# Recent Advances in the Rigorous Integration of Flows of ODEs with Taylor Models 

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## Outline

1. Review of the old version of COSY-VI
2. The Reference Trajectory and the Flow Operator
3. Step Size Control
4. Error Parametrization of Taylor Models
5. Dynamic Domain Decomposition
6. Examples

To transport a large phase space volume with validation,


Over Estimation has to be controlled.


# Review of the Old Version of COSY-VI 

Version 2 (2004)

## Key Features and Algorithms of COSY-VI

- High order expansion not only in time $t$ but also in transversal variables $\vec{x}$.
- Capability of weighted order computation, allowing to suppress the expansion order in transversal variables $\vec{x}$.
- Shrink wrapping algorithm including blunting to control ill-conditioned cases.
- Pre-conditioning algorithms based on the Curvilinear, QR decomposition, and blunting pre-conditioners.
- Resulting data is available in various levels including graphics output.


## The Volterra Equation

Describe dynamics of two conflicting populations

$$
\frac{d x_{1}}{d t}=2 x_{1}\left(1-x_{2}\right), \quad \frac{d x_{2}}{d t}=-x_{2}\left(1-x_{1}\right)
$$

Interested in initial condition

$$
x_{01} \in 1+[-0.05,0.05], \quad x_{02} \in 3+[-0.05,0.05] \quad \text { at } t=0 .
$$

Satisfies constraint condition

$$
C\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=x_{1} x_{2}^{2} e^{-x_{1}-2 x_{2}}=\mathrm{Constant}
$$



Integration of the Volterra eq. COSY-VI and AWA



## 2 Rössler equations

The Rössler equations are given by

$$
\begin{align*}
x^{\prime} & =-(y+z) \\
y^{\prime} & =x+0.2 y  \tag{4}\\
z^{\prime} & =0.2+z(x-a)
\end{align*}
$$

where $a$ is a real parameter. We focus here at the value of $a=5.7$, where numerical simulations suggest an existence of a strange attractor.

On section $x=0$ we consider the following initial condition $(y, z) \in(-8.38095,0.0295902)+$ $[-\delta, \delta]^{2}$, where $\delta$ should be considerably larger than $10^{-3}$. The integration time should be around $T=6$.

AWA Integration of the Roessler eqs.


COSY-VI Integration of the Roessler eqs.


AWA Integration of the Roessler eqs.


COSY-VI Integration of the Roessler eqs.



## The Henon Map

Henon Map: frequently used elementary example that exhibits many of the well-known effects of nonlinear dynamics, including chaos, periodic fixed points, islands and symplectic motion. The dynamics is two-dimensional, and given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{n+1}=1-\alpha x_{n}^{2}+y_{n} \\
& y_{n+1}=\beta x_{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It can easily be seen that the motion is area preserving for $|\beta|=1$. We consider

$$
\alpha=2.4 \text { and } \beta=-1,
$$

and concentrate on initial boxes of the from $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in(0.4,-0.4)+[-d, d]^{2}$.

Henon system, $x n=1-2.4^{\star} x^{\wedge} \mathbf{2}+y, y n=-x$, the positions at each step


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{\star} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} 2+\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}$, corner points $(+-0.01)$ the first 5 steps


Henon system, $x n=1-2.4^{*} x^{\wedge} 2+y, y n=-x$, corner points (+-0.01) the first 120 steps


## 



Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=\mathbf{1 - 2 . 4 *} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2}+\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=1, \mathrm{SW}$


Henon system, $x n=1-2.4^{*} x^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}, y n=-x, N O=20, S W$


Henon system, $x n=1-2.4^{*} x^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}, y n=-x, N O=20, S W$


## Review of the New Features

- The Reference Trajectory and the Flow Operator
- Step Size Control
- Error Parametrization of Taylor Models
- Dynamic Domain Decomposition

Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


## The Reference Trajectory

First Step: Obtain Taylor expansion in time of solution of ODE of center point $c$, i.e. obtain

$$
c(t)=c_{0}+c_{1} \cdot\left(t-t_{0}\right)+c_{2} \cdot\left(t-t_{0}\right)^{2}+\ldots+c_{n} \cdot\left(t-t_{0}\right)^{n}
$$

