

Generalized Sub-Gaussian Processes: Theory and Application to Hydrogeological and Geochemical Data

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1	Generalized Sub-Gaussian processes: theory and application to hydrogeological and
2	geochemical data
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10	Key Points:
11	• We develop the theoretical formulation of the Generalized Sub-Gaussian (GSG) model
12	for a general distributional form of the subordinator.
13	• The GSG formulations tested on laboratory- and field-scale data effectively capture the
14	observed scale dependence of increments' statistics.
15	• Our formulations can improve flexibility and accuracy of the GSG model, supporting its
16	applicability to a wide range of data.
17	

18 Abstract

We start from the well-documented scale dependence displayed by the probability distribution and 19 associated statistical moments of a variety of hydrogeological and soil science variables and their 20 spatial or temporal increments. These features can be captured by a Generalized Sub-Gaussian 21 (GSG) model, according to which a given variable, Y, is subordinated to a (typically spatially 22 correlated) Gaussian random field, G, through a subordinator, U. This study extends the theoretical 23 framework originally proposed by Riva et al. (2015a) to include the possibility of selecting a 24 25 general form of the subordinator distribution, thus enhancing the flexibility of the GSG framework for data interpretation and modeling. Analytical expressions for the GSG process associated with 26 27 (i) lognormal, (ii) Pareto, and (iii) Gamma subordinator distributions are then derived. We demonstrate the ability of the GSG modeling framework to capture the way key features of the 28 statistics associated with two datasets transitiona cross scales. The latter correspond to variables 29 30 which are typical of a geochemical and a hydrogeological setting, i.e., (i) data characterizing the micrometer-scale surface roughness of a crystal of calcite, collected within a laboratory-scale 31 setting under given environmental conditions inducing mineral dissolution; and (ii) a vertical 32 distribution of decimeter-scale porosity data, collected along a deep km-scale borehole within a 33 sandstone formation and typically used in hydrogeological and geophysical characterization of 34 35 aquifer systems. The theoretical developments and the successful applications of the approach we propose provide a unique framework within which one can interpret a broad range of scaling 36 behaviors displayed by a variety of Earth and environmental variables in various scenarios. 37

38 Plain Language Summary

Characterization of hydrogeological and geochemical systems aims at assessing the heterogeneity 39 and scale dependency exhibited by their attributes and the associated key statistics. It has been 40 shown that complex scaling features documented for the statistics of a wide range of Earth, 41 environmental (and several other) variables and their spatial/temporal increments can be captured 42 through a Generalized Sub-Gaussian (GSG) model. The latter relies on the subordination of a 43 Gaussian random field through a subordinator. This study extends the theoretical framework 44 originally proposed for the GSG model to include multiple choices of the subordinator distribution. 45 46 We provide the theoretical formulation and discuss the main features of the GSG model resulting from (i) a general form of the subordinator and (ii) three selected distributional forms. We show 47

48 the effectiveness of the GSG modeling framework for the interpretation of real data encompassing

49 a considerably wide range of scales by analyzing (*i*) a set of surface topography (roughness) data

50 collected on a calcite sample in a laboratory-scale geochemical setting; and (ii) a field-scale

51 distribution of porosity data, collected along a deep borehole within a sandstone formation.

52 **1 Introduction**

Geostatistical models adopted for the interpretation of key features of spatial heterogeneity 53 of quantities related to subsurface flow and transport processes consider available observations of 54 a variable of interest as samples from a random field with a given distribution. Analyses of a wide 55 collection of datasets of hydrogeological attributes, including, e.g., (log) hydraulic conductivity 56 57 and permeability (Liu & Molz, 1997; Meerschaert et al., 2004; Painter, 2001; Painter, 1996, Riva et al., 2013a, 2013b; Siena et al., 2012, 2019), electrical resistivity (Painter, 2001), and neutron 58 porosity (Guadagnini et al., 2015; Riva et al., 2015a) observations, clearly document the 59 occurrence of distinct non-Gaussian features characterizing their distributions. Notably, it has been 60 shown that spatial increments, $\Delta Y(\mathbf{s}) = Y(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{s}) - Y(\mathbf{x})$, evaluated over separation distance (or lag) 61 s (x being a position vector) of a given quantity Y are characterized by distributions displaying 62 peaks that become sharper and tails that tend to become heavier with decreasing lag. A similar 63 behavior, corresponding to distributions transitioning from heavy tailed at small lags to seemingly-64 Gaussian at increased lags, is documented by analyses of a variety of spatial and/or temporal 65 increments of environmental data, including sediment transport processes (e.g., Ganti et al., 2009) 66 and fully developed turbulence (Boffetta et al., 2008) as well as datasets of Earth, environmental 67 and several other variables (see Neuman et al., 2013 and references therein). Such a scale 68 dependence is directly imprinted to the associated (statistical) moments of increment distributions. 69

All of these evidences suggest that modeling the (spatially correlated) variability of *Y* through a Gaussian model is not generally warranted. With specific reference to the spatial variability of hydrogeologic quantities, a number of studies evidence that the heterogeneity of natural aquifers is generally more complex than what can be captured through a Gaussian model (*e.g.*, among others, with reference to hydraulic conductivity, Gómez-Hernández & Wen, 1998; Haslauer et al., 2012; Mariethoz et al., 2010; Xu & Gómez-Hernández, 2015 and references therein).

In this context, it is also noted that attributes/properties of porous media that at some scale 77 can be considered as composed by distinct facies/regions, each corresponding to a given material 78 characterized by an internal degree of heterogeneity, could be represented through multi-modal 79 distributions (see, e.g., Desbarats, 1990; Lu & Zhang, 2002; Rubin, 1995; Russo, 2002, 2010; 80 Winter et al., 2003 and references therein). The latter are representative of a conceptual (and 81 mathematical) model that views the otherwise composite nature of the system as a unique 82 continuum at the given scale of observation, natural variability within each region being 83 characterized by a statistical behavior of the kind described above. 84

Riva et al. (2015a, b) show that the above illustrated scale-dependent behavior of the probability density function (pdf) of ΔY can be captured through a Generalized Sub-Gaussian (GSG) model. This theoretical framework relies on the idea that the spatial random field $Y(\mathbf{x}) = \langle Y \rangle + Y'(\mathbf{x}), \langle Y \rangle$ and $Y'(\mathbf{x})$ being respectively the ensemble mean and a local zero-mean fluctuation, can be interpreted through the following model

90
$$Y'(\mathbf{x}) = U(\mathbf{x})G(\mathbf{x}).$$
(1)

Here, $G(\mathbf{x})$ is a zero-mean, Gaussian random field and $U(\mathbf{x})$ is a so-called *subordinator*, independent of *G*, consisting of statistically independent identically distributed (iid) non-negative random variables. The underlying Gaussian random field generally (but not necessarily) displays a multi-scale nature which can be captured, for example, through a geostatistical description based on a Truncated Power Variogram model (*e.g.*, Di Federico & Neuman, 1997; Neuman & Di Federico, 2003).

As opposed to mathematical models based on multifractals (*e.g.*, Boffetta et al., 2008; Frisch,
2016; Lovejoy & Schertzer, 1995; Mandelbrot, 1974; Monin & Yaglom, 1975; Veneziano et al.,
2006) or fractional Laplace approaches (*e.g.*, Kozubowski et al., 2006; Kozubowski et al., 2013;
Meerschaert et al., 2004), which have been employed to mimic the above-mentioned pattern of
increment frequency distributions, the GSG model enables one to represent jointly within a unique
theoretical framework the documented behavior (as described by probability distributions and/or
moments) of a quantity and its incremental values.

