

# Experimental Preliminary Analysis of the Fluid Drag Effect in Rapid and Long-runout Flowlike Landslides

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## Research Article

**Keywords:** Flowlike landslides, Drag force, Experimental Analysis, Two-phase

**Posted Date:** June 21st, 2021

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-616229/v1>

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**Abstract:** During a landslide, the multi-phase nature of landslide debris defines its mobility.

Eventually, frictional forces cause the slide energy to dissipate, and contact forces transmit the energy into nearby material. To analyze the dynamic characteristics of high-velocity long-runout landslides, we conducted flume model tests to empirically determine the mobility characteristics of flow-like landslides with various slide materials. Our conclusions are as follows: (1) Liquid-phase flow-like landslides are highly mobility and have long runout; solid-phase flow-like landslides are highly destructive because of their higher kinetic energy; and two-phase flow-like landslides are both highly mobility. (2) During a two-phase flow-like landslide, the mobility ability of the liquid-phase material is stronger than that of the solid-phase material; when the liquid slide volume fraction is sufficiently large, the liquid phase exerts a drag force on the solid phase. (3) Various liquids exert different drag effects on the solid; the solid-liquid velocity difference and the liquid viscosity determine the drag intensity and the mobility and depositional characteristics of the landslide.

20 Keywords: Flowlike landslides; Drag force; Experimental Analysis; Two-phase

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21     **1. INTRODUCTION**

22       A landslide occurs when rock, debris, and/or soil falls down a slope under the influence of  
23       gravity ([Valagussa et al., 2019](#)). During a landslide, there are dynamic interactions between the  
24       slide material and other media in various phases (solid, gas, and liquid) that shape the mobility  
25       characteristics of the landslide. While frictional forces cause the energy of the slide to dissipate,  
26       contact forces transfer the energy from the slide material to nearby media. All energy loss during  
27       a landslide is caused by friction ([Sassa, 1988](#)). Within a landslide, internal energy transfer  
28       between the debris particles supplies the front part of the debris flow with energy from the rear  
29       part of the slide, which enables the slide to achieve high velocities and, consequently, long  
30       runouts ([Eisbacher, 1979; Gassen and Cruden, 1990; Ge et al., 2020](#)). Previous studies proposed  
31       that a gas buoyancy force exists at the bottom of a landslide that reduces the friction of the slide  
32       and increases both the slide runout distance and the amount of damage imparted by the landslide  
33       ([Kent, 1966; Shreve, 1986; Habib, 1975](#)). Landslide liquefaction effect occurs when a saturated  
34       slide shears rapidly with respect the boundary layer, which results in a high pore water pressure in the  
35       liquid sliding material. This excessive pore pressure decreases the effective stress between adjacent  
36       solid particles, reduces the kinetic friction of the landslide, and increases the slide runout distance  
37       ([Castro, 1975; Evans, 2001; Sassa et al., 2004; Iverson et al., 2016](#)).

38       When the liquid volume fraction of a slide is sufficiently large, it results in a two-phase  
39       (solid-liquid) flow slide. In this type of slide, the solid-liquid interactions generate a buoyancy force  
40       that is oriented perpendicular to the slide mobility direction and a flow drag force that is oriented  
41       parallel to the slide mobility direction. These landslides, which are characterized by high velocities,  
42       long runouts, complex dynamics, and flow-like mobility characteristics, are collectively known as  
43       flow-like landslides. These catastrophic landslide hazards pose a significant threat to nearby

44 communities (Varnes, 1978; Hutchinson, 1988; Hungr et al., 2001).

45 Because it is difficult to accurately characterize the dynamic behavior of a landslide by  
46 observing it after the fact, physical models are often employed to study these flow-like landslides  
47 (Bedford and Drumheller, 1983; Johnson, 1990; Iverson, 1997; Iverson and Denlinger, 2001).  
48 Using glass beads as the sliding material, Savage and Hutter (1989) investigated the basal  
49 resistance model of the granular flow in collapsing rock, snow, and ice masses. Okura et al.  
50 (2002) explored the landslide instability process using a large flume model and concluded that a  
51 landslide slides down the slope because high excess pore water pressure is generated at the toe of  
52 the slope. Based on the results of numerous laboratory experiments related to landslide debris flows,  
53 Iverson (1997, 2001, 2003, 2009, 2011) concluded that pore water pressure and landslide path  
54 roughness are the key factors that determine the landslide runout. Sassa (1988, 1998, 2000, 2004)  
55 maintained that the ring shear test, used in conjunction with numerical simulations (specifically the  
56 RAPID software), results in the most accurate reproduction of the landslide mobility process. Huang  
57 (2013, 2014) used ring shear tests and numerical simulations to investigate the mobility of flow-like  
58 landslides. Ahmadipur et al. (2019) investigated the effect of basal friction on the velocity and impact  
59 force of flow-like landslides using flume tests. While many studies explore flow-like landslides using  
60 physical models, most of these studies focus on modeling the solid-solid interactions in these  
61 landslides. However, because the basal friction and the impact force are affected by the pore water  
62 pressure in the landslide boundary layer, it is necessary to investigate the dynamic characteristics of  
63 two-phase landslides.

64 Of the eleven distinct types of landslide flows (Varnes, 1978; Hungr, 2014), the most  
65 important flow types are the debris flow (e.g. the Zhouqu landslide (Tang et al, 2011)), the debris  
66 avalanche (e.g. the Jiweishan landslide (Yin et al, 2010)), the debris flood (e.g. the Vancouver

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67 landslide ([Hung et al, 2001](#))), the earth flow (e.g. the Yining landslide ([Yang et al, 2019](#))), and  
68 the mud flow (e.g. the Shenzhen landslide ([Gao et al, 2019](#))). Some of these terms, such as debris  
69 avalanche, earth flow, and peat flow, refer to single-phase (solid or liquid) medium landslides, while  
70 other flow types, such as debris flow and debris flood, are two-phase landslides defined by the  
71 presence of a free liquid. In this study, we conducted flume model tests to quantify the mobility  
72 characteristics of flow-like landslides composed of different materials. The objective of this paper is  
73 to approve important role of fluid drag effect in rapid and long-runout flowlike landslides, when the  
74 liquid volume fraction of a two-phase landslide is sufficiently large. In the remainder of the  
75 manuscript we describe the series of flume model tests conducted on two-phase materials of flow  
76 like landslide, various liquids drag test on the solid to achieve this objective.

