Preface

Evaluation of soil liquefaction resistance is an important aspect of geotechnical engineering practice. To update and enhance criteria that are routinely applied in practice, workshops were convened in 1996 and 1998 to gain consensus from 20 experts on updates and augmentations that should be made to standard procedures that have evolved over the past 30 years. At the outset, the goal was to develop this state-of-the-art summary of consensus recommendations. A commitment was also made to those who participated in the workshops that all would be listed as co-authors. Unfortunately, the previous publication of this summary paper (April 2001) listed only the co-chairs of the workshop, Profs. Youd and Idriss, as authors; the remaining workshop participants were acknowledged in a footnote. In order to correct this error and to fully acknowledge and credit those who significantly contributed to the work, this paper is being republished in its entirety, at the request of the journal's editors, with all the participants named as co-authors. All further reference to this paper should be to this republication. The previous publication should no longer be cited. Also, several minor errors are corrected in this republication.

LIQUEFACTION RESISTANCE OF SOILS: SUMMARY REPORT FROM THE 1996 NCEER AND 1998 NCEER/NSF WORKSHOPS ON EVALUATION OF LIQUEFACTION RESISTANCE OF SOILS[a]

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ABSTRACT: Following disastrous earthquakes in Alaska and in Niigata, Japan in 1964, Professors H. B. Seed and I. M. Idriss developed and published a methodology termed the ''simplified procedure'' for evaluating liquefaction resistance of soils. This procedure has become a standard of practice throughout North America and much of the world. The methodology which is largely empirical, has evolved over years, primarily through summary papers by H. B. Seed and his colleagues. No general review or update of the procedure has occurred, however, since 1985, the time of the last major paper by Professor Seed and a report from a National Research Council workshop on liquefaction of soils. In 1996 a workshop sponsored by the National Center for Earthquake Engineering Research (NCEER) was convened by Professors T. L. Youd and I. M. Idriss with 20 experts to review developments over the previous 10 years. The purpose was to gain consensus on updates and augmentations to the simplified procedure. The following topics were reviewed and recommendations developed: (1) criteria based on standard penetration tests; (2) criteria based on cone penetration tests; (3) criteria based on shear-wave velocity measurements; (4) use of the Becker penetration test for gravelly soil; (4) magnitude scaling factors; (5) correction factors for overburden pressures and sloping ground; and (6) input values for earthquake magnitude and peak acceleration. Probabilistic and seismic energy analyses were reviewed but no recommendations were formulated.

[a]This Summary Report, originally published in April 2001, is being republished so that the contribution of all workshop participants as authors can be officially recognized. The original version listed only two authors, plus a list of 19 workshop participants. This was incorrect; all 21 individuals should have been identified as authors. ASCE deeply regrets the error.

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past 25 years a methodology termed the ''simplified procedure'' has evolved as a standard of practice for evaluating the liquefaction resistance of soils. Following disastrous earthquakes in Alaska and in Niigata, Japan in 1964, Seed and Idriss (1971) developed and published the basic ''simplified procedure.'' That procedure has been modified and improved periodically since that time, primarily through landmark papers by Seed (1979), Seed and Idriss (1982), and Seed et al. (1985). In 1985, Professor Robert V. Whitman convened a workshop on behalf of the National Research Council (NRC) in which 36 experts and observers thoroughly reviewed the state-of-knowledge and the state-of-the-art for assessing liquefaction hazard. That workshop produced a report (NRC 1985) that has become a widely used standard and reference for liquefaction hazard assessment. In January 1996, T. L. Youd and I. M. Idriss convened a workshop of 20 experts to update the simplified procedure and incorporate research findings from the previous decade. This paper summarizes recommendations from that workshop (Youd and Idriss 1997).

To keep the workshop focused, the scope of the workshop was limited to procedures for evaluating liquefaction resistance of soils under level to gently sloping ground. In this context, liquefaction refers to the phenomena of seismic generation of large pore-water pressures and consequent softening of granular soils. Important postliquefaction phenomena, such as residual shear strength, soil deformation, and ground failure, were beyond the scope of the workshop.

The simplified procedure was developed from empirical evaluations of field observations and field and laboratory test data. Field evidence of liquefaction generally consisted of surficial observations of sand boils, ground fissures, or lateral spreads. Data were collected mostly from sites on level to gently sloping terrain, underlain by Holocene alluvial or fluvial sediment at shallow depths (<15 m). The original procedure was verified for, and is applicable only to, these site conditions. Similar restrictions apply to the implementation of the updated procedures recommended in this report.

Liquefaction is defined as the transformation of a granular material from a solid to a liquefied state as a consequence of increased pore-water pressure and reduced effective stress (Marcuson 1978). Increased pore-water pressure is induced by the tendency of granular materials to compact when subjected to cyclic shear deformations. The change of state occurs most readily in loose to moderately dense granular soils with poor drainage, such as silty sands or sands and gravels capped by or containing seams of impermeable sediment. As liquefaction occurs, the soil stratum softens, allowing large cyclic deformations to occur. In loose materials, the softening is also accompanied by a loss of shear strength that may lead to large shear deformations or even flow failure under moderate to high shear stresses, such as beneath a foundation or sloping ground. In moderately dense to dense materials, liquefaction leads to transient softening and increased cyclic shear strains, but a tendency to dilate during shear inhibits major strength loss and large ground deformations. A condition of cyclic mobility or cyclic liquefaction may develop following liquefaction of moderately dense granular materials. Beneath gently sloping to flat ground, liquefaction may lead to ground oscillation or lateral spread as a consequence of either flow deformation or cyclic mobility. Loose soils also compact during liquefaction and reconsolidation, leading to ground settlement. Sand boils may also erupt as excess pore water pressures dissipate.

CYCLIC STRESS RATIO (CSR) AND CYCLIC RESISTANCE RATIO (CRR)

Calculation, or estimation, of two variables is required for evaluation of liquefaction resistance of soils: (1) the seismic demand on a soil layer, expressed in terms of CSR; and (2) the capacity of the soil to resist liquefaction, expressed in terms of CRR. The latter variable has been termed the cyclic stress ratio or the cyclic stress ratio required to generate liquefaction, and has been given different symbols by different writers. For example, Seed and Harder (1990) used the symbol CSRℓ, Youd (1993) used the symbol CSRL, and Kramer (1996) used the symbol CSR_L to denote this ratio. To reduce confusion and to better distinguish induced cyclic shear stresses from mobilized liquefaction resistance, the capacity of a soil to resist liquefaction is termed the CRR in this report. This term is recommended for engineering practice.

EVALUATION OF CSR

Seed and Idriss (1971) formulated the following equation for calculation of the cyclic stress ratio:

$$\mathrm{CSR} = (\tau_{av}/\sigma'_{vo}) = 0.65(a_{\max}/g)(\sigma_{vo}/\sigma'_{vo})r_d \tag{1}$$

where $a_{\max}$ = peak horizontal acceleration at the ground surface generated by the earthquake (discussed later); g = acceleration of gravity; σ_{vo} and σ'_{vo} are total and effective vertical overburden stresses, respectively; and r_d = stress reduction coefficient. The latter coefficient accounts for flexibility of the soil profile. The workshop participants recommend the following minor modification to the procedure for calculation of CSR.

For routine practice and noncritical projects, the following equations may be used to estimate average values of r_d (Liao and Whitman 1986b):

$$r_d = 1.0 - 0.00765z \quad \text{for } z \le 9.15 \text{ m} \tag{2a}$$

$$r_d = 1.174 - 0.0267z \quad \text{for } 9.15 \text{ m} < z \le 23 \text{ m} \tag{2b}$$

where z = depth below ground surface in meters. Some investigators have suggested additional equations for estimating r_d at greater depths (Robertson and Wride 1998), but evaluation of liquefaction at these greater depths is beyond the depths where the simplified procedure is verified and where routine applications should be applied. Mean values of r_d calculated from (2) are plotted in Fig. 1, along with the mean and range of values proposed by Seed and Idriss (1971). The workshop participants agreed that for convenience in programming spreadsheets and other electronic aids, and to be consistent with past practice, r_d values determined from (2) are suitable for use in routine engineering practice. The user should understand, however, that there is considerable variability in the

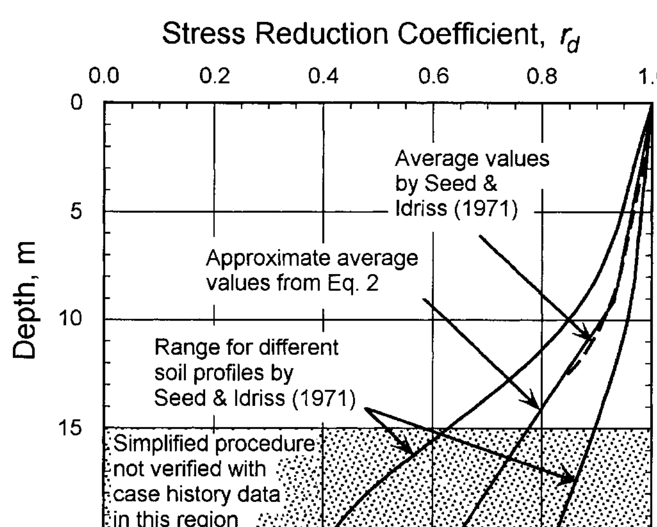


FIG. 1. r_d versus Depth Curves Developed by Seed and Idriss (1971) with Added Mean-Value Lines Plotted from Eq. (2)

flexibility and thus r_d at field sites, that r_d calculated from (2) are the mean of a wide range of possible r_d, and that the range of r_d increases with depth (Golesorkhi 1989).

For ease of computation, T. F. Blake (personal communication, 1996) approximated the mean curve plotted in Fig. 1 by the following equation:

$$r_d = \frac{(1.000 - 0.4113z^{0.5} + 0.04052z + 0.001753z^{1.5})}{(1.000 - 0.4177z^{0.5} + 0.05729z - 0.006205z^{1.5} + 0.001210z^{2})} \tag{3}$$

where z = depth beneath ground surface in meters. Eq. (3) yields essentially the same values for r_d as (2), but is easier to program and may be used in routine engineering practice.

I. M. Idriss [Transportation Research Board (TRB) (1999)] suggested a new procedure for determining magnitude-dependent values of r_d. Application of these r_d require use of a corresponding set of magnitude scaling factors that are compatible with the new r_d. Because these r_d were developed after the workshop and have not been independently evaluated by other experts, the workshop participants chose not to recommend the new factors at this time.

EVALUATION OF LIQUEFACTION RESISTANCE (CRR)

A major focus of the workshop was on procedures for evaluating liquefaction resistance. A plausible method for evaluating CRR is to retrieve and test undisturbed soil specimens in the laboratory. Unfortunately, in situ stress states generally cannot be reestablished in the laboratory, and specimens of granular soils retrieved with typical drilling and sampling techniques are too disturbed to yield meaningful results. Only through specialized sampling techniques, such as ground freezing, can sufficiently undisturbed specimens be obtained. The cost of such procedures is generally prohibitive for all but the most critical projects. To avoid the difficulties associated with sampling and laboratory testing, field tests have become the state-of-practice for routine liquefaction investigations.

Several field tests have gained common usage for evaluation of liquefaction resistance, including the standard penetration test (SPT), the cone penetration test (CPT), shear-wave velocity measurements (V_s), and the Becker penetration test (BPT). These tests were discussed at the workshop, along with associated criteria for evaluating liquefaction resistance. The participants made a conscientious attempt to correlate liquefaction resistance criteria from each of the various field tests to provide generally consistent results, no matter which test is applied. SPTs and CPTs are generally preferred because of the more extensive databases and past experience, but the other tests may be applied at sites underlain by gravelly sediment or where access by large equipment is limited. Primary advantages and disadvantages of each test are listed in Table 1.

