



1 Evolution of the Unsaturated Permeability and 2 Internal Erosion Characteristics of Ili loess 3 under Rainfall

4 **Abuduwaesi Tuerxun¹&Kaidierding Wulamu², Zizhao Zhang^{1,3*}, Qianli Lv¹, Runsen Lai^{1,3},
5 Yanyang Zhang^{1,3}, Zhiguo Xu⁴**

6 ¹ School of Geology and Mining Engineering, Xinjiang University, Urumqi 830017, China

7 ² Emergency Management Bureau of Yining City, Yining 835000, China

8 ³ Research Base of National Key Laboratory for Intelligent Construction and Healthy Operation and Maintenance of Deep Earth
9 Engineering, Xinjiang University, Urumqi 830017, China

10 ⁴ Xinjiang Geological Bureau Hydrogeology and Environmental Geology Survey Center, Urumqi 830017, China

11 *Correspondence: zhangzizhao@xju.edu.cn; Tel.: +86-136-3997-7295

12

13

14 **Abstract:** The evolution of microcharacteristics of the loess affected by the
15 combination of permeability and seepage erosion has a significant impact on the
16 integrity and stability of the loess slopes. To investigate the in-behind mechanics of
17 the loess under rainfall, the self-designed experimental framework was adopted for
18 laboratory procedures, during which scanning electron microscope tests, laser particle
19 size analysis, and numerical simulation analysis were conducted concurrently. The
20 experimental results showed that the unsaturated permeability of the loess increases
21 exponentially with increasing water content. The migration of clay particles alters soil
22 microstructure, thereby enhancing porosity and permeability, which is associated with
23 significant clay particle loss within the shallow layer. Loess accumulated in the deep
24 layer contributes to the formation of a lubricating water film layer with strong
25 lubricity, thereby reducing the overall stability of loess slopes. Furthermore, the
26 changed permeability stems from the conversion between micropores, small pores,
27 mesopores, and macropores. Internal erosion forms a layer of clay particle
28 aggregation at a certain depth, thereby promoting the formation of landslide slip
29 surfaces. This study is highly significant as it contributes to in-depth elucidation of the
30 mechanism underlying the impact of rainfall on the microstructure and unsaturated
31 permeability characteristics of the loess.

32 **Keywords:** unsaturated seepage; internal erosion; microstructure evolution; migration
33 of fine particle

34 1 Introduction

35 Loess, which is a typical aeolian fine-grained sediment that is widely distributed
36 worldwide (Garakani et al., 2015), covers approximately 631,000 km² in China. Loess
37 is mainly distributed in arid and semi-arid regions (Liu et al., 1964; Liu, 1985) and
38 accounts for approximately 6.6% of the total land area of China. Loess formations
39 within the Ili River Valley (hereafter referred to as the Ili loess) form a strip-like
40 pattern and are mainly distributed in river terraces, low hills, and foothill slopes. The
41 thickness of Ili loess generally ranges from several meters to nearly a hundred meters,
42 and the deposition age is mostly after the last glacial period (Ye et al., 2003). The



43 increased frequency of extreme weather events globally and the enhanced intensity of
44 human activities result in significant seasonal dynamic changes in terms of the
45 moisture content or extreme geological events in the Ili River Valley. These changes
46 lead to alterations in the matric suction of the soil mass, which affect the soil strength
47 and trigger geological disasters such as loess landslides (Cui, 2014; Jianbing et al.,
48 2014).

49 In summer, the Ili loess undergoes long-term infiltration of rainfall associated
50 with the altered internal structure, thereby accelerating the occurrence of geological
51 disasters (Wang et al., 2019). The Ili loess, which is characterized by large pores,
52 water sensitivity, and loose texture, is prone to landslide disasters (Smalley, 2001).
53 The loess with thick layers, owing to its vulnerability to internal erosion and
54 dissolution, is referred to as “Karst soil” (Jianbing et al., 2014). Correspondingly,
55 when fine particles—such as clay and silt—move through larger pores due to the
56 action of seepage, the process is known as permeation (Bendahmane et al., 2008;
57 Chapuis, 1992). Notably, when the internal structural characteristics of the soil are
58 changed, internal erosion influences the stability of loess strata through a complex
59 geological process. (Moffat et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2018). In contrast with surface
60 erosion, internal erosion develops within the loess layer, where seepage mobilizes fine
61 particles and redistributes them through the pore network (Bendahmane et al., 2008;
62 Kenney and Lau, 1985; Zhuang et al., 2015a). Notably, the movement and loss of fine
63 soil particles during the internal erosion process is expected to decrease the density
64 and strength of loess (Mao, 2005; Richards and Reddy, 2007; Vallejo, 2001).

65 Considering the crucial role played by permeability, thoroughly elucidating the
66 evolution of unsaturated permeability of the loess affected by rainfall is important.
67 Previous studies have developed various methods and instruments to measure the
68 unsaturated permeability (Gallage et al., 2013). However, owing to the low
69 unsaturated permeability of loess and long duration of seepage tests, the current
70 instrument is time-consuming (Ng and Leung, 2012). Compared with the steady-state
71 method, the instantaneous profile method can shorten the duration of permeability
72 testing. (Watson, 1966), as verified by Romero et al. (1999). Although the
73 macroscopic characteristics of the loess are primarily determined by its microstructure
74 structural features (Shao et al., 2018), rainfall causes changes in the original
75 microstructure of loess and is not sufficient for explaining the evolution mechanism of
76 unsaturated permeability of the loess (Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, the evolution of
77 the loess microstructure induced by the rainfall infiltration should be investigated, and
78 the corresponding microstructural characteristics of the loess should be determined.

79 Against the backdrop of the information above, three sets of rainfall infiltration
80 tests with rainfall intensities of 10, 20, and 30 mm/h were carried out. The unsaturated
81 permeability of Ili loess was then calculated based on the moisture content and matric
82 suction monitored using sensors. Subsequently, scanning electron microscope tests
83 and laser particle size analysis were conducted on the loess samples subjected to
84 different rainfall intensities. Apart from the laboratory tests, the COMSOL
85 Multiphysics was used to simulate the rainfall-induced seepage erosion process of the
86 Ili loess. The discussion at the end of this paper highlights the evolution mechanism

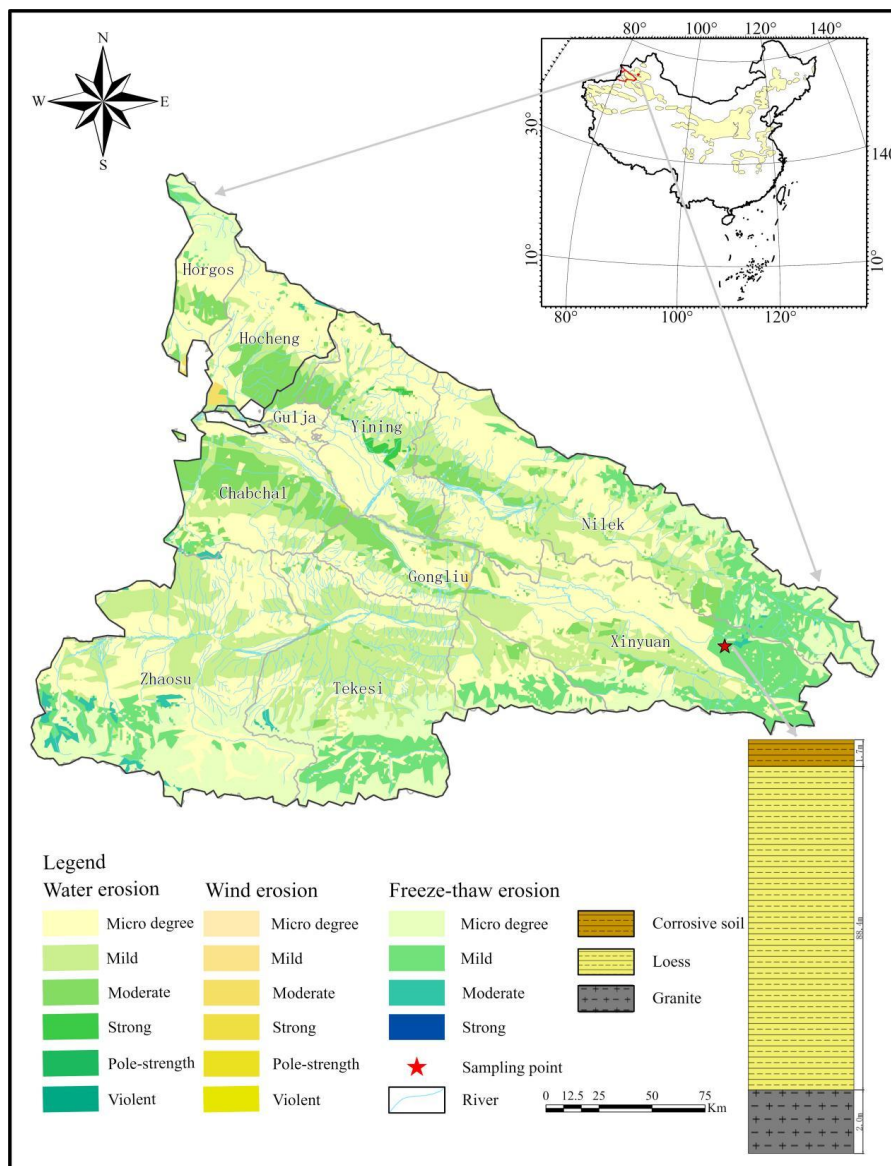


87 of the microstructure and unsaturated permeability of loess affected by varying
88 rainfall intensities. Additionally, the interaction mechanisms were explored.

