

1 **Effects of monopile installation on subsequent response in sand, Part II: lateral**
2 **loading**

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32 **ABSTRACT**

33 Monopiles under in-service conditions are subjected to lateral forces and resultant
34 bending moments from the offshore environment. The subsequent lateral response
35 following installation is significantly influenced by the ‘initial’ soil state post-installation,
36 which is influenced by the pile installation process as demonstrated in previous numerical
37 studies. To date, there are no technical guidelines established for consideration of
38 installation effects on the design of laterally loaded monopiles. This paper is the second
39 of a pair of companion papers that investigate the effect of different installation methods
40 on subsequent response of monopiles under lateral loading. The paper focuses on the
41 quantification of the effect of pile installation on the initial stiffness and lateral capacity.
42 The numerical model is first validated against purpose-designed centrifuge tests. The
43 analysis confirms that impact-driven piles have significantly higher initial stiffness and
44 lateral capacity than jacked piles and wished-in-place piles. The effect of installation
45 methods on the lateral response is also influenced by the initial soil density, driving
46 distance, pile geometry, stress level, and load eccentricity. The study highlights the
47 importance of considering the effects of the installation process on the subsequent lateral
48 pile response.

49

50 **Key words:** monopile; installation effect; lateral response; sand; offshore engineering

51

52 INTRODUCTION

53 Monopiles with a diameter of 4-10 m and a length-to-diameter ratio of 3-6 are widely
54 used as foundations for offshore wind turbines (OWTs), though to date limited guidance
55 on evaluating the lateral response has been given in design guidelines such as DNVGL
56 (2016). The conventional p-y method (API, 2011; Matlock, 1970; Reese et al., 1974)
57 developed for long slender piles subjected to limited number of load cycles are not
58 applicable for large-diameter monopiles used for OWTs (Abadie et al., 2019; Achmus et
59 al., 2009, 2005; Bayton et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2015; LeBlanc et al., 2010; Richards et
60 al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019; Zdravković et al., 2015, among others). Significant
61 improvements in the design methods have been achieved in the last few years through
62 two well-known joint industry projects, PISA (Byrne et al., 2019) and REDWIN (Skau et
63 al., 2018).

64 The PISA project proposed revised p-y curves by introducing additional rotational
65 springs. These were validated against the results of 3D finite element modelling that had
66 been calibrated against field test data. The REDWIN project represented the foundation
67 response by a macro-element placed at the mudline. The relative merit of these two
68 methods used in the design of monopiles in practice is discussed in Sturm and Andresen
69 (2019). Both methods rely primarily on the finite element method (FEM) for the
70 calibration of input parameters. However, all numerical simulations (Burd et al., 2020;
71 Page et al., 2018; Taborda et al., 2019) are based on a wished-in-place assumption with
72 soil profiles based on in-situ soil conditions from site investigations. The effect of the pile
73 installation process on the in-situ soil conditions has not been taken into consideration.

74 Research including both physical modelling investigations and numerical investigations
75 on the effect of pile installation on the subsequent response on monopile under lateral
76 loading is limited, though design guidelines such as DNV (2014) acknowledge the
77 importance of the effect of the installation process. A scaled centrifuge experimental
78 study by Fan et al. (2019) reveals both the initial stiffness and bearing capacity are
79 significantly affected by the installation methods. Numerical investigations by Heins and
80 Grabe (2017) and Murphy et al. (2018) show the potential of using numerical methods to
81 explore the effect of pile installation on the subsequent lateral response. However, since
82 only very limited driving or jacking distance was simulated in these studies, the
83 installation effect may not be fully captured.

84 OWTs are typically designed as ‘soft-stiff’ structures, with the target natural frequency
85 lying between the rotational frequency (1P) and the blade passing frequency (3P) to avoid
86 resonance and extend fatigue life. The narrow band of the target design frequency (f_0 in
87 Figure 1) necessitates accurate prediction of the foundation stiffness. Natural frequencies
88 of more than 400 offshore monopiles measured in the field have been reported to be larger
89 than the design values (Achmus et al., 2019; Damgaard et al., 2014; Kallehave et al.,
90 2015), which can mainly be attributed to underestimation of the foundation stiffness. A
91 strict serviceability limit state (SLS) requirement on the permanent out of verticality of
92 0.5° is typically imposed for monopile foundations (DNVGL, 2016). The response of
93 monopiles at this low operational displacement (strain) range is expected to be influenced
94 significantly by the effects of installation, although the effects may reduce at very large
95 displacements where significant plastic response of the soil is expected. Monopiles used
96 for OWTs are typically installed into the seabed by impact driving. As shown in the first

97 of the companion papers (Fan et al., 2020), the post-installation soil state, with indicators
98 including stresses and void ratio, are significantly affected by the pile installation process.
99 The effect of pile installation, therefore, needs to be taken into account for accurate
100 prediction of the lateral response.

101 This is the second of the two companion papers, examining the effect of pile installation
102 on the subsequent response under lateral loading. The numerical model developed was
103 first validated against the test data from Fan et al. (2019). Two different installation
104 methods including jacking and impact driving were considered and the response of a
105 wished-in-place pile was also included for comparison. The numerical model developed
106 allows quantification of the effect of pile installation on the initial stiffness and lateral
107 capacity of monopiles under lateral loading. Further investigations of the effects of initial
108 relative density, driving distance, pile geometry, stress level, and load eccentricity inform
109 the conclusions drawn from this research.

110 **DEVELOPMENT OF NUMERICAL MODEL**

111 Pile lateral loading was modelled as a small strain finite element (SSFE) problem within
112 the commercially available software Abaqus/Standard (Dassault Systèmes, 2014).
113 Considering the symmetry of the problem, only half of the full model was simulated.

114 **Numerical model**

115 Figure 2 shows the mesh and boundary condition of a numerical model used. To facilitate
116 comparison with measured test data, all relevant dimensions are taken from the centrifuge
117 test by Fan et al. (2019), where a model monopile was tested at 100g. The model pile with
118 a diameter of 50.0 mm and a wall thickness of 1.0 mm is made from a welded pipe using
119 V2A-steel (material number 1.4301) according to European standard DIN EN 10088-3
120 (DIN, 2014). The external epoxy coating used to protect the strain gauges has a wall
121 thickness of around 1.1 mm. The corresponding prototype monopile with an overall
122 diameter (D_{pile}) of 5.22 m and a wall thickness of 0.21 m was simulated. As the pile
123 flexural stiffness may not be neglected when investigating the lateral response, the pile
124 steel and epoxy coating were modelled as a linear elastic material, with material
125 properties summarized in Table 1. The detail of the transition from the steel to epoxy is
126 shown in Figure 2. A second pile geometry of an 8 m diameter pile with a constant 0.1 m
127 wall thickness was also included.

128 The load eccentricity-to-diameter ratio ($I_e/D_{\text{pile}} = 3.8$) and embedment length-to-diameter
129 ratio ($L_e/D_{\text{pile}} = 3.1$) were chosen to match the physical test conditions. The lateral loading
130 (pile was pushed from right to left, see Figure 2) was applied at a reference point defined
131 at a distance of I_e above the soil surface, resulting in a horizontal load of H and a moment

132 of $M = H \cdot I_e$ at the pile head. A constant load eccentricity of $3.8D_{pile}$ was used
133 throughout. The static monotonic lateral loading can be applied through load-controlled
134 method or displacement-controlled methods with indistinguishable results as no pore
135 fluid effects were modelled.

136 The radius and depth of the soil domain are identical to those used in the pile installation
137 model described in the first of the companion papers (Fan et al., 2020), with a width of
138 $10.8D_{pile}$ and a depth of $7.6D_{pile}$. The soil surface post installation (Fan et al. 2020) was
139 approximated by a spline, which was revolved for the 3D lateral loading model. The side
140 of the soil domain is restrained from any lateral displacement and the base of the soil
141 domain is restrained from any vertical displacement. The mesh used in this study is
142 similar to that used in the pile installation analysis. A convergence study for a wished-in-
143 place pile confirmed the mesh used is sufficient for the accuracy of the analysis.

144 **Soil characteristics and constitutive model**

145 The properties of very fine UWA silica sand are given in Table 1 of the first of the
146 companion papers (Fan et al., 2020). The sand was modelled using a rate-independent
147 hypoplastic constitutive law by (Kolymbas, 1991, 1985) in the form proposed by von
148 Wolffersdorff, (1996) with the enhancement of intergranular strains by Niemunis and
149 Herle, (1997). The user subroutine of the UMAT implementation for Abaqus/Standard
150 by Gudehus et al. (2008), as available on soilmodels.com, was used. The hypoplastic
151 constitutive model parameters are given in Table 2 of Fan et al. (2020).

152 **Initial soil state and mapping procedure**

153 To capture the effect of pile installation, the post-installation soil state needs to be taken
154 into account in the lateral loading model. The results (stress and state-dependent
155 variables) obtained from the pile installation model (Fan et al. 2020) were mapped to the
156 lateral loading as initial soil conditions following the methodology outlined by Heins and
157 Grabe (2017). Only one-quarter of the full model was simulated during the installation
158 phase, while half of the full model was simulated during the lateral loading phase. The
159 installation results were therefore mirrored first before performing a 3D-interpolation
160 using a code implemented in Matlab. The procedure of mapping the soil state from the
161 pile installation analysis (Fan et al., 2020) to the lateral loading model is shown in Figure
162 3. Figure 4 shows an example of mapping results of a) void ratio, b) horizontal stress from
163 the installation analysis of pile jacking (LHS) to the SSFE analysis for the pile lateral
164 loading model (RHS). An equilibrium step was required following the mapping
165 procedure to establish the post-installation ‘initial’ soil state.

166 **Contact properties**

167 A surface-to-surface (master-slave type) contact was used to describe the interface
168 between the pile and the soil. The contact properties were kept the same as the properties
169 used in the pile installation analysis (Fan et al., 2020). The pile internal wall and the pile
170 tip were modelled as frictionless. A roughness of $\tan\delta/\tan\phi_c = 0.5$ was assumed for the
171 pile external wall, where δ is the interface friction angle between the pile and sand, ϕ is
172 the critical friction angle of the sand.

173 **VALIDATION OF THE NUMERICAL MODEL**

174 The accuracy of the numerical model was validated by comparison of numerical analysis
175 results and the centrifuge experimental test data (Fan et al., 2019). The purpose-designed
176 apparatus used in the test allows both in-flight installation using different installation
177 methods and in-flight lateral loading (post-installation) without stopping the centrifuge
178 which is important to retain the post-installation soil state. The test was conducted in a
179 dry medium dense sand with an initial relative density of 38%. Details regarding the
180 centrifuge tests are given in Fan et al. (2019).

