A Modified Parallel Tree Code for N-body Simulation of the Large Scale Structure of the Universe

U. Becciani, V. Antonuccio-Delogu and M. Gambera
Osservatorio Astrofisico di Catania
Via S. Sofia 78, I-95125 Catania - Italy
e-mail: ube@sunct.ct.astro.it

Abstract

N-body codes for performing simulations of the origin and evolution of the large scale structure of the universe have improved significantly over the past decade in terms of both the resolution achieved and the reduction of the CPU time. However, state-of-the-art N-body codes hardly allow one to deal with particle numbers larger than a few $10^7$, even on the largest parallel systems. In order to allow simulations with larger resolution, we have first reconsidered the grouping strategy as described in J. Barnes (1990, J. Comput. Phys. 87, 161) (hereafter B90) and applied it with some modifications to our WDSH-PT (Work and Data SHaring - Parallel Tree) code (U. Becciani et al., 1996, Comput. Phys. Comm. 99,1). In the first part of this paper we will give a short description of the code adopting the algorithm of J. E. Barnes and P. Hut (1986, Nature, 324, 446) and in particular the memory and work distribution strategy applied to describe the data distribution on a CC-NUMA machine like the CRAY-T3E system. In very large simulations (typically $N \geq 10^7$), due to network contention and the formation of clusters of galaxies, an uneven load easily verifies. To remedy this, we have devised an automatic work redistribution mechanism which provided a good dynamic load balance without adding significant overhead. In the second part of the paper we describe the modification to the Barnes grouping strategy we have devised to improve the performance of the WDSH-PT code. We will use the property that nearby particles have similar interaction lists. This idea has been checked in B90, where an interaction list is built which applies everywhere within a cell $C_{\text{group}}$ containing a small number of particles $N_{\text{crit}}$. B90 reuses this interaction list for each particle $p \in C_{\text{group}}$ in the cell in turn. We will assume each particle $p$ to have the same interaction list. We consider that the agent force $F_p$ on a particle $p$ can be decomposed into two terms $F_p = F_{\text{far}} + F_{\text{near}}$. The first term $F_{\text{far}}$ is the same for each particle in the cell and is generated by the interaction between a hypothetical particle placed in the center of mass of the $C_{\text{group}}$ and the farther cells contained in the interaction list. $F_{\text{near}}$ is different for each particle $p$ and is generated by the interaction between $p$ and the elements near $C_{\text{group}}$. Thus it has been possible to reduce the CPU time and increase the code performance. This enable us to run simulations with a large number of particles ($N \sim 10^7 \div 10^9$) in nonprohibitive CPU times.

1 INTRODUCTION

N-body codes are one of the most important tools of theoretical cosmology because they offer the possibility of simulating most of the gravitational processes driving the formation of the large scale structure of the universe (hereafter LSS). These simulations are often used to check cosmological models and to constrain the free parameters of these models which cannot be fixed either theoretically or observationally.
The typical mass scale for gravitational instability, the Jeans mass, has a value of \( \approx 10^{6.5} \) solar masses (1 solar mass \( \approx 1.9 \times 10^{33} \) g) at the recombination epoch, and it gives the approximate size of the first objects forming by gravitational collapse at that epoch. On the other hand, the largest structure we see in our Universe today, the “Supercluster” of galaxies, has a mass in excess of \( \approx 10^{18} \) solar masses. Moreover, the gravitational force has a truly long-range character, which makes it impossible to introduce reasonable upper cutoffs in the mass range. For all these reasons, one would like to be able to perform simulations spanning more than 12 orders of magnitude in mass, but present-day state-of-the-art software and hardware technology does not allow simulations with more than \( \approx 10^9 \) bodies. For these reasons, the quest for increasingly efficient algorithms is still in progress. However, the importance of making N-body simulations is clear to several authors [12][19][20]. During the past years N-body codes have been much improved and applied successfully to various problems in galaxy dynamics, galaxy formation, and cosmological large structure formation. Nevertheless, the computational expense has remained prohibitive for \( N > 10^9 \), even using tree-based algorithms on the most powerful computers.

