

Elliptical systems & N-body simulations

Lecture 14, Computational Astrophysics (ASTR660)

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Announcements

- ▶ ***HW6 will be posted on eLearn TODAY. Due at 14:20 next week (12/22/2022).*** Late submission within one week will receive **75%** of the credit
- ▶ The final ***oral presentations*** are scheduled on **12/29** and **1/5**. The schedule has been posted on eLearn. Please let me know ASAP if you have any conflicts (you could switch time with someone else if they agree)
- ▶ The final ***product*** of the project is due on **1/12**. Please start early and try to finish the final project on time!

Date	Time	Name	Title
12/29/22	14:20-14:40	吳耕緯	3D N-body with fast multipole method
	14:40-15:00	李佳倫	Effects of AGN Quasar Feedback in Galaxy Clusters
	15:00-15:20	簡嘉成	Improving my magnetohydrodynamic simulation for non-ideal plasma fluid
	15:30-15:50	凌志騰	A gravitational SPH simulation of galaxy collision from scratch
	15:50-16:10	鄭文淇	Simulate impact-driven atmospheric loss using N-body simulation
	16:20-16:40	龔一桓	Ram pressure striping of galaxy cluster: Can a subcluster be assumed as gasless
	16:40-17:00	劉一璠	Simulate the Kelvin-Helmholtz instability by using FLASH code
1/5/23	14:20-14:40	胡英祈	Modeling Dust Polarization in Protoplanetary Disk at (Sub)millimeter Wavelengths
	14:40-15:00	周育如	Multi-gaussian fit, EW, and line ratio for [O I] 5577 and 6300 from DG Tau
	15:00-15:20	考司圖巴	Compare MCMC based fitting with phenomenological models for X-ray Spectra
	15:30-15:50	郭奕翔	Calculate the entropy of a subregion using Python computation
	15:50-16:10	謝明學	simulate the tidal locking phenomenon
	16:20-16:40	張修瑜	Three-body problem in the Moon, Earth, and the Sun.
	16:40-17:00	石郡翰	Using the Mechanism of AIRES to Simulate the Propagation of Cosmic Rays in the universe

Previous lecture...

- ▶ **MHD equations** are used to describe non-relativistic, charge neutral, magnetized fluids
 - ▶ MHD equations = HD equations + *induction equation* for B + *divergence-free* constraint for B
 - ▶ B field exerts Lorentz force on the fluid, including magnetic tension and magnetic pressure forces
 - ▶ **Plasma beta** ($\beta \equiv \frac{P}{P_B} = \frac{8\pi P}{B^2}$) describes whether B field is dynamically important
- ▶ **Ideal** MHD equations apply to non-resistive, infinitely conducting magnetized fluids
 - ▶ Typically true for astrophysical systems (magnetic Reynolds number $Re_M \equiv \frac{Lu}{\eta} \gg 1$)
 - ▶ **Flux-freezing**: magnetic flux passing through a surface moving with the fluid is conserved
 - ▶ Three characteristics for linear perturbations: Alfvén waves, fast waves, and slow waves

Previous lecture...

- ▶ MHD equations can be solved using finite-volume methods similar to pure hydro
- ▶ Numerical methods to ensure $\text{div}(B) = 0$ include
 - 1) using vector potential A
 - 2) applying artificial diffusion
 - 3) divergence cleaning
 - 4) constrained transport (CT) method
- ▶ Advanced grid refinement techniques for grid-based codes are developed to save computational costs. Commonly used techniques include:
 - 1) non-uniform meshes
 - 2) nested grids
 - 3) adaptive mesh refinement (AMR)
 - 4) Lagrangian/moving meshes

This lecture...

- ▶ Finish discussions about elliptical systems & exercise
- ▶ N-body simulations
 - ▶ Overview
 - ▶ Force computation methods
 - ▶ Smoothed particle hydrodynamics (SPH)

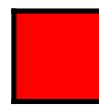
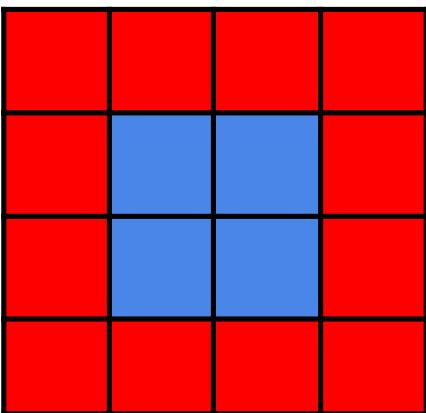
PDE - elliptical systems



Solving the Poisson equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi(\mathbf{r}) = \rho(\mathbf{r})$$

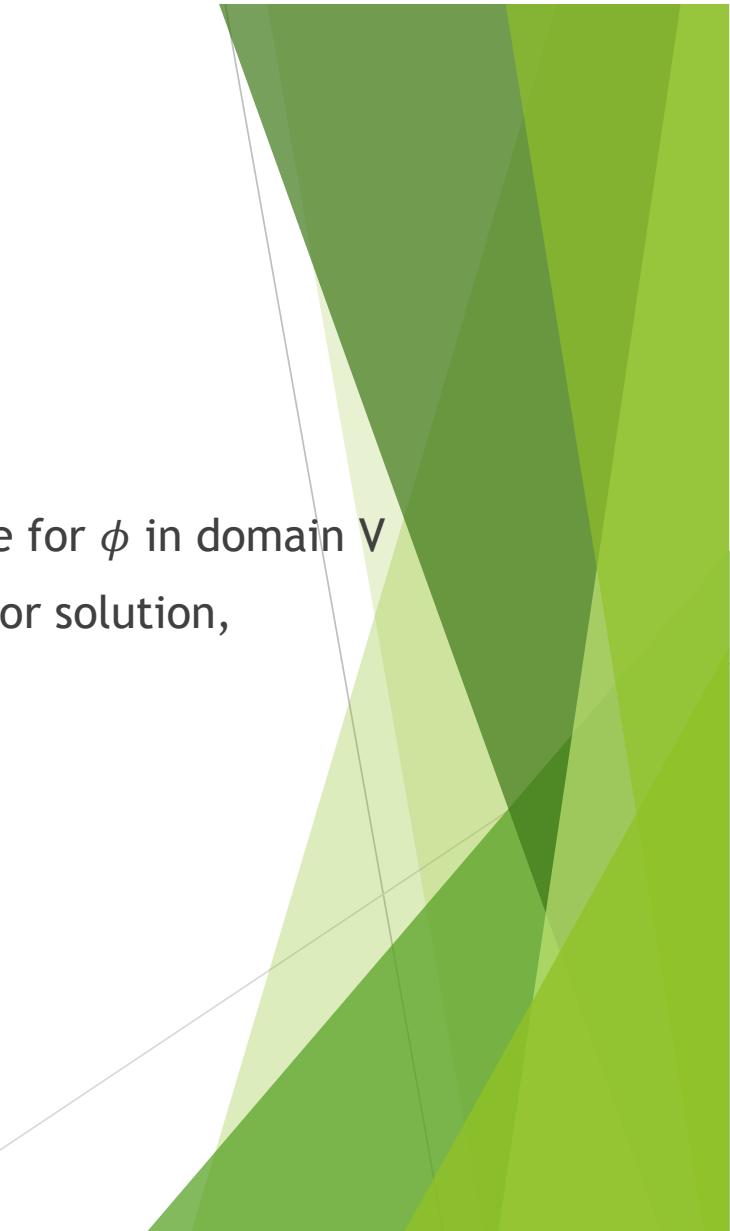
- ▶ ρ : mass density, ϕ : gravitational potential, assuming $4\pi G = 1$
- ▶ This is a BVP: given ρ in domain V and ϕ at the boundary, solve for ϕ in domain V
- ▶ This is typically solved **iteratively**: start from an initial guess for solution, improve it until **residual** is as small as desired



Given ϕ



Given ρ , solve ϕ



Relaxation method

- ▶ Rewrite the Poisson equation: $L\phi = \rho \rightarrow \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = L\phi - \rho$ *L: elliptic/Laplacian operator*
- ▶ Step 1: choose initial guess of ϕ
- ▶ Step 2: let the system ***relax until equilibrium is reached.*** That is, when

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = 0 \rightarrow L\phi = \rho \quad (\text{solution to the original elliptic equation is found})$$

- ▶ What we care about is only the final (relaxed) solution, so intermediate (unrelaxed) solution is allowed to have large errors
- ▶ Relaxation can be very time-consuming ($\propto N^2$) -> key to design an algorithm is to speed up the relaxation process

Relaxation method for Poisson equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi = \rho \rightarrow \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \nabla^2 \phi - \rho$$

- ▶ We can write down a 2D discrete form with FTCS scheme (see Lecture 10) assuming $\Delta x = \Delta y = \Delta$:

$$\frac{\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} - \phi_{i,j}^n}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{\Delta^2} (\phi_{i+1,j}^n + \phi_{i-1,j}^n + \phi_{i,j+1}^n + \phi_{i,j-1}^n - 4\phi_{i,j}^n) - \rho_{i,j}$$

- ▶ CFL stability criterion requires: $\Delta t \leq \Delta^2 / 4 \rightarrow$ let $\Delta t = \Delta^2 / 4$
- ▶ Then we have the **Jacobi method**:

$$\boxed{\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} (\phi_{i+1,j}^n + \phi_{i-1,j}^n + \phi_{i,j+1}^n + \phi_{i,j-1}^n - \Delta^2 \rho_{i,j})}$$

iterate until relaxation/equilibrium/convergence is reached

Relaxation method #2 - Gauss-Seidel (GS) method

- ▶ The Jacobi method converges very slowly (# iterations $\propto N^2$)
- ▶ Alternatively, Gauss-Seidel method uses “in-place” updates:

$$\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\underline{\phi_{i+1,j}^{n/n+1} + \phi_{i-1,j}^{n/n+1} + \phi_{i,j+1}^{n/n+1} + \phi_{i,j-1}^{n/n+1}} - \Delta^2 \rho_{i,j} \right)$$

*use the updated values (n+1) instead of
the original values (n) whenever available*

