

# A Regular Fast Multipole Method for Geometric Numerical Integrations of Hamiltonian Systems

P. Chartier · E. Darrigrand · E. Faou

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**Abstract** The Fast Multipole Method (FMM) has been widely developed and studied for the evaluation of Coulomb energy and Coulomb forces. A major problem occurs when the FMM is applied to approximate the Coulomb energy and Coulomb energy gradient within geometric numerical integrations of Hamiltonian systems considered for solving astronomy or molecular-dynamics problems: The FMM approximation involves an approximated potential which is not regular, implying a loss of the preservation of the Hamiltonian of the system. In this paper, we present a regularization of the Fast Multipole Method in order to recover the invariance of energy. Numerical tests are given on a toy problem to confirm the gain of such a regularization of the fast method.

**Keywords** Hamiltonian System · Geometric Numerical Integration · Fast Multipole Method

## 1 Introduction

In applications to molecular dynamics, the evaluation of the potential function involves pairwise interactions (the Coulomb energy) of a large number of particles (typically millions of) and constitutes the bulk of computations. In this context, different strategies have been considered to speed up its evaluation: One of them consists in using the Fast Multipole Method (FMM) as introduced by L. Greengard and V. Rokhlin ([12]). This first version was written to deal with point charges, while in papers [11], [10], [9], [7] and [5], the FMM was extended to and developed for the case of continuous distributions of the charges which corresponds to the charge distributions in molecular dynamics. These improvements led to versions of the FMM referred to as the continuous or gaussian Fast Multipole Method

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(CFMM or GFMM). However, all these versions share the drawback of producing discontinuities which in turn, when used in combination with a symplectic time discretization of the Hamiltonian dynamics, lead to drift in energy. In molecular dynamics however, it is crucial that the numerical method used to compute the solution preserves the symplecticity, the volume form, the Hamiltonian, or a combination of the three (given that for smooth Hamiltonians, symplecticity implies preservation of volume) and for these properties to show up in long-term integration, quite a lot of smoothness is required. Ben Leimkuhler's work on smooth switches between different symplectic integrators points toward the same direction [4,3]. In order to attenuate the effect of discontinuities, one may use a large (sometimes up to twenty) number of multipoles in FMM expansions at the price of a prohibitive increase of the computational cost, despite many efforts to reduce the complexity of the FMM (see Elliot and Board [14], Petersen *et al.* [15], Scuseria *et al.* [5–7], and [8,13]).

In this paper, we propose a regularization technique for the FMM with the aim of recovering the usual benefits of symplectic integration: This new FMM is regular at the interface between boxes and thus provides a **smooth** approximation of the potential. The following section introduces the Fast Multipole Method and emphasizes its major drawbacks. The Regular FMM (referred to as the RFMM in the sequel) is then presented in Subsection 2.2. Finally, an application of the RFMM and numerical comparisons with the classical FMM are given in Section 3 where both methods are applied in combination with the Velocity Verlet scheme.

## 2 Regularization of a Fast Multipole Method

### 2.1 The Fast Multipole Method

We now briefly describe the Fast Multipole Method as derived in [12,13]. We consider a one-level algorithm and describe the regularization technique in a simple case. The extension to improved version of the FMM, see [14,15,8,13], can be performed similarly.

#### 2.1.1 The FMM expansion for a standard kernel

Let  $A$  be the matrix defined by:

$$\forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, N\}, \quad A_{ij} = \frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|}$$

where  $x_1, \dots, x_N$  are  $N$  points of a bounded domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  denotes the Euclidean norm on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . For a given vector  $q = (q_j)_{j=1}^N$ , the computation  $(Aq)_i = \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|} q_j$  for a given  $i$ , involves the *target* point  $x_i$  and the *source* points  $\{x_j\}_j$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a partition of the domain  $D$  into groups containing the points  $x_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, N$ . We denote by  $B$ , (for example:  $B_{src}, B_{trg}$ ) the elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $C$ , (for example:  $C_{src}, C_{trg}$ ) their centers.

To approximate the computation of  $(Aq)_i$ , we split the summation as follows:

$$(Aq)_i = \sum_{B_{src} \text{ close to } B_{trg}} \sum_{x_j \in B_{src}} \frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|} q_j + \sum_{B_{src} \text{ far from } B_{trg}} \sum_{x_j \in B_{src}} \frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|} q_j,$$

where  $B_{trg}$  denotes the group which contains the target point  $x_i$ . In the FMM approximation, the first term is computed exactly, while the second term is approximated thanks to the

multipole expansion and a translation operator which converts multipole expansions to local expansions (for details, see Appendix 4.1 or [12], [13]).

