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1 **Nonlinear lateral response of RC pile in sand: centrifuge and numerical modelling**

2 Rui Zhao¹, *Anthony Kwan Leung², Jonathan Knappett³, Scott Robinson⁴, Andrew Brennan⁵

3 **Abstract:** Centrifuge modelling has been considered as an effective means of studying flexural
4 soil-pile interaction, yet the conventional use of elastic material to model a reinforced
5 concrete (RC) pile prototype is unable to reproduce the important nonlinear quasi-brittle
6 behavior. It also remains a challenge to numerically model the soil-pile interaction due to the
7 nonlinearity of both the soil and pile materials. This paper presents a small-scale model RC
8 pile for testing soil-structure interaction under lateral pile-head loading in sand within a
9 centrifuge. Accompanying non-linear finite-element numerical modelling is also presented to
10 back-analyze the centrifuge observations and explore the influence of the constitutive models
11 used. The physical model RC pile is able to (i) reproduce the pile failure mechanism by forming
12 realistic tension crack patterns and plastic hinging and (ii) give hardening responses upon
13 flexural loading. Comparisons of measured and predicted results demonstrate that for the
14 laterally-loaded pile problem, the load-displacement response can be well approximated by
15 models which do not incorporate strain softening, even though the soil behavior itself exhibits
16 a strong softening response.

17 **Keywords:** Pile foundation; Reinforced concrete; Centrifuge modelling; Numerical modelling

18 **Introduction**

19 The design of piles against lateral loading is crucial for loads induced by wind, waves, and
20 earthquakes (e.g., Bhattacharya et al. 2011; Anastasopoulos et al. 2013). It is a complex

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21 problem as it involves small-strain soil nonlinearity, and also large-strain (post-peak) strain
22 softening in the case of dense (and hence dilative) sand. Geotechnical centrifuge modelling
23 (e.g., Taylor 1995) has been employed as an effective means to study soil-pile interaction (e.g.,
24 Zhang et al. 1999). This technique enables small-scale physical models to be tested within an
25 elevated gravity field, such that soil stress levels are the same as those experienced within
26 much larger prototypes at homologous points. Based on this modelling technique and
27 effective stress principle, it is possible to create an identical effective stress regime within a
28 dry and a fully-saturated physical models by intentionally applying different g -levels to them.

29 A challenge of centrifuge testing of soil-pile interaction is to select an appropriate
30 material that can correctly model the mechanical properties of the piles at prototype scale.
31 Aluminum was a common modelling material (e.g., Zhang et al. 1999), for which either the
32 stiffness or the strength could be scaled, but not both simultaneously. Moreover, it could not
33 capture nonlinear pile behavior or cracking patterns that would be expected for reinforced
34 concrete (RC) piles. RC has also been directly utilized to create pile models (e.g., Goode &
35 McCartney 2015), but the coarse aggregate used without proper geometric scaling might lead
36 to over-strength (Ito et al. 2006).

37 To overcome this limitation, Knappett et al. (2011) developed a small-scale model
38 concrete, which was a mixture of plaster, water and fine sand. Fine sand was used to
39 geometrically scale the coarse aggregates, so as to prevent the potential over-strength while
40 realistically reproducing the nonlinear quasi-brittle behavior and having representative
41 bending stiffness and moment capacity of RC pile prototypes. Recent modifications by Zhao
42 et al. (2020) added copper powder to reproduce the thermal properties of concrete, for use
43 in energy pile research. The small-scale model concrete has been successfully applied in the
44 centrifuge to study the seismic behavior of pile-reinforced slopes, i.e. piles loaded by relative

45 soil–pile deformation (Al-Defae & Knappett 2014), but has not yet been used to physically
46 model laterally-loaded piles.

47 Due to the conventional use of elastic materials in physical modelling of piles, it was
48 commonly assumed that the pile behaves in a linear elastic manner when conducting
49 numerical back-analysis of model tests (e.g., Al-Baghdadi et al. 2017). Although this might be
50 a reasonable assumption for relatively small lateral pile displacements, when subjected to
51 large lateral displacements RC piles would exceed their elastic range and form plastic hinges
52 as tension cracks developed (Broms 1964). More sophisticated constitutive models are thus
53 necessary in order to capture such nonlinear response of model RC piles.

54 This paper studies the nonlinear behavior of a laterally-loaded RC pile in sand, combining
55 centrifuge modelling and three-dimensional numerical simulations. The numerical analysis is
56 conducted by employing the finite element (FE) method. Different soil constitutive models
57 are comparatively assessed, using the centrifuge model test results as a benchmark. The
58 degree of constitutive model sophistication is varied from simpler models to more
59 sophisticated ones, capturing stress- and/or strain-dependency of small-strain response, to
60 models incorporating post-peak strain softening. The importance of modelling the nonlinear
61 quasi-brittle response of RC piles, as well as the post-peak softening response of dilative soil
62 is highlighted and discussed.

63 **Centrifuge modelling**

64 Two centrifuge tests were conducted to study the behavior of laterally-loaded RC piles of
65 $1/35^{\text{th}}$ scale (i.e., scale factor, $N = 35$), installed in dry and saturated sand with the respective
66 density of ρ_{dry} and ρ_{sat} (denoted as Tests D and S). The g -levels adopted in Tests D and S
67 were 22-g and 35-g (denoted as g_{dry} and g_{sat}), respectively. Hence, the effective confining
68 stress acting on the 1:35 scaled piles in both tests was identical ($\rho_{dry}g_{dry}z = \rho_{sat}g_{sat}z$). This

69 technique of using the dry test at lower g to match the effective stress at higher g has
70 previously been applied in centrifuge testing of piles by Li et al. (2010). Both centrifuge tests
71 in the present study were performed using the 3.5-m-radius geotechnical beam centrifuge of
72 the University of Dundee, U. K. (Brennan et al. 2014). A list of scaling laws relevant to this
73 study is summarized in Table. 1. Note that for Test D, although the g -level applied was 22- g ,
74 when scaling up to prototype the scale factor of 1:35 was used because the model pile had
75 effective stresses in the soil consistent with 1:35 scale. From this point onwards, all
76 parameters were subsequently given at model scale, unless otherwise stated.

77 ***Model RC piles***

78 Each model RC pile was produced using the model concrete created by Knappett et al. (2011),
79 as later modified by Vitali et al. (2016) and Zhao et al. (2020). The model concrete used in the
80 tests was made of β -form surgical plaster (Saint-Gobain Formula UK), fine sand (HST 95
81 Congleton silica sand) and water with a ratio of 1:1:0.9. Zhao et al. (2020) added 6% copper
82 powder to the mix for tuning the thermal properties when the model concrete was used to
83 model an energy RC pile. Although the present study does not focus on thermal effects (i.e.,
84 no temperature change was imposed in either of the centrifuge tests), the mix proposed by
85 Zhao et al. (2020) was adopted for future comparison against energy RC pile behavior. The
86 surface roughness of the model pile was measured to be $5.09 \pm 0.93 \mu\text{m}$, obtained by a
87 surface roughness tester (0.01 μm resolution; SJ 201; Mitutoyo). This value was normalized
88 by the d_{50} of the sand chosen for investigation in this study (0.13 mm), and the normalized
89 roughness (R_n) is 0.0392.

90 The design bending moment capacity of the 10.5 m long RC pile of the prototype problem
91 was 200 kNm. To meet this design criterion at the scale of 1:35, a square pile cross section of
92 $18 \times 18 \text{ mm}^2$ was required (Fig. 1a). Four 1 mm-diameter longitudinal reinforcing wires were

93 adopted, corresponding to a reinforcement ratio of 1.0% (by area). In addition, ten 0.63 mm-
94 diameter transverse shear links were added to form a cage and used to fix flexible silicone
95 pipes used for the thermal circuit. All steel reinforcement was modelled using a wire made of
96 stainless steel (Ormiston Ltd., UK; Grade 316), which has a yield strength of 461 MPa and a
97 Young's modulus of 190 GPa (Al-Defae & Knappett 2014). After pile production, four-point
98 bending tests (FPB; BS EN 12390-5:2000) on three replicated piles showed that the range of
99 prototype moment capacity (M_{ult}) and flexural stiffness ($E_p I_p$, where E_p is the Young's
100 modulus of the pile and I_p is the second moment of inertia of the pile) were 219 – 231 kNm
101 and 89 – 143 MNm², respectively. The prototype M_{ult} of the model pile (i.e. 225 ± 8 kNm;
102 mean ± standard deviation) was close to the design value (i.e. 200 kNm) and also the yield
103 strength determined by the normalized axial load (N)-bending moment (M) interaction
104 diagrams of square columns from Eurocode 2 (taking N as zero). A typical Young's modulus (E)
105 of real RC is approximately 30 GPa (Eurocode 2; EN1992-1-1). For a given pile width of 0.63
106 m, the second moment of inertia (I) is 0.004468 m⁴, after discounting the presence of the
107 internal pipes. Hence, the uncracked flexural stiffness of typical prototype piles is
108 approximately 135 MNm², which is reasonably close to the prototype $E_p I_p$ of the model pile
109 (i.e. 116 ± 38 MNm²).

