Drowsy Cheetah Hunting Antelopes: A Diffusing Predator Seeking Fleeing Prey

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We consider a system of three random walkers (a ‘cheetah’ surrounded by two ‘antelopes’) diffusing in one dimension. The cheetah and the antelopes diffuse, but the antelopes experience in addition a deterministic relative drift velocity, away from the cheetah, proportional to their distance from the cheetah, such that they tend to move away from the cheetah with increasing time. Using the backward Fokker-Planck equation we calculate, as a function of their initial separations, the probability that the cheetah has caught neither antelope after infinite time.

I. INTRODUCTION

Diffusion controlled reactions of three particles in one dimension can be completely understood by mapping the process to a single diffusing particle in a two-dimensional wedge \[1,2\], where the lines of reaction – the positions where two particles meet – correspond to the boundaries of the wedge. By this elegant method Fisher and Gelfand \[1\] investigated diffusing particles termed vicious walkers which annihilate on meeting, while Redner and Krapivsky \[3,4\] studied the equivalent capture reaction, where a single diffusing prey (‘lamb’) is eliminated on meeting one of two diffusing predators (‘lions’). One of the main properties of interest in these problems is the survival probability of all three vicious walkers or, equivalently, the single prey.

In this paper we introduce a three-particle system in one dimension consisting of two prey (‘antelopes’), surrounding a single predator (‘cheetah’). So far this is just another statement of the vicious walker problem with three walkers. Our model differs from the standard model, however, as follows. Besides performing a diffusive motion all particles are subjected to a drift which increases linearly with their position coordinate. Considering the case where both species have the same diffusion constant, the equation of motion for the antelopes \((A_1, A_2)\) and the cheetah \((C)\) with initial positions \(x_{A_1} < x_C < x_{A_2}\) is taken to be:

\[
\dot{x}_i = ax_i + \eta_i(t), \quad i = A_1, A_2, C \tag{1}
\]

where \(a\) is the strength of the drift. The Langevin noise \(\eta_i(t)\) is a Gaussian white noise with mean zero and correlator

\[
\langle \eta_i(t)\eta_j(t') \rangle = 2D\delta_{ij}\delta(t-t'). \tag{2}
\]

Equation (1) models the overdamped motion of three particles moving independently in an inverted parabolic potential. The calculation of the time-dependent survival probability for three vicious walkers in a conventional parabolic potential (i.e. with \(a < 0\) in Eq. (1)) has been presented elsewhere \[3\].

Studying the problem in the relative coordinates, \(y_1 = x_C - x_{A_1}\), and \(y_2 = x_{A_2} - x_C\), the equations of motion have terms linearly depending on these relative coordinates.

Therefore the antelopes are always drifting away from the cheetah, with a drift rate proportional to the distance from the predator. As a result, there is a nonzero probability that both antelopes wander off to infinity without meeting the cheetah if they are initially separated from the cheetah. Defining the process to be ‘alive’ if neither of the antelopes has met the cheetah, we find a nonzero survival probability \(Q(y_1, y_2)\) for \(y_1, y_2 > 0\). The aim of this paper is to calculate this survival probability, \(Q(y_1, y_2)\), in the limit of infinite time, given that the antelopes started initially at relative distances \(y_1\) and \(y_2\) from the cheetah.

To provide context for our result we consider first a cheetah and a single antelope. In section III the case of a cheetah surrounded by two antelopes is investigated by mapping the process to a single diffusing particle in a two-dimensional wedge. Section IV is a short conclusion.

II. A CHEETAH AND A SINGLE ANTELOPE

The dynamics of a cheetah \((C)\) and an antelope \((A_1 = A)\) is described by the Langevin equation (1) with noise correlator (2). The process terminates when the cheetah and the antelope meet, i.e. when \(x_A = x_C\). Setting the initial positions as \(x_A < x_C\) we introduce a relative coordinate \(y_1 = y = x_C - x_A\) which obeys the Langevin equation:

\[
\dot{y} = ay + \xi(t), \tag{3}
\]

where \(\xi(t) = \eta_C - \eta_A\) is a Gaussian white noise with mean zero and correlator:

\[
\langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle = 4D\delta(t-t'). \tag{4}
\]