SPT

Criteria for evaluation of liquefaction resistance based on the SPT have been rather robust over the years. Those criteria are largely embodied in the CSR versus $(N_1)_{60}$ plot reproduced in Fig. 2. $(N_1)_{60}$ is the SPT blow count normalized to an overburden pressure of approximately 100 kPa (1 ton/sq ft) and a hammer energy ratio or hammer efficiency of 60%. The normalization factors for these corrections are discussed in the section entitled Other Corrections. Fig. 2 is a graph of calculated CSR and corresponding $(N_1)_{60}$ data from sites where liquefaction effects were or were not observed following past earthquakes with magnitudes of approximately 7.5. CRR curves on this graph were conservatively positioned to separate regions with data indicative of liquefaction from regions with data indicative of nonliquefaction. Curves were developed for granular soils with the fines contents of 5% or less, 15%, and 35% as shown on the plot. The CRR curve for fines contents <5% is the basic penetration criterion for the simplified procedure and is referred to hereafter as the ''SPT clean-sand base curve.'' The CRR curves in Fig. 2 are valid only for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes. Scaling factors to adjust CRR curves to other magnitudes are addressed in a later section of this report.

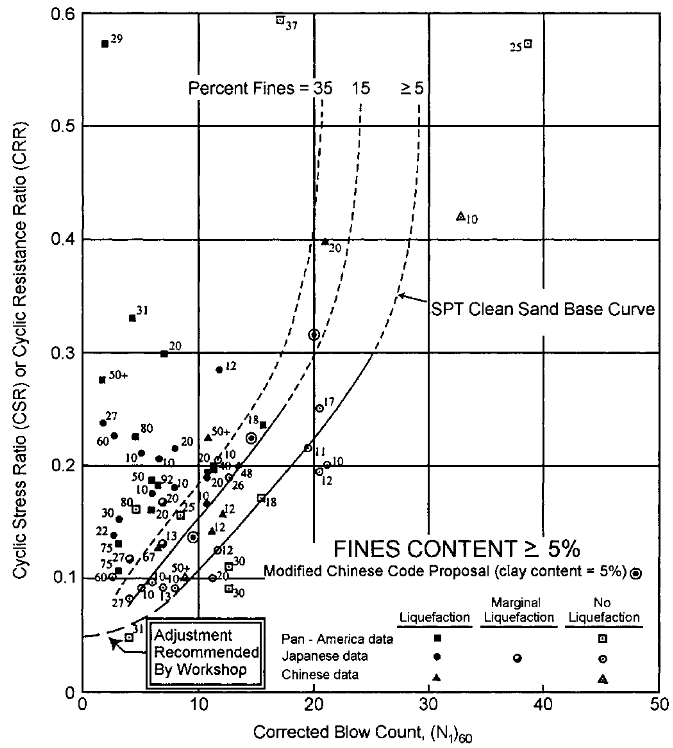


FIG. 2. SPT Clean-Sand Base Curve for Magnitude 7.5 Earthquakes with Data from Liquefaction Case Histories (Modified from Seed et al. 1985)

SPT Clean-Sand Base Curve

Several changes to the SPT criteria are recommended by the workshop participants. The first change is to curve the trajec-

TABLE 1. Comparison of Advantages and Disadvantages of Various Field Tests for Assessment of Liquefaction Resistance

Feature	Test Type: SPT	CPT	V_s	BPT
Past measurements at liquefaction sites	Abundant	Abundant	Limited	Sparse
Type of stress-strain behavior influencing test	Partially drained, large strain	Drained, large strain	Small strain	Partially drained, large strain
Quality control and repeatability	Poor to good	Very good	Good	Poor
Detection of variability of soil deposits	Good for closely spaced tests	Very good	Fair	Fair
Soil types in which test is recommended	Nongravel	Nongravel	All	Primarily gravel
Soil sample retrieved	Yes	No	No	No
Test measures index or engineering property	Index	Index	Engineering	Index

tory of the clean-sand base curve at low $(N_1)_{60}$ to a projected intercept of about 0.05 (Fig. 2). This adjustment reshapes the clean-sand base curve to achieve greater consistency with CRR curves developed for the CPT and shear-wave velocity procedures. Seed and Idriss (1982) projected the original curve through the origin, but there were few data to constrain the curve in the lower part of the plot. A better fit to the present empirical data is to bow the lower end of the base curve as indicated in Fig. 2.

At the University of Texas, A. F. Rauch (personal communication, 1998), approximated the clean-sand base curve plotted in Fig. 2 by the following equation:

$$\mathrm{CRR}_{7.5} = \frac{1}{34 - (N_1)_{60}} + \frac{(N_1)_{60}}{135} + \frac{50}{[10 \cdot (N_1)_{60} + 45]^2} - \frac{1}{200} \quad (4)$$

This equation is valid for $(N_1)_{60} < 30$. For $(N_1)_{60} \geq 30$, clean granular soils are too dense to liquefy and are classed as nonliquefiable. This equation may be used in spreadsheets and other analytical techniques to approximate the clean-sand base curve for routine engineering calculations.

Influence of Fines Content

In the original development, Seed et al. (1985) noted an apparent increase of CRR with increased fines content. Whether this increase is caused by an increase of liquefaction resistance or a decrease of penetration resistance is not clear. Based on the empirical data available, Seed et al. developed CRR curves for various fines contents reproduced in Fig. 2. A revised correction for fines content was developed by workshop attendees to better fit the empirical database and to better support computations with spreadsheets and other electronic computational aids.

The workshop participants recommend (5) and (6) as approximate corrections for the influence of fines content (FC) on CRR. Other grain characteristics, such as soil plasticity, may affect liquefaction resistance as well as fines content, but widely accepted corrections for these factors have not been developed. Hence corrections based solely on fines content should be used with engineering judgment and caution. The following equations were developed by I. M. Idriss with the assistance of R. B. Seed for correction of $(N_1)_{60}$ to an equivalent clean sand value, $(N_1)_{60cs}$:

$$(N_1)_{60cs} = \alpha + \beta(N_1)_{60} \quad (5)$$

where α and β = coefficients determined from the following relationships:

$$\alpha = 0 \quad \text{for FC} \leq 5\% \quad (6a)$$

$$\alpha = \exp[1.76 - (190/\mathrm{FC}^2)] \quad \text{for } 5\% < \text{FC} < 35\% \quad (6b)$$

$$\alpha = 5.0 \quad \text{for FC} \geq 35\% \quad (6c)$$

$$\beta = 1.0 \quad \text{for FC} \leq 5\% \quad (7a)$$

$$\beta = [0.99 + (\mathrm{FC}^{1.5}/1{,}000)] \quad \text{for } 5\% < \text{FC} < 35\% \quad (7b)$$

$$\beta = 1.2 \quad \text{for FC} \geq 35\% \quad (7c)$$

These equations may be used for routine liquefaction resistance calculations. A back-calculated curve for a fines content of 35% is essentially congruent with the 35% curve plotted in Fig. 2. The back-calculated curve for a fines contents of 15% plots to the right of the original 15% curve.

Other Corrections

Several factors in addition to fines content and grain characteristics influence SPT results, as noted in Table 2. Eq. (8) incorporates these corrections

TABLE 2. Corrections to SPT (Modified from Skempton 1986) as Listed by Robertson and Wride (1998)

Factor	Equipment variable	Term	Correction
Overburden pressure	—	C_N	$(P_a/\sigma'_{vo})^{0.5}$
Overburden pressure	—	C_N	$C_N \leq 1.7$
Energy ratio	Donut hammer	C_E	0.5–1.0
Energy ratio	Safety hammer	C_E	0.7–1.2
Energy ratio	Automatic-trip Donut-type hammer	C_E	0.8–1.3
Borehole diameter	65–115 mm	C_B	1.0
Borehole diameter	150 mm	C_B	1.05
Borehole diameter	200 mm	C_B	1.15
Rod length	<3 m	C_R	0.75
Rod length	3–4 m	C_R	0.8
Rod length	4–6 m	C_R	0.85
Rod length	6–10 m	C_R	0.95
Rod length	10–30 m	C_R	1.0
Sampling method	Standard sampler	C_S	1.0
Sampling method	Sampler without liners	C_S	1.1–1.3

$$(N_1)_{60} = N_m C_N C_E C_B C_R C_S \quad (8)$$

where N_m = measured standard penetration resistance; C_N = factor to normalize N_m to a common reference effective overburden stress; C_E = correction for hammer energy ratio (ER); C_B = correction factor for borehole diameter; C_R = correction factor for rod length; and C_S = correction for samplers with or without liners.

Because SPT *N*-values increase with increasing effective overburden stress, an overburden stress correction factor is applied (Seed and Idriss 1982). This factor is commonly calculated from the following equation (Liao and Whitman 1986a):

$$C_N = (P_a/\sigma'_{vo})^{0.5} \quad (9)$$

where C_N normalizes N_m to an effective overburden pressure σ'_{vo} of approximately 100 kPa (1 atm) P_a. C_N should not exceed a value of 1.7 [A maximum value of 2.0 was published in the National Center for Earthquake Engineering Research (NCEER) workshop proceedings (Youd and Idriss 1997), but later was reduced to 1.7 by consensus of the workshop participants] Kayen et al. (1992) suggested the following equation, which limits the maximum C_N value to 1.7, and in these writers' opinion, provides a better fit to the original curve specified by Seed and Idriss (1982):

$$C_N = 2.2/(1.2 + \sigma'_{vo}/P_a) \quad (10)$$

Either equation may be used for routine engineering applications.

The effective overburden pressure σ'_{vo} applied in (9) and (10) should be the overburden pressure at the time of drilling and testing. Although a higher ground-water level might be used for conservatism in the liquefaction resistance calculations, the C_N factor must be based on the stresses present at the time of the testing.

The C_N correction factor was derived from SPT performed in test bins with large sand specimens subjected to various confining pressures (Gibbs and Holtz 1957; Marcuson and Bieganousky 1997a,b). The results of several of these tests are reproduced in Fig. 3 in the form of C_N curves versus effective overburden stress (Castro 1995). These curves indicate considerable scatter of results with no apparent correlation of C_N with soil type or gradation. The curves from looser sands, however, lie in the lower part of the C_N range and are reasonably approximated by (9) and (10) for low effective overburden pressures [200 kPa (<2 tsf)]. The workshop participants endorsed the use of (9) for calculation of C_N, but acknowledged that for overburden pressures >200 kPa (2 tsf) the results are uncertain. Eq. (10) provides a better fit for overburden

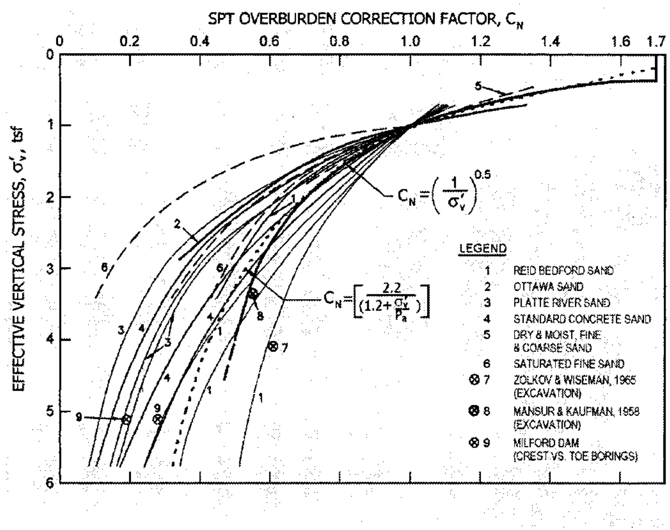


FIG. 3. C_N Curves for Various Sands Based on Field and Laboratory Test Data along with Suggested C_N Curve Determined from Eqs. (9) and (10) (Modified from Castro 1995)

pressures up to 300 kPa (3 tsf). For pressures >300 kPa (3 tsf), the uncertainty is so great that (9) should not be applied. At these high pressures, which are generally below the depth for which the simplified procedure has been verified, C_N should be estimated by other means.

