1	CENTRIFUGE TESTS ON ROCK-SOCKETED PILES: EFFECT OF SOCKET
2	ROUGHNESS ON SHAFT RESISTANCE
3	Gutiérrez-Ch J.G. ^{1*} , Song G. ²⁺ , Heron C.M. ^{3°} , Marshall, A. ^{4°} and Jimenez
4	R. ^{5*}
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6	ABSTRACT

7 Preliminary estimations of shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles are usually 8 conducted using empirical formulations which relate to the uniaxial compressive 9 strength (σ_c) of the weaker material involved (intact rock or pile). However, there 10 are other factors, such as the degree of socket roughness, that could affect the 11 shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles. In this paper, results from geotechnical 12 centrifuge tests are presented to demonstrate the effect of socket roughness on 13 the pile shaft resistance. Aluminum model piles with different degrees of shaft 14 roughness were fabricated and embedded within an artificial rock mixture 15 composed of sand, cement, bentonite and water. Pile loading tests were 16 conducted within the centrifuge and axial forces along the model piles were 17 measured using fiber Bragg grating (FBG) sensing technology. Results are used 18 to demonstrate that centrifuge testing provides a suitable experimental method 19 to study and quantify the effect of socket roughness on the shaft shearing 20 mechanism of rock-socketed piles. Finally, the centrifuge test measurements are 21 compared with several formulations published in the literature, suggesting that 22 centrifuge measurements tend to agree with the overall trend, despite the 23 variability of predictions obtained with different formulations.

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¹Research Associate. E-mail: jg.gutierrez@upm.es ²Research Associate. E-mail: geyang.song@eng.ox.ac.uk ³Associate Professor. E-mail: charles.heron@nottingham.ac.uk ⁴Associate Professor. E-mail: alec.marshall@nottingham.ac.uk ⁵Professor. E-mail: rafael.jimenez@upm.es

*ETSI Caminos, Canales y Puertos, Universidad Politécnica de Madrid. C/Prof. Aranguren, 12, Madrid 28040, Spain.

^oNottingham Centre for Geomechanics, University of Nottingham, University Park NG7 2RD Nottinghamshire, UK.

⁺ Department of Engineering Science, University of Oxford, Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3PJ, UK.

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¹Research Associate. E-mail: jg.gutierrez@upm.es ²Research Associate. E-mail: geyang.song@eng.ox.ac.uk ³Associate Professor. E-mail: charles.heron@nottingham.ac.uk ⁴Associate Professor. E-mail: alec.marshall@nottingham.ac.uk ⁵Professor. E-mail: rafael.jimenez@upm.es

*ETSI Caminos, Canales y Puertos, Universidad Politécnica de Madrid. C/Prof. Aranguren, 12, Madrid 28040, Spain.

^oNottingham Centre for Geomechanics, University of Nottingham, University Park NG7 2RD Nottinghamshire, UK.

+ Department of Engineering Science, University of Oxford, Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3PJ, UK.

27 **1** Introduction

Rock-socketed piles are usually employed to support loads from a superstructure and to transfer the loads to stronger and deeper rock layers, with loads being carried by the pile base, shaft, or a combination of both. It is well known (Pells et al. 1978; Seidel and Collingwood 2001) that shaft resistance can be fully mobilized at much lower pile displacements than base resistance, hence understanding the development of shaft resistance is a key aspect in assessing the behavior of rock socketed piles under working loads.

35 O'Neill et al. (1996) suggested that, in addition to rock strength, there are many 36 parameters that should be considered to evaluate the response of rock-socketed 37 piles, for example (a) the construction method, (b) drilling tools used, (c) the 38 socket roughness, and (d) the embedment ratio (L/D), where L is socket 39 embedment and D is pile diameter). Small-scale load tests conducted by Dai et 40 al. (2017), as well as discrete element modelling results presented by Gutiérrez-41 Ch et al. (2018, 2019, 2020a), demonstrated that the socket roughness and the 42 normal stiffness at the rock-pile interface are critical factors affecting rock-43 socketed pile behavior.

Despite previous efforts to estimate the shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles considering socket roughness (Horvath et al. 1983; Seidel and Haberfield 1995; Seidel and Collingwood 2001; Nam and Vipulanandan 2008; Dai et al. 2017; Gutiérrez-Ch et al. 2020a), a more in-depth analysis using load tests is needed. Tests conducted within a geotechnical centrifuge (Leung and Ko 1993) provide some benefits compared with full-scale tests or with tests conducted in the laboratory at 1 *g*, including (i) the difficulties and costs associated with full-scale

51 tests, (ii) the ability within small-scale experiments to control parameters such as 52 socket roughness and soil/rock properties, and (iii) reproduction of the full-scale 53 stress fields -e.g., stress gradients, and/or the influence of the stress-dependent 54 volumetric response of the rock- that occurs in real applications (that can be 55 reproduced in full-scale tests but not in model tests at 1 g). Centrifuge modelling 56 allows the study of geotechnical problems within a small scale model by 57 subjecting the model to increased acceleration fields (i.e. increased levels of 58 gravity, g), thereby increasing the self-weight stresses and reproducing the full-59 scale stress field (Taylor 1995).

60 Leung and Ko (1993) conducted centrifuge tests of piles socketed in a soft 61 pseudo-rock prepared using a mixture of gypsum cement and water; the intact uniaxial compressive strength of the pseudo rock was $\sigma_c = 2-12$ MPa. Leung and 62 63 Ko's test results suggest that centrifuge testing can reproduce real rock-socketed 64 pile behavior. Dykeman and Valsangkar (1996) carried out centrifuge tests in soft 65 pseudo-rock made from a mixture of sand, cement, bentonite and water ($\sigma_c = 1 - 1$ 66 12 MPa). They performed axial and lateral loading of caisson foundations made 67 from aluminum, with socket roughness replicated by machining into the outer surface of the model foundation, at a 5 mm spacing, 0.5 mm deep \times 0.5 mm wide 68 69 circular asperities. Their results indicated that socket roughness increases the 70 load capacity of rock-socketed piles, but they did not measure the distribution of 71 shaft resistance along the piles and provided no insight into the load transfer 72 mechanisms along the (rough) socket shaft. Additional centrifuge tests of large-73 diameter piles and pile groups socketed into rock were conducted by Zhang and Wong (2007) and Xing et al. (2014); their results further demonstrated the 74

feasibility of centrifuge modelling to reproduce the behavior of rock-socketedpiles, although they did not consider socket roughness in their analyses.

77 This paper aims to address some shortcomings in the previous research. In 78 particular, geotechnical centrifuge tests and fiber Bragg grating strain sensing 79 techniques are used to measure pile settlements and the distribution of pile shaft 80 resistance along the pile-rock interface during axial loading tests of rock-socketed 81 piles with varying degrees of socket roughness. As described below, these 82 advanced experimental techniques provide new insight into the influence of 83 socket roughness on rock-socketed piles, and on their global stiffness and load 84 transfer mechanisms.

