

# Bedload diffusion theory

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## 1 The two-state random walk

The formalism of two-state random walks [e.g. *Weiss*, 1976, 1994; *Masoliver*, 2016; *Masoliver and Lindenberg*, 2017] ultimately composes all existing models of bedload diffusion [e.g. *Nikora et al.*, 2001; *Nikora*, 2002; *Zhang et al.*, 2012; *Fan et al.*, 2016] and provides a framework to build new models from. Assuming residence time distributions  $\psi_i(t)$  in the states with associated survival probabilities  $\Psi_i(t) = \int_t^\infty dt' \psi_i(t')$ , probabilities of moving a distance  $x$  up to time  $t$  within a sojourn  $f_i(x, t)$ , denoting  $g_i(x, t) = f_i(x, t)\psi_i(t)$  and  $G_i(x, t) = f_i(x, t)\Psi_i(x, t)$ , and letting  $\omega_i(x, t)$  be the probability that a sojourn in state  $i$  ends at  $x, t$  provides

$$p_i(x, t) = \theta_i G_i(x, t) + \int_0^\infty dx' \int_0^\infty dt' \omega_{\bar{i}}(x', t') G_i(x - x', t - t') \quad (1)$$

and

$$\omega_i(x, t) = \theta_i g_i(x, t) + \int_0^\infty dx' \int_0^\infty dt' \omega_{\bar{i}}(x', t') g_i(x - x', t - t'). \quad (2)$$

Here  $\theta_i$  are the initial probabilities of being in each state with  $\theta_1 + \theta_2 = 1$ .  $\bar{i}$  is the opposite of  $i$  and  $i = 1, 2$ . The probability of the two-state random walker being at position  $x$  at time  $t$  is

$$p(x, t) = p_1(x, t) + p_2(x, t). \quad (3)$$

Denoting the laplace transform with respect to the variable  $q$  as  $\mathcal{L}_q$  and associating variables  $\eta$  and  $s$  with  $\mathcal{L}_x$  and  $\mathcal{L}_t$ , taking  $\mathcal{L}_x \mathcal{L}_t$  of (2) provides a much simpler algebraic problem for the probability  $p$ :

$$\tilde{\omega}_i = \frac{[\theta_i + \theta_{\bar{i}} \tilde{g}_{\bar{i}}] \tilde{g}_i}{1 - \tilde{g}_1 \tilde{g}_2} \quad (4)$$

and (c.f. *Masoliver* [2016] eq. 20)

$$\tilde{p}_\pm = (\theta_i + \tilde{\omega}_{\bar{i}}) \tilde{G}_i = \frac{\theta_i + \theta_{\bar{i}} \tilde{g}_{\bar{i}}}{1 - \tilde{g}_1 \tilde{g}_2} \tilde{G}_i. \quad (5)$$

Therefore the double transform of the joint PDF reads [c.f. *Weiss*, 1994, eq. 6.33 pg. 243]

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \frac{\theta_1 [\tilde{G}_1 + \tilde{g}_1 \tilde{G}_2] + \theta_2 [\tilde{G}_2 + \tilde{g}_2 \tilde{G}_1]}{1 - \tilde{g}_1 \tilde{g}_2}. \quad (6)$$

This is a direct generalization of the famous Montroll-Weiss formula for a single state continuous-time random walk.

For the evaluation of this formula, a useful fact to take account of is

$$\mathcal{L}_t \{\Psi_\pm(t); s\} = \int_0^\infty dt e^{-st} \int_t^\infty dt' \psi_\pm(t') = \frac{1 - \tilde{\psi}(s)}{s}. \quad (7)$$

Finally, owing to the definition of the double Laplace transform of  $p(x, t)$ :

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \int_0^\infty dt e^{-st} \int_0^\infty dx e^{-\eta x} p(x, t) \quad (8)$$

we see the (double) inverse transform  $p(x, t)$  is not necessary to study the moments  $\langle x(t)^k \rangle = \int_0^\infty x^k p(x, t)$  of an ensemble of tracers since the moments follow from

$$\mathcal{L}_t \{\langle x(t)^k \rangle; s\} = (-)^k \partial_\eta^k \tilde{p}(\eta, s) \Big|_{\eta=0}. \quad (9)$$

## 1.1 Moments of a two-state random walk

*Weeks and Swinney* [1998] starts in motion, for future reference. In this section I will analyze the moments in generality.

## 2 The Einstein theory

Taking  $g_1(x, t) = \delta(x)k_1e^{-k_1t}$  (rest) and  $g_2(x, t) = k_2e^{-k_2x}\delta(t)$  (step) reproduces the *Einstein* [1937] diffusion theory. In this case the double transforms are:

$$\tilde{g}_1(\eta, s) = \frac{k_1}{k_1 + s} \quad (10)$$

$$\tilde{g}_2(\eta, s) = \frac{k_2}{k_2 + \eta}, \quad (11)$$

and the survival functions are

$$\Psi_1(t) = \int_t^\infty dt' k_1 e^{-k_1 t'} = e^{-k_1 t} \quad (12)$$

and

$$\Psi_2(t) = \int_t^\infty dt' \delta(t') = 0, \quad (13)$$

meaning  $G_1(x, t) = \delta(x)e^{-k_1 t}$  and  $G_2(x, t) = 0$ , providing

$$\tilde{G}_1(\eta, s) = \frac{1}{k_1 + s}. \quad (14)$$

Taking  $\theta_1 = 1$  and  $\theta_2 = 0$ , so the dynamics start at rest, the MW generalization (6) is

