



37

## Abstract

38 Internal instability means that the finer particles pass through the constrictions of the coarser  
39 particles at a hydraulic gradient well below that of heave or piping, rendering the soil  
40 ineffective for its intended purpose. The soil could make a transition from an internally stable  
41 state to an unstable state or vice versa due to shear-induced deformation. The Discrete Element  
42 Method (DEM) is adopted in this study to examine and quantify the soil behavior by simulating  
43 the quasi-static shear deformation of internally stable and unstable soils at the micro and macro  
44 scales. The dense bimodal specimens were sheared under drained conditions following a  
45 constant mean stress path in order to investigate the influence of stress heterogeneity. At the  
46 macroscale, the peak deviatoric stress was found to be a function of the fines content and the  
47 initial void ratios of the specimens. The development of the average number of contacts per  
48 particle and the stress transfer to the finer fraction during shearing are discussed. The  
49 simulation results innovatively show that a dense specimen could undergo a transition from an  
50 internally stable to an unstable soil as it dilates during shear. These numerical results have  
51 significant implications on the importance of real-life situations, such as predicting mud  
52 pumping in railroad tracks.

53 **Author keywords:** Internal Instability, Discrete Element Method, Coordination Number,  
54 Stress Reduction Factor, Stress-induced Anisotropy

## 55 **1 Introduction**

56 Internal instability refers to a phenomenon whereby the fine particles pass through the  
57 constrictions of the coarse particles under the action of seepage flow (Indraratna et al. 2015;  
58 Kenney and Lau 1985). A much lower hydraulic gradient is needed to erode these fine particles  
59 than required to initiate heave or piping failure (Indraratna et al. 2020; Israr and Indraratna  
60 2018; Skempton and Brogan 1994). This can lead to a change in the particle size distribution  
61 (PSD) of the soil specimen, thus altering the hydraulic and mechanical properties of the soil.  
62 Furthermore, soil foundations often experience deformations such as shear dilatancy under  
63 loading, leading to the associated internal instability and erosion resistance due to changes in  
64 the fabric, including the pore structure. The soils used in practice may not serve their intended  
65 purpose if they are internally unstable. The soil types that are vulnerable to internal instability  
66 are usually those that are broadly-graded and gap-graded (Kenney and Lau 1985; Skempton  
67 and Brogan 1994; To et al. 2018).

68 In past experimental studies, significant efforts have been made to study the influence of  
69 internal instability on shear behavior (Chang and Zhang 2013; Ke and Takahashi 2015; Xiao  
70 and Shwiyhat 2012), whereas the development of internal instability during shearing is not yet  
71 fully understood. Several studies (Chang and Zhang 2013; Prasomsri and Takahashi 2020;  
72 Trani 2009) have also shown the effects of the initial stress state and the loading condition on  
73 the internal erosion of soils, but the detailed micro-mechanism could not be captured with these  
74 macroscale laboratory tests. For example, the shear-induced deformation changes filtration  
75 characteristics associated with the soil fabric and stress distribution at the microscale demands  
76 more insight.

77 The Discrete Element Method (DEM) has been used to study internal instability (Galindo-  
78 Torres et al. 2015; Indraratna et al. 2021; Nguyen and Indraratna 2020; Shire et al. 2014). Hu

79 et al. (2020) studied the influence of suffusion on the undrained shear behavior of an internally  
80 unstable soil using DEM coupled with Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD). Zou et al. (2020)  
81 studied the suffusion mechanism using coupled DEM-CFD, and their simulations showed that  
82 the erosion ratio of the fine particles was larger when Kenney and Lau's (1985) stability index  
83 was lower. Nguyen and Indraratna (2020) studied internal erosion through a novel concept of  
84 energy transformation. Indraratna et al. (2021) used the microscale variables from the DEM to  
85 mark the boundaries between internally unstable and stable isotropically compressed soils. The  
86 coordination number and the stress reduction factor were compared to the constriction-based  
87 criterion by Indraratna et al. (2011) and particle-size-based criteria by Kezdi (1979) and  
88 Kenney and Lau (1985). The coordination number and stress reduction factor varied  
89 consistently with the constriction-based retention ratio in contrast to the particle-size-based  
90 retention ratios. Soils were internally stable when the coordination number was greater than 1,  
91 and the stress reduction factor was greater than 0.5 (Indraratna et al. 2021). Sufian et al. (2021)  
92 studied the influence of stress-induced anisotropy on the gap-graded bimodal specimens using  
93 the DEM. However, none of these previous studies could address the transition of the  
94 specimens from an internally stable to an unstable state attributed to shear-induced  
95 deformation. Furthermore, this study interprets three distinct stages in the development of  
96 stress reduction factor for the overfilled fabric cases due to the shear-induced deformation of  
97 the dense specimens. In contrast, the previous study (e.g., Sufian et al. 2021) only considered  
98 a single stage where the stress reduction factor decreases with the shear-induced dilation of the  
99 dense specimens.

100 In view of the above, this paper aims to characterize the internally stable and unstable soils  
101 based on the microscale parameters during shearing, which is the major innovation here. The  
102 DEM is used to model the dense bimodal specimens with different gap ratios and non-cohesive  
103 fines content. The development of the coordination number, sliding contacts, stress reduction

104 factor, and the directional distribution of the contacts during quasi-static shear deformation  
105 were investigated to interpret the data and explain the transition from a stable to an unstable  
106 state. The findings of the current study help to predict the potential of internal instability at  
107 different stress-state of the soil in the field since the initial stress-state is currently considered  
108 to predict the instability potential.

## 109 **2 Particle Size Distribution Curves**

110 Figure 1 shows a set of 10 gap-graded particle size distribution (PSD) curves of the soil  
111 specimens considered for analysis from a previous experimental study (Honjo et al. 1996).  
112 These specimens exhibit varying degrees of internal instability (Table 1). Two values of the  
113 gap ratios were chosen, i.e., 2 and 3, and the larger gap ratios could not be simulated owing to  
114 the excessive computational cost involved, which can be considered a drawback of the current  
115 study. The fines content was varied from 10% to 40% in order to simulate all fabric categories  
116 from underfilled to overfilled. The Gap-graded soils are ample in numerous geotechnical  
117 engineering applications. Examples include alluvial sediment deposits, moraines, glacial tills,  
118 waste products from mining processes and rockfill-soil mixtures such as in embankment dams,  
119 fouled ballast under railways, and geological hazards, such as debris flows and landslides  
120 contributing to the occurrence of gap-graded soils (Langroudi et al. 2013; Zhu et al. 2020).  
121 Table 1 shows the gap ratios, fines content, initial void ratio, initial coordination number, initial  
122 stress reduction factor, and the number of particles considered in the simulation for each  
123 specimen.

## 124 **3 Simulation Approach**

125 Three-dimensional DEM simulations were performed using an open-source code developed by  
126 Kloss et al. (2012). The cubical specimens were simulated with periodic boundaries to have an  
127 infinite sample size to avoid any boundary effects (Thornton 2000), and the Hertz-Mindlin

128 contact model was used. The spherical shapes were simulated, and the solid density of particles  
129 was considered to be 2650 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio of the particles were  
130 assumed to be 70 GPa and 0.3, which are relevant to represent common geo-granular materials  
131 such as sand (Thornton 2000).

132 The gravity of the particles was turned off. There were at least 500 coarse particles in each  
133 specimen, which was enough to create a representative element volume (REV) (Shire et al.  
134 2014). The specimens were prepared in a dense state which was obtained by setting the value  
135 of the coefficient of friction ( $\mu_s$ ) = 0 during isotropic compression. Upon reaching the required  
136 stress level, the  $\mu_s$  value was changed to 0.3, and the specimens were equilibrated with a  
137 sufficient number of cycles (Shire et al. 2014). A wide range of values of  $\mu_s$  has been considered  
138 in the literature. Senetakis et al. (2013) determined the range of  $0.12 < \mu_s < 0.35$  experimentally  
139 for sand particles using a micromechanical interparticle loading apparatus. Huang et al. (2014)  
140 recommended using  $\mu_s < 0.5$  for element tests in geomechanics and concluded that  $\mu_s \geq 0.5$   
141 gives unrealistic results; therefore, this study assumed  $\mu_s < 0.5$ , i.e., 0.3.

142 Using a strain-controlled approach, a noninteracting cloud of particles was compressed to a  
143 target confining pressure  $p' = (\sigma'_1 + \sigma'_2 + \sigma'_3)/3 = 200$  kPa. A strain rate was established to  
144 guarantee that the specimens deformed in a quasi-static manner. This was confirmed by  
145 maintaining a low value of the inertial number ( $I_n$ )  $< 7.9 \times 10^{-5}$ . The  $I_n$  is defined as follows  
146 (Da Cruz et al. 2005).

$$147 \quad I_n = \dot{\epsilon} d_{avg} \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{p'}} \quad (1)$$

148 where  $\dot{\epsilon}$  is the strain rate,  $d_{avg}$  is the average diameter of the coarser fraction of the PSD curve,  
149 and  $p'$  is the effective mean stress.

150 In order to bring the particle system into an equilibrium state, the strain rate dropped to zero at  
151  $p' = 200$  kPa. The simulations were executed for additional cycles sufficient to confirm  
152 equilibrium. A mean effective stress ( $p' = 200$  kPa) was chosen to establish effective contacts  
153 between the particles since the gravity of the particles was neglected in the simulations (Shire  
154 et al. 2014; Sufian et al. 2021). In addition, 200 kPa is within the range of in situ stress  
155 encountered in the field for various infrastructures, including embankment dams and railways.  
156 All the PSDs were isotropically compressed to the densest possible state with the same initial  
157 values of relative density ( $>90\%$ ) and mean effective stress (200 kPa), similar to the approach  
158 used by Shire et al. (2014) and Sufian et al. (2021). The specimens were then sheared under a  
159 constant  $p'$  stress path (Figure 2) with axial compression and lateral extension. Shearing of the  
160 specimens was terminated at an axial strain of 15%. Figure 2b shows the isotropically  
161 compressed and deformed DEM specimen at the end of shearing. The average stress tensor of  
162 the specimens was calculated using the approach given by Potyondy and Cundall (2004).