Riva et al. (2015a) provide the first analytical formulation of the GSG model, illustrating that the characteristic scaling behavior of the increments results from the decay of the correlation function of the underlying Gaussian random field with increasing lag. Riva et al. (2015b) illustrate 107 an approach for the generation of unconditional random realizations of statistically isotropic or anisotropic GSG fields in multiple dimensions. Panzeri et al. (2016) develop an algorithm for the 108 generation of GSG fields conditional to a given set of data. Siena et al. (2019) rely on the GSG 109 model for the interpretation of the spatial variability of a set of air permeability data collected 110 along a core of limestone. Guadagnini et al. (2018) present a 9-step procedure for the detection of 111 GSG signatures in a given dataset. Notably, theoretical developments and applications to date rest 112 solely on a lognormal distribution of U characterized by a single parameter, thus limiting the range 113 of possible applications of the GSG model. 114

115 The present study focuses on a generalization of the GSG framework by extending the formulation of Riva et al. (2015a) to include a generic subordinator. This enables us to enhance 116 the flexibility of the model for data interpretation and modeling by taking into account specific 117 118 features exhibited by the way statistics of a given dataset transition across scales. We then demonstrate the applicability of the general theoretical framework by considering a (i) two-119 parameter lognormal; (ii) Pareto; and (iii) Gamma distributional form of U and developing the 120 ensuing analytical expressions for the GSG process. We analyze in this context two datasets 121 associated with differing processes and observation scales. The first application includes direct 122 123 observations of µm-scale surface topography (or roughness) of mm-scale calcite crystals resulting from induced mineral dissolution. Calcite is a common mineral in the Earth's crust and is 124 125 characterized by significant dynamics of its surface, depending on environmental conditions (e.g. Fischer et al., 2012; Jordan & Rammensee, 1998; Noiriel et al., 2009, 2020). Acquisition of the 126 type of data we consider is subject to increased interest to characterize micro-scale geochemical 127 processes deriving from interactions taking place at fluid-rock interfaces (e.g., Bouissonnié et al., 128 2018; Pollet-Villard et al., 2016a, b and references therein). While the possibility of acquiring 129 these direct observations is continuously enhanced through the use of modern atomic force 130 microscopy and vertical scanning interferometry, statistical analyses of available datasets are still 131 limited to standard variography (Pollet-Vilard et al., 2016a). As an additional test-bed, we analyze 132 a vertical profile of neutron porosity data, collected along a deep borehole in a sandstone formation 133 and encompassing a vertical depth of about 1 km at a 15-cm resolution (Dashtian et al., 2011). As 134 these types of data are routinely available in (hydro)geological and geophysical subsurface 135 exploration, they constitute a remarkable dataset to assess the applicability of our statistical scaling 136 137 framework at such scales.

The work is structured as follows. Section 2 illustrates the key features of the GSG model and describes a moment-based method of inference of model parameters. The detailed original analytical formulation of the GSG model associated with a generic subordinator and the ensuing derivations for the three subordinators here considered are provided in Appendix A and B, respectively. In Section 3 we compare the performance of these three alternative GSG models for the interpretation of the two datasets illustrated above. Concluding remarks are provided in Section 4.

145 2 Generalized Sub-Gaussian model

146 2.1 Theoretical framework

147 Zero-mean fluctuations, Y', at two spatial locations, \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 , can be expressed as

148
$$Y'(\mathbf{x}_i) = U(\mathbf{x}_i)G(\mathbf{x}_i) = Y'_i = U_iG_i$$
, with $i = 1, 2.$ (2)

149 The bivariate pdf of Y'_1 and Y'_2 is (Riva et al., 2015a)

150
$$f_{Y_{1}',Y_{2}'}(y_{1}',y_{2}') = \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} f_{U_{1}}(u_{1}) f_{U_{2}}(u_{2}) f_{G_{1}G_{2}}\left(\frac{y_{1}'}{u_{1}},\frac{y_{2}'}{u_{2}}\right) \frac{du_{2}}{u_{2}} \frac{du_{1}}{u_{1}},$$
(3)

151 where $f_{U_i}(u_i)$ is the pdf of U_i and $f_{G_1G_2}$ is the bivariate pdf of G_1 and G_2 , given by

152
$$f_{G_1G_2}\left(\frac{y_1'}{u_1}, \frac{y_2'}{u_2}\right) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_G^2\left(1-\rho_G^2\right)}\left(\frac{y_1'}{u_1^2} + \frac{y_2'^2}{u_2^2} - 2\rho_G\frac{y_1'}{u_1}\frac{y_2'}{u_2}\right)}}{2\pi\sigma_G^2\sqrt{1-\rho_G^2}},$$
(4)

where, σ_G^2 is the variance of G and ρ_G is the correlation coefficient between G_1 and G_2 , which 153 typically decreases as the separation distance (or lag) $s = |\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$ increases. Starting from Riva et 154 al. (2015a), who developed the analytical framework for the specific case of a single-parameter 155 lognormal subordinator, we provide in Appendix A an original theoretical formulation of the GSG 156 model considering a generic distributional form of U. It is worth noting that, regardless the 157 distributional form of U, the variogram of Y' is always characterized by a nugget effect (see Eq. 158 A14), rendered by the product of the variance of G and the variance of U. This result implies that 159 nugget effects, which are typically considered to appear due to variability of Y' at scales smaller 160 than the sampling interval and/or to measurement errors, may in fact be (at least in part) considered 161 as a symptom of non-Gaussianity of the type embedded in the GSG theoretical framework. 162

The general framework introduced in Appendix A encompasses multiple possible 163 formulations of the GSG model: in this context, we evaluate three possible alternative models for 164 U, corresponding to a lognormal, Pareto, or Gamma distribution. Each of these models is 165 characterized by $N_P = 2$ parameters, respectively controlling the shape (*shape* parameter) and the 166 spreading (scale parameter) of the pdfs of the ensuing GSG formulation for Y'. Hereinafter, we 167 denote the latter as LN-GSG, P-GSG, and Γ-GSG for the lognormal, Pareto, and Gamma 168 subordinator, respectively. The theoretical formulation of each of these GSG models is provided 169 in Appendix B. 170

Equations (A7) indicate that the pdfs $f_{\Delta Y}$ of incremental values (ΔY) corresponding to 171 differing lags depend on (i) σ_G^2 and the N_P parameters of U; and (ii) ρ_G . While the former 172 parameters are constant for all lags, the correlation function of G is lag-dependent, thus imprinting 173 174 a scaling behavior, i.e., an intrinsic variability with lag, to the shape of the pdf of incremental values of Y', independent of the GSG model considered. This feature is clearly illustrated in 175 Figures 1a-c, where we depict $f_{\Delta Y}$ for selected values of the three GSG model parameters 176 (analytical expressions being collected in Eq. (B8)) and three values of ρ_{G} corresponding to short, 177 intermediate and large lags. The pattern associated with the behavior of peaks and tails of the pdfs 178 of Y' and ΔY can be described quantitatively by analyzing their standardized kurtosis, $\kappa_{Y'}$ (see 179 Eq. (A6)) and $\kappa_{\Delta Y}$ (see Eq. (A11)), respectively, deviations from Gaussianity being clearly 180revealed by the excess kurtosis, $\kappa_{\gamma'}$ -3 and $\kappa_{\Lambda\gamma}$ -3. As these quantities increase, the peak of the 181 pdf of Y' or ΔY grows sharper and the associated tails become heavier. Figures 1d-f depict the 182 excess kurtosis of Y', as well as of ΔY , as a function of ρ_G for selected values of the shape 183 parameter α (for the LN-GSG model, Fig. 1d), a (for the P-GSG model, Fig. 1e), and k (for the Γ -184 GSG model, Fig. 1f). Inspection of these figures, together with Eqs. (B7) and (B11), suggests that 185 for all GSG models (i) $\kappa_{y'}$ -3 and κ_{Ay} -3 do not depend on the scale parameter of the subordinator 186 and on the variance of G; (ii) for a given value of ρ_G , $\kappa_{Y'} - 3$ and $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3$ increase as the shape 187 parameter of U decreases; (iii) for a given value of the shape parameter, $\kappa_{\Delta Y}$ -3 increases as ρ_G 188 increases (or, equivalently, as lag decreases), i.e., the pdfs of ΔY transition with lag. One can note 189 that, in all cases, $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3$ exceeds zero by a significant margin at small lags (i.e., as $\rho_G \rightarrow 1$), even 190

for the largest values of the shape parameter of U considered. With reference to the LN-GSG 191 model, Figure 1d and Eqs. (B7) and (B11) highlight that there is a threshold value of the shape 192 parameter, corresponding to $\alpha_T = 2 - \sqrt{\ln 3} \approx 0.95$, such that (i) for $\alpha < \alpha_T$, the pdfs of ΔY are 193 characterized by lower peaks and lighter tails than those of Y' at all lags; while (*ii*) for $\alpha > \alpha_T$, 194 $\kappa_{\Delta Y}$ -3 is higher/lower than κ_{Y} -3 at small/large lags (see also Riva et al., 2015a). An analogous 195 behavior is exhibited by the results associated with the Γ -GSG model (Fig. 1f), the threshold value, 196 k_T , of the shape parameter being equal to 1.0. Otherwise, one can demonstrate analytically (see 197 also Fig. 1e) that $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3$ is always larger than $\kappa_{Y'} - 3$ at small lags for the P-GSG model, 198 regardless the value of the shape parameter *a*. Besides, the range of values of ρ_{G} for which (199 $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3 > (\kappa_{Y} - 3)$ (i.e., the range of lags where the pdfs of the increments display sharper peaks 200 and heavier tails than the pdf of Y') tends to increase as *a* decreases. 201