The situation is even worse for other N-body algorithms. The N-body direct evolution method scales as \( O(N^2) \), which makes it impossible to run simulations with more than \( 10^4 \) particles. To overcome this difficulty, and when high accuracy is required, alternative numerical methods based on hierarchical force-computation algorithms are widely used. The recent effort has addressed the production of new software and algorithms for the new generation of high-performance computer systems. The ultimate target is an implementation of the tree N-body algorithm to run simulations with higher accuracy and particle number, decreasing the cost of the simulation in terms of CPU time and increasing performance in terms of number of particles/second elaborated when running on MPP systems.

Among the tree algorithms designed to compute the gravitational force in N-body systems, one of the most used and powerful in modern cosmology is that by Barnes and Hut (BH) [6]. The BH octal-tree recursive method is inherently adaptive and allows one to achieve a higher mass resolution even if parallel implementation of this algorithm [6][23] suffers from a serious drawback: it can easily run into imbalance as soon as the configuration evolves, causing performance degradation. In this paper we present a modified version of the BH algorithm in which we have introduced an enhanced grouping strategy. We will show how this feature allows an increase in performance when we consider N-body simulation with a large number of particles \( (N \geq 10^6) \). The code we present incorporates fully periodic boundary conditions using the Ewald method, without the use of fast Fourier transform techniques [16].

In Section 2 we give a brief description of our N-body parallel code, based on the BH tree algorithm, and the dynamic load balance (DLB) policy adopted. In Section 3 we describe our enhanced grouping strategy. In Section 4 we show the results of our tests and in Section 5 we report our conclusions.

## 2 THE PARALLEL CODE

Since the publication of the monograph by Hockney and Eastwood in 1981 [17], a new class of particle simulation methods [1][3][15][21][22] has emerged as an alternative to particle-particle (PP) [1][3][21] particle-mesh (PM) (for a review of this method see [10]) and particle-particle-particle-mesh (\( P^3M \)) [14] methods. These new methods are characterized by the particles being arranged into a hierarchy of clusters, which span the full range of length scales from the minimum interparticle spacing up to the diameter of the entire system. These methods are usually known as tree methods or tree codes because of the data structures used. With these new methods, the short-range force on a particle \( p \) is calculated as a direct sum over nearby particles. Remote bodies are organized into groups which become progressively larger with the distance from the particle; then a multipole expansion of the potential of each cluster about its center of mass is performed. The long-range contribution to the acceleration is given by the sum of the particle-cluster interactions.
2.1 The Barnes-Hut Tree Algorithm

The BH algorithm works using a hierarchy of cubes arranged in an octal-tree structure; that is, each node in the tree has eight siblings and each node represents a physical volume of the space. The total mass of all particles within a given volume and their centers of mass are stored at the corresponding node. Thus, the system is first surrounded by a single cell (cube) encompassing all the particles. This main cell (called root) is subdivided into eight subcells of equal volume, each containing its own subset of particles. Each subcell in turn is subdivided into eight new subcells and so on. This procedure is repeated until each cell at the lowest level contains only one particle. The force on any given particle is then the sum of the forces by the nearby particles plus the force by the distant cells whose mass distributions are approximated by multipole series truncated typically at the quadrupole order [15]. The criterion for determining whether a cell is sufficiently distant for a multipole force evaluation (that is, for approximating the cell as a multipole) is based on an opening angle parameter $\theta$ given by

$$\frac{C_t}{d} \leq \theta,$$

where $C_t$ is the size of the cell and $d$ is the distance of a particle from the center of mass of the cell. Smaller values of $\theta$ lead to more cell opening and more accurate forces (for $\theta = 1$ we have an error lower than 1% on the accelerations [15]). The equations of the dynamics are solved using the Leapfrog integrator.

