

Negative coefficients in Kuramoto oscillators

Project Report

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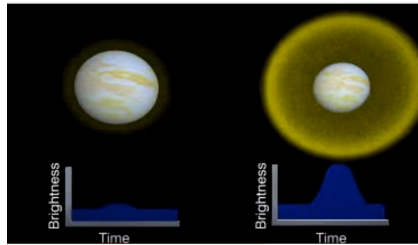
Contents

1	Introduction	3
1.1	Oscillators	3
1.2	Coupling	3
1.3	Attaining Synchronisation	4
1.4	The Firefly model	4
1.5	Goal	5
2	The Kuramoto oscillator	7
2.1	Definition	7
2.2	The Adjacency matrix and network topology	7
2.3	Our implementation	8
3	Patterns in negative coefficient systems	9
3.1	The 2-oscillator system	9
3.2	Oscillators on a line	9
3.3	Oscillators on a Circle System	12
4	Reproducing desired patterns	14
4.1	Defining pattern reproduction	14
4.2	Simple patterns	15
4.3	Creating More Complex Patterns	15
5	Conclusion	19

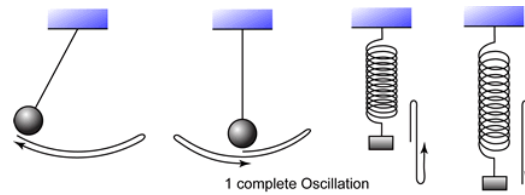
1 Introduction

1.1 Oscillators

Oscillators can be described as a repetitive motion of some measure about a central value which is often the point of equilibrium. This term is often used in mechanical systems but it must also be noted that oscillations occur in dynamic systems too, such as economic graphs, geothermal temperatures across areas and periodic “firing” of fireflies in nature. Some examples of oscillating objects can be found in Figure 1.



(a) Cepheid Stars that are known to flash occasionally. Such a flash is an example of an oscillation.



(b) A pendulum swinging to the left and right and a spring oscillating up and down.

Figure 1: Some examples of oscillating objects

1.2 Coupling

Coupled Oscillations are a slightly more complex form of ordinary oscillators. In this model the oscillators are connected such that energy can be transferred between them. This motion can be very complex and does not have to be periodic. However, in the bigger scheme of things, every oscillator can be viewed as having a very well defined frequency of its own. Perhaps the simplest example of coupling could be a gear that transmits torque between two shafts (see Figure 2) that are not collinear.

A slightly more complex situation arises when two pendulums are joined together by an energy medium, for example a string. As we can see in Figure 3, the two pendulums have opposite amplitudes: The first pendulum only attains its maximum amplitude when the second has its lowest one.

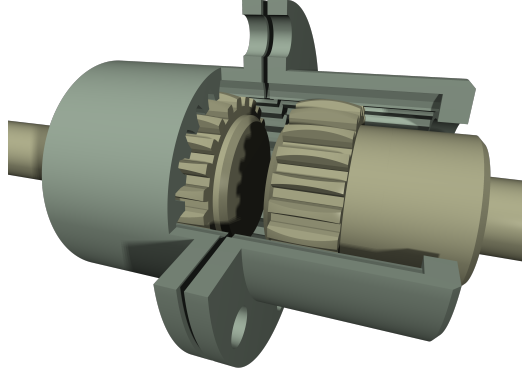


Figure 2: Image of a gear that transmits torque between two non-collinear shafts.

This form of synchronization behaviour can only be achieved after sufficient time has passed.

1.3 Attaining Synchronisation

In any oscillating system of multiple objects synchronization can occur in two ways, (1) through coupling or (2) through randomness. In the first case some form of communication between the oscillators occurs allowing them to couple. In the second case it just so happens that they start out in a similar situation and are naturally synchronized. In this study we are only interested in the first case.

Communication can be achieved by using a medium such as a string between oscillators or by just the intrinsic tendency of natural beings to produce a unison of movement, such as fireflies flashing or humans clapping in a room.