110 ***Model preparation and soil properties***

111 The model pile in each test was installed “wished-in-place” in a uniform bed of dense sand by
112 suspending it and pluviating sand around it (in air). HST95 Congleton fine silica sand was used,
113 of which the mechanical properties are summarized in Al-Defae et al. (2013). The ratio of pile
114 width (D) to particle size (d_{50}) was more than 30, so particle size effects on pile behavior
115 could be neglected (Bolton et al. 1999). An average sand relative density (D_r) of 67% was
116 achieved in both tests. Key properties of the sand were summarized in Table 2. After sand

117 pluviation, the pile embedment depth was 250 mm (approximately $13D$), leaving the top 50
118 mm (approximately $3D$) above the soil surface (Fig. 2). The distance between the front face
119 of the pile to the boundary of the soil container was more than $13D$, so no boundary effect
120 on the pile lateral performance should be expected (Al-Baghdadi et al. 2017). To saturate the
121 soil model for Test S, the bottom of the model package was connected to a water reservoir,
122 and the water elevation was increased in steps. Model saturation was deemed to have been
123 achieved when a water ponding of 10 mm was formed on the model surface.

124 ***Loading system, instrumentation, and test procedure***

125 A bespoke lateral loading system was designed to apply displacement-controlled lateral
126 (pushover) loading to the model pile. The system consists of a servo motor and a linear drive,
127 which could provide a maximum loading rate of 3.1 mm/s over a stroke of 300 mm. To
128 monitor the lateral deflection of the pile head, a draw wire potentiometer was used. A load
129 cell was fixed on the axis of the drive shaft to measure the lateral load. In each test, the model
130 package was spun up to 22g or 35g (as appropriate) in stages. Then, the motor was activated
131 to conduct a displacement-controlled test at 0.7 mm/min (equivalent to 0.02 mm/min at
132 prototype). For the coefficient of consolidation (c_v) of the sand (0.0615 m²/s), the loading
133 rate (v) of 0.02 mm/min (or 3.33×10^{-7} m/s) and the pile width (D) of 0.63 m, the Pelect
134 number (Finnie & Randolph 1994) can be computed by:

$$135 \quad Pelect = \frac{vD}{c_v} \quad (1)$$

136 The Pelect number is found to be 3.4×10^{-6} , which is six orders of magnitude smaller than the
137 threshold value of 1.0, below which shearing may be considered as drained. The lateral
138 pushover was stopped when the pile head displacement reached $0.4D$.

139 **Numerical modelling**

140 The soil-pile interaction problem was subsequently analyzed using 3D FE modelling (Fig. 3),
141 employing the numerical analysis code ABAQUS (2017). Owing to the symmetry of the
142 problem, only half of the problem was modelled using prototype dimensions. Initial sensitivity
143 analysis revealed that boundary effects were negligible when the pile was placed at least $8D$
144 away from the sidewall of the container. Accordingly, the modelling domain was reduced
145 compared to the dimensions of the physical model (Fig. 2) to reduce the computational cost.

146 Following the hybrid approach outlined in Anastasopoulos et al. (2013), the pile was
147 modelled with linear beam elements, circumscribed by “dummy” hexahedral brick elements.
148 The nodes of the beam elements representing the pile were rigidly connected with the
149 circumferential brick element nodes at the same height. At each elevation, each beam
150 element had the mechanical properties ($E_p I_p$ and M_{ult}) of the prototype RC pile, while the
151 “dummy” brick elements had negligibly small stiffness and were present to model the correct
152 shape and size of the soil-pile contact surface. Hexahedral brick elements were also used to
153 model the surrounding sand.

154 The soil-pile interface was modelled using the contact elements proposed by
155 Anastasopoulos et al. (2011). These elements connect the nodes of the soil with the
156 corresponding nodes of the pile, which are initially in contact but are allowed to slide on or
157 detach depending on the loading condition. The contact elements are “infinitely” stiff in
158 compression, but they are tensionless, thereby allowing detachment. Following Coulomb’s
159 frictional law, the elements are allowed to slide when the frictional capacity is exceeded. A
160 range of friction coefficients ($\tan \delta$) were considered to study the effect of the interface on
161 soil-pile interaction: 10^{-3} (a minimum value to represent “smooth” conditions), 0.6 and 0.87
162 (which was an upper bound for sand-concrete interfaces according to Uesugi et al. 1990). The
163 value of 0.6 was obtained by normalizing the model pile surface roughness by d_{50} , and

164 matching this ratio to an empirical curve of soil-pile interface friction, after Knappett & Craig
165 (2019).

166 The bottom boundary of the FE model was constrained in the vertical direction, while
167 only vertical displacement was permitted along the side boundaries. The initial stresses of the
168 pile and the soil were established by “gravity switch-on”, meaning that both the pile and the
169 soil establish their initial stress by their self-weight. Hence, the initial effective stress
170 distribution in the simulations of both Test D and S was identical. Since the unit weight
171 between the model pile and the soil was different at prototype scale, relative soil-pile
172 movement was expected in the centrifuges tests. This effect was captured in the FE model.
173 The simulations showed that the relative movement was less than 2.1 mm, which was
174 deemed to be negligible compared to the pile horizontal displacement considered in this
175 study. When simulating Test S, all model boundaries were assumed to be impermeable. The
176 water table was set at the ground surface, generating a hydrostatic distribution of pore water
177 pressure with depth.

178 ***Constitutive modelling of the RC pile***

179 Two constitutive approaches were considered, a linear elastic and an elasto-plastic one. The
180 linear elastic model was characterized by the $E_p I_p$ and the Poisson’s ratio (ν). $E_p I_p$ was set as
181 the upper bound of the measured values (143 MNm²) from the FPB tests. A typical value of ν
182 = 0.2 was assumed, which was reasonable for the used mortar after 28-days of curing
183 (Corinaldesi 2009). In the elasto-plastic model, the elastic component was identical to the
184 elastic model, while the plastic component was defined by a relationship of plastic flexural
185 stress and strain, following the procedures outlined in ASTM C 78: 2002 after the FPB tests.
186 Figure 4 compared the measured (by FPB tests) and predicted bending moment-curvature
187 responses using the two constitutive modelling approaches. The elasto-plastic model

188 matched reasonably well with the measured nonlinear response. The ultimate (plastic)
189 bending moment of the pile was also captured by this approach. Therefore, the elasto-plastic
190 model was chosen to simulate the pile behavior in sand.

191 ***Constitutive models for sand***

192 Three constitutive models of varying degree of sophistication were used to model the sand.
193 The first one was a simple linear-elastic-perfectly-plastic Mohr Coulomb (MC) model with due
194 consideration taken of small-strain stiffness behavior when linearizing the soil stiffness
195 (denoted as LEMC small). In this model, the elastic soil behavior was based on Hooke's law of
196 isotropic elasticity, characterized by ν and $E (= G/2 (1 + \nu))$, where G is the shear
197 modulus), while the plastic response was based on the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion
198 following a non-associated plasticity framework and was controlled by the three strength
199 parameters, cohesion, friction angle and dilation angle. In this study, a modification was made
200 to consider stress- and strain-dependency of G and linearize the stiffness to capture the small-
201 strain nonlinearity (described below). The second model was an LEMC model that additionally
202 captured post-yield strain-softening (denoted as MC softening). While the elastic part of the
203 model was identical to that of LEMC small, the plastic behavior was characterized by a friction
204 angle and a strain-dependent apparent cohesion. The latter is a cohesion stress-plastic
205 deviatoric strain ($c' - \varepsilon$) curve, where c' was defined by a hyperbolic function (Menétrey 2006
206 & Willam 1995) of mean effective stress (p') and von Mises deviator stress (q), aiming to
207 capture the post-peak softening behavior observed in triaxial compression tests. The last
208 model was the kinematic hardening model developed by Anastasopoulos et al. (2011).