2.2 Data Distribution and DLB

In our parallel implementation of the BH tree algorithm, using the PGHPF/CRAFT (an implementation of High Performance Fortran by the Portland Group) programming environment for the Cray T3E system, we have exploited both the Data Sharing and the Work Sharing programming models. The flexibility of the PGHPF/CRAFT environment allows one to mix these two modes in order to gain the maximum efficiency and speed-up. We can distinguish two main phases in our code structure: the Tree formation (TF) and the Force compute (FC). A data distribution in contiguous blocks

```hpff
!HPF$ DISTRIBUTE PARTICLE ATTRIBUTE(BLOCK,*)
```

and alternatively, a fine grain distribution

```hpff
!HPF$ DISTRIBUTE TREE ATTRIBUTE(CYCLIC,*)
```

were adopted to distribute the particle data properties and the tree data properties.
The HPF DISTRIBUTE directive of the PGHPF/CRAFT compiler allows us to consider an array like PARTICLE ATTRIBUTE (or TREE ATTRIBUTE) as a unique large array, accessible from all the processors, the array being physically distributed in the local memory of all the processors. We used two different sets of initial conditions, namely uniform and clustered distributions having 2 million particles each, and they were carried out using from 16 to 128 PEs. Our results show that the higher code performances are obtained using a fine grain tree data distribution and a coarse grain bodies data distribution. A detailed description can be found in [7]. The static array distribution, fixed as described above, allows each PE to cooperate during the TF phase by using principally the DO INDEPENDENT structure of PGHPF that is a synchronous mechanism, and then to execute the FC phase in asynchronous mode. To minimize the communication overhead, each PE executes the FC phase mainly on the local residing bodies. The BLOCK distribution arranges bodies with the nearest logical number (near in the space) in the same PE local memory, or in the nearest PEs. Using the above mentioned data distribution, each PE has a block of closed bodies in the local memory \( N_p = N_{bod}/N_{PEs} \), where \( N_{PEs} \) is the number of processors used for the simulation; in an initial condition with a uniform distribution, the PEs having extreme numeration in the pool of available PEs have a lower load at each time-step. The load imbalance is enhanced when a clustered situation occurs during the system evolution. The PEs having bodies in clustered regions have a greater workload since the load of the FC phase increases as the mass density grows. The technique we follow to perform a load redistribution among the PEs is to assign each PE to execute this phase only for a fixed portion of the bodies residing in the local memory \( NB_{lp} \) given by

\[
NB_{lp} = (N_{bod}/N_{PEs})P_{lp},
\]  

(2)

where \( P_{lp} = \text{const.} \) (0 \( \leq \) \( P_{lp} \) \( \leq \) 1).

The FC phase for all the remaining bodies

\[
N_f = N_{PEs}(N_{bod}/N_{PEs})(1-P_{lp})
\]

(3)

is executed by all the PEs that have concluded the FC phase for the assigned \( NB_{lp} \) bodies. No correlation is considered between the PE memory location of the body belonging to the \( N_f \) set and the PE that computes the FC phase on it. The results imply that it is possible to fix a \( P_{lp} \) value that allows the best code performances. Data already presented in [8] show that it is convenient to fix the \( P_{lp} \) value near 0.25, which is the value that maximizes the load balance for N-body simulations of the LSS both in uniform and clustered situation.

3 GROUPING

Our work and data sharing-parallel tree (WDSH-PT) code is principally aimed at running LSS cosmological simulations with a number of particles as high as possible using supercomputers such as Cray T3E systems. In order to increase the code efficiency, we adopt initially the grouping method proposed by Barnes [4] and introduce a modified implementation of his grouping policy yielding very high gains in the code performances with the same accuracy.

3.1 B90 Grouping

To compute the force on a body, the BH algorithm needs to build an interaction list (IL) for each particle \( p \). Starting from the root cell, a tree inspection is done and the opening angle parameter \( \theta \) is used to evaluate whether a cell must be opened or closed as mentioned above. If a cell has dimension \( C_l \) and distance \( d \) from the particle \( p \) so that Eq. (1) is verified, the cell is closed, it is added to the IL, and its subcells are not investigated further. Otherwise the cell is opened and its subcells are investigated in the same way. Bodies belonging to an opened cell are added to the IL. Next, the force on the body is computed using the monopole and quadrupole momenta for all the
cells in the list.

**BH timing** The tree inspection phase represents a sizeable task to compute the force because the cell opening criterion is applied many times for each particle. The CPU time $T_o$ to compute the force in a time-step for all the $N$ particles is

$$T_o = N\langle T_i \rangle + N\langle T_f \rangle,$$

where $\langle T_i \rangle$ is the average time to build an IL and $\langle T_f \rangle$ is the average time to compute the force on each particle using the interaction list.

