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### Publication Date

2025-04-01

### DOI

10.1016/j.oceaneng.2025.120550

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# GEOTECHNICAL CENTRIFUGE MODELLING OF THERMAL IMPROVEMENT PROCESSES IN CLAYEY SOILS FOR OFFSHORE ANCHORING PURPOSES

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Anchoring designs for offshore platforms are a constant challenge for geotechnical engineers, particularly when the seabed soil has unfavorable shear strength and deformation characteristics. This has prompted the search for innovative soil improvement techniques. This study involves geotechnical centrifuge modelling of thermal consolidation in lightly overconsolidated clayey soil by heating a torpedo pile (anchor) to improve the soil's mechanical response and torpedo pile pullout capacity. The centrifuge tests evaluated the improvement in soil shear strength after thermal consolidation under two different temperatures (45 and 65°C) and subsequent cooling via T-bar penetration tests during centrifuge testing. Undrained shear strength in these tests was 1.5 to 3 times higher than that of untreated soil. This increase was found to be dependent on the maximum temperature reached at a given location in the soil. This study demonstrates that thermal improvement is a feasible and efficient technical alternative to improve soils in offshore settings since classic soil improvements solutions developed for onshore conditions cannot be applied in deep- or ultradeep-water.

## INTRODUCTION

The discovery of deep and ultradeep water oil and gas fields prompted the oil and gas industry to seek solutions that would enable these environments to be fully exploited. These physical conditions required a shift from fixed to floating platforms, which called for solutions that would guarantee the positioning and stability of drilling platforms on the ocean surface (Lauria et al., 2024, Han & Liu, 2020, Raaj et al., 2023).

In recent decades, different anchor designs and arrangements have been used to securely position floating platforms, including vertical load anchors (VLAs) and suction and torpedo piles, used in catenary or taut leg mooring systems (Rui et al., 2024). The fundamental difference between these two systems is that catenary mooring systems apply predominantly horizontal forces to the anchor, whereas the taut leg system applies both horizontal and vertical forces to the anchor as the angle between the mooring lines and seabed is approximately 45°. These arrangements can result in extremely large mooring areas, especially at water depths of

42 thousands of meters. Large mooring areas can limit the exploitation of the offshore deposit due  
43 to the large spacing between platforms.

44 Another factor in the complexity of platform positioning is the low bearing capacity of the soil  
45 generally found on the seabed. The geotechnical profile of clayey seabed typical of the Brazilian  
46 coastline suggests that the first few meters, where anchors are naturally installed, consists of  
47 slightly overconsolidated fine-grained soil with low shear strength and insufficient anchor  
48 pullout capacity. To meet the mechanical performance requirements of mooring systems,  
49 solutions to date have been limited to increasing the number of anchors per platform or  
50 increasing the anchor size. The first solution results in an undesirable and inconvenient increase  
51 in the number of mooring lines, while the second raises the costs of transporting and installing  
52 anchors, and both having a considerable impact on logistics.

53 Improving the shear strength of clayey soil layers is a widely studied topic in the geotechnical  
54 community. Different techniques are investigated in the literature, such as incorporating rigid  
55 structures, placement of surficial embankments for overconsolidation, chemical treatment,  
56 vacuum consolidation, and electroosmosis, among others. However, these techniques require  
57 easy access to the soil surface. In mooring systems with water depths of hundreds to thousands  
58 of meters, conventional alternatives for soil improvement are not feasible. Improvement of the  
59 shear strength of the seabed soil will result in fewer anchors that can be moored vertically,  
60 reducing the size of the surrounding area. One strategy that may be technically feasible is  
61 thermal consolidation of the soil using the anchor itself as a heat source, thus improving the  
62 mechanical response of the soil in the area around the anchors. This approach has been  
63 investigated in a limited number of tests on torpedo anchors by Ghaaowd et al., (2022), but  
64 further testing is necessary to understand the zone of influence of thermal consolidation around  
65 the anchor.

66 In this respect, an experimental study was conducted using centrifuge-scale physical models to  
67 assess the efficiency of thermal consolidation in improving the shear strength properties of  
68 marine clay layers. A cylindrical heat source was fabricated with geometry similar to that of a  
69 torpedo pile, and the physical model of the soil layer was instrumented with pore pressure  
70 transducers and thermocouples at different locations from the heat source. The undrained shear  
71 strength profiles were obtained via T-bar testing during the centrifuge run, before and after  
72 thermal consolidation.

73

## 74 **BACKGROUND**

75 Campanella and Mitchell (1968) observed different behavior between normally consolidated  
76 (NC), lightly (LOC) and heavily overconsolidated (OC) clayey soil after a heating and cooling cycle,  
77 with volumetric contraction in LOC or NC and moderate expansion in OC. Abuel-Naga et al.  
78 (2007) and Ghaaowd et al. (2015) also reported that pore water pressure due to heating and  
79 post-cooling deformation are dependent on soil stress history. After a soil heating and cooling  
80 cycle, Campanella and Mitchell (1968), Trani et al. (2008) and Abuel-Naga et al. (2007) reported  
81 a return to initial pore water pressure in NC clays and negative final pore water pressure in OC  
82 clays. Pore water pressures are only observed during undrained heating, which will dissipate  
83 after time if drainage is permitted.

84 Researchers such as Houston et al. (1985), Delage et al. (2012), Samarakoon et al. (2019),  
85 Maghsoodi et al. (2020), Samarakoon et al. (2022), Huancollo et al. (2023), among others,  
86 observed an increase in shear strength of NC clays after a heating and cooling cycle, consistent  
87 with the contraction and expansion reported by Campanella and Mitchell (1968) during heating  
88 and cooling. Samarakoon et al. (2022) found that normally consolidated clays with a greater  
89 initial effective stress associated with a greater depth in a soil profile will have a greater increase  
90 in undrained shear strength after heating. Huancollo et al. (2023) carried out thermal triaxial  
91 tests to assess the improvement of fine marine clay via thermal consolidation and recorded  
92 encouraging results in terms of undrained shear strength and stiffness. Samarakoon and  
93 McCartney (2023) and Samarakoon et al. (2022) also found that a heating-cooling cycle leads to  
94 a hardening effect on the small-strain shear modulus, with similar effects observed for fully  
95 drained heating and cooling and undrained heating and cooling followed by drainage after  
96 reaching a target temperature.

97 Britto et al. (1989) presented the results of an experimental study on thermal consolidation  
98 around a cylindrical heat source using physical models in a centrifuge. The findings were highly  
99 satisfactory when compared to those obtained with analytical solutions of the diffusion  
100 equation. Zeinali & Abdelaziz (2021) used the results from triaxial thermal tests to validate an  
101 analytical solution for evaluating pore pressure development and posterior volumetric strains  
102 of fine soils when subject to two rates of transient thermal loads. Using centrifuge modeling and  
103 a cylindrical heat source embedded in soil, Ghaaowd and McCartney (2018) found that pore  
104 water pressure begins to rise immediately after an increase in heat source temperature, even  
105 before the temperature increase reaches areas farther from the heat source. Ghaaowd et al.  
106 (2022) conducted experimental studies in a geotechnical centrifuge to evaluate the  
107 improvement in the pullout capacity of clayey soils after thermal consolidation, using a torpedo  
108 pile as a heat source. The results indicate a considerable improvement in pile pullout capacity  
109 after thermal consolidation. The zone of improvement was a question remaining from this study,  
110 and most improvement occurred in the soil near the pile interface.