1.4 The Firefly model

The firefly flashing, more commonly known as the firefly model, is a classic example of synchronisation. This is modelled in detail by Kuramoto oscillators which is the main topic of study for this report. We will introduce these in the next section.

The light patterns of fireflies are part of a mating display that the male fireflies use to attract the female ones. If successful, the female replies back with a characteristic flash of its own. Although this is synchronisation on its

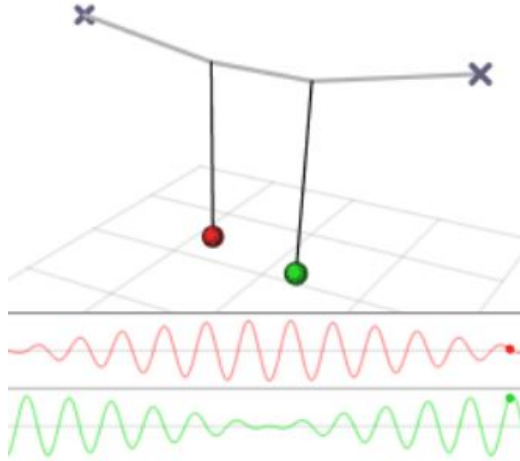


Figure 3: Two oscillating springs that exhibit coupling behaviour because they are connected through a string

own, there are a few species of fireflies where more than 2 individuals can synchronize. These species are usually observed in large groups, all flashing together in unison.

As we can see in Figure 4, all of the species fire off one after another in a synchronized fashion except the blue one which seems to be random.

1.5 Goal

Our goal for this study is to investigate Kuramoto oscillators with negative coupling co-efficients. We will define what exactly a coupling coefficient is and what negative coefficients mean in the next section, but one can intuitively think of it as a number measuring the strength of attraction between two oscillators. The reason we specifically want to use negative coupling co-efficients is because, in contrast to positive coefficients, it is much easier to generate complex synchronisation patterns. We want to study and observe these patterns and investigate if we can construct systems that generate desired patterns.

In Section 2 we will introduce the Kuramoto oscillator, explain its equations, some required background knowledge as well as our implementation of it. In Section 3 we continue with describing the patterns we encountered

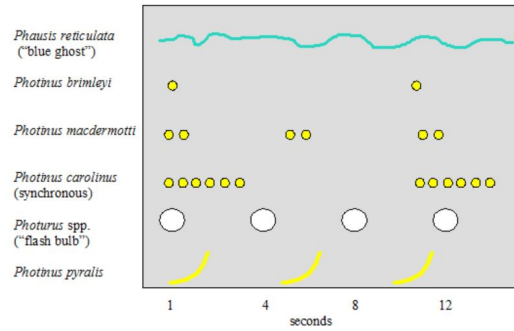


Figure 4: Behaviour of fireflies flashing over the time.

when using negative coefficients. We then move on to describe a method which can be used to re-create arbitrary patterns in Section 4 before concluding in Section 5.

2 The Kuramoto oscillator

2.1 Definition

The problem of having a naive viewpoint on the subject of synchronization is that one may believe that every different coupling situation would require its own treatment. This may stem from the fact that one may be focusing too much on the differences rather than the similarities which are found in all synchronous systems. In this project we want to use the model of oscillators that was first introduced by Kuramoto in [1]. The most common form is given by the following system of ODEs:

$$\dot{\theta}_i = \omega_i + \sum_{j=0}^N A_{i,j} \sin(\theta_j - \theta_i + B_i \sin(\Omega(t) - \theta_i))$$

Here

θ_i = The phase of the i^{th} oscillator

ω_i = The natural frequency of the i^{th} oscillator

$A_{i,j}$ = The adjacency matrix of the system

Each oscillator has its own natural frequency which is held when kept in isolation but when coupled with other oscillators, it changes. This change is periodic and is thus represented by the periodic sin function.

2.2 The Adjacency matrix and network topology

Now we move on to define the mathematical tools being used in this project. The Adjacency matrix is a square matrix that is using to represent a finite graph. The elements of the matrix indicate whether pairs of vertices are adjacent or not, ie if they are adjacent they get assigned a value of -1 else 0. This information can be directly retrieved from the topology network graph as follows:-

As we can see, on the top is the topological network containing the vertices of the system and below lies the coupling graphs of the system over time. Over here, we can see that the couples are trying to stay as far away as possible so after the initial unrest there is always a phase difference of 2π .