The algorithm for the calculation of the matrix-vector product  $Aq$  can be summarized as follows (see Appendix 4.1 for complete details):

- Step 0: Calculation of some  $q$ -independent quantities:
  - Parts of the translation operator  $\mathcal{T}_{B_{trg} B_{src}}$  that converts a multipole expansion around  $C_{src}$  to a local expansion around  $C_{trg}$ .
  - The far moments  $f_j^{l,k}$  and the local moments  $g_i^{l,k}$  involved in the multipole and local expansions, for each source points  $x_j$  or target points  $x_i$ .
- Step 1: Calculation of the far fields: For all  $B_{src}$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ ,  $F_{B_{src}}^{l,k}$  accumulates the charges  $q_j$  together with the far moments  $f_j^{l,k}$  of the source points contained in  $B_{src}$ .
- Step 2: Calculation of the local fields: For all  $B_{trg}$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ ,  $(G_{B_{trg}}^{l,k})_{l,k}$  is obtained by translations of the far fields  $(F_{B_{src}}^{\lambda,\kappa})_{\lambda,\kappa}$  for all  $B_{src}$  in  $\mathcal{B}$  far from  $B_{trg}$ .
- Step 3: Accumulation of the far interactions: For all  $B_{trg}$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ , for all  $x_i$  in  $B_{trg}$ ,  $(Aq)_i^{far}$  accumulates the local fields  $(G_{B_{trg}}^{l,k})_{l,k}$  together with the local moments  $(g_i^{l,k})_{l,k}$ .
- Step 4: Calculation of the close interactions: For all  $B_{trg}$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ , for all  $x_i$  in  $B_{trg}$ ,  $(Aq)_i^{close}$  accumulates the contribution of the neighbor source points  $x_j$ .
- Step 5: Calculation of matrix-vector product: For all  $B_{trg}$  in  $\mathcal{B}$ , for all  $x_i$  in  $B_{trg}$ ,

$$(Aq)_i \approx (Aq)_i^{close} + (Aq)_i^{far}. \quad (1)$$

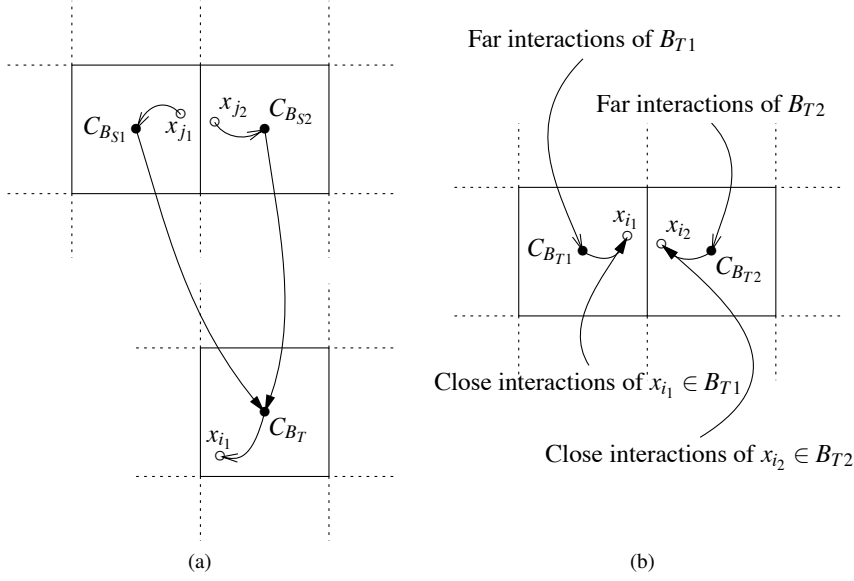
In this algorithm, the interactions  $x_i \leftrightarrow x_j$  are cut into a succession of interactions involving the groups containing  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ . Such an approximation obviously introduces discontinuities in the approximated quantity  $\frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|}$  for both variables  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ , whenever  $x_i$  or  $x_j$  crosses the interface between two groups. Figure 1-a (respectively Figure 1-b) shows the critical situation where two target points (respectively two source points) are very close to each other but are not in a same group.