111 There have been several studies who have performed analyses of thermal consolidation in  
112 saturated soils. Savvidou and Booker (1989) presented analytical results for the problem of  
113 consolidation around a point heat source in saturated soil. Savvidou and Booker (1991) later  
114 expanded this analytical solution to find an approximate solution for consolidation around a  
115 cylindrical heat source. Chaudhry et al. (2019) reviewed the analytical solution of Booker and  
116 Savvidou (1985) for heat diffusion problems from a point source embedded in a porous medium  
117 and reached different analytical solutions. This study was numerically verified by finite element  
118 analysis. Samarakoon and McCartney (2023) developed a coupled heat transfer and water flow  
119 model to study the thermal consolidation of normally consolidated soils surrounding a porous  
120 heat source and validated the model against data from the literature. Overall, these studies  
121 indicate that further experimental data from boundary value problems involving thermal  
122 consolidation is necessary for validation.

## 123 **EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE**

### 124 ***Model setup***

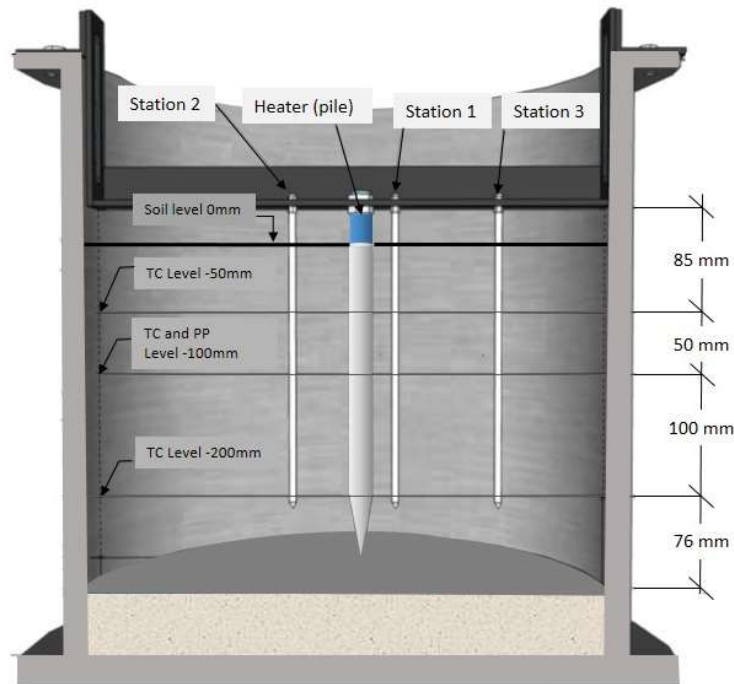
125 A 500 mm-high cylindrical container with an internal diameter of 464mm was used to restrain  
126 the soil layer in the test (Figure 1). Three valves were installed in the container wall for drainage,  
127 two near the bottom and one near the top. A layer of highly permeable porous stone was laid  
128 on the floor of the container to allow drainage from both boundaries of the soil layer to

129 accelerate soil consolidation. A 50mm of water level was maintained above the soil surface. To  
130 monitor pore water pressure dissipation during consolidation, pressure transducers (EPB-PW  
131 Miniature Pressure Transducer from TE Connectivity) were installed through the container wall  
132 at depths of 170, 290 and 410 mm from the top and denominated PP C1, PP C2 and PP C3,  
133 respectively. Two laser displacement sensors (Wenglor CP35MHT80) were also installed to  
134 monitor settlement of the top layer of soil inside the container during consolidation.

135 ***Heater (pile), instrumentation and temperature control***

136 A 250 mm-long hollow aluminum torpedo pile was manufactured, with an external diameter of  
137 19mm. A 180 mm long and 13 mm wide RAPID PAK 0301 electric heating element (750W) was  
138 installed inside the pile. A thermal paste from IMPLASTEC was used to facilitate heat transfer  
139 from the element to the pile body. Figure 2 shows a model of the torpedo pile and heating  
140 element used. It is clear from this figure that the tip of the energy pile is not thermally active, so  
141 heating is expected to occur mainly in the region of soil in the first 235 mm of the soil layer.

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Figure 1 – Overall view of the test model and monitoring stations

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Figure2. Torpedo pile and heating element

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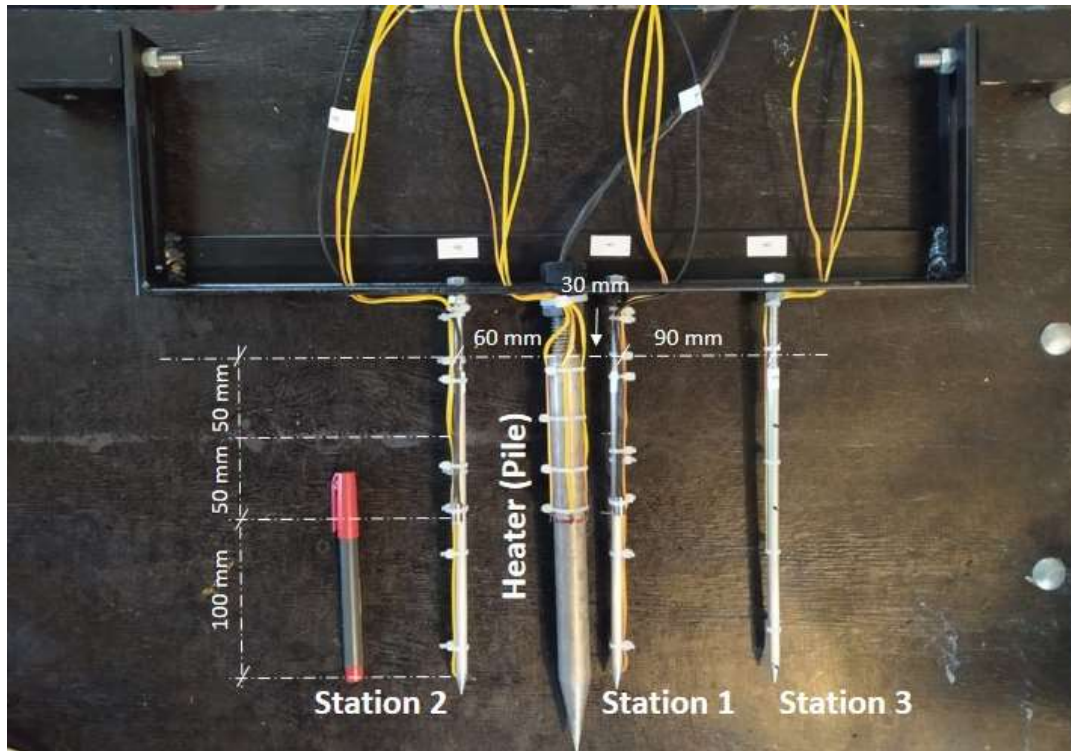
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149 Three monitoring stations were installed at 30 (station 1), 60 (station 2) and 120mm (station 3)  
150 from the pile (heat source) to record temperature and pore water pressure distribution at  
151 specific points inside the soil. These distances are measured from the center of heater to the  
152 center of the station. Each station consists of a rod on which the thermocouples (TT-K-36-500,  
153 type K), however only station 1 and 2 had pore pressure transducers installed, as shown in Figure  
154 3. Both the torpedo pile (hereafter referred to as the heater) and monitoring stations are  
155 coupled to a steel support bar attached to the top of the container. An insulating cap minimizes  
156 heat transfer from the heater to the steel support bar.

157 The three monitoring stations include thermocouples at depths of 50, 100 and 200 mm,  
158 respectively. Monitoring stations 1 and 2 also include pore water pressure transducers at a  
159 depth of 100 mm, corresponding to mid-height of the heated pile. The overall setup of each  
160 monitoring station is shown in Figure 3. Hereafter, each instrument will be identified according  
161 to the monitoring station where it is located, the type of instrument (TC for thermocouple and  
162 PP for pore water pressure transducer) and its installation depth. For example, the designation  
163 TC1.1 indicates a thermocouple on monitoring station 1 at a depth of 50 mm (depth 1), with PP  
164 identification following the same pattern. Three thermocouples were installed on the outer  
165 surface of the pile at the center of the heating element (100 mm) to provide feedback to the  
166 temperature control system, which consisted of a Watlow EZ-Zone controller that enables  
167 closed-loop temperature control. As the focus of this study was not on the mechanical  
168 penetration or pullout response of the torpedo pile, these sensors on the outside of the heater  
169 were deemed to be reasonable.