89 **2 Experimental Materials and Methods**

90 **2.1 Experimental Materials**

91 The loess samples used in the present study were obtained from the Kalahaiyisu
92 landslide in the eastern part of Xinyuan County, Ili region, China(Fig. 1). The
93 landslide is a typical loess internal landslide with a slope direction of 320°, a
94 longitudinal length of 500–580 m, a transverse width of 100–400 m, and an average
95 slope gradient of 26. The slip surfaces of the landslide typically developed within the
96 loess layer or at the interface between the loess layer and other strata (Kaidierding
97 Wulamu et al., 2023). Fig. 1 shows that the geological strata are mainly composed of
98 the loess, the erosion characteristics of which are primarily dominated by hydraulic
99 and freeze-thaw erosion. Notably, the hydraulic erosion intensity near the loess
100 sampling location reached extremely high levels owing to the long-term influence of
101 rainfall and snowmelt infiltration. Table 1 presents the various physical characteristics
102 of the loess samples, whereas Fig. 2 shows the particle size distribution of the loess
103 samples. Evidently, the loess samples are classified as silty loess (Shepard, 1954)
104 because they are predominantly composed of silt (approximately 79.1%). The sand
105 and clay contents, at 10.08% and 10.82%, respectively, are considerably lower than
106 the silt content. .

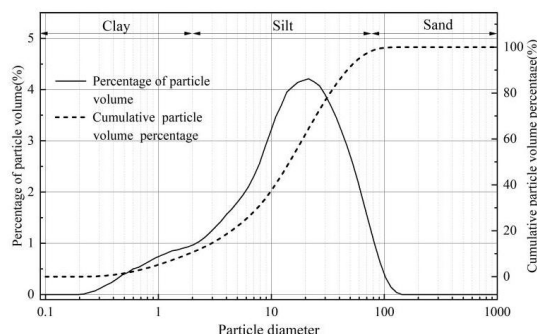


107

108

109

Fig. 1 Distribution of the sampling points and characteristics of their erosion (<http://www.resdc.cn>)



110
111
112
113

Fig. 2 Grain-size distribution curves of the tested loess

Table 1 Basic physical properties of the tested loess

Property	Value
Natural moisture content (%)	6.41
Porosity (%)	0.613
Liquid limit (%)	22
Plastic limit (%)	17
Natural density (g/cm^3)	1.43
Clay content (%)	10.82
Silt content (%)	79.1
Sand content (%)	10.08
Micropore area ratio (%)	2.15
Small pore area ratio (%)	5.68
Mesopore area ratio (%)	2.34

114
115

2.2 Permeation Test

2.2.1 Experimental Method

116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131

As shown in Fig. 3a, the self-designed cylindrical one-dimensional permeameter was developed to conduct unsaturated permeability tests. Both sides of the acrylic cylinder were uniformly perforated with 0.8 cm diameter holes, with vertical spacing of 10–20 cm. The distance between the first and second holes at the top was 10 cm, whereas the rest holes were spaced 20 cm apart. MTD-05 and MPS-6 sensors were installed through the side holes at different elevations along the soil column to record matric suction and volumetric water content during infiltration. The measurement range of the TEROS 21 matric potential sensor developed by the METER Group (Fig. 3c) ranges from -5 to $100,000$ kPa, with an accuracy of 2 kPa. The resolution of the sensor is 0.1 kPa and the measurement frequency is 70 MHz. The MTD-05 humidity sensor (Fig. 3d) has a measurement range of 0%–100%, with a resolution of 0.1% and an accuracy of 3%. To allow water reaching the base of the soil column to drain smoothly, 5 mm drainage holes were uniformly arranged at the bottom of the cylindrical permeameter. Notably, the rigid organic glass material was adopted to construct the permeameter because of budget limitations. However, a permeameter with flexible walls (Sadeghi and AliPanahi, 2020) should ideally be used because a



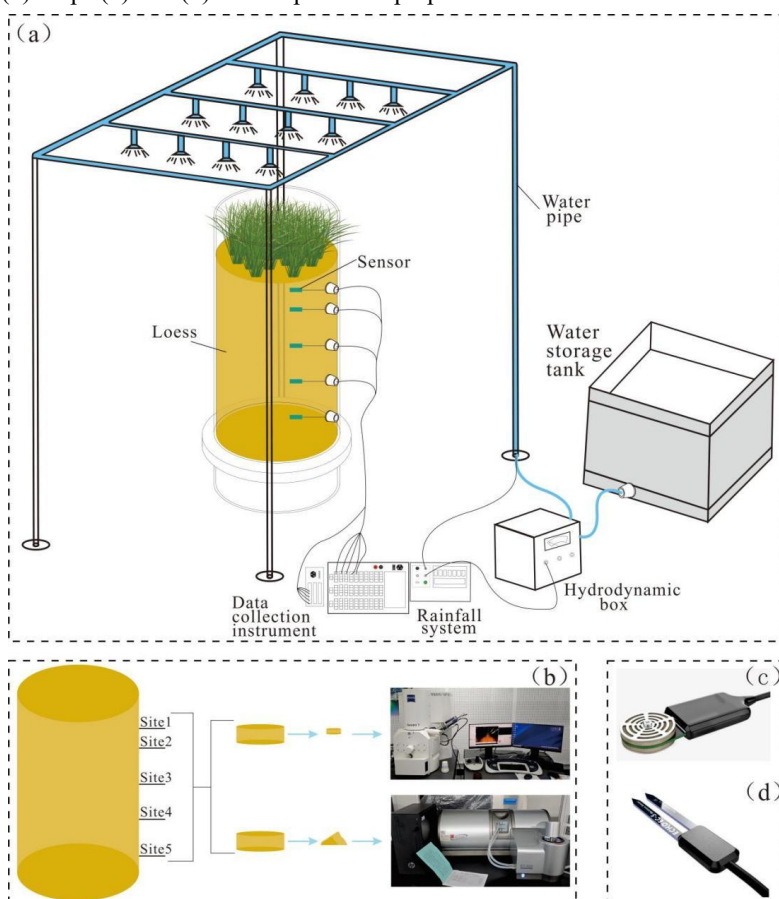
132 rigid permeameter does not reflect the volume changes that occur during soil
133 saturation.

134 During the preparation of the soil columns, the loess powder collected onsite was
135 air-dried, crushed, and sieved outdoors. Subsequently, tap water was uniformly
136 sprayed onto the soil surface. Afterward, a mixer was adopted to achieve the natural
137 moisture content (14.1%) for all samples before final sealing. All prepared samples
138 were left to stand for 72 h to ensure uniform moisture distribution. The layered
139 compaction method was adopted to prepare the loess columns and achieve a natural
140 density of 1.65 g/cm³. The specific steps are presented below:

141 (1) The mass of soil required for a 10-cm-high soil column was calculated based
142 on the dry soil density and natural moisture content, and batches of soil with the target
143 moisture content were prepared in 10-cm increments.

144 (2) A layer of fast filter paper was placed at the bottom of the organic glass test
145 barrel, after which the prepared moist soil was evenly spread in layers while sets of
146 humidity sensors and matric potential sensors were buried at depths of 10, 20, 40, 60,
147 and 80 cm.

148 (3) Steps (1) and (2) were repeated to prepare three sets of test soil columns.



149



150 **Fig. 3 Self-designed rainfall permeation test apparatus and microstructural**
151 **testing equipment; (a) homemade rainfall test apparatus; (b) microstructural**
152 **sample locations and sampling steps, along with microstructural testing**
153 **equipment (SEM instrument and laser particle size analyzer); (c) and (d) matric**
154 **suction and moisture content sensors**

155 Moisture content variations in the Ili region are more pronounced at shallow
156 depths (≤ 50 cm) under natural rainfall conditions. Therefore, sensors were embedded
157 at different heights in the small holes of the soil column. To prevent erosion of the soil
158 column surface, soil flaking, or water seepage along the sidewalls owing to rainfall
159 and to better simulate the response of shallow loess in the study area to rainfall events,
160 grass plants of the same variety as those in the study area were placed on the surface
161 of the soil column. Rainfall was simulated using a watering system, and three rainfall
162 intensities of 10, 20, and 30 mm/h were applied based on the rainfall characteristics of
163 the study area, with a duration of 4 h for each intensity, resulting in three sets of
164 experiments. Meanwhile, the sensors recorded real-time data on volumetric water
165 content and matric suction.

166 2.2.2 Calculation of Unsaturated Permeability Coefficient

167 No surface ponding occurred during the infiltration experiment. Therefore, the
168 advancement of the wetting front was treated as a one-dimensional vertical process
169 for the calculation of the unsaturated permeability coefficient. The coefficient was
170 determined by the instantaneous profile method using the measured changes in
171 volumetric water content and matric suction during rainfall infiltration (Watson, 1966;
172 Hamilton et al., 1981). The governing expression is given as follows:

$$173 h_w = h + h_m \quad (1)$$

174 During infiltration, the total head h_w at any position in the soil column is equal
175 to the sum of the position head h and the matric suction head h_m , as shown in
176 Equation (1).

$$177 i_w = \frac{dh_w}{dz} \quad (2)$$

178 The hydraulic gradient i_w at any arbitrary time t is equal to the slope of the
179 water head distribution line at that point, as shown in Equation (2).

$$180 V_w = \int_0^z \theta_w(h)_r A dz \quad (3)$$

181 In Equation (3), A represents the interface area of the soil column, and $\theta_w(h)_r$ is
182 the volumetric water content. The seepage velocity v_w is calculated according to
183 Equation (4).

$$184 v_w = \frac{dV_w}{A dt} \quad (4)$$

185 Permeability is expressed as follows:

$$186 k = \frac{v_w}{i_{ave}} \quad (5)$$

187 where i_{ave} is the average hydraulic gradient at point z at a certain moment, and
188 is calculated as follows:

$$189 i_{ave} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{h_w(z_2, t_1) - h_w(z_1, t_1)}{z_2 - z_1} + \frac{h_w(z_2, t_2) - h_w(z_1, t_2)}{z_2 - z_1} \right) \quad (6)$$