### 2.1.2 The FMM expansion for the gradient of a standard kernel

When applied to the numerical simulation of Hamiltonian systems involving a multi-body interaction potential, standard numerical schemes require the evaluation of the derivative of functions of the form  $G(x,y) = \frac{1}{\|x-y\|}$ . The FMM approximation of the kernel  $\nabla_x G(x,y)$  is derived from the FMM approximation of the kernel  $G(x,y)$ . Indeed, the only difference lies in the calculation of the local moment which is not  $g_i^{l,k}$  any longer, but the gradient of this quantity defined in the algorithm above. The FMM approximation of the kernel  $\nabla_x G(x,y)$  is then based on the derivation of the quantity  $g_i^{l,k}$  with respect to  $x_i$  which is made straightforward by noticing that the quantity  $g_i^{l,k}$  is polynomial w.r.t  $(x_i - C_{trg})$ . Details are given in Appendix 4.2.

## 2.2 A Regularized Version of the Fast Multipole Method

As explained in Subsection 2.1, we apply a regularization technique to a rather basic one-level Fast Multipole Method. However, it can be easily extended to improved versions as considered in [14], [15], [8], [13]. At the end of this subsection, we discuss the multilevel



**Fig. 1** (generated with Fig4TeX) Exhibition of the discontinuity in the approximation of the interaction between some couples of target and source points. (a) Two source points  $x_{j1}$  and  $x_{j2}$ , close to each other, interact differently with the target point  $x_i$ . (b) Two target points, close to each other, receive differently the information from their environment.

version. Besides, the multi-dimensional regularization is obtained by considering a 1D regularization on each component of the multi-dimensional variable.

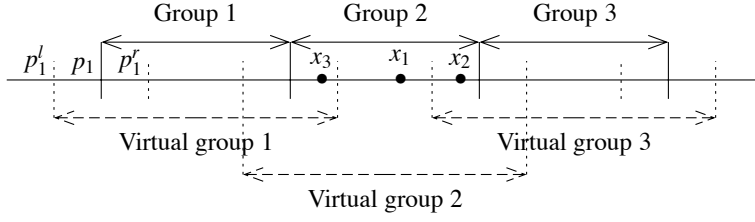
In this subsection, we mainly focus on the 1D regularization of the FMM approximation of the kernel  $G(x, y)$ . The regularized FMM approximation of its derivatives is obtained considering the derivatives of the regularized FMM approximation of the kernel.

### 2.2.1 A 1D regularization

As pointed out in Subsection 2.1, the FMM introduces a discontinuity related to the distribution of the domain points into groups. Such discontinuities appear at the interface between two groups. In this paper, we perform the regularization with the simple following idea: when a point of a group is close to another group, we view it as a shared point and its contribution to each group is calculated according to its location. This leads to a new distribution of the points. We call groups associated to this distribution “virtual groups”.

In 1D, the groups in  $\mathcal{B}$  are disjoint intervals. Let  $[p_i, p_{i+1}]$ ,  $i \in \mathbb{Z}$  define the  $i$ -th *geometric* group belonging to  $\mathcal{B}$ . For all  $i$ , let  $p_i^l$  and  $p_i^r$  be two points around  $p_i$ . We define the  $i$ -th *virtual* group as the interval  $[p_i^l, p_{i+1}^r]$ . Now for a given point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , we associate virtual groups and weights depending on the position of  $x$  with respect to these virtual groups. For example in Figure 2, the point  $x_1$  belongs to group 2 and its weight is 1 and in this case, the relation (1) remains unchanged. Point  $x_2$  belongs to groups 2 and 3, with weights respectively equal to  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  such that:

- \*  $c_2 + c_3 = 1$  ; obviously,  $c_2 > c_3$ .
- \*  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  are given by a regularizing function  $\chi : [p_3^l, p_3^r] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ ,



**Fig. 2** (generated with *Fig4TeX*) The virtual groups for a regularized FMM: when the geometric groups are next to each other, the virtual groups overlap like in the partition of unity technique.

$c_2 = (1 - \chi(x_2))$ ,  $c_3 = \chi(x_2)$  such that (1) becomes

$$(Aq)_{x_2} \approx (1 - \chi(x_2)) [(Aq)_{x_2 \in \text{group 2}}^{\text{close}} + (Aq)_{x_2 \in \text{group 2}}^{\text{far}}] \\ + \chi(x_2) [(Aq)_{x_2 \in \text{group 3}}^{\text{close}} + (Aq)_{x_2 \in \text{group 3}}^{\text{far}}]$$

Point  $x_3$  belongs to groups 1 and 2, with weights respectively equal to  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  such that:

- ★  $c_1 + c_2 = 1$ ; obviously,  $c_1 < c_2$ .
- ★  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are given by a regularizing function  $\chi : [p_2^l, p_2^r] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ ,  
 $c_1 = (1 - \chi(x_3))$ ,  $c_2 = \chi(x_3)$  such that (1) becomes

$$(Aq)_{x_3} \approx (1 - \chi(x_3)) [(Aq)_{x_3 \in \text{group 1}}^{\text{close}} + (Aq)_{x_3 \in \text{group 1}}^{\text{far}}] \\ + \chi(x_3) [(Aq)_{x_3 \in \text{group 2}}^{\text{close}} + (Aq)_{x_3 \in \text{group 2}}^{\text{far}}]$$

As discussed in the introduction, the aim is to get a  $C^\infty$  FMM approximation. The regularizing function  $\chi$  should be chosen such that  $\chi$  equals to 0 at the left extremity of the segment  $[p_1^l, p_1^r]$ , equals to 1 at the other extremity and such that all its derivatives vanish at both left and right extremities. Without any loss of generality, we can focus on the segment  $[0, 1]$ . A simple linear change of variable gives the function on any segment  $[p_1^l, p_1^r]$ .

Of course, many choices exist for the regularizing function  $\chi$ . In the following, we use the function defined on  $[0, 1]$  by the formula

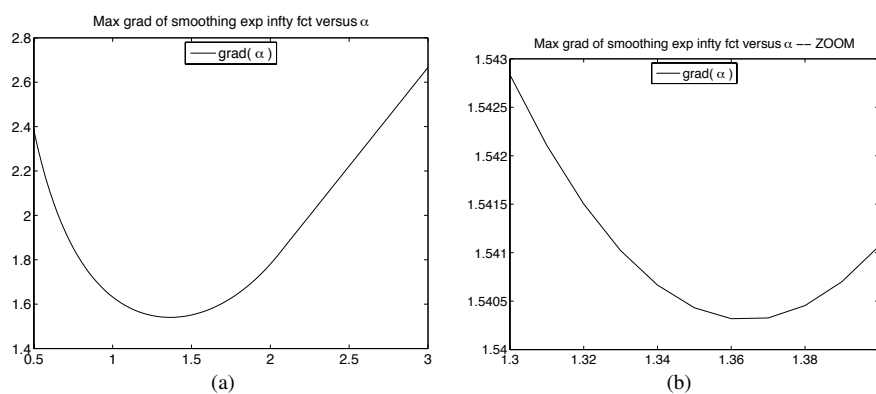
$$\chi(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha[1/(1-x^2) - 1/(1-(x-1)^2)]}} \quad (2)$$

The coefficient  $\alpha$  influences the maximum gradient, which has to be taken minimal to avoid possible instabilities in the numerical schemes (presence of high eigenvalues).

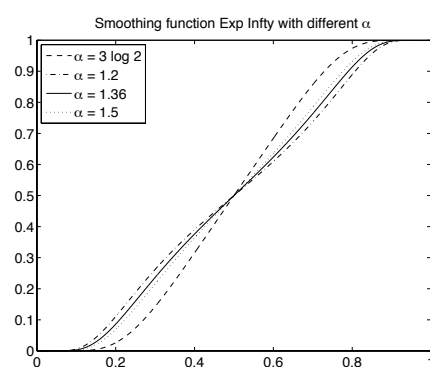
Figure 3 gives the maximum gradient of the function versus the value of  $\alpha$ . In this way, we obtain a good guess of  $\alpha$  minimizing the maximum gradient of  $\chi$ . In Subsection 3.2, we take  $\alpha = 1.37$ . Figure 4 shows the regularizing function for some values of  $\alpha$  while Figure 5 shows the gradient and the second derivative for the same values of  $\alpha$ .

### 2.2.2 Algorithmic consequences

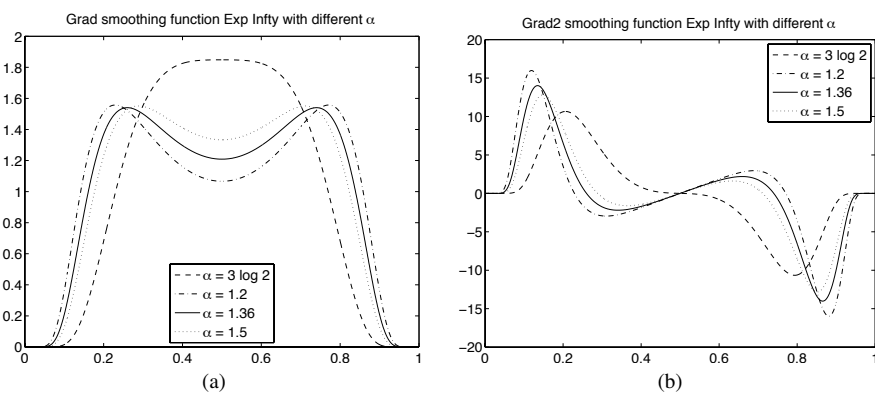
The major consequence of the regularization is an enlargement of the FMM groups. It is clear that the regularization is improved when virtual groups are large in comparison with geometric groups (if  $p_i^l$  and  $p_i^r$  are too close to  $p_i$ , the regularization will be very close to a jump). However, one should keep in mind that the overlapping of groups may lead to