85 2 Centrifuge modelling

86 The centrifuge tests presented in this paper were conducted at 50 g (i.e. 50 times 87 Earth's gravity) using the University of Nottingham Centre for Geomechanics 88 (NCG) 2 m radius, 50 g-ton geotechnical centrifuge. According to centrifuge test 89 scaling laws (Taylor 1995), length in a centrifuge model is reduced compared to a full-scale prototype by the gravity scale factor N ($l_m = l_p/N$, where l is length 90 91 and the subscripts *m* and *p* denote model and prototype, respectively) and force is scaled by N^2 ($F_m = F_p/N^2$, where F is force). Adoption of N = 50 in these 92 93 centrifuge tests allowed replication of a practical range of the geometric socket 94 roughness values, along with reasonable demands for axial pile loads (less than 95 the 10 kN limit of the load actuator used for the centrifuge tests). This section 96 provides a description of the pseudo-rock (used to replicate a soft rock), the 97 model piles and instrumentation, as well as the centrifuge model set-up.

98 2.1 Pseudo-rock

99 The effect of socket roughness is particularly significant for piles socketed in soft 100 rocks with an intact uniaxial compressive strength of $\sigma_c = 1-12$ MPa (Seidel and 101 Collingwood 2001). To produce rock samples with an intact uniaxial compressive 102 strength σ_c close to 1 MPa, pseudo rock samples were prepared using a mixture 103 of sand, cement, bentonite and water (see **Table 1**). Three cube tests were 104 performed on samples (102 mm) stored and cured in a humid environment after 105 44-days, with average values of $\sigma_c = 1.14$ MPa, Young's modulus of E = 90.6106 MPa, and Poisson's ratio of v = 0.34 (see **Table 2**). Also, considering the above 107 properties, a shear modulus of G = E/2(1 + v) = 33.8 MPa for the pseudo-rock 108 sample can be derived.

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[Table 1 approx. here]

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[Table 2 approx. here]

- 111 2.2 Model piles
- 112 2.2.1 Manufacturing

The model piles were machined from aluminum (Young's modulus E = 69 GPa) tubes with external and internal nominal diameters of 15.87 mm and 11.81 mm, respectively (see **Fig. 1**). At 50 *g*, the model piles have an axial stiffness (*EA*; where *A* is the cross section area) equivalent to a 0.8 m diameter solid concrete pile (Young's modulus E = 30 GPa) at prototype scale. The nominal length of the piles is 80 mm at model scale (4 m at prototype scale).

119 [Fig. 1 approx. here]

120 To assess the influence of socket roughness on the response of a pile to axial 121 loading, the model piles were manufactured with different roughness profiles. 122 Previous works have analyzed the influence of roughness using pile-rock 123 interfaces with triangular asperities (Johnston et al. 1987; Kodikara and Johnston 124 1994; Gu et al. 2003; Xu et al. 2020) or with sinusoidal asperities (Dai et al. 2017). 125 In this research, sinusoidal pile-rock interfaces were used because they provide 126 a reasonable replica of sockets drilled in soft rock with an auger tool (O'Neill et 127 al., 1996; Hassan et al. 1997). However, this is only an approximation, and 128 roughness patterns developed in real rock sockets drilled in the field may be 129 different to those considered herein. The adopted sinusoidal profiles, though not 130 matching exactly with reality, provide the consistency between tests that is 131 required to obtain the desired new insights on the effect of socket roughness on 132 the response of axially loaded rock-socketed piles.

133 To simulate the roughness profiles, sinusoidal surfaces with asperity amplitudes 134 of 0, 0.2, 0.4, and 0.8 mm at a wavelength of 10 mm (model scale) were used 135 (see Fig. 1). These values correspond to asperity amplitudes of 0, 10, 20, and 40 136 mm and to a wavelength of 500 mm at prototype sale, which are similar to those 137 typically obtained with conventional or special drilling tools (O'Neill et al. 1996; 138 Gutiérrez-Ch et al. 2020a). The four model piles are denoted using their 139 roughness factor (RF), which was defined by Horvath et al. (1983) as RF =140 $(h_m L_t)/(RL)$, where h_m is the average height of asperities, R is the nominal socket radius, L_t is the total travel distance along the socket wall, and L is the 141 142 nominal socket length (see Fig. 1). The asperity dimensions listed above 143 correspond to values of $L_t = 80, 80.34, 81.36$ and 85.34 mm, and to RF values 144 at model scale of RF = 0.000, 0.025, 0.050 and 0.106, respectively (see Fig. 2).

[Fig. 2 approx. here]

146 A literature review by Gutiérrez-Ch et al. (2020a) indicated that sockets drilled 147 with standard tools tend to produce asperities with amplitudes less than or equal 148 to 10 mm (prototype scale), which could be classified as "smooth" piles; however, 149 if the rock is highly fractured or special drilling tools are used, the amplitudes of 150 asperities at the socket could be larger (i.e., more than 10 mm) which would be 151 classified as "rough" piles. Thus the model piles with RF = 0.000, 0.025 would 152 represent "smooth" piles, while the model piles with RF = 0.050, 0.106 would be 153 "rough" piles.

154 2.2.2 Instrumentation

155 To record the axial load along the model piles, fiber Bragg grating (FBG) sensors 156 were bonded to the internal surface of the model piles. An FBG sensor is a device 157 that measures the shift in the wavelength of light reflected at a "grating" etched 158 into an optical fiber that is caused by strain or temperature changes (Kreuzer 159 2006; Kashyap 2010; Alvárez-Botero et al. 2017). Advantages of FBG strain 160 sensors compared with conventional strain gauges that are particularly relevant 161 to centrifuge testing include their insensitivity to electrical noise and their 162 small/lightweight form (Kreuzer 2006; Song et al. 2019; Song 2019). The FBG 163 sensors were particularly advantageous for the tests presented here, since their 164 small size allowed them to be installed inside the model piles (which would not 165 have been possible with conventional foil strain gauges), thereby enabling the 166 accurate manufacturing of the geometric roughness on the outer surface of the 167 piles. An illustration of an FBG strain sensor is presented in Fig. 3a. The FBG 168 sensors were made from a single-mode optical fiber, which was etched using an

169 excimer laser. The reflectivity of the FBG sensors is greater than 90%. Fig. 3b 170 illustrates the method used to install the optical fibers in the piles: (1) the fiber 171 was inserted into the pile through a hole drilled at an inclined angle near the top 172 of the pile (the pile head assembly shown in Fig. 1 did not allow for the cable to 173 be passed through its upper end). (2) The end of the fiber near the pile top was 174 bonded to the pile using superglue (Loctite Superglue precision). (3) The fiber 175 was then strained from the other end using a modified micrometer – this ensured 176 the fiber was straight while also facilitating the measurements of tensile and 177 compressive loads. (4) Superglue was then applied along the fiber, followed by a 178 UV cured adhesive to ensure the FBG sensors were fully bonded to the model 179 pile.

180 The model piles were calibrated on a loading frame (uniaxial compression), and 181 a linear relationship between FBG wavelength shift and the applied load was 182 obtained. For additional details about the calibration conducted, see Gutiérrez-183 Ch et al. (2020b). Each model pile has two optical fibers, with three FBG sensors 184 per fiber, located on opposite sides of the internal surface of the pile and labelled 185 according to their distance (H) from a reference point at the top of the pile, 186 normalized by the model pile radius (i.e., H/R, see **Fig. 1**a). At a given depth 187 (H/R), the axial force is determined from the two Braggs at that position. Also, 188 note that only three FBG sensors were used because of the difficulty to add more 189 FBGs to the optical fiber (the adopted FBG sensors have a length of 10mm and 190 the pile is 100mm long).