202 2.2 Parameter estimation methods

The Method of Moment (MOM) is a straightforward way to infer model parameters from a dataset. Here, we illustrate two approaches to estimate model parameters through MOM. These are respectively based on (*i*) sample statistics of the parent variable (Method A) and (*ii*) sample statistics of both the parent variable and the incremental data at multiple lags (Method B). Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 examine merits and drawbacks of these methods.

208 2.2.1 Parameter estimation Method A

Method A (henceforth denoted as MOM_A) relies on the marginal frequency distribution and associated moments of Y'. Estimates of GSG model parameters are obtained by replacing $\langle Y'^2 \rangle$ and $\langle Y'^4 \rangle$ in Eqs. (A3) and (A6) with their sample counterparts, $M_2^{Y'}$ and $M_4^{Y'}$, inferred from data. The shape parameter of U for the LN-GSG, P-GSG, and Γ -GSG models can be estimated by making use of Eq. (B7) as

214
$$\frac{M_{4}^{Y'}}{3(M_{2}^{Y'})^{2}} = \begin{cases} e^{4(2-\alpha)^{2}}, & \text{with } \alpha < 2 \text{ for LN-GSG} \\ \frac{(a-2)^{2}}{a(a-4)}, & \text{with } a > 4 \text{ for P-GSG} \\ 1 + \frac{4k+6}{k(1+k)}, & \text{with } k > 0 \text{ for } \Gamma\text{-GSG} \end{cases}$$
(5)

Then, by making use of Eq. (B5), one can estimate the product between σ_G and the scale parameter of $U(e.g., e^{\mu}, b, \text{ and } \theta$, for LN-GSG, P- GSG and Γ -GSG model, respectively) as

- 217 $\sigma_G^2 e^{2\mu} = \frac{M_2^{Y}}{e^{2(2-\alpha)^2}}$ for LN-GSG, (6)
- 218 $\sigma_G^2 b^2 = M_2^{\gamma'} \frac{a-2}{a}$ for P-GSG, (7)

219
$$\sigma_G^2 \theta^2 = \frac{M_2^{\gamma}}{k(1+k)} \qquad \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG.}$$
(8)

220 It is noted that the analytical expressions of the marginal pdf (as well as its statistical moments) of Y' for all GSG models are characterized by the scale parameter of the subordinator 221 being always coupled with the scale parameter, σ_{G} , of the underlying Gaussian process (see Eqs. 222 (B4) - (B6)). It then follows that the set of Eqs.(5)-(8) fully determines $f_{y'}(y')$, i.e., it is not 223 necessary to estimate σ_{G} and the scale parameter of U independently to determine $f_{Y'}(Y')$. As an 224 additional remark, it is noted that one cannot estimate ρ_{G} with the methodology here implemented. 225 226 As such, its application, while straightforward, does not allow ascertaining the degree of spatial correlation of the random field Y'. 227

228 2.2.

2.2.2 Parameter estimation Method B

Method B (henceforth denoted as MOM_B) yields estimates of GSG model parameters by relying jointly on sample statistics of Y' and ΔY . For any given lag, one replaces $\langle Y'^2 \rangle$, $\langle \Delta Y^2 \rangle$ and $\langle \Delta Y^4 \rangle$ in Eqs. (A3), (A8), and (A9) by their sample counterparts $M_2^{Y'}$, $M_2^{\Delta Y}$, and $M_4^{\Delta Y}$, respectively. Making use of Eqs. (B5), (B9) and (B11), the resulting systems of equations are

$$\begin{cases} M_{2}^{Y} = \sigma_{G}^{2} e^{2\mu} e^{2(2-\alpha)^{2}} \\ \frac{M_{2}^{AY}}{2M_{2}^{Y'}} = 1 - \frac{\rho_{G}}{e^{(2-\alpha)^{2}}} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \qquad (9) \\ \frac{M_{4}^{AY}}{(M_{2}^{AY})^{2}} = 3e^{2(2-\alpha)^{2}} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{e^{2(2-\alpha)^{2}} - 1}{e^{(2-\alpha)^{2}} - \rho_{G}} \right)^{2} \right\} \\ 234 \qquad \begin{cases} M_{2}^{Y} = \sigma_{G}^{2} b^{2} \frac{a}{a-2} \\ \frac{M_{2}^{AY}}{2M_{2}^{Y'}} = 1 - \frac{a(a-2)\rho_{G}}{(a-1)^{2}} & \text{for P-GSG,} \qquad (10) \\ \frac{M_{4}^{AY}}{(M_{2}^{AY})^{2}} = \frac{3}{2} \left[\frac{1}{a(a-4)} - \frac{4\rho_{G}}{(a-1)(a-3)} + \frac{1+2\rho_{G}^{2}}{(a-2)^{2}} \right] \left[\frac{1}{(a-2)} - \frac{a\rho_{G}}{(a-1)^{2}} \right]^{-2} \end{cases} \\ 235 \qquad \begin{cases} M_{2}^{Y'} = \sigma_{G}^{2} \theta^{2} k \left(1+k\right) \\ \frac{M_{2}^{AY}}{2M_{2}^{Y'}} = 1 - \frac{k}{1+k} \rho_{G} & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG.} \qquad (11) \\ \frac{M_{4}^{AY}}{(M_{2}^{AY})^{2}} = 3 \left[1 + \frac{1}{k} + \frac{(k+1)(2+k+\rho_{G}^{2}k-2k\rho_{G})}{k(k+1-\rho_{G}k)^{2}} \right] \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

Equations (9)-(11) allow estimating all parameters characterizing the joint pdf of ΔY , i.e., 236 (i) the product of the scale parameters of G and U, (ii) the shape parameter of U, and (iii) the 237 correlation coefficient ρ_{G} , which enables us to diagnose the dependence on lag of increment 238 statistics. We further note that relying on the joint use of Y' and ΔY data is recommended because 239 it leads to an (often considerably) augmented set of data upon which sample moments are 240 evaluated, thus improving the accuracy of the estimates. This approach yields a set of three 241 parameter estimates for each investigated lag. Riva et al. (2015a) document that MOM B provides 242 results of similar quality to those one could obtain upon relying on parameter estimation through 243 analyzing incremental data at various lags via Maximum Likelihood (ML). This element, together 244 with the high computational demand associated with ML, leads us to rely on MOM B for the 245 purpose of our analyses. 246

According to our theoretical framework (see Section 2.1), we expect that values of the shape 247 parameter and of the product between the scale parameters of U and G remain (approximately) 248 constant with lag. It then follows that an additional benefit of relying on MOM B, as opposed to 249 MOM A, is that it enables one to assess the consistency of the parameter estimation results with 250 these theoretical requirements. As already noted for the pdf of Y', the pdf of ΔY (as well as its 251 statistical moments) for all GSG models is also characterized by the scale parameter of U being 252 always coupled with σ_{G} (see Eqs. (B8) - (B10)). Therefore, the inability to provide unique 253 estimates of the scale parameters of U and G (while only their product is estimated) does not 254 hamper the use of the results of the analysis for further applications, typically involving 255 generations of a collection of realizations of a given random field to be employed in the context of 256 studies on flow and transport processes in a Monte Carlo framework. 257

258 **3** Application to laboratory- and field- scale datasets

The three alternative GSG models illustrated in Section 2 and in Appendix B are here considered for the characterization of the spatial variability of two datasets. These are selected to represent two differing observation scales, i.e., a laboratory- and a field- scale setting. Both systems are characterized by the availability of a considerable amount of observations, which is achievable with modern measurement techniques, and are therefore well suited for the analysis.