**Fig. 3** (a) The maximum gradient of the regularizing function versus  $\alpha$ . (b) Zoom around the optimal value of  $\alpha$ .



**Fig. 4** Plot of the regularizing functions for some values of  $\alpha$  ( $3 \log 2$ , 1.2, 1.36, 1.5).



**Fig. 5** (a) Plot of the first derivative of regularizing functions for  $\alpha = 3 \log 2$ , 1.2, 1.36, 1.5. (b) Plot of the second derivative of regularizing functions for  $\alpha = 3 \log 2$ , 1.2, 1.36, 1.5.

divergence of the multipole and local expansions (7) and (9). In order to avoid this to happen, we may have to consider a wider definition of the neighboring groups according to the size of the overlap. Indeed, in classical applications of FMM, two boxes  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are said to be “close to each other” whenever they have at least one common vertex: We say that they are neighbors of order 1 and write  $B_1 \overset{1}{\sim} B_2$ . Here, we also may have to consider  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  neighbors of order 2: We write  $B_1 \overset{2}{\sim} B_2$  if there is at least one box  $B_3$  such that  $B_1 \overset{1}{\sim} B_3$  and  $B_3 \overset{1}{\sim} B_2$ . The order of a neighborhood can be numerically characterized using the infinity norm when the groups are cubes from a usual FMM oc-tree.

The regularization can be performed for both the first and the second variables of the kernel  $\frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|}$ . However, in usual situations, one is interested in the regularization for the target variable only. When the regularization occurs on the source point, the contribution coefficient applies in the calculation of the far fields (17) in the FMM algorithm and only the source points are distributed in overlapping groups. When the regularization occurs at target point, the contribution coefficient is involved in the last step (1) and only the target points are distributed in overlapping groups. Here, we are interested in a regularization for target points only.

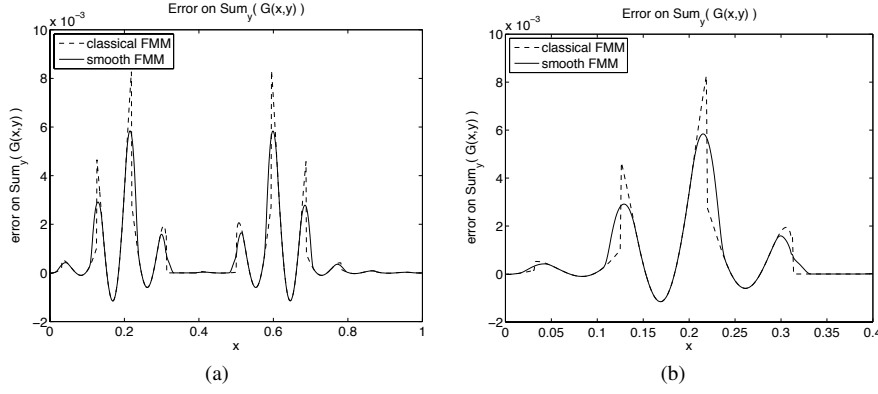
An increase of the FMM computational cost is expected due solely to the fact that some target points belong to two groups: it stems from the last step of the computation of far interactions (Step 3, relation (19)) and from the computation of close interactions (Step 4, relation (20)). The costs of steps 3 and 4 is indeed multiplied by the ratio between the average number of points in the virtual groups and the average number of points in the geometric groups; nevertheless, the complexity of these steps remains the same and the complexity of the whole algorithm unchanged.

