A worldwide event-based debris-flow barrier dam dataset from 1800 to 2023

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Abstract: Debris flows, as a special kind of landslides, often block rivers to form barrier dams and trigger a series of disasters such as upstream aggradation and outburst floods. The understanding of debris-flow barrier dams (DFBDs) is poor, mostly due to existing researches focusing on individual events and a lack of summarization of multiple DFBD events. The existing global or regional datasets of landslide barrier dams (LDs) contain only a few cases of DFBDs, and ignore the differences between DFBDs and other landslide barrier dams (LDs), such as the dams of rock slide, debris avalanche, or earth slide. To fill this gap, we reviewed 2519 literatures and media reports with high quality. Focusing on identified debris-flow damming events, a rigorous data review and validation process was conducted using Google Earth. A systematic approach was employed to prioritize conflicting information from various data sources. Consequently, a global dataset was compiled, encompassing 555 historical DFBDs from 1800 to 2023.

This pioneering global dataset includes five categories and 38 attributes, detailing DFBDs. It captures basic information (location, the date of formation, etc.), dam characteristics (height, length, volume, etc.), lake characteristics (area, capacity, length), debris flow characteristics (velocity, discharge, volume, etc.), failure characteristics (peak discharge, loss of life, etc.), and climate characteristic (precipitation and temperature). Our dataset elucidates that DFBDs exhibit key features of instability, complete blockage, and overtopping failure. The number of such dams has notably increased, especially in China. 15 % of channels showed recurrent debris flows, resulting in DFBDs that make up 35 % of all DFBDs. Further analysis recommends the *Ls* (*AHV*) model is recommended for priority use, followed by the *DBI* model, for the stability assessment of DFBDs. Compared to other barrier dam datasets, our dataset is more targeted, lays a greater emphasis on the review of raw data, and stresses the unification of terminology and concepts (such as blockage modes and stability), ensuring the consistency and accuracy of the data. The dataset and results in this work may help to deepen the understanding of DFBD formation, distribution, and evolution. The DFBD dataset can be accessed through this link: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14766647 (Cheng et al., 2024).

1 Introduction

Debris flows, composed of fine and coarse-grained components, boulders, woody, and water, are a rapid two-phase flow with non-zero yield stress (Hungr et al., 2014). When debris flows carry large amounts of sediment flowing rapidly in a valley, they may accumulate in a narrow river channel and form a barrier dam, that is, debris-flow barrier dam (DFBD) (Fan et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022). The formation of such barrier dams not only changes the original hydrogeological conditions, but may also results in secondary disasters, such as floods, landslides, and even larger debris flows, posing a serious threat to human society and the natural environment (Cui et al., 2016; Gouli et al., 2025; Hu et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019). For example, on

August 7, 2010, triggered by heavy rainfall, a large-scale debris flow broke out in Luojiayu and Sanyanyu Gully in Zhouqu County, China. After the debris flow passed through Zhouqu City, it blocked the Bailong River and formed a submerged dam (Fig.1a). The water level in the upper reaches rose sharply, which submerged half of Zhouqu City, resulting in 1364 casualties and 401 missing (Chong et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2010). The submerged dam had strong fluidity, which makes conventional emergency response measures ineffective and poses a significant challenge to rescue and disaster relief efforts. Under such critical circumstances, military forces were urgently deployed to conduct blasting operations for flood discharge (Fig.1b).

Figure. 1 Post-disaster images of the Zhouqu debris flow. (a) The debris flow rushed into the Bailong River, forming a submerged dam; (b) Blasting operations on the debris flow barrier dam to accelerate discharge. The images are from China News Service (https://www.chinanews.com.cn/).

Compared with other type LDs, DFBDs possess unique characteristics, with differences primarily manifested in dam geometry, material composition, and internal structure. In terms of dam geometry, DFBDs have lower heights and gentler upstream and downstream slopes than other type LDs (Cheng et al., 2007a, 2007b; Dang et al., 2009). Regarding material composition, the materials of DFBDs have a near-saturated water content, which is significantly higher than that of other type LDs (Cheng et al., 2007a, 2007b; Dang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017). Moreover, DFBDs have a higher clay content (Dang et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2014) and high-rounded particles compared to other type LDs (Dang et al., 2009). In terms of internal structure, DFBDs are more compact, with poorer grain sorting and lower permeability (Dang et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2014). The differences mentioned above make the stability and failure characteristics of DFBDs distinctly different from those of other LDs (Ruan et al., 2021).

Currently, researches on DFBDs mainly focus on a single event (Hu et al., 2010; 2011), or physical and numerical experiments conducted with a single event as the prototype, focusing on the research of river obstruction by debris flows (Chen et al., 2022; Dang et al., 2009; Ruan et al., 2021). In terms of properties and scale, debris flows that form barrier dams are typically large-scale and cohesive, with high density and uniformity, exhibiting considerable resistance to erosion (Chen et al., 2019; Ruan et al., 2021). In terms of topography, the rivers and valleys blocked by DFBDs are generally narrow, with steep terrain slopes (Song et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2022).

Isolated studies of individual DFBD events cannot reflect the overall distribution characteristics. However, statistical analysis of a great number of historical data on barrier dam disasters can help to clarify this issue. Some scholars have conducted extensive researches on parameters such as geometric characteristics, breaching, longevity, and stability of barrier dams by establishing datasets (Casagli et al., 2003; Dong et al., 2014; Fan et al., 2012a; 2017; Peng and Zhang, 2012a; b; Stefanelli et al., 2015; 2016). However, there are relatively few cases of DFBDs in these datasets. The conclusions drawn from these barrier dam datasets may not be applicable to DFBDs. Therefore, there is an urgent need to establish a global comprehensive dataset specifically for DFBDs, laying a data foundation for in-depth research on such dams in the future, which is one of the goals of this study.

After the formation of a barrier dam, timely predictions of the stability of the dam and the outburst peak discharge are the keys to formulating disaster reduction measures, and it are also hot topics in barrier dams-related researches (Azimi et al., 2015; Casagli and Ermini, 1999; Korup, 2004). Based on the statistical analysis methods, some scholars analyzed the influence of dam structure characteristics, dam material characteristics, hydrological characteristics, and other factors on the stabilities of dams, and established some models for evaluating barrier dam stability (Dong et al., 2011; Ermini and Casagli, 2003). Other studies based on historical statistical cases, summarized parameter models for the peak discharge, in order to achieve rapid prediction of peak discharge of barrier dam breach (Azimi et al., 2015; Hakimzadeh et al., 2014; Hooshyaripor et al., 2014; Xu and Zhang, 2009). For example, Xu and Zhang (2009) collected 182 dam-break cases and used a multi-parameter nonlinear regression method for statistical regression analysis. They established the relationships between breach dimensions, peak discharge, and parameters of the barrier dam, dam height, and failure mode. However, these studies did not strictly differentiate the barrier dams, focusing more on LDs. Considering that DFBDs have unique characteristics compared to LDs (Cheng et al., 2007a; b; Dang et al., 2009; Ruan et al., 2021), the applicability of stability and peak discharge models, originally designed for LDs, to DFBDs remains unclear. This constitutes the second key issue to be explored in this study.

This study established a dataset containing 555 DFBDs worldwide by exploring 2519 literatures and media reports. This dataset contains information of DFBDs on the formation time, location, geometric characteristics, longevity, peak discharge, failure characteristics, blockage modes, failure mechanisms, stability, loss of life, etc. A detailed analysis was conducted on the spatiotemporal distribution, blockage modes, failure mechanisms, longevity, and stability of DFBDs. The applicability of stability and peak discharge models, of LDs, for DFBDs was discussed. Compared with other barrier dam datasets, our dataset focuses exclusively on DFBDs and stands out for its emphasis on the unity of terminology and concepts, as well as the review and validation of raw data, to ensure consistency and accuracy of the data.

2 Data and method

2.1 Data sources

In the process of building the dataset, we adopted a comprehensive and systematic approach to collect and analyze data. The data sources, totally 2519, mainly included peer-reviewed scientific literature, data released by government agencies, proceedings from professional conferences, and reports from authoritative news media. We placed special emphasis on selecting publications that have a high reputation and professionalism in the field to ensure the accuracy and authority of the data. To ensure the breadth and diversity of the data, we have made every effort to consult academic journal literature from different countries and regions (China, Japan, Taiwan, the United States, Italy, etc.) to obtain records of DFBDs from various perspectives. Additionally, recognizing that media reports offer real-time and first-hand information on the formation and impact of DFBDs, we meticulously collected and reviewed coverage from mainstream media, including both government media and non-government media.

Many barrier dam datasets have been established by compiling significant historical events. Although they have included a limited number of DFBDs and the related information is not comprehensive, they have provided us with a wealth of clues that facilitate the collection of information on DFBDs. These datasets are one of the main data sources in this study (Table 1). We conducted a rigorous screening of barrier dams in the existing dataset and further supplemented and refined the information related to the screened DFBDs. In addition, most of the cases in our dataset were sourced from individual studies of DFBD events from various regions.