3.1 Micrometer-scale topography of a millimeter-scale calcite sample resulting frommineral dissolution

The first dataset we consider (hereinafter denoted as Dataset 1) comprises direct observations 266 of surface topography collected on a (104) calcite cleavage plan. While calcite is the main rock-267 forming mineral of limestones and has a key role in a variety of geological and biological systems, 268 its surface is characterized by remarkable dynamics when put in contact with aqueous fluid, which 269 are still not completely characterized, the (104) surface plane being very common in natural 270 settings. The sample consisted of a ~5mm-sized single crystal of calcite polished through a multi-271 272 step abrasive sequence. The initial arithmetic roughness of the surface was on the order of 50 nm. The sample was introduced in a mixed-flow reactor set-up. The crystal was subject to reaction for 273 8 days at room temperature and at a saturation index with respect to calcite of 0.8, corresponding 274 275 to conditions where dissolution occurs while the nucleation of etch pits is thermodynamically

impossible. Measurements of surface topography, (x, y) being spatial coordinates in the horizontal 276 plane, are collected by means of a vertical scanning interferometer (Zygo NewView 7300) with a 277 vertical resolution of 3 nm, on a two-dimensional grid of $N_1 = 250 \times 250 = 62500$ cells, with lateral 278 resolution $dl = 2.2 \,\mu\text{m}$. Additional details of the experimental set-up and procedure are offered in 279 Bouissonnié et al. (2018). The surface is characterized by a slight curvature, resulting from the 280 preliminary polishing of the sample. Mean-removed topography data, Y', have been obtained by 281 subtracting the best-fitting quadratic surface from the measurements. Figure 2a depicts the spatial 282 distribution of Y', the sample standard deviation being equal to $\sqrt{M_2^{Y'}} = 0.21 \,\mu\text{m}$. 283

284 3.2 Field-scale neutron porosity data

Dataset 2 is a collection of neutron porosity data sampled from a (km-scale) deep vertical 285 borehole in southwestern Iran. The data are part of a wider dataset comprising multiple wells, some 286 of which have been recently analyzed by Dashtian et al. (2011), Riva et al. (2015a), and 287 Guadagnini et al. (2015). The borehole considered here is drilled in the Ahwaz field (see Dashtian 288 et al., 2011), where oil and natural gas are produced from a sandstone formation. A large number 289 $(N_2 = 6949)$ of neutron porosity data collected at a uniform distance of dz = 15 cm is available. 290 The one-dimensional profile of mean-removed porosity data is depicted in Fig. 2b, the associated 291 sample standard deviation being equal to $\sqrt{M_2^{\gamma'}} = 8.35\%$. 292

293 3.3 Results and discussion

Figures 3a and 3b depict sample pdfs of Y' for Dataset 1 and 2, respectively. Depictions are 294 provided in linear and semi-logarithmic scales for ease of analysis. A slight bimodality and 295 asymmetry are exhibited by the pdf of porosity observations in Dataset 2, the pdf of surface 296 topography (Dataset 1) being left-skewed. A qualitative comparison (based on visual inspection) 297 between each of these sample pdfs and a normal distribution with the corresponding variance, $M_2^{\gamma'}$ 298 , (also included in the figures) suggests deviation from Gaussianity for both variables. This 299 qualitative result is also confirmed quantitatively by the outcomes of formal (Shapiro-Wilk, 300 Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Anderson-Darling) tests performed on randomly-sampled subsets of 301 302 data, which reject the Gaussian model at a significance level of 0.05 for both datasets.

We compute sample statistics of incremental data, ΔY , evaluated (i) along all directions in 303 the x-y plane for Dataset 1 and (ii) along the z axis for Dataset 2. The pdfs of ΔY at three diverse 304 lags (s = 1, 5, and 50 dl for Dataset 1; and s = 5, 50, and 250 dz for Dataset 2) are depicted in Figs. 305 4a and 4b, respectively. As a term of comparison, corresponding normal distributions with the 306 same variance are juxtaposed to the increment pdfs. These results illustrate that sample pdfs of 307 increments (i) exhibit the characteristic scale dependence mentioned in Section 1; and (ii) 308 progressively tend to distributions with lower peaks and lighter tails, resembling the Gaussian 309 distribution as lag increases, this feature being particularly evident for Dataset 2. 310

Figures 5a and 5b depict the dependence of sample values of $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3$ on lag for Dataset 1 311 and Dataset 2, respectively, dashed horizontal lines denoting values of excess kurtosis of the parent 312 variable Y'. For both sets, incremental data excess kurtosis is significantly larger than zero at small 313 lags. Excess kurtosis (EK) of (omnidirectional) incremental data associated with Dataset 1 314 decreases rapidly as lag increases and tends to attain a quite stable value of ≈ 3.5 at large lags. 315 Otherwise, values of EK for Dataset 2 tend to consistently decrease across the whole range of lags 316 considered, attaining values smaller than 1 (i.e., approaching a Gaussian distribution, consistent 317 with the qualitative result depicted in Fig. 4b) from s = 400 dz. 318

To provide an appraisal of the accuracy associated with the sample estimates of EK, we apply 319 a standard bootstrapping technique (Efron, 1992) to each set of incremental data. This procedure 320 relies on sampling (with replacement) from a collection of ΔY data related to a given lag a total 321 of *m* (here we set m = 10,000) sets, each characterized by the same number of elements of the 322 original collection of ΔY . The same procedure is then repeated for all lags considered. Figures 5a 323 and 5b depict the 95%-confidence intervals, CI, associated with the estimates of EK at four 324 representative lags. Uncertainties associated with EK estimates are (in general) negligible. 325 Threfore, we consider the observed overall decrease of EK with the lag to be significant for both 326 327 datasets. We note that $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3 > \kappa_{Y'} - 3$ at small lags for Dataset 1 (Fig. 5a), implying that frequency distributions of ΔY exhibit sharper peaks and heavier tails than does that of Y', whereas 328 the opposite behavior is documented at large lags. Otherwise, $\kappa_{\Delta Y} - 3 > \kappa_{Y'} - 3$ over the whole 329 range of lags considered for Dataset 2 (Fig. 5b). Considering the type of analyses documented in 330 Figs. 1d-f, the behavior observed for both datasets is consistent with our theoretical models for (i) 331 $0.95 < \alpha < 2$ in the case of LN-GSG; (ii) $\alpha > 4$ for P-GSG, and (iii) k > 1 for Γ -GSG. 332

Estimates of (*i*) the shape parameter and (*ii*) the product of the scale parameters of *U* and *G* (henceforth denoted only as *global scale parameter* for conciseness) obtained via MOM_A and MOM_B for each GSG model formulation are depicted in Fig. 6 (Dataset 1) and Fig. 7 (Dataset 2) as a function of normalized lag. These results are complemented by Table 1 where we list parameter estimates obtained via MOM_A, together with mean and coefficient of variation (cv) evaluated over all lags of MOM_B estimates, obtained for all GSG model formulations and both datasets.

Considering Dataset 1, results obtained via MOM B for LN-GSG (i.e., α in Fig. 6a and 340 $e^{\mu}\sigma_{G}$ in Fig. 6d) and P-GSG (i.e., *a* in Fig. 6b and $b\sigma_{G}$ in Fig. 6e) do not vary appreciably with 341 lag (cv \approx 2-3%), consistent with our theoretical framework. Otherwise, MOM_B estimates of k 342 and $\theta \sigma_{G}$ (Figs. 6c and 6f, respectively) associated with Γ -GSG are characterized by stronger 343 oscillations around an average value, as indicated by larger values of the corresponding coefficient 344 of variation, as compared to the other models. Nevertheless, values of cv range between 18% (for 345 the shape parameter) and 22% (for the global scale parameter), which (also in view of ubiquitously 346 present experimental uncertainties) can still be considered as a good approximation of the 347 constraints associated with theoretical requirements. Figure 6 and Table 1 also document that 348 MOM A estimates are consistent with their counterparts obtained via MOM B for all models. 349

Results for Dataset 2 (Fig. 7) obtained through MOM B generally reveal more pronounced 350 351 oscillations around a constant value and larger values of cv than those observed for Dataset 1, in particular considering the Γ -GSG model. We remark that the two considered datasets are 352 associated with differing dimensionalities (Dataset 1 and Dataset 2 being two- and one-353 dimensional, respectively) and considering that $N_1 / N_2 \approx 9$, statistics of incremental data for 354 Dataset 2 are evaluated on a much smaller sample of data as compared to Dataset 1. We regard 355 this as the main reason related to the (slightly) increased deviations from the expected theoretical 356 357 pattern.