#### 163 **4 Results and Discussion**

164 Figure 3 shows the macroscopic stress-strain behavior of the specimens when sheared under  
165 drained conditions using a constant mean stress path. Fluctuations in the stress-strain curves  
166 are due to the contacts not being engaged during shear (Sufian et al. 2021). The contact  
167 engagement depends on the initial fabric of the specimens. For example, the stress-strain curves  
168 of Specimens A(40%) and B(40%) show less fluctuations than others in their respective groups,  
169 where the fines content is denoted within brackets. A prominent peak deviatoric stress ( $q_{peak}$ )  
170 is identified in all the specimens at relatively low axial strain values ( $< 2\%$ ), indicating stiff  
171 (dense) specimens. It is also clear from Figure 3 that the macroscopic stress-strain response is  
172 affected by the gap ratio and the fines content. All specimens show post-peak strain softening;  
173 the specimens with higher fines content show a greater reduction in post-peak deviatoric stress,  
174 i.e., a greater extent of post-peak strain softening than those with less fines. For example, the

175 post-peak deviatoric stress of Specimen B(30%) at the end of shear is less than that of Specimen  
176 B(20%). The stress-strain response of all specimens can also be expressed in terms of  
177 brittleness index  $(q_{peak} - q_{residual})/q_{peak}$ , where  $q_{residual}$  is the residual deviatoric stress.  
178 The brittleness indices for Specimens B (20%) and B (30%) are 0.42 and 0.61, respectively. A  
179 higher brittleness index indicates strain-softening behavior of the specimen with a lower post-  
180 peak deviatoric stress. Particle breakage may affect shear behavior in reality; however, this is  
181 neglected in the current study due to the added complexity of modeling, which also leads to a  
182 high computational effort. It is also noted that different types of particles show different rates  
183 of breakage depending on the parent rock type, angularity, and the corresponding stress  
184 concentrations. These are obvious limitations of the current study.

185 Figure 4 shows the development of the volumetric strain ( $\varepsilon_v$ ) with axial strain. The negative  
186 value of the vertical axis indicates compression of the dense specimen during the initial  
187 shearing phase but is negligible ( $< 0.005\%$ ) (see Fig. 4b & 4d). The DEM results presented in  
188 this study are consistent with the observations of Thornton (2000) and Barreto and Sullivan  
189 (2012). A positive value of the  $\varepsilon_v$  indicates the dilation of the specimen. The magnitude of  $\varepsilon_v$   
190 initially increases until it reaches a critical value and then remains relatively constant. This  
191 state is considered to be the critical state, where the shear deformation continues without any  
192 change in the specimen volume. The specimens with a higher proportion of fines reach the  
193 critical value of  $\varepsilon_v$  at lower values of axial strain compared to those with a lower proportion of  
194 fines. For example, the  $\varepsilon_v$  of Specimen A(30%) becomes constant at about 6% of axial strain,  
195 while for Specimen A(20%),  $\varepsilon_v$  attains a constant level at an axial strain of about 10%.  
196 Similarly, Specimen B(30%) reaches the critical  $\varepsilon_v$  level at about 5% of axial strain, while  
197 Specimen B(20%) shows no apparent convergence of strain to a constant value. For both the  
198 gap ratios = 2 and 3, specimens with 30% fines content undergo the least amount of dilation



199 than the other specimens because of the filled fabric, i.e., fine particles completely fill the voids  
200 between the coarse particles, restricting the dilation of the specimens.

201 Figure 5a shows the relationship between the fines content and the initial void ratio ( $e_o$ ) for  
202 each gap ratio. The  $e_o$  depends on fines content, gap ratio, and density of the specimen. As the  
203 proportion of fines increases,  $e_o$  decreases because the fine particles occupy the void spaces  
204 between the coarse particles. At a certain proportion of fines, the void spaces are then entirely  
205 occupied by the fine particles, as a result of which the void ratio reaches a minimum value. In  
206 this situation (Figure 5b), there is no more space available between the coarse particles for  
207 accommodating any additional fine particles. If more fines are added, then the separation of  
208 the coarse particles will need to occur, and the fine particles then become increasingly more  
209 dominant in the mixture. Thus, the coarse particles apparently float in the matrix of fine  
210 particles, referred to as an overfilled fabric (Figure 5b). Clearly, the void ratio increases upon  
211 reaching the overfilled fabric. The proportion of fines at which the minimum value of  $e_o$  is  
212 reached depends on the gap ratio; a specimen with a higher gap ratio requires more fines to fill  
213 the void spaces. Figure 5c shows the variation of the peak deviatoric stress ( $q_{peak}$ ) at different  
214 values of the fines content. As the proportion of fines increases,  $e_o$  continues to decrease,  
215 causing the  $q_{peak}$  value to increase. At the minimum value of  $e_o$ , the maximum value of  $q_{peak}$  is  
216 reached. The value of  $q_{peak}$  decreases after the maximum value since  $e_o$  increases with a further  
217 increase in the fines content. Hence, the value of  $q_{peak}$  inevitably becomes a function of  $e_o$  and  
218 the fines content.

219 The numerical results show that at 10-15% fines content, the effect of the gap ratio on  $q_{peak}$  is  
220 insignificant; however, this effect becomes pronounced when the fines content exceeds 15%.  
221 The greater the gap ratio, the larger the  $q_{peak}$ ; in particular, the largest  $q_{peak}$  is about 254 kPa at  
222 a gap ratio of 3, but it decreases to about 237 kPa as the gap ratio decreases to 2. As the fines  
223 content continues to increase and the soil reaches an overfilled state, the difference between

224 the two curves decreases due to the increasing role of the fines in shear strength. One might  
225 expect that the two curves representing different gap ratios could become identical as fines  
226 continue to increase (>40%) and play a dominant role in the shear behavior of soils.

227 Figure 6 shows the constriction size distributions (CSDs) of the coarser fraction for Specimens  
228 A and B. It is noteworthy that the CSDs are only plotted for the coarser fraction, as it restricts  
229 the migration of fines. From Fig. 6, it can be seen that the constriction sizes at the end of  
230 shearing are increased by the dilation of the specimens. As constriction sizes are increased,  
231 more fines can be transported, and thus the specimens could become internally unstable.

232 Figure 7 shows the variation of the coordination number ( $Z$ ) with axial strain. The coordination  
233 number ( $Z$ ) is a microscale parameter describing the average number of contacts per particle  
234 and is given as follows (Thornton 2000).

$$235 \quad Z = \frac{2N_c}{N_p} \quad (2)$$

236 where  $N_c$  = the number of contacts; and  $N_p$  = the number of particles in the specimen.

237 During the initial shearing phase, the value of  $Z$  changes rapidly until it reaches a critical value  
238 that remains constant thereafter. The drop in  $Z$  values can be attributed to the shear deformation,  
239 which breaks the contacts between the particles. The initial rapid decrease in the coordination  
240 number indicates that the rate of contact breakage exceeds the rate of formation of new  
241 contacts. This rate of breakage and formation of new contacts becomes equal at the critical  
242 state (Rothenburg and Kruyt 2004). It is evident that the critical value of the coordination  
243 number is a function of the PSD and the proportion of fines. For Specimen B(30%), the  $Z$  value  
244 momentarily falls below the critical value. These fluctuations in the  $Z$  values are due to local  
245 instability and increased mobility of the particles. If real boundaries were used, this could lead

246 to strain localization and shear band formation. Strain localization cannot occur in periodic  
247 cells when the uniform strain field is applied (Thornton 2000).

248 Figure 7c shows the percentage drop in  $Z$  ( $\Delta Z / Z_o$ , where  $Z_o$  is the initial value of the  
249 coordination number) during shear-induced deformation with fines content. The overall  
250 behavior can be divided into three categories: (i) the drop in the value of  $Z$  is less for specimens  
251 with a low fines content, (ii) the value of  $Z$  drops significantly for specimens with 20 to 30%  
252 fines, but the percentage of drop also depends on the gap ratio, (iii) for overfilled specimens  
253 with a greater proportion of fines, the drop in  $Z$  is again lower, and this is consistent across  
254 different gap ratios. From Fig. 7c, it can be seen that the drop in the value of  $Z$  is greater than  
255 80% for specimens that make a transition from an internally stable to an unstable state, i.e.,  
256 Specimens A(20%), B(20%), and B(30%).

257 At the isotropic stress state, Fig. 8(a) shows a plot of the percentage (by number) of  
258 unconnected cohesionless fine particles within the voids of the coarse particles for different  
259 gap ratios and fines content. For a given particle size distribution curve, the gap ratio is the  
260 ratio of the minimum particle size in the coarser fraction to the maximum particle size in the  
261 finer fraction. It is shown that with 10% (by mass) fines, the percentage of unconnected  
262 (suspended) fine particles by number is greater than 90% for both gap ratios (i.e., 2 and 3)  
263 considered within the scope of this study. With 20% (by mass) fines, the proportion of  
264 unconnected fines by number is around 50% for both gap ratios. In contrast, with higher  
265 proportions of fines corresponding to 30% and 40% (by mass), the percentage of fine particles  
266 (by number) for both gap ratios is less than 20%. A lower percentage (by number) of  
267 unconnected fines at a higher percentage (by mass) of fines indicates that the fines occupy the  
268 voids between the coarse particles, thereby establishing contact with one another. From this, it  
269 can be concluded that at 10% and 20% of the fines with gap ratios of 2 and 3, a notable number

270 of unconnected fines can still be present in the voids of the coarse particles. Similarly, Fig. 8(b)  
271 shows the plot of the percentage (by number) of unconnected fine particles at the end of  
272 shearing. It can be seen from Fig. 8(b) that the percentage of unconnected fine particles  
273 increased at the end of shearing. This is because the soil dilated and became loose, leaving  
274 more free fine particles that are easily eroded.

275 Figure 9 shows plots of the stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ), axial strain and stress ratio ( $q/p'$ ). The  
276  $\alpha$  is the ratio of the mean stress carried by the fines to the overall mean stress and was calculated  
277 using the method described by Shire et al. (2014). The value of  $\alpha$  is an indication of how much  
278 the fine particles are involved in stress transfer and contribute to the overall stress-strain  
279 response, hence it can be taken as an index for assessing the potential for internal instability. A  
280 low value of  $\alpha$  indicates a high potential for internal instability (Shire et al. 2014). The  
281 specimens (Fig. 9) can be divided into two groups with clearly different behavior. The first  
282 group is of the specimens with low values of the fines content with underfilled fabric, i.e.,  
283 Specimens A(10%), A(15%), B(10%), and B(15%). The values of  $\alpha$  remain constant with axial  
284 strain and stress ratio with minimal changes because the fine particles make no contribution to  
285 the deviatoric stress and remain loose within the void spaces of the coarse particle fractions.  
286 There is a slight increase in the  $\alpha$  value for Specimen B (15%) after the peak stress ratio. This  
287 is probably due to the redistribution of the stresses in the finer particles during shearing. The  
288 second group is of the specimens with higher fines content, i.e., Specimens A(20%), A(30%),  
289 A(40%), B(30%) and B(40%). It can be seen that  $\alpha$  changes significantly during shearing. In  
290 Specimen B(30%), the  $\alpha$  value drops significantly from 1.655 to 0.751; similarly, it decreases  
291 from 1.665 to 0.964 in Specimen A(30%). The reduction in  $\alpha$  of Specimens A(40%) and  
292 B(40%) is not as significant as that of Specimens A(30%) and B(30%). In this regard, for  
293 specimens in the second group, the development of  $\alpha$  can be divided into three stages. In stage  
294 1,  $\alpha$  remains constant for up to a stress ratio = 0.80 with a small value of the axial strain; in

295 stage 2  $\alpha$  decreases slightly as it approaches the peak stress ratio and stage 3 is the post-peak  
296 region where the value of  $\alpha$  drops significantly. For example, Specimens A(20%), A(30%),  
297 A(40%), B(30%), and B(40%),  $\alpha$  remains almost unchanged before reaching the peak stress  
298 ratio with a small value of axial strain; thereafter, the value of  $\alpha$  drops slightly until it reaches  
299 the peak stress ratio. After the peak stress ratio, the value of  $\alpha$  drops significantly.

