

Load-Settlement Response of A Footing Over Buried Conduit in A Sloping Terrain: A Numerical Experiment-Based Artificial Intelligent Approach

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1 **Load-settlement response of a footing over buried conduit in a sloping** 2 **terrain: a numerical experiment-based artificial intelligent approach**

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4 **ABSTRACT**

5 Settlement estimation of a footing located over a buried conduit in a sloping terrain is a
6 challenging task for practicing civil/geotechnical engineers. In the recent past, the advent of
7 machine learning technology has made many traditional approaches antiquated. This paper
8 investigates the viability, development, implementation, and comprehensive comparison of
9 five artificial intelligence-based machine learning models, namely, multi-layer perceptron
10 (MLP), Gaussian processes regression (GPR), lazy *K*-Star (LKS), decision table (DT), and
11 random forest (RF) to estimate the settlement of footing located over a buried conduit within a
12 soil slope. The pertaining dataset of 3600 observations was obtained by conducting large-scale
13 numerical simulations via the finite element modelling framework. After executing the feature
14 selection technique that is correlation-based subset selection, the applied load, total unit weight
15 of soil, constrained modulus of soil, slope angle ratio, hoop stiffness of conduit, bending
16 stiffness of conduit, burial depth of conduit, and crest distance of footing were utilized as the
17 influence parameters for estimating and forecasting the settlement. The predictive strength and
18 accuracy of all models mentioned supra were evaluated using several well-established
19 statistical indices such as Pearson's correlation coefficient (*r*), root mean square error (RMSE),
20 Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), scatter index (SI), and relative percentage difference (RPD).
21 The results showed that among all the models employed in this study, the multi-layer
22 perceptron model has shown better results with *r*, RMSE, NSE, SI, and RPD values of (0.977,
23 0.298, 0.937, 0.31, and 4.31) and (0.974, 0.323, 0.928, 0.44 and 3.75) for training and testing
24 dataset, respectively. The sensitivity analysis revealed that all the selected parameters play an
25 important role in determining the output value. However, the applied load, constrained
26 modulus, unit weight, slope angle ratio, hoop stiffness have the highest strength with the
27 relative importance of 18.4%, 16.3% and 15.3%, 13.8%, 11.4%, respectively. Finally, the
28 model was translated into a functional relationship for easy implementation and can prove
29 useful for practitioners and researchers in predicting the settlement of a footing located over a
30 buried conduit in a sloping terrain.

31 **Keywords:** Buried-conduit; Slope; Artificial intelligence; Finite element modelling; Load-
32 settlement behavior

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52 **1. Introduction**

53 The tunneling and underground infrastructure is a salient feature of modern urbanization. The
54 economic and safety benefits of the buried conduits have made them the most frequently used
55 mode of utility conveyance. The scarcity of land to ever-increasing population growth has
56 resulted in the construction activity over the buried infrastructure. The influence of the imposed
57 loading on a buried conduit is always incorporated in its design and installation (Moser and
58 Folkman 2001). The studies on the effect of the applied surface pressure on the soil-conduit
59 interaction and the resulting stress distribution and structural response of the conduit can be
60 found in the current literature (Dhar et al. 2004; Talesnick et al. 2012; Bryden et al. 2015;
61 Robert et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2017; Al-Naddaf et al. 2019; Khan and Shukla 2021a).
62 However, the research on the presence of the buried conduit on the settlement and bearing
63 capacity of a surface footing is very limited. Srivastava et al. (2013) investigated the load-
64 settlement response of a circular footing placed over a PVC conduit buried under the level
65 ground. Using laboratory model tests, the load-settlement behavior and bearing capacity of the
66 footing was analyzed in loose-medium (relative density = 50%) and very dense sands (relative
67 density = 88%). The experimental results were also compared with the results obtained from
68 finite element analysis of the same model. The results showed that in the case of the loose-
69 medium dense sand, the induction of stiffer conduit material improved the load-settlement
70 response of the footing. As a result, its bearing capacity increased by about 25%. Whereas, for
71 the very dense sand, the presence of the flexible conduit reduced the bearing capacity of the
72 overlying footing by approximately 8%. Therefore, it can be concluded that under the static
73 load conditions, the relative density of the sand surrounding the buried conduit and the resulting
74 relative stiffness with the conduit material governs the settlement and bearing capacity of the
75 surface footing. Similarly, Bildik and Laman (2015, 2019) conducted laboratory model tests to
76 analyze the effect of a buried PVC conduit on the load-settlement response and bearing

77 capacity of an overlying strip footing. The study was conducted by varying the burial depth
78 and the horizontal distance of the conduit from the footing. The settlement of the surface
79 footing was measured by employing two deflection transduces instrumented on both sides of
80 the surface footing. The results showed that the load-settlement behavior and bearing capacity
81 of the footing improved significantly as the horizontal distance between the footing and the
82 buried conduit was increased. Also, it was noted that as the buried conduit was moved away
83 from the stress zone under the footing, the bearing capacity of the footing increased. At a burial
84 depth of more than 4 times the conduit diameter, the buried conduit ceased to impact the load-
85 settlement behavior and bearing capacity of the surface footing. While the aforementioned
86 studies investigated the effect of buried conduits on the load-settlement response and bearing
87 capacity of footings located over the horizontal ground, only one study can be found in the
88 literature that has analyzed the footing settlement in a sloping terrain. Khan and Shukla (2020)
89 conducted laboratory model tests to investigate the settlement and bearing capacity of a strip
90 surface footing located over a conduit buried within the soil slope. Using two linear variable
91 displacement transducers (LVDTs) installed on both sides of the footing, the effects of un-
92 plasticized polyvinyl chloride (PVC-U) conduits of diameters 80mm and 160mm were studied
93 in detail. The shear failure mechanisms of the footing were analytically computed and
94 illustrated to understand the resulting soil-conduit interaction. The study concluded that when
95 the shear failure planes of the footing intersected with the buried conduit, its bearing capacity
96 was reduced by about 40%. However, an increase in the burial depth of the conduit and the
97 crest distance of the footing enhanced the distance between the buried conduit and failure
98 planes of the footing, resulting in a decrease in the effect of buried conduit on the settlement
99 and bearing capacity of the surface footing. Further, the sensitivity analysis categorized the
100 burial depth of the conduit and the crest distance of the surface footing from the edge of the

101 soil slope as the most influential parameters affecting the load-carrying behavior of the surface
102 footing located over a conduit buried within a soil slope.

103 Summarizing, the limited number of related studies, as discussed above, have
104 concluded that the load-settlement response and bearing capacity of footings is affected by the
105 relative stiffness with the conduit material and the surrounding soil, burial depth of the conduit,
106 and the crest distance of the conduit from the slope surface. However, the studies have only
107 analyzed limited values of these influential parameters due to the experimental restraints.
108 Furthermore, these experimental studies have been conducted on small-scale 1g laboratory
109 models, which hinders the veracity of such studies due to the scale effect. While the small-
110 scale model tests may explain the relevant mechanisms/ trends, the observed measurements
111 may not reflect the actual field values (Sedran et al. 2001; Cerato and Lutenecker 2003).
112 Additionally, the use of only one type of conduit material significantly limits the generalized
113 use of related studies. To the authors' best knowledge, no study exists in the current literature
114 that can be used for the direct estimation of the settlement of a strip footing located over a
115 buried conduit with a soil slope.

116 Finite element modelling (FEM) can be used to solve complex geotechnical problems
117 and achieve more accurate results (Khan and Shukla 2021b). However, the use of expensive
118 software for FEM analysis significantly limits their application (Kim et al. 2012). In recent
119 times, the use of machine learning techniques has been widely used in mapping the non-linear
120 relationships between the input and output variables (e.g., Ahmadi et al. 2019; Yekani Motlagh
121 et al. 2019; Aamir et al. 2020; Dorosti et al. 2020; Ghorbani et al. 2021; Kaloop et al. 2021).
122 The novel metaheuristic algorithms are also developed for optimisation purposes in big-data
123 analysis (Abualigah and Alkhrabsheh 2021; Abualigah et al. 2021a). Similarly, for
124 geotechnical problems, the soft computing approaches are now commonly used for prediction
125 purposes (e.g., Nguyen et al. 2019; Xiao and Zhao 2019; Bardhan et al. 2021; Kardani et al.

126 2021a, b; Khan et al. 2021; Raja and Shukla 2021a, b; Raja et al. 2021). The machine learning
127 (ML) models that are based on large quantities of FEM data have also been developed to solve
128 complex problems like soil-conduit interaction and settlement of foundations. Kim et al. (2012)
129 employed FEM based artificial neural network (ANN) to predict deflections of buried
130 corrugated conduits. The data collected from three-dimensional finite element modelling were
131 used to develop a backpropagation (BP) neural network that examined the factors affecting the
132 structural response of different corrugated conduits buried at various depths under the level
133 ground. Shokouhi et al. (2013) used a FEM-ANN approach to develop an ANN model that
134 could be used to predict the bending strains developed in conduits buried within a fault zone.
135 Kardani et al. (2020) used the FEM-based data to successfully predict the factor of safety of a
136 soil slope using the hybrid stacking ensemble machine learning modelling technique. The
137 aspect of footing settlement has also been studied by using the FEM-ML approach. Moayedi
138 and Hayati (2018) used large FEM data to develop a number of soft-computing models in order
139 to predict the settlement of a strip surface footing located near a sandy soil slope. Similarly,
140 Moayedi et al. (2020a) developed optimized neural networks such as differential evolution
141 algorithm (DEA), adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) to predict the ultimate
142 bearing capacity of a shallow footing on two-layered soil condition, utilizing FEM data. In this
143 paper, an attempt has been made to predict the settlement of a surface footing located over a
144 conduit buried within a soil slope, using various machine learning/intelligent modelling
145 techniques, namely multi-layer perceptron (MLP), Gaussian processes regression (GPR), Lazy
146 *K*-Star (LKS), decision table (DT), and random forest (RF). Using the finite element modelling,
147 large-scale data were generated for the settlement of the footing located over the conduits of
148 varying stiffness. The main objectives of this paper are as follows:

- 149 1) Development and assessment of five machine learning models such as to MLP, GPR,
150 LKS, DT and RF for direct estimation of the settlement of a strip footing, located over
151 a buried conduit with a soil slope.
- 152 2) Comprehensive analysis and comparison of these models for the same problem.
- 153 3) Feature selection to choose the most important parameters affecting the footing
154 settlement.
- 155 4) Assess the robustness of the developed models and conduct the sensitivity analysis.
- 156 5) Develop and present a trackable functional ANN-based formula for direct estimation
157 of the footing settlement locate over a buried conduit.