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \frac{\tilde{G}_1}{1 - \tilde{g}_1 \tilde{g}_2} = \frac{1}{s + \frac{k_1 \eta}{k_2 + \eta}}. \quad (15)$$

The Laplace transform of the mean is

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle = \frac{k_1}{s^2 k_2} \quad (16)$$

so in real space it's  $\langle x \rangle = k_- t / k_+$  as expected [e.g. *Einstein*, 1937; *Nakagawa and Tsujimoto*, 1976]. The Laplace transform of the second moment is

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle = 2 \left( \frac{k_1}{k_2} \right)^2 \left[ \frac{1}{k_1} \frac{1}{s^2} + \frac{1}{s^3} \right], \quad (17)$$

implying a second moment  $\langle x^2 \rangle = (k_1/k_2)^2 [2t/k_1 + t^2]$  and a variance exemplifying the normal diffusion of bedload:

$$\sigma_x^2 = \frac{2k_1}{k_2^2} t. \quad (18)$$

This is depicted in figure 1. Of course, for the Einstein theory a closed form solution of the pdf  $p(x, t)$  is possible to obtain [e.g. *Einstein*, 1937; *Hubbell and Sayre*, 1964; *Daly and Porporato*, 2006; *Daly*, 2019]. The first transform in (15) inverts easily for

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, t) = \exp \left\{ - \frac{k_1 \eta}{k_2 + \eta} t \right\}. \quad (19)$$

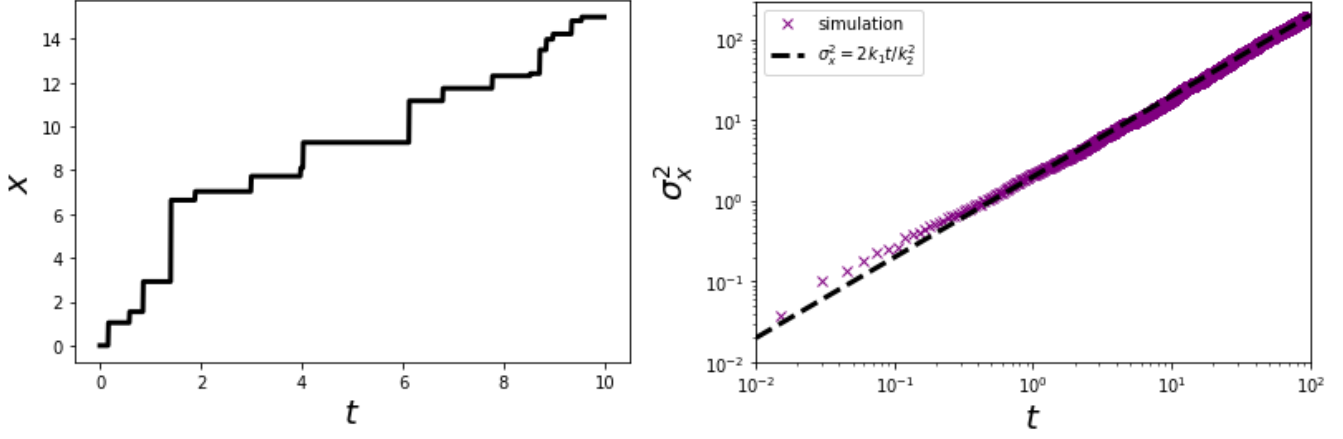


Figure 1: Left panel shows the Einstein walk in  $x$ - $t$  space while the right panel shows the linear variance. There is a single range of normal diffusion when steps are instantaneous.

Incidentally this single Laplace transform of  $p$  provides the cumulant generating function  $c(\eta, t) = \log \tilde{p}(-\eta, t)$  from which the variance follows from a more simple computation:  $\sigma_x^2(t) = \partial_\eta^2 c(\eta, t)|_{\eta=0}$ . The second inversion gives [e.g. *Daly*, 2019]

$$p(x, t) = e^{-k_1 t - k_2 x} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{k_1 k_2 t}{x}} I_1 \left( 2\sqrt{k_1 k_2 x t} \right) + \delta(x) \right\}. \quad (20)$$

This exact solution has been the benchmark theory of bedload diffusion for over 100 years. I have only derived it within a more general framework of multi-state random walks [e.g. *Weiss*, 1994].

A final note – taking the expression for  $\tilde{p}(\eta, t)$  and inverting as in *Weiss* [1994] pg. 247 gives the equation

$$[k_1 \partial_x + k_2 \partial_t + \partial_x \partial_t] p = 0, \quad (21)$$

after some jangling. I'm surprised this is not the normal diffusion equation. I'm curious if it's correct and if the solution involving  $I_1$  solves it. Decomposing  $p = e^{-k_1 t - k_2 x} \pi$  gives

$$\partial_x \partial_t \pi = k_1 k_2 \pi. \quad (22)$$

Using the series representation

$$\pi(x, t) = k_1 k_2 \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(k_1 k_2)^m}{m!(m+1)!} t^{m+1} x^m \quad (23)$$

it's possible to see that the solution given earlier satisfies this differential equation. Presumably this would also follow from the Frobenius method.