77 **2. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY**

78 **2.1 Test objectives and framework**

79 Using two sets of flume tests, we observed the mobility characteristics of solid, liquid, and  
80 solid-liquid landslides, analyzed the mobilities of different phase media, and determined how the  
81 drag effects of various liquids control the mobility characteristics of two-phase landslides. In the  
82 first set of flume tests, we created slides with varying proportions of liquid and solid debris to  
83 assess how the slide material affects the landslide mobility and deposition. In the second set of  
84 flume tests, we used three different slide materials (gravel, gravel with mud, and gravel with  
85 water) to determine how the drag created by different liquid phases (mud and water) affects the  
86 solid phase (gravels). The initial slide material, limestone debris and clay mud, is an accurate  
87 analog for real landslide material.

88 **2.2 Test site layout**

89 **Flume equipment:** To facilitate omnidirectional observation of the flume test, we used a

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90 transparent side plate that was marked with grid lines. The flume dimensions are 300 cm × 50 cm  
91 × 50 cm (length × width × side plate height). The rest of the chute consisted of a stainless-steel  
92 bottom plate and a 50 cm × 50 cm × 50 cm slide hopper that was closed and undrained. The  
93 angle of inclination is uniformly selected as 20°. A hydraulic switch-type baffle plate was  
94 installed at the outlet of the hopper. An adjustable laser rangefinder was installed directly above  
95 the flume.

96       **Data recording equipment:** To record the deposition state of the slide after a flume test, we  
97 placed a high-speed camera at the front end of the bottom plate. In order to observe the  
98 microscopic characteristics of the gravel landslide in real time, we placed high-speed cameras at  
99 the front of the bottom plate, on the sides of the flume, above the flume, and inside the flume.

100      **2.3 Sample preparation**

101       The three main materials used in the chute tests were pure water, limestone gravel with a  
102 particle size of 20–30 mm (Fig. 2a), and viscous mud consisting of water and fine-grained soil  
103 with a clay particle size of 0.005–0.05 mm, (Fig. 2b).

104       We prepared six different slide materials (Table 1):

- 105       ● Test T-01: 100 kg of air-dried limestone gravel with a particle size of 20–30 cm
- 106       ● Test T-02: 50 kg of mud with a soil-water ratio of 1:2 that was poured into 50 kg of  
107 gravel, completely filling the spaces between individual pieces of gravel
- 108       ● Test T-03: 100 kg of mud with a soil-water ratio of 1:2
- 109       ● Test T-04: 200 kg of limestone gravel
- 110       ● Test T-05: 100 kg of water poured onto 100 kg of limestone gravel
- 111       ● Test T-06: 100 kg of mud with a soil-water ratio of 1:2 poured into 100 kg of limestone

112      **2.4 Test process**

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113 After loading the appropriate slide material, we used the hydraulic control valve to lift the  
114 baffle plate at the front of the hopper, releasing the landslide material. We used multiple  
115 high-speed cameras to record the evolution of the landslide mobility and deposition. The  
116 deposition state of the post-sliding landslide was captured using a high-speed camera.  
117 We analyzed the photographic images to investigate how the different liquids affected the drag  
118 force experienced by the gravel and to determine the extent to which the slide material controls  
119 the runout distance. For the slides with water as the fluid medium, the impact velocity of the  
120 slide and pressure differences in the water caused the back of the slide to rapidly catch up to the  
121 front of the slide. For the slides with mud as the fluid medium, the front, middle, and rear  
122 sections of the gravel largely stayed in the same relative positions throughout the landslide due to  
123 the drag effect. Using high-speed camera to record the front of the sliding body to different  
124 positions at different times. We can calculate the velocity and acceleration of the gravel.

125 **3. RESULTS**

126 In this study, we devised two different types of experiments. In the first set of experiments,  
127 solid gravel, mud, and a mixture of mud and gravel slid freely in the flume (which has an  
128 inclination of 20°). These experiments were undertaken so that we could better understand how  
129 the slide material affects the sliding distance, depositional characteristics, and the mobility  
130 velocity and acceleration. In the second set of experiments, solid gravel, a mixture of mud and  
131 gravel, and a mixture of water and gravel freely down the same inclined flume. We then analyzed  
132 the sliding distance, depositional characteristics, and the mobility velocity and acceleration for  
133 each slide to determine how the drag force experienced by the slide material was affected by the  
134 presence of different fluids. Through literature reading and experimental observations, high pore

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135 water pressure is only true for materials with a void ratio higher than the void ratio at critical  
136 state at the sliding main body current effective confining stress([Jeffries and Been, 2019](#)).  
137 Through literature gathering and experimental observations([Park, et al. 2004; Peker and Helvacı,](#)  
138 [2011; Shi, et al. 2017](#)), the drag force plays a significant role to compare the pore water pressure,  
139 when the fluid volume fraction and gravel pore ratio in two-phase flow are large enough.

140 **3.1 The first set of tests: solid, liquid, and solid-liquid two-phase flow**

141 For these three experiments, we placed ~100 kg of materials, T-01, T-02, and T-03, in the  
142 hopper. As each slide slid freely down the inclined flume, we recorded the mobility and  
143 depositional characteristics of the landslide.

144 **(1) Experiment T-01: 100 kg of gravel**

145 In this test, not all the slide material left the hopper; only the front particles slid down the  
146 flume, leaving most of the gravel inside the hopper. Most pieces of gravel were deposited at the  
147 very beginning of the flume, and very few gravel particles made it out of the flume and landed  
148 on the bottom plate. Our observations for test T-01 are as follows:

149 ● The solid gravel slid freely in the inclined flume toward the toe of the slope over a  
150 period of 4 s.

151 ● The front part of the slide slid down the chute and was deposited at the beginning of the  
152 flume. A few pieces of gravel rushed out of the flume and reached the bottom plate.

153 ● Post-sliding measurements indicated that the maximum mobility distance for most of  
154 the gravel was ~120 cm, with a few pieces traveling as far as 450 cm.

155 ● According to the high-speed camera images, the maximum mobility velocity of the slide  
156 reached ~90 cm/s and it had a maximum acceleration of ~90 cm/s<sup>2</sup>. The slide rapidly accelerated  
157 and decelerated over time intervals of 1.6 s and 2.4 s, respectively.

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158       **(2) Experiment T-02: 100 kg of gravel and mud**

159       Some of the two-phase flow slide quickly exited the flume. Due to the interaction between  
160       the mud and the gravel, after the gravel left the hopper, the fluid mud facilitated the mobility of  
161       the gravel down the chute. As shown in Figure 3b, the mud fluid exhibited fluid-like behavior by  
162       flowing around the obstructions created by gravel clusters in the middle of the leading edge of  
163       the slide. As a result, the slide runout was greater than that of the gravel slide. Our observations  
164       for test T-02 are as follows:

- 165       ● The gravel slid down the inclined flume over a period of 13 s.
- 166       ● The slide flowed around solid obstructions in the middle of the leading edge of the slide; the slide material was deposited throughout the entirety of the chute without actually exiting the  
167       chute
- 169       ● The maximum mobility distance of the slide was 280 cm.
- 170       ● The maximum mobility velocity of the slide ~120 cm/s and the maximum acceleration  
171       was ~120 cm/s<sup>2</sup>. The slide exhibited rapid acceleration and a more drawn-out, flow-like  
172       deceleration over time intervals of 1.6 s and 11.4 s, respectively.

