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Improving the lateral capacity of monopiles in submarine clay

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Abstract (166 words)

The European offshore wind sector has been undergoing tremendous growth resulting in offshore wind farms having larger wind turbines that are located further away from the shore in harsh environmental conditions. To cater for the resulting higher loads, the current trend has been to continually increase the size of monopiles, which are the most popular foundation type. However, this is not viable long-term in terms of current installation technology.

This paper presents the results of three dimensional finite element analyses investigating the improvement in the lateral capacity of a large diameter monopile in clay when used in combination with hybrid features and rock armour. Non-skirted reinforced concrete and steel footings, a skirted steel footing and steel fins were assessed under a combination of vertical, lateral and moment loads expected at an offshore wind farm location with a water depth of 30 m.

Findings, based on shear and bending moment developed in the monopile and mobilised soil resistance, indicated the skirted steel footing and fins to be the most effective in enhancing the monopile lateral capacity at serviceability.

Keywords chosen from ICE Publishing list

Geotechnical engineering; Offshore engineering; Piles & piling

List of notation

c'	is the cohesion intercept
C_c	is the compression index
C_s	is the swelling index
C_p	is a constant used in computing the saturated permeability for clays
C_u	is a coefficient of uniformity
d	is the material cohesion for the Modified Drucker-Prager model
d_{10}	is the grain diameter for which 10% of the sample is finer
D	is the outer pile diameter
e_0	is the initial void ratio
E	is the undrained Young's modulus of soil
E'	is the drained Young's modulus of soil
E'_{50}	is the secant modulus corresponding to a stress level of 50% of the peak strength
E_{ref}	is the reference Young's modulus
E_0	is the Young's modulus of concrete
F	is the monopile shear force
F_c	is the cap yield surface for the Modified Drucker-Prager model
F_s	is the shear failure surface for the Modified Drucker-Prager model

1	h_w	is the water depth
2	G_s	is the specific gravity
3	H	is the lateral load applied to the monopile
4	H_{serv}	is the lateral pile capacity at serviceability
5	k_{sat}	is the saturated permeability of clay
6	K_0	is the coefficient of earth pressure at rest
7	L	is the embedded pile length
8	L_T	is the total pile length
9	M	is the monopile bending moment
10	M_a	is the overturning moment at mudline
11	M_p	is the plastic moment
12	M_y	is the yield moment
13	OCR	is the over-consolidation ratio
14	p	is the soil resistance against the pile
15	p'	is the mean effective stress
16	p_a	is a parameter that controls the volumetric plastic strain driven hardening/softening
17	p_b	is the mean pre-consolidation stress
18	p_h	is the mean equivalent hydrostatic stress
19	p_{ref}	is the atmospheric pressure
20	PI	is the plasticity index
21	R	is the cap eccentricity for the Modified Drucker-Prager model
22	s_u	is the undrained shear strength
23	t	is the deviatoric stress
24	t_{fin}	is the fin thickness
25	t_p	is the pile wall thickness
26	V	is the axial load applied to the monopile
27	w_L	is the liquid limit
28	x	is the tortuosity parameter used in computing the saturated permeability for clays
29	y	is the lateral pile displacement
30	y_a	is the lateral displacement applied at the pile head
31	y_m	is the lateral pile displacement at mudline
32	z	is the depth below mudline
33	γ_{sat}	is the saturated unit weight of soil
34	γ_w	is the unit weight of water
35	ρ_s	is the density of solid grains
36	θ_m	is the pile head rotation at mudline
37	φ'	is the angle of friction
38	φ'_{cs}	is the critical state friction angle
39	φ'_p	is the peak friction angle
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1	δ	is the pile-soil interface friction angle
2	α	is the radius of the transition surface
3	β	is the angle of friction for the Modified Drucker-Prager model
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5	σ'_c	is the vertical pre-consolidation stress
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7	σ'_x	is the effective lateral stress
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9	μ_w	is the dynamic viscosity of water
10	χ	is a material parameter used in computing the saturated permeability for clays
11	ν'	is the drained Poisson's ratio
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13	ψ	is the dilatancy angle
14	ε_{vol}^p	is the volumetric plastic strain
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1. Introduction

The offshore wind sector in the European Union is undergoing phenomenal growth with forecasts indicating its installed capacity in the year 2020 to be 40 GW, representing an eight-fold increase from its current capacity of 5 GW (EWEA 2013). Owing to their ease of fabrication and installation, monopiles are currently the most popular type of foundation for supporting offshore wind turbines in shallow to medium depth waters of up to 30 m. Monopiles are driven open-ended tubular steel piles, 4-6 m in diameter with an embedded length to diameter ratio of 4-8. With offshore wind farms increasingly being located further away from the shore and wind turbines increasing in size, larger monopiles are being required to withstand the corresponding structural and environmental loads. However, they would be impractical to install using current offshore technology. Therefore, it is vital that an improvement in monopile lateral capacity is investigated using hybrid features that are feasible to construct and install.

Centrifuge tests and three-dimensional (3D) finite element analyses (FEA) by Lehane et al. 2014 indicated that, at prototype scale, a steel footing, 17.5 m in diameter and 2.625 m in thickness, when used in combination with a 3.33 m diameter monopile in sand, led to almost a doubling of the lateral pile capacity. Similarly, centrifuge tests by Stone et al. 2011 on a 0.95 m diameter pile combined with a steel footing, 5 m in diameter and 0.25 m in thickness, also reported an increase in the lateral pile capacity in sand. 1g model tests by Arshi et al. 2013 indicated that the addition of skirts to 80 mm diameter steel footings increased the lateral pile capacity in sand by approximately 50% relative to the non-skirted footings. However, there were ambiguities in the reported results as skirt lengths were not specified. On the contrary, centrifuge tests and 3D FEA by Lehane et al. 2010 suggested that 15-20 m diameter footings, both non-skirted and skirted, were ineffective in increasing the lateral capacity of a 4 m diameter monopile in clay with a near surface undrained shear strength of 20 kPa.

Bienen et al. 2012 showed through centrifuge tests in medium dense sand that the lateral capacity of a prototype pile, 2.4 m in diameter and 9.6 m in embedded length, was increased by 40% when it was used in combination with steel fins, 3.2 m in length and 1.6 m in width. 1g

1 model tests and 3D FEA by Peng et al. 2010 indicated the optimum fin length for a short rigid
2 pile in medium dense sand to be half the embedded pile length. Through 1g tests on flexible
3 piles with embedded length to diameter ratio of 15, Nasr 2014 reported that in comparison to
4 triangular fins, rectangular fins were more effective in increasing the lateral pile capacity in
5 medium dense sand. Bienen et al. 2012 and Nasr 2014 used 2 fins perpendicular to the
6 direction of lateral loading whereas Peng et al. 2010 employed 4 equally spaced fins.
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14 Although they indicate promising results, with the exception of Lehane et al. 2010, all these
15 studies have been undertaken in sand. However, geotechnical investigation reports for offshore
16 wind farms in the Irish Sea and the United Kingdom sector of the North Sea indicate significant
17 presence of clays within the seabed. In addition, a detailed study comparing the various hybrid
18 options in clayey soils using realistic prototype dimensions applicable to monopiles whilst
19 incorporating varied construction materials such as steel, reinforced concrete (RC) and rock,
20 has yet to be undertaken.
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31 To plug this research gap, 3D soil-pore fluid coupled FEA was undertaken using
32 Abaqus/Standard Version 6.12 (Dassault Systèmes 2012) to analyse the improvement in the
33 lateral capacity of a 5 m diameter monopile in clay when used in combination with rock armour,
34 non-skirted RC and steel footings, skirted steel footing and steel fins.
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41 **2. Model geometry**

42 **2.1 Monopile**

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44 Based on statistics of installed monopiles (LORC 2011), the monopile was modelled to have an
45 outer diameter, D , of 5 m, wall thickness, t_p , of 60 mm, total length, L_T , of 66 m and embedded
46 length, L , of 30 m.
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52 **2.2 Soil**

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54 The soil block was cylindrical with a diameter of 100 m ($20D$) and a height of 50 m ($1.67L$).
55 These dimensions were verified to be adequate in preventing artificial boundary effects on the
56 behaviour of the hybrid monopile-soil system. The bottom of the soil was fixed against
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1 translation in all directions whereas the lateral boundary was fixed against horizontal translation.
2 Hydraulically, the top surface of the soil was a drained boundary whereas the lateral boundary
3 and the base of the soil were impermeable.
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8 **2.3 Hybrid features**

9 The footing diameter and fin length were based on previous research on hybrid monopiles, in
10 which the former was between 3.75 and 5.3D (Lehane et al. 2010, Lehane et al. 2014, Stone et
11 al. 2011) and the latter was considered optimum at 0.5L (Peng et al. 2010). However, to
12 facilitate the installation of the finned monopile in practice, the fin width adopted was between
13 20-40% smaller than used in past research (Peng et al. 2010, Bienen et al. 2012). The
14 thickness of the footings, skirt and fins was dictated by constructability whereas the skirt length
15 was based on available field data for suction caissons (Houlsby et al. 2005).
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24 *2.3.1 RC footing*

25 The circular RC footing was an annulus that was 1 m thick with an outer diameter of 20 m (4D)
26 through which there was a 5 m diameter opening for the pile. A sectional view of this footing is
27 shown in Figure 1a. Assuming the footing would be grouted to the monopile, the pile-footing
28 interface was governed by tangential and normal contact constraints. A conservative value of
29 0.1 was used for the coefficient of friction between wet steel and concrete (Gorst et al. 2003).
30 To control cracking in the footing, 32 mm diameter steel reinforcing bars were used. The area of
31 reinforcement provided was 0.21% of the cross-sectional area of the footing, which conformed
32 to the minimum tensile reinforcement requirements of Eurocode 2 (BSI 2004).
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42 *2.3.2 Steel footing*

43 The circular steel footing was 0.15 m thick with a diameter of 20 m (4D) through which there
44 was a 5 m diameter opening for the pile. Since the footing would be welded to the monopile, its
45 translation and rotation were constrained to the monopile segment. A cross-sectional view is
46 shown in Figure 1b.
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51 *2.3.3 Skirted steel footing*

52 Illustrated in Figure 1c, its dimensions were the same as the steel footing except that it had a
53 skirt, 5 m in length and 0.06 m in thickness.
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2.3.4 Steel fins

The monopile geometry was altered to provide it with 4 rectangular fins, each having length of 15 m ($0.5L$), width of 2 m ($0.4D$) and thickness, t_{fin} , of 0.06 m. Although the unidirectional lateral load used in these analyses only required 2 fins that were perpendicular to the direction of loading, 4 equally spaced fins were used in the model to cater for the multi-directional loading scenario that would exist at an offshore wind farm location. Its sectional view is shown in Figure 1d.