181 Numerical simulation of monotonic push-over of a monopile following either pile jacking
182 or impact driving was simulated to replicate the test conditions. A summary of the
183 analyses conducted is given in Table 2, which includes a wished-in-place pile for
184 comparison. Only dimensionless quantities are given in the following discussion unless
185 noted otherwise. The lateral displacement is normalised by the pile overall diameter D_{pile} .
186 The lateral force and bending moment are normalised by γD_{pile}^3 and γD_{pile}^4 respectively,
187 where γ is the unit weight of the sand. The stiffness H/y_0 , where y_0 is the pile head
188 displacement at the original soil surface, is normalised by γD_{pile}^2 .

189 **Load-displacement response**

190 Figure 5 shows the comparison of the normalised load-displacement curves from
191 numerical analysis and the centrifuge test. In published numerical and experimental
192 studies (e.g. Byrne et al., 2019; Klinkvort and Hededal, 2014), piles are generally pushed
193 to a lateral displacement of 10% of the pile diameter at the pile head, which is widely
194 accepted as an ultimate limit state (ULS) design limit. However, in general long before

195 the ultimate capacity is mobilised, the pile deformations exceed the SLS design limit. The
196 SLS design criterion (DNV, 2014; DNVGL, 2016) limits the total tilt rotation at the
197 mudline to 0.5° . For the current pile and soil conditions, a normalised pile head
198 displacement of 0.04 corresponds to a tilt rotation at the mudline of 0.98° and 0.88°
199 respectively for driven piles and jacked piles. This is almost twice the SLS design limit.
200 Therefore, only the response up to a pile head displacement of $0.04D_{\text{pile}}$ is presented here
201 as this covers the entire operational range of monopiles.

202 Overall, the normalised load-displacement curves from the numerical analysis match well
203 with those deduced from centrifuge tests for both jacked piles and driven piles. The
204 impact-driven piles exhibit stiffer load-displacement response than jacked piles, while the
205 wished-in-place piles exhibit the softest load-displacement response which is similar to
206 the test data of piles jacked at 1g. The post-installation soil state is well captured by the
207 numerical model, in particular, the initial stiffness is appropriately reflected. The impact-
208 driven experimental results appear overly stiff initially due to challenges in accurately
209 measuring extremely small displacements and extrapolating these from the point of
210 measurement down to the pile head. The numerical analyses overestimate the lateral
211 capacity of jacked piles mobilised at $0.02D_{\text{pile}}$ and $0.04D_{\text{pile}}$ pile head displacement by 8%
212 and 24%, respectively. The numerical analyses overestimate the lateral capacity of driven
213 piles mobilised at $0.02D_{\text{pile}}$ and $0.04D_{\text{pile}}$ pile head displacement by 18% and 36%,
214 respectively.

215 Neglecting the effects of pile installation is likely to result in inaccurate prediction of
216 lateral response, and hence the natural frequency of the overall OWT. At large

217 displacements, the numerical results overestimate the lateral capacity, as the stiffness
218 declines more slowly than in the physical test. A similar overestimation of lateral capacity
219 at larger displacement (> 20 mm, namely 0.04 pile diameter in this study) was also
220 suggested by Murphy et al. (2018) where the trend of numerical analysis results based on
221 a non-linear stress-dependent Hardening Soil model started to exceed field test data,
222 although the response at smaller displacement (< 20 mm) matched well with the field test
223 data.

224 The ‘initial’ soil state for driven piles was based on results of pile driving analysis with a
225 higher impact driving force than the actual test condition in consideration of the
226 computational cost. The analysis result is still highly consistent with the test data as long
227 as the entire driving process is modelled.

228 **Secant stiffness**

229 Figure 6 compares the normalised secant stiffness obtained from numerical analysis and
230 centrifuge test results. A continuous secant stiffness profile can be extracted from the
231 numerical analysis results. The experimental secant stiffness at the small displacement
232 range (< 0.001 or $52.2 \mu\text{m}$ for a model pile with a diameter of 52.2 mm) is very difficult
233 to obtain due to the challenges in accurately measuring extremely small displacements.
234 Overall, the normalised secant stiffness reported by numerical analyses matches
235 reasonably well with the centrifuge test data. The numerical analyses underestimate the
236 secant stiffness mobilised at $0.002D_{\text{pile}}$ pile head displacement by 9% and 23% for jacked
237 piles and driven piles, respectively. Wished-in-place piles have slightly higher initial
238 stiffness than jacked piles at the very small displacement range (< 0.0003) in Figure 6.

239 This is mainly attributed to the dilation as a result of the installation process observed in
240 the pile/soil interface for jacked piles. The stiffness of wished-in-place piles is very close
241 to piles jacked at 1g in centrifuge tests. Numerical results based on wished-in-place piles
242 and centrifuge experimental results based on 1g jacking installation lead to
243 underestimation of the lateral resistance.

244 **Pile deflection, shear force and bending moment distribution**

245 Figure 7 shows the pile deflection, shear force and bending moment profiles along the
246 pile length from numerical analyses for two load levels ($H/\gamma D_{\text{pile}}^3 = 0.9$ and 2.8), where z
247 > 0 denotes the section above the mudline and $z \leq 0$ denotes the embedded pile section.
248 Figure 7a indicates the rotation point is located at around 77% and 85% of embedded pile
249 length for impact-driven piles and jacked piles respectively (pile was pushed from RHS
250 to LHS). The corresponding displacement and rotation at pile head at these two load levels
251 are summarized in Table 3. Figure 7c shows excellent agreement between the measured
252 bending moment and moment reported by the numerical simulation (especially at the
253 small load level of $H/\gamma D_{\text{pile}}^3 = 0.9$). The maximum difference between the moment
254 measured in the test and the moment reported from numerical analyses at the large load
255 level of $H/\gamma D_{\text{pile}}^3 = 2.8$ is less than 7% for both jacked and driven piles. Jacked piles
256 exhibit much larger displacement (Figure 6a) than impact-driven piles at the same load
257 level, although the differences in the shear force (Figure 6b) and bending moment profiles
258 (Figure 7c) are relatively minor. The greater stiffness of the impact-driven piles arises
259 from the effects of impact driving, as discussed in the following section.

260 **VALIDATION AND DISCUSSION OF SOIL STATE CHANGES DUE TO PILE**
261 **INSTALLATION**

262 The numerical results show impact-driven piles have significantly higher initial stiffness
263 and lateral capacity than jacked piles. This finding is consistent with the centrifuge test
264 results reported by Fan et al. (2019), and arises from the post-installation soil conditions,
265 in particular the distributions of horizontal stress and void ratio, following different
266 installation methods. The contours of void ratio and horizontal stress following jacking
267 and impact driving are given respectively in Figure 13a and Figure 14a of Fan et al.
268 (2020). The contours of void ratio and horizontal stress when the pile head is pushed to
269 0.04 lateral displacement are given in Figure 8. Figure 9 shows the changes in void ratio
270 and horizontal stress from post-installation ('initial' state) to 0.04 mudline displacement.
271 The pattern of changes in the lateral stress and void ratio is similar for all installation
272 methods, but the extent and magnitude of the changes on the passive side depend
273 significantly on the installation method. The impact-driven piles have the highest increase
274 in the horizontal stress on the passive side, while the decrease in the void ratio is smaller
275 especially in the area next to the pile/soil interface as soil has been densified to a greater
276 extent due to the driving process. The wished-in-place piles have the lowest change in
277 horizontal stress. The subsequent lateral response reflects these different installation-
278 induced soil states.

279 Figure 10 shows the p-y curves generated from the numerical analyses results at four
280 different soil depths. The p-y curves were extracted from the numerical analysis results,
281 with p obtained by double-differentiating the bending moment along the pile length and

282 y directly from the pile lateral displacement. The p-y curves are significantly affected by
283 the method of installation. Soil pressures mobilised for impact-driven piles at a given
284 displacement and depth are significantly higher than for jacked or wished-in-place piles,
285 especially at shallow depth ($z = -0.5, 1.0$ and $1.5D_{\text{pile}}$) where the soil has been significantly
286 densified (Fan et al., 2020), and also near the pile toe ($z = -2.8D_{\text{pile}}$). This is also consistent
287 with the observation of a significantly higher increase in the horizontal stress as reported
288 in Figure 8 when the impact-driven pile is loaded laterally.

289 Most of the published numerical studies do not account for installation effects due to the
290 limitation of numerical tools and consideration of the extremely high computation costs.
291 As shown here, both the initial stiffness and lateral capacity are significantly
292 underestimated if the installation-induced void ratio and horizontal stress are not
293 accounted for. An underestimation of the stiffness will lead to underestimation of the
294 natural frequency. This may be one of the reasons why the design frequency of hundreds
295 of offshore wind turbines is actually lower than the measured frequency (Achmus et al.,
296 2019; Damgaard et al., 2014; Kallehave et al., 2015).

297 PARAMETRIC STUDY

298 Further exploration of factors that may influence the effect of installation methods on the
299 subsequent lateral response were conducted using the validated numerical model. Factors
300 including initial relative density, driving distance, pile geometry, stress level, and load
301 eccentricity were examined.

302 Effect of initial relative density

303 The normalised load-displacement curves and secant stiffness for three different initial
304 relative densities ($D_R = 38, 60$ and 88%) are given in Figure 11 and Figure 12 respectively.
305 All analyses were conducted using the test pile dimensions (5.22 m pile), embedment
306 length-to-diameter ratio ($L_e/D_{pile} = 3.1$) and load eccentricity-to-diameter ratio ($I_e/D_{pile} =$
307 3.8). As expected, both the initial stiffness and lateral capacity increase with the initial
308 relative density, regardless of installation method. In terms of the effect of installation
309 method, the impact-driven piles have significantly higher initial stiffness and lateral
310 capacity than jacked piles and wished-in-place piles, consistently for sand of different
311 initial relative densities. The most remarkable difference in the response between the
312 jacked piles and impact-driven piles was found for dense sand ($D_R = 88\%$), while wished-
313 in-place piles exhibited the softest response. Dilation resulting from pile jacking, and
314 consequent increases in void ratio near the pile, leads to reduced stiffness at the small
315 displacement range. An increase in the void ratio in the area next to the pile external
316 wall/soil interface is observed for sand of different relative densities following jacking
317 (as shown in Figure 7a, 9a, and 11a of Fan et al., 2020). At larger displacement range
318 (>0.001), the jacked piles have a higher secant stiffness and lateral capacity than wished-

319 in-place piles due to the combined effect of the increase in horizontal stress and decrease
320 in void ratio for sand with initial relative densities of 38% and 60%. For the dense sand
321 case ($D_R = 88\%$), the jacked piles also have a stiffer lateral response than wished-in-place
322 piles due to the increase in the horizontal stress during installation, even though
323 significant dilation occurs (see Figure 11a, Figure 12a of Fan et al., 2020). Details of the
324 changes in void ratio and horizontal stress in the surrounding soil following pile
325 installation can be seen in Figure 7-12 of Fan et al., 2020.

