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Axial and Radial Thermal Responses of a Field-Scale Energy Pile under Monotonic and Cyclic Temperature Changes

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Authors

Faizal, Mohammed
Bouazza, Abdelmalek
Haberfield, Chris
[et al.](#)

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33 **Abstract**

34

35 The axial and radial thermal responses of a field-scale energy pile installed in dense sand and
36 subjected to monotonic and cyclic temperatures are examined. It is found that the axial thermal
37 strains in the pile are more restricted to thermal expansion/contraction compared to radial
38 thermal strains. The radial thermal strains are close to that of a pile expanding/contracting
39 freely, indicating minimal resistance from the surrounding soil in the radial direction. As a
40 result, very low magnitudes of radial thermal stresses developed in the pile compared to axial
41 thermal stresses. The pile-soil radial contact stresses estimated from cavity expansion analysis
42 are up to 12 kPa for a pile temperature change of 22.5°C and are likely negligible for the range
43 of commonly-encountered operating temperatures of energy piles installed in dense sand.
44 During cyclic heating and cooling, unstable changes in axial and radial thermal strains were
45 observed initially during initial cycles indicating a ratcheting response. The changes in strains
46 became more stable over further cycles, without significant changes in side friction, pile-soil
47 contact stresses, or strength of the dense sand.

48

49 *Keywords: Energy piles; field tests; axial thermal response; radial thermal response;*
50 *monotonic temperatures; cyclic temperatures.*

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56

57 **Introduction**

58

59 Energy piles support buildings while acting as underground heat exchangers coupled with
60 ground source heat pumps to assist in maintaining thermal comfort in built structures (Brandl,
61 2006; DeMoel et al., 2010; Bouazza et al., 2011). Depending on usage requirements, energy
62 piles typically experience temperatures ranging from 10 to 35°C related to monotonic heating
63 and cooling (Brandl, 2006; Murphy and McCartney, 2012, 2015; McCartney and Murphy
64 2017), including daily fluctuations in temperature resulting from intermittent operations
65 associated with natural and forced ground thermal recharging. Ground thermal recharging
66 involves injecting additional heat into the system while operating a heat pump to meet the
67 cyclic heating and cooling demands of the building, and is beneficial in improving geothermal
68 energy utilization and helps in maintaining a balance of ground temperatures (Yi et al., 2008;
69 Wood et al., 2010; Jalaluddin and Miyara, 2012).

70

71 Temperature changes can induce volumetric changes of an energy pile and can potentially
72 affect the interaction between the energy pile and the soil. Recent studies on field scale energy
73 piles have assessed their thermal response mostly when they are subjected to monotonic heating
74 (Laloui et al., 2006; Bourne-Webb et al., 2009; Akrouch et al., 2014; Mimouni, 2014; Mimouni
75 and Laloui, 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Murphy et al., 2015; Sutman et al., 2015) or under normal
76 seasonal heat pump operation (Brandl 2006; Murphy and McCartney 2012, 2015; McCartney
77 and Murphy 2017). The thermal response of field scale energy piles subjected to daily cyclic
78 temperatures under intermittent operations of a heat pump with natural ground thermal
79 recovery has only recently started to receive interest (Faizal et al., 2016), and practically no
80 assessments have been reported in the literature for daily cyclic temperatures resulting from
81 forced ground thermal recharging. Frequent temperature reversals may induce different
82 magnitudes of thermal loads in the pile and at the pile-soil interface compared to monotonic

83 temperature changes. Depending on the soil surrounding the energy pile, thermal cycles could
84 cause fatigue-like processes which could intensify deformations of the pile and the surrounding
85 soil (Suryatriyastuti et al. 2013; Olgun et al., 2014; Pasten and Santamarina 2014). Although
86 investigated using numerical simulations for energy piles in idealized soil layers, this cyclic
87 thermal mechanism is not well understood at a field scale.

88

89 A number of small-scale physical model studies have characterized the axial thermal response
90 of energy piles for monotonic heating (McCartney and Rosenberg, 2011; Ng et al., 2014b;
91 Goode and McCartney, 2015) and cyclic temperatures (Kalantidou et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2014a;
92 Stewart and McCartney, 2014; Yavari et al., 2014, 2016a; Ng et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016).
93 These small-scale model studies, however, are still representative of idealized soil layers that
94 do not represent field conditions or installation effects, and do not have sufficient space to
95 include instrumentation to evaluate the thermal strains in the axial and radial directions. Such
96 information requires confirmation from instrumented energy piles in the field.

97

98 Moreover, most previous studies on field scale energy piles have assessed their axial thermal
99 responses under monotonic increases or decreases in temperature (Bourne-Webb et al., 2009;
100 Akrouch et al., 2015; Murphy et al., 2015) or under actual heat pump operation (Murphy and
101 McCartney, 2015; McCartney and Murphy, 2017), both of which do not permit a simple
102 evaluation of the long-term effects of cyclic heating and cooling. Further, consideration of
103 radial strains in energy piles are limited to a few studies (Laloui et al., 2006; Mimouni, 2014;
104 Mimouni and Laloui, 2015; Wang et al., 2015, Wang, 2017). An assessment of the radial
105 thermal response of field-scale energy piles will clarify if lateral expansion/contraction of the
106 pile could cause pile and soil deformations under monotonic and cyclic temperatures.
107 Evaluation of the radial thermal response will also provide confirmation of the role of pile-soil

108 interface stresses due to radial thermal expansion of energy piles on their ultimate capacity,
109 which has been proposed as a possible mechanism contributing to the side shear resistance of
110 centrifuge-scale energy piles in compacted silt along with changes in effective stress in
111 unsaturated soils associated with thermally induced drying (McCartney and Rosenberg, 2011;
112 Goode and McCartney, 2015). Preliminary numerical and analytical studies using cavity
113 expansion analyses by Olgun et al. (2014) and Zhou et al. (2016) indicate that no significant
114 changes in pile-soil interface stresses are expected from the radial thermal expansion of the
115 pile. However, these studies have not been validated against field scale studies.

116

117 The main objective of this paper is to explore the axial and radial thermal responses of a field
118 scale energy pile at a similar depth during both monotonic and cyclic changes in pile
119 temperatures. The energy pile, previously studied by Wang et al. (2015) and Singh et al. (2015),
120 was subjected to four operational temperature modes, including monotonic heating, monotonic
121 cooling, intermittent cooling with natural ground thermal recharging, and intermittent cooling
122 with forced ground thermal recharging. Different pile temperatures were observed to lead to
123 different magnitudes of axial and radial thermal loads in the pile and at the pile-soil interface.

124

125 **Ground Conditions**

126

127 The soil deposit at the pile test site is part of the Brighton Group Sediments, which is an
128 important geological unit of Melbourne because of its extensive surface coverage of the south-
129 eastern suburbs of the city. The Brighton Group consists of two major formations: the Red
130 Bluff Sands and the underlying Black Rock Sandstone. The Red Bluff Sands are commonly
131 encountered in outcrop and include clays, sandy clays, clayey sands, sands and occasionally
132 silts. The stratigraphy of the Red Bluff Sands frequently shows a surface layer of clay or clayey

133 sand with a decrease in clay content with depth leading into silty sands and sands. The ground
134 conditions at the test site are summarized in Table 1. At the test site, the soil profile consists of
135 dense sand below a depth of 2.5 m. There is no groundwater table present at the test site within
136 the depth of the pile (Wang et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2015), and the soil is unsaturated.

137

138 **Energy Pile Details and Experimental Procedures**

139

140 A schematic of the instrumented energy pile used in this study is shown in Fig. 1. The 0.6 m
141 diameter bored pile was installed to a depth of 16.1 m, and included a two-level Osterberg Cell
142 (O-Cell) load testing system. Three high-density polyethylene (HDPE) pipe closed loop heat
143 exchangers in a “U” configuration (U-loops), having outer and inner pipe diameters of 25 mm
144 and 20 mm, respectively, were attached to the inside of the reinforcing cage of the pile. The
145 pipes were installed 50 mm from the edge of the pile and up to a depth of 14.2 m. The horizontal
146 spacing between the loops was approximately 175 mm. The head of the pile is free to move
147 during heating and cooling, so the effects of the head restraint are assumed to be negligible
148 (Knellwolf et al., 2011; Chen and McCartney, 2016). Further, the toe of the pile is assumed to
149 be free to move downward due to the presence of the O-Cells. Accordingly, the upper portion
150 of the energy pile is assumed to only be restrained by the mobilized side shear forces, and the
151 end restraint boundary conditions on the axial thermal response of the energy pile can be
152 neglected.