209 In both the LEMC small and MC softening models, the elastic sand behavior was
210 characterized by ν and E . To capture the stress-dependency of G in these models, the FE
211 mesh was split into nine sublayers of equal soil thickness. In each sublayer, the initial small-

212 strain shear modulus of the sand (G_0) was determined as a function of mean effective
213 confining stress (p'):

$$214 \quad \frac{G_0}{p_{ref}} = A \left(\frac{p'}{p_{ref}} \right)^n \left(\frac{\sigma_e}{p'} \right)^m \quad (2)$$

215 where the state parameter (σ_e) was related to the specific volume (Jovicic & Coop 1997); the
216 parameters $A = 38.99$, $n = 0.593$ and $m = 0.11$ were selected based on fitting shear modulus
217 – shear strain ($G - \gamma$) curves reported by Ishibashi & Zhang (1993) to data from consolidated-
218 drained (CD) triaxial tests for the sand used in the centrifuge tests ($D_r = 70\%$, $p'_0 = 20, 40$ and
219 60 kPa); p_{ref} was taken as 60 kPa (i.e., the highest p'_0 for triaxial tests) to make the three
220 parameters dimensionless.

221 The vertical profile of the effective stress–dependent G_0 was shown in Fig. 5. To
222 approximately capture strain dependency within the framework of linearized elasticity,
223 iterations were carried out to determine the mobilized engineering shear strain (γ) and the
224 corresponding G in each sublayer by applying a lateral load to the pile head. In the first
225 iteration, the profile of G_0 was input and after applying the lateral load, a mobilized γ profile
226 of the soil element immediately in front of the pile at a range of depths (i.e. in the passive
227 zone) was computed. The γ profile was then mapped onto the normalized $G - \gamma$ curve
228 reported by Ishibashi & Zhang (1993) at each depth. A new (mobilized) G was thus obtained
229 (Fig. 6). This mobilized G profile was used in the next iteration and the procedure was
230 repeated until the profiles of input G and resulting strains were consistent with each other.
231 These final mobilized stiffness profiles were then used to extract load-displacement curves
232 for the pile.

233 For the LEMC small model, stress effects on friction and dilation angles were considered.
234 In each sublayer, the friction and dilation angles were estimated by the empirical relationship

235 proposed by Bolton (1986). The initial vertical profiles of the friction and dilation angles were
236 identical for both Tests D and S, and they are shown in Figs. 5(c) and 5(d). After applying a
237 lateral load in each iteration (see above), the effective confining pressure in each sublayer
238 changed, hence modifying the friction and dilation angles, though this effect was small.

239 The MC softening model used the critical-state friction angle and a strain-dependent
240 apparent cohesion. The post-peak softening behavior was captured by inputting a cohesion
241 stress-plastic strain ($c' - \varepsilon$) curve, where c' was defined by a hyperbolic function (Menétrey
242 & Willam 1995) of mean effective stress (p'), von Mises deviator stress (q) and ε is plastic
243 deviatoric strain. This curve was calibrated against the CD triaxial data, and these were input
244 for the different effective confining stresses into sublayers 1-2, 3 and 4-9, respectively.

245 For the kinematic hardening model, stress-dependency of G_0 was also modelled by Eq. 2,
246 while the strain dependency on stiffness was considered by using an empirical parameter that
247 controlled the sand nonlinearity (λ), which ranges from 0.1 to 0.3 for sand (Anastasopoulos
248 et al. 2011). In this study, λ was set 0.3 after calibration against the $G/G_0 - \gamma$ curve of Fig.
249 6. This model used an extended von Mises failure criterion by introducing a kinematic term
250 on stress controlled by its hardening rate. The yield stress was related to the effective
251 confining stress (p') and friction angle (ϕ) as $\sqrt{3}p' \sin \phi$.

252 Figure 7 compares the deviator stress-axial strain relationships of the three models with
253 measurements from the CD triaxial compression tests conducted at $p'_0 = 40$ kPa (Robinson
254 2016), as a typical example. Comparisons with the triaxial test data at $p'_0 = 20, 40$ and 60 kPa
255 were conducted. In the triaxial tests, the deviatoric stress mobilized nonlinearly before
256 reaching peak stress, followed by strain-softening towards a critical-state value of the
257 deviator stress. The LEMC small model captured well both the initial stiffness and the peak
258 stress, but it was unable to model the non-linear response at higher strains or the post-peak

259 softening behavior. The kinematic hardening model improved on this, capturing well the
260 nonlinear response at relatively small-strains (before the peak), but also could not simulate
261 the strain-softening behavior at large strains. The MC softening model reproduced the triaxial
262 response well, at all three levels of p'_0 considered.

263 **Results and discussion**

264 Figure 8(a) compared the measured and predicted lateral load-displacement curves of the RC
265 model pile in dry (Test D) and saturated (Test S) sand, using the MC softening model. The
266 analysis exhibited typical hardening behavior in all cases. The model pile displayed a nonlinear
267 increase in lateral load with lateral displacement, and yielded for $y > 0.08D$. The FE simulation
268 shows that the pile has reached the maximum bending moment and developed a plastic hinge
269 at $y = 0.02D$. The simulation also realistically mimicked the effects of the quasi-brittle
270 behavior that would be expected for the prototype RC pile subjected to lateral loading. The
271 initial stiffness and the ultimate load for dry and saturated sand were similar (Fig. 8(a)). This
272 was not a surprise, as the two tests were intentionally performed at different g -levels in order
273 to create identical effective stress regimes. The discrepancies of load for $0.06D < y < 0.36D$
274 were likely associated with material variabilities of the model RC between the two piles
275 (Knappett et al. 2018; Zhao et al. 2020).

276 Figure 8(a) also compared the computed load-displacement curves for different soil-pile
277 interface friction coefficients, all using the MC softening model. As it would be expected, the
278 increase of the interface friction coefficient led to a stiffer response and a higher ultimate
279 lateral pile capacity. Most importantly, using the value that was consistent with the roughness
280 measurements ($\tan \delta = 0.6$), predicted the measured load-displacement curve well.

281 Figure 8(b) compared the load-displacement curves predicted by the three different soil
282 constitutive models, all with an interface friction coefficient of 0.6. In terms of initial stiffness,

283 the predictions made by the LEMC small and MC softening model were similar and were close
284 to the measurements. The kinematic model however predicted a higher initial stiffness. The
285 curves predicted by both the LEMC small and MC softening started to deviate from the
286 measurement at a displacement of approximately $y = 0.08D$ (i.e., at yield), with the latter
287 model achieving a better prediction of the measured response, though the difference was
288 small. This suggested that for the laterally-loaded pile problem, the load-displacement
289 response could be well approximated by models which did not incorporate strain softening,
290 even though soil behavior did exhibit a strong softening response (Figure 7). Indeed, stress
291 paths of soil elements extracted from the passive zone (i.e. ahead of the displacing pile) in the
292 FE calculation showed monotonic increased throughout the loading.

293 Figure 9 showed post-test observations of the cracked pile and the FE-computed pile
294 deflection, bending moment, shear force and limiting lateral pressure for Test D, predicted by
295 the MC softening model. The model RC pile displayed prominent flexural cracks at 1.05 m
296 depth (prototype) below the ground surface, where a plastic hinge was formed (Fig. 9(a)). This
297 was fairly close to the FE-computed depth of 1.19 m, where maximum bending moment (Fig.
298 9(c)) and zero shear force (Fig. 9(d)) was observed. Figure 9(b) shows the computed elastic
299 critical length (L_c), at which the pile deflection become zero which was 3.6 m below the soil
300 surface. This compared well with the theoretical value of 3.9 m, estimated according to
301 Randolph (1981), in which an approximate linear G -depth relationship was assumed.

302 Figure 10 showed the distributions of pile deflection, bending moment, shear force and
303 limiting lateral pressure with depth for the Test S, predicted by the MC softening model. The
304 measured plastic hinge position was 1.12 m and consistent with where the FE-computed
305 maximum bending moment and zero shear force occurred. The difference of this value
306 between that in dry test was due to material variability of two piles, although it was negligible.