326 The initial stiffness defined as secant stiffness at 0-0.001 mudline displacement after
327 McAdam et al. (2019) is summarized in Table 4. The secant stiffness defined at 0-0.04
328 mudline displacement is summarized in Table 5. The increase of the initial stiffness and
329 secant stiffness due to different pile installation methods is also given.

330 **Effect of driving distance**

331 From a practical perspective, significant computational cost can be saved if the required
332 driving distance to be simulated can be reduced, yet its effect on the lateral response needs
333 to be investigated. Figure 13 (blue lines) shows the results of analyses where the simulated
334 driving distance was varied, maintaining the same total embedment length. The pre-
335 jacked distance was varied accordingly. The results for wished-in-place piles and jacked
336 pile (black lines) are also given for comparison. The results show both the initial stiffness
337 and lateral capacity increase as the simulated driving distance increases. The initial
338 stiffness and lateral capacity for $1.3D_{\text{pile}}$ and $2.2D_{\text{pile}}$ driving cases are very similar. The
339 initial stiffness reported for $0.6D_{\text{pile}}$ driving case is still comparable, but the lateral
340 capacity is significantly underestimated as a low driving distance predominantly changes

341 soil state around the pile toe, with little effect along the embedded length of the pile. A
342 sufficient driving distance is required to capture the changes of the soil state due to impact
343 driving in the region closer to the soil surface that is more significant for the lateral
344 response. Significant computational cost can be saved by pre-jacking the pile while
345 retaining the accuracy of initial stiffness, while the lateral capacity at larger displacement
346 is underestimated.

347 An additional study was performed by wishing the pile in place by an embedment length
348 of $2.1D_{\text{pile}}$ and only modelling the last $1.0D_{\text{pile}}$ driving. Both the initial stiffness and lateral
349 capacity are underestimated as shown in Figure 13 (red line), lower than any of the pre-
350 jacked cases. This is most likely due to the reduced volume of penetration resulting from
351 the wished-in-place technique. In addition to the driving distance, the volume of the body
352 penetrating into soil is also of significant importance to the post-installation conditions
353 and hence the subsequent lateral response.

354 **Effect of pile geometry and stress level**

355 All discussions in the section above are based on the pile dimensions (5.22 m pile)
356 modelled experimentally. Monopiles with diameters exceeding 8 m and a wall thickness
357 of around 0.1 m are currently being used in the offshore wind industry, e.g. Rentel wind
358 farm in Belgium (Degraer et al., 2018). Analyses considering a monopile with a diameter
359 of 8 m and a wall thickness of 0.1 m were conducted to investigate the influence of stress
360 level and pile geometry. The same load eccentricity-to-diameter ratio and embedment
361 length-to-diameter ratio were maintained.

362 The effect of stress level was first examined by comparing the response of wished-in-
363 place piles, where the installation effect was ignored. Figure 14 compares the response of
364 two piles in sand of three different initial relative densities. In general, the smaller pile
365 (5.22 m pile) has a higher normalised initial stiffness and lateral capacity than the large
366 (8 m) diameter pile for all relative densities considered. The influence of installation
367 method on the horizontal stresses was also examined. Figure 15 compares the response
368 of two piles installed using different methods in sand with an initial relative density of
369 38%. The results for wished-in-place piles are also included for comparison. The
370 observation is that smaller piles exhibit a stiffer response than the larger diameter pile
371 following either jacking or impact driving. This is consistent with the observation that the
372 lateral response becomes softer as the stress level increases, as reported by Klinkvort
373 (2013) from centrifuge tests where the model piles were jacked at 1g.

374 Only the last $\sim 1.2-1.3D_{\text{pile}}$ impact driving distance was simulated and piles were pre-
375 jacked to $\sim 1.8-1.9D_{\text{pile}}$ before impact driving was initiated considering the high
376 computational cost as explained in the companion paper (Fan et al., 2020).

377 Figure 15 also shows the magnitude of differences in both initial stiffness and lateral
378 capacity due to different installation methods are more remarkable for the tested small
379 pile. In contrast, both the initial stiffness and lateral capacity of the jacked and impact-
380 driven 8 m diameter piles are almost identical but larger than for the wished-in-place
381 piles. This may be attributed to the difference in the effective area of the piles. The
382 diameter-to-wall thickness ratios (D/t) of the 5.22 m and 8 m piles are 25 and 80,
383 respectively. The effective area ratios ($A_r = 1 - (D_i/D_o)^2$) are 0.15 and 0.05 respectively,

384 where D_i is the pile internal diameter of pile, D_o is the pile external diameter. The pile
385 installation process and resulting post-installation soil state is affected significantly by
386 the effective area ratio of piles (Lehane et al., 2005). As shown in Figure 18 of Fan et al.
387 (2020), less marked changes in soil states due to pile driving are reported for the 8 m pile
388 than those reported for the 5.22 m pile due to the combined effect of the reduced driving
389 distance and reduced effective area. The effect of pile installation on the subsequent
390 lateral response is therefore more evident for piles with smaller D/t ratio or large effective
391 area ratio.

392 The responses of 8 m diameter piles in sand with an initial relative density of 60% and
393 88% are shown in Figure 16. The most significant difference between the response of
394 jacked piles and driven piles is also reported in dense sand ($D_R = 88\%$), similar to the
395 results for the 5.22 m pile. Overall, the impact-driven piles generally have a higher lateral
396 capacity and secant stiffness at displacements less than ~ 0.004 and at displacements larger
397 than 0.04 for all relative densities, while the jacked piles have higher lateral resistance at
398 intermediate displacements, varying according to the soil density.

399 **Effect of load eccentricity**

400 Analyses considering five different load eccentricities were conducted to illustrate the
401 effect of load eccentricity. As an example, sand with an initial relative density of 60%
402 and two different installation methods were considered. The embedment length-to-
403 diameter ratio was kept as 3.1. The lateral capacity and the secant stiffness of piles loaded
404 at five different load eccentricities ($I_e/D_{pile} = 2.0, 3.8, 6.0, 8.0$ and 10.0) for jacked and
405 driven large diameter piles are shown in Figure 17a and Figure 17b respectively. As

406 expected, both the initial stiffness and lateral capacity increase significantly as the load
407 eccentricity and hence the moment component decreases, as also reported in the
408 centrifuge experimental study by Klinkvort and Hededal (2014). Figure 17b shows that
409 there are large differences in the initial stiffness between the jacked and driven piles for
410 small load eccentricities. However, the magnitude of the difference in the initial stiffness
411 decreases significantly as the load eccentricity increases.

412

413 CONCLUSIONS

414 This paper has discussed findings from a numerical investigation of the effect of different
415 pile installation methods on the subsequent lateral response. A systematic study of the
416 effects of soil initial relative density, pile driving distance, pile geometry, stress level, and
417 load eccentricity was conducted. The following key conclusions are drawn based on the
418 results.

- 419 • The initial stiffness and lateral capacity over the displacement range within typical
420 serviceability criteria are significantly affected by the post-installation soil state,
421 which in turn is affected by the pile installation method. Impact-driven piles can
422 have significantly higher initial stiffness and lateral capacity than jacked piles,
423 regardless of the initial soil relative density but depending on the D/t ratio.
424 Wished-in-place conditions, as commonly adopted in practice, will lead to an
425 underestimation of both initial stiffness and lateral capacity, and consequently, an
426 underestimation of the natural frequency of OWTs.
- 427 • For a pile with a diameter of 5.22 m and a wall thickness of 0.21 m ($D/t = 25$),
428 considering an embedded length of 3.1 pile diameters and a load eccentricity of
429 3.8 pile diameters, the initial stiffnesses following impact-driven and jacked
430 installation are (on average for different relative densities) respectively 47% and
431 10% higher than following wished-in-place conditions. The lateral capacity of
432 impact-driven and jacked piles at a mudline displacement of $0.04D_{\text{pile}}$ (rotation of
433 around 1°) are 76% and 19% higher than for wished-in-place piles for this
434 example. The effect is diminished for larger piles with larger D/t ratios.

-
- 435 • The results confirmed the effect of the ambient stress level on the pile lateral
436 response. A larger pile (higher ambient stress levels) always gives a softer
437 response (once normalized by the pile size), and this holds for different initial
438 relative densities and different installation methods.
- 439 • The differences in the initial stiffness and lateral capacity following different
440 installation methods are affected by pile geometry. The difference in the lateral
441 response is more significant for piles with a smaller D/t ratio or large effective
442 area. Impact driving leads to a more substantial increase in the initial stiffness and
443 lateral capacity for piles with a smaller D/t ratio or larger effective area.
- 444 • The decrease in initial stiffness and lateral capacity with increasing load
445 eccentricity has been documented. The magnitude of the difference in the initial
446 stiffness of jacked piles and driven piles decreases significantly as the load
447 eccentricity increases.
- 448 • To capture the effects of impact-driven pile installation along the shaft as well as
449 around the pile toe, which will be reflected in the initial stiffness and pile capacity,
450 sufficient impact driving needs to be simulated over a sufficient penetration
451 distance. For driven piles, significant computational cost can be saved by pre-
452 jacking the pile without losing accuracy with respect to the initial stiffness.
453 Although the assumption of wished-in-place conditions can save considerable
454 computational costs, this will lead to underestimation of both initial stiffness and
455 lateral capacity.
- 456

457 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

458 The measurement data and model output are available from the corresponding author by
459 request.

460

461 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

462 This work forms part of the activities of the Centre for Offshore Foundation Systems
463 (COFS), which is currently supported as a Centre of Excellence by the Lloyd's Register
464 Foundation and through the Fugro Chair in Geotechnics and the Shell EMI Chair in
465 Offshore Engineering. Lloyd's Register Foundation helps to protect life and property by
466 supporting engineering-related education, public engagement and the application of
467 research. This support is gratefully acknowledged.

468

469 NOTATIONS

D_{pile}	[m]	Overall pile diameter (including epoxy)
D_R	[-]	Relative density of sand
e	[-]	Void ratio
f_0	[-]	Design frequency
H	[N]	Lateral force/load
L_e	[m]	Embedded pile length
I_e	[m]	Load eccentricity
M	[Nm]	Bending moment
S	[N]	Shear force
y_0	[m]	Lateral displacement at mudline/pile head
y	[m]	Lateral displacement
z	[m]	Pile depth
δ	[°]	Interface friction angle between pile and sand
Δe	[-]	Changes in void ratio
$\Delta\sigma_{11}$	[kPa]	Changes in horizontal stress
φ	[°]	Critical friction angle of sand
σ_{11}	[kPa]	Horizontal stress
θ_0	[°]	Rotation at mudline/pile head
γ	[kN/m ³]	Sample dry density

470

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- 596

597 TABLES**598 Table 1 Pile material properties**

Material	Young's modulus [GPa]	Poisson's ratio [-]
Pile - steel	200	0.27
Epoxy coating	2	0.33

599

600 Table 2 Summary of numerical analysis for validation, $D_R = 38\%$

Case	D_{pile} [m]	WT [m]	L_e/D_{pile}	Pile installation method	Lateral loading type
1				Wished-in-place	
2	5.22	0.21	3.1	Jacking	Monotonic push over
3				Impact driving	

601

602 Table 3 Mudline displacement and mudline rotation at two load levels

Installation method	Load level $H/\gamma D^3 = 0.9$		Load level $H/\gamma D^3 = 2.8$	
	y_0 [-]	θ_0 [°]	y_0 [-]	θ_0 [°]
Impact driving	0.002	0.07	0.023	0.61
Jacking	0.004 (109%)	0.11 (60%)	0.040 (79%)	0.97 (59%)

603 Notes:

604 1) y_0 denotes the mudline displacement, θ_0 denotes the mudline rotation605 2) The values given in parentheses denote the difference in percentage compared with
606 driven piles.