The probability \(Q(y)\) that the antelope has survived in the limit of infinite time, given that antelope and cheetah started at a relative distance \(y\), satisfies the corresponding backward Fokker-Planck equation:

\[
a y \frac{dQ(y)}{dy} + 2Dy\frac{d^2Q(y)}{dy^2} = 0. \tag{5}
\]

Since the antelope is eliminated on meeting the cheetah, the survival probability has to vanish for \(y = 0\): \(Q(0) = 0\). If the prey is initially infinitely far from the
predator it will certainly survive, so \( Q(\infty) = 1 \). Solving the backward Fokker-Planck equation \(^3\) with the stated boundary conditions gives

\[
Q(y) = \text{Erf}\left(\sqrt{\frac{a}{4D}} y\right),
\]

where \( \text{Erf}(x) \) is the error function. This result will occur again in the next section as a borderline case.

### III. A CHEETAH SURROUNDED BY TWO ANTELOPES

In this section we investigate the infinite-time survival probability of two antelopes surrounding a cheetah. To address the problem in a simple way, we interpret the individual one-dimensional coordinates of the antelopes and the cheetah, \( x_{A1}, x_C, x_{A2} \), as the coordinates of a single diffusing particle in three dimensions, which are projected down to the diffusion of a single particle in a two-dimensional absorbing wedge in the space of relative coordinates. The boundary conditions imposed by the elimination process of the antelopes on meeting the cheetah correspond to the boundaries of the absorbing wedge.

The antelopes and the cheetah evolve according to the Langevin equation \(^2\) with noise correlator \(^2\). Mapping this process onto a single diffusing particle in a two-dimensional wedge, we use the relative coordinates \( y_1 = x_C - x_{A1} \) and \( y_2 = x_{A2} - x_C \). This diffusing particle now obeys the following equation of motion:

\[
\dot{y}_j = a y_j + \xi_j, \quad j = 1, 2,
\]

where \( \xi_j \) is the ‘relative’ Gaussian white noise defined by \( \xi_1 = \eta_C - \eta_{A1} \) and \( \xi_2 = \eta_{A2} - \eta_C \). The mean is zero as beforehand but the correlator now becomes

\[
\langle \xi_i(t) \xi_j(t') \rangle = \begin{cases} 4D \delta(t - t') & \text{for } i = j, \\ -2D \delta(t - t') & \text{for } i \neq j. \end{cases}
\]

Note that exactly the same equations for the relative coordinates are obtained if the individual coordinates obey the equations \( \dot{x}_{A1} = a(x_C - x_{A1}) + \eta_{A1} \), \( \dot{x}_C = \eta_C \), \( \dot{x}_{A2} = a(x_{A2} - x_C) + \eta_{A2} \). In this representation, the cheetah is only diffusing (hence ‘drowsy’), while the antelopes have both diffusive and deterministic (‘flight’) components to their motion.

To determine the infinite time survival probability of the equivalent single diffusing particle in two dimensions we consider the time-independent backward Fokker-Planck equation in the initial coordinates \( y_1, y_2 \):

\[
a \left( y_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial y_1} + y_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y_2} \right) Q(y_1, y_2) + 2D \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_1^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_1 \partial y_2} \right) Q(y_1, y_2) = 0.
\]

Since an antelope is eliminated on meeting the cheetah, the survival probability of the single random walker must vanish when \( y_1 = 0 \) or \( y_2 = 0 \), corresponding to the absorbing boundaries of a wedge with opening angle \( \Theta = \pi/2 \), in which the single random walker is diffusing, see figure \(^4\). If both antelopes are infinitely far from the cheetah, the survival probability will be unity, hence \( Q(\infty, y_2) = Q(y_1, \infty) = 1 \).

