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Impact dynamics of boulder-enriched debris flow on a rigid barrier

By Charles W.W. Ng, Haiming Liu*, Clarence E. Choi, Julian S.H. Kwan and W.K. Pun

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- 1. A copy of revised manuscript
- 2. A copy of our detailed responses to the comments from reviewers

Should you have any query, please do not hesitate to contact me at <u>hliubc@connect.ust.hk</u>. I look forward to hearing from you in due course.

Yours Sincerely,

Haiming Liu

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Impact dynamics of boulder-enriched debris flow on a rigid barrier

Charles W.W. Ng¹, F.ASCE; Haiming Liu^{2*}; Clarence E. Choi³; 3 Julian S.H. Kwan⁴; W. K. Pun⁵ 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 ¹Chair Professor, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong SAR, China ² Postdoctoral Fellow, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Hong Kong SAR, China ³ Assistant Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China; The University of Hong Kong Shenzhen Institute of Research and Innovation, Nanshan, Shenzhen, China 11 ⁴ Chief Geotechnical Engineer, Geotechnical Engineering Office, Civil Engineering and Development 12 Department, Hong Kong SAR, China 13 ⁵ Head, Geotechnical Engineering Office, Civil Engineering and Development Department, Hong Kong SAR, 14 China 15 *Corresponding author (e-mail: hliubc@connect.ust.hk). 16 17 **ABSTRACT:** Boulders entrained in debris flow induce high impact forces on a rigid barrier. 18 In current design practice, the concentrated load from boulders is estimated using the Hertz 19 equation with a load reduction factor (K_c). Separately, the distributed load from the debris is 20 estimated using the hydrodynamic equation. The existing design practice is simply adding the 21 estimated loads using the two equations. The interaction between debris flow and boulders 22 during the impact process is neglected. In this study, physical tests were conducted using a 23 newly-developed 28-m-long flume to shed light on the impact dynamics of debris flows with 24 and without boulders on an instrumented rigid barrier. Contrary to existing design practice 25 where the boulder and debris impact loads are added together, the debris provided a cushioning 26 effect to attenuate the impact force of the boulders. This cushioning effect was governed by a 27 reflection wave with a length scale L_R/d (where d is the boulder diameter), which serves as 28 cushioning thickness upon impact. L_R/d from 0.4 to 2.0 can reduce the impact load by up to 29 80% compared to existing design practice ($K_c = 0.1$).

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32 modelling

33

34 Introduction

Concentrated impact loads induced by boulders entrained in debris flows are a crucial consideration when designing rigid barriers (Hungr et al. 1984; Zeng et al. 2015; Ng et al. 2016; 2018; Choi et al. 2016; Lam et al. 2018). Design guidelines generally neglect the interaction between debris flow and boulders. The distributed load from the debris flow is simply added to the concentrated loads from the boulders (Hungr et al. 1984; NILIM 2007; Kwan 2012). However, in reality, the viscous forces exerted by the debris flow on boulders may play an integral role in the total impact load.

A literature review on existing approaches to estimate the impact force induced by debris flow and boulders is carried out to reveal the current knowledge gap in predicting the impact force exerted by boulder-enriched debris flows. A hydrodynamic approach (Hübl et al. 2009; Armanini et al. 2011), which is based on the conservation of momentum, is most widely used to estimate the distributed load induced by debris flow:

$$F = \alpha \rho v^2 h w \tag{1}$$

47 where α is a pressure coefficient, ρ (kg/m³) is the density of the flow, v (m/s) is the flow velocity, 48 *h* (m) is the flow depth and *w* (m) is the channel width. To account for the simplifications and 49 assumptions in Eq. (1), design guidelines often prescribe higher values of α to Eq. (1) for design 50 robustness. For example, Kwan (2012) recommends an α of 2.5 for the design of rigid barriers 51 to consider hard and large inclusions in the debris flow.

Eq. (1) treats a complex debris flow mixture as an equivalent fluid (Hungr 1995), meaning that the distinction between boulders and debris flow is not explicitly made. Since boulders induce concentrated impact loads over a tiny contact area, appropriate mechanics are needed to describe the involved contact between a sphere and a plane. To achieve this, the 66 elastic Hertz equation may be used to estimate the impact load, F_b , induced by a boulder 57 (VanDine 1996; SWCB 2005; Kwan 2012) as follows:

$$F_b = K_c n a^{1.5} \tag{2}$$

$$n = \frac{4r_b^{0.5}}{3\pi(k_b + k_B)}$$
(3)

$$a = \left(\frac{5m_b v_b^2}{4n}\right)^{0.4} \tag{4}$$

$$k_b = \frac{1 - \mu_b^2}{\pi E_b} \tag{5}$$

$$k_B = \frac{1 - \mu_B^2}{\pi E_B} \tag{6}$$

where K_c is a load reduction factor, which is recommended to be 0.1 to compensate for plastic deformation during impact (Hungr et al. 1984; Lo 2000; Sun et al. 2005; Kwan 2012). Variables r, m, v, μ and E are radius (m), mass (kg), impact velocity (m/s), Poisson's ratio and elastic modulus (Pa), respectively. Subscripts "b" and "B" correspond to the boulder and barrier, respectively.

63 Song et al. (2018) carried out two series of centrifuge tests to study the impact behaviour 64 of idealised dry mono-disperse boulder flows with and without sand on a rigid barrier. The prototype diameter of the boulders was varied from 70 mm to 870 mm. Their experimental 65 findings showed that as the size of the boulders increased, transient impulses generated by these 66 boulders governed the overall design load. Moreover, it was reported that if Eq. (1) is used to 67 68 estimate the boulder impact force, then an α of 2.5 can be used safely determine the impact 69 force for boulders with a diameter that is up to 0.6 times the flow depth before impact. However, their experiments were conducted using dry granular flows, which are fundamentally different 70

compared with debris flows. For debris flows, both the solid and fluid phases play integral roles
in regulating the mesoscopic and macroscopic flow dynamics (Iverson 2015; Ng et al. 2017;
Song et al. 2017; Zhou et al. 2018; Song et al. 2018). More importantly, the inertial and static
fluid stresses (Alexander and Cooker 2016) that transport boulders for debris flow are
fundamentally different compared to that of dry granular flow.

In this study, boulder flows, and debris flows with and without boulders were modelled to investigate the impact mechanisms of boulder-enriched debris flow on a rigid barrier using a newly-developed 28-m-long flume model. Impact characteristics for different flow compositions and the effects of debris flow cushioning on boulder impact are examined.

80 Twenty-eight-meter-long Flume Modelling

Fig. 1 shows a plan view of the flume model and instrumentation used in this study. The channel has a total length of 28 m, a width and depth of 2 m and 1 m, respectively. The storage tank has a maximum volume of 10 m³. The tank occupies the upper 5 m of the channel, which is inclined at 30°. Just downstream from the storage tank is a 15-m-long channel section that is inclined at 20°. At the end of the inclined channel is an 8-m-long horizontal channel section. A mechanical arm, controlled using an electric motor, was used to retain and release the dual gates.

An *L*-shaped reinforced concrete barrier (Fig. 2) was constructed and positioned at the mouth of the inclined section of the channel. The barrier has a height, width, and thickness of 1.8 m, 1.9 m, and 0.3 m, respectively. Four load cells were sandwiched between a stainlesssteel force plate and the reinforced concrete barrier to measure the impact load. The stainlesssteel plate has a height, width and thickness of 1480 mm, 1900 mm, and 20 mm, respectively. The barrier weighed a total of 4.5 tons and was constructed on a 100-mm-thick layer of compacted soil. At the base of the *L*-shaped barrier, two instrumentation cells (discussed below) 95 were installed to measure the debris flow properties.

