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MPM-Based Mechanism And Runout Analysis Of A Compound Reactivated Landslide

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Abstract Understanding the entire process of hydraulic-related landslide reactivations is crucial for risk assessment, which includes initiation and runout evolves from a small-deformation in the pre-failure stage to large-deformation after failure, with complex interactions between the materials in solid and liquid phases. This paper reproduces the entire process of a reactivated landslide using Material Point Method (MPM). The accuracy of MPM is validated in comparison to Limit Equilibrium Method (LEM) and Finite Element Method (FEM). The effects of antecedent rainfall and pre-existing groundwater on landslide runout and the deposits morphology are discussed. Results show that the antecedent rainwater rises the groundwater level and saturates the front edge of slope where the initial failure occurred. Three computed spatio-temporal distributions of pore water pressure show good agreement and match well with field evidence. The kinematic characteristics show that the landslide has different moving features with different microtopography, which reveals retrogressive failure in front and middle part of slope initially and compound retro- and pro-gressive failures occur at the rear edge. The results of unsaturated two-phase MPM are in better agreement with the measured morphology than full-saturated MPM. The antecedent rainfall and the pre-existing groundwater are the main contributing factors to the landslide runout.

Author Keywords: Landslide, Material point method, Pre-failure, Post-failure, Hydraulic-related

24 **Introduction**

25 Ancient landslide deposits (ALD) are ubiquitous in tectonically active regions and are prone to
26 sliding repeatedly influenced by external triggering factors (Gariano and Guzzetti 2016; Tang et al.
27 2019; Peranić et al. 2021). Due to the unconsolidated nature of ALD, hydraulic-related reactivated
28 landslides have recently become more frequent. Landslides reactivated by rainwater infiltration and
29 associated groundwater seepage are dangerous due to the long runout distance and flowing movement
30 (Bertolini and Pizziolo 2008; Notti et al. 2021). Haque et al. (2019) reported 3876 rainfall-triggered
31 landslides from 1995 to 2014 and found that the number of fatal landslides increased during this 20-
32 year period, resulting in more than 150 thousands fatalities and 170 thousands casualties. Therefore,
33 understanding the landslide initiation mechanism and the kinematic characteristics of the runout is
34 crucial for assessing the risk of landslides related to hydraulic-related landslide risk assessment.

35 Great efforts have been conducted throughout the years to explore the initiation mechanisms, that
36 is, the process from pre-failure to failure of hydraulic-related landslides (Zhang et al. 2021; Jiang et al.
37 2022; He et al. 2022). Importantly, rainfall and groundwater seepage are main factors induced the
38 reactivation of ALD, and the dynamic response of ALD to the dominant rainfall process inducing their
39 failures is essential for the reactivated modes (Peruccacci et al. 2017; Ma et al. 2021; Darrow et al.
40 2022). Compared with the normal rainfall-induced landslides, the materials and structures of the ALD
41 are more complex, presenting the rock-soil mixture characteristic of assorted sizes and have special
42 engineering mechanical properties (Luo et al. 2017; Cui et al. 2021; Chen et al. 2022). Influenced by
43 hydraulic seepage deformation, the ALD have typical stress-seepage damage coupling characteristics.
44 Therefore, the initiation mechanisms often involve complex interaction between the soil skeleton
45 (rock-soil) and the liquid (interstitial pore water). Several classical methods were posed to deal with
46 the slope stability caused by hydrodynamic influences, for instance, the uncoupled seepage Finite
47 Element Method (FEM) with Limit Equilibrium Method (LEM), consists of non-deformation seepage

48 analysis and Factor of Stability (F_s) computation (Janbu 1954; Bishop 1955; Morgenstern and Price
49 1965). However, solid deformation is not assessed into slope by this method, resulting in limitations
50 for complex slope initiation mechanism analysis. An alternative method is the hydro-mechanical
51 coupled FEM, which is formulated within the framework of continuum mechanics, can acquire the
52 stress-strain information in respect to gravity and external forces, and can compute the seepage
53 variations with hydraulic boundary conditions (Biot 1941; Borja et al. 2012; Kim et al. 2018). Soil
54 deformations have been considered as small before slope failures, hence the traditional methods of
55 LEM and FEM have been applied for past several decades (François et al. 2007; Masoudian et al. 2019;
56 Jamalnia et al. 2020; Scaringi and Loche 2022).

57 The landslide runout process after slope failure occurred is crucial for risk management and the
58 mechanics of the process is challenging because of its complexities. The post-failure behaviors are
59 often associated with large deformations which differ from the pre-failure small deformations. The
60 above traditional methods are not well suited for large-deformation analysis due to the resultant
61 extreme mesh distortion. To this end, an appropriate numerical approach for large-deformation issues
62 is indispensable. Advanced methods (Soga et al. 2016; He et al. 2018) have been posed including
63 Smooth Particle Hydrodynamics (SPH), Discrete Element Method (DEM), Particle Flow Code (PFC),
64 Particle Finite Element Method (PFEM), Numerical Manifold Method (NMM), Discontinuous
65 Deformation Analysis (DDA) and Material Point Method (MPM) (Sulsky et al. 1994). Among them,
66 the MPM has been improved and successfully applied into various fields, particularly in solving
67 multiphase interaction problem in geotechnical community (Yerro et al. 2015; Soga et al. 2016; Liang
68 and Zhao 2019; Cuomo et al. 2021a; Ceccato et al. 2021; Li et al. 2021; Nguyen et al. 2022). MPM
69 can simulate the hydro-mechanical coupled behaviors during a landslide. Previous MPM-derived
70 studies examine the post-failure of saturated/unsaturated slope by imposing the critical phreatic surface
71 instead of rainwater infiltration process (Soga et al. 2016; Lei et al. 2020). Bandara et al. (2016)
72 introduced a flux boundary in MPM for rainfall infiltration using a full-coupled hydro-mechanical

73 formulation for both saturated and unsaturated soils. Feng et al. (2021) developed a two-layer hydro-
74 mechanical coupled MPM for performing soil-water interaction in unsaturated soils and analyzed
75 rainfall-induced landslide. Cuomo et al. (2021b) employed the formulation considering an antecedent
76 rainfall process preceding the 1995 Fei Tsui Road landslide and outlined the influence of the initial
77 suction on time, type, and runout of the landslide. Although in the real case the failure occurred due to
78 a joint effect of rainwater infiltration and exfiltration of groundwater, it is true that the initial suction
79 value at the beginning of infiltration being set as constant along the depth has contributed to the
80 simulation of complex hydraulic-related landslide, the realistic groundwater table with heterogeneities
81 was simplified. Referring to the presence of groundwater in the area affected by the landslide, few
82 studies have addressed the initial groundwater condition influencing the landslide behaviors.

83 Most of the numerical simulations allow the separate computation of pre-failure and post-failure
84 stages of hydraulic-related landslide (Chen et al. 2021; Xu et al. 2022; Su et al. 2022). The entire
85 landslide process include the small deformations in the pre-failure stage and large deformations during
86 the runout, and then returns to small deformations during deposition stage. The accurate and smooth
87 reproduction of the entire landslide process is still a challenging work. Moreover, the initiation
88 mechanisms and runout behaviors depend on original slope geometry, which means complex-shaped
89 slopes have compound and complex initiation and kinematic characteristics. Relatively few MPM-
90 based studies investigate the compound pre-failure and post-failure of hydraulic-related landslide.

91 This paper uses MPM to analyze the initiation mechanism response to the antecedent rainfall and
92 pre-existing groundwater table and to examine the runout behaviors of a given reactivated landslide.
93 The specific objectives are: 1) to explore the pre-failure deformations of landslide, especially for the
94 variation in porewater pressure (PWP) during the rainfall process; 2) to investigate the post-failure
95 process, kinematic characteristics, and strain-seepage changes during landslide; 3) to evaluate the
96 applicability of MPM in solving two-phase seepage and small deformation problems compared with

97 classical methods; 4) to study the effect of the presence or absence of antecedent rainfall and pre-
98 existing groundwater on the landslide runout distance and deposition. The results have potential to
99 provide insights into the entire landslide process for such hydraulic-related landslides.

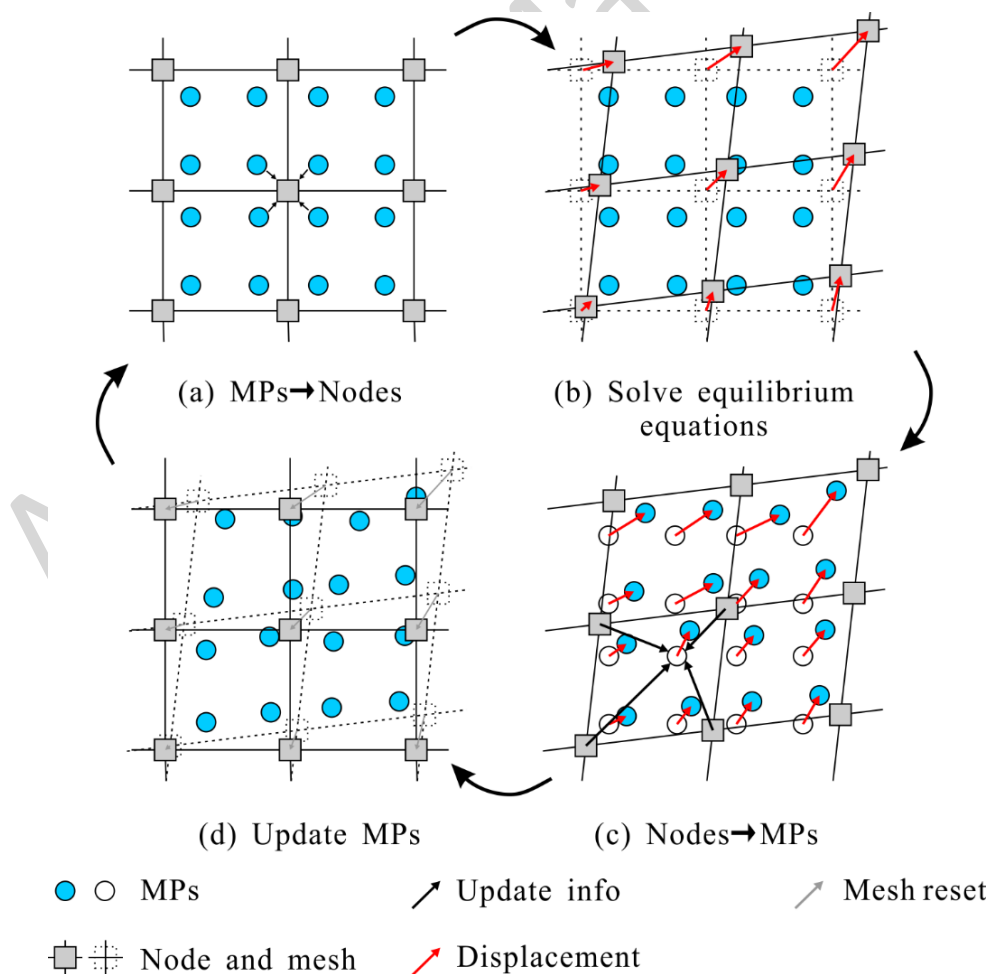
100 **Methods**

101 We conduct the MPM analysis from pre-failure (initiation) to post-failure (runout and deposition)
102 for a compound landslide in an unsaturated slope. The pre-failure multi-field variations are compared
103 to the classical LEM and FEM-based results to validate the capability of MPM on simulating from
104 small- to large-deformation. The MPM code employed in the study is from Anura3D MPM
105 Community (Anura3D 2022), which is an efficient tool for solving large deformation problems in
106 geotechnics. The predominant feature of MPM is that a continuum medium is schematized to a
107 combination of material points (MPs) and background mesh. The discreted MPs can freely move
108 through the problem domain based on the Lagrangian description of the media, and can carry all the
109 physical information and stress-strain field values. The information of MPs are then transmitted to the
110 background mesh. The governing equations of background mesh nodes are then solved in an
111 incremental scheme at each time step. By synthesizing the advantages of Lagrangian particles and
112 Eulerian mesh, the interference of convective terms or mesh distortion in solving large deformation
113 problems is prevented. Nowadays, many variations of original algorithm have been proposed, tailored
114 for a wide range of multidisciplinary applications (Jiang et al. 2016; Yerro et al. 2016; de Vaucorbeil
115 et al. 2020; Kohler and Puzrin 2022). Recently, the MPM has been successfully conducted to model
116 hydraulic-related landslides (Wang et al. 2018; Liu and Wang 2021; Yerro et al. 2022). Compared to
117 more universe three phases formulations, Ceccato et al. (2019) indicate that in numerous natural cases
118 of landslides the differences between two phases and three phases formulations are negligible. Thus,
119 the medium comprised of two phases (solid and liquid) for both saturated and unsaturated sliding
120 materials is often applied. This study uses coupled hydro-mechanical two-phase single-point MP to

121 simulate the PWP variations of a reactivated landslide. The effects of partial saturation in soil response
 122 are considered. Detailed basic mathematical formulations of MPM can be found in Ceccato et al.
 123 (2021).