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171

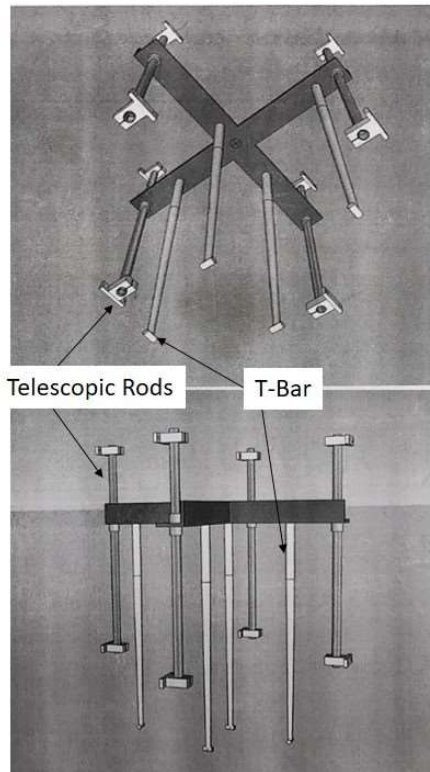
172 Figure 3. Position of the heater and monitoring stations used during thermal consolidation  
173 (L=200mm)

174

175 ***T-Bar penetration tests***

176 To analyze the undrained shear strength profile at different distances from the heat source, a  
177 cross-shaped support structure was built for four simultaneous T-bar penetration tests  
178 conducted at distances of 4, 6, 8 and 16 times the heater radius (Figure 4). These tests aimed to  
179 assess the increase in soil shear strength in relation to distance from the heater and the resulting  
180 area affected by the temperature variation. The diameter and length of the T-bars were 7 and  
181 14mm, respectively. The undrained shear strength profile was then calculated using the  
182 methodology proposed by Stewart and Randolph (1994). The penetration load was measured  
183 by a 50N SV-50 load cell (Alfa Instruments) installed at the top of the rod and the net load was  
184 measured by strain gauges on the shaft installed directly above the T-bar to eliminate the effect  
185 of friction from the shaft.

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Figure 4. T-bar support structure and positioning of the T-bars and their installation in the centrifuge.

190

### ***Slurry consolidation***

191

The soil slurry used in the physical model was prepared from a mixture of kaolin (40%) and metakaolin (60%), whose characteristics are presented in Table 1.

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193

194

Table 1. Slurry characterization

Liquid Limit	45.4%
Plastic Limit	26.5%
Plasticity Index	18.9%
Specific Gravity	2.64
Coefficient of Consolidation	$7.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$
USCS Classification	CL (low plastic clay)
Passing #200 sieve	100%

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The slurry was prepared with an initial gravimetric water content corresponding to 1.5 times the liquid limit of the mixture. Initially, the slurry was homogenized in a mechanical mixer for 30 minutes, and then transferred to another adapted mixer with a vacuum inlet to extract moisture from the mixture. This procedure aims to keep the soil near or at saturated condition.

200

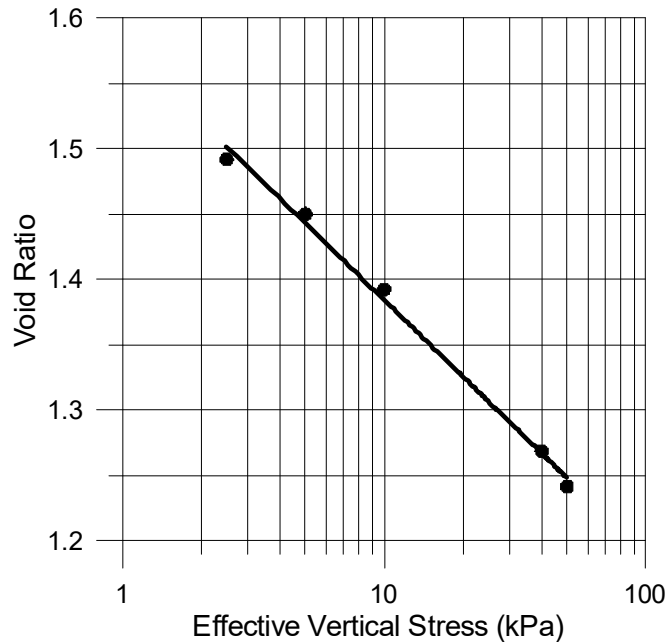
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203

A benchmark large-scale consolidation test at 1g, was carried out in order to capture the compressibility characteristics of the mixture. The test was performed in the same container used in the centrifuge test and the one-dimensional curve can be seen in Figure 5. The normal compression line inclination ( $\lambda$ ) was 0.193.





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Figure 5 – One dimensional stress strain curve from large consolidation test

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Consolidation for the centrifuge tests was performed, initially at 1g, inside the container in four soil layers, in a large consolidometer load frame installed in the laboratory. After slurry preparation, the target soil volume corresponding to each layer was placed in the cylindrical container (464 mm in diameter and 500 mm high). Each stage was designed to produce a 70 mm-thick layer after consolidation, under a load slightly higher than that applied during the centrifuge run to obtain a lightly overconsolidated (LOC) profile with an approximate overconsolidation ratio (OCR) of 2.5. The total thickness of the four layers to obtain the desired shear strength profile was 280mm, as shown in Figure 6. The final average void ratio after consolidation varied between 1.25 and 1.29, resulting in a degree of saturation of at least 97%. Table 2 includes a summary of the parameters before and after mechanical consolidation for the reference test, E1 as well as the heated tests E2 and E3.

Table 2. Data from soil layers during 1G consolidation. a) Test E1, b) Test E2 and c) Test E3.

a)

Layer	Before mechanical consolidation			After mechanical consolidation		
	e	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	w (%)	e	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	w (%)
Layer 1	1.81	1.58	67.5	1.45	1.66	53.9
Layer 2	1.83	1.57	68.3	1.25	1.72	46.0
Layer 3	1.85	1.57	69.2	1.18	1.74	43.7
Layer 4	1.85	1.55	67.0	1.14	1.73	40.3
<b>Weighted mean</b>	1.83	1.56	68.0			

220

221

b)

Layer	Before mechanical consolidation			After mechanical consolidation		
	e	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	w (%)	e	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	w (%)
Layer 1	1.76	1.60	67.7	1.48	1.67	57.2
Layer 2	1.84	1.57	69.1	1.32	1.70	49.6

Layer 3	1.81	1.58	68.1	1.21	1.74	45.5
Layer 4	1.80	1.59	68.8	1.16	1.76	44.6
<b>Weighted mean</b>	<b>1.80</b>	<b>1.59</b>	<b>68.5</b>			