### 2.2.3 Error estimates and 1D illustration

The FMM approximation induces an error in the evaluation of the potential function (see Eqn. (8) and (12) below). For the RFMM method, such estimates are still valid. Moreover, thanks to the regularity of the approximated potential, error estimates might still hold true in stronger norms. In this introductory paper, we deliberately leave these questions aside and rather illustrate *numerically* the improvement gained from the RFMM: As an example, we consider here a set of 800 points  $x_1, \dots, x_{800}$ , uniformly distributed on the 1D domain  $[0, 1]$ . For this illustration, we compute a vector  $S$  defined by: for  $i = 1, \dots, 800$ ,  $S_i = \sum_{j=250}^{400} G(x_i, x_j)$  with  $G(x_i, x_j) = \frac{1}{\|x_i - x_j\|}$  if  $i \neq j$  and 0 otherwise. The quantity  $S$  can be defined as a classical matrix-vector product commonly computed with the FMM. Here, we computed  $S$  in three different ways: exact calculation, using a classical FMM and using a regularized FMM. Figure 6 gives plots of the error obtained when using either the classical FMM or the regularized FMM. The figure clearly shows the effect of the regularization at the interfaces between the groups, where the classical FMM has evident discontinuities.

### 2.2.4 Extension to multilevel algorithms

In the one-level FMM, the regularization is only involved in the accumulation of far interactions from local fields. In the multilevel method though, steps 2 and 3, which compute local fields from far fields and accumulate far interactions from local fields are performed as follows:



**Fig. 6** (a) Plot of the error obtained using either the classical FMM (dashed line) or the regularized FMM (continuous line). (b) Zoom.

- Step 2: Calculation of the local fields at the coarser level: translation between all couples of groups.
- Step 2-bis: Calculation of the local fields at all the levels: translation between all couples of groups which are not neighbor but satisfying the condition that their parents are close to each other + translation of the information accumulated at the previous level (to a group from its parent).
- Step 3: Accumulation of the far interactions at the finest level only, taking into account the fact that all local fields at all levels have been accumulated at the finest level through Steps 2 and 2-bis.

Note that close interactions are taken into account only at the finest level. It is then clear that the same regularization can be applied to the multilevel algorithm involving the regularization in Step 3 and the calculation of the close interactions. The influence on the algorithmic complexity is similar to the one-level FMM situation.

### 3 Velocity Verlet Scheme and Regular Fast Multipole Method

In this Section, we apply the Verlet's method to a somehow "academic" model of the Outer Solar System as defined in [2]. Generally speaking and for a separable Hamiltonian system of the form

$$\begin{cases} \dot{q} = M^{-1}p \in \mathbb{R}^{3N} \\ \dot{p} = -\nabla U(q) \in \mathbb{R}^{3N} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where  $M = \text{diag}(m_1 I_{\mathbb{R}^3}, \dots, m_N I_{\mathbb{R}^3})$  and with Hamiltonian  $H(p, q) = T(p) + U(q)$ ,  $T(p) = \frac{1}{2}p^T M^{-1}p$  being the kinetic energy and  $U(q)$  the potential function, the Verlet's method reads (see for instance [2])

$$\begin{cases} q_{n+\frac{1}{2}} = q_n + \frac{h}{2}v_n \\ v_{n+1} = v_n - h\nabla U(q_{n+\frac{1}{2}}) \\ q_{n+1} = q_{n+\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{h}{2}v_{n+1} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where  $q_n$  and  $v_n$  denote approximations of  $q(nh)$  and  $v(nh)$  with  $v = \dot{q} = M^{-1}p$ . It is explicit, symplectic and symmetric, and preserves a modified energy for exponentially long time when the potential  $U$  is smooth.



**Table 1** Data for the Outer Solar System

planet/Sun	mass	initial position	initial velocity
Sun	$m_0 = 1.00000597682$	(0, 0, 0)	(0, 0, 0)
Jupiter	$m_1 = 0.000954786104043$	-3.5023653 -3.8169847 -1.5507963	0.00565429 -0.00412490 -0.00190589
Saturn	$m_2 = 0.000285583733151$	9.0755314 -3.0458353 -1.6483708	0.00168318 0.00483525 0.00192462
Uranus	$m_3 = 0.0000437273164546$	8.3101420 -16.2901086 -7.2521278	0.00354178 0.00137102 0.00055029
Neptune	$m_4 = 0.0000517759138449$	11.4707666 -25.7294829 -10.8169456	0.00288930 0.00114527 0.00039677
Pluto	$m_5 = \frac{1}{1.3 \cdot 10^8}$	-15.5387357 -25.2225594 -3.1902382	0.00276725 -0.00170702 -0.00136504

When the scheme is applied in astronomy or molecular dynamics, the bulk of computations lies in the evaluation of  $\nabla U$  for successive steps (order  $N^2$ ). It is thus natural to consider its FMM approximation.