### 3 The Lisle Theory

Apart from formulations of *Einstein* [1937] using different step length and resting time distributions than exponential [e.g. *Sayre and Hubbell*, 1965], the first significant advancement from *Einstein* [1937] was due to *Lisle et al.* [1998]. This type of random walk is depicted in figure 2.

I need to carefully investigate whether *Gordon et al.* [1972] did it too. They imparted a finite duration to bedload motions instead of considering them instantaneous like Einstein. In this way they derived two stages of bedload diffusion. This approach is closely related to the so-called persistent diffusion model [Balakrishnan and Chaturvedi, 1988; Van Den Broeck, 1990], the diffusion of a particle driven by dichotomous Markov noise [e.g. Horsthemke and Lefever, 1984; Risken, 1989; Bena, 2006]. The mathematics were essentially developed by Takacs (1957).

It is obtained by the choice  $g_1(x, t) = \delta(x)k_1e^{-k_1t}$  (rest) and  $g_2(x, t) = \delta(x - vt)k_2e^{-k_2t}$  (motion). Hence motions occur with velocity  $v$  for a duration characterized by an exponential distribution with mean  $1/k_2$ , while rests occur for a duration characterized by an exponential distribution with mean  $1/k_1$ . We consider each of the extreme initial conditions in turn.

### 3.1 Rest initial state

If the process starts from rest, this means  $\theta_1 = 1$  and  $\theta_2 = 0$ . In this case the Laplace transforms are

$$\tilde{g}_1(\eta, s) = \frac{k_1}{k_1 + s}, \quad (24)$$

$$\tilde{g}_2(\eta, s) = \frac{k_2}{k_2 + \eta v + s} \quad (25)$$

and

$$\tilde{G}_i(\eta, s) = \frac{1}{k_i} \tilde{g}_i(\eta, s). \quad (26)$$

Plugging these into (6) gives

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \frac{k + s + \eta v}{(k_1 + s)\eta v + (k + s)s}, \quad (27)$$

where  $k = k_1 + k_2$ . This inverts to

$$\tilde{p}(x, s) = \frac{k(k + s)}{v(k_1 + s)^2} \exp \left[ -\frac{s(k + s)}{v(k_1 + s)}x \right] + \frac{1}{k_1 + s} \delta(x). \quad (28)$$

Using the property  $\mathcal{L}\{f(x + a); s\} = e^{as} \mathcal{L}\{f(x); s\}$  along with the transform of a modified Bessel function gives

$$\begin{aligned} p(x, t) = & \delta(x)e^{-k_1t} + \frac{k}{v} \exp \left[ -\frac{k_2x}{v} - k_1 \left( t - \frac{x}{v} \right) \right] \Theta(t - x/v) \\ & \times \left\{ I_0 \left( 2\sqrt{\frac{k_1k_2x}{v}} \left( t - \frac{x}{v} \right) \right) \right. \\ & \left. \sqrt{\frac{k_2v(t - x/v)}{k_1x}} I_1 \left( 2\sqrt{\frac{k_1k_2x}{v}} \left( t - \frac{x}{v} \right) \right) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

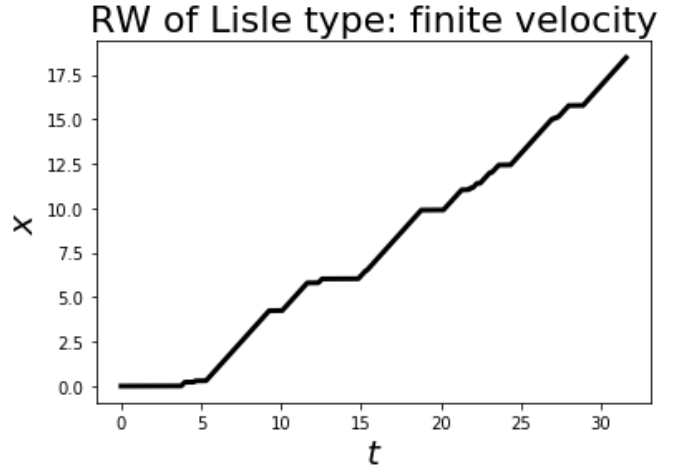


Figure 2: The *Lisle et al.* [1998] model with finite motion intervals. Motions appear as slanted lines, where the slope is the velocity  $v$  of motion. These types of walkers show super-diffusion at short timescales and normal diffusion at long timescales.

for the distribution of  $x$  at time  $t$ . The non-dimensionalization proposed by Lisle is  $\xi = k_+x/v$  and  $\tau = k_-(t - x/v)$ . In this notation the result appears as

$$p(\xi, \tau) = \frac{k_2}{v} \delta(\xi) e^{-\tau - k_1 \xi / k_2} + \frac{k}{v} e^{-\xi - \tau} \Theta(\tau) \Theta(\xi) \left\{ I_0(2\sqrt{\xi\tau}) + \frac{k_2}{k_1} \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\xi}} I_1(2\sqrt{\xi\tau}) \right\} \quad (30)$$