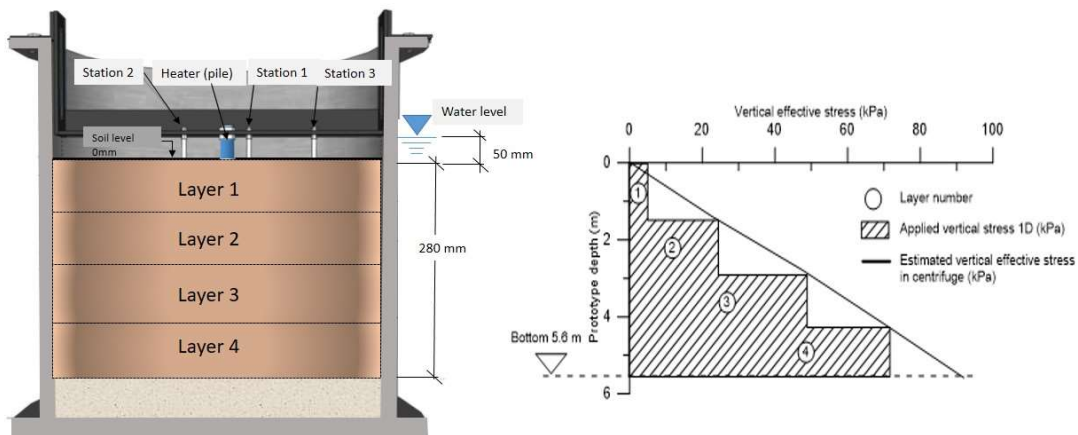
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223

c)

Layer	Before mechanical consolidation			After mechanical consolidation		
	e	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	w (%)	e	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	w (%)
Layer 1	1.76	1.61	68.3	1.43	1.69	55.6
Layer 2	1.86	1.56	69.0	1.36	1.68	49.8
Layer 3	1.77	1.60	67.2	1.16	1.76	44.2
Layer 4	1.81	1.59	68.9	1.16	1.76	44.1
<b>Weighted mean</b>	<b>1.80</b>	<b>1.59</b>	<b>68.4</b>			

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225

226

Figure 6. Consolidation scheme at 1G prior to centrifugation

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After consolidation at 1G, the assembly consisting of the heater (pile) and monitoring station rods with instruments was carefully embedded in the soil inside the container. After embedding the assembly vertically within the soil layer, the resulting pore pressures were allowed to stabilize. The support structure with the T-bars hanging above the soil layer was then positioned to begin the centrifuge tests.

232

### Centrifuge tests

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235

Three tests were carried out in a geotechnical centrifuge, one with no heating (test E1) and two in which the pile was heated at 65 and 45°C and cooled afterwards (tests E2 and E3, respectively). The different stages of the geotechnical centrifuge tests are described in Table 3.

236

Table 3 –Stages followed for the centrifuge tests

Test stage	Description	Environment
1	Soil preparation and mechanical consolidation in 4 layers	Outside centrifuge
2	Installation of the pile and instrumented stations	
3	Self-weight consolidation at 20g	
4	Heating the torpedo pile	During centrifugation
5	Cooling the torpedo pile	

237

238 There was no heating or cooling in the reference test E1, as its objective was to determine the  
239 soil shear strength profile before thermal treatment and use these results as reference for the  
240 remaining tests. To ensure similarity between the tests, the reference test was run with the pile  
241 and instrumented rods embedded in the model, as in the heating tests.

242

243 When a gravitational field of 20g was reached, increases in pore water pressure were observed  
244 in the transducers on the container walls and the monitoring station rods. At this point, the pore  
245 pressure was allowed to dissipate, which took an average of three hours. Immediately after  
246 consolidation was completed, the T-bar drive system was activated at a speed of 20mm/s,  
247 embedding the T-bars to a planned depth of 280mm. This reference test was conducted at an  
248 average room temperature of 26.8°C, which was relatively constant during testing due to the  
use of an air circulation system.

249

250 Tests E2 and E3 consisted of thermal treatment at maximum temperatures of 65 and 45°C,  
251 respectively, immediately after mechanical consolidation. Once the desired temperature was  
252 reached in tests E2 and E3, it was maintained until stabilization of the sensors readings located  
253 in the three instrumented rods. This stage lasted approximately 4h40min. Next, the heating was  
254 switched off to allow the soil to return to room temperature naturally (uncontrolled), which took  
255 around 2 hours in both tests. After the soil heating and cooling cycle, the T-bar tests were  
256 initiated at a penetration speed of 20 mm/s, where undrained behavior is assumed to occur in  
accordance with Finnie and Randolph (1994) and Stewart and Randolph (1994).

257

## 258 **RESULTS**

### 259 ***Reference Test E1***

260

261 The undrained shear strength profile obtained from the T-bars in test E1 are shown in Figure 7.  
262 The undrained strength profiles of T-bars 3 and 4 (at distances of 4 and 8 times the pile diameter,  
263 respectively) are slightly lower than those of T-bars 1 and 2 (located at 2 and 3 times the pile  
264 diameter). This is because the soil closer to the container wall experiences boundary effects and  
is, therefore, less consolidated than zones further from the wall. It is important to note that  
265 although the profile increases with depth, it is relatively constant in the layers created during  
266 consolidation at 1g. In the case of undrained strength, the void ratios in each layer were  
267 relatively constant, generating localized overconsolidation in each layer. As such, for overall  
268 assessment, an intermediate mean undrained shear strength profile was established between  
269 the undrained shear strength profiles at different radial distances, depicted by the red line in  
270 Figure 7.

271

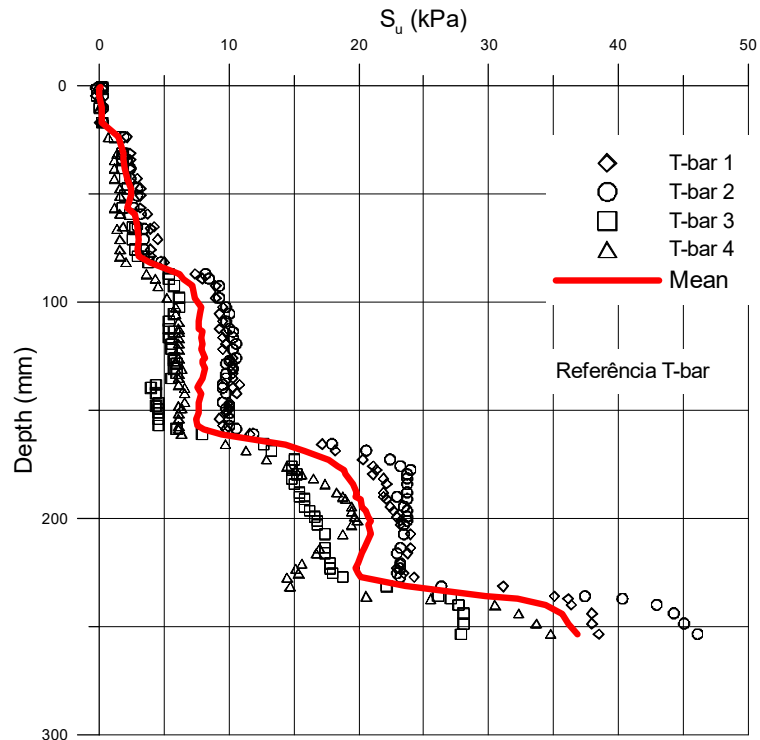


Figure 7. Undrained shear strength profiles for reference test E1

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273

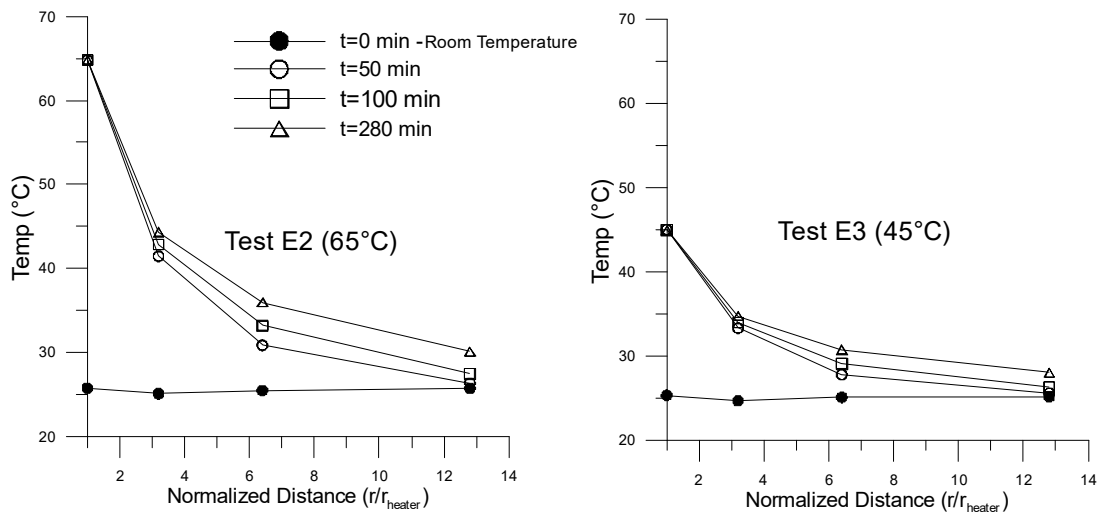
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275 **Thermal Consolidation Phase**

