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5 **Authors:** Yi Hong, Xuetao Wang, Lizhong Wang*, Zhiwei Gao

6 *Corresponding author

7

8 **Information of the authors**

9 **Corresponding author:** Dr Lizhong Wang

10 Qiushi Distinguished Professor, Key Laboratory of Offshore Geotechnics and Material of
11 Zhejiang Province, College of Civil Engineering and Architecture, Zhejiang University, China

12 Email: wanglz@zju.edu.cn

13 **Co-author:** Dr Yi Hong

14 Associate Professor, Key Laboratory of Offshore Geotechnics and Material of Zhejiang
15 Province, College of Civil Engineering and Architecture, Zhejiang University, China

16 Email: yi_hong@zju.edu.cn

17 Tel.: 13758906685

18 **Co-author:** Mr Xuetao Wang

19 Research student, Key Laboratory of Offshore Geotechnics and Material of Zhejiang
20 Province, College of Civil Engineering and Architecture, Zhejiang University, China

21 Email: xuetao_wang@zju.edu.cn

22 **Co-author:** Dr Zhiwei Gao

23 Lecturer, James Watt School of Engineering, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, G12 8QQ,
24 UK.

25 Email: Zhiwei.gao@glasgow.ac.uk

26 **A state-dependent constitutive model for coarse-grained gassy soil and its**
27 **application in slope instability modelling**

28 **Abstract**

29 Free gas in sandy marine sediments is a common occurrence worldwide. A distinct feature
30 of gassy sand is that, under undrained shearing, presence of occluded gas bubbles in the pore
31 fluid can increase the undrained strength of sand at a relatively loose state, while reduce the
32 strength of a relatively dense sand. Previous theoretical analyses have primarily focused on
33 modelling the ‘beneficial’ effect of free gas on loose sand in migrating static liquefaction, with
34 few attempts to describe the ‘detrimental’ effect of gas on dense sand under undrained loading.
35 This study presents a state-dependent critical state model, which describes the distinct behavior
36 of gassy sand with various states in a unified way. Comparison between the model predictions
37 and test data of three gassy sands shows that the new model can capture the constitutive
38 behavior of gassy marine sand over a wide range of initial states and degrees of saturation
39 (typically between 85% and 100% for unsaturated marine sediments) using a single set of
40 parameters. Parametric studies were performed to quantify the effects of gas (either ‘detrimental’
41 or ‘beneficial’) on sand with various initial states. The new model has been implemented in
42 ABAQUS and used to simulate the stability of submarine slopes under undrained loading
43 condition. It is found that free gas can improve and weaken the slope stability for loose and
44 dense sand, respectively.

45 **Key words:** gassy sand, constitutive modelling, finite element analysis, static liquefaction, slope
46 stability

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Free gas is widely formed in the marine sediments throughout the world, including the
50 North Sea, Gulf of Mexico, Gulf of Guinea, Gulf Coast and Eastern China Sea (Sobkowitz &
51 Morgenstern, 1984; Rad & Lunne, 1994; Hight and Leroueil 2003; Sultan & Garziglia, 2014;
52 Rowe & Mabrouk, 2018; Jommi et al., 2019). The gas in marine sediments is typically methane,
53 produced by decomposition of organic matter (Wheeler, 1988) or gas hydrates (Grozic et al.,
54 1999; Sánchez et al., 2017). It is certain that global warming will cause more methane
55 generation in both offshore and onshore soils, as the decompositions are faster at higher
56 temperature (Milich, 1999; Stagg et al., 2017). In addition to the naturally formed gas in
57 sediments, gas has also been introduced artificially into the soil through biological mediation
58 or blasting, aiming to increase the strength (Rebata-Landa & Santamarina 2012; Finno &
59 Gallant, 2016) or facilitate consolidation of the gas-charged soil (Puzrin et al. 2011). These
60 gassy soils are largely different from the conventional unsaturated soils, in view of their high
61 degree of saturation ($S_r \geq 80\%$) along with the discontinuous gas phase in bubble form (Hong et
62 al., 2019a).

63 A unique feature of the gassy soil, as revealed experimentally, is that the gas bubbles can
64 either weaken or strengthen the shear strength of both fine-grained and coarse-grained soil,
65 depending on the initial states (Wheeler, 1986; Grozic et al., 1999; He & Chu, 2014; Vega-
66 Posada et al., 2014; Hong et al., 2019b; Yang et al., 2019). Increasing offshore construction
67 activities on gas-bearing seabed have generated interests in developing theoretical models of
68 gassy soils. For fine-grained gassy soil, constitutive models that enable a unified description of
69 both ‘detrimental’ and ‘beneficial’ effects of gas on the host soil have been developed, by

70 formulating gas-dependent yielding function, dilation function and hardening law (Gao et al.,
71 2020; Hong et al., 2020). While for coarse-grained gassy soil, previous theoretical
72 developments have primarily focused on modelling the ‘beneficial’ effect of gas on loose sand
73 in migrating static liquefaction (Pietruszczak & Pande, 1996; Grozic et al., 2005; Lü et al.,
74 2018), with few attempts to describe the ‘detrimental’ effect of gas on dense sand under
75 undrained loading.

76 Fig. 1(a) shows a schematic diagram of the internal structure of coarse-grained gassy soils,
77 where discrete gas bubbles are typically smaller than the soil particles and present in the pore
78 water. Coarse-grained gassy soil can thus be considered as a saturated soil with compressible
79 pore fluid. Based on this consideration, Pietruszczak & Pande (1996) and Lü et al. (2018) have
80 developed elasto-plastic models for gassy sand and validated their models against results of
81 loose gassy sand. Since these studies have not focused on modelling of dense gassy sand, they
82 employed simplified functional forms of plastic modulus (K_p), which do not consider softening
83 behavior of dense sands (i.e., the K_p cannot be negative). Grozic et al. (2005) have also
84 presented a gassy sand model, which is shown to satisfactorily predict results of for loose gassy
85 sand but cannot properly capture the response of unsaturated dense sand. It is thus desirable to
86 develop a constitutive model for gassy sand that can describe their response at various initial
87 states in a unified manner.

88 Free gas in sand deposits also affects the offshore foundation design, drilling procedures,
89 slope stability, and may even have an environmental impact (Grozic et al., 2005). Existing
90 research has primarily focused on the element response of gassy sand in triaxial tests, with little
91 work on the real engineering problems. Atigh & Byrne (2004) have shown that free gas can

92 enhance the stability of loose sand slopes under undrained condition. But the sand density can
93 vary significantly in the field and dense sand slopes are more common. Therefore, more
94 comprehensive research on gassy sand problems in the field is needed.

95 A state-dependent model for coarse-grained gassy soil is formulated in this study. The
96 predictive capability of the model was validated against three gassy sands with different initial
97 states (including dense and loose states) and degrees of saturation and compared to that of the
98 existing gassy sand models. Parametric studies were performed to quantify the effect of gas on
99 gassy sand with various initial states. The new model has also been implemented in a finite
100 element code and used to analyze the stability of submarine slopes under undrained condition.
101 The effect of sand density has been investigated.

102

103 **2. A state-dependent constitutive model for coarse-grained gassy soil**

104 To facilitate the discussion, the model described in this section is presented in the triaxial
105 stress space. Generalized expressions of the model under the multi-axial loading conditions are
106 described in the [Appendix](#). In the triaxial stress space, two stress quantities including the mean
107 total stress $p = (\sigma_a + 2\sigma_r)/3$ and deviator stress $q = \sigma_a - \sigma_r$ are used, where σ_a is the
108 total axial stress and σ_r is the total radial stress. The stress quantities with the symbol ' are
109 effective ones.

110

111 ***2.1 Compressibility of gas-fluid mixture: role of gas compression and dissolution***

112 For gassy sand, the gas bubbles are much smaller than the sand particles, and thus mainly
113 affect the compressibility of the pore water. The compressibility of the gas-water mixture

114 depends on the amounts of free and dissolved gases, which change with excess pore water
 115 pressure. This sub-section presents the derivation of compressibility of the gas-water mixture
 116 (Fredlund & Rahardjo, 1993), based on the three-phase diagram considering gas compression
 117 and dissolution, as illustrated in Fig. 1(b).

118 It is shown in Fredlund & Rahardjo (1993) that the compressibility of a gas-water mixture
 119 C_{aw} is expressed as:

$$C_{aw} = -\frac{d(V_a + V_w)}{(V_a + V_w)dp} = -\frac{1}{V_a + V_w} \left\{ \frac{d(V_w - V_d)}{dp} + \frac{d(V_a + V_d)}{dp} \right\} \quad (1)$$

120 where V_w is the volume of pore water. V_a and V_d are the volumes of free gas in pore water
 121 and gas dissolved in pore water, respectively. p is the mean total stress. The difference between
 122 the pore water pressure u_w and pore air pressure u_a is only related to the radius R of the gas
 123 bubble and the surface tension T , i.e., $u_a - u_w = 2T/R$, if the minor effect of vapour pressure in
 124 each bubble (Wheeler et al., 1988a) were ignored. The value of T for a water-air interface is
 125 approximately 0.073 N/m (Weast, 1984). On the other hand, the mean value of R for bubbles in
 126 gassy sand normally between 0.17 and 0.25 mm, as measured by micro-computed tomography
 127 (μ CT) on gassy specimens under in-situ stresses (Zhang, 2020). It can be readily deduced that
 128 the mean value of $u_a - u_w$ for gassy sand may range between 0.6 and 0.9 kPa. In other words,
 129 u_w and u_a in gassy sand are likely to be very close in value, as routinely assumed for gassy
 130 sand (Sobkowicz & Morgenstern, 1984; Pietruszczak & Pande, 1996; Grozic et al., 2005).

131 One can get the following using the chain rule of differentiation to Eq. (1):

$$C_{aw} = -\frac{1}{V_a + V_w} \left\{ \frac{dV_w}{du_w} \frac{du_w}{dp} + \frac{d(V_a + V_d)}{du_a} \frac{du_a}{dp} \right\} \quad (2)$$

132 where u_w and u_a are pore water pressure and pore gas pressure, respectively. u_w is the pore
 133 water pressure which is very close to the pore air pressure u_a . Eq. (2) can be re-arranged as

134 below (Fredlund and Rahardjo, 1993):

$$C_{aw} = - \left[\frac{V_w}{V_a + V_w} \frac{1}{V_w} \frac{dV_w}{du_w} \right] \frac{du_w}{dp} - \left\{ \frac{V_a + V_d}{V_a + V_w} \frac{1}{V_a + V_d} \frac{d(V_a + V_d)}{du_a} \right\} \frac{du_a}{dp} \quad (3)$$

135 According to Henry's law, $V_d = h_0 V_w$, where h_0 is the Henry's constant. One can thus get the
 136 expression for C_{aw} in terms of water compressibility $C_w (= \frac{dV_w}{V_w du_w})$ and air compressibility C_a
 137 $(= \frac{dV_a}{V_a du_a})$ based on Eqs. (1) and (3):

$$C_{aw} = S_r C_w \left(\frac{du_w}{dp} \right) + (1 - S_r + h_0 S_r) C_a \left(\frac{du_a}{dp} \right) \quad (4)$$

138 Eq. (4) is the general expression for compressibility of the gas-water mixtures, considering
 139 partial pressures of the different phases. In undrained triaxial compression, $\frac{du_w}{dp} = B_w$ and
 140 $\frac{du_a}{dp} = B_a$, where B_w is the pore water pressure coefficient and B_a is the pore air pressure
 141 coefficient; C_a is expressed as $\frac{1}{u_a + p_a}$ according to Boyle's law and p_a is the atmospheric
 142 pressure (101 kPa). Eq. (4) can thus be rewritten as:

$$C_{aw} = S_r C_w B_w + (1 - S_r + h_0 S_r) \frac{B_a}{u_a + p_a} \quad (5)$$

143 For gassy sand with a relatively high degree of saturation, it is reasonable to assume
 144 $u_w = u_a$ and $B_a \approx B_w \approx 1$ (Fredlund & Rahardjo, 1993). Eq. (5) can thus be simplified as:

$$C_{aw} = S_r C_w + (1 - S_r + h_0 S_r) \frac{1}{u_a + p_a} \quad (6)$$

145 The bulk modulus of the gas-water mixture K_{aw} is the reciprocal of C_{aw}

$$K_{aw} = \frac{1}{C_{aw}} = \frac{1}{\frac{S_r}{K_w} + \frac{(1 - S_r)}{K_a}} \quad (7)$$

146 where $K_w = 2.16 \times 10^9$ Pa

$$K_a = \frac{(1 - S_r)(u_a + p_a)}{(1 - S_r + h_0 S_r)} \quad (8)$$

147 Since K_w is very large and $u_a \approx u_w$ in gassy sand, Eq. (8) can be simplified as:

$$K_{aw} = (u_a + p_a) \frac{1}{(1 - S_r + h_0 S_r)} \quad (9)$$

148 Eq. (9) is used in modelling the gassy sand behavior in this study.

149

150 **2.2 Definition of effective stress**

151 Following Biot (1941), the effective stress σ_{ij}' is taken as the difference between the total
152 stress σ_{ij} and a fraction called the Biot coefficient η_b of the pore pressure u_w . According to
153 the mixture theory, the effective stress of multi-phase porous media, such as gassy sand, can be
154 described as follows (Borja & Koliji, 2009):

$$\sigma_{ij}' = \sigma_{ij} - \eta_b S_{r0} u_w \delta_{ij} - \eta_b S_{a0} u_a \delta_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - \left(1 - \frac{K_0}{K_s}\right) S_{r0} u_w \delta_{ij} - \left(1 - \frac{K_0}{K_s}\right) S_{a0} u_a \delta_{ij} \quad (10)$$

155 where S_{r0} and S_{a0} are the initial liquid saturation and gas saturation, respectively. K_0
156 denotes the bulk modulus of the solid matrix, and K_s is the intrinsic bulk modulus of the solid
157 grain material. Considering the pore water pressure u_w in a gassy sand is very close to pore
158 gas pressure u_a (Sobkowicz & Morgenstern, 1984; Pietruszczak & Pande, 1965), and the sum
159 of S_{r0} and S_{a0} is equal to the unity, Eq.10 can be re-arranged as follows:

$$\sigma_{ij}' = \sigma_{ij} - \left(1 - \frac{K_0}{K_s}\right) u_w \delta_{ij} \quad (11)$$

160 The bulk modulus K_0 of sand for the range of initial states ($p'=0-400$ kPa and
161 $e=0.53-0.74$) concerned in this study does not exceed 160 MPa, as can be calculated using
162 Richard et al. (1970)'s equation(Eq. 12). On the other hand, the bulk modulus of the sand grain
163 material is approximately 20×10^3 MPa (Gurevich, 2004). It can be readily deduced that the
164 value of Biot coefficient ($\eta_b = 1 - \frac{K_0}{K_s}$) may range between 0.992 and 0.996, which is
165 approximately 1.0 for the gassy sands studied herein. Therefore, the conventional definition for
166 effective stress (i.e., difference between total stress and pore water pressure) is adopted for
167 modelling gassy sand in this study, and elsewhere (Sobkowicz & Morgenstern, 1984;

168 Pietruszczak & Pande, 1965; Gurevich, 2004).

169 **2.3 Elastic behavior**

170 The elastic shear modulus G of the coarse-grained soil is described using Richard et al.
171 (1970)'s equation, which depends on soil state (i.e., void ratio e and effective mean stress p'),
172 as follows (see also Li and Dafalias, 2000):

$$G = \Gamma \frac{(2.97 - e)^2}{1 + e} \sqrt{p' p_a} \quad (12)$$

173 where Γ is a material constant and p_a denotes the atmospheric pressure. The elastic bulk
174 modulus K is expressed as below in terms of G and Poisson's ratio ν :

$$K = G \frac{2(1 + \nu)}{3(1 - 2\nu)} \quad (13)$$

175

176 **2.4 Yield function**

177 The present model is developed based on the one in Li and Dafalias (2000), which employs
178 a state-dependent dilatancy relation and plastic hardening law. The yield surface is a straight
179 line in the p' - q space without a cap. A stress-ratio based yield surface is used in this model
180 (Pietruszczak, 2010; Li and Dafalias, 2000; Huang et al., 2010; Yin et al., 2013), as follows:

$$f = q - \eta p' = 0 \quad (14)$$

181 where η denotes the stress ratio (q/p'). This yield function was proposed based on the
182 observed yield mechanism of coarse-grained soil in light of the previous experimental studies
183 (Porooshasb et al. 1966 and 1967; Shi et al., 2020; Northcutt & Wijewickreme, 2013). Their
184 experimental results revealed that the plastic strain of coarse-grained soil occurs when the
185 imposed η exceeded the maximum stress ratio experienced by the soil during its loading
186 history. On the other hand, shearing at a constant η with either increasing or decreasing p'

187 produced a relatively small plastic volumetric strain, before the occurrence of particle breakage
188 at an extremely high confining stress. Despite the sole consideration of shear-induced yield
189 mechanism considered in this proposed model, an extension of the model can be made with
190 ease to include the compression-induced yield mechanism by adding a yield cap controlled by
191 p' (Li, 2002; Li & Dafalias 2002). In the proposed model, the critical line in the e - p' space is
192 described using a power relationship $e - \left(\frac{p'}{p_a}\right)^\xi$, as suggested by Li and Wang (1998). It was
193 recently found that the critical state line can be better captured by considering the interlocking
194 law (Jin et al., 2017). Moreover, it could be further improved by adopting an exponential
195 expression, which can eliminate the possibility of a negative value of the critical void ratio at
196 high stress levels (Yin et al., 2018). For simplicity, the influence of these two factors is not taken
197 into account in the model proposed herein.

