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A DEM investigation of water bridged granular materials at the critical state

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Abstract

The critical state is an important concept for saturated and partially saturated granular materials as the strength and volume become constant and unique under continuous shear. By incorporating the water bridge effect, the mechanical behaviours of wet granular matters can be studied by the discrete element method (DEM). A series of DEM simulations are performed following the conventional triaxial loading path for dry and wet granular materials, and different suction values are applied at various confining stress levels. Unique critical state behaviours have been observed in both macroscopic and microscopic scales. It shows that the confining stress level plays an important role in the critical state behaviour of wet granular materials. The critical stress ratio for a wet material is not a constant value at different stress levels and it is found that both the critical stress ratio and void ratio in wet granular matters are also much higher with a low confining stress. A framework is proposed by considering both the contact stress and the capillary stress effects to model the critical state lines. At large strain, the coordination number, the mean inter-particle force and fabric anisotropies evolve to constant critical state values for both dry and wet materials. The macro parameters formulating the critical state stress ratio are found to be associated with the critical state anisotropies in solid skeleton and water phase fabrics respectively.

Keywords: wet granular material; critical state; micromechanics; discrete element modelling

1. Introduction

A granular material reaches the critical state as the shear strength and volume become stable when it is sheared to a relatively large deformation [27]. The critical state is independent of the initial void ratio and is generally regarded as a unique state. For partially saturated soils, the critical state also exists, and the critical state definition is used for modern constitutive modelling of unsaturated granular materials such soils [1, 13, 39, 40, 52].

34 Laboratory tests can be carried out to investigate the critical state of an unsaturated soil by maintaining
35 constant suctions in the sample [41, 42, 51]. In laboratory tests, the water content is usually in relative
36 high range due to the difficulty in applying higher suction. The critical state of unsaturated soils with
37 relatively low water content, in which the water exists as discontinuous water bridges or absorption
38 layers, have not been well understood. Moreover, in the recent development of soil mechanics, fabric
39 and microstructure are usually regarded as important factors governing the macro behaviours [19]. The
40 conventional laboratory tests may not provide the micro scale information.

41 The discrete element method (DEM) [8] is a discontinuous numerical method that can simulate granular
42 matter as individual particles, and thus the contact force network and fabric can be obtained from the
43 particle scale quantities. The DEM method can be employed to extend the classic experimental study
44 on the critical state of granular materials, for example sands [2, 3, 15], to microscopic investigations.
45 The micro characteristics of dry granular material at critical state are recently studied from aspects of
46 fabric anisotropy, force transmission pattern and entropy convergence [14, 18, 37, 53, 54]. For wet
47 granular materials, basic macroscopic features of the critical state behaviours have been observed in the
48 context of rheological study [4, 16, 29]. However, a more systematic study of micromechanics of wet
49 granular materials at the critical state, especially linking the macroscopic critical state behaviour to the
50 micro structure evolutions, is still necessary.

51 Techniques for modelling wet granular materials in DEM are raised and developed in the last decade.
52 The water phase and water-air interface effect are usually considered as water bridge effects between
53 neighbouring grains [12, 26, 32, 34, 35, 38, 49] providing it has a low degree of saturation within the
54 pendular state. Beyond the pendular state the water bridge may coalesce with each other [30, 46].
55 Although it is limited to low moisture content, simulations of these wet granular materials may still give
56 evidence for the behaviours of unsaturated granular soils within a relatively low degree of saturation
57 range, which is lack in laboratory studies.

58 In this study, a suction-controlled water bridge model [48] is employed to carry out a systematic study
59 on the critical state behaviour of granular materials. Conventional triaxial loading path is applied to
60 dense and loose specimens at different stress levels and various suctions. By decomposing the inter-
61 particle force into a mechanical force and a capillary force, the total stress is then expressed as the sum
62 of the mechanical contact stress and the capillary stress. The role of the contact stress in representing
63 the effective stress at critical state is discussed. A framework is then proposed using the mean contact
64 stress and the mean capillary stress to model the critical state stress ratio and void ratio. Based on the
65 stress-force-fabric relationship for wet granular material [48], the connection between the critical state
66 stress ratio and the internal fabrics of solid and water phases is investigated, mainly on the aspects of
67 coordination numbers, mean force levels and also fabric anisotropies in solid and water phases. It should
68 be noted that particle size distribution has a significant effect on the material hydraulic and strength

69 properties [45, 47], whereas this study only focuses on one kind of grain size distribution and we leave
 70 the grain size distribution effect for future work.

71 **2. DEM Simulation**

72 **2.1 Capillary bridge effect between particles**

73 In this study, wet granular material behaviours are simulated by DEM with capillary bridge effect
 74 considered between neighbouring particles. The inter-particle force is the sum of the mechanical contact
 75 force and the capillary force on the water bridge when grains are in physical contact. When there is a
 76 distance between two grains but within the water bridge rupture distance, the inter-particle interaction
 77 is only raised by the capillary force (Fig. 1). Beyond the rupture distance, the inter-particle force
 78 vanishes.

79 For the capillary effect, suction is assumed to be constantly maintained throughout the material. By
 80 Young-Laplace equation, the geometry of the water bridge has the following relationship with suction
 81 as:

$$82 \quad S = u_a - u_w = T \left(\frac{1}{r_{ext}} - \frac{1}{r_{int}} \right) \quad (1)$$

83 where S is the matric suction, u_a is the air pressure, u_w is the water pressure, T is the surface tension
 84 ($T = 0.073N/m$) and r_{ext} and r_{int} are external and internal radius of the water bridge at the water
 85 bridge neck. In this study, the water bridge is simplified as toroidal shape (external radius is constant
 86 along the water bridge and the cross section is a circle). For a given pair of particles with known
 87 geometry (particle radius and inter-particle distance), suction (S), surface tension (T) and water-solid-
 88 air contact angle (θ), the shape of the water bridge (r_{ext} and r_{int}) can be obtained by an iteration method
 89 (more details can be seen in the previous work in [48]). The material is assumed to be hydrophilic and
 90 the water-solid-air contact angle is simplified as 0. With the obtained r_{ext} and r_{int} , the capillary force
 91 raised by the water bridge can be calculated by using the ‘gorge method’. It is composed of two parts.
 92 One part is from the surface tension effect and another part is from the pressure difference (the suction)
 93 acting on the cross section of the bridge. Therefore, the capillary force can be calculated as:

$$94 \quad f_{cap} = S\pi r_{int}^2 + T(2\pi r_{int}) \quad (2)$$

95 The water bridge volume can be obtained from the integration of the water bridge profile with the part
 96 of the grain subtracted. The water bridge model is incorporated into the classical Hertz-Mindlin contact
 97 model in DEM simulations. In this study, the open source DEM platform LIGGGHTS [17] is employed
 98 for its easier access to the source code and applicability on high-performance computing service.

99 2.2 Sample preparation and water retention curve

100 The behaviours of dry and wet granular materials are investigated by a representative volume element
101 (RVE). The tested samples are made of spherical particles with a cubic shape upon generation confined
102 by smooth rigid wall boundaries. Particle diameters are uniformly distributed from 0.018mm to
103 0.022mm and the initial length of the RVE is 0.4mm (20 times of mean grain size and the total grain
104 number is around 9000). The contact model for the solid contacts is the typical Hertz model. The
105 material property parameters of the particles are based on the typical quartz material. The material
106 density of grains is 2500 kg/m³. Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio of the particles are 70GPa and
107 0.25 respectively. The inter-particle friction coefficient is 0.5, which is a typical value for quartz sand.
108 The coefficient of restitution, which is defined as the ratio of the final to initial relative velocity between
109 two particles after a collision, is 0.2. Therefore, the coefficient of restitution is a parameter governing
110 the energy dissipation process in the system.

111 The specimens are prepared by using the radius expansion method without capillary effect. Particles
112 with reduced sizes are firstly inserted without any contact in the cubic mould. Then, radii of the particles
113 are increased gradually to the target size. Two samples with different initial void ratio values ($e=0.629$
114 and $e=0.732$) are firstly prepared at 10kPa confinement. The two samples are then compressed
115 isotropically to different mean stress levels. The isotropic normal consolidation lines (noted as INCL)
116 of these two specimens can be seen in Fig. 2 (in lines) where p is the mean normal stress as:

$$117 \qquad p = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3}{3} \qquad (3)$$

118 The wet specimens are prepared based on the dry materials at the corresponding mean normal stress
119 levels (at 10kPa, 20kPa, 50kPa, 100kPa, 200kPa, 500kPa, 1MPa, 2Mpa and 10MPa). Capillary bridge
120 effect is applied to particle pairs within the rupture criteria. As the capillary force is an attractive force,
121 the material is further consolidated by maintaining the total boundary stress. The wet specimens at $S =$
122 $20kPa$ are also presented in Fig. 2 (in symbols). It can be seen that the wetting process doesn't have an
123 obvious effect on the void ratio.

124 By summing the water bridge volume and dividing by the void volume, degree of saturation of a
125 specimen at a certain suction value can be calculated. The relationship between the degree of saturation
126 (S_r) and suction is generally named as the water retention curve. Fig. 3 depicts the void ratio and mean
127 normal stress effect on the water retention curve within the pendular state (the water bridge model is
128 not valid for higher water content conditions). Under 10kPa mean stress, the dense sample has a higher
129 degree of saturation at the same suction. It can also be observed that increasing the mean normal stress
130 to 2MPa does not obviously alter the water retention behaviour.

2.3 Triaxial shearing to the critical state

After the preparation of isotropic specimens, conventional triaxial loading path is applied to shear the samples to the critical state. The horizontal confining stresses ($\sigma_2 = \sigma_3$) are maintained at a constant value and the axial strain (ε_1) is applied by moving the boundaries in the axial direction. Fig. 4 is a sketch of the loading path in which the deviatoric stress is:

$$q = \sigma_1 - \sigma_3 \quad (4)$$

The triaxial deformation satisfies the quasi-static condition. The quantity of unbalanced force ratio, which is the ratio between average unbalanced force on grains and mean interparticle forces, is adopted to certify the quasi-static condition. During the triaxial test, the unbalanced force ratio is controlled to be less than 0.01 by adjusting the axial strain rate.

The critical state means that the shear strength and void ratio are constant when the material is sheared to a certain deformation and the final shear strength and void ratio are independent of the material initial state. Typical behaviours of dry and wet materials (at 20kPa suction) with 10kPa confining stress in triaxial loading are presented as an example. In Fig. 5, the evolution of the total deviatoric stress (q), deviatoric and mean stresses in mechanical contact stress component (q_{cont} and p_{cont}), volumetric strain (ε_v), void ratio (e) and degree of saturation (S_r) of the dense and loose samples are depicted. All the variables become nearly constant when the samples are sheared to 0.4 strain. It should also be noted that it has also been observed by other authors that the granular material reaches the critical state around 0.4 axial strain by DEM simulation [53]. In Fig. 5a, the capillary effect significantly increases the material deviatoric stress. For both dry and wet materials, there is a unique ultimate deviatoric stress regardless the initial void ratio difference. For the volumetric strain behaviour in Fig. 5b, the capillary effect significantly enlarges the dilatancy which leads the ultimate volumetric strain of wet materials to be much higher. Correspondingly, the void ratio evolution during triaxial shearing is presented in Fig. 5c. Both dry and wet materials reach a unique void ratio. As the capillary force is cohesive that a wet granular material can afford larger voids upon loading, the critical state void ratio for wet granular materials at 10kPa confining stress is obviously larger. Furthermore, although the initial degree of saturation is different for dense and loose specimens, it is observed that there should be a same critical state degree of saturation (Fig. 5d), which could be related to the critical state void ratio.

Similar triaxial tests are then implemented on both dense and loose specimens at various confining stresses and suctions. Table 1 is a summary of the parameters for the triaxial tests carried out in this study. For each pair of suction and confining stress, both the loose and dense specimens prepared from the normal consolidation process in Fig. 2 are tested. All samples are sheared to 0.4 axial strain and the final stage is regarded as the critical state. The critical state values on both the macro and micro

164 behaviours (taking the average value of the dense and loose samples) can then be employed for further
 165 investigations in the following sections.

