

1 **Probabilistic Analysis for Large Strain Radial Consolidation of**
2 **Soft Soils considering Creep**

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4 by

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31 **Abstract:** Effective design of prefabricated vertical drains (PVDs) requires accurate prediction of soil
32 consolidation behavior incorporating creep and spatial variability in soil properties. This study
33 develops a probabilistic analysis framework that integrates random field theory, the piecewise-linear
34 method and Monte Carlo simulation to evaluate the long-term consolidation of soft soils with PVDs.
35 The framework accounts for spatial variability in soil parameters, creep strain, large-strain effects,
36 hydraulic conductivity anisotropy, soil smear, and time-dependent loading. Three routinely measured
37 soil parameters, including plasticity index, liquid limit, and void ratio, are treated as random variables.
38 The proposed method is validated through comparison with field measurements from a preloaded
39 embankment site along the Sydney-Newcastle Freeway extension equipped with PVDs. Results show
40 that the field data align closely with the high-probability density predictions from the probabilistic
41 analysis. Sensitivity analysis indicates that increasing the coefficient of variation leads to an almost
42 linear widening of the estimated range, while autocorrelation distances and cross-correlation
43 coefficients exert a relatively minor influence on consolidation behavior. These findings highlight the
44 importance of accurately estimating the coefficient of variation in a cost-effective manner during field
45 investigations and statistical analysis.

46

47 **Keywords:** Soft soils; Large-strain consolidation; Creep; Prefabricated vertical drains; Probabilistic
48 analysis

49 **Introduction**

50 Subsurface conditions at many construction sites are characterized by thick layers of compressible soft
51 soils. Similarly, dredged soil slurries are frequently used in land reclamation projects due to the scarcity
52 and increasing cost of high-quality granular fill materials (Yozzo et al. 2004; Yin et al. 2024). To
53 address these challenges, vertical drains combined with preloading, using surcharge, vacuum, or both,
54 are employed to improve the stiffness and strength of soft soils. Although early projects utilized sand
55 drains as vertical drainage channels, they have largely been replaced by prefabricated vertical drains
56 (PVDs), which are band-shaped, cost-efficient, and easier to install. The installation of closely spaced
57 PVDs shortens the maximum drainage path and redirects the primary fluid flow direction from the
58 vertical to the horizontal direction, where hydraulic conductivity is typically greater. This significantly
59 accelerates the consolidation process in soft soil layers.

60 PVDs are now widely used to improve soft soils in various infrastructure projects, including
61 embankment (Chai et al. 2001; Lo et al. 2008; Baral et al. 2021), disposal sites (Nozue et al. 2007),
62 storage facilities (Chu et al. 2000), reclaimed lands (Zhu et al. 2018), airport runways (Tang and Shang
63 2000; Bergado et al. 2002), and ports (Indraratna et al. 2019). Radial consolidation models play a
64 central role in PVD design, allowing engineers to optimize drain layouts and predict pore pressure
65 dissipation and settlement over time. Spatial variability in the physical and mechanical parameters of
66 soils arises from natural processes such as sedimentation, historical loading, and chemical or physical
67 weathering (Phoon and Kulhawy 1999; Nishimura et al. 2002). However, laboratory or in situ
68 measurements at discrete locations often fail to adequately capture this variability. Incorporating
69 spatial variability into consolidation analysis is essential for accurately modeling soil behavior (Huang
70 et al. 2007; Bong et al. 2014; Spross and Larsson 2021). Despite this, most existing studies on spatial
71 variability in coupled consolidation problems are limited to small-strain theory and do not fully
72 incorporate random field applications (Huang et al. 2010; Shi and Wang 2023).

73 Finite strain consolidation theory, which accounts for changes in soil thickness under loading,
74 offers significant advantages in analyzing soft soils with vertical drains, especially in layered ultra-soft
75 conditions. In the context of deterministic analysis, researchers have made valuable contributions to
76 modeling consolidation under finite strain, incorporating factors such as non-Darcian radial flow
77 (Indraratna et al. 2017), creep strains (Song et al. 2024), general constitutive relationships (Pu et al.
78 2020), well resistance (Nguyen et al. 2020), cyclic loading (Ni and Geng 2022) and various solution
79 techniques, such finite differences (Hu et al. 2014; Li et al. 2024), finite element (Geng and Yu 2017),
80 and piecewise-linear (Fox et al. 2003; Song et al. 2024). Among these, the piecewise-linear numerical
81 model RCS1, designed for single-layer saturated soils, accounts for vertical drain, soil self-weight,
82 hydraulic conductivity anisotropy, radial and vertical flows, soil smear effects, and evolving material
83 properties during consolidation. The piecewise-linear approach is particularly effective in handling
84 spatial nonlinearity, material heterogeneity, and complex initial or boundary conditions. These
85 advancements provide a robust framework for modeling large-strain radial consolidation.

86 This study presents a probabilistic analysis framework for modeling the long-term finite strain
87 consolidation of soft soils with prefabricated vertical drains (PVDs), utilizing a piecewise-linear
88 approach and an elastic visco-plastic constitutive model. The framework incorporates critical factors
89 such as the spatial variability of soil parameters, creep behavior, large-strain effects, hydraulic
90 conductivity anisotropy, radial and vertical flows, soil smear, time-dependent loading, and variations
91 in hydraulic conductivity and compressibility throughout the consolidation process. Three on-site
92 measurable soil parameters, including plasticity index, liquid limit, and void ratio, are treated as
93 random variables. Spatial variability in constitutive parameters is quantified using empirical
94 relationships linking these measurable inputs to the parameters required for analysis. The development
95 of this framework is outlined, followed by validation using a field case study of a preloaded site on the
96 Sydney-Newcastle Freeway, involving thick layers of soft clay and large strains. The study also

97 evaluates the influence of the coefficient of variation, vertical and lateral autocorrelation distances, and
98 cross-correlation coefficients on the probabilistic analysis of radial consolidation in soft clay.

99 **Consolidation Model**

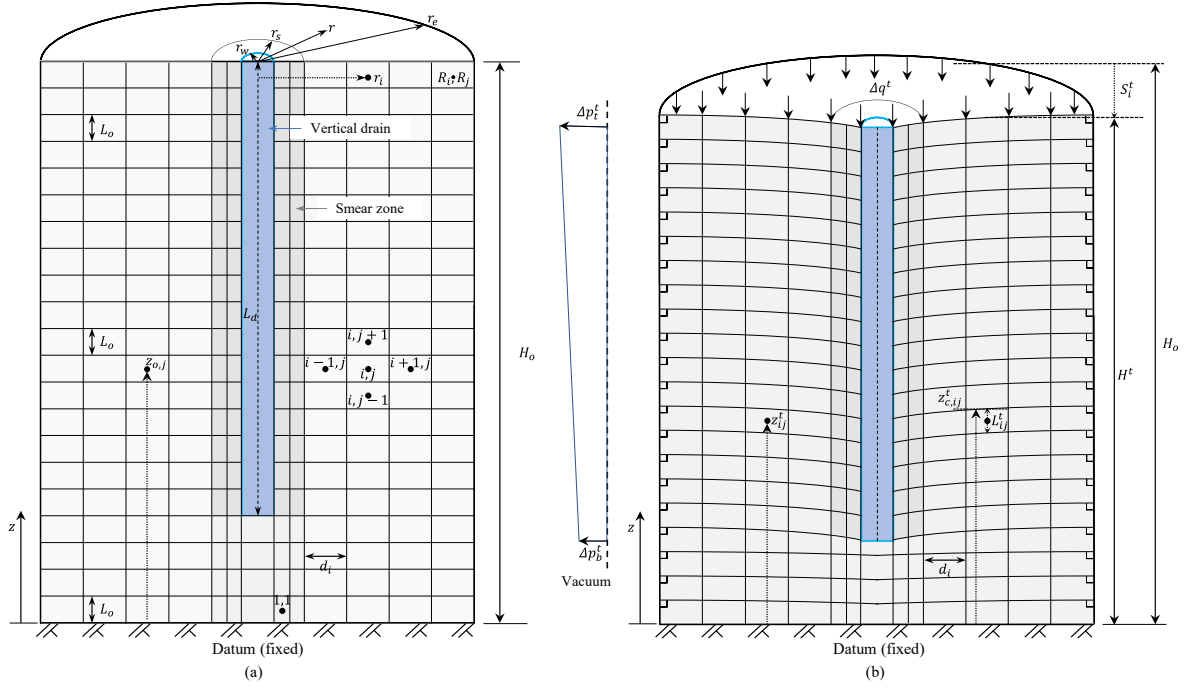
100 ***Geometry***

101 A saturated, homogeneous soil layer with an initial height H_o is idealized as a two-phase material
102 comprising incompressible pore water and solid particles. The term “homogeneous” refers to the
103 constitutive relationships of the soil layer rather than its initial conditions, such as void ratio of effective
104 stress distributions. For consolidation analysis involving a single drain, an axisymmetric unit cell with
105 an effective influence radius r_e is typically adopted, reflecting the regular grid arrangement of vertical
106 drains. Fig. 1 illustrates the initial geometry of an axisymmetric soil column with a height H_o and
107 radius r_e before load application ($t = 0$). Drains may fully or partially penetrate the soil layer, with
108 penetration length $L_d \leq H_o$. The drain radius r_w is calculated as $r_w = (w_d + t_d)/\pi$, where w_d and t_d are the
109 width and thickness of the PVD band. The surrounding smear zone is modeled with an equivalent
110 radius r_s .

111 Anisotropic hydraulic conductivity is incorporated in the analysis by assigning k_v for the vertical
112 direction and k_r ($= r_k k_v$) for the radial direction, where r_k is assumed throughout the consolidation
113 process and is consistent with the findings by Leroueil et al. (1990). In the smear zone, hydraulic
114 conductivity is also modeled as anisotropic, with k_{sv} in the vertical direction and k_{sr} ($= r_k k_{sv} = k_r / \eta$) in
115 the radial direction, where η is the hydraulic conductivity ratio of the smear zone. A constant η ,
116 typically ranging from 2 to 6 as recommended, is adopted in the RCS-EVP model. The soil column is
117 discretized into R_j elements vertically and R_i elements radially, with the first R_s radial elements
118 defining the smear zone. This creates a mesh of $R_j \times R_i$ axisymmetric ring elements. The vertical
119 coordinate z is positive upward from the bottom of the soil layer, while the radial coordinate r is
120 positive outward from the drain center. Element coordinates i and j follow a similar convention. Each

121 ring element has an initial rectangular cross-section with width d_i , height $L_o = H_o/R_j$, and volume $V_{oi} =$
122 $2\pi r_i d_i L_o$, centered at an initial elevation z_{oi} , where $d_i = (r_s - r_w)/R_s$ for the smear zone, $d_i = (r_e - r_s)/(R_i - R_s)$
123 for the undisturbed soil. Boundary conditions can be specified as undrained, freely drained, or vacuum
124 pressure-controlled at the top and bottom of the soil column. The outer lateral boundary ($r = r_e$) is
125 typically assumed impermeable due to the symmetry of adjacent unit cells. Flow resistance in the drain
126 (i.e., well resistance) is neglected in the RCS-EVP model.

