© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





Evaluating the Efficiency of Subsurface Drainages for Li-Shan Landslide in Taiwan 1 2 Der-Guey Lin<sup>1</sup>, Sheng-Hsiung Hung<sup>2</sup>, Cheng-Yu Ku<sup>3</sup>, Hsun-Chuan Chan<sup>4</sup>\* 3 <sup>1</sup>Professor, Department of Soil and Water Conservation, National Chung-Hsing University 4 <sup>2</sup>Doctoral student, Department of Soil and Water Conservation, National Chung-Hsing University 5 <sup>3</sup>Professor, Department of Harbor and River Engineering, National Taiwan Ocean University 6 <sup>4</sup>Associate Professor, Department of Soil and Water Conservation, National Chung-Hsing University 7 <sup>4</sup>hcchan@nchu.edu.tw (\*corresponding author: No. 250 Kuo-Kuang Road, Taichung 402, Taiwan) 8 Abstract: This study investigates the efficiency of subsurface drainage systems includes drainage wells (vertical shaft with

9 10 drainage boreholes or horizontal drains) and drainage galleries (longitudinal tunnel with sub-vertical drainage boreholes) for the 11 slope stabilization of Li-Shan landslide in central Taiwan. The efficiency of the subsurface drainages is verified through a series 12 of two-dimensional (2-D) rainfall induced seepage and slope stability analyses without and with subsurface drainages 13 remediation during two typhoon events. Numerical results and monitoring data both show that the groundwater level at B5 14 monitoring station with subsurface drainages remediation during Toraji Typhoon (2001) is about 40 m lower than that without remediation during Amber Typhoon (1997), and the factor of safety Fs of the first potential sliding surface (1st-PSS, the most 15 16 critical potential sliding surface) is promoted simultaneously from 1.096 to 1.228 due to the function of subsurface drainage systems. In addition, the Fs values of the three potential sliding surfaces (1<sup>st</sup>-PSS, 2<sup>nd</sup>-PSS, and 3<sup>rd</sup>-PSS) stabilized by subsurface 17 18 drainage systems are constantly maintained greater than unity ( $F_s > 1.0$  or  $F_s \ge 1.217$ ) during rainfalls with return periods 19 increases from 25 to 50 and 100 years. This demonstrates the subsurface drainage systems in Li-Shan landslide are functional 20 and capable of accelerating the drainage of infiltration rainwater induced from high intensity and long duration rainfall and 21 protect the slope of landslide from further deterioration.

22

23 Keywords: landslides, subsurface drainage systems, drainage boreholes, drainage well, drainage gallery, potential sliding 24 surface, factor of safety

#### 25 1. Introduction

26 The Li-Shan landslide, a large scale landslide on the mountainous area of central Taiwan, currently has been stabilized by 27 the subsurface drainage systems consisted of drain wells and drainage galleries. The landside has a long history of intermittent 28 large movements toward down slope during rainfall. In April 1990, a long duration torrential rainfall triggered a massive 29 landslide in Li-Shan area where immediately located at the intersection of two East-West cross-island highways, namely, Routes 30 Tai-8 and Tai-7. The catastrophic event caused large ground movements and severe damages on Route Tai-7 and Li-Shan Hotel 31 in the southeast region of the landslide and the hotel is one of the Guest Houses of past president Chiang Kai-Shek, landmark 32 architecture in Li-Shan area. After the disastrous event, to prevent the expansion of the landslide, the relevant public agencies 33 approved an emergency plan entitled "Investigation and Remediation Planning for Landslides in Li-Shan Area" for three years' 34 duration from 1991 to 1993 to implement a comprehensive field investigation and engineering design for the landslide. 35 Subsequently, on June 25, 1994, Taiwan government starts to execute an emergency plan called "Remediation Plan for Li-Shan 36 Landslide" for seven years' duration from 1995 to 2002 to cope with the complicated and unfavorable hydrological and 37 geological situations of the landslide. The main remediation work for Li-Shan landslide is to lower the groundwater level 38 through different subsurface drainage systems during the rainfall of typhoon seasons.

39 40 41

## 1.1 Location and Development of Li-Shan Landslide Area

For administrative district, the Li-Shan landslide area (or Li-Shan landslide) comes within the jurisdiction of Li-Shan 42 43 village, Taichung City Government, Taiwan and has a population around 2000. Li-Shan landslide is situated in Central 44 Mountains at the northeast of Taichung City with a distance about 100 km and also at the intersection of Route Tai-8 and Route 45 Tai-7 of the East-West cross-island highways where locates the landmark architecture Li-Shan Hotel as shown in Fig. 1 (a). 46 Because of the location, Li-Shan village eventually becomes a key spot to synthesize the East-West transportation, 47 commercial business, sightseeing and tourism of central Taiwan. During 1970's and 1980's, a vast area of primary forest was 48 cultivated into orchard and a great quantity of fruiters, vegetables and high economic crops such as tea trees were planted in 49 Li-Shan as displayed in Fig. 1(b). As a consequence, those agricultural activities enrich local resident, however, damage the 50 environment due to improper soil and water conservation.







52 53

61

63

64

65

67

68 69

70



Fig. 1 (a) Overlook Li-Shan landslide area northward from Fu-Shou-Shan Farm at the upslope (b) Enormous agricultural cultivation with high economic crops

#### 59 1.2 Climate 60

The temperature in Li-Shan varies greatly between the day and the night and the temperature is about 15.2 °C on an average. 62 In Li-Shan the average annual rainfall approximates 2,242 mm for an average annual rainy day of 176 days based on the rainfall records from 1978 to 2008. Annually, most of rainfall concentrates on Spring and Summer (or from March to September) and in May and June the average monthly rainfall can reach 514 mm. In addition, the torrential rainfall occurred 7 or 8 times annually with rainfall intensity of 100 mm/day during June and September. However, from October to next February, the weather turns 66 into a dry season and the rainfall in this duration is merely 20.2% of average annual rainfall. Conclusively, the rainfall of Li-Shan is mainly influenced by the mould rains season (or plum rains season) and its topography.

# 1.3 Topography and Geology

71 As shown in Fig. 2, the Li-Shan landslide situates at the west of Central Mountains with an area of around 230 hectares and 72 it looks similar to a reverse triangular shape from south to north. The terrain of the landslide is descending from south to north 73 with elevation varying from 2,100 to 1,800 m. The landslide is characterized by hilly and valley topography and the Da-Jai River 74 flow from east to west through the northern edge of the landslide. Topographically, Li-Shan landside is situated in the valley of 75 the Da-Jia River and classified as an old ancient landslide. There is an old sliding body located at the center of the landside and 76 a smaller sliding body can be identified by field investigations as well.

77 The Li-Shan fault, a major ridge fault of Taiwan Island generated by the tectonic activity of the westward thrust front due to 78 the collision between the Philippine Sea Plate and the Eurasian Plate, just locates at few kilometers west of the Li-Shan landslide. 79 As geological heterogeneity is generally recognized as a crucial factor in rainfall-induced seepage and slope stability analyses, 80 the evaluation of the efficiency of subsurface drainage systems should take the complexity of the soil strata into account. The 81 geology of the landslide is categorized into Miocene Lu-Shan formation, highly fragmentary tertiary sub-metamorphic rock, and 82 thick colluvium encountered locally and occasionally mixed with mudstone enriched with cleavage. In this region, through the 83 field data of boring log and geophysical exploration, the soil strata can be classified into five types from shallows to depths based 84 on their weathering degree as shown in Fig. 3(a), namely, (1) colluvium, (2) heavily-weathered slate, (3) medium-weathered 85 slate, (4) lightly-weathered slate, and (5) fresh slate. The material features of the five types were also evaluated by the ISRM 86 classification as listed in Table 1 and it can be verified that the maximum weathering depth approximates 63 m at least. The 87 landslide area can be divided into three regions, i.e. the west, northeast, and southeast regions. Except the southeast region, most 88 of the unstable slopes possess shallow sliding planes about 9~26 m below ground surface. However, there is an old landslide 89 within the southeast region. According to the core logs and the records of drainage gallery construction, the old sliding surface is 90 located more than 40~60 m below ground surface.









Fig. 2 Topographic and geological characteristics of Li-Shan landslide located at central Taiwan

94 Conclusively, the potential sliding surfaces are basically along the lower boundary of the regolith. The slide is mainly made 95 up of the colluviums and heavily-weathered slate and forming the main part of the Li-Shan landslide. The outcrops of the 96 Li-Shan landslide can be categorized into Miocene Lu-Shan formation and mainly consist of slate with color varied from black 97 to deep gray as shown in Fig. 3(b). Nevertheless, the sliding bodies overlying the potential sliding surfaces of the landslide 98 primarily is composed of weathered slate, fragment of slate and intercalary clayey strata. Conclusively, the properties of the 99 sliding bodies exhibit a loose texture and poor grain size distribution which alternately leads to a less cementation, low strength, 100 and high permeability geo-material. In addition, the composition of fresh slate can be visualized by microscopic image as displayed in Fig. 3(c). 101 102



Fig. 3 (a) material types of soil strata (b) outcrops of slate formation (c) microscopic image of fresh slate of Li-Shan landslide

103 104 105

Ta	ble 1	Features	of	soil	strata	for	Li-Shan	landslide

Material (sampling depth: m)	Descriptions	ISRM
1. Colluvium (-1 m)	Sandy silt of yellowish-brown color mixed with rock fragments and gravel	VI
2. Heavily-weathered slate (-13 m)	Clayey soil, silty sand or sandy soil of black color with texture similar to fresh rock	v
3. Medium-weathered slate (-23 m)	Fragmentary rock core with thin sheet, black color, grain size of $2\sim30$ mm and the outcrop enriched with fissure.	III, IV
4. Lightly-weathered slate (-18 m)	Blocky rock core with rounded shape, black color, grain size of 5~10 mm and the outcrop similar to fresh rock	II
5. Fresh slate (-63 m)	Cylindrical rock core with black color, length>50 mm, and RQD>75	Ι