153

154 The pile was specifically designed to study the changes in pile shaft capacity after thermal
155 loading (Wang et al., 2015), and thus is different from a conventional energy pile (i.e, it
156 included two O-cells). The two O-Cells were located at depths of approximately 10 m and 14
157 m, dividing the pile into three sections: a 10 m-long upper section, a 4 m-long middle section,

158 and a lower 1 m-long section. Only the upper pile section is considered for analysis in this
159 paper. The axial and radial thermal responses are assessed at depths of 5.4 m and 6.4 m,
160 respectively. These depths are within the same soil layer and are close enough that the thermo-
161 mechanical response of the energy pile is assumed to be the same. As indicated earlier, the
162 focus of this paper is on a comparison of the magnitudes of axial and radial thermal strains and
163 stresses at a single depth, which are a function of the restraint provided by the surrounding
164 subsurface on the energy pile. This is a different analysis from previous studies that focused on
165 evaluation of the shapes of the thermal strain and stress profiles as a function of depth to
166 evaluate soil-structure interaction mechanisms (Bourne-Webb et al., 2009; Murphy et al., 2015;
167 Murphy and McCartney, 2015; McCartney and Murphy, 2017). It is possible that the
168 comparison between the axial and radial thermal strains and stresses may be different near the
169 ends of the piles, which is one reason that the particular location between 5.4 m and 6.4 m was
170 selected for this evaluation.

171

172 Embedment and sister bar vibrating wire strain gauges were installed at different depths in the
173 pile, shown in Fig. 1. Type K thermocouples recorded the inlet and outlet water temperatures
174 at the pile head. The thermocouple data were logged using a Pico Technology's USB-TC08
175 data logger. Data from strain gauges were recorded using DataTaker's DT80G and CEM20
176 data loggers. The concrete mix used in the pile was supplied by Holcim Australia Pty. Ltd. It
177 consisted of 7 mm aggregates, cement, and fly ash with a water to cement ratio of 0.45. The
178 compressive strength of the pile concrete was 40.9 MPa and 65.6 MPa after 35 and 210 days,
179 respectively (Wang, 2017). The cooling and heating units were connected to the pile inlet and
180 outlet using insulated HDPE pipes, with an approximate length of 15 m. The pile head and the
181 ground surface were not restrained and were exposed to the atmosphere.

182

183 Four sets of experiments were carried out in this study in the following sequence: 1) monotonic
184 heating for twenty-four hours (24H mode) with a water flow rate of 10 liters per minute (LPM)
185 and a target inlet water temperature of 45 °C. (note: the inlet water temperature increased
186 gradually throughout the test and was not constant); 2) monotonic cooling for twenty-four
187 hours (24C mode) with a water flow rate of 15 LPM, and a target inlet water temperature of
188 5 °C; 3) cooling for sixteen hours followed by eight hours rest (16N mode), daily, simulating
189 intermittent operation with natural ground thermal recovery with a flow rate of 15 LPM and an
190 inlet water temperature of 5°C; and 4) cooling for sixteen hours followed by heating for eight
191 hours (16F mode), simulating daily intermittent operation with scheduled forced ground
192 thermal recovery for a solar-hybrid system with a flow rate of 15 LPM and an inlet water
193 temperature ranging from 7 to 16 °C in the cooling cycle, and a flow rate of 13.5 LPM and an
194 inlet water temperature ranging from 30 to 55 °C during the heating cycle. The inlet water
195 temperatures for all experiments are shown in Fig. 2. The water temperatures from each cycle
196 affected the other cycle throughout the experiments when switching between cooling and
197 heating cycles in the 16F mode. This variation in temperature is expected in practice in
198 geothermal systems with alternating heating/cooling operations (Dai et al., 2015). The fluid
199 flow in the heat exchange tubing with the pile was stopped multiple times to control the inlet
200 water temperatures before re-establishing flow. there was an operational failure of the cooling
201 unit for approximately 16 hours on Day 21 in the 24C mode, and an operational failure of the
202 cooling unit for 15 hours on Day 16 in the 16F mode, but these did not have major effects on
203 the interpretation of the test results. After the experiments resumed, the magnitudes of the pile
204 temperatures (Fig. 4) and thermal strains (Fig. 5) in the 24C and 16F modes stabilized to the
205 magnitudes recorded before the operational failure, hence confirming the repeatability of the
206 tests. A summary of the experiments is given in Table 2. Up to twenty-four days of data are

207 considered for all modes for the sake of brevity in the analysis. The pile temperatures and
208 thermal strains recovered to near initial conditions after completion of the experiments.

209

210 **Mechanisms of Thermal Response**

211

212 The mechanisms of axial thermal response of energy piles has been widely evaluated using
213 experimental results from previous field studies (Bourne-Webb et al., 2009; Amatya et al.,
214 2012; Bourne-Webb et al., 2013) while only a limited evaluation of the mechanism of radial
215 thermal response has been performed (Olgun et al., 2014). As indicated earlier, the upper
216 portion of the energy pile evaluated in this study is assumed to be restrained by the mobilized
217 side shear forces only while the effect of the end restraint boundary conditions on the axial
218 thermal response can be neglected owing to the unconfined condition at the ground surface and
219 the presence of the O-Cell at the toe (i.e., the pile can be treated as a floating pile with no end
220 restraints). Based on these assumptions, a mechanism of axial and radial thermal responses of
221 the upper pile section is adopted for analysis of results as shown in Fig. 3. The mechanisms
222 considered herein are based on the expansive and contractive forces in the pile and the resulting
223 reaction forces at the pile-soil interface and do not consider the thermo-hydro-mechanical
224 processes in the surrounding soil. The sign convention in this study is similar to that in
225 engineering mechanics, where positive and negative stresses correspond to tension and
226 compression, respectively.

227

228 The thermally induced expansive and contractive forces developed in the energy pile are
229 opposed by the side shear restraint provided by the surrounding subsurface, and as a result,
230 additional thermal stresses are developed in the pile and at the pile soil interface. During heating,
231 the pile expands axially outwards from the null point (the point in the pile where thermally

232 induced displacement is zero). The reaction forces or mobilized axial side shear stresses act in
233 the opposite direction of expansion i.e. downward friction develops above the null point and
234 upward friction develops below the null point. Compressive thermal stresses are developed in
235 the pile due to the restraint provided by the surrounding soil (Fig. 3a). Axial pile contraction
236 due to cooling develops opposite effects to that of heating, i.e. the pile contracts axially towards
237 the null point, the mobilized axial side shear stresses act upwards above the null point and
238 downwards below the null point, and expansive thermal stresses are developed in the pile (Fig.
239 3b). No axial thermal stresses develop at the ends of the pile for both cooling and heating due
240 to the lack of end restraint boundary conditions.

241

242 Lateral expansion from heating, which is assumed to occur radially outwards from the center
243 of the pile, leads to the development of compressive radial stresses in the pile due to the restraint
244 provided by the surrounding subsurface. The reactive forces from the surrounding soil or the
245 radial pile-soil contact stresses are equal and opposite to that induced by pile radial expansion
246 to maintain radial stress equilibrium (Fig. 3c). Lateral contraction from cooling develops radial
247 thermal responses opposite to that of heating (Fig. 3d). The following results and discussions
248 are based on these thermal response mechanisms.

249

250 **Results and Discussions**

251

252 *Pile Temperatures*

253

254 The pile temperatures at depths of 5.4 m and 6.4 m are shown in Figs. 4a and 4b, respectively,
255 while the changes in pile temperature, ΔT , with respect to the initial undisturbed temperature of
256 the pile are shown in Figs. 4c and 4d, respectively. The initial pile temperatures at these two

257 depths range between 15.8 and 17.5°C, which are similar to the initial temperatures of the soil
258 at these depths below ground surface (Singh et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2015).

259

260 The pile temperatures at both depths show similar trends and magnitudes, with a difference of
261 less than 0.5 °C. The ratio of pile temperatures at a depth of 5.4 m to a depth of 6.4 m is shown
262 in Fig. 4e, and is close to one. This confirms that the pile temperatures at these two locations
263 are similar. An almost constant pile temperature of 6 °C is obtained in the 24C mode. The pile
264 temperatures in the 24H mode gradually increased to 40 °C due to the gradual increase of the
265 inlet water temperatures shown in Fig. 2. The pile temperatures cycled between 6 and 9 °C in
266 the 16N mode and between 10 and 33 °C in the 16F mode.

267

268 Active heating during thermal recharging in the 16F mode developed much higher pile
269 temperatures compared to the 16N mode. The pile temperatures at the end of heating in the 16F
270 mode dropped slightly below the undisturbed pile temperatures; hence, the ΔT magnitudes
271 were also slightly negative at the end of heating. This led to difficulties in estimating the
272 transient mobilized thermal expansion coefficients and thermal stresses of the 16F mode, as
273 discussed in the following sections.

