

# Stabilizing Two-Dimensional $N$ -Body Simulations

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**Abstract**

Pending...

# 1 Simulation and Results of Euler Integration

A square perimeter subject to the gravitational force between its own constructing point particles each with unit mass will be simulated over time using the [Euler method](#). The structure will start with 100 evenly spaced particles with the first particle located at  $(x, y) = (0, 0)$  and the length of each side of the square is 1.

## 1.1 Parameters and Expectations

Using the Euler method, both simulations model pairwise gravitational interactions through Newton's law of universal gravitation:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{grav}} = -G \cdot \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \hat{r}, \quad (1.1)$$

where  $G$  represents the gravitational field/attraction strength and is *not* a constant of simulation, albeit a constant of nature. The negative sign indicates that gravity is an attractive force.

Starting at  $t_{\text{initial}} = 0$ , the first simulation employs a very strong gravitational coupling of  $G = 10^6$ , timestep  $\Delta t = 10^{-3}$ , and runs for  $10^3$  steps spanning a total duration of  $t_{\text{final}} = 1$ . The second simulation drastically reduces the gravitational constant to  $G = 10^2$  while also drastically reducing the timestep length to  $5 \times 10^{-6}$ , thus capturing the system at an earlier moment  $t_{\text{final}} = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ . Both systems should exhibit near-identical behavior: The point

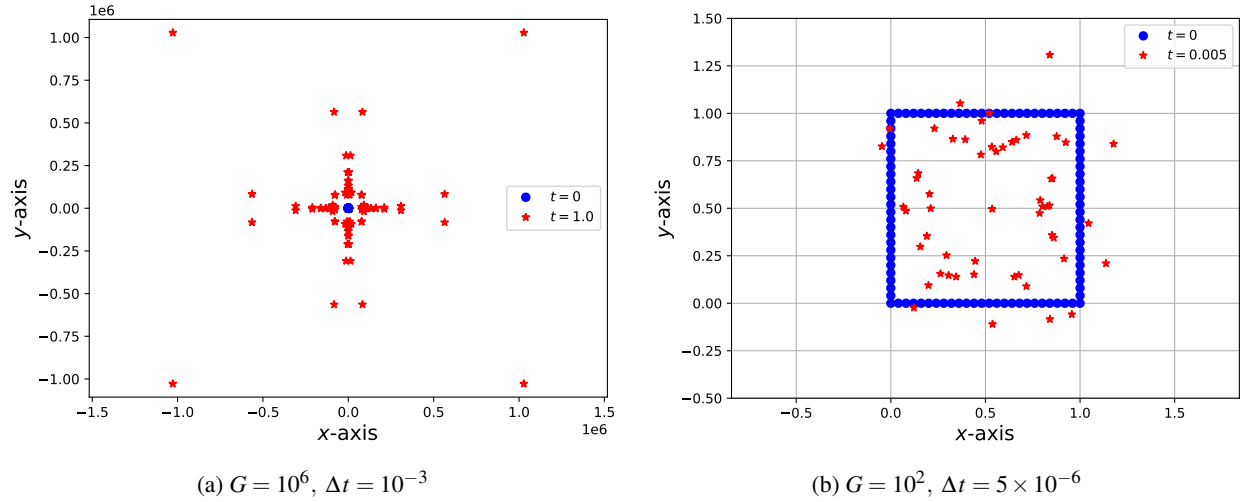


Figure 1.1: The Euler integration method applied to the same 2D shallow square of 100 particles over 1,000 timesteps. When  $\Delta t$  is *not* small enough, as in Figure 1.1a, the structure flies apart, something that is not expected under the attractive force in Equation (1.1). When  $\Delta t$  is small enough, as in Figure 1.1b, the system acts as closer to what is expected from it; that being said, over the same number of timesteps (i.e., iterations), a significantly smaller  $t_{\text{final}}$  is reached.

particles should accelerate inward and converge toward the structure's center of mass, forming a compact cluster. The conservation of energy in this isolated gravitational system dictates that particles initially at rest cannot acquire sufficient kinetic energy to overcome the gravitational potential well and escape.

