

Re: Revised submission - The Entire Landslide Velocity: MS: eSurf-2022-31

Dr. Eric Lajeunesse
Associate Editor
Earth Surface Dynamics

Dear Dr. Lajeunesse,

I very much appreciate the Reviewers and yourself for the time and interest in my work. My sincere thanks to the Reviewers for their time and detailed comments and explicit suggestions that resulted in the substantially improved manuscript in which I appropriately addressed all the concerns raised as far as possible which are relevant to the scope of the present work, including the presentation and the clarity of the paper. Included are the Response to Reviewer #1, Response to Reviewer #2, Response to the Editor, revised marked-up, and clear manuscripts. In the marked-up manuscript, the removed texts are in red and the edited/added texts are in blue color. I hope that the revised manuscript will be suitable for publication in eSurf.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

With best regards,

Shiva P. Pudasaini
Technical University of Munich

20.11.2022

Response to Editor: MS eSurf-2022-31

Editor's comments are denoted by C and my responses are denoted by R, respectively. In the marked-up manuscript, the removed texts are in red and the edited/added texts are in blue color. I hope that the revised manuscript will be suitable for publication in eSurf. I look forward to hearing from you soon.

C: I have now received two anonymous reviews of your manuscript «The Entire Landslide Velocity». Both reviewers appreciate the simplicity of your model with respect to the shallow water models, commonly used in the community. Yet both of them identify issues, which need to be addressed to make the manuscript accessible for the wider readership of ESurf. I would therefore advise you to revise your manuscript in line with the points raised by the reviewers. I would particularly insist on the following recommendations.

R: I very much appreciate the Associate Editor for generally supporting my work. My sincere thanks to the reviewers and the AE for your time and constructive comments and explicit suggestions that resulted in the substantially improved manuscript in which I appropriately addressed all the concerns raised as far as possible and relevant within the scope of the paper. I hope the revised ms is accessible for the wider readership of ESurf. AE's comments and their responses are exclusively addressed in the responses to Reviewers and the revised ms. Here, I only present the condensed form of the response.

C: Although the manuscript is presented as an effort to develop a model useful for practitioners, it focuses on the maths, sometimes to the detriment of Physics. There are many places where the manuscript - and the reader - would benefit from additional discussions about the relevance of the model, its potential applications, and the physical meaning of the parameters it involves.

R: The ms is carefully developed exclusively based on the physical first principles. But, as it is clear from the ms, its final target is the practitioners. This paper is the direct extension of the very recently published paper in eSurf (<https://doi.org/10.5194/esurf-10-165-2022>, Pudasaini & Krautblatter, 2022) in constructing the general exact analytical solutions for the motion of landslide down the entire slope including the accelerating and decelerating sections. So, the results presented in this ms are relevant to describe the earth surface process. Often the exact analytical solutions contain abstractions as such solutions are constructed following rigorous mathematical procedures. This is natural. However, I have made the presentation simplest with exclusive discussions on the physical and possible application aspects. The model equation and its many analytical solutions are written in very convenient forms as the generalization of the often widely used Voellmy and Burger's solutions describing landslide and fluid motions. From the beginning to discussion of the results, I tried to explain the relevance and potential applicabilities of the model and its general solutions. The aim of this ms is to formulate a general model and its many general exact analytical solutions in the most general and arbitrary form such that scientists, engineers and practitioners may find these applicable. I presented several representative figures to display the results with some physically plausible values of the composite model parameters that are exclusively based on the physics of the material and the dynamics of the flow. With this, I hope, the audience see the general broad picture of the model and its applicabilities.

C: In the same vein, information about the assumptions that support the model and their range of validity are often implicit. The model has been presented in a previous publication, and the reader does not need a comprehensive mathematical derivation. Yet some basic information would help to make the manuscript accessible for a wider readership. What is the physics at work in the model? How are the lubrication, liquefaction and viscous forces parameterized? Does your model assume that the solid fraction is constant - and thus independent on the local velocity or other varying parameters?

But what does the model predict or assume regarding the landslide's volume, thickness and shape? How do you set the values of the parameters alpha and beta? etc...

R: The assumptions made in the present ms are explained in the base paper (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022). This has now been detailed in the revised ms, please see responses to Reviewers.

On physics at work in the model: I started the model development and constructing its general exact analytical solutions mainly focusing on the physical aspects and how these can be applied in solving natural and engineering problems better and faster than before.

On lubrication, liquefaction and viscous forces parameterization: Following Reviewers suggestions, in the revised ms, I have exclusively discussed on the lubrication, liquefaction and viscous forces and how to parameterize them. Please see responses to Reviewers.

On the solid fraction: The solid volume fraction α_s is an intrinsic variable. For this, either an extra evolution equation can be considered, or in simplified situation, we can assume that the local variation of the solid volume fraction may be negligible. This has been mentioned in the revised ms. With these specifications, as in Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), it is possible to directly derive general exact analytical solutions. Please see responses to Reviewers.

On landslide's volume, thickness and shape: Avalanche volume and thickness (and its gradient) are not of concern here that I am working in a separate ms. Similarly, the effect of the shape may be included by dimensionally extending the present model to much higher complexity, but not covered here. Even without the variation of avalanche thickness, present exact analytical solutions can be used to solve many technical problems as the new solutions are far better than the widely used Voellmy and Burger's solutions. This has been exclusively discussed in the revised ms, please see responses to reviewers.

On values of parameters alpha and beta: As mentioned in the responses to the Reviewers, the physical basis for the choice of parameters alpha (and other parameters therein) and beta are extensively discussed in the revised ms.

C: Given that your model is a simplification of the well-established shallow-water model, I agree with the reviewers that a comparison of the outcomes of the two models is essential for the reader to assess the validity and the potential benefits of your approach. A comparison of the predictions of your model (velocity, runout distance, ...) to DEM simulations and/or experimental works in simple configurations would also help to convince the reader of what he might gain by adopting your approach.

R: I understand this appreciable concern. It would be nice, but not all fundamentally novel exact analytical solutions must be validated right away at the time of constructing the solutions. It is the question of time and will, soon or later researcher may use it for various purposes. This has been proven with many of our previous analytical mass flow model equations, which become leading contributions in the field (see, e.g., <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JF002186>; <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019JF005204>). I have, in fact, presented the first-ever simple and complete general exact, analytical solutions for the avalanche motions, and have explicitly mentioned/discussed with examples in several figures how the mountain engineers and practitioners may use these solutions in solving applied problems that was not possible by any existing analytical solutions as the previous landslide velocity solutions are either applicable only to time, or spatial variation of the motion down the slope, but not including the variation of both the time and space which is exactly what is needed in real applications. Moreover, comparison of the new model and its general exact, analytical solutions with shallow-water-type model is not that much relevant here. For further on these aspects and the importance of the new solutions over the other models and simulation methods, please see responses to Reviewers.

C: Like reviewer #1, I am concerned by the fact that your model seems independent of the landslide thickness. This point needs clarification. This is also one more reason to compare your model's predictions against the shallow-water equations and, if possible, against experimental data available in the literature. Good agreement between the two would indeed provide reassurance about the validity of your simplified model.

R: As stated in the responses to Reviewers, this ms does not focus on the variation of the avalanche thickness and computing numerical simulations. But, even considering the variation of the velocity alone, for the first-time, I have analytically constructed the most general exact analytical solutions to describe the motion of an avalanche down the entire slope. There are several important aspects that I thought the reviewer would have considered. First, these solutions are much wider and physically better than existing analytical solutions for the landslide velocity that can be applied to solve different technical problems which was not possible before. In smoothly varying slopes, except in the vicinity of the inception, close to deposition, and also in the close proximity of the defense structure, the assumption of the constant depth of avalanche can be an acceptable approximation, because the impact pressure is calculated in terms of the velocity square. Second, the model solutions may be extended to further include the thickness variation in a separate ms, but out of scope here. More on these aspects, please see the revised ms and the responses to Reviewers.

C: Over the last 10 years, the physics community has done considerable work on the rheology of granular media. I believe that your manuscript would strongly benefit from a discussion of your result in the light of recent results in the field of granular rheology. How, for example, does your lubrication, liquefaction and viscous forces connect to the well-established « $\mu(I)$ » rheological framework? See, for example, Jop et al. (2006) or Pouliquen, O., & Forterre, Y. (2009).

Jop, P., Forterre, Y., & Pouliquen, O. (2006). A constitutive law for dense granular flows. *Nature*, 441(7094), 727-730.

Pouliquen, O., & Forterre, Y. (2009). A non-local rheology for dense granular flows. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, 367(1909), 5091-5107.

C: To strengthen the ms on its physical aspects and mechanical strength, the Coulomb-viscous rheology of the debris mixture used in this ms has been exclusively discussed (please see, Line 112-122 of marked up ms). I have also added the discussion on the $\mu(I)$ rheology and the suggested references as follows: "Recently, different rheologies for granular and debris mixture flows have been proposed. Particularly relevant are the physically described pressure- and rate-dependent Coulomb-viscoplastic rheology (Domnik et al., 2013) and the $\mu(I)$ rheology based on empirical fit parameters (Jop et al., 2006; Pouliquen and Forterre, 2009). However, the $\mu(I)$ concerns with the extension of the Coulomb frictional parameter μ . But, the rheology used here has other spectrum of mixture flows consisting of viscous fluid and grains not considered or not explicit in $\mu(I)$ rheology. This is evident in the definition of α in (1). First, it includes lubrication, liquefaction, extensional and compactional behavior, buoyancy effect, and the hydraulic pressure-gradient of the fluid in the mixture as well as the free-surface gradient of the landslide. Second, the present model also includes another important aspect of the viscous drag that plays dominant role for the motion of the landslide with substantial speed as compared to the net driving force. These aspects have been extensively discussed in due places."

The Entire Landslide Velocity

Shiva P. Pudasaini

Technical University of Munich, School of Engineering and Design

Chair of Landslide Research

Arcisstrasse 21, D-80333, Munich, Germany

E-mail: shiva.pudasaini@tum.de

Abstract: The enormous destructive energy carried by a landslide is principally determined by its velocity. Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) presented a simple, physics-based analytical landslide velocity model that simultaneously incorporates the internal deformation and externally applied forces. They also constructed various general exact solutions for the landslide velocity. However, previous solutions are incomplete as they only apply to accelerating motions. Here, I advance further by constructing several new general analytical solutions for decelerating motions and unify these with the existing solutions for the landslide velocity. This provides the complete and honest picture of the landslide in multiple segments with accelerating and decelerating movements covering its release, motion through the track, the run-out as well as deposition. My analytical procedure connects several accelerating and decelerating segments by a junction with a kink to construct a multi-sectoral unified velocity solution down the entire path. Analytical solutions reveal essentially different novel mechanisms and processes of acceleration, deceleration and the mass halting. I show that there are fundamental differences between the landslide release, acceleration, deceleration and deposition in space and time as the dramatic transition takes place while the motion changes from the driving force dominated to resisting force dominated sector. I uniquely determine the landslide position and time as it switches from accelerating to decelerating state. Considering all the accelerating and decelerating motions, I analytically obtain the exact total travel time and the travel distance for the whole motion. Different initial landslide velocities with ascending or descending fronts result in strikingly contrasting travel distances, and elongated or contracted deposition lengths. Time and space evolution of the marching landslide with initial velocity distribution consisting of multiple peaks and troughs of variable strengths and extents lead to a spectacular propagation pattern with different stretchings and contractings resulting in multiple waves, foldings, crests and settlements. The analytical method manifests that, computationally costly numerical solutions may now be replaced by a highly cost-effective, unified and complete analytical solution down the entire track. This offers a great technical advantage for the geomorphologists, landslide practitioners and engineers as it provides immediate and very simple solution to the complex landslide motion.

1 Introduction

The dynamics of a landslide are primarily controlled by its velocity which plays a key role for the assessment of landslide hazards, design of protective structures, mitigation measures and landuse planning (Johannesson et al., 2009; Faug, 2010; Dowling and Santi, 2014). Thus, a proper and full understanding of landslide velocity is a crucial requirement for an appropriate modelling of landslide impact force because the associated hazard is directly related to the landslide velocity (Evans et al., 2009; Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019). However, the mechanical controls of the evolving velocity, runout and impact energy of the landslide have not yet been fully understood.

On the one hand, the available data on landslide dynamics are insufficient while on the other hand, the proper understanding and interpretation of the data obtained from field measurements are often challenging. This is because of the very limited information of the boundary conditions and the material properties. Moreover, dynamic field data are rare and after event static data are often only available for single locations (de Haas et al., 2020). So, much of the low resolution measurements are locally or discretely based on points in time and space (Berger et al., 2011; Theule et al., 2015; Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019). This is the reason for why laboratory or field experiments (Iverson and Ouyang, 2015; de Haas and van Woerkom, 2016; Pilvar et

46 al., 2019; Baselt et al., 2021) and theoretical modelling (Le and Pitman, 2009; Pudasaini, 2012; Pudasaini and
47 Mergili, 2019) remain the major solutions of the problems associated with the mass flow dynamics. Several
48 comprehensive numerical modelling for mass transports are available (McDougall and Hungr, 2005; Frank et
49 al., 2015; Iverson and Ouyang, 2015; Cuomo et al., 2016; Mergili et al., 2020; Liu et al. 2021). Yet, numer-
50 ical simulations are approximations of the physical-mathematical model equations and their validity is often
51 evaluated empirically (Mergili et al., 2020). In contrast, exact, analytical solutions can provide better insights
52 into complex flow behaviors (Faug et al., 2010; Gauer, 2018; Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2021,2022; Faraoni,
53 2022). Furthermore, analytical and exact solutions to non-linear model equations are necessary to elevate the
54 accuracy of numerical solution methods based on complex numerical schemes (Chalfen and Niemiec, 1986;
55 Pudasaini, 2016). This is very useful to interpret complicated simulations and/or avoid mistakes associated
56 with numerical simulations. However, the numerical solutions (Mergili et al., 2020; Shugar et al., 2021) can
57 cover the broad spectrum of complex flow dynamics described by advanced mass flow models (Pudasaini and
58 Mergili, 2019), and once tested and validated against the analytical solutions, may provide even more accurate
59 results than the simplified analytical solutions (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022).

60 Since Voellmy’s pioneering work, several analytical models and their solutions have been presented for mass
61 movements including landslides, avalanches and debris flows (Voellmy, 1955; Salm, 1966; Perla et al., 1980;
62 McClung, 1983). However, on the one hand, all of these solutions are effectively simplified to the mass point
63 or center of mass motion. None of the existing analytical velocity models consider advection or internal defor-
64 mation. On the other hand, the parameters involved in those models only represent restricted physics of the
65 landslide material and motion. Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) overcame those deficiencies by introducing a
66 simple, physics-based general analytical landslide velocity model that simultaneously incorporates the internal
67 deformation and externally applied forces, consisting of the net driving force and the viscous resistant. They
68 showed that the non-linear advection and external forcing fundamentally regulate the state of motion and
69 deformation. Since analytical solutions provide the fastest, the most cost-effective and best rigorous answer
70 to the problem, they constructed several general exact analytical solutions. Those solutions cover the wider
71 spectrum of landslide velocity and directly reduce to the mass point motion as their solutions bridge the gap
72 between the negligibly deforming and geometrically massively deforming landslides. They revealed the fact
73 that shifting, up-lifting and stretching of the velocity field stem from the forcing and non-linear advection. The
74 intrinsic mechanism of their solution described the breaking wave and emergence of landslide folding. This
75 demonstrated that landslide dynamics are architected by advection and reigned by the system forcing.

76 However, the landslide velocity solutions presented by Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) are only applicable
77 for the accelerating motions associated with the positive net driving forces, and thus are incomplete. Here, I
78 extend their solutions that cover the entire range of motion, from initiation to acceleration, to deceleration to
79 deposition as the landslide mass comes to a halt. This includes both the motions with positive and negative
80 net driving forces. This constitutes a unified foundation of landslide velocity in solving technical problems.
81 As exact, analytical solutions disclose many new and essential physics of the landslide release, acceleration,
82 deceleration and deposition processes, the solutions derived in this paper may find applications in geomorpho-
83 logical, environmental, engineering and industrial mass transports down entire slopes and channels in quickly
84 and adequately describing the entire flow dynamics, including the flow regime changes.

85 2 The Model

86 For simplicity, I consider a geometrically two-dimensional motion down a slope. Let t be time, (x, z) be the
87 coordinates and (g^x, g^z) the gravity accelerations along and perpendicular to the slope, respectively. Let, h
88 and u be the flow depth and the mean flow velocity of the landslide along the slope. Similarly, γ, α_s, μ be
89 the density ratio between the fluid and the solid particles ($\gamma = \rho_f / \rho_s$), volume fraction of the solid particles
90 (coarse and fine solid particles), and the basal friction coefficient ($\mu = \tan \delta$), where δ is the basal friction angle
91 of the solid particles, in the mixture material. Furthermore, K is the earth pressure coefficient (Pudasaini and
92 Hutter, 2007), and β is the viscous drag coefficient. By reducing the multi-phase mass flow model (Pudasaini

93 and Mergili, 2019), Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) constructed the simple landslide velocity equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad (1)$$

94 where α^a [ms^{-2}] and β [m^{-1}] constitute the net driving and the resisting forces in the system that control the
 95 landslide velocity u [ms^{-1}]. Moreover, α^a is given by the expression
 96 $\alpha^a := g^x - (1 - \gamma)\alpha_s g^z \mu - g^z \{((1 - \gamma)K + \gamma)\alpha_s + (1 - \alpha_s)\} h_g$ (this includes the forces due to gravity, Coulomb
 97 friction, lubrication, and liquefaction as well as the surface gradient indicated by h_g), and β is the viscous drag
 98 coefficient. The first, second and third terms in α_s are the gravitational acceleration; effective Coulomb friction
 99 (which includes lubrication $(1 - \gamma)$, liquefaction (α_s) (because if there is no solid or a substantially low amount
 100 of solid, the mass is fully liquefied, e.g., lahar flows); and the term associated with buoyancy, the fluid-related
 101 hydraulic pressure gradient, and the free-surface gradient. Moreover, the term associated with K describes
 102 the extent of the local deformation that stems from the hydraulic pressure gradient of the free surface of the
 103 landslide. Note that the term with $(1 - \gamma)$, or γ , originates from the buoyancy effect. By setting $\gamma = 1$ and
 104 $\alpha_s = 0$, we obtain a dry landslide, grain flow, or an avalanche motion. For this choice, the third term on the
 105 right-hand side of α^a vanishes. However, we keep γ and α_s to also include possible fluid effects in the landslide
 106 (mixture).

107 We note that the solid volume fraction α_s is an intrinsic variable. For this, either an extra evolution equation
 108 can be considered, or in simplified situation, we can assume that the local variation of the solid volume fraction
 109 may be negligible. Here we follow the second choice. Similarly, for simplicity, we consider a physically plausible
 110 representative value for the free-surface gradient, h_g designated in due place. With these specifications, as in
 111 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), it is possible to directly derive general exact analytical solutions to (1).

112 Recently, different rheologies for granular and debris mixture flows have been proposed. Particularly relevant
 113 are the physically described pressure- and rate-dependent Coulomb-viscoplastic rheology (Domnik et al., 2013),
 114 and the $\mu(I)$ rheology based on empirical fit parameters (Jop et al., 2006; Pouliquen and Forterre, 2009). How-
 115 ever, the $\mu(I)$ concerns with the extension of the Coulomb frictional parameter μ . But, the rheology used here
 116 has other spectrum of mixture flows consisting of viscous fluid and grains, not considered or not explicit in $\mu(I)$
 117 rheology. This is evident in the definition of α^a in (1). First, it includes lubrication, liquefaction, extensional
 118 and compactional behavior, buoyancy effect, and the hydraulic pressure-gradient of the fluid in the mixture as
 119 well as the free-surface gradient of the landslide. Second, the present model also includes another important
 120 aspect of the viscous drag associated with β that plays dominant role for the motion of the landslide with
 121 substantial speed as compared to the net driving force α^a . These aspects have been extensively discussed in
 122 due places.

123 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) constructed many exact analytical solutions to the landslide velocity equa-
 124 tion (1). However, their solutions were restricted to the physical situation in which the net driving force is
 125 positive, i.e., $\alpha^a > 0$. Following the classical method by Voellmy (Voellmy, 1955) and extensions by Salm
 126 (1966) and McClung (1983), the velocity model (1) can be amended and used for multiple slope segments to
 127 describe the accelerating and decelerating motions as well as the landslide run-out. These are also called the
 128 release, track and run-out segments of the landslide, or avalanche (Gubler, 1989). However, for the gentle
 129 slope, or the run-out, the frictional force and the force due to the free-surface gradient may dominate gravity.
 130 In this situation, the sign of α^a in (1) changes. So, to complement the solutions constructed in Pudasaini and
 131 Krautblatter (2022), here, I consider (1) with negative net driving force resulting in the decelerating motion,
 132 and finally the landslide deposition. For this, I change the sign of α^a and rewrite (1) as:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2. \quad (2)$$

133 Note that a and d in α^a and α_d in (1) and (2) indicate the accelerating (velocity ascending) and decelerating
 134 (velocity descending) motions, respectively. We follow these notations for all the models and solutions consid-
 135 ered and developed below.

136 The main purpose here is to construct several new analytical solutions to (2), and combine these with the

137 existing solutions (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022) for (1). This facilitates the description of the landslide
138 motion down a slope consisting of multiple segments with accelerating and decelerating movements, with posi-
139 tive and negative net driving forces, as well as the landslide run-out. This will provide us with the complete and
140 unified picture of the landslide motions in different segments- from release to track to run-out and deposition
141 as required by the practitioners.

142 **Terminology and convention:** To avoid any possible ambiguity, I define the terminology for accelerating
143 and decelerating motions and motions with ascending and descending velocities. Consider model (1). Then,
144 we have the following two situations.

145 **Accelerating motion – I:** The landslide accelerates if the total system force $\alpha^a - \beta u^2 > 0$. This happens
146 only if $\alpha^a > 0$, that is, when the net driving force is positive, and the initial velocity u_0 satisfies the condition
147 $u_0 < \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$. Where the initial velocity u_0 refers to the situation associated with the particular segment of the
148 avalanche track in which the condition $u_0 < \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$ is satisfied at the uppermost position of the segment.

149 **Decelerating motion – II:** The landslide decelerates if $\alpha^a - \beta u^2 < 0$. This can happen in two completely
150 different situations.

151 **II.1 – Weak-deceleration:** First, consider $\alpha^a > 0$, but relatively high initial velocity such that $u_0 > \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$.
152 Then, although the net driving force is positive, due to the high value of the initial velocity than the
153 characteristic limit velocity of the system $\sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$, the landslide attains decelerating motions due to the
154 high drag force, and approaches down to $\sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$ as the landslide moves. I call this the weak-deceleration.

155 **II.2 – Strong-deceleration:** Second, consider $\alpha^a = -\alpha_d < 0$, which is the state of the negative net driving
156 force associated with the system (2). Then, for any choice of the initial velocity, the landslide must
157 decelerate. I call this the strong-deceleration. By definition, the decelerating velocity, the velocity of the
158 landslide when it decelerates, in **II.2** is always below the decelerating velocity in **II.1**. Because of the
159 higher negative total system force in **II.2** than in **II.1**, the decelerating velocity in **II.2** is always below
160 the decelerating velocity in **II.1**.

161 **Ascending and descending motions (velocities):** Unless otherwise stated and without loss of generality, I
162 make the following convention. When the net driving force is positive and **I** is satisfied, the accelerating landslide
163 motion (velocity) is also called the ascending motion. Because, in this situation, the motion is associated with
164 the ascending velocity. When the net driving force is negative or **II.2** is satisfied, the decelerating landslide
165 motion (velocity) is also called the descending motion, because for this, the velocity always decreases. I will
166 separately treat **II.1** in Section 5.4.

167 The landslide velocity solutions for **I** and **II.1** are associated with the positive net driving forces, and have
168 been presented in Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022). Here, I present solutions for **II.2** associated with the
169 negative net driving force and unify them with previous solutions. This completes the construction of simple
170 analytical solutions.

