

# “Probabilistic identification of soil stratigraphy using CPT data”

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Additional Thesis (10 ECTs)

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## Abstract

The deterministic approach for interpreting CPT soil profiles poses the serious limitation of not taking data uncertainty into account. Therefore, a Bayesian model was developed by Wang et al. (2013) that, for a given CPT profile, determines the most probable number of soil layers and most probable soil layer thicknesses by simulating and comparing multiple ‘model classes’ with different complexities. In this study, this proposed model is implemented into the Python coding environment after which the functionality is verified by conducting a case study on a 23 m CPT profile from the Groningen area (NE Netherlands). For the given CPT profile, the model distinguishes 6 separate soil layers from which the position and thickness are in agreement with the deterministic analysis and the available borehole data. However, the case study suggests that the model fails to correctly identify the most probable soil types for CPT measurements within the vicinity of the edges of the Robertson chart. This is most-likely related to a “cut-off”-effect of the joint Gaussian distribution describing the uncertainty of a single datapoint. A subsequent study on the integration of the statistical parameters within the model is therefore required. Additionally, the code includes several optimizing strategies, but remains time consuming for very complex model classes. Further optimization is suggested to achieve greater model precision and efficiency.

# List of Symbols

Symbol	Unit	Description
<b>General</b>		
$q_c$	[MPa]	Cone resistance
$q_t$	[MPa]	Corrected cone resistance
$f_s$	[MPa]	Sleeve friction
$\sigma_v$	[MPa]	Total effective stress
$\sigma_v'$	[MPa]	Effective stress
$nQ_t$	[-]	Normalized cone resistance
$nF_r$	[-]	Normalized friction ratio
<b>Bayesian Framework</b>		
$M_N$	[-]	Model class
$N_{max}$	[-]	Number of model classes considered
$\xi_{ni}$	[-]	Set of $\ln(nQ_t)$ and $\ln(nF_r)$ data for the $i$ th datapoint in the $n$ th soil layer
$\underline{\xi}_n$	[-]	Set of $\ln(nQ_t)$ and $\ln(nF_r)$ data for $n$ th soil layer
$\underline{\xi} = [\underline{\xi}_1, \underline{\xi}_2, \dots, \underline{\xi}_N]$	[-]	Set of $\ln(nQ_t)$ and $\ln(nF_r)$ data for a given CPT profile
$P(\underline{\xi}_n N)$	[-]	Probability of $\underline{\xi}_n$ given the model class $N$ = the probability that all data points in the $n$ th layer belong to the same soil type.
$P_{ST_j}(\underline{\xi}_n N)$	[-]	Probability that all data points in the $n$ th soil layer belong to the same soil type $J$
$P_{ST_j}(\xi_{n,i} N)$	[-]	Probability that datapoint $i$ in the $n$ th soil layer belongs to soil type $J$
$\sigma_{nF_r}$	[-]	Standard deviation of $\ln(nF_r)$
$\sigma_{nQ_t}$	[-]	Standard deviation of $\ln(nQ_t)$
$\underline{\Omega}_N = [\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_N]$	[-]	Set of model parameters where $\sigma_n = [\sigma_{nF_r}, \sigma_{nQ_t}]$ for the $n$ th soil layer
<b>Posterior distribution</b>		
$P(\underline{\Omega}_N \underline{\xi}, N)$	[-]	Posterior distribution
$K_N$	[-]	Normalizing constant
$P(\underline{\xi} \underline{\Omega}_N, N)$	[-]	Likelihood function, probability of observing the site observation data given $\underline{\Omega}_N$ and $N$
$P(\underline{\Omega}_N N)$	[-]	Prior distribution, which reflects knowledge about $\underline{\Omega}_N$ in the absence of data.
$h_N^*$	[m]	Most probable soil layer thickness for the $n$ th soil layer
<b>Conditional probability</b>		
$P(M_N \underline{\xi})$	[-]	Conditional probability, probability of model class $M_N$ given a set of CPT data
$P(\underline{\xi} M_N)$	[-]	Conditional probability, probability of $\underline{\xi}$ given the model class $M_N$
$P(\underline{\xi} M_N, \underline{h}_N^*)$	[-]	Conditional probability, probability of $\underline{\xi}$ given the model class $M_N$ and most probable soil layer thicknesses $\underline{h}_N^*$
$H_t$	[-]	Total thickness of the soil profile

# Chapter 1 – Introduction

## 1.1 General Background

A geotechnical study mostly involves simplifying the ground structure and generalizing soil properties to an extent that ground models can be applied to provide results with the least amount of data required. One of the fastest methods to do so is a deterministic approach which allows for such simplification adopting a single value for the input parameters (Lacasse & Nadim, 1998). Although praised for its efficiency, this method is often limited when dealing with problems that contain parameter heterogeneities. In geotechnical studies this is a major downside, as soil properties (e.g. layer thickness, grain size, unit weight, permeability, etc.) are characterized by large spatial variations. Studies in the Netherlands tried to generalize such variations between different projects but conclude that they are often site-specific, requiring information on the local subsurface (Berbee & Fennis, 2019). Therefore, a stochastic approach is introduced to include parameter heterogeneity based on a mean, standard deviation and spatial variability (Fenton, 1999; Hicks, 2005). In a Random Finite Element Model (RFEM), this approach leads to a unique random field that is different between each realization. By adopting many realizations, one may obtain the most conservative outcome (e.g. the realization with the least favorable soil conditions; Luo & Bathurst, 2019).

### 1.1.1 Cone Penetration Testing

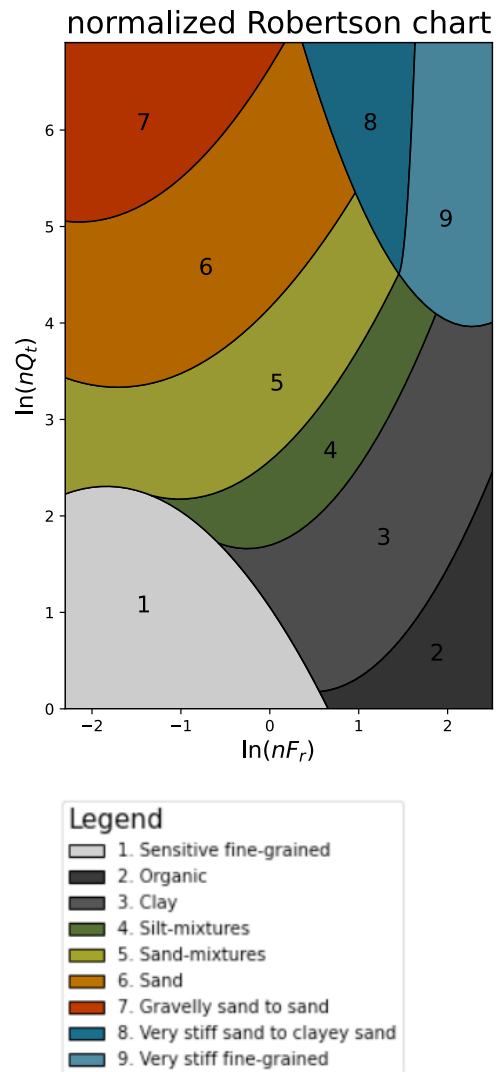
The dominant source of data needed for a stochastic approach, or admittedly for all geotechnical site characterization, is data obtained from the widely used cone penetration tests (CPT's). The application of CPT's has various advantages, being a fast and economical method with a well-developed theoretical background (Robertson, 2010); empirical relations have been developed to correlate CPT data to soil properties (e.g. unit weight, grain size distributions, strength parameters and hydraulic conductivities; Robertson & Cabal, 2010; Tillman et al., 2007). Figure 1.1 illustrates how CPT data (normalized cone tip resistance  $nQ_t$  and normalized friction ratio  $nF_r$ ) relates to different soil behavior types (SBT). Both axes are normalized following Eq. [1] and [2] as Robertson (2009) showed that this provides a more reliable identification of SBT compared to non-normalized charts:

$$nQ_t = \frac{q_t - \sigma_v}{\sigma'_v} \quad [1]$$

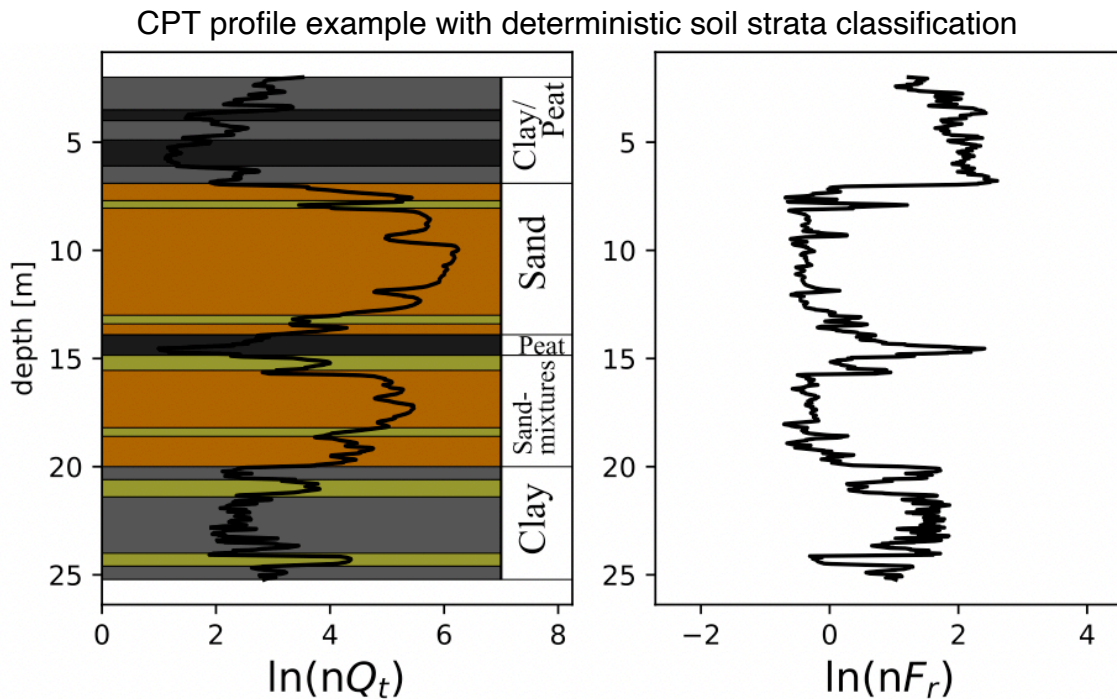
$$nF_r = \frac{f_s}{q_t - \sigma_v} \cdot 100\% \quad [2]$$

Where  $q_t$  is the corrected cone resistance (in MPa) and  $f_s$  is the sleeve friction (in MPa).  $\sigma_v$  and  $\sigma'_v$  are the total and effective stresses.

Using this graph, each datapoint on a continuous CPT profile (general distance between measurements is 2 cm) is then classified as one of the nine possible soil types in the Robertson chart; i.e. the area in which a single measurement is located. For a given CPT profile, this allows for a deterministic soil strata classification where different datapoints with similar data values are grouped together, based on engineering judgement (Fig. 1.2).



**Figure 1.1:** Robertson Chart (Robertson, 2010)



**Figure 1.2:** CPT profile (DINOloket sample: CPT000000097976) with a deterministic soil classification indicating the presence of 20 different layers. Colors represent similar soil types as in Figure 1.1.

### 1.1.2 Limitations of Deterministic Approach

While including engineering judgement in the analysis might be considered an advantage, it also poses a serious limitation. Different engineers might have different engineering judgement, being the result of experience, which may lead to different identifications of soil strata for similar CPT profiles. Whereas the deterministic approach in Figure 1.2 suggests the presence of 20 different soil layers, a differently experienced engineer might suggest less, or even more, subdivisions. In addition to this, classifying this many soil layers is often not practical for a geotechnical study.

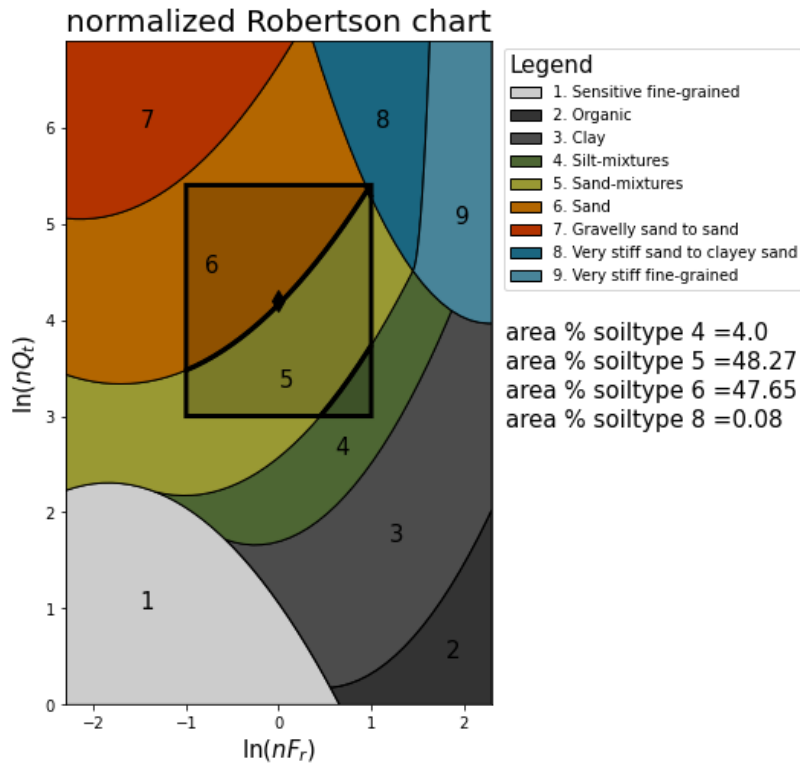
Several authors ascribed this problem to the inexplicit use of data uncertainty within the CPT measurements (Fenton 1999; Wang et al. 2010). Consider, for example, a single measurement point of a CPT profile. In many studies (e.g. Vessia et al., 2020; Kurup & Griffin, 2006; Reale et al., 2018), such measurements are interpreted as deterministic, meaning that the SBT at the depth of that datapoint is fully based on its measured  $q_t$  and  $f_s$ . However, instead of this measurement being considered deterministic, one can assume that it holds some uncertainty. To illustrate, adopting a uniform distribution (for simplicity), such uncertainty would lead to Figure 1.3, where the measured datapoint may describe different soil types each with its own probability ( $P_{soiltype,4} = 0.04$ ,  $P_{soiltype,5} = 0.48$ ,  $P_{soiltype,6} = 0.48$ ). Including this knowledge would then possibly lead to different soil strata classifications.

### 1.1.3 Bayesian Approach

The problem posed in the previous section is discussed in detail by Wang et al. (2013). They suggest a Bayesian approach to interpret CPT profiles including these underlying uncertainties. By including prior knowledge, a method is developed to calculate the most probable number of soil layers and soil layer thicknesses. The prior knowledge included in the example by Wang et al. (2013) is limited to specifying a maximum possible number of soil layers and a prior distribution.

Wang et al. (2013) state that the proposed method is consistent with the available borehole data in their region of interest (NGES sit of Texas) but note that the approach requires more testing at other sites with different case studies. In several publications that followed (e.g. Cao & Wang, 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2019) they further tested the approach, adding friction angles

to the model and doing an optimization analysis. For the latter, they found that the measurement interval used for the model calculation is of great importance (Wang et al., 2014).



*Figure 1.3: illustrative example of how the uncertainty of a CPT measurement relates to the interpretation of that datapoint*

## 1.2 Scope of This Study

In this report, the basic model proposed by Wang et al. (2013) is implemented into code software. This study functions as a detailed walkthrough of the code, discussing its theoretical background and the code implementation. The functionality of the code is illustrated via a case study, where it is used to classify soil layers for a 25 m deep soil profile situated to the northeast of the Groningen village (NE Netherlands; Fig. 1.2). This profile is of interest due to its large variations of soil types and number of soil layers, based on a deterministic analysis (Section 1.1.1 Cone Penetration Testing); in total, 20 layers can be distinguished, varying between clays, peats and sands, with large thickness variations from  $< 0.5\text{ m}$  to  $> 5\text{ m}$ . Note, that by doing this case study, this report automatically functions as a revision of the model proposed by Wang et al. (2013).

This report may function as a starting point for researchers that wish to learn about the Bayesian approach as a mean to interpret CPT profiles and to those who want to further improve such a model without the inconvenience of implementing the basic code themselves.



## Chapter 2 – Theoretical Framework

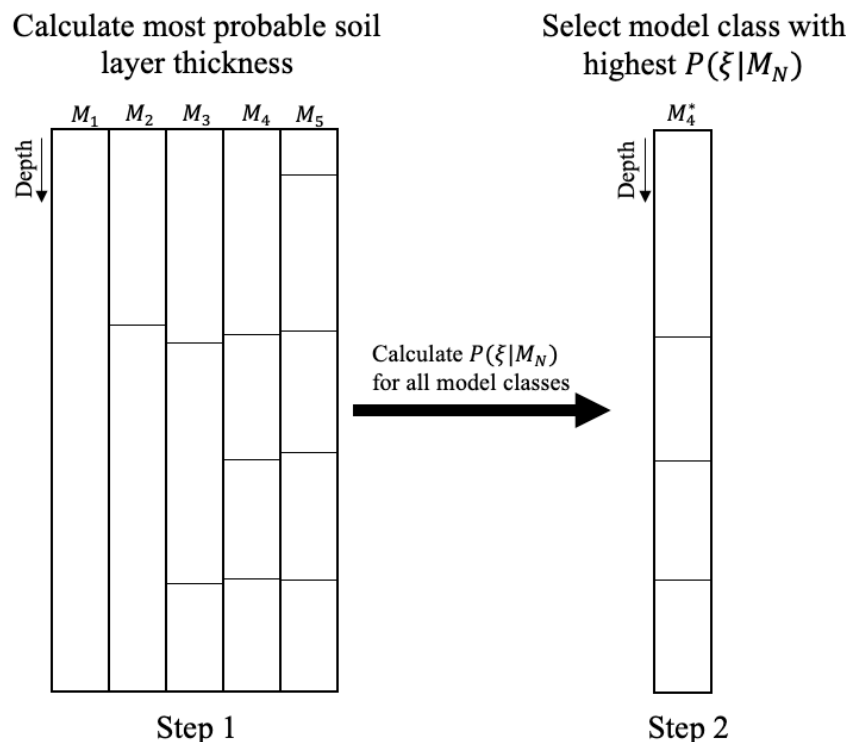
### 2.1 Brief Overview

With the Bayesian approach, a CPT profile is interpreted by calculating the most probable number of soil layers and the most probable layer thicknesses for that particular number of soil layers, based on the uncertainties of CPT measurements. To do so, the approach is subdivided into two parts.