### 3.1 The RFMM for the Outer Solar System

The Outer Solar System (as defined in [2]) is the Solar system where the Sun is aggregated with the four closest planets (Mercure, Venus, Earth, Mars) and is modeled by Hamiltonian equations with

$$T(p) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^5 \frac{1}{m_i} p_i^T p_i \text{ and } U(q) = -\gamma \sum_{i=1}^5 \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \frac{m_i m_j}{\|q_i - q_j\|}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the gravitational constant. Denoting  $G(x, y) = \frac{1}{\|x-y\|}$ , the  $k$ -th component of the  $(\mathbb{R}^3)^N$ -vector  $\nabla U(q)$  is given by the formula

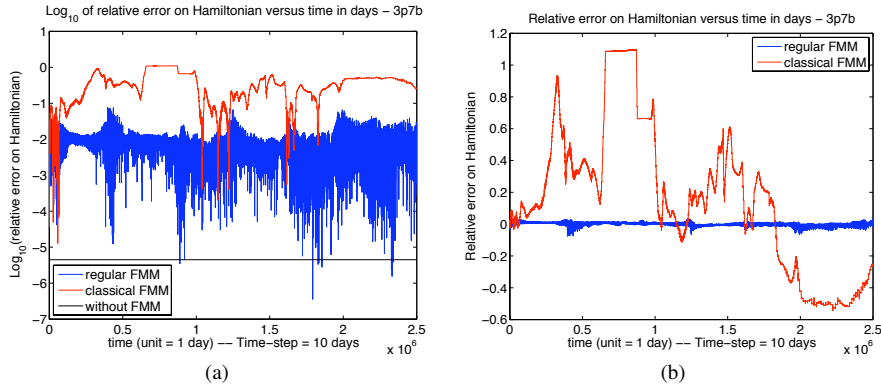
$$\nabla_k U(q) = -\gamma \sum_{j \neq k} m_k m_j \nabla_x G(q_k, q_j) = -\gamma \sum_j \mathcal{M}_{k,j} \quad (6)$$

with  $\mathcal{M}_{k,j} = m_k m_j \nabla_x G(q_k, q_j)$  for  $k \neq j$  and  $\mathcal{M}_{j,j} = 0$ . This corresponds to a matrix-vector product commonly computed with the FMM.

### 3.2 Numerical results

The initial values are taken from [2] and listed in Table 1 ( $m_0$  includes the mass of inner planets). Distances are expressed in astronomical units = UA (1 UA = 149,597,870 km), times in days, and  $\gamma = 2.95912208286 \cdot 10^{-4}$ .

Function (2) is implemented with the value  $\alpha = 1.37$  suggested by Figure 3. The time-step is chosen equal to 10 days. The size of the boxes should take into account the length



**Fig. 7** Plot of the relative error on the Hamiltonian of the system,  $L = 3$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_L = 7$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_o = 1$ ,  $R_{reg} = 0.25$ : (a)  $\log_{10}$ (relative error); (b) relative error.

of the trajectories and the displacement for one time-step. In this example, one can find that Uranus (resp. Jupiter) requires about 30,700 days (resp. 4,300) to describe one loop around the Sun. With a time-step equal to 10 days, the trajectory around the Sun will be described with about 3,070 locations (resp. 430) on a curve of length about 118 UA (resp. 32) which define a characteristic time-step length equal to 0.04 UA (resp. 0.07). Such reports give enough information to derive the choice of the FMM boxes.

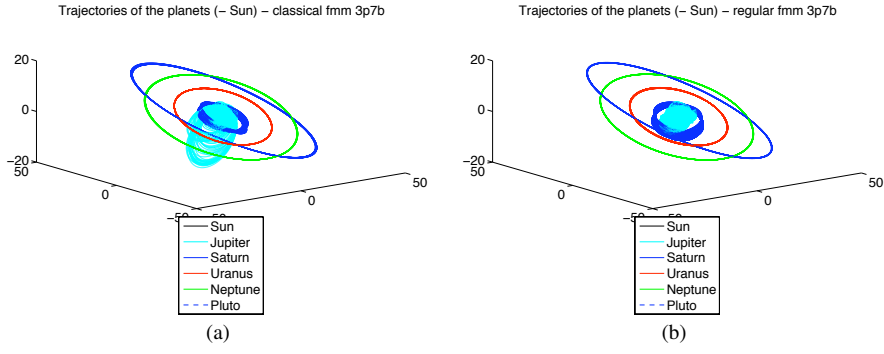
In the sequel, we present experiments for several values of the following parameters:

- \*  $L$ : number of multipoles, truncature parameter in formulae (18) and (19). As is well known, the FMM expansion behaves like a geometric series with respect to  $L$ . A typical value for  $L$  is around 6, whereas a value around 15 or even 20 gives a very accurate approximation.
- \*  $\mathcal{N}_o$ : order of neighborhood that defines the close and far interactions in the FMM oc-tree.
- \*  $\mathcal{N}_L$ : number of levels of the oc-tree. We found in this experiment that a good tradeoff is  $\mathcal{N}_L = 7$ .
- \*  $h_t$ : time-step size.
- \*  $R_{reg}$ : ratio of the regularization zone on each side of a geometric group to the length of the geometric group. Example: For the 1D group  $[0, 1]$ , when  $R_{reg} = 0.25$ , the virtual corresponding group is  $[-0.25, 1.25]$  and the regularization function operates on  $[-0.25, 0.25]$  and  $[-0.75, 1.25]$ .

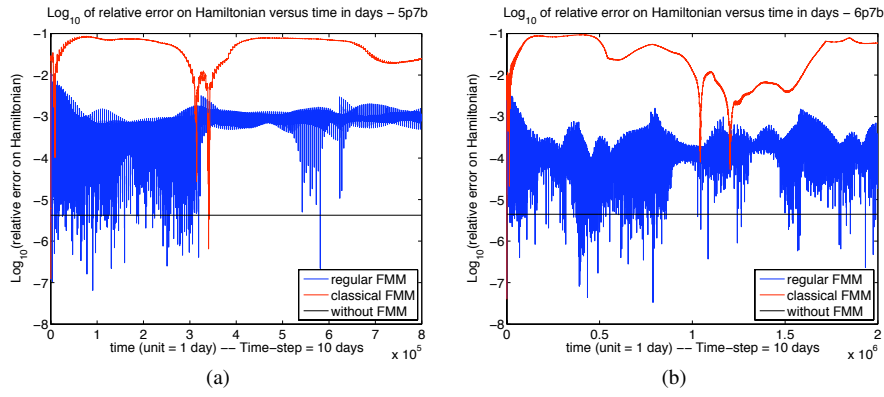
Figure 7-a shows the relative error (in log-scale) on the Hamiltonian versus time, for  $L = 3$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_L = 7$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_o = 1$ ,  $R_{reg} = 0.25$  and illustrates the impressive improvement brought by the regularization technique.

Figure 8 also shows a significant qualitative improvement, as far as trajectories are concerned. However, as is expected from a low-accuracy approximation of the potential, they are still quantitatively wrong.

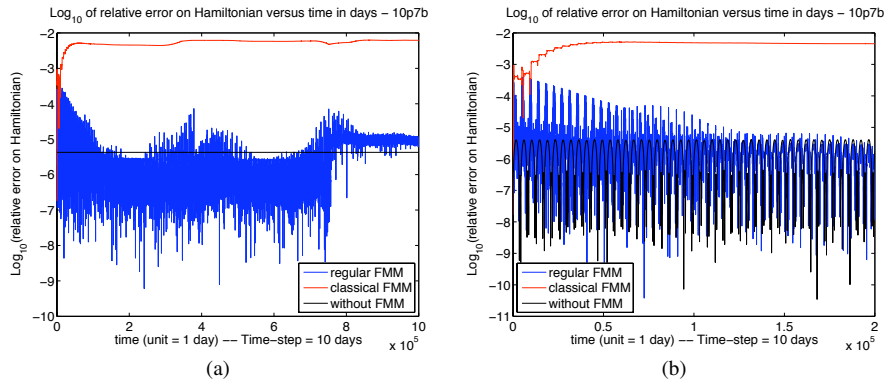
Figures 9 and 10 show that when  $L$  is increased, no gain in the qualitative behavior of the FMM is noticed. In contrast, the regularization technique enables energy preservation. For  $L = 10$ , the RFMM leads to accuracy comparable with what is obtained with the exact potential.



**Fig. 8** Trajectories of the planets around the Sun,  $L = 3$ , using: (a) a classical FMM, (b) the regular FMM.



**Fig. 9** Plot  $\log_{10}$  of relative error on the Hamiltonian of the system, with: (a)  $L = 5$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_L = 7$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_o = 1$ ,  $R_{reg} = 0.25$ ; (b)  $L = 6$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_L = 7$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_o = 1$ ,  $R_{reg} = 0.25$ .



**Fig. 10** (a) Plot  $\log_{10}$  of relative error on the Hamiltonian of the system,  $L = 10$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_L = 7$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_o = 1$ ,  $R_{reg} = 0.25$ ; (b) Zoom.