### 3.1.1 Analytical solution of moments from rest

The first derivative gives

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle = vk_1 \frac{1}{s^2(k+s)}, \quad (31)$$

while the second gives

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle = 2v^2 k_1 \frac{k_1 + s}{s^3(k+s)^2}. \quad (32)$$

Therefore the mean follows from 83:

$$\frac{k^2}{vk_1} \langle x \rangle = e^{-kt} + kt - 1, \quad (33)$$

and the second moment follows from 84 and 85:

$$\frac{k^4}{2v^2 k_1} \langle x^2 \rangle = k_1 \left[ \frac{(kt)^2}{2} - kt + 1 - e^{-kt} \right] + k_2 \left[ kt - 2 + (kt + 2)e^{-kt} \right] \quad (34)$$

Manipulating the mean provides

$$\frac{k^4}{2v^2 k_1} \langle x \rangle^2 = k_1 \left( \frac{1}{2} e^{-2kt} + \frac{(kt)^2}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + (kt - 1)e^{-kt} - kt \right) \quad (35)$$

so the variance is

$$\frac{k^4}{2v^2 k_1} \sigma_x^2 = k_1 \left[ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} e^{-2kt} - kte^{-kt} \right] + k_2 \left[ kt - 2 + (kt + 2)e^{-kt} \right]. \quad (36)$$

Taylor expanding shows asymptotic behavior

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} k_1 v^2 t^3, & t \rightarrow 0 \\ 2 \frac{k_1 k_2 v^2}{k^3} t, & t \rightarrow \infty. \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

There is a cross-over from ballistic to normal diffusion.

### 3.1.2 Asymptotic solution of moments from rest

The  $t \rightarrow \infty$  behavior comes from expanding 31 and 32 at  $s \rightarrow 0$  and transforming. The expansions are

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle \sim vk_1 \left( \frac{1}{ks^2} - \frac{1}{k^2 s} \right) \quad (38)$$

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle \sim 2v^2 k_1 \left( \frac{k_1}{k^2 s^3} + \frac{k_2 - k_1}{k^3 s^2} \right) \quad (39)$$

giving

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim \frac{2v^2 k_1^2 t^2}{2k^2} + \frac{2v^2 k_1 (k_2 - k_1) t}{k^3} - \frac{v^2 k_1^2 t^2}{k^2} + \frac{2v^2 k_1^2 t}{k^3} \quad (40)$$

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim 2 \frac{k_1 k_2 v^2}{k^3} t, \quad (41)$$

in agreement with 62. This was tricky to figure out. You have to keep the constant term in the mean. Similarly the  $t \rightarrow 0$  behavior comes from expanding 31 and 32 at  $1/s \rightarrow 0$  and transforming. The expansions are

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle \sim \frac{vk_1}{s^3} \left(1 - \frac{k}{s}\right) \quad (42)$$

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle \sim \frac{2v^2k_1}{s^4} \left(1 + [k_1 - 2k] \frac{1}{s}\right) \quad (43)$$

giving asymptotic variance (at  $t \rightarrow 0$ )

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim \frac{1}{3}k_1v^2t^3 \quad (44)$$

in agreement with 62.

### 3.2 Motion initial state

Now I'll try using the opposite initial condition (the one chosen by *Lisle et al.* [1998]):  $\theta_2 = 1$  and  $\theta_1 = 0$ . In this case

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \frac{k+s}{v(k_1+s)\eta + (k+s)s}, \quad (45)$$

and a first inverse transform gives

$$p(x, s) = \frac{k+s}{v(k_1+s)} \exp \left[ -\frac{(k+s)s}{v(k_1+s)}x \right], \quad (46)$$

which is the same as the other case but without a delta function term at  $x = 0$ . This can be manipulated to

$$p(x, t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{k+s}{v(k_1+s)} \exp \left[ -\frac{(k+s)s}{v(k_1+s)}x \right]; t \right\} \quad (47)$$

$$= e^{-k_1t} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{k_2+s}{vs} \exp \left[ -\frac{(k_2+s)(s-k_1)}{vs}x \right]; t \right\} \quad (48)$$

$$= e^{-k_1t-(k_2-k_1)x/v} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{k_2+s}{vs} \exp \left[ \frac{k_1k_2}{vs}x - \frac{xs}{v} \right]; t \right\} \quad (49)$$

$$= e^{-k_1t-(k_2-k_1)x/v} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{k_2+s}{vs} \exp \left[ \frac{k_1k_2}{vs}x \right]; t - x/v \right\} \quad (50)$$

$$= e^{-k_1t-(k_2-k_1)x/v} \left[ \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{k_2}{vs} \exp \left[ \frac{k_1k_2}{vs}x \right]; t - x/v \right\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{v} \exp \left[ \frac{k_1k_2}{vs}x \right]; t - x/v \right\} \right] \quad (51)$$

