| 1  | Comparative Analysis of $\mu(I)$ and Voellmy-Type Grain Flow Rheologies in                                       |
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| 2  | Geophysical Mass Flows: Insights from Theoretical and Real Case Studies  |
| 3  | Yu Zhuang <sup>1,2,3</sup> , Brian W. McArdell <sup>4</sup> , Perry Bartelt <sup>2,3</sup>                       |
| 4  | <sup>1</sup> College of Civil Engineering, Hunan University, Changsha, China                                     |
| 5  | <sup>2</sup> WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research SLF, Davos Dorf, Switzerland                          |
| 6  | <sup>3</sup> Climate Change, Extremes and Natural Hazards in Alpine Regions Research Centre CERC                 |
| 7  | <sup>4</sup> Swiss Federal Institute for Forest, Snow and Landscape Research WSL, Birmensdorf, Switzerland       |
| 8  | Corresponding author: Yu Zhuang (yu.zhuang@slf.ch)   |
| 9  | Abstract   |
| 10 | The experimental-based $\mu(I)$ rheology is now prevalent to describe the movement of gravitational mass         |
| 11 | flows. We reinterpret the $\mu(I)$ rheology as a Voellmy-type relationship to highlight its connection to        |
| 12 | grain flow theory and demonstrate its practical applications. Using one-dimensional block modeling and           |
| 13 | two real-world case studies-the 2017 Piz Cengalo rock-ice avalanche and an experimental snow                     |
| 14 | avalanche at the Swiss Vallée de la Sionne test site-we demonstrate the relationship between the                 |
| 15 | dimensionless number $I$ and the granular temperature $R$ , establishing the equivalence between $\mu(I)$        |
| 16 | and widely-used Voellmy-type grain flow theologies $\mu(R)$ . Results indicate that $\mu(I)$ , theology utilizes |

17 the dimensionless inertial number *I* to mimic contributions of granular temperature/fluctuation energy

18 to flow behaviour. In terms of Voellmy, the  $\mu(I)$  rheolgy contains a velocity-dependent turbulent

19 friction coefficient modelling shear thinning behavior. This turbulent friction assumes the production and 20 decay of fluctuation energy are in balance, exhibiting no difference during accelerative and depositional

21 phases of avalanche flow. The constant Coulomb friction coefficient prevents  $\mu(I)$  rheology from

22 accurately modeling the dispositional characteristics of actual mass flows. The modeled evolution of the

| 23 | snow avalanche using the $\mu(I)$ rheology is too slow, lagging 5 seconds behind the measured values.       |
|----|---|
| 24 | More importantly, the calculated runout extends approximately 200 meters beyond the observed limits,        |
| 25 | with significant deposit anomalies in the valley. By incorporating a non-steady production and decay of     |
| 26 | fluctuation energy in the $\mu(R)$ framework, it becomes possible to achieve a good match with both the     |
| 27 | measured velocities and the observed runout. Our results highlight the strengths and limitations of both    |
| 28 | $\mu(I)$ and Voellmy $\mu(R)$ rheologies, bolstering the theoretical foundation of mass flow modeling while |
| 29 | revealing practical engineering challenges.   |

30 Keywords: μ(I) rheology; Voellmy-type Grain flow rheologies; Geophysical mass flows; Avalanche
 31 risk assessment

# 32 **1. Introduction**

33 Creating dependable methods to forecast the runout and deposition characteristics of geophysical mass 34 flows stands as a fundamental challenge in natural hazard research. Long runout mass flows, like debris 35 flows, rock/ice avalanches and snow slides, occur in complex mountain terrain and exhibit an array of 36 complex outcomes depending on their initial material composition and dynamic interactions with the 37 substrate. These mass movements of granular composition exhibit significant mobility, vast energy, and 38 diverse flow patterns, posing challenges for prediction using numerical models (Crosta et al., 2007; 39 Hürlimann et al., 2015; Iverson et al., 2015; Frigo et al., 2021; Shugar et al., 2021). A crucial element for precise modeling of their various behaviors is the development of a universal rheology capable of 40 41 accurately capturing their granular motion, including long-distance travel, transitions between flow 42 regimes, and eventual deposition.

