Multibody Multipole Methods

Dongryeol Lee\textsuperscript{a}, Arkadas Ozakin\textsuperscript{b}, Alexander G. Gray\textsuperscript{a}

\textsuperscript{a}Computational Science and Engineering
Georgia Institute of Technology
266 Ferst Drive
Atlanta, GA 30332

\textsuperscript{b}Georgia Tech Research Institute
Georgia Institute of Technology
266 Ferst Drive
Atlanta, GA 30332

Abstract

A three-body potential function can account for interactions among triples of particles which are uncaptured by pairwise interaction functions such as Coulombic or Lennard-Jones potentials. Likewise, a multibody potential of order $n$ can account for interactions among $n$-tuples of particles uncaptured by interaction functions of lower orders. To date, the computation of multibody potential functions for a large number of particles has not been possible due to its $O(N^n)$ scaling cost. In this paper we describe a fast tree-code for efficiently approximating multibody potentials that can be factorized as products of functions of pairwise distances. For the first time, we show how to derive a Barnes-Hut type algorithm for handling interactions among more than two particles. Our algorithm uses two approximation schemes: 1) a deterministic series expansion-based method; 2) a Monte Carlo-based approximation based on the central limit theorem. Our approach guarantees a user-specified bound on the absolute or relative error in the computed potential with an asymptotic probability guarantee. We provide speedup results on a three-body dispersion potential, the Axilrod-Teller potential.

Keywords: Fast multipole methods; Data structures; $kd$-trees; Axilrod-Teller potential; Multi-tree algorithms
1. Introduction

In this paper, we generalize previous algorithmic frameworks for rapidly computing pairwise summations to include higher-order summations. Suppose we are given a set of particles $X = \{x_0, \ldots, x_{N-1}\}$ in $D$-dimensional space.

For $x \in X$ and an $n$-tuple function $\phi : \mathbb{R}^D \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we are interested in computing the following form:

$$\Phi(x; X \times \cdots \times X) = \sum_{x_{i_2} \in X \setminus \{x\}} \sum_{x_{i_3} \in X \setminus \{x\} \atop i_2 < i_3} \cdots \sum_{x_{i_n} \in X \setminus \{x\} \atop i_n < i_n} \phi(x, x_{i_2}, \ldots, x_{i_n}) \quad (1)$$

Sums of the form Equation (1) occur in molecular dynamics, protein structure prediction, and other similar contexts. Biomolecular simulations usually break down the interactions in complex chemical systems into balls-and-springs mechanical models augmented by torsional terms, pairwise point charge electrostatic terms, and simple pairwise dispersion (van

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1In computing $\Phi(x)$, we fix one of the arguments of $\phi$ as $x$ and choose a $(n-1)$-subset from $X^{(n-1)}$ which does not contain $x$. 

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der Waals) interactions, etc. However, such pairwise \((n = 2)\) interactions often fail to capture important, complex non-additive interactions found in real systems. Though many researchers have argued that multibody potentials enable more accurate and realistic molecular modeling, the evaluation of \(n\)-body forces for \(n \geq 3\) in systems beyond tiny sizes (less than 10,000 particles) has not been possible due to the unavailability of an efficient way to realize the computation.

In this paper we focus on computing multibody potentials of the third order \((n = 3)\), but frame our presentation so that the methods can easily be generalized to handle higher-order potentials. For concreteness, we consider the Axilrod-Teller potential (dispersion potential):

\[
\phi(x_i, x_j, x_k) = \frac{1 + 3 \cos \theta_i \cos \theta_j \cos \theta_k}{||x_i - x_j||^3 ||x_i - x_k||^3 ||x_j - x_k||^3} \tag{2}
\]

where \(\theta_i, \theta_j, \theta_k\) are the angles at the vertices of the triangle \(x_i x_j x_k\) and \(||\cdot||\) is the Euclidean distance metric. This potential describes induced dipole interactions between triples of atoms, and is known to be important for the accurate computation of the physical properties of certain noble gases.

This Paper. For the first time, we introduce a fast algorithm for efficiently computing multibody potentials for a large number of particles. We restrict the class of multibody potentials to those that can be factorized as products of functions of pairwise Euclidean distances. That is,

\[
\phi(x_{i_1}, \cdots, x_{i_n}) = \prod_{1 \leq p < q \leq n} \phi_{p,q}(x_{i_p}, x_{i_q}) = \prod_{1 \leq p < q \leq n} \phi_{p,q}(x_{i_p} - x_{i_q}) \tag{3}
\]

Our algorithm achieves speedup by utilizing two approximation methods: a deterministic and a probabilistic one. The deterministic approximation is based on the analytic series-expansion-based approach in \([2, 3, 4]\) to handle potential functions that describe \(n\)-body interactions with \(n > 2\). The probabilistic approach uses a Monte Carlo-based approximation based on the central limit theorem. Our algorithm can compute multibody potentials within user-specified bounds for relative or absolute error with an asymptotic probability guarantee.

However, we would like to point out the following limitations in our algorithm. First of all, we do not present a full-fledged derivation of all three translation operators (namely the far-to-far, the far-to-local, and the local-to-local translation operators) for the general multibody
case. While we define the far-field expansion for a restricted class of multibody potentials, defining the local expansion for this same class is harder (see Section 3.4). We would also like to point out that the hybrid deterministic/probabilistic approximation heuristic works under some partial distributions but not all. Indeed, there are configurations for which the speedup factor over the naive brute-force method is minimal. The Monte-Carlo based approximation relies on two theorems: 1) the central limit theorem from which we determine the number of required samples; 2) the Berry-Esseen theorem which characterizes the the rate at which the sample average converges to the true average. Both theorems provide only asymptotic guarantees.

Our work utilizes and extends a framework for efficient algorithms for so-called generalized N-Body Problems \cite{5}, which introduced multi-tree methods. The framework was originally developed to accelerate common bottleneck statistical computations based on distances; it utilizes multiple \textit{kd}-trees and other spatial data structures to reduce computation times both asymptotically and practically by multiple orders of magnitude. This work extends the framework with higher-order hierarchical series approximation techniques, demonstrating a fast multipole-type method for higher-order interactions for the first time, effectively creating a Multibody Multipole Method.

Section 3 introduces the generalized N-body framework and describes a partial extension of fast multipole-type methods to handle higher-order interactions; we will discuss the technical difficulties for deriving all of the necessary tools for the general multibody case. As a result, we utilize only a simple but effective approximation using the center-of-mass approximations. Section 4 focuses on three-body interactions and introduces methods to do potential computations under both deterministic and probabilistic error criteria; the section also provides a description of the fast algorithm for the three-body case. Section 5 proves that our proposed algorithms can approximate potentials within user-specified error bounds. Section 6 shows experimental scalability results for our proposed algorithms against the naive algorithm under different error parameter settings.

**Notations.** Throughout this paper, we use these common sets of notations:
• **(Normal Distribution).** This is denoted by $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ where $\mu$ and $\Sigma$ are the mean and the covariance respectively.

• **(Vector Component).** For a given vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^k$, we access its $d$-th component by $v[d]$ where $1 \leq d \leq k$ (i.e. 1-based index).

• **(Multi-index Notation).** Throughout this paper, we will be using the multi-index notation. A $D$-dimensional multi-index $\alpha$ is a $D$-tuple of non-negative integers and will be denoted using a bold lowercase Greek alphabet. For any $D$-dimensional multi-indices $\alpha$, $\beta$ and any $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$,

$$
|\alpha| = \alpha[1] + \alpha[2] + \cdots + \alpha[D]
$$

$$
\alpha! = (\alpha[1])!(\alpha[2])! \cdots (\alpha[D])!
$$

$$
x^\alpha = (x[1])^{\alpha[1]}(x[2])^{\alpha[2]} \cdots (x[D])^{\alpha[D]}
$$

$$
D^\alpha = \partial_1^{\alpha[1]}\partial_2^{\alpha[2]} \cdots \partial_D^{\alpha[D]}
$$

$$
\alpha + \beta = (\alpha[1] + \beta[1], \cdots, \alpha[D] + \beta[D])
$$

$$
\alpha - \beta = (\alpha[1] - \beta[1], \cdots, \alpha[D] - \beta[D]) \text{ for } \alpha \geq \beta.
$$

where $\partial_i$ is a $i$-th directional partial derivative. Define $\alpha > \beta$ if $\alpha[d] > \beta[d]$, and $\alpha \geq p$ for $p \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$ if $\alpha[d] \geq p$ for $1 \leq d \leq D$ (and similarly for $\alpha \leq p$).

• **(Size of a Point Set).** Given a set $S$, its size is denoted by $|S|$.

• **(Probability Guarantee).** We use the unbold Greek alphabet $\alpha$.

• **(A Tree Node).** A tree node represents a subset of a point set represented by the root node. Hence, we use the same notation as the previous.

• **(Representative Point of a Tree Node).** Usually a geometric center is used but any point inside the bounding primitive of a tree node is chosen as well. For the tree node $P$, this is denoted as $c_P$. 
• (Child Nodes of an Internal Tree Node). Given a node $N$, denote its left and right child nodes by $N^L$ and $N^R$ respectively.