127 A time-dependent vertical surcharge load, Δq^t , is applied to the top boundary of the soil layer,
128 moving vertically in tandem with the upper boundary throughout the consolidation process. The
129 boundary condition at the drain can be specified as impermeable, freely drained, or vacuum pressure
130 controlled. In vacuum preloading with a permeable sand drainage blanket and an airtight membrane
131 covering the upper soil boundary, vacuum pressure is applied simultaneously at the top boundary and
132 within the drain. Alternatively, in the membrane-less vacuum preloading method, where the vacuum
133 pump system is directly connected to PVDs, the sand blanket is unnecessary. This scenario can be
134 modeled by specifying the drain boundary condition as vacuum drainage. Excess pore pressure,
135 generated by applied surcharge or vacuum pressure boundary conditions, drives fluid flow from the
136 interior of the soil column to all drainage boundaries. Soil deformation occurs due to fluid outflow
137 from each ring element and is assumed to be purely vertical, transforming the element's cross-section
138 into a trapezoidal shape with constant lateral spacing d_i , as shown in [Fig. 1\(b\)](#).



139

140 Fig. 1. Geometry for RCS-EVP: (a) initial configuration ($t = 0$), and (b) after consolidation for time t_1

141

($t_1 > 0$)

142 During the consolidation process ($t > 0$), the average height L_{ij}^t and node elevation z_{ij}^t for ring

143 element ij are calculated as

144 (1)
$$L_{ij}^t = \frac{z_{c,ij}^t + z_{c,i-1,j}^t - z_{c,i,j-1}^t - z_{c,i-1,j-1}^t}{2}$$

145 (2)
$$z_{ij}^t = \frac{z_{c,i-1,j-1}^t + z_{c,i-1,j}^t + z_{c,i,j-1}^t + z_{c,ij}^t}{4}$$

146 where $z_{c,m,ij}^t$ = elevation of the upper outer corner of ring element, as illustrated in Fig. 1(b). Corner

147 elevations of element are calculated as

148 (3)
$$z_{c,ij}^t = z_{c,i-1,j}^t + z_{c,i,j-1}^t - z_{c,i-1,j-1}^t + \frac{3d_i \left[V_{ij}^t - \pi \left(z_{c,i-1,j}^t - z_{c,i-1,j-1}^t \right) \left(r_{ou}^2 - r_{in}^2 \right) \right]}{\pi \left(r_{in}^3 - 3r_{in}r_{ou}^2 + 2r_{ou}^3 \right)}$$

149 where V_{ij}^t = volume of element ij at time t , $r_{in} = r_i - (d_i / 2)$ and $r_{ou} = r_i + (d_i / 2)$ are the internal and

150 outer radial coordinates of element ij . Cross-sections of the outmost ring elements, i.e., $i = R_i$, are

151 assumed to remain rectangular during the entire consolidation process to ensure that all of the corner
 152 elevations can be determined from the volume values.

153

154 ***Constitutive Relationships***

155 The elastic visco-plastic (EVP) constitutive model, developed by [Yin and Graham \(1989, 1994\)](#), is
 156 incorporated into the RCS-EVP framework. [Fig. 2\(a\)](#) illustrates the effective stress-void ratio
 157 relationship as a function of time, based on the EVP model. The change in void ratio de over a time
 158 increment dt is calculated using [Eq. \(4\)](#). Conversely, if de and dt are known, the corresponding
 159 increment in effective stress $d\sigma'$ can be determined using [Eq. \(5\)](#).

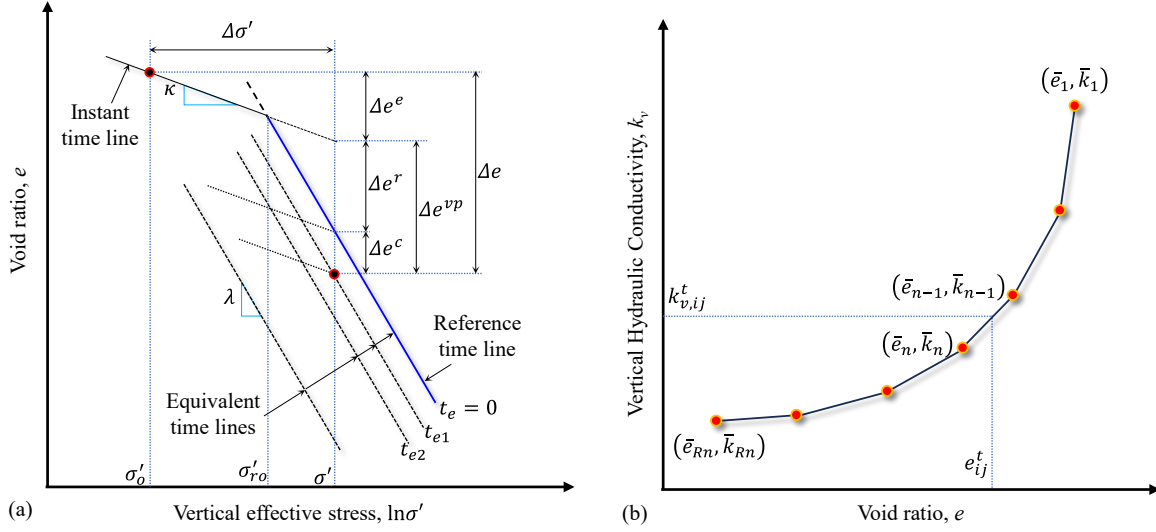
$$160 \quad (4) \quad de = \frac{\kappa}{\sigma'} d\sigma' + \frac{\psi}{t_o} \exp\left(\frac{e - e_o^r}{\psi}\right) \left(\frac{\sigma'}{\sigma'_{ro}}\right)^{\lambda/\psi} dt$$

$$161 \quad (5) \quad d\sigma' = \left(de - \frac{\psi}{t_o} \exp\left(\frac{e - e_o^r}{\psi}\right) \left(\frac{\sigma'}{\sigma'_{ro}}\right)^{\lambda/\psi} dt \right) \times \frac{\sigma'}{\kappa}$$

162 where σ' = vertical effective stress; κ , λ and ψ = slope of instant time line dependent on $\ln(\sigma' / \sigma'_i)$,
 163 the slope of a reference time line related to $\ln(\sigma' / \sigma'_{ro})$, and the slope of a creep line associated with
 164 $\ln[(t_o + t_e) / t_o]$, respectively, where σ'_i = unit-reference effective stress for an instant time line and t_e
 165 = equivalent time; σ'_{ro} = stress in the reference time line and is similar to the pre-consolidation
 166 pressure; and t_o = a constant soil parameter. Details of the extended EVP model derivation are provided
 167 by [Song et al. \(2023a\)](#).

168 The hydraulic conductivity relationship implemented in RCS-EVP ([Fig. 2b](#)) is defined using R_n
 169 (≥ 2) pairs of vertical hydraulic conductivity \bar{k}_v and void ratio \bar{e} . This flexible approach allows any
 170 desired form of the hydraulic conductivity relationship to be approximated by selecting an appropriate
 171 number of discrete data pairs. Once the void ratio of element ij at time t , e_{ij}^t , is determined, the

172 corresponding vertical hydraulic conductivity ($k_{v,ij}^t$) can be calculated by interpolating between the
 173 adjacent defined data pairs.



174

175 Fig. 2. Soil constitutive relationships: (a) elastic visco-plastic compressibility

176 and (b) hydraulic conductivity

177

178 **Stress, Flow and Settlement**

179 The vertical total stress at node ij at time t , σ_{ij}^t , is calculated by considering the self-weight of the
 180 overlying soil layer and the overburden effective stress, as expressed by

$$181 \quad (6) \quad \sigma_{ij}^t = \left(h_t - \frac{z_{c,i-1,R_j}^t + z_{c,i,R_j}^t}{2} \right) \gamma_w + \sigma'_{o,ij} + \Delta q^t + \frac{V_{ij}^t \gamma_{ij}^t}{4\pi r_i d_i} + \sum_{b=j+1}^{R_j} \frac{V_{ib}^t \gamma_{ib}^t}{2\pi r_i d_i}$$

182 where $\gamma_{ij}^t = \gamma_w (G_s + e_{ij}^t) / (1 + e_{ij}^t)$ = saturated unit weight of element; e_{ij}^t = void ratio of element ij at

183 consolidation time t , and assumed as constant for each time increment; G_s = specific gravity of solid;

184 $\sigma'_{o,ij}$ = signifies initial effective stress; and γ_w = unit weight of pore water. Lateral displacement is

185 neglected, and nodes of each element move vertically during the consolidation process. This

186 approximation of one-dimensional soil strain is valid for most radial consolidation problems, given the

187 large cross-sectional loading area relative to the thickness of compressible layers and the small lateral

188 spacing between PVDs. An additional advantage of this approach is that soil properties derived from
 189 standard oedometer tests can be directly used for radial consolidation analysis.