96 Instrumentation

97 Fig. 3 shows a typical instrumentation cell installed at the base of the flume to obtain 98 measurements of the model debris flow. The frame of the instrumentation cell was constructed 99 using stainless-steel (Fig. 3a). At the top of the frame was a circular opening for a polyvinyl 100 chloride (PVC) plate with a diameter of 0.32 m to transfer loading to a load cell, which was 101 used to measure the basal stresses induced by the debris flow. The load cell rested on a cross 102 beam supported by the stainless steel frame (Fig. 3b). The PVC plate had two openings with 103 meshes (to filter fines) to enable the measurement of changes in pore water pressure. Two 104 cylindrical chambers constructed using aluminium with a diameter of 0.10 m and a height of 105 0.05 m were connected to each opening on the PVC plate. On the side of the cylindrical 106 chambers, an opening was provided to connect pore pressure transducers to measure changes 107 in pore pressure (Fig. 3c). Before each test, each cylindrical chamber was filled with water. 108 When debris flow passed over the PVC plates, basal stresses and excess pore pressures 109 generated by the debris flow were measured by each instrumentation cell.

110 Fig. 4 shows a side schematic of the test setup. Five instrumentation cells (Cells 1 to 5) 111 were installed at the base of the channel to measure the debris flow properties. A laser sensor 112 was mounted above the centre of Cell 4 and another laser sensor was installed 1.5 m upstream 113 from the centre of Cell 3. Four piezo-resistive load cells were sandwiched between the force 114 plate and the reinforced concrete L-shaped barrier to measure the total impact force exerted by 115 the debris flow. A high-speed camera was installed on top of the L-shaped barrier. The high-116 speed camera recorded images at 300 frames per second (fps) with a resolution of 2336×1728 pixels. The images were used to deduce the velocities of the flow and boulders before impact. 117 118 Additionally, a video camera was installed above Cell 3. This video camera was installed facing the *L*-shaped barrier. The video camera recorded images at 120 fps with a resolution of 1920×1080 pixels. An unmanned aerial vehicle was used to capture a bird's eye view of the entire test to record images at 30 fps with a resolution of 1920×1080 pixels.

122 Test Programme and Test Procedures

123 In total, four tests were conducted. A debris flow with a volume of 2.5 m³ (test D) and a same 124 volume of debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10) were modelled. Furthermore, tests with 125 single and ten boulders were also conducted. The test programme is summarised in Table 1.

126 The boulders in each test were placed at the base of the storage tank behind the gate. 127 For the single boulder, the granite sphere was placed in the middle of the tank behind the gate. For ten boulders, the granite spheres were placed in a line at the base of the storage tank (Fig. 128 129 4). The boulders in this study were modelled using spherical granite with a diameter d of 200 130 mm. The debris material composed of gravel, sand, clay, and water with volumetric fractions of 0.21, 0.36, 0.02 and 0.41, respectively. The gravel and sand had typical sizes of 20 mm and 131 132 2 mm, respectively. The clay adopted was kaolin clay with a particle size smaller than 0.006 133 mm. Details of the debris composition are summarised in Table 2.

Before each test, the debris material was well mixed by a truck mixer and transported into the storage container to reach the target volume. After the preparation of test material in the container, data logger and cameras were triggered and the mechanical arm was lifted to release the gate.

138 Flow Characterisation

The Froude number is a ratio between the inertial force and gravitational force of the flow in achannel and is expressed as follows:

$$Fr = \frac{v}{\sqrt{gh\cos\theta}} \tag{7}$$

141 where g is the gravitational acceleration (9.81 m/s² in this study) and θ is the flume inclination 142 (°). The Froude number has been recognised as a key parameter that governs the impact 143 dynamics of open-channel flow (Hübl et al. 2009; Armanini et al. 2011; Choi et al. 2019). In 144 this study, the Froude number of the flow before impacting the barrier ranges from 7.4 to 7.9, 145 indicating that the inertial component is more dominant than the gravitational component of 146 the flow and therefore dynamic loading is more significant (Faug 2015; Sovilla et al. 2016).

147 A New Equation to Estimate Boulder Impact with Debris Cushioning

Debris flows arrested by a rigid barrier may act as a cushion to attenuate the impact energy of incoming boulders as the debris reflects from the barrier to the upstream direction. In this section, a new approach is proposed to predict the boulder impact force by explicitly considering debris-boulder interaction.

Fig. 5 shows a schematic of boulder motion in a debris flow. When a boulder is entrained in a flow, the boulder is subjected to a gravitational force, m_bg , frictional force between the boulder and the flow bed, F_f , and drag force from the flow, F_d . A mathematical equation to describe the boulder motion is expressed as follows:

$$\frac{dv_m}{dt} = g\sin\theta - \frac{F_f}{m_b} + \frac{F_d}{m_b}$$
(8)

where v_m is boulder velocity (m/s) during motion and *t* is the time (s) after the gate has been opened. By assuming mainly translational motion, the frictional force F_f can be simplified as follows:

$$F_f = -\mu m_b g \cos\theta \tag{9}$$

159 where μ is the interface friction coefficient between the boulder and channel bed. Assuming

160 the boulder is fully submerged in the flow, the drag force F_d on the boulder is exerted by the 161 flow and is proportional to the square of the relative velocity between the flow and boulder 162 (Alexander and Cooker 2016), which is expressed as follows:

$$F_d = \frac{1}{2} C_d A \rho \delta v^2 \tag{10}$$

where C_d is the drag coefficient, A is the cross-sectional area of the boulder in the plane perpendicular to the flow, ρ is the flow density and δv is the relative velocity of flow and boulder. When the flow velocity v is larger than the boulder velocity v_m , the drag force is in the same as the direction as the flow. When the flow velocity v is smaller than the boulder velocity v_m , the drag force is opposite to that of the flow direction. Substituting Eqs. (9) and (10), Eq. (8) can then be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{dv_m}{dt} = g\sin\theta - \mu g\cos\theta + \frac{C_d A \rho \delta v^2}{2m_b}$$
(11)

Eq. (11) neglects the force from boulder-boulder interaction, which is reasonable for debris flows with a low boulder fraction. For flow that has a high boulder fraction, interaction forces of boulder-boulder and boulder-flow should also be taken into account.

By obtaining the boulder velocity when impacting the barrier with Eq. (11), the boulder impact force can be calculated by using the Hertz equation [Eqs. (2) to (6)]. The stainless-steel force plate and granite boulders adopted in this study have Young's moduli of 200 GPa and 50 GPa, and Poisson's ratios of 0.3 and 0.2, respectively. Substituting the material properties into Eqs. (2) to (6) yields:

$$F_b = 6100K_c v_b^{1.2} r_b^2 \tag{12}$$

177 The debris cushioning effect on boulder impact is mainly attributed to the attenuation 178 of the boulder impact velocity, v_b . A reduced load reduction factor K_c can be expressed as 179 follows:

$$K_c = 0.1 \left(\frac{v_b}{v_0}\right)^{1.2} \tag{13}$$

180 The boulder velocity attenuation by the arrested debris is schematically shown in Figs. 181 6a and 6b. Fig. 6a shows a debris flow front just as it reaches the barrier. The relative distance between the debris flow and boulder fronts is given as δx . After the debris impacts the barrier, 182 183 the arrested debris forms a reflection wave (Fig. 6b) with a height of h_i . This wave propagates 184 in the upstream direction with a speed of v_r . Before impacting the barrier, the boulder first 185 interacts with the reflection wave with length L_R (Fig. 6b), which serves as a cushioning 186 thickness and dissipates the energy of the incoming boulder. The velocity of the boulder, v_b , 187 when impacting the barrier is then reduced compared with its initial velocity, v_0 , before 188 interacting with the reflection wave.