173       **(3) Experiment T-03: 100 kg of mud fluid**

174       The slide rushed out of the hopper, flowed down the flume and was deposited on the bottom  
175       plate. All of the mud slid out of the hopper; the flow-like behavior of the slide was evident in the  
176       streamlined, protruding alluvial fan pattern created during the slide depositional phase. Our  
177       observations of test T-03 are as follows:

- 178       ● The mud fluid material slid down the inclined flume over a time period of 5 s.
- 179       ● The slide material was deposited throughout the entire flume, creating a fluid  
180       depositional fan pattern.

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- 181       ● The longest mobility distance of the slide was 380 cm.
- 182       ● According to the high-speed camera images, the maximum velocity of the slide reached
- 183       ~190 cm/s and its maximum acceleration was ~190 cm/s<sup>2</sup>. As expected for a flow-like landslide,
- 184       this slide exhibited rapid acceleration and more protracted deceleration over time intervals of 1.8
- 185       s and 3.2 s, respectively.

186       **(4) Comparative analysis of the first set of tests**

187       We ran the first set of experiments to explore how the slide material affects the slide

188       dynamics and the depositional state. The results for these three experiments are shown in Table

189       2.

190       Based on the analysis of deposition states (Figure 3 and Figure 4), velocity variations

191       (Figure 5a) and acceleration variations (Figure 5b), the solid gravels had a mobility distance of

192       120 cm, a maximum velocity of 90 cm/s, a maximum acceleration of 90 cm/s<sup>2</sup>, the shortest

193       distance, and the smallest sliding force; the fluid mud had a mobility distance of 380 cm, a

194       maximum velocity of 190 cm/s, a maximum acceleration of 190 cm/s<sup>2</sup>, the longest distance, and

195       the largest sliding force; the two-phase flow slide had a mobility distance of 280 cm, a maximum

196       velocity of 120 cm/s, a maximum acceleration of 120 cm/s<sup>2</sup>, and its mobility velocity and

197       mobility distance were respectively in between those of the above two single-phase flows.

198       Considering only the solid particles at the leading edge of the slide, we used equation (1) to

199       investigate the effect of friction on the decelerating slide after the leading edge of the slide had

200       reached its maximum velocity. For all of these calculations, we used a flume length of 300 cm.

201       In test T-01, the maximum velocity of the leading edge of the slide (90 cm/s) occurred at a

202       distance of 30 cm; the equivalent kinetic friction coefficient of the solid slide in the deceleration

203       stage is  $\mu = 0.51$ . In test T-02, the maximum velocity of the leading edge of the slide (120 cm/s)

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204 occurred at a distance of 120 cm. For a deceleration distance was 160 cm, the equivalent shear  
205 friction coefficient is  $\mu = 0.43$ . For test T-03, the maximum velocity of the leading edge of the  
206 slide (190 cm/s) occurred at a distance of 190 cm. For a deceleration distance of 190 cm, the  
207 calculated shear friction coefficient of the mud fluid is  $\mu = 0.31$ . Assuming that the shear friction  
208 of the solid is constant, the acceleration provided was also a constant.

209 
$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2 = mgh - Fl \quad (1)$$

210 By comparing tests T-01 and T-02, we propose that the presence of the mud fluid reduced  
211 the friction coefficient of the slide from 0.51 to 0.43. As shown by the long deceleration distance,  
212 the fluid in the two-phase flow slide exerts a pronounced drag effect on the rest of the slide  
213 material. Overall, in all three tests, the fluid kinetic friction coefficient was relatively low. The  
214 presence of fluid mud contributed to longer runout distances in tests T-02 and T-03 and generally  
215 increased the mobility (i.e., the velocity and the mobility distance) of the slide; in the two-phase  
216 flow slide, the fluid dragged the gravel further than it traveled in test T-01 in the absence of a  
217 fluid phase.

218 As shown, numerous aspects of a landslide are directly related to the slide material. As  
219 expected, the slides that contain fluid slide material have higher velocities than the solid gravel  
220 slide, and the mud slide accelerated faster than the two-phase slide. Generally, slide acceleration  
221 values and the deceleration distances are inversely proportional to one another. Of the three  
222 experiments, ongoing interactions between the fluid and solid phases caused the two-phase slide  
223 to have the longest mobility time. Because the solid slide had the largest kinetic friction  
224 coefficient, it is much less mobility than the mud slide or the two-phase slide. Overall, the  
225 presence of solid slide material increases the impact energy and the destructiveness of the slide,  
226 the presence of fluid slide material increases the slide mobility and mobility distance, and the

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227 two-phase flow-like slide exhibits the characteristics of both the solid and liquid phases.

228 **3.2 The second set of tests: the water and mud drag effects**

229 In the second set of experiments, we investigated the drag effect exerted by mud and water  
230 on the solid phase. Because water has a lower viscosity than mud, the flow velocity of water is  
231 different from that of a solid. To better observe the depositional characteristics of the slide, we  
232 increased the mass of the slide to 200 kg for experiments T-04, T-05, and T-06.

233 **(1) Experiment T-04: 200 kg of solid gravel**

234 Due to the interlocking effect between the gravel pieces, as well as the frictional force  
235 exerted on the gravel by the flume, most of the gravel remained in the hopper. Some gravel  
236 pieces tumbled down the flume, and some of those gravel pieces traversed the flume and were  
237 deposited on the bottom plate. Our observations for test T-04 are as follows:

238 ● The solid gravel material slid down the inclined flume over a period of 5 s.  
239 ● The front part of the slide, which slid out of the hopper, was largely deposited at the  
240 beginning of the flume, with very few gravel pieces tumbling further and landing on the bottom  
241 plate.

242 ● Post-sliding measurements indicated that the maximum mobility distance for most of  
243 the gravel was ~180 cm, with a few pieces traveling as far as 440 cm. Due to the increased mass  
244 of the slide and the energy transfer between the gravel pieces, a larger proportion of the slide left  
245 the hopper in test T-04 compared to test T-01.

246 ● The high-speed camera images showed that the maximum mobility velocity of the slide  
247 reached 90 cm/s and that its maximum acceleration was ~90 cm/s<sup>2</sup>. The solid slide accelerated  
248 and decelerated over time periods of 1.8 s and 3.2 s, respectively.