158 **1.1. Significance of the Research**

159 This study is useful in ensuring the stability of surface footings that are frequently located
160 over tunnels and underground infrastructure in the current urban environment. Using extensive
161 finite element modelling, it incorporates the effect of a large number of input parameters on
162 the load-settlement response of a large-scale surface footing located over different types of
163 buried conduits. The inclusion of numerous input parameters employed to define soil and the
164 buried conduits and their complicated relationships with the output parameter results in highly
165 complex geotechnical models. Further enhancing this complexity are the intricate correlations
166 between the input parameters, where a change in one input parameter causes a change in
167 another or more than one input parameters. Considering these convoluted relationships and the
168 resulting rigorous finite element calculations, this study utilizes advanced machine learning/
169 intelligent modelling techniques to provide accurate and straightforward solutions to the
170 complex soil-conduit interactions. The developed MLP-based formula can be used by the
171 practicing engineers to directly estimate footing settlement when loaded over a conduit buried

172 within a sloping terrain. The steps involved in the model developments can be summarized as
173 follows:

- 174 (1) Data generation through Finite element modelling (FEM)
- 175 (2) Data pre-processing, feature validity, and data division into training and testing data
- 176 (3) Development and implementation of AI-based models
- 177 (4) Statistical analysis of the results and selection of best model
- 178 (5) Model robustness and sensitivity analysis

179 **2. Material and methods**

180 **2.1. Finite element modelling**

181 The commercial PLAXIS 2D software was used for data collection by conducting the finite
182 element analysis of a large-scale model, as presented in Figure. 1. Using the Mohr-Coulomb
183 model, the soil was modelled as per the field properties of the most common sandy soils,
184 presented in Table 1 (Ghazavi and Eghbali 2008; Moayedi and Hayati 2018). The soils,
185 numbered as one to five were differentiated in terms of their strength and stiffness parameters,
186 namely total unit weight γ , elastic modulus E_s , friction angle ϕ , Poisson's ratio ν_s and
187 dilation angle ψ , As suggested by Brinkgreve et al. (2018), the value of cohesion c was set
188 as 0.3 to avoid any complications during software calculations. Also, the aspect of increasing
189 soil stiffness with an increase in depth was simulated by employing $E_{inc} = 500 \text{ kN/m}^3$. The
190 stiffness parameters of the buried conduit were selected as per the properties defined by Elshimi
191 and Moore (2013). Table 2 details the parameters of different types of conduits, presented in
192 terms of their normal stiffness EA , flexural rigidity EI , and Poisson's ratio ν_c . The strength
193 interaction parameter R_{inter} was selected as 0.8 to simulate the realistic frictional resistance
194 between the buried conduit and the surrounding soil (Wadi et al. 2015). The pressure q was

195 applied on a surface footing of width B , that was located centrally above the buried conduit
 196 of diameter B_c . The footing was modelled as a plate, having the stiffness properties as; $EA =$
 197 5×10^6 kN/m and $EI = 8.5 \times 10^3$ kNm²/m (Brinkgreve et al. 2018). The standard model fixities
 198 and the default medium mesh size was used for conducting finite element simulations. In order
 199 to obtain the settlement of the footing located over a buried conduit with a soil slope, the crest
 200 distance of the footing e/B , the burial depth of the conduit z/B , and the slope angle i were
 201 varied.

202 **2.2. Database collection, preprocessing and feature validity**

203 A database of 3600 full-scale numerical simulations was generated by conducting extensive
 204 finite element modelling. As suggested by McGrath (1998), the problem related to the buried
 205 conduits can be described in terms of the constrained modulus of soil M_s , defined as,

$$206 \quad M_s = \frac{E_s(1-\nu_s)}{(1+\nu_s)(1-2\nu_s)} \quad (1)$$

207 where E_s and ν_s represent the elastic modulus and the Poisson's ratio of the soil.

208 Similarly, the stiffness parameters of the conduit, namely, normal stiffness EA and flexural
 209 rigidity EI are usually normalized to incorporate the effect of conduit diameter B_c and wall
 210 thickness t . The resulting hoop stiffness PS_H (Mcgrath 1999) and bending stiffness PS_B
 211 (ASTM D2412, 2002) of the conduit are defined as,

$$212 \quad PS_H = \frac{EA}{R} \quad (2)$$

$$213 \quad PS_B = \frac{EI}{0.149R^3} \quad (3)$$

214 where R is the radius to centroid of the conduit wall.

215 The aspect of slope stability and the angle of repose of the granular soil is a function of
 216 its friction angle (Duncan and Wright 2005; Atkinson 2007). The graphical presentation of the
 217 complete dataset is illustrated in the form of box and whisker plots in Figure 2. Moreover, the
 218 statistical properties of the same are tabulated in Table 3. The dataset has been normalized
 219 between -1 to 1 before feeding it to ML algorithms.

$$220 \quad x_{std} = 2 \left(\frac{x - x_{min}}{x_{max} - x_{min}} \right) - 1 \quad (4)$$

221 where x , x_{min} and x_{max} present the observed, minimum and maximum values of the dataset,
 222 respectively.

223 In machine learning, dealing with high-dimensional data is a challenging task for
 224 scientists and researchers. Feature reduction is an important step that effectively omits the
 225 redundant data and chooses the most optimum combination of input parameters (Jie et al. 2017;
 226 Gao et al. 2019). For this study, correlation-based feature selection, abbreviated as the CFS
 227 method, was implemented in a Waikato environment for knowledge analysis (WEKA) using
 228 the multivariate filter. Initially proposed by Hall (1999), CFS combines the correlation measure
 229 for appropriate feature subset selection and heuristic strategies for the mode of search.
 230 Therefore, it evaluates the importance/correlation of individual variables with the output and
 231 the degree of redundancy between them. The results of the feature selection depict that among
 232 the most relatively important parameters as summarized in Table 3, the applied load (q),
 233 constrained modulus of soil (M_s), unit weight of soil (γ), slope-angle ratio (i/ϕ), hoop stiffness
 234 (PS_H), bending stiffness (PS_B), burial depth ratio of conduit (z/B), and crest distance of footing
 235 (e/B) has achieved the highest importance. Mathematically, the output, that is settlement of
 236 footing located over a buried conduit in soil (s/B %) can be expressed as follows:

$$237 \quad s/B = f(q, M_s, \gamma, i/\phi, PS_H, PS_B, z/B, e/B) \quad (5)$$

238 Therefore, these input parameters are utilized for training the machine learning models
239 described in the next section.

240 **2.3. Theory of methods**

241 The theory of the statistical concepts and the data-driven machine learning methods employed
242 in this study to estimate the settlement of the footing located over a conduit buried within a soil
243 slope are provided in this section. Moreover, 3060 samples were randomly earmarked in this
244 study for training the MLP, GPR, LKS, DT, and RF models. Thereafter, the competency of
245 each model was evaluated and validated against 540 samples. Additionally, the research
246 scheme employed in this study is presented in Figure 3.

247 **2.3.1. Multi-layer perceptron (MLP)**

248 Multi-layer perceptron (MLP) is a neural network that has the ability to map adaptive non-
249 linear relationships between the input dataset and the output targets, thus making it one of the
250 most widely used machine learning techniques (Azadi et al. 2013; Gao et al. 2019; Moayedi et
251 al. 2019). Figure 4 shows a feed-forward MLP network consisting of an input layer, a single
252 hidden layer, and an output layer. Each layer consists of a varying number of neurons. The
253 number of independent input parameters and the output target defines the number of neurons
254 in the input and output layers, respectively. Whereas the number of neurons in the hidden layer
255 depends upon the type and size of the problem (Ramezani et al. 2019). The increase in the
256 number of hidden neurons may enhance the prediction ability of the network but can also make
257 the model computationally inconvenient and complex (Raja and Shukla 2020). As a thumb
258 rule, the maximum number of hidden neurons should be limited to $2m + 1$, where m presents
259 the number of input parameters (Shahin 2010). In an MLP algorithm, a number of neurons are
260 connected by associated weights. At each neuron, the data from the input layer x_i is multiplied

261 by the associated weight w_{ik} . Thereafter, the bias vector λ_k is added to the summation of the
 262 weighted inputs to obtain V_k . Finally, the output of the processing neuron y_k is obtained by
 263 passing V_k through the sigmoidal activation function $g(\cdot)$ (see Figure. 4). More detailed
 264 information about the MLP neural network can be found in the existing literature (Gurney
 265 1997).

266 **2.3.2. Gaussian processes regression (GPR)**

267 Gaussian processes regression (GPR) uses a probabilistic approach and predicts through kernel
 268 functions that evaluate on the basis of the similarity between two data points. The GPR
 269 technique integrates a number of machine learning tasks, such as model training, parameter
 270 estimation, and uncertainty evaluation. This helps in reducing the subjectivity of the GPR
 271 results and makes them more interpretable. The GPR is based on a Gaussian process (GP), that
 272 works on the assumption of Gaussian priors for changed function values (Rasmussen 2006). A
 273 GP can be statistically presented as,

$$274 \quad g(x) \sim GP(\mu(x), k(x, x')) \quad (6)$$

275 where $\mu(x)$ presents the mean and $k(x, x')$ presents the covariance function of g .

276 Any finite number of random variables in a GP have a joint multivariate Gaussian distribution
 277 (Suthar 2020). Assuming $g = [\hat{g}(x_i, w)]_{i=1}^m$ presents the model outputs in correspondence to the
 278 input dataset X ,

$$279 \quad \hat{g}(x_i, w) = \sum_{j=1}^n w_j \phi_j(x_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (7)$$

280 or simply, if $g = \phi w$, then the prior distribution of g is Gaussian

$$281 \quad p(g|X, \theta) \sim N(0, K) \quad (8)$$

282 where ϕ is the design matrix.

283 In this study, various kernel functions namely, radial bias function (RBF), Pearson VII
284 Universal kernel function (PUKF), polynomial kernel function are employed, and the best
285 results are obtained via PUKF function.

286 **2.3.3. Lazy K -star (LKS)**

287 Lazy K -star (LKS) uses an instant base learning (IBL) classification system to generalize the
288 training dataset. During the learning process, the learning algorithm spends most of its
289 computation time for consultation, and learners do not operate until the system receives the
290 query call (Webb 2011). Unlike other machine learning techniques, LKS algorithm does not
291 predict from the instances in the training dataset but rather employs the nearest neighbor
292 approach to provide a response from the data memory (Altman 1992). The LKS classifies a
293 dataset by drawing a comparison with a pre-classified sample. By employing a distance
294 function, the IBL adds up all the possible transitions of two instances and categorizes them into
295 a simple class (Cleary and Trigg 1995). Thereafter, the generated classification function is used
296 to provide new solutions. For example, new test data samples x are distributed to the most
297 suitable class among the k closest information focuses y_i . The corresponding LKS
298 formulation can be given as follows (Cleary and Trigg 1995; Gao et al. 2019):

$$299 \quad K^*(y_i, x) = -\log P^*(y_i, x) \quad (9)$$

300 where, P^* is the probability function that presents the all possible transitions from instances x
301 to y .

302

303

304 **2.3.4. Decision table (DT)**

305 Decision table (DT) can be used to organize logic in a manner that helps in easy analysis
306 (Nanda et al. 2017). A DT consists of different sections, namely, condition and action stubs,
307 and condition and action entries. While the “condition stub” presents the possible conditions
308 or problems, the “action stud” illustrates potential actions or solutions. The condition and
309 action entries are located across the corresponding stubs, in terms of rules and classes tabulated
310 in columns and rows, respectively (Cragun and Steudel 1987). When provided with a new
311 instance, a DT algorithm tries to find the match in the table (Kohavi 1995). It assists in testing
312 a set of rules for conditions of completeness, redundancy, and ambiguity. The condition of
313 completeness occurs when the rules in the table address all the possible combinations of logic.
314 Redundancy is said to exist when more than one rule having the same actions is satisfied by
315 the same logical conditions. Ambiguity exists when two or more different rules with different
316 actions are satisfied by the same logical conditions (Cragun and Steudel, 1987). In comparison
317 to the hierarchical structure of the decision tree technique, the simple straightforward
318 architecture of DT is considered to be more stable for problem solutions (Gao et al. 2019).

