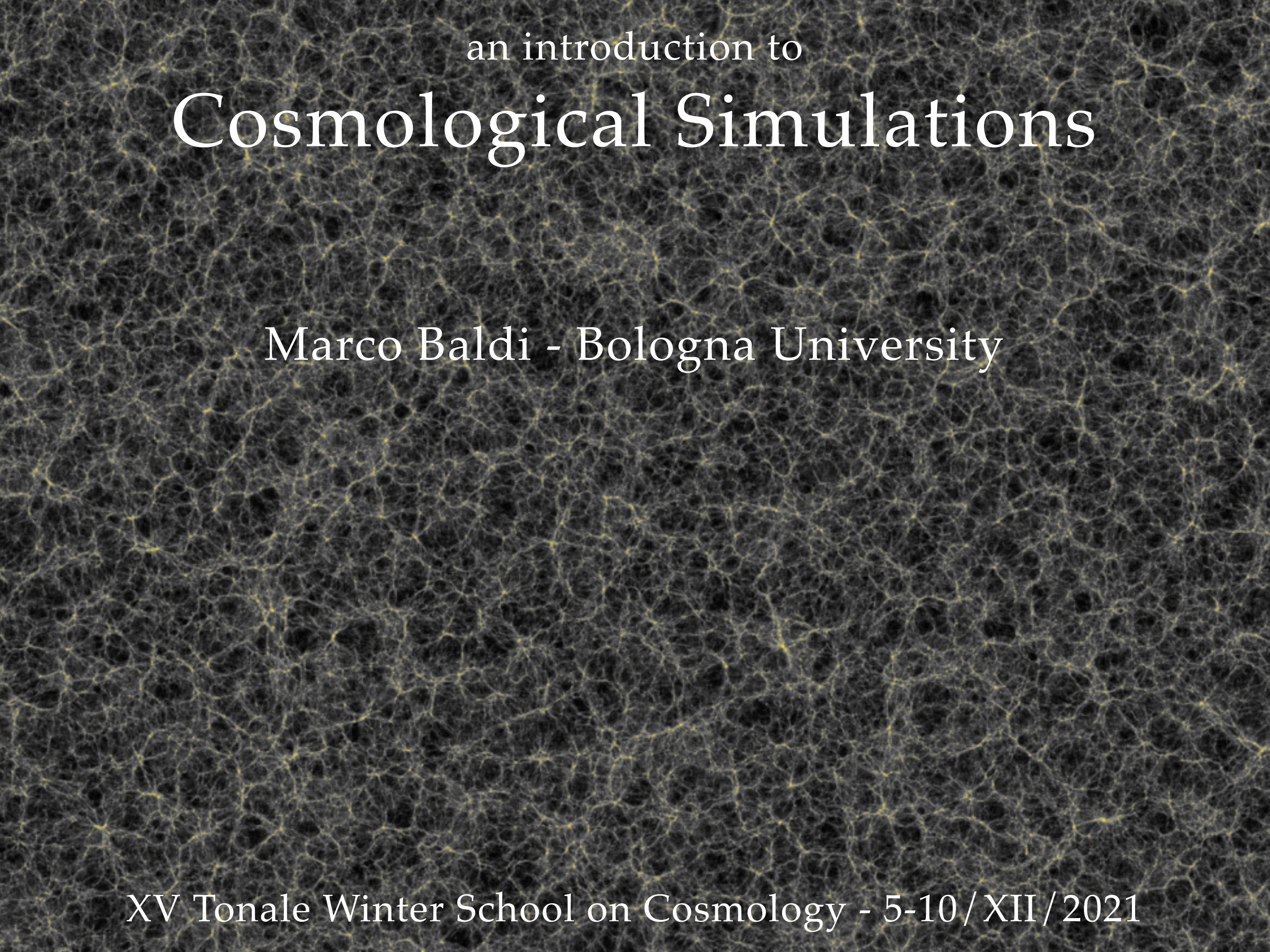


# Cosmological Simulations

Marco Baldi - Bologna University

XIV Tonale Winter School on Cosmology - 5-10/XII/2021



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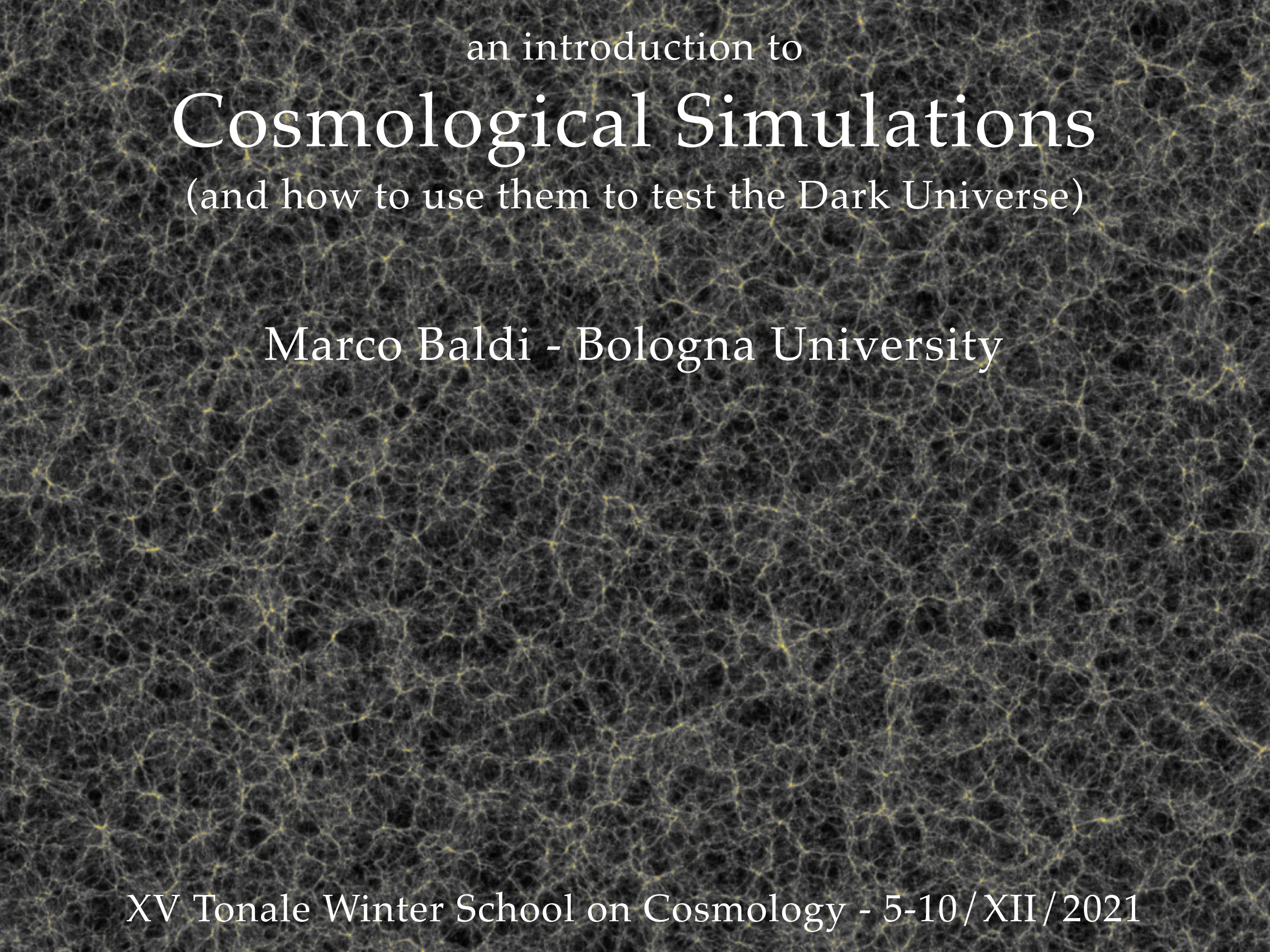
an introduction to

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# Cosmological Simulations

(and how to use them to test the Dark Universe)

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**Two main types of characters in the numerical cosmology business**



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- Very good at programming.
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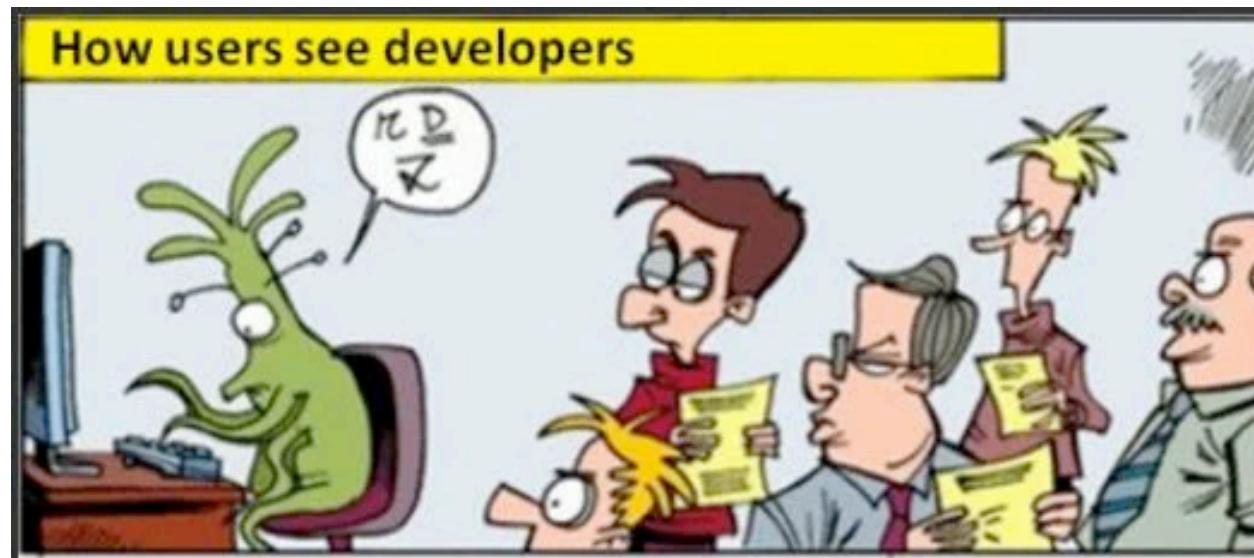
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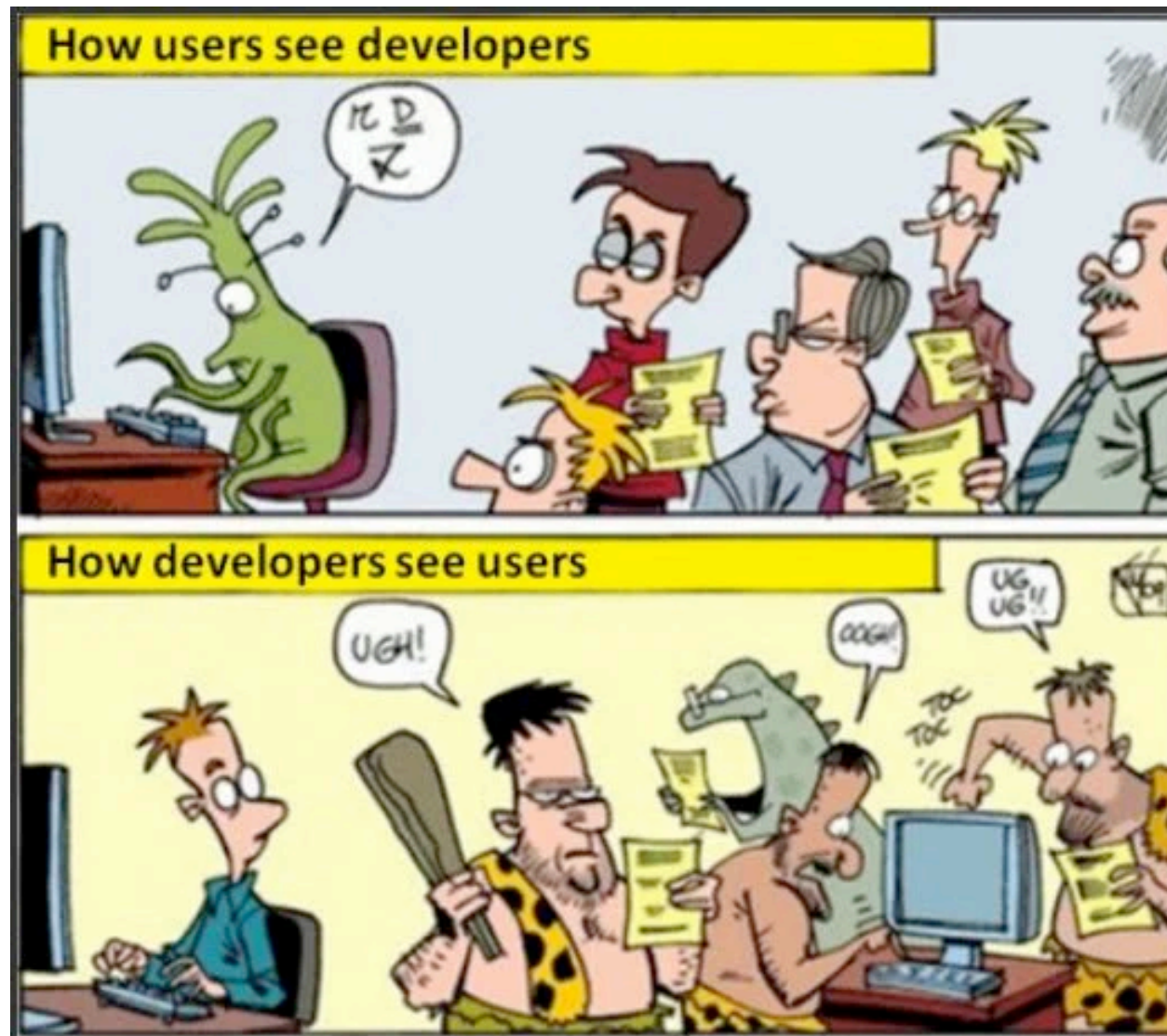
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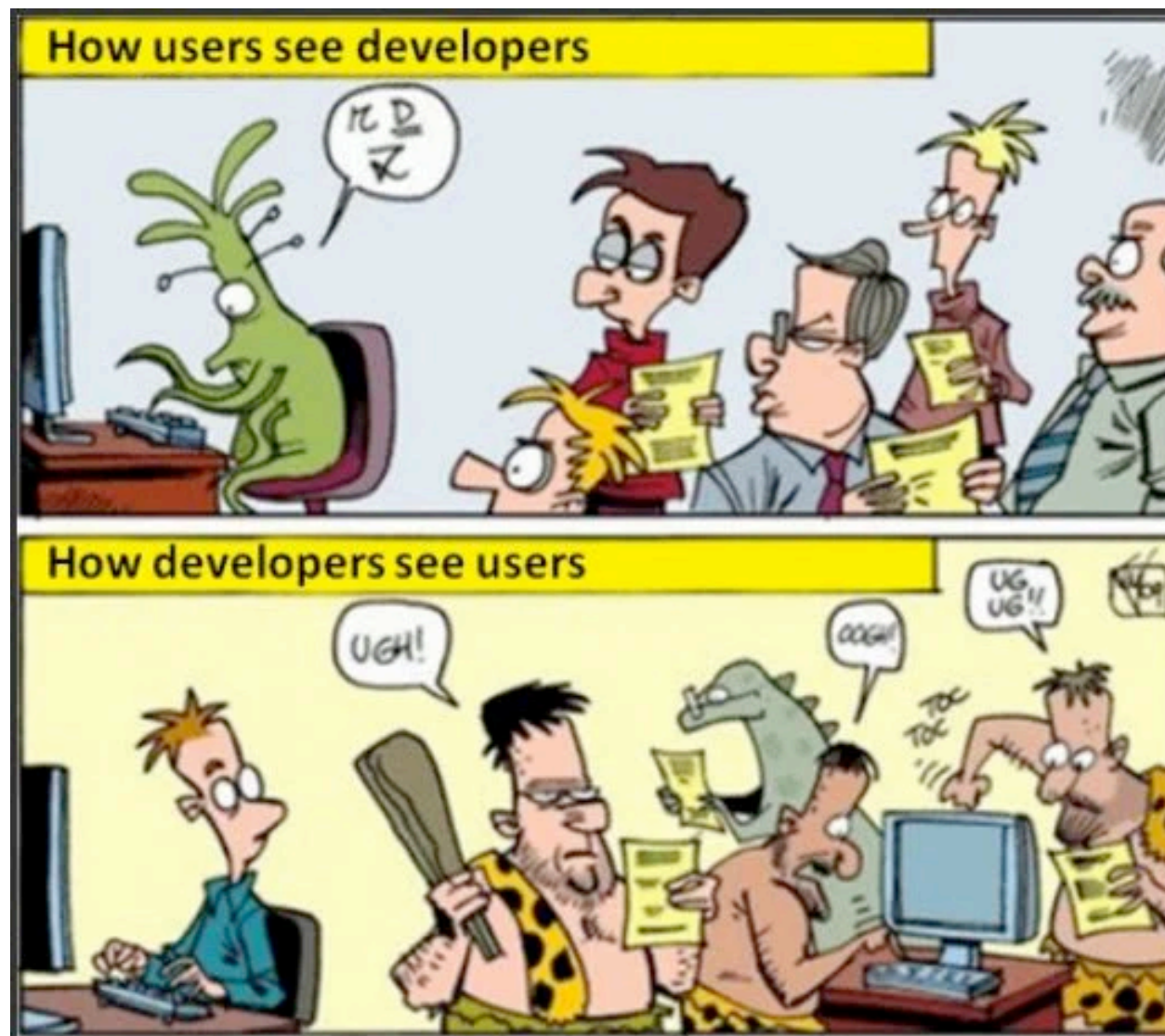
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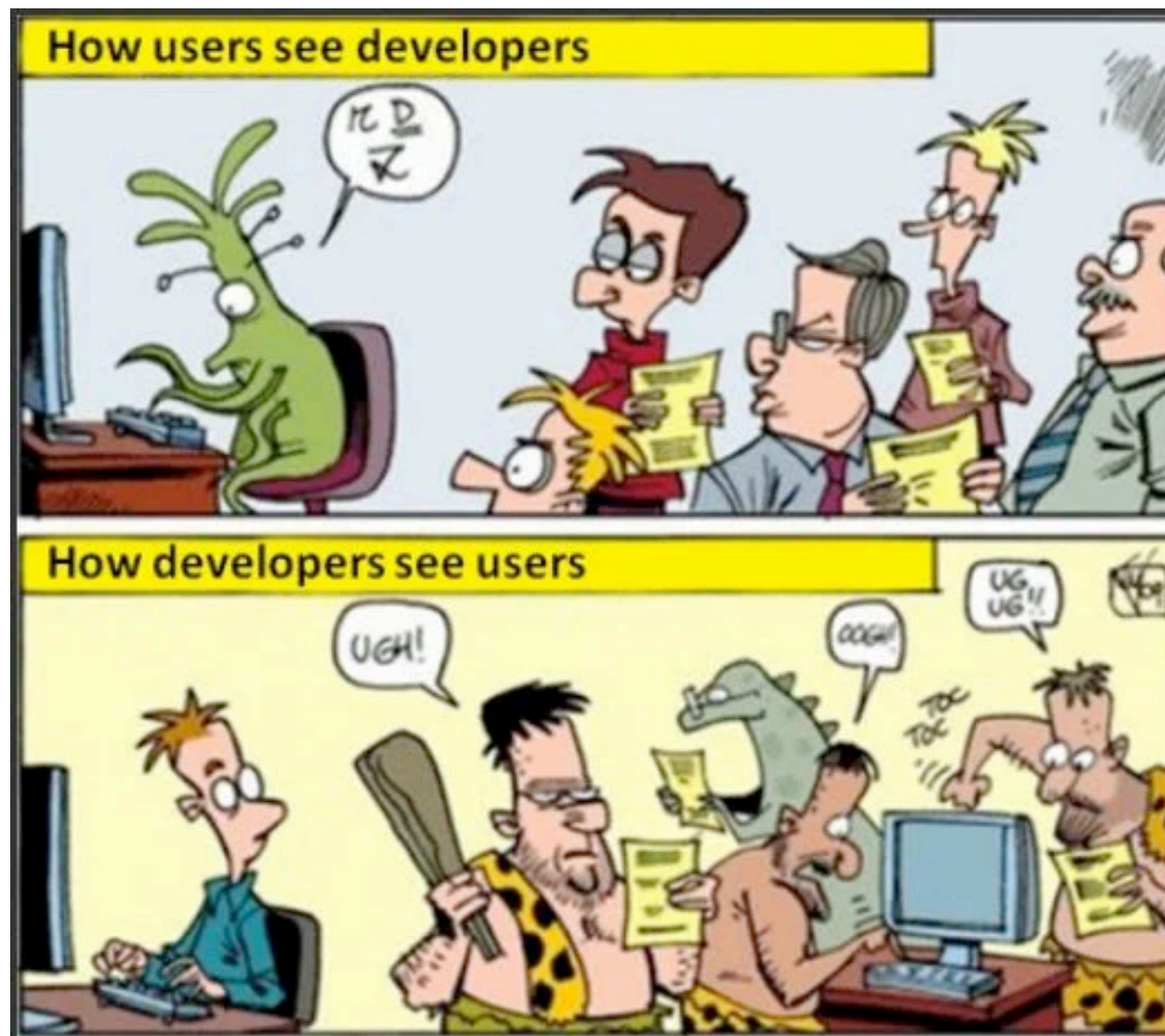
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# Outline

## Cosmological Simulations: What, Why, and How?

- What are Cosmological Simulations?
- Motivations and applications of creating synthetic universes
- The 3 main steps of cosmological simulations
- The (cosmological) N-body problem: gravitational dynamics of a collisionless system in an expanding space
- Before starting: initial conditions for cosmological simulations
- Solving gravity for a system of N particles: the PM method
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- Solving gravity for a system of N particles: the Multigrid method
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## Cosmological Simulations: What else?

- Beyond LCDM cosmologies: motivations and classification
- Modifying N-body algorithms to include additional physics
- Dark Energy implementations
- Modified Gravity implementations: the example of  $f(R)$
- Dark Matter models: massive neutrinos et al.



# References

## Cosmological Simulations: What, Why, and How?

- *V. Springel, High-Performance Computing and numerical modelling, (2014) arXiv:1412.5187*
- *Kuhlen et al., Numerical Simulations of the Dark Universe: state of the art and next decade (2012) Phys.Dark.Univ.*

## Cosmological Simulations: What else?

- *M. Baldi, Dark Energy Simulations (2012), Phys.Dark.Univ.*
- *C. Llinares (2020), Simulations Techniques for Modified Gravity (2018), Int.J.Mod.Phys.D*



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... otherwise you fall into one of Borges Paradoxes (J. L. Borges, “On the exactitude of Science”, 1946, inspired by Lewis Carroll’s *Sylvie and Bruno*, 1895)

# What are Cosmological Simulations?

*“... in that Empire, the Cartographer’s art achieved such a degree of perfection that the Map of a single Province occupied an entire City, and the Map of the Empire, an entire Province. In time, these vast Maps were no longer sufficient. The Guild of Cartographers created a Map of the Empire, which perfectly coincided with the Empire itself. But Succeeding Generations, with diminished interest in the Study of Cartography, believed that this immense Map was of no use, and not Impiously, they abandoned it to the Inclemency of the Sun and of numerous Winters. In the Deserts of the West ruined Fragments of the Map survive, inhabited by Animals and Beggars; in all the Country there is no other Relic of the Geographical Disciplines.”*

*(from Viajes de Varones Prudentes, Suárez Miranda, book IV, chap. XIV, Lérida, 1658. Quoted by Jorge Luis Borges, Historia universal de la infamia “Etcetera,” Buenos Aires, 1935).*



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"What a useful thing a pocket-map is!" I remarked.

"That's another thing we've learned from your Nation," said Mein Herr, "map-making. But we've carried it much further than you. What do you consider the largest map that would be really useful?"

"About six inches to the mile."

"Only six inches!" exclaimed Mein Herr. "We very soon got to six yards to the mile. Then we tried a hundred yards to the mile. And then came the grandest idea of all ! We actually made a map of the country, on the scale of a mile to the mile!"

"Have you used it much?" I enquired.

"It has never been spread out, yet," said Mein Herr: "the farmers objected: they said it would cover the whole country, and shut out the sunlight ! So we now use the country itself, as its own map, and I assure you it does nearly as well."

from [Lewis Carroll, Sylvie and Bruno Concluded](#), Chapter XI, London, 1895



# Why doing Cosmological Simulations?

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6. More motivations at the end...

# How do Cosmological Simulations work?



# Setting up the stage

**Cosmological** Simulation —> an artificial replica of the **cosmos** aimed at studying its real properties and evolution.

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Not an easy task as the Universe is:

- Very **LARGE** —> a fair (i.e. un-biased) replica should encompass a representative portion of the universe, which will contain a large number of degrees of freedom (i.e. the system is very **COMPLEX**)

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- Very **OLD** —> replica should be evolved for a long time, i.e. approximations and numerical errors may propagate and accumulate (need for a way to control the accuracy of the simulation)

However, we can rely on some simplifying (yet reasonable) statements...

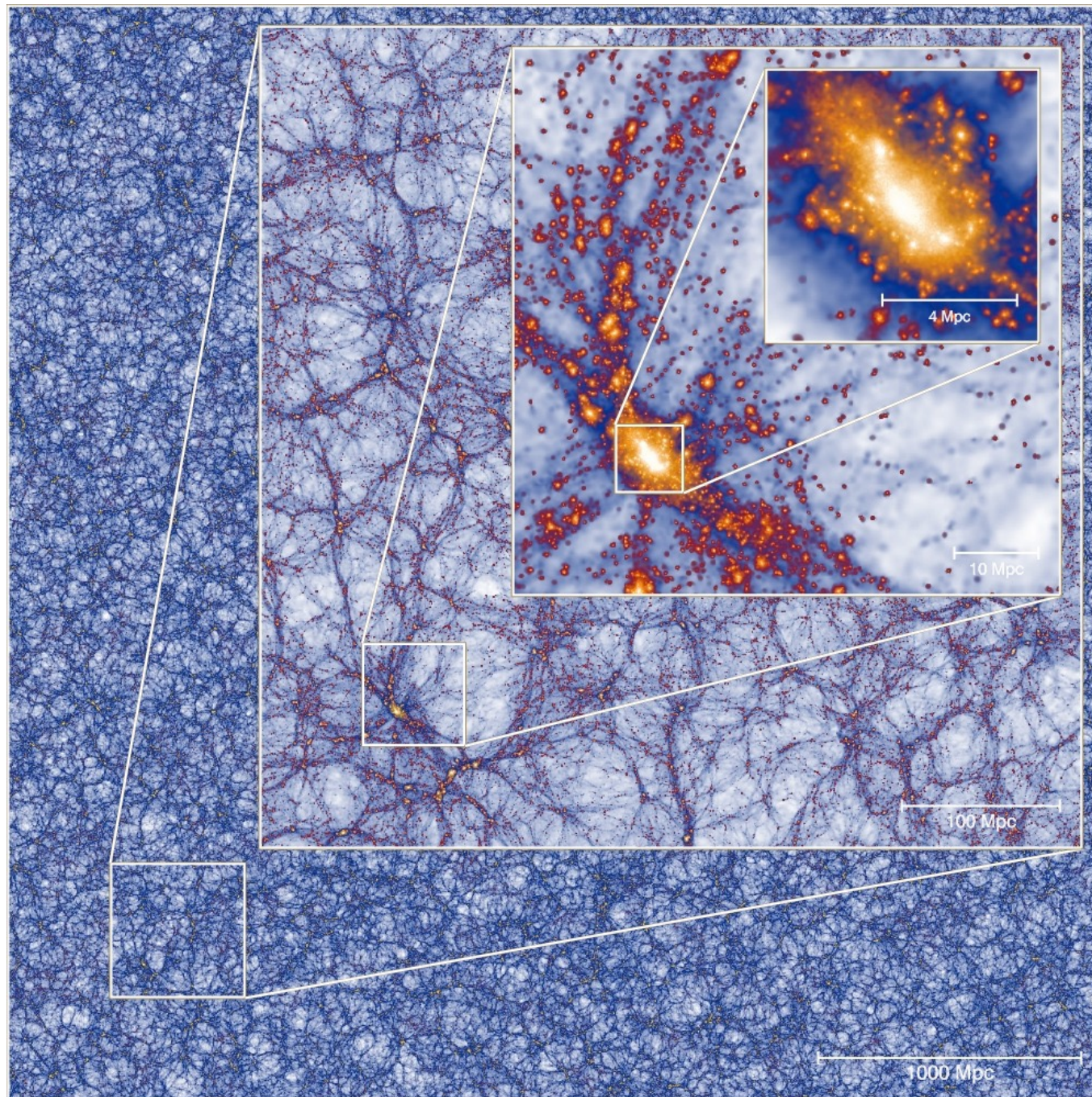


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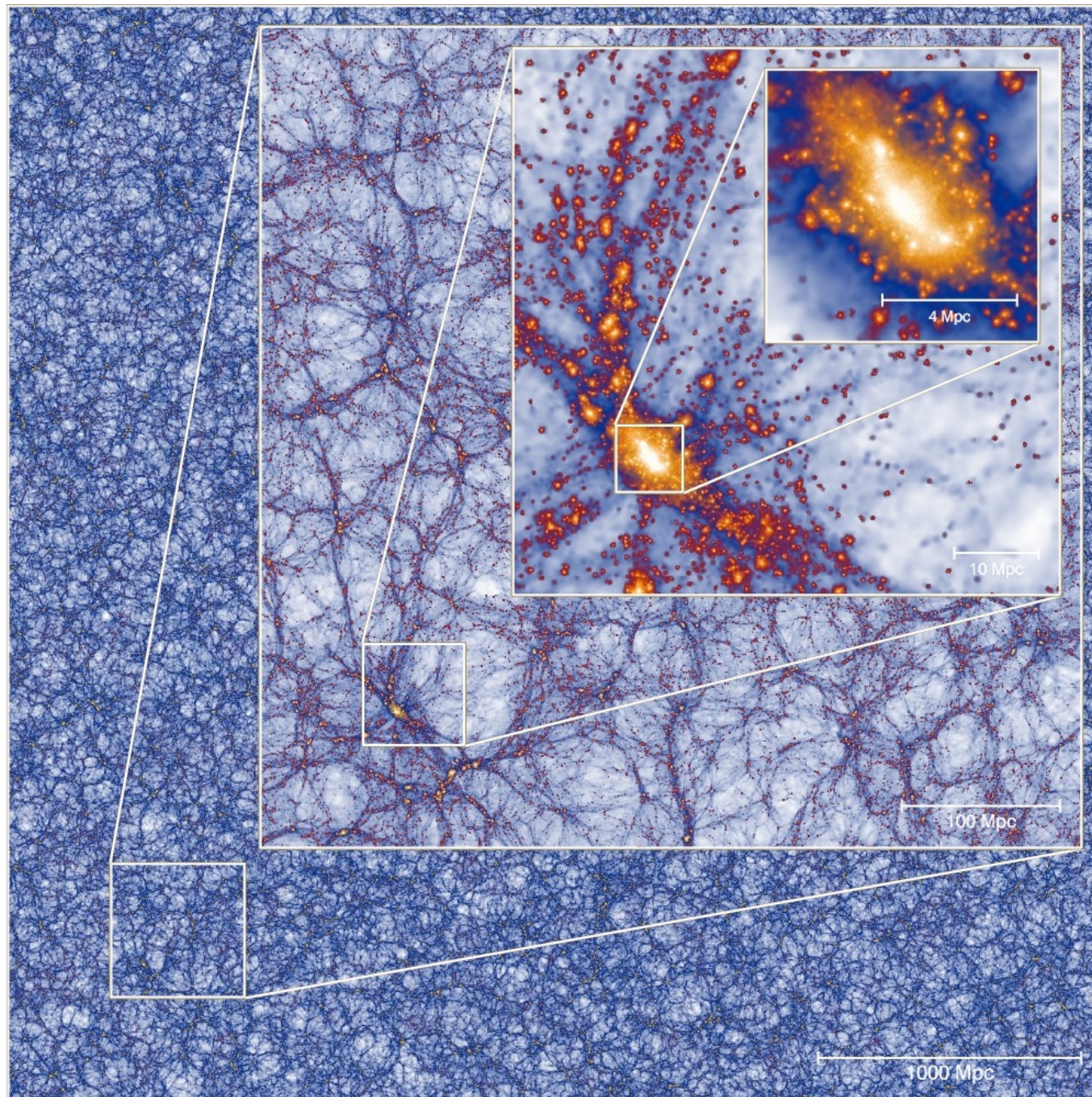


Millennium XXL, Angulo et al. 2009



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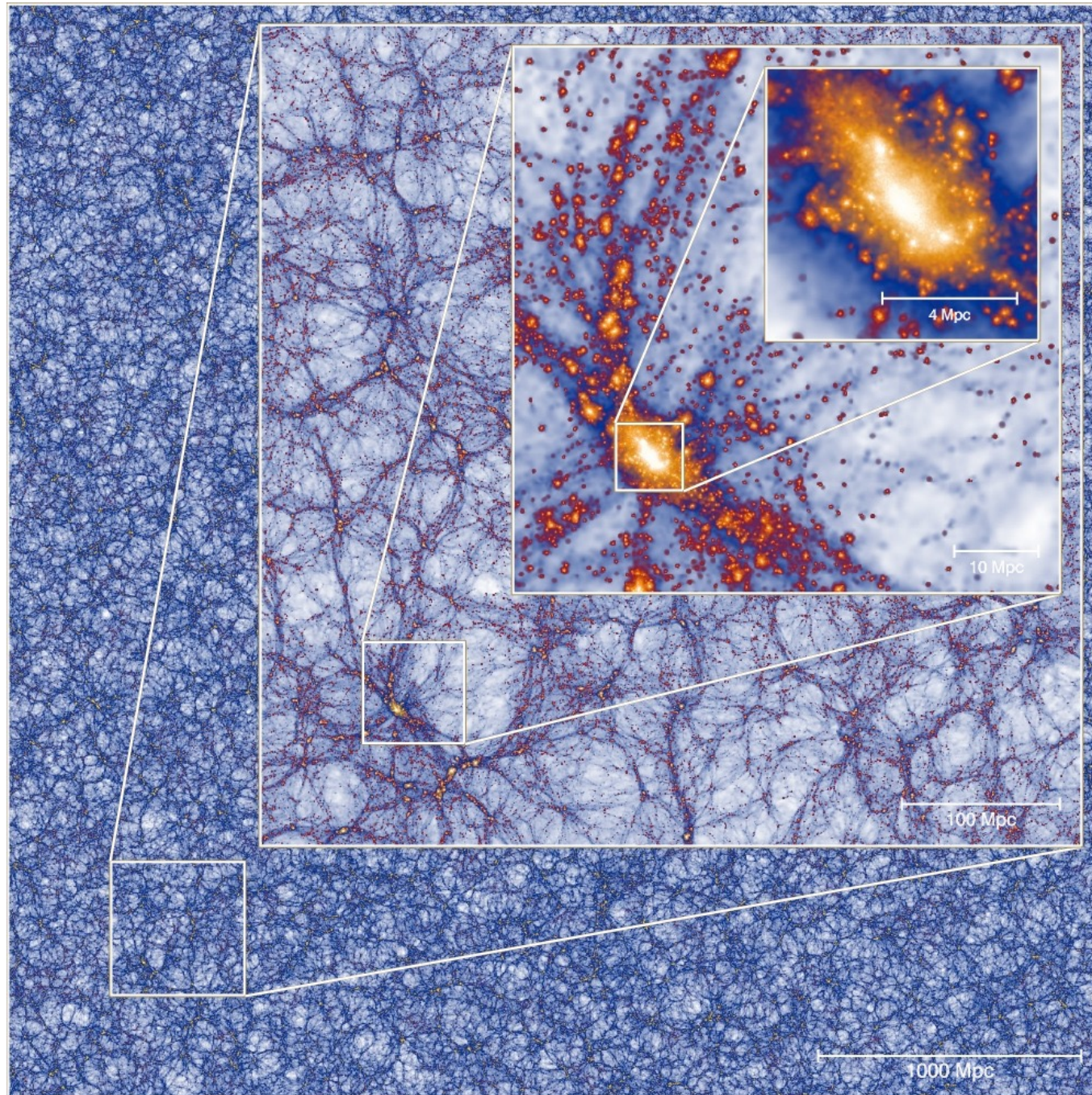
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Gravity is a long-range non-screenable force... we will have to solve a global problem (where every part of the system interacts with any other part)

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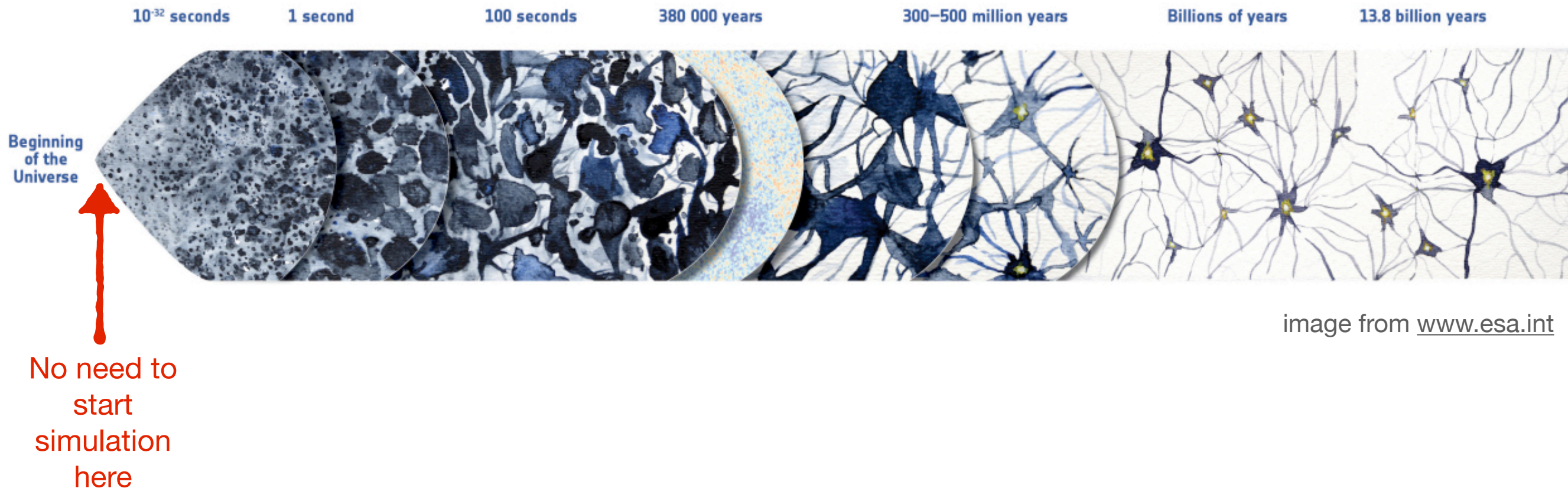