Very well known from day one how to do this with automatic differentiation. Rather convenient way: can be done by $n$ iterations of the Picard Operator

$$
c(t)=c_{0}+\int_{0}^{t} f\left(r\left(t^{\prime}\right), t\right) d t^{\prime}
$$

in one-dimensional Taylor arithmetic. Each iteration raises the order by one; so in each iteration $i$, only need to do Taylor arithmetic in order $i$. In either way, this step is cheap since it involves only one-dimensional operations.

## The Nonlinear Flow

Second Step: The goal is to obtain Taylor expansion in time to order $n$ and initial conditions to order $k$. Note:

1. This is usually the most expensive step. In the original Taylor model-based algorithm, it is done by $n$ iterations of the Picard Operator in multi-dimensional Taylor arithmetic, where $c_{0}$ is now a polynomial in initial conditions.

2 . The case $k=1$ has been known for a long time. Traditionally solved by setting up ODEs for sensitivities and solving these as before.
3. The case of higher $k$ goes back to Beam Physics (M. Berz, Particle Accelerators 1988)
4. Newest Taylor model arithmetic naturally supports different expansions orders $k$ for initial conditions and $n$ for time.

Goal: Obtain flow with one single evaluation of right hand side.

## The Nonlinear Relative ODE

We now develop a better way for second step.
First: introduce new "perturbation" variables $\tilde{r}$ such that

$$
r(t)=c(t)+A \cdot \tilde{r}(t)
$$

The matrix $A$ provides preconditioning. ODE for $\tilde{r}(t)$ :

$$
\tilde{r}^{\prime}=A^{-1}\left[f(c(t)+A \cdot \tilde{r}(t))-c^{\prime}(t)\right]
$$

Second: evaluate ODE for $\tilde{r}^{\prime}$ in Taylor arithmetic. Obtain a Taylor expansion of the ODE, i.e.

$$
\tilde{r}^{\prime}=P(\tilde{r}, t)
$$

up to order $n$ in time and $k$ in $\tilde{r}$. Very important for later use: the polynomial $P$ will have no constant part, i.e.

$$
P(0, t)=0 .
$$

## Reminder: The Lie Derivative

Let

$$
r^{\prime}=f(r, t)
$$

be a dynamical system. Let $g$ be a variable in state space, and let us study $g(r(t))$, i.e. along a solution of the ODE. We have

$$
\frac{d}{d t} g(t)=f \cdot \nabla g+\frac{\partial g}{\partial t}
$$

Introducing the Lie Derivative $L_{f}=f \cdot \nabla+\partial / \partial t$, we have

$$
\frac{d^{n}}{d t^{n}} g=L_{f}^{n} g \text { and } g(t) \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{\left(t-t_{0}\right)^{i}}{i!} L_{f}^{i} g /_{t=t_{0}}
$$

## Differential Algebras on Taylor Polynomial Spaces

Consider space ${ }_{n} D_{v}$ of Taylor polynomials in $v$ variables and order $n$ with truncation multiplication. Formally: introduce equivalence relation on space of smooth functions

$$
f={ }_{n} g
$$

if all derivatives from 0 to $n$ agree at 0 . Class of $f$ is denoted $[f]$. This induces addition, multiplication and scalar multiplication on classes. The resulting structure forms an algebra.

An algebra is a Differential Algebra if there is an operation $\partial$, called a derivation, that satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial(s \cdot a+t \cdot b) & =s \cdot \partial a+t \cdot \partial b \text { and } \\
\partial(a \cdot b) & =a \cdot(\partial b)+(\partial a) \cdot b
\end{aligned}
$$

for any vectors $a$ and $b$ and scalars $s$ and $t$. Unfortunately, the natural partial derivative operations $[f] \rightarrow\left[\partial_{i} f\right]$ does not introduce a differential algebra, because of loss of highest order.

