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Jebur, AAJ, Atherton, W, Al Khaddar, RM and Loffill, E (2018) Artificial neural network (ANN) approach for modelling of pile settlement of open-ended steel piles subjected to compression load. European Journal of Environmental and Civil Engineering. ISSN 1964-8189

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Artificial Neural Network (ANN) Approach for Modelling of Pile Settlement of Open-ended Steel Piles Subjected to Compression Load

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Abstract

This study was devoted to examine pile bearing capacity and to provide a reliable model to simulate pile load-settlement behaviour using a new artificial neural network (ANN) method. To achieve the planned aim, experimental pile load test were carried out on model open-ended steel piles, with pile aspect ratios of 12, 17 and 25. An optimised second order Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) training algorithm has been used in this process. The piles were driven in three sand densities; dense, medium, and loose. A statistical analysis test was conducted to explore the relative importance and the statistical contribution (Beta and Sig) values of the independent variables on the model output. Pile effective length, pile flexural rigidity, applied load, sand-pile friction angle and pile aspect ratio have been identified to be the most effective parameters on model output. To demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed algorithm, a graphical comparison was performed between the implemented algorithm and the most conventional pile capacity design approaches. The proficiency metric indicators demonstrated an outstanding agreement between the measured and predicted pile-load settlement, thus yielding a correlation coefficient (R) and root mean square error (RMSE) of 0.99, 0.043 respectively, with a relatively insignificant mean square error level (MSE) of 0.0019.

Keywords: artificial neural network; sandy soil; steel open-ended pile; L-M algorithm; pile capacity.

1. Introduction

Pile foundations, are part of structural elements underneath superstructures, frequently utilised as a load transferring system through inadequate sub-soil layers into stiff bearing strata with high efficiency (McVay et al., 1989; Chen and Kulhawy, 2002; Tschuchnigg and Schweiger, 2015). Therefore, the stability and safety of structures supported by pile foundations relies largely on accurate assessment of the pile bearing capacity. Thus, numerous experimental and numerical methods in the geotechnical literature have been undertaken to explore the

35 behaviour of pile load-settlement. Steel open-ended piles are normally utilised to facilitate pile installation process
36 in preference to closed ended piles (Lehane and Gavin, 2001). Accurate assessment of the load carrying capacity
37 of a single pile is an important aspect and plays a key role in the pile foundation design process. However, pile
38 bearing capacity and associated settlement design procedures have traditionally been carried out separately.
39 Moreover, it has been claimed by Fellenius (1988) that “*the pile allowable load should be governed by a combined*
40 *approach considering pile settlement and soil resistance intemperately acting together and influencing the value*
41 *of each other,*” In relation to a pile settlement analysis, Poulos and Davis (1980); Vesic (1977) and Das (1995)
42 demonstrated that the elastic settlement could contribute the major part of the final pile settlement. Moreover, For
43 piles penetrated in sandy soil, elastic settlement accounts for total final settlement (Murthy, 2002). Precise
44 modelling of the pile load carrying capacity requires an accurate understanding of the load-settlement mechanism
45 along the embedded pile effective depth, which is indeterminate and complex to quantify (Reese et al., 2006).

46

47 The load-settlement curve can be plotted only by performing full-scale pile load-tests. Alternatively, ultimate pile
48 capacity can be determined by conducting in-situ tests including the cone penetration test (CPT), dilatometer test,
49 standard penetration test (SPT) and the pressure meter test. Cost considerations and practical problems involved
50 in the testing process obliged researchers to provide alternative methods to determine the pile-load settlement
51 behaviour.

52

53 Pile capacity can also be predicted using several empirical formulae and conventional design frameworks, for
54 instance those proposed by Das (1995); Vesic (1967); and Poulos and Davis (1980). Due to many uncertainties,
55 these existing techniques provide oversimplification the problem by the incorporating several hypotheses
56 associated with the parameters that govern the load-settlement response (i.e. soil stress history, initial boundary
57 conditions (IBs), non-linear soil stress-strain relationship, method of pile installation, type of the pile testing,
58 theory of the pile critical depth). Furthermore, Fleming (1992) developed a new approach to analyse and predict
59 pile settlement under maintained loading using hyperbolic functions. It is an attempt to characterise the nonlinear
60 behaviour of base-soil and shaft-soil interaction. In this method, the contribution of mobilised skin friction, and
61 pile end-bearing capacity can be determined individually. Through the changing slope of such functions, the
62 developed approach reflects well in the increase of soil modules at low strain level. To demonstrate the accuracy
63 of the propose method, some examples were provided from back analysis of pile load test results for instrumented
64 model piles tested at different soil types.

65 Łodygowski and Sumelka (2006) criticised the numerical approaches regarding their reliability and validity since
66 simulation constitutive models can be sensitive to problem boundary conditions (i.e., stresses distributions).
67 Therefore, most of the available methods fail to gain reliable success regarding precise prediction of the pile
68 capacity and the corresponding settlement (Momeni et al., 2014; Loria et al., 2015; Jebur et al., 2017).

69

70 Recently, the application of the artificial neural network has been applied successfully by many researchers to
71 solve a wide range of engineering problems with satisfying performance (Al-Gburi et al., 2016; Asteris et al.,
72 2016; Ardakani and Kordnaeij, 2017; Derbal et al., 2017). Among those, Najafzadeh (2015) developed neuro-
73 fuzzy (NF-GMDH) approach enhanced by gravitational search algorithm (GSA) and particle swarm optimisation
74 (PSO) to the scour depth of groups of piles under the condition of clear water. Nine individual input parameters
75 (IIPs), at different contributions level, have been considered to develop and train the developed algorithms. The
76 learning stages efficiency for both model NF-GMDH-PSO, and NF-GMDH-GSA has been explored. The results
77 shown that the NF-GMDH-PSO model produced substantial agreement between the measured and the predicted
78 values with a correlation coefficient of 0.95, thus in parallel with a relatively negligible RMSE of 0.036. Soon
79 after, Najafzadeh et al. (2016) investigated the feasibility of different types of artificial intelligence (AI) methods
80 including model tree (MT), evolutionary polynomial regression (EPR) to predict the maximum scour depth of
81 bridge piers. The aforementioned predictive models were developed using dataset published in literature. The
82 efficiency of the trained models has been assessed using different measuring performance indexes. The result
83 revealed that the suggested MT model provides higher prediction accuracy compared to the GEP and EPR with
84 RMSE and MAE of 0.241 and 0.178, respectively.

85

86 Moreover, Najafzadeh et al. (2017) applied a new approach so called NFF-GMDH to assess the pier scour depth.
87 A total of 243 experimental dataset, encompassing several input variables and outputs, was used to train the
88 proposed network. The study results demonstrated that the proposed NFF-GMDH-PSO is more efficient compared
89 to the NFF-GMDH-GA and NFF-GMDH-GSA, and has the ability to predict the scour depth with remarkable
90 accuracy. This was confirmed by root mean square error and scatter index of 0.388 and 0.343, respectively.

91 Harandizadeh et al. (2018) explored the feasibility of three types of artificial intelligence methods to predict
92 ultimate pile bearing capacity subjected to a wide range of axial loads. In total, a database of 100 concrete and
93 steel piles were collected to implement the ANNs models. Four individual inputs parameters has been selected to
94 be used in the input space, including piles geometric properties, soil characterisation, angle of internal friction,

95 and number of hammer blows, and the model output was pile bearing capacity. The study results revealed that the
96 radial base function model had the ability to learn 98.9% of the measured values compared to Bayesian regulation
97 and the Levenberg-Marquardt training algorithms with correlation coefficient of 98.4%, and 93%, respectively.

98

99 Although many studies highlighting the application of artificial neural networks in deep foundations research, the
100 slow rate of convergence and getting trapped in local minima have been cited as the major drawbacks associated
101 with the conventional current ANN applications (Momeni et al., 2014; Rezaei et al., 2016). Therefore, a
102 comprehensive experimental study investigating the load-settlement response of steel model piles, including a
103 wide range of sand densities, conducted to create an accurate dataset to develop and run a new Levenberg-
104 Marquardt (LM) algorithm, would be a breakthrough, in pile foundation studies. Unlike conventional training
105 methods, the trained LM has several distinctive merits in that it is self-tuning training (doesn't require user
106 dependent parameters after each application), it is 10 to 100 times faster without being trapped in local minima,
107 less vulnerable to overfitting issues, has the ability to determine the optimum solution during the learning process,
108 and it is extremely recommended as the first choice of supervised algorithm. (Abdellatif, 2013; Alrashydah and
109 Abo-Qudais, 2018; Jebur et al., 2018b).

110

111 **2. Aims and objectives**

112 The current study has been conducted to fill a gap in literature with the aim of providing and accurate predictive
113 model. The objectives of the project were to:

- 114 • Carry out a series of experimental pile load-tests on steel open-ended piles with slenderness ratios (l_c/d)
115 of 25, 17, and 12 penetrated in three sand relative densities of dense, medium, and loose to investigate
116 the pile bearing capacity and to create a reliable laboratory dataset to develop the ANN model.
- 117 • Utilise a new Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) training algorithm, based on the MATLAB environment, to
118 develop the predictive model to establish if it can be successfully used to simulate pile capacity and
119 corresponding settlement.
- 120 • Develop a statistical model to explore the relative importance and the statistical significance ('Beta' and
121 'Sig') values of the independent variables (IVs) on the model output utilising the SPSS-23 package.
- 122 • Compare the newly applied LM algorithm performance with the most commonly used pile bearing
123 capacity approaches.

124

3. Implementation and mathematical background of the LM algorithm

The feasibility of the LM training algorithm has recently been underlined as an efficient prediction tool in many engineering sectors and is now gaining growing attention in engineering research (Deo and Şahin, 2015; Juncai et al., 2015; Jebur et al., 2018b). These technical papers have reported the outstanding performance of the LM algorithm over the classical artificial neural networks methods. It should be stressed that one of the obvious advantages of the LM method is that no training parameters are required to be modified for the trained algorithm, thus avoiding many difficulties and barriers noted by the use of other ANN algorithms parameters such as the momentum term, learning epochs (an epoch is a single step or one complete presentation of the data-set to be trained during the iteration process), learning rate and local minima (Deo and Şahin, 2015). Furthermore, the introduced LM algorithm has been certified to be several times faster and stable training algorithm in comparison to other conventional machine learning algorithms (i.e., support machine vector) (Wilamowski and Yu, 2010; Rajesh and Prakash, 2011; Jebur et al., 2018a). Therefore, the LM training algorithm has been considered as a superior data-driven algorithm to provide accurate solutions for complex non-linear problems such as the one considered in the current study.