198

199 **2.5 State-dependent dilatancy**

200 For gassy marine sand, where the degree of saturation mostly exceeds 85%, the gas bubbles
201 only change the compressibility of the pore fluid of sand. Under this circumstance, the effective
202 stress principle still works for the soil (Pietruszczak & Pande, 1996; Grozic et al., 2005).
203 Therefore, the traditional forms of dilatancy, plastic modulus and the associated material
204 parameters for saturated sand can still be used for the gassy sand. The state-dependent dilatancy
205 function proposed by Li & Dafalias (2000) is used in this study:

$$D = \frac{d\varepsilon_v^p}{d\varepsilon_d^p} = \frac{d_0}{M} (M e^{m\psi} - \eta) \quad (15)$$

206 where $d\varepsilon_v^p$ and $d\varepsilon_d^p$ are plastic volumetric and plastic deviatoric strain increments, respectively.

207 M denotes stress ratio at the critical state. d_0 and m are two material constants. Inspection
208 of the equation suggests that the dilatancy of sand depends on the difference of the current stress

209 ratio η from a reference stress ratio $Me^{m\psi}$. $D > 0$ and $D < 0$ mean contractive and
 210 dilative behavior, respectively. This type of formulation allows one to capture the following key
 211 features of dilatancy of a sand subjected to shear (Li & Dafalias, 2000):

212 (1) At a loose state ($\psi > 0$), the sand exhibits a contractive behavior ($D > 0$), as η is always
 213 lower than $Me^{m\psi}$ when $\psi > 0$ (Li, 2002);

214 (2) At a dense state ($\psi < 0$), the sand could show either zero dilatancy when $\eta = Me^{m\psi}$
 215 (upon phase transformation), or a dilative behavior ($D < 0$) if otherwise (Li, 2002);

216 (3) At the critical state, the dilatancy vanishes ($D = 0$) being irrespective of the initial state,
 217 because $\eta = M$ and $\psi = 0$;

218 (4) The equation can be recovered to the dilatancy function of the original Cam clay model
 219 (i.e., $D = M - \eta$), by setting the two material constants as $d_0 = M$ and $m = 0$.

220

221 **2.6 State-dependent plastic modulus**

222 The plastic modulus (K_p) is defined as the ratio between the deviatoric stress increment
 223 (dq) and plastic shear strain increment ($d\varepsilon_q^p$), and can be formulated as a function of state
 224 parameter (Li & Dafalias, 2000), as follows:

$$K_p = \frac{dq}{d\varepsilon_d^p} = \frac{hGe^{n\psi}}{\eta} (Me^{-n\psi} - \eta) \quad (16)$$

225 where n is a material constant. The value of h was found to depend on void ratio e ,
 226 following the linear relation below:

$$h = h_1 - h_2e \quad (17)$$

227 where h_1 and h_2 are two material constants. Eq. (16) was modified from Wang et al. (1990)'s
 228 formulation for plastic modulus, by taking ψ -dependency into account, as suggested by Muir

229 [Wood et al. \(1994\)](#). This improvement has enabled unified modelling of both strain-hardening
 230 and strain softening behavior of relatively loose and dense sands, respectively. The equation
 231 suggests that the plastic modulus is controlled by the difference of current stress ratio η from
 232 a ‘virtual’ peak stress ratio $Me^{-n\psi}$, which keeps changing during the shearing of the soil ([Li &](#)
 233 [Dafalias, 2000](#)). With Eq. (17), the key following features associated with the plastic hardening
 234 behavior of sand in shear can be reproduced:

- 235 (1) For any given initial state, $K_p = \infty$ at $\eta = 0$, which is consistent with the behavior of sand
 236 showing $d\varepsilon_q^p = 0$ induced by a tiny non-zero $d\eta$ at $\eta = 0$ ([Kuwano & Jardine, 2007](#));
 237 (2) For any given initial state, $K_p = 0$ at the critical state ($\eta = M$ and $\psi = 0$), because the
 238 term $d\eta/d\varepsilon_q^p$ (as defined in Eq. (16)) becomes zero;
 239 (3) For a loose sand, $K_p > 0$ (i.e., strain-hardening) during the entire process of shearing,
 240 because η is always smaller than $Me^{-n\psi}$;
 241 (4) For a relatively dense sand, the formulation allows a smooth transition from $K_p > 0$ (i.e.,
 242 strain-hardening) to $K_p < 0$ (i.e., strain-softening), when $\eta < Me^{-n\psi}$ and $\eta > Me^{-n\psi}$,
 243 respectively.

244

245 **2.7 Constitutive equation for gassy sand**

246 Based on this model and the compressibility of pore fluid (Eq. 9), the constitutive equation
 247 for a quasi-saturated gassy sand can be obtained as below:

$$\begin{Bmatrix} dq \\ dp' \\ du_w \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 3G & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & K & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1+e}{e}K_{aw} \end{Bmatrix} - \begin{Bmatrix} 9G^2X & -3KG\eta X & 0 \\ 3KGD X & -K^2\eta D X & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} d\varepsilon_d \\ d\varepsilon_v^b + d\varepsilon_v^{aw} \\ d\varepsilon_v^{aw} \end{Bmatrix} \quad (18)$$

248 with

$$X = \frac{h(L)}{K_p + 3G - K\eta D} \quad (19)$$

$$L = \frac{3Gd\varepsilon_d - K\eta(d\varepsilon_v^b + d\varepsilon_v^{aw})}{K_p + 3G - K\eta D} \quad (20)$$

249 where $h(L)$ is the Heaviside function with $h(L) = 1$ for $L > 0$ and $h(L) = 0$ otherwise.

250 The total volumetric strain increment of the soil element consists of two components, namely
 251 $d\varepsilon_v^b$ and $d\varepsilon_v^{aw}$. The former ($d\varepsilon_v^b$) is associated with the changing mass of the gas-fluid mixture
 252 (due to either flow discharge or intake) within the element, while the latter ($d\varepsilon_v^{aw}$) is caused by
 253 the volume change of the gas-fluid mixture (either volumetric compression or extension) in the
 254 element.

255 In a globally undrained test, $d\varepsilon_v^b = 0$ but $d\varepsilon_v^{aw} \neq 0$. While in a globally drained test (e.g.,
 256 1D consolidation or drained triaxial compression test), $du_w = 0$, which makes $d\varepsilon_v^{aw} = 0$ in
 257 this case.

258 It is worth noting that Eq. (18) is formulated based on the idea that undrained shearing of
 259 gassy sand is accompanied by volumetric strain increment, which will, in turn, affect the excess
 260 pore water pressure, effective stress and hence the elasto-plastic stiffness matrix. Along this line,
 261 the total volumetric strain increment of the soil element consists of two components, namely
 262 $d\varepsilon_v^b$ and $d\varepsilon_v^{aw}$ ($d\varepsilon_v = d\varepsilon_v^b + d\varepsilon_v^{aw}$). The former ($d\varepsilon_v^b$) is associated with the changing mass
 263 of the gas-fluid mixture due to either flow discharge or intake from the simulated element, while
 264 the latter ($d\varepsilon_v^{aw}$) is caused by the volume change of the gas-fluid mixture (either volumetric
 265 compression or extension) within the element. In a globally undrained test, $d\varepsilon_v^b = 0$ but
 266 $d\varepsilon_v^{aw} \neq 0$. The soil element will behave as it were partially drained, with a smaller amplitude
 267 of excess pore water pressure than that of its saturated equivalent. While in a globally drained
 268 test, $du_w = 0$, which makes $d\varepsilon_v^{aw} = 0$. For this case, the presence of gas does not play any
 269 role, and Eq. (21) recovers to the conventional elasto-plastic matrix of non-gassy sand.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{Bmatrix} dq \\ dp' \\ du_w \end{Bmatrix} &= \begin{Bmatrix} 3G & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & K & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1+e}{e}(u_a + p_a) \frac{1}{(1 - S_r + h_0 S_r)} \end{Bmatrix} \\ &- \begin{Bmatrix} 9G^2 \frac{h(L)}{K_p + 3G - K\eta D} & -3KG\eta \frac{h(L)}{K_p + 3G - K\eta D} & 0 \\ 3KGD \frac{h(L)}{K_p + 3G - K\eta D} & -K^2\eta D \frac{h(L)}{K_p + 3G - K\eta D} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} d\varepsilon_d \\ d\varepsilon_v^b + d\varepsilon_v^{aw} \\ d\varepsilon_v^{aw} \end{Bmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

270 where h_0 is the Henry's coefficient. The magnitude of h_0 affects the stiffness of the air-
 271 water mixtures and thus governs the gas exsolution and the compressibility of pore fluid in the
 272 constitutive equation. h_0 values of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄), which are typically
 273 found in marine sediments and often used in triaxial tests, are 0.86 and 0.033, respectively.

274 The proposed model consists of eleven parameters for sand, and one material constant
 275 relating to the solubility of gas, as summarized in [Table 2](#). The constitutive model under multi-
 276 axial loading condition is given in the Appendix. One more parameter c which describes the
 277 critical state stress ratio variation with the Lode's angle is needed.

278

279 3. Model validation

280 Most of the model parameters can be determined following the procedure shown in [Li and](#)
 281 [Dafalias \(2000\)](#) on saturated sand. Only one parameter h_0 is needed for gassy sand. This value
 282 can be readily obtained from the literature for different gasses. To adequately verify the
 283 proposed state-dependent gassy sand model, published results on gassy sands with a broad
 284 range of initial states have been adopted for model validation. These include undrained triaxial
 285 compression tests on loose gassy Ottawa Sand (ASTM Graded) ([He & Chu, 2014](#)), loose and
 286 dense gassy Ottawa Sand (CT-109A) ([Grozic et al., 2005](#)) and dense gassy Baskarp sand ([Rad](#)
 287 [et al., 1994](#)). Note that the Ottawa sand in [He & Chu \(2014\)](#) and [Grozic et al. \(2005\)](#) have

288 slightly different particle shape, D_{50} and maximum void ratio e_{max} (Table 1). Their critical
289 state lines in the $e-p'$ plane can be better represented using different equations (Table 1). All
290 the model parameters are listed in Table 2.

291 These gassy specimens were charged with typical types of bio-gases, including methane
292 (CH_4), nitrogen (N_2) and carbon dioxide (CO_2). In each gassy specimen, the gas is present in
293 two forms, namely free gas and dissolved gas. The former causes unsaturation of the sand
294 specimen ($S_{r0} < 100\%$), while the latter causes the pore water to be fully saturated with gas
295 ($\alpha = 100\%$). S_{r0} is the initial saturation of the sample. The symbol α denotes the degree of
296 water-gas saturation, which is defined as a percentage of the amount of dissolved gas in the
297 pore water with respect to the maximum amount of gas which can be dissolved at the given
298 pressure and temperature (Rad et al., 1994).

299 In addition to the model validation, the proposed gassy sand model is further accessed by
300 comparing its predictive capability with that of the existing gassy sand models, i.e., models
301 proposed by Lü et al. (2018) and Grozic et al. (2005), which contain an equivalent or larger
302 number of parameters than the model proposed herein, respectively.

303

304 **3.1 Loose gassy Ottawa Sand (ASTM Graded) (He & Chu, 2014)**

305 A series of triaxial tests have been carried on loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM Graded) by
306 He & Chu (2014) to investigate the effect of gas bubbles on reducing the potential of static
307 liquefaction of the sand. The experimental program includes five undrained triaxial
308 compression tests, i.e., four N_2 -charged gassy specimens (S_{r0} ranging between 94.5% and
309 99.2%) and one saturated specimen. Fig. 2 compares the measured effective stress paths of the
310 gassy and saturated Ottawa sand (ASTM Graded), along with the predicted results by the

311 proposed gassy sand model in this study. The figure also includes the predicted results by Lü et
312 al. (2018)'s model, which consists of the same number of model parameters.

313 The experimental results show that all the loose specimens exhibit collapse behavior (i.e.,
314 static liquefaction) subjected to the undrained shearing. The experiments also reveal that the
315 presence of gas has played a 'beneficial' role in reducing positive excess pore water pressure of
316 the loose sand, leading to higher peak strength than that of the saturated specimen. The
317 'beneficial' role becomes more pronounced with increasing amount of gas (i.e., decreasing
318 value of S_r). These observed trends for all the specimens have been captured by the gassy sand
319 models proposed in this study and by Lü et al. (2018)'s model.

320 One important feature to be captured by the constitutive model is the slope of the initial
321 portion of effective stress path, which implies the elasto-plasticity of the soil at the very early
322 stage of shearing. For the saturated specimen, the tangent line of the initial portion of effective
323 stress path is measured to stay perpendicular to the p' -axis, suggesting a non-plastic behavior
324 ($dp'=0$, causing $d\varepsilon_v^e = 0$ and thus $d\varepsilon_v^p = 0$) in response to undrained shearing by a small $d\eta$
325 at $\eta = 0$. This has been reproduced by the model proposed herein, thanks to the adopted
326 functional form of plastic modulus K_p (see Eq. 16) that predicts an infinite value of K_p , and
327 hence non-plastic response at $\eta = 0$. On the other hand, Lü et al. (2018)'s model predicts the
328 initial portion of effective stress path to bend towards the left ($dp' < 0$), suggesting the
329 occurrence of plastic strain ($d\varepsilon_v^e < 0$ and thus $d\varepsilon_v^p > 0$) due to a very small stress ratio change.
330 This is associated with the K_p formulation in their model, which predicts a finite value of K_p
331 at $\eta = 0$, and plastic deformation at the early stage of shearing. The discrepancy for the initial
332 slope of effective stress path has led to cumulative errors in predicting the subsequent collapse

333 behavior (including the values of q_{peak} and η_{peak}) at larger stress ratios by their model.

334 For each gassy specimen, the measured initial portion of the effective stress path bends
335 towards the right ($dp' > 0$), with the amplitude of dp' increasing with account of gas. This is
336 because the undrained shearing of each gassy specimen should have produced positive total
337 volumetric strains, causing the effective stress path to behave as it were partially drained and
338 bend to the right in p' - q space. The proposed model in this study is found to reasonably predict
339 the slope of initial effective stress path of all the gassy specimens. While Lü et al. (2018)'s
340 model does not appear to properly reproduce the initial slope of effective stress path for the two
341 gassy specimens with relatively high S_r (i.e., 99.2% and 98.1%), which is caused by the
342 definition of K_p at $\eta = 0$ as discussed above.

343 Fig. 3 shows the comparison between the measured and predicted [with the models
344 proposed herein and by Lü et al. (2018)] stress-strain relationships for the gassy and saturated
345 Ottawa sand in loose states (ASTM Graded). As shown by the test data, the saturated loose sand
346 exhibit a brittle strain-softening behavior, which is a typical response during static liquefaction.
347 With more undissolved gas, the specimens exhibit less brittle response and larger peak and
348 residual strength, suggesting the 'beneficial' effect of the gas bubbles on loose sand. The models
349 proposed in this study and by Lü et al. (2018) have reasonably captured all these features,
350 including the influence of gas on the peak strength, the subsequent strain-softening behavior
351 and the residual strength.

352 Fig. 4 compares the measured and predicted excess pore water pressures of the loose
353 specimens that have been discussed in Figs. 2 and 3. As illustrated, the models proposed in this
354 study and by Lü et al. (2018) both correctly capture the effect of gas on excess pore water

355 pressure in the loose specimens, i.e., increasing amount of gas has led to reduction in excess
356 pore water pressure. Because both models have considered the joint effects of free and dissolved
357 gas in increasing the compressibility of the pore fluid (i.e., gas-water mixture), which in turn
358 suppresses the generation of excess pore water pressure during the shear-induced contraction
359 of the loose material.

360

361 ***3.2 Loose and dense gassy Ottawa Sand (CT-109A) (Grozić et al., 2005)***

362 [Grozić et al. \(2005\)](#) reported undrained triaxial compression test results and their model
363 predictions on another batch of Ottawa Sand (CT-109A), which contained carbon dioxide (CO₂)
364 and were prepared in loose and dense states. The physical properties and model parameters of
365 this Ottawa sand is different from the Ottawa Sand (ASTM Graded) tested by [He & Chu \(2014\)](#),
366 as summarized in [Tables 1 and 2](#).

367 [Fig. 5](#) shows the comparison between the measured and predicted effective stress paths for
368 the loose and medium dense gassy specimens. The measured and predicted stress-strain
369 relationships for these gassy specimens are compared in [Fig. 6](#). In the two figures, the predicted
370 results by the model proposed in this study and by [Grozić et al. \(2005\)](#)'s model are included
371 for comparison. It can be seen from [Fig. 5](#) that the measured collapse behavior (i.e., static
372 liquefaction) of the loose gassy specimen is well reproduced both models. On the other hand,
373 the measured effective stress path of the dense gassy specimen (showing phase transformation)
374 is only reasonably predicted by the model proposed herein, while [Grozić et al. \(2005\)](#)'s model
375 does not properly capture the initial slope and thus the subsequent trajectory of the effective
376 stress path. It is also illustrated by [Fig. 6](#) that the model proposed in this study yields better
377 prediction for the gassy specimens in different states than [Grozić et al. \(2005\)](#)'s model,

378 although the latter contains more parameters. This suggests the suitability of the functional
379 forms of plastic modulus and stress-dilatancy adopted in the model proposed herein, for
380 properly capturing the state-dependency of sand.