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





#### 108 1.4 Landslide in 1990 109

110 In the past years, ground movements frequently occurred at the landslide area during seasonal and typhoon rainfalls. In particular, the features of topography, geology, meteorology, hydrology, and poor drainage of Li-Shan landslide area cause the 111 112 slope lands in this area liable to situate in an unfavorable conditions for stability. Due to a series vast agricultural cultivation during 1970's and 1980's, a consecutive five days torrential rainfall from 11th to 15th, April in 1990 triggered a massive landslide 113 and damage the Route Tai-7 of central cross-island highway which completely interrupted the transportation of east/west 114 115 direction. The landslide extends over a length of 150 m oriented SE to NW with a width of 100 m and a mean slope of 20°. The 116 total volume of the sliding mass is about  $3 \times 10^5$  m<sup>3</sup> (or  $0.3 \times$  million m<sup>3</sup>) with an average thickness of 20 m. In addition, at the waist part of the landslide, groundwater flows out with a discharge rate of around 900 liter/min. As presented in Fig. 4, the 117 118 catastrophic landslide event causes a severe depression on the sightseeing industry of Li-Shan and the Li-Shan Hotel was also 119 closed down due to the detrimental subsidence induced from the landslide.

Because of the high erosion rate of the Lu-Shan Formation, together with the heavy rainfall during April 15~19, 1990, it is 120 121 generally concluded that the landslide is predominantly caused by the infiltrated rainwater and poor drainage condition. 122 Although the study area locates at the southeast region of the landslide, at the upslope of Li-Shan Hotel, as shown in Figs.1 and 123 2, the entire slope land was cultivated into Fu-Shou-Shan Farm for agricultural plantation purpose. As a consequence, in 124 addition to direct surface infiltration, water from the irrigation system of the farm enters the landslide area was also inferred to be 125 a crucial factor trigging the landslide.

126



 $\frac{127}{28}$ 129

130 131

132

Fig. 4 Li-Shan landslide on April, 15~19, 1990 (a) sliding mass moves from south to north direction (b) foundation failure of Route Tai-7

### 1.5 Analysis of Rainfall Records for Landslide in 1990

133 As illustrated in Fig. 5, a maximum daily rainfall of 155.5 mm occurred on 19th April, 1990 with occurrence frequency of 134 1.87 years and it is not heavy for a daily rainfall. Nevertheless, the cumulative rainfall for the periods of  $10^{th} \sim 20^{th}$  April, 1990 135 approximates 586 mm, meanwhile the total cumulative rainfall for the entire April in 1990 can reach 957.5 mm. These records 136 are maxima with occurrence frequency higher than 50 years when compared with the records of rainfall events in the past.

137 In addition to the influences of topography and geology, landslide occurs frequently in Li-Shan area due to large amounts of rainwater in rainy season and torrential rainfall in typhoon season. As a consequence, massive infiltrated rainwater induced from 138 139 the consecutive rainfall and stored up in the sliding body will eventually turned into a crucial factor to trigger a large scale 140 landslide. The infiltrated rainwater in the upslope of the sliding body will seep downwards and accumulate to raise the 141 groundwater level and it alternately increases the pore-water pressure on the potential sliding surface of sliding body. 142 Consequently, the sliding failures of colluviums and weathered slate in this region (southeast region) can be attributed to the 143 infiltration of rainwater and rise of groundwater level.

144 145

#### 1.6 Implementation of Remediation for Li-Shan Landslide 146

147 After the large scale landslide event in 1990, the field observations showed that the scope and scale of the landslide were 148 constantly expanding. According to the site investigations on the distribution of sliding bodies within the landslide area from 149 1990 to 2008, it was found that the scope influenced by sliding bodies and slope failure are exceptionally extensive as shown in 150 Fig. 6. The potential sliding surface of Li-Shan landslide is deep-seated approximately at a depth of 30~70 m and spreads in a 151 large area. The overburden above potential sliding surface mainly consists of colluviums and weathered slate with high 152 permeability.













 156
 275000
 276000
 276000

 157
 Fig. 6 Distribution of sliding bodies at the southeast region of Li-Shan landslide and the arrow along the *Y-2 profile* line denotes the movement direction of the landslide (SWCB, 2008)

158 159

160 On June 25, 1994, a seven years' remediation plan from 1995 to 2002 with total expenditure about 0.915 billion NT\$ was 161 officially approved by Taiwan government which threw all positive factors such as manpower, financial and material resources 162 into the remediation works to mitigate the spread potential of the landslide. However, it was the first time in Taiwan to perform 163 such enormous plan for landslide remediation and it might be also rare in the case history of slope remediation elsewhere. The 164 remediation plan encompassed drainage galleries, drainage wells (vertical shaft with radial drainage boreholes drilled at

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





165 multi-elevation inside the shaft), drainage boreholes at slope toe (subsurface drainage with shallow depth), submerged dam (for 166 erosion control) and check dam (for sediment control), as shown in Fig. 7, were implemented to improve the slope stability of 167 Li-Shan landslide.

168 According to the field investigation and the analyses of remediation plan, the factor of safety for several main sliding 169 bodies in Li-Shan landslide was in a range of  $0.98 \sim 1.10$  (= $F_s$ ) which represents the slopes situated on the verge of critical state or 170 creep condition and needs remediation works to promote the stability. Securing the safety of local residences and recovering the 171 traffic transportation of Route Tai-7 were the major objectives of the remediation plan. The primary works of remediation plan was to expedite the drainage of infiltrated rainwater and lower the groundwater level. It was estimated that the factor safety of 172 173 sliding bodies could be promoted up to  $F_s$ =1.2 for a groundwater level approximately drawn down for 8.5 m (SWCB, 2003). In 174 the collapsed and sliding zone, some restrain engineering works and slope protections were also installed to ensure the slope 175 stability and resume the traffic transportation of Route Tai-7. Conclusively, the main remediation works of emergency for 176 Li-Shan landslide were the subsurface drainage systems which consists of 15 drainage wells installed from 1995 to 2000, and 2 177 drainage galleries (G1- and G2-gallery) constructed from 1997 to 2002.

178



179 181

182 183

184

Fig. 7 Configurations of subsurface drainages and remediation works in Li-Shan landslide (2008, SWCB)

#### Subsurface Drainage Systems in Li-Shan Landslides 2.

185 Li-Shan landslides were frequently triggered by a rise of groundwater level accompanied with increasing pore-water 186 pressure on potential sliding surface. Accelerating and improving subsurface drainage can stabilize a large volume of sliding 187 body at comparatively low engineering cost and it can be a very attractive option for many landslides remediation. As a result, 188 drainage is by far the most commonly used methods for stabilizing large scale unstable slopes, either alone or in conjunction 189 with other method in Taiwan. Attempts have been made to provide a design method to optimize the number and spacing of 190 horizontal drains (or drainage boreholes) (Kenney et al., 1977; Prellwitz, 1978; Long, 1986). All methods are based on 191 groundwater flow principles and the major difficulty with theoretical design methods is that the permeability is assumed to be 192 constant throughout the ground. Xanthakos et al. (1994) indicated that natural slopes are rarely homogeneous enough to allow 193 reliable subsurface drainage design according to simple principles of dewatering. In addition, Hausmann (1992) suggested that 194 for a successful dewatering system, the designer must have a good understanding of geological structures and choose a drainage 195 system layout that increases the probability of intersecting the major water-bearing stratum. The effectiveness of horizontal 196 drainage system was investigated by Rahardjo et al. (2002, 2003) through a series of numerical analyses on the location and 197 length of horizontal drains (or drainage boreholes). It was found that the horizontal drain is effective in lowering the 198 groundwater table and most effective when located at the bottom zone of a slope.

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





203

204

210

199 In such circumstances, for the design of subsurface drainage systems in Li-Shan landslide, the installation locations of 200 drainage wells and drainage galleries accompanied with well-configured drainage boreholes (or horizontal drains) become 201 extremely crucial to the efficiency of subsurface drainage systems. 202

#### 2.1 Drainage Well (Vertical Shaft with Drainage Boreholes)

205 The drainage well in Li-Shan landslides, which consists of vertical shaft, drainage boreholes (or horizontal drains), stilling 206 pond, and drainage pipe, is a very effective working method to remove the confined groundwater in soil strata and the method 207 was mainly adopted to get rid of the groundwater situating at large depth as illustrated in Fig. 8(a). Large amounts of water can 208 be drained from the slope through drainage wells accompanied with a consequent drop of groundwater levels. Up to the present, 209 there totally 15 drainage wells (1995~2000) were installed in Li-Shan landslides as shown in Fig. 8(b).