190 The deviation of hydraulic conductivity in the vertical direction, $k_{z,ij}$, from the original vertical
 191 hydraulic conductivity, $k_{v,ij}$, arises due to the distortion of anisotropic soil elements during the
 192 consolidation process. This deviation is calculated using the following expression:

$$193 \quad (7) \quad k_{z,ij}^t = \frac{k_{v,ij}^t}{\sin^2 \theta_{ij}^t + \cos^2 \theta_{ij}^t / r_k}$$

194 The vertical volumetric flow rate $q_{z,ij}^t$ between element ij and $i,j+1$ is

$$195 \quad (8) \quad q_{z,ij}^t = -k_{zs,ij}^t \left(i_{z,ij}^t \right)^\beta 2\pi r_i d_i$$

196 where the equivalent vertical series hydraulic conductivity $k_{zs,ij}^t$ is

$$197 \quad (9) \quad k_{zs,ij}^t = \frac{k_{z,ij}^t k_{z,i,j+1}^t (L_{ij}^t + L_{i,j+1}^t)}{k_{z,ij}^t L_{i,j+1}^t + k_{z,i,j+1}^t L_{ij}^t}$$

198 and the vertical hydraulic gradient $i_{z,ij}^t$ is

$$199 \quad (10) \quad i_{z,ij}^t = \frac{(z_{i,j+1}^t + u_{i,j+1}^t / \gamma_w) - (z_{ij}^t + u_{ij}^t / \gamma_w)}{z_{i,j+1}^t - z_{ij}^t}$$

200 For the upper and bottom elements, $k_{zs,i,R_j}^t = k_{v,i,R_j}^t$ and $k_{zs,i,0}^t = k_{v,i,1}^t$. Non-Darcian flow is
 201 incorporated using the exponent β ; if Darcy's law is valid, $\beta = 1$.

202 Analogously, equivalent lateral hydraulic conductivity $k_{rs,ij}^t$, lateral hydraulic gradient $i_{r,ij}^t$ and
 203 lateral volumetric flow rate $q_{r,ij}^t$ between element ij and $i,j+1$ are

$$204 \quad (11) \quad k_{rs,ij}^t = \frac{r_k k_{v,ij}^t k_{v,i+1,j}^t (d_i + d_{i+1})}{k_{v,ij}^t d_{i+1} + k_{v,i+1,j}^t d_i}$$

205 (12)
$$i_{r,ij}^t = \frac{(z_{i+1,j}^t + u_{i+1,j}^t / \gamma_w) - (z_{ij}^t + u_{ij}^t / \gamma_w)}{\sqrt{(d_{i+1} - d_i)^2 + (z_{i+1,j}^t - z_{ij}^t)^2}}$$

206 (13)
$$q_{r,ij}^t = -k_{rs,ij}^t (i_{r,ij}^t)^\beta 2\pi \left(r_i + \frac{d_i}{2} \right) (z_{c,ij}^t - z_{c,i,j-1}^t) \sin \theta_{ij}^t$$

207 For the drain boundary, $k_{rs,0,j}^t = r_k k_{sv,1,j}^t$. The total head varies linearly at the drain. The hydraulic
 208 gradient ($i_{r,0,j}^t$) for a fully penetrating drain is computed as follows

209 (14)
$$i_{r,0,j}^t = \frac{h_{1,j}^t - \left[h_b + (h_t - h_b) (z_{c,0,j}^t + z_{c,0,j-1}^t) / (2z_{c,0,R_{IT}}^t) + \Delta p_j^t / \gamma_w \right]}{\sqrt{(d_1 / 2)^2 + \left[z_{1,j}^t - (z_{c,0,j}^t + z_{c,0,j-1}^t) / 2 \right]^2}}$$

210 Once vertical and lateral volumetric flow rates are known, new element volumes are calculated for
 211 time $t + \Delta t$ as

212 (15)
$$V_{ij}^{t+\Delta t} = V_{ij}^t + (q_{z,i,j-1}^t - q_{z,ij}^t + q_{r,i-1,j}^t - q_{r,ij}^t) \Delta t$$

213 A new height is calculated for each soil layer over time increment Δt ,

214 (16)
$$H^{t+\Delta t} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{R_i} \sum_{j=1}^{R_j} V_{ij}^{t+\Delta t}}{\pi (r_e^2 - r_w^2)}$$

215 the settlement profile at time $t + \Delta t$, $S_i^{t+\Delta t}$, is calculated as

216 (17)
$$S_i^{t+\Delta t} = H_o - z_{c,i,R_j}^{t+\Delta t}$$

217 and the average settlement of the soil column $S_{avg}^{t+\Delta t}$ is determined by

218 (18)
$$S_{avg}^{t+\Delta t} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{R_i} \sum_{j=1}^{R_j} (V_{o,i} - V_{ij}^{t+\Delta t})}{\pi (r_e^2 - r_w^2)}$$

219

220 **Random Field**

221 Three natural soil properties, including plasticity index I_p , liquid limit w_L , and initial void ratio e_o , are
222 defined as random variables in this study. These parameters can be efficiently measured through
223 conventional laboratory procedures with well-established protocols, making them particularly
224 advantageous for field investigations and quality control. Their measurability, combined with strong
225 correlations to engineering behavior (Wroth and Wood 1978), ensures these variables are both
226 theoretically significant and practically applicable in probabilistic analysis. A lognormal probability
227 distribution is employed to characterize these random variables, ensuring they remain positive, as
228 required (Huang et al. 2010; Zhu and Zhang 2013).

229 The probability density function of the random variables is characterized by the autocorrelation
230 length (θ) in both the lateral and vertical directions, the standard deviation (σ), the mean value (μ), and
231 the dimensionless coefficient of variation ν is

$$232 \quad (19) \quad \nu = \frac{\sigma}{\mu}$$

233 Extensive research has demonstrated that soil consolidation properties exhibit strong correlations with
234 plasticity index, liquid limit and void ratio. These relationships are well established, as the parameters
235 fundamentally influence soil compressibility, permeability, and time-dependent settlement behavior
236 (Nagaraj and Srinivasa Murthy 1986; Sridharan and Nagaraj 2005; Hong et al. 2012; Shimobe and
237 Spagnoli 2022). For instance, soils with higher plasticity indices and liquid limits typically exhibit
238 greater compressibility due to their higher clay content and associated water-holding capacity. Once I_p ,
239 w_L , and e_o in the soil column are known, the consolidation parameters, including compression index
240 C_c , secondary compression coefficient $C_{\alpha e}$ and coefficient of permeability in the vertical direction k_v ,
241 are computed using the evolutionary polynomial regression method (Jin and Yin 2020), as follows:

$$242 \quad (20-a) \quad C_c = g(I_p, w_L, e_o) + a_o$$

243 (20-b)
$$C_{ae} = f(I_p, w_L, e_o) + a_1$$

244 (20-c)
$$k_v = K(I_p, w_L, e_o) + a_2$$

245 where a_o , a_1 and $a_2 =$ constants. The variables of interest are assumed to follow a lognormal distribution,
 246 meaning that the natural logarithms of these variables are normally distributed (Zhu and Zhang 2013).

247 The standard deviation and mean of the underlying normal distribution for a variable m (i.e., C_c , C_{ae}
 248 and k_v) are

249 (21)
$$\sigma_{\ln m} = \sqrt{\ln(1 + v_m^2)}$$

250 (22)
$$\mu_{\ln m} = \ln \mu_m - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{\ln m}^2$$

251 The inter-variable correlations matrix ρ describes the correlations between the three variables, and is
 252 defined as

253 (23)
$$\rho = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho_{12} & \rho_{13} \\ \rho_{21} & 1 & \rho_{23} \\ \rho_{31} & \rho_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

254 The inter-variable correlation matrix is decomposed into the product of a lower triangular matrix and
 255 its transpose using Cholesky decomposition.

256 (24)
$$\rho = \mathbf{L}_2 \cdot \mathbf{L}_2^T$$

257 A single exponential autocorrelation function is adopted to represent the spatial correlation between
 258 two points, such as point p (r_p, z_p) and point q (r_q, z_q). This function is widely used in probabilistic
 259 analysis due to its computational simplicity.

260 (25)
$$\rho_{pq} = \exp \left[-2 \left(\frac{|r_p - r_q|}{\theta_r} + \frac{|z_p - z_q|}{\theta_z} \right) \right]$$

261 where $\theta_r =$ autocorrelation length in the lateral direction, and $\theta_z =$ autocorrelation length in the vertical
 262 direction.

263 Matrix \mathbf{L}_2 is used to transform uncorrelated samples into samples that exhibit the desired inter-
 264 variable correlations. Similarly, a Cholesky decomposition is applied to the spatial correlation matrix
 265 $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ to obtain another lower triangular matrix \mathbf{L}_1 .

$$266 \quad (26) \quad \mathbf{\Sigma} = \mathbf{L}_1 \cdot \mathbf{L}_1^T$$

267 The transformation to introduce spatial and inter-variable correlations

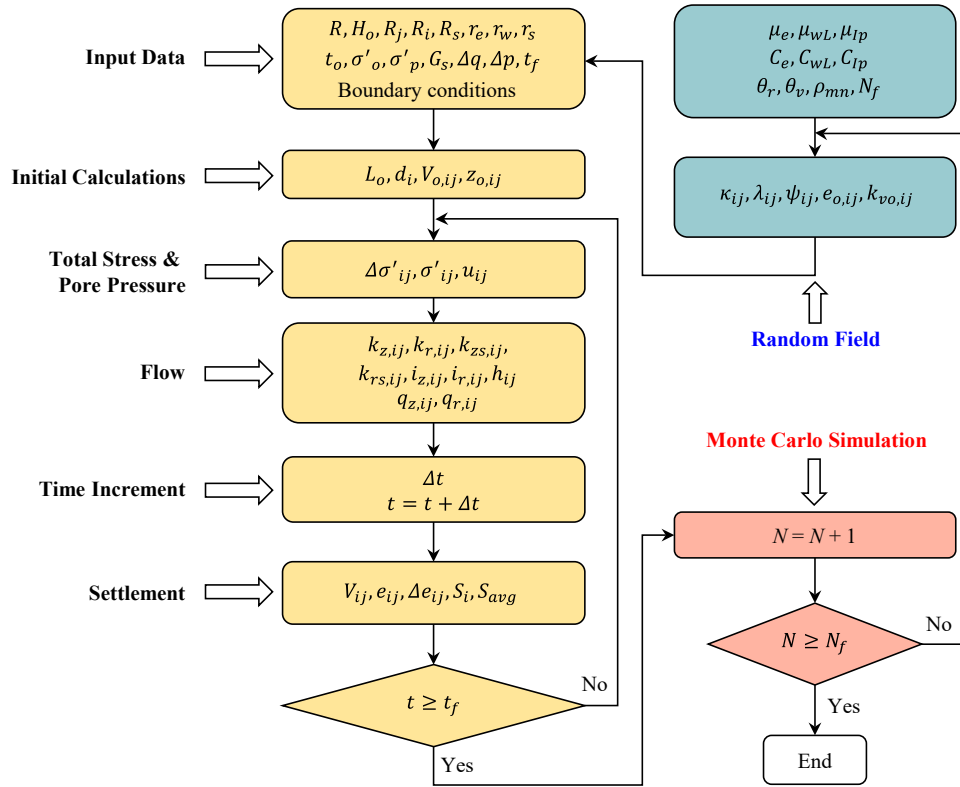
$$268 \quad (27) \quad \mathbf{\Sigma} = \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{U} \mathbf{L}_2^T$$