124 *Computational procedure*

125 Firstly, the information is mapped from the MPs to the computational nodes by means of
 126 interpolation functions at the beginning of each time step (Fig. 1a). Then the governing equilibrium
 127 equations of mass and momentum conservation are solved (Fig. 1b) and the information (velocity,
 128 position) at the MPs are updated through the nodal values, which are used to compute the stresses and
 129 strains (Fig. 1c). Finally, the deformed background mesh is subsequently reset to avoid the excessive
 130 mesh distortion and ready for the next computational cycle (Fig. 1d).



131

132 Fig. 1 Computational scheme of MPM

133 **Case study**

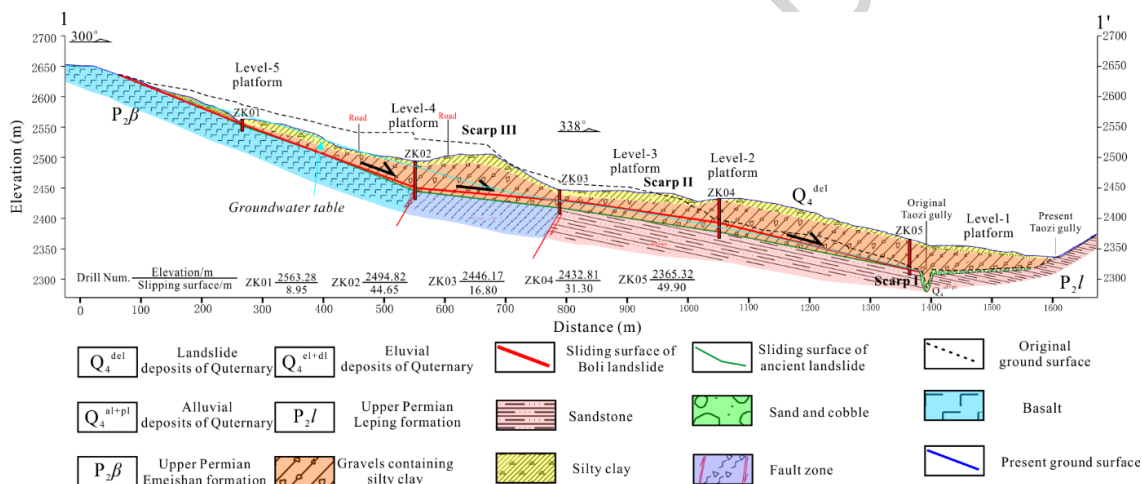
134 The Boli reactivated landslide occurred in Yanyuan County of Sichuan China (Fig. 2), after
135 continuous rainfall of 5th to 18th July 2018 (Fig. 4). A cumulative precipitation of 350.6 mm was
136 recorded in this period. The landslide area had a length of about 1360 m and a maximum width of 810
137 m and a height difference of 310 m. The landslide covered $59.2 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2$ and the deposition volume
138 was estimated to be $1390.6 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3$ (He et al. 2021). Field investigations outlined that the landslide
139 occurred in ALD and tensile cracks appeared in the front edge since 13rd July. This landslide destroyed
140 186 houses and dammed the Taozi gully at the toe.



141
142 Fig. 2 Reactivated landslide overview

143 Information on sliding soils and groundwater along the slope was derived from in situ and
144 laboratory tests. Fig. 3 shows the distribution of boreholes along the main profile of the slope. The

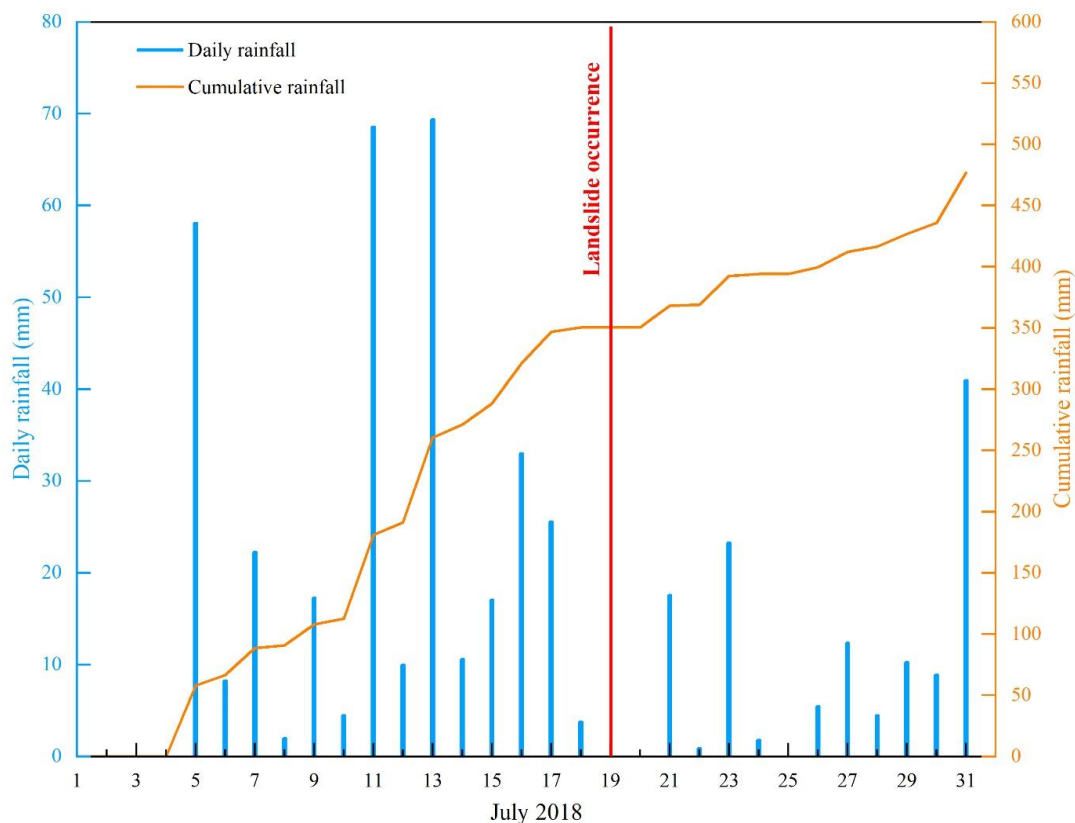
145 depth of ALD vary from 3 to 50 m obtained by borehole drilling. The deposits consist of two layers of
 146 different materials, with silty clay at the upper part, containing clay particles with high viscosity and
 147 presenting a thickness of approximately 3~10 m. While the lower layer belongs to argillaceous gravels,
 148 which has a thickness of about 5~50 m. The dual structure of slope soils is formed due to the
 149 differential weathering of ALD. The sliding surface follows the interface of bedrock and ALD. The
 150 boreholes revealed the groundwater level under natural conditions, which was 10~20 m below the
 151 ground surface. Fig. 4 shows the daily rainfall from 5 to 18 July, 2018, with a cumulative rainfall of
 152 350.6 mm and a maximum daily rainfall of 69.4 mm on 13 July. The landslide occurred on 19 July,
 153 2018, which had no precipitation.



154

155

Fig. 3 Geological profile of the reactivated landslide: longitudinal profile 1-1' in Fig. 2



156

157 Fig. 4 Daily and cumulative rainfall in the landslide area for July 2018. Antecedent rainfall occurred
158 on July 5–18. Rainfall data is derived from the rainfall station

159 MPM model setup and parameters

160 The numerical calculation model is established based on the geological profile in Fig. 5, with the
161 X axis as the horizontal direction and the Y axis as the vertical direction. The calculation model is set
162 at 1:1, with the horizontal length of 1700 m and the vertical height of 385 m. GiD 14.0 software (GiD
163 2018) was used to conduct model setup. Fig. 5 shows the MPM model and monitoring points of the
164 slope. Since the sliding zone is relatively thin in thickness (10~20 cm), the defined contact surface was
165 selected to establish the sliding surface, where a frictional contact algorithm is implemented. Sliding
166 mass adopts Mohr-Coulomb model and bedrock adopts linear elastic model. A three-node linear
167 triangular element with 6 MPs was designed for the soil element. The size of the background mesh of
168 the sliding mass was 2m×2m, and the size of the background mesh of other parts was 10m×10m. In

169 order to reduce the number of material points, since no deformation was observed within the bedrock,
170 the corresponding background meshes were discretized into 1 material point for each element. In total,
171 the MPM model consisted of 48132 elements, 244452 MPs (240072 MPs for sliding mass and 4380
172 MPs for bedrock), and 24256 nodes. Six monitoring points were distributed at the surface of the sliding
173 mass and four monitoring points were assigned to the bottom of sliding mass to investigate the
174 variations in velocity, displacement, pore water pressure, and stress-strain during the pre- and post-
175 failure of the landslide.

176 The bottom of the model background grid was fixed in the XY direction for solid phase and in
177 the Y direction for liquid phase, the left boundary was fixed in the X direction for solid phase and the
178 boundary above the groundwater table was fixed in the X direction for liquid phase, the right boundary
179 was fixed in X direction for both the solid and liquid phases, and the upper part was fixed in Y direction
180 for both the solid and liquid phases. Since the reactivated landslide was induced by the combination
181 of rainfall and groundwater, the effects of groundwater and rainfall were considered in the modeling.
182 The groundwater level was determined by the borehole drilling and set as the initial condition of the
183 model. The rainfall was the hyetograph of the recording station and set as the hydraulic boundary of
184 the model, which was applied to the upper surface of the model (Fig. 5). The application of this
185 infiltration boundary condition is based on a predictor-corrector scheme (Martinelli et al. 2020). MPM
186 discretized the sliding mass involved in the failure into MPs. The background mesh was divided by
187 Eulerian method to integrate the momentum equation and update the physical quantities.

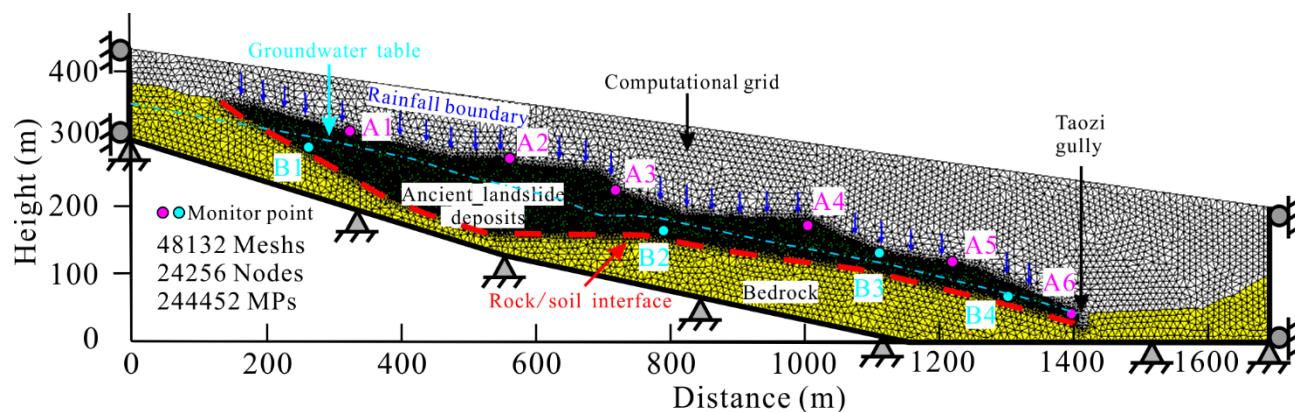


Fig. 5 Geometry and discretization of the MPM model

The MPM analysis is conducted to simulate the pre-failure, failure and post-failure behaviors through a unified calculation model. To do this, different time steps were defined during the landslide process: a) in the rainfall infiltration stage the time interval is assumed equal to 1 day, with the total time of 14 days. However, because the numerical scheme is explicit, the calculation is conditionally stable and the time step increments are very small. For this reason, in the first stage of infiltration, we performed time scaling to indirectly achieve the large time step computations by converting the day to second, thus, the total computation time was 14 s, and a time step of 5×10^{-3} s was applied. The typical values of the saturated hydraulic conductivity for ALD samples are at the order of magnitude of about 10^{-6} m/s. To match the simulation duration as well as to reduce the computational cost to an acceptable level, an accelerated seepage analysis is performed by adopting an increasing value of k_{sat} . The permeability of sliding mass was multiplied by 86400, which is equal to seconds in one day, that is, an increased k_{sat} value of 3.11×10^{-1} m/s is adopted. The infiltration rates were monitored by rainfall station with the scale of mm/day, then they were divided by 86400 and applied in the computation. While the b) subsequent runout stage was discretized in 5×10^{-3} s. The simulation was terminated until landslide motion stopped, which meant the velocity of the sliding mass was equal to zero. A damping factor defined as a force proportional to the corresponding unbalanced force, is also considered in the analysis (Kafaji 2013). In dynamic problems, where accelerations play an important role, the damping

207 factor should be small in order to avoid overdamping but sufficiently large to reduce spurious
208 oscillations. Values within the range of 0-5% are typically used (Jassim et al. 2013; Abe et al. 2014;
209 Bandara and Soga 2015). Five calculations with different local damping ratio are proposed in order to
210 investigate the effect of including local damping on the dynamic computation (Fig. S1, see
211 supplementary material). A local damping coefficient for all active elements of 5% is applied for both
212 the infiltration phase and during the runout, which also a unique value suggested by Yerro et al. (2019),
213 to prevent the model from becoming overly damped during dynamic computation, which could result
214 in high energy dissipation and could thus influence the accuracy of predictions of the kinematic
215 behavior of landslides, such as underestimating the velocity and runout distance.