The basic theory of the LM model reveals that for M input model parameters $(x_k, y_k) \in R^m R^m$, the feedforward based on standard single layer with N hidden neurons and an activation function $g(\cdot)$ can be described in equation 1:

$$\sum_i^n B_i g(x_k; c_i, a_i) = y_k \quad \text{where } K = 1, 2, \dots \dots \dots M \quad (1)$$

where $K = 1, 2, \dots \dots \dots M$

$c_i \in R$ is the bias of the i^{th} hidden nodes that are randomly assigned during the training process, $w_i \in R$ is the weight assigned to each of the model input parameters connecting the i^{th} model input parameters to the hidden neurons or nodes. It should be noted that this is not constant and is modified for each training process. B_i is the weight vector used to connect the i^{th} hidden node to the corresponding output node, $g(x_k; c_i, a_i)$ is the hidden node output with respect to the model input. Each model input parameter is indiscriminately allocated to the hidden nodes. Consequently, Eq. 1, can be rewritten as below:

$$HB = Y \quad (2)$$

154 where

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} g(x_1; c_1; w_1) & g(x_1; c_n; w_n) \\ g(x_1; c_1; w_1) & g(x_1; c_n; w_n) \end{bmatrix}_{M.N} \quad (3)$$

$$HB = (B_1^T B_2^T, \dots, B_l^T)_{n.N}^T \quad (4)$$

155

156 And the output (Y)

157

$$Y = (t_1^T t_2^T, \dots, t_l^T)_{n.N}^T \quad (5)$$

158

159 It should be highlighted that the output weights are determined by determining the least square solution to the
160 linear system, as described below:

161

$$B = H^+ Y \quad (6)$$

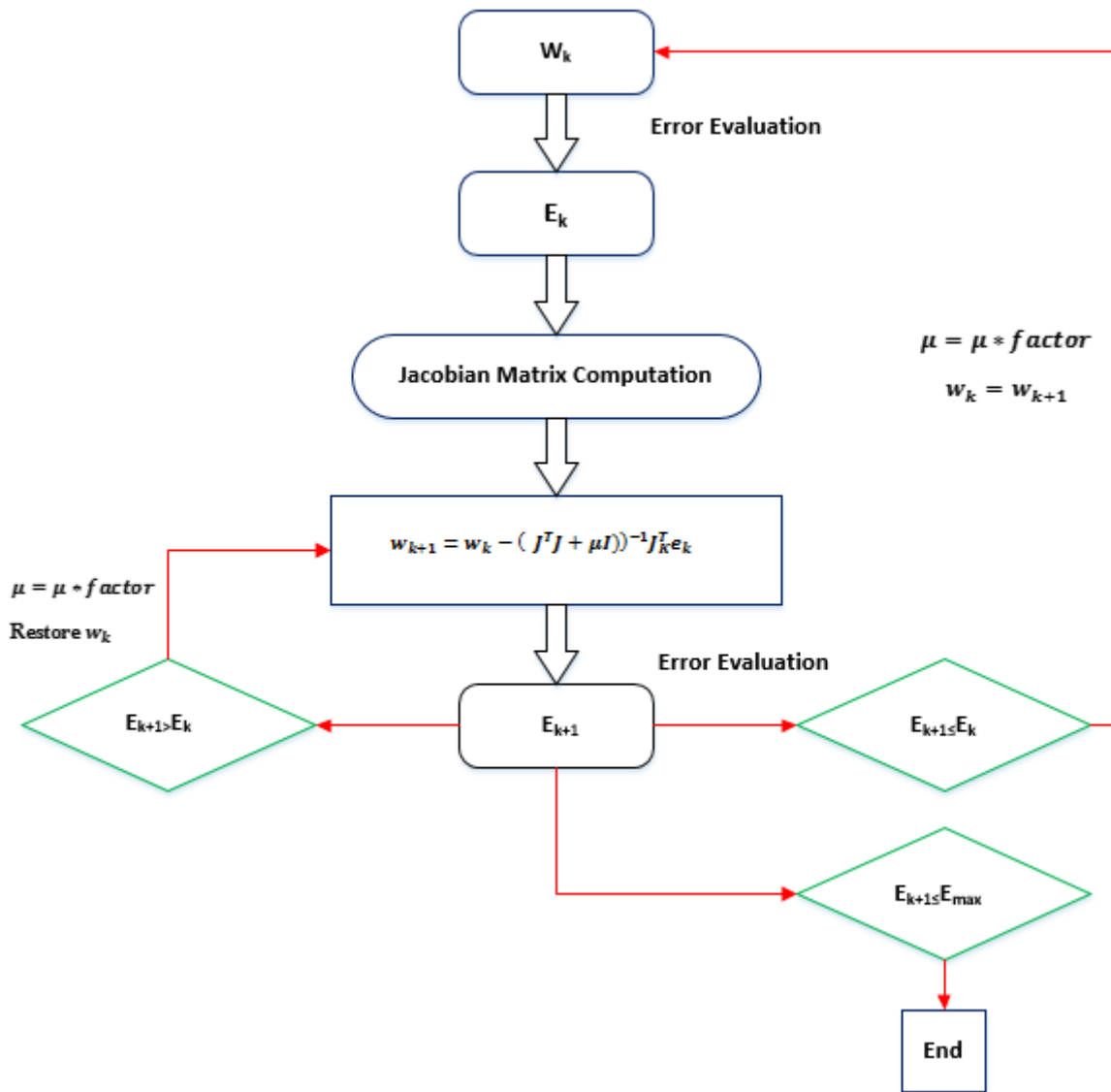
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163 H^+ is the Moore-Penrose generalised inverse of the matrix H . the bias and the input weight are randomly selected.

164

165 After briefly describing the LM algorithm basic theory, the development of the LM training algorithm requires
166 the definition of the model inputs and output, pre-processing and division of the dataset, the selection of the
167 optimum network and stopping criteria (Shahin and Jaksa, 2005). In this investigation, a new Levenberg-
168 Marquardt (LM) algorithm, was developed and trained based on the MATLAB environment, details about the
169 train algorithm code is provided in appendix A. Figure 1, illustrates the general LM training process. Furthermore,
170 the recorded database collected from experimental pile-load tests was utilised to develop and validate the LM
171 algorithm. 9 pile-load tests were conducted for model steel open-end piles with slenderness ratios ranged from
172 12, 17 and 25, driven in three sand relative densities, D_r of loose medium and dense. Accordingly, the LM
173 algorithm based ANN model was established using the dataset that spanned the range of conditions that can be
174 found in different in situ conditions.

175



176

177

178

Figure 1. Block diagram displays the training process utilising the LM algorithm:

179

Where: w_k denotes the existing weight, w_{k+1} is the subsequent weight, E_{k+1} and E_k are the current and last total error respectively.

180

181

182 4. Materials and methods

183

184 4.1. Sand characteristics

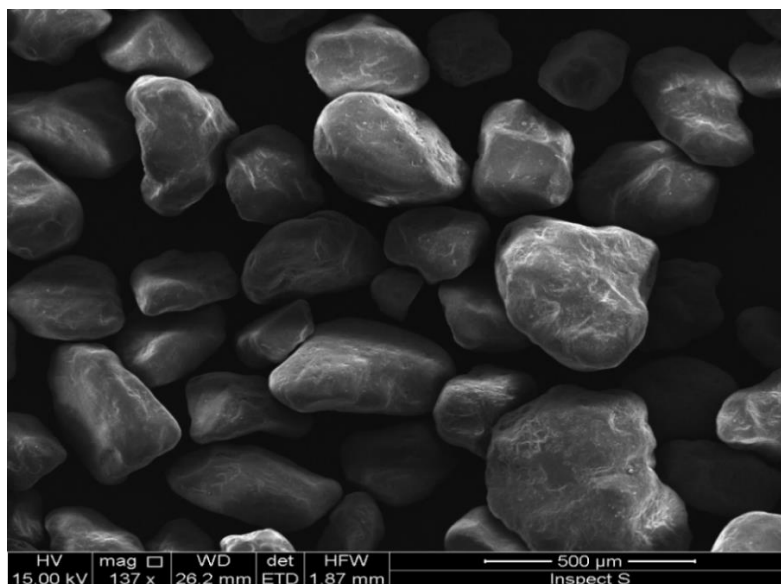
185

Uniform, fine sand with a quartz content of 97.4% was utilised in the test chamber. shape of the sand particle along with the size can be considered as a significant factor effecting the shear behaviour of granular materials (Dyskin et al., 2001). Cho et al. (2006) stated that decreasing sphericity and roundness or increasing angularity leads to an increase in minimum (e_{min}) and maximum (e_{max}) void ratios of the sand. To this end. Figure 2 shows that a scanning electronic microscopy (SEM) test at 137x magnification and a working distance (WD) of 26.2 mm

189

190 was used to examine the shape of the sand used in the experimental programme. It can be seen that the sand
191 particles consisted of sub-rounded particles, which leads to higher unit weight compared to rounded particles.
192 Following the unified soil classification system criteria, this sand can be classified as poorly graded (SP). The
193 sand density has been prepared in three types of loose (18%), medium (51%) and dense (83%), respectively.
194 Physical properties of the sand utilised in the testing program are summarised in Table 1. The shear strength
195 characteristics of the sand-sand angle, ϕ and pile-sand angle, δ are experimentally measured using the direct shear
196 tests in accordance with the BSI (BS EN 1377-7:1990) standard. In order to minimise the scale effect, the impact
197 of the sand grain size distribution on the sand-pile interaction should be maintained. However, the pile diameter
198 (D) should be 60 times the medium diameter of the sand (d_{50}) (Remaud, 1999). Whereas, Taylor (1995) however,
199 stated that the minimum ratio must be 100. In the current study, the ratio between the diameter of pile to the sand
200 medium diameter (d/d_{50}) is 133 as revealed in Figure 3, satisfying the scaling law standard. To prepare the loose
201 sand bed, the sand particles were poured into the pile testing chamber by means of a tube delivery system, as
202 proposed by Schawmb (2009). The tube end is repeatedly held at a maximum set distance of about 40 mm between
203 the sand delivery tube and the surface test bed. While, the medium sand was prepared using an air pluviation
204 technique discussed by Ueno (2000). The sand density was controlled by the falling rate at about 800 mm above
205 the sand surface with an accuracy of ± 30 mm until the tested depth being achieved. In addition, the dense sand
206 beds were carefully prepared following the technique detailed by Akdag and Özden (2013).

