

Symmetric and Symplectic integration

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Oversigt

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- ▶ Invariants
 - ▶ Lotka-Volterra
 - ▶ Dynamical systems
 - ▶ Mass conservation
- ▶ Time reversibility
- ▶ Symplectic methods

Invariants

Consider the autonomous IVP:

$$\dot{y} = f(y), \quad y(t_0) = y_0 \quad (1.1)$$

where y is a vector or possibly a matrix

Definition (Invariants)

A non-constant function $I(y)$ is called an invariant of the IVP if:

$$I'(y)f(y) = 0, \quad \forall y, \quad (1.2)$$

which is the same as saying that every solution satisfies $I(y(t)) = I(y_0) = \text{constant}$. Synonymously with invariant, the terms first integral, conserved quantity and constant of motion are also used.

Theorem (Conservation of Linear Invariants)

All explicit and implicit Runge-Kutta methods conserve linear invariants. Partitioned Runge-Kutta methods conserve linear invariants if $b_i = \hat{b}_i$ for all i , or if the invariant depend only on p or q .

Proof.

Let $I(y) = d^T y$ then $d^T f(y) = 0$ for all y . Thus also $d^T k_i = 0$ and consequently $d^T y_1 = d^T y_0 + 0 = d^T y_0$ □

Quadratic Invariants (For Runge-Kutta Methods)

Consider the quadratic function:

$$Q(y) = y^T C y \quad (1.3)$$

where C is a symmetric square matrix. If $y^T C f(y) = 0$ then it is an invariant of the previous IVP.

Theorem

The collocation methods based upon the Gauss methods conserve quadratic invariants

Recall that all collocation methods are also Runge-Kutta methods. Further we have:

Theorem (Cooper 1987)

If the coefficients of a Runge-Kutta method satisfy

$$b_i a_{ij} + b_j a_{ji} = b_i b_j, \quad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, s, \quad (1.4)$$

then the method conserves quadratic invariants.

Quadratic Invariants (for Partitioned Runge-Kutta Methods)

Consider the quadratic function:

$$Q(y) = y^T D z \quad (1.5)$$

where D is of the appropriate dimensions. Note that the angular momentum of N -body problems are of this form.

Theorem

The Lobatto IIIA- IIIB pair conserves all quadratic invariants all invariants of the above form.

Theorem

If the coefficients of a Partitioned Runge-Kutta method satisfy

$$b_i \hat{a}_{ij} + \hat{b}_j a_{ji} = b_i \hat{b}_j, \quad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, s, \quad (1.6)$$

$$b_i = \hat{b}_i, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, s, \quad (1.7)$$

then it conserves quadratic invariants.

Quadratic Invariants (Composition Methods)

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Theorem (Compositions Methods)

If a method conserves quadratic invariants, then so does the composition method

$$\Psi_h = \phi_{\lambda_s h} \circ \cdots \circ \phi_{\lambda_1 h} \quad (1.8)$$

This obvious property is one of the most important motivations for considering composition methods.

Theorem

for $n \geq 3$, no Runge-Kutta method can conserve all polynomial invariants of degree n .

Proof.

It is enough to consider linear problems $\dot{Y} = AY$, and applying a Runge-Kutta method to such a problem implies that $R(hA)Y_0 = Y_1$, where R is the stability function. To conserve all polynomial invariants we therefore need $R(hA) = 1$ for all A with $\text{trace}(A) = 0$. Which is not possible. □

Definition (Weak invariant)

Suppose we have an $(n - m)$ dimensional submanifold of \mathbb{R}^n

$$\mathcal{M} = \{y | g(y) = 0\} \quad (1.9)$$

$(g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m)$ and a differential equation $\dot{y} = f(y)$ with the property that:

$$y_0 \in \mathcal{M} \implies y(t) \in \mathcal{M}, \quad \forall t \quad (1.10)$$

then $g(y)$ is said to be a weak invariant.

