



1 **Understanding shallow landslides in Campos do Jordão Municipality – Brazil:**
2 **disentangle the anthropic effects from natural causes in the disaster of 2000**

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13 **Abstract**

14 Located in a mountain area of Southeast Brazil, the municipality of Campos do Jordao has been hit by several landslides in
15 recent history. Among those events, the landslides of early 2000 were significant for the number of deaths (10), the
16 population affected and the destruction of infrastructure that caused. The purpose of this study is to assess the relative
17 contribution of natural and human factors in triggering the landslides of the 2000 event. To achieve this goal, a detailed
18 geotechnical survey was conducted in three representative slopes of the area to obtain geotechnical parameters needed for
19 slope stability analysis. Then, a set of numerical experiment with Geo-Slope software was designed including natural and
20 anthropic factors separately. Results showed that natural factors, thus is, high intensity rainfall and geotechnical conditions,
21 were not severe enough to trigger landslides in the study area and that human disturbance were entirely responsible for the
22 landslides events of 2000. Since the anthropic effects used in the simulations are typical of Brazilian hazardous urban areas,
23 we concluded that the implementation of public policies that constrain the occupation of landslide susceptible areas are
24 urgently needed.

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26



27 **1 Introduction**

28 Due to the combination of frequent heavy rain of high intensities on landscapes dominated by narrow valley and steep
29 slopes, large areas of the southeast and south of Brazil are naturally susceptible to landslides. In addition, population growth,
30 increased urbanization (about 90% of Brazilian population live in urban areas), and expansion of urban construction into
31 hazardous areas have led to an escalating impact of this natural disaster. Consequently, landslides are directly associated
32 with loss of lives, property and infrastructure damage, and environmental destruction. During 2011, for instance, mountains
33 regions of Rio de Janeiro State suffered several landslides that caused more than 1,500 deaths and severe damage to the
34 urban and rural infrastructures (Coelho Netto et al., 2013).

35 In spite of floods (generally gradual flooding) being the most disrupted natural disasters in terms of economic
36 damages and population affected, landslides have been considered the most severe in terms of dead toll (Londe et al., 2014).
37 Although landslide and flashfloods usually affect heavily urbanized downtown areas, it is also recognize that poor
38 population living in the outskirts are more vulnerable to these types of disaster. Increased landslide hazard, for instance, has
39 been related to the improper cut-and-fill construction of self-built housing on steep slopes, after the removal of forest cover.
40 In addition, because of the lack of collection systems, sewage is disposed into the hillslope soils further increasing the risks
41 of triggering landslides, not to mention the health risks associated with the lack of sanitation.

42 Among those areas affected by landslides in SE Brazil, the municipality of Campos do Jordao has been hit by several
43 events since the seventies. The most recently severe landslides occurred in the early days of 2000, leaving 103 people
44 injured, 10 fatalities, and more than 423 houses at risk of collapse (Londe et al., 2014).

45 Early warning system used by the civil defense in Campos do Jordão and by CEMADEN are based on threshold
46 values of 72 h accumulated rainfall, derived from empirical studies (Tatizana et al., 1987; Santoro et al., 2010). In 2000,
47 rainfall was monitored every 24 h at 7:00 am using manual rain-gauges, and the threshold value for triggering landslides
48 were based on previous studies in other areas of Brazil. Since the accumulated rainfall values responsible for the occurrence
49 of the landslides of 2000 were well below the critical line proposed in previous studies (Tatizana et al., 1987), it was not
50 possible to conduct the pre-emptive evacuation of many hazardous areas.

51 Although empirical rainfall thresholds are successfully used in operational warning systems to predict shallow
52 landslides (Lagomarsino et al., 2013), critical rainfall thresholds for triggering landslides vary due to regional and local
53 precipitation distribution, slope morphometry, soil characteristics, lithology, microclimate and geological history (Crosta,
54 1998; Van Asch et al., 1999). Therefore, the reliability of empirically derived critical rainfall threshold depends entirely on
55 the availability of a significant number of cases relating the occurrence of landslides and rainfall conditions. In this sense,
56 Guzzetti et al. (2007) lists as regional thresholds those covering regions with a few to many thousands square kilometers and
57 having similar meteorological, climatic and physiographic characteristics, whereas for local conditions the geomorphology
58 and climate regime are considered to be applicable to areas that range in the order of hundreds of square kilometers.



59 After the event of 2000, new critical 72 h rainfall thresholds values for landslides were proposed for the area. In
60 addition, the Civil Defense of the State of São Paulo established new critical rainfall amounts for visually monitoring critical
61 areas in order to detect early signals that may indicate the imminence of a landslide. However, the peak rainfall intensities
62 recorded in the event of 2000 did not repeat even since, while irregular occupations continued in many landslide prone areas.
63 Therefore, a detailed study of the event of 2000 is relevant not only because its extreme characteristic, but also with the
64 perspective that memory of the 2000 event is dim and its impacts is largely underestimated among many local residents.

65 In this context, for a limited number of data hydrologic models are relevant for investigating precipitation induced
66 shallow planar landslides (Terlien, 1998). Given the lack of detailed data from historical landslides events in the
67 municipality of Campos do Jordao, the aim of this study was to understand the factors responsible for triggering the
68 landslides of early 2000 in Campos do Jordao using a numerical model of slope stability. We analyzed several scenarios that
69 included the relative influence of natural and anthropic factors that prevails in the area, and identified the most critical
70 factors responsible for the severe landslides of 2000. In addition, we analyzed if the threshold rainfall values establish by the
71 Civil Defense are adequate for early warning of landslides occurrence taking into account the today's occupation patterns of
72 landslide prone areas.

73

74 **2 Material and Methods**

75 **2.1 Study site**

76 The study site is the municipality of Campos do Jordao, of the State of São Paulo, located in a mountain region along the
77 Mantiqueira Hills (Figure 1). In geological and geomorphological terms, the Jordan Fields plateau is a crystalline plateau
78 block with elevations of more than 2,000 m above sea level and bordered by steep cliffs that rise approximately 1,500 m
79 over the adjacent Paraíba valley (Almeida, 1976). The relief, strongly conditioned by the structures and lithologies of the
80 area, is characterized by the presence of high hills and erosion of grandstands. On the basis of these amphitheatres occur peat
81 depressions (Modenesi-Gauttieri and Hiruma, 2004), where deposits of organic clay of varying thickness are found. The
82 geological and geotechnical characteristics of the deposits of organic clay and its quite sensitive behavior to sudden human
83 interventions that alter their original equilibrium conditions have conditioned the slopes stability in the urban area of the
84 municipality of Campos do Jordao (Ogura et al., 2004).

85 The area where Campos do Jordao is located was occupied by Portuguese settlers during the XVIII century. During
86 the hygienist movement (late XIX and early XX centuries), various health facilities were established in the town, mainly for
87 tuberculosis treatment. Since 1940, the town experienced a large population growth and urban expansion due to the
88 development of tourism: the number of inhabitants increased from 13 thousand in 1950 to more than 50 thousand according
89 to the estimates, with density of 164.76 pop/Km², 99.3% of which live in the urban area (IBGE, 2016).