(1) Calculate most probable soil layer thicknesses: First, consider  $N_{max}$  different ‘model classes’ ( $\bar{M}$ ), where  $N_{max}$  is the maximum possible number of soil layers considered. For each model class, a different total number of soil layers is taken as such that  $\bar{M} = [M_1, M_2, \dots, M_N, M_{Nmax}]$ , where  $M_N$  is the Nth model class; coincidentally, N also equals the total number of soil layers considered within that model class. Then, for each model class (each considering a different total number of soil layers) the most probable soil layer thicknesses ( $\bar{h}_N^*$ ) are calculated,  $\bar{h}_N^* = [h_1^*, h_2^*, \dots, h_n^*, h_N^*]$ , where  $h_n^*$  is the most probable thickness of the nth layer of that model class. An example is given in Figure 2.1, where the most probable layer thicknesses are determined for 5 different model classes; note, that Figure 2.1 functions only as an illustrative example for which no real calculations are made. The example indicates that the model becomes more advanced for higher model classes, as more layers are considered.

(2) Select most probable model class: Secondly, all model classes are compared by calculating a conditional probability,  $P(M_n|\underline{\xi})$ , with  $\underline{\xi}$  being a set of  $\ln(nF_r)$  and  $\ln(nQ_t)$  data of a given CPT profile. In descriptive terms,  $P(M_n|\underline{\xi})$  is the probability of model class N given this set of CPT data. The most probable model class ( $M_N^*$ ) is then selected as the one with the highest value of  $P(M_n|\underline{\xi})$ , thus obtaining the most probable soil stratigraphy. For the example in Figure 2.1, this would lead to (e.g.)  $M_4$  being the most probable model class, thus resulting in soil strata classification given by that model class.

The next 2 chapters provide a more detailed description on the equations needed for both parts. In 2.4 Pseudocode and procedure description, a pseudocode and an overview of the implementation steps for the approach is given.



**Figure 2.1:** schematic overview of the approach. **Step 1:** calculate the most probable soil layer thicknesses per model class. **Step 2:** select most probable model class based on their most probable layer thickness.

## 2.2 Calculating the most probable soil layer thicknesses for model class $M_N$

### 2.2.1 The Bayesian Approach: short overview

In the Bayesian approach, prior knowledge ( $\theta_p$ ) and the observed data ( $\underline{X}$ ) are used to describe a posterior distribution ( $P(\theta|\underline{X})$ ; Wang et al., 2016):

$$P(\theta|\underline{X}) = \frac{P(\underline{X}|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(\underline{X})} \quad [3]$$

Where:

1.  $P(\underline{X}|\theta)$  is the likelihood function, that is, the probability of observing the measured data  $\underline{X}$  given the model parameters  $\theta$ .
2.  $P(\theta)$  is the prior distribution, that is, the prior knowledge on  $\theta$  in the absence of data.
3.  $P(\underline{X})$  is a normalizing constant to assure that the sum of all possibilities for Eq. [3] is equal to 1.

Eq. [3] suggests that by multiplying the prior knowledge with newly observed information (the likelihood function), an updated distribution (posterior) is obtained taking this new information into account (Fig. 2.2). This is a large benefit of the Bayesian approach, as new observation data can be used to further improve the model. In the next chapter, Eq. [3] is rewritten for a set of  $\ln(nF_r)$  and  $\ln(nQ_t)$  data given the underlying uncertainty ( $\sigma_{Fr}$  and  $\sigma_{Qt}$ ).

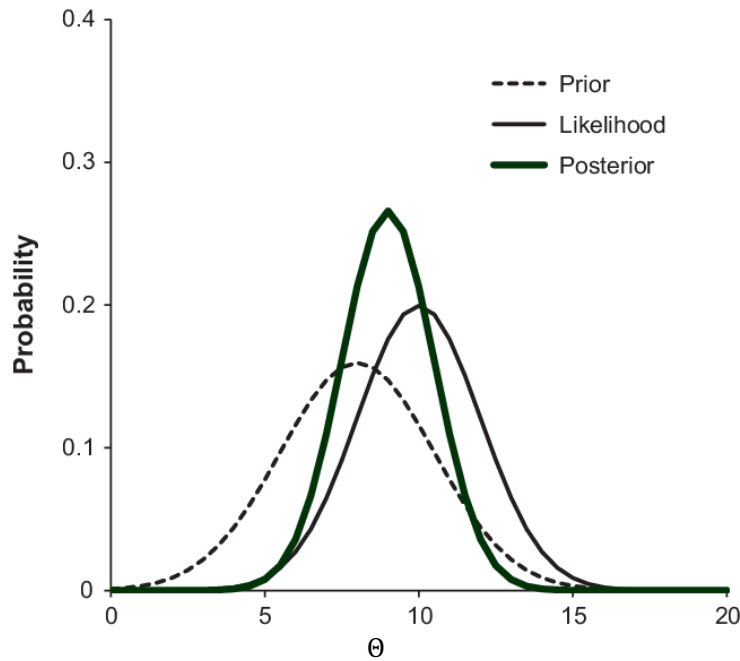


Figure 2.2: schematic illustration of the relation between the prior, likelihood and posterior distribution.

### 2.2.2 Description of Equations

Rather than writing down the equations for all model classes, let us consider one model class,  $M_N$ , with  $N$  number of soil layers. According to Wang et al. (2013), the most probable soil layer thicknesses for  $M_N$  are calculated by maximizing a joint posterior distribution. Similar to Eq. [3], this is written as:

$$P(\underline{\Omega}_N|\underline{\xi}, N) = K_N P(\underline{\xi}|\underline{\Omega}_N, N) P(\underline{\Omega}_N|N) \quad [4]$$

Where  $K_N \left( = \frac{1}{P(\underline{\xi}|N)} \right)$  is a normalizing constant,  $P(\underline{\xi}|\underline{\Omega}_N, N)$  is the likelihood function and  $P(\underline{\Omega}_N|N)$  is the prior distribution of a set model parameters  $\underline{\Omega}_N = [\underline{\sigma}_1, \underline{\sigma}_2, \dots, \underline{\sigma}_n, \underline{\sigma}_N]$ . The latter is calculated with Eq. [5]:

$$P(\underline{\Omega}_N|N) = \prod_{n=1}^N P(\underline{\sigma}_n|N) \quad [5]$$

Where  $P(\underline{\sigma}_n|N)$  is the prior distribution of the model parameters  $\underline{\sigma}_n = [\sigma_{Fr,n}, \sigma_{Qt,n}]$ , which considers the uncertainty of  $Fr$  and  $Qt$  for the  $n$ th layer. This term is further expressed by Wang et al. (2013) as, Eq. [6]:

$$P(\underline{\sigma}_n|N) = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sigma_{Fr,max} - \sigma_{Fr,min}} \frac{1}{\sigma_{Qt,max} - \sigma_{Qt,min}} \right\} \quad [6]$$

$\sigma_{Fr,max}$ ,  $\sigma_{Fr,min}$ ,  $\sigma_{Qt,max}$  and  $\sigma_{Qt,min}$  are the upper and lower bounds of  $\sigma_{Fr,n}$  and  $\sigma_{Qt,n}$ , leading to  $P(\underline{\sigma}_n|N) = \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{Fr}} \right) \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_{Qt}} \right) \right\}$ ; to the interested reader, a full derivation can be found in Wang et al. (2013, pp. 770-771).

The posterior distribution (Eq. [4]) is a function of the soil layer thicknesses where each soil thickness configuration results in a different value for the posterior distribution. Therefore, *the solution lies in finding the soil thickness configuration leading to the maximum value of the posterior distribution*. Note, however, that both  $K_N$  and  $P(\underline{\Omega}_N|N)$  in Eq. [4] are constant for each model class. As the approach merely requires maximizing the posterior, it holds that maximizing for  $P(\underline{\xi}|\underline{\Omega}, N)$ , the likelihood function, yields to the same most probable layer thicknesses for a given model class.

The likelihood function is calculated with Eq. [7] (Wang et al., 2013):

$$P(\underline{\xi}|\underline{\Omega}_N, N) = \prod_{n=1}^N P(\underline{\xi}_n|\underline{\sigma}_n, N) \quad [7]$$

Where  $P(\underline{\xi}_n|\underline{\sigma}_n, N)$  is calculated for each layer in the model class.  $P(\underline{\xi}_n|\underline{\sigma}_n, N)$  equals to the sum of the probabilities that all datapoints in the  $n$ th layer belong to either of the 9 soil types specified on the Robertson Chart, Eq. [8]:

$$P(\underline{\xi}_n|\underline{\sigma}_n, N) = \sum_{J=1}^9 P_{ST_J}(\underline{\xi}_n|N) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad [8]$$

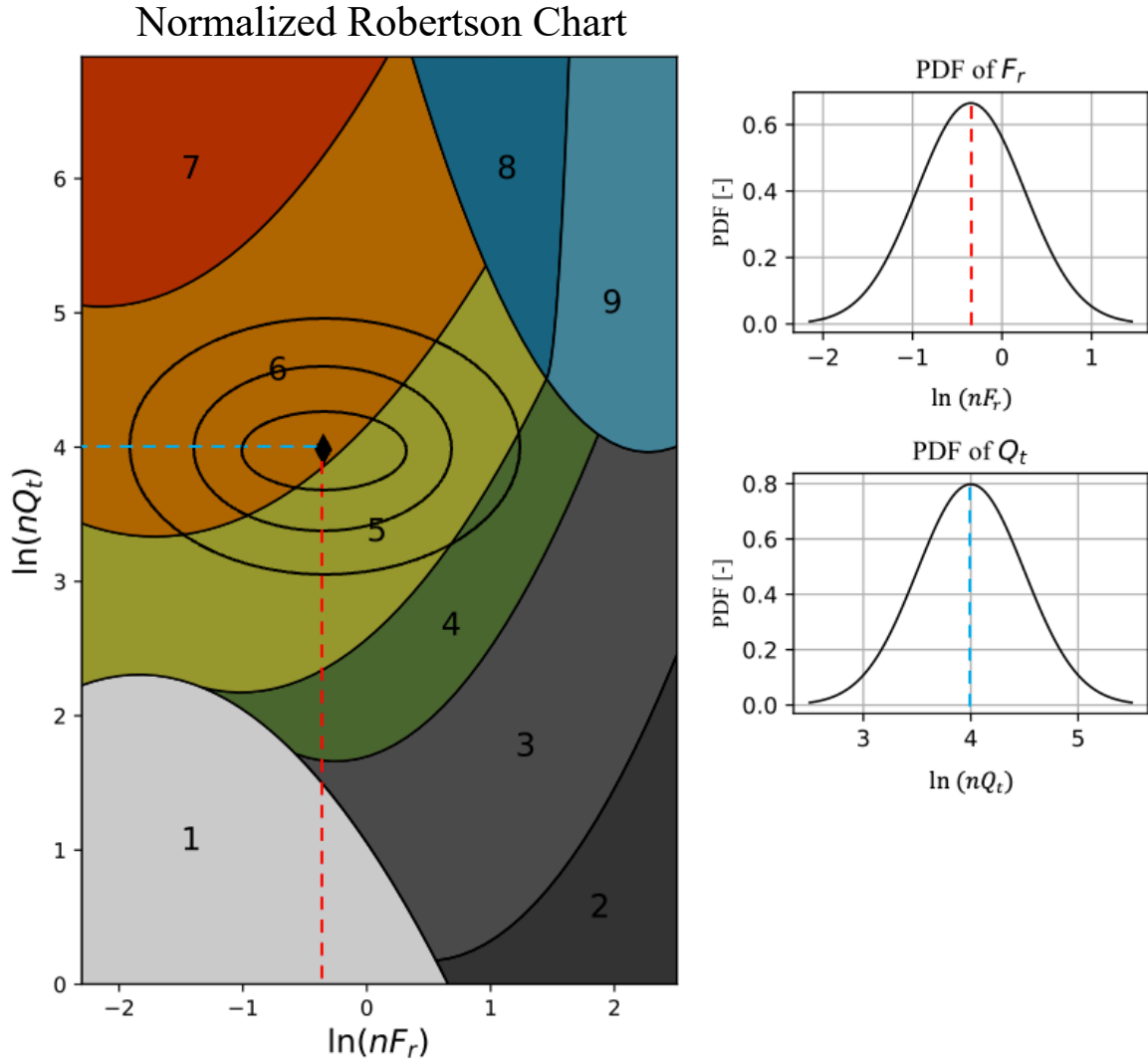
The probability that all datapoints in the  $n$ th layer belong to soil type J is given by Eq. [9]:

$$P_{ST_J}(\underline{\xi}_n|N) = \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} P_{ST_J}(\xi_{n,i}|N) \quad J = 1, 2, \dots, 9 \quad [9]$$

Where  $k_n$  is the total number of CPT datapoints in the  $n$ th soil layer and  $P_{ST_J}(\xi_{n,i}|N)$  is the probability that the  $i$ th CPT datapoint in the  $n$ th soil layer belongs to soil type J. **From this, it becomes evident that the likelihood function, Eq. [7], describes the probability that each of the layers in the model class belongs to a single soil type, given a soil thickness configuration. By maximizing this probability, one obtains the most optimal thickness configuration for that model class.**

### 2.2.3 Input Parameters

The likelihood function requires two sets of input data: (1) a random set of soil layer thicknesses for which the probabilities are calculated and (2) the probability that datapoint  $i$  belongs to soil type J. As implied in the introduction, this probability is described by a probability density function (*PDF*) around the mean, that is, the measured  $F_r$  and  $Q_t$  values for the CPT datapoint  $i$ . The example given in the introduction adopts a uniform distribution, whereas the actual *PDF* is more likely to resemble a joint Gaussian distribution based on standard deviations for both  $F_r$  and  $Q_t$  (Fig. 2.3). The probability that datapoint  $i$  belongs to soil type J is then calculated by integrating the Gaussian curves over the areas on the Robertson chart describing the different soil types.



**Figure 2.3:** Example of a joint Gaussian distribution for datapoint  $i$ , for  $\sigma_{F_r} = 0.6, \sigma_{Q_t} = 0.5$ .

### 2.2.4 Objective Function

The most probable thickness boundaries are found by maximizing the posterior PDF in Eq. [3] or the likelihood function in Eq. [6]. This method describes the asymptotic technique that involves approximating the posterior PDF as a Gaussian PDF, with a mean equal to the most probable value of the posterior PDF (Bleistein and Handelsman, 1986). Rather than maximizing the likelihood function,  $P(\underline{\xi} | \underline{\Omega}_N, N)$ , it is more convenient to define an objective function, Eq. [10], and to minimize for that:

$$f_{obj} = -\ln\left(P(\underline{\xi} | \underline{\Omega}_N, N)\right) \quad [10]$$

This is done as the approach deals with very small probabilities, sometimes too small to grasp by computer software. For this, imagine a 15 m thick soil layer with  $\left(\frac{15}{0.02} =\right)$  750 datapoints, all having a probability of 0.2 that they belong to soil type J. Eq. [10], for that soil type, then leads to a probability of  $0.2^{750}$  which, by a computer, would be approximated as 0.

## 2.2.5 Output

By finding the soil layer thickness configuration that leads to the lowest value of  $f_{obj}$ , the most probable soil layer thickness configuration for a model class is found. In 2.1 Brief Overview this is illustrated by Figure 2.1, where the most probable soil layer thicknesses are calculated for 5 different model classes.

## 2.3 Obtaining the Most Probable Model Class

### 2.3.1 Description of equations

Once the most probable soil layer thicknesses are acquired, a conditional probability is defined for each model class, Eq. [11] (Wang et al., 2013):

$$P(M_N | \underline{\xi}) = \frac{P(\underline{\xi} | M_N) P(M_N)}{P(\underline{\xi})} \quad N = 1, 2, \dots, N_{max} \quad [11]$$

Where  $P(\underline{\xi} | M_N)$  is the conditional probability of  $\underline{\xi}$  given the model class  $M_N$ ,  $P(M_N)$  reflects the prior knowledge on the number of soil layers and  $P(\underline{\xi})$  is the *PDF* of  $\underline{\xi}$ . **The most probable model class ( $M_N^*$ ) is selected as the one with the highest value of  $P(M_n | \underline{\xi})$ .**

If there is no prior knowledge on the total number of soil layers,  $P(M_N)$  can be assumed to be equal for all model classes, approximated by  $\frac{1}{N_{max}}$ . This, in combination with  $P(\underline{\xi})$  being independent of the model class, suggests that maximizing the conditional probability ( $P(M_N | \underline{\xi})$ ) only requires maximizing for  $P(\underline{\xi} | M_N)$ . This term is further approximated by Eq. [12]:

$$P(\underline{\xi} | M_N) \approx P(\underline{\xi} | M_N, h_N^*) P(h_N^*) \quad N = 1, 2, \dots, N_{max} \quad [12]$$

Here,  $P(\underline{\xi} | M_N, h_N^*)$  is the conditional probability of  $\underline{\xi}$  given the model class ( $M_N$ ) and its most probable soil layer thicknesses  $h_N^*$ . This term is calculated with:

$$P(\underline{\xi} | M_N, h_N^*) \approx \int P(\underline{\xi} | \underline{\Omega}_N, M_N) P(\underline{\Omega}_N | M_N) d\underline{\Omega}_N \quad [13]$$

Where  $P(\underline{\xi} | \underline{\Omega}_N, M_N)$  and  $P(\underline{\Omega}_N | M_N)$  are the likelihood function and prior distribution of model class N (in Eq. [4]), respectively. As  $\underline{\Omega}_N$  is constant and fixed throughout the analysis, this is further simplified by removing the integral from Eq. [13], leading to

$$P(\underline{\xi} | M_N, h_N^*) \approx P(\underline{\xi} | \underline{\Omega}_N, M_N) P(\underline{\Omega}_N | M_N) \quad [14]$$

Note, that both terms on the right side are calculated as described in 2.2.2 Description of Equations (Eq. [5] and [7])

$P(h_N^*)$  in Eq. [12] is the occurrence probability of  $h_N^*$ . Since the sum of all soil layer thicknesses must equal the total thickness ( $H_t$ ) of the soil profile, there are N-1 independent layer thicknesses for a model class  $M_N$ . Under the assumption of a uniform distribution for the layer thicknesses with a constant probability density of  $1/H_t$ ,  $P(h_N^*)$  is approximated as (Wang et al., 2013):

$$P(h_N^*) \approx \frac{1}{H_t^{N-1}} \quad [15]$$

For higher model classes, this term becomes smaller, acting as a penalty against overparameterization. Finally, combining Eq. [14] and [15] leads to the maximizing function:

$$P(\underline{\xi} | M_N) = \frac{1}{H_t^{N-1}} P(\underline{\xi} | \underline{\Omega}_N, M_N) P(\underline{\Omega}_N | M_N) \quad [16]$$

