Analysis of the instability conditions and failure mode of a special type of translational landslide using long-term monitoring data: A case study of the Wobaoshi landslide (in Bazhong, China)

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9 Abstract: A translational landslide comprising nearly horizontal sandstone and mudstone interbed 10 was widely developed in the Ba river basin of the Qinba-Longnan mountain area. Some progresses on the formation mechanism and failure mode for this type of rainfall-induced 11 landslide have been made in the previous research; however, owing to lack of landslide 12 13 monitoring data, it is very difficult to demonstrate and validate previously-established geomechanial model. This study considered a translational landslide with an unusual morphology: 14 the Wobaoshi landslide, located in Bazhong city, China. Firstly, the engineering geological 15 16 conditions of this landslide were ascertained through field investigation, and the deformation and 17 failure mechanism of the plate-shaped sliding body were analyzed. Secondly, long-term 18 monitoring engineering was conducted to obtain multi-parameter monitoring data, such as crack width, rainfall intensity, and pore-water pressure. Finally, based on the geomechanical model 19 20 analysis of the multi-stage sliding bodies, the equation for the critical water height of the multi-stage plate girders, h_{cr} , was established, and the long-term monitoring data were used to 21 22 verify its reliability. On the basis of numerical simulation and calculations, the deformation and 23 failure modes of the plate-shaped sliding bodies were analyzed and investigatied. In conclusion, the multi-parameter monitoring data proved that the stability of the sliding body is controlled greatly by the rainfall intensity and pore-water pressure and the pore-water pressure in the crack is positive for the initiation of the plate-shaped bodies sliding, and at the same time, one optimized monitoring methodology for this type of landslide was proposed. Therefore, this research findings are of theoretical and practical significance for the intensive study of translational landslides in this area.

30 Keywords: Translational landslide; Long- term monitoring; Instability conditions; Failure
 31 mode; Plate-shaped sliding body; Pore-water pressure.

32

0. Introduction

34 A special type of landslide occurs in the red beds of the Qinba–Longnan mountainous area. 35 This landslide is mainly developed in the rock mass of the nearly horizontal sand and mudstone 36 interbed in the Ba river basin, and it has the following characteristics: the cover layer is extremely 37 thin, generally not more than 5 m; the sliding surface is close to horizontal; and the rock layer inclination angle is generally only 3° - 8° . The sliding body of this landslide is typically a thick 38 39 layer of sandstone with good integrity, and its bottom is a weak layer comprising mudstone. 40 During monsoon, particularly when rainstorms occur, the sliding body is pushed horizontally 41 along the sliding surface. Some scholars call this phenomenon a flat-push landslide, which is a 42 typical rainfall-induced landslide (Zhang et al., 1994; Fausto G. et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2010).

Research on the formation mechanism and deformation mode of a translational landslide is
mainly based on two perspectives. The first category includes the translational landslides is
primarily induced by the hydrostatic pressure or confined water pressure resulting from rainstorms

(Kong and Chen, 1989; Matjaž et al., 2004; Yin et al., 2005). The sliding body of the thick 46 47 sandstone can slide along the surface because of the hybrid action of the hydrostatic pressure in 48 cracks and the uplift force of the sliding surface (Wang et al., 1985; Zhang et al., 1994; Xu et al., 49 2006; Fan, 2007). Simultaneously, the sliding soil, expanded by rain water, causes a slip between 50 nearly horizontal layers (Yin et al., 2005). The second category includes landslides wherein the hard rock layer covered by the upper layer (such as granite and sandstone) has a crushing effect on 51 52 the lower weak rock layer, thereby causing the rock mass to laterally expand, resulting in a 53 landslide (Cruden et al., 1996; Emelyanova, 1986).

54 Regarding the theoretical study on rainfall-induced translational landslide, scholars 55 worldwide have used physical simulation experiments, gemechanical model analysis, and satellite remote-sensing methods to investigate the genetic mechanism, initiation criteria, and sensitive 56 57 safety factors. Fan Xuanmei et al. (2008) reproduced the deformation and failure process of 58 landslides through physical simulation, and further verified the formation mechanism and 59 initiation criterion formula of the flat-push landslide previously studied by Zhang et al. (1994). 60 Sergio et al. (2006) focused on the influence of pore-water pressure on the stability of 61 rainfall-induced landslides, and studied the soil failure mode based on pore-water pressure via 62 simulation experiment. Mario et al. (2008) and Teixeira et al. (2015) selected rainfall data from 63 historical periodic rainfall conditions, and used physical experiments to establish an optimization 64 model for rainfall-induced landslide initiation criteria for landslides in the southern Apennines and 65 shallow landslides in northern Portugal; they also evaluated landslide susceptibility and safety 66 factors to evaluate the possibility of landslide resurrection induced by rainstorms. Barlow et al. (2003) and Martin et al. (2005) used US land satellite called enhanced thematic mapper (ETM+) 67

and digital elevation model (DEM) data to detect the residues of translational bedrock landslides
in an alpine terrain. Bellanova et al. (2018) used resistivity imaging to investigate the Montaguto
translational landslide in the southern part of the Apennines; they also established a refined
geometric model to observe the lithologic boundaries, structural features, and lateral and
longitudinal discontinuities associated with sliding surfaces.

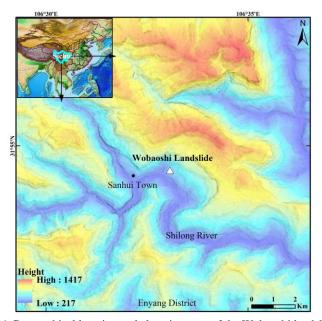
73 Through data collation and analysis of the current research status of translational landslides,
74 scholars worldwide have conducted further research on the formation characteristics and genetic
75 mechanism of translational landslides. Based on the results of previous studies, the main focus of
76 this study is on the following two aspects.

(1) The occurrence of plate-shaped translational landslides is often unexpected and covert.
Plate-shaped translational landslides are primarily induced by rainfall; such events often occur in
the red-bed zone of the Qinba–Longnan mountainous area. Due to the dense population and
infrastructures in this area, plate-shaped landslides, characterized by large volumes, and covert
and abrupt occurrence, often cause massive property loss and casualties. In the previous field
investigation, such destructive events are often classified as small-scale rock mass collapses;
hence, the dangers posed by such kind of landslides were easily ignored.

