

Elucidating the role of soil hydraulic properties on ~~the~~ aspect-dependent landslide initiation

Yanglin Guo^{1, 2}, Chao Ma^{1, 2}

1. School of Soil and Water Conservation, Beijing Forestry University, Beijing 100083, PR China.

2. Jixian National Forest Ecosystem Observation and Research Station, CNERN, Beijing Forestry University, Beijing 100083, PR China.

Corresponding ~~Author~~: Professor Chao Ma, sanguoxumei@163.com

Abstract: Aspect-dependent landslide initiation is an interesting finding, and previous studies ~~have~~ attributed this ~~observation~~ to the mechanical effects of plant roots. In ~~the present studywork~~, ~~an~~ overwhelming landslide probability on ~~a~~ south-facing slope over ~~a~~ north-facing slope was found in a localized area with ~~on~~merely granite underneath and high cover of ~~Larix kaempferi~~ species. ~~These~~ Such observations ~~cannot be~~not attributed to plant roots, but may result from ~~factors related to hillslope hydrology~~the hillslope hydrology related factors. ~~The~~ differential weathering-associated ~~with~~ hillslope hydrology behaviors, such as rainfall water storage and leakage, pore water pressure, particle component, and hillslope stability fluctuation, were used to elucidate ~~these~~ such observations. Remote sensing interpretation using the high-resolution GeoEye-1 image and digitalized topography ~~showed~~revealed ~~found~~ that ~~the~~ landslides on south-facing slopes have ~~a~~ higher probability, larger basal area, and shallower depth than those on ~~a~~ north-facing slope. The lower limits of ~~the~~ upslope contributing area and slope gradient condition for south-facing landslides ~~were~~is less than ~~those for~~ north-facing landslides. The higher basal areas of south-facing landslides ~~than those of the~~over north-facing landslides may ~~be~~ attributed to the high peak values and slow dissipation of pore water pressure. The absorbed and drained water flow in ~~a~~ given time interval, together with the calculated water storage and leakage during the measured rainy season ~~measured, demonstrate,~~ ~~sufficiently prove~~ that the soil mass above the failure zone for ~~the~~ south-facing slopes ~~is~~are more prone to ~~form~~ pore-water pressure, ~~which~~and results in slope failures. In comparison, the two stability fluctuation results from ~~the~~ finite and infinite models further verified that landslides on south-facing slopes may fail ~~under~~on conditions of prolonged antecedent precipitation and intensive rainfall. ~~Meanwhile, whereas~~while those on north-facing slopes may fail ~~on~~merely in response to intensive rainfall. The results of this ~~study will deepen our knowledge of work~~ provide an ~~insightful view of~~the aspect-dependent landslide initiation from both classical mechanics and the state of stress.

Keywords: Landslide; Pore pressure; suction stress; Hydraulic conductivity; Slope stability

1 Introduction

In some semi-arid environments of the Northern ~~H~~emisphere, aspect-dependent landslide initiation ~~would~~ provides valuable insights into the relative importance of different factors in developing accurate landslide susceptibility models (Ebel, 2015; Rengers et al., 2016; Li et al., 2021; Deng et al., 2022). These events provide ~~a~~ thorough understanding ~~of~~about the amount of direct sunlight ~~that~~ translates into differences in vegetation communities, bedrock weathering, and soil development processes (Fu, 1983; Wang, 2008; Bierman and Montgomery, 2014). These ~~typical~~ earth surface processes indirectly affect hillslope hydrology and landscape dissection ~~at~~on the hillslope scale. ~~Importantly,~~ Rainfall-induced shallow landslides are ~~one of the~~ geomorphic agents ~~at~~on the hillslope scale and ~~are~~ governed by multiple factors, including hydrology, hillslope materials, bedrock ~~underneath~~, and ~~the~~ vegetation (Birkeland, 1999; Geroy et al., 2011; Lu and Godt, 2013). Currently, the ~~observed~~ aspect-dependent landslide initiation ~~observed has been predominantly~~is ~~mainly~~ attributed to the mechanical effect of plant roots. ~~This is,~~ because the differences ~~in~~ vegetation on the south- and north-facing slopes are easier to examine and more ~~pronounced~~ obvious than other factors (Li et al., 2021; Timilsina et al., 2021; Dai et al., 2022; Deng et al., 2022). However, ~~it is no denying that~~ vegetation succession ~~takes place over substantially longer~~

43 ~~timescales is far slower than~~ the soil development and bedrock weathering (Watakabe and Matsushi, 2019).
44 ~~In most cases, and~~ the plant roots ~~are in most cases is~~ not deep enough to penetrate into the bedrock (Schwinning,
45 2010). Hypothesizing ~~from~~ a relatively localized area with the same ecosystem or plant species, aspect-
46 dependent landslide initiation ~~cannot be~~ attributed to plant roots, ~~but while~~ may result from the differences
47 in the properties of hillslope materials due to long-term differential weathering.

48 ~~The~~ aspect-dependent landslides in the Frontal Colorado, USA and the Loess Plateau, China, have attracted
49 interest because ~~vegetation has interesting focus that vegetation generates a~~ considerable influence on the landslide
50 distribution. ~~The in fact, the strong overwhelming~~ propensity for shallow landslide initiation on south-facing
51 hillslopes in the two regions is closely related to the present-day tree density, regardless of the hillslope aspect
52 (Ebel, 2015; Rengers et al., 2016; Deng et al., 2022). In the Colorado Frontal Range, field observations ~~have~~
53 ~~shown proved~~ that south-facing slopes lack thick tree cover and have an abundance of rock outcrops compared to
54 north-facing slopes. ~~In addition, and~~ the soil layer ~~is would be~~ thinner on south-facing slopes (Coe et al., 2014; Ebel
55 et al., 2015). The ~~apparent~~ cohesion supplied by the roots ~~is was~~ responsible for the ~~observed~~ connection ~~observed~~
56 between landslide distribution and slope aspect (McGuire et al., 2016). ~~On in~~ the Loess Plateau ~~China~~, vegetation
57 recovery is ~~one of the main~~ ~~at the major~~ ecological measures ~~for mitigating to mitigate the~~ sediment loss (Fu et al.,
58 2009). ~~Increased~~ ~~Promoted~~ soil strength and hydraulic conductivity due to strong root networks may enhance ~~the the~~
59 topographic initiation conditions (Montgomery and Dietrich, 1994; Wang et al., 2020). ~~Another possibility is that~~
60 ~~the~~ north- and west-ward moving storms ~~may potentially produce produced~~ more intense rainfall on the south- and
61 east-facing slopes. ~~Such an~~ This assumption may be invalid if an aspect-dependent landslide distribution is
62 ~~present exists~~ in a localized catchment with a ~~specific given~~ vegetation community. ~~The in fact, the above-~~
63 ~~mentioned~~ This study highlights the effect of the mechanical function of plants on landslides. If ~~an the~~ aspect-
64 dependent landslide exists in a localized area ~~that are with vegetation cover comprising covered by the~~ same plant
65 species ~~alongside a high level of and high~~ vegetation coverage, the ~~observed~~ aspect-dependent landslide initiation
66 ~~observed~~ cannot be attributed to the mechanical effect ~~off from~~ plant roots.

67 To ~~determine elucidate~~ the ~~observed~~ relationship ~~observed~~ among vegetation, landslides, and slope aspect, the
68 effects ~~off from the~~ physical properties and strength of hillslope materials cannot be ~~excluded ignored~~. ~~On in~~
69 ~~n~~ Northern part of the Loess Plateau, China, as well as in many other semi-arid environments, different types and
70 densities of vegetation and soils develop on north-facing versus south-facing convergent slopes. ~~This is,~~ because
71 systematic differences in the amount of direct sunlight translate into differences in the physical and chemical
72 weathering. North-facing convergent slopes have lower evaporation rates, retain snow cover longer in spring, and
73 tend to hold soil moisture longer ~~during to~~ the summer growing season. ~~These~~ ~~Such~~ differences may result in localized
74 ecosystem communities in the presence of trees or shrubs ~~on over~~ grasses. South-facing slopes experience heavier
75 and more frequent hydration, thermal expansion, or freeze-thaw cycles ~~due to by the~~ day warming and night cooling,
76 and tend to ~~have favor~~ stronger weathering throughout the year. ~~Such~~ ~~These~~ differences ~~can could~~ result in local
77 differences in the grain component, soil strength, and soil profile. ~~This has indirect effects at which indirectly affect~~
78 the landslide scale ~~through by the~~ mechanics of excessive pore water pressure dissipation and sliding surface
79 liquefaction (Terzaghi, 1950; Sassa, 1984), and the hillslope hydrology behavior (Godt et al., 2009; Lee and Kim,
80 2019). Therefore, the physical properties of the hillslope materials may be attributed to the ~~observed~~ aspect-
81 dependent landslide initiation ~~observed~~.

82 ~~It is well known that~~ ~~As known to~~ ~~All~~; shallow landslides are ~~an one of the~~ examples of debris flow initiation,
83 which often enlarges their scale by multiple mechanics (Hungr et al. 2005; Iverson et al. 2011). When the slope fails,
84 the pore water pressure abruptly increases within the shear zone (Iverson and LaHusen, 1989; Wang and Sassa, 2003).
85 If the excessive pore water pressure persists high over the static pressure for a relatively long duration, the displaced
86 masses ~~will~~ enlarge their volume by widespread liquefaction, and transform into debris flows (Bogaard and Greco,

2016). In other words, the magnitude of the pore water pressure is closely related to the scale of the shallow landslide. Therefore, the scale of the shallow landslides can be determined by the role of excessive pore water pressure during the failure process. However, the aspect-dependent landslide distribution in these two above-mentioned areas merely refers to the differences in landslide probability rather than the landslide scale.

In the present study, we used a combination of field soil moisture observation, strength measurement, and hydraulic conductivity analysis of hillslope materials, and numerical modeling of slope stability to explain the high potential for the overwhelming landslide initiation on south-facing slopes relative to north-facing slopes with the same vegetation communities. In addition, the differences in landslide geometry and initiation conditions, in the form of the contributing area above the scar area and the landslide gradient, were shown using the field studies and high-resolution GeoEye-1 images. Then, the differential weathering-related physical properties and strength of the soil mass, including the dry unit weights, porosity, and grain size, effective cohesion, and inner friction angle, were examined. Importantly, we have also highlighted the importance of the excessive pore water pressure, hillslope hydrology, and stability in explaining the observed aspect-dependent landslide initiation. The results of this work will deepen our understanding of the aspect-dependent landslide distribution in some mountainous areas of the Northern Hemisphere.