307 The ultimate lateral pile capacity (P_{ult}) obtained from the centrifuge tests (i.e., 120 kN)
 308 was compared to existing analytical methods and the FE simulations. The pile was long and
 309 flexible since the relative pile-soil stiffness, expressed as $E_p I_p / E_s L^4$ (where E_s is the Young's
 310 modulus of soil, and L is the pile length; Meyerhof & Yalcin 1984), was less than 0.01. The first
 311 semi-empirical method was proposed by Broms (1964), who assumed (1) the limiting lateral
 312 soil pressure (p_u) to be linearly proportional to soil depth, and proportional also to $3K_p$
 313 (where K_p is the passive earth pressure coefficient); (2) soil below the plastic hinge (at a depth
 314 of f) did not contribute; and (3) the interface was frictionless. Based on these assumptions,
 315 P_{ult} could be assessed from the moment capacity of the pile ($M_{max} = 225 \text{ kNm}$), the pile
 316 upstand above the ground (e ; i.e., 1.75 m), the effective unit weight of the dry sand (γ' ; i.e.,
 317 16.5 kN/m³) and $K_p = 3.3$ using Rankine's theory with $\phi' = \phi_{crit} = 32^\circ$:

$$318 \quad K_p = \frac{1 + \sin\phi'}{1 - \sin\phi'} \quad (3)$$

319 while the relationship between P_{ult} and f is:

$$320 \quad f = 0.82 \sqrt{\frac{P_{ult}}{\gamma' D K_p}} \quad (4)$$

321 Hence, P_{ult} predicted using the Broms' method was 80 kN, with a plastic hinge depth of $f =$
 322 1.6 m. Using instead the average peak friction angle of $\phi' = 41^\circ$ (Figure 5(b)) resulted in
 323 $K_p = 4.8$, and $P_{ult} = 84 \text{ kN}$ for $f = 1.35 \text{ m}$. This method underestimated the measured P_{ult}
 324 in the centrifuge by approximately 37% and 34%, respectively, and predicted a deeper plastic
 325 hinge depth than was observed.

326 A second existing approach that could be used to estimate P_{ult} was the that presented
 327 in the form of design charts in Fleming et al. (2009), which assumed p_u to be proportional to
 328 K_p^2 . Using $K_p = 3.3$ or 4.8, P_{ult} was determined as 86 or 100 kN, respectively.

329 In the FE simulations the limiting lateral pressure distribution increased initially much
 330 more rapidly with depth compared to Broms' prediction (Figs 9(e) and 10(e)). The computed
 331 pressures increased up to a maximum value of $34 - 44 \gamma' D$ (saturated and dry cases,
 332 respectively) at a depth of $0.25 - 0.5f$, then decreased to $13 - 15 \gamma' D$ at f (the plastic hinge;
 333 Figs 9(e) and 10(e)). The initial steeper increase in lateral pressure was thought to be due to
 334 a higher value of K_p due to the rough interface (the previous methods used K_p from Equation
 335 (1) which is consistent with smooth interface conditions). Based on lower-bound plasticity
 336 analysis, the value of K_p against a vertical interface with interface friction angle of δ can be
 337 determined using:

$$338 \quad K_p = \frac{1 + \sin\phi' \cos(\Delta + \delta)}{1 - \sin\phi'} e^{(\Delta + \delta) \tan\phi'} \quad (5)$$

339 (e.g. Knappett and Craig 2019), where:

$$340 \quad \sin\Delta = \frac{\sin\delta}{\sin\phi'} \quad (6)$$

341 For $\tan\delta = 0.6$, $K_p = 5.8$ for $\phi' = 32^\circ$ and $K_p = 11.0$ for $\phi' = 41^\circ$.

342 For analytical (design) calculations, an alternative simplified bi-linear lateral pressure
 343 distribution was proposed as an alternative to that of Broms (1964), where $p_u/(\gamma' z D) = K_p^2$
 344 from the surface to a depth of $z = \eta f$ and then reduces linearly from this peak value back to
 345 $p_u = 0$ at $z = f$. The unknown value of f was determined assuming $\eta = 0.25$ by trial and
 346 error (or using an optimization routine) to ensure that the resultant moment generated about
 347 the plastic hinge position by this pressure distribution (i.e. $\Sigma p_u(f - z)$, computed numerically
 348 within a spreadsheet) was equal to the plastic hinge capacity to satisfy moment equilibrium.
 349 Using $K_p = 11.0$ for $\phi' = 41^\circ$ gave $f = 1.05 \text{ m}$ and $\eta = 0.24$. Then, from horizontal
 350 equilibrium $P_{ult} = 103 \text{ kN}$, an underprediction by 19%. The resulting pressure distribution is

351 shown on Figs 9(e) and 10(e) and demonstrates the importance of incorporating the
352 roughness effect on K_p in obtaining a representative lateral earth pressure distribution.

353 The new bi-linear method proposed above, while still underpredicting the measured
354 and numerically simulated capacities (conservative in ultimate limit state design), has reduced
355 the error in P_{ult} by approximately half compared to the Broms' method and also better
356 predicts the location of the plastic hinge and the lateral pressure distribution (which may be
357 useful in the structural detailing of the pile). It achieves this while being little more
358 computationally difficult than the original Broms' method (the procedure presented here
359 being a numerical implementation of the Broms' solution method for unknown f and P_{ult}).

360 **Summary and conclusions**

361 This study has demonstrated the effectiveness of using small-scale model reinforced concrete
362 (RC) to realistically reproduce the flexural behavior of a laterally-loaded RC pile in sand within
363 a geotechnical centrifuge. A 10.5 m-long pile in uniform sand of $D_r = 67\%$ was laterally loaded
364 up to a displacement of $0.4D$. The model pile initially exhibited linear elastic response and as
365 tension cracks developed, a plastic hinge was formed. Based on the observed post-test
366 deformation shape and crack pattern of the model RC pile, the nonlinear quasi-brittle
367 characteristics of a prototype RC pile were closely resembled, which would not have been
368 possible using an elastic model pile.

369 Three-dimensional FE simulation was conducted to investigate the nonlinear response of
370 the laterally loaded pile (after initially being validated against the centrifuge tests in terms of
371 the global pile lateral response). Three different soil constitutive models were considered,
372 from simple elastic-perfectly plastic, to kinematic strain hardening, and a strain softening
373 model. It was demonstrated that, at least for the problem studied herein, the strain-softening
374 response observed in triaxial soil element tests was not crucial in simulating the pushover

375 response of the pile. An iterative approach was developed to incorporate the effects of soil
376 stiffness non-linearity in simpler linear elastic-perfectly plastic models in terms of an
377 equivalent mobilized shear modulus and a sublayer approach. This was shown to be of
378 importance in order to capture the pre-peak load-deformation response of the pile correctly,
379 and when implemented allowed the simplest of the constitutive models (available in all
380 commercial FE software) to replicate the observed pile behavior well, requiring only routine
381 strength and unit weight parameters, G_0 values and an appropriate $G - \gamma$ curve as input.

382 Broms' popular method underestimated the ultimate lateral capacity by approximately
383 35% compared to measurements and simulations, and overpredicted the depth of the plastic
384 hinge. An improved method was proposed, based on the Broms' approach but using a simple
385 bi-linear soil lateral pressure distribution. This gave a better (though still conservative)
386 prediction of capacity while also more accurately predicting the plastic hinge depth and the
387 shape/magnitude of the lateral pressure distribution at failure. This proposed approach
388 should allow for improved (more optimal) design and detailing at the ultimate limit state.

389 **Data availability statement**

390 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from
391 the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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Table 1. Summary of relevant scale factors (i.e., N = prototype/model, equal to 35 for both Tests D and S) for flexural soil-structure interaction problems in high- g (after lai et al. 2005)

Quantity	Scale factor
Length	N
Density	1
Stress	1
Strain	1
Stiffness (of soil)	1
Bending stiffness ($E_p I_p$)	N^4
Bending moment (M_{ult})	N^3
Force	N^2
Displacement	N

Table 2. Index and mechanical properties of the HST95 silica sand used in the centrifuge tests

Parameter	Value
Specific gravity, G_s	2.63
Maximum void ratio, e_{max}	0.769
Minimum void ratio, e_{min}	0.467
Mean grain diameter, d_{50} (mm)	0.13
Coefficient of uniformity, C_u	1.9
Coefficient of curvature, C_z	1.06
Critical friction angle, ϕ_{crit} ($^\circ$)	32
Peak friction angle ^a , ϕ_{peak} ($^\circ$)	42
Dilation angle ^a , ψ ($^\circ$)	12
Effective unit weight, γ' (kN/m ³)	10.15
Poisson's ratio	0.32

Note: ^aMeasured for dense sand over $p'_0 = 20$ to 60 kPa (Robinson, 2016).

