ORIGINAL RESEARCH

A Deep Learning–Enhanced Framework for Predicting Liquefaction Susceptibility of Sandy Soils Using SPT-Based Geotechnical Data

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Abstract: Soil liquefaction remains one of the most critical challenges in geotechnical earthquake engineering, often resulting in severe ground deformation, settlement, and infrastructure failure during strong seismic events. Traditional empirical methods, while widely used, are limited in their ability to capture the nonlinear and complex interactions among soil parameters. This study introduces a hybrid deep learning framework based on a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) optimized using the Multi-Verse Optimizer (MVO) to predict liquefaction potential and post-liquefaction settlement. A comprehensive geotechnical database consisting of 300 borehole records from the northern provinces of Iran—including SPT data, groundwater level, soil type, fine content, and liquefiable depth—was used for model training and evaluation. The hybrid CNN–MVO model demonstrated high predictive capability, achieving regression coefficients exceeding 90% and Mean Squared Error (MSE) values below 0.5 across training, testing, and validation sets. Sensitivity analysis revealed that fine content (FP) had the strongest influence on liquefaction potential, followed by SPT-N and soil type. The results confirm that combining CNN with MVO significantly enhances model accuracy and parameter interpretability, offering a robust alternative to traditional liquefaction assessment methods. The proposed model can support engineers in developing more reliable seismic risk evaluations and mitigation strategies in liquefaction-prone regions.

 Keywords: Liquefaction, Deep Learning, CNN-MVO, SPT, Geotechnical Engineering, Soft Computing.

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List of abbreviations: MVO - Multiverse Optimization Algorithm **CNN** - Convolutional Neural Networks SPT -Standard Potential Test **CSR** -Cyclic Stress Ratio CRR -Cyclic Resistance Ratio -total vertical stress σν -the effective vertical stress the stress reduction factor -represents the maximum horizontal acceleration due to the earthquake at the ground surface -the acceleration due to gravity g Z - Depth (m)

Highlights:

- A redesigned and optimized hybrid deep learning framework (CNN-MVO) is introduced to evaluate liquefaction susceptibility using SPT data.
- Five key geotechnical parameters (soil type, groundwater depth, fine content, SPT-N, depth of liquefiable layer) are used as model inputs.
- A curated dataset of over 300 boreholes from northern Iran is used for training and validation.
- The proposed CNN–MVO architecture achieves high prediction accuracy (R > 0.90 and MSE < 0.5).
- Sensitivity analysis identifies fine content as the most influential factor controlling liquefaction behavior.
- The framework offers a robust, efficient, and data-driven tool to support seismic geotechnical risk assessment.

1. Introduction

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Soil liquefaction is a major seismic hazard that 88 has repeatedly caused severe geotechnical fail-89 90 ures during major earthquakes such as Niigata (1964) and Christchurch (2011). Evaluating liq-91 uefaction susceptibility is therefore critical for 92 seismic design, hazard mitigation, and risk as-93 sessment. Traditional empirical approaches such 94 as SPT-based CSR-CRR procedures remain the 95 most widely used methods in practice; however, these approaches are limited by simplifying as-97 sumptions regarding soil behavior, seismic demand, and spatial variability [1-3]. Understanding the dynamic behavior of soil under earth-100 101 quake loading is a fundamental component of seismic hazard assessment. As highlighted in re-102 103 cent studies on structure soil structure interaction, the response of geotechnical systems plays a critical role in the overall seismic performance 105 of infrastructures, emphasizing the necessity of 106 accurate soil behavior modeling during strong 107 ground motions [4]. These findings further rein-108 109 force the importance of evaluating soil failure mechanisms particularly liquefaction, which re-110 mains one of the most destructive geotechnical 111 hazards associated with earthquakes. Moreover, nonlinear seismic analyses on ground-structure 113 systems have demonstrated that variations in soil 114 properties can significantly influence stress dis-115 tribution, deformation patterns, and the perfor-116 mance of underground structures, underscoring 117 118 the crucial need for reliable predictive tools capable of capturing complex soil behavior [5]. 119 Such insights provide strong motivation for em-120 ploying advanced modeling techniques to assess 121 the susceptibility of sandy soils to liquefaction 122 under cyclic loading. In broader seismic engi-123 124 neering contexts, recent investigations into the performance of seismic energy absorption sys-125 tems also highlight the critical role of soil condi-126 tions in controlling ground motion effects trans-127 mitted to structures [6]. While these studies pri-128 marily focus on structural engineering, they col-129 lectively point toward a consistent conclusion: the behavior of soil during earthquakes must be

accurately assessed to mitigate seismic risks effectively. Building upon this body of knowledge, the present study integrates geotechnical data 134 with advanced artificial intelligence techniques 136 to develop a robust predictive model for lique-137 faction potential. The hybrid CNN-MVO framework proposed here seeks to overcome the limi-138 139 tations of traditional empirical correlations by capturing the nonlinear, multivariate dependen-140 cies among key soil parameters such as SPT val-141 142 ues, fine content, groundwater level, and liquefi-

able layer depth.

With rapid progress in artificial intelligence, ma-144 145 chine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) 146 techniques have shown strong potential to model nonlinear soil behavior under cyclic loading. Re-147 148 cent studies have demonstrated that ML algorithms can significantly improve the accuracy of 149 liquefaction prediction compared with empirical 150 correlations. For example, Kumar et al. (2023) employed machine learning using SPT parame-152 ters to predict liquefaction susceptibility and re-153 154 ported superior performance relative to conven-155 tional methods [7]. Deep neural networks have also been successfully used to model liquefac-156 157 tion behavior based on shear-wave velocity profiles, highlighting their capability to capture 158 complex soil responses under dynamic loading 159 160 [8].

161 Advanced probabilistic and data-driven frameworks have further extended liquefaction assessment, including Bayesian belief networks for es-164 timating lateral displacements caused by lique-165 faction [9], fragility-based liquefaction ground failure models [10], and large-scale data analyt-166 167 ics for liquefaction consequence evaluation [11]. 168 Other researchers have investigated hybrid models, such as GA-SVM and GWO-SVM combi-169 nations, which have shown improved predictive performance for liquefaction triggering using multi-regional datasets [12, 13].