274

275 ***Pile Thermal Strains***

276

277 The transient axial and radial thermal strains induced in the concrete, ε_T , are shown in Figures
278 5a and 5b, respectively, for the four experiments. The thermal strains measured using the
279 vibrating wire strain gauges were corrected for temperature effects as follows:

280

$$281 \quad \varepsilon_T = (f_i^2 - f_o^2)GB + (T_i - T_o)\alpha_s \quad (1)$$

282

283 where f_i is the resonant frequency of the strain gauges at time i , f_o is the reference resonant
284 frequency of the strain gauges, GB is the calibration factor (G is gauge factor, and B is batch
285 factor) of the strain gauges, T_i is the temperature of the strain gauges at time i , T_o is the reference
286 temperature of the strain gauges, α_s is the coefficient of linear thermal expansion of steel wire
287 in the strain gauges ($12 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$). The value of f_o was selected at the beginning of each
288 experiment and thus removes the effects of any strains due to the self-weight of the pile or
289 curing of the concrete.

290

291 Both the axial and radial thermal strains closely follow the trends in monotonic and cyclic pile
292 temperature shown in Fig. 4. Similar to the magnitudes of ΔT during the 16F mode in Fig. 4,
293 the thermal strains in the 16F mode were slightly negative at end of heating indicating
294 expansion of the pile. Unlike the pile temperatures, the magnitudes of the axial and radial
295 thermal strains are different. Compared to the magnitudes of the axial thermal strains, the radial
296 thermal strains are up to 40% higher for all modes, indicating that the energy pile was more
297 restrained in the axial direction than the radial direction at this depth.

298

299 The relationships between the thermal strains and the change in pile temperature ΔT are shown
300 in Fig. 5c. The thermal strains and ΔT data were extracted at Day 20 of each experiment
301 (average values are taken for the 16F and 16N modes). The magnitude of axial thermal strains
302 for a given change in pile temperature is lower ($8.55 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$) than the radial thermal strains
303 ($11.71 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$), confirming that the side shear stresses provide more restraint to the axial thermal
304 strains than the surrounding subsurface to radial thermal strains. This led to the development
305 of larger axial thermal stresses than radial thermal stresses in the pile, which is discussed later
306 in the paper. The radial thermal strains reflect lower restraint to thermal expansion/contraction

307 compared to the axial thermal strains, which may be because the ratio of the pile diameter (D)
308 to the thermally active pile length (L) is small in magnitude (i.e., $D/L = 0.04$).

309

310 The ratios of axial to radial thermal strains for the four experiments are shown in Fig. 5d. The
311 16F mode experiment, as shown in Figs. 4c and 4d and Figs. 5a and 5b, faced frequent reversals
312 (i.e., cycling between negative and positive values). As a result, unrealistically high ratios of
313 axial to radial thermal strains are obtained in this experiment when compared to the other three
314 experiments, mainly when the thermal strains are close to zero. Further, unrealistically high
315 mobilized thermal expansion coefficients, $\alpha_{mobilized}$, (discussed later) are also obtained when
316 the thermal strain and ΔT values are close to zero, which led to difficulties in estimating the
317 transient thermal stresses in a pile experiencing temperature reversals similar to the
318 observations of Murphy and McCartney (2015). The issues of unrealistic ratios of thermal
319 strains and thermal expansion coefficients faced by frequent temperature reversals in the 16F
320 mode were addressed by translating the ΔT and thermal strain diagrams (Figs. 4c and d, and
321 Figs. 5a and b, respectively) vertically upwards by an amount equal to the minimum values on
322 the respective diagram. The minimum axial thermal strain and ΔT values were $-61.93 \mu\epsilon$
323 and -7.7°C , respectively, and the minimum radial thermal strain and ΔT values were $-97.55 \mu\epsilon$
324 and -7.5°C , respectively. This translation caused the thermal strain and ΔT magnitudes to
325 become positive and the issue of temperature reversals was thus eliminated.

326

327 The ratios of axial to radial thermal strains in Fig. 5d indicate a stable response with operating
328 time in the different experiments, indicating that the thermally induced volumetric
329 expansion/contraction of the pile at the considered location remains almost constant. The strain
330 ratio for the 24H, 24C, and the 16N modes are within the same band of magnitudes (i.e.,
331 between 0.7 and 0.77), indicating that monotonic and very low range cyclic temperatures leads

332 to similar volumetric expansions/contractions of the energy pile. The relatively large range of
333 cyclic temperatures in the 16F mode led to larger fluctuations in the thermal strain ratio
334 compared to other modes. However, the trend in the strain ratio in the 16F mode is also stable,
335 indicating that the volumetric expansion/contraction for large cyclic temperature fluctuations
336 is stable as well.

337

338 *Pile-Soil Radial Contact Stresses*

339

340 The pile-soil radial contact stresses, σ_n , resulting from the radial thermal expansion/contraction
341 of the pile were estimated using a cavity expansion analysis, given as follows:

342

$$343 \quad \sigma_n = \frac{E_s}{1+\nu_s} \frac{\Delta r}{r} \quad (2)$$

344

345 where E_s and ν_s are the Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio of the surrounding dense sand
346 (assumed to be 60 MPa and 0.3, respectively, based on typical values for dense sand), r is the
347 pile radius, and Δr is the thermally induced radial displacement of the pile. This displacement
348 acts against the restraint provided by the surrounding soil and affects the soil-pile radial
349 interface stress. The value of $\Delta r/r$ is assumed to be equal to the radial strain measured in the
350 experiment for a given change in temperature. Laboratory studies conducted on sand samples
351 collected from the site have shown that the shear strength of the dense sand is not affected by
352 temperature variations (Barry-Macaulay, 2013). Other studies have also indicated that the
353 effect of temperature variations on the shear strength of sand is insignificant (Donna et al. 2015;
354 Yavari et al., 2016b). Also, the thermally induced change in pile radius, Δr , is relatively small
355 compared to the initial pile radius. Hence, this simple model assuming a constant stiffness was
356 deemed to be useful for analyzing the pile-soil radial contact stresses.

357

358 The pile-soil radial contact stresses of all the studied modes are compared in Fig. 6a. The
359 contact stresses stabilize with time, indicating that there is no degradation in the pile-soil
360 contact stresses for the monotonic and cyclic temperatures studied. The numerical study
361 reported by Olgun et al. (2014) observed that the contact stresses between the pile and soil due
362 to radial thermal expansion during monotonic heating are small in magnitude, even for large
363 differences in thermal expansion coefficients for the two materials. A radial contact stress of
364 up to 15 kPa was reported in their study for a range of typical soil moduli and temperature
365 change up to 10°C, while a maximum value of up to 12 kPa is observed in the present study
366 for a change in temperature of 22.5 °C. The slope of the relationship between the contact
367 stresses and the change in pile temperatures, shown in Fig. 6b, is 0.54 kPa/°C. This small
368 magnitude of the slope indicates that the radial contact stresses of the pile-soil interface will
369 likely be negligible for the commonly encountered operating temperatures in energy piles and
370 the typical construction procedures used for cast-in place concrete energy piles.

371

372 *Thermal Expansion Coefficients and Thermal Stresses*

373

374 A comparison of the axial and radial thermal expansion coefficients of the concrete restrained
375 by the interaction between the pile and the soil ($\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients) is done for all the
376 modes. The transient axial and radial $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients are calculated by dividing the
377 thermal strains, ϵ_T , by the respective change in pile temperatures, ΔT .

378

379 The transient variations in the $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients for the 24C, 24H, 16N, and 16F modes
380 are shown in Figs. 7a to 7d, respectively. As discussed earlier, the thermal strains and ΔT

381 magnitudes in the 16F mode were translated to positive magnitudes to eliminate issues of
382 temperature reversals. The lower magnitude of the axial $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients than the radial
383 $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients for all four experiments reflect that the axial expansion/contraction of
384 the pile is more restrained, which again confirms that the energy pile is more restrained axially.
385 This leads to differences between the axial and radial thermal stresses developed in the pile,
386 shown in Fig. 8. The radial and axial $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients ranged between 10 and 13.8 $\mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$
387 and 6 and 12.2 $\mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$, respectively, for all four experiments. There are slight differences in the
388 $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients between the different modes due to differences in ΔT , and hence
389 differences in the thermal effects on pile expansion/contraction. The magnitudes of the radial
390 $\alpha_{mobilized}$ coefficients are closer to the magnitudes of the free (unrestrained) thermal
391 expansion coefficient of the concrete (α_{free} coefficients), indicating that the energy pile
392 expands/contracts almost freely in the radial direction with minimal restriction from the
393 surrounding soil. This may be due to the particular construction effects associated with drilled
394 shaft foundations.