381

382 **3.3 Dense gassy and saturated Baskarp sand (Rad et al., 1994)**

383 The results of dense gassy and saturated Baskarp sand (i.e., a fine river sand) were reported
384 by Rad et al. (1994). The test programme consists of undrained triaxial compression tests on
385 gassy and saturated specimens, as well as drained triaxial compression tests on saturated
386 specimens. The gassy specimens were charged with either methane (CH₄) or carbon dioxide
387 (CO₂). Two types of gassy specimens were prepared, i.e., specimens having free gas and gas-
388 saturated water ($S_{r0} < 100\%$, $\alpha = 100\%$) and specimens containing gas-saturated water
389 without free gas ($S_{r0} < 100\%$, $\alpha = 100\%$).

390 Figs. 7 and 8 compare the measured and predicted results from the drained triaxial
391 compression tests on four dense saturated specimens, which were prepared at different e and
392 p' . The results predicted by the model proposed herein show reasonable agreements with the
393 measured shear stress-strain relationships (see Fig. 7) and dilatancy (see Fig. 8) for all the four
394 specimens. In particular, the proposed model captures the peak strength and dilatancy for the
395 specimens having different initial states, suggesting its predictive capability for the state-
396 dependency of sand.

397 Figs. 9 and 10 compare the model predictions and experimental data for saturated and gassy
398 specimens subjected to undrained triaxial compression. All the specimens were prepared to the
399 same initial states ($e=0.592$ and $p'=50$ kPa), with exception of the gassy specimen containing
400 CH₄ ($e=0.585$ and $p'=50$ kPa). The proposed model captures the trends of the stress-strain

401 relationships (Fig. 9) and excess pore water pressures (Fig. 10) for all the gassy and saturated
402 specimens. Specifically, the proposed model has reproduced the ‘detrimental’ effect of gas on
403 the dense sand, i.e., presence of CH₄ has led to much lower strength and stiffness (Fig. 9) and
404 less significant negative excess pore water pressure (Fig. 10) in the gassy specimens than their
405 saturated equivalent. The reproduction of this key feature is achieved by properly formulating
406 the coupled processes of (a) shear-induced negative excess pore water pressure in the dense
407 specimens, (b) gas dissolution from the pore water and (c) the evolving stiffness of the water-
408 gas mixture due to the joint effect of reducing gas solution and increasing amount of free gas. All
409 in all, it is the gas exsolution under changing averaged pore fluid pressure that modifies the
410 volume changes and hence impact on the overall shear strength and stiffness in a coupled
411 manner.

412

413 **4. Parametric study investigating the effect of gas on sands with different** 414 **initial states**

415 *4.1 Motivation and programme of the parametric study*

416 Existing studies have mainly focused the ‘beneficial’ effect of gas on the mitigation of static
417 liquefaction of loose sand (Pietruszczak & Pande, 1996; Pietruszczak et al., 2003; Grozic et al.,
418 2005; He & Chu, 2014), with little attention paid to systematically quantification of the
419 ‘detrimental’ effect of gas on medium dense and dense sand. A systematic of parametric study
420 is therefore carried out, aiming to investigate the influence of initial degree of saturation (i.e.,
421 S_{r0}) on the undrained shear behavior of sand with different initial states. The model parameters
422 for Baskarp sand (i.e., a natural river sand) is adopted in the parametric study.

423 The parametric study consists of 119 analyses, which consider wide ranges of the initial
424 relative density ($10\% \leq D_{r0} \leq 90\%$) and initial degree of saturation ($85\% \leq S_{r0} \leq 100\%$).
425 Despite the variations in S_{r0} and D_{r0} , a constant initial effective mean stress (i.e.,
426 $p_0' = 200$ kPa) is adopted for each analysis. The most commonly encountered bio-gas, namely
427 methane (CH₄), is adopted in the parametric study. The Henry's constants h_0 for CH₄ is taken
428 as 0.034, considering an environmental temperature of 4°C that is common at the seabed.

429

430 *4.2 Distinct responses of loose and dense sand to effect of S_{r0}*

431 Figs. 11(a), 11(b) and 11(c) shows the effect of S_{r0} on the stress-strain relationship,
432 effective stress path and change of void ratio for typical CH₄-charged loose specimens (initial
433 $D_{r0} = 10\%$) subjected to undrained triaxial compression, respectively. The saturated loose
434 specimen exhibits a clear strain softening behavior (Fig. 11(a)), due to the significant reduction
435 of p_0' accompanying positive excess pore water pressure of the contractive material (Fig.
436 11(b)) subjected to constant volume shearing (i.e., $e = \text{constant}$, see Fig. 11(c)). The inclusion of
437 gas into the loose sand has led to a less brittle stress-strain relationship, along with higher peak
438 stress ratio, larger peak and residual strength than those of saturated sand (Figs. 11(a) and (b)).
439 This 'beneficial' effect is associated with the increased compressibility of the pore fluid by the
440 occluded gas, which induces a partially drained response (volumetric contraction, see Fig. 11(c))
441 to suppress the development of positive excess pore water pressure of the contractive material.
442 Consequently, the effective mean stress of the loose gassy sand under undrained shearing has
443 reduced less than that of a saturated sand with the same initial state, and thus exhibit an
444 improved mechanical behavior, i.e., higher stiffness and strength. When $S_{r0} = 0.85$, the peak
445 undrained strength of the gassy sand is nearly 2 times of that for the saturated soil.

446 Figs. 12(a), 12(b) and 12(c) illustrates the effect of S_{r0} on the stress-strain relationship,
447 effective stress path and change of void ratio for typical CH₄-charged dense specimens (initial
448 $D_{r0} = 90\%$) experiencing undrained triaxial compression, respectively. Different from the
449 case for loose sand, the dense gassy and saturated specimens all exhibit strain-hardening
450 behavior during the undrained shear (Fig. 12(a)). The addition of gas has resulted in smaller
451 peak deviatoric stress in the gassy specimens, as compared to the saturated one. The
452 ‘detrimental’ effect is because of the increased compressibility by gas, which suppresses
453 development of negative excess pore water pressure of the dilative material (Fig. 12(b)) along
454 with the partially drained response (volumetric dilation, see Fig. 12(c)). This has led to smaller
455 increase in effective mean stress during undrained shearing of the dense gassy sand than that of
456 a saturated sand with the same initial state, causing a weakened mechanical behavior of the
457 former, i.e., lower stiffness and strength.

458 The ‘detrimental’ effect of gas on the dense sand is more significant as the amount of gas
459 increases (i.e., lower S_{r0}). When $S_{r0} = 0.85$, the peak deviatoric stress of dense gassy sand is
460 only 60% of that for the saturated one.

461

462 ***4.3 Effect of gas on sand with various initial states***

463 Fig. 13 shows the undrained strength (s_{u_gas}) of gassy sand with different D_{r0} (between 10%
464 and 90%) and S_{r0} (between 85% and 100%) subjected to undrained shearing. The value of
465 s_{u_gas} for each gassy specimen in Fig. 13 is normalized by the undrained strength of its saturated
466 equivalent (s_{u_sat}). A s_{u_gas}/s_{u_sat} ratio being smaller than the unity means the gas has played
467 a ‘detrimental’ role, and vice versa. The presence of gas is shown to reduce the undrained
468 strength of a dense sand ($D_{r0} = 90\%$) by up to 40%, or increase the undrained strength of a

469 loose sand ($D_{r0} = 10\%$) by up to 140%. For each given D_{r0} , the modification effect of the gas
470 becomes more significant at lower S_{r0} . The possibility of presence of gas, and their effects on
471 stability of the seabed and marine structures founded on gassy seabed should therefore be
472 considered in design and construction.

473

474 **5. Model implementation and finite element analyses of slope**

475 **instability**

476 Having formulated and verified the gassy sand model, as presented in the preceding sessions,
477 it is then implemented into a finite element (FE) code to offer a numerical tool for simulating
478 various engineering problems that are affected by gas- and state-dependency of sand.
479 Implementation of the proposed gassy sand model into a FE code is briefly described. The
480 simulative capability of the implemented model is then illustrated through a typical boundary
481 value problem, i.e., slope destabilized by undrained loading at its crest. Particular attention is
482 paid to examine the ‘beneficial’ and ‘detrimental’ effects of gas on the stability of relatively
483 loose and dense sandy slopes, respectively.

484

485 ***5.1 Implementation of the proposed gassy sand model***

486 The proposed gassy sand model was implemented into a commercial FE package ABAQUS
487 (Hibbitt et al., 2016), through its user-defined material interface (i.e., UMAT). The explicit
488 Euler method in conjunction with automatic sub-stepping and error control (Sloan, 1987; Zhao
489 et al., 2005) is employed for stress integration. The large strain formulation, as proposed by
490 Hughes and Winget (1980) (see also ABAQUS User Manual (Hibbitt et al., 2016)), is adopted
491 in the stress integration scheme. The numerical implementation schemes largely follow those

492 employed by Gao (2012) and Gao et al.(2020), where more details are provided. The
 493 implemented gassy sand model in ABAQUS was verified by comparing its predicted results
 494 against the various triaxial tests on gassy and saturated sands, as readily presented in Section 4.

495

496 ***5.2 Finite element analysis on destabilization of gassy and saturated slopes***

497 A total of four finite element simulations were carried out, including two analyses on
 498 relative loose slopes (average $D_{r0} = 30\%$ at the mid-depth of the slope) and two on relatively
 499 dense slopes (average $D_{r0} = 60\%$ at the mid-depth of the slope). For each D_{r0} , two degrees
 500 of saturation are considered, i.e., a fully saturated case ($S_{r0}=100\%$) and a gassy case ($S_{r0}=95\%$
 501 at the mid-depth of the slope). For all the analyses, the water depth is fixed at an elevation of
 502 10 m above the crest of the slope. By assuming the amount of substance of CH_4 is 3.5mol/m^3
 503 of each depth, the distribution of S_{r0} with depth for each gassy slope case can be readily
 504 deduced based on Henry's and Boyle's laws. Fig. 14(b) shows the distribution of S_{r0} along the
 505 depth, with the average of $S_{r0}=95\%$ of the mid-depth of the slope. The distribution of initial
 506 degree of saturation (S_{r0}) with depth is calculated from Henry's and Boyle's laws. According to
 507 the ideal gas equation of state (i.e., Boyle's law), the relationship between the initial amount of
 508 gas and initial gas pressure and can be described using the following equation:

$$(V_{a0} + V_{d0})(u_{a0} + p_a) = n_g R_g T_g \quad (22)$$

509 In Eq. (22), $(V_{a0} + V_{d0})$ is the initial total volume of gas, consisting of the volume of free gas
 510 (V_{a0}) and gas dissolved in water (V_{d0}). u_{a0} is the initial pore gas pressure, which is very close
 511 to the initial pore water pressure u_{w0} . p_a is the atmospheric pressure (101 kPa). n_g is the
 512 amount of substance of the gas (unit: mol). R_g is a universal gas constant equal to 8.314

513 $J/(\text{mol}\cdot\text{K})$. T_g is the absolute temperature of the gas, which is assumed to remain constant
 514 during the entire analysis. According to Henry's law and the definition for degree of saturation,
 515 the total initial volume of gas ($V_{a0} + V_{d0}$) can be further extended as below (Fredlund &
 516 Rahardjo, 1993):

$$(V_{a0} + V_{d0}) = (V_{a0} + V_{w0})(1 - S_{r0} + h_0 S_{r0}) = eV_{s0}(1 - S_{r0} + h_0 S_{r0}) \quad (23)$$

517 where V_{w0} and V_{s0} denote the initial volume of the pore water and of the soil particles,
 518 respectively. h_0 is the Henry's constant. Based on Boyle's (Eq. 22) and Henry's laws (Eq. 23),
 519 the initial degree of saturation S_{r0} at each given depth of the gassy sand slope can be derived
 520 as below:

$$S_{r0} = \frac{1 - \frac{n_g R_g T_g}{eV_{s0}(u_{a0} + p_a)}}{1 - h_0} \quad (24)$$

521 By assuming that the amount of substance of CH_4 is uniformly distributed throughout the entire
 522 gassy sandy slope (i.e., $3.5\text{mol}/\text{m}^3$), the variation of S_{r0} with depth (i.e., due to increasing pore
 523 air pressure) below the crest of each gassy slope can be readily calculated using Eq. 24, as
 524 shown in Fig. 14(b).

525 Fig. 14(a) shows the finite element mesh and boundary conditions, which are the same for
 526 all the four analyses. As illustrated, the slope has an inclined angle of 30° , with a rigid footing
 527 (width=3 m) sitting on its crest. It is intended to fail the slope in each analysis by imposing an
 528 undrained loading to the footing, which is a typical approach for quantifying the stability of a
 529 slope (Pantelidis & Griffiths, 2011)

530 The mesh consists of 3600 eight-node plane strain quadrilateral, bilinear displacement,
 531 bilinear pore water pressure and reduced intergration elements i.e., CPE8RP elements). The

532 lateral boundaries and the bottom boundary are constrained by roller and pinned supports,
533 respectively. Pore water pressure (PWP) boundaries are applied to the top and the bottom of the
534 mesh, with the magnitudes of PWP determined based on the hydro-static pressure distributions.
535 The proposed gassy sand model is employed to describe the constitutive behavior of the sand,
536 with the calibrated parameters of Ottawa sand (ASTM graded, see Table 1) adopted for each
537 analysis. The permeability (k) for Ottawa sand, which depends on its void ratio (e), was
538 calculated using the equation proposed by [Fleshman \(2012\)](#), i.e., $k = 0.55 \frac{e^3}{1+e}$. Other model
539 parameters of the sand are summarized in Table 2, as described in the preceding section (i.e.,
540 Section 3).

541 Each analysis consists of two main procedures: (I) equilibrium of the initial geostatic stress
542 field for the sloping ground; (II) triggering of the slope instability by imposing a surface load
543 at the slope crest. In procedure (I), iterations were rendered to ensure the initial geostatic stress
544 field (which is unknown) is in equilibrium with the applied gravity and initial boundary
545 conditions. The iteration was not ceased till the calculated deformation of the slope under the
546 action of the given initial geo-static stress field, gravity and initial boundary conditions became
547 small than 10^{-7} m. This was followed by procedure (II), where a uniformly distributed load was
548 applied at a rigid footing on the slope crest to destabilize the slope. To demonstrate the effect
549 of gas on the shear-induced pore water pressure and thus the slope instability, procedure (II)
550 was performed under the undrained condition. The loading time for procedure (II) in each
551 analysis is 20 sec, which was sufficiently short to result in an undrained loading process, as
552 determined from trial numerical runs with different loading times.

553

554 **5.3 Effect of gas on stability of sandy slope with different densities**

555 Figs. 15(a) and 15(b) compare the contour of the deviatoric strain ($\varepsilon_d = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} e_{ij} e_{ij}$, where e_{ij}
556 is the deviatoric strain tensor) developed in the saturated and gassy loose sandy slopes, due to an
557 undrained loading of 40 kPa applied at the slope crest. The displacement vectors resulted from
558 the undrained loading are also included in the two figures.

559 It can be seen from Fig. 15(a) that the surcharge loading leads to the formation of a
560 continuous sliding wedge (with substantial shear strain), which extends from the slope toe to
561 the slope crest. Significant soil movement develops within the sliding lines, while the soil
562 outside the sliding wedge remains nearly stationary. Both observations suggest the failure of
563 the slope under the undrained surcharge loading. With the presence of gas in the loose sandy
564 slope (see Fig. 16(b)), however, the sliding wedge has not been continuously formed under the
565 given load. Meanwhile, smaller soil movement is developed in the gassy slope than that in the
566 saturated one. The comparison between Figs. 15(a) and 15(b) suggests the ‘beneficial’ effect of
567 the gas on improving the undrained stability of a relatively loose sandy slope.

568 To further elaborate the ‘beneficial’ effect of gas on the loose sandy slope, Fig. 16
569 compares the change of effective stress path of a typical element at the same position in the
570 saturated and gassy slopes (see the inset of the figure) during the surcharge loading process. As
571 illustrated, the selected soil element (element A) in the saturated sandy slope fails due to static
572 liquefaction, with the final value of mean effective stress p' approaching zero. Comparatively,
573 the soil element in the loose sandy slope containing gas (element B) behaves less contractive
574 (as explained in Session 4.1), leading to a higher p' at failure and consequently larger undrained
575 shear strength with improved slope stability.

576 Figs. 17(a) and 17(b) compare the contour of induced deviatoric shear strain ($\varepsilon_d = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3} e_{ij} e_{ij}}$,
577 where e_{ij} is the deviatoric strain tensor), together with the displacement vectors, in the saturated
578 and gassy dense sandy slopes under an undrained loading of 1500 kPa at the slope crest. The
579 comparison between Figs. 17(a) and 17(b) shows that under a given surcharge loading, the slope
580 containing gas exhibits a larger extend of sliding wedge than the slope with no gas, suggesting
581 a ‘detrimental’ effect of gas on the dense sandy slopes. Relatively large deviatoric shear strain
582 is developed in both gassy and saturated slope, i.e., ε_d is up to 150%. The computation of such
583 large strains in ABAQUS is achieved by activating the option named NIgeom, which considers
584 geometric nonlinearity and rotation of local material directions of each deforming element
585 during every increment of computation. The effect of gas on dense sandy slope is further
586 elaborated, by inspecting the effective stress path of a typical element at the same location
587 within the sliding wedge of the saturated and gassy slope, as shown in Fig. 18. It is seen that
588 the selected element in the dense sandy slope containing gas (element C) behaves less dilative
589 than that in the slope with no gas (element D), as explained in Session 4.3. This has led to a
590 smaller undrained shear strength and reduced Results of the comparative study, as presented
591 above, suggest that despite the high degree of saturation ($S_{r0}=95\%$), the presence of the little
592 amount of gas may significantly affect the undrained stability of slope. Ignorance of its presence
593 may mislead the results of seabed stability analyses.