90 The process of accelerated urbanization, specially from the 70s, of areas with unfavorable geotechnical
91 characteristics, has been pointed out as responsible for most of the natural disasters in Campos do Jordao (Ridente et al.,
92 2002). Table 1 shows the most important events in terms of dead toll and damages recorded in the area.

93 In the case of the event of 2000 (Figure 2), which is the focus of this study, rainfall began on 31/12/1999, and
94 continues almost interrupted for 4 days with high intensity rainfall bursts. According to the Brazilian Center for Weather
95 forecasting and Climate Study – CPTEC, daily rainfall from 31/12/1999 through 05/01/2000 was, respectively, 78.5, 101,
96 120, 60, 144.5 and 10.5 mm (Ridente et al., 2002). Landslides associated with this event, were considered to be one of the
97 most severe in urban areas in Brazil, since hundred of landslides occurred, mostly in slopes in poor neighborhoods where
98 house are constructed over cut-and-fill areas.

100 Based on the landslides events of 1972, 1991 and 2000, Ridente et al. (2002) proposed an approximation of the
101 critical rainfall necessary for the deflagration of landslides in Campos do Jordão, revealing that, in most cases, landslides are
102 due to occur after three-day rainfalls of about 200 mm, with a daily rainfall of at least 70 mm during the last day analysed.
103 The Civil Defense Preventive Plan of the State of São Paulo uses three indexes of precipitation accumulated in three days
104 (60, 80 and 100 mm) as critical thresholds to enter into warning level (Santoro et al., 2010). These thresholds was based on
105 the studies carried out by Tatizana et al. (1987) and has been considered a critical value for issuing early warnings based on
106 rainfall observation and forecasting.

107 Aiming to develop relationships for the prediction of mass movements in the area, Ahrendt (2005) attempted to
108 correlate precipitation with the occurrence of landslides based on the critical intensity curves obtained by Tatizana et al.
109 (1987) for Serra do Mar in the municipality of Cubatão, and by D'Orsi (1997) for Serra da Mantiqueira in the Municipality of
110 Rio de Janeiro. Results showed that the occurrences of Campos do Jordão were below the critical lines of those areas,
111 indicating that the rainfall intensities required for triggering landslides in Campos do Jordão are much lower if compared to
112 the other sites. Therefore, the study of Ahrendt (2005) concluded that rainfall characteristics that triggers landslides in
113 Campos do Jordão are very unique and a different and more detailed approach was needed.

114 Considering the limited historical data of landslide occurrences and the few previous studies in the area that makes
115 extremely difficult to define accurate critical threshold rainfall values that triggers landslides, in particularly, the effects the
116 accumulated rainfall on the water movement and its relationship to rapid mass movements.

117 The Brazilian National Centre for Monitoring and Early Warnings of Natural Disasters – CEMADEN began to
118 monitor Campos do Jordão by the summer of 2012. Most of the occurrences were observed in cut-and-fill slopes, with
119 evident contribution of wastewater and micro drainage deficiency. Recent history did not recorded occurrences of great
120 magnitude; however, the destruction, or even the prohibition of occupying damaged houses, is a recurrent problem.

121



122 2.2 Soil moisture monitoring

123 Soil moisture was monitored in every hourly interval to a depth 3.0 meters along the 12 months (01/01/2016 to 12/31/2016),
124 using two EnviroScanTM probes installed next of the borehole SD-03 (Figure 3). EnviroScanTM probes are installed into
125 customized access tubes manufactured by Sentek Pty. Ltd. Inside of the EnviroScanTM probe were distributed six Sentek
126 capacitance sensor. The capacitance sensor gives an output in volumetric water content (mm of water per 100 mm of soil
127 measured). This is converted from a scaled frequency reading using a default calibration equation, which is based on data
128 obtained from numerous scientific studies in a range of soil textures.

129 Before a Sentek capacitance sensor can be installed in the soil, it must have minimum and maximum values set. This
130 is done using air and water around each sensor (lecture limits of the volumetric water content – dry and saturated,
131 respectively).

132 Soil moisture was monitored in the study area at regular intervals of 1 h to a depth 3.0 meters during 2016 using two
133 EnviroScanTM (Campbell Scientific, 2016) probes installed next of the borehole SD-03 (Figure 2). Every EnviroScanTM
134 probes included six capacitance sensors that allowed the determination of soil moisture every 0.5 meter, thus is, at the depths
135 of 0.5, 1.0, until 3.0 m deep. This distribution of depths allowed to monitoring moisture variations for those soil layers which
136 are relevant to this study: landfill, residual soil and saprolith. Sensor calibration was based on the relationship provided by
137 the manufactured (Campbell Scientific, 2016) based on dry and wet readings of each sensor.

139 2.3 Geotechnical survey

140 SPT (Standard Penetration Test) boreholes and soil sample collections were performed at six (06) locations along the slope
141 (SD-01 to SD-6) along three different profiles (Figure 3). Disturbed and undisturbed samples were taken under different
142 geotechnical conditions for stability analysis of three (3) critical profiles of the study area (A-A'; B-B'; C-C').

143 Three (03) undisturbed samples were collected in migmatitic saprolith block close to the SD-04 borehole. This
144 material occurs anisotropically and discontinuously, because it presents significant textural variation resulting from the
145 heterogeneity of the parental rock, being predominantly formed by silt and fine sand, with variable occurrence of clay. From
146 the 6 boreholes (SD-1 to SD-6) and the 3 undisturbed blocks it was possible to obtain a total of 12 soil samples to perform
147 geotechnical characterization tests of the study area following Brazilian standard procedure.

148 Disturbed and undisturbed samples collected were used to perform grain size analysis test (ABNT, 1984b and 1995),
149 soil particle density (ABNT, 1984a), bulk density, specific dry mass and Atterberg limits (ABNT, 1984c and 1984d).
150 Parameters of effective cohesion (c') and effective friction angle (ϕ') were obtained from saturated direct shear tests, using
151 square shaped undisturbed samples with 60 mm of side and height of 25 mm. The soil samples were in their natural state,
152 being representative of the “Residual” and “Saprolith” soil layers. All samples were saturated and subjected to net normal



153 stress of 25, 50 and 100 kPa applied during 24h with a constant velocity of 0.033 mm/min. The vertical displacements were
154 recorded during this period and after stabilization.

155 Water retention curves -WRC of the residual soils layers were obtained using pressure plate for suctions <100 kPa
156 and filter paper for suctions \geq 100 kPa. Samples were initially saturated for 12 hours. The saturated hydraulic conductivity -
157 K_{sat} was obtained in laboratory using a constant head permeameter. Hydraulic conductivity functions were estimated from
158 the WRC, K_{sat} using the Van Genuchten (1980) model. In the case of landfill deposits, the values of K_{sat} for different soil
159 texture were those obtained Ahrendt (2005) from core measurements.

160

161 **2.4 Modelling experiments**

162 Physical-based hydrological models have been widely applied to predict the development of pore-pressure due to the
163 infiltration in shallow landslides (Frattoni et al., 2009; Iverson, 2000). Generally, soils with high permeability become
164 unstable under saturated conditions, while soils with low permeability may destabilize even in unsaturated conditions due to
165 the decrease of the shear strength caused by low soil matrix suction. Several models, based on the infinite slope concepts,
166 that integrates hillslope hydrology with slope stability are reported in literature, for instance CHASM (Anderson and Lloyd,
167 1991), SHALSTAB (Dietrich et al., 1998), TRIGRS (Baum et al., 2002) and GEOtop-FS (Rigon et al., 2006).