Another important factor is the energy transferred from the falling hammer to the SPT sampler. An ER of 60% is generally accepted as the approximate average for U.S. testing practice and as a reference value for energy corrections. The ER delivered to the sampler depends on the type of hammer, anvil, lifting mechanism, and the method of hammer release. Approximate correction factors (C_E = ER/60) to modify the SPT results to a 60% energy ratio for various types of hammers and anvils are listed in Table 2. Because of variations in drilling and testing equipment and differences in testing procedures, a rather wide range in the energy correction factor C_E has been observed as noted in the table. Even when procedures are carefully monitored to conform to established standards, such as ASTM D 1586-99, some variation in C_E may occur because of minor variations in testing procedures. Measured energies at a single site indicate that variations in energy ratio between blows or between tests in a single borehole typically vary by as much as 10%. The workshop participants recommend measurement of the hammer energy frequently at each site where the SPT is used. Where measurements cannot be made, careful observation and notation of the equipment and procedures are required to estimate a C_E value for use in liquefaction resistance calculations. Use of good-quality testing equipment and carefully controlled testing procedures conforming to ASTM D 1586-99 will generally yield more consistent energy ratios and C_E with values from the upper parts of the ranges listed in Table 2.

Skempton (1986) suggested and Robertson and Wride (1998) updated correction factors for rod lengths <10 m, borehole diameters outside the recommended interval (65–125 mm), and sampling tubes without liners. Range for these correction factors are listed in Table 2. For liquefaction resistance calculations and rod lengths <3 m, a C_R of 0.75 should be applied as was done by Seed et al. (1985) in formulating the simplified procedure. Although application of rod-length correction factors listed in Table 2 will give more precise $(N_1)_{60}$ values, these corrections may be neglected for liquefaction resistance calculations for rod lengths between 3 and 10 m because rod-length corrections were not applied to SPT test data from these depths in compiling the original liquefaction case history databases. Thus rod-length corrections are implicitly incorporated into the empirical SPT procedure.

A final change recommended by workshop participants is the use of revised magnitude scaling factors rather than the original Seed and Idriss (1982) factors to adjust CRR for earthquake magnitudes other than 7.5. Magnitude scaling factors are addressed later in this report.

CPT

A primary advantage of the CPT is that a nearly continuous profile of penetration resistance is developed for stratigraphic interpretation. The CPT results are generally more consistent and repeatable than results from other penetration tests listed in Table 1. The continuous profile also allows a more detailed definition of soil layers than the other tools listed in the table. This stratigraphic capability makes the CPT particularly advantageous for developing liquefaction-resistance profiles. Interpretations based on the CPT, however, must be verified with a few well-placed boreholes preferably with standard penetration tests, to confirm soil types and further verify liquefaction-resistance interpretations.

Fig. 4 provides curves prepared by Robertson and Wride (1998) for direct determination of CRR for clean sands (FC $\leq$ 5%) from CPT data. This figure was developed from CPT case history data compiled from several investigations, including those by Stark and Olson (1995) and Suzuki et al. (1995). The chart, valid for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes only, shows calculated cyclic resistance ratio plotted as a function of dimensionless, corrected, and normalized CPT resistance q_{c1N} from sites where surface effects of liquefaction were or were not observed following past earthquakes. The CRR curve conservatively separates regions of the plot with data indicative of liquefaction from regions indicative of nonliquefaction.

Based on a few misclassified case histories from the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake, I. M. Idriss suggested that the clean sand curve in Fig. 4 should be shifted to the right by 10–15%. However, a majority of workshop participants supported a curve in its present position, for three reasons. First, a purpose of the workshop was to recommend criteria that yield roughly equivalent CRR for the field tests listed in Table 1. Shifting the base curve to the right makes the CPT criteria generally more conservative. For example, for $(N_1)_{60} > 5$, q_{c1N}:$(N_1)_{60}$ ra-

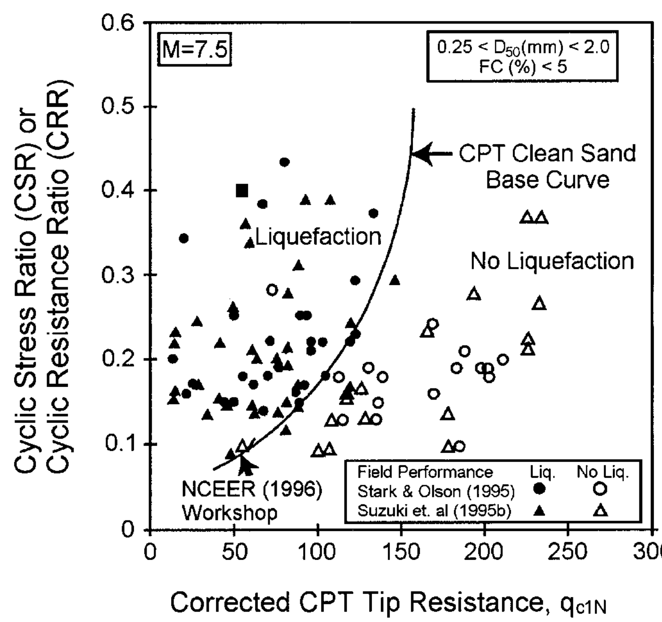


FIG. 4. Curve Recommended for Calculation of CRR from CPT Data along with Empirical Liquefaction Data from Compiled Case Histories (Reproduced from Robertson and Wride 1998)

tios between the two clean-sand base curves, plotted in Figs. 4 and 2, respectively, range from 5 to 8—values that are slightly higher than those expected for clean sands. Shifting the CPT base curve to the right by 10 to 15% would increase those ratios to unusually high values ranging from 6 to 9. Second, base curves, such as those plotted in Figs. 2 and 4, were intended to be conservative, but not necessarily to encompass every data point on the plot. Thus the presence of a few points beyond the base curve should be allowable. Finally, several studies have confirmed that the CPT criteria in Fig. 4 are generally conservative. Robertson and Wride (1998) verified these criteria against SPT and other data from sites they investigated. Gilstrap and Youd (1998) compared calculated liquefaction resistances against field performance at 19 sites and concluded that the CPT criteria correctly predicted the occurrence or nonoccurrence of liquefaction with >85% reliability.

The clean-sand base curve in Fig. 4 may be approximated by the following equation (Robertson and Wride 1998):

$$\text{If } (q_{c1N})_{cs} < 50 \quad CRR_{7.5} = 0.833[(q_{c1N})_{cs}/1{,}000] + 0.05 \tag{11a}$$

$$\text{If } 50 \le (q_{c1N})_{cs} < 160 \quad CRR_{7.5} = 93[(q_{c1N})_{cs}/1{,}000]^3 + 0.08 \tag{11b}$$

where $(q_{c1N})_{cs}$ = clean-sand cone penetration resistance normalized to approximately 100 kPa (1 atm).

Normalization of Cone Penetration Resistance

The CPT procedure requires normalization of tip resistance using (12) and (13). This transformation yields normalized, dimensionless cone pentration resistance q_{c1N}

$$q_{c1N} = C_Q(q_c/P_a) \tag{12}$$

where

$$C_Q = (P_a/\sigma'_{vo})^n \tag{13}$$

and where C_Q = normalizing factor for cone penetration resistance; P_a = 1 atm of pressure in the same units used for σ'_{vo}; n = exponent that varies with soil type; and q_c = field cone penetration resistance measured at the tip. At shallow depths C_Q becomes large because of low overburden pressure; however, values >1.7 should not be applied. As noted in the following paragraphs, the value of the exponent n varies from 0.5 to 1.0, depending on the grain characteristics of the soil (Olsen 1997).

The CPT friction ratio (sleeve resistance f_s divided by cone tip resistance q_c) generally increases with increasing fines content and soil plasticity, allowing rough estimates of soil type and fines content to be determined from CPT data. Robertson and Wride (1998) constructed the chart reproduced in Fig. 5 for estimation of soil type. The boundaries between soil types 2–7 can be approximated by concentric circles and can be used to account for effects of soil characteristics on q_{c1N} and CRR. The radius of these circles, termed the soil behavior type index I_c is calculated from the following equation:

$$I_c = [(3.47 - \log Q)^2 + (1.22 + \log F)^2]^{0.5} \tag{14}$$

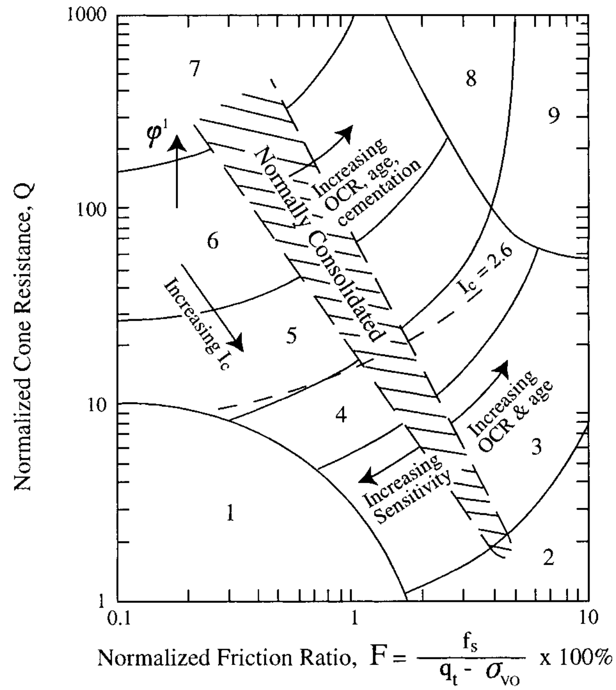
where

$$Q = [(q_c - \sigma_{vo})/P_a][(P_a/\sigma'_{vo})^n] \tag{15}$$

and

$$F = [f_s/(q_c - \sigma_{vo})] \times 100\% \tag{16}$$

The soil behavior chart in Fig. 5 was developed using an exponent n of 1.0, which is the appropriate value for clayey soil types. For clean sands, however, an exponent value of 0.5 is more appropriate, and a value intermediate between 0.5 and



1. Sensitive, fine grained
2. Organic soils - peats
3. Clays - silty clay to clay
4. Silt mixtures - clayey silt to silty clay
5. Sand mixtures - silty sand to sandy silt
6. Sands - clean sand to silty sand
7. Gravelly sand to dense sand
8. Very stiff sand to clayey sand*
9. Very stiff, fine grained*

**Heavily overconsolidated or cemented*

FIG. 5. CPT-Based Soil Behavior-Type Chart Proposed by Robertson (1990)

1.0 would be appropriate for silts and sandy silts. Robertson and Wride recommended the following procedure for calculating the soil behavior type index I_c. The first step is to differentiate soil types characterized as clays from soil types characterized as sands and silts. This differentiation is performed by assuming an exponent n of 1.0 (characteristic of clays) and calculating the dimensionless CPT tip resistance Q from the following equation:

$$Q = [(q_c - \sigma_{vo})/P_a][P_a/\sigma'_{vo}]^{1.0} = [(q_c - \sigma_{vo})/\sigma'_{vo}] \tag{17}$$

If the I_c calculated with an exponent of 1.0 is >2.6, the soil is classified as clayey and is considered too clay-rich to liquefy, and the analysis is complete. However, soil samples should be retrieved and tested to confirm the soil type and liquefaction resistance. Criteria such as the Chinese criteria might be applied to confirm that the soil is nonliquefiable. The so-called Chinese criteria, as defined by Seed and Idriss (1982), specify that liquefaction can only occur if all three of the following conditions are met:

1. The clay content (particles smaller than 5 μ) is <15% by weight.
2. The liquid limit is <35%.
3. The natural moisture content is >0.9 times the liquid limit.

If the calculated I_c is <2.6, the soil is most likely granular in nature, and therefore C_q and Q should be recalculated using an exponent n of 0.5. I_c should then be recalculated using (14). If the recalculated I_c is <2.6, the soil is classed as nonplastic and granular. This I_c is used to estimate liquefaction resistance, as noted in the next section. However, if the recalculated I_c is

>2.6, the soil is likely to be very silty and possibly plastic. In this instance, q_{c1N} should be recalculated from (12) using an intermediate exponent n of 0.7 in (13). I_c is then recalculated from (14) using the recalculated value for q_{c1N}. This intermediate I_c is then used to calculate liquefaction resistance. In this instance, a soil sample should be retrieved and tested to verify the soil type and whether the soil is liquefiable by other criteria, such as the Chinese criteria.

Because the relationship between I_c and soil type is approximate, the consensus of the workshop participants is that all soils with an I_c of 2.4 or greater should be sampled and tested to confirm the soil type and to test the liquefiability with other criteria. Also, soil layers characterized by an $I_c > 2.6$, but with a normalized friction ratio $F < 1.0\%$ (region 1 of Fig. 5) may be very sensitive and should be sampled and tested. Although not technically liquefiable according to the Chinese criteria, such sensitive soils may suffer softening and strength loss during earthquake shaking.