2. Related Work

2.1. Error Bounds

Due to its expensive computational cost, many algorithms approximate sums at the expense of reduced precision. The following error bounding criteria are used in the literature:

Definition 2.1. $\tau$ absolute error bound: For each $\Phi(x)$ for $x \in X$, it computes $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ such that $|\tilde{\Phi}(x) - \Phi(x)| \leq \tau$.

Definition 2.2. $\epsilon$ relative error bound: For each $\Phi(x)$ for $x \in X$, compute $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ such that $|\tilde{\Phi}(x) - \Phi(x)| \leq \epsilon |\Phi(x)|$.

Bounding the relative error is much harder because the error bound criterion is in terms of the initially unknown exact quantity. As a result, many previous methods [4, 6] have focused on bounding the absolute error. The relative error bound criterion is preferred to the absolute error bound criterion in statistical applications in which high accuracy is desired. Our framework can enforce the following error form:

Definition 2.3. $(1 - \alpha)$ probabilistic $\epsilon$ relative/$\tau$ absolute error: For each $\Phi(x)$ for $x \in X$, compute $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$, such that with at least probability $0 < 1 - \alpha \leq 1$, $|\tilde{\Phi}(x) - \Phi(x)| \leq \epsilon |\Phi(x)| + \tau$.

2.2. Series Expansion

A series of papers first laid the foundations for efficiently computing sums of pairwise potentials such as Coulombic and Yukawa potentials [2, 3, 4]. The common approach in these papers is to derive analytical series expansions of the given potential function in either Cartesian or spherical coordinate systems. The series expansion is then truncated after taking a fixed number of terms. The associated error bounds are derived from summing the truncated terms in an appropriate infinite geometric sum or bounding the remainder term.
using Taylor’s theorem. A recent line of work on efficient computation of pairwise function has focused on developing numerical representations of the potential matrix $\left[\phi(x_m, x_n)\right]_{m,n=1}^N$, rather than relying on analytical expansion of the potential function. [7] and [8] use singular value decomposition and the QR decomposition to compute the compressed forms of the potential function and the three translation operators. [9, 10] take the “pseudo-particle” approach by placing equivalent artificial charges on the bounding surface of the actual particles by solving appropriate integral equations. All of these works have been limited to pairwise potential functions, and the approach does not naturally suggest a generalization to $n$-body potentials with $n > 2$. To our knowledge, no research has been performed on the problem of evaluating multibody potentials using a method more sophisticated than the $O(N^n)$ brute-force algorithm with an ad-hoc cut-off distance. [11, 12].

3. Generalized $N$-body Framework

We use a variant of $kd$-trees [13] to form hierarchical groupings of points based on their locations using the recursive procedure shown in Algorithm 1. Initially, the algorithm starts with $P = X$ (the entire point set). We split a given set of points along the widest dimension of the bounding hyper-rectangle into two equal halves at the splitting coordinate. We
continue splitting until the number of points is below some user-defined threshold called the leaf threshold. If the number of points owned by a node exceeds the leaf threshold, then it is called an internal node. Otherwise it is called a leaf node. Assuming that each split on a level results in the equal number of points on the left subset and the right subset $P_L$ and $P_R$ respectively, the runtime cost is $O(|X| \log |X|)$. We note that the cost of building a $kd$-tree is negligible compared to the actual multibody potential computation (see Section 6). See Figure 2. The general framework for computing Equation (1) is formalized in [5, 14, 15, 16].

Algorithm 1 BUILDKdTREE($P$)

1. **if** $|P|$ is above the leaf threshold **then**
   
   Find the widest dimension $d$ of the bounding box of $P$.
   
   Choose an axis-aligned split $s$ along $d$.
   
   Split $P = P_L \cup P_R$ where $P_L = \{x \in P \mid x[d] \leq s\}$ and $P_R = P \setminus P_L$.
   
   BUILDKdTREE($P_L$), BUILDKdTREE($P_R$)
   
2. **else**
   
   Form far-field moments of $P$ by translating far-field moments of $P_L$ and $P_R$.
   
   Initialize summary statistics of $P$.

This approach consists of the following steps:

1. Build a spatial tree (such as $kd$-trees) for the set of particles $X$ and build far-field moments on each node of the tree (Bottom-up phase).

2. Perform a multi-tree traversal over $n$-tuples of nodes (Approximation phase).

3. Pre-order traverse the tree and propagate unincorporated bound changes downward (Top-down phase).

Step 2 utilizes the procedure shown in Algorithm 2 (called by setting each $P_i = X$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$), a recursive function that allows us to consider the $n$-tuples formed by choosing each $x_i$ from $P_i$; we can gain efficiency over the naive enumeration of the $n$-tuples by using the bounding box and the moment information stored in each $P_i$. One such information is
Algorithm 2 MTPotentialCanonical(\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n)

\textbf{if} CanSummarize(\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n) (Try approximation.) \textbf{then}

\textbf{Summarize}(\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n, \epsilon, \tau, \alpha)

\textbf{else}

\textbf{if} all of $S_i$ are leaves \textbf{then}

\textbf{MTPotentialBase}(\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n) (Base case.)

\textbf{else}

Find an internal node $P_k$ to split among $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$.

Propagate bounds of $P_k$ to $P_k^L$ and $P_k^R$.

MTPotentialCanonical(\{P_1, \ldots, P_{k-1}, P_k^L, P_{k+1}, \ldots, P_n\})

MTPotentialCanonical(\{P_1, \ldots, P_{k-1}, P_k^R, P_{k+1}, \ldots, P_n\})

Refine summary statistics based on the two recursive calls.

the distance bound computed using the bounding box (see Figure 3). CanSummarize function first eliminates redundant recursive calls for the list of node tuples that satisfy the following condition: if there exists a pair of nodes $P_i$ and $P_j$ ($i < j$) among the node list $P_1, \ldots, P_n$, such that the maximum depth-first rank of $P_i$ is less than the minimum depth-first rank of $P_j$. In this case, the function returns true. See Figure 2 and [17]. In addition, if any one of the nodes in the list includes one of the other nodes (i.e. there exists nodes $P_i$ and $P_j$ such that the minimum depth-first rank of $P_i <$ the minimum depth-first rank of $P_j <$ the maximum depth-first rank of $P_j <$ the maximum depth-first rank of $P_i$), CanSummarize returns false. We do this because it is a bit tricky to count the number of tuples for each point in this case (see Figure 4).
Figure 4: For $n = 3$, four canonical cases of the three “valid” (i.e. the particle indices in each node are in increasing depth-first order) node tuples encountered during the algorithm: (a) All three nodes are equal; (b) $S_1$ and $S_2$ are equal, and $S_3$ comes later in the depth-first order; (c) $S_2$ and $S_3$ are equal and come later in the depth-first order; (d) All three nodes are different.

Otherwise, CanSummarize function tests whether each potential sum for $x \in \bigcup_{1 \leq m \leq n} P_m$ can be approximated within the error tolerance determined by the algorithm. For example, if $n = 4$, we test for each $x_1 \in P_1$, $x_2 \in P_2$, $x_3 \in P_3$, $x_4 \in P_4$, the following exact quantities can be approximated:

$$\Phi(x_1; P_2 \times P_3 \times P_4) = \sum_{x_2 \in P_2 \setminus \{x_1\}} \sum_{x_3 \in P_3 \setminus \{x_1\}} \sum_{i_2 < i_3} \phi(x_1, x_{i_2}, x_{i_3}, x_{i_4})$$

$$\Phi(x_2; P_1 \times P_3 \times P_4) = \sum_{x_1 \in P_1 \setminus \{x_2\}} \sum_{x_3 \in P_3 \setminus \{x_2\}} \sum_{i_1 < i_3} \phi(x_2, x_{i_1}, x_{i_3}, x_{i_4})$$
If the approximation is not possible, then the algorithm continues to consider the data at a finer granularity; it chooses an internal node $P_k$ (typically the one with the largest diameter) to split among $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$. Before recursing to two sub-calls in Line 9 and Line 10 of Algorithm 2, the algorithm can optionally push quantities from a node that is being split to its child nodes (Line 8). After returning from the recursive calls, the node that was just split can refine summary statistics based on the results accumulated on its child nodes. The details of these operations are available in earlier papers [5, 14, 15, 16, 18].

The basic idea is to terminate the recursion as soon as possible, i.e. by considering a tuple of large subsets and avoiding the number of exhaustive leaf-leaf computations. We note that the CANSUMMARIZE and SUMMARIZE functions effectively replace unwieldy interaction lists used in FMM algorithms. Interaction lists in $n$-tuple interaction, if naively enumerated, can be large depending on the potential function $\phi$ and the dimensionality $D$ of the problem, whereas the generalized $N$-body approach can handle a wide spectrum of problems without this drawback.

3.1. Algorithm for Pairwise Potentials ($n = 2$)

The general algorithmic strategy for pairwise potentials $\Phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ is described in [5, 14, 15, 16], and consists of the following three main phases (see Figure 5). Suppose we are given a set of “source” points (denoted as reference points) and a set of “target” points (denoted as query points).

