

Lateral bearing factors and elastic stiffness factors for robotic CPT p-y module in undrained clay

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 There is a strong incentive to enhance in-situ ground characterisation tools to provide additional data
3 that supports early infrastructure design in engineering projects, prior to completion of laboratory
4 element testing on borehole samples. Advances in robotic technology allow additional soil deformation
5 modes to be probed by integrating a cylindrical section of cone capable of horizontal translation into an
6 expanded standard cone penetrometer, referred to here as ROBOCONE p-y module, which can mimic
7 the load and displacement behaviour of laterally loaded pile element. This paper presents a series of
8 three-dimensional elasto-plastic finite element simulations and semi-analytical upper bound analyses
9 of this p-y module in homogeneous, undrained clay. The aim is to support the optimal choice of p-y
10 module geometry and to lay the foundation of an interpretation method. In particular, the paper
11 investigates the lateral bearing factor (N_{RC}) and elastic stiffness factor (K_{RC}) required for the measured
12 load-displacement curves to be converted into practical design soil parameters such as undrained shear
13 strength and elastic shear modulus. The numerical results reveal that N_{RC} varies inversely with the
14 height-diameter ratio (H_R/D_R) of the p-y module and interface roughness, and these factors are
15 compared to semi-analytical upper-bound solutions. Correction factors that allow for the finite length
16 of the p-y module are derived, and these have minimal variation with interface roughness. The height-
17 diameter ratio H_R/D_R has a similar influence on K_{RC} . Simple mechanism-based expressions for the
18 lateral bearing and stiffness factors are devised to generalize the numerical results and provide definitive
19 solutions to determine soil undrained strength and elastic stiffness from ROBOCONE p-y module
20 measurements.

21 **Keywords:** ROBOCONE p-y module; Undrained clay; Upper bound analysis; Finite element
22 simulation; Lateral bearing factor; Elastic stiffness factor

23 1. INTRODUCTION

24 Throughout geotechnical engineering there is an impetus to improve the data that can be gathered from
25 in situ tests, because (i) these tests are performed early in the site investigation programme, and so are
26 available to designers prior to laboratory testing of samples, and (ii) in situ tests are unaffected by the
27 soil disturbance associated with sampling and lab testing. For example, to achieve the UK's 2050 net-
28 zero emission target, a substantial growth in the volume of offshore site surveys is required to support
29 the expansion of offshore renewable energy (Cerfontaine et al. 2023). To accelerate this development,
30 more efficient site characterisation tools are needed to reduce the number of lab tests that must be
31 undertaken onshore, which are currently saturating the available laboratory facilities and exploration
32 vessels.

33 The prevalent design methodology for laterally loaded piles involves the utilization of non-linear lateral
34 load-displacement (p-y) springs, wherein the stiffness and resistances are conventionally linked to soil
35 strength and stiffness parameters, or to CPT tip resistance (Matlock 1970; Byrne et al. 2020; Jeanjean
36 et al. 2022; White et al. 2022). A variety of advanced site investigation tools including pressuremeters,
37 flow-round penetrometers and flat dilatometers also exist (Houlsby and Carter 1993; Randolph et al.
38 1998; Yan et al. 2011; Truong & Lehane 2014), but have not yet found wide adoption, partly due to the
39 equipment complexity but also because of the lack of robust methods to convert their measurements
40 into soil parameters. In situ tests can be most easily applied to design if they involve loading and soil
41 deformation that closely matches the design scenario – as is the case, for example, when scaling from
42 CPT tip resistance to pile base capacity. This has led to initiatives to expand the CPT to include
43 additional aspects that more faithfully replicate the loading conditions of infrastructure throughout their
44 service life (White 2022). These include the use of new robotic and sensing techniques such as
45 implementation of a series of friction sleeves with torsional load and axial load sensing capabilities in
46 the standard CPT (Martinez & Frost 2018).

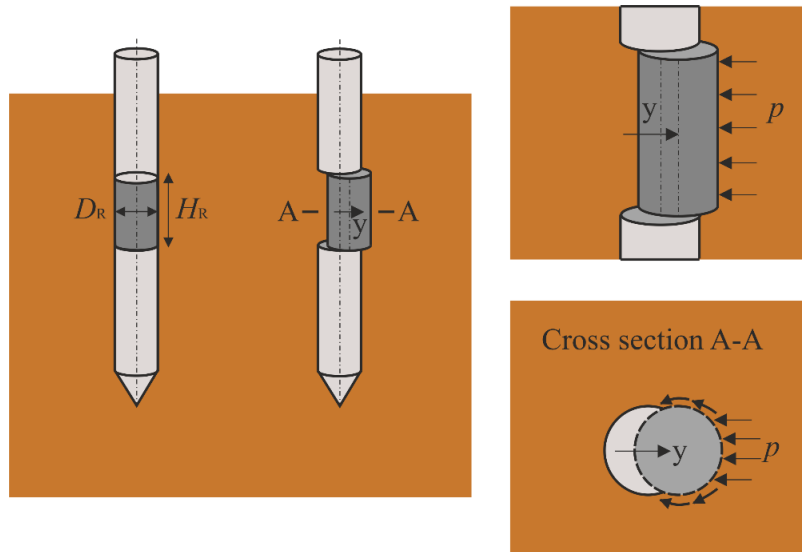
47 A further advance in this direction is integrating a short cylindrical section capable of actuating laterally
48 into the conventional CPT – referred to as a p-y module, as shown in Figure 1 (Diambra et al. 2022;

49 Creasey et al. 2023). The p-y module, with a diameter of D_R and a length of H_R , mimics the load and
50 displacement history imposed by a laterally loaded pile element, enabling the direct measurements of
51 nonlinear lateral load-displacement soil springs akin to those used in the design of laterally loaded piles
52 (Bateman et al. 2023). While the measured response can be converted into soil properties, including
53 undrained shear strength and elastic shear modulus, there exists a need of robust methodology
54 equivalent to the bearing and stiffness factor successfully developed for existing penetrometer tests (e.g.
55 Teh and Houlsby 1991, Yan et al. 2011).

56 To develop such solutions for the ROBOCONE p-y module, in this study finite element (FE) approach
57 has been adopted, following the approach used for interpretation of other in-situ ground characterisation
58 tools (Yu et al. 2005; Moavenian et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2019; Charles et al. 2020). For example, Houlsby
59 and Carter (1993) carried out analyses of undrained pressuremeter tests, and demonstrated how the
60 derived pressure-expansion curves can be converted into shear modulus and undrained shear strength
61 allowing for corrections due to the finite length-diameter ratio of a pressuremeter. Similarly, Yan et al.
62 (2011) and Stanier & White (2015) presented systematic studies of the shallowly embedded
63 hemispherical and toroidal penetrometers to develop scaling factors from the measured load-
64 displacement data to undrained strength and shear stiffness. Since the ROBOCONE p-y module is a
65 new test concept, no finite element simulations have so far been conducted to aid in the interpretation
66 of this type of soil probing.

67 The goal of this paper is to develop an interpretation framework of bearing and stiffness factors for the
68 ROBOCONE p-y module to allow the undrained strength and elastic stiffness properties of the soil to
69 be determined from monotonic load-displacement measurements. To this end, finite-element analyses
70 of a ROBOCONE p-y module in undrained soils were undertaken for a range of geometries. These
71 analyses also provide insights to support optimisation of the p-y module's geometry as well as the best
72 procedures for its deployment. An semi-analytical upper bound analysis, validated against the finite
73 element analysis, serves as the foundation of the interpretation framework.

74



76

77 Figure 1 Illustration of the ROBOCONE p-y module and its working mechanism (adapted from
78 Diambra et al. 2022)

79 2. SEMI-ANALYTICAL UPPER-BOUND ANALYSES

80 Semi-analytical upper bound limit analyses are first developed in this section for the p-y module in
81 undrained clay, making use of a postulated soil failure mechanism and equating the rate of energy
82 dissipation within the deforming soil mass to the work done by the resistance of p-y module. These
83 upper bound solutions are characterised by their simplicity and straightforwardness and serve as a
84 benchmark for the subsequent finite element simulations, particularly in terms of bearing factors.

85 The upper bound analysis for the p-y module extends the soil failure mechanism in plane strain
86 conditions initially developed for a circular infinitely long rigid pile with radius R (Martin & Randolph
87 2006). This plane strain mechanism, referred to as the ‘rigid crescent’ mechanism hereafter, assumes a
88 crescent-shaped block of soil undergoing rigid body rotation about a point on the transverse axis of pile.
89 As required by plasticity limit analysis, the soil is assumed to be an incompressible perfectly plastic
90 material with undrained shear strength s_u , while the pile-soil interface strength is characterised by a
91 constant value αs_u (where α is the interface roughness ranging from 0.0 to 1.0). The location of the
92 centre of soil rotation, at a distance of λR from the pile centre, is treated as a variable that can be

93 optimised freely to achieve a minimal bearing factor, N . As a result, the upper bound solution can be
 94 expressed as a function of λ and α , as given by Equation (1).

$$N = \frac{(1 + \lambda^2)(\pi + 2 \tan^{-1} \lambda) + \alpha\pi}{\lambda} \quad (1)$$

95 As noted in Martin & Randolph (2006), Equation (1) deduced from the rigid crescent mechanism is
 96 able to provide improved bearing factors relative to the upper-bound solution of Randolph & Houlsby
 97 (1984) for small values of $\alpha < 0.5$, as it considerably reduces the discrepancy with respect to the closed
 98 form lower-bound solution of Randolph & Houlsby (1984). Martin & Randolph (2006) describes
 99 another soil mechanism that is a combination of the innermost rigid crescent block and the surrounded
 100 zones of shearing, referred to as ‘combined mechanism’ hereafter, which demonstrates excellent
 101 accuracy across all values of α . However, this study mainly focused on the simpler rigid crescent
 102 mechanism and extended it to the three-dimensional version for the analysis of ROBOCONE p-y
 103 module.