Calculation of Clean-Sand Equivalent Normalized Cone Penetration Resistance $(q_{c1N})_{cs}$

The normalized penetration resistance (q_{c1N}) for silty sands is corrected to an equivalent clean sand value $(q_{c1N})_{cs}$, by the following relationship:

$$(q_{c1N})_{cs} = K_c q_{c1N} \tag{18}$$

where K_c, the correction factor for grain characteristics, is defined by the following equation (Robertson and Wride 1998):

$$\text{for } I_c \leq 1.64 \quad K_c = 1.0 \tag{19a}$$

$$\text{for } I_c > 1.64 \quad K_c = -0.403I_c^4 + 5.581I_c^3 - 21.63I_c^2 + 33.75I_c - 17.88 \tag{19b}$$

The K_c curve defined by (19) is plotted in Fig. 6. For $I_c > 2.6$, the curve is shown as a dashed line, indicating that soils in this range of I_c are most likely too clay-rich or plastic to liquefy.

With an appropriate I_c and K_c, (11) and (19) can be used to calculate $\text{CRR}_{7.5}$. To adjust CRR to magnitudes other than 7.5, the calculated $\text{CRR}_{7.5}$ is multiplied by an appropriate magnitude scaling factor. The same magnitude scaling factors are used with CPT data as with SPT data. Magnitude scaling factors are discussed in a later section of this report.

Olsen (1997) and Suzuki et al. (1995) Procedures

Olsen (1997), who pioneered many of the techniques for assessing liquefaction resistance from CPT soundings, suggested a somewhat different procedure for calculating CRR from CPT data. Reasons for recommending the Robertson and Wride (1998) procedure over that of Olsen are the ease of application and the ease with which relationships can be quantified for computer-aided calculations. Results from Olsen's procedure, however, are consistent with results from the procedure proposed here for shallow (<15 m deep) sediment beneath level to gently sloping terrain. Olsen (1997) noted that almost any CPT normalization technique will give results consistent with his normalization procedure for soil layers in the 3–15 m depth range. For deeper layers, significant differences may develop between the two procedures. Those depths are also beyond the depth for which the simplified procedure has been verified. Hence any procedure based on the simplified procedure yields rather uncertain results at depths >15 m.

Suzuki et al. (1995) also developed criteria for evaluating CRR from CPT data. Those criteria are slightly more conservative than those of Robertson and Wride (1998) and were considered by the latter investigators in developing the criteria recommended herein.

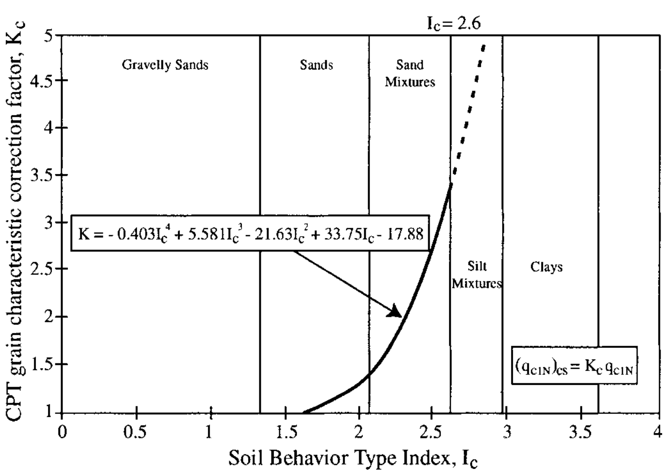


FIG. 6. Grain-Characteristic Correction Factor K_c for Determination of Clean-Sand Equivalent CPT Resistance (Reproduced from Robertson and Wride 1998)

Correction of Cone Penetration Resistance for Thin Soil Layers

Theoretical as well as laboratory studies indicate that CPT tip resistance is influenced by softer soil layers above or below the cone tip. As a result, measured CPT tip resistance is smaller in thin layers of granular soils sandwiched between softer layers than in thicker layers of the same granular soil. The amount of the reduction of penetration resistance in soft layers is a function of the thickness of the softer layer and the stiffness of the stiffer layers.

Using a simplified elastic solution, Vreugdenhil et al. (1994) developed a procedure for estimating the thick-layer equivalent cone penetration resistance of thin stiff layers lying within softer strata. The correction applies only to thin stiff layers embedded within thick soft layers. Because the corrections have a reasonable trend, but appear rather large, Robertson and Fear (1995) recommended conservative corrections from the $q_{cA}/q_{cB} = 2$ curve sketched in Fig. 7.

Further analysis of field data by Gonzalo Castro and Peter Robertson for the NCEER workshop indicates that corrections based on the $q_{cA}/q_{cB} = 2$ curve may still be too large and not adequately conservative. They suggested, and the workshop participants agreed, that the lower bound of the range of field data plotted by G. Castro in Fig. 7 provides more conservative K_H values that should be used until further field studies and analyses indicate that higher values are viable. The equation for the lower bound of the field curve is

$$K_H = 0.25[((H/d_c)/17) - 1.77]^2 + 1.0 \tag{20}$$

where H = thickness of the interbedded layer in mm; q_{cA} and q_{cB} = cone resistances of the stiff and soft layers, respectively; and d_c = diameter of the cone in mm (Fig. 7).

V_s

Andrus and Stokoe (1997, 2000) developed liquefaction resistance criteria from field measurements of shear wave velocity V_s. The use of V_s as a field index of liquefaction resistance is soundly based because both V_s and CRR are similarly, but not proportionally, influenced by void ratio, effective confining stresses, stress history, and geologic age. The advantages of using V_s include the following: (1) V_s measurements are possible in soils that are difficult to penetrate with CPT and SPT or to extract undisturbed samples, such as gravelly soils, and at sites where borings or soundings may not be permitted; (2) V_s is a basic mechanical property of soil materials, directly related to small-strain shear modulus; and (3) the

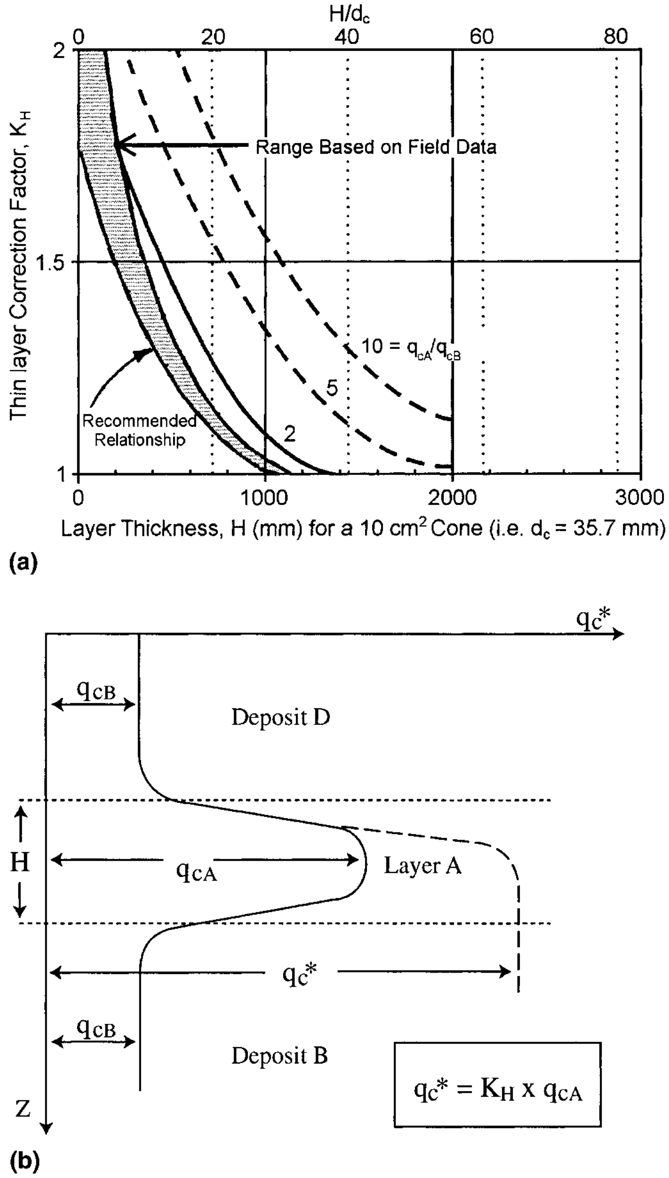


FIG. 7. Thin-Layer Correction Factor K_H for Determination of Equivalent Thick-Layer CPT Resistance (Modified from Robertson and Fear 1995)

small-strain shear modulus is a parameter required in analytical procedures for estimating dynamic soil response and soil-structure interaction analyses.

Three concerns arise when using V_s for liquefaction-resistance evaluations: (1) seismic wave velocity measurements are made at small strains, whereas pore-water pressure buildup and the onset of liquefaction are medium- to high-strain phenomena; (2) seismic testing does not provide samples for classification of soils and identification of nonliquefiable soft clay-rich soils; and (3) thin, low V_s strata may not be detected if the measurement interval is too large. Therefore the preferred practice is to drill sufficient boreholes and conduct in situ tests to detect and delineate thin liquefiable strata, nonliquefiable clay-rich soils, and silty soils above the ground-water table that might become liquefiable should the water table rise. Other tests, such as the SPT or CPT, are needed to detect liquefiable weakly cemented soils that may have high V_s values.

V_s Criteria for Evaluating Liquefaction Resistance

Following the traditional procedures for correcting penetration resistance to account for overburden stress, V_s is also corrected to a reference overburden stress using the following equation (Sykora 1987; Kayen et al. 1992; Robertson et al. 1992):

$$V_{s1} = V_s \left(\frac{P_a}{\sigma'_{vo}}\right)^{0.25} \tag{21}$$

where V_{s1} = overburden-stress corrected shear wave velocity; P_a = atmospheric pressure approximated by 100 kPa (1 TSF); and σ'_{vo} = initial effective vertical stress in the same units as P_a. Eq. (21) implicitly assumes a constant coefficient of earth pressure K'_o which is approximately 0.5 for sites susceptible to liquefaction. Application of (21) also implicitly assumes that V_s is measured with both the directions of particle motion and wave propagation polarized along principal stress directions and that one of those directions is vertical (Stokoe et al. 1985).

Fig. 8 compares seven CRR-V_{s1} curves. The ''best fit'' curve by Tokimatsu and Uchida (1990) was determined from laboratory cyclic triaxial test results for various sands with <10% fines and 15 cycles of loading. The more conservative ''lower bound'' curve for Tokimatsu and Uchida's laboratory test results is also shown as a lower bound for liquefaction occurrences. The bounding curve by Robertson et al. (1992) was developed using field performance data from sites in Imperial Valley, Calif., along with data from four other sites. The curves by Kayen et al. (1992) and Lodge (1994) are from sites that did and did not liquefy during the 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake. Andrus and Stokoe's (1997) curve was developed for uncemented, Holocene-age soils with 5% or less fines using field performance data from 20 earthquakes and over 50 measurement sites. Andrus and Stokoe (2000) revised this curve based on new information and an expanded database that includes 26 earthquakes and more than 70 measurement sites.