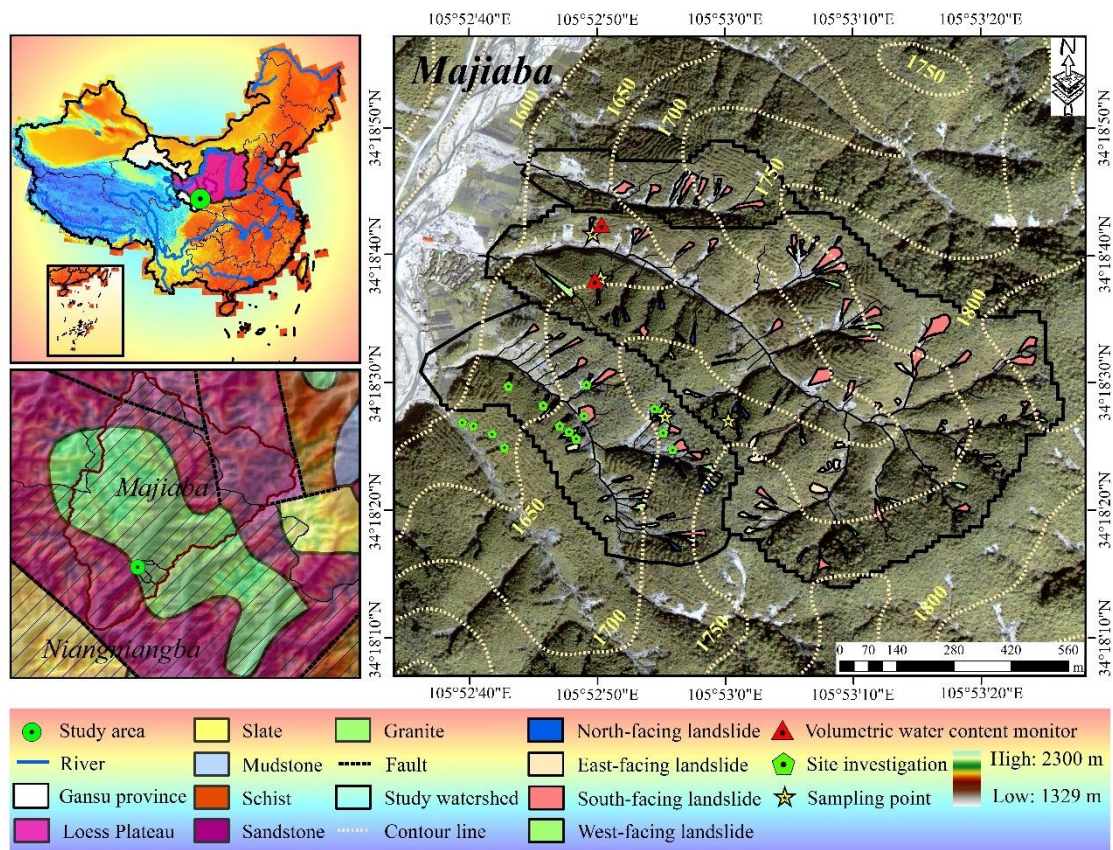


Fig. 1. Location, topography, and simplified lithology of the study area. (All maps are created by the authors. The graph of Majiaba was taken using by an Unmanned Aerial Vehicle. The territorial domain of China and simplified lithology map are from China Geological survey.)

2 Study area

The study area is in the mountainous region of Majiaba village in the northeast of Niangniangba town, Tianshui

City, Gansu Province, Central China. It is also close to the dividing crest of the Yellow River and Yangtze Rivers, and on the eastern part of the Loess Plateau. The majority of the hillslope is underlain by slate, and the stratigraphic units of granite, sandstone, and mudstone account for a relatively smaller area. This area in semi-humid climate region and has four distinctive seasons and a semi-humid climate. The annual precipitation is approximately 491.6 mm and predominantly falls during June and August. One branch fault of the Tianshui-Lanzhou fault system runs through the area and has had no rupture records for the last few decades.

The shallow landslides in the study area and nearby surroundings were triggered by the prolonged antecedent precipitation during July 1-24 to 24 July and the intensive rainstorm on 25 July 25, 2013 (Yu et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2015). Previous studies found that majority of Most shallow landslides in the entire whole storm spanned the mountain area with a have gradient of 20-25°, located on south-facing slopes and in areas with relatively sparse vegetation (Li et al., 2021). In addition Besides, The the strong root network may promote the hydraulic conductivity of the soil-root composite and the landslide initiation condition of the upslope contributing area-slope gradient, according to the landslide case studies from the Larix kaempferi and Pinus tabulaeformis forests (Dai et al., 2022). In this study work, The three small catchment areas in the Majiaba Watershed are underlain by granite units. The total area is 0.88 km² with vegetation cover coverage rate of over 90% (Fig. 1). The relative relief was approximately about 200 m, and the mean hillslope gradient was 37°. The reasons why choose the three catchments lie in the area were chosen is that the main plant species on the south- and north-facing slope is Larix kaempferi, which commonly have highly developed highly developed lateral roots with depth < 0.4 m. However, landslides in the three catchments still have a higher exhibit overwhelm propensity for occurrence on south-facing slopes in comparison with the over north-facing slopes. This Such a finding differentiates from the results from the Frontal Colorado, USA, and the Central Loess Plateau, where landslides commonly occur in sparsely vegetated areas. Furthermore, the works of Li et al. (2021) only merely addressed the relationship between landslide probability and vegetation cover at the coverage on a regional scale, while excluding neglecting the importance of the properties of hillslope materials at a more localized scale. Therefore, we hypothesize that such observations in the study area may not be the result of from the mechanical effect of plant roots, but may be from the distinctive physical properties and strength of hillslope materials due to differential weathering.

3 Materials and methods

3.1 Landslide information interpretation

The high-resolution (0.5 m × 0.5 m) on October 8, 2013, The GeoEye-1 image was orthorectified and the landslide boundary was visually interpreted using by ENVI 5.1 and e-Cognition 8. An unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV for abbreviation) was used to obtain the digital elevation model (DEM) with a 5 m resolution. The GeoEye-1 orthographic image and DEM were spatially registered in the ArcGIS 10.2 as a by standard layer of orthoimage. The landslide initiation condition is represented by the competition between the slope gradient and the upslope contribution area ($A-S$):

$$S = kA^{-b}$$

(1)

where S is the local slope (m/m); A is the contribution area above the landslide head-scar (m²); k is an empirical constant, which is related to lithology, vegetation, and climate; and b is an empirically defined index.

Field studies investigations were conducted mainly to measure the depth of the head-scar and sidewall area using by tape, and the failure depth was taken as their average of them. Then, the landslide volume could then be calculated using by the interpreted scar area and the measured the depth, measured. Finally, Detailed landslide information, including the landslide number and area probability, landslide volume and width, head-scar and sidewall depth, and as well as the upslope contributing area-slope gradient condition for the south- and north-

facing slopes were compared.

3.2 Field monitoring and soil sampling

To investigate the hillslope hydrology on the south- and north-facing slopes, the Frequency Domain Reflectometry (FDR) soil moisture sensors were used in this work to record the volumetric water content. To avoid the randomness of data caused by natural factors such as terrain and vegetation, a total of 16 shallow landslides were investigated; to excavate soil profiles and take undisturbed soil samples. Then, the sensors were installed implemented at depths of 30 cm, 70 cm, and 110 cm on the south- and north-facing slopes; to monitor the volumetric water content during the rainy season of 2021. The soil moisture monitoring was implemented at works were implemented on two concave sites on the south- and north-facing slopes. The meteorological station was less no more than 3 km away from the study area to record the rainfall on a 30 min basis. During the sensor installations implementation, the undisturbed soil samplings near the sensor location were taken for indoor tests, including the dry unit weight, porosity, grain size, shear strength, and hydraulic conductivity. The grain size was analyzed using a Malvern MS 3000 instrument (Malvern, England). In each layer, at least four samples were collected for the consolidated undrained triaxial compression test (CU), and two samples were collected for unsaturated hydraulic conductivity measurement using transient release and imbibition method tests (Lu and Godt, 2013). Saturated hydraulic conductivity was determined using the constant water head method (Table 1).

3.3 Pore water pressure dissipation

CU tests were performed to obtain the effective cohesion, effective internal friction angle, and the pore pressure water dissipation curves. The soil samplings, with a diameter of 50 mm and height of 100 mm, were firstly saturated in a vacuum pump. They were and, then consolidated in the chamber of the GDS apparatus at 50, 100, 150, and 200 kPa confining pressures and 10 kPa backpressure. During each test, the shearing rate was set to 0.1 mm/min, and the device automatically recorded records one data every 10 s. Owing to the varied particle components and soil texture, the increasing and dissipation ratios varied. Furthermore, this ratio is closely related such ratio closely relates to the widespread generation of excessive pore-water pressure, which increases will enlarge the landslide scale. A high excessive pore water pressure, rapid increase ratio, and slow dissipation ratio could cause widespread Coulomb failure within the sliding zone. To demonstrate that show the pore water pressure increases or dissipates, the ratio is:

$$i = \frac{p_{t+\Delta t} - p_t}{\Delta t} \quad (2)$$

where i is the increase or dissipation ratio of the excessive pore water pressure, and p_t and $p_{t+\Delta t}$ are the measured pore water pressures measured during the time interval of Δt .

3.3 Water storage and drainage

The unsaturated permeability of soil mass (diameter 61.8 mm, height 25.4 mm) was measured using by the Transient Release and Imbibition method (TRIM) (Lu and Godt, 2013). In this test, the water outflow mass was measured on a 10 minutes basis. In each test, the air pressures of 250 kPa and 0 kPa corresponded to the drying and wetting processes, respectively. Thus, the Soil Water Characteristic Curve (SWCC) and the Hydraulic Conductivity Function (HCF) were would be obtained by using the Hydrus 1-D (Wayllace and Lu, 2012). Using the models proposed by Mualem (1976) and van Genuchten (1980), the constitutive relations between the suction head (h), water content (θ), and hydraulic conductivity (K) under drying and wetting states can be represented by the following equation:

$$\frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} = \left[\frac{1}{1 + (\alpha|h|)^n} \right]^{1-\frac{1}{n}} \quad (3)$$

and

194

$$K = K_s \frac{\left\{1 - (\alpha|h|)^{n-1} [1 + (\alpha|h|)^n]^{\frac{1}{n}-1}\right\}^2}{[1 + (\alpha|h|)^n]^{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n}}} \quad (4)$$

195

196

197

198

199

where θ_r is the residual moisture content (%), θ_s is the saturated moisture content (%), α and n are empirical fitting parameters, with α is being the inverse of the air-entry pressure head, and n is the pore size distribution parameter, and; K_s is the saturated hydraulic conductivity (cm/s), cm/s.

The soil water storage (S_s) and drainage (S_d) during a rainfall event can be evaluated by the soil depth and the difference between the maximum soil moisture and the antecedent soil moisture:

200

$$S_e = \frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} \quad (5)$$

201

$$S_s = S_e^w \Delta h \quad (6)$$

202

$$S_d = P - S_e^d \Delta h \quad (7)$$

203

204

205

206

where S_e is the degree of saturation degree, θ is the measured volumetric moisture content measured (%), Δh is the average soil thickness, mm (400 mm in this studywork), S_e^w and S_e^d are the residual soil moisture in the wetting and drying processes (%), and; P is the accumulated rainfall (mm), mm.