173 More recent studies have focused on modeling 174 pore-pressure generation and cyclic response us-175 ing ML and deep learning. Choi & Kumar

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(2023) demonstrated the usefulness of ML mod-177 els for predicting pore-pressure response in liquefiable sands subjected to cyclic loading [14]. 178 Several investigations have also explored ad-179 vanced frameworks for liquefaction assessment, 180 including state parameter-based ML evaluation [15], multilayer fast liquefaction disaster assess-182 ment systems [16], and comprehensive reviews 183 summarizing ML-based liquefaction prediction 184 techniques from 1994 to 2021 [17]. Moreover, 185 deep learning methods such as CNNs and 186 LSTMs have been applied to seismic site re-187 sponse modeling in downhole array stations, in-188 dicating the strong adaptability of DL techniques in geotechnical dynamics [18]. 190

Despite these advances, CNN-based hybrid optimization models tailored specifically for SPT-192 driven liquefaction prediction remain limited. 193 Most existing studies have focused on either 194 conventional ML models or deep networks with-195 out systematic optimization. Therefore, there is still a need for developing improved hybrid deep 197 learning frameworks that integrate deep feature 198 extraction and global optimization to enhance 199 the predictive performance and interpretability 200 of liquefaction assessment models. Motivated by these gaps, the present study introduces an opti-202 203 mized CNN-MVO hybrid model trained on a large SPT-based geotechnical database from 204 northern Iran to improve the reliability of lique-205 faction susceptibility prediction. 206

This study contributes a restructured and optimized CNN-MVO hybrid model for liquefaction prediction using SPT-based data. The model is trained using a region-specific dataset from northern Iran, enabling improved adaptability and interpretability. The main innovations of the study include:

> Development of a refined deep learning architecture integrating CNN and MVO

for liquefaction susceptibility assessment.

- Use of a large, unified field database from boreholes in northern Iran.
- Comprehensive sensitivity analysis to identify dominant geotechnical parameters influencing liquefaction behavior.
- A practical data-driven assessment framework suitable for seismic hazard evaluation and engineering decisionmaking.

2. Theoretical Foundations of the Study

The evaluation of liquefaction resistance has 231 long been grounded in empirical approaches 232 built upon extensive in-situ testing and postearthquake observations. Field methods such as 234 the Standard Penetration Test (SPT), Cone Pen-235 etration Test (CPT), and shear wave velocity 236 profiling continue to serve as the primary tools 237 for assessing liquefaction hazard, given their 238 practicality and decades of validation in geotech-239 nical engineering practice [19, 20]. These meth-240 ods have played a central role in characterizing 241 242 subsurface conditions and have provided essential correlations for estimating the cyclic stress 243 244 ratio (CSR) and cyclic resistance ratio (CRR) in 245 engineering evaluations.

246 Documented evidence from major seismic 247 events highlights the destructive consequences 248 of liquefaction, including lateral spreading, sand 249 ejecta, ground settlement, and foundation fail-250 ures. For instance, the 2011 Great East Japan 251 Earthquake triggered widespread liquefaction 252 across both coastal and inland regions extending 253 nearly 500 km from the epicentral area resulting

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in severe deformation and extensive infrastruc-255 ture disruption [21]. Similar liquefaction-related damage has been reported in the Maule (2012), 256 Tōhoku (2011), and Christchurch (2011) earth-257 quakes, underscoring the need for reliable pre-258 dictive tools [3]. Traditional metrics such as the 259 Liquefaction Potential Index (LPI), typically de-260 261 rived from SPT and CPT inputs [22, 23], have been widely used to produce liquefaction sus-262 ceptibility maps, such as those developed by 263 Maurer et al. (2014) for regions in Turkey[24]. 264 Complementing these deterministic tools, prob-265 abilistic approaches including Newmark-type 266 displacement analyses [25]. underscore the im-267 portance of integrating soil stratigraphy, dy-268 namic behavior, and ground motion characteris-269 tics. The fundamental mechanism of liquefaction 270 is generally illustrated in Figure 1. 271

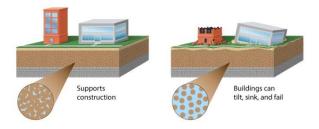


Figure 1. Liquefaction Mechanism – Soil particles become buoyant due to increased pore water pressure.

In recent years, the rapid advancement of artifi-277 278 cial intelligence has significantly transformed liquefaction research, creating new pathways for 279 modeling complex, nonlinear soil behavior. 280 Deep learning, in particular, has expanded pre-281 dictive capabilities. Zhang et al. (2023) trained a 282 Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) on more 283 than one million nonlinear site-response simula-284 tions to detect the onset and timing of liquefac-285 tion, demonstrating the remarkable scalability of 286 DL models[26]. Similarly, Sehmusoğlu et al. 287 (2025) conducted an extensive comparative 288

study involving CNNs, LSTMs, BiLSTMs, and 290 other ML/DL architectures for liquefaction prediction, highlighting the strengths and limita-291 tions of each model[27]. Bai et al. (2024) intro-292 duced a CNN-GA hybrid framework to examine 293 294 correlations between SPT and CPT data for liquefaction classification[28], whereas Ghani et al. (2025) applied multiple advanced algorithms 296 CNN, LSTM, CatBoost, and XGBoost to clas-297 sify soils and estimate liquefaction potential [29, 298 299 30]. Chou and Pham (2024) further contributed to this domain by developing a JS-CNN-XGB 300 301 hybrid architecture that combined global optimi-302 zation with both deep and gradient-boosting models[31]. Additionally, Kumar et al. (2023) 303 employed DNNs, CNNs, and Simple RNN mod-304 305 els to estimate the probability of liquefaction occurrence based on multiple influencing parame-306 ters[7, 32]. Shafiei et al. (2022) expanded this re-307 search direction by proposing an ELM-MVO 308 hybrid model for forecasting liquefaction effects 309 in seismic tunnel linings embedded within sandy 310 layers[33]. 311

Beyond deep learning applications, empirical 312 and experimental studies still provide critical in-313 sight. Chen et al. (2016) evaluated several empirical liquefaction prediction methods across 315 316 different soil depths using extensive earthquake datasets from Taiwan[34]. Dynamic analyses by 317 Hadi Shahir et al. (2012) emphasized the pivotal 318 319 role of soil permeability in pore pressure gener-320 ation and dissipation during seismic loading, supported by centrifuge test results[35]. These 321 322 findings highlight that soil behavior during liquefaction is governed by both mechanical char-323 acteristics and hydrodynamic interactions. 324

325 Soft computing methods such as fuzzy logic, 326 gene expression programming, and hybrid opti-327 mization have also become prominent in recent 328 years. For example, Samui and Hariharan (2015) 329 introduced the Minimax Probability Machine for

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- 330 CPT-based liquefaction classification[36], while Muduli and Das (2015) incorporated multi-gene 331 genetic programming with SPT data to account 332 for uncertainty in seismic liquefaction predic-333 tion[37]. Javadi et al. (2009) developed an intel-334 ligent finite element framework by embedding neural networks into stress-strain simulations 336 337 under dynamic loading[38]. These studies collectively demonstrate a growing reliance on soft 338 computing, hybrid frameworks, and data-driven 339 modeling in liquefaction assessment. 340
- Overall, convergence 341 the of empirical 342 knowledge, laboratory investigations, soft computing, and deep learning techniques has created a more holistic foundation for understanding and 344 predicting liquefaction behavior. While empiri-345 cal models remain essential, AI-driven frame-346 works offer the ability to capture complex inter-347 actions between soil parameters, seismic load-348 ing, and subsurface conditions that traditional 349 approaches may overlook. Motivated by these advancements, the present research introduces a 351 hybrid CNN-MVO model specifically devel-352 oped for liquefaction assessment in the Ma-353 zandaran coastal region, aiming to enhance pre-354 dictive performance and provide a robust, datadriven tool for regional geotechnical hazard mit-356 357 igation.