In order to reduce equation \(^8\) to a canonical form, a change of variables is required. The variables are first rendered dimensionless by the change of variables \( y_i = y_i \sqrt{a/2D}, i = 1, 2 \). Introducing the new variables \( u \) and \( v \) according to

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{y}_1 &= \frac{u + \sqrt{3}v}{2}, \\
\hat{y}_2 &= \frac{u - \sqrt{3}v}{2},
\end{align*}
\]

transforms equation \(^8\) to:

\[
\left[ u \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + v \frac{\partial}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v^2} \right] Q(u, v) = 0.
\]

![FIG. 1: The transformation to a canonical differential equation maps the right-angled wedge in \((y_1, y_2)\) coordinates to an axisymmetric wedge of opening angle \(\Theta = \pi/3\).](image)

The absorbing boundaries in the new variables \( u \) and \( v \) are at \( u = \pm \sqrt{3}v \). In the new variables, therefore, the wedge is symmetric about the \( u \)-axis and has an opening angle of \( \Theta = \pi/3 \) — see figure \(^5\). Because of the symmetry of the wedge, polar coordinates \((r, \varphi)\) are appropriate. Hence the time-independent backward Fokker-Planck equation becomes:

\[
\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2} + \left( \frac{1}{r} + r \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right] Q(r, \varphi) = 0.
\]

The boundary conditions reduce to \( Q(r, \pi/6) = Q(r, -\pi/6) = 0 \) and \( Q(r = 0, \varphi) = 0 \) at the absorbing boundaries of the wedge and \( Q(\infty, \varphi) = 1 \) for \(-\pi/6 < \varphi < \pi/6\) corresponding to the survival of both antelopes if they are initially at infinite distance from the cheetah.

The partial differential equation \(^8\) can be solved by separation of variables,

\[
Q(r, \varphi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n R_n(r) \Phi_n(\varphi),
\]
where the angular part \( \Phi_n(\varphi) \) is a cosine mode satisfying the angular boundary conditions,

\[
\Phi_n(\varphi) = \cos(3(2n-1)\varphi),
\]

and the coefficients \( A_n \) are to be determined by the boundary conditions.

Substituting the result for \( \Phi_n(\varphi) \) in (11) yields the following ordinary differential equation for \( R_n(r) \).

\[
r^2 R_n''(r) + (r + r^3) R_n'(r) - 9(2n-1)^2 R_n(r) = 0. \tag{14}
\]

By setting \( r^2 = \zeta \) and \( R_n(r) = \zeta^{3n-\frac{3}{2}} \rho_n(\zeta) \) this differential equation is transformed into

\[
\zeta \rho_n''(\zeta) + \left( \frac{1}{2} \zeta + 6n - 2 \right) \rho_n'(\zeta) + \frac{6n-3}{4} \rho_n(\zeta) = 0. \tag{15}
\]

This ordinary differential equation is related to the confluent hypergeometric differential equation (see 2.273(9) in reference [3]). Defining \( \zeta = 2r \) and \( \rho_n(\zeta) = \exp(-\sigma) \psi_n(\sigma) \), equation (15) reduces to the confluent hypergeometric differential equation, also called Kummer’s equation [3, 6]:

\[
\sigma \psi_n''(\sigma) + (6n-2-\sigma) \psi_n'(\sigma) - \left( 3n - \frac{1}{2} \right) \psi_n(\sigma) = 0. \tag{16}
\]

The solutions of this differential equation are known. The general solution can be written in terms of Kummer’s function of the first kind, \( M(a,b,z) \), and of the second kind, \( U(a,b,z) \), also denoted confluent hypergeometric functions of the first and second kind [3]:

\[
\psi_n(\sigma) = B_n M \left( 3n - \frac{1}{2}, 6n - 2, \sigma \right) + C_n U \left( 3n - \frac{1}{2}, 6n - 2, \sigma \right), \tag{17}
\]

where \( B_n \) and \( C_n \) are constants to be determined by the boundary condition. Note that we have introduced, for later convenience, a redundancy in the coefficients, having \( A_n, B_n \) and \( C_n \) when there are only two independent sets of coefficients. This redundancy will be removed below by an explicit choice of the coefficients \( B_n \).