3.4 Stability fluctuation

207

208

209

210

In this studywork, we applied a finite and infinite stability model to assess the slope stability fluctuation during the rainy season, as an attempt to examine the aspect-dependent landslide initiation from the perspective of classical mechanics and the state of stress (Schmidt et al., 2001). The finite-slope model evaluates the stability F_s :

211

$$F_s = \frac{S_{sr}}{\tau} = \frac{c_l A_l + c_b A_b + A_b (\rho_s - \rho_w S_e) g z \cos^2 \beta \tan \varphi'}{A_b \rho_s g z \sin \beta \cos \beta} \quad (8)$$

212

213

214

215

where β is the topographic slope angle ($^\circ$), A_l is the lateral area, m^2 ; A_b is the basal area, m^2 ; z is the sliding depth (m), m; c_l is the sum of the effective soil cohesion and the root additional cohesion along the perimeter (kPa), kPa; c_b is the basal soil cohesion (kPa), kPa; ρ_s is the soil particle density, g/cm^3 , and; ρ_w is the water density, g/cm^3 .

216

217

The infinite slope stability model in this studywork provides insight into the stress variation resulting from changes in the soil suction and water content during infiltration (Lu and Likos, 2006):

218

$$F_s = \frac{\tan \varphi'}{\tan \beta} + \frac{2c'}{\gamma z \sin 2\beta} - \frac{\sigma^s}{\gamma z} (\tan \beta + \cot \beta) \tan \varphi' \quad (9)$$

219

220

where φ' is the effective friction angle, $^\circ$; β is the topographic slope angle, $^\circ$; c' is the effective cohesion, kPa; γ is the unit weight of the soil, KN/m^3 ; and σ^s is the suction stress (kPa), and expressed as:

221

$$\sigma^s = -\frac{S_e}{\alpha} \left(S_e^{n/(1-n)} - 1 \right)^{1/n} \quad (10)$$

222

4 Results

223

4.1 Shallow landslides on south- and north-facing slope

224

225

226

227

228

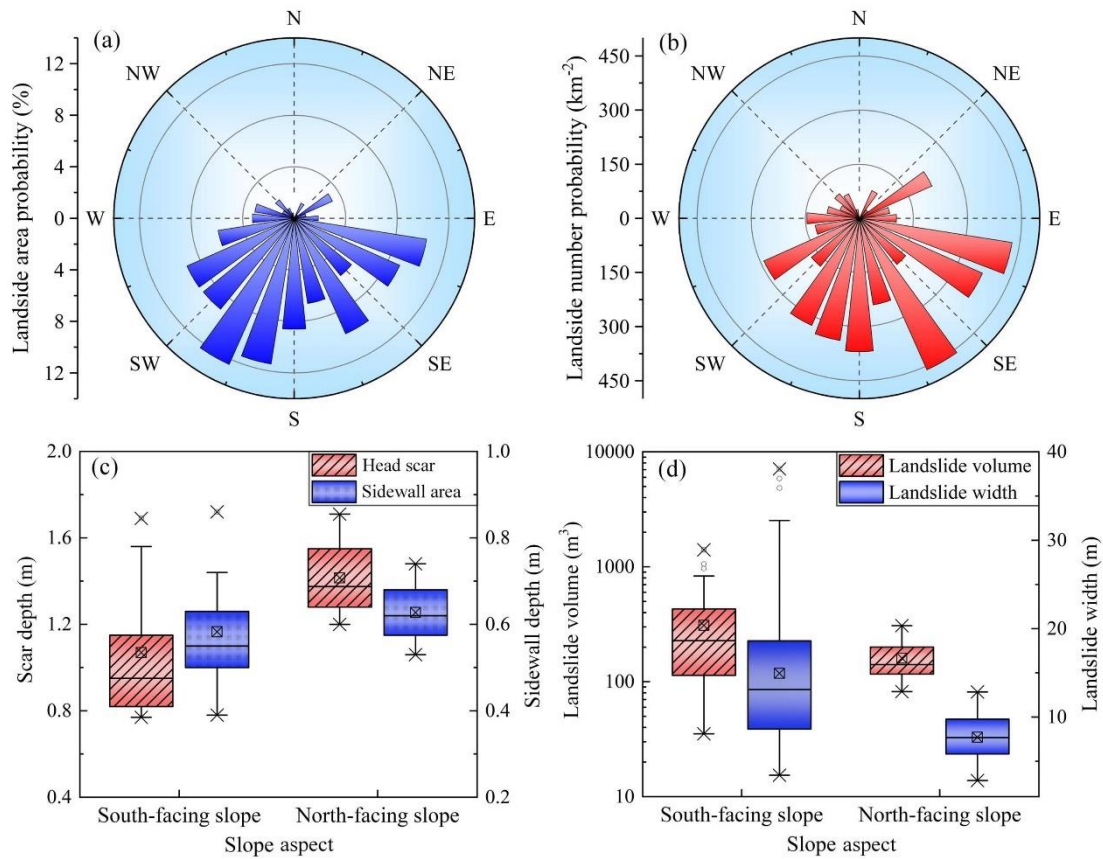
229

230

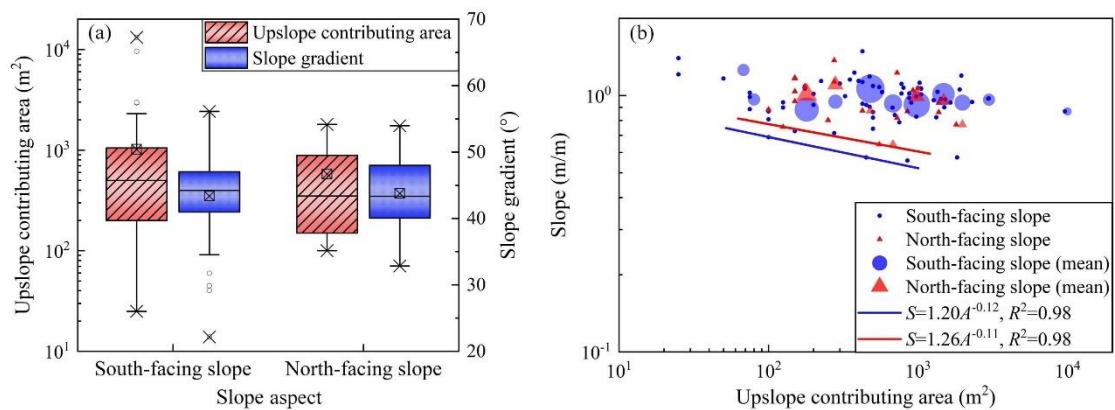
In the study area, the south-facing slope was between 157.5° and 247.5° and; the north-facing slope ranges from 0° to 67.5° , and 292.5° to 360° (0° is the due north). There were 71 shallow landslides on the south-facing slope, and while only 20 landslides on the north-facing slope. Figure 2a shows indicates that the shallow landslides on south-facing slopes have exhibit larger spatial areas than those on north-facing slopes. The Meanwhile, majority of Most of the shallow landslides occurred were on the south-facing slope (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, The volume of landslides on the south-facing slope was great over than those on the north-facing slope. For landslides on the south-facing slope, the basal area was $372.64 m^2$ and the width was $14.9 m$ on average. For

231 landslides on the north-facing slope, the averaged basal area ~~was is merely~~ 157.28 m² and the width was is 7.7 m
232 (Fig. 2c). ~~Alt~~Though the landslides on the south-facing slope had ~~ve a~~ larger volume and ~~greater wider~~ width, the
233 depth of the head-scar and ~~the~~ sidewall area are no ~~greater than those on the more than the landslides on~~ north-facing
234 slope. Field ~~studies showed investigation reveals~~ that the averaged depth for landslides on the north-facing slope
235 ~~was is~~ 1.02 m, which ~~was is~~ deeper than the depth of 0.83 m for landslides on south-facing slope (Fig. 2d). ~~The H-H~~
236 ~~all,~~ landslides on the south-facing slope exhibited ~~an~~ overwhelming propensity ~~for occurrence~~ in ~~terms of~~ number
237 and area. ~~Mean~~while, the failure depth ~~was is~~ no more than ~~that of~~ the landslides on the north-facing slope.

238 Shallow landslides can be modelled as occurring when sufficient through-flow converges from the upslope
239 contribution area to the hollow area and triggers slope instability (Montgomery and Dietrich, 1994). Their
240 topographic initiation ~~conditions are~~condition is controlled by the spatial competition between the slope and upslope
241 contribution ~~being~~ area dependent (Stock and Dietrich 2003 and 2006; Horton et al., 2008). For the shallow
242 landslides in the study area, the averaged upslope contributing area and ~~the~~ slope gradient ~~did not differ significantly~~
243 ~~differ do not differentiate a lot~~ (Fig. 3a). ~~Mean~~while, ~~while~~ the lower limit line representing the minimum initiation
244 condition ~~for~~of landslides on south-facing slopes ~~was is~~ lower than that on the north-facing slopes (Fig. 3b). This
245 indicates that ~~a~~ higher upslope ~~contributione~~contributing area ~~was is~~ required to provide sufficient through-flow
246 conditions and trigger slope failures on the north-facing slope. ~~Given that~~As the landslides in the study area were
247 triggered by ~~the~~ prolonged antecedent precipitation and intensive rainfall (Li et al., 2021), sufficient rainfall
248 infiltration could result in ~~a~~ high soil water content within the displaced mass, leading to ~~a~~ decrease ~~in of the~~ matrix
249 suction and soil strength. The ~~generation of~~ pore pressure ~~generation~~ in response to intense rainfall also plays an
250 important role in shallow landslides. Therefore, we ~~have~~ proposed two assumptions to elucidate ~~the distribution and~~
251 ~~scale of the~~ aspect-dependent landslides ~~distribution and scale~~. The first assumption is that the basal area of the
252 landslide may ~~be~~ related to the soil strength and ~~the~~ high pore-water pressure. This assumption can be tested by the
253 pore water properties, including the pore water generation potential and dissipation ratio, during the fail~~ure~~ing
254 process. The second assumption is that the south-facing slope may have ~~a~~ ~~relatively~~ higher failure potential than the
255 north-facing slope in ~~a~~ given rainfall process, ~~which~~ ~~This~~ can be ~~determined elucidated from~~by the stability
256 comparison using ~~the methods of~~ equations (8) and (9).