Presently, two primary types of numerical models dominate in engineering practice: discrete
element methodologies (Scaringi et al., 2018; Zhao & Crosta, 2018) and continuum approaches, often

45 employing depth-averaged techniques (Hungr & McDougall, 2009; Christen et al., 2010). Discrete 46 approaches simulate particle interactions, incorporating fragmentation processes, thus adeptly portraying 47 the complex behavior of flowing granular materials (Katz et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2017; Zhuang et al., 48 2023a). Nonetheless, accurately replicating the sheer volume of particles within real geophysical mass 49 flows remains a formidable challenge, constraining their utility for solving large-scale problems due to 50 computational constraints. Conversely, the continuum approaches treat the mass flow as a "granular fluid" 51 consisting of particle ensembles. They utilize a series of differential equations to calculate the flow 52 process, offering high computational efficiency (McDougall & Hungr, 2004; Christen et al., 2010; 53 Mergili et al., 2017). Because existing continuum approaches account for the essential process of ground 54 entrainment (Sovilla & Bartelt, 2002, Bartelt et al., 2018a), frictional heating and phase changes (Valero 55 et al., 2015; Bartelt et al., 2018b), they are somewhat more advanced than discrete element approaches 56 and thus have been widely used to assess mass flow hazard.

57 The Voellmy rheology (Voellmy, 1995) has a long tradition in the hazard mitigation community and 58 is applied to predict the velocity and runout of avalanches and debris flows (Hungr, 1995; Schraml et al., 59 2015; Aaron et al., 2019; Zhuang et al., 2020). It defines the relationship  $\mu(V)=S/N$  as follows:

60 
$$\mu(V) = \frac{s}{N} = \mu_s + \frac{v^2}{\xi_0 h}$$
(1)

61 where  $\mu_s$  considers the Coulomb friction at "stopping", v is the flowing velocity,  $\xi_0$  the "turbulent" 62 friction parameter; h the flowing height. Voellmy considers  $\mu_s$  to describe the "solid" behavior of the 63 flowing mass, whereas  $\xi_0$  represents the "fluid"-like behavior. Because the Voellmy model is grounded 64 in clear physical principles and involves only two parameters, it is frequently used in hazard mitigation. 65 However, a major issue with the Voellmy model is that the travel resistance of mass flows varies 66 significantly with the flow regime (Gruber and Bartelt, 1998). In the Voellmy model, each flow regime 67 requires a distinct set of calibrated flow parameters; there is no universal parameter set available, 68 rendering the Voellmy approach somewhat makeshift. To address this issue, multiple researchers have 69 suggested incorporating the concept of granular temperature (fluctuation energy R) to accurately model 70 the flow of granular materials across both dense and fluidized flow regimes (Haff, 1983; Jenkins & 71 Savage, 1983; Jenkins & Mancini, 1987; Gubler, 1987; Buser & Bartelt, 2009). The term granular 72 temperature (fluctuation energy R) originates from thermodynamics and represents the kinetic energy 73 associated with random particle motions in the granular ensemble; it is defined based on the velocity 74 fluctuations of individual grains (Campbell, 2006). This approach involves adding an extra differential 75 equation to account for the generation and dissipation of kinetic energy due to random particle 76 movements (Bartelt et al., 2006). The fluctuation energy arises from shear-work rate  $\dot{W}_f$  and decays by 77 dissipative granular interactions (Haff, 1983):

78 
$$\frac{dR(t)}{dt} = \alpha \dot{W}_f(t) - \beta(R)R(t)$$
(2)

where α governs the production and β governs the decay of the fluctuation energy. It is possible to
express the friction parameters (μ<sub>s</sub>, ξ) as a function of the fluctuation energy, named μ(R) rheology.
Within the Voellmy framework, the μ(R) rheology has the form (Christen et al., 2010; Zhuang et al.,
2024):

83 
$$\mu(R) = \mu_s(R) + \frac{v^2}{\xi(R)h}$$
(3)

84 where  $\mu_s(R) = \mu_s e^{-\frac{R(t)}{R_0}}$ ,  $\xi(R) = \xi_0 e^{\frac{R(t)}{R_0}}$ , the parameter  $R_0$  scales the fluctuation energy. This  $\mu(R)$ 85 rheology has the advantage of modeling shear-thinning in avalanche flows, showing a better agreement 86 with observed front velocities and mapped deposition patterns of avalanches than the classic Voellmy 87 approach (Preuth et al., 2010; Bartelt et al., 2012).

88 Recently, the  $\mu(I)$  rheology is newly proposed to describe the motion of geophysical flows. It arose

directly from the study of small-scale granular experiments (GDR MIDI, 2004; Jop et al., 2006):

90 
$$\mu(I) = \frac{s}{N} = \mu_s + \frac{(\mu_2 - \mu_s)}{\frac{I_0}{I_n} + 1}$$
(4)

Similar to Voellmy, the model consists of two parts. The first part consists of the stopping friction  $\mu_s$ . The second term is controlled by the inertial number  $I_n$ , which describes the ratio of inertial forces of grains to imposed forces, and is defined as (GDR MIDI, 2004):

94 
$$I_n = \frac{5}{2h} \frac{vd}{\sqrt{g_z h}}$$
(5)

where *d* is the granule diameter and  $g_z$  the slope perpendicular component of gravity. The model contains two additional constant parameters,  $I_0$  and  $\mu_2$ , which can be considered the friction at large  $I_n$ . Because of its well-established experimental foundation, the  $\mu(I)$  model has become popular in the granular mechanics community and is applied in hazard practice (e.g., Longo et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2022). Although there is broad interest and advocacy for its use, the physical implications of the  $\mu(I)$ rheology are not completely understood, which restricts its widespread adoption.