## Differential Algebras on Taylor Polynomial Spaces

However, consider the modified operation

$$
\partial_{f} \text { with } \partial_{f} g=f \cdot \nabla g
$$

If $f$ is origin preserving, i.e. $f(0)=0$, then $\partial_{f}$ is a derivation on the space ${ }_{n} D_{v}$. Why?

- Each derivative operation in the gradient $\nabla g$ looses the highest order;
- but since $f(0)=0$, the missing order in $\nabla g$ does not matter since it does not contribute to the product $f \cdot \nabla g$.


## Polynomial Flow from Lie Derivative

Remember the ODE for $\tilde{r}^{\prime}$ :

$$
\tilde{r}^{\prime}=P(\tilde{r}, t)
$$

up to order $n$ in time and $k$ in $\tilde{r}$. And remember $P(0, t)=0$. Thus we can obtain the $n$-th order expansion of the flow as

$$
\tilde{r}(t)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{\left(t-t_{0}\right)^{i}}{i!} \cdot\left(P \cdot \nabla+\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)^{i} \tilde{r}_{0} /{ }_{t=t_{0}}
$$

- The fact that $P(0, t)=0$ restores the derivatives lost in $\nabla$
- The fact that $\partial / \partial t$ appears without origin-preserving factor limits the expansion to order $n$.


## Performance of Lie Derivative Flow Methods

Apparently we have the following:

- Each term in the Lie derivative sum requires $v+1$ derivations (very cheap, just re-shuffling of coefficients)
- Each term requires $v$ multiplications
- We need one evaluation of $f$ in ${ }_{n} D_{v}$ (to set up ODE)

Compare this with the conventional algorithm, which requires $n$ evaluations of the function $f$ of the right hand side. Thus, roughly, if the evaluation of $f$ requires more than $v$ multiplications, the new method is more efficient.

- Many practically appearing right hand sides $f$ satisfy this.
- But on the other hand, if the function $f$ does not satisfy this (for example for the linear case), then also $P$ will be simple (in the linear case: $P$ will be linear), and thus less operations appear


## Step Size Control

Step size control to maintain approximate error $\varepsilon$ in each step.
Based on a suite of tests:

1. Utilize the Reference Orbit. Extrapolate the size of coefficients for estimate of remainder error, scale so that it reaches and get $\Delta t_{1}$. Goes back to Moore in 1960s. This is one of conveniences when using Taylor integrators.
2. Utilize the Flow. Compute flow time step with $\Delta t_{1}$. Extrapolate the contributions of each order of flow for estimate of remainder error to get update $\Delta t_{2}$.
3. Utilize a Correction factor $c$ to account for overestimation in TM arithmetic as $c=\sqrt[n+1]{|R| / \varepsilon}$. Largely a measure of complexity of ODE. Dynamically update the correction factor.
4. Perform verification attempt for $\Delta t_{3}=c \cdot \Delta t_{2}$

Roessler $\mathrm{NO}=18$, (new code: eps=1e-13, old code: $\mathrm{TOL=1e}-9$ )



## Error Parametrization of Taylor models

Motivation: Is it possible to absorb the remainder error bound intervals of Taylor models into the polynomial parts using additional parameters?

Phrase the question as the following problem:

1. Have Taylor models with 0 remainder error interval, which depend on the independent variables $\vec{x}$ and the parameters $\vec{\alpha}$.

$$
\vec{T}_{0}=\vec{P}_{0}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\overrightarrow{[0,0]}
$$

2. Perform Taylor model arithmetic on $\vec{T}_{0}$, namely $\vec{F}\left(\vec{T}_{0}\right)$

$$
\vec{F}\left(\vec{T}_{0}\right)=\vec{P}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F}, \text { where } \vec{I}_{F} \neq \overrightarrow{[0,0]}
$$

3. Try to absorb $\vec{I}_{F}$ into the polynomial part that depends on $\vec{\alpha}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\vec{P}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F} \subseteq \vec{P}^{\prime}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\overrightarrow{[0,0]} \tag{A}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Observe

$$
\vec{P}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})=\underbrace{\vec{P}(\vec{x}, 0)}_{\vec{\alpha} \text {-indep. }}+\underbrace{\vec{P}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})-\vec{P}(\vec{x}, 0)}_{\vec{\alpha} \text {-dependent }}=\vec{P}(\vec{x}, 0)+\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})
$$

The size of $\vec{P}(\vec{x}, 0)$ is much larger than the rest, because the rest is essentially errors. The process of (A) does not alter $\vec{P}(\vec{x}, 0)$, so set the $\vec{\alpha}$-independent part $\vec{P}(\vec{x}, 0)$ aside from the whole process, which helps the numerical stability of the process.

