alvays
	Norttime is of Total Vovage Time				favorable	Iavorable
	at [_D Date Tradeoff Doint	29	29	36-32	;	1
	<pre>/ at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point</pre>	29	53	30-32	-	

est that pertair to an individual run. And, this is followed by some conclusions that can be drawn from the whole series of base runs.

General Observations Pertaining to All Base Case Runs

The following general observations can be made after examining the printed output of the base case runs:

1. The optimum barge form for all the port pair trades has the smallest allowable length-breadth (6.0) and breadth-draft (2.0) ratios. These ratios result in the shortest barge with the least amount of hull steel for a given deadweight capacity. Apparently, at the slow speeds that these tug-barge systems operate, the capital cost savings achieved by constructing short, blunt barges outweigh any cost penalties associated with the higher residual resistance of these forms.

2. The optimum block coefficient for all the port pair trades varies from 0.78 to 0.81. The 0.78 value is usually associated with tug-barge units advancing at eleven knots or faster while the 0.81 value is usually found with systems advancing at nine knots or slower. However, for small tug-barge units, less than 15,000 DWT, a block coefficient of as low as 0.78 may be found for speeds as low as nine knots.

3. Port pair trades with longer port separation distances and faster L-D rates usually have optimum systems with larger barges.

4. Port pair trades with longer port separation distances and slower L-D rates usually have optimum systems with a greater number of tug and barge units.

Observations that are peculiar to an individual base case and not already summarized in Table 2.5 are presented in the following four subsections.

Base Case Results: Annual Cargo Flows of 100,000 LT

When annual cargo flows are as low as in this case, all of the cargo can usually be moved less expensively in a single small barge operating in the ship-like integral mode. The drop-and-swap mode is not competitive due to the extra barge or barges needed to be stationed in port. As can be seen from Figure 2.3, the only time that the drop-and-swap mode can be of advantage is when L-D rates are very low (less than 2000 LT/day) in trades with long port separation distances. In these trades, the extensive in-port time forces integral mode operations to require more than one tug unit to handle the annual cargo flows. This makes integral mode operation with only one tug.

Base Case Results: Arrual Cargo Flows of 600,000 and 1,000,000 LT

Both of these cases are similar in that for port pair trades with low L-D rates, the drop-and-swap mode will be less expensive. Conversely, for those trades having high L-D rates, the integral mode will be less expensive. As seen in Figures 2.4 and 2.5, the major difference between these cases is that for the 1,000,000 LT case, the L-D rate tradeoff points are usually larger than for the 600,000 LT case. It was observed from both cases that for a given port separation distance, the L-D rate tradeoff point between the two modes usually occurs when the optimal integral mode begins to require only one more tug than the optimal drop-and-swap mode. Then, above the tradeoff L-D rate, the extra cost of the barges needed to remain in port for drop-and-swap mode operation begin to outweigh the capital cost savings resulting from the one fewer tug.

Base Cas: Results: Annual Cargo Flows of 6,000,000 LT

As seen in Figure 2.6, for this case the drop-and-swap mode will be the most economical method of operation for all port pair trades with port separation distance greater than 3500 NM. lnis! is because with large cargo flows, the savings resulting from economies of scale push the optimum barge size to the upper constraint of 100,000 DWT. Due to this constraint, the optimum number of integral tug-barge units cannot be reduced (at economical speeds of operation) sufficiently fewer than the number of drop-and-swap tugs to make the integral mode economically competitive. Thus, when barge size is constrained, the higher tug utilization at a given speed achieved by the drop-and-swap mode of operation outweighs any barge capital cost savings inherent in the integral mode. For the shorter port separation distance (500 and 2000 nautical miles) the barge size is not binding so that the integral mode does become more economical, but at comparatively high L-D rates. It should be noted that when barge size is not binding the optimal system speeds vary between seven and eleven knots, However, when the barge size approaches the upper limit, the optimum integral mode speeds become as high as thirteen knots.

Base Case Results: Annual Cargo Flows of 10,000,000 LT

In this case the barge size constraint causes the drop-and-swap mode to be the operating mode of choice for all port pair trades except for some with port separation distance of 500 NM. For those trades, the integral mode will be favored when L-D rates exceed 45,000 LT/day. Again, it should be noted that barge size constraints have forced the optimum integral mode systems to operate with speeds of up to fifteen knots.

Conclusions From Base Case Runs

After reviewing all the ouput from the base case runs, a few general conclusions can be drawn concerning tug-barge systems operating on a port pair trade in either the drop-and-swap or integral mode. The major conclusion is that port pair trades can be broken up into three groups, primarily based on the amount of annual cargo flow and secondarily based on the port separation distance. These groups are 1) trades for which the integral mode will be the operating method of choice for all L-D rates, 2) trades for which the drop-and-swap mode will be the operating method of choice for all L-D rates, and 3) trades for which the drop-and-swap mode will be optimum for low L-D rates and the integral mode will be optimum for high L-D rates.

The first group consists of trades with annual cargo flow requirements less than the tor-mile capacity of a single small (less than 25,000 DWT) tug-barge unit operating at an economical to 9 knots). In these trades, since all the cargo can speed (6 be easily transported in a single tug-barge unit, the higher tug from drop-and-swap operation utilization available is Thus, the integral mode will always be unnecessary. the operating method of choice in these trades.

The second group consists of trades with annual cargo flow requirements much greater than the ton mile capacity of two or more tug-barge units of maximum carrying capacity. The constraint on barge size prevents full use of economies of scale in the integral mode of operation. This, in turn, prevents operation in the integral mode at economical speeds with sufficiently less capital equipment to make up for the increased tug utilization savings inherent in the drop-and-swap mode of operation. Thus, the drop-and-swap mode will always be the operational mode of choice in deadweight constrained trades.

The third group consists of trades not falling within the first two groups. That is, trades for which annual cargo flows are too large to be carried in one tug-barge unit but too small to be carried in several maximum sized units. It is for these trades that there will be a L-D tradeoff point below which the drop-and-swap mode and above which the integral mode will be the operational method of choice.

In general, for trades with greater annual cargo flows and longer port separation distances, this tradeoff point is at greater L-D rates. This is because these trades demand more ton-mile transport capacity which can be met by either increasing the number or size of the tug-barge units. If the number of units is increased, then the additional barges that must remain in port in the drop-and-swap operations become less significant. If the barge size is increased, the increase for the drop-and-swap mode operation will be less than for integral mode operations due to the higher tug utilization efficiency. In ei-

ther case the drop-and-swap mode is favored in these trades more than the integral mode.

It should be mentioned that trades with very short port separation distances (i.e. 500 NM) have L-D tradeoff points at higher values than for longer distance trades. This is because the percentage of the total voyage time spent in port (about 40% at the L-D tradeoff point) is large for these trades, favoring the higher tug utilization efficiencies achieved by drop-and-swap mode of operation.

From the base case runs, certain conclusions can also be drawn concerning the form and speed of the optimum barge. It appears that since the Froude number is so low (less than 0.16) at the optimum tug-barge speeds of seven to eleven knots that residual resistance does not have much significance. Thus, optimum barge forms have the greatest draft and breadth possible to reduce the length; and, consequently, the barge capital cost. This saving outweighs any resistance penalty caused by the blunt barge forms. The only concession made for the effect of resistance is with respect to block coefficient. For tug-barge speeds greater than ten knots finer lines are required while blunter lines are suitable at slower speeds.

2.2.4 Sensitivity Runs of Computer Model

Sensitivity runs were made to see the effect on required freight rates and L-D rate tradeoff points of changes in some of the semi-fixed parameter values used in the base case runs. Specifically, changes to the value of the cargo, the shoreside storage costs, and the maximum barge draft were investigated.

Due to the cost of these runs, an exhaustive set, including a wide range of variation of a single parameter or combination of parameters, could not be made. However, the runs whose inputs are given in Table 2.6 should give an indication, although not conclusive, of the effects of changes to their values. In the three subsections that follow, an analysis is made of the output from the sensitivity runs.

Sensitivity Run: Change in Cargo Value

A sensitivity run was made to see what effects a change in the cargo value from \$200 to \$0 per long ton would have on the 1,000,000 LT annual cargo flow base case. As seen in Figure 2.8 and Table 2.7, this reduction in cargo value reduces the required freight rate by less than \$.20 for trades with port separation distance of 500 NM to over \$1.00 for trades with a port separation distance of 5000 NM. As to be expected, the reduction is in proportion to the port separation distance, which is indicative of the sea time and the time value of the cargo. It was also

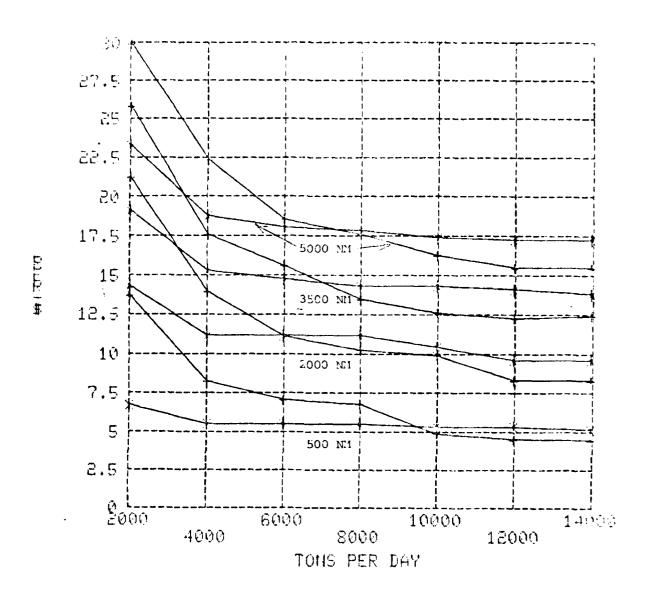
Table 2.6

and the second se

Summary of Inputs Used in Sensitivity Case-Runs

aflowavel	minrate	mindist	mindwt	mincb	minlb	minbt	minspeed	Changes to
	maxrate	maxdist	maxdwt	maxcb	maxlb	maxbt	maxspeed	Semixed
aflowave2	delrate	deldist	deldwt	delcb	dilab	delbt	delspeed	Parameter
1.000.000	2.000	500	5 000	0 78	с ч	с с	ں بر	vrardo = 0
Ċ		5,000	100,000	0.82	6.0 6	2.0	13.0	
D	2,000	1.500	5,000	0.01			1.0	
								-
6,000,000 6,000	6,000	500	30,000	0.78	6.0	2.0	7.0	cfixstor = 48
0	70,000	5,000	100,000	0.81	6.0	2.0	15.0	
,	8,000	1.500	5,000	0.01			1.0	
1,000,000	4.000	500	5,000	0.78	6.0	2.0	6.0	cfixstor = 48
	16,000	5.000	100,000	0.81	6.0	2.0	13.0	
	2,000	1.500	5,000	0.01			1.0	
1,000,000		500	5,000	0.78	6.0	2.0	6.0	cfixstor = 48
c	24,000	5,000	100,000	0.81	6.0	2.0	13.0	cvarstor = 1
,	3,000	1.500	5.000	0.01			1.0	
1,000,000	3,000	500	5,000	0.78	6.0	2.0	5.0	cfixstor = 48
c	24,000	5,000	100,000	0.81	6.6	3.0	12.0	maxtl = maxt2 = 38
- ()	3,000	1,500	5.000	10.0	0.2	0.5	1.0	
1,000,000	2,000	5:00	5,000	0.75	6.0	2.0	6.0	maxt] = maxt2 = 38
c	14,000	5,000	100,000	0.83	6.4	3.0	13.0	
	2,000	1,500	5,000	0.01	0.2	0.5	1.0	

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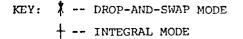


Figure 2.8

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Sensitivity Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 1,000,000 LT With Cargo Value of \$0

Table	2.7

Tabular	Summary	for	Sensitivit	ry Runs
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Port Separation			SENSITIVITY RU	PARAMETERS	
Distance (Nautical Miles)	OUTPUT PARAMETERS	aflowavel= 1,000,000 Base Case	aflowavel= 1,000,000 vcargo = 0	aflowavel= 6,000,000 Base Case	aflowavel= 6,000,000 cfixstor=48
500	<pre>KFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Das mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point</pre>	5.49 @12000 4.65 " About \$5.55	\$ 6.71 92000 13.69 " 5.32 @12000 4.47 " About \$5.35	\$ 3.87 96000 7.71 # 2.55 454000 2.17 # About \$2.68	\$ 3.87 46000 7.94 " 2.55 954000 2.30 " About \$2.65
	 D&S/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point 	Between 8000 £ 10000 72-59	Between 8000 £ 19000 59-37	Between 30000 & 38000 45-39	Between 30000 & 36000 45~39
2000	RFR at Specified L-D rate, D65 mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode FFR at Specified L-D rate, IN5 mode PFP at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Foint	10.46 912000	\$14.31 02000 21.23 " 9.56 012000 8.27 " 11.13	\$ 8.35 96000 16.03 " 6.17 054000 5.84 " 6.14	\$ 8.35 06000 16.45 " 6.17 054000 6.03 " 6.15
	D65/Integral mod. L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) & Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	Near 6,000 49	Near 6,000 49	Near 38,000 23	Between 38,000 & 46000 23-19
3500	RFR at Specified L-D rate, D45 mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, D55 mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point	\$19.91 22000 26.82 " 15.03 212000 13.25 " 15.85	\$19.16 @2000 25.82 " 14.10 @1200C 12.24 " about \$14.50	\$12.09 06000 24.28 " 9.35 454000 10.08 "	\$12.03 *6000 24.34 ** 9.85 \$54000 10.26 *
	D65/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) 9 Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	Between 4000 & 6000 48	Between 6000 & 8000 48-36	None:D&S mode always favorable	None: D&S mode always favorable
\$000	RFR at Specified L-D rate, DaS mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, DaS mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point	\$24.56 22000 31.42 " 18.55 312000 16.07 " About \$19.25	\$23.26 @2000 29.99 " 17.31 @12000 15.50 " About \$17.95	37.28 "	\$15.31 ∉6000 37.79 " 12.97 €54000 15.61 "
	D&S/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) * Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	Between 6000 £ 8000 36-32	Between 6000 £ 8000 32- 24	None: D&S mode always favorable	None: D&S mode always favorable

Table 2.7Cont.

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Tabular Summary for Sensitivity Runs

Port Separation		SENSITIVITY RUN PARAMETTES					
Separation Distance (Nautical Miles)	OUTPUT PARAMETERS	aflowavel= 1,000,000 cfixstor=48	aflowavel= 1,000,000 cfixstor=48 cvastor = 1	aflcwavel= 1,000,000 cfixstor=49 maxt1=38	aflowavel= 1,007,000 maxt1=38		
500	RFR at Specified L-D rate, D&S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, D&S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D.Rate Tradeoff Point DSS/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) 9 Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	\$ 6.95 02000 14.18 " 5.49 012000 5.04 " 5.48 Near 10000 57	\$ 5.65 @3000 11.61 " 5.49 @12000 6.09 " None: D&S Mode always favorable	\$ 5.65 @3000 10.61 5.52 @12000 5.36 About \$5.50 Near 12000 48	\$ 6.85 #2000 13.84 " 5.52 #12000 5.07 " About \$5.55 Retwcen 10000 6 12000 48-29		
2000	RFR at Specified L-D rate, D4S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, D4S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point D4S/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) • Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	\$14.85 32000 22.31 " 10.46 312000 9.37 About \$10.70 Between 10000 & 12000 48-29	\$12.50 @3000 16.35 " 10.46 @12000 11.05 " About \$10.00 Between 18000 & 21000 32-27	\$14.43 33000 19.47 " 12.94 912000 12.39 " About \$12.80 Between 9000 & 12000 32-24	\$16.05 \$2000 22.94 " 12.84 \$1200 12.05 " About \$\$13.45 Fetwen 6000 \$ 8000 37-32		
3500	RFR at Specified L-D rate, D&S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, D&S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point D&S/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day) Y Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	\$19.91 32000 27.95 " 15.03 @12000 14.04 " About \$5.30 Near 8000 36	516.34 03000 23.01 " 15.03 012000 15.04 " About 15.04 12000 24	\$20.11 23000 26.72 " 18.85 012000 18.79 " About 19.00 Between 6000 £ 12000 24-17	522.90 22000 30.89 " 18.85 212000 18.29 " About \$20,000 Between 6000 & 8000 26-24		
5000	RFR at Specified L-D rate, D&S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, D&S mode RFR at Specified L-D rate, Integral mode RFR at L-D Rate Tradeoff Point D6S/Integral mode L-D rate Tradeoff Point (LT/day)	\$24.56 @2000 33.60 " 18.55 412000 17.20 " About \$19.00 Near 8000	\$21.24 \$3000 29.35 " 18.55 \$12000 20.20 " About \$18.05 Near 15000	\$25.10 @3000 32.87 " 24.25 @12000 24.28 " About \$24.25 12000	\$29.72 \$2000 39.44 " 24.25 \$12000 23.72 " About \$24.60 Between 8000 \$ 10000		
	• Point (Livday) • Port Time is of Total Voyage Time at L-D rate Tradeoff Point	36	. 19	17	25-19		

noticed that in the base case run, that the optimum system speeds would sometimes be one, two, or even three knots faster than the sensitivity run. This confirms what is to be expected, that higher cargo values result in higher optimum system speeds. Thus, it is seen that unless the time value of cargo is included in any transportation system optimization model, the transport vehicles will be optimized at too slow a speed.

Sensitivity Rurs: Charges to Shoreside Storage Costs

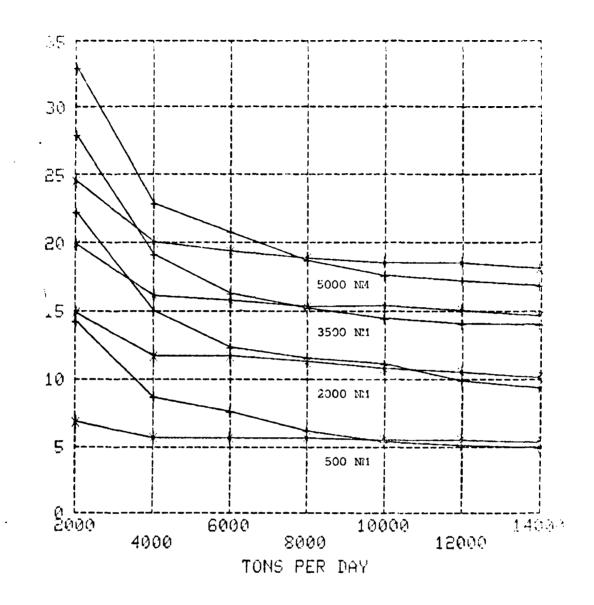
Two sensitivity runs were made to determine what effects the inclusion of shoreside storage capital construction costs of \$48 per long tor storage capacity (5) would have on the 1,000,000 and 5,000,000 long ton annual cargo flow base cases. In addition, a run was made to determine the effect on the 1,000,000 long to base case when a \$1.00 per long ton storage facility throughput charge was also included.

It would be expected that since shoreside storage costs are applicable to the integral mode only, the inclusion of such costs would favor the drop-and-swap mode of operation. This expected result is confirmed by the graphical and tabular output of the endra presented in Figures 2.9-2.11 and Table 2.7. From it is seen that the effect of the capital cost of both. torage on the integral mode becomes more pronounced Shore. . . with the point separation distances. This is because these point point demand the larger barges and consequently, larger or increases ive storage tanks. (6) Also, the effect of stor to construct in trades with low L-D rates since these trajes require more shoreside loading and discharging terminal facilities to hardle the annual cargo flows.

The combined results of both of these effects is that the L-D tradeoff point is shifted to higher values, especially for trades with longer port separation distances and that the advantage the drop-and-swap mode has for trades with low L-D rates becomes more pronounced.

(5) This value for storage capacity capital costs was obtained from a major oil company and is indicative of oil tankage construction costs for large tanks as of January 1979. Also, the model assumes that the amount of shoreside storage capacity for a given port pair trade is equal to the product of the number of terminal facilities in the port times the deadweight of the optimum barge operating in the integral mode for that port pair trade.

(6) For the 1,000,000 LT annual cargo flow trades, the present valued annual capital charges for storage amount to approximately \$0.0564 per 10,000 LT of tankage and cargo flow.



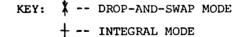
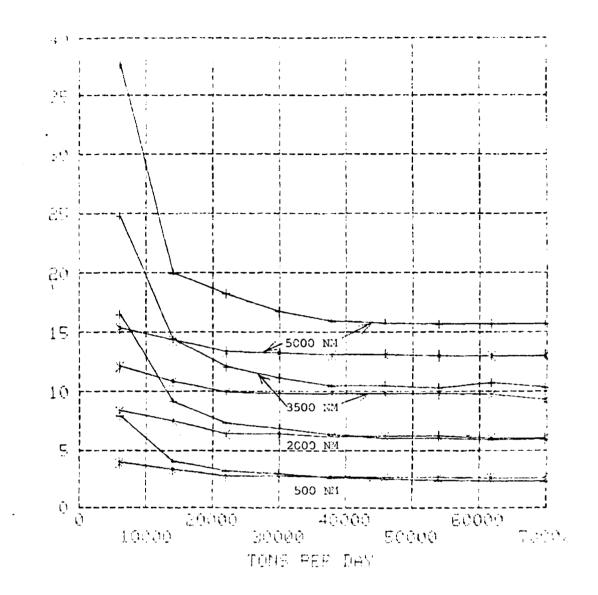


Figure 2.9

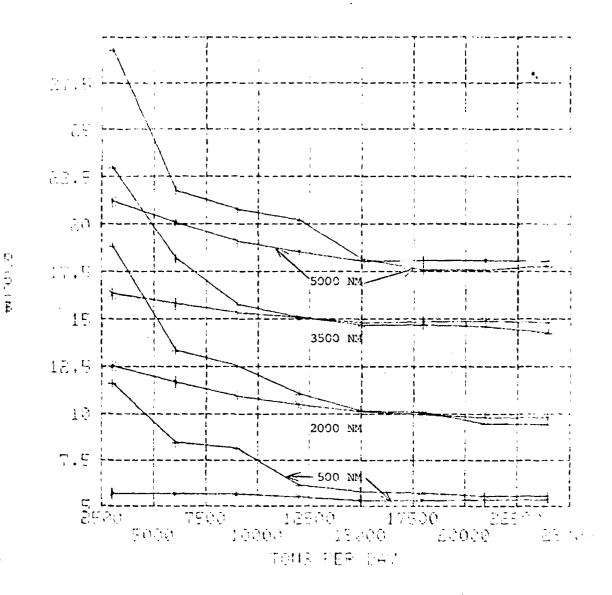
Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Sensitivity Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 1,000,000 LT With Storage Facility Capital Cost of \$48/LT



KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE + -- INTEGRAL MODE

Figure 2.10

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate Sensitivity Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 6,000,000 LT With Storage Facility Capital Cost of \$48/LT



KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE + -- INTEGRAL MODE

Figure 2.11

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate

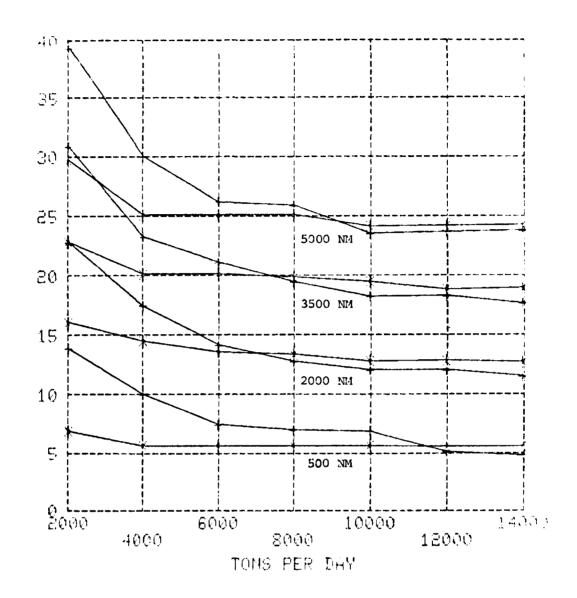
Sensitivity Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 1,000,000 LT With Storage Facility Capital Cost of \$48/LT With Storage Facility Operating Cost of \$1/LT

The addition of the \$1.00 storage operating cost favors the drop-and-swap mode even more than the storage capital costs. This is because it essentially increases all the integral mode trades' rfr's by \$1.00, equivalent to the annualized capital cost for over 175,000 LT of tankage. As seen by comparing Figures 2.10 and 2.11, this results in a shift of the integral mode curves by \$1.00 so that the L-D tradeoff point moves to a much higher value. For the port pair trades with a separation distance of 500 NM, where the integral mode has rfr's only marginally lower than the drop-and-swap mode at high L-D rates, the inclusion of the operating storage costs increases the integral mode rfr so much that the drop-and-swap mode dominates for all L-D rates. Since the differences between the drop-and-svap integral rfr curves is more pronounced with large port sepaand ration distance, the tradeoff point shift is not as great for these trades. However, it is apparent that if shoreside storage costs are included in the economic analysis, the trades for which the drop-and-swap mode will be optimal will be extended to those of significantly higher loading/discharging rates.

Sensitivity Runs: Inclusion of Port Draft Limit

A sensitivity run was made to investigate the effects that a draft limitation would have on the 1,000,000 LT annual cargo flow base case. Additionally, another run was made to see if a similar effect occurred in the 1,000,000 LT trades when a \$48 per long ton storage terminal capital cost was included with the draft limitation. The graphical and tabular results of these runs are shown in Figures 2.12 and 2.13 and Table 2.7.

Comparing these figures with the unrestricted draft cases shown in Figures 2.5 and 2.9, it was observed that there was little effect on trades which were optimized with small barges, those of less than 450 feet or 25,000 DWT. However, the effect was very pronounced in those trades which in the unrestricted draft case would be optimized with large barges. In those trades, both the drop-and-swap and integral mode rfr's were increased by several dollars. This is because the draft restrictions forced the optimum feasible barges of a given deadweight capacity to have greater lengths and, consequently, greater capital cost. Additionally, since barge length was constrained to be less than 750 feet, the maximum barge size was limited to less than 65,000 DWT. This forced those trades which were optimized in the unrestricted draft cases to obtain the necessary ton-mile capacity by either increasing the speed of the tugs or the number of tug-barge units in operation--both requiring the rfr to increase even further. The draft limitation affects both the drop-and-swap and integral mode trades. However, since the majority of unlimited draft port pair trades are optimized with larger barges in the integral than the drop-and-swap mode, the effect is somewhat greater for the integral mode. Thus, the L-D trade-off point is shifted to somewhat



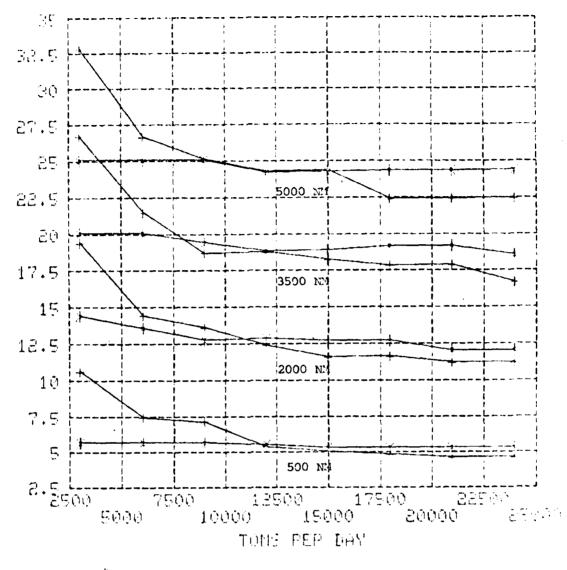
KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP MODE + -- INTEGRAL MODE

11111 H

Figure 2.12

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate

Sensitivity Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 1,000,000 LT With Barge Draft Limited to 38'



KEY: X -- DROP-AND-SWAP HODE

Figure 2.13

Plot of RFR Vs. Terminal L-D Rate

Sensitivity Run: Annual Cargo Flow of 1,000,000 LT With Barge Draft Limited to 38' With Storage Facility Capital Cost of \$48/LT

higher values in the longer distance trades where larger barges are predominant. Nevertheless, the shift is not very great.

Generally, it is seen that port draft restrictions are very costly in trades which have large annual cargo flows and/or long port separation distances and thus would normally take advantage of the economies of scale inherent in large barges. These trades, however, are slightly more favorable to the drop-and-swap mode of operation.

2.2.5 Summary of Computer Model Results

To summarize, the results of the computer model's base and sensitivity runs show that the drop-and-swap mode of operation will be favored in trades where:

- (1) There are size restrictions (draft, length, or beam) that prevent the required annual cargo flows from being carried on a few large deep-draft ships or integral mode operated OGTBs.
- (2) There is such a great annual cargo flow requirement that it must be carried in many vessels. This is just (1) in a different form since some size restriction causes the need for the large number of vessels.
- (3) Shoreside storage facilities are expensive.
- (4) Terminal loading/discharge rates are low so that port time becomes a large part of the total voyage time.
- (5) Port separation distances are very short so that port time again becomes a large part of the total voyage time since the sea time is short.

2.3 Future Prospects for OGTBs

From the historical prospective and economic analysis presented previously, it has become apparent that OGTBs have developed primarily to take advantage of the less expensive manning and construction opportunities available to them under current Coast Guard regulations. Very few systems have been developed to take advantage of their inherent flexibility of separability. Thus, the future prospects of OGTBs will depend highly on whether these regulations change in the future. In this section the latest regulatory developments will be discussed, including their potential impact on the commercial OGTB industry.

2.3.1 Current Coast Guard Regulatory Initiatives

Currently the Coast Guard is attempting to change two aspects of the regulatory structure pertaining to OGTBs. One is with respect to tank barge construction and the other is with respect to inspection of push-towed systems.

First consider tank barge construction. At this time there are no special regulations pertaining to the construction of oil tank barges. They may be single-skinned, double-bottomed, or double-hulled. However, there are two different sets of proposed rules that have been published by the Coast Guard in the Federal Register in recent months that would change this situation.