(2) The field investigation and monitoring data for this kind of landslide is often absent. In
the past research, specific geomechanical and physical models have been established using
historical rainfall records, and laboratory physical experiments have been conducted in the to
verify the failure model. However, long-term on-site monitoring data and related analysis and
findings for such landslides have not been reported in publications according to literature review.
Therefore, several key field monitoring parameters, such as width of rear crack, real-time rainfall,

| 90 | pore-water pressure, and groundwater level, should be abtained to investigate and validate the |
|------------|---|
| 91 | deformation and failure mode of translational landslides, and be utilized to establish a |
| 92 | geomechanical model. |
| 93 | Based on the formation mechanism of the translational landslide established by previous |
| 94 | studies, research chosen a typical and specific translational landslide (the Wobaoshi landslide) in |
| 95 | the Ba River Basin of the Qinba-Longnan mountainous area, and conducted field investigation, |
| 96 | long-term (February 2015 to July 2018) monitoring, geomechanical model analysis, and numerical |
| 97 | simulation to investigate the instability conditions and variation failure modes of this translational |
| 98 | landslide under the influence of periodic rainfalls. |
| 99 | |
| 100 | 1. Enginereing Geology Characteristics of the Wobaoshi |
| 101 | Landslide |
| 102 | 1.1. Field Survey of the Landslide |
| 103 | The Wobaoshi landslide is located in the Ba river basin in the Qinba–Longnan mountainous |
| 104 | area. Its specific location is in Baiyanwan village, Sanhui town, Enyang district in Bazhong, China. |
| 105 | |
| | Fig. 1 presents its geographical location and elevation information. The Wobaoshi landslide is |
| 106 | Fig. 1 presents its geographical location and elevation information. The Wobaoshi landslide is located on the left bank of the Shilong river. The front edge of this landslide is in the curved |
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| | located on the left bank of the Shilong river. The front edge of this landslide is in the curved |

structure of the landslide body lies on in the south side of the Nanyangchang anticline, and its
stratum is the mudstone and sandstone interbed of the Penglaizhen Formation of the upper Jurassic
series (Chen et al., 2015).



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Fig. 1 Geographical location and elevation map of the Wobaoshi landslide.

This landslide is common in the eastern subtropical monsoon climate region, where rainfall is abundant and mostly concentrated from May to October, accounting for 75% - 85% of the total annual rainfall. The monthly average rainfall is above 100 mm, of which the highest occurs in July, the monthly average rainfall in July is over 200 mm and often accompanied by rainstorms, and the rainfall gradually decreases after August in this region (Chen et al., 2015). The types of groundwater are mainly fissure water in weathered bedrock and pore-water in trailing edge cracks, and the dynamic change of groundwater is considerably affected by climatic change.

123 124

1.2. Landslide Characteristics and Forming Conditions

125 1.2.1 Enginereing Geology Characteristics

126 According to the satellite remote-sensing interpretation and landslide survey, the shape of the 127 sliding body is a flat long rectangle on the plane. Its longitudinal (sliding) direction is nearly 32 m, the lateral width is 160 m, the average thickness of the sliding body is approximately 30 m, and its 128 volume is approximately $1.536 \times 105 \text{ m}^3$. This sliding body belongs to small- to medium-sized 129 130 landslides according to the typical scale. The sliding direction of the landslide is 249°, and the overall attitude of the rockbed is $170^{\circ} - 180^{\circ} \angle 6^{\circ} - 8^{\circ}$. The strike in this landslide is nearly 131 132 parallel to the overall trend of the bank slope, which is a typical nearly horizontal consequent bedding rock slope. Fig.2 shows a planar graph of the Wobaoshi landslide and photographs of five 133 observation points. Fig. 3 presents I-I' sectional graph of the landslide. 134

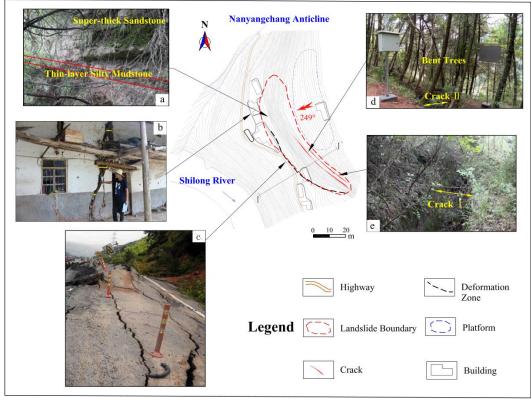
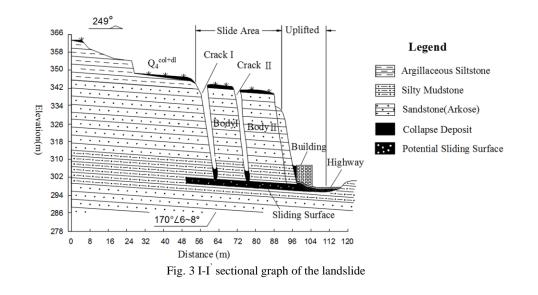


Fig. 2 Topographic map of the Wobaoshi landslide and photographs of observation points: (a) exposed bedrock at
the front edge; (b) the houses had cracked at the front edge (c) the roadbed is pushed uplifted at the front edge; (d)
crack II and bent trees; and (e) crack I.





As shown in Fig. 2, the landslide shape is special, the longitudinal length is much less than the lateral width and is even smaller than the thickness of the sliding body. Therefore, this body can be easily mistaken for a multistage dangerous rock mass with dumping deformation during disaster investigation. According to Fig. 3, the inclination of the landslide is almost erect, and a

147 group of long and straight structural planes parallel to the slope cut the slope into two thin plates 148 (sliding bodies I and II); furthermore, the surface structure of the slope has a certain degree of 149 aperture, both sides of the crack are closed, and the bottom of the crack is filled with clay in 150 addition to gravel and collapse deposits.

151 1.2.2 Forming Conditions

152 The sliding body of the Wobaoshi landslide formed two obvious cracks from the outside to 153 the inside, which cut and disintegrated the sliding body into plate-shaped blocks from front to back, as shown in the photographs of observation points c and d in Fig. 2. Then, the plate-shaped 154 sliding bodies I and II were formed. The landslide is a two-stage translational landslide in which 155 the longitudinal length of sliding body I is 12 m, the identifiable lateral width is \sim 70 m and the 156 thickness is ~ 30 m, the longitudinal length of the sliding body II is 16 m, the identifiable lateral 157 158 width is ~ 65 m, and the thickness is ~ 28 m. Sliding body I forms crack I with the trailing edge of 159 the landslide, and sliding body II forms crack II with sliding body I. When large rainfall intensity 160 occurs during monsoon, the pore-water in the cracks can be observed, thus indicating that cracks I 161 and II have preferable water-storage conditions.

As the photograph of observation point d in Fig. 2 shows, bent trees grow on the trailing edge of landslide bodies I and II. The trees on the landslide are skewed with the soil mass sliding, and after the sliding stops, the upper part of the trunk turns to the upright state year by year. The existence of bent trees represents the tendency of the slope body to become unstable or the existing landslide accumulation body tends to slide again, this is also historical evidence of the slow sliding of the landslide (Zhang Lizhan et al., 2015).