3. Research Methodology

The research methodology adopted in this study was structured to address both the primary and secondary research objectives while seeking to identify a robust and generalizable predictive model applicable to sandy soils susceptible to liquefaction under similar geotechnical conditions. The methodological framework consists of a sequence of systematic and, in some cases, parallel steps designed to ensure scientific rigor, data reliability, and optimal model performance.

- The main stages of the methodology are summarized below:
- 1. Comprehensive investigation of liquefaction hazards and review of existing analytical and predictive methods.
- Assessment of liquefaction potential in geotechnical projects located across the northern provinces of Iran, with emphasis on areas known to contain saturated sandy or silty layers.
 - 3. Compilation of all necessary geotechnical data required for training artificial neural networks and deep learning models.
 - 4. Data preprocessing, including statistical screening, quality control, and removal of outliers to ensure a consistent and reliable database.
 - 5. Identification and selection of appropriate input and output variables aligned with liquefaction mechanisms and consistent with deep learning requirements.
 - 6. Development and coding of the proposed hybrid deep learning model, integrating a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) with the Multi-Verse Optimizer (MVO) algorithm for enhanced parameter optimization.
 - 7. Implementation and training of the CNN–MVO model using the compiled geotechnical dataset.
 - 8. Performance evaluation of the developed model using statistical assessment tools and prediction accuracy metrics to validate the model's reliability and generalizability.

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3.1.Liquefaction Hazard Calculation

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Ground failure is one of the principal sources of damage during earthquakes. Such failure may arise from ground cracking, differential settlements, lateral displacements, or the sudden loss of soil shear strength. In saturated, loose to medium-dense sandy soils, the buildup of excess pore water pressure during cyclic seismic loading can reduce effective stress to near-zero values, triggering a phenomenon known as soil liquefaction. When shear strength is lost, the affected soil behaves temporarily like a viscous fluid, often manifesting in the field as sand boils, lateral spreading, and flow-type deformations.

Considering the presence of thick saturated 424 sandy and silty layers at varying depths in the 425 426 study region and supported by available SPT data the evaluation of liquefaction potential was 427 carried out using established engineering proce-428 dures. 429

Among the various available liquefaction assess-430 ment methods, the Seed et al. (1983) simplified procedure remains one of the most widely used 432 and validated approaches [39]. This method estimates liquefaction potential based on Standard 434 435 Penetration Test (SPT) results and evaluates the cyclic demand imposed by earthquake loading 436 437 on soil layers.

In this framework, the Cyclic Stress Ratio (CSR) representing the seismic shear stress induced in a soil layer is calculated either through detailed seismic site-response analyses or using the simplified formulation proposed by Seed et al. (1983)[39]. The commonly adopted equation is:

$$CSR = (\sigma_{av}/\sigma'_0) = 0.65(\frac{a_{max}}{g})(\frac{\sigma_v}{\sigma'_v})r_d \quad (1)$$

At the ground surface, $r_d = 1$, and its value decreases progressively with depth as seismic 448 stresses attenuate within the soil profile. The var-450 iation of r_d with depth, derived from empirical 451 and analytical studies, is illustrated in Figure 2.

452 This calculated CSR is subsequently compared with the Cyclic Resistance Ratio (CRR) to eval-453 uate the likelihood of liquefaction triggering un-454 455 der the design earthquake scenario.

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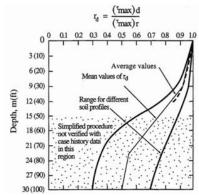


Figure 2. Stress reduction coefficient based on the method Seed et al., (1983)[39]

462 The cyclic shear strength of soil defined as the level of cyclic shear stress required to generate 463 excess pore water pressure sufficient to reduce 464 effective stress to zero can be estimated through 465 in-situ tests such as the Standard Penetration 466 Test (SPT). Numerous empirical correlations 467 468 have been developed to compute the Cyclic Resistance Ratio (CRR) based on corrected SPT 469 blow counts, fines content, and in some cases, soil plasticity parameters. One of the most 471 widely referenced correlations is the chart intro-472 duced by Seed et al. (1983)[39], presented in

Figure 3, which provides CRR (τ_{av} / σ'_0) values as

a function of normalized SPT data.

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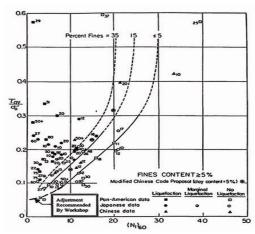


Figure 3. Chart for calculating the Cyclic Resistance Ratio (CRR) based on SPT values [39]

The factor of safety against liquefaction is defined as the ratio of the soil's cyclic shear resistance to the imposed cyclic shear stress. A factor of safety less than one indicates that the soil is expected to undergo liquefaction during the design seismic event. In this study, liquefaction analyses were performed using the Seed et al.

487 (1983)[39] simplified procedure, implemented 488 through LiquefyPro software (version 4.5D, 489 CivilTech). Boreholes exhibiting stratigraphic 490 and geotechnical characteristics conducive to 491 liquefaction were selected for detailed evalua-492 tion.

The analyses were conducted using earthquake parameters representative of the seismicity of the northern provinces, specifically a peak ground acceleration of a_{max} =0.3g and a moment magnitude of M = 7. Figure 4 illustrates an example of the computations and simulation outputs produced by LiquefyPro.

500 To strengthen the geotechnical database of this 501 study, the above calculations and modeling pro-502 cedures were applied to more than 300 boreholes 503 obtained from geotechnical investigation pro-504 jects across the northern regions of the country. 505 These extensive analyses provided a rich dataset 506 for subsequent deep learning model develop-507 ment and validation.

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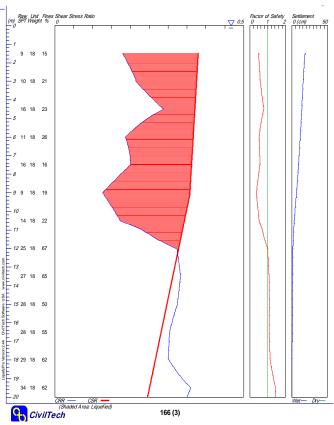


Figure 4. A sample of LiqufyPro software results in predicting liquefaction potential

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3.2. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN)

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) represent a specialized class of artificial neural networks that have gained significant attention in recent decades due to their powerful capability in feature extraction and pattern recognition. Unlike conventional neural networks, which rely primarily on matrix multiplication, CNNs incorporate a mathematical operation known as convolution within at least one of their layers [32].