With the exception of reinforcing bars for which 2-noded linear truss elements (T3D2) were employed, 8-noded linear elements were used for the rest of the components. Quadratic elements were not used as they brought about a negligible increase in accuracy at a considerable computational cost (Haiderali 2015). The monopile, skirted and non-skirted steel footings, and fins were constructed of reduced integration continuum shell elements (SC8R) whereas the RC footings and the soil were made of full integration brick elements with the latter having pore pressure degree of freedom (C3D8 and C3D8P respectively). Relatively fine meshes comprising 143,840 to 144,160 elements (depending on the hybrid feature) were verified to be sufficiently accurate via a mesh sensitivity study (Haiderali 2015). The monopile-RC footing-soil meshed model and a close-up view of the monopile-skirted footing-soil model, is illustrated in Figure 2. For clarity, only one-half of the model, along the axis of load symmetry, is shown.

3. Material models

A ground investigation factual report for a proposed offshore wind farm in the English Channel was used to develop the soil model comprising 1 m of soft clay underlain by 9 m of stiff clay, 20 m of very stiff clay and 20 m of very dense sand. The soil profile is illustrated in Figure 2. All soils were considered to be fully saturated, their key geotechnical parameters summarised in Table 1. Due to the permeability of the clay being very low relative to the rate of loading, these analyses simulated undrained conditions as would occur in practice under an extreme storm.

Table 1 Key geotechnical parameters

Depth	Soil type	Parameters
0 - 1 m	Soft clay	$G_s = 2.61$, $\gamma_{sat} = 15.51 - 17.05 \text{ kN/m}^3$ $w_L = 78\%$, $w_P = 21\%$, $PI = 57\%$ $C_c = 0.575$, $C_s = 0.115$ $\phi'_{cs} = 19.7^\circ$, $c' = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ($\beta = 37.2^\circ$, $d = 1.1 \text{ kPa}$) $K_0 = 0.663$, $\delta = 15.9^\circ$, $\mu = 0.285$, $\nu' = 0.3$ $k_{sat} = 7.94 \times 10^{-10} - 2.02 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m/s}$
1 - 10 m	Stiff clay	$G_s = 2.73$, $\gamma_{sat} = 20.10 - 21.65 \text{ kN/m}^3$ $w_L = 67\%$, $w_P = 23\%$, $PI = 44\%$ $C_c = 0.329$, $C_s = 0.063$ $\phi'_p = 21^\circ$, $c' = 10.6 - 19.4 \text{ kPa}$ ($\beta = 39.1^\circ$, $d = 22.4 - 41.2 \text{ kPa}$) $K_0 = 1.673 - 0.895$, $\delta = 16.5^\circ$, $\mu = 0.296$, $\nu' = 0.25$ $k_{sat} = 3.56 \times 10^{-11} - 8.5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m/s}$
10 - 30 m	Very stiff clay	$G_s = 2.73$, $\gamma_{sat} = 21.65 - 22.32 \text{ kN/m}^3$ $w_L = 63.3\%$, $w_P = 22.4\%$, $PI = 40.9\%$ $C_c = 0.170$, $C_s = 0.022$ $\phi'_p = 21.4^\circ$, $c' = 20 \text{ kPa}$ ($\beta = 39.8^\circ$, $d = 42.4 \text{ kPa}$) $K_0 = 0.891 - 0.657$, $\delta = 16.7^\circ$, $\mu = 0.3$, $\nu' = 0.25$ $k_{sat} = 9.82 \times 10^{-12} - 4.87 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m/s}$
30 - 50 m	Very dense sand	$G_s = 2.65$, $\gamma_{sat} = 20.98 \text{ kN/m}^3$ $d_{10} = 0.023 \text{ mm}$, $C_u = 3.91$ $\phi'_p = 33^\circ$, $c' = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$, $\psi = 5^\circ$ $K_0 = 0.455$, $\delta = 23.1^\circ$, $\mu = 0.427$, $\nu' = 0.35$ $k_{sat} = 9.74 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$

3.1 Clay

As shown in Figure 3a, the soft normally consolidated clay had undrained shear strength, s_u , of 25 kPa while the stiff and very stiff over-consolidated clays had s_u of 100-200 kPa and 200-350 kPa respectively. With the exception of soft clay, for which it was zero, the cohesion intercept, c' , was assumed to be 10% of s_u (Danish Standards 1998). However, its maximum value was capped at 10 kPa for the stiff clay and 20 kPa for the very stiff clays. The vertical pre-consolidation stress, σ'_c , and over-consolidation ratio, OCR, along with the compression (C_c) and swelling (C_s) indices, were estimated from the oedometer test compression curves, which were corrected for sample disturbance using the Schmertmann method described in Holtz and

1 Kovacs (1981). The *OCR* varied between 14.5 at a depth of 1 m and 1.1 at a depth of 30 m, as
2 illustrated in Figure 3b while the initial void ratio, e_0 , varied between 1.9 and 0.4 (Figure 3c).
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6 Due to the paucity of consolidated drained triaxial tests on clay samples, their friction angle, φ'
7 – critical state, φ'_{cs} , for the soft clay and peak, φ'_p , for the stiff and very stiff clays - were
8 correlated with their plasticity index, *PI*, as per Equations 1 and 2 respectively (Sorensen and
9 Okkels 2013).
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$$14 \varphi'_{cs} = 39 - 11 \log_{10} PI \quad (1)$$

$$15 \varphi'_p = 44 - 14 \log_{10} PI \quad (2)$$

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23 The coefficient of earth pressure at rest, K_0 , for normally and over-consolidated clays was
24 computed using Equation 3 (Jaky 1944) and Equation 4 (Mayne and Kulhawy 1982)
25 respectively.
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$$31 K_0 = 1 - \sin \varphi'_{cs} \quad (3)$$

$$32 K_0 = (1 - \sin \varphi'_p) OCR^{\sin \varphi'_p} \quad (4)$$

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38 The interface friction angle, δ , between the steel pile/hybrid feature and clay was calculated
39 using Equation 5 (Randolph and Wroth 1981).
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$$44 \delta = \tan^{-1}\{(\sin \varphi' \times \cos \varphi') / (1 + \sin^2 \varphi')\} \quad (5)$$

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48 Although soil permeability measurements were available from triaxial tests, their accuracy was
49 questionable as very low values, in the region of 10^{-8} m/s, were obtained for sand samples. This
50 was thought to be due to the porous stones in the triaxial equipment being clogged by clay
51 particles from previous tests on clay samples. Therefore, the saturated permeability, k_{sat} , of
52 clays was predicted to vary between 7.94×10^{-10} and 4.87×10^{-12} m/s using Equation 6
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58 (Mbonimpa et al. 2002).
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$$k_{\text{sat}} = 0.01 C_p \frac{\gamma_w e_0^{3+x}}{\mu_w (1 + e_0 \rho_s^2 w_L^{2\chi})} \frac{1}{\rho_s^2 w_L^{2\chi}} \quad (6)$$

where

k_{sat} is in m/s,

C_p is a constant equal to 5.6 g²/m⁴,

γ_w is the unit weight of water equal to 9.8 kN/m³,

μ_w is the dynamic viscosity of water equal to 10⁻³ Pa.s,

χ is a material parameter equal to 1.5,

ρ_s is the density of the solid grains in kg/m³, which is derived from the clay's specific gravity, G_s ,

w_L is the liquid limit in %, and

x is parameter that takes into account the effect of tortuosity and is defined as:

$$x = 7.7 w_L^{-0.15} - 3 \quad (7)$$

Based on published literature, the drained Poisson's ratio, ν' , was specified to be 0.25 for soft clays and 0.3 for the stiff and very stiff clays. The stiffness, E , of the clays was estimated using the Duncan and Buchignani 1976 correlation with s_u , OCR and PI , and ranged between 4.4 and 105 MPa (Figure 3d).

The clay behaviour was represented by the elasto-plastic Modified Drucker-Prager constitutive model, whose yield surface, illustrated in Figure 4, is composed of two segments - a linear pressure dependent shear failure surface, F_s (Equation 8), and an elliptical cap yield surface, F_c (Equation 9). F_s is perfectly plastic while F_c hardens or softens as a function of the volumetric plastic strain, $\varepsilon_{\text{vol}}^p$. Yielding on F_c causes hardening while that on F_s causes softening.

$$F_s = t - p_h \tan \beta - d = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$F_c = \sqrt{(p_h - p_a)^2 + \left[\frac{Rt}{(1 + \alpha - \alpha / \cos \beta)} \right]^2} - R(d + p_a \tan \beta) = 0 \quad (9)$$

where

t is the deviatoric stress, p_h is the equivalent hydrostatic pressure, β is the angle of friction, d is the material cohesion, p_a is a parameter that controls the volumetric plastic strain driven hardening/softening, R is the cap eccentricity (calibrated to be 0.1), and α is the radius of the transition surface that provides a smooth intersection between F_s and F_c . For these analyses, the transition surface was omitted; hence $\alpha=0$.

β and d were computed by matching them to Mohr-Coulomb triaxial compression (Equations 10 and 11),

$$\tan \beta = \frac{6 \sin \varphi'}{3 - \sin \varphi'} \quad (10)$$

$$d = \frac{6c' \cos \varphi'}{3 - \sin \varphi'} \quad (11)$$

and cap hardening was prescribed at 1 m depth intervals as a piecewise linear function relating the pre-consolidation yield stress, p_b , and ε_{vol}^p (Equation 12).

$$\varepsilon_{vol}^p = \frac{C_c - C_s}{2.3(1 + e_0)} \log_{10} \frac{p'}{p_b} \quad (12)$$

where

p' is the mean effective stress.