104 Figure 2(a) shows the three-dimensional soil failure mechanism around a ROBOCONE p-y module
 105 (with a radius R) moving with a velocity v_0 in the x -direction. The failure soil is bounded by the top and
 106 bottom horizontal surfaces (referred to here as ‘end planes’), along which planar shearing occurs, with
 107 the soil above the top end plane and below the bottom end plane remaining stationary. The deformed
 108 soil volume was discretized into a series of flowing channels rotating about the vertical axis at $(0, \lambda R,$
 109 $0)$, as seen in Figure 2(a). To carry out the upper bound calculation for determining the bearing factor
 110 of the ROBOCONE p-y module (N_{RC}), it is useful to consider the shaft component and end components
 111 separately, as expressed by:

$$N_{RC} = \frac{F_{t,RC}}{D_R H_R S_u} = \frac{F_{s,RC} + F_{e,RC}}{D_R H_R S_u} = N_{s,RC} + N_{e,RC} \cdot \left(\frac{D_R}{H_R}\right) \quad (2)$$

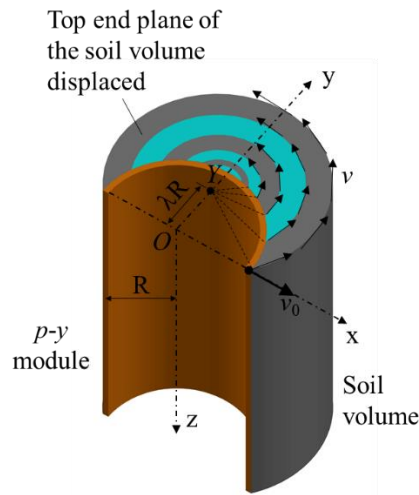
where

$$N_{s,RC} = \frac{F_{s,RC}}{D_R H_R S_u} \quad (3)$$

$$N_{e,RC} = \frac{F_{e,RC}}{D_R^2 S_u} \quad (4)$$

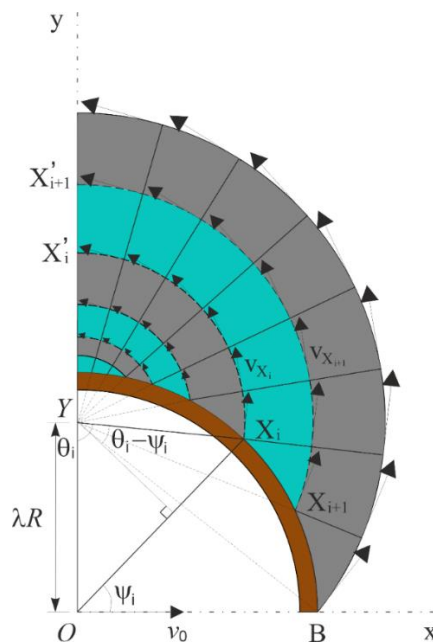
112 Where $F_{t,RC}$ is the total reaction force measured directly by p-y module equipment that can be split into
 113 the contributions by the shaft and two end planes of the soil volume displaced (referred to as $F_{s,RC}$ and

114 $F_{e,RC}$ respectively hereafter); D_R and H_R are the diameter and height of a p-y module, respectively.
 115 $N_{s,RC}$ is the shaft bearing factor that can be directly determined from Equation (1), while $N_{e,RC}$ is the
 116 end bearing factor to be derived in this study.
 117



118
 119

(a)



120
 121

(b)

122 Figure 2 (a) Three-dimensional soil failure mechanism around a p-y module moving laterally along
 123 axis x; (b) postulated soil failure mechanism at the end plane of the displaced soil volume (extended
 124 from Martin and Randolph, 2006)

125 Figure 2(b) shows the top end plane of the displaced soil volume and the associated velocity field of
 126 various stripes rotating about the centre Y ($0, \lambda R$). Following the upper bound methodology, the end
 127 bearing capacity of p-y module ($F_{e,RC}$, see Equation (3)) can be determined by equating its work done
 128 to the energy dissipation across all the shearing stripes over the end plane, as given by:

$$F_{e,RC} \cdot v_0 = 2 \cdot 4s_u \int v(i) \cdot A(i) di \quad (5)$$

129 Where $v(i)$ and $A(i)$ are the average velocity and area of the i -th shearing stripes respectively. The
 130 factor of 4 represents the complete end plane, as only a quarter of the mechanism is represented in
 131 Figure 2b. The factor of 2 stands for the contribution from both the top and bottom end planes.

132 Considering the i -th soil shearing stripe $X_i X_{i+1} X'_i X'_{i+1}$ (coloured in cyan), the coordinates of the point
 133 X_i on the circumference is given by $(R \cos \psi_i, R \sin \psi_i)$. Meanwhile, the associated angle θ_i formed by
 134 lines YO and $X_i Y$ can be expressed as a function of ψ_i :

$$\theta_i = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{\cos \psi_i}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda^2 - 2\lambda \sin \psi_i}} \right) \quad \text{when } \psi_i \leq \sin^{-1} \lambda \quad (6)$$

$$\theta_i = \pi - \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{\cos \psi_i}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda^2 - 2\lambda \sin \psi_i}} \right) \quad \text{when } \psi_i > \sin^{-1} \lambda \quad (7)$$

135 The soil velocity at the point X_i on the circumference (v_{X_i}) is a product of angular velocity $\omega = v_0/\lambda R$
 136 and the length of $X_i Y$, as given by:

$$|v_{X_i}| = \omega \cdot X_i Y = \frac{v_0}{\lambda R} \cdot \frac{\lambda R \cos \psi_i}{\cos(\theta_i - \psi_i)} = \frac{v_0 \cos \psi_i}{\cos(\theta_i - \psi_i)} \quad (8)$$

137 The average velocity across this shearing stripe is approximately calculated by:

$$v(i) = \frac{v_{X_i} + v_{X_{i+1}}}{2} \quad (9)$$

138 The width of this shearing stripe has magnitude:

$$W(i) = X_{i+1} Y - X_i Y \quad (10)$$

139 The average length of this shearing stripe is given by:

$$L(i) = \frac{X_{i+1}X'_{i+1} + X_iX'_i}{2} = \frac{X_iY \cdot (\pi - \theta_i) + X_{i+1}Y \cdot (\pi - \theta_i)}{2} \quad (11)$$

140 The area of this shearing stripe is given by:

$$A(i) = W(i) \cdot L(i) \quad (12)$$

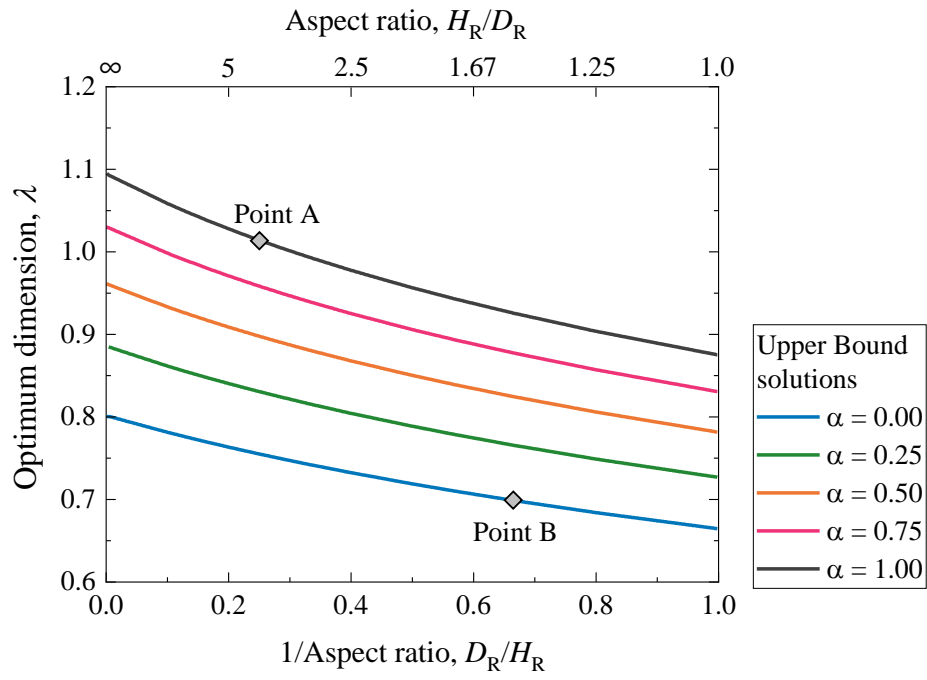
141 Substituting the Equations (4-12) into Equation (3) can yield the expression for the end bearing factor

142 $N_{e,RC}$ as:

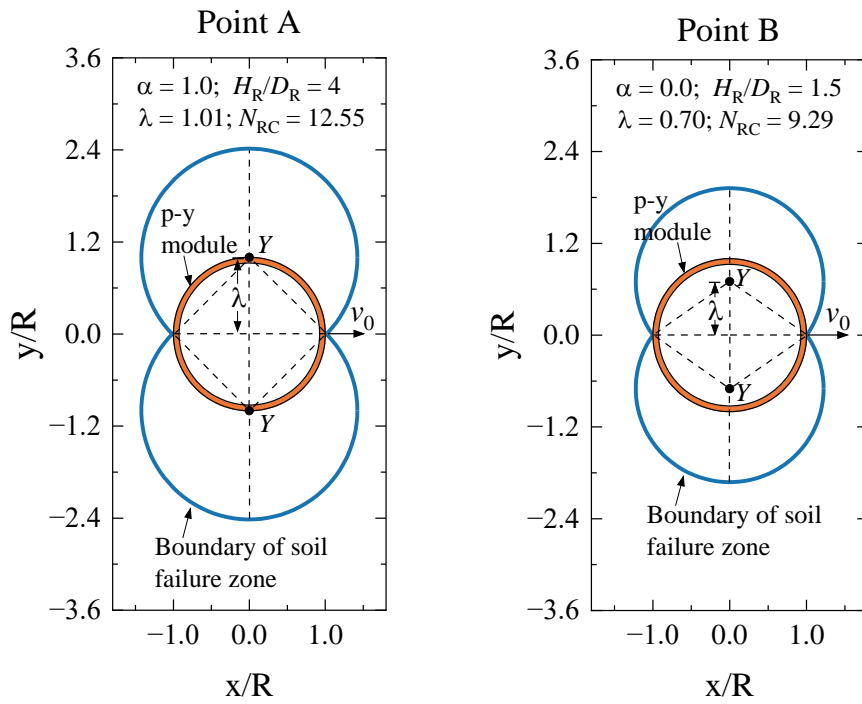
$$N_{e,RC} = \frac{F_{e,RC}}{s_u D_R^2} = \frac{8 \int v(i) \cdot A(i) di}{v_0 \cdot D_R^2} \quad (13)$$

143 The Equation (13) allows to calculate the $N_{e,RC}$ through numerical integration, recognising that it is
 144 unlikely to produce an explicit expression. In this case, λ is treated as a variable that can be optimised
 145 freely to achieve the minimum of $N_{e,RC}$ for a particular interface roughness factor (α). Note that the
 146 total bearing factor ($N_{e,RC}$) is independent of the p-y module's moving velocity v_0 .