249 **(2) Experiment T-05: 200 kg of mud and gravel**

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250        The interaction between the mud and gravel caused the gravel pieces to be dragged down  
251    the chute with the mud. Due to this fluid-like mobility, most of the slide left the hopper. Some of  
252    the slide material moved down the entire chute and was deposited on the bottom plate. Our  
253    observations for test T-05 are as follows:

- 254        ● The two-phase slide material slid down the inclined flume over a period of 5 s.  
255        ● The longest mobility distance of the slide was 380 cm.  
256        ● According to the high-speed camera images, the maximum mobility velocity of the slide  
257    reached 170 cm/s and its maximum acceleration was 170 cm/s<sup>2</sup>. The slide rapidly accelerated  
258    and decelerated more slowly over time periods of 1.8 s and 3.2 s, respectively.

259        **(3) T-06: 200 kg of water and gravel**

260        Because of the significant difference in velocity between the water and the gravel, the  
261    impact force of the water caused the gravel pieces to travel further down the flume than they did  
262    in test T-04. All the slide material left the hopper. While some of the slide stayed in the flume,  
263    most of the slide was deposited on the bottom plate, where it formed an alluvial fan. Our  
264    observations for test T-06 are as follows:

- 265        ● The water and gravel slide material slid down the inclined flume over a period of 5 s.  
266        ● Because of the difference between the frontal velocity of the slide (i.e., the water  
267    velocity) and the backflow velocity (i.e., solid velocity) of the slide, a pressure differential (i.e.,  
268    the drag effect) arose that caused the slide to travel much further and much faster down the flume  
269    than it did in the absence of a fluid phase.
- 270        ● The high-speed camera images showed that there was a pronounced difference between  
271    the mobility of the water and the gravel. The maximum mobility distance of the water was 610  
272    cm, its maximum mobility velocity reached 280 cm/s, and its maximum acceleration was ~240

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273 cm/s<sup>2</sup>. The liquid part of the slide accelerated and decelerated over time periods of 2.2 s and 2.8 s,  
274 respectively. For the gravel part of the slide, the maximum mobility distance was 580 cm, the  
275 maximum mobility velocity reached 260 cm/s, and the maximum acceleration was 200 cm/s<sup>2</sup>.  
276 The rapid acceleration of the slide and the flow-like deceleration and deposition occurred over  
277 time periods of 2.3 s and 2.7 s, respectively.

278 **(4) Comparative analysis**

279 In the second set of tests, we examined the slide mobility, deposition, and drag effects in  
280 different two-phase flows.

281 For test T-04, with a maximum leading edge velocity of 90 cm/s occurring at a distance of  
282 90 cm and a deceleration distance of 90 cm, the kinetic friction coefficient of the slide was  $\mu =$   
283 0.41 from equation (1). With a maximum leading edge of 170 cm/s at a distance of 170 cm, a  
284 maximum acceleration of 170 cm/s<sup>2</sup>, and a deceleration distance of 210 cm, the equivalent shear  
285 friction coefficient of the slide in test T-05 was  $\mu = 0.3$ . With a maximum leading edge velocity  
286 of 260 cm/s occurring at a distance of 460 cm, the equivalent friction coefficient for the slide  
287 material in test T-06 was  $\mu = 0.16$ .

288 The doubling of the slide mass of test T-01 in test T-04 increased both the number of  
289 collisions and the energy transfer between gravel pieces. This resulted in a greater slide runout  
290 and a reduced slide friction coefficient. Due to the presence of the mud and the water, the friction  
291 coefficients of the two-phase slides in tests T-05 and T-06 were smaller than that of the  
292 single-phase slide in test T-04. A comparison of tests T-05 and T-06 revealed that the fluid water  
293 imparted a larger drag force on the gravel, thereby enhancing the mobility and increasing the  
294 velocity and mobility distance of the slide.

295 Based on these experimental results, we analyzed the drag effects of water and mud on the

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296 gravel (Table 3). In comparing tests T-04 and T-05, we found that the presence of mud decreased  
297 the friction coefficient from 0.41 to 0.3, while the presence of water decreased the friction  
298 coefficient in from 0.41 (test T-04) to 0.16 (test T-06). Comparison of these three tests indicates  
299 that the viscosity of the fluid was the main cause of the drag effect; in the mud and gravel slide,  
300 the mud increased the maximum slide velocity by a factor of two. In the water and gravel slide,  
301 the drag effect of the water was created by a pressure differential that arose due to the velocity  
302 difference between the water and the gravel, resulting in a three-fold increase in the maximum  
303 slide velocity. Overall, the drag effect created by the water-gravel velocity difference in test T-06  
304 was greater than that caused by the mud viscosity in test T-05.

305 Different fluids use different mechanisms to produce the drag effect on the solid slide  
306 material. Because water has a low viscosity, it is highly mobility, and the drag mode of the slide  
307 was characterized by a pressure differential that was caused by the velocity difference between  
308 the water and the gravel. A comparison of tests T-04 and T-06 shows that the velocity variations  
309 between the gravel and the water were relatively consistent throughout the deceleration stage, but  
310 that the acceleration time period was longer in the presence of water. As such, we conclude that  
311 the drag effect was more prominent in the acceleration stage than it was in the deceleration stage  
312 in test T-06. In the presence of mud, the drag effect arose due to the mud viscosity. Comparison  
313 of tests T-04 and T-05 shows that the velocity variation trends were relatively consistent in the  
314 acceleration stage, while the drag effect created by the mud resulted in slide deceleration  
315 differences that were much more pronounced. Because the drag effect is present in all two-phase  
316 flow-like landslides, it is necessary to incorporate the fluid drag force into landslide models  
317 when determining the basal resistance.

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319     **4. DISCUSSION**

320         The interaction between fluids and solids is an important topic in fluid dynamics. From the  
321         perspective of landslide dynamics, we explored the dynamics of the fluid on the solid debris flow  
322         with respect to the drag effect, slide mobility, and slide deposition. There are three ways in  
323         which a fluid can act upon the solid material. In the first case, the fluid force that arises is  
324         unrelated to the relative mobility between the fluid and the mass; the force will not disappear  
325         even if the relative velocity and acceleration are zero (e.g., gravity and buoyancy). In the second  
326         case, the fluid force depends on the relative mobility between the fluid and the solid and is  
327         oriented in the same direction as the relative mobility of the slide (i.e., the longitudinal force).  
328         Examples of this type of force include the drag force, the additional mass force, and the Basset  
329         force. In the third case, the fluid force depends on the relative mobility between the fluid and the  
330         solid and is oriented perpendicular to the direction of relative mobility (i.e., the lateral force).  
331         Examples of this type of force include the lift force, the Magnus force, and the Saffman  
332         force([Thevand and Daniel, 2002; Zydak and Klemens, 2007](#)).