191

[Fig. 3 approx. here]

192 2.3 Centrifuge model preparation

193 Each centrifuge model was prepared as follows. (1) To remove the contribution 194 of pile base resistance, a cylindrical piece of soft polystyrene (with diameter and 195 length equal to the pile diameter) was attached to the bottom of the model piles 196 (see **Fig. 4**a), hence the pile resistance was derived solely from its shaft. (2) The 197 prepared pseudo-rock mixture was poured (in three layers) into 20 cm diameter, 198 20 cm high steel cylindrical containers, with the container being vibrated on a 199 shake-table after each layer. Boundary effects of these types of experiments are 200 expected to be minimal as long as the "clear distance" from the pile to the edge 201 of the container exceeds four times the pile diameter (Dykeman and Valsangkar 202 1996; Xing et al. 2014); for these tests, the clear distance was five times the pile 203 diameter. (3) The model piles were pushed into the mixture and set to the 204 designed position using a temporary frame mounted to the top of the steel 205 cylinder (Fig. 4b). The container was then vibrated again to ensure adhesion 206 between the pseudo-rock mixture and the model pile, according to the procedure 207 described by Dykeman and Valsangkar (1996) and Dai et al. (2017). (4) The 208 containers were stored and cured under high humidity conditions for 44 days. A 209 typical model pile-pseudo-rock assembly is presented in Fig. 4c.

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[Fig. 4 approx. here]

In practice, the normal stress applied on the pile-rock interface is zero before the concrete is placed into the socket, and the normal stress acting on the socket sidewalls could increase during placement of concrete (Seidel and Collingwood 2001; Haberfield and Lochaden 2018). This aspect is not considered during the centrifuge model preparation conducted herein; however, a parametric study

conducted by Seidel and Collingwood (2001), and the analysis of load test data conducted by Asem (2020), strongly suggest that the initial normal stress at the pile-rock interface does not substantially affect the peak shaft resistance of rocksocketed piles, unless an expansive concrete is used. Therefore, and since expansive concrete was not employed in this work, it is expected that the effect of the initial normal stress acting on the socket sidewalls could be neglected.

222 2.4 Centrifuge tests

223 After 44-days of curing, each pseudo-rock container was placed on the centrifuge 224 and steel plates (30 mm thick) were added to the surface to impose a vertical 225 stress of 120 kPa at 50 g (replicating 6 m depth of overburden with an average 226 unit weight of 20 kN/m³) (Fig. 5b). The pile loading/measurement system was 227 then installed, comprising of a loading frame, two L03 MecVel ball screw 228 actuators (each with a maximum 5 kN load capacity and 100 mm stroke), a load 229 cell, and a connector (Fig. 5). The ball and socket actuator-pile connection, 230 illustrated in Fig. 5c, allowed the pile to move separately from the load actuator 231 during centrifuge spin-up, with the pile moving downwards as a result of the self-232 weight of the pile and associated spacer, load cell, and connector. The model pile 233 settlement was measured using a single linear variable differential transducer 234 (LVDT) positioned on an aluminum plate located above the pile cap (Fig. 5b). 235 The load along the model pile was obtained using the FBG sensors and an FBG 236 interrogator located within the centrifuge data acquisition cabinet (see Fig. 5a).

For each test, the acceleration of the centrifuge was gradually increased to 50 *g*,at which point the model piles were loaded axially at a displacement controlled

rate of 0.1 mm/s. The axial load, displacement, and the wavelength shift of theFBG sensors were recorded at 10 Hz.

241

[Fig. 5 approx. here]

242 3 Results

243 3.1 Preliminary comments

244 Results are presented at prototype scale relative to readings obtained upon 245 reaching 50 g. The head load, the axial load and the shaft resistance mobilized 246 along the pile during the spin-up are not considered, hence results illustrate 247 changes due to pile loading under a constant g-level. Analyses were conducted 248 in this way because (a) the head load mobilized at the end of the spin-up due to 249 the assembly above the piles was only of 0.25 MN (prototype scale) for all 250 models, which is very small when compared to the final pile loading, which 251 reached a minimum of 6.5 MN (i.e., the initial loading after spin-up to 50 g was 252 about 3.8% or less of the final load; see Fig. 6a); and because (b) during spin-253 up, the self-weight of the UV adhesive used to attach the FBGs to the piles 254 caused additional FBG readings unrelated to pile loading that are difficult to 255 quantify, leading to some uncertainty of the absolute pile load readings measured 256 by the FBGs during spin-up (note that this does not affect axial load 257 measurements during pile loading after spin-up, since variations of FBG recorded 258 values are analyzed at a constant g-level).

Pile settlement results are presented in dimensionless form (normalized by the pile diameter) to facilitate discussion of results. This adopted normalization convention will not necessarily allow the interface response from these tests to

262 be directly compared to other studies, hence readers should apply appropriate 263 judgement. However, as all tests presented here relate to a consistent pile size 264 and interface type, the adopted convention is satisfactory.

265 Similarly, some corrections were made to the initial segment of the load-266 settlement curve of the model pile with RF = 0.050, since this pile rotated and moved upwards at the beginning of the tests. The correction involved linearizing 267 268 the initial curved section of the "raw" load-settlement data, since other curves (for 269 RF = 0.025 and RF = 0.106) demonstrated such a linear trend upon initial loading 270 (these aspects are discussed further below, and a Supplemental Data file is 271 presented to provide the "raw" data along with an additional discussion of the 272 correction and its implications on subsequent data interpretation.)

273 3.2 Load-settlement response

The load-displacement curves for the rock-socketed piles with different degrees of socket roughness are shown in **Fig. 6**a. The model pile with RF = 0.000 is not presented in **Fig. 6** because it failed during centrifuge spin-up, therefore, its results are not considered in the data analysis since the pile was in a post-peak (failure) state when loading started at 50 *g*. All piles were loaded until the pile head settlement (δ) exceeded 20% of the pile diameter ($\delta/D > 20\%$).

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[Fig. 6 approx. here]

Experimental results presented in **Fig. 6** demonstrate that socket roughness is a crucial factor affecting rock-socketed pile shaft resistance and the overall stiffness response of the pile. For a pile head settlement equivalent to 1% of the pile diameter ($\delta = 1\%D$), the loads (*P*) on the pile are 1.18 MN, 1.82 MN, and

285 4.70 MN, and the global stiffnesses (i.e., P/δ) are 0.15 MN/mm, 0.23 MN/mm and 286 0.61 MN/mm for model piles with RF = 0.025, RF = 0.050 and RF = 0.106, 287 respectively. Similarly, an influence of socket roughness was also observed in 288 the results of field tests (see Table 3) conducted by Horvath et al. (1983) and 289 Seol and Jeong (2007) on full-scale piles socketed in shale and gneiss, 290 respectively, considering shaft resistance only. From **Table 3** it can be noted that, 291 for $\delta = 1\%D$, rougher piles supported a higher working load that is about 1.3 292 (gneiss) to 1.5 (shale) times higher than for smooth piles.