After the boulder enters into the reflection wave, the drag force, F_d , exerted by the flow can be calculated by Eq. (10). An assumption that the flow is uniform and homogeneous, and that the motion of the boulder can be idealised as translational motion along a smooth channel bed is made. As the drag force from the flow becomes more significant than that of the frictional force from the flow bed, only the drag component is considered to influence the boulder velocity for simplicity. The impact velocity of the boulder, v_b , is given as follows:

$$v_{b} = v_{0}e^{-0.75C_{d}\frac{\rho L_{R}}{\rho_{b}d}}$$
(14)

Substituting Eq. (14) into Eq. (13), the load reduction factor considering the cushioning effects
provided by viscous damping can be expressed as follows:

$$K_c = 0.1e^{-0.9C_d \frac{\rho L_R}{\rho_b d}}$$
(15)

197 The drag coefficient C_d in Eqs. (14) and (15) can be taken as unity for a blunt body (Alexander 198 and Cooker 2016). The boulder density ρ_b equals to 2800 kg/m³, which was obtained from the 199 measured boulder mass. More details on Eq. (14) are given in Appendix A.

200 Interpretation of Test Results

201 **Observed Flow Kinematics**

The time history of flow-front position has been adopted by Iverson et al. (2010) to describe the debris flow mobility. Fig. 7 shows the time histories of the flow-front position of the boulders and debris flow as captured by the video camera mounted on the unmanned aerial vehicle. The flow-front position is characterised relative to the distance from the gate of the storage tank and is expressed as *s*. The acceleration of a point mass is shown in Eq. (11). By neglecting the drag force, the theoretical flow distance *s* of a point mass can be expressed as following:

$$s = \frac{g\sin\theta - \mu g\cos\theta}{2}t^2 \tag{16}$$

When flow is on the inclined portion of the channel, $\theta = 20^{\circ}$, and when flow is on the depositional area, $\theta = 0^{\circ}$. The test with a single boulder (test B1) and test with ten boulders (test B10) had similar time histories of the flow-front position because the small amount of boulders induced insignificant boulder interactions. Considering a friction coefficient $\mu = 0.1$, Eq. (16) can well estimate the boulder motion in the pure boulder tests (tests B1 and B10). This implies that assuming a pure translational motion is not an unreasonable approach to idealise the boulder motion in this study.

The test with just debris flow (test D) and the test with a mixture of debris flow and boulders (test DB10) exhibited similar kinematics at the debris front. For both test D and test DB10, the debris fronts accelerated 0.5 s after the opening of the gate and achieved a near constant velocity of about 6 m/s along the inclined section of the channel. When the debris reached the end of the inclined section of the channel, the flow decelerated by about 10% just before impacting the *L*-shaped barrier. The debris fronts for only debris flow (test D) and debris 222 flow with ten boulders (test DB10) always remained ahead of flow fronts for pure boulder tests 223 (tests B1 and B10) before impacting the barrier. This was because the debris front was driven 224 by both its self-weight and the earth pressure in the flow direction (longitudinal direction) and 225 can be quantified by a simplified depth-averaged momentum equation. The depth-averaged 226 momentum equation was first proposed by Savage and Hutter (1989) and later widely adopted 227 to describe the motions of both dry granular flows (Gray et al. 1999; Gray and Ancey 2011) and debris flows (Iverson 1997; Iverson et al. 2010; Johnson et al. 2012; Iverson and George 228 229 2014). A simplified depth-averaged momentum equation can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{du}{dt} = g\sin\theta - \mu g\cos\theta - k\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}g\cos\theta$$
(17)

230 where u is the depth-averaged flow velocity (m/s) parallel to the channel bed, k is the 231 longitudinal earth pressure coefficient, and x is downslope distance (m). In Eq. (17), the term 232 du/dt is the acceleration at an arbitrary location of the flow mass, $g \sin \theta$ represents the 233 translational motion downslope, $\mu g \cos \theta$ represents the basal frictional resistance, and 234 $k(\partial h/\partial x)g\cos\theta$ characterises the longitudinal earth pressure within the flow mass. The term 235 $k(\partial h/\partial x)g\cos\theta$ is negative within the head of the flow mass as the flow depth gradually 236 decreases along the flow direction within the flow head. Therefore, the longitudinal earth 237 pressure can increase the acceleration du/dt and accelerate the flow head, leading to a higher velocity than the boulders entrained in the flow. The flow distance for a frictionless point mass 238 239 $(\mu = 0.0)$ calculated by Eq. (16) is shown in Fig. 7. The time history of this flow distance 240 underestimates the measured motion of debris fronts for both debris flow test (test D) and the 241 test of debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10). The underestimation may be attributed to the 242 larger longitudinal pressure compared with the basal friction as expressed in Eq. (17). This 243 caused a larger acceleration than the acceleration of a frictionless point mass $g \sin \theta$. Eq. (16) with $\mu = 0.0$ overestimates the motion of boulder front when there is no debris flow but 244

underestimates the motion of boulder front when boulders are entrained in debris flow. The overestimation may be mainly caused by the deceleration of the boulder motion due to basal friction. The underestimation may be mainly attributed to the acceleration of the boulder motion due to the drag force from debris flow as expressed in Eq. (11).

249 The movement of the boulders observed in this study was different compared with the 250 kinematics of particle-size segregation (Jullien and Meakin 1990; Makse et al. 1997; Jing et al. 251 2017), whereby coarse particles usually segregate to the flow surface by kinetic sieving and 252 are transported to the flow front by shear stress of the flow (Johnson et al. 2012). In this study, 253 the flow maintained a high pore pressure that liquefied the flow. Therefore, the flow cannot lift 254 the boulders because the boulders were more than twice of the flow depth and the density of 255 the boulder was 1.4 times the bulk density of the flow. The movement of the boulder was then 256 dominated by the drag force of the flow on the boulders. Under this circumstance, when 257 boulders are entrained by the debris flow along the flow path, the boulders may move slower 258 than the debris front and impact the barrier after the debris front. The first arrested debris can 259 then form a cushioning layer to dissipate the boulder energy before impact. It should be noted that the transportation distance of debris flow can also affect the process of particle-size 260 segregation. With a much longer transportation distance in the field, coarse particles may tend 261 to segregate to the flow front when flows are not liquefied (Zhang et al. 2011). 262