168 GeoStudio (2012) is another coupled hydrological slope stability model, in which SEEP/W and SLOPE/W plugins are
169 used to simulate the instability of slopes during extreme rainfalls, which were the software package used in this study.
170 Several previous studies have studied the effect of infiltration on rainfall-induced landslides using those plugins (for instance
171 Ng and Shi, 1998; Gasmol et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2004; Huat et al., 2006; Oh and Vanapalli, 2010; Acharya et al., 2016). In
172 this study, the versatility of GeoStudio (2012) for handling boundary conditions allowed to simulate several scenarios
173 involving natural conditions and anthropic factors separately.

174 The modelling of the stability and seepage analysis was divided in two parts: (1) transient unsaturated seepage
175 analysis; (2) stability analyses coupled with the results from the previous step.

176 For the seepage analysis, 35-days accumulated rainfall of the period 01/12/1999 through 04/01/2000 was considered,
177 since that event triggered several landslides in the study area (Ahrendt and Zuquette, 2003). In addition to the geotechnical
178 parameters, anthropic factors that induce landslides typical of Brazilian urban slopes, specifically housing load, man-made
179 cuts and leakage from pipes, were included in the modelling experiment with the aim of analysing the degree of influence of
180 these factors on the trigger of landslides in the study area during 2000 (Figures 3 and 4).

181 The boundary conditions were set according to field observations on the landslide area (Figure 4) and boundary
182 conditions used by Rahardjo et al. (2007). The non-saturated transient flux results were obtained for two cases: considering
183 only the accumulated rainfall and rainfall including linear leakage along the cut slope. The initial pore-pressure values used
184 in the transient flow analysis were obtained indirectly from the WRC and the data of the Soil moisture sensors installed in
185 the study area (Figures 6 and 7).



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187 Next, the factor of safety (FS) for the slope was estimated from the transient seepage modelling coupled with the
188 stability analysis tool (Geo-Slope, 2012a). All the stability analyses were conducted considering the theory of static
189 equilibrium of forces and momentum. The FS were calculated using the geotechnical and anthropic parameters, obtained
190 from the method of Morgenstern-Price, which considers circular and non-circular rupture surfaces.

191

192 **3 Results**

193 **3.1 Geotechnical survey**

194 The result of the granulometric analyses of the residual and saprolith layers of the three profiles studied are presented in
195 Figure 4. Residual layer (sample SD-01/2.0m) can be classified as sandy loam, with percentage of sand and silt of 53 % and
196 25 % respectively.

197 The soil samples representative of the saprolith layer showed a significant variation of the percentage of the clay
198 fraction (3 to 24%), silt (14 to 42%) and sand (53 to 73%), indicating that soil profiles are heterogeneous, which in
199 agreement with the textural characteristics of its parent material (migmatitic gneiss). Therefore, it is expected that the
200 mechanical and hydraulic properties of this soil layer is also heterogeneous. The general results of the geotechnical tests
201 (general characteristics, shear strength and saturated hydraulic conductivity) of the samples of the representative soils of the
202 studied area are presented in Table 2.

205 Analysing the values of the effective resistance parameters (c' and ϕ') and saturated hydraulic conductivity (Table 2),
206 the values representative of the 'Saprolith' layer showed significant variability: the coefficient of variation was 85% for the
207 effective cohesion; 20% for the effective friction angle, and 89% for the saturated hydraulic conductivity, reflecting the
208 heterogeneity character of the parent material. The values of the resistance and Ksat parameters obtained in this study are
209 comparable to other mean reference values of residual gneiss soils representative of other Brazil (Costa Filho and Campos,
210 1991; Ahrendt, 2005; Reis et al., 2011).

211 Figure 5 shows the water retention curves of the soil layers representative of the profiles. In general, the residual and
212 saprolith layers are able to hold more water compared to the landfill deposit. For example, for a field matrix suction level of
213 100 kPa, the volumetric moisture values of the Landfill Deposit, Residual Soil and Saprolith layers are, respectively, $0,06$
214 m^3/m^3 ; $0,24 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$; $0,26 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$.

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220 3.2 Soil moisture data

221 Soil moisture data from 2016 from the EnviroScan probes (3G1 and 3G2) are presented in Figure 7. The data from 3G1
222 (upper graph of Figure 7) showed that the sensor installed at a lower depth (0.5 to 1.0 meter), representative of the landfill
223 deposit (green curve) layer, have variations larger soil moisture variations ($\Delta\theta = 32\%$), with maximum and minimum
224 humidity values recorded in March (46%) and April (14%), respectively. At deeper layers (1-3 meters deep), representative
225 of the "Residual" and "Saprolith" layers (black and red curves), time variation of soil moisture is much lower ($\Delta\theta = 10\%$, on
226 average). In the layer Residual layer (black curve), maximum and minimum values of soil moisture were verified in January
227 (38%) and May (27%), respectively. In the case of the saprolith layer (red curve) maximum and minimum humidity values
228 in the months of June (40%) and May (32%). The different dynamics among the three soil layers are reflecting not only
229 differences in the retention properties of each layer considered but also the deep soil water dynamics down the soil profiles.
230 This explains why the upper layer (landfill deposit) shows a more spiky behaviour in response the rainfall; while the other
231 two layers exhibit gradual and delayed variations related to deep water percolation.

232 Analysing the data of the probe 3G2 (lower graph of Figure 7), it is clear that the soil moisture variation of the sensor
233 of the surface layer, representative of the Landfill Deposit layer (green curve), was significantly lower ($\Delta\theta = 15\%$) compared
234 to the same layer of probe 3G1. Maximum and minimum soil moisture values were recorded in September (43%) and
235 August (28%), respectively. At deeper depth, within the residual and saprolith layers (black and red curves), time variation
236 of soil moisture variation is similar than the measurements of probe 3G1 ($\Delta\theta = 9\%$, on average). For the "Residual" layer
237 (black curve) maximum and minimum soil moisture values were observed in January (31%) and May (21 %), respectively;
238 while in the "Saprolith" layer (red curve) maximum and minimum soil moisture values in the months of January (37%) and
239 August (30%).

240 Contrasting differences in the soil moisture behaviour of the landfill deposit from the probes 3G1 and 3G2 clearly
241 indicates that soil parameters variability is much higher in top layer. This was expected considering that this layer is the
242 result of the cut-and-fill processes mixed with construction waste of several types.
243

244 3.3 GeoSlope simulations input data

245 Table 3 summarizes the parameters used in the numerical simulation with GeoSlope software, based on the geotechnical
246 survey and information extracted from different sources.

247 Regarding the geotechnical properties, in order to reduce the uncertainties due to the heterogeneity of the parent
248 material, the mean values of the resistance (c' and ϕ'), bulk density and saturated hydraulic conductivity parameters for
249 saprolith and residual (Table 2) were used in the flow and stability modelling. As mentioned before, for the landfill deposit,
250 the geotechnical parameters were those obtained by Ahrendt (2005).