171 3 The Entire Landslide Velocity: Simple Solutions

172 As (2) describes fundamentally different process of landslide motion than (1), for the model (2), all solutions
173 derived by Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) must be thoroughly re-visited with the initial condition for veloc-
174 ity of the following segment being that obtained from the lower end of the upstream segment. This way, we can
175 combine solutions to models (1) and (2) to analytically describe the landslide motion for the entire slope, from
176 its release, through the track to the run-out, including the total travel distance and the travel time. This is the
177 novel aspect of this contribution which makes the present solution system complete that the practitioners and
178 engineers can directly apply these solutions to solve their technical problems. However, note that, decelerating
179 motion can be constructed independent of whether or not it follows an accelerating motion. In other situation,
180 accelerating motion could follow the decelerating motion. So, depending on the state of the net driving forces,
181 different scenarios are possible.

182 Because of their increasing and decreasing behaviors, velocity solutions associated with the model (1) is indi-
 183 cated by the symbol ↗, and that associated with the model (2) it is indicated by the symbol ↘. These are
 184 the ascending and descending motions, respectively. All the solutions indicated by the symbol ↘ are entirely
 185 new. By combining these two types of solutions, we obtain the complete solution for the landslide motion, i.e.,
 186 ‘the solution ↗ + the solution ↘ = the complete solution’.

187 3.1 Steady-state motion

188 The steady-state solution describes one of the simplest states of dynamics that are independent of time ($\partial u/\partial t =$
 189 0). So, I begin with constructing simple analytical solutions for the steady-state landslide velocity equations,
 190 reduced from (1) and (2):

$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad (3)$$

191 and

$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2, \quad (4)$$

192 respectively. Following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), the steady-state solution for (3) takes the form:

$$\nearrow u(x; \alpha^a, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^a}{\beta} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{\beta}{\alpha^a} u_0^2 \right) \frac{1}{\exp(2\beta(x - x_0))} \right]}, \quad (5)$$

193 where, $u_0 = u(x_0)$ is the initial velocity at x_0 . Similarly, the steady-state solution for (4) can be constructed,
 194 which reads:

$$\searrow u(x; \alpha_d, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\beta} [\exp\{-2\beta(x - x_0)\} (\beta u_0^2 + \alpha_d) - \alpha_d]},$$

$$\searrow u(x; \alpha_d, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_d}{\beta} \left[-1 + \left(1 + \frac{\beta}{\alpha_d} u_0^2 \right) \frac{1}{\exp(2\beta(x - x_0))} \right]}. \quad (6)$$

196 However, solutions (5) and (6) appear to be structurally similar. , and by changing α^a to $-\alpha_d$, (5) can be
 197 simplified to yield (6). These solutions describe the dynamics of a landslide (the velocity u) as a function of
 198 the downslope position, x , one of the basic dynamic quantities required by engineers and practitioners for the
 199 quick assessment of landslide hazards.

200 3.2 Mass point motion

201 Assume no or negligible local deformation (e.g., $\partial u/\partial x \approx 0$), or a Lagrangian description. Both are equivalent
 202 to the mass point motion. In this situation, only the ordinary differentiation with respect to time is involved,
 203 and $\partial u/\partial t$ can be replaced by du/dt . Then, the models (1) and (2) reduce to

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad (7)$$

204 and

$$\frac{du}{dt} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2, \quad (8)$$

205 respectively, for the positive and negative net driving forces. Solutions to mass point motions provide us with
 206 quick information of the landslide motion in time. Such solutions are often required and helpful to analyze
 207 the time evolution of primarily largely intact sliding mass without any substantial spatial deformation. So, we
 208 proceed with the solution for the mass point motions.

209 3.2.1 Accelerating landslide

210 Exact analytical solution for (7) can be constructed, providing the velocity for the landslide motion in terms
 211 of a tangent hyperbolic function (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022):

$$\nearrow u(t; \alpha^a, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^a}{\beta}} \tanh \left[\sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} (t - t_0) + \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right], \quad (9)$$

212 where, $u_0 = u(t_0)$ is the initial velocity at time $t = t_0$. The mass point solutions also enable us to exactly
 213 obtain the travel time, travel position and distance of the landslide down the slope that I derive below. These
 214 quantities are of direct practical importance.

215 **Travel time for accelerating landslide:** The travel time for the accelerating landslide in any sector of the
 216 flow path can be obtained by using the (maximum) velocity at the right end in that sector, The travel time
 217 for the accelerating landslide in any sector (section) of the flow path can be obtained by using the (maximum)
 218 velocity at the right end in that sector. So, this is the travel time the landslide takes for travelling from the
 219 left end to the right end of the considered sector, say u_{max} , in (9)

$$\nearrow t_{max} = t_0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha^a \beta}} \left[\tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_{max} \right) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right]. \quad (10)$$

220

221 **The position of accelerating landslide:** Since $u(t) = dx/dt$, (9) can be integrated to obtain the landslide
 222 position as a function of time (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022):

$$\nearrow x(t; \alpha^a, \beta) = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} (t - t_0) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ -\tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right], \quad (11)$$

223 where $x_0 = x(t_0)$ corresponds to the position at the initial time t_0 .

224 **The travel distance for accelerating landslide:** The maximum travel distance x_{max} is achieved by setting
 225 $t = t_{max}$ from (10) in to (11), yielding:

$$\nearrow x_{max} = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} (t_{max} - t_0) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ -\tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right]. \quad (12)$$

226 Solutions (9)-(12) provide us the velocity of the negligibly deformable (or non-deformable) accelerating landslide
 227 together with its travel time, position and travel distance, supplying us with all necessary information required
 228 to fully describe the state of the landslide motion.

229 3.2.2 Decelerating landslide

230 However, the exact analytical solution for (8), i.e., the velocity of the decelerating landslide, appears to be the
 231 negative of a tangent function:

$$\searrow u(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = -\sqrt{\frac{\alpha_d}{\beta}} \tan \left[\sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} (t - t_0) + \tan^{-1} \left(-\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right], \quad (13)$$

232 where, $u_0 = u(t_0)$ is the initial velocity at time $t = t_0$. The solution in (13) is fundamentally different than
 233 the one in (9) for the accelerating landslide. In contrast to (9), which always have upper ($u > \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$) or
 234 lower bound ($u < \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$) (depending on the initial condition), (13) provides only the decreasing (velocity)
 235 solution without any lower bound that must be constrained with the possible (final) velocity in the sector under
 236 consideration, say, u_f , particularly $u_f = 0$, when the landslide comes to a halt.

237 **Travel time for decelerating landslide:** The maximum travel time in the sector under consideration, t_{max} ,
 238 is achieved from (13) by setting the velocity at the right end of this sector, say, u_{min} i.e.,

$$\searrow t_{max} = t_0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_d \beta}} \left[\tan^{-1} \left(-\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_{min} \right) - \tan^{-1} \left(-\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right]. \quad (14)$$

239 The final time the mass comes to a standstill is obtained from (14) by setting $u_{min} = 0$.

240 **The position of decelerating landslide:** Again, by setting the relation $u(t) = dx/dt$, (13) can be integrated
 241 to obtain the landslide position as a function of time:

$$\searrow x(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) - \sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} (t - t_0) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right], \quad (15)$$

242 where $x_0 = x(t_0)$ corresponds to the position at the initial time t_0 .

243 **The travel distance for decelerating landslide:** The maximum travel distance x_{max} is achieved by setting
 244 $t = t_{max}$ from (14) in to (15), yielding:

$$\searrow x_{max} = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) - \sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} (t_{max} - t_0) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right]. \quad (16)$$

245 Solutions (13)-(16) supply us with the velocity of practically non-deformable decelerating landslide including its
 246 travel time, position and travel distance. All these information are necessary to fully characterise the landslide
 247 dynamic.

248 **Total time and total travel distance:** It is important to note that the overall total time t_{oa} and the overall
 249 total travel distance x_{oa} must include all the times in ascending (\nearrow) and descending (\searrow) motions until the
 250 mass comes to the halt. , where oa stands for the overall motion. Here, ascending and descending motions
 251 refer to the increasing and decreasing landslide velocities in accelerating and decelerating sections of the sliding
 252 path.

253 In this section I constructed simple exact analytical solutions for the accelerating and decelerating landslides
 254 when they are governed by simple time-independent (steady-state) or locally non-deformable (mass point)
 255 motions. However, their applicabilities are limited due to their respective constraints of not changing in time
 256 or no internal deformation.

257 4 The Entire Landslide Velocity: General Solutions

258 In reality, the landslide motion can change in time and space. To cope with these situations, we must construct
 259 analytical landslide velocity solutions as functions of time and space. Below, I focus on these important aspects.
 260 These general solutions cover all the simple solutions presented in the previous section as special cases. The
 261 solutions are constructed for both the accelerating and decelerating motions.

262 4.1 Accelerating landslide – general velocity

263 Consider the initial value problem for the accelerating landslide motion (1) with the positive net driving force:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad u(x, 0) = s_0(x). \quad (17)$$

264 This is a non-linear advective–dissipative system, and can be perceived as an inviscid, dissipative, non-
 265 homogeneous Burgers' equation (Burgers, 1948). Following the mathematical procedure in Montecinos (2015),
 266 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) constructed an exact analytical solution for (17):

$$\nearrow u(x, t) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^a}{\beta}} \tanh \left[\sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} t + \tanh^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} s_0(y) \right\} \right], \quad (18)$$

267 where $y = y(x, t)$ is given by

$$\nearrow x = y + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} t + \tanh^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} s_0(y) \right\} \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \tanh^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} s_0(y) \right\} \right\} \right], \quad (19)$$

268 and, $s_0(x) = u(x, 0)$ provides the functional relation for $s_0(y)$. Which is the direct generalization of the mass
269 point solution given by (9).

270 As in the mass point solutions, (18) and (19) are also primarily expressed in terms of the tangent hyperbolic,
271 and the composite of logarithm, cosine hyperbolic and tangent hyperbolic functions. However, now, these
272 solutions contain important new dynamics embedded into solutions through the terms associated with the
273 function $s_0(y)$ describing the spatial variations in addition to the time variations of landslide dynamics. This
274 makes the general solution system (18) and (19) more complex, but much closer to the reality than simple
275 solutions constructed in Section 3.2.1 that are applicable either **only** for the time or spatial variations of the
276 landslide velocity.

277 4.2 Decelerating landslide – general velocity

278 Next, consider the initial value problem for the decelerating landslide motion (2) with the negative net driving
279 force:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2, \quad u(x, 0) = s_0(x). \quad (20)$$

280 This is also a non-linear advective–dissipative system, or an inviscid, dissipative, non-homogeneous Burgers’
281 equation. Following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), I have constructed an exact analytical solution for
282 (20), which reads:

$$\searrow u(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = -\sqrt{\frac{\alpha_d}{\beta}} \tan \left[\sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} t + \tan^{-1} \left\{ -\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} s_0(y) \right\} \right], \quad (21)$$

283 where $y = y(x, t)$ is given by

$$\searrow x(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = y + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} s_0(y) \right\} - \sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} t \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} s_0(y) \right\} \right\} \right], \quad (22)$$

284 and, $s_0(x) = u(x, 0)$ provides the functional relation for $s_0(y)$. Which is the direct generalization of the mass
285 point solution given by (13).

286 As in the mass point solutions, (21) and (22) are also basically expressed in terms of the tangent, and the
287 composite of logarithm, cosine and tangent functions. However, these solutions now contain important new
288 dynamics included into the solutions through the terms associated with the function $s_0(y)$ describing the spatial
289 variations in addition to the time variations of landslide dynamics. This makes the general solution system
290 (21) and (22) more complex, but closer to the reality than simple solutions constructed in Section 3.2.2.

291 General solutions for the landslide velocities evolving as functions of time and position down the entire flow
292 path, from initiation to the propagation, through the track to the run-out and final deposition, are obtained
293 by combining the accelerating solutions (18)-(19) and the decelerating solutions (21)-(22).

294 5 Results

295 In order to illustrate the performances of our novel unified exact analytical solutions, below, I present results
296 for different scenarios and physical parameters representing real situations (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022).
297 We can properly choose the slope angle, solid and fluid densities, the solid volume fraction, basal friction
298 angle of the solid, earth pressure coefficient, and the free-surface gradient such that α^a can be as high as
299 7, α_d can be as high as 2, and β can be between **0.01 and 0.0025** **0.0025 and 0.01**, or can even take values
300 **outside this domain**. Following the literature (see, e.g., Mergili et al., 2020; Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022),

301 the representative values of physical parameters are: $g = 9.81, \zeta = 50^\circ, \gamma = 1100/2700, \delta = 20^\circ$ ($\mu = 0.36$),
302 $\alpha_s = 0.65, K = 1, h_g = -0.05$. This results in a typical value of α about 7.0. The value of $\beta = 0.02$ is often used
303 in literature for mass flow simulations but without any physical justification, to validate simulations (Zwinger
304 et al., 2003; Pudasaini and Hutter, 2007). With different modelling frame, considering some typical values of
305 the flow depth on the order of 1 to 10 m, calibrated values of β cover the wide domain including (0.001, 0.03)
306 (Christen et al., 2010; Frank et al., 2015; Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019; Frimberger et al. 2021). Pudasaini
307 (2019) provided an analytical solution and physical basis for the dynamically evolving complex drag in the
308 mixture mass flow. This formulation shows that the values of β can vary widely, ranging from close to zero to
309 the substantially higher values than 0.02. Similar values are also used by Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022).
310 In what follows, without loss of generality, the parameter values for α^a, α_d and β are chosen from these domains.
311 However, other values of these physical and model parameters are possible within their admissible domains.

312 Landslide deceleration begins as the resisting forces overtake the driving forces. Analytical solutions reveal
313 that the mechanism and process of acceleration and deceleration, and the halting are fundamentally different.
314 This is indicated by the fact that the solutions to the accelerating system (1) appear in the form of the tangent
315 hyperbolic functions with the upper or lower limits (depending on the initial condition), whereas the solutions
316 for the decelerating system (2) appear to be in a special form of a decreasing tangent functions without bounds
317 for which the lower bounds should be set practically, typically the velocity is zero as the mass halts.

318 5.1 Simple solutions

319 I begin analyzing the performances of the landslide models and their exact analytical solutions for the most
320 simple situations where the motions can either be time-independent, or there is no internal deformation.
321 Solutions will be presented and discussed for the decelerating motions, and the combination of accelerating and
322 decelerating motions, and depositions.

323 5.1.1 Landslide deceleration

324 Landslide velocities in accelerating channels have been exclusively presented by Pudasaini and Krautblatter
325 (2022). Here, I consider solutions in decelerating portion of the channel as well as the mass halting. It might be
326 difficult to obtain initial velocity in the rapidly accelerating section in steep slope. But, in the lower portion of
327 the track, **where motion switches from accelerating to decelerating state**, one could relatively easily obtain the
328 initial velocity that can be used further for dynamic computations. A simple situation arises when the landslide
329 enters the transition zone (**where the motion slows down substantially**), and to the fan region (**where the flow
330 spreads and tends to stop and finally deposits**) such that the initial velocity could be measured relatively easily
331 at the fan mouth. Then, this information can be used to simulate the landslide velocity in the run-out zone, its
332 travel time, and the run-out length in the fan area. Figure 1 shows results for decelerating motions. **In Fig. 1,**
333 **I have suitably chosen the time and spatial boundaries (or initial conditions) as $x = 1500$ m corresponding to**
334 **$t = 50$ s for $u_0 = 50 \text{ ms}^{-1}$.** Once the landslide begins to decelerate (here, due to the negative net driving force),
335 it decelerates faster in time than in space, means the (negative) time gradient of the velocity is higher than its
336 (negative) spatial gradient. However, as it is closer to the deposition, the velocity decreases relatively smoothly
337 in time. But, its spatial decrease is rather abrupt. The travel or run-out time and distance are determined
338 by setting the deceleration velocity to zero in the solutions obtained for (4). We can consistently take initial
339 time and location down the slope such that the previously accelerating mass now begins to decelerate. As
340 the travel time and travel distance are directly connected by a function, we can uniquely determine the time
341 and position at the instance the motion changes from accelerating to decelerating state. At this occasion, the
342 solution switches from model (3) to model (4). **In Fig. 1, I have suitably chosen the time and spatial boundaries**
343 **(or initial conditions) as $x = 1500$ m corresponding to $t = 50$ s for $u_0 = 50 \text{ ms}^{-1}$.**

344 This analysis provides us with basic understanding of the decelerating motion and deposition process in the
345 run-out region. I have analytically quantified the deceleration and deposition. The important observation from
346 Fig. 1 is that the time and spatial perspectives of the landslide deceleration and deposition are fundamentally
347 different. These are the manifestations of the inertial terms $\partial u / \partial t$ and $u \partial u / \partial x$ in the simple mass point and
348 steady-state landslide velocity models (7) and (8), and (3) and (4), respectively.

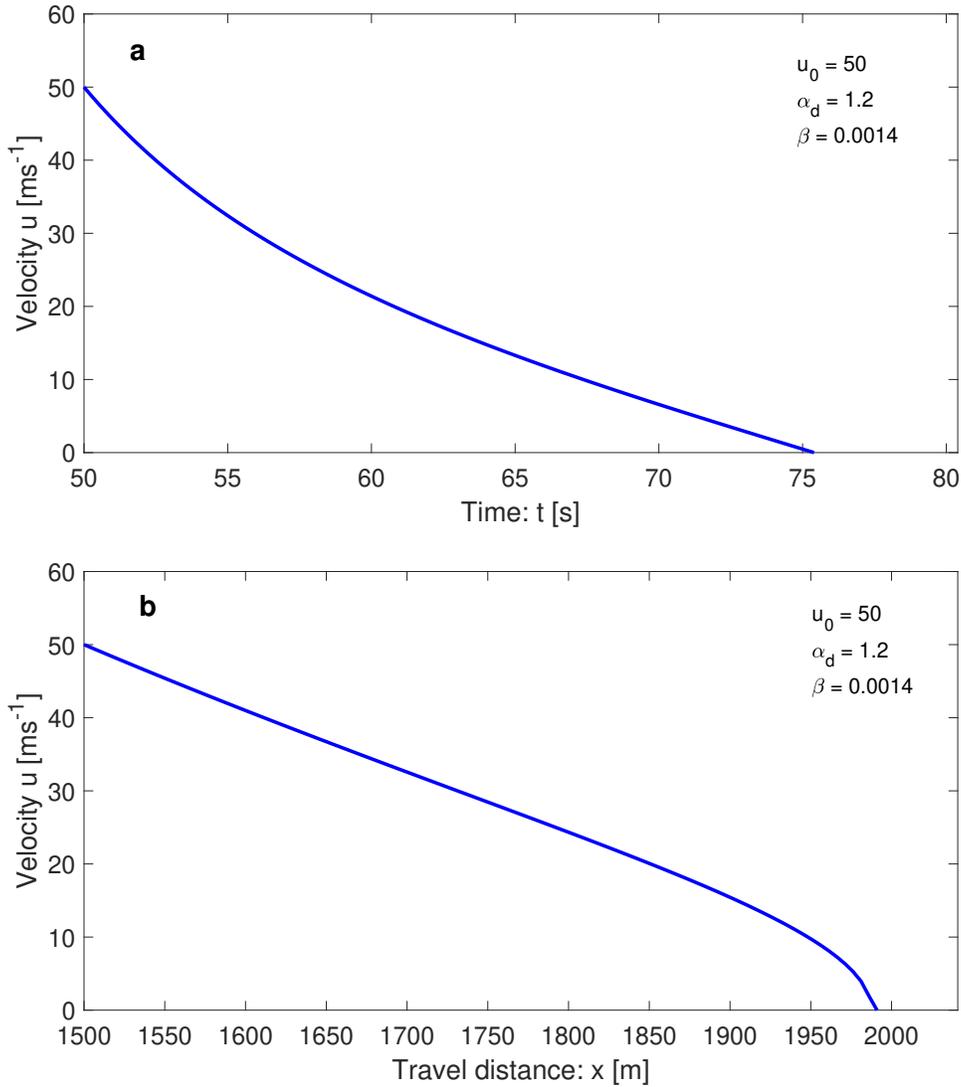


Figure 1: The landslide deceleration in time (a) and space (b) showing different dynamics for given physical parameters.

349 5.1.2 Landslide release and acceleration, deceleration and deposition: a transition

350 The above description, however, is only one side of the total motion that must be unified with the solution in
 351 the accelerating sector, and continuously connect them to automatically generate the whole solution. For a
 352 rapid assessment of the landslide motion, technically the entire track can be divided into two major sectors,
 353 the ascending sector where the landslide accelerates, followed by the descending sector where it decelerates
 354 and finally comes to a halt. Assuming these approximations are practically admissible, this already drastically
 355 reduces the complexity and allows us to provide a quick solution. To achieve this, here, I combine both the
 356 solutions in the accelerating and decelerating portions of the channel. The process of landslide release and
 357 acceleration, and deceleration and deposition are presented in Fig. 2 for time and spatial variation of motion
 358 in two segments (sectors), for (increasing velocity) ascending ($\alpha^a = 3.5$) and (decreasing velocity) descending
 359 ($\alpha_d = 1.2$) sections, respectively. Such transition occurs when the previously accelerating motion turns into
 360 substantially decelerating motion. This can be caused, e.g., due to the decreasing slope or increasing friction
 361 (or both) when the landslide transits from the upper (say, left) segment to the lower (say, right) segment. In
 362 general, any parameter, or set of parameters, involved in the net driving force α^a can make it strongly negative.
 363 The initial value (left boundary) of the downstream decelerating segment is provided by the final value (right

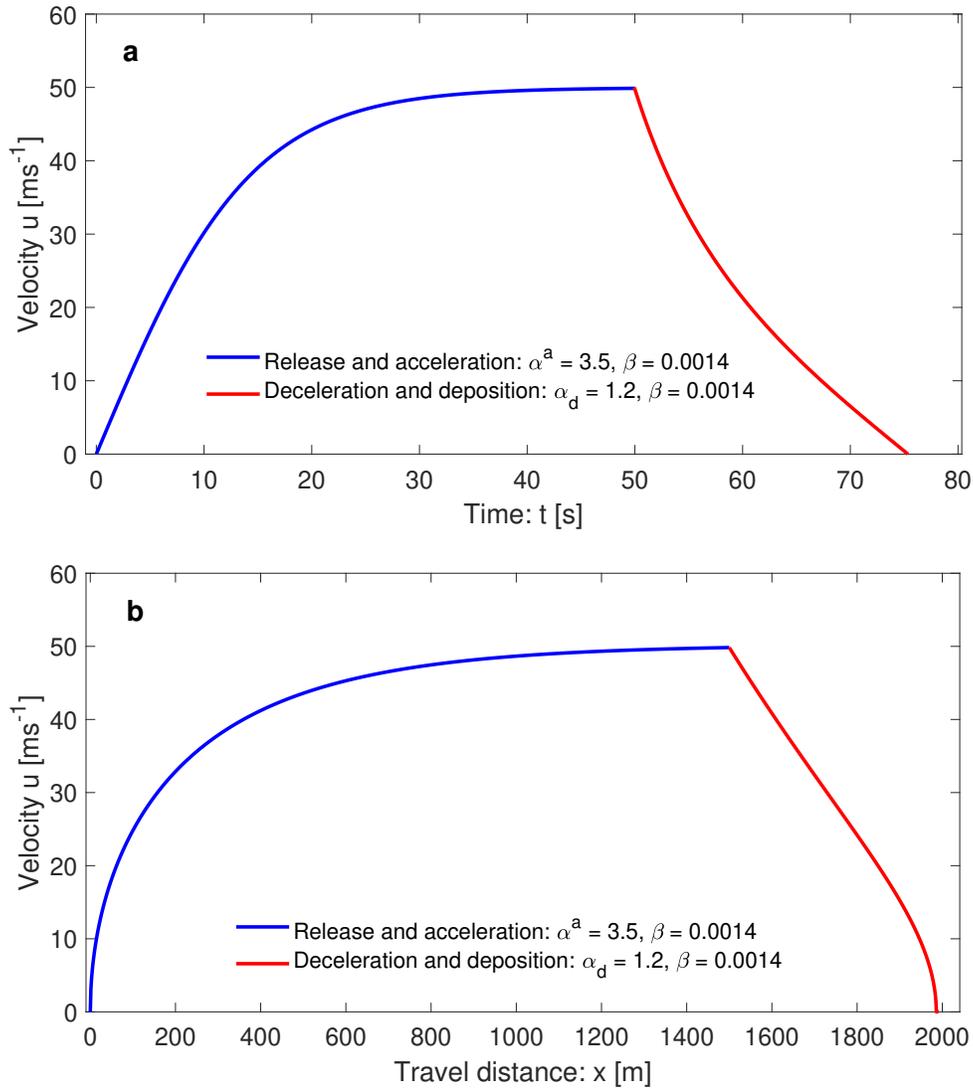


Figure 2: The landslide release and acceleration (left segments), deceleration and deposition (right segments) in time (a), and space (b) with chosen physical parameters. Also seen is the transition from acceleration to deceleration at kinks at about (50, 50) and (1500, 50), respectively. The landslide velocity dynamics are fundamentally different in time and space.