Fig. 8 (a) configuration of vertical shaft with three-level of drainage boreholes (or horizontal drains) in landslide (b) vertical shaft assembled by corrugated steel sheets and collecting groundwater through drainage boreholes (SWCB, 2003)

The vertical shaft was assembled by a continuous galvanized corrugated steel sheet liner with a diameter of 3.5 m and penetration depth of 15~40 m to reach deep-seated potential sliding surfaces. By installing a vertical shaft near the upper portion of sliding body, an array of 5~10 uncased drainage boreholes (spacing about 1~2.5 m) with a diameter of 70~100 mm and length of 40 $\sim$ 70 m, radiating from the interior of vertical shaft, were drilled at 3 different elevations and inclined  $2^{\circ}$  $\sim$ 10° (typically 5° to horizontal) upward into the upslope of sliding body. Comparatively, Matti, et. al, (2012) indicated a mean spacing between the drainage boreholes of 10 m is sufficient to control the temporal head fluctuations between the wells within a range of a few meters. Subsequently, a 50 mm diameter perforated PVC pipe wrapped in filter fabric was fitted into the drainage borehole (becomes horizontal drain) to intercept the downwards seeping groundwater flow by gravity. A concrete stilling pond (or storage pond) with depth of 1.0~1.5 m and slab thickness of 50 cm was constructed at the bottom of the shaft using water-tight concrete to accumulate the groundwater from drainage boreholes and eventually discharge to the existing drainage system at a lower elevation than the shaft base by gravity through a PVC or HDPE pipe with a diameter of 100 mm and an inclination of 3°  $\sim$  5° to horizontal.

In this study, the Y2-profile of Li-Shan landslide was adopted for seepage and stability analyses as shown in Figs. 6 and 7, and three drainage wells W6, W7 and W8 with a penetration depth of 20, 25, and 15 m respectively were installed adjacent to the Y2-profile.

#### 211 2.2 Drainage Galleries with Sub-vertical Drainage Boreholes 212

213 The groundwater level variation after installing 7 drainage wells (1995~1997) in Li-Shan landslide indicated that to 214 entirely drain off the infiltrated rainwater at a great depth remains difficult and impractical. In such situations, a decision was 215 made to construct two drainage galleries (1997~2003) to dewater the sliding bodies of large volume instead of requiring a 216 substantial number of drainage boreholes when groundwater level is deep-seated and impossible to reach by drainage wells. In 217 Li-Shan landslide drainage gallery serves to lower the general groundwater within the landslide mass and to tap into a specific 218 area of high permeability or aquifer at the upper reach of the landslide so that groundwater levels are further reduced.

As shown in Fig. 7, at present two drainage galleries totaled about 900 m in length (G1-gallery=350 m, 1999~2001; 219 220 G2-gallery=550 m, 1997~2003) passed through the Y-2 profile at the southeast region of Li-Shan landslide. The gallery portals 221 were located at an elevation of 1,910 m and 1,865 m a.s.l. for G1- and G2-gallery respectively and the galleries were then

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





222 excavated from northwest to southeast by an upward grade of  $1\sim 2\%$  to facilitate drainage, as illustrated in Fig. 9. Along the 223 gallery several water-collection chambers with a fan-shaped array of sub-vertical drainage boreholes were drilled to lower the 224 groundwater level under the Li-Shan Hotel. Groundwater is intercepted and evacuated from the potential sliding surface of 225 landslide by gravity through a network of drainage boreholes connected to the water-collection chamber of drainage gallery 226 situated below the potential sliding surface of the landslide. Due to the fact that the depth of potential sliding surfaces of Li-Shan 227 landslide ranges from 30 to 70 m, the drainage galleries were decisively constructed within the intact stable fresh bedrock about 228 80 m deep underlain the unstable colluviums and weathered bedrock. Eventually the drainage galleries would not influenced by 229 the landslide movements.

230 As shown in Figs. 10(a) and (b), the gallery has a smaller dimension of 2.07 m×2.1 m (=height×width) with a horseshoe 231 shape cross section and semi-circle crown. Galvanized corrugated steel liner was used for the lateral support of gallery and 232 water-tight concrete drainage ditch was constructed at the base of gallery to drain off the groundwater from the water-collection 233 chambers.





Fig. 9 Geological cross section and location of the drainage gallery (G1-gallery)



Fig. 10 (a) (b) gallery with a smaller cross sectional layout (width×height=2.07 m×2.1 m) for drainage (c) water-collection chamber with enlarged cross section (width×height=3 m×3 m) and sub-vertical drainage boreholes (water collection pipes) (d) groundwater collected in chamber (e) outlet of gallery

As displayed in Figs. 9 and 10(c), 5 water-collection chambers were set up along the G1-gallery (10 water-collection chambers along the G2-gallery) and each chamber is 6 m long and has an enlarged cross section of 3.0 m×3.0 m (=height×width). Meanwhile, for each chamber there was 18 (=3×6) sub-vertical drainage boreholes (or water collection pipes)

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





with a length of 40~60 m were drilled upwards at the crown of gallery to collect and drain off the groundwater from upper soil strata. As shown in Figs. 9 and 10(a), the average spacing of sub-vertical drainage borehole in a chamber approximates 1.0  $m \times 1.0$  m (=transverse spacing×longitudinal spacing). As a result, there 90 drainage boreholes (=5×18) with a total length of 4,873 m were drilled for G1-gallery (180 drainage boreholes (=10×18) and 10,700 m long for G2-gallery). In addition, according to the monitoring data, the drainage galleries can intercept and drain the groundwater from the sliding bodies by a flow rate Q ranged from 36 to 90 m<sup>3</sup>/hr (for G1-gallery  $Q_{G1}$  = 60~90 m<sup>3</sup>/hr, or G2-gallery  $Q_{G2}$  = 36~60 m<sup>3</sup>/hr).

Although the efficiency of the drainage gallery to stabilize unstable slopes has been studied in a number of case histories by some researchers (Eberhardt et al., 2007; Matti, et. al. 2012), the functional performance and efficiency of subsurface drainage systems constructed in Li-Shan landside with relatively high construction costs (0.915 billion NT\$) has not yet been evaluated during torrential rainfall. In particular, the effects of the two drainage galleries (G1- and G2-gallery) on the slope stability of Li-Shan landslide during rainfall (or specific crisis) have not been inspected up-to-date. Using monitoring data and numerical techniques this study takes the effect of rainwater infiltration into account during typhoons to verify the function of subsurface drainages to stabilize the landslide quantitatively.

### 3. Methodology

The numerical model of Y2-profile was established according to the topography, hydrology and subsurface drainage remediation in Li-Shan landslide. Rainfall-induced seepage analyses and slope stability analyses before and after subsurface drainages remediation were carried out using finite element method (FEM) and limit equilibrium method (LEM). The FEM seepage analyses involves calculating the pore-water pressure field throughout the problem domain, which is then introduced along the potential sliding surface for each time step into the LEM stability analyses. These two-dimensional (2-D) numerical models evaluate the efficiency of the drainage wells and drainage galleries installed within and below the sliding bodies with the aim of lowering the groundwater levels and promoting the factor of safety of the landslide. It should be noted that this study concentrates on the transient seepage modeling rather than the deformation analysis because one of the purposes is to demonstrate how to integrate transient seepage modeling into the stability analysis of intricate landslide. Based on the variations of groundwater levels, volumetric water content and factor of safety of the potential sliding bodies, one can recognize the effects of rainfall-induced seepage and subsurface drainages on the slope stability of Li-Shan landslide. The flow chart of working procedure for the study was illustrated in Fig. 11.

#### 3.1 Initial and Boundary Conditions

The Y2-profile situates at the southeast region of Li-Shan landslide and passes through the B4 and B5 sliding bodies, as shown in Figs. 6 and 7, was selected as a representative profile for numerical analyses. In the analyses, the soil strata were simplified in sequence from ground surface to underground as: colluviums, heavily to medium weathered slate, and slightly weathered to intact bedrock. The numerical model of geological profile is illustrated as Fig. 12 and a key element in the model is to incorporate the subsurface drainage systems into the simulations. The elevations of left and right boundary of the model are 2,156 and 1,768 m, respectively and the distance of bottom boundary extended from left to right is 830 m.

Rainfall-induced seepage analyses consist of steady and transient analyses. For steady analysis, the initial groundwater level and distributions of pore-water pressure prior to a main rainfall event were generated by assigning a constant total head at the left and right boundaries of the model and which alternatively used as initial boundary conditions for the sequential transient analysis to calculate the time dependent groundwater level and slope stability. Based on the parametric analyses, Ng, CWW and Shi, Q (1998) evidently indicated that the initial groundwater condition prior to the rainfall has a significant effect on the slope stability. In this study, incorporating continuous measurements of groundwater levels from observation wells with the left and right constant total head boundaries, one can determine the average initial groundwater level for an ordinary time. For transient analysis, the groundwater level and pore-water pressure calculated for the last time step  $(t_{i,1})$  were sequentially used as the initial condition of the seepage and stability analyses for the current time step  $(t_i)$ .

Due to the complexity of the general geology of the landslide, simplifications are made in the transient seepage and stability numerical models. As shown in Fig. 12(a), in numerical model, the AB ground surface boundary was specified as a rainfall infiltration boundary, while the CD bottom boundary was defined as an impermeable close boundary without seepage (discharge rate Q=0). In addition, according to the monitoring data of groundwater levels prior to a rainfall event, the AD left boundary and BC right boundary were assigned as constant head boundaries with total heads H= 2,140 and 1,750 m respectively. The finite element mesh of numerical model encompassed drainage wells W-6, W-7, W-8, and H-10; groundwater level observation wells B4, B5 and drainage galleries G1, G2 located along Y2-profile are illustrated in Fig. 12 (b). In addition, it can be found that the subsurface drainage systems were mainly installed at the region of the middle crest or the middle platform of the slope to cope with a large amount of rainwater infiltration during torrential rainfall. This coincides with the numerical results presented by Gasmo J. M. et al. (2000) which reveals that most of infiltration occurs at the crest (or a flat platform) of a slope.

Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences





235 236 237

237 238 239 Fig. 11 Evaluation processes for the validity of subsurface drainage systyems in Li-Shan landslide

## 3.2 Numerical Simulation of Subsurface Drainages

240 The subsurface drainage systems in Li-Shan landslide is comprised of drainage wells and drainage galleries and their 241 drainage effects can be simulated by assigning a series of line-type and point-type drainage boundary conditions along the 242 drainage boreholes in the numerical model.