Table 1. The most relevant inventories and datasets of DFBDs

NO.	Sources	Region, Country	Information on the inventory	Total number of barrier dams	Number of DFBDs

1	Costa and Schuster (1991)	World	Including location, triggering mechanism, landslide type, size, failure time and mechanism, etc.	463	98
2	Ermini and Casagli (2003)	World	Most of the collected cases are from the western USA, Japan, and Italy. A common feature is a high frequency of damming events along or near the active margin areas of tectonic plates.	350	3
3	Tong (2008)	World	Including country, date of formation, dam volume, lake area,	84	16
4	Liu et al., (2019)	China	Including, location, date of formation, dam volume, dam height, lake volume, triggering factors.	287	4
5	Yan (2006)	China	Including, location, date of formation, and impacts.	226	38
6	Chai et al., (1995)	China	Including location, date, landslide volume, Longevity, triggering factors and impacts.	147	7
7	Schuster and Costa (1986)	World	Containing the failure mechanism, and longevity.	187	3
8	Tacconi Stefanelli et al., (2016)	Italy	Containing the date of formation, location, failure mechanism, dam height, dam length, dam volume, lake area, lake volume, longevity, and impacts.	300	33
9	Fan et al. (2020)	world	Containing the date of formation, location, failure mechanism, dam height, dam length, dam volume, lake area, lake volume, longevity, impacts, and loss of life.	1886	34

2.2 Dataset content

The statistical principles used for data collection are as follows: We collected all DFBDs if they had clear records of the country and location in the literatures and media reports. Therefore, it can be considered that data collection process is free of subjective bias, and the dataset has statistical significance. The descriptions were classified and organized in six categories: basic information, debris flow characteristics, dam characteristics, lake characteristics, failure characteristics, and climate characteristics. These categories included 38 attributes to characterize DFBDs, as detailed in Table 2. The basic information includes the name, country, longitude and latitude, date of formation, trigger, reference, and reliability. The debris flow characteristics include the debris flow channel slope gradient, debris flow channel length, debris flow gully basin area, debris flow density, debris flow velocity, debris flow peak discharge, and debris flow volume. The dam characteristics include the blockage modes, dam volume, dam height, dam length, dam width, dam material, longevity, stability, and the controls. The lake characteristics include lake length, lake area, and lake volume. The failure characteristics include failure mechanism, breach depth, breach top width, breach bottom width, breaching time, peak discharge, average discharge, and loss of life. And the climate characteristics include precipitation and temperature. Detailed explanations for each attribute are provided in Table 2.

Incorporating relevant information on debris flows and climate into this dataset can provide a more comprehensive record of detailed information on DFBD events. In addition, this category provides convenience for potential users, enabling them to cross-validate and compare this dataset with other datasets, such as “Two multi-temporal datasets to track debris flow after the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake” (Wang et al., 2022), and “The ITAlian rainfall-induced LandsIIdes Catalogue” (Peruccacci et al., 2023). This cross-use and mutual corroboration enhances the reliability of data and the universality of application.

Table. 2 Data present in the DFBD dataset with units.

Category	Attribute	Symbol	Description	Unit
Basic information	DFBD_ID	*ID*	Unique identifier for each individual DEBD, starting at 1.	[-]
	Name	*Na*	Names of DFBDs.	[-]
	Country	*Cou*	Name of the country in which the DFBD formed, as listed by the U.S. Board of Geographic Names or included in The Times Atlas of the World, 7th edition, 1988.	[-]
	Longitude	*Lon*	Longitude of the reported events.	[°, WGS 1984]
	Latitude	*Lat*	Latitude of the reported events.	[°, WGS 1984]
	Date of formation	D_f	The date the DFBD was formed, if known.	[yyyy/mm/dd]
	Trigger	*Tri*	Main factor that initiated the debris flows.	[-]
	Reference	*Re*	Sources of information about individual DFBD.	[-]
	Reliability	*R*	The reliability proposed in this dataset is used to describe the credibility of the data, which is divided into low reliability, medium reliability, and high reliability.	[-]
Debris flow characteristic	Debris flow channel slope gradient	S_{df}	The change rate of height difference in unit horizontal distance along the flow direction of debris flow channel	[%]
	Debris flow channel length	L_{df}	The distance of debris flow movement path in the channel.	[km]
	Debris flow gully basin area	A_{df}	The total area of the ground surface that directly or indirectly collects water flow into the debris flow channel	[km^2]
	Debris flow	C_{df}	The weight of a debris flow per	[g cm^{-3}]

	density		unit volume before the debris flow rushes into the main river channel.	
	Debris flow velocity	V_{df}	The velocity of debris flow movement along the channel before the debris flow rushes into the main river channel.	[m s^{-1}]
	Debris flow peak discharge	Q_{df}	The maximum discharge of a debris flow just before it blocks a river.	[m^3 s^{-1}]
	Debris flow volume	V_{df}	The volume of debris flow rushed into the river channel.	[10^6 m^3]
Dam characteristic	Blockage mode	*BM*	Blockage of river course by debris flow. Here, there are three modes of complete blockage, partial blockage and submerged dam blockage (Fig. 2(b)).	[-]
	Dam volume	V_d	The part of the debris flow volume that blocks the river (Fig. 2(a)).	[10^6 m^3]
	Dam height	H_d	The vertical altitude difference from the river bed to the overflow point on the barrier dam (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Dam length	L_d	The crest length of the barrier dam measured perpendicular to the major valley axis (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Dam width	W_d	The base width of the landslide dam measured parallel to the main valley axis (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Dam material	*DM*	General type of material that constitutes the DFBD.	[-]
	Controls	*Con*	Any physical modifications made to the DFBD to help minimize volume of impounded water, artificially lower height, change the geometry of dam, or prevent erosion upon overtopping.	[-]
	Longevity	*T*	The time from formation to failure.	[day]

	Stability	*Sta*	Stability refers to the real-time state of the dam.	[-]
Lake characteristic	Lake length	L_l	Length of backwater ponded behind dam, measured upstream from dam (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Lake area	A_l	The surface area of water ponded behind the DFBD (Fig. 2(a)).	[km^2]
	Lake volume	V_l	The volume of water ponded behind the DFBD (Fig. 2(a)).	[10^6 m^3]
Failure characteristic	Failure mechanism	*FM*	The mechanism that led to dam failure or breach. Where more than one failure mechanism was involved, the most severe was selected. Here, there are three types mechanisms of overtopping (OT), piping (PP), and slope failure (SF) (Fig. 2(c)).	[-]
	Breach depth	H_b	The vertical distance from the lowest bottom of the breach to the original lowest point on the landslide dam crest (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Breach top width	W_t	The width of the breach at the height of the dam crest (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Breach bottom width	W_b	The width of the bottom of the breach (Fig. 2(a)).	[m]
	Breaching time	T_b	The period from the inception to the completion of the breaching process (Singh and Snorrason 1984).	[hour]
	Peak discharge	Q_p	The peak discharge of outburst flood after dam failure.	[m^3 s^{-1}]
	Average discharge	Q_a	The average discharge of outburst flood after dam failure.	[m^3 s^{-1}]
	Loss of life	*LF*	The number of people who lost their lives in the DFBD incident	[-]
Climate characteristic	Precipitation	*Pre*	The monthly average precipitation, from 1970 to	[mm]

		2000, is available at the 30 seconds (~1 km^2), and sourced from Fick and Hijmans (2017).	
Temperature	*Tem*	The monthly average temperature, from 1970 to 2000, is available at the 30 seconds (~1 km^2), and sourced from Fick and Hijmans (2017).	[°C]

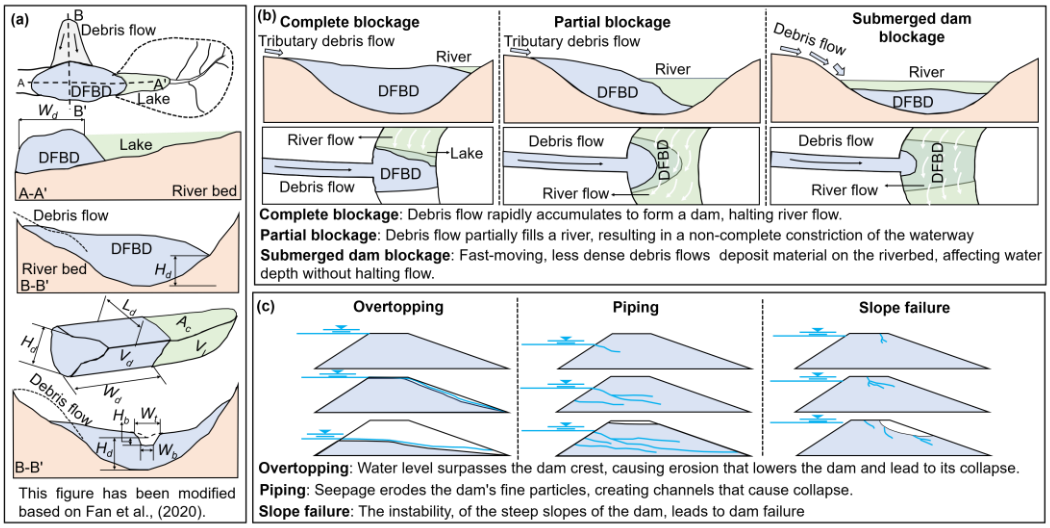

Figure.2 (a) The geometric characteristics; (b) the blockage modes; (c) failure mechanism.

2.3 Data processing procedure

We followed three meticulously designed steps: First, we conducted a comprehensive search for DFBD events; second, we reviewed and validated key data; and lastly, we carried out data complementation (Fig. 3). In each step, we adhered to strict standards to ensure that all data included in the dataset underwent a thorough review to eliminate potential biases and errors.