269 where \mathbf{U} = matrix of uncorrelated standard normal random variables. Transform the correlated normal
 270 random field $\mathbf{\Sigma}_n$ into a log-normal field with specified mean μ and variance σ^2

$$271 \quad (28) \quad m_n = \exp\left(\mu_{\ln m_n} + \sigma_{\ln m_n} \mathbf{\Sigma}_n\right)$$

272 A flowchart illustrating the basic algorithm for the calculation loop is shown in Fig. 3. The required
 273 input data for a simulation include the number of elements (R_i and R_j), the applied stress or pressure
 274 conditions (e.g., σ'_o , Δq and Δp), the specific gravity of the solid particles (G_s), the boundary
 275 drainage conditions, and parameters for the constitutive relationships (compressibility and hydraulic
 276 conductivity). The consolidation calculation model is embedded in Monte Carlo simulations for
 277 probabilistic analysis. N_f groups of R_j random values are generated, and the values from each group
 278 are assigned to the corresponding elements in one Monte Carlo simulation, where N_f is the total number
 279 of simulations. A minimum number of simulations is typically required to obtain accurate results, and
 280 this number depends on the total number of random variables involved (Bari 2012). After RCS-EVP
 281 reads the input data, an initial calculation is performed to determine the initial configuration for each
 282 element, including L_o , d_i , $V_{o,ij}$, and $z_{o,ij}$. To begin the main calculation loop, the elevation and total stress
 283 are computed for each node. The distribution of total head is then used to compute flow between
 284 contiguous elements, and the vertical compression of each element is calculated from the net fluid
 285 outflow during the time increment Δt . Updated element volumes, void ratios, and their changes are
 286 calculated, along with the settlement profile and the average settlement. The variation in void ratio for

287 each element is used to calculate changes in effective stress using Eq. (5). Program execution
 288 terminates when $t \geq t_f$, where t_f is a user-specified final value. If the termination condition is not
 289 satisfied, RCS-EVP repeats the calculation sequence with updated values of e_{ij} , V_{ij} , and H .



290

291 Fig. 3. Flow chart for the probabilistic analysis of the radial consolidation using RCS-EVP

292

293 Field Case

294 The Minmi to Beresfield extension of Sydney-Newcastle Freeway was constructed by the Roads and
 295 Traffic Authority (RTA) of New South Wales (NSW), approximately 150 km north of Sydney (Lo et
 296 al. 2008). This extension includes a 300 m embankment, referred to as the Leneghans embankment,
 297 which was built over a soft clay foundation with a water content ranging from 72% to 99%. Due to the
 298 soft, compressible nature of these clay deposits, several design measures were implemented to improve
 299 embankment stability and to minimize post-construction settlement to acceptable limits. These
 300 measures included lightweight fill using bottom ash, prefabricated vertical drains, surcharging and

301 staged construction. One unique feature of this embankment project is the long-term monitoring of
302 ground movement; settlement profiles at the foundation level were systematically recorded over a
303 period of 9 years.

304 Prior to construction, a series of boreholes were drilled to investigate subsurface conditions. The
305 underlying subsoil primarily consists of very soft to soft alluvial clay extending to a depth of 16 m (H_o
306 = 16 m). This clay layer, with a high-water content near its liquid limit, showed a liquid limit of 82%
307 to 94%, a plastic limit of 28% to 31%, a plasticity index of 54% to 63%, and an organic content of 2%
308 to 6%, classifying it as high plasticity clay (CH) with a saturated unit weight of 14.8 to 16.2 kN/m³.

309 To accelerate the consolidation process, PVDs were installed through the full depth of the soft clay
310 layer at 1.5 m intervals in a triangular pattern. Each PVD has nominal dimensions of 100 mm in width
311 by 4 mm in thickness, with a corrugated polyvinyl chloride core and a geotextile filter. The inner and
312 outer radii of the clay cylinder associated with each PVD are 0.033 m and 0.80 m, respectively. The
313 discharge capacity of the PVDs, q_w , was tested to exceed 11×10^{-6} m³/s under a hydraulic gradient of
314 1 (over 346 m³/year), with a confining stress that simulates the maximum in-situ stress but not less
315 than 200 kPa. Drain flow resistance can be ignored when the q_w exceeds 100-150 m³/year, and thus
316 well resistance is not taken into account in RCS-EVP simulations. Installation of PVDs was carried
317 out using a mandrel system designed to minimize disturbance and smearing of the surrounding soft
318 clay. RCS-EVP simulations follow the recommendations by [Bergado et al. \(1991\)](#) and [Hansbo \(1993\)](#),
319 applying an $r_s/r_w = 2$ and $\eta = r_k$ (i.e., $k_{rs} = k_v$) to model the soil smear.

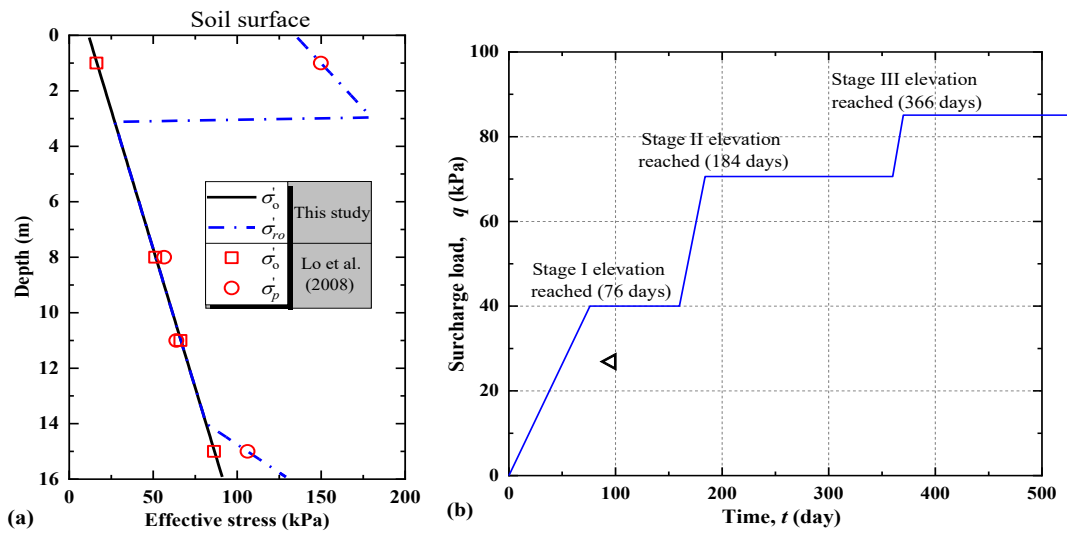
320 The compressibility and hydraulic conductivity of soft soils are strongly correlated with basic
321 physical properties, such as Atterberg limits and void ratio. In this study, predictive models developed
322 by [Jin et al. \(2009\)](#) and [Jin and Yin \(2020\)](#) were employed to determine key soil parameters for
323 constitutive relationships, including λ , ψ , and k_v .

$$324 \quad (29) \quad \lambda_{ij} = \left[0.3206e_{o,ij}w_{L,ij} - 0.0284e_{o,ij} \left(w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij} \right)^2 + 0.0213 \left(e_{o,ij}w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij} \right)^2 \right. \\ \left. - \frac{0.1412 \left(w_{L,ij} \right)^2}{I_{p,ij}} - 0.0540 \left(e_{o,ij} \right)^2 w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij} + 0.6689 \right] / \ln 10$$

$$325 \quad (30) \quad \psi_{ij} = \left[\exp \left(0.9092 \frac{c_l^2}{w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij}} + 0.6283 \frac{c_l^2}{w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij}} - 10.3212 \left(I_{p,ij}c_l \right)^2 \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. - 0.1963 \left(\frac{c_l}{w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij}} \right)^2 + 3.9741 \left(I_{p,ij} \right)^2 \right) e_{o,ij} - 6.0928 \right] / \ln 10$$

$$326 \quad (31) \quad \log k_{v,ij} = \left(-1.0334I_{p,ij} + 0.9435 \frac{w_{L,ij}^2}{I_{p,ij}} + \frac{0.0762}{w_{L,ij}I_{p,ij}} \right) e_{ij} - 10.409 \quad (m/s)$$

327 where c_l = clay content of soil and assumed a constant 0.27 in this case. [Terzaghi \(1943\)](#) and [Yin \(2015\)](#)
328 reported the ratio of κ/λ fall in the range from 0.02 to 0.2, and a value of 0.08 within this range was
329 adopted for analysis. The hydraulic conductivity anisotropy was modelled using $r_k = 2$ (i.e., $k_r/k_v = 2$).
330 Based on the quantitative relationship between shear strength and over-consolidation ratio established
331 by [Potts and Ganendra \(1991\)](#), [Lo et al. \(2008\)](#) derived the distribution of pre-consolidation pressure
332 σ'_p within soil profiles from measured shear strength, as illustrated in [Fig. 4\(a\)](#). This study adopts the
333 assumptions of initial and reference stress (σ'_o and σ'_{ro}) in soil profiles presented by [Lo et al. \(2008\)](#),
334 as shown in [Fig. 4\(a\)](#), as well as a time-dependent surcharge loading schedule ([Fig. 4b](#)) reflecting the
335 three-stages fill placement history.