## 1.2 Observations and Discrepancies

While a gravitational collapse may have occurred for a seemingly insubstantial fraction of the number of particles in the first simulation, the vast majority of particles have clearly moved far away from the center of mass of the structure's initial configuration, as shown in Figure 1.1a. A direct contradiction of the principle of energy conservation. On the other hand, operating under the same laws of physics, the second simulation, captured at the earlier time of  $t = 0.005$  in Figure 1.1b, behaves as expected. The square structure has contracted substantially, with particles migrating inward toward the center of mass. Although a few particles have moved farther than expected, the overall picture depicts a collapsing structure consistent with gravitational theory.

## 2 Systematic Errors of the Euler Method

### 2.1 Numerical Error Accumulation

The difference between expected and observed behavior in the first simulation is due to systematic errors introduced by the Euler method.<sup>1</sup> The Euler integration method represents a basic numerical approach for solving ordinary differential equations, updating particle velocities and positions according to the following equations:

$$\vec{a}_i(t) = \vec{F}_i(t)/m_i \quad (2.1)$$

$$\vec{v}_i(t + \Delta t) = \vec{v}_i(t) + \vec{a}_i(t)\Delta t \quad (2.2)$$

$$\vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}_i(t) + \vec{v}_i(t)\Delta t. \quad (2.3)$$

The issue with this method is that it treats continuously varying forces as piecewise constant values. At the beginning of each iteration, the method evaluates all forces based on current particle positions, computes accelerations, and then applies these accelerations uniformly throughout the entire duration of the timestep. This approximation fails to account for the fact that particles move *during* the timestep. The gravitational force's inverse-square dependence on distance causes the particles to approach one another, forces increase rapidly, and the assumption of constant acceleration over the timestep becomes increasingly inaccurate in this approximation. The Euler method's approximation errors introduce spurious energy into the system at each timestep. When a particle experiences a strong attractive force and accelerates toward another particle, the Euler method applies that force for the full timestep duration even as the particle moves closer and the actual force should be increasing. This delayed response to strengthening forces causes particles to acquire velocities that are systematically too large, effectively injecting kinetic energy that has no physical origin. One workaround is to use a very short timestep, but that would require tremendously more iterations and computational power to achieve a desired  $t_{\text{final}}$ . For the gravitational  $N$ -body problem, particularly when particles can approach closely and generate stiff dynamics through the inverse-square force law, the Euler integration method will eventually fail regardless of how small the timestep becomes, unless the timestep is reduced to impractically tiny values.

### 2.2 Symplectic Integration for Energy Conservation

The Euler method is simply inadequate for simulating conservative systems over long periods. The non-symplectic method's first-order accuracy makes it unsuitable for problems requiring energy conservation. One solution for such problems could be to adopt symplectic, higher-order integration schemes specifically designed for Hamiltonian systems. A symplectic integrator is a numerical method that accurately conserves important physical quantities over sufficiently large time scales. A crucial and necessary condition for standard, explicit integrators to work correctly on a specific class of conservative dynamical systems is *time reversibility*, something which the standard explicit Euler method is not (see Appendix A.2.1). For a time-reversible Hamiltonian system, [Liouville's theorem](#) asserts that the volume<sup>2</sup> occupied by a set of initial conditions in phase space is conserved over time.

The [Verlet integration method](#), for instance, is a second-order symplectic integrator that exhibits excellent long-term energy conservation properties. Symplectic integrators preserve the geometric structure of phase space and maintain bounded energy errors even over extremely long simulation times. Time reversibility is not the only condition for a method to be symplectic, the defining property is the preservation of the symplectic structure. A numerical method is defined as symplectic if its area in phase space is preserved.

## 3 Velocity Verlet Integration

In four stages per timestep, the [velocity Verlet](#) algorithm advances a particle system through discrete timesteps while maintaining time reversibility and symplectic structure.

1. The current acceleration is computed from the force acting on the particle:  $\vec{a}(t) = \vec{F}(t)/m$ .

<sup>1</sup>**First-Order Accuracy:** The Euler method is called a first-order method because the error per step is proportional to the square of the step size ( $\Delta t^2$ ), and the global error is proportional to the step size ( $\Delta t$ ). This means that if the step size is halved, the error is also approximately halved. The method is linear in its error reduction with respect to the step size.

<sup>2</sup>Area in two dimensions.

2. The position is advanced using the current velocity and acceleration:

$$\vec{r}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}(t) + \vec{v}(t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{a}(t)\Delta t^2. \quad (3.1)$$

3. Forces are recomputed at the new particle positions to obtain  $\vec{F}(t + \Delta t)$ , from which the new acceleration follows:  $\vec{a}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{F}(t + \Delta t)/m$ .