Andrus and Stokoe (1997) proposed the following relationship between CRR and V_{s1}:

$$\mathrm{CRR} = a\left(\frac{V_{s1}}{100}\right)^2 + b\left(\frac{1}{V^*_{s1} - V_{s1}} - \frac{1}{V^*_{s1}}\right) \tag{22}$$

where V^*_{s1} = limiting upper value of V_{s1} for liquefaction occurrence; and a and b are curve fitting parameters. The first parenthetical term of (22) is based on a modified relationship

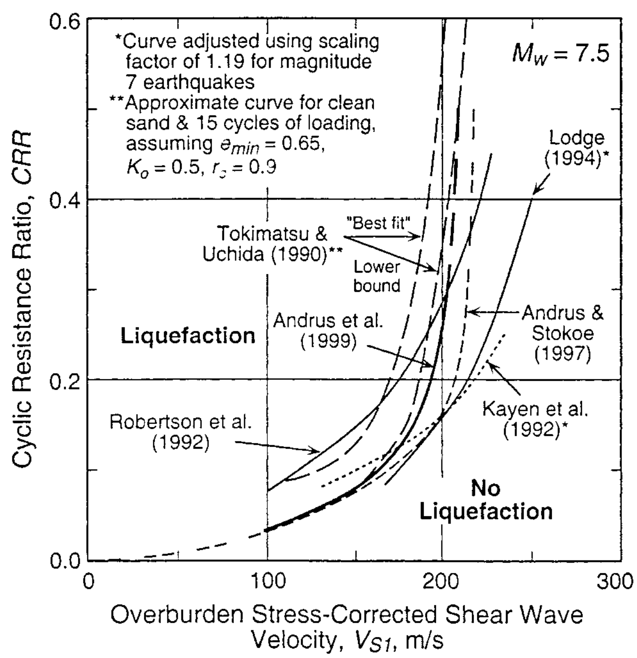


FIG. 8. Comparison of Seven Relationships between Liquefaction Resistance and Overburden Stress-Corrected Shear Wave Velocity for Granular Soils

between V_{s1} and CSR for constant average cyclic shear strain suggested by R. Dobry (personal communication to R. D. Andrus, 1996). The second parenthetical term is a hyperbola with a small value at low V_{s1}, and a very large value as V_{s1} approaches V_{s1}^*, a constant limiting velocity for liquefaction of soils.

CRR versus V_{s1} curves recommended for engineering practice by Andrus and Stokoe (2000) for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes and uncemented Holocene-age soils with various fines contents are reproduced in Fig. 9. Also plotted and presented in Fig. 9 are points calculated from liquefaction case history information for magnitude 5.9–8.3 earthquakes. The three curves shown were determined through an iterative process of varying the values of *a* and *b* until nearly all the points indicative of liquefaction were bounded by the curves with the least number of nonliquefaction points plotted in the liquefaction region. The final values of *a* and *b* used to draw the curves were 0.022 and 2.8, respectively. Values of V_{s1}^* were assumed to vary linearly from 200 m/s for soils with fines content of 35% to 215 m/s for soils with fines content of 5% or less.

The recommended curves shown in Fig. 9 are dashed above CRR of 0.35 to indicate that field-performance data are limited in that range. Also, they do not extend much below 100 m/s, because there are no field data to support extending them to the origin. The calculated CRR is 0.033 for a V_{s1} of 100 m/s. This minimal CRR value is generally consistent with intercept CRR values assumed for the CPT and SPT procedures. Eq. (22) can be scaled to other magnitude values through use of magnitude scaling factors. These factors are discussed in a later section of this paper.

BPT

Liquefaction resistance of nongravelly soils has been evaluated primarily through CPT and SPT, with occasional V_s measurements. CPT and SPT measurements, however, are not generally reliable in gravelly soils. Large gravel particles may interfere with the normal deformation of soil materials around the penetrometer and misleadingly increase penetration resistance. Several investigators have employed large-diameter penetrometers to surmount these difficulties; the Becker penetration test (BPT) in particular has become one of the more effectively and widely used larger tools. The BPT was developed in Canada in the late 1950s and consists of a 168-mm diameter, 3-m-long double-walled casing driven into the ground with a double-acting diesel-driven pile hammer. The hammer impacts are applied at the top of the casing and peneration is continuous. The Becker penetration resistance is defined as the number of blows required to drive the casing through an increment of 300 mm.

The BPT has not been standardized, and several different types of equipment and procedures have been used. There are currently very few liquefaction sites from which BPT data have been obtained. Thus the BPT cannot be directly correlated with field behavior, but rather through estimating equivalent SPT *N*-values from BPT data and then applying evaluation procedures based on the SPT. This indirect method introduces substantial additional uncertainty into the calculated CRR.

To provide uniformity, Harder and Seed (1986) recommended newer AP-1000 drill rigs equipped with supercharged diesel hammers, 168-mm outside diameter casing, and a plugged bit. From several sites where both BPT and SPT tests were conducted in parallel soundings, Harder and Seed (1986) developed a preliminary correlation between Becker and standard penetration resistance [Fig. 10(a)]. Additional comparative data compiled since 1986 are plotted in Fig. 10(b). The original Harder and Seed correlation curve (solid line) is drawn in Fig. 10(b) along with dashed curves representing 20% over- and underpredictions of SPT blow counts. These plots indicate that SPT blow counts can be roughly estimated

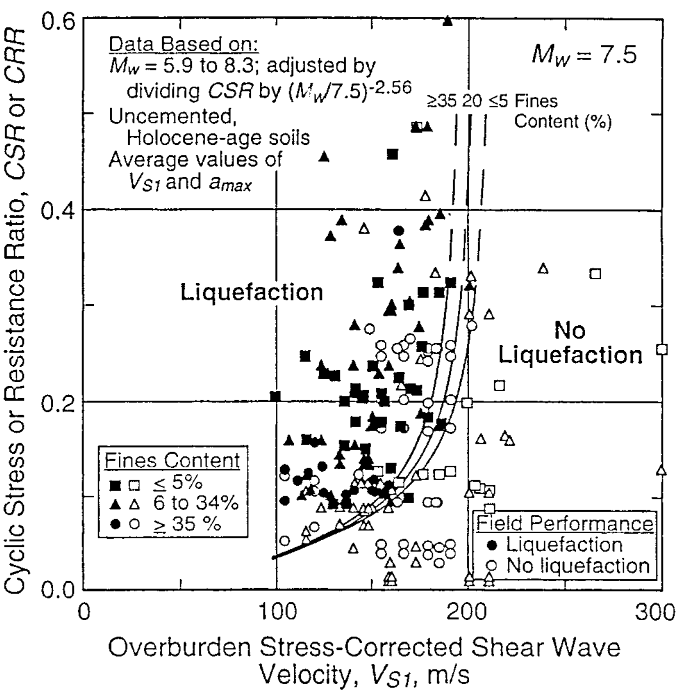


FIG. 9. Liquefaction Relationship Recommended for Clean, Uncemented Soils with Liquefaction Data from Compiled Case Histories (Reproduced from Andrus and Stokoe 2000)

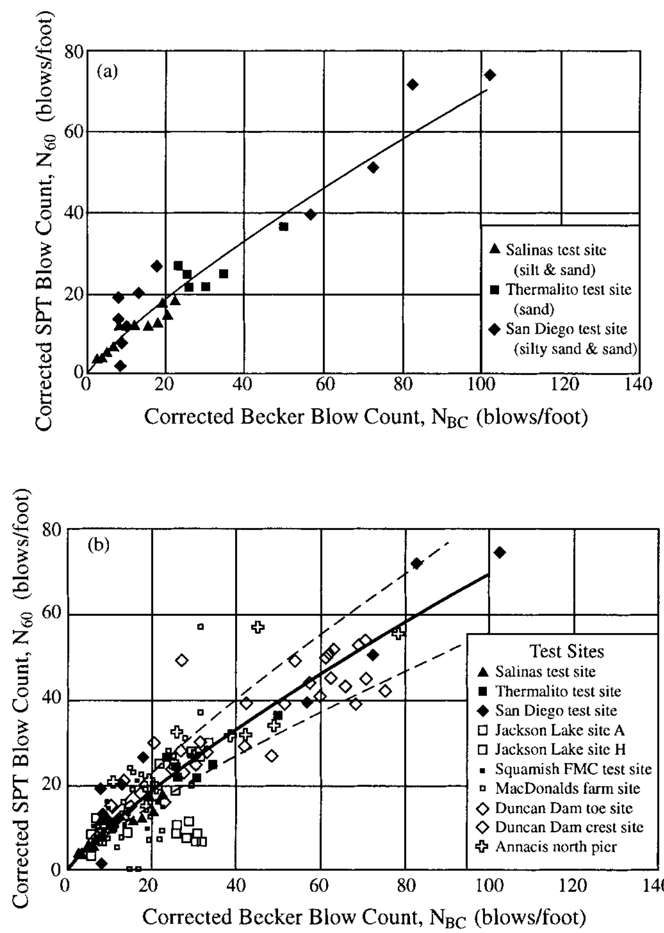


FIG. 10. Correlation between Corrected Becker Penetration Resistance N_{BC} and Corrected SPT Resistance N_{60}: (a) Harder and Seed (1986); (b) Data from Additional Sites (Reproduced from Harder 1997)

from BPT measurements. These plots indicate that although SPT blow counts can be roughly estimated from BPT measurements, there can be considerable uncertainty for calculating liquefaction resistance because the data scatter is greatest in the range of greatest importance [*N*-values of 0–30 blows/300 mm (ft)].

A major source of variation in BPT blow counts is deviations in hammer energy. Rather than measuring hammer energy directly, Harder and Seed (1986) monitored bounce-chamber pressures and found that uniform combustion conditions (e.g., full throttle with a supercharger) correlated rather well with variations in Becker blow count. From this information, Harder and Seed developed an energy correction procedure based on measured bounce-chamber pressure.

Direct measurement of transmitted hammer energy could provide a more theoretically rigorous correction for Becker hammer efficiency. Sy and Campanella (1994) and Sy et al. (1995) instrumented a small length of Becker casing with strain gauges and accelerometers to measure transferred energy. They analyzed the recorded data with a pile-driving analyzer to determine strain, force, acceleration, and velocity. The transferred energy was determined by time integration of force times velocity. They were able to verify many of the variations in hammer energy previously identified by Harder and Seed (1986), including effects of variable throttle settings and energy transmission efficiencies of various drill rigs. However, they were unable to reduce the amount of scatter and uncertainty in converting BPT blow counts to SPT blow counts. Because the Sy and Campanella procedure requires considerably more effort than monitoring of bounce-chamber pressure without producing greatly improved results, the workshop participants agreed that the bounce-chamber technique is adequate for routine practice.

Friction along the driven casing also influences penetration resistance. Harder and Seed (1986) did not directly evaluate the effect of casing friction; hence, the correlation in Fig. 10(b) intrinsically incorporates an unknown amount of casing friction. However, casing friction remains a concern for depths >30 m and for measurement of penetration resistance in soft soils underlying thick deposits of dense soil. Either of these circumstances could lead to greater casing friction than is intrinsically incorporated in the Harder and Seed correlation.

The following procedures are recommended for routine practice: (1) the BPT should be conducted with newer AP-1000 drill rigs equipped with supercharged diesel hammers to drive plugged 168-mm outside diameter casing; (2) bounce-chamber pressures should be monitored and adjustments made to measured BPT blow counts to account for variations in diesel hammer combustion efficiency—for most routine applications, correlations developed by Harder and Seed (1986) may be used for these adjustments; and (3) the influence of some casing friction is indirectly accounted for in the Harder and Seed BPT-SPT correlation. This correlation, however, has not been verified and should not be used for depths >30 m or for sites with thick dense deposits overlying loose sands or gravels. For these conditions, mudded boreholes may be needed to reduce casing friction, or specially developed local correlations or sophisticated wave-equation analyses may be applied to quantify frictional effects.

MAGNITUDE SCALING FACTORS (MSFs)

The clean-sand base or CRR curves in Figs. 2 (SPT), 4 (CPT), and 10 (V_{s1}) apply only to magnitude 7.5 earthquakes. To adjust the clean-sand curves to magnitudes smaller or larger than 7.5, Seed and Idriss (1982) introduced correction factors termed ''magnitude scaling factors (MSFs).'' These factors are used to scale the CRR base curves upward or downward on CRR versus $(N_1)_{60}$, q_{c1N}, or V_{s1} plots. Conversely, magnitude weighting factors, which are the inverse of magnitude scaling factors, may be applied to correct CSR for magnitude. Either correcting CRR via magnitude scaling factors, or correcting CSR via magnitude weighting factors, leads to the same final result. Because the original papers by Seed and Idriss were written in terms of magnitude scaling factors, the use of magnitude scaling factors is continued in this report.