276 Once the desired centrifuge acceleration was reached, the excess pore pressures generated  
 277 during mechanical consolidation in the centrifuge were allowed to stabilize and the heating cycle  
 278 then initiated in the pile, up to maximum temperatures of 65 and 45 °C, for tests E2 and E3,  
 279 respectively. The temperature increases applied to the heater in relation to the temperature in  
 280 test E1 were 38.2 and 18.2°C for tests E2 and E3, respectively. The responses of the sensors  
 281 installed in the monitoring station rods are presented in Figure 8 where the temperatures are  
 282 plotted as a function of normalized radius distance for tests E2 and E3.

283

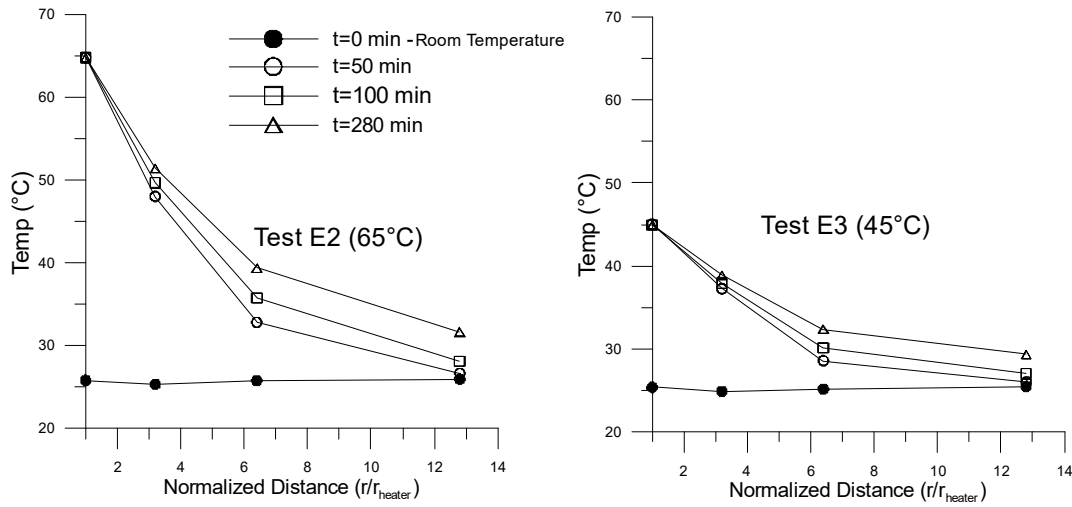
Sensor Depth: 50mm



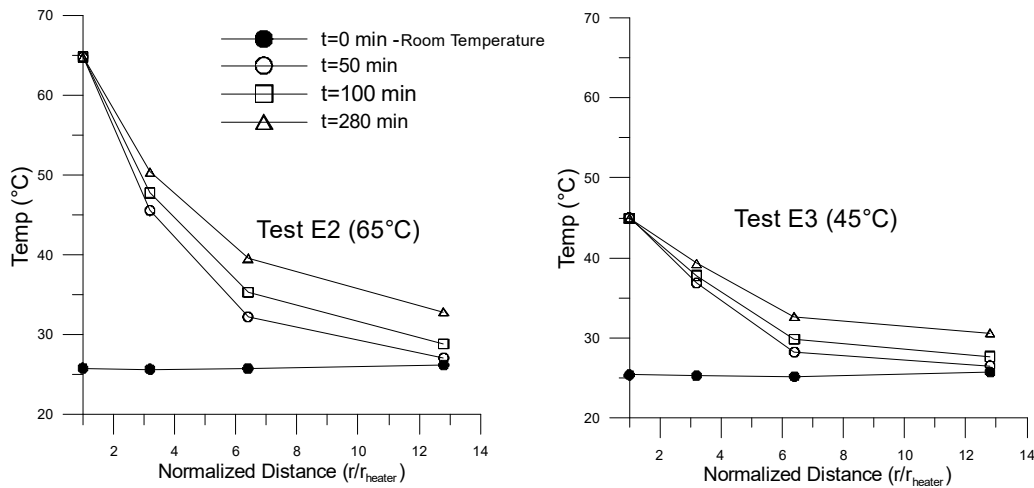
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285

Sensor Depth: 100mm



Sensor Depth: 200mm

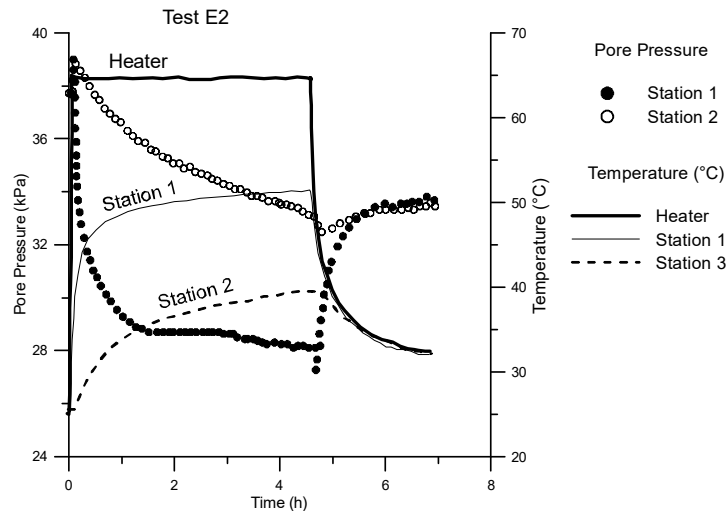


289 Figure 8. Temperature distributions during heating

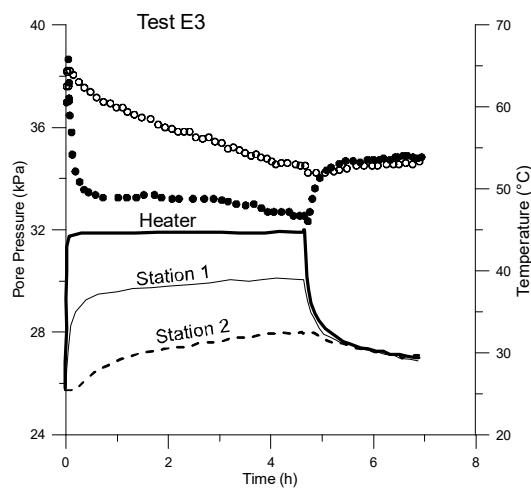
290 The spatial temperature variation exhibited exponential trend behavior as a function of  
 291 normalized distance, which is consistent with the theory of infinite line heat source solution as  
 292 shown by Britto et al (1989). Thus, it is apparent that the temperature increase was greater  
 293 between the middle (100 mm) and base of the heater (200 mm) in both tests. Cooling occurred  
 294 naturally by switching off the heater. Regardless of the maximum temperature reached, the  
 295 average time elapsed to return to room temperature was approximately 2h10min.