4. The velocity is updated using the average of the old and new accelerations:

$$\vec{v}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2}[\vec{a}(t) + \vec{a}(t + \Delta t)]\Delta t. \quad (3.2)$$

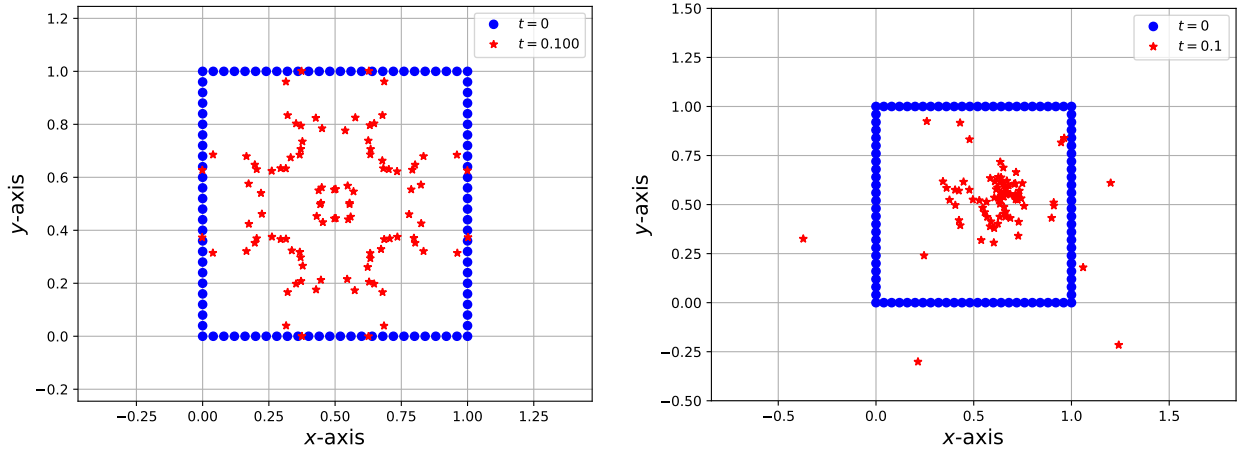
The velocity Verlet algorithm is a second-order method with local truncation error proportional to  $\Delta t^3$  and global error proportional to  $\Delta t^2$ . This represents a significant improvement over the first-order Euler method, which has local error proportional to  $\Delta t^2$  and global error proportional to  $\Delta t$ . (See Appendix B for more details.)

### 3.1 Early Performance Analysis: Stiff Gravitational Systems

The modified gravitational force between particles  $i$  and  $j$  is given by,

$$\vec{F}'_{\text{grav}} = -G \cdot \frac{m_i m_j}{r_{ij}^2 + \epsilon_{\text{grav}}^2} \hat{r}_{ij} \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\epsilon_{\text{grav}}$  is a softening parameter that prevents numerical divergence at small separations. For strongly coupled gravitational systems with  $G \geq 50$ , testing reveals that over a long enough time before gravitational collapse, the velocity Verlet algorithm will preserve an organized structure while the Euler integration method produces a dispersed cluster collapse and focus around some focal point, as seen in Figure 3.1. Physically, this means that Verlet integration better preserves the system's dynamical invariants, as expected. The method has bounds to the energy error making particles follow more realistic orbits, some particles remain in quasi-periodic trajectories developing patterns which likely would not have analogous counterparts if the initial configuration was not a well defined shape such as a square.



(a) Velocity Verlet method

(b) Euler integration method

Figure 3.1: Gravitational collapse of a square perimeter made up of 100 unit-mass point particles using velocity Verlet and Euler integration methods. Both methods run over  $10^4$  iterations with  $\Delta t = 10^{-5}$ ,  $G = 10$ , and  $\epsilon_{\text{grav}} = 0.05$ . It is evident that the velocity Verlet integration has preserved phase space related quantities as it has maintained a structure. Figure 3.1b however is chaotic and indicates no preservation of such quantities. Figure 3.1a should also eventually collapse, before  $\vec{F}'_{\text{grav}}$  eventually explodes, even with its softening parameter (see Figure X).