147 Figure 3 (a) shows a family of optimum λ values obtained for various aspect ratios ($1.0 < H_R/D_R < \infty$)
 148 and interface roughness ($0.0 < \alpha < 1.0$). As noted earlier, the λ , from a physical perspective, is relevant
 149 to the size of soil volume that was in plastic failure due to the horizontal translation of p-y module (see
 150 Figure 2). At a specific interface roughness factor, λ is found to increase with the aspect ratio, indicating
 151 a bigger failure envelope area for longer p-y module and vice versa, as illustrated in Figure 3 (b).
 152 Furthermore, at a specific aspect ratio of p-y module, the failure envelope expands as the interface
 153 roughness increases, aligning with observations made by Martin & Randolph (2006). Figure 3 (c) shows
 154 the enhancement of total bearing factors with the increase in both interface roughness and aspect ratios.
 155 Taking advantage of Equation (2), it can be inferred that the end bearing factors ($N_{e,RC}$) are
 156 approximately 34% of the shaft bearing factor ($N_{s,RC}$), with slight fluctuation associated with the
 157 interface roughness.



(a)



(b)

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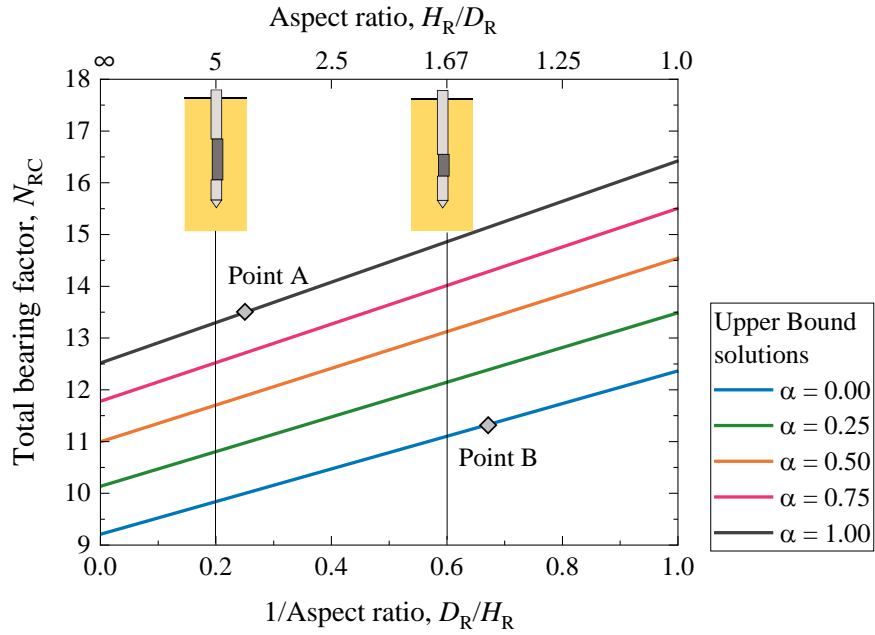
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(c)

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Figure 3 (a) Optimum λ as a function of aspect ratio (H_R/D_R) and interface roughness (α); (b)

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normalised failure envelop around p-y module with two representative conditions; (c) semi-analytical

168

bearing factor as a function of aspect ratio and interface roughness

169 3. FINITE ELEMENT MODEL

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The finite element analyses presented in this study were carried out with the commercial software

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PLAXIS 3D V23 (PLAXIS 2023). Taking advantage of the double symmetry of p-y module geometry,

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only a quadrant of model was simulated to reduce the computational cost while maintaining accuracy.

173

Figure 4 illustrates the layout of the ROBOCONE system (including shaft, rings and moveable p-y

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module) embedded in the soil domain. The CPT shaft had an external diameter of 54 mm and a wall

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thickness of 2 mm, following the specification of the prototype p-y module (Creasey et al. 2023),

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although all results are presented in a normalised form to be applicable to any scale of device. The

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height (H_R) of the p-y module was treated as a key variable whose influence on the p-y module response

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is to be investigated systematically. Note that five moveable rings were modelled between the p-y

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module and the fixed shaft above, with dimensions that match the rings on the prototype device. These

180

rings also allow to minimise the mesh distortion near the top of p-y module during lateral movement.

181 A cylindrical soil domain, with a thickness of 0.5 m and a diameter of 1.68 m (approximately $30D_R$),
182 was specified to avoid any boundary effects on the response of p-y module, based on prior analyses that
183 assessed this effect. Horizontal radial fixity in directions X and Y (Figure 4) was applied at the boundary,
184 while the symmetry planes ($Y_{\min} = 0$ and $Z_{\min} = 0$) were normally fixed to prevent orthogonal movements.

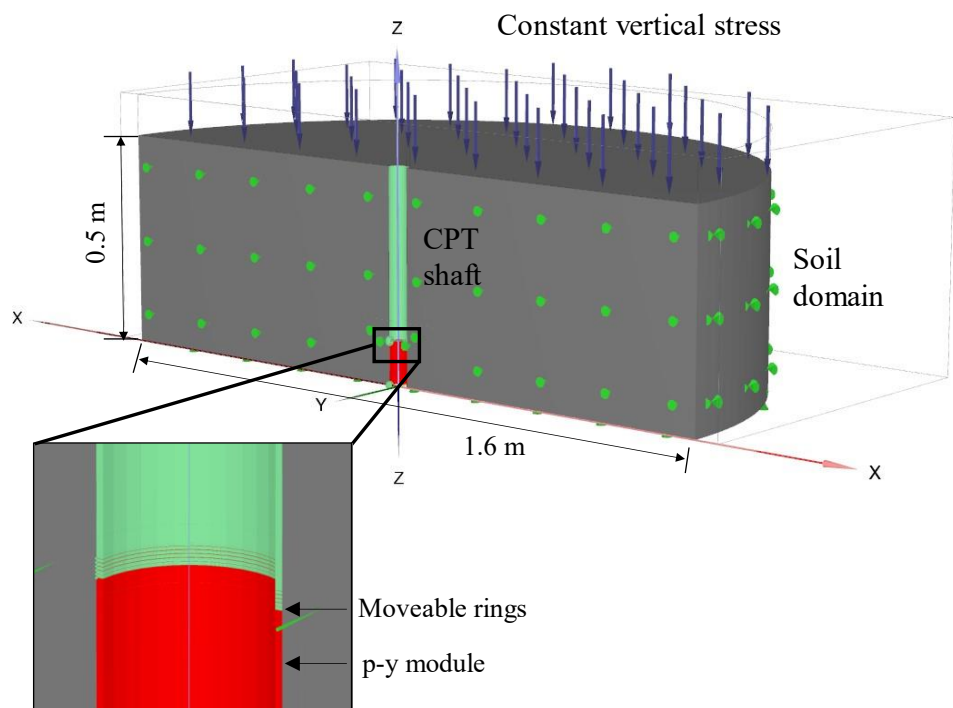
185 The soil domain was discretised by a range of second-order tetrahedral elements, each with 10-nodes
186 and four Gaussian integration points. A finer discretisation was designated close to the p-y module
187 where stress concentrations are found and to minimise the mesh dependency of FE results. The
188 ROBOCONE system (including shaft, a stack of rings and moveable p-y module) was treated as a rigid
189 body with six degrees of freedoms to be imposed or fixed, with the number of elements varying based
190 on the p-y module geometry. The soil-structure interaction was modelled using “zero-thickness”
191 interface elements.

192 The soil was modelled as a weightless, homogeneous, undrained material, using linear isotropic
193 elasticity and a Tresca failure criterion for plasticity. An associated flow rule was assumed.
194 Consequently, the soil was characterised in terms of shear modulus (G) and undrained shear strength
195 (s_u). A tension cut-off option was specified for the clay, with zero tensile strength, although the
196 confinement around the ROBOCONE prevented any gaps opening up at the failure load. While this
197 constitutive model simplifies undrained soil behaviour and does not capture the sensitivity of the shear
198 modulus to strain levels, it is sufficient to study the elastoplastic behaviour of the p-y module to find
199 initial stiffness and ultimate bearing factors, following the same approach used for other devices such
200 as the pressuremeter (Houlsby and Carter 1993). Two constant values of s_u ($=30$ kPa) and G ($=4.6$ MPa)
201 were specified in the subsequent FE analyses. Since bearing and stiffness factors in this study were both
202 calculated from forces normalised with respect to s_u and G , the FE results are independent of the choice
203 of a specific value.

204 The mechanical behaviour of the interface elements for soil-structure interaction was modelled using
205 the linearly elastic-perfectly plastic model, for which the maximum shear strength is defined as αs_u ,
206 with $0 < \alpha \leq 1.0$. The interface normal and shear stiffness were initially specified as $K_{s,i} = 4.7 \times 10^5$ kN/m³,

207 $K_{n,i} = 5.17 \times 10^6 \text{ kN/m}^3$ respectively, to avoid numerical issues created by low stiffness associated with
208 the automatic calculation of K_s and K_n at low α values.