364 boundary) of the upstream accelerating segment. There are two key messages here. First, there are fundamental
 365 differences between the landslide release and acceleration, and deceleration and deposition in space and time.
 366 In space, the changes in velocity are rapid at the beginning of the mass release and acceleration and at the end
 367 of deceleration and deposition. However, in time, these processes (changes in velocity) are relatively gentle at
 368 the beginning of mass release and acceleration, and at the end of deceleration and deposition. This means, the
 369 spatial and time perspectives of changes of velocities are different. Second, the transition from acceleration to
 370 deceleration is of major interest, as this changes the state of motion from driving force dominance to resisting
 371 force dominance, here, due to the negative net driving force. The transition is more dramatic in time than in
 372 space. This manifests that the three critical regions; release, transition from acceleration to deceleration, and
 373 deposition; must be handled carefully as they provide very important information for the practitioners and
 374 hazard assessment professionals on the dynamics of landslide motion, behavioral changes in different states
 375 and depositions. This means, the initial velocity, the change in velocity from the accelerating to decelerating
 376 section, and the velocity close to the deposition must be understood and modelled properly.

5.1.3 Landslide release and acceleration, deceleration and deposition: multi-sectional transitions

The situations described above are only some rough approximations of reality as the landslide acceleration and deceleration may often change locally, requiring to break its analysis in multiple sectors to more realistically model the dynamics in greater details and higher accuracy to the observed data. In general, the landslide moves down a variable track. From the dynamic point of view, the variable track can be generated by changing values of one or more parameters involved in the net driving force α^a (or, α_d). For example, this can be due to the changing slope or basal friction. For simplicity, we may keep other parameters in α^a unchanged, but successively decrease the slope angle such that the values of α^a decreases accordingly. As α^a is the collective model parameter, without being explicit, it is more convenient to appropriately select the decreasing values of α^a such that each decreased value in α^a leads to the reduced acceleration of the landslide. For practical purpose, such a track can be realistically divided in to a multi-sectional track (Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019) such that at each section we can apply our analytical velocity solutions, both for accelerating (sufficiently positive net driving force in relation of the initial velocity, or the viscous drag force) and decelerating (negative net driving force) sections. The transitions between these sections automatically satisfy the boundary conditions: The left boundary (initial value) of the following segment is provided by the right boundary (final value) that is known from the analytical solution constructed in the previous time, or space of the preceding segment. This procedure continues as far as the two adjacent segments are joined, connecting either ascending–ascending, ascending–descending, or descending–descending velocity segments. However, note that, independent of the number of segments and their connections, only one initial (or boundary) value is required at the uppermost position of the channel. All other consecutive (internal and final) boundary conditions will be systematically generated by our analytical solution system, derived and explained at Section 3.

An ascending–ascending segment connection is formed when two ascending segments with different positive net driving forces (larger than the drag forces) are connected together. A typical example is the connection between a relatively slowly accelerating to a highly accelerating section. An ascending–descending segment connection is constituted when an upstream ascending segment is connected with a downstream descending segment, typically the connection between an accelerating to descending section. A descending–descending segment connection is developed when the two descending segments with different negative net driving forces are connected together. A typical example is the connection between a slowly decelerating to a highly decelerating section. However, many other combinations between ascending and descending segments can be formed as guided by the changes in the net driving forces, e.g., the changes in the slope-induced and friction-induced forces and their dominances. So, we need to extend the solution procedure of Section 5.1.2 from two sectoral landslide transition to multi-sectoral transitions.

Here, I discuss a scenario for a track with multi-sectors of ever increasing slope, followed by a quick transition to a decreasing slope, again succeeded by multi-sectors of ever decreasing slopes, and finally mass deposition. Figure 3 presents a typical (positive rate of ascendant, and negative rate of descendant) example of the multi-sectoral solutions for the time evolution of the velocity field for the ascending ($\alpha^a = 4.0, 5.0, 6.0$), and the descending ($\alpha_d = 0.15, 1.25, 1.90$) sectors, respectively. **However, note that the α values on the ascending and descending sectors are relative to each other. So, α_d on the descending sectors should be perceived as relatively negative to α^a in the ascending sector.** In the ascending sectors, as the net driving force increases, from the first to the second to the third sector, the mass further accelerates, enhancing the slope of the velocity field at each successive kink connecting the two neighboring segments. At the major kink, as the net driving force changes rapidly from accelerating to decelerating mode with the value of $\alpha^a = 6.0$ to $\alpha_d = 0.15$, the motion switches dramatically from the velocity ascending to descending state. All these values (even in the outer range) are possible by changing the physical parameters appearing in α . For example, $\zeta = 50^\circ, \gamma = 1100/2700, \delta = 20^\circ$ ($\mu = 0.36$), $\alpha_s = 0.65, K = 1, h_g = -0.05$ and $g = 9.81$ give α^a of about 7, and $\zeta = 1^\circ, \gamma = 1100/2700, \delta = 33^\circ$ ($\mu = 0.65$), $\alpha_s = 0.65, K = 1, h_g = -0.05$ and $g = 9.81$ even give α_d of about 1.8. In the following descending sectors, as the values of α_d quickly increases, the mass further decelerates, from the fourth to the fifth to the sixth sector, negatively reducing the slope of the velocity field at each successive kink, preparing for deposition. Finally, the mass comes to a halt ($u = 0$) at $t = 50$ s. So, Fig. 3 reveals important time

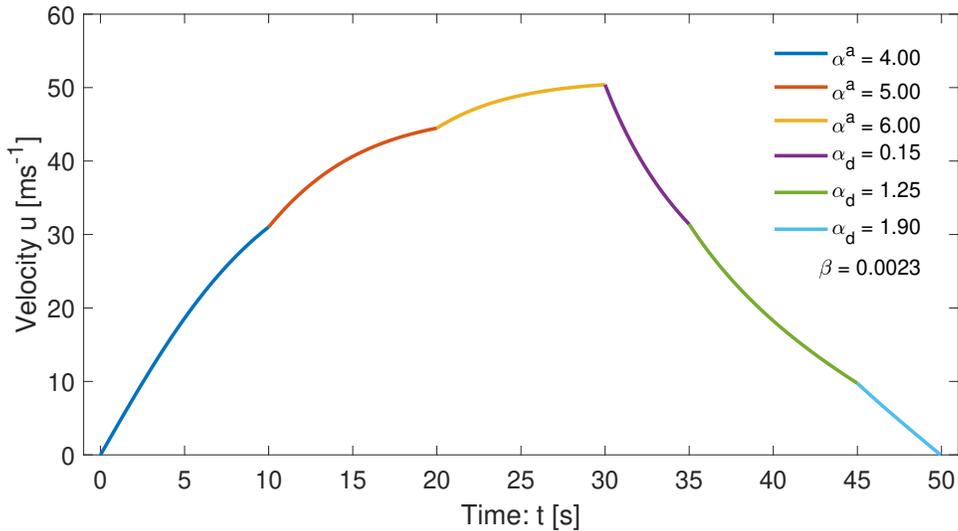


Figure 3: Landslide release and multi-sectional acceleration, deceleration and deposition in time. The physical parameters are shown in the legend. Several ascending–ascending and descending–descending segments are connected on the left with kinks at (10, 31.02) and (20, 44.48), and on the right with kinks at (35, 31.40) and (45, 9.75). The left and right segments are further connected by a central ascending–descending segment connection at the major kink at (30, 50.41). The mass stops at (50, 0.0).

427 dynamics of ever-increasing multi-sectoral ascending motions, its quick transition to descending motion, and
 428 the following ever-decreasing descending motions, and the final mass halting. The main observation is the
 429 analytical quantification of the complex dynamics of the landslide with increasing and decreasing gradients
 430 of the positive and negative net driving forces. **This can be a scenario for a track with multi-sectors of ever**
 431 **increasing slope, followed by a quick transition to a decreasing slope, again succeeded by multi-sectors of ever**
 432 **decreasing slopes, and finally mass deposition.**

433 As the time and spatial perspectives of the landslide motions are different, and from the practical point of
 434 view, it is even more important to acquire the velocity as a function of the channel position, next, I present
 435 results for multi-sectoral landslide dynamics as a function of the channel position. Depending on the rates of
 436 ascendance and descendance, I analyze the landslide dynamics separately. Figure 4 displays the results for the
 437 evolution of the velocity field as a function of the travel distance as the landslide moves down the slope. To
 438 investigate the influence of the intensity of accelerating and decelerating net driving forces, two distinct sets
 439 of net driving forces are considered. In Fig. 4a, as the net driving force increases from the first to second
 440 to the third sectors, the acceleration increases, and the slopes of the velocity curves increase accordingly at
 441 kinks in these sectors. But, as the net driving force decreases from the third to fourth to the fifth sectors, the
 442 acceleration decreases although the landmass is still accelerating. In this situation, the velocity curves increase
 443 accordingly in these sectors, but slowly, and finally reach the maximum value. At the major kink, the net
 444 driving force has dropped quickly from $\alpha^a = 3.06$ to its decelerating value of $\alpha_d = 0.5$. Consequently, the
 445 motion switches dramatically from the velocity ascending (accelerating) to descending (decelerating) state. In
 446 the velocity descending sectors, as the values of α_d quickly increases, the mass further decelerates, but now
 447 much quicker than before, resulting in the negatively increased slope of the velocity fields at each successive
 448 kink. As controlled by the net decelerating force, α_d , the deposition process turned out to be rapid. Finally,
 449 the mass comes to a halt ($u = 0$) at $x = 1494$ m.

450 In Fig. 4b, the net driving driving force in the first sector is much higher than that in Fig. 4a. However,
 451 then, even in the ascending sectors, the net driving forces are steadily decreasing, resulting in the continuously
 452 decreased slopes of the velocity fields from the first to the fifth sectors. As in Fig. 4a, at the major kink, the
 453 net driving force dropped quickly from $\alpha^a = 3.79$ to its decelerating value of $\alpha_d = 0.5$, forcing the motion to

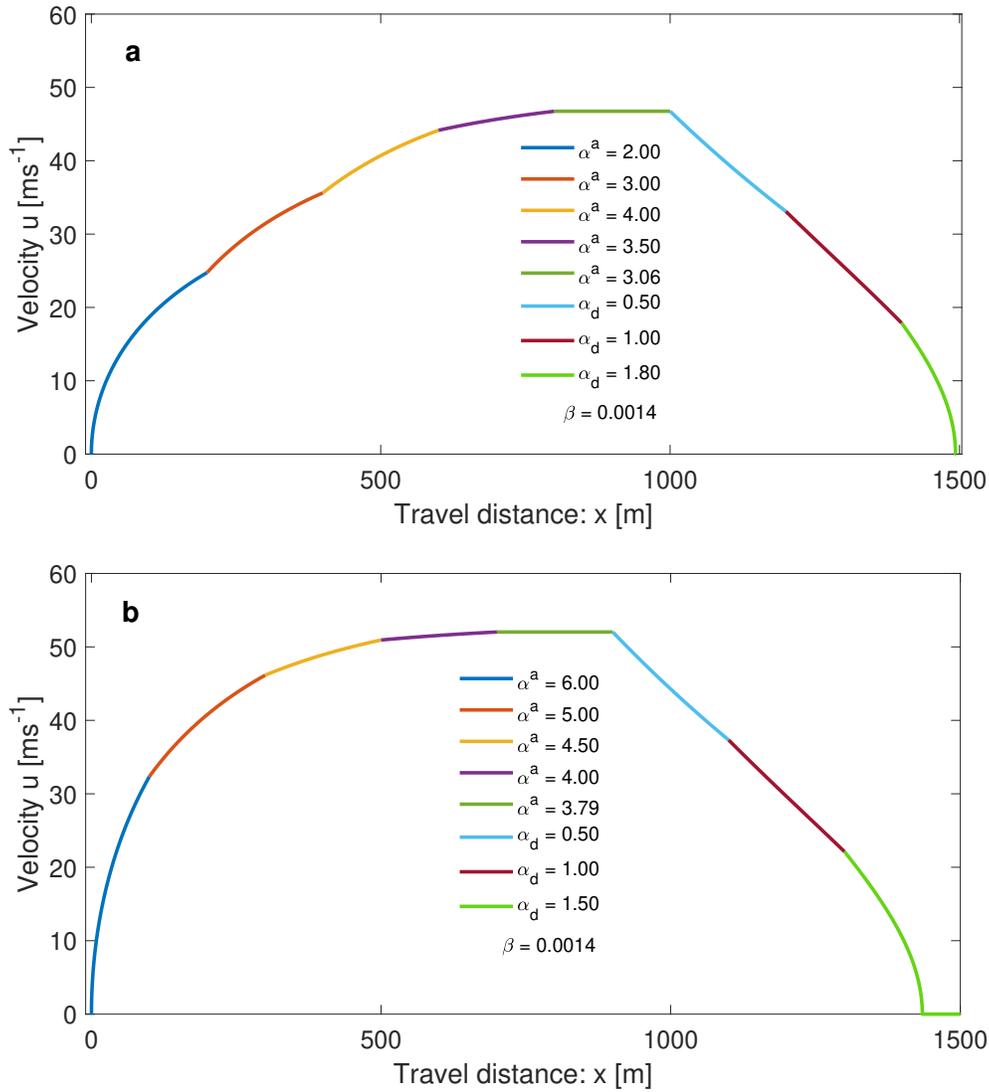


Figure 4: Landslide release and multi-sectional acceleration, deceleration and deposition in space with different parameter sets shown in the legends. **(a)** Several ascending–ascending segments are connected on the left with kinks at (200, 24.75), (400, 35.62), (600, 44.20), and (800, 46.75), and descending–descending segments are connected on right with kinks at (1200, 33.10), and (1400, 17.90). The left and right segments are further connected by a central ascending–descending segment connection at the major kink at (1000, 46.80). The landslide comes to a halt at (1494, 0.0). **(b)** Similarly, several ascending–ascending segments are connected on the left with kinks at (100, 32.35), (300, 46.14), (500, 50.94), and (700, 52.03), and descending–descending segments are connected on the right with kinks at (1100, 37.30), and (1300, 22.10). The left and right segments are further connected by a central ascending–descending segment connection at the major kink at (900, 52.03). The landslide comes to a halt at (1435, 0.0). Although **(a)** and **(b)** have similar run-out distances, their internal dynamics are different, so are the associated impact forces along the tracks.

454 switch dramatically from the velocity ascending to descending state. In the velocity descending sectors, as the
 455 values of α_d further increases, the mass decelerates steadily, faster than before, with the negatively increased
 456 slope of the velocity fields at each following kink. Due to the similar decelerating net driving forces as in Fig.
 457 4a, the deposition process turned out to be relatively quick. Finally, the mass halts ($u = 0$) at $x = 1435$ m,
 458 a bit earlier than in Fig. 4a. So, Fig. 4 manifests that the slopes and connection appearances of the velocity
 459 fields exclusively depend on the boundary values and the net driving forces of the following sections.

460 The run-out distances in Fig. 4a and Fig 4b are similar. However, their internal dynamics are substantially
461 different, here, mainly in the ascending sectors. The main essence here is that one cannot understand the
462 overall dynamics of the landslide by just looking at the final deposit and the run-out length as in empirical and
463 statistical models. Instead, one must also understand the entire and the internal dynamics in order to properly
464 simulate the motion and the associated impact force. So, our physics-based complete analytical solutions
465 provide much better descriptions of landslide dynamics than the angle of reach based empirical or statistical
466 models (Heim, 1932; Lied and Bakkehøi, 1980) that explicitly rely on parameter fits (Pudasaini and Hutter,
467 2007).

468 It is important to mention that from the coordinates, the travel distances are instantly obtained. Similarly, as
469 we have the information about velocity and distance from the figure, we can directly construct the travel time.

470 5.1.4 Decelerating landslide with positive and negative net driving forces

471 The previously accelerating landslide may transit to decelerating motion such that the net driving force α^a is
472 positive in both sections, but α^a is smaller in the succeeding section, i.e., $\alpha_p^a > \alpha_s^a$, where, p and s indicate
473 the preceding and succeeding sections. Assume that the end velocity of the preceding section is u_p . Then, if
474 $u_p > \sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$, the landslide will decelerate in the succeeding section such that the velocity in this section is
475 bounded from below by $\sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$. This can happen, e.g., when the slope decreases and/or friction increases, but,
476 still, the net driving force remains positive. However, as the initial velocity of the succeeding section is higher
477 than the characteristic limit velocity of this section, $\sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$, the velocity must decrease as it is controlled by the
478 resisting force, namely the drag. If the slope is quite long with this state, the landslide velocity will approach
479 $\sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$, and then, continue almost unchanged. A particular situation is the vanishing net driving force, i.e.,
480 $\alpha_s^a = 0$, in the right section. This can prevail when the gravity and frictional forces (including the free-surface
481 pressure gradient) balance each other. Then, as the landslide started with the positive (high) velocity in the
482 left boundary of the right section, it is continuously resisted by the drag force, strongly at the beginning, and
483 slowly afterwards, as the velocity decreases substantially. If the channel is sufficiently long (and $\alpha_s^a = 0$), then
484 the drag can ultimately bring the landslide velocity down to zero. Yet, this is a less likely scenario to take place
485 in nature. In all these situations, which are associated with the positive net driving forces, we must consistently
486 use the model (1) and its corresponding analytical solutions. In another scenario, assume that the landslide
487 transits to the next section where it experiences the negative net driving force. Then, in this section, we must
488 use the model (2) and its corresponding analytical solutions.

489 Figure 5 presents the first rapidly accelerating motions in the left sections, as in Fig. 4a, followed by decelerating
490 motions in the right sections. However, as the mass transits to the right sections at $x = 1000$, there can be
491 fundamentally two types of decelerating motions. (i) The motions can still be associated with the positive net
492 driving forces. Or, (ii) the motions must be associated with the negative net driving forces. This depends
493 on the actual physical situation, and either (i) or (ii) can be true. The lower velocities on the right are
494 produced with the solution of the model (2) with negative net driving forces, whereas the upper velocities are
495 produced with the solution of the model (1) with positive net driving forces. For better visualization, and
496 ease of comparison, the domain of decelerating motion and deposition has been substantially enlarged. The
497 important point is that, the two solutions on the right show completely different dynamics. On the one hand,
498 the decelerating solutions represented by the upper curves on the right seem to be less realistic as these take
499 unrealistically long time until the mass comes to stop, and the velocities are also unreasonably high. On the
500 other hand, such solutions can mainly be applied for the relatively low positive net driving forces and high
501 initial velocities. However, the lower curves on the right are realistic, and are produced by using the solutions
502 for the naturally decelerating motions associated with the negative net driving forces, as is the case in natural
503 setting. For the solutions described by the negative net driving forces, the mass deceleration is fast, velocity
504 is low, close to the flow halting the velocity drops quickly to zero, and the landslide stops realistically as
505 expected. Figure 5 is of practical importance as it clearly reveals the fact that we must appropriately model
506 the descending landslide motions. The important message here is that the descending and deposition processes
507 of a landslide must be described by the decelerating solutions with negative net driving forces (the solutions
508 derived here), but not with the decelerating solutions described by positive net driving forces (the solutions

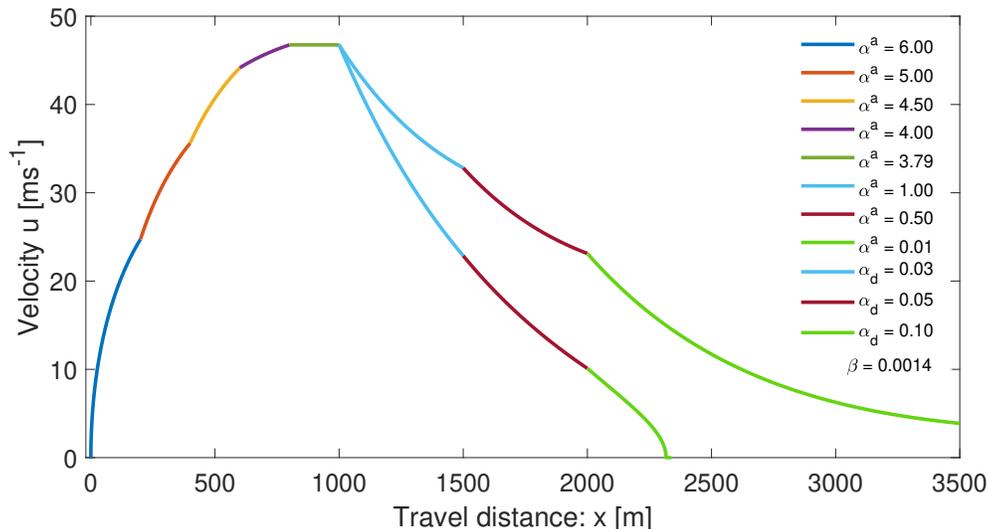


Figure 5: Landslide release and multi-sectional acceleration, deceleration and deposition in space with different physical parameters sets shown in the legend. Two different decelerating motions are considered for the right sectors. The upper velocities on the right are produced with the solution of the model (1) with positive net driving forces producing kinks at (1500, 32.82) and (2000, 23.12), whereas the lower velocities on the right are produced with the solution of the model (2) with negative net driving forces producing kinks as (1500, 22.87) and (2000, 10.10), respectively. For better visualization, the corresponding descending motions in the common track domains are displayed with the same color-codes. Their dynamics and deposition processes are quite different. The negative net driving forces result in the realistic deceleration, run-out and deposition at (2317, 0), while even after travelling 3500 m, the decelerating motion with positive net driving forces still has high velocity (3.88 ms^{-1}), and cannot represent reality.

509 derived in Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022). So, Fig. 5 has strong implications in real applications that the
 510 new set of analytical solutions with negative net driving forces must be appropriately considered in describing
 511 the descending landslide motion.

512 5.2 Time and spatial evolution of landslide velocity: general solutions

513 The solutions presented in Section 5.1 only provide information of the landslide dynamics either in time or in
 514 space, but not the both. As the landslide moves down the slope, in general, its velocity evolves as a function of
 515 time and space. Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) presented the time marching of the landslide motion that
 516 also stretches as it accelerates downslope. Such deformation of the landslide stems from the advection, $u\partial u/\partial x$,
 517 and the applied forces, $\alpha^a - \beta u^2$. The mechanism of landslide advection, stretching and the velocity up-lifting
 518 has been explained. They revealed the fact that shifting, up-lifting and stretching of the velocity field emanate
 519 from the forcing and non-linear advection. The intrinsic mechanism of their solution describes the breaking
 520 wave and emergence of landslide folding. This happens collectively as the solution system simultaneously
 521 introduces downslope propagation of the domain, velocity up-lift and non-linear advection. Pudasaini and
 522 Krautblatter (2022) disclosed that the domain translation and stretching solely depends on the net driving
 523 force, and along with advection, the viscous drag fully controls the shock wave generation, wave breaking,
 524 folding, and also the velocity magnitude.