Euler integration on the other hand injects artificial energy into the system causing the particles to gain excessive kinetic energy and ultimately escape to infinity or collapse too aggressively resulting in a loss of structure. Despite the fact that this too ultimately happens with Verlet integration, it happens far earlier using the Euler method as the

former method is more unstable. The previously mentioned “organized structure” is particles maintaining correlated motion rather than random scattering. This preservation of geometric structure allows the velocity Verlet integration to maintain a physically realistic so-called final configuration over longer timescales whereas the Euler method’s energy drift dominates the dynamics.

### 3.2 Long-Term Velocity Verlet Numerical Instability

As previously mentioned, over long enough time scales, even the velocity Verlet method will fail with just Equation (3.3). For example, in Figure 3.1a, the point particles are expected to eventually gather into a singularity in the center where the square perimeter is initially located; however, the  $N$ -body system fragments before it fully collapses. The same behavior can be seen with a shallow circle; a uniform ring *should* collapse toward a point at the center. This is evident from a symmetry argument: all particles are pulled towards the symmetry center, and they fall toward it at the same rate.<sup>3</sup> Yet, this exact behavior is not recovered in the current model for the  $N$ -body configuration due to numerical artifacts.

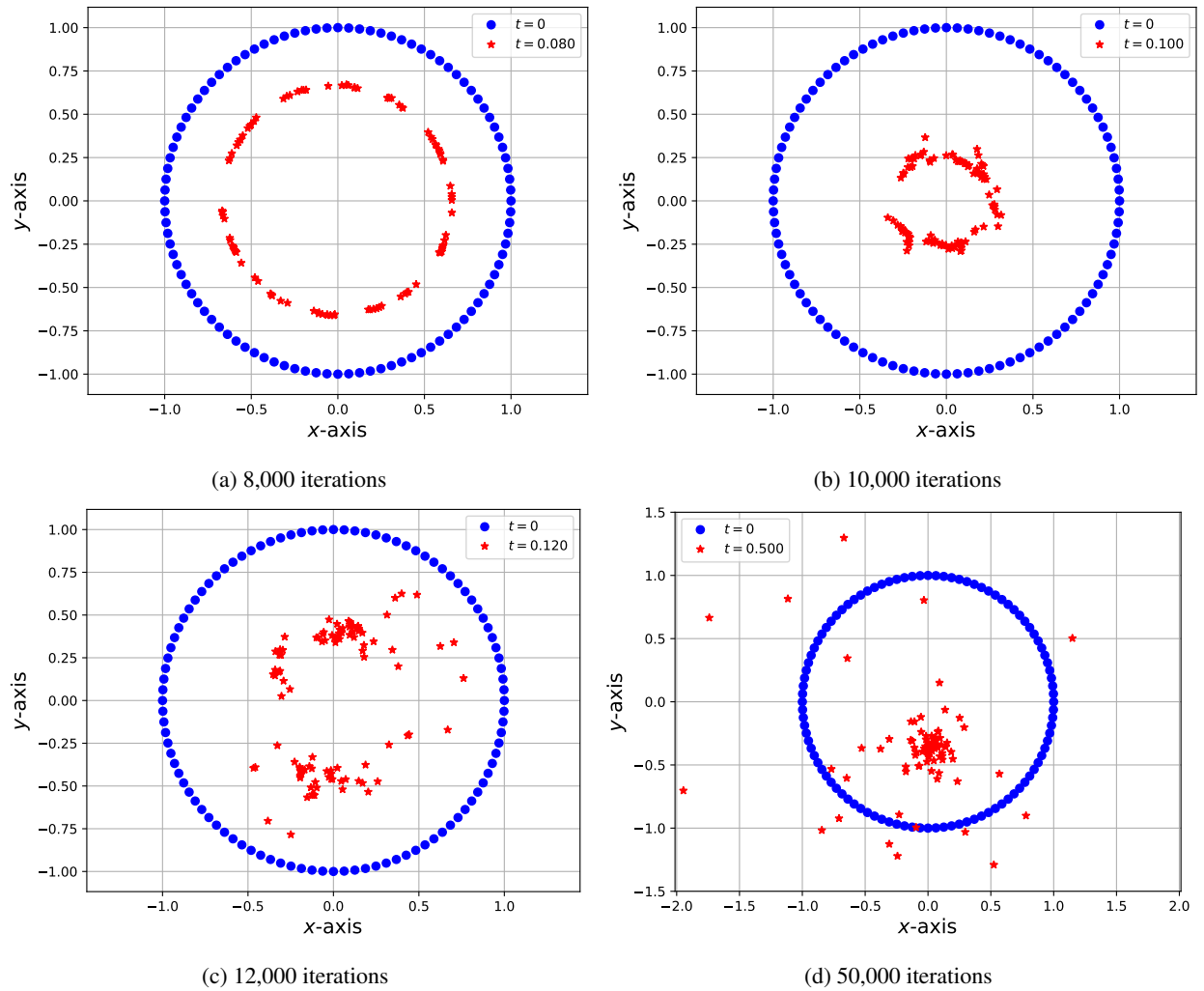


Figure 3.2: The initial configuration is a unit circle centered at the origin with otherwise all the parameters as those in Figure 3.1. The uniform ring is unstable; any region of above average density tends to attract more material over time. Even though the particles are initially equally spaced, small numerical errors cause some particles to end up slightly closer than others, and these small differences get amplified over time due, causing the structure to fragment before gravitational collapse.

<sup>3</sup>For more general shapes, the symmetry argument does not hold, and in general the particles should not collapse to a point.

## 4 Generic Attractive Force

To balance out the gravitational force given in Equation (3.3), a softened repulsive force will be implemented into the program. This generic force models a general repulsive interaction between particles with softening to prevent singularities.

$$\vec{F}_{\text{rep}} = |k_{\text{rep}}| \cdot \frac{1}{r_{ij}^2 + \varepsilon_{\text{rep}}^2} \hat{r}_{ij}, \quad (4.1)$$