209 The initial simulation phase established an isotropic stress state within the soil domain by enforcing a
210 uniform vertical surcharging stress (=100 kPa for all FE analyses) at the top of soil domain and
211 specifying $K_0 = 1.0$ to generate horizontal stress. The surcharging pressure reflects the embedment of
212 the p-y module, although the FE results were independent of this choice, as the soil undrained strength
213 and stiffness are independent on the confining stress, and no gap was able to form behind the
214 ROBOCONE. Any soil deformation as a result of surcharging pressure was re-zeroed before activating
215 the entire ROBOCONE system (i.e. CPT shaft, rings and p-y module). The horizontal loading of the p-
216 y module was simulated in a displacement-controlled mode until the displacement reaches $10\% D_R$. The
217 stack of rings was also assigned displacement-controlled movement with a linear variation with their
218 individual vertical positions, giving a smooth transition between the moving p-y module and stationary
219 CPT shaft. Note that the reaction forces considered in the subsequent interpretations were measured
220 only on the ROBOCONE p-y module and not on the sliding rings, taking advantage of the ability to
221 recover reaction forces at a reference point of a rigid body (PLAXIS 2023).



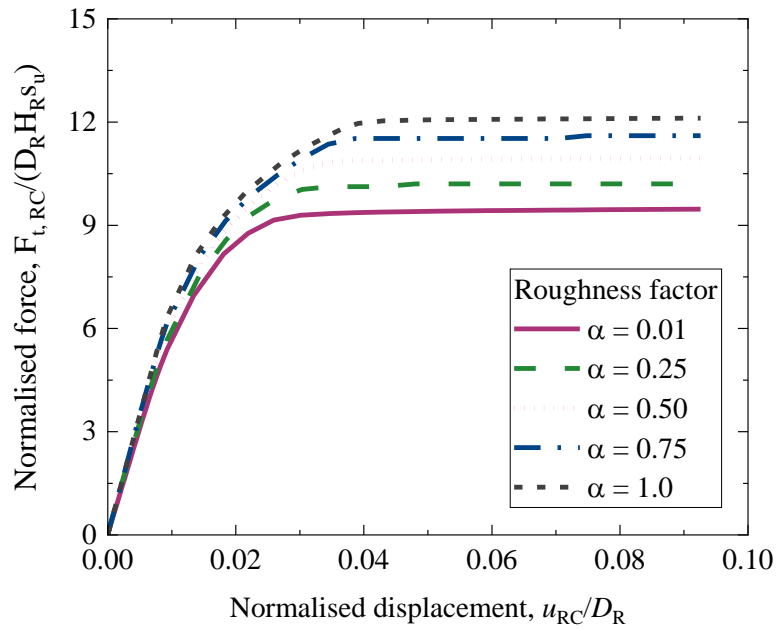
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223 Figure 4 The geometry and boundary conditions for ROBOCONE device in undrained soils

224 4. RESULTS: LATERAL BEARING FACTORS

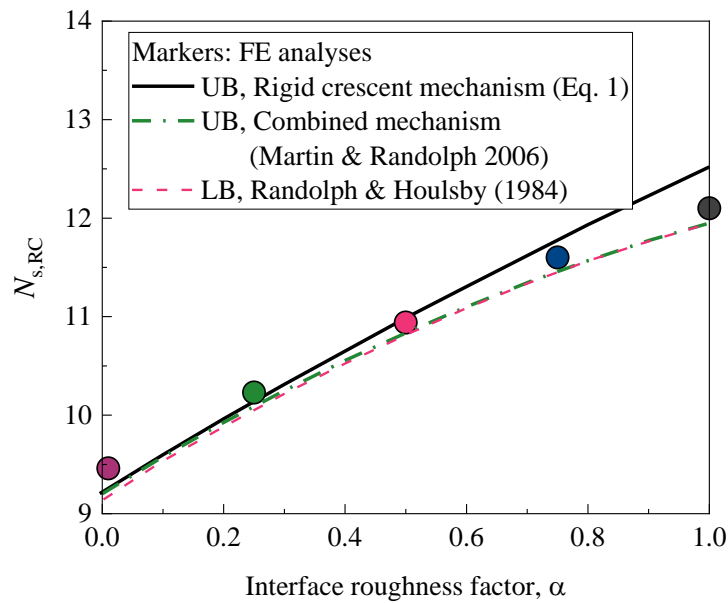
225 In order to validate the numerical model, simulations were initially conducted for the p-y module with
226 infinite height, i.e. plane strain conditions to eliminate end effects, allowing for a direct comparison
227 with the upper bound solutions developed in Martin and Randolph (2006). Figure 5 shows the variation
228 with the normalised lateral reaction forces measured on the p-y module ($F_{t,RC}/(D_R H_R S_u)$) with the
229 normalised lateral movements (u_{RC}/D_R), while the interface roughness factors (α) range from 0.01 to
230 1.0. Note that the minimum roughness factor of 0.01 was adopted in the present study to ensure the
231 numerical stability, while in the previous semi-analytical upper bound analysis α was strictly set equal
232 to be 0. All results indicate an initially linear behaviour followed by a plateau after a displacement of
233 roughly between 2% D_R and 4% D_R . The value of the plateau is used to calculate the lateral bearing
234 factor of p-y module following the definition in Equations (2). A significant increase in bearing factors
235 is anticipated with an increase in the roughness factor, consistent with the previous discussion in the
236 upper limit analyses, though a negligible impact of roughness factor on the initial elastic stiffness is
237 observed, a detail to be explored in subsequent discussions.

238 Figure 6 compares bearing factors from the FE analysis with classical plasticity solutions of the bearing
239 factors for infinitely long rigid piles, including the upper-bound solutions using the rigid crescent
240 mechanism (Eq 1) and the combined mechanism (Martin & Randolph 2006) and the lower-bound (LB)
241 solutions by Randolph and Houlsby (1984). It is seen that FE analyses demonstrate an increase in the
242 bearing factors by around 28% as the interface roughness varies from 0.01 to 1.0, while the numerical
243 model slightly underestimates the bearing factors at $\alpha > 0.5$ compared to the upper bound solution from
244 the rigid crescent mechanism. This discrepancy can be attributed to the fact that the rigid crescent
245 mechanism by Martin & Randolph (2006) gives the most accurate results for the interfaces with small
246 roughness factor. Moreover, FE bearing factors appear to be more consistent with the upper-bound
247 solutions from the combined mechanism and the LB solutions of Randolph & Houlsby (1984) over the
248 whole range of α , validating the robust reliability of the FE simulations in this study.



249

250 Figure 5 Predicted behaviour of the plane strain p-y module with various interface roughness



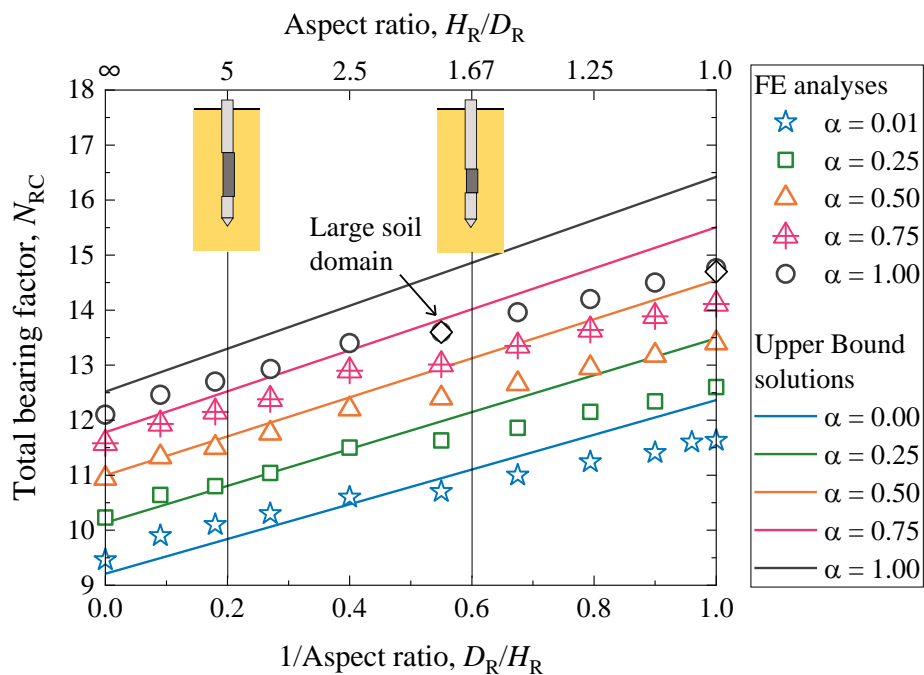
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252 Figure 6 Comparison between numerical shaft factor $N_{s,RC}$ shown by circular markers corresponding
 253 to interface roughness indicated in Figure 5, and classical plasticity solutions shown by lines

254 Figure 7 presents a family of bearing factors for the finite length p-y module, characterised by the aspect
 255 ratio (H_R/D_R) and the interface roughness. This highlights the ‘end effect’ introduced and discussed in
 256 the upper bound solution. Each marker in this figure represents a single FE simulation, while the
 257 continuous lines correspond to the upper bound solutions. It is clear that at a specific H_R/D_R , numerical
 258 bearing factors increase by 26%-28% with interface roughness factor increased from 0.01 to 1.0, similar

259 to that for the infinite p-y module (see Figure 5). Furthermore, at a specific interface roughness, the
 260 bearing factors indicate a nearly linear growth with inverse H_R/D_R , consistent with the developed semi-
 261 analytical solution in Equation (2), although they have different gradients. Two additional numerical
 262 models with larger soil domains ($\approx 148D_R$ diameter) produce nearly identical bearing factors, implying
 263 the size of soil domain adopted in Figure 4 is sufficient to avoid any boundary effects. The discrepancy
 264 between the upper bound solution and the FE results ranges from 9.2% on average in plane strain
 265 conditions to 39.1% at the lowest aspect ratio ($=1.0$). A closer analysis of the failure mechanism from
 266 the FE simulation can inform this discrepancy, as discussed later.