525 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) considered the accelerating motion. Assuming that the landslide has already
 526 propagated a sufficient distance downslope, here, I focus on time and spatial evolution of landslide velocity for
 527 the decelerating motion and deposition for which I apply the new solutions given by (21)-(22). This complements
 528 the existing solutions and presents the unified analytical description of the landslide motion down the entire
 529 slope. So, next I present more general results for landslide velocity for decelerating motion controlled by the

530 advection, $u\partial u/\partial x$, and the applied forces, $-\alpha_d - \beta u^2$. In contrast to the accelerating motion, the decelerating
531 motion is associated with the applied force $-\alpha_d - \beta u^2$, while the structure of the advection, $u\partial u/\partial x$, remains
532 unchanged. Now, the landslide may be stretched or compressed, however, the velocity will gradually sink. The
533 intensity of the wave breaking and the [conjecture of the landslide folding](#) will be reduced. [Following Pudasaini](#)
534 [and Krautblatter \(2022\) we mention- although mathematically folding may refer to a singularity due to a](#)
535 [multi-valued function, here we explain the folding dynamics as a phenomenon that can appear in nature.](#) This
536 happens, because the solution system introduces downslope propagation of the domain, velocity sink and non-
537 linear advection. Moreover, the domain translation and stretching or contracting depends on the net driving
538 force, and paired with advection, the viscous drag controls the shock wave generation, wave breaking, [possible](#)
539 folding, and also the reduction of the velocity magnitude.

540 From the geomorphological, engineering, planning and hazard mitigation point of view, the deposition and run-
541 out processes are probably the most important aspects of the landslide dynamics. So, in this section, I focus
542 on the dynamics of the landslide as it decelerates and enters the run-out area and the process of deposition,
543 including its stretching or contracting behavior.

544 5.2.1 Landslide depositions of initially ascending and descending [velocity](#) fronts

545 In the most simple situation, the landslide may start deceleration and enter the run-out and the fan zone with
546 either the ascending or descending [velocity](#) front. An ascending front may represent the pre-mature transition,
547 while a descending front may signal the mature transition to the run-out zone. Figure 6 describes the propaga-
548 tion dynamics and deposition processes for initially ascending (a) and descending (b) [velocity](#) fronts. [As possible](#)
549 [scenarios \(described in the figure captions\) the initial velocity distributions are chosen following Pudasaini and](#)
550 [Krautblatter \(2022\). The initial velocity distributions are chosen following Pudasaini and Krautblatter \(2022\).](#)
551 In Fig. 6a, the front decelerates much faster than the rear, while in Fig. 6b, it is the opposite. This leads to
552 the forward propagating and elongating landslide mass for the ascending front while forward propagating and
553 compressing landslide mass for the descending front. This results in completely different travel distances and
554 deposition processes. The runout distance is much longer in Fig. 6a than in Fig. 6b. The striking difference
555 is observed in the lengths of the deposited masses. The deposition extend for the ascending front is much
556 longer (about 1100 m) than the same for the descending front (which is < 250 m). At a first glance, it is
557 astonishing. However, it can be explained mechanically. Ascending or descending [velocity](#) fronts lead to the
558 strongly stretching and compressing behavior, resulting, respectively, in the very elongated and compressed
559 depositions of the landslide masses. In Fig. 6a, although the front decelerates faster than the rear, the rear
560 velocity drops to zero faster than the front, whereas the velocity of the front becomes zero at a later time.
561 So, the halting process begins much earlier, first from the rear and propagates to the front that takes quite a
562 while. This results in the remarkable stretching of the landslide. Nevertheless, in Fig. 6b, although the rear
563 decelerates faster than the front, the front velocity quickly drops to zero much faster than the rear, whereas the
564 velocity of the rear becomes zero at a much later time. So, the halting process begins first from the front and
565 propagates to the rear that takes quite a while. This results in the remarkable compression of the landslide.
566 This demonstrates how the different initial velocity profiles of the landslides result in completely different travel
567 distances and spreadings or contractings in depositions.

568 The state of deposition is important in properly understanding the at-rest-structure of the landmass for geomor-
569 phological and civil or environmental engineering considerations. Energy dissipation structures, e.g., breaking
570 mounds, can be installed in the transition and the run-out zones to substantially reduce the landslide velocity
571 (Pudasaini and Hutter, 2007; Johannesson et al., 2009). Here comes the direct application of our analytical
572 solution method. The important message here is that, if we can control the ascending frontal velocity of the
573 landslide and turn it into a descending front, by some means of the structural measure in the transition or the
574 run-out zone, we might increase compaction and control the run-out length. This will have a immediate and
575 great engineering and planning implications, due to increased compaction of the deposited material and the
576 largely controlled travel distance and deposition length.

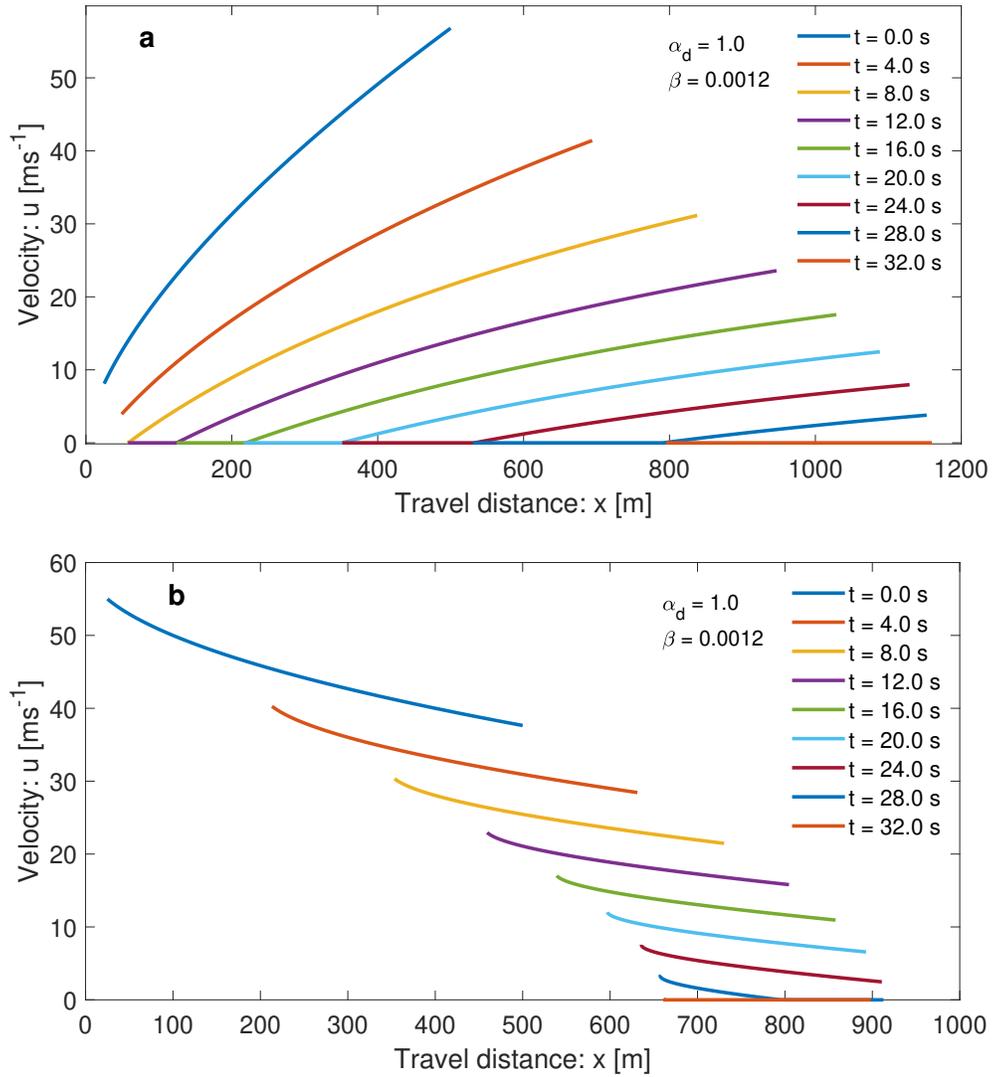


Figure 6: Time and spatial evolution of the landslide velocity showing the motion, deformation and deposition of initially ascending (a), and descending (b) landslide velocity fronts, described by $s_0(x) = x^{0.65}$ and $s_0(x) = 60 - x^{0.5}$, respectively, at $t = 0$ s. The physical parameter values are shown. The initially different velocity profiles result in completely different travel distances and landslide spreadings or contractings. The deposition extend for the ascending front is much longer than the same for the descending front.

5.2.2 Landslide deposition waves

The situation discussed in the preceding section only considers a monotonically increasing or a monotonically decreasing velocity front in the transition or run-out (fan) zones. However, in reality, the landslide may enter transition or the fan zone with a complex wave form, representative of a surge wave. A more general situation is depicted in Fig. 7 which continuously combines the ascending and descending parts in Fig. 6, but also includes upstream and downstream constant portions of the landslide velocities, thus, forming a wave structure. As a possible scenario, the initial velocity distribution is chosen following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022). As the frontal and the rear portions of the landslide initially have constant velocities, due to its initial velocity distribution with maximum in between, it produces a pleasing propagation mosaic and the final settlement. Because, now, both the front and the rear decelerate at the same rates, deposition begins from both sides. Although, in total, the landslide elongates (but not that much), it mainly elongates in the rear side while compressing a bit in the frontal portion. The velocity becomes smoother in the back side of the main peak

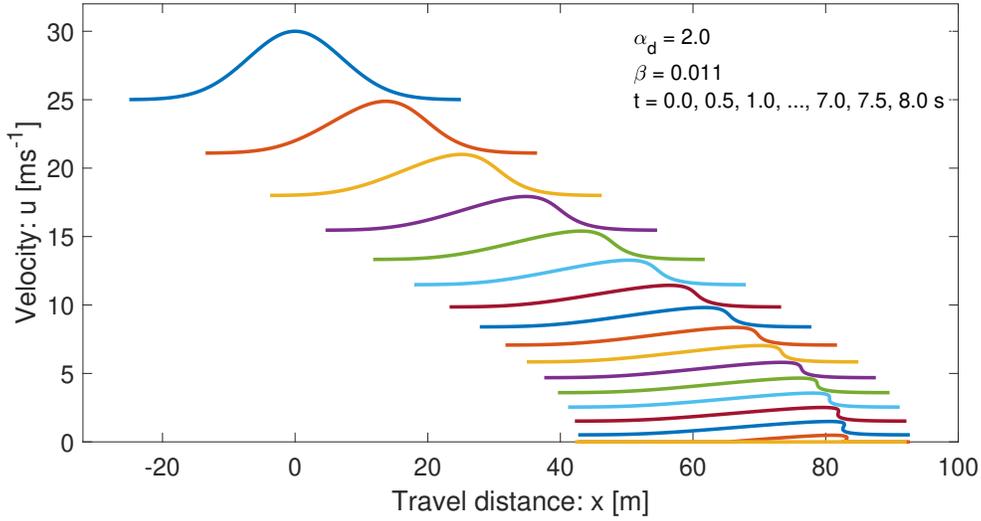


Figure 7: Time and space evolution of the propagating landslide and deposition waves. The initial velocity distribution is given by $s_0(x) = 5 \exp[-x^2/100] + 25$ at $t = 0$ s. The physical parameter values are shown.

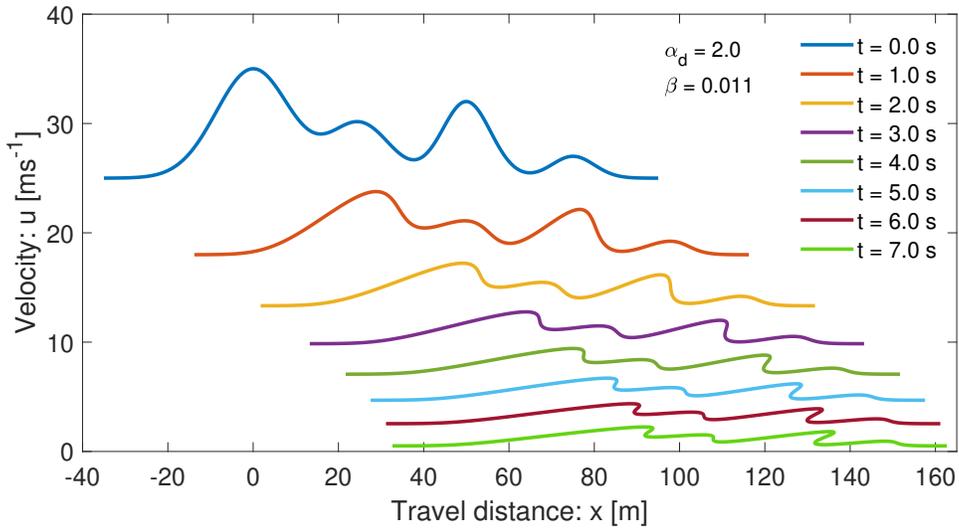


Figure 8: Time and space evolution of the landslide with multiple complex waves, foldings and crests during the propagation and deposition processes. The initial velocity distribution ($t = 0$ s) is given by the function $s_0(x) = 10 \exp[-(x - 0)^2/150] + 5 \exp[-(x - 25)^2/100] + 7 \exp[-(x - 50)^2/65] + 2 \exp[-(x - 75)^2/50] + 25$. The chosen physical parameter values are shown in the legend.

589 while it tends to produce a kink in the frontal region. This forces to generate a folding in the frontal part
590 which is seen closer to the halting. However, the folding is controlled by the relatively high applied drag. If
591 the applied drag would have been substantially reduced, dominant folding would have been observed. Note
592 that, the possibility of folding of the accelerating landslide has been covered in Pudasaini and Krautblatter
593 (2022). The important idea here is that, the folding and the wave that may be present in the frontal part of
594 the landslide evolution or deposition, can be quantified and described by our general exact analytical solution.

5.2.3 Landslide with multiple waves, foldings, crests and deposition pattern

The landslide may descend down and enter the transition and the run-out zone with multiple surges of different strengths, as frequently observed in natural events. In reality, the initial velocity can be even more complex than the one utilized in Fig. 7. To describe such situation, Fig. 8 considers a more general initial velocity distribution than before with multiple peaks and troughs of different strengths and extents represented by a complex function. As the landslide moves down, it produces a beautiful propagation pattern with different stretchings and contractings resulting in multiple waves, foldings, crests and deposition. Depending on the initial local velocity distribution (on the left and right side of the peak), in some regions, strong foldings and crests are developed (corresponding to the first and third initial peaks), while in other regions only weak folding (corresponding to the second initial peak) is developed, or even the peak is diffused (corresponding to the fourth initial peak). This provides us with the possibility of analytically describing complex multiple waves, foldings and crests formations during the landslide motion and also in deposition. This analysis can provide us with crucial information of a complex deposition pattern that can be essential for the study of the geomorphology of deposit. Importantly, the local information of the degree of compaction and folding can play a vital role in landuse planning, and decision making, e.g., for the choice of the location for the infrastructural development. [As further development of the present solutions, the methods presented here may be expanded to include the landslide depth and relate it to the landslide velocity.](#)

Technically, the results presented in Fig. 2 to Fig. 8 demonstrate that, computationally costly simulations may now be replaced by a simple highly cost-effective, clean and honourable analytical solutions (almost without any cost). This is a great advantage as it provides immediate and very easy solution to the complex landslide motion once we know the track geometry and the material parameters, which, in general, is known from the field. So, we have presented a seminal technique describing the entire landslide motion and deposition process.

6 Summary

I have constructed several new exact analytical solutions and combined these with the existing solutions for the landslide velocity. This facilitated the unified description of a landslide down a slope with multiple segments with accelerating and decelerating movements as well as the landslide run-out, and deposition. This provided the complete and righteous depiction of the landslide motions in different segments, for the entire slope, from its release, through the track until it comes to a standstill. Our analytical method couples several ascending–ascending, ascending–descending, or descending–descending segments to construct the exact multi-sectoral velocity solutions down the entire track. I have analytically quantified the complicated landslide dynamics with increasing and decreasing gradients of the positive and negative net driving forces. The implication is: the new set of analytical solutions with negative net driving forces must be appropriately considered in real applications in describing the descending landslide motion as such solutions better represent the natural process of decreasing motion and deposition. Analytical solutions revealed essentially different novel mechanisms and processes of acceleration and deceleration and the mass halting. There are fundamental differences between the landslide release and acceleration, and deceleration and deposition in space and time. The transition from acceleration to deceleration takes place with strong kinks that changes the state of motion from a primarily driving force dominance to resisting force dominance region. This manifests the three critical regions; release, transition from acceleration to deceleration, and deposition; that must be handled carefully. The time and spatial perspectives of the landslide deceleration and deposition appeared to be fundamentally different as the transition is more dramatic in time than in space. We can uniquely ascertain the exact time and position at the instance the motion changes from accelerating to decelerating state. Considering all the ascending and descending motions, we can analytically obtain the exact total travel time and the travel distance for the whole motion. These quantities are of direct practical importance as they supply us with all the necessary information to fully describe the landslide dynamics.

Our physics-based complete, general analytical solutions disclose a number of important information for the practitioners and hazard assessment professionals on the vitally important physics of landslide motion and settlement. Essentially, these solutions provide much better overall descriptions of landslide dynamics than

643 the empirical or statistical models, which explicitly rely on parameter fits, but can only deal with the run-out
644 length. Our models provide information on the entire and internal dynamics that is needed to properly simulate
645 the motion and associated impact force. Our solutions provide insights into the process of compaction, and
646 the mechanism to control the travel distance and deposition length. The frontal folding and the wave, that
647 may appear during the landslide evolution or deposition, can be quantified by our analytical solution. We
648 have demonstrated that different initial landslide velocity distributions result in completely dissimilar travel
649 distances, deposition processes, and spreadings or contractings. Ascending and descending fronts lead to the
650 strongly stretching and compressing behavior resulting, respectively, in the very elongated and shortened run-
651 outs. The striking difference is observed in the lengths of the deposited masses. Time and space evolution
652 of the marching landslide and deposition waves produce a beautiful pattern and the final settlement. Initial
653 velocity distribution with multiple peaks and troughs of different strengths and extents lead to a spectacular
654 propagation pattern with distinct stretchings and contractings resulting in multiple waves, foldings, crests and
655 depositions. Depending on the initial local velocity distribution, in some regions strong foldings and crests
656 are developed, while in other regions foldings and crests are diffused. This provides us with the possibility of
657 analytically describing complex multiple waves, foldings and crests formations during the landslide motion and
658 deposition. As complex multiple surges of varying strengths can be explained analytically, our method provides
659 us with crucial geomorphological information of the sophisticated deposition pattern, including the important
660 local state of compaction and folding, which play a vital role in landuse planning, and decision making for
661 the infrastructural development and environmental protection. Moreover, our analytical method demonstrates
662 that computationally costly solutions may now be replaced by a simple, highly cost-effective and unified ana-
663 lytical solutions (almost without any cost) down the entire track of the landslide. This is of a great technical
664 advantage for the landslide practitioners and engineers as it provides immediate and very easy solution to the
665 complex landslide motion.

666 Acknowledgments

667 I greatly appreciate the fruitful discussions with and suggestions from Jens Turowski that helped to substantially
668 improve the paper. I thank the reviewers and the associate editor Eric Lajeunesse for their constructive
669 comments and suggestions that helped to substantially improve the paper.

670 References

- 671 [1] Baselt, I., de Oliveira, G.Q., Fischer, J.-T., Pudasaini, S.P., 2021. Evolution of stony debris flows in laboratory
672 experiments. *Geomorphology* 372, 107431. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2020.107431>.
- 673 [2] Berger, C., McArdell, B.W., Schlunegger, F., 2011. Direct measurement of channel erosion by debris flows, Illgraben,
674 Switzerland. *J. Geophys. Res. Earth Surf.* 116, F01002.
- 675 [3] Burgers, J.M., 1948. A mathematical model illustrating the theory of turbulence. In *Advances in Applied Mechanics*,
676 pp 171-199. Academic Press Inc., New York, edited by Richard von Mises and Theodore von Karman.
- 677 [4] Chalfen, M., Niemiec, A., 1986. Analytical and numerical solution of Saint-Venant equations. *Journal of Hydrology*
678 86(1-2), 1-13.
- 679 [5] Cuomo, S., Pastor, M., Capobianco, V., Cascini, L., 2016. Modelling the space time evolution of bed entrainment
680 for flow-like landslides. *Engineering Geology* 212, 10-20.
- 681 [6] de Haas, T., Nijland, W., de Jong, S.M., McArdell, B.W., 2020. How memory effects, check dams, and channel ge-
682 ometry control erosion and deposition by debris flows. *Scientific Reports*. 10, 14024. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-71016-8>.
- 684 [7] de Haas, T., van Woerkom, T., 2016. Bed scour by debris flows: experimental investigation of effects of debris flow
685 composition. *Earth Surf. Process. Landforms* 41, 1951-1966.
- 686 [8] Dietrich, A., Krautblatter, M., 2019. Deciphering controls for debris-flow erosion derived from a liDAR-recorded
687 extreme event and a calibrated numerical model (Rossbichelbach, Germany). *Earth Surf. Process. Landform* 44,
688 1346-1361.

- 689 [9] Domnik, B., Pudasaini, S.P., Katzenbach, R., Miller, S.A., 2013. Coupling of full two-dimensional and depth-averaged
690 models for granular flows. *J. Non-Newton. Fluid Mech.* 201, 56–68.
- 691 [10] Dowling, C.A., Santi, P.M., 2014. Debris flows and their toll on human life: a global analysis of debris-flow fatalities
692 from 1950 to 2011. *Nat. Hazards* 71(1), 203-227.
- 693 [11] Evans, S.G., Bishop, N.F., Smoll, L.F., Murillo, P.V., Delaney, K.B., Oliver-Smith, A., 2009. A re-examination of
694 the mechanism and human impact of catastrophic mass flows originating on Nevado Huascarán, Cordillera Blanca,
695 Peru in 1962 and 1970. *Eng. Geol.* 108, 96-118
- 696 [12] Faraoni, V., 2022. Helmholtz problem for the Riccati equation from an analogous Friedmann equation. *Eur. Phys. J.*
697 *C* 82. <https://doi.org/10.1140/eplc/s10052-021-09966-0>.
- 698 [13] Faug, T., Chanut, B., Beguin, R., Naaïm, M., Thibert, E., Baraudi, D., 2010. A simple analytical model for pressure
699 on obstacles induced by snow avalanches. *Ann. Glaciol.* 51 (54), 1-8.
- 700 [14] Frank, F., McArdell, B.W., Huggel, C., Vieli, A., 2015. The importance of entrainment and bulking on debris flow
701 runout modeling: examples from the Swiss Alps. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 15, 2569-2583.
- 702 [15] Frimberger, T., Andrade, S.D., Weber, S., Krautblatter, M., 2021. Modelling future lahars controlled by different
703 volcanic eruption scenarios at Cotopaxi (Ecuador) calibrated with the massively destructive 1877 lahar. *Earth Surf.*
704 *Process. Landforms.* 46, 680-700.
- 705 [16] Gauer, P., 2018. Considerations on scaling behavior in avalanche flow along cycloidal and parabolic tracks. *Cold Reg.*
706 *Sci. Technol.* 151, 34-36.
- 707 [17] Gubler, H., 1989. Comparison of three models of avalanche dynamics. *Annals of Glaciology* 13, 82-89.
- 708 [18] Heim, A., 1932. Bergsturz und menschenleben. *Geologische Nachlese* Nr. 30, Naturforschenden Gesellschaft in Zürich
709 77, 220.
- 710 [19] Iverson, R. M., Ouyang, C., 2015. Entrainment of bed material by earth-surface mass flows: review and reformulation
711 of depth-integrated theory. *Rev. Geophys.* 53(1), 27-58.
- 712 [20] Johannesson, T., Gauer, P., Issler, D., Lied, K., 2009. In: Barbolini, M., Domaas, U., Harbitz, C.B., Johannesson,
713 T., Gauer, P., Issler, D., Lied, K., Faug, T., Naaïm, M. (Eds.), *The Design of Avalanche Protection Dams. Recent*
714 *Practical and Theoretical Developments.* European Commission. Directorate General for Research.
- 715 [21] Jop, P., Forterre, Y., Pouliquen, O., 2006. A constitutive law for dense granular flows. *Nature* 441, 727-730.
- 716 [22] Le, L., Pitman, E.B., 2009. A model for granular flows over an erodible surface. *SIAM J. Appl. Math.* 70, 1407-1427.
- 717 [23] Lied, K., Bakkehoi, S. 1980. Empirical calculations of snow-avalanche run-out distance based on topographic param-
718 eters. *Journal of Glaciology* V26, 165–178.
- 719 [24] Liu, W., Yang, Z., He, S., 2021. Modeling the landslide-generated debris flow from formation to propagation and
720 run-out by considering the effect of vegetation. *Landslides* 18, 43–58.
- 721 [25] McClung, D.M., 1983. Derivation of Voellmy’s Maximum Speed and Run-Out Estimates from a Centre-of-Mass
722 Model. *Journal of Glaciology* 29(102), 350-352.
- 723 [26] McDougall, S., Hungr, O., 2005. Dynamic modelling of entrainment in rapid landslides. *Can. Geotech. J.* 42, 1437-
724 1448.
- 725 [27] Mergili, M., Jaboyedoff, M., Pullarello, J., Pudasaini, S.P., 2020. Back calculation of the 2017 Piz Cengalo - Bondo
726 landslide cascade with r.avaflow: what we can do and what we can learn. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 20, 505-520.
- 727 [28] Montecinos, G.I., 2015. Analytic solutions for the Burgers equation with source terms. *arXiv:1503.09079v1*.
- 728 [29] Perla, R., Cheng, T.T., McClung, D.M., 1980. A two-parameter model for snow-avalanche motion. *J. Glaciology*
729 26(94), 197-207.
- 730 [30] Pilvar, M., Pouraghniaei, M.J., Shakibaeinia, A., 2019. Two-dimensional sub-aerial, submerged, and transitional
731 granular slides. *Physics of Fluids* 31, 113303. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5121881>.
- 732 [31] Pouliquen, O., Forterre, Y., 2009. A non-local rheology for dense granular flows. *Philosophical Transactions of the*
733 *Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* 367, 5091-5107.
- 734 [32] Pudasaini, S.P., Krautblatter, M., 2022. The landslide velocity. *Earth Surf. Dynam.* 10, 165–189,
735 <https://doi.org/10.5194/esurf-10-165-2022>, 2022.