where  $|k_{\text{rep}}|$  is the repulsive coupling strength and  $\varepsilon_{\text{rep}}$  is the repulsive softening length which prevents numerical divergence at small separations. This force can represent electrostatic repulsion, degeneracy pressure, or contact forces. To illustrate an example, the 1 in the numerator of Equation (4.1) can be replaced with the charges of particles  $i$  and  $j$ , and then  $k_{\text{rep}}$  would be replaced with Coulomb's constant.

## Appendix A: Energy Errors and Time Reversibility

### A.1 How Velocity Errors Affect Energy Errors

The laws of motion for conservative physical systems are time-reversible. If the system is ran forward in time such that  $t_{\ell+1} = t_\ell + \Delta t$ , and then ran backward using the same exact method and timestep, the ending should match the start. Time-irreversibility causes phase space area to drift away from its true value in an uncontrolled manner; in turn, certain physical properties may not be preserved by the instable simulation. The relationship between velocity errors and energy errors, and the fact that certain numerical integration methods like Verlet integration conserve energy well, are fundamentally connected to the time-reversibility of Hamiltonian systems.

$$E_{\text{total}} = T + V = \frac{1}{2}m|\vec{v}|^2 + V(\vec{r}), \quad (\text{A.1})$$

and so,

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = m\vec{v} \cdot \dot{\vec{v}} + \nabla V \cdot \dot{\vec{r}}. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

Recall Newton's second law and that using  $\vec{F} = -\nabla V$ ,

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{F} - \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v} = 0, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

it has been shown that energy is conserved exactly in continuous dynamics here. Regarding numerical error propagation: If the velocity has an error  $\delta \vec{v}$ , then the kinetic energy error is:

$$\delta T = \frac{1}{2}m|\vec{v} + \delta \vec{v}|^2 - \frac{1}{2}m|\vec{v}|^2 \quad (\text{A.4})$$

$$= m(\vec{v} \cdot \delta \vec{v}) + \frac{1}{2}m|\delta \vec{v}|^2. \quad (\text{A.5})$$

For small errors,  $|\delta \vec{v}|^2 \ll \vec{v} \cdot \delta \vec{v}$ ; for that reason, an approximation for kinetic energy can be obtained by discarding the higher-order term:

$$\delta T \approx m\vec{v} \cdot \delta \vec{v}. \quad (\text{A.6})$$

Because  $\delta T \propto |\delta \vec{v}|$ , velocity errors directly translate to energy errors. Although energy conservation in physical systems does not *automatically* translate to numerical stability in simulations, numerical stability comes from using an integration method that respects the underlying mathematical structure of the physical system, which includes properties like time reversibility and energy conservation.