The first set of rules, published in the 12 February 1979 issue of the Federal Register, pertains to clean product ships and barges of greater than 30,000 DWT and trude oil ships and barges of greater than 20,000 DWT. They essentially implement the proposed 1MCO tanker anti-pollution standards, summarized in Table 2.8, and the provisions of the Port and Tanker Safety Act of 1978. Included in these regulations is the requirement for protective segregated ballast on new and existing ships and barges.

The second set of rules, published in the 14 June 1979 issue of the Federal Register, pertains to barges of smaller size. In summary, these regulations require that clean product barges of less than 30,000 DWT and crude oil barges of less than 20,000 DWT built after 31 December 1979 have double hulls of greater than 24" separation and between which no product can be carried. No existing single-skin barge can be operated after 1985 after they have reached twenty years of age unless they are retrofitted with end voids and a double-bottom or double-sides or unless they are operated in restricted trades in which there would be a negligible probability of a polluting spill.

Table 2.8

Summary of IMCO Tanker

Construction Anti-Pollution Regulations

Tank Vesset		Requirement (Construction Feature, Vessel Tonnage, Date Required)			
	Crude oil	PL SBT COW IGS	20 000 DWT and over (Note 2)		
New vessels Determining dates June/79 Contract date Jan./80 Keel laying June/82 Delivery		Second radar CAA Steering	10 000 GT and over at HS (6/79) (Note 1)		
	Petroleum products	PL SBT	30 000 DWT and over		
		IGS	20 000 DWT and over		
		Second radar CAA Steering	10 000 GT and over at HS (6/79) (Note 1)		
		CBT or 40 000 SBT or at HM COW			
		IGS	70 000 DWT and over at HS + 2 (6/81) 20 000 to 70 000 DWT at HS + 4 (6/83) (Note 3)		
	Crude oil	Second radar CAA	10 000 GT and over at HS (6/79)		
		Steering	10 000 GT and over at HS + 2 (6/81)		
Existing vessels	CBT or SBT		40 000 DWT and over at HM (6/31)		
	Petroleum products	IGS	70 000 DWT and over at HS + 2 (6/81) 40 000 to 70 000 DWT at HS + 4 (6/83) (Note 4)		
		Second radar CAA	10 000 GT and over at HS (6/79)		
	1	Steering	10 000 GT and over at HS + 2 (6/81)		

NOTE: Dates in () are dates by which Resolutions 1 and 2 adopted by the Conference recommend putting these requirements into effect, without waiting for entry into force of the Protocols.

1. Explanation of Terms.

CAA—Collision avoidance aids; performance standards are to be developed by 7/1/79. SOLAS 74, Chapter V, will then be amended to require CAA on all ships of 10 000 GT and over at a time to be agreed upon.

CBT-Dedicated clean ballast tanks. Existing tankers may operate with dedicated clean ballast tanks in accordance with the requirements of Regulation 13 and 13A of the MARPOL Protocol, and the Specifications in Resolution 14.

COW -- Crude oil washing, to comply with the requirements of Regulation 13 and 13B of the MARPOL Protocol. DWT--Deadweight tonnage, the difference in metric tons between

DWT--Deadweight tonnage, the difference in metric tons between the displacement of a ship in water (specific gravity of 1.025) at the load waterline corresponding to the assigned summer treeboard and the displacement of a ship in metric tons without cargo, fuel oil, lubricating oil, ballast water, fresh water and feedwater in tanks, consumable stores, passengers and their effects.

GT—Gross tonnage is the total measured cubic volume of a ship expressed in units of 100 cu ft with certain space exemptions.

HM—Date of entry into force of MARPOL Protocol tincorporating MARPOL 73 itself). Target date of 0/81 was established by Resolution 1. Dates in () in Table 2 are dates by which Resolutions 1 and 2 recommended putting these requirements into effect, without waiting for entry into force of the Protocols.

HS—Date of entry into force of SOLAS Protocol. Target date of 6/79 was established by Resolution 2. Dates in () in Table 2 are dates by which Resolutions 1 and 2 recommend putting these requirements into effect, without waiting for entry into force of the Protocols. JGS--Inert gas system, to comply with SOLAS Protocol, Chapter II-2, Regulation 55 and 60.

PL—Protective location of segragated ballast tanks to provide protection of cargo spaces in case of collision or grounding, to comply with MARPOL Protocol, Regulation 13E.

SBT—Segregated ballast tanks, to comply with MARPOL Protocol, Regulation 13,

Second Radar—Requirement for at least two radars, each capable of operating independently of the other. SOLAS Protocol, Chapter V, Regulation 12.

Steering—Improvements to steering gear and steering gear control system requirements contained in SOLAS Protocol, Chapter II-1, Regulation 2 and 29, and changes to operating requirements (use of automatic pilot, steering testing and drills, etc.), in Chapter V, Regulation 19, 19-1, and 19-2. "Date required" given for existing tankers applies to modifications to steering gear; operating requirements may come into effect earlier.

2. An inert gas system is required whenever a tanker uses crude oil washing.

3. Between 20 000 and 40 000 DWT, the Administration of a Flag State may grant an exemption to the requirement for IGS of high-capacity washing machines (that is, tank washing machines having an individual throughput of greater than 60 cubic meters per hour) are not fitted and the ship's design characteristics make it impracticable to fit IGS.

4. Tonnage limit for IGS is to be reduced to 20 000 DWT if tank washing machines having an individual throughput of greater than 60 cubic meters per hour are fitted.

By the way that these proposed regulations are currently written, there would probably be little impact on the tank OGTE industry. The first regulations for the large vessels affect all ships and all types of OGTBs alike. Therefore, no system would benefit over another. The second regulations for the smaller vessels pertain only to barges and as written are not applicable to ships. Thus, it might be possible for a small self-propelled bange to be built with a single-skin, while a non-propelled bange of the same size would have to have a double-hull. However, it is not likely that this would occur. The costs resulting from the ship's crew and propulsion machinery being under Coast Guard licensing and inspection would certainly outweigh any hull steel savings due to single-skin construction. Also, as these regulations pertain to all OGTBs, no linkage design would be favored over another.

This overall economic impact of these regulations should be comparatively small. They do increase the cost of constructing new tank barges (7) but this is compensated for by lower oil spill cleanup costs and a cleaner environment. Also, since existing single-skin barges may operate for up to 15-20 years without retrofit of segregated ballast tarks or double-hulls, the will be rather small, or a impact on these operators present-valued basis. So, although they will have to raise their rates to pay for the expeditious removal of single-skin barges, the rise can be gradual so that tank barge operators should not be seriously hurt by other competing transport modes.

Next consider tug inspection. It is the Coast Guard's contention that a loosely-linked OGTB with a 13,000 horsepower tug pushing a 35,000 DWT barge is no different than a ship with the same horsepower and deadweight. Therefore, the system should be to the same inspection and licensing requirements subject pertaining to an equivalent ship. However, under current law, has no legal justification for writing the Coast Guard regulations to enforce its contention. The law states that any motor powered vessel under 300 GRT is not subject to Coast Guard inspection and if it is under 200 GRT then it is also not subject to officer licensing. Since the pusher tug in a loosely-linked OGTB is a tug vessel capable of independent service, it comes under the provisions of this law. Apparently the only way that the Coast Guard could assert inspection jurisdiction over these tugs is if the law is changed. Given the realities of the situation, change in the law is unlikely unless one of the super-sized loosely-linked tank barges is involved in a serious accident

(7) The percentage increase in construction costs due to double-hulls is reduced as the barge becomes larger. One operator believes that the cost of a double-hull becomes negligible for barges of greater than 30,000 DWT. which results in the pullution of a popular beach or fishing ground. The public outery will then likely induce a charge in the law making those tugs subject to Coast Guard inspection. However, it should be realized that unless the law is changed so that all motor driven transports vessels of less than 300 GRT and greater than so many horsepower come under Coast Guard inspection, then the operators of the loosely-linked OGTB systems may decide to operate their systems in the much more hazardous pull-tow mode if the additional fuel and insurance expenses incurred are less than the increased manning and construction costs resulting from such inspection.

2.3.2 Future of Nechanically-Linked OGTBs versus Ships

In the economic analysis presented in Section 2.1, it was mentioned that mechanically-linked OGTBs have capital construction and crewing costs less than those of a ship of equivalent capacity. Additionally, OGTBs were said to be more flexible due to their separability. The orly disadvantage that а mechanically-linked OGTB was said to have compared to a ship would be its higher fuel cost resulting from the hydrodynamic flow disturbances caused by its linkage. However, if we scrutirize the first two OGTB advantages, in construction and manning; we may see that they might be only transitory phenomena.

Consider first construction costs. It was mentioned previously that OGTBs could be built less expensively because tug and barge could constructed be concurrently in specialized low-overhead yards. However, if there are advantages in building the propulsion and cargo units in separate specialized yards, the same can be done for a ship, as was demonstrated by the construction of the Great Lakes vessel Stewart A. Cort. (8) As for the lower manning of OGTBs, there is no technical or regulatory reason why ship crews can not be reduced to the same size as third generation OGTBs if they are as fully automated and follow the same maintenance policy. For example, the gas turbine 35,000 DWT Chevron tankers are certificated by the Coast Guard to be manned with fourteen men and they are crewed with seventeen, not much more than a mechanically-linked OGTB. So, in the future, a third generation mechanically-linked OGTB should not be any cheaper to construct or to man than an equivalent sized ship that is built and operated under the same conditions.

(8) The cargo component was built in a new modular construction yard which was ideal for the cargo unit specialization. The propulsive bow-stern component, however, was built at a large shipyard, probably to ensure that all construction would remain within company owned facilities. So, in this case only partial specialization of facilities was achieved.

In the long run, the only valid reason why an operator might want to build a mechanically-linked OGTB rather than a ship would be to take advantage of the flexibility allowed .by its separability--useful for trades most economically run in the drop-and-swap mode of operation as discussed in the last section. there are still these transitory economic However, since advantages of mechanically-linked OGTBs over ships, they are still being built, but only in transoceanic and intercoastal As nor demonstrated later reither ships trades. mechanically-linked OGTBs are competitive any longer in coastal trades.

2.3.3 Future of Loosely-Linked and Pull-Towed OGTBs versus Ships and Mechanically-Linked OGTBs

Unless Coast Guard regulations change, both loosely-linked pull-towed OGTBs will not have tugs subject to Coast Guard and inspection. This will allow them to have substantially less construction costs compared ships and crewing and to mechanically-linked OGTBs. The only advartage ships and mechanically-linked OGTBs have over these other OGTBs is better fuel economy resulting from their smoother lines, better potersafety record resulting from Coast Guard inspection, and tial better maintenance achieved by the larger crew onboard. These advantages will probably not outweigh the disadvantages in short distance coastal trades where fuel savings will not be as great and where maintenance can be conveniently scheduled to be it has been performed by shoreside personnel. As for safety, argued that Coast Guard regulations cause ships to be overdesigned and that many of the inspection requirements have little real worth. Whether this is true may be learned from the future safety record of the OGTB systems.

Given the above arguments, it would be expected that in the future, loosely-linked and pull-towed OGTB systems should displace most small, moderate speed ships and mechanically-linked OGTBs from the coastal trades. Whether loosely-linked OGTBs will displace them from long distance foreign trades will depend on the magnitude of the resistance penalties caused by the linkage, the reliability of the linkage in ocean crossings, and the safety and mechanical reliability of the systems resulting from small crew size. Since none of these loosely-linked systems have been designed to operate in long distance ocean trades, it may be foolish to conjecture whether they would be the most economical system to operate in these trades. However, if the linkages are capable of withstanding ocean forces, it should not be unexpected to see these systems trading trans-ocean in the near future.

2.3.4 Future of Loosely-Linked OGTBs versus Pull-Towed OGTBs

Loosely-linked OGTBs are considerably more fuel efficient

than pull-towed OGTBs. Whether these full savings outweigh the costs and loss of flexibility incurred by the linkage probably depends on the distance of the trades and the flexibility desired by the operator. It would be expected that in the future, short distance trades, say from New York to Philadelphia, still could be operated most economically with pull-towed OGTBs since fuel saving from pushing would be small. However, for moderate runs, the advantages of push-towing should predominate and it would be expected that loosely-linked OGTBs will dominate these coastal trades.

2.3.5 Summary of OGTB Future Prospects

Given the above arguments, the following can be said for the future of OGTBs:

Ships should supplant mechanically-linked OGTBs in long distance trades for which drop-and-swap operation is not economical.

Loosely-linked OGTBs should supplant ships and mechanically-linked OGTBs in moderate distance coastal trades.

Pull-towed OGTBs should supplant ships and other OGTBs in short distance coastal trades.

The above assumes no major changes in the regulatory structure pertaining to OGTBs and ships. If the tugs of loosely-linked OGTBs later come under Coast Guard inspection, then I would expect that self-propelled barges would supplant them in the longer distance trades that are not amenable to drop-and-swap operation, and that the pull-towed OGTBs would supplant them in shorter distance trades.

The above also assumes that river type single tug-many barge (STMB) operations as could be provided by SEA-LINK or FLEXOR linkages do not penetrate the coastal trades. Although the initiation of such a concept is difficult, it may be that in the future that a single large shipper or a group of shippers will be willing to invest in the many units required for a successful STMB operation. If such an initial operation proves economically profitable, then STMB operations could become a major part of coastal trades.

ANNEX A TO CHAPTER 2

SUMMARY OF U.S. COAST GUARD REQUIREMENTS

FOR OCEAN-GOING TUG-BARGE COMBINATIONS (1)

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A. INTRODUCTION

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It is generally thought, at least by some members of the Maritime industry, that ocean-going tug-barges have evolved to their present status, as replacements of conventional. ships, due to one primary reason: to avoid certain "rules."*

Which rules? The ones generally cited are The Coast Guard regulations and Load Line regulations which affect these three areas:

- 1. Use of certain USCG standards and criteria in the construction of the vessel if it is inspected, but otherwise not necessarily applicable if the vessel is uninspected. (Certain aspects of those standards are regularly re-inspected during vessel operations.)
- Use of deck officers and engineers having certain levels of "recognized" qualifications, such qualifications being "lowest" for uninspected motor tugboats below 200 GRT, except if it is "mechanically linked" to the barge.
- 3. Use of a reduced-freeboard load line for un-manned barges relative to conventional vessels of comparable size.

On the following several pages are summaries of the several sets of regulations which are thought to be the "rules" that OGTB's may possibly avoid to some extent, depending on their size, operation and "linkage" between tug and barge.

(1) This material is a corrected version of Section VII of Maritime Administration (1979) which was compiled from research data provided by the author.

*As with paying taxes, rule avoidance is legal, rule evasion is not.

B. TUGBOATS: INSPECTED OR UNINSPECTED

A tugboat is subject to Coast Guard inspection whenever any of these conditions obtain:

- (1) it is steam powered,
- (2) it is motor powered, sea-going, and over 300 gross tons,
- (3) it is carrying passengers, flammable or combustible
- liquids in bulk or other dangerous cargoes, or
- (4) it is "mechanically linked" to a seagoing barge.

Otherwise, tugboats require no Coast Guard inspection. All Coast Guard regulations pertaining to uninspected vessels are contained in parts 24-26 of Subchapter C of Title 46 of the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR). This Subchapter is comparatively short, less than twenty pages.

All Coast Guard regulations pertaining to inspected vessels are contained in Subchapter I of Title 46 of the Code of Federal Regulations. These regulations concern both construction and operation of these vessels as well as the inspection required. These regulations are very detailed relative to those for uninspected vessels.

C. BARGES: INSPECTION AND FREEBOARD

Barges require Coast Guard inspection if they are seagoing and over 100 GRT. Inland barges, except those carrying passengers or flammable or combustible liquid bulk cargoes or other hazardous/dangerous cargoes, do not require inspection.

Unmanned barges may be granted a 25% reduction in freeboard, relative to conventional (manned) vessels of comparable size, in accordance with the 1966 International Load Line Convention.

D. QUALIFICATIONS OF TUGBOAT OFFICERS

The knowledge and experience requirements for the officers of tugboats depend on whether the tugboat (i) is inspected or uninspected, (ii) is operating on the high seas or inland waters, and (iii) is greater or less than 200 GRT or 300 GRT.

For uninspected tugboats of (a) less than 200 GRT operating in any area, or (b) of any tonnage operating on inland waters, only the deck officer on watch must be licensed as an Operator or Second-Class Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels in accordance with 46 CFR 10.16. Engineers for this class and size of vessel are not required to be licensed.

For uninspected tugboats between 200 and 300 GRT operating on the high seas, both the deck and engineering officer on watch must be

licensed in accordance with 46 CFR 10.15. The experience and knowledge requirements for the deck officers, masters and mate, on tugs of this size (200-300 GRT) are considerably more comprehensive than those required for Operators of Uninspected Towing Vessels (under 200 GRT). The requirements for the engineers are much less comprehensive than those required for those serving on inspected tugboats (above 300 GRT or mechanically linked).

For inspected motor tugboats greater than 300 GRT operating on the high seas the knowledge and experience requirements for deck officers must be at least in compliance with those specified in 46 CFR 10.05 for master and mate of Freight and Towing Vessels not more than 1000 GRT. These requirements are similar to those of other inspected ocean-going vessels. Engineering officers must meet the requirements specified in 46 CFR 10.10, which are the same as for any other vessel.

E. MECHANICALLY LINKED VESSELS

When the tug and barge are "mechanically linked," the combined unit must meet certain requirements that may be "avoidable" if the two components are linked by some other means.

Even if the tugboat part of a mechanically-linked unit is less than 200 GRT, both components must be constructed and regularly inspected under the supervision of the Coast Guard in accordance with Subchapter I of Title 46 of the CFR. In contrast, uninspected tugboats require no inspection while under construction or later, and are subject to a limited number of safety and operation regulations, as promulgated in Subchapter C of Title 46 of the CFR.

When the two components are mechanically linked, the number of officers and crew, as well as their qualifications, is determined by the Coast Guard. The deck officers (masters and mates) must at least be licensed as master or mate of Freight and Towing Vessel not more than 1000 gross tons in accordance with 46 CFR 10.05. Currently, they are required to have licenses based on the combined gross registered tonnage of the tug and barge. The engineers (chief and assistant) must have licenses in the same way as any ocean-going engineer, in accordance with 46 CFR 10.10. The minimum size crew certificated on these vessels has been fourteen persons.

In contrast, for uninspected tugboats under 200 GRT, frequently manned with 10 or less men, the only requirements on the number and qualification of the crew are:

(a) deck watch officers must be licensed as Operator or Second-Class Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels,

- (b) crew must be divided into three watch sections on voyages of greater than 600 miles, and
- (c) 65% of deck crew must be at least Able-Bodied Seamer.

An interesting note is that an Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels is not considered a licensed officer nor is he considered crew for the determination of the number of AB's.

F. DESCRIPTION OF REGULATIONS

Regulation I:

The tugboat, while underway, must be under the actual direction or control of a Coast Guard licensed Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels, or Second-Class Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels if an Operator of Uninspected Towing Vessels is onboard. Persons so licensed may not work on a vessel while underway or perform other duties in excess of twelve hours in any consecutive twenty-four hour period except in case of emergency.

Regulation II:

65% of deck crew, exclusive of licensed officers and apprentices are to be of rating not less than Able Seamen. Requirements for Able Seamen are (1) to be at least 19 years of age, and (2) to have served at least 18 months on the Great Lakes, on bays and sounds, or at sea.

Regulation III:

The licensed officers and sailors, coal passers, firemen, oilers, and water tenders shall, while at sea, be divided into at least three watches except for those voyages of less than six hundred miles when the licensed officers and members of the crew other than coal passers, firemen, oilers, and water tenders may, while at sea, be divided into not less than two watches. Licensed officers or seamen in the deck or engine department shall not be required to work more than eight hours in one day, when governed by the three-watch provision.

Regulation IV:

If an uninspected vessel engages on a voyage of 12 hours or less, such vessel shall have a Master and Chief Engineer in charge of the watch continuously. If desired a mate may serve as navigating officer in charge of the watch as a relief for the Master. If desired, an Assistant Engineer may serve as the Engineer Officer in charge of the watch as relief for the Chief Engineer. If an uninspected vessel engages on a voyage of over 12 hours duration, such a vessel shall have a Master, Mate, Chief Engineer, and Assistant Engineer and such officers shall be in charge of their respective watches continuously, except that an uninspected vessel which is ecuipped with full pilothouse control of the propulsion machinery, thus eliminating the necessity for a continuous fireroom watch, may be manned with an appropriate licensed Master and Mate who shall be in charge of their respective watches continuously, and an appropriately licensed Chief Engineer. All of the above officers shall be licensed by the Coast Guard.

Regulation V:

Every inspected tugboat shall have one licensed Master and two licensed Mates if under 1000 GRT. Every tugboat over 1000 GRT shall have in her service and onboard three licensed Mates, who shall "stand" in three watches while ... such wessel. is .being.. navigated.

Nothing above shall be so construed as to prevent the Coast Guard from increasing the number of licensed officers on any inspected tugboat if, in its judgment, such vessel is not sufficiently manned for her safe navigation.

Regulation VI:

On any inspected tugboat, the Officer in Charge, Marine Inspection, of the Coast Guard shall determine the minimum number of engineers and other crew necessary for the safe navigation of the vessel.

Regulation VII:

The Coast Guard shall license and classify the Masters, Chief Mates, Chief Engineers, and Assistant Engineers of all inspected vessels.

APPLICABILITY OF USCG REGULATIONS PERTAINING TO MOUGH TUGGOAT MANNING (see previous pages for description of regulations)

Vessel Size	Over 26' Under 100 grt	100-200 grt	200-300 grt	Above 300 grt
Regulation	······································			
I	- Applicable	(Note 1)	Applicable	e(Note 2)
II ·····	Not Applicable		•	1 I
III ·····	Not Applicable	App1	icable(Note 4)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
IV	Not Appli	icable 🛌	Applicabl	e(Note 5)
v		 Not Applicat) ble	Applicable (Note 6)
vi		- Not Applicat	ble	Applicable (Note 6)
VII		 Not Applical	ble	Applicable (Note 6)
Notes:			<u>i.</u>	ل

- 1. All uninspected tugs operating in any area, excepting those tugs in mineral and oil industry.
- 2. All uninspected tugs operating in inland waters.
- 3. All tugboats operating in any area except on rivers and smaller lakes and on bays and sounds connected with the sea.
- All tugboats operating in any area except those navigating rivers, harbors, lakes(other than the Great Lakes), bays, sounds, bayous, and canals exclusively.
- 5. All uninspected tugs navigating the high seas.
- 6. All inspected tugboats.

References:

I:	46USC405(b) 46CFR10.16 46CFR157.01-10(c) 16CFR157.30-45	II:46USC672,672b 46CFR157.20-15 46CFR157.20-15	III: (b) (b)	46USC673 46CFR157.20-5 46CFR157.20-10
IV:	46USC224a 46CFR157.10-15 46CFR157.30-10	V: 46USC223 46CFR157.20-35 46CFR157.20-30		46USC222,224 46CFR157.20-35
VII:	46USC224 4CFR10.02-10.10			

ANNEX B TO CHAPTER 2

COMPARATIVE COSTS OF TUG-BARGE CONFIGURATIONS*

This presentation will first offer my judgment in the difference in costs between various forms of tug-barges. Then I will present some of the background that has been recently gained in the difference in costs between ITB's and ships of a rather similar nature.

First, regarding the difference in costs of various tug-bange ... combinations, we will consider a bange of about 25,000 deadweight tons as the basis for comparison, the bange being a double-bottomed product carrier towed at the end of a hawser by a 7,000 horsepower tug. Using the acquisition costs per deadweight ton as the measure of relative costs between the tug-banges and ships, we can construct a table as shown below, in which other variations include the use of larger power plants, slow speed diesels, notches, linkages, ITB-configurations, and larger ships and ITB's.

RELATIVE COSTS OF TUG-BARGES AND SHIPS

Vessel	<u>\$/DWT</u>	<u>%</u>
25,000 DWT barge towed by hawser with 7,000 BHP tug	668	Base
25,000 DWT barge towed at the end of towline by 13,000 BHP Belcher type tug	964 g	+44%
25,000 DWT barge push-towed in an average notch with a 7,000 BHP tug	675-688	+1% to +3%
25,000 DWT barge push-towed by a 7,000 BHP tug in a notch that allows heave between tug and barge	691-711	+3 1/2%-6 1/2%
25,000 DWT JAMIE BAXTER type ITB with 7,000 BHP tug	1168	+75%

*A paper presented by Melvin Colen, Avondale Shipyards, Inc., New Orleans, at the MARAD sponsored Ocean-Going Tug-Barge Planning Conference at New Orleans on 26-27 March 1979. This paper represents practically the only publicly available information concerning the relative costs of the different OGTB systems.

	ITB powered by medium speed diesels	1200	+80%
25,000 DWT	ship powered by slow speed diesel	1300-1450	+95% to 117%
47,000 DWT	ITB with 16-17,000 BHP	975	Base
45,000 DWT	ship with 14-16,000 BHP	1120	+15%

NOTE: All 25,000 DWT vessels are designed for clean products of $8.5 \ BB1/Ton$.

The above numbers are my judgment of relative costs on an industrywide basis and do not represent any panticular ships. The relationship can shift with individual specifications, numbers of vessels, and size ranges, as fixed program costs vary significantly among the different types of vessels. Deviations of as much as 25% are possible, but the indicated trend is considered generally valid.

Comparative Costs of ITB versus Ships

About a year ago I had the opportunity of jointly directing the design of a 41,000 DWT Superphosphoric Acid Carrier. This ship would trade on long ocean voyages. This ship as developed reflected a specification standard, which is high and suitable for charter to major oil companies without significant additions. The structure reflected our design practices. The ship competed against an ITB for a transportation agreement and cost. We also bid the ITB and offered an alternate structural design reflecting a system similar to that designed for the ship. Our bid was accepted. Therefore the two vessels were designed to a constant .structural system, eliminating that variable. The pertinent data for each vessel is as follows:

Item	ITB	Ship
Price	\$47 Million	\$55 Million
LOA	592' 2"	6021 4"
LBP	572' 0" appprox.	570' 0"
Beam	95' 0"	105 10"
Depth	50' 0"	55' 0"
Draft (designed)	37' 0"	37 ' 3"

Horsepower, MCR	18,200	14,200
SPA Cubic 100%	822,010	667, <u>555</u> •
Oil Cubic 100%	874,755	972,500
Ballast Cubic 100%	435,720	524,121
Total Cubic	2,132,485	2,164,176
Steel Weight	+250 LT	Base
Accommodations	Base	+\$400K to \$500K
Propulsion	Twin Screw	Single Screw
Double Bottoms	•••¥ee••••	· · · · · · ¥es · · · · · · ·
Number of Cargo Tanks	28	. 28
Pumping System	Fromo	Fromo

There were many specification and system differences reflecting the experience and thinking of the two different operators with different backgrounds, but individual difference was of an order of magnitude that would not explain major portions of the cost difference.

Obviously we have a paradox. The industry's experience is too limited to definitely answer the paradox at this time, but I believe that some of the significant factors are as follows.

Specification Requirements ITB's do not have the room, and the operators have the orientation of austerity. Ship operators are accustomed to satisfying charter requirements of major oil companies which increase the numbers and quality of the items of supply in virtually every category. The vessels are not to equal standards, and the cumulatiave effect is significant.

Estimating Standards Barges and tugs are estimated using historic returns for tugs and barges, while ships reflect their historic costs. As programs have been conducted differently, cost histories are different. Some of the factors affecting cost histories are discussed below.

<u>Hull Form</u> In the example given above, the block coefficient for the ITB was about 0.79, while the ship's was 0.73. There is about a 1 1/4 knot speed advantage for the ship at the same power, and the ship will use far less fuel. But the cost of the ship is correspondingly higher, as fine ends cost more.

<u>Program Administration</u> Tugs and barges have traditionally required less contract administration, less engineering, less trials, a lower level of inspection, and generally less of all administrative work. This is a significant cost difference when we are dealing with small quantitities of vessels. As ITB's become larger and as more ship-oriented people become involved, this and other differences will narrow.

Building Period For reasons of administrative work, procurement lead time and other factors, tugs and barges have been constructed in shorter periods of time than ships. This could be a significant cost saving. However, as ITB's get larger and use more sophisticated equipment such as slow speed diesel engines, this advantage will narrow and may disappear.

In summary, a significant cost difference presently exists between ITB's and ships. For the long range, this difference is controlled by the ship owners. If equal standards are maintained throughout, there is no engineering reason why the costs cannot be equalized; however, the nature of discipline to reduce ship costs has not been applied to date.

CHAPTER 3

APPLICATION OF OGTB'S TO MILITARY OPERATIONS

The Military Sealift Command has three primary mission areas in peacetime:

- (1) Cargo Transport
- (2) Naval Fleet Auxiliary
- (3) Scientific Support

The first two areas, cargo transport and Naval Fleet Auxiliary, must be enormously expanded to fulfill the increased logistic demands generated by contingency or mobilization operations.

It is the purpose of this chapter to show how OGTBs can be successfully used in peacetime to satisfy many of the requirements generated by the three mission areas and to show how OGTBs have enormous potential to satisfy the expanded requirements of contingency and mobilization operations. This will be done by discussing each mission area separately in the following sections.

3.1 OGTBs for Military Cargo Transport Missions

3.1.1 Peacetime Operations

In peacetime most commercial cargo, both dry (break/bulk, containerized, and wheeled) and liquid (POL), is moved long distances through large, high-throughput port facilities. These types of movements are most economically served by the large, specialized and highly productive commercial vessels of the U.S. merchant marine. These large vessels are economical due to

savings resulting from economies of scale. (1) They are very productive because they move large cargoes rapidly and spend little time in port. (2) The short port times are the result of the ship being designed to interface with sophisticated port facilities that have specialized cargo handling equipments. Even in the case of RO/RO vessels which only require properly configured quays to accept the ship's stern and sideport ramps, the port must have sufficient draft to accept the vessel for discharge and pier space to marshal its cargo.