101 In this study, we reformulate the  $\mu(I)$  rheology as a Voellmy-type relationship. Through one-102 dimensional block modeling, we investigate the equivalence and difference between the  $\mu(I)$  and 103 Voellmy-type grain flow rheologies. Two historical cases-the 2017 Piz Cengalo rock-ice avalanche and 104 a snow avalanche at the Vallée de la Sionne test site in Switzerland-are further analyzed to demonstrate 105 the performance of the  $\mu(I)$  rheology. The primary objective of this study is to establish the  $\mu(I)$ 106 rheology on a more robust theoretical framework, critically enhancing our understanding of its utility in 107 predicting the dynamics of geophysical mass flows. This endeavor is essential to establish a comparative 108 understanding of different models presently used in natural hazards practice.

- 109 2. Method and Data
- 110 **2.1 Reformulation of the**  $\mu(I)$  **rheology**

- 111 The rheological model describes the relationship between the shear stress S to the normal stress N of the
- 112 flowing mass. The comparison between the  $\mu(V)$  and  $\mu(I)$  rheologies is for practical applications
- intuitively made in S vs N space. Here, we vary the flow height (normal stress) and fix the velocity at a
- specific value to make the comparison, as presented in Fig. 1a. The quantitative and qualitative similarity

115 between the  $\mu(V)$  and  $\mu(I)$  approaches in S vs N space suggests a mathematical relationship between

the two models. In light of this, we have reformulated the  $\mu(I)$  rheology using a Voellmy sum:

117 
$$\mu(I) = \mu_s + \frac{v^2}{\xi(I)h}$$
(6)

118 where  $\xi(I)$  characterizes the "turbulent friction" of the  $\mu(I)$  model. We find:

119 
$$\xi(I) = \frac{v[2 I_o h \sqrt{g_z h + 5vd}]}{5(\mu_2 - \mu_s)d}$$
(7)

120 Different from the constant  $\xi_0$  value in the Voellmy,  $\xi(I)$  is changing during the flowing process, and



121 is dependent on the flowing velocity and height (Fig. 1b).

122

Figure 1.  $\mu(I)$  vs  $\mu(V)$  rheology for typical snow avalanche conditions, v=20 m/s and  $\rho=300$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>. For this example, we take  $\mu_s=0.2679=\tan(15^\circ)$  and  $\mu_2=0.8391=\tan(40^\circ)$ . (a) The curve  $I_0=2.0$  plotted against  $\mu(V)$  with  $\xi_0=2000$  m/s<sup>2</sup>. Note the strong similarity between the  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  approaches in *S* vs *N* space. (b) Comparison of the  $\mu(I)$  vs  $\mu(V)$  rheologies in velocity space.  $\xi(I)$  increases with velocity;  $\xi(V)=\xi_0$  is constant. In the shaded region 20m/s  $\leq v \leq 30$ m/s, the  $\xi(I)$  and  $\xi(V)$  values are similar.

#### 129 **2.2 One-dimensional block modeling analysis**

130 The turbulent friction coefficient  $\xi(I)$  is velocity-dependent. According to Fig. 1, the primary reason

131 for the similarity of the two results is the selected velocity for the comparison v=20 m/s. For velocities

outside this range, the  $\xi(I)$  and  $\xi(V) = \xi_0 = \text{constant}$  values differ (Fig. 1b). Therefore, to investigate the

133 difference between  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V, R)$ , we must study the models over a wide range of velocities typical

134 for a specific geophysical flow from initiation to runout.

For this purpose, we construct a one-dimensional block model. A block of height *h* and mass *m* starts from rest on a steep slope of 35° (release zone). After 30 s the block enters a transition zone of 20°, where it begins to decelerate. After 90 s the block enters a flat runout zone and stops. We calculate the speed and location of the block's center-of-mass; friction is given by  $\mu(I)$ ,  $\mu(V)$  and  $\mu(R)$ . The governing ordinary differential equations for this model are:

140 
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = v(t) \tag{8}$$

141 
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}v(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = g_x(t) - \mu(I, V, R)g_z(t) \tag{9}$$

142 where x(t) is the flowing distance, v(t) is the flowing velocity, and  $(g_x, g_z)$  are the components of 143 gravity acceleration.

We consider the motion of the center-of-mass to represent the motion of a granular, geophysical flow. Such simple, one-dimensional sliding block models of avalanche flow have been used extensively to calculate hazard maps (Perla et al., 1980). This approach allows us to compare the  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V, R)$ rheologies in velocity space.