$$= e^{-k_1t-(k_2-k_1)x/v} \left[ \frac{k_2}{v} I_0 \left( 2\sqrt{\frac{k_1k_2x}{v}} \left( t - \frac{x}{v} \right) \right) + \frac{1}{v} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \exp \left[ \frac{k_1k_2}{vs}x \right] - 1; t - x/v \right\} + \frac{1}{v} \delta(t - x/v) \right] \quad (52)$$

$$= e^{-k_1t-(k_2-k_1)x/v} \left[ \frac{k_2}{v} I_0 \left( 2\sqrt{\frac{k_1k_2x}{v}} \left( t - \frac{x}{v} \right) \right) + \frac{1}{v} \sqrt{\frac{k_1k_2x}{v(t-x/v)}} I_1 \left( 2\sqrt{\frac{k_1k_2x}{v}} \left( t - \frac{x}{v} \right) \right) + \frac{1}{v} \delta(t - x/v) \right]. \quad (53)$$

A key property here was  $e^{-ax}f(x) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{f(s+a); x\}$ , and those in the appendix. This type of math is not easy for me. In the non-dimensional variables this becomes

$$p(\xi, \tau) = e^{-\tau-\xi} \left[ \frac{k_2}{v} I_0(2\sqrt{\xi\tau}) + \frac{k_1}{v} \sqrt{\frac{\xi}{\tau}} I_1(2\sqrt{\xi\tau}) + \frac{k_1}{v} \delta(\tau) \right]. \quad (54)$$

This appears totally aligned with *Lisle et al.* [1998].

### 3.2.1 moments having started in motion

Taking derivatives (it's easier this time) gives

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle = v \frac{k_1 + s}{s^2(s + k)} \quad (55)$$

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle = 2v^2 \frac{(k_1 + s)^2}{s^3(k + s)^2}. \quad (56)$$

Using 83 and 87 gives

$$\frac{k^2}{v} \langle x \rangle = k_1 kt + k_2(1 - e^{-kt}). \quad (57)$$

Using 84, 85, and 86 gives

$$\frac{k^4}{2v^2} \langle x^2 \rangle = k_1^2 \frac{(kt)^2}{2} + k_1 k_2 [2kt - 2 + 2e^{-kt}] + k_2^2 [1 - (1 + kt)e^{-kt}]. \quad (58)$$

Manipulating the mean to

$$\frac{k^4}{2v^2} \langle x \rangle^2 = k_1^2 \frac{(kt)^2}{2} + k_1 k_2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-2kt} - e^{-kt} \right] + k_2^2 [kt - kte^{-kt}] \quad (59)$$

provides a variance

$$\frac{k^4}{2v^2 k_2} \sigma_x^2 = k_1 [kt + (2 + kt)e^{-kt} - 2] + k_2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} e^{-2kt} - kte^{-kt} \right]. \quad (60)$$

Expanding this reveals asymptotic behavior

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} k_2 v^2 t^3, & t \rightarrow 0 \\ 2 \frac{k_1 k_2 v^2}{k^3} t, & t \rightarrow \infty. \end{cases} \quad (61)$$

The conclusion is initial condition does not affect the asymptotic scaling. This is still super-diffusion  $\sigma_x^2 \propto t^3$  crossing to normal diffusion  $\sigma_x^2 \propto t$ . It only affects the coefficient of this scaling.

### 3.2.2 asymptotic approach to the moments starting in motion

Same story exactly. Not very interesting.

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} k_2 v^2 t^3, & t \rightarrow 0 \\ 2 \frac{k_1 k_2 v^2}{k^3} t, & t \rightarrow \infty. \end{cases} \quad (62)$$

with no hiccups.

## 3.3 Mixed initial state

With an arbitrary mixed state the double transformed density is

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \theta_1 \frac{k + s + \eta v}{(k_1 + s)\eta v + (k + s)s} + \theta_2 \frac{k + s}{v(k_1 + s)\eta + (k + s)s} \quad (63)$$

$$= \frac{k + s + \theta_1 \eta v}{(k_1 + s)\eta v + (k + s)s} \quad (64)$$

with the identity  $\theta_1 + \theta_2 = 1$ .

### 3.3.1 analytical approach to the moments in an arbitrary mixed state

Taking one derivative gives

$$\partial_\eta \tilde{p}(\eta, s) = -v \frac{(\theta_2 s + k_1)(k + s)}{[(k_1 + s)\eta v + (k + s)s]^2}, \quad (65)$$

and a second gives

$$\partial_\eta^2 \tilde{p}(\eta, s) = 2v^2 \frac{(\theta_2 s + k_1)(k + s)(k_1 + s)}{[(k_1 + s)\eta v + (k + s)s]^3}, \quad (66)$$

so the transformed first and second moments are

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle = v \frac{k_1 + \theta_2 s}{s^2(k + s)} \quad (67)$$

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle = 2v^2 \frac{(k_1 + \theta_2 s)(k_1 + s)}{s^3(k + s)^2}. \quad (68)$$