166 3. The Critical State Behaviour

167 3.1 Contact stress and effective stress

168 In classic critical state soil mechanics [31], formulating the critical state line (CSL) requires descriptions
 169 of the deviatoric stress and void ratio by the mean stress (or mean effective stress). For dry (or fully
 170 saturated) granular materials, critical state deviatoric stress can be expressed as:

$$171 \quad q = Mp' \quad (5)$$

172 where p' is the effective mean stress and M is the critical state stress ratio (slope of CSL in $p - q$ space).
 173 According to Li et al. [20], for granular materials, the specific volume, as $v = 1 + e$ (e is the void ratio),
 174 has the following relationship with mean effective stress:

$$175 \quad v = 1 + e = \Gamma - \lambda \left(\frac{p'}{p_a} \right)^\xi \quad (6)$$

176 where Γ is a parameter denoting v at $p' = 0$, λ and ξ are material parameters and p_a is the atmosphere
 177 pressure (101kpa).

178 The effective stress for unsaturated granular materials is still a controversial definition. The net stress
 179 ($\sigma - u_a$) and suction ($u_a - u_w$) are widely accepted as the two variables that should be used in the
 180 effective stress definition. The classic Bishop's effective stress [5] is expressed as:

$$181 \quad \sigma'_{ij} = (\sigma_{ij} - u_a) + \chi (u_a - u_w) \delta_{ij} \quad (7)$$

182 where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta and χ is a parameter related with the degree of saturation. After Lu's
 183 suction stress definition [22], the χ parameter may be approximated as the degree of saturation or the
 184 effective degree of saturation. In this numerical study, as the absorption layers are not considered, the
 185 macroscopic effective stress may be expressed as:

$$186 \quad \sigma'_{ij} = (\sigma_{ij} - u_a) + S_r (u_a - u_w) \delta_{ij} \quad (8)$$

187 One of the benefits to study unsaturated granular materials using DEM method is the possibility to
 188 obtain the microscopic stress expression from grain scale interactions. With capillary bridge effects, the
 189 inter-particle force is composed of the mechanical contact force and the capillary force. Thus, the total
 190 stress tensor can be decomposed into a contact stress tensor (σ_{ij}^{cont}) counting only the mechanical
 191 contact force and a capillary stress tensor (σ_{ij}^{cap}) raised from capillary forces [33, 48]. With the aid of

192 DEM simulation, by applying the homogenisation technique [7] and following the expressions in [33,
193 48], the stress tensor can be calculated from particle scale interactions as:

$$194 \quad \sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ij}^{\text{cont}} + \sigma_{ij}^{\text{cap}} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{s \in V} v_{\text{cont}_i}^s f_{\text{cont}_j}^s + \frac{1}{V} \sum_{w \in V} v_{\text{cap}_i}^w f_{\text{cap}_j}^w \quad (9)$$

195 where s and w denote the s -th inter-particle solid contact and the w -th water-particle interaction
196 respectively (the total number is not necessarily the same). $v_{\text{cont}_i}^s$ is the contact vector pointing from
197 the s -th contact point to the particle centre and $v_{\text{cap}_i}^w$ is a vector from the water bridge centre to the
198 particle centre. $f_{\text{cont}_i}^s$ and $f_{\text{cap}_i}^w$ are the corresponding contact force and capillary force associated with
199 the defined vectors. The positive direction of a force is defined from the interaction point to the particle;
200 therefore, the attractive capillary force is a negative force leading the capillary stress tensor always to
201 be negative. It should also be noted that the frictional force is part of the contact force. Therefore, the
202 contact force is not necessarily to be normal to the particle.

203 The micromechanical stress tensors are usually employed in the study of granular material behaviours
204 in both dry and partially saturated states. Some researchers attempted to describe the shear strength
205 criteria of wet granular materials by using the contact stress tensor [10, 32, 43]. However, it has also
206 been argued by some authors that using the contact stress is not adequate to model the material
207 deformation [6, 11]. Here, the authors verified this again at the critical state by using the contact stress
208 tensor to formulate the deviatoric stress and void ratio.

209 Firstly, the critical state deviatoric stress is investigated at different mean stress levels. Fig. 6a shows
210 the relationship between the critical state deviatoric stress and the mean stress at various suctions. For
211 a clearer presentation, only low stress states ($p < 150kPa$) are plotted. It can be seen that for the dry
212 granular matter there is a linear $p - q$ relationship as Eq. 5. For unsaturated materials, due to the
213 capillary effect, the critical state deviatoric stress is higher than that of the dry material. In Fig. 6b, the
214 $p' - q$ relationship is presented, where p' is the mean effective stress and $q = q'$ as the suction induced
215 stress is assumed to be isotropic in Eq. 8. However, as it can be seen in Fig. 6b, by using the effective
216 stress definition in Eq. 8, the points don't fall in the same line. This is because of, in reality, when the
217 water content is relatively low, the suction induced stress may not be isotropic. It can also be seen in
218 Fig. 6c in which the critical state deviatoric stress is plotted in the $p_{\text{cont}} - q$ space ($p_{\text{cont}} =$
219 $\frac{\sigma_1^{\text{cont}} + \sigma_2^{\text{cont}} + \sigma_3^{\text{cont}}}{3}$). Using p_{cont} as the effective stress will also overestimate the deviatoric stress for wet
220 materials as the CSL is almost above the simulated data points. This is because the capillary stress has
221 been proven to be an anisotropic stress tensor associated with the solid structure anisotropy [32, 48, 50].
222 In Fig. 6d, the relationship between contact deviatoric stress $q_{\text{cont}} = \sigma_1^{\text{cont}} - \sigma_3^{\text{cont}}$ and mean contact
223 stress p_{cont} is investigated. It looks like that the $p_{\text{cont}} - q_{\text{cont}}$ relationship for various suctions nearly
224 fall in a linear line, which is also the conclusion drawn in [10, 32, 43] for the $p_{\text{cont}} - q_{\text{cont}}$ relationship

225 but at the peak strength. The coefficient of determination (R^2 value) also proves that in the $p_{cont} -$
 226 q_{cont} space the united critical state line has the best fitness.

227 We may further investigate the critical state void ratio to validate if the contact stress can be adequately
 228 used as the effective stress in deformation. The relationship between critical state void ratio and p_{cont}
 229 is demonstrated in Fig. 7. For the dry material, the $p - e$ relationship can be fitted by Eq. 6, in which ξ
 230 is simplified as 1, $\Gamma = 1.755$ and $\lambda = 9.89 \times 10^{-5}$. Due to the higher dilatancy in wet granular media,
 231 the critical state void ratio is obviously higher than that of the dry material, especially when the mean
 232 contact stress is relatively low. This indicates that using the contact stress tensor as the ‘effective stress’
 233 is not enough, especially for modelling low stress conditions. A more complex relationship for the CSL
 234 is required that involves both the capillary stress and the contact stress.

235 **3.2 Critical state formulation**

236 Besides using an effective stress definition to model the critical state behaviour for unsaturated soils,
 237 based on laboratory experiments, Toll [40–42] proposed a framework for the unsaturated soil critical
 238 state using two stress state variables: the mean net stress ($p - u_a$) and suction ($u_a - u_w$). It can
 239 overcome the difficulty in modelling stress ratio and void ratio. In this framework, the deviatoric stress
 240 at the critical state is modelled as:

$$241 \quad q = M_a (p - u_a) + M_b (u_a - u_w) \quad (10)$$

242 where the parameter M_a denotes the contribution of the mean net stress on the stress ratio and the
 243 parameter M_b represents the effect of suction on total stress ratio. Similarly, the specific volume (and
 244 void ratio) at critical state is written as:

$$245 \quad v = e + 1 = \Gamma_a - \lambda_a \ln(p - u_a) - \lambda_b \ln(u_a - u_w) \quad (11)$$

246 where Γ_a represents the specific volume when both $p - u_a$ and $u_a - u_w$ are 1kPa and λ_a and λ_b are
 247 parameters associated with effect of $p - u_a$ and $u_a - u_w$ respectively.

248 In laboratory experiments, only the macro state variables ($p - u_a$ and $u_a - u_w$) can be measured. By
 249 using DEM, the stress tensor of a wet granular material can be expressed as Eq. 9. Thus, the contact
 250 stress (p_{cont}), which is the physical mechanical stress transmitting through solid contacts, and the
 251 capillary stress raised by water meniscus can be used to model the critical state framework. The capillary
 252 stress can also be expressed by contact stress and total stress as: $p_{cap} = p - p_{cont}$. Similar to Eq. 10,
 253 the deviatoric stress could be modelled as:

$$254 \quad q = M_s p_{cont} + M_w (p - p_{cont}) \quad (12)$$

255 where M_s and M_w are model parameters representing the stress ratio contributed by the mean contact
 256 stress and mean capillary stress respectively. Thus the critical state stress ratio is:

$$257 \quad M = \frac{q}{p} = M_s \frac{p_{cont}}{p} + M_w \frac{p - p_{cont}}{p} \quad (13)$$

258 It can be seen that when it is absolutely dry or fully saturated, $p = p_{cont}$, then $M = q/p = M_s$.
 259 Moreover, when the mean stress is relatively high, the effect from the capillary stress is also smaller to
 260 the total stress ratio. In addition to the soil mechanics point of view, Roy et al. [29] proposed another
 261 relationship between cohesion effect and critical state stress ratio based on the definition of bond

262 number of the specimen, expressed as $Bo = \frac{f_{cap}^{max}}{\bar{d}^2}$, in which f_{cap}^{max} is the maximum capillary in the

263 specimen and \bar{d} is the mean grain diameter. In their study, bond number has a linear relationship with
 264 critical state stress ratio. Similarly, we plot the relationship between bond number and critical state
 265 stress ratio in Fig. 9. The linear relationship is consistent with the previous study and the relationship
 266 can be fitted as:

$$267 \quad M = \alpha_w Bo + M_s \quad (14)$$

268 where M_s is the critical state stress ratio for dry granular materials and α_w is the slope the linear
 269 relationship which is related to suction.

270 For the void ratio at the critical state, the formula can be extended from Eq. 6. It has been observed by
 271 [36] by using DEM method that there is a linear relationship between solid fraction ($\frac{1}{1+e}$) and mean
 272 pressure for cohesionless granular materials at the critical state. Therefore, $\xi = 1$ is taken in this study
 273 to represent the linear relationship between pressure and void ratio. In Fig. 7, critical state void ratio for
 274 wet granular materials is higher than that of the dry material, however, when the mean stress level is
 275 higher, the difference is reduced. Therefore, we propose the following equation to model the specific
 276 volume.

$$277 \quad v = e + 1 = \Gamma_s - \lambda_s \left(\frac{p_{cont}}{p_a} \right) - \lambda_w \left(\frac{p - p_{cont}}{p} \right) \quad (15)$$

278 where Γ_s is the specific volume of a dry material when $p = 0kPa$, p_a is the atmosphere pressure as
 279 101kPa, λ_s and λ_w are material parameters. In this equation, the capillary stress effect is presented by
 280 $\frac{p - p_{cont}}{p}$ in which the effect of p is considered. This means that when the mean stress is very large, the
 281 effect of the capillary stress on void ratio becomes less significant. The suction/capillary cohesion
 282 increased the critical state void ratio in Fig. 7 and Fig. 10, especially for low stress conditions. This is
 283 consistent with the work done by Roy et al. [29], in which the volume fraction (void ratio) is increased

284 with bond number (a relative measurement of cohesive effect), although the shape of the sheared
285 specimen is different. This is because the cohesive force between particles leads to particle granulation,
286 which can support larger inter-particle space especially in the sheared zones.