207



209

210

Figure 2. Scanning electronic microscopy (SEM) test of the sand particles.

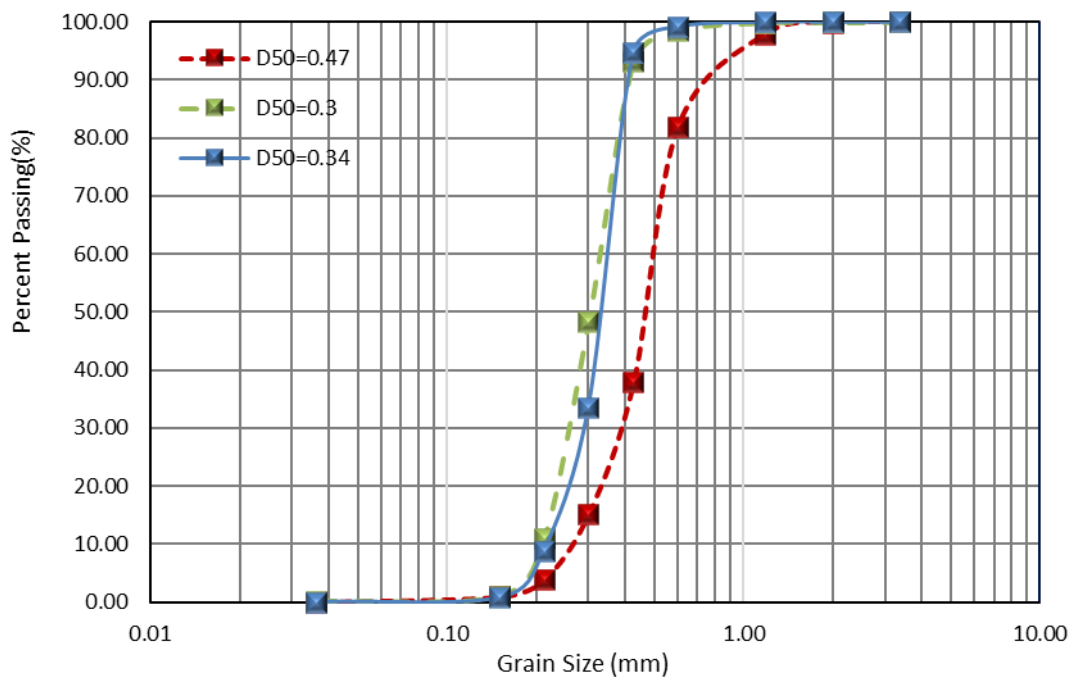
211 where HV and mag stand for high voltage and magnification, WD, det, ETD, and HFW are, respectively, working
 212 distance, detector, Everhart-Thornley detector, and horizontal field width.

213

214 Table 1. Properties of the sandy soil utilised in the experimental programme.

Soil Property	Value
Uniformity Coefficient, C_u	1.78
Specific Gravity, G_s	2.62
Coefficient of Curvature, C_c	1.14
Grain Size, D_{10} (mm)	0.22
Mean Grain Size, D_{50} , (mm)	0.34
Pile-sand interface friction angle (δ) for loose, medium, and dense sand	17°, 17.7° and 19°
Maximum Index Unit Weight, $\gamma_{d \max}$ (kN/m ³)	17.45
Minimum Index Unit Weight, $\gamma_{d \min}$ (kN/m ³)	15.34
Maximum Index Void Ratio, e_{\max} (%)	0.71
Minimum Index Void Ratio, e_{\min} (%)	0.49

215



216

217

Figure 3. Particle size distribution of the sand sample.

218

219 **4.2. Model piles and loading system**

220 An experimental pile load-test program was carried out using the setup shown in Figure 4, to investigate the
221 bearing capacity of steel piles driven in sand soil. 40mm pile diameter with 1.2 mm wall thickness were utilised
222 in this study giving D/T ratio of 33.3 within the range of the D/t (15-45) as recommended by Jardine and Chow
223 (2007) for steel piles. The piles were tested in dry sandy soil. This assumption has been made due to the fact that
224 the capillary zone in sands is a relatively small, and thus is considered a lesser significance degree and can be
225 ignored (Józefiak et al., 2015). The piles were driven in a large calibration chamber with internal dimensions are
226 (900mm x 900mm x 1200mm length) and a wall thickness of 18mm. The pile effective lengths (l_c) were
227 considered of 480, 680, and 1000mm, giving embedment length-to-diameter ratios of 12, 17 and 25 were used to
228 examine the response of flexible, and rigid piles (Reddy and Ayothiraman, 2015). The model steel piles were
229 characterised by a Poisson's ratio, ν of 0.27 and $E = 200\text{GPa}$, which is highly comparable to the suggested material
230 values (195-210) GPa for steel piles subjected to compression loads (Gere and Timoshenko, 1997). The pile point
231 of loading was 50mm above the sand surface to minimise contact of the soil with the pile cap. This can help ensure
232 that the pile capacity is only due to soil-pile interaction. Regarding the loading procedure, a maintained load test
233 was run at loading rate of 1mm/min as specified by Bowles (1978) and within the limits stated by BSI (BS EN
234 8004:1986). The compression loads have been incrementally applied via a new hydraulic jack system attached at
235 the top to a load cell type (DBBSM) having 10kN capacity which was secured between the pile head loading
236 system and the hydraulic ram. Furthermore, the loads were applied directly on a pile cap manufactured from
237 aluminium with dimensions of 20mm thick and 150mm diameter. A spherical steel ball bearing was used on the
238 top of the pile cap to avoid eccentricity during the load application. The pile head displacement was monitored
239 using a data acquisition system instrumented with two linear variable differential transformers (LVDTs) of very
240 high resolution 0.01mm with 50mm travel to record the corresponding settlement. Using magnetic stands, the
241 LVDTs were located on the top of the pile cap in pairs so that bending effect could be accurately accounted for.

242

243

244



Figure 4. Schematic view and dimensions of the experimental test setup.

250 4.3. Statistical analysis and dataset pre-processing

251 The dataset recorded from the experimental pile load-settlement tests was passed through three statistical steps to

252 develop a reliable ANN model (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The total dataset needed to be tested to check the

253 statistical significance, the size of the dataset and residuals homoscedasticity, and to detect the presence of outliers

254 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Details about aforementioned tests are discussed in the following sub-sections.

257 4.3.1 Sensitivity analysis

258 Introducing a large number of model input parameters to developed an ANN leads to increase in the size of the
259 network and the time required to precisely identify the optimum ANN model, thereby triggering a decrease in the
260 processing speed (Rafiq et al., 2001) and thus leads to overfitting problems (Abdellatif et al., 2015). Therefore, a
261 reliable analytical method to effectively identify the most significant input parameters and to highlight the level
262 of significance of each parameter is needed. In this context, an innovative statistical analysis was conducted, using
263 a multiple regression (MR) approach, to detect the model input variables (IVs) with the most influence and to
264 underline the influence that a given IV has on the model output. The MR method has been applied because it has
265 many attractive merits, such as its ability to examine the relationship between one individual variable (IV) with a
266 set of other individual variables (IVs) (Jebur et al., 2018a). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) stated that any IV at
267 Sig value > 0.05 could be omitted, as it has no significant influence on the suggested model. Based on the outcomes
268 of the current statistical analysis, five factors, with different strengths of contribution, were highlighted as the
269 most influential input parameters that govern the model output, as in Table 2. These parameters are (i) applied
270 load, P, (ii) pile aspect ratio, lc/d , (iii) pile axial rigidity, EA, (iv) the sand-pile friction angle, δ , and (v) pile
271 embedded length, lc . Additionally, a sensitivity analysis was conducted to evaluate the contribution level of each
272 IV on model output. Statistically, the closer to 1 the absolute Beta value, the more significant the influence of that
273 IV on the model target (Pallant, 2005). Table 2 shows that the parameters P and δ have the highest level of
274 contribution on the output with Beta values of 0.804, and 0.711, respectively.

275

276 Table 2. Results of the statistical analysis.

IVs	Sig. value	Beta. value	Maximum MDs
Applied load, (P)	0.000	0.804	17.63
Sand-pile friction angle, (δ)	0.000	0.711	
Flexural rigidity, (EA)	0.010	0.015	
Slenderness ratio, (lc/d)	0.040	0.119	
Pile length, (l)	0.032	0.088	

277

278

279

280 **4.3.2 Dataset size**

281 According to Eq. 7, suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) and based on the number of the independent
 282 variables (IVs), the minimum number of dataset values required to develop a reliable model is 90. In the current
 283 study, a total of 274 points were collected experimentally. Thus, the condition of the data size has been met. A
 284 summary of the statistical parameters (i.e., Min, Max, S.D, and Mean) of the dataset are given in Table 3.

285

$$N > 50 + 8 * K \tag{7}$$

286 where: N and k are the total dataset and the number of the independent variables (IVs), respectively.