607

608 Table 4 Initial stiffness (secant stiffness at 0-0.001 mudline displacement)

Installation method	Initial stiffness		
	$D_R = 38\%$	$D_R = 60\%$	$D_R = 88\%$
WIP	358.6	387.3	704.3
Jacking	409.6 (14.2%)	404.8 (4.5%)	775.6 (10.1%)
Impact driving	550.9 (53.6%)	562.3 (45.2%)	1004.4 (42.6%)

609 Note:

610 1) The values given in parentheses denote the increase of initial stiffness compared with
611 wished-in-place piles.

612

613 Table 5 Secant stiffness (secant stiffness at 0-0.04 mudline displacement)

Installation method	Secant stiffness		
	$D_R = 38\%$	$D_R = 60\%$	$D_R = 88\%$
WIP	55.2	63.8	149.5
Jacking	68.8 (24.8%)	75.3 (18.0%)	169.8 (13.8%)
Impact driving	90.8 (64.7%)	102.7 (61.0%)	300.3 (100.9%)

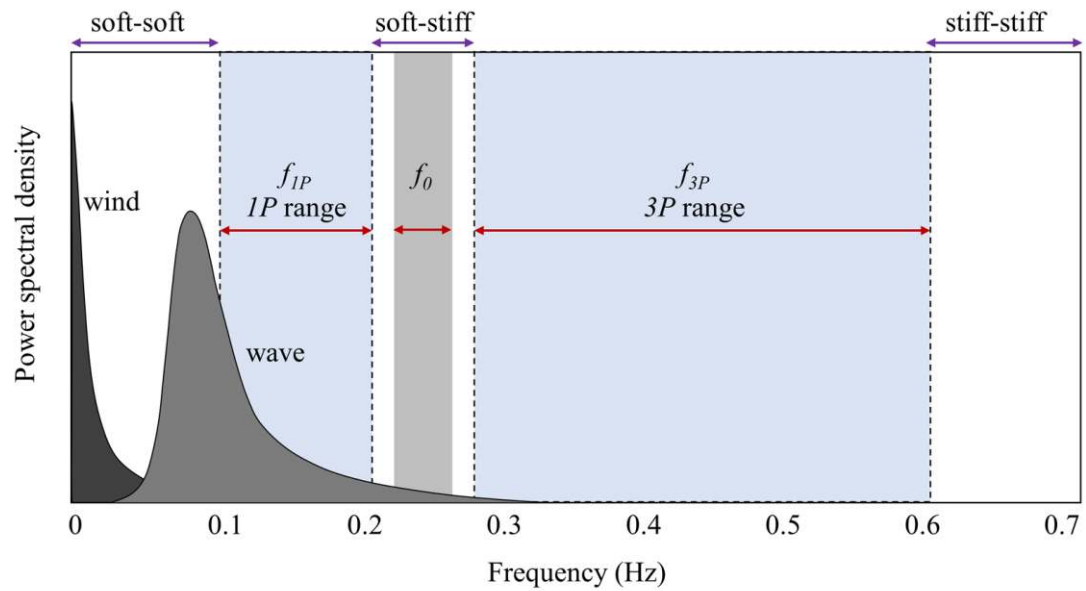
614 Note:

615 1) The values given in parentheses denote the increase of lateral capacity at 0.04 mudline
616 displacement compared with wished-in-place piles.

-
- 617 Figure 1 Excitation ranges of OWTs in the frequency domain (after Kallehave et al.,
618 2015)
- 619 Figure 2 Lateral loading model (mesh, boundary conditions)
- 620 Figure 3 Mapping procedure from pile installation model to lateral loading model
- 621 Figure 4 Soil state following jacked pile installation ($D_R = 38\%$), (a) void ratio (b)
622 horizontal stress (kPa). Results from pile installation (LHS, Fan et al. 2020) and mapped
623 to pile lateral loading model (RHS)
- 624 Figure 5 Comparison of normalised load-displacement curves between current numerical
625 study and centrifuge test data, $D_R = 38\%$
- 626 Figure 6 Comparison of normalised secant stiffness between current numerical study and
627 centrifuge test, $D_R = 38\%$
- 628 Figure 7 Deflection, shear force, and bending moment profiles along the entire pile length
- 629 Figure 8 Soil state following lateral loading, at 0.04 mudline displacement ($D_R = 38\%$),
630 void ratio, e (LHS), horizontal stress (kPa), σ_{11} (RHS).
- 631 Figure 9 Soil state changes following lateral loading, at 0.04 mudline displacement (D_R
632 $= 38\%$), changes in void ratio, Δe (LHS), changes in horizontal stress (kPa), $\Delta\sigma_{11}$ (RHS).
- 633 Figure 10 p-y curve generated from numerical analysis results, $D_R = 38\%$.
- 634 Figure 11 Normalised load-displacement curve for different initial relative density (5.22
635 m pile)
- 636 Figure 12 Normalised secant stiffness for different initial relative densities (5.22 m pile)
- 637 Figure 13 Effect of driving distance on the lateral capacity and stiffness (5.22 m pile)
- 638 Figure 14 Normalised load-displacement curve for 5.22 m and 8 m pile, wished-in-place
639 piles
- 640 Figure 15 Normalised load-displacement curves for 5.22 m and 8 m pile, different
641 installation methods
- 642 Figure 16 Normalised load-displacement curve for different initial relative density (8 m
643 pile)
- 644 Figure 17 Effect of load eccentricity following different installation methods (8 m pile)
- 645

646 **FIGURE**

647

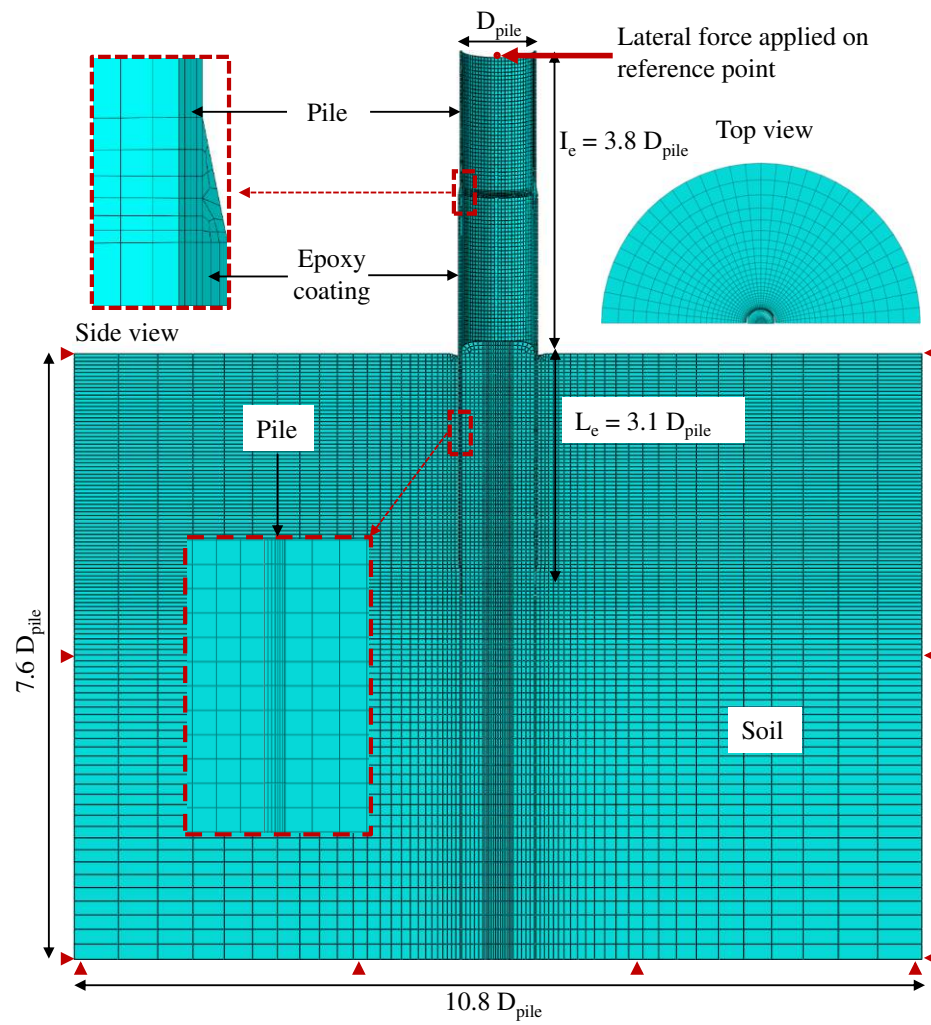


648

649 Figure 1 Excitation ranges of OWTs in the frequency domain (after Kallehave et al.,

650 2015)

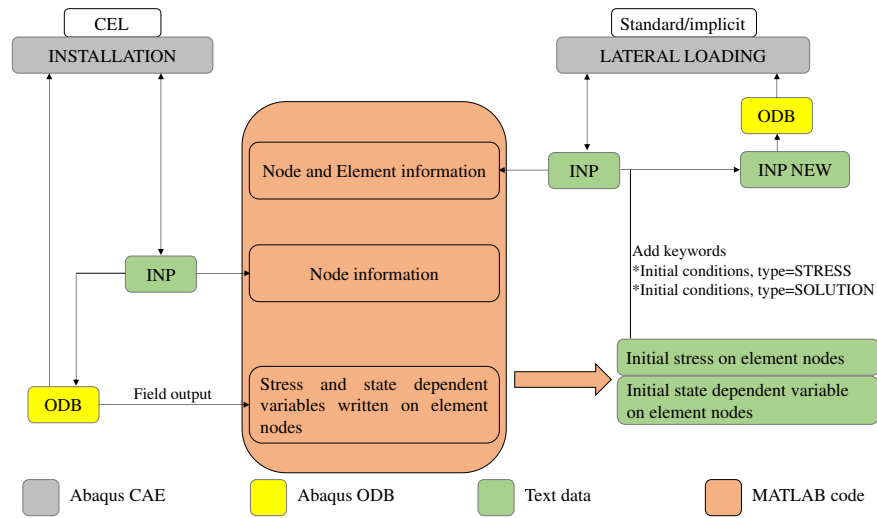
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652