287 **3.3 Critical state lines and parameters**

288 Based on the proposed critical state framework based on the view of soil mechanics, the critical state
289 lines on stress ratio, deviatoric stress and void ratio are investigated at various suction values. In Fig. 8,
290 the critical state lines are depicted in the $p - M$ space and the $p - q$ space respectively. In the $p - M$
291 space, the dry material critical state stress ratio is around 0.73 and it is not obviously affected by mean
292 stress. The value is consistent with the result in another DEM simulation [37] in which the inter-particle
293 friction coefficient is also 0.5. However, the critical state stress ratios for wet granular materials are not
294 constant values in different mean stress levels, they are higher than the dry material value at low stress
295 conditions due to the capillary effect. The capillary effect on stress ratio decreases with the increase of
296 mean stress level. This is because of that the capillary effect is almost independent of the mean stress
297 level and the contribution of capillary stress on stress ratio is more significant at relatively low stress
298 conditions. At high stress levels all critical state stress ratio values of wet materials converge to the dry
299 material critical state stress ratio value. The results of the proposed critical state framework (Eq. 13) are
300 plotted in lines. At high stress levels, the stress ratio is mainly contributed by the contact stress tensor
301 and the total stress ratio values are similar. Considering the above fact, the parameter M_s for the dry
302 material as 0.73 is used for all dry and wet materials. The parameter M_w represents the effect of
303 capillary stress and is fitted for different suctions. The $p - q$ space critical state lines are presented in
304 Fig. 8b. As the mean capillary stress is almost constant for different mean total stress levels, the critical
305 state lines in high stress range are almost the same. A clearer presentation of the capillary effect on
306 critical state shear strength can be seen in the inset in which the mean stress is lower than 100kPa. This
307 also indicates that the water effect on strength is more important for low mean stress conditions.

308 Similarly, the critical state lines in the $p - e$ space are then presented in Fig. 10. The results of Eq. 15
309 are in solid lines with points as the measured values. The parameters of Γ_s and λ_s are taken from the
310 dry material results and not altered by suction. The parameter λ_w is fitted for different suctions. As $S =$
311 $5MPa$ presents a condition that the material has a very low degree of saturation ($S_r < 0.001\%$), this
312 indicates that a small amount of water will increase the material's dilatancy and void ratio at the critical
313 state significantly in the low mean stress state. However, further change in suction (thus water content)
314 does not alter the void ratio obviously. It also shows that with the increase of mean stress level, the
315 discrepancies in critical state void ratio between the dry and wet materials are reduced. The $p - e$ lines
316 for wet materials converge to the dry state line at high stress.

317 Fig. 8 and Fig. 10 only present part of the simulated results to have more explicit plots. Table 2 gives a
318 summary of critical state parameters of all simulations in Table 1. As introduced in Fig. 5d, when the

319 unsaturated material reached the critical state, there is a unique degree of saturation. The relationship
 320 between critical state stress ratio parameters and degree of saturation from the DEM simulation results
 321 are demonstrated in Fig. 11a. In the dry state, we define that $M_s = M_w = 0.73$. Although M_w has no
 322 true meaning at the dry state, this is to imply that when the water content is extremely low, the water
 323 bridges should share the same directional distribution with the inter-particle contacts. With a very small
 324 amount of water added in the material, M_w reduces significantly to around 0.2 and further increase of
 325 degree of saturation from 4% to 10% has little influence on M_w . In this study, the water bridge model
 326 is only valid within the pendular state. With the recent developments of other numerical method, such
 327 as coupling granular matter with the Lattice Boltzmann method in [9, 25], the capillary stress and thus
 328 the contact stress can be calculated. Using contact stress to model the critical state can be expected to
 329 be applied to the funicular and capillary states in the near future. Beyond the pendular state, we may
 330 imagine that the water bridges start coalesced and the capillary effect will be gradually reduced. When
 331 it is fully saturated, $u_a - u_w = 0$ and $p_{cap} = 0$. In Eq. 12, the capillary stress is related to suction.
 332 Therefore, one possible trend of M_w is that it increases in the funicular state and reaches to value of M_s
 333 at fully saturation. Another possibility is that M_w converges to 0 at saturation (Fig. 11b). This is from
 334 the implication that the capillary stress tensor could become a rather isotropic tensor with a high water
 335 content. This will be investigated in the next section. Moreover, the relationship between degree of
 336 saturation and parameter λ_w is presented in Fig. 12. It can be seen that λ_w varies around 0.04 and the
 337 water content effect on λ_w is not obvious.

338 **4. Micro-characteristics at the Critical State**

339 **4.1 General relationship between stress state and microstructures**

340 After the pioneering work of [21, 28], the stress tensor of a granular material is intrinsically related to
 341 its fabric and mean interparticle force, which is known by the stress-force-fabric relationship. The
 342 statistical micro interpretation of stress of wet granular materials can also be seen in [24] based on two
 343 dimensional simulations in which the repulsive contact force and attractive capillary force were
 344 integrated together as ‘bond forces’. In their work, the critical stress ratio can be expressed as the
 345 anisotropies of different micro-scale based quantities. In addition to this earlier work, a stress-force-
 346 fabric relationship for wet granular materials was developed by our previous work [48] to have an
 347 explicit understanding of the connection between the macro stress and the micro fabrics and forces
 348 associated with the contact stress and capillary stress respectively. It should be noted here that the
 349 capillary force does not necessarily act on a physical inter-particle contact, as the capillary bridge can
 350 be formed between neighbouring particles with a small gap less than the water bridge rupture distance.
 351 In this case, the capillary stress effect may be less anisotropic upon loading than that of the contact
 352 stress and it is necessary to study the stress tensors separately.

353 In our interpretation, for a representative elementary volume V with N particles inside, the total stress
 354 tensor, as a sum of the contact stress tensor and the capillary stress tensor, can be approximated by its
 355 internal fabrics and forces as:

$$356 \quad \sigma_{ij} \approx \frac{N\bar{R}}{3V} \omega_s f_{cont0} (\delta_{ij} + G_{ij}^{sf} + \frac{2}{5} D_{ij}^s + \frac{2}{5} D_{im}^s G_{jm}^{sf}) + \frac{N\bar{R}}{3V} \omega_w f_{cap0} (\delta_{ij} + \frac{2}{5} D_{ij}^w) \quad (16)$$

357 where \bar{R} is the mean particle radius, ω_s is the solid contact coordination number (average physical
 358 contacts per particle), ω_w is the water bridge coordination number (average solid-water interactions per
 359 particle, normally $\omega_w \neq \omega_s$), f_{cont0} and f_{cap0} are parameters quantifying the directional mean contact
 360 and capillary forces respectively. The tensors in the equation, D_{ij}^s , D_{ij}^w and G_{ij}^{sf} , are obtained from the
 361 directional distributions of solid contact normals, water bridge directions and solid contact forces
 362 respectively. More details about this relationship can be referred to [48] and a reintroduction about
 363 procedures to calculate the three direction tensors can also be seen in the appendix after this paper.

364 The evolutions of the micro parameters during the triaxial shearing are then studied. The evolutions of
 365 the micro parameters for the set of tests in Fig. 5 (dry and wet granular materials are sheared at 10kPa
 366 confining stress) are presented as examples in Fig. 13. The evolutions of coordination numbers of solid
 367 contacts and water-solid interactions (ω_s and ω_w) for the dry and wet granular materials ($S = 20kPa$)
 368 are depicted. In Fig. 13a, the solid contact coordination numbers are higher in the wet granular material
 369 due to the attractive capillary force. Independent to the initial number, by shearing the material to large
 370 deformation, there are unique critical state solid coordination numbers for dry and wet materials
 371 respectively. In wet granular materials, the water bridge coordination number is higher than the solid
 372 contact coordination number (Fig. 13b). This is because that a water bridge may exist between two
 373 neighbouring particles without a physical contact. With axial deformation, the water bridge
 374 coordination numbers for the loose and dense specimens also evolve to the same value, corresponding
 375 to the critical state degree of saturation.

376 Similarly, the directional mean contact and capillary force evolutions in the same set of triaxial tests are
 377 demonstrated in Fig. 14. In the wet material, the mean contact force is larger than that of the dry material
 378 due to the water bridge effect (Fig. 14a). The maximum contact force in the dense material is higher
 379 than that of the loose specimen. By shearing to 40% axial strain, the ultimate mean contact forces are
 380 stable and have unique values for dry and wet materials respectively. Fig. 14b also indicates that at
 381 critical state the mean capillary forces become the same for both dense and loose samples.

382 In Eq. 16, the scalars determining the mean stress level, and the direction tensors, which quantify the
 383 solid contact fabric, solid contact force network and water bridge fabric respectively, ascertain the
 384 magnitude of stress deviator. The evolutions of the anisotropy of these tensors are then presented in Fig.
 385 15. In Fig. 15a, the solid contact fabric becomes anisotropic upon loading from the initial isotropic state.

386 The maximum solid fabric anisotropy is higher in the dense material, but the ultimate fabric anisotropy
387 is the same for materials with different initial void ratios. For the wet materials with a constant suction,
388 the induced solid phase fabric anisotropy ($D_1^s - D_3^s$) is lower than that of the dry material. There is also
389 a unique fabric anisotropy at the critical state. In Fig. 15b, regarding the solid contact force anisotropy
390 ($G_1^{sf} - G_3^{sf}$), the initial void ratio influences its maximum value but the ultimate value is also the same.
391 It also indicates that the capillary effect has little influence on the contact force anisotropy evolution.
392 However, this doesn't mean that the cohesive capillary force has no influence on the force transmission
393 pattern. As [44] already introduced that the capillary bridges increased the possibility of weak
394 interparticle contact forces. These forces didn't change the contact force anisotropy index, which is
395 based on a tensorial form calculation. In Fig. 15c, the anisotropy of the joint tensor term is obviously
396 altered by capillary bridge. Although the water bridge distribution is not the same as the solid contact
397 distribution, it is indeed affected by the solid structure and become anisotropic upon triaxial loading
398 (Fig. 15d). The water phase anisotropy ($D_1^w - D_3^w$) evolution in Fig. 15d also shows that there may also
399 be a critical state value for each suction.

400 4.2 Critical state stress ratio and fabric anisotropies

401 After the stress-force-fabric relationship in Eq. 16, the mean stress, sum of the mean contact stress and
402 the mean capillary stress, can be formulated by the scalar micro parameters as:

$$403 \quad p = p_{\text{cont}} + p_{\text{cap}} \approx \frac{\overline{\text{NR}}}{3V} \omega_s f_{\text{cont}0} + \frac{\overline{\text{NR}}}{3V} \omega_w f_{\text{cap}0} \quad (17)$$

404 After Eq. 16, the deviatoric stress, which is associated with the anisotropy effects in the direction tensors,
405 can be approximately written as:

$$406 \quad q \approx \frac{\overline{\text{NR}}}{3V} \omega_s f_{\text{cont}0} \left[(G_1^{sf} - G_3^{sf}) + \frac{2}{5} (D_1^s - D_3^s) + \frac{2}{5} (D_1^s G_1^{sf} - D_3^s G_3^{sf}) \right] + \frac{\overline{\text{NR}}}{3V} \omega_w f_{\text{cap}0} \frac{2}{5} (D_1^w - D_3^w) \quad (18)$$

407 We can denote $\Delta G^{sf} = (G_1^{sf} - G_3^{sf})$ as the anisotropy in contact forces, $\Delta D^s = (D_1^s - D_3^s)$ as the solid
408 contact fabric anisotropy, $\Delta D^s G^{sf} = (D_1^s G_1^{sf} - D_3^s G_3^{sf})$ as the joint tensor anisotropy and $\Delta D^w =$
409 $(D_1^w - D_3^w)$ as the water phase fabric anisotropy. Thus, the stress ratio can be formulated as:

$$410 \quad \frac{q}{p} \approx \frac{\omega_s f_{\text{cont}0}}{\omega_s f_{\text{cont}0} + \omega_w f_{\text{cap}0}} \left(\Delta G^{sf} + \frac{2}{5} \Delta D^s + \frac{2}{5} \Delta D^s G^{sf} \right) + \frac{\omega_w f_{\text{cap}0}}{\omega_s f_{\text{cont}0} + \omega_w f_{\text{cap}0}} \frac{2}{5} \Delta D^w \quad (19)$$

411 As $\frac{p_{\text{cont}}}{p} = \frac{\omega_s f_{\text{cont}0}}{\omega_s f_{\text{cont}0} + \omega_w f_{\text{cap}0}}$ and $\frac{p_{\text{cap}}}{p} = \frac{\omega_w f_{\text{cap}0}}{\omega_s f_{\text{cont}0} + \omega_w f_{\text{cap}0}}$ (from Eq. 16), combining Eq. 19 with Eq. 13,
412 the critical state parameters for stress ratio can then be linked to the internal fabric and force anisotropies
413 as:

414
$$M_s \approx \Delta G^{sf} + \frac{2}{5} \Delta D^s + \frac{2}{5} \Delta D^s G^{sf} \quad (20)$$

415 and:

416
$$M_w \approx \frac{2}{5} \Delta D^w \quad (21)$$

417 Fig. 16 demonstrates the critical state fabric and force anisotropies in different mean stress levels. The
 418 solid contact anisotropy is depicted in Fig. 16a. For a dry material, the critical state solid fabric
 419 anisotropy is reduced by the mean stress increase. In a low stress state, when the capillary effect is
 420 applied, the magnitude of critical state solid fabric anisotropy is reduced significantly from its dry state
 421 value. With the increase of mean stress, solid fabric anisotropy at critical state has a raise-and-fall trend.
 422 The discrepancies of solid fabric anisotropy between the dry and wet materials are also reduced by
 423 mean stress. Fig. 16b shows the solid contact force anisotropy quantified by tensor G_{ij}^{sf} . It indicates that
 424 the capillary bridge effect on contact force anisotropy is not significant. With the logarithmic increase
 425 of mean stress, the contact force anisotropy at critical state raises almost linearly. The anisotropy of the
 426 joint tensor $D_{im}^s G_{jm}^{sf}$, depicted in Fig. 16c, is generally a negative value. For the dry material, the
 427 anisotropy of the joint tensor is almost constant for different mean stresses. However, in the wet
 428 materials, the joint tensor anisotropy is higher in the low stress conditions and is reduced with mean
 429 stress increase. The critical state anisotropy of the water phase, represented by the water bridge direction
 430 anisotropy in Fig. 16d, is rather constant under different mean stress conditions. It also shows that with
 431 a higher suction, which means a lower degree of saturation, the critical state water phase anisotropy is
 432 more significant.

433 The anisotropy values of different components can be summed up according to Eq. 20 to estimate M_s .
 434 In the previous section, M_s was taken as a constant value 0.73 for all stress conditions for model
 435 simplicity. In Fig. 17a, it shows that the M_s values estimated from the internal force and fabric
 436 anisotropies are not always constant. There is an overestimation at low stress levels by taking $M_s =$
 437 0.73, especially for the wet materials. Fig. 17b presents the M_w values estimated from the critical state
 438 water fabric anisotropy as a function of the degree of saturation. As the water phase fabric anisotropy
 439 is not influenced by mean stress obviously. The average value was taken for each applied suction and
 440 the relationship between $\frac{2}{5} \Delta D^w$ and degree of saturation is then obtained. It shows that $\frac{2}{5} \Delta D^w$ (the
 441 triangles) has a similar trend with the measured M_w values in Table 2 but is however lower than the
 442 measured value (the dashed line). This is due to the fact that the constant approximation of $M_s = 0.73$
 443 was taken for simplicity. Therefore, the deviatoric effect of the contact stress in low stress conditions
 444 was overestimated and was actually corrected by the M_w values in Table 2. The correction in M_w values
 445 is about 0.21 by evaluating the difference between the M_w values and the $\frac{2}{5} \Delta D^w$ values. It can be seen

446 that when $\frac{2}{5}\Delta D^w$ is shifted up by 0.21 they coincide with the measured M_w values. By following that
 447 M_w is associated with the water phase anisotropy effect, one may deduce that the second trend in Fig.
 448 11b, as M_w converges to 0 at saturation, is more realistic. This is because, as it can be easily understood,
 449 at full saturation the water phase effect becomes isotropic.

450 **4.3 The relationship between scalar micro-parameters and mean stress level**

451 From the macro observations, it has already been know that capillary effect is less prominent under
 452 high stress conditions. A more insightful understanding can also be achieved by analysing its micro-
 453 structures and force transmissions. From Eq. 17, it can be seen that the mean contact stress and the mean
 454 capillary stress are related to the coordination numbers (ω_s and ω_w) and mean forces (f_{cont_0} and f_{cap_0}).
 455 Fig. 18a demonstrates the critical state mean contact stress under different mean total stress levels. For
 456 dry materials, $p_{cont} = p$ and for wet granular materials p_{cont} is higher. It shows that the capillary effect
 457 is more significant when $p < 100kPa$. From Eq. 17, p_{cont} is microscopically determined by the solid
 458 contact coordination number and mean contact force. Fig. 18b depicts the critical state solid contact
 459 coordination numbers under various mean stress and suctions. For a dry material, the solid contact
 460 coordination number at critical state is positively related to its mean stress. The dilatancy of wet granular
 461 materials is generally higher in triaxial shear, which leads a higher critical state void ratio. Therefore,
 462 the critical state solid contact coordination numbers of wet materials are generally higher than that of
 463 the dry material. With the increase of mean stress, the critical state ω_s values for wet granular materials
 464 are gradually reduced and they increase again to approach to the ω_s values for the dry material at high
 465 stress conditions. In Fig. 18c, the mean contact force is increased linearly with mean stress level and
 466 when the mean stress is relatively low, the capillary effect has more significant influence on f_{cont_0} ,
 467 which leads f_{cont_0} to be higher than that of the dry material.

468 Fig. 19a presents the critical state mean capillary stress at different suctions and mean stress levels. The
 469 capillary stress is a negative stress and with the increase of suction, which means a decrease in water
 470 content, the absolute value of mean capillary stress is lower. It also indicates that the mean capillary
 471 stress is not changed obviously by the mean total stress increase. As the mean capillary stress is related
 472 to the water bridge coordination number and mean capillary force (from Eq. 17), the ω_w and f_{cap_0}
 473 values at critical state are presented in Fig. 19b and Fig. 19c respectively. It can be observed that ω_w
 474 and f_{cap_0} values are not obviously altered by the mean total stress. The f_{cap_0} value is negative as
 475 capillary force is an attractive force. With the increase of suction (a decrease of water content), the
 476 water bridge coordination number is reduced and the magnitude of the capillary force (its absolute value)
 477 is larger.

5. Conclusions

In this paper, the critical state of wet granular materials is systematically investigated by series of DEM simulations. Water bridge effect is considered between neighbouring particles providing the material has a relatively low degree of saturation in the residual state (the pendular state). By testing relatively dense and loose materials in different suctions in the conventional triaxial loading path, the critical state is reached in both macro stress-strain behaviours and micro structures. Main conclusions can be drawn from both macro and micro aspects as follows:

1. The contact stress tensor, which is formulated by inter-particle mechanical forces, is not sufficient to be used as the effective stress of unsaturated granular materials to model the critical state behaviours. It can model the critical state with a linear mean contact stress and deviatoric contact stress relationship (in the p - q space). However, due to the higher dilatancy in wet materials, solely using contact stress is not enough to describe the deformation and critical state void ratio (in the p - e space).
2. The critical state stress ratio for wet materials is not constant as it is much higher under a low mean total stress. Critical state equations (Eq. 12 to Eq. 15) are proposed to fit the simulated critical state stress ratio and void ratio by using the mean contact stress (p_{cont}) and mean capillary stress (p_{cap} or $p - p_{cont}$). Classic parameters for dry or fully saturated conditions are kept with one more term added to quantify the capillary stress effect in each equation. The parameter associated with capillary stress is correlated to suction or degree of saturation.
3. As reported before [48], the stress state is related to the internal structure indexed by the micro quantities such as the solid contact coordination number, water bridge number, solid and water phase fabric tensors and contact force and capillary force levels and anisotropies. It has been observed in this study that at the critical state, unique values have been reached in these micro quantities.
4. By analysing the deviatoric stress and mean stress with the stress-force-fabric relationship equation, it is realised that the two parameters for the critical state stress ratio in the proposed critical state equations (M_s and M_w) are related to the critical state internal solid structure anisotropy and the water phase fabric anisotropy respectively. This also implies that at full saturation, the parameter M_w is possibly converged to 0, as the water phase is an isotropic effect at full saturation.
5. At the critical state, the mean capillary stress is almost independent of the mean total stress. This is because the water bridge coordination number and the mean capillary force are almost not affected by the total stress level. The solid contact coordination number and mean contact force are obviously increased by the capillary effect especially in low stress conditions which induce a more significant mean contact stress when in low stress conditions.

513 **Appendix: Calculation of direction tensors**

514 For a granular assembly with N_s solid contacts (note that one physical contact point has two contacts),
 515 after Oda et al. [23], a moment tensor quantifying the directions of solid contact normals can be
 516 expressed as:

$$517 \quad N_{ij}^s = \frac{1}{N_s} \sum_{c \in V} \mathbf{n}_c \otimes \mathbf{n}_c \quad (22)$$

518 where \mathbf{n}_c is the unit vector of the contact normal on the c -th solid contact. Similarly, a second rank
 519 tensor for water bridge network can also be raised. For a sample with N_w particle water interactions
 520 (two times of total water bridge number), the moment tensor can be written as:

$$521 \quad N_{ij}^w = \frac{1}{N_w} \sum_{w \in V} \mathbf{n}_w \otimes \mathbf{n}_w \quad (23)$$

522 where \mathbf{n}_w is the unit vector pointing from water bridge centre to particle centre on the w -th water-solid
 523 interaction. The direction tensors of D_{ij}^s and D_{ij}^w consider the deviatoric part of the moment tensor being
 524 formulated as:

$$525 \quad D_{ij}^{s/w} = \frac{15}{2} \left(N_{ij}^{s/w} - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{ij} \right) \quad (24)$$

526 by taking the corresponding superscript.

527 For the directional distribution of contact forces, a second rank moment tensor is also defined. By
 528 integrating the tensor product of the average contact force along a particular direction, the moment
 529 tensor noted as K_{ij}^{sf} , can be expressed in a unit sphere space Ω as:

$$530 \quad K_{ij}^{sf} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{N_s} \oint_{\Omega} \langle \mathbf{f}_{\text{cont}} \rangle |_{\mathbf{n}_c} \otimes \mathbf{n}_c d\Omega \quad (25)$$

531 where $\langle \mathbf{f}_{\text{cont}} \rangle |_{\mathbf{n}_c}$ is the average value for the contact forces in the \mathbf{n}_c direction. The direction tensor of
 532 contact force, G_{ij}^{sf} , is the deviatoric part of the contact force moment tensor in a normalised form:

$$533 \quad G_{ij}^{sf} = \frac{3K_{ij}^{sf}}{K_{11}^{sf} + K_{22}^{sf} + K_{33}^{sf}} - \delta_{ij} \quad (26)$$

534 Note that the directional mean contact force is $f_{\text{cont}0} \approx K_{11}^{sf} + K_{22}^{sf} + K_{33}^{sf}$. Similar to the above
 535 procedures, the directional mean capillary force $f_{\text{cap}0}$ can also be obtained from a moment tensor for
 536 the capillary forces which will not be repeated.

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541 **Conflict of Interest**

542 The author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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666

667 **Figure List**

668 Fig. 1. Contact model with capillary bridge effect.

669 Fig. 2. Isotropic normal consolidation lines.

670 Fig. 3. Water retention curves under different confinements.

671 Fig. 4. Conventional triaxial loading path.

672 Fig. 5. Typical triaxial test results of dry and wet granular materials ($S = 20kPa$) to the critical state
673 ($\sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 10kPa$). (a) Evolution of deviatoric stress; (b) Evolution of volumetric strain; (c) Evolution
674 of void ratio; (d) Evolution of degree of saturation.

675 Fig. 6. Critical state deviatoric stress at different mean stress levels. (a) $p - q$ line; (b) $p' - q$ line; (c)
676 $p_{cont} - q$ line; (d) $p_{cont} - q_{cont}$ line.

677 Fig. 7. Critical state void ratio in $p_{cont} - e$ space.

678 Fig. 8. Critical state stress ratio and deviatoric stress in the framework. (a) $p - M$ relationship; (b) $p -$
679 q relationship.

680 Fig. 9. Correlation between bond number and critical state stress ratio.

681 Fig. 10. Critical state void ratio in the framework.

682 Fig. 11. The degree of saturation effect on critical state stress ratio parameters. (a) The results from
683 DEM simulations; (b) Hypothetical trend beyond the pendular state.