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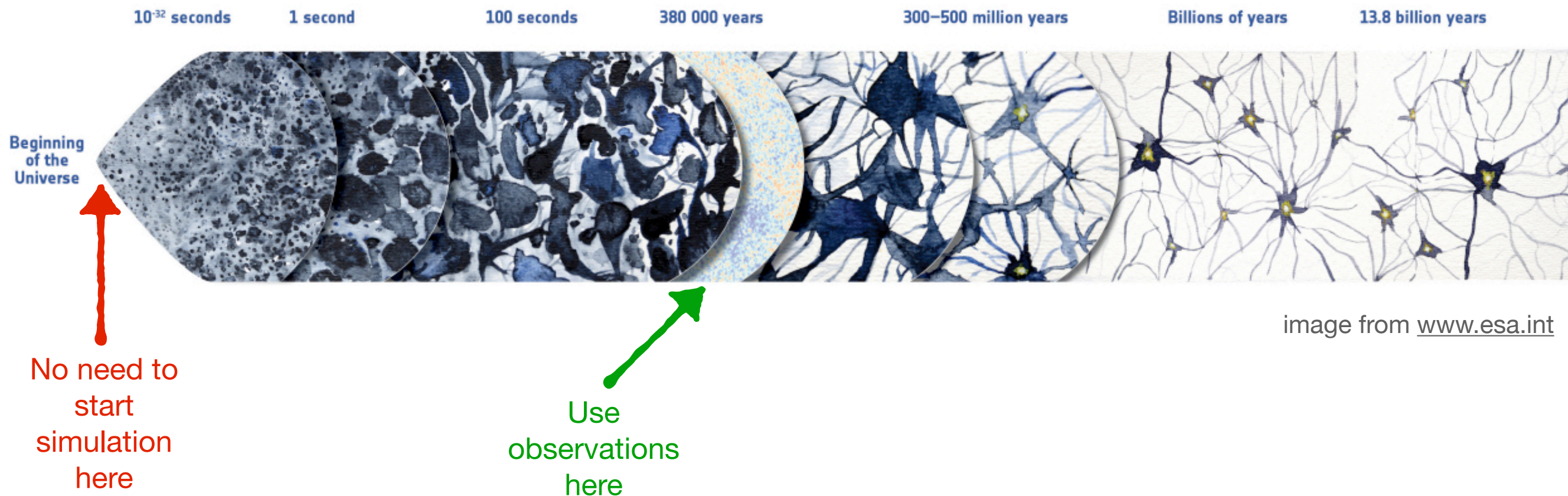


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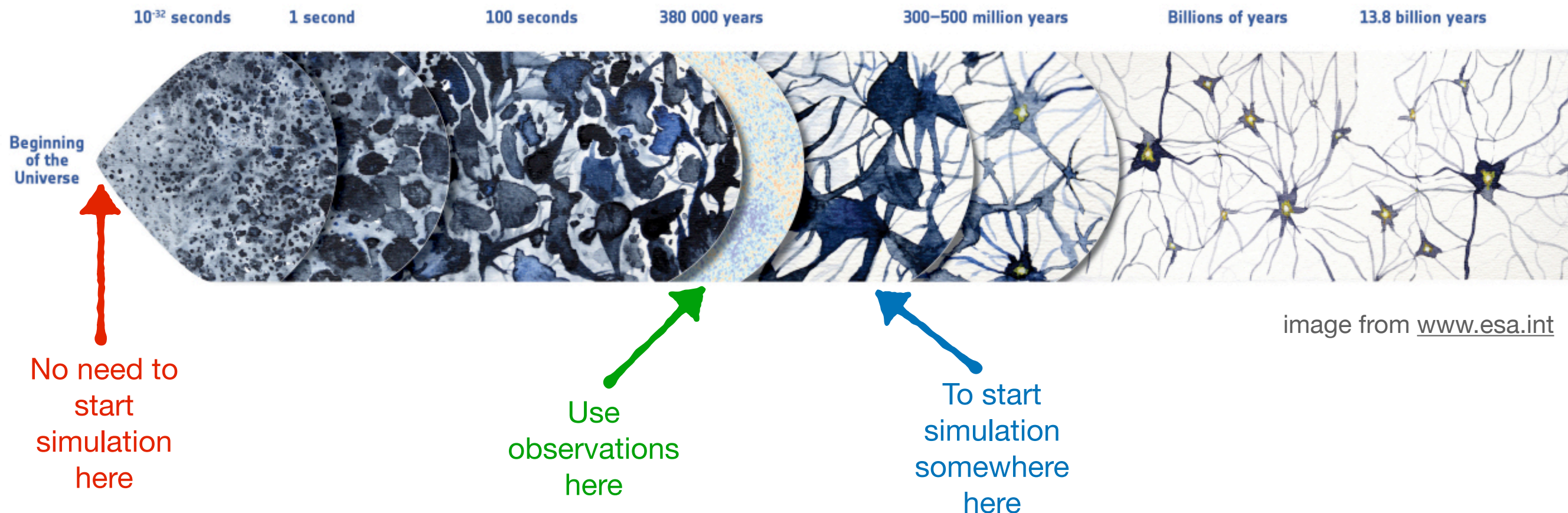


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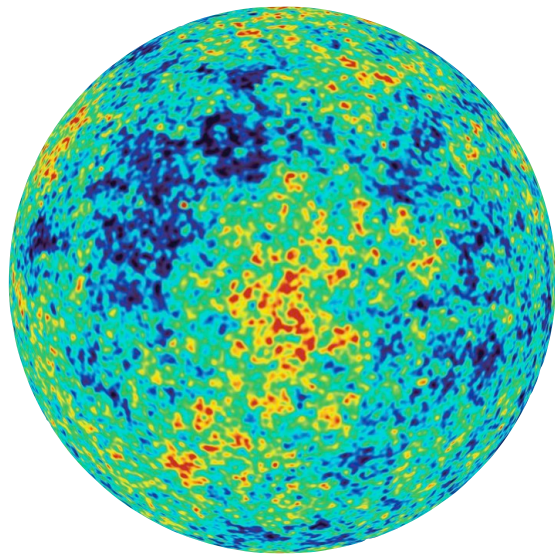
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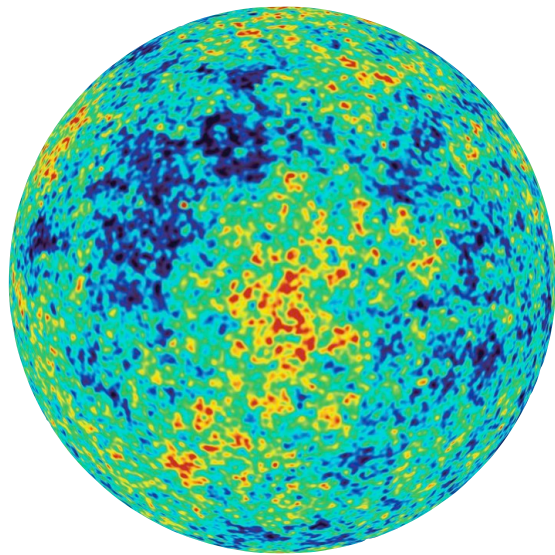
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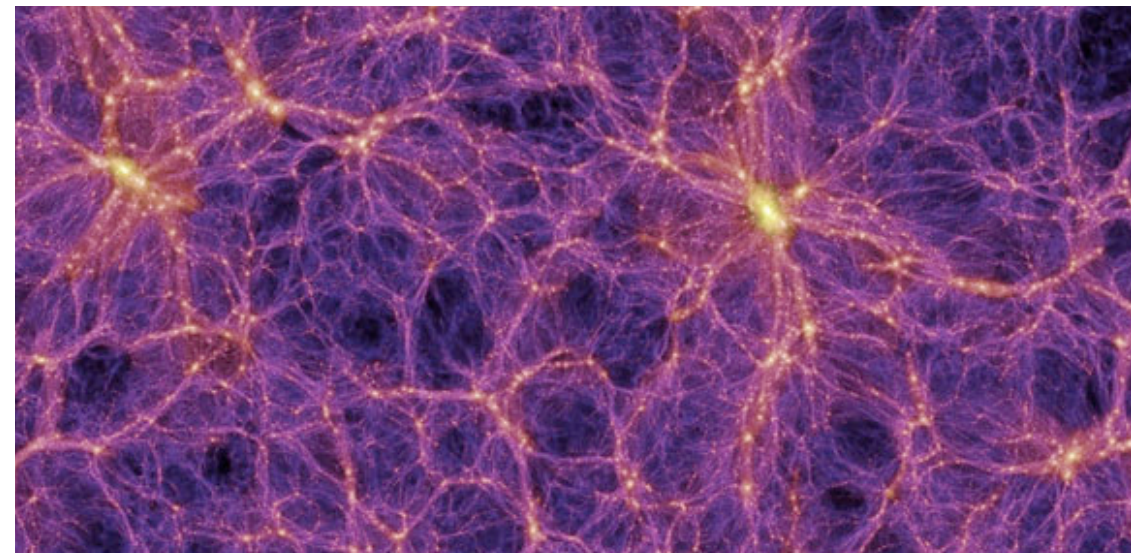
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$$z_0 = 0, a_0 = 1$$



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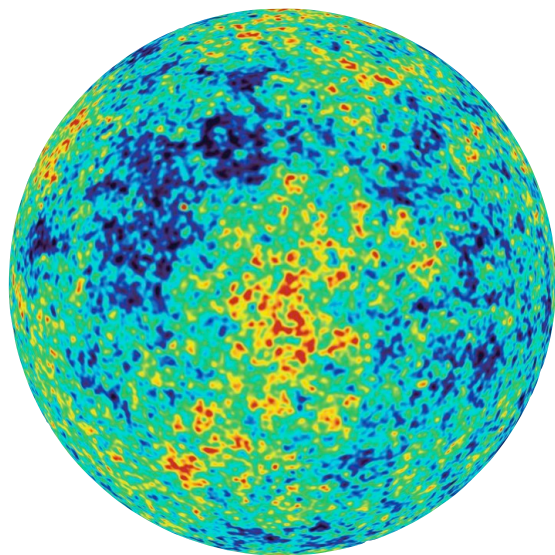
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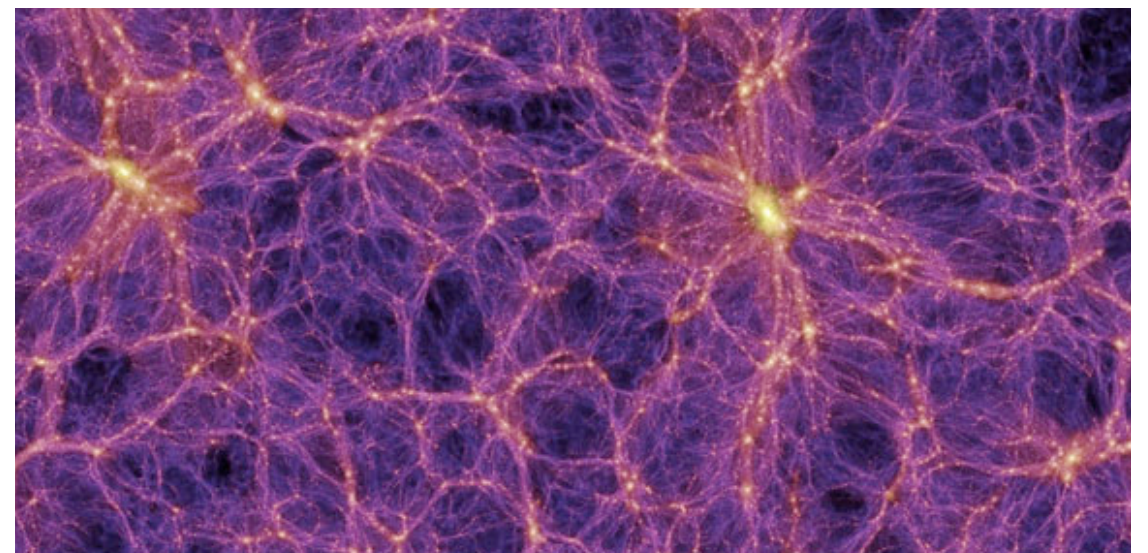
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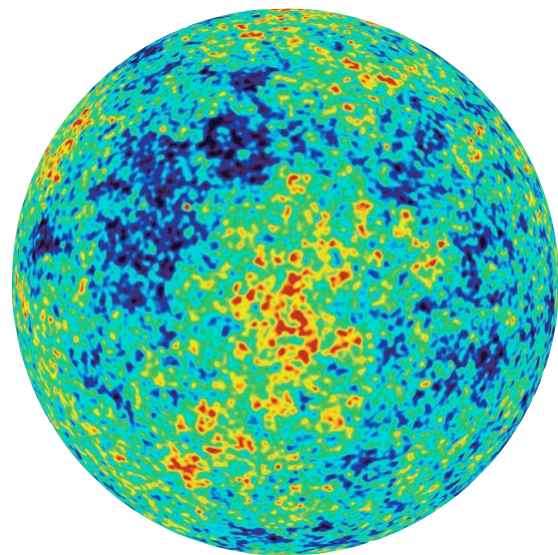
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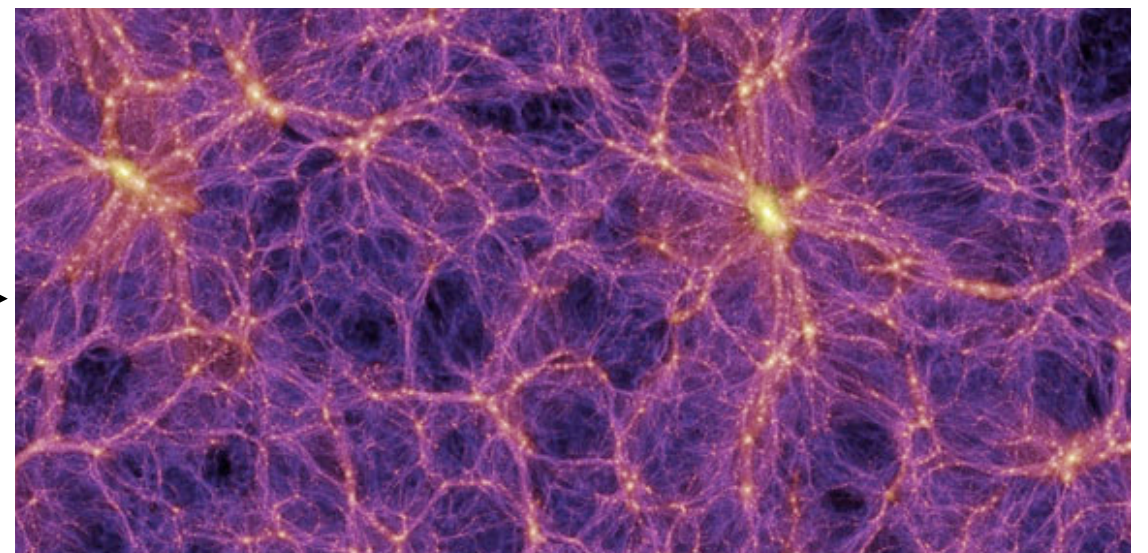


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gravity

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evolve the density field of the Universe under the effect of gravity from the point where we can predict it analytically to today

# How?

# Discretisation Approaches



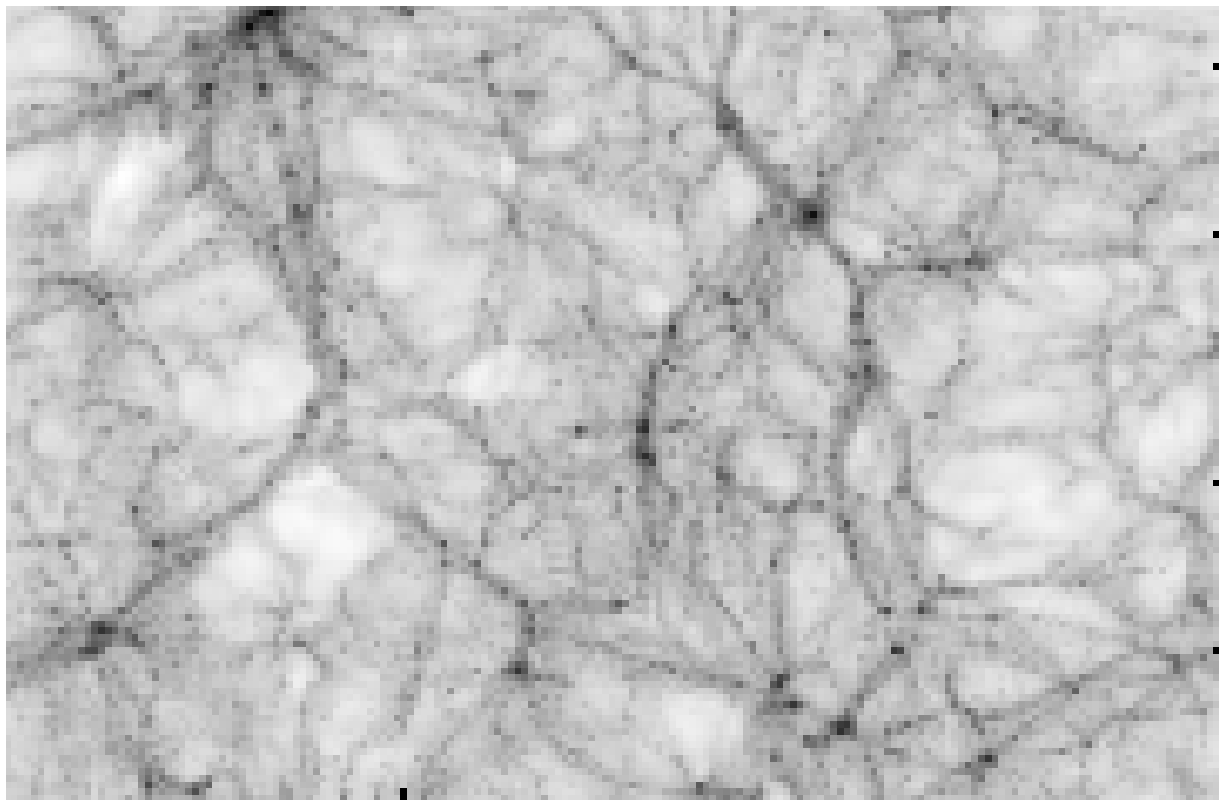
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## Density field



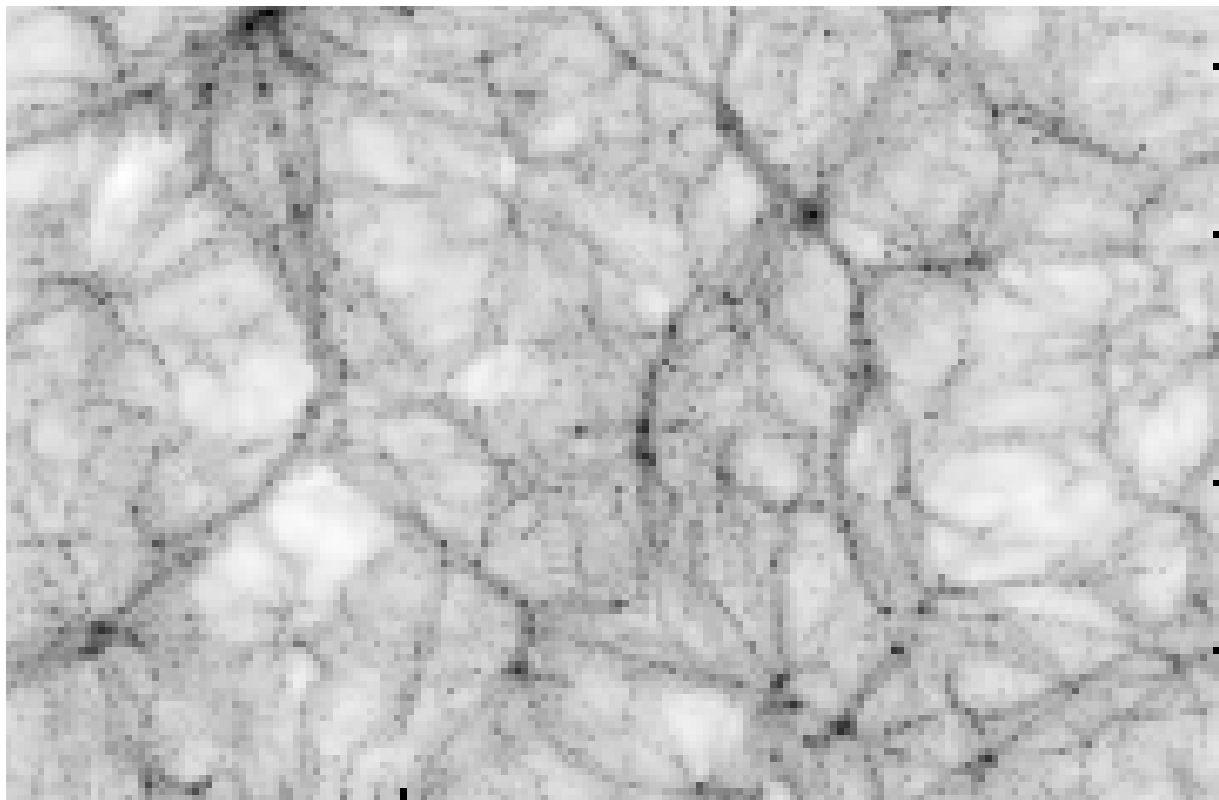
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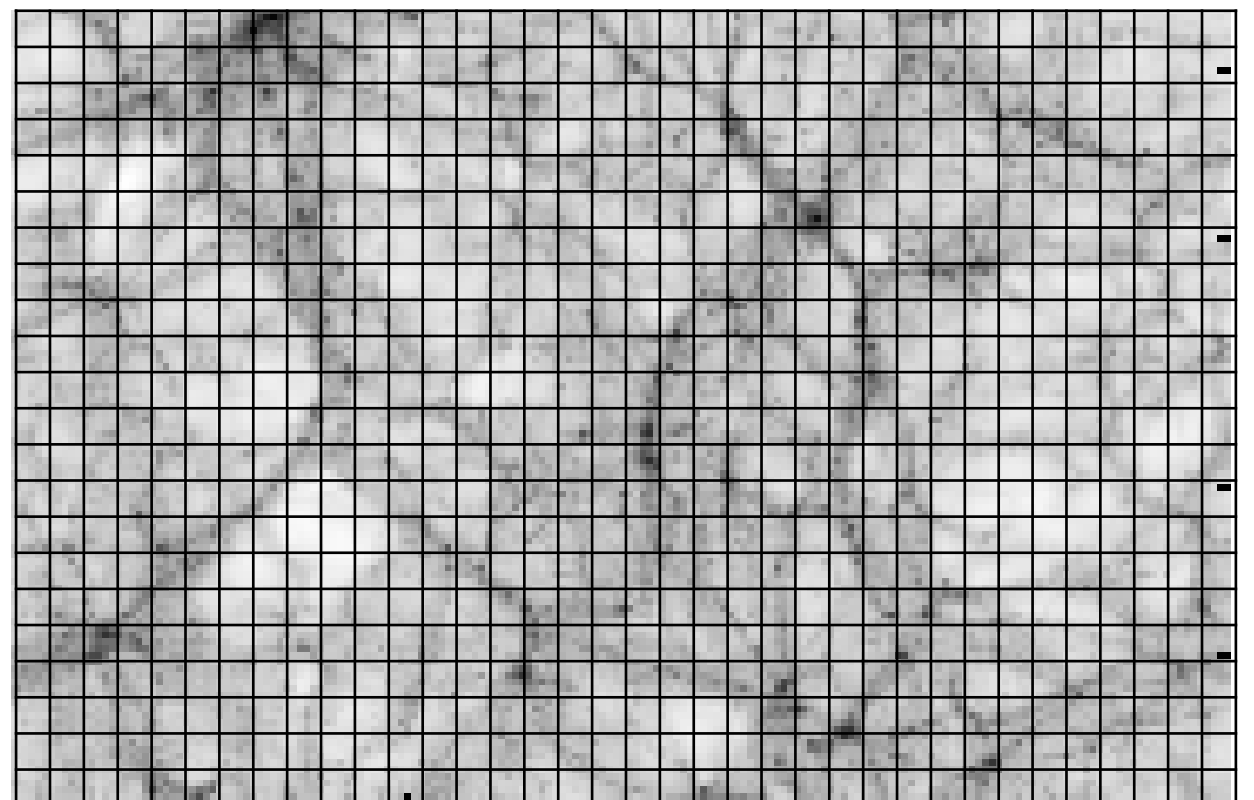
Two possible approaches:

1) Discretise **space** —> Eulerian methods

**Density field**



**Density on a grid (mapping)**





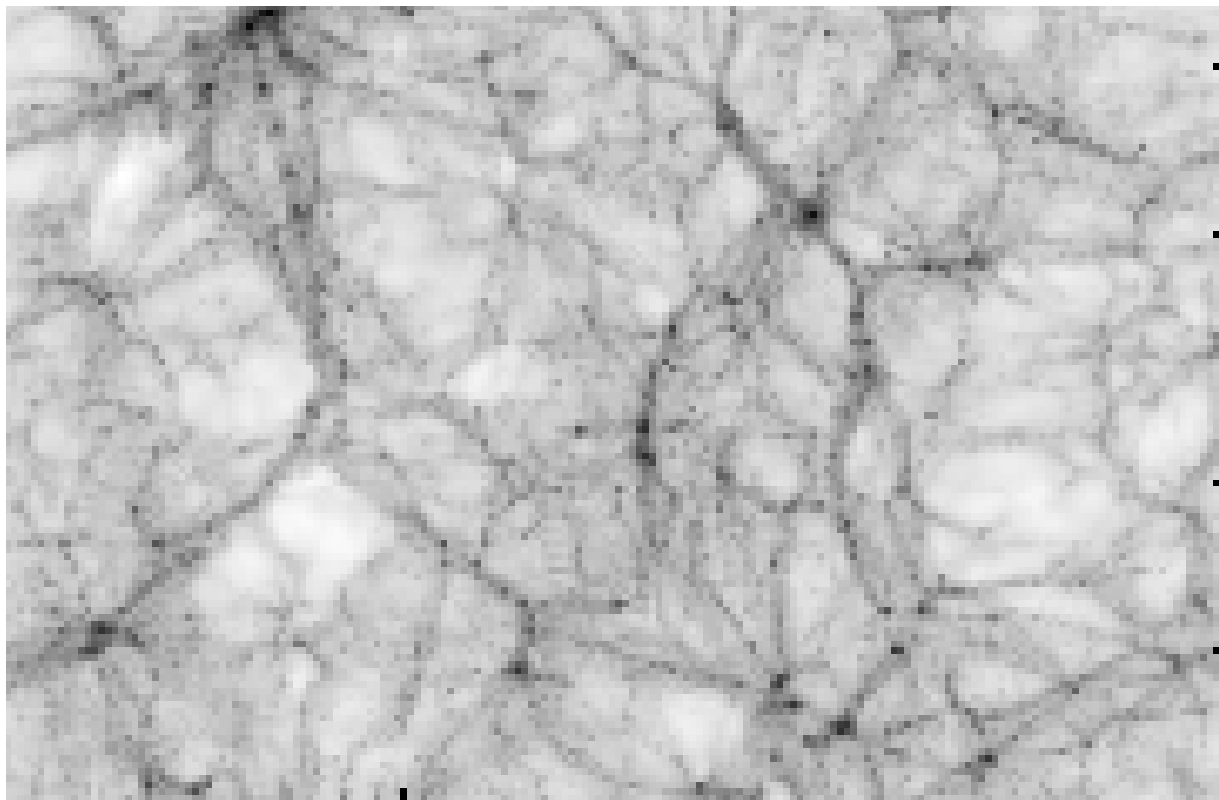
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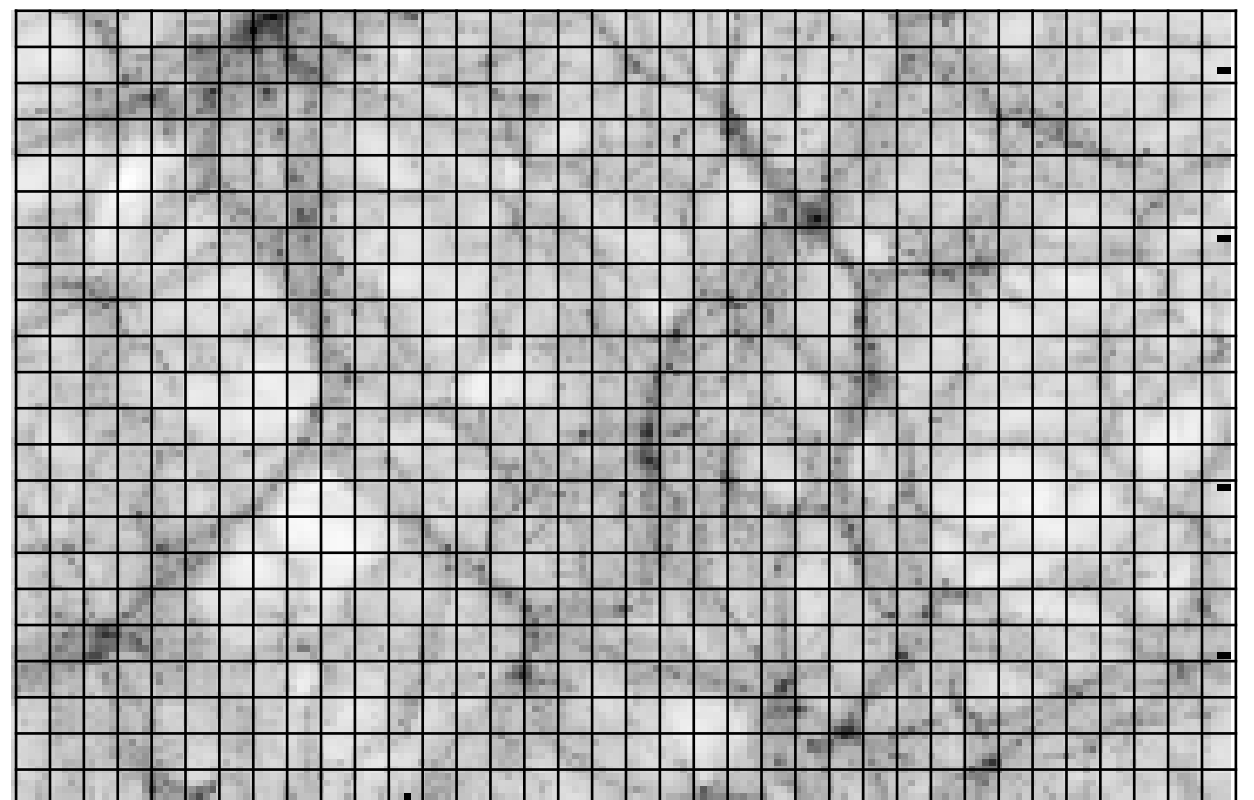
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i.e. coarse-graining the field on a given set of space-filling volume elements

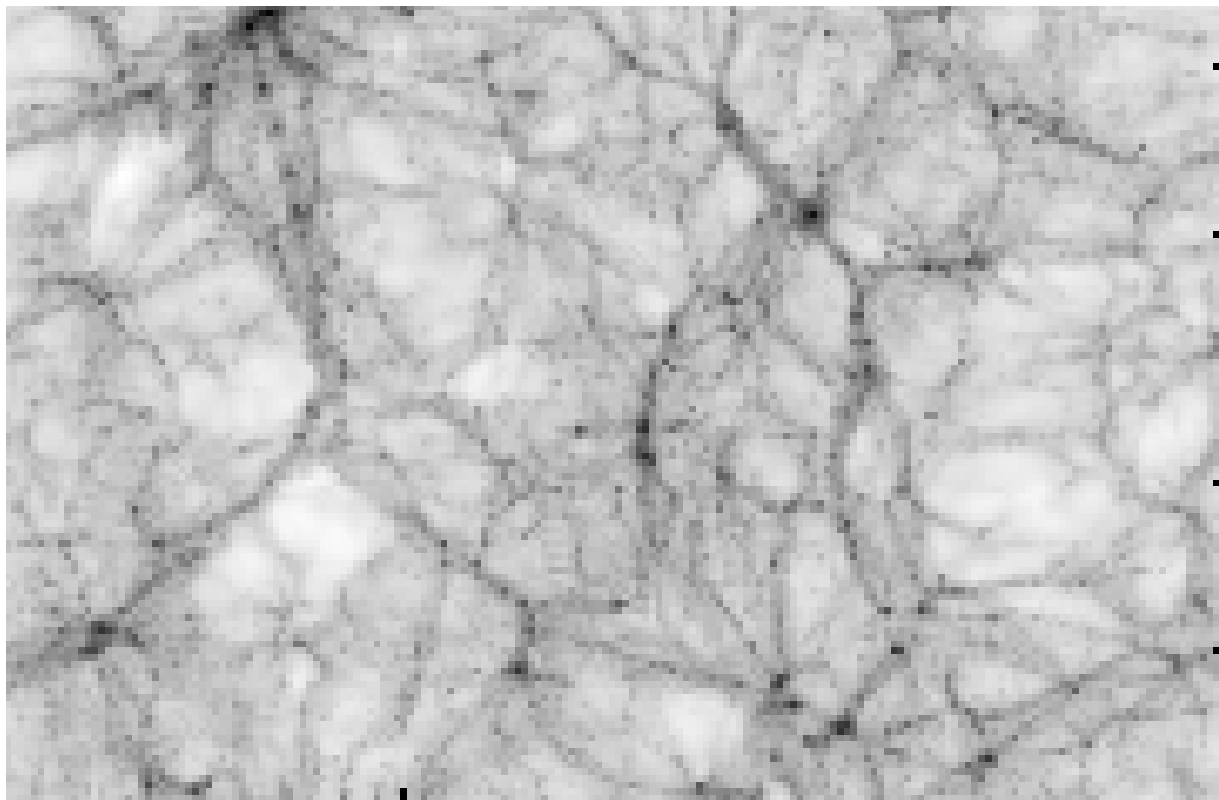
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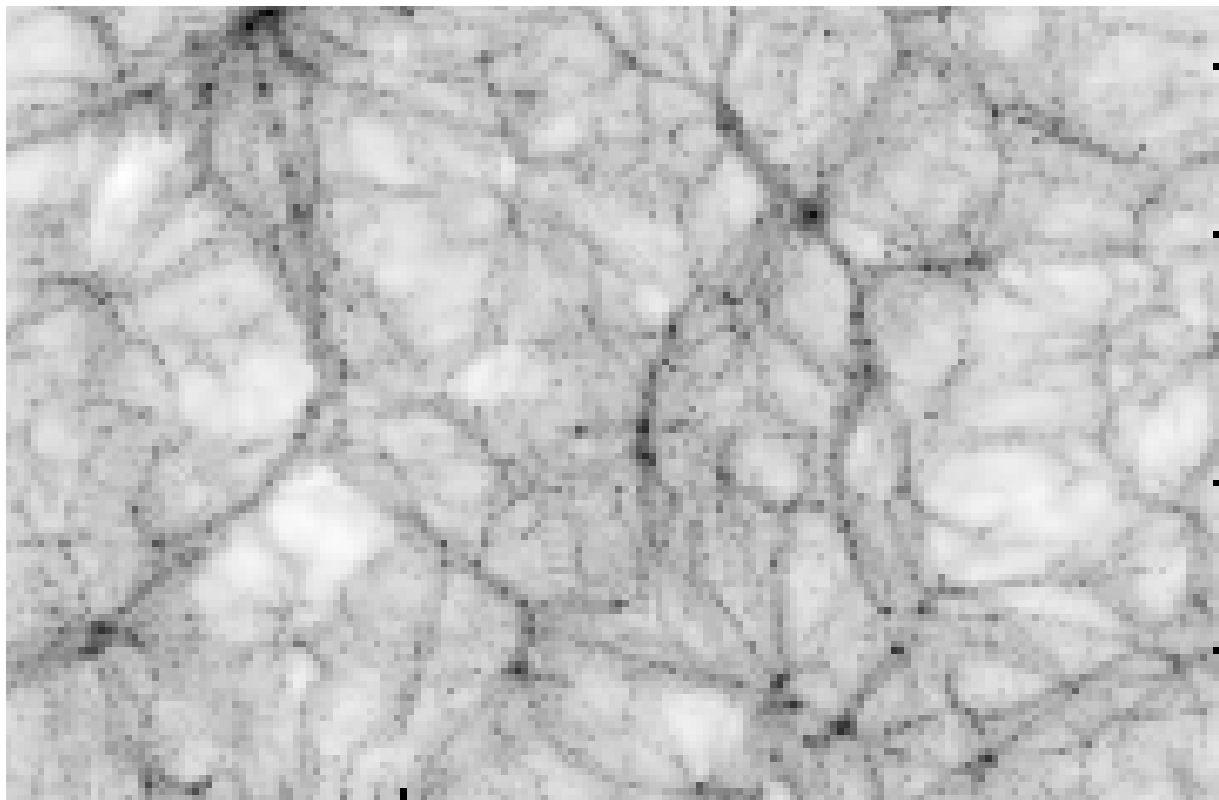
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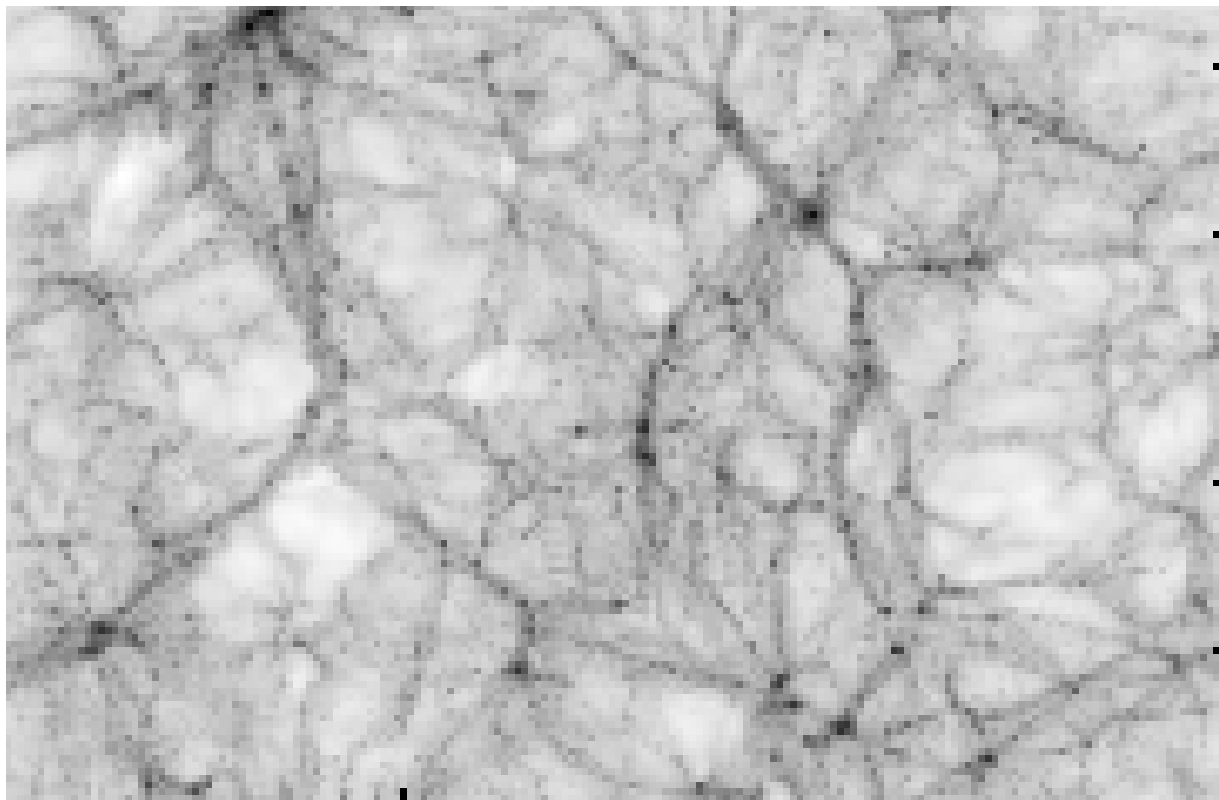
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i.e. **sampling the density through a set of discrete point-like tracers** called “**particles**”, which carry a given mass and which have nothing to do (in general) with physical or fundamental particles

# How?

## Formalising the Problem

# The gravitational N-body problem

Solving for the gravitational evolution of a system of  $N$  particles is a complex problem which **cannot be addressed analytically for  $N > 2$** .



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where the gravitational potential is given by Poisson's equation:

$$\nabla_r^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho$$



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This allows to rewrite the equation of motion and the Poisson equation as

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}} = -H(t)\mathbf{v} - \frac{1}{a}\nabla_x\phi$$

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Where  $\phi$  is the **peculiar** potential and  $\delta \equiv \delta\rho/\bar{\rho}$  is the **density contrast**

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where we now have to write the peculiar potential for a set of N **point-like massive particles**:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = -\frac{1}{a} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{Gm_j}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|}$$



# How?

## The 3 main steps

# The steps of an N-body simulation

## 1. Initial Conditions:

The gravitational N-body problem amounts to integrate a system of first order differential equations:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_i = \mathbf{p}_i / a^2$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = -\nabla_x \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

We therefore need initial conditions for  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\dot{\mathbf{x}}$  for all the particles in the system

# The steps of an N-body simulation

## 2. Gravitational Solver

It will be the core of our calculation, and requires to compute the source term for the acceleration equation for any given configuration of the particles' distribution.