## 243 (1) Drainage wells (Vertical shaft with drainage boreholes)

244 It was assumed that the fan-shaped array of drainage boreholes is functional well without clogging during drainage. The 245 function of drainage boreholes installed at 3~4 different elevations in the vertical shaft (see Fig. 8) can be effectively simulated 246 by specifying a line-type free seepage surface boundary condition (potential free seepage face review Q=0) along the boreholes 247 as illustrated in Fig. 12. Through this free seepage face, the infiltrated rainwater above the surface was drained out of the 248 water-bearing layers. Nevertheless, it should be noted that it will be improper to assign a zero pressure head condition or 249 atmospheric condition (pressure head  $h_n=0$ ) along the drainage borehole. If doing so, the portion of drainage borehole situates 250 above the groundwater level at unsaturated zone will possess a negative pressure head (for unsaturated zone,  $h_p < 0$ ) and 251 eventually extracts groundwater from saturated zone (for saturated zone,  $h_0>0$ ) into unsaturated zone. However, this situation is 252 not the case in reality.

## 253 (2) Drainage Galleries with Sub-vertical Drainage Boreholes

An average 5 sub-vertical drainage boreholes with radial array along the crown arch of gallery per unit length of water-collection chamber (out of plane) are fanning out into the water-bearing stratum to collect groundwater and which can be simulated by assigning a point-type flow boundary on the 5 installation points of drainage boreholes, as the triangle points illustrated in Fig. 12(a). In 2-D numerical model, the required input outflow rate of 5 point-type flow boundaries was estimated according to the measurements of average outflow rate  $Q_G (Q_{GI} = 60~90 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr}, Q_{G2} = 36~60 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr})$  of the two drainage galleries *G1* and *G2*. The drainage rate  $q_G (\text{m}^3/\text{hr-m})$  for each point-type drainage borehole unit length of water-collection chamber (out of plane) can be estimated as:

261 
$$q_G(\mathbf{m}^3/\mathrm{hr} - \mathbf{m}) = \left(\frac{Q_G}{l_G \times N_G}\right) \div N_C = \left(\frac{Q_G}{L_G}\right) \div N_C$$

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





In which,  $N_G$ =number of water-collection chamber along G1- and G2-gallery ( $N_{G1}$ =5,  $N_{G2}$ =10);  $I_G$ =length of water-collection 262 263 chamber along G1- and G2-gallery  $(l_{GI} = l_{GZ} = 6 \text{ m}); L_G = \text{total length of water-collection chamber along G1- and G2-gallery=} l_G \times 10^{-1} \text{ m}$ 264  $N_G$  ( $L_{GI}$ =6x5=30 m,  $L_{GZ}$ =6x10=60 m). Moreover,  $N_C$ =number of radial drainage boreholes per unit length of water-collection chamber= $N_{CI}=N_{CI}=N_{CI}=5$ . Eventually, using the above equation, one can insert 5 nodes (= $N_c$ ) with an assigned drainage boundary 265 266 condition of drainage rate  $q_{GI} = 0.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr-m}$  and  $q_{GZ} = 0.16 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr-m}$  to each node for G1- and G2-gallery respectively. 267 Material Model Parameters. (3)

268 Prior to the typhoon rainfall event, the slide body above groundwater table comprised of colluviums and heavily to medium 269 weathered slate is unsaturated, the effects of matric suction (negative pore-water pressure) on the seepage and stability analyses 270 need to be considered. The hydraulic conductivity,  $K(u_w)$ , of slide body is not a constant whereas changes with the variation of 271 pore-water pressure,  $u_w$ . The soil water characteristic curve (or SWCC),  $\Theta(u_w) \sim u_w$ , defines the volumetric water content,  $\Theta(u_w)$ , corresponding to a specific matric suction,  $u_w$ , and has significant effects on the hydraulic behaviors and shear strength of 272 273 unsaturated soil mass. The methods used to determine the SWCC have been studied by many researchers (Green and Corey, 274 1971; van Genuchten, 1980; Kovács, 1981; Arya and Paris, 1981; Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Aubertin et al., 2001) and most of 275 the methods are relevant to the grain size distribution curve and physical properties such as porosity and Atterberg's limits of soil 276 sample. As a result, the SWCC is commonly applied to evaluate the hydraulic conductivity curve,  $K(u_w) \sim u_w$ , required for 277 seepage analysis. In this study, all the SWCC of soil strata are evaluated on the basis of grain size distribution curve. An 278 appropriate estimation of SWCC is very important for colluviums because it significantly affects the rainfall infiltration at the 279 onset of rainfall. 280





boundary conditions for subsurface drainages (b) finite element mesh of geological cross section with draina Fig. 12 vells of W-6, W-7, W-8, and H-10; observation wells of B4 and B5 and drainage galleries G1, G2 along Y2-profile

2.83 In this study, the  $K(u_w) \sim u_w$  curve of soil stratum were determined according to the saturated hydraulic conductivity,  $K_{sat}$ , 284 obtained from field pumping test and the corresponding soil water characteristic curve (or SWCC),  $\Theta(u_w) \sim u_w$ , proposed by

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





285 Fredlund and Xing (1994). Tsaparas, et al. (2002) also pointed out that the K<sub>sat</sub> value has significant influence on the seepage 286 pattern within an unsaturated soil slope. The required input material model parameters for rainfall-induced seepage analyses and 287 the sequential slope stability analyses are summarized in Tables 1 and 2. Fredlund et al. (1996) developed a simple equation 288 based on the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion to predict the shear strength of unsaturated soils. The  $\phi^b$  angle in Table 2 is used to 289 consider the contribution of matric suction to the shear strength of unsaturated soil and approximates  $10^{\circ} \sim 15^{\circ} (= \phi^{b} = \phi'/2)$  for 290 practical purposes

291 292

Table 1 Input material model (unsaturated model) parameters for seepage analysis				
Soil Type	Saturated volumetric water content $\Theta_{sat}(\%)$	Saturated hydraulic conductivity $K_{sat}$ (×10 <sup>-2</sup> m/hr)		
Colluviums	0.281	5.868		
Heavily to medium weathered slate	0.206	2.858		
Lightly weathered slate to intact bedrock	0.230	4.9×10 <sup>-4</sup>		
$\Theta = S \times n$ ; $\Theta_{sat} = 1 \times n = n$ (S = degree of saturation, n = porosity)				

2.94 205

Table 2 Input material model (Mohr-Coulomb model) parameters for slope stability analysis

Soil Type	Unit volumetric weight γ (kN/m <sup>3</sup> )	Cohesion c' (kPa)	Friction angle ¢' (°)	Equivalent friction angle of matrix suction $\phi^b(^\circ)$
Colluviums	17.07	10.79	27	10
Heavily to medium weathered slate	22.56	19.62	28	10
Lightly weathered slate to intact bedrock	27.06	294.3	33	0

(1)  $\gamma$ , c' and  $\phi$  are determined by field and laboratory tests.

The modified Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion  $\tau = [c' + (\sigma_n - u_a) \times \tan \phi' + (u_a - u_w) \times \tan \phi^b]$  is adopted for slope (2)

stability analysis. In which,  $u_a$  and  $u_w$  represent the pore-air and pore-water pressures of soil mass.

In the above equation, the  $\phi^b$  angle is used to consider the contribution of matric suction to the shear (3)strength of unsaturated soil

#### 297 3.3 Implementation of Numerical Analyses

296 298

299 Rainfall-induced seepage and slope stability analyses before and after subsurface drainages remediation was performed 300 along Y2-profile situates at the southeast region of Li-Shan landslide. Using SEEP/W (Geo-Studio, 2012) finite element method 301 (FEM) to calculate the groundwater levels variation and pore-water pressure distribution throughout the problem domain, which 302 is then introduced at the potential sliding surface at each time step into SLOPE/W (Geo-Studio, 2012) limit equilibrium method 303 (LEM) for the sequential slope stability analyses. Rainfall hyetographs of Typhoons Amber (1997) and Toraji (2001), as shown 304 in Fig.s 13 and 14, were used correspondingly for the analyses without and with remediation. The groundwater flow model is 305 then calibrated with groundwater levels variation measured from B5 monitoring station. It should be noted that the subsurface 306 drainage systems had not been completed during Amber Typhoon (1997/8/14~1997/8/28) while the meteorological condition 307 with large amounts of precipitation over a relatively short period during Toraji Typhoon (2001/7/29~2001/7/31) was extremely 308 adverse to the slope stability. In addition, Rahardjo (2001) indicated that the precedent rainfall has significant effects on slope 309 stability. An precedent rainfall with higher intensity and longer duration enables to preserve water content in soil mass and 310 expedite the infiltration of rainwater from the sequential torrential rainfall which eventually causes slope failure (Sitar, 1992; 311 Tsaparas et al., 2002). As a consequence, the precedent rainfalls of above two typhoon events were also considered in the 312 rainfall-induced transient seepage analyses of the landslide.