These expressions seem correct since  $\theta_2 = 0$  and  $\theta_2 = 1$  cases provide the earlier expressions. Inverting the mean obtains

$$\frac{k^2}{v} \langle x \rangle = k_1 [\theta_1 e^{-kt} + kt - \theta_1] + k_2 \theta_2 [1 - e^{-kt}] \quad (69)$$

$$= k_1 [(1 - \theta_2)e^{-kt} + kt + (\theta_2 - 1)] + k_2 \theta_2 [1 - e^{-kt}], \quad (70)$$

which still reduces to both earlier results. After more work the second moment becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{k^4}{2v^2} \langle x^2 \rangle &= k_1^2 \left[ \frac{(kt)^2}{2} - kt + 1 - e^{-kt} + \theta_2 \{ kt - 1 + e^{-kt} \} \right] \\ &\quad + k_1 k_2 \left[ kt - 2 + (kt + 2)e^{-kt} + \theta_2 \{ kt - kte^{-kt} \} \right] \\ &\quad + k_2^2 \theta_2 [1 - (1 + kt)e^{-kt}] \end{aligned} \quad (71)$$

which still reduces to earlier results. Proceeding from here gets very difficult and messy. It's possible.

### 3.3.2 asymptotic approach to the moments in an arbitrary mixed state

Expanding the earlier expressions for  $s \rightarrow \infty$  gives

$$\langle \tilde{x} \rangle = v \left[ \frac{\theta_2}{s^2} + \frac{k_1 - \theta_2 k}{s^3} - \dots \right] \quad (72)$$

$$\langle \tilde{x}^2 \rangle = 2v^2 \left[ \frac{\theta_2}{s^3} + \frac{k_1 \theta_2 + k_1 - 2k \theta_2}{s^4} + \dots \right] \quad (73)$$

transforming to

$$\langle x \rangle \sim v \left[ \theta_2 t + (k_1 - \theta_2 k) \frac{t^2}{2} \right] \quad (74)$$

$$\langle x^2 \rangle \sim 2v^2 \left[ \frac{\theta_2 t^2}{2} + \frac{t^3}{3!} (k_1 \theta_2 + k_1 - 2k \theta_2) \right]. \quad (75)$$

The square of the mean is  $\langle x \rangle^2 \sim v^2 \theta_2^2 t^2 + v^2 \theta_2 (k_1 - \theta_2 k) t^3$ , so the variance is (as  $t \rightarrow 0$ )

$$\sigma_x^2 \sim v^2 \theta_1 \theta_2 t^2 + \frac{1}{3} (\theta_1 k_1 + \theta_2 k_2) v^2 t^3. \quad (76)$$

This reproduces both earlier results and explains the link between *Lisle et al.* [1998] and my other investigations with the dichotomous Markov noise [e.g. *Horsthemke and Lefever*, 1984; *Bena*, 2006].



### 3.4 Summary of Lisle process

This process supports two stages of diffusion: short-time super-diffusion and long time normal-diffusion. The results are all correct and verified by simulations in figure 3.

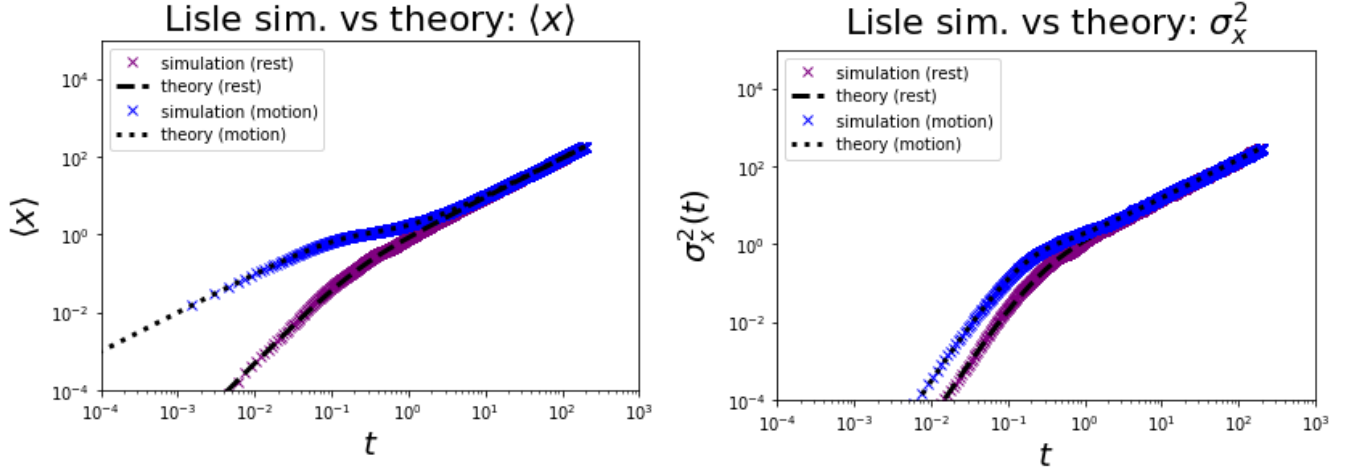


Figure 3: Variance and mean scaling compared to numerical simulations

The two stages of diffusion and their asymptotic behavior are indicated in figure 4. The initial ballistic diffusion is at least  $\sigma_x^2 \propto t^2$  and at most  $\sigma_x^2 \propto t^3$ , and the crossover to normal diffusion occurs around  $\max\{1/k_1, 1/k_2\}$ .