A typical CNN architecture consists of an input 524 525 layer, several hidden layers, and an output layer. 526 In feedforward neural networks, hidden layers 527 process information through activation functions, transforming intermediate representations 528 529 before passing them to subsequent layers. In

530 CNNs, however, hidden layers include distinctive components such as convolutional layers, pooling layers, and fully connected layers, each performing specific mathematical and featureextraction operations.

The core operation involves applying convolutional kernels (filters) over the input data to capture local spatial patterns. These kernels slide across the input matrix and compute dot prod-538 ucts, generating feature maps that detect meaningful characteristics such as edges, textures, or structural variations. One of the main advantages of CNNs over traditional machine learning methods is their ability to automatically learn filter weights from the training data, eliminating the need for manual feature engineering.

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The architecture of CNNs is inspired by the biological structure of the visual cortex in the human brain. Each artificial neuron responds to 548 stimuli within a limited spatial region known as the receptive field. Multiple receptive fields overlap to collectively perceive the entire input space, enabling the network to identify both local and global patterns. Owing to this hierarchical and biologically inspired design, CNNs require far less preprocessing compared to classical image-processing or signal-based feature extraction techniques, making them particularly effective for complex classification, regression, and pattern recognition tasks.

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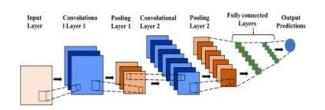


Figure 5. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and its operation (Kumar et al., 2023)[32]

3.3. Multiverse **Optimization** Algorithm (MVO)

The Multi-Verse Optimization (MVO) algorithm is a population-based metaheuristic inspired by concepts from cosmology and multiverse theory. Like other evolutionary algorithms, MVO operates through two main mechanisms: exploration, which searches for global optima by examining diverse regions of the search space, and exploitation, which refines promising solutions to achieve higher accuracy.

In MVO, each candidate solution is treated as a 577 separate universe, and the variables within a so-578 lution are regarded as objects located within that 579 universe. To guide the optimization process, 580

each universe is assigned an inflation rate, directly proportional to its fitness value. Universes with higher inflation rates are considered more favorable, influencing the movement and updating of other universes in the population. The conceptual framework of MVO draws from three primary cosmological phenomena (Mirjalili et al., 2016)[40]:

- White holes: Represent sources from which matter exits; used in the algorithm to allow high-quality solutions to contribute information to others, supporting exploration.
- Black holes: Act as sinks that absorb matter; used to remove poor-quality solutions and move them toward promising areas, enhancing global search capabilities.
- Wormholes: Provide shortcuts between universes; implemented to execute exploitation by allowing solutions to move randomly but intelligently toward better positions regardless of relative inflation rates.

Unlike traditional optimization algorithms that use iteration-based terminology, MVO employs the term time, aligning with the cosmological interpretation of multiverse dynamics. This unique combination of exploration and exploitation mechanisms makes MVO an effective optimizer for complex, high-dimensional search problems, including hyperparameter tuning in deep learning architectures such as the CNN-MVO framework used in this study.

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Figure 6. Schematic representation of the MVO algorithm [40]

3.4. Geotechnical Studies

621 The reliability and precision of computational and predictive methods are highly dependent on the quality and comprehensiveness of the underlying database. Both the volume and accuracy of input data significantly influence the perfor-626 mance of machine learning and deep learning models. In this study, an extensive geotechnical database was compiled using data obtained from 628 site investigations conducted across the northern regions of Iran. A sample field log of the drilled boreholes from these projects is presented in 632 Figure 7.

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Figure 7. illustrates an example of field logs from drilled boreholes.

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Geotechnical investigations were carried out by local engineering companies in major cities of 647 Mazandaran and Gilan provinces, including Amol, Babol, Sari, Chalus, Astaneh Ashrafieh, Anzali, and Astara. During the drilling operations, Standard Penetration Tests (SPT) and shear wave velocity (Vs) measurements were 652 performed to characterize subsurface soil properties. Following the drilling process, collected

soil samples underwent comprehensive laboratory testing, including grain size distribution, hydrometer analysis, Atterberg limits, soil classification, moisture content determination, bulk density, specific gravity (Gs), direct shear tests, unconfined compression strength, triaxial compression tests, permeability measurements, and chemical analysis.

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- Considering the parameters affecting liquefaction evaluation, the results of these geotechnical 655 tests were examined in detail, and the most es-656 sential factors influencing liquefaction risk were 657 identified. As outlined previously, the critical 658 parameters include: 659
- 1. Soil type 660
- Soil density 661
- Groundwater level 662
- 663 4. Fine-grained soil content

5. Regional seismicity

Based on these key parameters, all geotechnical study reports were reviewed, and relevant data were extracted accordingly. Figure 8 illustrates a typical particle-size distribution curve for sandy soils from one of the examined projects, while Figure 9 shows the corresponding SPT profile 671 recorded in the same borehole. Similar evaluations were performed for over 100 geotechnical investigation projects within the targeted study area, forming the foundation of the database used in the present research.

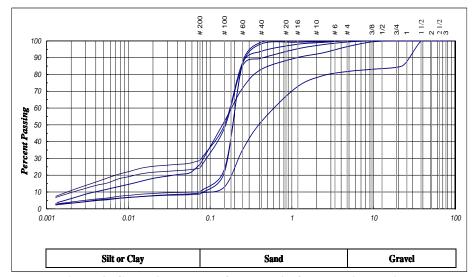
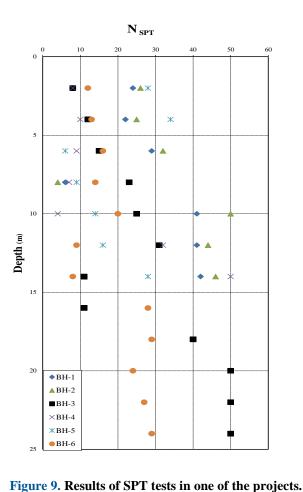


Figure 8. Gradation curves of sandy soils from studied projects



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3.5.Data Base

To enrich the dataset and ensure the robustness 684 of the proposed model, additional data were also incorporated from reputable scientific sources, 686 687 including studies by Ansary & Ansary (2024)[41], Chithuloori & Kim (2025)[42], 688 Ghani et al. (2025)[30], Gupta et al. (2022)[43], 689 Hasan, Rahman & Fahim (2025)[44], Kumar, Muftuoglu & Dehghanian (2025)[45], and Pham 691 (2021)[46].692

The compiled database consists of approximately 300 samples, structured based on the 695 most influential geotechnical and seismic parameters such as SPT blow counts, groundwater table depth, borehole depth, soil type, and other

relevant characteristics. 698

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For model development, the dataset was randomly divided into separate subsets to ensure 701 unbiased learning:

> 1. Training dataset used for model learning and parameter adjustment.