### A.2 Time-Reversibility of Certain Integration Methods

#### A.2.1 Explicit Euler Method (irreversible)

The explicit Euler method advances the state based on standard kinematic equations of motion;

$$x_{\ell+1} = x_\ell + v_\ell \Delta t \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$v_{\ell+1} = v_\ell + a_\ell \Delta t. \quad (\text{A.8})$$

The above formulas step forward from  $t_\ell$  to  $t_{\ell+1}$  which are  $\Delta t$  apart. Rearrange them to go backward in time from  $t_{\ell+1}$  to  $t_\ell$ ;

$$x_\ell = x_{\ell+1} - v_\ell \Delta t \quad (\text{A.9})$$

$$v_\ell = v_{\ell+1} - a_\ell \Delta t. \quad (\text{A.10})$$

So when at  $t_{\ell+1}$ , to know the state at time  $t_\ell$ ,  $v_\ell$  and  $a_\ell$  must already be known, which goes against the very reason it was started.

### A.2.2 Basic Størmer–Verlet Algorithm (reversible)

The Verlet algorithm is a second-order method that relies on the state at the current time and the state of the time point that is one timestep behind  $t_\ell$  to find the state at  $t_{\ell+1}$ . The second-order differential equation is:

$$x_{\ell+1} = 2x_\ell - x_{\ell-1} + a_\ell \Delta t^2. \quad (\text{A.11})$$

Starting at  $t_{\ell+1}$  and going backward to  $t_{\ell-1}$ ,

$$x_{\ell-1} = 2x_\ell - x_{\ell+1} + a_\ell \Delta t^2, \quad (\text{A.12})$$

which is possible since the state at one time point before  $t_{\ell+1}$  is known in the Størmer method.

### A.2.3 Classic RungeKutta Method (irreversible)

The classic RungeKutta method (RK4) is a fourth-order method that can solve a wide range of initial value ordinary differential equations without being tailored to a specific type of problem. To calculate  $x_{\ell+1}$ :

$$x_{\ell+1} = x_\ell + \frac{\Delta t}{6} (\kappa_1 + 2\kappa_2 + 2\kappa_3 + \kappa_4), \quad (\text{A.13})$$

where the  $\kappa$  values are the intermediate steps whose quantities depend on  $f(t, x) = \dot{x}$  such that:

$$\kappa_1 = f(t_\ell, x_\ell) \quad (\text{A.14})$$

$$\kappa_2 = f\left(t_\ell + \frac{\Delta t}{2}, x_\ell + \frac{\kappa_1 \Delta t}{2}\right) \quad (\text{A.15})$$

$$\kappa_3 = f\left(t_\ell + \frac{\Delta t}{2}, x_\ell + \frac{\kappa_2 \Delta t}{2}\right) \quad (\text{A.16})$$

$$\kappa_4 = f(t_\ell + \Delta t, x_\ell + \kappa_3 \Delta t). \quad (\text{A.17})$$

This structure of  $\kappa$  means that there is no standard formula that simply reverses the forward step. This asymmetry is ultimately the reason for drift. RK4 methods offer improved accuracy through multiple force evaluations per timestep, though they are not symplectic and thus do not guarantee the same level of energy stability as Verlet-family integrators.

## Appendix B: Truncation Error Analysis via Taylor Expansion

The Taylor series expansion of  $\vec{r}(t + \Delta t)$  about  $t$  is,

$$\vec{r}_{\text{exact}}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}(t) + \vec{v}(t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{\vec{r}}(t)\Delta t^2 + \frac{1}{6}\dddot{\vec{r}}(t)\Delta t^3 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^4). \quad (\text{B.1})$$

The Euler approximation is,

$$\vec{r}_{\text{Euler}}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}(t) + \vec{v}(t)\Delta t, \quad (\text{B.2})$$

so the leading error term is  $\frac{1}{2}\ddot{\vec{r}}(t)\Delta t^2$ ; therefore, the local error is  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$ . Similarly, the Verlet approximation is,

$$\vec{r}_{\text{Verlet}}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}(t) + \vec{v}(t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{\vec{r}}(t)\Delta t^2, \quad (\text{B.3})$$

with the leading error and local error being  $\frac{1}{6}\dddot{\vec{r}}(t)\Delta t^3$  and  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3)$  respectively. Moreover, global errors are the accumulation of local errors over the time of simulation:  $n = t_{\text{final}}/\Delta t$ , where  $n$  would be the number of timesteps iterated by the simulation. For the Euler method:  $n \times \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2) = (t_{\text{final}}/\Delta t) \times \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(\Delta t)$ . Similarly, for Verlet integration:  $n \times \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3) = (t_{\text{final}}/\Delta t) \times \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$ .