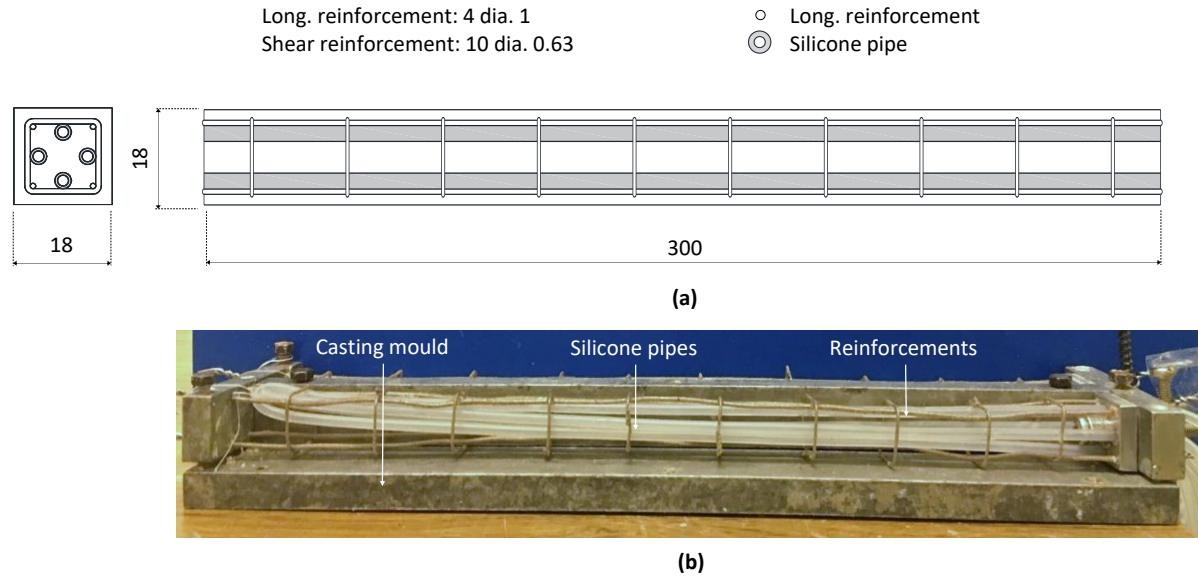
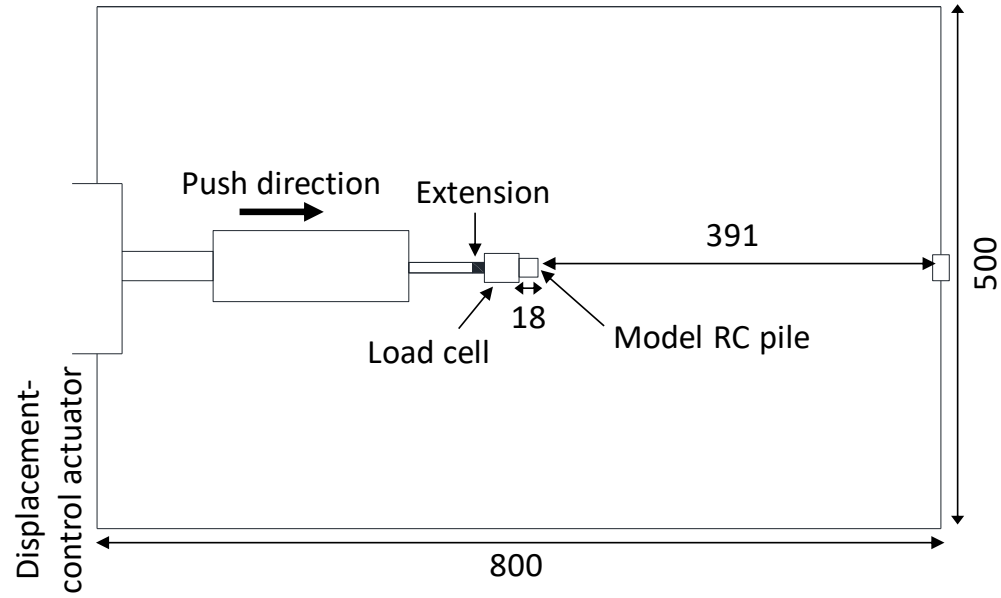
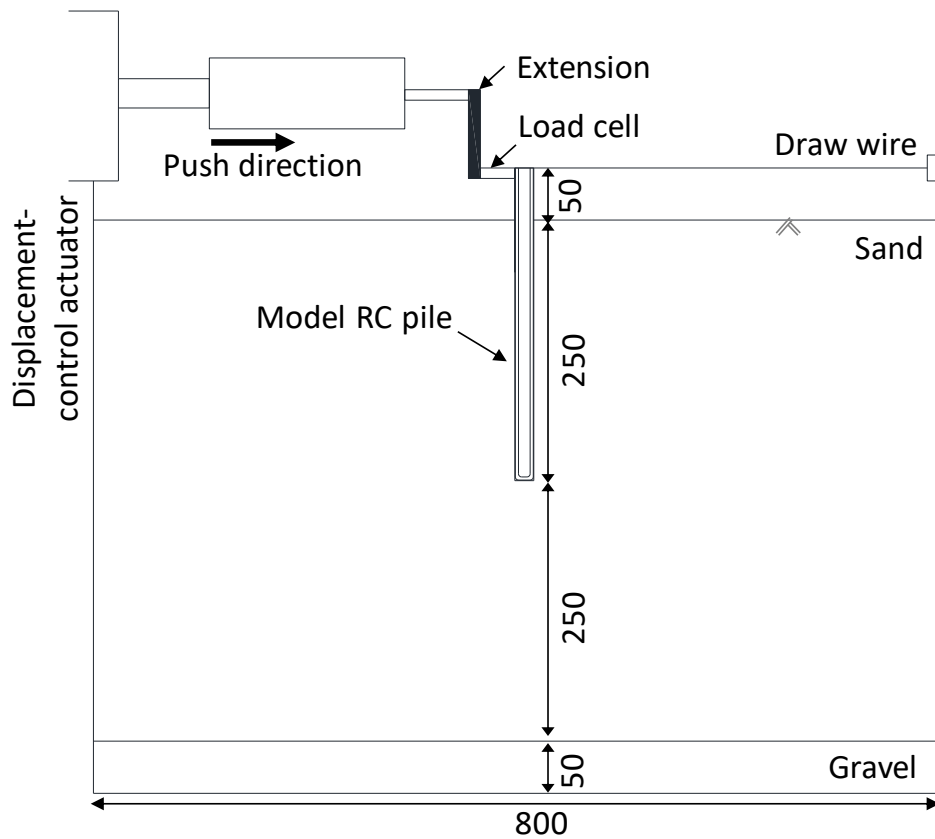


Figure 1. Model RC pile: (a) geometry and reinforcement details; and (b) picture showing the arrangement of circulation pipes and steel reinforcement. All dimensions in mm (model scale).



(a)



(b)

Figure 2. Centrifuge model setup: (a) plan; and (b) elevation view. All dimensions in mm (model scale).

