



1 **Trajectory encounter volume as a diagnostic of mixing potential in fluid flows:** 2 **connection to diffusivity.**

3 Irina I. Rypina¹, Stefan G. Llewellyn Smith², and Larry J. Pratt¹

4 ¹Physical Oceanography Department, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, 266 Woods Hole
 5 Rd., Woods Hole, MA 02543

6 ²Department of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering, Jacobs School of Engineering,
 7 UCSD, 9500 Gilman Dr., La Jolla, CA 92093-0411

8 Corresponding author's email: irypina@whoi.edu

9 **Abstract:** Trajectory encounter volume – the volume of fluid that passes close to a reference
 10 fluid parcel over some time interval – has been recently introduced as a measure of mixing
 11 potential of a flow. Diffusivity is the most commonly used characteristic of turbulent diffusion.
 12 We derive the analytical relationship between the encounter volume and diffusivity under the
 13 assumption of an isotropic random walk, i.e. diffusive motion, in one and two dimensions. We
 14 apply the derived formulas to produce maps of encounter volume and the corresponding
 15 diffusivity in the Gulf Stream region of the North Atlantic based on satellite altimetry, and
 16 discuss the mixing properties of Gulf Stream rings. Advantages offered by the derived formula
 17 for estimating diffusivity from oceanographic data are discussed, as well as applications to other
 18 disciplines.

19 1. Introduction

20 The frequency of close encounters between different objects or organisms can be a fundamental
 21 metric in social and mechanical systems. The chances that a person will meet a new friend or
 22 contract a new disease during the course of a day is influenced by the number of distinct
 23 individuals that he or she comes into close contact with. The chances that a predator will ingest a
 24 poisonous prey, or that a mushroom hunter will mistakenly pick up a poisonous variety, is
 25 influenced by the number of distinct species or variety of prey or mushrooms that are
 26 encountered. In fluid systems, the exchange of properties such as temperature, salinity or
 27 humidity between a given fluid element and its surroundings is influenced by the number of
 28 other distinct fluid elements that pass close by over a given time period. In all these cases it is
 29 best to think of close encounters as providing the *potential*, if not necessarily the act, of
 30 transmission of germs, toxins, heat, salinity, etc.

31 In cases of property exchange within continuous media such as air or water, it may be most
 32 meaningful to talk about a mass or volume passing within some radius of a reference fluid
 33 element as this element moves along its trajectory. Rypina and Pratt (2017) introduce a trajectory
 34 encounter volume, V , the volume of fluid that comes in contact with the reference fluid parcel
 35 over a finite time interval. The increase of V over time is one measure of the mixing potential of



the element, “mixing” being the irreversible exchange of properties between different water parcels. Thus, fluid parcels that have large encounter volumes as they move through the flow field have large mixing potential, i.e., an opportunity to exchange properties with other fluid parcels, and vice versa.

Given the seemingly fundamental importance of close encounters, it is of interest to relate metrics such as V to other bulk measures of interactions within the system. For example, in some cases it may be more feasible to count encounters rather than to measure interactions or property exchanges directly, whereas in other cases the number of encounters might be most pertinent to the process in question, but difficult to measure directly. In many applications, including ocean turbulence, most commonly used metric of mixing is the eddy diffusivity, κ , a quantity that relates transport of fluid elements by turbulent eddies to diffusion, by analogy with molecular diffusion processes. κ can be measured by a variety of means, including dye release (Ledwell et al., 2000; Sundermeyer and Ledwell, 2001; Rypina et al., 2016), surface drifter dispersion (Okubo, 1971; Davis, 1991; LaCasce, 2008, La Casce et al., 2014; Rypina et al. 2012; 2016), and property budgets (Munk, 1966). The purpose of this work is to develop a relationship between V and κ in one and two dimensions. The relationship is not as straightforward as one might first imagine, but can nevertheless be written down straightforwardly in the long-time limit. This is opportune, since the concept of eddy diffusivity is most relevant in the long-time limit.

1.1. Encounter volume as a measure of mixing potential of a flow

For a formal definition of the encounter volume, V , we subdivide the entire fluid into infinitesimal fluid elements with volumes dV_i , and define the encounter volume for each fluid element to be the total volume of fluid that passes within a radius R of it over a finite time interval $t_0 < t < t_0 + T$, i.e.,

$$V(\vec{x}_0; t_0, T, R) = \lim_{dV_i \rightarrow 0} \sum_i dV_i. \quad (1)$$

In practice, for dense uniform grids of trajectories, both the limit and the subscript in the above definition can be dropped, and the encounter volume can be approximated by

$$V \approx N \delta V, \quad (2)$$

where the *encounter number*,

$$N(\vec{x}_0; t_0, T, R) = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbf{I}(\min(|\vec{x}_k(\vec{x}_{0k}; t_0, T) - \vec{x}(\vec{x}_0; t_0, T)|) \leq R), \quad (3)$$

is the number of trajectories that come within a radius R of the reference trajectory over a time $t_0 < t < t_0 + T$. Here the indicator function \mathbf{I} is 1 if true and 0 if false, and K is the total number of particles.



As in Rypina and Pratt (2017), we define encounter volume based on the number of encounters with different trajectories, not the total number of encounter events. The encounter volume depends on the starting time, integration time, the number of trajectories, and the encounter radius. The dependences on the first three parameters are typical for all Lagrangian methods (such as, for example, Lagrangian descriptors, complexity measures, FTLE, FSLE, transfer operators, LAVD and others; e.g. Mendoza et al., 2014; Rypina et al., 2012; Shadden et al., 2005; d'Ovidio et al. 2004; Froyland et al., 2007; Haller, 2016. The integration time should be long enough for trajectories to sample the features of interest well, but short enough compared to their lifetime. The grid spacing should be small compared to the sizes of the features of interest, and the encounter radius should be smaller than about half of the size of the smallest features of interest.