333         Two-phase flow models are based on the mass and momentum balance laws for their fluid  
334         and solid constituents. [Anderson et al. \(1995\)](#) considered the influence of the fluid-solid velocity  
335         difference and the viscous force on the drag force model and proposed a method of calculating  
336         the fluid drag force in a fluid-solid two-phase flow. There are two main analysis methods for  
337         two-phase flow models: (1) the particle mobility method, which assumes that the characteristics  
338         of fluid mobility are determined by certain fluid mechanical properties, and (2) the empirical  
339         method, in which the interaction between the fluid and solid phases is determined experimentally  
340         ([Jackson, 2000](#)).

341         In the study of two-phase flow slides, the fluid force experienced by solid particles

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342 immersed in the fluid consists of the horizontal drag force and the vertical lift force. According  
343 to the test results, the material properties of the fluid affect the magnitude of the drag force  
344 experienced by the solid material because the fluid material properties impact both the mobility  
345 velocity and the viscosity. Based on our observations, we employed the fluid drag force equation  
346 proposed by [Evett et al. \(1987\)](#) to investigate the dynamics of two-phase landslides. In this  
347 equation, the horizontal drag force is related to the velocity difference, the drag coefficient  
348 (which is related to the Reynolds number), the fluid density, and the frontal area of the solid:

349 
$$F_D = C_D \frac{1}{2} \rho A (u - v)^2 \quad (8)$$

350 where  $C_D$  is the fluid drag coefficient,  $u$  is the fluid mobility velocity,  $v$  is the solid mobility  
351 velocity,  $A$  is the area of the solid particle perpendicular to the flow direction, and  $\rho$  is the fluid  
352 density.

353  $C_D$  can be expressed according to the fluid mobility state and the dimensionless Reynolds  
354 number. The equation for the Reynolds number, which characterizes the fluid flow, is  $Rep = \rho v d / \eta$ ,  
355 where  $v$ ,  $\rho$ , and  $\eta$  are the velocity, density, and viscosity coefficient of the fluid, respectively, and  $d$  is  
356 a characteristic length. The viscosity  $\eta$  can be obtained in laboratory tests. Depending on the  
357 circumstances,  $C_D$  is calculated in one of three ways. When the fluid mobility state is characterized  
358 by a Navier-Stokes viscous flow (i.e.,  $Rep < 1$ ),  $C_D = 24/Rep$ . When the fluid mobility state is  
359 characterized by a transition zone (i.e.,  $1 < Rep < 500$ ), (2)  $C_D = 18.5/0.6*Rep$ . When the fluid  
360 mobility state is characterized by a Newtonian fluid (i.e.,  $500 < Rep < 2 \times 10^5$ ),  $C_D \approx 0.44$ .  
361 Furthermore, the shape of the solid particles also affects the drag force of the fluid. After the drag  
362 coefficient is obtained, the drag force on solid particles is then calculated using Equation (8).

363 This equation demonstrates that the cohesive force of the fluid medium, the shape of solid  
364 particles, and the velocity difference between the fluid and the solid all affect the drag force. In

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365 our experiments, the drag force is expressed as a pressure, which arises due to the velocity  
366 differential between the solid and the fluid, and a viscous force, which arises due to the friction  
367 between the fluid and solid particles (i.e., the drag coefficient). Because water has a low viscosity  
368 and is highly mobility, it can more easily drag the solid gravel pieces down the flume. The higher  
369 viscosity and less mobility mud fluid relied on the fluid drag effect to force the gravel particles to  
370 travel down the flume.

371

## 372 **5. CONCLUSION**

373 In this study, we conducted flume model tests to explore the mobility, deposition, and drag  
374 effect characteristics of flow-like landslides consisting of different materials. Our conclusions are  
375 as follows:

376 (1) Liquid phase flow-like landslides are highly mobility and have long-runout. Solid phase  
377 flow-like landslides have higher more kinetic energy and destructive, but mobility are poor. And  
378 two-phase flow-like landslides incorporate features from both the liquid and solid phase  
379 flow-like landslides.

380 (2) During a two-phase flow-like landslide, when the liquid volume fraction is sufficiently  
381 large, the liquid phase exerts a drag force on the solid phase. Liquids with different properties  
382 have different drag effects on the solid slide material. The solid-liquid velocity difference and the  
383 liquid viscosity determine the drag intensity and affect the mobility and deposition characteristics  
384 of the landslide.

385 (3) Analysis of the test results reveals that the mobility of a solid-liquid two-phase flow slide  
386 can be divided into two characteristic stages: the initial sliding stage and the end deposition stage.  
387 When dragged by a fluid with a low viscosity (i.e., water), the slide accelerates due to the

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388 velocity difference between the solid and liquid phases, which creates a pressure differential that  
389 drives the slide forward. This velocity difference is more prominent during the initial sliding  
390 stage than it is during the deposition stage. When the two-phase slide consists of a fluid with a  
391 slightly higher viscosity (i.e., mud), the slide accelerates during the sliding stage due to the  
392 viscous friction exerted by the fluid on the solid particles in the two-phase flow.

393 (4) In our dynamic analysis of the landslide mobility, the frictional resistance of a  
394 solid-phase slide is greater than that of a liquid-phase slide. In practice, the frictional resistance  
395 of a fluid-solid two-phase slide falls between those two extremes. The drag force of the fluid  
396 acting on the solid ultimately leads to high-velocity, long-runout, two-phase landslides.  
397 Therefore, the internal interaction forces between the fluid and solid media must be considered in  
398 the dynamic analysis of landslides.

399 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

400 We acknowledge support from National Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 41907257), the  
401 National Key Research and Development Program of China (2018YFC1504806), Institute of  
402 Geo-Mechanics (DZLXJK201901). The authors also thank Letpub Services for English language  
403 editing and review services.

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510 Figure 1 Schematic diagrams of our flume test model from the (a) side view and (b) top view  
511 perspectives. 1—hopper, 2—bracket, 3—flume bracket, 4—flume side plate, 5—flume bottom  
512 plate, 6—bottom plate, 7—front-view high-speed camera, 8—top-view high-speed camera,  
513 9—lift engine, 10—side-view high-speed camera, 11—laser measuring instrument.

514 Figure 2 Sample slide materials. (a) Gravel pieces. (b) Clay particles. (c) Gravel and mud, which  
515 is a mixture of the gravel pieces, the clay particles, and water.