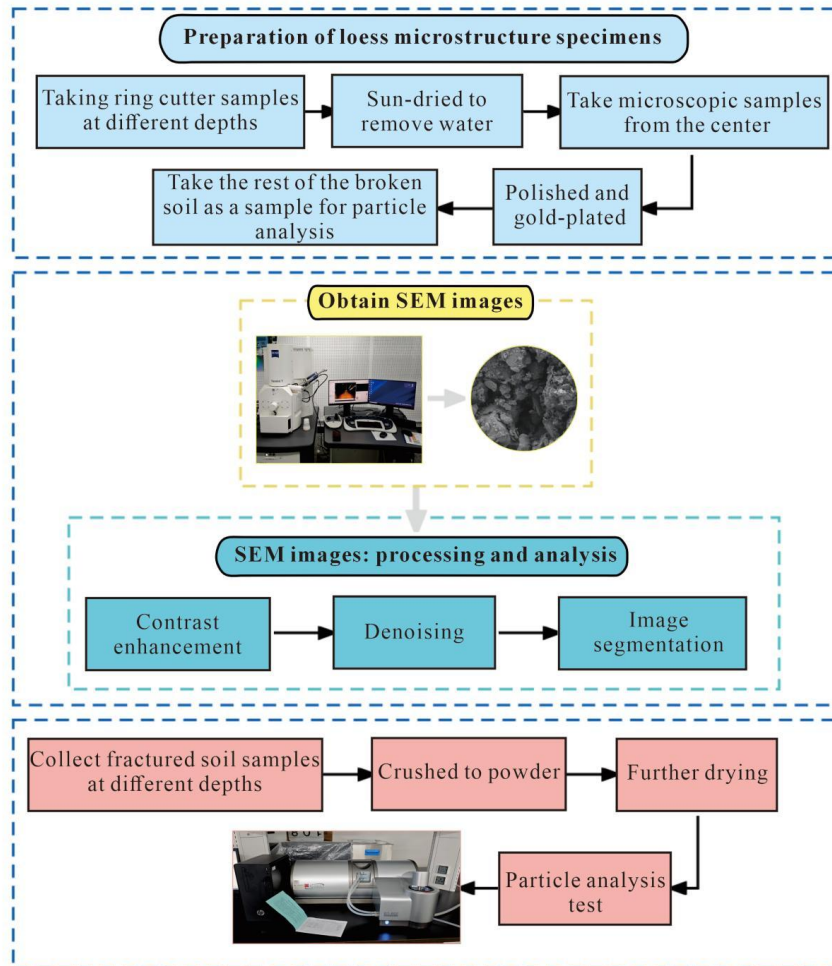
190 **2.3 SEM Testing**

191 SEM imaging combined with geometric visualization analysis was used to
192 evaluate the pore characteristics and microstructure of remolded loess subjected to
193 different rainfall intensities. The sampling and preparation procedures for the loess
194 SEM test samples are shown in Figs. 3b and 4. First, after infiltration, samples were
195 collected from depths of 10, 20, 40, 60, and 80 cm in the soil column using a ring
196 cutter with a diameter of 61.8 mm and a height of 20 mm, which was pressed into the
197 center of the soil column. The samples were then naturally dried to remove moisture.
198 Precautions were taken to avoid disturbing the sample center during this process. The
199 dried samples were subsequently ground and polished to produce SEM samples of
200 suitable size for mounting on the specimen holder. Finally, the SEM samples were
201 sputter-coated with gold and prepared for microstructural observation using a Sigma
202 300 field-emission SEM. To ensure accuracy in the microstructure observation and
203 pore characterization, the central region of each microsample was selected for SEM
204 observation.

205 Subsequently, the SEM images were processed via the Matlab software. SEM
206 image processing generally constitutes three steps (Fig. 4): ① Contrast enhancement
207 to clarify the boundaries between soil particles and pores; ② Noise reduction
208 achieved through low-pass and median filtering for a more accurate and easier
209 segmentation of SEM images; ③ Image segmentation was performed by assigning
210 white to particles and black to pores, thereby enabling the separation of these two soil
211 components (Li and Li, 2017; Liu et al., 2011). Pore structures in the SEM images
212 were visualized based on Matlab software.

213 **2.4 Laser Particle Size Analysis**

214 The BT-9300S (SE) laser particle size analyzer was adopted to determine the
215 particle size distribution using wet dispersion technology. The sampling and
216 preparation procedures for the loess particle size distribution test samples are shown
217 in Figs. 3b and 4. First, after infiltration, approximately 50 g of surface soil samples
218 were collected from depths of 10, 20, 40, 60, and 80 cm in the soil column using a soil
219 cutting knife. The samples were placed in aluminum boxes, oven-dried, and then
220 transferred to sample containers for subsequent testing. During testing, the samples
221 were initially crushed using a pestle, after which an appropriate amount of sample
222 powder was added to the circulation tank of the laser particle size analyzer. Ultrasonic
223 treatment was applied to disperse soil aggregates, after which the instrument
224 automatically determined the particle-size distribution of the samples.



225

226

227

Fig. 4 Sample preparation for microstructural test and imaging process of SEM

2.5 Numerical Simulation in COMSOL Multiphysics

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

A numerical calculation model capable of accurately describing the seepage erosion process of soil under rainfall infiltration conditions was established based on the unsaturated seepage theory of porous media. The model was developed on the COMSOL Multiphysics numerical simulation platform using particle transport and erosion constitutive models. During construction of the numerical model, stable and unstable components were introduced, and the solid and liquid phases in saturated porous media were expanded into four-phase components to improve the description of mass transfer between fine particles in the solid and liquid phases (Schrefler, 2002). The migration of fine particles within the soil owing to hydraulic actions was considered by assuming that the porous medium consisted of four-phase components: stable solid-phase skeleton (ss), erodible solid-phase fine particles (se), liquid-phase



239 fine particles moving with the fluid flow (fe), and pure fluid (ff). The erosion
 240 constitutive model and the coupling relationship of the permeability coefficients were
 241 constructed in the software and used as cross-coupling terms in the multiphysics field.
 242 This enabled the numerical coupling of the particle transport control equations,
 243 porosity change control equations, and unsaturated seepage control equations, as
 244 illustrated in Fig. 5 (Duo et al., 2024).

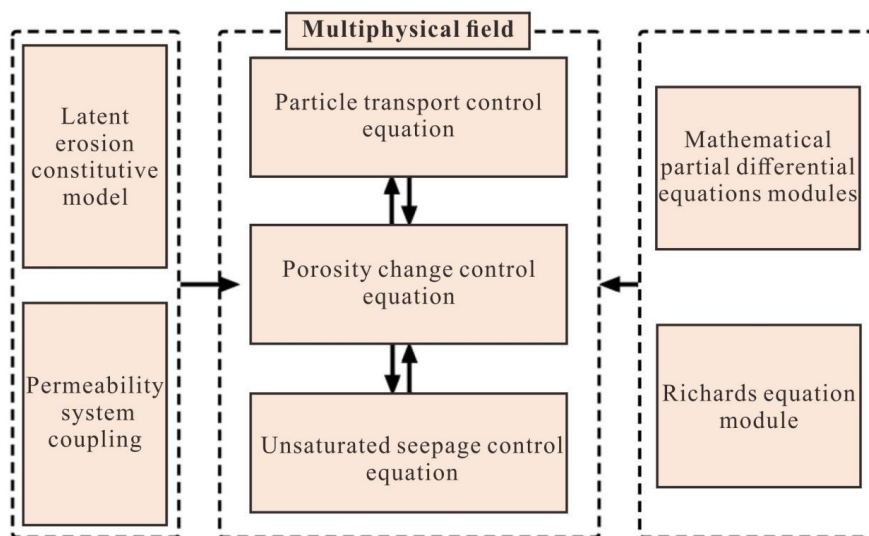
245 The internal erosion process induced by seepage is primarily a two-way coupling
 246 process between seepage and fine particle migration. Therefore, when the coupling
 247 effect of seepage erosion was considered, the unsaturated soil satisfied both the
 248 unsaturated seepage control equations and the V–G model (van Genuchten, 1980).
 249 Notably, the actual density of liquefied fine particles should represent the difference
 250 between the fine particles detached from the soil solid phase and the deposited
 251 liquefied fine particles. However, owing to limitations in the measurement of
 252 deposited liquefied fine particles, the density of liquefied fine particles deposited
 253 within the soil skeleton could not be definitively determined. Therefore, this study did
 254 not consider the influence of this component and assumed that no deposition of
 255 liquefied particles occurred during particle migration (Duo et al., 2024). The basic
 256 loess parameters used in the numerical model calculations were partly obtained from
 257 experimental tests on Ili loess and partly adopted from previous studies (Hou and Fan,
 258 2022), as presented in Table 2.

259 **Table 2 Fundamental parameters and variables for numerical modelling**

Parameters	Values/equation	Sources
Rainfall intensity	2.2E-6 [m/s]	
Critical seepage velocity	1.5E-16 [m/s]	Basic parameters of loess tested by authors
Initial saturated permeability coefficient	8.5E-6 [m/s]	
Fine particle density	1868 [kg/m ³]	Basic parameters of loess obtained from another research
Erodible fine particle density	400 [kg/m ³]	
Erodible particle density	$\rho_{seoc}(v) = \begin{cases} \rho_{se0} - (\rho_{se0} - \rho_{seoc}^*)v/v^* & (0 \leq v(t) \leq v^*) \\ \rho_{seoc}^* - \alpha_{er}lg(v/v^*) & (v^* \leq v(t)) \end{cases}$	(Cividini et al., 2009)
Seepage erosion rate	$\rho^{exfe}(t,v) = \beta_{fe} v [\rho_{se}(t) - \rho_{seoc}(v)]$	
Permeability coefficient variable	$k_0 = \frac{n^3}{(1-n)^2} \times \frac{(1-n_0)^2}{n_0^3} k_{s0}$	(Xie et al., 1999)



260



261

262

Fig. 5 Framework of the numerical model for computation

263

3 Experimental Results

264

3.1 Variation of Unsaturated Permeability Coefficient

265

The seepage depths of the three groups of soil columns were 64, 78, and 96 cm.