216 Tables 1 and 2 summarize the material parameters used in the simulation. The Mohr-Coulomb
217 failure criterion with effective stress properties was adopted for ALD. Coupled hydro-mechanical
218 simulation with two-phase single-point formulation was assigned to the ALD to perform analysis on
219 the pore water pressure (PWP) changes, while the contact surface was tackled through the one phase
220 single-point formulation. The ALD was defined as unsaturated. The physical-mechanical parameters
221 were determined by in situ and laboratory tests, while the hydraulic parameters, including porosity,
222 saturated water content, permeability coefficient were determined by drill hole pressure tests,
223 consolidation tests. The soil-water characteristic curve was fitted by using van Genuchten model (van
224 Genuchten 1980) (Fig. 6). The shear strength of contact surface was obtained from direct shear tests
225 on sliding zone soils.

226

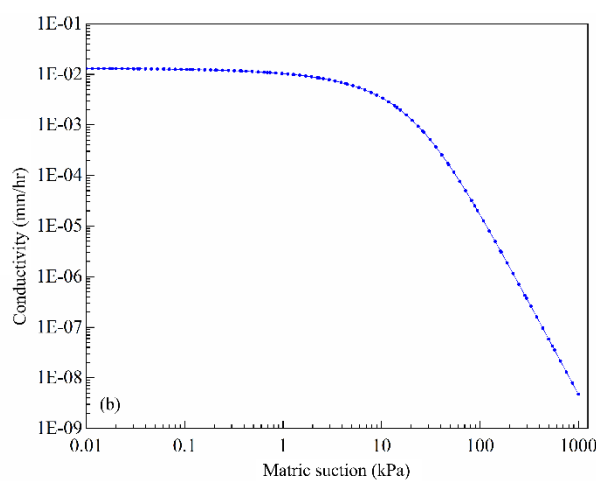
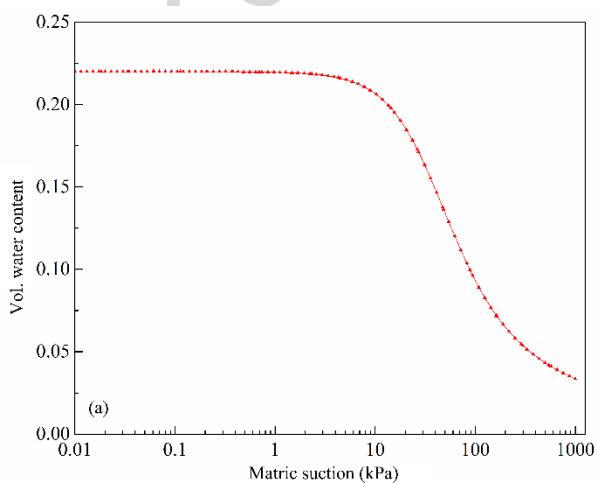
Table 1 Input material parameters for MPM simulation

Parameter	Unit	Pore water	ALD	Bedrock
Material type		/	Saturated-unsaturated	Dry
Constitutive model		/	Mohr-Coulomb	Linear elastic
Porosity, n	/	/	0.225	/
Unit weight, γ	kN/m ³	10	23.5	27.8
Cohesion, c	kPa	/	25.4	/
Friction angle, ϕ	°	/	17.2	/
Poisson's ratio, ν	/	/	0.30	0.23
Elastic modulus, E	MPa	/	45	30000
Bulk modulus, K	MPa	200	/	/
Saturated permeability, k	m/s	/	3.6×10^{-6}	/
Dilation angle, ψ	°	/	0	/

227

Table 2 Parameters for contact surface

Parameter	Value
Cohesion c , kPa	17.9
Friction angle ϕ , °	12.5



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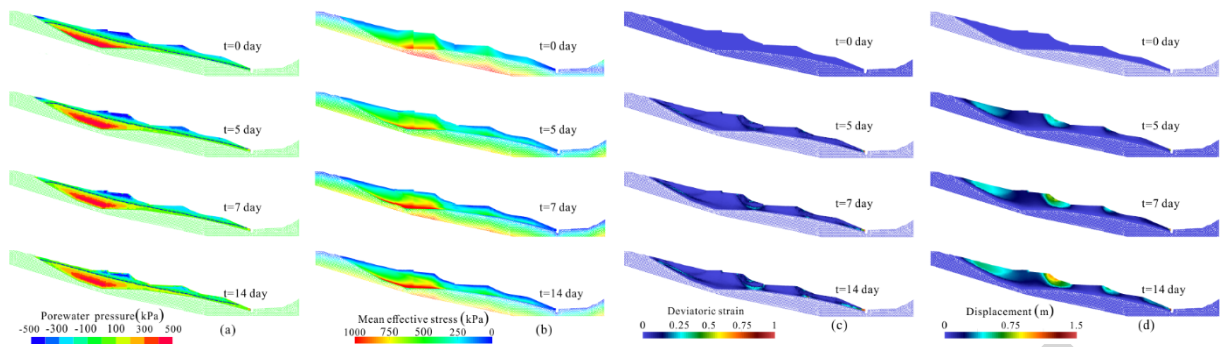
229 Fig. 6 (a) Penetration function curve of the sliding mass; (b) Soil-water characteristics curve of the
230 sliding mass

231 **Results**

232 *Pre-failure behaviors*

233 Fig. 7 shows the slope behaviour corresponding to the antecedent rainfall infiltration. Based on
234 the seepage field simulation results (Fig. 7a), in the early stage of rainfall, the sliding soil presented
235 the rapid infiltration, and the negative PWP of surface soils decreased constantly. Continuous
236 precipitation saturated the soil and increased the bulk density of the soils. Due to the thickness of the
237 sliding mass at the front edge was lower than that of the rear edge, and the infiltration path at the front
238 edge was short, thus the front edge of the slide mass with relatively gentle terrain reached the saturated
239 state initially. Then, the precipitation continued to infiltrate the sliding soils at the rear edge. When the
240 front sliding soils reached saturated state, groundwater infiltrated by rainfall continuously accumulated
241 on the potential sliding surface, increasing PWP on the sliding surface. Consequently, the soil suction
242 decreased with the increasing of PWP, resulting in mean effective stress decreased (Fig. 7b). Fig. 7c
243 depicts the development and distribution of the deviatoric strain of the slope at different time steps for
244 the evaluation of the shear failure surface during the rainwater infiltration stage. The soil failed
245 retrogressively from the lower to upper slope. At $t = 5$ day, the shear failure surface began to develop
246 at the soil-bedrock interface at the bank slope of Taozi gully. Meanwhile, the maximum displacement
247 was observed at the front edge (Fig. 7d). The deviatoric strain also began to present at the scarps along
248 the slope profile and the rear edges. At $t = 7$ days, shear deformations could be more clearly observed
249 at the bank slope and appeared to exhibit a rotational movement at the scarps. At the end of the rainfall
250 infiltration stage, distinct shear surfaces were presented at the front edge, scarps and the rear edge,
251 with maximum displacement reached about 1.5 m (Fig. 7d and Fig. 8).

252



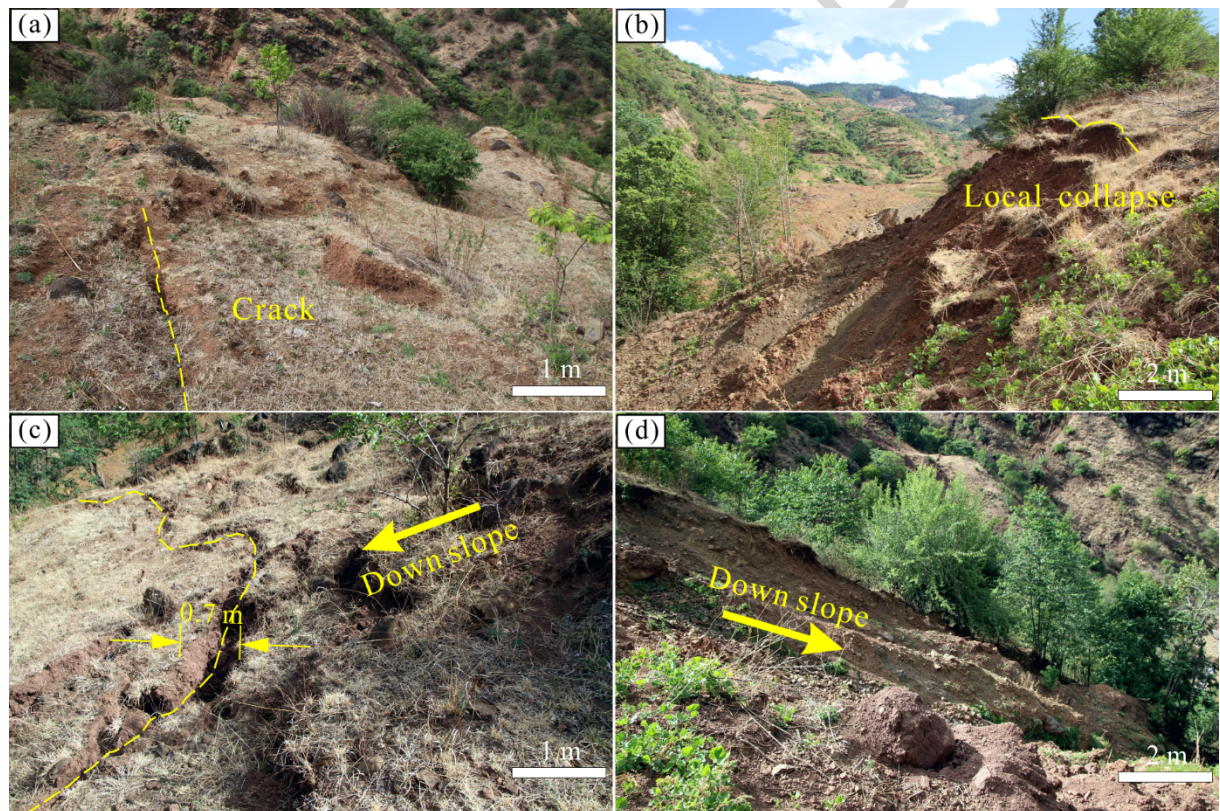
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Fig. 7 Variation in (a) PWP, (b) mean effective stress, (c) deviatoric strain and (d) displacement

255

computed in rainfall infiltration stage



256

257

Fig. 8 Deformations observed at the front edge of slope: (a) crack; (b) local collapse occurred on 13

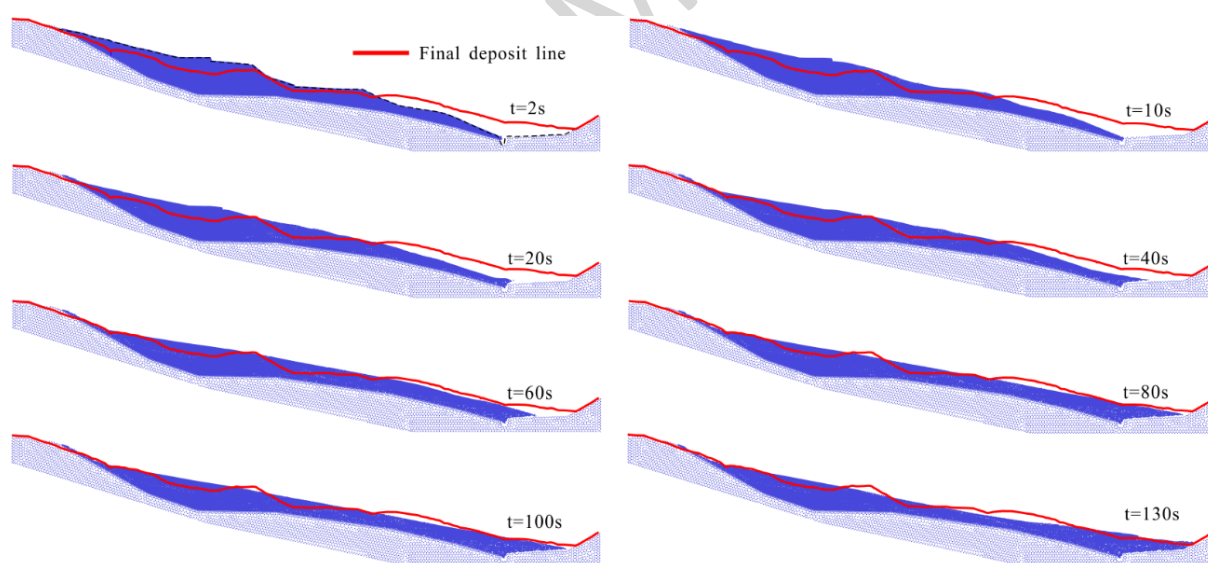
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July; (c) Tensile crack and (d) collapse on 18 July

259

Post-failure runout behaviors

260 Fig. 9 depicts the runout process after landslide initiation at eight different time steps, which
261 lasted about 130s from the beginning to the stable accumulation after the 14-day antecedent rainfall.
262 At the initial moment, the landslide began to slide as a result of gravity and seepage force, with the
263 front edge of first failure. At $t = 20$ s, the sliding mass dammed the Taozi gully and then the soil masses
264 in the middle and rear parts were retrogressed. At $t = 60$ s, the sliding masses in the middle part of
265 slope moved downslope, resulting in overlap accumulation. At $t = 80$ s, the sliding masses in the rear
266 part presented compound failure of retrogressive and progressive failure towards the front and middle
267 part of the slope, forming platform-like accumulation landforms. At $t = 130$ s, the landslide movement
268 terminated. The reactivated landslide reached the furthest elevation of 2338.3 m at the front edge. The
269 final sliding distance was 227.6 m, which was similar to the farthest elevation of 2337.1 m and the
270 maximum sliding distance of 225.4 m obtained in the field evidence. Thus, the simulation results of
271 coupled hydro-mechanical two-phase unsaturated MPM were reasonable.