The above discussion certainly applies to peacetime military movements as well; and today, most military dry cargo is moved by these large, fast vessels. On the other hand, little POL is moved by supertankers. This is because most of the military POL terminal facilities have neither the draft nor the tankage to accept such large vessels. Nor do most of them have the throughput requirements to warrant the improvements required to allow them to accept such large vessels. Thus, many of these long distance POL trades are being served by rather small vessels. This is uneconomical since small ships cost several times more per ton-mile than a supertanker. As explained later, OGTBs may offer a solution to this dilemma.

Although most military cargo is moved rather long distances, some is also moved intra-area. Many of these types of trades are similar to the commercial coastal trades discussed in Chapter 2 and would be most economically served by OGTBs, either in the integral or drop-and-swap mode. This is discussed further in the next subsection.

(1) By economies of scale it is meant that the cost per ton-mile transport capacity becomes smaller as the ship becomes larger. This is the result of the lower capital and operating cost per deadweight ton of the larger vessels. Construction cost per deadweight ton becomes smaller because as a ship's capacity increases cubically its surface area and thus its hull cost only increases quadratically. Operating costs per deadweight ton also decrease with larger ships because (1) the crew size remains practically the same for any size vessel and (2) the fuel consumption per deadweight ton decreases with size. The latter is due to both the smaller frictional and residual resistance per deadweight ton of larger vessels. In addition, port facilities also exhibit economies of scale.

(2) Ships are transport vehicles. So, the less time they spend in port and the more time they are at sea moving cargo, the more productive they are in their primary function. On the other hand, since OGTBs are a separable combination of propulsion and cargo units, the propulsion unit need not be tied to the cargo unit during port operations; so, an OGTB's overall system productivity is not as sensitive to cargo operations.

Peacetime Coastal Operations

Nost military intra-area operations require movement of dry and liquid cargo short distances for discharge at shallow draft These are similar to the conditions faced by many U.S. ports. coastal shippers of oil products and other bulk commodities. As discussed in Chapter 2, such trades are more economically served by OGTBs and the same holds true for military intra-area movements. For very short distance movements, say less than 150 miles, inexpensive 1st generation OGTBs would be adequate. For longer distances, 2nd or 3rd generation OGTBs would be appropriate. In any case, OGTBs should be seriously considered as a less expensive ship replacement in many current military coastal cargo transport operations. They would be particulary appropriate for use in the shallow draft, short distance Japan-Korea POL and Gulf Coast/Caribbean Island replenishment operations.

Most of these intra-area trades have rather small throughput requirements so that integral mode of operation would usually be most appropriate. However, there may be some trades that fall within the criteria listed in Section 2.2.5 that would make drop-and-swap operation more economical. This would be the case if draft limitations forced the operation to be handled by several small barges or if the barges remaining in port could be used instead of, or supplement to onshore storage facilities. Certainly, the ability to operate in drop-and-swap mode makes these intra-area OGTBs potentially more economical when cargo requirements increase, as in the case of a contingency operation. All that is needed to change from integral to drop-and-swap operation is the addition of some barges.

Peacetime Shuttle Operations

As previously discussed, many long distance shipments of POL occur in rather uneconomical small ships, often smaller than 30,000 DWT. This is primarily because most discharge ports cannot accept the large deep draft tankers. (3) This results in the transport costs for this oil to be at least three times (4) as great as would be possible if the larger ships were utilized. There are two alternatives that might result in lower system expenses.

(3) It is recognized that in peacetime that most U.S. refineries do not have shoreside tankage large enough to provide a supertanker size cargo of refined products. In this case shuttle type consolidation might be needed in the loading area.

(4) This figure is based on the different worldscale values reported for recent time charters of tankers of 22-40,000 DWT versus tankers of 100-130,000 DWT.

One is to utilize one port or safe anchorage in the overseas operational area as a major POL storage terminal capable of storing the cargo of one or more supertankers. If this port had insufficient draft then it could have the supertankers discharge anchorage via an offshore single point mooring or via at lightening operations using OGTBs as the means of shuttling the cargo from supertanker to shore. If insufficient shoreside stor-age capacity was available, then some barges could remain loaded and moored alongside a POL reception area or anchored out in a safe area until ullage was available for the product. Then, as the other POL terminals in the area required products, the still loaded or newly loaded (from shoreside storage) barges could proceed in a coastal type operation as previously discussed. Whether the OGTBs used for the lightering operations are also used for the coastal operations will depend on their size and capabilities. (5)

The other alternative to using small tankers for long distance movements would be to use the supertanker as a temporary storage tank while it is offloaded by OGTBs that shuttle its cargo directly to the intra-area POL terminals. The supertankers could remain stationary or could proceed to anchor off the intra-area terminals where shorter distance shuttles could occur. This alternative requires fewer OGTBs but delays the supertankers for longer periods of time.

The decision of which shuttling method to use and whether the supertanker should move or remain stationary depends on (1) the size of the supertanker and the shuttling vessels, (2) the distances between ports, (3) the capabilities of the OGTBs, that is, whether they can operate in the push mode between the intra-area ports as well as in protected waters, (4) the speed of the shuttle OGTBs, and (5) the per diem costs of the supertankers and OGTBs. Since so many factors whose values depend on a given situation are involved, it is not possible to generalize which strategy is optimum. A careful analysis of each specific situation is required.

(5) Lightering operations of this sort are conducted regularly in this country by some of the major oil companies. Supertankers full of crude arrive at the Gulf Coast for discharge. Due to their deep draft these supertankers must be lightered. The crude is then refined and distributed throughout the Gulf and East Coast via the use of OGTBS. It might be expected that such lightering operations would be very expensive since the supertanker is delayed several days while it occurs. However, it is apparent that the savings entailed by using such large ships rather than several smaller ones for the long distance delivery of the oil outweighs the cost of such delays. It should be mentioned that the above discussion does not pertain only to POL movements. Commercial operators such as SEALAND have realized the benefits of the economies of scale for some time. They reserve their large, high speed SL-7's for trans-ocean crossings and then trans-ship their containers to the other area ports via small feeder vessels which operate in a coastal or shuttle trade. (6) The same type of operation could pertain to military dry-cargo movements if such large high-speed vessels, i.e., large RO/RO ships, become part of the military sealift fleet. In these trades OGTBs with deck barges would be very suitable shuttle craft.

3.1.2 Contingency Operations

In a contingency operation, the amount of dry and liquid cargo to be moved will be substantially more than during peacetime operations. Additionally, much of the cargo will probably have to be delivered through relatively primitive shallow draft ports and/or beaches. Both of these conditions tend to favor the use of OGTBs as explained below.

Shallow Draft Dry Cargo Operations at Undeveloped Ports

Certainly the most cost effective means of moving the large amounts of materiel demanded by a contingency operation is in the same way most cargo is moved during peacetime: via large, speedy RO/RO, and tank ships through high throughput, container, Unfortunately, terminals. of deep-draft the availability deep-draft high-throughput terminals in a contingency operating area is doubtful at best. They might never have existed or could have been destroyed by hostile actions. The absence of the appropriate high-throughput terminals poses serious problems for military logistics planners. For several years they have been attempting to find expeditious means of discharging these vessels offshore, especially the RO/RO and non self-sustaining container vessels. But, even if rapid discharge methods could be found (7)

(6) It should be mentioned that McAllister Bros., Inc., operates a pull-towed OGTB along the East Coast as a container feeder service for several liners that call New York.

(7) One non self-sustaining container ship discharge method involves the use of a temporary container discharge facility (TCDF), a concept being developed by the U.S. Navy, Facilities Engineering Command. This facility consists of a vessel on which are mounted gantry or rotating cranes that are used to remove the containers from the ship and to place them on lightering craft. There is no reason why these TCDFs could not be large OGTBs that have been pushed to the operating area by shuttle tugs. These tugs could then be used in the operating area for other purposes. it is most likely that insufficient shoreside depot facilities would be available to handle all the cargo and that local commanders would probably require that the vessels temporarily remain in queues offshore. This is intolerable for these costly vessels which are totally unproductive while remaining in queues.

There are at least three possible solutions to the above queuing problem:

- transfer the cargo from the ships to deck barges at the operating area which would shuttle the cargo to the port facility
- (2) offload the cargo from the ships at developed ports nearby the operating area from which cargo is shuttled to the operating area by OGTBs
- (3) ship the cargo solely via shallow draft OGTBs from the loading terminals.

The first approach is to have the large, highly productive ships discharge their cargoes onto inexpensive deck barges which could act as offshore storage facilities, freeing the large ships for transport. (8) These deck barges could be then later pushed or pulled ashore where they could be beached and discharged via forklift or ramp. (9) Of course, if sufficient storage capacity was available onshore, the cargo could be discharged directly

Additionally, the containers could be shuttled ashore via small OGTBs in either a drop-and-swap or integral mode type of operation.

(8) See Appendix A for a listing of some of the largest freight and deck barges available in the U.S. domestic fleet, many of which could be chartered immediately. Since these barges would be needed rather soon after the start of a contingency operation, it would be desirable that they could be quickly push-towed into position. Unfortunately, few, if any, of the deck barges have this capability. Thus, for this strategy to be successful, the deck barges would have to be chartered at the start of the contingency, even before the large ships are loaded. This will ensure that they will arrive at the operating area not much later than the ships.

(9) Most deck barges are flat-bottomed and of shallow draft which gives them the ability to ballast down and lie on properly prepared beaches. Since these barges are maneuvered by tugs, they may be beached head on or side to. Also, because few deck barges have push-notches, installation of a SEA-LINK or SEEBECKWERFT linkage might be appropriate to provide these barges with the speed and better control available from push-tow shuttle operation. from the large vessel into small lightering craft, i.e., LCU's or small GGTBs, and landed immediately.

A second approach would be to have the large fast ships discharge their cargoes at a high capacity, high-throughput advanced shore base not too far away from the operating area, say less than 1000 miles. Then the cargo could be shuttled to the contingency area in OGTBS. As large amounts of cargo will be moved through rather small vessels, and since cargo discharge time could be rather long due to the queues caused by backlogs or inventory control, drop-and-swap operations would be appropriate.

A third approach would be to have the cargo loaded into OGTBs at the distant supply depot rather than using the high productivity ships. Then these OGTBs (10) could drop off their barges at the operating area and return with an empty barge or with the tug steaming independently. The barge could later be pushed to the beach for discharge or lightered by smaller shuttle OGTBs.

The decision of which approach to utilize will depend principally on the availability of the required assets. The availability of at least some RO/RO and container ships is rather assured due to the MSC Strategic Readiness Program. Although deck barges are not part of this program, most are readily available for spot charter. However, few of the commercially available deck barges are presently capable of fast speed push-tow operation and thus would be suitable mainly for shuttle and other short distance movements. On the other hand, some of the multi-deck and newer shipshape deck barges are capable of moderate speed pull-tow operation and so could be used for longer movements. Unfortunately, most of these barges are in common carrier trades and would be more difficult to charter. In either case, whatever barges that are available must be chartered quickly to ensure their arrival at the contingency port areas in time to operate with larger vessels. It should be added that those which are small enough to fit into the deep wells of an LPH or similar type vessel or onboard a LASH/SEABEE could be quickly transported to the contingency area and used for shuttle operations until the larger assets arrive later.

POL Operations at Undeveloped Terminals

Most of the above discussion for dry cargo movements pertains to POL operations as well. That is, during a

(10) For such long distance operations moderate speed would be important. So it would be expected that 3rd generation trans-ocean capable OGTBs with ship shape barges would be used. All of the "mechanically-linked" and some of the "loosely-linked" systems have this capability. contingency, large quantities of POL will have to be transferred ashore through primitive low throughput and low storage capacity terminals. The least expensive means of providing the long distance movement of the POL will be by supertanker for the same reasons given in the section on peacetime operations. The problem is to find a way of offloading the supertanker quickly at such a primitive terminal which cannot accept its cargo nor its draft. There are at least three possible solutions to this problem:

- use the supertanker as an offshore storage tank, transferring its cargo when needed via a portable offshore mooring buoy connected to a shoreside discharge manifold,
- (2) transfer the supertanker's cargo into barges nearby the terminal which will be shuttled as needed to a close-to-shore potable mooring buoy or a shallow draft berth where its contents can be discharged through a shoreside manifold. Cargo not immediately needed will remain stored in the barges, or
- (3) transfer the supertankers contents to a nearby major POL terminal from which the OGTBs would shuttle the POL when needed to the outports for discharge in a similar manner as in (2) above.

In all three cases little or no shoreside storage capacity is needed at the contingency area. Storage is provided by the supertanker, the barges, or nearby major terminal, respectively. Certainly, there is the alternative of not using supertankers at all. In this case handy-sized tankers and OGTBs would provide the whole transport movement from loading to discharging terminal. However, this method should be the most expensive since no economies of scale are utilized.

The decision of which of the above strategies to use will primarily depend on the availability and cost of supertankers, tank OGTBs, and portable discharge facilities. There are relatively few U.S. flag supertankers; however, many are currently readily available for purchase due to the worldwide glut in supertanker tonnage. There are also many tank OGTBs, many of push-tow capability, available in the spot or term charter market. As for portable discharge facilities, the ones currently available in the military system can only handle vessels of less than 25,000 DWT with use of a multi-leg mooring system. Products can be pumped ashore via 6" lines to portable rubber bladder tanks of 10,000-50,000 Bbl capacity.

Expanded Coastal and Shuttle Operations

In most contingencies, there will be the requirement for a considerable amount of coastwise cargo movement. In this case, the discussion given previously for peacetime operations applies.

Additionally, drop-and-swap operation would most likely be appropriate due to the probable need for many small OGTBs to operate through undeveloped ports that only allow cargo to be Although drop-and-swap operation with its discharged slowly. increased barge requirements would not be necessary if port handling and storage facilities were better developed at the contingency ports, investment in such facilities for a short term contingency operation would not usually be warranted. The overall system costs would be less by using (1) low throughput rate, inexpensive, temporary port facilities to handle the cargo, (2) barges for offshore storage until the cargo can be discharged, and (3 tugs only to drop-and-swap barges. It should be remembered that the barges could be returned to commercial operation or reserve fleet after the contingency while expensive port facilities may not be utilized at all after operations are completed.

3.1.3 Mobilization Operations

During a mobilization, the amount of dry and liquid cargo to be moved will be enormously more than during a contingency operation. As with contingency operations, much of the cargo will have to be delivered through relatively primitive shallow draft ports and/or beaches. Thus, the discussion in the previous subsection for such type operations apply for mobilizations as well. But, in the case of a mobilization, the cargo transport requirements cannot be only met with the use of the MSC controlled fleet and the ships available from the U.S. merchant marine. Additional assets will have to be obtained from allied countries and/or the reserve fleet. However, as our aging reserve fleet (most cargo ships are 35 years old) becomes smaller and as allies become more independent, such assets may become insufficient to fulfill the logistical demands generated by a mobilization. In this case new construction will be required. OGTBs should have a significant role in this new construction since they have several important advantages:

(1) rapid and extensive construction capability

(2) small crew operation

- (3) high utilization and throughput capacity through use of drop-and-swap operation
- (4) less vulnerability and other military advantages.

Each of these advantages are discussed separately in the following subsections.

Rapid and Extensive Construction Capability

As mentioned previously, OGTBs can be delivered more rapidly than ships of equivalent size and speed. This is because the propulsion and cargo components can be constructed concurrently in specialized tug and barge yards. Of course, during a mobilization shipyards could be organized to build vessels in an assembly line process where ship modules could be built by specialized construction groups. This would reduce the advantage that the specialized yards would have over the general purpose shipyards.

But, there are a limited number of general purpose shipyards, many of which will be occupied with Naval and major ship construction during a mobilization. In this case the tug and barge yards will have to take up much of the burden for transport vessel construction.

Fortunately, there are many tug yards currently in operation that could take up such a burden. (11) They are currently building the high horsepower tugboats needed for the offshore oil and coastal bulk cargo transport industries. There would no difficulty for these yards to build several hundred tug components of OGTBs annually, assuming that the propulsion machinery were available.

The situation is not so good with respect to barge yards. Although there are many barge yards capable of building small shuttle-type barges of up to 300 feet in length, there are few yards such as FMC and Galveston Shipyard that can build larger ones useful for long distance and/or large capacity movements. The biggest tank and RO/RO barges have even been built in shipyards. (12) Although during a mobilization there would be some shipyard ways too small to build large mobilization and Navy

(11) To get an indication of the number of tug yards currently building large tugs, just examine the builders column of Appendix C for tugs built in the last few years.

(12) To get an indication of the number of bargeyards and shipyards building large barges, just examine the builders column of Appendices A and B for barges built in the last few years.

ships, there would probably be an incufficient number of barge building facilties for the larger barges--certainly an insufficient number to match the tug output. In this case new barge yards would have to be established.

It should be remembered, as mentioned in Section 1.3, several of the OGTB systems could be rather quickly converted into much more capable systems, i.e., trans-ocean push-tow capable, via the installation of more sophisticated linkages. Thus, some of the barge yard capacity should be reserved for such conversion operations. This puts even more pressure on the few barge yards able to drydock large barges and provides more incentive for the construction of new barge yards.

Fortunately, barge construction is much less complicated than ship construction due to barges having simple hull lines and little outfit machinery. Therefore, setting up barge yards would be much easier than shipyards since the only major capital equipment needed would be building ways and automated steel plate handling facilities.

Given that several new barge yards would be needed during a mobilization to match tug yard output, a study of the proper location and configuration of such yards would be useful to speed up their establishment. Their output in conjunction with that provided by existing tug and barge yards could provide a substantial number of OGTBs for the type of cargo transport operations described previously.

Small Crews

As mentioned in Chapter 1 and its Annex A, OGTBs currently require much smaller crews than ships of equivalent size and speed. It was also mentioned that these differences were mainly caused by artificial forces, that of regulation and of union pressures. Therefore, in a mobilization it would be expected that new ships and OGTBs of equivalent size, speed, automation, and mission would be manned equally due to the exigencies of the mobilization action.

However, OGTBs do provide manning savings in those trades in which drop-and-swap operation is feasible. In these cases, the propulsion unit and its crew is utilized more efficiently so that fewer tugs and men are required to move the same amount of cargo.

Another crew saving may be achieved by converting some old ships to barges, replacing their propulsion machinery by tugs with much smaller manning. (13) This would certainly be feasible in ships with enginerooms aft so that area could be converted into a pushing notch for the tug. Additionally, the crew that would normally be onboard for cargo operations could be stationed at the ports so that they perform this specialized task on a continual basis.

Drop-and Swap Operations

During a mobilization large amounts of cargo will have to be transported via many vessels through ports that will usually have draft restrictions and long discharge times. As seen in Section 2.2.5, this type of situation is ideal for OGTB operation in the drop-and-swap mode. This method of operation is most efficient since it uses the tugs mainly for propulsion and the barges for storage and transport. This results in OGTBs providing more transport capacity at less cost and with fewer men than the equivalent number of ships of the same size and speed--saving these scarce resources for other purposes.

Vulnerability and Other Military Considerations

As mentioned in Sections 1.1 and 1.3, all OGTBs have several military advantages over ships that result from their separability. The primary advantage is that the crew is less vulnerable to military action.

While at sea, it will usually be the cargo component that will be subject to damage due to its large size and draft. If this is the case, then the tug crew can separate from the barge, using the tug as a lifeboat. Certainly, if the tug is damaged instead, the tug crew could abandon it and drift about in the barge until rescued.

While in port, the tug does not have to remain with the barge if it is dropped off near a hostile area. The tug can either leave the danger area with an empty barge or can just await completion of cargo operations in a safer area.

It may be thought that OGTB's slow speed, especially the very slow speed of pull-towed systems, would make them quite vulnerable to submarine attack. This is quite true, but they should not be much more vulnerable than the faster transport ships since neither can nowadays outrun the new attack submarines. These submarines could easily catch up with 20 or 25 knot convoys. On the other hand, sailing many small OGTBs independently might lesson their vulnerability since their dispersion would make their

(13) For example a T-2 crew of 43 could be replaced by a 11 or 16 man tug crew.

detection more difficult. So, OGTBs might not be any more vulnerable than ships overall.

3.2 OGTBs for Fleet Support Operations

The Navy's task forces require logistical and service support in order to continue their operations away from established bases. Logistical support of stores, ammunition, and POL is usually provided on station via replenishment-at-sea operations from multi-product fleet support ships. These ships obtain their products from single-product ships that shuttle their supplies from advanced bases. Service support such as for ship repair and troop hospitalization are usually provided by ships located at advanced bases. Both of these support functions can be improved with the use of OGTBs as explained in the following two subsections.

3.2.1 OGTBs for Fleet Support Logistics

In peacetime the Navy's task forces are on a reduced operating schedule which does not require them to be away from major logistic support bases for long periods of time. Thus, their replenishment needs can be met by the Navy's current fleet of multi-product station ships (AOE's and AOR's) and single-product shuttle/station ships (AO's, T-AO's, AE's, and AFS's).

However, in a contingency or mobilization action, task forces most likely will have to operate continuously away from their support bases. In this case the fleet will have to be replenished via the multi-product station ships which will receive their products from the single-product ships that shuttle their cargoes from the nearest logistical support base. In this case the number of station ships required depends on the number size of the task forces. The number of shuttle ships and required depends on these factors as well as the distance the task forces operates from the support bases. (14) It is apparent that if the military or political situation prevents the use of support bases near the task force operating area, then the shuttle pipeline may require a substantial number of shuttle ships--probably many more than is currently in our inventory of such ships.

There are three possible remedies for this shortfall of shuttle vessels:

(1) build more shuttle vessels,

(14) If it is assumed that the loading/discharging time of a shuttle-ship is short compared to its travel time, then the number of ships required will be approximately proportional to the shuttle distance, i.e., to double the shuttle distance would double the required number of shuttle ships.

(2) convert some of the MSC tankers into shuttle vessels, or

(3) use a fleet of OGTBs to provide advanced base support and shuttle service.

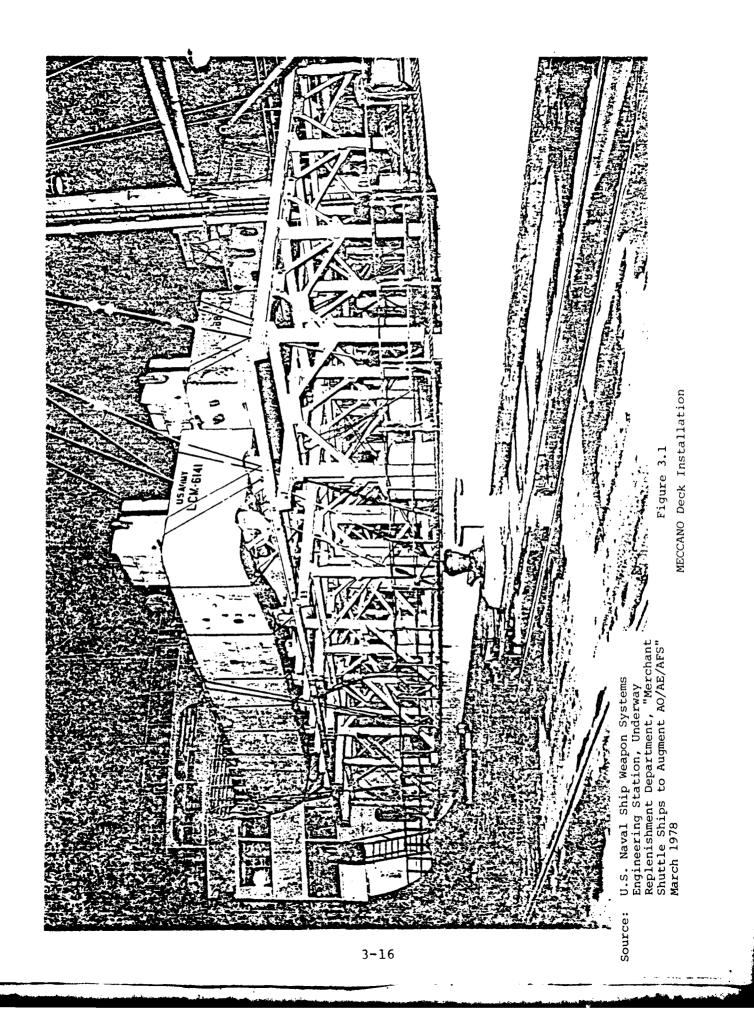
The first alternative of building more shuttle vessels would certainly solve the problem, but it would be very expensive. Additionally, these vessels would only be required during the appropriate contingency or mobilization operations. They would be very expensive to maintain during peacetime when they are practically never used.

The second alternative of converting some tank ships to shuttle operation does have some potential. As demonstrated in the study "Merchant Shuttle Ships to Augment AO/AE/AFS" prepared by the Underway Replenishment Department of the Naval Ship Weapon Systems Engineering Station in March 1978, any tankship can be converted rather quickly and inexpensively for shuttle operation with the installation of some sliding pad-eyes and a modern version of the "Meccano" deck over its pipe deck. This "Meccano" deck is a "erector set" type platform that allows containers full of stores and ammunition to be loaded onto the tankers at the advanced bases. (See Figure 3.1 for a drawing of such an installation.) As the tanker proceeds on its shuttle to the station ships, forklifts will unstuff pallets of cargo from the containers. Then, when the ship reaches the station ships, it will simultaneously transfer palletized cargo via its sliding pad-eyes and its POL via its fuel rigs.

The problem with the above solution is that there are only limited number of tankers available for conversion to shuttle a ships. The best candidates would be the USNS tankers but these fully utilized during peacetime for are already vessels point-to-point POL movements. If they were pulled away for shuttle operations, they would have to be replaced by small commercial tarkers. This might be possible for a small contingency, but it is certain that a large contingency or mobilization operation would demand that these tankers be used for point-to-point POL movements to support ground and air troop operations. Thus, it is probable that USNS tankers capable of shuttle operations would be unavailable for such a mission during any large scale operation. Fortunately, OGTBs may provide a solution to this problem.

OGTBs may solve the shuttle ship problem because their separability allows their barges to be used as storage units as well as cargo transport units. That is, a group of barges may be gathered in a protected anchorage and loaded from supertankers and container ships. (15) The barges would store the POL below

(15) Self-sustaining container ships would be preferred in this



deck in tanks and the containers on deck. Then the barges would be shutcled by the tugs to the station ships as they are needed, those remaining providing temporary storage. On the way, the containers would be unstuffed by forklifts so that their contents could be transferred to shuttle ships via standard rigs. In this manner, the barges act as floating advanced bases located near the task forces and provide the interface between commercial ships and the shuttle tugs. This is in addition to their role as shuttle barges. Thus, these OGTBs establish advanced bases offshore where they are needed--close to the task forces and do not require the use of vessels committed to other missions. They perform this mission at less cost and with less manpower than the single-product shuttle ships because they require few tugs with low manning to handle many barges that have only shuttle capability.

The feasibility of the above appraoch, particularly the use of OGTBs as replacements for aging single-product shuttle vessels, was considered in great depth in CONSERVGRUONE'S STAYPOWER study (U.S. Navy (1977)), the abstract of which is included in Annex B to Chapter 1. In this study it was concluded that:

The true comparative advantage of the integrated tug-barge concept (over a fixed ship system) lies in its flexibility, i.e., the functional element (the barge) is not irrevocably married to the power drive element (the tug). This capability can result in:

Fewer tugs than barges required with concomitant reductions in acquisition, operating costs and manning levels.

Increased availability of individual elements. One element can be in a repair status (overhaul, RAV, etc.) while the other remains available for tasking. The same considerations would apply for major casualty to either element.

Increased overall survivability. Loss of one element due to hostile action or catastrophy would not necessarily result in loss of entire unit and crew.

The utilization of the integrated tug-barge in the shuttle ship role is considered feasible. There appears to be no technical restriction, including the attainment of 20 knot speed, to preclude such a role.

since they could discharge their containers directly orges. However, if they were not available, then some ton; orary container discharge facility would be required orgentiated base to provide the container transfer.

The nominal integrated tug-barge shuttle unit developed upon the basis of stated assumptions and study guidance, shows clear advantage over current and projected shuttle ships in primary mission accomplishment, i.e., station ship support and pipeline ship interface compatibility and cost. For secondary missions, i.e., station ship backup and dispersed combatant support, the nominal integrated tug-barge shuttle unit is at a distinct disadvantage pridelivery marilv due to limited capability. The disadvantages such as decreased maintainability at sea, minimum communications capability, etc. are all basically functions of the mission oriented element (barge) design and manning levels. Every disadvantage could be reduced or eliminated by increased manning levels and/or equipment installation which would also serve to decrease the significant cost advantage generated.

The integrated tug-barge has high potential for application to the limited mobile advance base concept.

The above study was thoroughly reviewed and its conclusions seem valid. OGTBs could very well be used as inexpensive replacements for the aging shuttle ships. However, as explained in the study, these OGTBs are really not as militarily versatile the AO's, AE's, and AFS's they replace. keviewing Table 3.1, as is seen that they are not really suitable as it direct replacements for single-product station ships even though they have limited capacity for resupplying combatants directly. Of course, with additional investment these systems can be made as capable as shuttle ships. In Tomassoni (1974) it was shown that an OGTB oiler could be obtained at about the same cost as the ship it replaces. So, overall, OGTBs seem a very reasonable alternative to new single-product ship construction.

As the study was completed a few years ago, it only considered the rigidly-linked OGTBs (Breit/Ingram and CATUG). It is recommended that at least the semi-rigid linked systems (ARTUBAR) also be considered. The military and economic advantages of this linkage type is provided in Chapter 1. To summarize, this type of linkage is less expensive and allows the tug to be used for other purposes as well. It does have some disadvantages--it has higher hydrodynamic resistance and it does allow some relative movement between the tug and barge. This movement may prevent cargo transfer rigs from being utilized onboard the tug so that this system might not be capable of transferring palletized cargo to combatants. Whether this is the case will be better seen after the new RO/RO systems have begun operation.

The study also requires some type of container discharge facility if non self-sustaining ships are utilized. There are no such facilities yet in our military inventories although their

Table 3.1

Risk Matrix

Nominal integrated tug-barge compared to individual current and projected shuttle ships (AO/T-AO/AE).