653 Figure 2 Lateral loading model (mesh, boundary conditions)

654

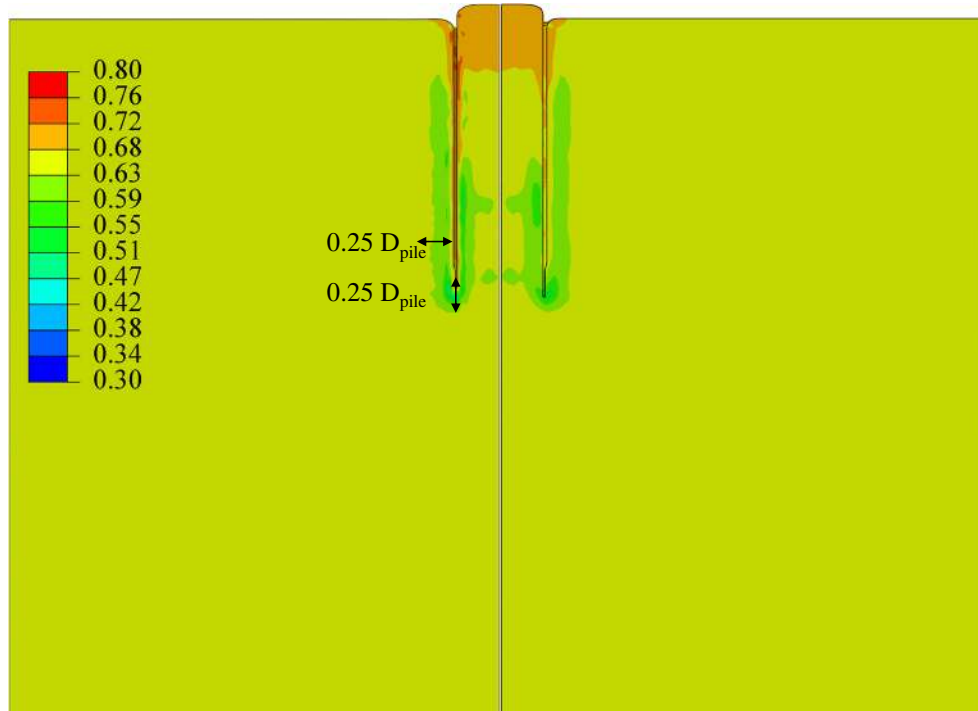
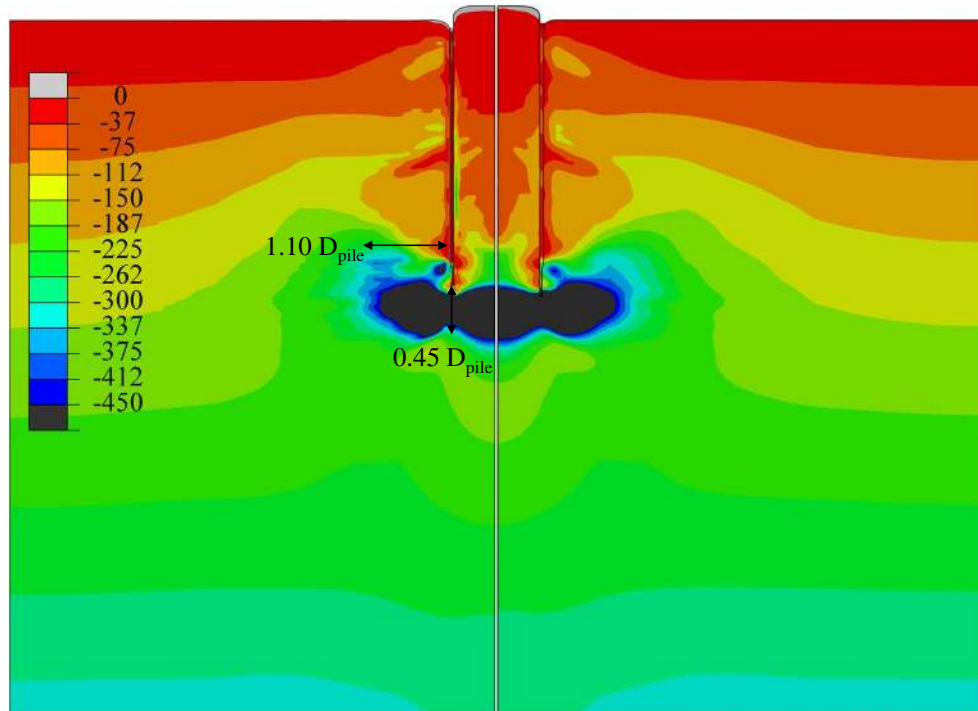


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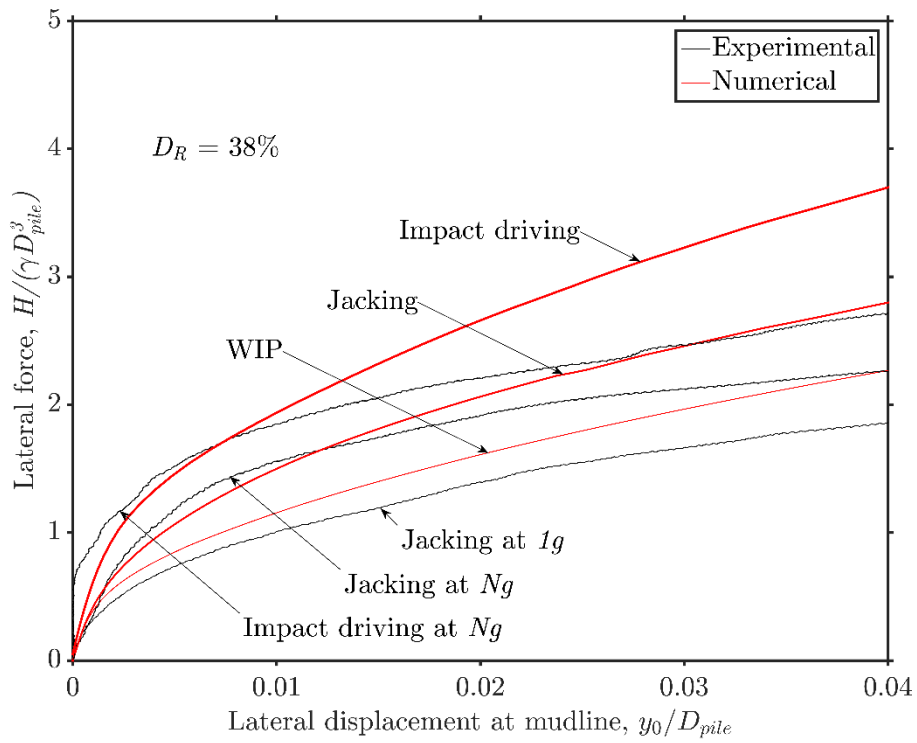
656 Figure 3 Mapping procedure from pile installation model to lateral loading model

657

658 a)

659
660 b)

661
662 Figure 4 Soil state following jacked pile installation ($D_R = 38\%$), (a) void ratio (b)
663 horizontal stress (kPa). Results from pile installation (LHS, Fan et al. 2020) and mapped
664 to pile lateral loading model (RHS)