# 148 **2.3 Case study of historical avalanches**

149 According to the reformulation of the  $\mu(I)$  rheology,  $\xi(I)$  parameter is a function of both flowing height

and velocity (Eq. 7), which is heavily dependent on the flowing regime and entrainment process. The

- 151 one-dimensional block model ignores the above essential features and processes. Therefore, we conduct
- an analysis of two historical avalanche cases: 2017 Piz Cengalo rock-ice avalanche (Mergili et al., 2020)
- and a snow avalanche (No. #20163017) that occurred in Vallée de la Sionne test site, Switzerland (Sovilla

| 154 | et al., 2018). The Piz Cengalo avalanche occurred on 23th August, 2017 with a released rock volume of  |
|-----|--|
| 155 | $\sim$ 3×10 <sup>6</sup> m <sup>3</sup> . The sliding mass entrained the glacial of 6×10 <sup>5</sup> m <sup>3</sup> and formed a rock-ice avalanche. This |
| 156 | avalanche is well documented with laser scans of release and deposits, providing natural materials to  |
| 157 | confirm the numerical model (Mergili et al., 2020; Walter et al., 2020). The snow avalanche (#20163017)  |
| 158 | was artificially triggered on 18th January, 2016. The avalanche involved an initial volume of 86560 m <sup>3</sup>   |
| 159 | and a runout of ~2500 m. The difference between DEMs before and after the event indicated the deposit  |
| 160 | structure, and cameras recorded the evolution of the snow avalanche. Detailed information about this   |
| 161 | particular snow avalanche is presented in Sovilla et al., (2018).  |

- 162 We implement the Voellmy  $\mu(V)$ ,  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  rheologies into a continuum approach-based
- 163 model RAMMS (Christen et al., 2010; Bartelt et al., 2018b; Zhuang et al., 2024) to elucidate the
- 164 performance and limitations of the  $\mu(I)$  rheology in calculating the evolution of geophysical mass flows.
- 165 Detailed information about the well-established **RAMMS** model can be found in Christen et al. (2010),
- 166 Bartelt et al. (2016, 2018b), and Zhuang et al. (2024).

### 167 **3. Results**

- 168 **3.1 Rheology comparison using the one-dimensional block model**
- 169 (1) The  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  rheologies in velocity space

170 The direct comparison of  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  reveals that both models can produce similar runout (Fig. 2a),

171 and velocity (Fig. 2b). However, the  $\mu(V)$  approach reaches a smaller peak velocity at the end of the

- 172 release zone but decelerates less strongly in the transition zone (Fig. 2b). In the end, the velocity at the
- beginning of the runout zone is higher. This result can also be visualized in the depiction of location
- 174 through time (Fig. 2a). The Voellmy flow reaches the same runout distance but lags the  $\mu(I)$  model
- 175 along the intermediate transition segment. Of interest is a direct comparison of  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  through

176 time (Fig. 2c). The  $\mu(V)$  with constant  $\xi_0$  reaches larger values (lower velocities) but decreases rapidly 177 during the transition to the flatter 20° slope, falling to values smaller than  $\mu(I)$ . Both models predict the 178 same  $\mu$  values as the block enters the flat runout zone. According to Eq. 7,  $\xi(I)$  increases with the 179 flowing velocity, indicating a shear-thinning type of behavior and therefore a smaller resistance in the 180 acceleration stage. The general model behavior over the three slope segments can be explained by the 181 fact that the constant  $\xi_0$  value characterizes a mean value within the domain of possible  $\xi(I)$  values. 182 Model parameters can be selected such that similar results are obtained; experiments are required to 183 determine which accelerative/decelerative behavior represents the best fit to observations. However,



186 **Figure 2.** The  $\mu(I)$  vs  $\mu(V)$  rheologies in velocity space. (a) Location of center-of-mass over time. In 187 the transition zone the Voellmy model with constant  $\xi_0$  lags the  $\mu(I)$  model. (b) Velocity over time. 188 With a constant  $\xi_0$  the Voellmy model tends to a steady velocity, albeit a lower velocity than  $\mu(I)$ . At 189 the end of the transition zone, the Voellmy model predicts a higher (steady state) velocity. (c) *S/N* for 190  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$ . The Voellmy model predicts higher friction before entering the transition zone.