300 For both the gap ratios, the  $\alpha$  value increases with the fines content at specific values of the  
301 axial strain and stress ratio. As the proportion of the fine particles increases, they begin to  
302 participate in the load-carrying process; however, the magnitude of their contribution varies  
303 with the gap ratio. For example, with the same proportion of fines, e.g., at 30% of fines, the  
304 value of  $\alpha$  decreases with an increasing gap ratio. This is because fine particles can easily fit  
305 into the voids between the coarse particles as the gap ratio increases. At a higher fines content,  
306 i.e., 40%,  $\alpha$  increases with the increase in gap ratio because a greater number of fine particles  
307 separate the coarse particles and are now available to carry and distribute the stresses (Sufian  
308 et al. 2021). For example, the  $\alpha$  value at the isotropic stress state of Specimen A(20%) is 1.116  
309 and that of Specimen B(20%) is 0.40. Contrary to this, the  $\alpha$  value of Specimen A(40%) is  
310 1.616 and that of Specimen B(40%) is 1.740.

311 In the previously published study (i.e., Indraratna et al. 2021), a detailed analysis was carried  
312 out comparing the initial coordination number ( $Z_o$ ) and the stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ) and  
313 relating them to criteria based on constriction and particle size. A good relationship between  
314 the initial coordination number ( $Z_o$ ), the stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ), and the constriction-based  
315 criteria showed that these microscale parameters could be used to assess the potential for  
316 internal instability of the soil. A criterion based on the coordination number and the stress  
317 reduction factor was proposed to assess the potential for internal instability of granular soils.  
318 For instance, specimens with the potential for internal instability had  $Z \leq 1$  or  $\alpha \leq 0.5$

319 (Indraratna et al. 2021), which is used in this study. Specimen A(20%) has an initial value of  $Z$   
 320 = 3.06 and  $\alpha = 1.116$ ; however, the critical value of  $Z$  becomes less than 1, and thus the  
 321 specimen becomes internally unstable. Similarly, Specimen B(30%) has an initial  $Z > 1$  and  $\alpha$   
 322  $> 0.50$ , and thereafter, the value of  $Z$  becomes less than unity; hence, it transforms from  
 323 internally stable to unstable materials with dilation.

324 In gap-graded soils, the distribution of particle contacts is not uniform for different particle  
 325 sizes. In this regard, investigating the interparticle contacts between fine-fine and fine-coarse  
 326 particles during shearing is crucial for understanding the microscale response of soils. Figure  
 327 10 shows the evolution of  $\alpha$  with fine-fine and fine-coarse coordination number ( $Z^{fine-coarse}$ )  
 328 during shearing, where  $Z^{fine-coarse}$  is defined by (Minh and Cheng 2013):

$$329 \quad Z^{fine-coarse} = \frac{2(N_c^{fine-fine} + N_c^{fine-coarse})}{N_p^{fines}} \quad (3)$$

330 where  $N_c^{fine-fine}$  is the number of contacts between the fine particles,  $N_c^{fine-coarse}$  is the  
 331 number of contacts between the fine and coarse particles and  $N_p^{fines}$  is the total number of fine  
 332 particles. Although their percentage is lower, the fine particles are much more in number than  
 333 the coarse particles.

334 There are three types of fabrics (Shire et al. 2014; Thevanayagam et al. 2002), i.e., (i) Type 1,  
 335 including Case I and Case IV (Fig. 10), where the coarse particles are mainly in contact with  
 336 each other. In Case I, the fine particles are loose between the voids of the coarse particles, and  
 337 the erosion of these fine particles does not significantly disturb the structure of the coarse  
 338 particles. In Case IV, fine particles are trapped between the coarser particles and are  
 339 overstressed. (ii) Type 2 is Case II, where the coarse particles are mainly in contact with each  
 340 other, and the fine particles play a supporting role. Here, both coarse and fine particles influence  
 341 stress-transfer, but coarse particles govern the transfer of stresses. The loss of fine particles

342 could cause the structure of the coarse particles to collapse, (iii) Type 3, i.e., Case III, where  
 343 the fine particles are mainly in contact with each other, and the coarse particles are dispersed  
 344 in the mixture (overfilled by fines). In this case, both the coarse and fine particles transmit  
 345 equal amounts of stresses. Each case with different intergranular contacts could show a  
 346 different drained shear response. During the shear-induced dilation of the specimens, a  
 347 transition in the microstructure between different cases could then occur.

348 Figure 10 shows the evolution of the fabrics of different specimens with dilation during  
 349 shearing. For example, Specimen A(20%) is initially with the overfilled fabric in Case III with  
 350  $Z^{fine-coarse} > 1$  and  $\alpha > 0.5$ ; however, it goes from Case III to Case IV with  $Z^{fine-coarse} < 1$   
 351 and  $\alpha > 0.5$  at the end of shearing upon the dilation of the specimen. This implies that the fine  
 352 particles have initially been in contact with each other and have now lost contacts. Similarly,  
 353 Specimen B(20%) shows Case II with  $Z^{fine-coarse} > 1$  and  $\alpha < 0.5$  at the isotropic stress state  
 354 and transitions to Case I with  $Z^{fine-coarse} < 1$  and  $\alpha < 0.5$  at the end of shearing, implying that  
 355 fines are now loosely seated between the coarse particles and could be eroded without affecting  
 356 the coarse particles. These findings are of practical relevance as the specimens could be  
 357 internally stable with overfilled fabric at the isotropic stress state but could transform from  
 358 internally stable to unstable soils with underfilled fabric due to shear-induced deformation.

359 Figure 11 shows the evolution of the coarse-coarse coordination number ( $Z^{coarse-coarse}$ ) with the  
 360 deviatoric stress. The value of  $Z^{coarse-coarse}$  is defined by (Minh and Cheng 2013):

$$361 \quad Z^{coarse-coarse} = \frac{2N_c^{coarse-coarse}}{N_p^{coarse}} \quad (4)$$

362 where  $N_c^{coarse-coarse}$  is the number of contacts between coarse particles, and  $N_p^{coarse}$  is the  
 363 number of coarse particles.

364 The  $Z^{coarse-coarse}$  decreases rapidly until the peak value of deviatoric stress is reached and  
 365 increases slightly thereafter. At the same time, the stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ) remains constant  
 366 up to the peak value of the stress ratio (Figure 9). Therefore, during the initial phase of shearing  
 367 up to the peak of deviatoric stress, the coarse contacts separate due to dilation, while the stresses  
 368 they carry do not change (constant  $\alpha$ ), so the reduced coarser contacts become overstressed.  
 369 After the peak of the deviatoric stress, the loss of contacts stops for the coarse particles while  
 370 the  $\alpha$  drops. As a result, the coarser particles are subjected to greater stress as the  $\alpha$  decreases.  
 371 Because of these higher stresses that the coarse particles carry, they re-establish some contacts  
 372 after the peak when the  $Z^{coarse-coarse}$  value increases slightly in some specimens (e.g., A(20%),  
 373 A(30%), A(40%), and B(30%)). This behavior of  $Z^{coarse-coarse}$  is consistent across different  
 374 specimens, although the initial value of  $Z^{coarse-coarse}$  varies with different fines content.

375 Figure 12 shows the development of sliding contacts with axial strain. The sliding contacts are  
 376 defined based on the following equation:

$$377 \quad S_i = \frac{f^T}{\mu_s f^N} \quad (5)$$

378 where  $S_i$  is the sliding index,  $f^T$  is the tangential contact force, and  $f^N$  is the normal contact  
 379 force. Sliding contacts occur when the tangential contact force has fully mobilized the friction,  
 380 i.e.,  $S_i = 1$ .

381 The percentage of the sliding contacts first increases, reflecting the initial shearing stage where  
 382 the deviatoric stress increases rapidly (see Fig. 3). After reaching a peak value, it decreases and  
 383 thereafter remains constant, which is when the critical state takes place with constant  
 384 volumetric strain. It is noteworthy that there is an increase in the percentage of sliding contacts  
 385 after the peak (axial strain > 3%) in Specimen B(30%). This can be attributed to local instability



386 and increased particle mobility, consistent with the evolution of the coordination number with  
387 axial strain for this specimen, as discussed earlier (see Fig. 7).

388 Figure 13 shows the directional distribution of the contacts (rose histograms) of selected  
389 Specimens (A(10%), B(10%), and B(15%)) at the isotropic stress state and the end of shearing.  
390 These results only apply to the x-z plane since the distribution of the contacts in the y-z plane  
391 is similar. From Fig. 13, it can be seen that at the isotropic state of stress, the distribution of the  
392 contacts is the same in all directions. However, anisotropy is evolving in the contact networks  
393 at the end of shearing, and the contact distribution is not equal in all directions. Therefore, shear  
394 deformation of the soil leads to structural anisotropy due to contact separation. The number of  
395 contacts in the direction of the major principal stress is greater than that of the minor principal  
396 stress. Hence, the major contact losses during shear deformation are in the lateral strain  
397 direction perpendicular to the direction of the major principal stress.

#### 398 **4 Practical Applications**

399 The following are some of the practical applications of this study:

- 400 • Microscale investigations enabled a better understanding of the mechanism of internal  
401 instability of soil, which can be helpful in the design and construction of substructures in  
402 railways.
- 403 • To demarcate internally unstable and stable soils, the microscale criterion based on the  
404 coordination number and the stress reduction factor can be used to estimate the probability  
405 of internal instability in the field at different stress state.
- 406 • Internal instability is a problem in railways that results in significant maintenance costs. The  
407 findings of this study can be used to avoid the huge maintenance cost associated with internally  
408 unstable capping layer in railways.