594

595 **Summary and Conclusions**

596 This study presents a state-dependent model for coarse-grained gassy soil, which can give
597 a unified description of gassy sand with different initial states and degrees of saturation. The

598 key elements of the state-dependent model include: (a) pressure-dependent compressibility of
599 the gas-water mixture considering compression and dissolution of gas, (b) state-dependent
600 dilatancy and (c) state-dependent plastic modulus of sand. These have enabled the model to
601 properly capture the coupled processes of shear-induced excess pore water pressure, the
602 resulted gas dissolution or exsolution from the pore water, and the evolving stiffness of water-
603 gas mixture with changing amounts of free and dissolved gas.

604 The model is validated against triaxial test results on three gassy sands having various
605 initial states (including dense and loose states) and degrees of saturation ($0.8 \leq S_{r0} \leq 1.0$), with
606 reasonable agreements between the test data and model prediction. Compared to existing
607 models, the current model can give better prediction of the sand response under various loading
608 conditions with fewer or the same number of parameters. With the proposed model, the
609 following distinct features of gassy sand have been reproduced:

610 (a) For a dilative gassy sand (i.e., in a dense state) subjected to undrained shearing, the induced
611 excess pore water pressure is less negative than its saturated equivalent, due to the reduced
612 stiffness of the gas-water mixture in the former. This effect is intensified by the cumulated
613 negative pore water pressure, which causes gas exsolution and expansion to further de-
614 saturate the sand. Consequently, the presence of gas in dense sand plays a ‘detrimental’ role
615 in suppressing negative excess pore water pressure, which in turn weakening its mechanical
616 behavior.

617 (b) For a contractive gassy sand (i.e., in a loose state) subjected to undrained shearing, the
618 resulted excess pore water pressure is less positive than its saturated equivalent, because of
619 the reduced stiffness of the gas-water mixture in the former. Although this effect is partly

620 suppressed by the cumulated positive pore water pressure, which causes gas solution and
621 compression to increase the degree of saturation of the sand, gas in loose sand plays a
622 ‘beneficial’ role in suppressing positive excess pore water pressure, and thus increases its
623 resistance against static liquefaction.

624 Parametric studies of undrained triaxial compression were performed on a calibrated natural
625 river sand (i.e., Baskarp sand) that cover a wide range of initial relative density ($D_{r0} = 10\sim 90\%$)
626 and degree of saturation ($S_{r0} = 85\sim 100\%$). The presence of gas is shown to reduce the
627 undrained shear strength of a dense sand ($D_{r0} = 90\%$) by up to 40%, or increase the undrained
628 strength of a loose sand ($D_{r0} = 10\%$) by up to 140%. This has highlighted the importance of
629 in-situ characterization of gas, and quantifying and their effects on the undrained capacity of
630 offshore foundations on gassy seabed subjected to extreme environmental loading at a high rate
631 (e.g., hurricane).

632 The proposed gassy sand model was implemented into a finite element code, which is
633 readily available to simulate various boundary value problems related to gassy and saturated
634 sandy seabed. Illustrative examples are presented to simulate and compare gassy and saturated
635 sandy slopes destabilized by an undrained loading at the slope crest. The presence of gas was
636 shown to or weaken or improve the undrained stability of the loose and dense sandy slopes,
637 respectively.

638

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645

646 **Appendix**

647 **6.1 Definitions**

648 The stress and strain tensors used in the generalization are defined as follows:

649 Deviatoric stress

$$s_{ij} = \sigma'_{ij} - p' \delta_{ij} \quad (\text{A-1})$$

650 where δ_{ij} = Kronecker delta.

651 Stress ratio tensor

$$r_{ij} = \frac{s_{ij}}{p'} \quad (\text{A-2})$$

652 The r_{ij} possesses two nontrivial invariants: a stress ratio second invariants R and the Lode

653 angle θ defined as follows:

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} r_{ij} r_{ij}} \quad (\text{A-3})$$

$$\theta = -\frac{1}{3} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{9 r_{ij} r_{jk} r_{kl}}{R^3} \right) \quad (\text{A-4})$$

654 Mean effective stress

$$p' = \frac{1}{3} \sigma'_{ij} \delta_{ij} = \frac{1}{3} \sigma'_{ii} = \frac{1}{3} (\sigma'_{11} + \sigma'_{22} + \sigma'_{33}) \quad (\text{A-5})$$

655 The scalar value of deviatoric stress q (used in the simplified version of the model for triaxial
656 space), is defined by:

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij}} \quad (\text{A-6})$$

657 Deviatoric strain increment

$$de_{ij} = d\varepsilon_{ij} - \frac{1}{3}d\varepsilon_v\delta_{ij} \quad (A-7)$$

658 Volumetric strain increment

$$d\varepsilon_v = d\varepsilon_{ii} = d\varepsilon_{11} + d\varepsilon_{22} + d\varepsilon_{33} \quad (A-8)$$

659 The scalar value of deviatoric strain increment $d\varepsilon_d$ is defined by:

$$d\varepsilon_d = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}de_{ij}de_{ij}} \quad (A-9)$$

660

661 **6.2 Generalization**

662 With the stress and strain tensors defined above, the proposed model can be generalized for
663 the multi-axial stress space, as follows:

664

665 *6.2.1 Yield function*

$$f = q - Hg(\theta)p' = 0 \quad (A-10)$$

666 where H is a hardening parameter whose evolution law depends on the stress state and void
667 ratio. $g(\theta)$ is an interpolation function based on the Lode angle θ of r_{ij} or s_{ij} as follows

668 (Li and Dafalias, 2002):

$$g(\theta) = \frac{\sqrt{(1+c^2)^2 + 4c(1-c^2)\sin 3\theta} - (1+c^2)}{2(1-c)\sin 3\theta} \quad (A-11)$$

669 where $c = M_e/M_c$ is a material constant, defining the ratio of the critical stress ratio in
670 triaxial extension, M_e , and triaxial compression, M_c .

671

672 *6.2.2 Hardening law and plastic modulus*

673 The generalized form of plastic modulus can be obtained:

$$K_p = \frac{Gh}{R} [M_c g(\theta) e^{-n\psi} - R] \quad (\text{A-12})$$

674 with the known K_p , The value of h was found to depend on void ratio e , following the
675 linear relation in Eq.(15):

$$\psi = e - e_c = e - \left[e_\Gamma - \lambda_c \left(\frac{p'}{p_a} \right)^\xi \right] \quad (\text{A-13})$$

676 Where e_Γ , λ_c , and ξ are material constants and $p_a (= 101 \text{ kPa})$ is the atmospheric
677 pressure. ψ is the state parameter, which represents the difference between the current void ratio and
678 the critical void ratio at a given effective mean normal stress.

679

680 6.2.3 Flow rule and dilatancy equation

681 The plastic deviatoric strain increment de_{ij}^p is expressed as:

$$de_{ij}^p = \langle L \rangle m_{ij}, \text{ with } m_{ij} = \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial r_{ij}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_{mn}} \delta_{mn} \frac{\delta_{ij}}{3}}{\left\| \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_{ij}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_{mn}} \delta_{mn} \frac{\delta_{ij}}{3} \right\|} \quad (\text{A-14})$$

682 The plastic shear strain increment is expressed as:

$$d\varepsilon_d^p = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} de_{ij}^p de_{ij}^p = \langle L \rangle \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} m_{ij} m_{ij} = \langle L \rangle \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \quad (\text{A-15})$$

683 The plastic volumetric strain increment can be expressed as follows:

$$d\varepsilon_v^p = d\varepsilon_{ii}^p = \langle L \rangle \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} D \quad (\text{A-16})$$

684 The total plastic strain increment $d\varepsilon_{ij}^p$ can be obtained as below:

$$d\varepsilon_{ij}^p = de_{ij}^p + \frac{1}{3} d\varepsilon_v^p \delta_{ij} = \langle L \rangle \left(m_{ij} + \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} D \delta_{ij} \right) = \langle L \rangle x_{ij} \quad (\text{A-17})$$

685 The state-dependent dilatancy function is expressed as:

$$D = \frac{d\varepsilon_v^p}{|d\varepsilon_d^p|} = \frac{d\varepsilon_{ii}^p}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} de_{ij}^p de_{ij}^p} = \frac{d_1}{M_c g(\theta)} [M_c g(\theta) e^{m\psi} - R] \quad (\text{A-18})$$

686 where $d\varepsilon_v^p$ and $d\varepsilon_d^p$ are plastic volumetric and plastic deviatoric strains increments,

687 respectively. M_c denotes the ratio of the critical stress ratio under triaxial compression. d_1 and

688 m are two material constants.

689

690 6.2.4 Loading index

691 The loading index L can be readily derived through standard elastoplasticity procedures, as
 692 follows:

$$\langle L \rangle = \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma'_{kl}} C_{kl ij} d\varepsilon_{ij}}{K_p + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma'_{ab}} C_{abcd} x_{cd}} = \Pi_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij} \quad (\text{A-19})$$

693 where C_{ijkl} is the elastic stiffness matrix expressed as:

$$C_{ijkl} = (K - 2G/3)\delta_{ij}\delta_{kl} + G(\delta_{ki}\delta_{lj} + \delta_{li}\delta_{kj}) \quad (\text{A-20})$$

694 where $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma'_{ij}}$ can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma'_{ij}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_{kl}} \left(\frac{\delta_{ki}\delta_{lj}}{p'} - \frac{\sigma'_{kl}\delta_{ij}}{3p'^2} \right) \quad (\text{A-21})$$

695 The generalized incremental elastoplastic relation can be derived as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} d\sigma'_{ij} &= C_{ijkl}(d\varepsilon_{kl} - d\varepsilon_{kl}^p) = C_{ijkl}(d\varepsilon_{kl} - \langle L \rangle x_{kl}) = (C_{ijkl} - h(L)C_{ijab}x_{ab}\Pi_{kl})d\varepsilon_{kl} \\ &= D_{ijkl}d\varepsilon_{kl} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A-22})$$

696 where $h(L)$ is the Heaviside step function, with $h(L > 0) = 1$ and $h(L \leq 0) = 0$.

697

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847

848

Nomenclature

| | | | |
|-------------|--|-----------------------|--|
| B_a | pore air pressure coefficient | p | mean total stress |
| B_w | pore water pressure coefficient | p_a | atmospheric pressure |
| c | material constant | p' | mean effective stress |
| C_a | air compressibility | q | deviator stress |
| C_w | water compressibility | R | stress ratio second invariants |
| C_{aw} | compressibility of gas-water mixture | r_{ij} | stress ratio tensor |
| C_{ijkl} | elastic stiffness tensors | s_{ij} | deviatoric stress |
| d_0 | dilatancy constant | S_r | degree of saturation |
| D | state-dependent dilatancy function | S_{r0} | degree of saturation at initial state |
| D_{r0} | relative density at initial state | s_{u_gas} | undrained strength of gassy sand |
| e | void ratio | s_{u_sat} | undrained strength of saturated sand |
| e_c | void ratio at critical state | u_a | pore air pressure |
| e_Γ | material constants | u_w | pore water pressure |
| f | yield function | V_a | volume of free air in pore water |
| G | pressure-dependent shear modulus | V_w | volume of pore water |
| $g(\theta)$ | interpolation function based on the Lode angle | V_d | volume of air dissolved in pore water |
| H | hardening parameter | $d\varepsilon_d$ | deviatoric strain increment |
| h | hardening variable | $d\varepsilon_v$ | volumetric strain increment |
| h_0 | Henry's constant | $d\varepsilon_v^{aw}$ | volumetric strain increment of gas-fluid mixture |
| h_1 | hardening constants | $d\varepsilon_d^p$ | plastic deviatoric strains increments |
| h_2 | hardening constants | σ'_{ij} | effective stress |
| K | bulk elastic modulus | δ_{ij} | Kronecker's delta |
| K_a | bulk modulus of gas | σ_a | total axial stress |
| K_w | bulk modulus of water | σ_r | total radial stress |
| K_{aw} | bulk modulus of the gas-water mixture | θ | Lode angle |
| K_p | plastic modulus | Γ | shear modulus constant |
| L | plastic multiplier | η | stress ratio |
| M | stress ratio at critical state | ψ | material state variable |
| M_e | critical stress ratio in triaxial extension | ν | Poisson's ratio |
| M_c | critical stress ratio in triaxial compression | α | degree of water-gas saturation |
| m | dilatancy constant | ξ | material constants |
| n | material constant | λ_c | material parameter determining critical state line |

Caption of Tables

Table 1. Typical engineering properties of three sands

Table 2. Model parameters of three gassy sands

Table 1. Typical engineering properties of three sands

| | Meaning of parameters | Parameter | Ottawa loose gassy sand* (He & Chu, 2014) | Ottawa loose and medium dense gassy sand (Grozić et al., 2005) | Baskarp dense gassy sand (Rad et al., 1994) |
|---------------------|-------------------------|------------|--|--|---|
| Description | --- | --- | Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) | Ottawa sand (CT-109A) | Baskarp sand |
| Grain shape | --- | --- | Round | Sub-rounded to round | --- |
| | Mean particle size (mm) | D_{50} | 0.4 | 0.34 | --- |
| | Specific gravity | G_s | 2.65 | 2.65 | 2.65 |
| Basic parameters | Maximum void ratio | e_{\max} | 0.80 | 0.82 | 0.898 |
| | Minimum void ratio | e_{\min} | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0.534 |
| | Permeability (m/s)* | k_0 | 5×10^{-5} | --- | --- |

Note: The two Ottawa sands have slightly different properties.

* The void ratio dependent permeability for Ottawa sand was calculated using the equation proposed by [Fleshman \(2012\)](#), i.e., $k = 0.55 \frac{e^3}{1+e}$

Table 2. Model parameters of three gassy sands

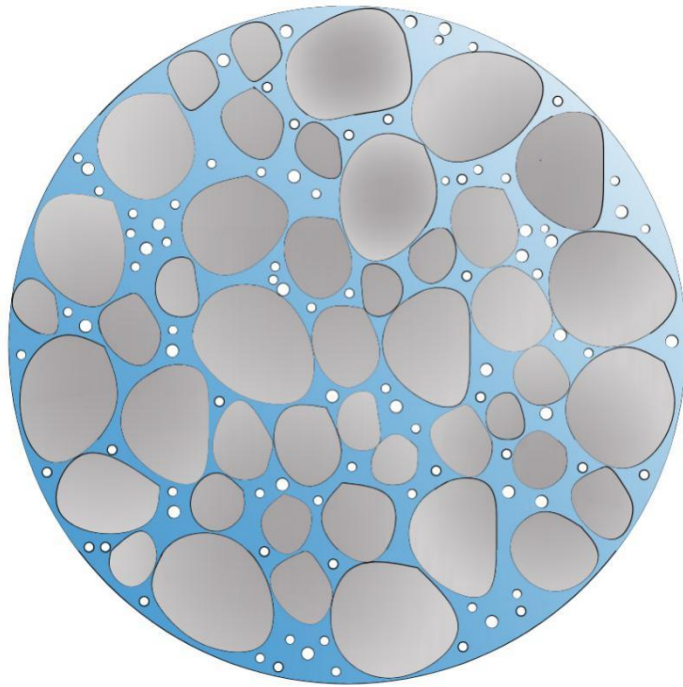
| Meaning of parameters | | Parameter | Ottawa loose gassy sand (He & Chu, 2014) | Ottawa loose and medium dense gassy sand (Grozić et al., 2005) | Baskarp dense gassy sand (Rad et al., 1994) |
|------------------------------|--|-------------|---|--|---|
| Elastic parameters | Elastic modulus | G_0 | 50 | 50 | 125 |
| | Poisson's ratio | ν | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.05 |
| Critical state parameters | Stress ratio at the critical state | M | 1.22 | 1.5 | 1.4 |
| | Intercept of CSL in $e - \left(\frac{p'}{p_a}\right)^\xi$ or $e - \ln p'$ plane | e_Γ | 0.806 | 1.1 | 0.886 |
| | Slope of CSL in $e - \left(\frac{p'}{p_a}\right)^\xi$ or $e - \ln p'$ plane | λ_c | 0.04 | 0.062 | 0.04 |
| | | ξ | --- | --- | 0.7 |
| Dilatancy parameters | Parameters of dilatancy function | d_0 | 1.2 | 0.88 | 1.2 |
| | | m | 3.5 | 3.5 | 3.5 |
| | | h_1 | 3.15 | 3.15 | 3.15 |
| Hardening parameters | Parameters of the hardening law | h_2 | 3.05 | 3.05 | 3.05 |
| | | n | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.1 |

Note: The critical state lines of Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) and Ottawa sand (CT-109A) are found to be linear in the $e - \log p'$ plane.