266

Fig. 6 presents how the unsaturated permeability coefficient varies with volumetric water content under the three rainfall-intensity experiments. Fig. 6 shows that the

267

unsaturated permeability coefficients of the three experimental groups were nearly

268

identical when the volumetric water content was low. Therefore, the influence of

269

rainfall intensity on the unsaturated permeability coefficient could be disregarded

270

under low volumetric water content conditions. Noticeable differences among the

271

unsaturated permeability coefficients of the three experimental groups were observed

272

as the volumetric water content increased. For instance, at a volumetric water content

273

of approximately 30%, the unsaturated permeability coefficients of the three

274

experimental groups were $7.49\text{E-}4$, $7.91\text{E-}4$, and $9.97\text{E-}4$. Fig. 6 also shows that the

275

unsaturated permeability coefficients of the three experimental groups exhibited an

276

exponential growth trend with increasing water content. Under a rainfall intensity of

277

30 mm/h, the unsaturated permeability coefficient exhibited higher values at elevated

278

volumetric water contents, which, combined with the trends in the microstructural

279

characteristics, suggests that internal erosion increased the internal porosity of the soil

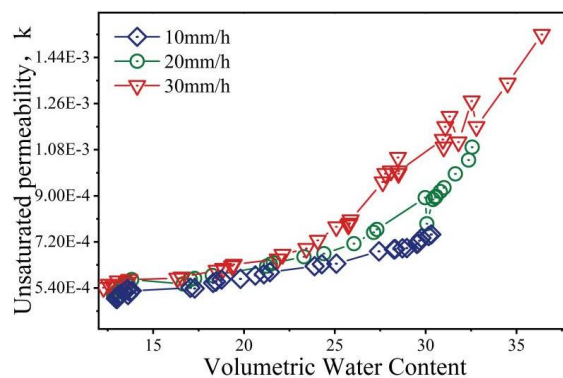
280

and consequently the maximum water content, while also affecting the rate of water

281

transport within the soil under the same water content conditions.

282



283

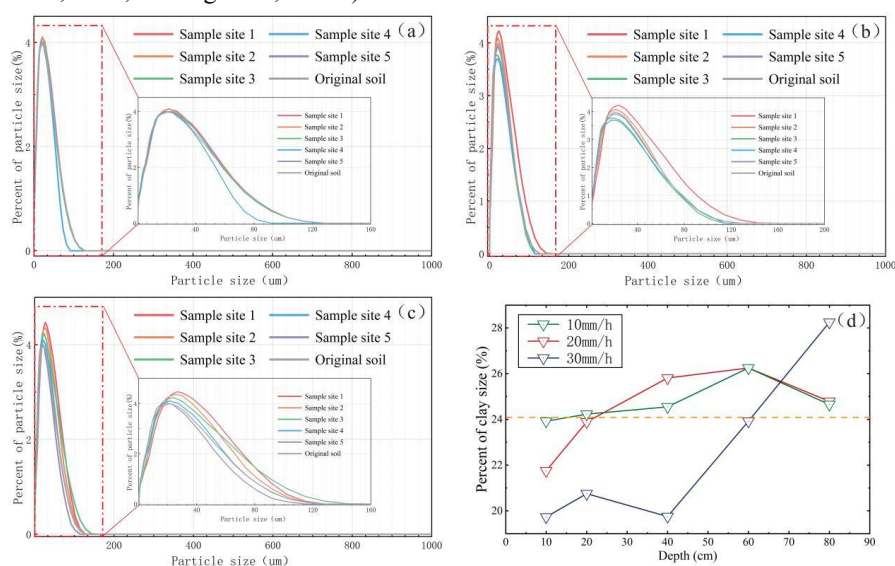
284 **Fig. 6 Variation of unsaturated permeability coefficient after rainfall infiltration**

285 **3.2 Particle Migration Characteristics**

286 Internal erosion in loess, which involves the migration of fine particles under
 287 water flow and the rearrangement of the soil particle skeleton, is one of the major
 288 causes of geological disasters in loess areas (Cui, 1992). After completion of the
 289 rainfall infiltration experiments under three different rainfall intensities, loose soil
 290 samples from five depths in each soil column were collected for particle analysis tests
 291 (Fig. 3b). Fig. 7 presents the cumulative particle-size distributions of the tested loess
 292 samples. Evidently, the particle size distributions at different depths in the
 293 experimental soil columns changed owing to rainfall-induced internal erosion, and the
 294 effect became more pronounced with increasing rainfall intensity. As shown in Fig. 7,
 295 with increasing sampling depth, the clay content in the samples increased significantly,
 296 whereas the sand content decreased notably. When the rainfall intensity was 10 mm/h,
 297 internal erosion primarily affected the clay content in layers 1 and 2 of the soil
 298 column, with clay contents higher than that in the original soil sample (Fig. 7a). At a
 299 rainfall intensity of 20 mm/h, the clay contents in layers 1 and 2 were lower than that
 300 in the original soil sample, with higher proportions of silt and sand than those in the
 301 original sample, whereas the clay contents in layers 3, 4, and 5 were higher than that
 302 in the original sample, with lower proportions of silt and sand than those in the
 303 original sample. Notably, the particle size distribution curve of layer 5 was very close
 304 to that of the original soil sample, indicating that although rainfall infiltration did not
 305 reach the depth of layer 5, migration of soil particles still affected the particle
 306 distribution in this region (Fig. 7b). At a rainfall intensity of 30 mm/h, the clay
 307 contents in layers 1–4 were lower than that in the original soil sample, with higher
 308 proportions of silt and sand, whereas the clay content in layer 5 was significantly
 309 higher than that in the original sample, with lower proportions of silt and sand (Fig.
 310 7c). This result suggests that clay particles migrating from the upper layers of the soil
 311 column accumulated in the lower layers, leading to a significantly higher clay content
 312 than that in the original soil sample. The clay contents in each layer of the three
 313 groups of soil columns shown in Fig. 7d confirm this observation. Furthermore,
 314 comparison of the three experimental groups revealed that migration of fine clay
 315 particles within the loess became increasingly pronounced with increasing rainfall



316 intensity.
 317 Larger particles commonly form the structural framework, whereas smaller
 318 particles fill the pores, with all particles bonded together (Cui et al., 2019). Previous
 319 studies have shown that fine particles in loess can migrate under intense rainfall
 320 conditions and accumulate at certain depths within the soil layer, thereby forming a
 321 lubricating water film that may promote geological disasters in loess formations (Lu
 322 et al., 2010; Zhuang et al., 2015b).



323
 324 **Fig. 7 Particle size distribution at different locations in the soil columns after**
 325 **rainfall infiltration: (a)–(c) particle size distribution curves; (d) clay content in**
 326 **each layer of the soil columns**

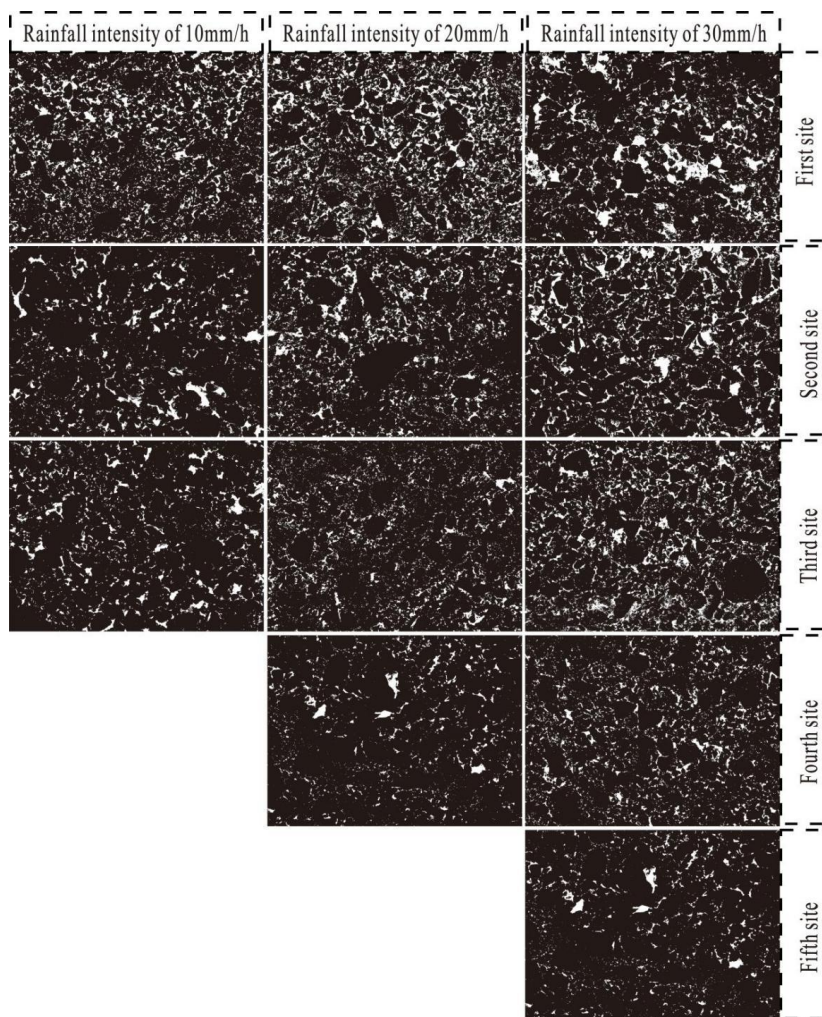
3.3 Evolution of Pore Characteristics

328 Loss of particles in loess is typically caused by dissolution, degradation, erosion,
 329 and migration, among other factors. Regardless of the cause, soil particle loss results
 330 in destruction of the soil composition and microstructure (Skempton and Brogan,
 331 1994). Variations in the areas of different pore types in the SEM test samples are
 332 shown in Fig. 8.