2. Validation dataset used for monitoring and improving model generalization.

706 This random partitioning strategy helps prevent 707 overfitting and enhances the predictive reliabil-708 ity of the deep learning model.

3.6.Deep Learning Method

The implementation of the deep learning framework was conducted following the preprocessing and thorough evaluation of the compiled geotechnical data. As emphasized in previous studies (Shafiei et al., 2022)[33], the performance of deep learning models is highly dependent on the size, accuracy, and representativeness of the input database.

Accordingly, the first step involved defining input and output parameters based on the most common and reliable geotechnical tests performed in engineering practice. Considering the availability of approximately 300 data points from geotechnical investigations and liquefaction analyses across the northern provinces, the parameters were selected to capture the essential physical and dynamic characteristics of the soil. The final set of input and output variables used for model training and prediction is presented in

732 Subsequently, the proposed deep learning model 733 utilizing a hybrid CNN-MVO architecture was developed and trained on the structured dataset. 734 735 The integration of convolutional neural networks with the Multi-Verse Optimizer allowed 736 for efficient extraction of nonlinear features and 737 738 enhanced optimization of model hyperparameters, ultimately contributing to improved predic-739 740 tion accuracy.

Table 1. Sample Data from the Deep Learning Database

731 Table 1.

Output Pa			Input Parameters						
SD (mm)	LP	SP	GWL (m)	FP (%)	Nspt	D (m)			
41	1.20	5	8	18	6	5			
18	1.11	3	5	13	7	4			
21	1.23	5	3	25	5	8			
12	1.08	5	10	26	9	10			
11	1.03	4	2	21	12	6			
26	1.25	6	2.5	18	11	7			
23	1.13	6	4	15	16	4			
13	0.98	7	3.6	17	25	11			
16	0.95	4	3.2	15	33	12			
14	0.98	2	6	16	20	5			
31	1.12	4	4.6	10	25	6			
10	0.88	3	2.8	8	35	7			
33	1.20	6	3.2	11	11	4			
32	1.21	5	3.5	18	10	5			
26	1.13	8	4.1	20	16	8			
15	1.05	10	7.5	23	20	10			
18	1.06	9	5.3	5	23	16			
11	0.92	12	6.3	8	33	10			
16	1.01	11	2.6	6	15	8			
13	1.03	10	3.7	9	18	6			

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- According to Table 1, the selected input paramrate eters used for developing the predictive deep learning model include:
- Soil Type (SP): Classification of soil lay ers based on standard geotechnical criteria.
- Groundwater Level (GWL): Depth of the groundwater table at the project site.
- Fine Content (FP): Percentage of finegrained particles passing the No. 200 sieve.
- Standard Penetration Test Value (Nspt):
 Corrected SPT blow counts representing soil resistance.
- Depth of Liquefiable Soil (D): The depth
 at which the soil layer exhibits suscepti bility to liquefaction.
- 762 In addition to the input variables, two key output 763 parameters chosen for their engineering rele-764 vance in liquefaction evaluations were defined:
- Liquefaction Potential (LP): The likeli hood or probability of liquefaction occurrence under seismic loading.
- Estimated Settlement (SD): Anticipated
 post-liquefaction settlement of the
 ground surface.
- After assembling the liquefaction-related da-771 taset, all information was organized and preprocessed using Microsoft Excel. A series of prepa-774 ration steps were applied to ensure compatibility with the deep learning framework. To enable the 775 neural network to analyze categorical parameters such as soil type, encoding procedures were 777 implemented. Soil classifications ranging from 778 poorly graded sand (GP) to clayey sand (SC) 779 780 were coded numerically from 1 to 12, allowing their incorporation into the model in a structured and machine-readable format.

784 **3.7.Deep Learning Method**

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786 To evaluate the performance of the neural net-787 work models, quantitative metrics are necessary 788 to measure how accurately the model predictions 789 align with experimental or observed data. In this 790 study, two primary evaluation indices were used: 791 the Correlation Coefficient (R) and the Mean 792 Squared Error (MSE).

3 Correlation Coefficient (R)

794 The correlation coefficient measures the strength 795 of association between two variables, typically 796 the predicted and experimental values. It is cal-797 culated using the following expression:

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 R

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 =

 800 $\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2 (Y - \bar{Y})^2}}$

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 (

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)

806 where \bar{x} and \bar{y} represent the mean values of the two datasets. A higher R value indicates 808 stronger correlation and better model performance. According to Rothman et al. (1987)[47], 810 the correlation coefficient can be interpreted as 811 follows:

813 Strong correlation:

814 |R| ≥
815 0.8
816
817 (
818 3
819)

Moderate correlation:

857 model accuracy and improved predictive capa-823 2 858 bility [48]. 824 825 <859 4. Research Methodology 826 IR860 0 861 827 862 828 863 The coding, training, and performance evalua-829 (864 tion of the deep learning framework were carried 830 ⁴865 out using MATLAB 9.5 (2018b). MATLAB is) 866 widely recognized among researchers for its ex-831 867 tensive set of functions, flexible programming 832 868 environment, diverse neural network architec-869 tures, and efficient training algorithms. Its strong Very weak correlation: 833 870 computational capabilities and comprehensive 834 871R|statistical analysis tools make it highly suitable 872),2for solving complex engineering problems, in-835 873 cluding those encountered in geotechnical and 836 earthquake engineering applications[49]. The 837 MATLAB codes developed for this study are 875 838 876 available; however, they are not included here in 839 accordance with the publication requirements. In the present study, the R index was employed 840 878 To assess the effectiveness of the proposed deep to evaluate the predictive performance of models 879 learning approach, two key performance indices developed using Multilayer Perceptron Neural 842 880 were employed: the Regression Coefficient (R) Networks and deep learning techniques. 843 and the Mean Squared Error (MSE). The training 881 progression of the model is illustrated in Figure 882 844 **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** 10, which presents the learning curve during the 883 training phase. Upon completion of training, the 884 The Mean Squared Error quantifies the average optimized network weights were stored, and the 846 of the squared differences between predicted and 885 trained deep learning model became fully opera-886 actual values. This metric places greater empha-847 887 tional. sis on larger errors and is commonly used to 848 evaluate regression-based machine learning 849 models. It is calculated as: 850 851 $MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (E_i)^2$ (6) 852 853 854 where E_i denotes the prediction error for each data point. Lower MSE values indicate better 856

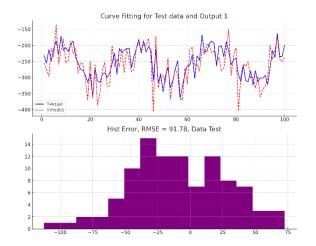


Figure 10. Training diagram for deep learning (Output 1)

Further evaluation is provided through the error histogram and the regression plots corresponding to the training, validation, and testing phases, as shown in Figures 11 and 12. These figures offer insight into error distribution patterns and the correlation between predicted and actual values across all data subsets.