#### 409 **5 Conclusions**

410 This DEM study performed the drained tests following a constant mean stress path to  
411 investigate the influence of shear-induced deformation on the micromechanics of internally  
412 stable and unstable soils. Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions could  
413 be drawn:

- 414 • The results of the numerical analysis showed that the coordination number initially dropped  
415 rapidly because the disintegration rate of the contacts was higher than the formation rate of  
416 new contacts. It remained unchanged thereafter, as the rate of disintegration and formation  
417 of the contacts was the same. This leads to the conclusion that the development of the  
418 coordination number was strongly influenced by the shear-induced deformation and the  
419 associated internal instability.
- 420 • Internally stable specimens, e.g., Specimen A(20%) with initial values of coordination  
421 number ( $Z$ ) = 3.06 and the stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ) = 1.116, transitioned into internally  
422 unstable soil with  $Z < 1$  and  $\alpha > 0.5$  at the end of shearing. Similarly, Specimen B(30%)  
423 with initial  $Z > 1$  and  $\alpha > 0.50$  became internally unstable with  $Z < 1$  and  $\alpha > 0.50$ . The  
424 percentage drop in the  $Z$ -values of the specimens transitioning from internally stable to  
425 unstable soils was greater than 80%. Based on these results, it was evident that the drop in  
426 microscale parameters, such as the  $Z$  and  $\alpha$  values, would be linked to the volumetric  
427 response of the specimens at the macroscale.
- 428 • It was found that the initial overfilled fabric of Specimen A(20%) with fine-fine and fine-  
429 coarse coordination number ( $Z^{fine-coarse}$ )  $> 1$  and  $\alpha > 0.5$  was converted into an  
430 underfilled fabric with  $Z^{fine-coarse} < 1$  and  $\alpha > 0.5$ . Similarly, Specimen B(20%), with  
431  $Z^{fine-coarse} > 1$  and  $\alpha < 0.5$  at the isotropic stress state changed to underfilled fabric  
432  $Z^{fine-coarse} < 1$  and  $\alpha < 0.5$  at the end of shearing. This leads to the conclusion that the  
433 fabric of the soil may change significantly due to shear-induced deformations, thus altering  
434 the erosion resistance of the soil.

- 435 • The stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ) of specimens with underfilled fabric, i.e., A(10%), A(15%),  
436 B (10%), B(15%), and B(20%), remained almost unchanged with the axial strain and the  
437 stress ratio. For specimens with a higher fines content,  $\alpha$  dropped significantly during  
438 shearing. For instance, in Specimen B(30%),  $\alpha$  dropped significantly from 1.655 to 0.751.  
439 Three distinct stages were interpreted in the development of  $\alpha$ , namely: Stage 1, where  $\alpha$   
440 was constant when the stress ratio ( $q/p'$ )  $\leq 0.80$  at a small value of axial strain; Stage 2  
441 represented the slight decrease in  $\alpha$  as it approached the peak  $q/p'$  and Stage 3 where  $\alpha$   
442 dropped significantly in the post-peak region caused by shear-induced dilation. This  
443 implies that the stress distribution is a function of the soil fabric, the stress ratio ( $q/p'$ ), and  
444 the axial strain.
- 445 • In summary, the shear-induced deformation of the soil affects the coordination number and  
446 stress reduction factor. This indicates that the internal instability of the soil is a factor of  
447 the stress state of the soil, and the internally stable samples could turn into internally  
448 unstable soil due to shear-induced deformation.

#### 449 **Data availability statement**

450 The data will be made available by the authors upon reasonable request.

#### 451 **Acknowledgment**

452 The Authors gratefully appreciate the assistance of Prof Catherine O’Sullivan (Imperial  
453 College, London) in reading the manuscript and making constructive comments for its  
454 improvement, including the plots in Figure 8. Financial support from the Transport Research  
455 Centre, University of Technology Sydney (UTS), Sydney NSW, Australia, is greatly  
456 appreciated.

#### 457 **Declaration of competing interest**

458 The authors declare that they are unaware of any competing financial interests or personal  
459 relationships that may have influenced the work described in this paper.

460 **Notations**

461 *The following symbols are used in this paper:*

462  $d_{avg}$  = average diameter of the coarser fraction of PSD;

463  $G$  = shear modulus;

464  $I_n$  = inertial number;

465  $N_p$  = number of particles;

466  $N_c$  = number of contacts;

467  $N_c^{fine-fine}$  = number of contacts between fine particles;

468  $N_c^{fine-coarse}$  = number of contacts between fine and coarse particles;

469  $N_p^{fines}$  = number of fine particles;

470  $N_p^{coarse}$  = number of coarse particles;

471  $N_c^{coarse-coarse}$  = number of contacts between coarse particles;

472  $p'$  = effective mean stress of the specimen;

473  $q$  = deviatoric stress;

474  $R_d$  = relative density;

475  $r_{min}$  = minimum particle radius;

476  $Z$  = coordination number;

477  $Z^{fine-coarse}$  = fine-coarse coordination number;

478  $Z^{coarse-coarse}$  = coarse-coarse coordination number;

479  $\dot{\epsilon}$  = strain rate;

480  $\epsilon_a$  = axial strain;

481  $\epsilon_v$  = volumetric strain;

482  $\alpha$  = stress reduction factor;

483  $\rho$  = solid particle density;

- 484  $\nu$  = Poisson's ratio;
- 485  $\mu_s$  = coefficient of sliding friction;
- 486  $\sigma'_1$  = major principal stress;
- 487  $\sigma'_2$  = intermediate principal stress;
- 488  $\sigma'_3$  = minor principal stress;

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576

577 **List of Tables**

578 **Table 1.** Properties of the particle size distribution curve used in the analysis

**Table 1.** Properties of the particle size distribution curves used in the analysis

S. No.	Specimen ID	Gap Ratio	Fines Content (%)	Initial Void Ratio ( $e_o$ )	Number of Particles	Initial Coordination Number ( $Z_o$ )	Initial Stress Reduction Factor ( $\alpha_o$ )	Internal Stability at the Isotropic Stress State (Indraratna et al. 2021)
1			10	0.3713	5000	0.719	0.459	Unstable
2			15	0.3131	10000	0.858	0.337	Unstable
3	A	2	20	0.2854	12000	3.058	1.116	Stable
4			30	0.3004	20000	4.814	1.665	Stable
5			40	0.3203	30000	5.202	1.616	Stable
6			10	0.3619	15000	0.206	0.044	Unstable
7			15	0.2911	25000	0.146	0.062	Unstable
8	B	3	20	0.2277	35000	2.156	0.400	Unstable
9			30	0.2470	55000	5.141	1.655	Stable
10			40	0.2851	85000	5.419	1.739	Stable

580

581 **List of Figures**

582 **Fig. 1** Particle size distributions (PSDs) of soils analyzed with the discrete element method,  
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584 B with a gap ratio = 3 with different fines content

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597 and B, (c) percentage of drop in  $Z$  values with fines content