333 microstructural images of the soil columns at different depths were obtained
 334 through SEM testing, and the pore area ratios of the soil samples were derived from
 335 the SEM images. Fig. 8 illustrates the variations in the areas of different pore types at
 336 different sampling depths in the three groups of experimental soil columns after
 337 erosion under different rainfall intensities. Overall, the total pore area increased with
 338 increasing rainfall intensity, and under a rainfall intensity of 30 mm/h, macropores
 339 appeared in the samples from the top of the soil column. As the sampling depth
 340 increased, the area proportions of micropores and small pores increased, whereas
 341 those of macropores and mesopores decreased. Before infiltration, the predominant
 342 pores in the loess were medium and small pores, with strong pore connectivity,
 343 resulting in a relatively high initial permeability coefficient. After infiltration, the pore



344 distributions at different depths of the soil column changed differently, with decreases
345 in total pore area and increases in the proportion of micropore area at greater depths.
346 Closer to the surface of the soil column, the total pore area increased, with larger
347 pores and mesopores accounting for greater proportions. The variations in the areas of
348 different pore types with infiltration depth confirm the migration of fine soil particles
349 and explain the decrease in the unsaturated permeability coefficient with infiltration.



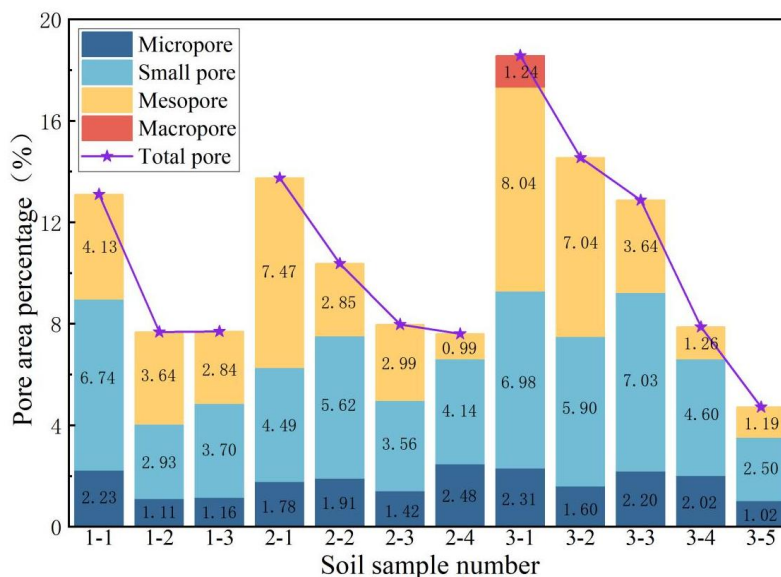
350

351 **Fig. 8 Pore distribution at different locations in three soil columns after**
352 **rainfall infiltration**

353 Fig. 9 presents the percentages of various pore area types relative to the SEM
354 image area at different sampling depths in the three soil columns after erosion under
355 different rainfall intensities. Evidently, the total pore area ratio increased with
356 increasing rainfall intensity and decreased with increasing infiltration depth. At a
357 rainfall intensity of 10 mm/h, the total pore area ratio increased by 2.93% at the top



358 sampling point and decreased by 2.47% at the maximum infiltration depth. Under a
 359 rainfall intensity of 20 mm/h, the total pore area ratio increased by 3.57% at the top
 360 sampling point and decreased by 2.56% at the maximum infiltration depth. At a
 361 rainfall intensity of 30 mm/h, macropores appeared at the top sampling point of the
 362 soil column, with a relatively high area ratio of 1.24%, and the total pore area ratio
 363 increased significantly by 8.4%. The pore area ratio at the maximum infiltration depth
 364 also decreased significantly by 5.46%. Thus, the changes in permeability can be
 365 inferred to result from the conversion among micropores, small pores, mesopores, and
 366 macropores. Additionally, the proportion of micropores within the total pore area
 367 showed no significant change, indicating that infiltration had only a minor impact on
 368 micropores in the loess. Fig. 10 shows that rainfall had varying impacts on the
 369 porosity at different depths of the loess soil columns. After infiltration, the porosity of
 370 the shallow surface layer of the soil column significantly exceeded the initial porosity,
 371 and this effect became more pronounced with increasing rainfall intensity and
 372 infiltration depth. This finding confirms the evolution pattern of pore size in loess
 373 induced by infiltration, as observed in Figs. 8 and 9.

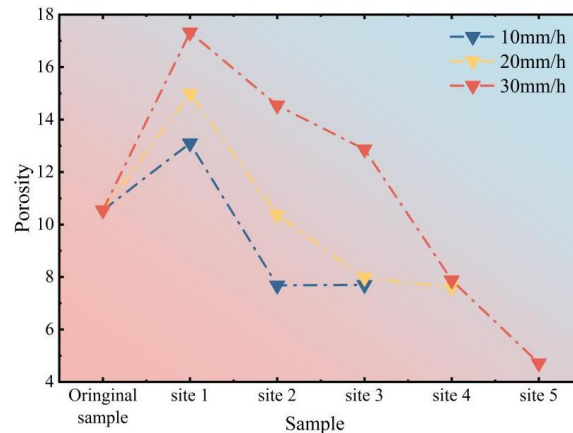


374

375

376

Fig. 9 Pore-area percentages measured at different heights in the three soil columns after rainfall infiltration



377

378

379

Fig. 10 Porosity measured at different heights in the three soil columns after rainfall infiltration

380

3.4 microstructural Structural Morphology

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

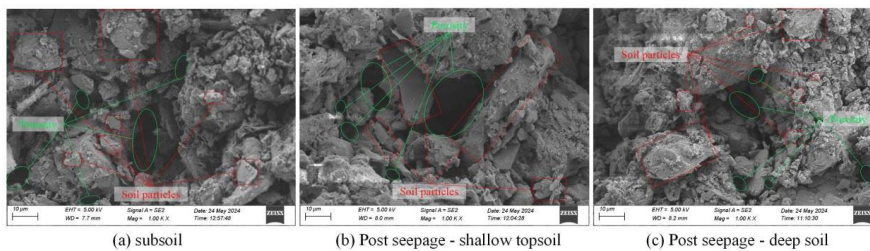
391

392

393

394

Fig. 11 presents SEM images of the in-situ loess, as well as the shallow surface layer and deeper layers after infiltration, showing varying degrees of change in the microstructural structure of the loess at different depths after infiltration. Fig. 11a illustrates the microstructural features of the loess before infiltration, characterized by coexistence of different pore sizes, numerous clay particles adhering mainly to the surfaces of larger particles, and a relatively compact structure. Fig. 11b shows that after rainfall, the microstructural structure of the soil sample from the shallow surface layer of the soil column evolved from an embedded structure into a looser framework structure with large pores and microaggregates. Detachment and migration of connecting and clay particles adhering to the surfaces of larger particles led to transformation of more micropores and small pores into mesopores or macropores. Fig. 11c shows that after rainfall infiltration, the microstructural structure at deeper depths of the experimental loess column exhibited a micropore-cemented structure, with a denser arrangement dominated by micropores and small pores.



395

396

397

Fig. 11 microstructural structure of loess samples before and after rainfall infiltration

398

399

400

401

The amounts of fine clay particles and clay particles adhering to the particle skeleton and filling the pores between the skeleton are significantly greater than those in the original in-situ soil sample. Consequently, under infiltration conditions, loss of fine clay particles results in clearer particle contours and skeleton structures in the

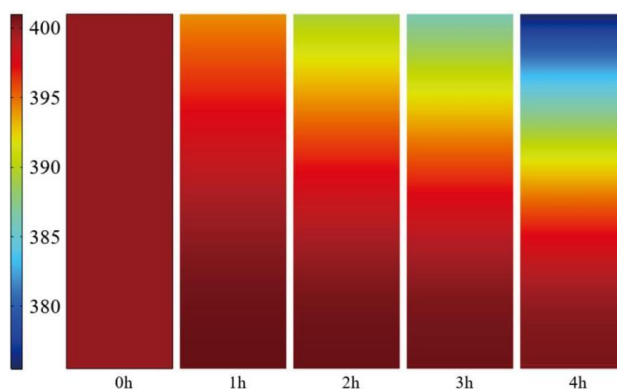


402 shallow surface layer of the loess. The migrated fine clay particles accumulate in the
403 deeper soil layers, leading to higher contents of fine clay and adhering particles,
404 thereby confirming the aforementioned particle migration process. Generally, contact
405 between large particles forms a framework structure, creating a soil skeleton that is
406 looser than that of an embedded structure, with larger pore areas and hence lower
407 stability. In contrast, a cemented structure features a denser arrangement of particles,
408 with pores filled by fine or clay particles, resulting in greater stability than those of
409 framework and embedded structures.

410 **3.5 Numerical Calculation Results**

411 The cloud maps of erodible particle content distribution in the soil column model
412 at different stages are presented in Fig. 12; these results were obtained from the
413 numerical simulations. Generally, loss of fine particles in soil is related to the
414 infiltration velocity; therefore, the concentration of erodible fine particles is linked to
415 the rate at which the wetting front advances downward in unsaturated soil. The
416 variation in erodible fine particle concentration shown in Fig. 12 is consistent with the
417 infiltration process, and loss of fine particles occurs only within the
418 infiltration-erosion zone. As rainfall duration increases, loss of erodible fine particles
419 becomes more pronounced. This result is consistent with the particle migration
420 patterns observed in the one-dimensional soil column infiltration experiments. Figs.
421 13a–c show the variations in erodible fine particle concentration, permeability
422 coefficient, and soil porosity at different time intervals in the $X = 0.15$ m section of
423 the numerically simulated soil column. Fig. 13 shows that during infiltration, the
424 concentration of erodible particles, permeability coefficient, and soil porosity
425 exhibited consistent variation patterns with soil depth and infiltration duration.