3.2 Very dense sand

The sand had constant e_0 of 0.503 (Figure 3c), saturated unit weight, γ_{sat} , of 20.98 kN/m³ and grain diameter, d_{10} , of 0.023 mm. Its φ'_p was determined from consolidated drained triaxial tests to be 33° whereas its dilatancy angle, ψ , was computed to be 5° (Koerner 1970). Although non-zero values were reported for c' , it was considered prudent to consider the sand as cohesionless. Its k_{sat} was computed to be 9.74×10^{-6} m/s using Equation 12 (Chapuis 2004).

$$k_{sat} = 0.024622 \left(\frac{d_{10}^2 e_0^3}{1 + e_0} \right)^{0.7823} \quad (12)$$

1 where k_{sat} is in m/s and d_{10} is in mm.
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4 The secant modulus corresponding to a stress level of 50% of the peak strength, E'_{50} , computed
5 using Equation 13, was considered apt for the sands (Schanz and Vermeer 1998).
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$$E'_{50} = E_{\text{ref}} \sqrt{\sigma'_x / p_{\text{ref}}} \quad (13)$$

10 where

11 p_{ref} is the atmospheric pressure equal to 100 kPa,
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14 σ'_x is the effective lateral stress, and
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17 E_{ref} is the reference stiffness, specified to be 50 MPa to attain E'_{50} values between 63.4 and
18 80.7 MPa (Figure 3d) that were a close fit to the values reported in results of triaxial tests for a
19 limited number of sand samples.
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27 The Mohr Coulomb model, with a non-associative flow rule, was used to characterise the sand
28 behaviour.
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33 **3.3 Reinforced concrete**

34 C40/50 reinforced concrete with characteristic cylinder strength of 40 N/mm² was simulated
35 using the concrete damaged plasticity model (Lubliner et al. 1989) (Lee and Fenves 1998). It is
36 a continuum elastoplastic model that takes into account damage to quasi-brittle materials under
37 low confining stresses as a result of tensile cracking and compression crushing. At sufficiently
38 high confining stresses, the concrete is assumed to behave as a strain hardening/softening
39 material. The parameters for this class of concrete were obtained from laboratory tests reported
40 by Jankowiak and Lodygowski 2005. The concrete was assigned a density of 2400 kg/m³,
41 Young's Modulus of 19.7 GPa, Poisson's ratio of 0.19 and dilation angle (internal friction angle)
42 of 38°. The reinforcing bars were assumed to be ribbed with density of 7840 kg/m³, Young's
43 Modulus of 210 GPa, Poisson's ratio of 0.3 and characteristic yield strength of 500 MPa.
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57 **3.4 Steel**

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1 Steel was modelled as an elastic perfectly plastic material with density of 7840 kg/m³, Young's
2 Modulus of 210 GPa and Poisson's ratio of 0.3. Depending on the thickness of the structural
3 member, its yield strength varied between 335 and 295 MPa.
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7 **4. Loading**

8 After the soil had achieved geostatic equilibrium, the hybrid monopile system was subjected
9 sequentially to gravity, axial and lateral loads. Pile, fin and skirt installation effects were not
10 taken into account. An axial load, V , of 4.3 MN was applied incrementally to the pile head over
11 duration of 48 h (2 days) to cater for the self-weight of the turbine, tower and transition piece. A
12 lateral load, H , of 12.1 MN was applied incrementally at the pile head over duration of 132 h (5.5
13 days). This duration enabled prescription of a minimum step time increment that was
14 satisfactory in preventing pore pressure oscillation (Vermeer and Verruijt 1981). The resulting
15 overturning moment to lateral load ratio (M_a/H) at mudline was 36. This correlated to the
16 environmental loading regime monopiles would be subjected to at UK North Sea offshore
17 locations with harsh wind and water depth, h_w , of 30 m.
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31 Rock armour is commonly provided around a monopile to minimise scouring of the seabed,
32 which has an adverse effect on the dynamic response and lateral capacity of a monopile due to
33 the following:
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- 37 • The gradual reduction of soil in the scoured region reduces the effective embedment of
38 the monopile and increases the overturning moment on the pile due to an increase in
39 the lever arm of wind and wave loading, and
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- 42 • A reduction in soil support and stiffness lowers the natural frequency of the structure.
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47 Since clayey soils limit scour development (Whitehouse et al. 2011), it was assumed that the
48 rock armour can be relied upon to contribute to the long-term lateral capacity of hybrid
49 monopiles without undergoing significant attrition. Therefore, its effect on the lateral capacity of
50 hybrid monopiles was assessed by applying a 25 kPa surcharge, over a circular area of 294.5
51 m² around the monopile, on top of the footings or on the surface of the fins and the soft clay.
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1 This was equivalent to rock with volume of 307 m³ and mass of 736 tonnes, which was
2 representative of rock armour at offshore wind farms (Van Oord ACZ 2003).
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5. Model verification

7 The FEA model was calibrated using results of a centrifuge test carried out by Lau 2015 to
8 investigate investigate the lateral behaviour of monopiles in Speswhite Kaolin. Carried out at a
9 centrifugal acceleration of 100g, the model monopile, fabricated of aluminium, in prototype
10 scale, had D of 3.8 m, L_T of 50 m and L of 20 m. The clay was submerged to a prototype depth
11 of 4 m, which was limited by the height of the centrifuge strongbox.
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19 With PI of 33%, G_s of 2.61, ϕ' of 23.2° and OCR varying between 15 at mudline and 1.0 at the
20 pile tip, the artificially produced clay was consolidated under 1g conditions prior to the centrifuge
21 test to achieve the required s_u profile, which was measured using a seismic cone penetrometer
22 test. Its s_u increased from 3 kPa at mudline to 33 kPa at the pile tip. A 5 m (50 mm in model
23 scale) layer of dense Hostun sand with relative density of 70% was provided beneath the
24 Speswhite Kaolin to accelerate the consolidation process.
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34 The model monopile was installed to a prototype depth of 16 m at 1g with the remaining 4 m
35 installed at 100g following 4 hours of in-flight consolidation. This was considered sufficient in
36 mobilising the shaft friction and end bearing capacity of the pile. After the application of an axial
37 load, V , of 4 MN, the pile head was displaced laterally, at a rate of 0.05 mm/s, to a maximum
38 displacement, y_a , of 6 m (under prototype scale). As illustrated in Figure 5, a very good
39 agreement was obtained between the results of the FEA model and centrifuge test (CT). Similar
40 comparisons were made with more extensive centrifuge tests with different clay properties as
41 reported by Haiderali et al. 2014.
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6. Results

6.1 Lateral capacity

52 The deformation of an offshore wind turbine tower can adversely affect its nacelle by disrupting
53 the distribution of lubrication in gearboxes, imposing additional loads on bearings and creating
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1 abnormal component forces. Therefore, the performance of these hybrid monopiles is evaluated
2 in terms of serviceability rather than ultimate failure.
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6 The efficacy of the hybrid features in limiting pile displacement was assessed by comparing the
7 ratio of the lateral load required by the hybrid monopile, H_{Hybrid} , and that by the monopile-only,
8 $H_{Pile-only}$, to undergo the same lateral pile displacement at mudline, y_m . As illustrated in Figure 6,
9 without taking into account the surcharge load, H_{Hybrid} was on average 1.08 to 2.27 times greater
10 than $H_{Pile-only}$. Inclusion of the surcharge load increased the $H_{Hybrid}/H_{Pile-only}$ ratio to between 1.14
11 and 2.44. In this regard, the most effective was the skirted steel footing (2.27-2.44) followed by
12 the finned pile (1.6-1.66) and the RC footing (1.19-1.32) whereas the least effective was the
13 non-skirted steel footing (1.08-1.14).
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24 A comparison based on pile displacements can slightly over-estimate the effect of these hybrid
25 features mainly because the increased flexural rigidity they provide to the monopile results in its
26 point of rotation to move up leading to an increase in the pile head rotation at mudline, θ_m ,
27 which has to be limited to 0.25° during the design life of a monopile (Malhotra 2011). Therefore,
28 a better performance indicator is the serviceability lateral pile capacity, H_{serv} , at which θ_m is
29 equal to 0.25° . For the monopile-only, H_{serv} was determined to be 6.35 MN. When combined
30 with the non-skirted RC and steel footings, H_{serv} increased by a factor of 1.10 and 1.04, to 7.0
31 and 6.6 MN respectively. On the other hand, when used with the skirted steel footing and fins,
32 H_{serv} increased by considerably larger multipliers of 1.72 and 1.30, to 10.95 and 8.25 MN. This
33 represented an increase of 4-72% over the 4 hybrid options, with the skirted and non-skirted
34 steel footings being the most and least effective respectively.
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49 As illustrated in Figure 7, when the hybrid features were used in combination with the rock
50 armour, H_{serv} was enhanced by a further 4% for the non-skirted steel footing, 5% for the finned
51 monopile and 9% for the non-skirted RC and skirted steel footings to yield H_{serv} of 7.55, 6.85,
52 11.5 and 8.55 MN respectively. This denoted an overall increase in H_{serv} of 8-81%.
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57 The improvement in lateral capacity brought about by these 8 hybrid options is summarised in
58 Table 2.
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Table 2 Lateral pile capacity at serviceability, H_{serv}

Hybrid feature	H_{serv} (MN)		% Increase in H_{serv}	
	No surcharge	With surcharge	No surcharge	With surcharge
Monopile-only	6.35	-	-	-
RC footing	7.00	7.55	10	19
Non-skirted steel footing	6.60	6.85	4	8
Skirted steel footing	10.95	11.5	72	81
Fins	8.25	8.55	30	35

The 30-35% increase in lateral capacity brought about by the fins was less than the 40-76% improvement in sand reported by Bienen et al. 2012 and Peng et al. 2010. On the other hand, the provision of a skirt to the steel footing increased the pile lateral capacity in clay by a greater proportion (68-73%) in comparison to the 50% increase in sand reported by Arshi et al. 2013. However, this is to be regarded as an indirect comparison as skirt lengths were not stated by Arshi et al. 2013. Finally, contrary to the findings of Lehane et al. 2010, both the skirted and non-skirted steel footings enhanced the monopile lateral capacity in clay. However, owing to the relatively small improvement brought about by the non-skirted steel footing, increased material and installation costs would not justify its implementation.

6.2 Shear force and bending moment

A better understanding of the mechanisms through which these hybrid features enhanced the monopile lateral capacity was obtained by examining the shear force, F , and bending moment, M , developed along the embedded depth of the hybrid monopile. To ensure the results were generally applicable, independent of specific loading conditions, the shear force and bending moment have been normalised by the applied lateral load, H , and the overturning moment at mudline, M_a , respectively.