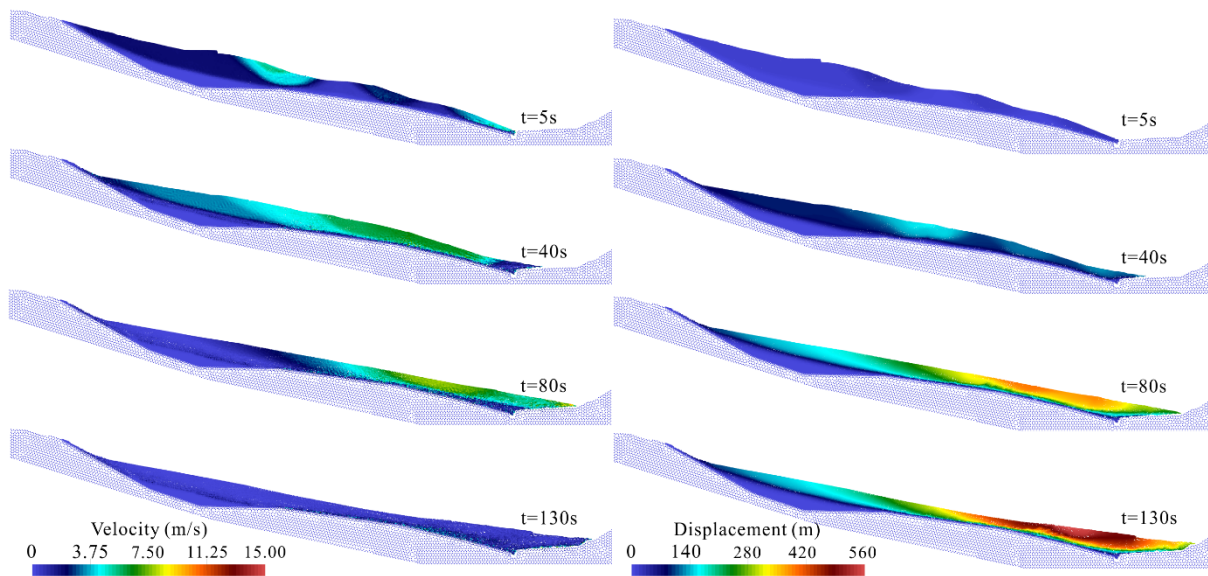


272
273 Fig. 9 The runout processes and final landslide deposits compared to field observation

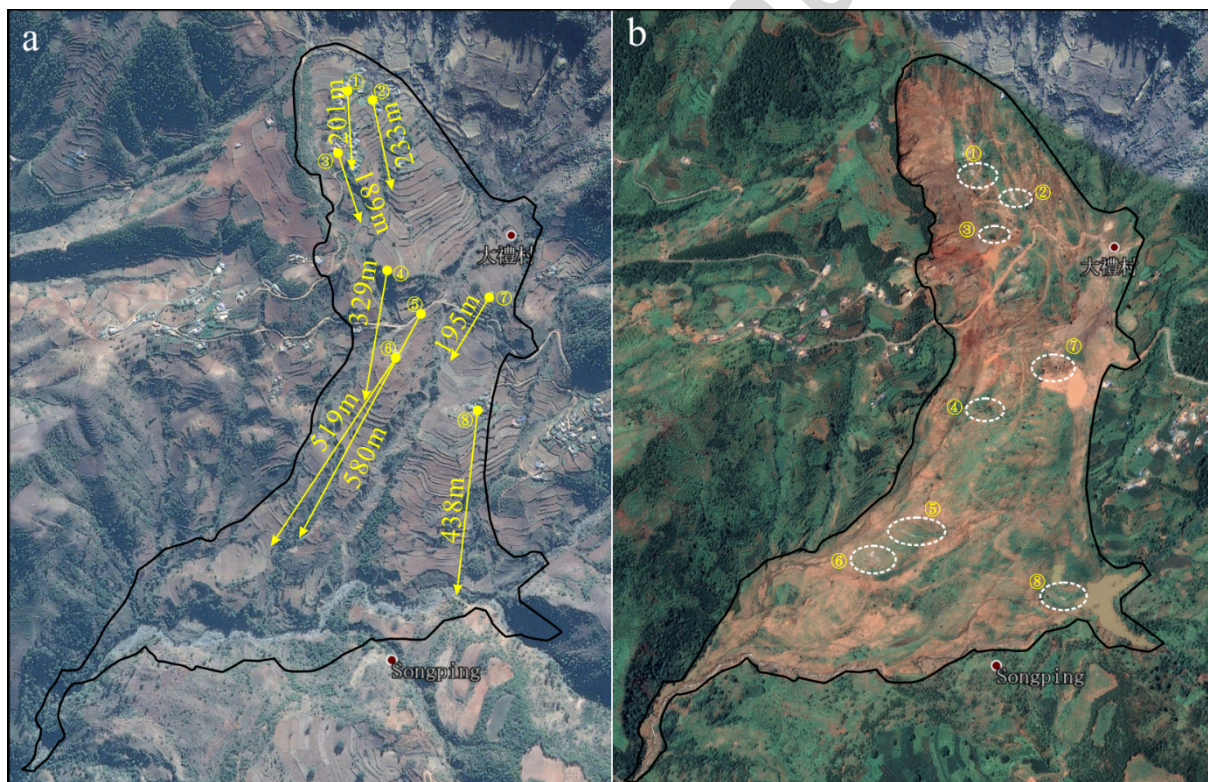
274 *Kinematic behaviors*

275 Fig. 10 illustrates the velocity and displacement distribution at different times of the reactivated

276 landslide. Initially, the soil masses in the front edge began to slide towards the free surface of the right
277 bank of Taozi gully, the front sliding masses entered the gully channel with a velocity of 6 m/s and a
278 displacement of 18 m at $t = 5$ s. The sliding masses at middle and upper slope began to move, and the
279 velocity reached 5 m/s at the scarp II, and the maximum displacement reached 30 m at the scarp III.
280 The displacement of about 14 m appeared at the backwall at the rear edge. The slope presented
281 uncoordinated movement, and the velocity was concentrated at the micro-geomorphic mutations. Due
282 to friction and collision, the MPs at the bottom of the gully bed had obvious deceleration and
283 accumulation phenomenon, while the MPs at the top still maintained accelerating motion. Meanwhile,
284 the middle and rear velocity concentrated on the MPs in the area with steep slope. At $t = 40$ s, the
285 velocity of the front sliding masses decreased to 0 when it reached the opposite bank side for a certain
286 distance, with a displacement of 80 m. The middle sliding masses maintained accelerating movement
287 with the velocity of 7.5 m/s and the maximum displacement reached 170m, while the rear sliding mass
288 had the velocity of 5 m/s. After this, the movement of the front sliding masses showed stratified
289 phenomenon. The velocity of the bottom MPs was close to 0 and that of the upper MPs was about 5
290 m/s, which was subjected to the overloading and shoveling of the following sliding masses. At $t = 80$
291 s, the middle sliding masses gradually moved to the leading edge accumulation with a velocity of 12.5
292 m/s and a maximum displacement of 400 m. The velocity of the rear sliding masses decreased to 0,
293 and the displacement was about 120 m. Influenced by the terrain and the barrier of the anterior
294 accumulation, the landslide was terminated until 130 s, when the overall velocity of the landslide
295 reduced to 0, and the final displacement reached a maximum of 560 m, which belonged to the MPs
296 below the scarp III in the middle of the slope, and matched well with the maximum displacement of
297 580 m of the reference ground feature mark found in the field investigation (Fig. 11). Thus, it could be
298 inferred that the MPs with the maximum velocity and displacement of landslide were concentrated at
299 scarps of the original slope, instead of the whole movement with the same velocity, and the different
300 movement characteristics of the landslide were significant.



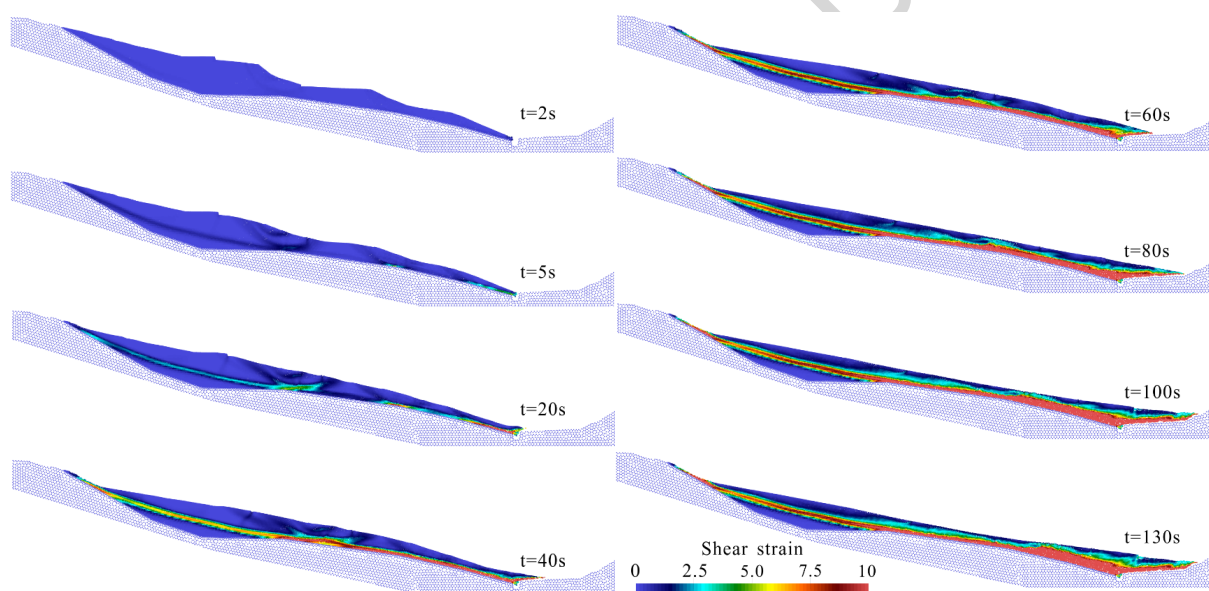
302 Fig. 10 The kinematic results of MPM: (a) velocity and (b) displacement



304 Fig. 11 Motion of ground surface landmarks. (a) November 9, 2015 (b) August 12, 2019 from the
305 Google Earth image

306 Fig. 12 shows the variation in shear strains at different times. The bottom and interior of the

307 sliding masses experienced intense shear deformation. At $t = 2$ s, the shear strain concentrated on the
308 front edge of the slope and developed backward along the interface of soil and bedrock. At $t = 10$ s,
309 the bottom shear zone was obvious at the front edge, the middle edge and the rear edge of the slope.
310 At $t = 20$ s, the shear zone extended to the surface scarps, with the characteristics of multiple sliding
311 zones. At $t = 40$ s, the shear strain concentration zone at the bottom is progressively connected, and
312 the multiple shearing was presented in the middle part. At $t = 60$ s, the shear zone was completely
313 connected. After $t = 80$ s, the high shear strain area was mainly concentrated in the contact area between
314 the sliding masses and the bedrock, and the sliding mass had internal shear phenomenon in the process
315 of termination.