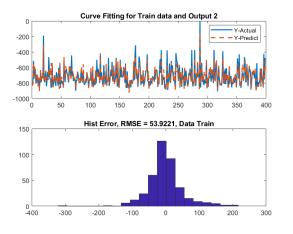


Figure 11. Training diagram for deep learning (Output 2)

Based on the visual evidence presented in Figures 10 through 13, the hybrid deep learning

906 model exhibits strong predictive capability for907 both target outputs.

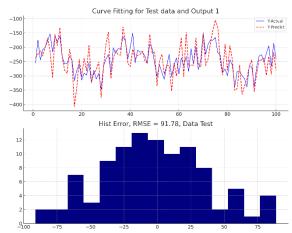


Figure 12. Testing diagram for deep learning (Output 1)

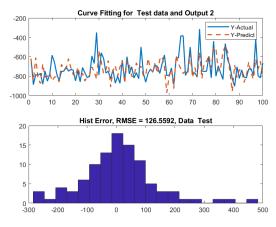


Figure 13. Testing diagram for deep learning (Output 2)

Moreover, Figures 14 and 15 indicate that the error indices for both outputs are less than 1, underscoring the high accuracy and reliability of the employed hybrid framework.

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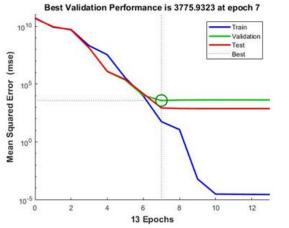


Figure 14. Training curve of the deep learning hybrid code

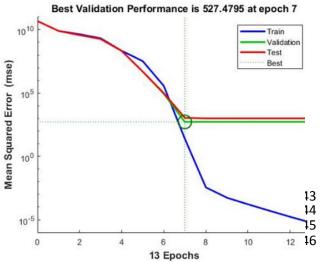


Figure 15. Performance curve of the deep learning hybrid code

The regression coefficient, commonly utilized in soft computing applications, serves as a primary measure for evaluating the strength of association between predicted and observed values. Fig-934 ures 16 and 17 present the R-values obtained for 935 the model. The results reveal coefficients exceeding 90%, confirming the robust performance, consistency, and acceptable predictive accuracy of the implemented hybrid CNN-

MVO model based on established evaluation cri-940 teria.

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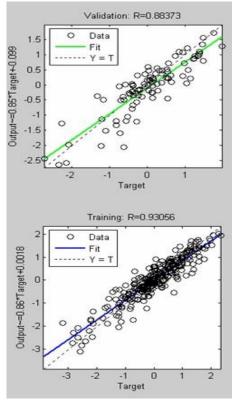


Figure 16. Regression coefficient of the deep learning hybrid code (Output 2)

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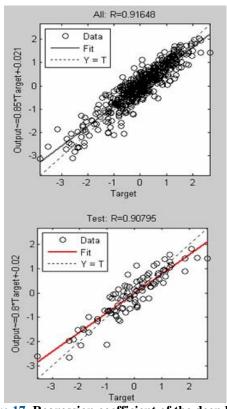


Figure 17. Regression coefficient of the deep learning hybrid code (Output 1)

5. Sensitivity Analysis

Machine learning and deep learning models typically demonstrate strong performance when trained on datasets that are both reliable and sufficiently large. However, despite their predictive effectiveness, these models are often criticized for their "black-box" nature, meaning that the internal relationships between input parameters and outputs are not always transparent. For this 1000 reason, sensitivity analysis plays a vital role in 1001 interpreting model behavior and understanding 1002 how variations in each input affect the prediction 1003 results.

Several approaches for conducting sensitivity analysis in neural networks have been introduced in the literature. Lou et al. examined these

techniques and concluded that conventional methods cannot fully quantify the magnitude and 969 direction of input effects across the entire input 970 domain[50]. To address this limitation, they pro-971 posed a statistical method based on calculating 972 the derivative of outputs with respect to inputs referred to as output sensitivity to input. Their 975 findings, demonstrated through a case study on pipeline productivity, showed that analyzing internal relationships in neural networks enhances user confidence and supports broader application of such models in engineering and scientific 979 analyses[49]. 980

In the present study, the derivative-based sensitivity approach was applied to optimized network structures at each stage of evaluation. The sensitivity of model outputs relative to five primary input parameters namely soil type, fine content, liquefiable depth, SPT-N value, and groundwater level was investigated. To ensure representativeness, 500 sample points within the five-dimensional input space were generated using a normal distribution function. Given that the number of available data points (300 samples) was insufficient for derivative-based sensitivity estimation, the SIMLAB software was used to support the generation and analysis of additional data points.

For sensitivity quantification, the statistical relative sensitivity method proposed by Lou & Ruan (2001)[51] was adopted. This method computes five key percentiles D10, D25, D50, D75, and D90 from the distribution of relative sensitivity values. These percentiles provide a comprehensive understanding of the direction and magnitude of sensitivity trends across the input domain. The interpretation of these indices, based on Emami (2009)[49], is as follows:

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D10: A value below which 90% of the 1021 1007 1008 sensitivity values lie. 1022 1023

If D10 is positive, there is a 90% likelihood that 1009 increasing the input results in an increase in the output. 1011

> D90: A value above which 90% of the 1027 sensitivity values lie.

If D90 is negative, there is a 90% likelihood that 1030 1015 the output decreases as the input increases. 1016 1031

> D25 and D75: Intermediate sensitivity percentiles that offer additional insight into the variability of sensitivity across the input domain.

D50: The median sensitivity value, indicating a 50% probability that the output increases or decreases in response to changes in the input.

Inputs with sensitivity distributions clustered near zero have minimal influence on the output, whereas parameters with distributions shifted farther from the zero baseline exert a stronger impact. By comparing percentile values and their spacing, the relative importance of each input variable can be assessed and ranked, offering a clear understanding of the factors that most significantly affect the model's predictions.

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Table 2. Mean relative sensitivity values for liquefaction potential and ground surface settlement with respect to input parameters

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Output	-	•	LP					SD	•	
input	ST	GWL	FP	N_{SPT}	D	ST	GWL	FP	N_{SPT}	D
Relative Mean	-0.818	0.252	-2.48	-1.036	-0.985	0.0847	-0.285	0.253	0.215	-0.019

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As discussed earlier, the use of relative sensitiv- 1056 improved resistance of higher-quality soil classiity values rather than absolute values provides a 1057 1042 more meaningful basis for comparing the influence of different input variables. Table 2 reports 1058 the mean relative sensitivity values of the two output parameters settlement (SD) and liquefaction potential (LP) with respect to the selected inputs.

1063 The statistical percentiles derived for the relative 1064 sensitivity values associated with liquefaction potential across all five input variables are illus-1050 trated in Figure 18. As shown, more than 75% of 1051 the relative sensitivity values associated with soil type (ST) are negative. This indicates that as 1053 the soil type index increases, the corresponding 1054 liquefaction potential decreases reflecting the 1070 1055

fications.