598 **Fig. 8** The percentage (by number) of unconnected fine particles with different gap ratios and  
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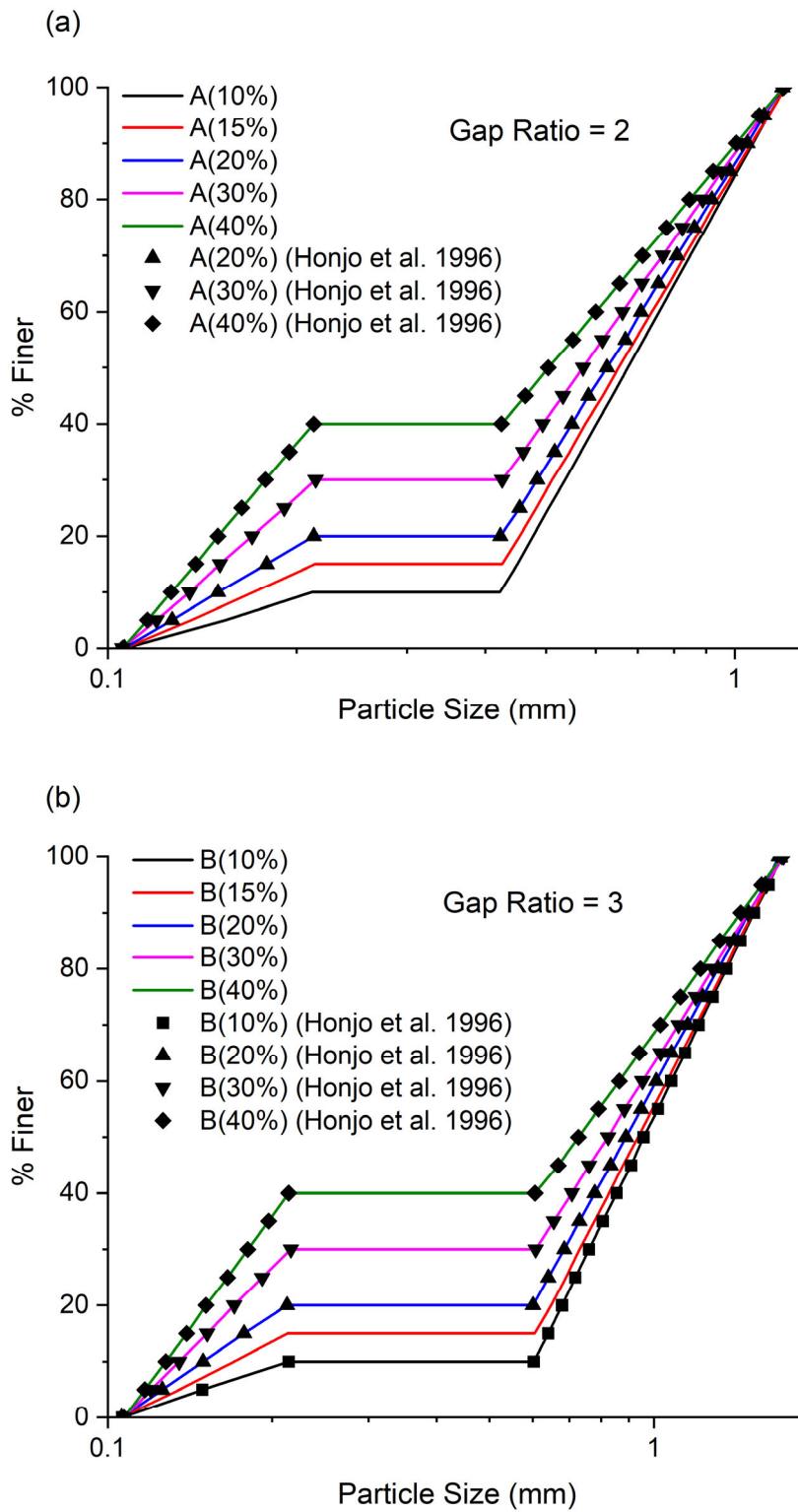
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601 Specimens A and B, (c), (d) relationship between stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ) and axial strain  
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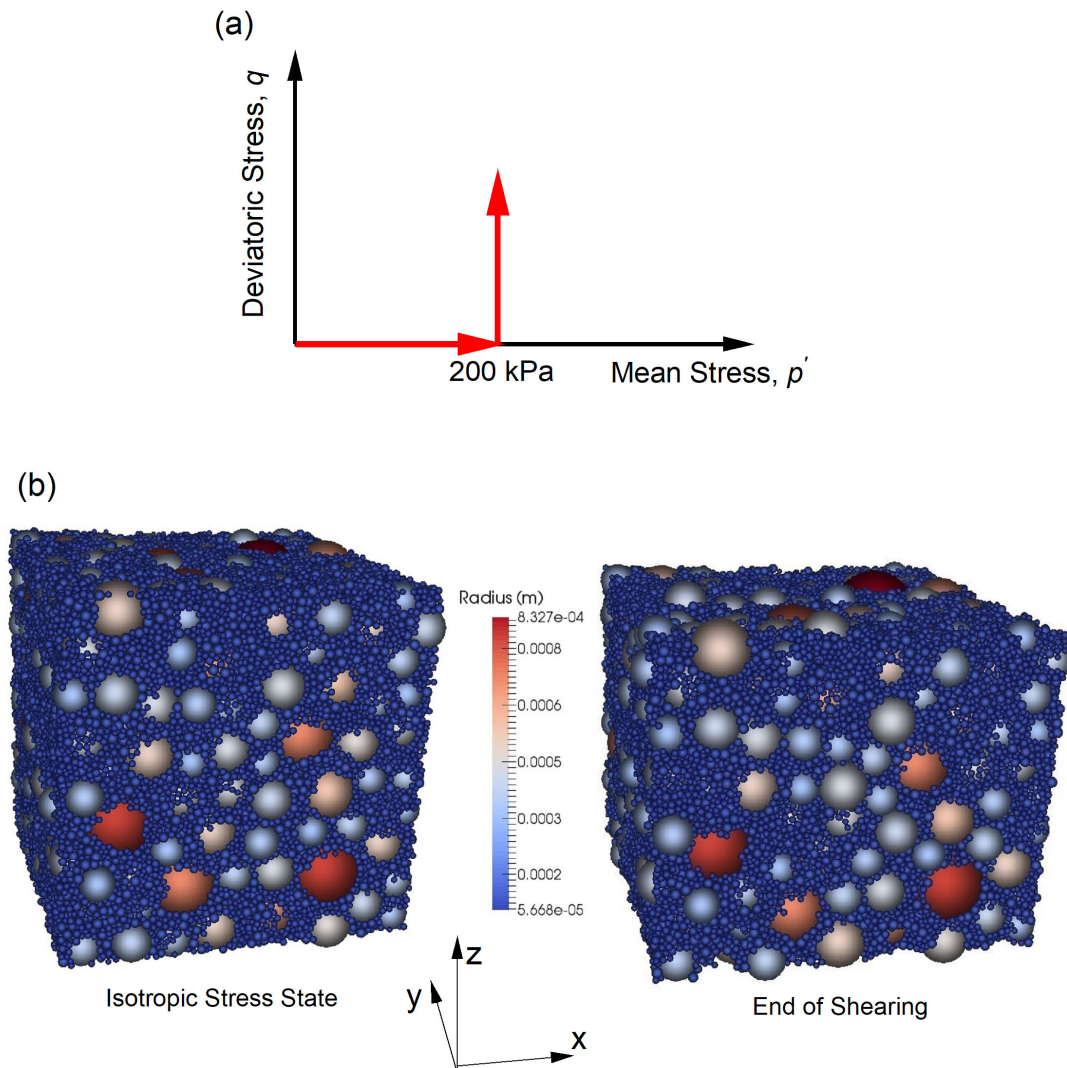
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**Fig. 1** Particle size distribution of soils analyzed with the discrete element method

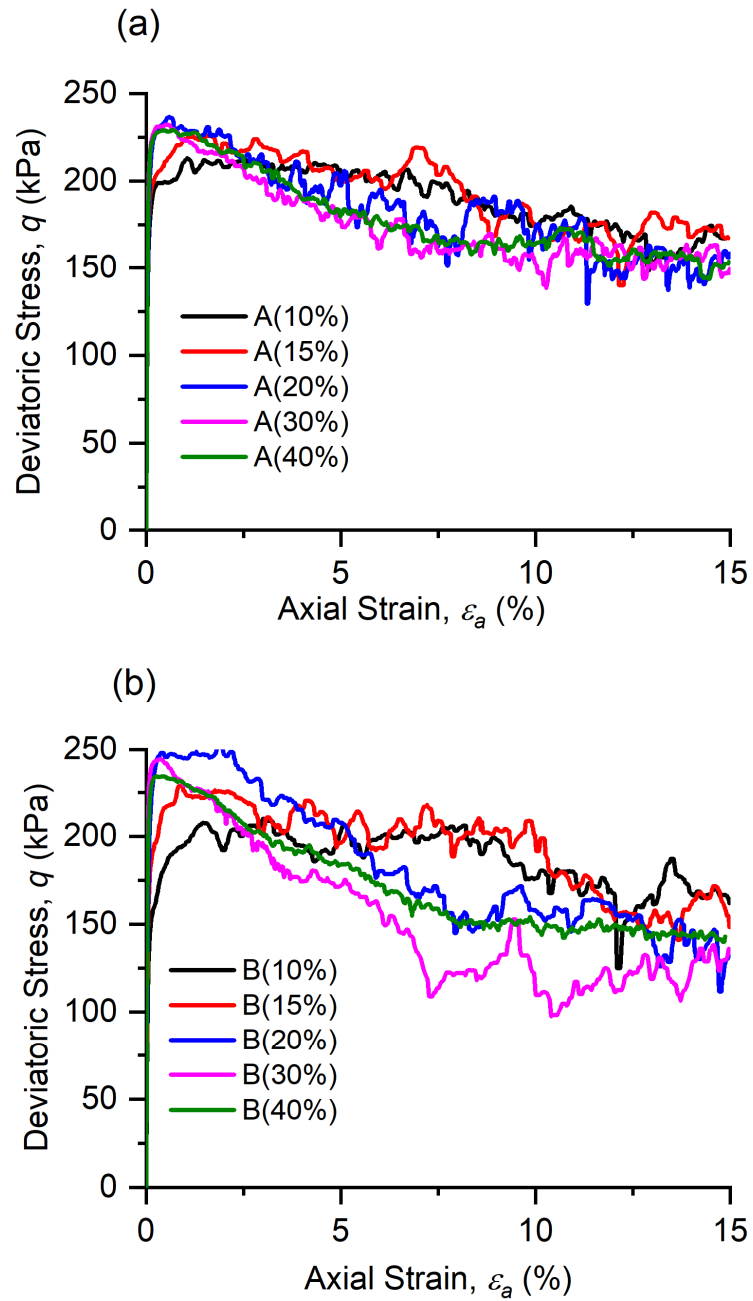


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**Fig. 2** (a) Constant mean stress path followed in the simulations; (b) isotropically compressed and sheared Specimen B(30%)



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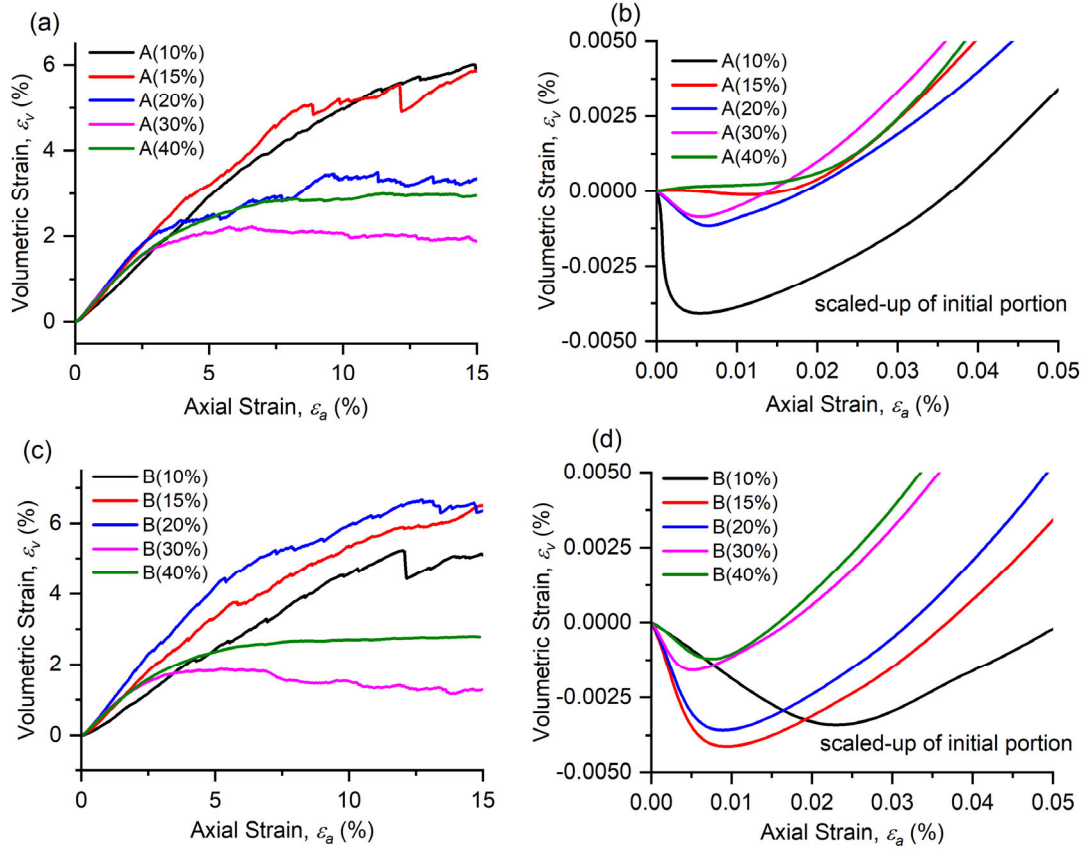
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stress path