1. **Bottom-up phase:** Compute far-field moments of order $p$ in every leaf node of the reference tree. The resulting far-field expansion of each reference node $P_2$ is given by:

$$\Phi(x; P_2) = \sum_{\alpha \geq 0} \left[ \sum_{x_{i_2} \in P_2} \frac{(-1)^\alpha}{\alpha!} (x_{i_2} - c_{P_2})^\alpha \right] D^\alpha \phi(x - c_{P_2}) = \sum_{\alpha \geq 0} M_\alpha(P_2, c_{P_2}) D^\alpha \phi(x - c_{P_2})$$

The terms “reference/query” have been used in the general framework we are applying.
Figure 5: The reference points (the left tree) are hierarchically compressed and uncompressed when a pair of query (from the right tree)/reference nodes is approximated within an error tolerance.

\[ \Phi(x; P_2) \] reads as “the potential sum on \( x \) due to the contribution of \( P_2 \)” and \( M_\alpha(P_2, c_{P_2}) \) as “the \( \alpha \)-th far-field coefficient of \( P_2 \) centered at \( c_{P_2} \)”.

Because it is impossible to store an infinite number of far-field moments \( M_\alpha(P_2, c_{P_2}) \), we truncate the Taylor expansion up to the order \( p \) (determined either arbitrarily or by an appropriate error criterion):

\[
\tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2; F(c_{P_2}, p)) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p} M_\alpha(P_2, c_{P_2}) D^\alpha \phi(x - c_{P_2})
\]  

such that \( |\tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2) - \Phi(x; P_2)| \) is sufficiently small. \( \tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2; F(c_{P_2}, p)) \) reads as “the approximated potential sum on \( x \) due to the points owned by \( P_2 \) using up to the \( p \)-th order far-field expansion of \( P_2 \) centered at \( c_{P_2} \)”.

For internal reference nodes, perform the far-to-far (F2F) translation to convert the far-field moments owned by the child nodes to form the far-field moments for their common parent node \( P_2 \). For example, the far-field moments of \( P_{2}^{L} \) centered at \( c_{P_2}^{L} \) is
shifted to $c_{P_2}$ by:

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x; P^L_2; F(c_{P_2}, p)) = \sum_{\gamma \leq p} M_\gamma(P^L_2, c_{P_2})(-1)^\gamma D^\gamma \phi(x - c_{P_2})$$

(5)

where

$$M_\gamma(P^L_2, c_{P_2}) = \sum_{\alpha \leq \gamma} \frac{M_\alpha(P^L_2, c_{P_2})(c_{P^L_2} - c_{P_2})^{\gamma - \alpha}}{(\gamma - \alpha)!}$$

(6)

Note that there is no error incurred in each F2F translation, i.e., $\tilde{\Phi}(x; P^L_2; F(c_{P_2}, p)) = \tilde{\Phi}(x; P^L_2; F(c_{P_2}, p))$ for any query point $y$ from the intersection of the domains of $x$ for $\tilde{\Phi}(x; P^L_2; F(c_{P_2}, p))$ and $\tilde{\Phi}(x; P^L_2; F(c_{P_2}, p))$; the domain for which the far-field expansion remains valid depends on the error bound criterion for each potential. The far-field moments of the parent node $P_2$ is the sum of the translated moments of its child nodes:

$$M_\gamma(P_2, c_{P_2}) = \sum_{\alpha \leq \gamma} \frac{M_\alpha(P^L_2, c_{P_2})(c_{P^L_2} - c_{P_2})^{\gamma - \alpha}}{(\gamma - \alpha)!} + \frac{M_\alpha(P^R_2, c_{P_2})(c_{P^R_2} - c_{P_2})^{\gamma - \alpha}}{(\gamma - \alpha)!}$$

2. **Approximation phase:** For a given pair of the query and the reference nodes, determine the order of approximation and either (1) translate the far-field moments of the reference node to the local moments of the query node (2) or recurse to their subsets, if the F2L translation is more costly than the direct exhaustive method.

Let us re-write the exact contribution of $P_2$ to a point $x \in P_1$:

$$\Phi(x; P_2) = \sum_{\beta \geq 0} \frac{1}{|\beta|!} \sum_{\alpha \geq 0} M_\alpha(P_2, c_{P_2}) D^{\alpha + |\beta|} \phi(c_{P_2} - c_{P_1})(x - c_{P_1})^\beta$$

$$= \sum_{\beta \geq 0} \left[ \sum_{x_{i_\beta} \in P_2} \frac{1}{|\beta|!} D^{\beta} \phi(c_{P_1} - x_{i_\beta}) \right] (x - c_{P_1})^\beta = \sum_{\beta \geq 0} N_\beta(P_2, c_{P_1})(x - c_{P_1})^\beta$$

(7)

where $N_\beta(P_2, c_{P_1})$ reads as “the exact local moments contributed by the points in $P_2$ centered at $c_{P_1}$.” Truncating Equation (7) at $|\beta| \leq p'$ for some $p' \leq p$ yields a direct local accumulation of order $p$.

From the bottom-up phase, we know that $|\alpha| \leq p$. Similarly, we can store only a finite number of local moments up to the order $p' \leq p$ and thus $|\beta| \leq p'$. We get the local

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We use $N$ to denote the local moments because a “near-field” expansion is another widely used term for a local expansion. It avoids the potential notational confusion in the later parts of the paper.
expansion for $P_1$ formed due to translated far-field moments of $P_2$:

$$\tilde{T}(x; P_2; \tilde{N}(c_{P_1}, p')) = \sum_{|\beta| \leq p'} \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p_u P_1} \frac{1}{\beta!} \frac{1}{|\alpha|!} M_\alpha(P_2, c_{P_2}) D_{\alpha + \beta} \phi_{1.2}(c_{P_1} - c_{P_2}) \left( x - c_{P_1} \right)^\beta$$

$$= \sum_{|\beta| \leq p'} \tilde{N}_\beta(P_2, c_{P_1})(x - c_{P_1})^\beta$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

where $\tilde{N}_\beta(P_2, c_{P_1})$ reads as “approximation to the exact local moments $N_\beta(P_2, c_{P_1})$” and $\tilde{T}(x; P_2; \tilde{N}(c_{P_1}, p'))$ as “the approximated potential sum on $x$ due to the points in $P_2$ using up to the $p'$-th order inexact local moments centered at $c_{P_1}$”. The F2L translation is applied only if $|T(x; P_2; \tilde{N}(c_{P_1}, p')) - T(x; P_2)|$ is sufficiently small.

3. **Top-down phase**: Propagate the local moments of each query node (i.e. pruned quantities) to its child nodes using the local-to-local (L2L) operator. Suppose we have the following local expansion for $x \in P_1$:

$$\tilde{T}(x; F2L(P_1) \cup DL(P_1); \tilde{N}(c_{P_1}, p''_{P_1})) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p''_{P_1}} \tilde{N}_\alpha(F2L(P_1) \cup DL(P_1), c_{P_1})(x_i - c_{P_1})^\alpha$$

where $p''_{P_1}$ is the maximum approximation order among (1) the F2L translations performed for $P_1$ and all of the ancestor nodes of $P_1$ (denoted by $F2L(P_1)$); and (2) the direct local accumulations of $P_1$ and those passed down from all of the ancestors of $P_1$ (denoted by $DL(P_1)$). Shifting the expansion to another center $c^*_{P_1} \in P_1$ is given by:

$$\tilde{T}(x; F2L(P_1) \cup DL(P_1); \tilde{N}(c^*_{P_1}, p''_{P_1}))$$

$$= \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p''_{P_1}} \sum_{|\beta| \geq |\alpha|} \frac{\beta!}{\alpha!} \tilde{N}_\alpha(F2L(P_1) \cup DL(P_1), c_{P_1})(c^*_{P_1} - c_{P_1})^{\beta - \alpha} \left( x - c^*_{P_1} \right)^\alpha$$

$$= \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p''_{P_1}} \tilde{N}_\alpha(F2L(P_1) \cup DL(P_1), c^*_{P_1})(x - c^*_{P_1})^\alpha$$ \hspace{1cm} (9)

This shifted moments are added to the local moments of each child of $P_1$, in effect transmitting the pruned contributions downward. At each query leaf, we evaluate the resulting local expansion at each query point.
3.2. Far-field Expansion for Three-body Potentials \((n = 3)\)

In this section, we define far-field expansions for a three-body potential that is a product of functions of pairwise distances (see Equation (11)):

\[
\phi(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, x_{i_3}) = \phi_{1,2}(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}) \cdot \phi_{1,3}(x_{i_1}, x_{i_3}) \cdot \phi_{2,3}(x_{i_2}, x_{i_3})
\]  

We define the far-field moments of a node the same way defined for the pairwise potential case. Suppose we are given three nodes \(P_1 \neq P_2 \neq P_3\) from the tree. The following \((n - 1)\)-nested sum expresses the contribution for \(x \in P_1\) due to the other nodes \(P_2\) and \(P_3\):