319 **2.3.5. Random forest (RF)**

320 Random forest (RF) uses an ensemble-learning approach that employs numerous classification
321 trees for solving regression and classification problems (Ho 1995; Gehrke 2011). The RF
322 creates a grove of trees whose predictive relationship alters randomly. The average output of
323 each tree is then provided as the output. In order to generate the forest, the user has to define
324 some parameters, such as the variable splitting the nodes and the number of trees. The accuracy
325 of the model is determined in terms of the forest population i.e., the number of trees. The
326 generalization error (GE) is estimated unbiasedly during the computation of the RF model. The
327 RF evaluates the increase in the GE error to estimate the significance of the predictive

328 variables. A variable is said to have increased significance if the value of GE increases. Also,
 329 by employing the bootstrap aggregating technique, the RF model reduces the risk of overfitting
 330 and provides a more stable solution (Breiman 2001)

331 **3. Model performance and assessment**

332 After the development and implementation phase, the next most important step is the model
 333 assessment. For data-driven modelling, the accuracy is measured in terms of the following: (i)
 334 Statistical criteria, that is, “goodness of fit”; and (ii) Robustness and sensitivity. The former
 335 deals with model performance by evaluating its fit to the calibration data using several statistical
 336 criteria. In contrast, the latter is used to assess its accuracy, reliability, and rationality according
 337 to the underlying physical behavior of the investigated system. A model can only be considered
 338 suitable if it makes accurate and realistic predictions over a wide range of data (Shahin et al.
 339 2009). Therefore, for this study, the best ML model was selected based on these criteria.

340 **3.1 Model performance based on statistical indices**

341 For “goodness of fit”, five statistical indices namely, Pearson’s correlation coefficient (r), root
 342 mean square error (RMSE), Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), scatter index (SI), and relative
 343 percentage difference (RPD) were used to assess the accuracy of the developed models.
 344 Moreover, based on these criteria, a ranking system was developed by assigning the scores to
 345 the models in training and testing dataset. It may be noted that this ranking system was
 346 successfully applied in many previous (Gao et al. 2019; Moayedi et al. 2020a; Zhang et al.
 347 2020). The mathematical forms of all the indices, namely, r , RMSE, NSC, SI, and RPD are
 348 given in Eqs (10-14)

$$349 \quad r = \frac{\sum (s / B_{iobs} - \overline{s / B_{obs}}) \times (s / B_{ipre} - \overline{s / B_{pre}})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - \overline{s / B_{obs}})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{ipre} - \overline{s / B_{pre}})^2}} \quad (10)$$

350
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - s / B_{ipre})^2}$$
 (11)

351

352
$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - s / B_{ipre})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - \overline{s / B_{obs}})^2}$$
 (12)

353

354
$$SI = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - s / B_{ipre})^2}}{\overline{s / B_{obs}}}$$
 (13)

355
$$RPD = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - \overline{s / B_{obs}})^2}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (s / B_{iobs} - s / B_{ipre})^2}}$$
 (14)

356 where s / B_{iobs} , s / B_{ipre} , $\overline{s / B_{obs}}$, $\overline{s / B_{pre}}$ and n represent the i th observed value of settlement, i th
 357 predicted value of settlement, mean value of observed settlement, mean value of predicted
 358 settlement, and number of data samples, respectively. It is to be noted that the model is
 359 considered to be accurate if it has high r , NSE, and RPD values and low RMSE and SI values.

360 Table 4 reports the results of all the statistical parameters (r , RMSE, NSE, SI and RPD)
 361 for training dataset in MLP, GPR, LKS, DT and RF were (0.977, 0.298, 0.937, 0.31, and 4.31),
 362 (0.931, 0.5, 0.851, 0.43, and 3.67), (0.901, 0.536, 0.76, 0.73, and 2.31), (0.92, 0.491, 0.831,
 363 0.74, and 2.53), and (0.981, 0.273, 0.933, 0.35, and 3.93), respectively. Similarly, for testing
 364 dataset, for the same parameters, the values were (0.974, 0.323, 0.928, 0.44, and 3.75), (0.905,
 365 0.518, 0.817, 0.76, and 2.34), (0.876, 0.673, 0.691, 1.01, and 1.8), (0.87, 0.613, 0.743, 1.04,
 366 and 1.97), and (0.964, 0.349, 0.916, 0.52, and 3.46) respectively for MLP, GPR, LKS, DT and
 367 RF (Table 5). After reviewing both the training and the testing performance, MLP technique
 368 can be introduced as the most accurate model in determining the settlement of footing located
 369 over a conduit buried within a soil slope. Moreover, the performance of MLP is followed by

370 RF and GPR models and thus, can be considered as the second and third best models in the
371 hierarchy. Also, the LKS and DT have shown rather poor predictive performance in
372 comparison to their counterparts.

373 The combined performance of all the models in training and testing datasets is
374 computed in Table 6. In this regard, a total rank is obtained by summing the partial scores given
375 to the model based on the statistical performance indicators, that are r , RMSE, NSE, SI and
376 RPD values (Tables 4 and 5). From the results, the supremacy of the MLP model can be
377 established with the highest total ranking score of 48. The second-best performance is obtained
378 by RF with a total score of 42. The total ranking scores for GPR, LKS, and DT were 28, 12,
379 and 20, respectively. Furthermore, Figures 5a-5e depict the regression correlation coefficient
380 between the observed and predicted values for all the prescient models in the testing dataset. It
381 can be observed from the regression chart that the MLP model has achieved the highest R^2 , that
382 is, 0.948, in comparison to 0.931, 0.820, 0.770, and 0.756, respectively for RF, GPR, LKS, and
383 DT. This also proves that the developed MLP model has outperformed all other ML models
384 applied in the context of predicting the settlement of footing located over a conduit buried
385 within a soil slope.

386 The predictive performance of all the models was also accessed via Taylor's diagram
387 in Figure 6. Taylor's diagram is a useful graphical tool to illustrate the accuracy of the
388 developed data-driven models on a single platform (Taylor 2001). The strength between the
389 predicted and simulated field is evaluated on the basis of the combine effect of three statistical
390 parameters, that are, centered RMSE, correlation coefficient and standard deviation (SD). In
391 the given figure, the solid black lines depict the correlation coefficient, solid radial lines
392 represent the standard deviation, and dotted radial lines show the centered RMSE -values in
393 the simulated field. The reference model is shown by a black dot with the correlation coefficient
394 of unity, measured SD of 1.21, and zero centered RMSE. It can be seen from the figure that

395 the best performance is obtained by MLP model with the correlation coefficient of 0.974, SD
396 of 1.33, and RMSE of 0.3168. The RF model has also shown a good correlation strength with
397 coefficient of 0.965, RMSE of 0.347, but the spatial variability is low with an SD of 1.02 in
398 reference to observed value. The other models such as GPR, LKS and DT have correlation
399 coefficient (0.905, 0.876, and 0.870), centered RMSE (0.517, 0.673, and 0.613), and SD (1.04,
400 0.73, and 0.92), respectively. This depicts that these models are associated with high bias and
401 have poor prediction strength compared to the MLP model. Therefore, to this point, it is
402 admissible that the developed MLP model predicts the settlement of footing located over a
403 conduit buried within a soil slope in a reliable and intelligent way. Additionally, the time
404 consumed by each approach is shown in Figure 7 . It can be observed that apparently, the MLP
405 and GPR approaches had consumed less time in comparison to other models.

406 **3.2 Model robustness and sensitivity**

407 In this section, a sensitivity analysis was carried out to investigate the reliability and robustness
408 of the developed MLP model. For this, incremental stepwise sensitivity analysis, also known
409 as one-at-time analysis was conducted to examine the robustness of the model. In this method,
410 each variable is increased in a stepwise manner while other variables remain constant at their
411 mean value. However, this is practically not possible if the variables have both independent
412 and correlated effect, that is, the change in one variable cause an inherent change in another
413 variable such as unit weight and constrained modulus of soil, and hoop and bending stiffness
414 of conduit, for this study. Therefore, the combined effect is calculated in the sensitivity analysis
415 for these variables, as illustrated in Figure 8. The results show that an increase in the footing
416 settlement increases significantly with an increase in the applied loading. This is a very
417 common effect that relates to the movement of the underlying soil particles that slide along the
418 shear failure planes due to the downward motion of the loaded footing, hence providing more
419 settlement space for the surface footing (Terzaghi 1943). The constrained modulus and unit

420 weight of the soil are interrelated variables that correspond to the density and the resulting
421 stiffness of the soil. The increased soil stiffness reflects an increase in the shear strength of soil
422 that provides resistance to the footing settlement (Berardi and Lancellotta 1991; Mayne and
423 Poulos 1999). The slope angle ratio symbolizes the aspect of slope stability of an unconfined
424 granular material in terms of the state of failure of a soil at which the angle of repose equals its
425 friction angle (Al-Hashemi and Al-Amoudi 2018; Miura et al. 1997). An increase in the slope
426 angle ratio increases the slope instability and hence reduces the support available to the footing
427 on the slope side, explained in terms of the asymmetric footing failure mechanism (Hovan 1985;
428 Graham et al. 1988). Due to the increase in asymmetric footing failure with an increase in slope
429 angle ratio, the soil along the unstable slope yields under load application, resulting in increased
430 footing settlement (Keskin and Laman 2013; Dey et al. 2019). The hoop and bending stiffness
431 of the conduit are the design parameters that are employed to classify a conduit as either rigid
432 or flexible (Mcgrath 1999). When buried under a loaded footing, the relative stiffness of the
433 conduit to the adjacent soil determines the footing settlement. An increase in relative stiffness
434 increases the stiffness of the soil located between the buried conduit and the overlying footing,
435 thereby reducing the footing settlement (Srivastava et al. 2013). The effect of the burial depth
436 of the conduit on the footing settlement is related to the aspect of the intersection of the shearing
437 failure plane of the loaded footing with the buried conduit. As the burial depth increases and
438 the conduit is located below the shear failure planes of the footing, it serves as a support and
439 reduces the settlement of the overlying footing (Khan and Shukla 2020). The increase in the
440 crest distance relates to the support available to the surface footing on the slope side, as
441 discussed above. An increase in the crest distance reduces the asymmetric nature of the failure
442 mechanism, allowing more support to the slope side of the footing and causing a decrease in
443 the footing settlement (Dey et al. 2019). The trends illustrated in Figure 8 comprehensively
444 prove that the developed MLP model network correctly predicts the underlying physical

445 behavior of the investigated system according to the known knowledge pertaining to
446 geotechnical engineering, and thus can be considered reliable and robust.

447 In order to find the importance of each variable affecting the settlement of footing
448 located over a conduit buried within a soil slope, a sensitivity analysis was also conducted
449 using the Garson's algorithm (Garson 1991). In the case of a single hidden layered network,
450 this technique involves the deconstruction of the model weight connections. The algorithm is
451 explained in the Appendix section for the MLP network with eight inputs, six hidden layer
452 nodes, and one output node. From the results illustrated in Figure 9, it can be observed that the
453 most important parameter for estimating the settlement is applied load with the relative
454 importance of 18.4%, followed by the unit weight of soil and constrained modulus of soil with
455 relative importance of 16.3% and 15.3%, respectively. The relative importance of other
456 parameters such as slope-angle ratio, hoop stiffness, bending stiffness, burial depth, footing
457 crest distance is 13.8%, 11.4%, 9.9%, 7.7%, and 6.9%, respectively.