- 313 Rainfall-induced Seepage Analyses without Remediation. Transient Seepage Analysis: (1) First Stage: the groundwater (1) 314 level and pore-water pressure were calculated using 14 days precedent rainfall, as shown in Fig. 13(a), prior to Amber 315 Typhoon (1997). (2) Second Stage: feedback of groundwater level and pore-water pressure from (1) First Stage as initial 316 conditions, then the analysis was performed using the sequential rainfall of Amber Typhoon as shown in Fig. 13(b).
- 317 Rainfall-induced Seepage Analyses with Remediation. Transient Seepage Analysis: (1) First Stage: the groundwater (2)318 level and pore-water pressure were calculated using 3 days precedent rainfall of Toraji Typhoon (2001). (2) Second Stage: 319 feedback of groundwater level and pore-water pressure from (1) First Stage as initial conditions, then the analysis was 320 performed using the sequential rainfall of Toraji Typhoon (2001) as shown in Fig. 14.
- 321 (3) Slope Stability Analyses without and with Remediation. Slope stability analysis (LEM analysis) was carried out using 322 the time-dependent pore-water pressure distribution  $u_w(t) \sim t$  calculated from rainfall-induced seepage analysis (FEM 323 analysis). In LEM analysis, the Morgenstern-Price sliced method (Morgenstern and Price, 1965) which considered the 324 strict requirement of force equilibrium in derivations was adopted to calculate the time-dependent factor of safety  $F_S = F_S(t)$ 325 for 3 known Potential Sliding Surfaces ( $I^{st}$ -PSS,  $2^{nd}$ -PSS and  $3^{rd}$ -PSS) for precedent rainfall duration t=1~14 day with  $\Delta t$ =1 326 day; and  $t = 1 \sim 41$  hour (Amber Typhoon, 1997) and  $t = 1 \sim 29$  hour (Toraji Typhoon, 2001) with  $\Delta t = 1$  hour, where  $\Delta t = time$ 327 increment as shown in Figs. 13 and 14.

(a)





329 330

331

333 334

335

344 345

346



(b)

Fig. 13 (a) 14 days precedent rainfall hyetograph prior to Amber Typhoon (1997/8/14~1997/8/28) (b) rainfall hyetograph of Amber Typhoon (1997/8/28~1997/8/29)



## 332 4. Results and Discussions

## 4.1 Verification of Rainfall-Induced Seepage

336 As shown in Fig. 15, the groundwater level variation of simulation without (Fig. 15(a)) and with (Fig. 15(b)) subsurface 337 drainages remediation is tiny and agree with those of observation from B5 monitoring station. The slight variation of 338 groundwater level at B5 monitoring station could be resulted from the geological feature of thin colluviums and thick fractured 339 slate underneath in this area because this makes difficult for the soil strata to accumulate the infiltrated rainwater from long 340 duration rainfall and to raise the groundwater level. Conclusively, the proposed numerical procedures can properly simulate the 341 groundwater level variation of B5 monitoring station with and without subsurface drainages in Li-Shan landslide and the 342 validities of numerical procedures and input model parameters were then verified. The numerical results of seepage analyses 343 enable to provide more realistic and reliable pore-water pressure for the subsequent stability analyses.

## 4.2 Function of Subsurface Drainages

347 The objective of the Li-San landslide remediation using subsurface drainage systems aimed at reducing the peak 348 piezometric heads in the slide body by 10~30 m (SWCB, 2003) and facilitate a quick drawdown of rising groundwater level 349 during torrential rainfall. It can be found that the groundwater level (variation at a depth of 50~52 m in Fig. 15(b)) at B5 350 monitoring station with subsurface drainages remediation during Toraji Typhoon (2001, peak rainfall intensity=27 mm/hr; 351 rainfall duration t = 29 hrs) is about 40 m lower than that (variation at a depth of  $10 \sim 10.5$  m in Fig. 15(a)) without remediation 352 during Amber Typhoon (1997, peak rainfall intensity=24 mm/hr; rainfall duration t=41 hrs). The large lowering of groundwater 353 levels were mainly caused by the drainage wells (see H-10, W-6, W-7, and W-8 in Fig. 12(b)) at the central area of the slope 354 which can tap into the colluviums and weathered slate and effectively drain off the infiltrated rainwater in the slope. Meanwhile, 355 to match the calculated groundwater level variations with the observed one, the hydraulic conductivity curve,  $K(u_w) \sim u_w$ , of 356 various soil strata are made some adjustments and finally determined. 357





© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





360 Figure 16 illustrates the effect of the nearby drainage gallery (G1-gallery completed in 2001/01) on the long-term 361 (1997/01~2011/11) groundwater levels variation of B5 monitoring station. The figure gives the elevations of B5 borehole and groundwater levels before/after construction of G1-gallery are 1,968, 1,945, and 1,917 m a.s.l. respectively. It was also indicated 362 363 that the groundwater levels were lowered down for about 28 m (=1,945 m-1,917 m) during five Typhoon events (Typhoons 364 Mindulle, Haitang, Longwang, Fungwong, and Morakot) after 2001/01. 365





#### 366 4.3 Stability of Potential Sliding Surfaces with and without Remediation 367

368 The validity of subsurface drainages in Li-Shan landslide can be evaluated directly from the distribution of pore-water 369 pressure and the corresponding factor of safety, Fs, with and without remediation along Potential Sliding Surface (PSS) or 370 indirectly from the distribution of volumetric water content within soil strata during rainfall. In cooperating the inclinometer measurements with stability analyses, three potential sliding surfaces, namely, 1st-PSS, 2nd-PSS and 3rd-PSS as shown in Figs. 371 17 (a)~(c), can be determined along Y2-profile at southeast region of Li-Shan landslide. Their stabilities were diagnosed by 372 inspecting the pore-water pressure of monitoring points (X1~X3 for 1st-PSS; Y1~Y3 for 2nd-PSS; Z1~Z3 for 3rd-PSS) along 373 374 potential sliding surfaces. Generally, the Fs value of natural slope in the mountainous area of Taiwan is only slightly greater than 375 unity. Therefore, the slope tends to situate in a marginally stable state ( $Fs\approx 1.0$ ) and is highly sensitive to heavy rainfall or 376 intensive earthquake. In Taiwan, three Fs values are adopted as technical criteria for slope engineering design: (1) for ordinary 377 time  $Fs \ge 1.50$ , (2) for earthquake  $Fs \ge 1.2$ , (3) for torrential rainfall  $Fs \ge 1.10$ . Popescu (2001) proposed a three-stage continuous 378 spectrum of Fs to define the stability state of slopes: Fs>1.3 (stable), 1.0 < Fs<1.3 (marginally stable), and Fs<1.0 (actively 379 unstable). The factors of safety, Fs, of the three potential sliding surfaces with and without subsurface drainages were 380 summarized in Table 3. As listed in the table, a higher Fs value with lower decreasing percentage during rainfall is always 381 obtained for the case with subsurface drainages remediation (Toraji Typhoon, 2001) rather than the case without remediation 382 (Amber Typhoon, 1997).

383 384

#### Table 3 Factors of safety with and without subsurface drainages along potential sliding surfaces

	Factor of Safety $F_S$					
Potential Sliding Surface	(1)without a	remediation	(2) with remediation			
(135)	Variation during rainfall	Decreasing percentage (%)	Variation during rainfall	Decreasing percentage (%)		
1 <sup>st</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (1 <sup>st</sup> -PSS)	1.148→1.096	4.53	1.240→1.228	0.96		
2 <sup><i>nd</i></sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (2 <sup><i>nd</i></sup> -PSS)	1.317→1.263	4.10	1.521→1.512	0.59		
3 <sup>rd</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (3 <sup>rd</sup> -PSS)	1.250→1.210	3.20	1.459→1.452	0.48		

<sup>(1)</sup>Amber Typhoon in 1997 without remediation (Fig. 13) (rainfall duration t=41 hr), the subsurface

drainages system has not been completed yet in this duration

<sup>(2)</sup> Toraji Typhoon in 2001 with remediation (Fig. 14) (rainfall duration *t*=29 hr)

<sup>(3)</sup>  $F_S \ge 1.1$  for torrential rainfall;  $F_S \ge 1.5$  for ordinary time (stability criteria used in Taiwan)









388 389



395 396

Fig. 17 three Potential Sliding Surfaces (PSS) along Y2-profile in Li-Shan landslide and their corresponding monitoring points (a) X1~X3 for 1<sup>st</sup>-PSS (b) Y1~Y3 for 2<sup>nd</sup>-PSS (c) Z1~Z3 for 3<sup>rd</sup>-PSS

## (1) Pore-water pressure and Factor of Safety of 1<sup>st</sup>-PSS during Two Typhoon Events

According to the numerical results, the Fs value is greatly dependent on the relative locations between the potential sliding surface and the groundwater level. In addition, the groundwater level is dominated by the interaction between rainfall infiltration and subsurface drainage systems. Consequently, a higher factor of safety with lower decreasing rate during torrential rainfall for a potential sliding surface is mainly attributed to the lower down of groundwater level and decrease of pore-water pressure caused by subsurface drainage systems. Due to the similarity of numerical results for the three potential sliding surfaces, only the factor of safety of  $1^{st}$ -PSS ( $1^{st}$ -Potential Sliding Surface, see Fig. 17(a))  $F_s$  with minimum value of 1.096 (see Table 3) and the

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





corresponding pore-water pressure of monitoring points *X1*, *X2* and *X3* were presented and discussed in detail. Two typhoon
 events, Amber Typhoon (1997/8/28~1997/8/29; with 14-days precedent rainfall: 1997/8/14~1997/8/28) and Toraji Typhoon
 (2001/7/29~2001/7/31) occurred at different durations were used for the numerical analyses of *Y2-profile* in Li-Shan landslide
 for two situations, namely, without and with subsurface drainages remediation.