The pile shear force profile, shown in Figure 8 for the hybrid monopiles with surcharge at H of 5.5 MN, indicates that with the exception of the fins, the rest of the hybrid features provide a relatively large restoring force. The magnitude of the restoring force varied between $0.25H$ for

1 the non-skirted steel footing, $0.69H$ for the RC footing and $0.79H$ for the skirted steel footing (at
2 its centroid). Without surcharge, there was a reduction in the restoring force with respective
3 values of $0.14H$, $0.33H$ and $0.77H$. Hereafter, the shear force results incorporate the effect of
4 the surcharge load.
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10 The effectiveness of the non-skirted steel footing diminished very quickly with pile depth such
11 that the peak shear force in the hybrid monopile was 89% of that in the pile-only. The RC
12 footing retained its influence with depth slightly better such that its peak shear force was 82% of
13 that in the pile-only. The positive influence of the skirt on the steel footing is clearly evident with
14 the shear force significantly reduced in the lower half of the pile and the peak shear force, which
15 was 92% of that in the pile-only, occurring at a relatively shallow depth. Although the fins did not
16 generate a restoring force, they were effective in lowering the peak shear force in the finned pile
17 by 8% relative to the pile-only.
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28 Similarly, the bending moment profile, illustrated in Figure 9 for the hybrid monopiles with
29 surcharge at H of 5.5 MN, demonstrates that all the hybrid features except the fins generate a
30 resisting moment. The magnitude of the resisting moment varied between $0.038M_a$ for the
31 skirted steel footing, $0.043M_a$ for the RC footing and $0.054M_a$ for the non-skirted steel footing,
32 with surcharge included, and 0.023, 0.041 and $0.047M_a$ without surcharge respectively.
33 Consequently, relative to the pile-only, bending moments were lower throughout the embedded
34 length of the hybrid monopiles. Utilising surcharge, the skirted steel footing was best performing
35 with the peak bending moment in the pile below the skirt being 58% of that in pile-only. Even
36 though the non-skirted RC and steel footings contributed a larger resistive moment relative to
37 the skirted steel footing, they led to respective reductions of only 12% and 11% in the peak
38 bending moment thus explaining their inefficiency in improving the pile lateral capacity. As a
39 result of the fins generating a negligible resisting moment, the reduction in the finned pile's peak
40 bending moment was a paltry 2%.
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7. Discussion

On the basis of these results, the skirted steel footing, with and without surcharge, was the most effective hybrid option for enhancing the monopile lateral capacity. Its superiority is attributed to the extra soil resistance generated against the skirt, which can be visualised in Figure 10 by higher lateral soil stresses in its vicinity. As shown by Figure 11a, in comparison to the pile-only, the soil resistance along the skirt length was significantly greater, especially in the stiff clay layer where it was on average 716% higher at maximum lateral load. Beyond the skirt tip, there was a sharp drop in soil resistance, which suggests that most of the lateral load was being resisted by the clay adjacent to the skirt. This translated to a considerable reduction in the lateral displacement of the hybrid pile relative to the pile-only (Figure 11b). It can also be inferred from the reduction in soil resistance at the pile toe that part of this hybrid pile was redundant and that its embedded length could be reduced. However, this needs further investigation.

Even though the fins did not provide significant flexural stiffness to the pile, they were the next best option due to additional soil resistance being invoked against them. Figure 12a shows that, at maximum lateral load, the soil resistance against the finned section was on average 64% greater relative to the pile-only. At a depth, z , of 12.5 m (z/L of 0.417), just prior to the termination of the fins, there was a marked reduction in soil resistance, the effect of which cascaded to the underlying soil until the pile toe. As illustrated in Figure 12b, the increased soil resistance along the finned section led to a reduction in the lateral displacement throughout the finned pile relative to the pile-only. Interestingly, a slightly greater deflection of the fin toe, or 'toe-kick', occurred due to increased shearing there. This was also manifested by a 'kink' in the shear force profile immediately after the termination of the fins, at z/L of 0.517 (Figure 8). Increased shear stresses in the soil adjacent to the fins that are perpendicular to the direction of lateral loading can be visualised in Figure 13.

Of the 4 fins provided, the 2 perpendicular to the direction of lateral loading were considered most susceptible to plastic yielding. The presence of both sagging and hogging bending moments along the length of the perpendicular fins, shown in Figure 14a, indicates that the fins undergo twisting when laterally loaded. The deformed shape of the perpendicular fin, illustrated

1 in Figure 14b, confirms this. Figure 14a also shows that fin sections between the depth of 2.5
2 and 4 m (z/L ratio of 0.083 to 0.133) experience the most bending. However, up to the
3 maximum lateral load of 12.1 MN, these fin sections had not undergone plastic deformation as
4 the bending moment did not even exceed the elastic yield moment, M_y , of 0.402 MNm, let alone
5 the plastic moment, M_p , of 0.603 MNm (Figure 15).
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12 It can therefore be postulated that the relative inefficiency of the non-skirted RC and steel
13 footings can be attributed to their reliance on the resistance afforded by the soft clay beneath
14 the footings. Finally, the dead load from the rock armour interacted positively with the hybrid
15 monopiles and enhanced the lateral pile capacity by a further 4-9%.
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22 **8. Conclusion**

23 3D soil-pore fluid coupled FEA was undertaken to assess the effect of hybrid features, namely
24 non-skirted RC footing, non-skirted steel footing, skirted steel footing and steel fins, on the
25 lateral response of a 5 m diameter monopile in clay. The beneficial influence of rock armour,
26 represented by a surcharge load on the hybrid features, was incorporated into all the analyses.
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34 Results indicated a positive interaction between the hybrid features, the rock armour and the
35 monopile leading to an increase in its lateral capacity at serviceability. The skirted steel footing,
36 followed by the steel fins, were found to be the most effective hybrid options. However,
37 experimental research should be undertaken to verify the effectiveness of these hybrid features.
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43 **Acknowledgements**

44 The authors would like to acknowledge DONG Energy for providing the factual offshore wind
45 farm site investigation report used for developing the soil model.
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Figure captions

Figure 1. Geometry of hybrid features, (a) RC footing, (b) Steel footing, (c) Skirted steel footing, (d) Steel fins

Figure 2. Monopile-RC footing-soil model and mesh. Inset shows close-up of the monopile-skirted steel footing-soil model

Figure 3. Variation in geotechnical parameters with depth, (a) undrained shear strength (b) Over-consolidation ratio, (c) initial void ratio, (d) stiffness

Figure 4. Modified Drucker-Prager yield surface

Figure 5. Verification of FEA model using centrifuge test (CT), (a) lateral load-displacement curve, (b) bending moment profile at applied pile head displacement, y_a , of 1.61 m ($y_m = 0.5$ m), (c) lateral pile displacement profile at $y_a = 1.61$ m ($y_m = 0.5$ m)

Figure 6. Relative magnitude of lateral load required to cause hybrid monopile displacement at mudline equivalent to the monopile-only

Figure 7. Relationship between the lateral load and the pile rotation at mudline for the hybrid options with rock armour

Figure 8. Shear force profiles at a lateral load of 5.5 MN

Figure 9. Bending moment profiles at a lateral load of 5.5 MN

Figure 10. Higher lateral soil stresses against the skirt (deformation scale factor of 5; stress in kPa)

Figure 11. Comparison of results at maximum lateral load for pile-only and hybrid pile with skirted footing and surcharge (a) soil resistance profile (b) lateral pile displacement profile

Figure 12. Comparison of results at maximum lateral load for pile-only and finned pile with surcharge (a) soil resistance profile (b) pile lateral displacement profile

Figure 13. Increased shear stresses in the soil adjacent to the perpendicular fins (shear stress at the base of the pile omitted for clarity) (deformation scale factor of 1; stress in kPa)

Figure 14. Perpendicular fin (a) bending moment profile at maximum lateral load (b) deformed shape (exaggerated using a deformation scale factor of 15)

Figure 15. Evolution of bending moment with lateral load in the perpendicular fin