395

396 The thermal axial and radial stresses developed in the pile were estimated as follows (Amatya
397 et al. 2012; Murphy et al., 2015; Caulk et al., 2016):

398

$$399 \quad \sigma_T = E_p(\alpha_{mobilized} - \alpha_{free})\Delta T \quad (3)$$

400

401 where E_p is the Young's modulus of the concrete (taken as 30 GPa), $\alpha_{mobilized}$ is the thermal
402 expansion coefficient of the concrete restrained by the pile-soil interaction, α_{free} is the free
403 (unrestrained) thermal expansion coefficient of the concrete, and ΔT is the change in concrete
404 temperature. An average value of $\alpha_{free} = 12 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$ was considered and was slightly adjusted
405 within $\pm 1 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$ for different operating modes to confirm that the magnitudes of the radial

406 thermal stresses developed in the pile are equal to the pile-soil radial contact stresses (i.e. $\sigma_n =$
407 σ_T for radial stress equilibrium). The coefficient of linear thermal expansion of concrete
408 depends on the aggregate mineralogy of the mix and has been reported to range from $9 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$
409 to $14.5 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$ while that of steel reinforcement has been reported to range from $11.9 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$ to
410 $13 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$ (Stewart and McCartney, 2014). An average value of $\alpha_{free} = 12 \mu\epsilon/^\circ\text{C}$ has been
411 used for analysing some field scale energy piles (Murphy and McCartney, 2012; Murphy et al.
412 2015; McCartney et al. 2015; Caulk et al., 2016) as differential thermal strains are not expected
413 between the concrete and the steel reinforcements. The sign convention used in this study is
414 similar to that in engineering mechanics, where negative stresses correspond to compression,
415 so the values of α have positive values.

416

417 The variations of axial and radial thermal stresses are shown in Figs. 8a and 8b, respectively.
418 Heating leads to the development of compressive stresses which are considered as negative
419 while cooling leads to the development of tensile stresses which are considered as positive. The
420 thermal stresses observed in all the experiments are much lower than the compressive strength
421 of the concrete, which are 40.9 and 65.6 MPa after 35 and 210 days, respectively. Hence, no
422 temperature-induced structural damage to the pile is expected for the range of temperatures
423 studied herein.

424

425 Since the thermal strains and ΔT in the 16F mode were translated to positive magnitudes when
426 calculating the thermal expansion coefficients, the radial thermal stresses of the 16F mode were
427 back-analyzed to estimate the magnitudes of the pile-soil contact stresses needed to maintain
428 radial thermal stress equilibrium (Fig. 8b). The offset is 4.5 kPa. The axial thermal stresses of
429 the 16F mode in Fig. 8a were however not back-analyzed as there was no reference value
430 available. The axial thermal strains in the 16F mode at end of the heating cycle do not exceed

431 that of the 24H mode (Fig. 5a). The thermal stresses in the 16F mode at the end of the heating
432 cycle are thus expected to be approximately equal to that of the 24H mode.

433

434 The radial thermal stresses are very small in magnitude when compared to the axial thermal
435 stresses in all four experiments. This is due to the differences in restrictions of the thermal
436 strains and mobilized thermal coefficients discussed in Figs. 5 and 7. The magnitude of the
437 radial thermal stresses against change in pile temperatures is thus very small ($-0.54 \text{ kPa}/^\circ\text{C}$)
438 compared to the axial thermal stresses ($-106.34 \text{ kPa}/^\circ\text{C}$), shown in Fig. 8c. Amatya et al. (2012)
439 assessed the axial thermal stresses against change in pile temperatures of the Lausanne energy
440 pile (Laloui et al., 2006) and the Lambeth College heat sink pile (Bourne-Webb et al., 2009)
441 without head loads and reported maximum values of $-104 \text{ kPa}/^\circ\text{C}$ for the Lausanne case and -
442 $192 \text{ kPa}/^\circ\text{C}$ for the Lambeth College case. Thus, the current axial thermal stresses against
443 change in pile temperatures are within the range reported in literature for similar head load
444 conditions.

445

446 The highest axial and radial thermal stresses in Figs. 8a and b are approximately 3 MPa and 12
447 kPa, respectively. Large differences in axial and radial stresses for heating and cooling were
448 also reported by Gawecka et al. (2017). They numerically back analyzed the Lambeth College
449 energy pile test (Bourne-Webb et al. 2009) and performed an explorative study considering the
450 fully coupled thermo-hydro-mechanical response of the London Clay. They reported axial
451 thermal stresses ranging from approximately 5 to 0.5 MPa from the head to the toe, respectively,
452 of a 23 m long pile with a 1200 kN head load. The radial stresses were approximately 10 kPa
453 to 30 kPa from the head to the toe of the pile, respectively. The axial stresses reduced from
454 head to toe of the pile, while the radial stresses were found to increase with depth and were
455 largest close to the base, probably due to end effects. In another numerical study on the heating

456 effects of an energy pile in clay and without head loads, Ozudogru et al. (2015) also reported
457 that the change in radial stresses with temperature was small in magnitude and in the order of
458 a few kilopascals compared to the change in axial thermal stresses.

459

460 Mimouni and Laloui (2015) assessed the heating effects on axial and radial thermal strains in
461 one of four field scale bored energy piles (diameter of 0.9 m and length of 28 m) installed under
462 a water retention tank. The radial strains were compared at 9 m depth (in soft alluvial clays and
463 loose sandy gravelly moraine) and at 19 m depth (in stiff bottom moraine and sandstone). The
464 observed radial thermal strains were found to be much lower than the free radial thermal
465 expansion of the pile, indicating that the soil formation at their site provided higher restrictions
466 to radial thermal responses than the soil formation in the current study. The radial thermal
467 strains in stiff soils at 19 m depth were found to be completely restricted to thermal expansion
468 than the radial strains in softer soils at 9 m depth, indicating that stiffer soils and possibly higher
469 depths developed larger radial thermal stresses. Gawecka et al. (2017) also found in their
470 numerical study that radial stresses increased with depth and were largest near the toe.

471

472 Mimouni and Laloui (2015) monitored axial strains at 2 m intervals in an energy pile and were
473 able to compare the restrictions to thermal expansion in axial thermal strains at different depths.
474 The highest axial strain restriction was at a depth of 24 m closer to the toe of the pile in stiff
475 sandstone. Since the radial strains at a depth of 19 m were completely restricted to thermal
476 expansion, they were able to assess the effects of blocked radial strains that could have caused
477 large restrictions of the axial thermal strains at a depth of 24 m. The current study however
478 assesses the axial and radial thermal responses near the mid-depth of the upper pile section
479 only. The axial and radial thermal responses at other locations was not possible for comparative

480 purposes, the effects of any blocked radial strains on the axial strain restrictions was not
481 assessed.

482

483 The results in Fig. 8 indicate that the axial thermal stresses are more dominant than radial
484 thermal stresses in developing additional thermal loads in energy piles (i.e. thermally induced
485 changes in the piles side, base and head resistances). Load transfer analysis models for
486 predicting the thermo-mechanical behaviour of energy piles have also suggested that radial
487 thermal effects can be ignored in comparison to axial thermal effects. Knellwolf et al. (2011)
488 conducted a load transfer analysis by neglecting the radial displacements and their mechanical
489 interactions with the soil as these were considered small with regards to axial displacements.
490 They validated their method with the Lambeth College and Lausanne field scale energy piles
491 and found that their method was able to reproduce good axial thermo-mechanical behavior. A
492 detailed parametric load transfer analysis of energy piles was recently conducted by Chen and
493 McCartney (2016) to validate and predict the axial thermal strains, stresses and displacements
494 of a field energy pile and several centrifuge-scale energy piles. They also concluded that the
495 effects of radial thermal strain was relatively small and can be neglected in load transfer
496 analysis. The results of the axial and radial thermal responses of the current study confirms the
497 recommendations of load transfer analysis models and could also help strengthen such
498 predictive models for designing field scale energy piles. The relationships between the thermal
499 loads and change in pile temperatures could be useful for estimating expected thermal loads
500 during designing energy pile systems for similar soil conditions and commonly expected range
501 of operational pile temperatures.