In other words, it is the method to obtain the source term on the RHS of the differential equations:

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = -\nabla_x \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

which requires computing the peculiar gravitational potential

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = -\frac{1}{a} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{Gm_j}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|}$$

at every particle's position

# The steps of an N-body simulation

## 3. Time integration

Once the source term (i.e. the acceleration on all particles) has been computed, and the initial configuration of the system is known (particles' positions and velocities at a given time) the dynamics must be integrated by **moving the system forward in time**, thereby updating positions and velocities of all particles:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{x}(t + \Delta t)$$

$$\mathbf{p}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{p}(t + \Delta t)$$



How?

Setting up initial conditions

# Step 1: initial conditions

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Which is solved by the growth function  $D(a) : \delta(a) = D(a)\delta_0$

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For  $\delta \sim 1$  this treatment breaks down ( $\delta > 1$  would imply negative densities), but as long as  $\delta \ll 1$  it provides a way to obtain  $\delta$  from observations (of  $P(k)$ ). How?

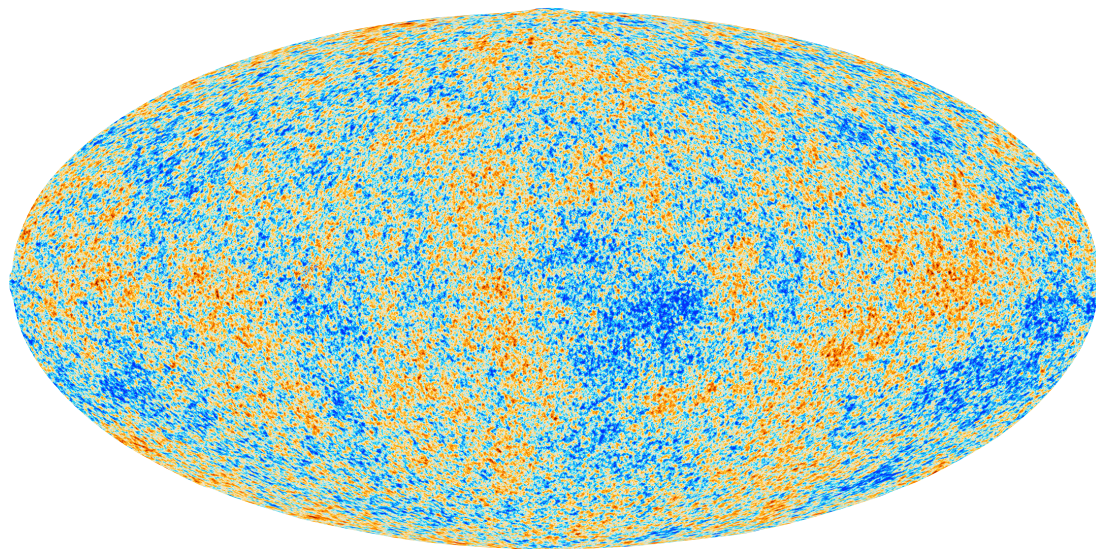
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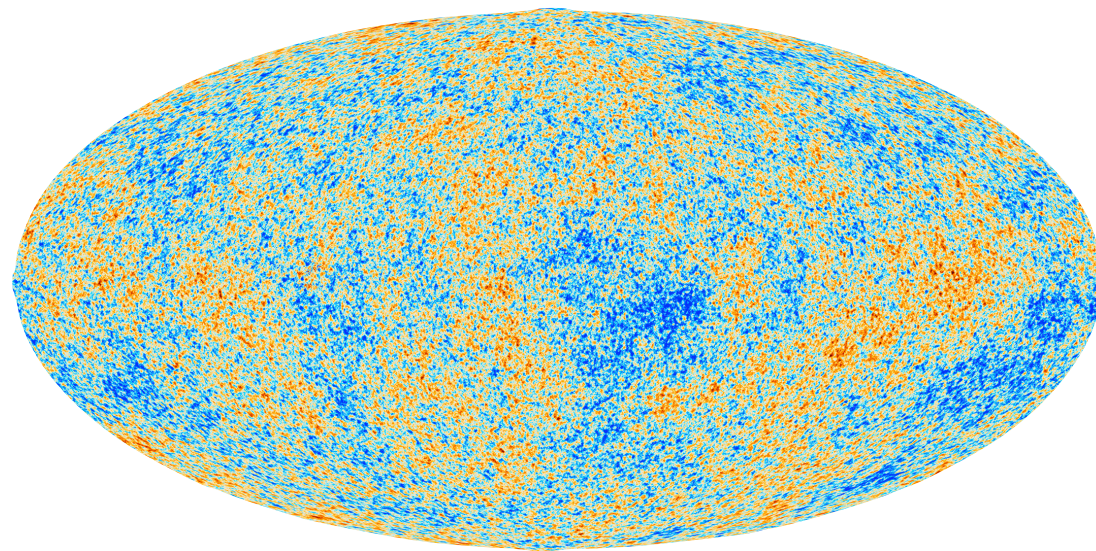
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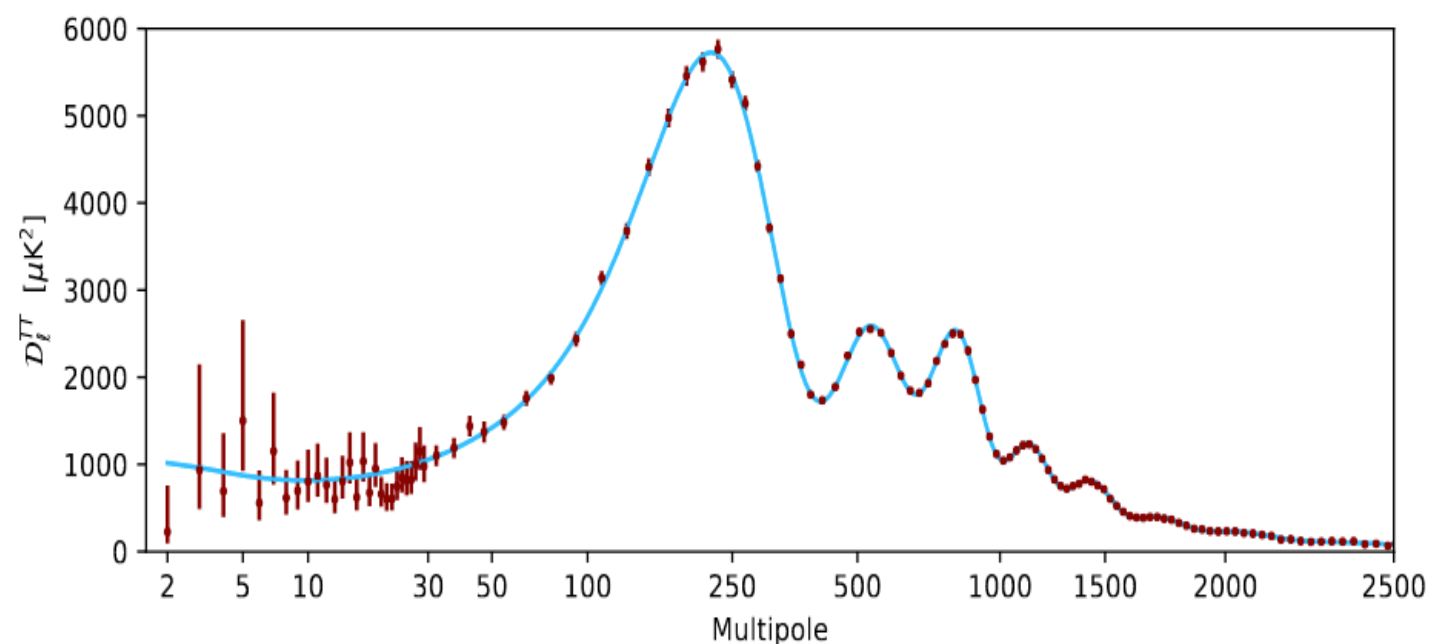


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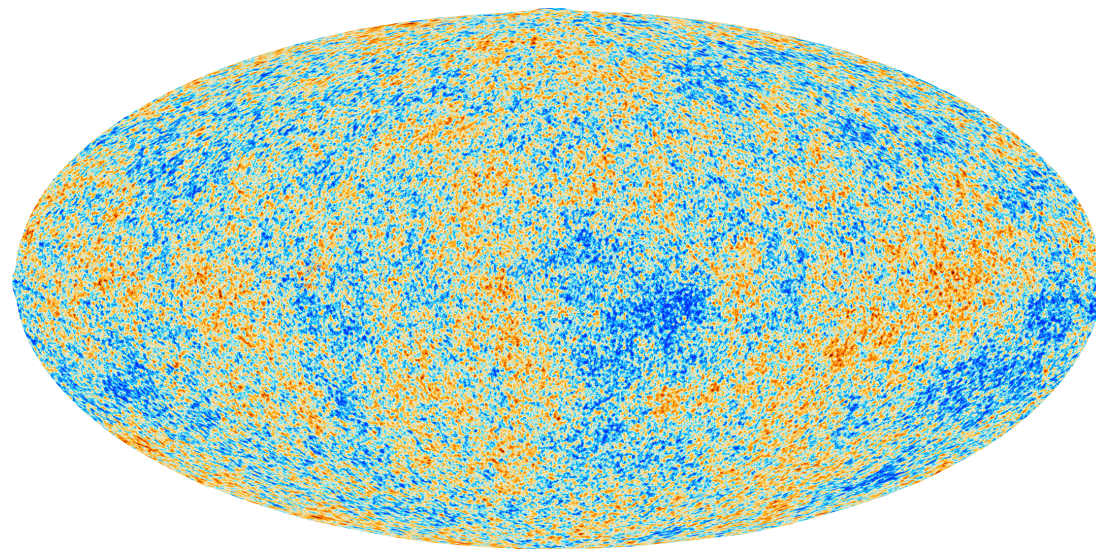


Plots: Planck Collaboration

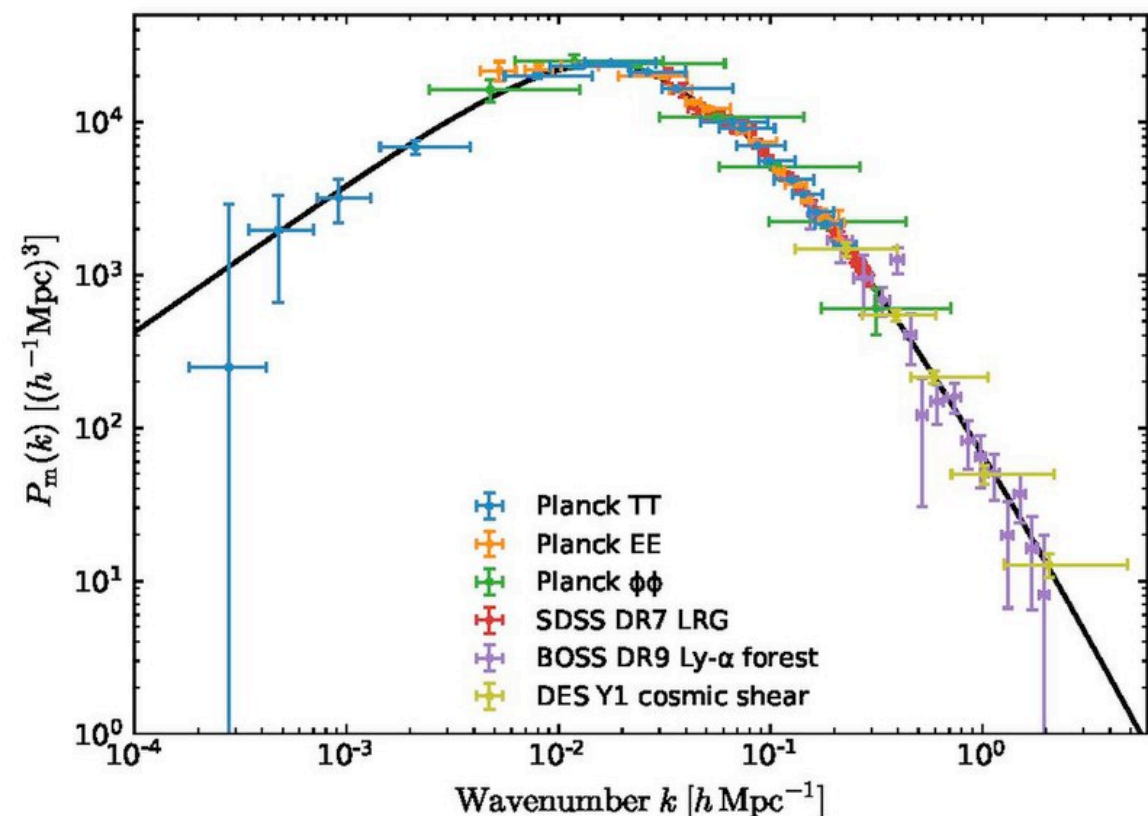


# Step 1: initial conditions

We want to translate the temperature fluctuations observed in the CMB (well in the linear regime,  $\delta \ll 1$ ) into initial conditions for particles' positions and velocities. First, convert the angular power spectrum of temperature fluctuations in a 3D density power spectrum



Observations  
+  
Modelling



Plots: Planck Collaboration

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This implies

$$\nabla^2 \phi = \frac{D(a)}{a} \nabla^2 \phi_0 \Rightarrow \phi(a) = \frac{D(a)}{a} \phi_0$$

So that in matter domination ( $D(a) \sim a$ ) one has  $\phi(a) \sim \text{const.}$

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so to get:

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and substitute its solution  $D(a)$ :

$$\ddot{D} + 2H\dot{D} = 4\pi G\frac{\bar{\rho}_0}{a^3}D \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{\partial(a^2 \dot{D})}{\partial t} = 4\pi G\frac{\bar{\rho}_0}{a^3}D$$

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then integrate it:

$$\frac{a^2\dot{D}}{4\pi G\bar{\rho}_0} = \int \frac{D(a)}{a} dt$$

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Combine the results of B and C

$$\mathbf{v} = -\frac{\nabla\phi_0}{a} \int \frac{D(a)}{a} dt \qquad \frac{a^2 \dot{D}}{4\pi G \bar{\rho}_0} = \int \frac{D(a)}{a} dt$$

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To get:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{a} = -\frac{\nabla\phi_0}{a^2} \int \frac{D(a)}{a} dt = -\frac{\nabla\phi_0}{a^2} \frac{a^2 \dot{D}}{4\pi G \bar{\rho}_0} = -\frac{D \dot{\nabla}\phi_0}{4\pi G \bar{\rho}_0}$$



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Now integrate the latter to get the Zel'dovich approximation:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\dot{D}\nabla\phi_0}{4\pi G\bar{\rho}_0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}(a) - \mathbf{x}_0 = -\frac{\nabla\phi_0}{4\pi G\bar{\rho}_0}D(a) \sim -\frac{a\nabla\phi(a)}{4\pi G\bar{\rho}_0}$$

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that allows to evolve particles' positions in the linear regime

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then substitute:

$$\psi_k = \frac{a(i\mathbf{k})}{4\pi G\bar{\rho}_0} \frac{4\pi G\bar{\rho}_0}{ak^2}\delta_k = i\mathbf{k}\frac{\delta_k}{k^2}$$

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Now use the power spectrum (from CMB observations) to obtain a statistical realisation of the density field  $\delta_k$ :

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where  $A_k e^{i\phi_k} = B_1 + iB_2$  and  $B_1, B_2$  are drawn from a Gaussian distribution. Finally, one gets:

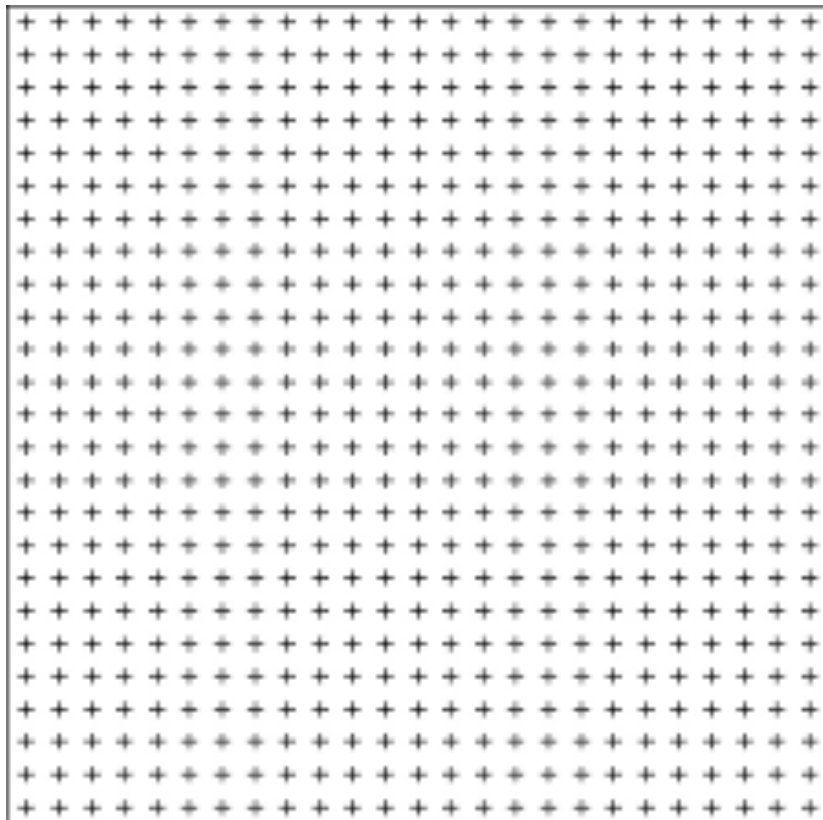
$$\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0 = \psi \rightarrow (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)_k = i\mathbf{k} \frac{\delta_k}{k^2}$$
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\dot{D}}{D} \psi \rightarrow \mathbf{v}_k = a \frac{\dot{D}}{D} \psi_k$$



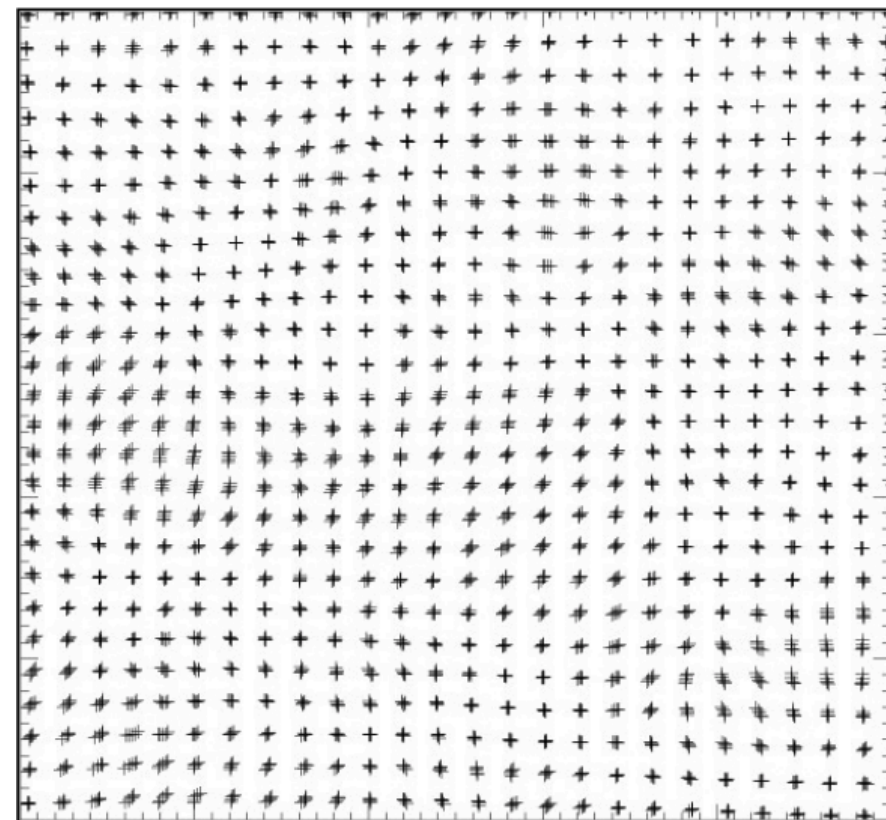
# Step 1: initial conditions

Fourier transforming back to position space we obtain the desired initial conditions for the simulation.

Unperturbed positions  
(homogeneous grid)



Initial Conditions  
(Zel'dovich)



# How?

## Solving gravity

## Step 2: Solving gravity

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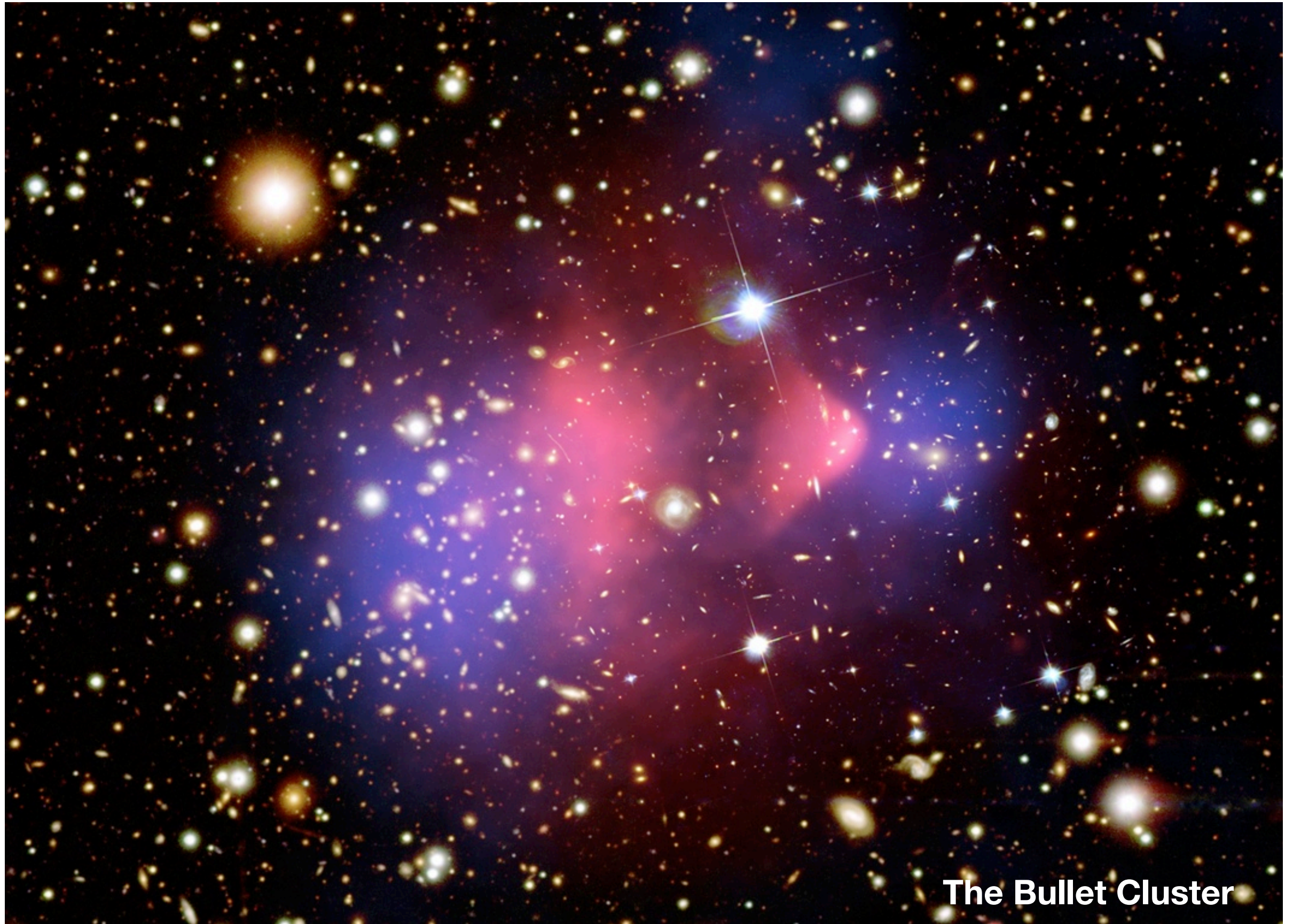
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So dark matter in a galaxy is evolving collisionlessly throughout the whole cosmic history. This is true also for (standard cold) dark matter in any larger cosmic volume



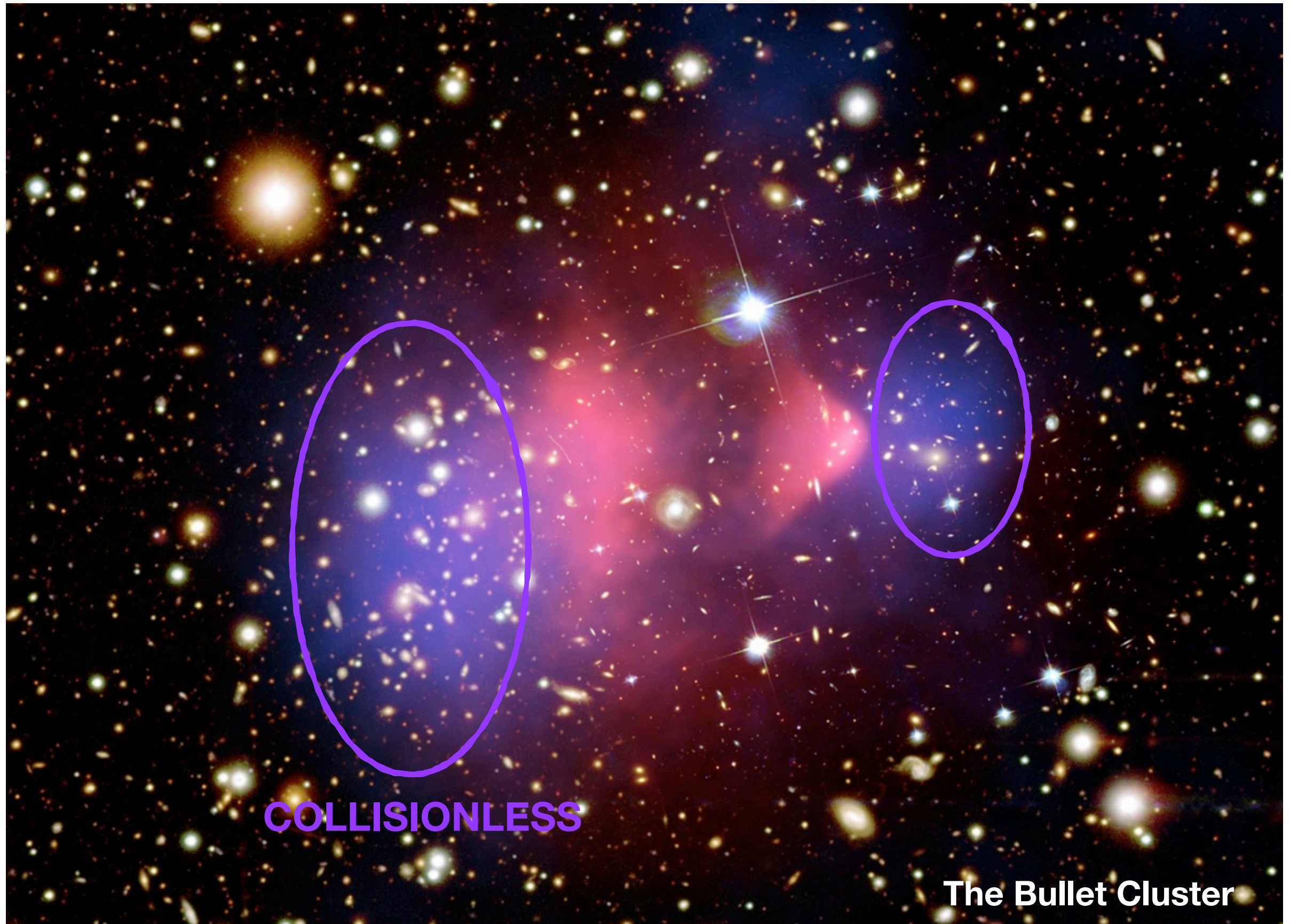
# Solving gravity: a note on collisionless systems



**The Bullet Cluster**

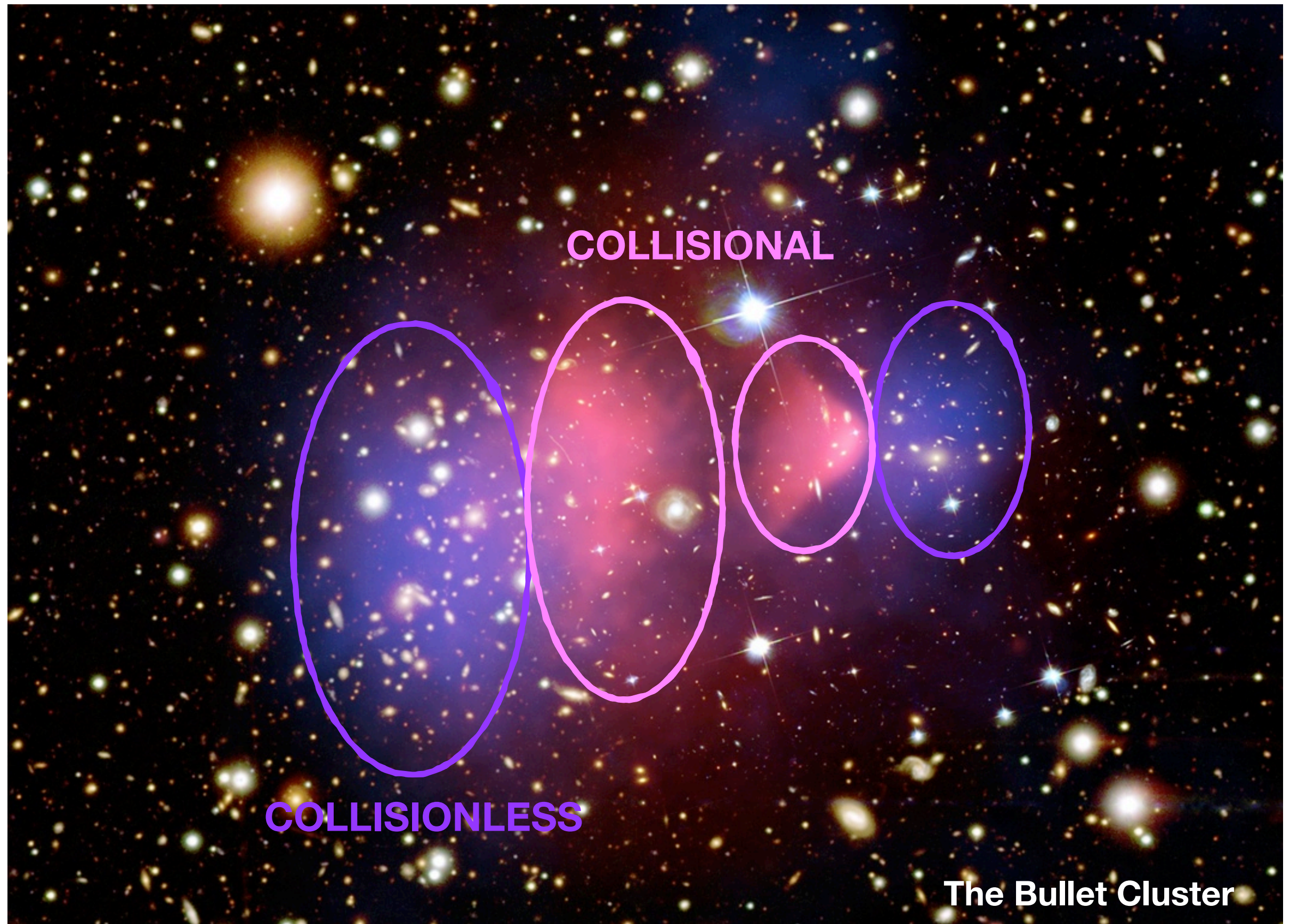


# Solving gravity: a note on collisionless systems





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So we know that (standard cold) dark matter in the Universe is expected to behave as a collision less system. However, we will sample it with mass elements representing a (huge) ensemble of fundamental particles (so  $N$  is much lower than in reality):

$$m_\chi \approx 100 \text{ GeV}/c^2$$

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Still, as long as we can ensure  $t_{\text{relax}} \gg t_{\text{sim}}$  the system can still remain collisionless, and the orbits of the simulation particles will faithfully represent the motion of the fundamental particles

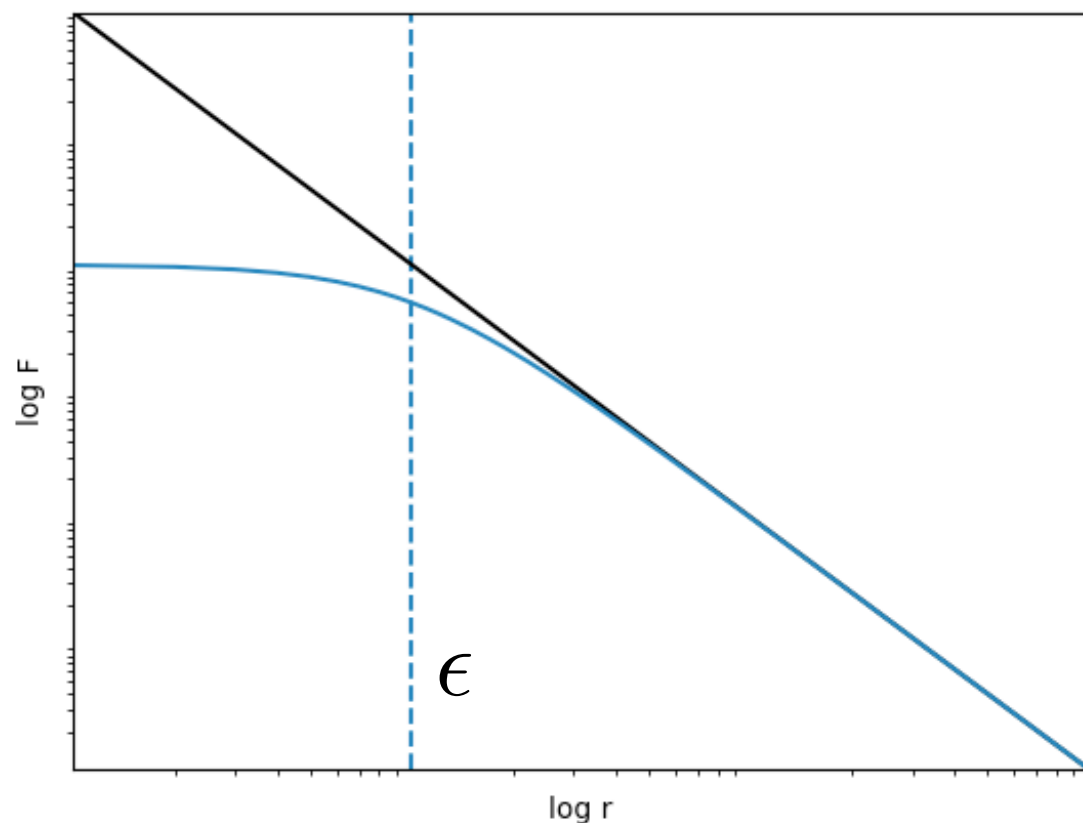
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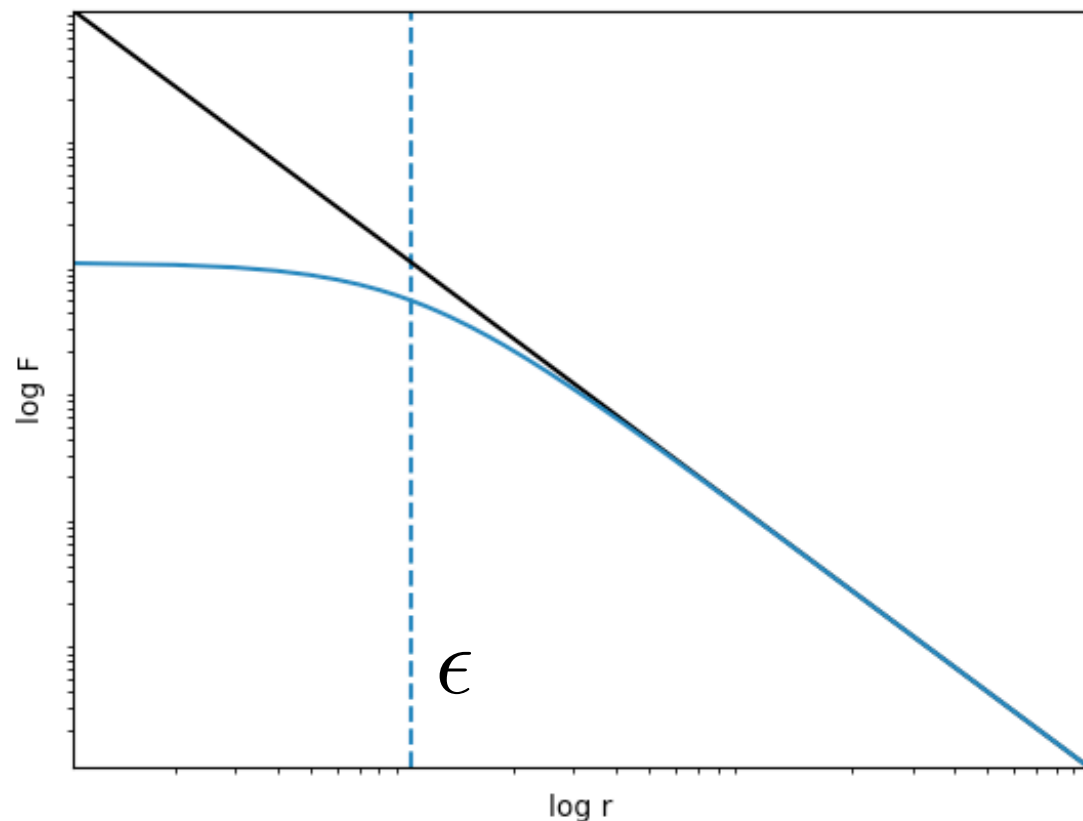
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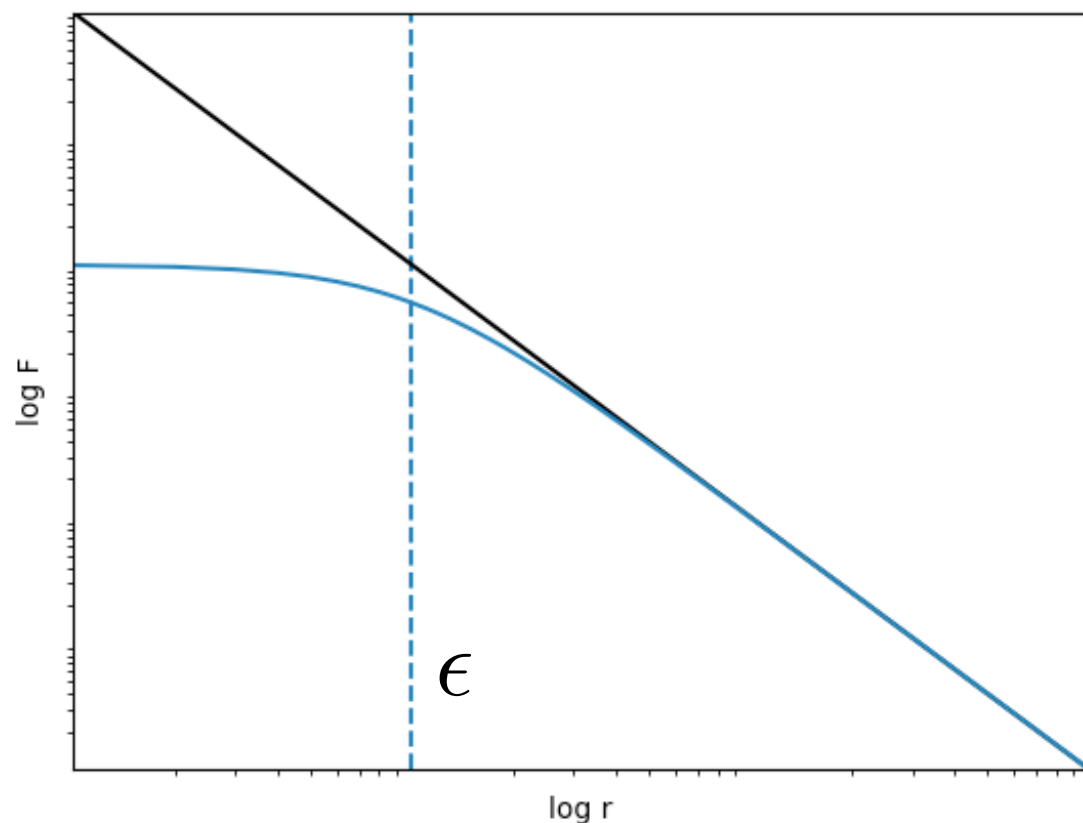
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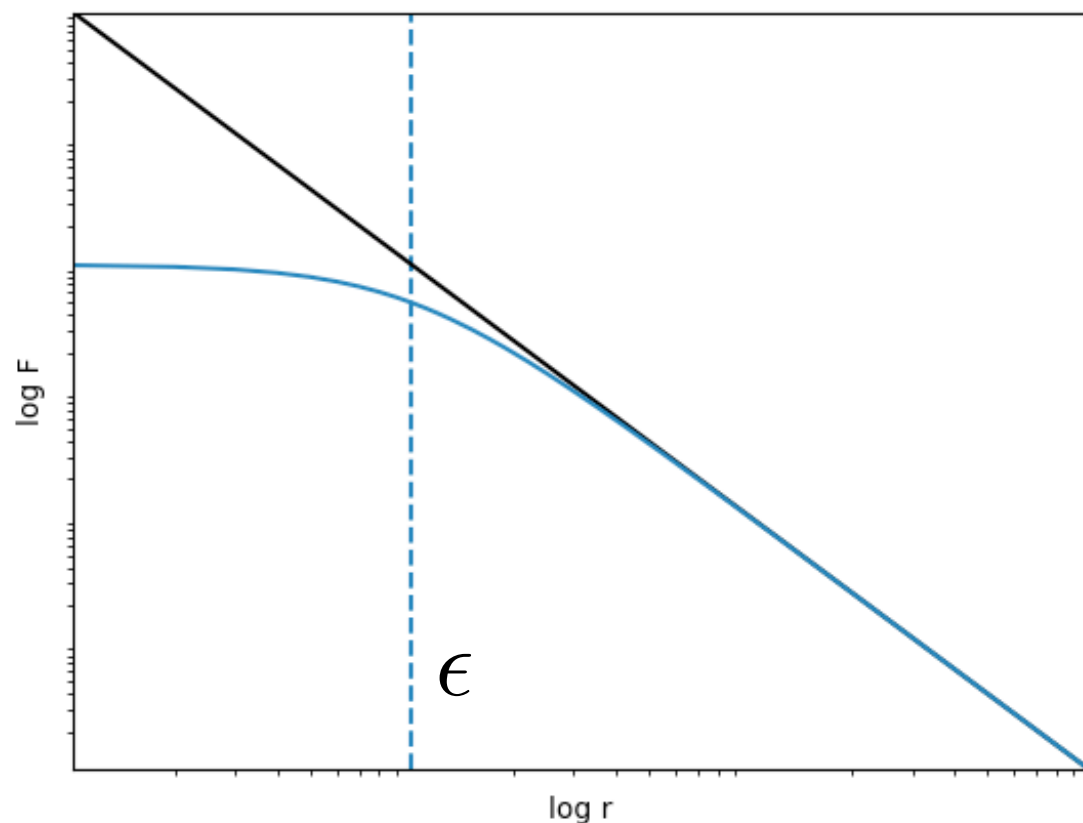
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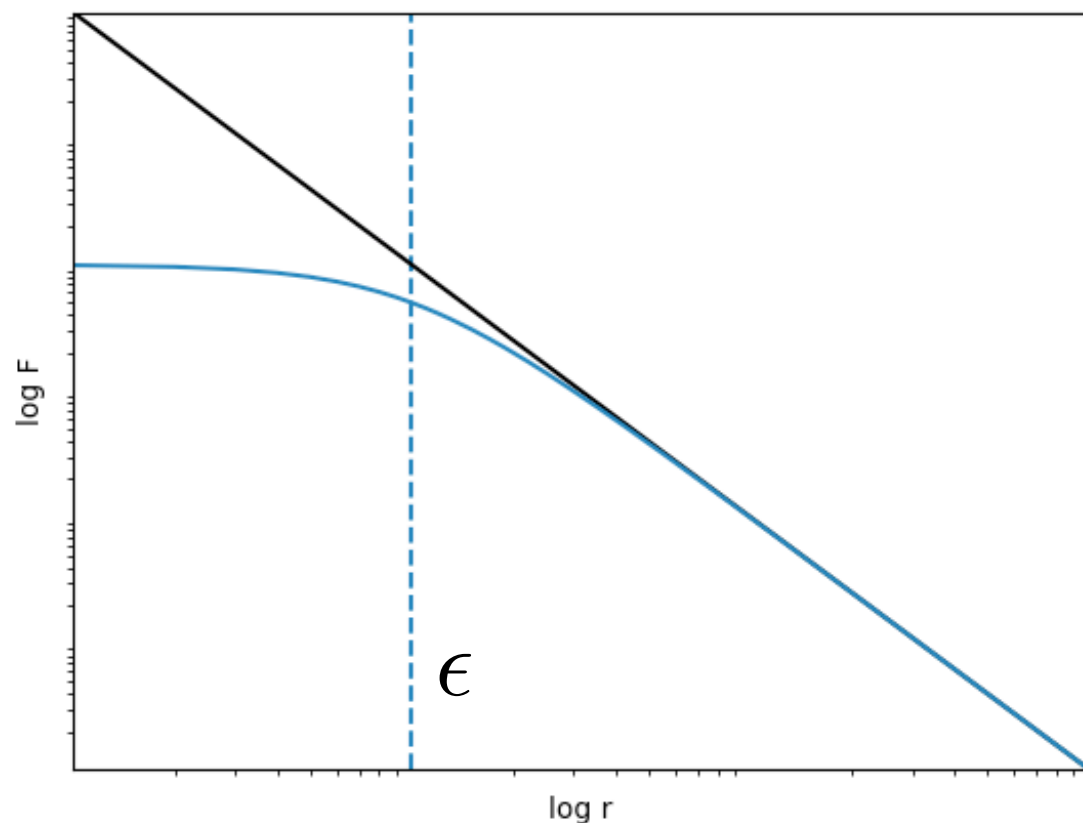
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$\epsilon$  typically 2-4% of the mean inter-particle separation