296 The temperature increase and subsequent cooling generate excess pore water pressure that  
 297 subsequently dissipates, as observed in Figure 9 at the 100 mm-deep monitored points at  
 298 normalized distances of ( $r/r_{heater}$ ) of 3.2 and 6.3. Pore water pressure peaks suddenly during  
 299 heating and then declines, confirming slight overconsolidation due to prior consolidation of the  
 300 layers at 1g environment, as previously mentioned. Pore water pressure increases during  
 301 cooling, albeit without returning to initial values.

302



303



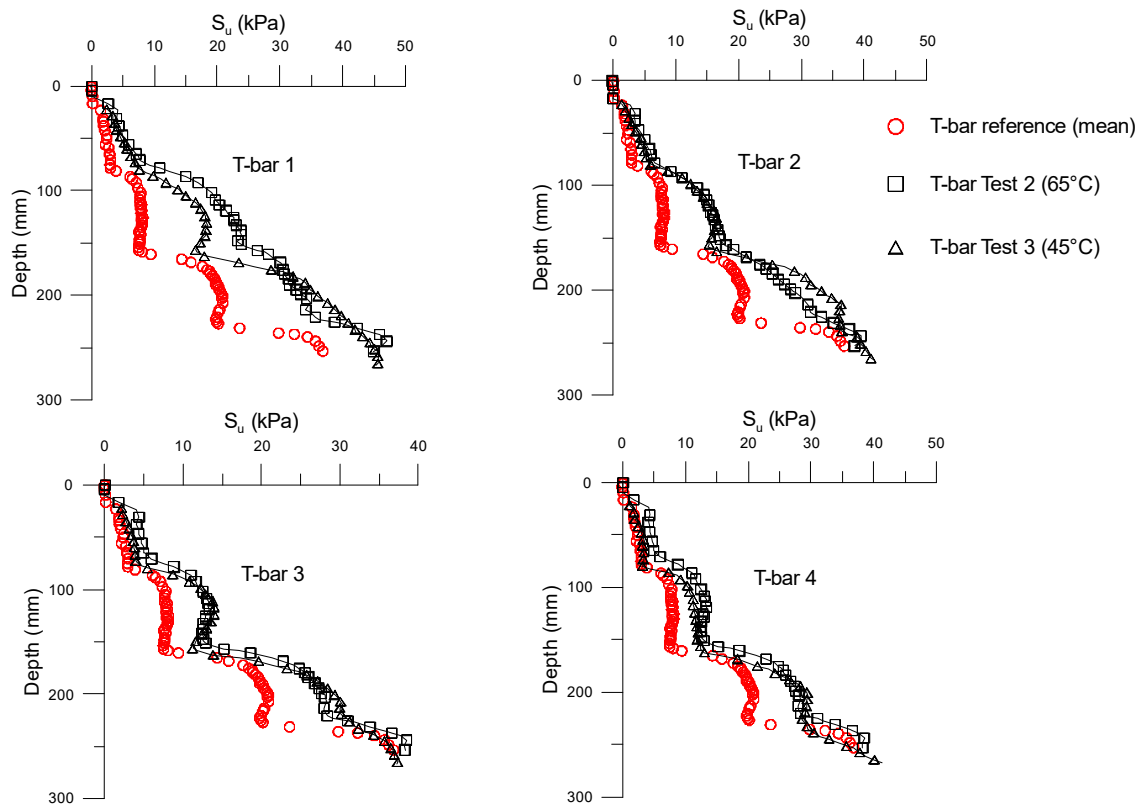
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305 Figure 9 – Pore water pressure variation during heating and cooling for the tests E2 and E3.

306

307 Despite the rapid temperature increase in the heater, the measurements at stations 1 and 2  
 308 presented different heating patterns. As the heater temperature reaches its maximum in both  
 309 testes (65 and 45°C) almost immediately, the temperatures recorded by the two stations follow  
 310 an exponential-like trajectory, with, after long term, very low rate about 0.003°C/min, which,  
 311 according to Morteza Zeinali & Abdelaziz, (2021) allows the dissipation of the pore pressure  
 312 during heating process. The measurements at station 1 presents an initial heating increase rate  
 313 higher than of station 2, however, after 2 hours they show similar rates. The initial rate of station  
 314 1 was about 0.5°C/min while the measurements at station 2 showed an initial rate of  
 315 0.033°C/min. The rate of pore pressure dissipation was decreasing for station 1 after  
 316 approximately 2 hours, while station 2 was still in a clear process of quasi-static dissipation. It is  
 317 interesting to note that in test E2, the heater temperature reached 65°C and the measurements  
 318 at station 1 tended to stabilize around 53°C. On the other hand, the test E3, where the heater  
 319 temperature was 45°C, the temperature in station 1 tends to stabilize at 40°C. When the pore  
 320 pressure drops quite rapidly at the location of station 1, water flow occurs from station 2  
 321 towards station 1 due to the difference in total head. During the cooling phase, both stations  
 322 recorded similar recovery patterns.

323 As stated, the T-bars tests were carried out simultaneously at distances 2, 3, 4, and 8d from the  
 324 heat source, where d is the pile (heater) diameter. The results are shown in Figures 10 along  
 325 with the mean of the reference T-bar measurements. To compare the reference and thermal  
 326 treatment results, the increase in strength was calculated point by point via statistical analysis,  
 327 disregarding the first 15 mm from the top, an area affected by the consolidation cap at 1g. With  
 328 a view to reducing the influence of undrained strength fluctuations across the soil profile, the  
 329 mean of the four T-bars in E1 (red circles in Figure 10) was used as reference for comparison  
 330 with E2 and E3. As such, the results of each T-bar in E2 and E3 were compared with the mean  
 331 profile of the reference T-bars. The improvement results are defined as the simple quotient of  
 332 the individual strength values of each T-bar in relation to the strength measured at the same  
 333 corresponding depth of the mean curve of the reference T-bars. It is important to note the  
 334 pattern of an increase in temperature in the container as a function of sensor distance and their  
 335 respective depths, as observed in Figure 8. Heat propagation is greater at the location of the 100  
 336 mm-deep sensor in monitoring station 1 in both experiments. Heat concentration is less evident  
 337 at station 2 and greater at station 3 for a depth of 200 mm.



338

339

Figure 10. Undrained shear strength before and after thermal consolidation.