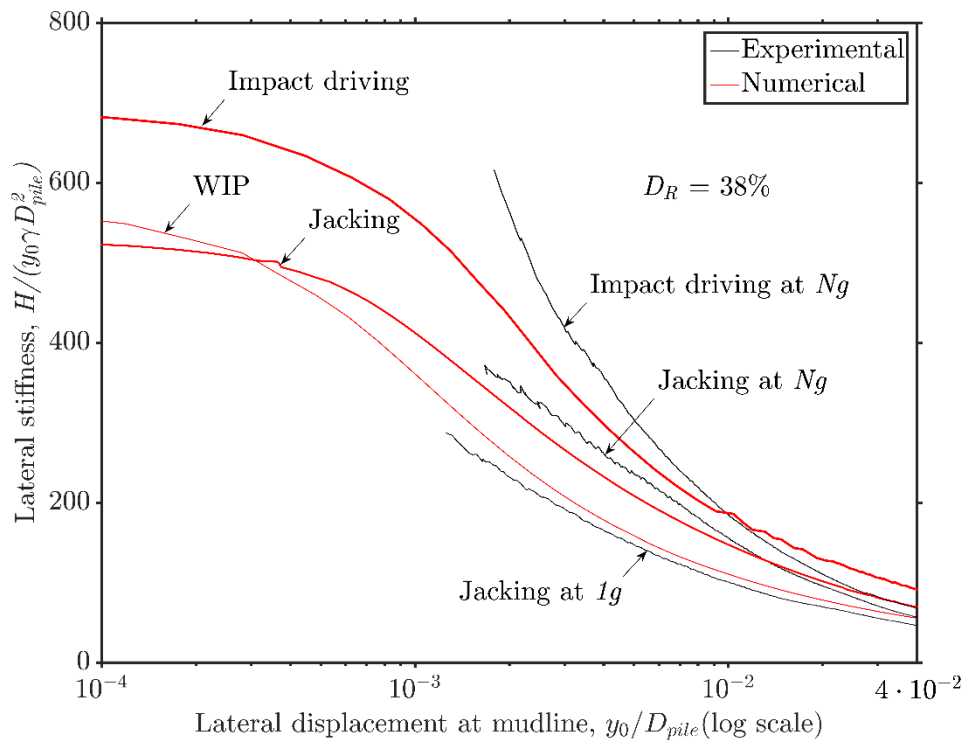


665

666 Figure 5 Comparison of normalised load-displacement curves between current numerical

667 study and centrifuge test data, $D_R = 38\%$

668

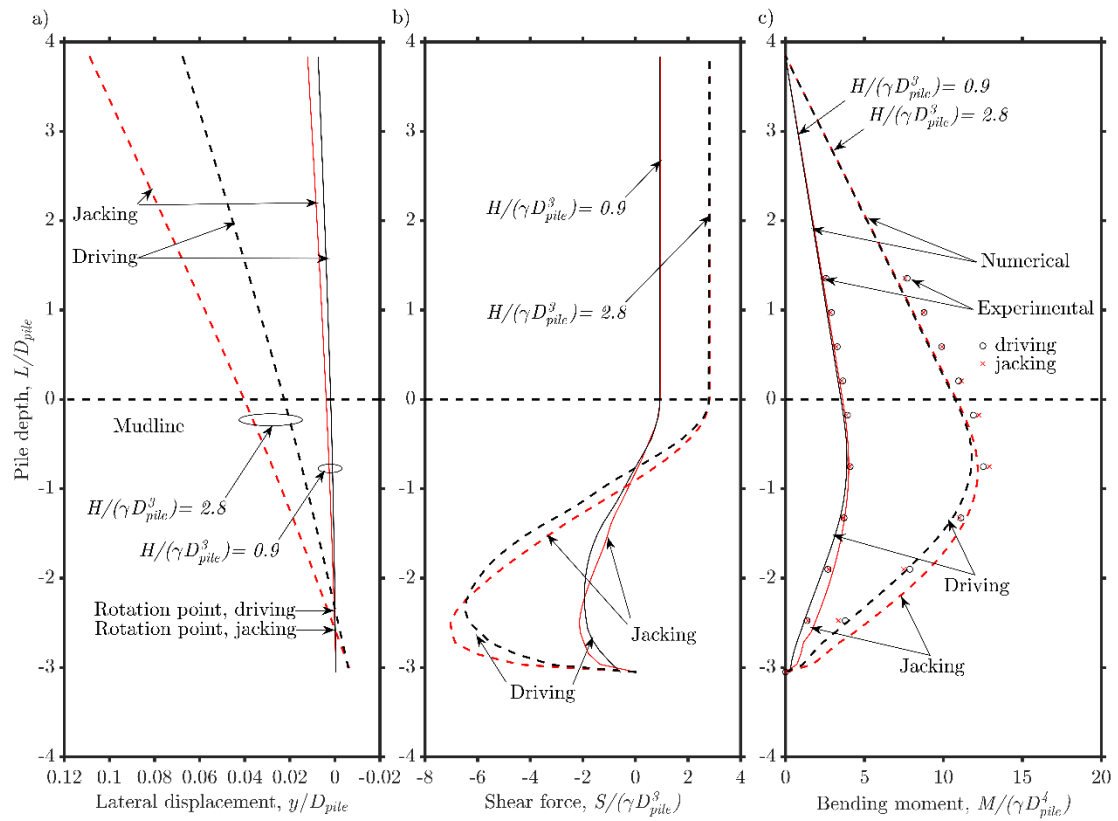


669

670 Figure 6 Comparison of normalised secant stiffness between current numerical study and

671 centrifuge test, $D_R = 38\%$

672

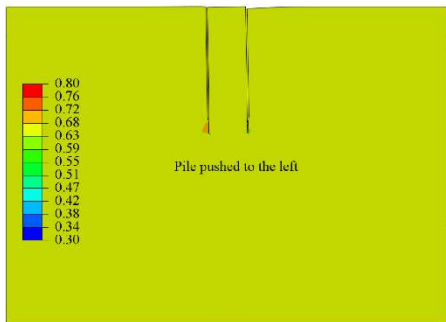


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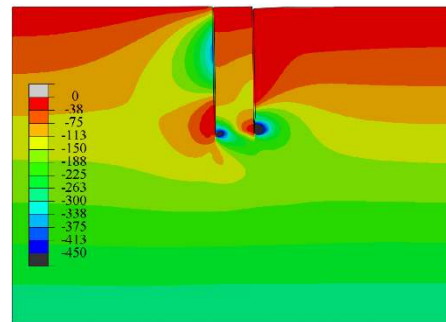
674 Figure 7 Deflection, shear force, and bending moment profiles along the entire pile length

675

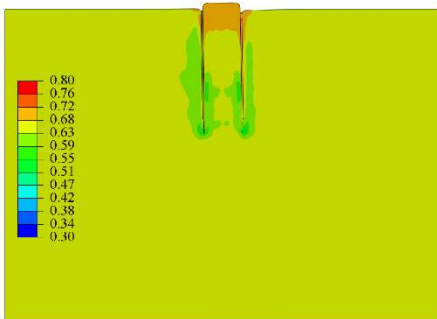
676 a) WIP, e



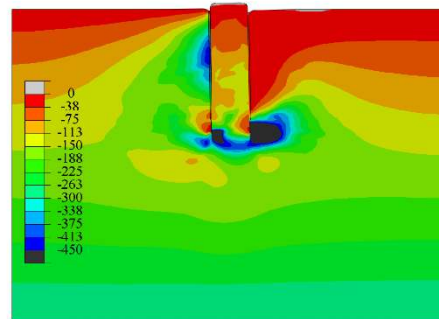
b) WIP, σ_{11}



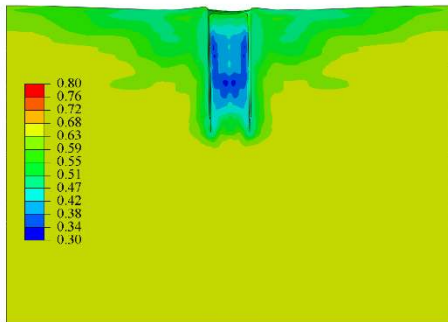
677
678 c) Jacking, e



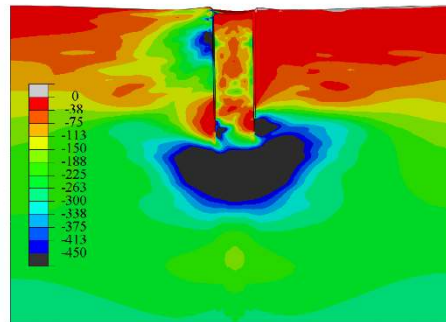
d) Jacking, σ_{11}



679
680 e) Impact driving, e



f) Impact driving, σ_{11}



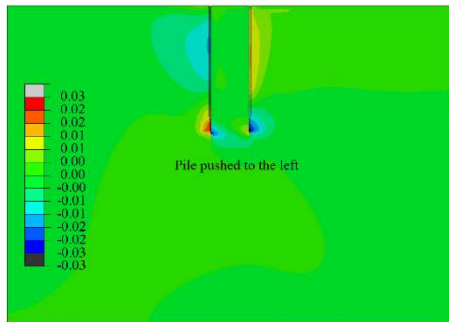
681

682 Figure 8 Soil state following lateral loading, at 0.04 mudline displacement ($D_R = 38\%$),

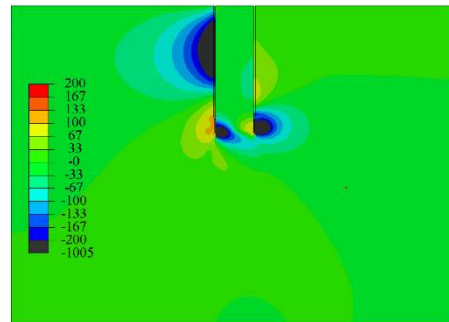
683 void ratio, e (LHS), horizontal stress (kPa), σ_{11} (RHS).

684

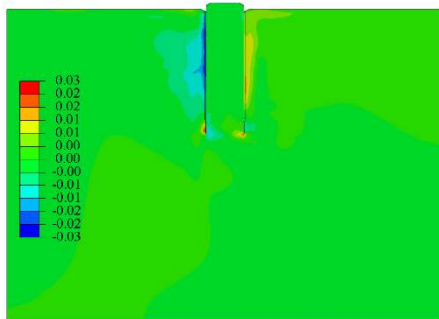
685 a) WIP, Δe



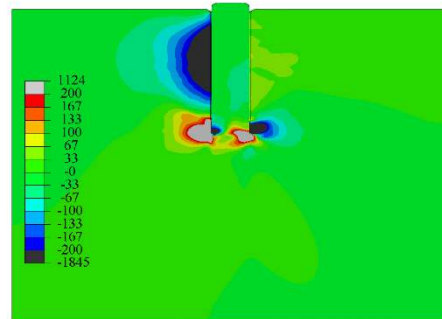
b) WIP, $\Delta\sigma_{11}$



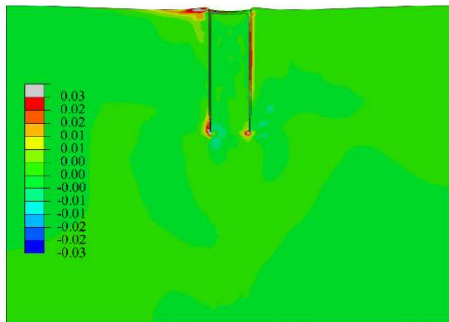
686 c) Jacking, Δe
687



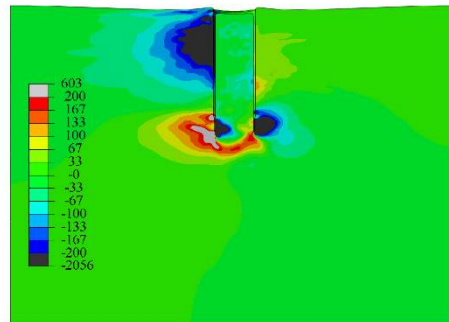
d) Jacking, $\Delta\sigma_{11}$



688 e) Impact driving, Δe
689



f) Impact driving, $\Delta\sigma_{11}$

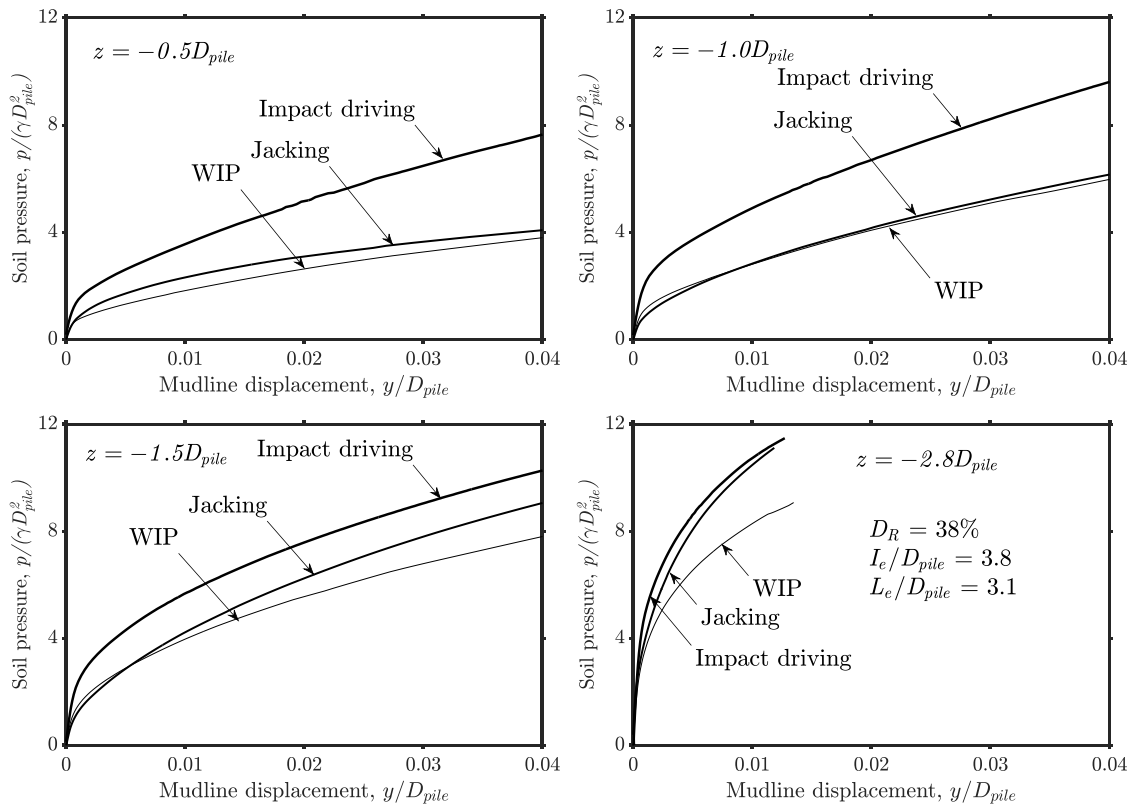


690

691 Figure 9 Soil state changes following lateral loading, at 0.04 mudline displacement (D_R

692 = 38%), changes in void ratio, Δe (LHS), changes in horizontal stress (kPa), $\Delta\sigma_{11}$ (RHS).