1.2. Diffusive parameterizations of small scales and diffusivity

The combined effects of eddies on redistributing tracers are often represented by an eddy diffusivity (LaCasce, 2008; Vallis, 2006; Rypina et al., 2015; Kamenkovich et al., 2015). The underlying assumption is that the eddy field drives the downgradient tracer transfer, similar to molecular diffusion but with a different (larger) diffusion coefficient. This diffusive parameterization of eddies has been implemented in many non-eddy-resolving oceanic numerical models. The diffusivity is either estimated from data (as, for example, in Okubo, 1971) and often assumed constant in both time and space, or related in some simplified manner to the large-scale flow properties (Visbeck, 1997).

Because the purpose of the diffusivity coefficient is to quantify the intensity of the eddy-induced tracer transfer, i.e., the intensity of mixing, it is tempting to relate it to the encounter volume, which quantifies the mixing potential of a flow and thus is closely related to tracer mixing. Such an analytical connection between the encounter volume and diffusivity could potentially also be useful for the parameterizations of eddy effects in numerical models.

2. Connection between encounter volume and diffusivity

The problem has been framed in mathematical terms in Rypina and Pratt (2017), who outlined some initial steps towards deriving the analytical connection between encounter volume and diffusivity but did not finish the derivation. In this section, we complete the derivation.

2.1. Main idea for the derivation

We seek an analytical expression for the encounter volume, V , and the encounter number, N , i.e., the number of particles that pass within radius R from a reference particle over time, as a function of κ . Let us start by considering the simplest diffusive random walk process in one or two dimensions, where particles take steps of fixed length L in random directions along the x -axis in 1D or along both x - and y -axes in 2D, respectively, at fixed time intervals Δt .



105 The single particle dispersion, i.e., the ensemble-averaged square displacement from the
 106 particle's initial position, is $D_{1D} = \langle (x - x_0)^2 \rangle$ and $D_{2D} = \langle (x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 \rangle$ in 1D
 107 or 2D, respectively. For a diffusive process, the dispersion grows linearly with time, and the
 108 constant proportionality coefficient that is related to diffusivity. Specifically, $D_{1D} = 2\kappa_{1D}t$ with
 109 $\kappa_{1D} = L^2 / (2\Delta t)$, and $D_{2D} = 4\kappa_{2D}t$ with $\kappa_{2D} = L^2 / (4\Delta t)$.

110 It is convenient to consider the motion in a reference frame that is moving with the reference
 111 particle. In that reference frame, the reference particle will always stay at the origin, while other
 112 particles will still be involved in a random walk motion, but with the diffusivity twice that in the
 113 stationary frame, $\kappa^{moving} = 2\kappa^{stationary}$ (Rypina and Pratt, 2017).

114 The problem of finding the encounter number then reduces to counting the number of randomly
 115 walking particles (with diffusivity κ^{moving}) that come within radius R of the origin in the
 116 moving frame. This is related to a classic problem in statistics – the problem of a random walker
 117 reaching an absorbing boundary, usually referred to as “a cliff” (because once a walker reaches
 118 the absorbing boundary, it falls off the cliff), over a time interval t .

119 In the next section we will provide formal solutions; here we simply outline the steps to
 120 streamline the derivation. We start by deriving the appropriate diffusion equation for the
 121 probability density function, $p(\vec{x}, t)$, of random walkers in 1D or 2D:

$$122 \quad \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \kappa \nabla^2 p. \quad (4)$$

123 We place a cliff, \vec{x}_c , at the perimeter of the encounter sphere, i.e., at a distance R from the
 124 origin, and impose an absorbing boundary condition at a cliff,

$$125 \quad p(\vec{x}_c, t) = 0, \quad (5a)$$

126 which removes (or “absorbs”) particles that have reached the cliff (see Fig. 1 for a schematic
 127 diagram). We then consider a random walker that is initially located at a point \vec{x}_0 outside the
 128 cliff at $t = 0$, i.e.,

$$129 \quad p(\vec{x}, t = 0) = \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0), \quad (5b)$$

130 and we write an analytical solution for the probability density function satisfying Eqs. (4-5),

$$131 \quad G(\vec{x}, t; \vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_c), \quad (6)$$

132 that quantifies the probability to find a random walker initially located at \vec{x}_0 at any location \vec{x}
 133 outside of the cliff at a later time $t > 0$. In mathematical terms, G is the Green's function of the
 134 diffusion equation.



135 The survival probability, which quantifies the probability that a random walker initially located
 136 at \vec{x}_0 at $t = 0$ has “survived” over time t without falling off the cliff, is

$$137 \quad S(t; \vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_c) = \int G(\vec{x}, t; \vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_c) d\vec{x}, \quad (7)$$

138 where the integral is taken over all locations outside of the cliff. The encounter, or “non-
 139 survival”, probability can then be written as the conjugate quantity,

$$140 \quad P_{en}(t; \vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_c) = 1 - S(t; \vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_c), \quad (8)$$

141 which quantifies the probability that a random walker initially located at \vec{x}_0 at $t = 0$ has
 142 reached, or fallen off, the cliff over time t . This allows one to write the encounter volume, i.e.,
 143 the volume occupied by particles that were initially located outside of the cliff and that have
 144 reached the cliff by time t , as

$$145 \quad V(t; \vec{x}_c) = \int P_{en}(t; \vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_c) d\vec{x}_0, \quad (9)$$

146 where the integral is taken over all initial positions outside of the cliff.