In physics this is typically due to generalized coordinates e.g. the length of a pendulum is a weak invariant

Projection Method

The standard method is to use projection

Algorithm (Standard Projection Method)

Assume that $y_n \in \mathcal{M}$. One step $y_n \mapsto y_{n+1}$ is defined as follows:

- ▶ Compute $\tilde{y}_{n+1} = \Phi_h(y_n)$, where Φ_h is an arbitrary one step method
- ▶ Project the value \tilde{y}_{n+1} onto the manifold \mathcal{M}

$$\min \|y_{n+1} - \tilde{y}_{n+1}\|, \text{ Subject to } g(y_{n+1}) = 0 \quad (1.11)$$

Warning: Using this method wrongly, one might destroy existing good behaviour.

Another method is to use local coordinates.

Symmetric Integration

Definition

Let ρ be an invertible linear transformation in the phase space of $\dot{y} = f(y)$. This differential equation and the vectorfield are called ρ -reversible if

$$\rho f(y) = -f(\rho y) \quad \forall y \quad (2.1)$$

Definition

A map $\Psi(y)$ is called ρ -reversible if

$$\rho \circ \Phi = \Phi^{-1} \circ \rho \quad (2.2)$$

Definition

A numerical one-step method is called symmetric if it satisfies:

$$\Phi_h = \Phi_{-h}^{-1} =: \Phi^* \quad (2.3)$$

Theorem

If a numerical method applied to a ρ -reversible differential equation satisfies:

$$\rho \circ \Phi_h = \Phi_{-h} \circ \rho, \quad (2.4)$$

then the numerical flow Φ_h is a ρ -reversible map if and only if Φ_h is symmetric

Note that apart from the method to be symmetric this is a very weak demand:

- ▶ Runge-Kutta Methods - No restrictions
- ▶ Partitioned Runge-Kutta methods -
 $\rho(u, v) = (\rho_1(u), \rho_2(v))$ invertible
- ▶ Composition methods - The basic method have to fulfil it
- ▶ Splitting methods - For the normal splitting, no restrictions

Adjoint of a Collocation Method

Theorem

The adjoint of a collocation method based on c_1, \dots, c_s is a collocation method based on c_1^, \dots, c_s^* , where*

$$c_i^* = 1 - c_{s+1-i} \quad (2.5)$$

In the case where $c_i = 1 - c_{s+1-i}$, then the collocation method is symmetric

Proof.

Exchange (t_0, y_0) with $(t_0 + h, y_1)$ and h with $-h$, yields the result. \square

Lemma

The Gauss formulas as well as the Lobatto IIIA and Lobatto IIIB are symmetric integrators (then also Störmer Verlet is symmetric)

Recall that all collocation methods are Runge-Kutta methods.

Adjoint of a Runge-Kutta method

Theorem (Stetter 1973, Wanner 1973)

The adjoint of an s -stage Runge-Kutta method is again an s -stage Runge-Kutta method. Its coefficients are given by:

$$a_{ij}^* = b_{s+1-j} - a_{s+1-i, s+1-j}, \quad b_i^* = b_{s+1-i} \quad (2.6)$$

In the case where $a_{s+1-i, s+1-j} + a_{ij} = b_j$ then the Runge-Kutta method is symmetric

Proof.

As before by exchanging y_0 with y_1 and h with $-h$ we get the result □

Lemma

No explicit Runge-Kutta method can be symmetric.

Diagonally Implicit Runge-Kutta methods (DIRK)

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Then the above conditions changes to:

$$a_{ij} = b_j = b_{s+1-j} \quad i > j, \quad a_{jj} + a_{s+1-j, s+1-j} = b_j \quad (2.7)$$

Example for $s = 5$

c_1	a_{11}				
c_2	b_1	a_{22}			
c_3	b_1	b_2	a_{33}		
$1 - c_2$	b_1	b_2	b_3	a_{44}	
$1 - c_1$	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_2	a_{55}
	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_2	b_1

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Composition of θ -Methods

Definition (θ -Method)

A θ -method is a one step methods which fulfils that:

$$\Phi_h^\theta(y_0) = y_1, \quad (2.8)$$

where

$$y_1 = y_0 + h((1 - \theta)f(t_n, y_n) + \theta f(t_{n+1}, y_{n+1})) \quad (2.9)$$

note that $\Phi_h^{\theta*} = \Phi_h^{1-\theta}$

Theorem

A diagonally implicit Runge-Kutta method satisfying the symmetry condition and $b_i \neq 0$ is equivalent to a composition of θ -methods

$$\Phi_{b_1 h}^{\alpha_1*} \circ \Phi_{b_2 h}^{\alpha_2*} \circ \cdots \circ \Phi_{b_2 h}^{\alpha_2} \circ \Phi_{b_1 h}^{\alpha_1} \quad (2.10)$$

where $\alpha_i = a_{ii}/b_i$

Example

Modified midpoint rule for partitioned Runge-Kutta method (introduction of constant).