**B90 timing** The basic idea of B90 was to build a unique interaction list that allows the force for a group of particles inside a region; i.e., a cell $C_{\text{group}}$ of the tree (grouping cell), to be computed reducing the number of tree inspections to build the ILs. B90 builds an IL that applies everywhere within $C_{\text{group}}$ and reuses this IL for each particle $p \in C_{\text{group}}$ in turn. In this way it is possible to reduce the tree inspection phase. The CPU time $T_g$ for B90 may be written as

$$T_g = N_{gc}\langle T_{gl} \rangle + N\langle T_{gf} \rangle,$$

where

- $N_{gc}$ is the number of grouping cells (assuming that each body is inside a group region);
- $\langle T_{gl} \rangle$ is the average time to build an interaction list for a group;
- $\langle T_{gf} \rangle$ is the average time to compute the force on a particle using the list formed for the group.
In the following paragraphs we will compare the $T_g$ time with the $T_o$ time considering the generic case $\theta = 0.8$. We notice that different values of $\theta$ give similar results, as shown by the accompanying figures.

**B90 opening criterion** The original BH algorithm adopts an opening criterion $\theta_{BH}$, based on the distance between the position of the $p$ particle and the center of mass of the remote cells, the $IL$ length ($L_{IL}$) being proportional to $\left(\theta_{BH}^3\right)^{-1}\log N$. In order to have the same accuracy as the original algorithm, the interaction list of the grouping cell is formed using Eq. (1) but now the $d$ term is computed in terms of the distance from the center of mass of an inspected cell and the edge of the grouping cell, as shown in Fig. 1 ($d_{B90}$ is used instead of $d_{BH}$).

This implies that the $IL$ formed using the grouping cell contains more elements than the $IL$ formed by applying the original BH algorithm.

**B90 interaction list increment** The B90 adopts an opening criterion ($\theta_{B90}$) based on the distance between the edge of $C_{group}$ and the center of mass of the remote cells. In this case the $IL_g$ length will be proportional to $\theta_{B90}^3\log N$. Moreover, the B90 criterion uses $\theta_{B90}$ numerically equal to $\theta_{BH}$ when using the original BH algorithm. We found experimentally the relation between $\theta_{B90}$ and $\theta_{BH}$, using 2 million particles in a uniform distribution (see Fig. 2): this relation agrees with data in Salmon [23]. A typical value used as opening criterion to run simulations for the LSS is $\theta_{BH} = 0.8$. Consequently we consider $\theta_{B90} = 0.8$, which, in terms of $IL$ length increment, corresponds to running a simulation with $\theta_{BH} = 0.6$.

**B90 timing vs BH timing** Figs. 3 and 4 show the relationship $\langle T_{gl} \rangle - \langle T_i \rangle$ and $\langle T_{gf} \rangle - \langle T_f \rangle$ with $\theta$ ranging between 0.4 and 1.2. Considering $\langle T_{gl} \rangle = 1.3\langle T_i \rangle$ and $\langle T_{gf} \rangle = 2.2\langle T_f \rangle$ with $\theta = 0.8$, Eq. (3) may be rewritten using the above relations as follows:

![Figure 3: Measured $\langle T_i \rangle$ and $\langle T_{gl} \rangle$ using WDSHPT code in a Cray-T3E 1200 system.](image_url)
Figure 4: Measured $\langle T_f \rangle$ and $\langle T_{gf} \rangle$ using WDSHPT code in a Cray-T3E 1200 system.

$$T_g = 1.3 \frac{N}{\langle N_{gp} \rangle} \langle T_l \rangle + 2.2N\langle T_f \rangle,$$

where $\frac{N}{\langle N_{gp} \rangle} = N_{gc}$, and $\langle N_{gp} \rangle$ is the average number of particles in a grouping cell.

For a large number of systems and in particular for our WDSH-PT code running on the T3E system, $\langle T_f \rangle$ ranges from $\sim 1.2\langle T_l \rangle$ to $\sim 1.5\langle T_l \rangle$ at $\theta = 0.8$. Considering these figures, we obtain from Eqs. (4) and (6), respectively,

$$T_o = 2.2N\langle T_l \rangle$$

and

$$T_g = 2.2N\langle T_l \rangle \left( \frac{1.3}{2.2\langle N_{gp} \rangle} + 1.2 \right)$$

and then $T_g > T_o$.