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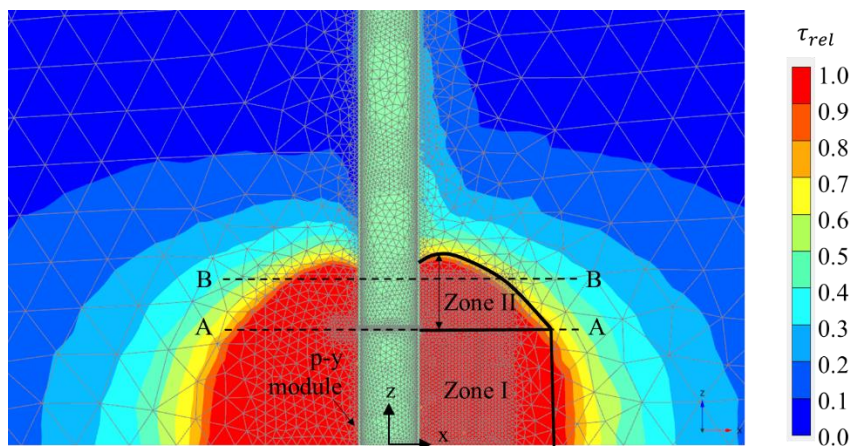
269 Figure 7 Comparison of bearing factors between numerical and semi-analytical upper bound analyses

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271 Figure 8 shows contours of relative shear stress (τ_{rel}) near a representative p-y module ($H_R/D_R = 4.0$,
 272 $\alpha = 0.8$) at a lateral movement of $4\%D_R$, where ultimate capacity is considered to be fully mobilised
 273 (i.e. at the plastic plateau, see Figure 5). Note that the relative shear stress (τ_{rel}) is defined as the ratio
 274 of the mobilised shear stress to the undrained shear strength (s_u), which offers an indication of the
 275 proximity of the stress point to the failure envelope. As seen in Figure 8 (a), a clear failure zone ($\tau_{rel} =$

276 1.0) symmetry to the CPT longitudinal is identified, which can roughly be identified into a cylindrical
 277 volume (Zone I) and a cap zone (Zone II) extending above the p-y module. The same mechanisms were
 278 observed in other simulations with different H_R/D_R ratios and interface roughness. This might explain
 279 partially the difference in bearing factor between numerical and semi-analytical analyses as shown in
 280 Figure 7, as the upper bound solution assumes soil failure only occurs right in front of and behind the
 281 p-y module. It is interesting to note that the area of the plastic failure Zone II is similar for p-y modules
 282 with different H_R/D_R ratios at the same lateral movements, which will be marked by a similar
 283 displacement field in this zone, as discussed subsequently. Figure 8 (b) and (c) show the distribution of
 284 relative shear stress across two representative horizontal cross sections. As seen in Cross section A-A,
 285 a nearly axisymmetric failure zone took place within the soil domain as the p-y module moves laterally,
 286 leading to a high deviatoric stress area in that zone. However, the failure area ($\tau_{rel} = 1.0$) along the
 287 cross-section B-B is not axisymmetric; instead, a relatively thin failure zone is observed in the direction
 288 normal to the p-y module movements, where the soil was considered to be less disturbed.

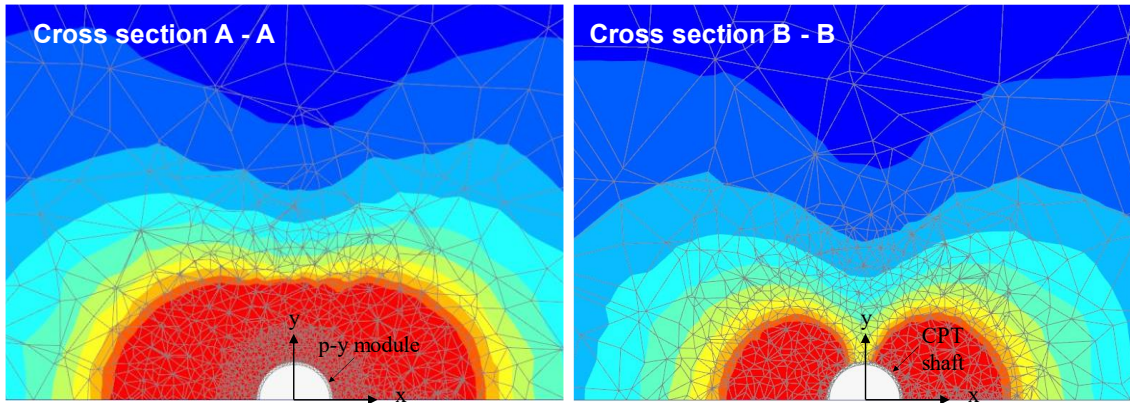
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(a)



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(b)

(c)

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Figure 8 Contours of the relative shear stress field near the p-y module moving along x axis: (a) longitudinal cross section; (b) lateral (A-A) cross section at the level of p-y module end; (c) lateral (B-B) cross section at the level of $1.0 D_R$ from the p-y module end

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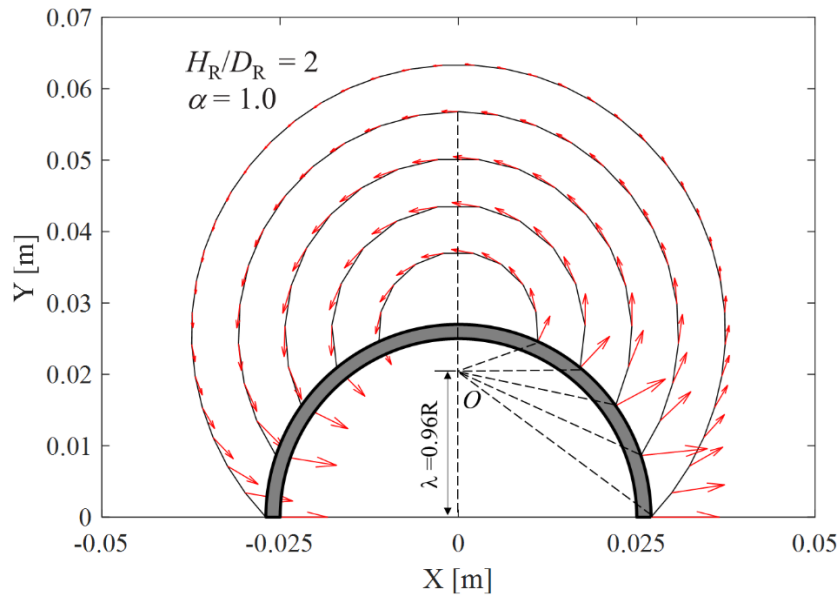
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Successful development of an upper bound plasticity solutions relies on the accuracy of the postulated soil failure mechanism (Randolph and Houlsby 1984). To compare the postulated and simulated mechanisms, the upper bound analysis was compared with the field of incremental plastic displacement at the end of the FE analysis along the cross-section A-A, which represent the soil velocity at points along the failure mechanism. Figure 9 shows the incremental displacement field interpolated from the FE results along a series of streamlines that were centred at O and defined by the actual λ values for the given H_R / D_R ratios and α (see Figure 3a). These streamlines fall within the soil failure zone identified in the Figure 8 where the plastic deformation occurs. The vectors of incremental plastic displacement are generally tangential to these streamlines, consistent with the assumption in Figure 2, while the main exceptions can be found in the region directly in front of and behind the p-y module, where the soil primarily shifts in the x-direction with the p-y module in FE simulations. Also, the vector lengths, indicative of the magnitudes of incremental plastic displacements, are more uniformly distributed across these streamlines in the case with $\alpha = 0.01$ than that with $\alpha = 1.0$. This observation aligns with the previous postulation in Martin & Randolph (2006) that the soil failure pattern adopted in the present study is more consistent with smooth interface, which also caused an increasing discrepancy in the bearing factor when interface becomes rough.

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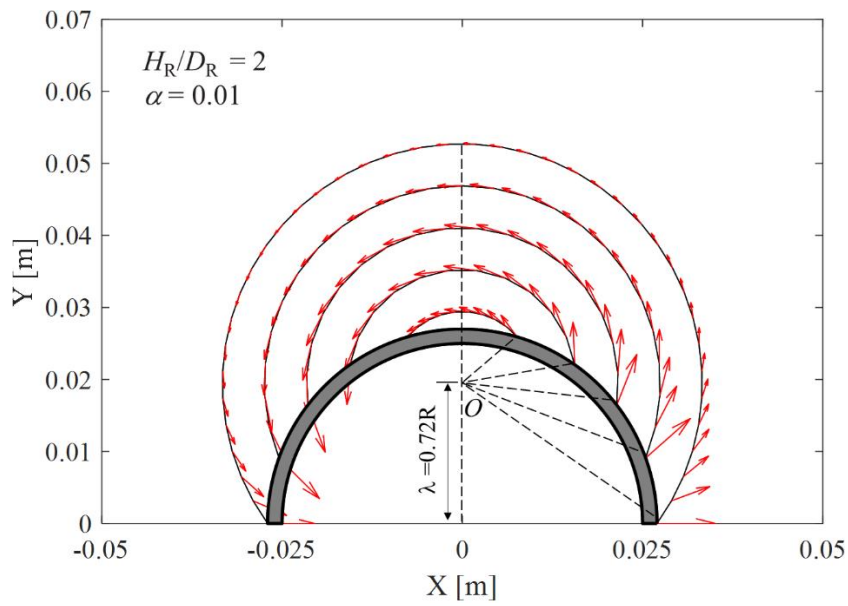
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(a)

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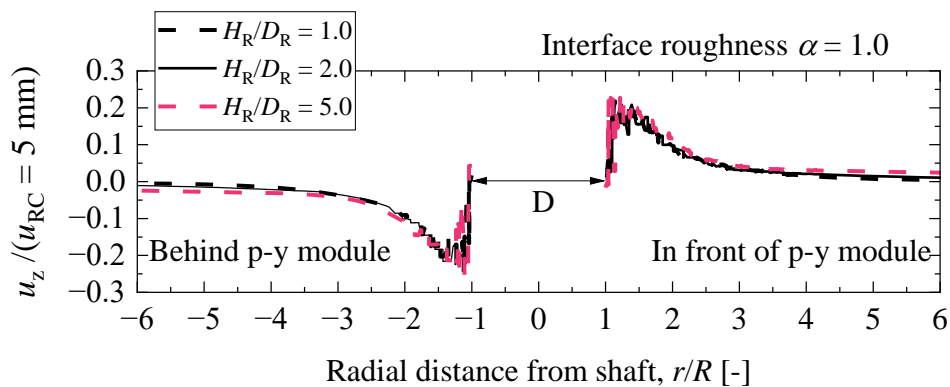
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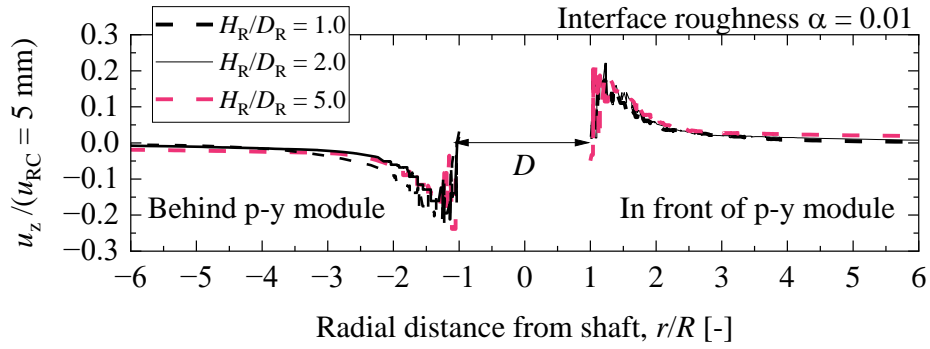
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Figure 9 Incremental plastic displacement at the end of the analysis at the end plane along the streamlines assumed in the upper bound analyses: (a) rough interface with $\alpha = 1.0$; (b) quasi-smooth interface with $\alpha = 0.01$