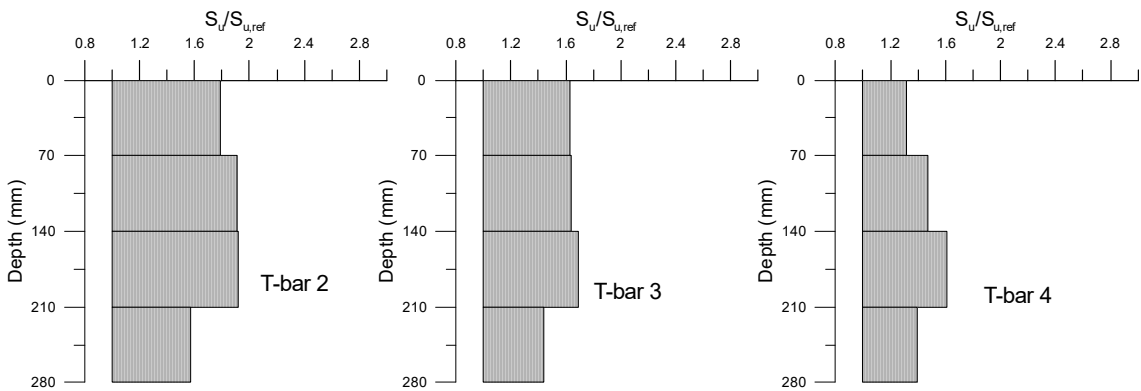
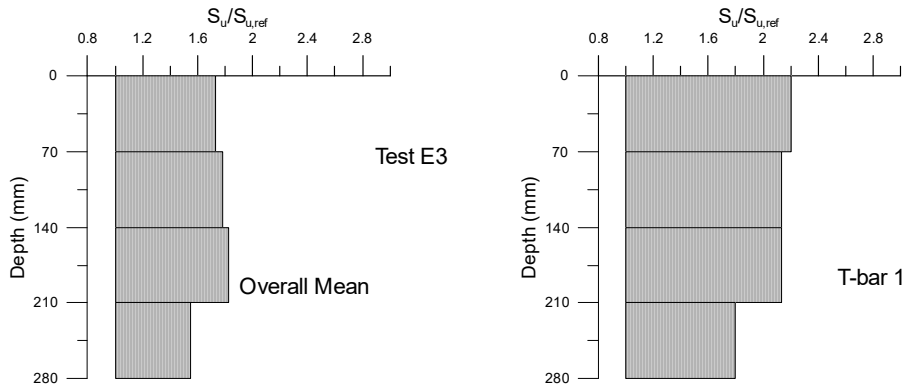
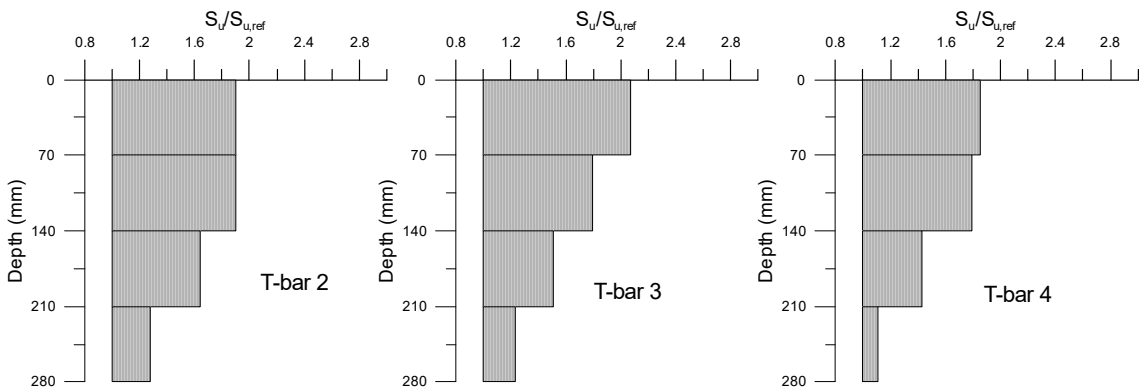
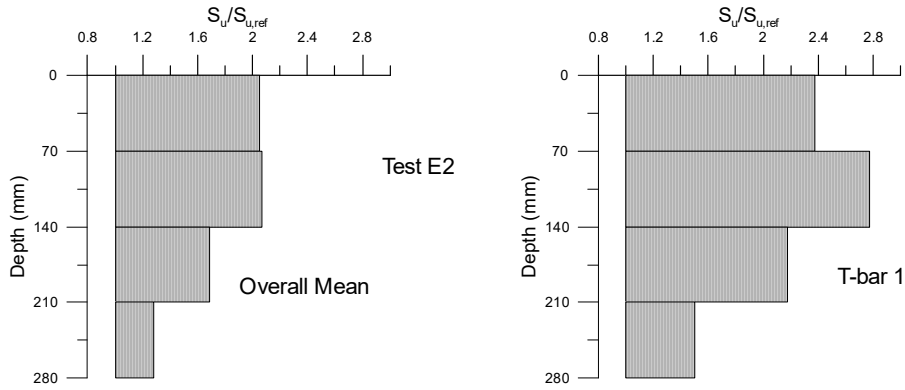
340

## 341 DISCUSSION

### 342 *Undrained Shear Strength after Thermal Consolidation*

343 The  $S_u$  profile for the reference tests showed that the soil layers were very well-defined, with  
 344 clear strength plateaus between them. Thus, to enable direct comparison of undrained strength  
 345 values between tests, the four soil layers were compared individually, calculating the mean of  
 346 the strength values obtained for the T-bars in E2 and E3 and the mean of E1 results in the

347 respective layers (Figure 11). However, it was found valuable to include the overall mean of the  
 348 strength ratio, which is calculated using the mean of the four T-bars for each layer.



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353 Figure 11. Gain in normalized undrained shear strength with model depth and distance from  
354 the heat source.

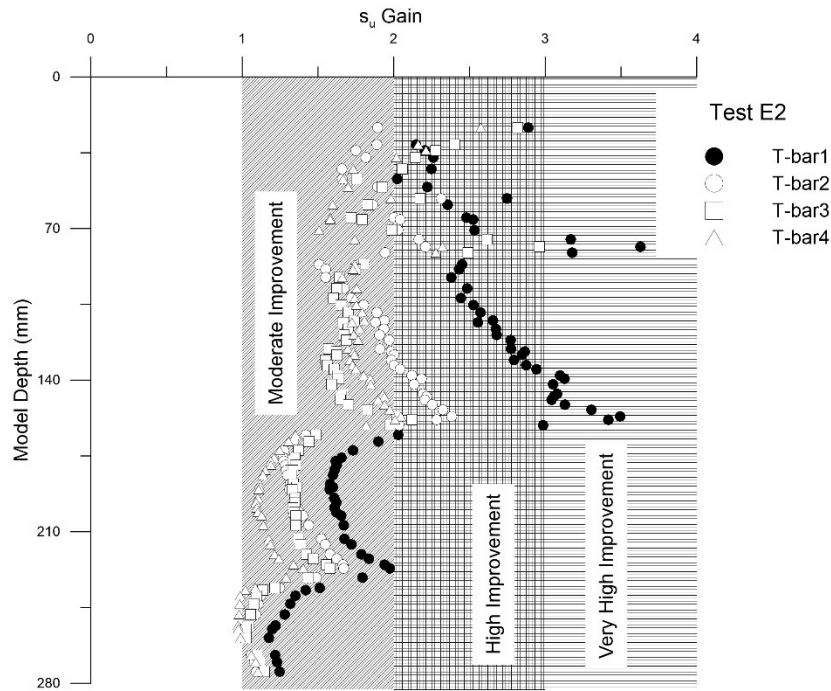
355 For T-bars 1 to 4 in E2, heated to 65°C and then cooled to room temperature, the results indicate  
356 significant undrained shear strength gains at all locations. Increases were more evident for T-  
357 bar 1, with the gain in the second layer reaching around 2.6 times the reference undrained shear  
358 strength value. More modest gains were observed in the layer between depths of 210 and 280  
359 mm for all the T bars, an area farther from the direct influence of heating. For T-bar 1, as  
360 observed in test E3, increases were greater in the second layer, at approximately 2.2 times the  
361 reference undrained strength. Strength gains in the first soil layer were low for the remaining T-  
362 bars. This is because heat transfer in areas near the surface occurs primarily by convection,  
363 which is affected by the propagation time and surface exposure to wind effects during the  
364 centrifuge flight. Analysis of the complete undrained strength profile with depth indicated that  
365 the results obtained in test E3 (heating up to 45°C) were similar to those of E2. However,  
366 comparison of the mean of each layer of the reference test showed more modest, albeit still  
367 significant, gains in relation to test E2.

368 In order to analyze the whole set of points where undrained shear strength was measured  
369 along with depth, three classes for indicating the amount of improvement were created: Very  
370 high improvement, where the undrained shear strength gain is higher than 3.0; High  
371 improvement, where the gain is between 2.0 and 3.0, and moderate improvement, where the  
372 gain is higher than 1.0 and lower than 2.0 .