- ▶ This method converges faster than the Jacobi method
- ▶ But # iterations still $\propto N^2$

Relaxation method #3 - successive over-relaxation (SOR) method

$$\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = \phi_{i,j}^n + \omega(\phi_{i,j,GS}^{n+1} - \phi_{i,j}^n) = (1 - \omega)\phi_{i,j}^n + \omega\phi_{i,j,GS}^{n+1}$$

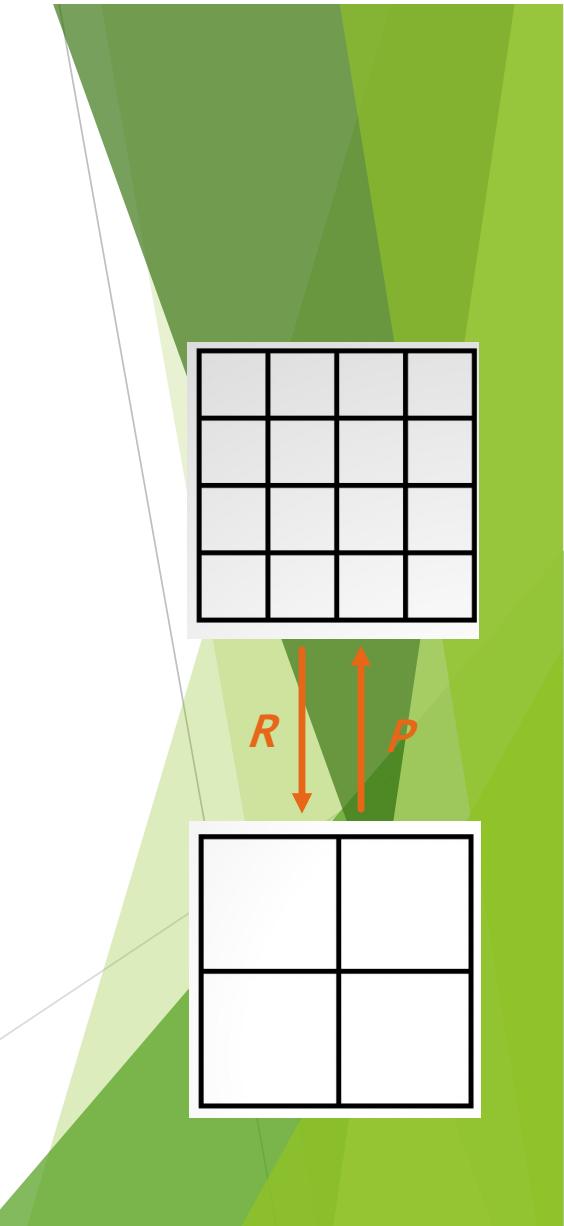
- ▶ ω is a fixed relaxation parameter chosen to accelerate convergence
 - ▶ $\omega > 1$: over-relaxation (as if CFL number > 1)
 - ▶ $\omega < 1$: under-relaxation
 - ▶ $\omega = 1$: Gauss-Seidel method
 - ▶ $\omega > 2$ or $\omega < 0$: method diverges
- ▶ SOR method converges much faster than Jacobi or GS methods
(# iterations $\propto N$ instead of N^2)
- ▶ However, choosing optimal ω is difficult in general

Alternative - multigrid method

- ▶ Even the SOR method is not efficient enough for large problems (for large number of grid points)
- ▶ Say if the true solution contains both low- k modes and high- k modes
 - ▶ **Low- k modes** (i.e., smoother components): takes long time to relax
 - ▶ **High- k modes** (i.e., more oscillatory components): relax quickly
- ▶ These relaxation methods are called “**smoothers**” because they could reduce the errors for high- k modes quickly
- ▶ We could speed up the convergence by **solving the low- k modes on coarser grids** - idea behind the “**multigrid method**”

Multigrid (MG) method

- ▶ The MG method aims to use multiple levels of grids, so that the error components of various modes in the solutions can be reduced rapidly
- ▶ It uses **coarse** grids to solve **low- k** modes
 - ▶ Low- k modes can relax faster (because of fewer cells)
 - ▶ But it cannot capture the high- k modes
- ▶ It uses **fine** grids to solve **high- k** modes
 - ▶ Obtain the high- k solution not captured by the coarse grids
 - ▶ # iterations can be substantially reduced with reduced low- k errors from the coarse grid
- ▶ Operations between coarse and fine grids: **restriction/averaging** and **prolongation/interpolation**



Finding the correction on coarse grids

- ▶ Target equation to solve: $L\phi = \rho$
 - ▶ ϕ is the exact solution to this discretized equation
- ▶ After obtaining an approximate solution on the fine grid ($\tilde{\phi}$), on the **coarse** grid, instead of directly solving the above equation, we could solve for the **correction** for this approximate solution (ϕ^{corr})
- ▶ How to solve for ϕ^{corr} ?

Residual: $\xi = \rho - L\tilde{\phi}$

Correction: $\phi^{corr} = \phi - \tilde{\phi}$

$$L\phi^{corr} = \xi \quad \text{Residual equation}$$

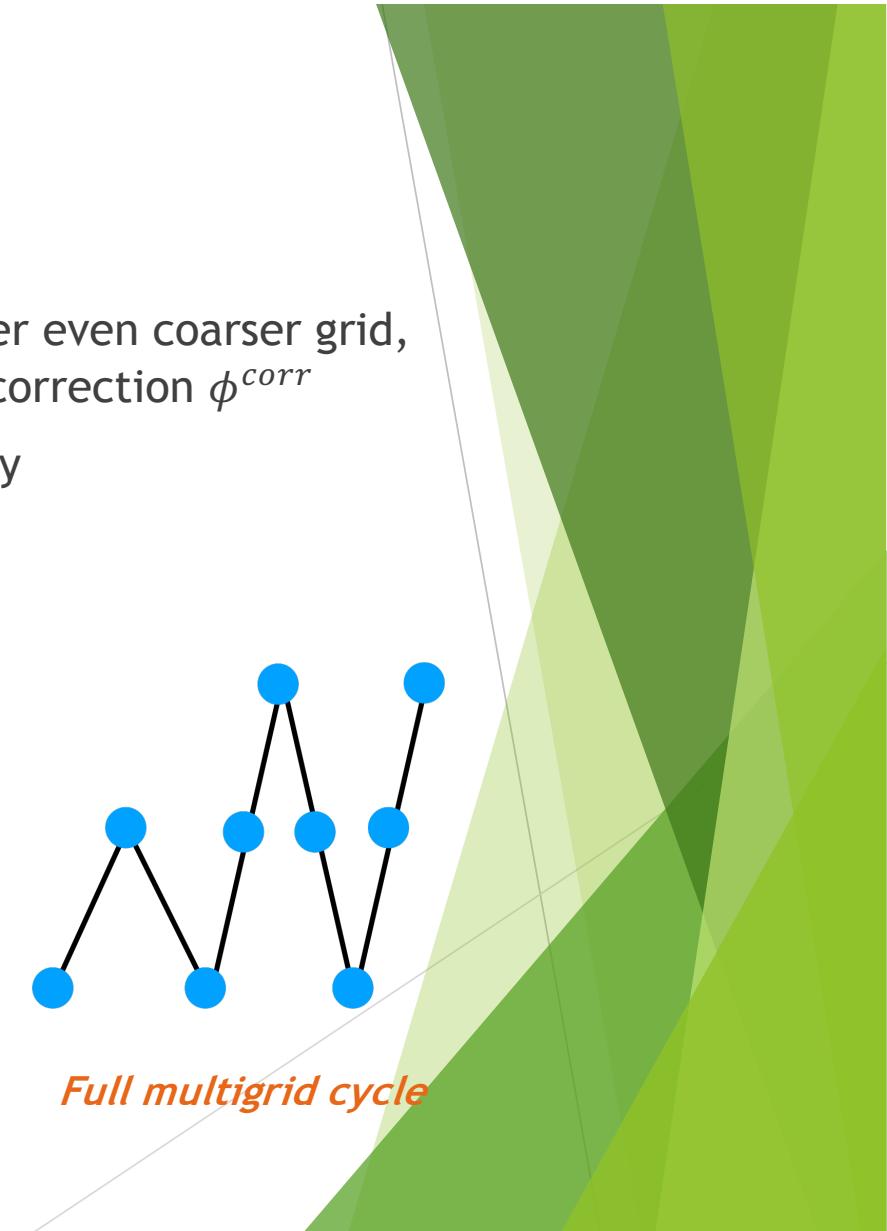
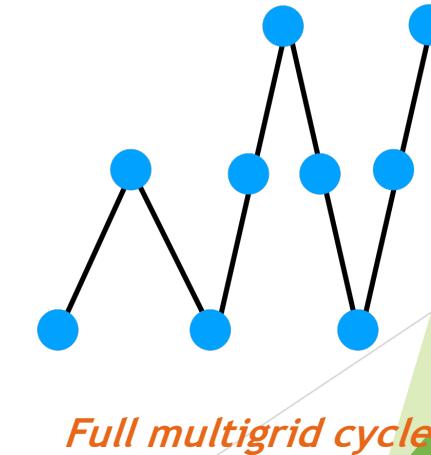
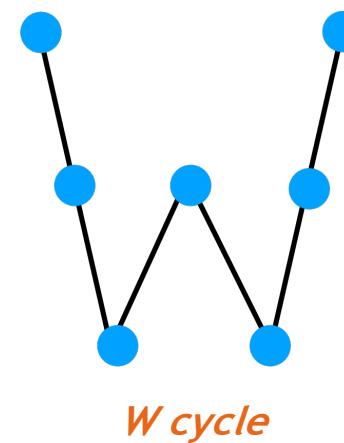
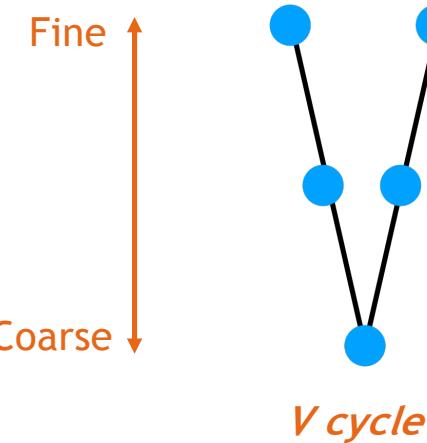
A simple two-grid algorithm