458 **4. MLP model formulation**

459 In this section, the developed optimal MLP model was translated into a trackable equation for
460 hand or spreadsheet calculations. The mathematical form of MLP is given as follows (Ghorbani
461 et al. 2020):

$$462 \quad y = g_{ho} \left(\lambda_o + \sum_{j=1}^h w_{ko} g_{ih} \left(\lambda_{hk} + \sum_{i=1}^m w_{ik} x_i \right) \right) \quad (15)$$

463 where g_{ho} is the applied transfer between hidden-output layer, λ_o is the bias at output layer
464 node, w_{ko} is the synaptic weight between node k of hidden layer and single output node, g_{ih} is
465 the applied transfer function between input-hidden layer, λ_{hk} is the bias value for node k of
466 hidden layer ($k = 1, h$), w_{ik} is the synaptic weight between input i and node k of hidden layer,

467 and x_i is the i th input node (variable). The weights and biases of the network are summarized
 468 in Table 7.

469 In order to predict the settlement of footing located over a buried conduit with eight
 470 inputs ($q, M_s, \gamma, i/\phi, PS_H, PS_B, z/B, e/B$), the optimal MLP model can be formulated as
 471 follows:

$$472 \quad (s/B)_p = ((s/B)_{np} + 1) \times ((s/B)_{\max} - (s/B)_{\min}) / 2 + (s/B)_{\min} \quad (16)$$

473 where $(s/B)_{np}$, $(s/B)_{\max}$, and $(s/B)_{\min}$ are the normalized settlement value, maximum values
 474 of the settlement, and minimum value of the settlement, respectively. The normalized
 475 settlement value can be estimated as follows:

$$476 \quad (s/B)_{np} = \sum_{k=1}^8 w_{ko} \text{sig}(\beta)_k + \lambda_o \quad (17)$$

$$477 \quad \beta_k = w_{1k} q_n + w_{2k} M s_n + w_{3k} \gamma_n + w_{4k} (i/\phi)_n + w_{5k} PS_{Hn} + w_{6k} PS_{Bn} + w_{7k} (z/B)_n + w_{8k} (e/B)_n + \lambda_{kh} \quad (18)$$

478 where the subscript n denotes the normalized values of the corresponding input parameters.
 479 The mathematical form of sigmoid activation function is given in Eq. (19).

$$480 \quad \text{sig}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{(-\beta)}} \quad (19)$$

481 For easy comprehension, the design numerical example is also presented below.

482 Numerical example

483 The 1-m wide footing is located over a conduit buried within a soil slope at 1.5 m depth below
 484 the base of footing. The crest distance of the footing is 1.75 m. Other parameters, including the
 485 constrained modulus of soil, unit weight of soil, slope-angle ratio, hoop stiffness of pipe, and
 486 bending stiffness of pipe are 35000 kPa, 19.9 kN/m³, 4071.2 kPa, 8.55 kPa, respectively.
 487 Estimate the settlement of the footing under the application of load (q) of 50 kPa, 100 kPa, and
 488 150 kPa.

489 **Solution:**

490 Input parameters $(x_i) = \{ q \quad M_s \quad \gamma \quad i/\phi \quad PS_H \quad PS_B \quad z/B \quad e/B \}$
491 $= \{ 50 \quad 35000 \quad 19.9 \quad 0.45 \quad 4071.2 \quad 8.55 \quad 1.5 \quad 1.75 \}$

492 **Step 1:**

493 Normalize the values using Eq. (4). The maximum and minimum values of all the parameters
494 are mentioned in Table 3.

495 $x_{in} = \{ -0.333 \quad -0.6598 \quad -0.143 \quad -0.10 \quad -1 \quad -1 \quad -0.5 \quad 0.1667 \}$

496 **Step 2:**

497 Estimate normalized s/B value using Eq. (17). For that, calculate β_k using Eq. (18) as follows:

498 It may be noted that all weights and biases of MLP network are given in Table 7.

499 $\beta_{k1} = (-0.333 \times -0.9407) + (-0.6598 \times -0.7507) + (-0.143 \times -0.0944) + (-0.1 \times -0.0095) + (-1 \times 0.0712)$
 $+ (1 \times -0.0281) + (0.5 \times -0.0873) + (0.1667 \times -0.0221) + (-3.617) = -2.796$

500 Similarly,

501 $\{\beta_{k2}, \beta_{k3}, \beta_{k4}, \beta_{k5}, \beta_{k6}\} = \{-5.053, -6.655, 9.681, -6.331, -3.374\}$

502 Now using Eq. (16) estimate the normalized settlement value.

503 $(s/B)_{np} = \sum \left((-0.549 \times \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-2.796)}}) + (0.0463 \times \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-5.053)}}) + \dots + (-1.021 \times \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-3.374)}}) + 0.6951 \right) = -0.95084$

504 **Step 3:**

505 De-normalise using Eq. (17)

506 $(s/B)_p = ((-0.95084) + 1) \times (25.5 - 0.063) / 2 + 0.0633 = 0.688\%$

507 **Step 4:**

508 The settlement (s) is given as:

509 $s = (0.688 \times 1) / 100 = 0.00688 \text{ m} = 6.88 \text{ mm}$

510 Similarly, for the applied loads of 100 kPa and 150 kPa, the settlement values will be 10.41
511 mm and 16.36 mm, respectively.

512 For future purposes, the developed MLP model can be combined with newly developed
513 metaheuristics (e.g., Mirjalili et al. 2014; Abualigah and Diabat 2021; Abualigah et al. 2021b,
514 c)

515

516 5. Conclusions

517 Settlement estimation of the footing located over a buried conduit in a sloping terrain is a
518 challenging task for civil engineers. A novel approach is presented in this study to predict this
519 settlement. It involves generating the pertaining database using extensive large-scale numerical
520 simulations. Thereafter, five machine learning models (MLP, GPR, LKS, DT, and RF) were
521 developed and implemented to evaluate the feasibility of the investigated system. The
522 following general conclusions can be drawn from the above discussion.

- 523 1. For settlement estimation, results of all the statistical parameters (r , RMSE, NSE, SI
524 and RPD) for training dataset in MLP, GPR, LKS, DT and RF were (0.977, 0.298,
525 0.937, 0.31, and 4.31), (0.931, 0.5, 0.851, 0.43, and 3.67), (0.901, 0.536, 0.76, 0.73, and
526 2.31), (0.92, 0.491, 0.831, 0.74, and 2.53), and (0.981, 0.273, 0.933, 0.35, and 3.93),
527 respectively. Similarly, for testing dataset, for the same parameters, the values were
528 (0.974, 0.323, 0.928, 0.44, and 3.75), (0.905, 0.518, 0.817, 0.76, and 2.34), (0.876,
529 0.673, 0.691, 1.01, and 1.8), (0.87, 0.613, 0.743, 1.04, and 1.97), and (0.964, 0.349,
530 0.916, 0.52, and 3.46) respectively for MLP, GPR, LKS, DT and RF. This indicates the
531 superior predictive performance of the MLP model in contrast to other models.
- 532 2. The MLP model has obtained the highest ranking score (total score = 48). The next best
533 performance is achieved by RF model (total score = 42) followed by GPR (total score
534 = 28). Therefore, RF and GPR can be introduced as second and third best models in
535 estimating the settlement of footings located over buried pipes in sloping terrain.
- 536 3. DT and LKS showed subpar performance in predicting the settlement with the total
537 score of 20 and 12, respectively.

- 538 4. Sensitivity analysis was conducted using Garson's algorithm to assess the strength of
539 input variables in estimating the output (i.e., settlement). The results showed that the
540 applied load ranked 1st with the relative importance of 18.4%, followed by unit weight
541 of soil and constrained modulus of soil with relative importance of 16.3% and 15.3%,
542 respectively. The relative importance of other parameters such as slope-angle ratio,
543 hoop stiffness, bending stiffness, burial depth, footing crest distance is 13.8%, 11.4%,
544 9.9%, 7.7%, and 6.9%, respectively.
- 545 5. The combined predictive performance of all the model were assessed via Taylor's
546 diagram. Based on the results, the standard deviation (SD) (1.33, 1.02, 1.04, 0.73 and
547 0.92), RMSE (0.3168, 0.374, 0.517, 0.673, and 0.613), and correlation coefficient (r)
548 (0.974, 0.965, 0.905, 0.876, and 0.870), respectively estimated MLP, RF, GPR, LKS
549 and DT, confirm the predictive strength of the developed MLP model.
- 550 6. Robustness analysis and generalisation ability check showed that the settlement of
551 footing over buried conduit in a sloping terrain increases with the increase in applied
552 load and slope-angle ratio. Whereas the increase in the hoop stiffness, bending stiffness,
553 burial depth, and footing crest distance causes the decrease in the footing's settlement.

554 Most importantly, the developed MLP model network has been translated into a functional
555 relationship for easy hand or spreadsheet calculations. It can prove useful in saving the
556 computational cost associated with intensive numerical simulations.

557 **Limitations and future works**

558 Although a wide range of data is utilized to train and validate the developed models, the models
559 can be further improved by incorporating more data in the future. Moreover, the future research
560 will also be dedicated in exploiting the deep learning techniques and hybrid ensemble learning

561 approach to further increase the reliability of artificial intelligence-based modelling techniques
562 in predicting the load-settlement behavior of the footing resting on buried conduit within a
563 sloping ground.

564

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568

569

570 **Authorship contribution**

571 **Muhammad Umer Arif Khan:** Writing - review & editing, Finite element modelling,
572 Problem conceptualization. **Sanjay Kumar Shukla:** Supervision, Technical
573 input. **Muhammad Nouman Amjad Raja:** Writing - review & editing, Statistical analysis,
574 Validation, Data interpretation.

575

576 **Compliance with ethical standards:**

577 Conflict of interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

578 Ethical approval: This work does not contain any studies with human participants or animals
579 performed by any of the authors.