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for which we need to know the peculiar potential  $\phi$  that follows:

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How?

Solving gravity: Particle-Mesh



# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh (PM) method

A possible way to solve for the gravitational potential is the so-called particle-mesh (PM) method, which exploits the properties of the Poisson's equation in Fourier space.

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Instead of computing  $\phi$  by direct summation on all particles, the solution to the gravitational Poisson's Equation

$$\nabla_x^2 \Phi = 4\pi G a^2 \rho(\mathbf{x})$$

can be obtained through a **convolution of the density field**  $\rho(\mathbf{x})$  **with a Green's Function**

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \int g(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \rho(\mathbf{x}') d\mathbf{x}' = g(\mathbf{x}) \star \rho(\mathbf{x})$$

# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh (PM) method

Example: for vacuum boundary conditions (i.e. the density goes to zero at infinity) one has:

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = -G \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{x}')}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} d\mathbf{x}' \Rightarrow g(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{G}{|\mathbf{x}|}$$

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The PM method exploits the convolution theorem:

**in Fourier space the convolution becomes a simple multiplication**

(between the Fourier transform of the Green's Function  $g_k$  and the Fourier transform of the density field  $\rho_k$ ) so that the gravitational potential in Fourier space  $\Phi_k$  can be simply computed as:

$$\Phi_k = g_k \cdot \rho_k$$

# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh (PM) method

Therefore, the PM method requires **three mathematical operations to solve for the gravitational potential**:

1. Compute the Fourier transform of the density field  $\rho_k$
2. Multiply the density field in Fourier space with the Green's function to obtain the potential  $\Phi_k = g_k \cdot \rho_k$
3. Compute the inverse Fourier transform of the potential to position space to get  $\Phi_k \rightarrow \Phi(\mathbf{x})$

However, in a system of  $N$  discrete particles, one does not have a density field, which has to be computed starting from the particles.

# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh (PM) method

Therefore, the PM algorithm is made of four different steps, only one of which is the actual potential computation:

- A. **Density assignment** (from particle's position to a density field)
- B. **Potential computation** (comprising the 3 mathematical operations discussed above)
- C. **Computation of the force** (acceleration) field from the potential
- D. **Assign the forces to individual particles**



# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

## Step A: Density assignment

# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

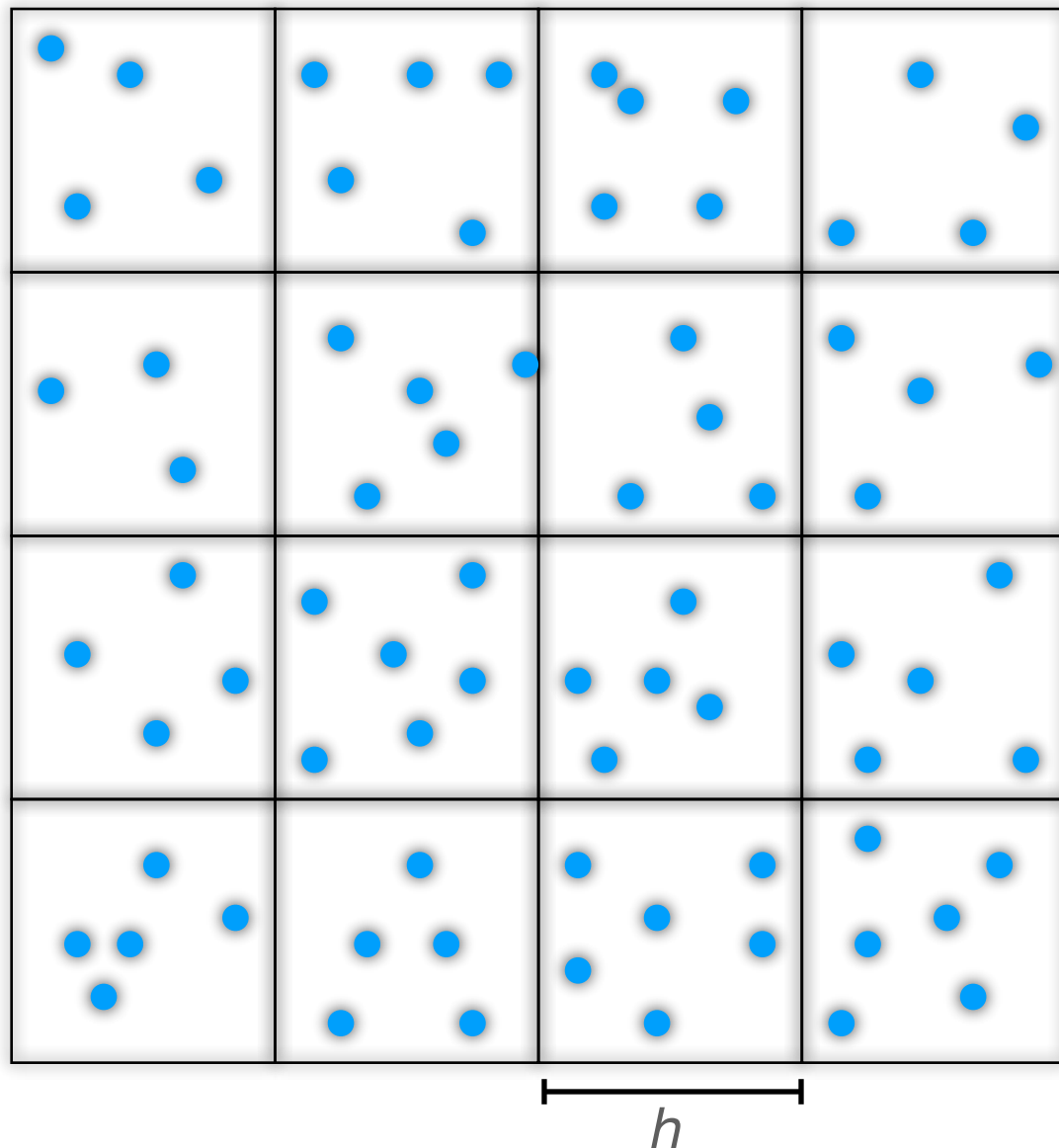
## Step A: Density assignment

How can we **go from a set of discrete point-like masses to a continuous density field**? Consider a set of particles in the simulation domain, and a cubic cartesian grid with step  $h$

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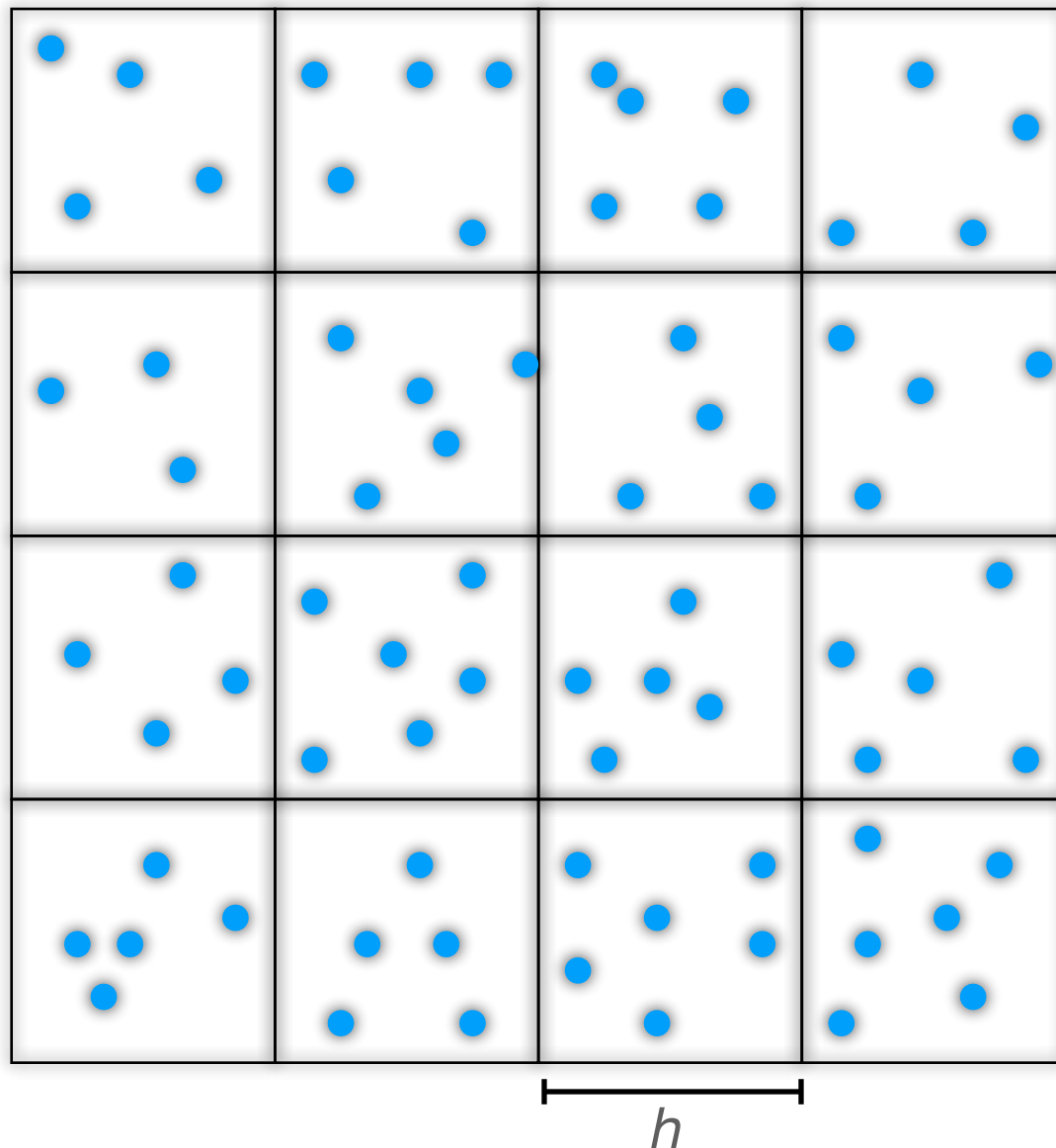
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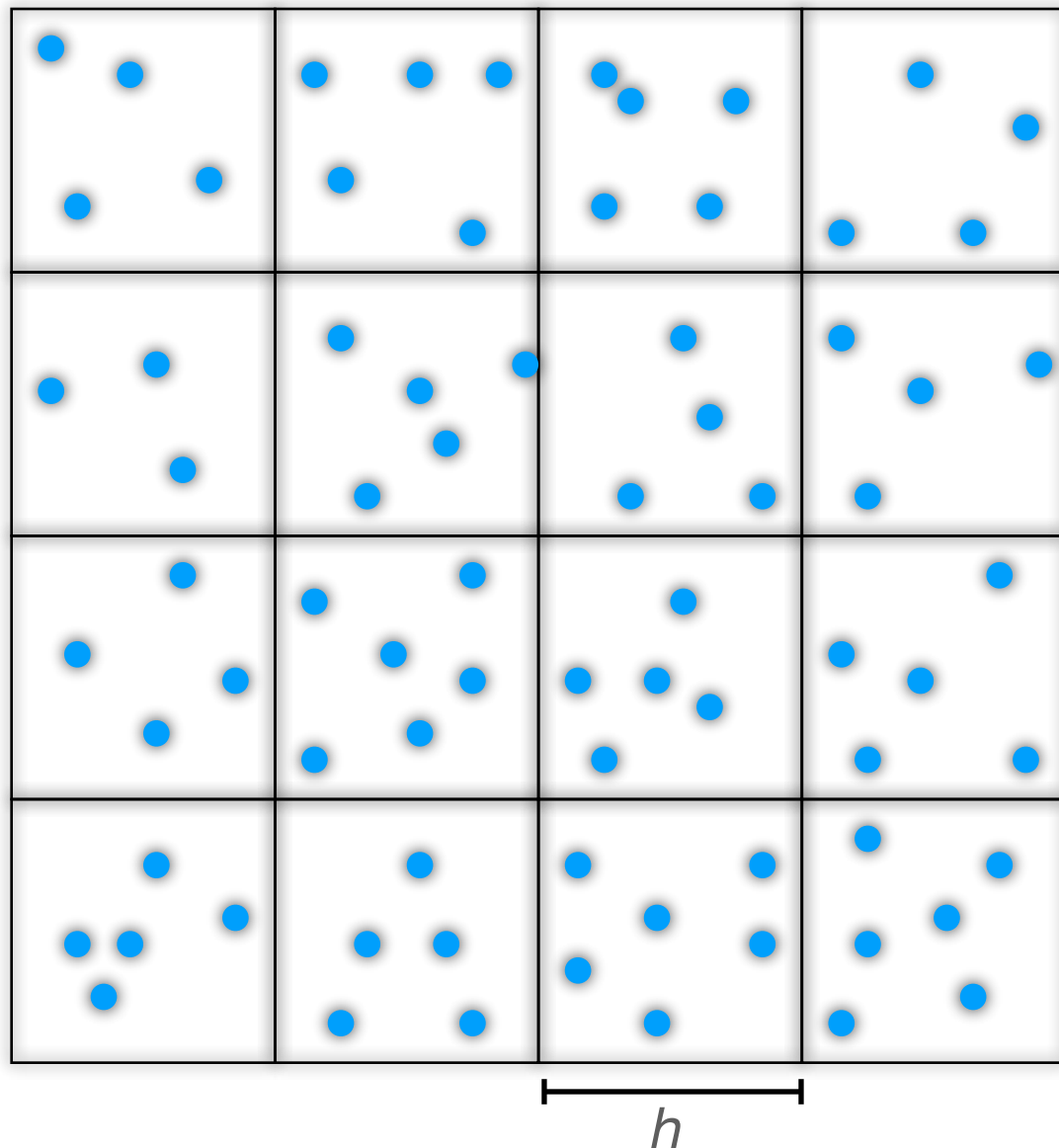
We can give particles a “shape”  $S(x)$  with a corresponding volume of uniform density, and assign to each mesh cell the fraction of the particle’s mass that falls inside the cell.

If we call  $\mathbf{x}_m$  the position of the cell centres and  $\mathbf{x}_i$  the position of particle  $i$  the overlap of a cell (i.e. the fraction of the particle’s volume falling in the cell) is given by:

# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

## Step A: Density assignment

$$W(\mathbf{x}_m - \mathbf{x}_i) = \int_{\mathbf{x}_m - \frac{h}{2}}^{\mathbf{x}_m + \frac{h}{2}} S(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_i) d\mathbf{x}'$$



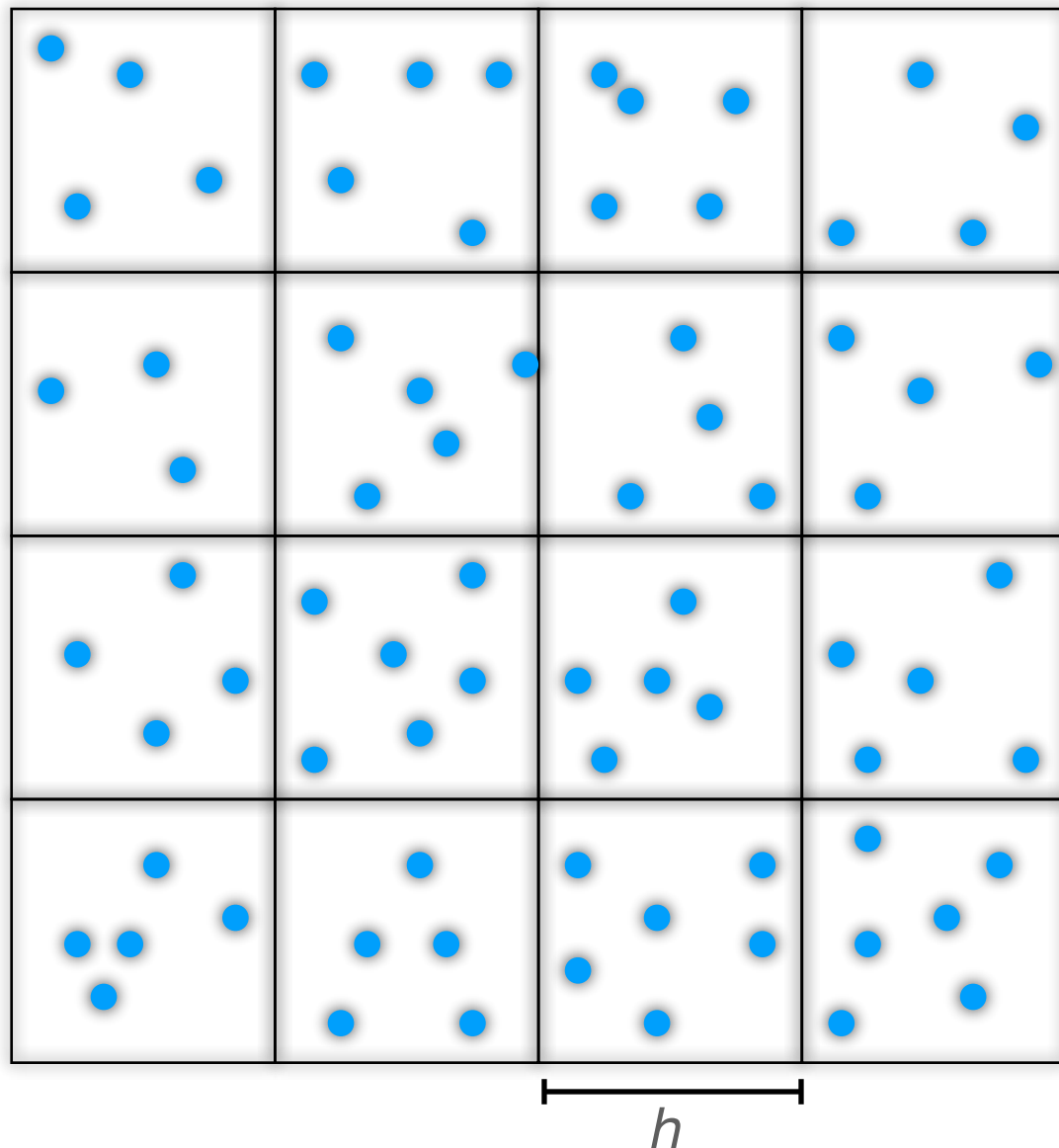
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where we have defined:

$$\Pi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |x| \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





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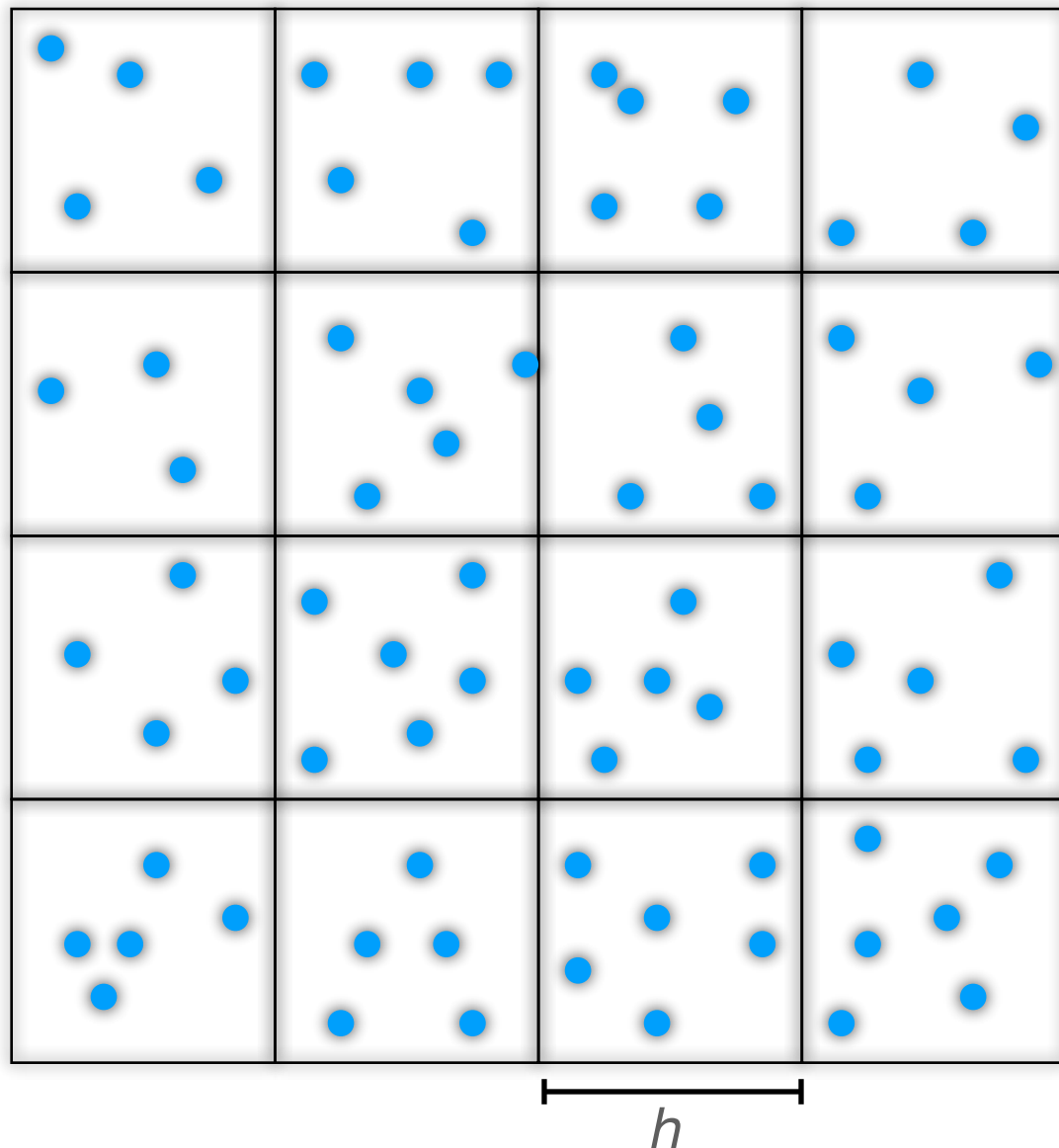
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So the density assignment function  $W$  is the convolution

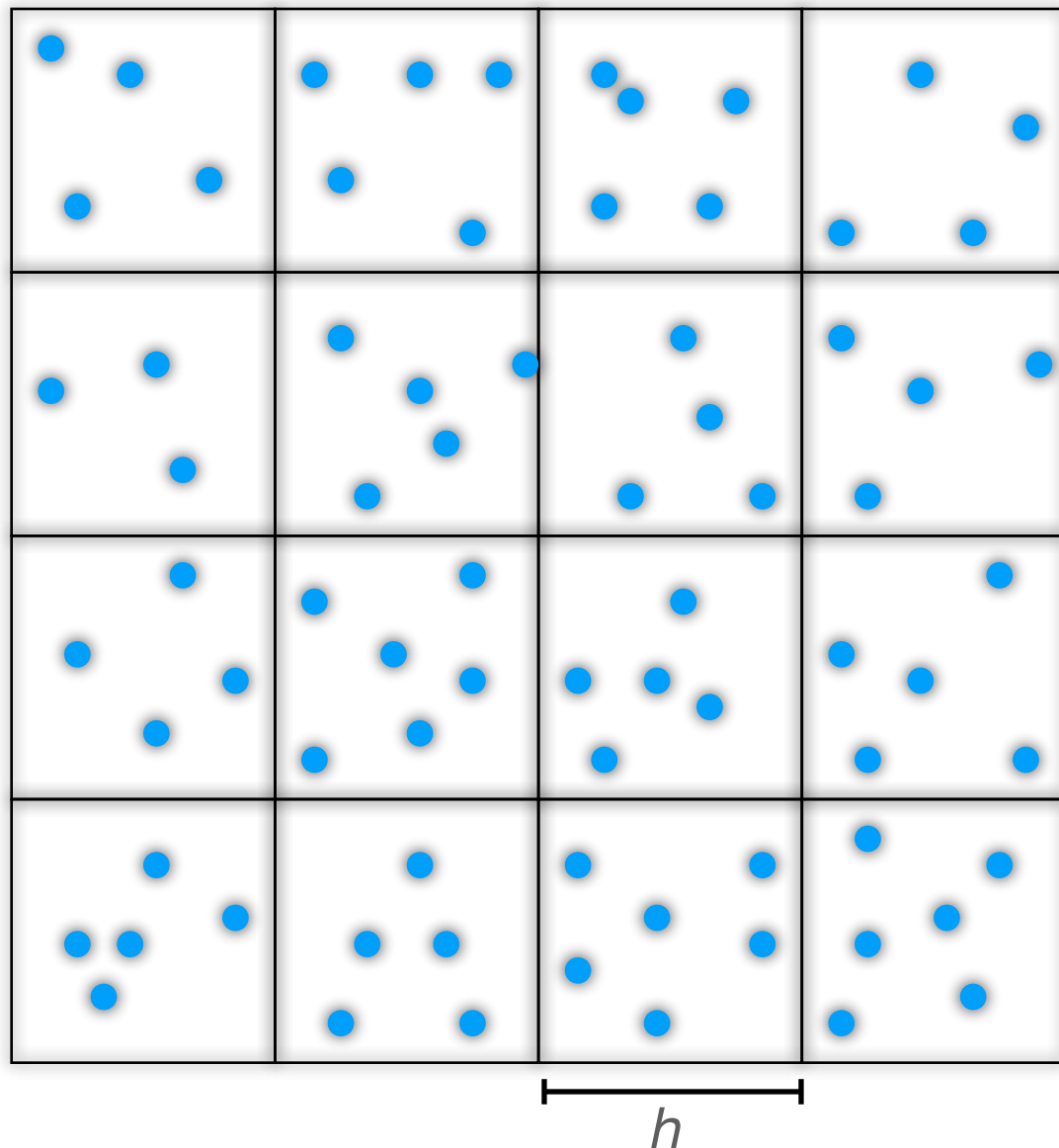
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$$W(\mathbf{x}_m - \mathbf{x}_i) = \int_{\mathbf{x}_m - \frac{h}{2}}^{\mathbf{x}_m + \frac{h}{2}} S(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_i) d\mathbf{x}' = \int \Pi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_m}{h}\right) S(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_i) d\mathbf{x}'$$



where we have defined:

$$\Pi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |x| \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

So the density assignment function  $W$  is the convolution

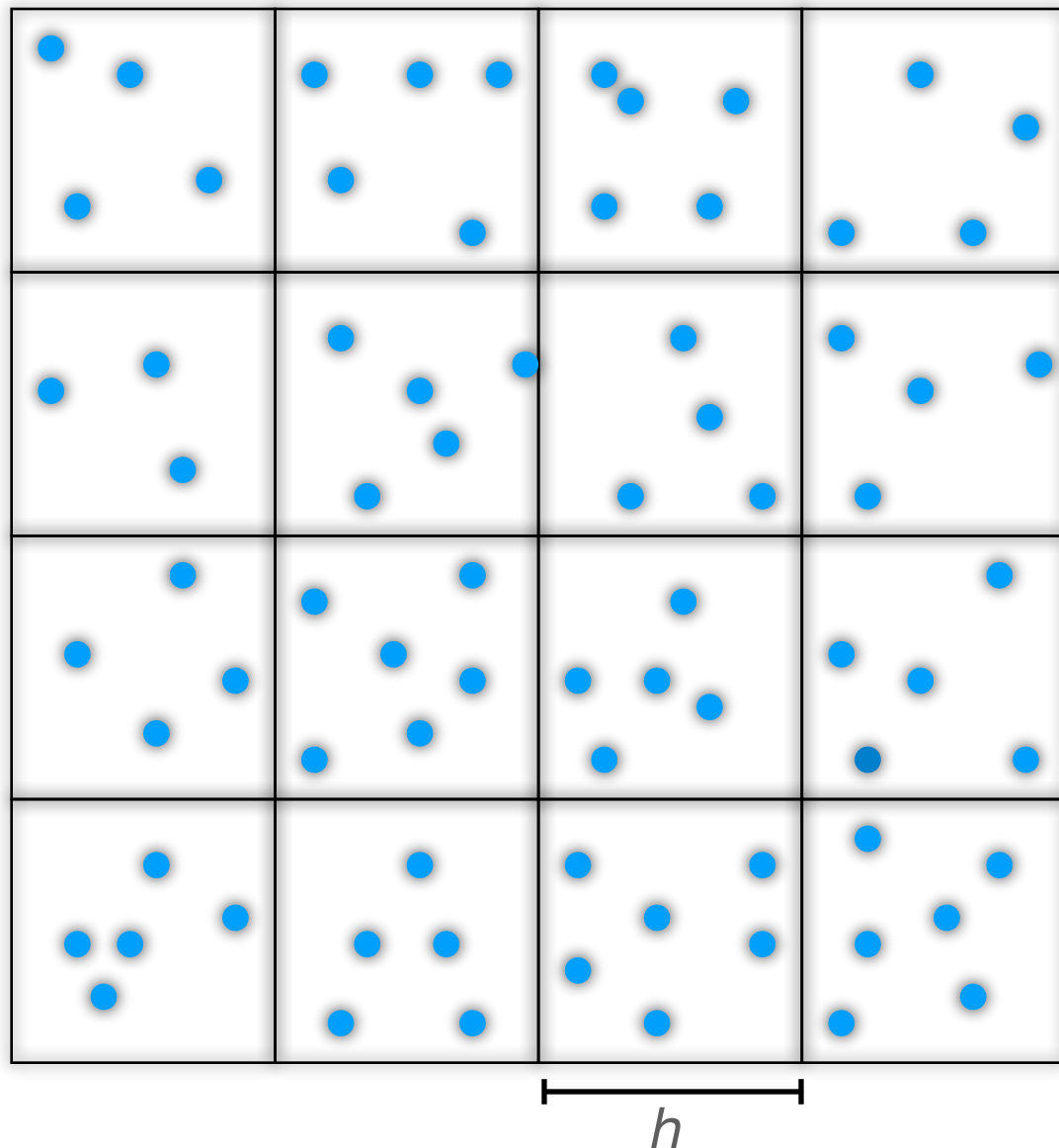
$$W(\mathbf{x}) = \Pi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{h}\right) \star S(\mathbf{x})$$

and the density on the grid is:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}_m) = \frac{1}{h^3} \sum_{i=1}^N m_i W(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_m)$$

# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

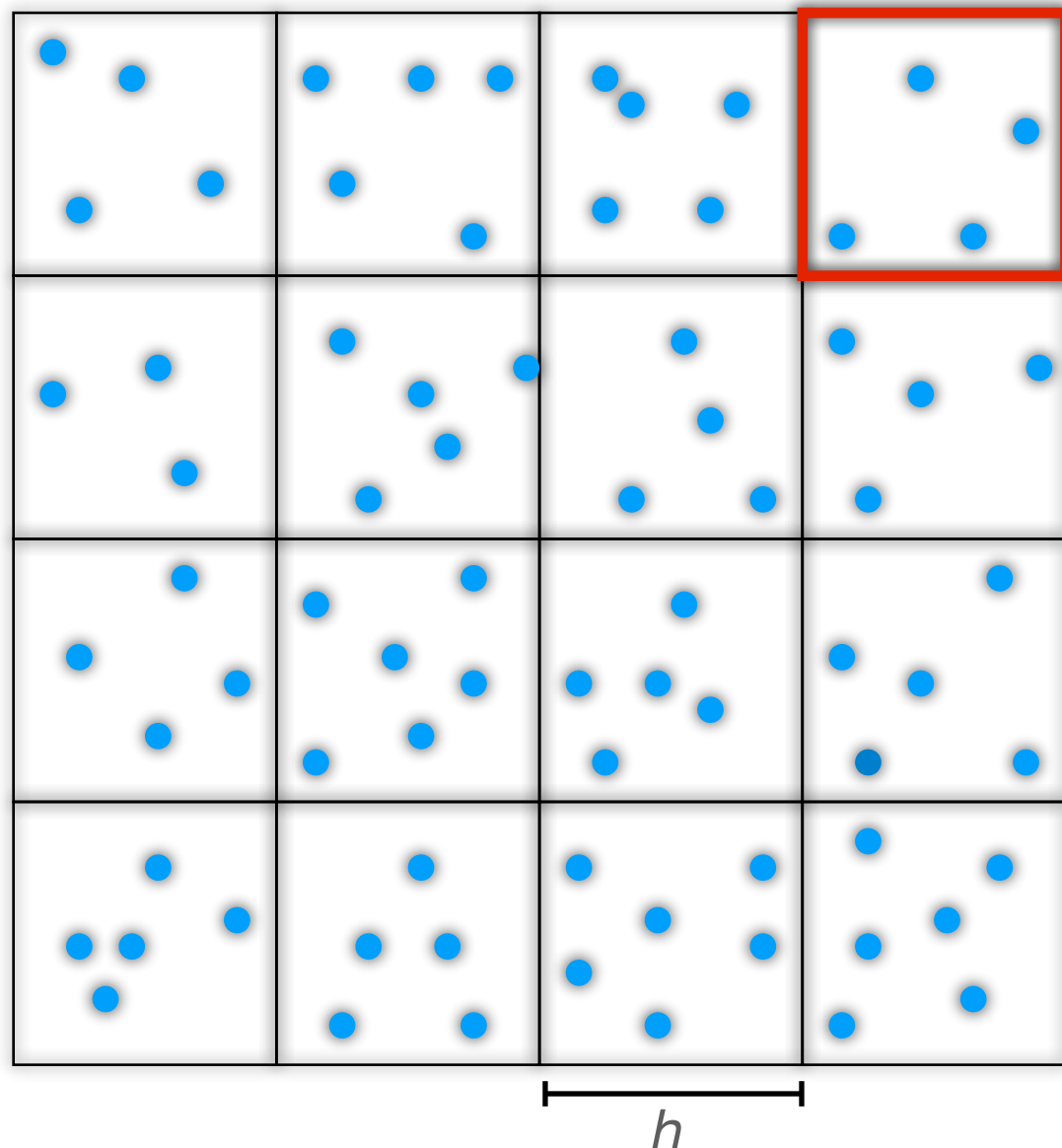
## Step A: Density assignment



# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

## Step A: Density assignment

Shape function: a Dirac delta  
A single particle contributes all its mass to the cell it belongs to  
Density in the cell  $\rho = 4 m / h^3$