407 Comparing Fig. 12(b) with Fig. 17(a), it can be seen that the monitoring point X2 of  $I^{st}$ -PSS is immediately underneath the 408 drainage boreholes of vertical shafts W-6, W-7 and W-8 and in the vicinity of G2-gallery. In addition, the monitoring point X1 409 also situates at the down slope of drainage boreholes of vertical shaft H-10. These indicate the subsurface drainage systems have 410 crucial influence on the seepage behavoirs of monitoring points X1 and X2 during rainfall. Further, because of situating at a 411 lower elevation of slope toe, it is rational to evaluate the efficiency of subsurface drainages by inspecting the response of 412 pore-water pressure of monitoring point X3 which tends to accumulate the groundwater flows from upslope. The pore-water pressure distribution of monitoring points X1~X3 along 1st-PSS is significantly dependent on the variation of groundwater level 413 414 calculated by the rainfall induced seepage analyses.

For the case without subsurface drainages remediation, as displayed in Fig. 18(a), before torrential rainfall, the initial pore-water pressure ( $u_w$  for rainfall duration t=0) of point X1 ( $u_w=-261.4$  kPa) and X3 ( $u_w=-17.4$  kPa) are negative (suction force) due to situating above the groundwater level at unsaturated zone while point X2 ( $u_w=-124.6$  kPa) is positive (squeeze force) below the groundwater level. Comparing with the case with remediation, as shown in Fig. 18(b), the initial pore-water pressure of points X1~X3 are constantly lower than that without remediation (Fig. 18(a)) no matter the pressure is negative for points X1 ( $u_w=-467.5$  kPa) and X3 ( $u_w=-22.3$  kPa) or positive for point X2 ( $u_w=92.8$  kPa). This is attributed to the function of subsurface drainages in the ordinary time of non-typhoon seasons.



Fig. 18 Variation of pore-water pressure of I<sup>st</sup>-PSS (a) Amber Typhoon (1997) without remediation (b) Toraji Typhoon (2001) with remediation

During Amber Typhoon in 1997 (Fig. 18(a)), the subsurface drainages remediation has not functioned yet, the negative pore-water pressure (or suction pressure) of point X1 greatly decreases during rainfall ( $u_w$ =-261.4 kPa→-94.1 kPa) and the shear strength of soil mass might alternately reduce because of soil matric suction loss. On the other hand, during Toraji Typhoon in 2001 (Fig. 18(b)), due to the function of subsurface drainages, although the suction loss ( $u_w$ =-467.5 kPa→-190.3 kPa) of point X1 remains, the final suction pressure is still higher than that during Amber Typhoon ( $u_w$ =-190.3 kPa >  $u_w$ =-94.1 kPa). This demonstrates the subsurface drainages enable to mitigate the softening and deterioration of wetting soil mass during torrential rainfall and to prevent a rapid reduction of slope stability.

429 As shown in Fig. 18 (b), the positive pore-water pressure (or squeezing pressure) of point X2 at the middle point of  $1^{st}$ -PSS 430 (see Fig. 17(a)) with subsurface drainages remediation is lower than that without remediation (Figs. 18(a)) and situates in a 431 stable state throughout the entire rainfall duration under the function of subsurface drainages during Toraji Typhoon. 432 Additionally, comparing Fig. 18(a) and (b) for monitoring point X2, the squeezing pressure of point X2 increases gradually with 433 the rainfall duration ( $u_w$ =124.6 kPa $\rightarrow$ 151.4 kPa) during Amber Typhoon in 1997 (Fig. 18(a)). On the contrary, the squeezing 434 pressure of point X2 only appears slightly influenced by the infiltrated rainwater during Toraji Typhoon in 2001 (Fig. 18(b)) 435  $(u_w = 92.8 \text{ kPa} \rightarrow 88.5 \text{ kPa})$  and eventually tends a steady condition. This implies the subsurface drainages can suppress an 436 increase of positive pore-water pressure and situate the slopes in a comparatively stable condition. According the numerical 437 reslutls, the stability of 1<sup>st</sup>-PSS is influenced by deeper groundwater flow which cause pore-water pressure increasing on 438 potential sliding surface rather than by direct infiltration of ground surface. Similarly, Ng, CWW and Shi, Q (1998) pointed out 439 that rainfall leads to an increase in pore water pressure or a reduction in soil matric suction and in turn, results in a decrease in 440 shear strength on the potential sliding surface.

441 As shown in Figs. 18(a) and (b), the groundwater flow eventually tends to accumulate at the monitorning point X3, due to 442 the point situating at the lower elevation of  $I^{st}$ -PSS with very thin colluviums overburden (see Fig. 17(a)), the minor suction of 443 point X3 decreases gradually into a lower level of nearly zero value ( $u_w$ =-17.4 kPa $\rightarrow$ 0 kPa, for Amber in 1997;  $u_w$ =-22.3 kPa $\rightarrow$ 0 444 kPa, for Toraji in 2001) during the rainfalls of the two typhoons. The subsurface drainages remeidation has little effect on the 445 point X3 where is in vicinity of the outlet of the potential sliding surface.

In conclusion, the cumulative groundwater in the heavily to medium weathered slate above the  $I^{st}$ -*PSS* and the rainwater perched between the colluviums and heavily to medium weathered slate was drained out of the sliding mass through drainage galleries *G1* and *G2* in a short period. It should be noted that the drainage galleries always situate at the intact fresh slate and underneath the potential sliding surface (see Fig. 12(b)). Finally, the pore-water pressure distributions in Fig. 18 were then used to calculate the corresponding factor of safety  $F_s$  values of  $I^{st}$ -*PSS* during typhoons, as shown in Fig. 19. For the case without subsurface drainages remediation (Fig. 19(a)), the  $F_s$  values are descending with elapsed time to a minimum value of 1.096 (= $F_{Smin}$ ) during Amber Typhoon. Comparatively, for the case with remediation (Fig. 19(b)), the  $F_s$  values are constantly higher

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





453 than those of without remediation and come to a minimum value of 1.228 (= $F_{Smin}$ ) and almost not affected by Toraji Typhoon. 454 This demonstrates that the subsurface drainage systems can function effectively to intercept the groundwater flow from 455 infiltrated rainwater and largely mitigate the rising potential of pore-water pressure on the potential sliding surface which 456 alternately enables to maintain the slope in a certain stability level during rainfall.



Fig. 19 Variation of factor of safety of 1st -PSS (a) Amber Typhoon (1997/8/28~1997/8/29) without remediation (b) for Toraji Typhoon (2001/7/29~2001/7/31) with remediation

457 458

# (2) Effects of Fictitious Subsurface Drainages on the Slope Stability of 2<sup>nd</sup>-PSS during Amber Typhoon

459 To understand the effect of subsurface drainages on the slope stability of landslide, a numerical experiments were carried 460 out using Amber Typhoon (1997/8/28~1997/8/29; with 14-days precedent rainfall: 1997/8/14~1997/8/28; see Fig. 13) for the 461 seepage and slope stability analyses of 2<sup>nd</sup>-PSS along the Y2-profile of Li-Shan landslide with (fictitious) and without subsurface 462 drainages remediation. Due to the fact that the remediation had not been completed yet during Amber Typhoon in 1997, the 463 drainage wells and drainage galleries were assumed fictitiously to be functional and simulated by assigning specific flow 464 boundary conditions in numerical model. The factors of safety, Fs, of the three potential sliding surfaces with and without 465 subsurface drainages were summarized in Table 4.

466 467

#### Table 4 Factors of safety without and with fictitious subsurface drainages along potential sliding surfaces during Amber Typhoon in 1997

	Factor of Safety $F_S$				
Potential Sliding Surface (PSS)	<sup>(1)</sup> without r	remediation	(2) with fictitious remediation		
	Variation during rainfall	Decreasing percentage (%)	Variation during rainfall	Increasing percentage (%)	
1 <sup>st</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (1 <sup>st</sup> -PSS)	1.148→1.096	4.53	1.149→1.201	4.53	
2 <sup>nd</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (2 <sup>nd</sup> -PSS)	1.317→1.263	4.10	1.351→1.403	3.85	
3 <sup>rd</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (3 <sup>rd</sup> -PSS)	1.250→1.210	3.20	1.304→1.409	8.05	
<sup>(1)</sup> Amber Typhoon in 1997 (Fig. 1	3) (rainfall duration	on $t=377$ hr) with	out remediation, th	ne subsurface	

drainages had not been completed vet in this duration. <sup>(2)</sup>Amber Typhoon in 1997 (Fig. 13) (rainfall duration *t*=377 hr) with remediation, the subsurface

drainages was fictitiously assigned in numerical model.

<sup>(3)</sup>  $F_s \ge 1.1$  for torrential rainfall;  $F_s \ge 1.5$  for ordinary time (stability criteria used in Taiwan)

Figure 20 shows that during Amber Typhoon the  $F_s$  value of  $2^{nd}$ -PSS with subsurface drainages ( $F_s$ =1.403 at the end of 469 470 rainfall, for t=377 hr) is constantly higher than those without drainages ( $F_{s}=1.263$  at the end of rainfall, for t=377 hr) and the 471 potential effect of subsurface drainage systems is evaluated in term of the promotion percentage of  $F_s$  value approximates 11.1% 472 (=[1.403-1.263]×100%/[1.263]). This demonstrates the subsurface drainage systems are effective on promoting the slope 473 stability of landslide. Meanwhile, as shown in Fig. 21, prior to the torrential rainfall, the potential sliding surface was submerged 474 by initial groundwater level and subsequently at the elapsed time of typhoon rainfall, t=23 hr, for the occurrence of peak rainfall 475 intensity, the groundwater level ascends for the case without drainages (Fig. 21(a)) and leads to a factor of safety  $F_s$ =1.264. On 476 the contrary, it becomes obvious that a groundwater drawdown for the case with subsurface drainages (Fig. 21(b)) and a higher 477 factor of safety  $F_s=1.399$  can be achieved. The promotion percentage of  $F_s$  value is about 10.7% for a rainfall duration of t=23 hr. 478 These results coincide with the study performed by Rahardjo and Leong (2002) that the horizontal drains (or drainage boreholes) 479 are mainly effective to improve the stability of the slope by lowering the groundwater table. Based on the numerical analyses of 480 a field instrumentation case, Rahardjo et al. (2012) also indicated that the  $F_s$  values for the slope without horizontal drains are 481 much lower than those of the slope with horizontal drains. Santoso et al. (2009) investigated the influence of (length/spacing) 482 ratio of horizontal drains on residual soil slope stability and found that the promotion percentage of  $F_s$  value approximates 483 12~15 % for a (length/spacing) ratio ranges from 4~9. 484

<sup>468</sup> 

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.