580 Informed consent: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in
581 the study.

582

583 **Data availability statement**

584 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the
585 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

586

587

588 **Appendix**

589 **Garson' Algorithm for sensitivity analysis**

590 Garson (1991) proposed a sensitivity analysis for calculating the variable importance as follows:

591 **1.** Calculate G_{ik} by multiplying the absolute values of hidden-output weight with the absolute value of
 592 input-hidden weight of each input variable j , that is, $|w_{ko} \times w_{ik}|$. e.g. From table 7 ($G_{11} = -0.9407 \times -$
 593 $0.5494 = 0.5168$)

594 **2.** For each hidden neuron, divide G_{ik} by the sum of all the input variables to obtain Q_{ik} :

$$Q_{ik} = G_{ik} / \sum_{k=1}^m G_{ik} \tag{20}$$

596 e.g., ($Q_{11} = 0.5168 / (0.5168 + 0.4124 + 0.0518 + 0.0052 + 0.0391 + 0.0154 + 0.0479 + 0.0121) =$
 597 0.4694)

598 **3.** For each input neuron, obtain F_k as the sum of Q_{ik} :

$$F_k = \sum_{i=1}^n Q_{ik} \tag{21}$$

600
 601 e.g., ($F_{11} = 0.4694 + 0.1822 + 0.1684 + 0.0612 + 0.1667 + 0.0588 = 1.1069$)

602 **4.** Calculate the percentage relative importance (R_I) of each variable as follows:

$$R_I = \left(F_k / \sum_{k=1}^m F_j \right) \times 100 \tag{22}$$

604 e.g., ($R_I = 100 \times (1.1069 / (1.1069 + 0.9173 + 0.9783 + 0.0604 + 0.8315 + 0.6852 + 0.5980 + 0.4664 + 0.4161))$)
 605 $= 18.449 \%$

606 Complete calculations for variable importance are given below:

	0.517	0.412	0.052	0.005	0.039	0.015	0.048	0.012
	0.026	0.027	0.009	0.023	0.011	0.032	0.006	0.007
G_{ik}	0.826	0.528	0.104	1.658	0.451	0.270	0.160	0.906
	3.125	0.735	1.869	6.808	18.606	14.331	2.847	2.680
	0.873	0.582	0.638	0.864	0.421	0.049	1.261	0.550
	0.086	0.167	1.005	0.043	0.050	0.014	0.076	0.016
	Q_{ik}							
	0.4694	0.3746	0.0471	0.0047	0.0355	0.0140	0.0436	0.0110
	0.1823	0.1946	0.0620	0.1608	0.0783	0.2290	0.0414	0.0517
	0.1685	0.1077	0.0213	0.3381	0.0919	0.0550	0.0327	0.1848
	0.0613	0.0144	0.0366	0.1335	0.3648	0.2810	0.0558	0.0525
	0.1667	0.1112	0.1217	0.1649	0.0804	0.0094	0.2407	0.1051
	0.0588	0.1149	0.6896	0.0295	0.0343	0.0096	0.0524	0.0109
F_k	1.1070	0.9173	0.9783	0.8315	0.6852	0.5980	0.4665	0.4161
R_I	18.45	15.29	16.31	13.86	11.42	9.97	7.77	6.94
	q	Ms	γ	i / ϕ	PS_H	PS_B	z/B	e/B

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816 **Table 1.** Properties of soils used in the finite element model

Soil type	Total unit weight, γ (kN/m ³)	Elastic modulus, E_s (MPa)	Friction angle, ϕ (degree)	Poisson's ratio, ν_s -	Dilation angle, ψ (degree)
s_1	19.0	17.5	30	0.333	3.4
s_2	19.9	25.0	33	0.313	5.8
s_3	20.5	35.0	36	0.291	8.0
s_4	20.9	50.0	39	0.270	10.0
s_5	21.1	65.0	42	0.249	11.5

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861 **Table 2.** Properties of the different conduit materials used in the finite element model

Conduit material		Parameter					
		D_{inner}	t	B_c	EA	EI	ν_c
		m	mm	m	kN/m	kNm ² /m	-
Reinforced concrete	RC ₁	2.0	190.5	2.38	5.7×10^6	1.7×10^4	0.3
	RC ₂	2.0	100.0	2.2	3.0×10^6	2.5×10^3	0.3
Corrugated steel	CS ₁	2.0	60.02	2.12	7.0×10^5	211.5	0.28
	CS ₂	2.0	32.14	2.06	3.1×10^5	26.7	0.28
High density polyethylene	HDPE	2.0	63.26	2.13	4.2×10^3	1.4	0.46

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Table 3. Statistical details of various input and output parameters

Parameter	Symbol	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Applied pressure (kPa)	q	25	100	62.5	27.95
Constrained modulus of soil (kPa)	M_s	26217	77855	49502.1	18645.9
Total unit weight of soil (kN/m ³)	γ	19	21.1	20.28	0.76
Dilation angle of soil (degrees)	ψ	0	11.5		
Hoop stiffness of conduit (kPa)	PS_H	4071	5204291	1808684	1970423
Bending stiffness of conduit (kPa)	PS_B	8.56	86841	20541.9	33591.1
Poisson's ratio of the conduit	ν_c	0.28	0.46		
Slope angle ratio	i/ϕ	0	1		
Burial depth of the conduit	z/B	1	3	2	0.82
Crest distance of the footing	e/B	0	3	1.5	1.11
Footing settlement (%)	s/B	25.5	0.06	0.706	1.42

900 SD: Standard deviation

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904 **Table 4:** Performance and ranking of all the machine learning models in training dataset

Statistical indices	Network performances in training dataset				
	MLP	GPR	LKS	DT	RF
Pearson r	0.977	0.931	0.901	0.92	0.981
RMSE	0.298	0.5	0.536	0.491	0.273
NSE	0.937	0.851	0.76	0.831	0.933
SI	0.31	0.43	0.73	0.74	0.35
RPD	4.31	3.67	2.31	2.53	3.93
Partial scores of the models					
	MLP	GPR	LKS	DT	RF
Pearson r	4	3	1	2	5
RMSE	5	2	1	3	4
NSE	5	3	1	2	4
SI	5	3	2	1	4
RPD	5	3	1	2	4
Total ranking score	24	14	6	10	21

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909 **Table 5:** Performance and ranking of all the machine learning models in testing dataset

Statistical indices	Network performances in testing dataset				
	MLP	GPR	LKS	DT	RF
Pearson r	0.974	0.905	0.876	0.87	0.964
RMSE	0.323	0.518	0.673	0.613	0.349
NSE	0.928	0.817	0.691	0.743	0.916
SI	0.44	0.76	1.01	1.04	0.52
RPD	3.75	2.34	1.8	1.97	3.46
Partial scores of the models					
	MLP	GPR	LKS	DT	RF
Pearson r	5	3	2	1	4
RMSE	5	3	1	2	4
NSE	5	3	1	2	4
SI	5	3	2	1	4
RPD	5	3	1	2	4
Total ranking score	25	15	7	8	20

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924 **Table 6:** Final ranking of all the proposed machine learning models

Dataset	Statistical indices	Partial ranking scores				
		MLP	GPR	K-star	DT	RF
Training	Pearson r	4	3	1	2	5
	RMSE	4	2	1	3	5
	NSE	5	3	1	2	4
	SI	5	3	2	1	4
	RPD	5	3	1	2	4
Testing	Pearson r	5	3	1	2	4
	RMSE	5	2	1	3	4
	NSE	5	3	1	2	4
	SI	5	3	2	1	4
	RPD	5	3	1	2	4
Total ranking score		48	28	12	20	42
Final rank		1	3	5	4	2

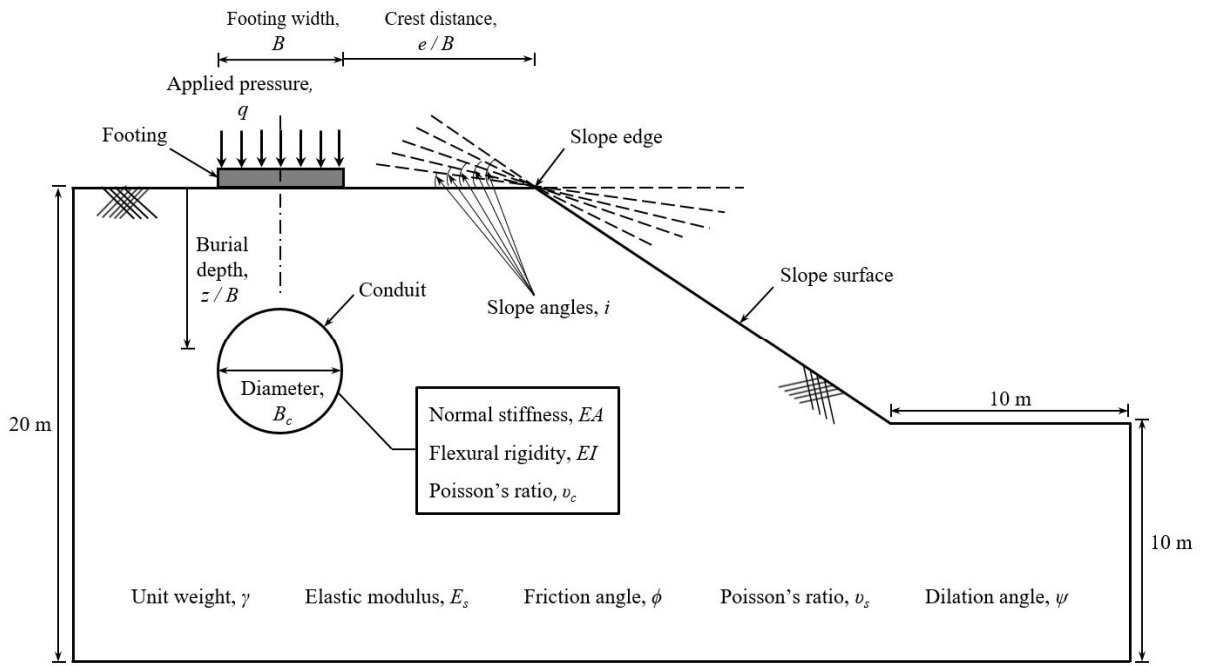
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Table 7: Weights and biases of the developed MLP network

Weights of input layer - hidden layer, w_{ik}								Hidden layer bias λ_k
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
-0.9407	-0.7507	-0.0944	-0.0095	0.0712	-0.0281	-0.0873	-0.0221	-3.617
0.553	0.5903	0.1881	0.4877	0.2375	0.6948	-0.1255	0.157	-3.561
1.524	-0.9739	-0.1923	3.059	-0.8318	0.4979	-0.2954	-1.672	-6.715
-1.978	0.465	1.183	-4.309	11.776	-9.07	1.8021	1.696	12.391
0.93	-0.62	0.679	0.9196	0.4482	-0.0522	-1.3427	-0.586	-6.419
-0.0839	-0.164	0.9839	-0.0421	0.0489	0.0137	0.0747	0.0156	-3.277
Weights of hidden-ouput layer, w_{ko}								Output layer bias λ_o
	-0.549	0.0463	0.542	-1.58	-0.939	-1.021	-0.549	0.6951

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952 **Fig. 1.** Large-scale slope model used for the FEM analysis