287

288 Table 3. A statistical summary of the characterisation of testing, training, and cross-validation dataset.

Data Set	Statistical Parameters	Input Variables					Output
		Load (kN)	Slenderness ratio Lc/d	Pile length, (m)	Pile axial rigidity, EA (MN)	Sand-pile friction angle, δ°	Settlement, (mm)
Training Set	Max.	4.260	25	1	251.18	19	14.45
	Min.	0.002	12	0.48	251.18	17	0.002
	Mean	1.251	17.17	0.717	251.18	17.91	5.952
	S.D.*	1.202	1.342	0.210	0.00	1.04	4.435
	Range	4.458	13	0.52	0.00	2	14.45
Testing Set	Max.	4.256	25	1	251.18	19	14.35
	Min.	0.002	12	0.48	251.18	17	0.0165
	Mean	1.233	17.24	0.724	251.18	17.84	6.207
	S.D.*	1.342	0.138	0.226	0.00	1.047	4.665
	Range	4.254	13	0.52	0.00	2	14.34
Validation Set	Max.	4.261	25	1	251.18	19	14.18
	Min.	0.211	12	0.48	251.18	17	0.449
	Mean	1.240	17.365	0.725	251.18	17.83	7.011
	S.D.*	1.118	1.352	0.216	0.00	1.049	4.609
	Range	4.050	13	0.52	0.00	1.117	13.73

289

290 **4.3.3 Outliers**

291 Outliers can be illustrated as an observation point, that appears to be incompatible with other dataset observations
 292 (Walfish, 2006). The models generalisation ability can be highly affected by the existence of such extreme points.
 293 Consequently, all IVs and DVs must be checked in the pre-processing stage. Based on the statistical criteria
 294 suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the presence of outliers could be examined using the Mahalanobis

295 distances (MDs). In this study, the maximum MDs must be less than the critical value 20.52 for five IVs (Pallant,
296 2005). The screening test demonstrated that the upper limit of the MDs was found at 17.63. While, for the
297 experimental data, the highest of the MDs was found to be 17.63, as given in Table 2, which confirmed the absence
298 of outliers in the studied observations.

299

300 **4.4. Development of the LM training algorithm**

301 One of the primary aims of this study was to develop the LM based ANN model to fully correlate the pile load
302 and corresponding settlement. The Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) training algorithm was used based on the
303 MATLAB environment, version (R2017a). ANN model topology was determined by a single layer, transfer
304 functions (TANSIG and PURELIN) and the number of nodes (neurons) in the hidden layer. Moreover,
305 optimisation of an ANN topology has been cited as the most important task in the ANN model development
306 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In total 9 pile load tests curves were carried out to examine pile bearing capacity
307 and to provide an accurate dataset to develop and train the proposed LM algorithm. In an attempt to identify the
308 optimum number of neurons, different ANN model structures has been used in terms of learnings and number of
309 hidden neurons. The minimum value of MSE associated with 10 hidden neurons. Therefore, the trained ANN
310 model with 10 neurons found to be the most appropriate structure for the developed model as illustrated in Figure
311 5.

312

313 In most recent studies, the percentage of the training sub-set is advised to fall within the range of 60% to 80%
314 from the total dataset (Alrashyadah and Abo-Qudais, 2018; Jebur et al., 2018a). The training aim is to determine
315 the strength of the trained network by constructing the connection weights and threshold bias for the model input
316 and output parameters. The testing subset was piloted to check the reproducibility and the generalisation ability
317 of the proposed algorithm. The cross-validation subset was located to assess the model performance, terminate
318 the learning process, and to avoid overfitting at a minimum value of the mean square error (MSE) (Tarawneh,
319 2017). The process of learning utilized was back-propagation, and the resulting biases and weights of the best-fit
320 trained LM algorithm are provided in Appendix B.

321

322 In this study, the optimum ANN structure was identified as one single hidden layer with transfer functions of
323 tangent sigmoid (TANSIG) and linear (PURELIN) for the hidden and output layers respectively, as presented in
324 Eqs. 8, and 9, respectively. According to the statistical analysis study, five independent variables (IVs) were

325 specified as the most significant input parameters affecting pile bearing capacity. These parameters were applied
 326 load (P), pile aspect ratio (lc/d), pile effective length (lc), pile axial rigidity (EA), and the sand-pile angle of friction
 327 (δ). The model output was the pile settlement. It is worth noting that the optimal structure of the LM based artificial
 328 neural network (ANN) has been selected at topology of 5:10:1 as revealed in Figure 6. The database values were
 329 scaled between 0.0 and 1.0, before being processed, to be given equal attention during the network training process
 330 and to minimize the ANN model ill-conditioning (Masters, 1993; Cho, 2009; Majeed et al., 2013). As part of this
 331 process, for each parameter with maximum, and minimum values of X_{max} and X_{min} , the definition of the
 332 “normalised” value, X_n , can be evaluated using Eq. 10. The training parameters utilised are: (i) Learning rate:
 333 0.001, (ii) Momentum: 0.100, (iii) Maximum number of iteration: 1000, and (iv) desired summation square error
 334 (SSE): 0.01.

335

$$Z_j = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \pm w_{ij}^{(1)} x_i \pm b_j^{(1)}\right)} \quad (8)$$

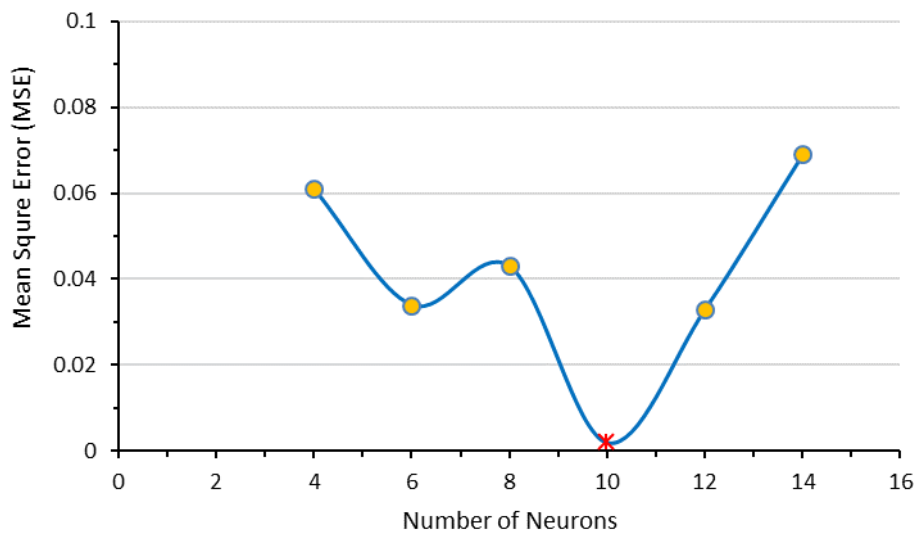
$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n w_j^{(2)} z_j \pm b^{(2)} \quad (9)$$

$$x_{norm} = \frac{x_i - x_{i(min)}}{x_{i(max)} - x_{i(min)}} \quad (10)$$

336

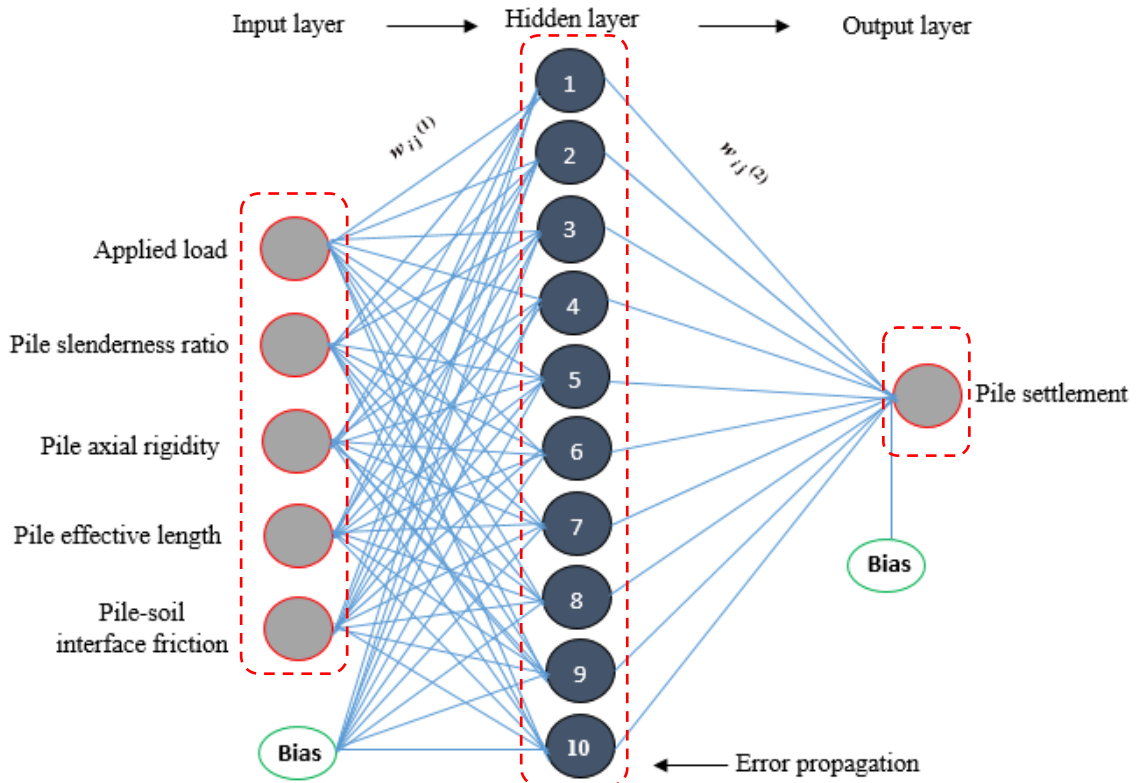
337 where: the factors $w_{ij}^{(1)}$ and $b_j^{(1)}$ are the synaptic connection weights and biases from the inputs and hidden layer;

338 $b_i^{(1)}$ and $b_i^{(2)}$ are the assigned bias for the layer one and two.



339

340 Figure 5. Shows variation effect of number of neurons in the hidden layer on mean square error (MSE).



342

343

Figure 6. Optimised ANN model inputs and output.

344

345

346 **4.5. Results and discussion**

347

348 **4.5.1 The LM algorithm measuring performance**

349 The measuring accuracy indicators of the trained LM algorithm was firstly assessed during the learning or training

350 process. The aforementioned training algorithm was used, as it is a most efficient and reliable method amongst

351 all other feedforward artificial intelligence (AI) methods (Jeong and Kim, 2005; Nguyen-Truong and Le, 2015).

352 The optimum model performance was statistically evaluated utilising the following metric skill with an error value

353 goal set at 0.01: mean square error (MSE), correlation coefficient (R) and root mean square error (RMSE)

354 functions as listed in Eqs. 11, 12 and 13, respectively, as they are the main standards that are utilised to measure

355 the network performance (Erdal, 2013).