- 736 [33] Pudasaini, S.P., Krautblatter, M., 2021. The mechanics of landslide mobility with erosion. *Nat. Commun.* 12, 6793,
737 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-26959-5>, 2021.
- 738 [34] Pudasaini, S.P., Mergili, M., 2019. A multi-phase mass flow model. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Earth Surface*,
739 124, 2920-2942.
- 740 [35] Pudasaini, S.P., 2016. A novel description of fluid flow in porous and debris materials. *Eng. Geol.* 202, 62-73.
- 741 [36] Pudasaini, S.P., 2012. A general two-phase debris flow model. *J. Geophysics. Res.* 117, F03010.
742 doi:10.1029/2011JF002186.
- 743 [37] Pudasaini, S.P., Hutter, K., 2007. *Avalanche Dynamics: Dynamics of Rapid Flows of Dense Granular Avalanches*.
744 Springer, Berlin, New York.
- 745 [38] Salm, B., 1966. Contribution to avalanche dynamics. *International Symposium on Scientific Aspects of Snow and Ice*
746 *Avalanches, 1965, Davos*; pp. 199-214: IAHS Publ. No. 69.
- 747 [39] Shugar, D. H., Jacquemart, M., Shean, D., et al., 2021. A massive rock and ice avalanche caused the 2021 disaster at
748 Chamoli, Indian Himalaya. *Science* 373, 300–306.
- 749 [40] Theule, J.I., Liebault, F., Laigle, D., Loye, A., Jaboyedoff, M., 2015. Channel scour and fill by debris flows and
750 bedload transport. *Geomorphology* 243, 92-105.
- 751 [41] Voellmy, A., 1955. Über die Zerstörungskraft von Lawinen. *Schweizerische Bauzeitung*. Jahrg. 73. Ht. 12., 159-162;
752 Ht. 15, 212-217; Ht. 17, 246-249; Ht. 19, 280-285. On the destructive force of avalanches, Translation No. 2. *Alta*.
753 *Avalanche Study Center, USDA, Forest Service, 1964.*
- 754 [42] Zwinger, T., Kluwick, A., Sampl, P., 2003. Numerical simulation of dry-snow avalanche flow over natural terrain. In:
755 Hutter, K., Kirchner, N. (Eds.), *Dynamic Response of Granular and Porous Materials under Large and Catastrophic*
756 *Deformations, Lecture Notes in Appl. and Comput. Mech.* vol. 11. Springer, Berlin, pp. 161-194.

The Entire Landslide Velocity

Shiva P. Pudasaini

Technical University of Munich, School of Engineering and Design

Chair of Landslide Research

Arcisstrasse 21, D-80333, Munich, Germany

E-mail: shiva.pudasaini@tum.de

Abstract: The enormous destructive energy carried by a landslide is principally determined by its velocity. Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) presented a simple, physics-based analytical landslide velocity model that simultaneously incorporates the internal deformation and externally applied forces. They also constructed various general exact solutions for the landslide velocity. However, previous solutions are incomplete as they only apply to accelerating motions. Here, I advance further by constructing several new general analytical solutions for decelerating motions and unify these with the existing solutions for the landslide velocity. This provides the complete and honest picture of the landslide in multiple segments with accelerating and decelerating movements covering its release, motion through the track, the run-out as well as deposition. My analytical procedure connects several accelerating and decelerating segments by a junction with a kink to construct a multi-sectoral unified velocity solution down the entire path. Analytical solutions reveal essentially different novel mechanisms and processes of acceleration, deceleration and the mass halting. I show that there are fundamental differences between the landslide release, acceleration, deceleration and deposition in space and time as the dramatic transition takes place while the motion changes from the driving force dominated to resisting force dominated sector. I uniquely determine the landslide position and time as it switches from accelerating to decelerating state. Considering all the accelerating and decelerating motions, I analytically obtain the exact total travel time and the travel distance for the whole motion. Different initial landslide velocities with ascending or descending fronts result in strikingly contrasting travel distances, and elongated or contracted deposition lengths. Time and space evolution of the marching landslide with initial velocity distribution consisting of multiple peaks and troughs of variable strengths and extents lead to a spectacular propagation pattern with different stretchings and contractings resulting in multiple waves, foldings, crests and settlements. The analytical method manifests that, computationally costly numerical solutions may now be replaced by a highly cost-effective, unified and complete analytical solution down the entire track. This offers a great technical advantage for the geomorphologists, landslide practitioners and engineers as it provides immediate and very simple solution to the complex landslide motion.

1 Introduction

The dynamics of a landslide are primarily controlled by its velocity which plays a key role for the assessment of landslide hazards, design of protective structures, mitigation measures and landuse planning (Johannesson et al., 2009; Faug, 2010; Dowling and Santi, 2014). Thus, a proper and full understanding of landslide velocity is a crucial requirement for an appropriate modelling of landslide impact force because the associated hazard is directly related to the landslide velocity (Evans et al., 2009; Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019). However, the mechanical controls of the evolving velocity, runout and impact energy of the landslide have not yet been fully understood.

On the one hand, the available data on landslide dynamics are insufficient while on the other hand, the proper understanding and interpretation of the data obtained from field measurements are often challenging. This is because of the very limited information of the boundary conditions and the material properties. Moreover, dynamic field data are rare and after event static data are often only available for single locations (de Haas et al., 2020). So, much of the low resolution measurements are locally or discretely based on points in time and space (Berger et al., 2011; Theule et al., 2015; Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019). This is the reason for why laboratory or field experiments (Iverson and Ouyang, 2015; de Haas and van Woerkom, 2016; Pilvar et

46 al., 2019; Baselt et al., 2021) and theoretical modelling (Le and Pitman, 2009; Pudasaini, 2012; Pudasaini and
47 Mergili, 2019) remain the major solutions of the problems associated with the mass flow dynamics. Several
48 comprehensive numerical modelling for mass transports are available (McDougall and Hungr, 2005; Frank et
49 al., 2015; Iverson and Ouyang, 2015; Cuomo et al., 2016; Mergili et al., 2020; Liu et al. 2021). Yet, numer-
50 ical simulations are approximations of the physical-mathematical model equations and their validity is often
51 evaluated empirically (Mergili et al., 2020). In contrast, exact, analytical solutions can provide better insights
52 into complex flow behaviors (Faug et al., 2010; Gauer, 2018; Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2021,2022; Faraoni,
53 2022). Furthermore, analytical and exact solutions to non-linear model equations are necessary to elevate the
54 accuracy of numerical solution methods based on complex numerical schemes (Chalfen and Niemiec, 1986;
55 Pudasaini, 2016). This is very useful to interpret complicated simulations and/or avoid mistakes associated
56 with numerical simulations. However, the numerical solutions (Mergili et al., 2020; Shugar et al., 2021) can
57 cover the broad spectrum of complex flow dynamics described by advanced mass flow models (Pudasaini and
58 Mergili, 2019), and once tested and validated against the analytical solutions, may provide even more accurate
59 results than the simplified analytical solutions (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022).

60 Since Voellmy’s pioneering work, several analytical models and their solutions have been presented for mass
61 movements including landslides, avalanches and debris flows (Voellmy, 1955; Salm, 1966; Perla et al., 1980;
62 McClung, 1983). However, on the one hand, all of these solutions are effectively simplified to the mass point
63 or center of mass motion. None of the existing analytical velocity models consider advection or internal defor-
64 mation. On the other hand, the parameters involved in those models only represent restricted physics of the
65 landslide material and motion. Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) overcame those deficiencies by introducing a
66 simple, physics-based general analytical landslide velocity model that simultaneously incorporates the internal
67 deformation and externally applied forces, consisting of the net driving force and the viscous resistant. They
68 showed that the non-linear advection and external forcing fundamentally regulate the state of motion and
69 deformation. Since analytical solutions provide the fastest, the most cost-effective and best rigorous answer
70 to the problem, they constructed several general exact analytical solutions. Those solutions cover the wider
71 spectrum of landslide velocity and directly reduce to the mass point motion as their solutions bridge the gap
72 between the negligibly deforming and geometrically massively deforming landslides. They revealed the fact
73 that shifting, up-lifting and stretching of the velocity field stem from the forcing and non-linear advection. The
74 intrinsic mechanism of their solution described the breaking wave and emergence of landslide folding. This
75 demonstrated that landslide dynamics are architected by advection and reigned by the system forcing.

76 However, the landslide velocity solutions presented by Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) are only applicable
77 for the accelerating motions associated with the positive net driving forces, and thus are incomplete. Here, I
78 extend their solutions that cover the entire range of motion, from initiation to acceleration, to deceleration to
79 deposition as the landslide mass comes to a halt. This includes both the motions with positive and negative
80 net driving forces. This constitutes a unified foundation of landslide velocity in solving technical problems.
81 As exact, analytical solutions disclose many new and essential physics of the landslide release, acceleration,
82 deceleration and deposition processes, the solutions derived in this paper may find applications in geomorpho-
83 logical, environmental, engineering and industrial mass transports down entire slopes and channels in quickly
84 and adequately describing the entire flow dynamics, including the flow regime changes.

85 2 The Model

86 For simplicity, I consider a geometrically two-dimensional motion down a slope. Let t be time, (x, z) be the
87 coordinates and (g^x, g^z) the gravity accelerations along and perpendicular to the slope, respectively. Let, h
88 and u be the flow depth and the mean flow velocity of the landslide along the slope. Similarly, γ, α_s, μ be
89 the density ratio between the fluid and the solid particles ($\gamma = \rho_f / \rho_s$), volume fraction of the solid particles
90 (coarse and fine solid particles), and the basal friction coefficient ($\mu = \tan \delta$), where δ is the basal friction angle
91 of the solid particles, in the mixture material. Furthermore, K is the earth pressure coefficient (Pudasaini and
92 Hutter, 2007), and β is the viscous drag coefficient. By reducing the multi-phase mass flow model (Pudasaini

93 and Mergili, 2019), Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) constructed the simple landslide velocity equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad (1)$$

94 where α^a [ms^{-2}] and β [m^{-1}] constitute the net driving and the resisting forces in the system that control the
 95 landslide velocity u [ms^{-1}]. Moreover, α^a is given by the expression
 96 $\alpha^a := g^x - (1 - \gamma)\alpha_s g^z \mu - g^z \{((1 - \gamma)K + \gamma)\alpha_s + (1 - \alpha_s)\} h_g$ (this includes the forces due to gravity, Coulomb
 97 friction, lubrication, and liquefaction as well as the surface gradient indicated by h_g), and β is the viscous drag
 98 coefficient. The first, second and third terms in α_s are the gravitational acceleration; effective Coulomb friction
 99 (which includes lubrication $(1 - \gamma)$, liquefaction (α_s) (because if there is no solid or a substantially low amount
 100 of solid, the mass is fully liquefied, e.g., lahar flows); and the term associated with buoyancy, the fluid-related
 101 hydraulic pressure gradient, and the free-surface gradient. Moreover, the term associated with K describes
 102 the extent of the local deformation that stems from the hydraulic pressure gradient of the free surface of the
 103 landslide. Note that the term with $(1 - \gamma)$, or γ , originates from the buoyancy effect. By setting $\gamma = 1$ and
 104 $\alpha_s = 0$, we obtain a dry landslide, grain flow, or an avalanche motion. For this choice, the third term on the
 105 right-hand side of α^a vanishes. However, we keep γ and α_s to also include possible fluid effects in the landslide
 106 (mixture).

107 We note that the solid volume fraction α_s is an intrinsic variable. For this, either an extra evolution equation
 108 can be considered, or in simplified situation, we can assume that the local variation of the solid volume fraction
 109 may be negligible. Here we follow the second choice. Similarly, for simplicity, we consider a physically plausible
 110 representative value for the free-surface gradient, h_g designated in due place. With these specifications, as in
 111 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), it is possible to directly derive general exact analytical solutions to (1).

112 Recently, different rheologies for granular and debris mixture flows have been proposed. Particularly relevant
 113 are the physically described pressure- and rate-dependent Coulomb-viscoplastic rheology (Domnik et al., 2013),
 114 and the $\mu(I)$ rheology based on empirical fit parameters (Jop et al., 2006; Pouliquen and Forterre, 2009). How-
 115 ever, the $\mu(I)$ concerns with the extension of the Coulomb frictional parameter μ . But, the rheology used here
 116 has other spectrum of mixture flows consisting of viscous fluid and grains, not considered or not explicit in $\mu(I)$
 117 rheology. This is evident in the definition of α^a in (1). First, it includes lubrication, liquefaction, extensional
 118 and compactional behavior, buoyancy effect, and the hydraulic pressure-gradient of the fluid in the mixture as
 119 well as the free-surface gradient of the landslide. Second, the present model also includes another important
 120 aspect of the viscous drag associated with β that plays dominant role for the motion of the landslide with
 121 substantial speed as compared to the net driving force α^a . These aspects have been extensively discussed in
 122 due places.

123 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) constructed many exact analytical solutions to the landslide velocity equa-
 124 tion (1). However, their solutions were restricted to the physical situation in which the net driving force is
 125 positive, i.e., $\alpha^a > 0$. Following the classical method by Voellmy (Voellmy, 1955) and extensions by Salm
 126 (1966) and McClung (1983), the velocity model (1) can be amended and used for multiple slope segments to
 127 describe the accelerating and decelerating motions as well as the landslide run-out. These are also called the
 128 release, track and run-out segments of the landslide, or avalanche (Gubler, 1989). However, for the gentle
 129 slope, or the run-out, the frictional force and the force due to the free-surface gradient may dominate gravity.
 130 In this situation, the sign of α^a in (1) changes. So, to complement the solutions constructed in Pudasaini and
 131 Krautblatter (2022), here, I consider (1) with negative net driving force resulting in the decelerating motion,
 132 and finally the landslide deposition. For this, I change the sign of α^a and rewrite (1) as:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2. \quad (2)$$

133 Note that a and d in α^a and α_d in (1) and (2) indicate the accelerating (velocity ascending) and decelerating
 134 (velocity descending) motions, respectively. We follow these notations for all the models and solutions consid-
 135 ered and developed below.

136 The main purpose here is to construct several new analytical solutions to (2), and combine these with the

137 existing solutions (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022) for (1). This facilitates the description of the landslide
138 motion down a slope consisting of multiple segments with accelerating and decelerating movements, with posi-
139 tive and negative net driving forces, as well as the landslide run-out. This will provide us with the complete and
140 unified picture of the landslide motions in different segments- from release to track to run-out and deposition
141 as required by the practitioners.

142 **Terminology and convention:** To avoid any possible ambiguity, I define the terminology for accelerating
143 and decelerating motions and motions with ascending and descending velocities. Consider model (1). Then,
144 we have the following two situations.

145 **Accelerating motion – I:** The landslide accelerates if the total system force $\alpha^a - \beta u^2 > 0$. This happens
146 only if $\alpha^a > 0$, that is, when the net driving force is positive, and the initial velocity u_0 satisfies the condition
147 $u_0 < \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$. Where the initial velocity u_0 refers to the situation associated with the particular segment of the
148 avalanche track in which the condition $u_0 < \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$ is satisfied at the uppermost position of the segment.

149 **Decelerating motion – II:** The landslide decelerates if $\alpha^a - \beta u^2 < 0$. This can happen in two completely
150 different situations.

151 **II.1 – Weak-deceleration:** First, consider $\alpha^a > 0$, but relatively high initial velocity such that $u_0 > \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$.
152 Then, although the net driving force is positive, due to the high value of the initial velocity than the
153 characteristic limit velocity of the system $\sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$, the landslide attains decelerating motions due to the
154 high drag force, and approaches down to $\sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$ as the landslide moves. I call this the weak-deceleration.

155 **II.2 – Strong-deceleration:** Second, consider $\alpha^a = -\alpha_d < 0$, which is the state of the negative net driving
156 force associated with the system (2). Then, for any choice of the initial velocity, the landslide must
157 decelerate. I call this the strong-deceleration. By definition, the decelerating velocity, the velocity of the
158 landslide when it decelerates, in **II.2** is always below the decelerating velocity in **II.1**. Because of the
159 higher negative total system force in **II.2** than in **II.1**, the decelerating velocity in **II.2** is always below
160 the decelerating velocity in **II.1**.

161 **Ascending and descending motions (velocities):** Unless otherwise stated and without loss of generality, I
162 make the following convention. When the net driving force is positive and **I** is satisfied, the accelerating landslide
163 motion (velocity) is also called the ascending motion. Because, in this situation, the motion is associated with
164 the ascending velocity. When the net driving force is negative or **II.2** is satisfied, the decelerating landslide
165 motion (velocity) is also called the descending motion, because for this, the velocity always decreases. I will
166 separately treat **II.1** in Section 5.4.

167 The landslide velocity solutions for **I** and **II.1** are associated with the positive net driving forces, and have
168 been presented in Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022). Here, I present solutions for **II.2** associated with the
169 negative net driving force and unify them with previous solutions. This completes the construction of simple
170 analytical solutions.

171 3 The Entire Landslide Velocity: Simple Solutions

172 As (2) describes fundamentally different process of landslide motion than (1), for the model (2), all solutions
173 derived by Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) must be thoroughly re-visited with the initial condition for veloc-
174 ity of the following segment being that obtained from the lower end of the upstream segment. This way, we can
175 combine solutions to models (1) and (2) to analytically describe the landslide motion for the entire slope, from
176 its release, through the track to the run-out, including the total travel distance and the travel time. This is the
177 novel aspect of this contribution which makes the present solution system complete that the practitioners and
178 engineers can directly apply these solutions to solve their technical problems. However, note that, decelerating
179 motion can be constructed independent of whether or not it follows an accelerating motion. In other situation,
180 accelerating motion could follow the decelerating motion. So, depending on the state of the net driving forces,
181 different scenarios are possible.

182 Because of their increasing and decreasing behaviors, velocity solutions associated with the model (1) is indi-
 183 cated by the symbol \nearrow , and that associated with the model (2) it is indicated by the symbol \searrow . These are
 184 the ascending and descending motions, respectively. All the solutions indicated by the symbol \searrow are entirely
 185 new. By combining these two types of solutions, we obtain the complete solution for the landslide motion, i.e.,
 186 ‘the solution \nearrow + the solution \searrow = the complete solution’.

187 3.1 Steady-state motion

188 The steady-state solution describes one of the simplest states of dynamics that are independent of time ($\partial u/\partial t =$
 189 0). So, I begin with constructing simple analytical solutions for the steady-state landslide velocity equations,
 190 reduced from (1) and (2):

$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad (3)$$

191 and

$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2, \quad (4)$$

192 respectively. Following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), the steady-state solution for (3) takes the form:

$$\nearrow u(x; \alpha^a, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^a}{\beta} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{\beta}{\alpha^a} u_0^2 \right) \frac{1}{\exp(2\beta(x - x_0))} \right]}, \quad (5)$$

193 where, $u_0 = u(x_0)$ is the initial velocity at x_0 . Similarly, the steady-state solution for (4) can be constructed,
 194 which reads:

$$\searrow u(x; \alpha_d, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_d}{\beta} \left[-1 + \left(1 + \frac{\beta}{\alpha_d} u_0^2 \right) \frac{1}{\exp(2\beta(x - x_0))} \right]}. \quad (6)$$

196 However, solutions (5) and (6) appear to be structurally similar. These solutions describe the dynamics of
 197 a landslide (the velocity u) as a function of the downslope position, x , one of the basic dynamic quantities
 198 required by engineers and practitioners for the quick assessment of landslide hazards.

199 3.2 Mass point motion

200 Assume no or negligible local deformation (e.g., $\partial u/\partial x \approx 0$), or a Lagrangian description. Both are equivalent
 201 to the mass point motion. In this situation, only the ordinary differentiation with respect to time is involved,
 202 and $\partial u/\partial t$ can be replaced by du/dt . Then, the models (1) and (2) reduce to

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad (7)$$

203 and

$$\frac{du}{dt} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2, \quad (8)$$

204 respectively, for the positive and negative net driving forces. Solutions to mass point motions provide us with
 205 quick information of the landslide motion in time. Such solutions are often required and helpful to analyze
 206 the time evolution of primarily largely intact sliding mass without any substantial spatial deformation. So, we
 207 proceed with the solution for the mass point motions.

208 3.2.1 Accelerating landslide

209 Exact analytical solution for (7) can be constructed, providing the velocity for the landslide motion in terms
 210 of a tangent hyperbolic function (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022):

$$\nearrow u(t; \alpha^a, \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^a}{\beta}} \tanh \left[\sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} (t - t_0) + \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right], \quad (9)$$

211 where, $u_0 = u(t_0)$ is the initial velocity at time $t = t_0$. The mass point solutions also enable us to exactly
 212 obtain the travel time, travel position and distance of the landslide down the slope that I derive below. These
 213 quantities are of direct practical importance.

214 **Travel time for accelerating landslide:** The travel time for the accelerating landslide in any sector (section)
 215 of the flow path can be obtained by using the (maximum) velocity at the right end in that sector. So, this is
 216 the travel time the landslide takes for travelling from the left end to the right end of the considered sector, say
 217 u_{max} , in (9)

$$\nearrow t_{max} = t_0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha^a \beta}} \left[\tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_{max} \right) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right]. \quad (10)$$

218

219 **The position of accelerating landslide:** Since $u(t) = dx/dt$, (9) can be integrated to obtain the landslide
 220 position as a function of time (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022):

$$\nearrow x(t; \alpha^a, \beta) = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} (t - t_0) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ -\tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right], \quad (11)$$

221 where $x_0 = x(t_0)$ corresponds to the position at the initial time t_0 .