Fig. 21 Groundwater levels and factors of safety of 2<sup>nd</sup>-PSS at the rainfall duration t=23 hr during Amber Typhoo (1997/8/28~1997/8/29) (a) without subsurface drainages (b) with fictitious subsurface drainages

489

490 Greco et al. (2010) indicated that monitoring of soil volumetric water content seemed more useful than soil suction 491 monitoring for early warning purposes, since water content grew smoothly during the entire infiltration processes, while soil 492 suction showed abrupt steep fronts. As illustrated in Fig. 22, the volumetric water contents  $\Theta$  (= $S \times n=0.05 \sim 0.20$ , in which, S 493 =degree of saturation, n =porosity) of colluviums and heavily to medium weathered slate around the drainage galleries G1 and 494 G2 during Amber Typhoon are lower than their saturated volumetric water content  $\Theta_{sat}$  ( $\Theta_{sat} = S \times n = 1 \times 0.281 = 0.281$  for 495 colluviums and  $\Theta_{sat} = 5 \times n = 1 \times 0.206 = 0.206$  for heavily to medium weathered slate). These reveal that in addition to contributions 496 to groundwater drawdown and pore-water pressure mitigation, the drainage galleries enable to convert the surrounding soil 497 strata from submerged saturation into unsaturated condition ( $\Theta < \Theta_{sat}$ ) which in turn improve the shear strength of soil mass and 498 the stability of slope. 499

#### 500 Volumetric Water Content during Two Typhoon Events (3)

501 Figure 23 illustrates the variation of volumetric water content  $\Theta$  of soil strata with depth at B4 monitoring station without 502 and with subsurface drainages remediation. For the case without remediation (Fig. 23(a)) during Amber Typhoon 503  $(1997/8/28 \sim 1997/8/29)$ , the  $\Theta$  values are descending gradually to a depth of -30 m under unsaturated condition when comparing 504 with the saturated volumetric water content  $\Theta_{sat}$  ( $\Theta < \Theta_{sat}$ ). For colluviums in a depth of  $0 \sim 16$  m and heavily to medium 505 weathered slate of  $-16 \sim 30$  m, their  $\Theta_{sat}$  values are equivalent to 0.281 and 0.206 respectively. On the contrary, for a depth ranges 506 from -30 to -50 m, the O values start to ascend due to approaching the groundwater level which situates at a depth of around -50 507 m. Eventually for a depth larger than -50 m, the soil strata are completely submerged and saturated below groundwater level 508  $(\Theta = \Theta_{sat} = 0.206).$ 

509 On the other hand, for the case with remediation (Fig. 23(b)) during Toraji Typhoon (2001/7/29~2001/7/31), the 510 volumetric water content  $\Theta$  of colluviums near ground surface increases with the rainfall duration from 0.188 (t=5 hr) to 0.225 511 (t=29 hr) due to rainwater infiltration and the  $\Theta$  value for a depth of  $0\sim 10 \text{ m}$  resembles to the tendency of the case without 512 remediation. Subsequently, for a depth of -10~-20 m, although the soil stratum changes from colluvium to heavily to medium 513 weathered slate at -16 m depth, the  $\Theta$  values are decreasing with depth constantly from -10 to -20 m to a minimum value of 514  $\Theta$ =0.03. However, the volumetric water content  $\Theta$  of soil strata adjacent to the ground surface for a depth of 0~-20 m never go 515 beyond the saturated volumetric water content  $\Theta_{sat}$  ( $\Theta < \Theta_{sat} = 0.281$ ).

516 It should be noted that B4 monitoring station is in the vicinity of drainage wells W-6, W-7 and W-8 (see Fig. 12(b)). At three 517 different elevation levels from -20 to -40 m along the drainage wells, a series of drainage boreholes were drilled upward into the 518 upslope of sliding body to collect groundwater, consequently the lower volumetric water content of soil strata within this depth 519 range is expectable. Similarly, the O values start to increase from the depth of -40 to -60 m due to closing groundwater level and 520 which locates at a depth of around -60 m ( $\Theta_{sat}=0.206$ ) lower than -50 m for the case without drainage remediation (Fig. 23(a)). 521 This also verifies that the drainage boreholes are of great advantage to the groundwater drawdown during torrential rainfall.





522





526

### Fig. 22 Contour distribution of volumetric water content of soil strata surrounding drainage galleries G1 and G2

#### (4) Volumetric Water Content during Two Typhoon Events

527 Figure 23 illustrates the variation of volumetric water content  $\Theta$  of soil strata with depth at B4 monitoring station without 528 and with subsurface drainages remediation. For the case without remediation (Fig. 23(a)) during Amber Typhoon 529  $(1997/8/28 \sim 1997/8/29)$ , the  $\Theta$  values are descending gradually to a depth of -30 m under unsaturated condition when comparing 530 with the saturated volumetric water content  $\Theta_{vat}$  ( $\Theta < \Theta_{vat}$ ). For colluviums in a depth of  $0\sim 16$  m and heavily to medium 531 weathered slate of -16~-30 m, their  $\Theta_{sat}$  values are equivalent to 0.281 and 0.206 respectively. On the contrary, for a depth ranges 532 from -30 to -50 m, the O values start to ascend due to approaching the groundwater level which situates at a depth of around -50 533 m. Eventually for a depth larger than -50 m, the soil strata are completely submerged and saturated below groundwater level 534  $(\Theta = \Theta_{sat} = 0.206).$ 

535 On the other hand, for the case with remediation (Fig. 23(b)) during Toraji Typhoon ( $2001/7/29 \sim 2001/7/31$ ), the 536 volumetric water content  $\Theta$  of colluviums near ground surface increases with the rainfall duration from 0.188 (*t*=5 hr) to 0.225 537 (*t*=29 hr) due to rainwater infiltration and the  $\Theta$  value for a depth of  $0 \sim 10$  m resembles to the tendency of the case without 538 remediation. Subsequently, for a depth of  $-10 \sim -20$  m, although the soil stratum changes from colluvium to heavily to medium 540  $\Theta$ =0.03. However, the volumetric water content  $\Theta$  of soil strata adjacent to the ground surface for a depth of  $0 \sim 20$  m never go 541 beyond the saturated volumetric water content  $\Theta_{sat}$  ( $\Theta < \Theta_{sat}$ =0.281).

It should be noted that *B4* monitoring station is in the vicinity of drainage wells *W*-6, *W*-7 and *W*-8 (see Fig. 12(b)). At three different elevation levels from -20 to -40 m along the drainage wells, a series of drainage boreholes were drilled upward into the upslope of sliding body to collect groundwater, consequently the lower volumetric water content of soil strata within this depth range is expectable. Similarly, the  $\Theta$  values start to increase from the depth of -40 to -60 m due to closing groundwater level and which locates at a depth of around -60 m ( $\Theta_{sat}$ =0.206) lower than -50 m for the case without drainage remediation (Fig. 23(a)). This also verifies that the drainage boreholes are of great advantage to the groundwater drawdown during torrential rainfall.

548 Slope stability analyses have indicated that rainwater infiltration results in a change of suction force and pore-water 549 pressure and the variation of groundwater level is the primary factor affecting the stability of slide mass in Li-San landslide. The 550 factor of safety against failure on the three potential sliding surfaces in Y2-profile that passing below the phreatic surface can be 551 improved by subsurface drainages. The increase of unit weight and decrease of shear strength that experienced by the 552 colluviums during torrential rainfall cause the southeast region of Li-Shan landslide particularly susceptible to instability. The 553 subsurface drainages remediation in Li-Shan landslide appears to have been very successful in attaining its objectives and the 554 groundwater levels monitoring data reported have met the requirements of drawdown. Only minor creep movements were 555 measured from field instrumentation in the past years. 556







Fig. 23 Variation of volumetirc water content with depth at *B4* monitoring station (at mid-slope of 2<sup>nd</sup>-*PSS*) during (a) Amber Typhoon (1997) without remediation (b) Toraji Typhoon (2001) with remediation

# 557 (5) Effect of Rainfall Intensity with Different Return Period on Slope Stability

To investigate the effect of rainfall intensity on the stability of Li-Shan landslide and validity of subsurface drainages, three 48-hr design rainfalls with retrun period of 25, 50 and 100 years for central Taiwan were used for rainfall induced seepage and stability analyses of the three potential sliding surface in *Y2-profile* with subsurface drainages remediation. Incorporating the rainfall distribution percentage of central Taiwan into rainfall frequency analyses, the design rainfalls can be obtained as shown in Figs.  $24(a)\sim(c)$ .