257
 258 **Fig. 2.** Spatial distribution and geometric characteristics of the landslide: (a) Landslide area probability vs slope
 259 aspect; (b) landslide number probability vs slope aspect; (c) landslide volume and width vs slope aspect; (d)
 260 scar depth and sidewall depth vs slope aspect. (The edge line of “box” in the box chart shows the 75th
 261 quantile, median and 25th quantile from top to bottom. The length of the box is referred to as called the inter-
 262 quartile distance. The crossed square inside the box is the average value. The whiskers extend to the maximum
 263 and minimum values except the outliers. The circles are the outliers, and the cross symbol is the maximum
 264 and minimum values for all the data).



265
 266 **Fig. 3.** Upslope contributing area and slope gradient condition: (a) Upslope contribution area and mean slope vs
 267 slope aspect; and; (b) the upslope contributing area vs mean slope gradient above the landslide area. (The large
 268 icons are the average value with the radius size proportional to the number of landslides. The small icons
 269 represent all the individual data values).

270 4.2 Differences in soil physical properties

271 To show/reveal the differences in the physical properties of the hillslope materials, the dry unit weights, porosity,

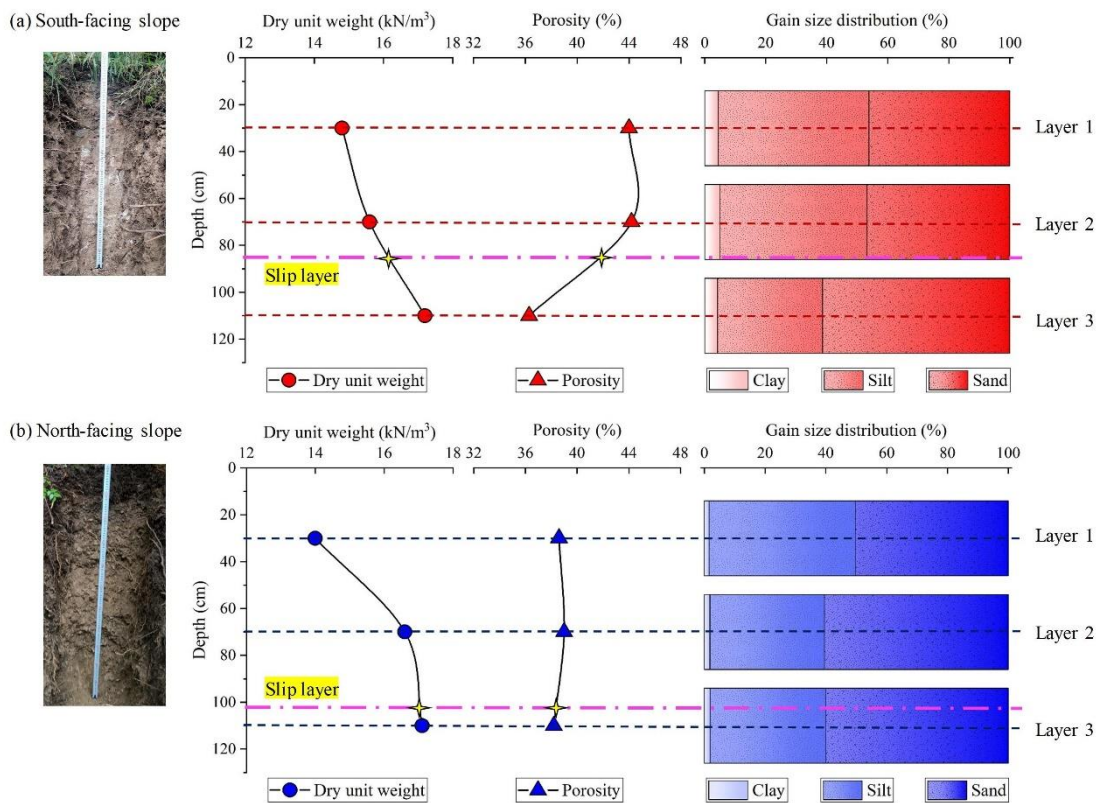
272 and grain size distribution of the soil mass in the three layers on each slope were firstly compared (Fig. 4). Then,
 273 the effective cohesion and inner friction angle were then examined with respect to the particle component (Table 1
 274 and Fig. 5).

275

276

Table 1 Physical properties and strength parameters of the soil mass

Parameters	South-facing slope			North-facing slope		
	Layer 1	Layer 2	Layer 3	Layer 1	Layer 2	Layer 3
Unit weight of soil (kN/m ³)	14.8	15.6	17.2	14	16.6	17.1
Porosity (%)	43.0	43.1	36.2	42.5	37.3	36.4
Effective cohesion (kPa)	6.5	17.5	21.2	5.3	9.1	7.9
Effective inner friction angle (°)	29.8	25	31	27.1	35.2	41
Saturated hydraulic conductivity (cm/s)	6.4×10 ⁻³	6.2×10 ⁻⁴	4.4×10 ⁻⁴	8.8×10 ⁻³	1.2×10 ⁻³	4.3×10 ⁻³



277

278 Fig. 4. Differences in the soil properties, including dry unit weights, porosity, and grain size in sand, silt, and clay.

279 (a) Physical properties of soil mass on the south-facing slope; and (b) physical properties of soil mass on the

280 north-facing slope. (The two soil profile photos were taken by Yanglin Guo during field studies investigations.)

281

282 For the soil mass on the south-facing slope, the dry unit weights increased with soil depth, whereas while the

283 porosity and saturated hydraulic conductivity decreased (Fig. 4a and Table 1). For the soil layers No. 1 and 2, the

284 soil textures were similar, because as the proportions of sand, silt, and clay did not differ significantly do not

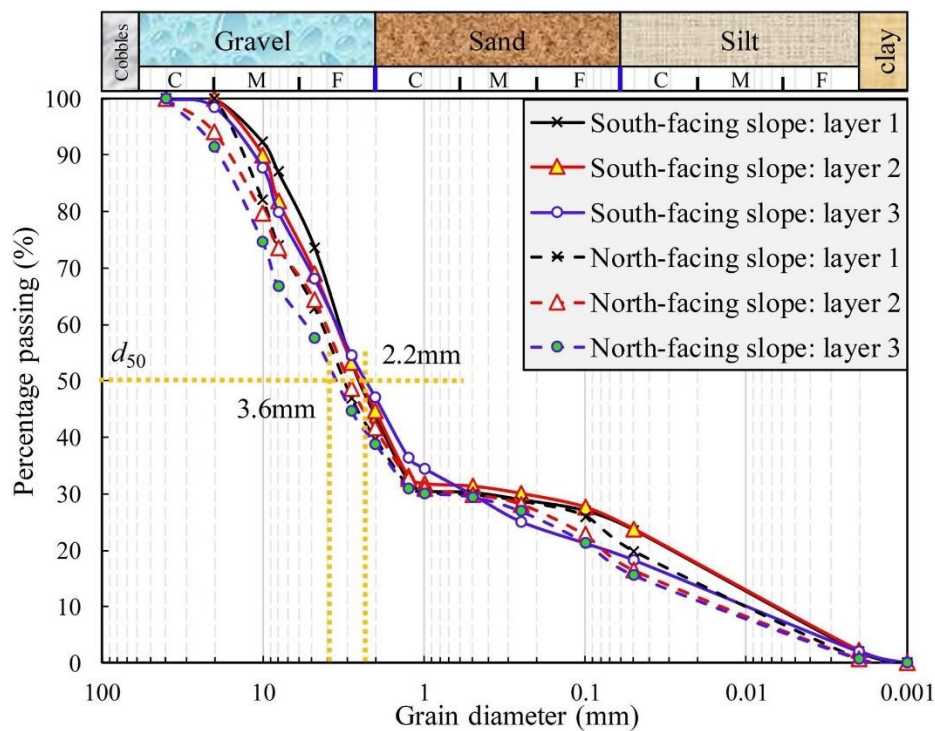
285 differentiate a lot. However, the proportion of silt in the soil layer No. 3 was no more than that in layers No. 1

286 and 2, and the sand proportion was higher. In addition Besides, The averaged failure depth was above the soil

287 layer No. 3 and is below the soil layer No. 2. For the soil mass on the north-facing slope, the dry unit weights

288 also increased with soil depth. Unlike the south-facing slope, the porosity of the soil mass for the three soil layers
 289 was approximately about 38% and does not differentiate among them. For the the soil texture, the proportion of
 290 sand in at Soil Layer No. 1 was no more than that in Soil Layers No. 2 and 3 (Fig. 4b). Moreover Besides, The
 291 depth of the failure plane was close to that of Soil Layer No. 3.

292 In comparison, one of the main noticeable differences was the higher saturated hydraulic conductivity for the
 293 soil mass above the failure plane on the north-facing slope. This which may have resulted from the high porosity and
 294 sand proportion. This indicates that the rainfall infiltration on of the north-facing slope could penetrate faster than
 295 that of the south-facing slope. Indeed, The soil mass of the three layers on the south-facing slope had a relatively
 296 higher proportion of fine particles s-proportion than those on the north-facing slope; if the gravel was considered (Fig.
 297 5). As noted above, The saturated hydraulic conductivity for the soil masses from Soil of Layers No. 2 and 3 on the
 298 south-facing slope was lower than that on the north-facing slope. This is expected reasonable because the porosity
 299 and proportions of fines on the south-facing slope were is relatively higher.



300
 301 **Fig. 5.** Soil particle component curves

302 According to the results of the triaxial shear test (Table 1), the soil mass in each layer on the nNorth-facing
 303 slope had a smaller effective cohesion than that one comparing to the south-facing slope. In particular, The effective
 304 cohesion on the failure plane for landslides on the the south-facing slopes may be twice two times of than that on the
 305 north-facing slopes. However, the effective inner friction angles for the soil masses of Soil Layers No. 2 and 3 on
 306 the north-facing slope were far greater more than those on the south-facing slope. These Such differences in effective
 307 cohesion and inner frictional angle may be attributed to the higher clay and silt and fewer less coarse grains within
 308 the soil mass on the south-facing slope.

309 4.3 Pore -water pressure properties

310 The consolidation module of the triaxial shear test was used to measure the generation and dissipation process
 311 of the pore water pressure. The principle is to consolidate and drain the soil from the initial saturated state. It was
 312 found that Under the same confining pressure, there are pronounced obvious differences in the consolidation rate,
 313 consolidation time, and peak rise in of pore water pressure for of different soil properties of soil. The results of the
 314 pore water pressure during the consolidation process under 200 kPa effective confining pressure were taken here

(Fig. 6). It was found that the peak value of pore water pressure within the soil mass on the south-facing slope was higher than that on the north-facing slope. The peak value of the pore water pressure within the soil mass on the south-facing slope increased to 150–200 kPa. However, the peak value of pore water pressure within the soil mass on the north-facing slope was below 150 kPa. Importantly, Both of the rising and decaying rates of pore water pressure for soil mass layers No. 1 and 2 on the south-facing slope were lower than those at on the north-facing slope. In detail, the rising rate and decaying rates for the soil mass layer No. 2 on the south-facing slope were 1.2 kPa/10 s and -0.031 kPa/10 s, respectively. However, they were 9.6 kPa/10 s and -0.765 kPa/10 s for the soil mass on the north-facing slope.