As the photo of observation point a in Fig. 2 shows, the shallow surface of the Wobaoshi landslide is a 2–3 m thick layer of collapsed and plowed soil. The sliding body contains extremely thick sandstone with good integrity, and the bottom sliding surface is a weak interlayer comprising of silty mudstone. In summary, the Wobaoshi landslide is a typical and special translational landslide, and based on the characteristics of its plate-shaped body, it can be considered a plate-shaped landslide (Fan et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2009).

174 The engineering geological conditions of the Wobaoshi landslide are inferred on the basis of175 its characteristics; i.e., the rapid immersion of groundwater softens the joint surface of soil and

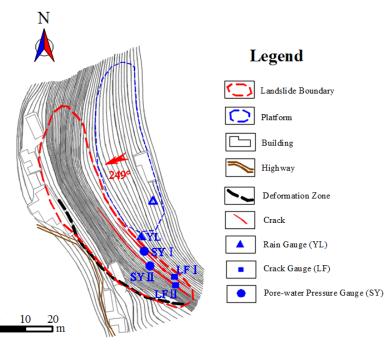
rock formation, especially under a rainstorm. Then, the group of open cracks parallel to the slope 176 177 in the sliding body is concentrated and quickly filled with water, following which groundwater 178 level rises and the pore-water pressure increases sharply, such that the sliding bodies I and II slide 179 horizontally along the contact surface of the bottom sand-mud-rock weak layer. This condition 180 changes the stress mode and equilibrium state of the rock and soil mass, thereby easily inducing a 181 landslide. As shown observation point b and c in Fig. 2, the Wobaoshi landslide seriously threaten 182 residential houses and highways, the houses had cracked and highways had uplifted on its front edge, so this landslides seriously threatens the safety of people's property and transportation. 183

184

185 2. Landslide Monitoring Scheme and Monitoring Data Analysis

186 **2.1. Long-term Monitoring Scheme**

According to the detailed investigation of the Wobaoshi landslide, two cracks extend through 187 188 the sliding surface at the trailing edge of the landslide, and the pore-water in the cracks exists 189 during periodic rainfalls. As the hydrostatic pressure in the cracks strongly influences the stability 190 of the plate-shaped landslide (Fan Xuanmei et al., 2008; Guo Xiaoguang et al., 2013), via real-time monitoring of cracks, rainfall and pore-water pressure measurements were conducted 191 192 from February 2015 to July 2018 to determine the landslide state in different periods such as rainy 193 and non-rainy seasons, together with the interaction between multilevel plate girders and sliding 194 surface. Fig.4 shows the layout graph of the monitoring equipment.



195 196 197

Fig. 4 Layout planar graph of the monitoring equipment

198 As shown in Fig. 4 shows, two non-contact crack automatic monitors, LF I and II, are installed on both sides of cracks I and II, respectively, to record real-time variation of the width of 199 200 the two cracks (Yimin Liu et al., 2015). An automatic rain gauge is installed in flat space and no 201 tree occlusion is observed at the trailing edge of the landslide to record real-time and cumulative 202 values of the rainfall. Two pore-water pressure gauges are installed at the bottom of crack I and II 203 to measure the pore-water pressure. The value of pore-water level, h_c , can be calculated using the 204 relation $h_c = H - h_i + h_s$, where hi is the installation depth of the pore-water pressure gauge; H is 205 the depth of the crack; and h_m is the measured value of the pore-water pressure gauge.

206 In this example, the initial width value of crack I is 5.640 m, and the initial width value of 207 crack II is 4.492 m (the first measurement was conducted in January 2015); the installation depth $h_{il} = 24.72$ m, and the depth of crack I is $H_1 = 38$ m, with $h_{cl} = 13.28$ m + h_{ml} . Additionally, the 208 installation depth $h_{i2} = 24.85$ m, and the depth of crack I is $H_2 = 35$ m, and $h_{c2} = 10.15$ m + h_{m2} . 209 210 The monitoring frequency of the crack width is thrice a day, the monitoring frequency of the 211 pore-water pressure is twice a day, and the rainfall intensity adopts the accumulative value of one 212 month. The multiparameter monitoring data are transmitted to the monitoring server through the 213 GPRS network.

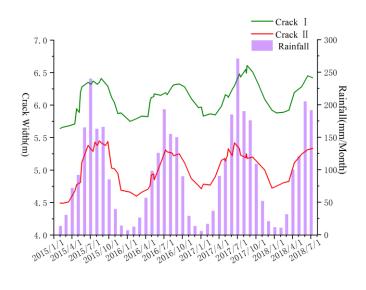


gauge; (c) crack II gauge.

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220 2.2. Monitoring Data Analysis

By the monitoring work performed on the Wobaoshi landslide for three-and-a-half years (February 2015 to July 2018), this study selected the typical data of the width of cracks I and II, the pore-water pressure and the rainfall intensity, details of these monitoring data are in listed in Tables 1 and 2. The corresponding time curves in Fig.6 show the monitoring data of the rainfall intensity and the width of cracks I and II. Fig.7(a) and 7(b) present comparison curves of the monitoring width data of cracks I and II against their pore-water pressures, respectively.



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Fig. 6 Monitoring data curves (rainfall intensity and width of cracks I and II)

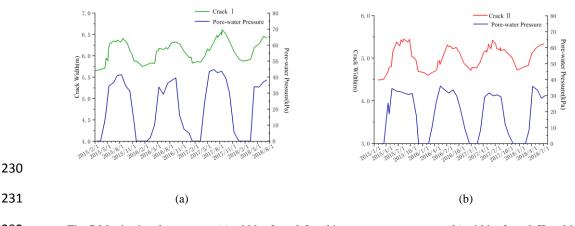


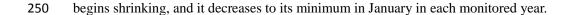
Fig. 7 Monitoring data curves: (a) width of crack I and its pore-water pressure; (b) width of crack II and its
pore-water pressure.



Based on the comprehensive comparison and analysis of the data curves presented in Figs. 6 and 7, this study concludes that the Wobaoshi landslide is still in creep deformation state, and the plate-shaped sliding body exhibits a regular trend with changes in rainfall intensity and pore-water pressure. Cracks I and II show a preferable water-storage capacity during monsoon, and increasing pore-water pressure affects the crack width variation. The specific analysis is as follows.