We rely on the bootstrapping procedure mentioned above to evaluate the uncertainty associated with the GSG parameter estimates obtained via MOM_B. Figures 6-7 include depictions of the 95% CIs related to the GSG parameter estimates evaluated at four representative lags. The width of these intervals is in general very limited. The results obtained via MOM_A (see Table 1 and dashed lines in Fig. 7) tend to overestimate all parameters, as compared to their MOM_B-based counterparts (except for $\theta \sigma_G$ in Fig. 7f), a notable discrepancy between the two estimation methods being observed for the shape parameters of P-GSG (Fig. 7b) and Γ -GSG (Fig. 7c).

Results collected in Table 1 also evidence that estimates of the shape parameter stemming from the application of each GSG model to Dataset 1 are smaller than their counterparts related to Dataset 2. This finding is indicative of a stronger non-Gaussian signature in the former data set, a behavior that can also be inferred from the increased values of excess kurtosis exhibited by Dataset 1 (see Figs. 5a and 5b).

Figures 8a and 8b depict estimates of ρ_G as a function of lag obtained for Dataset 1 and 2, 371 respectively. These results show that the correlation function of the underlying Gaussian process 372 is quite insensitive to the choice of subordinator adopted in the GSG model, in particular 373 considering Dataset 1. Figure 8b suggests that the width of the 95% CIs for Dataset 2 is particularly 374 wide in the range of lags where the results associated with the three models do not overlap. This 375 observation suggests that differences observed between ρ_{G} estimates obtained with the three GSG 376 377 models may not be particularly significant in this dataset and can be related to effects of the limited size of this sample. This result (i) is in agreement with the theoretical framework according to 378 which the subordinator should be statistically independent of G and (ii) suggests that the 379 correlation structure provided by the underlying Gaussian process can be considered as a 380 distinctive signature of the system. 381

Figure 9 depicts sample pdfs of the parent variables (Figs. 9a, 9c) and their increments (Figs. 382 9b, 9d) corresponding to two separation lags included in Fig. 4 and presented here for the sake of 383 comparison against theoretical pdfs corresponding to the various GSG models considered. In these 384 plots, $f_{Y'}$ and $f_{\Delta Y}$ associated with GSG models are evaluated respectively on the basis of (i) 385 386 parameters estimated via MOM_A and (ii) the mean values of shape and global scale parameters obtained via MOM_B, $f_{\Delta Y}$ also including the lag dependent parameter, ρ_{G} , computed with 387 MOM B and depicted in Fig. 8. From a qualitative comparison between Figs. 9a-d and Figs. 3 and 388 4, it can be appreciated that all GSG models are generally in better agreement with the target 389 sample pdfs than the Gaussian model. The degree of similarity between sample and analytical pdfs 390 is quantified through the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence (Kullback & Leibler, 1951), D_{KL}. The 391 latter is a measure of the information lost when a given distribution is used to approximate a target 392

one. As such, smaller values of $D_{\rm KL}$ are associated with reduced loss of information. Considering 393 the pdf of Y', (i) for Dataset 1 we obtain $D_{KL} = 0.048$ (for LN-GSG), 0.013 (for P-GSG), and 394 0.071 (for Γ -GSG), thus suggesting P-GSG as the best among the models considered; (ii) 395 $D_{\rm KL} \approx 0.068$ for Dataset 2, regardless the subordinator employed. This latter outcome is consistent 396 with Fig. 9c, where all GSG pdf are virtually overlapping. Therefore, when considering Dataset 2 397 the sole analysis of the parent data population does not allow discriminating between alternative 398 GSG models. We finally evaluate D_{KL} between sample and theoretical pdfs of incremental data for 399 diverse lags. Figure 10a depicts D_{KL} versus lag for Dataset 1, Fig. 10b showing a corresponding 400 depiction for Dataset 2. These results highlight that, considering Dataset 1, the P-GSG model 401 provides the highest degree of similarity between sample and theoretical pdfs of increments at 402 almost all lags (s > 25 dl), and is consistent with the results obtained for the parent variable as well 403 as with those collected in Table 1 and Fig. 6. Considering Dataset 2, Fig. 10b suggests that the 404 three models provide results of similar quality for lags s > 200 dz, a feature that can also be noted 405 from the almost overlapping analytical results depicted in Fig. 9d for s = 250 dz. Otherwise, LN-406 GSG and Γ -GSG outperform P-SGS in the range 0 < s < 100 dz. This observation, in conjunction 407 with the analysis performed in Fig. 7 and Table 1, leads to favoring LN-GSG for Dataset 2. 408

409 Overall, our results support the ability of the GSG model to provide a theoretical interpretation of characteristic features associated with the statistics of both investigated datasets. 410 We note that having at our disposal these tools forms the basis to achieve the overarching goal to 411 quantify the way one can transfer the key statistics of a variable (and its increments) across scales, 412 with direct implications on uncertainty quantification. With reference to the spatial distribution of 413 surface roughness, these results constitute an important step to bridge across characterizions of 414 415 reactive phenomena at microscopic and laboratory scales. In this context, there is documented and growing interest in the application of statistical methods (Fischer et al., 2012; Lüttge et al., 2013; 416 Pollet-Villard et al., 2016; Trindade Pedrosa et al., 2019) to firmly ground the multiscale nature of 417 such processes on rigorous theoretical bases. The quality of our results is encouraging to promote 418 further studies targeting statistically-based descriptions of the temporal evolution of the surface 419 topography of calcite minerals subject to precipitation/dissolution processes acting at diverse 420 scales. We envision addressing this objective in the future by coupling our theoretical approach 421 with direct in situ observations through, e.g., time-lapse nanoscale imaging. In this context, 422

characterizing porosity of natural porous media has the clear potential to link geochemical 423 processes acting at small scales with descriptions of flow and transport at scales compatible with 424 a continuum description of the system. Hydraulic conductivity is intimately related to porosity. As 425 mentioned in the Introduction, statistics of its spatial increments have also been documented to 426 display a behavior consistent with what we have observed here for porosity. These concepts have 427 already been employed in the context of preliminary analytical and numerical studies of flow and 428 transport in porous media associated with such a statistical description by Riva et al. (2017) and 429 Libera et al. (2017). 430

431 4 Concluding remarks

We extend the Generalized Sub-Gaussian (GSG) stochastic model proposed by Riva et al. 432 (2015a) by providing theoretical formulations of the GSG for a generic subordinator U. Properties 433 of such an extended and more general model are analyzed and alternative formulations of the GSG 434 model, derived for three selected subordinator forms, are considered to interpret observations 435 associated with two datasets: (i) a set of observations characterizing the surface-roughness 436 resulting from the dissolution of a crystal of calcite, collected in a geochemical laboratory-scale 437 setting under given environmental conditions (Dataset 1); and (ii) a field-scale spatial distribution 438 439 of porosity data, collected along a deep borehole within a sandstone formation (Dataset 2). Our study leads to the following key conclusions. 440

1. For any subordinator type associated with the GSG, the analytical formulation of 441 standardized kurtosis, $K_{Y'}$ and $K_{\Delta Y}$, governing the behavior of peaks and tails of the pdf of 442 Y' and ΔY , respectively, does not depend on scale parameters of U and G. Values of $\kappa_{Y'}$ 443 and $\kappa_{\Lambda Y}$ increase as the shape parameter of U decreases, $\kappa_{\Lambda Y}$ decreasing as the separation 444 distance (or lag) at which increments are evaluated increases. Thus, GSG models are suitable 445 to capturing the extensively documented peculiar features of Earth and environmental 446 variable whose distributions transition from heavy tailed at small lags to seemingly-Gaussian 447 448 at increased lags.