502

503 *Temperature-Dependent Thermal Response of the Pile*

504

505 Plots of the axial and radial thermal strain variations versus the pile temperature change, ΔT ,
506 up to Day 20 for each of the four experiments are shown in Fig. 9. The results are presented at
507 four-day intervals for better clarity of the temperature dependent response of the pile. The
508 trends observed again confirm that the axial thermal strains are more restrained than the radial
509 thermal strains. Between Days 1 – 8, a ratcheting behavior of the axial and radial thermal strains
510 with irreversible paths is observed for the 16F mode (Figs. 9a and 9c, respectively) and the
511 16N mode (Fig. 9e). Radial thermal strains show less ratcheting behavior than axial thermal
512 strains due to the lower restraint to thermal expansion/contraction. Between Days 12 – 20, the
513 thermal strains follow reversible cyclic paths with linear hysteresis loops between stable ΔT for
514 both the cyclic modes (Figs. 9b, 9d and 9f). This observation indicates that the initial ratcheting
515 behavior results from unstable pile temperatures and not from pile or soil settlements. Pile
516 temperatures are initially unstable due to high initial heat dissipation in the sand resulting from
517 the high gradients associated with the sudden temperature changes.

518

519 The thermal strains of the 24C and 24H modes are shown in Figs. 9g and 9h, respectively. The
520 axial and radial thermal strains change linearly with monotonic ΔT for both modes. There are
521 larger changes in thermal strains as well as in ΔT on Day 1 for both of these experiments,
522 although the rate of change in the thermal strain decreases between Days 4 – 20. The slight
523 differences in thermal strains between Days 4 – 20 for both experiments (particularly for the
524 24H mode) are small in magnitude compared to the changes observed the beginning of the
525 experiments. The large changes in thermal strains at the beginning of the experiments for the
526 monotonic modes are likely due to unstable pile temperatures and are not expected to be due
527 to not due to pile or soil settlements.

528

529 The stable responses of the axial and radial thermal strains towards the end of experiments for
530 both monotonic and cyclic temperatures indicate that the shaft resistance is not significantly
531 affected, relative settlements between the pile and the soil do not occur from thermally induced
532 deformations of the dense sand, and no significant lateral load is transferred to axial loads as a
533 result of changes in the pile-soil contact stresses. There was also no degradation in the shaft
534 capacity reported from monotonic heating on this pile, which was assessed by partially
535 translating the upper section of the pile upwards using the internal O-Cells (Wang et al., 2015).
536

537 The surrounding dense sand provides a relatively high resistance to thermal deformations of
538 the pile and the soil at the current site. Numerical studies conducted by Saggu and Chakraborty
539 (2015) showed that energy pile settlements in dense sand are much lower than in loose sand
540 due to differences in the shaft friction. A comparative assessment of the Lambeth College and
541 Lausanne field scale energy piles, installed in mostly stiff and soft clays, respectively, has
542 shown that the stiffer London clay imposed a higher resistance to deformation at the pile-soil
543 interface (Amatya et al., 2012). Another reason for the stable responses of the thermal strains
544 towards the end of experiments is that there were no head loads on the pile or end restraints in
545 the present study. According to some physical model studies with thermal cycles on energy
546 piles (Kalantidou et al., 2012; Stewart and McCartney, 2013, Yavari et al., 2014, 2016a; Wang
547 et al., 2016), thermally induced settlement is reversible for pile head loads corresponding to as
548 low as 20% of the pile ultimate resistance, and becomes irreversible for higher pile loads,
549 particularly for loads closer to the ultimate pile resistance. However, the soil type plays an
550 important role in the thermal response of the pile, and the dense sand at the current site likely
551 contributed to the relatively high resistance to axial thermal deformations.

552

553 **Conclusions**

554

555 This study investigated the axial and radial thermal response of a field scale energy pile under
556 monotonic and cyclic temperature changes. The radial thermal strains are found to be less
557 restrained to thermal expansion/contraction and are approximately 40% greater than the axial
558 thermal strains for all experimental conditions investigated. The radial thermal strains are close
559 to those corresponding to free thermal expansion/contraction, indicating that the soil provides
560 minimal resistance to radial thermal expansion/contraction. Accordingly, the magnitudes of the
561 radial thermal stresses developed in the pile are much lower than the axial thermal stresses, and
562 may not play a major role in soil-structure interaction for the typical setting of cast-in-place
563 concrete energy piles. The pile-soil contact stresses estimated using cavity expansion analysis
564 are at most 12 kPa and are negligible for the commonly encountered operating temperatures in
565 energy piles. Unstable responses of the axial and radial thermal strains were observed at the
566 beginning of the experiments (i.e., a ratcheting response under cyclic temperatures and large
567 changes in thermal strains under monotonic temperatures), but these responses stabilized with
568 operating time as the pile temperatures stabilized. The stable thermal responses of the pile after
569 several cycles indicate that no significant changes in the side friction, pile-soil contact stresses,
570 and shear strength are expected for energy piles in a similar setting to that investigated in this
571 (drilled shafts in dense sand). Finally, the results reported herein are only representative of one
572 section of an energy pile (the upper part) in unrestrained conditions at the head and toe and
573 without a mechanical load applied to the head, so further studies are warranted on conventional
574 energy piles under actual loading and end restraint conditions to capture the complete
575 distribution of axial and radial thermal strains along the length of the pile.

576

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578

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586

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Table 1. Summary of ground conditions at the test site (Barry-Macaulay *et al.*, 2013; Singh *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2015; Yu *et al.*, 2015).

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Depth (m)	Soil Type	Soil Description	In situ test values	Gravimetric water content (%)	Thermal conductivity (W/mK)*
0 – 1.5	Fill Material	Silty clay with traces of fine gravel and medium-coarse grained sand.	-	20 – 30	-
1.5 – 2.5	Sandy Clay	Clay containing fine-medium grained sand with cemented layers.	PP > 400 kPa	12 – 19	1.7
2.5 – 10.0	Sand (with traces of Clay)	Fine to coarse-grained sand. Dense from 2.5 m to 4 m and very dense from 4 m to 10 m. Quartz content ≤ 65%.	N = 26 @ 3 m depth N = HB > 3 m depth ^a	5 – 8	1.6 (at 8 m depth)
10 – 16.1	Sand	Fine to coarse-grained sand. Very dense. Quartz content = 93%.	N = HB ^a	2 – 5	2 – 2.2 (at 12 – 14 m depth)

733 * based on laboratory tests on soils recovered during the drilling process.

734 ^a HB (hammer bounce) encountered during SPT tests conducted i.e. N > 50.

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740 **Table 2.** Summary of experiments.

Operating mode	Description	Inlet water temperatures	Inlet water flowrates	Experiment duration
24H	24 hours heating, daily.	45°C	10 LPM	52 Days
24C	24 hours cooling, daily.	5°C	15 LPM	24 Days
16N	16 hours cooling and 8 hours rest, daily.	5°C	15 LPM	25 Days
16F	16 hours cooling and 8 hours heating, daily.	7°C to 16°C in the cooling cycle. 30°C to 55°C in the heating cycle.	15 LPM in the cooling cycle. 13.5 LPM in the heating cycle	24 Days

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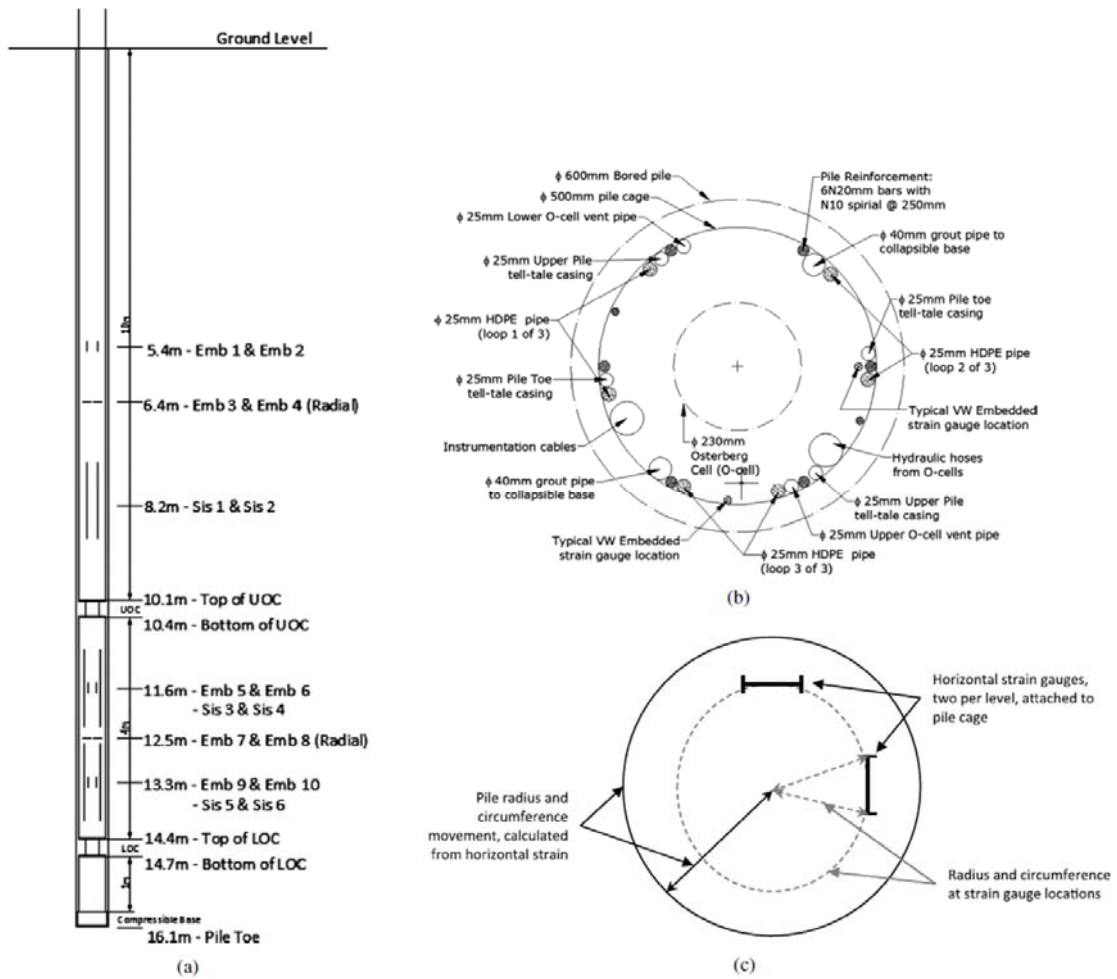
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750 **Fig. 1. a)** Schematic diagram of the energy pile (LOC: lower O-cell, UOC: upper O-cell, Emb:

751 embedment strain gauge, Sis: sisters bar strain gauge), **b)** horizontal cross section of the energy

752 pile showing distribution of instrumentation, **c)** pile cross section at horizontal strain gauge

753 levels, 6.4 and 12.5 m below ground level (adapted from Wang *et al.*, 2015).

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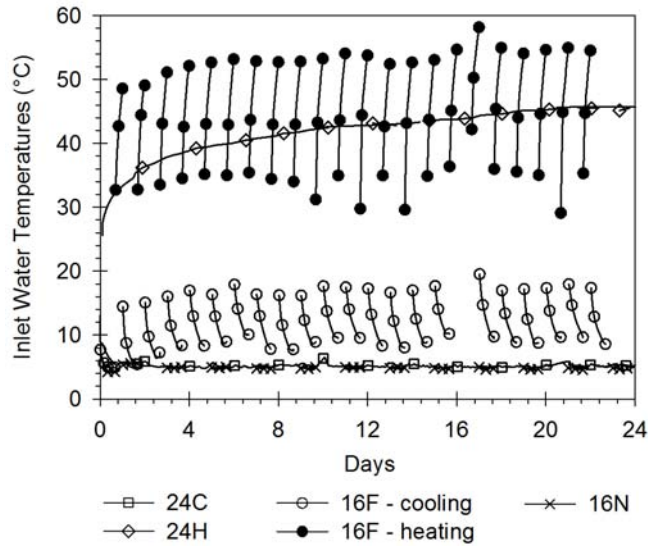
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762 **Fig. 2.** Inlet water temperatures for the four experiments on the pile (24C: twenty-four hours
 763 monotonic cooling; 24H: twenty-four hours monotonic heating; 16F: sixteen hours cooling
 764 followed by eight hours heating; and 16N: sixteen hours cooling followed by eight hours rest).

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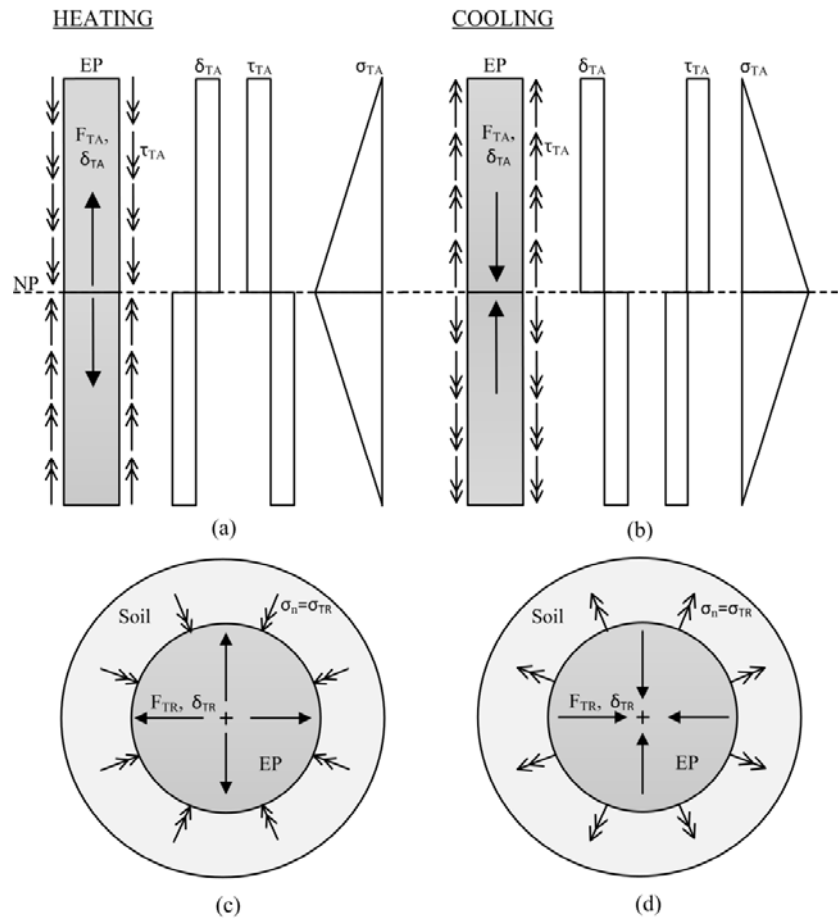
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779 **Fig. 3.** Schematic of thermal response of an energy pile with free ends undergoing heating and
 780 cooling (NP: null point, EP: energy pile, F_T : thermal force, δ_T : thermal displacement, τ_{TA} :
 781 thermally induced side shear stress, σ_T : thermal stress, σ_n : normal stress, A: axial, R: radial):
 782 **a)** axial response during heating, **b)** axial response during cooling, **c)** radial response during
 783 heating, **d)** radial response during cooling.