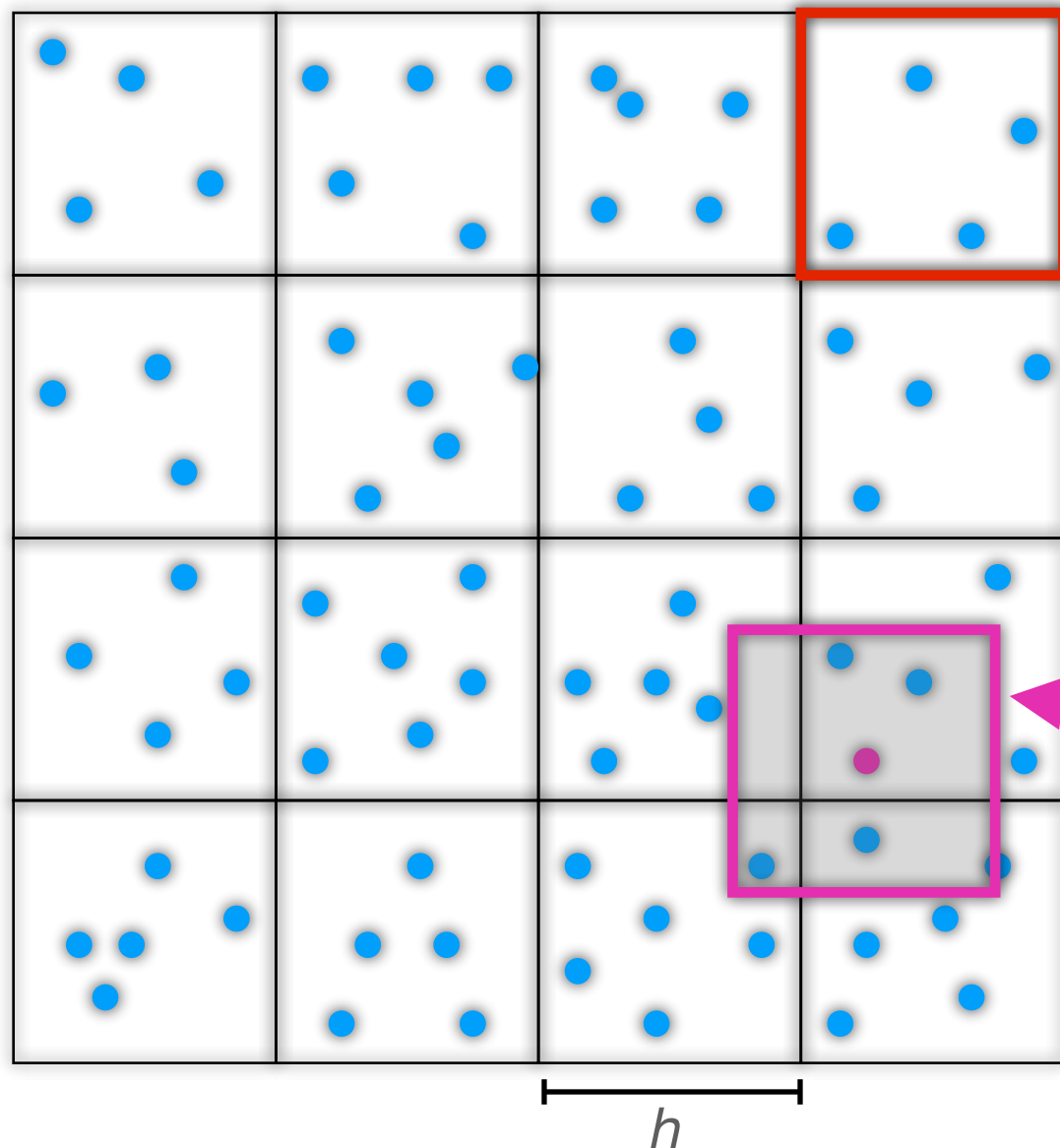
# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

## Step A: Density assignment

Shape function: a Dirac delta

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Shape function: a cubic volume of side  $h$   
A single particle contributes some mass to 8 different grid cells

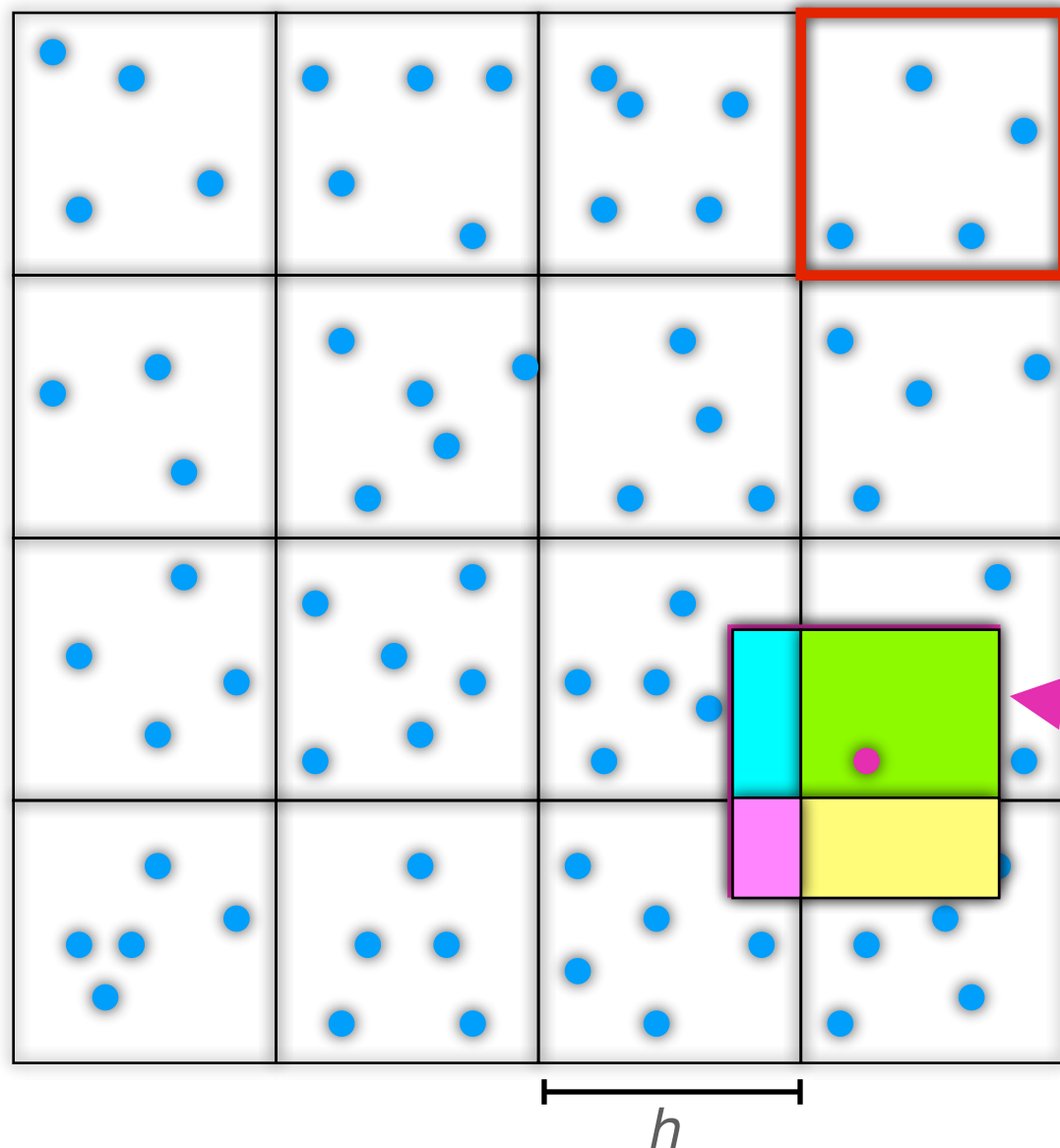
# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

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# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

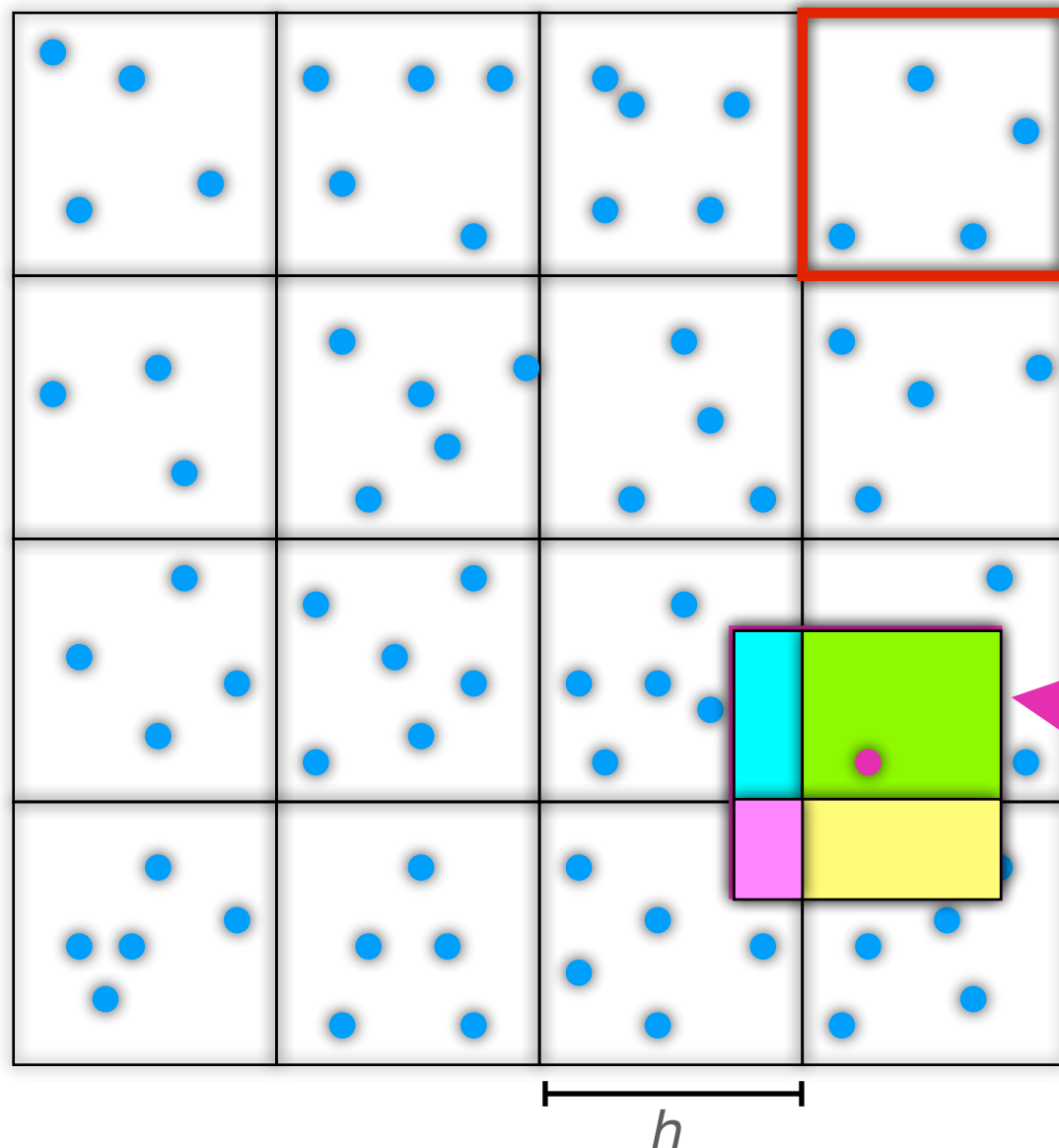
## Step A: Density assignment

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This is called Nearest-Grid-Point, or NGP



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# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

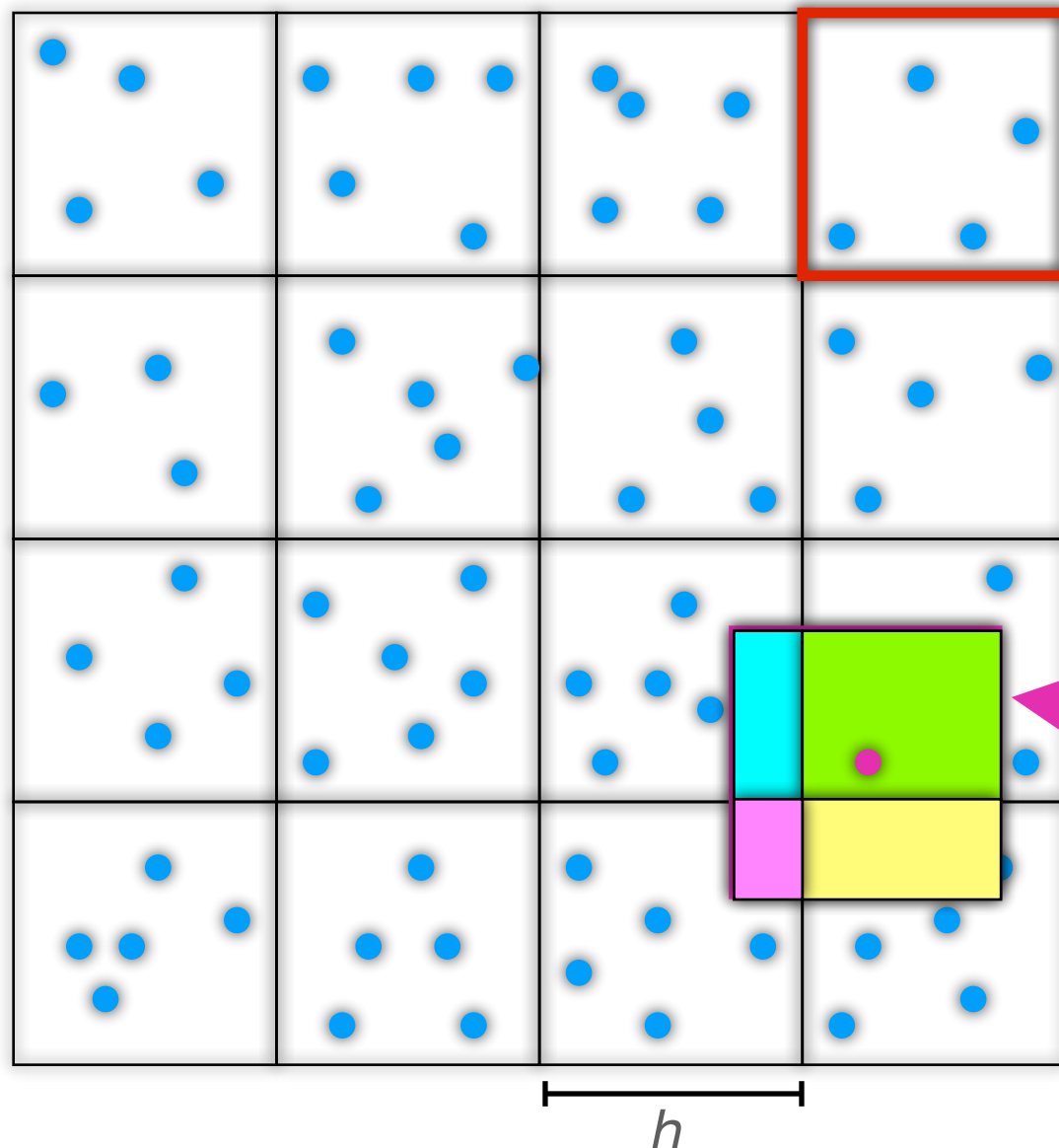
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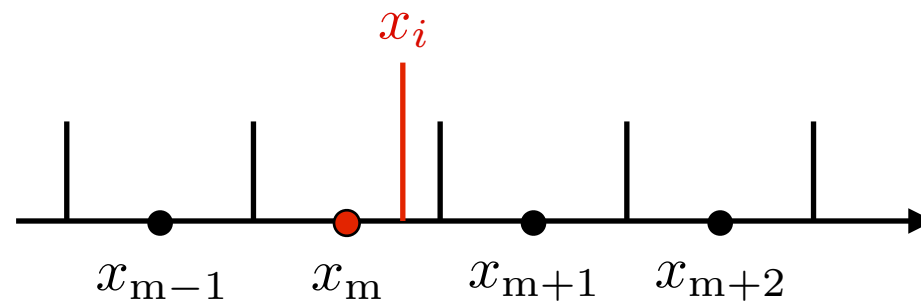
This is called Cloud-In-Cell, or CIC

# Solving gravity: PM mass assignment

## Step A: Density assignment

Some popular Shape Functions for the density assignment

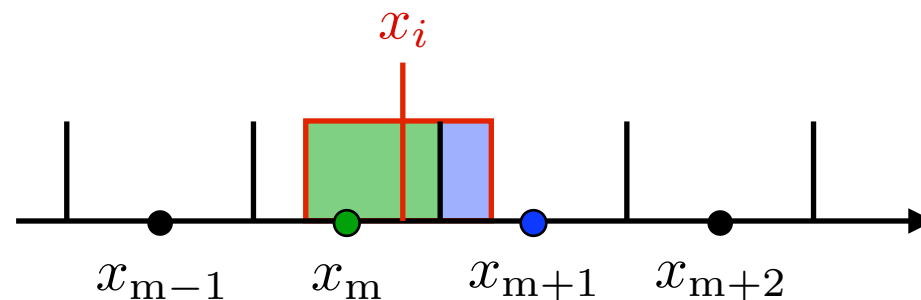
Nearest Grid Point  
NGP



Mass is distributed over  $D^1$  cells

Resulting density (and force)  
piecewise constant

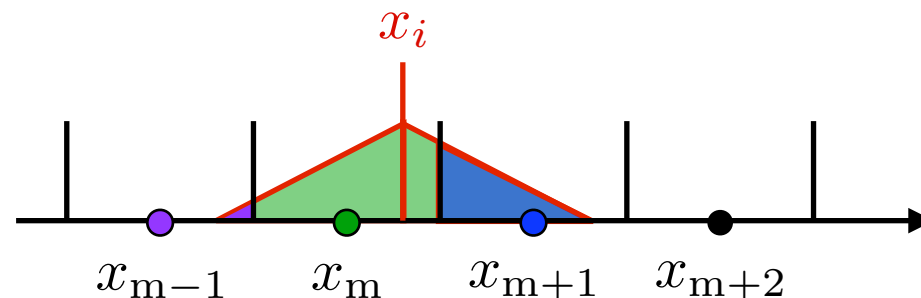
Clouds-In-Cell  
CIC



Mass is distributed over  $D^2$  cells

Resulting density (and force)  
piecewise linear and continuous

Triangular Shaped Cloud  
TSC



Mass is distributed over  $D^3$  cells

Resulting density (and force)  
have continuous first derivative

For the force assignment (step D), the same assignment function used for step A needs to be used **to ensure momentum conservation**.

# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

## Step B: Potential Computation

Once the density field in real space has been obtained, in order to compute the gravitational potential **we first need to get its Fourier transform**. If we assume a **periodic** density field in a cubic box of size  $L$ , this can be expressed as a Fourier series:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \rho_{\mathbf{k}} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{k} \in \frac{2\pi}{L} \begin{pmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

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One can do the same thing for the potential

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \Phi_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$



# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

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One can do the same thing for the potential

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \Phi_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$

and after substitution, the Poisson equation reads:

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho(\mathbf{x}) \Rightarrow \nabla^2 \left( \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \Phi_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \right) = 4\pi G \left( \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \rho_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \right)$$

# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

## Step B: Potential Computation

The derivative on the LHS can be easily performed:

$$\sum_{\mathbf{k}} \left( -k^2 \Phi_k \right) e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} = 4\pi G \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \rho_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$

# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

## Step B: Potential Computation

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As the equality must hold for each Fourier mode  $\mathbf{k}$ , this gives the solution for the gravitational potential in Fourier space:

$$\Phi_k = -\frac{4\pi G}{k^2} \rho_k$$

# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

## Step B: Potential Computation

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$$\Phi_k = -\frac{4\pi G}{k^2} \rho_k$$

From which we see that the Green's function for the Poisson's equation with periodic boundary conditions is given by:

$$g_k = -\frac{4\pi G}{k^2}$$

# Solving gravity: PM potential computation

## Step B: Potential Computation

We can now Fourier transform back the gravitational potential to real space, and have a potential field defined in each of the grid cells.

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\Phi_k) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_m)$$

We can now compute the forces at the cells' centers...



# Solving gravity: PM force computation

## Step C: Force Computation

Once the gravitational potential in real space is known, one has to compute the force field in each of the grid cells. This is done by approximating the force field by finite differencing:

$$\mathbf{f} = -\nabla(\Phi)$$

# Solving gravity: PM force computation

## Step C: Force Computation

Once the gravitational potential in real space is known, one has to compute the force field in each of the grid cells. This is done by approximating the force field by finite differencing:

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Possible finite differencing schemes:

2nd order:

$$f_{i,j,k}^{(x)} = -\frac{\Phi_{i+1,j,k} - \Phi_{i-1,j,k}}{2h}$$

# Solving gravity: PM force computation

## Step C: Force Computation

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Possible finite differencing schemes:

2nd order:

$$f_{i,j,k}^{(x)} = -\frac{\Phi_{i+1,j,k} - \Phi_{i-1,j,k}}{2h}$$

4th order:

$$f_{i,j,k}^{(x)} = -\frac{4}{3} \frac{\Phi_{i+1,j,k} - \Phi_{i-1,j,k}}{2h} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{\Phi_{i+2,j,k} - \Phi_{i-2,j,k}}{4h}$$

# Solving gravity: PM force computation

## Step D: Force assignment

Once the force field on the grid cells in real space is known, in order to evolve the particles system one needs to compute the forces (or the accelerations) on the particles' positions.

# Solving gravity: PM force computation

## Step D: Force assignment

Once the force field on the grid cells in real space is known, in order to evolve the particles system one needs to compute the forces (or the accelerations) on the particles' positions.

This is done by interpolation:

$$F(\mathbf{x}_i) = \sum_{\mathbf{m}} W(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{m}}) f_{\mathbf{m}}$$

where **the same interpolation kernel  $W$  that was used for the density assignment in Step A MUST be used** to ensure for momentum conservation



# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

## Advantages and disadvantages of the PM method

# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

## Advantages and disadvantages of the PM method

The main **advantage** of the PM method is that it is FAST and SIMPLE, complexity scales like  $N$

# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

## Advantages and disadvantages of the PM method

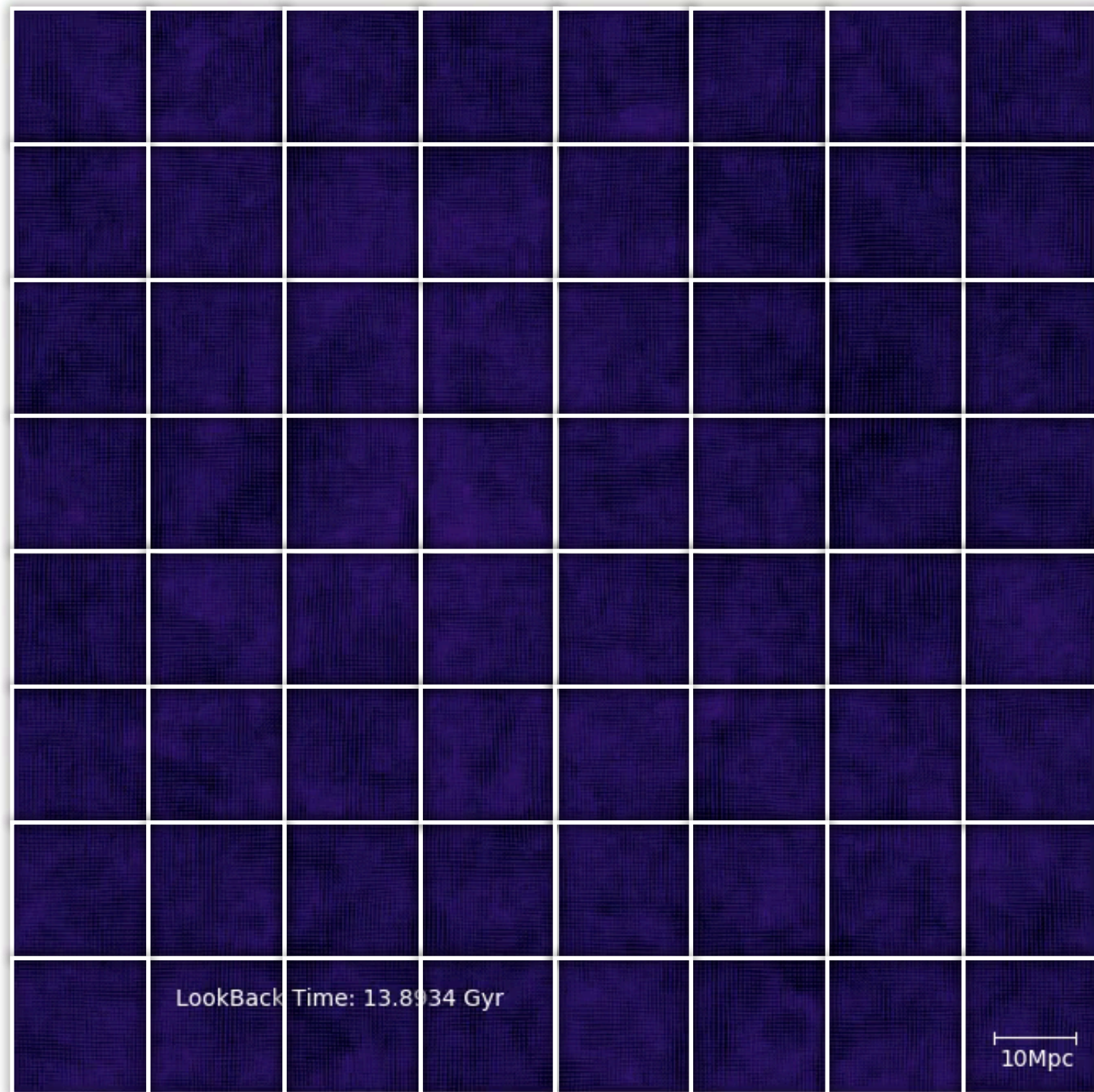
The main **advantage** of the PM method is that it is FAST and SIMPLE, complexity scales like  $N$

The main **disadvantage** of the PM algorithm is the fact that the **spatial resolution is limited to the mesh size** ( $h$  in our examples).

This is a very serious problem for astrophysical and (most importantly) for cosmological simulations, where the dynamic range of the problem is large: systems of interest may be unresolved as they cluster below the mesh scale

# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

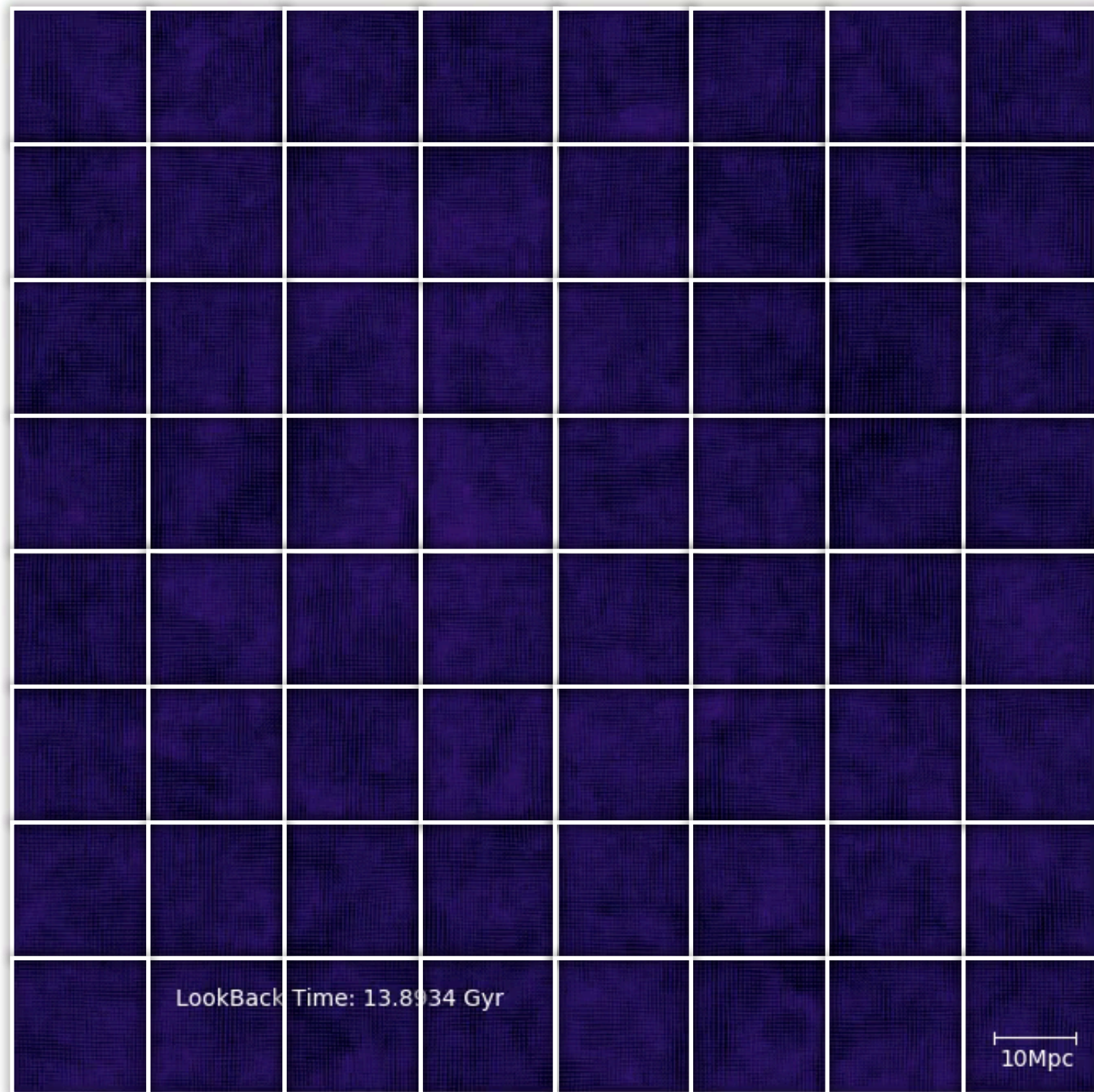
## Advantages and disadvantages of the PM method





# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

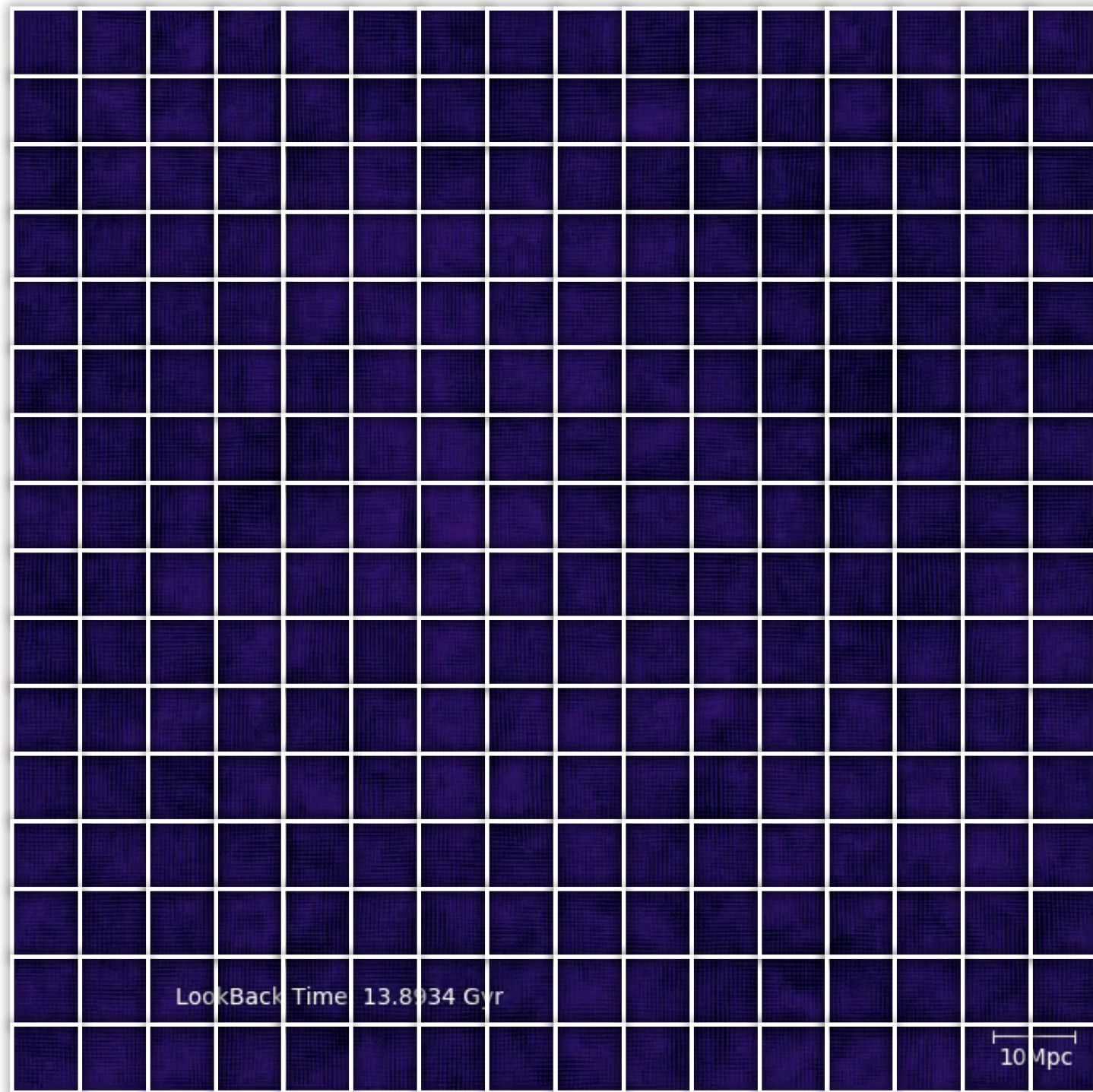
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# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

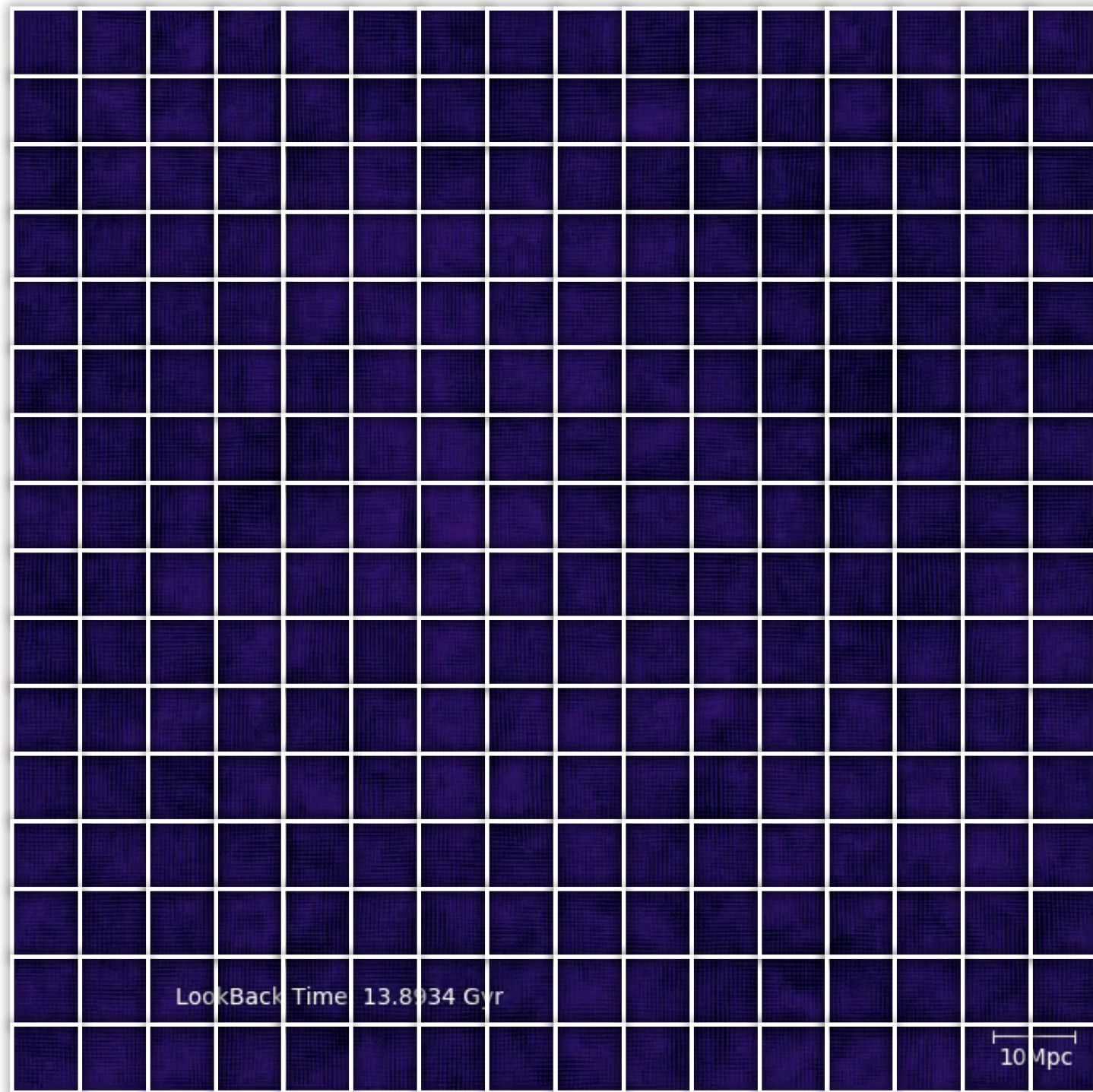
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# Solving gravity: the Particle-Mesh method

## Advantages and disadvantages of the PM method



How?

Solving gravity: Tree methods

# Solving gravity: the Tree method

A different method to solve the N-body problem is the so-called **Tree algorithm**: the simulation domain is recursively divided into sub-domains (tree nodes) forming the different levels of a hierarchical tree structure.