222 **The travel distance for accelerating landslide:** The maximum travel distance x_{max} is achieved by setting
 223 $t = t_{max}$ from (10) in to (11), yielding:

$$\nearrow x_{max} = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} (t_{max} - t_0) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ -\tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right]. \quad (12)$$

224 Solutions (9)-(12) provide us the velocity of the negligibly deformable (or non-deformable) accelerating landslide
 225 together with its travel time, position and travel distance, supplying us with all necessary information required
 226 to fully describe the state of the landslide motion.

227 3.2.2 Decelerating landslide

228 However, the exact analytical solution for (8), i.e., the velocity of the decelerating landslide, appears to be the
 229 negative of a tangent function:

$$\searrow u(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = -\sqrt{\frac{\alpha_d}{\beta}} \tan \left[\sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} (t - t_0) + \tan^{-1} \left(-\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right], \quad (13)$$

230 where, $u_0 = u(t_0)$ is the initial velocity at time $t = t_0$. The solution in (13) is fundamentally different than
 231 the one in (9) for the accelerating landslide. In contrast to (9), which always have upper ($u > \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$) or
 232 lower bound ($u < \sqrt{\alpha^a/\beta}$) (depending on the initial condition), (13) provides only the decreasing (velocity)
 233 solution without any lower bound that must be constrained with the possible (final) velocity in the sector under
 234 consideration, say, u_f , particularly $u_f = 0$, when the landslide comes to a halt.

235 **Travel time for decelerating landslide:** The maximum travel time in the sector under consideration, t_{max} ,
 236 is achieved from (13) by setting the velocity at the right end of this sector, say, u_{min} i.e.,

$$\searrow t_{max} = t_0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_d \beta}} \left[\tan^{-1} \left(-\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_{min} \right) - \tan^{-1} \left(-\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right]. \quad (14)$$

237 The final time the mass comes to a standstill is obtained from (14) by setting $u_{min} = 0$.

238 **The position of decelerating landslide:** Again, by setting the relation $u(t) = dx/dt$, (13) can be integrated
 239 to obtain the landslide position as a function of time:

$$\searrow x(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) - \sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} (t - t_0) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right], \quad (15)$$

240 where $x_0 = x(t_0)$ corresponds to the position at the initial time t_0 .

241 **The travel distance for decelerating landslide:** The maximum travel distance x_{max} is achieved by setting
 242 $t = t_{max}$ from (14) in to (15), yielding:

$$\searrow x_{max} = x_0 + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) - \sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} (t_{max} - t_0) \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} u_0 \right) \right\} \right]. \quad (16)$$

243 Solutions (13)-(16) supply us with the velocity of practically non-deformable decelerating landslide including its
 244 travel time, position and travel distance. All these information are necessary to fully characterise the landslide
 245 dynamic.

246 **Total time and total travel distance:** It is important to note that the overall total time and the overall
 247 total travel distance must include all the times in ascending (\nearrow) and descending (\searrow) motions until the mass
 248 comes to the halt. Here, ascending and descending motions refer to the increasing and decreasing landslide
 249 velocities in accelerating and decelerating sections of the sliding path.

250 In this section I constructed simple exact analytical solutions for the accelerating and decelerating landslides
 251 when they are governed by simple time-independent (steady-state) or locally non-deformable (mass point)
 252 motions. However, their applicabilities are limited due to their respective constraints of not changing in time
 253 or no internal deformation.

254 4 The Entire Landslide Velocity: General Solutions

255 In reality, the landslide motion can change in time and space. To cope with these situations, we must construct
 256 analytical landslide velocity solutions as functions of time and space. Below, I focus on these important aspects.
 257 These general solutions cover all the simple solutions presented in the previous section as special cases. The
 258 solutions are constructed for both the accelerating and decelerating motions.

259 4.1 Accelerating landslide – general velocity

260 Consider the initial value problem for the accelerating landslide motion (1) with the positive net driving force:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha^a - \beta u^2, \quad u(x, 0) = s_0(x). \quad (17)$$

261 This is a non-linear advective–dissipative system, and can be perceived as an inviscid, dissipative, non-
 262 homogeneous Burgers' equation (Burgers, 1948). Following the mathematical procedure in Montecinos (2015),
 263 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) constructed an exact analytical solution for (17):

$$\nearrow u(x, t) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^a}{\beta}} \tanh \left[\sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} t + \tanh^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} s_0(y) \right\} \right], \quad (18)$$

264 where $y = y(x, t)$ is given by

$$\nearrow x = y + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \sqrt{\alpha^a \beta} t + \tanh^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} s_0(y) \right\} \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cosh \left\{ \tanh^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha^a}} s_0(y) \right\} \right\} \right], \quad (19)$$

265 and, $s_0(x) = u(x, 0)$ provides the functional relation for $s_0(y)$. Which is the direct generalization of the mass
 266 point solution given by (9).

267 As in the mass point solutions, (18) and (19) are also primarily expressed in terms of the tangent hyperbolic,
 268 and the composite of logarithm, cosine hyperbolic and tangent hyperbolic functions. However, now, these
 269 solutions contain important new dynamics embedded into solutions through the terms associated with the
 270 function $s_0(y)$ describing the spatial variations in addition to the time variations of landslide dynamics. This
 271 makes the general solution system (18) and (19) more complex, but much closer to the reality than simple
 272 solutions constructed in Section 3.2.1 that are applicable either only for the time or spatial variations of the
 273 landslide velocity.

274 4.2 Decelerating landslide – general velocity

275 Next, consider the initial value problem for the decelerating landslide motion (2) with the negative net driving
 276 force:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\alpha_d - \beta u^2, \quad u(x, 0) = s_0(x). \quad (20)$$

277 This is also a non-linear advective–dissipative system, or an inviscid, dissipative, non-homogeneous Burgers’
 278 equation. Following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022), I have constructed an exact analytical solution for
 279 (20), which reads:

$$\searrow u(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = -\sqrt{\frac{\alpha_d}{\beta}} \tan \left[\sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} t + \tan^{-1} \left\{ -\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} s_0(y) \right\} \right], \quad (21)$$

280 where $y = y(x, t)$ is given by

$$\searrow x(t; \alpha_d, \beta) = y + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} s_0(y) \right\} - \sqrt{\alpha_d \beta} t \right\} \right] - \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \left[\cos \left\{ \tan^{-1} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\alpha_d}} s_0(y) \right\} \right\} \right], \quad (22)$$

281 and, $s_0(x) = u(x, 0)$ provides the functional relation for $s_0(y)$. Which is the direct generalization of the mass
 282 point solution given by (13).

283 As in the mass point solutions, (21) and (22) are also basically expressed in terms of the tangent, and the
 284 composite of logarithm, cosine and tangent functions. However, these solutions now contain important new
 285 dynamics included into the solutions through the terms associated with the function $s_0(y)$ describing the spatial
 286 variations in addition to the time variations of landslide dynamics. This makes the general solution system
 287 (21) and (22) more complex, but closer to the reality than simple solutions constructed in Section 3.2.2.

288 General solutions for the landslide velocities evolving as functions of time and position down the entire flow
 289 path, from initiation to the propagation, through the track to the run-out and final deposition, are obtained
 290 by combining the accelerating solutions (18)-(19) and the decelerating solutions (21)-(22).

291 5 Results

292 In order to illustrate the performances of our novel unified exact analytical solutions, below, I present results
 293 for different scenarios and physical parameters representing real situations (Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022).
 294 We can properly choose the slope angle, solid and fluid densities, the solid volume fraction, basal friction angle
 295 of the solid, earth pressure coefficient, and the free-surface gradient such that α^a can be as high as 7, α_d can
 296 be as high as 2, and β can be between 0.0025 and 0.01, or can even take values outside this domain. Following
 297 the literature (see, e.g., Mergili et al., 2020; Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022), the representative values of
 298 physical parameters are: $g = 9.81$, $\zeta = 50^\circ$, $\gamma = 1100/2700$, $\delta = 20^\circ$ ($\mu = 0.36$), $\alpha_s = 0.65$, $K = 1$, $h_g = -0.05$.
 299 This results in a typical value of α about 7.0. The value of $\beta = 0.02$ is often used in literature for mass flow
 300 simulations but without any physical justification, to validate simulations (Zwinger et al., 2003; Pudasaini
 301 and Hutter, 2007). With different modelling frame, considering some typical values of the flow depth on the
 302 order of 1 to 10 m, calibrated values of β cover the wide domain including (0.001, 0.03) (Christen et al., 2010;
 303 Frank et al., 2015; Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019; Frimberger et al. 2021). Pudasaini (2019) provided an
 304 analytical solution and physical basis for the dynamically evolving complex drag in the mixture mass flow. This
 305 formulation shows that the values of β can vary widely, ranging from close to zero to the substantially higher
 306 values than 0.02. Similar values are also used by Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022). In what follows, without
 307 loss of generality, the parameter values for α^a , α_d and β are chosen from these domains. However, other values
 308 of these physical and model parameters are possible within their admissible domains.

309 Landslide deceleration begins as the resisting forces overtake the driving forces. Analytical solutions reveal
 310 that the mechanism and process of acceleration and deceleration, and the halting are fundamentally different.
 311 This is indicated by the fact that the solutions to the accelerating system (1) appear in the form of the tangent
 312 hyperbolic functions with the upper or lower limits (depending on the initial condition), whereas the solutions

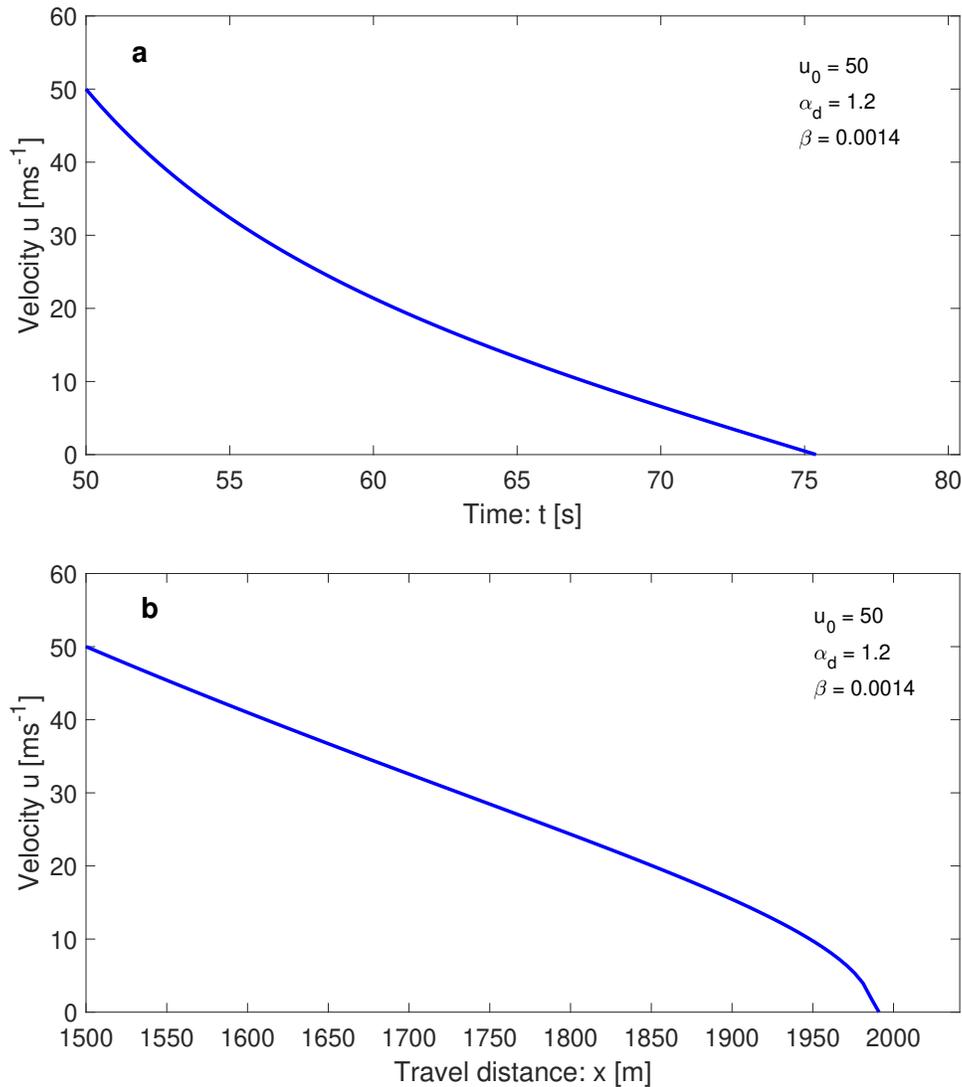


Figure 1: The landslide deceleration in time (a) and space (b) showing different dynamics for given physical parameters.

313 for the decelerating system (2) appear to be in a special form of a decreasing tangent functions without bounds
 314 for which the lower bounds should be set practically, typically the velocity is zero as the mass halts.

315 5.1 Simple solutions

316 I begin analyzing the performances of the landslide models and their exact analytical solutions for the most
 317 simple situations where the motions can either be time-independent, or there is no internal deformation.
 318 Solutions will be presented and discussed for the decelerating motions, and the combination of accelerating and
 319 decelerating motions, and depositions.

320 5.1.1 Landslide deceleration

321 Landslide velocities in accelerating channels have been exclusively presented by Pudasaini and Krautblatter
 322 (2022). Here, I consider solutions in decelerating portion of the channel as well as the mass halting. It might be
 323 difficult to obtain initial velocity in the rapidly accelerating section in steep slope. But, in the lower portion of
 324 the track, where motion switches from accelerating to decelerating state, one could relatively easily obtain the
 325 initial velocity that can be used further for dynamic computations. A simple situation arises when the landslide

326 enters the transition zone (where the motion slows down substantially), and to the fan region (where the flow
 327 spreads and tends to stop and finally deposits) such that the initial velocity could be measured relatively easily
 328 at the fan mouth. Then, this information can be used to simulate the landslide velocity in the run-out zone, its
 329 travel time, and the run-out length in the fan area. Figure 1 shows results for decelerating motions. In Fig. 1,
 330 I have suitably chosen the time and spatial boundaries (or initial conditions) as $x = 1500$ m corresponding to
 331 $t = 50$ s for $u_0 = 50$ ms⁻¹. Once the landslide begins to decelerate (here, due to the negative net driving force),
 332 it decelerates faster in time than in space, means the (negative) time gradient of the velocity is higher than its
 333 (negative) spatial gradient. However, as it is closer to the deposition, the velocity decreases relatively smoothly
 334 in time. But, its spatial decrease is rather abrupt. The travel or run-out time and distance are determined
 335 by setting the deceleration velocity to zero in the solutions obtained for (4). We can consistently take initial
 336 time and location down the slope such that the previously accelerating mass now begins to decelerate. As
 337 the travel time and travel distance are directly connected by a function, we can uniquely determine the time
 338 and position at the instance the motion changes from accelerating to decelerating state. At this occasion, the
 339 solution switches from model (3) to model (4).

340 This analysis provides us with basic understanding of the decelerating motion and deposition process in the
 341 run-out region. I have analytically quantified the deceleration and deposition. The important observation from
 342 Fig. 1 is that the time and spatial perspectives of the landslide deceleration and deposition are fundamentally
 343 different. These are the manifestations of the inertial terms $\partial u/\partial t$ and $u\partial u/\partial x$ in the simple mass point and
 344 steady-state landslide velocity models (7) and (8), and (3) and (4), respectively.

345 5.1.2 Landslide release and acceleration, deceleration and deposition: a transition

346 The above description, however, is only one side of the total motion that must be unified with the solution in
 347 the accelerating sector, and continuously connect them to automatically generate the whole solution. For a
 348 rapid assessment of the landslide motion, technically the entire track can be divided into two major sectors,
 349 the ascending sector where the landslide accelerates, followed by the descending sector where it decelerates
 350 and finally comes to a halt. Assuming these approximations are practically admissible, this already drastically
 351 reduces the complexity and allows us to provide a quick solution. To achieve this, here, I combine both the
 352 solutions in the accelerating and decelerating portions of the channel. The process of landslide release and
 353 acceleration, and deceleration and deposition are presented in Fig. 2 for time and spatial variation of motion
 354 in two segments (sectors), for (increasing velocity) ascending ($\alpha^a = 3.5$) and (decreasing velocity) descending
 355 ($\alpha_d = 1.2$) sections, respectively. Such transition occurs when the previously accelerating motion turns into
 356 substantially decelerating motion. This can be caused, e.g., due to the decreasing slope or increasing friction
 357 (or both) when the landslide transits from the upper (say, left) segment to the lower (say, right) segment. In
 358 general, any parameter, or set of parameters, involved in the net driving force α^a can make it strongly negative.
 359 The initial value (left boundary) of the downstream decelerating segment is provided by the final value (right
 360 boundary) of the upstream accelerating segment. There are two key messages here. First, there are fundamental
 361 differences between the landslide release and acceleration, and deceleration and deposition in space and time.
 362 In space, the changes in velocity are rapid at the beginning of the mass release and acceleration and at the end
 363 of deceleration and deposition. However, in time, these processes (changes in velocity) are relatively gentle at
 364 the beginning of mass release and acceleration, and at the end of deceleration and deposition. This means, the
 365 spatial and time perspectives of changes of velocities are different. Second, the transition from acceleration to
 366 deceleration is of major interest, as this changes the state of motion from driving force dominance to resisting
 367 force dominance, here, due to the negative net driving force. The transition is more dramatic in time than in
 368 space. This manifests that the three critical regions; release, transition from acceleration to deceleration, and
 369 deposition; must be handled carefully as they provide very important information for the practitioners and
 370 hazard assessment professionals on the dynamics of landslide motion, behavioral changes in different states
 371 and depositions. This means, the initial velocity, the change in velocity from the accelerating to decelerating
 372 section, and the velocity close to the deposition must be understood and modelled properly.

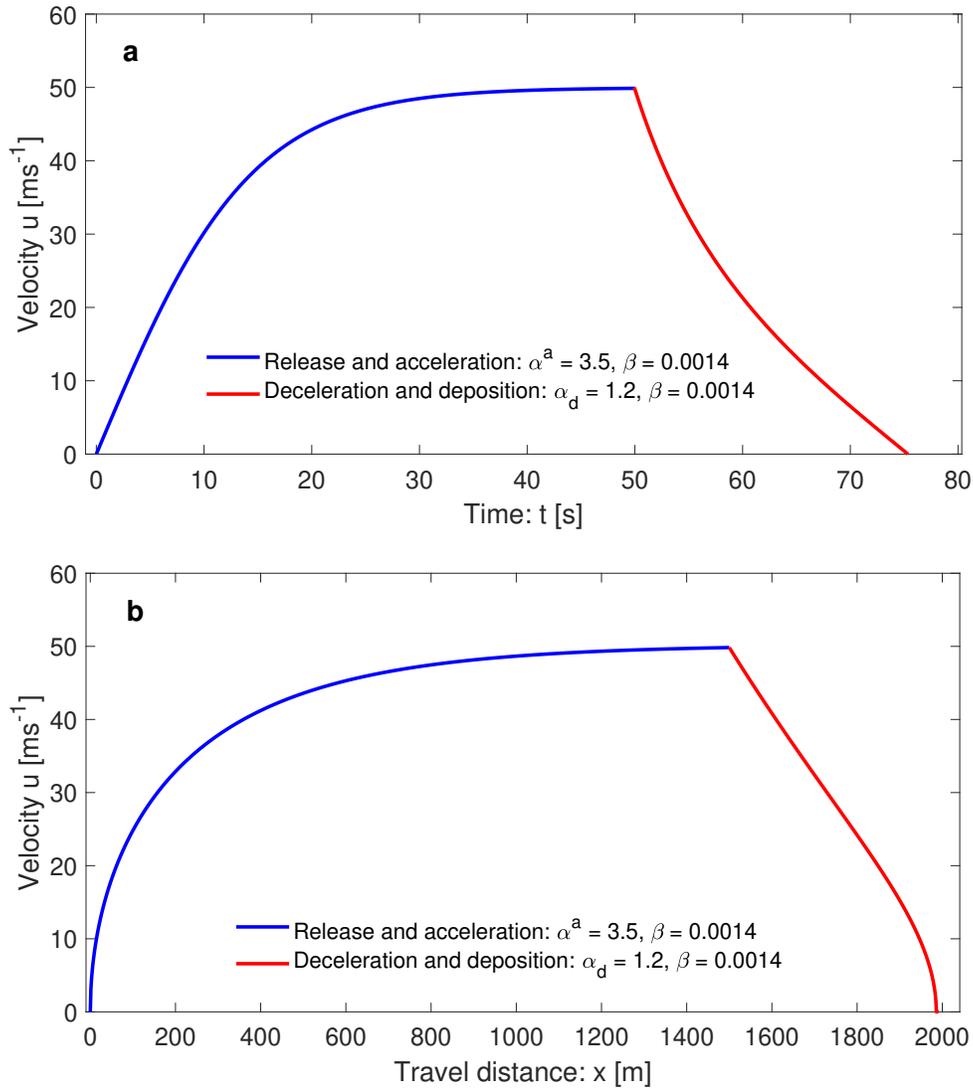


Figure 2: The landslide release and acceleration (left segments), deceleration and deposition (right segments) in time (a), and space (b) with chosen physical parameters. Also seen is the transition from acceleration to deceleration at kinks at about (50, 50) and (1500, 50), respectively. The landslide velocity dynamics are fundamentally different in time and space.

373 5.1.3 Landslide release and acceleration, deceleration and deposition: 374 multi-sectional transitions

375 The situations described above are only some rough approximations of reality as the landslide acceleration and
376 deceleration may often change locally, requiring to break its analysis in multiple sectors to more realistically
377 model the dynamics in greater details and higher accuracy to the observed data. In general, the landslide
378 moves down a variable track. From the dynamic point of view, the variable track can be generated by changing
379 values of one or more parameters involved in the net driving force α^a (or, α^d). For example, this can be due
380 to the changing slope or basal friction. For simplicity, we may keep other parameters in α^a unchanged, but
381 successively decrease the slope angle such that the values of α^a decreases accordingly. As α^a is the collective
382 model parameter, without being explicit, it is more convenient to appropriately select the decreasing values of
383 α^a such that each decreased value in α^a leads to the reduced acceleration of the landslide. For practical purpose,
384 such a track can be realistically divided in to a multi-sectional track (Dietrich and Krautblatter, 2019) such
385 that at each section we can apply our analytical velocity solutions, both for accelerating (sufficiently positive

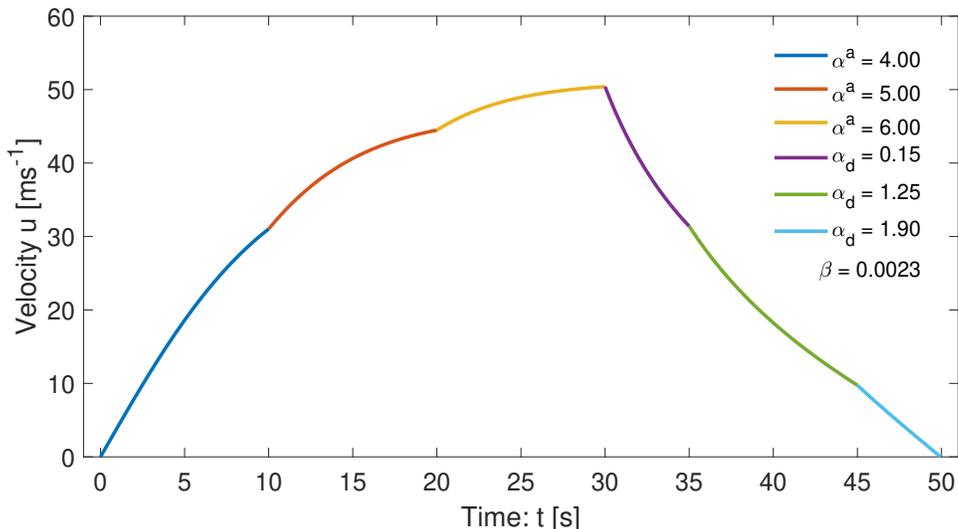


Figure 3: Landslide release and multi-sectional acceleration, deceleration and deposition in time. The physical parameters are shown in the legend. Several ascending–ascending and descending–descending segments are connected on the left with kinks at (10, 31.02) and (20, 44.48), and on the right with kinks at (35, 31.40) and (45, 9.75). The left and right segments are further connected by a central ascending–descending segment connection at the major kink at (30, 50.41). The mass stops at (50, 0.0).