- 1) On fine grid, compute the solution using the smoother (e.g., GS method)
- 2) Compute the residual: $\xi = \rho - L\tilde{\phi}$
- 3) Restrict the residual to coarse grid
- 4) On coarse grid, compute the correction by solving the residual equation using the smoother
- 5) Prolong the correction to fine grid and improve the approximate solution
- 6) On fine grid, apply the smoother to the improved solution



From two-grid to multigrid

- ▶ For step 4 in the last slide, we could introduce another even coarser grid, apply n numbers of two-grid iterations to obtain the correction ϕ^{corr}
- ▶ Multigrid method is to apply this procedure recursively
- ▶ Examples of cycling strategies:



Multigrid methods - final notes

- ▶ Computational cost is only modest multiple of cost of running typical relaxation methods on finest grid
- ▶ Therefore, multigrid methods are among the most powerful methods for solving elliptical PDEs for a large number of grid cells

Solving elliptical PDEs -- summary

- ▶ PDE - elliptical equations (e.g., Laplace equation, Poisson equation)
$$\nabla^2 \phi(\mathbf{r}) = \rho(\mathbf{r})$$
- ▶ They describe systems that already reached steady-states - BVPs
- ▶ ***Relaxation method*** -- rewrite the equation into time-dependent form, iterate until equilibrium is reached
 - ▶ Jacobi method
 - ▶ Gauss-Seidel (GS) method
 - ▶ Successive over-relaxation (SOR) method
- ▶ ***Multigrid (MG) method*** - introduce coarser grids recursively to ***reduce errors for low-k modes*** more quickly
 - ▶ Use V-cycles or W-cycles to alternate between coarse/fine grids
 - ▶ Two operations: ***restriction*** (fine to coarse) and ***prolongation*** (coarse to fine)
 - ▶ On coarse grid, solve the ***residual equation*** to find ***corrections***

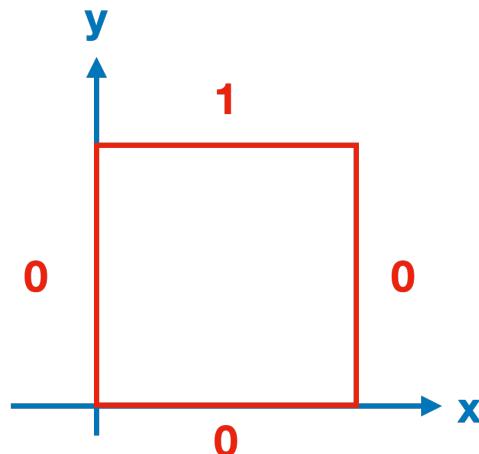
$$L\phi^{corr} = \xi$$

In-class exercises



Exercise -- solving the Laplace equation using the Jacobi relaxation methods

- ▶ For the Laplace equation, $\nabla^2 \phi = \rho = 0 \rightarrow \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \nabla^2 \phi$
- ▶ Jacobi method:
$$\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\phi_{i+1,j}^n + \phi_{i-1,j}^n + \phi_{i,j+1}^n + \phi_{i,j-1}^n - \Delta^2 \rho_{i,j} \right)$$
- ▶ Let's use this B.C. for ϕ :



$$\begin{aligned} n_x &= n_y = 10 \\ (x_{\min}, x_{\max}) &= (0, 1) \\ (y_{\min}, y_{\max}) &= (0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

Exercise -- solving the Laplace equation using the Jacobi relaxation methods

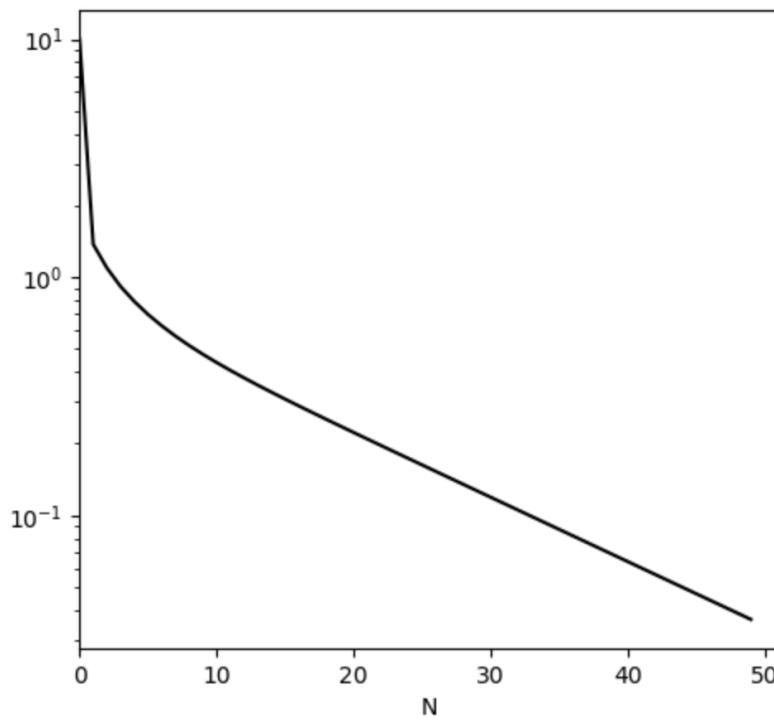
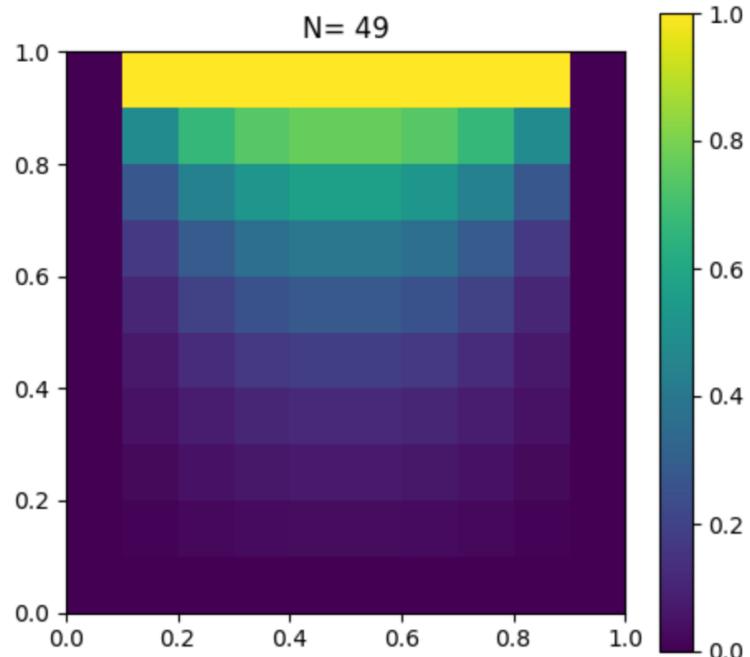
- ▶ Download the sample Jupyter Notebook from the following link:
https://www.dropbox.com/s/r0m7zyy0kcxj89r/laplace_template_L14.ipynb?dl=0
- ▶ If you know how to run Jupyter Notebooks from CICA, feel free to do so. Otherwise you could go to the web-based Jupyter Lab: <https://jupyter.org/try-jupyter/lab/>
- ▶ Upload the template to the Jupyter Lab environment. Take a look at the template and understand how it works
- ▶ Implement the B.C. in the `set_boundary_conditions` function and the Jacobi method in the `evolve_jacobi` function
- ▶ Run the code and visualize the result

Jacobi method

$$\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\phi_{i+1,j}^n + \phi_{i-1,j}^n + \phi_{i,j+1}^n + \phi_{i,j-1}^n - \Delta^2 \rho_{i,j} \right)$$

Exercise -- solving the Laplace equation using the Jacobi relaxation methods

- ▶ Results for the Jacobi method:



Exercise #1b - solving the Laplace equation using the Gauss-Seidel method

- ▶ Implement the Gauss-Seidel (GS) method in the `evolve_gauss_seidel` function
- ▶ Run the code and visualize the result. Does it converge faster than the Jacobi method?

GS method

$$\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\phi_{i+1,j}^{n/n+1} + \phi_{i-1,j}^{n/n+1} + \phi_{i,j+1}^{n/n+1} + \phi_{i,j-1}^{n/n+1} - \Delta^2 \rho_{i,j} \right)$$

*use the updated values ($n+1$) instead of
the original values (n) whenever available*

Exercise #1c - solving the Laplace equation using the SOR method

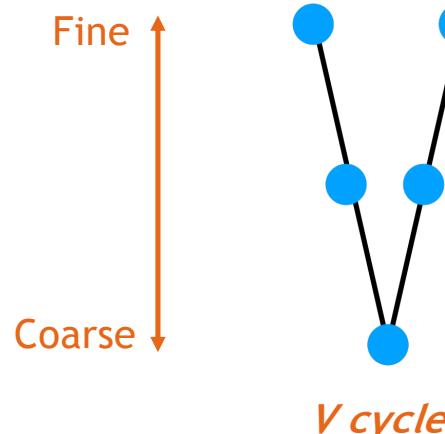
- ▶ Implement the ***successive over-relaxation (SOR)*** method, which applies a weighting to the original solution and the GS solution
- ▶ Run the code (using $w = 1.2$) and visualize the result. Does it converge faster than the Jacobi/GS methods?
- ▶ To get the bonus credit, please submit your code and the screenshots for the ***SOR*** method to the TAs by end of today (12/15/2022)

SOR method

$$\phi_{i,j}^{n+1} = (1 - \omega)\phi_{i,j}^n + \omega\phi_{i,j,GS}^{n+1}$$

Exercise #2 - solving the Laplace equation using the multigrid method

- ▶ Download the sample Jupyter Notebook from the following link:
https://www.dropbox.com/s/r0m7zyy0kcxj89r/laplace_template_L14.ipynb?dl=0
- ▶ Implement the **multigrid** method. Try using a **V-cycle**. For simplicity, use the GS method for NITER iterations to obtain the solutions on each level (we don't solve the residual equation for now)
- ▶ Run the code and visualize the result