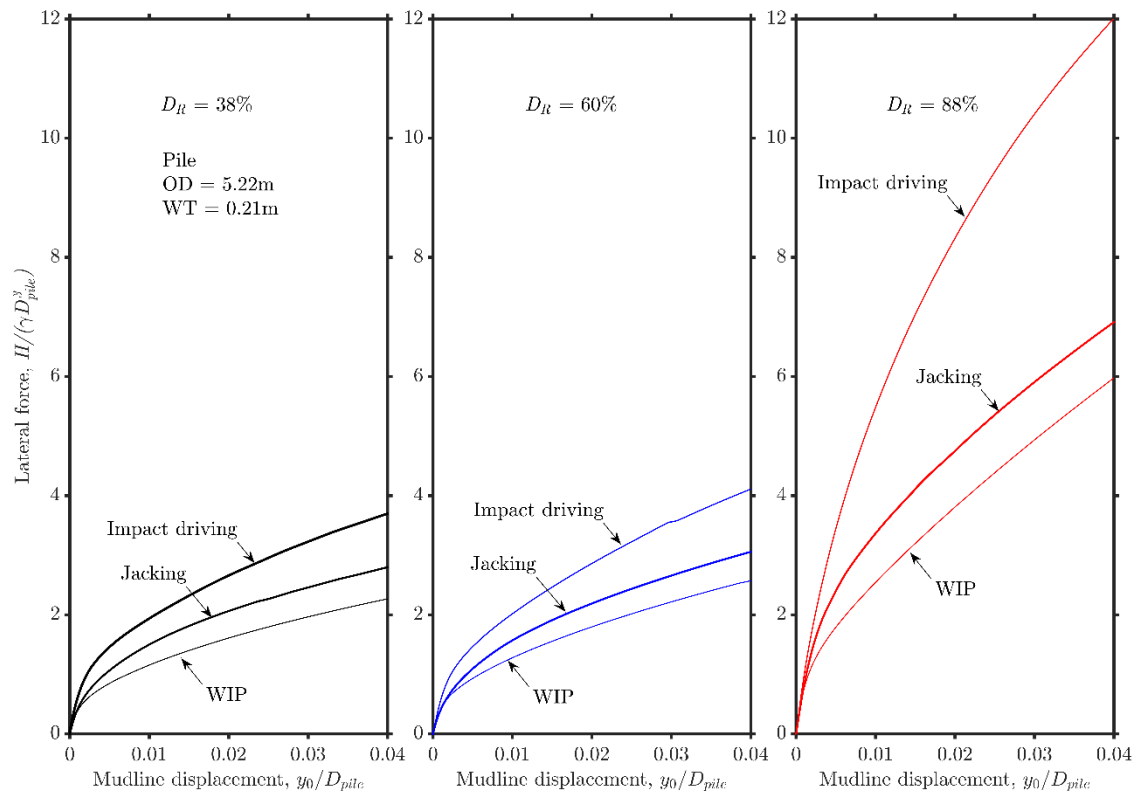
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694

695 Figure 10 p-y curve generated from numerical analysis results, $D_R = 38\%$.

696

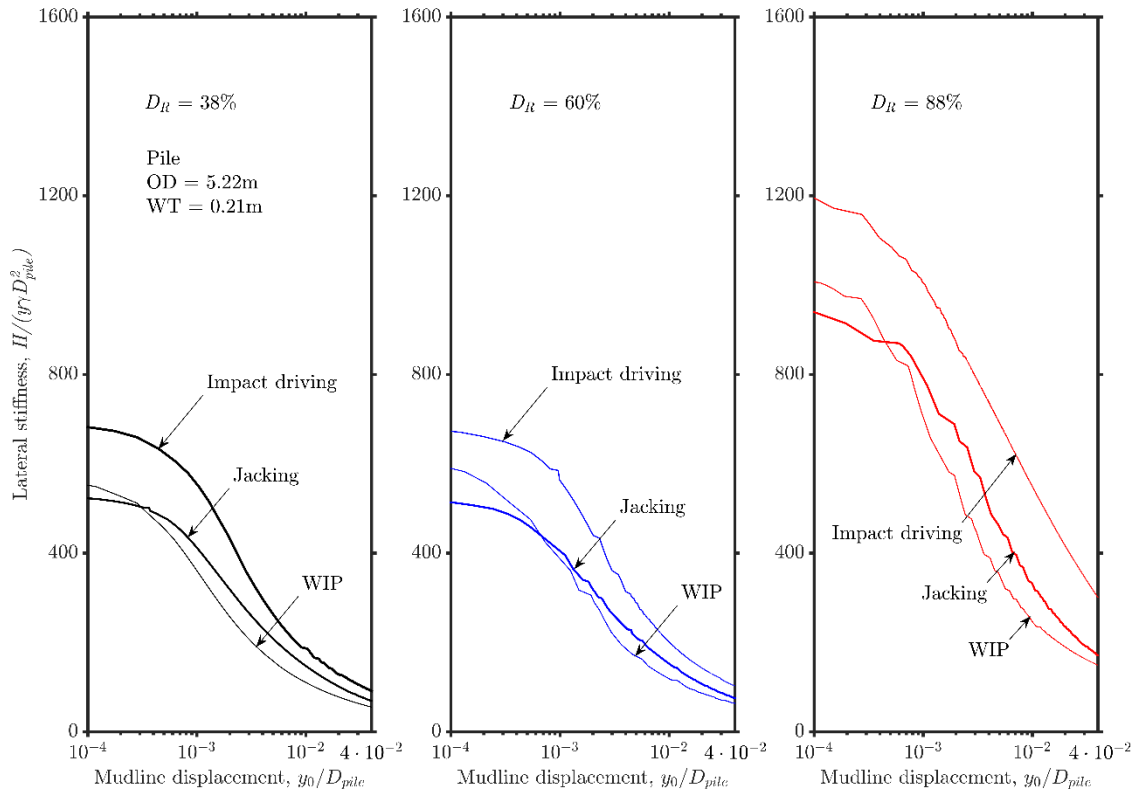


697

698 Figure 11 Normalised load-displacement curve for different initial relative density (5.22

699 m pile)