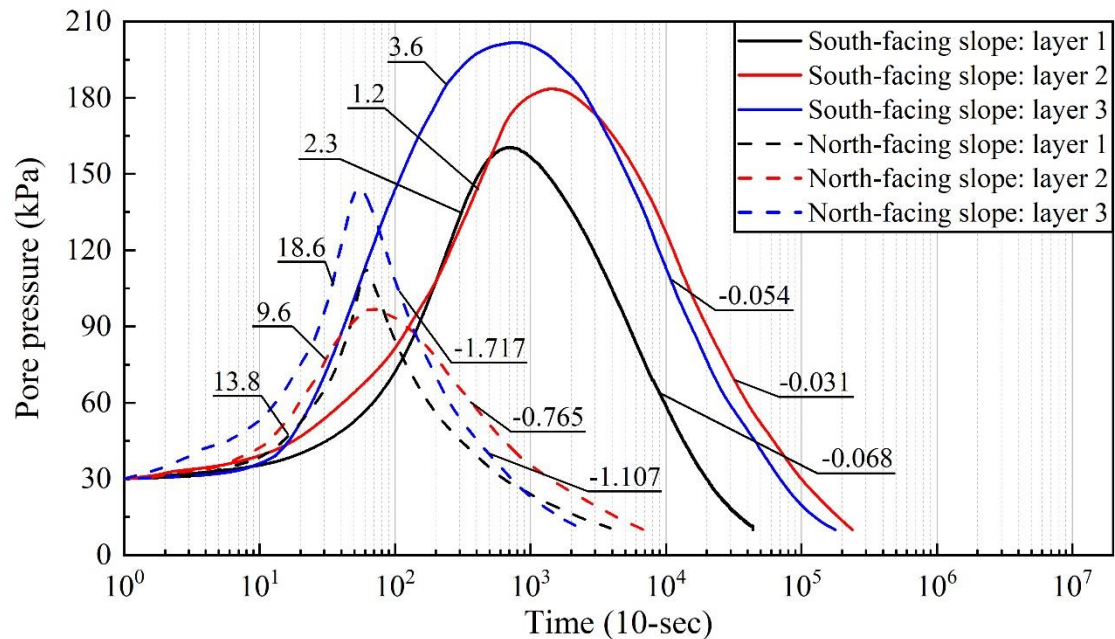


Fig. 6. Variation of pore water pressure under effective confining pressure of 200 kPa by GDS triaxial shear tests.

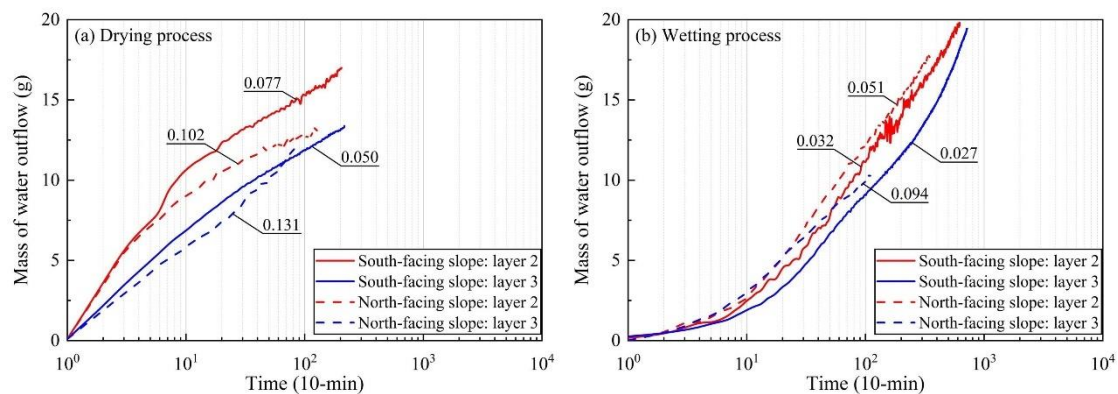
In fact, the relatively lower peak pore water pressure demonstrates and illustrates the effect of fine particles on the pore water pressure, which directly affects the landslide mobility and the scale. It is generally believed that the rainfall-induced landslides result from an increase in positive pore water pressure within the failure plane, which reduces the effective stress and the shear strength of the soil (Terzaghi, 1950). This often occurs in the undrained soil layer, which can easily cause slope liquefaction (Sassa, 1984). The increase in pore water pressure predominantly depends on the speed of landslide movement, soil deformation, and soil permeability. If the shear rate is the given, the dissipation rate of pore water pressure for high-permeability soil is faster, and therefore the increase in pore pressure is smaller (Iverson and LaHusen, 1989; Iverson et al., 1997). As shown in Table 1, the saturated hydraulic conductivity for soil mass layers No. 2 and 3 on the north-facing slope was commonly 10 times that of the south-facing slope. Therefore, the measured peak pore water pressure during the test for the soil mass on the south-facing slope would be smaller. In addition, the soil mass on the north-facing slope had relatively higher sand and gravel contents than that on the south-facing slope (Fig. 5). A high clay content on the south-facing slope would fill the macropores within the soil mass and reduced the pore water discharge rate of pore water. Wang and Sassa (2003) found that fine particles play the most important role in the dissipation of pore pressure. The pore water pressure within the saturated sand will increase with the shear rate. The soil mass with high coarse particles will produce less pore water pressure than the soil with high fine particles during the shear process. Therefore, the high permeability of the soil mass on the south-facing slope may result in relatively low peak pore water pressure. The

344 relatively higher fine particles may result in a slow increase and dissipation of the pore water pressure.
 345 This such slow pore water pressure dissipation could result in the liquefaction failure of the sliding mass and a
 346 relatively larger landslide area.

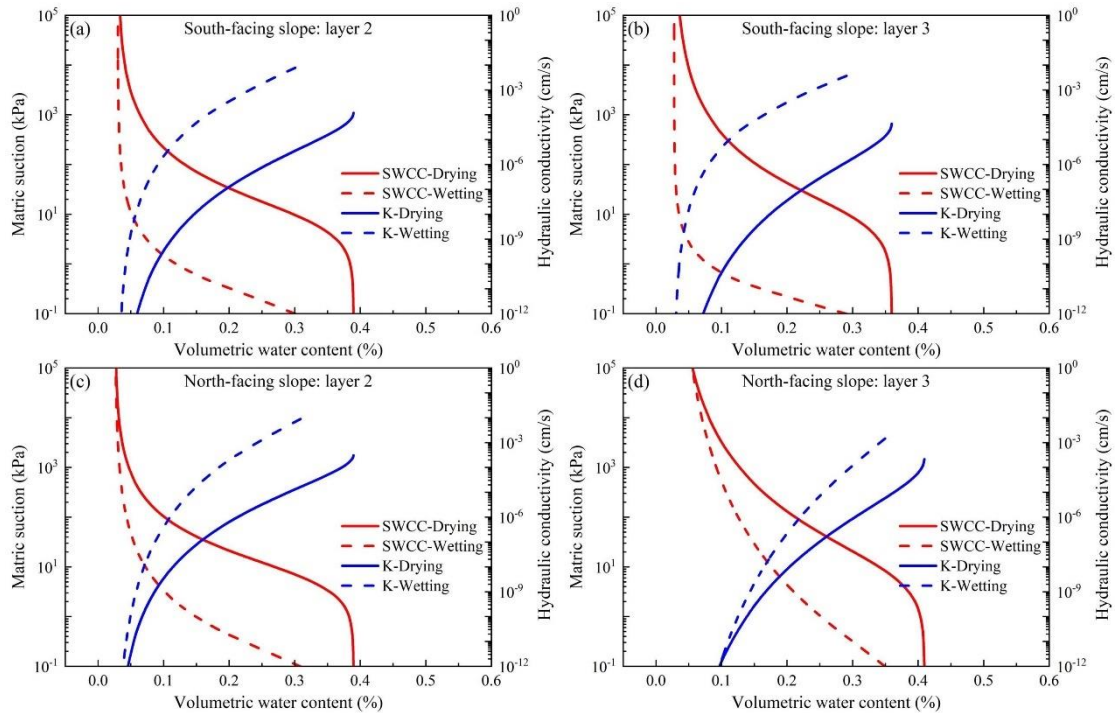
347 4.4 Unsaturated hydraulic conductivity

348 4.4.1 Measured water outflow mass

349 Figure 7 shows the measured water outflow mass measured for a given 10 min period during the
 350 drying and wetting processes. The measured water outflow masses measured for Soil of Layers No. 2 and 3 on the
 351 north-facing slope were generally higher than those on the south-facing slope. For the drying tests using the soil
 352 mass of Soil Layers No. 2 and 3 on the north-facing slope, the given water outflow masses were 0.102 g/10-min
 353 and 0.131 g/10-min, respectively. However, the measured water outflow masses measured for the soil mass of Soil
 354 Layers No. 2 and 3 were 0.077 g/10-min and 0.050 g/10-min, respectively, on the south-facing slope, respectively
 355 (Fig. 7a). For tests using the same layers of the soil mass in the wetting process, the measured water outflow masses
 356 measured were 0.051 g/10-min and 0.094 g/10-min on the north-facing slope, respectively, and while those are
 357 0.032 g/10-min and 0.027 g/10-min, respectively, on the south-facing slope (Fig. 7b). Overall as a whole, the
 358 permeability of the soil mass on the north-facing slope was higher than that on the south-facing slope. The
 359 same results were also obtained when the saturated hydraulic conductivities of the soil layers were measured using by
 360 the constant water head method (Table 1).



361
 362 **Fig. 7.** Mass of water outflow during the drying and wetting process: (a) drying tests, (b) wetting tests-



363

364 **Fig. 8.** Soil water characteristic curve obtained using the TRIM test: (a) Layer No. 2 on the south-facing slope,
 365 (b) Layer No. 3 on the south-facing slope, (c) Layer No. 2 on the north-facing slope, and (d) Layer No. 3 on
 366 the north-facing slope.