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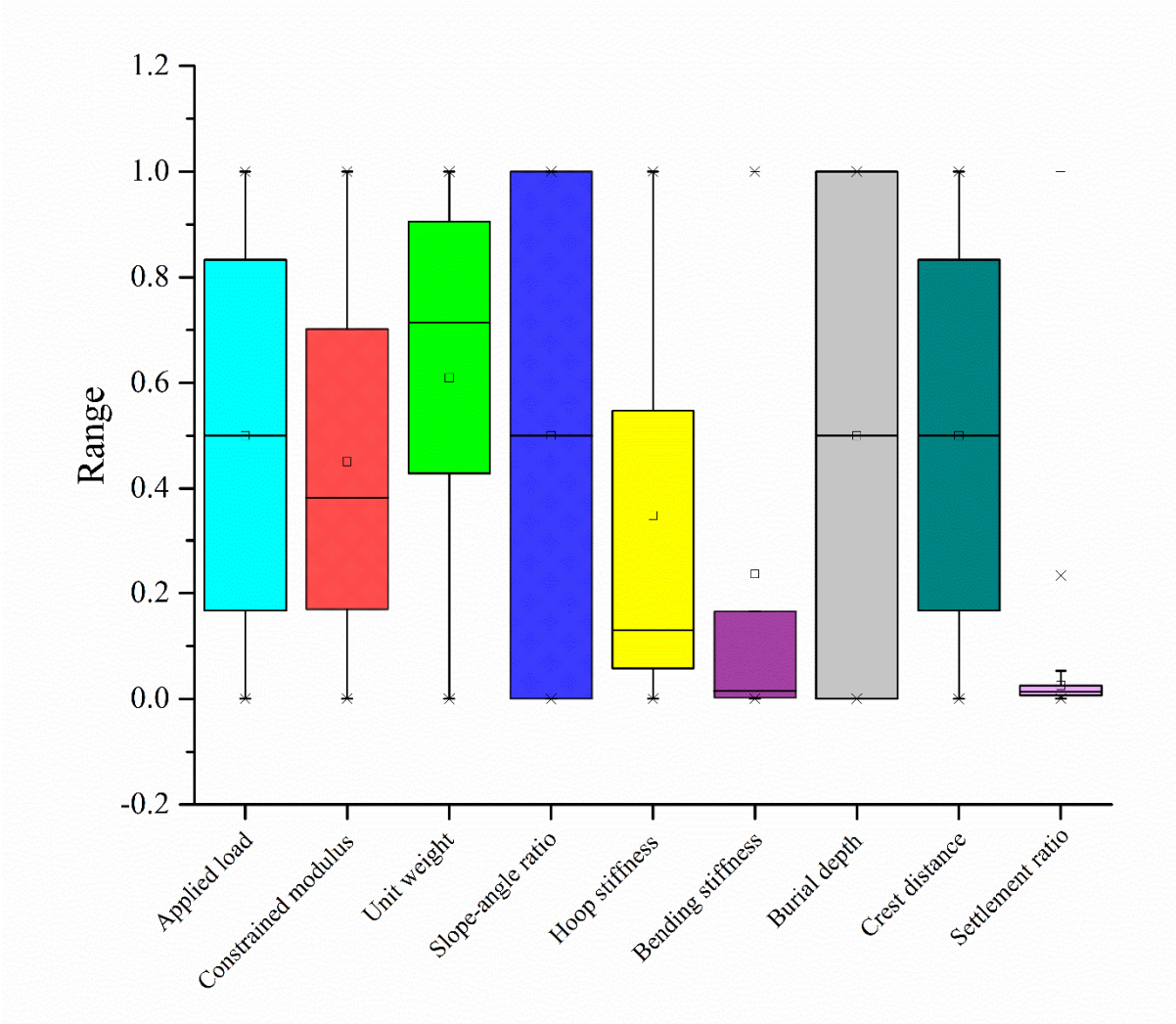
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970 **Fig. 2.** Box and whisker plots of the dataset

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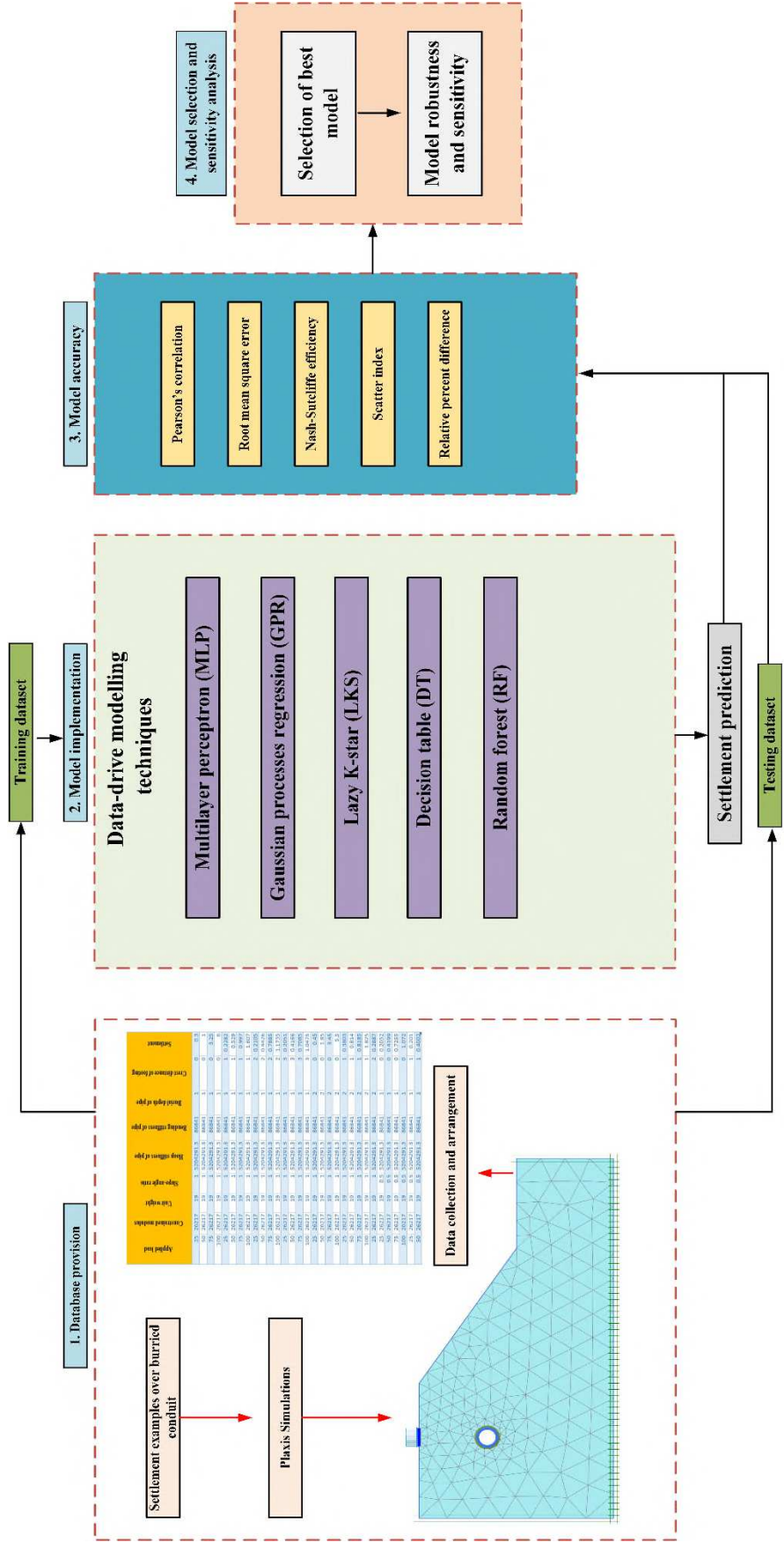
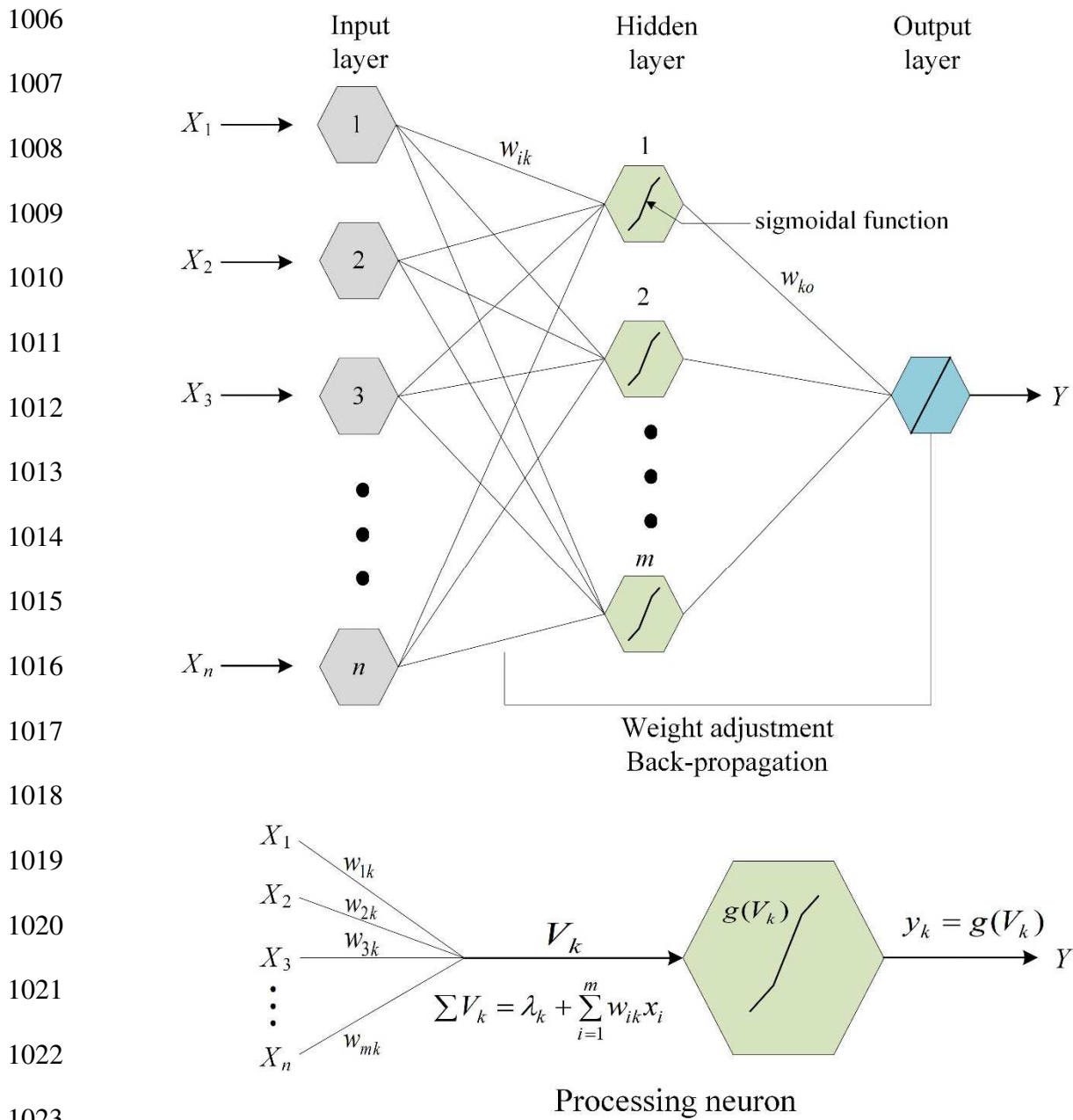
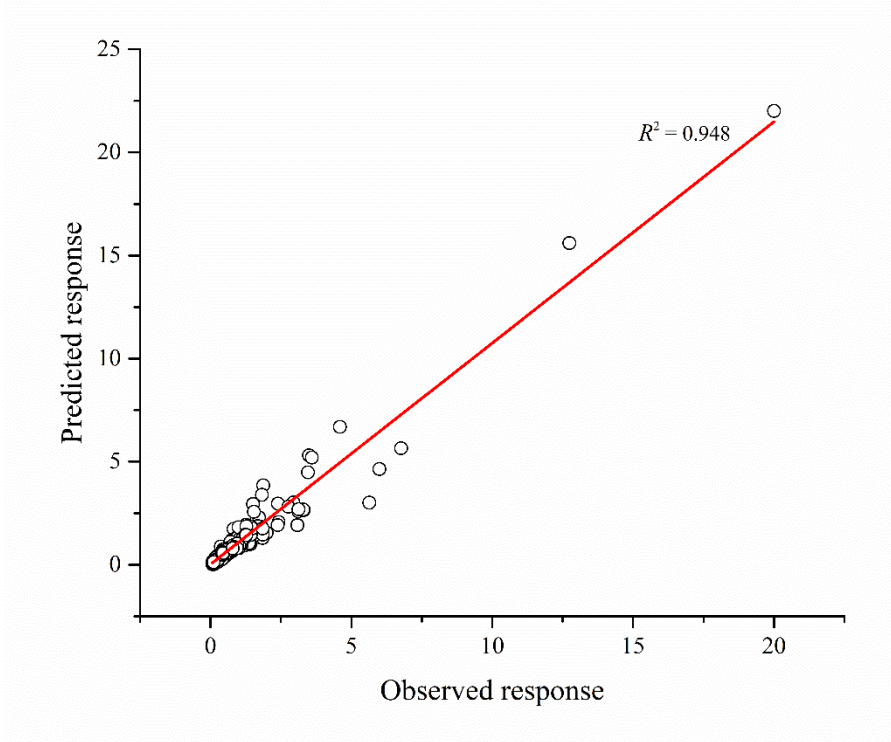