147

148 2.2. 1D case

149 Consider a random walker who is initially located at the origin and who takes, with a probability
 150 $\frac{1}{2}$, a fixed step Δx to the right or to the left along the x -axis after each time interval Δt . Then the
 151 probability to find a walker at a location $x = n\Delta x$ at after $(m + 1)$ steps is

$$152 \quad p(n\Delta x, (m + 1)\Delta t) = 1/2[p((n - 1)\Delta x, m\Delta t) + p((n + 1)\Delta x, m\Delta t)]. \quad (10)$$

153 Using a Taylor series expansion in Δx and Δt , we can write down the finite-difference
 154 approximation to the above expression as

$$\begin{aligned} & p(x, t) + \Delta t \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \left[p(x, t) - \Delta x \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + p(x, t) + \Delta x \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + O(\Delta x^4) \right] = \\ 155 \quad & = p(x, t) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + O(\Delta x^4), \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

156 yielding a diffusion equation

$$157 \quad \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} \quad (12)$$

158 with diffusivity coefficient $\kappa = \frac{\Delta x^2}{2\Delta t}$.

159



160 A Green's function for the 1D diffusion equation without a cliff is a solution with initial
 161 condition $p(x, t = 0; x_0) = \delta(x - x_0)$ in an unbounded domain. It takes the form

$$162 \quad G_{unbounded}(x, t; x_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\kappa t}} e^{-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{4\kappa t}}. \quad (13)$$

163 A Green's function with the cliff (see Fig. 1 for a schematic diagram), for a solution to the
 164 initial-value problem with $p(x, t = 0; x_0) = \delta(x - x_0)$ in a semi-infinite domain, $x \in [-\infty; x_c]$,
 165 with an absorbing boundary condition at a cliff, $p(x = x_c, t; x_0) = 0$, can be constructed by the
 166 method of images from two unbounded Green's functions as

$$167 \quad G(x, t; x_0, x_c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\kappa t}} \left(e^{-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{4\kappa t}} - e^{-\frac{(x-(2x_c-x_0))^2}{4\kappa t}} \right). \quad (14)$$

168 It follows from (7-9) that the survival or non-encounter probability is

$$169 \quad S(t; x_0, x_c) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_c} G(x, t; x_0, x_c) dx = \text{Erf}\left[\frac{x_c - x_0}{2\sqrt{\kappa t}}\right], \quad (15)$$

170 the encounter probability is

$$171 \quad P_{en}(t; x_0, x_c) = 1 - S(t) = 1 - \text{Erf}\left(\frac{x_c - x_0}{2\sqrt{\kappa t}}\right), \quad (16)$$

172 and the encounter volume is

$$173 \quad V(t; x_c) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_c} P_{en}(t; x_0, x_c) dx_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{x_c} \left(1 - \text{Erf}\left[\frac{x_c - x_0}{2\sqrt{\kappa t}}\right]\right) dx_0 = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sqrt{\kappa t}. \quad (17)$$

174 The above formula accounts for the randomly walking particles that have reached the cliff from
 175 the left over time t . By symmetry, if the cliff was located to the right of the origin, the same
 176 number of particles would be reaching the cliff from the right, so the total encounter volume is

$$177 \quad V(t; x_c) = \frac{4}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sqrt{\kappa t}. \quad (18)$$

178 Note that formula (18) gives the encounter volume, i.e., the volume of fluid coming within radius
 179 R from the origin, in a reference frame moving with the reference particle, so the corresponding
 180 diffusivity in the right-hand side of (18) is $\kappa^{moving} = 2\kappa^{stationary}$.

181 2.3. 2D case

182 Consider a random walker in 2D, who is initially located at the origin and who takes, with a
 183 probability of $1/4$, a fixed step of length Δx to the right, left, up or down after each time interval
 184 Δt . Then the probability to find a walker at a location $x = n\Delta x, y = m\Delta x$ at time $t = (m + 1)\Delta t$
 185 is

$$p(n\Delta x, (m + 1)\Delta t) = 1/4[p((n - 1)\Delta x, m\Delta y, l\Delta t) + p((n + 1)\Delta x, m\Delta y, l\Delta t) +$$



$$+p(n\Delta x, (m-1)\Delta y, l\Delta t) + p(n\Delta x, (m+1)\Delta y, l\Delta t)]. \quad (19)$$

Using a Taylor series expansion in Δx , Δy and Δt , the finite-difference approximation leads to a diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \kappa \left(\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial y^2} \right) \quad (20)$$

with diffusivity coefficient $\kappa = \frac{\Delta x^2}{4\Delta t}$.

To proceed, we need an analytical expression for the Green's function of Eq. (20) with a cliff at a distance R from the origin, i.e., a solution to the initial-value problem with $p(\vec{x}, t=0; \vec{x}_0) = \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0)$ for the above 2D diffusion equation on a semi-infinite plane ($r \geq R, 0 < \theta \leq 2\pi$), bounded internally by an absorbing boundary (a cliff) located at $r = R$, so that $p(r = R, \theta, t; \vec{x}_0) = 0$ (see Fig. 1(right) for a schematic diagram). Here (r, θ) are polar coordinates.