Figure 1

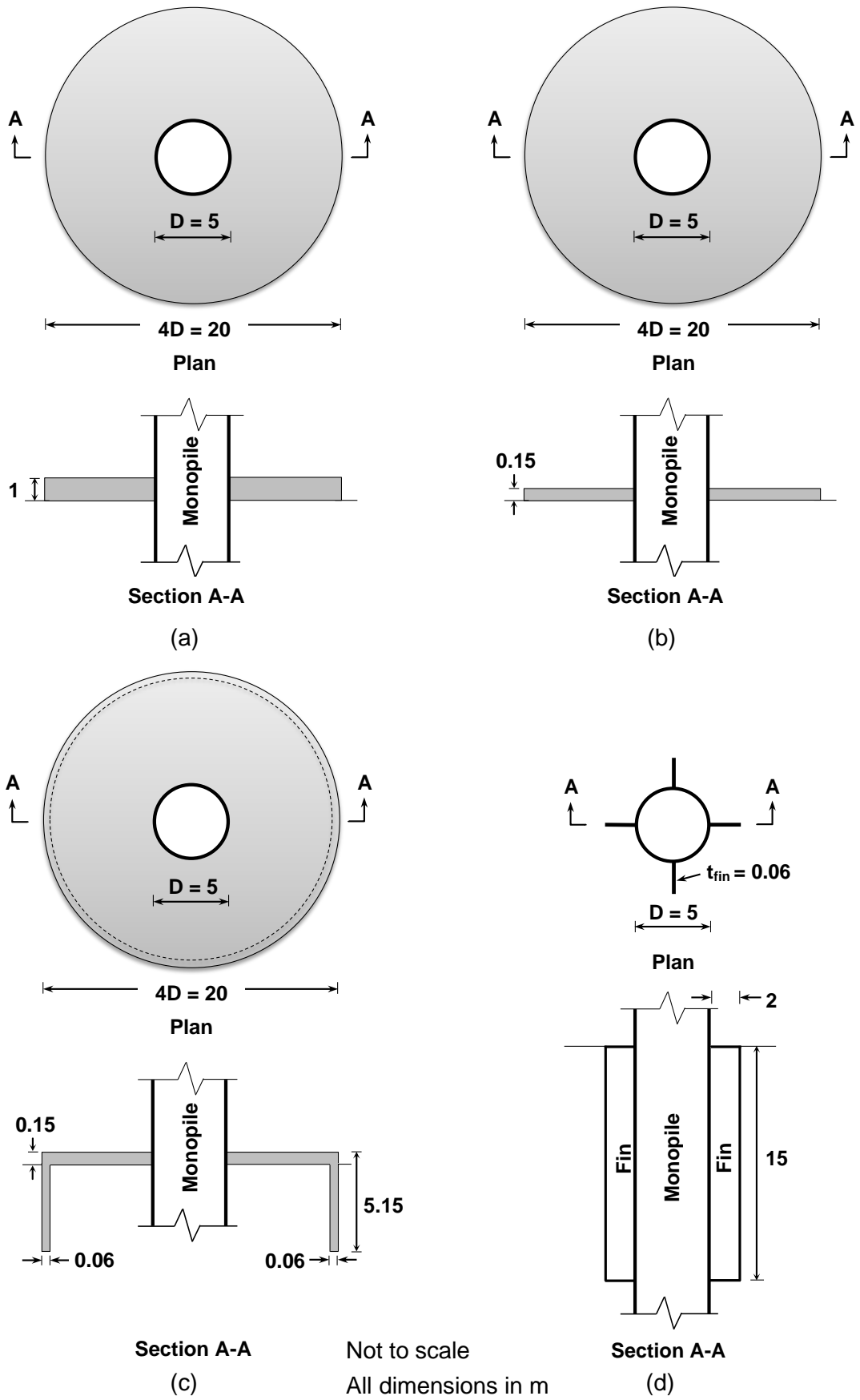


Figure 2

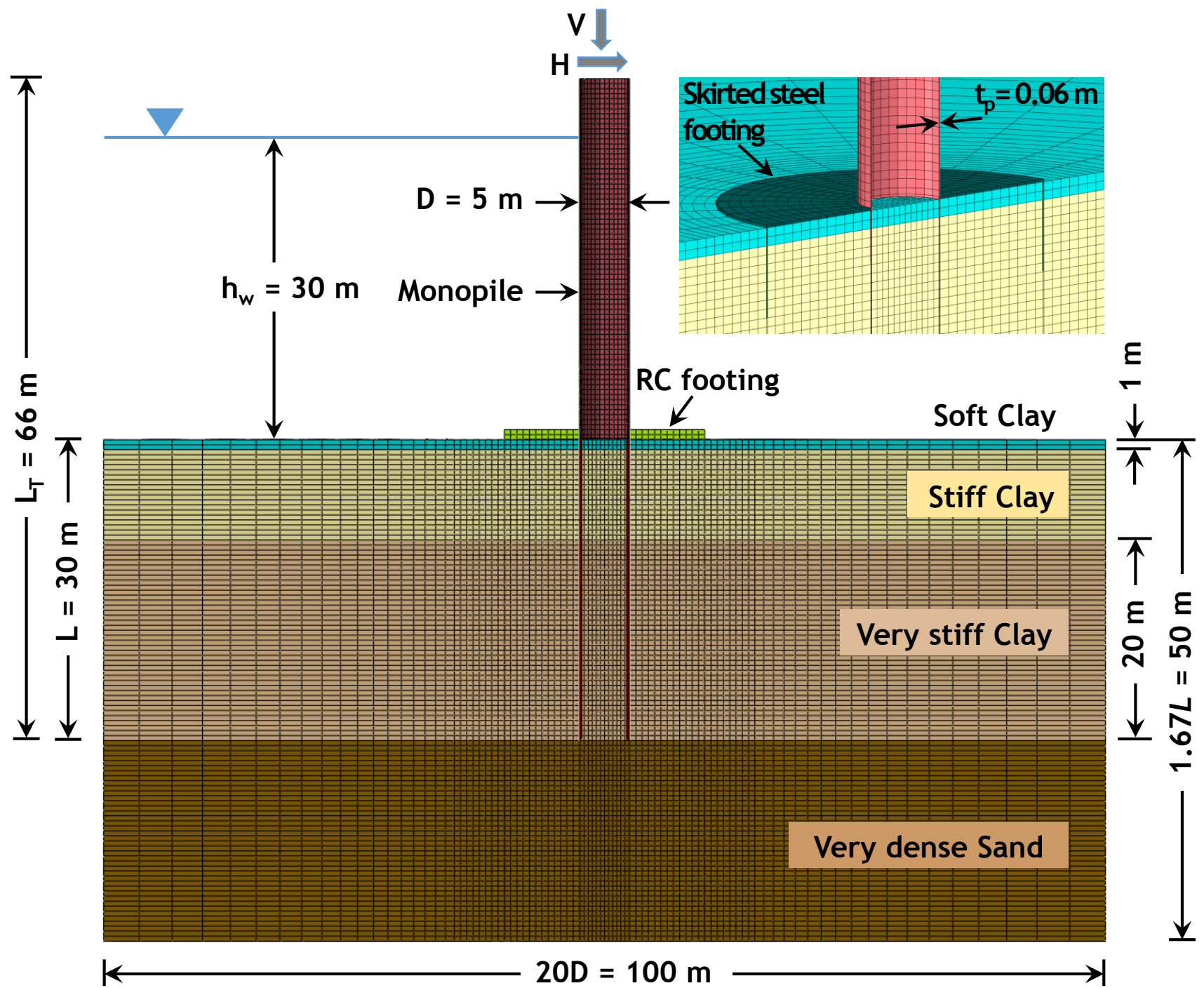
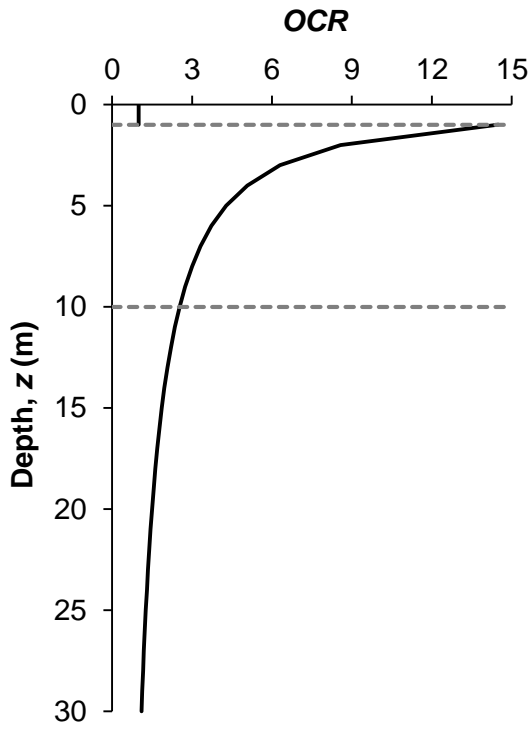
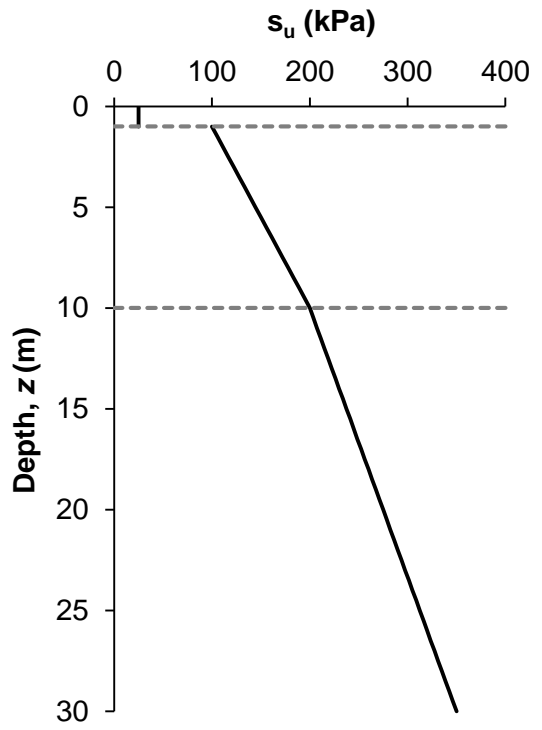


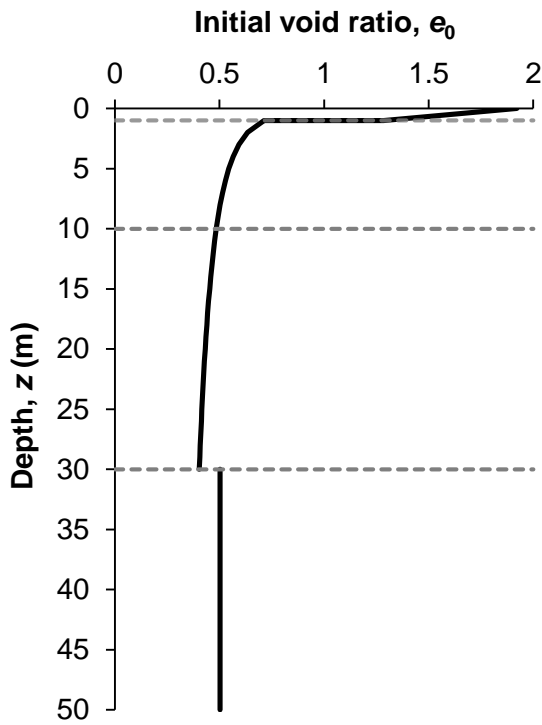
Figure 3



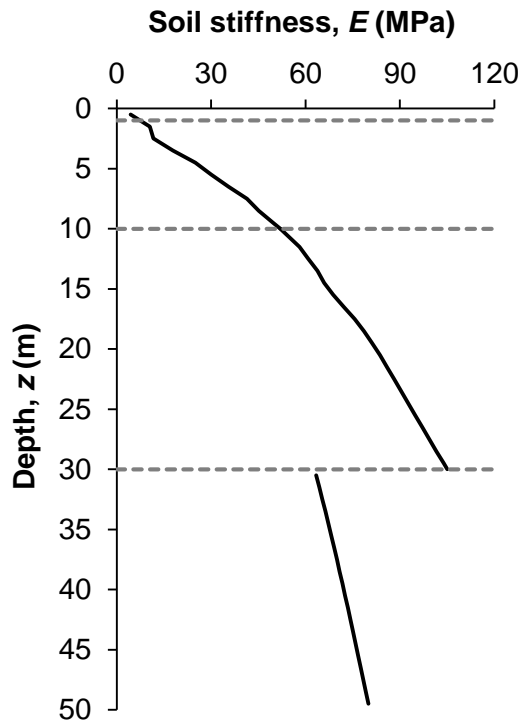
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 4