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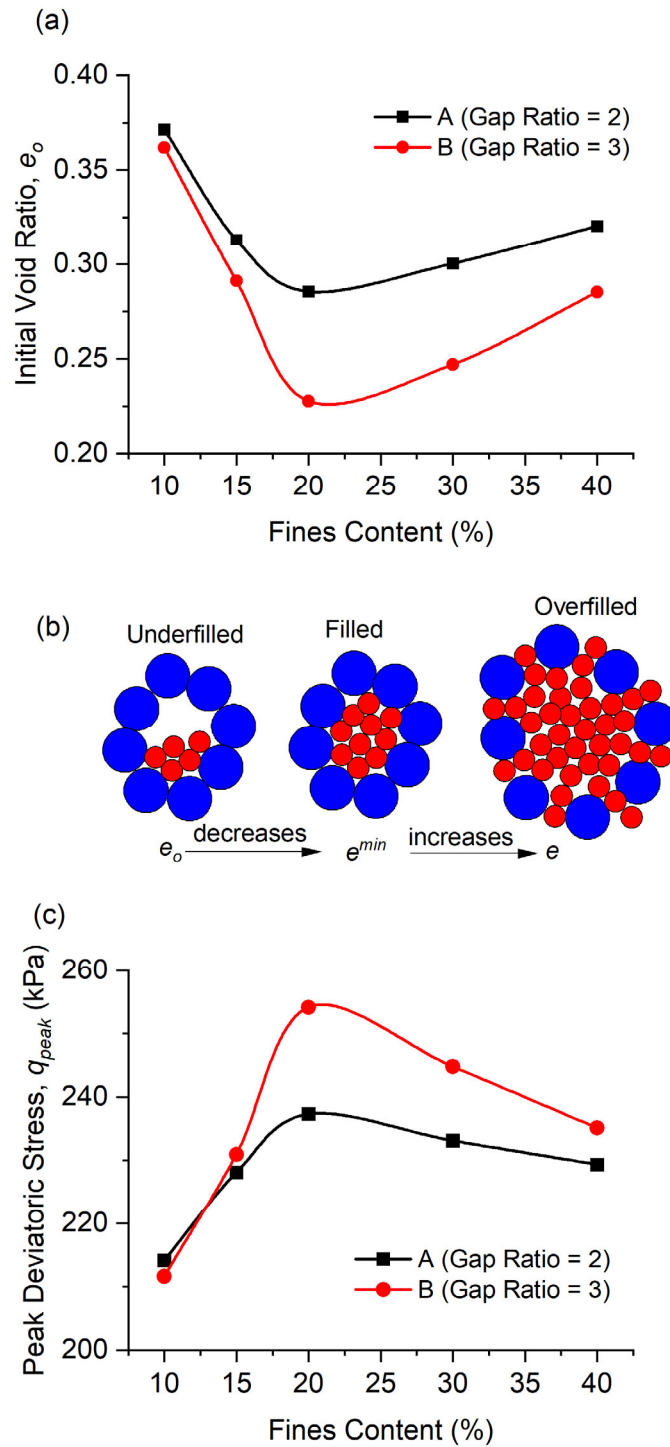




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**Fig. 4** Evolution of the volumetric strain ( $\epsilon_v$ ) with axial strain



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**Fig. 5** (a) Relationship between the fines content and the initial void ratio, (b) schematic

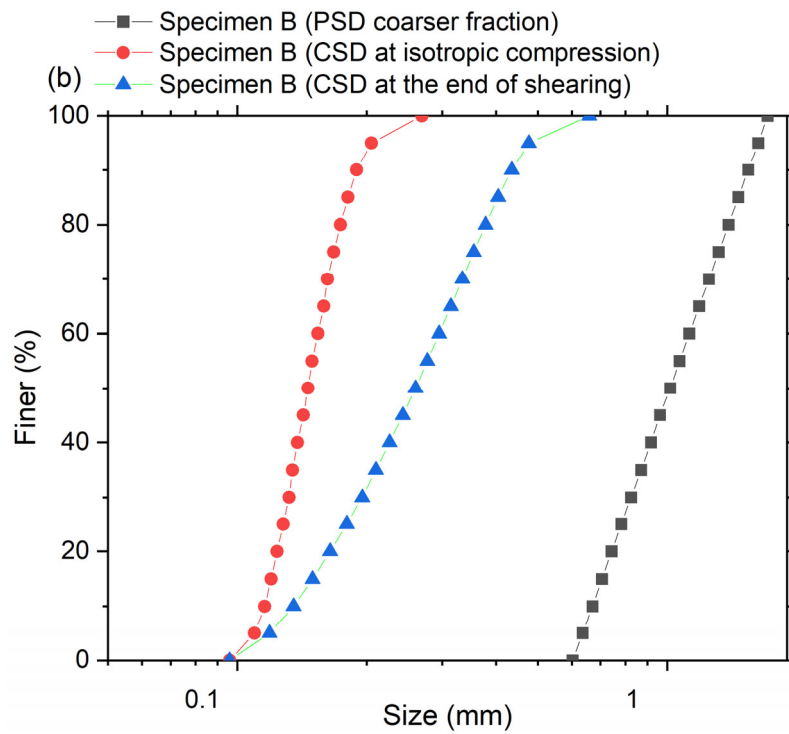
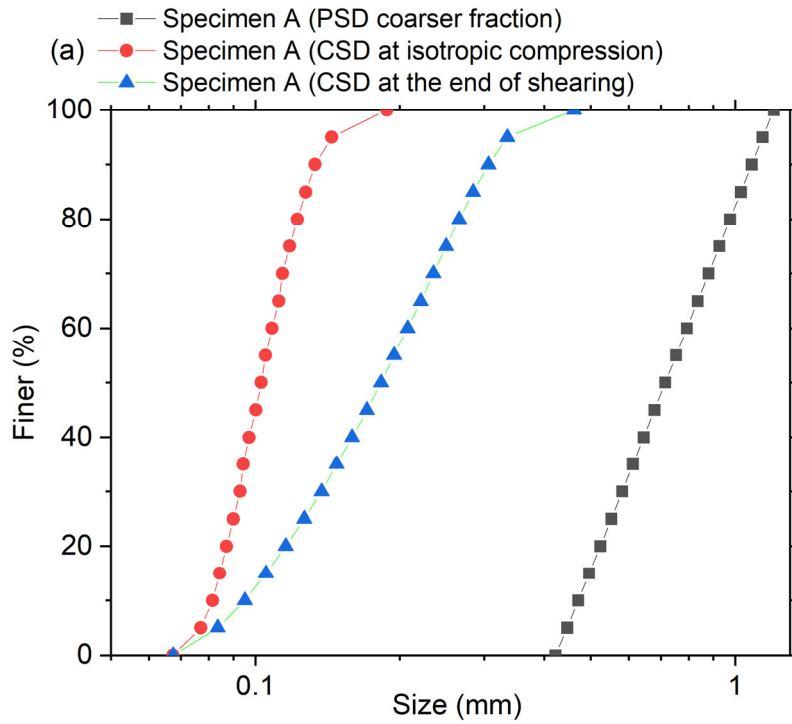
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sketch of different fabric cases, (c) relationship between the fines content and the peak

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deviatoric stress

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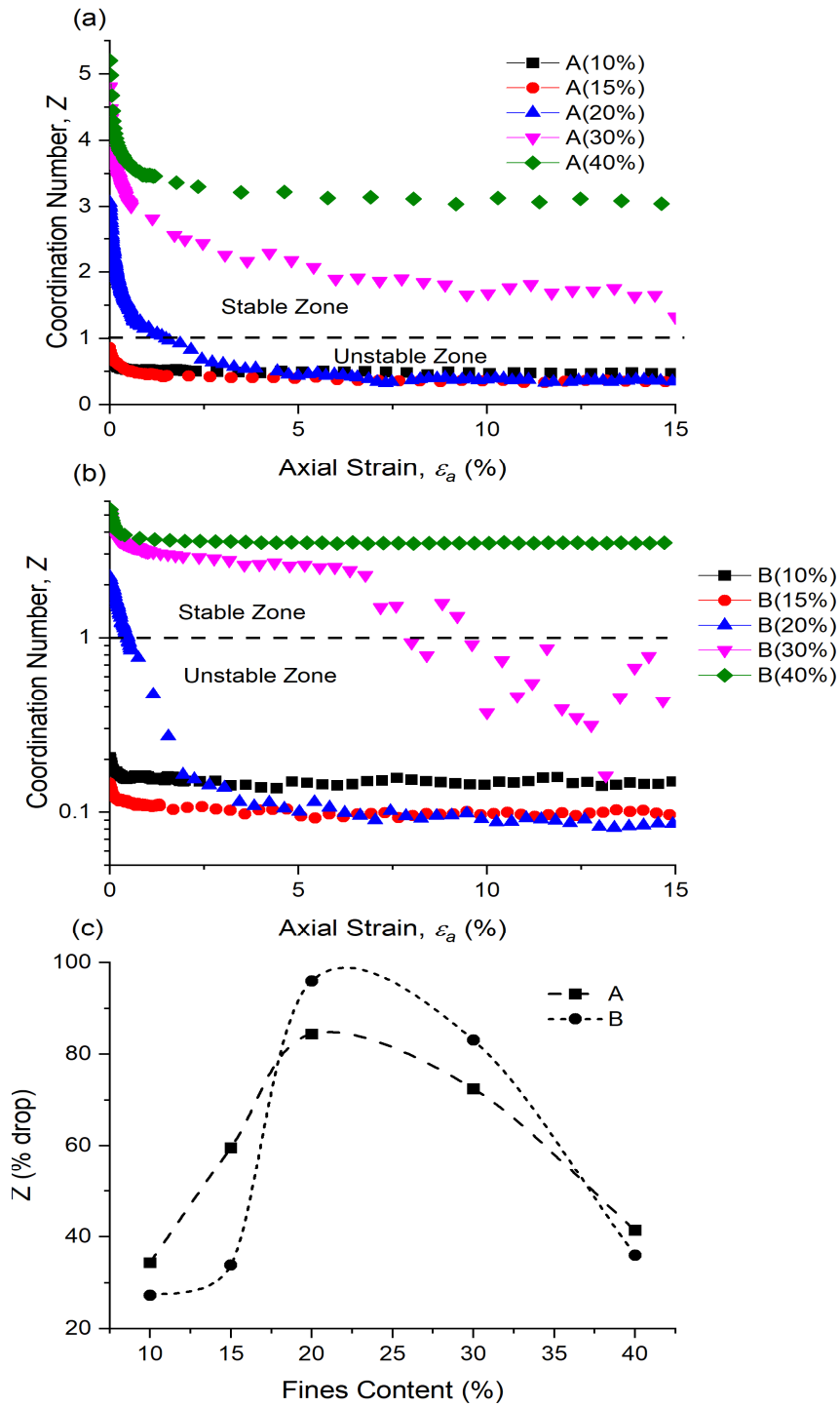


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628 **Fig. 6** Constriction size distribution (CSD) of the coarser fraction at the isotropic stress state