516 Figure 3 Side and front view of the results of (a) test T-01 (gravel), (b) test T-02 (gravel and  
517 mud), and test T-03 (mud).

518 Figure 4 Schematic diagrams of the top and side view of (a) test T-01 (gravel), (b) test T-02  
519 (gravel and mud), and test T-03 (mud).

520 Figure 5 Velocity and acceleration data from tests T-01, T-02, and T-03.

521 Figure 6 Side and front views of the results of (a) test T-04 (gravel), (b) test T-05 (gravel and  
522 mud), and test T-06 (gravel and water).

523 Figure 7 Schematic diagrams of the top and side views of (a) test T-04 (gravel), (b) test T-05  
524 (gravel and mud), and test T-06 (gravel and water).

525 Figure 8 Velocity and acceleration data from tests T-04, T-05, and T-06.

526 Figure 9 The drag effect exerted by the fluid phase in a two-phase flow.

527

528 **Table 1** Test schemes for our flume tests.

Set no.	Test	Slide material	State	Carrier	Sliding inclination	Slide mass	Effect analysis
I	T-01	Dry gravel	Solid phase	None	20°	100 kg	Solid/liquid
	T-02	Gravel and mud	Two-phase flow	Mud	20°	100 kg	two-phase mobility characteristics
	T-03	Mud	Liquid phase	None	20°	100 kg	
II	T-04	Dry gravel	Solid phase	None	20°	200 kg	mobility
	T-05	Gravel and water	Two-phase flow	Water	20°	200 kg	characteristics of solid-liquid two-phase
	T-06	Gravel and mud	Liquid phase	Mud	20°	200 kg	under the influences of different fluids

529

530 Table 2 Results from the first set of flume tests.

Test	Slide medium	mobility distance	Maximum velocity	Maximum acceleration	Coefficient of friction	Force
T-01	Solid single-phase flow	120 cm	90 cm/s	90 cm/s <sup>2</sup>	0.51	Solid shear
T-02	Fluid-solid two-phase flow	280 cm	120 cm/s	120 cm/s <sup>2</sup>	0.43	Fluid drag
T-03	Fluid single-phase flow	380 cm	190 cm/s	190 cm/s <sup>2</sup>	0.31	Fluid shear

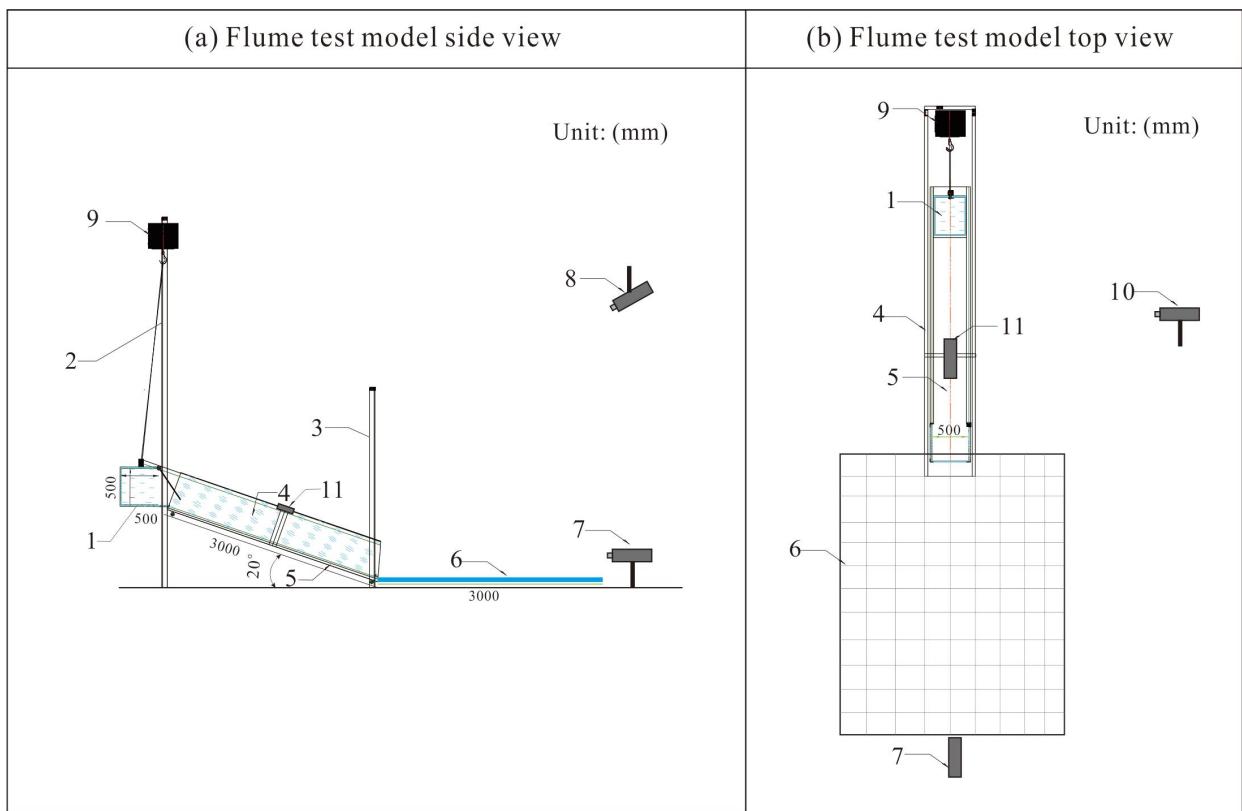
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532 Table 3 mobility and depositional data for the second set of flume tests.

Rheological model	mobility distance	Maximum velocity	Maximum acceleration	Coefficient of friction	Stage
T-04	180 cm	90 cm/s	90 cm/s <sup>2</sup>	0.41	None
T-05	380 cm	170 cm/s	170 cm/s <sup>2</sup>	0.3	Deceleration stage
T-06	580 cm	260 cm/s	200 cm/s <sup>2</sup>	0.16	
					Acceleration stage