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) = \sum_{x_{i_2} \in P_2} \sum_{x_{i_3} \in P_3} \phi(x, x_{i_2}, x_{i_3})
\]  

The basic goal here is to decompose Equation (12) into sums of products of the far-field moments of each node. A far-field expansion for \(x_{i_1} \in P_1\) induced by the far-field moments
of \( P_2 \) and \( P_3 \) is given by (see Figure 6):

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) = \sum_{x_{i2} \in P_2} \sum_{x_{i3} \in P_3} \sum_{\alpha_{1,2} \geq 0} \frac{(x_{i2} - c_{P_2})^{\alpha_{1,2}}}{\alpha_{1,2}!} (-1)^{\alpha_{1,2}} D^{\alpha_{1,2}} \phi_{i,2}(x - c_{P_2})
\]

\[
\sum_{\alpha_{1,3} \geq 0} \frac{(x_{i3} - c_{P_3})^{\alpha_{1,3}}}{\alpha_{1,3}!} (-1)^{\alpha_{1,3}} D^{\alpha_{1,3}} \phi_{i,3}(x - c_{P_3})
\]

\[
\sum_{\alpha_{2,3} \geq 0} \sum_{\beta_{2,3} \leq \alpha_{2,3}} \frac{(x_{i2} - c_{P_2})^{\beta_{2,3}} (x_{i3} - c_{P_3})^{\alpha_{2,3} - \beta_{2,3}}}{\beta_{2,3}!} (\alpha_{2,3} - \beta_{2,3}!) (-1)^{\alpha_{2,3} - \beta_{2,3}} D^{\alpha_{2,3}} \phi_{2,3}(c_{P_2} - c_{P_3})
\]

By setting \( \alpha = \alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{1,3} + \alpha_{2,3} \) and pushing the summations over \( x_{i2} \in P_2 \) and \( x_{i3} \in P_3 \) inside, we get:

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) = \sum_{\alpha \geq 0} \sum_{\alpha_{1,2} \leq \alpha} \sum_{\alpha_{1,3} \leq \alpha - \alpha_{1,2}} \sum_{\alpha_{2,3} \leq \alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \alpha_{1,3}} \left( \frac{\alpha_{1,2} + \beta_{2,3}}{\alpha_{1,2}} \right) \left( \frac{\alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \beta_{2,3}}{\alpha_{1,3}} \right)
\]

\[
M_{\alpha_{1,2} + \beta_{2,3}} (P_2, c_{P_2}) M_{\alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \beta_{2,3}} (P_3, c_{P_3}) (-1)^{\beta_{2,3}}
\]

\[
D^{\alpha_{1,2}} \phi_{1,2}(x_{i1} - c_{P_2}) D^{\alpha_{1,3}} \phi_{1,3}(x_{i1} - c_{P_3}) D^{\alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \alpha_{1,3}} \phi_{2,3}(c_{P_2} - c_{P_3})
\]

Truncating \( \alpha \) at \( p \)-th order yields:

\[
\tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times P_3; F(c_{P_2} \times c_{P_3}, p))
\]

\[
= \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p} \sum_{\alpha_{1,2} \leq \alpha} \sum_{\alpha_{1,3} \leq \alpha - \alpha_{1,2}} \sum_{\alpha_{2,3} \leq \alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \alpha_{1,3}} \left( \frac{\alpha_{1,2} + \beta_{2,3}}{\alpha_{1,2}} \right) \left( \frac{\alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \beta_{2,3}}{\alpha_{1,3}} \right)
\]

\[
M_{\alpha_{1,2} + \beta_{2,3}} (P_2, c_{P_2}) M_{\alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \beta_{2,3}} (P_3, c_{P_3}) (-1)^{\beta_{2,3}}
\]

\[
D^{\alpha_{1,2}} \phi_{1,2}(x_{i1} - c_{P_2}) D^{\alpha_{1,3}} \phi_{1,3}(x_{i1} - c_{P_3}) D^{\alpha - \alpha_{1,2} - \alpha_{1,3}} \phi_{2,3}(c_{P_2} - c_{P_3})
\]

where \( \tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times P_3; F(c_{P_2} \times c_{P_3}, p)) \) reads as “the \( p \)-th order far-field expansion at \( x \) due to the moments of \( P_2 \) centered at \( c_{P_2} \) and the moments of \( P_3 \) centered at \( c_{P_3} \).”

**Computational Cost of Evaluating the Far-field Expansion.** The first three summations over \( \alpha, \alpha_{1,2}, \alpha_{1,3} \) collectively contribute \( O(p^3) \) terms, and the inner summation contributing at most \( O(p^3) \) terms. Thus, evaluating the \( p \)-th order far-field expansion for a three-body potential on a single point takes \( O(p^6) \) time.
3.3. Far-field Expansion for General Multibody Potentials \((n \geq 2)\)

For a general multibody potential that can be expressed as products of pairwise functions (see Equation (3)), the far-field expansion induced by the points in \(P_2, \cdots, P_n\) for \(x \in P_1\) is:

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times \cdots \times P_n) = \prod_{2 \leq k \leq n} \sum_{x_i \in P_k} \frac{1}{\alpha_{1,k}!} (x_{i_k} - c_{P_k}) \alpha_{1,k} \left(-1\right)^{\alpha_{1,k}} D^{\alpha_{1,k}} \phi_{1,k}(x - c_{P_k})
\]

Focus on grouping and multiplying monomial powers of \((x_{i_k} - c_{P_k})\) for each \(2 \leq k \leq n\):

\[
\left(\frac{x_{i_k} - c_{P_k}}{\alpha_{1,k}! \prod_{u=2}^{k-1} (\alpha_{u,k} - \beta_{u,k})!} \prod_{v=k+1}^{n} \beta_{v,k}! \right)
\]

Let \(\xi_k = \alpha_{1,k} + \sum_{u=2}^{k-1} (\alpha_{u,k} - \beta_{u,k}) + \sum_{v=k+1}^{n} \beta_{v,k}\) and \(b_k = \frac{\xi_k!}{\alpha_{1,k}! \prod_{u=2}^{k-1} (\alpha_{u,k} - \beta_{u,k})! \prod_{v=k+1}^{n} \beta_{v,k}!}\). Then,

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times \cdots \times P_n) = \prod_{2 \leq s < t \leq n} \sum_{2 \leq k \leq n} \sum_{\alpha_{1,k} \geq 0} \sum_{\alpha_{s,t} \geq 0} b_k M_{\xi_k}(P_k, c_{P_k}) (-1)^{\beta_{s,t}} D^{\alpha_{1,k}} \phi_{1,k}(x - c_{P_k}) D^{\alpha_{s,t}} \phi_{s,t}(c_{P_s} - c_{P_t})
\]

Equation (15) is a convolution of far-field moments of \(P_2, \cdots, P_n\). We can truncate the expansion above for terms for \(|\alpha| = \sum_{1 \leq r \leq s \leq n} \alpha_{r,s} > p\) for some \(p > 0\). Note that Equation (15) includes the \(n = 2\) and \(n = 3\) cases.

\[
\tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times \cdots \times P_n; F(c_{P_2} \times \cdots \times c_{P_n}, p)) = \prod_{2 \leq s < t \leq n} \sum_{2 \leq k \leq n} \sum_{|\alpha| \leq p} \sum_{\alpha_{1,k} \geq 0} \sum_{\alpha_{s,t} \geq 0} b_k M_{\xi_k}(P_k, c_{P_k}) (-1)^{\beta_{s,t}} D^{\alpha_{1,k}} \phi_{1,k}(x - c_{P_k}) D^{\alpha_{s,t}} \phi_{s,t}(c_{P_s} - c_{P_t})
\]

Computational Cost of Evaluating the Far-field Expansion. The summations over \(\alpha_{r,s}\) for \(1 \leq r < s \leq n\) collectively contribute \(O(p^3)\) terms, and each inner summation
Figure 7: A local expansion created inside the node $P_1$ at $x$ by directly accumulating each point in $P_2$ and $P_3$ (see Equation (17)). We are not aware of a technique to express an interaction between a particle in $P_2$ and a particle in $P_3$ (marked by the ? symbol) for $p > 0$.

over $\beta_{s,t}$ contributing at most $O(p^3)$ terms. Thus, evaluating the $p$-th order far-field expansion for a general multibody potential of the form Equation (3) on a single point takes $O\left(p^3\left(\frac{n-1}{2}+1\right)\right)$ time. In practice, we are forced to use $p = 0$ for $n > 2$ unless most $\phi_{p,q}(x_{i_p}, x_{i_q})$’s in Equation (3) are constant functions.