684 Fig. 12. The degree of saturation effect on λ_w .

685 Fig. 13. Evolution of coordination numbers in triaxial shearing. (a) Coordination number of solid
686 contacts; (b) Coordination number of water-solid interactions.

687 Fig. 14. Evolutions of mean contact and capillary forces in triaxial shearing. (a) Mean contact force; (b)
688 Mean capillary force.

689 Fig. 15. Evolutions of internal fabric and force anisotropies. (a) Solid contact fabric anisotropy; (b) solid
690 contact force anisotropy; (c) Water bridge network anisotropy.

691 Fig. 16. The critical state fabric and force anisotropies at different mean stress levels. (a) Solid fabric
692 anisotropy; (b) Solid contact force anisotropy; (c) The joint tensor anisotropy; (d) Water fabric
693 anisotropy.

694 Fig.17. The critical state stress ratio parameters and internal fabric anisotropy. (a) Comparison with
695 parameter M_s ; (b) Comparison with parameter M_w .

696 Fig. 18. The critical state mean contact stress and its associated micro-parameters at different mean
697 total stress levels. (a) Mean contact stress; (b) Solid contact coordination number; (c) Directional
698 mean contact force.

699 Fig. 19. The critical state mean capillary stress and its associated micro-parameters at different mean
700 total stress levels. (a) Mean capillary stress; (b) Water bridge coordination number; (c) Directional
701 mean capillary force.

702 **Table List**

703 Table 1. Summary of triaxial test parameters.

704 Table 2. Summary of critical state parameters.

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710 **Table 1**

σ_2 & σ_3	10kP	20kP	50kP	100kP	200kP	500kP	1MP	2MP	5MP	10MP	20MP	50MP
S (kPa)	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a
dry	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
5000	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	√	–	–
700	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	–	–	–
300	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	–	–	–
200	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	–	–	–
100	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	–	–	–
50	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	–	–	–
20	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	–	√	–	–

711 *Both the dense and loose specimens are tested on each set of parameter. √ means triaxial tests have
712 been implemented.

713

Table 1. Summary of triaxial test parameters.

714 **Table 2**

Suction (kPa)	S_r (%)	M_s	M_w	Γ_s	λ_s	λ_w
dry	0	0.73	0.73	1.755	9.89×10^{-5}	0
5000	0.000876		0.59			0.0407
700	0.042		0.42			0.0398
300	0.196		0.38			0.0427
200	0.411		0.37			0.0432
100	1.19		0.33			0.0484
50	3.39		0.24			0.0337
20	9.75		0.22			0.0404

715

Table 2. Summary of critical state parameters.

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Figures

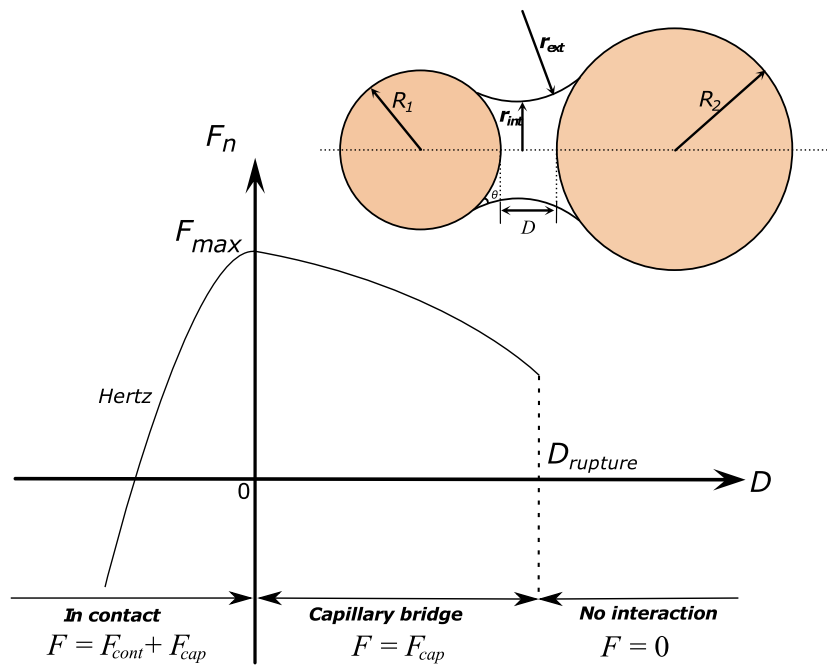


Figure 1: Contact model with capillary bridge effect

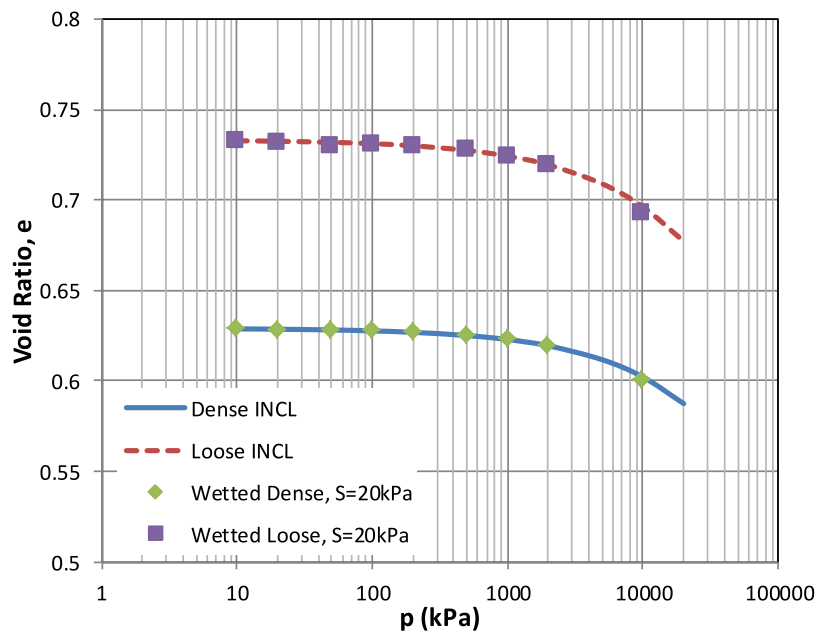


Figure 2: Isotropic normal consolidation lines

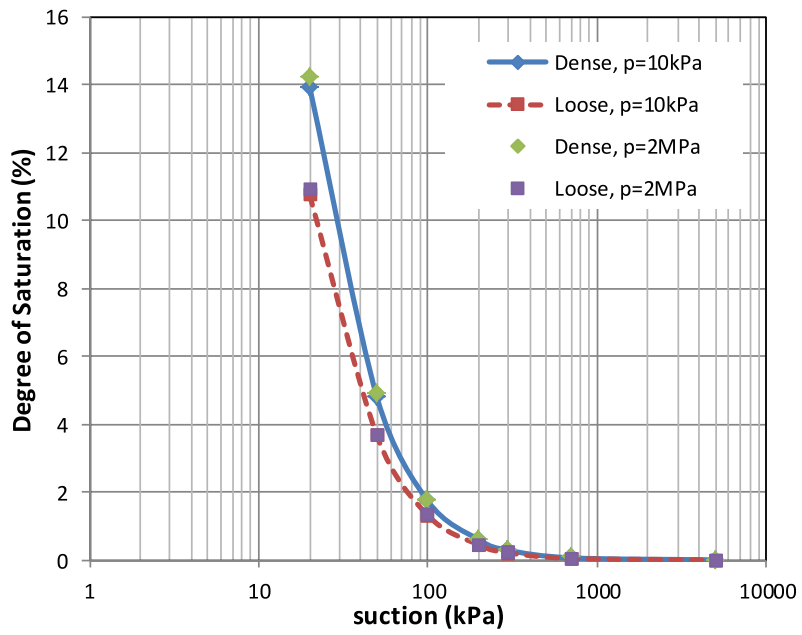


Figure 3: Water retention curves under different confinements

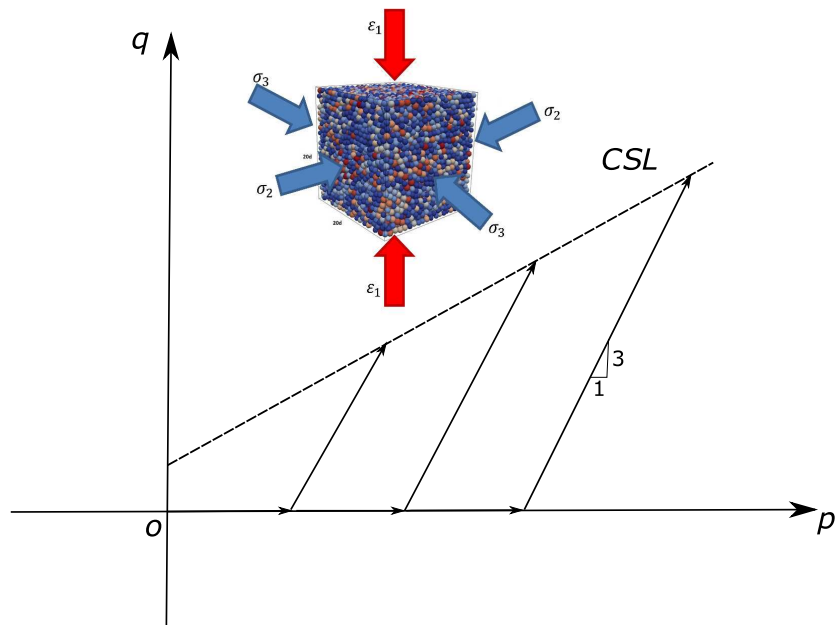


Figure 4: Conventional triaxial loading path

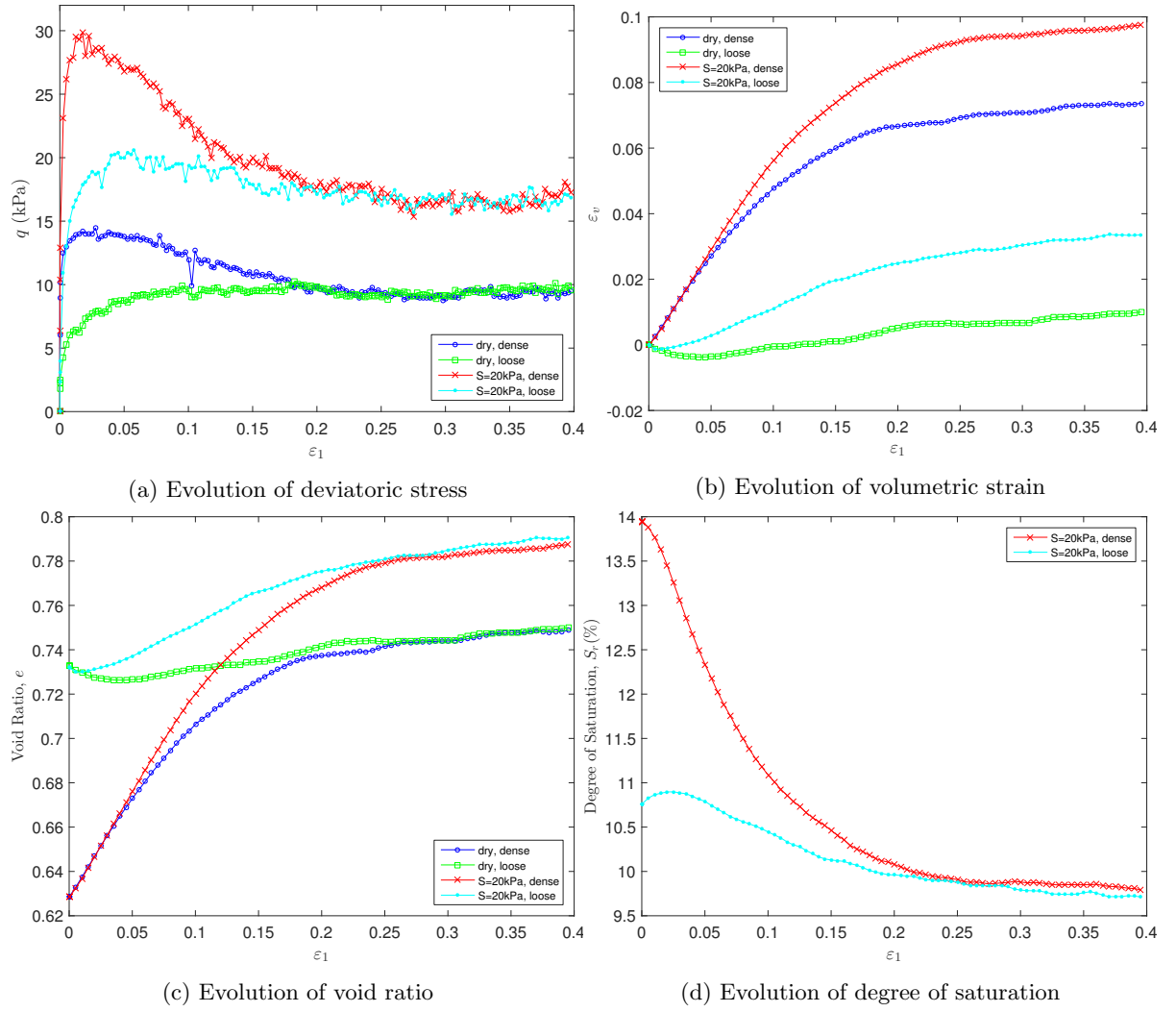


Figure 5: Typical triaxial test results of dry and wet granular materials ($S = 20kPa$) to the critical state ($\sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 10kPa$).