426 The numerical simulation results indicate that soil porosity continuously
427 increased with ongoing rainfall infiltration, resulting in enhanced permeability.
428 Furthermore, as the erosion process continued, the soil infiltration rate increased,
429 allowing more water to infiltrate the deeper soil layers within the same time frame.
430 These results suggest that loss of fine particles from the soil increased soil porosity,
431 thereby enhancing permeability. The increase in permeability could further intensify
432 the erosion process within the soil. Overall, good agreement was obtained between the
433 numerical simulation results and the patterns observed in the one-dimensional
434 soil-column rainfall infiltration experiments.

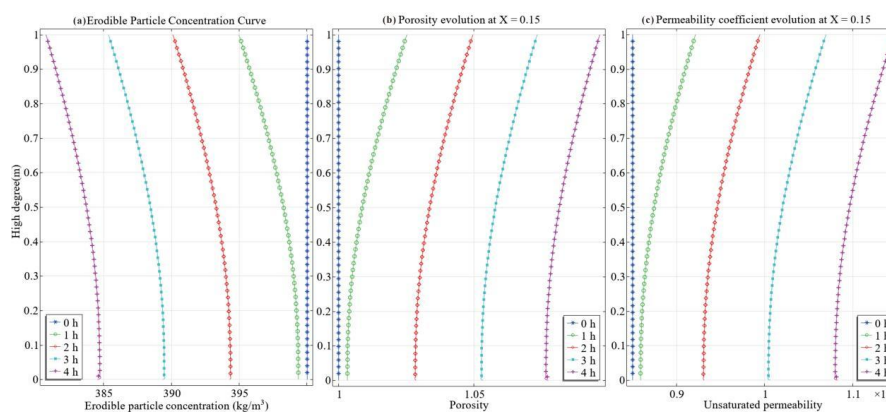


435

436

437

Fig. 12 Cloud maps of erodible particle content distribution at different stages in the numerical model



438

439

440

441

442

Fig. 13 Variation curves of critical parameters at different stages in the model section at X = 0.15 m: (a) erodible fine particle concentration; (b) soil porosity; and (c) permeability coefficient

4 Discussion

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

In the present study, rainfall experiments and microstructural observations were combined with numerical simulations results to examine the rainfall-induced evolution of the unsaturated permeability coefficient of loess and the associated influence of seepage on its microstructural characteristics. This section further discusses how rainfall-induced seepage modifies the microstructure of loess, how its unsaturated permeability coefficient evolves during infiltration, and how these changes affect the stability of loess landslides.

450

4.1 Microstructural Response of Loess to Rainfall Infiltration

451

452

453

454

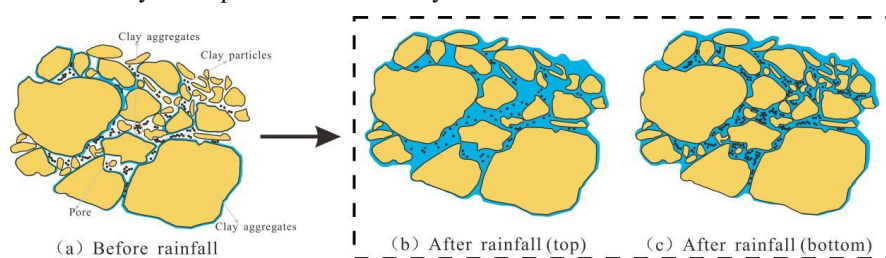
The external factors causing loess collapsibility are mainly attributed to weakening of the interparticle bonding in loess owing to loss of calcium cementing materials and clay particles during rainfall infiltration (Bakhshipour et al., 2016; Meng and Li, 2019). As reported by Jiang et al. (2014), rainfall infiltration increases



455 the self-weight of the soil, this process weakens the bonding between soil particles
 456 and destabilizes the macropore framework, allowing particle rearrangement and
 457 ultimately enhancing the collapsible behavior of loess..

458 Figs. 11a and 14 illustrate the microstructure of the experimental loess before
 459 infiltration, characterized by high proportions of small pores and mesopores and
 460 coexistence of point and face contacts between soil particles. These features provide
 461 effective pathways for water infiltration and soil particle migration. Similar findings
 462 were reported by An et al. (2013) and Zhang (2019), who noted that under infiltration
 463 conditions, soil particles migrate downward, thereby altering the original particle
 464 arrangement and microstructural characteristics of loess. This finding is consistent
 465 with studies on Malan loess from the Loess Plateau, which revealed that fine particles
 466 are displaced under seepage, leading to a reorganization of the original particle
 467 framework.

468 Particle analysis revealed that under rainfall conditions, the clay particle content
 469 in the upper layer of the soil column decreased significantly, whereas that in the lower
 470 layer exceeded that in the original soil sample. These results suggest that during
 471 infiltration, soil aggregates dispersed and clay particles migrated downward under the
 472 influence of infiltration, accumulated in the lower layers, and filled the original pores,
 473 thereby forming additional soil aggregates. Correspondingly, SEM test results
 474 confirmed this conclusion: after rainfall erosion, the proportion of total pore area in
 475 the upper layer of the soil column increased significantly, whereas the proportion of
 476 micropore area decreased, resulting in a looser microstructure. Conversely, the deeper
 477 soil layers exhibited the opposite trend, with smaller pore area ratios than those in the
 478 initial soil sample and structures dominated by micropores and denser arrangements.
 479 The study reveals that rainfall erosion can cause vertical redistribution of the
 480 microstructural characteristics of Ili loess, including rearrangement of soil particles
 481 and pore characteristics, as well as restructuring of the microstructure. Overall, after
 482 rainfall erosion, the microstructural structural characteristics of Ili loess exhibited a
 483 loose structure with higher porosity in the upper layers and a dense structure
 484 dominated by small pores in the lower layers.



485

486 **Fig. 14 Schematic representation of rainfall-induced changes in the loess**
 487 **microstructure**

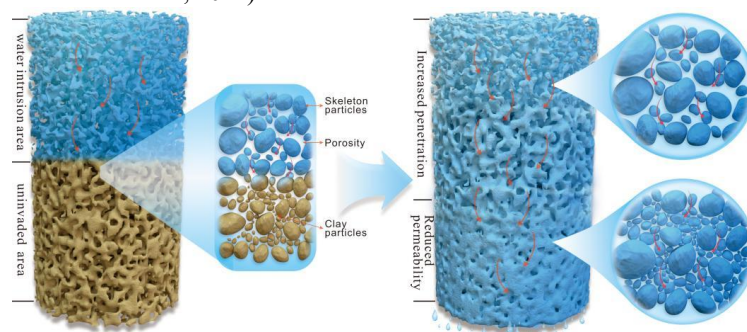
488 **4.2 Mechanism Underlying Changes in the Unsaturated Permeability**
 489 **Coefficient**

490 As demonstrated by Daigle and Dugan (2011), soil permeability is largely
 491 governed by the architecture of the pore network, connectivity, and pore arrangement.



492 Existing studies have primarily focused on the initial pore structure formed during soil
493 sample preparation and have used it as the basis for studying and evaluating the
494 seepage behavior of loess (Delage et al., 1996; Romero, 2013). However, this initial
495 microstructure represents only part of the characteristics of loess, whereas the actual
496 microstructure continuously changes during seepage. Therefore, investigating the
497 effects of seepage on reshaping the microstructure and permeability of loess is
498 essential.

499 The rainfall experiments indicate that the unsaturated permeability coefficient of
500 Ili loess increases with increasing soil moisture content. As discussed earlier, during
501 seepage, clay particles migrate downward with water flow, thereby altering the
502 originally uniform distribution of soil particles and forming a loose structure in the
503 upper layer and a dense structure in the lower layer. This process also results in a
504 higher pore area proportion in the upper layer and a lower proportion in the deeper
505 layers of the loess, as shown in Fig. 15. Consequently, seepage pathways in the deeper
506 soil layers are obstructed by the migrated clay particles, leading to a decrease in the
507 pore area ratio and, consequently, a decrease in the unsaturated permeability
508 coefficient of the loess. Additionally, calcium cementing materials in the loess
509 continuously disintegrate during seepage, thereby reducing the bonding between loess
510 particles, which may increase the unsaturated permeability coefficient of the loess
511 (Gratchev and Towhata, 2011).