293

[Table 3 approx. here]

294 As can be observed in Fig. 6a, the load-settlement curve of the model pile with 295 RF = 0.025 increases linearly to an initial peak value (for $\delta = 0.5\% D$). With further 296 increases in pile settlement, the pile head load decreases, probably representing 297 a loss of the bonding at the pseudo-rock-pile interface. Then, with further 298 displacement (for $\delta > 1\%D$), the pile transfers its axial load to the front of the 299 asperities within the rock, so that its load capacity increases again until a second 300 peak is reached (for $\delta = 19.8\% D$). For rougher piles (RF = 0.050 and RF =301 0.106), a bonding failure at the pseudo-rock-pile interface is not observed. The 302 load capacity increases until the maximum load capacity is reached; after this 303 load threshold, the load capacity decreases. Also, results in Fig. 6a show that the 304 post-peak shaft resistance - or the shaft's resistance beyond the settlement 305 (δ_{P-peak}) associated with the peak load – tends to be more ductile for rougher 306 piles. This behavior can be explained by the fact that rougher interfaces tend to 307 dilate more and, as a consequence, lead to higher normal stresses at the pile-

308 rock interface that produce higher interface resistances (Pells et al 1978;
309 Gutiérrez-Ch et al. 2021).

310 Finally, the load-settlement results suggest that there might be an upper 311 roughness limit beyond which, for large settlement levels (say, for $\delta > 10\% D$), 312 the load capacity and the global stiffness no longer increase (i.e. increasing 313 roughness above RF = 0.050 did not have a significant effect; see **Fig. 6**). This 314 observation is consistent: (i) with experimental results of Dai et al. (2017), who 315 conducted rock-socketed pile tests with different socket roughness at 1 g, but 316 overcomes the interpretation uncertainties of their results, since centrifuge test 317 results account better for the influence of scale and geometry, through the 318 consideration of a more realistic stress field around the pile (Dai et al. 2017 319 indicate that "there may be scale effects in the[ir] shaft resistance test results" 320 conducted at 1 q); and (ii) with numerical results of Gutiérrez-Ch et al. (2020a, 321 2021) who conducted discrete element method (DEM) load test simulations in 322 piles socketed in sandstone and gneiss with similar RF values.

323 3.3 Axial load

The distribution of mobilized axial load (change in axial load along the pile) with depth during pile loading was obtained using the measured wavelength shifts of the FBG sensors (see **Fig. 1**). As mentioned earlier, the rock-socketed piles had a polystyrene base; hence the base resistance can be neglected. The results of the mobilized axial load are presented at prototype scale.

Fig. 7 shows the distribution of the mobilized axial load along the pile for several settlement values (including the settlement, δ_{P-peak} , associated with the maximum axial load in Fig. 6) for all centrifuge tests conducted. It can be

332 observed (i) that mobilized axial loads along the pile, for a given settlement, 333 decrease with depth; (ii) that mobilized axial loads along the pile increase as the 334 load applied at the pile head increases, until the peak value is reached; and (iii) 335 that mobilized axial loads along the pile decrease after this threshold (i.e., for $\delta >$ 336 δ_{P-peak}), but with smaller, or more ductile, reductions in rougher piles. To our 337 knowledge, this is the first time that the influence of roughness on the axial load 338 distribution of rock-sockets has been measured experimentally (in the field or in 339 the laboratory).

340 It is important to highlight that, after processing the measurement data for the 341 model pile with RF = 0.025, an anomalous distribution of the mobilized axial load 342 with depth was obtained; in particular, the mobilized axial load at 20 mm depth 343 was greater than at 0 mm depth (a "Supplementary Data" file has been provided 344 to discuss details of the measured data and of the uncertainties associated with 345 their interpretation). This trend is unexpected, and may be explained by the fact 346 that, during casting (44 days), the pile could have reacted with the pseudo-rock, 347 causing a change to the relationship between pile/FBG strain and applied load. 348 This is because the pseudo-rock contains cement (alkalis), which can react with 349 aluminum, resulting is some corrosion of the external surface of the piles. After 350 the tests, some corrosion along the pile surface was identified. In such a case, 351 the thickness of the aluminum pile would be less than the pile prior to casting, 352 which would imply an error within the adopted FBG sensor calibration factors 353 (calibrations were conducted for all piles prior to casting; for the pile with RF =354 0.025, an additional calibration was conducted after the centrifuge test to 355 investigate the anomaly discussed above, see the Supplementary Data). To 356 explore this justification, Fig. 8 presents the results of the calibration factors

357 obtained before and after the centrifuge test for this pile. (Note that FBG1 is not 358 shown in the post-test results of Fig. 8 because the sensor did not respond during 359 the post-test calibration). As can be observed in Fig. 8, a variation of the 360 calibration factors was found, potentially explaining why the mobilized average 361 axial loads recorded by the FBG sensors located at H/R = 2.5 and H/R = 5362 (FBG₃₋₆ and FBG₂₋₅, respectively, see **Fig. 1**) are greater than the pile head load 363 recorded by the load cell. Therefore, results presented in Fig. 7a (and in the 364 following sections) correspond to values obtained with post-test calibration 365 factors for the pile with RF = 0.025, while for piles with RF = 0.050 and RF =0.106, the pre-test calibration factors have been employed. (See the 366 367 Supplementary Data for additional details about the uncertainties relating to the 368 variation of the calibration factors and their impact on the mobilized axial loads.)

- 369 [Fig. 7 approx. here]
- 370 [Fig. 8 approx. here]

371 3.4 Shaft resistance

The distribution with depth of the (locally) mobilized average shaft resistance (i.e., of changes of average shaft resistance upon pile loading after spin-up to a constant 50 g-level, $f_{ave,l}$), for a given pile head settlement, can be obtained from the difference of the mobilized axial load between two consecutive reference points at which pile axial loads have been measured, as:

$$f_{ave,l} = \frac{F_{i,\delta} - F_{i+1,\delta}}{\pi D L_{i\to i+1}}$$
(2)

where $F_{i,\delta}$ and $F_{i+1,\delta}$ are the mobilized axial loads (i.e., change in axial loads upon loading under constant g-level) at two consecutive reference points (e.g., at the pile FBG sensors located at H/R = 2.5 and H/R = 5, see **Fig. 1** for FBG reference i), *D* is the pile diameter, and $L_{i \rightarrow i+1}$ is the nominal length between the two consecutive reference points (i.e., from location *i* to *i* + 1). Hence the $f_{ave,l}$ computed using Eq. 2 is considered constant from location *i* to *i* + 1. In addition, since *D* and $L_{i \rightarrow i+1}$ are nominal values which are equal for all piles, the shaft area in Eq. (2) is assumed to be the same for all the piles.

385 The distribution of $f_{ave,l}$ (with depth) for a given pile head settlement is shown in 386 **Fig. 9.** The peak value curves represent the value of $f_{ave,l}$ computed for a pile 387 head settlement associated with the maximum mobilized axial load from Fig. 6 388 (i.e., for $\delta = \delta_{P-peak}$). Results show that $f_{ave,l}$ distributions with depth, for a pile 389 head settlement of 1%D, are similar for rougher piles (i.e., with RF = 0.050 and 390 RF = 0.106), so that the mobilized average shaft resistance is greater at the pile 391 head (from H/R = 0 to H/R = 2.5) than at the pile toe; while for the smoother 392 pile (i.e., with RF = 0.025) the distribution with depth tends to be more 393 homogenous.