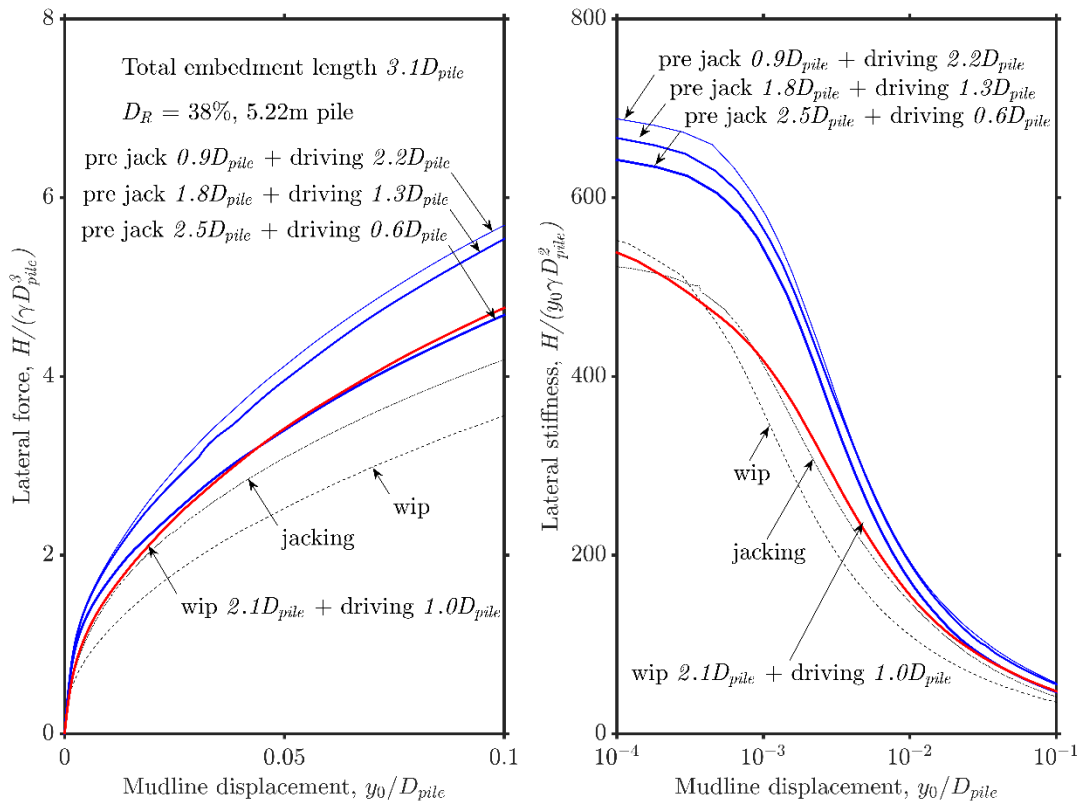
700



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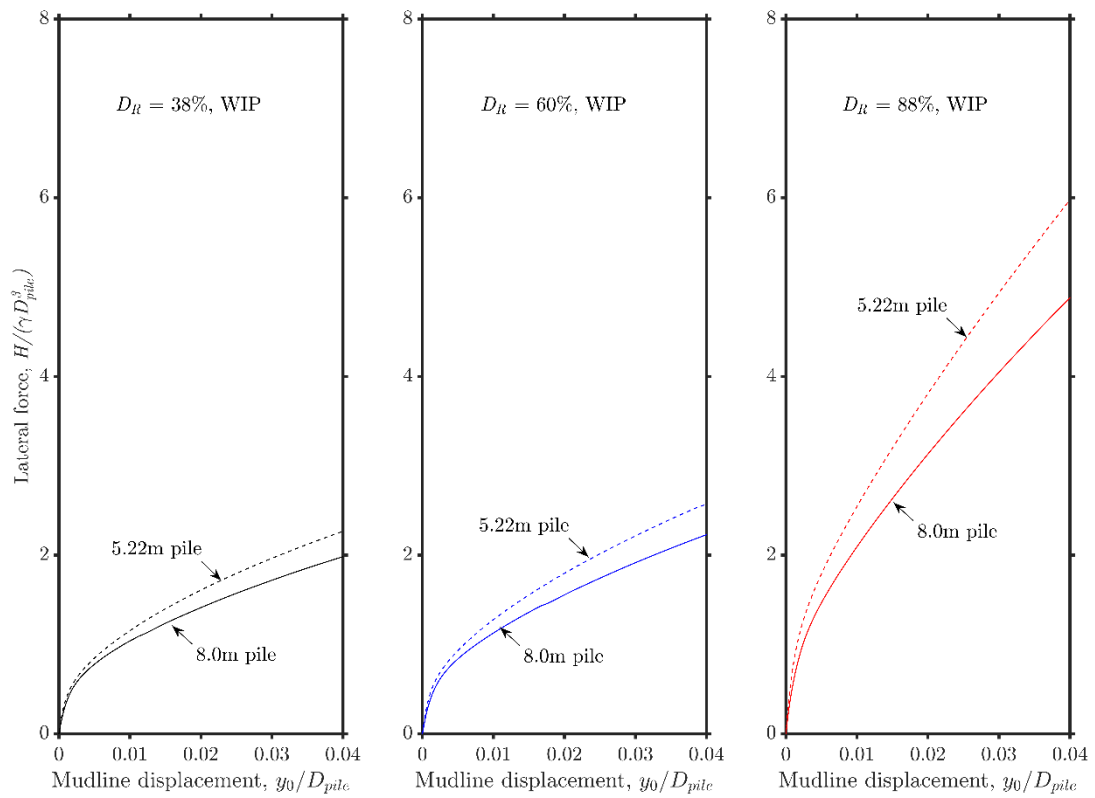
702 Figure 12 Normalised secant stiffness for different initial relative densities (5.22 m pile)

703



704

705 Figure 13 Effect of driving distance on the lateral capacity and stiffness (5.22 m pile)

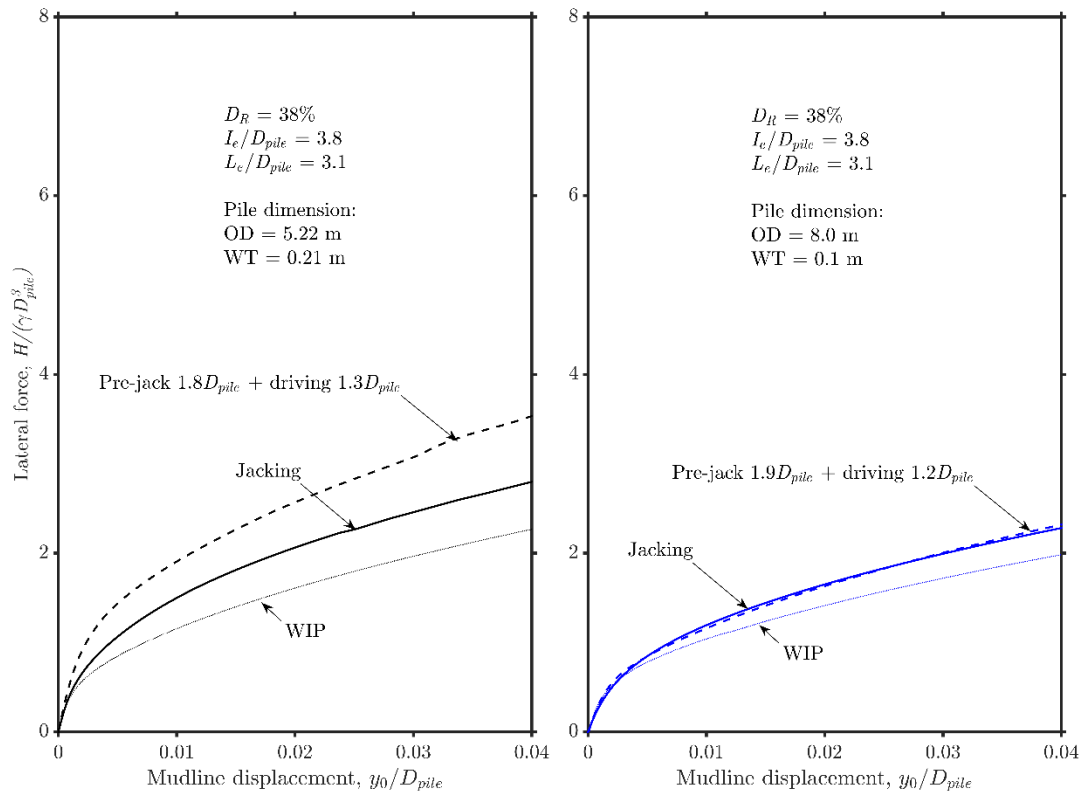


706

707 Figure 14 Normalised load-displacement curve for 5.22 m and 8 m pile, wished-in-place

708 piles

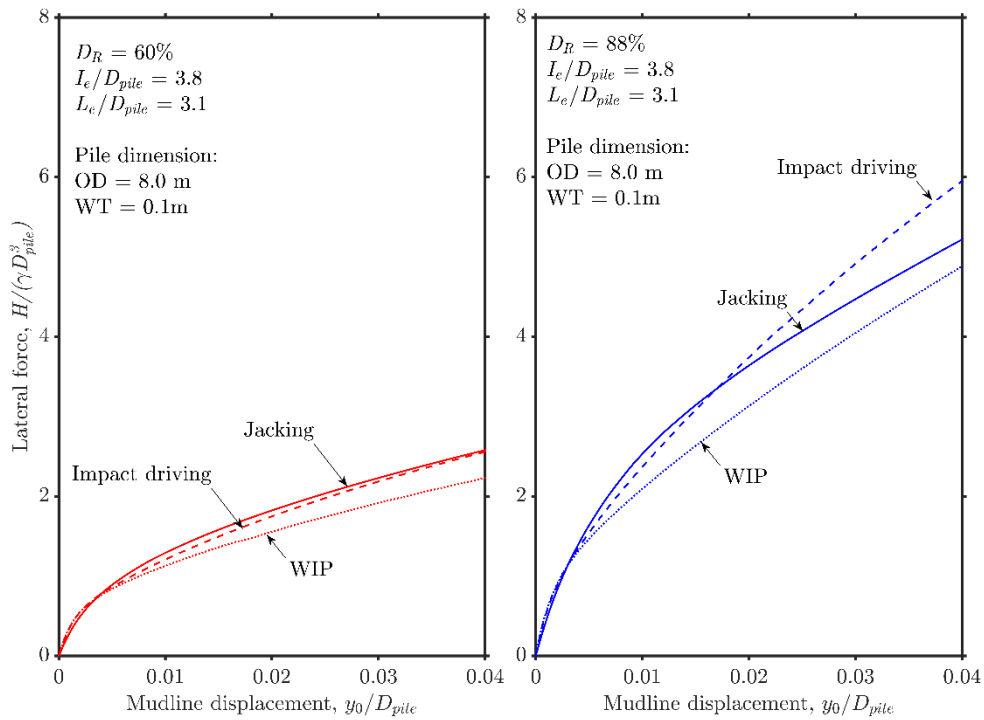
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710

711 Figure 15 Normalised load-displacement curves for 5.22 m and 8 m pile, different
 712 installation methods

713

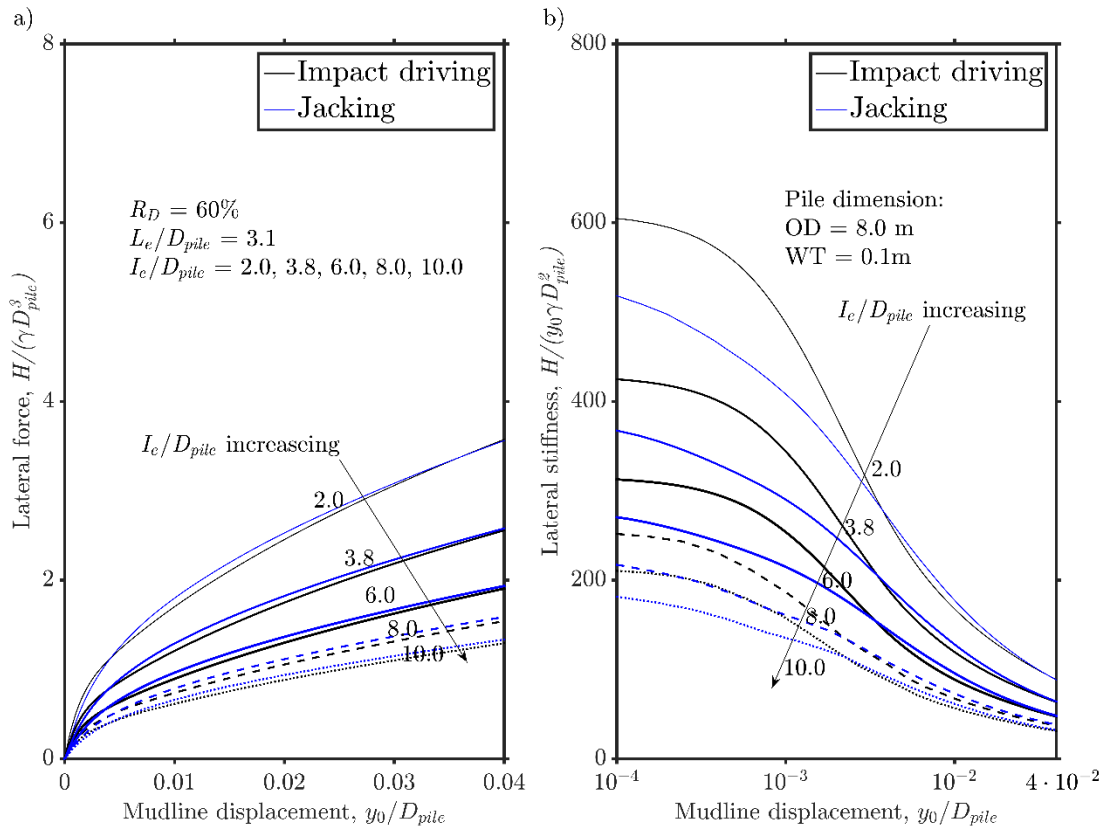


714

715 Figure 16 Normalised load-displacement curve for different initial relative density (8 m

716 pile)

717



718

719 Figure 17 Effect of load eccentricity following different installation methods (8 m pile)