386 net driving force in relation of the initial velocity, or the viscous drag force) and decelerating (negative net
387 driving force) sections. The transitions between these sections automatically satisfy the boundary conditions:
388 The left boundary (initial value) of the following segment is provided by the right boundary (final value) that
389 is known from the analytical solution constructed in the previous time, or space of the preceding segment. This
390 procedure continues as far as the two adjacent segments are joined, connecting either ascending–ascending,
391 ascending–descending, or descending–descending velocity segments. However, note that, independent of the
392 number of segments and their connections, only one initial (or boundary) value is required at the uppermost
393 position of the channel. All other consecutive (internal and final) boundary conditions will be systematically
394 generated by our analytical solution system, derived and explained at Section 3.

395 An ascending–ascending segment connection is formed when two ascending segments with different positive
396 net driving forces (larger than the drag forces) are connected together. A typical example is the connection
397 between a relatively slowly accelerating to a highly accelerating section. An ascending–descending segment
398 connection is constituted when an upstream ascending segment is connected with a downstream descending
399 segment, typically the connection between an accelerating to descending section. A descending–descending
400 segment connection is developed when the two descending segments with different negative net driving forces are
401 connected together. A typical example is the connection between a slowly decelerating to a highly decelerating
402 section. However, many other combinations between ascending and descending segments can be formed as
403 guided by the changes in the net driving forces, e.g., the changes in the slope-induced and friction-induced
404 forces and their dominances. So, we need to extend the solution procedure of Section 5.1.2 from two sectoral
405 landslide transition to multi-sectoral transitions.

406 Here, I discuss a scenario for a track with multi-sectors of ever increasing slope, followed by a quick transition
407 to a decreasing slope, again succeeded by multi-sectors of ever decreasing slopes, and finally mass deposition.
408 Figure 3 presents a typical (positive rate of ascendant, and negative rate of descendant) example of the multi-
409 sectoral solutions for the time evolution of the velocity field for the ascending ($\alpha^a = 4.0, 5.0, 6.0$), and the
410 descending ($\alpha_d = 0.15, 1.25, 1.90$) sectors, respectively. In the ascending sectors, as the net driving force
411 increases, from the first to the second to the third sector, the mass further accelerates, enhancing the slope
412 of the velocity field at each successive kink connecting the two neighboring segments. At the major kink, as

413 the net driving force changes rapidly from accelerating to decelerating mode with the value of $\alpha^a = 6.0$ to
414 $\alpha_d = 0.15$, the motion switches dramatically from the velocity ascending to descending state. All these values
415 (even in the outer range) are possible by changing the physical parameters appearing in α . For example,
416 $\zeta = 50^\circ, \gamma = 1100/2700, \delta = 20^\circ$ ($\mu = 0.36$), $\alpha_s = 0.65, K = 1, h_g = -0.05$ and $g = 9.81$ give α^a of about
417 7, and $\zeta = 1^\circ, \gamma = 1100/2700, \delta = 33^\circ$ ($\mu = 0.65$), $\alpha_s = 0.65, K = 1, h_g = -0.05$ and $g = 9.81$ even give
418 α_d of about 1.8. In the following descending sectors, as the values of α_d quickly increases, the mass further
419 decelerates, from the fourth to the fifth to the sixth sector, negatively reducing the slope of the velocity field
420 at each successive kink, preparing for deposition. Finally, the mass comes to a halt ($u = 0$) at $t = 50$ s. So,
421 Fig. 3 reveals important time dynamics of ever-increasing multi-sectoral ascending motions, its quick transition
422 to descending motion, and the following ever-decreasing descending motions, and the final mass halting. The
423 main observation is the analytical quantification of the complex dynamics of the landslide with increasing and
424 decreasing gradients of the positive and negative net driving forces.

425 As the time and spatial perspectives of the landslide motions are different, and from the practical point of
426 view, it is even more important to acquire the velocity as a function of the channel position, next, I present
427 results for multi-sectoral landslide dynamics as a function of the channel position. Depending on the rates of
428 ascendance and descendance, I analyze the landslide dynamics separately. Figure 4 displays the results for the
429 evolution of the velocity field as a function of the travel distance as the landslide moves down the slope. To
430 investigate the influence of the intensity of accelerating and decelerating net driving forces, two distinct sets
431 of net driving forces are considered. In Fig. 4a, as the net driving force increases from the first to second
432 to the third sectors, the acceleration increases, and the slopes of the velocity curves increase accordingly at
433 kinks in these sectors. But, as the net driving force decreases from the third to fourth to the fifth sectors, the
434 acceleration decreases although the landmass is still accelerating. In this situation, the velocity curves increase
435 accordingly in these sectors, but slowly, and finally reach the maximum value. At the major kink, the net
436 driving force has dropped quickly from $\alpha^a = 3.06$ to its decelerating value of $\alpha_d = 0.5$. Consequently, the
437 motion switches dramatically from the velocity ascending (accelerating) to descending (decelerating) state. In
438 the velocity descending sectors, as the values of α_d quickly increases, the mass further decelerates, but now
439 much quicker than before, resulting in the negatively increased slope of the velocity fields at each successive
440 kink. As controlled by the net decelerating force, α_d , the deposition process turned out to be rapid. Finally,
441 the mass comes to a halt ($u = 0$) at $x = 1494$ m.

442 In Fig. 4b, the net driving driving force in the first sector is much higher than that in Fig. 4a. However,
443 then, even in the ascending sectors, the net driving forces are steadily decreasing, resulting in the continuously
444 decreased slopes of the velocity fields from the first to the fifth sectors. As in Fig. 4a, at the major kink, the
445 net driving force dropped quickly from $\alpha^a = 3.79$ to its decelerating value of $\alpha_d = 0.5$, forcing the motion to
446 switch dramatically from the velocity ascending to descending state. In the velocity descending sectors, as the
447 values of α_d further increases, the mass decelerates steadily, faster than before, with the negatively increased
448 slope of the velocity fields at each following kink. Due to the similar decelerating net driving forces as in Fig.
449 4a, the deposition process turned out to be relatively quick. Finally, the mass halts ($u = 0$) at $x = 1435$ m,
450 a bit earlier than in Fig. 4a. So, Fig. 4 manifests that the slopes and connection appearances of the velocity
451 fields exclusively depend on the boundary values and the net driving forces of the following sections.

452 The run-out distances in Fig. 4a and Fig 4b are similar. However, their internal dynamics are substantially
453 different, here, mainly in the ascending sectors. The main essence here is that one cannot understand the
454 overall dynamics of the landslide by just looking at the final deposit and the run-out length as in empirical and
455 statistical models. Instead, one must also understand the entire and the internal dynamics in order to properly
456 simulate the motion and the associated impact force. So, our physics-based complete analytical solutions
457 provide much better descriptions of landslide dynamics than the angle of reach based empirical or statistical
458 models (Heim, 1932; Lied and Bakkehoi, 1980) that explicitly rely on parameter fits (Pudasaini and Hutter,
459 2007).

460 It is important to mention that from the coordinates, the travel distances are instantly obtained. Similarly, as
461 we have the information about velocity and distance from the figure, we can directly construct the travel time.

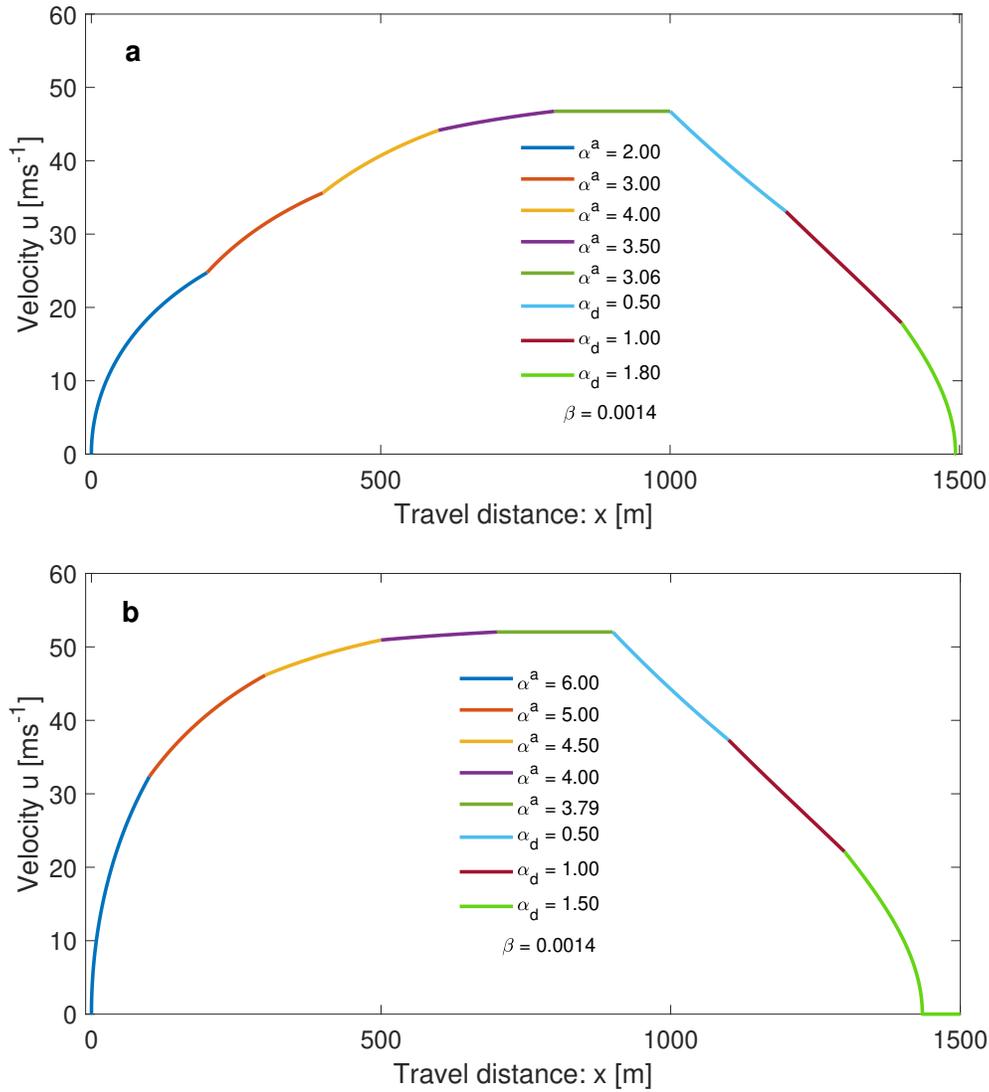


Figure 4: Landslide release and multi-sectional acceleration, deceleration and deposition in space with different parameter sets shown in the legends. **(a)** Several ascending–ascending segments are connected on the left with kinks at (200, 24.75), (400, 35.62), (600, 44.20), and (800, 46.75), and descending–descending segments are connected on right with kinks at (1200, 33.10), and (1400, 17.90). The left and right segments are further connected by a central ascending–descending segment connection at the major kink at (1000, 46.80). The landslide comes to a halt at (1494, 0.0). **(b)** Similarly, several ascending–ascending segments are connected on the left with kinks at (100, 32.35), (300, 46.14), (500, 50.94), and (700, 52.03), and descending–descending segments are connected on the right with kinks at (1100, 37.30), and (1300, 22.10). The left and right segments are further connected by a central ascending–descending segment connection at the major kink at (900, 52.03). The landslide comes to a halt at (1435, 0.0). Although **(a)** and **(b)** have similar run-out distances, their internal dynamics are different, so are the associated impact forces along the tracks.

462 5.1.4 Decelerating landslide with positive and negative net driving forces

463 The previously accelerating landslide may transit to decelerating motion such that the net driving force α^a is
464 positive in both sections, but α^a is smaller in the succeeding section, i.e., $\alpha_p^a > \alpha_s^a$, where, p and s indicate
465 the preceding and succeeding sections. Assume that the end velocity of the preceding section is u_p . Then, if
466 $u_p > \sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$, the landslide will decelerate in the succeeding section such that the velocity in this section is
467 bounded from below by $\sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$. This can happen, e.g., when the slope decreases and/or friction increases, but,

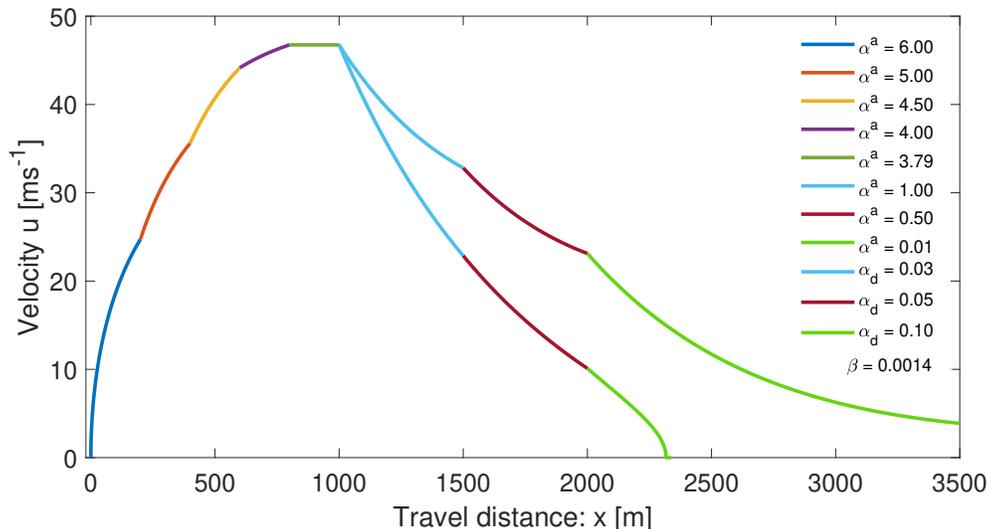


Figure 5: Landslide release and multi-sectional acceleration, deceleration and deposition in space with different physical parameters sets shown in the legend. Two different decelerating motions are considered for the right sectors. The upper velocities on the right are produced with the solution of the model (1) with positive net driving forces producing kinks at (1500, 32.82) and (2000, 23.12), whereas the lower velocities on the right are produced with the solution of the model (2) with negative net driving forces producing kinks as (1500, 22.87) and (2000, 10.10), respectively. For better visualization, the corresponding descending motions in the common track domains are displayed with the same color-codes. Their dynamics and deposition processes are quite different. The negative net driving forces result in the realistic deceleration, run-out and deposition at (2317, 0), while even after travelling 3500 m, the decelerating motion with positive net driving forces still has high velocity (3.88 ms^{-1}), and cannot represent reality.

468 still, the net driving force remains positive. However, as the initial velocity of the succeeding section is higher
469 than the characteristic limit velocity of this section, $\sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$, the velocity must decrease as it is controlled by the
470 resisting force, namely the drag. If the slope is quite long with this state, the landslide velocity will approach
471 $\sqrt{\alpha_s^a/\beta}$, and then, continue almost unchanged. A particular situation is the vanishing net driving force, i.e.,
472 $\alpha_s^a = 0$, in the right section. This can prevail when the gravity and frictional forces (including the free-surface
473 pressure gradient) balance each other. Then, as the landslide started with the positive (high) velocity in the
474 left boundary of the right section, it is continuously resisted by the drag force, strongly at the beginning, and
475 slowly afterwards, as the velocity decreases substantially. If the channel is sufficiently long (and $\alpha_s^a = 0$), then
476 the drag can ultimately bring the landslide velocity down to zero. Yet, this is a less likely scenario to take place
477 in nature. In all these situations, which are associated with the positive net driving forces, we must consistently
478 use the model (1) and its corresponding analytical solutions. In another scenario, assume that the landslide
479 transits to the next section where it experiences the negative net driving force. Then, in this section, we must
480 use the model (2) and its corresponding analytical solutions.

481 Figure 5 presents the first rapidly accelerating motions in the left sections, as in Fig. 4a, followed by decelerating
482 motions in the right sections. However, as the mass transits to the right sections at $x = 1000$, there can be
483 fundamentally two types of decelerating motions. (i) The motions can still be associated with the positive net
484 driving forces. Or, (ii) the motions must be associated with the negative net driving forces. This depends
485 on the actual physical situation, and either (i) or (ii) can be true. The lower velocities on the right are
486 produced with the solution of the model (2) with negative net driving forces, whereas the upper velocities are
487 produced with the solution of the model (1) with positive net driving forces. For better visualization, and
488 ease of comparison, the domain of decelerating motion and deposition has been substantially enlarged. The
489 important point is that, the two solutions on the right show completely different dynamics. On the one hand,
490 the decelerating solutions represented by the upper curves on the right seem to be less realistic as these take

491 unrealistically long time until the mass comes to stop, and the velocities are also unreasonably high. On the
 492 other hand, such solutions can mainly be applied for the relatively low positive net driving forces and high
 493 initial velocities. However, the lower curves on the right are realistic, and are produced by using the solutions
 494 for the naturally decelerating motions associated with the negative net driving forces, as is the case in natural
 495 setting. For the solutions described by the negative net driving forces, the mass deceleration is fast, velocity
 496 is low, close to the flow halting the velocity drops quickly to zero, and the landslide stops realistically as
 497 expected. Figure 5 is of practical importance as it clearly reveals the fact that we must appropriately model
 498 the descending landslide motions. The important message here is that the descending and deposition processes
 499 of a landslide must be described by the decelerating solutions with negative net driving forces (the solutions
 500 derived here), but not with the decelerating solutions described by positive net driving forces (the solutions
 501 derived in Pudasaini and Krautblatter, 2022). So, Fig. 5 has strong implications in real applications that the
 502 new set of analytical solutions with negative net driving forces must be appropriately considered in describing
 503 the descending landslide motion.

504 5.2 Time and spatial evolution of landslide velocity: general solutions

505 The solutions presented in Section 5.1 only provide information of the landslide dynamics either in time or in
 506 space, but not the both. As the landslide moves down the slope, in general, its velocity evolves as a function of
 507 time and space. Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) presented the time marching of the landslide motion that
 508 also stretches as it accelerates downslope. Such deformation of the landslide stems from the advection, $u\partial u/\partial x$,
 509 and the applied forces, $\alpha^a - \beta u^2$. The mechanism of landslide advection, stretching and the velocity up-lifting
 510 has been explained. They revealed the fact that shifting, up-lifting and stretching of the velocity field emanate
 511 from the forcing and non-linear advection. The intrinsic mechanism of their solution describes the breaking
 512 wave and emergence of landslide folding. This happens collectively as the solution system simultaneously
 513 introduces downslope propagation of the domain, velocity up-lift and non-linear advection. Pudasaini and
 514 Krautblatter (2022) disclosed that the domain translation and stretching solely depends on the net driving
 515 force, and along with advection, the viscous drag fully controls the shock wave generation, wave breaking,
 516 folding, and also the velocity magnitude.

517 Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022) considered the accelerating motion. Assuming that the landslide has already
 518 propagated a sufficient distance downslope, here, I focus on time and spatial evolution of landslide velocity for
 519 the decelerating motion and deposition for which I apply the new solutions given by (21)-(22). This complements
 520 the existing solutions and presents the unified analytical description of the landslide motion down the entire
 521 slope. So, next I present more general results for landslide velocity for decelerating motion controlled by the
 522 advection, $u\partial u/\partial x$, and the applied forces, $-\alpha_d - \beta u^2$. In contrast to the accelerating motion, the decelerating
 523 motion is associated with the applied force $-\alpha_d - \beta u^2$, while the structure of the advection, $u\partial u/\partial x$, remains
 524 unchanged. Now, the landslide may be stretched or compressed, however, the velocity will gradually sink. The
 525 intensity of the wave breaking and the conjecture of the landslide folding will be reduced. Following Pudasaini
 526 and Krautblatter (2022) we mention- although mathematically folding may refer to a singularity due to a
 527 multi-valued function, here we explain the folding dynamics as a phenomenon that can appear in nature. This
 528 happens, because the solution system introduces downslope propagation of the domain, velocity sink and non-
 529 linear advection. Moreover, the domain translation and stretching or contracting depends on the net driving
 530 force, and paired with advection, the viscous drag controls the shock wave generation, wave breaking, possible
 531 folding, and also the reduction of the velocity magnitude.

532 From the geomorphological, engineering, planning and hazard mitigation point of view, the deposition and run-
 533 out processes are probably the most important aspects of the landslide dynamics. So, in this section, I focus
 534 on the dynamics of the landslide as it decelerates and enters the run-out area and the process of deposition,
 535 including its stretching or contracting behavior.