- + Better than
- 0 Equal to

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- 14 A 40 - 14

- Less than
- NA Not applicable

	<u>A0-177</u>	<u>T-AO 143</u>	AE
UNREP Capability			
Multi-Product Capacity	+	+	+
Single Product Capacity	+	0	-
Task Forc. Integration	~		
Communications	-	-	
Self-Defense	0	0	0
Interface Capability			
Station Ship - Multi-Pro	duct +	+	+
- Single Pr	oduct 0	0	0
Combatant - Multi-Pro	duct +	+	+
- Single Pr	oduct -	-	-
Stock Point - Liquid	0	0	NA
- Dry	NA	NA	+
Pipeline - Liquid (S	ea) -	-	NA
- Liquid (I	inport) 0	0	NA
Redundancy	-	-	
<u>Vulnerability</u> - Speed	0	0	0
- Size	-	0	-
- Self Defe	ense O	0	0
- DC	0	0	0
Adaptability			
Revised Product Demand	+	+	+
Other Tasks	+	+	· +
<u> Maintainability</u> - Sea	-	-	-
- Inport	+	+	+
Ava ilability	+	+	+
Manning	+	+	+
Cost	+	+	+

Source: U.S. Navy (1977)

need has been recognized for some time for the discharge of these ships in military cargo transport operations. This is another potential application for these facilities and their procurement might be enhanced if shuttle OGTBs are constructed.

It should be mentioned that even if the STAYPOWER concept with shuttle barges is not funded, there are some aspects which might still be utilized with little cost. For example, an advanced base could be established just with the use of standard tank and deck barges chartered from commercial operators. Containerships could unload containers onto and pickup empties off of deck barges and supertankers could offload onto the tank barges. Then the contents of the containers from the deck barges and the POL from the tank barges could be transferred to shuttle ships, either of the single-product type or of the converted tanker type, at the advanced base. This concept allows a shortened shuttle pipeline utilizing currently available commercial assets and so extends the capabilties of the current shuttle vessels. However, it does not provide any new or replacement shuttle ship capacity.

In any case, it should be obvious that OGTBs have several potential applications in fleet support operations. The question is whether new militarily capable shuttle barges should be constructed with the shuttle tugs or whether only current OGTB assets should be utilized. The former is more costly but provides more certain capabilities. Some suggestions for obtaining the required military assets are provided in the next chapter.

3.2.2 OGTBs for Fleet Support Service

Any Navy task force that is deployed for any length of time will require various services to be provided from a nearby advanced base. Such services might include tender repair, medical hospital support, as well as fleet tug support. Many of these services can be less expensively provided through the use of OGTBs as explained below.

Tenders and Hospital Ships

Ships such as tenders and hospital ships seem ideally suited for replacement with OGTBs. Since they rarely move, they do not require the use of a propulsion unit very often. Instead, they could be easily push or pull-towed onto station and left there to operate on their own until a change of station is required.

Several detailed evaluations of just such a type of operation have been completed. Abstracts of two studies, Hawkins (1973) and Tomassoni (1974), have been included in Annex B to Chapter 1. The studies conclude that using OGTBs for such service ship missions would be feasible and cost effective.

Recently due to a requirement in Senate Report No. 95-326 on the FY 1979 Military Appropriation Authonization Bill, the Navy is conducting two new internal studies (one being Keenan (1979)) to evaluate the eventual replacement of destroyer and submarine tenders with OGTBs. Preliminary indications are that these reports will support such a concept.

Fleet Tugs

MSC Fleet Tugs have several missions including salvage, ship rescue, firefighting, pollution cleanup, etc. These and other missions would not prevent these small vessels from also being used as the propulsion component of a push-towed OGTB. This would be particulary true for an OGTB with an ARTUBAR semi-rigid linkage which only requires the installation of the retractable pins and associated machinery onto the fleet tug.

Thus, MSC's fleet of Fleet Tugs can be considered as a potential reserve fleet of tug components that could be used with appropriate barges in contingency/mobilization cargo transport or Naval Fleet Auxiliary missions. This is in addition to their use as the propulsion unit of the fleet service barges described in the previous section. This assumes that linkage gear is retrofitted onto existing assets and included on new vessels. It should be mentioned that current Fleet Tugs without any modification could pull-tow barges, but their low horsepower would result in very slow speeds of advance.

Certainly, the reverse of the above is also true. The tug component of any OGTB could be utilized in Fleet Tug missions with only the addition of specialized gear. This is probably the major alternate mission of the tug component of OGTBs. Therefore, any military OGTB specially designed for cargo transport and fleet support missions should also have its tug desiged to perform some Fleet Tug missions.

3.3 Special Projects (Scientific Operations)

MSC has the mission of operating vessels in scientific or other special projects for sponsors in any defense or other governmental agency. Currently, either converted reserve fleet or newly constructed ships are used in the projects. But, there is no reason why OGTBs could not be used instead. They can be built of sufficient size and horsepower to handle any of the scientific operations. Additionally, the use of OGTBs in these projects could be advantageous due to the ability of the functional unit containing the sponsors' men and equipment being able to separate from the MSC manned propulsion unit.

One advantage resulting from such separability is that the propulsion unit can be used for other operations including fleet support or cargo transport upon completion of the project. New/revised projects only require the construction/conversion of a barge to provide the capabilities desired by the new sponsor. Ships, on the other hand, must have their propulsion unit inactivated every time they are put out of commission. This is an expensive and wasteful routine, particularly for range-tracking and other such ships that come in and out of service rather frequently.

Another advantage of using OGTBs in special projects or scientific operations is that the propulsion unit could be readily made available for contingency and mobilization operations. In such operations it would be expected that fleet support or cargo transport missions would have higher priority than the special project missions. Thus, the scientific operations fleet could be considered as an immediate reserve inventory of propulsion units for other OGTB missions.

The above discussion points out an important requirement for OGTBs used in military operations if such interchangeability of missions is to be possible. The OGTBs used for different missions need to have standardized linkages. Otherwise, interchangeability will be impossible. Means of obtaining a fleet with this capability will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

NATIONAL DEFENSE FEATURES APPLICABLE TO OGTB'S

In Chapter 3 commercial OGTBs were shown to have many military applications as Navy logistic and fleet support vessels. To facilitate this conversion from commercial to military use, it would be prudent to have certain special equipments and design features installed on board the OGTBs. As explained in the next section, these National Defense Features (NDFs) can be required to be installed only on OGTBs constructed with subsidy funds. This is unfortunate since very few OGTBs have been built with such funds. (1) Thus, most of the OGTBs previously constructed do not have the NDFs currently considered useful (specified in Section 4.2) or those that would give them even more military potential (specified in Section 4.3). However, until the law is changed, it is not expected that this situation will change.

4.1 Current NDF Legal Structure

National Defense Features (NDFs) are changes in commercial ship designs suggested by the Secretary of the Navy to provide ships capable of serving as Naval/military auxiliaries in time of war or national emergency and to provide for the maximum survivability of ships that may be used by the government in nonmilitary wartime roles. Such changes are required to be installed on vessels constructed with the use of Construction Differential Subsidy (CDS) funds. These funds, provided under the provisions of Title V of the Merchant Marine Act of 1936, are used to induce American shipowners to construct these foreign trading vessels in U.S. shipyards by paying the difference in costs between having a ship constructed in a foreign shipyard and having the same ship constructed in a U.S. shipyard. If the NDFs are of no commercial value to the shipowners, then their costs will also be borne by the government through additional expenditures of Title V funds. On the other hand, if the shipowner makes use of the NDFs then he must pay back a portion of their cost.

(1) As of 30 June 1979 only five OGTBs were being built with CDS funds, the two CCT RO/RO and the three Occidental Oil tank OGTBs.

The normal procedure for deciding which NDFs to install is as follows. First, the Maritime Administration (MARAD) forwards the conceptual or preliminary designs received from the applicants for CDS to the Secretary of the Navy (SECNAV) for the comment. These conceptual and preliminary designs are referred the Chief of Naval Operations (CNO) for appropriate action. to The objective of this early submittal is to embody the NDF concepts at the earliest practical stage prior to the submission of firm plans and specifications. MARAD will later forward these firm plans and specifications of proposed new construction merchant ships to SECNAV for approval. Again they will be forwarded to CNO who will forward them to the Chief of Naval Material (CNM) who will collaborate with COMSC and Department of Defense common user services when appropriate. CNM, following the guidance of OPNAVINST 4700.13C presented in the following section, will in coordination with MARAD review these designs early enough to make recomme lations for meaningful NDFs before plans are finalized. These recommendations are then forwarded through the chain of command for the Secretary of Navy's signature. Then, MARAD will take action to have these NDFs included as part of the ship's building plans.

4.2 Current NDF Requirements

Current guidance specifying which NDFs are appropriate for various types of vessels is promulgated in the Chief of Naval Operation's OPNAV INSTRUCTION 4700.13c of 6 December 1978. The enclosure to this intruction provides general NDF considerations, basic NDF standards, and specific NDF criteria applicable to new ship construction. In the following subsection excerpts of this instruction specifically pertaining to OGTBs are provided.

4.2.1 National Defense Feature Considerations

The enclosure to the instruction first summarizes the rationale for NDFs and what generally must be considered in their selection. The text is as follows:

1. NATIONAL DEFENSE FEATURES CONSIDERATIONS

a. The Navy's objective regarding the installation of National Defense Features (NDFs) in merchant ships is to have ships available to meet the sealift requirements of the Department of Defense and that are suitable for economical and speedy conversion to naval or military auxiliaries or would otherwise be useful to the U.S. Government in time of war or national emergency. Under this objective, ship designs having potential use as naval or military auxiliaries could carry out certain military support functions such as: Amphibious Force Resupply; Logistics over the Shore (LOTS); Underway replenishment of wet or dry cargo; Military Personnel Transport; Container Offloading; and Heavy Lift Transport.

b. Ships required for essential economic support of the nation in time of war or national emergency would not be expected to participate in the direct military support role. Such operations would include transport of fuel, raw materials, equipment and supplies on ocean or intercoastal routes supporting commerce. Ships dedicated to these operations should be designed for maximum survivability.

c. The Navy, in cooperation with the Maritime Administration, will conduct design reviews of new construction and conversion of merchant ships to establish national defense feature goals, examine cost and feasibility of desired NDF installations, and assess the impact of such installations on the commercial viability of the ships. Each ship design will be reviewed on its own merit and in light of its probable use to the government. After support missions or functions suitable for the designs have been selected, NDFs which would best support those functions will be recommended for installation. Early consideration of proposed new merchant ship designs will provide for an efficient design review and will facilitate incorporation of the NDFs and subsequent hardware installation. The Navy, in cooperation with the Maritime Administration, is prepared to collaborate with prospective ship owners, designers, and shipbuilders at the earliest opportunity to address NDF requirements and, where needed, provide specific interpretation of the guidance contained herein.

d. Studies undertaken should take into consideration Maritime Administration advice regarding the commercial use of the proposed ships and insure that any feature suggested for incorporation in peacetime does not unduly compromise the competitive position of the operators in commercial trade. The National Defense Features listed herein should as of the date of this minstruction, insofar as basic features are concerned, be considered all-inclusive. However, future commercial ship design concepts and changing national defense requirements may dictate the need for additional or revised National Defense Features.

4.2.2 Basic NDF Standards

The enclosure to the intruction then goes on to specify basic NDF standards applicable to all vessels, including OGTBs. Excerpts of the enclosure applicable to deck, tank, or RO/RO OGTBs are included since these are the only types of OGTBs currently in operation that would have military usefulness.

BASIC NDF STANDARDS. 2. Compartmentation shall be provided that will, as a minimum, ensure the ship's survival in the event of flooding of any single compartment. scantlings, fire preventive and firefighting Hull equipment, firepump capacities, boats, and life saving equipments shall meet or exceed the minimum requirements of MARAD, the American Bureau of Shipping, and the U.S. Coast PANAMAX designs (those ships capable of transiting Guard. the Panama Canal) and ship designs with full load draft less than 33 feet are more desirable than larger ships due greater to flexibility of operations, and port accessibility.

2.1 SPEED

c. The speed of integrated tug barge units and self propelled barges will be judged on their individual merit.

2.2 SHOCK RESISTANCE. Resistance to damage by shock stresses shall be provided by the general exclusion of gray cast iron in equipment and systems which affect the survival capability of the vessel. In lieu of gray cast iron more shock resistant materials will be used.

2.3 ELECTRICAL POWER. The generating plant capacity shall be increased, where necessary, or space and weight reservation shall be made for the future installation of additional generating units and/or power distribution units for the ship design under consideration. In all cases, with due consideration to ship type and employment potential by the Department of Defense, a reasonable margin of the proposed capacity either should be available or be sought to meet such contingencies as future expansion of the power system for reefer containers, habitability modules, self defense systems, and to otherwise facilitate conversion to naval auxiliaries.

2.4 DISTILLING CAPACITY

a. Distillation and feed/potable tankage capacity shall be provided based on naval criteria, where appropriate, sufficient to facilitate the possible conversion of proposed ships to naval auxiliaries. Provision shall be made for embarked military personnel, and equipment which requires fresh water washdown such as operational helicopters and vehicles.

b. Embarked military personnel require 25 gallons per man per day (g/m/d) distilling capacity and 40 g/m stowage capacity. Helicopters performing shipboard operations require 100 gallons per day for washdown.

2.5 PROPULSION SYSTEMS. Gas turbine, diesel, steam and nuclear power propulsion plants are all considered appropriate for merchant ships. The propulsion system is normally dictated by economic considerations of the trade in which the ship will be employed in peacetime. The capability to burn Navy standard fuel is considered advantageous for emergency use.

2.6 NUCLEAR, BIOLOGICAL AND CHEMICAL (NBC) WASHDOWN SYSTEM. Water washdown systems shall be provided to enhance the passive defense of merchant ships against NBC attack. The washdown system shall consist of clips and brackets for attaching standard fire hose nozzles in coun-

termeasure washdown position for each weather deck fire station. The clips and brackets shall be located so that the greatest spray coverage is obtained for lifeboats, weather decks, housetops and bulkhead areas. Provide for installation of radiological monitoring equipment.

2.7 EMBARKED MILITARY PERSONNEL. Military personnel will not accompany military cargo under normal cirmumstances. However, consideration shall be given to providing austere living facilities for those personnel such as drivers/technicians who may accompany military equipment and vehicles under certain circumstances on some ship types such as RO/ROS. When sizing hotel loads such as steam, fresh water and electrical, the needs of 50 additional personnel should be provided for on suitable ships.

2.8 COMMUNICATIONS

a. In addition to FCC requirements, ships should be equipped with at least: (a) one HF transmitter (2-30 MHz) of 1000 watts power output capable of A1, A3A, A3H, A3J and F1 modes of emission and having synthesized frequency control and antenna tuning capability; and (b) two HF (2-30 MHz) synthesized receivers. Installation of Digital Selective Calling and Simplex Teletype Over Radio (SELCAL/SITOR) shall be considered. A space reservation of 180 cu. ft. shall be provided for the future installation of satellite communications equipment; provision should be made for reelectrical serve power and cooling capacity. The strengthening of masts for additional antenna installations shall be considered.

b. Provision for future installation of ship to ship communications and night lighting at underway replenishment stations will be considered for ships capable of fleet resupply.

2.9 CARGO GEAR/CARGO OPERATIONS

b. Provision should be made for additional deck strength and lashing/tie down systems for military cargo and vehicles as required.

c. Bollards, cleats, etc., should be provided on deck at the deck edge to enable craft and barges to tie up alongside in open stream discharge.

d. Lighting should be provided to illuminate the ship's cells, decks and access ways.

It should be mentioned that with respect to speed, the instruction does specify that ships having potential use as naval/military auxiliaries should have a minimum sustained, speed of 20 knots. 25 knots is preferred for cargo vessels and a speed of 16 knots is considered acceptable for tankers, provided that they can maintain a speed of 15 knots while pumping two products at a minimum of 3000 g.p.m. each with ensured separation. The Occidental Oil OGTBs will practically fulfill these requirements but the CCT RO/RO's with their 15-16 knots speeds are not as fast as normally desired for RO/RO ships.

As for the other basic NDF standards, none should require significant changes to the designs of "mechanically-linked" OGTBs. Due to its size the tug component has little room to accommodate additional embarked personnel unless they were housed in self-sustaining modules. These NDF standards might require considerable upgrading of the "loosely-linked" and other Coast Guard uninspected tugs. How much upgrading would be required is not known since none of these tugs has ever been built with CDS funds and so has never undergone a CDS NDF review.

4.2.3 Specific NDF Criteria

The criteria for determining the specific NDFs to be installed on OGTBs are as follows:

3.9 INTEGRATED TUG BARGE, SELF PROPELLED BARGES AND MIS-CELLANEOUS VESSELS. Tug/barge designs suitable for ocean service have potential for various uses in time of emergency. Due to the numerous configurations anticipated in this type vessel, specific mission areas will not be addressed. Consideration should be given to adequate deck strength, tie down, and stowage area for military vehicles, mobile cranes and outsize cargo. An integrated tug-barge combination shall be examined according to the missions and National Defense Feature requirements of the corresponding Thus, a RO/RO barge shall meet the same ship type. standards as a RO/RO ship; a product barge shall meet those of an equivalent sized tanker, etc.

This section essentially says that the specific NDF requirments for OGTBs should be the same as a ship of similar type. As RO/RO and tank OGTBs are the types that would normally be built with CDS funds, the specific NDF criteria for these types of barges as specified in the instruction are provided in the next subsections.

Specific NDF Criteria for RO/EO and Combination OGTBs/Ships

3.4~RO/RO AND COMBINATION SHIPS have mission potential for:

a. 1.3a. Port to port delivery.

b. 1.3b. Port to point delivery of wheeled or tracked vehicles.

c. 1.3c. Port to port delivery of outsize cargo.

d. 1.3e. Port to point delivery of containerized cargo.

e. 1.3f. Fleet Resupply.

f. The actual installation will include ramps of adequate design to allow onloading and offloading of military tanks (60 long tons) with the ship at anchor in the open stream. Deck areas should be as clear as possible to enable helicopter operations and military (portable) adaptations for open stream discharge.

g. The installation shall also include all necessary foundations, power requirements and appropriate accessibility to allow the future installation of two to four sliding pad-eyes on the starboard side to accommodate replenishing to Navy auxiliary ships. Consideration should be given to the installation of one thirty (30) long ton crane with 30 foot outreach. Access doors, sideports and ramps shall have a minimum clear headroom of 15 feet as should at least 30% of the cargo decks.

h. RO/ROs, by the nature of their construction, should have broad deck areas that lend themselves to utilization as a helicopter carrier/helicopter fly-off delivery ship. Thus, it is desirable, where feasible, that fuel piping and deck modifications be considered to provide helicopter transport and fly-off capabilities.

Specific NDF Criteria for Tank OGTBs/Ships (<100,000 DWT)

3.7 TANKERS have mission potential for:

- a. 1.3h. Port to port delivery of POL.
- b. 1.3i. Port to point delivery of POL.
- c. 1.3j. Fleet re-supply or consolidation of POL.

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d. 1.3k. Port to port opportune lifts of outsize military cargo.

e. 1.31. Serve as deployable platform for 2 large capacity mobile cranes for the purpose of unloading nonself-sustaining containerships; i.e., a Temporary Container Discharge Facility (TCDF) and heavy/outsize cargo lift transporter.

f. For military purposes, tankers of less than 40,000 DWT are generally more suitable than tankers in excess of 40,000 DWT. Tankers in excess of 40,000 DWT are more susceptible to certain influence mines with coarse settings, and they lack the maneuverability and versatility provided by equal capacity in several smaller ships. Tankers in excess of 40,000 DWT do have value in moving large quantities of fuel between ports which can accommodate them, consolidation of petroleum products to a naval replenishment ship, and in use as floating storage sites in low vulnerability areas.

3.7.1 TRANSPORT AND LOAD/DISCHARGE CONFIGURATION. The major bulk fuels used by DOD include JP-4, JP-5, Diesel Fuel Marine (DFM) and gasoline. Naval fleet support requires only DFM and JP-5. The following transport, load/discharge capabilities, and construction features should be considered.

Tankers of less than 40,000 DWT have high potenа. tial for use as naval auxiliaries; both for general POL transportation and operating with naval units at sea. They must have coated tanks and be capable of transporting at least four grades of product with positive separation. Tankers shall have 10 ton lift capability to bring aboard terminal sea hoses. Provision is to be made for two (2) refueling at sea stations, both port and starboard. highline transfer capability, and future possible installation of fueling at sea sending rigs and probable installation of astern fueling rigs. All such items to be in accordance with Military Sealift Command standards. Each refueling station shall be capable of transferring product at a minimum of 3000 GPM while maintaining a speed of 15 knots. Consideration shall be given for stations to receive double hose rigs (probe/conventional combination) for naval units.

b. Tankers larger than 40,000 DWT, but less than 100,000 DWT, shall be as above with the exception that complete cargo tank coating shall be considered on a case-by-case basis, and the tanker must be capable of transporting at least two grades of product. c. Tankers by the nature of their construction have broad deck areas that lend themselves to the transport of outsize military cargo on deck. Thus, it is considered desirable that, where feasible, piping and deck fittings be arranged to provide maximum clear deck space for lifts of opportunity and, where possible, limited capability for helicopter operations.

4.3 Suggestions for an Additional NDF for OGTBs

The criteria specified in the last section for determining the appropriate NDFs for OGTBs certainly appear reasonable. They basically insist that OGTBs have the same NDFs as ships of the same class or function. However, as stated often before, OGTBs differ from ships due to their linkages that allow separability. Thus, some NDF ought to be considered with respect to OGTB linkages.

As discussed in Chapter 3, OGTBs may be utilized more efficiently during a contingency or mobilization if operated in a drop-and-swap mode. This method of operation requires that all the tugs and barges be interchangeable. For a pull-towed system this is no problem since a wire is used to provide the linkage. For push-towed systems, drop-and-swap operation requires that the notch or other linkage be especially designed for interchangeability. Unfortunately, at this time there is no NDF criterion providing for such interchangeability.

Therefore, it is suggested that a NDF criterion be developed to ensure interchangeability of tug and barge components. It could either be a requirement for a single standard linkage design or at least a requirement that all OGTBs with a given linkage design have interchangeable tugs and barges.

Presently, due to the lack of published research concerning the various linkages, no specific design is recommended here. However, some of the potential benefits of the various linkage types were included in Section 1.3. It is highly recommended that in depth research be conducted on the comparative performance of the several linkage designs. Some of the major objectives of such research should be:

- A comparison of the commercial performance of the various linkages including their cost, ability to operate in heavy weather, linkage drag, etc.
- (2) A comparision of the military performance of the various linkages including their vulnerability, ability to link/unlink in moderate seas, ability to conduct military missions such as replenishment at sea and beaching, etc.
- (3) A comparison of the mobilization potential of the various linkages including cost and ease of installing them on current and newly constructed tugs and barges to make them compatible with current OGTBs.

This research should also determine which linkage system would be appropriate for OGTBs operated by MSC during peacetime in cargo transport and fleet support missions as well as the linkage that might be used for reserve fleet OGTBs.

It should be realized that this whole discussion has been predicated on the assumption that OGTBs built under CDS should have some standard linkage to allow interchangeability. Unfortunately, few of the many OGTBs have been or are being built with such funds. This is because OGTBs are usually more appropriate for short distance shuttle or coastal trades primarily found in domestic commerce. According to the law such domestic trades are not eligible for CDS funds and so OGTBs built for them cannot be required to have standardized linkages. This is unfortunate, in a military point of view, since it prevents the interchangeability of most OGTBs that might be utilized in contingency operations. However, since the operators see technical and proprietary advantages in developing their incompatible linkage types, there is little that can be done to remedy the situation. Only if the government sponsored research proves one system so superior to the others or if the law is changed to provide economic incentives for linkage standardization on OGTBs used in domestic commerce will standard OGTB linkages become a reality. Otherwise, there will be insufficient economic motivation for the industry to standardize on its own.

CHAPTER 5

PROCUREMENT STRATEGIES FOR A

MSC OWNED/OPERATED OGTB CONTINGENCY FLEET

5.1 General Contingency Operation Considerations

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In any contingency operation the demand for ships to carry logistic material will expand dramatically. For example, MSC's Controlled Fleet expanded from 201 vessels on 1 July 1965 to 448 on 1 July 1966 to accommodate increased logistic vessels requirements in the Viet Nam area. In addition, other ships will be required to help support the stepped up activity of Navy task Part of this increased demand can be met through the forces. small Ready Reserve Force (RRF) and the Strategic Readiness Pro-However, for all but minor contingencies, the RRF (SRP). gram will be insufficient and only a limited number of the 540 ships (271 dry cargo and 269 liquid bulk) of the active privately owned Merchant Marine can be removed from commercial service via U.S. the SRP without irreparable harm to U.S. flag domestic and for-Besides, many of the modern, highly productive shipping. eign non-selfsustaining vessels, such as container ships and efficiently in contingency supertankers, cannot be used operations without the use of some special ship-to-shore discharge facility as discussed in Chapter 3. It is unlikely even with these facilities that these vessels will achieve any where near their commercial productivity in military operations. Therefore, in a major contingency operation, even all the vessels provided by the RRF and SRP may be insufficient to handle the contingency transport requirements.

The probable shortfall in ship transport capacity can eventually be met through increased shipyard construction of the appropriate types of ships. However, the leadtime for the delivery of such vessels is at least 12-18 months; so, for many contingency operations these vessels would be delivered far too late to be of any use.

The only other way to meet the shortfall would be by activating the National Defense Reserve Fleet (NDRF). However, today the NDRF consists of only 130 Victory ships and 21 other merchant vessels of various types in addition to about one hun-

dred Naval vessels. Almost all of the merchant ships are at least 35 years old. Even if these vessels were reliable, which is questionable due to the age of their deck and propulsion machinery, they still would not provide even half of the vessels used during the Viet Nam operations.

Given the above argument, it would seem that the transport requirements of a major contingency action like Viet Nam might not be met without either a major disruption to the commercial fleet or the investment of new additions to the NDRF. Neither policy is currently economically or politically viable. Certainly, having new vessels constructed for the NDRF would be infeasible at a time when even Navy warship construction is at its nadir.

The above discussion, typical of most evaluations of contingency transport capability, has completely ignored OGTBs. However, OGTBs may provide the transport capacity needed to eliminate or at least reduce the shortfall. When used in a shuttle/storage operation, they serve to reduce the port time of the large, fast ships and thereby increase these ships' productivity substantially. And, when used in a drop-and-swap mode, they make most efficient use of propulsion and cargo components so that fewer propulsion units and men can transport the same amount of cargo.

The question is, where can these tugs and barges be obtained? Part of the answer is given in Chapter 3 where the availability of commercial OGTBs was discussed for cargo transport missions. It was noted, though, that few current OGTBs, other than pull-towed systems, are capable of the more efficient drop-and-swap operation. Although some suggestions were given on how to convert some OGTBs to allow interchangeability of tugs and barges, it is apparent that the lack of linkage standardization has reduced the usefulness of commercial OGTBs for military drop-and-swap and shuttle operations. And, as discussed in Chapter 4, this situation is unlikely to change since few OGTBs could be required to have a NDF providing for standardized linkages.

There is only one way for the military to ensure the existence of a fleet of highly efficient push-towed OGTBs with interchangeable tugs and barges. That is by operating or owning such a fleet in peacetime which could be expanded during a contingency of with the addition of reserve tugs and barges. This is not such an outlandish idea since in Chapter 3 it was shown that all three of MSC's primary missions, cargo transport, Naval Fleet Auxiliary and scientific support operations, could be economically and efficiently performed by OGTBs.

It certainly would be possible for the new and replacement vessels added to MSC's fleet to be OGTBs with interchangeable linkages rather than single unit ships. Then, after a few years, the whole fleet would be made up of the more flexible OGTBs.

And, when mission requirements change, the tugs and barges could be utilized most efficiently to handle the new mission requirements. For example, during a contingency, tug units could be removed from scientific support barges and used to help handle the increased cargo transport requirements via drop-and-swap operation. The same could be done to help support increased Navy task force activity, the added tugs used to shuttle barges from a temporary advanced base.

Even with the increased capabilities achieved with drop-and-swap and shuttle operations, there still may be a need for more OGTB assets to fulfill all transport requirements. The additional tugs and barges could be obtained from a reserve fleet of such vessels. Fortunately, due to the separability of the tugs and barges, this reserve fleet can be effectively utilized during peacetime, thereby eliminating most economical and political arguments against its existence. How this may be done is explained in the subsections given below.

5.1.1 Reserve Tugs

There are at least two possible sources of tugs that could be available to augment MSC's peacetime OGTB fleet during contingency operations:

- (1) Navy Active and Reserve Fleet tugs, and
- (2) commercial tugs converted for military operation.

Navy Active and Reserve Fleet Tugs

One potential source of tug units for OGTBs would be from a . fleet of Navy Fleet Tugs manned with Navy Active Duty and Reserve personnel. These tugs could have standard linkage gear installed to allow them to mate with military barges used in contingency for cargo transport and/or fleet support. In operations peacetime, these tugs could perform several useful missions including salvage, firefighting, pollution control, offshore defense, etc. Those not needed for immediate requirements could be used as Naval Reserve training ships. The tugs would be ideal for such a function since they are simple to maintain, require few men, and would be relatively inexpensive to build and operate. Most of the super-powered commercial tugs have cost less than \$15 million to build and are manned with less than 16 A Navy tug even with double the manning ought not to cost men. more than twice its commercial equivalent when fully equipped with linkage and military gear. Therefore, a fleet of such Active Duty and Naval Reserve manned tugs would be an inexpensive means of providing a reserve force of OGTB tug components as well as an important new mission for the Naval Reserve.

Converted Commercial Tugs

There are several possible strategies that would ensure that at least some commercial tugs could be used to augment the Naval Reserve fleet of OGTB tugs. One simple one would be to require that all OGTBs built with CDS funds in the future have Navy standard linkages so that they could be used to mate with Navy barges. This would allow them to be used with barges especially tailored for military operations rather than their commercial barges that would be of questionable military value, i.e., dry bulk barges.