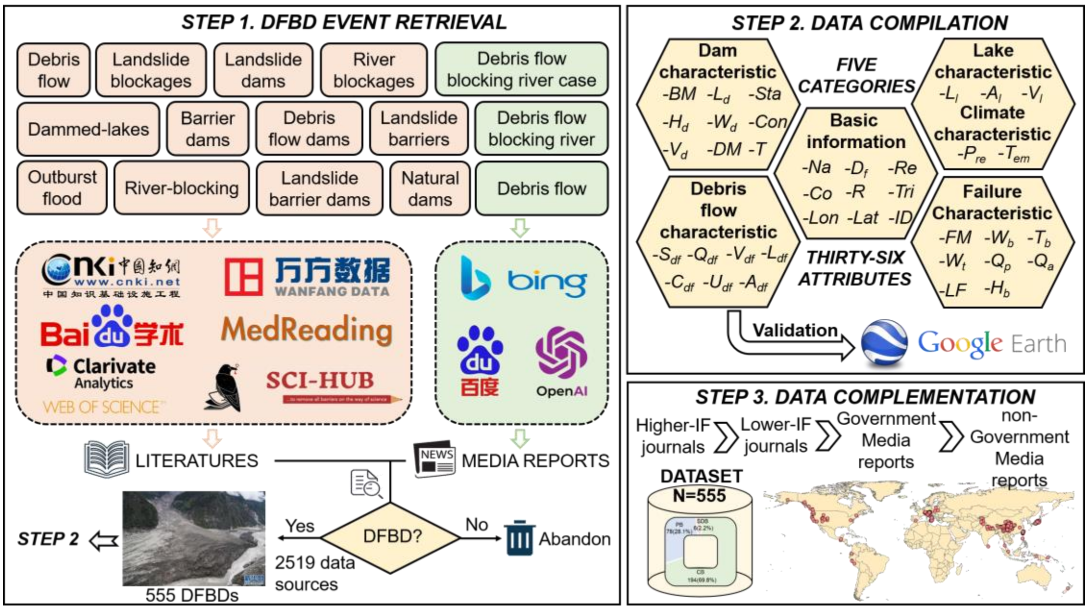

Figure. 3 Procedure for the compilation of the dataset.

In the first step, we were committed to extensively retrieving DFBD events, carefully consulting a wide range of academic literature and media reports in both Chinese and other languages. The collection of Chinese literature mainly relied on online service platforms such as CNKI, Wanfang, Baidu Scholar, and Medreading. For non-Chinese literature, our search encompassed international academic databases such as Google Scholar and Web of Science, complemented by other reputable academic resources. It is important to note that the term 'Barrier dams' can vary depending on the authors, regions, and research focuses, leading to the use of different terms in parallel. Common synonyms found in the literature include 'landslide blockages', 'landslide dams', 'stream/river blockages', 'natural dams', 'landslide barriers', and 'dammed-lakes'. To collect DFBDs as comprehensively as possible, we used a range of keywords including 'debris flow', 'landslide blockages', 'landslide dams', 'river blockages', 'natural dams', 'landslide barriers', 'dammed-lakes', 'barrier dams', 'debris flow dams', 'landslide barrier dams', 'outburst flood', 'river blocking' for event search. We also combined these with regional and national terms, such as 'Chinese debris flow barrier dams', to enhance the search's relevance. To ensure search consistency and reduce errors, we used unified search keywords for both Chinese and non-Chinese literature. In addition, we inputted keywords such as 'debris flow blocking river', 'debris flow dam incident', and 'debris flow' into search engines such as Baidu and Google, as well as ChatGPT, and combined regional information to retrieve relevant dam events. Among the identified barrier dam cases, those of DFBDs were selected, included in this dataset, and the term 'debris-flow barrier dam (DFBD)' was adopted. We repeated this step multiple times during 2022 to 2024 to ensure that any updated DFBD events are included in our dataset.

In the second step, we conducted a thorough review and validation of the information gleaned from literature and media reports. It is important to note that we applied different validation methods to treat various attributes of DFBDs, as detailed below:

-***DFBD-ID***. We sorted the DFBDs by the first letter of their names.

-Name. When compiling this attribute, we adhered strictly to the original names of DFBDs as documented in the data sources. These names typically derive from the channels of the debris flows or the rivers that were obstructed. It is worth noting that a DFBD may have different names in different data sources. To avoid information redundancy and confusion, we have carefully checked using Google Earth based on geographical coordinates and the date of formation. We have identified and eliminated the DFBD events that were reported repeatedly in different data sources due to naming differences, ensuring that each event is uniquely named and recorded only once in our dataset.

-***Country***. When country information was reported, it was verified and confirmed through Google Earth. Once errors are found, we used the inquiry results from Google Earth. When data sources lack explicit national information, we determine the event's country using geographic coordinates or prominent landmarks with Google Earth. This process ensures the accuracy and reliability of the country information recorded in our dataset, improving the overall quality of the data.

-***Longitude*** and ***Latitude.*** When determining and verifying the longitude and latitude information, we took the following measures.

(1) The data sources provided latitude and longitude information.

1) When the data sources included latitude and longitude information and corresponding imagery was available on Google Earth, we verified these coordinates through the platform. If discrepancies arise between the latitude and longitude provided by the data source and the results from Google Earth, we prioritize the Google Earth data. This is because Google Earth offers continuously updated satellite imagery and geographic data, while manually recorded literature and news reports may contain inaccuracies or biases. The automated data collection and processing capabilities of Google Earth help mitigate the risk of such human errors.

2) For the events with a long history, we cannot locate imagery on Google Earth, we depended on the geographical coordinates reported in the data source.

(2) The data sources did not provide latitude and longitude information.

1) If the corresponding remote sensing imagery was available, we located the landmarks described in the data sources on Google Earth, compared the imagery before and after the formation date of the DFBD, and thereby determined the geographical coordinates of the DFBD on Google Earth.

2) If there is no corresponding remote sensing image, we did not record geographic coordinate information.

- ***Date of formation.*** We obtained the formation dates of DFBDs by referring to literature or news reports, and primarily used Google Earth for verification.

(1) The formation dates were recorded in the literature or news reports.

1) When corresponding Google Earth imagery was available, we used Google Earth to verify the formation dates. If the formation dates provided in the literature or news reports were consistent with the information obtained from Google Earth, we considered this information reliable and

included the formation dates in our dataset; if there was a discrepancy between the formation dates provided in the data sources and the information from Google Earth, we believed it was not feasible to accurately determine the formation dates and, therefore, did not record them.

2) However, for some events that date back a long time (for example, DFBDs formed between 1800 and 1900), Google Earth did not provide relevant imagery. In such cases, we relied on the available literature or news reports to determine the formation dates.

(2) If the date of formation was not recorded in the literature or news reports, our dataset would not include the formation date information.

- ***Trigger***, ***Debris flow channel slope gradient***, ***Debris flow channel length***, ***Debris flow gully basin area***, ***Debris flow density***, ***Debris flow velocity***, ***Debris flow peak discharge***, ***Debris flow volume***, ***Dam volume***, ***Dam height***, ***Dam length***, ***Dam width***, ***Dam material***, ***Controls***, ***Lake length***, ***Lake area***, ***Lake volume***, ***Failure mechanism***, ***Breach depth***, ***Breach bottom width***, ***Breach top width***, ***Breaching time***, ***Peak discharge***, ***Average discharge***, ***Loss of life***, and ***Reference***. These attribute data followed reports from different data sources. If there was conflicting information among different data sources, we performed the third step, namely data complementation.

- ***Precipitation*** and ***Temperature.*** Fick and Hijmans (2017) established a global historical climate dataset, which was updated in January 2020. Their dataset includes monthly average precipitation and temperature data from 1970 to 2000, with a spatial resolution of 30 seconds (approximately 1 km^2). In our study, for DFBDs formed between 1970 and 2000, we extracted the corresponding precipitation and temperature data from the dataset of Fick and Hijmans (2017) and associated these data with the respective DFBD cases. For DFBDs formed outside the period of 1970 to 2000, we did not include the precipitation and temperature data.

-Blockage mode. Costa and Schuster (1988) proposed six blockage modes: types I, II, III, IV, V, and VI. In this dataset, we reclassified the DFBD blockage modes based on the event description in the data sources. We regarded type I as partial blockage, types II, III, IV, and V as complete blockage, and type VI as submerged dam blockage. This classification method is helpful to record and understand the different blocking characteristics of DFBDs more precisely.

-Longevity. We divided the DFBDs from different data sources into two types: dams that have been clearly reported to have failed, and the other is the dams that have not been clearly reported to have failed. For the former, we included the longevity attribute according to the report. For the second type of dams, according to the latitude and longitude information, Google Earth was used to view the latest remote sensing images to confirm the current status of the dams. If it is found that the dams no longer exist, we would compare and analyze the remote sensing images at different time to determine the duration of their existence, that is, longevity.

-Stability. We evaluated the stability based on its real-time status. When the literature and media reports indicated that dams have failed, we judged them as unstable dams. On the contrary, if the data sources claimed that the dams were still exist, we used Google Earth to further confirm their actual status. Once the images of the dams on Google Earth were found to show that they still exist, we classified them as stable dams; if they were not found or confirmed that they no longer exist, they were classified as unstable dams.

-***Reference***. We kept detailed records of data sources to ensure traceability and transparency of information. For academic literature, we detailed key information such as the publisher, date of publication, title, author name, and unique identifier DOI. As for media reports, we also meticulously recorded the URL links of the reports so that users could directly access the original reports.

-***Reliability**.* We determine the credibility of debris-flow barrier dam events based on the number of data sources. When there is only one literature or one news report on a DFBD, we define the reliability of this event as low. When a DFBD event is reported by two data sources, the reliability of this event is medium. When an event is reported by three or more data sources, we consider the reliability of the event to be high.

