Structure preserving low-rank algorithms for plasma simulations Part 1: Introduction to dynamical low-rank algorithms

> **Lukas Einkemmer** University of Innsbruck

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Link to slides: http://www.einkemmer.net/training.html

What is a plasma

Plasma is a state of matter where **electrons** and ions are not bound to each other.

- A gas heated to sufficiently high temperature.
- An ionized gas rarefied enough such that recombination is slow.
- Electrons moving freely in a metal.



Plasma is the most common state of matter in the universe.











Fusion

In a **tokamak** fusion reactor magnetic fields compress and stabilize the plasma.



Only one fusion reactor with Q > 1.



Plasma systems are inherently unstable!

Promise of emission free and cheap energy from hydrogen.

Images from https://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2014/940965 and https://tinyurl.com/cmesunobs.

Newton's law: F = ma with acceleration $a = \ddot{x}$, mass *m*, and force *F*.

Multi-particle system:

 $\dot{x}_i(t) = v_i(t), \qquad \dot{v}_i(t) = F(x_i(t))/m_i, \qquad x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^N, \ v(t) \in \mathbb{R}^N.$

The ith particle is described by position x_i , velocity v_i , and mass m_i .

For practical systems N is extremely large (order of Avogadro constant $\approx 10^{23}$).

- Even if we could track the position of each particle this is usually not interesting.
- ► Macroscopic quantities (density, momentum density, ...) much more important.

We introduce a **particle-density** f(t, x, v) such that

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2}\int_{v_1}^{v_2}f(t,x,v)\,\mathrm{d}(x,v)=\text{number of particles with }x\in[x_1,x_2]\text{ and }v\in[v_1,v_2].$$

Number of particles is conserved

$$\partial_t f(t,x,v) + \nabla_{x,v} \cdot \left(f(t,x,v) \left[egin{array}{c} v \\ a \end{array}
ight]
ight) = 0.$$

Acceleration a = F/m determined by Newton's law. Yields kinetic equation

$$\partial_t f(t,x,v) + v \cdot \nabla_x f(t,x,v) + \frac{F}{m} \cdot \nabla_v f(t,x,v) = 0.$$

Often F self-consistently couples to f (i.e. F depends on f).

Kinetic description

The force field F is not very useful to model collisions. Boltzmann equation:

$$\partial_t f + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f + \frac{F}{m} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{v}} f = C(f).$$

First order hyperbolic equation with

Transport:
$$f(t, x, v) = f(0, x - vt, v)$$
Acceleration: $f(t, x, v) = f(0, x, v - tF/m)$ Collision:usually only acts in v.

For collisionless problems (i.e. C(f) = 0) particles travel along the characteristics given by Newton's law.

Fluid models, such as the Euler equation and Navier–Stokes equation, can be derived by assuming $f(t, x, v) \propto \rho \exp(-(v - u)^2/(2T))$, i.e. thermodynamic equilibrium.

Interest from applications such as Tokamak devices (fusion energy), astrophysical plasmas (space weather, magnetosphere, star formation), radiative transfer, ion thrusters, laser plasma interaction, etc.

► Many large scale codes: GYSELA5D, Vlasiator, ...

In a plasma electromagnetic effects are important: F = qE/m.

Vlasov equation in dimensionless form

$$\partial_t f + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_x f - E \cdot \nabla_\mathbf{v} f = 0$$

coupled to a **Poisson problem** (Gauss's law)

$$E=-
abla \phi$$
 with $-\Delta \phi=1-\int f\,dv.$

Vlasov–Maxwell equations include magnetic effects.

Landau damping

Initial value

 $f(0, x, v) = (1 + \alpha \cos(kx)) \frac{\mathrm{e}^{-v^2/2}}{(2\pi)^{d_v/2}},$

 d_v number of dimensions in the *v*-direction.

For $\alpha = 0$ we have an equilibrium.

Quantity of interest is the **electric energy** given by $\frac{1}{2} \int E^2 dx$.

Exponential decay is **not** expected for a **hyperbolic problem**.

First described by **Landau in 1946** using linearization.

Fields Medal 2010 (Cédric Villani) for proving Landau damping and convergence to equilibrium (for α small).