Another strategy would be to choose as the Navy standard linkage a design that could be easily retrofitted onto many of the commercial tugs currently in operation. A linkage such as ARTUBAR which could accommodate differences in the tugs' bow and barges' stern notch shape might be suitable for this purpose. In this ca.3, during a major contingency those tugs previously determined suitable for such a conversion would be retrofitted with linkage gear at one of the many tug yards. All this strategy requires are the identification and stockpiling of the proper linkage gear, identification of suitable tugs for conversion, and identification of the yards able to perform the conversion. With a minimal amount of planning and expense, a large number of commercial tugs could be made available as military OGTB components.

5.1.2 Reserve Barges

There are at least three possible sources of barges that could be available to augment MSC's peacetime OGTB fleet during contingency operations:

- (1) NDRF ships converted into barges,
- (2) prepositioned, preloaded warehouse/storage barge facilities, and
- (3) commercial barges converted for military operation.

NDRF Barges

As mentioned previously, the NDRF consists primarily of 35 year old Victory ships with deck and propulsion machinery of questionable reliability. However, most of these ships have sound hulls. Rather than trying to upgrade or replace their antiquated propulsion plants, it might be more feasible to convert these vessels into barges capable of moderate speed push-tow operation. Such a conversion would not be without cost since the propulsion machinery and deckhouse would have to removed and a notch incorporated into the stern. This cost could be reduced substantially if the machinery component were left intact, but this would somewhat reduce the vessel's volume and weight capacity. In either case, there are several advantages' to a ship-to-barge conversion strategy. After conversion no machinery would be inactive, since the propulsion tugs would be operating in a Naval Reserve fleet or as commercial tugs. Additionally, the barges would be considered reliable and immediately available reserve assets as long as their hulls remained sound. All that is needed to mobilize a barge would be to activate or install its deck machinery and then it could be mated with any available tug of the Naval Reserve Fleet or any commercial tug converted to military use.

Although this strategy may require substantial investment, it should be the least expensive way of extending the life of the NDRF and to ensure its ability to mobilize rapidly. It is therefore recommended that this approach be studied to determined its cost and feasibility.

Warehouse/Storage Barge Facilities

Another possible source of reserve barges could be in floating warehouse/storage/tank facilities. That is, much of the military's war reserve and inactive stocks could be prepositioned onboard barges which could be moored in protected anchorages or along quays at major supply centers. These barges, capable of mating with any Reserve tug, would be designed so as to be accessible for stock removal and rotation as well as quick discharge at contingency ports. Since these barges will require minimal machinery they should be very inexpensive to maintain. To reduce their maintenance cost even further they could be built of new materials such as prestressed concrete which do not require an anti-corrosion maintenance program. The weight penalties of such type of construction should not be important since most military cargo is volume rather than weight limiting.

Converted Commercial Barges

Commercial tank and deck barges could be used to augment the other reserve OGTB barges in the same manner as commercial tugs augment Naval Reserve tugs. That is, any new barge with potential military usefulness built with CDS funds could be required to have a linkage capable of mating with military OGTB tugs. In addition, the standard Navy linkage should also be designed to be easily retrofitted onto as many commercial barges as possible. In this way, a large number of commercial barges would be made available as military OGTB cargo components. These are just a few of the possible strategies for providing the assets needed to augment the peacetime fleet of OGTBs for contingency operations. Although none of these strategies is without cost, they do allow reserve OGTBs to be used for various peacetime missions. There should be sufficient applications to justify their procurement as part of a total Navy OGTB fleet strategy.

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APPENDIX A

OCEAN GOING BARGES GREATER THAN 2500 GROSS REGISTERED TONS

Explanation of Chart of Ocean Going Barges > 2500 GRT

Column

- 1 Barge name
- 2 Gross registered tonnage

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- 3 Length (feet)
- 4 Breadth
- 5 Depth
- 6 Draft

7 Service

TNK tank

FRT freight

- FCH Covered Hopper
- FDK Deck
- FDH Deck House
- FCO Covered
- FCN Container
- FVC Vehicle Carrier
- FBC Bulk Cargo
- FCF Car Float
- FHO Hopper
- FCC Cement Carrier
- COT Covered and Tank
- LCT Lighter
- ITN Independent Tank Carrier

GCA general cargo

- 8 Year constructed
- 9 Owner
- 10 Yard of construction
- 11 Port of Registry
- 12 Linkages
 - 1 1st Generation
 - 2 2nd Generation
 - 3 3rd Generation

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Ocean Going Barges > 2500 GRT

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Ocean Going Barges > 2500 GRT

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Ocean Coing Barges > 2500 GRT

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Ocean Going Barges > 2500 GRT

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APPENDIX B

OCEAN GOING TANK BARGES GREATER THAN 50,000 BARREL CAPACITY

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Explanation of Chart of Ocean Going Tank Barges > 50000 BBL

Column

1	Tank Barge Name
2	Gross registered tonnage
3	Hull Information
	Side Code
	*Single Side Skin
	0 Non water tight (independent tanks)
	W Double sides
	Bottom Code
	* Single bottom/skin
	P Partial double bottom
	F Full double bottom
	•
4	Year of construction
5	Length (feet)
6	Breadth
7	Draft
8	Operator/owner
9	Hull Type- Refers to tank barge hull type
	indicated on "Certificate of Inspection"

- ated on Certificate of
 - l Type I
 - 2 Type II
 - 3 Type III

If no hull type indicated on "Certificate of Inspection," Type III is assumed.

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Grade of Cargo - refers to highest product grade that may be carried as indicated on "Certificate of Inspection".

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Highest Grade Certified

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Subchapter Title "D" Grade A Grade B Grade C Grade D Grade E

Liquefied Petroleum	Gases	
Butane	i	LF
Propane	:	LF
Propylene		\mathbf{LF}

Subchapter Title "D/0" and "0/I"

Grade A	AX
Grade B	BX
Grade C	СХ
Grade D	DX
Grade E	EX
Grade 0 and other	XX
Liquefied Petroleum Gases	
Butadiene	\mathbf{LF}
Motor Fuel Anti-Knock Compounds	TL
Acids	
Hydorchloric	AH
Phosphoric	AP
Sulphuric	AS
Anhydrous Ammonia	NH
Caustic Soda	sc
Chlorine	, C T
Class B Poisons	BP
Phorphorous, Elemental	PH
Sulfur, Molten	MS

B-3

- 11 The total capacity is indicated by amount in:
 - B number of barrels
 - G number of gallons
 - T number of short tons
- 12 Yard of Construction
- 13 Port of Registry

14 Linkages

- 1 1st Generation
- 2 2nd Generation
- 3 3rd Generation

Ocean Going Tank Barges > 50000 BBL

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Ocean Soing Tank Barges > 50000 BBL

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Ocean Going Tank Burges > 50000 BBL

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APPENDIX C

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TUGS GREATER THAN 3000 HP

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Explanation for Chart of Tugs > 3000 HP

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Column

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1	Vessel name			
2	Vessel type			
	TG Tug			
	TS Tug/Supply			
	SU Supply			
	SL Salvage			
3	Year Built			
4	Length Overall x Draft (ft)			
5	Continuous horsepower			
6	Speed-Maximum without towing			
7	Gross registered tonnage			
	A < 200			
	200 < B < 300			
	c > 300			
8	Towing Certification			
	OTS - +Al Ocean Towing Service			
9	Operating Fleet/Owner			
10	Port of Registry			
11	Yard in which constructed			
12	Linkage Type			
	1 - 1st Generation			
	2 - 2nd Generation			
	3 - 3rd Generation			

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APPENDIX D

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DROP-AND-SWAP COMPUTER MODEL: FORMULATION AND ASSUMPTIONS

APPENDIX D

DROP-AND-SWAP COMPUTER MODEL: FORMULATION AND ASSUMPTIONS*

D.1 Model Formulation

The drop-and-swap computer model has been developed to make an economic comparison of the operation of push-towed ocean going tug-barge combinations in the drog-and-swap versus integral As shown in the model formulation summary in Figure D.1, modes. the model makes this comparison by determining for both modes the number of tugs and barges and the barge speed, size (DWT), and (block coefficient--Cb, length-breadth form ratio--L/B, breadth-draft ratio--B/T) that results in the minimum required freight rate for cargo transported on a port pair trade. (2) This is subject to the conditions that the system has sufficient ton-mile capacity to carry the annual cargo flows and sufficient number of terminal facilities at each port to handle the annual port throughput.

The objective function, the required freight rate (rfr), is equal to the system capital costs (tugs, barges, terminal and storage facilities) divided by a present value factor (3) plus system annual operating costs (fuel costs, crewing costs, storage and terminal costs, etc.) all divided by the annual cargo flows. As shown in Figure D.2, these capital and operating costs are nonlinear functions of the port pair trade parameters--port separation distance, terminal facility loading/discharging rates, and annual cargo flows--as well as the five continuous and three integral system variables--Barge DWT, Speed, Cb, L/B, B/T; Number of Tugs, Number of Barges--Port 1, and Number of Barges--Port 2.

*In this appendix computer program variables are enclosed in quotation marks. Their definition should be understood from context. If there is question about their meaning, detailed definitons are provided in Section D.5

(2) See Figure 2.1 and Section 2.2 for the definition of a port pair trade.

(3) The present value factor apportions the capital costs on an annual basis. It is a function of the capital's pre-tax discount rate or rate of return and the economic life of the system.

Objective Function:

Minimize (Required Freight Rate)

For a port pair trade defined by:

- (1) Port separation distance
- (2) Terminal facilities loading/discharging rates
- (3) Required annual cargo flows

Capacity Constraints:

	Ton-mile: (No. Tugs) x (Barge DWT) x (<u>No. Voyages</u>) > (Required Annual) (Cargo Flows)	
<	Terminal Facility: (No. Facilities per Port)x (Annual Thruput, per Facility) > Required Annual Cargo flows Through Port	•

Continuity Constraint:

(No. Barges) = (No.Tugs) +(No. Barges-Port 1) + (No. Barges-Port 2)

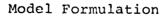
Parameter Boundary Constraints:

mindwt	ŕ	Barge DWT	٤	maxdwt
minspeed	٤	Tug-Barge Speed	٤	maxspeed
mincb	٤	Barge C _B	٤	maxcb
minlb	٤	Tug-Barge L/B	٤	maxlb
minbt	\$	Barge B/T	٤	maxbt

Integrality Conditions

NO.	Tugs]	
{NO.	Barges	-	port	1	<pre>}</pre>	integer
No.	Barges	-	Port	2	J	

Figure D.1



Capital Costs + Annual Operating Costs $\mathbf{P}' \mathbf{F}$ Required Freight Rate = Annual Cargo Flows Capital Costs = (No. Barges) x (Barge Cost) + (No. Tugs) x (Tug Cost) + (Terminal Costs) + (Storage costs) Barge Cost = $f\{Barge DUT, L/B, B/T, C_{R}\}$ = f{Installed Horse power (IP)} Tug Cost = f{Barge DWT, L/B, B/T, C_B, Tug-Barge Speed} IHP Terminal = fiTerminal Loading/Discharging Rates} Cost Storage = f{Barge DWT} Cost Annual Operating Costs = Fuel Costs + Terminal Costs +Storage Costs + M&R Costs +Crewing and Subsistence Costs. +Insurance Costs + Administrative Costs Fuel Costs = Seatime x (Sea Fuel Consumption Rates) +Port time x (Port Fuel Consumption Rate) =f(Port Separation Distance, Seatime Tug-Barge Speed Barge DWT Port Time =f (Terminal Facility L/D Rate Barge DWT, L/B, B/T Sea Fuel Consumption Rate=f Block Coefficient; Tug= Barge Speed Port Fuel Consumption Rate =f(Hotel Load) = constant Terminal Costs = f(Annual Cargo Flows) Storage Costs = f(Annual Cargo Flows) Maintenance and Repair Costs Supplies and Equipment Costs > = f(Barge DWT, Tug IHP) Insurance Costs Crew Wages and Benefits f(crew size) = constant Crew Subsistence Administrative Costs = constant

Figure D.2

Definition of Required Freight Rate

Bindo the last three veriables must be integral, this sets a the model's form a mixed-integer non-linear program. Proceeds of this type are not executive for solution by optimization techniques. If they can be solved at all, it is usually by some sophisticated specialized technique that transforms the model to one that is easier to solve but with many more variables. Rather than taking this approach. I decided to use the brute force method of exhaustive enumeration because it is the simplest to program and because it provides good results at reasonable cost when the ranges of the variables to be considered are chosen judiciously. With this approach, I calculated for each port pair trade and for both modes of operation the required freight rate for all possible combinations of the discretized values (4) of the five continuous system variables. Given a specific combination of these variables, the capacity and continuity constraints determine the values of the three integer variables.

Since I used discretized values for the continuous variables, the minimum required freight rate found will most likely not be the true minimum. However, since the objective function was found to very flat near the optimum, the rfr found will be close to the true minimum even if rather large increments for the variables are used. And, of course, a more accurate estimate of the true minimum rfr can be obtained by using smaller increments, although the cost will probably not warrant the additional accuracy achieved.

Prior to proceeding to a discussion of the computer model's logic and assumptions in the next section, mention should be made of the parametric ranges of the system variables for which the model will produce valid results. These ranges, which are governed by the valid ranges of the formulae used in the model, are provided in summary form in Table 2.4.

D.2 Summary of Program Logic

A summary of the logic of the drop-and-swap computer program is shown in flow chart form in Figure D.3. A brief discussion of the overall logic in this section will be followed by a detailed discussion of each step in the next section.

The program begins by asking the user to specify the port pair trades to be considered as well as the parametric ranges and increments of the five continuous system variables. It then asks

(4) To limit the number of combinations to a finite and reasonable number, it was necessary to discretize these continuous variables by dividing their parametric ranges into equally spaced increments. The number of increments can vary from two to fifteen depending on the sensitivity of objective function to changes in the variable.

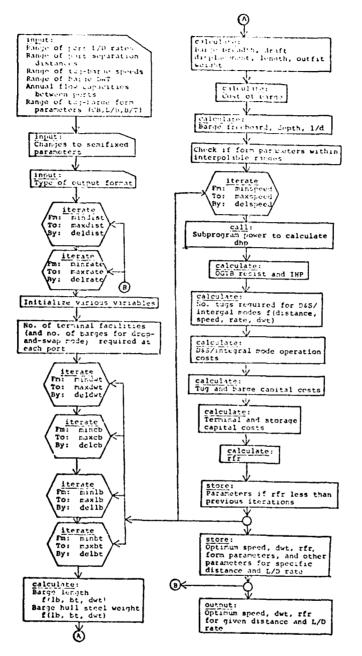
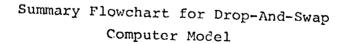


Figure D.3





the user to specify whether he wishes to change any of the semi-fixed persisters that are used in the cost calculations. Following this, it asks the user to specify what form he wants the output. The progress then begins the cost calculations for a specific port pair trade iteration defined by port separation distance and terminal loading/discharging rates. Given these port pair trade parameters, the model determines the number of terminal facilities with the specified loading/discharging rate (and the number of barges for the drop-and-swap mode) that are required at each port.

Then the program selects the next iterative values for the barge size and form system variables--Barge DWT, Cb, L/B, four and B/T. Given these values, it calculates the barge length, hull steel weight, cost, and the tug and barge principal dimensions. The program then checks to see if these system variables are feasible in that they fit within the interpolation table ranges for the tug-barge residual resistance coefficients. If not, the program skips to the next iteration of the four barge size and form variables. If so, the program selects the next iterative value of tug-barge speed and calculates the horsepower required to be delivered to the propeller of the tug, the tug-barge resistance, and finally the horsepower of the engine required to be installed onboard the tug. Given these values, the cost of the tug is calculated and then the number of tugs required to provide sufficient transport capacity for both drop-and-swap and integral modes. Then the operating costs and the total capital costs are determined for both modes. From these the rfr can be determined. If the rfr is less than that calulated during previous iterations of the five continuous system variables, it is saved; otherwise, it is ignored. After all iterations of the variables are examined, the minimum rfr found is stored for that port pair trade. After all of the port pair trades are examined the program can present the results in various graphical forms.

D.3 Drop-and-Swap Program Detailed Logic and Assumptions

The detailed logic and assumptions used in the drop-and-swap program are shown in flowchart form in Section D.4. It will be useful to refer to these flowcharts in the discussions to follow.

D.3.1 Input of Port Pair Trade and System Variables (Refer to Figure D.4)

After typing the execution command "drop and swap", the program reads from tape into memory the values of the loadline factor, residual resistance coefficient, self-propulsion factor, and propeller design coefficient arrays. The program then asks the user to "input via list format the following parameters:". (To input via list format, the user types in the value of the

maxt1=38., maxt2=38.; ١ Do you wish to specify individual port L-D rates?: no input changes to semifixed data via get data format drop and swap Input via list format the following parameters: minrate, maxrate, delrate: 2000.,14000.,2000., mindist, maxdist, deldist: 500.,5000.,1500., mindwt, maxdwt, deldwt: 5000.,100000.,5000., minspeed, maxspeed, delspeed: 6.,13.,1., aflowave1, aflowave2: 1000000.,0., 6.,6.4,.2, mincb, maxcb, delcb: .75,.83,.01, 2.,3.,.5, Do you want detailed output?: y Do you want printed output?: y minlb, maxlb, dellb: minbt, maxbt, delbt:

Figure D.4

Sample Input for the Drop-And-Swap Model

requested parameter followed by a comma.) The first request is a question on the desired form of the terminal facility loading/discharging rates: "Do you wish to specify individual L-D rates?". If the uper answers negatively ("no", "n", or "O"), then the program requests values for "minrate, maxrate, delrate". This is a request for a range of loading/discharging rates in tons per day per terminal facility to be investigated, from "minrate" to "maxrate" in "delrate" increments. It is assumed that the loading and unloading rates at both terminals will be the same ("rload1"="runload1"="rload2"="runload2"). Also, if "delrate" is set to zero, then a "delrate" equal to 1000 is assumed. If, on the other hand, the user answers affirmatively ("yes", "y", or "1") to the loading/discharging rate question, then the program requests values for "rload1, runload1, rload2, runload2". This is a request for a specific set of terminal facility loading and discharging rates may be specified.

Now the program continues with a request for the values of "mindist, maxdist, deldist". This is a request for a range of port separation distances in nautical miles to be considered from "mindist" to "maxdist" by "deldist" increments. If "deldist" of zero is inputted, then a "deldist" of 1000 nautical miles is assumed. Any set of port separation distances may be considered.

Next the program requests values for "minspeed, maxspeed, delspeed". This is a request for a range of tug-barge speeds in knots to be considered from "minspeed" to "maxspeed" by "delspeed" increments. If "delspeed" of zero is inputted, then a "delspeed" of 1.0 knot is assumed. Any set of speeds can be considered. However, a minimum speed of six knots and a maximum of twelve or thirteen knots will usually cover the optimum speed range and will not exceed the boundary restrictions for Froude number and IHP shown in Table 2.4.

Next the program requests values of "mindwt, maxdwt, deldwt". This is a request for a range of barge cargo deadweights in long tons (LT) to be considered from "mindwt" to "maxdwt" by "deldwt" increments. If "deldwt" of zero is inputted, then a "deldwt" of 5000 LT is assumed. Any set of deadweights from 5000 to 80,000 LT can be used.

Next the program requests values for "aflowave1, aflowave2". This is a request for the annual average cargo flows in long tons from Port 1 to Port 2 and from Port 2 to Port 1, respectively. Any pair of values can be specified, except that "aflowave1" must be greater than or equal to "aflowave2". For example, if a one way trade is desired, then "aflowave2" is set to zero.

Next the program requests values for the three barge form variables, "mincb, maxcb, delcb", "minlb, maxlb, dellb", and "minbt, maxbt, delbt". These three requests are for the ranges

of the barge block coefficient (Cb), tug-barge length-breadth ratio (L/E), and barge breadth-draft ratio (E/T) to be considered from "mineb", "mintb", "mints" to "maxeb", "maxlb", "maxbt" by "deleb", "delbt", "delet" increments, respectively. If "deleb", "dellb", or "delbt" of zero is inputted, then a value of 0.1, 0.2, or 0.1 is assumed, respectively. The valid ranges for these form parameters are given in Table 2.4. If the user does not input values within these ranges (including the reduced confidence ranges) then the program will ask the user to specify a new set of form parameter ranges. After the program has accepted the form parameter ranges, input of the system variable and port pair trade ranges to be considered has been completed.

D.3.2 Input and Modification of Semi-Fixed Parameters (Refer to Figure D.4)

Now the program outputs the statement, "Input changes to semifixed data via get data format". This is a request to the user to make any modifications to the semif-fixed parametric data that is used in the required freight rate calculations. The base case values of these parameters that are read from tape into memory are shown in Figure 2.2. Definitions of these parameters can be found in Section D.5. The user may modify the value of any of these semi-fixed parameters by simply typing the parameter name followed by an equal sign and then followed by the desired parameter value. Each parameter that is modified should be separated by a comma and the final one should be followed by a semicolon.

D.3.3 Selection of Output Format

Next the program asks the user to specify what type of format he desires for the program output. Specifically, it asks, "Do you want printed output?:". If the user answers in the affirmative, the program responds, "Do you want detailed output?:". If the user answers this question in the affirmative, the program will print out a line of output for every single iteration with respect to port pair trade and system variables. An example of this output for the input case shown in Figure D.4 is shown in Figure D.5. If the user answers negatively to the detailed output question, the program will print the system data associated with the iteration that resulted in the minimum required freight rate for both modes (drop-and-swap, then integral) for each port pair trade considered. An example of this output for the input case shown in Figure D.4 is shown in Figure D.6.

On the other hand, if the user answers negatively to the question about printed output, or after the program has completed printing output, the program will ask, "Do you wish graphic output?". If the user answers negatively, the program will start from the beginning, asking for a new set of inputs. Otherwise,

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Figure D.5

Example of Detailed Output From the Drop-And-Swap Computer Model

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6 6660001	999. m 999. m 36. m 36. m 36. m 140. m	30000°00 150000°00	CB	500 50.78 40.81	500 50.78 30.78	59.78 59.78 30.81	500 5 9.73 5 9.61	500 5.73 5.73	509 2 0.81 7 6.79	500 10.81 30.78
č †	00 F	300, 1500,	RF R (\$)	2010 = 6.85 13.84	40.78 = 5.65 8.78	6000 = 5.65 7.23	8000 5.65 6.95	1000 = 5.65 6.78	12900 e = 0 5.52 0 5.52	14000 = 5.54 4.78
ationavel afionavel	нинии каралар наралар нариалар нариалар нариалар	8 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	247 SPO RF (1001)(KIS) (\$)	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		rate = 4. stance = 15 10.0	rate = c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c	rate = 19 distance = 15 19.0	rate = 12 distance = 20 10.0 35 7.0	rate = 14 distance = 20 10.0 20 11.0

Figure D.6

Example Of Summary Output From Drop-And-Swap Model

if the user answers affirmatively, the program will ask a series of questions concerning the form of the graphical output. Samples of graphical output are found in Chapter 2.

D.3.4 Iterations With Respect to Port Pair Trades

At this point the program begins the first of its iterative loops. It now selects the next incremental value for the iterative variable "distance" within the range "mindist" to "maxdist". This specifies the port separation distance of the trade under consideration. Next, the program will either use the values of "rload1", "rload2", "runload1", and "runload2" specified at the beginning of the program or will set these variables to the value of the iterative variable "rate" within the range "minrate" to "maxrate". This specifies the terminal facility loading/discharging rates of the port pair trade under consideration.

After this, the program zeroes the arrays ("best1" and "best2") that store the characteristics of the tug-barge systems that have the lowest required freight rate for the given port pair trade. Then it calculates the monthly average cargo flows ("mflowave1" and "mflowave2") which are the annual flows apportioned on a monthly basis taking in account that the barge is available only "bargeopdays" of the year for service.

D.3.5 Calculation of the Number of Terminal Facilities (and Barges for Drop-and-Swap Mode) Required at Each Port

Now that the port pair trade characteristics have been defined, the program determines the number of terminal facilities with the specified loading and discharging rates that must be located at each port to handle the annual cargo flows. This is also the number of barges that must be handled simultaneously at each port for the drop-and-swap mode of operation. This number is determined by dividing the monthly cargo flows ("mflowave1" and "mflowave2") by the monthly terminal facility throughput capacity (30.5 x L-D rate). The specific formulae used are shown in Table D.1. It should be mentioned that seven days a week operations were assumed.

D.3.6 Iterations With Respect to Barge Size and Form

Next the program begins the iterative loops with respect to barge size and form. First it selects the next incremental values for the iterative variable "dwt" within the range "mindwt" to "maxdwt". This specifies the barge cargo deadweight to be used in the calculations to follow. Then the program selects the next incremental values for the iterative form variables "cb", "lb", and "bt" within the ranges "mincb" to "maxcb", "minlb" to

Table D.1

Formulae for Determining Number of Terminal

Facilities/Barges at Each Port

Port	Special Conditions	Formulae
1	none	"minbargel"= ceil("mflowavel" + "mflowave2" 30.5x"rloadl" + 30.5x"runloadl")
	"rloadl"=0	"minbargel"= ceil("mflowave2")
	"runload1"=0	"minbargel"= ceil("mflowavel" 30.5x"rloadl")
	none	<pre>"minbarge2"= ceil("mflowave1" + "mflowave2" 30.5x"runload2" + "mflowave2")</pre>
2	"rload2"=0	<pre>"minbarge2"= ceil("mflowave1") "minbarge2"= ceil(30.5x"runload2")</pre>
	"runload2"=0	<pre>"minbarge2"= ceil("mflowave2") "minbarge2"= ceil(30.5x"rload2")</pre>

Note: The function ceil in the above formulae is used to round to the next largest integer the expression in parenthesis. "maxib", and "minbt" to "maxbt", respectively. This specifies the tug-burge Cb, L/B, and B/T to be used in the calculations to follow.

D.3.7 Calculation of Barge Hull Weight and Principal Dimensions

Given the values of the barge DWT and form variables specified in the iterative loops discussed above, the program calculates the barge length (5) and hull weight values via quadratic interpolation with respect to block coefficient from the formulae provided in Table D.2. These formulae were derived from the output of the single-skin tank barge program discussed Kackin (1979).

Next the program determines the barge breadth by dividing the tug-barge length ("litb") by the length-breadth ratio ("lb"). Similarl, the barge draft is determined by dividing the barge breadth by the breadth-draft ratio ("bt"). It should be noted that the tug-barge length is assumed to be equal to the barge length plus seven-tenths the tug length. This assumption closely approximates the lengths of the large articulated push-towed ocean going tug-barge systems now in operation.

Now the program begins a short iterative loop by using a formula found in Sharp (1975) to estimate the barge outfit weight as a function of barge length. Sample values from this formula are shown in Table D.3. The value of outfit weight summed with the cargo deadweight and with the barge hull steel weight is used to estimate the barge displacement. The barge displacement is used, in turn, to obtain an improved estimate of the barge length. This procedure is then repeated iteratively until the barge length as well as barge displacement and outfit weight converge to unchanging values. Given the value of outfit weight, the program calculates an estimate of the barge cost by summing the product of outfit weight times a cost per ton outfit factor (6) with the product of hull steel weight times a cost per ton hull steel factor. (7)

(5) Barge length used in these formulae refers to the distance at the waterline from two-thirds of the barge notch length forward of the stern to the barge stem. This is in accordance with ABS rules pertaining to articulated tug-barge systems presented in MARAD (1979).

(6) This factor is assumed to be \$12,820 per long ton outfit. This is based on the value found in George G. Sharp (1975) inflated by 30% to bring it to a January 1979 value.

(7) This factor is assumed to be \$1100 per long ton hull steel. This is based on $\cdot 40$ man-hours per ton at \$15 per man hour (including overhead) plus \$500 per ton material cost.

Table D.2

Barge Hull Weight and Length Formulae

Paramoter	Block Co- efficient	Formul a
Barge Length	0.75	"lbarge75"= $e^{1.128}$ lb ^{0.742} bt ^{0.382} dwt ^{0.336}
"lbarge"	0.80	"lbarge80"= $e^{1.108}$ lb ^{0.739} bt ^{0.381} Jwt ^{0.336}
	0.85	"lbarge85"= $e^{1.088}$ lb ^{0.737} bt ^{0.379} dwt ^{0.336}
Barge Hull	0.75	"hullwt75"= $e^{-6.206}$ 1b ^{1.348} bt ^{0.884} .dwt ^{1.104}
Weig}	0.80	"hullwt80"= $e^{-6.396}$ 1b ^{1.368} bt ^{0.909} dwt ^{1.111}
"wsteelb"	0.85	"hullwt85"= $e^{-6.569}$ 1b ^{1.391} bt ^{0.930} dwt ^{1.117}

TABLE D.3

Barge Outfit Weight
Formula: "woutfitb" = max(50, 1.496x"lbarge"-284.24)

Barge Length	Outfit Weight	
200	50.00	
250	89.76	
300	164.56	
350	239.36	
400	314.16	
450	388.96	
500	463.76	
550	538.56	
600	613.36	
650	688.16	
700	762.96	
750	837.76	

if the barge length is found to exceed 750 feet, which is beyond the forciple range of the model, then the program stips to the next iterative value for "eb". Otheralde, the program calculates the barge freeboard using the rules specified in the 1966 International Conference on Lord Lines. The specific formulae and table values used are shown in Table D.4 and Figure D.7. it should be noted that in the freeboard calculations it was assumed that the barge had no sheer and that the barge is unmanned so that a 255 reduction in freeboard is allowed. After the barge freeboard is calculated, the barge depth is determined. At this point the program checks to see if the tug-barge unit's dimensions exceed any of the length, breadth, or draft limitations ("maxl", "maxb", "maxt1", or "maxt2") that may have been specified in the semi-fixed parametric data for the port pair trades under consideration. If any of these limitations are exceeded, the program skips to the next "bt" iteration. Otherwise, it checks to see if the form parameters "cb" and "lb" are within the table interpolation ranges specified in Table D.1. If they are not, the program skips to the next "lb" iteration; otherwise, it continues as described in the following section.