251 Based on the field information from previous studies in Brazil, the anthropic factors considered in the simulations
252 were: point leakage sources of $1.0 \text{ m}^3\text{day}^{-1}$ (SABESP, 1993 and 2016) for simulation that include leakage; distributed load



253 due to one floor housing of 2.0 kN m^{-2} (ABNT, 1980); height of the cutting slope (based on field data). In the case of the
254 simulations that include leakage, one point of leaking constant value of $1.0 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ was considered in the cut slope, after the
255 10^{th} day of the simulation until the 35^{st} day, since numerical experiments showed that a time interval of 10 days was adequate
256 to minimize the effect of the uncertainties of initial pore-pressure conditions used in the simulations. It should be noted that
257 this strategy help to separate the effect of leakage from other anthropic factors, without impacting the results at the end of the
258 simulation period (day 35).

260 For the transient flow analysis, the highest average moisture values of the three layers was considered (Landfill
261 deposit - $\theta_{\text{mean}} = 33\%$, Residual - $\theta_{\text{mean}} = 31\%$, Saprolith - $\theta_{\text{mean}} = 34\%$, to November 30, 2016 - light red region in Figure 7).
262 Subsequently, the mean values of humidity were used to obtain the initial values of matrix suction from the representative
263 water retention curves of each layer of the profile. The proper choice of the initial values of matrix suction is to provide the
264 numerical model with a fast and coherent convergence in the pore-pressure distribution of water in the soil layers, aiming to
265 adjust them satisfactorily to the rain data considered in the flow analysis (01 From December 1999 to January 4, 2000 - 35
266 days).

267 For the transient flow analysis, the initial conditions of the simulations were derived assuming initial soil moisture
268 values of $0.33 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$, $0.31 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ and $0.34 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$, for the landfill deposit, residual and saprolith layers respectively. These
269 values correspond to average of the highest soil moisture values of the two probes during November 2016, and indicated by
270 the light-red shaded area of Figure 7.

271 Subsequently, the mean values of humidity were used to obtain the initial values of matrix suction from the
272 representative water retention curves of each layer of the profile (Figure 6). This choice of the initial values of matrix suction
273 of the numerical experiments proved to be crucial to achieve a fast and coherent convergence of pore-pressure distribution of
274 soil layers in the simulations, since they are representative of the 35 days period considered in the flow analysis (From
275 01/12/1999 through 04/01/2000). Based on this approach, the values of negative pore pressure (matrix suction) were -10 kPa
276 for landfills, -40 kPa for residual and -40 kPa for the saprolith.

277

278 3.4 Factor of safety analysis

279 Figure 8 shows the time variation of the safety factor (FS) during 35 days for the 2000 rainfall for the three profiles. In
280 Figure 8, two "warning zones" are considered: zone of instability $\text{FS} < 1.0$, where the possibility of occurrence of landslides
281 is high; and low stability stable zone, $1.0 < \text{FS} < 1.5$, which indicates a low possibility of landslide occurrence. In this warning
282 zone the Brazilian Association of Technical Standards (ABNT, 1991) established the following conditions for the safety
283 degree of the slope: High ($1.3 \leq \text{FS} < 1.5$); Mean ($1.15 \leq \text{FS} < 1.3$); Low ($1.0 \leq \text{FS} < 1.15$).

284 For all three profiles analysed, it is clear that the effect of daily rain on the decrease of the FS (green line) was
285 practically insignificant, with FS values above the 1.5 threshold (high safety degree of the slope); indicating very low
286 likelihood of landslides. In the "rainfall only" scenario, the variations in FS values are due to the geotechnical and



287 geomorphological characteristics of the analysed profiles only. For the "rainfall only" scenario, the difference between FS
288 values in the three profiles are mainly due to: the surface slope, since the profile AA' is steeper than CC' which is steeper
289 than BB'; due to differences in the thickness and location of the layers along the slope (Figure 4) and; the water table profile,
290 related to the soil layers.

291 For the second scenario considered in the analysis of the stability, which includes cut-and-fill effects besides rainfall
292 (red line in Figure 8), it was verified that the effect of terrain cuts caused minor effects in the slope stability. Except for the
293 case of the A-A' profile, which presents the FS condition <1.5 between 32th and 35th day after the beginning of rainfall, FS
294 values were above the 1.5 threshold. However, it is important to note that, in the case of the profile A-A', the decrease of FS
295 was more pronounced than in the other profiles analysed, directly related to the positioning of the cuts considered along the
296 slopes located based on field information. The configuration of the cuts used in this profile favour the wetting of the top soil
297 layer and, consequently affected the whole profile stability.

298 The third scenario of Figure 8 (black line), where the joint influence of two anthropic factors (cut and leakage) with
299 the rainfall of 2000 was considered, and the variations in FS values are significant. For the profile A-A', FS values remained
300 below the threshold of 1.5; while in the other two profiles FS dropped below 1.5 between the 32th and 35th days of
301 simulations in the case of the B-B' profile, and on day 17th for the C-C' profile. It should be noted that, after the 11th after
302 the beginning of simulation, FS values becomes sensitive to rainfall variability.

303 In addition, it can be seen in Figure 8 that the profiles B-B' and C-C' showed greater sensitivity to leakages, mainly
304 due to the geological-geotechnical characteristics, and the location of the cuts along the slopes, that favoured the decrease of
305 the matrix suction values and, therefore, induced instability in both profiles. In addition, critical condition, $FS < 1.0$, in
306 profiles A-A' and C-C' are verified between days 32th and 35th after the beginning of simulations, in response to the
307 significant rainfall that occurred at the period.

308 Finally, in the fourth scenario of Figure 8 (light brown line), when all the anthropic factors (cut, leakage and housing
309 loads) are considered together with the daily rainfall. For most of the time, FS values remained below the threshold of 1.5 in
310 in the A-A' and B-B' profiles, while in the case of the profile C-C' only after the day 34th of the simulation. The probability
311 of landslides increased significantly ($FS < 1.0$) in all profiles from day 32 of the simulation in response to heavy rainfall at
312 the end of the period. In the case of the profile C-C' (light brown line), the inclusion of housing loads appears to provide
313 more stability to the profile, probably related to the fact that the critical break surface estimated by the numerical model was
314 different from that assumed in the case scenario 3 (black line).

315 Based on the assessment of the Factor of Security presented in Figure 8, it is clear that the probability of landslides
316 associated to 2000 rainfall on slopes covered with natural vegetation is very low. When considering the influence of rainfall
317 in conjunction with anthropogenic factors, there was a significant decreased in the security factors in all the profile studied,
318 although the effect varied between slopes depending on the geological-geotechnical profile characteristics, geomorphological
319 conditions, water table position and the anthropic conditions, thus is, the positioning of cuts, leakage and housing loads along
320 the slope.



321 In general, slopes became unstable ($FS < 1.0$) between 32th and 35th after the beginning of simulations when high
322 daily accumulated values were verified. Since most of the landslide occurred on day 32th, it follows that the model
323 successfully predicted the time were the landslides began. However, it should be noted that previous accumulated rainfall
324 values were crucial to create favourable conditions for triggering landslides as shown by Figure 8 after the 30th day from the
325 beginning of simulation.