A real gain could be obtained using B90 if the CPU time spent to form the interaction list were longer than the phase to compute the force on the particle. The results reported in [4] demonstrate that if $\langle T_l \rangle \gg \langle T_f \rangle$ the code performance is between two and three times faster of the BH algorithm, and a good choice for the $N_{crit}$ value is about 32 [12].

### 3.2 The Modified Grouping Strategy for LSS Simulations

We will now describe the modification we introduce in the 1999 version of our WDSHPT code (WD99) to increase performance even if $\langle T_l \rangle \leq \langle T_f \rangle$. The basic idea is to assign the same $IL_g$ to each particle within a cell $C_{group}$, containing a maximum of $N_{crit}$ particles.

We will not use the B90 criterion to build the interaction list. Instead, we will use the same $\theta_{BH}$ criterion used in the original BH algorithm. This criterion is applied to a hypothetical particle...
placed in the center of mass of the $C_{\text{group}}$, hereafter VB (Virtual Body) (Fig. 5). Moreover, we consider the $IL_g$ as formed by two parts given by

$$IL_g = IL_{\text{far}} + IL_{\text{near}}$$ (9)

$IL_{\text{far}}$ and $IL_{\text{near}}$ being two subsets of the interaction list. An element is included in one of the two subsets, using the following Sphere criterion for all the elements that satisfy Eq. (1).

Define $Sphere_{\text{radius}} = \frac{3 \text{Cellsize}(C_{\text{group}}) \sqrt{3}}{2}$

If $\text{Distance}(IL_g(\text{element}), VB) > Sphere_{\text{radius}}$

Add element to $IL_{\text{far}}$

Else

Add element to $IL_{\text{near}}$

Endif

Moreover all $p \in C_{\text{group}}$ are included in $IL_{\text{near}}$.

Using the two subsets it is possible to compute the force $F_p$ on a particle $p \in C_{\text{group}}$ as the sum of two components,

$$F_p = F_{\text{far}} + F_{\text{near}},$$ (10)

where $F_{\text{far}}$ is a force component due to the elements listed in $IL_{\text{far}}$ and $F_{\text{near}}$ is the force component due to the elements in $IL_{\text{near}}$. We assume the component $F_{\text{far}}$ to be the same for each particle $p \in C_{\text{group}}$ and compute it considering the gravitational interaction between the VB and only the elements listed in $IL_{\text{far}}$, while the $F_{\text{near}}$ component is computed separately for each $p$ particle by the direct interaction with the elements listed in $IL_{\text{near}}$. 
Moreover, \( \mathbf{F}_{\text{near}} \) contains a restricted number of elements in comparison with the \( \mathbf{F}_{\text{far}} \) list, so we expect a net gain in performance even if \( T_l \leq T_f \). The gain that is possible depends on several parameters (\( N_{\text{crit}} \), the size of the \( C_{\text{group}} \) and the \textit{Sphere radius}), whose ranges of variation are constrained by the maximum allowed value of the overall error of the method, as we will describe in the following sections.

3.3 Errors Analysis and Performance considerations

Before showing the performance of our WD99 procedure in an N-body simulation of the large scale structure of the universe, it is important that we perform an error analysis of the procedure itself. Considering that the cumulative error, when simulations for the LSS studies are run using the original BH algorithm, is lower than 1% [6], fixing the opening criterion \( \theta = 1 \), we will give some constraint concerning the size of \( C_{\text{group}} \), the \( N_{\text{crit}} \) value, and the \textit{Sphere radius} needed to have negligible cumulative error. The following sub-sections discuss the two main sources of error.