D.3.8 Iteration With Respect to Tug-Barge Speed and Calculation of Tug INP and Cost

At this point the program begins the last of the iterative loops which is with respect to tug-barge speed. It selects the next incremental value for the iterative variable "speed" within the range "minspeed" to "maxspeed". Then the value of "speed" and the tug-barge principal dimensions ("lbarge", "bbarge", "tbarge", and "cb") are fed into the Subprogram "power". This program, described in detail in Kaskin (1979), returns the value of the horsepower required to be delivered by the propeller ("dhp") to propel the tug-barge system through the water at the specified speed. (8) From this value the shaft horsepower can be determined. It should be noted that a tug shaft efficiency of 98\$, an appendage drag of 5\$, and a linkage drag of 10\$ were assumed. (9)

(8) This program also calculates "ehp", the power required to propel the tug-barge system though the water, from which the still water hull resistance can be determined. It also provides values for the self-propusion factors ("wa", "th", and "hr") and open water propeller efficiency "propef".

(9) The assumptions for appendage and linkage drag are based on conversations with articulated tug-barge designers. They seem optimistic when compared to the results presented in Robinson (1976). However, this study used fairly crude prototype linkage forms and so probably overestimated the drag for the modern linkages which are well faired.

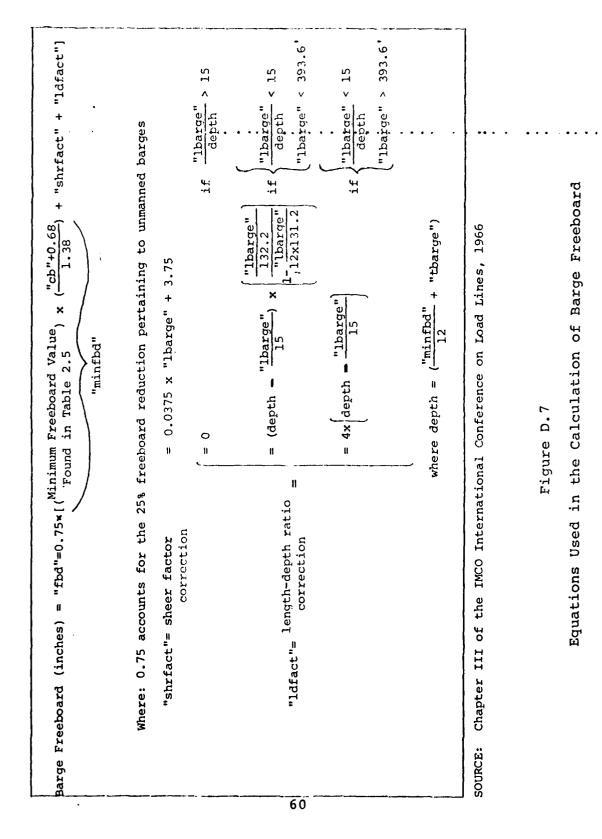
Table D.4

Barge	Minimum	Barge	Minimum	Darras	Minimum
Length	Freeboard	Length	Freeboard	Barge Length	Freeboard
100'	9.8"	320'	43.2"	540 [*]	86.3"
110	10.8	330	45.0	550	88.0
120	11.9	340	46.9	560	89.6
130	13.0	350	48.8	570	91.1
140	14.2	360	50.7	580	92.6
150	15.5	370	52.7	590	94.1
160	16.9	380	54.7	600	95.5
170	18.3	390	56.8	610	96.9
180	19.8	400	58.8	620	98.3
190	21.3	410	60.9	630	99.6
200	22.9	420	62.9	640	100.9
210	24.5	430	65.0	650	102.1
220	26.2	440	67.0	660	103.3
230	27.8	450	69.1	670	104.4
240	29.5	460	71.1	680	105.5
250	31.1	470	73.1	690	106.6
260	32.8	480	75.1	700	107.7
270	34.6	490	77.1	710	108.7
280	36.3	500	79.0	720	109.7
290	38.0	510	80.9	730	110.7
3 00	39.7	520	82.7	740	111.7
310	41.4	530	84.5	750	112.6

Minimum Freeboard Values

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SOURCE: Table A, Chapter III, IMCO International Convention on Load Lines, 1966.



and there is

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Given the value of the service margin (10) for the tur, the horsepower of the engines required to be installed onboard the tug can be determined. From this the cost of the tug can be estimated using the formulae found in deorge G. Sharp (1975), inflated 50% to bring them up to a January 1979 level. Sample values from these formulae are presented in Table D.5.

....D.3.9 Milenlation of the Jumber of Tuga Required.

Now the program begins the calculations to determine the number of tugs required to provide sufficient movement capacity for the required annual cargo flows. It does this for the drop-and-swap modes, balanced and unbalanced, (11) and then the integral mode.

To determine the number of tugs required in the drop-and-swap modes, the program first calculates the time required for cargo operations in both ports ("tport1" and "tport2". For "tport1", this is the barge cargo deadweight divided by the terminal facility loading rate plus the cargo deadweight -- weighted by a balance factor if cargo flows are not equal in both directions---divided by the terminal facility discharging rate. A similar formula pertains for "tport2". Then the program calculates the sea voyage time for a round trip. This is twice the distance divided by the system speed plus linking and unlinking times if appropriate plus any other expected port delays. (12) For the drop-and-swap modes, these values are fed into an iterative routine that calculates the total tug voyage time ("ttript") which includes seatime plus any time that tug is required to wait for completion of cargo operations ("twait1" for Port 1 and "twait2" for Port 2). The routine also calculates the minimum number of tugs ("mintug") required for the trades.

(10) in the model's base case the service margin, the additional fraction of "ehp" required to ensure that the service speed is achieved in most seas, is assumed to be 0.20.

(11) The unbalanced drop-and-swap mode ("dsopt" = 1) is the case where it is assumed that the tug will remain with the barge in the port with the shortest time spent for cargo operations. This would be appropriate for one-way trades with short loading and long discharging times. In this case the waiting time for the port that the tug remains with the barge is equal to the cargo operations time, i.e., "twait1" = "tport1". The program selects the drop-and-swap mode that results in the lower rfr to be stored and printed.

(12) In the model's base case the port delay and tug-barge linking/unlinking times were estimated to be four hours. The port delay time takes in account the expected time for docking and undocking as well as time awniting berth for the barge.

Table D.5

Tug Capital Costs

Tug Hull = "wsteelt"=0.64 $\left(\frac{1HP}{1000}\right)^2$ + 16.79 $\left(\frac{1HP}{1000}\right)$ + 378 Weight

Tug outfit = "woutfitt"= $0.1866 \left(\frac{\text{IHP}}{1000}\right)^2 + 2.733 \left(\frac{\text{IHP}}{1000}\right) + 154$ Weight

Tug Machinery = "wmacht"= $-0.08889 \left(\frac{IHP}{1000}\right)^2 + 32.88 \left(\frac{IHP}{1000}\right) + 4.999$ Weight

Tug Machinery = 1,300*(0.314 x IHP + 1730) Cost

Tug Cost = 1,000[2.94*(Tug Hull) + 15.08*(Tug Outfit) + (Tug Machinery)] Weight + (Cost

		1 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·····		·
IHP	Tug Hull Weight(LT)	Tug Outfit Weight(LT)	Tug Machinery Weight (LT)	Tug Machinery Cost(\$1000)	Tug Cost (\$1000)
]		
2,000	414.14	160.21	70.40	3065.4	6,698.1
2,500	423.98	162.00	86.64	3269.5	6,958.1
3,000	434.13	163.88	102.84	3473.6	7,220.4
4,000	455.40	167.92	135.10	3881.8	7,752.0
5,000	477.95	172.33	167.18	4290.0	8,293.0
6,000	501.78	177.12	199.08	4698.2	8.843.3
7,000	526.89	182.27	230.80	5106.4	9,403.1
8,000	553.28	187.81	262.35	5515.6	9,972.3
9,000	580.95	193.71	293.72	5922.8	10,550.8
10,000	609.90	199.99	324.91	6331.0	11,138.7
12,000	671.64	213.67	386.76	7147.4	12,342.8
14,000	738.50	228.84	447.90	7963.8	13,584.4
16,000	810.48	245.50	508.32	8780.2	14,863.5
18,000	887.58	263.65	568.04	9596.6	16,180.2
20,000	969.80	283.30			· ·
)		627.04	10413.0	17,534.4
22,500	1079.78	309.96	699.80	11433.5	19.280.1
25,000	1197.75	338.95	771.44	12454.0	21,084.4
27,500	1323.73	370.27	841.98	13474.5	22,947.3
30,000	1457.70	403.93	911.40	14495.0	24,869.0
					1
	1	1	1	1	

SOURCE: Sharp (1975)

*Cost factors inflated 30% from values given in source.

The logic of the iterative routine is rather simple. After the progress assumes initial values for "mintog", "twait1" and "twait2"; it calculates new values for "twait1" and "; wait2" based on the number of barges stationed at each port and the currently assumed value for "mintug". This is done by assuming the tugs are on equally spaced time schedules. Given the values of "twait1" and "twait2", the total voyage time "ttript" is Given this value, the minimum number of tugs determined. ("mintug") for the trade can be determined by comparing the required monthly cargo flows with the ton-mile capacity of each tug-barge unit. The program then will iterate and calculate new values for "twait1" and "twait2" until the total voyage time "ttript" converges on an unchanging value. If convergence does not occur, an error message is printed. If it is found that the total port waiting time exceeds the time that would be spent for cargo operations, then the program prints out a message stating that the drop-and-swap mode would not be appropriate. Otherwise, the program continues by calculating annual operating costs, as described in the next section.

To calculate the number of tugs required in the integral mode, a simpler approach is used than for the drop-and-swap mode. In this case, the total voyage time is equal to seatime and port time; and, the number of tugs required is simply the minimum that will provide sufficient flow capacity (number of tug-barges per month times barge cargo deadweight) to handle the monthly cargo flow requirements.

D.3.10 Calculation of Annual Operating Costs

Now that the program has determined (1) the duration of the tug seatime ("seatimet") which includes time for unlinking/linking and port delays, (2) the duration of in port time ("portimet") which includes the time that the tug must await cargo operation completion, (3) tug shaft horsepower ("shp") for achieving the specified speed, and (4) the tug engine size ("ihp"); it is now able to proceed to calculate the various components of the total annual operating cost per tug-barge unit. Discussion of the assumptions used in calculating each of the cost components is provided below.

<u>Annual Diesel Fuel Cost</u>. The annual diesel fuel cost is equal to the number of tug voyages per year ("nrtrips" = "tugopdays"/"ttript") times the amount of diesel fuel in long tons consumed per voyage ("fuelcons") times the cost per long ton diesel fuel. (13) The amount of fuel consumed per voyage ("fuelcons") is equal to the tug at sea time in hours ("seatimet") times the hourly at sea fuel consumption rate in

(13) in the model's base case, diesel fuel cost is assumed to be \$140 per long ton. tons per hour ("raeatuel") plus the tug in port time in hours ("portimet") times the hourly in port fuel concumption rate ("rportfuel" = 0.125 ton/hr). The at bea fuel consumption rate ("rseafaet") in long tons per hour, is in turn equal to the product of the diesel engine's specific fuel consumption rate ("sie") in pounds per horsepower-hour (14) and the tug's shaft horsepower ("shp"), all divided by 2240.

Annual Lube Oil Costs. The annual lube oil cost is equal to 'the number of tug voyages per year ("nrtrips") times the amount of lube oil in gallons consumed per voyage ("lubecons") times the cost per gallon for lube oil. (15) The amount of lube oil consumed per voyage ("lubecons") is assumed to be equal to the tug at sea time in hours ("seatimet") times the hourly at sea lube oil consumption rate in gallons per hour ("rlubeoil"). This hourly at sea fuel consumption rate has been assumed to be equal to the tug's shaft horspower divided by 4000., in gallons per hour.

Annual Crew Costs. The annual crew costs are equal to the average annual crew member's wages and benefits ("cwages") plus subsistence expenses ("csubs"), all times the number of crew members onboard the tug ("nrcrew"). (16)

Annual Costs for Maintenance and Repairs, Insurance, and Stores, Supplies, and Equipment. The annual costs for maintenance and repairs ("amandr"), insurance ("ainsur"), and stores, supplies, and equipment ("asupplies") are determined from formulae found in George G. Sharp (1975). These formulae are functions of the tug engine size and total deadweight of the tug-barge unit. Sample values from these formulae, which have been inflated to bring them up to January 1979 levels, are presented in Table D.6.

(14) In the model's base case, a sfc of 0.36 is assumed. This is a reasonable value for the medium speed diesels currently used in high powered tugs. In the future lower sfc's and fuel costs may be obtained with the use of low speed diesels burning heavy fuels.

(15) In the model's base case, lube oil is assumed to be \$1.75 per gallon.

(16) In the model's base case the average crew size has been assumed to be sixteen, which is very close to the minimum manning level of fourteen that the U. S. Coast Guard has previously allowed for "mechanically-linked" push-towed ocean going tug-barges. (The extra two men are used to fill cook/steward positions.) As for the average crew member's wages and subsistence, they were assumed to be \$65,000 and \$3,500 respectively. These values are in reasonable agreement with the Maritime Administration data shown in Table D.7.

Table D.6

"Annual Operating Costs for Supplies and Equipment,

Maintenance and Repair and Insurance

Supplies and = "asupplies" = 1.3*(4070.0018x1HP + 0.00026 x TDWT) · · Equipment

Maintenance	= "amandr"	= $1.5*(128.8+ 4.539(\frac{JHP}{1000}) - 0.04(\frac{IHP}{1000})^2$
and Repair		+ 2.477 $\left(\frac{TDWT}{1000}\right)$ = 0.009107 $\left(\frac{TDWT}{1000}\right)^2$

Insurance

 $= 1.5*(210 + 0.0036 \times \text{THP} + 0.0018 \times \text{TDWT})$ = "ainsur"

And in case of the local division of the loc		the second s		
TDWT	IHP	Supplies & Equipment (\$1000)	Maintenance & Repair (\$1000)	Insurance (\$1000)
5,000	2,000 6,000	58.4 67.7	224.8 250.1	339.3 360.9
म	10,000	77.1	273.5	382.5
FT	14,000	86.5	295.0	404.1
20,000	2,000	63.4	275.4	379.8
"	6,000	72.8	300.7	401.4
fr	10,000	82.2	324.1	423.0
20	14,000	91.5	345.6	444.6
35,000	2,000	68.5	319.9	420.3
**	6,000	77.9	345.2	441.9
••	10,000	87.2	368.6	463.5
79	14,000	96.6	390.1	485.1
50,000	2,000	73.6	358.2	460.8
	6,000	82.9	383.5	482.4
	10,000	92.3	406.9	504.0
	14,000	101.7	428.4	525.6
	18,000	111.0	447.9	547.2
65,000	2,000	78.7	390.4	501.3
	6,000	88.0	415.7	522.9
	10,000	97.4	439.1	544.5
-	14,000	106.7	460.6	566.1
, "	18,000	116.1	480.1	587.7

SOURCE: Sharp (1975) NOTE: TDWT=Cargo Deadweight + Fuel Weight +Miscellaneous Weight *Inflation Factor to bring cost to 1 Jan 79 level

that shoreside storage facilities must be used for storage rather than the barges that remain in port for the drop-and-swap modes.

To show that the values resulting from the formulae and other assumptions used in calculating the operating costs are reasonable, a comparison of the model's output is made with some Maritime Administration tug-barge data in Table D.7.

D.3.11 Calculation of System Capital Costs

After the total operating costs are calculated, the program then determines the total system capital cost ("totcapcost") for the drop-and-swap and integral modes of operation. This total capital cost consists of the barge price times the number of barges in the system plus terminal and storage facility capital costs. These costs are adjusted to take account of the increased productivity that result from multi-unit orders by use of the learning curve factor formula found in George G. Sharp (1975). The barge and tug prices are equal to the tug and barge costs ("ctug" and "cbarge") calculated previously, but increased by 10% to take into account shipyard profit. The terminal facility cost is assumed to be some cost factor ("cfixterm") in dollars per ton-day times the sum of the terminal facility loading/discharging rates times the number of facilities per of port. The storage facility cost, which pertains to the integral mode only, is assumed to be equal to the product of some cost factor in dollars per cargo deadweight ton ("cfixstor") times the barge cargo deadweight times the number of terminal facilities ("minbarge1" + "minbarge2"). This formula assumes that a storage facility equal to the barge capacity must be built onshore for each terminal fucility. This is only one of many possible ways of estimating shoreside storage requirements and was used just to give an indication of how storage costs might affect the tradeoffs in operating in the drop-and-swap versus integral mode. In a real operating environment, the storage capacity will depend primarily on the ability of the tug-barge systems remaining on rigid schedules. (21)

D.3.12 Calculation of Required Freight Rates

At this point the program has completed all the calculations required to determine the required freight rate for recovering all operating and capital costs for the system. The required freight rate is simply the total system capital cost ("totcapcost") divided by the present value factor ("pvf") plus the total system operating costs ("totopcost"), all divided by the total annual cargo flows. Now all calculations have been

(21) in the model's base case terminal and storage facility capital costs were assumed to be zero. Annual Port Charges. The annual port costs are equal to the noteber of voyages per year times the port charges per voyage. The voyage port charges consist of a fixed charge per port call ("cfixport1" and "cfixport2") plus a variable cost which is a function of the barge size ("cvarport1" x "dwt" and "cvarport2" x "dwt"). (17)

Annual Costs from the Vine Value of Carco. Since the cargo represents a significant capital investment for its owner, the cost of the capital that is tied up while the cargo is being transported should be considered in the total operating costs for the system. The annual cost for the time value of the cargo ("acargo") is equal to the product of the annual cargo flows ("aflowave1" + "aflowave2") times the sea time in years and times the discount rate for capital ("disrate").

Annual Terminal and Storage Operating Costs. The annual terminal operating costs ("atermop") are simply the product of the annual cargo 1.0ws ("aflowave1" + "äflowave2") and the average cost per ton cargo for loading/discharging operations ("cvarterm"). Similarly, the annual storage costs ("astorop") are simply the product of the annual cargo flows and the average cost per ton cargo for in port storage. (18)

Calculation of the Total Annual Operations Costs. At this point the total operating costs per tug-barge unit ("aopcost") can be determined. It is simply the sum of fuel, lube oil, crewing and subsistence, maintenance and repair, stores, supplies, and equipment, insurance, cargo value, port charges, and other miscellaneous ("aother") (19) costs. The total operating costs ("totopcost") are then equal to the number of tug-barge units times the operating cost per tug plus the terminal operating costs plus fleet administrative costs ("admin"). (20) For the drop-and-swap modes 3% of the cost of the additional barges required to be stationed at the ports is added to take account for the maintenance and repair, stores, supplies and equipment, and insurance incurred by these additional units. For the integral mode, the annual storage costs are added to take in account

(17) In the model's base case, all the port charge factors ("cfixport1", "cfixport2", "cvarport1", and "cvarport2") are assumed to be zero.

(18) In the model's base case, all terminal and storage costs are assumed to be zero.

(19) In the model's base case it is assumed that the miscellaneious other costs amount to \$30,000 per year for each tug.

(20) In the model's base case it is assumed that the administrative costs per fleet amount to \$150,000 per year. Table D.7

Comparison of Model and MARAD Data for Annual Operating Costs

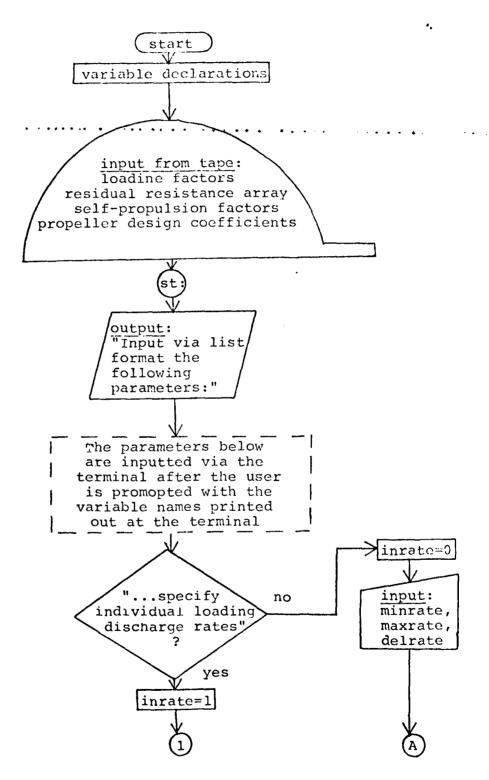
Vessel Type	Annual Crew Wages	Annual Subsistence Costs	Annual M&R Costs	Annual Supplies & Fquipment	Annual Insurance	knnual MSR Supplies & Equipment	Other Annual Costs	Total Operating Costs
5,000 DWT 3,000 IHP cY 1978	658,152	23,725	200,000	63,270	496,000	759,270	: 36,000	1,477,147
Model 1 Jan 1979	845,000	45,500	231,321	60,710	344,700	636,731	30,000	1,557,231
33,500 DWT 15,000 IHP 1 Jan 77	821,250	47,815	405,150	127, 385	542,755	1,075,290	29,200	1,973,555
Model 1 Jan 1979	1,040,000	56,000	390,966	98,423	486,450	975,839	30,000	2,101,839
40,000DWT 18,000 IHP	1,060,000	50,000	460,683	71,317	352,250	884,250	•189,600	2,183,350
ur 1900 Model 1 Jan 1979	1,040,000	56,000	442,247	107,640	520,200	1,070,387	180,000	2,346,387
40,000 DWT 18,000 IHP cy 1980	1,100,000	60,000	705,000	220,000	561,000	1,486,000	· 20,003	2,666,000
_ Model 1 Jan 1979	1,040,000	56,000	442,747	107,640	520,200	1,070,387	30,000	2,196,387
	Data Received December 1978.	from	Maritime <i>1</i>	Administration	tion Office	of Ship	Construction,	•. •.

completed within the iterative loops. All that remains to be done is the storage within the sequence program of the system variable and cost values for the iterations resulting in the lowest required freight rate for the port pair union consideration.

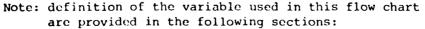
D.3.13 Storage of System Parameters for Minimum RPR Iterations

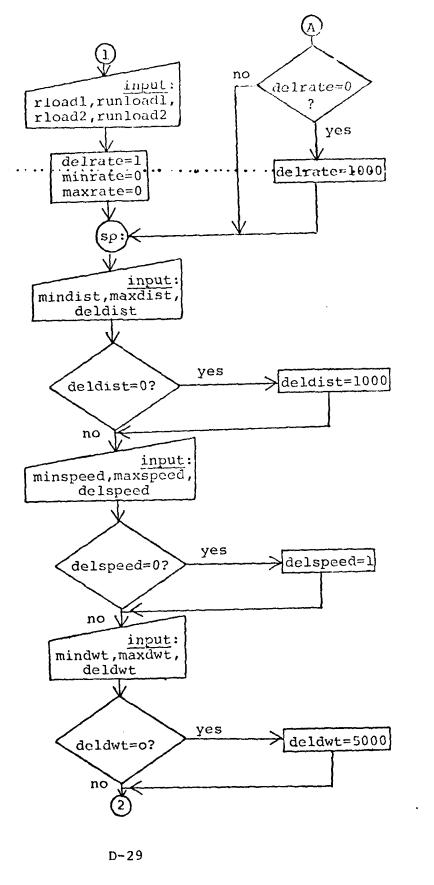
..... For each iteration of burge size, form, and speed, the program determines the associated required freight rate for the drop-and-swap, unbulanced drop-and-swap, and integral modes of operation. If for a particular iteration the rfr for either rogular or unbalanced drop-and-ower mode is found to be lower then that found for previous iterations of the drop-and-swap modes. then the system values for that iteration replace those previously stored in the array "best1". The same pertains to the integral mode which has its optimum system values stored in the array "best2". So, at the end of all the iterations with respect to "best2". So, at the end of all the iterations with respect to tug-barge DWT, Cb, L/B, B/T, and speed; the arrays "best1" and "best2" contain the system values for the drop-and-swap mode (the better of the balanced and unbalanced modes) and integral mode, respectively, that result in the minimum rfr. At this point the program will print out (if printed output was requested) the optimum system parameters for both drop-and-swap and integral modes for each trade specified by its port separation distance and loading/discharging rate. It also will store certain of the system parameters such as minimum rfr, optimum barge size and speed, etc., in storage arrays that will be used in the graphical output routines. Following this, the program will return to the beginning, requesting new inputs.

This concludes the detailed description of the drop-and-swap program. Discussion of the tug-barge powering and barge hull weight subprograms is provided in Kaskin (1979).



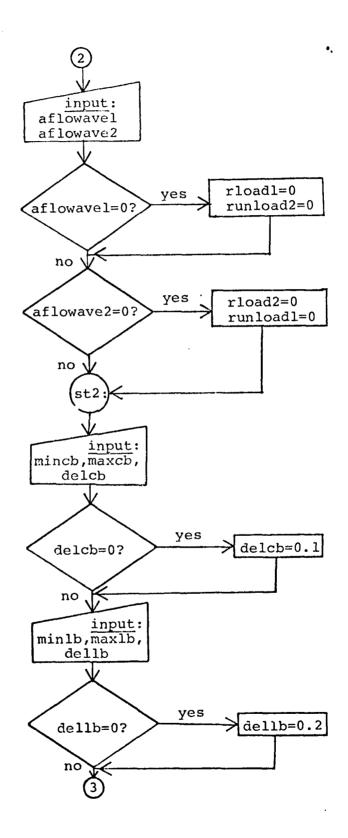
D.4 FLOWCHART OF THE DROP-AND-SWAP COMPUTER MODEL



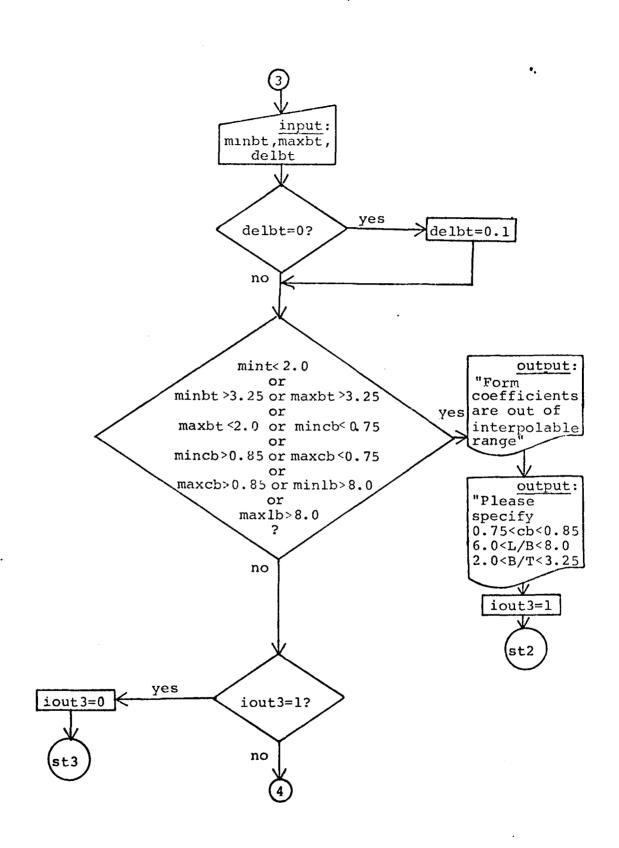


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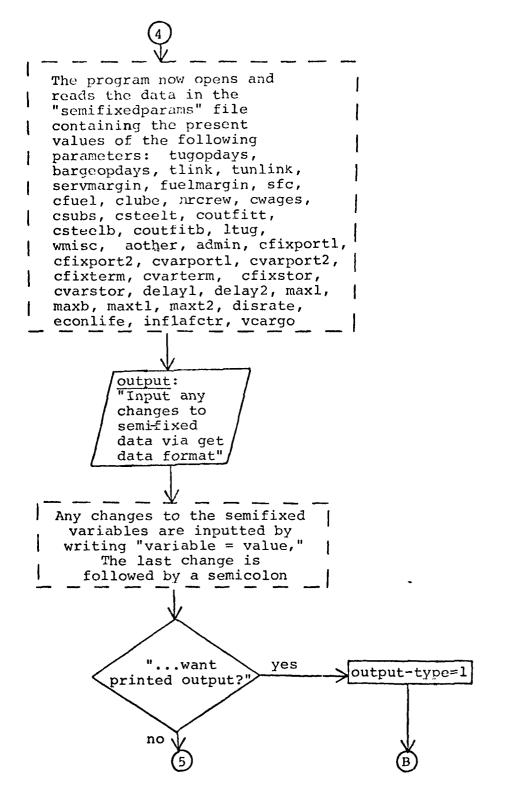
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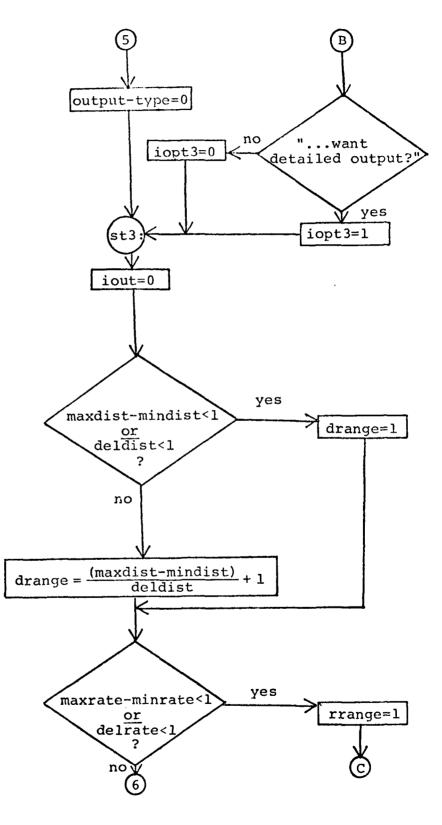
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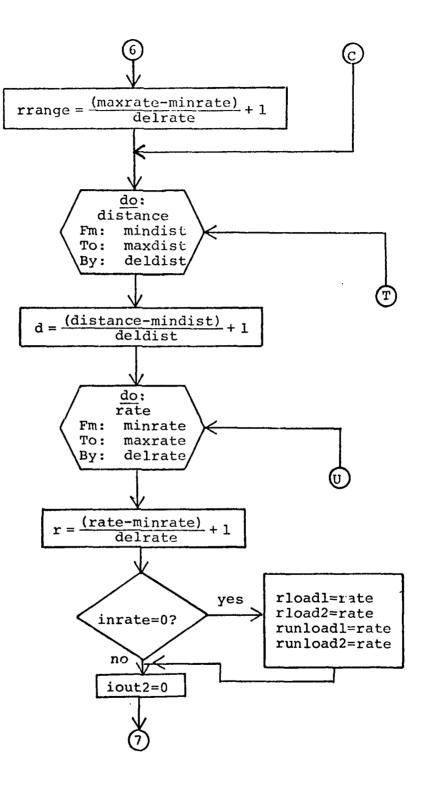