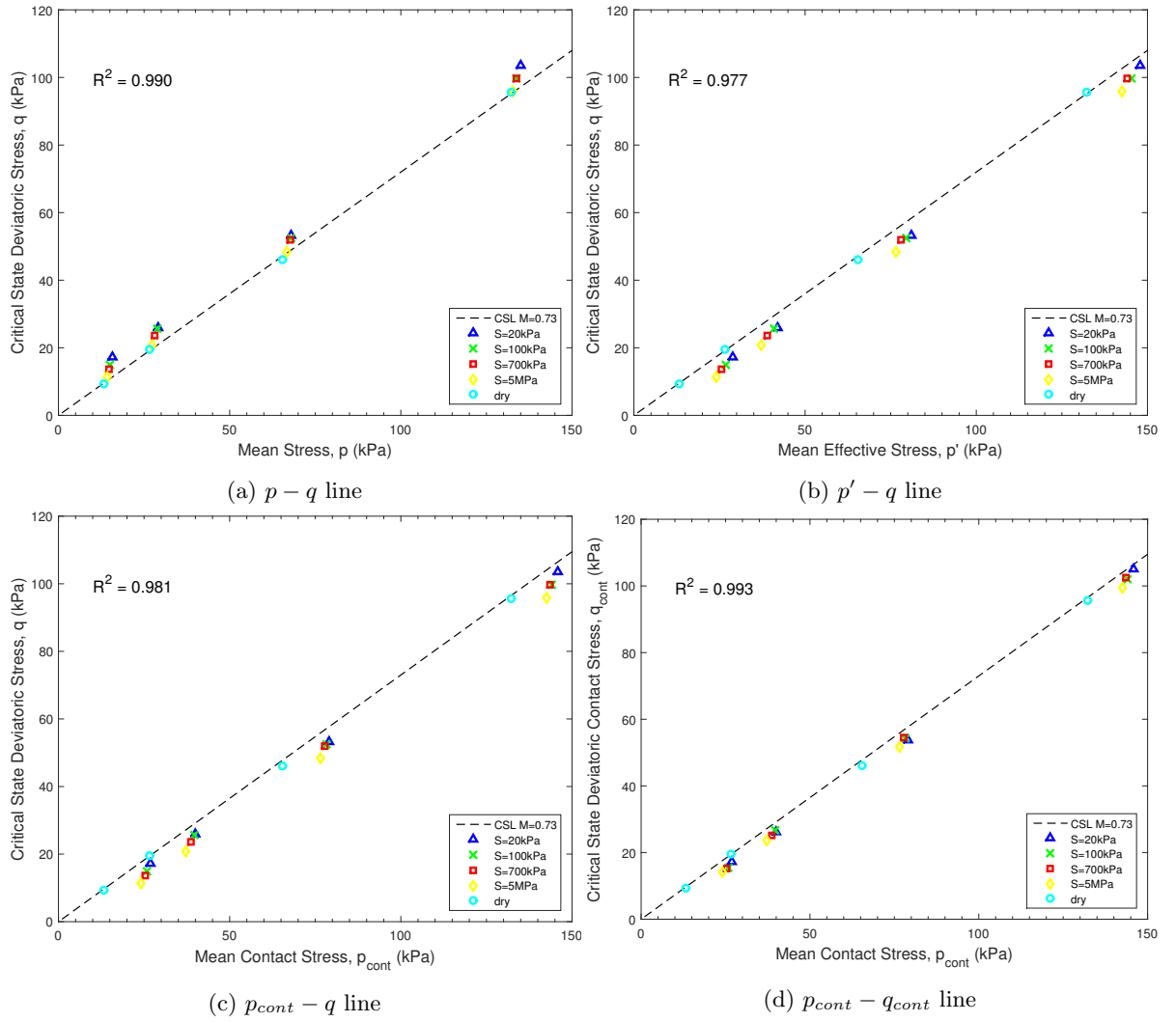


Figure 6: Critical state deviatoric stress at different mean stress levels.

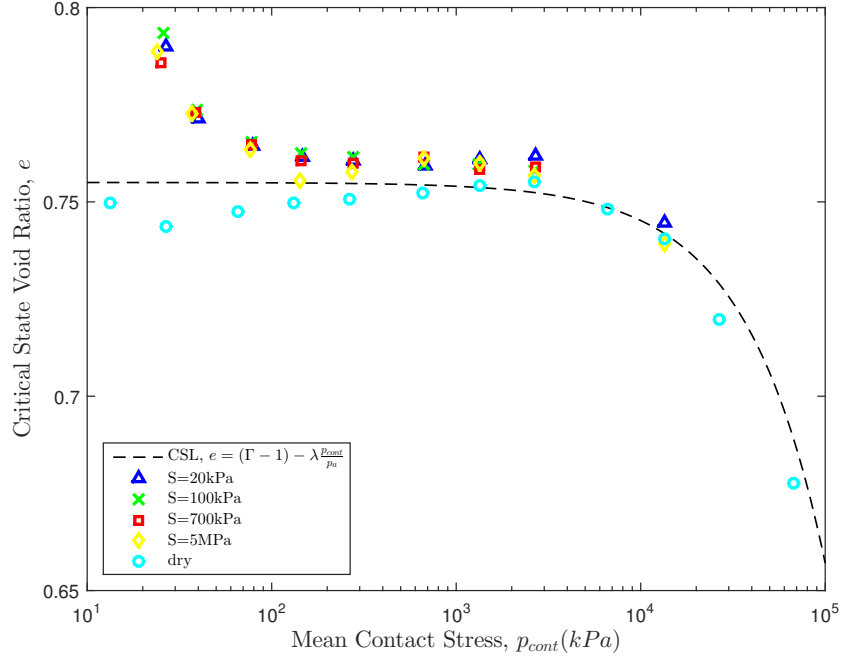


Figure 7: Critical state void ratio in $p_{cont} - e$ space.

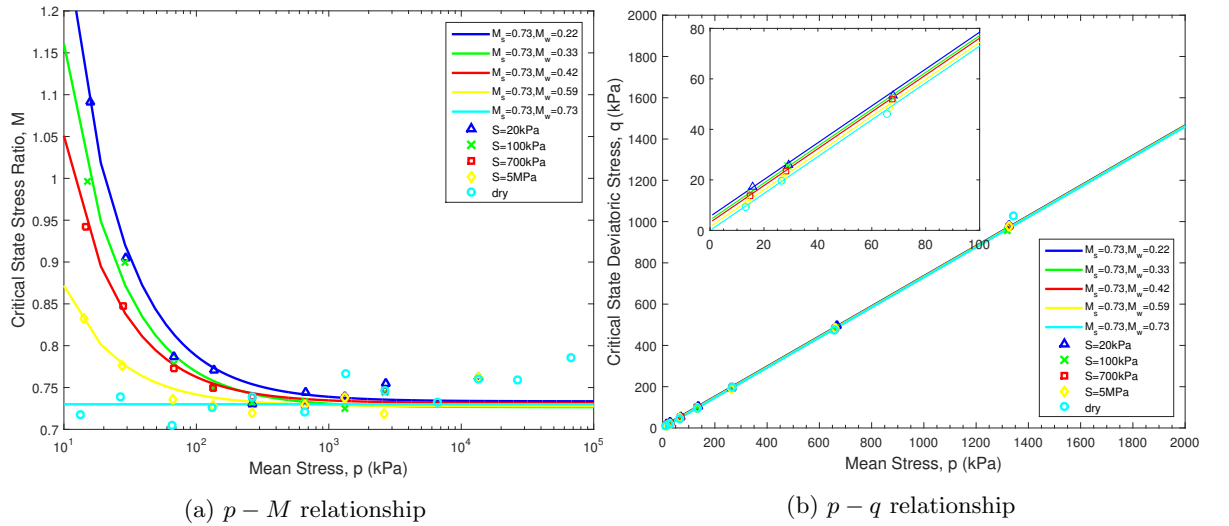


Figure 8: Critical state stress ratio and deviatoric stress in the framework.

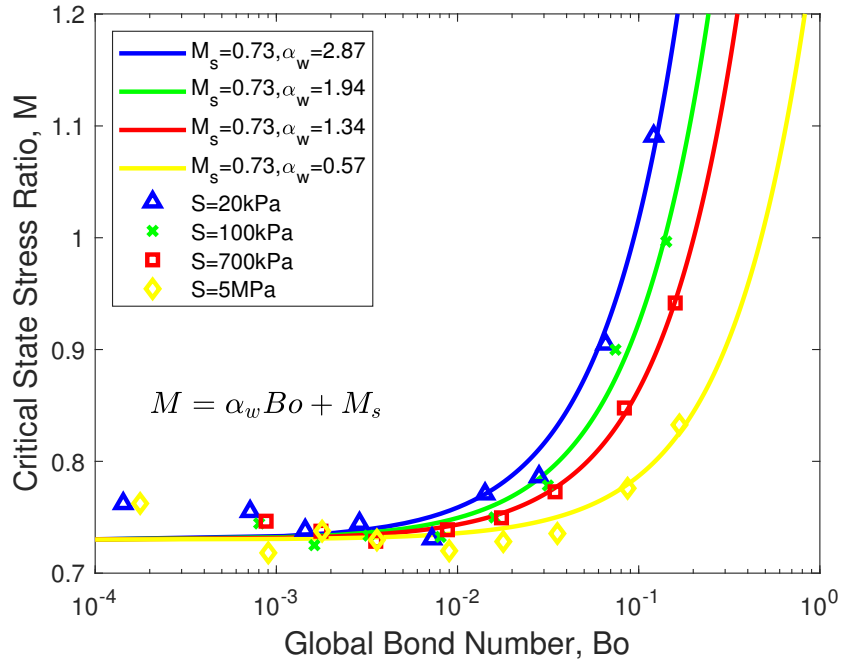


Figure 9: Correlation between bond number and critical state stress ratio.

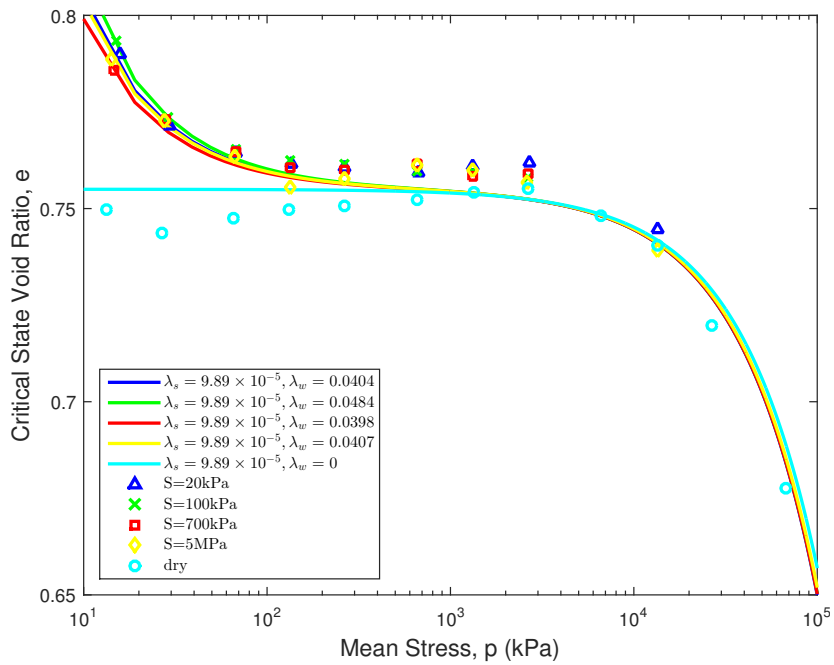


Figure 10: Critical state void ratio in the framework.