Substituting all former transformations, the result for \( R_n(r) \) is

\[
R_n(r) = B_n r^{6n-3} e^{-\frac{3r^2}{2}} M \left( 3n - \frac{1}{2}, 6n - 2, \frac{r^2}{2} \right) + C_n r^{6n-3} e^{-\frac{3r^2}{2}} U \left( 3n - \frac{1}{2}, 6n - 2, \frac{r^2}{2} \right). \tag{18}
\]

The particular solution we are looking for has to vanish at \( r = 0 \) and approach a constant value for \( r \to \infty \) to satisfy the boundary conditions. The confluent hypergeometric function of the first kind is unity when its argument is zero, \( M(a,b,0) = 1 \), whereas the hypergeometric function of the second kind, \( U(a,b,z) \), diverges as \( z \to 0 \) for \( b > 1 \) which is the case in our solution, where \( b = 6n-2 \), since \( n > 0 \). Hence we set \( C_n = 0 \) in the solution so that it vanishes at \( r = 0 \).

Now we investigate the behaviour of our solution in the limit \( r \to \infty \). The asymptotic form of the hypergeometric function of the first kind for large arguments, \( z \to +\infty \), is [3]:

\[
M(a,b,z) \sim \frac{\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a)} z^{a-b} e^z. \tag{19}
\]

Hence the radial solution approaches a constant value for \( r \to \infty \):

\[
\lim_{r \to \infty} R_n(r) = 2^{3n-\frac{3}{2}} \frac{\Gamma(6n-2)}{\Gamma(3n-1/2)} B_n. \tag{20}
\]

To simplify the fitting to the boundary condition \( Q(r = \infty, \varphi) = 1 \) we eliminate the aforementioned redundancy in the expansion coefficients by choosing the constants \( B_n \) such that \( R_n(\infty) = 1 \) for all \( n \), i.e. we choose \( B_n = 2^{3/2-3n} \frac{\Gamma(3n-1/2)}{\Gamma(6n-2)} \). The coefficients \( A_n \) in Eq. (12) can be determined by imposing the boundary condition \( Q(\infty, \varphi) = 1 \), i.e. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos[3(2n-1)\varphi] = 1 \), for \( \varphi \) in the interval \((-\pi/6, \pi/6)\). This gives

\[
A_n = 4 \left( -\frac{1}{2} \right)^{n-1} \frac{\pi}{2n-1}. \tag{21}
\]

Finally we simplify the radial solution by use of Kummer’s formula [3]:

\[
e^z M(a,b,-z) = M(b-a,b,z). \tag{22}
\]

Then the solution for the infinite time survival probability of the single diffusing particle in a wedge becomes, in the dimensionless variables \((r, \varphi)\),

\[
Q(r, \varphi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-3n+\frac{3}{2}} \frac{\Gamma(3n-1/2)}{\pi(2n-1)\Gamma(6n-2)} \times (-1)^{n-1} \cos(3(2n-1)\varphi) \times \frac{r^{6n-3} M \left( 3n - \frac{3}{2}, 6n - 2, -\frac{r^2}{2} \right)}{2}. \tag{23}
\]

This sum is easily shown to converge since the summand \( a_n \) decays to zero faster than \( 1/n \) for \( n \to \infty \). For large \( n \), the confluent hypergeometric function approaches exponential function, \( M \left( 3n - \frac{3}{2}, 6n - 2, -\frac{r^2}{2} \right) \to \exp(-r^2/4) \). The asymptotic form of the quotient of gamma functions is given by \( \Gamma(3n-1/2)/\Gamma(6n-2) \approx 2^{-3n+1}(6n-3)^{-3n+3/2} e^{3n-3/2} \). In summary, the summand decays to zero for large \( n \) as

\[
a_n \sim \frac{2^{-6n+9/2}}{(2n-1)^{3n-3/2}}(6n-3)^{-3n+3/2,6n-3} e^{3n-3/2-r^2/4}, \tag{24}
\]

where the alternating signs and oscillating cosine functions have been omitted. Although the sum clearly converges, the computational equipment was not sufficient
to calculate the sum in general. Therefore, all plots of
the solution to be displayed in this paper are approximations including the first 30 terms of the sum, which is
sufficient in the chosen range, since, for example, the er-
or due to the absence of the next ten terms, up to term
40, is smaller than $5 \times 10^{-37}$.