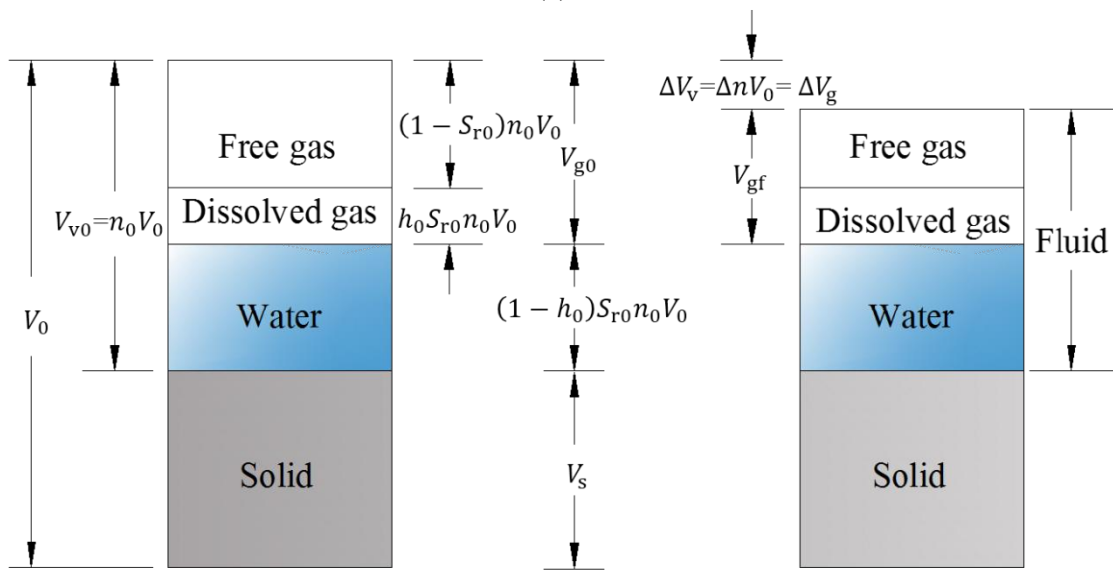
Caption of Figures

- Fig. 1.** (a) Representative element of gassy sand; (b) Three-phase diagram of gassy sand considering gas compression and dissolution
- Fig. 2.** Comparison between the measured and predicted stress paths of loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [He & Chu, 2014](#))
- Fig. 3.** Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [He & Chu, 2014](#))
- Fig. 4.** Comparison between the measured and predicted excess pore water pressure of loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [He & Chu, 2014](#))
- Fig. 5.** Comparison between the measured and predicted stress paths of loose gassy Ottawa sand (CT-109A) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [Grozic et al., 2005](#))
- Fig. 6.** Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of loose gassy Ottawa sand (CT-109A) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [Grozic et al., 2005](#))
- Fig. 7.** Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of dense saturated Baskarp sand in drained triaxial compression (Data from [Rad et al., 1994](#))
- Fig. 8.** Comparison between the measured and predicted volumetric strain of dense saturated Baskarp sand in drained triaxial compression (Data from [Rad et al., 1994](#))
- Fig. 9.** Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of dense gassy Baskarp sand of different saturation in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [Rad et al., 1994](#))
- Fig. 10.** Comparison between the measured and predicted excess pore water pressure of dense gassy Baskarp sand of different saturation in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [Rad et al., 1994](#))
- Fig. 11.** ‘Beneficial’ effect of gas bubbles in undrained triaxial compression test for loose sand: (a) effective stress path; (b) stress-strain relationship; (c) change of void ratio

- Fig. 12.** ‘Detrimental’ effect of gas bubbles in undrained triaxial compression test for dense sand: (a) effective stress path; (b) stress-strain relationship; (c) change of void ratio
- Fig. 13.** The undrained shear strength (s_{u_gas}) of gassy sand with varying initial states and degrees of saturation
- Fig. 14.** (a) Finite element mesh and boundary conditions for a slope destabilized by surcharge at the crest; (b) Degree of saturation along the depth below the slope crest
- Fig. 15.** Contours of the shear strain and displacement vectors for loose sand: (a) Saturated sand; (b) Gassy sand
- Fig. 16.** Comparison of stress paths of saturated loose sand and gassy loose sand at a point in the shear zone
- Fig. 17.** Contours of the shear strain and displacement vectors for dense sand: (a) Saturated sand; (b) Gassy sand
- Fig. 18.** Comparison of stress paths of saturated dense sand and gassy dense sand at a point in shear zone

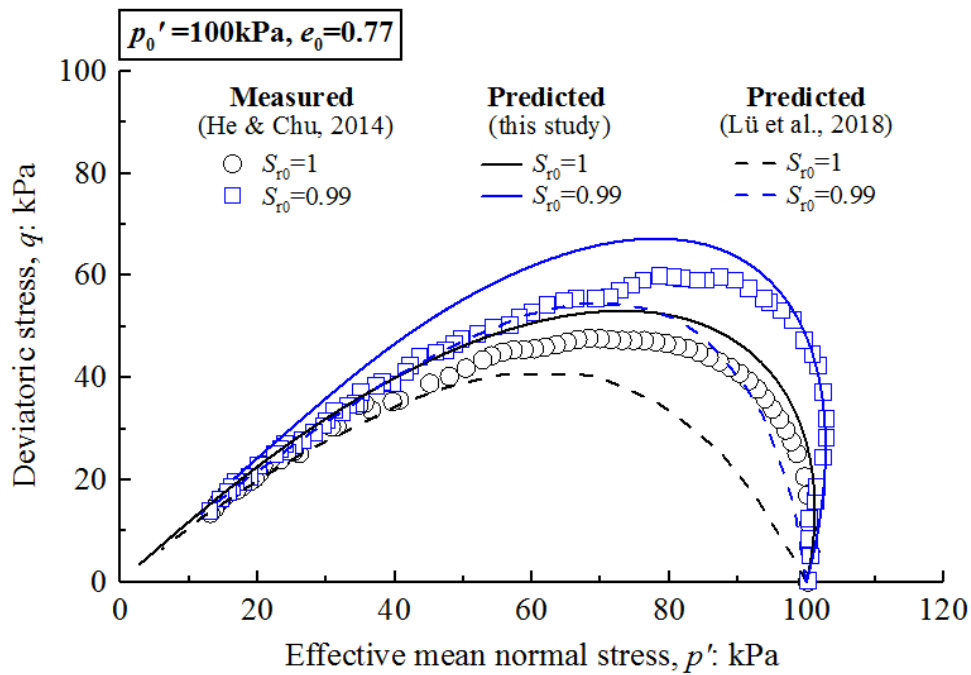


(a)

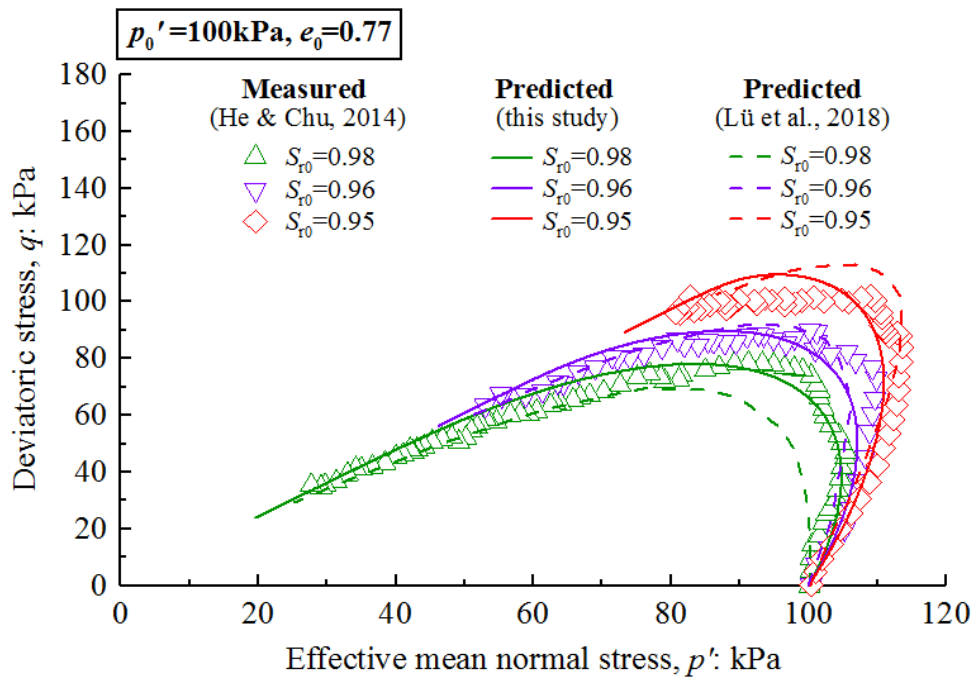


(b)

Fig. 1. (a) Representative element of gassy sand; (b) Three-phase diagram of gassy sand considering gas compression and dissolution

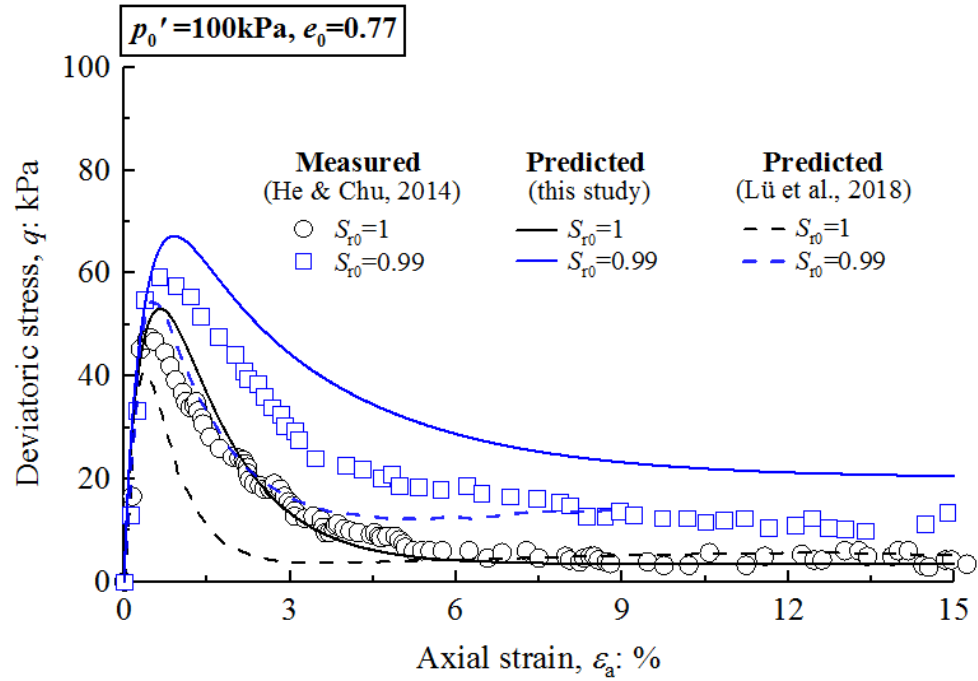


(a)

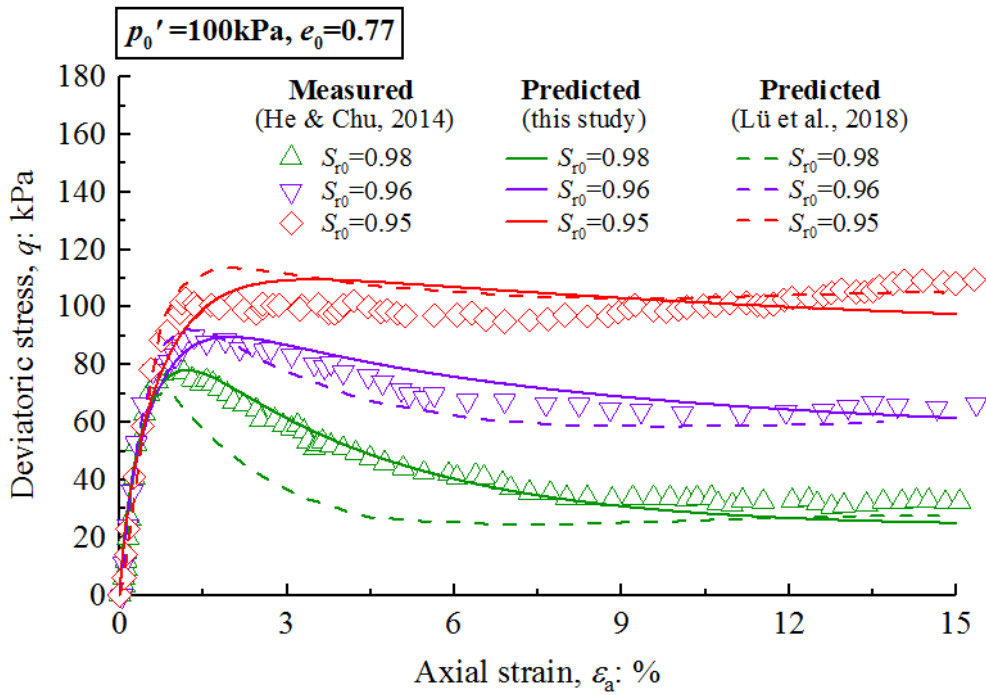


(b)

Fig. 2. Comparison between the measured and predicted stress paths of loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from He & Chu, 2014)

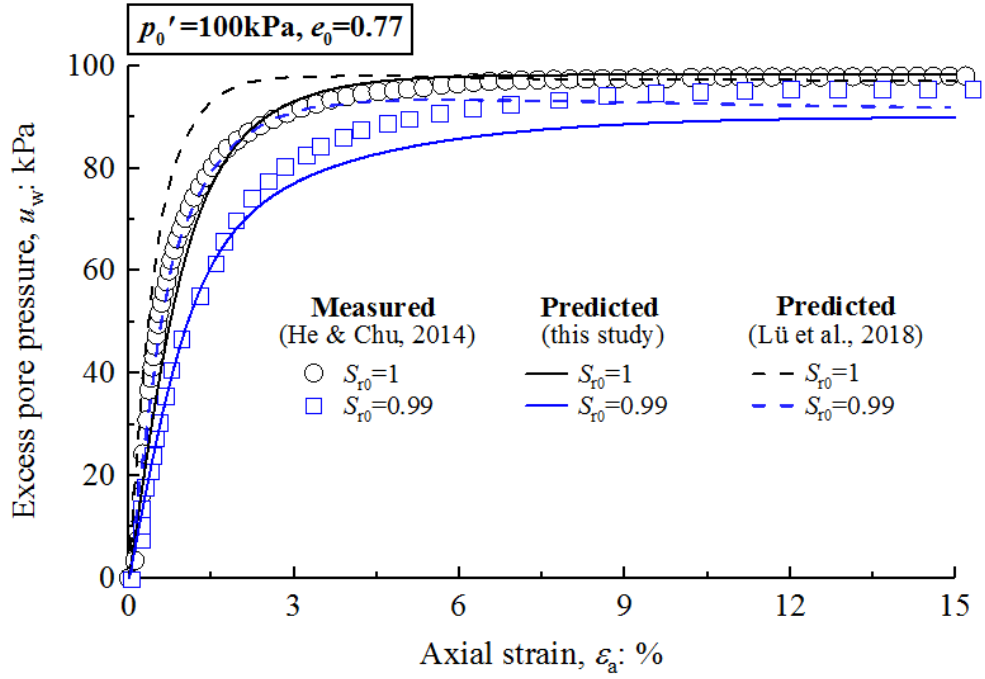


(a)

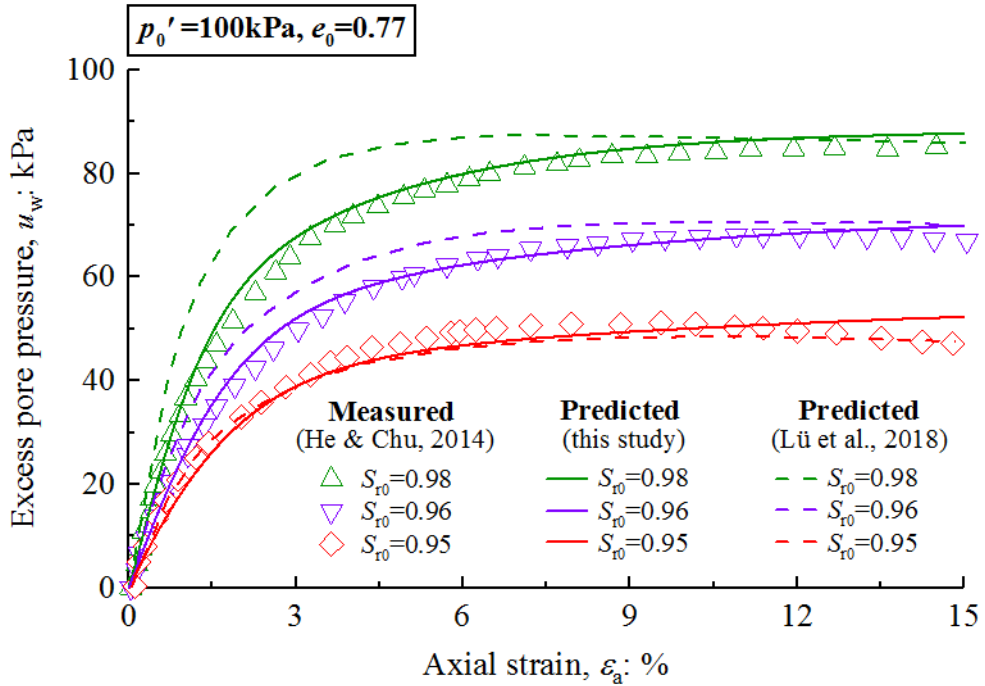


(b)

Fig. 3. Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from He & Chu, 2014)



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4. Comparison between the measured and predicted excess pore water pressure of loose gassy Ottawa sand (ASTM graded) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from He & Chu, 2014)