Algorithm

$$q_i^{n+1} = q_i^n \frac{h}{m_i} p_i^{n+1/2} \quad (2.11)$$

$$p_i^{n+1} = p_i^n + h \sum_{j=1}^N \sigma(q_i^{n+1/2} - q_j^{n+1/2}) \quad (2.12)$$

where $p_i^{n+1/2}$ is the average of p_i^n and p_i^{n+1} , and for $i > j$,

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji} = \frac{V_{ij}(r_{ij}^{n+1}) - V_{ij}(r_{ij}^n)}{r_{ij}^{n+1} - r_{ij}^n} \frac{1}{r_{ij}^{n+1/2}}, \quad (2.13)$$

further r_{ij} is the distance between particle i and j and $\sigma_{ii} = 0$

Example

Theorem (LaBudde and Greenspan 1974)

The above method is a second order symmetric implicit method which conserves the total linear momentum, the total angular momentum, and the total energy for N-body problems.

Symplectic Integration

A Bit of Classical Mechanics

Suppose that the position of a mechanical system with d degrees of freedom is described by $q = (q_1, \dots, q_d)$ as generalized coordinates. We now have a function

$$T = T(q, \dot{q}), \quad (3.1)$$

which is the kinetic energy, typically it is of the form $\frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^T M(q) \dot{q}$, where $M(q)$ is symmetric and positive definite. We also have a function

$$U = U(q) \quad (3.2)$$

which is the potential energy.

A Bit of Classical Mechanics

Definition (Lagrangian)

We can now define the Lagrangian

$$L = T - U \quad (3.3)$$

*such that the coordinates must obey the differential equation
(known as Lagrange's equations)*

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} \quad (3.4)$$

A Bit of Classical Mechanics

First introducing the momenta

$$p_k = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_k}(q, \dot{q}) \quad (3.5)$$

Definition (Hamiltonian)

We can now define the Hamiltonian:

$$H := p^T \dot{q} - L(q, \dot{q}) \quad (3.6)$$

Theorem

Lagrange's equations are equivalent to Hamilton's equations:

$$\dot{p}_k = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_k}(p, q), \quad \dot{q}_k = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_k}(p, q) \quad (3.7)$$

A Bit of Classical Mechanics

Lemma (Case of Quadratic T (typical case))

In the case where $T = \frac{1}{2}\dot{q}^T M(q)\dot{q}$ and $M(q)$ is symmetric and positive definite, we have the Hamiltonian:

$$H(p, q) = \frac{1}{2}p^T M(q)^{-1}p + U(q) = T + U \quad (3.8)$$

Example:

For a mass point in \mathbb{R}^3 , we have that $M(q) = m$ which is the mass. The kinetic energy is $T = \frac{1}{2}m\|\dot{x}\|_2^2$ then the momenta is $p_k = m\dot{x}_k$. If it moves in a conservative force field $F = -\nabla U(x)$ then the Lagrange's equations (and Hamilton's equations) becomes Newton's second law of motion

$$F = m\ddot{x}, \quad (\dot{x} = \dot{x}) \quad (3.9)$$

Symplectic Transformations

Definition

A linear mapping $A : \mathbb{R}^{2d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ is called symplectic if:

$$A^T J A = J, \quad J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I \\ -I & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.10)$$

or, equivalently, if $\omega(A\xi, A\eta) = \omega(\xi, \eta)$ where

$$\omega(\xi, \eta) := \sum_{i=1}^d \det \begin{pmatrix} \xi_i^p & \eta_i^p \\ \xi_i^q & \eta_i^q \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.11)$$

Definition (Non-Linear Maps)

A differential map $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ (where $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ is an open set) is called symplectic if the Jacobian matrix of g is everywhere symplectic.