The high pore pressure maintained in the debris flows was mainly attributed to the clay content (Iverson 1997; Iverson et al. 2010). Fig. 8 shows the comparison of liquefaction ratios, which is the ratio between the pore water pressure u_w and the total normal stress σ , with different clay contents. The liquefaction ratios for pure debris flow (test D) and debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10) at the location of Cell 4, which was 0.9 m away from the force plate, were measured. The measured liquefaction ratios for both test D and test DB10 were close to unity and pore water pressures were about 1.6 times that of hydrostatic conditions 270 when the debris flows deposited behind the barrier. The high pore pressures mean that the flows 271 were nearly liquefied and the grain contact stresses were minimal. Similarly, Iverson et al. 272 (2010) reported that their flows remained liquefied even after deposition. Liquefied flows were 273 especially pertinent for flows with high clay (particle size < 0.0625 mm) content. In contrast, 274 flows with lower clay contents (less than or equal to 1% reported by Iverson et al. 2010) 275 resulted in higher effective stresses. Therefore, the clay content plays an important role in generating excess pore pressures in debris flows. Observations from vertically rotating drum 276 277 tests by Kaitna et al. (2016) also showed an increasing trend of the liquefaction ratio for steady-278 state flows with increasing clay content. The clay content in a debris flow maintains pore 279 pressure by decreasing the permeability of the pore water. A decreased permeability can lead 280 to an estimated time of 4000 s to dissipate the pore pressure for a depth of 0.1 m (Major et al. 281 1997; Major 2000; Iverson et al. 2010). The liquefied flow conditions also imply that a 282 hydraulic approach can be adopted to estimate the impact loads of the debris deposits.

283 Fig. 9 shows the observed impact kinematics of the debris flow only (test D) and the 284 debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10). When the debris flow impacted the barrier, the flow 285 jumped along the face of the barrier (Fig. 9a) and was immediately reflected back upstream (Fig. 9b). As the reflected wave propagated to upstream (Fig. 9c), it interacted with the 286 287 incoming flow that had not yet impacted the barrier. Eventually, the debris deposited and 288 reached a static state with a horizontal surface (Fig. 9d). The horizontal deposition profile 289 implies that a zero deposition angle can be reached when debris flow is in a liquefied condition. 290 For boulder-enriched debris flows, the debris front arrived at the barrier earlier than the 291 boulders (Fig. 9e). After the debris front impacted the barrier, the two boulders at the flow front impacted the barrier (Fig. 9f). As more debris arrested by the barrier and reflected upstream by 292 293 the barrier, incoming flow and boulders impacted on the reflected debris flow (Figs. $9f \sim 9h$). In essence, the reflected debris flow provided a cushioning effect for incoming boulders. At 294

the end of the impact process, all the boulders were buried in the deposited debris material and a same deposition profile as shown in Fig. 9d was obtained. The observed kinematics of the boulder-enriched debris flows demonstrated that boulders may not necessarily be segregated to flow front due to their much larger size compared to the flow depth and the liquefied flow condition. The earlier arrested debris material by the barrier can form a cushioning layer via viscous damping, which dissipates the impact energy of the subsequent boulders.

301 Impact Force of Debris Flow

302 Fig. 10 shows a comparison of the time histories of the measured total impact force of debris 303 flow (test D) and debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10). To examine the complex impact dynamics of boulder-enriched debris flows, we first look into the impact load exerted by a 304 debris flow only. At t = 3.0 s, the debris impacted the barrier. The total force exerted on the 305 barrier reached a peak load at t = 4.4 s. The total force gradually decreased until t = 7.3 s and 306 307 reached a static state. The impact force is normalised by a theoretical impact force calculated 308 by Eq. (1) with $\alpha = 1.0$. The density used to calculate the impact force is deduced from the 309 measured peak normal stress and flow depth at Cell 3 (Fig. 4), which was located 4.4 m upstream from the barrier. The measured density was 1870 kg/m³, which was about 5% lower 310 311 than the initial debris density (1960 kg/m³). The impact velocity is taken as the average velocity 312 of the flow front before impacting the barrier. The pre-impact velocity was measured from the 313 high-speed camera. The flow depth was measured by laser sensor 2 (Fig. 4) at the time that the flow impacts the barrier to avoid the influence of the reflected debris material. With the 314 315 accurate measurements of the flow density, impact velocity and flow depth, the measured peak 316 force is well-captured by the hydrodynamic equation when α is unity.

317 Higher *α* values are usually suggested by international design guidelines (Kwan 2012;
318 Volkwein 2014; Vagnon and Segalini 2016) to consider the influence of hard inclusions and

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319 different debris flow types. However, the largest particle of the debris material in this study 320 was only 20 mm, which did not induce obvious impulses. Moreover, measurements from the 321 instrumentation cells in Fig. 8 show that debris flow impact in this study was an undrained 322 process due to the high rate of loading and low permeability of the debris material. The nearly-323 liquefied state induces less energy dissipation during impact compared with that of dry granular 324 flows, which readily dissipate flow kinetic energy as grains shear and the granular assembly compresses (Ng et al. 2017). The liquefied flow may also be the reason that an equivalent fluid 325 326 approach is suitable for predicting the impact load of a debris flow. By treating debris flow that 327 can maintain high excess pore pressure as an equivalent fluid, the major remaining challenge 328 in estimating the impact load is the effects caused by the large and hard inclusions, which 329 generate sharp impulses during impact.

330 Impact Force of Boulder-enriched Debris Flow

331 The force-time history for debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10) shows that the debris acted 332 as a cushion for the boulders in the flow. Subsequent impulses generated from boulder impact 333 were dampened as the volume of debris flow arrested by the barrier increased. The cushioning 334 mechanism was caused by the viscous shear resistance between boulders and the pore fluid and 335 the shear resistance between the boulders and the finer solid particles in the debris flow. By comparing the time history of pure debris flow impact with the boulder-enriched debris, it can 336 337 be observed that the sharp impulses were induced by the boulders. The peak load occurred at t 338 = 2.9 s and was caused by a combination of the debris flow loading and boulder loading. After 339 the peak impulse occurred, four additional impulses with normalised impact forces ranging 340 from 2.1 to 2.7 were caused by the other boulders in the flow. Additionally, impulses with 341 normalised forces from 1.2 to 1.3 were observed from t = 3.8 s to t = 4.1 s. Decomposing the 342 total impact force gives normalised boulder impact forces of about only 0.2 (from t = 3.8 s to t 343 = 4.1 s). The normalised impact force from the debris increased until it reached a peak load, 344 which was 1.1, at t = 4.2 s. Afterwards, the impact force decreased gradually until a static state 345 was reached at t = 7.1 s.

346 The hydrodynamic impact model [Eq. (1)] with an α of 1.0 cannot capture the peak 347 impulses from boulder impact but still can capture the peak load induced by the debris flow. 348 By comparing the results predicted using Eq. (1) with an α of 2.5 (Kwan 2012), the peak load is still underestimated by more than 50%, bearing in mind that the recommended design value 349 350 by Kwan (2012) explicitly considers hard inclusions in the debris flow. This is because the fundamental assumptions behind Eq. (1) and Eqs. (2) \sim (6) are different. The hydrodynamic 351 352 equation treats the complex debris flow as an equivalent fluid (Hungr et al. 1984), which exerts 353 a force distributed over a finite area. In contrast, the Hertz equation (Johnson 1985) assumes a 354 concentrated elastic impact between a sphere and a plane over a very small contact area. Therefore, only significantly higher α values in the hydrodynamic equation can explicitly 355 capture the effects of boulder impact. However, this has practical limitations. The 356 357 underestimation of the loading induced by boulder-enriched debris flow by Eq. (1) highlights 358 the uncertainty in using α (Zhang 1993; Kwan 2012; Vagnon and Segalini 2016). For boulderenriched debris flow, the hydrodynamic impact model should be used to estimate the debris 359 360 impact force, while the Hertz equation still needs to be used to estimate the boulder impact 361 force. A criterion that can distinguish between boulder and debris is recommended by Song et 362 al. (2018). They recommended a ratio of boulder diameter to flow depth, d/h, where particles 363 with a size $d/h \ge 0.6$ can be regarded as boulders. To determine the impact forces for boulderenriched debris flow, however, a K_c value considering the effects of viscous damping of the 364 365 debris flow can provide further optimisation of designs.