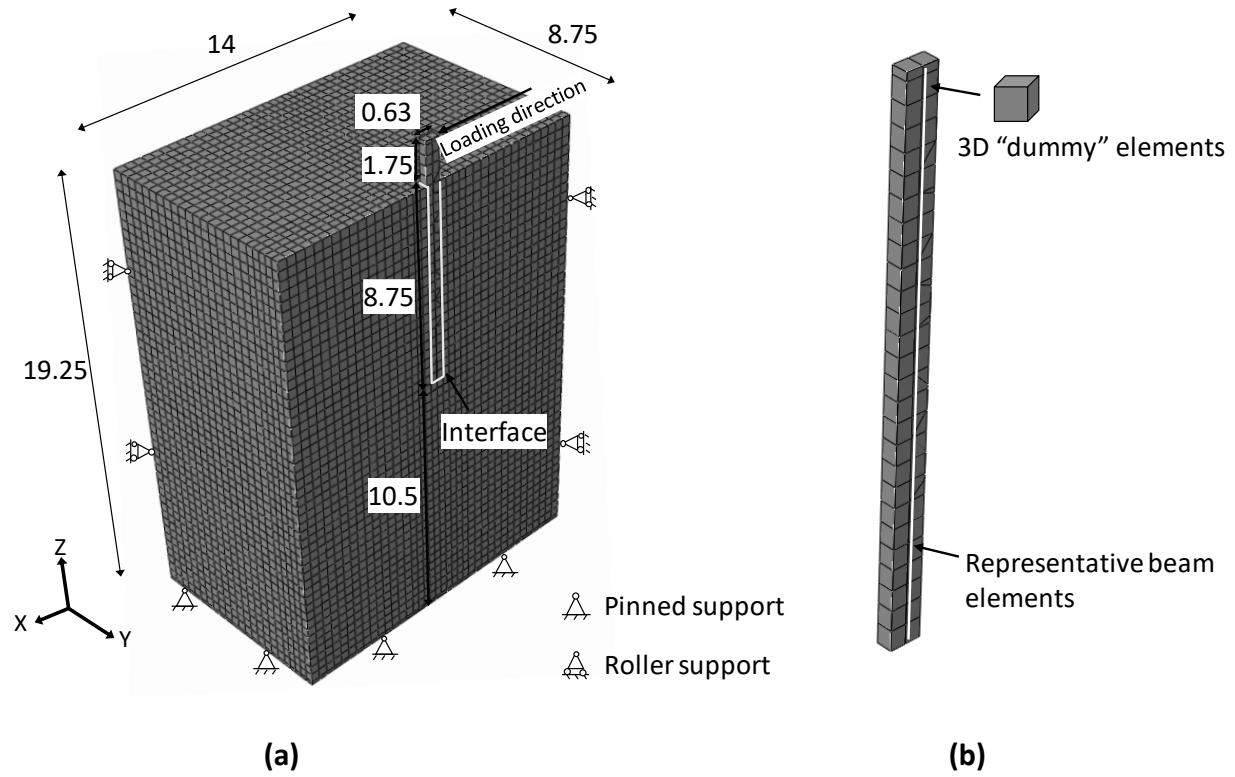


Figure 3. 3D finite element model: (a) mesh and boundary conditions; and (b) “hybrid” pile modelling (Anastasopoulos et al. 2013). All dimensions in m (prototype scale)

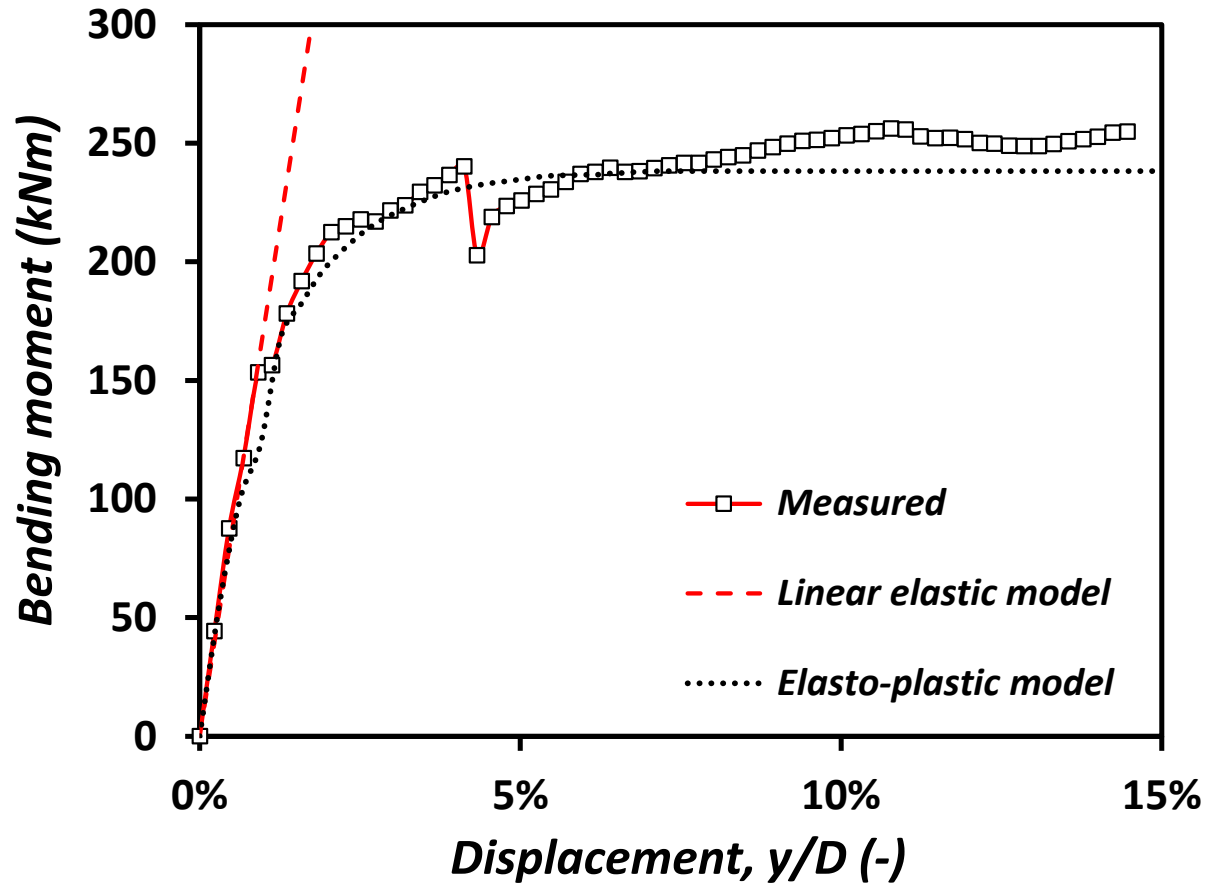


Figure 4. Comparison of measured and predicted moment-displacement relationships of the model RC pile (expressed in prototype scale, following the scaling laws of Table 1).

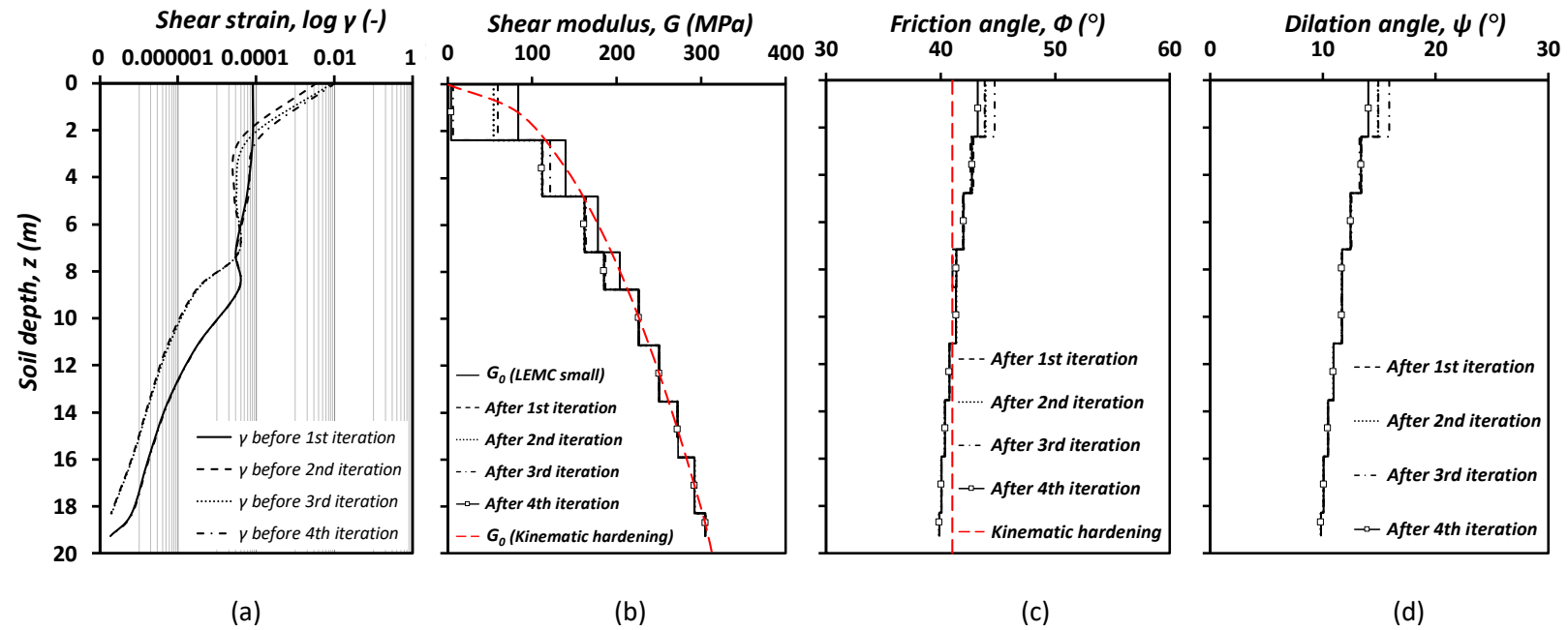


Figure 5. Calibrations: distributions of (a) engineering shear strain (γ); (b) shear modulus; (c) friction angle; and (d) dilation angle with depth for Test D, as an example.