# 191 (2) The Voellmy grain-flow equivalent to $\mu(I)$ : The $\mu(R)$ grain flow rheology

192 The Voellmy-type  $\mu(R)$  rheology is a function of granular temperature/fluctuation energy, which arises

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193 from shearing work and decays by dissipative granular interactions. To better compare the \mu(I) and
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- 194  $\mu(R)$  rheologies, we made the Coulomb friction parameter  $\mu_s(R)$  a constant but turbulent friction
- 195 parameter  $\xi(R)$  a function of fluctuation energy, so that the two rheologies are in the same Voellmy-
- 196 type. When we re-solve the ordinary differential equations (Eqs. 8 and 9) with the additional production-

197 decay equation (Eq. 2) and the parameters  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $\beta = 0.95$ ,  $\xi_0 = 500 \text{ m/s}^2$  and  $R_0 = 6 \text{ kJ}$ , we find a 198 remarkable duplication of the  $\mu(I)$  results, with regard to the calculated location (Fig. 3a), velocity (Fig. 199 3b) and calculated  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  (Fig. 3c). In this comparison the  $\mu(I)$  model employed the 200 following parameters,  $I_0 = 1.0$ , d = 0.07 m,  $\mu_2 = \tan(40^\circ)$  and  $\mu_s = \tan(15^\circ)$ .

201 These results suggest that the empirical  $I_n$  function mimics the production and decay of the granular temperature R. Indeed, there is a strong qualitative similarity between the calculated  $I_n$  and 202 203 R functions. When the two dimensionless parameters  $I_n/I_0$  and  $R/R_0$  are plotted over time (Fig. 3d) or as 204 a function of the calculated velocity (Fig. 3e) there is both a strong qualitative and quantitative agreement. 205 Because  $I_n$  is a pure function of velocity (for a constant height), the calculated friction  $\mu(I)$  exhibits 206 no change during the accelerative and decelerative phases of the flow: it ascends and descends on the 207 same path (Fig. 3f). In contrast, because R is a result of a production/decay equation it exhibits a 208 hysteresis (the friction does not follow the same path in the accelerative/decelerative phases of the flow). 209 Hysteresis effects have been observed in experiments with granular materials (Platzer et al., 2004; 210 Bartelt et al., 2007) and grain flows of snow (Platzer et al., 2007, Bartelt et al., 2015). They indicate a 211 process-dependent flow rheology that cannot be described by rheologies with constant flow parameters 212 (e.g.,  $\mu(V)$ ). They suggest that the friction must change as the state of the flow changes, for example as 213 the grain flow continuum changes velocity. The correspondence between  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  models 214 underscores the importance of embracing randomness and temporal evolution in the modeling of granular 215 flows.



Figure 3. Comparison between the  $\mu(I)$  vs  $\mu(R)$  rheologies. (a)-(c) show the calculated location of center-of-mass, velocity and friction of the two rheologies. (d)-(e) Comparison between  $I_n/I_0$  and  $R/R_0$ over time and flow velocity. (f) Calculated friction  $\mu(I)$  vs  $\mu(R)$  as a function of  $I_n/I_0$  and  $R/R_0$ . (g)-(h) Calculated  $\mu(I)$  vs  $\mu(R)$  as a function of the velocity and gravitational work rate. (i) Comparison between  $\xi(I)$  (Eq. 7) and  $\xi(R)$ .

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Both  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  rheologies exhibit hysteresis in terms of velocity (Fig. 3g) or gravitational work rate (Fig. 3h). Although the  $\mu(I)$  friction expressed in terms of  $I_n/I_0$  exhibits no hysteresis (Fig. 3f), the  $\mu(I)$  rheology in terms of velocity and gravitational work rate does. However, this dependency is much more prominent in the  $\mu(R)$ -type rheologies because it is governed by two processes-both the production of fluctuation energy and its eventual decay. The  $\mu(I)$  approach models the net production, always assuming that the two are in balance. During slope transitions, or other flow states in which production and decay are out-of-balance, this might not be the appropriate description. This is why the

most apparent differences between  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  arise during slope transitions. Despite these differences, however, there is a strong correlation between  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$ . For example, when we depict the calculate  $\xi(I)$  and  $\xi(R)$  function in terms of velocity there is almost a one-to-one agreement in the numerical values (Fig. 3i). The only significant difference is that the  $\mu(I)$  rheology predicts an infinite friction ( $\xi(I)=0$ ) at the velocity of zero, whereas the  $\mu(R)$  approach predicts some finite value (in this case when R=0,  $\xi(R)=\xi_0$ ).