Connection to Hamiltonian Systems

Theorem (Poincaré 1899)

Let the Hamiltonian be a twice continuously differentiable function on $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{2d}$. Then, for each fixed t , the flow ϕ_t is a symplectic transformation wherever it is defined.

Definition (Locally Hamiltonian)

Consider a differential equation, $\dot{y} = f(y)$, then if there for every $y_0 \in U$ exists a neighbourhood where $f(y) = J^{-1}\nabla H(y)$ for some function H . Then we call the differential equation locally Hamiltonian.

Theorem

Let $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ be a continuously differentiable. Then, $\dot{y} = f(y)$ is locally Hamiltonian if and only if its flow $\phi_t(y)$ is symplectic for all $y \in U$ and for all sufficiently small t

Theorem (Change of Coordinates)

Let $\psi : U \rightarrow V$ be a change of coordinates such that it and its inverse are continuously differentiable functions. If ψ is symplectic, the Hamiltonian system $\dot{y} = J^{-1}\nabla H(y)$ becomes in the new variables $z = \psi(y)$:

$$\dot{z} = J^{-1}\nabla K(z) \quad \text{with} \quad K(z) = H(y) \quad (3.12)$$

Definition (Symplectic One-step Method)

A numerical one-step method is called symplectic if the one-step map:

$$y_1 = \Phi_h(y_0) \quad (3.13)$$

is symplectic whenever the method is applied to a smooth Hamiltonian system.

Symplectic solvers:

- ▶ Symplectic euler (first order), shown by "de Vogelaere" 1956
- ▶ Störmer Verlet (second order, symmetric)
- ▶ Implicit midpoint rule (second order, symmetric)

Theorem

Let Φ_h denote the symplectic Euler method. Then, the composition method is symplectic for every choice of the parameters, α_i and β_i .

If $\hat{\Phi}_h$ is symplectic and symmetric then the composition method is symplectic (and symmetric) too.

Theorem

Assume that the Hamiltonian is given by

$H(y) = H_1(y) + H_2(y)$, and consider the splitting:

$$\dot{y} = J^{-1}\nabla H(y) = J^{-1}\nabla H_1(y) + J^{-1}\nabla H_2(y) \quad (3.14)$$

The splitting method is then symplectic

Theorem (Bochev and Scovel 1994)

The symplecticity is a quadratic invariant

Lemma

Any Runge-Kutta method that preserve quadratic invariants are symplectic

- ▶ For DIRK methods, use $\theta = \frac{1}{2}$ for efficiency.
- ▶ If the system is separable recall that a partitioned Runge-Kutta method can be symmetric, explicit and (now) symplectic.
- ▶ Partitioned DIRK method applied to a separable Hamiltonian system is equivalent to the splitting scheme and a composition of symplectic Euler steps.

Characterization of Symplectic Methods

Theorem

Consider a B-series method $\Phi_h(y) = B(a, y)$ and problems $\dot{y} = f(y)$ having $Q(y) = y^T C y$, with symmetric C , as first integral. If the coefficients $a(\tau)$ satisfy:

$$a(u \circ v) + a(v \circ u) = a(u) \cdot a(v) \quad (3.15)$$

then the method exactly conserves $Q(y)$ and it is symplectic

Recall that $u \circ v = [u_1, \dots, u_m, v]$

Characterization of Symplectic Methods

Theorem

Consider a P -series method and a separable problem ($\dot{p} = f_1(p, q)$, $\dot{q} = f_2(p, q)$) having $Q(p, q) = p^T E q$ as invariant. Then it is symplectic if:

- ▶ it for general systems fulfil:

$$a(u \circ v) + a(v \circ u) = a(u) \cdot a(v) \quad (3.16)$$

and that

$a(\tau)$ is independent of the colour of the root of τ

- ▶ or for separable Hamiltonian systems fulfil:

$$a(u \circ v) + a(v \circ u) = a(u) \cdot a(v) \quad (3.17)$$

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Theorem

Using the previous seen invariants for respectively Runge-Kutta methods and partitioned Runge-Kutta methods. Then the method is symplectic if and only if such quadratic invariants are exactly conserved.