The proposed theoretical framework successfully captures the main features of the distributions of the variables analyzed as well as their spatial increments. Results of statistical analyses performed on both datasets are consistent with theoretical expectations:
(*i*) estimates of shape and (global) scale parameters of the GSG models are nearly constant

with lag; (*ii*) the correlation coefficient (ρ_G) of the underlying Gaussian process decreases as lag increases, according to a trend that is almost insensitive to the type of subordinator considered. The latter results suggest that the correlation structure provided by the Gaussian process underlying the GSG field can be considered as a distinctive signature of the system behavior.

458 3. The Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence is adopted to evaluate degree of similarity between 459 theoretical (i.e., based on the various GSG model formulations) and sample Y' and ΔY pdfs 460 in each dataset. Our results indicate that the implementation of multiple subordinators within 461 the GSG framework can enhance the flexibility of the model and improve the accuracy of 462 the interpretation of statistical behavior of a given dataset.

The approach and theoretical developments we propose provide a unique framework within 463 which one can interpret a broad range of scaling behaviors displayed by a variety of Earth and 464 environmental variables in various settings. The successful demonstration we present imbues us 465 with confidence about research applications targeting hydrogeological and geochemical scenarios 466 upon leveraging on modern experimental investigation techniques leading to characterize natural 467 systems across a diverse range of scales. These include, for example, further experiments and 468 theoretical analyses devoted to the assessment of micro-scale reaction rates taking place at rock-469 liquid interfaces. 470

471



Figure 1. Probability density function, $f_{\Delta Y}$, computed for three values of ρ_G according to Eq. (B8) for the (a) LN-GSG; (b) P-GSG, and (c) Γ-GSG model, respectively. Excess kurtosis of (*i*) *Y'* (dashed lines) and (*ii*) ΔY as a function of ρ_G (solid curves) for three selected values of the shape parameter (d) α , (e) *a*, and (f) *k* for the LN-GSG, P-GSG, and Γ-GSG model, respectively.



Figure 2. Spatial distributions of zero-mean fluctuations, Y', of (a) (micrometer-scale) surface
topography data (Dataset 1); and (b) (decimeter-scale) neutron-porosity data (Dataset 2).



Figure 3. Sample pdf of Y' data obtained for (a) Dataset 1 and (b) Dataset 2 on semi-logarithmic and arithmetic (inset) scales. Gaussian pdfs with variance equal $M_2^{Y'}$ are also shown (dashed curves).





Figure 4. Sample pdfs of incremental data, ΔY , at three lags: (a) s/dl = 1, 5, and 50 for Dataset 1 and (b) s/dz = 5, 50, and 250 for Dataset 2. Gaussian pdfs with variance equal to that of the data sample are also shown (dashed curves).





Figure 5. Excess kurtosis of (*i*) Y' (dashed horizontal lines); and (*ii*) ΔY (symbols) versus (normalized) lag for (a) Dataset 1 and (b) Dataset 2; 95% CIs (evaluated through bootstrapping) associated with EK estimates at four lags are reported in red.





Figure 6. Dataset 1: Estimates of shape (a, b, c) and global scale (d, e, f) parameters of the GSG
model formulations obtained via MOM_A (dashed horizontal lines) and MOM_B (symbols)
versus (normalized) lag; 95% CIs (evaluated through bootstrapping) associated with MOM_B
estimates at four lags are reported in red.





Figure 7. Dataset 2: Estimates of shape (a, b, c) and global scale (d, e, f) parameters of the GSG model formulations obtained via MOM_A (dashed horizontal lines) and MOM_B (symbols) versus (normalized) lag; 95% CIs (evaluated through bootstrapping) associated with MOM_B estimates at four lags are reported in red.

		Dataset 1			Dataset 2		
		LN-GSG	P-GSG	Γ-GSG	LN-GSG	P-GSG	Γ-GSG
<u> </u>	MOM_A	1.34	4.14	2.10	1.86	9.05	46.12
Shape	MOM_B (mean)	1.43	4.36	1.76	1.56	4.96	3.96
parameter	MOM_B (cv)	0.02	0.02	0.18	0.04	0.06	0.48
Global	MOM_A	0.16	0.16	0.08	8.18	7.37	0.18
scale	MOM_B (mean)	0.15	0.16	0.11	6.88	6.44	2.12
parameter	MOM_B (cv)	0.02	0.03	0.22	0.05	0.02	0.30

Table 1. Parameter estimates obtained via MOM A; mean and coefficient of variation (cv) 507

evaluated over all lags of MOM_B estimates obtained for all tested GSG model formulations and 508 both datasets.

509

510



511

Figure 8. Estimates of ρ_{G} obtained via MOM_B for all tested GSG model formulations versus 512

(normalized) lag for (a) Dataset 1 and (b) Dataset 2; 95% CIs (evaluated through bootstrapping) 513 associated with $\rho_{\scriptscriptstyle G}$ estimates at four lags are also shown. 514



517 **Figure 9.** Sample pdfs (symbols) of Y' and of ΔY at two selected lags for Dataset 1 (a, b) and 518 Dataset 2 (c, d). Theoretical distributions $f_{Y'}$ and $f_{\Delta Y}$ (Eqs. (B4) and (B8)) computed by using 519 model parameters estimated via MOM A (a, c) and MOM B (b, d) are also shown.





521 **Figure 10.** Kullback-Leibler divergence, D_{KL} , between sample and analytical pdfs of ΔY versus

522 (normalized) lag for (a) Dataset 1 and (b) Dataset 2.

Appendix A: Analytical formulation of the GSG model for a general distributional form of the subordinator

527 The theoretical framework of the GSG model is here presented considering a general 528 distributional form of the subordinator. We do so by deriving the analytical expressions of (*i*) pdf, 529 statistical moments and standardized kurtosis of the parent variable Y'; (*ii*) pdf, statistical moments 530 and standardized kurtosis of increments, ΔY , as a function of separation lag; (*iii*) covariance and 531 variogram functions as well as integral scale of Y'.

532 Substituting Eq. (4) into Eq. (3) yields

533
$$f_{Y_1',Y_2'}(y_1',y_2') = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_G^2\sqrt{1-\rho_G^2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} f_{U_1}(u_1) f_{U_2}(u_2) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_G^2(1-\rho_G^2)} \left(\frac{y_1'^2}{u_1^2} + \frac{y_2'^2}{u_2^2} - 2\rho_G \frac{y_1'}{u_1} + \frac{y_2'}{u_2}\right)} \frac{du_2}{u_2} \frac{du_1}{u_1}.$$
 (A1)

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534 The marginal pdf of
$$Y'$$
 can then been obtained from Eq. (A1) as

535
$$f_{Y'}(y') = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y'_1,Y'_2}(y'_1,y'_2=y') dy'_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_G}} \int_{0}^{\infty} f_U(u) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_G^2} \frac{y'^2}{u^2}} \frac{du}{u}.$$
 (A2)

All odd-order statistical moments of Y' identically vanish, whereas variance, kurtosis and (in general) *q*-th even order moments can be respectively expressed as

538
$$\left\langle Y'^{2}\right\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y'^{2} f_{Y'}(y') dy' = \sigma_{G}^{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} u^{2} f_{U}(u) du = \sigma_{G}^{2} \left\langle U^{2} \right\rangle,$$
 (A3)

539
$$\langle Y'^4 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y'^4 f_{Y'}(y') dy' = 3\sigma_G^4 \int_{0}^{\infty} u^4 f_U(u) du = 3\sigma_G^4 \langle U^4 \rangle,$$
 (A4)

540
$$\langle Y'^q \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y'^q f_{Y'}(y') dy' = \frac{2^{\frac{q}{2}}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \Gamma\left(\frac{1+q}{2}\right) \sigma_G^q \int_0^{\infty} u^q f_U(u) du = \langle G^q \rangle \langle U^q \rangle.$$
 (A5)

541 The standardized kurtosis of Y' is then given by

542
$$\kappa_{Y'} = \frac{\langle Y'^4 \rangle}{\langle Y'^2 \rangle^2} = \frac{3 \langle U^4 \rangle}{\langle U^2 \rangle^2}$$
(A6)

543 and depends only on the subordinator (and not on G).