240 (1) A clear correspondence exits between the absolute amount of crack width change and 241 season change (i.e. change in rainfall intensity); the magnitude of the rainfall intensity determines 242 the change of the width of the two cracks. As shown in Fig. 6, the widths of cracks I and II widen as the rainfall intensity increases during monsoon (May to September), and their crack widths 243 244 gradually decrease as the rainfall intensity lowers during the non-rainy seasons (October to April 245 in the next year). As indicated in Fig. 8, the maximum width of crack I reaches 6.615 m, and the absolute stretching amount of this crack is close to 1 m in the July-August period in 2017 246 247 (monthly rainfall exceeding 250 mm). The maximum width of crack II is also in the range of 248 5.40-5.45 m, and its absolute stretching amount exceeded 1 m during July-August 2015 and

249 July–August 2017. During non-rainy seasons, when the rainfall intensity lowers, the crack width



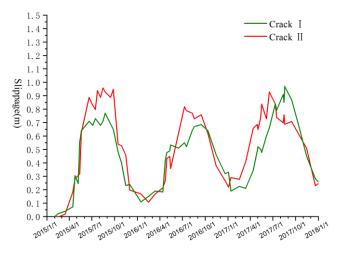




Fig. 8 Absolute slippage amount curves of crack I and II

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(2) The width of cracks I and II tend to increase year by year, indicating that the two-stage sliding body of the Wobaoshi landslide is still moving along the sliding surface because of the influence of rainfall. In Fig. 6, the measured data in the monitoring period indicate that the minimum widths of crack I and II are gradually increasing, and their maximum value is considerably affected by the rainfall intensity of a particular month.

(3) Fig.7 shows that the stretching of cracks I and II, or both follows the same trend as the pore-water pressure, i.e., the magnitude of pore-water pressure determines the width variation of the cracks. Fig.7 also shows that the water-storage capacity of crack I is good during monsoon, and after the sliding body slides, it can maintain a certain pore-water level because of rainfall replenishment. Additionally, the increase in rainfall intensity increases the water level in the cracks, and the increase in pore-water pressure positively affects the initiation of the plate girder.

The curve in Fig. 8 shows that the increase in pore-water pressure has a significant causal relationship with the stretching of the cracks.

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3. Model Calculation and Numerical Simulation

269 To construct a generic model of the evolution process of the Wobaoshi landslide, a 270 geomechanical model of plate-shaped sliding bodies was established, its stability was calculated, 271 and it was combined with monitoring data for a comparative analysis. According to previous 272 findings(Fan, 2007; Fan et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2010), when many penetrating cracks are parallel to 273 the slope in the rock mass, and these cracks are filled with water, the water pressure on both sides 274 of each plate-shaped body attains in a balanced state except for the outermost body. However, 275 once the outer body slides, owing to the sudden decrease of the pore-water level in the trailing 276 edge crack, the water pressure around immediately following plate-shaped body becomes 277 unbalanced, and new sliding damage is induced (Fan, 2007; Xu, 2008).

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279 3.1. Model Establishment and Stability Calculation

280 According to characteristics of the Wobaoshi landslide in Section 1.2, when the geomechanical model is established, the cover layer is neglected, and the static geomechanical 281 282 model of the plate-shaped rock sliding body is established based on the limit equilibrium method. 283 The basic characteristic of the limit equilibrium method is that the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion 284 of the soil in static equilibrium conditions is considered, that is, the problem's solution is solved 285 by analyzing the destruction of the soil's balance. And soli elastic-perfectly plastic model was 286 chosen, which obey the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion and associated flow rules (Darve et al., 287 2004; Labuz et al., 2015).

For the failure mode of the two-stage plate girders of the Wobaoshi landslide, this study selected a typical section of plate-shaped sliding bodies and established the geomechanical model, shown in Fig. 9. In this section, first, a stability analysis of the outer layer plate girder II, is conducted and then the inner plate girder I is analyzed.

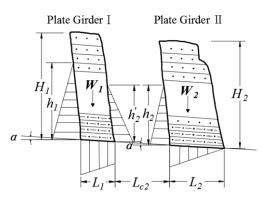




Fig. 9 Geomechanical model of two-stage plate-shaped sliding bodies

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295 In Fig. 9, α is the angle of the sliding surface, h_1 and h_2 are the heights of the pore-water 296 levels in cracks I and II, respectively; L_1 and L_2 are the widths of plate girders I and II, respectively; L_{c2} is the distance between plate girder I and II; H_1 and H_2 are the heights of plate girders I and II; 297 298 respectively, and W_1 and W_2 are the self-weights of plate girders I and II per unit width, 299 respectively. According to the relationship between the stability coefficient of plate girder, K, and 300 the height of the pore-water level, h, shown in Fig. 8 (Zhang et al., 1994; Xu et al., 2010), while 301 considering the internal cohesive force of the sliding surface, the equation to calculate the stability 302 coefficient, K_2 , of the outer layer plate girder II is expressed as follows:

303
$$K_{2} = \frac{\left(W_{2}\cos\alpha - \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{w}h_{2}L_{2} - \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{w}h_{2}^{2}\sin\alpha\right)\tan\theta + cL_{2}}{\frac{1}{2}\gamma_{w}h_{2}^{2}\cos\alpha + W_{2}\sin\alpha}.$$
(1)

In Eq. (1), *c* is the internal cohesion of the sliding surface; γ_r is the saturated gravity of the sandstone; γ_w is the gravity of water; and $W = H \cdot L \cdot \gamma_r$. K_2 is set to 1, i.e., the plate girder II is set in a critical sliding state (GB/T 32864-2016, 2017). Then Eq. (2) of the maximum pore-water level of plate girder II, h_{cr2} , is derived from Eq. (1).

$$h_{cr2} \approx \frac{1}{2\cos\alpha} \left[L_2^2 \tan^2\theta + \frac{8}{\gamma_{_{\#}}} \left(W_2 \cos\alpha \tan\theta - W_2 \sin\alpha + cL_2 \right) \cos\alpha \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{L_2}{2\cos\alpha} \tan\theta$$
(2)

According to the experimental data of the triaxial confining pressure of the Wobaoshi
landslide's rock core (Chen et al., 2015), the internal friction angle of the sliding surface is
$$\theta$$
 =
11.2°, the saturated gravity of the sandstone is $\gamma_r = 19.2$ kN/m³, the gravity of clear water is $\gamma_w =$
9.8 kN/m³, and the internal cohesion of the sliding surface is $c = 10.2$ kPa. According to the
sectional graph of the Wobaoshi landslide (see Fig. 2), $H = 35$ m, $L = 16$ m, and $\alpha = 6°$. Therefore,
according to Eq. (2), $h_{cr2} = 13.896$ m.

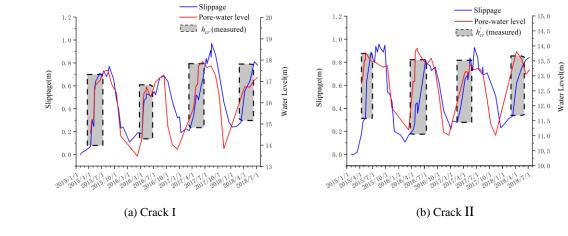
Based on the stability analysis of plate girder II, combined with Eq. (1), Eq. (2), and Fig. 7, the equation to calculate the stability coefficient K_1 of the inner layer plate girder I can be expressed as Eq. (3). In addition, $h_2^{'} = h_2 - L_{c2} \sin \alpha$ and $L_{c2} = 3.8$ m; therefore, $h_2^{'} = 13.499$ m.