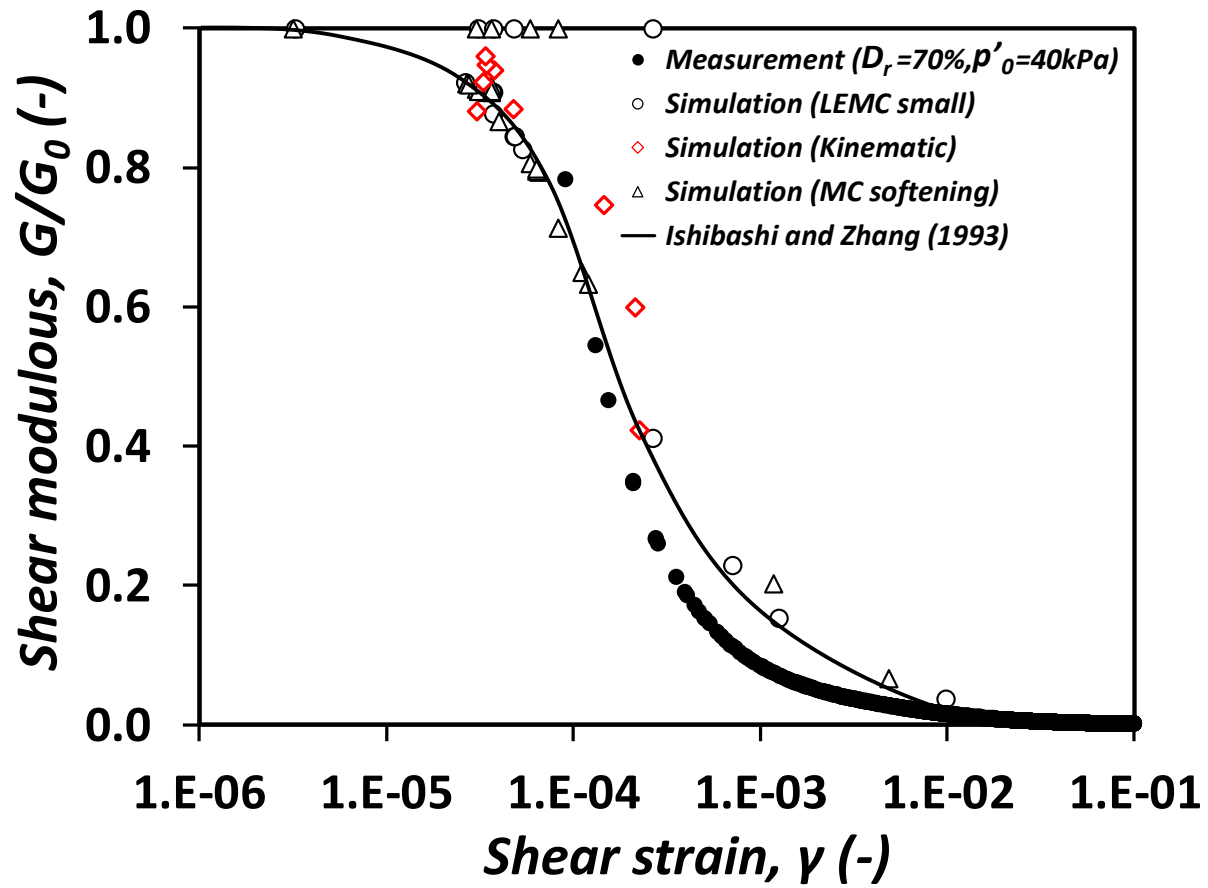


Figure 6. $G-\gamma$ curves after calibration of the small-strain parameters of each constitutive soil model.

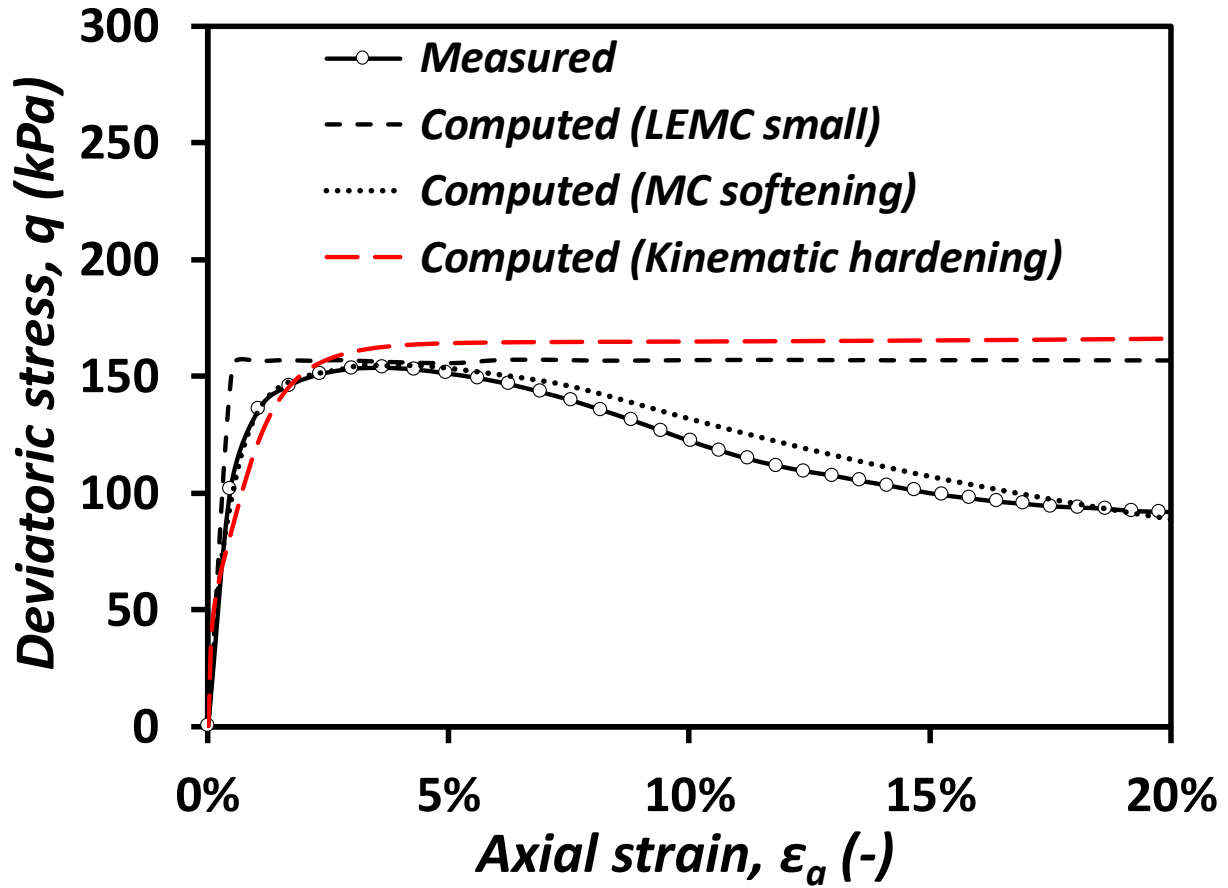


Figure 7. Calibrations of deviatoric stress-axial strain curves against the measured data for dense sand ($D_r = 70\%$) in a consolidated-drained triaxial compression test at $p'_0 = 40$ kPa.