The task is now

$$
\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F} \subseteq \vec{P}_{\alpha}^{\prime}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\overrightarrow{[0,0]} .
$$

We limit $\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ to be only linearly dependent on $\vec{\alpha}$.

$$
\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F}=(\widehat{M}+\widehat{\bar{M}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+\vec{I}_{F}
$$

Express $\vec{I}_{F}$ by the matrix form using additional parameters $\vec{\beta}$

$$
\vec{I}_{F} \subseteq\left(\widehat{I}_{F}+\widehat{\bar{I}}_{F}(\vec{x})\right) \cdot \vec{\beta} .
$$

where $\widehat{\bar{I}}_{F}(\vec{x})=0$ and $\left(\widehat{I}_{F}\right)_{i i}=\left|I_{F i}\right|$.

$$
\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F} \subseteq(\widehat{M}+\widehat{\bar{M}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+\left(\widehat{I}_{F}+\widehat{\bar{I}}_{F}(\vec{x})\right) \cdot \vec{\beta}
$$

View this as a collection of $2 \cdot v$ column vectors associated to $2 \cdot v$ parameters $\vec{\alpha}$ and $\vec{\beta}$. Recall a matrix, or a collection of $v$ column vectors, represent a parallelepiped. The problem is now to find a set sum of two parallelepipeds.

## Psum Algorithm for choosing column vectors

Task: Choose $v$ vectors out of $n$ vectors $\vec{s}_{i}, i=1, \ldots, n, n \geq v$.

1. Choose the longest vector $\vec{s}_{k}$, and assign it as $\overrightarrow{t_{1}}$. Normalize it as $\vec{e}_{1}=\overrightarrow{t_{1}} /\left|\vec{t}_{1}\right|$.
2. Out of the remaining vectors $\overrightarrow{s_{i}}$, choose the $j$-th vector $\overrightarrow{t_{j}}=\vec{s}_{k}$ such that

$$
\frac{\left|\vec{s}_{k}\right|^{2}-\sum_{m=1}^{j-1}\left|\vec{s}_{k} \cdot \vec{e}_{m}\right|^{2}}{\left|\vec{s}_{k}\right|^{2 p}}
$$

is largest. Compute $\vec{e}_{j}$, the orthonormalized vector of $\vec{t}_{j}$ to $\vec{e}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{e}_{j-1}$. (Gram-Schmidt)
3. Repeat the process 2 until $j=v$.

Experimentally, $p=0.5$ is found to be efficient and robust for obtaining a set sum of two parallelepipeds

## Psum Algorithm for two parallelepipeds

Task: Obtain a set sum of two parallelepipeds $\widehat{M}_{1}$ and $\widehat{M}_{2}$.

1. Prepare the basis $\widehat{M}_{b}$ using the Psum algorithm for choosing $v$ column vectors out of $2 \cdot v$ column vectors from $\widehat{M}_{1}$ and $\widehat{M}_{2}$.
2. Compute conditioned parallelepipeds $\widehat{M}_{b}^{-1} \cdot \widehat{M}_{1}$ and $\widehat{M}_{b}^{-1} \cdot \widehat{M_{2}}$.
3. Confine the conditioned parallelepipeds by bounding them.

$$
\vec{B}_{1}=\operatorname{bound}\left(\widehat{M}_{b}^{-1} \cdot \widehat{M}_{1}\right) \text { and } \vec{B}_{2}=\operatorname{bound}\left(\widehat{M}_{b}^{-1} \cdot \widehat{M}_{2}\right) .
$$

4. Compute the interval sum $\vec{B}=\vec{B}_{1}+\vec{B}_{2} . \vec{B}$ confines the conditioned set sum of the conditioned parallelepipeds.
5. From $\vec{B}$, set up a parallelepiped as a box $\widehat{B}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}\left|B_{1}\right| & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \left|B_{v}\right|\end{array}\right)$.
6. Compute $\widehat{M_{b}} \cdot \widehat{B}$, which is a set sum of $\widehat{M_{1}}$ and $\widehat{M}_{2}$ under $\widehat{M}_{b}$.