#### 236 **3.2 Rheology comparison using real case studies**

# 237 (1) Piz Cengalo rock-ice avalanche

238 We apply the  $\mu(I)$ ,  $\mu(V)$ , and  $\mu(R)$  rheologies to calculate the dynamics of the Piz Cengalo rock-ice 239 avalanche and the Vallée de la Sionne snow avalanche (Sovilla et al., 2018). Modeling parameters and 240 results for the Piz Cengalo avalanche are presented in Fig. 4. The  $\mu(R)$  parameters are empirical values, 241 which arise from numerous practical experiences and have been widely used in rock-ice avalanche 242 research (Munch et al., 2024; Zhuang et al., 2024). The input parameters ( $\mu_{s,rock}$ ,  $\mu_{s,ice}$ ,  $\xi_{s,rock}$ ,  $\xi_{s,ice}$ ) 243 represent the frictional parameters for a dense, granular packing of rock-ice mixture. Here, the Columb 244 and turbulent friction coefficients  $\langle \mu_s(R), \xi(R) \rangle$  are both functions of the fluctuation energy. In the 245  $\mu(I)$  rheology,  $I_0=0.3$  is a typical value from Pouliquen & Forterre (2002), Forterre & Pouliquen (2003), 246 and Jop et al. (2006), d=1.0 m and  $\mu_2=\tan(40^\circ)=0.839$  arise from field investigations of particle size and 247 deposit distribution. The  $\mu_s$  value and parameters in the  $\mu(V)$  rheology are determined from inversion 248 analysis that the calculated avalanche runout matches the actual condition. For ease of comparison, the 249 same Coulomb friction coefficients are applied in the  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  rheologies. The sensitivity analysis of parameters in the  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  rheologies are well presented (Iannacone et al., 2013; 250



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Figure 4. Rheology comparation with the Piz Cengalo rock-ice avalanche. (a) Deposit structure arises from the laser scans. The grid represents the longitude and latitude of the study area. (b) Seismic signal analysis of the avalanche velocity, derived by Walter et al. 2020. (c)-(e) Modeled avalanche deposits with different rheologies. (4) Modeled avalanche velocity with different rheologies. Two maxima represent the locations derived by seismic signal analysis.



Modeling results of all three rheologies exhibit satisfactory runout distance, but there are deviations

259 in the calculated deposit structure and avalanche velocity. Laser scans indicate two deposit areas of the

Piz Cengalo avalanche (Fig. 4a): a primary deposit area of  $\sim 2 \times 10^5$  m<sup>2</sup> at the mountain toe (1350-1450

| 261 | m a.s.l.) and tail deposits spread on the steep slope (2000 m-2250 m a.s.l.). Both $\mu(I)$ and $\mu(V)$ models |
|-----|---|
| 262 | make a deposit anomaly at the mountain toe (Fig. 4 c and d), exceeding the measurements considerably.           |
| 263 | Very few deposits remained on the steep slope, resulting in significantly smaller accumulation area and         |
| 264 | thickness compared to the actual condition. Conversely, modeling deposits of the $\mu(R)$ model exhibits        |
| 265 | a reasonable deposit structure, whether in the primary deposit area or on the steep slope (Fig. 4e). To         |
| 266 | align the calculated avalanche runout with the actual condition, small Columb friction $\mu_s$ , which is       |
| 267 | dominant when the avalanche comes close to stopping, is applied in the $\mu(I)$ and $\mu(V)$ models. This       |
| 268 | modification dictates the final runout accumulation, leading to deposits primarily concentrated on areas        |
| 269 | with gentle slopes, while leaving smaller deposits on steeper inclines. According to the seismic signal         |
| 270 | analysis (Fig. 4b, Walter et al., 2020), the Piz Cengalo avalanche has a duration of ~100 s and a maximum       |
| 271 | velocity of 64 m/s. There are two avalanche velocity maxima: the first reaches when the avalanche leaves        |
| 272 | the steep glacier portion, and the second occurs behind the steep terrain step in the central runout area.      |
| 273 | The mean velocity between the two maxima is 40-60 m/s. The analysis comparing modeled avalanche                 |
| 274 | velocities and seismic signals indicates that the $\mu(R)$ rheology outperforms others in terms of peak         |
| 275 | values and velocity evolution, as shown in Fig. 4h. Seismic signal analysis, representing the average           |
| 276 | velocity of the mass center, explains why a slightly higher peak velocity is observed in the modeling           |
| 277 | results. In contrast, the $\mu(I)$ and $\mu(V)$ rheologies display higher velocities downstream from the        |
| 278 | source area but show reduced velocities in the transition and deposition areas, deviating from actual           |
| 279 | conditions as depicted in Figs. 4f and 4g. The small Columb friction $\mu_s$ and high $\xi_0$ value impart the  |
| 280 | avalanche with high mobility in the initial stage. This result is also visualized in the modeled deposit        |
| 281 | distribution that very few materials are deposited on the steep slope.  |





Figure 5. Modeling results of the Vallée de la Sionne snow avalanche (#20163017). (a)-(d) show the simulated avalanche deposits and velocity with the two rheologies. The grid represents the longitude and latitude of the study area. (e)-(f) show the comparison between recorded videos and modeling results of the  $\mu(R)$  rheology. (g) Comparison between measured avalanche evolution with modeling results. The profile AB is presented in Fig. 5c-d (h)-(i) The simulated height and velocity of the mass centre with the two rheologies. (j) Comparison between  $R/R_0$  and  $I_n/I_0$ .