The third step is data complementation. In the situations when there is conflicting information among different data sources, we have adopted a hierarchy of information sources based on perceived reliability to resolve the issue: priority was given to literature published in journals with higher impact factors, as these data have undergone peer review and are of high reliability and authority; next were publications in journals with lower impact factors; and then, we referred to news reports published on official government websites, which are accurate and timely due to their official certification; in very few cases, when there were no data from the above sources, we referred to reports from non-government media. In our dataset, the number of cases obtained from non-government media is minimal, accounting for less than 1% of the total. According to this priority rule, we have incorporated the conflicting information into our dataset to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the data.

2.4 Data analysis tools

In the process of constructing and analyzing this dataset, we integrated a variety of tools to ensure the efficiency of our work and the accuracy of the data. First, we rigorously validated the data using Google Earth and preserved the intermediate process files obtained through remote sensing imagery in their entirety. These files, stored in KMZ format, have been uploaded as supplementary materials for future reference and verification. Additionally, we utilized ArcMap 10.8 software to extract temperature and precipitation data and completed the relevant charting tasks. In the data processing phase, we primarily used Excel for data organization and analysis, and employed Origin software to create clear and accurate data charts that intuitively present our research findings.

3 Results

3.1 Reliability

Based on an in-depth review of 2519 literatures and news reports, we have recorded 555 DFBD events. To evaluate the reliability of these events, we have introduced the key attribute of "reliability". According to our analysis, the 555 DEBD events have a high reliability, with a total of 494 events, accounting for 89 % of the total. In addition, there are 48 events with medium reliability, which make up 8.7 % of the total, and there are only 13 events with low reliability, accounting for only 2.3 % (Fig. 4).

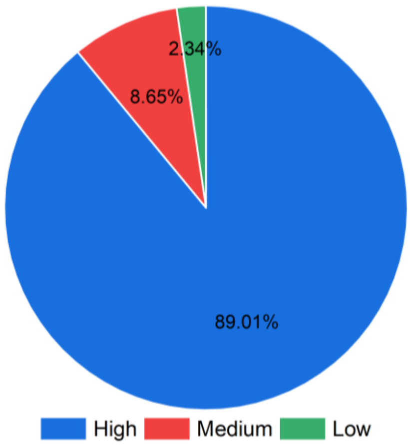

Figure 4. Event reliability.

3.2 Spatiotemporal distribution of the DFBDs

The 555 DFBDs lie in different countries, including 39 dams in Italy, 43 dams in Japan, 376 dams in China, 33 dams in the United States, and a total of 64 dams in other counties (Figs. 5(a) and 5(b)).

Since the 1900s, the number of global DFBDs has shown an overall upward trend. Between the 1900s and 1960s, the number experienced fluctuation and increase, but the growth range was relatively small (Fig. 5(c)). During this period, society's awareness and attention to such disasters were insufficient, resulting in limited records and reports. Between the 1960s and

1990s, the number of DFBDs showed a more significant increase. However, between the 1990s and 2000s, the number of reported DFBDs worldwide significantly decreased compared to the previous decade by approximately 1.5 times. Since the year 2000 to the present, the number of DFBDs has increased significantly, particularly reaching a peak in the last ten years. Global climate change may be one of the key factors leading to an increase in debris flows (Ma et al., 2024; Sharma et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2021). With the rise in global temperatures, extreme weather events such as heavy rainfall, droughts, and floods have become more frequent. These extreme weather conditions are highly likely to induce the formation of debris flows and the blocking of rivers to form dams.

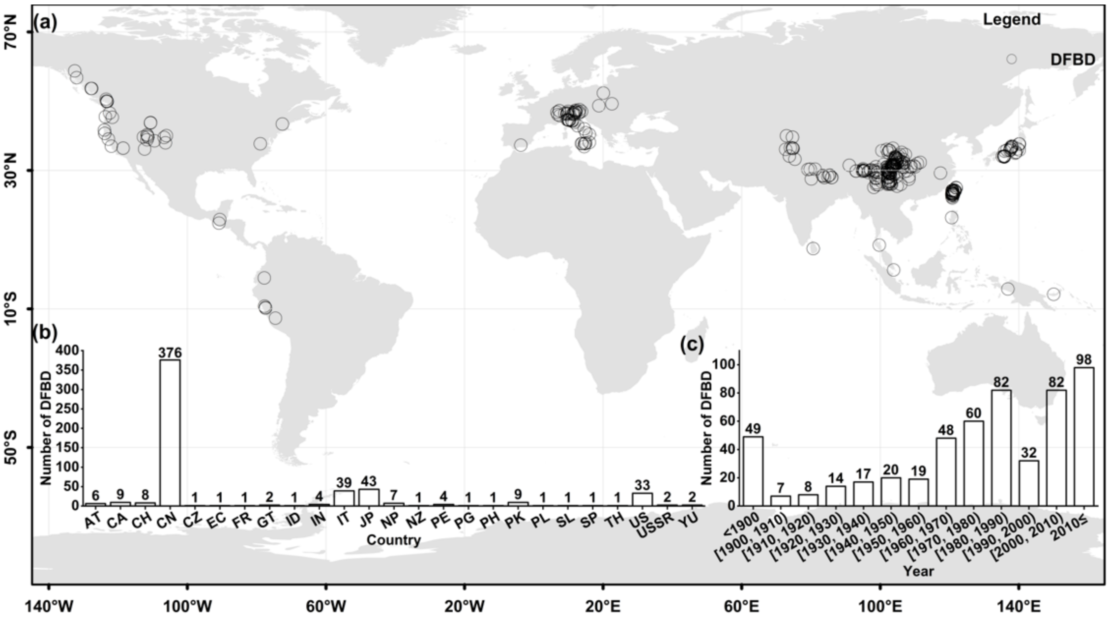

Figure.5 Worldwide DFBDs spatiotemporal distribution. (a) Spatial distribution; (b) the number of DFBDs in each country; (c) temporal distribution.

The number of Chinese DFBDs in the dataset is significantly high, which can be mainly attributed to the following reasons. (1) Active geological activity: China is located at the junction of multiple tectonic plates, with complex geological structures and active neotectonic movements, leading to frequent earthquakes. Earthquakes cause rock fragmentation and mountain loosening, producing a large amount of loose soil and stone, providing a rich source of material for the formation of debris flows. For example, after the 2008

Wenchuan earthquake, a large number of debris flow dam events occurred in the earthquake-affected area and its surroundings (Fan et al., 2012a; b; 2017; 2019; Shi et al., 2015). (2) Diverse climatic conditions: China has a rich variety of climate types, with a significant monsoon climate and concentrated rainfall, often in the form of heavy storms. In some mountainous areas, intense rainfall over a short period can rapidly increase surface runoff, carrying a large amount of silt, rocks, and other materials to form debris flows. Additionally, in high-altitude glacial regions, the melting of glaciers and snow due to rising temperatures in summer can also provide ample water sources for debris flows, promoting the formation of debris flow and DFBDs. (3) Complex topography and geomorphology: China has a vast mountainous area with significant terrain undulations, crisscrossing valleys, and notable elevation differences. Especially in the western and southwestern regions, such as the edges of the Tibetan Plateau (Jiang et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2024) and the Hengduan Mountains (Zhou et al., 2022), the high mountains and deep valleys with steep slopes and rapid streams provide favorable topographical conditions for the formation of DFBDs (Fig.6(a)). A large amount of loose solid material is prone to accumulate in valleys, and once triggered by an appropriate water source, it is easy to form debris flows that can dam rivers and create DFBDs. Although other countries like Japan frequently experience debris flows, there are few topographical conditions, such as deep valleys and high relief, that are conducive to the formation of debris flow dams; therefore, there are fewer DFBDs in Japan.

Since the early 1960s, China vigorously promoted railway and highway construction, but mountain disasters such as debris flows have become increasingly prominent. In response to these challenges, the Chinese Academy of Sciences established the Institute of Glaciology and Cryopedology in Lanzhou and the Institute of Mountain Hazards and Environment in Chengdu, respectively, to conduct systematic research on debris flow disasters. The establishment of these institutes marked that Chinese scholars began to focus on the phenomenon of debris flows blocking the rivers. In particular, the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake triggered many debris flows, further exacerbating the formation of DFBDs. These events not only had a huge impact on the local area, but also made the research and prevention of debris flow blocking rivers reach an unprecedented height. After the Wenchuan earthquake, Chinese scholars have paid more attention to the research and prevention of DFBDs, and the number of reported DFBDs increased significantly (Fig.6(b)).