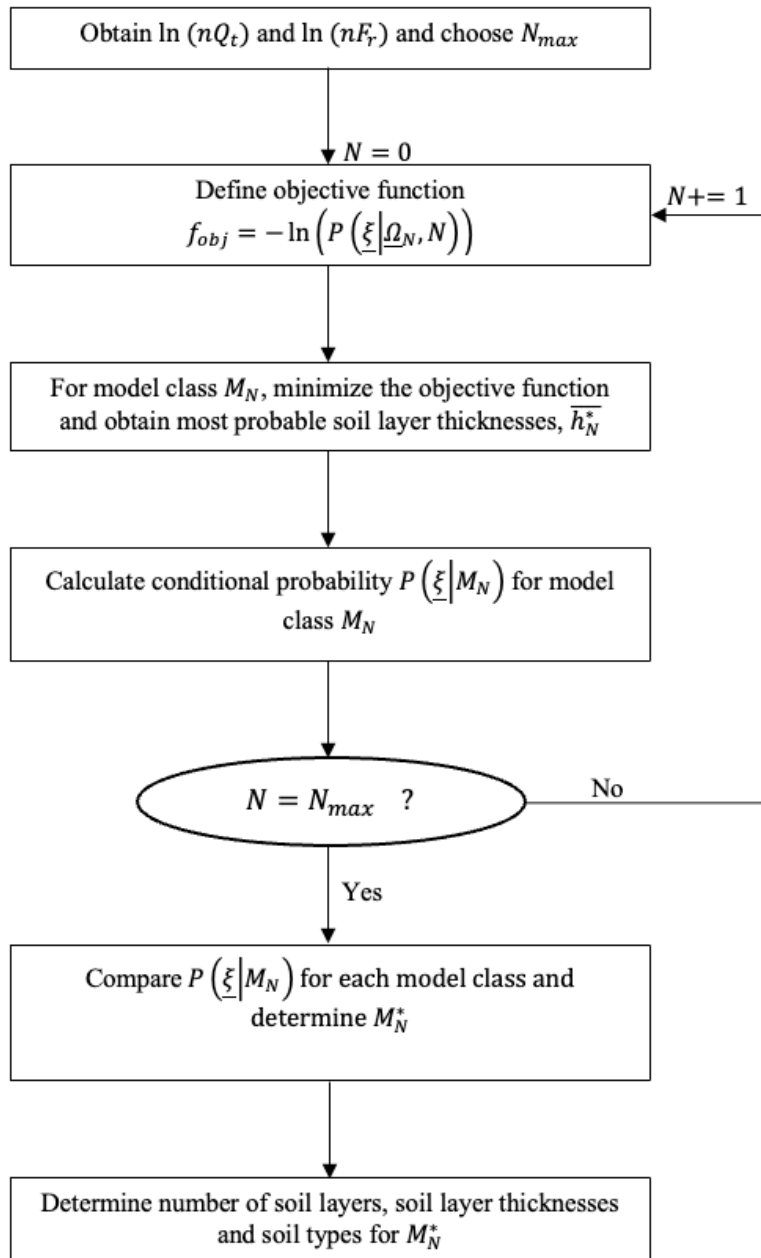
### 2.3.2 Output

Eq. [16] is computed for each model class, thus leading to  $N_{max}$  model classes each having a unique value of  $P(\underline{\xi}|M_N)$ . Eq. [16] describes the probability of observing the set of data from the CPT profile, given the model class  $M_N$ . Thus, the model class resulting in a maximum value of  $P(\underline{\xi}|M_N)$  is selected as the most probable model class. In 2.1 Brief Overview this is illustrated by Figure 2.1 where from 5 model classes (e.g.) model class 4 ( $M_4$ ) is selected as the most probable model class, having the largest value for  $P(\underline{\xi}|M_N)$ .

## 2.4 Pseudocode and procedure description

Figure 2.4 provides a pseudocode, describing the general procedure of the approach discussed in the previous chapters. Below is a detailed description of each step including the associated equations.

1. Obtain a set of CPT data and convert them to  $\ln(nQ_t)$  and  $\ln(nF_r)$  using Eq. [1] and [2]. For this set of data, specify a maximum possible number of soil layers ( $N_{max}$ ), thus resulting in  $N_{max}$  model classes.
2. Define an objective function,  $f_{obj} = -\ln\left(P\left(\underline{\xi}|\underline{\Omega}_N, N\right)\right)$ , for model class  $M_N$  adopting a prior distribution for the model parameters  $\underline{\Omega}_N = [\underline{\sigma}_1, \underline{\sigma}_2, \dots, \underline{\sigma}_n, \underline{\sigma}_N]$ . For this, use Eq. [7] and [10].
  - a. For each CPT datapoint in the  $n$ th soil layer, calculate the probability of that datapoint belonging to each of the 9 soil types of the Robertson chart.
  - b. Calculate the probability that all datapoints in the  $n$ th soil layer belong to the same soil type, Eq. [9].
  - c. Calculate the likelihood function  $P\left(\underline{\xi}|\underline{\Omega}_N, N\right)$ , Eq. [7], being the direct input of the objective function.
3. Minimize the objective function for the  $M_N$  model class to obtain  $\overline{h}_N^*$ . This is done by either (1) evaluating every possible soil layer thickness configuration for that model class and select the one resulting in the lowest value of  $f_{obj}$  or (2) using the python package ‘scipy.optimize’ (see 3.4.3 Optimizing).
4. Calculate the conditional probability,  $P\left(\underline{\xi}|M_N\right)$ , using Eq. [16].
5. Repeat step 2-4  $N_{max}$  times, evaluating the conditional probability for each model class.
6. Select the model class with the highest value of  $P\left(\underline{\xi}|M_N\right)$ , this is taken as the most probable model class  $M_N^*$ .
7. For this model class, select  $\overline{h}_N^*$  and determine the most probable soil types.



**Figure 2.4:** Pseudocode of the proposed approach

## Chapter 3 – Code Implementation

The method discussed in Chapter 2 – Theoretical Framework is implemented into Python code. The steps are elaborated on as such, that readers who are more comfortable with other programming software (e.g. MATLAB) could easily convert the method to a different coding environment. The full python script is provided in the Appendix. The code goes through the 7 steps described in 2.4 Pseudocode and procedure description subdivided into 4 parts:

1. Read the CPT data (.gef file)
2. Calculate the probability that datapoint  $i$  belongs to soil type  $1, 2, \dots, 9$ .
3. Obtain the most probable soil layer thicknesses for model class  $1, 2, \dots, M_N, M_{Nmax}$ .
4. Obtain the most probable model class  $M_N^*$ .

The code includes 4 different python script files (.py):

1. `main.py`: the main file which follows the general workflow described above. The other files (2-4) are imported as packages and the individual functions in these files are called upon when necessary (Appendix A).
2. `read_cpt.py`: file with functions to read and store CPT data in a matrix (Appendix B).
3. `robertson.py`: file with functions to specify the soil areas on the Robertson chart and to calculate the probability that datapoint  $i$  belongs to soil type  $1, 2, \dots, 9$  (Appendix C).
4. `posterior.py`: file with functions to calculate the most probable soil layer thicknesses per model class and to obtain the most probable model class  $M_N^*$  (Appendix D).

### 3.1 Code requirements

#### 3.1.1 Input parameters

In `main.py`, the input parameters are specified. These include:

- *cpt*: a .gef file of the CPT that needs to be analyzed (see 3.2.1 The .gef file)
- *N max*: the maximum number of soil layers to consider. This value equals the number of model classes for which the model will calculate.
- *min thickness*: minimum thickness of a soil layer to be considered a separate layer.
- *std Fr/std Qt*: the standard deviation of the friction ratio and cone resistance, respectively
- *implement constraints*: determines if the *boundary constraint* (see below) should be considered. Set to “yes” or “no”.
- *boundary constraint*: if needed, specify a matrix with shape = (number of constraints, 3). For each constraint, specify the array [top of depth interval, bottom of depth interval, minimum model class to consider constraint].  
*Applications*: this constraint is used to force the model to include a soil layer boundary within the specified domain, depending on the model class. **Example**: If the user wants to make sure that a soil boundary between 4-6 m depth is included when 3 or more soil layers are considered (=model class 3 or higher) specify the input as `np.array([4, 6, 3])`. More constraints can be included following the same structure, e.g.: `np.array([[4, 6, 3], [6, 9, 5]])`.
- *Probability iterations*: number of iterations to approximate the joint Gaussian distribution with a Monte Carlo analysis (3.3 Detailed code description: Calculate probability per datapoint). *Note*: a higher value results in a better approximation of the joint Gaussian curves. However, this will also lead to larger computation times.
- *Threshold model class*: last model class that does not need further optimization, see 3.4.3 Optimizing.
- *No. guesses*: the number of best soil thickness configurations that are selected to further optimize the model class, see 3.4.3 Optimizing.
- *Guesses iterations*: number of randomly generated soil layer thickness configurations from which X (=no. guesses) best configurations are selected, see 3.4.2 Initial guesses and 3.4.3 Optimizing.



### 3.1.2 package installments

The Python code makes use of three useful packages: shapely, geopandas and descartes. As these packages are greatly dependent on each other, it is required that the user installs the correct versions. To avoid conflicts with interdependencies with pre-installed python packages, it is suggested to create a separate working environment for the code. This is best done within the anaconda environment which can be installed from: <https://www.anaconda.com/products/individual>.

#### STEP 1: SETTING UP A NEW ENVIRONMENT

1. Open the anaconda navigator
2. Type: `conda create -n geo_env` (this creates a new environment called “geo\_env”)
3. Type: `conda activate geo_env` (this activates the new environment)

#### STEP 2: DOWNLOAD GEOPANDAS

1. Type: `conda config --env --add channels conda-forge`
2. Type: `conda config --env --set channel_priority strict`
3. Type: `conda install python=3 geopandas`

#### STEP 3: DOWNLOAD DESCARTES

1. Type: `conda install -c conda-forge Descartes`

Note, that to be able to run the code successfully, the environment needs to be active. The environment can always be activated in the anaconda navigator using `conda activate geo_env`.

## 3.2 Detailed code description: Read CPT Data

The code described in this part can be found in Appendix B.

### 3.2.1 The .gef file

CPT data is typically stored in a `.gef` file. A small section of the data in such a file is given below, where the columns are separated with a ‘;’.

```
92. 2.000;0.640;1.997;137.0;3;-1;3;0.021;0.000;3.7;!
93. 2.020;0.590;2.017;138.0;3;-2;3;0.021;-0.001;4.0;!
94. 2.040;0.530;2.037;139.0;3;-2;3;0.021;-0.004;4.4;!
95. 2.060;0.470;2.057;140.0;3;-2;4;0.020;-0.003;4.6;!
96. 2.080;0.440;2.077;141.0;3;-1;3;0.017;-0.002;4.1;!
97. 2.100;0.410;2.097;142.0;3;-2;4;0.015;0.003;3.8;!
```

The definition of each column value may vary between each `.gef` file but are always given at the top of the file. In this particular case, the following definitions are adopted for the different column values:

```
3. #COLUMNINFO= 1, m (meter), sondeertrajectlengte, 1
4. #COLUMNINFO= 2, MPa (megaPascal), conusweerstand, 2
5. #COLUMNINFO= 3, m (meter), diepte, 11
6. #COLUMNINFO= 4, s (seconde), verlopen tijd, 12
7. #COLUMNINFO= 5, ° (graden), helling oost-west, 10
8. #COLUMNINFO= 6, ° (graden), helling noord-zuid, 9
9. #COLUMNINFO= 7, ° (graden), hellingresultante, 8
10. #COLUMNINFO= 8, MPa (megaPascal), plaatselijke wrijving, 3
11. #COLUMNINFO= 9, MPa (megaPascal), waterspanning u2, 6
12. #COLUMNINFO= 10, % (procent; MPa/MPa), wrijvingsgetal, 4
```

Sometimes, the cone penetration test fails to capture data at a certain depth, leading to a ‘void’ in the data set. The .gef file therefore specifies the errors if a value is missing:

```
14. #COLUMNVOID= 1, 999.999
15. #COLUMNVOID= 2, 999.999
16. #COLUMNVOID= 3, 999.999
17. #COLUMNVOID= 4, 99999.9
18. #COLUMNVOID= 5, 99
19. #COLUMNVOID= 6, 99
20. #COLUMNVOID= 7, 99
21. #COLUMNVOID= 8, 9.999
22. #COLUMNVOID= 9, 99.999
23. #COLUMNVOID= 10, 999.9
```

### 3.2.2 Obtain matrix from .gef file

The .gef file is imported using the function ‘read\_cpt’ in read.py. The different columns of the .gef file are stored in a matrix and, for each datapoint, used to obtain the following 12 different columns.

```
40. #0 = depth
41. #1 = cone resistance
42. #2 = sleeve friction
43. #3 = u2
44. #4 = friction ratio
45. #5 = I_sbt
46. #6 = volumetric weight soil
47. #7 = total vertical stress
48. #8 = effective vertical stress assuming ps is at z=0
49. #9 = normalized cone stress
50. #10 = normalized friction ratio
51. #11 = corrected cone resistance
```

The first 5 columns (0-4) follow directly from the .gef file. The pore water pressure (u2), however, was often found to contain false values that, from an engineering perspective, make limited sense. Therefore, the assumption is made that the pore water pressure increases linearly with depth. Secondly, if a datapoint contains an error, a new value is taken via interpolation from the surrounding datapoints.

The values for the remaining columns (5-11) are based on empirical relations.  $I_{SBT}$  is related to the corrected cone resistance ( $q_t$ ) and the atmospheric pressure (taken at 0.1 MPa):

$$I_{SBT} = \left( 3.47 - \log\left(\frac{q_t}{P_{atm}}\right) \right)^2 \quad [17]$$

The volumetric soil weight is based on an empirical relation given by Robertson (1990), Eq. [18]:

$$W_{soil} = \gamma_w \left( 0.27 \log(f_r) + 0.36 \log\left(\frac{q_t}{P_{atm}}\right) \right) + 1.236 \quad [18]$$

Where  $\gamma_w$  is the unit weight of water (in  $\frac{kN}{m^3}$ ) and  $f_r$  is the friction ratio. From this follows the total vertical stress, being the cumulative sum of the soil weights of the overlying datapoints. Subsequently, the effective stress is calculated from the total stress ( $\sigma_v$ ) and the pore water pressure ( $u$ ):

$$\sigma'_v = \sigma_v - u \quad [19]$$

Adopting Eq. [1] and [2] then leads to the normalized cone resistance and friction ratio.

### 3.2.3 Generalize matrix

Although the approach makes use the natural logarithm to deal with very small probabilities, it is found that this solution is not always sufficient, especially dealing with very large datasets (e.g. very large CPT profiles). Therefore, it is necessary to include a data generalization (function ‘generalize’ in read\_cpt.py, Appendix B). Here, a very simple solution is implemented where

the dataset is reduced by a factor directly related to the minimum possible thickness ( $H_{min}$ ) specified by the user where:

$$F_{reduction} = \frac{H_{min}}{0.02} \quad [20]$$

Where  $0.02 \text{ m}$  is the distance between measurements used by CPT's. For the case that a minimum possible thickness of  $10 \text{ cm}$  is adopted, this results in a reduction factor of 5. This means that the generalized dataset is 5 times smaller than the original dataset. The column values for each generalized segment are taken as the average of the values for which it the segment is generalized.

Note, that only the depth, normalized cone resistance and friction ratio are needed for the remaining part of the approach. The generalized matrix therefore contains 12 redefined columns:

40. #0 = depth generalized  
 41. #1 = log of nQt generalized  
 42. #2 = log of nFr generalized  
 43. #3-11 = for probabilities; for now empty

Column 4-12 are empty for now and will be used for data storage in the next part.

### 3.3 Detailed code description: Calculate probability per datapoint

In 2.2.3 Input Parameters, the probability that datapoint  $i$  belongs to each of the 9 soil types ( $P_{ST_j}(\xi_{n,i}|N)$  in Eq. [8]) is described as the integration of a joint Gaussian distribution (of  $F_r$  and  $Q_t$ ) over the different areas of the Robertson chart describing the different soil types. Rather than solving for many different integrations per datapoint, which is both complex and time demanding, a Monte Carlo (MC) analysis is conducted (function `MC_probability` in `robertson.py` Appendix C). The joint Gaussian *PDF* for datapoint  $i$  is approximated by generating many points on the Robertson chart, each point being randomly generated based on a mean (the measured  $F_r$  and  $Q_t$  of datapoint  $i$ ) and a set of standard deviations (e.g. Fig. 3.1). From this,  $P_{ST_j}(\xi_{n,i}|N)$  for datapoint  $i$  is approximated as:

$$P_{ST_j}(\xi_{n,i}|N) = \frac{\text{count of MC realizations in area } J}{\text{total MC realizations}} \quad [21]$$

To count the number of points that fall within a certain soil type area  $J$ , the boundaries of the areas of the Robertson chart are approximated by eight quadratic functions (Fig. 3.2; table 3.1) and their intersecting points (table 3.2), based on Wang et al. (2013). Using the python package 'shapely', these coordinates are then used to create polygons. This is done because the `shapely` package has a nice built-in function '`.within`' that evaluates if a point lies within a polygon. Evaluated this for each generated point of the MC analysis will result in the numerator of Eq. [21].

For every datapoint of the CPT profile, this leads to 9 different probabilities (probability of belonging to soil type 1, 2, 3, ..., 9), which are stored in column 4-12 of the generalized matrix from 3.2.3 Generalize matrix. Note, that if the MC analysis is applied to many realizations (this number is specified by the user = *Probability iterations*), this may take a significant time to finish.

**Table 3.1:** best-fitted quadratic functions for the boundaries on the Robertson chart (Wang et al., 2013).

<b>I</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = -0.3707 \ln(F_r)^2 - 1.3625 \ln(F_r) + 1.0549$
<b>II</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = -0.5586 \ln(F_r)^2 - 0.5399 \ln(F_r) + 0.3049$
<b>III</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = 0.5405 \ln(F_r)^2 + 0.2739 \ln(F_r) + 1.6959$
<b>IV</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = 0.3833 \ln(F_r)^2 + 0.7805 \ln(F_r) + 2.5718$
<b>V</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = 0.2827 \ln(F_r)^2 + 0.967 \ln(F_r) + 4.1612$
<b>VI</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = 0.3477 \ln(F_r)^2 + 1.4933 \ln(F_r) + 6.6507$
<b>VII</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = 0.8095 \ln(F_r)^2 - 3.6795 \ln(F_r) + 8.1444$
<b>VIII</b>	$\ln(Q_t) = 64.909 \ln(F_r)^2 - 187.07 \ln(F_r) + 139.2901$

Table 3.2: Coordinates of the intersection points of the Robertson chart (Wang et al., 2013).