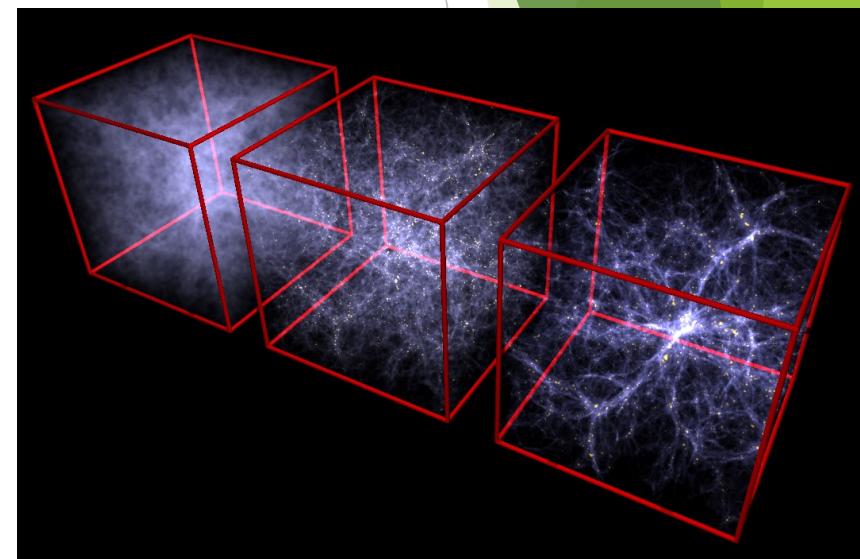


N-body simulations



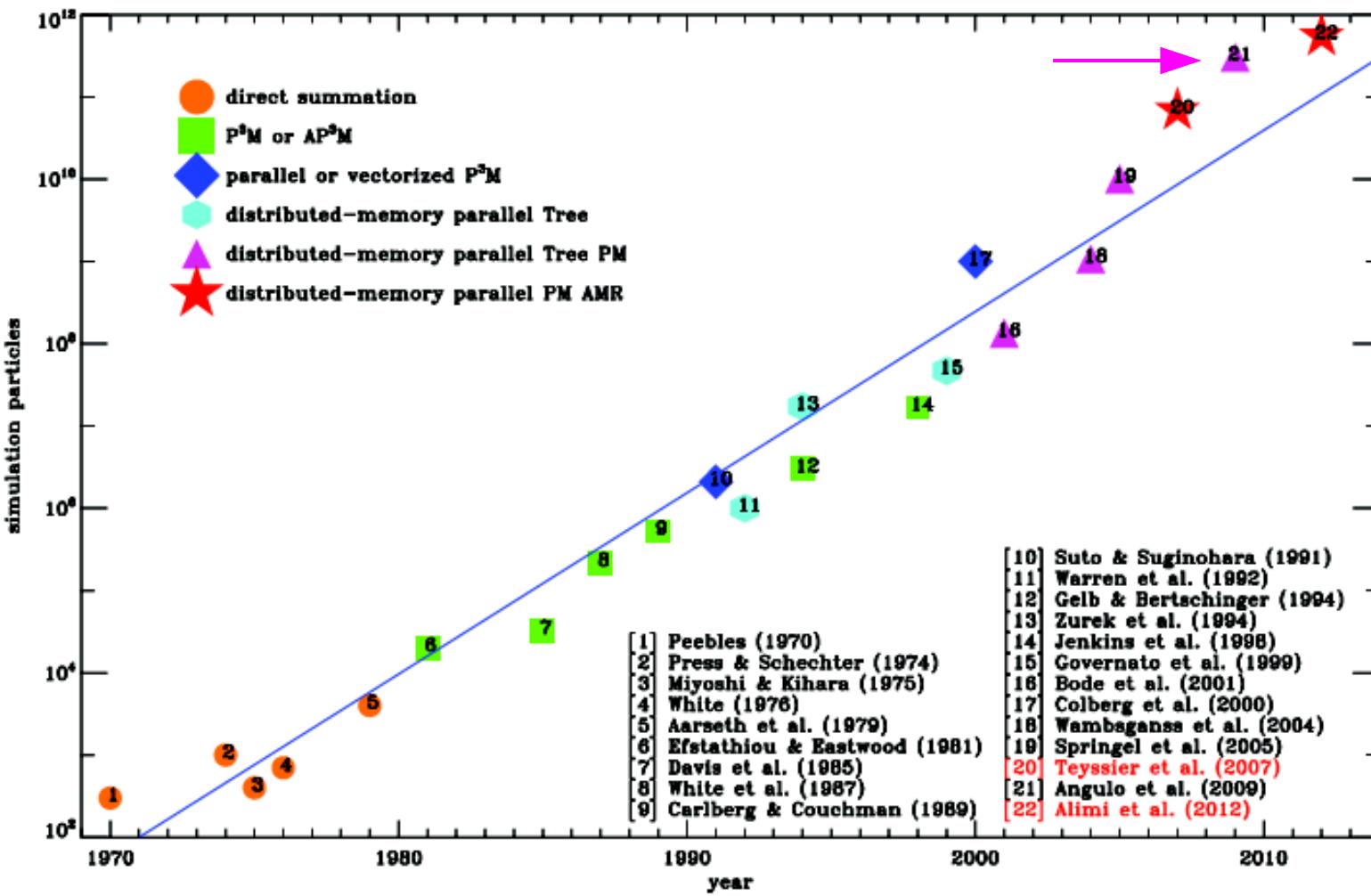
N-body simulations

- ▶ An N-body simulation is a simulation of a dynamical system of *particles* under the influence of physical forces (e.g., gravity, EM force)
- ▶ Widely used in astrophysics
 - ▶ Plasmas ($N \gg 1$ for ions/electrons)
 - ▶ Solar system dynamics ($N \sim 10$ planets)
 - ▶ Globular clusters ($N \sim 10^6$ stars)
 - ▶ Galaxy mergers ($N \sim 10^{12}$ stars)
 - ▶ Clusters of galaxies ($N \sim 1000$ galaxies)
 - ▶ Large scale structure ($N \gg 1$ dark matter or gas particles)
- ▶ Widely used outside astrophysics
 - ▶ Network (internet, power grids)
 - ▶ Molecular and statistical mechanics
 - ▶ High-energy physics (accelerator simulation)
 - ▶ ...



Springel et al. (2003)

Sizes of cosmological N-body simulations



AbacusSummit:
60 trillion particles
(Maksimova et al. 2021)

Angulo et al. (2012)

What do particles represent?

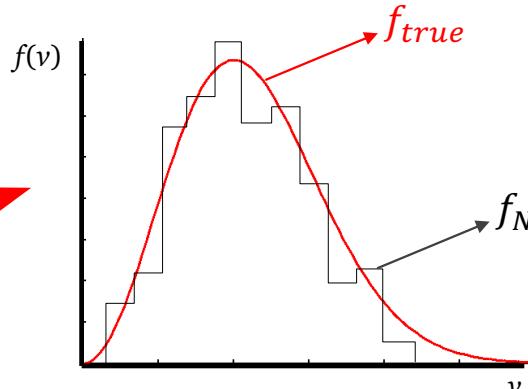
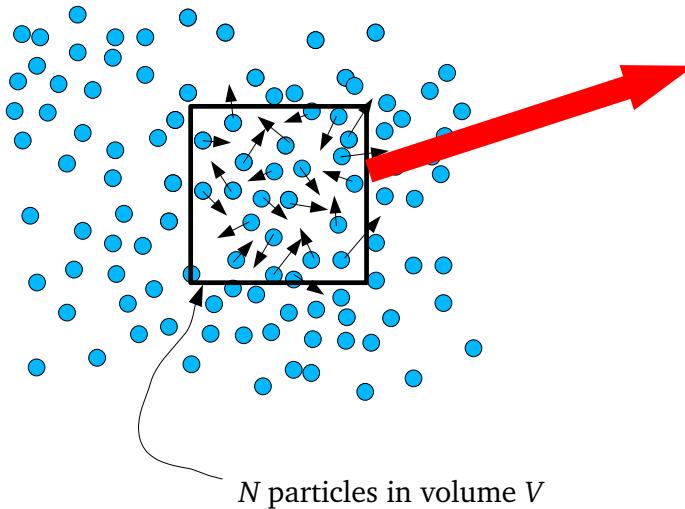
- ▶ Planets, stars, supernovae, black holes
 - ▶ Each particle represents a single point mass
- ▶ Star clusters
 - ▶ Each particle represents a bunch of stars (e.g., star particles in cosmological simulations)
- ▶ Dark matter
 - ▶ Monte-Carlo sampling of the phase space distribution function of DM
 - ▶ Can be either collisionless (CDM) or collisional (self-interacting DM)
- ▶ Gas
 - ▶ Monte-Carlo sampling of the phase space distribution function of gas (e.g., smooth particle hydrodynamics/SPH simulations)
- ▶ Tracers
 - ▶ Trace the trajectory of gas elements
- ▶ Photons
 - ▶ Monte-Carlo simulations of radiative transfer equations

Considerations for simulating particles

- ▶ Point-mass objects
 - ▶ Essential to capture *two-body relaxation (interactions/collisions/scattering)*
 - ▶ Need to deal with diverged gravity at the center
 - ▶ Need to capture binary formation
- ▶ Finite-sized objects (e.g., star clusters, dark matter, gas particles)
 - ▶ Need to avoid two-body relaxation and binary formation
- ▶ Particles can be created, destroyed, or scattered on-the-fly during the simulations
- ▶ Particle properties (e.g., mass, age, metallicity, spin, stellar composition, etc) could change on-the-fly
- ▶ Feedback (e.g., stellar wind, SN explosion, AGN jets) could be implemented using particles

When particles represent finite-sized objects

- ▶ In many applications, we use particles as a collection of particles (e.g., dark matter, gas, dust)
- ▶ N particles in volume V are used to randomly sample the particle distribution function



$$n(\mathbf{x}) = \int f(\mathbf{x}, v) dv \approx \frac{N}{V}$$

$$\frac{|f_N - f_{true}|}{|f_{true}|} \propto N^{-1/2}$$

- ▶ As $N \rightarrow \infty$, error (“shot noise”) in approximate distribution function f_N goes to 0