For the groundwater level (GWL), most sensitivity values cluster near zero, with a dominance of positive values. This trend suggests that rising groundwater levels contribute to an increased likelihood of liquefaction, which aligns with fundamental geotechnical principles regarding effective stress reduction.

Among all inputs, the fine particle content (FP) exhibits the most pronounced negative relative sensitivity values. This implies that increasing fine content leads to the greatest reduction in liquefaction susceptibility highlighting its substantial mitigating effect on liquefaction potential.

The remaining variables, including the Standard 1079 Penetration Test value (SPT-N) and liquefiable 1080 soil depth (D), also display predominantly nega- 1081 tive sensitivity values. This indicates that in- 1082 creasing either of these parameters decreases the 1083 liquefaction potential, consistent with the sensi- 1084 tivity trends observed across the studied input 1085 space. 1086

Based on the collective evidence from Figure 18, the relative distances of percentile categories from the zero baseline, and the mean sensitivity values presented in Table 2, it can be concluded that the fine particle percentage (FP) exerts the strongest influence on liquefaction potential. This makes FP the dominant controlling factor among all evaluated input variables.

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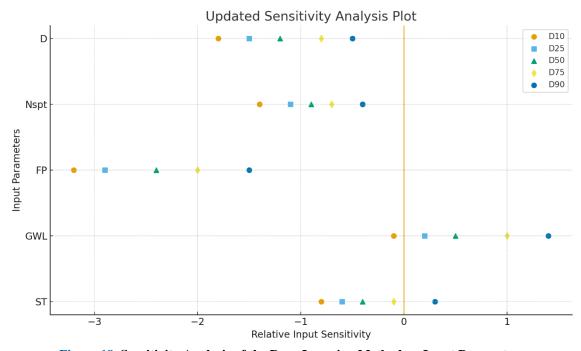
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Figure 18. Sensitivity Analysis of the Deep Learning Method on Input Parameters

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6. Discussion

The findings of this study highlight the effective- 1103 ness of integrating advanced artificial intelli- 1104 gence techniques with geotechnical engineering 1105 data for predicting liquefaction potential. The 1106 superior performance of the CNN-MVO model 1107 compared to conventional approaches under- 1108 scores its ability to capture the nonlinear and 1109 multi-dimensional relationships inherent in soil 1110 behavior under seismic loading.

The high correlation coefficients (R > 0.90)across all data subsets indicate that the hybrid model successfully generalizes and avoids issues such as overfitting. The low MSE values further confirm the reliability of the model's predictive capability. Additionally, the successful encoding of geotechnical parameters such as soil type and fine content demonstrates that deep learning methods can effectively handle both categorical and continuous variables.

1112	Sensitivity analysis provided valuable insights	1149
1113	into the influence of input parameters on lique-	1150
1114	faction susceptibility. Consistent with previous	1151
1115	empirical studies, increasing fine content signif-	1152
1116	icantly reduces the likelihood of liquefaction,	1153
1117	confirming its stabilizing role in sandy soils. The	1154
1118 1119 1120 1121 1122 1123	analysis also highlighted the importance of groundwater level and SPT-N, both of which exhibited strong directional impacts on liquefaction potential. Such findings validate the physical consistency of the model and increase confidence in its practical applicability.	1155 1156 1157 1158 1159 1160
1124	Overall, the model's accuracy and interpretabil-	4464
1125	ity, along with its data-driven foundation, posi-	1161
1126	tion it as a powerful tool for seismic hazard as-	11621163
1127	sessment, especially in regions with limited ac-	1164
1128	cess to advanced laboratory testing yet abundant	1165
1129	in situ geotechnical data.	1166
1130	7. Practical Implications	1167
1131	The proposed CNN-MVO hybrid model pro-	1168
1132	vides several practical benefits for geotechnical	1169
1133	engineers and decision-makers:	1170
1134	Improved Risk Assessment: The high ac-	1171
1134	THE HIGH ACT	1177

- Improved Risk Assessment: The high accuracy of the model enables more relia-1173 ble evaluation of liquefaction potential 1174 across various soil conditions, reducing 1175 uncertainty in seismic design. 1176
- Cost-Effective Analysis: The method relies on readily available field data such as SPT results, making it suitable for projects where advanced laboratory testing is not feasible.
 - Enhanced Decision-Making: By identi- 1183 fying the most influential soil parameters particularly fine content, SPT value, and groundwater level the model assists engineers in prioritizing mitigation efforts.

- Adaptability to Local Conditions: The model was trained using regional data from northern Iran, ensuring compatibility with real-world geological conditions and enhancing its usability in similar contexts.
- Support for Design and Planning: The ability to predict both liquefaction potential and settlement assists engineers in designing foundations, embankments, and critical infrastructure with improved seismic resilience.
- Pathway to Smart Geotechnics: This study contributes to the integration of AIdriven tools in geotechnical engineering, paving the way for automated hazard assessment and intelligent site characterization.

8. Conclusions

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The present study focused on evaluating one of the most critical hazards in geotechnical and earthquake engineering soil liquefaction by employing soft computing and artificial intelligence based methods. Liquefaction is a complex phenomenon primarily affecting loose, saturated sandy layers, in which cyclic seismic loading increases pore water pressure and causes a significant reduction in effective stress. As inter-particle contacts weaken and shear strength diminishes, the soil mass progressively loses its loadbearing capacity, resulting in excessive deformation, settlement, or even complete structural failure.

The fundamental mechanism of liquefaction involves the progressive buildup of pore pressure triggered by repeated shear stress during earthquake shaking. When the loading rate exceeds

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1188 1189 1190 1191 1192 1193 1194 1195	pore p effective general bility, cyclicathe app	e of pore water dissipation, the soil cannot et volumetrically, leading to increases in ressure and corresponding reductions in we stress. The magnitude of pore pressure tion is governed by the soil's compressitist tendency for volumetric strain under loading, and the intensity and duration of blied seismic forces.	1225 1226 1227 1228 1229
1196 1197 1198 1199	researce stage a	urately evaluate liquefaction potential, the th methodology was developed as a multind partially parallel process involving the ing steps:	1233 1234 1235
1200 1201 1202	•	Comprehensive identification of lique- faction hazards and conventional evalua- tion methods.	1236 1237 1238 1239
1203 1204 1205	•	Assessment and analysis of liquefaction susceptibility in major geotechnical projects across the northern provinces.	1240 1241 1242 1243
1206 1207 1208	•	Compilation of a robust dataset for training artificial neural networks and deep learning models.	1244 1245
1209 1210 1211	•	Preprocessing and refinement of the database through normalization and outlier removal.	1246 1247 1248 1249
1212 1213 1214	•	Selection of meaningful input and output parameters based on commonly performed geotechnical tests.	1250 1251
1215 1216 1217 1218 1219	•	Development and coding of a hybrid deep learning model combining Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) with the Multi-Verse Optimizer (MVO) algorithm.	1254 1255 1256
1220 1221	•	Implementation of the hybrid model on the curated dataset.	1257 1258 1259
1222 1223	•	Evaluation of model performance using established quantitative indices.	1260

Given the availability of approximately 300 high-quality geotechnical data samples from northern Iran, input parameters were carefully selected to represent the dominant factors influencing liquefaction behavior. These included Soil Type (SP), Groundwater Level (GWL), Fine Percent (FP), SPT blow count (Nspt), and Depth of Liquefiable Soil (D). The two critical outputs Liquefaction Potential (LP) and Estimated Settlement (SD) were chosen due to their engineering importance in seismic design and risk assessment.