544 The pdf of incremental values, $\Delta Y(\mathbf{s}) = Y'(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{s}) - Y'(\mathbf{x})$, can be evaluated as

545
$$f_{\Delta Y}(\Delta y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y_1Y_2'}(\Delta y + y_2', y_2') dy_2' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_G}} \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} f_{U_1}(u_1) f_{U_2}(u_2) \frac{e^{-\frac{\Delta y^2}{2\sigma_G^2 r^2}}}{r} du_2 du_1,$$
(A7)

546 with $r = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 - 2\rho_G u_1 u_2}$. Odd-order moments of ΔY are identically zero, whereas variance, 547 kurtosis, and moments of even order *q* can be respectively expressed as

548 $\langle \Delta Y^2 \rangle = \sigma_G^2 \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^2 f_{U_1}(u_1) f_{U_2}(u_2) du_2 du_1 = 2\sigma_G^2 \Big[\langle U^2 \rangle - \langle U \rangle^2 \rho_G \Big],$

549
$$\langle \Delta Y^4 \rangle = 3\sigma_G^4 \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^4 f_{U_1}(u_1) f_{U_2}(u_2) du_2 du_1 = 6\sigma_G^4 \Big[\langle U^4 \rangle - 4 \langle U^3 \rangle \langle U \rangle \rho_G + \langle U^2 \rangle^2 (1 + 2\rho_G^2) \Big],$$
 (A9)

(A8)

$$\left\langle \Delta Y^{q} \right\rangle = \frac{\sigma_{G}^{q}}{\sqrt{\pi}} 2^{\frac{q}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{q+1}{2}\right) \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^{q} f_{U_{1}}\left(u_{1}\right) f_{U_{2}}\left(u_{2}\right) du_{2} du_{1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{q} (-1)^{q-k} {\binom{q}{k}} \left\langle U^{k} \right\rangle \left\langle U^{q-k} \right\rangle \left\langle G(x)^{k} G(x+s)^{q-k} \right\rangle.$$
(A10)

551

The standardized kurtosis of ΔY is derived from Eqs. (A8) and (A9) as

552
$$\kappa_{\Delta Y} = \frac{\left\langle \Delta Y^{4} \right\rangle}{\left\langle \Delta Y^{2} \right\rangle^{2}} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\left\langle U^{4} \right\rangle - 4\left\langle U^{3} \right\rangle \left\langle U \right\rangle \rho_{G} + \left\langle U^{2} \right\rangle^{2} \left(1 + 2\rho_{G}^{2}\right)}{\left[\left\langle U^{2} \right\rangle - \left\langle U \right\rangle^{2} \rho_{G}\right]^{2}},$$
(A11)

the latter depending on the subordinator and on the correlation coefficient ρ_G (but not on σ_G^2).

554 The Covariance of Y' between two points \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 is

555

$$C_{Y'}(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}) = \langle Y'(\mathbf{x}_{1}) Y'(\mathbf{x}_{2}) \rangle$$

$$= \langle U(\mathbf{x}_{1}) U(\mathbf{x}_{2}) \rangle \langle G(\mathbf{x}_{1}) G(\mathbf{x}_{2}) \rangle = \langle U(\mathbf{x}_{1}) U(\mathbf{x}_{2}) \rangle \sigma_{G}^{2} \rho_{G}(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}).$$
(A12)

556 From Eq. (A12), one derives

557
$$C_{Y'}(0) = \sigma_{Y'}^2 = \langle U^2 \rangle \sigma_G^2, \qquad C_{Y'}(s > 0) = \langle U \rangle^2 \sigma_G^2 \rho_G. \qquad (A13)$$

Note that according to Eq. (A13) the covariance $C_{Y'}$ of the Sub-Gaussian field is discontinuous at the origin, i.e., at s = 0, thus exhibiting a nugget effect. The variogram of Y' can be evaluated from Eq. (A8) as

561
$$\gamma_{Y'} = \frac{\left\langle \Delta Y^2 \right\rangle}{2} = \sigma_G^2 \left[\left\langle U^2 \right\rangle - \left\langle U \right\rangle^2 \rho_G \right] = \sigma_G^2 \left[\sigma_U^2 + \left\langle U \right\rangle^2 - \left\langle U \right\rangle^2 \rho_G \right] = \sigma_G^2 \sigma_U^2 + \left\langle U \right\rangle^2 \gamma_G$$
(A14)

and is characterized by a nugget effect, quantified by $\sigma_G^2 \sigma_U^2$, $\gamma_G = \sigma_G^2 (1 - \rho_G)$ and σ_U^2 being the variogram of *G* and the variance of *U*, respectively.

564 The integral scale of Y' can be obtained by making use of Eq.(A12) as

565
$$I_{Y'} = \frac{\langle U \rangle^2}{\langle U^2 \rangle} I_G = \frac{\langle U \rangle^2}{\sigma_U^2 + \langle U \rangle^2} I_G,$$
(A15)

so that one can recognize that $0 < I_{Y'} < I_G$, independent of the type of subordinator considered. An increase of σ_U^2 results in a decrease of the (integral) correlation scale of Y'.

568

569 Appendix B: GSG formulation for lognormal, Pareto, and Gamma distribution of U

570 Here, we consider U_1 and U_2 to be described by (*i*) a lognormal distribution, 571 $U_i \sim \ln N(\mu, (2-\alpha)^2)$, (*ii*) a Pareto distribution, $U_i \sim PD(a,b)$, and (*iii*) a Gamma distribution,

572
$$U_i \sim \Gamma(k, \theta)$$
, i.e.,

573
$$f_{U_i}(u_i) = \frac{e^{-\frac{(\ln u_i - \mu)^2}{2(2 - \alpha)^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}u_i(2 - \alpha)} \quad \text{with } \alpha < 2 \ ; \ u_i \in (0, +\infty)$$
(B1a)

574
$$f_{U_i}(u_i) = \frac{ab^a}{u^{a+1}}$$
 with $a > 0; b > 0; u_i \in [b, +\infty)$ (B1b)

575
$$f_{U_i}(u_i) = \frac{u_i^{k-1} e^{-\frac{u_i}{\theta}}}{\Gamma(k) \theta^k}$$
 with $k > 0; \ \theta > 0; \ u_i \in (0, +\infty); \ \Gamma(k) = \int_0^\infty x^{k-1} e^{-x} dx$ (B1c)

576 here, $i = 1, 2; \alpha, a$, and k are shape parameters, while e^{μ} , b, and θ are scale parameters. Note that 577 the exponential distribution can be obtained from Eq. (B1c) by setting k = 1.

578 The *q*-th order raw moment of
$$U$$
 is

$$579 \qquad \left\langle U^{q} \right\rangle = \begin{cases} e^{q\mu + \frac{q^{2}}{2}(2-\alpha)^{2}} & \text{if } U_{i} \sim \ln N\left(\mu, (2-\alpha)^{2}\right), \\ \frac{ab^{q}}{a-q} & \text{if } U_{i} \sim PD(a,b), \\ \frac{\Gamma(k+q)\theta^{q}}{\Gamma(k)} & \text{if } U_{i} \sim \Gamma(k,\theta), \end{cases}$$
(B2)

the variance being equal to 580

$$\sigma_{U}^{2} = \begin{cases} e^{2\mu + (2-\alpha)^{2}} \left(e^{(2-\alpha)^{2}} - 1 \right) & \text{if } U_{i} \sim \ln N \left(\mu, (2-\alpha)^{2} \right), \\ ab^{2} / \left[(a-1)^{2} (a-2) \right] & \text{if } U_{i} \sim PD(a,b), \\ k\theta^{2} & \text{if } U_{i} \sim \Gamma(k,\theta). \end{cases}$$
(B3)

As specified in Section 2.2, the application of Method of Moment (MOM) requires U_i to 582 have finite raw moments up to order $q = 2N_P$ (thus implying a > 4 in (B2)). 583