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#### 291 (2) Vallée de la Sionne snow avalanche (#20163017)

For the analyzed snow avalanche, the modeling parameters were calibrated to align the simulated avalanche evolution and velocity with the measured values. The progression of the avalanche front was recorded at fixed time intervals of 5 seconds, providing a basis for comparison. The modeling parameters and results for the  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  rheologies are illustrated in Fig. 5.

Both rheological models capture the avalanche's evolution and velocity satisfactorily, though the

297 rheology underestimates the timing by approximately 5 seconds compared to the actual conditions (Fig.

298 5c, d, and g). Yet, profound differences  $\mu(I)$  emerge when examining the simulated runout distance and

- deposit structure. In the  $\mu(R)$  rheology, the avalanche achieves a runout distance of approximately 2500
- 300 meters. The deposits are concentrated at the mountain's toe, where the slope transitions to a gentler incline,
- 301 closely mirroring field observations (Fig. 5a, e, and f).

In contrast, the  $\mu(I)$  rheology exhibits significantly different behavior. The avalanche does not stop at the mountain's toe but continues moving into the valley, showing excessive mobility (Fig. 5b). The sliding mass bulks unnaturally in the valley, and the deposit depth greatly exceeds observed conditions. This divergence arises from the Coulomb friction coefficient  $\mu_s$  used in the  $\mu(I)$  rheology. To match the measured velocity, a smaller  $\mu_s$  value was applied, resulting in an extended runout and deposition in the flatter terrain of the valley.

Further insight emerges when contrasting  $R/R_0$  with and  $I_n/I_0$ , as shown in Fig. 5j. The scaling factors  $R_0$  and  $I_0$  encapsulate the influence of sliding materials. While  $R_0 = 2$  kJ/m<sup>3</sup> represents a typical value for snow avalanches (Buser & Bartelt, 2015),  $I_0$  is derived from laboratory experiments using glass beads (Forterre & Pouliquen, 2003; Jop et al., 2006). This disparity in scaling reflects the intrinsic differences in material behavior and introduces a subtle, yet significant, divergence in 313 rheological interpretation.

314 Through this analysis, we observe that the  $\mu(R)$  rheology, with its non-steady production and 315 dissipation of fluctuation energy, achieves a more faithful reproduction of both the avalanche's dynamics 316 and deposition patterns, underscoring the nuanced interplay of microscopic and macroscopic principles 317 in granular flow systems.

#### 318 4. Discussion and Implications

319 With this contribution, we strengthen the theoretical foundation of the  $\mu(I)$  rheology. It has an 320 equivalence with the Voellmy-type grain flow rheologies, which are composed of a Coulomb stopping 321 friction and a turbulent friction that controls the flow velocity. Compared with the classic  $\mu(V)$  rheology 322 of constant friction parameters, an advantage of the  $\mu(I)$  rheology is to define the turbulent friction 323 parameter  $\xi(I)$  as a function of flowing velocity and height (using inertial number  $I_n$ ). This modification 324 incorporates the shear-thinning behavior (Hu et al., 2022) and the impact of volume (where increased 325 normal stress results in a reduced friction coefficient, see Heim, 1932; Wang et al., 2018), capturing key 326 characteristics of these phenomena. With the help of grain flow theory (Haff, 1983, Jenkins & Savage, 327 1983; Buser & Bartelt, 2009), we find the contribution of  $I_n$  attributes to its empirical representation of 328 the granular temperature/fluctuation energy R. However, the inertial number  $I_n$  is just a function of 329 flowing velocity, assuming the production and decay of the fluctuation energy are in balance. The  $\mu(I)$ 330 rheology, therefore, exhibits no change during the acceleration and deceleration process, leading to the 331 deviation of calculated velocity for real case studies.

332 Though the  $\mu(I)$  rheology demonstrates an improvement over the classic  $\mu(V)$  rheology, it has a 333 critical flaw in ignoring the contribution of fluctuation energy to the Coulomb friction coefficient  $\mu_s$ . In 334 the  $\mu(I)$  rheology, the constant  $\mu_s$  value makes the sliding mass stop on a single slope angle

(arctan( $\mu_s$ )). Consequently, the modeled deposits of the Piz Cengalo avalanche and Vallée de la Sionne snow avalanche concentrate at the mountain toe, with very few materials deposit on the slope. Considering that avalanche deposits in real-world scenarios often cover a broad area with varying thicknesses, using a constant  $\mu_s$  value is unlikely to yield an accurate representation of the deposit structure.