356

357

$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - t_i)^2}{n} \tag{11}$$

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - t_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - O_{mean})} \quad (12)$$

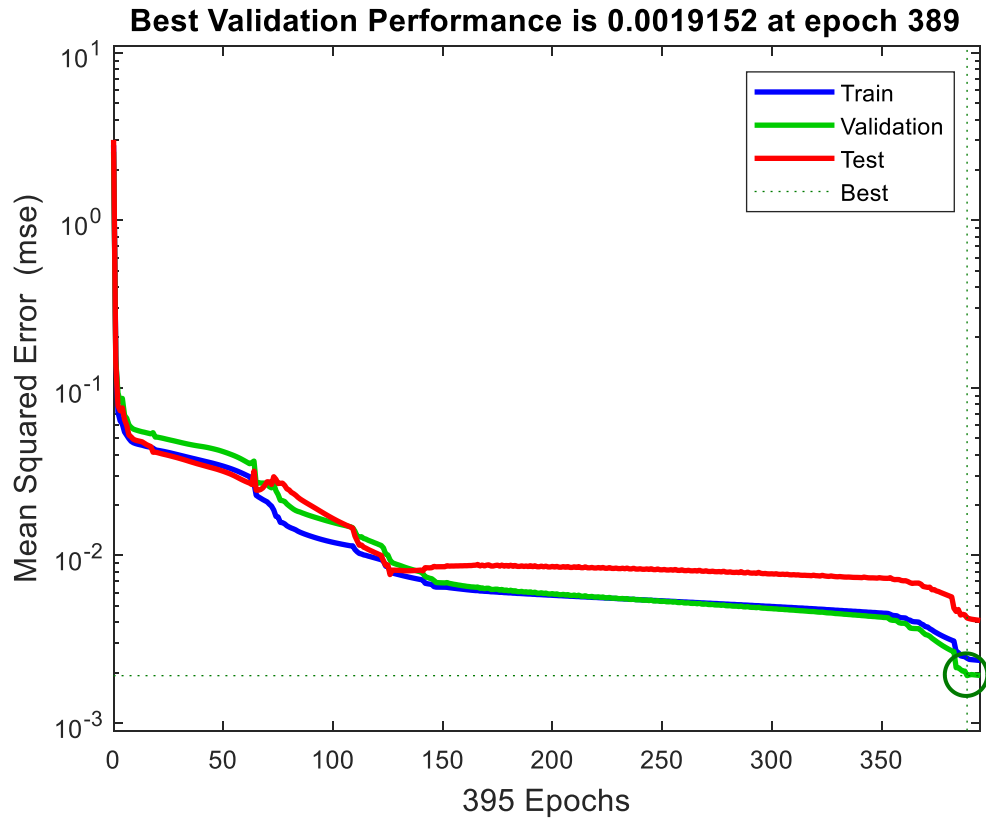
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - t_i)^2} \quad (13)$$

$$BIAS = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - t_i)}{n} \quad (14)$$

$$SI = \frac{RMSE}{(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n t_i} \quad (15)$$

358
 359 in which n stands for the total number of dataset, O_i and t_i are, respectively, the predicted and targeted values,
 360 O_{mean} is the average of the network output.

361
 362 The measuring performance of the employed LM algorithm under the training process is demonstrated in Figure
 363 7, it can be noted that the optimum model performance was identified at the minimum square error (MSE),
 364 alternatively known as the performance index of 0.0019152 at an epoch of 389. It can also be seen that the model
 365 performance is tested at many stages and the training was stopped with minimum MSE to avoid overfitting and
 366 to improve the generalisation ability of the proposed algorithm once the cross validation subset started to increase.
 367 This method is called early stopping criteria (Shawash, 2012).



368

369

Figure 7. Performance profile of the LM algorithm during the training process.

370

371 Moreover, the error gradient variation, the Marquardt adjustment (m_u) and the validation checks are demonstrated

372 in Figure 8. It can also be shown that the gradient error was 0.00010525, while, the m_u factor and the validation

373 check were $1 \cdot 10^{-05}$ and 6 at an epoch of 395. Moreover, Figure 9, presents the error histogram graph (EHG) to

374 obtain additional efficiency validation of network performance. The EHG can give an indication of outliers and

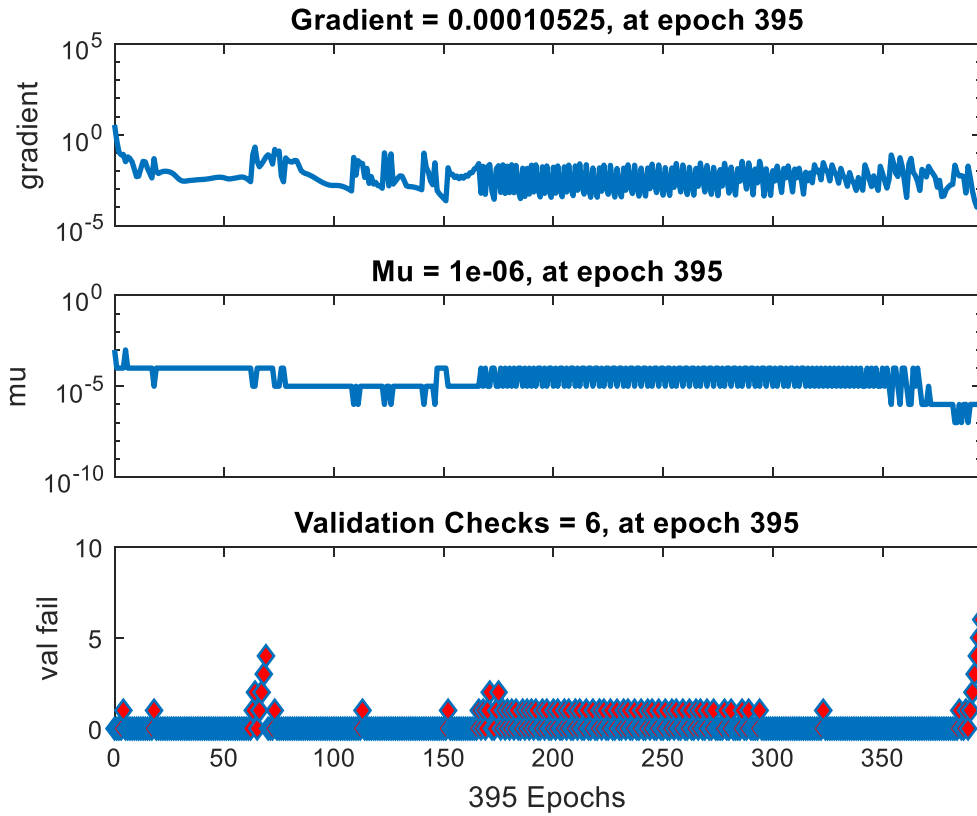
375 data features that appear to be inconsistent with other subsets observations (Yadav et al., 2014; Abdellatif et al.,

376 2015). It should be highlighted that the conclusions from the training can be extremely effected by outliers

377 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Thus, the training process is stopped once the validation error starts to increase.

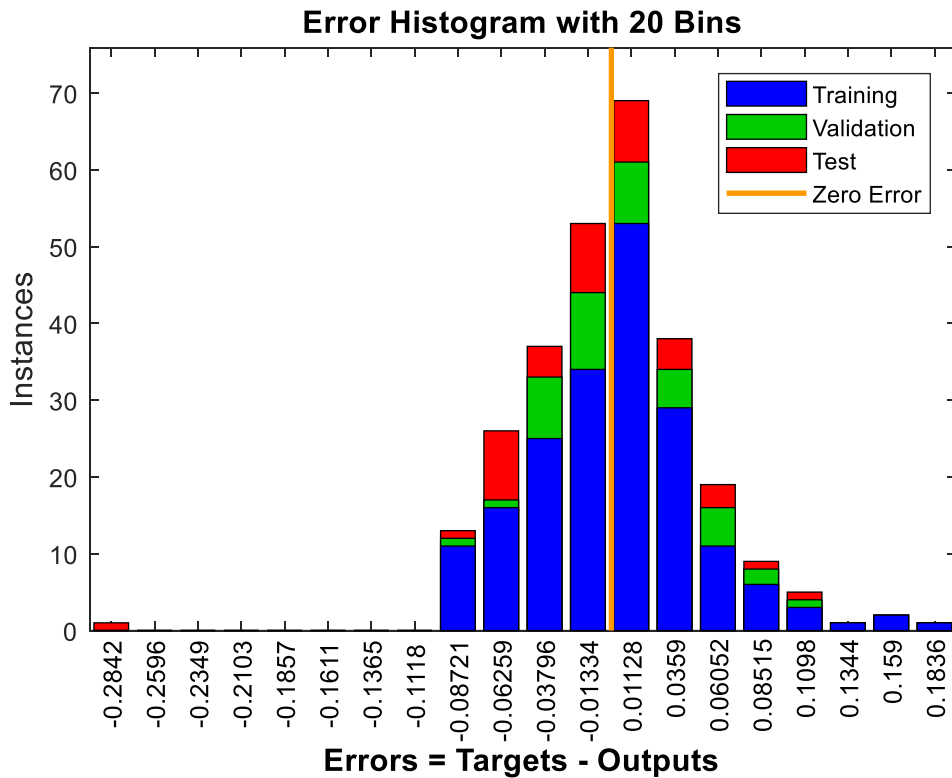
378 In addition, it can be shown that the majority of dataset coincides with the line of zero error.

379



380
381
382

Figure 8. Denotes performance profiles for the LM trained network.