Substituting Eq. (B1) into Eq. (A2) yields the following marginal pdf of Y'584

585
$$f_{Y'}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_{G} e^{\mu} (2-\alpha)} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{\ln u}{2-\alpha} \right)^{2} + \left(\frac{y}{\sigma_{G} e^{\mu} u} \right)^{2} \right]} \frac{du}{u^{2}} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ \frac{a}{\sqrt{2\pi} (b\sigma_{G})^{-a}} \int_{b\sigma_{G}}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y}{u} \right)^{2}} \frac{du}{u^{a+2}} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma_{G} \theta \Gamma(k)} \int_{0}^{\infty} u^{k-2} e^{-\left[u + \frac{y^{2}}{2\sigma_{G}^{2} \theta^{2} u^{2}} \right]} du & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG.} \end{cases}$$
(B4)

586

Note that LN-GSG coincides with a normal-lognormal distribution (NLN) when $\mu = 0$. The latter has been shown to well represent some financial (Clark, 1973) and environmental 587 (Guadagnini et al., 2015) data. Making use of Eqs. (A3) - (A4) and (B4), variance, kurtosis and 588 standardized kurtosis of Y' are respectively given by 589

590
$$\langle Y'^2 \rangle = \sigma_G^2 \begin{cases} e^{2\mu} e^{2(2-\alpha)^2} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ b^2 \frac{a}{a-2} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ \theta^2 k (1+k) & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG.} \end{cases}$$
 (B5)

591
$$\langle Y'^4 \rangle = 3\sigma_G^2 \begin{cases} e^{4\mu}e^{8(2-\alpha)^2} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ b^4 \frac{a}{a-4} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ \theta^4 \prod_{i=0}^3 (k+i) & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG,} \end{cases}$$
 (B6)

592
$$\kappa_{Y'} = 3 \begin{cases} e^{4(2-\alpha)^2} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ \frac{(a-2)^2}{a(a-4)} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ 1 + \frac{4k+6}{k(k+1)} & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG.} \end{cases}$$
 (B7)

Substituting Eq. (B1) into Eq. (A7) yields the following expressions for the pdf of ΔY

$$f_{\Delta Y} \left(\Delta y \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2\pi^{2} (2-\alpha)^{2} \sigma_{G} e^{\mu}} \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{(2-\alpha)^{2}} (\ln^{2} u_{1} + \ln^{2} u_{2}) + \frac{\Delta y^{2}}{\sigma_{G}^{2} e^{2\mu} r^{2}} \right]} \frac{du_{2} du_{1}}{u_{2} u_{1} r} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ \frac{a^{2}}{\sqrt{\pi} (b\sigma_{G})^{-2a}} \int_{\sigma_{G} b}^{\infty} \int_{\sigma_{G} b}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta y^{2}}{r^{2}}} \frac{du_{2} du_{1}}{u_{1}^{a+1} u_{2}^{a+1} r} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} (\sigma_{G} \theta)^{2k}} \Gamma^{2} (k) \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} (u_{1} u_{2})^{k-1} e^{-\left[\frac{1}{\sigma_{G} \theta} (u_{1} + u_{2}) + \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\Delta y^{2}}{2}\right]} \frac{du_{2} du_{1}}{r} & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG,} \end{cases}$$
(B8)

595 with $r = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 - 2\rho_G u_1 u_2}$.

596 Making use of Eqs. (A8)-(A11) and (B2), variance, kurtosis and standardized kurtosis of ΔY are 597 respectively given by

598
$$\langle \Delta Y^2 \rangle = 2\sigma_G^2 \begin{cases} e^{2\mu} e^{(2-\alpha)^2} \left[e^{(2-\alpha)^2} - \rho_G \right] & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ b^2 a \left[\frac{1}{a-2} - \frac{a\rho_G}{(a-1)^2} \right] & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ k\theta^2 \left[1 + k - \rho_G k \right] & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG,} \end{cases}$$
 (B9)

$$\left[e^{4\mu}e^{4(2-\alpha)^{2}}\left[1+e^{4(2-\alpha)^{2}}-4e^{(2-\alpha)^{2}}\rho_{G}+2\rho_{G}^{2}\right]$$
 for LN-GSG,

599
$$\langle \Delta Y^4 \rangle = 6\sigma_G^4 \left\{ b^4 a^2 \left[\frac{1}{a(a-4)} - \frac{4\rho_G}{(a-1)(a-3)} + \frac{(1+2\rho_G^2)}{(a-2)^2} \right] \text{ for P-GSG,} (B10) \right\}$$

 $2\theta^4 k^2 (k+1) \left[\frac{3}{k} + k + 3 + \rho_G \left(\rho_G (k+1) - 2(k+2) \right) \right] \text{ for } \Gamma\text{-GSG,}$

$$\begin{cases} e^{2(2-\alpha)^2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{e^{2(2-\alpha)^2} - 1}{e^{(2-\alpha)^2} - \rho_G} \right)^2 \right\} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ 1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{e^{2(2-\alpha)^2} - \rho_G}{e^{(2-\alpha)^2} - \rho_G} \right)^2 \right\} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \end{cases}$$

600
$$\kappa_{\Delta Y} = 3 \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{a(a-4)} - \frac{4\rho_G}{(a-1)(a-3)} + \frac{1+2\rho_G^2}{(a-2)^2} \right] \left[\frac{1}{(a-2)} - \frac{a\rho_G}{(a-1)^2} \right]^{-2} \text{ for P-GSG,} \quad (B11) \\ 1 + \frac{1}{k} + \frac{(k+1)(2+k+\rho_G^2k-2k\rho_G)}{k(k+1-\rho_G k)^2} \quad \text{for Γ-GSG.} \right\}$$

601 The variogram, $\gamma_{Y'}$, covariance, $C_{Y'}(s)$, for s > 0 (note that $C_{Y'}(s = 0)$ coincides with $\langle Y'^2 \rangle$ 602 evaluated in Eq. (B5)) and integral scale, $I_{Y'}$, of Y', can be derived from Eqs. (A13) – (A15) and 603 (B2) as

604
$$\gamma_{Y'} = \begin{cases} \sigma_G^2 e^{2\mu + (2-\alpha)^2} \left(e^{(2-\alpha)^2} - 1 \right) + e^{2\mu + (2-\alpha)^2} \gamma_G & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ \sigma_G^2 \frac{b^2 a}{(a-1)^2 (a-2)} + \frac{a^2 b^2}{(a-1)^2} \gamma_G & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ \sigma_G^2 k \theta^2 + k^2 \theta^2 \gamma_G & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG,} \end{cases}$$
(B12)

$$_{605} \qquad C_{Y'}(s>0) = \sigma_G^2 \rho_G \begin{cases} e^{2\mu + (2-\alpha)^2} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ \frac{a^2 b^2}{(a-1)^2} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ k^2 \theta^2 & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG,} \end{cases}$$
(B13)

606
$$I_{Y'} = I_G \begin{cases} e^{-(2-\alpha)^2} & \text{for LN-GSG,} \\ a\frac{a-2}{(a-1)^2} & \text{for P-GSG,} \\ 1-\frac{1}{1+k} & \text{for } \Gamma\text{-GSG.} \end{cases}$$
 (B14)

It is thus seen that when the pdf of U tends to the Dirac delta function (i.e., when $\alpha \rightarrow 2$ for LN-GSG; $a \rightarrow \infty$ for P-GSG; or $k \rightarrow \infty$ for Γ -GSG), then $I_{\gamma} \rightarrow I_{G}$. Otherwise, $I_{\gamma'}$ is smaller than I_{G} (regardless the subordinator adopted), while never vanishing. The range of values which can be undertaken by $I_{\gamma'}$ depends on the type of subordinator employed and on the threshold values of the shape parameters (see Section 2.1). The broadest range of variability of $I_{\gamma'}$ is associated with the LN-GSG, where $0.33 < I_{\gamma'} / I_{G} < 1$. Otherwise, the smallest interval is obtained through P-GSG, where $0.89 < I_{\gamma'} / I_{G} < 1$, Γ -GSG being associated with $0.5 < I_{\gamma'} / I_{G} < 1$.

614 **Data**

615 Datasets are available at: <u>https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/trdgwfwsvn/draft?a=ee55e214-</u>

- 616 <u>386a-48f4-88bf-461c5ddaf7ec</u>
- 617

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