326 Santoro et al. (2010) recommended in-situ technical surveys of urban hazardous areas after accumulated 72-hour
327 rainfall equal to 60, 80 and 100 mm (depending on the municipality), in order to identify evidences of the imminence of
328 landslides and to enforce eventual preventive removal of population. It can be seen in Figure 8 that the 72h accumulated
329 rainfall were 35 mm for the day 30 after the beginning of simulation; 35 mm for the day 31; 60 mm for the day 32; 191 mm
330 for the day 33. Thus, critical rainfall thresholds (60-100 mm) were exceeded between 32th and 33th day for the events
331 recorded in the year 2000.

332 In this period, the FS in the three analyzed profiles presented the lowest values, located exactly between the "low-
333 medium security zone" ($1.0 < FS < 1.3$) and "unstable zone" ($FS < 1.0$), which shows that the "anthropic and natural factors
334 integrated analysis method" proposed in this paper successfully predicted the beginning of landslides. Although the 72h
335 rainfall threshold value proposed by Santoro et al (2010) proved to be valid for the 2000 event, results of the simulation
336 indicated that the rainfall 30 days previous to the landslides was crucial to bring FS values closer to critical levels, indicating
337 that critical value presents limitations on slopes initially drier.

338

339 4 Conclusions

340 The Geo-slope model proved to be an efficient and useful tool to predict the landslide of Campos do Jordão municipality due
341 to the rainfall event of 2000 and allowed to disentangle the effects of cut-and-fill, construction practices and pipe leakage in
342 three representative slopes of the area. The use of numerical models that perform flow and stability analyses considering the
343 simultaneous influence of natural and anthropic variables showed to be accurate for the prediction of occurrences of
344 landslides on urban slopes.

345 Regarding the rainfall critical values use in early warning system by CEMADEN and the Civil Defense for the
346 Campos do Jordão Municipality, our study showed that, although adequate for the event of 2000, the previous rainfall
347 history played a fundamental role to create conditions favourable to the occurrence of landslides. In other words, the
348 threshold currently used for issue early warning would result in false alarms under initial drier soil conditions.

349 The results of the stability analyses confirmed the hypothesis that the occurrence of landslides in the study area
350 cannot be attributed solely and exclusively to the rainfall events of the year 2000, despite the significant accumulated values.
351 Therefore, numerical modelling results corroborated the fact that the occurrence of landslides was the combination of natural
352 and anthropic factors, with the decisive influence of the latter, thus is, due to the presence of several cuts along the slope



353 combined with load of constructions and leakage. Clearly, human interventions on natural slopes play a fundamental role in
354 triggering landslides in heavily populated steep slopes surrounding urban areas.

355 Considering that the pattern of land use and construction used in the simulations is representative of most of the
356 neighborhood of Brazilian urban areas, the methodology used in this paper need to be repeated and verified in other areas in
357 order to establish more accurate critical threshold that trigger landslides. Moreover, since the prone to landslide areas of
358 Campos do Jordão Municipality are not the most populated of Brazil compared, for instance, to the outskirts of several
359 metropolitan areas, it becomes crucial to verify whether a mosaic of site-specific rainfall thresholds is needed in heavily
360 occupied areas, rather a single regional threshold, as suggested by Segoni et al. (2014). In this context, this study
361 demonstrated the using the factor of slope safety is viable for determine more accurate rainfall threshold that trigger
362 landslides, with direct impacts on the credibility of early warning systems, which relies in minimizing false alarms or
363 premature/late warnings.

364 Although the results of this study have uncertainties mainly associated with the geotechnical parameters used in the
365 flow analysis and slope stability, it is the first comprehensive analysis of the factors responsible for triggering landslide in
366 Brazil that integrates field evidence, anthropic effects, geotechnical data and numerical simulation. Future studies should
367 combine modelling tools with probabilistic analysis to consider a wider range of geological-geotechnical and anthropic
368 parameters in the simulations to be able to reproduce more general conditions that occur in the whole municipality.

369 Finally, considering that this work have demonstrated that the anthropic factors are the main instability factors in
370 urban slopes, it is essential that urban managers and planners promote public policies and enforce laws that restrict the
371 occupation of landslide susceptible areas. Detailed surveys to identify prone to landslide areas are essential, since many
372 urban areas of Brazil lack zoning of hazardous areas, which is essential to implement regulations. Besides this, educational
373 campaigns regarding the adoption of better construction practices and reducing piping leakage will be helpful in already
374 consolidated occupied areas.

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Table 1 – Historical disasters in Campos do Jordao Municipality. Source: Ridente et al. (2002) and Andrade (2014).

Process	Location	Year	Damages	Causes
Mudflow	Vila Albertina	1972	17 fatalities 60 houses buried	Saturated soil (8m thick), loading and vibration due to construction activities
Landslide	Britador, Vila Santo Antonio and Vila Paulista Popular	1991	149 affected 11 houses buried 4 injured	214.5 mm of rainfall in three days
Landslide and Mudflow	Britador, Vila Albertina, Vila Santo Antônio, Vila Nadir Vila Sodipe and Vila Paulista Popular	2000	10 fatalities 1840 affected	453.2 mm in five days

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Table 2 – Results of the geotechnical survey of soils of the study areas.

Sample	Depth (m)	Soil layer	USCS	Unit weight (kN/m ³)	Effective cohesion (kPa)	Effective friction angle (°)	Hydraulic conduct. (m/day)	Gravel (%)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)	w _l (%)	w _p (%)	IP (%)
SD-01	2.0	R	SC	18.3	37	56	0.384	10	53	25	12	27	18	9
	4.6	S	SC	19.1	18	37	0.817	0	53	35	12	35	22	13
	6.6	S	SC	17.9	2	49	0.685	0	59	27	14	29	20	9
SD-02	2.6	S	SC	21.4	19	34	0.102	5	50	21	24	28	17	11
	4.6	S	SM	17.5	14	42	0.325	0	73	14	13	33	20	13
SD-03	1.6	S	SM-SC	18.1	22	43	0.454	1	59	29	11	22	15	7
	2.6	S	SM-SC	16.8	2	52		5	55	30	10	23	17	6
SD-05	12.8	S	SC	17.5	48	54	0.053	0	55	33	12	32	21	11
SD-06	7.6	S	SM	17.8	42	28	0.024	1	72	15	12	-	-	-
Block-1	2.0	S	SM	16.0	2	53	0.267	0	72	21	7	-	-	-
Block-2	2.0	S	SM	16.0	49	37	0.081	0	55	42	3	-	-	-
Block-3	3.0	S	SM	16.0	13	46	0.258	0	58	28	14	-	-	-

523 # Residual soil (R); Saprolith (S).