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[Fig. 9 approx. here]

Also, **Fig. 9** shows that, as the applied load increases and the maximum mobilized axial load is reached, $f_{ave,l}$ starts to decrease in the upper portion of the pile (from H/R = 0 to H/R = 2.5), and therefore to increase in the lower portion of the pile (from H/R = 5 to H/R = 10.1). To illustrate this, **Fig. 10** shows the mobilized average shaft resistance recorded at different depths below the socket (from H/R = 0 to H/R = 10.1), for $0.5\%D \le \delta \le 8\%D$. Once the pile head settlement for the model pile with RF = 0.106 goes beyond $\delta > 1\%D$, $f_{ave,l}$ tends to increase more in the lower region of the pile than in the region near its head; a similar behavior is noted when $\delta > 4\%D$ for the model pile with RF = 0.050, see **Fig. 10**. This trend, which is clearer for rougher piles (RF = 0.050 and RF =0.106, see **Fig. 9**b-c) than for the smoother pile (RF = 0.025, see **Fig. 9**a), can be explained by the roughness at the pile-rock interface, since $f_{ave,l}$ is fully mobilized first near the pile head.

408

[Fig. 10 approx. here]

409 This behavior is also clearly observed when one analyses how the mobilized 410 average shaft resistance develops with settlement at different portions of the 411 model pile (see Fig. 11). For example, Fig. 11c shows such an evolution for the 412 model pile with RF = 0.106: it can be observed that the peak value of $f_{ave,l}$ is 413 reached first (i.e. for pile settlements approximately 1%D) in the upper region of 414 the pile (from H/R = 0 to H/R = 2.5), after which it decreases for larger pile 415 settlements. (Note that a similar trend is observed for the piles with RF = 0.050416 and 0.025, but for higher pile head settlements; see Fig. 11a). This behavior 417 might be due to the fact that, during the initial loading stages, much of the load is 418 transmitted to the front part of the asperities (see Fig. 11d) located in the upper 419 region of the pile; then, upon further loading of the pile (or with settlements greater 420 than 1%D, degradation and breakage of asperities occur, and the maximum 421 values of average shaft resistance shift downwards (towards the pile toe) where, 422 with further loading, a similar behavior is observed. The reader should note that 423 these settlements are much higher than those associated with standard design 424 methods for piles at working loads (e.g., $\delta = 1\%D$, Whitaker and Cooke 1966). 425 Also, note that failure mechanisms or strain localizations at the pile-interface

426 cannot be shown, since it was generally not possible to extract the piles (or to
427 excavate the rock) after the centrifuge tests without altering the pile-rock
428 interfaces.

429 These results are in agreement with Gutiérrez-Ch (2020), where a similar load-430 transfer behavior was obtained from DEM simulations of rock-socketed piles. 431 Also, results are consistent with the trends reported by Pells et al. (1980) based 432 on their field tests with small diameter piles, and with the load-transfer behavior 433 of rough rock-socketed piles inferred by Hassan and O'Neill (1997) from the 434 results of their finite element numerical models. However, such aspects of the 435 load transfer mechanisms of rock-socketed piles had not been previously 436 measured on pile shafts with such a wide range of roughness values.

437

[Fig. 11 approx. here]

438 **Fig. 12** shows the mobilized average shaft resistance (f_{ave}) – computed as an 439 average of the locally mobilized average shaft resistance along the pile, instead 440 of dividing the pile head load by the nominal shaft area -, as a function of pile 441 head settlement, for all centrifuge tests. Note that, as it should be, the curves in 442 Fig. 12 are similar to those of pile head load in Fig. 6, demonstrating good 443 agreement between the load cell and FBG sensor measurements. Again, as 444 reported in Section 3.2, Fig. 12 shows that socket roughness greatly affects the 445 average shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles: e.g., for $\delta = 5\% D$, f_{ave} of the pile 446 with RF = 0.106 is about 3 times greater than that obtained for the pile with RF =447 0.025.

448 These experimental results are qualitatively consistent with the field test results 449 of Seol and Jong (2007) and with the numerical results of Gutiérrez-Ch et al. 450 (2020a), who reported that rougher piles mobilized more f_{ave} than smooth ones. 451 For instance, for piles socketed in sandstone and for $\delta = 1\% D$, Gutiérrez-Ch et 452 al. (2020a) reported that the average shaft resistance for a pile with RF = 0.106453 is around 4.2 times higher than the f_{ave} of a pile with RF = 0.025 (see **Table 3**). 454 Similarly, it has also been noted (by Seol and Jong (2007) for piles socketed in 455 gneiss and by Dykeman and Valsangkar (1996) in pseudo-rock) that rough piles 456 mobilized 1.3 to 1.6 times more f_{ave} than smooth piles, for $\delta = 1\%D$ (see **Table** 457 3). This behavior might be due to effects of the higher dilation associated with 458 rough piles, which increases the normal stress at rough pile-rock interfaces (i.e. 459 with higher RF).

460 Experimental results also showed a quasi-linear (elastic) behavior for δ values of 461 less than about 1%D, which was defined by Asam and Gardoni (2019) as initial 462 shear stiffness (K_{si}) (see **Fig. 12**), after which plastic behavior is observed. This 463 finding is particularly significant in practice, since a maximum pile head settlement 464 of 1%D is often considered for design under working loads (see e.g., Whitaker 465 and Cooke 1966). It also experimentally supports the results of Gutiérrez-Ch et 466 al. (2019, 2020a) who, based on micro-crack propagation from numerical results 467 using the DEM, suggested that the 1%D settlement threshold is suitable to avoid 468 excessive damage of rock-concrete interfaces of rock-socketed piles.

469

[Fig. 12 approx. here]

470 **3.5 Comparison with design methods**

Usually, the shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles is estimated using empirical
criteria that are a function of the uniaxial compressive strength of the weaker
material at the socket interface (intact rock or concrete pile). Their formulation
can be typically generalized as:

$$f_{ave,peak}[MPa] = \alpha \sigma_c[MPa]^{\beta}$$
(3)

475 where $f_{ave,peak}$ is the average ultimate shaft resistance, and α and β are empirical 476 factors specific to each criterion (for a recent compilation of α and β values, see 477 Gutiérrez-Ch et al. 2020a). However, the wide variability of α and β suggests that, 478 in agreement with the conclusions of O'Neill et al. (1996) after their analysis and 479 interpretation of 245 load tests in different types of materials, other parameters in 480 addition to σ_c are required for an improved estimation of $f_{ave,peak}$.