318
$$K_{1} = \frac{\left[W_{1} \cos \alpha - \frac{1}{2} \gamma_{W} \left(h_{1} + h_{2}^{'}\right) L_{1} - \frac{1}{2} \gamma_{W} \left(h_{1}^{2} - h_{2}^{'2}\right) \sin \alpha\right] \tan \theta + cL_{1}}{\frac{1}{2} \gamma_{W} \left(h_{1}^{2} - h_{2}^{'2}\right) \cos \alpha + W_{1} \sin \alpha}$$
(3)

Similarly, K_I is set to 1 and, in plate girder I, $H_I = 38$ m, $L_I = 12$ m, $\alpha = 6^\circ$, $h_2 = 13.499$ m, therefore, the maximum pore-water level h_{crI} of plate girder I can be calculated using the Eq. (3) and $h_{crI} = 17.249$ m.

The preceding calculation results show that, when the pore-water level at the trailing edge of the plate girder reaches the maximum height at which the landslide begins, i.e., when $h_{cr1} =$ 17.249m and $h_{cr2} = 13.896$ m, the pore-water pressure triggers the plate-shaped sliding bodies. In next section, the pore-water monitoring data, which were acquired via the landslide monitoring are 326 used to verify the equation.

327 The pore-water monitoring data in Section 2.2, which were acquired via the landslide 328 monitoring engineering, were used to test the equation for calculating the maximum height of 329 multistage plate girders, h_{cr} . According to the monitoring data of the pore-water pressure and the 330 installation depth of the sensors, the actual calculated maximum height values h_{c1} and h_{c2} of the 331 pore-water level are presented in attached Table 3. Combined with the change in the absolute 332 stretching amount in Fig. 8, typical data of the measured pore-water level are selected, 333 corresponding to the sudden change in the absolute slippage (see Table 3 for details), as shown in 334 Fig.10.

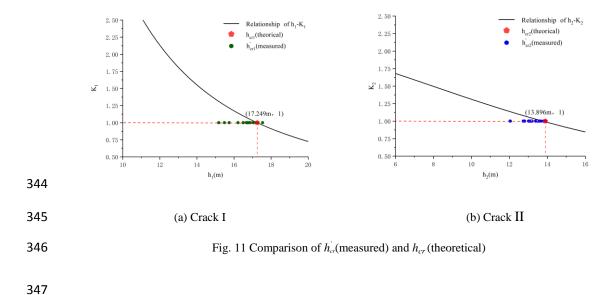


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Fig. 10 Determination of the maximum measured pore-water level $\dot{h_{cr}}$

The dotted boxes in Fig. 10 represent the value of the pore-water level when the bodies are sliding, i.e., the maximum pore-water level, h_{cr} , which causes the sliding body to be unstable. The measured h_{cr} in Fig. 10 can be compared to the relationship between the pore-water level, *h*, and the stability coefficient of the plate girder, *K*, in equation (1) and (3), which are also shown in Fig. 10.



In Fig. 11, the curves of the h-k relationship represent equations (1) and (3). The frequency of $h_{cr}^{'}$ (measured) in Fig. 11 shows that most of the monitoring pore-water levels are not higher than those theoretically calculated. The Wobaoshi landslide monitoring example shows that in most cases, when $h_{cr}^{'}$ (measured) $\leq h_{cr}$ (theoretical), the pore-water pressure causes the instability of the sliding body.

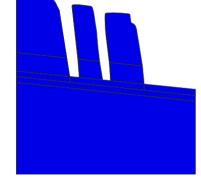
353 **3.2. Numerical Simulation of the Plate-shaped Sliding Bodies**

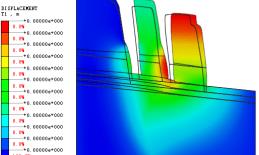
The numerical simulations and calculations of the plate girder were performed using MIDAS 354 355 GTS NX geotechnical finite element software. First, the 1:1 sliding body model in Fig. 9 was introduced into the finite element software, and the mechanical parameters of the sliding body 356 model, i.e., elastic modulus, Poisson's ratio, gravity internal cohesion and friction angel, were 357 defined as shown in Table 4. The position of the right side of the landslide about 30m from the 358 foot of the slope is selected as the right boundary of the model; the lower boundary is setted at the 359 360 elevation of 0 m; the left boundary is located inside the mountain, about 30m away from the plate girder I. The element type adopts a plane strain quadrilateral-triangle mixing element, and the 361 whole model is divided into 13775 elements and 14026 nodes. Here we constrain the vertical and 362 horizontal displacement of its bottom boundary, and the left and right boundary conditions are set 363

to constrain the horizontal displacement. The model uses steady-state seepage calculation, and the 364 water levels at the left and right boundaries were set to 342 and 275 m, respectively. The boundary 365 366 conditions are set as follows.

(1) For the displacement boundary, the left and right boundaries constrained the displacement 367 in the X-direction; i.e., TX = 0. For the bottom boundary, the displacement in the X and Y 368 directions was constrained; i.e., TX = TY = 0. 369

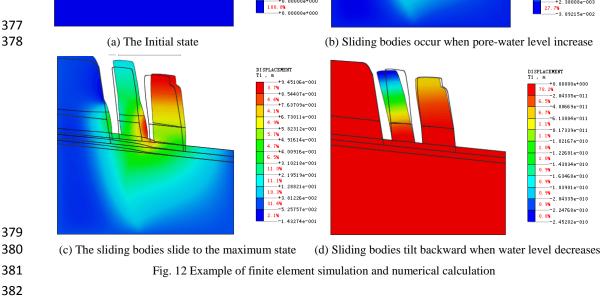
- 370 (2) For the seepage conditions, the water levels at the left and right boundaries were set to 371 342 and 275 m, respectively.
- The typical pore-water-level data in the crack I and crack II presented in Table 3 were 372 introduced into the finite element model, and were selected for a typical change period presented 373 in Table 5, followed by numerical calculations to obtain the typical deformation and displacement 374 375 states of plate-shaped sliding bodies in the rainy and non-rainy seasons, as shown in Fig. 12.
- 376

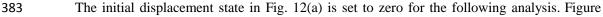












12(b) shows that, under the combined effect of the pore-water pressure and seepage, the multistage plate girders slide horizontally along the sliding surface. In Fig. 12(c), the multistage plate girders have slid to the maximum distance, where the maximum distance of slider II is 0.945 m, which is close to the value obtained in the monitoring data. In Fig. 12(d), owing to the decrease in pore-water level in the non-rainy season, sliding bodies I and II have the same tendency to tilt backward. Therefore, the calculation results of the numerical simulation can corroborate the sliding-body mechanics model and the landslide monitoring data.