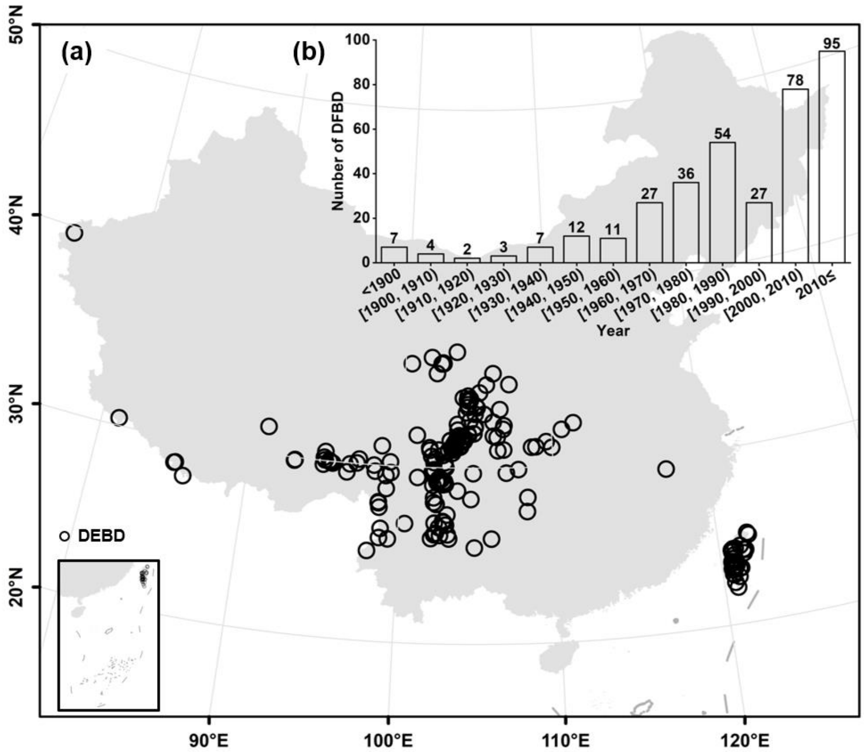

Figure. 6 Chinese DFBDs spatiotemporal distribution. (a) Spatial distribution; (b) temporal distribution.

3.3 DFBD blockage modes and failure mechanisms

The identification of DFBD blockage modes is helpful in predicting the river blocking situation, which helps us to better understand the formation mechanisms of DFBDs, and further provides scientific basis for the prevention and management (Chen, 2019; Dang et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2022).

According to the statistics of this dataset, the blockage modes of 278 DFBDs are recorded. In these cases, 194 dams (69.8 %) exhibit complete blockage mode, 78 dams (28.1 %) exhibit partial blockage mode, and only 6 dams (2.2 %) exhibit submerged dam blockage mode (Fig. 7(b)). Figure. 7(b) indicates that complete blockage is the most common mode of river blockage caused by debris flows. It should be noted that DFBDs with submerged dam blockage modes have a high concealment and are not easily detected by direct observation. Therefore, there may be cases that have not been reported, suggesting that the actual number of submerged dams may be underestimated.

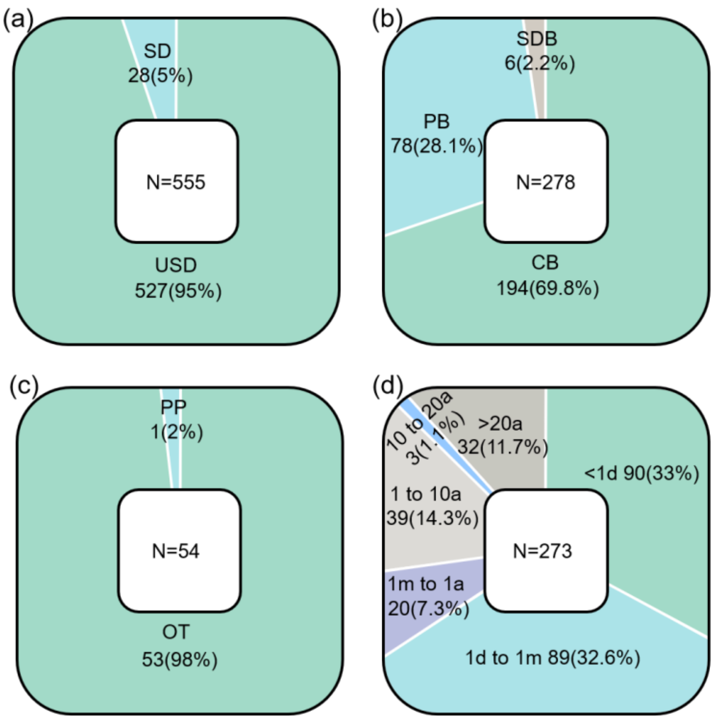

Figure. 7 The stability, blockage modes, failure mechanisms, and longevity of DFBDs. (a) Stability; (b) blockage modes; (c) failure mechanisms; (d) longevity. Notation: In Fig.6(a), SD means stable dam, and USD means unstable dam; in Fig. 6(b), CB means complete blockage, PB means partial blockage, and SDB means submerged dam blockage; in Fig. 6(c), OT means overtopping, and PP means piping.

We have compiled the failure mechanisms of 54 DFBDs, among which the overtopping (OT) accounts for an overwhelming 98 % (Fig. 7(c)). There is only one case for the piping (PP). The fluidity of debris flows inherently limits the height of DFBDs but increases their widths, leading to DFBDs with smaller upstream and downstream slopes (Ruan et al., 2021). Additionally, the DFBDs are almost completely saturated, and the soil of the dams has strong water retention, especially more pronounced in the cases of barrier dams formed by viscous debris flows. Therefore, there are no cases of the SF in our dataset. On the other hand, before the debris flow merges into the main river, the solid-liquid phase materials inside it have been fully mixed after long-distance transportation, and the content of fine particles is high, making no obvious connected pores and seepage channels inside the DFBD. Even if there is seepage, due to the long seepage channel (the dam width is big), it is difficult to form a complete seepage channel in a short time. So, the probability of PP in DFBDs is relatively low.

3.4 Stability and longevity

Current empirical classification schemes for barrier dam stability, developed by Ermini and Casagli (2003), Korup (2004), and Tacconi Stefanelli et al. (2016), trace back to the original definition by Casagli and Ermini (1999). This initial concept was limited to barrier dams that had either catastrophically failed or remained intact. In these studies, stability refers to the instantaneous state of the dam and the dammed lake at the time of inspection, without factoring in the length of time the dam has remained unfailed (longevity). According to this definition, a barrier dam is considered stable if the dammed lake is still present or has been filled with sediments during the analysis. The latter scenario implies that the dam was capable of holding back the lake water (either by maintaining an in - and outflow balance through seepage or spillway flow) and enabled continuous sediment deposition in the lake until it was silted up. Conversely, dams classified as "unstable" have experienced catastrophic breaching. Evidences of such include deep gullies, an impoundment with little sediment, erosional signs in the remaining sediments suggesting rapid water drawdown, and flood - deposited sediments downstream (Fan et al., 2020).

Out of 555 DFBDs, only 28 dams are still existed, indicating that the stability of DFBDs is relatively poor (Fig. 7(a)). Moreover, all the existing dams exhibit complete blockage modes, suggesting that the dams that exhibited partial blockage modes and submerged dam blockage modes are unstable.

As illustrated in Fig.7(d), the DFBDs tend to fail within a brief period. 33 % of the dams failed within one day, and 32.6 % of the dams failed within one day to a month. About 73 % of DFBDs have a longevity of less than a year. Due to the generally lower height of DFBDs (Ruan et al., 2021), the reservoir behind the dam is more likely to reach full capacity quickly. In addition, the rheology of the DFBDs is high, and its overall structural integrity is poor (Iverson, 1997). The surface of the dam has a weaker ability to resist overflow erosion, and once the water reaches the top of the dam, it can quickly erode the materials of the DFBDs. Consequently, the longevity of DFBDs is relatively short.

DFBDs are characterized by rapid outbursts and require close monitoring and concern. The formation of DFBDs and subsequent rapid failure can trigger a series of secondary disasters, which often causes significant economic losses and casualties. According to our statistics, at least 5255 deaths have been attributed to the 47 DFBD events recorded in this dataset. However, events with known casualties represent only 8.5 % of the total DFBD events. This suggests that the actual global death toll could be significantly higher than currently estimated, possibly exceeding our imagination.

3.5 The phenomenon of repeatedly river blockage

Some debris flow gullies, due to the presence of a large amount of loose material within their basins, repeatedly experienced debris flows triggered by factors such as rainfall, causing river blockages (Hu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2022). Alternatively, after a debris flow event, a significant amount of material on the slopes along the gully remained in a loosely cemented state, which can easily be remobilized into the main channel by heavy rainfall, leading to multiple river blockages and dam formations (Wang et al., 2022). The repeated formation of DFBDs significantly increased their hazard potential. The hazards associated with DFBDs were mainly manifested in four aspects: (1) upstream inundation caused by the DFBDs (Hu et al., 2022; Rizzo et al., 2023; Taylor, 2023; Wang et al., 2015); (2) downstream abnormal flood disasters caused by the failure of DFBDs (Takayama et al., 2021; Veh et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2022); (3) sedimentation in downstream river channels caused by the outflow or failure of DFBD, leading to riverbed aggradation and reduced flood conveyance capacity of the river channels (Cao et al., 2011; Vázquez-Tarrío et al., 2024); and (4) the high risk of the residual dam material transforming into debris flows under heavy rainfall after the DFBD has released its impounded water (Chen et al., 2022).