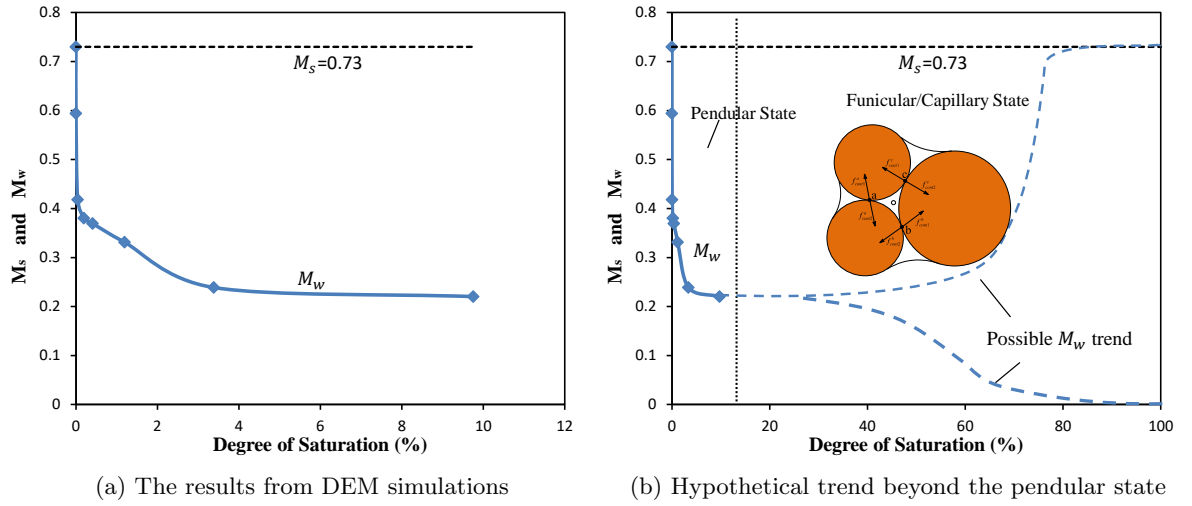


Figure 11: The degree of saturation effect on critical state stress ratio parameters.

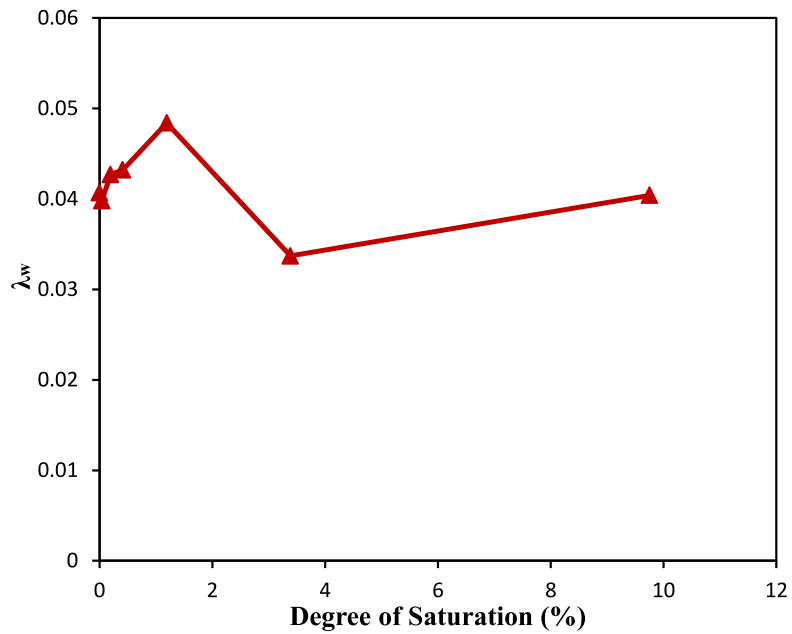


Figure 12: The degree of saturation effect on λ_w .

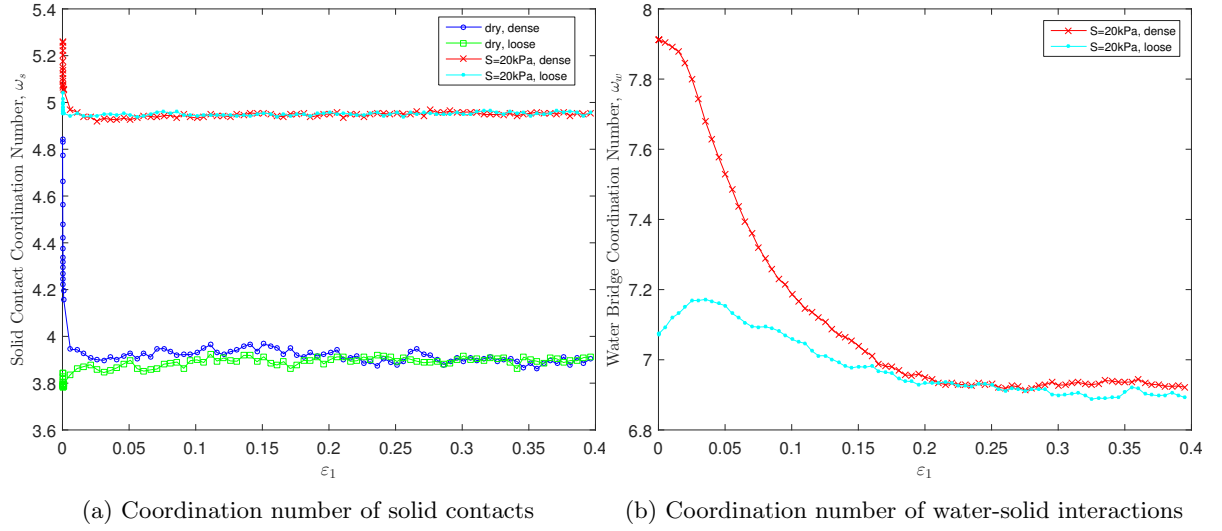


Figure 13: Evolution of coordination numbers in triaxial shearing.

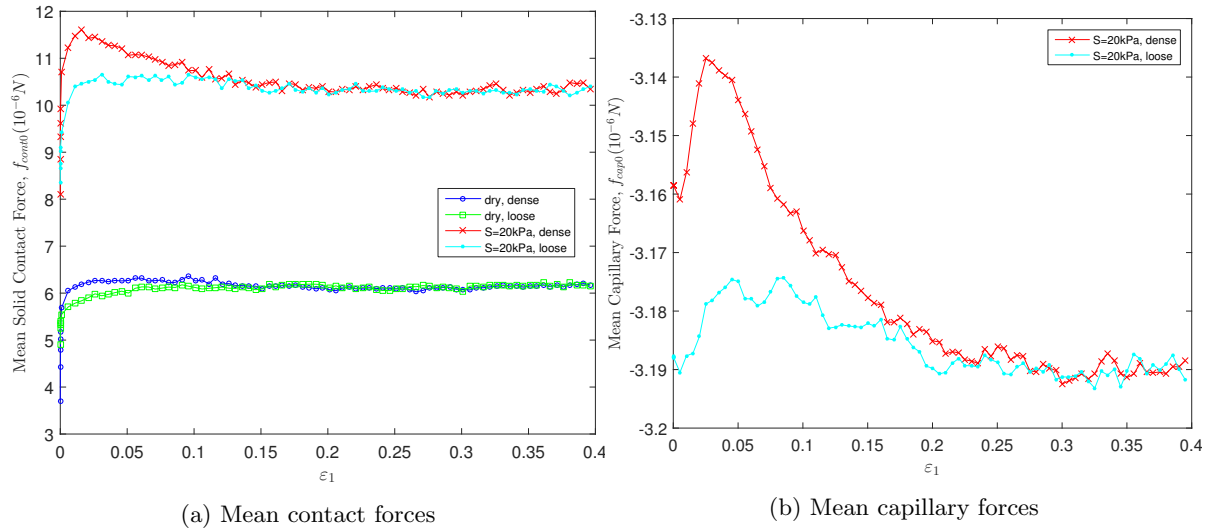
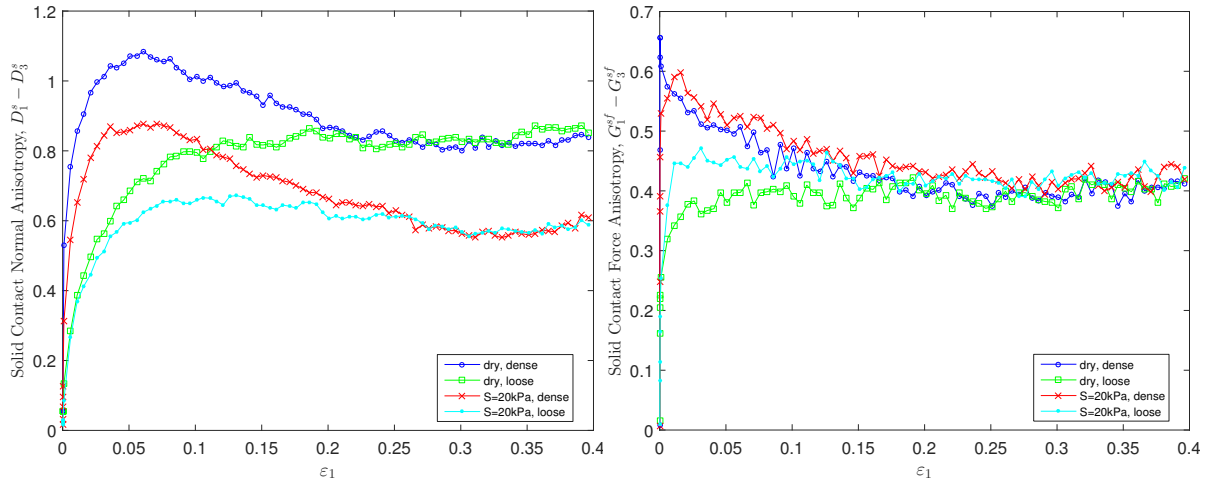
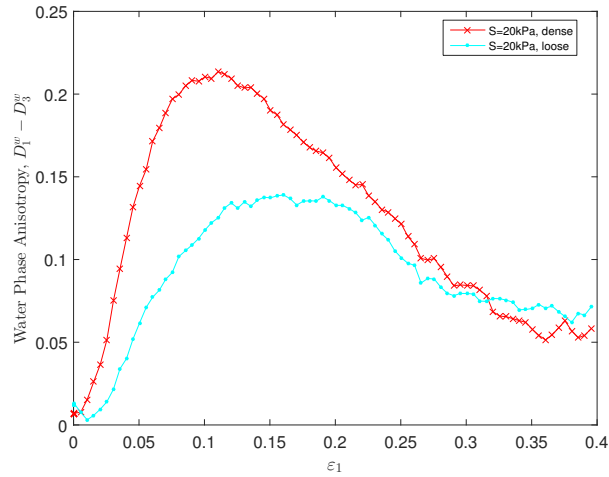


Figure 14: Evolutions of mean contact and capillary forces in triaxial shearing.



(a) Solid contact fabric anisotropy

(b) Solid contact force anisotropy



(c) Water bridge network anisotropy

Figure 15: Evolutions of internal fabric and force anisotropies.