Intersection point	$\ln(F_r)$	$\ln(Q_t)$	Intersection point	$\ln(F_r)$	$\ln(Q_t)$
A	-2.3026	0	L	0.9622	5.3534
B	0.6569	0	M	-2.3026	3.4335
C	-2.3026	2.2268	N	0.3655	6.9078
D	2.3026	0	O	0.1658	6.9078
E	2.3026	2.0234	P	-2.3026	5.0557
F	0.5589	0.1776	Q	-2.3026	6.9078
G	2.3026	3.9639	R	2.3026	6.9078
H	1.8687	4.0953	S	1.6334	6.9078
J	1.4505	4.5104	T	-0.5773	1.7179
K	-1.3334	2.2126			

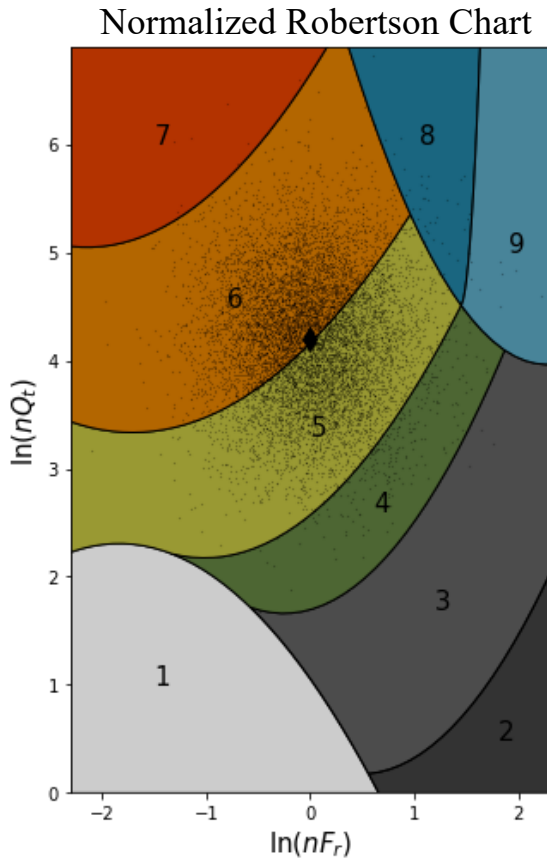


Figure 3.1: Monte Carlo analysis that approximates the joint Gaussian PDF for datapoint  $i$ .

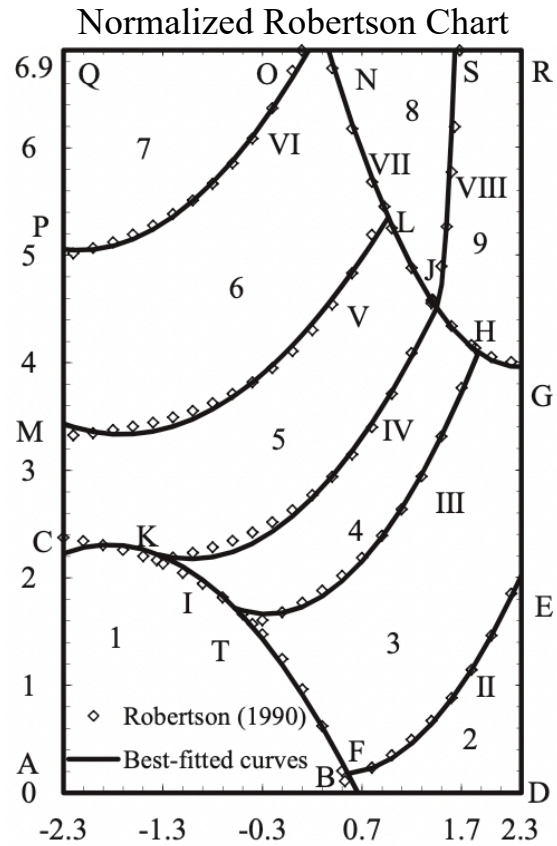


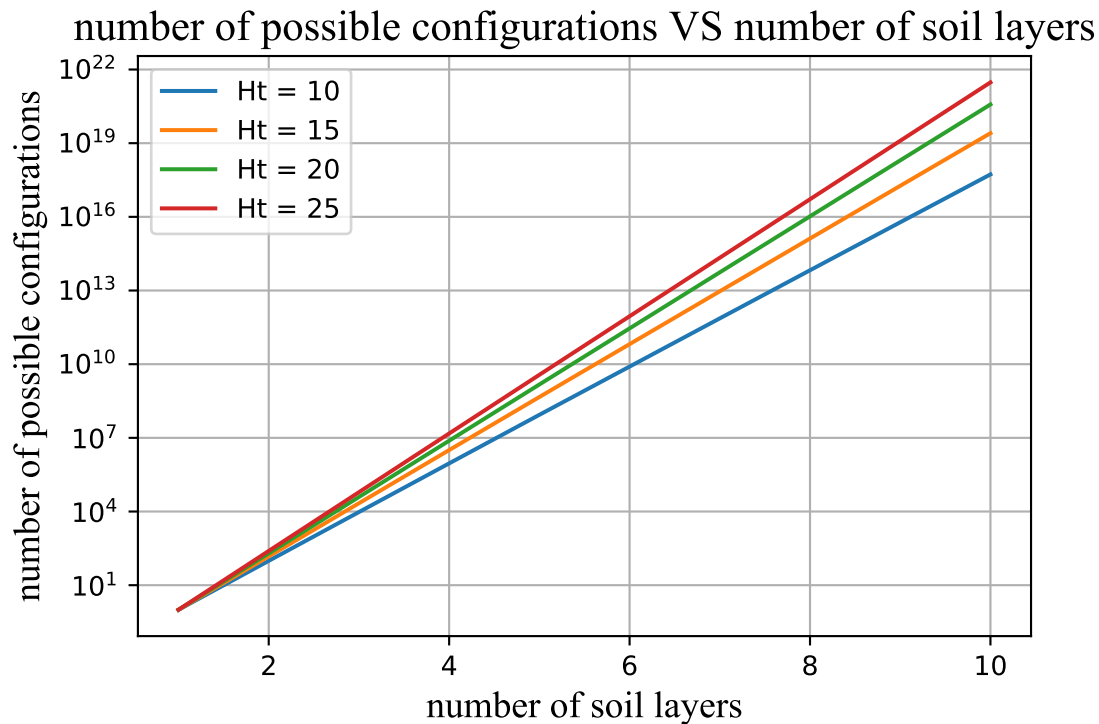
Figure 3.2: Overview of the quadratic functions to approximate the boundaries on the Robertson chart (Wang et al., 2013).

### 3.4 Detailed code description: Obtain the most probable thicknesses per model class

#### 3.4.1 Brief overview

Here, the code that implements the theory described in 2.2 Calculating the most probable soil layer thicknesses for model class  $M_N$  is discussed. The output following from 3.3 Detailed code description: Calculate probability per datapoint is used. That is, a matrix wherein for each datapoint the probabilities are listed that that datapoint belongs to one of the 9 soil types described by the Robertson chart. For each model class, an objective function (Eq. [9]) is constructed and minimized based on these probabilities. As the objective function yields a different solution for each different soil thickness configuration, a straight-forward approach would be to calculate the objective function for many thickness configurations. Then, the most probable thickness configuration is taken as the one configuration that leads to the lowest value for the objective function.

This approach is valid for model classes with a low number of soil layers, but lacks efficiency for model classes with a large number of soil layers. For model classes with a high number of soil layers, significantly more configurations must be evaluated to include all possibilities, thus requiring significantly longer computation times (Fig. 3.3). Therefore, for higher model classes, an optimization approach is suggested.



**Figure 3.3:** Number of possible soil layer thickness configurations versus the number of soil layers considered. 4 different soil profile thicknesses are included. Note: y-scale is logarithmic.

In `posterior.py` (Appendix D) this optimization is achieved with the two functions `'best_guesses'` and `'optimizer'`. `'best_guesses'` simulates the likelihood function for a large set of randomly generated layer thickness configurations. The function returns a list `"best_conf"` where X (number specified by the user) configurations are stored having the lowest values for the objective function. For model classes with a *low number* of soil layers, the objective function is then minimized by selecting the configuration within that list that contains the lowest value for the objective function.

For model classes with a *high number* of soil layers, each individual configuration in the list following from `'best_guesses'` is taken as the input parameter for the function `'optimizer'`. For a given layer thickness configuration this function further minimizes the objective function, using the `scipy.optimize` package. Then, similarly to the model classes containing a low number of soil layers, the configuration leading to the lowest value of the objective function is then taken as the configuration with the most probable soil layer thicknesses.

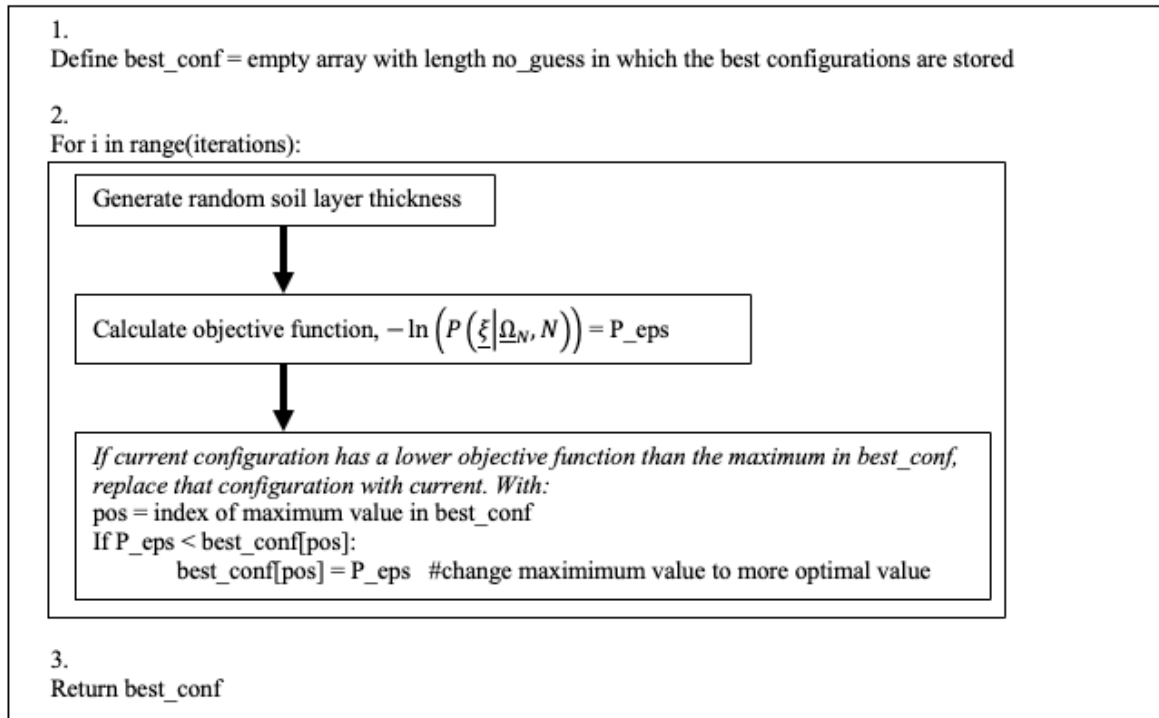
### 3.4.2 Initial guesses

In `posterior.py`, the function (`best_guesses`) is defined in which the objective function is evaluated for many different (randomized) soil layer thickness configuration. Below is a schematic pseudocode of the function.

#### Input

1. matrix\_generalized: matrix following from chapter 3.1-3.3
2. model\_class: model class indicating the number of soil layers
3. iterations: no. of evaluations to consider per model class
4. min\_thickness: minimum possible thickness of a soil layer to be considered
5. no\_guesses: number of best configurations to return (minimum = 1)

**best\_guesses**(matrix\_generalized, model\_class, iterations, min\_thickness, no\_guesses)



#### Output

List with `no_guesses` evaluations of the most optimal soil layer thickness configurations.

#### 1. Generating a random configuration of soil layer thicknesses:

First, an array of possible boundary positions is generated based on the boundaries of the CPT profile, based on a of 0.1 m spacing. From this array, the positions of the boundaries are randomly generated with the `random.choice()` command (see below, line 8). By doing this iteratively for each boundary, the randomized value is deleted from the array with total possibilities to assure that the other boundaries are not assigned to the same positions. In the python script this is results in:

```

1.
2.   boundaries = np.zeros(model_class+1) #empty list in which boundaries are stored
3.
4.   boundaries[0] = matrix_generalized[0,0] #first value = top of CPT profile
5.
6.   if model_class>1:
7.       for nn in range(1+len(L_constraints),model_class+1):
8.           boundaries[nn] = random.choice(boundary_possibilities)
9.
10.          #indices of value +/- min_thickness in boundary_possibilities
11.          idx = np.array(np.where((boundary_possibilities>boundaries[nn]-min_thickness)
12.                                 *(boundary_possibilities<boundaries[nn]+min_thickness))[0])
13.
14.          #delete indices so that next iteration only a correct boundary
15.          boundary_possibilities=np.delete(boundary_possibilities,idx)

```

Note, that the boundaries need only to be generated for model classes that have more than 1 layer. One might also note the variable `len(L_constraints)` in line 2. This term allows to include constraints in the random generation of layer boundaries. If no constraints are specified this value equals to 0. The constraint is a mean to force the position of a single (or more) soil boundary, having the following input layout:

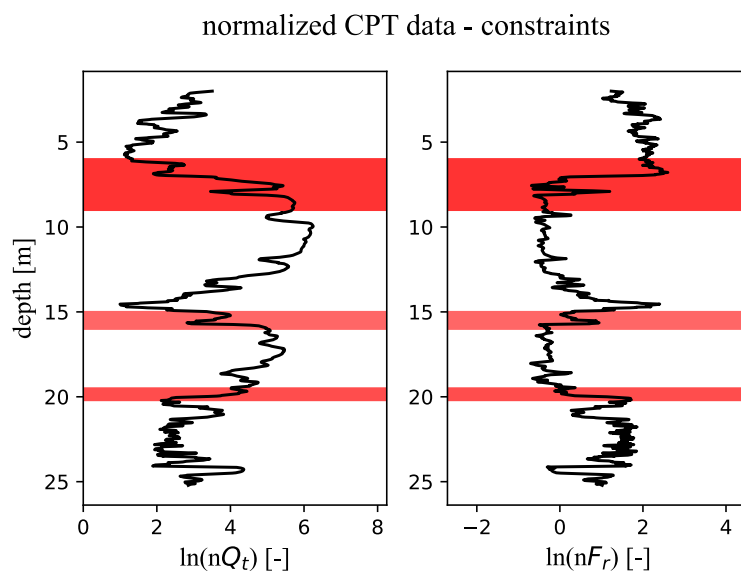
```

1.   np.array([[start,stop,model class], #constraint 1
2.            [start,stop,model class], #constraint 2
3.            ...])

```

Where 'start' and 'stop' specify the range in which (at least) one of the boundaries should be positioned. The 'model class' parameter specifies when this constraint should be included, for example: the constraint [6,9,3] makes sure that (at least) one soil boundary is located between 6 and 9 m depth, only if 3 or more soil layers are considered.

If constraints are included in the analysis, the program will automatically provide a CPT profile showing the different constraints (e.g. Fig. 3.3).



**Figure 3.3:** CPT profile including the constraints: [6, 9, 2], [15, 16, 4] and [19.5, 20.2, 3].

## 2. Returning list with X best configurations

The likelihood function (or `P_Eps` in the python code) is calculated for many different soil layer thickness configurations. Each different soil layer thickness configuration will therefore lead to a unique `P_Eps` value. From all the different layer thickness configurations for which the objective function is calculated, a selection of configurations is returned giving the minimal value of the objective function; the size of this selection is defined by `no_guesses`. The function output is a

matrix, `best_conf`, for which the number of rows is equal to `no_guesses`. The number of columns is dependent on the model class where in the first column (`=best_conf[:,0]`) the objective function values are stored. In the remaining columns, the layer thicknesses are stored. For model class 4, `best_conf` will (e.g.) look like this:

$$\begin{bmatrix} [200 & 4 & 5 & 3 & 6] \\ [198 & 2 & 6 & 5 & 5] \\ [201 & 6 & 5 & 1 & 6] \\ [... & ... & ... & ... & ...] \end{bmatrix}$$

Where 200, 198 and 201 are the values for the objective function. The other numbers represent soil layer thicknesses.

### 3.4.3 Optimizing

For low model classes, the matrix that follows from 3.4.2 Initial guesses is not further optimized. The most probable thickness configuration is taken as the one giving the lowest value for the likelihood function. For the example above, this would lead to the second configuration.

For higher model classes, each configuration that follows from 3.4.2 Initial guesses is further optimized, for reasons stated in 3.4.1 Brief overview. This is done within the function `optimizer` using the `scipy.optimize` package.

For this study, the basin-hopping algorithm was found to be most efficient. The algorithm can deal with functions that have many minima, which is the case for this study. Figure 3.4 schematically explains the workings of the basin-hopping algorithm. Starting from an initial function-value, the algorithm tries to change the input parameters as such that a lower function-value is found. The algorithm does this step-wise. Each step, either (1) a less favorable condition is found and thus neglected or (2) a more favorable condition is found which then will function as the starting point for the next iteration. Iterating many times will then lead to a minimum value.