It can be found that it is a common phenomenon for debris flows to occur multiple times in the same channel and to form multiple DFBDs. For example, from 2017 to 2018, at least four debris flows occurred in the Sedongpu basin, upstream of the Yarlung Tsangpo River in eastern Tibet, China, which repeatedly blocked the Yarlung Tsangpo River (Tong et al, 2018; Zhang et al., 2022) (Fig. 8). On December 21, 2017, a glacial debris flow erupted in the Sedongpu Valley and blocked the Yarlung Tsangpo River (Fig. 8(d)), and the DFBD breached three days later. On July 26, 2018, the Yarlung Tsangpo River also experienced a temporary blockage, and the resulting barrier lake was not large, posing no serious threat (Fig. 8(c)). However, on October 17, 2018, a disaster chain composed of an ice-rock avalanche and glacial debris flow formed a DFBD (Figs. 8(a) and 8(b)), which impounded a massive barrier lake with a volume of approximately 0.605×10^9 m^3, and the maximum water depth in front of the dam was about 79.43 m (Jin, 2019). Three days later, the DFBD breached, but there was still a narrow spillway, and the possibility of re-blockage remained. Therefore, a small-scale glacier debris flow on October 29, 2018, caused further blockage of the river, forming a DFBD with a volume of 0.326×10^9 m^3 and a maximum depth of approximately 0.77 m (Figs. 8(a) and 8(b)). The two DFBDs in

2018 posed a serious threat to the upstream village of Gala.

According to the records in this dataset, 555 DFBDs have predominantly occurred in 426 different gullies or river channels. It is particularly noteworthy that 63 gullies have shown a high activity, experienced multiple debris flows, and formed 192 DFBDs. This phenomenon reveals an important issue: For the channels that are in an active debris flow phase, timely engineering measures should be taken to prevent repeated blockages of rivers that lead to the formation of DFBDs.

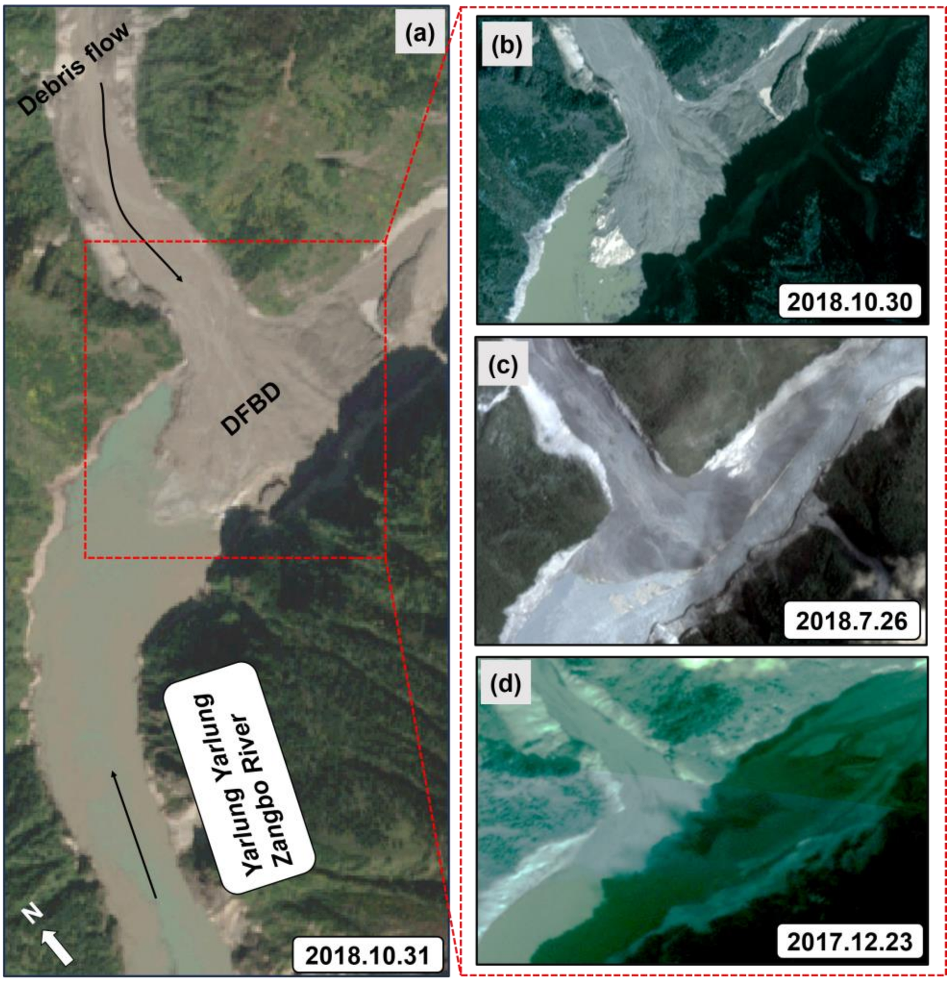

Figure. 8 Repeated DFBDs due to glacial debris flows generated in the Sedongpu catchment, upper Yarlung Tsangpo, eastern Tibet. (a) Remote sensing image after the events on October 17th and 29th, 2018 (October 31st, 2018); (b) remote sensing image after the event of October 17, 2018 (October 30, 2018); (c) remote sensing image of July 26, 2018; (d) remote sensing image after the event of December 22, 2017 (December 23, 2017). The remote sensing image (a) is sentinel-2 (https://dataspace.copernicus.eu/) and (b-d) are sourced from PlanetScope (https://www.planet.com/).

4 Discussion

4.1 Applicability of LD stability models to DFBDs

Due to the limitation of investigation conditions and the threat of dam break risk, it is difficult to obtain the geological, physical, and mechanical parameters of the barrier dams. Nonetheless, dam geometric characteristics can be obtained in time through satellite optical images or UAV aerial photography. Therefore, it is of great practical significance to use geometric characteristic parameters to quickly evaluate and predict the stability of barrier dams (Table 3), which can provide timely decision support for emergency disposal.

It should be pointed out that the stability models based on morphological parameters in Table 3 ignore the category of barrier dam and are mainly focused on LD cases. However, Ruan et al. (2021) pointed out that the DFBDs are quite different from the LDs. Until now, there are no specific models or criterions for judging the stability of DFBDs. When the LD stability models in Table 2 are used to analyze the stability of DFBDs, can they better distinguish the stability? Which model is more suitable for the stability analysis of DFBDs? This work has not been studied, but it is necessary.

Because some parameters of some cases in the dataset are missing, the number of calculation cases used for each model is not exactly the same. Additionally, different research works and regions adopt varying definitions and criteria for dam stability, which has led to the development of various stability identification models. LD stability models, with their parameters and concepts, are highly prone to confusion, causing significant inconvenience in the stability assessment of barrier dams. This paper identifies dam stability based on the dam's real-time status, and to avoid inconsistencies in the criteria and models for stability judgment, all verification models selected in Table 3 are based on the stability identification indicators of the dam's real-time status.

Table 3 Stability prediction mode for LDs.

Model	Stability

	Stable	Uncertain	Unstable	Reference
$BI=\lg\left(\frac{V_d}{A_c}\right)$	>5	(4,5)	(3,4)	Canuti et al. (1900)
$DBI=\lg\left(\frac{A_cH_d}{V_d}\right)$	<2.75	(2.75,3.08)	>3.08	Ermini and Casagli (2003)
$II=\lg(\frac{V_d}{V_l})$	>0	-	<0	Casagli and Ermini (1999)
$I_e=-1.554+2.317lgV_l-2.828lgL_d-2.336lgW_d$	<0	-	>0	Wu et al. (2021)
$L_s(AHWL)=-2.22\lg A_c-3.76\lg H_d+3.17\lg L_d+2.85\lg W_d+5.93$	>0	-	<0	Dong et al. (2011)
$L_s(AHV)=-4.48\lg A_c-9.31\lg H_d+6.61\lg V_d+6.39-2.336\lg W_d$	>0	-	<0	

Notation: The definition of parameters is shown in Fig.1.

Table 4 Calculation results of LD stability models to DFBDs.

Models	Number of cases	Number of misjudged cases	Number of accurate cases	*F*/%	R_c/%	*R*/%
BI	49	6	25	12.24	53.06	51.02
DBI	50	8	36	16	74	72
II	44	11	31	25	75	70.45
I_e	47	38	9	80.85	19.15	19.15
$L_s(AHWL)$	49	12	35	24.49	75.51	71.43
$L_s(AHV)$	50	0	43	0	100	86

Referring to Zhong and Shan (2019), the calculation results of each evaluation method were compared and analyzed by using the misjudged rate F, the conservative accuracy rate R_c, and the absolute accuracy rate R, respectively. Among them, the misjudgment rate F refers to the probability that the DFBD is actually unstable, but the calculation result is stable. In practical application, the model with a low misjudgment rate should be selected as far as possible; the absolute accuracy rate R refers to the probability that the actual status of the dam is completely consistent with the calculated result; the conservative accuracy R_c refers to the probability that the actual status of the dam is stable and the calculated result is unstable, and the absolute accuracy R is added to the result. The calculation results are shown in Fig. 9 and Table 4.