563 564

565 566

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





#### 568

578

579

596

598 599

600

601 602

603

604 605

606

607 608

609

610 611

623

624

625 626

627

569 According to the numerical results, the three design rainfalls with return period of 25, 50 and 100 years have only minor 570 effect on the factors of safety of the three potential sliding surfaces (see Fig. 17) as shown in Table 5. The factors of safety  $F_s$ corresponding to the three potential sliding surfaces (1st-PSS, 2nd-PSS and 3rd-PSS) only decrease slightly 571 572  $(F_{s}=1.222 \rightarrow 1.220 \rightarrow 1.217 \text{ for } I^{st}-PSS)$  in response to the three design rainfalls. Meanwhile, the  $F_{s}$  values also constantly 573 maintain higher than unity ( $F_s \ge 1.0$  or  $F_s \ge 1.217$ ) in the entire rainfall duration (t=48 hr). As a result, it can be deduced that the 574 capacity of subsurface drainage systems in Li-Shan landslide is sufficient to expedite the drainage of infiltrated rainwater 575 induced from high intensity and long duration rainfall and eventually to maintain the slope stability at a certain standard without 576 further deterioration. 577

Table 5 Factors of safety of three potential sliding surfaces for 48 hr rainfall duration under design rainfalls with different return periods

Potential Sliding Surface	Factor of Safety $F_s$				
(PSS)	Return period of 25 years	Return period of 50 years	Return period of 100 years		
1 <sup>st</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (1 <sup>st</sup> -PSS)	1.222	1.220	1.217		
2 <sup>nd</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (2 <sup>nd</sup> -PSS)	1.507	1.505	1.502		
3 <sup>rd</sup> -Potential Sliding Surface (3 <sup>rd</sup> -PSS)	1.453	1.452	1.450		
$F_S \ge 1.1$ for torrential rainfall; $F_S \ge$	1.5 for ordinary time	e (Slope stability cri	teria in Taiwan)		

#### 580 5. Conclusions

581 The proposed numerical model is capable of capturing the groundwater responses of sliding body along the Y2-profile at 582 the southeast region of Li-Shan landslide during Amber (1997) and Toraji (2001) Typhoons. In numerical model, the functions of subsurface drainages can be successfully modeled by assigning a line-type free seepage boundary along drainage boreholes 583 584 for drainage wells and a point-type flow boundary on drainage boreholes for drainage galleries. For Li-Shan landslide, the 585 factors of safety of the three potential sliding surfaces are nearly not influenced by torrential rainfall during Toraji Typhoon after 586 subsurface drainages remediation. Numerically, the subsurface drainages can expedite the drainage of infiltrated rainwater and 587 drawdown of groundwater level to maintain the slope stability at an acceptable standard during torrential rainfall. In addition, 588 the functions of subsurface drainage systems can be verified through the descending volumetric water content of soil strata 589 surrounding the drainage galleries or in a depth from -20 to -40 m of B4 monitoring station where three levels of drainage 590 boreholes (or horizontal drains) were drilled for groundwater drainage. In addition, as the return period of design rainfall 591 increasing from 25 years to 100 years, although the factor safety of potential sliding surfaces  $F_s$  exhibit a slight decreasing trend 592 for the entire rainfall duration, the  $F_s$  values remain constantly greater than unity ( $F_s > 1.0$ ). As a consequence, the subsurface 593 drainage systems of Li-Shan landslide can function well to cope with the infiltration rainwater resulted from torrential rainfall 594 with high intensity and long duration and to prevent the slope from further deterioration. To date, no significant ground movement of the landslide was instrumented after the completion of the subsurface drainage systems. 595

#### 597 References

Matti B, Tacher L, and Commend S (2012) Modelling the efficiency of a drainage gallery work for a large landsldie with respect to hydrological heterogeneity. Canadian Geotechnical Journal, 49: 968-985

Eberhardt E, Bonzanigo L, and Loew S, (2007) Long-term investigation of a deep-seated creeping landslide in crystalline rock. Part II. Mitigation measures and numerical modelling of deep drainage at Campo Vallemaggia. Canadian Geotechnical Journal, 44: 1181-1199

Arya, LM and Paris JF (1981) A physicoempirical model to predict the soil moisture characteristic from particle-size distribution and bulk density data. Soil Science Society of America Journal, Vol 45. pp: 1023-1030

Aubertin, M. Mbonimpa, Bussiere B, and Chapuis RP (2001) A model to predict the water retention curve from basic geotechnical properties. Canadian Geotechnical Journal, 40(6): 1104-1122 (2003)

Fredlund, DG and Xing, A (1994) Equations for the Soil-Water Characteristic Curve. Canadian Geotechnical Journal, Vol. 31, pp. 521-532

Fredlund, DG, Xing, A, Fredlund MD, and Barbour, SL (1996) The Relationship of the Unsaturated Soil Shear Strength to the Soil-water Characteristic Curve. Canadian Geotechnical Journal, Vol. 33, pp. 440-448

Gasmo, JM, Rahardjo, H and Leong, EC (2000) Infiltration effects on stability of a residual soil slope. Computer and Geotechnics 26, pp 145-165

Geo-Studio (2012) Manual of Seepage Modeling with SEEP/W. Geo-Slope International

Geo-Studio (2012) Manual of Stability Modeling with SLOPE/W. Geo-Slope International

612 613 614 615 616 617 618 619 620 621 622 Greco, R, Guida, A, Damiano, E, and Olivares, L (2010) Soil water content and suction monitoring in model slopes for shallow flowslides early warning applications. Physics and Chemistry of the Earth, 35, 127-136 Green, RE and Corey, JC (1971) Calculation of Hydraulic Conductivity: A Further Evaluation of Some Predictive Methods. Soil. Sci. Am. Proc. 35, pp. 3-8

Hausmann, MR (1992) Slope Remediation, Proceedings: Stability and Performance of Slopes and Embankments-II. ASCE, Geotechnical Special Publication No. 31, Berkeley, California, pp. 1274-1317

© Author(s) 2016. CC-BY 3.0 License.





628	
629	Kovács. G (1981) Seepage Hydraulics. Developments in Water Science 10. Elsevier Science
630	Publishers, Amsterdam
631	
632	Kenney, TC, Pazin, M, and Choi, WS (1977) Design of Drainage boreholes for Soil Slopes. Journal of Geotechnical Engineering Div., ASCE,
633	Vol. 103, GT 11, November, pp. 1311-1323
634	
635	Long, MT (1986) Camp Five Slide-Exploration, Design and Construction of a Horizontal Drain Solution. Proceedings, 22 <sup>nd</sup> Symposium on
636	Engineering Geology and Soils Engineering, Boise, Idaho, pp246–265
637	
638	Morgenstern, N.R., and Price, V.E., (1965). The Analysis of the Stability of General Slip Surfaces Geotechnique, Vol. 15, pp. 79-93.
639	
640	Ng, CWW and Shi, Q (1998) A Numerical Investigation of the Stability of Unsaturated Soil Slopes Subjected to Transient Seepage. Computers
641	and Geotechnics, Vol. 22, No.1, 1-28
04Z 642	Popescu, ME (2001) A suggested method for reporting landslide remedial measures. IAEG Bulletin, 60(1):69-/4
643	Prolluvitz PW (1079) Apolysis of Dorollal Drains for Highway Cut Slope Stabilization Dragondings 16th Appuel Engineering Coology and Soils
645	Finding Comparing Sumparing Subject and the participation of the partici
646	Lightering Symposium, Boise, Idano, pp. 155-160
647	Rahardio, H. Li, XW, Toll, DG and Leong, EC (2001) The effect of precedent rainfall on slope stability. Journal of Geotechnical and Geological
648	Engineering Special Issue on "Unsaturated and Collansible Soils" pn371-399
649	Rahardio, H, and Leong, EC (2002) Horizontal Drains in Unsaturated Soil Slopes, Proc. 3rd International Conference
650	on Unsaturated Soils, Recife, Brazil, pp773-777
651	
652	Rahardjo, H, Hritzuk, KJ, Leong, EC, and Rezaur, RB (2003) Effectiveness of drainage boreholes for slope stability, Engineering Geology, 2154,
653	1-14
654	
655	Rahardjo, H, Satyanaga1, A, Leong EC (2012) Unsaturated Soil Mechanics for Slope Stabilization, Geotechnical Engineering Journal of the
656	SEAGS & AGSSEA, Vol. 43, No.1, pp48-58
657	
658	Santoso, VA, Rahardjo, H, Leong, EC, Ng, YS and Tam, CPH (2009) Horizontal Drains in Residual Soil Slopes. Proc. 4" Asia-Pacific
659	Conference on Unsaturated Soils, Newcastle, Australia, pp325-332
661	Sitar N., Anderson SA, and Johnson KA (1992) Conditions for initiation of rainfall-induced debris flow. Stability and performance of slopes and subscriptional J. Volume 1. an 842 940, Descent Statistics of a gravital conference at U.C. Darkstein ASCE
662	emoankinents-ii, volume 1, pp. 843-849, Proceedings of a special conference at U.C. Berkeley, ASCE
663	Soil and Water Concervation Burgau, Taiwan (2003) Handbook: A brief description of remedial plan for Li Shan landslide area
664	son and water conservation bureau, raiwan (2005) fraiduook. A offer description of reficular plan for El-shan landside area
665	Soil and Water Conservation Bureau, Taiwan (2008) Handbook: A brief of remedial work for landslide in Li-Shan Area
666	
667	Tsaparas I, Rahardjo H, Toll DG, and Leong EC (2002) Controlling parameters for rainfall-induced landslides. Computers and Geotechnics, Vol.
668	29, No. 1, pp. 1-27
669	
670	van Genuchten, M Th. (1980) A closed-form equation for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated soils. Soil Science Society of
671	America Journal, Vol. 44, pp: 892-898
672	
673	Xanthakos, PP, Abramson, LW, and Bruce D (1994) Ground Control and Improvement. New York: Wiley
674	