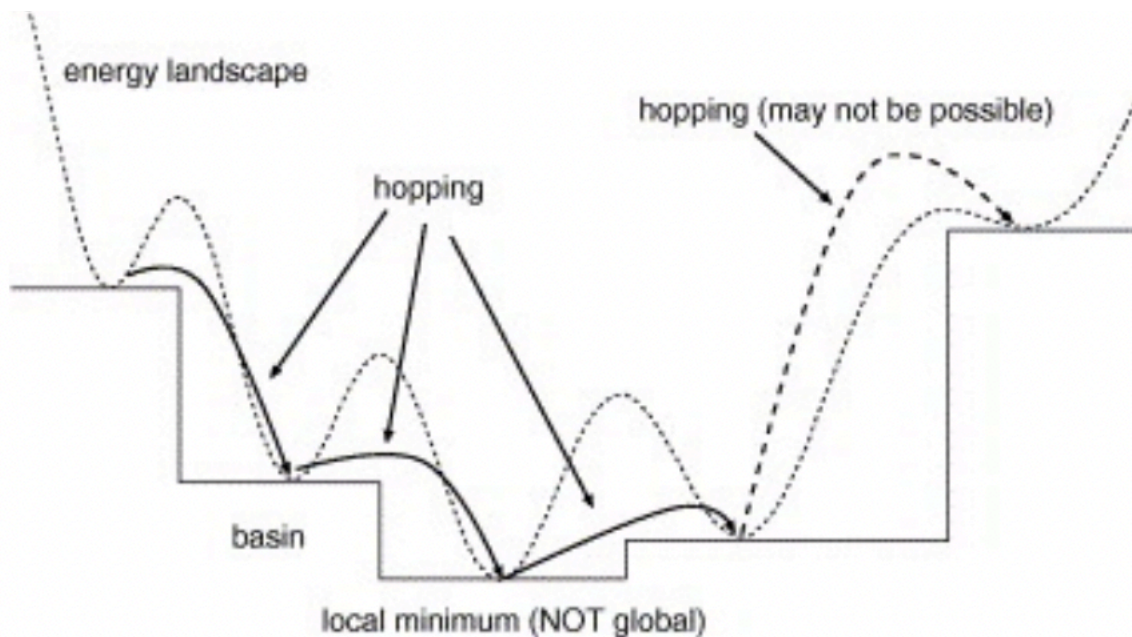


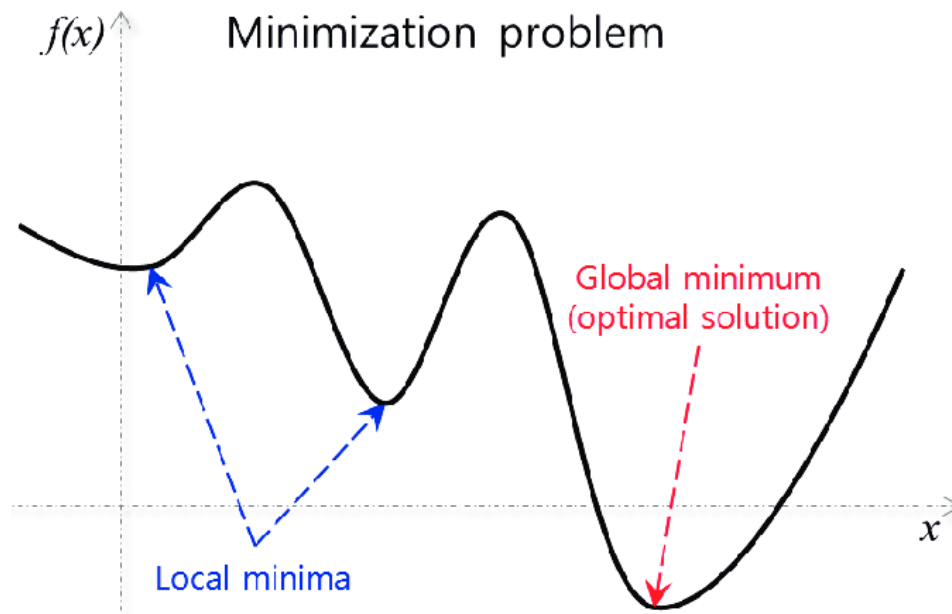
Figure 3.4: Basin-hopping example. Source: <https://ars.els-cdn.com/content/image/1-s2.0-S0009261404016082-gr1.jpg>

Note, however, that for a single optimization there is no way of ensuring that this is a *local* minimum rather than a *global* minimum value. This is illustrated in Figure 3.5 where obtaining a local or global minimum is fully dependent on the starting point (or ‘initial guess’) of the optimization. This relation between local and global minima is the reason for the part described in 3.4.2 Initial guesses. By optimizing for multiple different starting points (i.e. the most optimal different initial guesses), it is more likely to obtain the global minimum; thus, comparing all optimized configurations and selecting the one leading to the minimum value of the objective function.



The basin-hopping algorithm allows to include boundary conditions and constraints, which can be very helpful. For example, below is the list of the current applied constraints and boundary conditions:

- *Constraint 1*: the sum of all soil layer thicknesses must equal the total thickness of the CPT profile.
- *Constraint 2*: soil layer thicknesses cannot be less than the minimal thickness specified by the user
- *Boundary condition 1*: the thickness of a soil layer cannot exceed the total thickness of a CPT profile (if not specified it was found that, even with constraint 2, constraint 1 was met by having negative thicknesses).



**Figure 3.5:** difference between local and global minimum. Source: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322270023/figure/fig3/AS:667627483562008@1536186204657/Example-of-local-and-global-solutions-in-an-optimization-problem.png>

### 3.5 Detailed code description: Obtain the most probable model class

When the most probable soil layer thicknesses are calculated for all model classes (3.4 Detailed code description: Obtain the most probable thicknesses per model class), the simulation is completed by calculating the most probable model class. Compared to the previous section, this is done in a few coding lines. For each model class, the minimum value of the objective function is multiplied with the prior distribution (Eq. [5]). This product is then divided by  $H_t^{N-1}$  according to Eq. [15], to obtain the conditional probability. The most probable model class is then taken as the one leading to the highest value of the conditional probability. Lastly, the most probable soil types are found. This is achieved by calculating  $P(\xi_n | \underline{\sigma}_n, N)$  (Eq. [8], the probability that all datapoints in the  $n$ th layer belong to either of the 9 soil types specified on the Robertson chart) for each soil layer and selecting the soil type for that layer resulting in the highest value for  $P(\xi_n | \underline{\sigma}_n, N)$ .

## Chapter 4 – Case Study

The model approach described in chapter 2 and 3 is applied to an existing CPT profile in the proximity of the Groningen Village (Fig. 1.2). As mentioned in 1.2 Scope of This Study, this CPT profile describes a stratigraphy in which 20 different layers are separated, following a deterministic classification. Based on these subdivisions, 5 regions can be distinguished: (1) clays between 2-7 m, (2) sands between 7-14 m, (3) peat between 14-15 m, (4) sands between 15-20 m and (5) clays at depths >20 m.

### 4.1 The most probable soil layer thicknesses

The most probable soil layer thicknesses are calculated following the approach described in Chapter 2.2 (2.2 Calculating the most probable soil layer thicknesses for model class  $M_N$ ). The results are obtained adopting the input parameter values in Table 4.1.

(1) Boundaries that are found by lower model classes (e.g.  $M_2 - M_5$ ) are considered soil boundaries as well in the higher model classes (e.g.  $M_6 - M_9$ ); for example, the soil boundary at ca. 7.4 m depth is considered in all model classes  $M_2 - M_9$ . This leads to a pattern where for each higher model class, a new soil boundary is added while the other soil boundaries are similar to the ones found by the previous model classes. One exception to this is the boundary at ca. 19.9 m depth found by  $M_8$ , which is absent in  $M_9$ . This deviation can be ascribed to the relatively low number of iterations (‘guesses iterations’ in Table 4.1) considered. This value is significantly lower than the total number of possibilities of soil layer thicknesses for model 8; for a CPT profile thickness of 23.22 m and a minimum layer thickness of 0.1 m, a total of  $6 * 10^{18}$  soil layer configurations are possible. Although the code involves an optimization of the best configurations, deviations are likely to occur at the higher model classes. An obvious solution would be to increase the number of iterations, but that leads to significantly more computation times.

(2) The most probable layer boundaries that follow for each model class complement well with the CPT data. For example, in Fig. 4.1 the soil boundaries based on  $M_6$  are added to the CPT profile. They suggest that the model correctly identifies different soil layers depending on the model class.

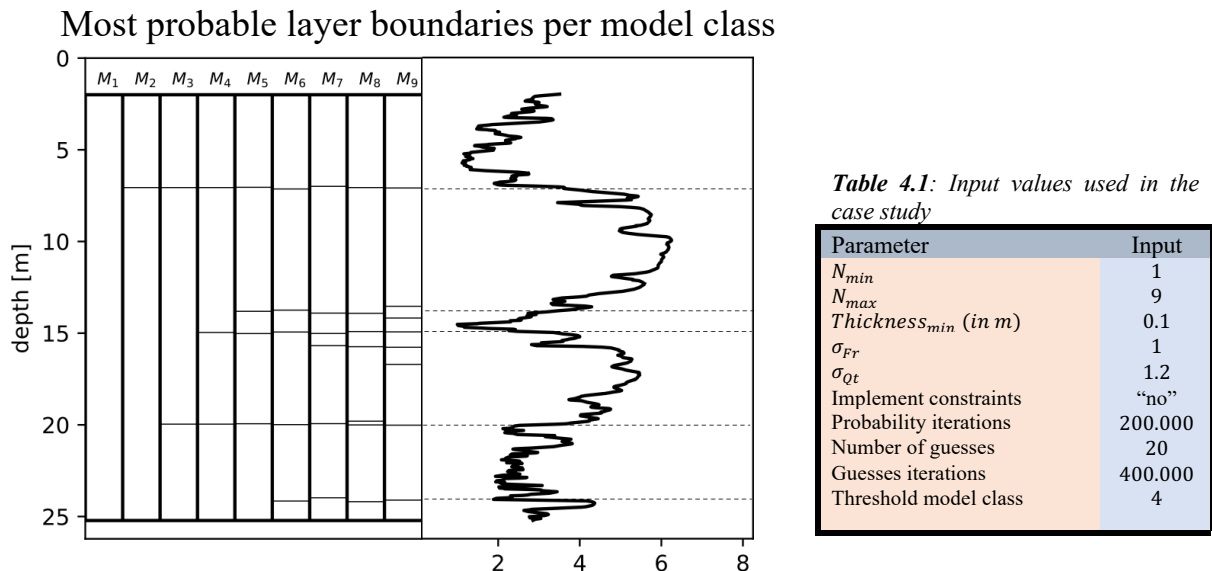


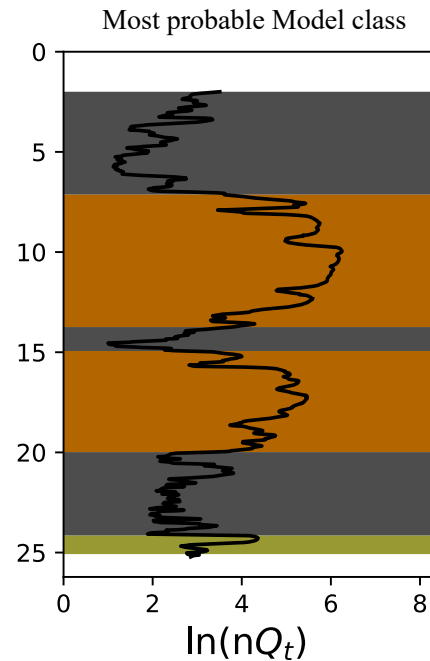
Figure 4.1: Results of the Bayesian approach calculating the most probable layer thickness configurations per model class.

## 4.2 The most probable model class

Following the method described in chapter 2.3 (2.3 Obtaining the Most Probable Model Class), the results for obtaining the most probable model class are summarized in table 4.2. As defined, the model class with the maximum value of  $\ln [P\xi|M_N]$  is considered the most probable model class. For model classes  $M_1 - M_6$ , the value of  $\ln [P\xi|M_N]$  increases from  $-470.9$  to  $-208.8$ , after which the value decreases to  $-214.3$  between model class  $M_7 - M_8$ . It becomes evident that the most probable number of soil layers is 6. Subsequently, the most probable soil classification types are calculated for this model class leading to the following stratigraphy: (1) clay from  $2.3 - 7 m$ , (2) sand from  $7 - 14 m$ , (3) clay from  $14 - 15 m$ , (4) sand from  $15 - 20 m$ , (5) clay from  $20 - 24.5 m$  and (6) sand mixtures from  $24.5 - 25 m$ .

**Table 4.2:** results of the Bayesian class selection

Model Class $M_N$	$\ln[P(\xi M_N)]$	Most probable thickness, $h_N^*$ (m)								
		$h_1^*$	$h_2^*$	$h_3^*$	$h_4^*$	$h_5^*$	$h_6^*$	$h_7^*$	$h_8^*$	$h_9^*$
$M_1$	-470.9	23.08	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
$M_2$	-349.8	5.06	18.02	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
$M_3$	-241.9	5.06	12.9	5.12	-	-	-	-	-	-
$M_4$	-245.2	5.06	7.9	5.0	5.12	-	-	-	-	-
$M_5$	-211.5	5.05	6.77	1.21	4.92	5.14	-	-	-	-
$M_6$	-208.8	5.14	6.61	1.19	5.05	4.17	0.92	-	-	-
$M_7$	-210.8	5.0	6.91	1.11	0.66	4.25	4.04	1.1	-	-
$M_8$	-211.2	5.06	6.86	1.0	0.83	4.06	0.21	4.18	0.89	-
$M_9$	-214.3	5.09	6.45	0.64	0.75	0.84	0.93	3.32	4.09	0.97



**Figure 4.2:** soil types for the most probable number of soil layers and soil

## 4.3 Discussion

Figure 4.3 summarizes the results of the Bayesian approach and compares it to nearby available borehole data and the deterministic analysis. The comparison between the original CPT data and Generalized CPT data is also included (see 3.2.3 Generalize matrix). This comparison indicates that although the total number of datapoints is reduced, no critical information is lost. Note, that the results are acquired by setting the minimal thickness to  $0.1 m$ . As the generalization is directly related to this value, adopting a higher minimal thickness might result in the loss of critical information.

### 4.3.1 Comparison with deterministic approach

The study results are generally in good agreement with those acquired from the deterministic analysis (Fig. 43). The general trend of the soil layers based on the deterministic analysis are well captured by the model, separating the sand layers from the clay and/or peat layers. At ca.  $12 m$  depth, however, the model indicates the presence of clay, whereas the deterministic analysis suggests a peat layer instead, also being slightly thinner ( $1.2 m$  compared to  $0.95 m$ ). One explanation for this difference is that the deterministic analysis is based on engineering judgement. The judgement for this layer is heavily influenced by the ‘spike’ of the CPT profile. Based on this ‘spike’ alone, this layer would be classified as peat. Considering the other measurements in that layer as well, however, which is done by the model, leads to a more considerate result, being a clay layer. In addition to this, it must be noted that there is also no consensus on the presence of a peat layer by the available borehole data around this depth. Around this depth, the soil type is marked as peat by *BH2* and as clay by *BH1*.

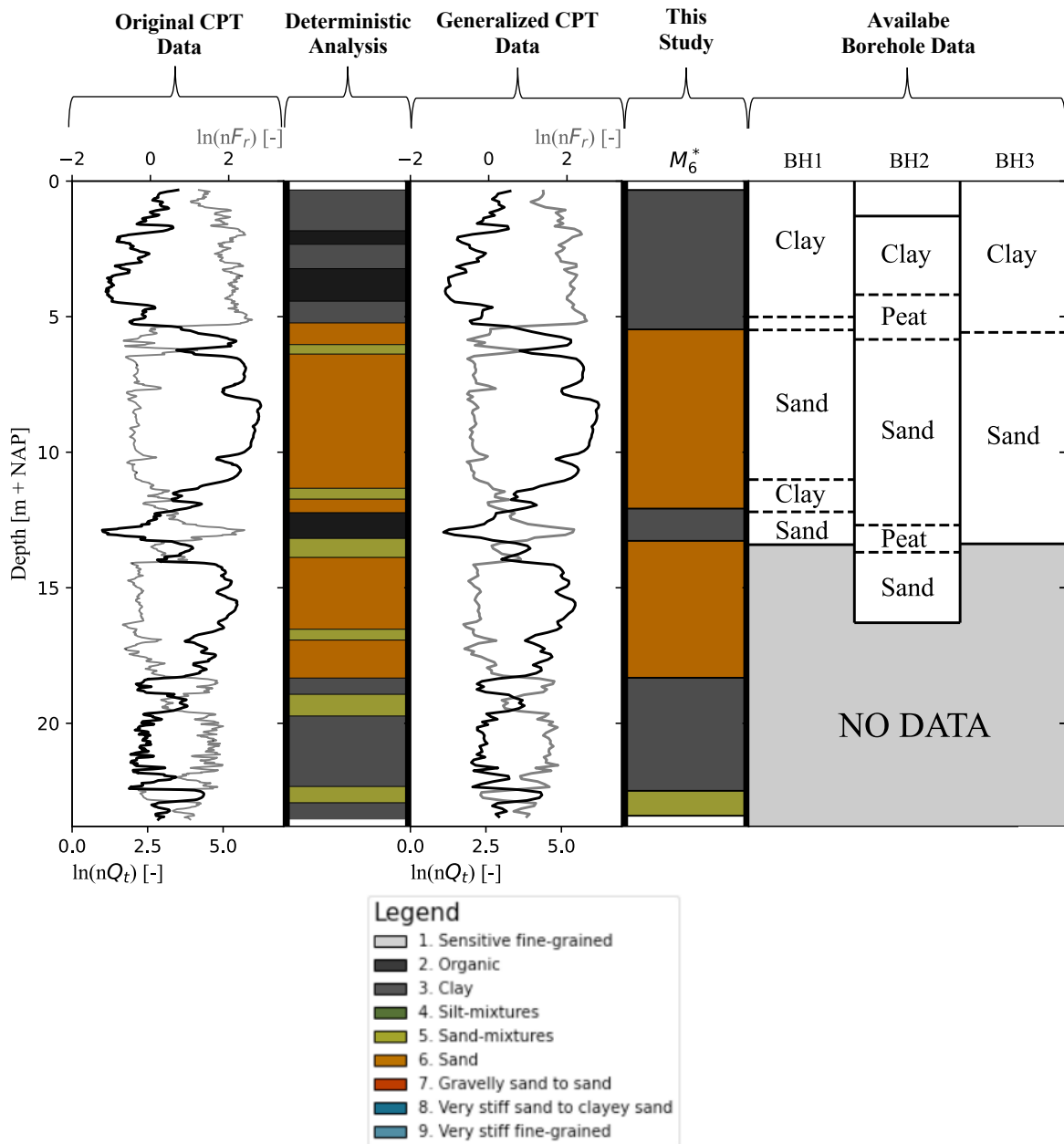
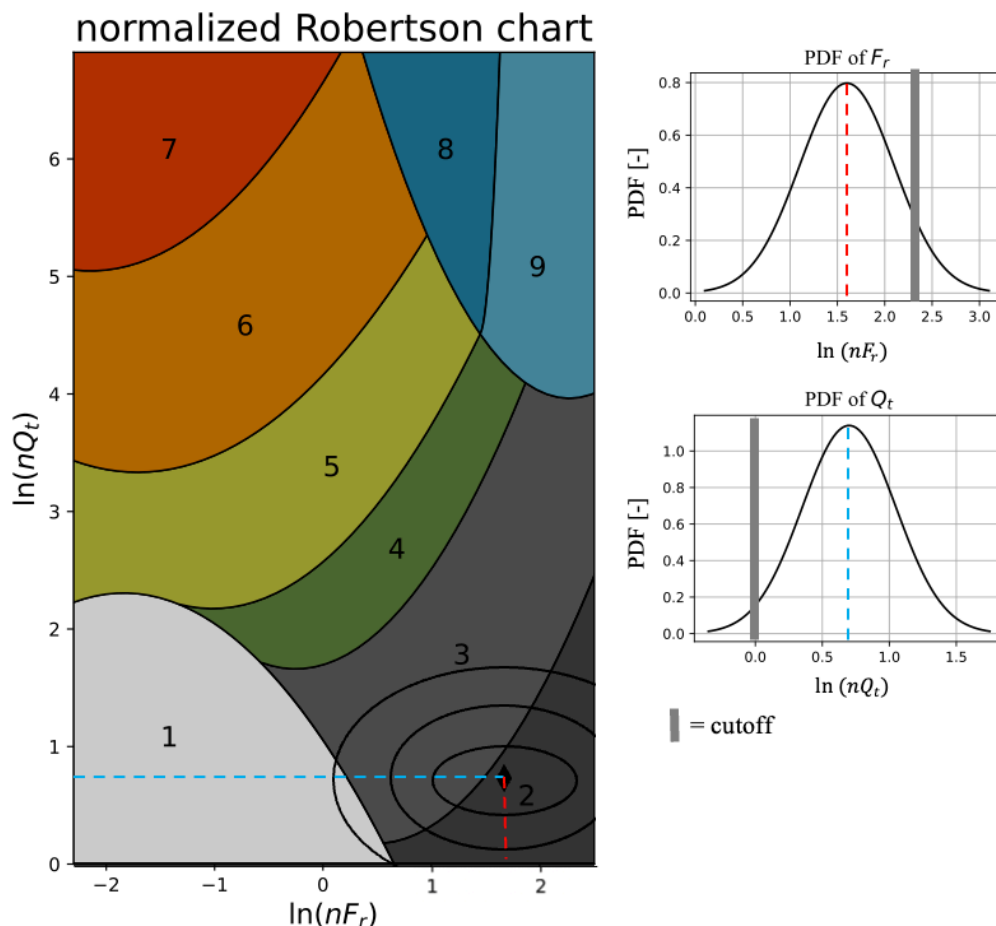


Figure 4.3: Model results and comparisons to other methods.