533



534

535 Fig. 1

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536

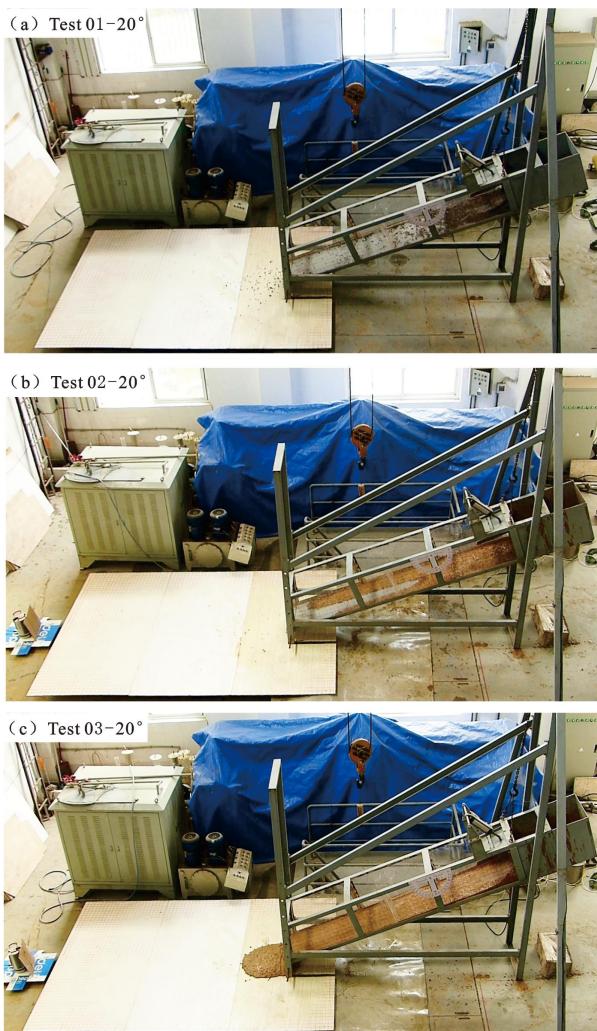


Fig.a Limestone gravel

Fig.b Fine-grained soil

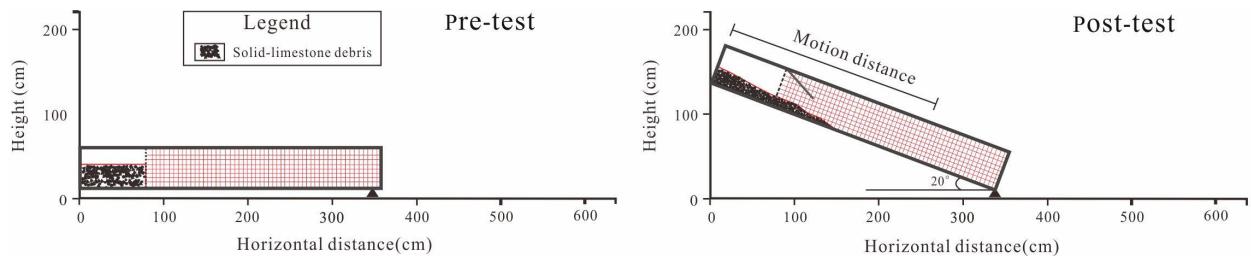
Fig.c Gravel added viscous mud

537 Fig. 2

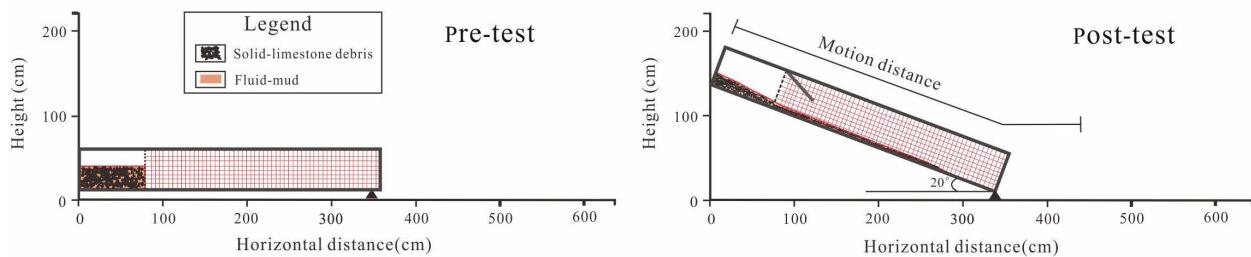


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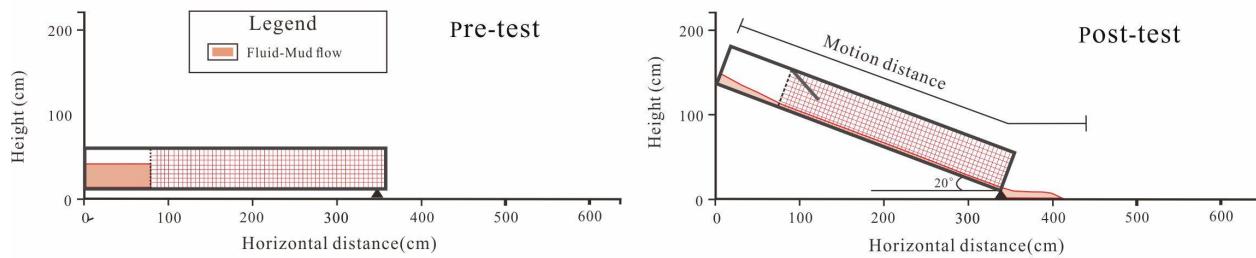
539 Fig. 3



(a) One-phase (100kg)-Limestone debris



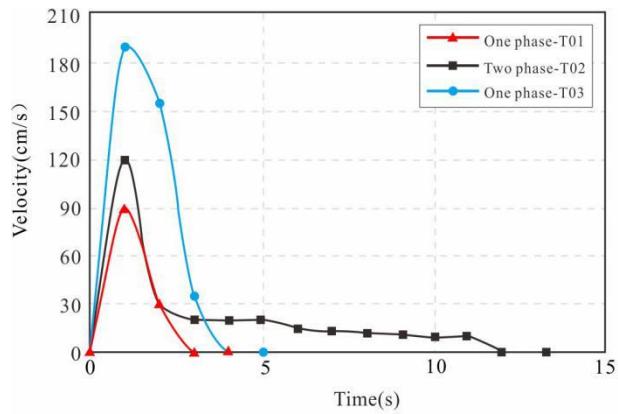
(b) Two-phase (100kg)-Limestone debris with mud flow