336

337 Fig. 4. Input parameters for numerical simulations: (a) distributions of σ'_o and σ'_{ro} ; and (b) surcharge
 338 stress versus time

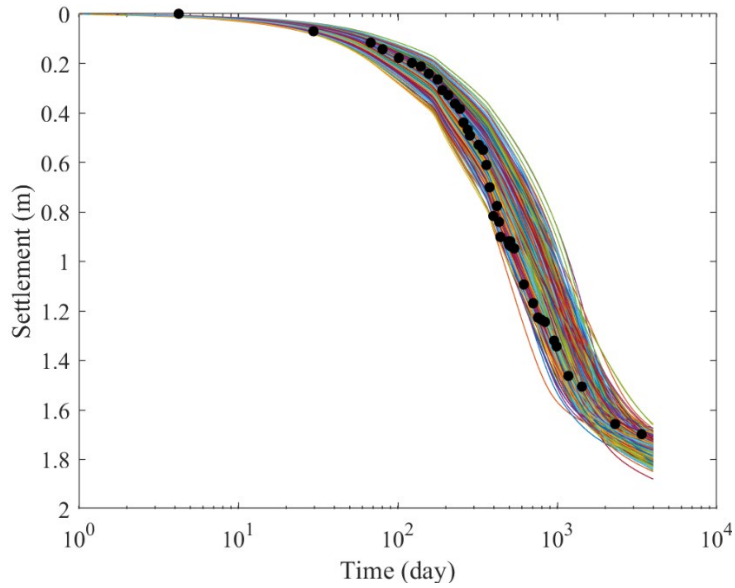
339 Random field for e_o , w_L and I_p are generated using average values of 2.3, 88% and 58% according
 340 to a measured liquid limit from 82% to 94% and plasticity index from 28% to 31% by Lo et al. 2008.
 341 Due to limited statistical data in Lo et al. (2008), additional statistical assumptions were made
 342 according to typical values reported in current studies (Phoon and Kulhawy 1999; Phoon and Ching
 343 2012). A relatively low coefficient of variation ($\nu = 0.03$) was adopted, as preliminary analyses
 344 indicated that higher COVs significantly increased computational costs and often caused convergence
 345 issues due to highly nonlinearity between physical properties and constitutive parameters. Cross-
 346 correlations among the random variables were incorporated as current studies (Spagnoli et al. 2018)
 347 reported a strong correlation between liquid limit and plasticity index, with plasticity index increasing
 348 as liquid limit increases. In contrast, the initial void ratio and Atterberg limits show weaker, indirect
 349 correlations. However, high-plasticity clays often have higher natural void ratios due to their plate-like
 350 particle structure and water retention. Accordingly, a high value of ρ_{w_L, I_p} ($= 0.5$) was used, and lower
 351 values of 0.1 were used for ρ_{e_o, w_L} and ρ_{e_o, I_p} . Autocorrelation lengths were assumed as $\theta_r = 2$ m for
 352 lateral direction and $\theta_z = 20$ m for vertical direction.

353

354 Probabilistic Analysis Results

355 [Fig. 5](#) presents the settlement results of a soil column over time, derived from $N_f = 1000$ Monte Carlo
356 simulations using the RCS-EVP, as well as field measurements (represented by black dots) for
357 comparison. The simulations account for spatial variability in critical soil parameters, such as
358 compressibility and hydraulic conductivity, which significantly influence settlement behavior. The
359 spread of simulation results reflects inherent variability arising from spatial heterogeneity in soil
360 properties, which is crucial for estimating the range of potential settlements. The simulated settlement
361 curves exhibit strong agreement with the measured data, demonstrating the model's capability to
362 accurately capture the overall settlement trend. The alignment of measured values within the simulated
363 range indicates that the model parameters and assumptions effectively represent the underlying soil
364 mechanics. Preliminary simulations were performed using $N_f = 100, 500, 1000, 1500,$ and 2000 . By
365 comparing settlement density distributions and average settlement values at selected time points (e.g.,
366 $t = 100, 500, 1000,$ and 3000 days), the optimal value of N_f was identified, following a method similar
367 to that used by [Bari \(2012\)](#). The results show that outcomes for $N_f \geq 1000$ are nearly identical.
368 Considering both computational efficiency and accuracy, $N_f = 1000$ was adopted for simulations. [Fig.](#)
369 [6](#) illustrates the probability density distribution of settlement at 100, 1000, 2000, and 3000 days,
370 derived from the RCS-EVP simulations. Each subplot includes a histogram of observed settlement
371 values overlaid with a probability density function, highlighting the variability and likelihood of
372 settlement outcomes over time. From 100 to 3000 days, the distributions evolve markedly in both
373 central tendency and spread. At 100 days, the distribution is narrowly centered around 0.17 m,
374 indicating low variability and a consistent early-stage response. By 1000 days, the central values shift
375 to around 1.40 m, with a broader distribution reflecting increased spatial heterogeneity during
376 consolidation. At 2000 days, the distribution centers near 1.63 m and remains wide due to continued
377 consolidation. By 3000 days, the distribution consolidates around 1.73 m with reduced variability,
378 closely aligning with the measured value of 1.66 m. The strong correspondence between the measured

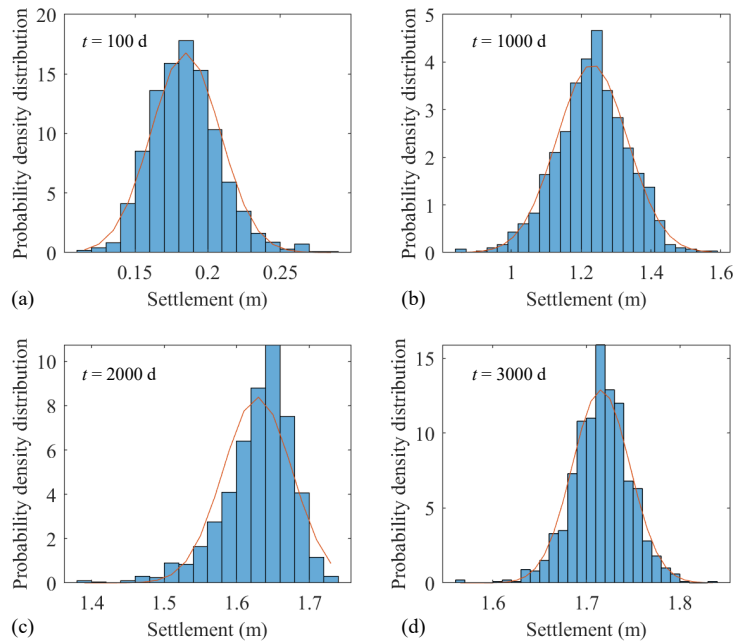
379 settlements and the peaks of the distributions, evidenced by the alignment of means, medians, and
380 modes, demonstrates the effectiveness of the probabilistic consolidation analysis framework.
381 Moreover, associated strains increase from 1.06% at 100 days to 10.39% at 3000 days, indicating
382 substantial deformation. The narrowing distribution in later stages suggests convergence toward a more
383 predictable long-term settlement state.



384

385

Fig. 5. Simulation results of settlement curves



386

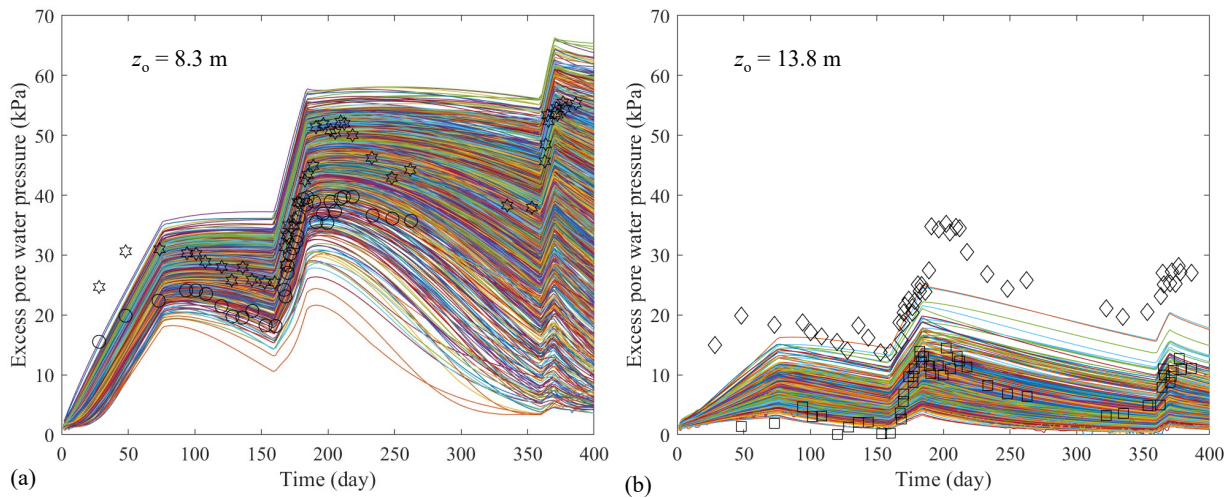
387

Fig. 6. Probability density distributions at specific time points

388 During field monitoring, pneumatic piezometers were installed at the midpoints between the PVDs
389 (i.e., at locations near the outer boundary of the unit cell shown in Fig. 1) along several instrumentation
390 lines and at various depths. Expected excess pore pressure measurements were recorded at two
391 elevations on the two instrumentation lines, approximately at $z_o = 8.3$ m and 13.8 m, as summarized
392 and presented by Lo et al. (2008). These measurements are represented as scatter points in Fig. 7,
393 where data corresponding to the same elevation represent distinct soil profiles. The measured results
394 reveal significant variations in excess pore pressures at the same elevation, likely due to the inherent
395 spatial variability of soil parameters, particularly hydraulic conductivity. The observed trends are
396 consistent with the applied stress sequence shown in Fig. 4(b), excess pore pressure increases during
397 the staged construction process and decreases once corresponding fill elevation is reached.
398 Measurements taken at higher elevations exhibit lower excess pore pressure values, as these locations
399 are closer to the sand blanket, which serves as a free-draining boundary. The simulation results show
400 a similar pattern. Simulated excess pore pressures at lower elevations exhibit a broader distribution
401 after completion of Stage III fill, likely due to their greater distance from the drainage boundary, which
402 results in delayed dissipation of excess pore pressure. This delayed response is sensitive to spatial
403 variations in hydraulic conductivity and aligns with the findings of Song et al. (2023b) for the
404 uncertainty analyses of one-dimensional consolidation. Moreover, Huang et al. (2023) reported that
405 several factors complicate the calibration of simulated and measured pore pressures, including
406 potential clogging of the vertical drain filter tip, changes in the static water table due to rainfall, sensor
407 movement, and soil inhomogeneity. Consequently, the potential error in pore pressure measurements
408 may be greater than in settlement data.

409 Measured and simulated excess pore pressures at the two locations are compared in Fig. 7. The
410 measured results fall within the range of simulated outcomes, indicating that probabilistic analysis
411 using the RCS-EVP model, while accounting for spatial variability in soil parameters, provides a robust

412 framework for estimating the long-term settlement behavior of soft soils with PVDs. This approach
413 improves both the reliability and robustness of consolidation modeling.