#### 4.3.1 Limitations

The model does not indicate the presence of a peat layer within the top 5 m of the soil profile, whereas this layer is clearly present based on the deterministic analysis.  $BH_1$  and  $BH_2$  also distinguish a peat layer overlying the sand layer around 5 m depth (Fig. 4.3). The absence of this layer following the model approach might be related to the relatively low numbers of soil layers that resulted from the model. However, for the higher model classes ( $M_7 - M_9$ ) this layer is also absent. This might be related to the problem posed in Figure 4.4, illustrating the example of a joint Gaussian distribution around a single datapoint, similar too Figure 2.2. However, rather than adopting a datapoint in the center of the Robertson chart, a measurement close to the edges of the Robertson chart is taken. The same Gaussian distribution as in Figure 2.2 then shows a “cut-off” at the edges of the Robertson chart, leading to a biased distribution. As a result of this cut-off, the chance of that datapoint belonging to soil type 3 increases compared to the change of it belonging to soil type 2. The effect of this cut-off is not implemented in the current model, possibly explaining the absence

of peat layers in the model results. This problem is not mentioned by Wang et al. (2013), suggesting that they (1) implemented a simple solution that did not need explanation or (2) did not take this problem into account. It must be noted, however, that the deterministic analysis of CPT profile analyzed by Wang et al. (2013) does not distinguish peat layers. Therefore, it is also likely that Wang et al. (2013) did not face this problem at all, thus not requiring a solution to this problem. However, the results following from case study conducted here suggest that this “cut-off” might affect the results, mainly for CPT measurements that fall within the vicinity of the edges of the Robertson chart. A subsequent study on the impact of this cut-off and its solutions is therefore suggested. A simple solution would be to account the datapoints (for the Monte Carlo analysis in 3.3 Detailed code description: Calculate probability per datapoint) that fall outside the Robertson chart to the nearest soil type. This introduces the assumption that large  $\ln(nF_r)$  and  $\ln(nQ_t)$  values have an equal chance of occurrence compared to low values of  $\ln(nF_r)$  and  $\ln(nQ_t)$ . This, of course, does not hold as the Robertson chart is based empirical data, excluding measurement values that are unlikely to be found (e.g.  $\ln(nF_r)$  values  $> 2.5$ ). A different solution could be to alter the statistical parameters ( $\sigma_{F_r}$  and  $\sigma_{Q_t}$ ) of the joint Gaussian curve depending on the position of the datapoint within the Robertson chart. This, however, introduces several complications including the effect of boundary conditions and the prior distribution ( $P(\underline{Q}_N|N)$ , Eq. [5]) no longer being uniform for every layer. Lastly, a solution is proposed to base the statistical parameters ( $\sigma_{F_r}$  and  $\sigma_{Q_t}$ ) on the non-logarithmic values for  $nF_r$  and  $nQ_t$ , resulting in an asymmetric shape on the joint Gaussian distribution on the logarithmic Robertson chart. This, however, requires an evaluation of the parameters values of  $\sigma_{F_r}$  and  $\sigma_{Q_t}$  that will lead to the most-optimal results.



**Figure 4.4:** Illustrative example of the proposed problem when calculating the probability per datapoint. The Gaussian distribution is cut off at the edges of the Robertson Chart.

### 4.3.2 Optimization

Running the code can be quite time consuming, depending on the number of model classes used within the simulation and the number of soil layers considered. Chapter 3.4.3 Optimizing proposes an optimizing module to increase the model efficiency and accuracy specifically for high model classes. Without this optimizing module, to obtain similar results, the computation time was found to be in the order of 15 hours. Including this module significantly enhanced the processes, lowering this computation time to roughly 2 hours<sup>1</sup>.

As described, the input for the optimizing function is a list of the most optimal ‘initial guesses’ based a Monte Carlo analysis in which soil layer thickness configurations are randomly generated. However, the current version of the code does not include a revised selection of these optimal initial guesses. The code only selects the  $X$  most optimal initial guesses without taking similarities into account. This means that optimizing for multiple initial guesses with large (or even identical) similarities is possible. For example, table 4.2 shows the 20 most optimal configurations (=initial guesses) for model class 7 based on 400.000 randomly generated soil layer thickness configurations. At the top of the table, several soil layer thickness configurations are grouped together based on their similarities. By obtaining similar initial guesses, the total number of initial guesses is effectively reduced; in this case, the model optimizes for 16 different soil thickness configurations, rather than 20. This, of course, affects the model accuracy as the input variable ‘no\_guesses’ (3.1.1 Input parameters) is an ‘apparent’ quantity. Future studies should therefore consider if a 20% loss is acceptable or not. If not, one could either (1) increase the value for ‘no\_guesses’ to account for the loss in accuracy or (2) implement an additional module to ensure that no similarities between initial guesses are allowed.

Although the implemented optimizing module leads to great improvements regarding efficiency, additional optimization is needed to further improve the model. For example:

- Depend the number of optimal configurations (= initial guesses) on the number of soil layers for a model class; e.g. increase `no_guesses` for higher model classes to allow for a wider range of initial guesses.
- If the user has previous knowledge on the area regarding the number of soil layers, the model could be improved by specifying a minimal number of soil layers to consider. By doing this, the model efficiency increases as irrelevant model classes are disregarded.
- The `scipy.optimize` package has a wide range of possibilities to optimize the solver (e.g. specify tolerance levels, step sizes, etc.). A study on the sensitivity and computing performance related to these parameters could lead to significant improvements.

*Table 4.2: 20 most optimal initial guesses for model class 7. Several configurations are grouped together based on their similarities.*

‘initial guess’	$h_1$	$h_2$	$h_3$	$h_4$	$h_5$	$h_6$	$h_7$
1	5.063	4.9	1.8	1.3	5	4	1.017
2	5.063	4.6	2.2	1.4	4.7	4.2	0.917
3	4.963	0.9	5.9	1.2	5.1	4	1.017
4	5.063	1.1	5.7	1.3	4.7	4.1	1.117
5	5.063	3.4	3.4	1.2	4.8	4.1	1.117
6	4.963	3.2	3.6	1.2	5	4.3	0.817
7	5.163	5.8	1	1.1	0.5	4.3	5.217
8	5.163	6.1	1	0.8	0.8	4.1	5.117
9	4.963	7	1	0.6	4.4	3.7	1.417
10	4.963	6.8	2	4.3	4	0.5	0.517
11	5.063	6.6	1.3	1.8	3.2	4.1	1.017
12	1.563	3.5	6.6	1.5	4.7	4.2	1.017
13	5.063	5.9	1	1	4.8	0.2	5.117
14	5.063	6.8	1.3	2.9	1.8	4.2	1.017
15	5.063	6.1	0.7	1.1	4.9	4.3	0.917
16	4.663	0.3	6.9	1.1	4.9	4.2	1.017
17	4.463	0.6	6.7	1.3	5	4	1.017
18	5.063	5.9	1.1	1	4.9	1.8	3.317
19	5.063	6.7	0.6	0.7	4.8	4.3	0.917
20	4.963	0.2	5.9	1.2	0.7	5	5.117

<sup>1</sup>On a Mac Mini (M1) with 8 gb ram.

## Chapter 5 – Conclusion

The Bayesian approach proposed by Wang et al. (2013) to interpret CPT soil profiles taking the underlying uncertainty of the data measurements into account, is implemented into the Python coding environment. First, the code defines a set of model classes for a given CPT profile, each model class increasing in complexity; that is, the total number of soil layers considered. Secondly, for each model class, the most probable soil layer thicknesses are determined after which all model classes are compared to obtain the most probable number of soil layers. This results in a CPT profile interpretation in which the most-likely soil layers (soil type, thickness and position) are distinguished. The results following from a case study on a 23 m CPT profile are promising. For the given CPT profile, the model identifies 6 soil layers which agree with the results following the deterministic approach and observational data from nearby located boreholes. However, the soil types of CPT measurements within the vicinity of the edges of the Robertson chart are incorrectly identified as a result of a “cut-off”-effect of the joint Gaussian distribution describing the uncertainty of a single datapoint. This is most likely related to the integration of the statistical parameters within the model, which should be examined in a subsequent study.

Additionally, a simple optimization module is integrated within the model to improve the efficiency for higher model classes. However, this module still holds several simplifications (e.g. allowing multiple ‘initial guesses’ to be similar leading to an ‘apparent’ accuracy) as well as being insufficient for higher model classes. It is therefore suggested to implement additional optimization modules that allow for more accurate results for higher model classes while maintaining reasonable computation times.

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## Appendices: Python code

### Appendix A: Main.py

```

1. import pandas as pd
2. import numpy as np
3. import robertson as Frob
4. import read_cpt as Fread
5. import posterior as Fpost
6. import os
7. import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
8.
9. """
10. #####
11. #-----1. Input-----#
12. #####
13. """
14.
15. params = {
16.     "cpt":          "CPT00000097976_IMBRO_A.gef",    #cpt gef file
17.     "N min":        1,                               #minimum soil layers to consider
18.     "N max":        9,                               #maximum soil layers to consider
19.     "min thickness": 0.1,                             #minimum layer thickness
20.     "std Fr":       1,                               #standard deviation of friction ratio
21.     "std Qt":       1.2,                             #standard deviation of cone resistance
22.     "Table number": 1,
23.     "implement constraints": "no",                   #if desired to use constraints: "yes".
24.     "boundary constraint": np.array([[6,9,2],        #specify constraints
25.                                     [19.5,20.2,3],
26.                                     [15,16,4]]),
27.     "probability iterations": 200000, #number of iterations for probability per datapoint
28.     "threshold model class": 4,           #largest model class that does not need optimization
29.     "no. guesses": 20, #number of initial guesses used for optimization per model class
30.     "guesses iterations": 400000 #number of iterations of which no. guesses are stored
31. }
32.
33. """
34. #####
35. #-----2a. read cpt-----#
36. #-----2b. generalize cpt-----#
37. #####
38. """
39. #2a.
40. matrix = Fread.read_cpt(params) #read cpt file and store in matrix
41. Fread.plot_boundary_constraints(matrix,params) #plot figure with boundary constraints
42.
43. #2b.
44. matrix_generalized = Fread.generalize(matrix,params) #generalize matrix
45.
46. Frob.plot_Robertson(matrix_generalized) #plot generalized data on Robertson chart
47. print("Obtain matrix: SUCCES")
48.
49. """
50. #####
51. #-----3 get probability per data point-----#
52. #####
53. """
54.
55. Polygons = Frob.plot_Robertson(matrix_generalized) #get polygons from robertson chart
56.
57. #check if the file with probability per datapoint exists, if not: make one
58. if os.path.isfile('prob_generalized2.csv') == False:
59.     #get probability per measurement
60.     matrix_generalized = Frob.MC_probability(matrix_generalized,Polygons,params)
61.     np.savetxt('prob_generalized2.csv', matrix_generalized,delimiter=";",
62.                header='depth;nQt;nFr;P_1;P_2;P_3;P_4;P_5;P_6;P_7;P_8;P_9')
63.

```

```
64. if os.path.isfile('prob_generalized2.csv') == True:
65.     matrix_generalized = np.array(pd.read_csv('prob_generalized2.csv', sep=';'))
66.
67. print("get probability per datapoint: SUCCES")
68.
69. """
70. #####
71. #-----4. calculate most probable N and layer thicknesses-----#
72. #####
73. """
74. #calculate likelihood function and conditional probability per model class
75. final_result,summary= Fpost.calculator(matrix_generalized,params)
76.
77. """
78. #####
79. #-----5. plot results-----#
80. #####
81. """
82. Fread.plot_summary(matrix,summary,final_result,params)
83.
```

## Appendix B: Read `cpt.py`

```

1. import numpy as np
2. import pandas as pd
3. import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
4. import math
5.
6. def find_columns(cpt):
7.     """
8.     Function to read gef file and find which columns contain what values
9.     """
10.    data = open(cpt,'r')
11.
12.    for row in data:
13.        if row[0]=='#':
14.            if row[-11:-1] == 'diepte, 11':
15.                lengthcol = int(row[13])-1
16.            elif row[-18:-1] == 'conusweerstand, 2':
17.                conuscol = int(row[13])-1
18.            elif row[-25:-1] == 'plaatselijke wrijving, 3':
19.                sleevecol = int(row[13])-1
20.            elif row[-20:-1] == 'waterspanning u2, 6':
21.                u2col = int(row[13])-1
22.        else:
23.            break
24.    columns = [lengthcol, conuscol, sleevecol, u2col]
25.    columns = np.sort(columns)
26.    return columns
27.
28.
29. def read_cpt(params):
30.     """
31.     Function to read cpt data and store them in a matrix
32.     """
33.
34.     cpt = params["cpt"]
35.     no_of_columns = 12 #if more columns are included, add those here
36.     #0 = length
37.     #1 = conus
38.     #2 = sleeve
39.     #3 = u2
40.     #4 = fr
41.     #5 = I_sbt
42.     #6 = volumetric weigth soil
43.     #7 = total vertical stress
44.     #8 = effective vertical stress assuming ps is at z=0
45.     #9 = normalized cone stress
46.     #10 = normalized friction ratio
47.     #11 = corrected cone resistance
48.
49.     """ Error values """
50.     lengtherror = 999.999
51.     conuserror = 999.999
52.     sleeveerror = 9.999
53.     u2error = 99.999
54.
55.     pa = 0.1          #atmospheric pressure
56.     yw = 10          #unit weight of water
57.     alpha = 0.8      #coefficient to correct for pore pressures
58.
59.     """ read columns from gef file """
60.     columns = find_columns(cpt) #read the columns from gef file
61.     df = pd.read_csv(cpt, header=None, delimiter=';', comment='#', usecols=columns)
62.     matrix = np.zeros((len(df),no_of_columns)) #create matrix in which data is stored
63.
64.     #0: depth
65.     matrix[:,0] = np.array(df.iloc[:,1])
66.

```

```

67.     #1: conus resistance
68.     matrix[:,1] = np.array(df.iloc[:,0])
69.
70.     #2: sleeve friction
71.     matrix[:,2] = np.array(df.iloc[:,2])
72.
73.     #3: u2
74.     matrix[:,3] = (matrix[:,0] * 0.01) - 0.5*0.01
75.     matrix[:,3] = matrix[:,3]*(matrix[:,3]>0)
76.
77.     #check if first value has error and if so, give it the closest 'real' value
78.     if matrix[0,0] == lengtherror:
79.         matrix[0,0]=matrix[np.where(matrix[:,0]!=lengtherror)[0][0],0]
80.     if matrix[0,1] == conusererror:
81.         matrix[0,1]=matrix[np.where(matrix[:,1]!=conusererror)[0][0],1]
82.     if matrix[0,2] == sleeveerror:
83.         matrix[0,2]=matrix[np.where(matrix[:,2]!=sleeveerror)[0][0],2]
84.     if matrix[0,3] == u2error:
85.         matrix[0,3]=matrix[np.where(matrix[:,3]!=u2error)[0][0],3]
86.
87.     #if errorvalue is found, change it to the value above
88.     for point in range(len(matrix)):
89.         if matrix[point,0] == lengtherror:
90.             matrix[point,0] = matrix[point-1,0]
91.         if matrix[point,1] == conusererror:
92.             matrix[point,1] = matrix[point-1,1]
93.         if matrix[point,2] == sleeveerror:
94.             matrix[point,2] = matrix[point-1,2]
95.         if matrix[point,3] == u2error:
96.             matrix[point,3] = matrix[point-1,3]
97.
98.     """ calculate other columns """
99.
100.    #11: corrected cone resistance
101.    matrix[:,11] = matrix[:,1]
102.
103.    #4: fr
104.    matrix[:,4]= (matrix[:,2]/matrix[:,11])*100
105.
106.    #5: Isbt
107.    matrix[:,5] = ((3.47-np.log10(matrix[:,11]/pa))**2)
108.
109.    #6: volumetric soil weight kN/m3 (Robertson, 1990)
110.    matrix[:,6] = (yw*(0.27*np.log10(matrix[:,4])+
111.        0.36*np.log10(matrix[:,11]/pa)+1.236))
112.
113.    for ii in range(len(matrix)):
114.        if matrix[ii,6] == np.inf or matrix[ii,6] == -np.inf:
115.            matrix[ii,6] = matrix[ii-1,6]
116.
117.    #7: total vertical stress
118.    matrix[0,7] = matrix[0,6]*matrix[0,0]/1000
119.
120.    for ii in range(len(matrix)-1):
121.        matrix[ii+1,7] = matrix[ii,7]+(((matrix[ii+1,0]-
122.            matrix[ii,0])*matrix[ii+1,6])/1000)
123.
124.        if math.isnan(matrix[ii+1,7])==True:
125.            matrix[ii+1,7] = matrix[ii,7]
126.
127.    #8: effective vertical stress
128.    matrix[:,8] = matrix[:,7]-matrix[:,3]
129.
130.    #9: normalized cone resistance
131.    matrix[:,9] = (matrix[:,11]-matrix[:,7])/matrix[:,8]
132.
133.    #10: normalized friction ratio
134.    matrix[:,10] = matrix[:,2]/(matrix[:,11]-matrix[:,7])*100
135.
136.    return matrix