367

368

4.4.2 SWCC and HCF curves

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

The hydraulic properties, such as the Soil Water Characteristic Curve (SWCC) and Hydraulic Conductivity Function (HCF), are critical for the analysis of water flow movement and mechanical behavior of unsaturated soil material. In this study, the unsaturated hydraulic property measurement adopted the Transient Release and Imbibition Method (TRIM) for unsaturated hydraulic property measurement. The intelligent advantage of the TRIM method is TRIM method lies in that it combines physical and numerical experiments. In detail, it employs the relatively simple and reliable measurement of transient water content using an electronic balance to record the signature of transient unsaturated flow. It also takes advantage of the robust inverse modeling capability to simulate the physical process. The apparatus could accommodate both undisturbed and remolded samples. The results of this study were obtained by using the Hydrus-1D code with the reverse modeling option, which implemented the Levenberg-Marquardt non-linear optimization algorithm. This minimized the error between the results of the test and the simulation (Wayllace and Lu, 2012). Meanwhile, in order to ensure the uniqueness of the parameters, the aforementioned algorithm repeatedly runs with different initial parameter estimates, until it always converges to obtain the same or similar results. The prediction results are then compared with the function curves of water flow and time obtained from the actual experiment, so that they can be basically combined to meet certain accuracy requirements. In this experiment, the R square of the regression between the optimized predicted value and the observed value was greater than 0.99. In addition, the model constraint effect of the TRIM under two suction increment steps was better, and the parameters obtained by the inversion calculation were more accurate (Lu and Godt, 2013). Table 2 shows the soil characteristic parameters obtained using the Hydrus 1-D inversion.

Using these parameters, the SWCC and HCF curves of the soil mass at soil layers No. 2 and 3 on the north- and south-facing slopes can be drawn (Fig. 8). The air-entry pressures and residual water content are two important parameters that describe the hydrological and mechanical characteristics of the hillslope materials. The air-entry

pressures represents the critical value at which air enters the saturated soil and starts to drain. For the Soil Layer No. 2, the difference between the air-entry values of the north- and south-facing slopes can reach 14.03 kPa (Figs. 8a and 8c). In addition Besides, The residual water contents and air-entry pressures of the south-facing slope were higher than those of the north-facing slope. For the Soil Layer No. 3, the soil mass on the north-facing slope has the smallest air-entry pressure, which is 0.51 times that of the air-entry pressure of the south-facing slope (Figs. 8b and 8d). The saturated hydraulic conductivities of Soil Layers No. 2 and 3 on the south-facing slope were lower than those on the north-facing slope in both the drying and wetting processes. In particular, The saturated hydraulic conductivity of the soil mass on the north-facing slope in the wetting test was one order of magnitude higher than that on the south-facing slope. These results suggest imply that it is more difficult for the soil mass the soil mass on south-facing slope is more difficult to absorb water and drain water than the soil mass on the north-facing slope.

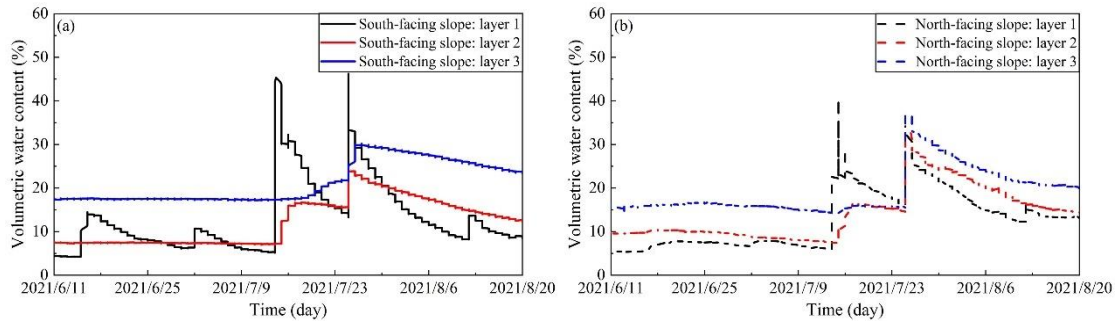
Table 2 Parameters describing the Soil and Water Characteristic Curve (SWCC) and the Hydraulic Conductivity Function (HCF) from by Hydrus 1-D

Parameters	Definition	South-facing slope		North-facing slope	
		Layer 2	Layer 3	Layer 2	Layer 3
θ_r	Residual moisture	0.0302	0.0278	0.0262	0.0268
θ_s^d	Saturated moisture	0.39	0.36	0.39	0.41
θ_s^w		0.36	0.38	0.39	0.42
α^d (kPa ⁻¹)	The inverse of the air-entry pressure head	0.0128	0.0117	0.0156	0.0141
α^w (kPa ⁻¹)		0.78	0.94	1.21	1.86
n^d	The pore size distribution parameter	1.49	1.39	1.57	1.27
n^w		1.63	1.85	1.43	1.18
K_s^d (cm/s)	Saturated hydraulic conductivity	1.52×10^{-4}	0.64×10^{-4}	3.76×10^{-4}	4.56×10^{-4}
K_s^w (cm/s)		9.58×10^{-2}	4.93×10^{-2}	4.10×10^{-1}	4.68×10^{-1}

Notes: the superscript *d* and *w* indicate drying and wetting states.

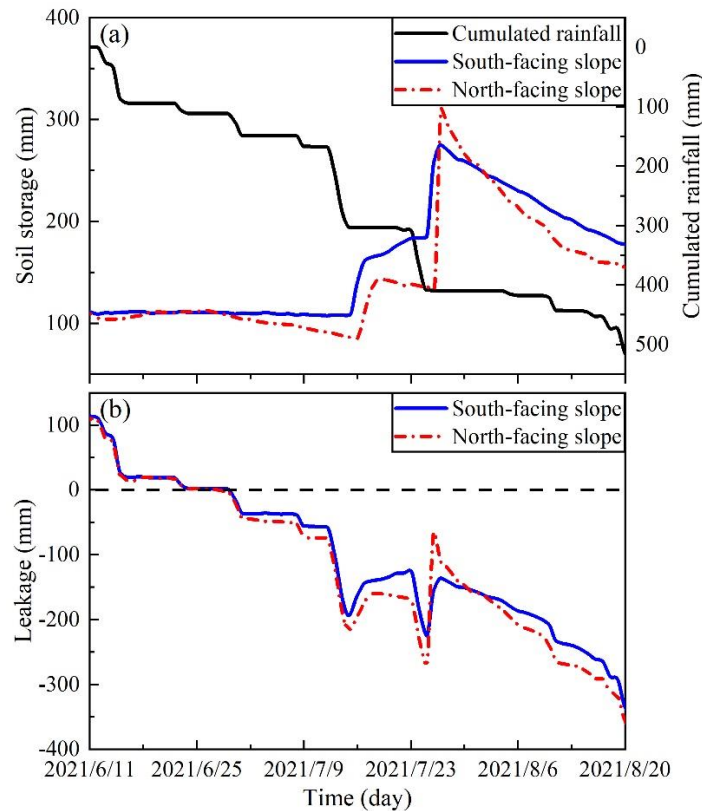
4.5 Water storage and drainage

To show exhibit the water storage during the rainfall process and the water drainage after the rainfall, the timely recorded soil moisture at various soil layers and the rainfall process during June 11 and August 20 were used (Figs. 9a and 9b). In comparison, this is likely the most important significant finding, as it shows that the soil becomes nearly saturated on the south slope, but while not on the north slope. This implies that the soil water on the south-facing slope has difficulty in draining because of the presence of more fine grains and the slow pore water pressure dissipation. In addition Besides, The stable soil moisture from of Soil Layers No. 2 and 3 for both slopes may be attributed to the long dry seasons in the study area, and the daily rainfall amount > 30 mm on July 9 and 23 resulted in an increase in soil moisture increase for all the slope layers.



414
415
416

Fig. 9. Field monitored volumetric water content: (a) Soil moisture on the south-facing slope, and (b) soil moisture on the north-facing slope.



417
418
419

Fig. 10. Seepage model of slope water storage and drainage: (a) soil water storage, (b) soil water drainage

420 It can be seen from Fig. 10a shows that the storied water of the north- and south-facing slopes ~~did~~ not
421 synchronously increase with the accumulated precipitation. When the storied water rapidly increase rapidly, the
422 increase in of the soil water storage of the north-facing slope was greater larger than that of the south-facing slope.
423 On July 26, a rainfall of 30.8 mm/h was recorded occurred, and the water storage of the slope reached the peak. It
424 can be seen that the peak of the water storage on of the north-facing slope was higher than that of the south-
425 facing slope. However, when the accumulated rainfall tends to be stable, that is, when the rainfall stops for a period
426 of time, the decline rate of the soil water storage on the north-facing slope is substantially much higher than that on
427 the south-facing slope. In general, the soil water storage of the south-facing slope was always higher than that of
428 the north-facing slope during the rainfall process. During the process of drainage process, the seepage rate of the
429 north-facing slope was greater than that of the south-facing slope (Fig. 10b). Therefore, the south-facing slope had
430 a better water storage performance, and the north-facing slope had a higher drainage performance.

431 **4.6 Stability fluctuation**

In this study, the infinite slope model and the finite slope model were used to characterize the sensitivity of landslide triggering, in order to determine the main mechanism of high overwhelming landslide probability on south-facing slopes. The infinite slope model can be used to examine studies the transient stress changes caused by water entering the soil, emphasizing the differences in soil permeability (Lu and Likos, 2006; Lu and Godt, 2013). The finite slope model focuses on the cohesion of the base surface and lateral periphery of the ground landslide source body, as well as the influence of the lateral additional lateral cohesion provided by the vegetation root system for the landslide (Schmidt et al., 2001; Dai et al., 2022).

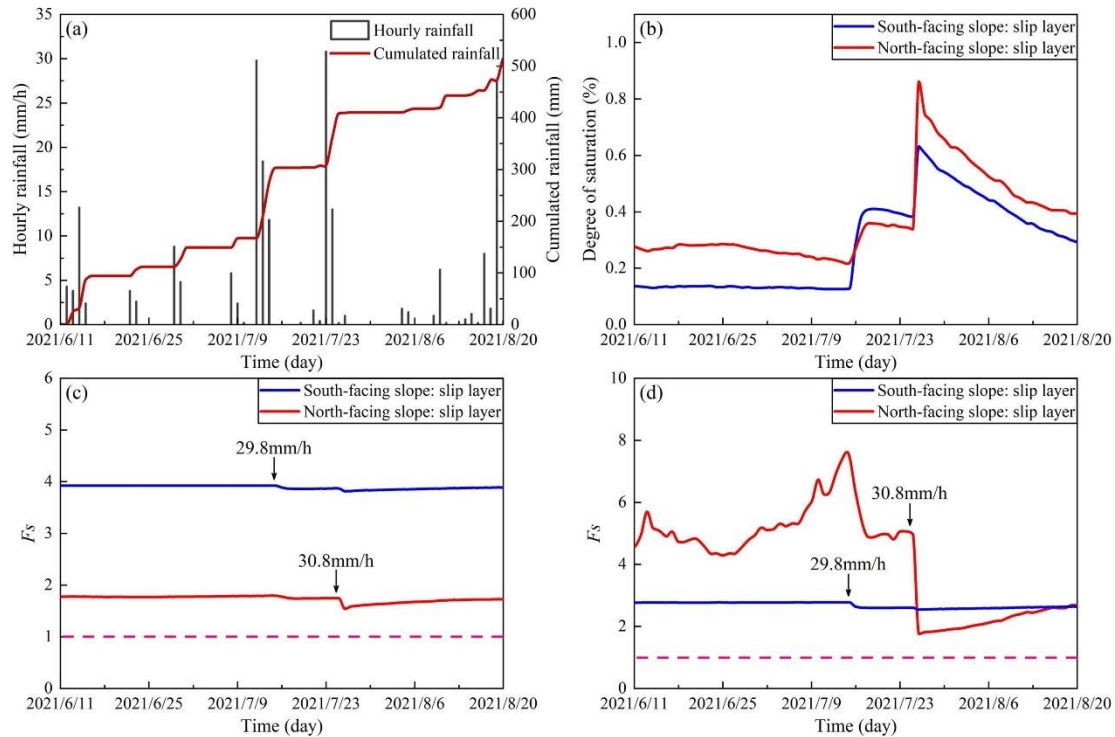


Fig. 11. Change in slope stability fluctuation: (a) rainfall records, (b) degree of saturation, (c) stability of finite slope model, and (d) stability of infinite slope model.