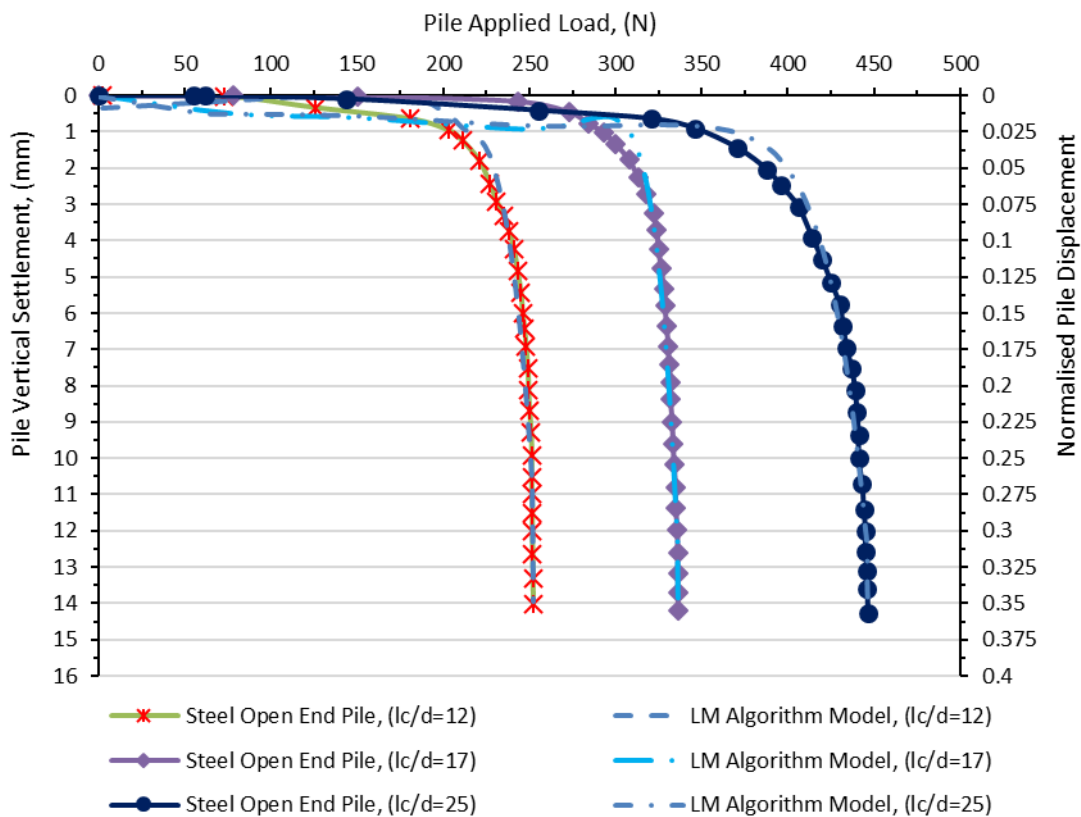


383
384

Figure 9. Error histogram of training, validation, and testing for the LM algorithm.

385 **4.5.2 Assessment of the ANN model robustness**

386 The experimental results and the predicted pile load-settlement are presented and discussed in this section. A
387 series of experimental pile load-settlement were performed on open-ended steel piles. The testing program
388 encompassed of three piles with aspect ratios (l_c/d) of 12, 17 and 25 with 40mm diameter. It can be observed that
389 all pile load-displacement curves failed by punching shear. The results of the pile-load tests indicate that the pile
390 bearing capacity increased with increase in the sand relative density and the pile penetrated depth. This can be
391 attributed due to an increase in the skin friction resistance and the point bearing developed in the effective zone.
392 In total, 274 dataset were recorded the experimental pile load tests. Figures 10, 11 and 12 illustrate the distributions
393 of the measured versus predicted load carrying capacity. It can be seen that plastic mechanisms in the soil
394 surrounding the pile is the main cause for the non-linearity associated of the load-displacement response; as the
395 applied load increases. The results revealed that there was an excellent correlation between the experimental and
396 computational pile load-test results, with a correlation coefficient of 0.99 for validation dataset, which verified
397 that the employed LM trained algorithm, could efficiently predict the pile load-settlement behaviour.
398



399

400

Figure 10. Experimental versus predicted pile load tests for steel piles tested in loose sand.

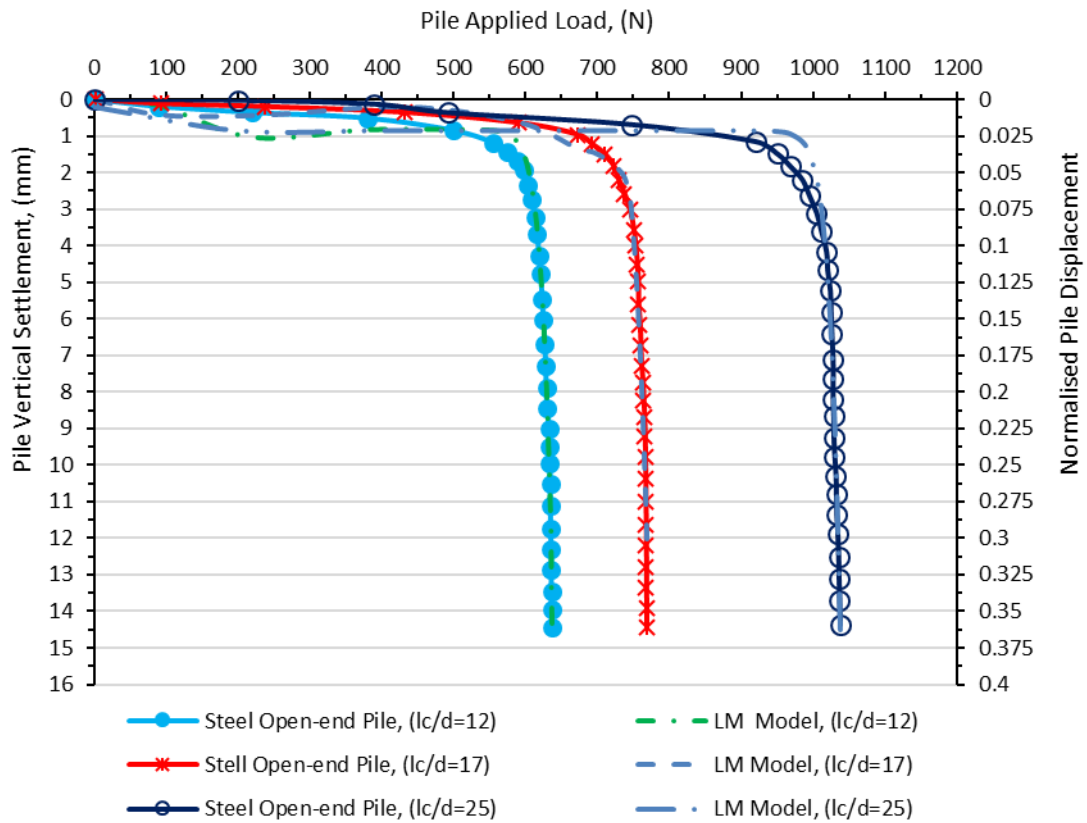


Figure 11. Experimental versus predicted pile load tests for steel piles tested in medium sand.

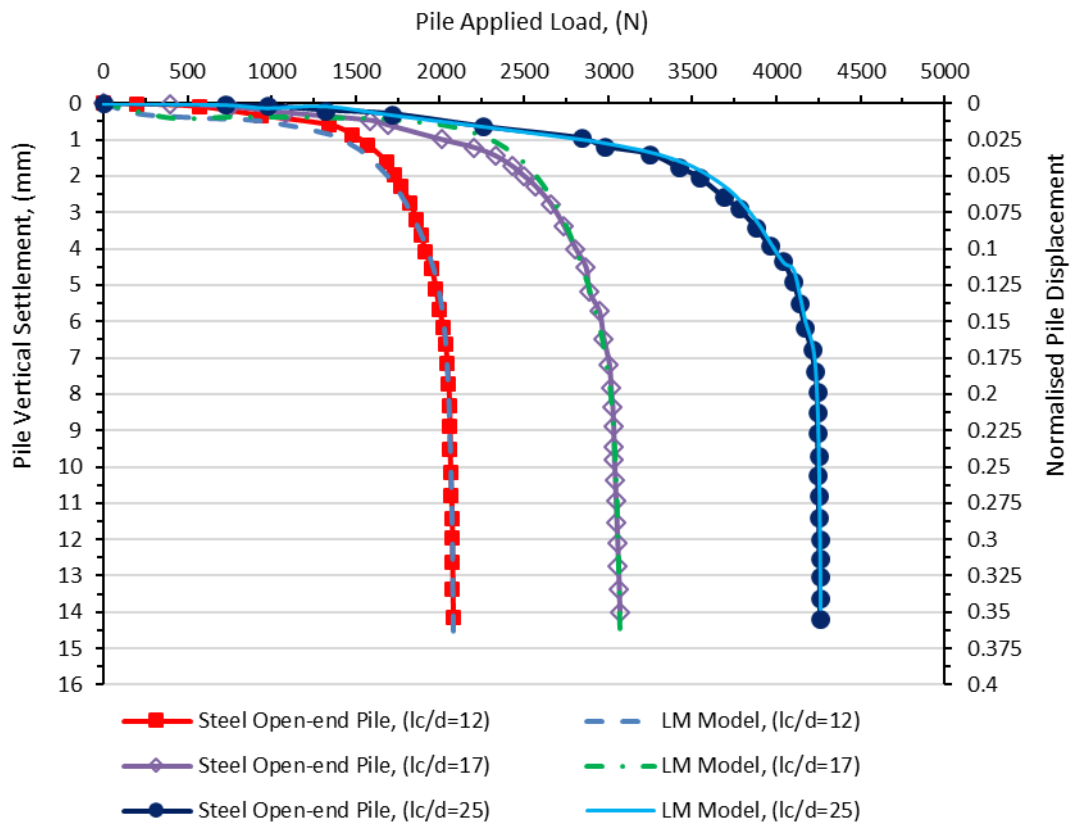
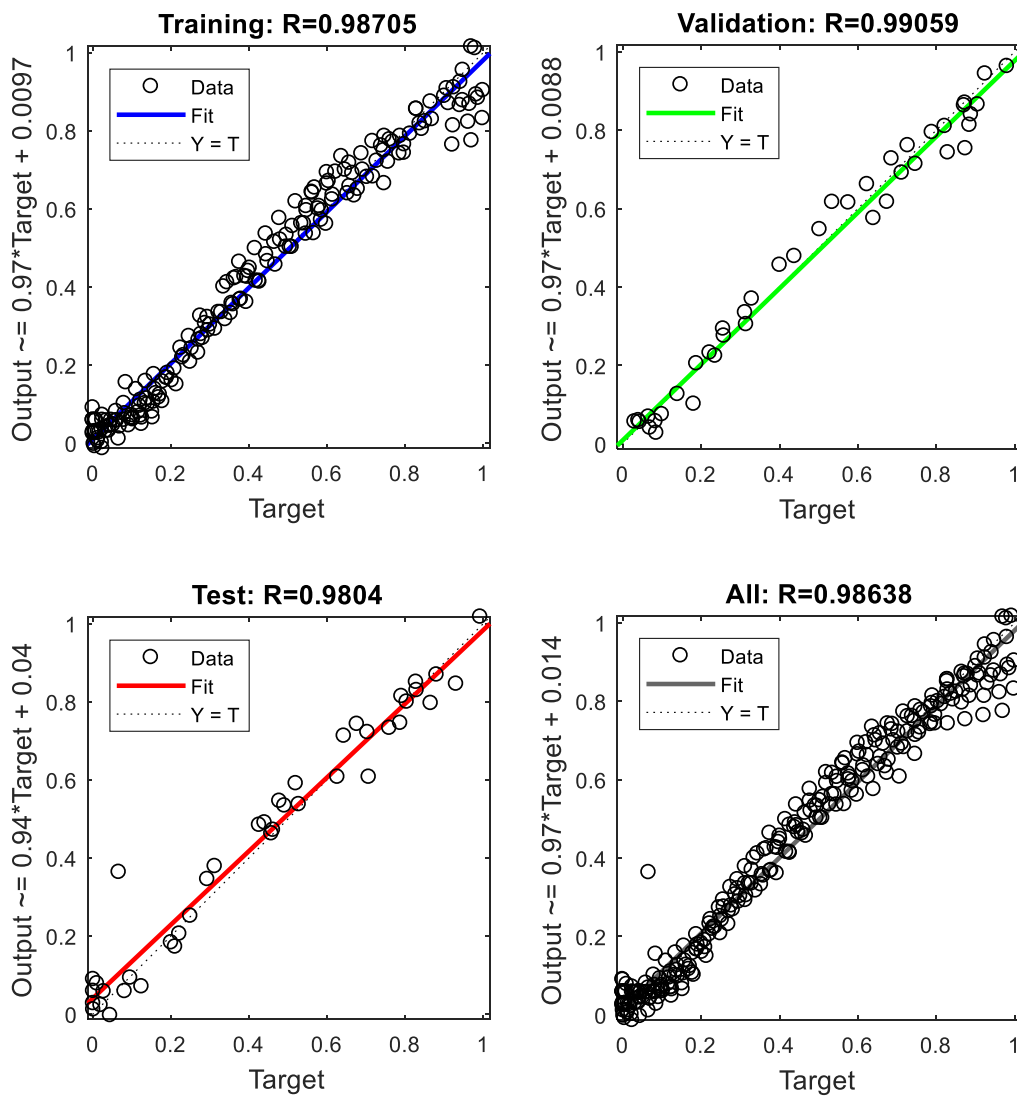