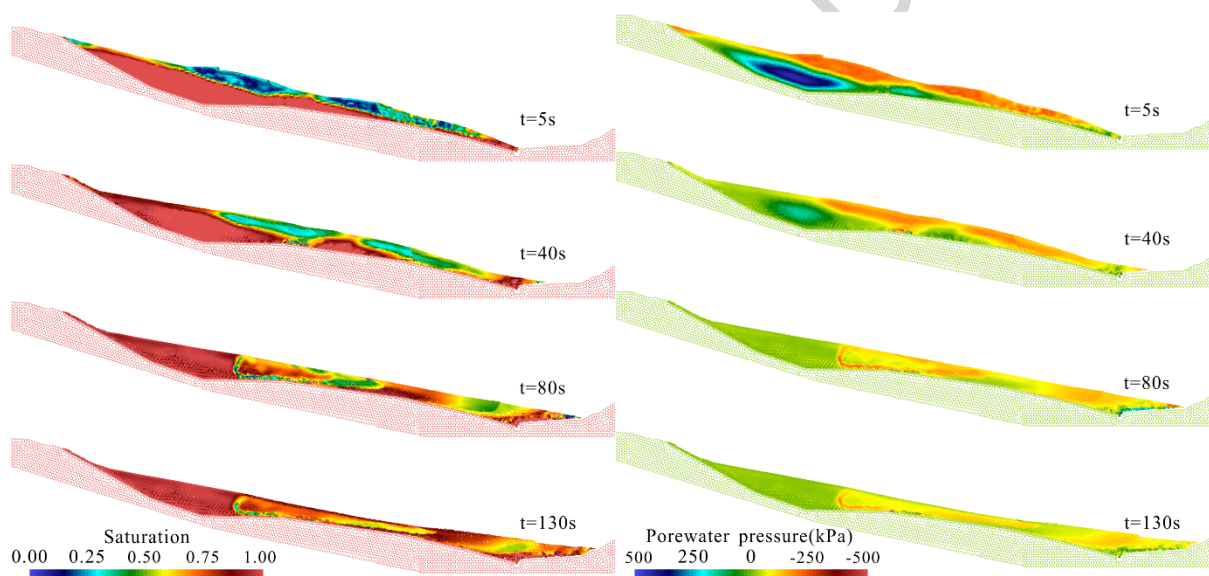
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317

Fig. 12 The strain distribution calculated by MPM

318 Fig. 13 depicts the distribution of PWP and soil saturation at different times. At beginning, the
319 soils on the front bank slope of Taozi gully reached fully saturated state, and the PWP increased from
320 the initial -150 kPa to 50 kPa. At $t = 5$ s, the soils slid downward continuously, the irregular slope
321 surface gradually evolved into relatively smooth, and the PWP and saturation at the rear edge increased.
322 Following this, the wetting front of the central sliding masses rose, the PWP increased and the

323 secondary sliding zone formed. The front sliding masses remained saturated with the movement, but
324 the PWP decreased and dissipated gradually. At $t = 40$ s, the saturation of surface sliding masses of
325 the rear edge rose rapidly and reached saturated state, and the PWP reached 50 kPa. The rear edge
326 began to slide under the influence of hydraulic pressure, and exerted a pushing effect on the sliding
327 masses below. After $t = 80$ s, PWP in the front edge accumulation rose again due to the scraping of
328 subsequent sliding masses and continued to move forward under the action of shoveling. The sliding
329 masses at the rear edge basically stopped, and the PWP and saturation remained unchanged, while the
330 PWP inside the sliding masses fluctuated within a certain range, and the soil saturation distribution
331 remained unchanged.



333 Fig. 13 The seepage results of MPM: (a) saturation and (b) PWP

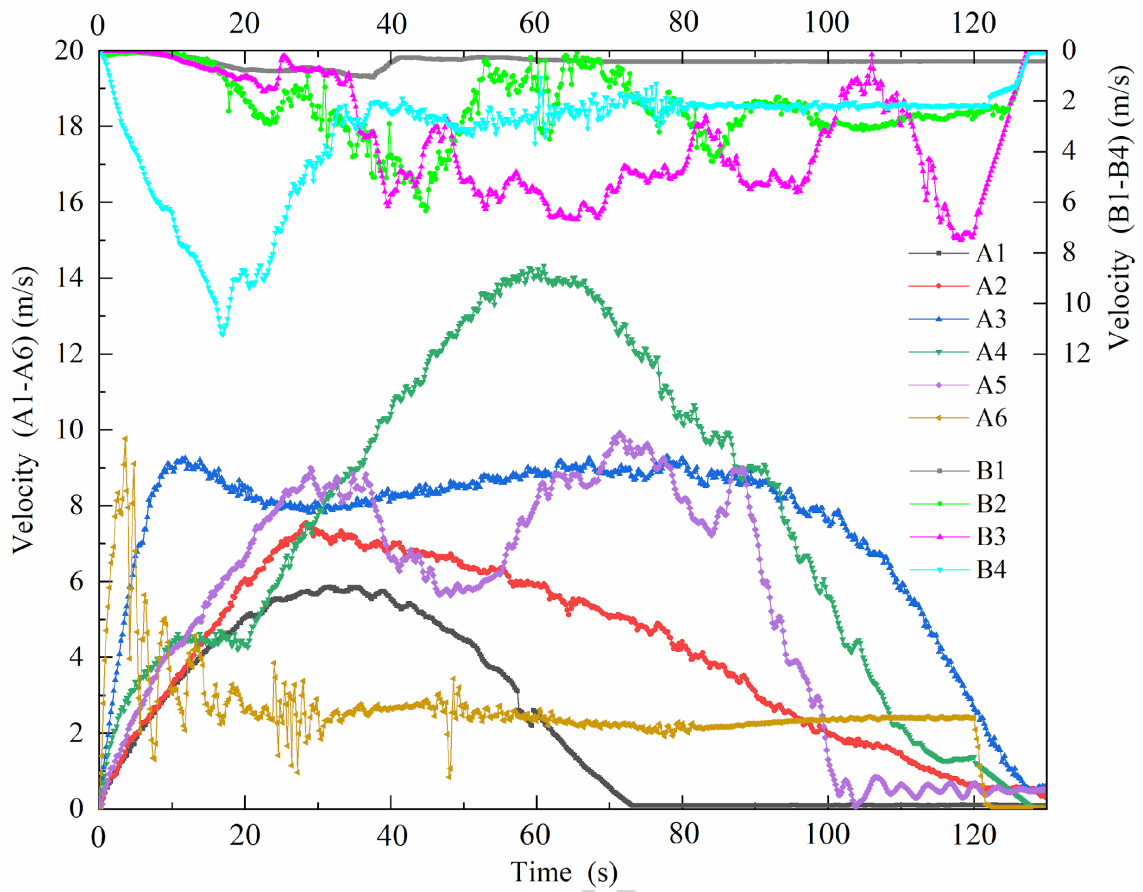
334 Figs. 14~17 respectively display the evolution process of velocity, displacement, PWP and
335 saturation of 10 monitoring points, as shown in Fig 5. Point A6 is located near the front edge, the area
336 where the initial deformation occurred. At $t = 4$ s, A6 reached the maximum velocity of 10 m/s, then
337 began to deposit and the velocity dropped sharply and then, the velocity fluctuated due to the scrapping
338 of the rear sliding masses at about $t = 60$ s. Point A5, located in the middle section of front edge and

339 scarp II, began to accelerated by the drag force from the front sliding masses. At $t = 26$ s the velocity
340 showed a decreasing trend, and then accelerated again at $t = 46$ s, which corresponds to scraping from
341 the acceleration of the subsequent sliding masses. Fig. showed that two points of A4 and A5 had the
342 same acceleration after $t = 46$ s, and both reached their maximum velocities at $t = 70$ s, which were 14
343 m/s and 10 m/s respectively. Point A3, located at the scarp III, since the start of movement, had entered
344 the accelerated motion with higher acceleration than other points, reaching 9.2 m/s at $t = 10$ s, and then
345 maintaining the velocity until $t = 90$ s when it began to decelerate. This motion feature resulted in A3
346 had the largest runout displacement. A2 and A1, located at the rear edge of the slope, had similar
347 movement characteristics. A2 was located at the original topographic platform surface and reached the
348 maximum velocity of 7.5 m/s at 28 s and began to decelerate at 60 s. A1, located on the steep slope of
349 the rear edge, reached the maximum velocity of 5.8 m/s at 35 s, and then began to decelerate, then
350 decreased to 0 at 72 s, indicating that the sliding mass at the rear edge moved for a short time, which
351 was consistent with the motion characteristics of the ground marks in Fig. 11.

352 Points B1-B4 were located in the bottom part of the sliding mass, having lower velocities that of
353 the surface points. B1 was located near the backwall at the rear edge and had a low velocity, floating
354 within the range of 0~2 m/s, indicating that it only slid slowly along the backwall. B2 and B3 were the
355 deep MPs below the middle of the slope, and both of them presented two-stage accelerated movements,
356 with period of 0~20 s and 30~45 s for B2, and 30~40 s and 50~65 s for B3, wherein the second
357 accelerated movement of B2 was caused by the pushing of the upper sliding mass, and at the same
358 time, it promoted the first accelerated movement of B3 in front. After the front sliding mass moved,
359 the support materials were removed for B3 and it accelerated again and reached a maximum velocity
360 of 7 m/s. B4 is the deep MP of the front edge. The accelerated movement began at $t = 0$ s, and reached
361 the maximum velocity of 11 m/s at $t = 18$ s, and then slowed down and moved at a constant velocity.
362 At $t = 40$ s, the velocity decreased to 2 m/s, which was similar to A6.

363 The displacement characteristics were highly correlated with the velocity. The maximum
364 displacement of A3 at the middle scarp III was 468.8 m, following by MP A4 at scarp II of 442.4m.
365 The maximum displacement of A5 reached 327.3m. The motion characteristics of A2 and A1 are
366 similar, but the motion duration of A1 was short, the displacement difference was about 120 m
367 compared with that of A2. The velocity of A6 was at a low value after it accumulated in the gully,
368 resulting in a small displacement of 16.3 m.

369 Among points B1-B4, B4 and A5 were similarly subjected to the action of scraping, with a long
370 duration of movement and a maximum displacement of 88.3 m. The motion characteristics of B2 and
371 B3 were similar, with the maximum displacement of 52.8 m and 41.3 m respectively. B1 had the
372 smallest average velocity, thus the maximum displacement was only 14.8 m, indicating that part of the
373 sliding mass remained in the rear edge area. By monitoring the kinematic characteristics (velocity and
374 displacement), the reactivated landslide presented differential motions in different landforms and depth,
375 further compound retrogressive and progressive failures led to scraping effect on sliding mass,
376 which experienced several accelerated motions, reflecting the complexity of the landslide runout.
377 MPM simulation results are highly consistent with the survey evidences.



378

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Fig. 14 Velocity behavior at different locations