Fig. 3. Research framework employed in the present study

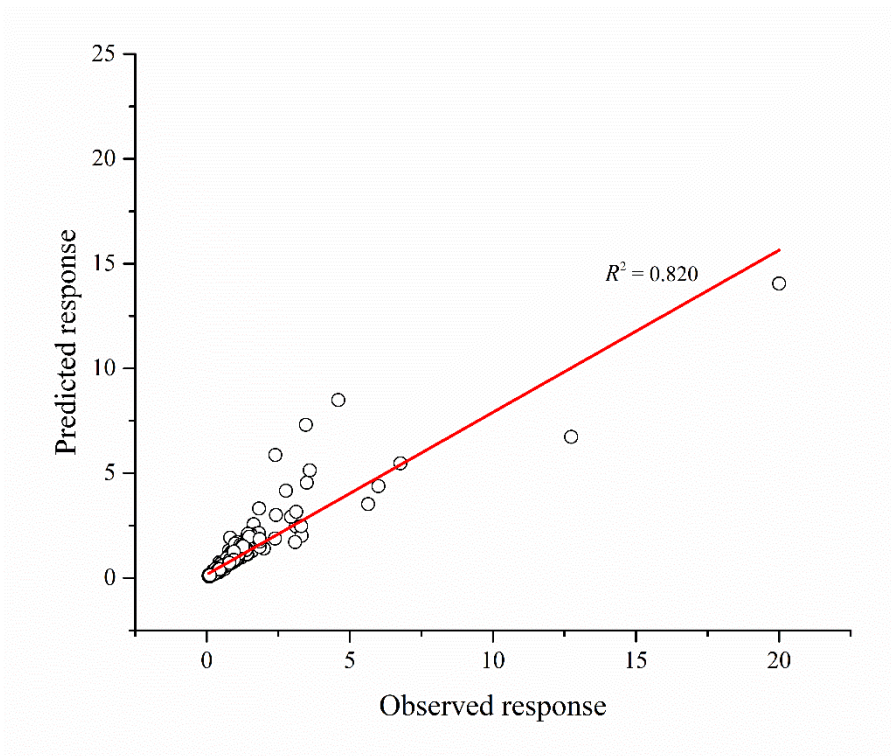


1024 **Fig. 4.** Feed-forward MLP structure (adapted from Shahin, 2010)

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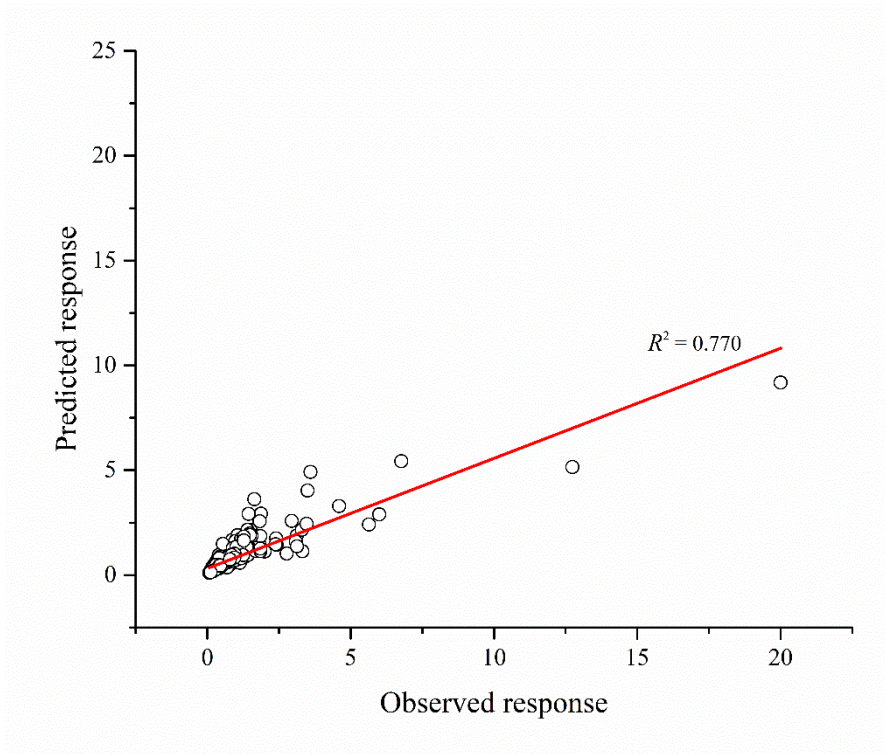
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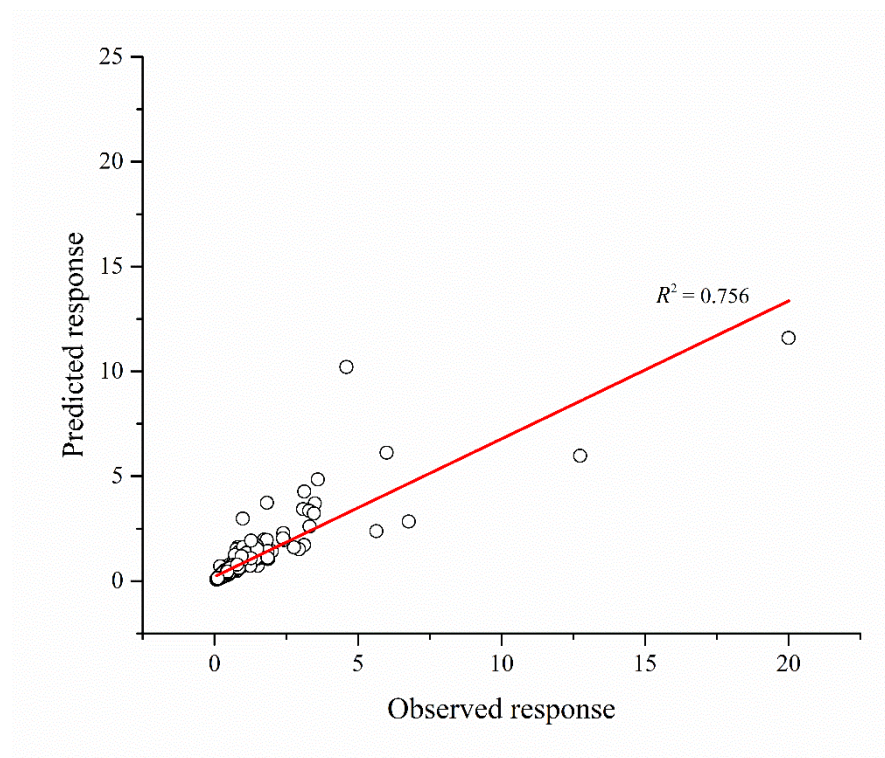
(b)

Fig. 5. Correlation between observed and predicted settlement values for: (a) MLP; (b) GPR; (c) LKS; (d) DT and (e) RF

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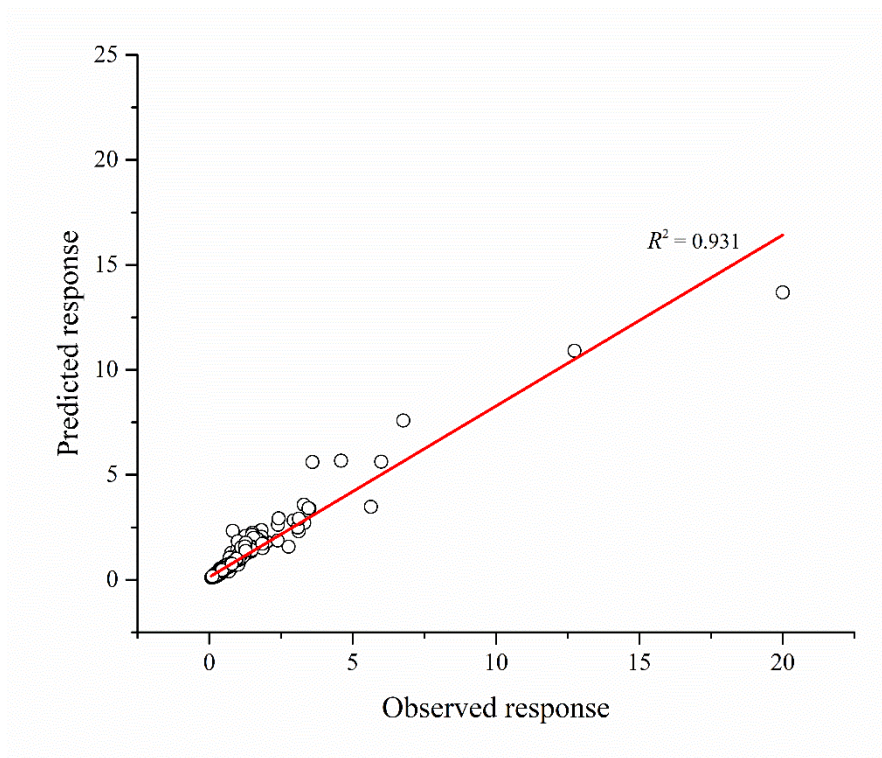
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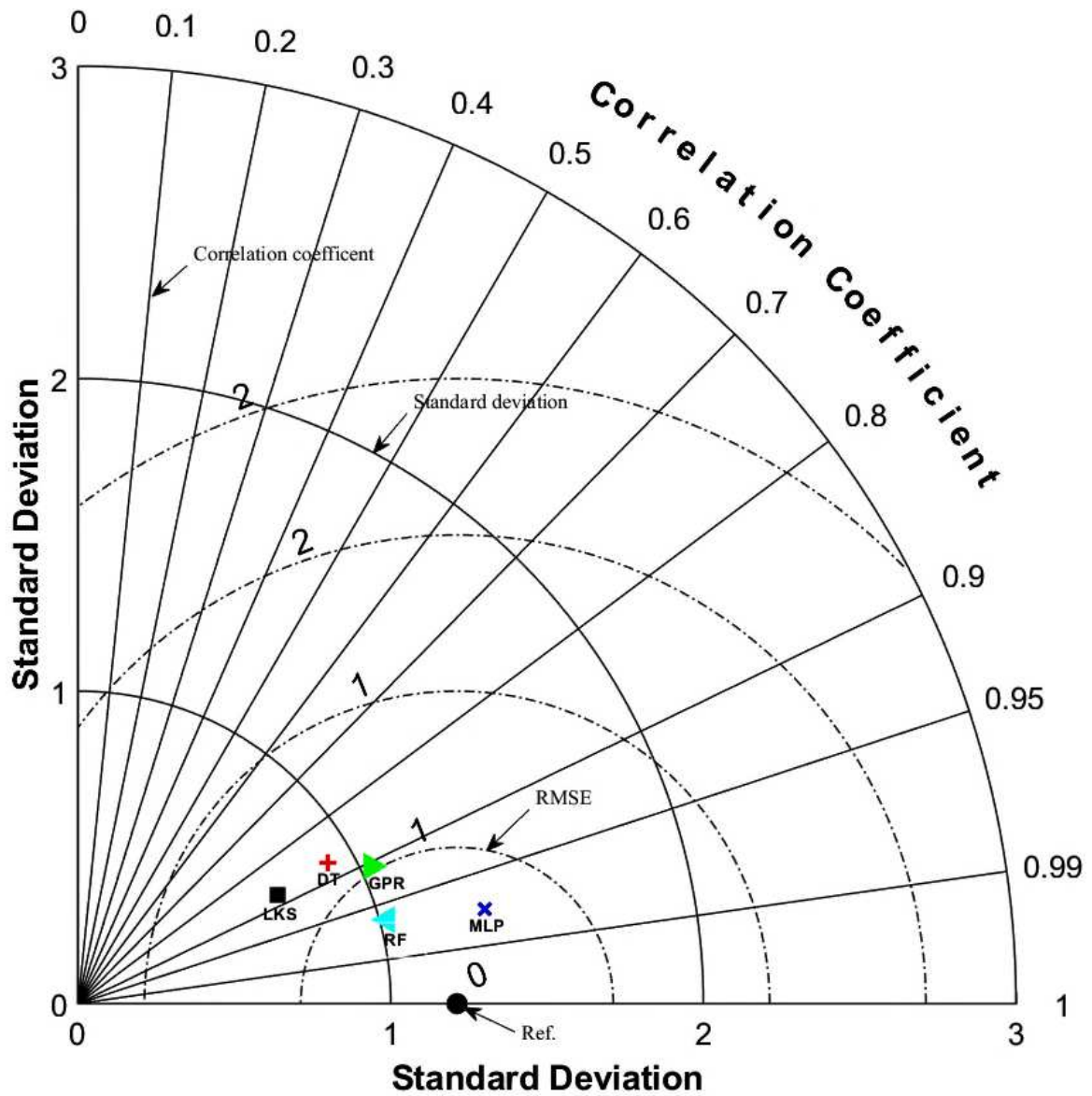
Fig. 5. continued