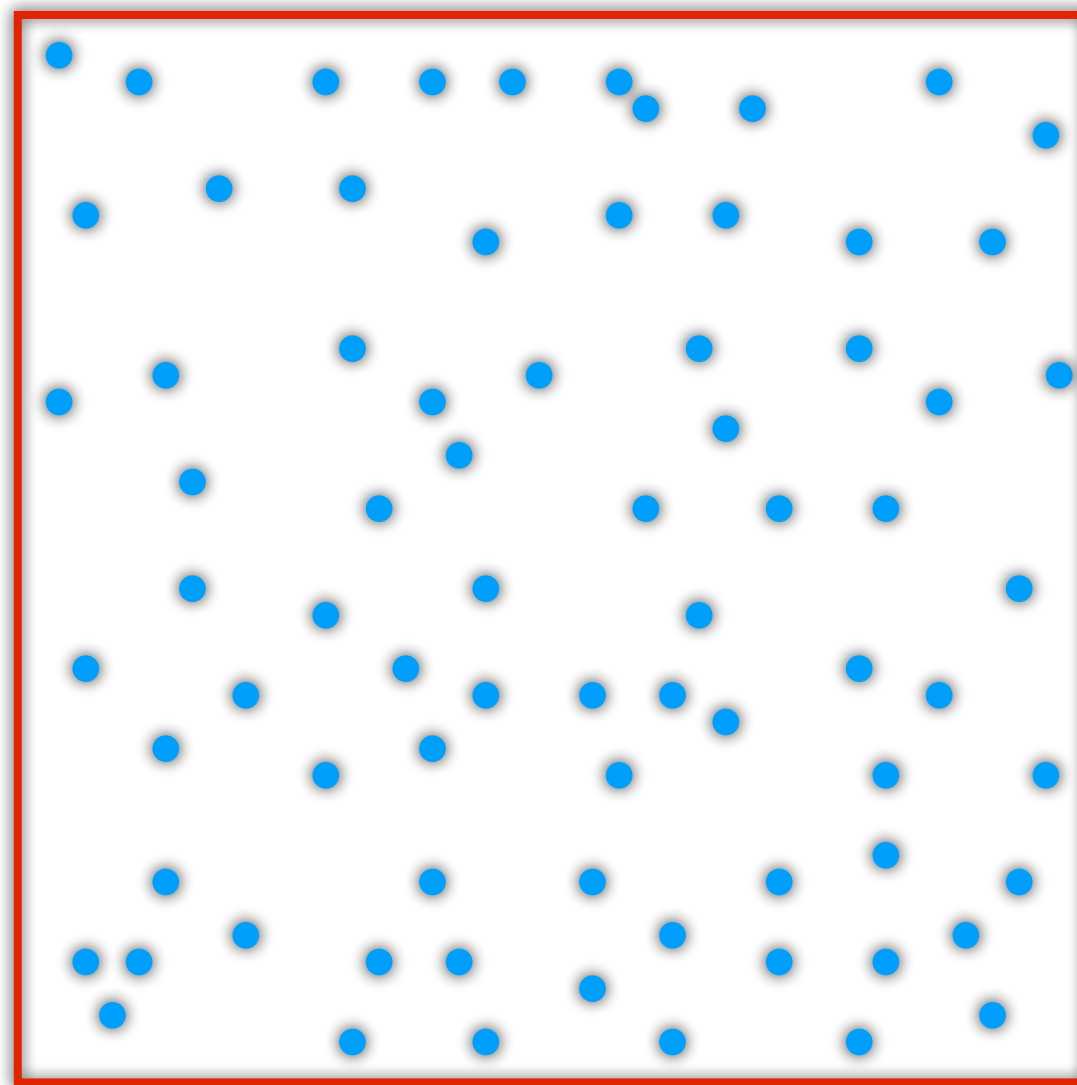
# Solving gravity: the Tree method

A different method to solve the N-body problem is the so-called **Tree algorithm**: the simulation domain is recursively divided into sub-domains (tree nodes) forming the different levels of a hierarchical tree structure.

The main goal of such procedure is to **group distant particles together in the potential calculations and approximate their gravitational potential with a multipole expansion**. This reduces the complexity of the algorithm to  $O(N \log[N])$ .

# Solving gravity: the Tree method

Basic structure of a hierarchical tree:

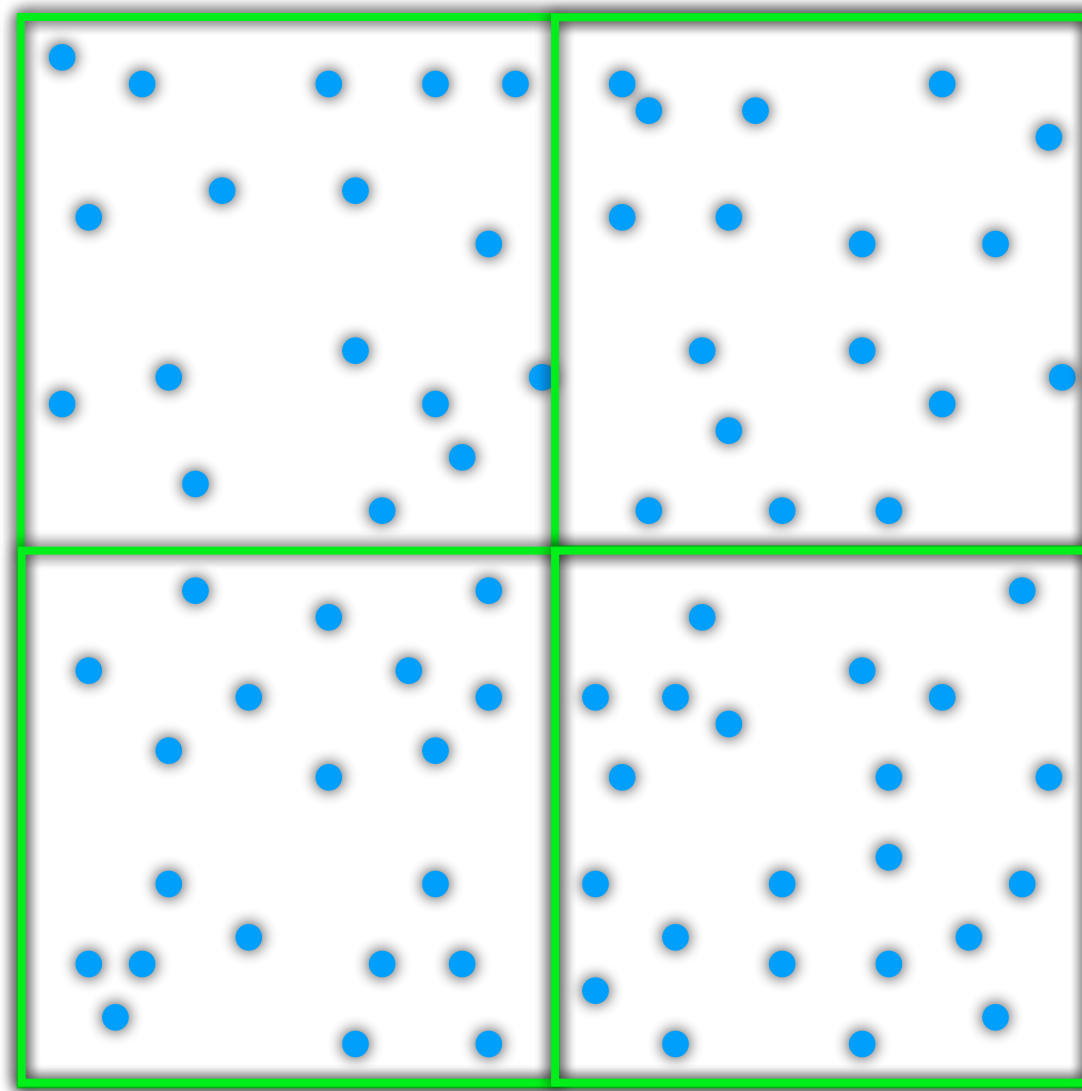


**ROOT node**  
(the entire simulation domain)



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

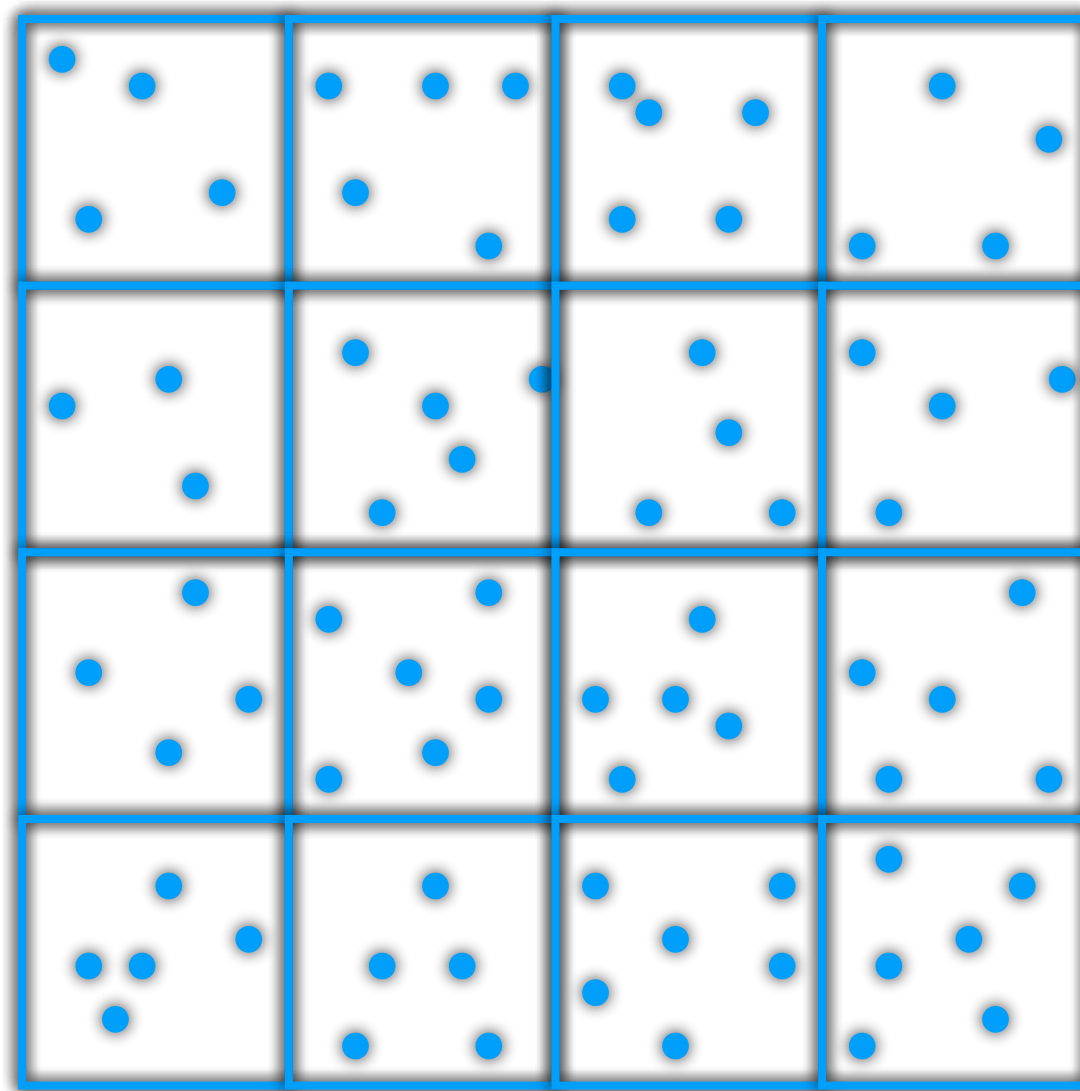
Basic structure of a hierarchical tree:



**CHILD nodes - level 1**  
**(1/8th of the simulation domain)**

# Solving gravity: the Tree method

Basic structure of a hierarchical tree:



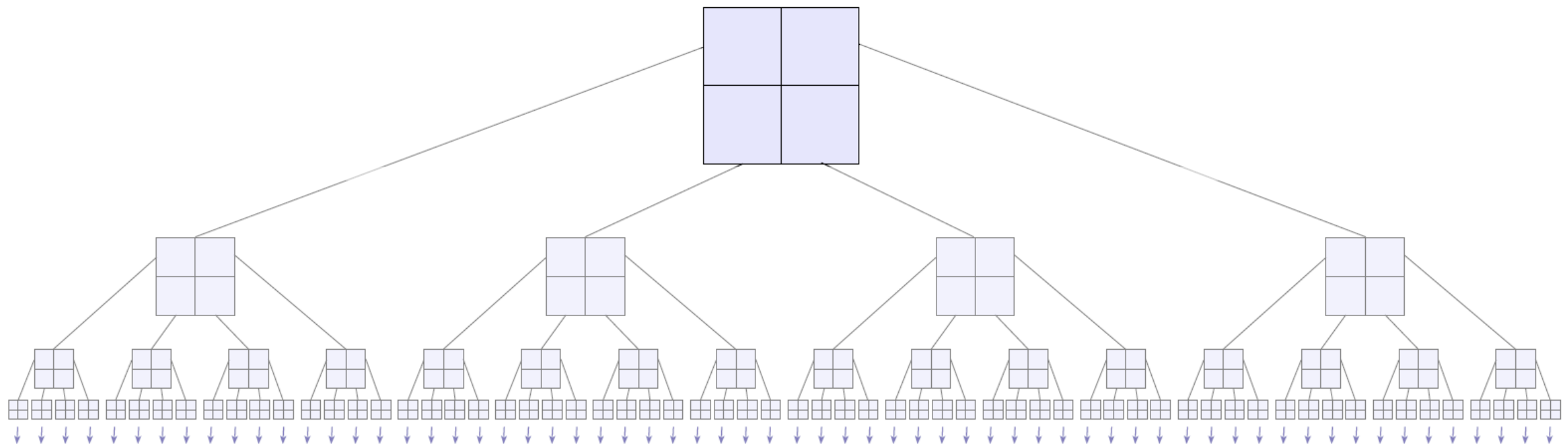
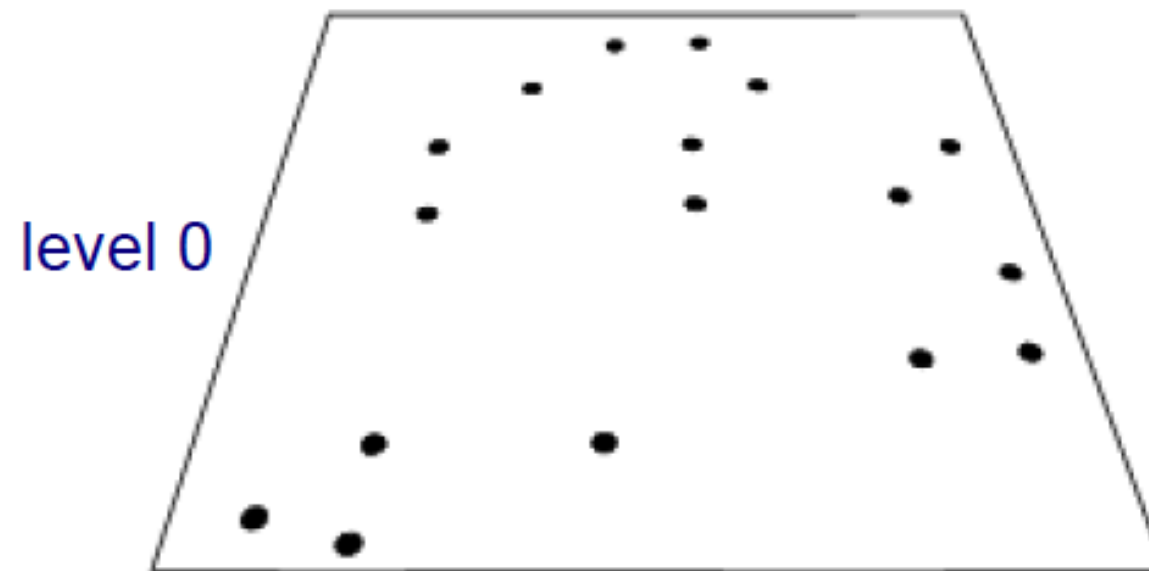
And so on until child nodes have at most 1 particle

**CHILD nodes - level 2**  
(1/64th of the simulation domain)

# Solving gravity: the Tree method

This results in a Tree structure of the nodes:

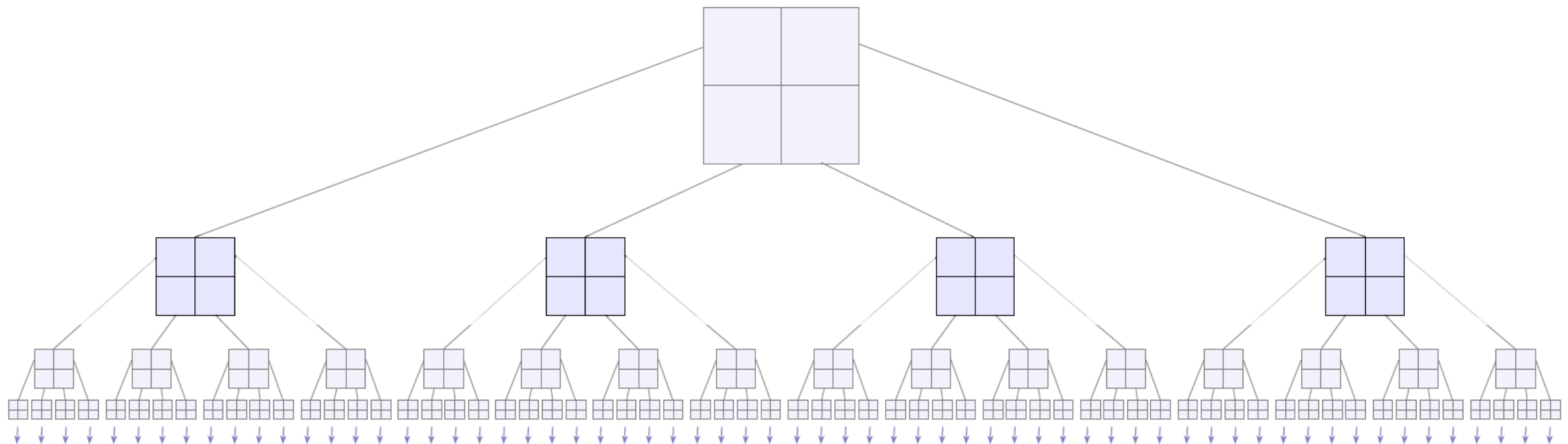
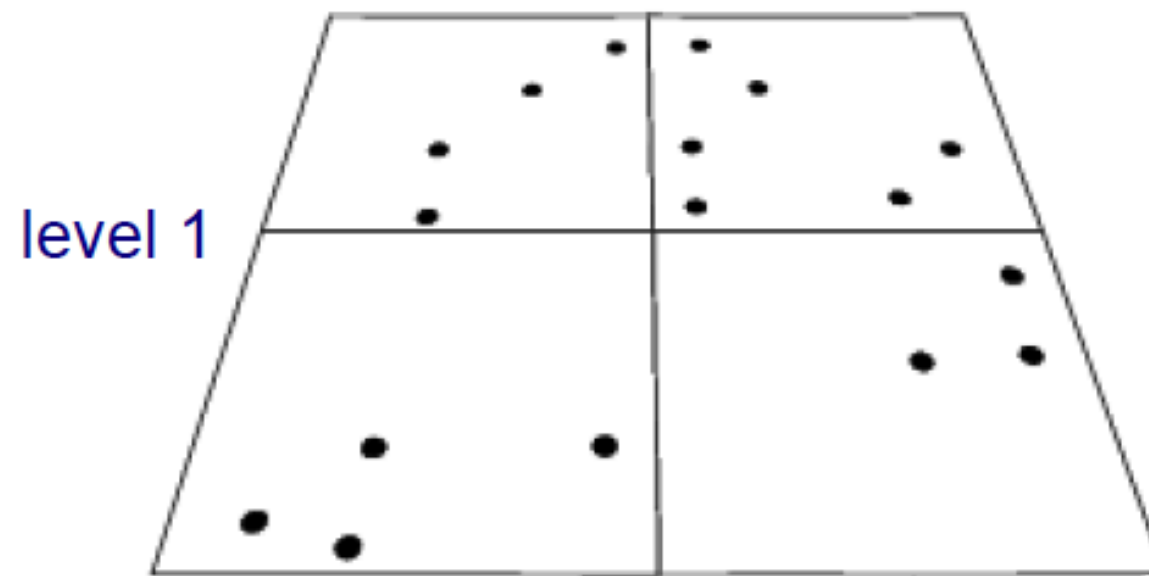
Figure from  
V. Springel



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

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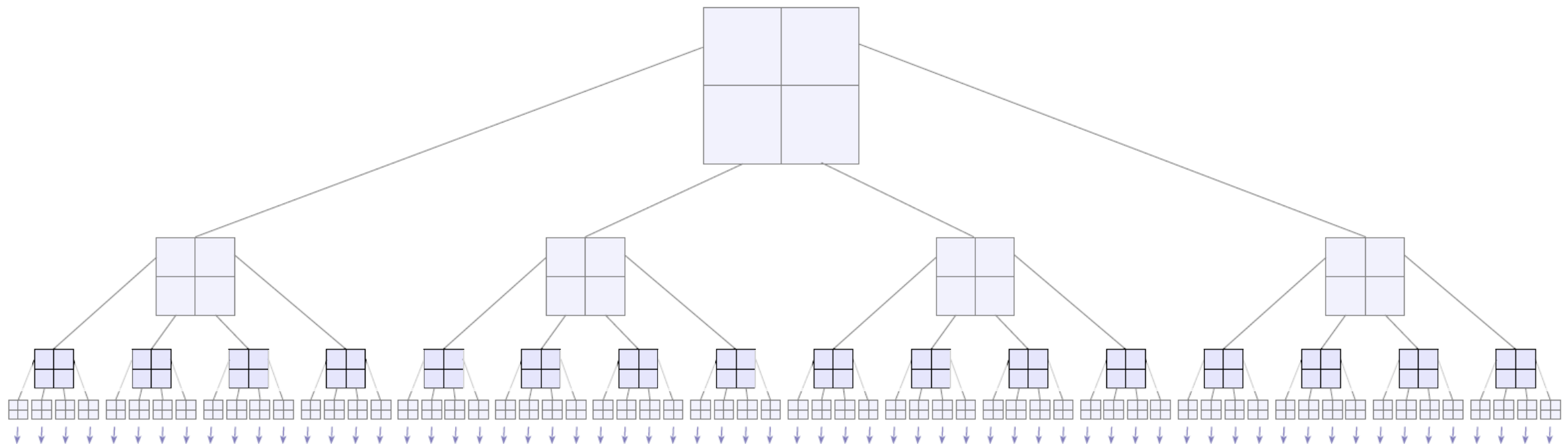
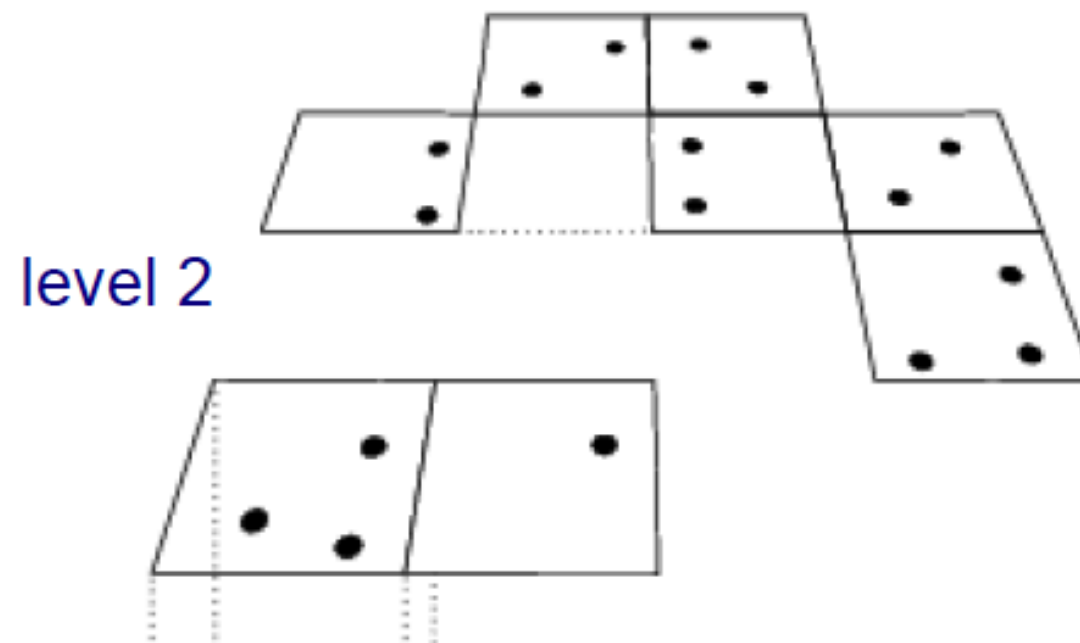
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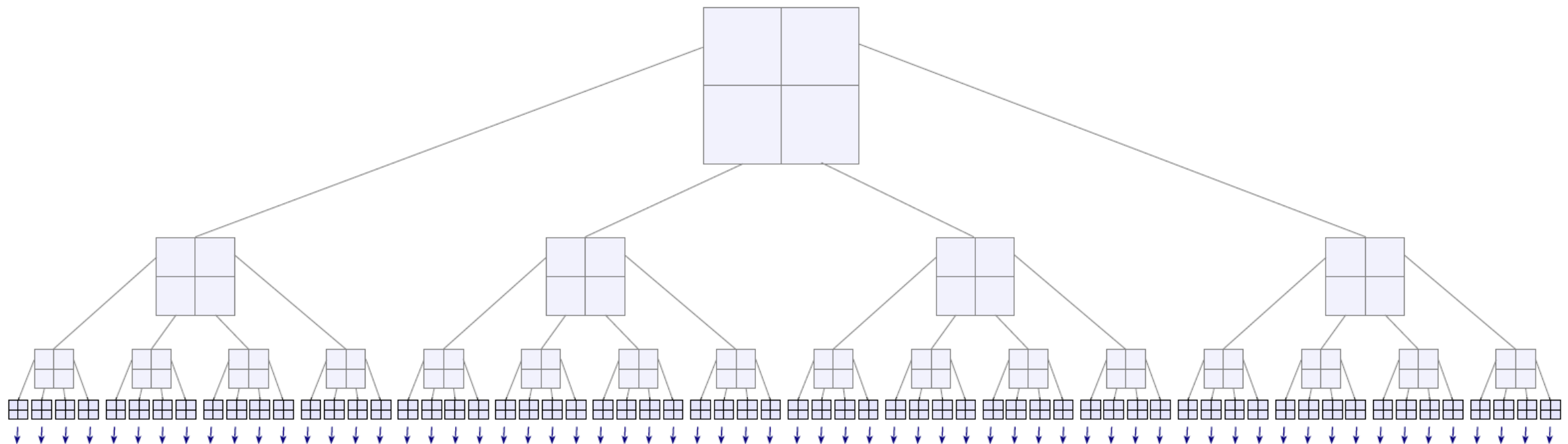
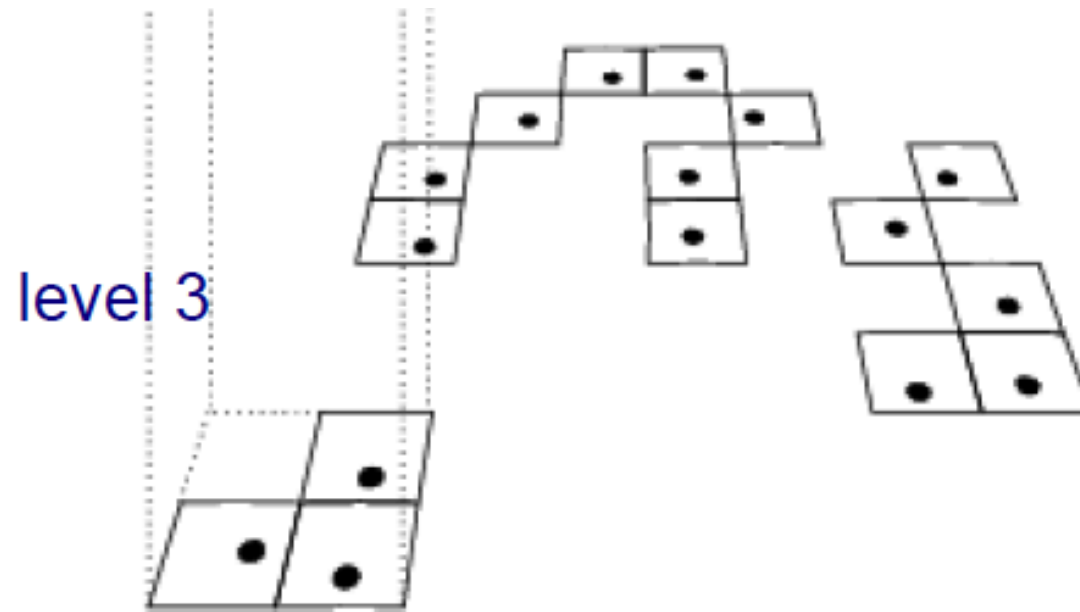
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# Solving gravity: the Tree method

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V. Springel





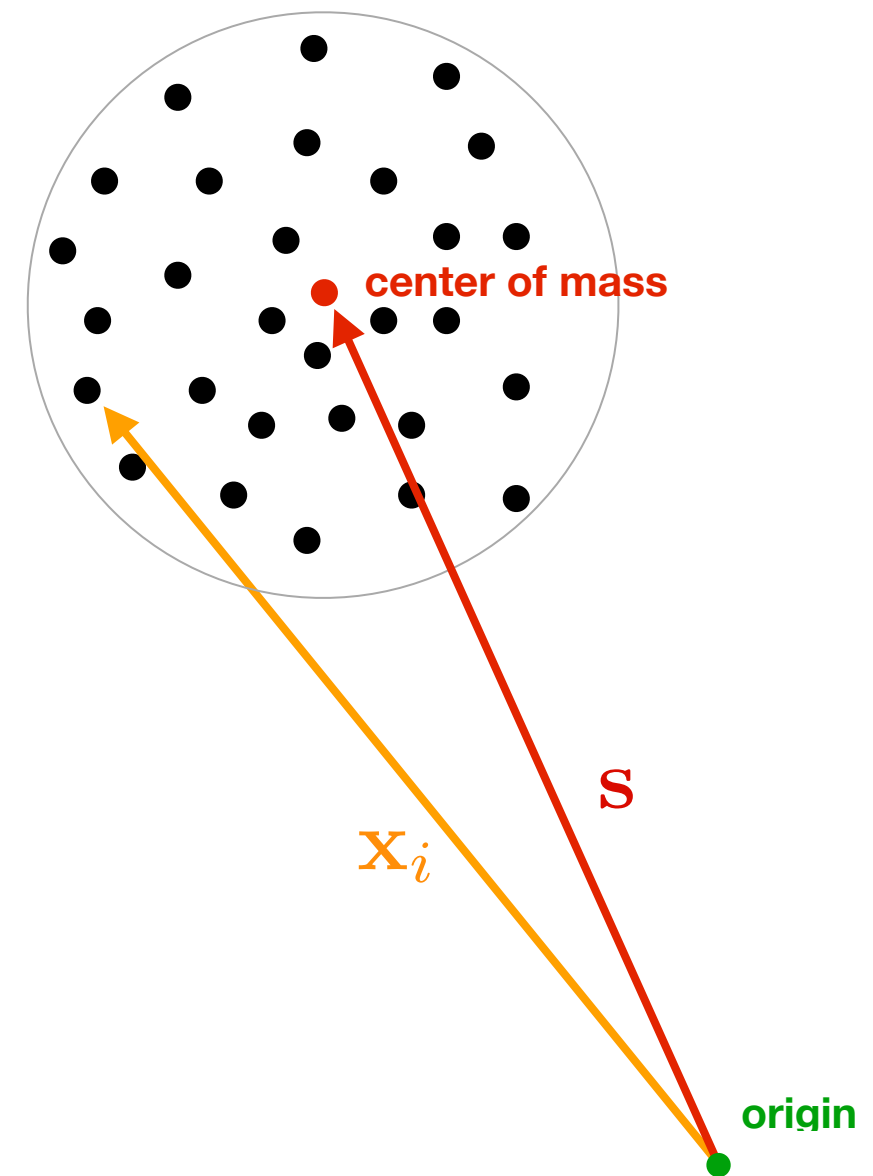
# Solving gravity: the Tree method

Why is the tree advantageous?

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Why is the tree advantageous?

Consider a group of particles at positions  $x_i$  with their center of mass at position  $s$ .

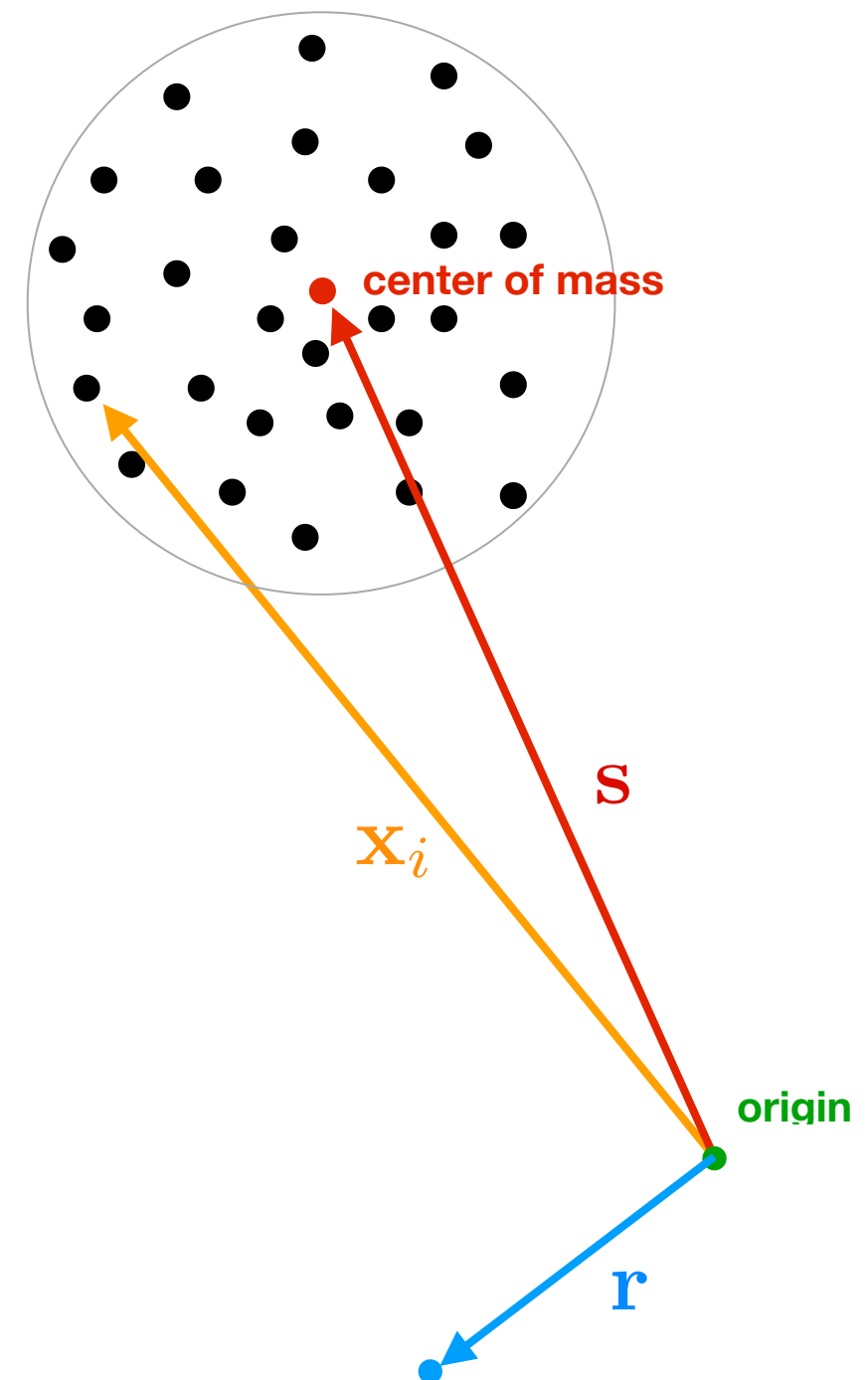


# Solving gravity: the Tree method

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Consider a group of particles at positions  $x_i$  with their center of mass at position  $s$ .