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Table 3 – Geotechnical and anthropic parameters used on unsaturated seepage and stability analysis

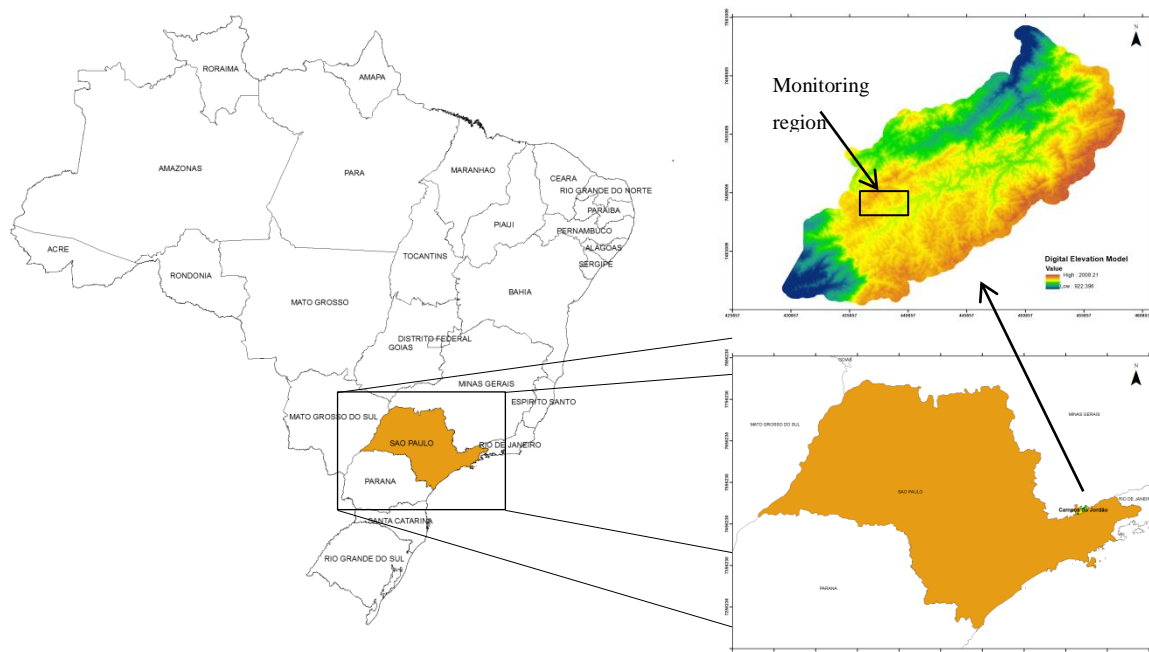
Profile	Geotechnical							Anthropic				
	Slope declivity (°)	Slope height (m)	Soil layers	Shear strength effective parameters#	Unit weight (kN m ⁻²)#	Rainfall (m day ⁻¹)	Ksat (m day ⁻¹)	Matric suction (kPa)	Level of the water table	Load in the slope (kNm ⁻²)	Height of the cut slope (m)	Leaking in the slope (m ³ day ⁻¹)
A - A'	11 - 40	130										
			Fill Deposit	c' = 2 kPa φ' = 31°	14,9	Rainfall events of the 2000 year	0,8208	-7				
B - B'	16 - 33	95	Residual	c' = 15 kPa φ' = 36°	18,3		0,3840	-40	Data of SPT	2.0	6.0	1.0
			Saprolith	c' = 21 kPa φ' = 43°	19,1		0,4694	-40				
C - C'	15 - 35	87										

Fill Deposit (geotechnical parameters from Ahrendt, 2005)



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Figure 1. Geographical location of Campos do Jordao municipality and an inset of the study site.



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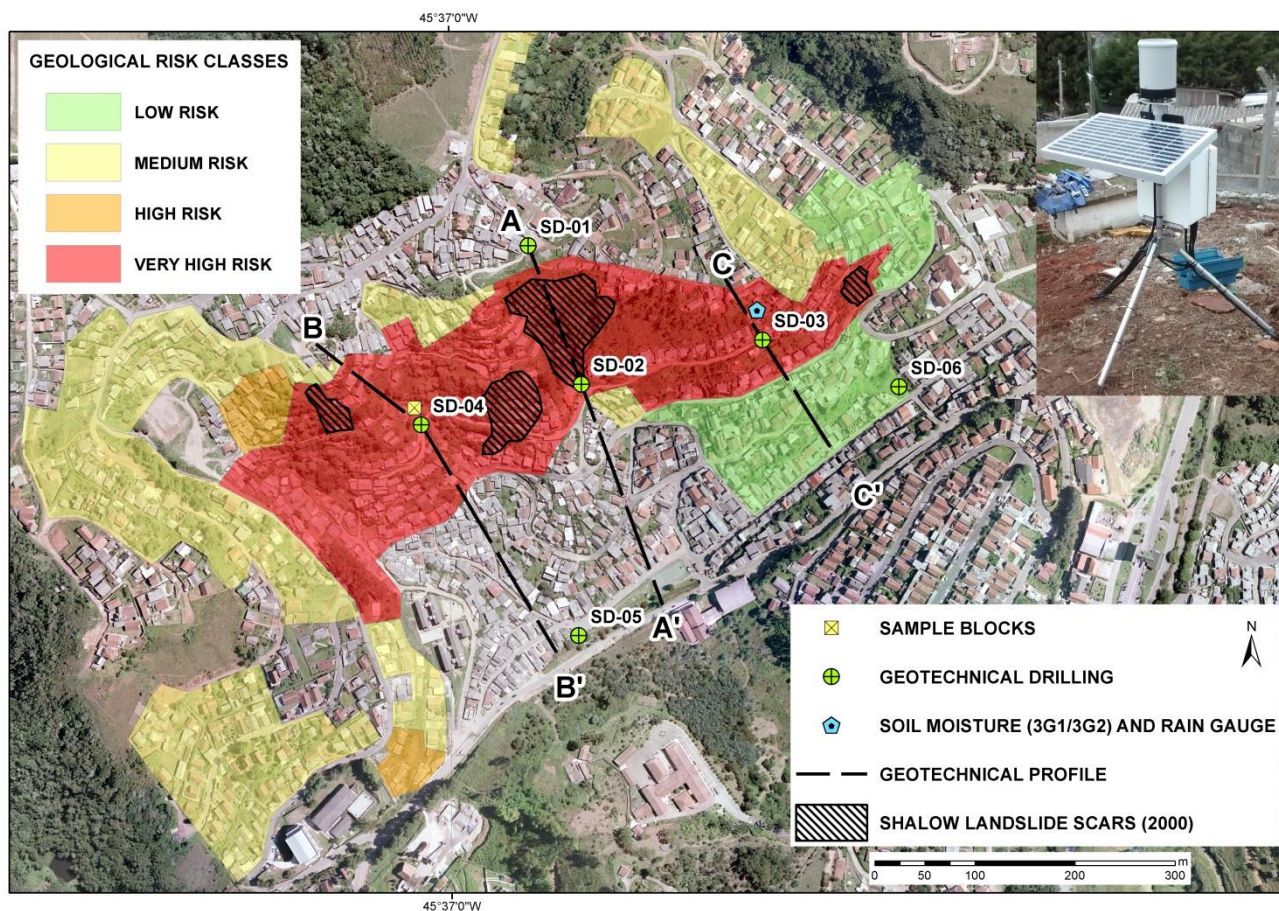


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Figure 2. Landslides typology that happened in 2000 on the study site (Source: Ridente et al., 2002).



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Figure 3. Satellite image of the study site showing the location of monitoring instruments (symbols), geotechnical transects (dotted lines along the slopes); landslide susceptibility areas indicating the level of risk (areas shaded in yellow, orange and red); scars of previous shallow landslides (black cross-hatched area) and deposits of landslides events (blue cross-hatched areas).