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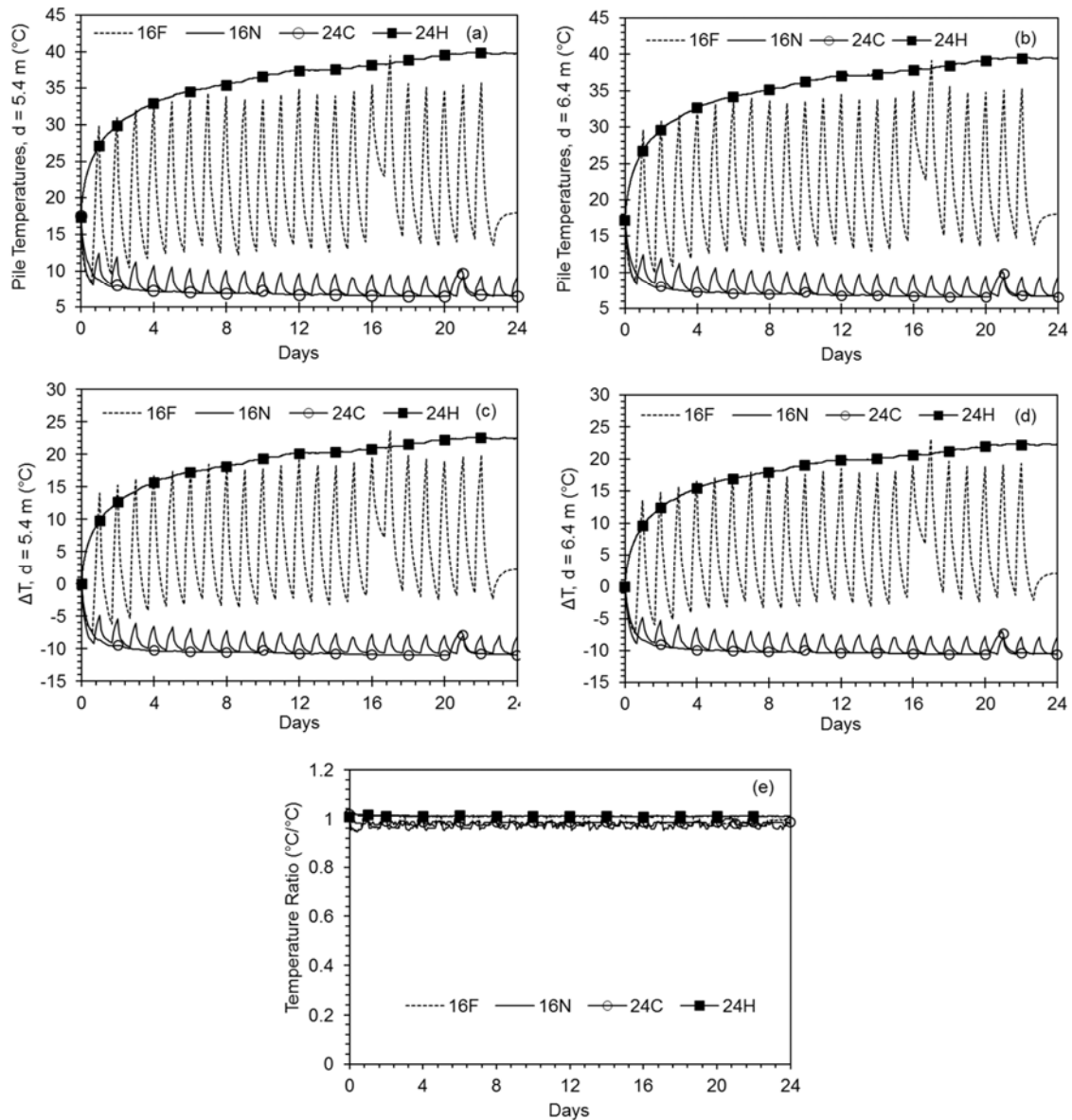
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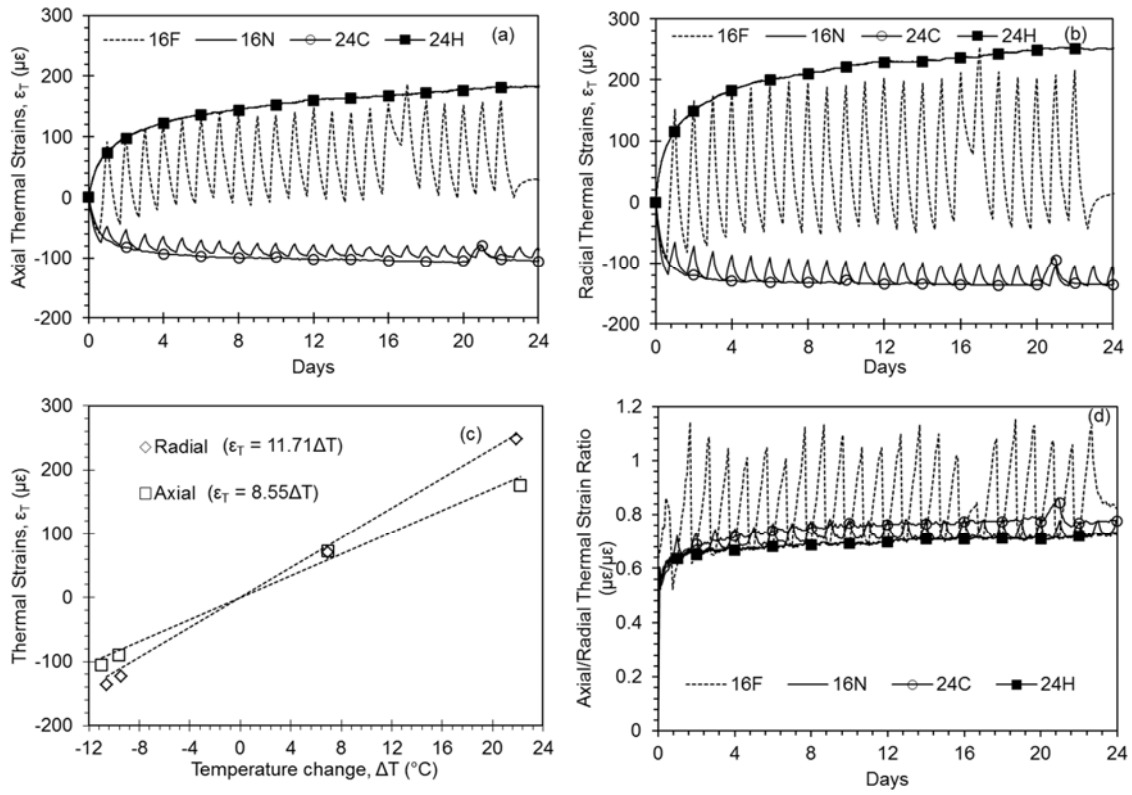
791 **Fig. 4.** Pile temperatures: **a)** at a depth of 5.4 m, **b)** at a depth of 6.4 m, **c)** change in pile
 792 temperatures, ΔT , at a depth of 5.4 m, **d)** change in pile temperatures, ΔT , at a depth of 6.4 m,
 793 **e)** ratio of pile temperatures measured at a depth of 5.4 m to a depth of 6.4 m.

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800 **Fig. 5.** Thermal strains: **a)** axial, **b)** radial, **c)** relationships between strains and temperature

801 change, **d)** ratio of axial and radial thermal strains.

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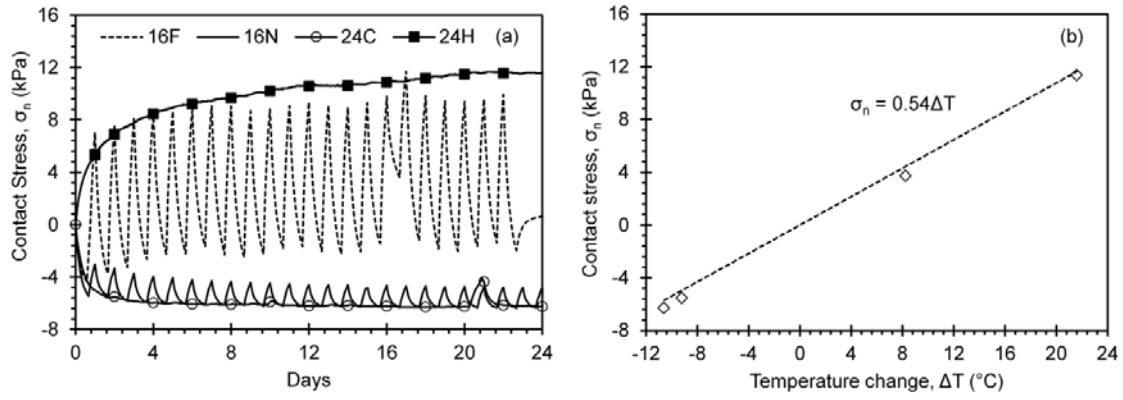
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814 **Fig. 6.** Pile-soil radial contact stresses: **a)** transient, **b)** relationship between contact stress and

815 temperature change.

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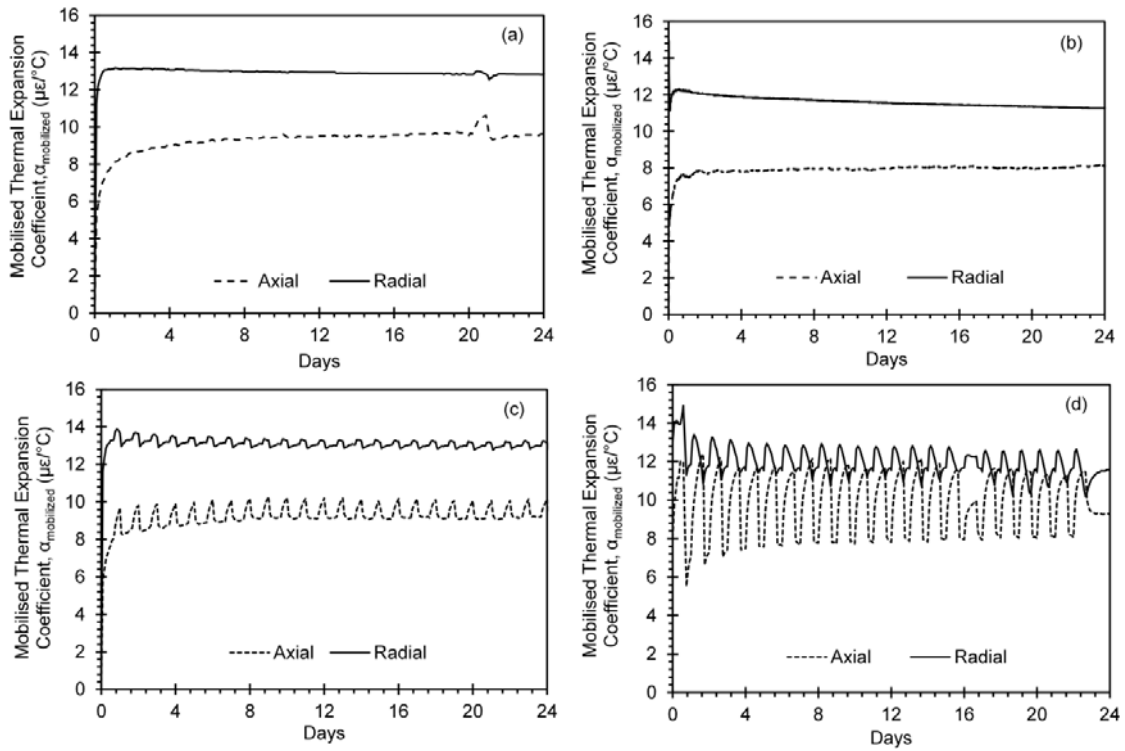
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833 **Fig. 7.** Mobilised thermal expansion coefficients, $\alpha_{mobilized}$: **a)** 24C mode, **b)** 24H mode, **c)**
 834 16N mode, **d)** 16F mode.