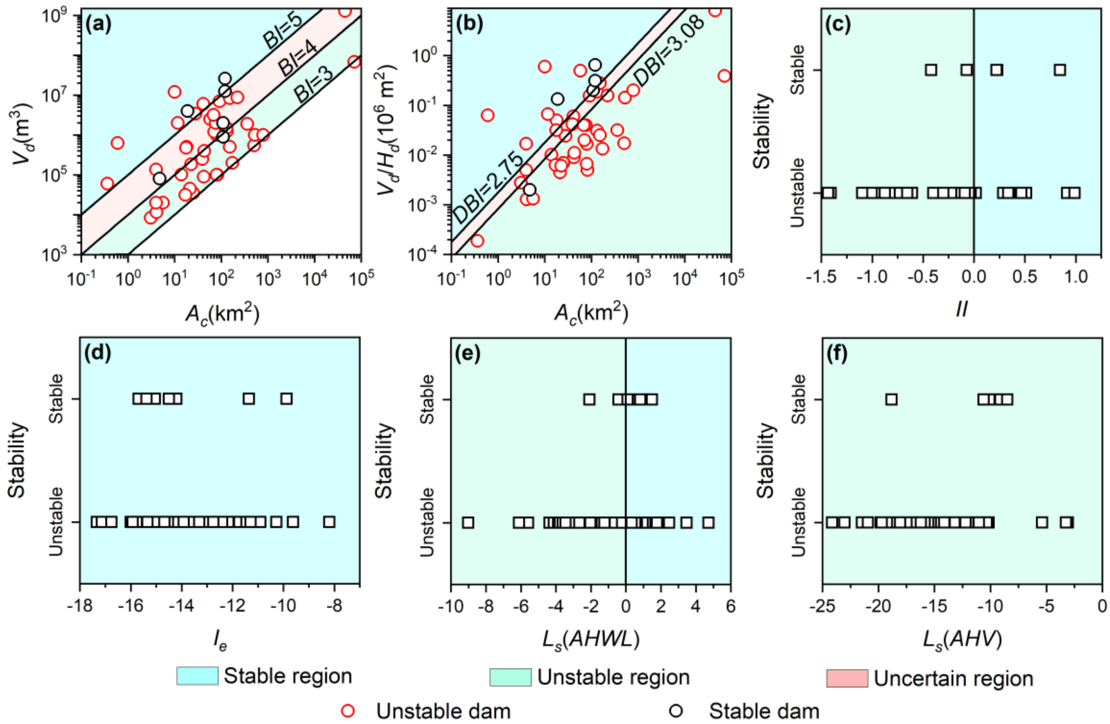

Figure.9 Stability calculation results. (a) Results of *BI* model; (b) results of *DBI* model; (c) results of *II* model; (d) results of I_e model; (e) results of L_s (*AHWL*) model; (f) results of L_s (*AHV*) model.

According to Fig. 9 and Table 4, it can be seen that the absolute accuracy rate R of the calculation results of the *BI* model and the I_e model are relatively low (*BI*: 51.02 %; I_e: 19.15 %), indicating that the *BI* model and the I_e model are not suitable for determining the stability of DFBDs. The absolute accuracy rate R and conservative accuracy rate R_c of the calculation results of the *DBI*, *II*, and L_s (*AHWL*) models are good (>70 %). Among the three models, the *DBI* model has a lower misjudgment rate F (only 16 %), indicating that compared to these three models, the *DBI* model has a higher applicability to DFBDs. L_s (*AHV*) model has the highest absolute accuracy rate R, conservative accuracy rate R_c, and the lowest misjudgment rate F. Considering all the above, it is recommended to prioritize the use of the L_s (*AHV*) model, followed by the *DBI* model, in evaluating the stability of DFBDs. It is not recommended to use the

BI, *II*, and I_e models.

In fact, the stability of a dam depends on the characteristics of the dam itself (Ashraf et al., 2021; Costa and Schuster, 1988; Latrubesse et al., 2020), such as the geotechnical properties of the dam (Fan et al., 2020; Pisaniello et al., 2015; Schuster, 2000). The empirical models are often parameter models derived from historical statistical cases, which are limited in number and often fail to cover all types, all geographical environments, and all formation conditions of barrier dams. Barrier dams in different regions and with different causes have their own unique characteristics. For example, LDs and DFBDs differ significantly in material structure and formation mechanisms. Therefore, the predictive validity of the *BI*, *II*, and I_e models is significantly reduced.

We believe that it is necessary to meticulously categorize barrier dams according to their formation mechanisms, and to expand the existing database by increasing the number of case studies. This is precisely the original intention behind the establishment of this dataset.

4.2 Applicability of LD peak discharge models to DFBDs

As an important parameter in the dam breach, the peak discharge is a prerequisite for the risk assessment of barrier dams and the simulation of downstream flood routing, which directly determines downstream disaster (Stuart-Smith et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2021). Therefore, it is particularly important to accurately and quickly predict the outburst flow peak discharge after the formation of the barrier dams (Bazai et al., 2021; Dubey and Goyal, 2020; Vilca et al., 2021).

The peak discharge depends on the failure mechanism and the characteristics of the dam itself (Costa and Schuster, 1988; Latrubesse et al., 2020), such as the geotechnical properties of dams (Pisaniello et al., 2015; Schuster, 2000). However, it is difficult to obtain the complete parameters required for the calculation of the dam break dynamic models in a short time. The empirical models based on historical statistical cases have been widely used. Table 5 lists the empirical models used to predict the peak discharge of LD breaches around the world. It should be noted that the empirical models in Table 5 are based on some barrier dam cases, most of which are LDs. These empirical models do not distinguish the type of barrier dam and have good applicability to LDs. There are no peak discharge models for DFBDs.

Table 5. Empirical models used for LD peak discharge prediction

NO. Model	Model	Source
M1	Q_p=0.763×(H_w×V_w)$^{0.42}$	Costa (1985)
M2	Q_p=1.122×$V_l^{0.57}$	Costa (1985)
M3	Q_p=672×$V_l^{0.56}$	Costa (1985)
M4	Q_p=2.634×(V_l×H_d)$^{0.44}$	Costa (1988)
M5	Q_p=0.0158×$P_e^{0.41}$	Costa and Schuster (1988)
M6	Q_p=1.6×$V_l^{0.46}$	Walder and O'Connor (1997)
M7	Q_p=6.7×$H_w^{1.73}$	Walder and O'Connor (1997)
M8	Q_p=0.6971×$H_d^{1.5}$×$V_l^{0.25}$	Hakimzadeh et al. (2014)
M9	Q_p=0.54×(V_l-H_d)$^{0.5}$	Hagen (1982)
M10	Q_p=13.4×$H_d^{1.89}$	Singh and Snorrason (1984)
M11	Q_p=1.776×$V_l^{0.47}$	Singh and Snorrason (1984)
M12	Q_p=0.607×$V_w^{0.295}$×$H_w^{2.24}$	Froehlich (1995)
M13	Q_p=0.4×g$^{0.5}$×(H_w+0.3)$^{2.5}$	Kirkpatrick (1977)
M14	Q_p=16.6×$H_w^{1.85}$	SCS (1981)
M15	Q_p=19.1×$H_w^{1.85}$	USBR (1988)
M16	Q_p=48×$H_w^{1.85}$	USBR (1988)
M17	Q_p=3.85×(H_w×V_w)$^{0.41}$	MacDonald and Langridge-Monopolis (1984)
M18	Q_p=0.72×$V_w^{0.53}$	Evans (1986)
M19	Q_p=0.0443×$g^{0.5}$×$V_w^{0.365}$×$H_w^{1.405}$	Webby (1996)
M20	Q_p=0.0068×$g^{0.5}$×$V_w^{0.543}$×$H_w^{0.871}$	Hooshyaripor et al. (2014)
M21	Q_p=0.0166×(g×V_w)$^{0.5}$×H_w	Azimi et al. (2015)

Note: H_w is depth of the breach (m); V_w is the released water volume (m^3); V_l is the volume of the barrier lake (m^3); H_d is dam height (m); P_e is the potential energy of water body; g is acceleration of gravity (m s^{-2})

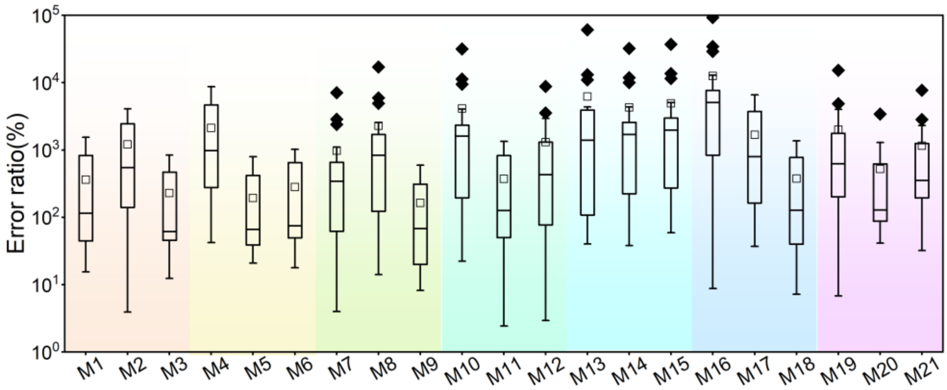

Figure.10 Error ratio (*ER*) of peak discharge calculated from the different models in Table 5, where $ER = |Pv-Av|/P$, *Pv* is the predicted value, *Av* is the actual value.

Figure 10 shows that 21 LD peak discharge models exhibit poor applicability to DFBDs, and the calculated values are consistently higher than the actual DFBD peak discharges. Therefore, the existing empirical models for peak discharge should be used with caution when predicting the peak discharge of DFBDs.

The peak discharge models in Table 5 were derived from the statistics of historical events. Their sample size was limited, and them ignored the failure mechanism and the geotechnical properties of dams, and did not strictly distinguish between different types of barrier dams. As a result, their prediction accuracy was affected by the region and the type of dam. Therefore, the models in Table 5 are difficult to be used for predicting the peak discharge of DFBDs (Fig.10). Establishing a peak discharge model suitable for DFBDs is a key issue to be solved in the future. This dataset can provide rich cases and basic data to help solve this problem.

4.3 Comparison with barrier dam datasets

Some studies have established datasets of barrier dams through the collation and reconstruction of historical events. These datasets contain a large number of barrier dams, for example, Tacconi Stefanelli et al., (2016), which summarized 300 Italian barrier dams during field investigations, through air photo interpretation, and by estimating using historical and bibliographic information. Schuster and Costa (1986) established the first dataset containing 187 barrier dams worldwide by reviewing literature from various regions. Fan et al. (2020) compiled a comprehensive dataset encompassing 1,887 dams, achieved by integrating various datasets.