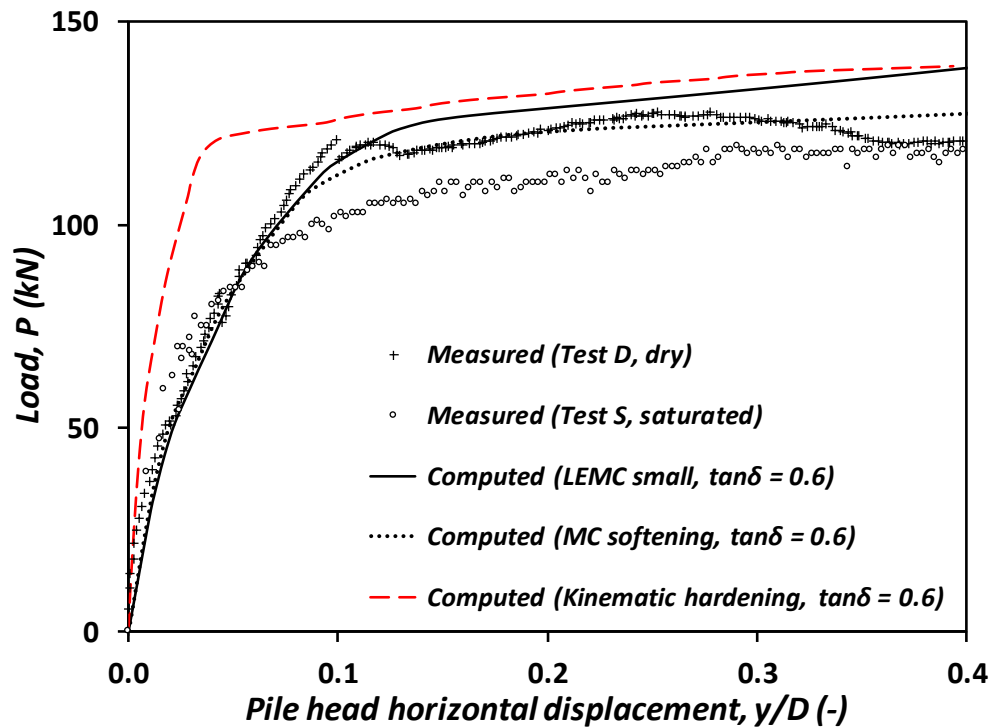
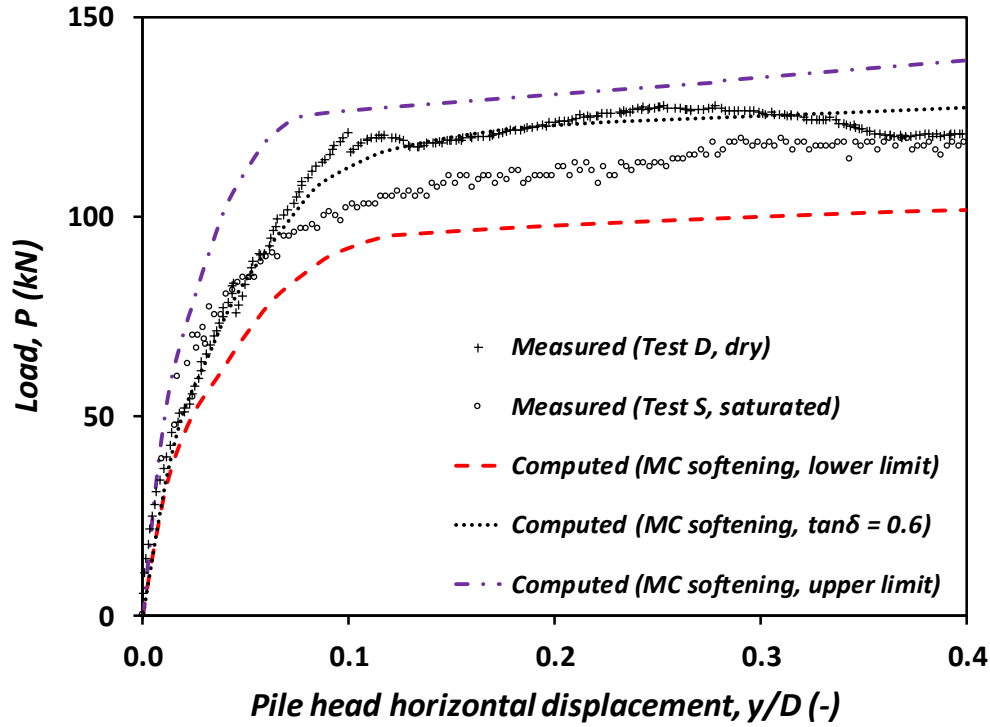


Figure 8. Effects of (a) soil-pile interface friction coefficient; and (b) constitutive soil models on the prediction of the load-displacement curves of a laterally-loaded RC pile, at prototype scale

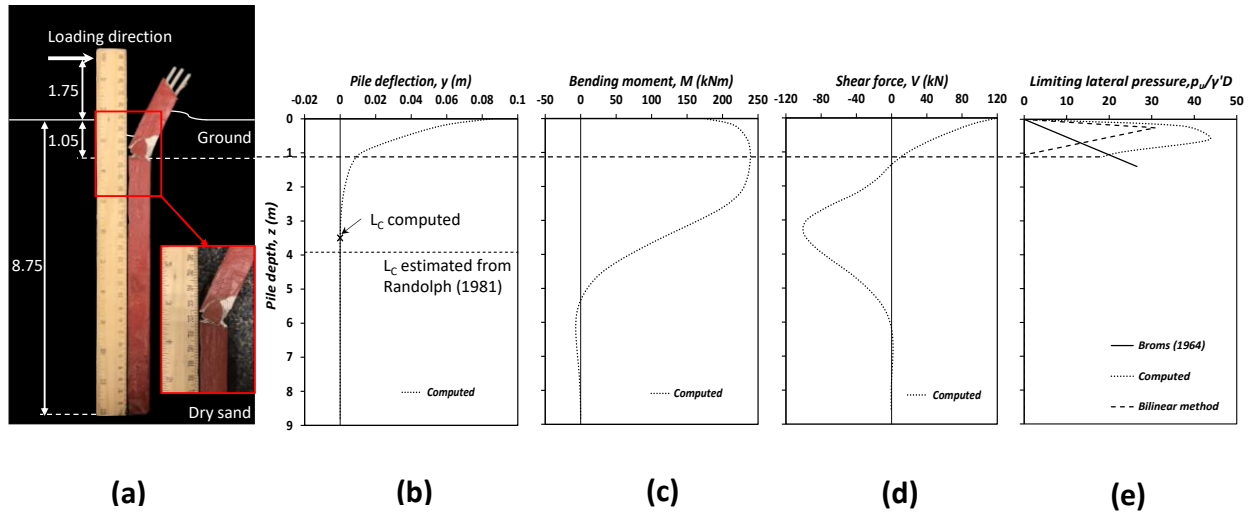


Figure 9. (a) Overview of a cracked laterally-loaded RC model pile after testing (dimensions in m, prototype scale). Distributions of FE-computed (b) pile deflection (c) bending moment (d) shear force and (e) limiting lateral soil pressure above the plastic hinge with depth for Test D, all expressed in prototype scale.

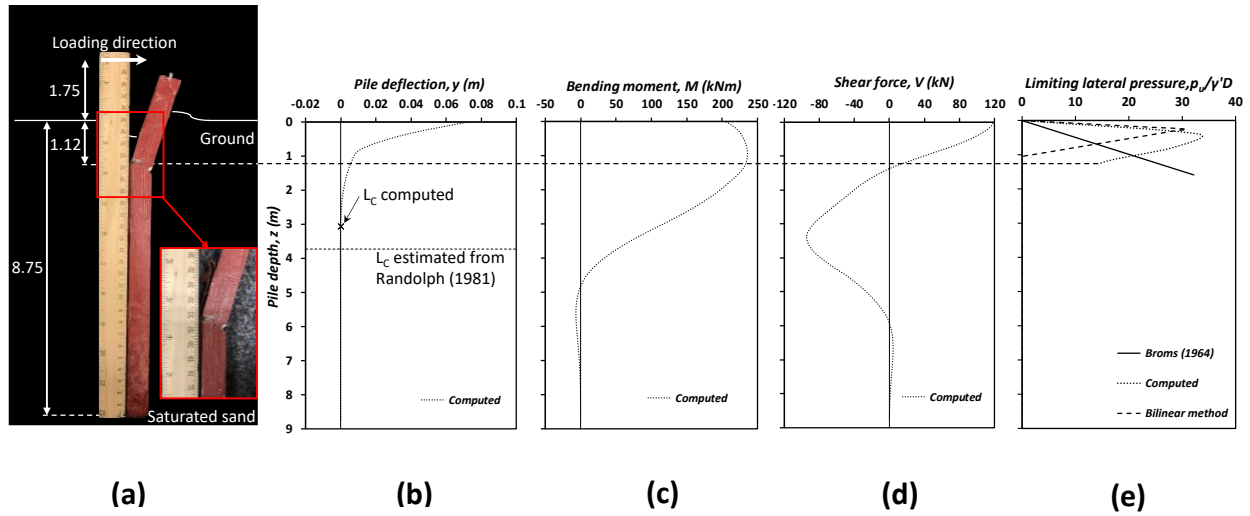


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