366 **Performance of the Newly-proposed Equation for Estimating Debris**

367 **Cushioning on Boulder Impact**

Fig. 11 shows the load reduction factors, K_c , resulting from different lengths of debris reflection 368 369 wave (Fig. 6b) normalised by boulder diameter, L_R/d . The length of the reflection wave serves as a cushioning thickness to dissipate boulder impact. The high-speed camera, which was 370 371 mounted on top of the barrier (Fig. 4), was adopted to capture L_R and the velocities of boulders 372 upon interacting with the reflection wave. The boulder impact forces for debris mixed with ten 373 boulders (test DB10) are extracted from Fig. 10 by removing the loads induced from the debris 374 and by only considering the transient impulses. The K_c values of the tests using a single boulder 375 (test B1) and ten boulders (test B10) are shown for comparison and are both found to be close to the recommended K_c value of 0.1 in the literature (Hungr et al. 1984; VanDine 1996; Kwan 376 377 2012). This is because the lengths of debris reflection wave were equal to zero, and thus there 378 was no cushioning effect from the debris. The measured K_c from the test with ten boulders 379 without debris (test B10) is found to be 10% larger than the recommended design value 0.1. 380 This is attributed to two boulders impacted the barrier at almost the same time (impact interval was less than 0.03 s from the unmanned aerial vehicle images). The calculated $K_c = 0.11$ for 381 382 the test with ten boulders without debris (test B10) implies that a higher than the recommended K_c of 0.1 may be needed to account for the possible superposition of boulder impact loads when 383 384 $L_R/d = 0$. Meanwhile, superposition of the debris flow impact load should also be carried out.

When $L_R/d > 0$, debris reflection was formed before boulder impacting the barrier. K_c decreases sharply and keeps decreasing with an increasing L_R/d because more boulder energy was dissipated by the enlarging debris reflection wave. In addition, L_R/d values from 0.4 to 2.0 lead to a K_c that is up to 80% lower compared to the K_c of 0.1. At a distance of $L_R/d \ge 2.7$, K_c is approximately zero. Evidently, the length of debris reflection wave contributes to attenuating the boulder impact force. 391 Calculated K_c values using Eq. (15) as a function of the normalised debris reflection 392 length, L_R/d are shown. K_c values are significantly affected by the density of the flow. When 393 the flow is considered to be air (dry granular flow), the calculated K_c value is equal to the 394 suggested value by design guideline (Kwan 2012). A flow density equals to that of pure water may overly estimate the K_c values. By applying a flow density of 1960 kg/m³, which was the 395 396 initial debris flow density, Eq. (15) can reasonably estimate the load reduction factor K_c and provide an upper bound for the measured K_c . Overestimating K_c may because Eq. (15) 397 398 simplifies the debris reflection as a uniform and homogenous fluid and neglects the interaction 399 between boulder and the debris solid fraction, which is about 60% of the total flow volume. In addition, only drag force is considered by Eq. (15) for cushioning the boulder impact. However, 400 401 cushioning material in front of the rigid barrier has been reported can change the load spreading 402 process, which further attenuates the load transmitted to the barrier (Ng et al. 2018; Su et al. 2019). Nevertheless, Eq. (15) well estimates the decreasing trend of K_c with the increase of 403 reflection wave length and is capable of providing a first approximation on K_c to quantify the 404 405 cushioning effect from viscous damping.

406 It should be noted that spherical boulders with a uniform diameter were adopted in this 407 study to easily characterise boulder kinematics and dynamics without the influence of different 408 boulder sizes and shapes. The proposed Eq. (15) assumes that the diameter of the boulder d is 409 smaller than the thickness of the reflection wave h_i as shown in Fig. 6b. It is expected that the 410 proposed Eq. (15) holds for boulders with a diameter $d < h_i$ because this diameter is consistent 411 with the assumptions made by Eq. (15). Song et al. (2018) recommended that Eqs. (2) \sim (6) 412 should be adopted to estimate the boulder impact force for boulders that have a diameter larger than 0.6 times of the flow depth h. Therefore, boulder with a diameter $0.6h < d < h_i$ is 413 414 recommended for adopting Eq. (15). For a small boulder that has a size approaching 0, the L_R/d 415 approaches infinity, the cushioning effect of the reflected debris on the boulder is very

significant and boulder impact force can be neglected. For this condition, K_c equals to 0 as 416 calculated by Eq. (15). The impact force of the debris flow can be calculated by only using the 417 418 continuum approach, such as the hydrodynamic equation [Eq. (1)]. For boulder that has a diameter larger than h_i , the effects of viscous damping may be reduced due to the smaller 419 420 contact area compared with the area that a boulder is fully immersed in the flow. 421 Notwithstanding, a $K_c = 0.1$ would still be adopted to provide a conservative prediction. When 422 $d \gg L_R$ and L_R/d approaches 0, the cushioning effect from the reflected debris can be neglected due to the negligible cushioning thickness and K_c should be taken as 0.1 to estimate the boulder 423 424 impact force in a debris flow.

425 The proposed Eq. (15) does not consider the effects of the number of boulders on load reduction factor K_c . In this study, the performance of the Eq. (15) is only verified by debris 426 427 flow that entrained ten spherical boulders with a boulder fraction of up to 2% of the debris flow 428 volume. For debris flows with a much larger number of boulders and a much higher boulder 429 fraction, the frictional and collisional stresses among boulders may be more prominent than the 430 damping provided by the debris flow. Therefore, the proposed equation may be required to be 431 modified for a much higher boulder fraction. A further investigation of the effects of boulder 432 fractions on the impact dynamics of boulder-enriched debris flow is still warranted.

In this study, the Hertz model together with an empirical coefficient that implicitly 433 434 considers plastic deformation was adopted to estimate the boulder impact force. It is 435 worthwhile to mention that there are also analytical models that can explicitly consider the 436 plastic deformation during boulder impact (Yigit et al. 2011; Brake 2012; Ma and Liu 2015). These methods usually require information on the evolution of the plastic regions (Ma and Liu 437 438 2015). However, difficulty in measuring such data has hindered a well-accepted approach that 439 considers plastic deformation. Wang et al. (2020) summarised 18 theoretical elastoplastic 440 contact models and found that the definition of the yield condition during loading phase is

441 necessary for an accurate prediction of the impact. Evidently, a further investigation of the yield 442 criterion for boulder impact on barriers would enhance a more rational approach for estimating 443 boulder impact force. Nevertheless, the more pragmatic engineering approach with an 444 empirical coefficient K_c as expressed in Eqs. (2) ~ (6) has the merit of being simple and robust 445 enough for engineering design and is currently widely adopted in engineering practice 446 internationally (SWCB 2005; NILIM 2007; Kwan 2012).