3.4. Local Expansion for Three-body Potentials ($n = 3$)

Unlike the far-field expansion case, we are presented a fundamental difficulty. In order to derive a local expansion, we need to express the influence of each non-evaluation point $x_{i_j}$ on the evaluation point $x$ at a center near $x$. However, breaking up the interaction among the non-evaluation points (i.e. $x_{i_j}$’s in the arguments of $\phi(x, x_{i_1}, \cdots, x_{i_{n-1}})$) without loss of information is hard. To see this: take a three-body potential expressible in products of pairwise functions (see Figure 7). Expanding near $c_{P_1}$ inside the node $P_1$ yields an expansion
valid for \( x \in P_1 \):

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) = \sum_{x_1 \in P_2} \sum_{x_3 \in P_3} \sum_{\alpha_{1,2} \geq 0} \frac{D^{\alpha_{1,2}}(c_{P_1} - x_1)}{\alpha_{1,2}!} (x - c_{P_1})^{\alpha_{1,2}} \sum_{\alpha_{1,3} \geq 0} \frac{D^{\alpha_{1,3}}(c_{P_1} - x_3)}{\alpha_{1,3}!} (x - c_{P_1})^{\alpha_{1,3}} \sum_{\alpha_{2,3} \geq 0} \frac{D^{\alpha_{2,3}}(c_{P_1} - x_3)}{\alpha_{2,3}!} (x - c_{P_1})^{\alpha_{2,3}}
\]

Again, let \( \alpha = \alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{1,3} + \alpha_{2,3} \). Switching the orders of summations results:

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) = \sum_{\alpha_{1,2} \leq \alpha} \sum_{\alpha_{1,3} \leq \alpha - \alpha_{1,2}} \left[ \sum_{x_2 \in P_2} \frac{D^{\alpha_{1,2}}(c_{P_1} - x_2)}{\alpha_{1,2}!} (x_2 - c_{P_1})^{\alpha_{1,2}} \sum_{x_3 \in P_3} \frac{D^{\alpha_{1,3}}(c_{P_1} - x_3)}{\alpha_{1,3}!} (x_3 - c_{P_1})^{\alpha_{1,3}} \sum_{x_2, x_3 \in P_2 \times P_3} \tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times P_3) \right] (x - c_{P_1})^{\alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{1,3}}
\]

We need the exponent of \( (x - c_{P_1}) \) to match \( \alpha \) to be able to define the local moments inside \( P_1 \). Unless \( \alpha_{2,3} = 0 \) (i.e. ignore the interaction between a particle in the second set and a particle in the third set), this is not possible. Since we encounter a similar problem in the general case, we will skip its discussion.

4. Simpler Algorithm for General Multibody Potentials

Instead of trying to derive the full-fledged tools for general multibody potentials, we focus on deriving something simpler. Let us focus on the \( n = 3 \) case. For a given set of three pairwise disjoint nodes: \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) and a monotonically decreasing\(^4\) three-body potentials such as \( \phi(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{||x_1-x_2||^n ||x_1-x_3||^n ||x_2-x_3||^n} \),

\[
\forall x_i \in P_1, \tilde{\Phi}(x_i; P_2 \times P_3) = |P_2||P_3|\phi(c_{P_1}, c_{P_2}, c_{P_3})
\]

\[
\forall x_j \in P_2, \tilde{\Phi}(x_j; P_1 \times P_3) = |P_1||P_3|\phi(c_{P_1}, c_{P_2}, c_{P_3})
\]

\[
\forall x_k \in P_3, \tilde{\Phi}(x_k; P_1 \times P_2) = |P_1||P_2|\phi(c_{P_1}, c_{P_2}, c_{P_3})
\]

\(^4\)“Monotonic” multibody potentials decrease in value if one of the Euclidean distance arguments is increased while the other two are held constant.
which can be obtained by setting $p = 0$ in Equation (14). This means that we can get a cheaper approximation using the number of points owned by each node. Using the pairwise minimum and maximum node distances yields:

$$\phi(d^u(P_1, P_2), d^u(P_1, P_3), d^u(P_2, P_3)) \leq \phi(cP_1, cP_2, cP_3) \leq \phi(d^l(P_1, P_2), d^l(P_1, P_3), d^l(P_2, P_3))$$

It is straightforward to generalize this for the $n \geq 2$ case.

**Non-monotonic Potentials:** For non-monotonic potentials such as the Lennard-Jones potential $\phi(x_1, x_2) = \frac{a}{r^1} - \frac{b}{r^6}$, we can compute the critical points of $\phi$ and determine the intervals of monotonicity of $\phi$ and consider how $\phi$ behaves in the distance bound range between $d^l(P_1, P_2)$ and $d^u(P_1, P_2)$. We take a simpler approach that results in an algorithm that is easier to code; we break up the potential into two parts such that $\phi(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n) = \phi^+(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n) - \phi^-(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n)$, and get a lower and upper bound (though a looser bound) on the contributions from the positive potential $\phi^+$ and negative potential $\phi^-$.  

### 4.1. Specifying the Approximation Rules

The overall algorithm which also subsumes the pairwise potential case ($n = 2$) was shown in Algorithm 2. We can now specify the CANSUMMARIZE function for the general multibody case. For guaranteeing $\tau$ absolute error bound criterion (Definition 2.1), the CANSUMMARIZE function returns true if:

$$|\phi(d^u(P_1, P_2), \cdots, d^u(P_{n-1}, P_n)) - \phi(d^l(P_1, P_2), \cdots, d^l(P_{n-1}, P_n))| \leq \frac{\tau}{T_{\text{root}}}$$

where $T_{\text{root}} = \binom{N-1}{n-1}$ (i.e. the total number of tuples in each slice in Figure 1). Let us also define $T_i$ to be the number of tuples containing a fixed particle in $P_i$ (see Figure 1). For example, for $n = 3$, the corresponding SUMMARIZE function would accumulate for each node: for $P_1$: $|P_2||P_3|\phi(cP_1, cP_2, cP_3)$, for $P_2$: $|P_1||P_3|\phi(cP_1, cP_2, cP_3)$, and for $P_3$: $|P_1||P_2|\phi(cP_1, cP_2, cP_3)$.

**Hybrid Absolute/Relative Error Guarantee.** The algorithm for guaranteeing the hybrid absolute/relative error bound (Definition 2.2) deterministically ($\alpha = 0$) is not so much different from that for guaranteeing the absolute error bound. In each node $P$, we maintain the lower bound on the accumulated potentials for the particles in $P$ (denoted as
Figure 8: Three-body multipole methods for $p = 0$ in a nutshell.

$\Phi_l(P)$, a summary statistic stored in $P$). The function CANSUMMARIZE returns true if,

$$
|\phi(d^n(P_1, P_2), \ldots, d^n(P_{n-1}, P_n)) - \phi(d^l(P_1, P_2), \ldots, d^l(P_{n-1}, P_n))| \\
\leq \frac{\epsilon \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} (\Phi_l(P_i) + \delta^l(P_i; P_1 \times \cdot \cdot \cdot \times P_{i-1} \times P_{i+1} \times \cdot \cdot \cdot \times P_n)) + \tau}{T_{\text{root}}} 
$$

(18)

where each $\delta^l(P_i; P_1 \times \cdots \times P_{i-1} \times P_{i+1} \times \cdots \times P_n) = \prod_{1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i} |P_j| \phi(d^n(P_1, P_2), \ldots, d^n(P_{n-1}, P_n))$

(which is computed just using the contribution of the other nodes on the $i$-th node) is added to the currently running lower bound on each node $\Phi^l(P_i)$ to reflect the most recently available information on the lower bound. $\Phi^l(P_i)$ can be incremented and tightened as the computation progresses, either in the base case or when the recursive sub-calls in Algorithm 2 are completed (Line 11).

Monte Carlo-based Approximations. The error bounds provided by the bounding boxes (see Figure 3) assume that all pairs of points selected between the two nodes are collapsed to two positions that achieve the minimum distance (and vice versa for the maximum distance); therefore, these bounds are very pessimistic and loose. Here we introduce
Algorithm 3 CANSUMMARIZE(\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n): the Monte Carlo-based approximation.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if } & \zeta \cdot m_{\text{limit}} \leq \min\{T_1, T_2, T_3\} \text{ then} \\
\text{for each } & P_i \in \{P_i\}_{i=1}^n \text{ do} \\
& \text{if } i == 1 \text{ or } P_i \neq P_{i-1} \text{ then} \\
& \text{for } x_i \in P_i \text{ do} \\
& \text{if } \text{CANSUMMARIZE\text{MCPoint}}(x_i, i, \{P_i\}_{i=1}^n) == \text{false} \text{ then} \\
& \quad \text{return false} \\
& \text{return true} \\
& \text{else} \\
& \quad \text{return false}
\end{align*}
\]

A method for approximating the potential sums with a probabilistic bound satisfying Definition 2.3. We can trade determinism for further gain in efficiency. We have an additional parameter \(\alpha\) that controls the probability level at which the deviation between each approximation and its corresponding exact values holds. This was introduced first in [19, 20] for probabilistic approximations of aggregate sums and later extended in [21] to handle per-particle quantities. The theorem that we rely on for probabilistic approximation is the following:

**Theorem 4.1. Central limit theorem:** Let \(f_1, f_2, \cdots, f_m\) be independent, identically distributed samples from the probability distribution \(F\) with variance \(\sigma^2\), and \(\bar{\mu} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=1}^{m} f_s\) be the sample mean of the samples. As \(m \to \infty\), \(\bar{\mu} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/m)\).