Psum of Org Parallelpiped ( $0.4,0.15$ )-(0.2,0.13) and I-box 0.05-0.05


Psum of Org Parallelpiped ( $0.4,0.15$ )-(0.2,0.13) and I-box 0.07-0.07


## Error Absorption

We now chose a favoured collection of $v$ column vectors $\widehat{L}+\widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})$ using the Psum algorithm. Collect the left over $v$ column vectors to $\widehat{E}+\widehat{\widehat{E}}(\vec{x})$. Associate them to $2 \cdot v$ parameters $\vec{\alpha}^{\prime}$ and $\vec{\beta}^{\prime}$.

$$
\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F} \subseteq(\widehat{L}+\widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\alpha}^{\prime}+(\widehat{E}+\widehat{E}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\beta}^{\prime}
$$

Since $\vec{\alpha}$ and $\vec{\beta}$ do not appear anymore, we can rename $\vec{\alpha}^{\prime}$ and $\vec{\beta}^{\prime}$ as $\vec{\alpha}$ and $\vec{\beta}$ for the simplicity.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F} & \subseteq(\widehat{L}+\widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+(\widehat{E}+\widehat{\widehat{E}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\beta} \\
& =\widehat{L} \circ\left[\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ(\widehat{L}+\widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ(\widehat{E}+\widehat{\widehat{E}}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\beta}\right] \\
& \subseteq \widehat{L} \circ\left[\left(\widehat{I}+\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ \widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})\right) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+\widehat{B} \cdot \vec{\beta}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\widehat{B}$ is a diagonal matrix with the $i$-th element is $\left|B_{i}\right|$ and $\vec{B}=\operatorname{bound}\left(\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ(\widehat{E}+\widehat{E}(\vec{x})) \cdot \vec{\beta}\right)$.

If the diagonal terms of $\left(\widehat{I}+\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ \widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})\right)$ are positive,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\vec{P}_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})+\vec{I}_{F} & \subseteq \widehat{L} \circ\left[\left(\widehat{I}+\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ \widehat{\widehat{L}}(\vec{x})\right) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+\widehat{B} \cdot \vec{\alpha}\right] \\
& =\widehat{L} \circ\left(\widehat{I}+\widehat{L}^{-1} \circ \widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})\right) \cdot \vec{\alpha}+\widehat{L} \circ \widehat{B} \cdot \vec{\alpha} \\
& =(\widehat{L}+\widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})+\widehat{L} \circ \widehat{B}) \cdot \vec{\alpha} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: A modification to use $\widehat{A}$ instead of $\widehat{L}$, when $\widehat{A} \approx \widehat{L}$, is done easily. This involves bounding of $\widehat{A}^{-1} \circ(\widehat{L}-\widehat{A}) \cdot \vec{\alpha}$ and the diagonal terms to be checked positive are those of $\left(\widehat{I}+\widehat{A}^{-1} \circ \widehat{\bar{L}}(\vec{x})\right)$.
henon (area preserving). Performance Comparison. TM order 13, IC width 4e-3


## Cost of Additional Parameters

For a $v$ dimensional system, we need $v$ parameters $\vec{\alpha}$ to absorb Taylor model remainder error bound intervals. The dependence on $\vec{\alpha}$ is limited to linear. So, we use weighted DA. Choose an appropriate weight order $w$ for $\vec{\alpha}$.