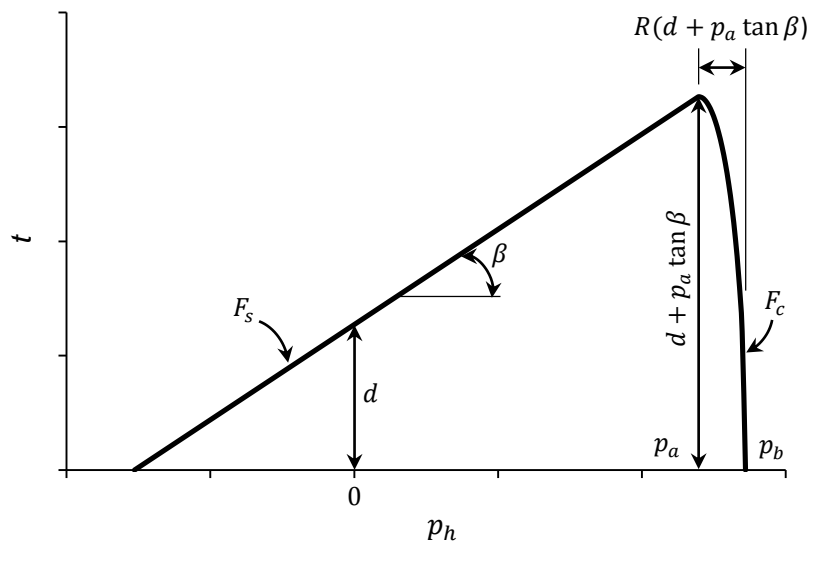


Figure 5a

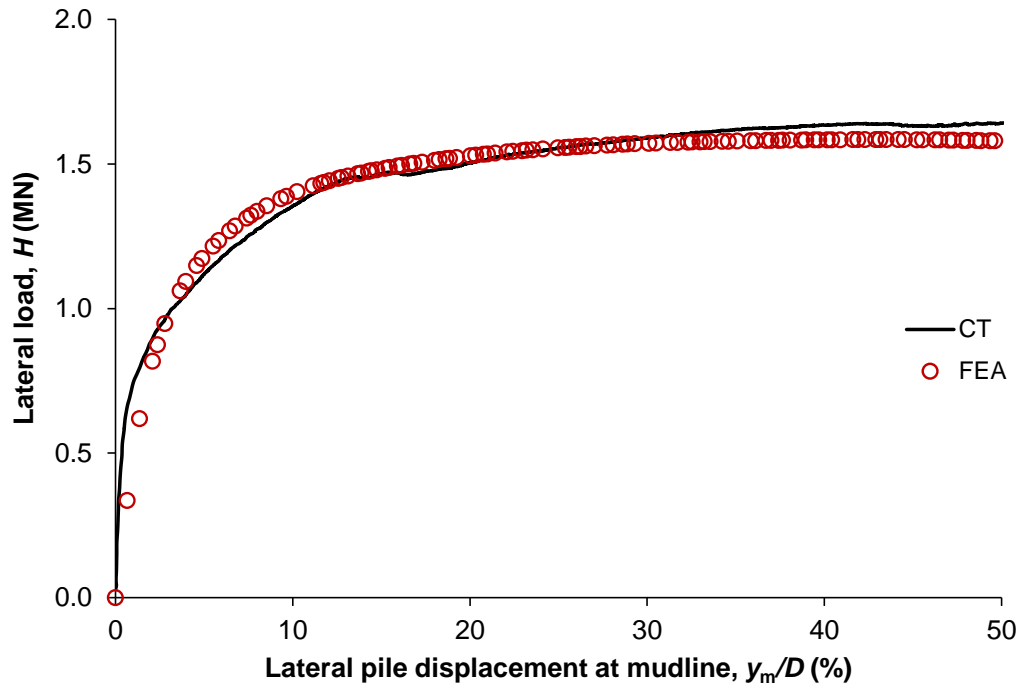


Figure 5b

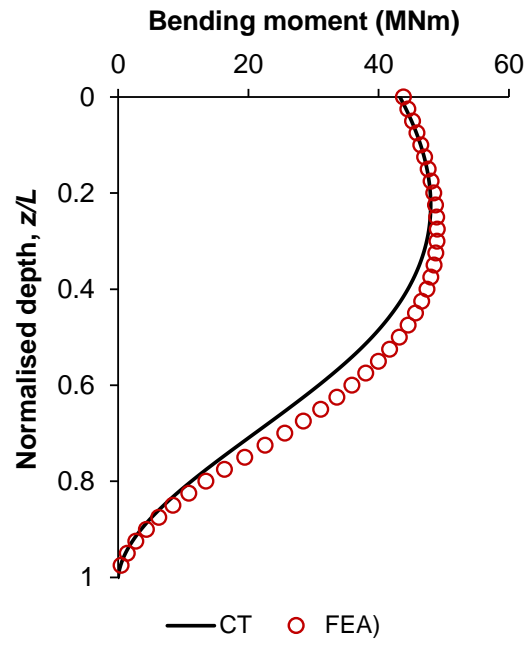


Figure 5c

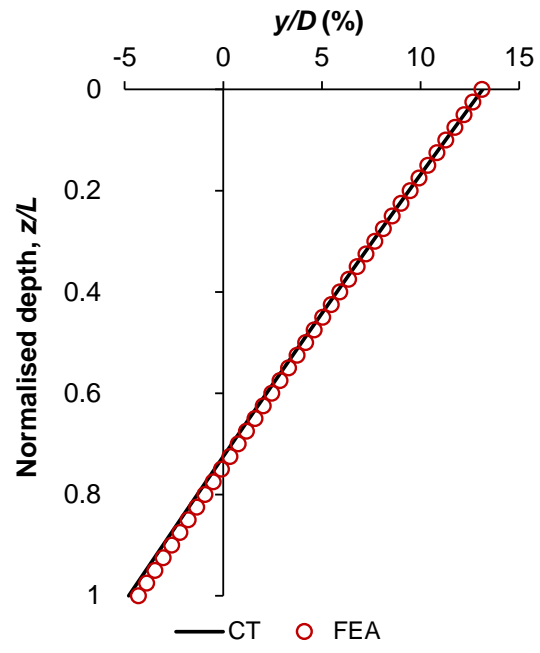


Figure 6

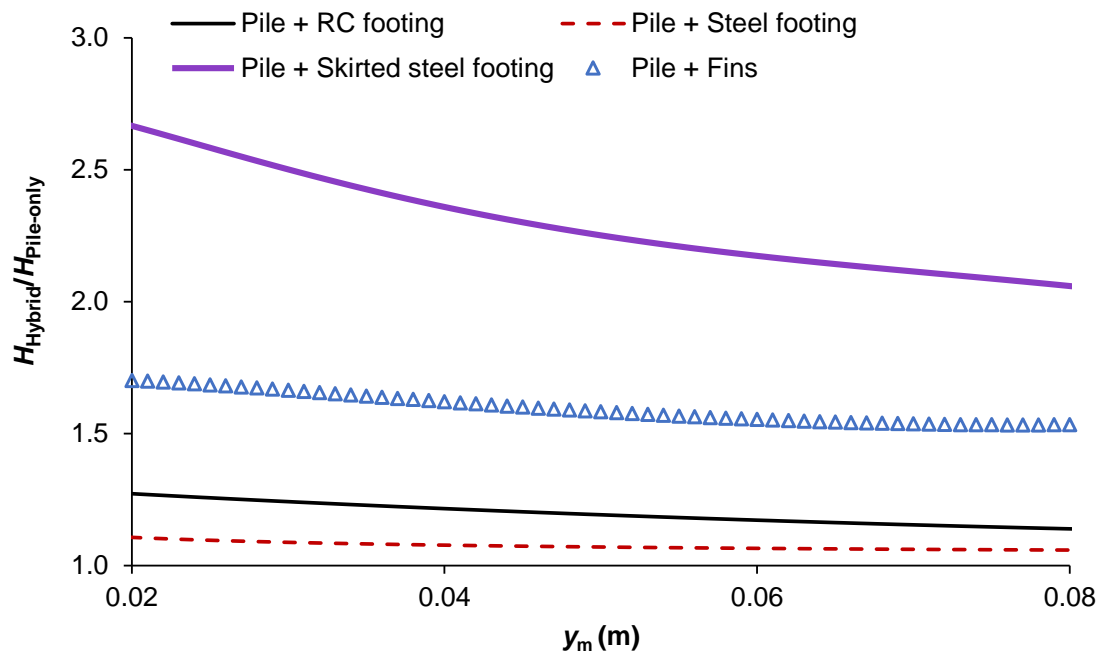


Figure 7