Carlslaw and Joeger (1939) give the answer as

$$G(r, \theta, t; r_0, \theta_0, R) = u + w = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (u_n(r, t; r_0, R) + w_n(r, t; r_0, R)) \cos n(\theta - \theta_0) \quad (21)$$

where $r_0 (\geq R)$, θ_0 denote the source location, and

$$\{u_n, w_n\} = L^{-1} \left\{ \bar{u}_n, \bar{w}_n \right\} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma - iT}^{\gamma + iT} e^{st} \left\{ \bar{u}_n, \bar{w}_n \right\} ds$$

are the inverse Laplace transforms of

$$\bar{u}_n = \frac{1}{2\pi\kappa} \begin{cases} I_n(qr)K_n(qr_0), & R < r < r_0 \\ I_n(qr_0)K_n(qr), & r > r_0 \end{cases} \text{ and } \bar{w}_n = -\frac{I_n(qR)}{K_n(qR)} K_n(qr_0)K_n(qr) \quad (22)$$

$$\text{with } q = \sqrt{\frac{s}{\kappa}}.$$

The survival probability (from Eq. (7)) is

$$S(t; r_0, R) = \int_{R^2} G(\vec{x}, t; \vec{x}_0, R) d^2\vec{x} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_R^\infty \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (u_n + v_n) \cos n(\theta - \theta_0) r dr d\theta = 2\pi \int_R^\infty (u_0 + v_0) r dr. \quad (23)$$

Next, we take the Laplace transform of the survival probability and write it in terms of a Laplace variable s as

$$\bar{S}(s, r_0, R) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} S(t; r_0, R) dt = 2\pi \int_R^\infty (\bar{u}_0 + \bar{w}_0) r dr = \frac{1}{\kappa} \int_R^{r_0} I_0(qr)K_0(qr_0) r dr + \frac{1}{\kappa} \int_{r_0}^\infty I_0(qr_0)K_0(qr) r dr - \frac{1}{\kappa} \int_R^\infty \frac{I_0(qR)}{K_0(qR)} K_0(qr)K_0(qr_0) r dr. \quad (24)$$



210 Using $\int r I_0(r) dr = r I_1(r)$ and $\int r K_0(r) dr = -r K_1(r)$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x K_1(x) = 0$ we find
 211
 212 $\bar{S}(s; r_0, R) =$
 213 $\frac{1}{\kappa} K_0(q r_0) \left[\frac{r}{q} I_1(q r) \right] \Big|_R^{r'} + \frac{1}{\kappa} I_0(q r_0) \left[-\frac{r}{q} K_1(q r) \right] \Big|_R^{\infty} - \frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{I_0(q r_0)}{K_0(q R)} K_0(q r_0) \left[-\frac{r}{q} K_1(q r) \right] \Big|_R^{\infty} =$
 214 $\frac{1}{\kappa} \left\{ \frac{r_0}{q} (I_1(q r_0) K_0(q r_0) + I_0(q r_0) K_1(q r_0)) - \frac{a K_0(q r_0)}{q K_0(q R)} (I_1(q R) K_0(q R) + I_0(q R) K_1(q R)) \right\}. \quad (25)$

215 But $I_1(x) K_0(x) + I_0(x) K_1(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ so
 216 $\bar{S}(s; r_0, R) = \frac{1}{\kappa} \left(\frac{1}{q^2} - \frac{1}{q^2} \frac{K_0(q r_0)}{K_0(q R)} \right) = \frac{1}{s} \left(1 - \frac{K_0(q r_0)}{K_0(q R)} \right). \quad (26)$

217 From (8), the encounter probability $P_{en}(t; \vec{x}_0, R) = 1 - S(t; \vec{x}_0, R)$, and from (9) the encounter
 218 volume is

219 $V(t; R) = \int_{R^2} P_{en} d^2 \vec{x}_0 = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_R^{\infty} P_{en} r_0 dr_0 = 2\pi \int_R^{\infty} [1 - S(t; r_0, R)] r_0 dr_0. \quad (27)$

220 We now take the Laplace transform of the encounter number to get

221 $\bar{V}(s; R) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} V(t; R) dt = 2\pi \int_R^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{s} - \bar{S}(s; R) \right] r_0 dr_0 = 2\pi \int_R^{\infty} \frac{K_0(q r_0)}{K_0(q R)} \frac{r_0}{s} dr_0 =$
 222 $\frac{2\pi}{s K_0(q R)} \left[-\frac{r_0}{q} K_1(q r_0) \right] \Big|_R^{\infty} = \frac{2\pi R}{s q} \frac{K_1(q R)}{K_0(q R)} = \frac{2\pi R}{s^{3/2} \kappa^{-\frac{1}{2}} K_0\left(\sqrt{\frac{s}{\kappa}} R\right)}, \quad (28)$

223 where we used $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} dt = \frac{1}{s}$, $\int K_0(z) z dz = -z K_1(z)$, and $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} K_1(z) = 0$.

224 The explicit connection between the encounter volume and diffusivity is thus given by the
 225 inverse Laplace transform of the above expression (28),

226 $V(t; R) = L^{-1}\{\bar{V}(s; R)\}. \quad (29)$

227 Although numerically straightforward to evaluate, a non-integral analytic form does not exist for
 228 this inverse Laplace transform. To better understand the connection between V and κ and the
 229 growth of V with time, we next look at the asymptotic limits of small and large time. The small- t
 230 limit is transparent, while the long- t limit is more involved.