```

## “Probabilistic identification of soil stratigraphy using CPT data”

```
137.
138.
139. def generalize(matrix, params):
140.     """
141.     Function to generalized the cpt matrix by a ratio based on the min_thickness.
142.     e.g. if min_thickness = 0.02 (= the general spacing between 2 cpt measurements), no
143.     generalization will be done
144.     e.g. if min_thickness = 0.1, every 5 points (=0.1/0.02) an average value will be
145.     taken for nQt and nFr.
146.     in addition 9 new (empty) columns are added in which the probability of MC are be
147.     stored.
148.     """
149.
150.     min_thickness = params["min thickness"]
151.     no_of_columns = 12
152.     #0 = depth generalized
153.     #1 = log of nQt generalized
154.     #2 = log of nFr generalized
155.     #3-11 = for probabilities; for now empty
156.
157.     generalize_ratio = min_thickness/0.02
158.     length_generalized = math.floor(round(len(matrix)/generalize_ratio,1)) #new length
159.     matrix_generalized = np.zeros((length_generalized,no_of_columns)) #Create matrix
160.
161.     #0 = depth generalized
162.     matrix_generalized[:,0]= np.mean(matrix[0:int(length_generalized*
163.         generalize_ratio),0].reshape(-
164.         1,int(generalize_ratio)),axis=1)
165.
166.     #1 = log of nQt generalized
167.     matrix_generalized[:,1]= np.log(np.mean(matrix[0:int(length_generalized*
168.         generalize_ratio),9].reshape(-
169.         1,int(generalize_ratio)),axis=1))
170.
171.     #2 = log of nFr generalized
172.     matrix_generalized[:,2] = np.log(np.mean(matrix[0:int(length_generalized*
173.         generalize_ratio),10].reshape(-
174.         1,int(generalize_ratio)),axis=1))
175.
176.     return matrix_generalized
177.
178. def plot_boundary_constraints(matrix,params):
179.     """
180.     Function that plots normalized data and boundary constraints. Function also checks
181.     if boundary conditions are valid
182.     """
183.     Tfont ={'fontname':'Times New Roman'}
184.
185.     if params["implement constraints"] == "yes":
186.
187.         boundary_constraint = params["boundary constraint"]
188.
189.     if params ["implement constraints"] == "no":
190.         boundary_constraint=[]
191.
192.     N_max = params["N max"]
193.
194.     #check if boundary constraints are valid
195.     if len(boundary_constraint) >0:
196.         if max(boundary_constraint[:, -1]) >=N_max:
197.             raise ValueError("constraint given for boundary that exceeds N_max")
198.
199.         for ii in range(1,N_max):
200.             if np.count_nonzero(boundary_constraint == ii) >ii:
201.                 raise ValueError("too many boundary constraints given for N=",ii)
202.
203.     fig, (ax1,ax2) = plt.subplots(1,2)
204.     fig.suptitle('normalized CPT data - constraints',**Tfont, fontsize=15)
205.     ax1.plot(np.log(matrix[:,9]),matrix[:,0], color='k')
206.     ax1.set_xlabel(r'ln(n$Q_t$) [-]', **Tfont, fontsize=13)
```

```

207.     ax1.set_ylabel('depth [m]', **Tfont, fontsize=13)
208.     ax1.set_xlim(0,1.5*max(np.log(matrix[:,9])))
209.     ax1.set_ylim(0,matrix[-1,0]+1)
210.
211.     ax1.invert_yaxis()
212.     ax1.set_xlim(0,max(np.log(matrix[:,9])+2))
213.     ax2.plot(np.log(matrix[:,10]),matrix[:,0],color='k')
214.     ax2.set_ylim(0,matrix[-1,0]+1)
215.     ax2.set_xlabel(r'\ln(n$F_r$) [-]', **Tfont, fontsize=13)
216.     ax2.invert_yaxis()
217.     ax2.set_xlim(min(np.log(matrix[:,10])-2),max(np.log(matrix[:,10])+2))
218.     for ii in range(len(boundary_constraint)):
219.         ax1.fill_between(np.arange(0,12),boundary_constraint[ii,1],
220.             boundary_constraint[ii,0], edgecolor='red', facecolor='red',alpha=1-
221.             boundary_constraint[ii,2]/N_max)
222.         ax2.fill_between(np.arange(-10,10),boundary_constraint[ii,1],
223.             boundary_constraint[ii,0], edgecolor='red', facecolor='red',alpha=1-
224.             boundary_constraint[ii,2]/N_max)
225.
226.     plt.savefig('constraints.pdf')
227.     plt.show()
228.
229. def collor_fill(layer_type):
230.     if layer_type == 1:
231.         collor_matrix = [0,0,0,0.2]
232.     if layer_type ==2:
233.         collor_matrix = [0,0,0,0.8]
234.     if layer_type ==3:
235.         collor_matrix = [0,0,0,0.7]
236.     if layer_type == 4:
237.         collor_matrix = [0.3,0.4,0.2,1]
238.     if layer_type == 5:
239.         collor_matrix = [0.6,0.6,0.2,1]
240.     if layer_type == 6:
241.         collor_matrix = [0.7,0.4,0,1]
242.     if layer_type == 7:
243.         collor_matrix = [0.7,0.2,0,1]
244.     if layer_type == 8:
245.         collor_matrix = [0.1,0.4,0.5,1]
246.     if layer_type == 9:
247.         collor_matrix = [0.1,0.4,0.5,0.8]
248.     return collor_matrix
249.
250.
251. def plot_summary(matrix,summary,final_result,params):
252.     """ function plotting the results of the approach """
253.     Tfont ={'fontname':'Times New Roman'}
254.
255.     #plot every model class!
256.
257.     fig, (ax1,ax2) = plt.subplots(1,2)
258.     fig.suptitle('normalized CPT data', **Tfont, fontsize=20)
259.
260.     #initial settings
261.
262.     ax2.plot(np.log(matrix[:,9]),matrix[:,0], color='k')
263.     ax2.set_xlabel(r'\ln(n$Q_t$)', fontsize=15)
264.     ax1.set_ylabel('depth [m]')
265.     ax2.set_xlim(0,1.5*max(np.log(matrix[:,9])))
266.     ax2.set_ylim(0,matrix[-1,0]+1)
267.     ax2.invert_yaxis()
268.     ax2.set_xlim(0,max(np.log(matrix[:,9])+2))
269.     start = matrix[0,0]
270.
271.     ax1.set_xlim(0,1)
272.     ax1.set_ylim(0,matrix[-1,0]+1)
273.     ax1.invert_yaxis()
274.     ax1.hlines(matrix[-1,0],0,1,color='k')
275.     ax1.hlines(start,0,1,color='k')
276.     ax1.set_xticks([])

```

## “Probabilistic identification of soil stratigraphy using CPT data”

```

277.
278.     for i in range(len(summary)):
279.         bounds = summary[i,1:i+2]
280.         ax1.vlines((1/len(summary))*i,start,matrix[-1,0],color='k')
281.         ax1.text((1/len(summary))*i+(1/len(summary))/2 -0.02,1.5,f'$M_{i+1}$',
282.                 fontsize=7.5, **Tfont)
283.         for j in range(len(bounds)):
284.             ax1.hlines(sum(bounds[:j])+matrix[0,0],(1/len(summary))*i,
285.                       (1/len(summary))*i+(1/len(summary)),color='k',linewidth=0.5)
286.
287.     for i in range(len(final_result)):
288.         collor_matrix = collor_fill(final_result[i,-1])
289.         if i == 0:
290.             ax2.fill_between(np.arange(0,10),start, start+final_result[0,0],
291.                             facecolor=collor_matrix)
292.         else:
293.             print(start+final_result[i-1,0], start+sum(final_result[:i+1,0]))
294.             ax2.fill_between(np.arange(0,10),start+sum(final_result[:i,0]),
295.                             start+sum(final_result[:i+1,0]), facecolor=collor_matrix)
296.
297.     plt.savefig('summary_depth.pdf')
298.     plt.show()
299.
300.     #plot table with most probable thicknesses
301.
302.     fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize = (10,5))
303.     #domain
304.     ax.set_xlim(0,4+len(summary)*0.8+0.8)
305.     ax.set_ylim(-0.2-0.12*len(summary),1)
306.     #lines
307.     ax.hlines(0,0,10,1.5, color='k',linewidth=1.5)
308.     ax.hlines(0.6,0,11.5, color='k',linewidth=1.5)
309.     ax.hlines(0.3,4,11.5, color='k', linewidth=1.5)
310.     #text
311.     ax.text(0.1,0.17,f'Model', **Tfont, fontsize=15)
312.     ax.text(0.1,0.07,f'Class $M_N$', **Tfont, fontsize=15)
313.     ax.text(1.7,0.07,r'\ln[P(\xi)$M_N$]', **Tfont, fontsize=15)
314.     ax.text(4,0.5,'Most probable',**Tfont, fontsize=15)
315.     ax.text(4,0.37,r'thickness, $h^*_N$ (m)', **Tfont, fontsize=15)
316.
317.     ax.axes.xaxis.set_visible(False)
318.     ax.axes.yaxis.set_visible(False)
319.
320.     for i in range(len(summary)):
321.         ax.text(4+0.8*i,0.07,f"$h^*_{i+1}$", **Tfont, fontsize=15)
322.         ax.text(0.1,-0.1-i*0.12,f"$M_{i+1}$", **Tfont, fontsize=15)
323.         ax.text(1.7,-0.1-i*0.12,f"{round(summary[i,-1],1)}", **Tfont, fontsize=15)
324.         for j in range(len(summary[i])-2):
325.             value = round(summary[i,j+1],2)
326.             if value != 0:
327.                 ax.text(4+j*0.8,-0.1-i*0.12,f'{value}', **Tfont, fontsize=15)
328.             else:
329.                 ax.text(4+j*0.8,-0.1-i*0.12,f' -', **Tfont, fontsize=15)
330.
331.     plt.savefig('summary_table.pdf')
332.

```



Appendix C: Robertson.py

```

1. from shapely import geometry as geom
2. import numpy as np
3. import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
4. import descartes as des
5. import random
6.
7. def plot_Robertson(matrix_generalized):
8.     """
9.     Get polygons
10.    """
11.    largest_nFr = max((matrix_generalized[:,2]))
12.    #intersection points
13.    A = [-2.3026,0]
14.    B = [0.6569,0]
15.    C = [-2.3026,2.2268]
16.    D = [2.3026,0]
17.    E = [2.3026,2.0234]
18.    F = [0.5589,0.1776]
19.    G = [2.3026,3.9639]
20.    H = [1.8687, 4.0953]
21.    J = [1.4505,4.5104]
22.    K = [-1.3334,2.2126]
23.    L = [0.9622,5.3534]
24.    M = [-2.3026,3.4335]
25.    N = [0.3655,6.9078]
26.    O = [0.1658,6.9078]
27.    P = [-2.3026,5.0557]
28.    Q = [-2.3026,6.9078]
29.    R = [2.3026, 6.9078]
30.    S = [1.6334,6.9078]
31.    T = [-0.5773,1.7179]
32.    #if Fr values lie outside of given coordinates, extrapolate chart.
33.    if largest_nFr>2.3026:
34.        D = [largest_nFr,0]
35.        E = [largest_nFr,0.5586*largest_nFr**2+-0.5399*largest_nFr+0.3049]
36.        G = [largest_nFr,0.8095*largest_nFr**2+-3.6795*largest_nFr+8.1444]
37.        R = [largest_nFr,6.9078]
38.    intersect = np.array([A,B,C,D,E,
39.                          F,G,H,J,K,
40.                          L,M,N,O,P,
41.                          Q,R,S,T])
42.
43.    #x-range of functions
44.    I_range =np.arange(C[0],B[0],0.1)
45.    I_range1 = np.arange(C[0],K[0],0.1)
46.    I_range2 = np.arange(K[0],T[0],0.1)
47.    I_range3 = np.arange(T[0],F[0],0.1)
48.    I_range4 = np.arange(F[0],B[0],0.1)
49.    II_range =np.arange(F[0],E[0],0.1)
50.    III_range =np.arange(T[0],H[0],0.1)
51.    IV_range =np.arange(K[0],J[0],0.1)
52.    V_range =np.arange(M[0],L[0],0.1)
53.    VI_range =np.arange(P[0],O[0],0.1)
54.    VII_range =np.arange(N[0],G[0],0.1)
55.    VII_range1 = np.arange(N[0],L[0],0.1)
56.    VII_range2 = np.arange(L[0],J[0],0.1)
57.    VII_range3 = np.arange(J[0],H[0],0.1)
58.    VII_range4 = np.arange(H[0],G[0],0.1)
59.    VIII_range =np.arange(J[0],S[0],0.01)
60.
61.    #y-values based on x-range
62.    I = -0.3707*I_range**2+-1.3625*I_range+1.0549
63.    I1 = -0.3707*I_range1**2+-1.3625*I_range1+1.0549
64.    I2 = -0.3707*I_range2**2+-1.3625*I_range2+1.0549
65.    I3 = -0.3707*I_range3**2+-1.3625*I_range3+1.0549
66.    I4 = -0.3707*I_range4**2+-1.3625*I_range4+1.0549

```

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```

67. II = 0.5586*II_range**2+-0.5399*II_range+0.3049
68. III = 0.5405*III_range**2+0.2739*III_range+1.6959
69. IV = 0.3833*IV_range**2+0.7805*IV_range+2.5718
70. V = 0.2827*V_range**2+0.967*V_range+4.1612
71. VI = 0.3477*VI_range**2+1.4933*VI_range+6.6507
72. VII = 0.8095*VII_range**2+-3.6795*VII_range+8.1444
73. VII1 = 0.8095*VII_range1**2+-3.6795*VII_range1+8.1444
74. VII2 = 0.8095*VII_range2**2+-3.6795*VII_range2+8.1444
75. VII3 = 0.8095*VII_range3**2+-3.6795*VII_range3+8.1444
76. VII4 = 0.8095*VII_range4**2+-3.6795*VII_range4+8.1444
77. VIII = 64.909*VIII_range**2+-187.07*VIII_range+139.2901
78.
79.
80. #make lists for polygons
81. #P1
82. P1_X=np.concatenate((I_range, [B[0],A[0]]))
83. P1_Y=np.concatenate((I,[B[1],A[1]]))
84. P1_mat = np.column_stack((P1_X,P1_Y))
85.
86. #P2
87. P2_X=np.concatenate((II_range,[E[0],D[0],B[0]],np.flip(I_range4)))
88. P2_Y=np.concatenate((II,[E[1],D[1],B[1]],np.flip(I4)))
89. P2_mat = np.column_stack((P2_X,P2_Y))
90.
91. #P3
92. P3_X = np.concatenate((III_range,VII_range4,[G[0],E[0]],
93.                        np.flip(II_range),np.flip(I_range3[1:])))
94. P3_Y = np.concatenate((III,VII4,[G[1],E[1]],
95.                        np.flip(II),np.flip(I3[1:])))
96. P3_mat = np.column_stack((P3_X,P3_Y))
97.
98. #P4
99. P4_X = np.concatenate((IV_range,VII_range3,[H[0]],
100.                      np.flip(III_range),[T[0]],np.flip(I_range2)))
101. P4_Y = np.concatenate((IV,VII3,[H[1]],np.flip(III),[T[1]],np.flip(I2)))
102. P4_mat = np.column_stack((P4_X,P4_Y))
103.
104. #P5
105. P5_X = np.concatenate((V_range,VII_range2,[J[0]],
106.                      np.flip(IV_range),[K[0]],np.flip(I_range1)))
107. P5_Y = np.concatenate((V,VII2,[J[1]],np.flip(IV),[K[1]],np.flip(I1)))
108. P5_mat = np.column_stack((P5_X,P5_Y))
109.
110. #P6
111. P6_X = np.concatenate((VI_range,[O[0]],VII_range1,[L[0]],np.flip(V_range)))
112. P6_Y = np.concatenate((VI,[O[1]],VII1,[L[1]],np.flip(V)))
113. P6_mat = np.column_stack((P6_X,P6_Y))
114.
115. #P7
116. P7_X = np.concatenate((Q[0],O[0]),np.flip(VI_range))
117. P7_Y = np.concatenate((Q[1],O[1]),np.flip(VI))
118. P7_mat = np.column_stack((P7_X,P7_Y))
119.
120. #P8
121. P8_X = np.concatenate((S[0]),np.flip(VIII_range),
122.                      np.flip(VII_range2),np.flip(VII_range1))
123. P8_Y = np.concatenate((S[1]),np.flip(VIII),np.flip(VII2),np.flip(VII1))
124. P8_mat = np.column_stack((P8_X,P8_Y))
125.
126. #P9
127. P9_X = np.concatenate((S[0],R[0],G[0]),np.flip(VII_range4),
128.                      np.flip(VII_range3),VIII_range[1:])
129. P9_Y = np.concatenate((S[1],R[1],G[1]),np.flip(VII4),np.flip(VII3),VIII[1:])
130. P9_mat = np.column_stack((P9_X,P9_Y))
131.
132. """
133. Plot Polygons
134. """
135. fig = plt.figure(figsize=(5,8))
136. ax = fig.add_subplot(111)

```