323 While the previous upper bound solution considered a two-dimensional soil failure mechanism at the
 324 end plane of the p-y module, the numerical analysis reveals an apparent three-dimensional deformation
 325 pattern in that region. Figure 10 (a) illustrates the variation of soil vertical displacement with the
 326 normalised radial distance from the shaft at the elevation of the p-y module end plane. The vertical
 327 displacement is normalised by the current horizontal movement of the p-y module (in this case $u_{RC} = 5$
 328 mm). It is clear that the normalised displacement in the front of the moveable part increases sharply to
 329 around 0.25 followed by an abrupt drop prior to stabilising towards zero at far radial distances ($\approx 6R$).
 330 A similar pattern of the soil vertical displacement is observed behind the p-y module, although moving
 331 downwards. The displacement profiles remain essentially constant irrespective of aspect ratios,
 332 consistent with the previous statement that the failure Zone II (see Figure 8) has similar characteristics
 333 regardless of the H_R/D_R ratios. The impact of the interface roughness is also explored through
 334 considering the same displacements with an interface roughness $\alpha = 0.01$, while no evident effect is
 335 identified as seen in Figure 10 (b). Figure 10 (c) shows the evolution of vertical displacement at six
 336 points that are symmetrical to the vertical axis of the p-y module against the current p-y module lateral
 337 movement. As expected, the trends of these curves are symmetrical in front of and behind p-y module
 338 and they initially behave linearly prior to the plastic yielding. Though soil elements at far distance from
 339 shaft seem eventually to reach a plateau, at the closest points their vertical displacement keeps
 340 increasing with the lateral movement of p-y module.



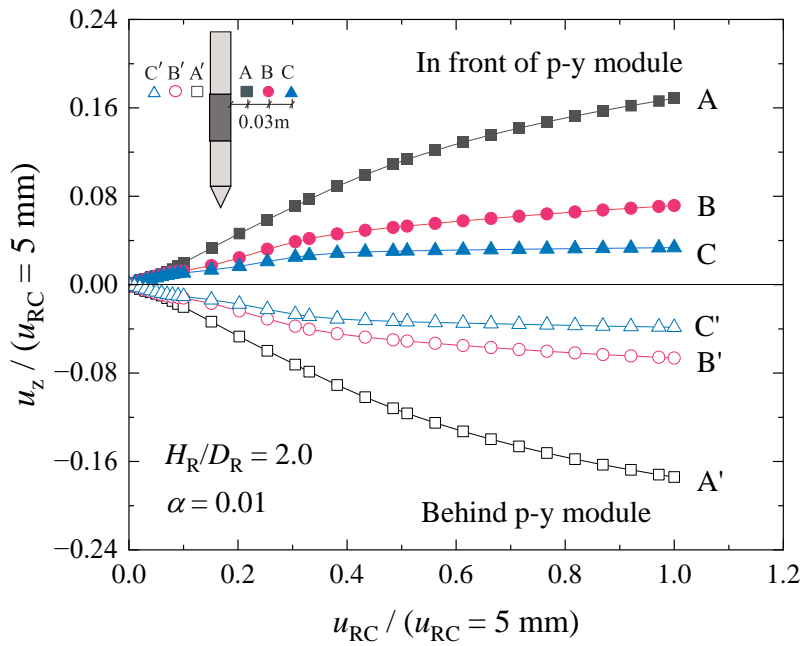
341 (a)
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(b)



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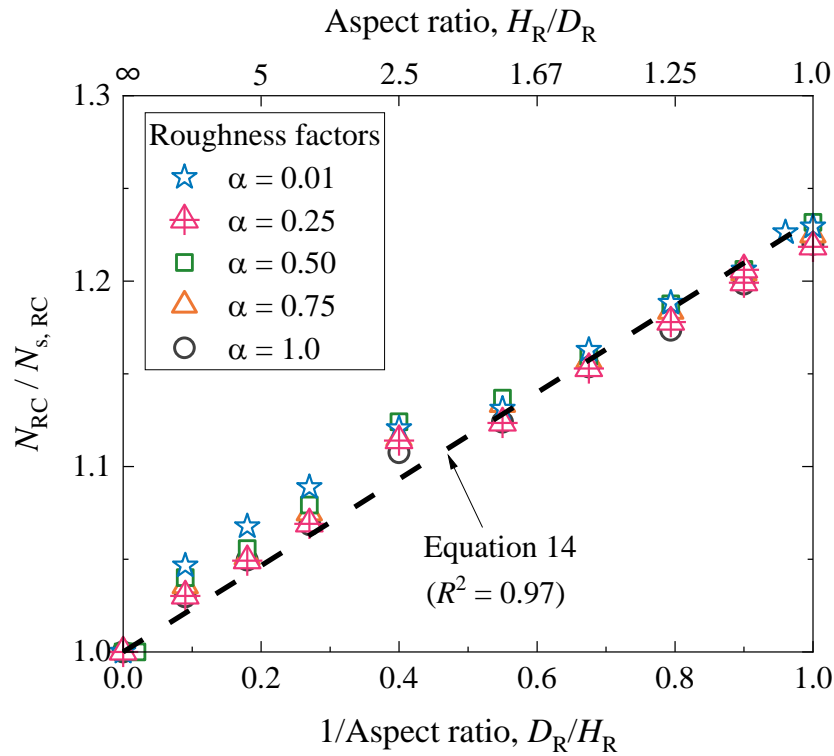
(c)

347 Figure 10 (a) Profiles of soil vertical displacement at the end plane ($\alpha = 0.01$); (b) Profiles of soil
 348 vertical displacement at the end plane ($\alpha = 1.0$); (c) Evolution of vertical movement at representative
 349 soil elements throughout the horizontal translation of p-y module

350 A mechanism-based model, depending on α and H_R/D_R ratios and validated against the FE results was
 351 developed to facilitate a practical design process. The numerically calculated bearing factor (N_{RC}) was
 352 normalised by the numerical plane strain bearing factor ($N_{S,RC}$). Figure 11 shows that the normalised
 353 $N_{RC}/N_{S,RC}$ describes a linear relationship if plotted against the aspect ratio, irrespective of the interface
 354 roughness. This trend, implying an end bearing factor approximately 23% of the shaft bearing factor in
 355 plane strain conditions, can be reflected by the empirical Equation (14), with the coefficient of

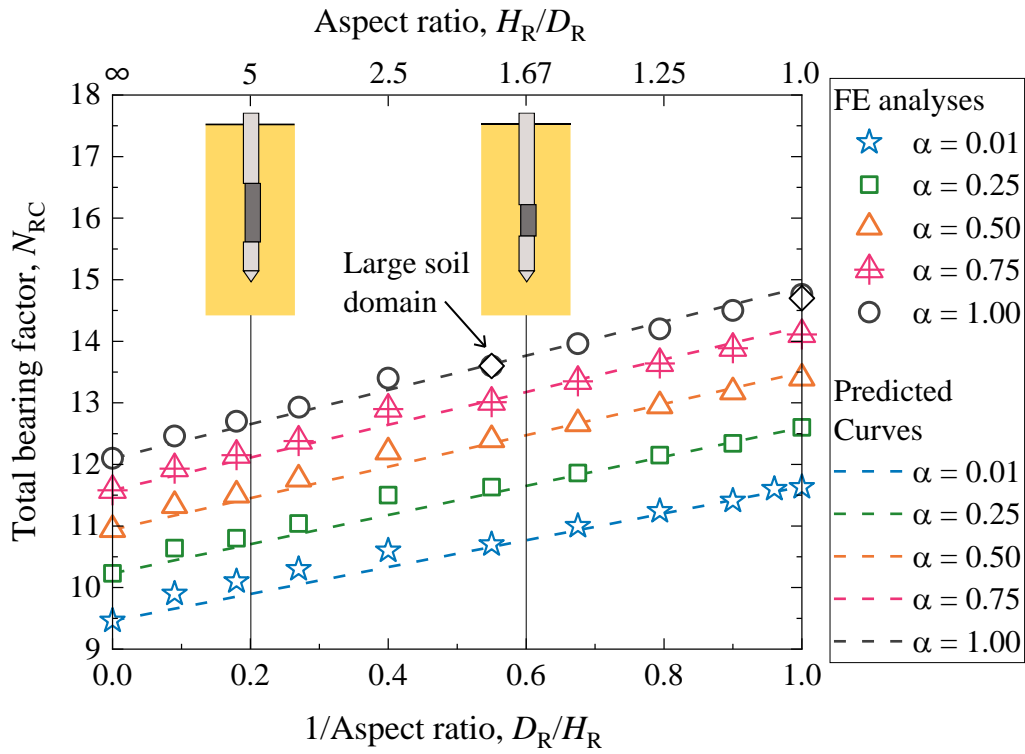
356 determination (R^2) of 0.97. The employment of numerical bearing factor in plane strain conditions (see
 357 Figure 6) and Eq. (14) facilitate to produce the bearing factor graph, as shown in Figure 12, which
 358 indicates a reasonable match to FE results.