231 (a) small- t asymptotics

232 In the small- t limit, the corresponding Laplace coordinate s is large, giving

233 $\bar{V}(s; R) \sim 2\pi R \kappa^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{s^{3/2}} \quad (30)$



because $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{K_1(z)}{K_0(z)} = 1$. Noting that $L^{-1}\left\{s^{-\frac{3}{2}}\right\} = \frac{2\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{\pi}}$, the inverse Laplace transform of the above gives the following simple expression connecting the encounter number and diffusivity at short times:

$$V(t; R) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow 0} 4R\sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{\kappa t}. \quad (31)$$

(b) large- t asymptotics

In the large- t limit, the Laplace coordinate s is small and the asymptotic expansions K_0, K_1 take the form

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} K_0(z) = -\gamma - \ln\left(\frac{z}{2}\right) + O\left(\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^2 \ln\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)\right), \quad (32)$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} K_1(z) = \frac{1}{z} + \frac{z}{2} \left[\ln\left(\frac{z}{2}\right) + \gamma - \frac{1}{2} \right] + O(z^3 \ln z), \quad (33)$$

giving

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \bar{V}(s; R) = -\frac{4\pi\kappa}{s^2 \ln(\tau s)} - \frac{\pi R^2}{s} + O\left(\frac{1}{s \ln(\tau s)}\right), \quad (34)$$

where

$$\tau = \frac{R^2 e^{2\gamma}}{4\kappa}. \quad (35)$$

We now need to take an inverse Laplace transform of \bar{V} . The second term in the right-hand side gives $L^{-1}\left\{\frac{\pi R^2}{s}\right\} = \pi R^2$. Llewelyn Smith (2000) discusses the literature for inverse Laplace transforms of the form $(s^\alpha \ln s)^{-1}$ for small s . For our problem, the discussion in Olver (1974, Chap. 8, §11.4) is the most helpful approach. His result (11.13), discarding the exponential term which is not needed here, shows that the inverse Laplace transform of $(s^2 \ln s)^{-1}$ has the asymptotic expansion

$$L^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s^2 \ln s}\right\} \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} -t \left(\frac{1}{\ln t} + \frac{1-\gamma}{(\ln t)^2} + O((\ln t)^{-3}) \right). \quad (36)$$

Using $L^{-1}\{F(\tau s)\} = \frac{1}{\tau} f(t/\tau)$, we thus obtain the desired connection between the encounter number and diffusivity at long times:

$$V(t; R) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} 4\pi\kappa t \left(\frac{1}{\ln \frac{t}{\tau}} + \frac{1-\gamma}{(\ln \frac{t}{\tau})^2} \right) - \pi R^2 + O\left(\frac{t}{(\ln \frac{t}{\tau})^3}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{\ln \frac{t}{\tau}}\right). \quad (37)$$



Physically, the time scale τ (Eq. (35)) defines the time at which the dispersion of random particles, $D = 4\kappa\tau$, is comparable to the volume of the encounter sphere, ie., $R^2 e^{2\gamma} \cong \pi R^2$ in 2D. Thus for $t \gg \tau$, particles are coming to the encounter sphere “from far away.”

For practical applications, it is sufficient to only keep the leading order term of the expansion, yielding a simpler connection between encounter number and diffusivity,

$$V(t; R) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4\pi\kappa t}{\ln \frac{t}{\tau}} + O\left(\frac{t}{(\ln \frac{t}{\tau})^2}\right). \quad (38)$$

Note again that the diffusivity in the right-hand side of Eqs. (28-29), (31) and (38) is $\kappa^{moving} = 2\kappa^{stationary}$.

2.4. Numerical tests of the derived formulas in 1d and 2d

Before applying our results to the realistic oceanic flow, we numerically tested the accuracy of the derived formulas in idealized settings by numerically simulating a random walk motion in 1D and 2D, as described in the beginning of subsections 2.1 and 2.2, respectively. We then computed the encounter number and encounter volume using definition (2-3), and compared the result with the derived exact formulas (18) and (28-29) and with the asymptotic formulas (31) and (38). Note that although formulas (28-29) are exact, the inverse Laplace transform still needs to be evaluated numerically and thus is subject to numerical accuracy, round-off errors etc.; these numerical errors are, however, small, and we will refer to numerical solutions of (28-29) as “exact,” as opposed to the asymptotic solutions (31) and (38).

The comparison between numerical simulations and theory is shown in Fig. 2. Because the numerically simulated random walk deviates significantly from the diffusive regime over short ($< O(100\Delta t)$) time scales, the agreement between numerical simulation and theory is poor at those times in both 1D and 2D. Once the random walkers have executed > 100 time steps, however, the dispersion reaches the diffusive regime, and the agreement between the theory (red) and numerical simulation (black) rapidly improves for both 1D and 2D cases, with the two curves approaching each other at long times. In 2D, the long-time asymptotic formula (38) works well at long times, $t \gg \tau$, as expected. The 2D short-time asymptotic formula (green) agrees well with the exact formula (red) at short times but not with the numerical simulations (black) for the same reason as discussed above, i.e., because the numerically simulated random walk has not yet reached the diffusive regime at those times.

3. Application to the altimetric velocities in the Gulf Stream region

Sea surface height measurements made from altimetric satellites provide nearly global estimates of geostrophic currents throughout the World Oceans. These velocity fields, previously distributed by AVISO, are now available from the Copernicus Marine and Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS) website (<http://marine.copernicus.eu/>), both along satellite tracks



291 and as a gridded mapped product in both near-real and delayed time. Here we use the delayed-
292 time gridded maps of absolute geostrophic velocities with $\frac{1}{4}$ deg spatial resolution and temporal
293 step of 1 day, and focus our attention on the Gulf Stream extension region of the North Atlantic
294 Ocean. There, the Gulf Stream separates from the coast and starts to meander, shedding cold-
295 and warm-core Gulf Stream rings from its southern and northern flanks. These rings are among
296 the strongest mesoscale eddies in the ocean. However, their coherence, interaction with each
297 other and with other flow features, and their contribution to transport, stirring and mixing are still
298 not completely understood (Bower et al., 1985; Cherian and Brink, 2016).