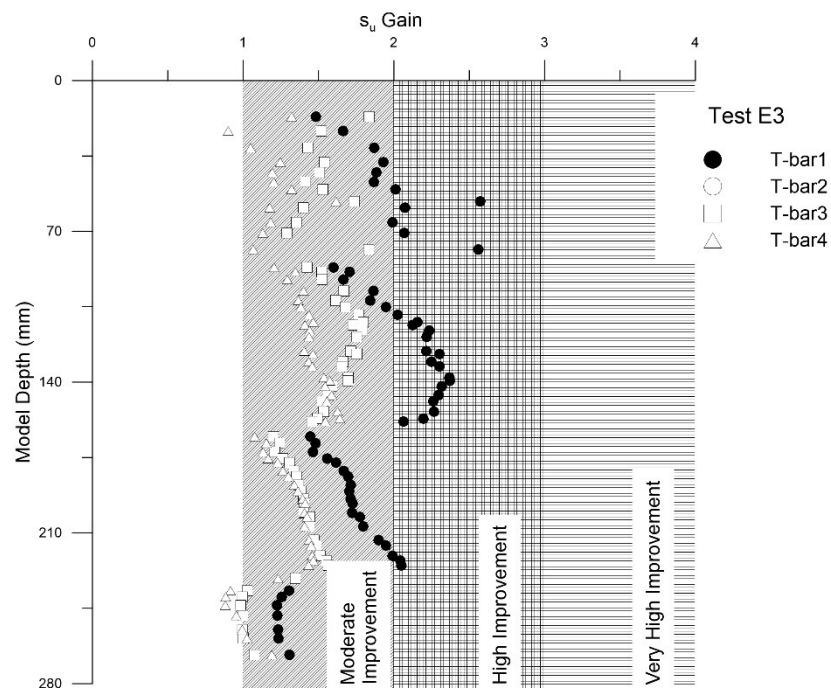
373 Figure 12 shows a direct comparison from point to point for T-bars 1 to 4 of tests E2 and E3  
374 with the mean  $S_u$  from reference test at same corresponding depth. In T-bar1 of the test E2,  
375 that is close to the heat source up to depth 170mm, very high gain has been observed, For the  
376 T-bar tests located far from the heat source, T-bar 3 and 4, the gain was more modest, but still  
377 quite higher as compared to the reference test. It is interesting to note that the highest gain  
378 for the test E2, are located between the depth of 0 and 170mm, which coincides with the  
379 length of the heating element inside the pile. Below this depth, the gain was moderate.

380 Considering the test E3, no gain fell into “very high improvement” category. However, for T-  
381 bar1 and T-bar2, the gain was in the limit between the two categories. As observed in test E2,  
382 the T-bar1 of the test E3 also shows the highest gain, however with less intensity. Some very  
383 few points showed values less than 1 in the tip of the heater. This is attributed to the natural  
384 variability of the soil that is not impacted by the thermal consolidation, deeper than 240mm.

385



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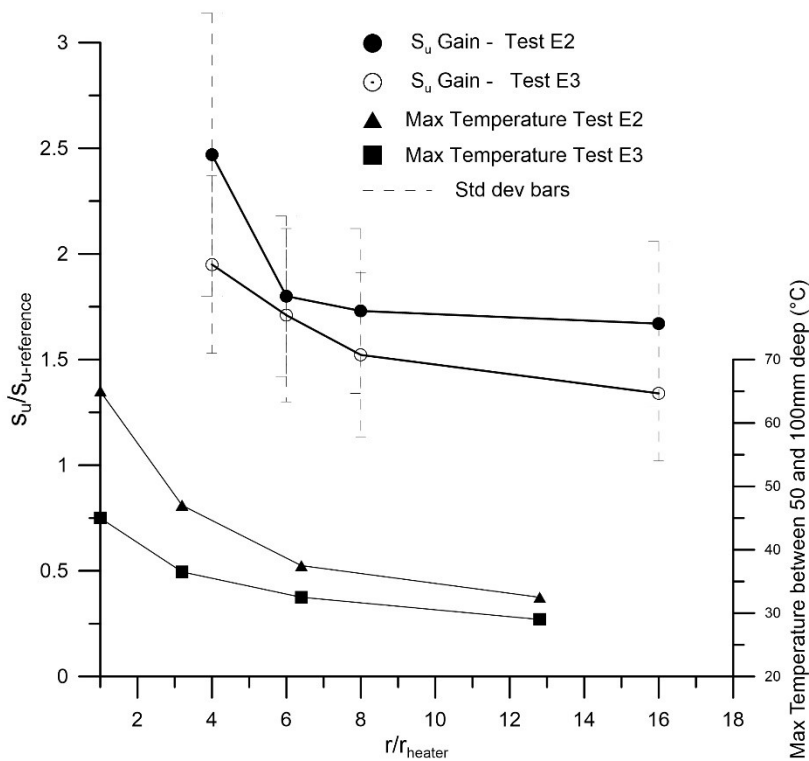
387

388 Figure 12. Gain in undrained strength for the whole set of values from each T-bar after thermal  
 389 treatment compared to the mean values from the reference test.

390 As such, strength gains are larger for higher  $s_u$  temperature increases due to the greater impact on  
 391 pore water pressure generated during heating.

392 To give an overall and straight impression of the gain of undrained strength for both Tests E2  
 393 and E3 along the whole volume of soil impacted by the temperature, the mean of each T-bar  
 394 was divided by the mean of the reference T-bar (Test E1) and plotted against the distance from  
 395 the heat source (Figure 13) for all values. Despite the large variation, the tendency of the gain in  
 396 undrained shear strength is clear.

397



398

399 Figure 13. Overall undrained shear strength gain as a function of the distance from the heat  
400 source and the maximum reached temperature for tests E2 and E3.

401 Considerable gains in undrained strength with radius distance from the heat source, is  
402 associated with induced flow due to difference in total head caused by locally pore pressure  
403 generation after heating. This has promoted additional consolidation, which can reach distances  
404 farther than 16 times the heated pile radius, where the undrained strength increase reaches up  
405 to 50%. It is interesting to mention that the curves representing the gain of undrained shear  
406 strength follow the same shape of the temperature distribution during heating as shown in  
407 Figure 8. This feature is particularly interesting for considering pile group arrangement where  
408 the heat source is placed at the center of the group, improving all the adjacent piles. Remarkable  
409 improvement is seen in regions close to the heat source, which are directly responsible for the  
410 ultimate capacity of this kind of anchorage, working mainly under pull out loads.

411

## 412 CONCLUSION

413 The effect of thermal induction on volume change and the resulting shear strength gain in  
414 normally or lightly overconsolidated cohesive soils has been more widely studied in recent years.  
415 However, physical modeling has been evidenced to be a practical and efficient technique,  
416 particularly in environments inhospitable to humans where traditional soft soil improvements  
417 are not feasible. This study used geotechnical centrifuge modeling to evaluate the effectiveness  
418 of thermal soil consolidation and the resulting shear strength gain with depth (stress level),  
419 heating intensity and distance from the heat source. This technique was proposed to investigate  
420 its use in marine anchoring systems, with the additional goal of emitting heat to promote  
421 consolidation in the surrounding area and enable verticalization of the load, thus reducing the  
422 number of mooring lines and congestion in the drilling and exploration area. The results were  
423 promising, with shear strength gains of up to 220% in the areas closest to the pile, which is also

424 a heat source. Using the pile itself as a heater source needs further technological development,  
425 and it is out of the scope of this study, however, the amount of soil improved by the heating,  
426 shown in the tests, confirm the efficiency of the method. The effects of the improvement, albeit  
427 smaller, can be felt at distances up to 16 times greater than the radius of the source, indicating  
428 that for a cluster or group of piles, a single equidistant heat source can be highly effective for  
429 the whole set of pile composing the group, given the radial heat conduction.

430

## 431 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

432 The Authors are grateful to the Brazilian Oil Company – Petrobras for supporting this research  
433 through the Grant No 0050.0098204.15.9

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