Figure 12. Experimental versus predicted pile load tests for steel piles tested in dense sand.

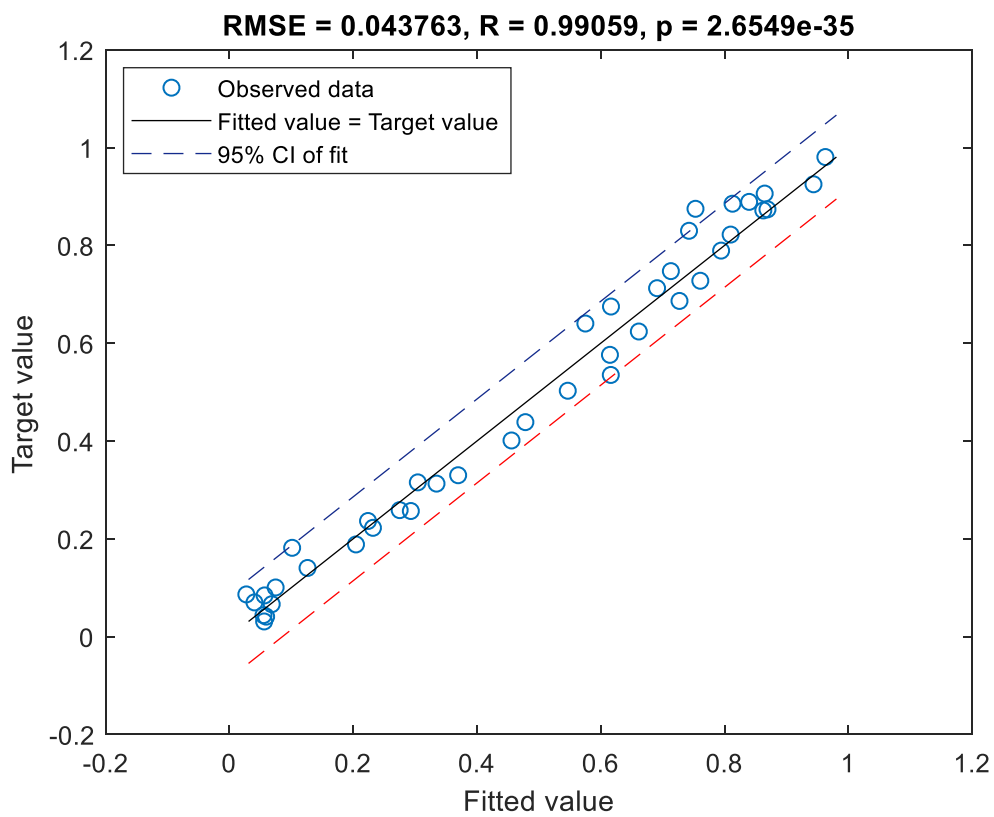
405 A comparison has also been made between the targeted versus predicted pile corresponding settlement with
406 respect to the regression profile trends for the training, validation, testing and the complete dataset. As clearly
407 presented in Figure 13, the best-fit lines between the measured and predicted values can be seen with correlation
408 coefficients of 0.987, 0.99, 0.98 and 0.986 for training, testing, validation, and all data, demonstrating that the
409 newly implemented LM algorithm is a powerful data-driven tool and behaves in a fashion as would be expected.
410



411
412 Figure 13. Regression graphs of the experimental against predicted pile settlement for the training, validation,
413 testing and all data.
414

415 Furthermore, the validation dataset has been individually explored as recommended by Shahin and Jaksa (2005);
 416 Jebur et al. (2018a) for further performance authentication and testing of the LM algorithm metric efficiency with
 417 a 95% confidence interval (CI). It should be noted that a new MATLAB algorithm has been developed and used
 418 to achieve the planned target. See supplementary information (Appendix C). remarkable consistency can be
 419 observed, as shown in Figure 14, between the actual versus predicted pile settlement, with a coefficient of
 420 correlation (R) and a root mean square error (RMSE) of 0.99 and 0.0437, thus in parallel with scatter index (SI)
 421 of 0.349, and relatively insignificant BIAS value of 0.00071, respectively.

422



423

424 Figure 14. Fitted versus observed settlement at a 95% confidence interval (CI).

425

426 **4.6 Assessment of the ANN model performance with the various traditional methods**

427 A comparison has been made, in this part of the current study, to assess the robustness and the reliability of the
 428 implemented approach with the traditional approaches currently used in the absence of pile load-test results, as
 429 recommended by: Poulos and Davis (1980); Vesic (1977) and Das (1995). As stated previously, the validation
 430 subset was allocated to investigate the generalization ability of the trained LM algorithm. However, the validation

431 data subset was utilised in this comparison to evaluate the superiority of the developed ANN algorithm with the
432 aforementioned traditional methods.

433

434 **4.6.1 Poulos and Davis (1980) approach**

435 Poulos and Davis (1980) reported that the developed empirical equations can be used to predict pile(s) settlement
436 for single piles subjected to axial load as follows:

437

$$s = \frac{PI}{E_s D} \quad (16)$$

438

$$I = I_0 R_k R_h R_v \quad (17)$$

439 P , E_s and D are pile applied load, soil modulus of elasticity and pile diameter. I is the pile settlement influence
440 factor, which involves the soil depth, pile compressibility and Poisson's ratio ν . R_h is the influence element for
441 finite-depth, R_v is the Poissons's ratio adjustment parameter, those influence parameters could be determined
442 using a series of design charts suggested by Poulos and Davis (1980). It is worth addressing that, if a rigid pile
443 driven in a semi-infinite soil with about 0.5 Poisson's ratio, I_0 is the only influence parameter need to be considered
444 in the equation and the rest of the parameters are assumed constant (Baziar et al., 2015).

445

446 **4.6.2 Vesic (1977) approach**

447 Vesic (1977) proposed that pile settlement can be calculated from the summation of three components
448 s_1 , s_2 and s_3 using the following simplified procedures.

$$S_1 = \frac{(P_{wp} + \xi P_{ws})L}{A_{tip}E} \quad (18)$$

$$S_2 = C_p \frac{P_{wp}}{dq_p} \quad (19)$$

$$S_3 = C_s \frac{P_{ws}}{Lq_p} \quad (20)$$

449 P_{wp} is the pile applied load, P_{ws} is the load transfered by skin resistance and ξ is the skin friction influence factor.

450 C_p is an empirical parameter. The following equations can be applied to determine the q_p and C_s coefficients:

451

$$q_p = 40 \frac{N_{tip} l}{d} \leq 400 N_{tip} (kPa) \quad (21)$$

$$C_s = \left(0.93 + 0.16 \sqrt{\frac{l}{d}} \right) C_p \quad (22)$$

452

453 The factor ξ can be assumed to equal 0.5 and the parameter C_p is equal to 0.09, as recommended for cohesionless
454 soil (Poulos and Davis, 1980).

455

456 4.6.3 Das (1995) approach

457 The method offered by Das (1995) is the similar as that proposed by Vesic (1977) with some modifications in
458 calculating S_2 and S_3 as stated below:

459

$$S_2 = \frac{P_{wp} D}{A_{tip} E_s} (1 - \nu^2) I_p \quad (23)$$

$$S_3 = \left(\frac{P_{ws}}{O l_{penetarted}} \right) \left(\frac{d}{E_s} \right) (1 - \nu^2) I_{ps} \quad (24)$$

$$I_{ps} = 2 + 0.35 \sqrt{\frac{l_{penetrated}}{d}} \quad (25)$$

460

461 where I_p is equal to 0.88 as recommended for a circular cross-sectional pile Poulos and Davis (1980).