- The dependence on $\vec{\alpha}$ has to be kept linear. Namely $2 \cdot w>n$, where $n$ is the computational order of Taylor models. Choose

$$
w=\operatorname{Int}\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)+1
$$

Maximum size necessary for DA and TM for $v=2$.

| $n$ | $v$ | DA | TM | $v$ | DA | TM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13 | 2 | 105 | 140 | $2+2$ | 2380 | 2419 |
| 21 | 2 | 253 | 304 | $2+2$ | 12650 | 12705 |
| 33 | 2 | 595 | 670 | $2+2$ | 66045 | 66124 |$\Rightarrow$| $w$ | $v_{w}$ | DA | TM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7 | $2+2_{w}$ | 161 | 200 |
| 11 | $2+2_{w}$ | 385 | 440 |
| 17 | $2+2_{w}$ | 901 | 980 |

## Dynamic Domain Decomposition

For extended domains, this is natural equivalent to step size control. Similarity to what's done in global optimization.

1. Evaluate ODE for $\Delta t=0$ for current flow.

2 . If resulting remainder bound $R$ greater than $\varepsilon$, split the domain along variable leading to longest axis.
3. Absorb $R$ in the TM polynomial part using the error parametrization method. If it fails, split the domain along variable leading to largest $x$ dependence of the error.
4. Put one half of the box on stack for future work.

Things to consider:

- Utilize "First-in-last-out" stack; minimizes stack length. Special adjustments for stack management in a parallel environment, including load balancing.
- Outlook: also dynamic order control for dependence on initial conditions

Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathrm{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}, \mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


Henon system, $\mathrm{xn}=1-2.4^{*} \mathbf{x}^{\wedge} \mathbf{2 + y}$, $\mathrm{yn}=-\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{NO}=33 \mathrm{w} 17$


$$
?
$$

henonL: Count of TM Objects, $\mathrm{NO}=33$, Psum0.5, all P splits (e-10,2coins)

henonL: Count of TM Objects, $N O=33$, Psum0.5, all $P$ splits (e-10,2coins)

discrete kepler. 1st revolution, ICw 0.02, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. 2nd revolution, ICw 0.02, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. 3rd revolution, ICw 0.02, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. 4th revolution, ICw 0.02, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. 5th revolution, ICw 0.02, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. 1st revolution, ICw 0.1, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. 2nd revolution, ICw 0.1, NO=13 w7

discrete kepler. $\mathrm{NO}=13 \mathrm{w} 7$

discrete kepler. $\mathrm{NO}=13 \mathrm{w} 7$

discrete kepler. 33 rd revolution, $\mathrm{ICw} 0.02, \mathrm{NO}=13 \mathrm{w} 7$

discrete kepler: Count of TM Objects, ICw 0.02, NO=13, Psum0.5, all P splits (e-10,2coins)

discrete kepler: Count of TM Objects, ICw 0.02, NO=13, Psum0.5, all P splits (e-10,2coins)


## The Henon Map

$$
H(x, y)=\left(1-a x^{2}+y, b x\right)
$$

We set the parameters $a=1.4$ and $b=0.3$, which are originally considered by Henon. The map $H$ has two fixed points.

$$
\vec{p}_{1}=(0.63135,0.18940) \quad \text { and } \quad \vec{p}_{2}=(-1.13135,-0.33941)
$$

rhenon. surviving region through 12 mappings

rhenon. surviving region through 12 mappings

rhenon. IC boxes $3 / 3 / 08$

rhenon. step 1. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 2. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 3. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 4. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 4. box1. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 4. box2. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 4. box3. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 5. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 5. box1. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 5. box2. 3/3/08

rhenon. step 5. box3. 3/3/08


## rhenon: Number of Objects

To carry out multiple mappings of the Henon map, Taylor model objects underwent the domain decomposition.

Number of Taylor model objects used for multiple mappings:

|  | $n$ | $w$ | for 5 steps | for 7 steps |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| box1 | 33 | 17 | 3 | 1386 |
| box2 | 21 | 11 | 148 | 1691 |
| box3 | 33 | 17 | 8 | 2839 |

Coming very soon...
Dynamic Domain Decomposition for the ODE integrator