$$N_{RC} = \left[1 + \frac{N_{e,RC}}{N_{s,RC}} \cdot \left(\frac{D_R}{H_R} \right) \right] N_{s,RC} = \left[1 + 0.23 \cdot \left(\frac{D_R}{H_R} \right) \right] N_{s,RC} \quad (14)$$



359

360 Figure 11 Normalised bearing factor $N_{RC}/N_{s,RC}$ and the approximating expression in Eq. (14)



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362

Figure 12 Predicted lateral bearing factors by Eq. (14) compared to numerical FE results

363

5. RESULTS: ELASTIC STIFFNESS FACTORS

364

Figure 13 shows the illustrative load displacement response of a typical p-y module, where the reaction

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force ($F_{t,RC}$) is normalised by the product of the length and diameter of the p-y module ($H_R D_R$) and the

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lateral movement (u_{RC}) is normalised by the p-y module diameter (i.e. u_{RC}/D_R). The initial slope of the

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p-y module load-displacement response can be related to the elastic shear modulus (G) of the material,

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which behaves elastically at small strain. The secant stiffness is plotted on a logarithmic scale as a

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function of normalised lateral displacement (u_{RC}/D_R) to highlight the small-scale behaviour of the

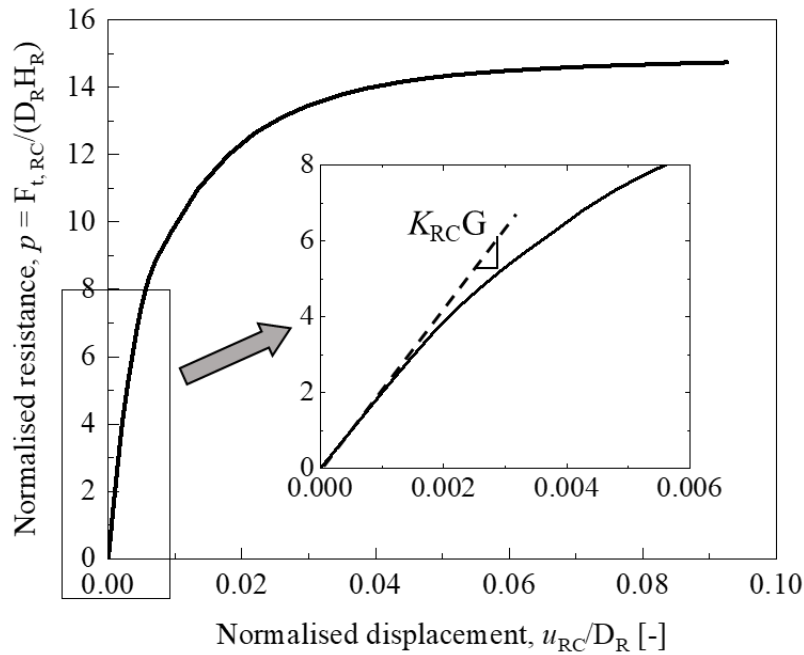
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module, where the maximum secant stiffness at small displacement can be linked to elastic shear

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module through the use of elastic stiffness factor (k_{RC}).

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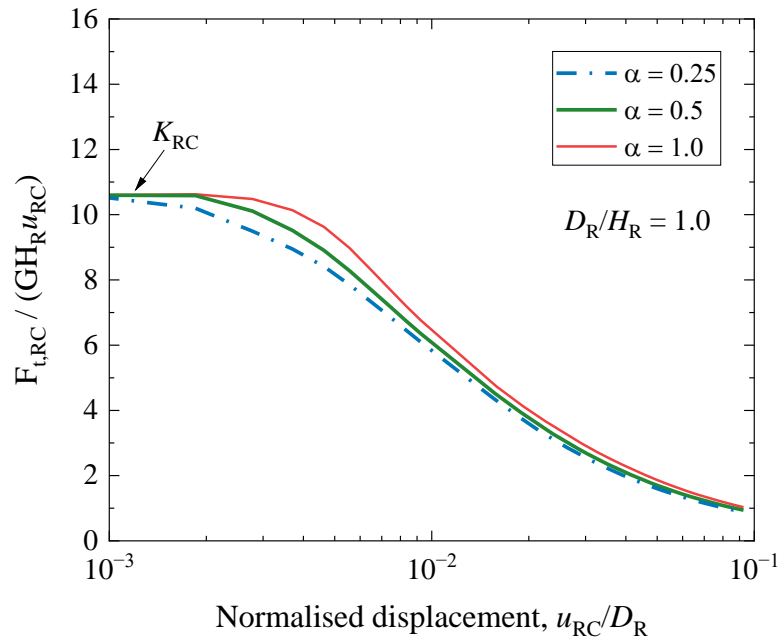
374 Figure 13 Typical p-y module load-displacement response for interpretation of stiffness factor (K_{RC})

375

376 Figure 14 (a) shows the influence of interface roughness on the evolution of normalised secant stiffness
 377 against the lateral module movement (u_{RC}/D_R) of a p-y module, while adopting $H_R/D_R = 1.0$ and default
 378 interface stiffness of $K_{s,i} = 4.7 \text{ E}5 \text{ kN/m}^3$ and $K_{n,i} = 5.17 \text{ E}6 \text{ kN/m}^3$. The stiffness factor K_{RC} is defined
 379 as the plateau in normalised stiffness at very small displacements. It is observed that interface roughness
 380 α has a marginal effect on the K_{RC} at initial loading, though it does influence the degradation of the
 381 normalised secant stiffness. This is due to the fact that α only controls the interface strength and
 382 transition from sticking to slipping states. At very small displacements, the interface is still “elastic”
 383 (sticking phase), hence α has no influence.

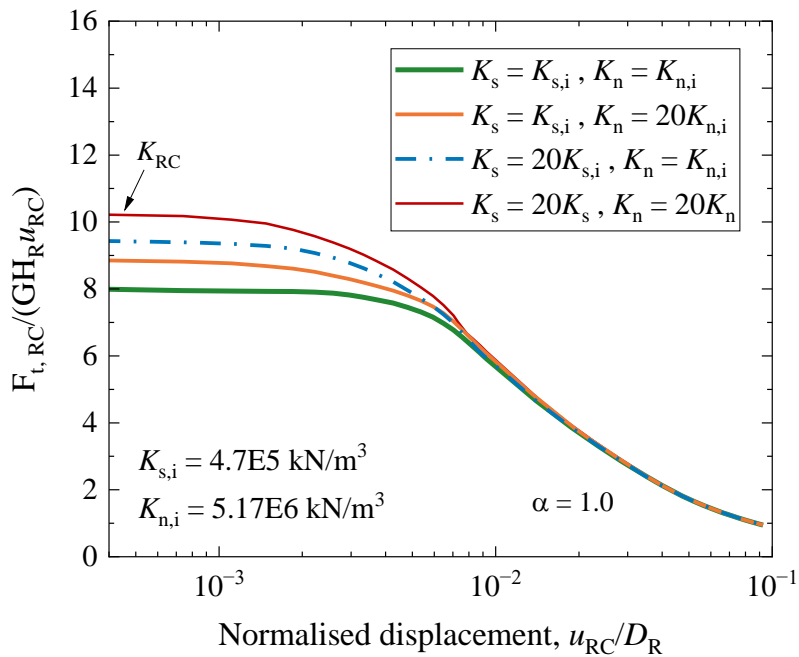
384 Figure 14(b) shows that increasing interface stiffness (K_s and K_n) enhances the normalised secant
 385 stiffness and stiffness factor (K_{RC}). This is due to the penalty approach to simulate the zero-thickness
 386 interface behaviour, which induces additional compliance due to the interpenetration of the structural
 387 and soil meshes (Cerfontaine et al. 2015). Increasing the normal stiffness (K_n) reduces this
 388 interpenetration, which is more realistic. Results indicate that the initial stiffness factors seem to
 389 converge to a certain value when employing larger K_s and K_n values.

390 Figure 14 (c) shows the considerable influence of the aspect ratio H_R/D_R on the stiffness factor K_R , while
 391 adopting the default interface stiffness and $\alpha = 1.0$. The lower the H_R/D_R , the markedly stiffer the initial
 392 response, indicating the important role of end effects in the shorter p-y module. These sensitivity
 393 analyses serve a basis for producing a stiffness factor graph similar to that for the bearing factor (see
 394 Figure 12).



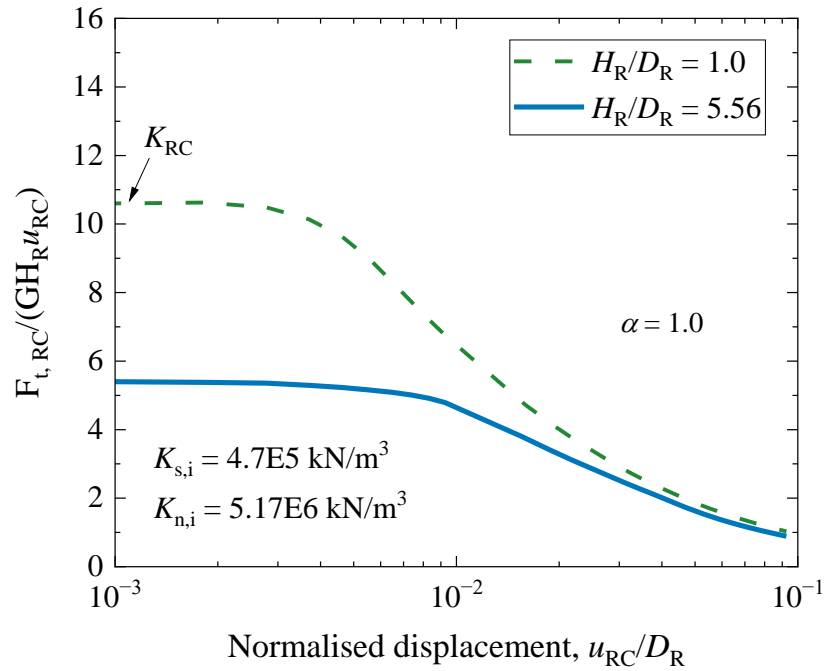
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(a)



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(b)



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(c)

401 Figure 14 Sensitivity of stiffness factor to (a) interface roughness α ; (b) interface stiffness parameters

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K_s and K_n ; (c) aspect ratio, H_R/D_R

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Figure 15 summarises the stiffness factors corresponding to different p-y module aspect ratio H_R/D_R

404

ranging from infinity to unity. Each marker represents a single FE simulation. It is clear that the stiffness

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factor increases with the inverse of the H_R/D_R ratio. Moreover, for p-y module with H_R/D_R near infinity,

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the stiffness factors fall generally within the range of 4.0 and 6.0, which are aligned with the estimations

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ranging from 4.5 to 7.0 for piles in clays and sands (Jeanjean 2009; Burd et al. 2020), although they

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markedly exceed the analytical ‘stiffness factor’ of 2.0 for pressuremeter tests in undrained soils

409

(Houlsby and Carter 1993).