To illustrate the influence of magnitude scaling factors on calculated hazard, the equation for factor of safety (FS) against liquefaction is written in terms of CRR, CSR, and MSF as follows:

$$\text{FS} = (\text{CRR}_{7.5}/\text{CSR})\text{MSF} \tag{23}$$

where CSR = calculated cyclic stress ratio generated by the earthquake shaking; and $\text{CRR}_{7.5}$ = cyclic resistance ratio for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes. $\text{CRR}_{7.5}$ is determined from Fig. 2 or (4) for SPT data, Fig. 4 or (11) for CPT data, or Fig. 9 or (22) for V_{s1} data.

Seed and Idriss (1982) Scaling Factors

Because of the limited amount of field liquefaction data available in the 1970s, Seed and Idriss (1982) were unable to adequately constrain bounds between liquefaction and nonliquefaction regions on CRR plots for magnitudes other than 7.5. Consequently, they developed a set of MSF from average numbers of loading cycles for various earthquake magnitudes and laboratory test results. A representative curve developed by these investigators, showing the number of loading cycles required to generate liquefaction for a given CSR, is reproduced in Fig. 11. The average number of loading cycles for various magnitudes of earthquakes are also noted on the plot. The initial set of magnitude scaling factors was derived by dividing CSR values on the representative curve for the number of loading cycles corresponding to a given earthquake magnitude by the CSR for 15 loading cycles (equivalent to a magnitude 7.5 earthquake). These scaling factors are listed in column 2 of Table 3 and are plotted in Fig. 12. These MSFs have been routinely applied in engineering practice since their introduction in 1982.

Revised Idriss Scaling Factors

In preparing his H. B. Seed Memorial Lecture, I. M. Idriss reevaluated the data that he and the late Professor Seed used to calculate the original (1982) magnitude scaling factors. In so doing, Idriss replotted the data on a log-log plot and suggested that the data should plot as a straight line. He noted, however, that one outlying point had strongly influenced the original analysis, causing the original plot to be nonlinear and characterized by unduly low MSF values for magnitudes <7.5. Based on this reevaluation, Idriss defined a revised set of magnitude scaling factors listed in column 3 of Table 3 and plotted

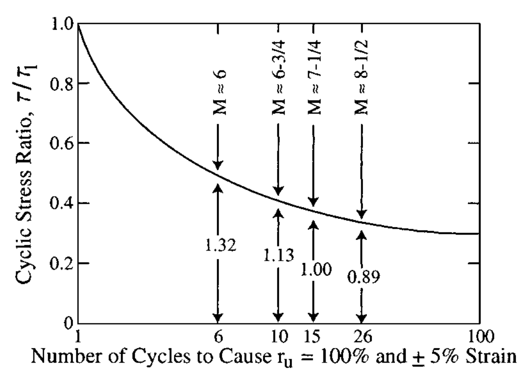


FIG. 11. Representative Relationship between CSR and Number of Cycles to Cause Liquefaction (Reproduced from Seed and Idriss 1982)

TABLE 3. Magnitude Scaling Factor Values Defined by Various Investigators (Youd and Noble 1997a)

Magnitude, M	Seed and Idriss (1982)	Idriss[a]	Ambraseys (1988)	Arango (1996) Distance based	Arango (1996) Energy based	Andrus and Stokoe (1997)	Youd and Noble (1997b) $P_L < 20\%$	Youd and Noble (1997b) $P_L < 32\%$	Youd and Noble (1997b) $P_L < 50\%$
5.5	1.43	2.20	2.86	3.00	2.20	2.8	2.86	3.42	4.44
6.0	1.32	1.76	2.20	2.00	1.65	2.1	1.93	2.35	2.92
6.5	1.19	1.44	1.69	1.60	1.40	1.6	1.34	1.66	1.99
7.0	1.08	1.19	1.30	1.25	1.10	1.25	1.00	1.20	1.39
7.5	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	—	—	1.00
8.0	0.94	0.84	0.67	0.75	0.85	0.8?	—	—	0.73?
8.5	0.89	0.72	0.44	—	—	0.65?	—	—	0.56?

Note: ? = Very uncertain values.
[a]1995 Seed Memorial Lecture, University of California at Berkeley (I. M. Idriss, personal communication to T. L. Youd, 1997).

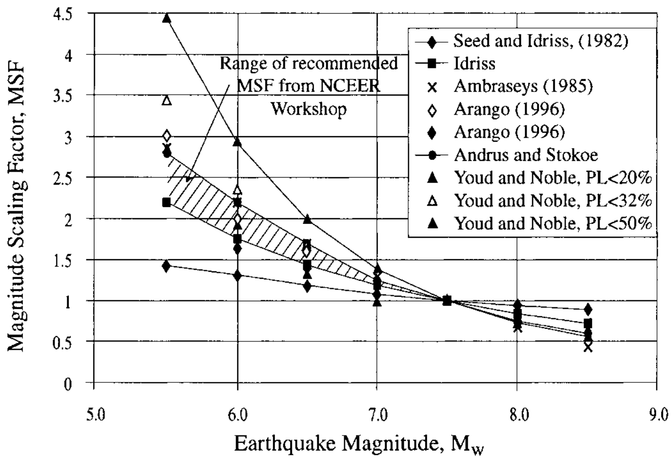


FIG. 12. Magnitude Scaling Factors Derived by Various Investigators (Reproduced from Youd and Noble 1997a)

in Fig. 12. The revised MSFs are defined by the following equation:

$$MSF = 10^{2.24}/M_w^{2.56} \qquad (24)$$

The workshop participants recommend these revised scaling factors as a lower bound for MSF values.

The revised scaling factors are significantly higher than the original scaling factors for magnitudes <7.5 and somewhat lower than the original factors for magnitudes >7.5. Relative to the original scaling factors, the revised factors lead to a reduced calculated liquefaction hazard for magnitudes <7.5, but increase calculated hazard for magnitudes >7.5.

Ambraseys (1988) Scaling Factors

Field performance data collected since the 1970s for magnitudes <7.5 indicate that the original Seed and Idriss (1982) scaling factors are overly conservative. For example, Ambraseys (1988) analyzed liquefaction data compiled through the mid-1980s and plotted calculated cyclic stress ratios for sites that did or did not liquefy versus $(N_1)_{60}$. From these plots, Ambraseys developed empirical exponential equations that define CRR as a function of $(N_1)_{60}$ and moment magnitude M_w. By holding the value of $(N_1)_{60}$ constant in the equations and taking the ratio of CRR determined for various magnitudes of earthquakes to the CRR for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes, Ambraseys derived the magnitude scaling factors listed in column 4 of Table 3 and plotted in Fig. 12. For magnitudes <7.5, the MSFs suggested by Ambraseys are significantly larger than both the original factors developed by Seed and Idriss (column 2, Table 3) and the revised factors suggested by Idriss (column 3). Because they are based on observational data, these factors have validity for estimating liquefaction hazard; however, they have not been widely used in engineering practice.

For magnitudes >7.5, Ambraseys factors are significantly lower and much more conservative than the original (Seed and Idriss 1982) and Idriss's revised scaling factors. Because there are few data to constrain Ambraseys' scaling factors for magnitudes >7.5, they are not recommended for hazard evaluation for large earthquakes.

Arango (1996) Scaling Factors

Arango (1996) developed two sets of magnitude scaling factors. The first set (column 5, Table 3) is based on furthest observed liquefaction effects from the seismic energy source, the estimated average peak accelerations at those distant sites, and the seismic energy required to cause liquefaction. The second set (column 6, Table 3) was developed from energy concepts and the relationship derived by Seed and Idriss (1982) between numbers of significant stress cycles and earthquake magnitude. The MSFs listed in column 5 are similar in value (within about 10%) to the MSFs of Ambraseys (column 4), and the MSFs listed in column 6 are similar in value (within about 10%) to the revised MSFs proposed by Idriss (column 3).

Andrus and Stokoe (1997) Scaling Factors

From their studies of liquefaction resistance as a function of shear wave velocity V_s Andrus and Stokoe (1997) drew bounding curves and developed (22) for calculating CRR from V_s for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes. These investigators drew similar bounding curves for sites where surface effects of liquefaction were or were not observed for earthquakes with magnitudes of 6, 6.5, and 7. The positions of the CRR curves were visually adjusted on each graph until a best-fit bound was obtained. Magnitude scaling factors were then estimated by taking the ratio of CRR for a given magnitude to the CRR for magnitude 7.5 earthquakes. These MSFs are quantified by the following equation:

$$MSF = (M_w/7.5)^{-2.56} \qquad (25)$$

MSFs for magnitudes <6 and >7.5 were extrapolated from this equation. The derived MSFs are listed in column 7 of Table 3, and plotted in Fig. 12. For magnitudes <7.5, the MSFs proposed by Andrus and Stokoe are rather close in value (within about 5%) to the MSFs proposed by Ambraseys. For magnitudes >7.5, the Andrus and Stokoe MSFs are slightly smaller than the revised MSFs proposed by Idriss.

Youd and Noble (1997a) Scaling Factors

Youd and Noble (1997a) used a probabilistic or logistic analysis to analyze case history data from sites where effects of liquefaction were or were not reported following past earthquakes. This analysis yielded the following equation, which was updated after publication of the NCEER proceedings (Youd and Idriss 1997):

$$\text{Logit}(P_L) = \ln(P_L/(1 - P_L)) = -7.0351 + 2.1738M_w - 0.2678(N_1)_{60cs} + 3.0265 \ln \text{CRR} \quad (26)$$

where P_L = probability that liquefaction occurred; $1 - P_L$ = probability that liquefaction did not occur; and $(N_1)_{60cs}$ = corrected equivalent clean-sand blow count. For magnitudes <7.5, Youd and Noble recommended direct application of this equation to calculate the CRR for a given probability of liquefaction. In lieu of direct application, Youd and Noble defined three sets of MSFs for use with the simplified procedure. These MSFs are for probabilities of liquefaction occurrence <20, 32, and 50%, respectively, and are defined by the following equations:

$$\text{Probability } P_L < 20\% \quad \text{MSF} = 10^{3.81}/M^{4.53} \text{ for } M_w < 7 \quad (27)$$

$$\text{Probability } P_L < 32\% \quad \text{MSF} = 10^{3.74}/M^{4.33} \text{ for } M_w < 7 \quad (28)$$

$$\text{Probability } P_L < 50\% \quad \text{MSF} = 10^{4.21}/M^{4.81} \text{ for } M_w < 7.75 \quad (29)$$

New Recommendation by Idriss

I. M. Idriss (TRB 1999) proposed a new set of MSFs that are compatible with, and are only to be used with, the magnitude-dependent r_d that he also proposed. These new MSFs have lower values than the revised MSFs listed in Table 3, but slightly higher values than the original Seed and Idriss (1982) MSFs. Because the proposed r_d and associated MSFs have not been published and the factors have not been independently verified, the workshop participants chose not to recommend the new r_d or MSFs at this time.

Recommendations for Engineering Practice

The workshop participants reviewed the MSFs listed in Table 3, and all but one (S. S. C. Liao) agree that the original factors were too conservative and that increased MSFs are warranted for engineering practice for magnitudes <7.5. Rather than recommending a single set of factors, the workshop participants suggest a range of MSFs from which the engineer is allowed to choose factors that are requisite with the acceptable risk for any given application. For magnitudes <7.5, the lower bound for the recommended range is the new MSF proposed by Idriss [column 3 in Table 3, or (23)]. The suggested upper bound is the MSF proposed by Andrus and Stokoe [column 7 in Table 3, or (26)]. The upper-bound values are consistent with MSFs suggested by Ambraseys (1988), Arango (1996), and Youd and Noble (1997a) for P_L < 20%.

For magnitudes >7.5, the new factors recommended by Idriss [column 3 in Table 3; (25)] should be used for engineering practice. These new factors are smaller than the original Seed and Idriss (1982) factors, hence their application leads to increased calculated liquefaction hazard compared to the original factors. Because there are only a few well-documented liquefaction case histories for earthquakes with magnitudes >8, MSFs in that range are poorly constrained by field data. Thus the workshop participants agreed that the greater conservatism embodied in the revised MSF by Idriss (column 3, Table 3) should be recommended for engineering practice.