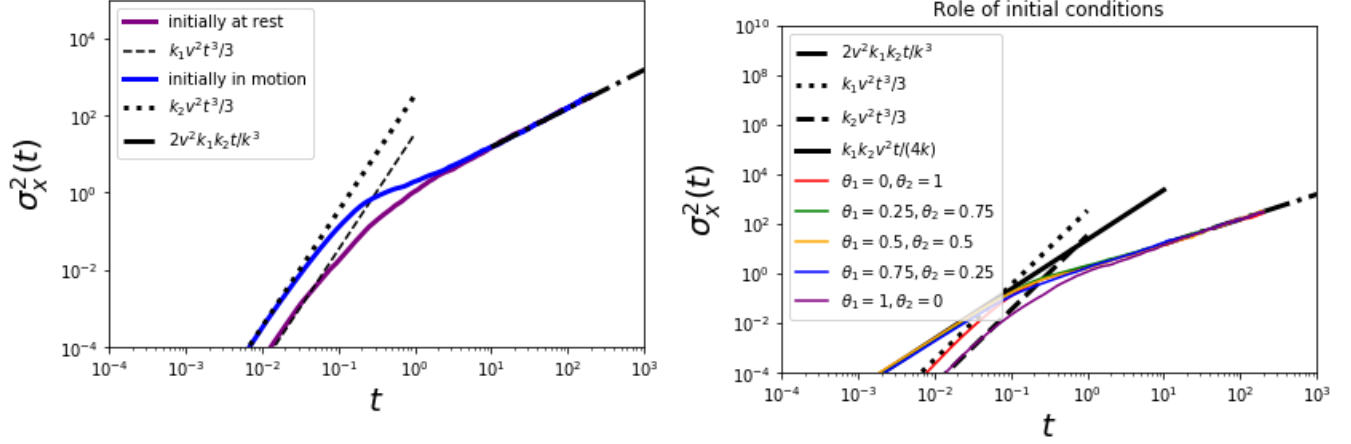


Figure 4: Scaling behavior of variance. Left panel shows pure initial conditions while the action-packed right panel shows mixed initial conditions. Mixed initial express a  $\sigma_x^2 \propto t^2$  term.

## 4 Heavy-tailed resting time in a two-state walk

Set  $\psi_1(t) = A_\alpha t^{-\alpha}$  for  $t \geq t_\alpha$ .  $A_\alpha = (\alpha - 1)t_\alpha^{\alpha-1}$  [e.g. *Weeks et al.*, 1996, eq. 12]. Consider everything else the same as the *Lisle et al.* [1998] process. The laplace transform of  $\psi_1(t)$  is

$$\tilde{\psi}(s) = A_\alpha s^{\alpha-1} \Gamma(1 - \alpha, s t_\alpha). \quad (77)$$

The incomplete gamma function is defined by

$$\Gamma(q, x) = \int_x^\infty t^{q-1} e^{-t} dt. \quad (78)$$

There's a need to expand this at small arguments. Crucially, *Weeks et al.* [1996] did not use the standard Pareto distribution notation.

#### 4.1 $t \rightarrow \infty$ expected behavior

$\alpha < 1/2$  implies subdiffusion.  $1/2 < \alpha < 2$  implies superdiffusion,  $\alpha > 2$  implies normal diffusion.

## 5 A new generalization: Randomly stopped Lisle process

Consider the choice  $\psi_1(t) = k_1 e^{-k_1 t}$ ,  $f_1(x, t) = \delta(x)$ ,  $\psi_2(t) = k_2 e^{-k_2 t}$ , and

$$f_2(x, t|T) = \delta(x - vt)\Theta(T - t) + \delta(x)\Theta(t - T). \quad (79)$$

This describes a *randomly stopped* variant of the Lisle process. When  $t > T$ , the motion state becomes a second rest state: the motion is turned off. In this case,  $g_1(\eta, s) = \frac{k_1}{k_1 + s}$  and  $G_1(\eta, s) = g_1(\eta, s)/k_1$  as before, while

$$g_2(\eta, s|T) = \frac{k_2}{k_2 + s} e^{-(k_2 + s)T} + \frac{k_2}{k_2 + \eta v + s} \left(1 - e^{-(k_2 + \eta v + s)T}\right) \quad (80)$$

and  $G_2(\eta, s|T) = g_2(\eta, s|T)/k_2$ . You can maybe solve this conditional to  $T$  to obtain  $p(x, t|T)$ . Then inputting a distribution for the trapping time  $T$ , the over-all distribution will be  $p(x, t) = \int dT p(x, t|T) f(T)$ .

Assuming the walker starts at rest, the double transformed probability is

$$\tilde{p}(\eta, s) = \quad (81)$$

## Appendix: Laplace transforms

This is just a reference of useful Laplace transforms for these types of studies.