410

An approximately threefold enhancement in stiffness factor K_{RC} is evident as aspect ratio H_R/D_R

411

transitions from infinity to unity, in contrast to the modest 21% ~23% increment observed for bearing

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factors with varying H_R/D_R (see Figure 7). Furthermore, unlike the roughly linear growth in bearing

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factor with aspect ratio, the influence of H_R/D_R on the K_{RC} appears to stabilise when H_R/D_R is higher

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than 10.0. Results from two additional numerical models with larger soil domains ($\approx 148D_R$ in diameter)

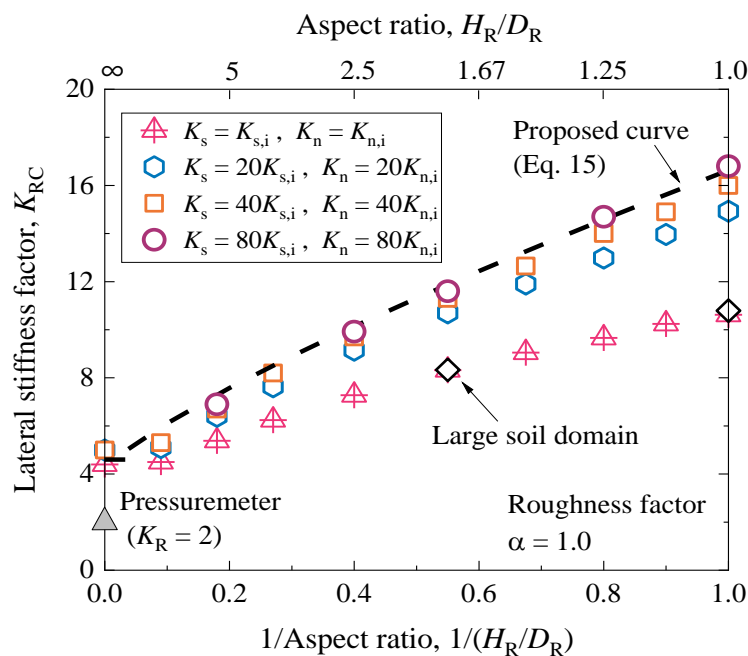
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are marked in Figure 12. These produce identical stiffness factors, indicating again that the soil domain

416 adopted in this study is sufficiently large to avoid any boundary effects. Also plotted in Figure 15 is the
 417 impact of the interface stiffness on K_{RC} , where both K_s and K_n are increased by 20, 40 and 80 times the
 418 initially default $K_{s,i}$ ($= 4.7 \text{ E5 kN/m}^3$) and $K_{n,i}$ ($= 5.17 \text{ E6 kN/m}^3$), respectively. Of interest is that the
 419 influence of interface stiffness varies with aspect ratio, converging to certain values when substantially
 420 higher K_s and K_n are adopted. For example, for p-y module with infinite aspect ratio, marginal influence
 421 of interface stiffness is observed for a p-y module with an infinite aspect ratio, while at $H_R/D_R = 1.0$,
 422 the stiffness factor seems to converge to around 16.7 from 12. As with bearing factor, it is useful to
 423 propose an empirical formulation to stiffness factor graphs generated by these FE analyses to allow
 424 results to be generalised in practical design. Expressed by Equation (15) with a cut-off value of 5.0, it
 425 is able to provide an approximate upper limit to the numerical stiffness factors, where the influence of
 426 interface stiffness is mitigated by constraining relative interface shear and normal displacement to a
 427 minimum.

$$K_{RC} \approx 4.13 + 12.5 \left(\frac{D_R}{H_R} \right)^{0.8} \geq 5.0 \quad (15)$$

428



429

430 Figure 15 Stiffness factor variation with aspect ratio, interface stiffness and roughness

431

432 **6. DISCUSSION ON THE OPTIMUM GEOMETRY OF P-Y MODULE**

433 The mechanism-based empirical models developed from the above FE results offer a basis for the
434 interpretation of p-y module measurements with any geometry (i.e. H_R/D_R) in undrained clay, through
435 the quick determination of lateral bearing factors and stiffness factors. For practical design of a p-y
436 module, a specific H_R/D_R must be selected. The initial prototype p-y module has a diameter of 54 mm,
437 consistent with a 15 cm² cone penetrometer, which is sufficient to house the components of the internal
438 mechanism, miniature sensors and cables (Creasey et al. 2023). The longer the p-y module, the weaker
439 the end effects but the greater the actuation force required to displace the p-y module and bring the clay
440 to failure. Conversely, the shorter the p-y module, the stronger the end effects but the lower the actuation
441 force required. Based on the above FE results, the optimal aspect ratios (H_R/D_R) of a practical p-y
442 module are suggested to range from 1.5 to 5.0, as a balance between minimizing the end effects and
443 ensuring the mechanical feasibility.

444 A p-y module prototype with a H_R/D_R of 3.7 ($H_R = 200$ mm) is currently being trialled (Creasey et al.
445 2023), whose measurement in undrained clay requires a stiffness factor (K_{RC}) of 8.52 and bearing factors
446 (N_{RC}) ranging from 10.26 to 12.9 depending on the interface roughness (varying from 0 to 1.0),
447 according to the interpretation framework proposed. In this case, the ‘end effect’ contributes to around
448 5~7% of the total bearing factors, which is a relatively lower magnitude from an engineering perspective.
449 Consequently, if this prototype is embedded in soft or stiff clays with typical undrained shear strengths
450 ranging from 5 kPa to 300 kPa (De Vallejo & Ferrer 2011), it will require a pushing force of 0.5~33.2
451 kN to displace the p-y module and bring the clay to failure. This type of calculation aids the mechanical
452 design of the ROBOCONE actuation system. For the p-y module with other geometries, same
453 procedures can be deployed to estimating the mechanical pushing forces and thus aid the design of
454 ROBOCONE system.

455 7. CONCLUSIONS

456 A novel robotic ground characterisation tool is developed by implementing a cylindrical section of cone
457 capable of horizontal translation within an augment CPT shaft, namely ROBOCONE p-y module. The
458 goal of this paper is to provide guidance for linking the direct measurements of a p-y module to key
459 ground geotechnical parameters (i.e. undrained shear strength, elastic shear modulus) through semi-

460 analytical upper-bound analyses and three-dimensional finite element simulations. The systematic
461 exploration considered the effects of interface roughness, interface stiffness, and the aspect ratio of the
462 p-y module on bearing factor (N_{RC}) and stiffness factor (K_{RC}). The following conclusions can be reached
463 from the present study.

464 (1) Based on the semi-analytical upper bound analyses, the bearing factors of the p-y module increases
465 with the interface roughness and the inverse aspect ratio (D_R/H_R) due to the end effects. It increases by
466 34% from $D_R/H_R = 0$ to $D_R/H_R = 1$, ranging from 9.2 to 16.4.

467 (2) Reasonable match between the FE analyses of the infinitely long p-y modules in plane strain and
468 semi-analytical upper bound bearing factor solutions by Martin and Randolph (2006) proves the validity
469 of the adopted FE model.

470 (3) The FE analyses of the finite length p-y module capture the three-dimensional soil failure
471 mechanism during the horizontal translation of p-y module. Two failure zones above and below the
472 upper and lower end plane of the p-y module are related to the soil vertical movement in that region,
473 deviating from the plane strain conditions. Numerical bearing factors of p-y module indicate a nearly
474 linear growth with the inverse aspect ratio, with a gradient of 21% ~23% at various interface roughness.
475 Based on the FE simulations, a mechanism-based empirical formulation is proposed to estimate the
476 bearing factors, and enables a quick interpretation of the soil undrained strength from the ROBOCONE
477 results.

478 (4) A simple approximating expression, validated against FE simulations, was proposed to capture
479 variation of the small-displacement elastic stiffness factors (K_R) as a function of the aspect ratio
480 (H_R/D_R). While the interface roughness has negligible influence on the stiffness factors, the interface
481 stiffness is found to play a significant role in the determination of elastic shear modulus. The
482 relationship comprises an upper bound curve where the interface stiffness effect is eliminated and a
483 minimal cut-off value of 5.0 for the aspect ratio close to infinity.

484 Overall, the FE and the upper bound analyses in the present study not only contribute to optimizing the
485 design of ROBOCONE p-y module but also aid engineers in understanding how the small-displacement
486 elastic stiffness and ultimate bearing capacity of a p-y module within a ROBOCONE protocol can be
487 used to determine undrained shear strength and elastic shear modulus of soil associated with a linearly
488 elastic perfectly plastic constitutive model. Further analyses are needed to investigate the responses of
489 p-y module subjected to undrained cyclic horizontal loading, in which case a more advanced soil
490 constitutive module needs to be adopted.

491

492

493 **DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

494 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that
495 could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

496

497 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

498 Data will be made available on request.

499

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506

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- 595 Figure 9 Incremental plastic strain at the end plane along the streamlines assumed in the upper bound
596 analyses: (a) rough interface with $\alpha = 1.0$; (b) quasi-smooth interface with $\alpha = 0.01$
- 597 Figure 10 (a) Profiles of soil vertical displacement at the end plane ($\alpha = 0.01$); (b) Profiles of soil
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- 600 Figure 11 Normalised bearing factor $N_{RC}/N_{s, RC}$ and the approximating expression in Eq. (14)
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- 602 Figure 13 Typical p-y module load-displacement response for interpretation of stiffness factor (K_{RC})
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- 605 Figure 15 Stiffness factor variation with aspect ratio, interface stiffness and roughness
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