CORRECTIONS FOR HIGH OVERBURDEN STRESSES, STATIC SHEAR STRESSES, AND AGE OF DEPOSIT

Correction factors K_σ and K_α were developed by Seed (1983) to extrapolate the simplified procedure to larger overburden pressure and static shear stress conditions than those embodied in the case history data set from which the simplified procedure was derived. As noted previously, the simplified procedure was developed and validated only for level to gently sloping sites (low static shear stress) and depths less than about 15 m (low overburden pressures). Thus applications using K_σ and K_α are beyond routine practice and require specialized expertise. Because these factors were discussed at the workshop and some new information was developed, recommendations from those discussions are included here. These recommendations, however, apply mostly to liquefaction hazard analyses of embankment dams and other large structures. These factors are applied by extending (23) to include K_σ and K_α as follows:

$$\text{FS} = (\text{CRR}_{7.5}/\text{CSR}) \cdot \text{MSF} \cdot K_\sigma \cdot K_\alpha \quad (30)$$

K_σ Correction Factor

Cyclically loaded laboratory test data indicate that liquefaction resistance increases with increasing confining stress. The rate of increase, however, is nonlinear. To account for the nonlinearity between CRR and effective overburden pressure, Seed (1983) introduced the correction factor K_σ to extrapolate the simplified procedure to soil layers with overburden pressures >100 kPa. Cyclically loaded, isotropically consolidated triaxial compression tests on sand specimens were used to measure CRR for high-stress conditions and develop K_σ values. By taking the ratio of CRR for various confining pressures to the CRR determined for approximately 100 kPa (1 atm) Seed (1983) developed the original K_σ correction curve. Other investigators have added data and suggested modifications to better define K_σ for engineering practice. For example, Seed and Harder (1990) developed the clean-sand curve reproduced in Fig. 13. Hynes and Olsen (1999) compiled and analyzed an enlarged data set to provide guidance and formulate equations for selecting K_σ values (Fig. 14). The equation they derived for calculating K_σ is

$$K_\sigma = (\sigma'_{vo}/P_a)^{(f-1)} \quad (31)$$

where σ'_{vo}, effective overburden pressure; and P_a, atmospheric pressure, are measured in the same units; and f is an exponent that is a function of site conditions, including relative density, stress history, aging, and overconsolidation ratio. The workshop participants considered the work of previous investigators and recommend the following values for f (Fig. 15). For relative densities between 40 and 60%, f = 0.7–0.8; for relative densities between 60 and 80%, f = 0.6–0.7. Hynes and Olsen recommended these values as minimal or conservative esti-

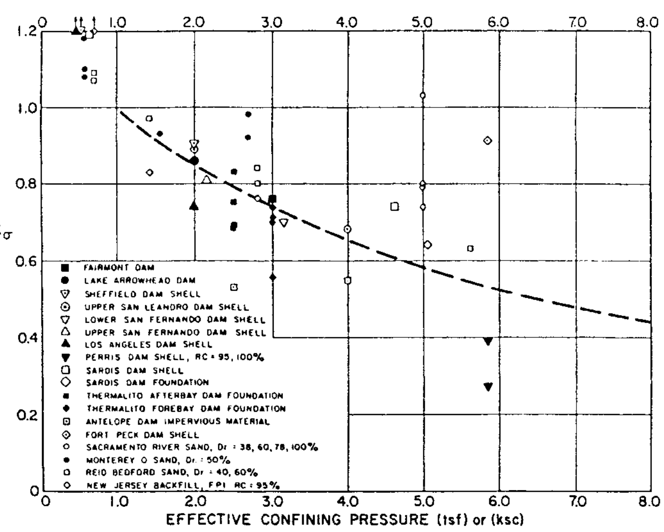


FIG. 13. K_σ-Values Determined by Various Investigators (Reproduced from Seed and Harder 1990)

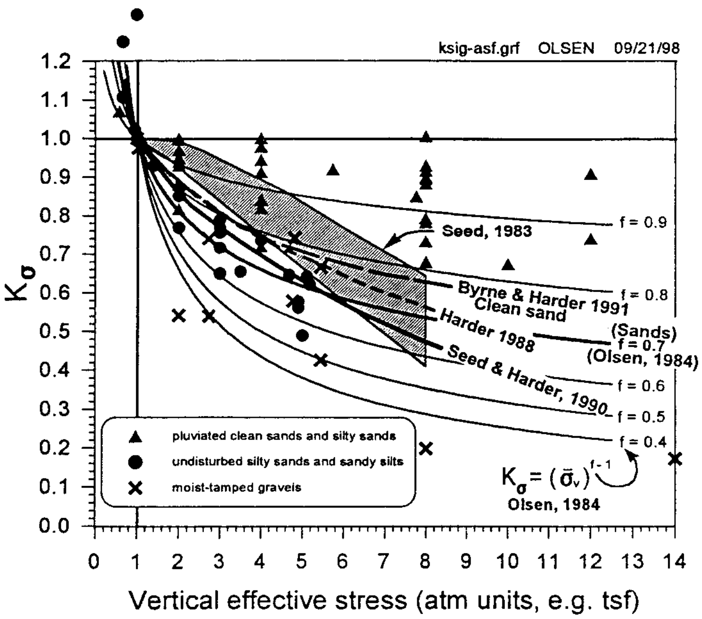


FIG. 14. Laboratory Data and Compiled K_σ Curves (Reproduced from Hynes and Olsen 1999)

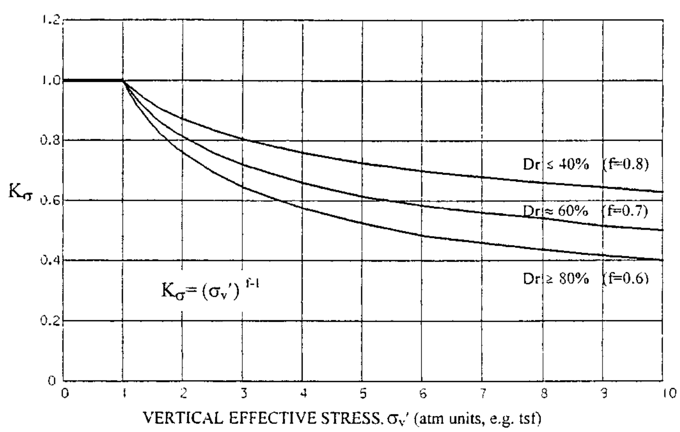


FIG. 15. Recommended Curves for Estimating K_σ for Engineering Practice

mates of K_σ for use in engineering practice for both clean and silty sands, and for gravels. The workshop participants concurred with this recommendation.

K_α Correction Factor for Sloping Ground

The liquefaction resistance of dilative soils (moderately dense to dense granular materials under low confining stress) increases with increased static shear stress. Conversely, the liquefaction resistance of contractive soils (loose soils and moderately dense soils under high confining stress) decreases with increased static shear stresses. To incorporate the effect of static shear stresses on liquefaction resistance, Seed (1983) introduced a correction factor K_α. To generate values for this factor, Seed normalized the static shear stress τ_{st} acting on a plane with respect to the effective vertical stress σ'_{vo} yielding a parameter α, where

$$\alpha = \tau_{st}/\sigma'_{vo} \tag{32}$$

Cyclically loaded triaxial compression tests were then used to empirically determine values of the correction factor K_α as a function of α.

For the NCEER workshop, Harder and Boulanger (1997) reviewed past publications, test results, and analyses of K_α. They noted that a wide range of K_α values have been proposed, indicating a lack of convergence and a need for continued research. The workshop participants agreed with this assessment. Although curves relating K_α to α have been published (Harder and Boulanger 1997), these curves should not be used by nonspecialists in geotechnical earthquake engineering or in routine engineering practice.

Influence of Age of Deposit

Several investigators have noted that liquefaction resistance of soils increases with age. For example, Seed (1979) observed significant increases in liquefaction resistance with aging of reconstituted sand specimens tested in the laboratory. Increases of as much as 25% in cyclic resistance ratio were noted between freshly constituted and 100-day-old specimens. Youd and Hoose (1977) and Youd and Perkins (1978) noted that liquefaction resistance increases markedly with geologic age. Sediments deposited within the past few thousand years are generally much more susceptible to liquefaction than older Holocene sediments; Pleistocene sediments are even more resistant; and pre-Pleistocene sediments are generally immune to liquefaction. Although qualitative time-dependent increases have been documented as noted above, few quantitative data have been collected. In addition, the factors causing increased liquefaction resistance with age are poorly understood. Consequently, verified correction factors for age have not been developed.

In the absence of quantitative correction factors, engineering judgment is required to estimate the liquefaction resistance of sediments more than a few thousand years old. For deeply buried sediments dated as more than a few thousand years old, some knowledgeable engineers have omitted application of the K_σ factor as partial compensation for the unquantified, but substantial increase of liquefaction resistance with age. For man-made structures, such as thick fills and embankment dams, aging effects are minimal, and corrections for age should not be applied in calculating liquefaction resistance.

SEISMIC FACTORS

Application of the simplified procedure for evaluating liquefaction resistance requires estimates of two ground motion parameters—earthquake magnitude and peak horizontal ground acceleration. These factors characterize duration and intensity of ground shaking, respectively. The workshop addressed the following questions with respect to selection of magnitude and peak acceleration values for liquefaction resistance analyses.

Earthquake Magnitude

Records from recent earthquakes, such as 1979 Imperial Valley, 1988 Armenia, 1989 Loma Prieta, 1994 Northridge, and 1995 Kobe, indicate that the relationship between duration and magnitude is rather uncertain and that factors other than magnitude also influence duration. For example, unilateral faulting, in which rupture begins at one end of the fault and propagates to the other, usually produces longer shaking duration for a given magnitude than bilateral faulting, in which slip begins near the midpoint on the fault and propagates in both directions simultaneously. Duration also generally increases with distance from the seismic energy source and may vary with tectonic province, site conditions, and bedrock topography (basin effects).

Question: Should correction factors be developed to adjust duration of shaking to account for the influence of earthquake source mechanism, fault rupture mode, distance from the energy source, basin effects, etc.?

Answer: Faulting characteristics and variations in shaking duration are difficult to predict in advance of an earthquake event. The influence of distance generally is of secondary importance within the range of distances to which damaging liquefaction effects commonly develop. Basin effects are not yet sufficiently predictable to be adequately accounted for in engineering practice. Thus the workshop participants recommend continued use of the generally conservative relationship between magnitude and duration that is embodied in the simplified procedure.

Question: An important difference between eastern U.S. earthquakes and western U.S. earthquakes is that eastern ground motions are generally richer in high-frequency energy and thus could generate more significant stress cycles and equivalently longer durations than western earthquakes of the same magnitude. Is a correction needed to account for higher frequencies of motions generated by eastern U.S. earthquakes?

Answer: The high-frequency motions of eastern earthquakes are generally limited to near-field rock sites. High-frequency motions attenuate or are damped out rather quickly as they propagate through soil layers. This filtering action reduces the high-frequency energy at soil sites and thus reduces differences in numbers of significant loading cycles. Because liquefaction occurs only within soil strata, duration differences on soil sites between eastern and western earthquakes are not likely to be great. Without more instrumentally recorded data from which differences in ground motion characteristics can be quantified, there is little basis for the development of additional correction factors for eastern localities.

Another difference between eastern and western U.S. earthquakes is that strong ground motions generally propagate to greater distances in the east than in the west. By applying present state-of-the-art procedures for estimating peak ground acceleration at eastern sites, differences in amplitudes of ground motions between western and eastern earthquakes are properly taken into account.

Question: Which magnitude scale should be used for selection of earthquake magnitudes for liquefaction resistance analyses?

Answer: Seismologists commonly calculate earthquake magnitudes using five different scales: (1) local or Richter magnitude M_L; (2) surface-wave magnitude M_s; (3) short-period body-wave magnitude m_b; (4) long-period body-wave magnitude m_B; and (5) moment magnitude M_w. Moment magnitude, the scale most commonly used for engineering applications, is the scale preferred for calculation of liquefaction resistance. As Fig. 16 shows, magnitudes from other scales may be substituted directly for M_w within the following limitations—$M_L < 6$, $m_B < 7.5$, and $6 < M_s < 8$—m_b, a scale commonly used for eastern U.S. earthquakes, may be used for magnitudes between 5 and 6, provided m_b values are corrected to equivalent M_w values. The curves plotted in Fig. 16 may be used for this adjustment (Idriss 1985).