481 This section compares the results of some common empirical formulations with 482 the results measured in the centrifuge tests conducted in this research. As 483 mentioned earlier, the average shaft resistance mobilized during spin-up has 484 been neglected (the error introduced when compared to the f_{ave} values reported 485 in Fig. 12 is very small, i.e., 3.8% or less). This value is well below the uncertainty 486 levels and safety factors associated with typical designs of rock-socketed piles; 487 therefore, the comparison of centrifuge results and empirical formulations can be 488 considered appropriate. The formulations with which results are compared are those of (i) Horvath et al. (1983) using $f_{ave.peak}/\sigma_c = 0.8(RF)^{0.45}$; (ii) O'Neill and 489 490 Reese (1999), Canadian Foundation Engineering Manual (2006) and AASHTO 491 (2008), which proposed equations to compute $f_{ave, peak}$ based on conservative 492 lower values suggested by Horvath et al. (1983) and by Rowe and Armitage

493 (1987), with $\beta = 0.5$ and α varying between 0.2 and 0.6, depending on socket 494 roughness ($\alpha = 0.2$ for smooth socket, $\alpha = 0.3$ for rough socket, and $\alpha = 0.6$ for 495 very rough socket with $h_m > 10$ mm); (iii) Seidel and Collingwood (2001) who, 496 based on data from 162 load tests from around the world in a variety of rock types 497 - including shale, mudstone, sandstone, chalk, limestone and schist - proposed 498 the non-dimensional shaft resistance coefficient (SRC), which considers the 499 effect of construction method (η_c), the ratio of rock mass modulus to the UCS 500 $(n = E_m / \sigma_c)$, the Poisson's ratio, the average height of asperities, and the socket 501 diameter, which can be used to estimate $f_{ave, peak}$ (for details, see Seidel and Collingwood 2001); and (iv) Salgado (2008), who proposed equations similar to 502 Equation (3), while limiting $f_{ave,peak}$ to 5% of the UCS of the rock or of the concrete 503 504 with which the pile was constructed. In addition, results are compared with other 505 formulations that do not consider socket roughness, such as those of (v) 506 Rezazadeh and Eslami (2017), (vi) Williams et al (1980) and (viii) Horvath and 507 Kenney (1979). Comparisons are conducted using centrifuge results for f_{ave} 508 associated with a settlement of $\delta = 1\% D$, since the above-mentioned methods 509 were also proposed for this reference pile settlement. Results are illustrated in 510 **Fig. 13**, which shows that the centrifuge measurements obtained provide f_{ave} 511 values that are similar to those obtained with empirical criteria, although there are 512 of course differences among methods. Note also that, for the piles with RF =513 0.025 and 0.050, most empirical formulations that consider roughness tend to 514 provide values slightly above the centrifuge test measurements; whereas for the 515 pile with RF = 0.106, measured values tend to be slightly below the predictions. 516 (For Seidel and Collingwood's (2001) method, only results for RF = 0.025 and 517 RF = 0.050 are presented; this is because the other RF values considered herein 518 fall outside the roughness ranges for which the method can provide predictions.) 519 Within the formulations that consider socket roughness, those by O'Neill and 520 Reese (1999), Canadian Foundation Engineering Manual (2006) and AASHTO 521 (2008) provide the best agreement with centrifuge measurements for model piles 522 with $RF \ge 0.025$. A similar trend is observed for predictions obtained with 523 Salgado's (2008) method, although predictions act, in this case, as an "upper 524 bound" to measurements. Additional measurements would be required to be able 525 to assess the predictive capabilities of these methods with a higher degree of 526 confidence.

527

[Fig. 13 approx. here]

528 4 Conclusions

529 The shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles is usually estimated based on the 530 uniaxial compressive strength of the weaker material at the socket interface 531 (intact rock or concrete pile). However, there are other factors (e.g., the 532 construction method and the drilling tools used, the socket roughness, etc.) 533 affecting the shaft resistance behavior of rock-socketed piles that are not 534 commonly considered but which could significantly influence the strength and 535 load-settlement response of piles socketed into rock. This work extends previous 536 efforts to incorporate the influence of socket roughness into predictions of the 537 shaft resistance of rock-socketed piles.

538 This paper used centrifuge tests conducted at 50 *g* to analyze the shaft resistance 539 behavior of aluminum piles with different degrees of roughness that are socketed 540 into a soft pseudo-rock with a uniaxial compressive strength in the order of 1– 541 1.15 MPa. The piles were instrumented with fiber Bragg grating (FBG) sensors

542 to measure the load distribution along the pile shaft, hence making it possible to 543 compute the distribution of mobilized average shaft resistance on the piles, as a 544 function of the external loads applied and of the pile settlements. This paper 545 further demonstrates that such centrifuge tests are an economic and appropriate 546 tool to study the behavior of rock-socketed piles under axial loads. In particular, 547 results show that centrifuge tests conducted with FBG sensors are suitable to 548 reproduce the load-settlement response of rock-socketed piles, hence being able 549 to evaluate the effect of socket roughness on shaft resistance of rock-socketed 550 piles. There were, as is often the case with complex experimental studies, some 551 uncertainties in the obtained measurements; these were detailed in the 552 supplementary data along with a discussion on potential implications on obtained 553 outcomes. The experimental uncertainities are considered to be no more 554 significant than typical levels of uncertainty for piling projects.

555 The centrifuge tests conducted with FBG sensors have also provided 556 experimental evidence and confirmation of important aspects of the load-transfer 557 mechanism of rock-socketed piles; in particular, (i) that rougher piles are more 558 resistant, stiffer, and more ductile than smooth piles; (ii) that, particularly for 559 rougher piles, the upper part of the pile tends to attract more load initially, and 560 that such loads tend to "move downwards" as the pile head load continues 561 increasing; (iii) that the load distribution along the pile is more homogenous in 562 smoother piles than in rougher ones, (iv) that little damage seems to occur at the 563 rock-pile interface for pile head settlements of less than about 1%D, given the 564 observation that the load increases linearly with settlement within that settlement 565 range, and (v) that there might be an upper roughness limit above which the load 566 capacity and the global stiffness of the rock-socketed pile stops increasing (for

567 large pile head settlements of, say, more than 10%D). Finally, average shaft 568 resistances measured in the centrifuge tests were compared with those predicted 569 with several common formulations from the literature. Centrifuge results tend to 570 agree with the overall trend, although there are of course differences between 571 formulations; additional measurements would be required to assess the 572 predictive capabilities of these methods with more confidence.

573 5 Data Availability Statement

574 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are 575 available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request (centrifuge test 576 results).

577 6 Acknowledgements

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583 7 Appendix A. Supplementary Data

584 Supplementary data to this work can be found at:

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List of Tables

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Table 2. Results of UCS tests conducted with samples at 44-days age.

Table 3. Axial load and mobilized average shaft resistance supported by rocksocketed piles with different roughness for a pile head settlement of 1% of pile diameter.

Mix proportions by percent mass (%)							
Sand	Cement	Bentonite	Water				
(0.16-mm ≤ Grain size ≤ 1-mm)	(CEM II/A-LL 32.5R)	(Sodium)					
52.3	12.2	6.5	29.0				

 Table 1. Mix proportions by percent mass.

	UCS Tests conducted					
	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3			
σ_c (MPa)	1.14	1.15	1.12			
E (MPa)	85.7	84.4	101.8			
ν	0.27	0.32	0.43			

Table 2. Results of UCS tests conducted with samples at 44-days age.

Table 3. Axial load and mobilized average shaft resistance supported by rock-socketed piles	
with different roughness for a pile head settlement of 1% of pile diameter.	