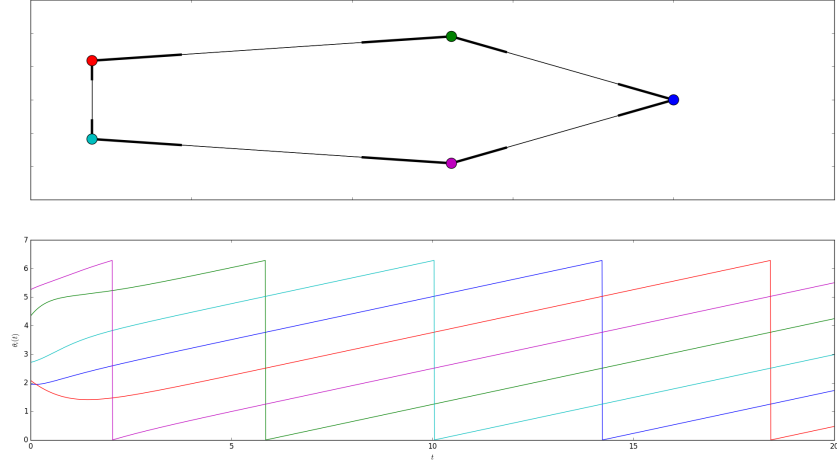


Figure 5

2.3 Our implementation

3 Patterns in negative coefficient systems

For our investigation of the negative coefficient situation we consider a simplified version of the Kuramoto oscillator. Specifically we assume that all oscillators have the same basic frequency ω_i , which we call ω . We also assume that there is no external driver to the system, i.e. $b_i = 0$. This simplifies the system of equations to:

$$\dot{\theta}_i = \omega + \sum_{j=0}^N A_{i,j} \sin \theta_i - \theta_j$$

Furthermore we assume that all coefficients in the matrix A are either -1 or 0 . We can thus see A as the negative of an adjacency matrix of a graph. Here each oscillator is considered as a node of a graph and an edge can be interpreted as A having a -1 in the appropriate place.

3.1 The 2-oscillator system

The first situation we consider is the case of only 2 oscillators. It is obvious that if the oscillators are not connected through an edge, no synchronisation occurs. Thus the only situation of interest is the case where they are connected through an edge, i.e.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We have simulated this situation with random initial values for the oscillators. As can be seen from the typical result in Figure 6 the two oscillators lock to the same frequency but have a phase shift of π , i.e. they are in anti-phase. We observed that this behaviour occurs independent of the initial values. This behaviour can be explained since both oscillators are influencing each other with equal negative coefficients they oscillate as far away from each other as possible.

3.2 Oscillators on a line

Next we want to expand this behaviour to the situation of several oscillators on a line. In this sense, that refers to the situation where N oscillators are ordered linearly and each oscillator is only connected to the next and previous in the line (except for the ones at either end of the line). The associated