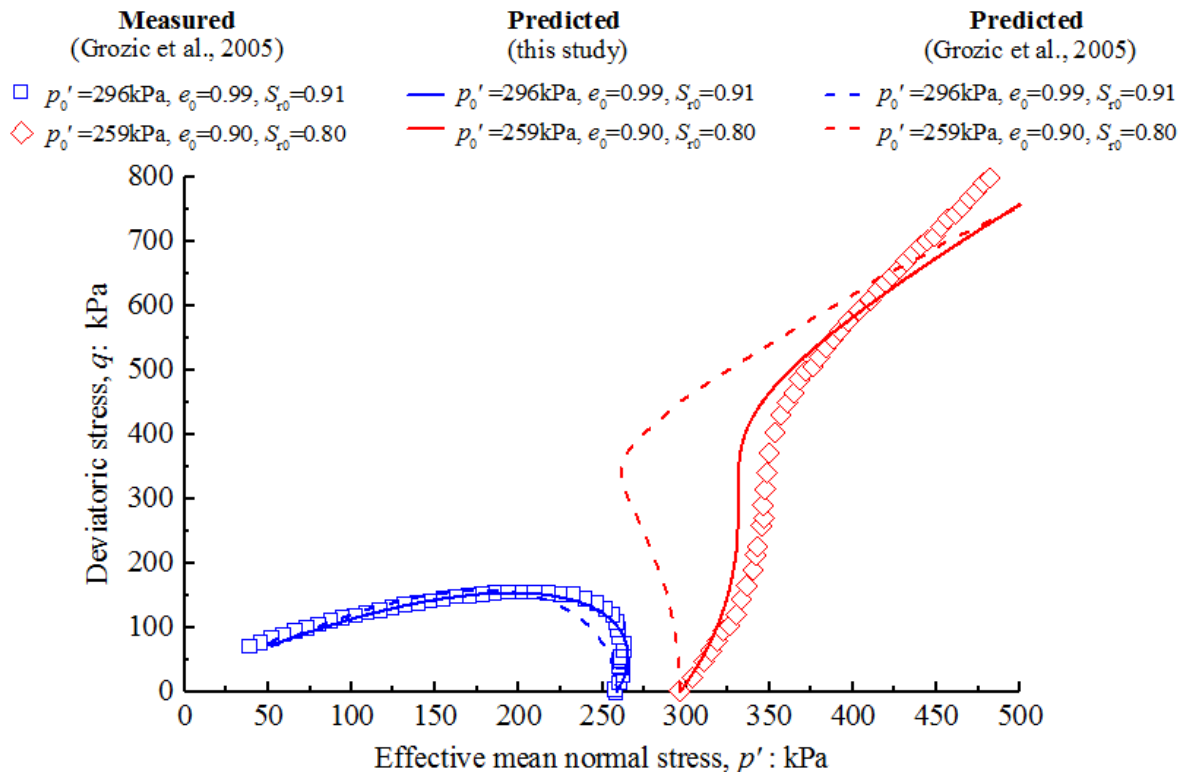


Fig. 5. Comparison between the measured and predicted stress paths of loose gassy Ottawa sand (CT-109A) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from [Grozić et al., 2005](#))

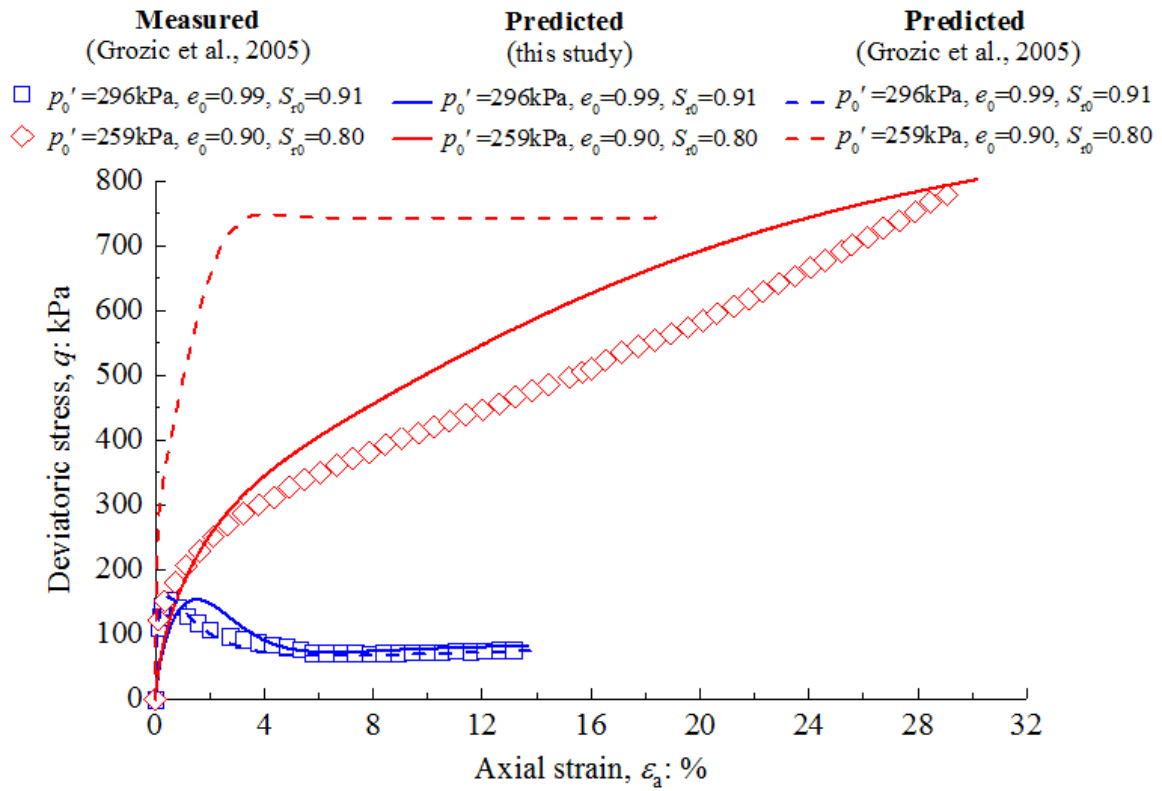


Fig. 6. Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of loose gassy Ottawa sand (CT-109A) in undrained triaxial compression (Data from Grozic et al., 2005)

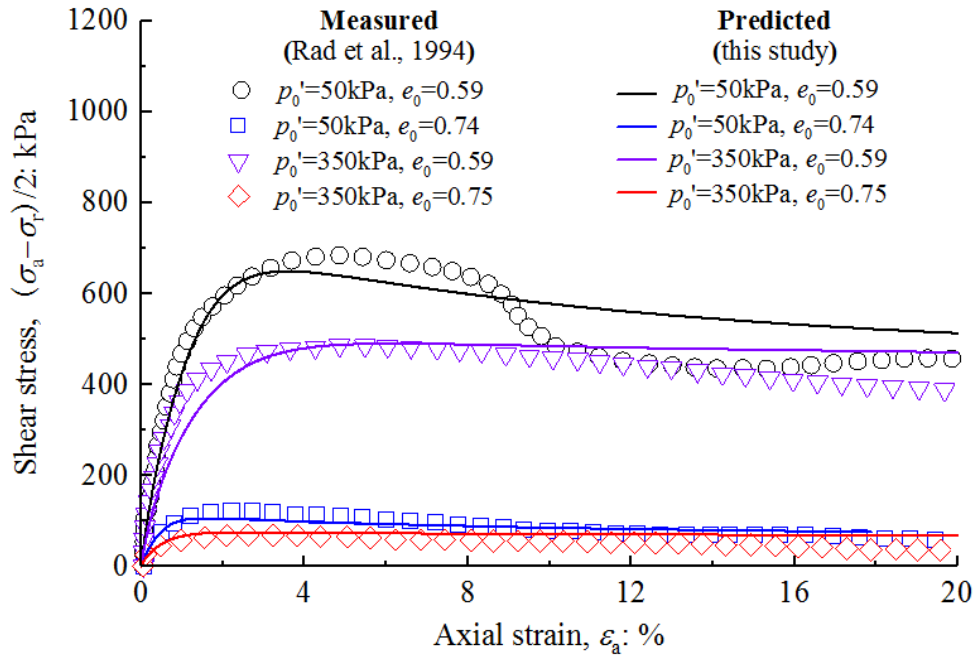


Fig. 7. Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of dense saturated Baskarp sand in drained triaxial compression (Data from Rad et al., 1994)

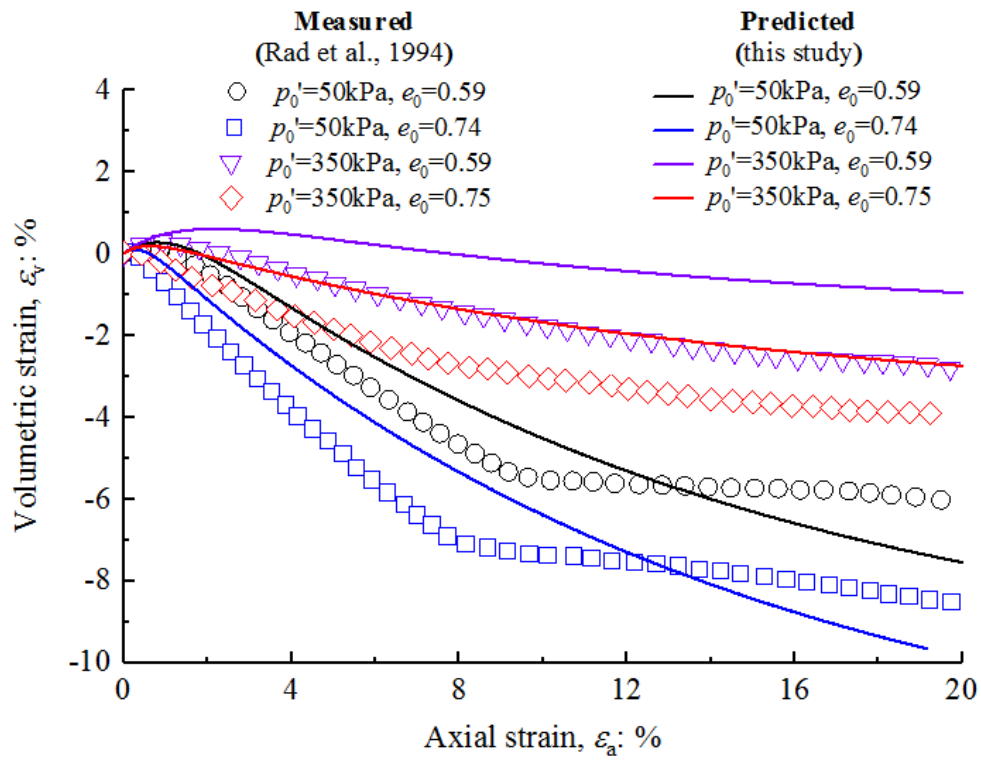
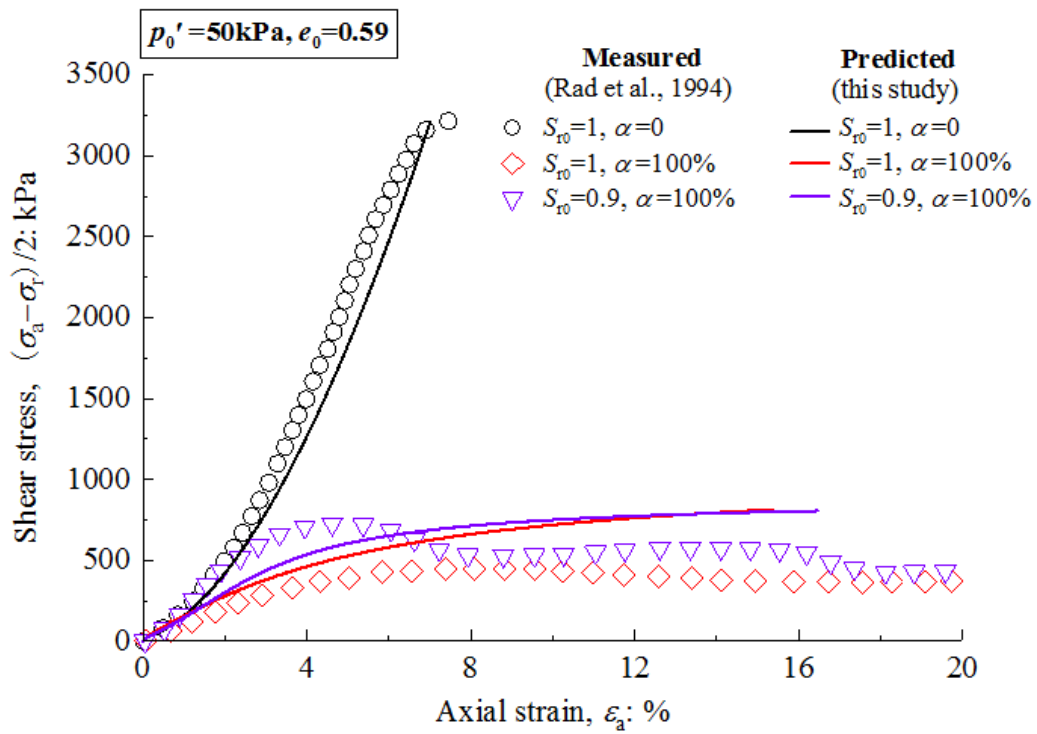
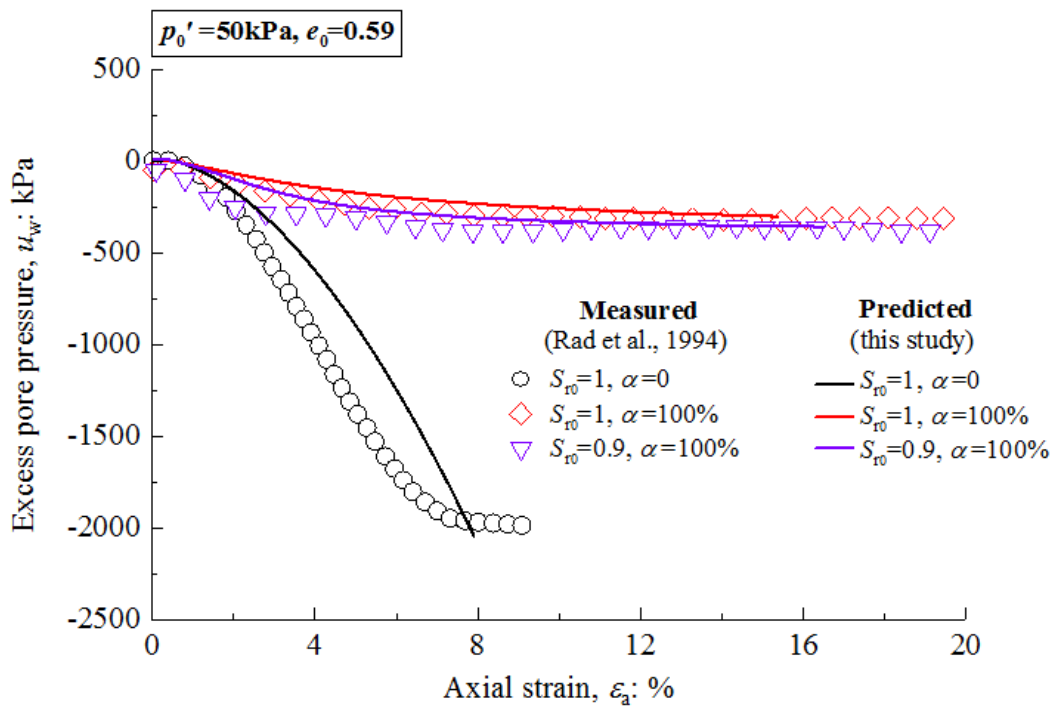


Fig. 8. Comparison between the measured and predicted volumetric strain of dense saturated Baskarp sand in drained triaxial compression (Data from Rad et al., 1994)



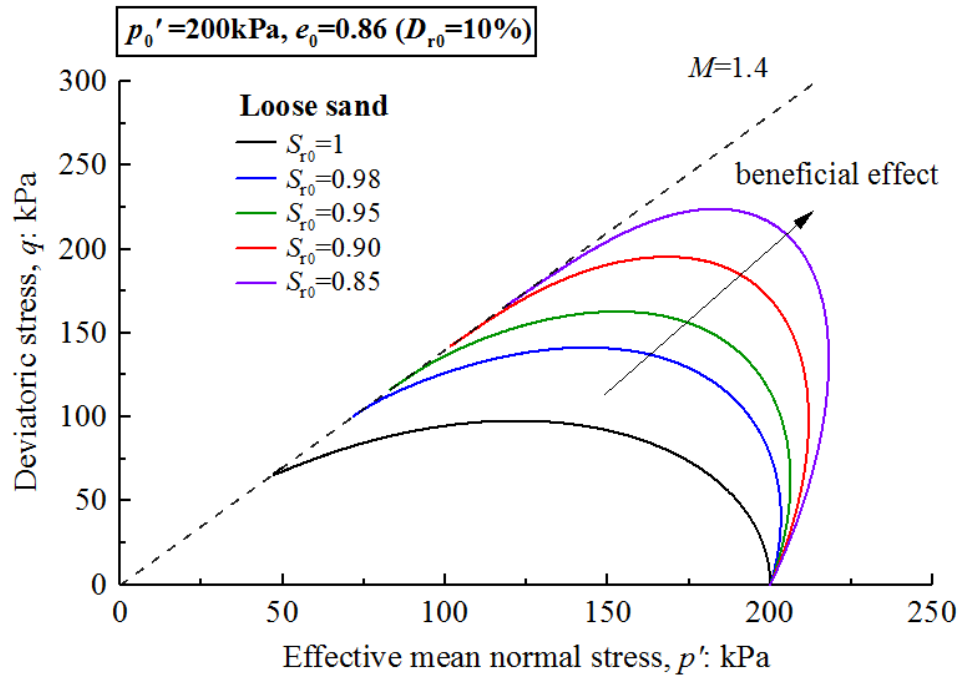
Note: α (degree of water-gas saturation) is defined as the amount of gas dissolved in the pore water divided by the maximum amount of gas that can be dissolved in the pore water.