629 and end of shearing, (a) Specimen A (b) Specimen B

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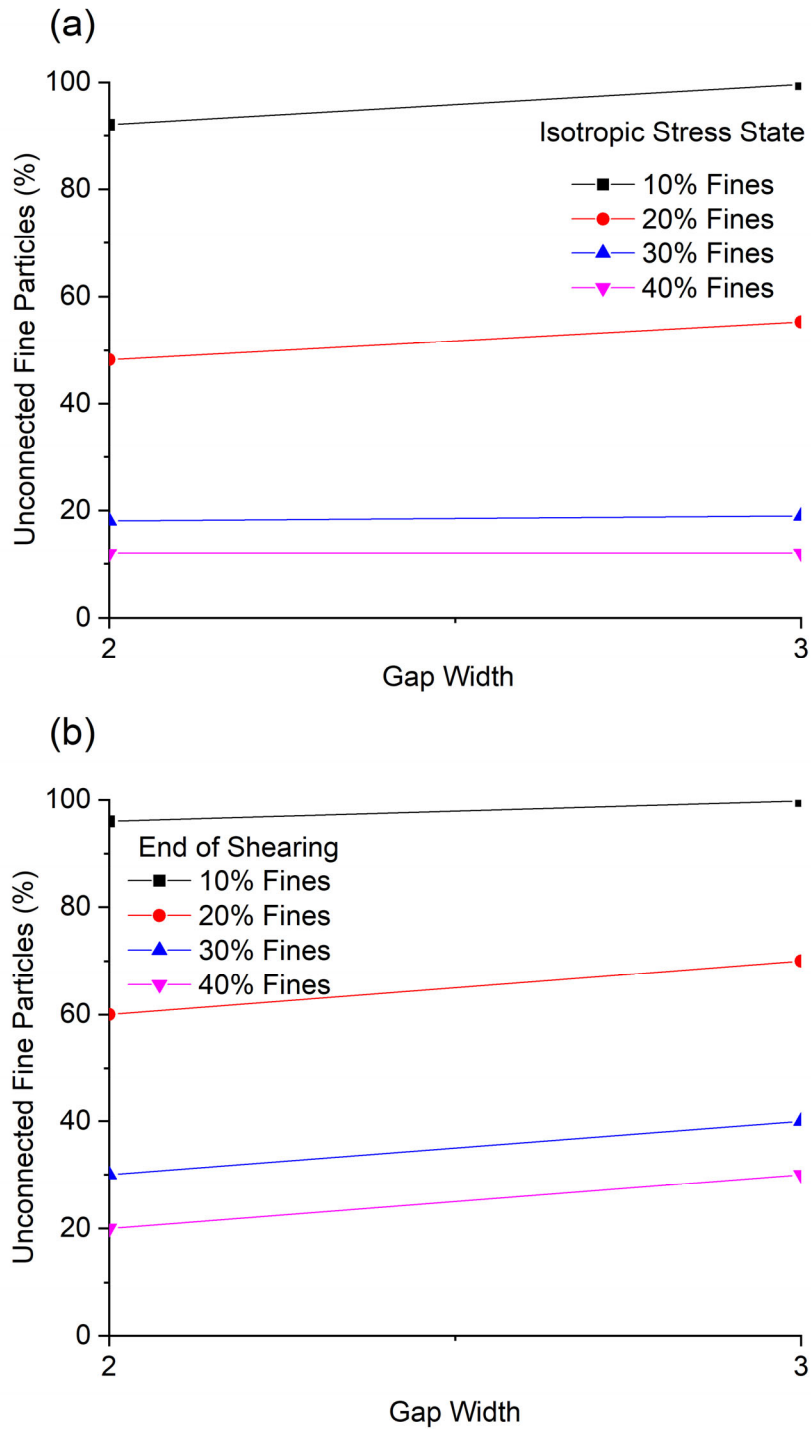
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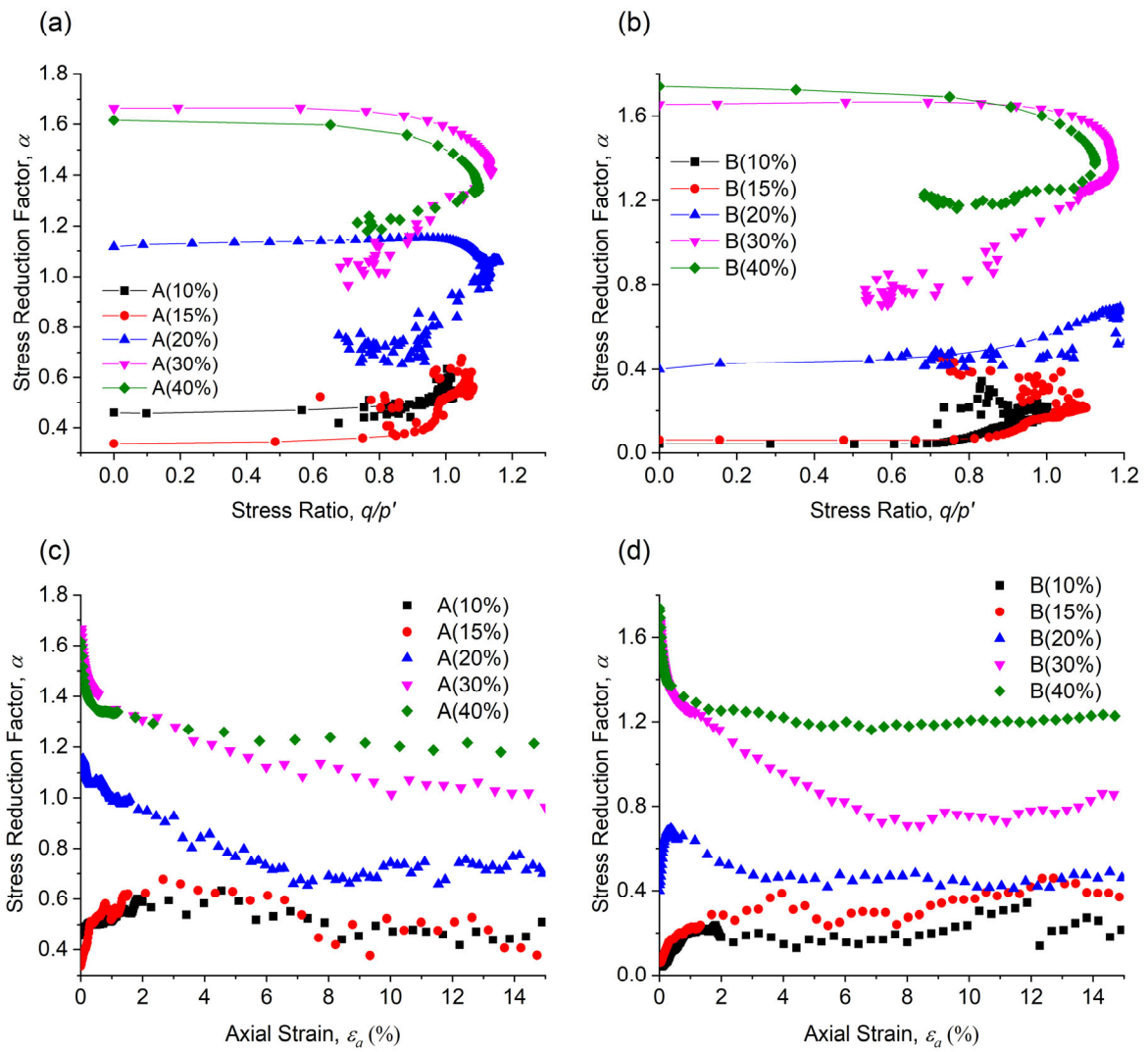
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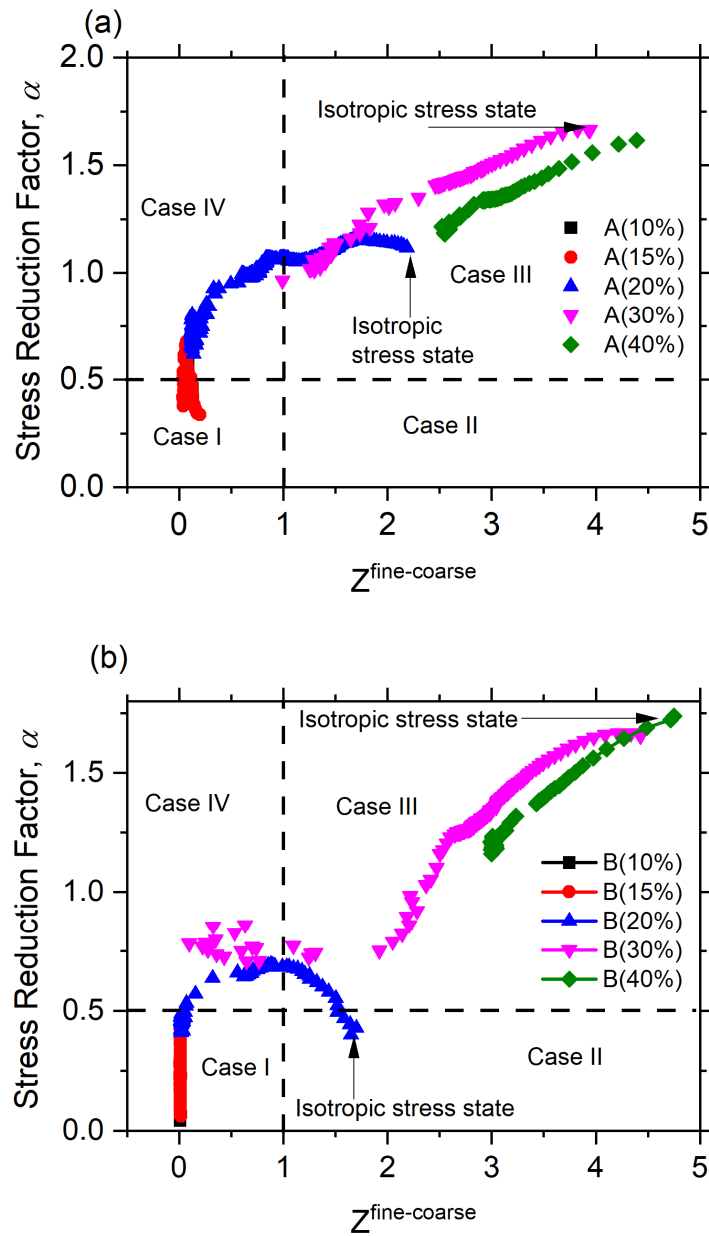
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 637 and fines content (a) at the isotropic stress state, (b) at the end of shearing