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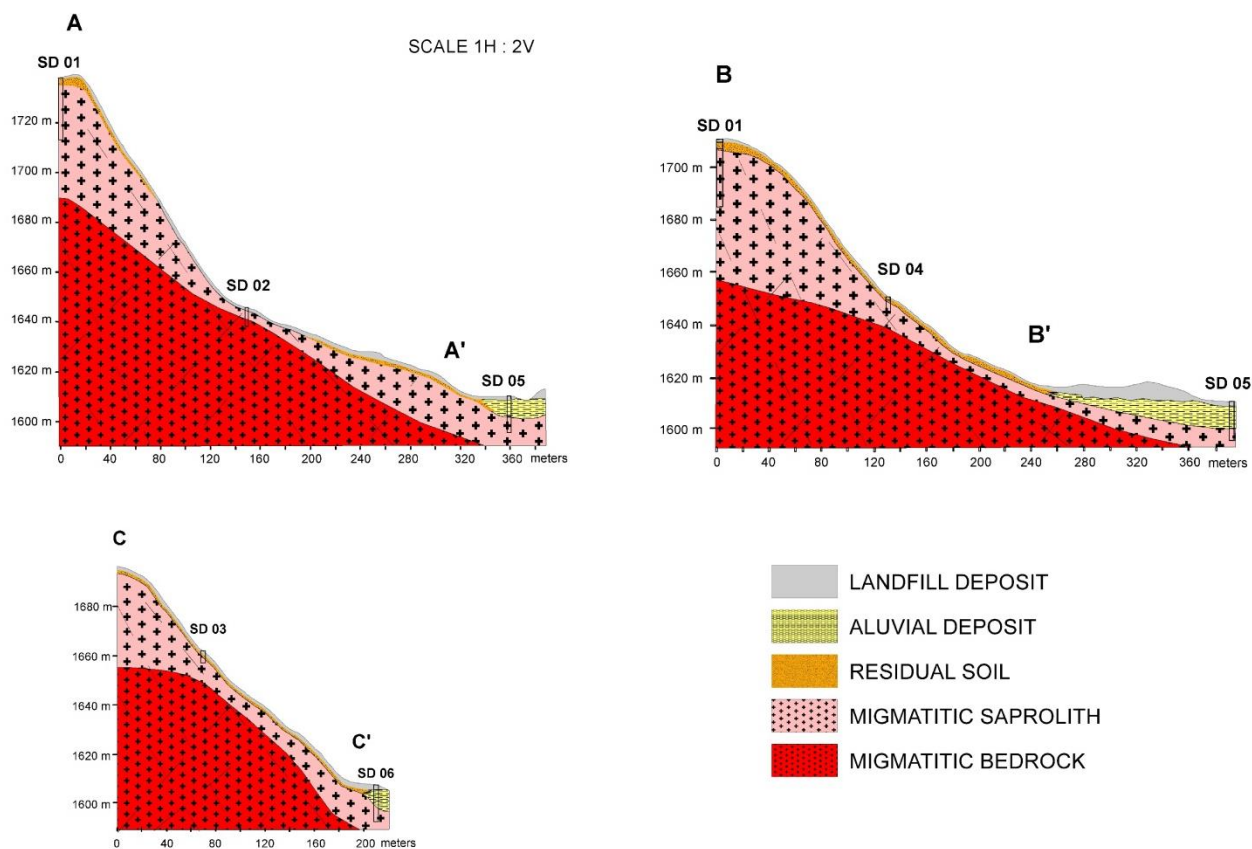
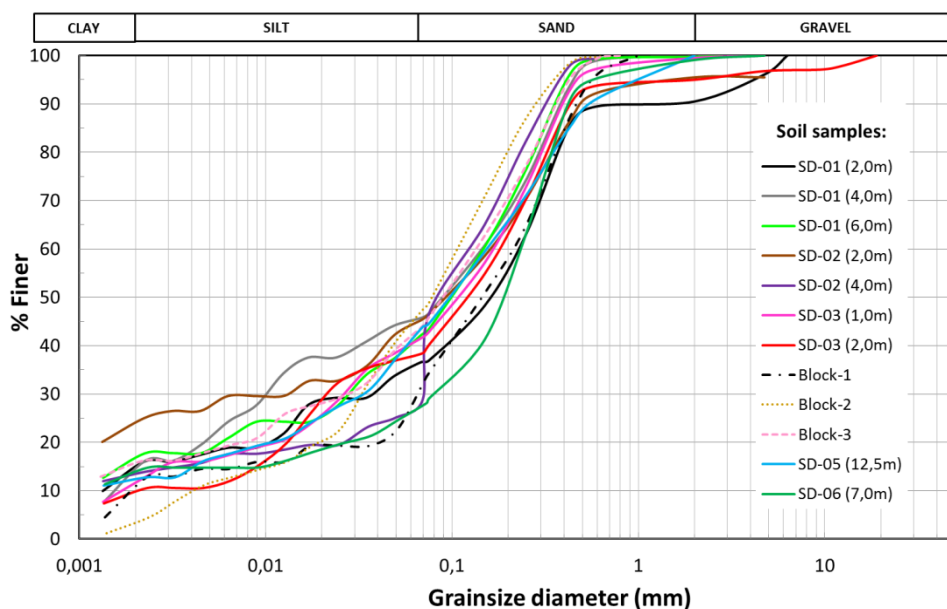


Figure 4. Geological-geotechnical profiles of the study area derived from the geotechnical survey.

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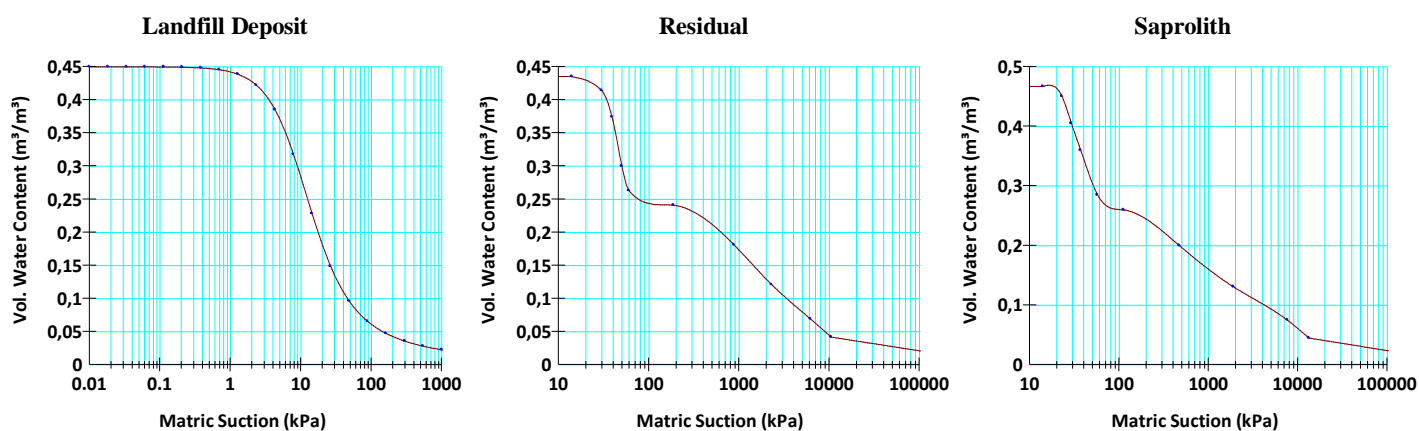
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Figure 5. Granulometric distribution for the residual soil and the saprolith of the six boreholes analysed (SD-01 to SD-06) and for the undisturbed soil cores (Block-1 to Block-3).