447 Implications for Designing Debris-resisting Barriers in Practice

448 The impact dynamics of debris flow against debris-resisting barriers are not well understood 449 because of the heterogeneous nature of debris flows and the idiosyncrasies of the natural 450 settings involved. Therefore, to ensure a conservative barrier design, the above-mentioned 451 factors should be considered. To highlight the general dearth of knowledge in estimating boulder impact, an empirical load reduction factor of 0.1 is required to reduce the impact load 452 453 predicted using the elastic Hertz equation [Eq. (12)]. Kwan (2012) suggested that if 454 simultaneous boulder impact may occur, the design impact load per meter run of the barrier 455 should be taken as the impact load of the largest boulder divided by the boulder diameter. 456 Following this approach, the total design impact load for the rigid barrier is 650 kN, which is 23 times higher than the measured peak impact load for debris flow with ten boulders from the 457 458 physical experiments in this study (Fig. 10; test DB10). Evidently, there is room to enhance our 459 understanding and to optimise the current design load of boulder-enriched debris flows.

Aside from the complexities attributed to the debris flow itself and the natural terrain, different types of debris-resisting barriers may also result in entirely different impact processes and dynamics. The results in this study are for a fully closed rigid barrier without overflow or barrier deformation. For open structures, such as baffles (Choi et al. 2015; Law et al. 2015; Ng et al. 2015) and slit dams (Choi et al. 2016; Zhou et al. 2019), debris may discharge through and around these structures and the cushioning effect identified in this study may not be as prominent as compared with that for closed barriers. For flexible barriers (Wendeler and Volkwein 2015; Wendeler et al. 2019; Song et al. 2019), the deformation of the barrier may lead to a different debris reflection compared with rigid barriers and alter the boulder-flowbarrier interaction process. To further rationalise the design of debris-resisting barriers in practice, advanced numerical modelling methods together with high quality physical data can potentially optimise the resisting capacity required by a barrier.

472 In engineering design practice, well calibrated numerical models are utilised to optimise 473 designs. For instance, a depth-averaged continuum numerical software 2d-DMM (Kwan and 474 Sun 2006; Law and Ko 2018) and a finite element software package LS-DYNA (Crosta et al. 475 2003) have been recommended by design guidelines (Kwan 2012; Koo 2017) to obtain the 476 design velocity and flow depth to estimate impact loads. Koo (2017) also recommended the use of LS-DYNA to model the impact dynamics of flow against rigid (Ng et al. 2018) and 477 478 flexible (Koo and Kwan 2014; Cheung et al. 2018) barriers. Although LS-DYNA can also 479 model boulder impact (Koo and Kwan 2014; Ng et al. 2018), a deficiency of unique reliable 480 large-scale data has hindered model calibration. The findings from this study stress the 481 importance of modelling the debris and boulder separately for the design of barriers. More 482 recently, coupled approaches using the discrete element method with computational fluid 483 dynamics have been reported (Li and Zhao 2018). However, the computational cost for such 484 an approach limits its use for larger scale problems in practical engineering design. The 485 observed importance of capturing the boulder and debris loads separately in this study further suggests that more advanced numerical approaches are needed to advance the state-of-the-art 486 487 and rationalise the design of debris-resisting barriers.

488 **Conclusions**

A series of 28-m long flume tests has been conducted to highlight the interaction between the debris flow and boulders on the impact behaviour against rigid barriers. The results from this study were based on a debris flow mixture of gravel, sand, clay and water with volumetric fractions of 0.21, 0.36, 0.02 and 0.41, respectively. The gravel and sand had average sizes of 20 mm and 2 mm, respectively. The clay had a particle size smaller than 0.006 mm. Boulders adopted by this study were spherical granite with a uniform diameter of 200 mm. Findings from this study may be drawn as follows:

496



500 b) For situations that debris flow front impacts on the rigid barrier prior to boulders coming 501 behind, the reflection wave of debris flow propagates to upstream after debris front 502 interacts with the barrier and provides a cushioning effect on the boulders. The 503 enlarging reflection wave length could serve as a cushioning thickness with a length 504 scale of L_R/d , where L_R is the reflection wave length upon interacting with each boulder 505 and d is the boulder diameter. Measured boulder impact loads in this study show that 506 L_R/d values from 0.4 to 2.0 can reduce the impact load by up to 80% compared to 507 existing design practice ($K_c = 0.1$), and $L_R/d \ge 2.7$ can lead K_c approximately to zero.

508 c) A new equation has been proposed and evaluated to estimate the K_c values with 509 consideration of debris cushioning effects based on different L_R/d ratios. The new 510 equation can serve as a scientific basis for optimising design impact load for debris flow 511 with a boulder fraction of up to 2% of the flow volume.

22

512 Data Availability Statement

513 All data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the 514 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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- 521 Office of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China.

522 Appendix A: Derivation of Eq. (14)

523 The boulder is assumed only subjected to the drag force [Eq. (10)] after the boulder enters into
524 the reflection wave (Fig. 6b). The acceleration of the boulder can be expressed as follows:

$$a(t) = -\frac{C_d A \rho \delta v^2}{2m_b} \tag{A1}$$

525 The mass of the spherical boulders as a function of the boulder cross-sectional area *A* can be 526 expressed as follows:

$$m_b = \frac{2}{3}\rho_b dA \tag{A2}$$

Assuming the flow velocity inside the reflection wave is zero, then the relative velocity of boulder and flow, δv , can be represented by the boulder velocity as a function of time, which is $\delta v = v(t)$. The boulder velocity, v(t), after boulder enters into the debris can be expressed as follows:

$$v(t) = v_0 + \int_0^t a(t) dt = v_0 - \frac{3C_d A \rho}{4\rho_b d} \int_0^t v^2(t) dt$$
(A3)

As shown in Fig. 6b, the transportation distance of the boulder from entering into the reflection wave to impacting the barrier is L_R , which can be obtained by integrating the v(t)shown as follows:

$$L_R = \int_0^t v(t) \, dt \tag{A4}$$

534 Solve Eq. (A3) by taking the time derivative for both sides of the equation. With a boundary

535 condition $v(0) = v_0$, substituting the resulting v(t) into Eq. (A4) yields Eq. (14).

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Test ID	Debris volume (m ³)	Quantity of boulders	Initial debris density (kg/m ³)	Debris frontal velocity, v (m/s)	First boulder velocity, v _b (m/s)	Flow depth, <i>h</i> (mm)	Froude number, <i>Fr</i>	Peak impact force (kN)	Kc
D	2.5	0	1960	5.2	_	50	7.4	4.9	
DB10	2.5	10	1960	5.5	7.5	50	7.9	27.1	0.04
B 1	0	1		—	6.0			41.3	0.08
B10	0	10		—	7.1			71.5	0.11

Table 1. Test programme and results

Table 2. Debris composition

Material	Average diameter (mm)	Bulk density (kg/m ³)	Mass fraction by total weight (%)	Mass fraction by dry weight (%)	Volume percentage (%)
Gravel	20	558	28	36	21
Sand	2	957	49	61	36
Clay	< 0.006	43	2	3	2
Water	—	344	21	—	41
Total		1960	100	100	100























List of Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Plan view of the flume facility.

Fig. 2. Front view of the L-shaped reinforced concrete barrier.

Fig. 3. Details of the instrumentation cell: (a) top view; (b) bottom view; (c) bottom side view; (d) top side view.

Fig. 4. Side schematic of the test and instrumentation setup (not drawn to scale).