512

513 **Fig. 15 Schematic representation of rainfall-induced changes in the internal**
514 **structure and unsaturated permeability coefficient of loess**

515 Mesopores and macropores play an important role in promoting interconnection
516 between pores and increasing the water surface area. Evidently, as shown in Fig. 15,
517 migration of clay particles leads to blockage of more mesopores and macropores,
518 transforming them into small pores and micropores. The connectivity of small pores
519 and micropores is lower than that of mesopores and macropores, and the saturated
520 water surface area in small pores and micropores is smaller than that in mesopores
521 and macropores. Consequently, the density in the deeper soil layers is higher, and the
522 unsaturated permeability coefficient decreases with increasing soil density. Dafalla et
523 al. (2020) found that during seepage, water first fills micropores under higher suction
524 conditions. As shown in Fig. 9, the sensitivity of micropores to rainfall erosion can be
525 disregarded, whereas the deeper pores in the loess are dominated by micropores after
526 seepage. Therefore, after rainfall, the unsaturated permeability coefficient in the



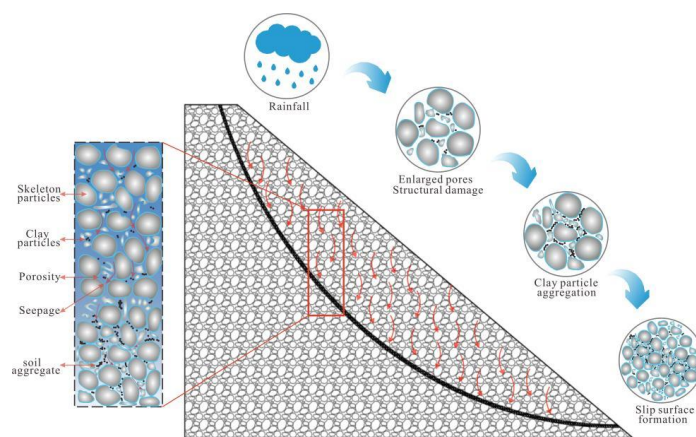
527 deeper layers of the loess is smaller, and the increasing trend with increasing moisture
528 content can be disregarded.

529 **4.3 Engineering Significance**

530 Water is one of the key factors contributing to geological hazards in loess areas.
531 Particularly during prolonged heavy rainfall or extreme weather events such as storms,
532 rainwater infiltration can potentially trigger significant geological disasters (Wu et al.,
533 2021). Permeability is an important characteristic describing the internal pore flow
534 capacity of loess and is crucial for evaluating its hydrogeological and
535 engineering-geological properties (Cheng et al., 2021; Lee and Ho, 2009). Taking the
536 Karahayisul loess landslide in Xinyuan County, Xinjiang, as an example, Kai et al.
537 (2023) found that rainfall and snowmelt infiltration play major controlling roles in the
538 stability of this loess landslide. Therefore, investigating rainfall-induced changes in
539 the microstructural characteristics and structural stability of Ili loess is of great
540 significance for evaluating the stability of loess landslides in the Ili region..

541 Fig. 16 illustrates the mechanism by which rainfall-induced changes in loess
542 microcharacteristics affect the stability of loess slopes. Under rainfall conditions,
543 migration of fine soil particles through the macropores in the soil leads to collapse and
544 failure of the upper soil layers. Particle aggregation occurs in the deeper soil layers,
545 thereby blocking effective water seepage pathways and transforming macropores into
546 small pores. Experimental results indicate that greater rainfall intensity results in
547 stronger seepage-induced internal erosion. In loess slopes, seepage-induced internal
548 erosion can create a layer of clay particle aggregation at a certain depth within the
549 loess, thereby further promoting formation of landslide slip surfaces and providing the
550 necessary conditions for loess slope failure.

551 The increase in moisture content produces an exponential rise in the unsaturated
552 permeability coefficient of loess.. At low moisture contents, the influence of rainfall
553 intensity on the unsaturated permeability coefficient can be neglected, whereas at
554 higher moisture contents, greater rainfall intensity results in a higher unsaturated
555 permeability coefficient. Under these conditions, internal erosion in the loess becomes
556 stronger with increasing permeability, thereby weakening the stability of loess slopes
557 and increasing the likelihood of landslides. Therefore, clarifying how rainfall affects
558 the evolution of loess microstructure and the unsaturated permeability coefficient can
559 improve our understanding of loess landslide deformation and support early warning
560 and prevention efforts in loess-prone areas..



561

562

Fig. 16 Schematic diagram of how rainfall-induced microstructural evolution influences loess slope stability

563

564

5. Conclusions

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

Three rainfall experiments with different intensities were performed using a self-designed one-dimensional rainfall infiltration device to examine the internal erosion process of Ili loess and the mechanism controlling changes in its unsaturated permeability coefficient. Samples collected after rainfall were subjected to SEM testing and laser particle size analysis. Additionally, COMSOL Multiphysics was used to simulate the seepage erosion process of loess under rainfall conditions. The experimental observations and numerical simulation results were used to examine changes in loess microcharacteristics before and after rainfall and to discuss the rainfall-induced evolution of the unsaturated permeability coefficient. The engineering significance reflected by the evolution of loess microstructure and unsaturated permeability coefficient was also explored. The principal findings of this study are summarized as follows:

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

(1) The unsaturated permeability coefficient of loess exhibited an exponential increase with increasing moisture content. The changes in permeability resulted from conversion among small pores, micropores, mesopores, and macropores. Under seepage conditions, the pore distributions at different depths in the loess underwent different changes. The deeper regions exhibited decreases in total pore area and increases in the proportion of micropore area, whereas regions closer to the soil column surface exhibited increases in total pore area and higher proportions of macropores and mesopores.

585

586

587

588

589

590

(2) Migration of clay particles modified the soil microstructure, leading to increased porosity and permeability. This process resulted in substantial depletion of clay particles in the shallow loess layers, whereas these particles accumulated in deeper regions. In these deeper regions, the accumulated clay particles contributed to formation of a lubricating water film with strong lubricity, consequently decreasing the overall stability of the loess.

591

592

(3) Rainfall seepage exacerbated internal damage in the loess, causing pore reconfiguration and increased permeability. As internal erosion progressed, clay



593 particles accumulated at a certain depth, forming a concentrated layer. This layer
594 facilitated development of a potential sliding surface, thereby creating conditions
595 conducive to loess slope failure and landslides.

596 (4) The unsaturated permeability coefficient is one of the crucial physical
597 properties of loess and can significantly influence its engineering properties
598 (Bagarello et al., 2009). Loess in China is widely distributed, mainly in the Loess
599 Plateau and the Ili River Valley. Based on particle composition, loess can be classified
600 as cohesive, silty, or sandy (Gao et al., 2021). In this study, silty loess from the Ili
601 River Valley was examined, with emphasis on the impacts of rainfall erosion and
602 subsequent microstructural changes on the unsaturated permeability coefficient. The
603 objective was to elucidate the evolution of the permeability coefficient under rainfall
604 conditions and its relationship with loess microstructure. Although the findings may
605 provide insights applicable to other regions containing similar silty loess, their
606 generalizability remains limited because evidence regarding sandy and cohesive loess
607 is still insufficient.

608 **Data Availability**

609 Data supporting the analyses presented in this paper are available from the
610 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

611

612 **Author Contributions**

613 A.T., K.W., and Z.Z. framed the study plan and wrote the paper; Z.Z. provided
614 research funding; A.T., K.W., Z.Z., R.L., and Y.Z. conducted relevant field research
615 and visits; A.T., K.W., and R.L. conducted article data processing; Q.L., R.L., Y.Z.,
616 and X.Z. provided feedback on the manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to
617 the published version of the manuscript.

618 **Competing Interests**

619 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

620 **Acknowledgements**

621 The authors gratefully acknowledge support from the National Natural Science
622 Foundation of China (42367021) and the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region
623 “Tianshan Yingcai” Scientific Research Program (2023TSYCCX0010).

624 **Financial Support**

625 This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
626 (42367021) and the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region “Tianshan Yingcai” Talent
627 Cultivation Program (2023TSYCCX0010).



628 **References**

- 629 An, P., Zhang, A. J., Liu, H. T., and Wang, T.: Degradation mechanism of long-term seepage and
630 permeability analysis of remolded saturated loess, *Rock Soil Mech.*, 34, 1965–1971, 2013 (in
631 Chinese).
- 632 Bagarello, V., Sferlazza, S., and Sgroi, A.: Testing laboratory methods to determine the anisotropy of
633 saturated hydraulic conductivity in a sandy-loam soil, *Geoderma*, 154, 52–58, 2009.
- 634 Bakhshipour, Z., Asadi, A., Huat, B. B. K., Sridharan, A., and Kawasaki, S.: Effect of acid rain on
635 geotechnical properties of residual soils, *Soils Found.*, 56, 1008–1020,
636 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sandf.2016.11.006>, 2016.
- 637 Bendahmane, F., Marot, D., and Alexis, A.: Experimental parametric study of suffusion and backward
638 erosion, *J. Geotech. Geoenviron. Eng.*, 134, 57–67, 2008.
- 639 Cheng, Q., Tang, C. S., Xu, D., Zeng, H., and Shi, B.: Water infiltration in a cracked soil considering
640 effect of drying-wetting cycles, *J. Hydrol.*, 593, 125640, 2021.
- 641 Chapuis, R. P.: Similarity of internal stability criteria for granular soils, *Can. Geotech. J.*, 29, 711–713,
642 1992.
- 643 Cividini, A., Bonomi, S., Vignati, G. C., and Gioda, G.: Seepage-induced erosion in granular soil and
644 consequent settlements, *Int. J. Geomech.*, 9, 187–194, 2009.
- 645 Cui, P.: Study on conditions and mechanisms of debris flow initiation by means of experiment, *Chin.*
646 *Sci. Bull.*, 37, 759–759, 1992.
- 647 Cui, P.: Progress and prospects in research on mountain hazards in China, *Prog. Geogr.*, 33, 145–152,
648 <https://doi.org/10.11820/dlkxjz.2014.02.001>, 2014 (in Chinese).
- 649 Cui, Y., Jiang, Y., and Guo, C.: Investigation of the initiation of shallow failure in widely graded loose
650 soil slopes considering interstitial flow and surface runoff, *Landslides*, 16, 815–828, 2019.
- 651 Dafalla, M. A., Al-Mahbashi, A. M., Almajed, A., and Al-Shamrani, M.: Predicting soil-water
652 characteristic curves of clayey sand soils using area computation, *Math. Probl. Eng.*, 2020,
653 4548912, <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/4548912>, 2020.
- 654 Daigle, H. and Dugan, B.: An improved technique for computing permeability from NMR
655 measurements in mudstones, *J. Geophys. Res. Solid Earth*, 116,
656 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JB008353>, 2011.
- 657 Delage, P., Audiguier, M., Cui, Y.-J., and Howat, M. D.: Microstructure of a compacted silt, *Can.*
658 *Geotech. J.*, 33, 150–158, 1996.
- 659 Duo, H., Xie, S., Jian, W., Wang, H., and Guo, C.: Characterization of dominant flow potential erosion
660 at soil-rock interface of spherically weathered granite-like soil slopes, *Geotechnics*, 45, 950–960,
661 <https://doi.org/10.16285/j.rsm.2023.0644>, 2024.
- 662 Gallage, C., Kodikara, J., and Uchimura, T.: Laboratory measurement of hydraulic conductivity
663 functions of two unsaturated sandy soils during drying and wetting processes, *Soils Found.*, 53,
664 417–430, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sandf.2013.04.004>, 2013.
- 665 Gao, C., Xu, L., Coop, M. R., Huang, C., and Zuo, L.: An investigation of particle breakage in loess,
666 *Eng. Geol.*, 286, 106083, 2021.
- 667 Garakani, A. A., Haeri, S. M., Khosravi, A., and Habibagahi, G.: Hydro-mechanical behavior of
668 undisturbed collapsible loessial soils under different stress state conditions, *Eng. Geol.*, 195,
669 28–41, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2015.05.026>, 2015.
- 670 Gratchev, I. and Towhata, I.: Compressibility of natural soils subjected to long-term acidic
671 contamination, *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 64, 193–200, 2011.