391

392 **4. Discussion**

393 As mentioned in the previous sections, this special type of translational landslide, which has a 394 plate-shaped sliding body and is generally formed in an extremely thick sandstone slope with a 395 thin cover layer, is nearly horizontal and has good integrity. According to the traditional theory of granular equilibrium limit, deformation or sliding movement of this nearly horizontal bedrock 396 397 slope is nearly impossible, and the likelihood of forming a landslide is minimal. However, this 398 special structure of translational landslide widely occurs in the Qinba-Longnan mountainous area 399 during the investigation of geological hazard hidden dangers. Therefore, in the investigation and 400 risk assessment of geological hazards, the characteristics of the plate-shaped landslide and the 401 deformation and failure mode should be combined to detect the hidden dangers with the 402 geological conditions of the landslide. Combining the results of previous studies with those of the 403 monitoring, the discussion herein is divided in the following three parts.

404 4.1. Deformation and Failure Mode Exploration of the Wobaoshi Landslide

The monitoring results of the Wobaoshi landslide in this case validate the rainfall-triggered failure mode of the translational landslide (Zhang Zhuoyuan et al., 1994). According to the landslide monitoring data, particularly the change trend of the cracks opening and closing in Section 2.2, and the numerical simulations of the plate-shaped sliding bodies in Section 3.2, the 409 deformation and failure mode of the landslide were obtained, as shown in Fig. 13. Fig. 13 shows 410 the deformation of the plate-shaped sliding bodies in the Wobaoshi landslide during the 411 monitoring period (non-rainy season-rainy season-non-rainy season). As shown in Fig. 13(b), the 412 large amount of rainfall in monsoon causes the cracks to be filled with water; when the pore-water level reaches the maximum height at which the landslide begins, the increased pore-water pressure 413 414 positively affects the initiation of the plate-shaped sliding body (Fan Xuanmei et al., 2007). When 415 the pore-water pressure rises to the threshold value, the plate-shaped landslide can be triggered. In 416 this monitoring case, the pore-water pressure can push the plate-shaped sliding body by nearly 1 m, 417 resulting in the uplift of residential houses and highways on its leading edge. Therefore, we can infer that one or more penetrating cracks are likely parallel to the slope in the landslide body. With 418 the approach of the rainy season, the plate-shaped sliding body II begins to slide first and the 419 420 water pressure balance in the cracks is destabilized. This condition causes the gliding of the 421 plate-shaped sliding body I, thus forming a multistage translational landslide with characteristic 422 step-by-step backward movement.



423 424

Fig. 13 Schematic of deformation and failure mode of the Wobaoshi landslide



426 As shown in Fig. 13(c), the plate girder is tilted to the trailing edge by the lower pore-water 427 level and its own weight with less rain during the non-rainy season, thereby causing the plate 428 girder to fall backward (inside the slope) until the top of the plate girder is in contact with the 429 slope surface, the crack width begins shrinking, and a narrow A-shaped crack is formed. 430 Monitoring data of the Wobaoshi landslide and numerical simulation of plate-shaped sliding body 431 also verify the deformation and failure mode of the plate-shaped landslide post landslide 432 occurrence (Xu et al., 2010). Year after year, the cracks at the bottom of the slab-shaped sliding 433 body grow larger, and the degree of inclination of the plate girder continues to increase. The

degree of arching of the front edge also increases, which causes the stability of the landslide to
decrease continuously, thereby posing a high risk for the houses and roads on the front edge of the
landslide.

437 **4.2. Determination of Maximum Pore-water Level** *h*_{cr}

438 The theoretical analysis and stability calculation of the geomechanical model of the plate girder is described in Section 4.1, together with the initiation criterion for multistage sliding 439 440 bodies of translational landslide, i.e., determination of the maximum water height in the crack, h_{cr} , (Zhang et al., 1994) and calculation of the sliding body's stability coefficient, K, (Xu et al., 2010), 441 442 which is determined by the theoretical calculation of strata inclination, shape, weight, and physical 443 properties (such as saturated gravity, γ_r , internal cohesion of the sliding surface, c, and internal 444 friction angle of the sliding surface, θ) based on the limit equilibrium theory (Lin et al., 2010). 445 Therefore, the stability coefficient of the landslide exponentially decreases with the increase in the 446 water-filling height of the trailing edge crack (Fan, 2008; Xu et al., 2010).

447 The internal friction angle, $\theta = 11.2^{\circ}$, is so low for clay, which seems unrealistic. However, 448 the angle θ is obtained by triaxial compression tests of the core, which is taken from the sand-mudstone contact surface in sliding surface, and the internal friction angle $\theta = 11.2$ °(Chen et 449 al., 2015). One of the reasons may be that the clay layer is severely weathered, so its internal 450 451 friction angle is small. In general, the dilatancy effect obtained by the associated flow law is much 452 larger than the actual observation, especially in the case of laternal infinite (Tschuchnigg et al., 453 2015a). However, for slope stability analysis, laternal infinite is not considered in most cases, and the dilatancy effect is not significant (Griffiths & Lane, 1999). Therefore, it is reasonable to set the 454 dilatancy angle to be equal to the internal friction angle. 455

In this case, in the equation for calculating the maximum pore-water level, h_{cr} , deduced in Section 3.1, comparing the measured data of the Wobaoshi landslide in Section 2.2, we can observe that the measured maximum pore-water level, h_{cr} , is close to the theoretical maximum pore-water level, h_{cr} , thus validating the calculation equation of h_{cr} , and the instability conditions of the sliding bodies. Additionally, the most measured data in Tab. 3 are slightly smaller than the

theoretical calculation value, i.e., $h_{cr} \leq h_{cr}$. Thus, compared with the calculation equation of the 461 462 maximum water height proposed by Zhang et al. (1994) and the physical simulation experiment 463 conducted by Fan et al. (2008), the monitoring case of the Wobaoshi landslide shows that the 464 measured data h_{cr} is mostly lower than the theoretical calculated value, h_{cr} , which can cause 465 instability of the sliding body. The reason for this instability may be that the actual cohesion value 466 c' of the sand-shale contact surface is smaller than the cohesive force value c of the sliding surface 467 in equation (2) during the creep state of the landslide for a long duration or that the frictional angle 468 of the sliding surface, θ , changes slightly. According to the calculation of the stability coefficient, K, in equation (2), when $c' \le c$, $h_{cr} \le h_{cr}$ is obtained, the plate girder slides in the case wherein h_{cr} 469 (measured) is not larger than h_{cr} (theoretical). 470

471 4.3. Optimization Methods of Landslide Monitoring

Focusing on the plate-shaped translational landslide through the existing field monitoring result experience and deformation and failure mode exploration, this study proposes the long- term monitoring method with more parameters referring to the characteristics of suchlandslides.