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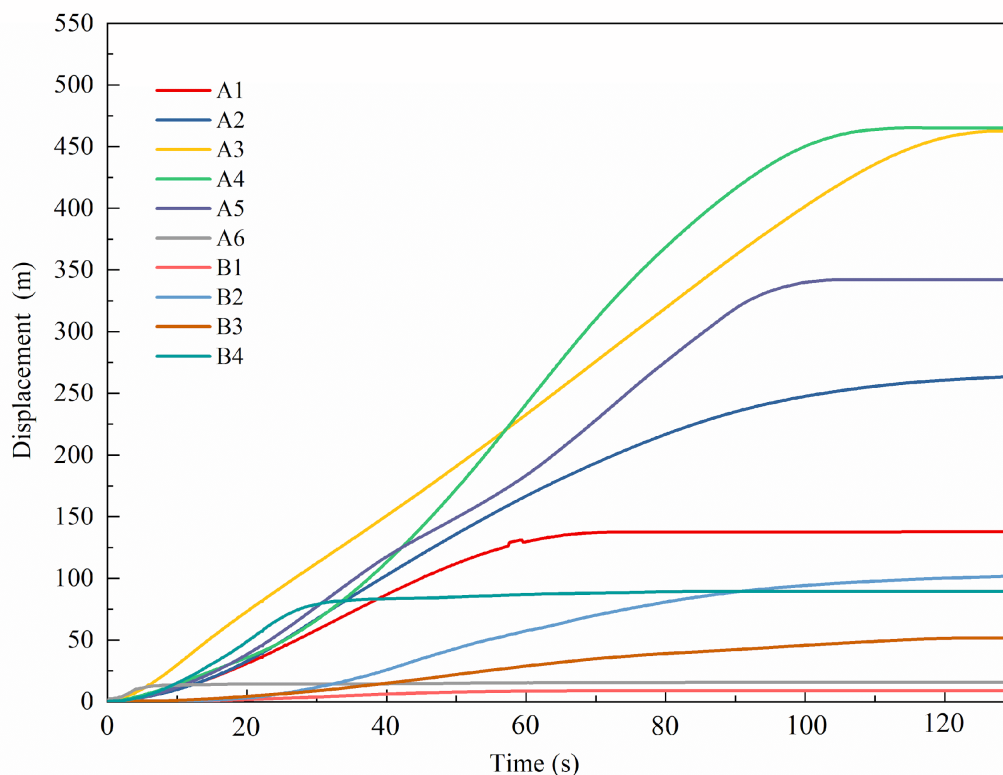
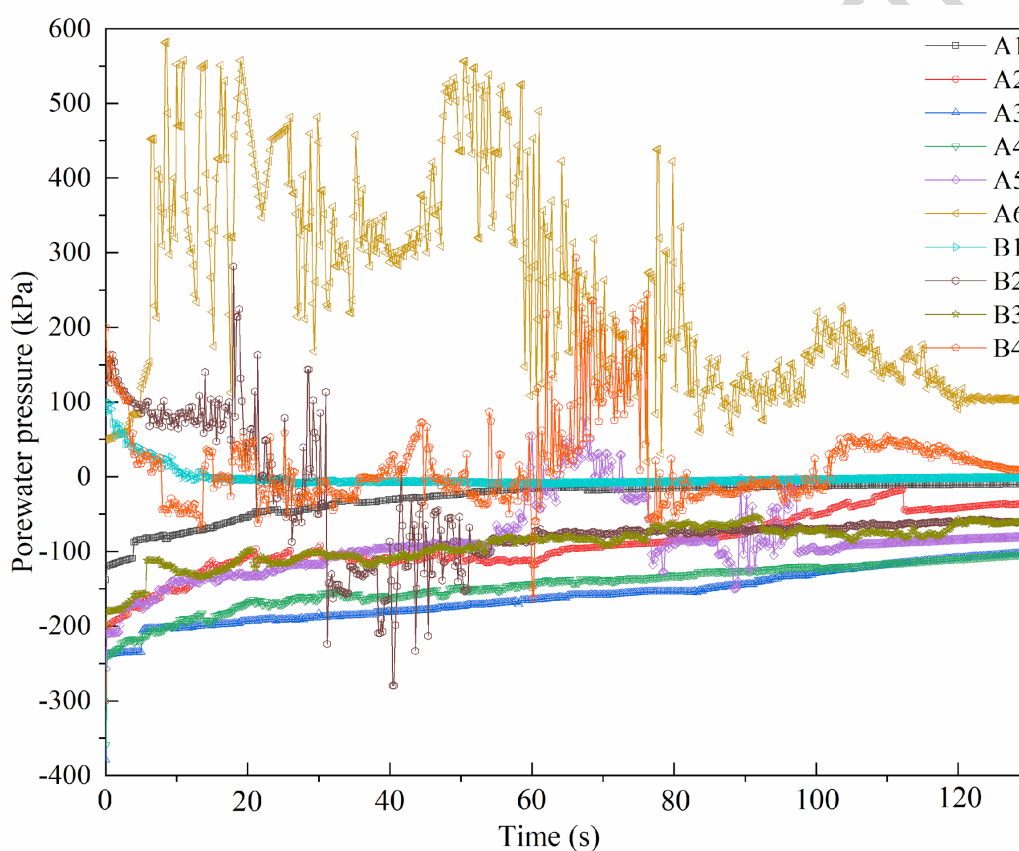


Fig. 15 Displacement behavior at different locations

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381
382 By comparing the variations of PWP, saturation and kinematic characteristics in the process of
383 landslide movement at the monitoring points, it could be outlined that the PWP generated by rainfall
384 and groundwater seepage was the main driving factor of landslide initiation and movement. After the
385 antecedent rainwater infiltration, the PWP and saturation of surface MPs (A1-A6) continued to rise
386 within 0~2 s, especially A6 on the surface of the front edge of the slope. At $t = 2$ s, the PWP of A6
387 reached the maximum value of 50 kPa, followed by local failure in the front and the overall failure
388 stage of the landslide. A6 remained saturated with fluctuated PWP during the landslide. This was due
389 to continuous seepage of groundwater resulted from the subsequent scraping of sliding mass. Points
390 A1-A5 belong to the surface MPs in the middle and rear parts, and their saturation and PWP changed
391 in the same trend, both of which remained basically unchanged in the subsequent landslide movement.
392 B1-B4 were the deep MPs of slope, and B1, B2, B4 were below the initial ground water level, meaning
393 to saturated state. The initial positive PWP presented declining trend during landslide. The PWP and

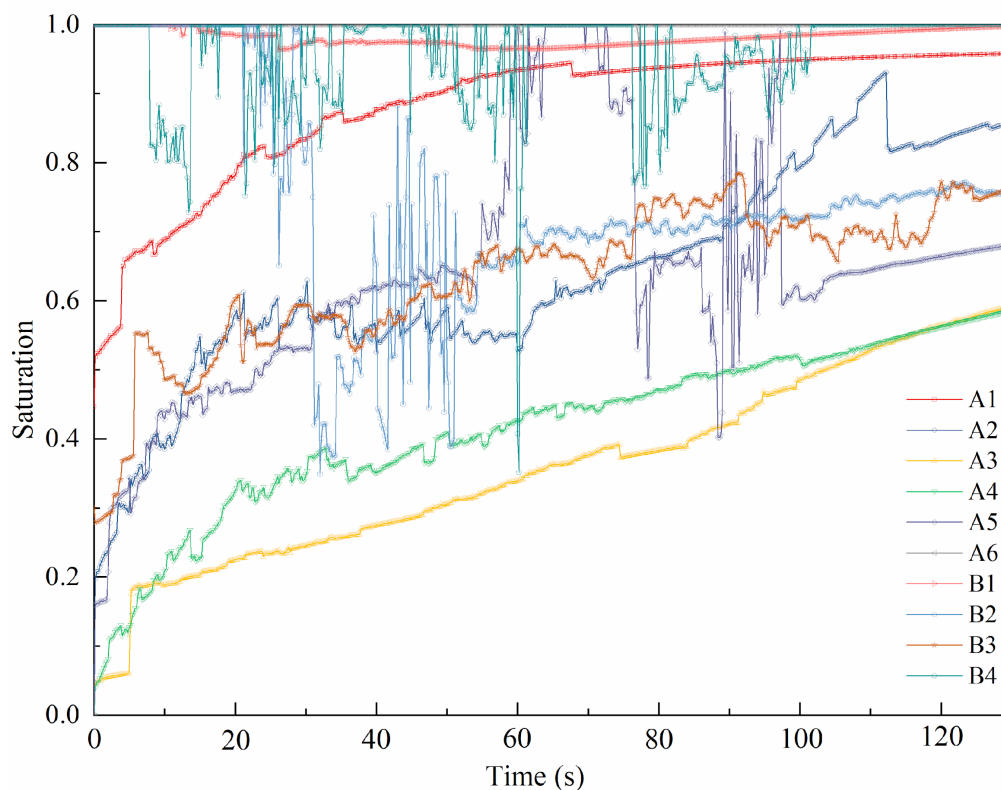
394 saturation remained stable when the movement of B1 reached $t = 40$ s, corresponding to the end of the
395 movement. B2 is located near the secondary slip zone of scarp III (Fig. 44). which was subjected to
396 shearing with the fluctuated PWP. After the secondary shear failure occurred, the PWP and saturation
397 remained unchanged after $t = 60$ s. B4, located at the front edge, similar to A6, the seepage field
398 changed dramatically, causing larger changes in PWP and saturation than other points. B3 is located
399 above the initial groundwater level, and the change of PWP was similar to that of A2-A5. Due to the
400 inconsistency in the depth, the change of PWP is lagging behind that of the A-series points.



401

402

Fig. 16 PWP behavior at different locations



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404

Fig. 17 Saturation behavior at different locations

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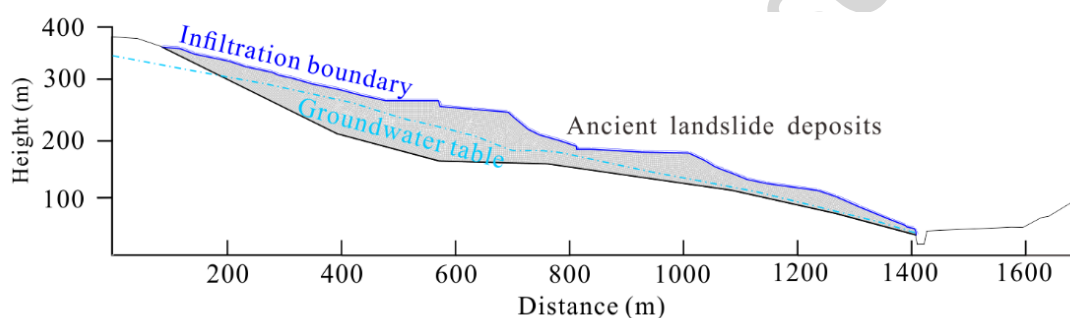
406 Discussions

407 *Pre-failure deformation compared with other methods*

408 The results obtained highlight the performance of MPM on outlining the pre-failure deformation
409 analysis. Nevertheless, the classical method in analyzing the pre-failure evolution of the slope is Finite
410 Element Method (FEM). As aforementioned, the seepage from rainfall and groundwater is the prime
411 triggering factor of this reactivated landslide. Here uncoupled seepage FEM with LEM and hydro-
412 mechanical coupled FEM are conducted to compute spatio-temporal distributions of PWP within the
413 slope.

414 1. Uncoupled seepage FEM with LEM

415 Firstly, PWP was modelled to calculate the variation induced by antecedent rainfall (14 days).
416 The seepage modelling was conducted through FEM code SEEP/W (Geostudio 2018), with a mesh of
417 15813 triangular elements with each size of 2 m (Fig. 18). The input parameters are similar to MPM.
418 A flux boundary condition equal to the daily rainfall intensities (Fig. 4) was applied at the ground
419 surface. Then the LEM, Morgenstern-Price method based on Slope/w (Geostudio 2018), was used to
420 compute the stability factor of the slope, and the extended Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion for
421 unsaturated soils was considered.



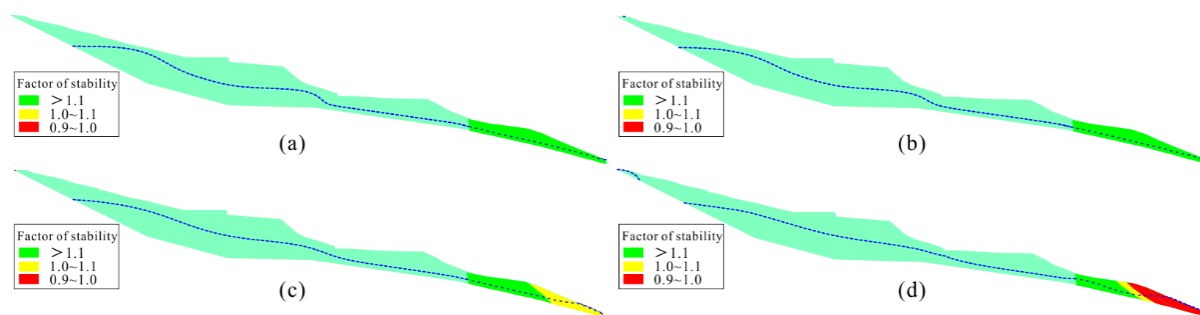
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423 Fig. 18 Computational uncoupled seepage FEM mesh used for the seepage analysis

424 PWP results were used as input data for slope stability analysis in LEM analyses to evaluate the
425 spatio-temporal evolution of stability factors along shallow or deep sliding surfaces during rainfall
426 infiltration. 382 curved and foldline sliding surfaces at the front edge of the slope were specified
427 through the central grid and radius range.

428 Fig. 19 depicts the spatial distribution of F_s computed for four reference times. The slope is
429 simulated as initially stable (Fig. 19a) and remains stable during the first five days of rainfall, with the
430 F_s greater than 1.1 at any front sliding surface, while the groundwater level gradually is rising (Fig.
431 19b). The F_s drops to lower than 1.1 along a sliding surface after seven days rainfall (Fig. 19c). The
432 deep sliding surface reaches an unstable state after 14 days of rain (Fig. 19d). For the sliding surface

433 with different depths at the front of slope, the F_s gradually decreases with the infiltration of rainwater,
434 and gradually extends from the shallow sliding surface to the deep sliding surface. This change of
435 slope stability is consistent with the retrogressive failure mechanism.