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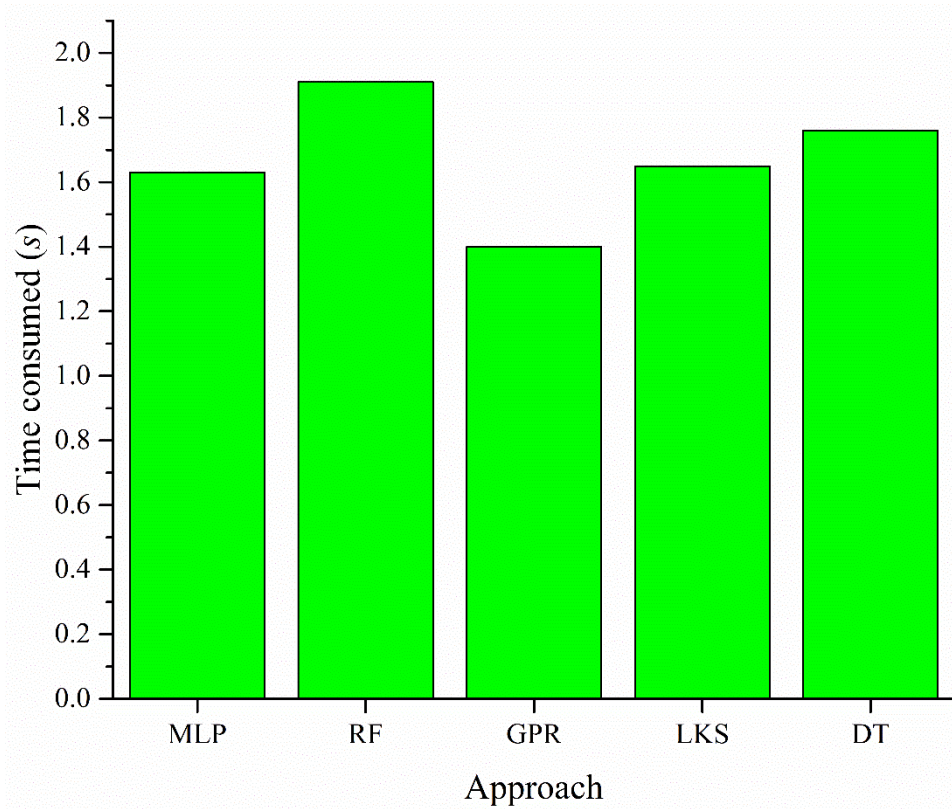
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Fig. 5. continued



1098 **Fig. 6.** Taylor's diagram for all the data-driven modelling techniques

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1101 **Fig.7:** Time consumption of various approaches

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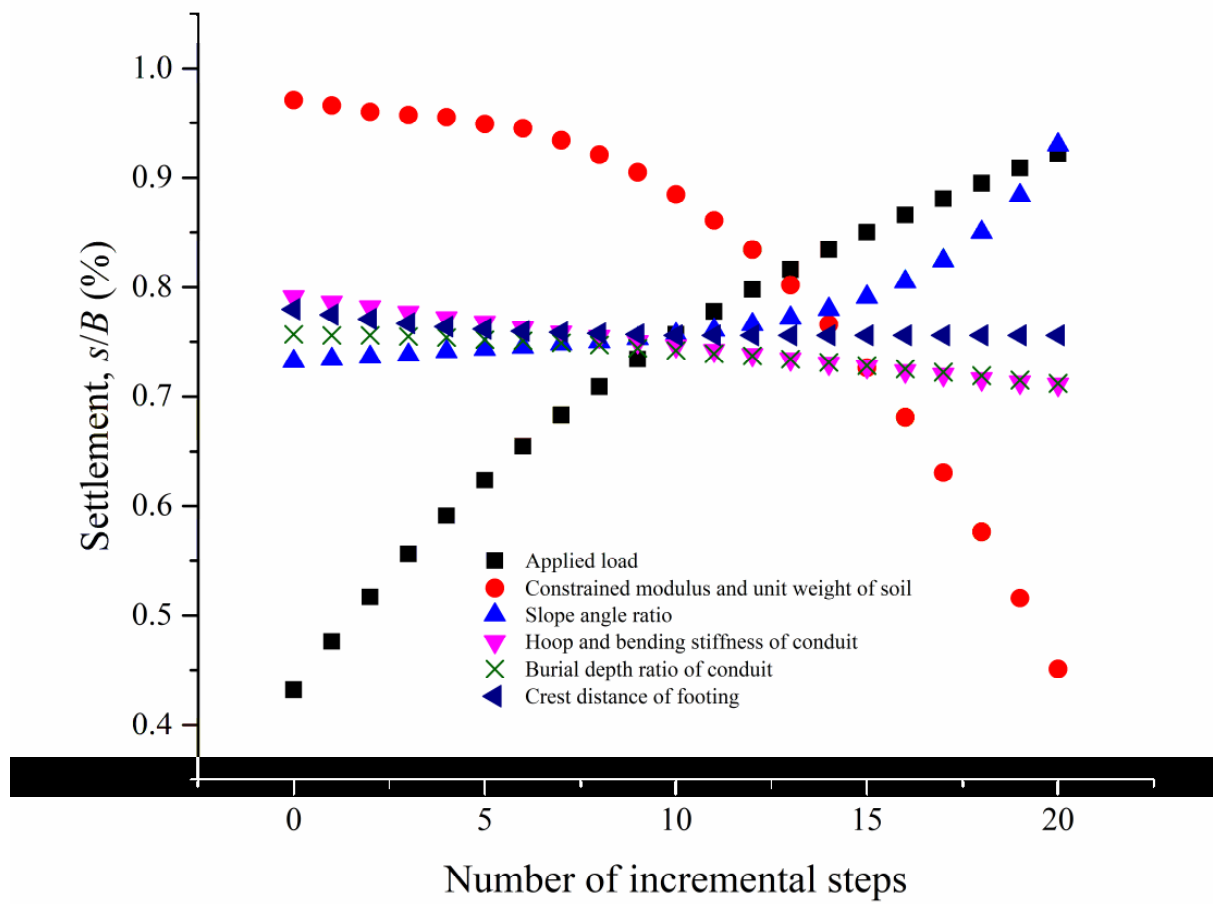
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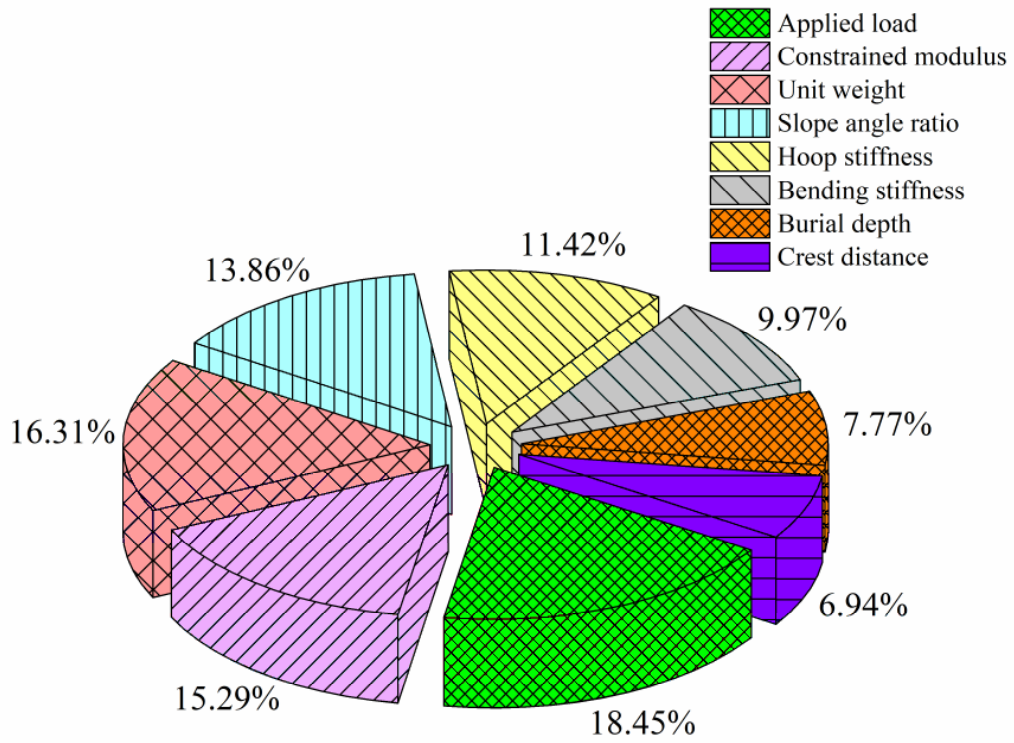
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1108 **Fig. 8.** Reliability and robustness analysis of the developed MLP model

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1110 **Fig. 9.** Sensitivity analysis according to the Garson's algorithm of the MLP model

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