Test	Pile	D (m)	L	Type of	σ_c	Roughness	P	f _{ave}	Reference			
		(m)	(m)	Rock	(MPa)	Description	(MN)	(MPa)				
Centrifuge	-			Pseudo-		RF = 0.025	1.18	0.143				
tests*	-	0.80	4.00	rock	1.14	RF = 0.050	1.82	0.177	This work*			
16313	-			TUCK		RF = 0.106	4.70	0.467				
Field tests	P1	0.71	1.37	Shale	5.40	RF = 0.036	3.10	1.01	Horvath et al.			
Field lesis	P6	0.71	1.37	Snale	5.60	RF = 0.100	4.75	1.55	(1983)			
Centrifuge*	P1	1.00	2.54	Pseudo-	1.51	Smooth	3.76	0.47	Dykeman and			
tests	PR2	1.00	2.04	rock	1.51	Rough	6.00	0.75	Valsangkar (1996)			
Field tests	MLSU	0.40	1.00	Gneiss	50	Smooth	0.94	0.75	Seol and Jeong			
Field lesis	MLRU 0.40	0.40 1	0.40	1.00 Gres	1.00	Gneiss	Grielss	50	Rough	1.24	0.99	(2007)
Numerical	3	0.00	0.80	Condetene	24 65	RF = 0.025	0.31	1.22	Gutiérrez-Ch et al.			
simulations	6	0.80	0.80	Sandstone	21.65	RF = 0.106	1.42	5.10	(2020a)			

*values at prototype scale

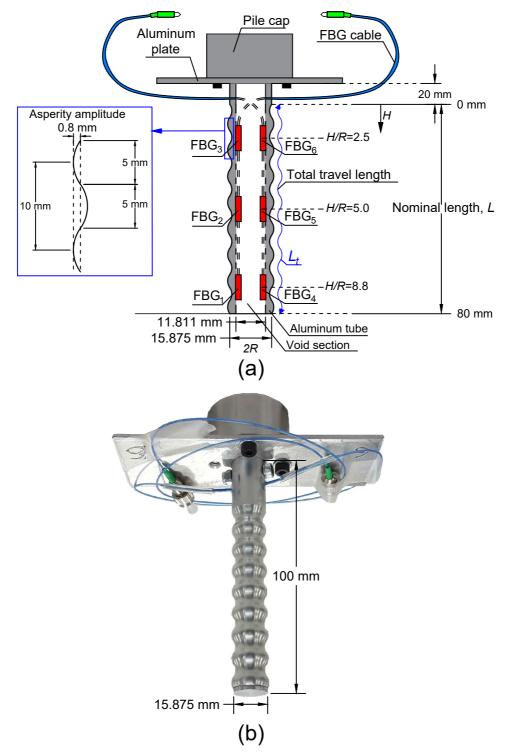


Fig. 1. Aluminum model pile: (a) schematic illustration of the geometric and instrumentation details (b) model pile with RF=0.106 with instrumentation.

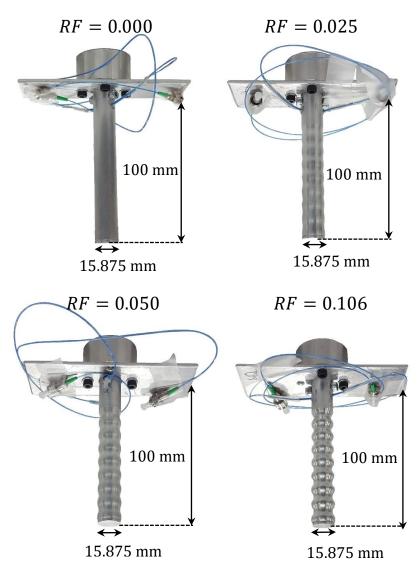


Fig. 2. Model piles with different roughness factor (*RF*).

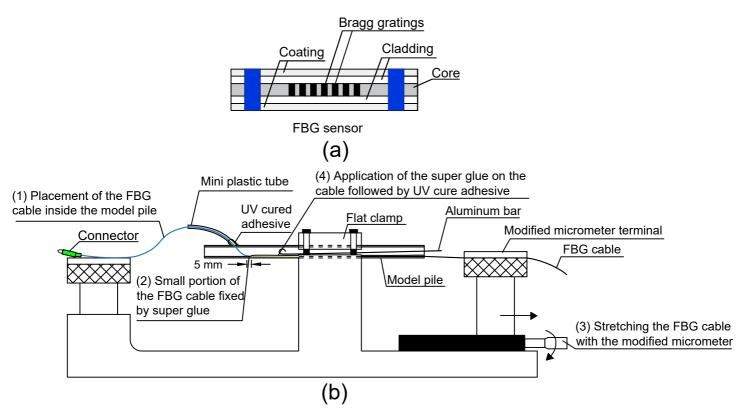


Fig. 3. (a) Detail of the structure of an FBG sensor, and (b) schematic illustration of the installation of an FBG sensor in a model pile.

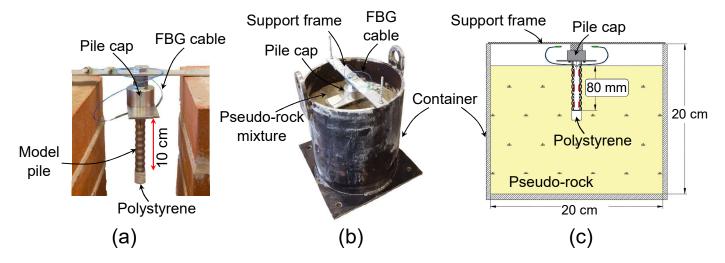


Fig. 4. (a) Model pile (RF = 0.106) with polystyrene piece glued to base, (b) steel cylinder container containing pseudo rock, model pile, and temporary frame to hold pile in place, and (c) typical model pile-pseudo-rock assembly.

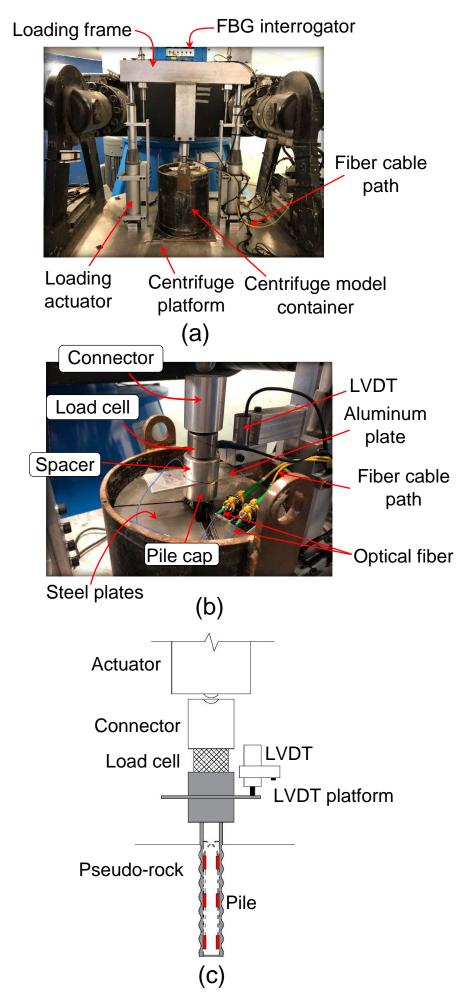


Fig. 5. Centrifuge test set-up: (a) general arrangement of the sample container and loading frame, (b) close-up view of the top of the container, and (c) schematic view of actuator-pile connection.