L. Landau. J. Phys. (USSR) 10 (1946). C. Mouhot, C. Villani. Acta Math. 207:1 (2011).

Many fusion devices use beam heating (e.g. NBI - neutral beam injection).

This can lead to a kinetic instability.

► System is far away from thermodynamic equilibrium.

Bump-on-tail instability

To study kinetic dynamics (in almost all situations) requires numerical simulation. Bump-on-tail instability: $f(0, x, v) \propto e^{-v^2/2} + \alpha e^{-(v-v_0)^2/2}$.



Complexity reduction, or why is this a hard problem?

Solve the problem by a well optimized method (say splitting+semi-Lagrangian dG).

Numerical challenges:

- Six-dimensional phase space (n = 50: 250 GB memory vs n = 200: 1024 TB)
- ► Small scale structures force a sufficiently fine space discretization.

To obtain results for **five or six-dimensional** problems requires the **largest supercomputers currently available** (perhaps more than that).

Simulation with 1500 GPUs and $72^{3}144^{3}$ grid points on JUWELS Booster:

- 2 × 24 AMD EPYC 7402 cores and 4× NVIDIA A100 GPUs per node.
- ► Total of 150 TB of GPU memory.



L.E., A. Moriggl. Int. J. High Perform. Comput. Appl. 37:2 (2022).

Option 2: Particle methods

If everything else fails, **try Monte-Carlo**. Probably still the most widely used method (especially in physics).

Particle methods have been employed extensively.

- ► Only *x* is discretized.
- Particles push and field solves are alternated.

But, suffers from **slow convergence**, numerical noise and failure to resolve the tail of the distribution.



-6

17

20 25

5 10 15 20 25 30

A class of techniques to **reduce the degrees of freedom** (i.e. complexity) required to treat a problem.

Data based

- ► Start with data to learn a (not too complex) model from.
- But requires a lot of data, unclear how well it generalizes, often not interpretable.
- Examples: Machine learning, POD type methods, etc.

Model based

- ► Starts with a known model (e.g. Vlasov–Poisson equation).
- ► Apply a series of mathematical/numerical operations to reduce the problem.

Sparse grids

[H. Bungartz, M. Griebel. Acta Numer. 13, 2004]

Consider

$$u \colon [0,1]^d \to \mathbb{R}, \ x \mapsto \prod_{j=1}^d \exp(-lpha(x_j - 1/2)^2)$$

for which

 $\|\partial_{x_1}\ldots\partial_{x_d}u\|_{\infty}\approx (2\alpha)^d.$



Why is complexity reduction hard for hyperbolic problems

Advection equation

$$\partial_t u(t,x) + v \partial_x u(t,x) = 0, \qquad \Omega = [0,1], \qquad u(0,x) = u^0(x).$$

Consider the approximation

$$u(t,x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i(t)\phi_i(x).$$

What is the best basis $\{\phi_i\}_{i=1}^n$? Solution lives in

$$U = \{ u^{\mathsf{0}}(x - \alpha) \colon \alpha \in [0, 1] \}$$

Kolmogorov N-width gives the best error for a basis with *n* elements

$$d_n(U) = \inf_{\dim(V_n)=n} \sup_{u \in U} \inf_{v_n \in V_n} \|u - v_n\|_{L^2(\Omega)}.$$









Behavior of the error

- L^{∞} error is always $\mathcal{O}(1)$
- L^2 error is proportional to n^{-1}

For smooth u^0 we have $d_n(U) \leq C \exp(-cn)$ for some constant c.

▶ Proof: Use that Fourier coefficients of a smooth function decay exponentially.

For non-smooth u^0 we have only $d_n(U) \leq Cn^{-1/2}$.

► Thus, any fixed basis is very inefficient.

But if we vary the basis in time n = 1 is sufficient as

$$u(t,x) = 1 \cdot \phi(t,x),$$
 with $\phi(t,x) = u^0(t-vt).$

Singular value decomposition for a matrix $A_{ij} = g(x_i, v_j)$ is given by

 $A = \mathbf{V} S \mathbf{W}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

with $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$, $S \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}$, $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}$, and r the rank of A.