3.3.1 The Differences in the Interaction List

The first error source is that WD99 uses the Sphere criterion and the VB to create an interaction list \( IL_g \equiv IL_{VB} \) and WD99 applies the \( IL_{VB} \) to all bodies \( p \in C_{\text{group}} \). This approximation could introduce an error in the force value on the \( p \) particle if the \( IL_p \), created using the original BH algorithm, and the \( IL_{VB} \) have a difference in the elements greater than 1%. As we found with our tests, in order to decrease this difference it is necessary to limit the size of \( C_{\text{group}} \) that is equivalent to fixing a critical level of the tree structure: cells above the critical level cannot form a grouping cell. The user has to fix the critical level considering the density of local bodies in the box where bodies are arranged: the critical level must be chosen in such a way as to make the difference between \( IL_p \) and \( IL_{VB} \) negligible (no more than 1% of the elements). It seems reasonable for a LSS simulation in a 50 Mpc box with more than 2 million particles to fix the critical level as the sixth level of the tree. The next section shows in detail the obtained results. In any case, the cumulative error is very small considering the increase in accuracy compared with the original BH algorithm, due to the inclusion of all \( p \in C_{\text{group}} \) in the interaction list.

3.3.2 Approximation of the Force Component

The second error source is due to the assignment of \( \mathbf{F}_{\text{far}} \), computed for the VB, to each \( p \in C_{\text{group}} \). We found that the Sphere criterion allows us to reduce this error to values much lower than 0.01% for \( N \geq 10^6 \) if the dimension of the \( C_{\text{group}} \) cell is fixed with the critical level as mentioned above, and the \textit{Sphere radius} is three times the radius of the sphere enclosing the \( C_{\text{group}} \) cell (Fig. 5).

Another important constraint to be fixed is the value of \( N_{\text{crit}} \). All the elements \( p \in C_{\text{group}} \) are listed in the \( IL_{\text{near}} \) list and there is a direct body-body interaction among the \( N_{gp} \) (\( N_{gp} \leq N_{\text{crit}} \)) elements forming the group. This introduces a term \( O(N_{gp}N_p) \) in the algorithm complexity. In order to avoid a decrease of the code efficiency and to maintain a good code accuracy, as with the original BH algorithm, it seems reasonable, running LSS simulation with more than 1 million particles, to maintain \( N_{\text{crit}} \leq 32 \). We adopted, in our runs, a safe value \( N_{\text{crit}} = 16 \) even if we obtained good results with \( N_{\text{crit}} = 32 \).

In the next section we show the errors obtained using the above-mentioned constraints when applying WD99 to LSS simulation with both uniform and clustered distributions.

4 TESTS AND RESULTS

We carried out many tests to estimate the error introduced in the WD99 and obtained increased performances using several values of \( N_{\text{crit}} \). Therefore, this section is subdivided as follows: first we test whether our algorithm increases the average length of the interaction list, then we measure the
resulting percentage error, and we conclude with an overall performance analysis. As a test case we ran a simulation using 2 million particles for LSS in a cubic region of 50 Mpc, starting from a homogeneous initial condition (redshift $Z = 50$) and reaching a clustered configuration (redshift $Z = 0$). We used an opening angle parameter $\theta$ ranging from 0.8 to 1.2. Our tests were executed on a Cray T3E system and the results will be shown in the following sections.

4.1 Measuring the Interaction List Length

The aim of this first test is to verify that the WD99 algorithm does not introduce a significant computational cost when the force for a generic particle is computed. This measurement is substantially performed on the average length of the IL we form adopting our code. Fig. 6 reports the result we obtain when the simulation evolves at redshift $Z = 50$.

Tests were executed for several values of redshift, but the differences between BH and our algorithm was computed only at the end of the run. The curves were obtained by fixing $N_{\text{crit}} = 32$ and varying the critical level from 5 to 8. In all cases the differences we obtained are negligible, which means that the computed IL for the VB (with the adopted Sphere criterion) is about equal to the IL we obtain for a generic particle with the original BH algorithm. The first important result is that WD99 does not produce any increment in the IL length and consequently $\langle T_i \rangle = \langle T_{gl} \rangle$.

4.2 Error Measurement

We carry out this measurement in two phases. First we run a single time-step of the 2-million-particle simulation at redshift $Z = 50$. We compare the values we obtain running the BH original algorithm and the WD99. As a reference case, we adopt the critical level equal to 6.