Fig. 9. Comparison between the measured and predicted stress-strain behavior of dense gassy Baskarp sand of different saturation in undrained triaxial compression (Data from Rad et al., 1994)

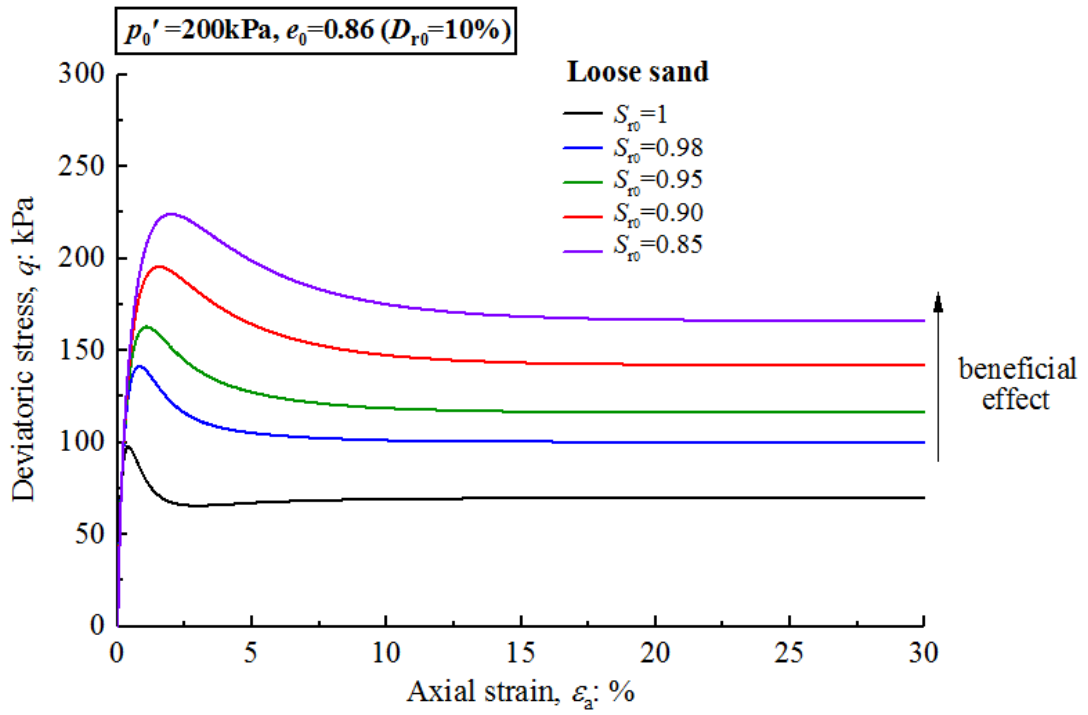


Note: α (degree of water-gas saturation) is defined as the amount of gas dissolved in the pore water divided by the maximum amount of gas that can be dissolved in the pore water.

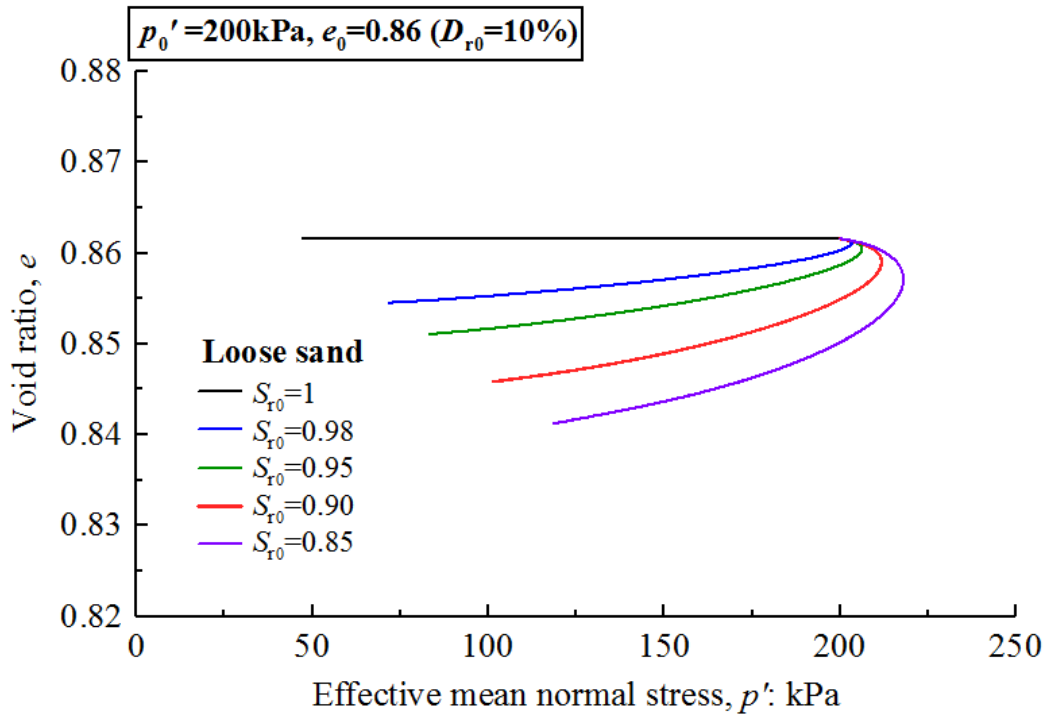
Fig. 10. Comparison between the measured and predicted excess pore water pressure of dense gassy Baskarp sand of different saturation in undrained triaxial compression (Data from Rad et al., 1994)



(a)

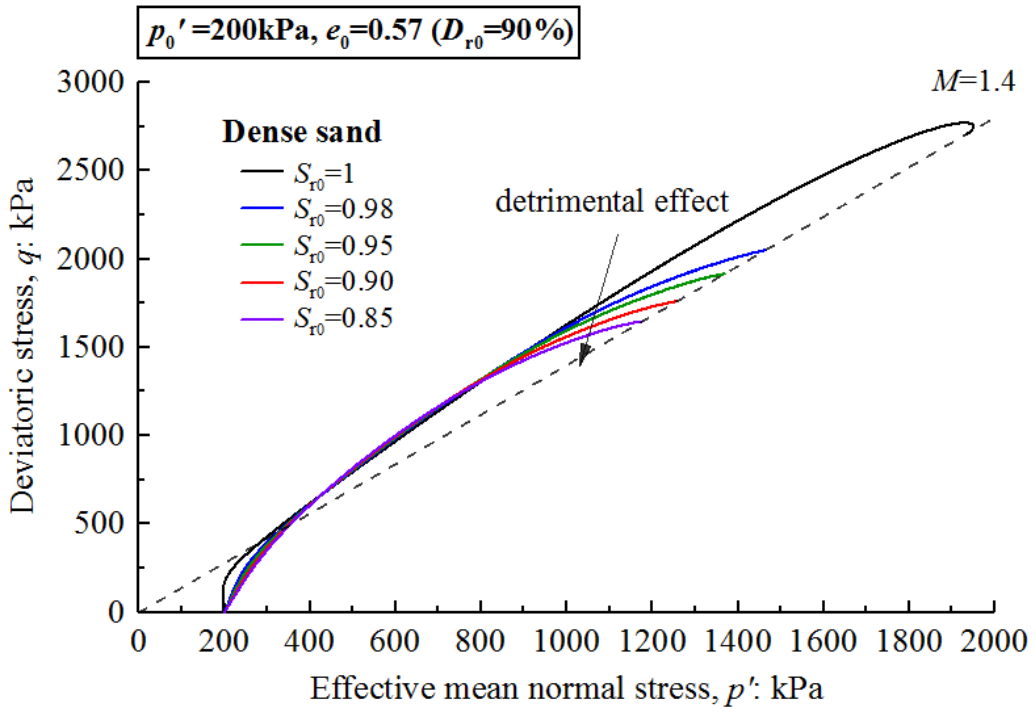


(b)

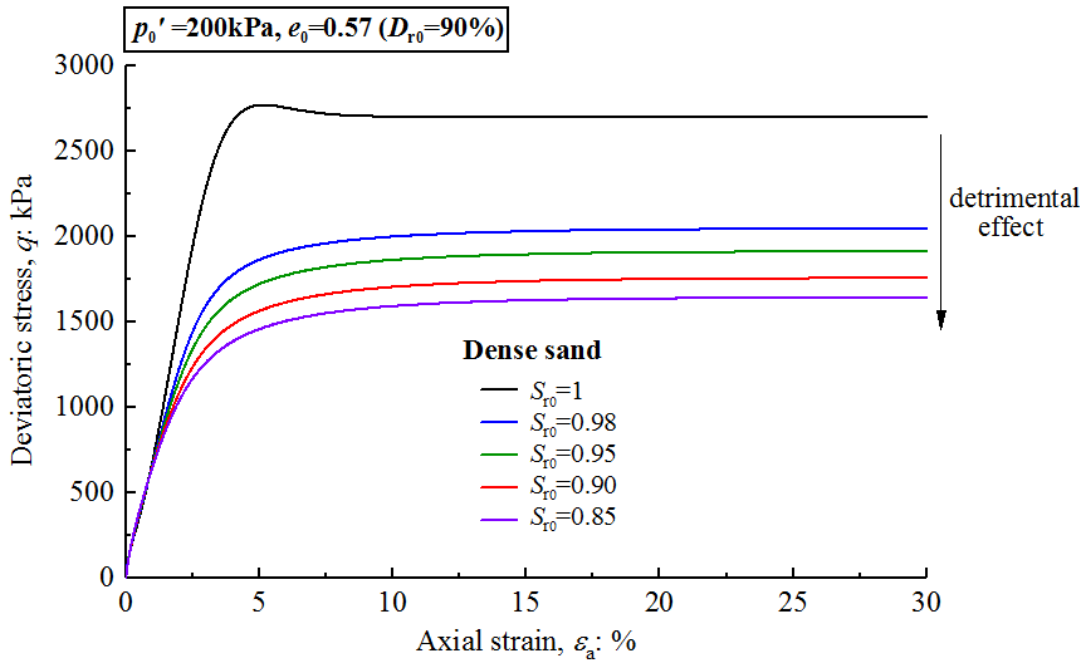


(c)

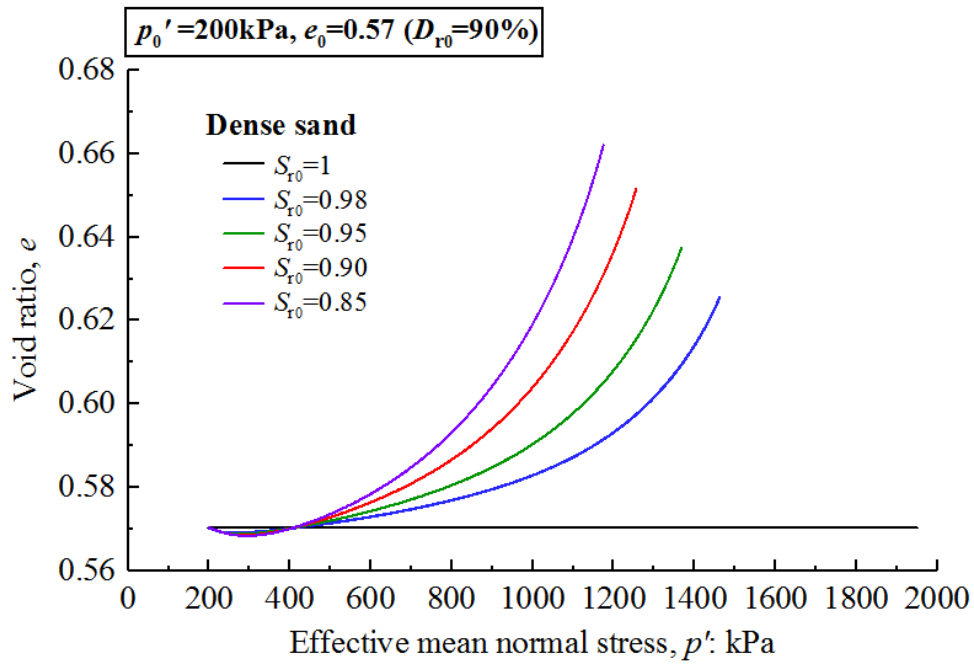
Fig. 11. ‘Beneficial’ effect of gas bubbles in undrained triaxial compression test for loose sand: (a) effective stress path; (b) stress-strain relationship; (c) change of void ratio



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 12. ‘Detrimental’ effect of gas bubbles in undrained triaxial compression test for dense sand: (a) effective stress path; (b) stress-strain relationship; (c) change of void ratio

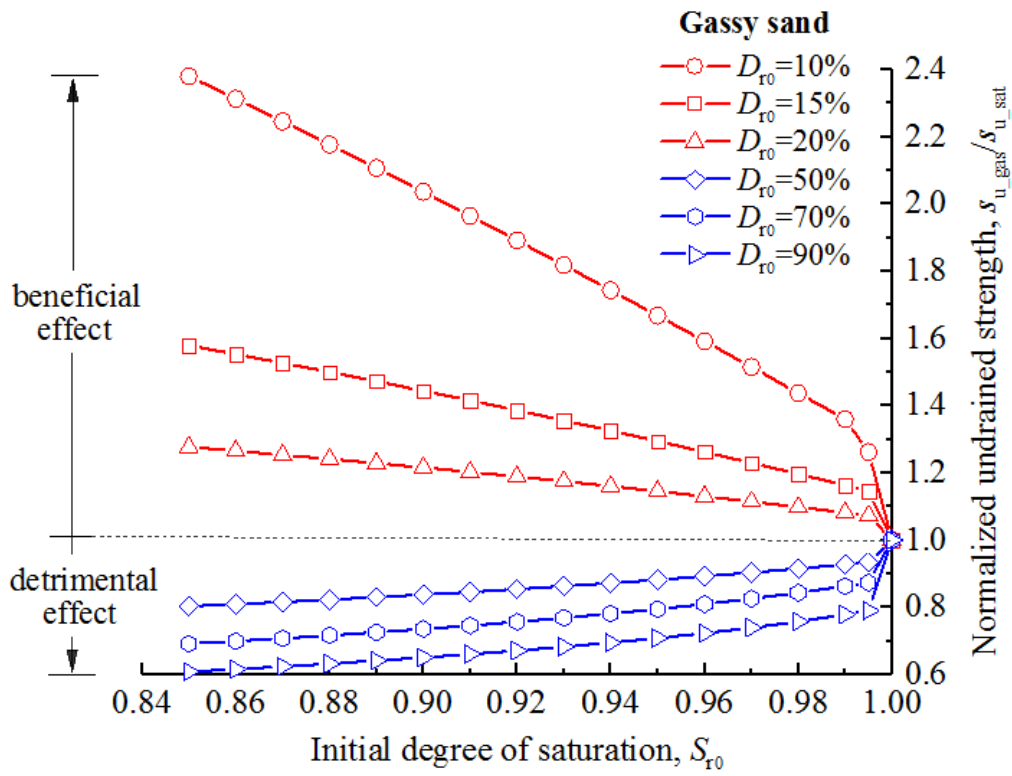


Fig. 13. The undrained shear strength (s_{u_gas}) of gassy sand with varying initial states and degrees of saturation