```

137.
138. #add polygons to plot
139. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P1_mat),
140.     facecolor=[0,0,0,0.2], label='1. Sensitive fine-grained'))
141. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P2_mat),
142.     facecolor=[0,0,0,0.8], label='2. Organic'))
143. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P3_mat),
144.     facecolor=[0,0,0,0.7], label='3. Clay'))
145. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P4_mat),
146.     facecolor=[0.3,0.4,0.2,1], label='4. Silt-mixtures'))
147. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P5_mat),
148.     facecolor=[0.6,0.6,0.2,1], label='5. Sand-mixtures'))
149. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P6_mat),
150.     facecolor=[0.7,0.4,0,1], label='6. Sand'))
151. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P7_mat),
152.     facecolor=[0.7,0.2,0,1], label='7. Gravelly sand to sand'))
153. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P8_mat),
154.     facecolor=[0.1,0.4,0.5,1], label='8. Very stiff sand to clayey sand'))
155. ax.add_patch(des.PolygonPatch(geom.Polygon(P9_mat),
156.     facecolor=[0.1,0.4,0.5,0.8], label='9. Very stiff fine-grained'))
157.
158. #plot specifics
159. ax.set_xlim(A[0],D[0])
160. ax.set_ylim(A[1],Q[1])
161. #ax.set_xlim(-2.3026,2.3026)
162. leg = ax.legend(bbox_to_anchor=(1.01,1),title='Legend', title_fontsize=15)
163. leg.legend_box.align = "left"
164. ax.text(-1.5,1,'1',fontsize=15)
165. ax.text(1.8,0.5,'2',fontsize=15)
166. ax.text(1.2,1.7,'3',fontsize=15)
167. ax.text(0.6,2.6,'4',fontsize=15)
168. ax.text(0,3.3,'5',fontsize=15)
169. ax.text(-0.8,4.5,'6',fontsize=15)
170. ax.text(-1.5,6,'7',fontsize=15)
171. ax.text(1.05,6,'8',fontsize=15)
172. ax.text(1.9,5,'9',fontsize=15)
173. ax.set_title('normalized Robertson chart', fontsize=20)
174. ax.set_xlabel(r'ln$(nF_r)$', fontsize=15)
175. ax.set_ylabel(r'ln$(nQ_t)$', fontsize=15)
176.
177. Polygons = np.array([geom.Polygon(P1_mat),geom.Polygon(P2_mat),geom.Polygon(P3_mat),
178.     geom.Polygon(P4_mat),geom.Polygon(P5_mat),geom.Polygon(P6_mat),
179.     geom.Polygon(P7_mat),geom.Polygon(P8_mat),
180.     geom.Polygon(P9_mat)])
181.
182. ax.plot(matrix_generalized[:,2], matrix_generalized[:,1],
183.     marker='o',ls='',color='k',markersize=2)
184. return Polygons
185.
186. def MC_probability(matrix_generalized, Polygons, params):
187.     """function that approximates joint gaussian distribution via a monte carlo
188.     analysis and calculates the probabilities for each datapoint
189.     """
190.
191.     std_Fr = params["std Fr"]
192.     std_Qt = params["std Qt"]
193.     iterations = params["probability iterations"]
194.     for jj in range(len(matrix_generalized)):
195.         data = (matrix_generalized[jj,2],matrix_generalized[jj,1])
196.
197.         std_Fr = 1
198.         std_Qt = 1.2
199.         print(jj)
200.         count = np.array([0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0])
201.         for ii in range(0,iterations):
202.
203.             Fr =random.gauss(data[0],std_Fr)
204.             Qt =random.gauss(data[1],std_Qt)
205.             point = geom.Point(Fr,Qt)
206.             if point.within(Polygons[0]) == True:

```

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```
207.         count[0] += 1
208.         if point.within(Polygons[1]) == True:
209.             count[1] += 1
210.         if point.within(Polygons[2]) == True:
211.             count[2] += 1
212.         if point.within(Polygons[3]) == True:
213.             count[3] += 1
214.         if point.within(Polygons[4]) == True:
215.             count[4] += 1
216.         if point.within(Polygons[5]) == True:
217.             count[5] += 1
218.         if point.within(Polygons[6]) == True:
219.             count[6] += 1
220.         if point.within(Polygons[7]) == True:
221.             count[7] += 1
222.         if point.within(Polygons[8]) == True:
223.             count[8] += 1
224.         matrix_generalized[jj,3:] = count/np.sum(count)
225.
226.     return matrix_generalized
227.
```

## Appendix D: Posterior.py

```

1. import numpy as np
2. import random
3. import scipy.optimize as optimize
4. import math
5. import warnings
6.
7. #a warning is raised when -inf values are found. The code uses a workaround. For clarity,
8. #this warning is excluded
9. warnings.filterwarnings("ignore", category=RuntimeWarning)
10.
11. def find_nearest(array,value):
12.     """
13.     function to calculate index in array closest to the value given
14.     """
15.     idx=[]
16.     for ii in value:
17.         idx.append(np.abs(array-ii).argmin())
18.     return idx
19.
20.
21. def thickness_to_boundaries(thickness,matrix_generalized):
22.     """
23.     Function to get the indices of the boundaries (convert array with thicknesses
24.     information to array with depth (boundary) information)
25.     """
26.     boundaries = np.zeros(len(thickness)+1)
27.
28.     boundaries[0] = matrix_generalized[0,0] #first boundary = top of soil profile
29.     for ii in range(len(boundaries)-1):
30.         boundaries[ii+1] = matrix_generalized[0,0] + sum(thickness[:ii+1])
31.
32.     """ 2.1 get indices in data matrix"""
33.     soil_boundaries = np.arange(0,len(thickness)+1)
34.     indices = find_nearest(matrix_generalized[:,0],boundaries[soil_boundaries])
35.     indices=np.array(indices) #index positions of boundaries in data matrix.
36.
37.     return indices
38.
39. def Eqs_Wang(matrix_generalized,indices):
40.     """
41.     function that follows Eq. 2 and 1 given by Wang et al. (2013). calculates, for each
42.     layer, the chance that that layer belongs fully to 1 single soil type
43.     """
44.     P_ST_J=np.zeros((len(indices)-1,9)) #matrix with results following eq. 2
45.     P_eps_n=np.zeros(len(indices)-1). #matrix with results following from eq. 1
46.
47.     """ 2.2 eq. 2 & 1 Wang et al. (2013) """
48.
49.     #the subdivision between upper and lower bound has no coding benefit other than being
50.     #more clear to the reader.
51.     upper_bound = indices[0:-1] #upper bounds of soil layers
52.     lower_bound = indices[1:] #lower bounds of soil layers
53.
54.     for nn in range(0,len(indices)-1): #iterates for each soil layer in the model class
55.         #for soil type 1, Eq. 2
56.         P_ST_J[nn,0]= np.sum(
57.             np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],3]))
58.
59.         #for soil type 2, Eq. 2
60.         P_ST_J[nn,1]= np.sum(
61.             np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],4]))
62.
63.         #for soil type 3, Eq. 2
64.         P_ST_J[nn,2]= np.sum(
65.             np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],5]))
66.

```

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```
67.     #for soil type 4, Eq. 2
68.     P_ST_J[nn,3]= np.sum(
69.         np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],6]))
70.
71.     #for soil type 5, Eq. 2
72.     P_ST_J[nn,4]= np.sum(
73.         np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],7]))
74.
75.     #for soil type 6, Eq. 2
76.     P_ST_J[nn,5]= np.sum(
77.         np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],8]))
78.
79.     #for soil type 7, Eq. 2
80.     P_ST_J[nn,6]= np.sum(
81.         np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],9]))
82.
83.     #for soil type 8, Eq. 2
84.     P_ST_J[nn,7]= np.sum(
85.         np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],10]))
86.
87.     #for soil type 9, Eq. 2
88.     P_ST_J[nn,8]= np.sum(
89.         np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],11]))
90.
91.     #Eq. 1
92.     P_eps_n[nn] = np.sum(np.exp(P_ST_J[nn]))
93.
94.     return P_eps_n
95.
96. def soil_type(matrix_generalized, indices):
97.     """
98.     calculates most probable soiltype (1-9) per layer based on the given boundaries
99.     """
100.    P_ST_J=np.zeros((len(indices)-1,9))    #matrix with results following from eq. 2
101.
102.    soiltype_final = np.zeros((len(indices)-1))
103.
104.    """ 2.2 eq. 2 & 1 Wang et al. (2013) """
105.
106.    #the subdivision between upper and lower bound has no coding benefit other than
107.    #being more clear to the reader.
108.    upper_bound = indices[0:-1] #upper bounds of soil layers
109.    lower_bound = indices[1:] #lower bounds of soil layers
110.
111.    for nn in range(0,len(indices)-1): #iterates for each soil layer in the model class
112.        #for soil type 1, Eq. 2
113.        P_ST_J[nn,0]= np.sum(
114.            np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],3]))
115.
116.        #for soil type 2, Eq. 2
117.        P_ST_J[nn,1]= np.sum(
118.            np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],4]))
119.
120.        #for soil type 3, Eq. 2
121.        P_ST_J[nn,2]= np.sum(
122.            np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],5]))
123.
124.        #for soil type 4, Eq. 2
125.        P_ST_J[nn,3]= np.sum(
126.            np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],6]))
127.
128.        #for soil type 5, Eq. 2
129.        P_ST_J[nn,4]= np.sum(
130.            np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],7]))
131.
132.        #for soil type 6, Eq. 2
133.        P_ST_J[nn,5]= np.sum(
134.            np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],8]))
135.
136.        #for soil type 7, Eq. 2
```

```

137.         P_ST_J[nn,6]= np.sum(
138.             np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],9]))
139.
140.         #for soil type 8, Eq. 2
141.         P_ST_J[nn,7]= np.sum(
142.             np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],10]))
143.
144.         #for soil type 9, Eq. 2
145.         P_ST_J[nn,8]= np.sum(
146.             np.log(matrix_generalized[upper_bound[nn]:lower_bound[nn],11]))
147.
148.         soiltype_final[nn] = np.argmax(P_ST_J[nn,:]) +1
149.     return soiltype_final
150.
151. def objective_function(thickness,matrix_generalized):
152.     """
153.     calculates objective function = -ln(likelihood function)
154.     """
155.     #get indices of the layer boundaries in the matrix
156.     indices = thickness_to_boundaries(thickness,matrix_generalized)
157.     """ 2.2 eq. 2 & 1 Wang et al. (2013) """
158.     P_eps_n = Eqs_Wang(matrix_generalized,indices)
159.     """ 2.3 eq. 6 Wang et al. (2013) """
160.     P_eps = np.sum(np.log(P_eps_n))
161.     return -P_eps
162.
163. def best_guesses(matrix_generalized,model_class,params):
164.     """
165.     Function that calculates a number (=no_guesses) of best guesses. that is, for layer
166.     thickness configurations that give the lowest objective functions
167.     """
168.     min_thickness= params["min thickness"]
169.     boundary_constraint = params["boundary constraint"]
170.     no_guesses = params["no. guesses"]
171.     iterations = params["guesses iterations"]
172.
173.
174.     #1st column = posterior value, others = thicknesses
175.     best_conf = np.zeros((no_guesses,model_class+1))
176.     for i in range(iterations):
177.         #empty list in which boundaries will be stored -->
178.         #[start_depth,boundary_1,boundary_2,...,end_depth]
179.         boundaries = np.zeros(model_class+1)
180.
181.         """ 0. make array of possible boundaries, spacing of 0.1 """
182.         boundary_possibilities = np.arange(round(matrix_generalized[0,0],1)+0.1*
183.             (round(matrix_generalized[0,0],1)
184.             <matrix_generalized[0,0])+min_thickness,
185.             round(matrix_generalized[-1,0],1)-
186.             0.1*(round(matrix_generalized[-1,0],1)
187.             >matrix_generalized[-1,0])+0.1,0.1)
188.
189.         """ 1. get thickness distribution """
190.         #1.1 first boundary is start of profile (depth at which cpt starts)
191.         boundaries[0] = matrix_generalized[0,0]
192.
193.         #1.2 generate random values within constraint
194.         L_constraints=np.array([])
195.         for constraint in boundary_constraint:
196.             if model_class >= constraint[-1]:
197.                 random_constraint = round(np.random.uniform(constraint[0],
198.                     constraint[1]),1)
199.                 L_constraints=np.append(L_constraints,random_constraint)
200.
201.         #indices of value +/- min_thickness in boundary_possibilities
202.         idx = np.array(np.where((boundary_possibilities
203.             >random_constraint-min_thickness)
204.             *(boundary_possibilities
205.             <random_constraint+min_thickness)))[0])
206.

```

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```
207.         #delete indices so that next iteration only a correct boundary
208.         boundary_possibilities=np.delete(boundary_possibilities,idx)
209.
210.     #1.3 add constraints to boundaries
211.     boundaries[1:len(L_constraints)+1] = L_constraints
212.
213.     #1.4 give random values to other boundaries (but not for first modelclass, as
214.     #then there is only 1 layer)
215.     if model_class>1:
216.         for nn in range(1+len(L_constraints),model_class+1):
217.             boundaries[nn] = random.choice(boundary_possibilities)
218.
219.         #indices of value +/- min_thickness in boundary_possibilities
220.         idx = np.array(np.where((boundary_possibilities
221.             >boundaries[nn]-min_thickness)
222.             *(boundary_possibilities
223.             <boundaries[nn]+min_thickness))[0])
224.
225.         #delete indices so that next iteration only a correct boundary
226.         boundary_possibilities=np.delete(boundary_possibilities,idx)
227.
228.     #1.5 last boundary will be at final depth of CPT
229.     boundaries[model_class] = matrix_generalized[-1,0]
230.
231.     boundaries=np.sort(boundaries)      #sort boundary list.
232.     thickness =np.diff(boundaries)
233.
234.     """ 2. get likelihood function """
235.     P_eps = objective_function(thickness,matrix_generalized)
236.
237.     """ 3. store best ones in matrix """
238.     if i < no_guesses:      #first fill guess matrix (which is now all 0's)
239.         best_conf[i,0] = P_eps
240.         best_conf[i,1:]=thickness
241.
242.     if i >= no_guesses: #update guess matrix if a more preferred value is found
243.         pos = np.where(best_conf[:,0] == max(best_conf[:,0]))[0][0]
244.         if best_conf[pos,0] > P_eps:
245.             best_conf[pos,0] = P_eps
246.             best_conf[pos,1:] = thickness
247.
248.     return best_conf
249.
250.
251. def optimizer(matrix_generalized,model_class, params,best_conf):
252.     """
253.     Function that further optimizes a layer thickness configuration based on the basin-
254.     hopping approach
255.     """
256.     min_thickness = params["min thickness"]      #minimal thickness to consider
257.     thickness_tot = round(matrix_generalized[-1,0]-matrix_generalized[0,0],2)
258.     cons = [] #list summarizing the constraints that will be used by the optimizer
259.
260.     #constraint 1 = sum of thicknesses must be equal to total thickness
261.     cons.append({'type':'eq','fun': lambda thickness: np.sum(thickness)-thickness_tot})
262.
263.     #constraint 2 = thickness must be larger or equal to the minimal thickness
264.     for con in range(model_class):
265.         cons.append({'type':'ineq','fun': lambda thickness: thickness[con]-
266.             min_thickness})
267.
268.     bounds = [] #list summarizing the bounds of the thickness
269.
270.     #bound 1= thickness per layer must be minimal of 0.2 and maximum of total thickness
271.     for bound in range(model_class):
272.         bounds.append([0.2,thickness_tot])
273.
274.     minimizer_kwargs = dict(method='SLSQP',args=(matrix_generalized), constraints=cons,
275.         bounds=bounds, tol=0.01, options=dict(maxiter=200))
276.
```



```

277.     #an array where the minimal value of the objective function will be stored. start
278.     #with infinity
279.     min_objective = np.array([np.inf])
280.     thicknessL = np.zeros((1,model_class))
281.
282.     for opt in range(len(best_conf)): #optimize for all best configurations
283.         initial_guess = best_conf[opt,1:] #specify initial guess for optimizer
284.
285.         counter = 0 #start a counter
286.         while counter == 0: #as long as counter = 0, keep trying to optimize
287.             res_loop = optimize.basinhopping(objective_function,initial_guess,
288.                 minimizer_kwargs=minimizer_kwargs,niter=500, niter_success=100)
289.
290.             #if optimization is found, add counter so optimizing for that configuration
291.             #will stop
292.             if res_loop.lowest_optimization_result.success == True:
293.                 counter += 1
294.
295.                 #if the new optimized value is lower than the one stored in
296.                 #"objective", change old value to this value
297.                 if res_loop.fun < min_objective[0]:
298.                     #store current optimal objective function
299.                     min_objective[0] = res_loop.fun
300.
301.                     #store thicknesses for that optimal value
302.                     thicknessL[:] = np.array(res_loop.x)[:]
303.
304.                 #if optimization failed, try again
305.                 if res_loop.lowest_optimization_result.success == False:
306.                     print('False')
307.
308.     #return minimized objective function and corresponding thicknesses
309.     return min_objective, thicknessL
310.
311. def calculator(matrix_generalized,params):
312.     """
313.     main function solving for the different subparts
314.     """
315.
316.     N_min = params["N min"]
317.     N_max = params["N max"]
318.     treshold = params["treshold model class"]
319.     std_Fr = params["std Fr"]           #standard deviation of friction ratio
320.     std_Qt = params["std Qt"]         #standard deviation of cone resistance
321.     k = np.arange(N_min,N_max+1)
322.
323.     """1a. if a probability = 0, this will cause problems --> change all 0's to a small
324.     Number
325.     """
326.     thickness_tot = matrix_generalized[-1,0]-matrix_generalized[0,0]
327.     zero_position = np.argwhere(matrix_generalized[:,3:]==0)
328.     for index in zero_position:
329.         matrix_generalized[index[0],index[1]+3]=0.00001
330.
331.     #list with best layer thickness configuration per model class
332.     all_optimized = np.zeros((int(N_max),int(N_max)+1))
333.     K_N_L = np.zeros((1,N_max))
334.
335.     """2. minimize objective function (=-ln(likelihood function)) per model class"""
336.     """2a. Model class 1: having 1 layer, so only 1 solution"""
337.     N1 = objective_function([thickness_tot],matrix_generalized)
338.     all_optimized[0,0:2]=[N1,thickness_tot]
339.     print("Caclulation for Model Class 1: SUCCES")
340.
341.     """2b. calculate for other model classes"""
342.     for N in range(N_min+1,N_max+1):
343.
344.         """first, get best number (=no_guesses) of best guesses"""
345.         best_conf= best_guesses(matrix_generalized,N,params)
346.

```

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```
347.     """if N is lower than specified number of layers (=threshold), no optimization
348.     is needed--> take lowest of best guesses"""
349.     if N<=treshold:
350.         min_index = np.argmin(best_conf[:,0])
351.
352.         all_optimized[N-1,:N+1]=best_conf[min_index]
353.
354.     """if N is larger than specified number of layers (=threshold), optimization is
355.     needed."""
356.
357.     if N>treshold:
358.         #optimizes for each guess and returns most optimal optimized value
359.         objective, thicknessl = optimizer(matrix_generalized,N,params,best_conf)
360.         all_optimized[N-1,0]=objective
361.         all_optimized[N-1,1:N+1]=thicknessl
362.         print(f"Calculation for Model Class: {N}: SUCCES")
363.
364.     """PART 3: calculate most probable model class"""
365.     likelihood = -all_optimized[:,0]
366.     prior_distribution = np.log((1/std_Fr * 1/std_Qt)**k)
367.
368.     #calculate conditional probability (Eq. 12, Wang et al. (2013))
369.     cond_prob = likelihood+prior_distribution
370.     cond_prob = np.exp(cond_prob)
371.     cond_prob = np.log(cond_prob/(thickness_tot**(k-1)))
372.
373.     #maximize posterior function and select layer and thicknesses
374.     max_index = np.argmax(cond_prob)
375.     final_class = all_optimized[max_index,:max_index+2]
376.
377.     """PART 4: get soil types for that model class"""
378.     #get soil types for final class
379.     thickness_final = final_class[1:]
380.     indices = thickness_to_boundaries(thickness_final,matrix_generalized)
381.     soiltype_final = soil_type(matrix_generalized,indices)
382.
383.
384.     """PART 5: save results"""
385.     #get summary
386.     cond_prob = np.reshape(cond_prob,(len(cond_prob),1))
387.     summary = np.hstack((all_optimized,cond_prob))
388.
389.     #get final configuration
390.     final_result = np.column_stack([thickness_final, soiltype_final])
391.
392.     return final_result, summary
393.
```