A widely accepted statistical rule of thumb asserts that 30 or more samples are usually enough to put a sample mean into the asymptotic regime. Berry-Esseen theorem characterizes the rate at which this convergence to normality takes place more precisely:

**Theorem 4.2. Berry-Esseen theorem:** Let \(\bar{\mu}\) be the sample mean of \(m\) samples drawn from the distribution \(F\), and let \(\mu\), \(\sigma^2\), and \(\rho\) be the mean, variance, and third central moment of \(F\). Let \(F_m(x)\) be the cumulative distribution function of \(\bar{\mu}\), and \(\Psi(x; \mu, \sigma^2)\) be the cdf of the Gaussian with mean \(\mu\) and variance \(\sigma^2\). Then there exists a positive constant \(C\) such
Algorithm 4 CanSummarizeMCPoint($x, i, \{S_i\}_{i=1}^n$): Pruning function for the Monte Carlo based approximation per each point.

\[
F^x \leftarrow \emptyset
\]

repeat

\[
\text{Get a random } n\text{-tuple } (x_1, \cdots, x_{i-1}, x, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_n) \text{ where } x_j \in S_j
\]

\[
F^x \leftarrow F^x \cup \{\phi(x_j, \cdots, x_{j-1}, x, x_{j+1}, \cdots, x_n)\}
\]

until \((z_{\alpha/2} \bar{\sigma}_{\mu F^x} \leq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{m}} \text{ and } |F^x| \geq 30) \text{ or } |F^x| \geq m_{\text{limit}}\)

return \(z_{\alpha/2} \bar{\sigma}_{\mu F^x} \leq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{m}}\)

that for all values of \(\bar{\mu}\) and \(m\):

\[
|F_m(\bar{\mu}) - \Psi(\bar{\mu}; \mu, \sigma^2)| \leq \frac{C\rho}{\sigma^3 \sqrt{m}}
\]

which roughly says that the discrepancy between the normal distribution and the sample mean distribution goes down as \(\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}\). For three-body potentials, suppose we are given the set of three nodes, \(P_1, P_2,\) and \(P_3\). Let us consider \(x \in P_1\) (similar approximations can be made for each point in \(P_2\) and \(P_3\)), and the contribution of \(P_2\) and \(P_3\) to its potential sum:

\[
\Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) = \sum_{x_{i_2} \in X \setminus \{x\}} \sum_{x_{i_3} \in X \setminus \{x\}} \phi(x, x_{i_2}, x_{i_3})
\]

We can sample \(m\) potential values \(\phi(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, x_{i_3})\) from the empirical distribution \(F\) formed by the 3-tuples formed among \(S_1, S_2,\) and \(S_3\) that contain \(x\) in the list. From the \(m\) samples, we get the empirical distribution \(F^x_m\), from which we form an approximate \(\tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times P_3)\):

\[
\tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times P_3; F^x_m) = T_1 \tilde{\mu}_{F^x_m} = \frac{T_1}{m} \sum_{s=1}^{m} \phi(x_{i_1}^s, x_{i_2}^s, x_{i_3}^s)
\]

where \(x_{i_s}^s = x\) for all \(1 \leq s \leq m\). For sufficiently large values of \(m\), we can assume that the discrepancy provided by the Berry-Esseen theorem is small and concentrate on the sample variance of the sample mean distribution. The sample variance of the sample mean distribution \(\tilde{\sigma}_{\mu F^x_m}\) is given by:

\[
\tilde{\sigma}_{\mu F^x_m} = \frac{\tilde{\sigma}_{F^x_m}}{\sqrt{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m - 1} \sum_{s=1}^{m} (\phi(x_{i_1}^s, x_{i_2}^s, x_{i_3}^s) - \tilde{\mu}_{F^x_m})^2}
\]
Algorithm 5 SUMMARIZE_MC(\{S_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{T_i\}_{i=1}^n, \beta): Monte Carlo based approximation.

for each \(S_i \in \{S_i\}_{i=1}^n\) do
    if \(i == 1\) or \(S_i \neq S_{i-1}\) then
        for \(x_i \in S_i\) do
            \(\tilde{\Phi}(x_i) \leftarrow \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) + T_i \cdot \tilde{\mu}_{x_i} \cdot \Phi_l(x_i)\)
            \(\Phi^l(x_i) \leftarrow \Phi^l(x_i) + T_i \cdot (\tilde{\mu}_{x_i} - z_{\beta/2} \tilde{\sigma}_{x_i})\)

where \(\tilde{\sigma}\) is the sample variance. Given \(m\) i.i.d. samples, with probability of at least \((1 - \alpha)\),

\[\left| \tilde{\Phi}(x; P_2 \times P_3; F^x_m) - \Phi(x; P_2 \times P_3) \right| \leq T_i z_{\alpha/2} \tilde{\sigma}_{x_i}\]

where \(z_{\alpha/2}\) is the number of standard deviations on either side of \(\tilde{\mu}_{F^x_m}\) to give at least \((1 - \alpha)\) coverage under the normal distribution.

**Modifications to the algorithm.** A Monte Carlo sampling based routine is shown in Algorithm 3. The function CAN_SUMMARIZE determines whether performing Monte Carlo approximations (which involves iterating over each unique point \(x \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i\)) with at least \(m_{\text{limit}}\) samples is computationally cheaper than the brute-force computation. \(\zeta\) is a global variable that dictates the desired amount of speedup needed for applying Monte Carlo approximations, rather than recursing to smaller subsets of the three nodes. If a desired speedup could be achieved, it loops for each unique point in \(x \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i\) and computes the sample mean of the potential values of the tuples that contain \(x\), and the corresponding variance of the sample mean until (1) the desired error is achieved; or (2) exceeds the number of trial samples \(m_{\text{limit}}\). Algorithm 3 is the form used for bounding the absolute error of each potential sum error by \(\tau\) with at least probability of \((1 - \alpha)\). For bounding the hybrid absolute/relative error with at least probability of \((1 - \alpha)\) (Definition 2.3), we replace the termination condition in the loop: \(z_{\alpha/2} \tilde{\sigma}_{x_i} \leq \frac{\tau}{T_{\text{root}}}\) with:

\[T_i \cdot z_{\alpha/2} \tilde{\sigma}_{x_i} \leq \frac{\epsilon(\Phi_l(P_i) + T_i(\tilde{\mu}_{x_i} - z_{\alpha/2} \tilde{\sigma}_{x_i})\big) + \tau T_i}{T_{\text{root}}}\]

(19)

5. Correctness of the Algorithm

The correctness of our algorithm for the deterministic hybrid absolute/relative error criterion is given by:

24
**Theorem 5.1.** Algorithm [2] with the function CANSUMMARIZE with the relative error bound guarantee (Equation [18]) produces approximation \( \tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_1}) \) for \( x_{i_1} \in X \) such that

\[
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_1}) - \Phi(x_{i_1})| \leq c\Phi(x_{i_1}) + \tau
\]  

(20)

**Proof.** (By mathematical induction) For simplicity, let us focus on \( n = 3 \). We induct on the number of points \( |P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_3| \) encountered during the recursion of the algorithm.

**Base case:** There are two parts to this part of the proof.

- Line 1 of the function MTPOTENTIALCANONICAL in Algorithm [2]: any set of nodes \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) for which the function CANSUMMARIZE returns true satisfies the error bounds for \( x_{i_u} \in S_u \) for \( u = 1, 2, 3 \):

\[
\forall x_{i_1} \in P_1, |\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_1}; P_2 \times P_3) - \Phi(x_{i_1}; P_2 \times P_3)| \leq \frac{T_{x_{i_1} \times P_2 \times P_3}}{T_{\text{root}}} (c\Phi(P_1) + \tau) \leq \frac{T_{x_{i_1} \times P_2 \times P_3}}{T_{\text{root}}} (c\Phi(x_{i_1}) + \tau)
\]

\[
\forall x_{i_2} \in P_2, |\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_2}; P_1 \times P_3) - \Phi(x_{i_2}; P_1 \times P_3)| \leq \frac{T_{x_{i_2} \times P_1 \times P_3}}{T_{\text{root}}} (c\Phi(P_2) + \tau) \leq \frac{T_{x_{i_2} \times P_1 \times P_3}}{T_{\text{root}}} (c\Phi(x_{i_2}) + \tau)
\]

\[
\forall x_{i_3} \in P_3, |\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_3}; P_1 \times P_2) - \Phi(x_{i_3}; P_1 \times P_2)| \leq \frac{T_{x_{i_3} \times P_1 \times P_2}}{T_{\text{root}}} (c\Phi(P_3) + \tau) \leq \frac{T_{x_{i_3} \times P_1 \times P_2}}{T_{\text{root}}} (c\Phi(x_{i_3}) + \tau)
\]

(21)

where \( T_{x_{i_u} \times P_2 \times P_3} \) denotes the number of tuples chosen by fixing \( x_{i_u} \) and selecting the other two from \( P_2 \) and \( P_3 \) and so on.