The problem of two-body relaxation

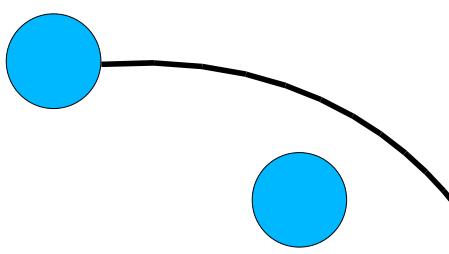
- ▶ Consider particle interactions due to gravity, then the evolution of particle positions and velocities can be treated as an IVP:

$$\frac{d \mathbf{x}_i}{dt} = \mathbf{v}_i$$

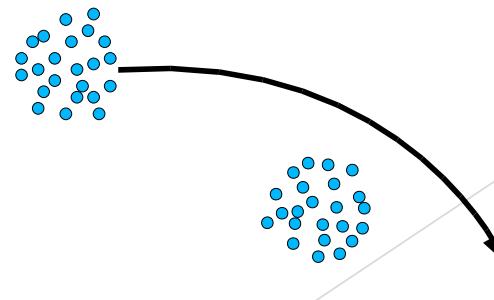
$$\frac{d \mathbf{v}_i}{dt} = -\nabla \phi_{ext} - G \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N m_j \frac{\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|^3}$$

ϕ_{ext} : external potential

- ▶ During close encounters, there could be large-angle scattering between two particles. However, in the real world such coherent scattering for a collection of particles would not happen



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unphysical two-body relaxation

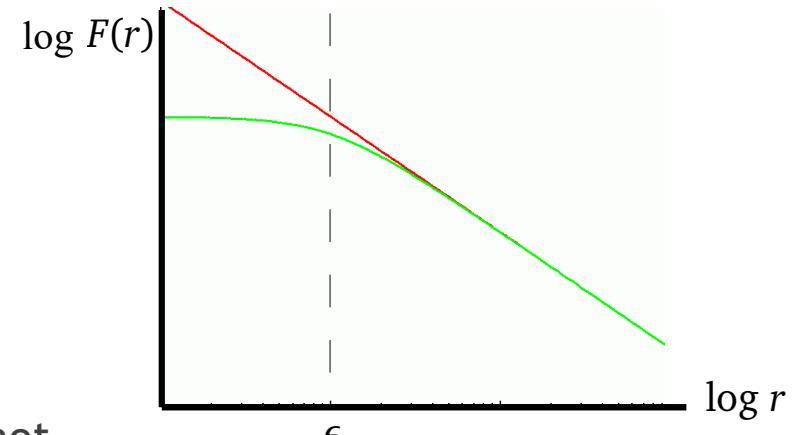
How do we avoid unphysical two-body relaxation?

- ▶ ***Use large N***
 - ▶ Using too few particles would lead to rapid isotropization of particle velocities due to two-body relaxation. Thus, convergence tests are essential

- ▶ ***Use a softened force law***
 - ▶ For gravity this typically takes the form:

$$F(r) = -\frac{Gm^2}{r^2 + \epsilon^2}$$

- ▶ The ***softening length ϵ*** causes the force at small separations to be smaller, so close encounters would not produce large deflections



Choosing proper values of N and ϵ

- ▶ We would like to *increase N (to reduce shot noise)* and *decrease ϵ (to maximize force resolution)*
- ▶ However, their effects are connected so these parameters need to be chosen carefully
- ▶ If we fix N and reduce ϵ
 - ▶ we have better force resolution
 - ▶ but increase unphysical two-body relaxation
- ▶ If we fix ϵ and increase N
 - ▶ we minimize unphysical two-body relaxation and shot noise
 - ▶ but do not improve force resolution (features smaller than ϵ cannot be resolved)
- ▶ Therefore, typically we need to vary their values simultaneously: *$N\epsilon^3 \sim \text{constant}$*

Evolving the particles

- ▶ Simulating the evolution of particles due to some forces is an **IVP**
- ▶ Basic algorithm (recall lecture 7):
 - ▶ Compute the force/acceleration of each particle at t_n : \mathbf{a}_i^n
 - ▶ Use \mathbf{a}_i^n to advance \mathbf{v}_i^n : $\mathbf{v}_i^{n+1} = \mathbf{v}_i^n + \Delta t \mathbf{a}_i^n$
 - ▶ Use \mathbf{v}_i^n to advance \mathbf{x}_i^n : $\mathbf{x}_i^{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_i^n + \Delta t \mathbf{v}_i^n$
- ▶ Need to choose
 - ▶ A **time integration method**
 - ▶ A **force computation method** (more details later)
- ▶ Considerations involved:
 - ▶ How many timesteps are needed
 - ▶ What level of accuracy is needed
 - ▶ What type of computing hardware is available

Time-integration methods - some notes

- ▶ Available solvers: Runge-Kutta, leapfrog, symplectic integrators, etc
- ▶ But there involve some special requirements that would affect our choice of a particular solver:
 - ▶ We require at least $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$ accuracy
 - ▶ If N is large, we would like to avoid implicit methods
 - ▶ We would like to avoid methods that involve multiple evaluations of the acceleration at each step (since they are expensive)
 - ▶ If a large number of timesteps are required, the method should explicitly conserve energy, otherwise the accumulation of roundoff errors would make the solution meaningless

Force computation methods



Algorithm #1: particle-particle (PP) or direct N-body

- ▶ The simplest approach for force calculation is to compute the acceleration for each particle *directly*:

$$\mathbf{a}_i = -G \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N m_j \frac{\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|^3}$$

- ▶ **Pros:** Force law is exact, so for applications in which two-body interactions are important (e.g., planetary systems, globular cluster dynamics), this may be the best method
- ▶ **Cons:** Force computation scales as N^2 -- very expensive for even modest N

Algorithm #2: particle-mesh (PM)

- ▶ If particle interactions are not important (i.e., collisionless), we can speed up dramatically by using fast mesh-based Poisson solvers, which scale as $N_g \ln N_g$
- ▶ Procedure:
 - ▶ Step 1: assign each particle's mass to a grid using a “*mass assignment operator*”. Sum contributions from all particles to obtain a density field ρ
 - ▶ Step 2: using a *mesh-based Poisson solver*, solve $\nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi G\rho$
 - ▶ Step 3: compute the gravitational force on the grid by finite-differencing the potential
 - ▶ Step 4: interpolate force onto the particles using a “*force interpolation operator*”
 - ▶ Step 5: advance particle positions and velocities in time
 - ▶ Step 6: repeat

PM - mass assignment operator

- ▶ A mass assignment operator (step 1 in PM) takes a particle's position and assign its mass to one or more nearby mesh points

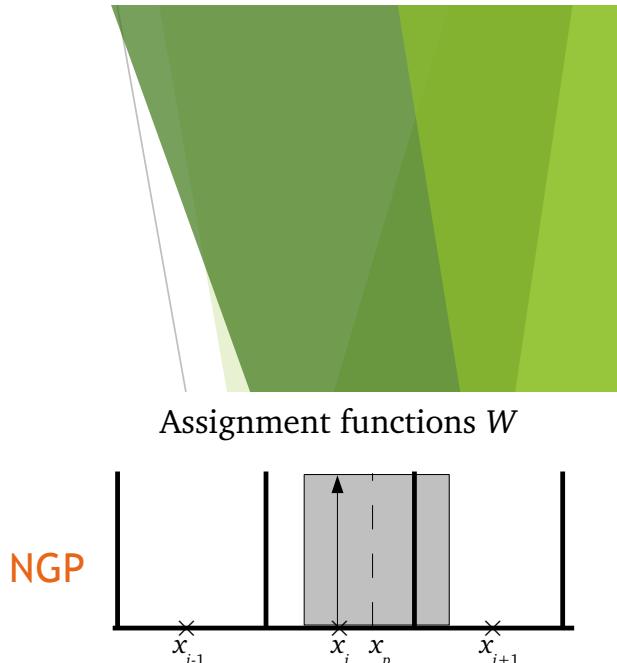
- ▶ Example in 1D: $\rho_i = \frac{m}{\Delta x} \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} W(x_i - x_p)$

assignment function

- ▶ Three commonly used operators:

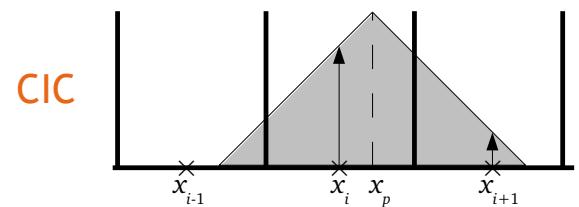
- ▶ **Nearest grid point (NGP)**

$$W_{NGP}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & -\Delta x/2 < x < \Delta x/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



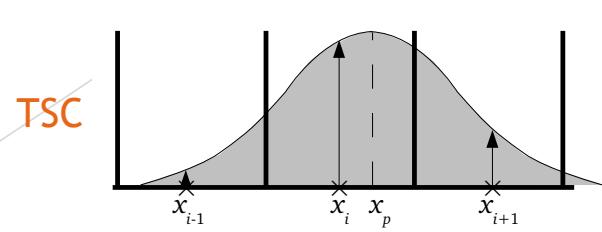
- ▶ **Cloud-in-cell (CIC)**

$$W_{CIC}(x) = \begin{cases} 1+x/\Delta x & -\Delta x < x \\ 1-x/\Delta x & x < \Delta x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