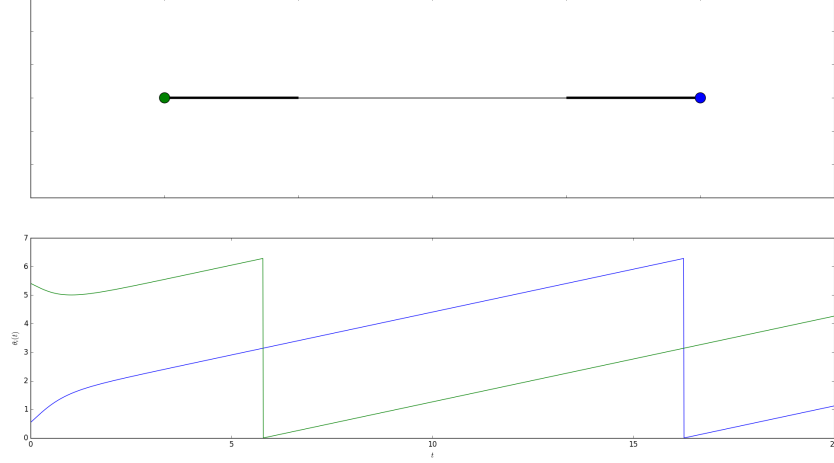


Figure 6: Simulation of a simplified 2 oscillator Kuramoto system with $\omega = 0.3$ and random initial values. A is given by the negative of the adjacency matrix of the associated graph topology which can be seen in the upper part of the figure. The behaviour of the oscillators over time can be seen in the lower part.

matrices A to these situations are 0 except as two bands above and below the diagonal.

In the case of 3 oscillators the adjacency matrix is given by

$$A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and in the case of 10 oscilators it is given by

$$A_{10} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The typical behaviour of such systems can be seen in Figures 7 and 8 respectively. The behaviour naturally extends the behaviour of the 2 oscilator systems above: Neighbouring oscilators are in exact anti-phases. Experiments howed this behaviour to be independent of initial values and the number of oscilators, although the higher the number of oscilators, the longer the system needs to reach this state.

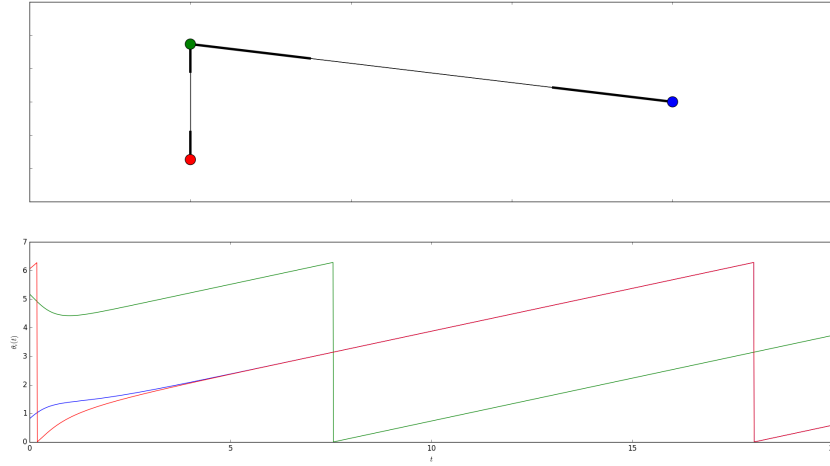


Figure 7: Simulation of a 3 oscilators-on-a-line Kuramoto oscilator system with $\omega = 0.3$ and random initial values. Again A is given by the negative of the adjacency matrix of the associated graph topology.

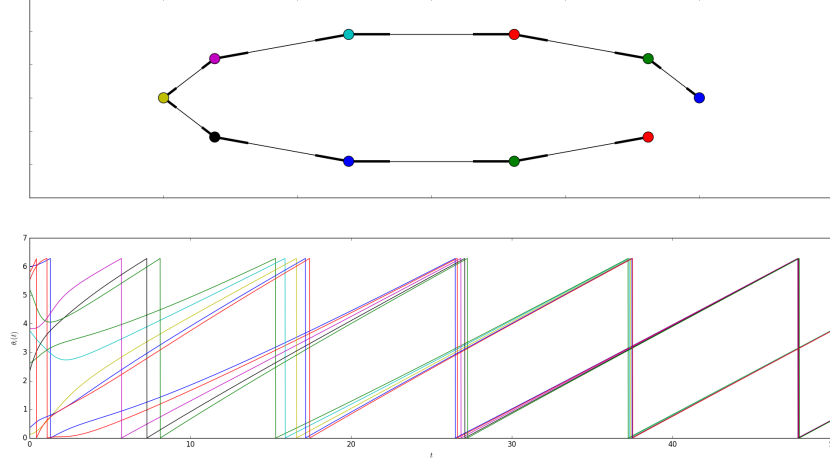


Figure 8: Simulation of a 10 oscillators-on-a-line Kuramoto oscillator system with $\omega = 0.3$ and random initial values. Again A is given by the negative of the adjacency matrix of the associated graph topology.