- 672 Hamilton, J. M., Daniel, D. E., and Olson, R. E.: Measurement of hydraulic conductivity of partially
673 saturated soils, *Am. Soc. Test. Mater., Spec. Tech. Publ.*, 182–196, 1981.
- 674 Hou, X. and Fan, H.: Characterization of rainfall infiltration in unsaturated fissured soil based on
675 COMSOL Multiphysics, *Geotechnics*, 43, 563–572, <https://doi.org/10.16285/j.rsm.2021.0854>,
676 2022.
- 677 Jiang, M., Zhang, F., Hu, H., Cui, Y., and Peng, J.: Structural characterization of natural loess and
678 remolded loess under triaxial tests, *Eng. Geol.*, 181, 249–260,
679 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2014.07.021>, 2014.
- 680 Jianbing, P., Hungchou, L. I. N., Qiyao, W. A. N. G., Jianqi, Z., Yuxiang, C., and Xinghua, Z.: The
681 critical issues and creative concepts in mitigation research of loess geological hazards, *J. Eng.*
682 *Geol.*, 22, 684–691, <https://doi.org/10.13544/j.cnki.jeg.2014.04.014>, 2014.
- 683 Kaidierding Wulamu, Zhang, Z., Zhang, Y., Zhu, J., and Chen, W.: COMSOL Multiphysics-based
684 calculation model of critical rainfall threshold for rainfall-induced landslide: A case study of
685 Karahayisu landslide in Xinyuan County, Xinjiang, *J. Eng. Geol.*, 31,
686 <https://doi.org/10.13544/j.cnki.jeg.2023-0206>, 2023.
- 687 Kenney, T. C. and Lau, D.: Internal stability of granular filters, *Can. Geotech. J.*, 22, 215–225, 1985.
- 688 Lee, K. T. and Ho, J. Y.: Prediction of landslide occurrence based on slope-instability analysis and
689 hydrological model simulation, *J. Hydrol.*, 375, 489–497, 2009.
- 690 Li, X. A. and Li, L. C.: Quantification of the pore structures of Malan loess and the effects on loess
691 permeability and environmental significance, Shaanxi Province, China: An experimental study,
692 *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 76, 523, 2017.
- 693 Liu, C., Shi, B., Zhou, J., and Tang, C.: Quantification and characterization of microporosity by image
694 processing, geometric measurement and statistical methods: Application on SEM images of clay
695 materials, *Appl. Clay Sci.*, 54, 97–106, 2011.
- 696 Liu, T. S.: Loess and the environment, China Ocean Press, Beijing, 237 pp., 1985 (in Chinese).
- 697 Liu, T. S., Wang, T. M., Wang, K. L., and Wen, C. C.: Loess on the middle reaches of the Yellow River,
698 Science Press, Beijing, 234 pp., 1964 (in Chinese).
- 699 Lu, X., Cui, P., Hu, K., and Zhang, X.: Initiation and development of water film by seepage, *J. Mt. Sci.*,
700 7, 361–366, 2010.
- 701 Mao, C. X.: Study on piping and filters: Part 1 of piping, *Rock Soil Mech.*, 26, 209–215, 2005.
- 702 Meng, J. and Li, X.-A.: Effects of carbonate on the structure and properties of loess and the
703 corresponding mechanism: An experimental study of the Malan loess, Xi'an area, China, *Bull. Eng.*
704 *Geol. Environ.*, 78, 4965–4976, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10064-018-01457-z>, 2019.
- 705 Moffat, R., Fannin, R. J., and Garner, S. J.: Spatial and temporal progression of internal erosion in
706 cohesionless soil, *Can. Geotech. J.*, 48, 399–412, 2011.
- 707 Ng, C. W. W. and Leung, A. K.: Measurements of drying and wetting permeability functions using a
708 new stress-controllable soil column, *J. Geotech. Geoenviron. Eng.*, 138, 58–68,
709 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)GT.1943-5606.0000560](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)GT.1943-5606.0000560), 2012.
- 710 Peng, J. B., Sun, P., Igwe, O., and Li, X.: Loess caves, a special kind of geo-hazard on Loess Plateau,
711 northwestern China, *Eng. Geol.*, 236, 79–88, 2018.
- 712 Richards, K. S. and Reddy, K. R.: Critical appraisal of piping phenomena in earth dams, *Bull. Eng.*
713 *Geol. Environ.*, 66, 381–402, 2007.
- 714 Romero, E.: A microstructural insight into compacted clayey soils and their hydraulic properties, *Eng.*
715 *Geol.*, 165, 3–19, 2013.



- 716 Romero, E., Gens, A., and Lloret, A.: Water permeability, water retention and microstructure of
717 unsaturated compacted Boom clay, *Eng. Geol.*, 54, 117–127,
718 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-7952\(99\)00067-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-7952(99)00067-8), 1999.
- 719 Sadeghi, H. and AliPanahi, P.: Saturated hydraulic conductivity of problematic soils measured by a
720 newly developed low-compliance triaxial permeameter, *Eng. Geol.*, 278, 105827,
721 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2020.105827>, 2020.
- 722 Schrefler, B. A.: Mechanics and thermodynamics of saturated/unsaturated porous materials and
723 quantitative solutions, *Appl. Mech. Rev.*, 55, 351–388, 2002.
- 724 Shao, X., Zhang, H., and Tan, Y.: Collapse behavior and microstructural alteration of remolded loess
725 under graded wetting tests, *Eng. Geol.*, 233, 11–22, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2017.11.025>,
726 2018.
- 727 Shepard, F. P.: Nomenclature based on sand-silt-clay ratios, *J. Sediment. Res.*, 24, 151–158,
728 <https://doi.org/10.1306/d4269774-2b26-11d7-8648000102c1865d>, 1954.
- 729 Skempton, A. W. and Brogan, J. M.: Experiments on piping in sandy gravels, *Géotechnique*, 44,
730 449–460, 1994.
- 731 Smalley, I.: Landslides in the thick loess terrain of North-West China, edited by Derbyshire, E., Meng,
732 X., and Dijkstra, T. A., *Eng. Geol.*, 59, 201–202, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-7952\(00\)00067-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-7952(00)00067-3),
733 2001.
- 734 Vallejo, L. E.: Interpretation of the limits in shear strength in binary granular mixtures, *Can. Geotech. J.*,
735 38, 1097–1104, 2001.
- 736 van Genuchten, M. T.: A closed-form equation for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated
737 soils, *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*, 44, 892–898,
738 <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1980.03615995004400050002x>, 1980.
- 739 Wang, J.-D., Li, P., Ma, Y., and Vanapalli, S. K.: Evolution of pore-size distribution of intact loess and
740 remolded loess due to consolidation, *J. Soils Sediments*, 19, 1226–1238,
741 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11368-018-2136-7>, 2019.
- 742 Watson, K. K.: An instantaneous profile method for determining the hydraulic conductivity of
743 unsaturated porous materials, *Water Resour. Res.*, 2, 709–715,
744 <https://doi.org/10.1029/WR002i004p00709>, 1966.
- 745 Wu, F. C., Liu, Y., Zhao, X. N., and Guo, Z. T.: Research report on progress strategy of environmental
746 science disciplines, Science Press, Beijing, 2021.
- 747 Xie, H., Chen, Z., and Wang, J.: Three-dimensional numerical analysis of deformation and failure
748 during top coal caving, *Int. J. Rock Mech. Min. Sci.*, 36, 651–658, 1999.
- 749 Ye, W., San, C., and Zhao, X.: Spatial-temporal distribution of loess and source of dust in Xinjiang, *J.*
750 *Desert Res.*, 23, 514–520, 2003 (in Chinese).
- 751 Zhang, Y. T.: Study on the influence of temperature on the permeability of remolded Malan loess, M.S.
752 thesis, Chang'an University, Xi'an, China, 2019.
- 753 Zhuang, J. Q., Cui, P., Hu, K. H., and Chen, X. Q.: Fine particle size moving and its effect on debris
754 flow initiation, *Mt. Res. Dev.*, 33, 713–720, 2015a.
- 755 Zhuang, J. Q., Peng, J. B., Iqbal, J., Liu, T. M., Liu, N. N., Li, Y. Z., and Ma, P. H.: Identification of
756 landslide spatial distribution and susceptibility assessment in relation to topography in the Xi'an
757 region, Shaanxi Province, China, *Front. Earth Sci.*, 9, 449–462, 2015b.
- 758
759