- ▶ **Triangle-shaped cloud (TSC)**

$$W_{TSC}(x) = \frac{W_{CIC}(x) * W_{NGP}(x)}{\text{convolution}}$$



PM - mass assignment operator

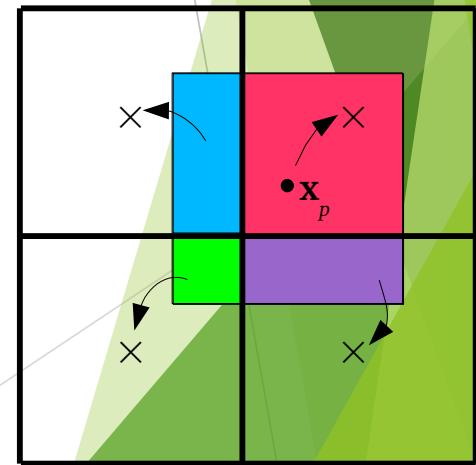
- ▶ The same operators can be used in reverse as the “force interpolation operators” (step 4 in PM) to interpolate forces from the grid onto particle positions:

$$F(x_p) = -m \sum_{i=1}^{N_g} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)_i W(x_p - x_i)$$

- ▶ For multi-D problems we typically use products of 1D weighting functions:

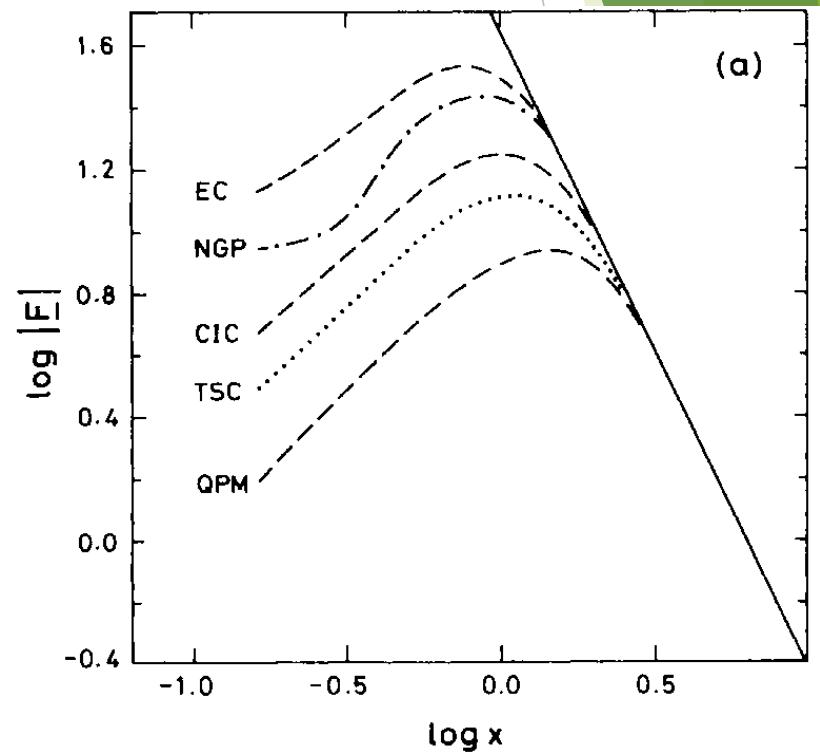
$$\rho_{ijk} = \frac{m}{\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z} \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} W(x_i - x_p) W(y_j - y_p) W(z_k - z_p)$$

Example: 2D CIC



PM - effects of force smoothing

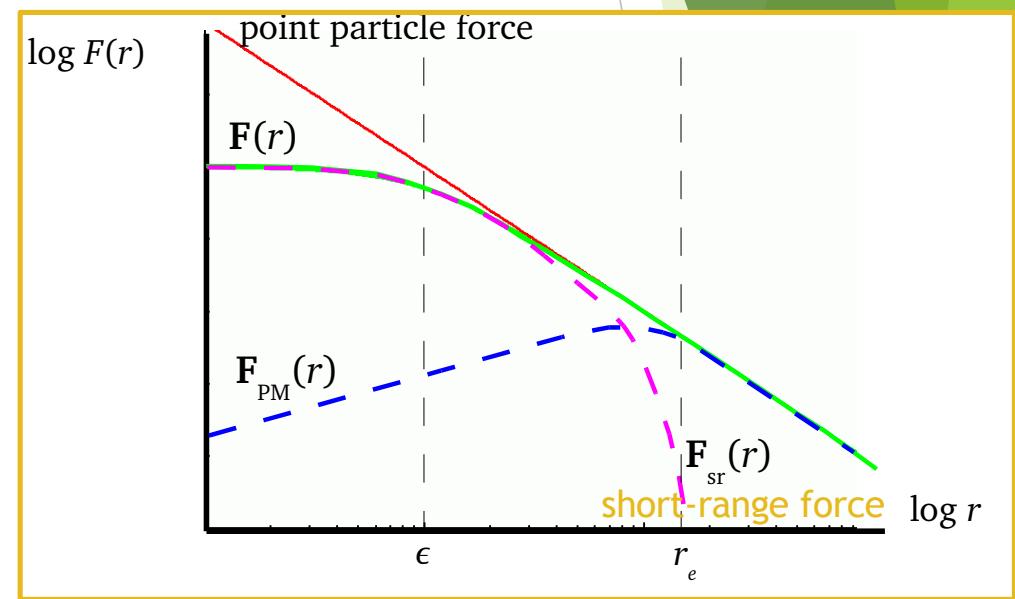
- ▶ Because particles are distributed onto mesh, the force felt by particles deviate from Newtonian law at separations smaller than 2-3 zone widths
- ▶ **Force resolution = 2-3 zone widths** in PM method
- ▶ PM methods automatically include **force smoothing/softening** needed to prevent unphysical two-body relaxation



Efstathiou et al. (1985)

Algorithm #3: particle-particle-particle-mesh (P^3M)

- ▶ Invented in the early 1970s by R. W. Hockney and J. W. Eastwood
- ▶ Designed to improve force accuracy of PM at small separations without cost of PP
- ▶ Idea is to use PP for nearby particles and PM for distant particles
- ▶ Improved force resolution $\sim \epsilon$ = softening length for the short-range force



Algorithm #4: tree codes

- ▶ Developed in mid 1980s by Appel, Jernigan & Porter, and Barnes & Hut
- ▶ Idea:
 - ▶ for nearby particles, sum their forces directly
 - ▶ *for distant particles (especially clustered particles), use approximated forces (e.g., multipole expansion) at their center of mass (C.O.M.)*
- ▶ This could reduce the cost to $\mathcal{O}(N_p \ln N_p)$
- ▶ How do we distinguish nearby/distant particles? use the “*tree*”!

Example: merging of two galaxies

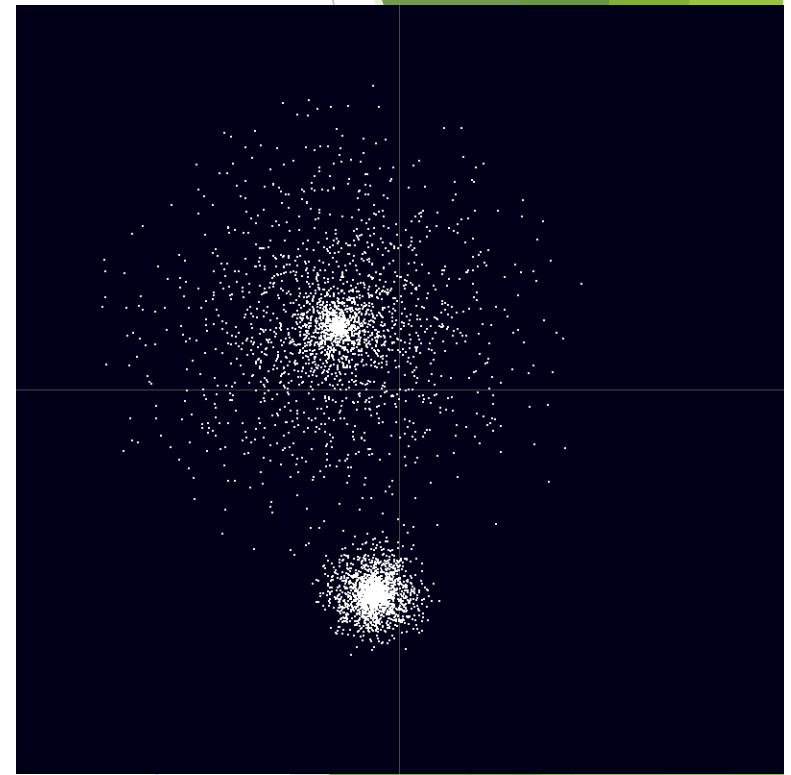
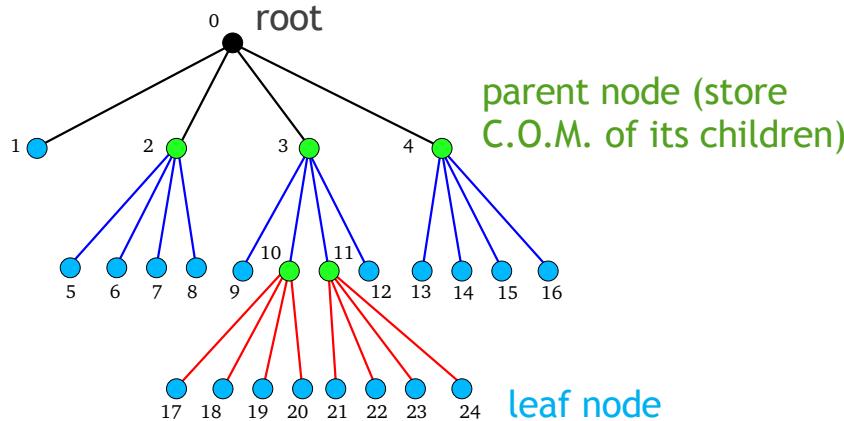
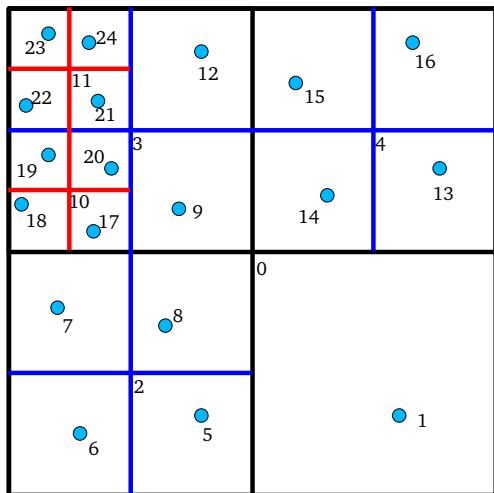