Model development, training, and evaluation were conducted using MATLAB 9.5 (2018b), which offers advanced neural network functions, reliable training algorithms, and strong processing capabilities suitable for engineering applications. Model performance was assessed using the Regression Coefficient (R) and the Mean Squared Error (MSE).

8.1 Results and Key Findings

- The hybrid CNN–MVO deep learning model demonstrated excellent predictive performance, achieving a regression coefficient (R) of approximately 90% across training, testing, and validation phases.
- Low MSE values consistently below 0.5 indicate the high accuracy and robustness of the proposed framework.
- Sensitivity analysis revealed that among the five input variables, Fine Content (FP) exerted the greatest influence on liquefaction potential. This was confirmed through percentile-based sensitivity measures, relative mean values, and distribution trends.

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- Other parameters such as SPT value 1295 1261 (Nspt), Soil Type (SP), and Depth of Liq- 1296 1262 uefiable Layers (D) exhibited predomi- 1297 1263 nantly negative sensitivities, indicating a 1298 1264 reduction in liquefaction potential with 1299 1265 increases in these variables. 1266 1300 1267
 - Groundwater Level (GWL) showed 1301 mostly positive sensitivity values, con- 1302 firming its known contribution to higher 1303 liquefaction susceptibility. 1304

9. Novelty and Contribution of the Study

The primary novelty of this study lies in the integration of a deep learning architecture (CNN) 1310 with the Multi-Verse Optimization (MVO) algorithm, specifically tailored for liquefaction pre- 1311 diction using real-world geotechnical data. Un- 1312 like traditional empirical or semi-empirical liq- 1313 uefaction evaluation methods, the proposed 1314 CNN-MVO hybrid framework:

- Learns complex nonlinear relationships 1317 1282 between soil properties and liquefaction 1283 behavior. 1284
- Reduces dependence on empirical corre- 1320 1285 lations that may not be universally appli-1286 cable across diverse geological settings. 1287
- Offers enhanced predictive accuracy 1288 through model optimization driven by 1324 1289 MVO's exploration-exploitation me- ₁₃₂₅ 1290 1291 chanics.
- Updates liquefaction risk predictions 1292 based on data-driven learning rather than 1293 simplified deterministic factors. 1294

Provides a clear interpretation of variable influence through derivative-based sensitivity analysis addressing the wellknown "black-box" challenge associated with deep learning models.

This study demonstrates that by leveraging advanced AI techniques in combination with extensive geotechnical datasets, it is possible to achieve significantly more reliable evaluations of liquefaction potential. The findings hold substantial value for seismic hazard mitigation, improved geotechnical design, and risk-informed decision-making in regions with high liquefaction susceptibility, including the northern provinces of Iran.

10.FUTURE WORK

Future research should focus on expanding the database to include additional geotechnical and seismic parameters such as shear wave velocity (Vs), CPT tip resistance (qc), and cyclic triaxial test results. Incorporating more diverse datasets from different geological settings can further enhance the model's generalizability.

Moreover, hybrid frameworks integrating CNN with other optimization algorithms such as Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO), or Harris Hawks Optimization (HHO) could be explored to improve convergence speed and reduce computational cost.

Another promising direction is the development of real-time liquefaction prediction systems using deep learning models combined with seismic monitoring networks. Additionally, explainable AI (XAI) techniques should be applied to further improve the interpretability of model decisions, especially for safety-critical applications. 1330

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1331	Finally, extending the model to predict other liq-	1370	Dr. Mo	hammad Emami Koorandeh as the thesis
1332	uefaction-induced effects such as lateral spread-	1371	advisor	r.
1333	ing or foundation settlement could significantly			
1334	expand its usefulness for seismic risk mitigation	1373	Confli	cts of interest: The author declares that
1335	and infrastructure design.	1374		s no conflict of interest.
1336		1375		
1337	Author contributions: Shima Aghakakhiri car-	1376	Referen	ces
1338	ried out the core components of the research, in-	1377		
1339	cluding data collection, preprocessing, numeri-	1378	1	District Market And American
1340	cal modeling, and preparation of the manuscript	1379	1.	Bahrainy, H. and A. Bakhtiar, Manjil Earthquake of June 20, 1990, The Lessons Learned, in Urban
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1343	randeh, who also led the development of the re-	1383	2.	Uyanık, O., Soil liquefaction analysis based on
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1345	the design and implementation of the machine		3.	Matsuoka, M., et al., Evaluation of liquefaction
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1347	sults, and provided in-depth revisions of the	1388		${\it geomorphologic} {\it classification}. {\it Earthquake}$
1348	manuscript. His expert guidance and technical	1389 1390	4	Spectra, 2015. 31 (4): p. 2375-2395.
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1350	of the study. Dr. Ghodratollah Mohammadi and			interaction. Journal of Structural Engineering
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1357		1401 1402		Elastic Materials Energy Absorbing System at the Foundation. 2018.
1358	Acknowledgments: This research was con-	1403	7.	Kumar, D.R., et al., Liquefaction susceptibility
1359	ducted as part of a Ph.D. seminar focused on the			using machine learning based on SPT data.
1360	numerical assessment of soil liquefaction using	1405		Intelligent Systems with Applications, 2023. 20 :
1361	machine learning techniques. The analysis was	1406 1407	Q	p. 200281. Zhang, Y., et al., <i>The adoption of deep neural</i>
1362	carried out based on datasets collected from ge-	1408	0.	network (DNN) to the prediction of soil
1363	otechnical companies operating in northern Iran,	1409		liquefaction based on shear wave velocity.
1364	complemented by relevant data extracted from	1410		Bulletin of Engineering Geology and the
1365	high-quality peer-reviewed publications. The	1411 1412	9.	Environment, 2021. 80 (6): p. 5053-5060.
1366	study was undertaken by Ph.D. candidate Shima		J.	Ahmad, M., et al., Application of machine learning algorithms for the evaluation of seismic
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1000	Chountellini Monaminati and Di. Mini Taban,	1416	10.	Geyin, M. and B.W. Maurer, Fragility functions

Geyin, M. and B.W. Maurer, Fragility functions

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