Figure 11a shows the rainfall records from June 11 to August 20, 2021. In general, the degree of saturation degree of the sliding layer on the south-facing slope was higher than that on the north-facing slope (Fig. 11b). In the finite model, the stability of the south-facing slope was always higher than that of the north-facing slope (Fig. 11c). In the infinite model, the stability of the north-facing slope was generally higher than that of the south-facing slope, and the stability of the north-facing slope fluctuated substantially significantly (Fig. 11d). On July 26, a rainfall event with a maximum intensity of 30.8 mm/h resulted in a sudden decrease in stability. More importantly, the estimated stability index of the north-facing slope decreased to become lower than that of the south-facing slope, and then while increased afterwards. Although the soil moisture of the south-facing slope increased substantially significantly during the rainfall event on July 16, the stability fluctuation was relatively very small. This may which might be related to the relatively strong effective cohesion and smaller pore structure. In Overall, the results of the finite slope model have shown reveal that the south-facing slope has a relatively high stability. This which is predominantly mainly attributed to the fact that the effective cohesion of hillslope materials on the south-facing slope being is stronger than that of in the north-facing slope although, even though the basal area of the landslide is more than double twice. However, this result is inconsistent with the high overwhelming landslide density on the south-facing slopes. The rResults of the infinite slope model, Considering the soil characteristic parameters of the soil moisture characteristic curve, the results of the infinite slope model have shown revealed that

the north-facing slope shows a higher level of stability. In the analysis of finite and infinite models, the stability fluctuation amplitude of the south-facing hillslope was smaller than that of the north-facing hillslope. This indicated, indicating that the water movement on the south-facing slope was less active than that on the north-facing slope. Therefore, in this study area, the change in soil stress was more sensitive to the slope stability than the change in soil cohesion. It was verified that the change in soil permeability caused by the differential weathering of the bedrock could be responsible for the aspect-dependent landslide initiation in the study area.

5 Discussion

The landslide-overwhelming propensity for landslides in some arid environments in the Northern Hemisphere is scientifically interesting, and some researchers/scholars have highlighted the contribution of plant roots. This/Such a finding is to/would be expected in the future in other mountain regions, where water is a limiting factor for local system sustainability. In the Colorado Frontal range, McGuire et al. (2016) found that the apparent cohesion supplied by roots was responsible for the observed-connection observed between landslide distribution and slope aspect (Ebel, 2015; Rengers et al., 2016). In the study area, Li et al. (2021) also found that the-plant roots may explain the observed-connection observed between vegetation cover and landslide probability for the entire/whole study area. Furthermore, Dai et al. (2022) found that a strong root network and high saturated hydraulic conductivity may promote the A-S condition of shallow landslides. On the the-Loess Plateau in China, some scholars researchers have observed that the strong overwhelming propensity for shallow landslide initiation is closely related to the present-day tree density, and plant roots do not penetrate over the failure plane (Guo et al., 2020; Deng et al., 2022). However, the strong overwhelming propensity for shallow landslides on north- and south-facing slopes could not be attributed to the-plant roots, because as the artificial man-made-vegetation on both slopes is are the same. Conversely, these/such observations could be the result of/from the soil hydraulic and mechanical properties from owing to differential weathering.

This study/work contributed to the-knowledge of/know about the effect of differential weathering on the aspect-dependent landslide initiation from/by the perspective of soil hydraulic properties, in addition to/other than from the mechanical and hydrological effects of plant roots. Except for the strong overwhelming-propensity for a high number of/in landslides-number, the-shallow landslides on south-facing slopes have exhibited relatively-larger areas and greater-wider widths than those on the north-facing slopes (Fig. 2). The/in-comparison, the effective cohesion of the failure zone on the south-facing slope was stronger than that on the north-facing slope. It seems that the basal area of shallow landslides in the study area may be attributed to the-effective cohesion, because as some statistical results have shown/reveal that incoherent materials favor shallow landslides with no limitation in size. Meanwhile, cohesive materials favor deep landslides and show a limitation for small sizes (Larsen et al., 2010; Frattini and Crosta, 2013; Milledge et al., 2014). However, a stronger effective cohesion tends to promote the A-S conditions of shallow landslides. In other words, A relatively-larger up-slope contributing area or steeper gradient is required to trigger slope failures. In fact, Fig. 3 shows/illustrates that some shallow landslides on south-facing slopes fail on relatively-lower upslope contributing areas. Therefore, the-soil hydraulic property-related factors, such as the rising or dissipation of pore water pressure, water storage, and drainage, may contribute to the observed phenomena observed.

The saturated hydraulic conductivities obtained by the by-constant water head method and TRIM methods coincide with each other, which together demonstrates/proves that the hillslope material on the north-facing slope has a relatively-larger water infiltration (Tables 1 and 2). However, the results of the stability analysis using/by the finite and infinite models imply that the failure potential of slides on a north-facing slope is relatively-lower than that on a south-facing slope, although the stability index fluctuates more heavily than the north-facing slope. These/Such differences imply that slope failures on a north-facing slope may only occur only-under intensive rainfall

~~conditions on condition of intensive rainfall merely~~, or by a combination of prolonged antecedent precipitation and short-duration intensive rainfall. For potential failures on south-facing slopes, the combination of prolonged antecedent precipitation and short-duration intensive rainfall should be ~~a potential~~ ~~the possible~~ trigger ~~owing due~~ to the low hydraulic conductivity and pore water pressure dissipation. ~~Additionally, This~~ ~~study work mainly~~ highlights the role of hydraulic properties ~~in the~~ landslide occurrence. ~~Al~~ ~~Though~~ the south- and north-facing slopes are ~~merely~~ underlain by granite, the physical properties of hillslope materials, such as ~~the~~ excessive pore water pressure, strength of sliding mass, soil water storage, and leakage, ~~are significantly different~~ ~~differentiates a lot~~. ~~Such a~~ ~~This~~ finding cannot be random because the study area ~~has been~~ ~~is~~ selected on ~~the~~ condition that it is ~~relatively~~ far from the northern and eastern areas, where local soils are ~~predominantly~~ ~~mainly from~~ ~~loess~~ deposits, and the study areas of Li et al. (2021) and Dai (2022), where the bedrock underneath differs ~~substantially~~ ~~greatly~~. ~~Finally, This~~ ~~is~~ main purpose of this work ~~is merely to~~ ~~elucidates~~ the reason ~~for of the~~ aspect-dependent landslide initiation ~~from by~~ the perspective of soil hydraulic properties. ~~These~~ ~~Such~~ differences ~~essentially~~ ~~results~~ from ~~the~~ differential weathering owing to the amount of direct sunlight. Other mechanics, such as numerical or relative dating methods ~~and~~, preferential flow in ~~the~~ macro-pore distribution, could provide new evidences ~~for to~~ such observations.

6 Conclusion

Previous researches ~~on about~~ the ~~strong overwhelming~~ propensity ~~for of~~ shallow landslides on south-facing slopes over north-facing slopes ~~has~~ highlighted the role of plant roots. In a localized area with ~~the~~ same vegetation, ~~including especially the~~ plant roots, ~~they do~~ ~~does~~ not penetrate ~~the over~~ failure layer. ~~These~~ ~~such~~ observations ~~cannot~~ ~~could be~~ ~~not~~ attributed to plant roots and may result from the differential weathering of bedrock under the influence of hydrothermal conditions. In this ~~study work~~, we jointly explained the influence of bedrock weathering on soil hydraulic properties from physical and mechanical properties, pore water pressure, unsaturated hydraulic conductivity, water storage and drainage, and slope stability fluctuation during monitoring, and studied ~~the~~ landslide initiation related to slope direction. The following conclusions ~~were can be~~ drawn:

(1) In terms of soil physical and mechanical properties on both slopes, the soil masses on ~~the~~ south-facing slope ~~we~~ are rich in clay content, ~~whereas while~~ the soil mass on ~~the~~ north-facing slope ~~had~~ ~~s~~ ~~relatively~~ high sand content. The effective cohesion ~~of the~~ soil mass on ~~the~~ south-facing slope ~~was~~ higher than that on ~~the~~ north-facing slope, while the effective frictional angle ~~was~~ smaller.

(2) ~~The r~~ Results of the GDS tests ~~showed~~ ~~revealed~~ that the dissipation rate of pore water pressure for soil mass on the south-facing slope ~~was~~ ~~substantially~~ ~~much~~ lower than that ~~on~~ the north-facing slope. Higher effective cohesion and ~~the~~ slower pore water pressure dissipation may result in ~~a the~~ larger basal area ~~for of~~ shallow landslides on south-facing slopes.

(3) The soil mass on ~~the~~ south-facing slope ~~had~~ ~~s~~ a higher residual water content and air-entry pressure, and a lower saturated hydraulic conductivity than that ~~of on~~ the north-facing slope. For ~~the~~ water storage and drainage performance, the storied water ~~from of~~ the south-facing slope ~~was~~ higher than that of the north-facing slope, while the north-facing slope ~~had~~ ~~s~~ a higher leakage rate. ~~The r~~ Results of the stability analysis ~~based on the on~~ ~~basis of~~ finite and infinite models ~~show~~ ~~illustrate~~ that the infinite slope model may be suitable for elucidating ~~the~~ aspect-dependent landslide distribution in the study area.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (Grant No. 2018BLCB03), ~~the~~ State Key Program of National Natural Science of China (Grant No. 42130701), and the National Nature Science Foundation of China (42177309). The authors sincerely thank the contributions ~~off from~~ other colleges, including Muyang Li, Zhisheng Dai, Lv Miao, Lijuan Wang, ~~and~~ Jiayong Deng, for ~~their~~ previous work near the study area.

544 **Code/Data availability**

545 The raw/processed data in this work cannot be shared at this time, ~~because~~ the data also forms part of an ongoing
546 study.