Image credit: Wikipedia

Tree algorithm

- ▶ Step 1: store the particles into a tree structure (simulation volume is divided into cubic cells until each cell has only one particle)

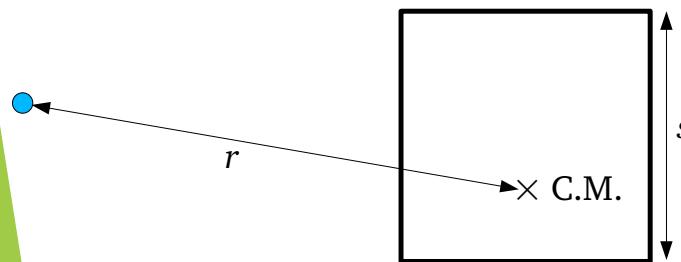


- ▶ Step 2: for each particle, go from the root
 - ▶ If a parent node is distant enough, compute the force using the C.O.M; otherwise go down to its children
 - ▶ If a leaf node is reached, sum the forces directly

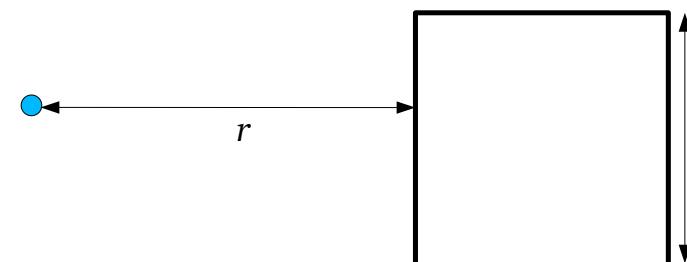
Tree codes - distance criteria

How to tell if a node is distant enough? Three commonly used criteria:

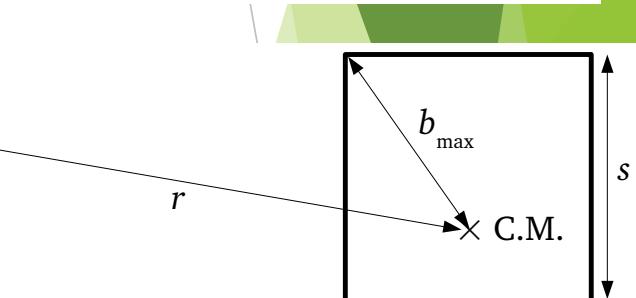
Barnes-Hut method: if $\frac{s}{r} < \theta$



Min-distance method: if $\frac{s}{r} < \theta$



Bmax method: if $\frac{b_{\max}}{r} < \theta$



Examples of astrophysical N-body codes

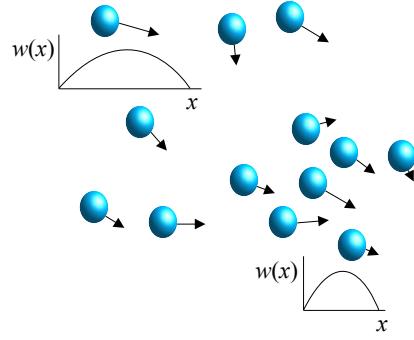
- ▶ Particle-particle (PP)
 - ▶ GRAPESPH
- ▶ Particle-mesh (PM)
 - ▶ FLASH
 - ▶ Enzo
 - ▶ ART
 - ▶ TPM
- ▶ P³M
 - ▶ Hydra
- ▶ Tree
 - ▶ GADGET (TreeSPH)
 - ▶ Gasoline (TreeSPH)



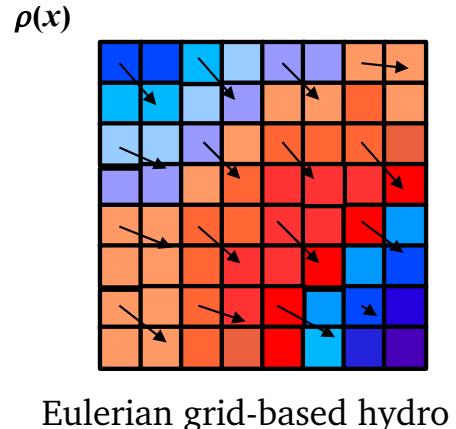
Smoothed particle hydrodynamics (SPH)

Smoothed particle hydrodynamics (SPH)

- ▶ Invented by Lucy (1977) and Gingold & Monaghan (1977)
- ▶ It is a *particle-based method for hydrodynamics*
- ▶ Particles are *moving interpolation centers* for fluid quantities



SPH



Eulerian grid-based hydro

- ▶ Popular in astrophysics because
 - ▶ It is a *Lagrangian* scheme (resolution automatically adapts to density)
 - ▶ It is easy to implement on top of an existing N-body code

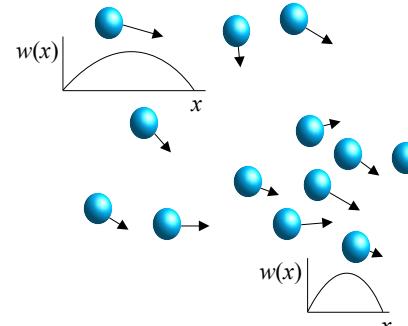
SPH particles

- ▶ Each SPH particle represents a discrete moving elements of the fluid
- ▶ Each particle is tagged with its position \mathbf{x} and fluid quantities (mass, density, pressure, velocity, smoothing length h , ...)
- ▶ Physical quantity of the particle can be obtained using a “*smoothing kernel*” with a characteristic radius (i.e., the “*smoothing length h*”):

$$A(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_j V_j A_j W(|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_j|, h)$$

- ▶ Example of particle density:

$$\rho_i = \rho(\mathbf{r}_i) = \sum_j m_j W_{ij}$$



SPH

SPH smoothing kernels

Commonly used kernels include

- ▶ **Gaussian kernel:**

$$W(x, h) = \frac{1}{h\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/h^2}$$

- ▶ **Spline kernel** (d = dimensions):

$$W(x, h) = \frac{\sigma}{h^d} \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{x}{h} \right)^2 + \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{x}{h} \right)^3 & \text{if } 0 \leq \frac{x}{h} \leq 1 \\ \frac{1}{4} \left[2 - \left(\frac{x}{h} \right) \right]^3 & \text{if } 1 \leq \frac{x}{h} \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Advantage of spline kernel: no interaction for $x > 2h$

SPH equations

- With $\rho_p = \sum_q m_q W_{pq}$, the continuity equation can be written as:

$$\frac{d\rho_p}{dt} = \sum_q m_q (\mathbf{v}_p - \mathbf{v}_q) \nabla_p W_{pq}$$

- For the momentum equation, note that momentum would not be conserved if asymmetric gradient formulations are used, e.g.,

$$\rho_p \nabla P_p = \sum_q m_q (P_q - P_p) \nabla_p W_{pq}, \quad \nabla_p W_{pq} \equiv \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_p} W(\mathbf{x}_q - \mathbf{x}_p, h_p)$$

- Therefore, we need to “*symmetrize*” the gradient using $\frac{\nabla P}{\rho} = \nabla \left(\frac{P}{\rho} \right) + \frac{P}{\rho^2} \nabla \rho$

- The momentum equation then becomes

$$\frac{d\mathbf{v}_p}{dt} = - \sum_q m_q \left(\frac{P_q}{\rho_q^2} + \frac{P_p}{\rho_p^2} \right) \nabla_p W_{pq}$$

SPH equations

- ▶ Similarly, the symmetrized specific internal energy equation is:

$$\frac{d \varepsilon}{dt} = - \left(\frac{P}{\rho} \right) \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} = - \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{P \boldsymbol{\nu}}{\rho} \right) + \boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \nabla \left(\frac{P}{\rho} \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{d \varepsilon_p}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_q m_q \left(\frac{P_q}{\rho_q^2} + \frac{P_p}{\rho_p^2} \right) (\boldsymbol{\nu}_p - \boldsymbol{\nu}_q) \cdot \nabla_p W_{pq}$$

- ▶ Finally, the particles are moved via $\frac{d \boldsymbol{x}_p}{dt} = \boldsymbol{\nu}_p$

Artificial viscosity in SPH

- ▶ In SPH codes, it is shown that *artificial viscosity* is needed to improve numerical stability of supersonic flows (i.e., shocks)
- ▶ The artificial viscosity corresponds to an additional term in the momentum equation:

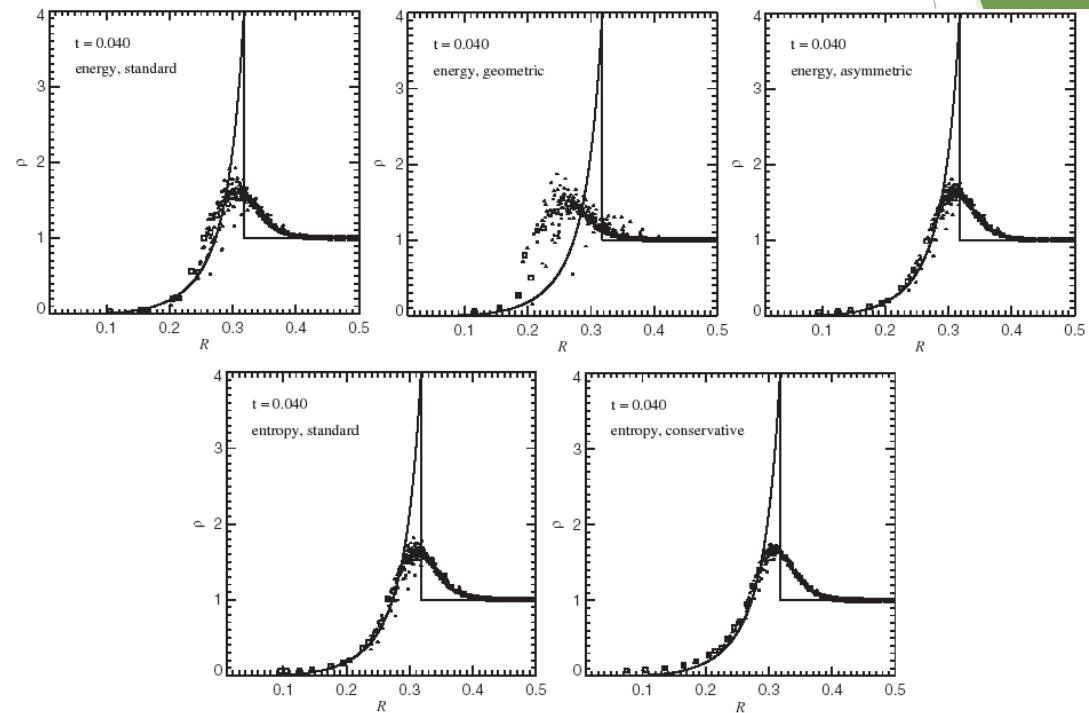
$$\frac{d \boldsymbol{v}_p}{dt} = - \sum_q m_q \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{P}_q}{\rho_q^2} + \frac{\boldsymbol{P}_p}{\rho_p^2} + \underline{\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{pq}} \right) \nabla_p W_{pq}$$

artificial viscosity

- ▶ However, using the artificial viscosity to capture the shocks means that the shocks cannot be resolved with high resolutions