475 First, long- term monitoring should be conducted to obtain sufficient monitoring data, which mainly includes obtaining groundwater level, pore-water pressure, rainfall intensity, and 476 477 displacement data on the front edge of the landslide during monsoon, as well as focusing on the change of overall inclination of the plate girder during the non-rainy season. This is because the 478 inclination angle α relative to the sliding surface also changes after the sliding of the plate girder. 479 480 Thus, the inclination measuring device which consists of three-axis accelerometer and electronic compass should be installed in the sliding body, to verify the theoretical exploration of 481 deformation mode of the plate-shaped sliding body in the non-rainy season in Fig. 13(c). 482 483 Furthermore, a sensitivity analysis of various parameters affecting the stability coefficient K of the 484 sliding body (such as the pore-water level, internal cohesive force in saturated water, internal friction angle of the sliding surface, and inclination angle of the plate girder) should be conducted on the basis of the monitoring data. Therefore, an in-depth analysis and exploration of the deformation and failure mode of the plate-shaped landslide would be beneficial and would improve the success rate of landslide warning.

489

490 **5.** Conclusions

Considering the case of the Wobaoshi landslide as an example, this study uses research methods such as field exploration, a long- term monitoring engineering, geomechanical model analysis and numerical simulation to deeply analyze the instability conditions and failure characteristics of a special type of translational landslide. The research results are beneficial to the stability analysis and evaluation of this type of landslide. Targeted monitoring methods are proposed to enrich theoretical research on the translational landslide. The following conclusions are drawn:

498 (1) The characteristics, formation conditions, and occurrence mechanism of rainfall-triggered 499 translational plate-shaped landslides are summarized herein. Such landslides generally exists in a consequent slope with the inclination angle of the sliding surface being less than 10°, and a group 500 501 of long and straight structural planes parallel to the slope cuts the slope into several thin plates. 502 The plate-shaped sliding body generally contains extremely thick sandstone, which is nearly 503 horizontal and has good integrity. The bottom sliding zone is a weak mudstone interlayer affected 504 by periodic rainfalls. In addition, single-stage or multistage plate-shaped sliding bodies slide 505 horizontally along the bottom mudstone sliding zone.

506 (2) Based the mechanical model of the plate-shaped sliding bodies, the relationship between 507 the stability coefficient of the multistage sliding body, *K*, and the pore-water level, *h*, was obtained, 508 and the maximum pore-water level, h_{cr} , which causes the instability of multi-stage plate girders 509 was calculated. The instability conditions of the plate-shaped sliding bodies were also determined.

510 (3) Theoretical conclusions of the plate-shaped landslide research were verified using the long-term monitoring data. The multiparameter monitoring data show that the stability of the 511 512 sliding body is considerably affected by the rainfall intensity and pore-water pressure. The 513 pore-water pressure in the crack is positive for the beginning of the plate-shaped sliding body, 514 which demonstrates the rainfall-triggered failure mode of the translational landslide. This study 515 compares and analyzes the measured maximum pore-water level h_{cr} and theoretical calculated value h_{cr} , and discusses the influence in the change of internal cohesive force and internal friction 516 517 angle on the stability coefficient of the sliding body.

518 (4) Combined with landslide numerical simulation, this study analyzes and explores the 519 deformation and failure modes of the plate-shaped landslide, i.e., combined with the pore-water 520 pressure in the crack and seepage effect in monsoon, the sliding bodies will slide horizontally along the contact surface of the bottom sand-mud rock weak layer. During the non-rainy season, 521 522 the pore-water pressure decreases and disappears; the sliding body, owing to its dead weight, will 523 be inclined to the trailing edge. On this basis, this study proposes an optimized monitoring methodology to closely monitor the pore-water pressure, rainfall, and landslide frontal 524 525 displacement during monsoon, proposed method focuses on the overall inclination angle change 526 of the plate girder during the non-rainy season.

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608 **Figure Captions**

- Fig. 1. Geographical location and elevation map of the Wobaoshi landslide.
- Fig. 2. Topographic map of the Wobaoshi landslide and photographs of observation
- 611 points: (a) exposed bedrock at the front edge; (b) the houses had cracked at the front
- edge (c) the roadbed is pushed uplifted at the front edge; (d) crack II and bent trees;

and (e) crack I.

- Fig. 3. I- I' sectional graph of the landslide.
- Fig. 4. Layout planar graph of the monitoring equipment.
- Fig. 5. Photos of installation the monitoring instruments: (a) crack I gauge; (b) rain
- 617 gauge and pore-water pressure gauge; and (c) crack II gauge.
- Fig. 6. Monitoring data curves (rainfall intensity and width of cracks I and II).
- Fig. 7. Monitoring data curves: (a) width of crack I and its pore-water pressure; (b)
- 620 width of crack II and its pore-water pressure.
- Fig. 8. Absolute slippage amount curves of cracks I and II.
- Fig. 9. Geomechanical model of two-stage plate-shaped sliding bodies.
- Fig. 10 Determination of the maximum measured pore-water level h_{cr} .
- Fig. 11. Comparison figure of h_{cr} (measured) and h_{cr} (theoretical).
- Fig. 12 Example of finite element simulation and numerical calculation.
- Fig. 13 Schematic of the deformation and failure mode of the Wobaoshi landslide.