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{\frac{1}{s^{k+1}}; s\right\} = \frac{t^k}{k!}; \quad (82)$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{p^{-2}(p+a)^{-1}; x\right\} = \frac{1}{a^2}(e^{-ax} + ax - 1), \quad (83)$$

[?, 2.1.2.33];

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{p^{-2}(p+a)^{-2}; x\right\} = \frac{1}{a^3}[ax - 2 + (ax + 2)e^{-ax}], \quad (84)$$

[?, 2.1.2.49];

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{p^{-3}(p+a)^{-2}; x\right\} = \frac{1}{a^4}\left[\frac{(ax)^2}{2} - 2ax - (ax + 3)e^{-ax} + 3\right], \quad (85)$$

derived from the previous result using the differentiation property;

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{p^{-1}(p+a)^{-2}; x\right\} = \frac{1}{a^2}\left(1 - (1 + ax)e^{-ax}\right), \quad (86)$$

[?, 2.1.2.47];

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{p^{-1}(p+a)^{-1}; x\} = \frac{1}{a}(1 - e^{-ax}), \quad (87)$$

[?, 2.1.2.31];

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{e^{as}\tilde{f}(s); x\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{\tilde{f}(s); x+a\}, \quad (88)$$

the shifting property;

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s^\nu} \exp(a/s); t\right\} = \left(\frac{t}{a}\right)^{(\nu-1)/2} I_{\nu-1}(2\sqrt{at}), \quad (89)$$

valid for  $\nu > 1$  from [?, 2.2.2.1];

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{e^{a/p} - 1; x\} = \sqrt{\frac{a}{x}} I_1(2\sqrt{ax}), \quad (90)$$

and [?, 2.2.2.8]. All of these Laplace transforms are verified from Wolfram Alpha so I expect no typos. Finally,

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{\frac{a}{bs+c}; s\right\} = \frac{a}{b} e^{-cx/b} \quad (91)$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{\frac{as}{bs+c}; s\right\} = \frac{a}{b} \left[\delta(x) - \frac{c}{b} e^{-cx/b}\right]. \quad (92)$$

The Laplace transform of a first derivative is

$$\mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\} = s\tilde{f}(s) - f(0), \quad (93)$$

while a second derivative is

$$\mathcal{L}\{f''(t)\} = s^2\tilde{f}(s) - sf(0) - f'(0). \quad (94)$$

## Appendix: Asymptotics of stable laws

When a resting time distribution  $\psi(t)$  has divergent moments, the behavior of its Laplace transform  $\tilde{\psi}(s)$  for  $s \rightarrow 0$  cannot be analyzed by simply expanding the exponential in its definition for small  $s$  as in

$$\tilde{\psi}(s) \sim \int_0^\infty \{1 - st + (st)^2/2 + \dots\} \psi(t) dt, \quad (95)$$

since the moments of  $t$  involved in this expression are divergent. Instead, there is a different way (outlined around Weiss [1994] eq 2.95) leveraging the asymptotic form of  $\psi(t)$  for  $t \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\psi(t) \sim At^{-\alpha-1}. \quad (96)$$

Writing (using the normalization property of  $\psi(t)$ )

$$\tilde{\psi}(s) = 1 - (1 - \tilde{\psi}(s)) = 1 - \int_0^\infty dt(1 - e^{-st})\psi(t) \quad (97)$$

and setting  $\tau = st$  gives

$$\tilde{\psi}(s) = 1 - \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty d\tau(1 - e^{-\tau})\psi\left(\frac{\tau}{s}\right). \quad (98)$$

Clearly this integral is dominated by the asymptotic behavior of  $\psi(t)$ :

$$\tilde{\psi}(s) \sim 1 - Bs^\alpha \quad (99)$$

This is an important result for analyzing asymptotics of random walks involving power-law pausing time densities. The coefficient  $B$  is obtained (if necessary) by integrating the asymptotic power law using its coefficients and small-time cutoff. Such an argument is essential to the paper of Weeks and Swinney [1998]. They give  $B$  in terms of an incomplete Gamma function, which I could do if I wanted.

## Appendix: Modified Bessel functions of the first kind

A cool property is

$$I_n(x) = T_n\left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)I_0(x) \quad (100)$$

where  $T_n$  is a Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind:

$$T_0(x) = 1 \quad (101)$$

$$T_1(x) = x \quad (102)$$

$$T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1 \quad (103)$$

$$\vdots \quad (104)$$

This is available at <http://mathworld.wolfram.com/ModifiedBesselFunctionoftheFirstKind.html>. In particular,

$$I_1(x) = I'_0(x). \quad (105)$$

The large  $x$  expansion ( $x \gg |\nu^2 - 1/4|$ ) of the modified Bessel function of the first kind is

$$I_\nu(x) \approx \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{2\pi x}} \left(1 + \frac{(1 - 2\nu)(1 + 2\nu)}{8x} + \dots\right) \quad (106)$$

while the small  $x$  expansion ( $0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{\nu + 1}$ ) is

$$I_\nu(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\nu + 1)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^\nu. \quad (107)$$

These are from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/48dc/ca3cffb78de80ab37b84a992379c2f30bdda.pdf>. The recurrence relations are

$$I_{\nu-1}(x) - I_{\nu+1}(x) = \frac{2\nu}{x} I_\nu(x) \quad (108)$$

$$I_{\nu-1}(x) + I_{\nu+1}(x) = 2 \frac{d}{dx} I_\nu(x). \quad (109)$$

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