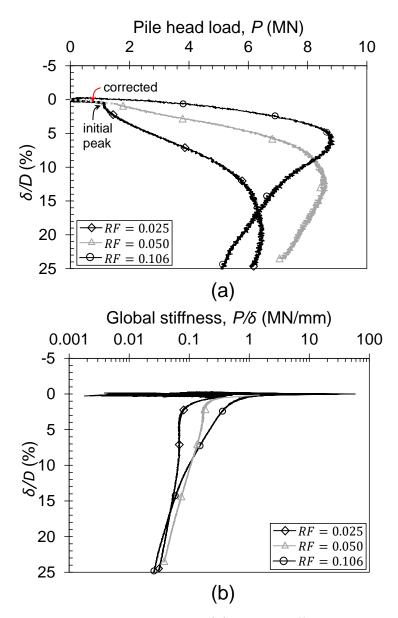


Fig. 6. (a) Pile head load-settlement and (b) global stiffness-settlement curves of centrifuge tests of rock-socketed piles and different roughness profiles.

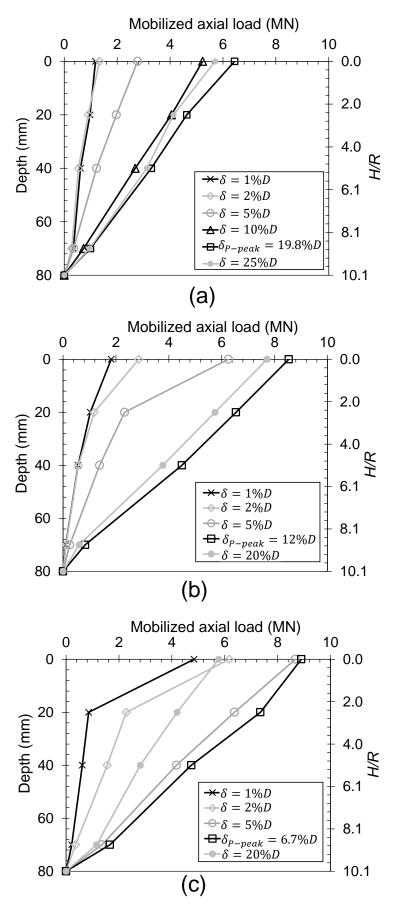


Fig. 7. Mobilized axial load distribution (vs depth) for a given settlement for centrifuge tests with different roughness profiles: (a) RF= 0.025, (b) RF= 0.050, (c) RF= 0.106

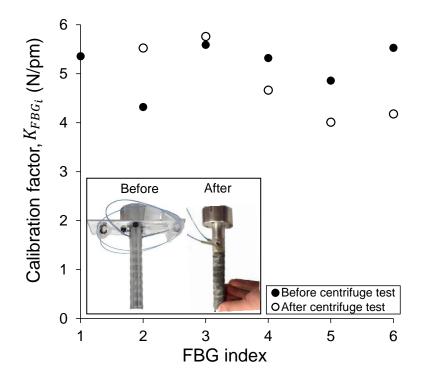


Fig. 8. Variation of the calibration factors for RF = 0.025 pile.

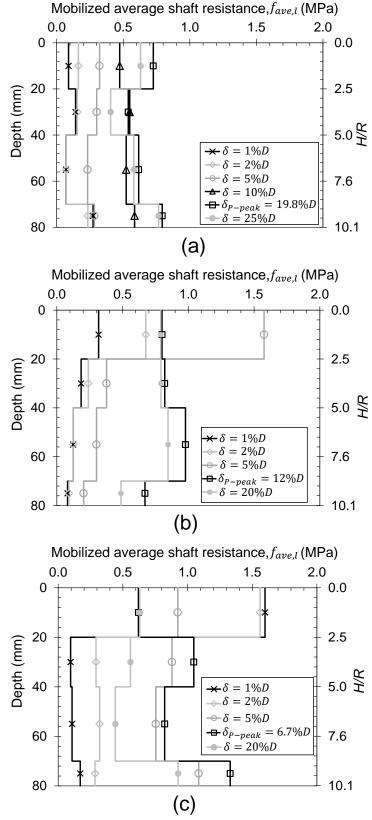


Fig. 9. Mobilized average shaft resistance distribution (vs depth) for a given settlement for centrifuge tests with different roughness profiles: (a) RF= 0.025, (b) RF= 0.050, (c) RF= 0.106.

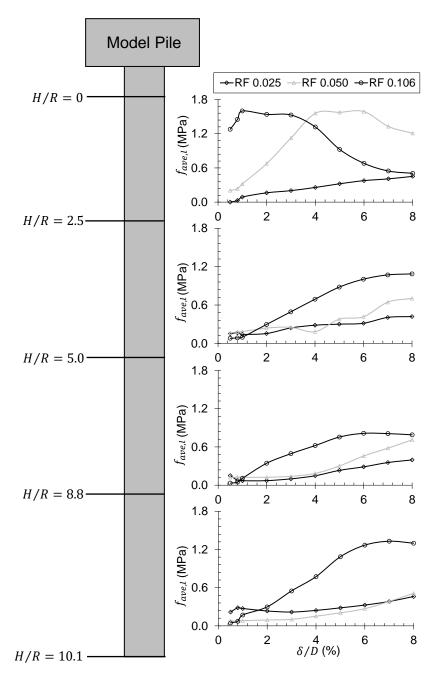


Fig. 10. Mobilized average shaft resistance vs pile head settlement at different depths below the socket for centrifuge tests with different roughness profiles.

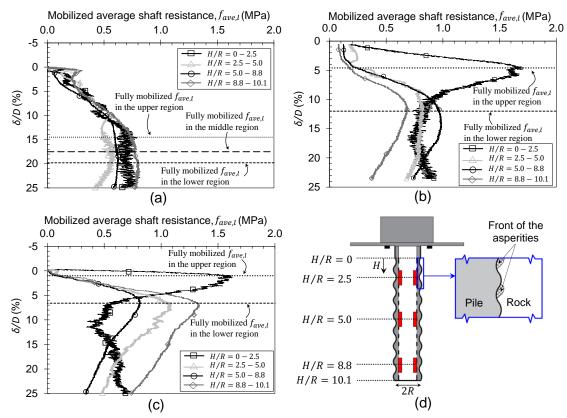


Fig. 11. Mobilized average shaft resistance vs pile head settlement at different depths below the socket for centrifuge tests with different roughness profiles: (a) RF = 0.025, (b) RF = 0.050, (c) RF = 0.106; (d) details of the front of the asperities.

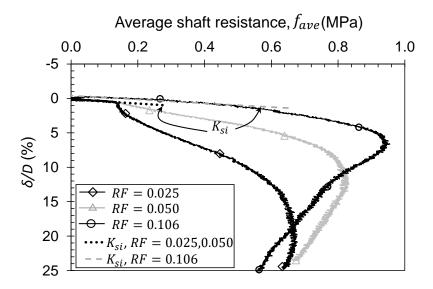


Fig. 12. Average shaft resistance-settlement curves of centrifuge tests of rock-socketed piles with polystyrene base and different roughness profiles.

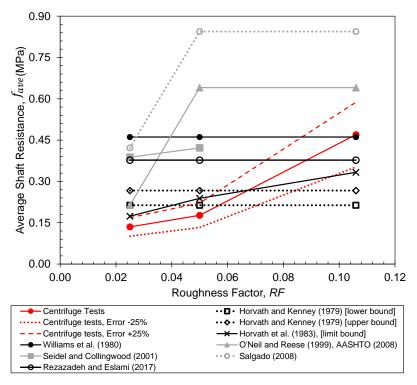


Fig. 13. Shaft resistance estimation: comparative between centrifuge tests results and empirical and analytical criteria.