Compared with other dam datasets, our dataset only includes 555 DFBDs, and the number of dams is not dominant. However, other datasets mainly focused on LDs, with less attention and collection on DFBDs. Our dataset is highly targeted, only focusing on DFBDs. Additionally, some datasets are obtained by summarizing other datasets, while our dataset places greater emphasis on the review and validation of raw data, rather than being a simple summary of other datasets. The DFBDs in this dataset are mostly derived from case studies scattered in various regions (Dang et al., 2009; Wei et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2016), which requires us to review extensively from original literature rather than merely superficial dataset compilation, thus avoiding the errors that might arise from a simple dataset aggregation. For example, during the data collection process, we identified a common issue where some individual case study documents confused the concepts of dam length and width (for instance, Tian et al., 2023). After correcting these errors, we included the correct data for dam length and width in the dataset. Furthermore, this paper integrates data from different sources to provide a comprehensive perspective, precisely describing the characteristics of DFBDs with 38 attributes. This dataset is the first of its kind dedicated to DFBDs.

The relationship between the shape and size of a barrier dam and the size of the valley it blocks is one of the most widely accepted classifications of barrier dam blockage modes, proposed by Costa and Schuster (1988). But some scholars have conducted a geomorphological classification of DFBD blockage modes based on hydrodynamics, dam size, and the width of the main valley, identifying three modes: submerged dam blockage, partial blockage, and complete blockage (Fig.1). This classification criterion is more in line with the characteristics of DFBDs (Chen et al., 2019; Dang et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2022; Zou et al., 2020). The classification criteria of Costa and Schuster (1988) may be more applicable to LDs. However, other datasets still use Costa and Schuster (1988) classification criteria to categorize DFBD blockage modes, leading to confusion in terminology and inconsistency in criteria in subsequent researches. Therefore, this dataset has re-identified the blocking patterns of DFBDs.

The stability of a barrier dam is a dynamically changing process, and some scholars have defined the stability of a barrier dam from different perspectives: Korup (2004) defined it from the perspective of the dam's longevity, considering a barrier dam to be stable if the barrier lake exists for more than 10 years. Liao et al. (2022) and Xu (2020) believed that if no breach occurs within one year, it can be regarded as stable. However, some scholars have defined the stability of a barrier dam from the perspective of the dam's real-time condition, considering it is an instantaneous definition. When specifically analyzing a barrier dam, if the barrier lake still exists or has been filled due to the accumulation of gravel and sediment, it can be considered stable (Casagli and Ermini, 1999; Ermini and Casagli, 2003; Tacconi et al., 2016). It is evident that there is considerable divergence in the understanding of the stability of barrier dams. This divergence not only leads to confusion that different stability criteria being applied to different dams within the same datasets, but it also poses significant challenges to the research on the stability of barrier dams. Based on real-time status to assess the stability of the dams, it is possible to differentiate between failed and not failed barrier dams. Therefore, our dataset judges the stability based on the real-time status of the DFBDs, re-evaluates, and compiles the stability of all DFBDs.

4.4 Limitations in this work

While this dataset offers valuable data, it acknowledges certain limitations in specific aspects. Firstly, the dataset contains some ancient events, and the authenticity of the historical records may be difficult to review fully, especially when it comes to details such as the geometric characteristics of DFBDs. And some attribute information of the DFBDs is still lacking in completeness, such as the data on the failure characteristics.

In addition, we acknowledge that our dataset does not encompass all DFBD events. The number, 555 dams, seems unreasonably low for a 'worldwide' scale, which may be attributed to the following reasons: (1) in the process of data collection, it is inevitable that some literature or reports might be missing, and some unreported events are not included; (2) it is obvious that only large-scale debris flows have the potential of damming rivers. However, the number of debris flow events is smaller than that of other type of landslides with the same magnitude; (3) current research on barrier dams focuses more on LDs, with less attention given to DFBDs (see Table 1), hence the limited availability of literature we could consult; (4) due to their poor stability (Fig. 6(a)) and short-lived existence(Fig. 6(d)), many DFBDs quickly disappeared, and it is difficult to detect and record them timely; and (5) for the records of early debris-flow disasters, people paid more attention to the influences on human lives and infrastructure, while lacking sufficient understanding and attention to the blockage of river channels by debris-flows. As a result, such events were often overlooked in historical records, leading to a seemingly smaller number when viewed from the perspective of historical data statistics.

In this dataset, the number of DFBDs in China is significantly higher than that in other countries and regions, which may be attributed to the fact that China's active geological activity, diverse climatic conditions, and complex topography and geomorphology conditions are more conducive to the formation of DFBDs (see Section 3.2 for details). However, we cannot rule out the possibility that the spatial distribution of DFBDs in this dataset may be biased. In our efforts to create a global DFBD dataset, we encountered challenges that are common in the data collection process, which may contribute to such biases. For instance, the recording and reporting of DFBD events can vary by region, influenced by local research focuses, data recording practices, and the availability of scientific resources. Furthermore, access to DFBD event data in some countries may be restricted due to data privacy policies, language barriers, or a lack of digitization. The diversity of languages in global literature and reports adds complexity to data collection, particularly when extracting information from non-English sources. Additionally, different countries and regions may employ varying standards and definitions for DFBD events, complicating data comparison and integration. Our team's geographical and resource acquisition advantages facilitate the collection of a greater number of Chinese DFBD cases.

The objective of this study is to amass and catalog DFBD events and their related information as comprehensively as possible, with the aim of establishing a global DFBD dataset, which serve as a valuable repository of data and to provide a multidimensional perspective for DFBD research. Currently, this dataset represents a preliminary attempt, and while it has its limitations, it is relatively comprehensive and well-documented. We have laid a foundational framework, and in future work, we plan to refine this dataset from two perspectives. First, we plan to interpret the geometric characteristics of the DFBDs and lakes using remote sensing imagery. Second, we aim to uncover unreported DFBDs through field investigations. Additionally, we look forward to and welcome active participation from experts and contributors in various fields to jointly promote the continuous improvement and expansion of the dataset through interdisciplinary collaboration and the integration of multi-source data.

5 Data availability

The data can be freely downloaded via Zenodo at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14766647 (Cheng et al., 2024).

6 Conclusion

In this study, we meticulously reviewed 2519 high-caliber literature and media reports, successfully identifying 555 global DFBD events spanning from 1800 to 2023. This effort culminated in the creation of the inaugural DFBD dataset, marking a significant advancement in the field. Our dataset described the characteristics of DFBDs using five categories and 38 attributes, including basic information (latitude and longitude, etc.), debris flow characteristics (debris flow velocity, debris flow peak discharge, etc.), dam characteristics (dam height, dam volume, etc.), lake characteristics (lake area, lake volume, etc.), failure characteristics (peak discharge, loss of life, etc.), and climate characteristic (precipitation and temperature). We not only conducted strict review and verification of these information using Google Earth, but also developed a method to resolve conflicts between information from different data sources. Considering the current lack of unified standards for distinguishing river blocking modes and the confusion surrounding stability concepts, this dataset reassessed and reintegrated river blocking modes and the stability of DFBDs. The results show that since the 1960s, the number of DFBDs has increased rapidly, which may be related to global climate degradation. The most common blockage mode for DFBDs is complete blockage (69.8 %), and the most common failure mechanism is overtopping (98 %). Moreover, DFBDs tend to have relatively poor stability, with about 73 % of DFBDs failing within one year after formation. The phenomenon of repeated river blocking is very common, with about 15 % of rivers experiencing multiple debris flows, leading to river blockage and the formation of 192 DFBDs, accounting for 35 % of the total number of DFBDs. Based on the data included in this dataset, the applicability of LD stability models and peak discharge models to DFBDs is discussed. Discussion indicated that the *Ls* (*AHV*) model and *DBI* model perform well in the stability assessment of DFBDs. However, the peak discharge models of LDs are not suitable for DFBDs.

Although this dataset does not have an obvious advantage in the number of cases, our dataset is the first of its kind dedicated to DFBDs. We place special emphasis on the unification of terminology and concepts, as well as the review of raw data, to ensure data consistency and accuracy. We believe that this dataset can provide a rich set of foundational data for researches related to debris flow river blocking, and enhance understanding of DFBDs. Of course, there are still some limitations that need to be improved. We will continue to improve and update this dataset in future work.

Author contributions

Conceptualization, Kaiheng Hu; Methodology, Kaiheng Hu and Haiguang Cheng; Validation, Xiaopeng Zhang, Hao Li, and Qiyuan Zhang; Formal Analysis, Kaiheng Hu, Shuang Liu, and Haiguang Cheng; Data Curation, Kaiheng Hu and Haiguang Cheng; Writing-Original Draft Preparation, Haiguang Cheng; Writing-Review & Editing, Kaiheng Hu, Shuang Liu, Haiguang Cheng, Manish Raj Gouli, Pu Li, Lan Ning, Anna Yang, Li Wei, Junyu Liu; Visualization, Haiguang Cheng and Peng Zhao; Supervision, Kaiheng Hu; Funding Acquisition, Kaiheng Hu.

Competing interests

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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The case samples in this dataset are distributed globally, and there may be limitations in applicability under certain specific geographical or climatic conditions. Readers are advised to be aware of these limitations when using the data.

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