- The function call MTPOTENTIALBASE in Algorithm [2] each \( x_{i_1} \in P_1 \) and \( x_{i_2} \in P_2 \) and \( x_{i_3} \in P_3 \) exchange contributions exactly and incur no approximation error.

**Inductive step:** Suppose we are given the set of three nodes \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) (at least one of which is an internal node) in the function MTPOTENTIALCANONICAL. Suppose the three tuples \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) could not be pruned, and that we need to recurse on each child of \( P_1, P_2, \) and \( P_3 \).

By assumption, CANSUMMARIZE returns false if any one of the nodes \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) includes one of the other nodes (see Section [3]). For \( n = 3 \), we can assume that the possible node tuple
cases that could be considered for pruning are shown in Figure 4. Let \( \{\{P_s^k\}_{s=1}^3\}_{k=1} \) be the set of set of three nodes considered during the recursive sub-computations using the child nodes of each \( P_1, P_2, \) and \( P_3; \) note that the maximum value of \( t \) is 8 for three-body interactions. Note that for each \( k, P_s^k \) is either (1) the node \( P_s \) itself (2) the left child node of \( P_s \) (3) the right child node of \( P_s. \) Therefore, for each \( k = 1, 2, \cdots, t, |P_1^k \cup P_2^k \cup P_3^k| \leq |P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_3|. \)

The equality holds when all of \( P_1, P_2, \) and \( P_3 \) are leaf nodes for which the error criterion is satisfied by the base case function (no error incurred).

If any one of \( P_1, P_2, \) and \( P_3 \) is an internal node, then we are guaranteed that \( |P_1^k \cup P_2^k \cup P_3^k| < |P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_3| \) for all \( k = 1, \cdots, t. \) We invoke the inductive hypothesis to conclude that for each \( k \) and for each \( x_i \in P_s^k \) for \( u = 1, 2, 3: \)

\[
\forall x_{i_1} \in P_1^k, |\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_1}; P_1^k \times P_3^k) - \Phi(x_{i_1}; P_1^k \times P_3^k)|
\leq \frac{\Phi(P_1^k) + \tau}{T_{root}} (\epsilon \Phi(x_{i_1}) + \tau)
\]

\[
\forall x_{i_2} \in P_2^k, |\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_2}; P_2^k \times P_3^k) - \Phi(x_{i_2}; P_2^k \times P_3^k)|
\leq \frac{\Phi(P_2^k) + \tau}{T_{root}} (\epsilon \Phi(x_{i_2}) + \tau)
\]

\[
\forall x_{i_3} \in P_3^k, |\tilde{\Phi}(x_{i_3}; P_3^k \times P_2^k) - \Phi(x_{i_3}; P_3^k \times P_2^k)|
\leq \frac{\Phi(P_3^k) + \tau}{T_{root}} (\epsilon \Phi(x_{i_3}) + \tau)
\]

where \( T_s^k \) is the number of 3-tuples formed among \( P_1^k, P_2^k, P_3^k \) that contain a fixed point in \( P_s^k. \) By the triangle inequality, Equation (20) holds by extending to \( P_1 = P_2 = P_3 = X \) since the number of encountered tuples for each particle add up to \( T_{root}. \)

We are now ready to prove the correctness of our algorithm for bounding the relative error probabilistically.

**Theorem 5.2.** Algorithm 2 with the function CANSUMMARIZE with the modification described in Equation 19 produces approximations \( \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) \) for \( x_i \in X \) such that

\[
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_i) - \Phi(x_i)| \leq \epsilon \Phi(x_i) + \tau \tag{22}
\]

with the probability of at least \( 1 - \alpha \) for \( 0 < \alpha < 1, \) as the number of samples in the Monte Carlo approximation tends to infinity.
Proof. We extend the proof in Theorem 5.1. For simplicity, we again focus on the \( n = 3 \) case.

**Base case:** Given the set of three nodes with the desired failure probability \( \alpha \), the base case MTPOTENTIALBASE is easily shown to satisfy Equation 21 with 100 % probability (\( > 1 - \alpha \)). Similarly, each Monte Carlo prune satisfies Equation 21 with probability of \( 1 - \alpha \) asymptotically.

**Inductive case:** For a non-prunable set of three nodes \( \{P_k\}_{k=1}^{3} \) for the required failure probability \( \beta \). Note that MTPOTENTIALCANONICAL results in a maximum of four (i.e. \( 2^{3-1} = 4 \)) sub-calls for a set of non-prunable \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) nodes. For example, suppose \( P_1 \) is an internal node, and consider its left child, \( P_1^L \). The contribution of \( P_2 \) and \( P_3 \) on \( P_1^L \) can be computed by considering the node combinations: \( (P_1^L, P_2^L, P_3^L), (P_1^L, P_2^R, P_3^L), (P_1^L, P_2^R, P_3^R), (P_1^R, P_2^R, P_3^R) \), resulting in a maximum of four combinations if \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) satisfy the case 4(a) in Figure 4. Each recursive sub-call is equivalent to a stratum in a stratified sampling, and satisfies the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_{iu}; P_2^L \times P_3^L) - \Phi(x_{iu}; P_2^L \times P_3^L)| &\leq \frac{\epsilon T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^L \times P_3^L}}{T_{\text{root}}} \Phi^l(P_1^L) + \frac{T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^L \times P_3^L}}{T_{\text{root}}} \\
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_{iu}; P_2^L \times P_3^R) - \Phi(x_{iu}; P_2^L \times P_3^R)| &\leq \frac{\epsilon T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^L \times P_3^R}}{T_{\text{root}}} \Phi^l(P_1^L) + \frac{T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^L \times P_3^R}}{T_{\text{root}}} \\
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_{iu}; P_2^R \times P_3^L) - \Phi(x_{iu}; P_2^R \times P_3^L)| &\leq \frac{\epsilon T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^R \times P_3^L}}{T_{\text{root}}} \Phi^l(P_1^R) + \frac{T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^R \times P_3^L}}{T_{\text{root}}} \\
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_{iu}; P_2^R \times P_3^R) - \Phi(x_{iu}; P_2^R \times P_3^R)| &\leq \frac{\epsilon T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^R \times P_3^R}}{T_{\text{root}}} \Phi^l(P_1^R) + \frac{T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^R \times P_3^R}}{T_{\text{root}}}
\end{align*}
\]

Collectively, the results from these strata add up to potential estimates that satisfy the error bound with at least \( 1 - \alpha \) probability for each \( x_{iu} \in P_1^L \) and the following holds:

\[
|\tilde{\Phi}(x_{iu}; P_2 \times P_3) - \Phi(x_{iu}; P_2 \times P_3)| \leq \frac{\epsilon T_{x_{iu} \times P_2 \times P_3}}{T_{\text{root}}} \Phi^l(x_{iu}) + \frac{T_{x_{iu} \times P_2 \times P_3}}{T_{\text{root}}}
\]

where \( T_{x_{iu} \times P_2 \times P_3} = T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^L \times P_3^L} + T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^L \times P_3^R} + T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^R \times P_3^L} + T_{x_{iu} \times P_2^R \times P_3^R} \). The similar bounds hold for each \( x \in P_1^R \), and the same reasoning can be extended to the bounds for \( P_2 \) and \( P_3 \). Because \( \Phi^l(P_1) = \min\{\Phi^l(P_1^L), \Phi^l(P_1^R)\} \) throughout the execution of the algorithm, we can extend the argument to the case where \( P_1 = P_2 = P_3 = X \). \[\square\]
6. Experiment Results

All of our algorithms were based on an open-source C++ library called MLPACK \cite{mlpack1, mlpack2}. The experiments were performed on a desktop with AMD Phenom II X6 1100T Processors utilizing only one core with 8 GB of RAM.

6.1. Tree Building

The cost of tree-building is negligible compared to the actual multibody computation. Compared to complex, irregular memory access patterns encountered in the multibody computation (as do most recursive algorithms in general), the tree-building phase requires mostly sequential scanning of contiguous blocks of memory and thus requires shorter amount of time. See Figure \ref{fig:tree_building}, where the tree building is compared to the multibody computation with the relative error criterion $\epsilon = 0.1$ and the 50 \% probability guarantee ($\alpha = 0.5$). The annulus distribution was chosen deliberately to show that even under the distribution for which the multibody computation is relatively fast (see Section 6.2), the tree building requires a tiny fraction of time compared to the computation time.

Figure 9: Building the $kd$-tree takes negligible amount of time compared to the time it takes for the actual multibody computation.
Figure 10: Speedup result on uniformly distributed points using the deterministic algorithm ($\alpha = 0$). The base timings for the naive algorithm on each point set are: $1.91 \times 10^1$ seconds, $1.54 \times 10^2$ seconds, $5.17 \times 10^2$ seconds, $1.23 \times 10^3$ seconds, $2.39 \times 10^3$ seconds, $4.16 \times 10^3$ seconds, $6.64 \times 10^3$ seconds, $9.76 \times 10^3$ seconds, $1.43 \times 10^4$ seconds, and $1.92 \times 10^4$ seconds.