Fig. 5. Side schematic of the boulder motion in a debris flow.

Fig. 6. Side schematic of the boulder motion during debris flow impact: (a) debris front just reaches barrier location; (b) boulder starts to interact with the debris reflection wave.

Fig. 7. Time histories of frontal position of boulders and debris flow.

Fig. 8. Measured liquefaction ratio at different clay contents.

Fig. 9. Observed impact kinematics of debris flow (test D): (a) to (d), and debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10): (e) to (h).

Fig. 10. Time histories of the normalised impact force of debris flow (test D) and debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10).

Fig. 11. Comparison of load reduction factor against normalised debris reflection length.

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Reply to Comments from Editor and Reviewers

(*C* and *R* denote comment and reply, respectively)

Editor

C1: Thank you for your submission to the Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering. Two reviewers have provided constructive feedback below that can help strengthen your manuscript.

I have also reviewed your manuscript with great interest. The experimental setup is impressive and the results and conclusions are valuable to practice. One caveat that is mentioned in the text but I think should be emphasized in the conclusions is the range of debris flow materials over which your results are valid. Because of the high variability that has been observed in debris flow materials it is important to clearly define the bounds of your study in the concluding remarks.

R1: As instructed, we have now clearly stated the debris flow composition over which our results are valid in the conclusions (*Page 22; Lines 490 to 494*).

"The results from this study were based on a debris flow mixture of gravel, sand, clay and water with volumetric fractions of 0.21, 0.36, 0.02 and 0.41, respectively. The gravel and sand had average sizes of 20 mm and 2 mm, respectively. The clay had a particle size smaller than 0.006 mm. Boulders adopted by this study were spherical granite with a uniform diameter of 200 mm."

C2: Based on the reviewer feedback and my own review the decision is that the manuscript should be Revised for Re-review before it can proceed to publication. To proceed please provide a point-by-point response to each review comment, and provide a marked copy with edits to aid in the re-review process. Once revised your manuscript will be returned to the same reviewers for a second assessment. Please contact me if you have any questions.

R2: Thank you for the positive feedback. We have now carefully addressed the comments from each reviewer and provided a detailed response below.

Reviewer 1

C1: The authors conducted experiments to analyze the impact load on a barrier by debris flows with and without boulders. A new equation is also proposed to interpret the experimental results. The study may be useful to evaluate geo-hazards such as mudslides.

R1: Thank you for your positive and helpful comments. We have now carefully addressed each of your comments in detail below.

C2: An equation is derived to estimate the impact load with debris cushions in this study. The derivation is based on elastic Hertz contact. However, plastic deformation may exist for the impact between a boulder and a barrier as the authors mentioned. An empirical coefficient is introduced to consider the plastic deformation. Please check whether better methods are available to consider the plastic deformation in the literature.

R2: Thank you for your valuable comment. We have now carefully reviewed other impact models in the literature that explicitly consider plastic deformation and added this useful information to our manuscript. Based on our literature review, it appears that the Hertz model together with an empirical coefficient is the most commonly adopted approach in engineering design practice. The empirical coefficient in the hertz equation implicitly considers plastic deformation (SWCB 2005; NILIM 2007; Kwan 2012). We have now included more discussion in the revised manuscript (*Pages 19 to 20; Lines 433 to 446*):

"In this study, the Hertz model together with an empirical coefficient that implicitly considers plastic deformation was adopted to estimate the boulder impact force. It is worthwhile to mention that there are also analytical models that can explicitly consider the plastic deformation during boulder impact (Yigit et al. 2011; Brake 2012; Ma and Liu 2015). These methods usually require information on the evolution of the plastic regions (Ma and Liu 2015). However, difficulty in measuring such data has hindered a well-accepted approach that considers plastic deformation. Wang et al. (2020) summarised 18 theoretical elastoplastic contact models and found that the definition of the yield condition during loading phase is necessary for an accurate prediction of the impact. Evidently, a further investigation of the yield criterion for boulder impact on barriers would enhance a more rational approach for estimating boulder impact force. Nevertheless, the more pragmatic engineering approach with an empirical coefficient K_c as expressed in Eqs. (2) ~ (6) has the merit of being simple and robust enough for engineering design and is currently widely adopted in engineering practice internationally (SWCB 2005; NILIM 2007; Kwan 2012)."

Eqs. (2) ~ (6) are shown as follows for an easy reference:

$$F_{\rm b} = K_{\rm c} n a^{1.5} \tag{2}$$

$$n = \frac{4r_{\rm b}^{0.5}}{3\pi(k_{\rm b} + k_{\rm B})}$$
(3)

$$a = \left(\frac{5m_{\rm b}v_{\rm b}^2}{4n}\right)^{0.4}\tag{4}$$

$$k_{\rm b} = \frac{1 - \mu_{\rm b}^2}{\pi E_{\rm b}} \tag{5}$$

$$k_{\rm B} = \frac{1 - \mu_{\rm B}^2}{\pi E_{\rm B}} \tag{6}$$

C3: 2. Different numbers of boulder are considered in the experiments. Please further explain whether and how this aspect is considered in the proposed equation.

R3: Thank you for your pertinent comment. The proposed equation in this study cannot consider the effects of different numbers of boulder on the load reduction factor K_c . We have now stressed this as a limitation of our approach and supplemented explanation about the potential effects of different numbers of boulder in the manuscript as follows (*Page 19; Lines 425 to 432*):

"The proposed Eq. (15) does not consider the effects of the number of boulders on load reduction factor K_c . In this study, the performance of the Eq. (15) is only verified by debris flow that entrained ten spherical boulders with a boulder fraction of up to 2% of the debris flow volume. For debris flows with a much larger number of boulders and a much higher boulder fraction, the frictional and collisional stresses among boulders may be more prominent than the damping provided by the debris flow. Therefore, the proposed equation may be required to be modified for a much higher boulder fraction. A further investigation of the effects of boulder fractions on the impact dynamics of boulder-enriched debris flow is still warranted."

Eq. (15) is shown as follows for reference:

$$K_{\rm c} = 0.1e^{-0.9C_{\rm d}\frac{\rho L_{\rm R}}{\rho_{\rm b}d}} \tag{15}$$

C4: 3. This study introduced a dimensionless parameter L_R/d to consider the cushioning effect. But only one value of the diameter is considered in the experiments. It would be better if different values of L_R , d, and L_R/d were considered. The proposed dimensionless parameter L_R/d approaches a large number when the diameter d is very small.