299 Maps showing the encounter volume for fluid parcel trajectories in the region, and the
300 corresponding diffusivity estimates (Fig. 3) could be useful both for understanding and
301 interpreting the transport properties of the flow, as well as for benchmarking and
302 parameterization of eddy effects in numerical models. In our numerical simulations, trajectories
303 were released on a regular grid with $dx = dy \cong 0.07$ deg on 11 Jan 2015 and were integrated
304 forward in time for 90 days using a fifth-order variable-step Runge-Kutta integration scheme
305 with bi-linear interpolation between grid points in space and time. The encounter radius was
306 chosen to be $R = 0.3$ deg in both zonal and meridional directions, i.e., about a third of a radius of
307 a typical Gulf Stream ring. Similar parameter values were used in Rypina and Pratt (2017),
308 although our new simulation was carried out using more recent 2015 velocities instead of 1997
309 as in that paper.

310 The encounter volume field, shown in the top left panel of Fig. 3, highlights the overall
311 complexity of the flow and identifies a variety of features with different mixing potential, most
312 notably, several Gulf Stream rings with spatially small low- V (blue) cores and larger high- V
313 (red) peripheries. Although the azimuthal velocities and vorticity – to – strain ratio are large
314 within the rings, the coherent core regions with inhibited mixing potential are small, suggesting
315 that the *coherent* transport by these rings might be smaller than anticipated from the Eulerian
316 diagnostics such as Okubo-Weiss or closed-streamline criteria (Chelton et al., 2011; Abernathey
317 and Haller, 2017). On the other hand, ring peripheries, where the mixing potential is elevated
318 compared to the surrounding fluid, cover larger geographical area than the cores. Thus, while
319 rings inhibit mixing within their small cores, the enhanced mixing on the periphery might be
320 their dominant effect. This is consistent with the results from Rypina and Pratt (2017), but a
321 more thorough analysis is needed to test this hypothesis. Notably, the encounter number is also
322 large along the northern and southern flank of the Gulf Stream jet, with two separate red curves
323 running parallel to each other and a valley in between (although the curves could not be traced
324 continuously throughout the entire region). This enhanced mixing on both flanks of the Gulf
325 Stream Extension current is reminiscent of chaotic advection driven by the tangled stable and
326 unstable manifolds at the sides of the jet (del-Castillo-Negrete and Morrison, 1993; Rogerson et
327 al., 1999; Rypina et al., 2007; Rypina and Pratt, 2017), and is also consistent with the existence
328 of critical layers (Kuo, 1949; Ngan and Sheppard, 1997).

329



330 We now apply the asymptotic formula (38) to convert the encounter volume to diffusivity.
331 Because equation (38) is not invertible analytically, we converted V to κ numerically using a
332 look-up table approach. More specifically, we computed V for a wide range of κ 's spanning all
333 possible oceanographic values from 0 to $10^9 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ and we used the resulting table to assign the
334 corresponding κ values to V values in the left panel of Fig. 3. Note that, instead of the long-time
335 asymptotic formula (38) (as in our simulations), it is also possible to use the exact formulas (28-
336 29) to convert V to κ via a table look-up approach. However, because the exact formulas were
337 also derived under the assumption of a diffusive random walk, neither exact nor asymptotic
338 formulas would work well in regions with a non-diffusive behavior. The asymptotic formula has
339 the advantage of being simpler and it also provides for a numerical estimate of the “long-time-
340 limit” time scale, τ (see discussion below).

341
342 The diffusivity map that results from converting V to κ using (38) is shown in the top middle
343 panel of Fig. 3. As expected, it has the same spatial variability as the V -map, with large κ at the
344 peripheries of the Gulf Stream rings and at the flanks of the Gulf Stream and small κ at the cores
345 of the rings, near the Gulf Stream centerline and far away from the Gulf Stream current, where
346 the flow is generally slower. The diffusivity values range from $O(10^5) \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ to $O(10^7) \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$.
347 Using the 1971 Okubo's diffusivity diagram and scaling law,
348 $\kappa_{Okubo}[\text{cm}^2/\text{s}] = 0.0103 l[\text{cm}]^{1.15}$, our diffusivity values correspond to spatial scales from
349 10 km to 650 km, thus spanning the entire mesoscale range. This is not surprising considering
350 the Lagrangian nature of our analysis, where trajectories inside the small ($< 50 \text{ km}$) low-
351 diffusion eddy cores stay within the cores for the entire integration duration (90 days), whereas
352 trajectories in the high-diffusivity regions near the ring peripheries and at the flanks of the Gulf
353 Stream jet cover large distances, sometimes $> 650 \text{ km}$, over 90 days.

354
355 The quality, or skill, of the fit (38) varies greatly throughout the domain, with good/poor fit in
356 high-/low- V areas. This is because in the low- V areas, the behavior of fluid parcels is non-
357 diffusive, so the asymptotic diffusive formula (38) works poorly. This is illustrated in the top
358 right panel of Fig. 3, which shows the corresponding scales, τ (from Eq. (35)), throughout the
359 domain. As suggested by our 2D random walk simulations, the long-time asymptotic diffusive
360 formula works well when $t \gg \tau$, but in reality τ values are < 30 days ($1/3$ of our integration
361 time) only in the highest- V regions, and are $\cong 90$ days within the cores of the Gulf Stream rings.
362 This is further illustrated in the lower panel of Fig. 3, which shows the comparison between
363 numerical $V(t)$ (solid) and the fit (38) (dashed) for 3 reference trajectories (with large,
364 intermediate and small τ) that are initially located in the core, periphery and outside of a Gulf
365 Stream ring (blue, magenta, and green, respectively). Clearly, the long-time diffusive
366 approximation (38) is good/bad/completely fails for the red, black and blue curves, respectively,
367 consistent with the values of τ being small/intermediate/large for the 3 trajectories considered.
368 Thus, τ can be used to provide an important additional information about the time scales of



particle spreading, and to identify regions with non-diffusive behavior, such as the Lagrangian eddy cores where τ is longer than the trajectory integration time ($\tau > t$).