Low-rank approximation

$$g(x, v) \approx \sum_{ij} \frac{X_i(x)S_{ij}V_j(v)}{X_i(x)S_{ij}V_j(v)}$$

Orthogonality constraints: $\langle X_i, X_j \rangle_{\times} = \delta_{ij}, \langle V_i, V_j \rangle_{\vee} = \delta_{ij}$.

Step 1: We start with a (usually) high-dimensional PDE

Find $f(t,\xi)$ such that $\partial_t f = \operatorname{RHS}(f)$.

Step 2: Low-rank approximation with $\xi = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v})$

$$f(t, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{r} X_i(t, \mathbf{x}) S_{ij}(t) V_j(t, \mathbf{v}), \qquad \langle X_i, X_j \rangle_{\mathbf{x}} = \delta_{ij}, \quad \langle V_i, V_j \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} = \delta_{ij}.$$

forms a **manifold** \mathcal{M}_r .



Step 3: Exact flow $\partial_t f = \mathsf{RHS}(f)$ takes us out of the low-rank manifold.



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Step 4: Represent the tangent space \mathcal{TM}_r as $\dot{f} = \sum_{ij} \left(\dot{X}_i S_{ij} V_j + X_i \dot{S}_{ij} V_j + X_i S_{ij} \dot{V}_j \right)$.



Step 4: Represent the tangent space \mathcal{TM}_r as $\dot{f} = \sum_{ij} \left(\dot{X}_i S_{ij} V_j + X_i \dot{S}_{ij} V_j + X_i S_{ij} \dot{V}_j \right)$ A point in the tangent space is specified by $\dot{X}_i, \dot{S}_{ij}, \dot{V}_j$.



Step 5: Look for $\partial_t f = P(f) \text{RHS}(f)$ with P(f) the orthogonal projection on the tangent space.



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• Determine $\dot{X}_i, \dot{S}_{ij}, \dot{V}_j$ from $\sum_{ij} \left(\dot{X}_i S_{ij} V_j + X_i \dot{S}_{ij} V_j + X_i S_{ij} \dot{V}_j \right) = P(f)$ RHS.



Dynamical low-rank approximation

$$f(t,x,v) = \sum_{ij} X_i(t,x) S_{ij}(t) V_j(t,v).$$

Lower-dimensional basis is allowed to vary in time

Low-rank functions (with fixed r) form a **manifold** with functions in the tangent space represented as

$$\dot{f} = \sum_{ij} \left(\dot{X}_i S_{ij} V_j + X_i \dot{S}_{ij} V_j + X_i S_{ij} \dot{V}_j \right).$$

This representation is not unique. For example,

$$\dot{X}_i = X_i, \ \dot{S}_{ij} = 0$$
 and $\dot{X}_i = 0, \ \dot{S}_{ij} = S_{ij}$

gives the same vector in the tangent space.

Gauge conditions

We impose the Gauge conditions $\langle X_i, \dot{X}_j \rangle_x = 0$ and $\langle V_i, \dot{V}_j \rangle_v = 0$. Equation for S

$$\begin{split} \langle \mathbf{X}_{k} \mathbf{V}_{l}, \dot{f} \rangle_{xv} &= \sum_{ij} \langle \mathbf{X}_{k} \mathbf{V}_{l}, \dot{X}_{i} S_{ij} \mathbf{V}_{j} + X_{i} \dot{S}_{ij} \mathbf{V}_{j} + X_{i} S_{ij} \dot{V}_{j} \rangle_{xv} \\ &= \sum_{ij} \langle \mathbf{X}_{k}, \dot{X}_{i} \rangle_{x} S_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, \mathbf{V}_{j} \rangle_{v} + \sum_{ij} \langle \mathbf{X}_{k}, X_{i} \rangle_{x} \dot{S}_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, \mathbf{V}_{j} \rangle_{v} + \sum_{ij} \langle \mathbf{X}_{k}, X_{i} \rangle_{x} S_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, \dot{V}_{j} \rangle_{v} \\ &= \dot{S}_{kl} \end{split}$$