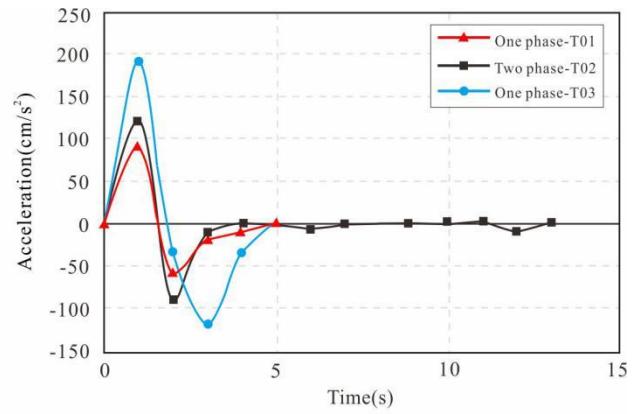
(c) One-phase (100kg)-Mud flow

540

541 Fig. 4



(a)Velocity VS Time



(b)Acceleration VS Time

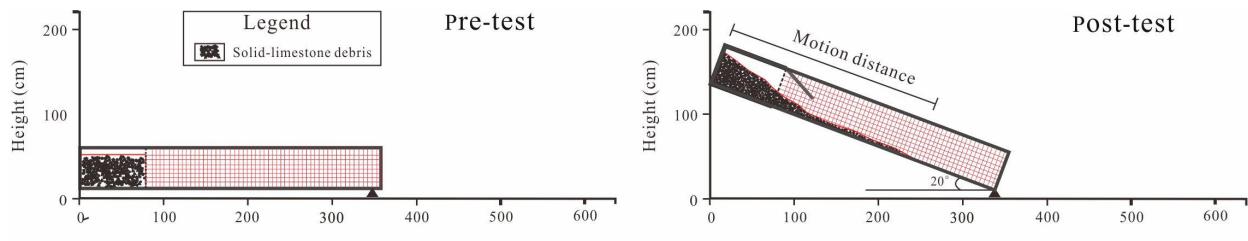
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543 Fig. 5

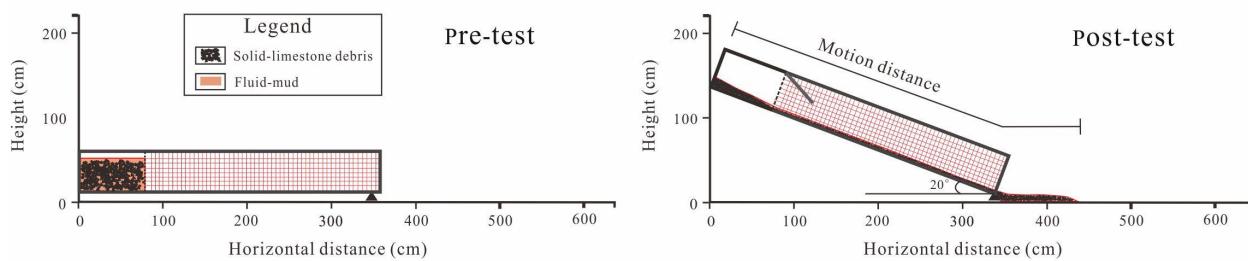


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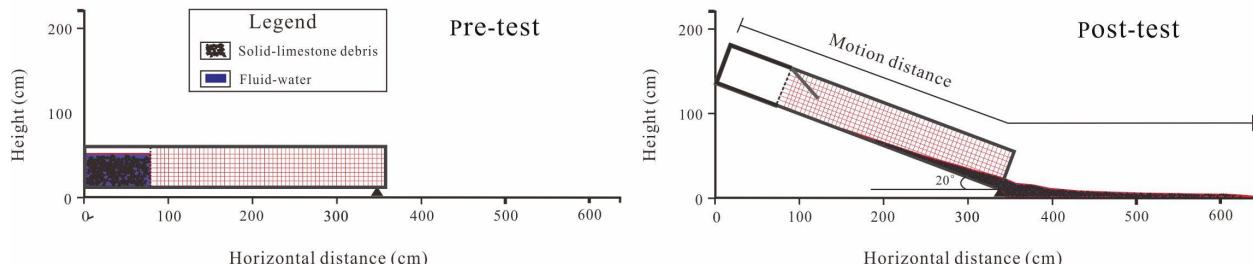
545 Fig. 6



(a) One-Phase (200kg)-Limestone debris



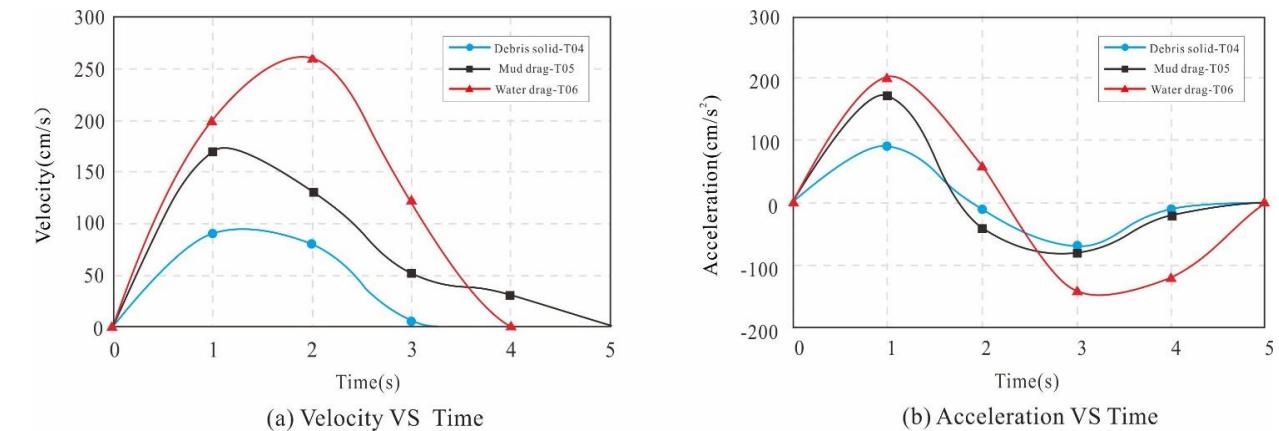
(b) Two-Phase (200kg)-Limestone debris and mud flow



(c) Two-Phase (200kg)-Limestone debris and water flow

546

547 Fig. 7

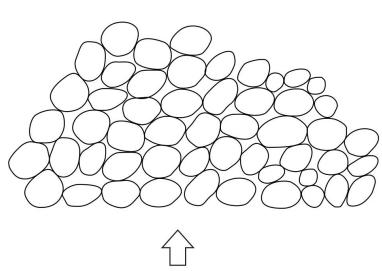


548

(a) Velocity VS Time

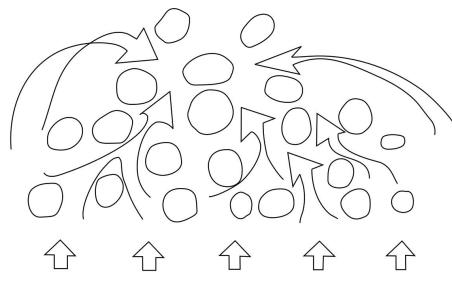
549 Fig. 8

(b) Acceleration VS Time



550

(a) Dry gravel movement



(b) two-phase movement

551 Fig. 9