To plot and analyse the infinite time survival prob-
bility we transform the solution back to the dimensionless
relative coordinates $\tilde{y}_1$ and $\tilde{y}_2$. In those coordinates the
result reads:

$$Q(\tilde{y}_1, \tilde{y}_2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} 2^{3n+3} \frac{\Gamma(3n-1/2)}{\pi (2n-1) \Gamma(6n-2)} \times \cos \left[ 3(2n-1) \arctan \left( \frac{\tilde{y}_1 - \tilde{y}_2}{\sqrt{3(\tilde{y}_1 + \tilde{y}_2)}} \right) \right] \times M \left( 3n - \frac{3}{2}, 6n - 2, -\frac{2}{3} (\tilde{y}_1^2 + \tilde{y}_1 \tilde{y}_2 + \tilde{y}_2^2) \right) \times \left( \frac{1}{3} (\tilde{y}_1^2 + \tilde{y}_1 \tilde{y}_2 + \tilde{y}_2^2) \right)^{3n-3/2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (25)

In figure 3, this function is plotted in the range $\tilde{y}_1, \tilde{y}_2 \in [0,8]$. The survival probability smoothly increases from

![FIG. 2: The infinite-time survival probability of two antelopes surrounding a cheetah, plotted against the dimensionless relative coordinates $\tilde{y}_1 = \sqrt{\alpha/2D(x_2-x_1)}$ and $\tilde{y}_2 = \sqrt{\alpha/2D(x_3-x_2)}$.](image)

zero on the lines $\tilde{y}_1 = 0$ and $\tilde{y}_2 = 0$ to form a plateau of
almost constant probability for $\tilde{y}_1 > 2$ and $\tilde{y}_2 > 2$ that
increases to unity at $\tilde{y}_1 = \infty$ and $\tilde{y}_2 = \infty$, corresponding
to certain survival when both antelopes start infinitely
far from the cheetah. Unfortunately Mathematica could
not calculate the sum for $\tilde{y}_1 \to 0$ and $\tilde{y}_2 \to 0$, but the
summand of equation (25) clearly vanishes when $\tilde{y}_1 = 0$ or
$\tilde{y}_2 = 0$ due to the vanishing of the cosine functions.

To study the survival probability further, it is also of
interest to consider the contour lines of figure 4 as shown

![FIG. 3: Contour lines of the infinite time survival probability of two antelopes surrounding a cheetah versus the relative coordinates $\tilde{y}_1 = \sqrt{\alpha/2D(x_2-x_1)}$, and $\tilde{y}_2 = \sqrt{\alpha/2D(x_3-x_2)}$. The different lines correspond to constant probabilities of 0.1 up to 0.8.](image)

in figure 5. Investigating those one easily recognises that
the function is symmetric about the line $\tilde{y}_1 = \tilde{y}_2$, as
it must be. Furthermore, in the limit of one relative
coordinate tending to infinity, say $\tilde{y}_2 = \infty$, the problem
with two antelopes simplifies to the problem of a single
antelope with a cheetah, which has been calculated in
section II. In the dimensionless variables, the result for
the survival probability of a single antelope and a cheetah is:

$$Q(\tilde{y}_1, \infty) = \text{Erf} \left( \frac{\tilde{y}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \right).$$  \hspace{1cm} (26)

Unfortunately, extracting this limiting behaviour ana-

![FIG. 4: The infinite time survival probability of two antelopes surrounding a cheetah keeping the relative coordinate $\tilde{y}_2 = c$ fixed at (bottom to top) $c = 2$, $c = 3$ and $c = 4$, where the top curve is already indistinguishable from the error function Erf.](image)
\( Q(\tilde{y}_1, \tilde{y}_2 = c) \) for \( c = 2, 3, 4 \), see figure [4]. The figure clearly shows how the sequence of curves approaches the error function expected for \( \tilde{y}_2 = \infty \), see equation [26]. The \( c = 4 \) curve lies on top of the error function, demonstrating the limiting behaviour.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper we introduced the interesting problem of a diffusion controlled reaction where, in addition to the diffusive motion, the particles are subjected to a separating drift. By mapping the process of two antelopes surrounding a cheetah to that of a single diffusing particle in two dimensions, we derived the probability that both antelopes have survived up to infinite time as a function of their initial separations from the cheetah.

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