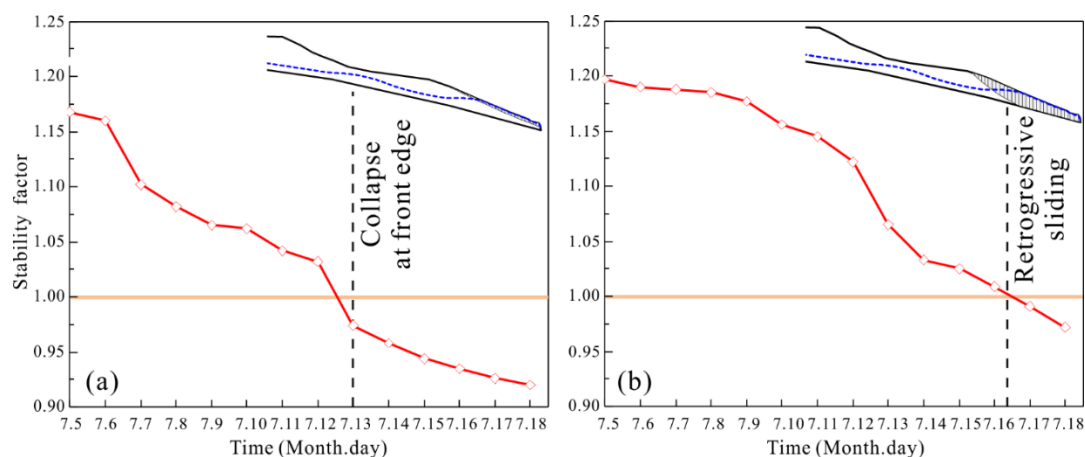
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437 Fig. 19 Factor of stability spatial distribution for (a) $t = 0$ day; (b) $t = 5$ days; (c) $t = 7$ days; (d) $t = 14$
438 days

439 Fig. 20 illustrates the changes in F_s of sliding surfaces of different depths (shallow and deep),
440 indicating that the stability of shallow sliding mass at the front edge reduces over time under the
441 influence of rainfall and groundwater seepage, which drops to lower than 1.0 on July 13, when the
442 daily rainfall reached 69.4 mm, the F_s decreased to 0.993, which is in an unstable state (Fig. 20a). The
443 result is consistent with the collapse of the front slope before the large-scale reactivated landslide
444 occurrence. The deep sliding surface presents a slower reduction of F_s over the time (Fig. 20b). By
445 analyzing the calculated results of the time-trend of F_s , it can be deduced that the stability of the front
446 part of slope presents different decreasing trends with the rainfall duration, which is closely related to
447 daily rainfall intensities.

448 LEM coupled seepage analysis achieves a conclusion consistent with field investigation in the
449 analysis of groundwater level change and slope stability. For shallow sliding surface and deep sliding
450 surface, the stability coefficient decreases to below 1.0 approximately when the local collapse
451 phenomenon occurs at the front edge of the slope. However, more sophisticated analysis is required to

452 better understand the compound mechanism of from the onset of the front edge failure to the
453 subsequent overall sliding.



454

455 Fig. 20 Factor of stability changing in time along (a) shallow and (b) deep sliding surface

456 2. Hydro-mechanical coupled FEM

457 Hydro-mechanical coupled FEM was conducted using software RS2 Rocscience (Rocscience
458 Inc 2018) to explore the small-deformation and seepage prior to the slope failure. The model was made
459 of 19702 6-noded triangular elements for sliding mass with a size of 2 m and local refined in the front
460 edge, and 3388 elements for bedrock (Fig. 21). The bottom of the model was fully fixed in the X and
461 Y directions, and the left and right edges were fixed in the X directions. The input parameters are the
462 same as MPM. After calculating the initial equilibrium geo-stress, the solid-liquid coupled deformation
463 analysis was carried out to simulate the rise of PWP and groundwater level caused by rainfall
464 infiltration. The complete implicit integration scheme is used in the plane-strain condition, which
465 allows large time step and fast calculation. Six monitoring points were set at the front edge and the
466 middle of the slope (Fig. 21) to calculate the time-trend of displacement, so as to compare the
467 numerical analysis results with the in-situ failure phenomena before the landslide.

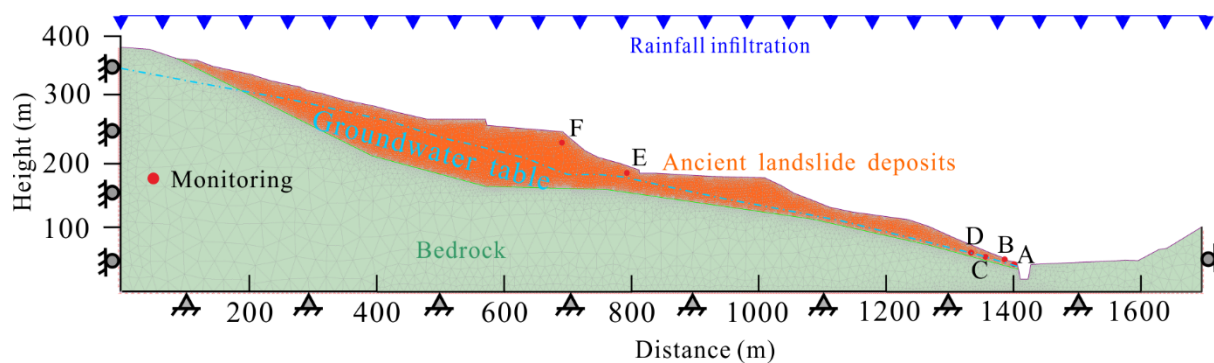
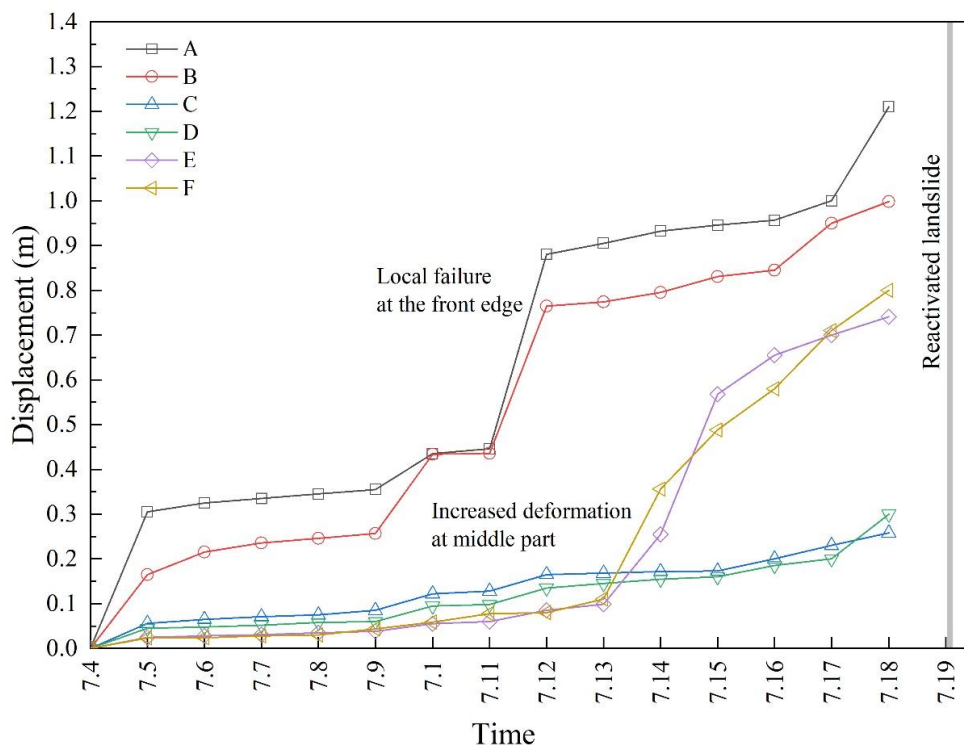


Fig. 21 Computational hydro-mechanical coupled FEM mesh

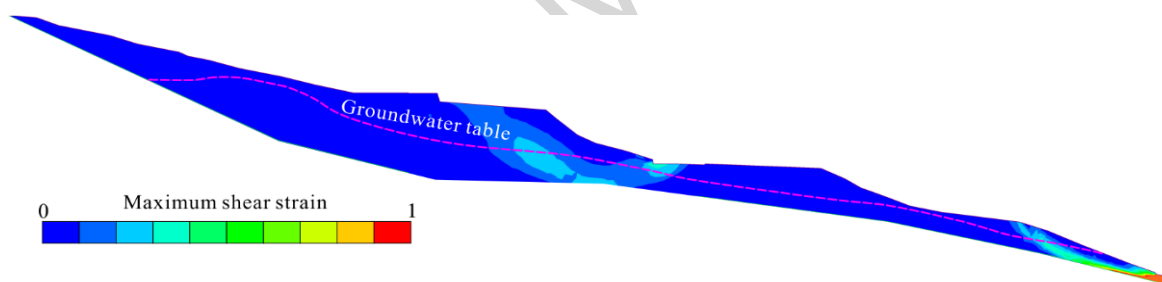
Fig. 22 shows the FEM-derived displacements of monitoring points over the time. The deformation of the front edge is much larger than that of the middle part, and the variation trend of the front edge displacement is consistent with the variation of daily rainfall intensity. The cumulative rainfall in the first 6 days was 112.5 mm, and the maximum daily rainfall occurred on July 5, which was 58.1mm. The displacement increased slowly at this stage, and the maximum cumulative displacement was 0.43m in the front edge. From the seventh day to the ninth day, the cumulative rainfall reached 148mm in three days, and the maximum rainfall intensity occurred on July 13, when the maximum displacement of the front edge reached 0.90 m, and then local collapse occurred. From the deformation of monitoring points at different depths, the deformation of points on the slope surface (A, B) was larger than that of points at deeper depths (C, D), which is consistent with the field investigation phenomenon of retrogressive sliding. After July 13, the middle part of the slope began to deform rapidly. Fig. 23 presents the maximum shear strain distribution of the slope after the rainfall infiltration. The shear strain at the front edge was concentrated through the area, and a potential sliding zone at the central scarp was formed.



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Fig. 22 Displacements of monitoring points over time obtained by FEM



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Fig. 23 Maximum shear strain distribution after 14 days of rain

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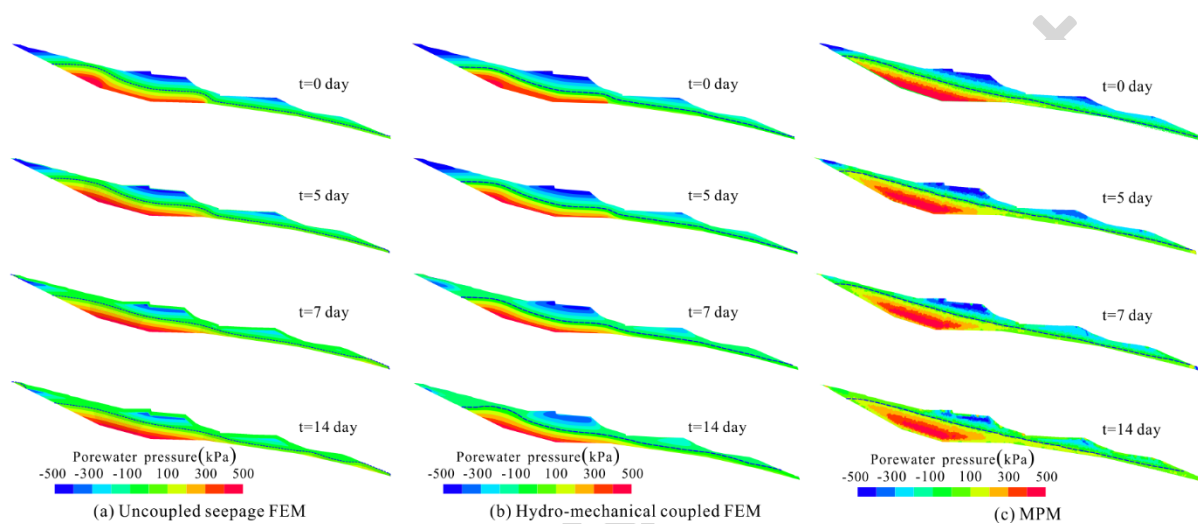
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Fig. 24 demonstrate the PWP spatio-temporal distribution obtained by three different methods. A good agreement among three results is observed, including the unsaturated zone and groundwater table. The PWP time-trend of two monitoring points located in the front (P1) and middle (P2) parts provide more insights (Fig. 25). At P1 the computed PWP increased slowly at the first 5 days of rain, indicating the stable state of the front slope. Then the PWP suddenly increased with a high increasing rate until July 14, showing the occurrence of the local collapse at July 13, the time reported by eyewitnesses. At

494 P2, the PWP grew suddenly after the first day of rain and then increased slightly before the large-scale
495 retrogressive failure occurred.

496 As a major limitation, the post-failure is not simulated by FEM due to the computation terminates
497 once the large deformation occurs. Thus, the results achieved by MPM outline the good performance
498 in simulating the entire process (pre-failure and post-failure) of such compound landslides.