628 Table

Table 1Typical monitoring data of the Wobaoshi landslide

| | Measurement duration | | Cra | nck I wi | dth (m) | Cracl | Crack II width (m) | | Crack I Pore-water pressure (kPa) | | er C | Crack II Pore-water pressure (kPa) | | | | |
|--|-------------------------|-------|----------------|-------------|----------|----------------|-------------------------|---------|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------|--------|--|--|
| | 2015 | /2/1 | | 5.64 | 0 | | 4.492 | | | 0 | | | 0 | | | |
| | 2015/ | 4/24 | | 5.94 | 5 | 4.774 18.561 | | 561 | | 27.303 | | | | | | |
| | 2015 | /5/7 | | 5.88 | 6 | | 4.798 4.810 | | 18.649 33.134 | | | 33.212 | | | | |
| | 2015/ | 5/13 | | 6.20 | 3 | | | | | | | 33.036 | | | | |
| | 2015/ | 5/15 | | 6.215 | | | 4.899 | | | 34.476 | | | 35.456 | | | |
| | 2015/ | /8/15 | | 6.35 | 0 | | 5.451 | | 41.474 | | | 31.625 | | | | |
| | 2015/ | 9/14 | | 6.33 | 0 | | 5.380 | | | 34.594 | | | 30.772 | | | |
| | 2015/ | 11/15 | 5.871 | | | | 4.952 | | 11.280 | | | 17.395 | | | | |
| | 2016/ | 2/15 | | 5.79 | 0 | | 4.599 4.706 4.850 | | 0 | | | 0 | | | | |
| | 2016/ | 4/13 | | 5.82 | 4 | | | | 10.378 | | | 26.156 | | | | |
| | 2016/ | /5/14 | | 6.17 | 3 | | | | 33.810 | | | 36.035 | | | | |
| | 2016/ | /7/17 | | 6.16 | 1 | 5.281 | | | 36.162 | | | 31.664 | | | | |
| | 2016/ | /8/18 | | 6.31 | 0 | | 5.220 5.251 | | | 38.024 39.298 | | | 33.683 29.723 | | | |
| | 2016/ | 9/15 | | 6.32 | 5 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2016/ | 12/20 | | 5.960 | | | 4.763 | | | 5.106 | | 0 | | | | |
| | 2017/ | 2/16 | | 5.865 | | | 4.770 0 | | | | 0 | | | | | |
| 2017/4/13 2017/5/17 2017/7/17 2017/8/15 2017/11/14 2017/12/20 2018/1/11 2018/4/10 2018/5/17 2018/6/16 | | | 5.984 6.118 | | | 5.152 5.332 | | | 24.108 43.463 | | 29.155 31.703 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 6.433 | | | 5.239 42.787 | | | | 30.478 | | | | | | |
| | | | 6.490 6.091 | | | 5.255 | | | 43.639 | | | 29.273 | | | | |
| | | | | | | 5.004 | | 5.488 | | | 8.428 | | | | | |
| | | | 5.922 | | | 4.723 | | | 0 | | | 0 | | | | |
| | | | 5.881 | | | 4.751 | | | 0 | | 0 | | | | | |
| | | | 6.194 | | | 5.110 | | | 33.957 | | 35.819 | | | | | |
| | | | 6.283 6.452 | | | 5.246 5.315 | | | 33.830 36.995 | | | 33.438 28.391 | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2018/7/10 | | | 6.42 | 6.421 5.310 | | | 38.171 | | | | 29.841 | | | | | |
| 630 63 <u>1</u> | | | Tab | ole 2 | Rainfall | intensity | value of | the Wol | baoshi land | slide (mn | n/month] |) | | | | |
| | Month Year | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | Total | | |
| _ | 2015 | | 13.5 | 30.5 | 71.8 | 121.9 | 165.0 | 240.1 | 163.0 | 166.1 | 85.0 | 39.6 | 14.1 | 1110.6 | | |
| | 2016 | 6.9 | 12.5 | 26.5 | 56.8 | 98.4 | 126.1 | 193.2 | 155.1 | 150.0 | 90.3 | 29.1 | 13.5 | 958.4 | | |
| | 2017 | 5.7 | 16.8 | 36.8 | 90.5 | 115.6 | 185.1 | 271.3 | 190.0 | 176.2 | 109 | 52.1 | 20.8 | 1269.9 | | |
| _ | 2018 | 11.5 | 10.9 | 31.5 | 99.9 | 121.0 | 205.1 | 191.6 | \ | \ | \ | \ | ١ | 671.5 | | |

| Table 3 Measured pore-water level data of the sliding bodies | | | | | |
|--|--------------|----------------------|--------------|----------------------|--|
| Measured time | Crack I | Measured | Crack II | Measured | |
| Measured time | slippage (m) | pore-water level (m) | slippage (m) | pore-water level (m) | |
| 2015/4/15 | 0.072 | 14.566 | 0.183 | 12.736 | |
| 2015/4/24 | 0.305 | 15.174 | 0.282 | 12.936 | |
| 2015/5/7 | 0.246 | 15.183 | 0.306 | 13.539 | |
| 2015/5/13 | 0.561 | 16.661 | 0.318 | 13.521 | |
| 2015/5/15 | 0.573 | 16.798 | 0.407 | 13.768 | |
| 2015/6/20 | 0.711 | 17.032 | 0.888 | 13.502 | |
| 2015/7/17 | 0.519 | 17.474 | 0.798 | 13.471 | |
| 2015/10/16 | 0.481 | 16.470 | 0.538 | 13.340 | |
| 2015/11/15 | 0.229 | 14.431 | 0.458 | 11.925 | |
| 2016/1/15 | 0.108 | \ | 0.169 | \ | |
| 2016/4/13 | 0.184 | 13.490 | 0.214 | 12.819 | |
| 2016/4/23 | 0.421 | 14.339 | 0.269 | 12.804 | |
| 2016/4/29 | 0.475 | 16.214 | 0.432 | 13.835 | |
| 2016/5/11 | 0.469 | 16.494 | 0.449 | 13.920 | |
| 2016/5/14 | 0.531 | 16.505 | 0.358 | 13.827 | |
| 2016/6/15 | 0.508 | 16.731 | 0.618 | 13.574 | |
| 2016/9/15 | 0.683 | 17.312 | 0.758 | 13.183 | |
| 2016/10/12 | 0.637 | 14.930 | 0.618 | 12.360 | |
| 2017/2/16 | 0.223 | \ | 0.278 | \ | |
| 2017/4/13 | 0.344 | 15.741 | 0.658 | 13.125 | |
| 2017/4/29 | 0.489 | 16.712 | 0.686 | 13.141 | |
| 2017/5/2 | 0.518 | 16.799 | 0.648 | 13.024 | |
| 2017/5/13 | 0.501 | 16.877 | 0.734 | 13.161 | |
| 2017/5/17 | 0.476 | 17.715 | 0.838 | 13.385 | |
| 2017/8/15 | 0.848 | 17.733 | 0.758 | 13.137 | |
| 2017/9/16 | 0.869 | 16.324 | 0.333 | 12.235 | |
| 2018/3/14 | 0.281 | / | 0.618 | 11.013 | |
| 2018/4/10 | 0.552 | 16.745 | 0.754 | 13.805 | |
| 2018/5/17 | 0.643 | 16.732 | 0.333 | 13.562 | |

 Table 4
 Mechanical parameters of the sliding body model

| | Elastic | Poisson | | Internal | Internal | Permeability |
|----------------|---------------------|---------|-------------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Lithology | Modulus | | Gravity (N) | Cohesion | Friction | Coefficient |
| | (N/m ²) | Ratio | | (N/m ²) | Angle | (cm/s) |
| Arkose | 600000 | 0.25 | 19200 | 30000 | 36 [°] | 1.20E-07 |
| Silty Mudstone | 360000 | 0.28 | 19000 | 20000 | 30 [°] | 6.00E-07 |
| Clay | 300000 | 0.3 | 18000 | 10200 | 11.2 [°] | 1.20E-06 |

| Crack I | Crack II |
|----------|--|
| 314.50 m | 311.00 m |
| 316.00 m | 313.00 m |
| 317.50 m | 315.00 m |
| 316.00 m | 313.00 m |
| 314.50 m | 311.00 m |
| | 314.50 m 316.00 m 317.50 m 316.00 m |

 Table 5
 Loading steps of the water level in Crack I and II in FEM model