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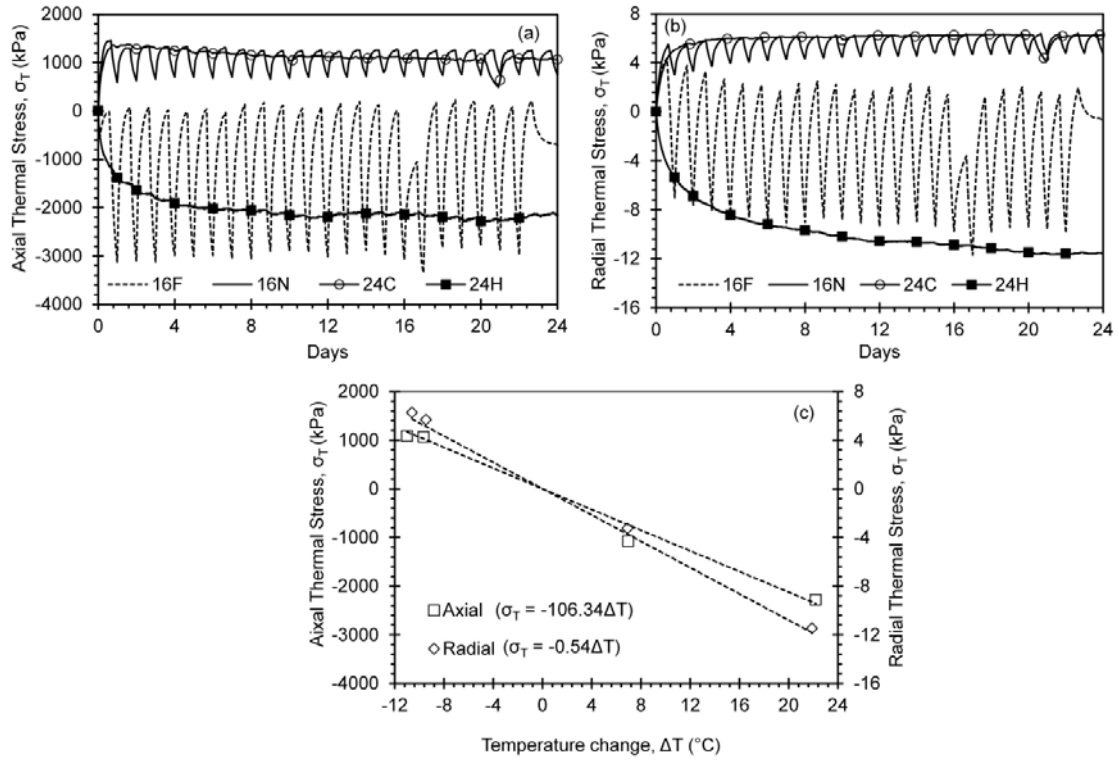
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848 **Fig. 8.** Thermal stresses; **a)** axial, **b)** radial, **c)** relationships between thermal stresses and
 849 temperature change.

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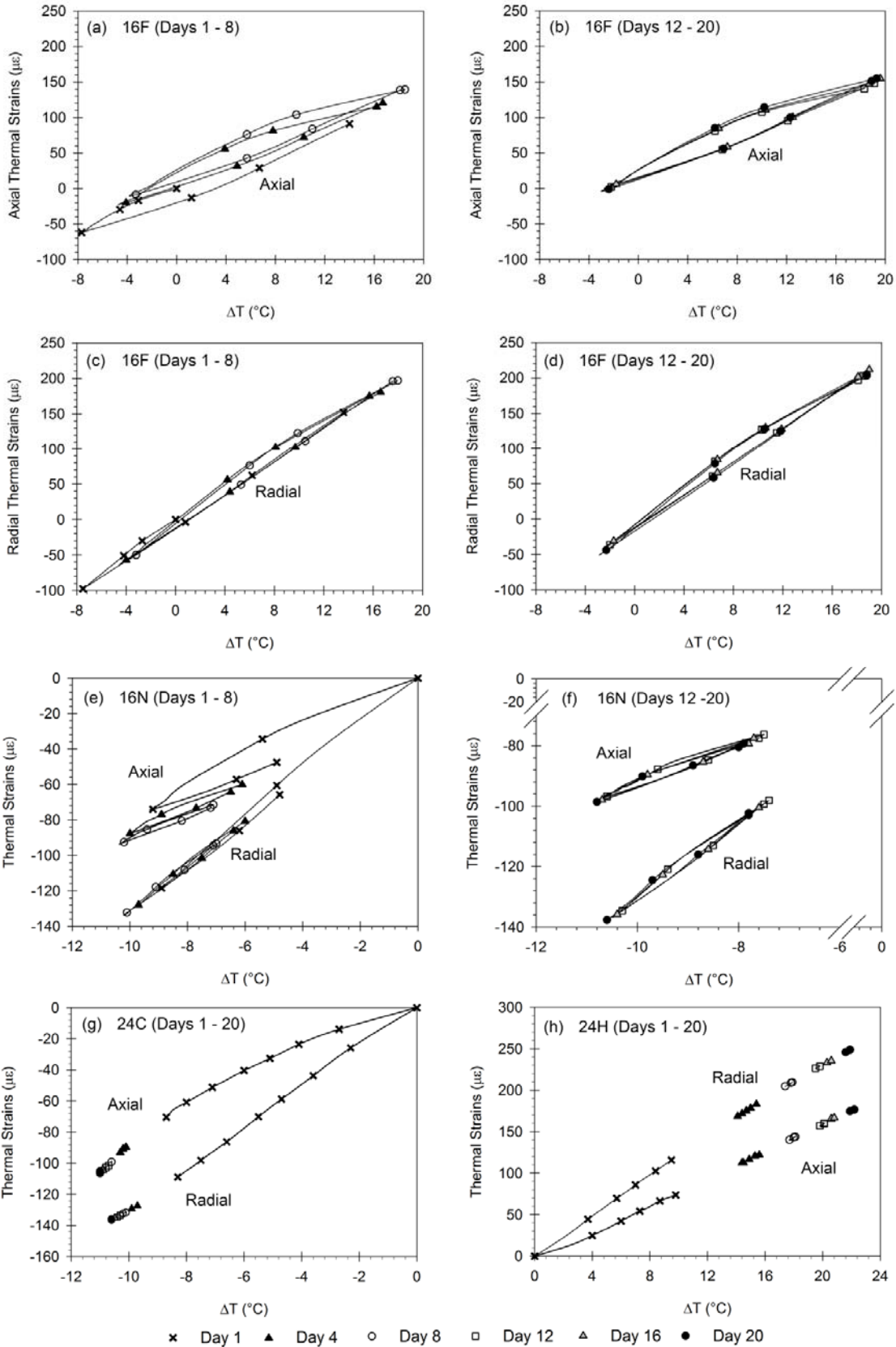
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862 **Fig. 9.** Axial and radial thermal strains plotted against ΔT ; **a)** axial thermal strains between
863 Days 1 – 8 for 16F mode, **b)** axial thermal strains between Days 12 – 20 for 16F mode, **c)** radial
864 thermal strains between Days 1 – 8 for 16F mode, **d)** radial thermal strains between Days 12 –
865 20 for 16F mode, **e)** axial and radial thermal strains between Days 1 – 8 for 16N mode, **f)** axial
866 and radial thermal strains between Days 12 – 20 for 16N mode, **g)** axial and radial thermal
867 strains between Days 1 – 20 for 24C mode, **h)** axial and radial thermal strains between Days 1
868 – 20 for 24H mode.