3.3 Oscillators on a Circle System

The final patterns we observed were patterns in the case of N oscillators on a cycle. This graph looks very similar to the oscillators-on-a-line situation except that the first and last nodes are connected via an edge as well. We have again simulated the system and in this situation we came to interesting results. In the case of 3 oscillators on a cycle (which can be seen in Figure 9) the behaviour is obvious: The oscillators synchronise with phase-shifts of exactly $\frac{2\pi}{3}$.

The behaviour becomes more interesting however if we choose a different number of oscillators, for example 6. In this case we observed 3 different situations with 3 different kinds of phase shifts: Either phase shifts of π (nodes with distance 2 were exactly in phase, see Figure 10), phase shifts of $\frac{2\pi}{3}$ (nodes with distance 3 were exactly in phase, see Figure 11) or phase shifts of $\frac{2\pi}{6}$ (see Figure 12). The last of these pattern could only be produced artificially by choosing the desired situation as initial values.

From these patterns we can deduce that the possible patterns in the general case of N oscillators-on-a-circle depends on the divisors of N . Since each oscillator wants to be as far away from its neighbours as possible, they

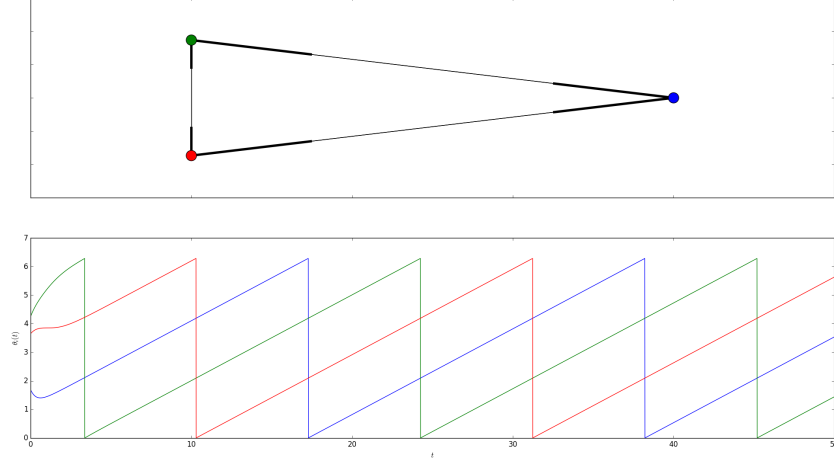


Figure 9: Simulation of a 3 oscillators-on-a-circle Kuramoto oscillator system with $\omega = 0.3$ and random initial values. Again A is given by the negative of the adjacency matrix of the associated graph topology.

space out equally with respect to their phase shifts. However since each oscillator has to be in phase with itself, the sum of all phase shifts around the cycle must be a multiple of 2Π . Thus for each divisor of N we get a different pattern, which is exactly what we observed.

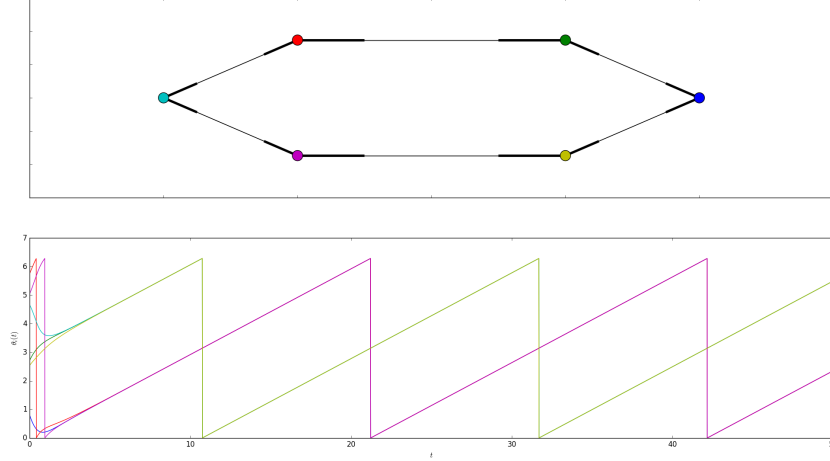


Figure 10: Simulation of a 6 oscillators-on-a-circle Kuramoto oscillator system with $\omega = 0.3$ and random initial values producing a pattern of neighbouring oscillators being exactly anti-phase