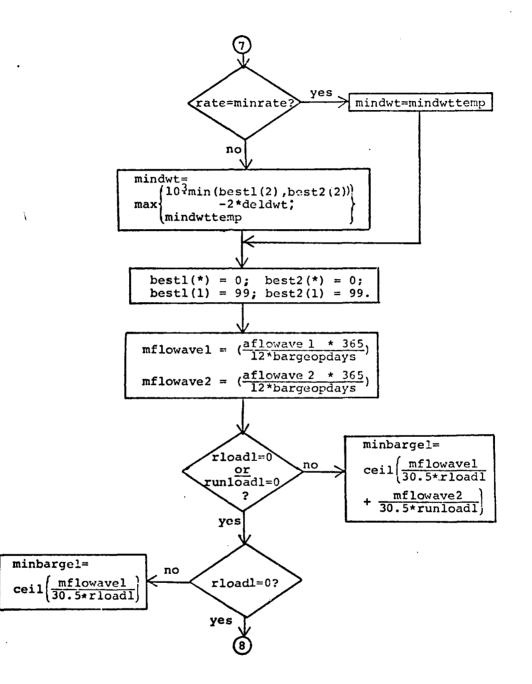
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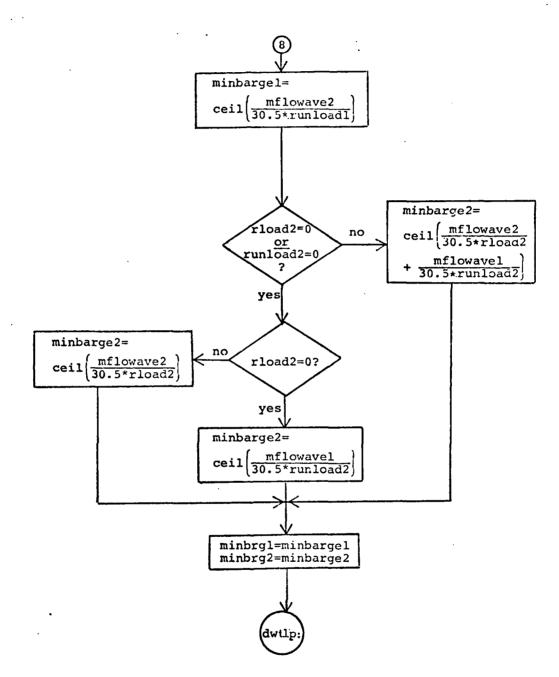
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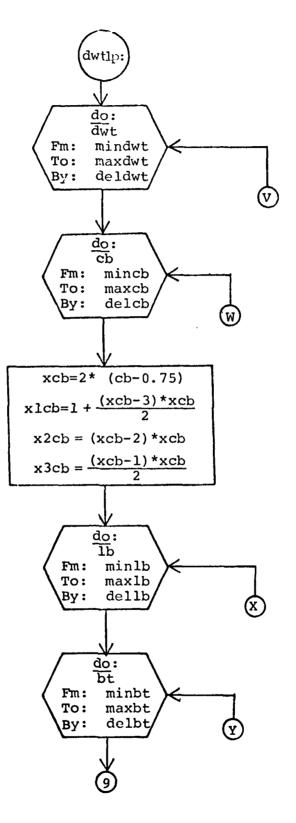




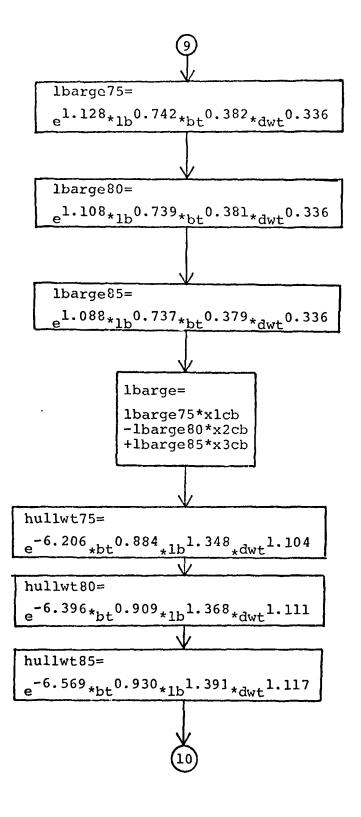


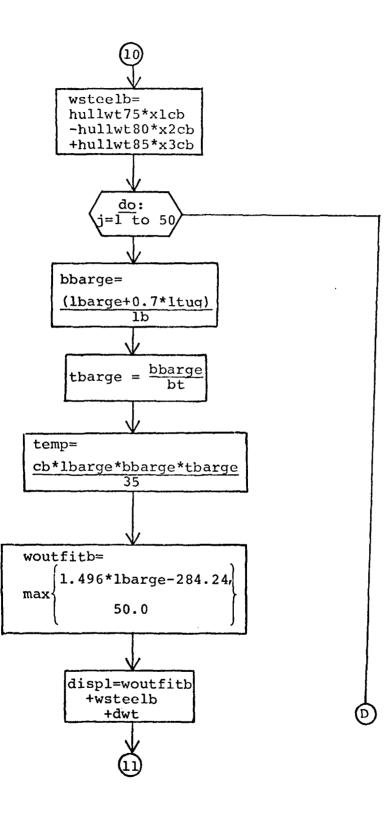


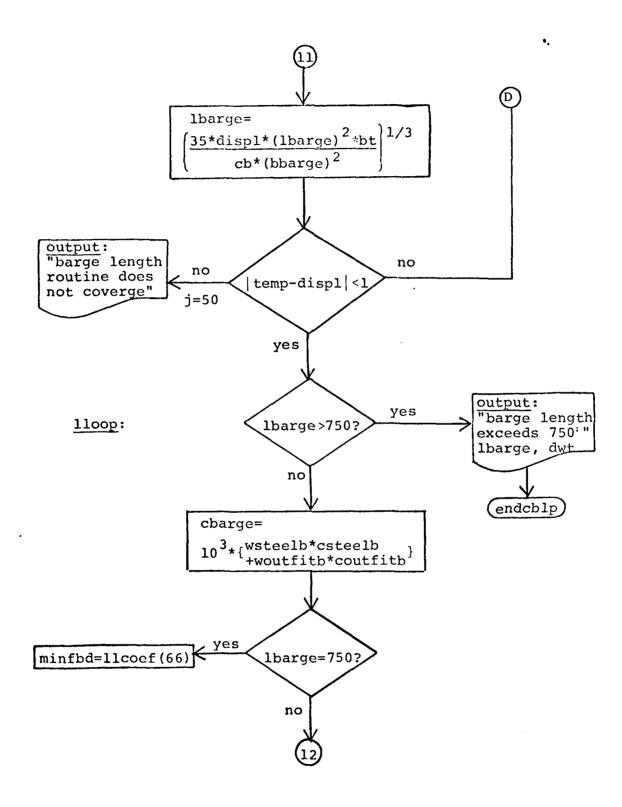




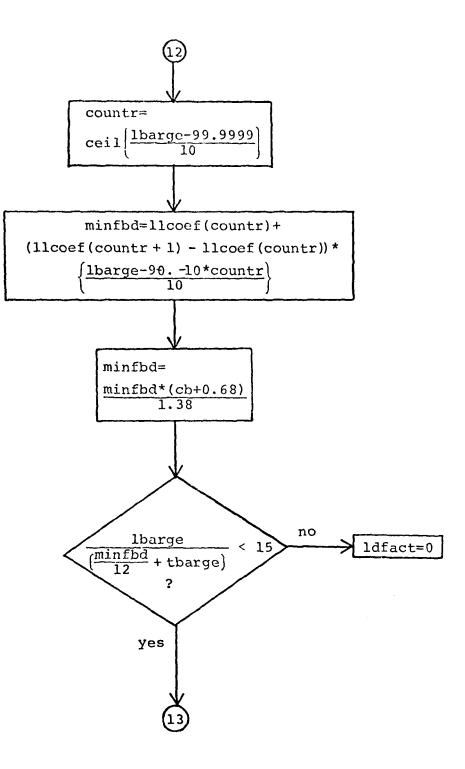
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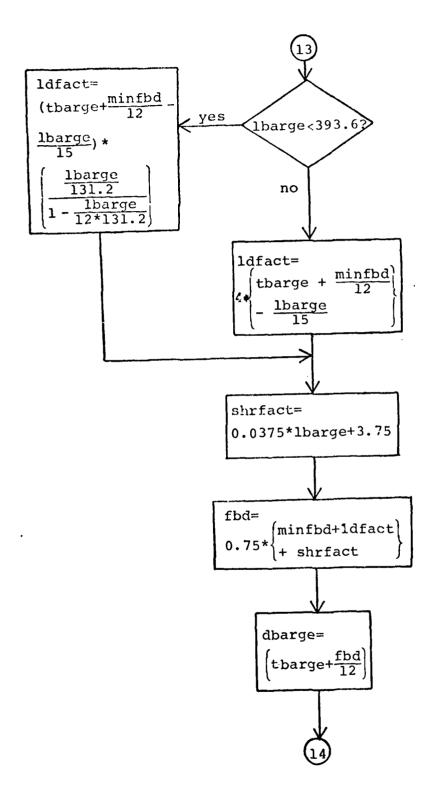


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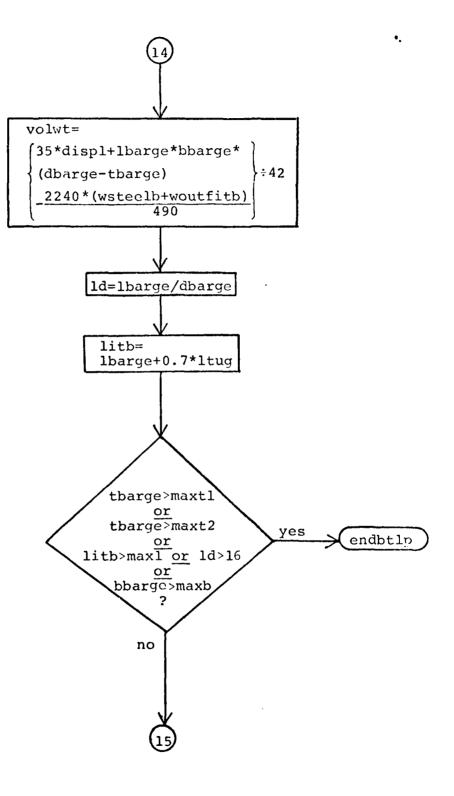
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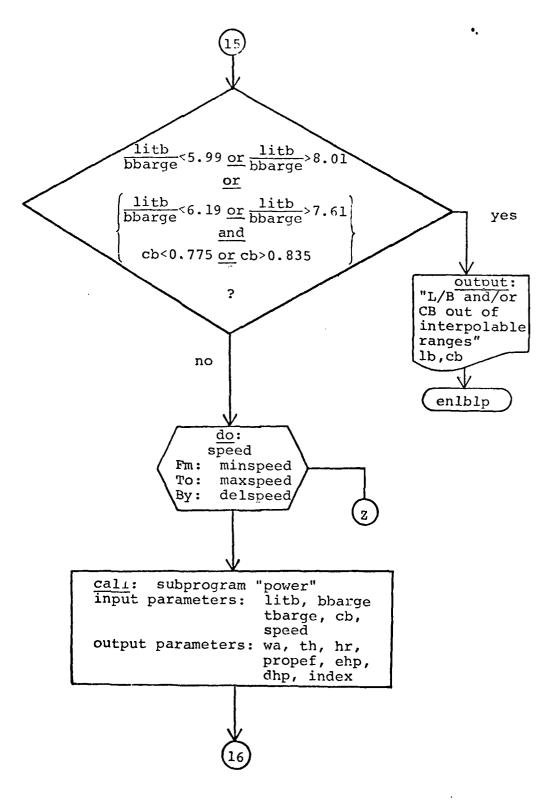


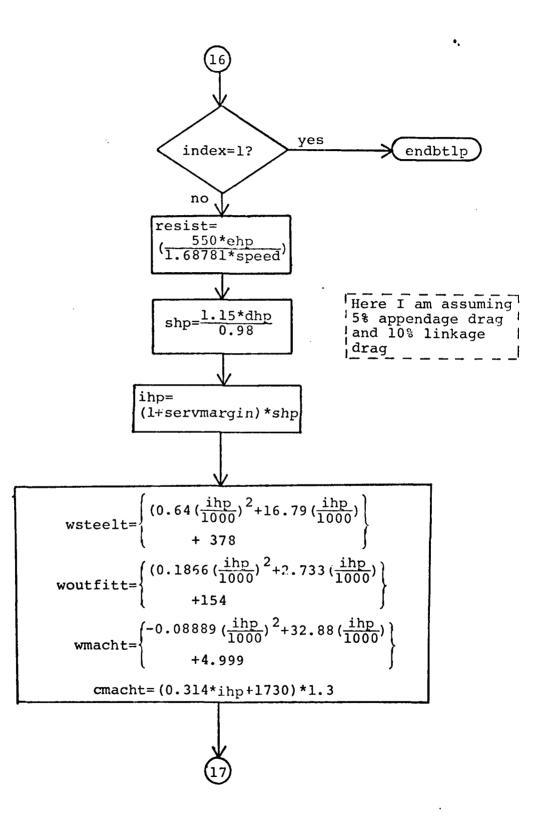


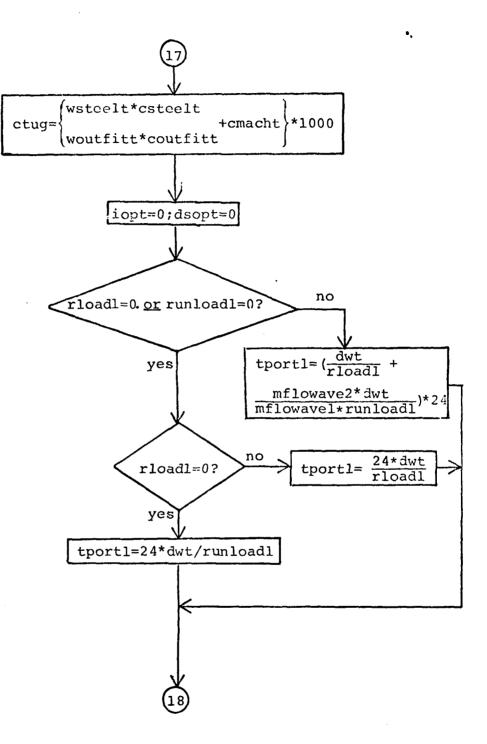


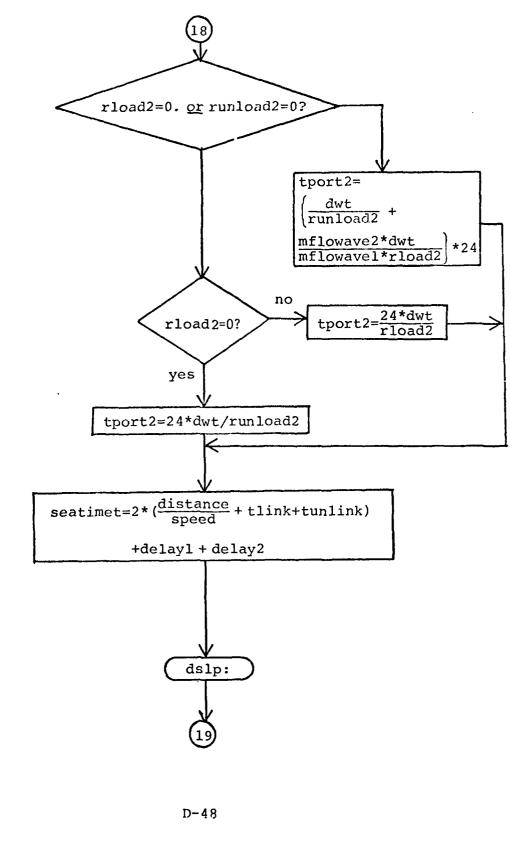


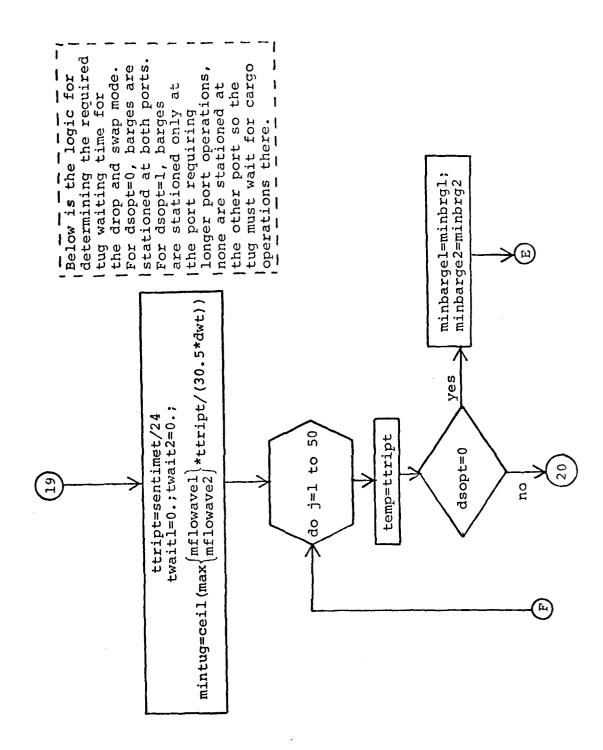




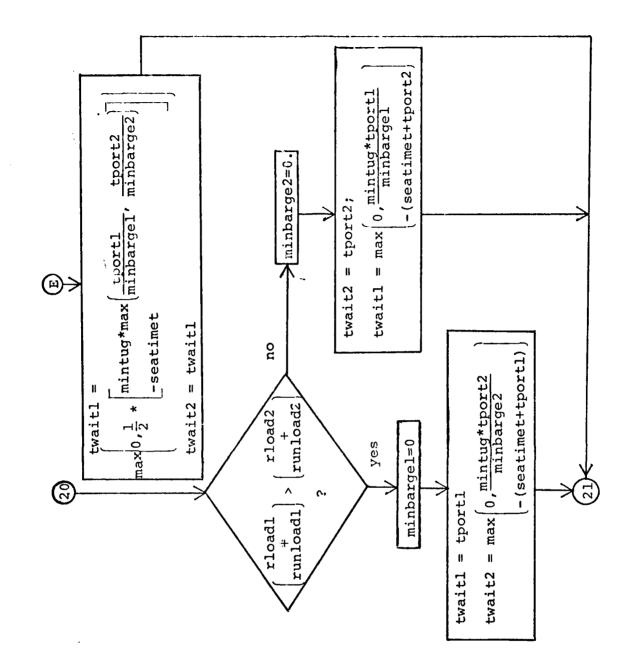


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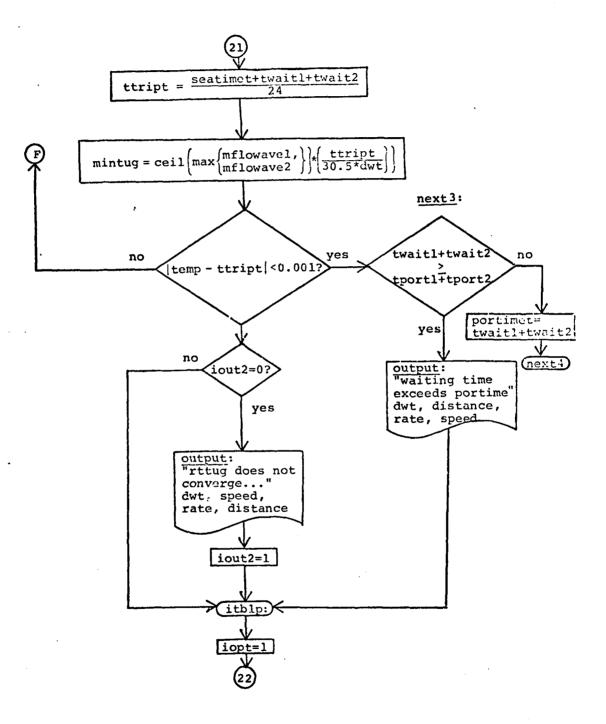
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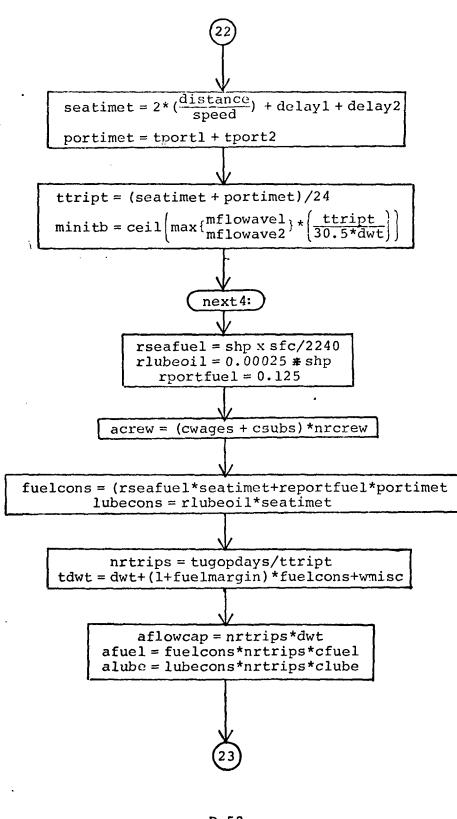
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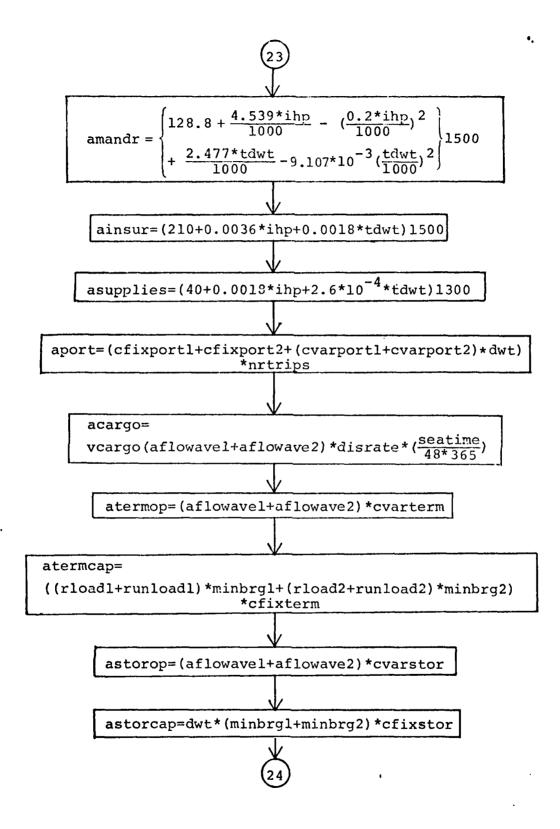
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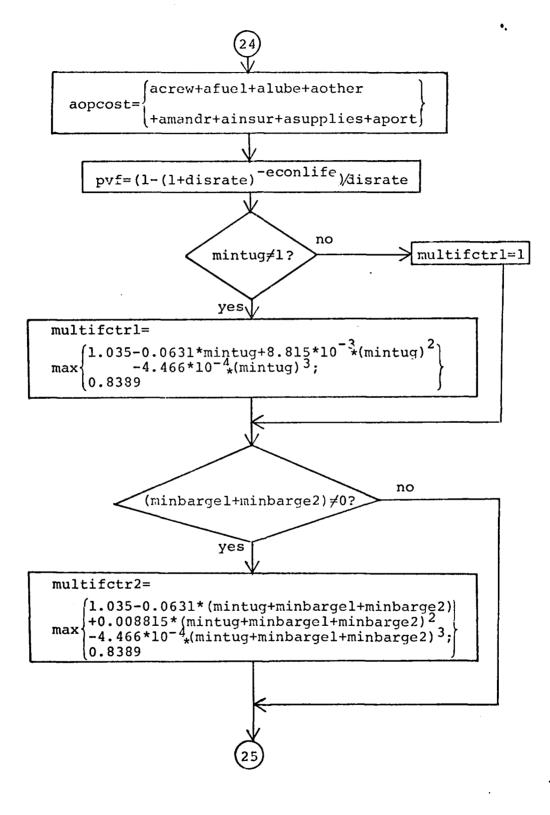
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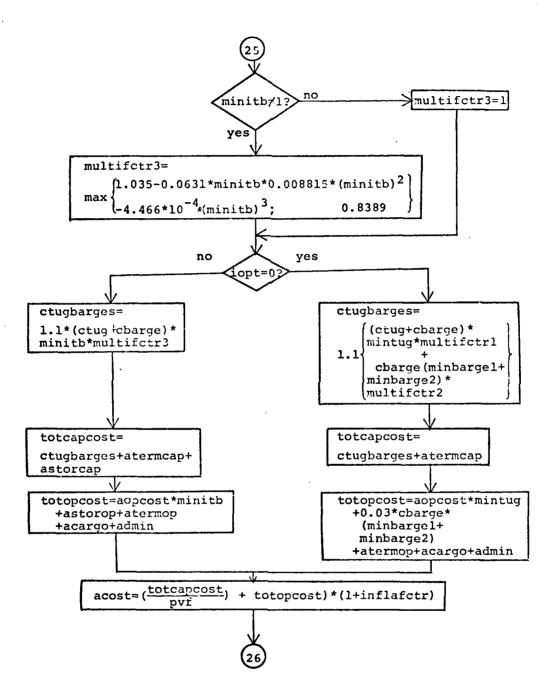
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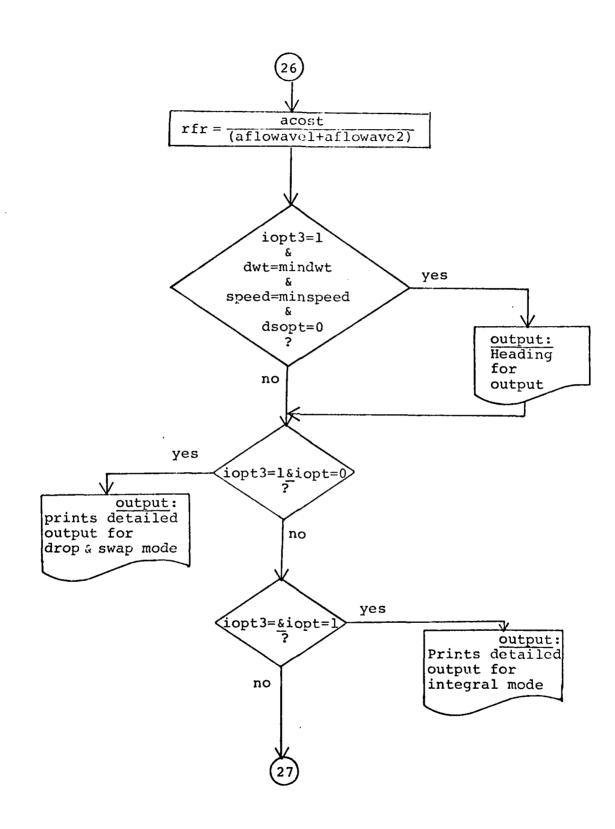


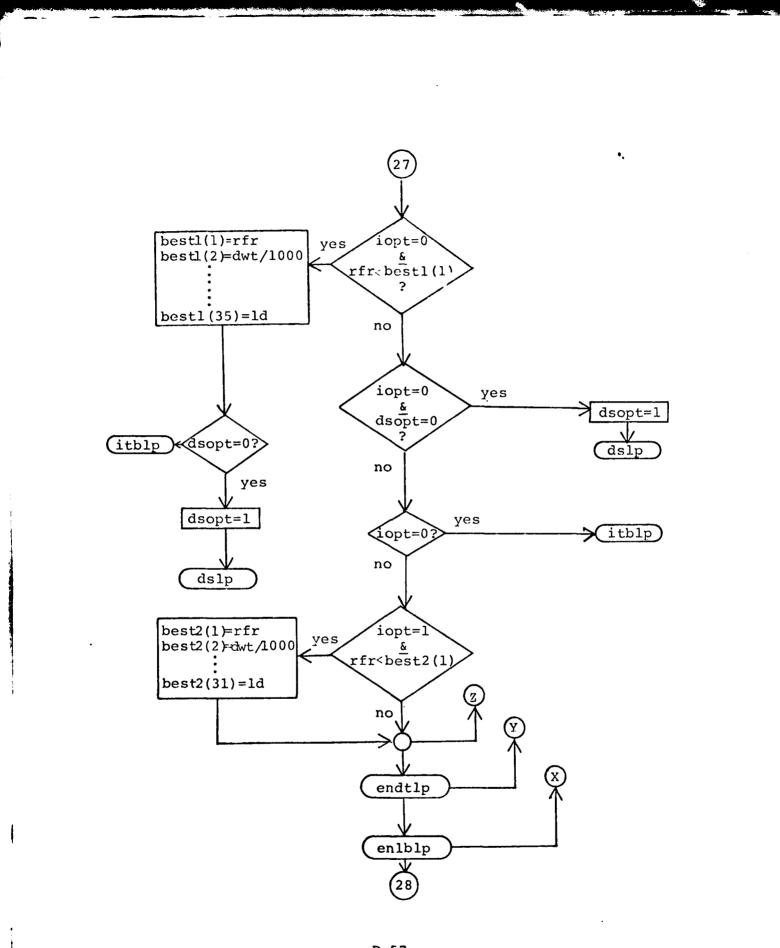
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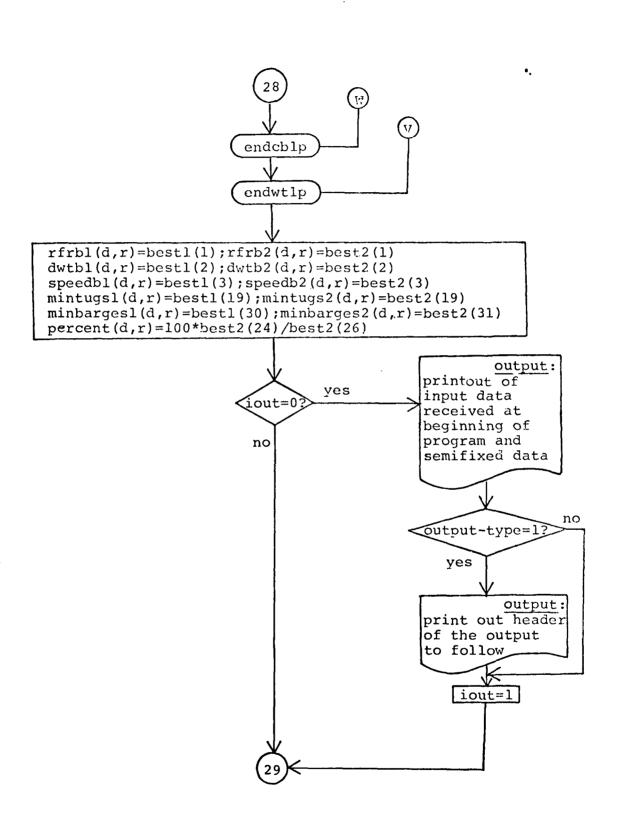