We want to compute their resulting gravitational potential on the target particle at position  $r$



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

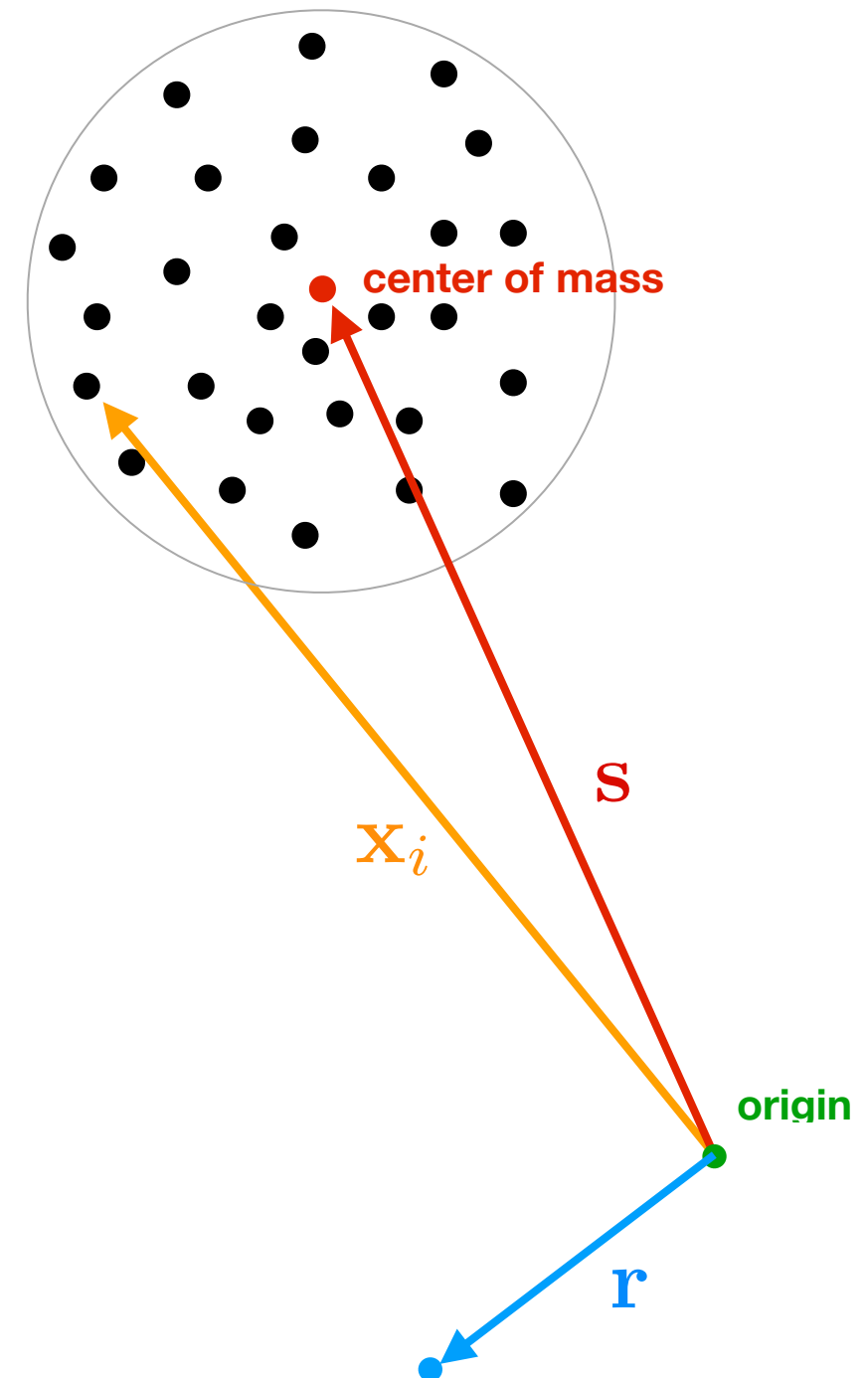
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So, we want to compute:

$$\Phi(\mathbf{r}) = -G \sum_i \frac{m_i}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x}_i|}$$



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

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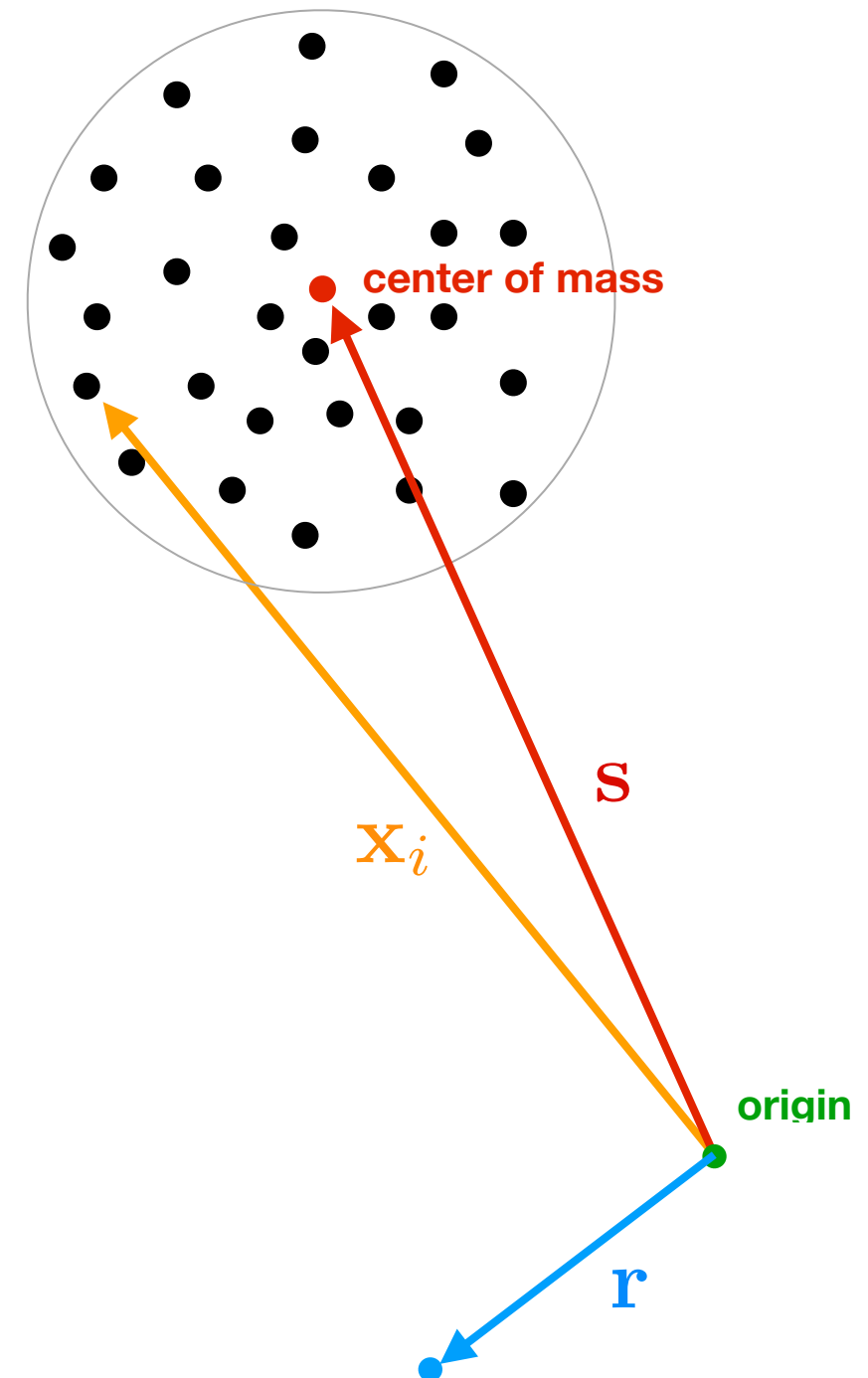
$$\Phi(\mathbf{r}) = -G \sum_i \frac{m_i}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x}_i|}$$

we can expand the factor:

$$\frac{1}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x}_i|} = \frac{1}{|(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{s}) - (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{s})|}$$

for

$$|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{s}| \ll |\mathbf{y}| \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{y} \equiv \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{s}$$

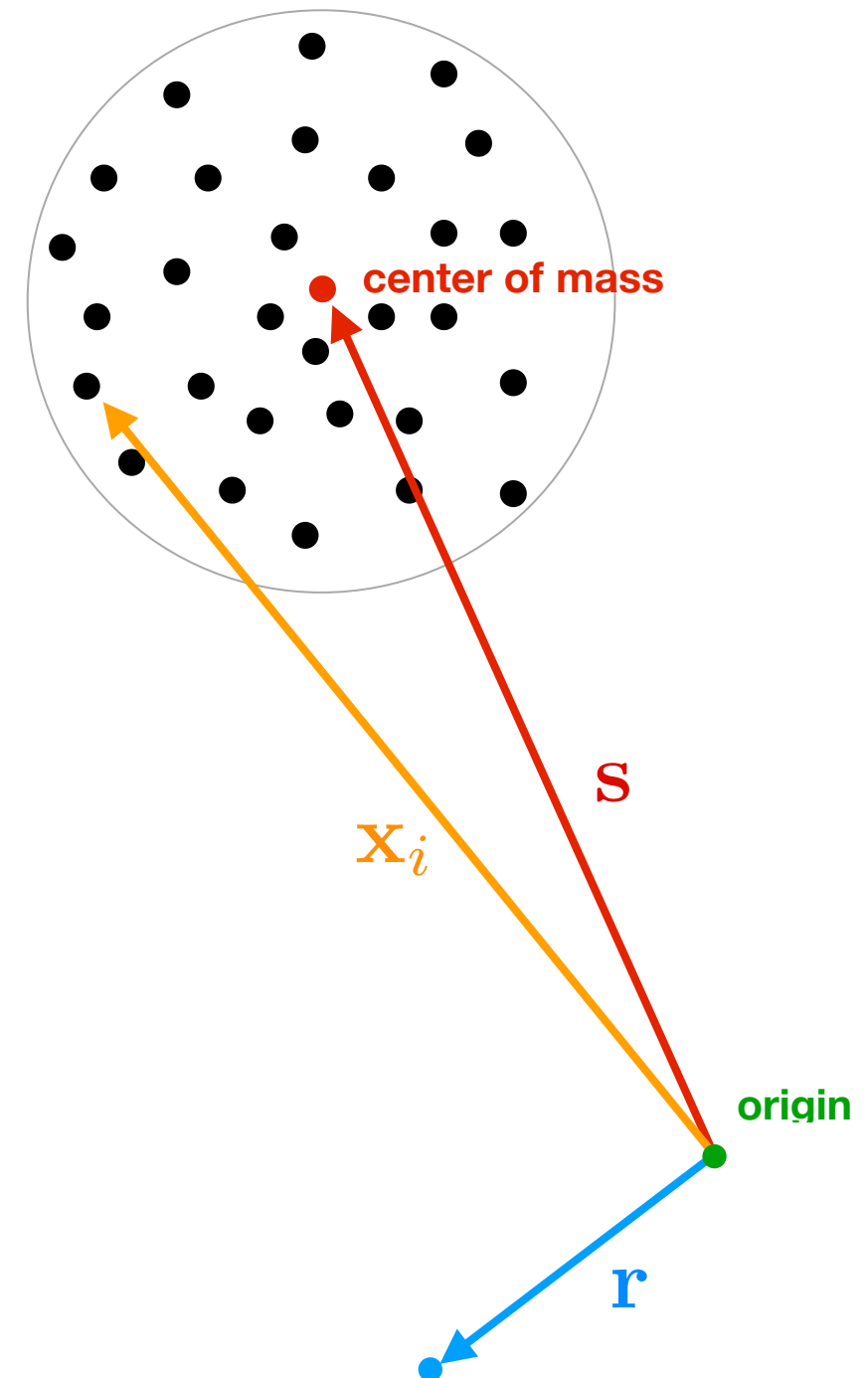


# Solving gravity: the Tree method

Why is the tree advantageous?

One gets (with some tedious calculations):

$$\frac{1}{|\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i|} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{y}|} - \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot (\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)}{|\mathbf{y}|^3} +$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{y}^T \left[ 3(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)^T - \mathbf{I}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)^2 \right] \mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|^5} + \dots$$





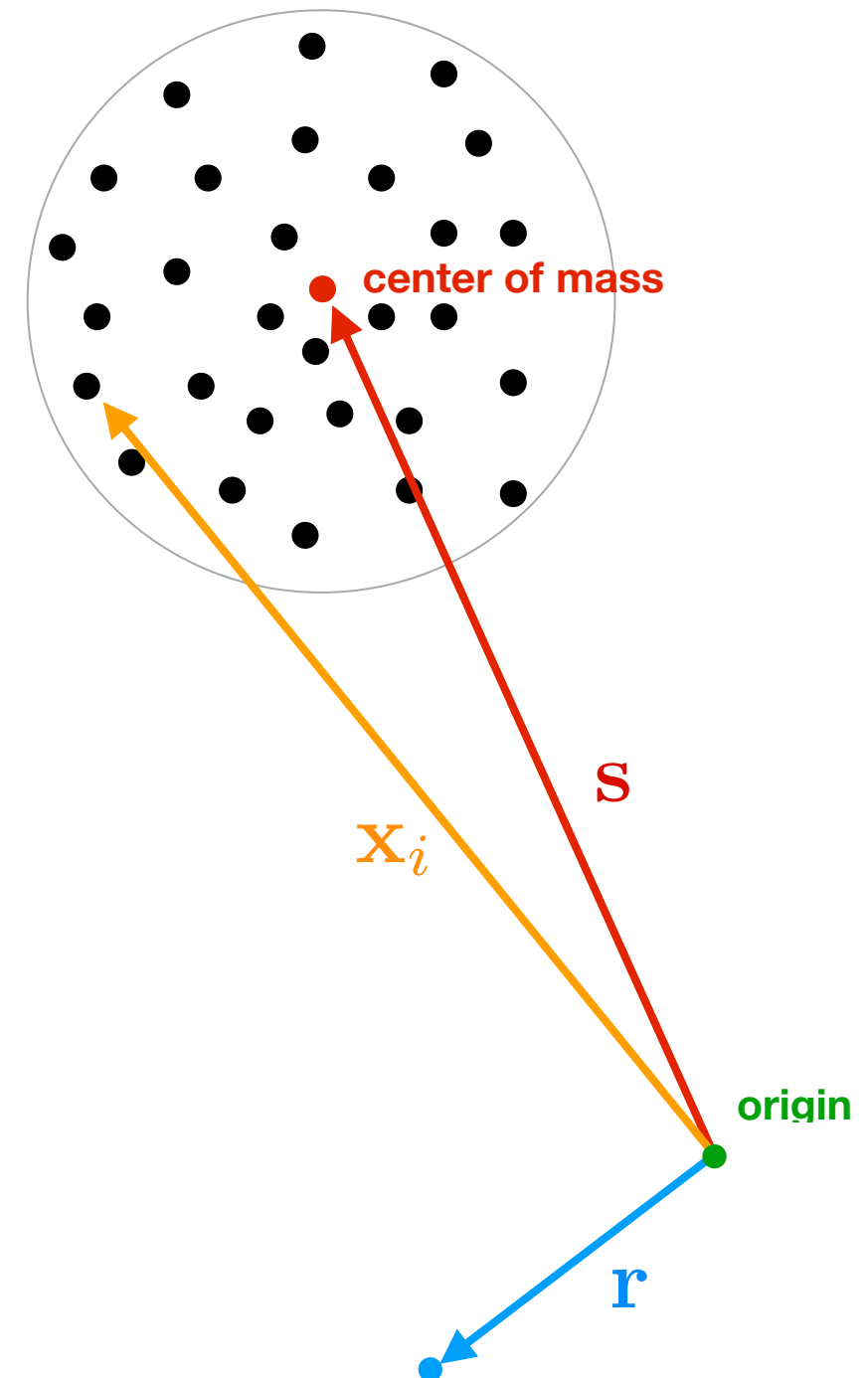
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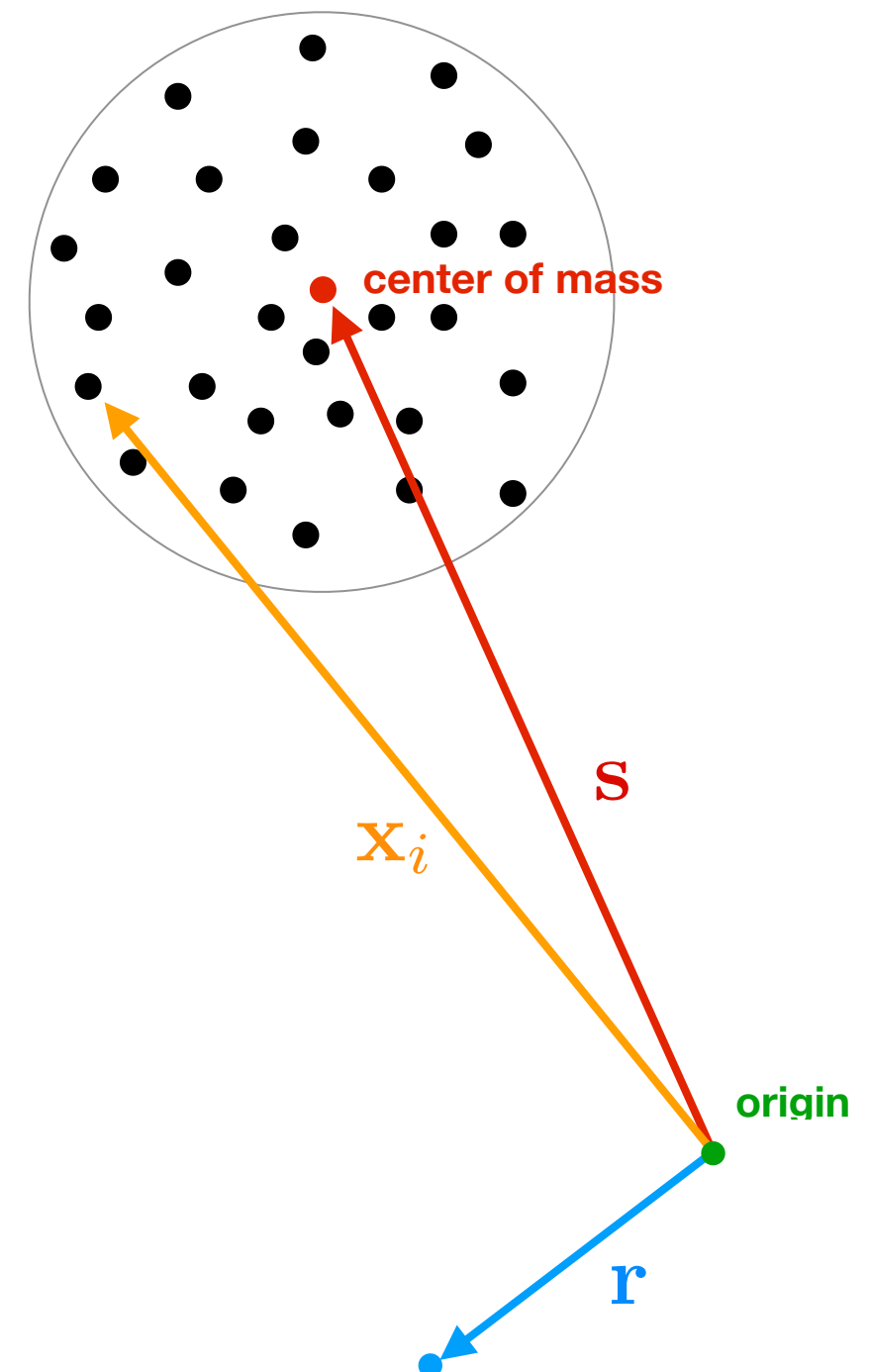
**vanishes when summed  
over all nodes particles**

$$\frac{1}{|\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i|} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{y}|} \left( -\frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot (\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)}{|\mathbf{y}|^3} + \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{y}^T \left[ 3(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)^T - \mathbf{I}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}_i)^2 \right] \mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|^5} + \dots \right)$$



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

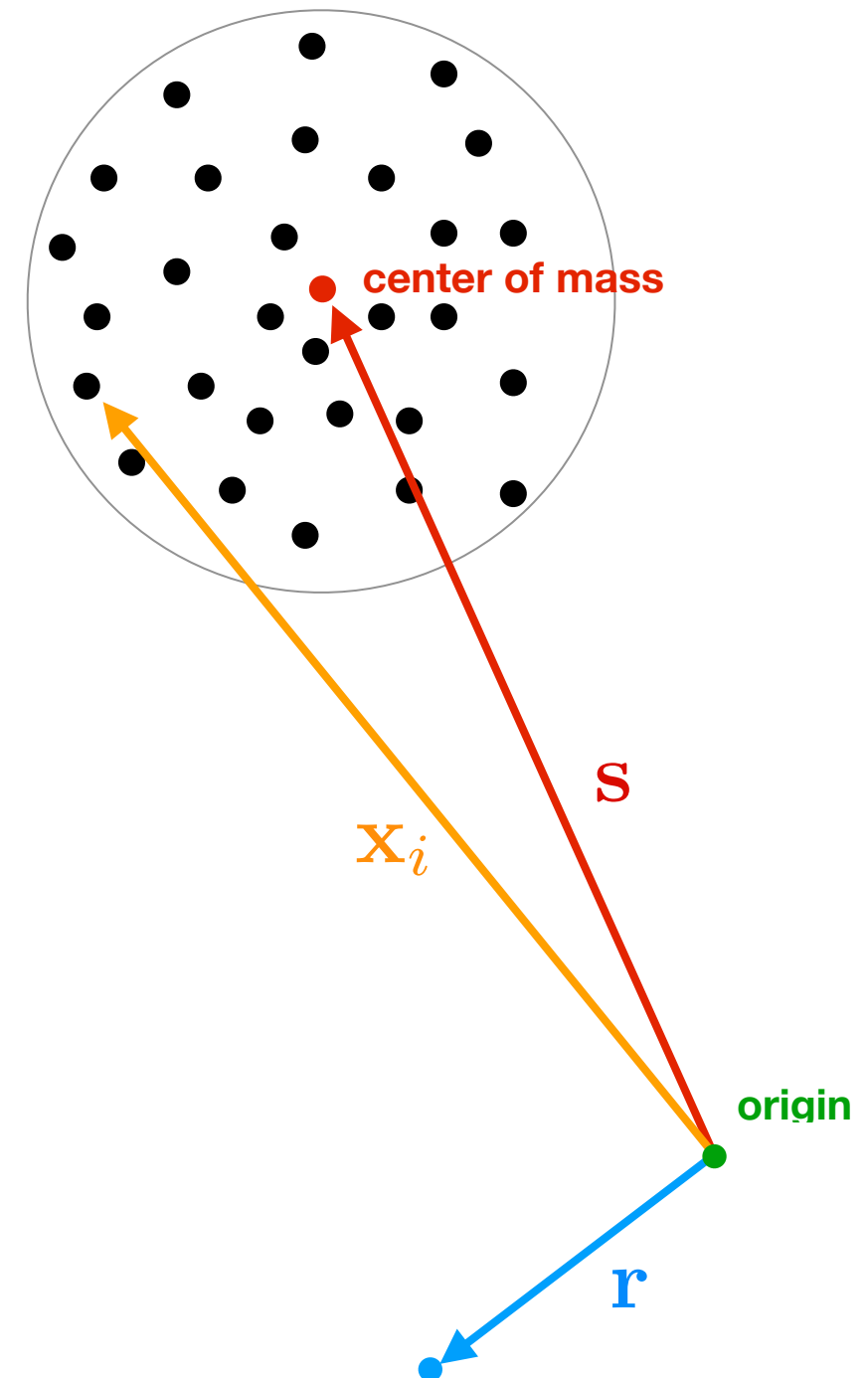
Why is the tree advantageous?



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

Why is the tree advantageous?

The group of particles can correspond to a particular Tree node



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

Why is the tree advantageous?

The group of particles can correspond to a particular Tree node

So the following multipole moments can be computed and stored for all tree nodes:

- Monopole:

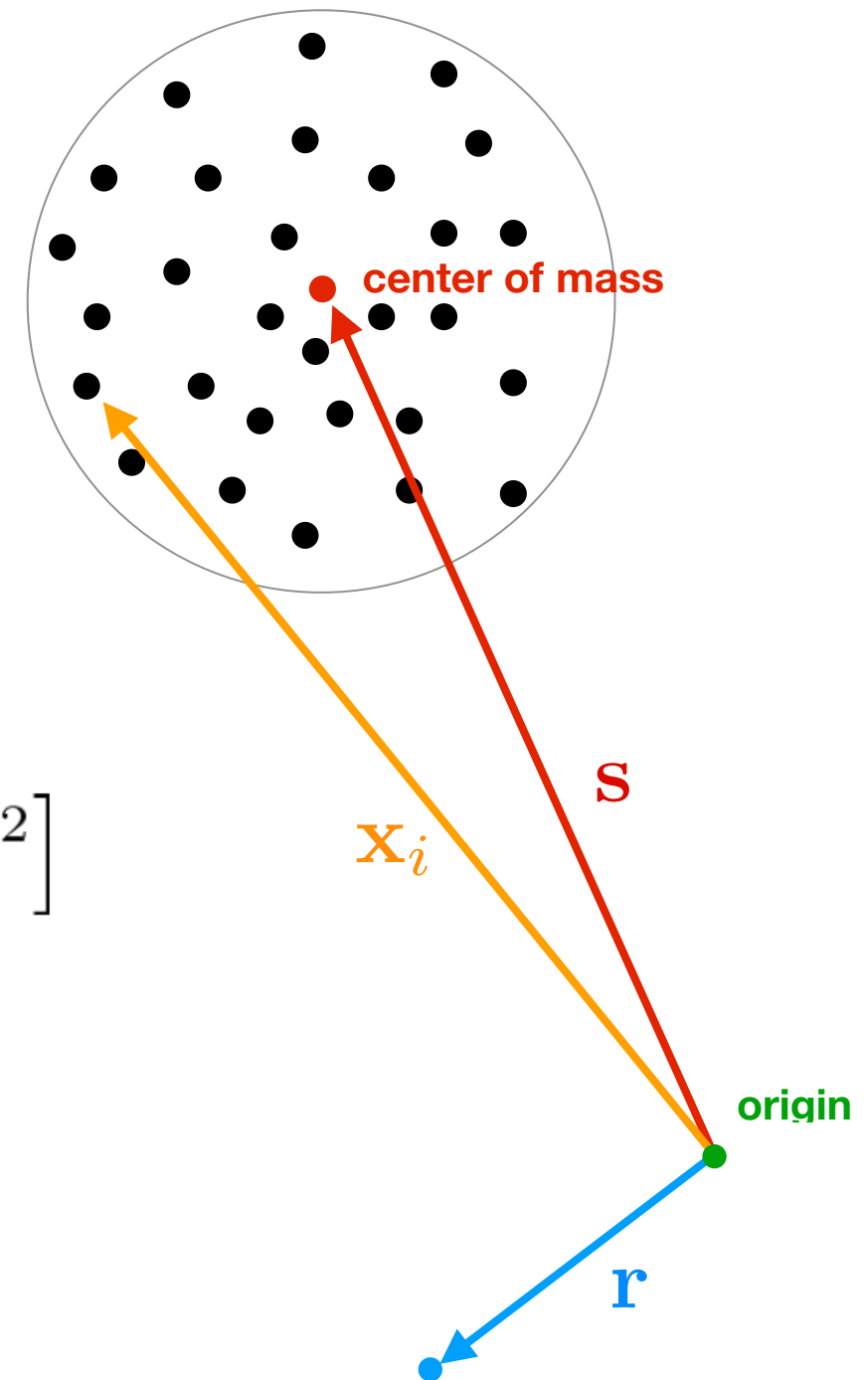
$$M = \sum_i m_i$$

- Quadrupole tensor:

$$Q_{ij} = \sum_k m_k \left[ 3(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{s})_i (\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{s})_j - \delta_{ij} (\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{s})^2 \right]$$

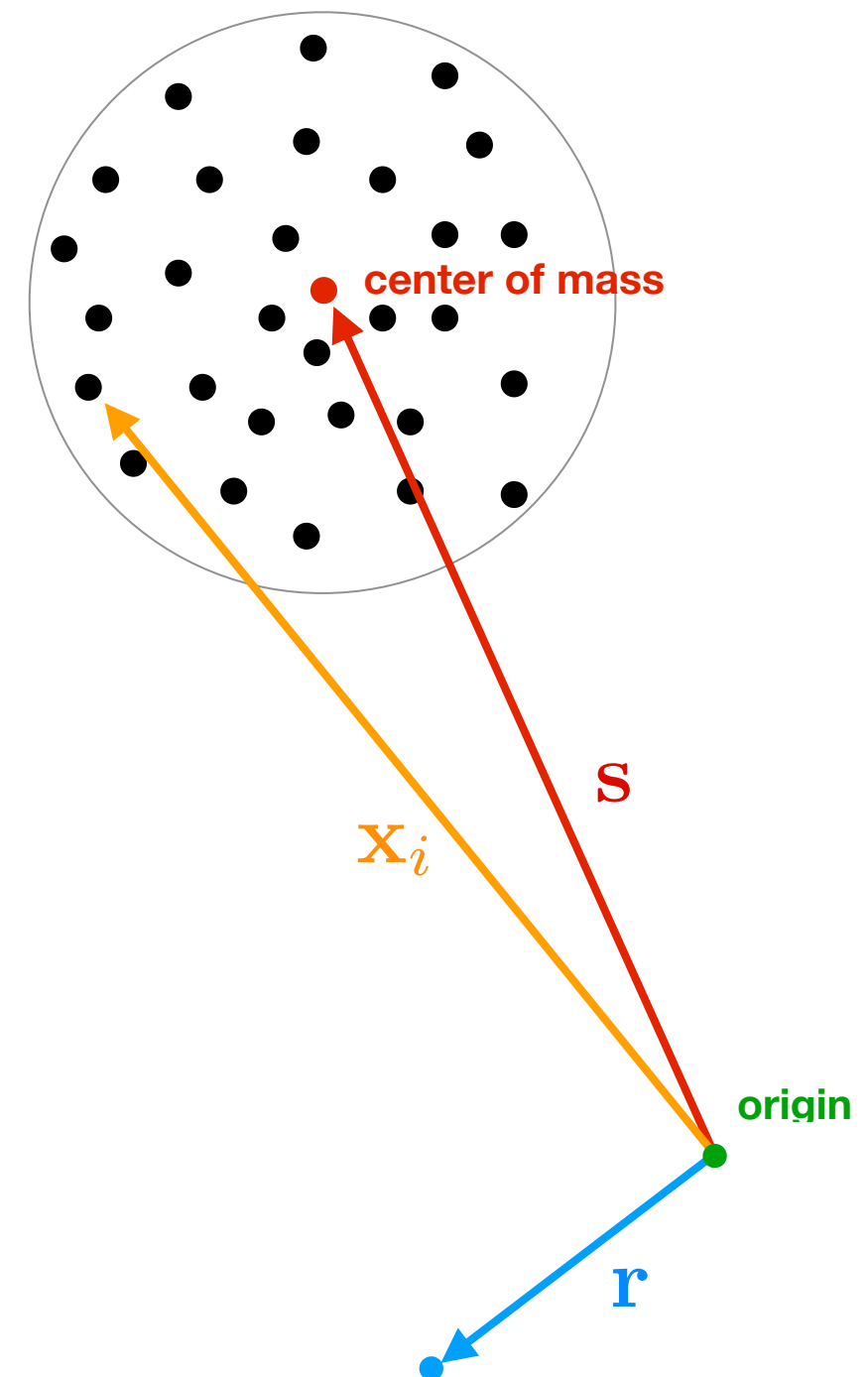
and the resulting potential is:

$$\Phi(\mathbf{r}) = -G \left[ \frac{M}{|\mathbf{y}|} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|^5} \right]$$



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

The Tree algorithm is approximating the collective contribution to the gravitational potential of groups of “distant” particles with its multipole expansion.

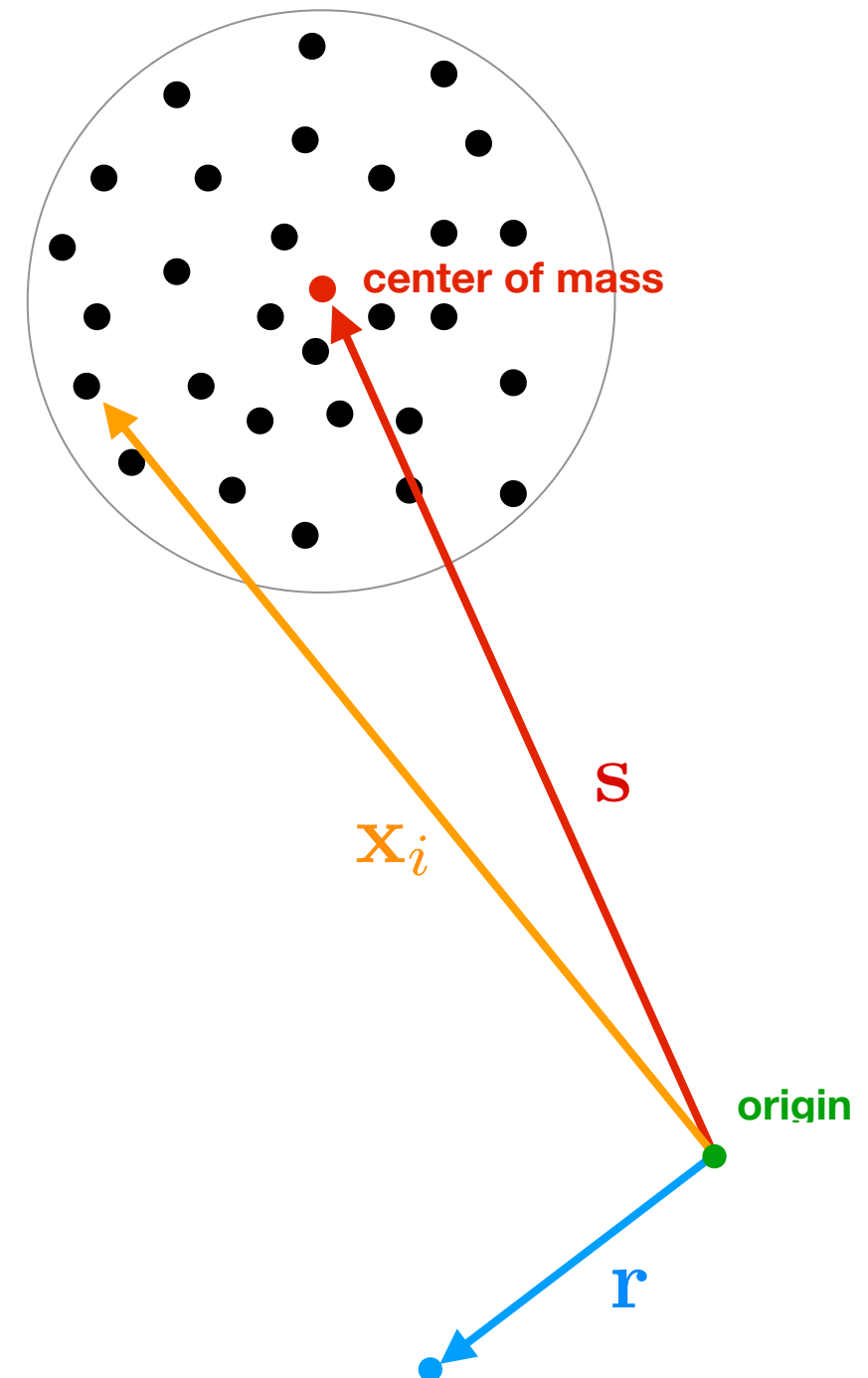


# Solving gravity: the Tree method

The Tree algorithm is approximating the collective contribution to the gravitational potential of groups of “distant” particles with its multipole expansion.

Often (as e.g. in Gadget2-3) only the Monopole is used, so that one can replace the  $N_{node}$  interactions with a single interaction for its center of mass:

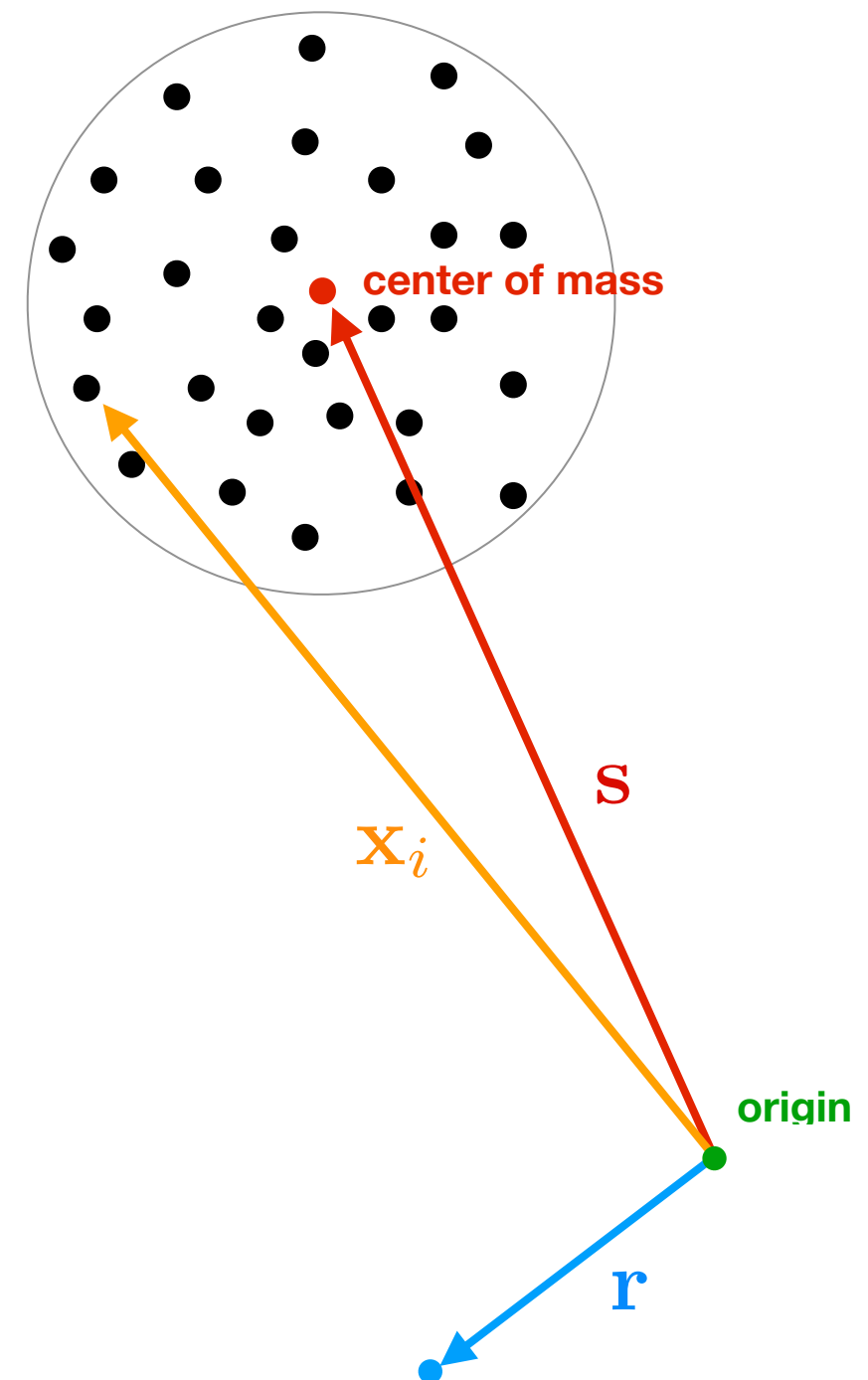
$$-G \sum_{i=1}^{N_{node}} \frac{m_i}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x}_i|} \rightarrow -G \frac{M}{|\mathbf{y}|}$$





# Solving gravity: the Tree method

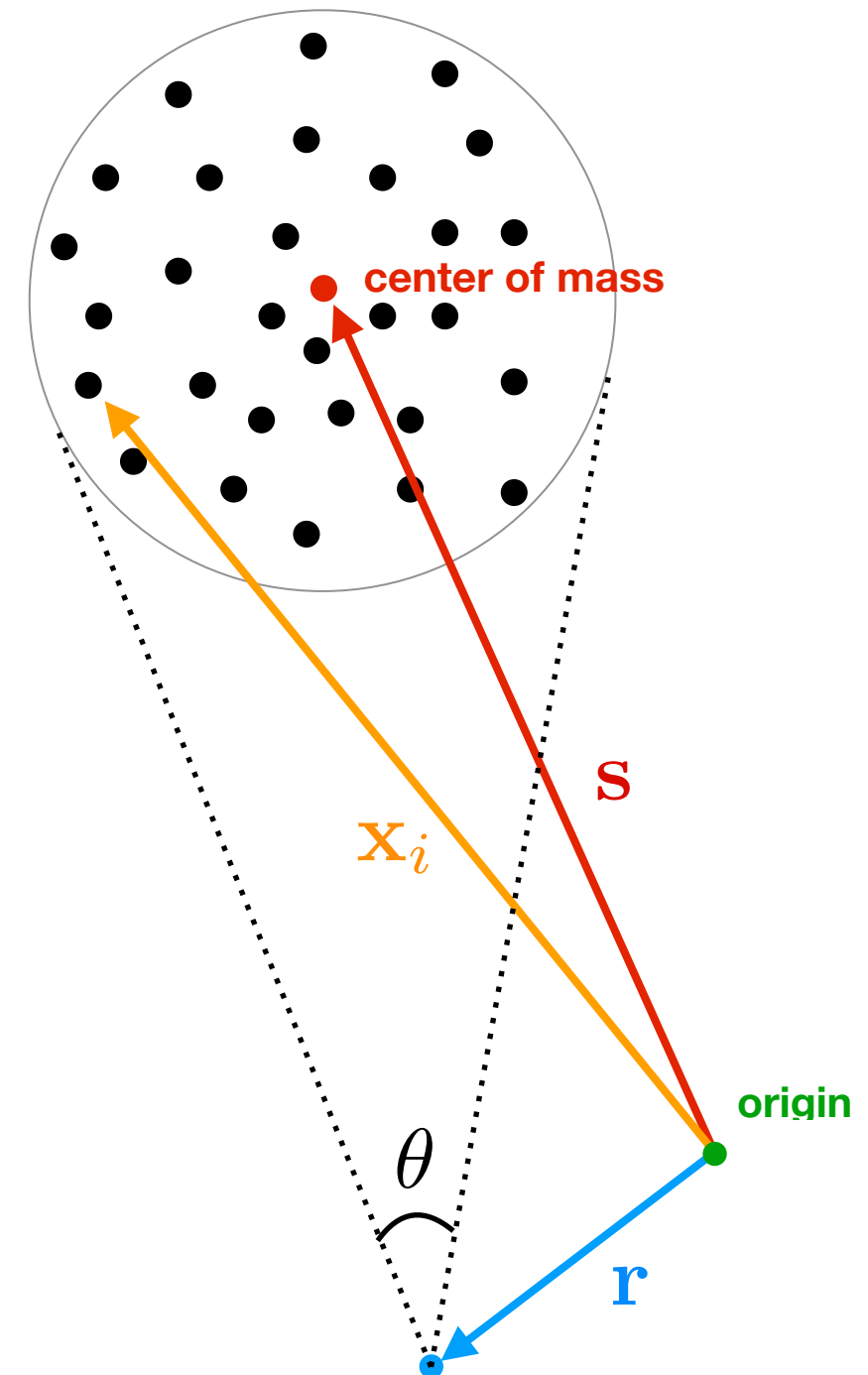
The **accuracy of the approximation can be adjusted by defining what “distant” means.**



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

The **accuracy of the approximation can be adjusted by defining what “distant” means.**

This is done by setting **a threshold for the angle  $\theta$**  under which a given tree node (i.e. a group of particles) is “seen” from the target particle on which the potential is to be computed. Such threshold (dividing sufficiently distant nodes from closer ones) is called **OPENING ANGLE**



# Solving gravity: the Tree method

## **Advantages and disadvantages of the Tree method**

# Solving gravity: the Tree method

## Advantages and disadvantages of the Tree method

The main **advantages** of the tree method are the following:

- There is **no intrinsic restriction to the dynamic range** that can be achieved: spatial resolution automatically increases in regions where particles cluster
- It is possible to **adjust the accuracy of the force calculation** by tweaking the tree opening angle
- The speed of the algorithm does not strongly depend on the level of clustering

# Solving gravity: the Tree method

## Advantages and disadvantages of the Tree method

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The main **disadvantage** of the tree method is that for highly homogeneous matter distributions (as e.g. the cosmic density field at high redshifts) **the almost vanishing force on each particle is the result of the cancellation of many larger contributions**. This makes it numerically expensive to obtain high accuracy in the force calculation.