A similar comparison is made at $Z = 0$ and the BH and WD99 histograms of the forces of each component are compared. The comparison shows a negligible difference in the force distribution in a single time-step, at least an order of magnitude less than the error of the original BH algorithm.
The second measurement is made analysing an entire system evolution. We start with the initial condition of 2 million particles with redshift $Z = 50$, $\Delta t = 0.001$, $\theta = 0.8$, and particle mass about $1.655 \times 10^{10}$ solar masses. The system evolution is carried out up to redshift $Z = 0$. The evolution is executed with the original BH algorithm and with the WD99 code. As reference case, we adopt the critical level equal to 6. We measure the absolute error $\epsilon$ in the position of particles and in the velocities of particles in the mean square sense,

$$
\epsilon_{\text{pos}} = \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_{BH} - X_{WD99})^2 + (Y_{BH} - Y_{WD99})^2 + (Z_{BH} - Z_{WD99})^2} \quad (11)
$$

and

$$
\epsilon_{\text{vel}} = \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (V_{xBH} - V_{xWD99})^2 + (V_{yBH} - V_{yWD99})^2 + (V_{zBH} - V_{zWD99})^2}. \quad (12)
$$

The study of the final evolution is described in the next sub-section. Here we give the measured value at the end of the simulation: $\epsilon_{\text{pos}} = 0.003$ and $\epsilon_{\text{vel}} = 0.01$.

Similar values are measured when running simulations with more than 2 million particles and with a critical level equal to 6. The obtained $\epsilon$ values lead us to conclude that the WD99 procedure does not introduce significant errors in comparison with the BH algorithm.

### 4.2.1 Simulation Analysis

The final stages obtained running simulations with the BH algorithm and the WD99 code are very similar. The two-point correlation function is defined as

$$
\xi(r) = \frac{N_q}{\langle \rho \rangle N_c V} - 1, \quad (13)
$$

$N_q$ being the number of pairs of particles with separations between $r$ and $r + \Delta r$, $V$ the volume considered, $N_c$ the particle number taken as centres, and $\langle \rho \rangle$ the mean particle density. We calculate this function at redshift $Z = 0$ for WD99 and BH algorithms. The values we obtain are perfectly equal, and the substructures we form (number and size) are identical.

### 4.3 WD99 Performances

To conclude our WD99 description, we report the performances measured for the WD99 code (Fig. 7) (including the boundary periodic conditions using the Ewald method [16]) and the performances of the original BH algorithm. The measured performances lead us to the conclusion that when the system evolution is clustered ($Z = 0$) the WD99 does not decrease the performance as the BH algorithm. This effect is due to the nature of the WD99 algorithm, which has a structure that increases the efficiency when clusters of particles are well closed. This important effect allows us to run simulations with very clustered systems, obtaining very good performance and negligible errors. Moreover, the efficiency of the WD99 increases by a factor of up to five at the redshift $Z = 0$. The gain is enhanced when bigger simulations are run: a recent simulation with 16 million particles performed on the Cray T3E system using WD99 showed an increase in performance by a factor of 7 at the redshift $Z = 0$. We note that the gain obtained, in comparison with that obtained by the original BH algorithm, is greater using a lower critical level (5 or 6). The gain is incremented using a Sphere criterion with Sphere radius lower than the value we consider, having only a small increment in the global error.
Figure 7: A 2 Million of particles at $\theta = 0.8$: BH algorithm and WD99 procedure performances. A critical level equal to 7 is fixed, and the measurement are performed for uniform ($Z = 50$) and clustered ($Z = 0$) system conditions. The y scale measure the number of particle/sec we compute.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE

The code WD99 is mainly used for LSS studies, but it could be tested and used for other applications where accuracy not higher than 1% is necessary. Considering the high performances we obtained, the WD99 method may be very successfully applied when clustered configurations such as galaxies or clusters of galaxies have to be studied. The new approach could be applied also to other fields of physics where collisionless systems are to be simulated, as in plasma and hydrodynamic studies.

The code is written in Fortran 90 with PGHPF/CRAFT, but the latest version (written in F90 and C languages) uses the one-side communication library SHMEM, allowing it to run on the ORIGIN 2000 systems. A new version will be implemented using dynamical array allocation, and we are studying the implementation of the parallel out-of-core [24], moving data in the disk. This version will be developed for a CC-NUMA machine with MPI-2. We plan to have a freely available version of WD99 in October 2000.

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