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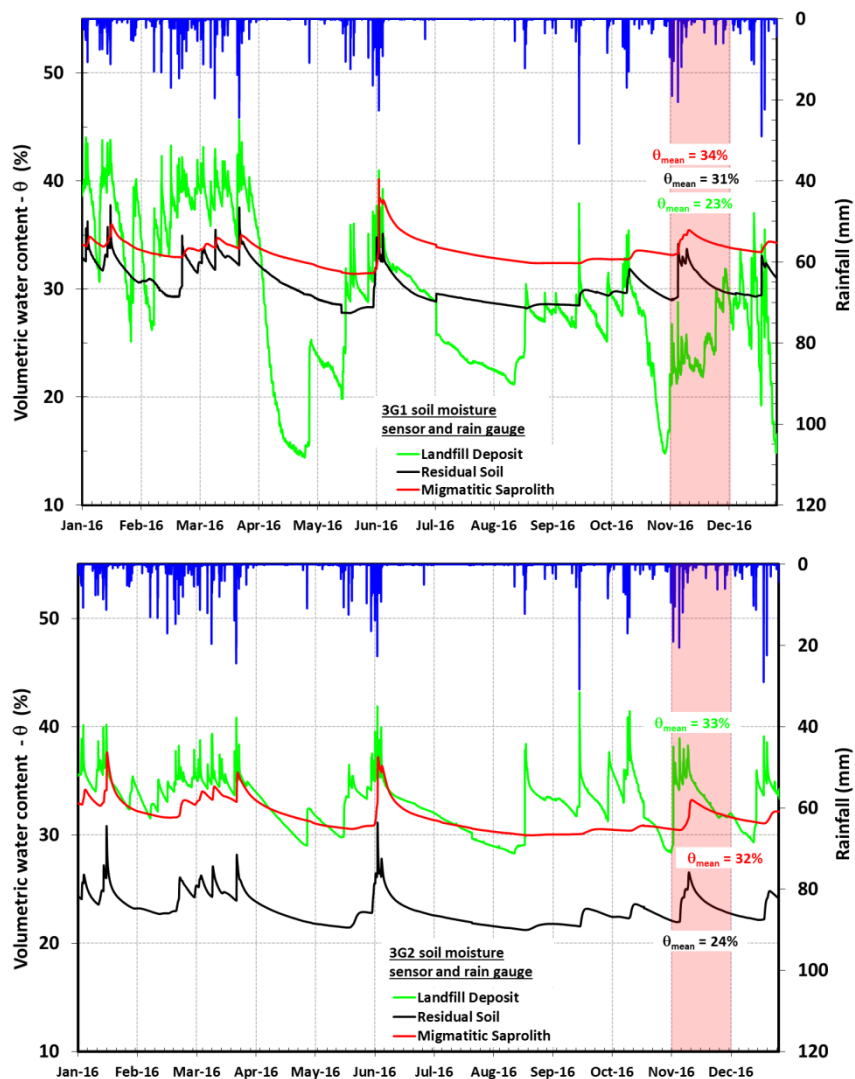
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Figure 6. Water retention curves of the three soil types used in transient seepage analysis.

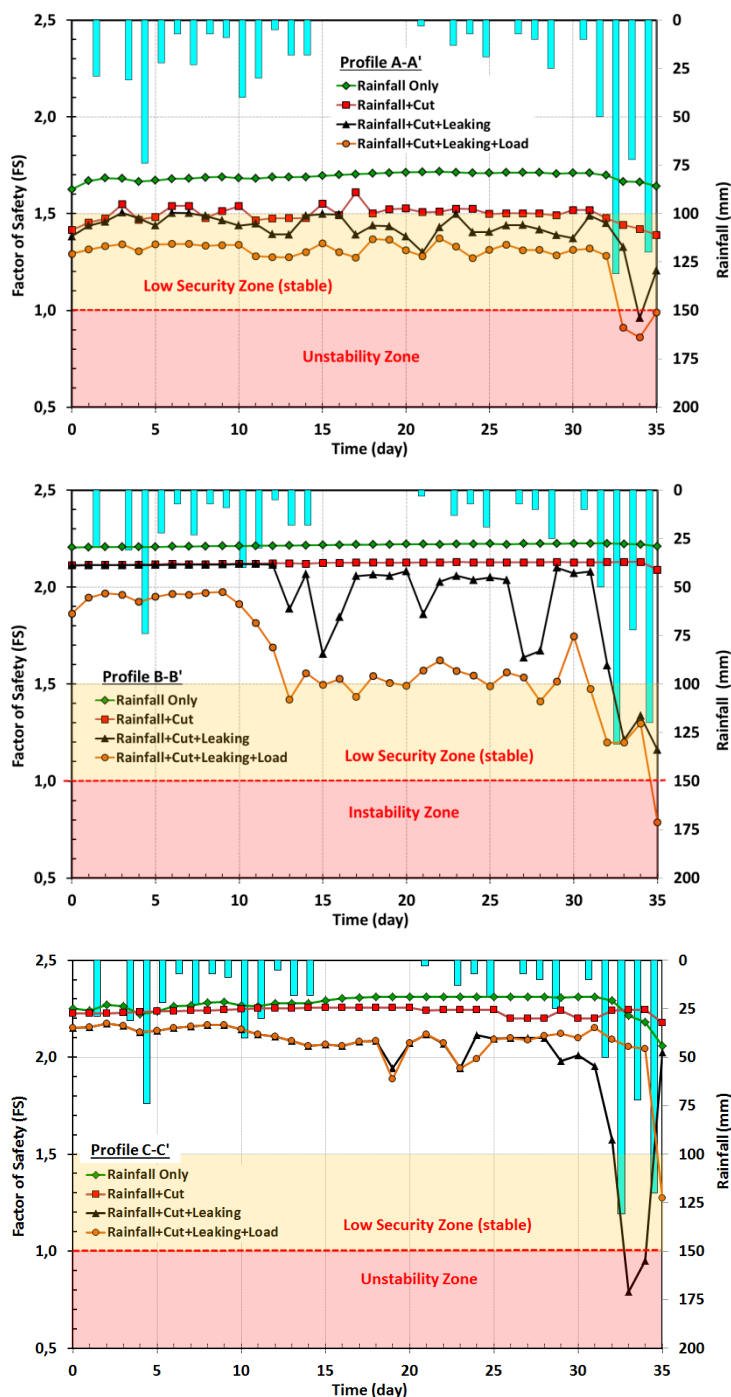


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Figure 7. Time variation of soil moisture at different depths during 2016 in the study area in the sensor 3G1 (upper graph) and 3G2 (bottom graph).



637 **Figure 8.** Time variation of the factor of safety for natural conditions and taken into account the additional effects introduced by anthropic
 638 disturbances on profiles A-A', B-B' and C-C'.
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