4 Reproducing desired patterns

4.1 Defining pattern reproduction

After making the observations in the previous section the next question that naturally occurs is if given a certain pattern, is there an associated graph topology (or associated matrix A) that is capable of reproducing it? In other words given a pattern, can we “train” a topology to create it?

In order to answer this question we first need to define “pattern” properly. We consider a pattern as the set of phase shifts between the different Kuramoto oscillators. In order to be able to observe a pattern in the first case it is necessary for the oscillators to either have the same intrinsic frequencies ω_i or lock into the same frequency.

The reader should furthermore note that since we consider phase shifts only the order of oscillators themselves, they are invariant modulo 2π and the order of oscillators does not play a direct effect.

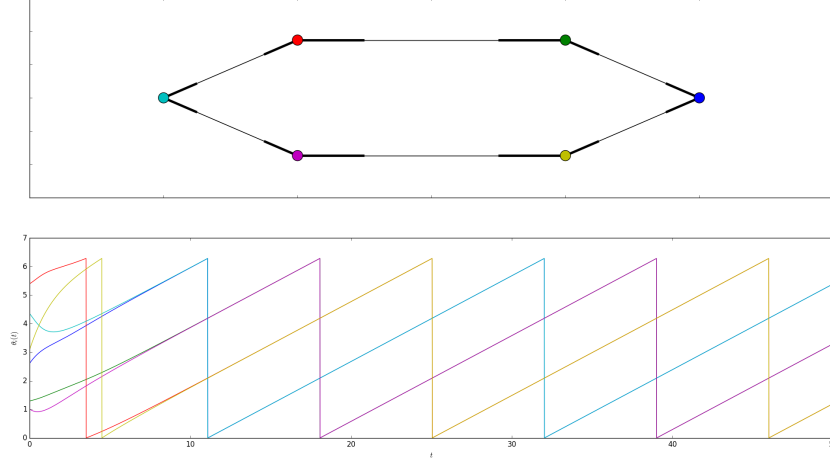


Figure 11: Simulation of a 6 oscillators-on-a-circle Kuramoto oscillator system with $\omega = 0.3$ and random initial values producing a pattern of every 3 oscillators being in sync.

4.2 Simple patterns

We shall first consider the simple case of reproducing a simple pattern between 2 oscillators. If we take into account what we learned in the previous section, it is easily possible to re-create phase-shifts of $\frac{2\pi}{p}$ when p is prime.

If we set up p oscillators on a cyclic graph, we can get different phase shifts between neighbouring oscillators. For each divisor $d \neq 1$ of p we can achieve phase shifts of $\frac{2\pi}{d}$ between neighbouring nodes. However since p is prime, there is only a single such divisor, namely p itself, we will always achieve an offset of $\frac{2\pi}{p}$.

There is a caveat to this situation: We now have p different oscillators in our topology instead of just two. This is not a big problem however, we can just pick 2 oscillators at random and ignore the others.

4.3 Creating More Complex Patterns

We now have the ability to create simple patterns by setting up oscillators in a circle topology. Using the same topology we can also create offsets of the shape $\frac{a \cdot 2\pi}{p}$ where p prime and $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Instead of taking two neighbouring