R4: Thank you for your valuable comment. Given the restrictions in terms of cost and time for large-scale flume tests, only one boulder diameter was adopted in our experimental campaign. We have now included more discussion in our revised manuscript about our limitation and we have now recommended that the proposed Eq. (15) should be adopted only when the diameter of the boulder is larger than 0.6 times of the flow depth and smaller than the thickness of the reflection wave. Also, we have now clearly provided the physical meaning when L_R/d approaches to 0 and infinity. (*Pages 18 to 19; Lines 406 to 424*)

"It should be noted that spherical boulders with a uniform diameter were adopted in this study to easily characterise boulder kinematics and dynamics without the influence of different boulder sizes and shapes. The proposed Eq. (15) assumes that the diameter of the boulder d is smaller than the thickness of the reflection wave h_i as shown in Fig. 6b. It is expected that the proposed Eq. (15) holds for boulders with a diameter $d < h_i$ because this diameter is consistent with the assumptions made by Eq. (15). Song et al. (2018) recommended that Eqs. (2) ~ (6) should be adopted to estimate the boulder impact force for boulders that have a diameter larger than 0.6 times of the flow depth h. Therefore, boulder with a diameter 0.6h $< d < h_i$ is recommended for adopting Eq. (15). For a small boulder that has a size approaching 0, the L_R/d approaches infinity, the cushioning effect of the reflected debris on the boulder is very significant and boulder impact force can be neglected. For this condition, K_c equals to 0 as calculated by Eq. (15). The impact force of the debris flow can be calculated by only using the continuum approach, such as the hydrodynamic equation [Eq. (1)]. For boulder that has a diameter larger than h_i , the effects of viscous damping may be reduced due to the smaller contact area compared with the area that a boulder is fully immersed in the flow. Notwithstanding, a $K_c = 0.1$ would still be adopted to provide a conservative prediction. When $d \gg L_R$ and L_R/d approaches 0, the cushioning effect from the reflected debris can be neglected due to the negligible cushioning thickness and K_c should be taken as 0.1 to estimate the boulder impact force in a debris flow."

Fig. 6b is shown as follows for reference:



Fig. 6b. Side schematic of the boulder motion during debris flow impact: boulder starts to interact with the debris reflection wave.

C5: 4. Please further explain the difference between Eq. 16 and experiment data in Fig. 7.

R5: As instructed, we have now further explained the difference between Eq. (16) and our measurements in Fig. 7 in *Pages 11 to 12; Lines 238 to 248*:

"The flow distance for a frictionless point mass ($\mu = 0.0$) calculated by Eq. (16) is shown in Fig. 7. The time history of this flow distance underestimates the measured motion of debris fronts for both debris flow test (test D) and the test of debris flow with ten boulders (test DB10). The underestimation may be attributed to the larger longitudinal pressure compared with the basal friction as expressed in Eq. (17). This caused a larger acceleration than the acceleration of a frictionless point mass $g \sin \theta$. Eq. (16) with $\mu = 0.0$ overestimates the motion of boulder front when there is no debris flow but underestimates the motion of boulder front when there entrained in debris flow. The overestimation may be mainly caused by the deceleration of the boulder motion due to basal friction. The underestimation may be mainly attributed to the acceleration of the boulder motion due to the drag force from debris flow as expressed in Eq. (11)."

Eqs. (11), (16) and (17) and Fig. 7 are shown as follows for reference:

$$\frac{dv_m}{dt} = g\sin\theta - \mu g\cos\theta + \frac{C_d A \rho \delta v^2}{2m_b}$$
(11)

$$s = \frac{g\sin\theta - \mu g\cos\theta}{2}t^2 \tag{16}$$

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$$\frac{du}{dt} = g\sin\theta - \mu g\cos\theta - k\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}g\cos\theta$$
(17)



Fig. 7. Time histories of frontal position of boulders and debris flow.

Other minor comments:

C6: 1. Please remove commercial related information, such as "GoPro HERO5" and "DJI Phantom 3 Standard."

R6: As instructed, we have now removed all the commercial related information of our test equipment throughout the manuscript. However, we wish to point out that reviewer #2 has suggested us to include a discussion on current software. Therefore, we have remained some information about commercial software.

C7: 2. Put the coefficient 6100 in front of Kc in Eq. 12.

R7: Thank you for your comment. The correction has now been made.

Reviewer 2

C1: It is an interesting article with practical applications. The authors present a theoretical framework and experimental studies to correlate their findings. My only concern is regarding the practical application. Debris flows barriers around the world are generally designed with conservative assumptions as indicated by the manuscript, however the level of uncertainty on factors such as material gradation makes it very difficult to refine the analysis. Moreover, the available commercial software tends to approximate conditions so analyses can be performed. In this respect being conservative is a good thing given the level of risk. The authors should include a discussion on current software and products (flexible vs rigid; closed vs open barriers; attenuators vs actual barriers, etc) that are actually used in practice. It is the experience of the reviewer that a fully "experimental" and "conservative" approach is used these days because of the given uncertainty of the debris flow composition. Perhaps the findings of these study can help on bringing some attention to a more appropriate way of modeling without compromising safety.

R1: Thank you for your positive and constructive comment. We have now included a new section with a title of "*Implications for designing debris-resisting barriers in practice*" to discuss the practical application from this study and current software packages and types of barriers adopted in practice (*Pages 20 to 21; Lines 447 to 487*).

"The impact dynamics of debris flow against debris-resisting barriers are not well understood because of the heterogeneous nature of debris flows and the idiosyncrasies of the natural settings involved. Therefore, to ensure a conservative barrier design, the above-mentioned factors should be considered. To highlight the general dearth of knowledge in estimating boulder impact, an empirical load reduction factor of 0.1 is required to reduce the impact load predicted using the elastic Hertz equation [Eq. (12)]. Kwan (2012) suggested that if simultaneous boulder impact may occur, the design impact load per meter run of the barrier should be taken as the impact load of the largest boulder divided by the boulder diameter. Following this approach, the total design impact load for the rigid barrier is 650 kN, which is 23 times higher than the measured peak impact load for debris flow with ten boulders from the physical experiments in this study (Fig. 10; test DB10). Evidently, there is room to enhance our understanding and to optimise the current design load of boulder-enriched debris flows.

Aside from the complexities attributed to the debris flow itself and the natural terrain, different types of debris-resisting barriers may also result in entirely different impact processes and dynamics. The results in this study are for a fully closed rigid barrier without overflow or barrier deformation. For open structures,

such as baffles (Choi et al. 2015; Law et al. 2015; Ng et al. 2015) and slit dams (Choi et al. 2016; Zhou et al. 2019), debris may discharge through and around these structures and the cushioning effect identified in this study may not be as prominent as compared with that for closed barriers. For flexible barriers (Wendeler and Volkwein 2015; Wendeler et al. 2019; Song et al. 2019), the deformation of the barrier may lead to a different debris reflection compared with rigid barriers and alter the boulder-flow-barrier interaction process. To further rationalise the design of debris-resisting barriers in practice, advanced numerical modelling methods together with high quality physical data can potentially optimise the resisting capacity required by a barrier.

In engineering design practice, well calibrated numerical models are utilised to optimise designs. For instance, a depth-averaged continuum numerical software 2d-DMM (Kwan and Sun 2006; Law and Ko 2018) and a finite element software package LS-DYNA (Crosta et al. 2003) have been recommended by design guidelines (Kwan 2012; Koo 2017) to obtain the design velocity and flow depth to estimate impact loads. Koo (2017) also recommended the use of LS-DYNA to model the impact dynamics of flow against rigid (Ng et al. 2018) and flexible (Koo and Kwan 2014; Cheung et al. 2018) barriers. Although LS-DYNA can also model boulder impact (Koo and Kwan 2014; Ng et al. 2018), a deficiency of unique reliable large-scale data has hindered model calibration. The findings from this study stress the importance of modelling the debris and boulder separately for the design of barriers. More recently, coupled approaches using the discrete element method with computational fluid dynamics have been reported (Li and Zhao 2018). However, the computational cost for such an approach limits its use for larger scale problems in practical engineering design. The observed importance of capturing the boulder and debris loads separately in this study further suggests that more advanced numerical approaches are needed to advance the state-of-theart and rationalise the design of debris-resisting barriers."

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