414

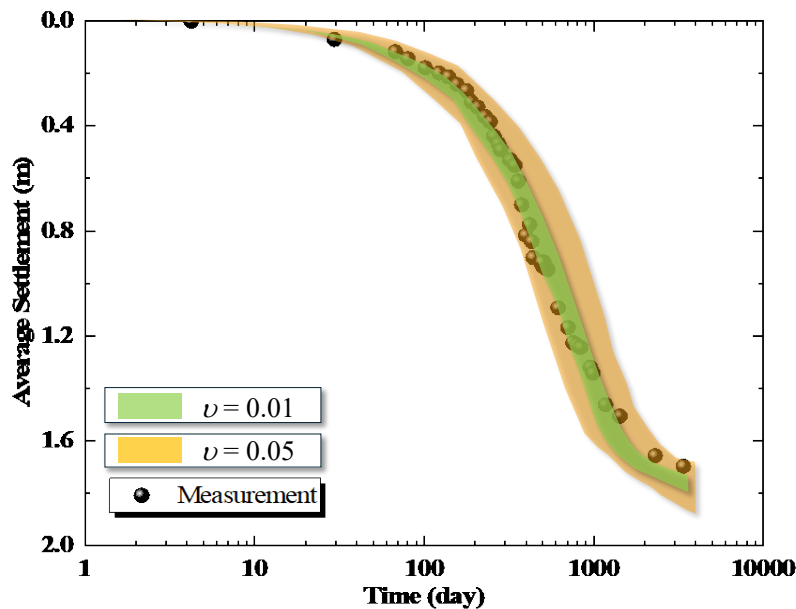
415 Fig. 7. Relationships of excess pore pressure versus time for $z_o = 8.3$ m and $z_o = 13.8$ m

416

417 Coefficient of Variation

418 [Huang et al. \(2010\)](#) performed parametric studies in which the coefficients of volume compressibility
419 and permeability were varied from 0.125 to 4.0 times their baseline values, noting that these parameters
420 were occasionally pushed to particularly high levels. In the present study, the influence of the
421 coefficient of variation on the probabilistic analysis of radial consolidation was investigated using
422 relatively low values, $\nu = 0.01, 0.03$ and 0.05 . Results for $\nu = 0.03$ are shown in [Figs. 5-7](#), while
423 those for $\nu = 0.01$ and 0.05 are shown in [Fig. 8](#). For $\nu = 0.01$, the settlement curves are tightly
424 clustered, indicating low variability in the simulated settlement results. Conversely, for $\nu = 0.05$
425 shows a broader spread of settlement outcomes, reflecting increased variability in the estimates. A
426 lower coefficient of variation results in more precise, though not necessarily more accurate estimations,
427 while a higher coefficient of variation captures a broader range of possible scenarios. This indicates
428 more consistent settlement behavior with smaller ν values. [Fig. 9](#) presents the probability density

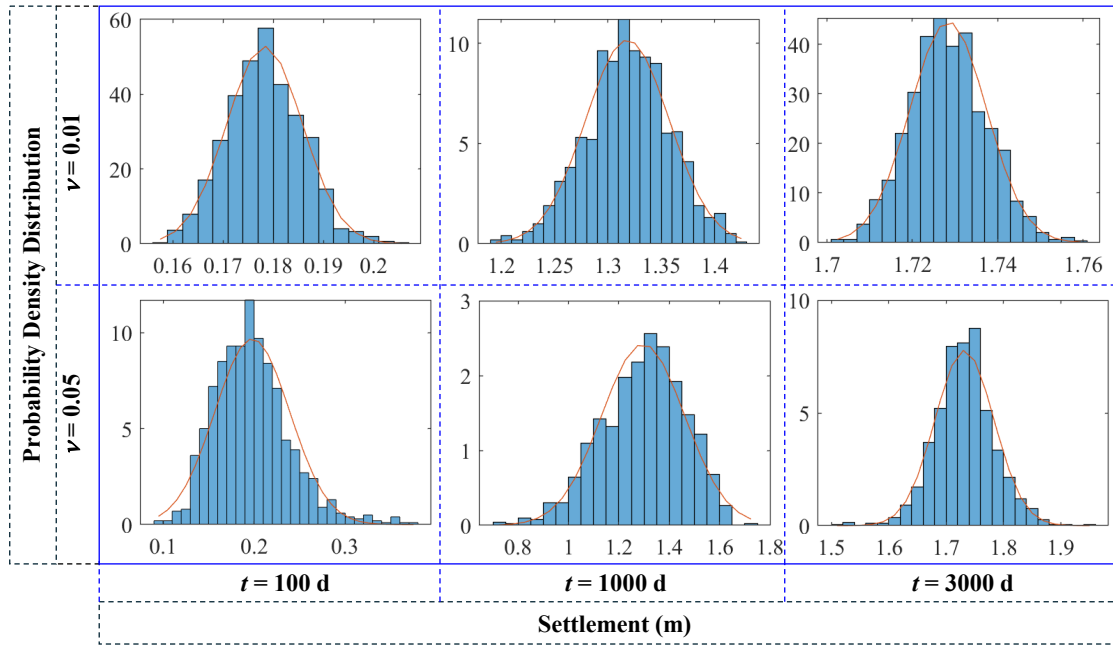
429 distributions of settlement at selected time points ($t = 100, 1000, \text{ and } 3000$ days) for $\nu = 0.01$ and ν
430 $= 0.05$, respectively. Comparisons of the estimated settlement across different ν values at these points
431 demonstrate that the distribution range increases significantly with higher ν values. Specifically, as
432 ν increases from 0.01 to 0.05, the settlement distribution expands by a factor of five to six, and this
433 expansion exhibits an approximately linear relationship with the ν increase. Cheng et al. (2017)
434 reported that the mean settlement decreases significantly with a reduction in the coefficient of variation
435 for consolidation of one-dimensional unsaturated soil. However, this trend was not observed in present
436 study, likely because a nonlinear constitutive model was adopted here, whereas Cheng et al. (2017)
437 employed a linear-elastic model.



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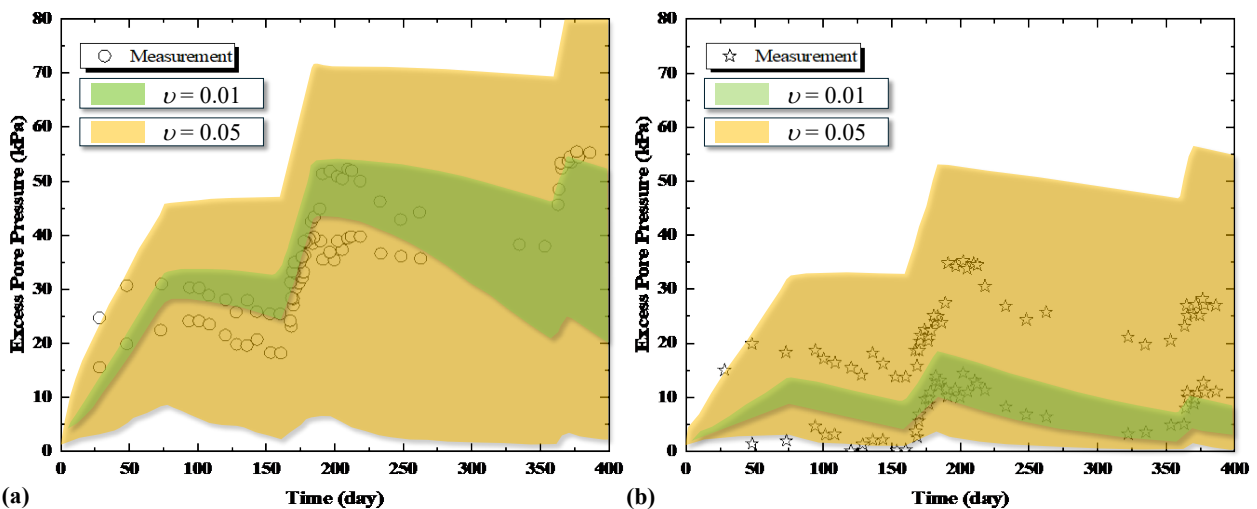
Fig. 8. Comparison of settlements for various coefficient of variation



440

441 Fig. 9. Comparison of probability density distributions for various coefficient of variation

442 Estimated excess pore pressure curves for $\nu = 0.01$ and 0.05 at depths of $z_o = 8.3$ m and 13.8 m
 443 are shown in Fig. 10. Similar to the trend observed in the settlement results, a significantly wider range
 444 of estimated excess pore pressures is observed in simulations with a larger coefficient of variation. For
 445 $\nu = 0.01$, some measured excess pore pressures fall outside the range of simulated results, indicating
 446 that these simulations underestimate the spatial variability of soil parameters. In contrast, simulations
 447 with $\nu = 0.05$ slightly overestimate the spatial variability. Based on these observations, the coefficient
 448 of variation for the clay layer in the field case is likely in the range of 0.03 to 0.05 .