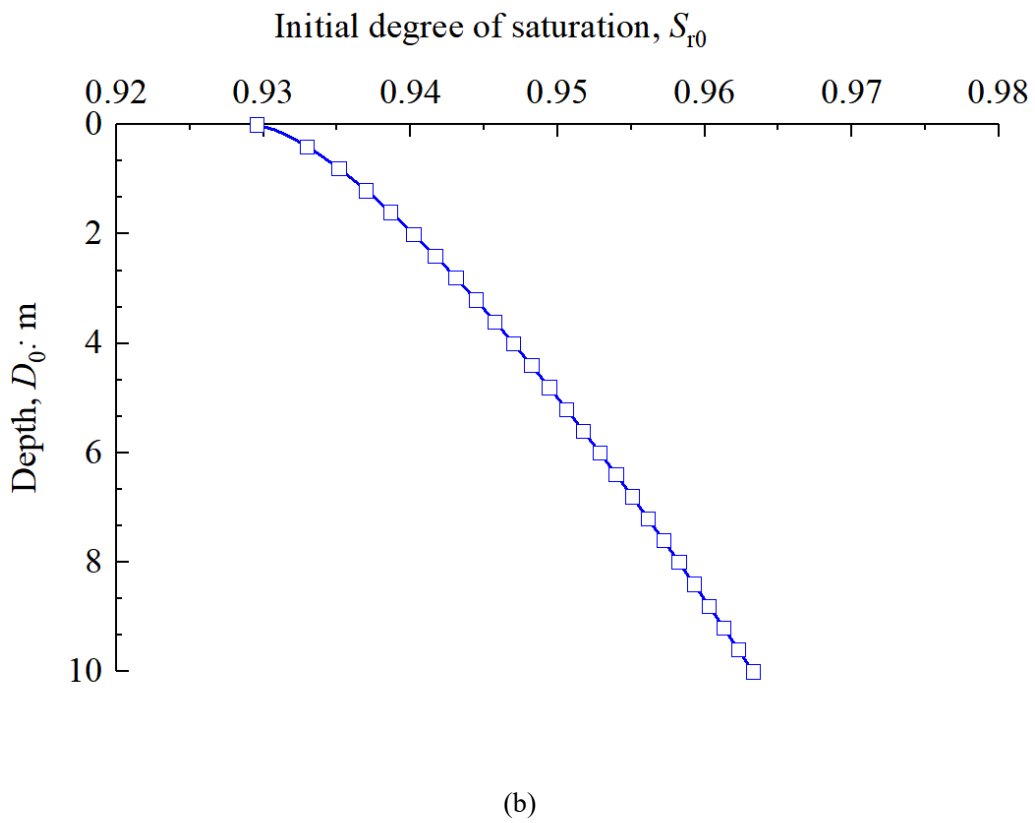
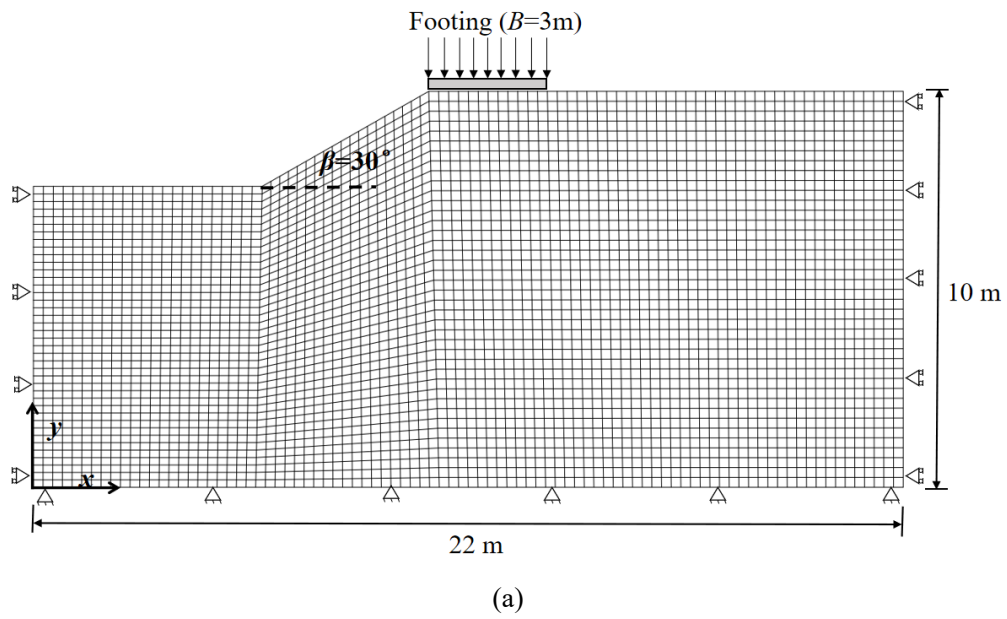
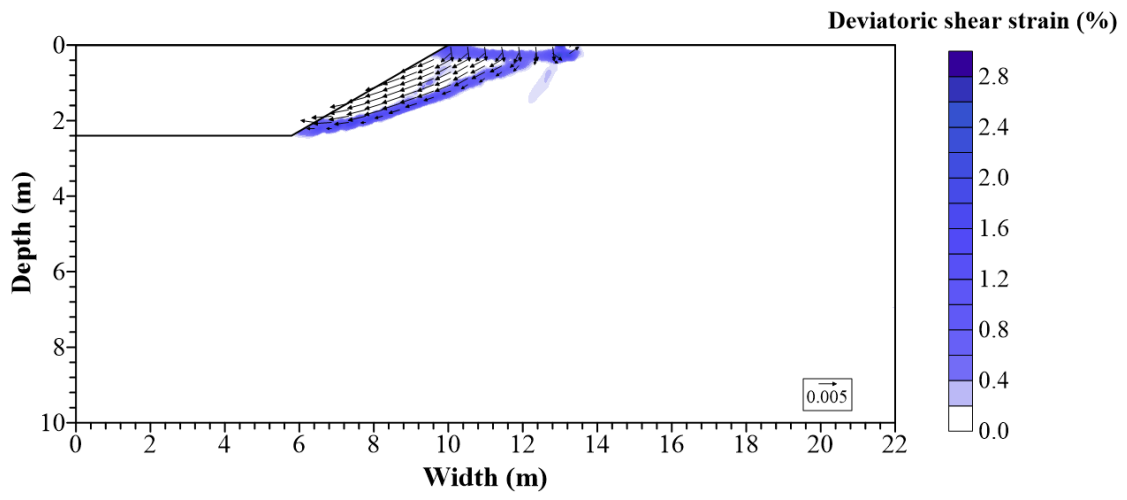
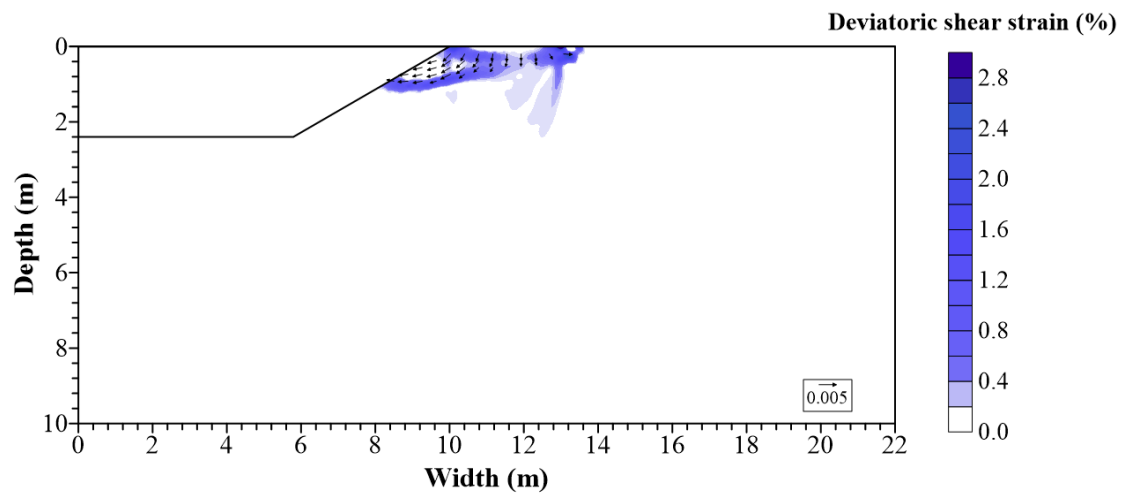


Fig. 14. (a) Finite element mesh and boundary conditions for a slope destabilized by surcharge at the crest; (b) Degree of saturation along the depth below the slope crest



(a)



(b)

Fig. 15. Contours of the shear strain and displacement vectors for loose sand: (a) Saturated sand; (b) Gassy sand

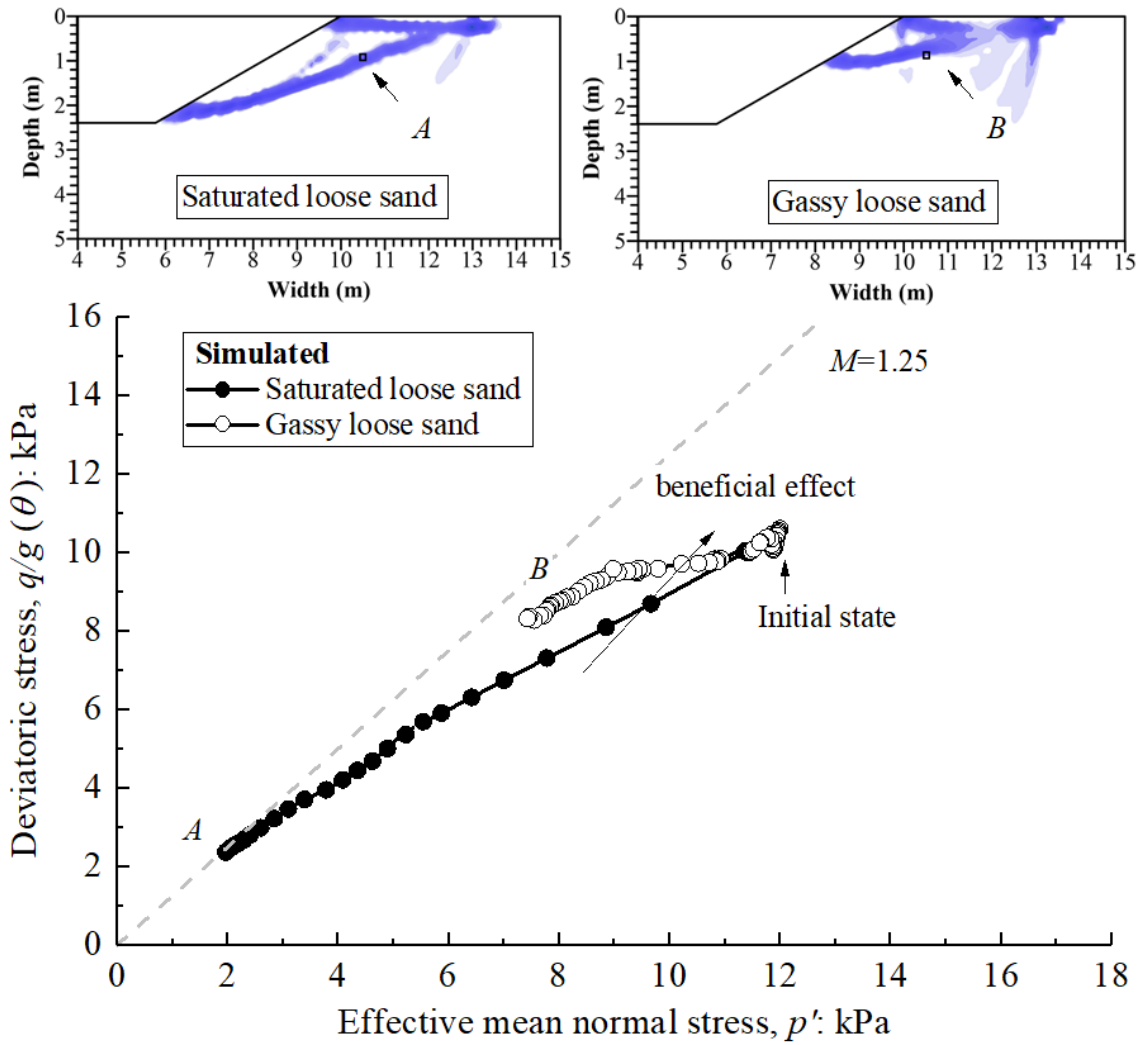
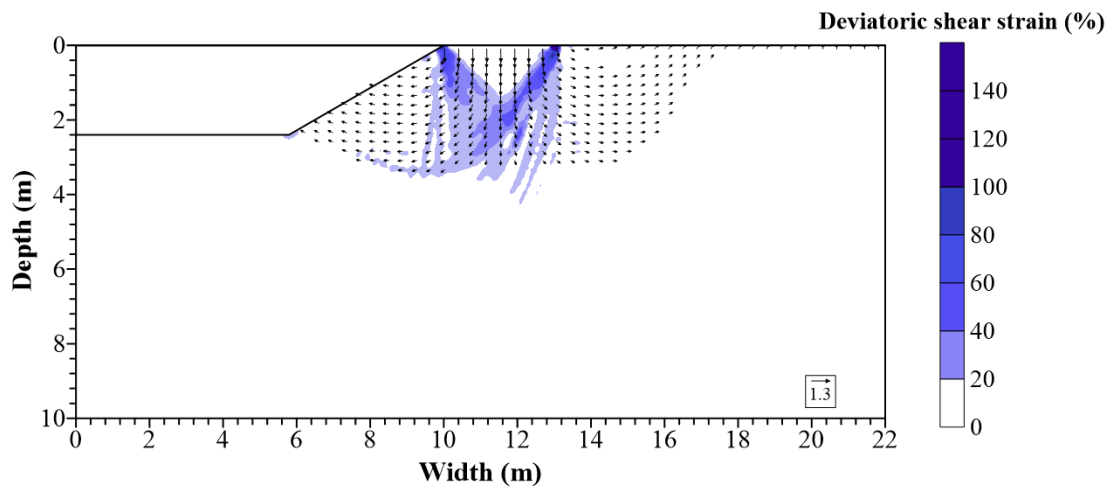
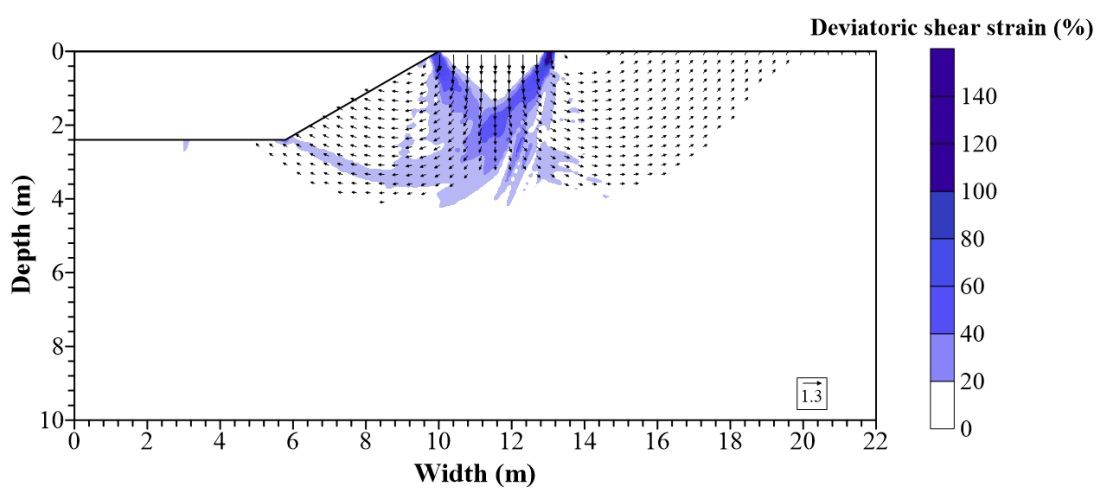


Fig. 16. Comparison of stress paths of saturated loose sand and gassy loose sand at a point in the shear zone



(a)



(b)

Fig. 17. Contours of the shear strain and displacement vectors for dense sand: (a) Saturated sand; (b) Gassy sand

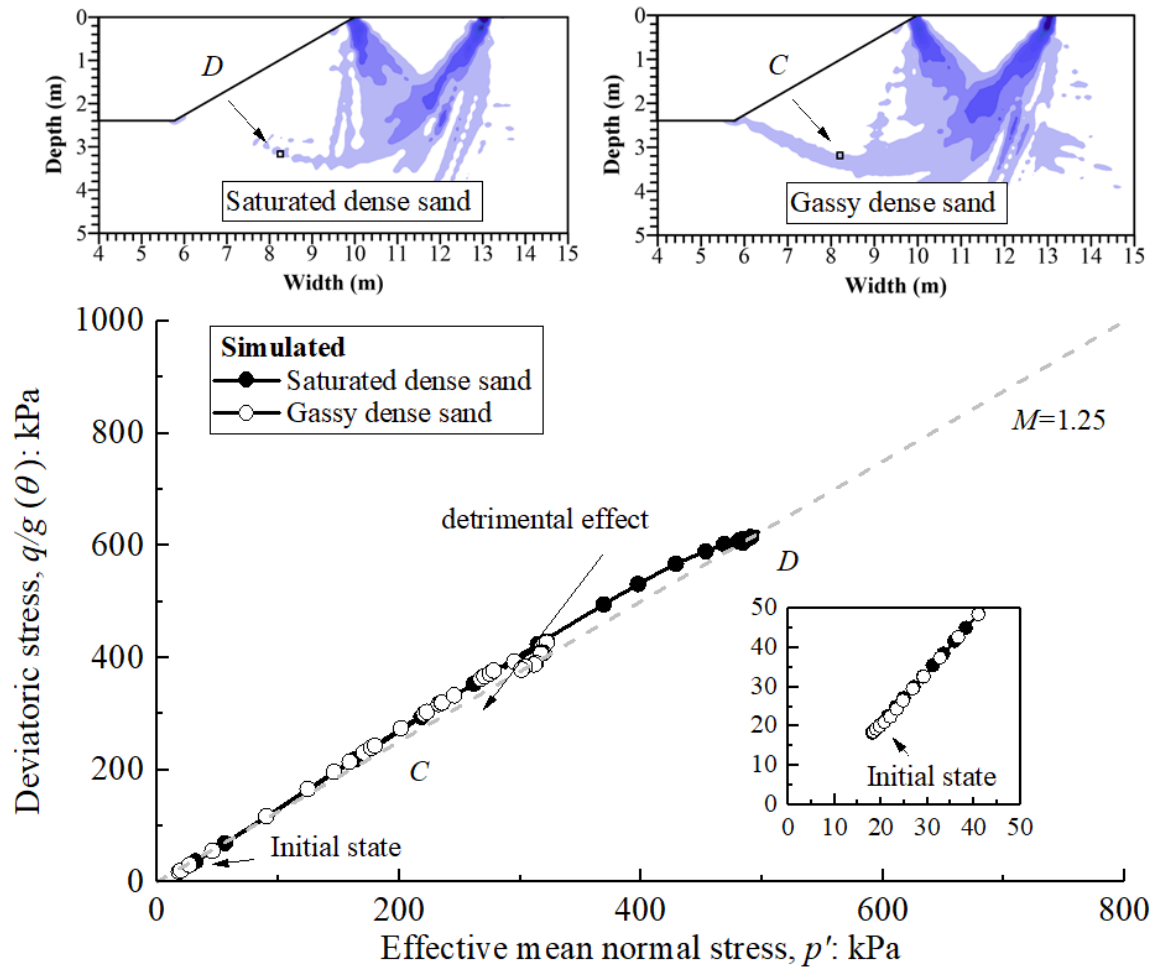


Fig. 18. Comparison of stress paths of saturated dense sand and gassy dense sand at a point in shear zone