340 A significant challenge in landslide risk assessment is to establish reliable numerical parameters, 341 highlighting a limitation in both the  $\mu(I)$  and classic  $\mu(V)$  rheologies: the reliance on input parameters 342 derived from inversion analysis (Zhao et al., 2024). Although the  $\mu(I)$  rheology is based on 343 experimental data, relevant experiments are limited, and the test materials used are predominantly glass 344 beads (Foterre & Pouliquen, 2003; Jop et al., 2006). To date, no large-scale experiments have been 345 conducted on geophysical mass flows, to our knowledge. Considering the substantial differences in 346 properties among materials in the flowing mass, such as rock, ice, snow, and water, it proves highly 347 challenging to accurately characterize avalanche motion using a uniform surrogate material with different 348 properties, such as glass. Additionally, the dynamics of avalanches are greatly influenced by the flow 349 regime and topography, indicating that avalanches composed of the same material can display varied 350 runout lengths and deposit patterns under different conditions.

This phenomenon further complicates the task of selecting appropriate model parameters. In this study, to achieve a satisfactory runout of the Piz Cengalo avalanche and a reasonable velocity of the Vallée de la Sionne snow avalanche, small  $\mu_s$  values arise from inversion analysis are applied for the calculation of  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(V)$  models. We admit that model parameters can be calibrated such that realistic runout or velocity are obtained, but these site-specifically calibrated parameters limit the engineering application of the model, particularly when conducting risk assessments of potential 357 avalanches. The existing  $\mu(R)$  model offers a possible solution (Christen et al., 2010; Bartelt et al., 2011; 358 Zhuang et al., 2023c). By defining the Coulomb stopping friction and turbulent friction parameters as 359 functions of fluctuation energy, we can characterize the effects of flow regime and topography changes on the friction of landslides (Preuth et al., 2010). Using a group of empirical parameters, which represent 360 361 the material properties of rock, ice and snow, realistic deposit structure and velocity evolution can be 362 obtained. Because R represents the energy associated with random particle motions, it introduces an 363 element of stochasticity into avalanche modelling. Clearly, it is impossible to precisely determine the 364 position of every individual particle in an avalanche, contrary to what Discrete Element Modeling (DEM) 365 might imply. Nonetheless, the behavior of the granular ensemble seems to be directed by a 366 production/decay equation, which, even when estimated approximately, can impart a discernible 367 trajectory to the avalanche process and deposition dynamic, thereby enhancing the predictive accuracy 368 of numerical models.

Further case studies on various types of geophysical mass flows, such as rock avalanches, ice avalanches, and snow avalanches, will help quantify the modeling parameters of  $\mu(R)$  rheology (production and decay of fluctuation energy) with less uncertainty. The remaining challenge is to formulate a comprehensive rheology that incorporates the critical physical processes involved in mass flows, including water lubrication, fluidization, sliding materials, and ground roughness.

374 **5. Conclusion** 

In this paper, we describe the equivalence and difference between three widely-used rheologies to model geophysical mass flows: (1) the classic Voellmy rheology, (2)  $\mu(I)$  rheology and (3)  $\mu(R)$  rheology. The  $\mu(I)$  rheology can be reformulated as Voellmy-type, which is composed of a Coulomb and a turbulent friction term. Different from the classic Voellmy rheology (constant  $\xi$  value),  $\mu(I)$  rheology 379 involves a velocity-dependent  $\xi$  parameter, modeling a shear-thinning behavior. It utilizes a 380 dimensionless inertial number  $I_n$  to minic contributions of fluctuation energy to the runout behavior of 381 mass flows, building an equivalence with the  $\mu(R)$  rheology. Though both  $\mu(I)$  and  $\mu(R)$  models 382 indicate that friction is a process, changing in time and space, the  $\mu(I)$  rheology assumes the production 383 and decay of fluctuation energy are in balance, exhibiting the same friction behavior during the 384 accelerative and depositional phases. More importantly, a critical flaw of the  $\mu(I)$  rheology is 385 suggesting a constant Colomb friction, ignoring the impacts of fluctuation energy on the Colomb 386 stopping friction. Modeled avalanche deposits of the Piz Cengalo rock-ice avalanche and the Vallée de 387 la Sionne snow avalanche are both concentrated in areas with gentle slopes. The existing  $\mu(R)$  rheology 388 makes up for the shortcomings, exhibiting good performance in predicting the deposit patterns of 389 geophysical mass flows. These insights have practical implications for improving geophysical flow 390 models, offering a more comprehensive understanding of flow behavior and its dependence on factors 391 such as velocity, terrain features, and material properties. As we continue to refine our models, we move 392 closer to more accurate assessments and mitigation of geophysical hazards.

# **Data availability**

394 No data sets were used in this article.

# 395 Author contribution

- 396 Yu Zhuang did the numerical work and wrote the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.
- 397 Perry Bartelt designed the work, did the calculation and wrote the manuscript. Brian W. McArdell edited

the manuscript.

# 399 Declaration of competing interest

- 400 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that
- 401 could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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