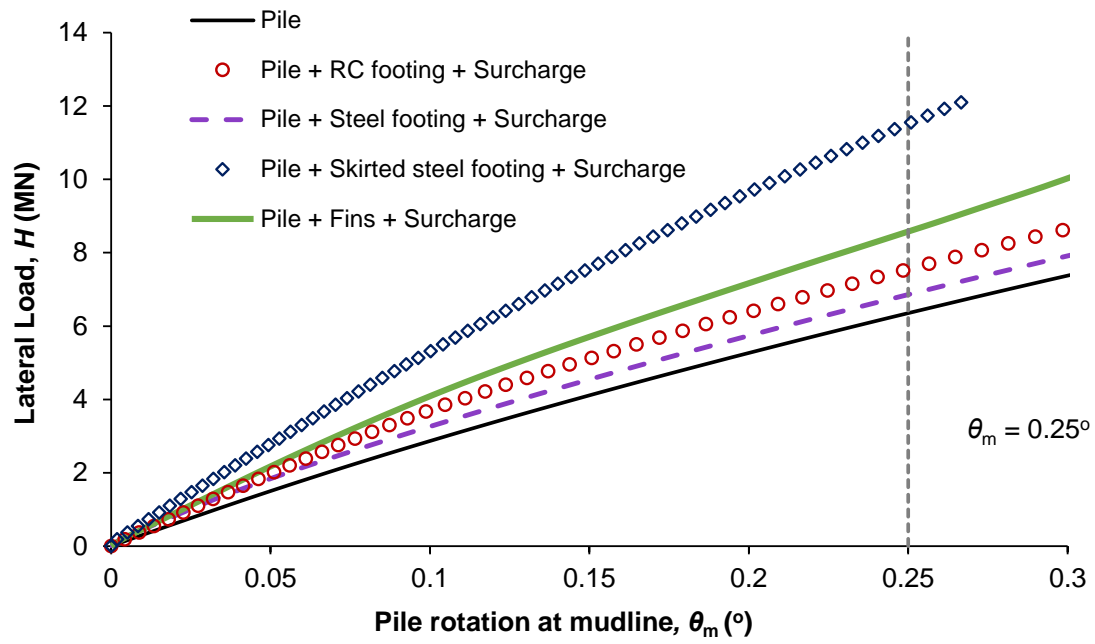


Figure 8

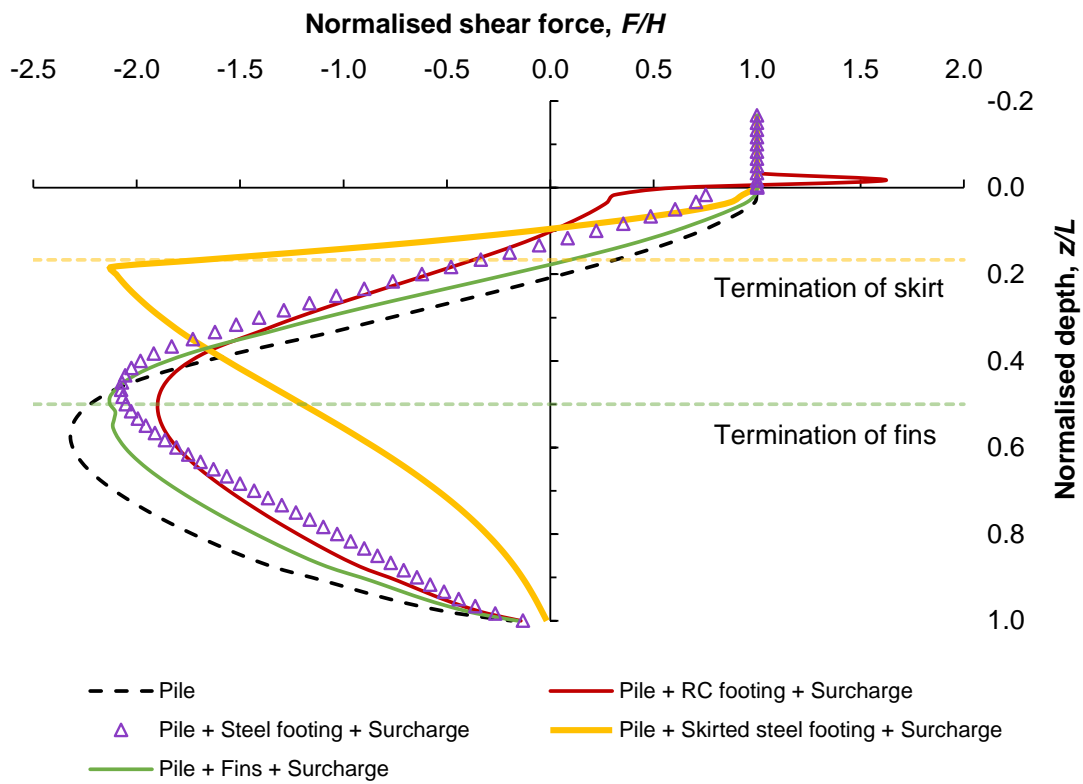


Figure 9

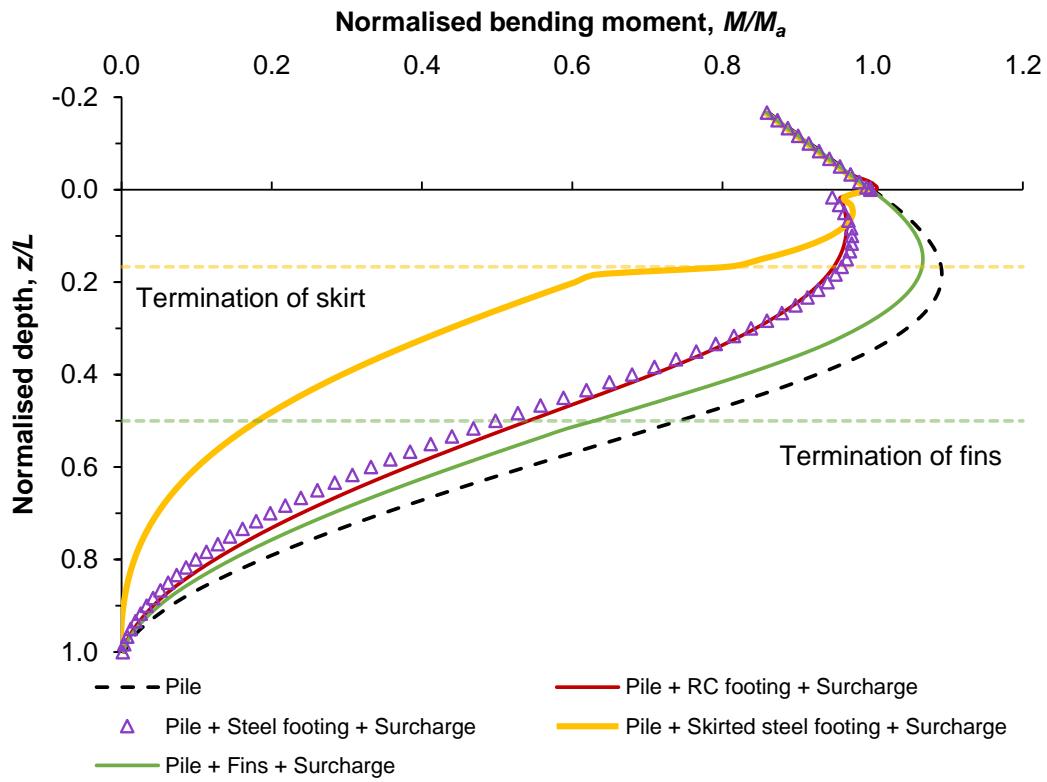


Figure 10

S_r , S_{11}
(Avg: 75%)

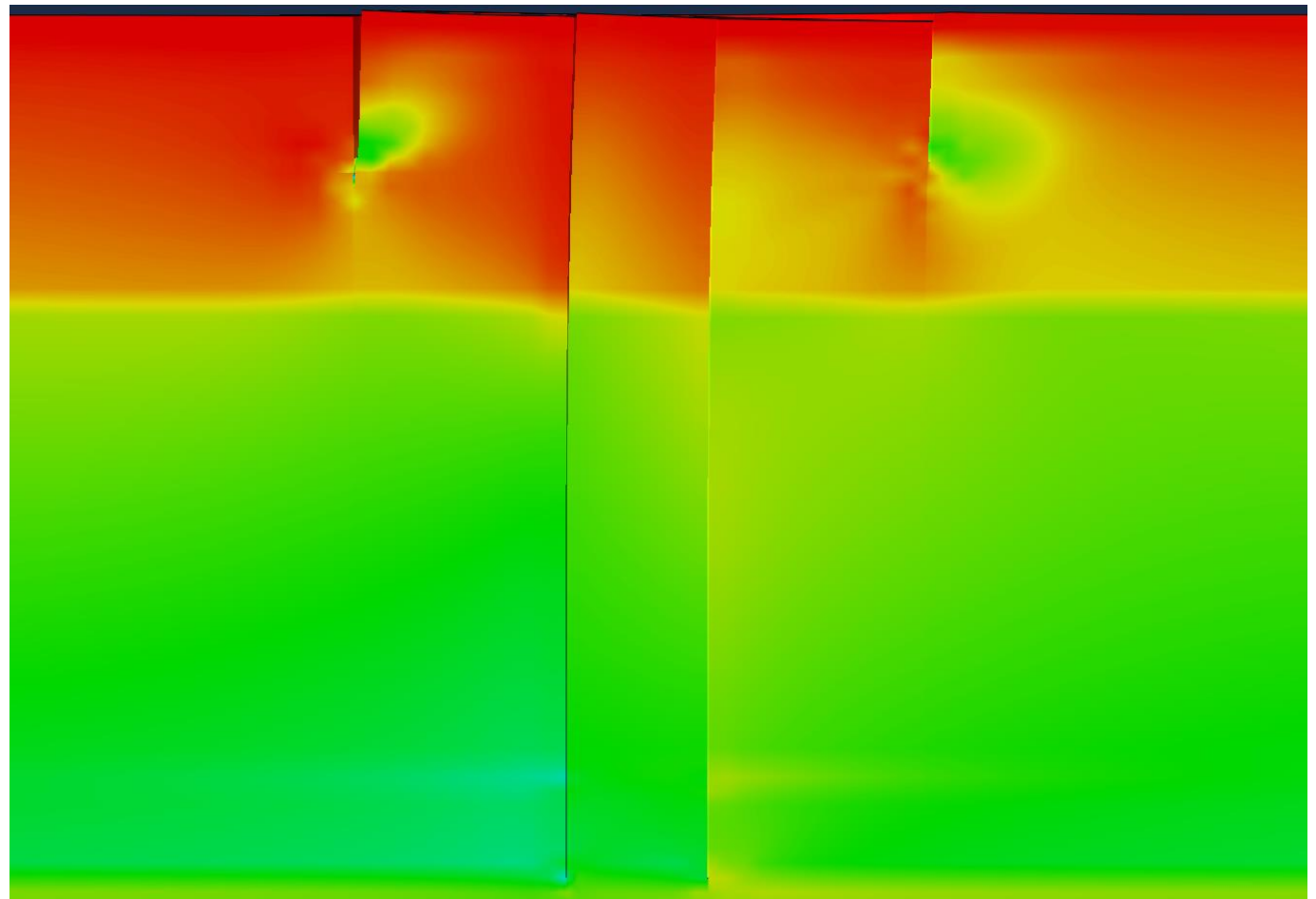
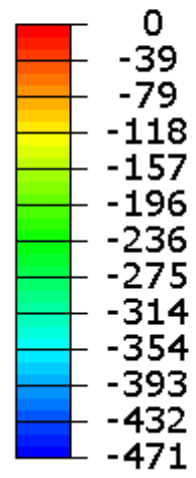