462

463 4.6.4 McVay et al. (1989) approach

464 McVay et al. (1989) proposed a non-linear method known as t - z curves, which could be utilized for load-
465 displacement analysis of single piles. This method has been adopted by previous researchers (Zhang et al., 2008;
466 Ismail, 2017). In this approach, the total pile settlement resulted from shaft and pile base, can be determined
467 according to the following equations:

468

$$\text{Shaft: } z_s = \frac{r_0 \tau_0}{G_{ib}} \left[\ln \frac{r_m - \omega}{r_0 - \omega} + \frac{\omega (r_m - r_0)}{(r_0 - \omega) (r_m - \omega)} \right] \quad (26)$$

$$\text{Base: } z_b = \frac{q_b A_b (1 - \nu)}{4 r_0 G_{ib} \left[1 - R_f \frac{q_b}{q_{max}} \right]^2} \quad (27)$$

469

470 in which z_s and z_b are, respectively, the settlement of pile shaft and pile base; r_0 is pile radius; τ_0 is the shear
471 stress at the pile-soil interface, and G_{ib} is the soil shear modulus at low strain; r_m is the pile radius of influence;
472 q_b and q_{max} are the mobilised base resistance, and ultimate base base resistance. ω can be defined as follows:
473

$$\omega = \frac{r_0 \tau_0 R_f}{\tau_{max}} \quad (28)$$

474 From the above expression (Eq. 28), it is clear that the t-z method for both components are developed according
475 to the limiting values of pile shaft, pile base resistance, and the soil elastic modulus. In the context of this study,
476 the limiting values of pile shaft and pile base resistance are predicted following the recommendations specified
477 by Meyerhof (1976). This is in agreement with the approach utilised by Ismail (2017).

478
479 With the aim of further examining the validity of the proposed ANN model, Figure 15 characterises graphical
480 comparisons between the measured pile settlement and with those given by the most conventional methods as
481 outlined previously, which are normally used in the absence of the in-situ load carrying capacity test. The
482 comparative results indicated that the aforementioned design methods are not reliable to simulate pile load-
483 settlement and they need to be revised, if employed, in future applications. This can be probably assigned to several
484 various hypotheses associated with the soil-pile interaction. The results also revealed that the non-linear
485 approaches set out by Fleming (1992) and McVay et al. (1989) provide better results when compared to elastic
486 methods. As depicted, the computational results are in remarkable agreement with the measured pile-load
487 settlement responses, suggesting that the LM algorithm is highly successful in simulating the full response of load
488 carrying capacity with obvious advantages.

489

490 5. Scale factor

491 According to the geotechnical scaling standards reported by Wood (2004), Eq. (29) can be utilised when the
492 stiffness modulus of the sand in the effective stress zone and in the situ is about the same.

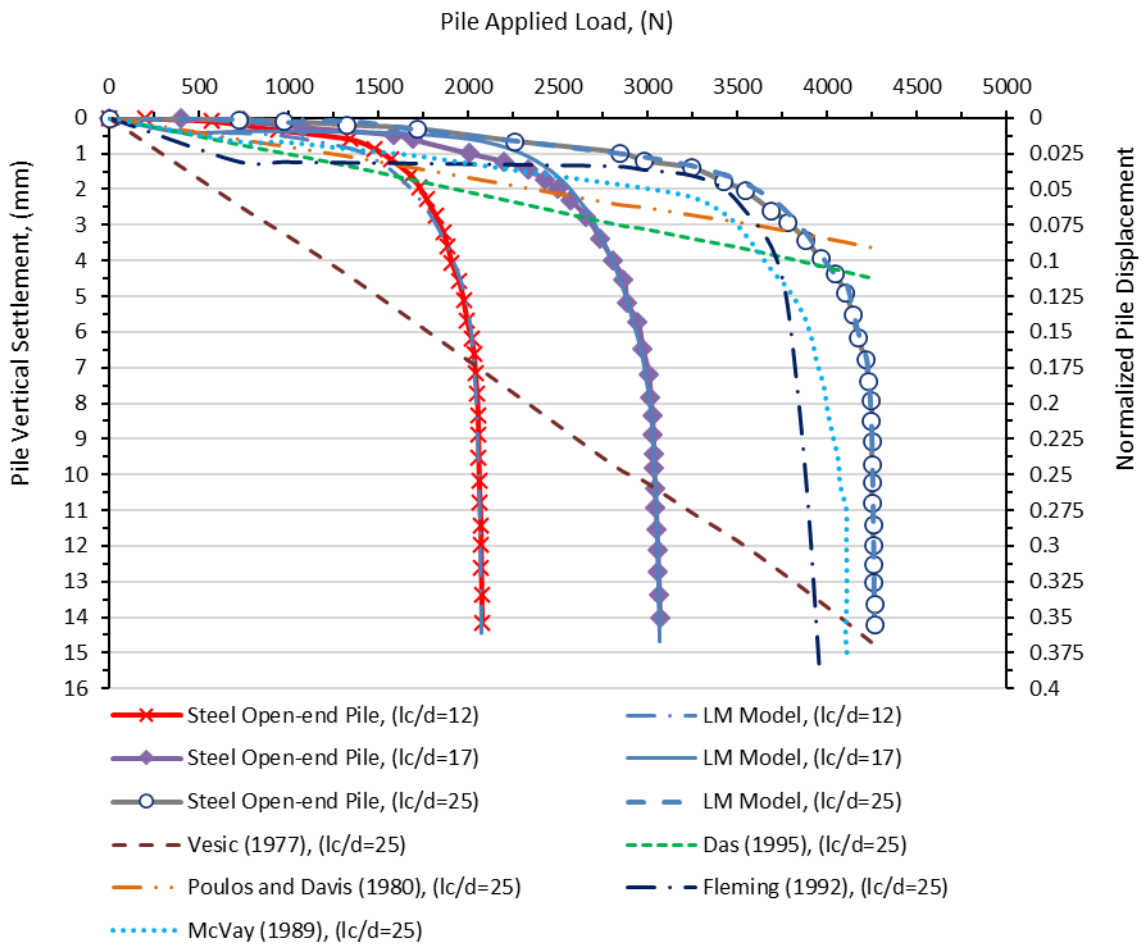
493

$$E_m I_m = \frac{1}{n^4} E_p I_p \quad (29)$$

494

495 where $E_m I_m$ stand for the model pile elastic modulus (GPa), and moment of inertia (m^4), n^4 is the scaling factor,
496 and $E_p I_p$ is the elastic modulus, and moment of inertia for the prototype pile. The pile diameter used in the

497 experiment is 40 mm and having different aspect ratios as stated previously. The diameter for the range of the
 498 prototypes piles were selected as 0.3m diameter, with length of 12m for steel piles. The elastic modulus, E for
 499 both the prototype and the steel model pile where chosen to have the same value 200 GPa (Gere and Timoshenko,
 500 1997). According to Eq. 26, the scale factor (n) for prototype steel pile is 20, 16.8, and 14 for slenderness ratios
 501 of 12, 17, and 25.
 502



503
 504 Figure 15. Measured versus predicted pile load-settlement for the proposed LM compared with other
 505 conventional methods.
 506

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 512

513 6. Conclusions

514 The current study targeted at developing and verifying a new data-driven artificial intelligence approach using the
515 Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) approach, based on the MATLAB environment that can be successfully applied to
516 simulate the load-settlement response of steel piles, covering different sand relative densities. The conventional
517 design procedure proposed by Poulos and Davis (1980); Vesic (1977); Das (1995); Fleming (1992); and McVay
518 et al. (1989) were utilised for comparisons purposes. the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 519 • Pile bearing capacity in dense sand is substantially greater than for those embedded in loose and medium
520 sand. This can be assigned to an increase in the end bearing capacity and shaft resistance developed in
521 the effective soil-pile penetration depth.
- 522 • The pile load-settlement results are idealistic for pile foundations under axial loads, i.e., reducing from
523 pile head to pile toe due to the increase in the developed shaft resistance and the point bearing in the soil
524 effective zone.
- 525 • Substantial agreement has been identified between the measured and the computational values of the
526 pile-load tests, demonstrating that the LM algorithm is efficient and an appropriate approach to predict
527 pile load-settlement. This was confirmed with RMSE, R and MAE of 0.043, 0.99, and 0.0019, thus with
528 a relatively low percentage error of SI and BIAS at 0.349, and 0.00071, correspondingly.
- 529 • The optimal LM algorithm structure was identified at a topology of 5:10:1 with a tangent sigmoid “*tansig*”
530 transfer function between input and hidden layer and linear “*purelin*” transfer function between the
531 hidden and output layer.
- 532 • According to the sensitivity analysis and the statistical significance model, five parameters
533 namely, applied load (P), pile slenderness ratio (l_c/d), pile axial rigidity (EA), pile effective length (l_c)
534 and sand-pile friction angle (δ) were identified to play a substantial role on pile capacity and the
535 corresponding settlement, at varying contribution level following the order $P (0.804) > \delta (0.711) > l_c/d$
536 $(0.119) > 1 (0.88) > EA (0.015)$.
- 537 • The statistical analysis results revealed that the maximum detected MDs for five IVs was found to be
538 17.63 that is less than the maximum value (20.52), which confirm the absence of outliers in the dataset
539 being studied.
- 540 • The adopted LM algorithm has several favourable features (i.e. generalization ability, efficiency and ease
541 of application) which make it a good choice to model the complex nonlinear system.

542 • To reveal the applicability of the LM algorithm, a graphical performance comparison was made between
543 the applied LM algorithm and conventional methods. Based on the outcomes, the adopted LM training
544 algorithm is substantially superior the traditional empirical relationships and has been identified to
545 provide better solutions as confirmed by the performance skills metric, which demonstrates the
546 applicability of the implemented algorithm and its potential in future applications.

547 The main limitation of this study lies in the fact that the piles were tested in cohesionless soil. Considering this
548 limitation, the feasibility of the proposed LM training algorithm to capture the full load-settlement response for
549 model piles embedded in cohesion soil will be examined in the future. In addition, more data should be included
550 as the measured load-settlement (l-s) curves in Figure 15 contain both the training and testing dataset.

551

552 **Acknowledgements**

553 The first author would like to express his gratitude to the Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific
554 Research, Iraqi Culrural Attache in London, and Wasit University for financial support under the grant agreement
555 number 162575 dated 28/05/2013 with the uinversity reference number (744221). Additionally, the authors would
556 like to thank the reviewers for their constructive feedback, which help to improve the quality of the paper.

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