Peak Acceleration

In the simplified procedure, peak horizontal acceleration a_{max} is used to characterize the intensity of ground shaking. To provide guidance for estimation of a_{max}, the workshop addressed the following questions.

Question: What procedures are preferred for estimating a_{max} at potentially liquefiable sites?

Answer: The following methods, in order of preference, may be used for estimating a_{max}:

1) The preferred method for estimating a_{max} is through empirical correlations of a_{max} with earthquake magnitude, distance from the seismic energy source, and local site conditions. Several correlations have been published for estimating a_{max} for sites on bedrock or stiff to moderately stiff soils. Preliminary attenuation relationships have also been developed for a limited range of soft soil sites (Idriss 1991). Selection of an attenuation relationship should be based on such factors as region of the country, type of faulting, and site condition.

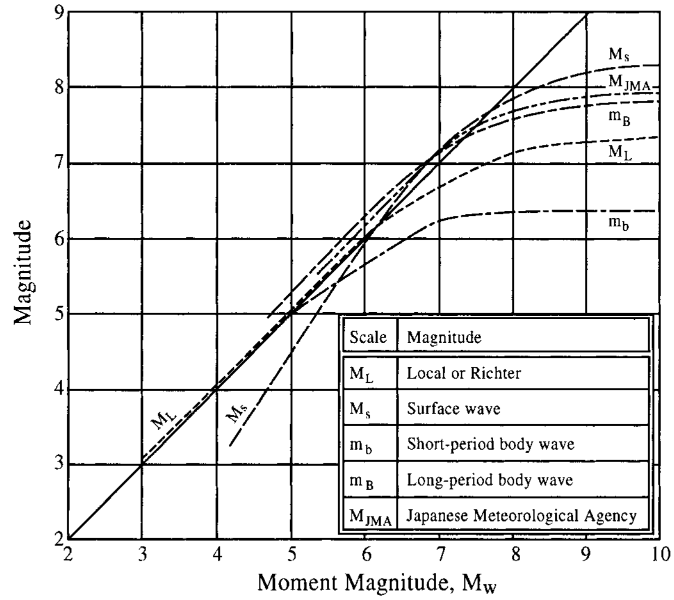


FIG. 16. Relationship between Moment M_w and Other Magnitude Scales (Reproduced from Heaton et al., Unpublished Report, 1982)

2) For soft sites and other soil profiles that are not compatible with available attenuation relationships, a_{max} may be estimated from local site response analyses. Computer programs such as SHAKE and DESRA may be used for these calculations (Schnabel et al. 1972; Finn et al. 1977). Input ground motions in the form of recorded accelerograms are preferable to synthetic records. Accelerograms derived from white noise should be avoided. A suite of plausible earthquake records should be used in the analysis, including as many as feasible from earthquakes with similar magnitudes, source distances, etc.

3) The third and least desirable method for estimating peak ground acceleration is through amplification ratios, such as those developed by Idriss (1990, 1991) and Seed et al. (1994). These factors use a multiplier or ratio by which bedrock outcrop motions are amplified to estimate surface motions at soil sites. Because amplification ratios are influenced by strain level, earthquake magnitude, and frequency content, caution and considerable engineering judgment are required in the application of these relationships.

Question: Which peak acceleration should be used: (1) the largest horizontal acceleration recorded on a three-component accelerogram; (2) the geometric mean (square root of the product) of the two maximum horizontal components; or (3) a vectorial combination of horizontal accelerations?

Answer: According to I. M. Idriss (oral discussion at NCEER workshop, 1996), where recorded motions were available, the larger of the two horizontal peak components of acceleration was used in the compilation of data used to derive the original simplified procedure. Where recorded values were not available, which was the circumstance for most sites, peak acceleration values were estimated from attenuation relationships based on the geometric mean of the two orthogonal peak horizontal accelerations. In nearly all instances where recorded motions were used, the peaks from the two horizontal records were approximately equal. Thus where a single peak was used, the peak and the geometric mean of the two peaks were about the same value. Based on this information, the workshop participants concurred that use of the geometric mean is consistent with the development of the procedure and is preferred for use in engineering practice. However, use of the larger of the two orthogonal peak accelerations yields a larger estimate of a_{max}, is conservative, and is allowable. Vectorial accelerations are seldom calculated and should not be used. Peak vertical accelerations are generally much smaller than peak horizontal accelerations and are ignored for calculation of liquefaction resistance.

Question: Liquefaction usually develops at soil sites where ground motion amplification may occur and where sediment may soften, reducing motions as excess pore pressure develop. How should investigators account for these factors in estimating peak acceleration?

Answer: The recommended procedure is to calculate or estimate the a_{max} that would occur at the site in the absence of increased pore pressure or the onset of liquefaction. That peak acceleration incorporates the influence of site amplification, but neglects the influence of excess pore-water pressure.

Question: Should high-frequency spikes (periods <0.1 s) in acceleration records be considered or ignored?

Answer: In general, short-duration, high-frequency acceleration spikes are too short in duration to generate significant instability or deformation of granular structures, and should be ignored. By using attenuation relationships for estimation of peak acceleration, as noted above, high-frequency spikes are essentially ignored because few high-frequency peaks are incorporated in databases from which attenuation the relationships were derived. Similarly, ground response analyses programs such as SHAKE and DESRA generally attenuate or filter out high-frequency spikes, reducing their influence. Where amplification ratios are used, engineering judgment should be used to determine which bedrock acceleration is to be amplified.

ENERGY-BASED CRITERIA AND PROBABILISTIC ANALYSES

The workshop considered two additional topics: (1) liquefaction resistance criteria based on seismic energy passing through a liquefiable layer (Kayen and Mitchell 1997; Youd et al. 1997), and probabilistic analyses of case history data (Liao et al. 1988; Youd and Noble 1997b). Although probabilistic or risk analyses have been made for some localities and critical facilities, the workshop participants concluded that probabilistic procedures are still under development and not sufficiently formulated for routine engineering practice. Similarly, new energy-based criteria need to be independently tested before recommendations can be made for general practice. The workshop participants recommend that research and development continue on both of these relatively new and potentially useful procedures.

CONCLUSIONS

The participants in the NCEER workshop reviewed the state-of-the-art for evaluating liquefaction resistance and recommend several augmentations to that procedure. Specific recommendations, including procedures and equations, are listed in each section of this summary paper. Consensus conclusions from the workshop are:

1. Four field tests are recommended for routine evaluation of liquefaction resistance—the cone penetration test (CPT), the standard penetration test (SPT), shear-wave velocity (V_s) measurements, and for gravelly sites the Becker penetration test (BPT). Criteria for each test were reviewed and revised to incorporate recent developments and to achieve consistency between resistances calculated from the various tests. Each test has its advantages and limitations (Table 1). the CPT provides the most detailed soil stratigraphy and robust field-data based liquefaction resistance curves now available. CPT testing should always be accompanied by soil sampling for validation of soil type identification. The SPT has a longer record of application and provides disturbed soil samples from which fines content and other grain characteristics can be determined. Measured shear-wave velocities provide fundamental information on small-strain soil behavior that is useful beyond analyses of liquefaction resistance. V_s is also applicable at sites, such as landfills and gravelly sediments, where CPT and SPT soundings may not be possible or reliable. The BPT test is recommended only for gravelly sites and requires use of rough correlations between BPT and SPT, making the results less certain than other tests. Where possible, two or more test procedures should be applied to assure adequate definition of soil stratigraphy and a consistent evaluation of liquefaction resistance.
2. The magnitude scaling factors originally derived by Seed and Idriss (1982) are overly conservative for earthquakes with magnitudes <7.5. A range of scaling factors is recommended for engineering practice, the lower end of the range being the new MSF recommended by Idriss (column 3, Table 3), and the upper end of the range being the MSF suggested by Andrus and Stokoe (column 7, Table 3). These MSFs are defined by (25) and (26), respectively. For magnitudes >7.5, the new factors by Idriss (column 3, Table 3) should be used. These factors, which are more conservative than the original Seed and Idriss (1982) factors, should be applied.
3. The K_σ factors suggested by Seed and Harder (1990) appear to be overly conservative for some soils and field conditions. The workshop participants recommend K_σ values defined by the curves in Fig. 14 or (31). Because K_σ values are usually applied to depths greater than those verified for the simplified procedure, special expertise is generally required for their application.
4. Procedures for evaluation of liquefaction resistance beneath sloping ground or embankments (slopes greater than about 6%) have not been developed to a level allowable for routine use. Special expertise is required for evaluation of liquefaction resistance beneath sloping ground.
5. Moment magnitude M_w should be used for liquefaction resistance calculations. Magnitude, as used in the simplified procedure, is a measure of the duration of strong ground shaking. The present magnitude criteria are conservative and should not be corrected for source mechanism, style of faulting, distance from the energy source, subsurface bedrock topography (basin effect), or tectonic region (eastern versus western U.S. earthquakes).
6. The peak acceleration a_{max} applied in the procedure is the peak horizontal acceleration that would occur at ground surface in the absence of pore pressure increases or liquefaction. Attenuation relationships compatible with soil conditions at a site should be applied in estimating a_{max}. Relationships based on the geometric mean of the peak horizontal accelerations are preferred, but use of relationships based on peak horizontal acceleration is allowable and conservative. Where site conditions are incompatible with existing attenuation relationships, site-specific response calculations, using programs such as SHAKE or DESRA, should be used. The least preferable technique is application of amplification factors.

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NOTATION

The following symbols are used in this paper:

a, b = curve fitting parameters for use with V_s criteria for evaluating liquefaction resistance;
$a_{\max}$ = peak horizontal acceleration at ground surface;
C_B = correction factor for borehole diameter;
C_E = correction factor for hammer energy;
C_N = correction factor for overburden pressure applied to SPT;
C_Q = correction factor for overburden pressure applied to CPT;
C_R = correction factor for drilling rod length;
C_S = correction factor for split spoon sampler without liners;
$\mathrm{CRR}_{7.5}$ = cyclic resistance ratio for $M_w = 7.5$ earthquakes;
d_c = diameter of CPT tip;
F = normalized friction ratio;
f = exponent estimated from site conditions used in calculation of K_σ;
f_s = sleeve friction measured with CPT;
g = acceleration of gravity;
H = thickness of thin granular layer between softer sediment layers;
I_c = soil behavior type index for use with CPT liquefaction criteria;
K_c = correction factor for grain characteristics applied to CPT;
K_H = thin-layer correction factor for use with CPT;
K_α = correction factor for soil layers subjected to large static shear stresses;
K_σ = correction factor for soil layers subjected to large static normal stresses;
M_L = local or Richter magnitude of earthquake;
M_s = surface-wave magnitude of earthquake;
M_w = moment magnitude of earthquake;
m_B = long period body-wave magnitude of earthquake;
m_b = short period body-wave magnitude of earthquake;
N_m = measured standard penetration resistance;
$(N_1)_{60}$ = corrected standard penetration resistance;
$(N_1)_{60cs}$ = $(N_1)_{60}$ adjusted to equivalent clean-sand value;
n = exponent used in normalizing CPT resistance for overburden stress;
P_a = atmospheric pressure, approximately 100 kPa;
P_L = probability of liquefaction;
Q = normalized and dimensionless cone penetration resistance;
q_{c1N} = normalized cone penetration resistance;
$(q_{c1N})_{cs}$ = normalized cone penetration resistance adjusted to equivalent clean-sand value;
r_d = stress reduction coefficient to account for flexibility in soil profile;
V_s = measured shear-wave velocity;
V_{s1} = overburden-stress corrected shear-wave velocity;
V_{s1}^* = limiting upper value of V_{s1} for liquefaction occurrences;
z = depth below ground surface (m);
α, β = coefficients, that are functions of fines content, used to correct $(N_1)_{60}$ to $(N_1)_{60cs}$;
σ'_{vo} = effective overburden pressure;
τ_{av} = average horizontal shear stress acting on soil layer during shaking generated by given earthquake; and
τ_{st} = static shear stress acting on soil element due to gravitational forces.