Figure 11a

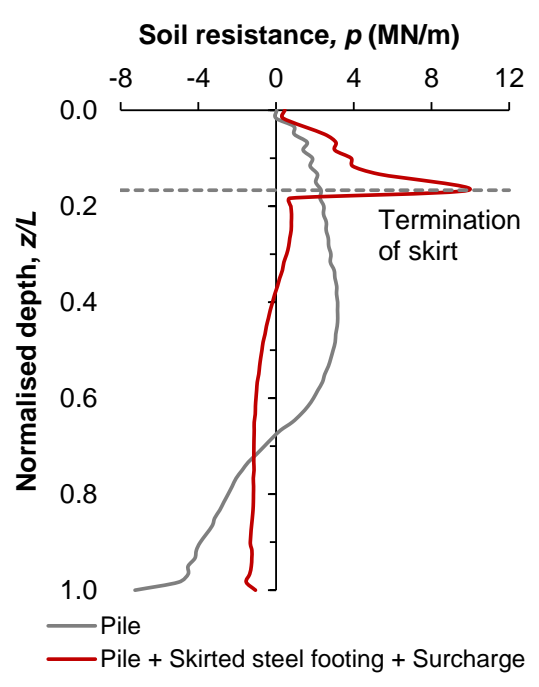


Figure 11b

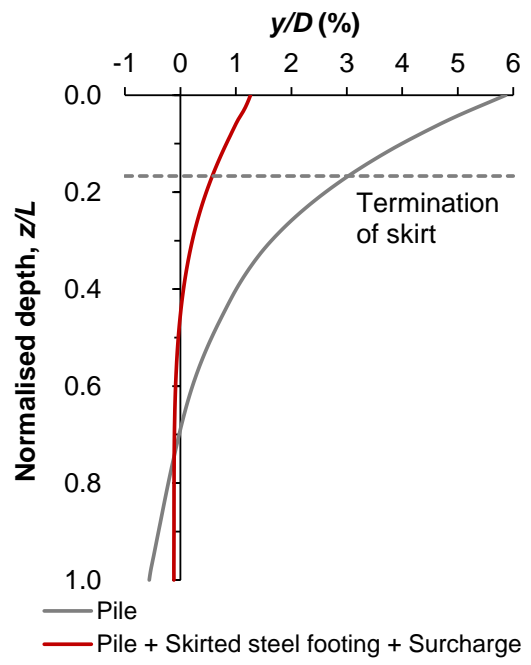


Figure 12a

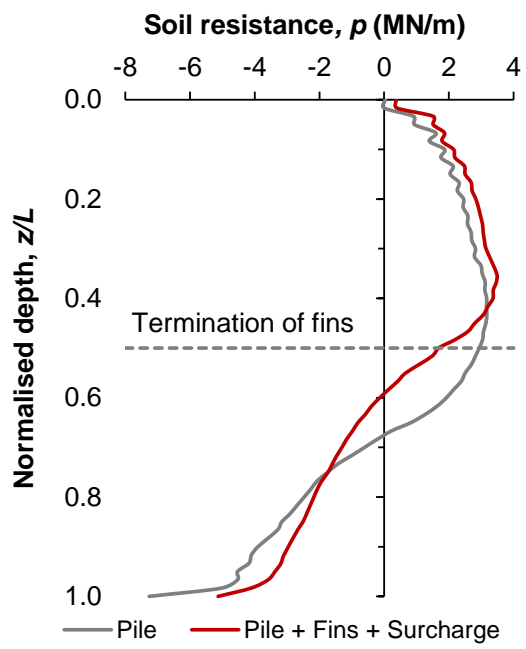


Figure 12b

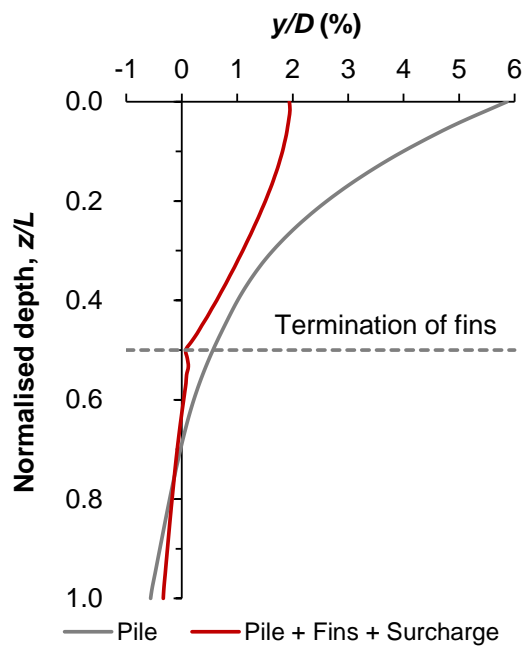


Figure 13

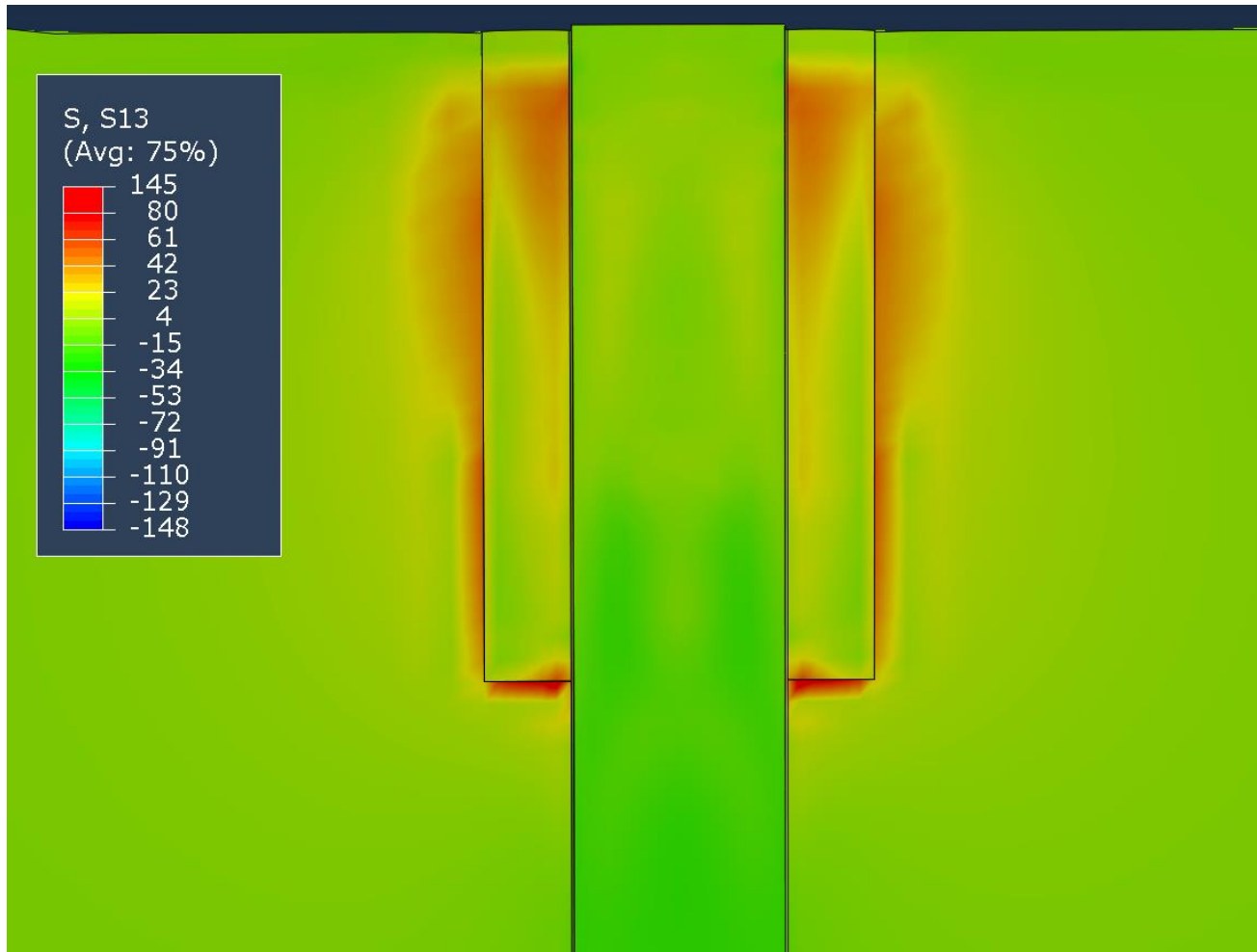


Figure 14a

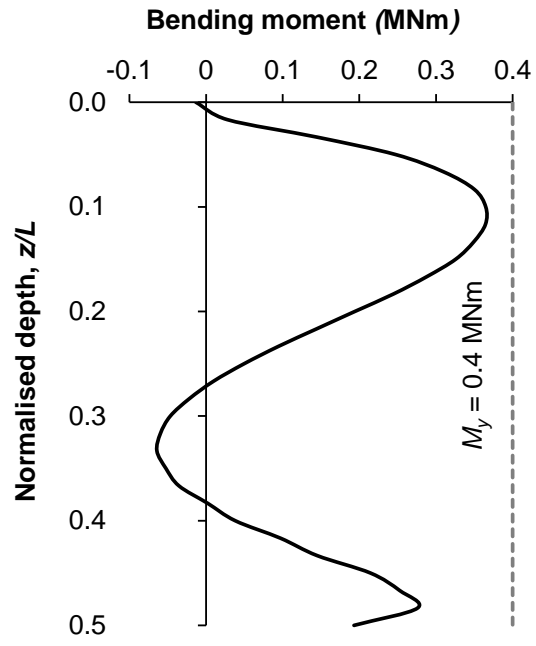


Figure 14b

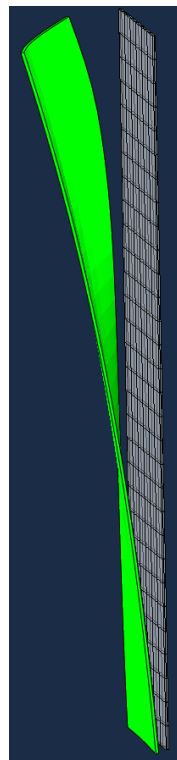


Figure 15