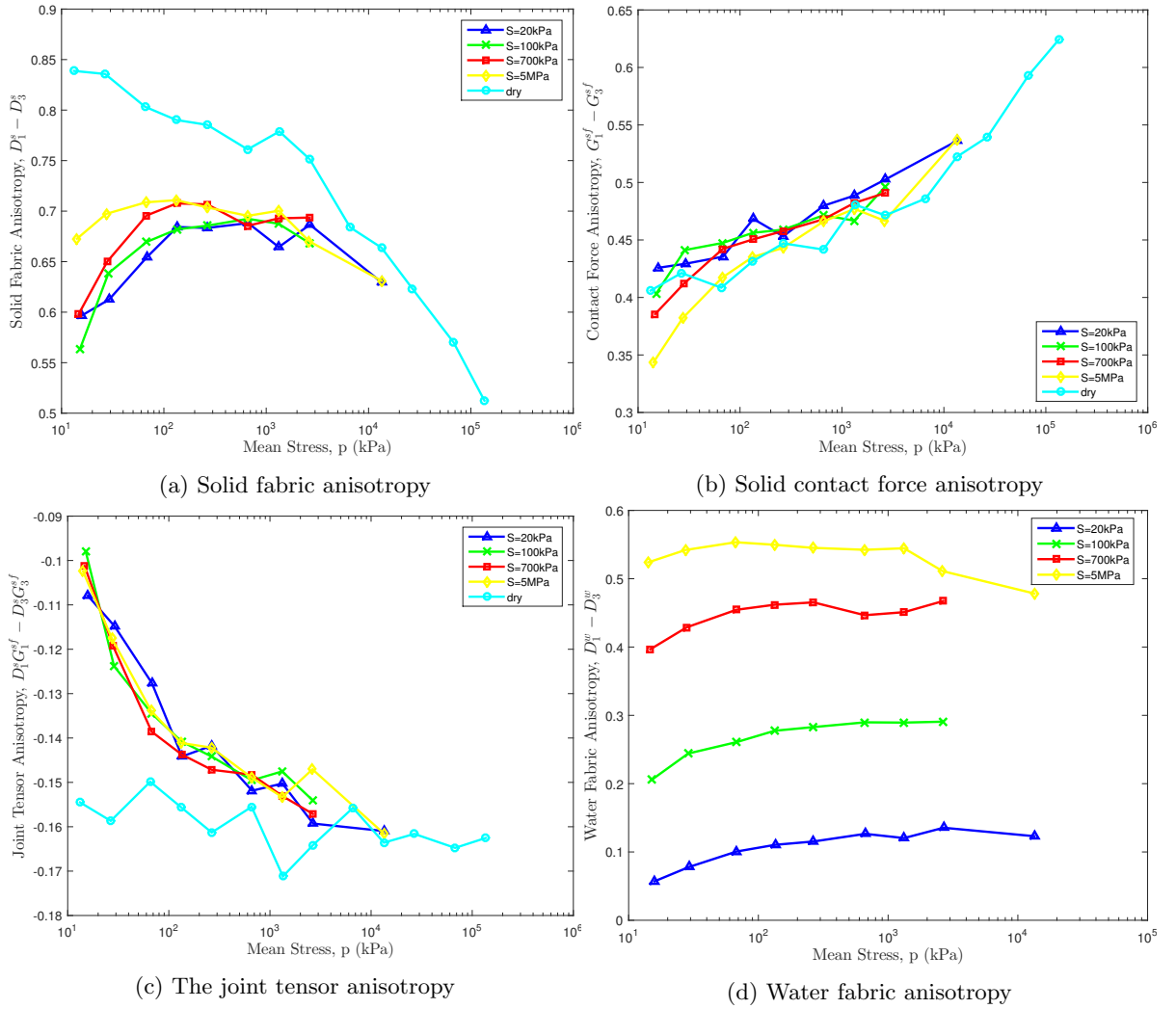


Figure 16: The critical state fabric and force anisotropies at different mean stress levels.

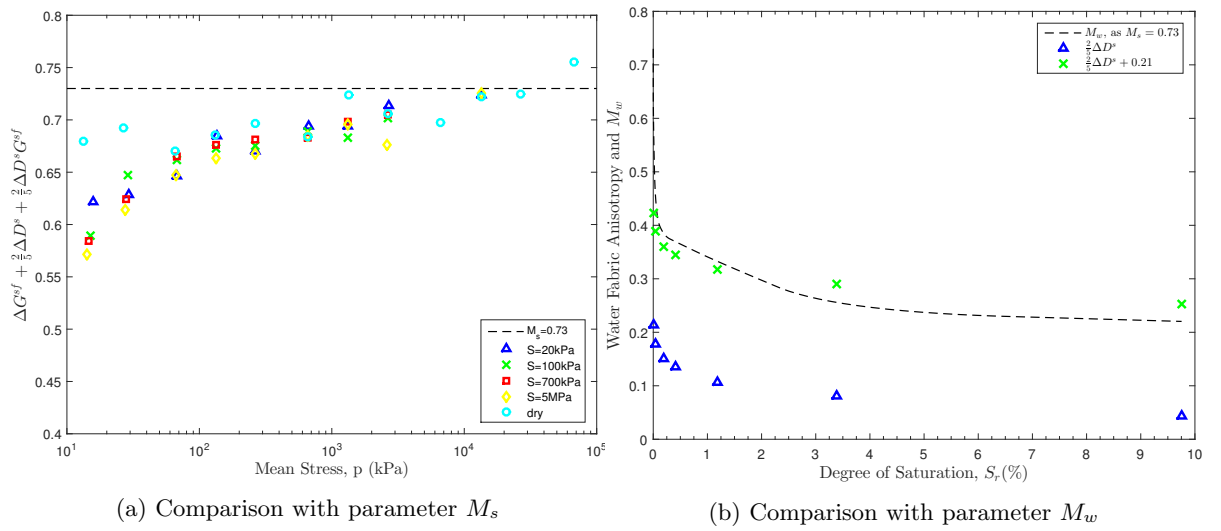
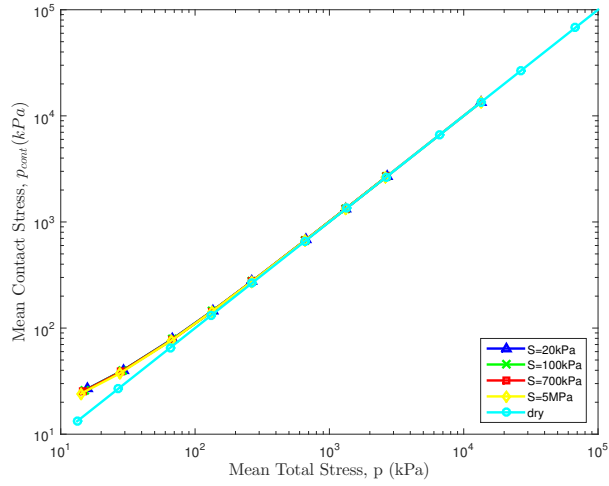
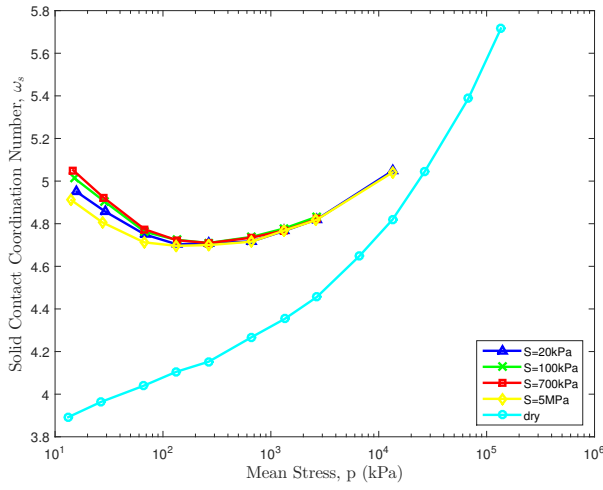


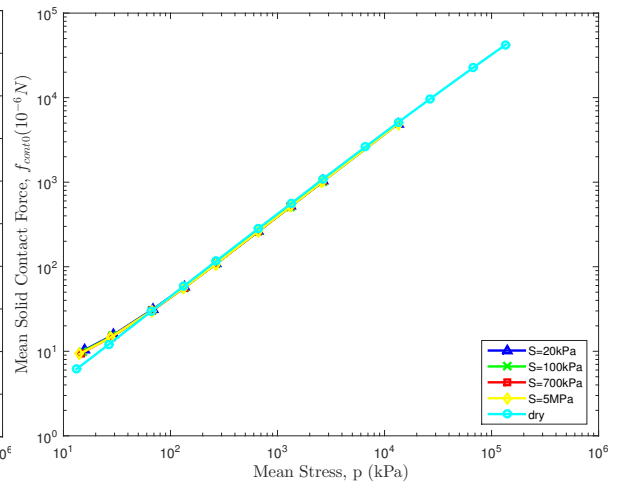
Figure 17: The critical state stress ratio parameters and internal fabric anisotropy.



(a) Mean capillary stress

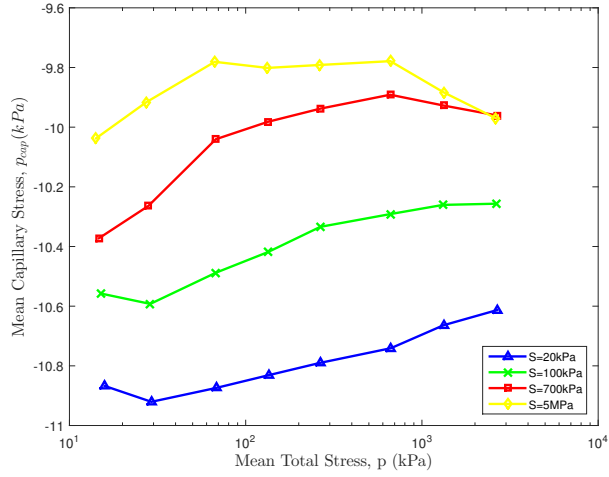


(b) Solid contact coordination number

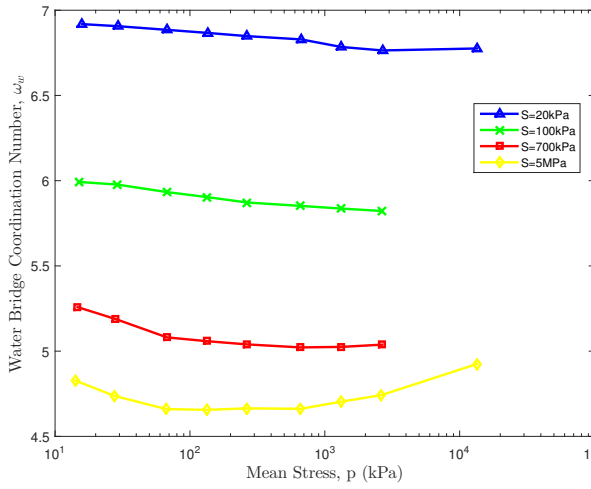


(c) Directional mean contact force

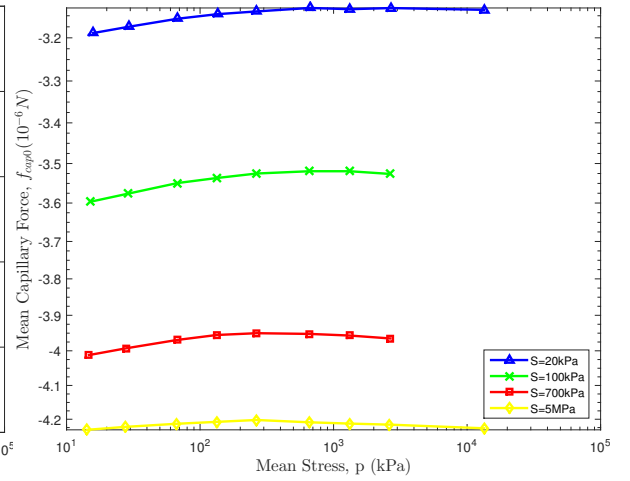
Figure 18: The critical state mean contact stress and its associated micro-parameters at different mean total stress levels.



(a) Mean capillary stress



(b) Water bridge coordination number



(c) Directional mean contact force

Figure 19: The critical state mean capillary stress and its associated micro-parameters at different mean total stress levels.