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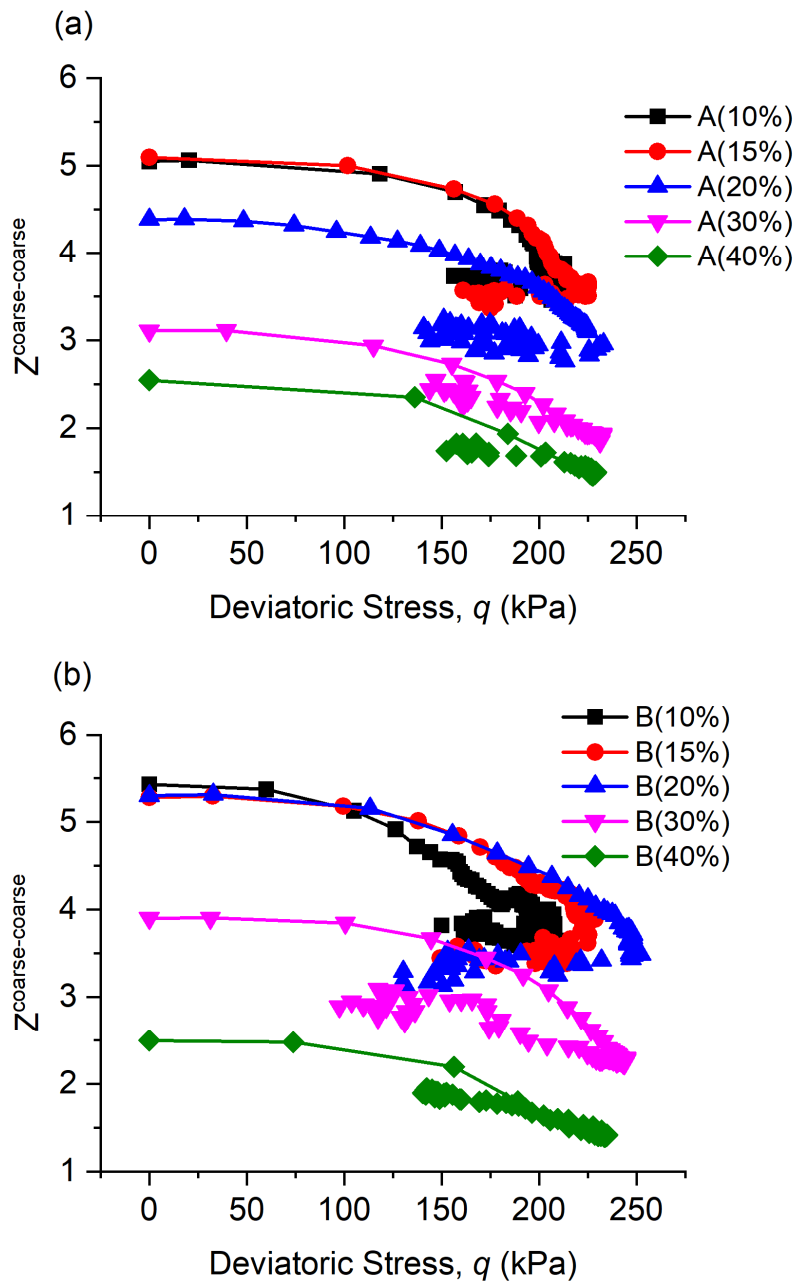
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645 **Fig. 10** Evolution of the stress reduction factor ( $\alpha$ ) with fine-coarse coordination number

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( $Z^{\text{fine-coarse}}$ )

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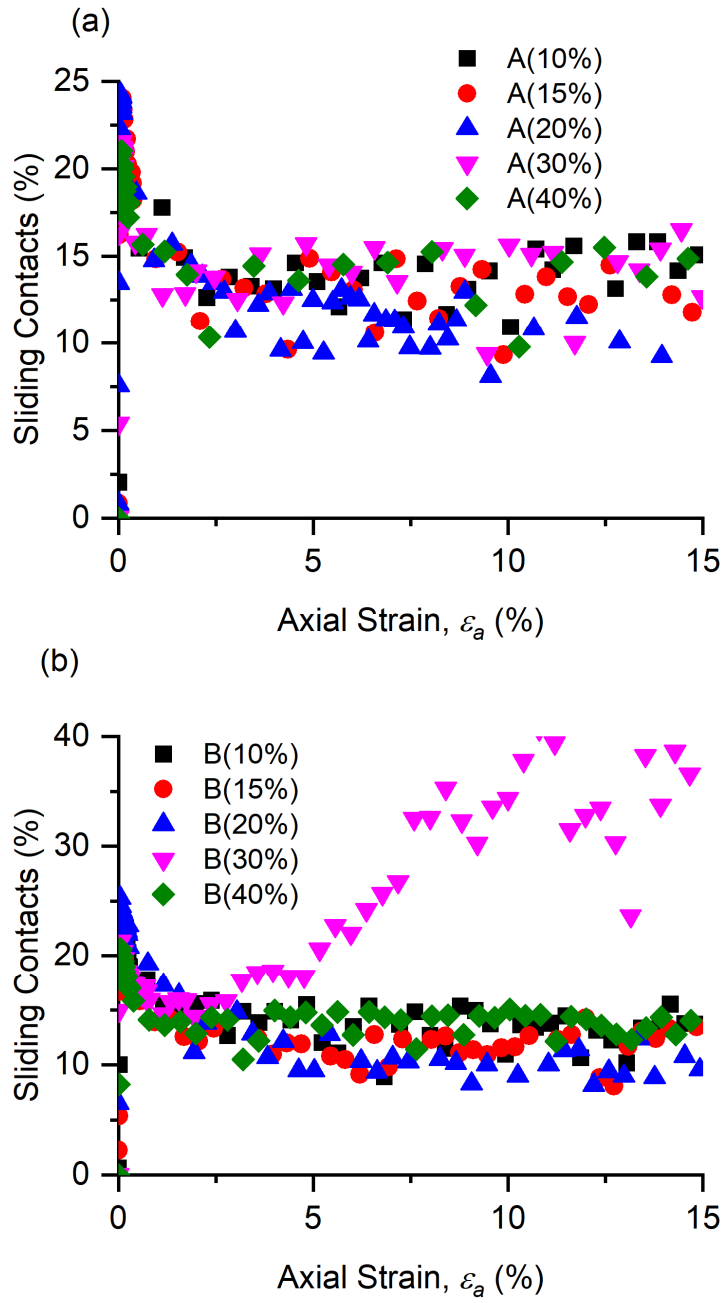
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**Fig. 11** Variation of the coarse-coarse coordination number ( $Z_{\text{coarse-coarse}}$ ) with deviatoric

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stress

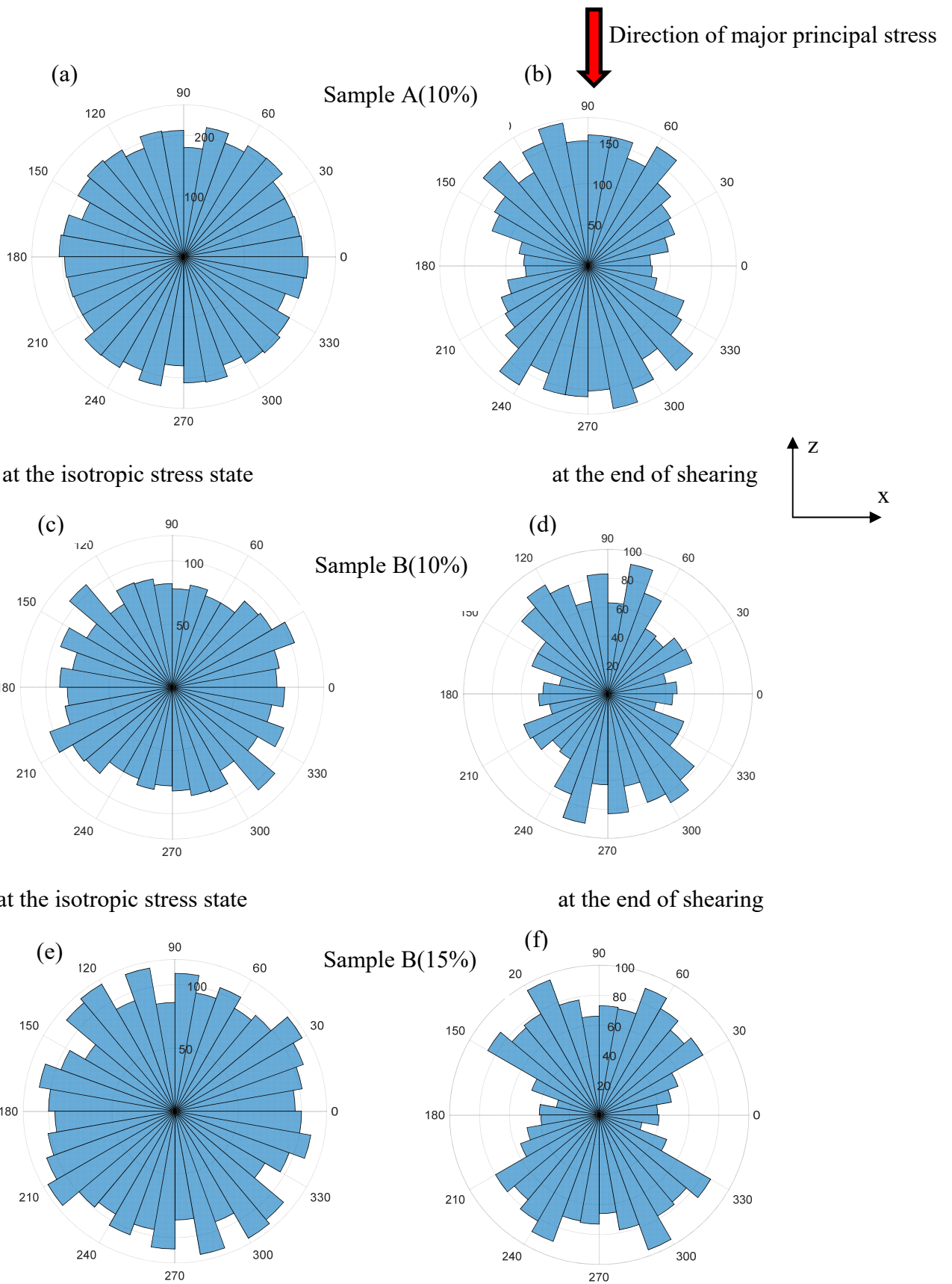




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**Fig. 12** Development of the proportion of sliding contacts with axial strain.



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at the isotropic stress state

at the end of shearing

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at the isotropic stress state

at the end of shearing

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658 **Fig. 13** Rose histograms of the contacts for selected Specimens 1(10%), 2(10%), and 2(15%)