547 **Author contributions**

548 Professor Ma Chao found ~~a strong~~ ~~the overwhelming~~-propensity ~~for~~ shallow landslide initiation on south-facing
549 hillslopes in the study area and launched ~~the~~ research proposal. Miss Yanglin Guo ~~completed~~ ~~finished~~ the sampling
550 collection and indoor tests.

551 **Competing interests**

552 All authors have declared that there were no conflicts of interests and competing interests.

553 **References**

- 554 [1] Bierman, P. R., Montgomery, D. R.: Key Concepts in Geomorphology, W.H. Freeman, 2014.
- 555 [2] Birkeland, P. W.: Soils and Geomorphology, New York: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- 556 [3] Bogaard, T. A., Greco, R.: Landslide hydrology: from hydrology to pore pressure, Wiley Interdiscip. Rev.
557 Water, 3, 439-459, <https://doi.org/10.1002/wat2.1126>, 2016.
- 558 [4] Coe, J. A., Kean, J. W., Godt, J. W., Baum, R. L., Jones, E. S., Gochis, D. J., Anderson, G. S.: New insights
559 into debris-flow hazards from an extraordinary event in the Colorado front range, GSA Today, 24, 4-10,
560 <https://doi.org/10.1130/GSATG214A.1>, 2014.
- 561 [5] Dai, Z. S., Ma, C., Miao, L., Li, M. Y., Wu, J. L. and Wang, X. H.: Initiation conditions of shallow landslides
562 in two man-made forests and back estimation of the possible rainfall threshold, Landslides, 19, 1031-1044,
563 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10346-021-01823-1>, 2022.
- 564 [6] Deng, J. Y., Ma, C., and Zhang, Y.: Shallow landslide characteristics and its response to vegetation by example
565 of July 2013, extreme rainstorm, Central Loess Plateau, China. Bulletin of Engineering Geology and the
566 Environment, 81-100, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10064-022-02606-1>, 2022.
- 567 [7] Ebel, B. A., Rengers, F. K., Tucker, G. E.: Aspect-dependent soil saturation and insight into debris-flow
568 initiation during extreme rainfall in the Colorado front range, Geology, 43, 659-662,
569 <https://doi.org/10.1130/G36741.1>, 2015.
- 570 [8] Fratini, P., Crosta, G. B.: The role of material properties and landscape morphology on landslide size
571 distributions, Earth Planet. Sci. Lett., 361, 310-319, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2012.10.029>, 2013.
- 572 [9] Fu, B. J., Wang, Y. F., Lu, Y. H., He, C. S., Chen, L. D., Song, C. J.: The effects of land-use combinations on
573 soil erosion: a case study in the Loess Plateau of China, Prog. Phys. Geo., 33, 793-804,
574 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0309133309350264>, 2009.
- 575 [10] Fu, B. P.: Mountain climate, Science Press, 1983 (in Chinese)
- 576 [11] Geroy, I. J., Gribb, M. M., Marshall, H. P., Chandler, D. G., Benner, S. G., McNamara, J. P.: Aspect influences
577 on soil water retention and storage, Hydrological Processes, 25, 3836-3842, <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.8281>,
578 2011.
- 579 [12] Godt, J. W., Baum, R. L., and Lu, N.: Landsliding in partially saturated materials. Geophys. Res. Lett., 36,
580 L02403, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2008GL035996>, 2009.
- 581 [13] Guo, F. Y., Meng, X. Y., Li, Z. H., Xie, Z. T., Chen, G., He, Y. F.: Characteristics and causes of assembled
582 geo-hazards induced by the rainstorm on 25th July 2013 in Tianshui City, Gansu, China, Mt. Res., 33, 100-
583 107, 2015 (in Chinese)
- 584 [14] Guo, W. Z., Chen, Z. X., Wang, W. L., Gao, W. W., Guo, M. M., Kang, H. L., Li, P. F., Wang, W. X., Zhao,
585 M.: Telling a different story: The promote role of vegetation in the initiation of shallow landslides during

-
- 586 rainfall on the Chinese Loess Plateau, *Geomorphology*, 350, 106879,
587 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2019.106879>, 2020.
- 588 [15] Hungr, O., McDougall, S., Bovis, M.: Entrainment of material by debris flows. In: Debris-flow Hazards and
589 Related Phenomena. Springer Praxis Books. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. [https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-](https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-27129-5_7)
590 [27129-5_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-27129-5_7), 2005.
- 591 [16] Iverson, R. M., LaHusen, R. G.: Dynamic pore-pressure fluctuations in rapidly shearing granular materials,
592 *Science*, 246, 796-799, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.246.4931.796>, 1989.
- 593 [17] Iverson, R. M., Reid, M. E., LaHusen, R. G.: Debris-flow mobilization from landslides, *Annu. Rev. Earth*
594 *Planet. Sci.*, 25, 85-138, <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.earth.25.1.85>, 1997.
- 595 [18] Iverson, R.M., Reid, M.E., Logan, M., Lahusen, R.G., Godt, J.W., Griswold, J.P.: Positive feedback and
596 momentum growth during debris-flow entrainment of wet bed sediment, *Nature. Geosci.*, 4(2), 116–121,
597 <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo1040>, 2011.
- 598 [19] Larsen, I. J., Montgomery, D. R., Korup, O.: Landslide erosion controlled by hillslope material, *Nat. Geosci.*,
599 3, 247-251, <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo776>, 2010.
- 600 [20] Lee, E., Kim, S. Seasonal and spatial characterization of soil moisture and soil water tension in a steep hillslope,
601 *J. Hydrol.*, 568, 676-685, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.11.027>, 2019.
- 602 [21] Li, M. Y., Ma, C., Du, C., Yang, W. T., Lyu, L. Q., Wang, X. H.: Landslide response to vegetation by example
603 of July 25-26, 2013, extreme rainstorm, Tianshui, Gansu Province, China, *Bull. Eng. Geol. Environ.*, 80, 751-
604 764, <https://doi.org/10.1016/10.1007/s10064-020-02000-9>, 2021.
- 605 [22] Lu, N., and Godt, J. W.: Hillslope hydrology and stability, Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, UK, 2013.
- 606 [23] Lu, N., and Likos, W. J.: Suction stress characteristic of unsaturated soils, *J. Geotech. Geoenviron. Eng.*, 132,
607 131-142, [http://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)1090-0241\(2006\)132:2\(131\)](http://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)1090-0241(2006)132:2(131)), 2006.
- 608 [24] McGuire, L. A., Rengers, F. K., Kean, J. W., Coe, J. A., Mirus, B. B., Baum, R. L., Godt, J. W.: Elucidating
609 the role of vegetation in the initiation of rainfall-induced shallow landslides: insights from an extreme rainfall
610 event in the Colorado front range, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43, 9084-9092, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GL070741>,
611 2016.
- 612 [25] Milledge, D. G., Bellugi, D., McKean, J. A., Densmore, A. L., Dietrich, W. E.: A multidimensional stability
613 model for predicting shallow landslide size and shape across landscapes, *J. Geophys. Res.: Earth Surf.*, 119,
614 2481-2504, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014JF003135>, 2014.
- 615 [26] Montgomery, D. R., Dietrich, W. E.: Landscape dissection and drainage area-slope thresholds, In: Kirkby MJ
616 (ed) *Process models and theoretical geomorphology*, John Wiley, Hoboken, N. J., pp: 221-246, 1994.
- 617 [27] Mualem, Y.: Hysteretical models for prediction of the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated porous media,
618 *Water Resour. Res.*, 12, 1248-1254, <https://doi.org/10.1029/WR012i006p01248>, 1976.
- 619 [28] Rengers, F. K., McGuire, L. A., Coe, J. A., Kean, J. W., Baum, R. L., Staley, D. M., Godt, J. W.: The influence
620 of vegetation on debris-flow initiation during extreme rainfall in the northern Colorado front range, *Geology*,
621 44, 823-826, <http://doi.org/10.1130/G38096.1>, 2016.
- 622 [29] Sassa, K.: The mechanism starting liquefied landslides and debris flows. *Proceedings of 4th International*
623 *Symposium on Landslides*, Toronto, Canada, vol. 2, pp. 349-354, 1984.
- 624 [30] Schmidt, K. M., Roering, J. J., Stock, J. D., Dietrich, W. E., Montgomery, D. R., Schaub, T.: The variability
625 of root cohesion as an influence on shallow landslide susceptibility in the Oregon Coast Range, *Can. Geotech.*,
626 38, 995-1024, <http://doi.org/10.1139/cgi-38-5-995>, 2001.
- 627 [31] Schwinning, S.: The ecohydrology of roots in rocks, *Ecohydrology: Ecosystems, land and water process*
628 *interactions*, *Ecohydrology*, 3, 238-245, <https://doi.org/10.1002/eco.134>, 2010.

-
- 629 [32] Terzaghi, K.: Mechanism of landslides. In: Paige, S. (Ed.), Application of Geology to Engineering Practice
630 (Berkey Volume). Geological Society of America, New York, pp. 83-123, 1950.
- 631 [33] Timilsina, S., Niemann, J. D., Rathburn, S. L., Rengers, F. K., Nelson, P. A.: Modeling hydrologic processes
632 associated with soil saturation and debris flow initiation during the September 2013 storm, Colorado Front
633 Range, Landslides, 18, 1741-1759, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10346-020-01582-5>, 2021.
- 634 [34] Van Genuchten, M. T.: A closed-form equation for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated soils,
635 Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J, 44, 892-898, <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1980.03615995004400050002x>, 1980.
- 636 [35] Wang, C. Y.: Study on the relationship between aspect and slope stability, Dissertation, Kunming University
637 of Science and Technology, 2008 (in Chinese).
- 638 [36] Wang, G. H., Sassa, K.: Pore-pressure generation and movement of rainfall-induced landslides: effects of grain
639 size and fine-particle content, Eng. Geol., 69, 109-125, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-7952\(02\)00268-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-7952(02)00268-5), 2003.
- 640 [37] Wang, X. H., Ma, C., Wang, Y. Q., Wang, Y. J., Li, T., Dai, Z. S., Li, M. Y.: Effect of root architecture on
641 rainfall threshold for slope stability: variabilities in saturated hydraulic conductivity and strength of root-soil
642 composite, Landslides, 17, 1965-1977, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10346-020-01422-6>, 2020.
- 643 [38] Watakabe, T., Matsushi, Y.: Lithological controls on hydrological processes that trigger shallow landslides:
644 Observations from granite and hornfels hillslopes in Hiroshima, Japan, Catena, 180: 55-68,
645 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2019.04.010>, 2019
- 646 [39] Wayllace, A., Lu, N.: A transient water release and imbibitions method for rapidly measuring wetting and
647 drying soil water retention and hydraulic conductivity functions. Geotech. Test. J., 35, 1-15, 2012.
- 648 [40] Yu, G. Q., Zhang, M. S., Hu, W.: Analysis on the development characteristics and hydrodynamic conditions
649 for massive debris flow in Tianshui, Northwest Geol., 47, 185-191, 2014 (in Chinese)