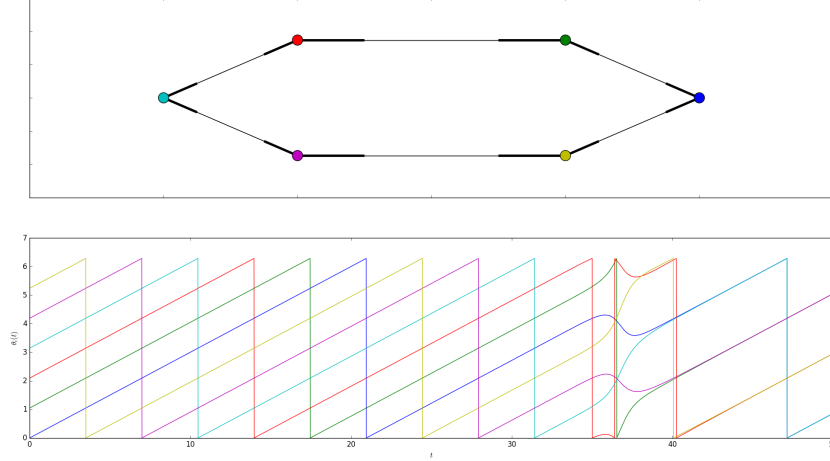


Figure 12: Simulation of a 6 oscillators-on-a-circle Kuramoto oscillator system with $\omega = 0.3$ and specific initial values producing an unstable pattern of oscillators being evenly spaced out in phase shifts.

nodes, we can just take two nodes of distance A on the same topology.

This introduces yet another caveat to the situation: We know the phase shift difference between two values but we can not predict which one is of higher value and which one is of lower value. Since we are working modulo 2π this is not even well defined.

But how can we expand this behaviour to reproduce any phase shifts $\frac{p \cdot 2\pi}{q}$ with $p, q \in \mathbb{N}, q \neq 0$? Turns out it is possible to “add” phase shifts by joining two circular topologies. Both circles will behave as they would individually and additionally the node at which they are joined will always have the same value.

If we wanted to for example reproduce the phase $\frac{8 \cdot 2\pi}{15}$ we can use one circle of size 3 and one circle of size 5. Their phase shifts of $\frac{2\pi}{5}$ and $\frac{2\pi}{3}$ add up to $\frac{8 \cdot 2\pi}{15}$, exactly what we want. The topology can be seen in Figure 13.

There is however a slight problem still: We have no guarantee that the total phase shift is indeed the sum of phase shifts in the individual circles. Since the phase shifts could propagate in different directions the total phase shift could actually be the difference. We can work around this however by choosing the correct initial values for the oscillators – both states are equally

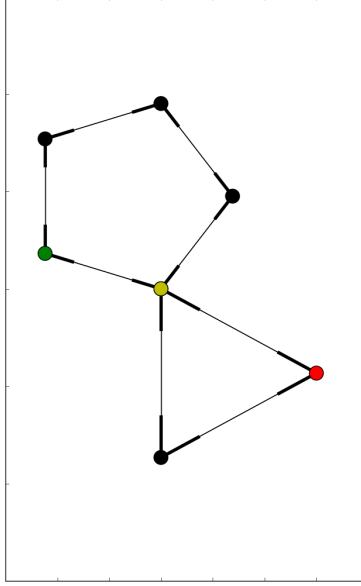


Figure 13: Graph topology used to reproduce a more complex pattern: Two circular topologies joined at the yellow node. The green and yellow nodes will have a phase shift of $\frac{2\pi}{5}$, the yellow and red nodes will have a phase shift of $\frac{2\pi}{3}$. This gives a total phase shift of $\frac{2\pi}{5} + \frac{2\pi}{5} = \frac{8 \cdot 2\pi}{15}$.

stable.

Finally we can note that it is possible to further expand these pattern. Instead of just two circles, we can take more circles to produce offsets of the form

$$\sum_i \frac{q_i \cdot 2\pi}{p_i}$$

with p_i prime and $q_i \in \mathbb{N}$. In fact if we take into account that we are operating modulo 2π we can even take $q_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now given any phase shift $\frac{p \cdot 2\pi}{q}$ we can obviously use the prime factors as denominators p_i and write it in this form. We can then use the procedure described above to create a topology that can produce the given phase shift.

If we have more than two oscillators, we can also continue this procedure, we simply join more circles to the node we want to define an offset relative to.

5 Conclusion

References

- [1] Kuramoto Y. *Chemical Oscillations, Waves, and Turbulence*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag, 1984.