Equation for X

$$\begin{split} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, \dot{f} \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} &= \sum_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, \dot{X}_{i} S_{ij} V_{j} + X_{i} \dot{S}_{ij} V_{j} + X_{i} S_{ij} \dot{V}_{j} \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} \\ &= \sum_{ij} \dot{X}_{i} S_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, V_{j} \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} + \sum_{ij} X_{i} \dot{S}_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, V_{j} \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} + \sum_{ij} X_{i} S_{ij} \langle \mathbf{V}_{l}, \dot{V}_{j} \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} \\ &= \sum_{i} \dot{X}_{i} S_{il} + \sum_{i} X_{i} \dot{S}_{il} \end{split}$$

Equations of motion

$$\partial_t S_{ij} = \langle X_i V_j, \mathsf{RHS} \rangle_{xv}, \qquad \text{ODE}$$

$$\sum_i S_{ij}(\partial_t X_i) = \langle V_j, \mathsf{RHS} \rangle_v - \sum_i X_i(\partial_t S_{ij}), \qquad \text{x dependent PDE}$$

$$\sum_j S_{ij}(\partial_t V_j) = \langle X_i, \mathsf{RHS} \rangle_x - \sum_j (\partial_t S_{ij}) V_j. \qquad \text{v dependent PDE}$$

We have obtained

- A set of partial PDEs for the low-rank factors X, S, V.
- The low-rank factors only depend on x, v but not on both (i.e. $X_i(t,x)$, $V_j(t,v)$ vs f(t,x,v)).
- ► Up to now independent of the specific PDE we want to solve.

We can now substitute

$$\mathsf{RHS} = -\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f + E(f) \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{v}} f \quad \text{with} \quad f = \sum_{kl} X_k S_{kl} V_l$$

For example,

$$\langle V_j, \mathsf{RHS} \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} = \langle V_j, \mathbf{v} \mapsto -\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f + E(f) \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{v}} f \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} = -\sum_{I} \langle V_j \mathbf{v} V_I \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \sum_{k} S_{kl} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} X_k + \sum_{I} E \cdot \langle V_j \nabla_{\mathbf{v}} V_I \rangle_{\mathbf{v}} \sum_{k} S_{kl} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} X_k$$

We can now compute this efficiently.

Your choice of time and space discretization

Computational complexity

Memory usage: $\mathcal{O}(rn^d)$ instead of $\mathcal{O}(n^{d_x+d_v})$.

• Limited by storage of X_i and V_j .

Computational complexity: $\mathcal{O}(r^2n^d)$ instead of $\mathcal{O}(n^{d_x+d_v})$.

► Limited by computation of the coefficients and solution of evolution equations.

Coefficients:
$$c_{jl}^1 = \int_{\Omega_v} v V_j V_l \, \mathrm{d}v$$
Storage: $\mathcal{O}(r^2)$ Effort: $\mathcal{O}(r^2 n^{d_v})$ Integration: $\partial_t X_j = \dots$ Storage: $\mathcal{O}(rn^{d_x})$ Effort: $\mathcal{O}(r^2 n^{d_x})$

Dramatic improvement if r is small to moderate.

• E.g. $d_x = d_v = 3$, n = 200, r = 10 we have 1024 TB vs 160 MB to store two copies of f.

 $d = \max(d_x, d_v).$

In principle, we can now forget about low-rank and implement the new PDEs. But to obtain equations in X_i and V_j we have to invert S and S^T ($S\partial_t X = ...$).

Approximation by truncation of the SVD $A \approx VSW^{T}$.

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mu_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mu_5 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mu_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mu_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Error vs condition number

- If μ_4 is large than the error is large.
- If μ_3 is small than inverting *S* is ill-conditioned.

Literature

[O. Koch, C. Lubich. SIAM J. Matrix Anal. Appl., 29(2), 2007]

 Dynamical low-rank algorithm for matrix equations, modern mathematical formulation.

[L.E., C. Lubich, SIAM J. Sci. Comput. 40(5), 2018]

- ▶ Projector splitting based dynamical low-rank algorithm for Vlasov–Poisson.
- Probably the best starting point to get more details.

[L.E., K. Kormann, J. Kusch, R.G. McClarren, J.-M. Qiu. arXiv:2412.05912]

► Review article with comparison to other methods and survey of the literature.