6.2. Multibody Computation

We demonstrate speedup results of our approximate algorithms guaranteeing the $(1 - \alpha)$ probabilistic $\epsilon$ relative error criterion (Definition 2.3). For this paper, we focus strictly on the relative error criterion ($\tau = 0$) and test on three relative error parameter values ($\epsilon = 0.001$, $\epsilon = 0.01$, and $\epsilon = 0.1$). We test on three different types of distribution: uniform within the unit hypercube $[0, 1]^3$ (denoted as the “uniform” distribution), the annulus distribution (denoted as the “annulus” distribution) in three dimensions, and uniform within the unit three-dimensional sphere (denoted as the “ball” distribution). These three distributions were also used in [24]). For the deterministic and probabilistic algorithms, the order of local expansion is fixed at $p = 0$ and only 0-th order multipole expansions are used for the results.

**Deterministic Approximations.** Figure 10, Figure 12, and Figure 11 show speedup results against the naive algorithm using only the deterministic approximation (i.e. $\alpha = 0$).
On the uniform distribution and the ball distribution, the speedup is almost non-existent; the speedup factor is a little bit more than two on the dataset containing 10,000 points using the lowest parameter setting of $\epsilon = 0.1$. On the annulus distribution, our deterministic algorithm achieves a little bit better speedup against the naive algorithm; a factor of more than 20 times speedup on 10,000 points is encountered on $\epsilon = 0.1$. A tree-based hierarchical method generally works better for clustered point sets, and this is reflected in our results.

**Monte-Carlo Approximations.** In this section, we show whether adding indeterminism by sampling can reduce the computation time while guaranteeing a slightly relaxed error criterion (but with a high probability guarantee for each potential sum). We first relax the probability guarantee to be 90% (i.e. $\alpha = 0.1$). Like the results shown using the deterministic algorithm, our Monte Carlo-based algorithm achieves the most speedup on points distributed in an annulus (1000 times speedup on 10,000 points using $\epsilon = 0.1$). See Figure 13, Figure 14, and Figure 15.

We also list the percentage of the points actually achieving the $\epsilon$ relative error bound.
Figure 12: Speedup result on points distributed on an annulus using the deterministic algorithm ($\alpha = 0$). The base timings for the naive algorithms are listed in Figure 10.

Figure 13: Speedup result on uniformly distributed points using the Monte Carlo-based algorithm ($\alpha = 0.1$). The base timings for the naive algorithms are listed in Figure 10.
Figure 14: Speedup result on points distributed inside a sphere using the Monte Carlo-based algorithm ($\alpha = 0.1$). The base timings for the naive algorithms are listed in Figure 10.

Figure 15: Speedup result on points distributed on an annulus using the Monte Carlo-based algorithm ($\alpha = 0.1$). The base timings for the naive algorithms are listed in Figure 10.
along with the mean and the variance in Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3. The relative error level of 0.001 and the probability guarantee of 90% was used. Under all three distributions, the percentage of points whose potential sum achieved the desired relative error of 0.001 was well above 90%. We list the average relative error, the variance, and the maximum relative error. Note that the maximum relative error can exceed 100% if the true potential sum and its approximation have opposite signs. For a particle with a small potential sum, we have observed that this is indeed the case due to numerical inaccuracies accumulated during the summation.

7. Conclusion

In this paper, we have introduced the framework for extending the pairwise series expansion to potentials that involve more than two points. Through this process, we have formally defined an analogue to the far-field expansion for approximating the multibody potentials in a hierarchical fashion as done in traditional FMM algorithms and have derived algorithms for guaranteeing (1) absolute error bound (2) relative error bound (3) proba-

| Number of points | % achieving | Average relative error | Variance | Maximum relative error |
|------------------|-------------|------------------------|----------|------------------------|
| 1000             | 98.3%       | 1.11 × 10^{-4}         | 8.89 × 10^{-7} | 2.86 × 10^{-2}        |
| 2000             | 97.9%       | 1.28 × 10^{-4}         | 7.71 × 10^{-7} | 2.78 × 10^{-2}        |
| 3000             | 98.6%       | 1.51 × 10^{-4}         | 2.64 × 10^{-6} | 6.47 × 10^{-2}        |
| 4000             | 98.3%       | 1.44 × 10^{-4}         | 3.37 × 10^{-6} | 1.01 × 10^{-1}        |
| 5000             | 98.7%       | 2.65 × 10^{-4}         | 1.09 × 10^{-4} | 7.36 × 10^{-1}        |
| 6000             | 98.3%       | 1.29 × 10^{-4}         | 1.39 × 10^{-6} | 3.62 × 10^{-2}        |
| 7000             | 98.4%       | 1.86 × 10^{-4}         | 9.29 × 10^{-6} | 1.96 × 10^{-1}        |
| 8000             | 98.8%       | 9.89 × 10^{-5}         | 1.21 × 10^{-6} | 6.50 × 10^{-2}        |
| 9000             | 98.8%       | 9.94 × 10^{-5}         | 1.39 × 10^{-6} | 6.69 × 10^{-2}        |
| 10000            | 98.9%       | 1.02 × 10^{-4}         | 1.95 × 10^{-6} | 1.06 × 10^{-1}        |

Table 1: The distribution of relative error on the uniform distribution using $\alpha = 0.1$ and $\epsilon = 0.001$. 
| Number of points | % achieving | Average relative error | Variance      | Maximum relative error |
|------------------|-------------|------------------------|---------------|------------------------|
| 1000             | 98.6%       | 8.21 × 10^{-5}         | 1.17 × 10^{-7}| 7.22 × 10^{-3}         |
| 2000             | 98.7%       | 1.35 × 10^{-4}         | 1.26 × 10^{-6}| 2.78 × 10^{-2}         |
| 3000             | 98.7%       | 1.11 × 10^{-4}         | 7.58 × 10^{-7}| 3.23 × 10^{-2}         |
| 4000             | 97.0%       | 1.36 × 10^{-3}         | 1.21 × 10^{-3}| 1.81 × 10^{0}          |
| 5000             | 98.2%       | 1.19 × 10^{-4}         | 1.18 × 10^{-6}| 4.85 × 10^{-2}         |
| 6000             | 98.9%       | 1.20 × 10^{-4}         | 3.70 × 10^{-6}| 1.27 × 10^{-1}         |
| 7000             | 98.8%       | 1.22 × 10^{-4}         | 3.32 × 10^{-6}| 1.11 × 10^{-1}         |
| 8000             | 98.5%       | 1.31 × 10^{-4}         | 3.67 × 10^{-6}| 1.12 × 10^{-1}         |
| 9000             | 97.9%       | 6.24 × 10^{-4}         | 3.89 × 10^{-4}| 1.14 × 10^{0}          |
| 10000            | 97.6%       | 5.09 × 10^{-4}         | 2.40 × 10^{-4}| 1.28 × 10^{0}          |

Table 2: The distribution of relative error on the ball distribution using $\alpha = 0.1$ and $\epsilon = 0.001$.

| Number of points | % achieving | Average relative error | Variance      | Maximum relative error |
|------------------|-------------|------------------------|---------------|------------------------|
| 1000             | 98.4%       | 9.33 × 10^{-5}         | 3.42 × 10^{-7}| 1.38 × 10^{-2}         |
| 2000             | 97.2%       | 9.21 × 10^{-4}         | 2.69 × 10^{-4}| 5.15 × 10^{-1}         |
| 3000             | 98.7%       | 8.52 × 10^{-5}         | 1.16 × 10^{-6}| 5.09 × 10^{-2}         |
| 4000             | 91.8%       | 2.53 × 10^{-2}         | 6.10 × 10^{-1}| 4.80 × 10^{1}          |
| 5000             | 96.9%       | 1.28 × 10^{-3}         | 1.09 × 10^{-3}| 1.27 × 10^{0}          |
| 6000             | 92.8%       | 6.28 × 10^{-3}         | 1.38 × 10^{-2}| 6.43 × 10^{0}          |
| 7000             | 95.2%       | 2.13 × 10^{-3}         | 1.36 × 10^{-3}| 6.66 × 10^{-4}         |
| 8000             | 91.2%       | 1.45 × 10^{-2}         | 3.77 × 10^{-1}| 5.36 × 10^{1}          |
| 9000             | 94.6%       | 5.17 × 10^{-3}         | 6.56 × 10^{-3}| 3.94 × 10^{0}          |
| 10000            | 91.6%       | 2.72 × 10^{-2}         | 8.06 × 10^{-1}| 8.29 × 10^{1}          |

Table 3: The distribution of relative error on the annulus distribution using $\alpha = 0.1$ and $\epsilon = 0.001$. 
bilistic absolute/relative error on each particle potential sum and proved the correctness of our algorithms formally. However, we do not present a full-fledged derivation of all three translation operators and the analogue to the local expansion due to a technical difficulty. Instead, we propose to use only a monopole approximation \((p = 0)\) in a simpler alternative algorithm. Our experiment demonstrates that the algorithm using the hybrid deterministic/probabilistic approximation heuristic achieves speedup under points lying on an annulus of a sphere (i.e. lower-dimensional manifold). For our future work, we are working on parallelization as done in \([25, 26]\).

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