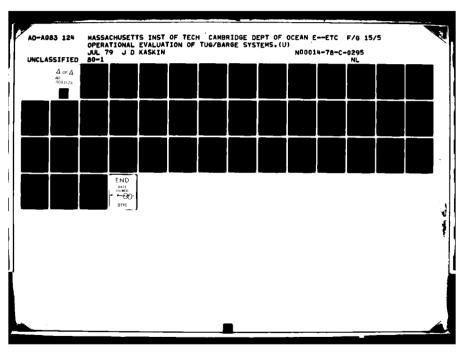


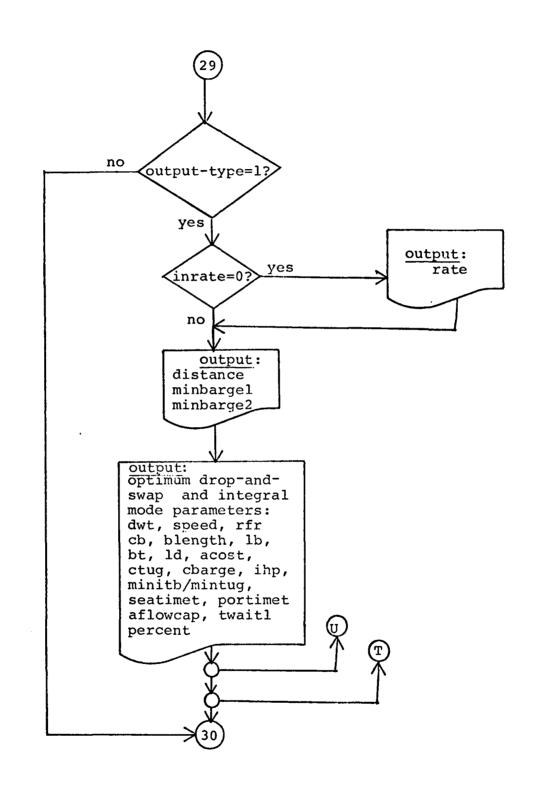


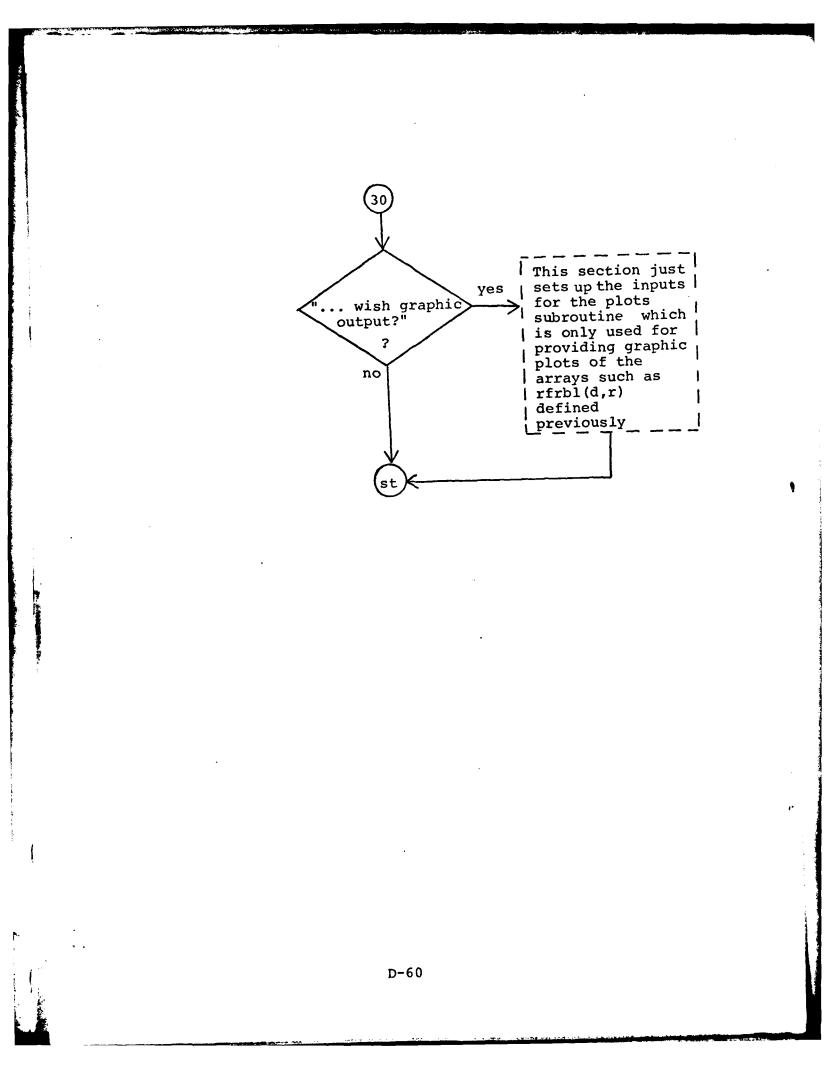












D.5 DICTIONARY OF VARIABLES USED IN THE DROP-AND-SWAP COMPUTER MODEL

DEFINITION OF VARIABLES IN THE PROGRAM "drop-and-swap"

Variable Definition (units)

acargo: Annual Time Value for Cargo Cost. Total annual cost for the time value of the cargoes onboard the barge while being transported. The product of the annual discount rate times the seatime times the cargo value. (\$)

acost: Annual Cost. Total annual cost for either drop-and-swap or integral OGTB system, including annual operating costs and annualized present value share of capital costs. (\$)

- acrew: Annual Crew Cost. Annual costs for crew, including wages and subsistence, for a tug. (\$/tug)
- admin: Annual Administrative Costs. Annual costs for administration of tug. (\$/tug)
- aflowave1: Annual Average Cargo Flow from Port 1. Average annual flow of cargo to be loaded at Port 1 and discharged at Port 2. (cargo units)
- aflowave2: Annual Average Cargo Flow from Port 2. Average annual flow of cargo to be loaded at Port 2 and discharged at Port 1. (cargo units)

aflowcap: Annual Flow Capacity. Annual amount of cargo capacity provided by each tug, product of barge DWT and number of tug voyages. (cargo units)

afuel: Annual Fuel Cost. Annual cost for fuel for a tug; product of the number of tug voyages, fuel consumption per voyage, and unit cost of fuel. (\$/tug)

ainsur: Annual Insurance Premiums. Annual cost for insurance for a tug-barge unit. (\$/tug-barge)

- alube: Annual Lube Oil Costs. Annual cost for lube oil for a tug; product of the number of tug voyages, lube oil consumption per voyage and unit cost of lube oil. (\$/tug)
- amandr: Annual M&R Costs. Annual cost for maintenance and repair of a tug-barge unit. (\$/tug-barge)
- aopcost: Annual Operating Cost. Annual costs for operating a tug-barge unit. (\$/tug-barge)
- aother: Annual Other Costs. Other annual miscellaneous operating costs not included in admin, afuel, alube, ainsur, amandr, acrew, asupplies, and aport. (\$/tug)
- aport: Annual Port Charges. Annual costs for port charges for each tug, including variable and fixed charges for Port 1 and Port 2. (\$/tug)
- astorcap: Annual Capital Cost for Storage Facilities. The cost for shoreside storage facilities required for the integral mode of operation. The product of the number of loading/discharging facilities, the barge size, and a cost factor ("cfixstor"). (\$)
- astorop: Annual Operating Costs for Storage Facilites. The annual operating cost incurred for the operation or use of shoreside storage facilities required for the integral mode of operation. The product of the annual cargo flows and a cost factor ("cvarstor"). (\$/yr)
- asupplies: Annual Supplies Cost. Annual costs for stores, supplies, and equipment for each tug-barge unit. (\$/tug-barge)
- atermcap: Total Capital Cost for Loading/Discharging Facilities. The capital cost for shoreside terminal facilities. The product of the terminal facilities throughput rate and a cost factor ("cfixterm"). (\$)
- atermop: Annual Operating Cost for Loading/Discharging Facilities. The annual operating costs incurred for the operation or use of the shoreside terminal facilities. The product of the annual cargo flows and a cost factor ("cvarterm"). (\$/yr)

best1(33)	1b
best1(34)	bt
best1(35)	ld

blurb1,2,3: Subroutine Plots input parameters representing title of graph, vertical axis, and horizontal axis.

bt: Breadth-Draft Ratio. The ratio of the tug-barge unit's breadth and draft. (ft)

cbarge: Cost of Barge. (\$)

c1,c2: Coefficient arrays used only as input parameters in the calling of subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "prop" of subprogram "power."

cb: Block Coefficient. The block coefficient of the tug-barge unit.

cf: Coefficient of Frictional Resistance for OGTB.

cfixport1: Fixed Port Charges for Port 1. Cost of fixed port charges of tug/barge at Port 1 per voyage. (\$/voyage)

cfixport2: Fixed Port Charges for Port 2. Cost of fixed port charges of tug/barge at Port 2 per voyage. (\$/voyage)

cfixstor: Storage Facility Capital Cost Factor. The cost per long ton for shoreside storage facilities used in the integral mode. (\$/LT)

cfixterm: Terminal Facility Capital Cost Factor. The cost per long ton per day throughput rate for terminal facilities. (\$/LT-day)

cfuel: Cost of Fuel. Diesel fuel cost per ton. (\$/LT)

clube: Cost of Lube Oil. Lube oil cost per gallon. (\$/Gal)

cmacht: Tug Machinery Cost. Cost of propulsion machinery onboard the tug; function of IHP. (\$1000/tug)

countr: Index for the loadline coefficient array(llcoef) used in the calculation of the variable "minfbd".

countfitb: Barge Outfit Cost. Cost of a ton of outfit material onboard the barge. (\$1000/LT)

- coutfitt: Tug Outfit Cost. Cost of a ton of outfit onboard the tug. (\$1000/LT) .
- csteelb: Barge Steel Cost. Cost of a ton of hull steel onboard the barge. (\$1000/LT)
- csteelt: Tug Steel Cost. Cost of a ton of hull steel onboard the tug. (\$1000/LT)
- csubs: Cost of Subsistence. Annual subsistence cost per crew member. (\$/man)
- ctug: Cost of Tug. Initial capital cost of a tug as a function of steel and outfit weight and machinery cost. (\$/tug)
- ctugbarges: Cost of Tug and Barges. Total capital cost of all tugs and barges in the system. (\$)
- cvarport1: Variable Port Charges for Port 1. Cost per cargo unit capacity for port charges at Port 1 per voyage. (\$/cargo unit and voyage)
- cvarport2: Variable Port Charges for Port 2. Cost per cargo unit capacity for port charges at Port 2 per voyage. (\$/cargo unit and voyage)
- cvarstor: Storage Facility Operating Cost Factor. The cost per long ton stored in the integral mode. (\$/LT)
- cvarterm: Terminal Facility Operating Cost Factor. The cost per long ton moved through a terminal facility. (\$/LT)
- cwage: Cost of Wages. Annual benefit and wage cost per crew member. (\$/man)
- d: Distance Index. Index used to represent the variable distance in optimum system arrays-rfrb1, rfrb2, dwtb1,...mintugs.
- dbarge: Depth of Barge. (ft)

3 3

delay1: Port 1 Delay Time. Length of delay at Port 1 prior to and after cargo operations, including docking/undocking and awaiting berth time for the barge. (hrs)

delay2: Port 2 Delay Time. Same as "delay1" except for Port 2.

- delbt: Breadth-Depth Ratio Increment. The incremental B/T to be used while varying the tugebarge breadth-depth ratio from its minimum to its maximum value.
- delcb: Block Coefficient Increment. The incremental Cb to be used while varying the tug-barge block coefficient from its minimum to its maximum value.
- deldist: Distance Increment. The incremental distance to be used while varying the port separation distance from its minimum to its maximum value. (nautical miles)
- deldwt: Deadweight Increment. The incremental deadweight to be used while varying the barge deadweight from its minimum to its maximum value. (cargo units)
- dellb: Length-Breadth Ratio Increment. The incremental lb to be used while varying the tug-barge length-breadth ratio from its minimum to its maximum value.
- delrate: Loading/Discharge Rate Increment. The incremental L/D rate to be used while varying the L/D from its minimum to its maximum value. (cargo units/day)
- delspeed: Tug Speed Increment. The incremental tug speed to be used while varying the tug speed from its minimum to its maximum value. (kts)
- dhp: Delivered Horsepower. Horsepower required to be delivered to the propeller to drive the tug-barge unit "speed" knots.
- displ: Barge Displacement. (LT)
- disrate: Discount Rate. Discount rate to be used in present value calculations.
- distance: Port Separation Distance. Distance between Port 1 and Port 2 in miles. (nautical miles)
- dq: Coefficient array used only as an input parameter in the calling of subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "prop" of subprogram "power."

- drange: Distance Range. Number of port separation distances to be investigated.
- dsopt: Drop and Swap Option. This option enables the program to investigate two types of drop-and-swap configurations. When dsopt=0, both ports have a minimum of one barge stationed for L/D. When dsopt=1, the port with lowest L/D time has no barges stationed for L/D and tug remains with barge while in port.
- dt: Coefficient array used only as an input parameter in the calling of subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "prop" of subprogram "power."
- dwt: Barge Deadweight. (cargo capacity units)
- dwtb1: Array variable used to store the barge deadweight size of the optimum drop-and-swap system for given port separation distance and L/D rates. (cargo capacity units)
- dwtb2: Same as dwtb1 except for integral system. (cargo capacity units)
- econlife: Economic Life. Economic life of the OTGB system used in present value calculations. (yrs)
- ehp: Effective Horsepower. Horsepower required to be delivered by the propeller to drive the tug-barge unit "speed" knots.
- eta: Relative Rotative Efficiency Array. Array of relative rotative efficiency (x1000) values used as input parameters in the calling of subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "propfactors" of subprogram "power."

fbd: Barge Freeboard. (in)

- fuelcons: Fuel Consumption. Amount of fuel consumed by the tug per voyage. (LT/voyage)
- fuelmargin: Fuel Margin. Percentage of fuel above "fuelcons" required to be onboard tug after bunkering.
- graph_type: Subroutine Plots inputs parameter used to designate type of graphical output. If equals 0, loading rate is abscissa; if equals 1, distance is abscissa.

- hr: Relative Rotative Ffficiency. Relative rotative efficiency $(n_{\rm R})$ of tug-barge hull form.
- hullwt75: Hull steel weight for tug-barge unit with Cb=0.75 as a function of lb, bt, and dwt. (LT)
- hullwt80: Hull steel weight for tug-barge unit with Cb=0.80 as a function of lb, bt, and dwt. (LT)
- hullwt85: Hull steel weight for tug-barge unit with Cb=0.85 as a function of lb, bt, and dwt. (LT)
- i: Index Parameter used in do loop to solve for Coefficient of Frictional Resistance for OGTB.
- ibit: Subroutine "yesno" output value designating response of user to a question. If yes was signified, ibit equals 1; if no was signified, ibit equals 0.
- ihp: Installed Horsepower. Horsepower of engines installed onboard tug. (horsepower)
- index: Subprogram "power" Error Index. An index used to indicate if some calculation error occurred during the call of subprogram "Power".
- inflafctr: Inflation Factor. A factor used to correct the total annual cost ("acost") for inflation after January 1979.
- inrate: Loading/Discharging Rate Input Option Parameter. If equals 0, then the rate of loading and discharge at each port will be the same and equal at each port and will be systematically varied from the minimum to the maximum specified value. If equals 1, the loading and discharge rate at each port will be required input.
- iopt: Drop and Swap/Integral Mode Option. This option is used in the main computations. When it equals 0, then drop-and-swap calculations are executed. When it equals 1, then integral mode calculations are executed.
- iopt3: Detailed Output Option. This option is used to specify how much detail is desired in the output. When it equals 0, only the optimum drop-and-swap and integral system values are printed out for a given distance and loading/discharging rate. When it equals 1, drop-and-swap and integral mode

values are printed for every value of dwt, speed, distance, rate, cb, bt, and lb.

iout: Output of Input Data Option. This option is used to insure that the input parameter values are printed only once. When 0, input is printed; when 1, input is not printed.

- iout2: Output of Nonconvergence Message Option. This option is used to insure that the message of nonconvergence of the waiting time routine is printed only once for a given L/D rate and port separation distance. If equals 0, message will be printed. When equals 1, message will not be printed.
- iout3: Form Coefficient Under/Overflow Indicator. This variable is set to 1 if either 1b, bt, or cb values are out of interpolable ranges. Otherwise its value is zero. It is used in the program to allow the user to revise his form coefficient inputs without having to input any other data.
- j: Index parameter used in do loop to solve for waiting times, voyage times, and minimum tugs required in drop-and-swap mode. Also used in Yesno Subroutine.
- lb: Lenth-Breadth Ratio. The ratio of tug-barge unit's length and breadth. (ft)

lbarge: Length of Barge. (ft)

lbarge80: Length of barge with Cb=0.80 as a function of lb, bt, and dwt. (ft)

lbarge85: Length of barge with Cb=0.85 as a function of lb, bt, and dwt. (ft)

- ld: Length-Depth Ratio. The ratio of barge length and barge draft. (ft)
- ldfact: Length-Depth Ratio Loadline Factor. This factor is used to correct the tabulated minimum freeboard value (minfbd) for length-depth ratios less than 15.

litb: Length of Integrated Tug/Barge Combination. (ft)

- 11coef: Minimum Loadline Coefficient Array. From this array the value of minfbd is found via linear interpolation with respect to length.
- llfact: Minimum Loadline Coefficient File. The file in which llcoef is stored.
- ltug: Length of Tug. (ft)
- lubecons: Lube Oil Consumption. Amount of lube oil consumed by the tug per voyage. (gals/voyage)
- maxb: Maximum Beam. Maximum barge beam allowed during voyage. (ft)
- maxbt: Maximum Breadth-Draft Ratio. Maximum tug-barge bt value to be investigated.
- maxcb: Maximum Block Coefficient. Maximum barge block coefficient to be investigated.
- maxdist: Maximum Distance. Maximum port separation distance to be investigated. (nautical miles)
- maxdwt: Maximum Deadweight. Maximum barge cargo deadweight capacity to be investigated. (cargo units)
- max1: Maximum Length. Maximum OGTB length allowed during voyage. (ft)
- maxlb: Maximum Length-Breadth ratio. Maximum tug-barge L/B value to be investigated.
- maxrate: Maximum Loading/Discharge Rate. Maximum port L/D rate to be investigated. (cargo units/day)
- maxspeed: Maximum Speed. Maximum tug speed to be investigated. (kts)
- maxt1: Maximum Draft Port 1. Maximum allowed draft in Port 1. (ft)
- maxt2: Maximum Draft Port 2. Maximum allowed draft in Port 2. (ft)
- mflowave1: Monthly Average Cargo Flow from Port 1. Average monthly flow of cargo to be loaded at Port 1 and discharged at Port 2. (cargo units)

- mflowave2: Monthly Average Cargo Flow from Port 2. Average monthly flow of cargo to be loaded at Port 2 and discharged at Port 1. (cargo units)
- minbarge1: Minimum Barges/Terminal Facilities at Port 1. Minimum number of terminal facilities (and barges for drop-and-swap mode only) required at Port 1 in order to be compatible with Port 1 loading/discharging rates and flow requirements. (barges/facilities)
- minbarge2: Same as minbargel except for Port 2. (barges/facilities)
- minbarges1: Storage array for "minbarge1" for the port pair trades under consideration. (barges/facilities)
- minbarres2: Same as minbarges1 except for Port 2.
 (barges/facilities)
- minbrg1,2: Storage variables for values of minbarge1 and minbarge2, respectively, used for drop-and-swap calculations when dsopt is 0.
- minbt: Minimum Breadth-Draft Ratio. Minimum tug-barge B/T value to be investigated.
- mincb: Minimum Block Coefficient. Minimum tug-barge Cb value to be investigated.
- mindist: Minimum Distance. Minimum port separation distance to be investigated. (nautical miles)
- mindwt: Minimum Deadweight. Minimum barge cargo deadweight capacity to be investigated. (cargo units)
- mindwttemp: Temporary storage variable for the variable "mindwt" used for reducing the number of "dwt" iterations required.
- minfbd: Minimum Freeboard. The uncorrected (or block coefficient corrected) minimum freeboard value as obtained after linear interpolation of the array llcoef.
- minitb: Minimum OGTB. The minimum number of OGTB's required in the integral mode to provide sufficient flow capacity. (tug-barges)

minlb: Minimum Length-Breadth ratio. Minimum tug-barge

L/B value to be investigated.

minrate: Minimum Loading/Discharge Rate. Minimum port L/D rate to be investigated. (cargo units/day)

- minspeed: Minuimum Speed. Minimum tug operating speed to be investigated. (kts)
- mintug: Minimum Tugs. Minimum number of tugs required in the drop-and-swap mode to provide sufficient flow capacity. (tugs)
- mintugs1: Storage array for the minimum number of tugs required by the optimal drop-and-swap system for a given L/D rate and port separation distance. (tugs)
- mintugs2: Storage array for the minimum number of OGTB's required by the optimal integral system for a given port L/D rate and port separation distance. (OGTBs)
- multifetr1-3: Multiple Ship Cost Reduction Factors. Factors used to correct single unit costs for multi-unit orders for tugs and barges.
- nextchar: Yesno Subroutine input variables used to test if yes or no response was given by user.
- nrcrew: Number of Crew. Number of crew members required for a tug. (men)
- nrtrips: Number of Trips. Number of voyages tug or OGTB can make during a year. (voyages/year)
- o1,o2: Subroutine Plots Input Parameters representing the arrays of obscissa and ordinate coordinates of the points to be graphed.
- output_type: Output Type Option. Allows user to designate whether printed output is desired. If equals 1, printed output is provided. If equals 0, printed output is not provided.
- parameters: Name of file containing the semifixed parametric values used by the program.
- percent: Array used to store the percentage that port time takes of the total voyage time for the port pair trades under consideration.

plot : Subroutine used to graph output data.

- plot_scale: Subroutine used to set abscissa and ordinate scale minimum and maximum values.
- plot_setup: Subroutine used to set up the proper environment for the plot_subroutine.
- portimet: Tug Porttime. Time tug or CGTB remains in port during a voyage. (hrs)
- power: Subprogram used to calculate the "dhp" and "ehp" as a function of the tug-barge system's principal dimensions and speed.
- powerdata: File used to store data required by subprogram "power".
- propef: Open Water Propeller Efficiency (n_0) . The ratio of the power delivered by the propeller and the power delivered to the propeller in open water.
- pvf: Present Value Factor. Factor used in present value calculations; a function of the discount rate and economic life for the system.
- r: Iteration index used for port loading/discharging rates.
- rate: Loading/Discharging Rates. Daily amount of cargo which can be either loaded into or discharged out of a barge located at either port. Refers to each barge of the minimum required at that port. (cargo units/day)
- rc: Residual Resistance Array. Array of residual resistance coefficients used as input parameter for subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "resist" of subprogram "power."
- resist: Resistance. Total still water hydrodynamic resistance of the OGTB combination.
- rfr: Required Freight Rate. The amount of freight per cargo unit carried required to cover system operating and capital costs (present value annualized). (\$/cargo unit)
- rfrb1: Storage array for the minimum required freight rate found for a drop-and-swap system with

specified port L/D rate and port separation distance. (\$/cargo unit)

rfrb2: Same as for rfrb1 except for integral mode. (\$/cargo unit)

rload1: Loading Rate at Port 1. Daily cargo loading rate at Port 1. (cargo units/day)

rload2: Loading Rate at Port 2. Daily cargo loading rate at Port 2. (cargo/units/day)

rlubeoil: Lube Oil Consumption Rate. Amount of lube oil consumed per hour. (gal/hr)

rportfuel: Inport Fuel Consumption Rate. Amount of Diesel fuel consumed per hour while tug is in port. (ton/hr)

rrange: Rate Range. Number of L/D rates to be investigated.

rseafuel: At Sea Fuel Consumption Rate. Amount of diesel fuel to be consumed per hour by the tug while steaming. (tons/hr)

runload1: Unloading Rate at Port 1. Daily cargo discharge rate per terminal at Port 1. (cargo units/day)

runload2: Unloading Rate at Port 2. Daily cargo discharge rate per terminal at Port 2. (cargo units/day)

seatimet: Tug Seatime. Time tug or OGTB is at sea; including delay time and linkage time (drop-and-swap mode only). (hours per voyage)

servmargin: Service Margin. Engine horsepower service margin used to calculate IHP.

sfc: Specific Fuel Consumption. Amount of diesel fuel consumed per horsepower per hour by the tug at sea. (lbs/hp-hr)

shp: Shaft Horsepower. Shaft horsepower required by
tug to push OGTB through the water at the
specified speed. (horsepower)

shrfact: Sheer Correction Factor. Correction to the freeboard calculation due to lack of sheer expected in the barge form.

speed: Tug Speed. Tug designed service speed. (kts)

speedb1: Storage array for the speed of the drop-and-swap system for a given port L/D rate and port separation distance. (kts)

speedb2: Same as speedb1 except for integral mode. (kts)

sysin: System input file

sysprint: System output file

t:

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Thrust Deduction Fraction Array. Array of one minus the thrust deduction fraction (x1000) values used as input parameter in the calling of subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "propfactors" of subprogram "power."

tbarge: Barge Draft. (ft)

tdwt: Total Deadweight of OGTB. Includes cargo deadcapacity plus fuel and miscellaneous weight weights. (cargo units)

temp: Temporary storage location used for various intermediate calculations.

th: Thrust Deduction Fraction. Thrust deduction fraction (t) of the tug-barge form.

tlink: Linking Time. Time required to link a tug with a barge for drop-and-swap operations. (hrs)

totcapcost: Total Capital Cost. Total system capital costs for tugs, barges, terminal facilities, (and storage facilities for integral mode only). (\$)

totopcost: Total Operating Costs. Total OGTB system operating costs. For drop-and-swap mode it includes M&R and insurance costs for those barges in excess of the number of tugs. (\$)

tport1: L/D Time Spent in Port 1. Amount of time required for L/D operations at Port 1 per barge. (hrs)

tport2: L/D Time Spent in Port 2. Amount of time required for L/D operations at Port 2 per barge (hrs)

Tug Total Voyage Time. Amount of time required ttript:

by tug for a voyage. (days)

tugopdays: Tug Operating Days. Number of days during the year in which a tug is expected to be available for operations. (days)

- tunlink: Unlinking Time. Time required to disconnect barge from tug for drop-and-swap operations. (hrs)
- twait1: Port 1 Waiting Time. Time tug is required to wait for barge at Port 1 during drop-and-swap operations. (hrs)
- twait2 Port 2 Waiting Time. Time tug is required to wait for barge at Port 2 during drop-and-swap operations. (hrs)
- vcargo: Cargo Value. Value of cargo per long ton. (\$/LT)
- volwt: Cargo Cubic Capacity. The amount of cargo that could fit within the cubic volume of the barge. (LT)
- w: Wake Fraction Array. Array of one minus the wake fraction (x1000) values used as an input parameter in the calling of subprogram "power"; values are used in subroutine "propfactors" of subprogram "power."
- wa: Wake Fraction. Wake fraction (W_T) of the tug-barge form.
- wmacht: Tug Machinery Weight. (LT)
- wmisc: Tug Miscellaneous Weight. (LT)
- woutfitb: Barge Outfit Weight. (LT)
- woutfitt: Tug Outfit Weight. (LT)
- wsteelb: Barge Hull Steel Weight. (LT)
- wsteelt: Tug Steel Weight. (LT)
- x: Subroutine Plots variable used to represent abscissa array values.
- xcb: Quadratic Interpolation Coefficient. Parameter used in the quadratic interpolation with respect

to block coefficient for the value of lbarge and wsteelb.

x1cb: Same as for xcb.

and the second second

x2cb: Same as for xcb.

x3cb: Same as for xcb.

xmax,xmin: Subroutine Plots variables used to represent minimum and maximum range of abscissa axis.

y1,y2: Subroutine Plots variables used to represent ordinate array values for drop-and-swap and integral modes respectively.

ymax,ymin: Subroutine Plots variables used to represent minimum and maximum range of ordinate axis.

APPENDIX E

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