449

(a)

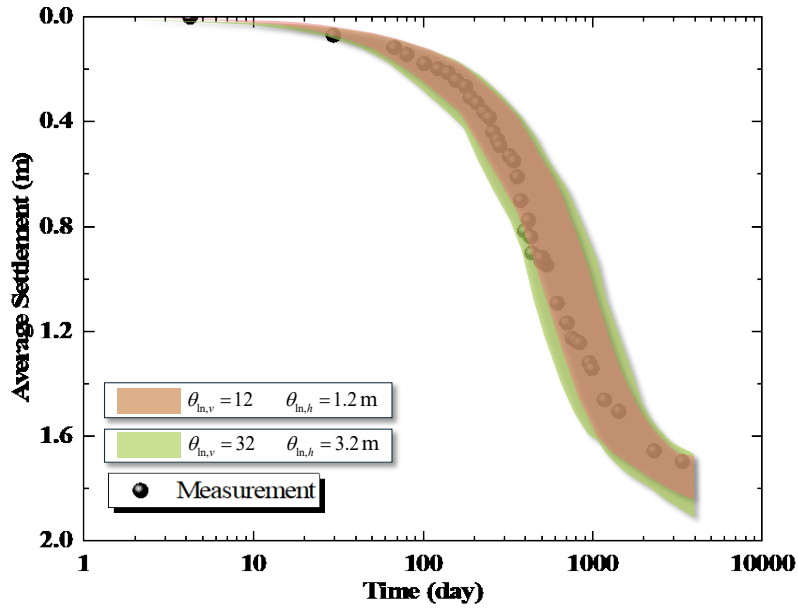
(b)

450 Fig. 10. Excess pore pressures comparison for various coefficient of variation for (a) $z_o = 8.3$ m
451 and (b) $z_o = 13.8$ m

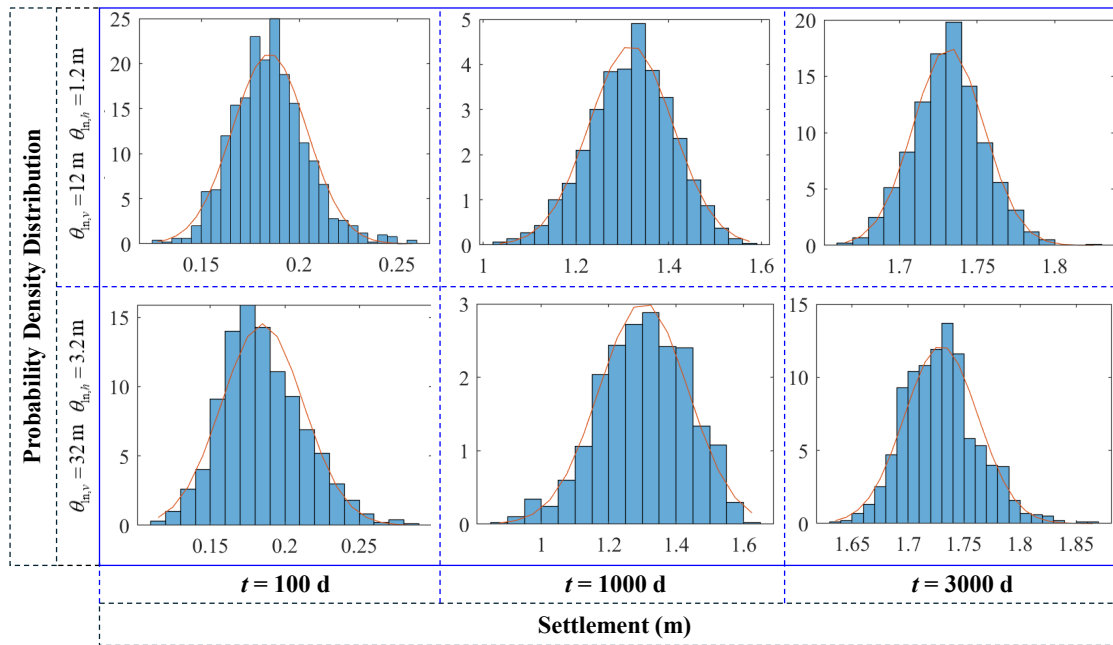
452

453 **Autocorrelation Distance**

454 Two more Monte Carlo simulations were conducted using $\theta_{ln,v} = 12$ m, $\theta_{ln,h} = 1.2$ m and $\theta_{ln,v} = 32$ m,
455 $\theta_{ln,h} = 3.2$ m to investigate the effects of autocorrelation distances in the vertical ($\theta_{ln,v}$) and lateral ($\theta_{ln,h}$)
456 directions. All other parameters were consistent with those used in the Field Case section. Plots of
457 settlements for simulations with different $\theta_{ln,v}$ and $\theta_{ln,h}$ values are shown in Fig. 11, while the
458 probability density distributions at selected time points ($t = 100, 1000, \text{ and } 3000$ days) are presented
459 in Fig. 12. Increasing the autocorrelation distance ($\theta_{ln,v}$ and $\theta_{ln,h}$) results in a slightly larger range of
460 simulated settlements. However, measured settlement values remain within the range of simulated
461 results, even for smaller $\theta_{ln,v}$ and $\theta_{ln,h}$ values. This suggests that autocorrelation distances may not
462 significantly influence the probability analysis of consolidation settlement, especially when compared
463 to the effects of the coefficient of variation. Interestingly, simulations using vertical autocorrelation
464 distances ($\theta_{ln,v} = 20$ m and $\theta_{ln,v} = 32$ m) larger than the initial height of the soil column ($H_o = 16$ m)
465 show no significant impact on the estimated consolidation settlement.



466
467 Fig. 11. Comparison of settlements for various autocorrelation distance



468
469 Fig. 12. Comparison of probability density distributions for various autocorrelation distance

470 Fig. 13 illustrate estimated excess pore pressure curves for $\theta_{in,v} = 12$ m, $\theta_{in,h} = 1.2$ m and $\theta_{in,v} =$

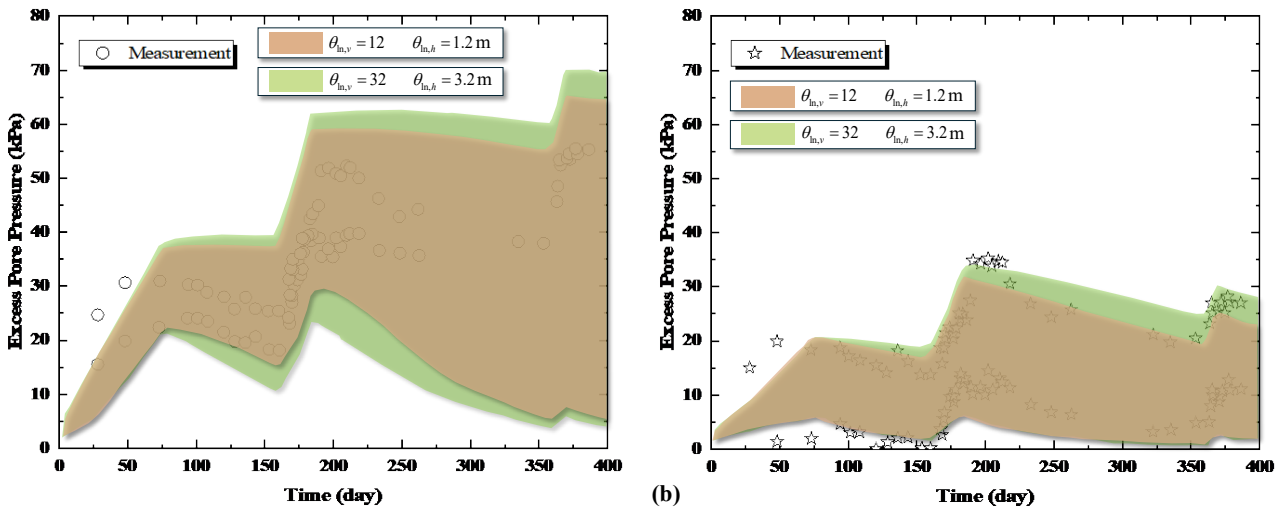
471 32 m, $\theta_{in,h} = 3.2$ m at depths of $z_o = 8.3$ m and 13.8 m. With increasing autocorrelation distances, only

472 a slight increase in the range of the estimated excess pore pressure values is observed, consistent with

473 the trends seen for the effects of autocorrelation distances on consolidation settlement. Most of the

474 measured values fall within the simulated range for various autocorrelation distances. This suggests

475 that autocorrelation distances have minimal influence on the probability analysis of excess pore
 476 pressure dispersion during the consolidation process. Bari et al. (2016) conducted a probabilistic
 477 analysis of radial consolidation for both single-drain and multi-drain systems and stated that stochastic
 478 equivalence between the unit cell and multi-drain solutions can be established by assigning appropriate
 479 representative point statistics for the idealized unit cell. These statistics can be computed from the
 480 statistical parameters assigned to the multi-drain by using appropriate transformation method, ensuring
 481 that their underlying local average statistics remain consistent. In the present study, a single-drain
 482 system was used, and results indicate that autocorrelation distances have limited impact on the mean
 483 and variability of consolidation characterizes. Using a single-drain system for probabilistic analysis is
 484 feasible (Bari et al. 2016) and offers improved computational efficiency. Although autocorrelation
 485 distance is not a dominant factor in the analysis, it can influence other statistical parameters, e.g., such
 486 as the coefficient of variation, during practical data collection. This is of particular concern as the
 487 coefficient of variation has a significant effect on the consolidation analysis.



488

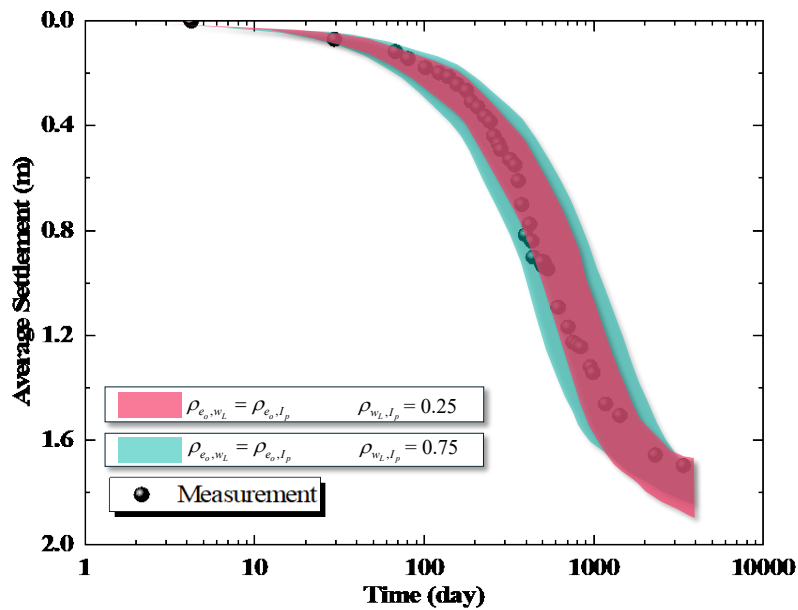
489 Fig. 13. Excess pore pressures comparison for various autocorrelation distance for (a) $z_o = 8.3$ m