In the top panels of Fig. 3 we used the full velocity field to advect trajectories, so both the mean and the eddies contributed to the resulting encounter volumes and the corresponding diffusivities. But what is the contribution of the eddy field alone to this process? To answer this question, we have performed an additional simulation in the spirit of Rypina et al. (2012), where we advected trajectories using the altimetric time-mean velocity field, and then subtracted the resulting encounter volume, V_{mean} , from the full encounter number, V . The result characterizes the contribution of eddies, although strictly speaking $V_{eddy} \neq V - V_{mean}$ because of non-linearity. Note also that because we are interested in the Lagrangian-averaged effects of eddies following fluid parcels, V_{eddy} cannot be estimated by simply advecting particles by the local eddy field alone (see an extended discussion of this effect in Rypina et al., 2012). Not surprisingly, the eddy-induced encounter volumes (lower left panel of Fig. 3) are smaller than the full encounter numbers, with the largest decrease near the Gulf Stream current, where both the mean velocity and the mean shear are large. In other geographical areas, specifically at the peripheries of the Gulf Stream rings, the decrease in V is less significant, so the resulting map retains its overall qualitative spatial structure. The same is true for the diffusivities in the bottom middle panel of Fig. 3. The overall spatial structure of the eddy diffusivity is preserved and matches that in the top panel, but the values decrease, with the largest differences near the Gulf Stream, where some diffusivity values are now $O(10^6) \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ instead of $O(10^7) \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$. In contrast, κ only decreases, on average, by a factor of 2–3 (instead of an order of magnitude) near the peripheries of the Gulf Stream rings. The long-time diffusive time scale τ generally increases, and the ratio t/τ generally decreases throughout the domain, but the long-time asymptotic formula (38) still works well in high- V regions, specifically on the peripheries of the Gulf Stream rings where τ is still significantly less than t .

4. Discussion and Summary

With many new diagnostics being developed for characterizing mixing in fluid flows, it is important to connect them to the well-established conventional techniques. This paper is concerned with understanding the connection between the encounter volume, which quantifies the mixing potential of the flow, and diffusivity, which quantifies the intensity of the down-gradient transfer of properties. Intuitively, both quantities characterize mixing and it is natural to expect a relationship between them, at least in some limiting sense. Here, we derived this anticipated connection for a diffusive process, and we showed how this connection can be used to produce maps of spatially-varying diffusivity, and to gain new insights into the mixing properties of eddies and the particle spreading regime in realistic oceanic flows.

When applied to the altimetry-based velocities in the Gulf Stream region, the encounter volume and diffusivity maps show a number of interesting physical phenomena related to transport and



408 mixing. Of particular interest are the transport properties of the Gulf Stream rings. The
409 materially-coherent Lagrangian cores of these rings, characterized by very small diffusivity, are
410 smaller than expected from earlier Eulerian diagnostics (Chelton et al., 2011). The periphery
411 regions with enhanced diffusivity are, on the other hand, large, raising a question about whether
412 the rings, on average, act to preserve coherent blobs of water properties or to speed up the
413 mixing. The encounter volume, through the derived connection to diffusivity, might provide a
414 way to address this question and to quantify the two effects, clarifying the role of eddies in
415 transport and mixing.

416 Reliable data-based estimates of eddy diffusivity are needed for parameterizations in numerical
417 models. The conventional estimation of diffusivity from Lagrangian trajectories via calculating
418 particle dispersion requires large numbers of drifters or floats (LaCasce, 2008). It would be
419 useful to have a technique that would work with fewer instruments. The derived connection
420 between encounter volume and diffusivity might help in achieving this goal. Specifically, one
421 could imagine that if an individual drifting buoy was equipped with an instrument that would
422 measure its encounter volume – the volume of fluid that came in contact with the buoy over time
423 t – then the resulting encounter volume could be converted to diffusivity using the derived
424 connection. This would allow estimating diffusivity using a single instrument.

425 In the field of social encounters, it is becoming possible to construct large data sets by tracking
426 cell phones, smart transit cards (Sun, et al. 2013), and bank notes (Brockmann, et al. 2006). As
427 was the case for the Gulf Stream trajectories, some of the behavior appears to be diffusive and
428 some not so. Where diffusive/random walk behavior is relevant, it may be easier to accumulate
429 data on close encounters rather than on other metrics using, for example, autonomous vehicles
430 and instruments that are able, through local detection capability, to count foreign objects that
431 come within a certain range.

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433 1520825, and NASA grant NNX14AH29G.