Performance of SPH

- ▶ Example of the Sedov test:

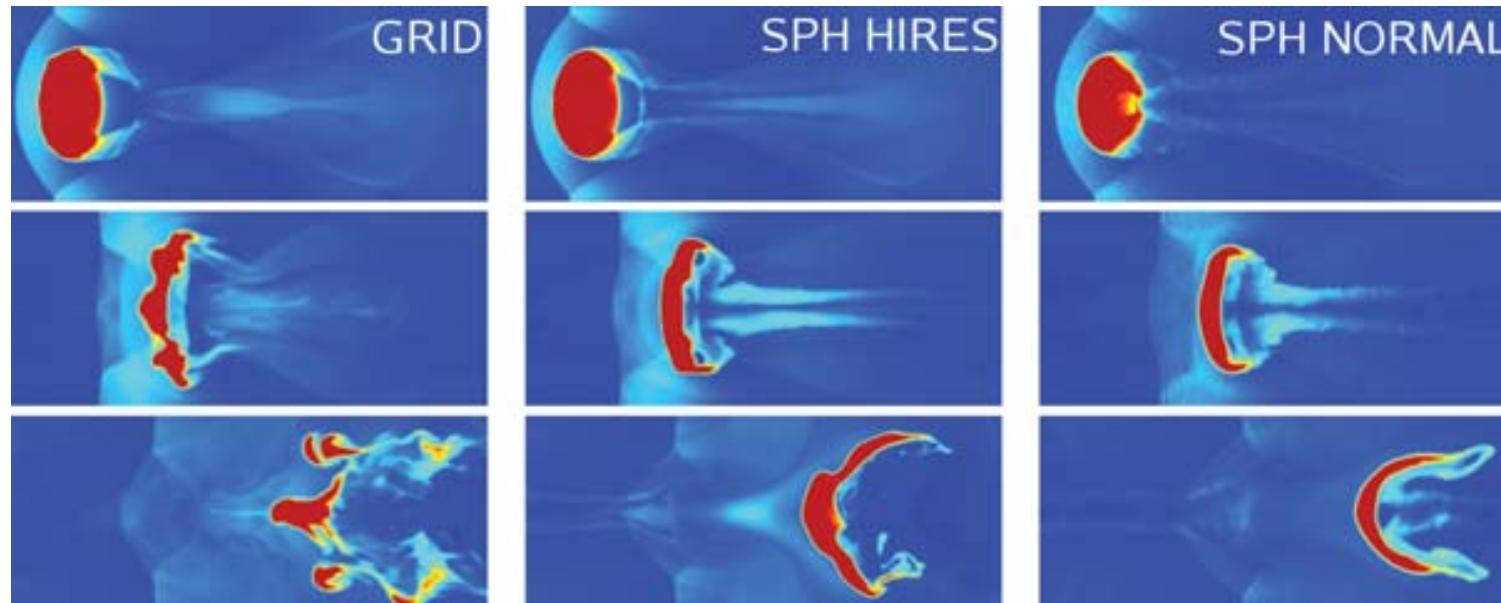


Springel & Hernquist (2002)

- ▶ 3D SPH requires at least $\sim 10^4$ particles to get reasonable results for the shock problems

Compare grid-based codes & SPH codes

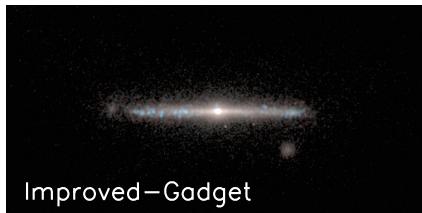
SPH simulations typically show much *suppressed hydro instabilities* compared to grid-based codes



Agertz et al. (2007)

Compare grid-based codes & SPH codes

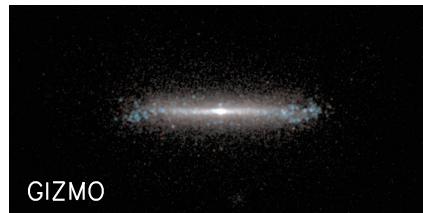
SPH codes typically show *suppressed turbulence* than grid-based codes



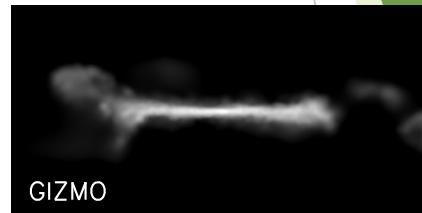
Improved-Gadget



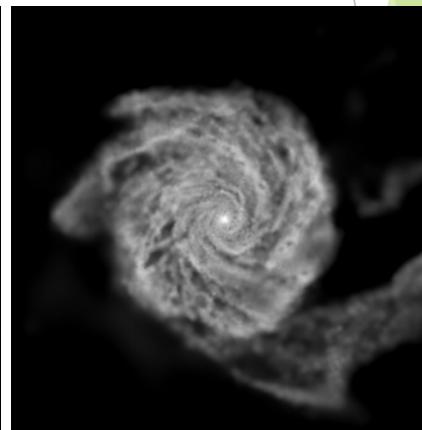
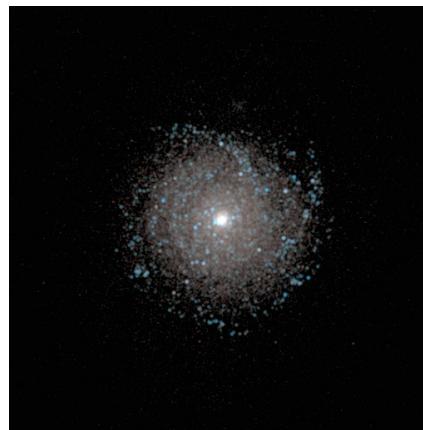
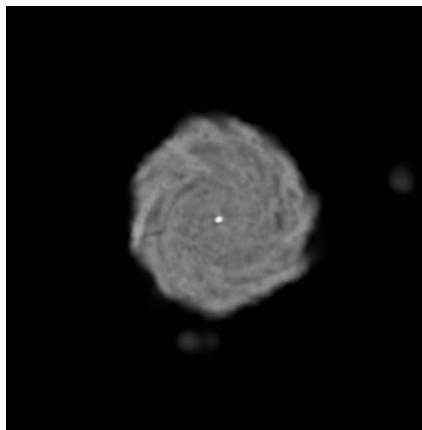
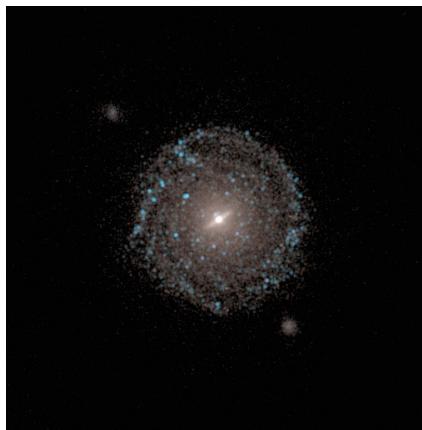
Improved-Gadget



GIZMO



GIZMO



Zhu & Li (2017)

Comparisons between grid-based codes & SPH codes

- ▶ This is exercise #3 in your HW6!
- ▶ Please search in the literature (in NASA ADS or arXiv) using keywords (e.g., "code comparison", "SPH")
- ▶ Choose one of the articles you're interested in. Read the article and summarize what you learned about the differences among the codes being compared (see detailed descriptions in HW6)
- ▶ Next week we will have an in-class discussion about the *pros* and *cons* of grid-based vs. SPH codes. Be prepared to discuss with your classmates and contribute your opinions!

N-body simulations -- summary

- ▶ N-body or particle-based simulations are widely used in astrophysics
- ▶ Particles could represent a single object (e.g., planets, stars) or a Monte-Carlo sampling of a collection of particles
 - ▶ For the latter, need to avoid *unphysical two-body relaxation* by using a large N or using a softened force law
- ▶ To evolve particles, we need
 - ▶ *Time-integration methods*: leapfrog, Runge-Kutta, symplectic integrators
 - ▶ *Force-integration methods*: PP, PM, P³M, tree
- ▶ *Smoothed particle hydrodynamics (SPH)*: particle-based, Lagrangian method for hydrodynamics
 - ▶ Uses *SPH kernels* to compute fluid quantities
 - ▶ Uses *symmetrized SPH equations* to evolve the fluid quantities
 - ▶ Uses *artificial viscosity* for shock capturing

References & acknowledgements

- ▶ Course materials of Computational Astrophysics from Prof. Kuo-Chuan Pan (NTHU)
- ▶ Course materials of Computational Astrophysics from Prof. Hsi-Yu Schive (NTU)
- ▶ Course materials of Computational Astrophysics and Cosmology from Prof. Paul Ricker (UIUC)
- ▶ “Computational Physics” by Rubin H. Landau, Manuel Jose Paez and Cristian C. Bordeianu
- ▶ “Scientific Computing - An Introductory Survey” by Michael T. Heath