490

and (b) $z_o = 13.8$ m

491 **Cross-correlation Coefficient**

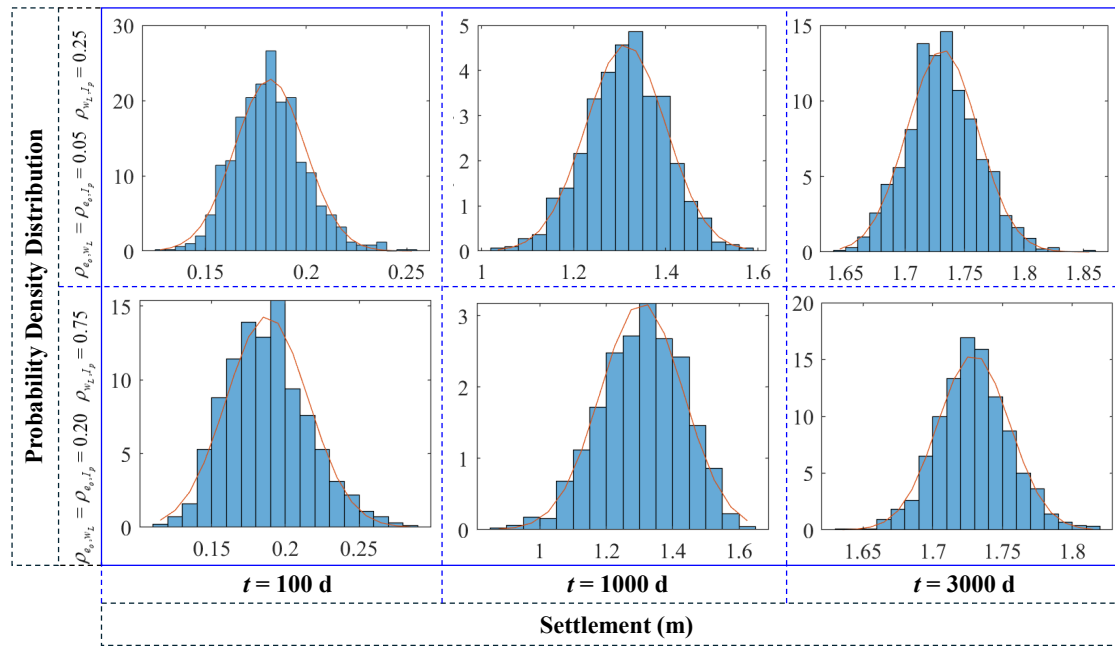
492 The effect of cross-correlation coefficient on the probabilistic analysis of consolidation process was
493 investigated for the same case using $\rho_{e_o, w_L} = \rho_{e_o, I_p} = 0.05$, $\rho_{w_L, I_p} = 0.25$ and $\rho_{e_o, w_L} = \rho_{e_o, I_p} = 0.2$, $\rho_{w_L, I_p} =$
494 0.75 , with all other parameters kept unchanged. Fig. 14 shows plots of settlements for simulations with
495 different cross-correlation coefficients, while Fig. 15 illustrates the probability density distribution of
496 simulated settlements at $t = 100, 1000$, and 3000 days. Similar to the effects of autocorrelation distance,
497 the range of simulated settlements increase slightly with higher values of cross-correlation coefficient.
498 However, the influence of the cross-correlation coefficient on the probability analysis of consolidation
499 settlement is somewhat more significant than that of autocorrelation distance but less influential than
500 that of the coefficient of variation.



501

502

Fig. 14. Comparison of settlements for various cross-correlation coefficient



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504

Fig. 15. Comparison of probability density distributions for cross-correlation coefficient

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Simulated excess pore pressure for $\rho_{e_o, w_L} = \rho_{e_o, I_p} = 0.05$, $\rho_{w_L, I_p} = 0.25$ and $\rho_{e_o, w_L} = \rho_{e_o, I_p} = 0.2$,

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$\rho_{w_L, I_p} = 0.75$ at depths of $z_o = 8.3$ m and 13.8 m are illustrated in Fig. 16. A very limited increase in the

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range of simulated excess pore pressures was observed with increasing cross-correlation coefficients,

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consistent with the trend of the effects of ρ on consolidation settlement. The estimated excess pore

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pressures encompass the distribution patterns of measured values, indicating that cross-correlation

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coefficients have no significant influence on the dispersion of excess pore pressure within the soil

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column. Thus, the coefficient of variation has the most significant influence on the probability analysis

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framework for large-strain, long-term radial consolidation, aligning with the findings of Houmadi et

513

al. (2012) for one dimensional elastic consolidation. Bari (2012) reported that with higher cross-

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correlation between the permeability coefficient and the coefficient of volume compressibility, the

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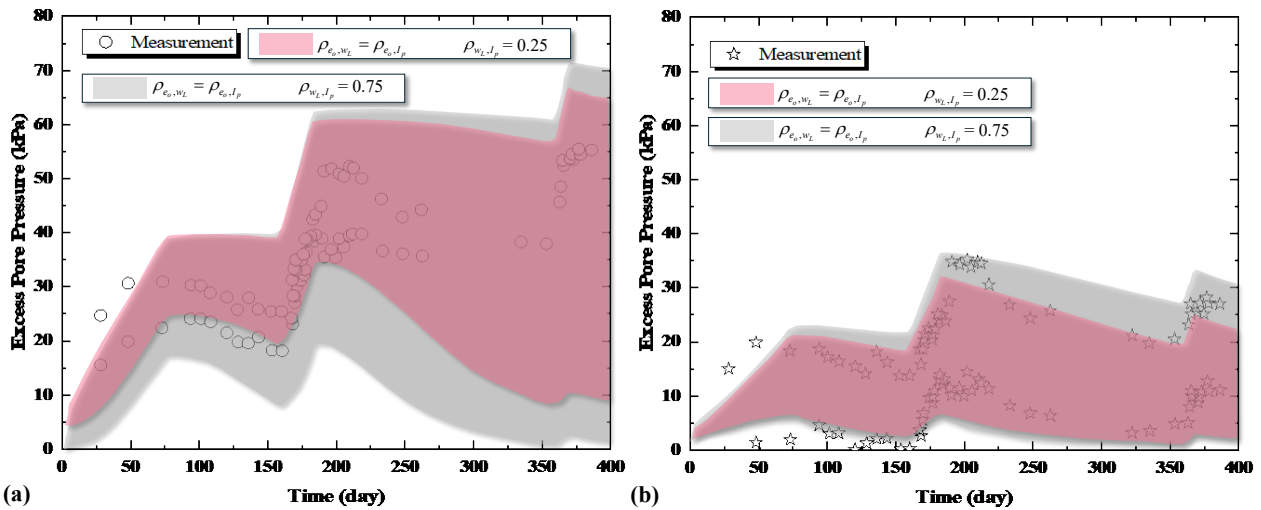
evolution of excess pore dispersion is slower, resulting in lower rates of change in both the mean and

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standard deviation. In the present study, higher cross-correlation coefficients led to a larger deviation

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in the consolidation rate, while the mean values remained nearly constant.



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519 Fig. 16. Excess pore pressures comparison for various cross-correlation coefficient for (a) $z_o = 8.3$ m

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and (b) $z_o = 13.8$ m

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This study advocates the adoption of void ratio (e), plastic index (PI), and liquid limit (LL) as random parameters for characterizing soil spatial variability. These indices are routinely measured during site investigations, enabling robust statistical characterization without imposing additional field testing burdens. Although few studies have focused on using these parameters as stochastic descriptors their widespread availability facilitates the derivation of critical statistics, including mean values and coefficients of variation. Although e , PI, and LL exhibit strong correlations with compressibility and permeability properties, their quantitative relationships remain subject to site-specific uncertainties. Empirical correlations between these indices and consolidation parameters require further validation across diverse soil types and depositional environments. Nevertheless, their use offers distinct advantages over direct randomization of permeability coefficient or coefficient of volume compressibility, particularly given the inherent challenges in field determination of consolidation properties due to sampling disturbances. In addition, it is worth further consideration that the installation of PVDs may alter the statistical characteristics of the random variables, particularly with respect to the variability between the smear zone and undisturbed zone, as well as their potential correlation.

536 A sensitivity analysis reveals that among the three stochastic descriptors, including coefficient of
537 variation, autocorrelation distance, and cross-correlation coefficient, only coefficient of exerts a
538 statistically significant influence on radial consolidation probability outcomes. This underscores the
539 necessity of prioritizing cost-effective and accurate estimation of the coefficient of variation during
540 field data collection and statistical inference. Refining these estimates through high-resolution
541 sampling or Bayesian updating techniques is important, as mischaracterization of this parameter may
542 lead to non-conservative reliability predictions.

543 **Conclusions**

544 The following conclusions are reached as a result of this study of probability analysis of large strain
545 long-term radial consolidation of soft soils:

- 546 1. A probabilistic analysis framework for coupled long-term consolidation of soft soils
547 incorporating prefabricated vertical drains was developed using a piecewise-linear approach
548 and an elastic visco-plastic constitutive relationship. This framework accounts for spatial
549 variability in soil parameters (including compressibility and hydraulic conductivity), creep
550 strain, large-strain effects, hydraulic conductivity anisotropy, vertical and radial flows, soil
551 smear, time-dependent loading, and variable hydraulic conductivity and compressibility during
552 the consolidation process. Three naturally measured soil parameters, including plasticity index,
553 liquid limit and void ratio, were selected as random variables due to their ease of on-site
554 measurement. Spatial variation of soil constitutive parameters was determined using
555 relationships derived from these random variables.
- 556 2. The probabilistic analysis framework was used to model radial consolidation for a preloaded
557 site on the Sydney-Newcastle Freeway in New South Wales. An underlying 16 m-thick layer
558 of soft clay is a potential source of long-term large settlements for the site. Prefabricated
559 vertical drains were installed in the soft clay layer to accelerate consolidation in the surcharged

560 areas. Field measurements of settlement and excess pore pressure were found to fall within the
561 range of simulated results, demonstrating that the framework effectively captures the long-term
562 settlement process.

563 3. The coefficients of variation for spatial soil parameters significantly influence both settlement
564 and excess pore pressures, with higher coefficients producing a wider range of estimated values.
565 Similar trends were observed for the effects of autocorrelation distances (in both vertical and
566 lateral directions) and cross-correlation coefficients, although their impact on the probability
567 analysis of the consolidation process was considerably weaker.

568

569 **CRedit Authorship Contribution Statement**

570 **Ding-Bao Song:** Writing original draft, Visualization, Methodology, Software, Investigation. **Zhen-**
571 **Yu Yin:** Writing – review & editing, Resources, Data curation, Funding acquisition. **Jian-Hua Yin:**
572 Writing – review & editing, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision.

573

574 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

577

578 **Data Availability Statement**

579 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
580 reasonable request.

581

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