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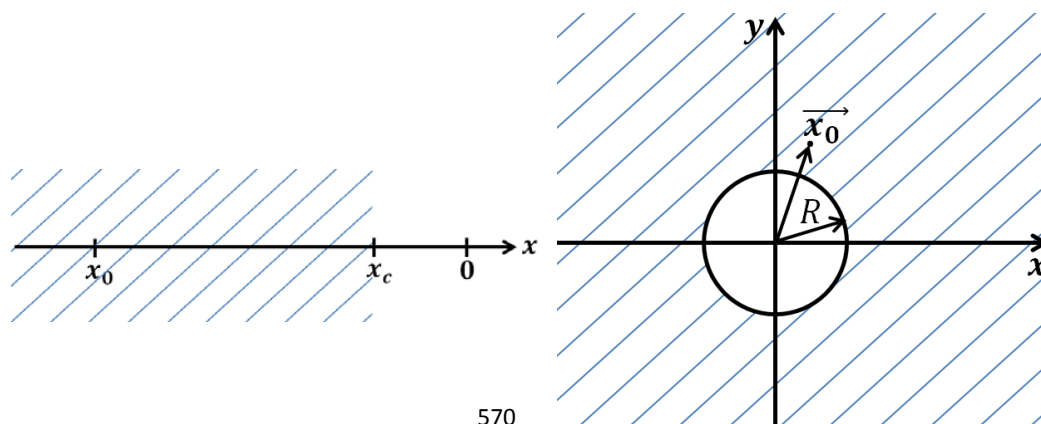
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571 Figure 1. Schematic diagram in 1D (left) and 2D (right). Hatched areas show semi-infinite domains outside of the cliff.

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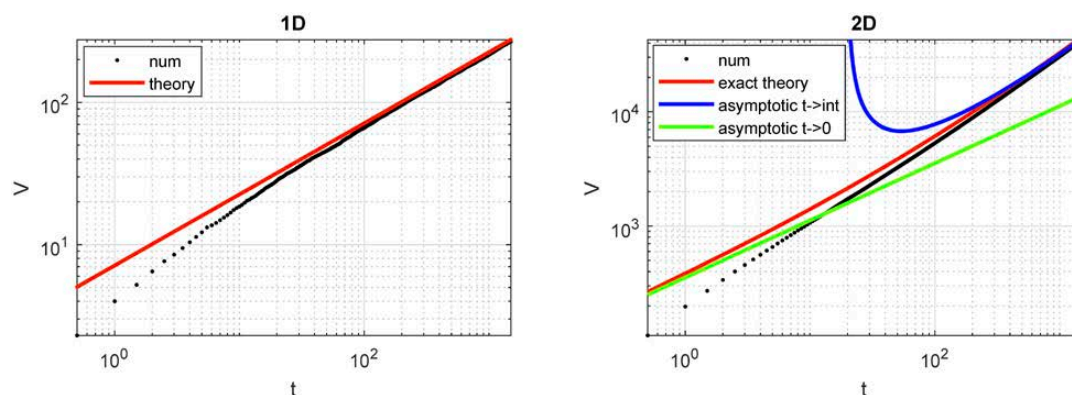


Figure 2. Comparison between theoretical expression (red, green, blue) and numerical estimates (black) of the encounter volume for a random walk in 1D (left) and 2D (right). In both, $\kappa = 5$ and $\Delta t = 0.5$. In 2D, $\tau \cong 20$.

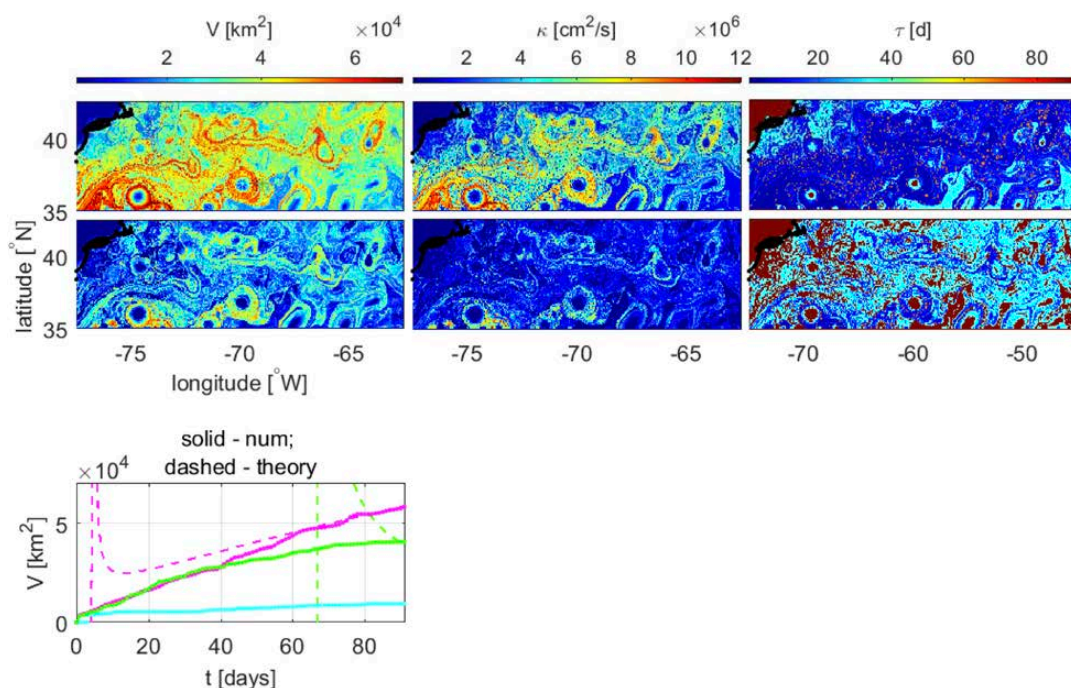


Figure 3. Encounter number (left), diffusivity (middle), and diffusive time-scale (right) for the full flow (top) and for the eddy component of the flow (bottom). The encounter volume was computed on 11/01/2015 over 90 days with a radius of 3° . The lower panel shows comparison between N and its asymptotic fit (38) for the 3 reference trajectories located in the core, periphery and outside (blue, magenta, green) of the Gulf Stream ring.