536 5.2.1 Landslide depositions of initially ascending and descending velocity fronts

537 In the most simple situation, the landslide may start deceleration and enter the run-out and the fan zone with
 538 either the ascending or descending velocity front. An ascending front may represent the pre-mature transi-

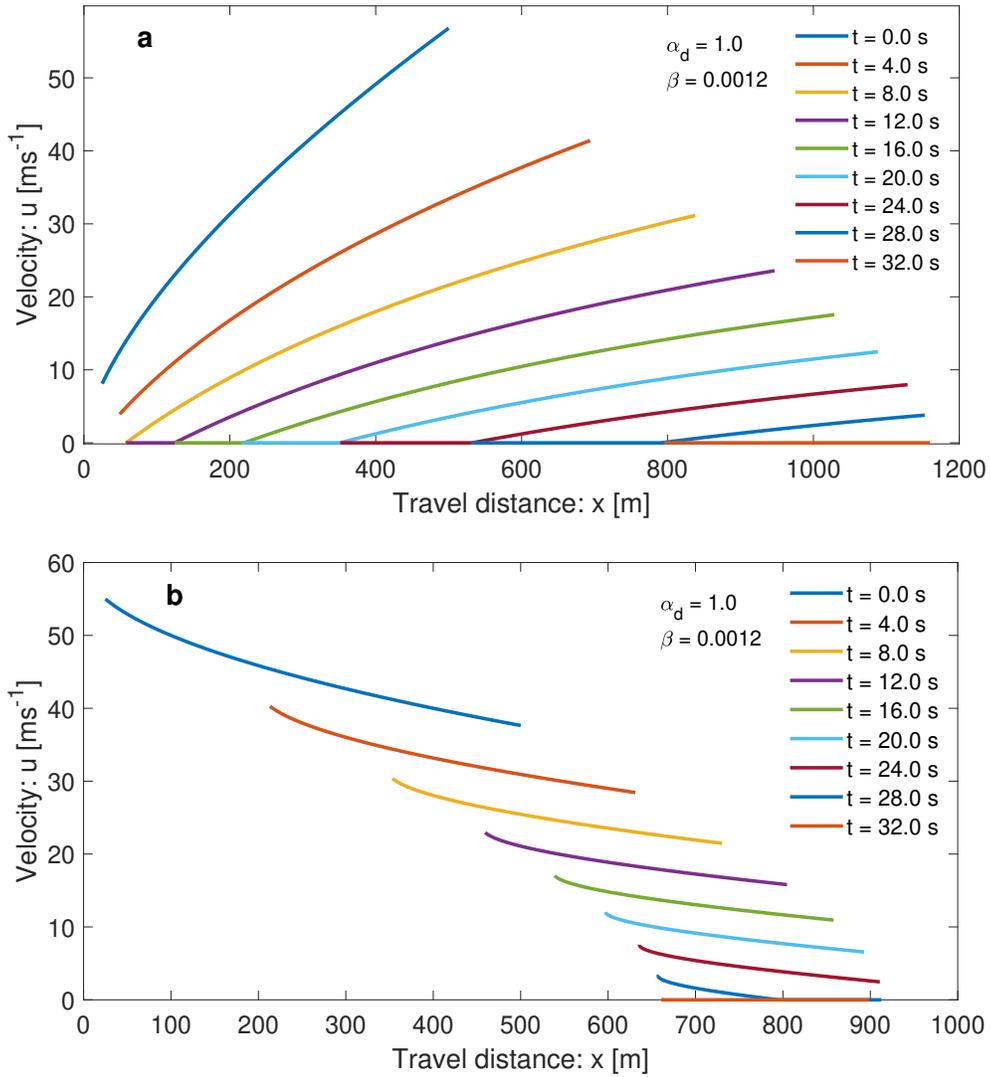


Figure 6: Time and spatial evolution of the landslide velocity showing the motion, deformation and deposition of initially ascending (a), and descending (b) landslide velocity fronts, described by $s_0(x) = x^{0.65}$ and $s_0(x) = 60 - x^{0.5}$, respectively, at $t = 0$ s. The physical parameter values are shown. The initially different velocity profiles result in completely different travel distances and landslide spreadings or contractings. The deposition extend for the ascending front is much longer than the same for the descending front.

tion, while a descending front may signal the mature transition to the run-out zone. Figure 6 describes the propagation dynamics and deposition processes for initially ascending (a) and descending (b) velocity fronts. As possible scenarios (described in the figure captions) the initial velocity distributions are chosen following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022). In Fig. 6a, the front decelerates much faster than the rear, while in Fig. 6b, it is the opposite. This leads to the forward propagating and elongating landslide mass for the ascending front while forward propagating and compressing landslide mass for the descending front. This results in completely different travel distances and deposition processes. The runout distance is much longer in Fig. 6a than in Fig. 6b. The striking difference is observed in the lengths of the deposited masses. The deposition extend for the ascending front is much longer (about 1100 m) than the same for the descending front (which is < 250 m). At a first glance, it is astonishing. However, it can be explained mechanically. Ascending or descending velocity fronts lead to the strongly stretching and compressing behavior, resulting, respectively, in the very elongated and compressed depositions of the landslide masses. In Fig. 6a, although the front decelerates faster than the rear, the rear velocity drops to zero faster than the front, whereas the velocity of the front becomes zero at a

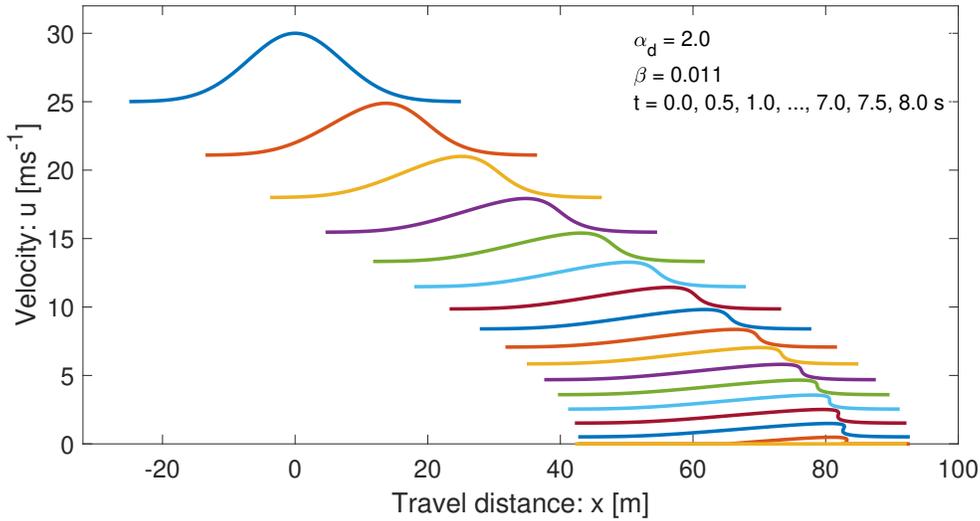


Figure 7: Time and space evolution of the propagating landslide and deposition waves. The initial velocity distribution is given by $s_0(x) = 5 \exp[-x^2/100] + 25$ at $t = 0$ s. The physical parameter values are shown.

552 later time. So, the halting process begins much earlier, first from the rear and propagates to the front that takes
 553 quite a while. This results in the remarkable stretching of the landslide. Nevertheless, in Fig. 6b, although
 554 the rear decelerates faster than the front, the front velocity quickly drops to zero much faster than the rear,
 555 whereas the velocity of the rear becomes zero at a much later time. So, the halting process begins first from
 556 the front and propagates to the rear that takes quite a while. This results in the remarkable compression of
 557 the landslide. This demonstrates how the different initial velocity profiles of the landslides result in completely
 558 different travel distances and spreadings or contractings in depositions.

559 The state of deposition is important in properly understanding the at-rest-structure of the landmass for geomor-
 560 phological and civil or environmental engineering considerations. Energy dissipation structures, e.g., breaking
 561 mounds, can be installed in the transition and the run-out zones to substantially reduce the landslide velocity
 562 (Pudasaini and Hutter, 2007; Johannesson et al., 2009). Here comes the direct application of our analytical
 563 solution method. The important message here is that, if we can control the ascending frontal velocity of the
 564 landslide and turn it into a descending front, by some means of the structural measure in the transition or the
 565 run-out zone, we might increase compaction and control the run-out length. This will have a immediate and
 566 great engineering and planning implications, due to increased compaction of the deposited material and the
 567 largely controlled travel distance and deposition length.

568 5.2.2 Landslide deposition waves

569 The situation discussed in the preceding section only considers a monotonically increasing or a monotonically
 570 decreasing velocity front in the transition or run-out (fan) zones. However, in reality, the landslide may enter
 571 transition or the fan zone with a complex wave form, representative of a surge wave. A more general situation is
 572 depicted in Fig. 7 which continuously combines the ascending and descending parts in Fig. 6, but also includes
 573 upstream and downstream constant portions of the landslide velocities, thus, forming a wave structure. As a
 574 possible scenario, the initial velocity distribution is chosen following Pudasaini and Krautblatter (2022). As
 575 the frontal and the rear portions of the landslide initially have constant velocities, due to its initial velocity
 576 distribution with maximum in between, it produces a pleasing propagation mosaic and the final settlement.
 577 Because, now, both the front and the rear decelerate at the same rates, deposition begins from both sides.
 578 Although, in total, the landslide elongates (but not that much), it mainly elongates in the rear side while
 579 compressing a bit in the frontal portion. The velocity becomes smoother in the back side of the main peak
 580 while it tends to produce a kink in the frontal region. This forces to generate a folding in the frontal part

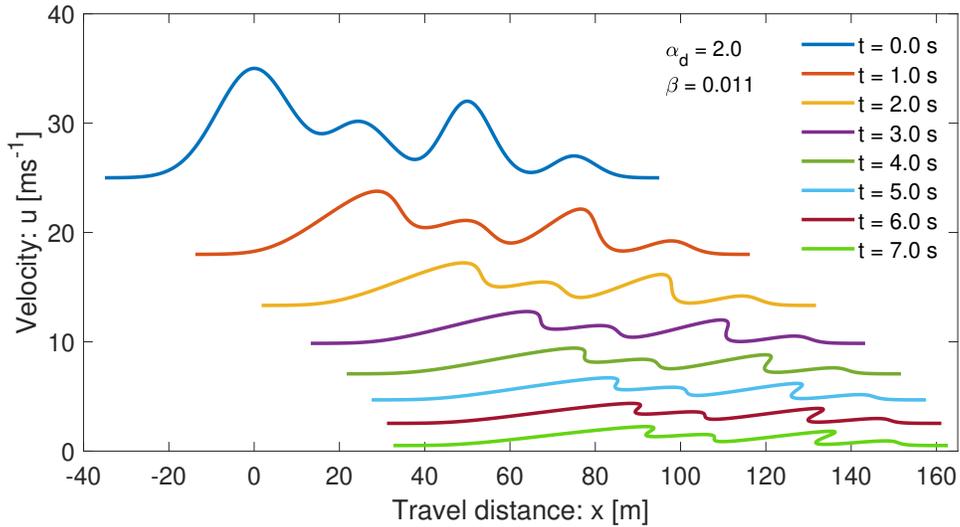


Figure 8: Time and space evolution of the landslide with multiple complex waves, foldings and crests during the propagation and deposition processes. The initial velocity distribution ($t = 0$ s) is given by the function $s_0(x) = 10 \exp[-(x - 0)^2/150] + 5 \exp[-(x - 25)^2/100] + 7 \exp[-(x - 50)^2/65] + 2 \exp[-(x - 75)^2/50] + 25$. The chosen physical parameter values are shown in the legend.

581 which is seen closer to the halting. However, the folding is controlled by the relatively high applied drag. If
 582 the applied drag would have been substantially reduced, dominant folding would have been observed. Note
 583 that, the possibility of folding of the accelerating landslide has been covered in Pudasaini and Krautblatter
 584 (2022). The important idea here is that, the folding and the wave that may be present in the frontal part of
 585 the landslide evolution or deposition, can be quantified and described by our general exact analytical solution.

586 5.2.3 Landslide with multiple waves, foldings, crests and deposition pattern

587 The landslide may descend down and enter the transition and the run-out zone with multiple surges of different
 588 strengths, as frequently observed in natural events. In reality, the initial velocity can be even more complex
 589 than the one utilized in Fig. 7. To describe such situation, Fig. 8 considers a more general initial velocity
 590 distribution than before with multiple peaks and troughs of different strengths and extents represented by a
 591 complex function. As the landslide moves down, it produces a beautiful propagation pattern with different
 592 stretchings and contractings resulting in multiple waves, foldings, crests and deposition. Depending on the
 593 initial local velocity distribution (on the left and right side of the peak), in some regions, strong foldings and
 594 crests are developed (corresponding to the first and third initial peaks), while in other regions only weak folding
 595 (corresponding to the second initial peak) is developed, or even the peak is diffused (corresponding to the fourth
 596 initial peak). This provides us with the possibility of analytically describing complex multiple waves, foldings
 597 and crests formations during the landslide motion and also in deposition. This analysis can provide us with
 598 crucial information of a complex deposition pattern that can be essential for the study of the geomorphology
 599 of deposit. Importantly, the local information of the degree of compaction and folding can play a vital role in
 600 landuse planning, and decision making, e.g., for the choice of the location for the infrastructural development.
 601 As further development of the present solutions, the methods presented here may be expanded to include the
 602 landslide depth and relate it to the landslide velocity.

603 Technically, the results presented in Fig. 2 to Fig. 8 demonstrate that, computationally costly simulations may
 604 now be replaced by a simple highly cost-effective, clean and honourable analytical solutions (almost without
 605 any cost). This is a great advantage as it provides immediate and very easy solution to the complex landslide
 606 motion once we know the track geometry and the material parameters, which, in general, is known from the
 607 field. So, we have presented a seminal technique describing the entire landslide motion and deposition process.

608 6 Summary

609 I have constructed several new exact analytical solutions and combined these with the existing solutions for
610 the landslide velocity. This facilitated the unified description of a landslide down a slope with multiple seg-
611 ments with accelerating and decelerating movements as well as the landslide run-out, and deposition. This
612 provided the complete and righteous depiction of the landslide motions in different segments, for the entire
613 slope, from its release, through the track until it comes to a standstill. Our analytical method couples sev-
614 eral ascending–ascending, ascending–descending, or descending–descending segments to construct the exact
615 multi-sectoral velocity solutions down the entire track. I have analytically quantified the complicated landslide
616 dynamics with increasing and decreasing gradients of the positive and negative net driving forces. The impli-
617 cation is: the new set of analytical solutions with negative net driving forces must be appropriately considered
618 in real applications in describing the descending landslide motion as such solutions better represent the natural
619 process of decreasing motion and deposition. Analytical solutions revealed essentially different novel mecha-
620 nisms and processes of acceleration and deceleration and the mass halting. There are fundamental differences
621 between the landslide release and acceleration, and deceleration and deposition in space and time. The tran-
622 sition from acceleration to deceleration takes place with strong kinks that changes the state of motion from a
623 primarily driving force dominance to resisting force dominance region. This manifests the three critical regions;
624 release, transition from acceleration to deceleration, and deposition; that must be handled carefully. The time
625 and spatial perspectives of the landslide deceleration and deposition appeared to be fundamentally different as
626 the transition is more dramatic in time than in space. We can uniquely ascertain the exact time and position
627 at the instance the motion changes from accelerating to decelerating state. Considering all the ascending and
628 descending motions, we can analytically obtain the exact total travel time and the travel distance for the whole
629 motion. These quantities are of direct practical importance as they supply us with all the necessary information
630 to fully describe the landslide dynamics.

631 Our physics-based complete, general analytical solutions disclose a number of important information for the
632 practitioners and hazard assessment professionals on the vitally important physics of landslide motion and
633 settlement. Essentially, these solutions provide much better overall descriptions of landslide dynamics than
634 the empirical or statistical models, which explicitly rely on parameter fits, but can only deal with the run-out
635 length. Our models provide information on the entire and internal dynamics that is needed to properly simulate
636 the motion and associated impact force. Our solutions provide insights into the process of compaction, and
637 the mechanism to control the travel distance and deposition length. The frontal folding and the wave, that
638 may appear during the landslide evolution or deposition, can be quantified by our analytical solution. We
639 have demonstrated that different initial landslide velocity distributions result in completely dissimilar travel
640 distances, deposition processes, and spreadings or contractings. Ascending and descending fronts lead to the
641 strongly stretching and compressing behavior resulting, respectively, in the very elongated and shortened run-
642 outs. The striking difference is observed in the lengths of the deposited masses. Time and space evolution
643 of the marching landslide and deposition waves produce a beautiful pattern and the final settlement. Initial
644 velocity distribution with multiple peaks and troughs of different strengths and extents lead to a spectacular
645 propagation pattern with distinct stretchings and contractings resulting in multiple waves, foldings, crests and
646 depositions. Depending on the initial local velocity distribution, in some regions strong foldings and crests
647 are developed, while in other regions foldings and crests are diffused. This provides us with the possibility of
648 analytically describing complex multiple waves, foldings and crests formations during the landslide motion and
649 deposition. As complex multiple surges of varying strengths can be explained analytically, our method provides
650 us with crucial geomorphological information of the sophisticated deposition pattern, including the important
651 local state of compaction and folding, which play a vital role in landuse planning, and decision making for
652 the infrastructural development and environmental protection. Moreover, our analytical method demonstrates
653 that computationally costly solutions may now be replaced by a simple, highly cost-effective and unified ana-
654 lytical solutions (almost without any cost) down the entire track of the landslide. This is of a great technical
655 advantage for the landslide practitioners and engineers as it provides immediate and very easy solution to the
656 complex landslide motion.

657 Acknowledgments

658 I greatly appreciate the fruitful discussions with and suggestions from Jens Turowski that helped to substantially
659 improve the paper. I thank the reviewers and the associate editor Eric Lajeunesse for their constructive
660 comments and suggestions that helped to substantially improve the paper.

661 References

- 662 [1] Baselt, I., de Oliveira, G.Q., Fischer, J.-T., Pudasaini, S.P., 2021. Evolution of stony debris flows in laboratory
663 experiments. *Geomorphology* 372, 107431. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2020.107431>.
- 664 [2] Berger, C., McArdell, B.W., Schlunegger, F., 2011. Direct measurement of channel erosion by debris flows, Illgraben,
665 Switzerland. *J. Geophys. Res. Earth Surf.* 116, F01002.
- 666 [3] Burgers, J.M., 1948. A mathematical model illustrating the theory of turbulence. In *Advances in Applied Mechanics*,
667 pp 171-199. Academic Press Inc., New York, edited by Richard von Mises and Theodore von Karman.
- 668 [4] Chalfen, M., Niemiec, A., 1986. Analytical and numerical solution of Saint-Venant equations. *Journal of Hydrology*
669 86(1-2), 1-13.
- 670 [5] Cuomo, S., Pastor, M., Capobianco, V., Cascini, L., 2016. Modelling the space time evolution of bed entrainment
671 for flow-like landslides. *Engineering Geology* 212, 10-20.
- 672 [6] de Haas, T., Nijland, W., de Jong, S.M., McArdell, B.W., 2020. How memory effects, check dams, and channel ge-
673 ometry control erosion and deposition by debris flows. *Scientific Reports*. 10, 14024. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-71016-8>.
- 674 [7] de Haas, T., van Woerkom, T., 2016. Bed scour by debris flows: experimental investigation of effects of debris flow
675 composition. *Earth Surf. Process. Landforms* 41, 1951-1966.
- 676 [8] Dietrich, A., Krautblatter, M., 2019. Deciphering controls for debris-flow erosion derived from a liDAR-recorded
677 extreme event and a calibrated numerical model (Rossbichelbach, Germany). *Earth Surf. Process. Landform* 44,
678 1346-1361.
- 679 [9] Domnik, B., Pudasaini, S.P., Katzenbach, R., Miller, S.A., 2013. Coupling of full two-dimensional and depth-averaged
680 models for granular flows. *J. Non-Newton. Fluid Mech.* 201, 56-68.
- 681 [10] Dowling, C.A., Santi, P.M., 2014. Debris flows and their toll on human life: a global analysis of debris-flow fatalities
682 from 1950 to 2011. *Nat. Hazards* 71(1), 203-227.
- 683 [11] Evans, S.G., Bishop, N.F., Smoll, L.F., Murillo, P.V., Delaney, K.B., Oliver-Smith, A., 2009. A re-examination of
684 the mechanism and human impact of catastrophic mass flows originating on Nevado Huascarán, Cordillera Blanca,
685 Peru in 1962 and 1970. *Eng. Geol.* 108, 96-118
- 686 [12] Faraoni, V., 2022. Helmholtz problem for the Riccati equation from an analogous Friedmann equation. *Eur. Phys. J.*
687 C 82. <https://doi.org/10.1140/eplc/s10052-021-09966-0>.
- 688 [13] Faug, T., Chanut, B., Beguin, R., Naaïm, M., Thibert, E., Baraudi, D., 2010. A simple analytical model for pressure
689 on obstacles induced by snow avalanches. *Ann. Glaciol.* 51 (54), 1-8.
- 690 [14] Frank, F., McArdell, B.W., Huggel, C., Vieli, A., 2015. The importance of entrainment and bulking on debris flow
691 runout modeling: examples from the Swiss Alps. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 15, 2569-2583.
- 692 [15] Frimberger, T., Andrade, S.D., Weber, S., Krautblatter, M., 2021. Modelling future lahars controlled by different
693 volcanic eruption scenarios at Cotopaxi (Ecuador) calibrated with the massively destructive 1877 lahar. *Earth Surf.*
694 *Process. Landforms.* 46, 680-700.
- 695 [16] Gauer, P., 2018. Considerations on scaling behavior in avalanche flow along cycloidal and parabolic tracks. *Cold Reg.*
696 *Sci. Technol.* 151, 34-36.
- 697 [17] Gubler, H., 1989. Comparison of three models of avalanche dynamics. *Annals of Glaciology* 13, 82-89.
- 698 [18] Heim, A., 1932. Bergsturz und menschenleben. *Geologische Nachlese* Nr. 30, Naturforschenden Gesellschaft in Zürich
699 77, 220.
- 700 [19] Iverson, R. M., Ouyang, C., 2015. Entrainment of bed material by earth-surface mass flows: review and reformulation
701 of depth-integrated theory. *Rev. Geophys.* 53(1), 27-58.
- 702

- 703 [20] Johannesson, T., Gauer, P., Issler, D., Lied, K., 2009. In: Barbolini, M., Domaas, U., Harbitz, C.B., Johannesson,
704 T., Gauer, P., Issler, D., Lied, K., Faug, T., Naaim, M. (Eds.), *The Design of Avalanche Protection Dams. Recent*
705 *Practical and Theoretical Developments*. European Commission. Directorate General for Research.
- 706 [21] Jop, P., Forterre, Y., Pouliquen, O., 2006. A constitutive law for dense granular flows. *Nature* 441, 727-730.
- 707 [22] Le, L., Pitman, E.B., 2009. A model for granular flows over an erodible surface. *SIAM J. Appl. Math.* 70, 1407-1427.
- 708 [23] Lied, K., Bakkehøi, S. 1980. Empirical calculations of snow-avalanche run-out distance based on topographic param-
709 eters. *Journal of Glaciology* V26, 165–178.
- 710 [24] Liu, W., Yang, Z., He, S., 2021. Modeling the landslide-generated debris flow from formation to propagation and
711 run-out by considering the effect of vegetation. *Landslides* 18, 43–58.
- 712 [25] McClung, D.M., 1983. Derivation of Voellmy’s Maximum Speed and Run-Out Estimates from a Centre-of-Mass
713 Model. *Journal of Glaciology* 29(102), 350-352.
- 714 [26] McDougall, S., Hungr, O., 2005. Dynamic modelling of entrainment in rapid landslides. *Can. Geotech. J.* 42, 1437-
715 1448.
- 716 [27] Mergili, M., Jaboyedoff, M., Pullarello, J., Pudasaini, S.P., 2020. Back calculation of the 2017 Piz Cengalo - Bondo
717 landslide cascade with r.avaflow: what we can do and what we can learn. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 20, 505-520.
- 718 [28] Montecinos, G.I., 2015. Analytic solutions for the Burgers equation with source terms. arXiv:1503.09079v1.
- 719 [29] Perla, R., Cheng, T.T., McClung, D.M., 1980. A two-parameter model for snow-avalanche motion. *J. Glaciology*
720 26(94), 197-207.
- 721 [30] Pilvar, M., Pouraghniaei, M.J., Shakibaeinia, A., 2019. Two-dimensional sub-aerial, submerged, and transitional
722 granular slides. *Physics of Fluids* 31, 113303. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5121881>.
- 723 [31] Pouliquen, O., Forterre, Y., 2009. A non-local rheology for dense granular flows. *Philosophical Transactions of the*
724 *Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* 367, 5091-5107.
- 725 [32] Pudasaini, S.P., Krautblatter, M., 2022. The landslide velocity. *Earth Surf. Dynam.* 10, 165–189,
726 <https://doi.org/10.5194/esurf-10-165-2022>, 2022.
- 727 [33] Pudasaini, S.P., Krautblatter, M., 2021. The mechanics of landslide mobility with erosion. *Nat. Commun.* 12, 6793,
728 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-26959-5>, 2021.
- 729 [34] Pudasaini, S.P., Mergili, M., 2019. A multi-phase mass flow model. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Earth Surface*,
730 124, 2920-2942.
- 731 [35] Pudasaini, S.P., 2016. A novel description of fluid flow in porous and debris materials. *Eng. Geol.* 202, 62-73.
- 732 [36] Pudasaini, S.P., 2012. A general two-phase debris flow model. *J. Geophysics. Res.* 117, F03010.
733 [doi:10.1029/2011JF002186](https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JF002186).
- 734 [37] Pudasaini, S.P., Hutter, K., 2007. *Avalanche Dynamics: Dynamics of Rapid Flows of Dense Granular Avalanches*.
735 Springer, Berlin, New York.
- 736 [38] Salm, B., 1966. Contribution to avalanche dynamics. *International Symposium on Scientific Aspects of Snow and Ice*
737 *Avalanches, 1965, Davos; pp. 199-214: IAHS Publ. No. 69.*
- 738 [39] Shugar, D. H., Jacquemart, M., Shean, D., et al., 2021. A massive rock and ice avalanche caused the 2021 disaster at
739 Chamoli, Indian Himalaya. *Science* 373, 300–306.
- 740 [40] Theule, J.I., Liebault, F., Laigle, D., Loye, A., Jaboyedoff, M., 2015. Channel scour and fill by debris flows and
741 bedload transport. *Geomorphology* 243, 92-105.
- 742 [41] Voellmy, A., 1955. Über die Zerstörungskraft von Lawinen. *Schweizerische Bauzeitung. Jahrg. 73. Ht. 12., 159-162;*
743 *Ht. 15, 212-217; Ht. 17, 246-249; Ht. 19, 280-285. On the destructive force of avalanches, Translation No. 2. Alta.*
744 *Avalanche Study Center, USDA, Forest Service, 1964.*
- 745 [42] Zwinger, T., Kluwick, A., Sampl, P., 2003. Numerical simulation of dry-snow avalanche flow over natural terrain. In:
746 Hutter, K., Kirchner, N. (Eds.), *Dynamic Response of Granular and Porous Materials under Large and Catastrophic*
747 *Deformations, Lecture Notes in Appl. and Comput. Mech. vol. 11. Springer, Berlin, pp. 161-194.*