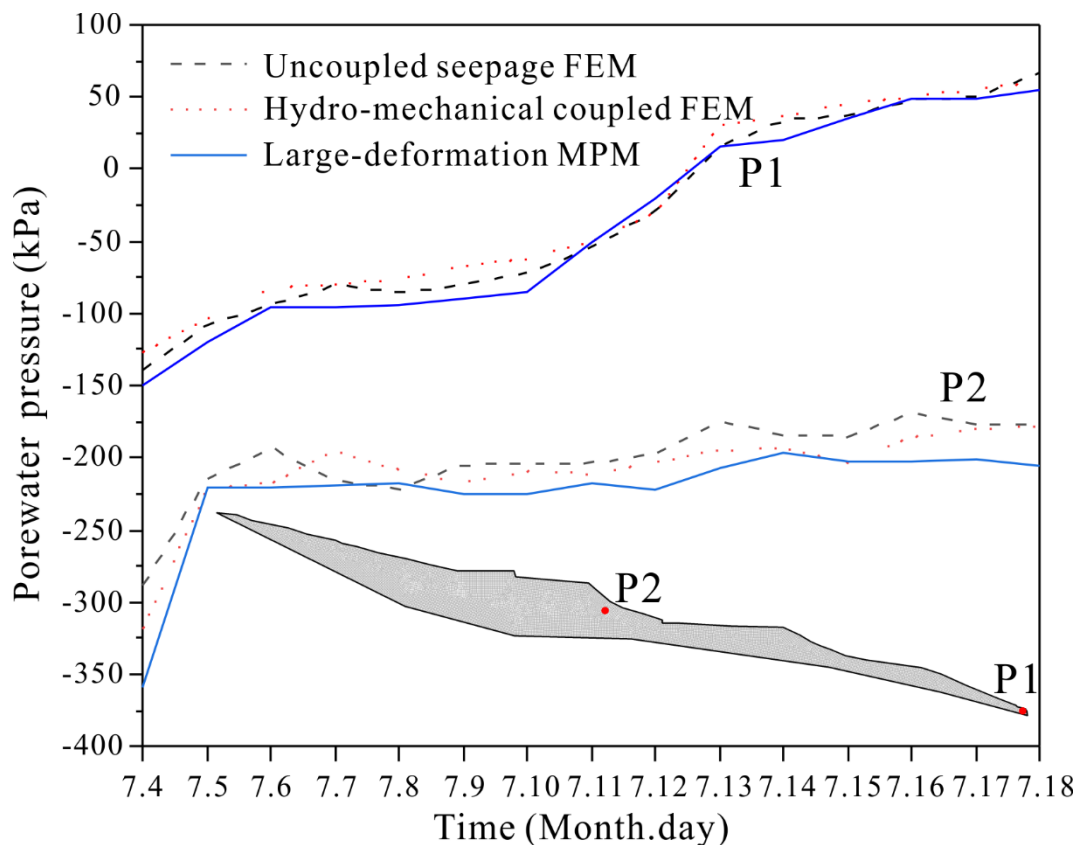
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500 Fig. 24 PWP distribution: (a) Uncoupled seepage FEM; (b) Hydro-mechanical coupled FEM; (c)

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MPM

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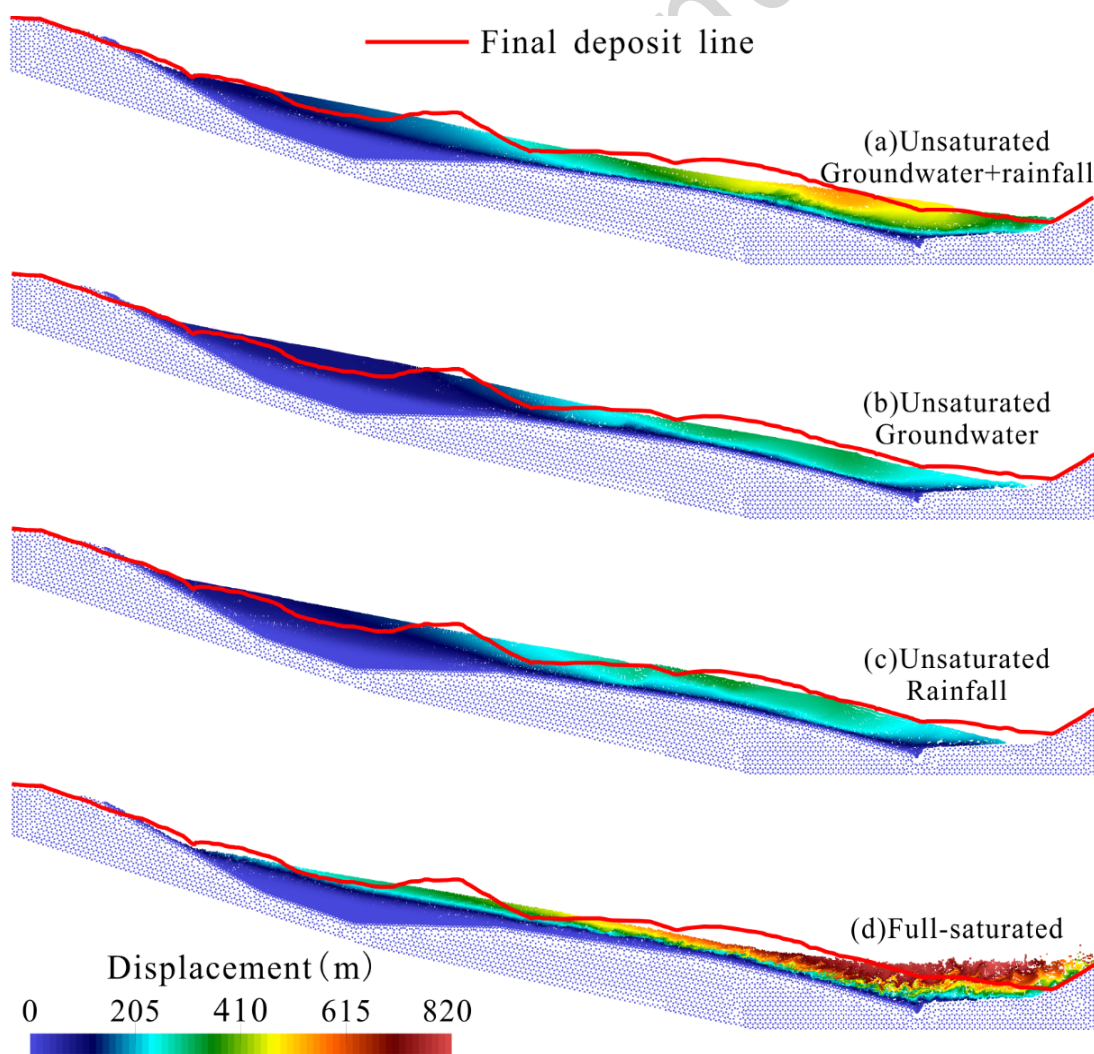
503 Fig. 25 Comparison among uncoupled seepage FEM, hydro-mechanical coupled FEM and MPM
504 analysis in terms of PWP over time at two monitoring points

505 *Post-failure runout affected by analysis type*

506 In order to further explore the influence of pre-existing groundwater and antecedent rainfall on
507 the landslide runout behaviors, three different conditions were considered to simulate the runout
508 distance of landslide. Conditions include unsaturated soil with only groundwater, unsaturated soil with
509 only rainfall, and full-saturated soil without groundwater and rainfall. Other settings of the models are
510 consistent with those described in Method section.

511 Fig. 26 displays the comparison of the final landslide deposits geometry through four analysis
512 types. The results show that in the unsaturated two-phase simulation considered both groundwater and
513 rainfall, the maximum displacement of MPs was 560 m, and the largest runout distance was 227.6 m,

514 while the largest runout distance measured in the field was 225.4 m. When only the pre-existing
515 groundwater was considered, the maximum displacement of the MPs was 322 m and the largest runout
516 distance was 184.5 m. Considering only antecedent rainfall infiltration, the maximum displacement
517 was 340 m and the distance was 157.6 m. When full-saturated simulation is adopted, the maximum
518 displacement of MPs was 820 m, and the largest runout distance is 290 m, which was much larger than
519 the actual displacement and runout distance. In addition, the simulation results of unsaturated two-
520 phase are closer to the actual accumulation morphology. These results show that the unsaturated two-
521 phase simulation has a good performance on the simulation of landslide runout by the influence of
522 hydraulic-related seepage. The pre-existing groundwater and antecedent rainfall are the main inducing
523 factors to the landslide runout.



524

525 Fig. 26 Comparison of the final landslide deposits geometry computed by different types of analyses:
526 unsaturated condition: (a) considering groundwater and rainfall; (b) considering groundwater; (c)
527 considering rainfall. (d) full-saturated condition

528 *Limitations*

529 Albeit the results derived from this study have largely coincided with the field observations, some
530 deficiencies still exist. Firstly, the presented study focuses on examining the pre- and post-failure
531 behaviors in terms of kinematic, seepage and strain of a landslide with a 2D cross section, which is a
532 preliminary research serving as the basis for exploring more realistic landslides (Lei et al. 2020). Ideal
533 slopes were adopted with neglect of terrain irregularity and variations in moving width direction
534 were not considered to facilitate efficient computation. Nonetheless, 2D modeling disallows us to
535 capture crucial such behaviors in all directions of interest (Li et al. 2020). A sophisticated 3D modeling
536 can simulate, over complex topography, different regimes of landslides with unprecedented details (Li
537 et al. 2021; Lei et al. 2022). Future studies will consider real 3D topography and recover the lateral
538 boundary conditions of landslides. Secondly, in the present simulation, soils were taken as
539 homogeneous bodies, and the soil anisotropic properties such as cohesion and friction angle were not
540 considered. The deterministic analysis of landslide runout with the assumption that the shear strength
541 parameters are isotropic have been proved in previous studies (Yerro et al. 2019; Cuomo et al. 2021b;
542 Nguyen et al. 2022; Kohler and Puzrin 2022; Ying et al. 2021). Albeit the isotropic analysis is used
543 for simulation of a specific slope, and reveals the runout behavior of landslide, it is a useful method
544 and can be extended to consider inherent spatial variability of soil properties, such as cohesion, friction
545 angle (Liu et al. 2019; Ma et al. 2022a, b). Previous studies indicated that ignoring the spatial
546 variability of soil shear strength might result in overestimation or underestimation in landslide runout
547 analysis. In consequence, the probabilistic post-failure analysis of landslides should be considered in
548 future works. Lastly, we used a constant value of cohesion during runout simulation, which although

549 showed a good agreement with field observations, the actual variation of soil strength may still differ
550 from a constant and high value once it failed and began to move. Hence, a potential strength reduction
551 in the soil mass during landslide movement might lead to larger landslide deformations and more
552 precisely accumulational geometry. Thus, more advanced models, such as MC strain-softening model,
553 Drucker-Prager model, which will be carefully considered in the future works.

554 **Conclusions**

555 This paper explores the pre- and post-failure behaviors of a compound reactivated landslide
556 induced by antecedent rainfall and groundwater seepage by using a single-point two-phase MPM. The
557 numerical results are examined to reveal the pre-failure deformation mechanism and post-failure
558 runout of landslide. Moreover, the pre-failure results are compared with the classical FEM, and the
559 effect of soil conditions and factors during landslide on final landslide deposits are discussed. The
560 main conclusions are as follows:

561 1. The pre-failure behavior of the landslide occurs retrogressively from the front to rear slope.
562 The sliding soils are subjected to the rapid infiltration in the early stage, with the decreasing of negative
563 PWP of surface soils. The front sliding soils reach saturated state firstly, with larger shear strain and
564 displacement than middle and rear parts. During the rainfall, deformations can be more clearly
565 observed at the middle and rear parts of slope, specifically at the scarps.

566 2. Uncoupled seepage FEM and hydro-mechanical coupled FEM provide similar quantitative
567 indications towards the pre-failure behaviors influenced by the pre-existing groundwater and
568 antecedent rainfall. These standard tools validate the performance of MPM on simulating landslide
569 failure mechanisms.

570 3. The duration of landslide movement is about 130 s, with a maximum velocity of 15 m/s, and
571 the maximum displacement of 560 m. The kinematic characteristics (velocity and displacement) of the

572 monitoring points show that the reactivated landslide presents different sliding features with different
573 microtopography and depths. The simulation results of unsaturated two-phase MPM match well with
574 the measured accumulation morphology, which indicates that the simulation of unsaturated two-phase
575 MPM has a good performance on the simulation of landslide runout under the role of hydraulic seepage.
576 The pre-existing groundwater and antecedent rainfall are the main contributing factors to the landslide
577 runout.

578

579 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

580 **Kun He:** Methodology, Software, Data processing, Writing-original draft. **Chuangjie Xi:**
581 Methodology, Validation, Writing-review & editing. **Bo Liu:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing-
582 review & editing. **Xiewen Hu:** Supervision, Funding, Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing.
583 **Gang Luo:** Funding, Writing-review & editing. **Guotao Ma:** Writing-review & editing. **Ruichen**
584 **Zhou:** Writing-review & editing.

585 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

586 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
587 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

588 **Data Availability Statement**

589 All data, models, and code generated or used during the study appear in the submitted article.

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