How?

Solving gravity: the Tree-PM method  
(if you can't beat them, join'em!)



# Solving gravity: the TreePM method

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$$\phi_k^{\text{long}} = \phi_k \exp(-k^2 r_s^2)$$

2: Split the potential  $\phi_k$  into a short-range and a long-range components

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$$\phi_k^{\text{short}} = \phi_k [1 - \exp(-k^2 r_s^2)]$$

4: Inverse-Fourier transform this to real space and solve with Tree

$$\phi^{\text{short}}(r) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\phi_k^{\text{short}}) = -\frac{Gm}{r} \text{erfc}\left(\frac{r}{2r_s}\right)$$

# Solving gravity: the TreePM method

where the short-range potential features the complementary error function

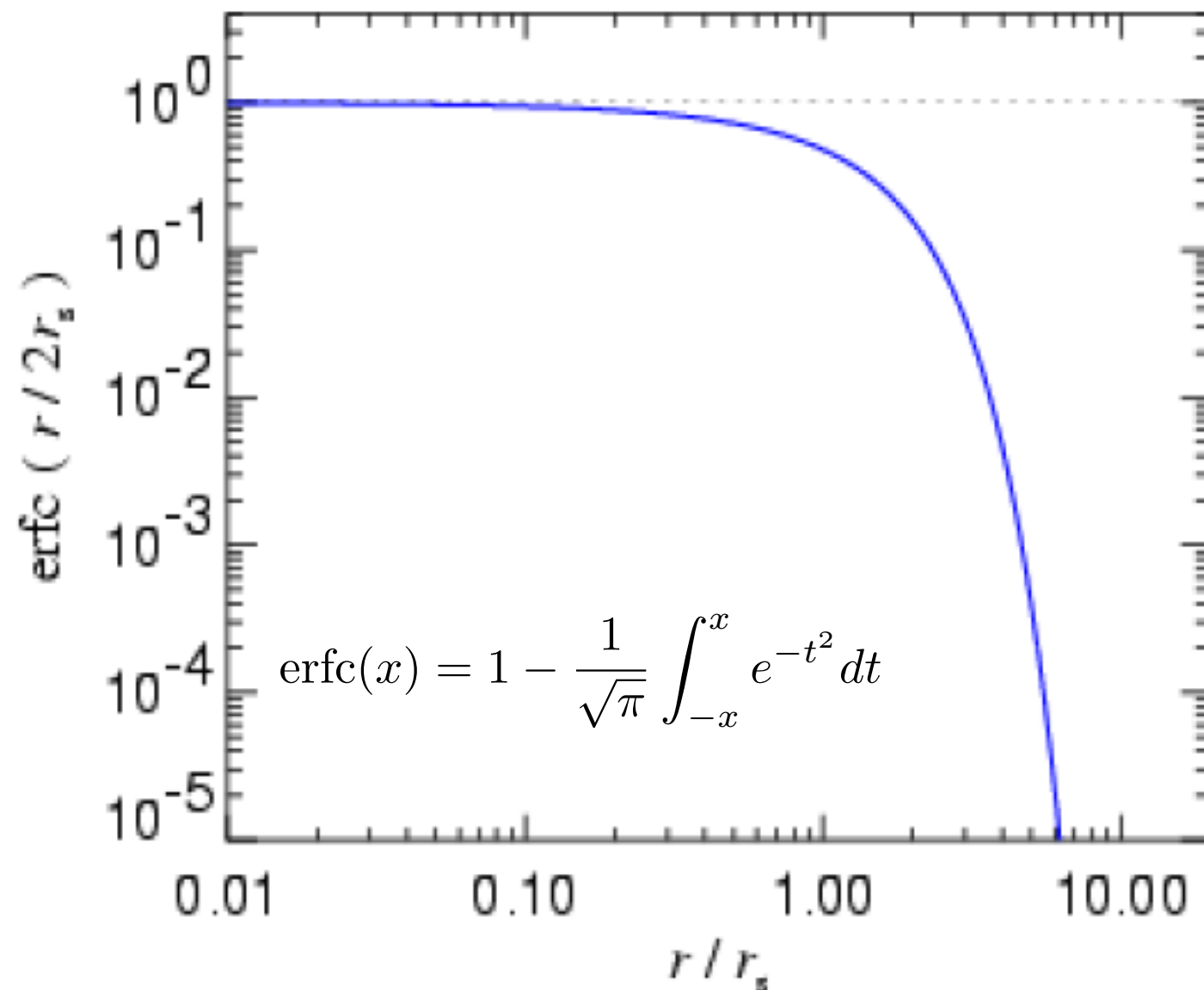
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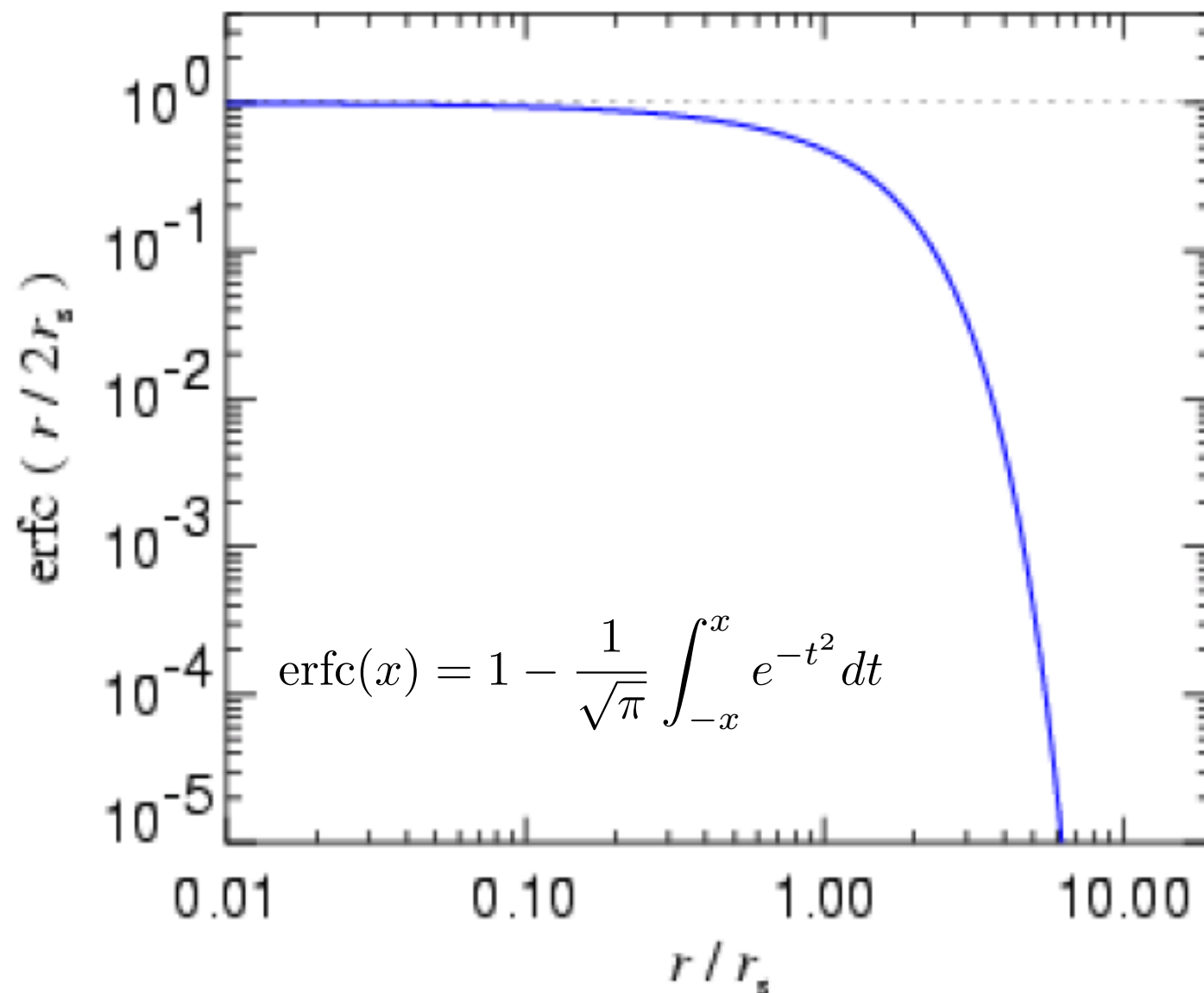
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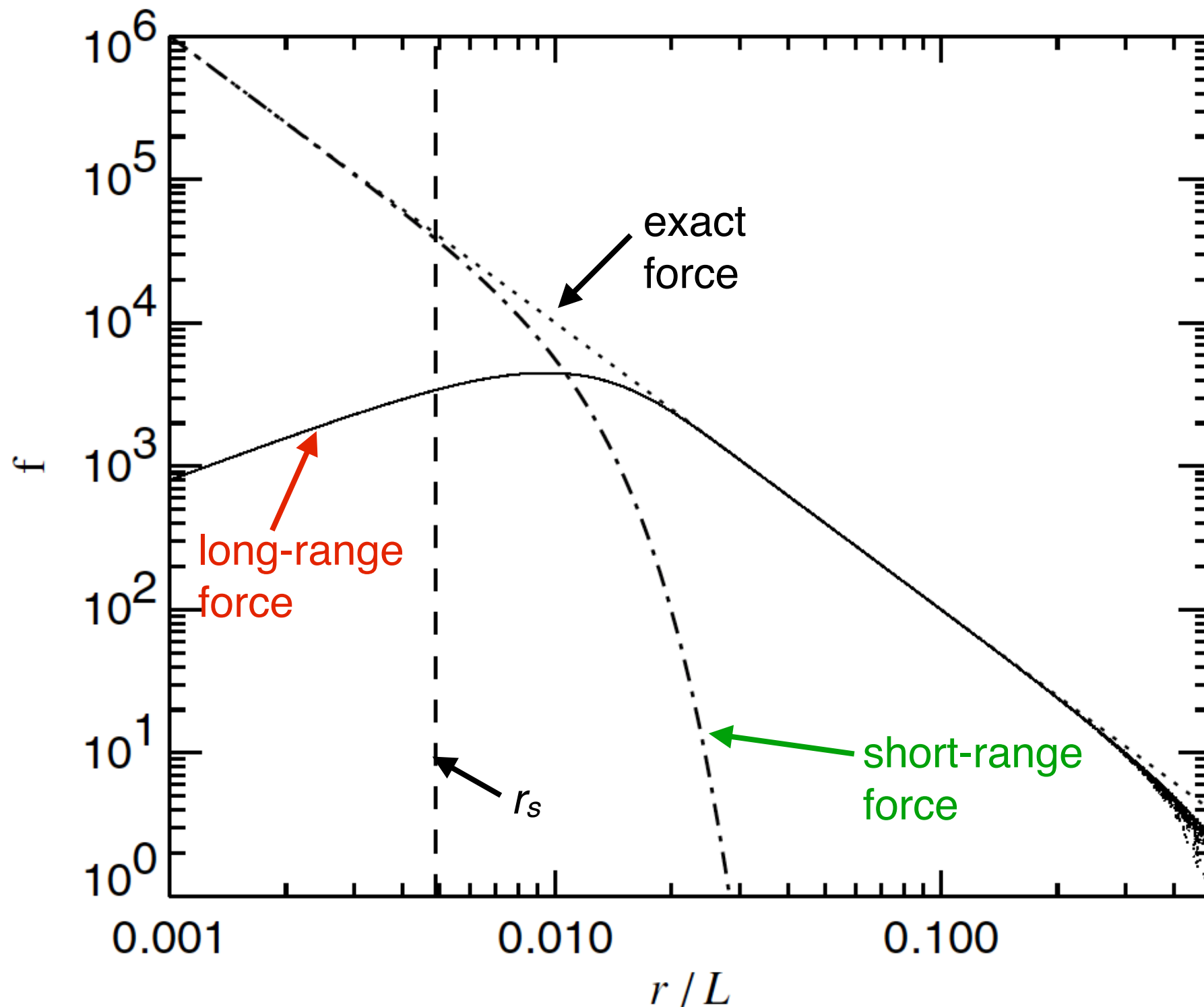
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The Tree-PM method retains all the pros of the Tree algorithm, but has **the main advantage of ensuring a fast and accurate computation of long-range forces in all situations.**

# Solving gravity: the TreePM method

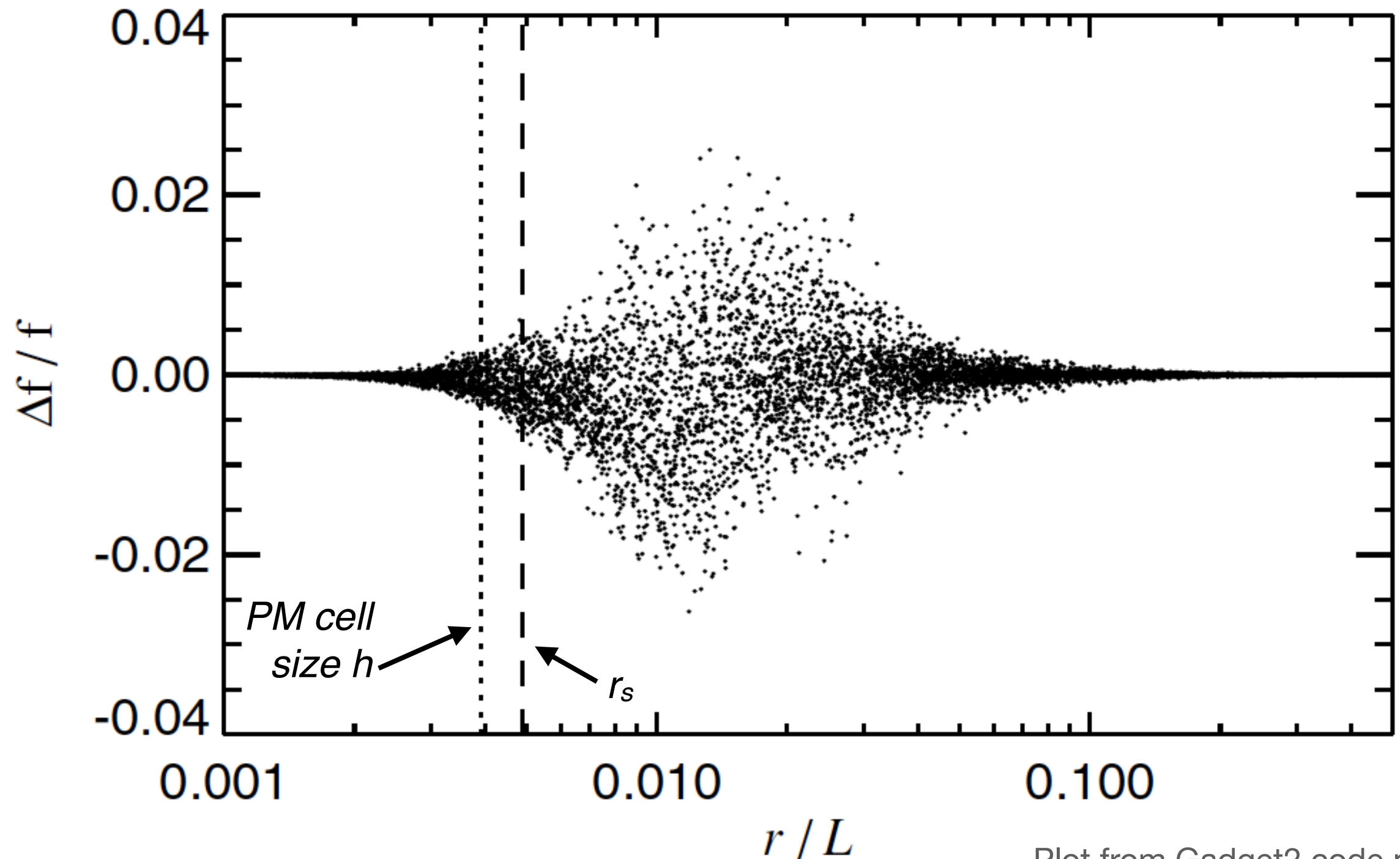
## The Tree-PM force splitting



Plot from Gadget2 code paper  
Springel (2005)

# Solving gravity: the TreePM method

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How?

Solving gravity: Multi-grid methods

# Solving gravity: Multigrid Iterative Solvers

A different procedure to solve the Poisson equation is given by approximating the Laplace operator  $\nabla^2$  on a grid.

Consider a 1D version of Poisson's equation:

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If the potential  $\phi$  and the density  $\delta$  are discretised at  $N$  equally-spaced points with spacing  $h$  the Laplace operator can be approximated as:

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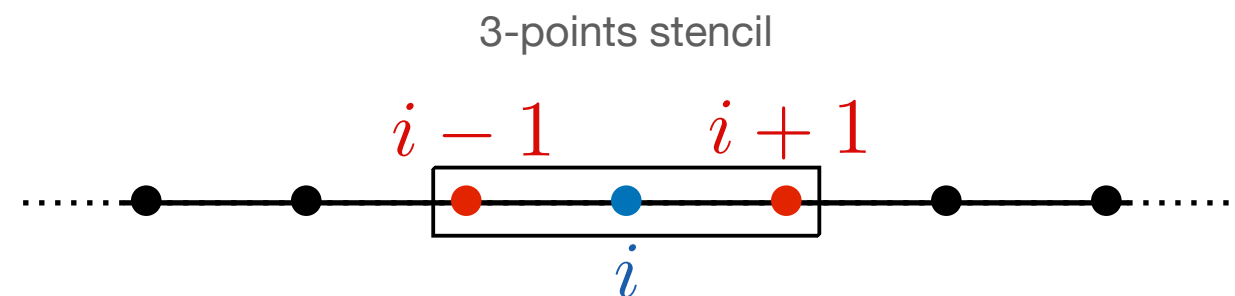
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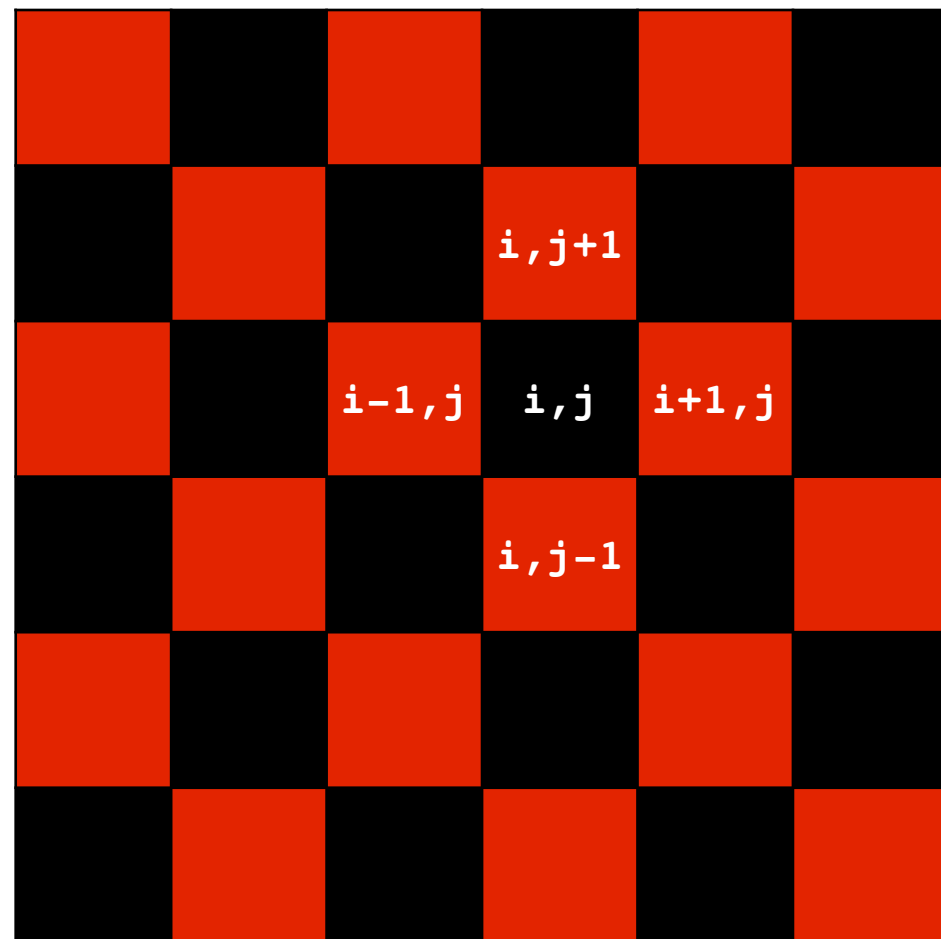
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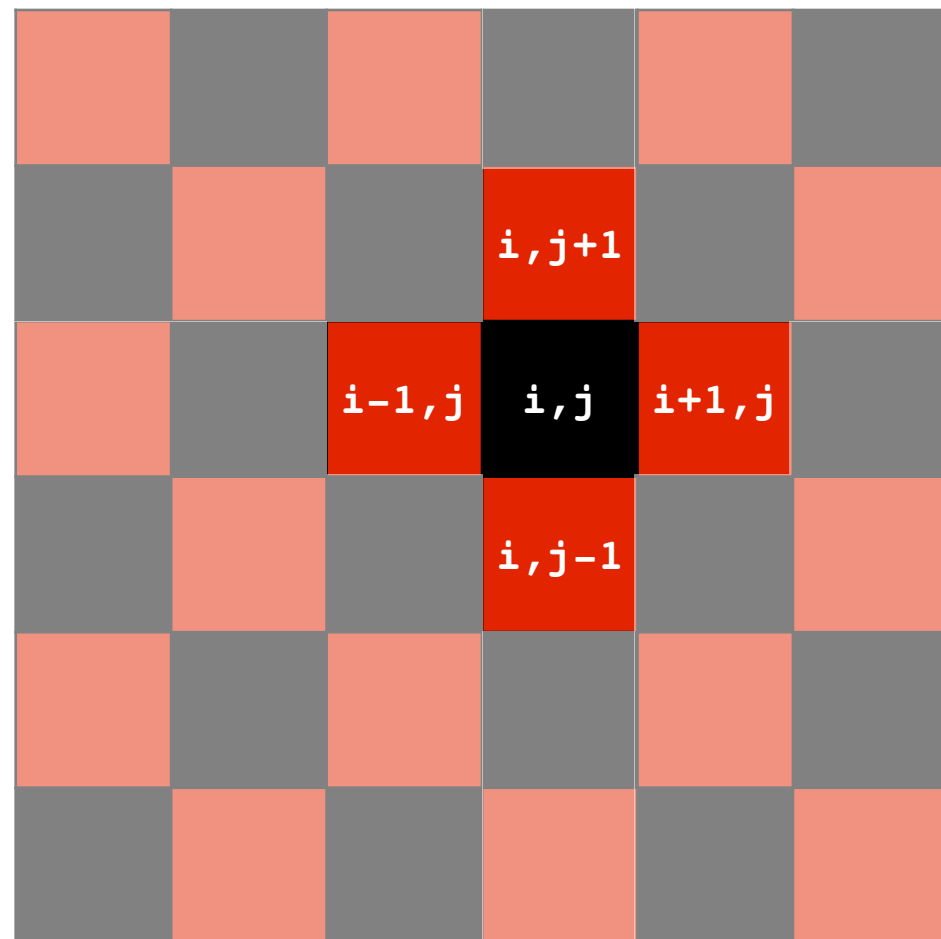


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5-points stencil

Update of a black cell depends only on values of red cells:  
Red-Black sweep: first update half of the cells (all the black ones) and then the other half (all the red ones) using the updated values of the black cells

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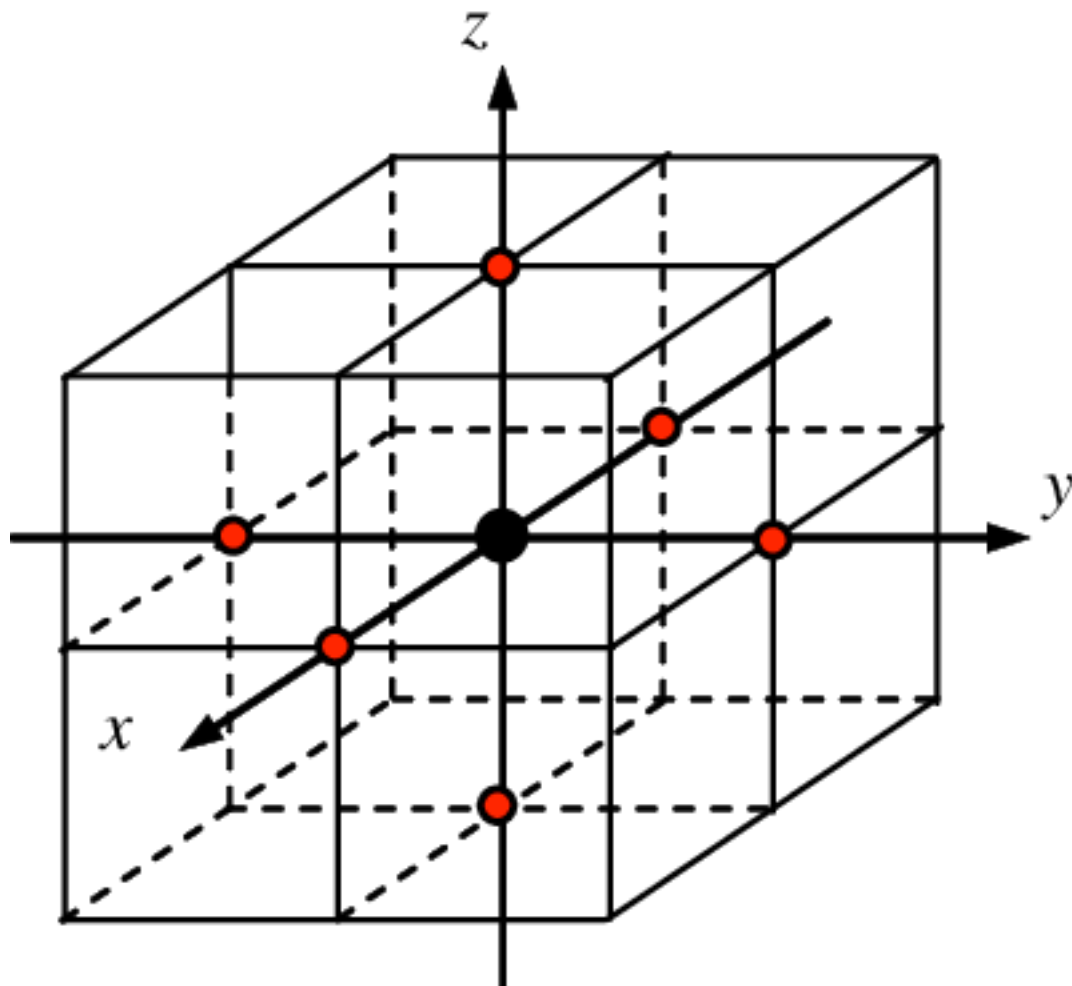
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Therefore, the solution of Poisson equation corresponds to finding the zeros of the function

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Solving this by matrix inversion is computationally prohibitive for large grids as complexity grows like  $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$  but can be solved iteratively using Newton-Raphson's method.

# Solving gravity: Multigrid Iterative Solvers

A short recap of Newton-Raphson's method.

For a 1D function  $f(x)$  the zeros of the function (i.e. the values  $\tilde{x}$  for which  $f(\tilde{x}) = 0$ ) can be found iteratively starting from a guess  $\tilde{x}^{(0)}$  with the rule :

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which can be iterated until

$$|\phi_{i,j,k}^{(n+1)} - \phi_{i,j,k}^{(n)}| < \epsilon$$

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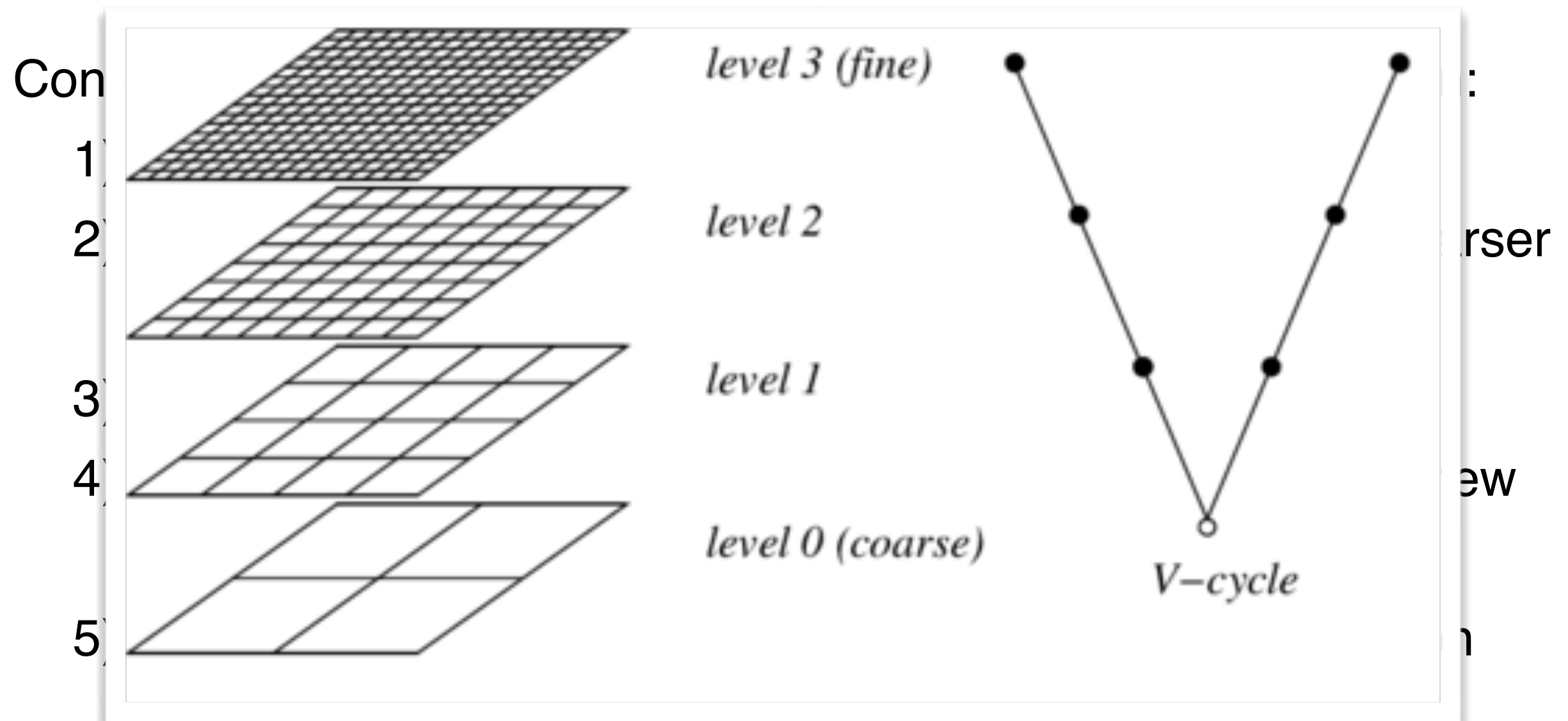
Convergence can be fastened by using **multi-grid acceleration**:

- 1) map the target grid guess on a coarser grid (restriction)
- 2) get a (faster) solution for the large-scale structure on a coarser grid
- 3) repeat steps 1-2 until reaching a minimum grid resolution
- 4) map to a finer grid (prolongation) and use as a guess for new iteration on the finer grid
- 5) repeat step 4) until reaching again the target grid resolution



# Solving gravity: Multigrid Iterative Solvers

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This is called V-cycle, and is shown to converge as  $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$

How?

Solving gravity: comparing solvers

# Gravity solvers compared

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## Particle-Mesh

Solve

$$\nabla_x^2 \Phi = 4\pi G a^2 \rho(\mathbf{x})$$

by summing individual  
potential contributions over  
all volume elements

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = -G \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{x}')}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} d\mathbf{x}'$$

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Rely on the Superposition Principle, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \Phi_1 &= 4\pi G \rho_1, \quad \nabla^2 \Phi_2 = 4\pi G \rho_2 \\ \Rightarrow \nabla^2 [\Phi_1 + \Phi_2] &= 4\pi G [\rho_1 + \rho_2] \end{aligned}$$

which is a consequence of the linearity of Poisson Equation

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which is a consequence of the linearity of Poisson Equation

Does not rely on the superposition principle

Works also for non-linear Poisson-like equations

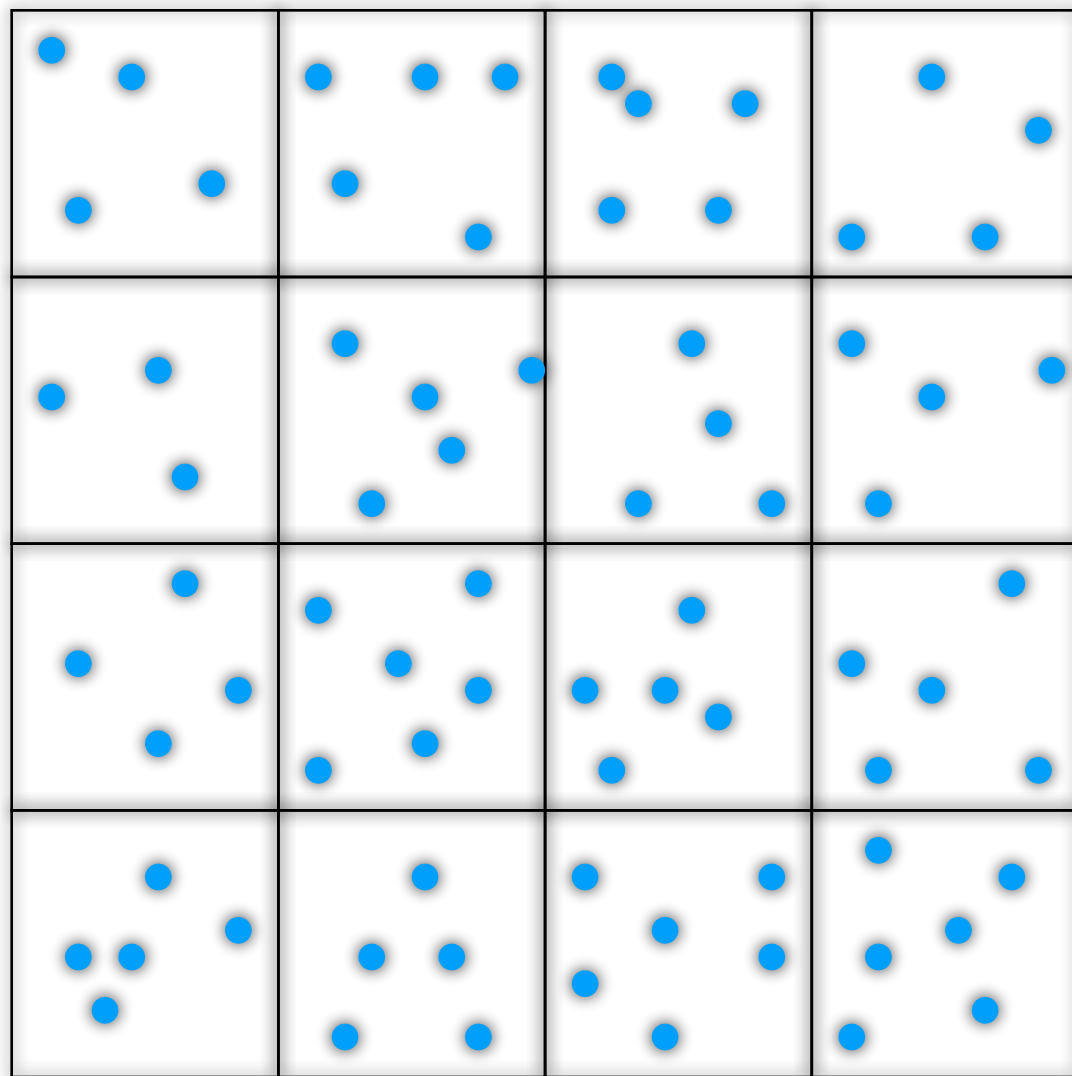
# How?

## Time integration

## Step 3: Time integration

Once the force (hence the acceleration) on each particle is known, the system has to be moved **forward in time (positions and velocities)**

$t_n$

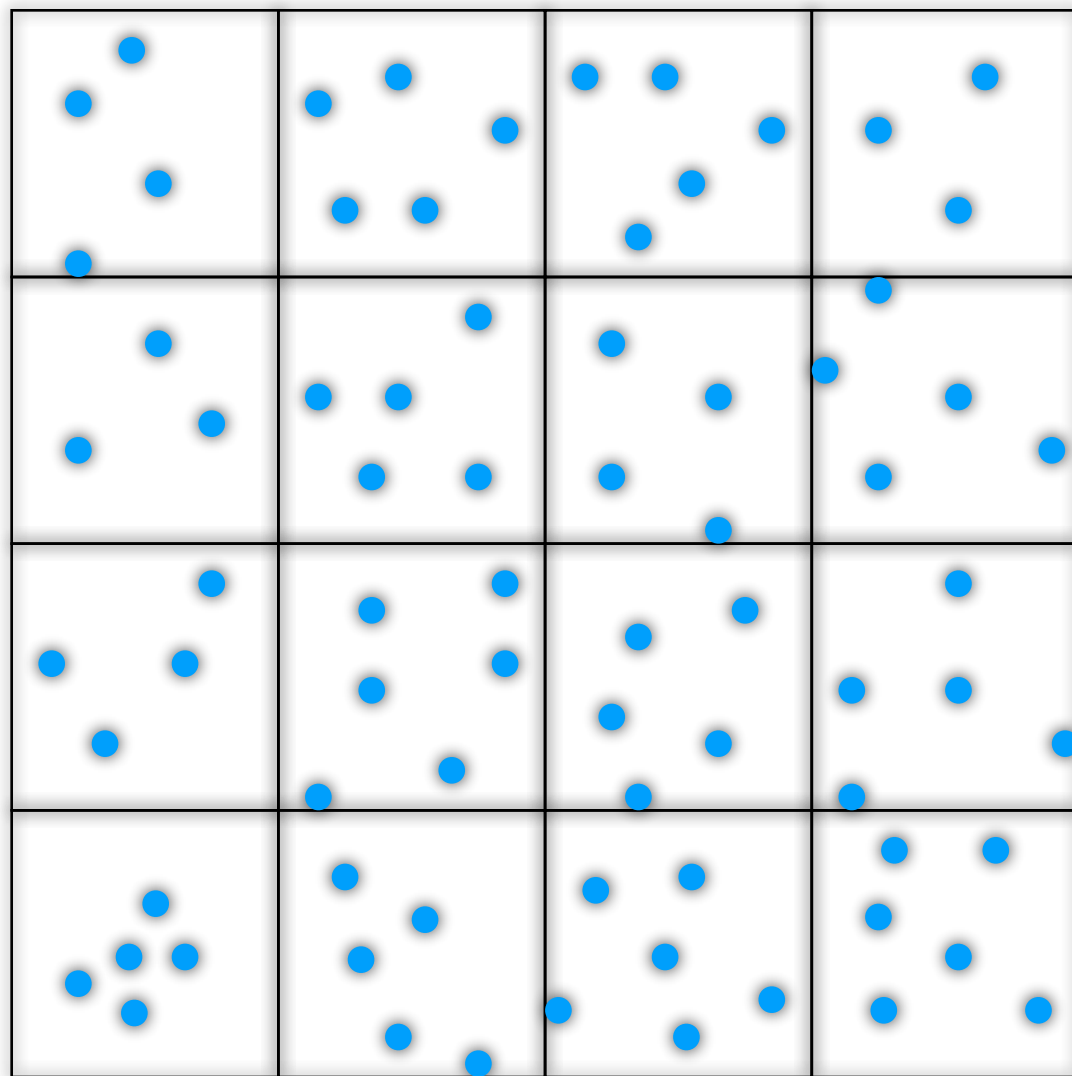


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$t_n + \Delta t$



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Several possible time integration schemes (Euler, Runge-Kutta, mid-point), the most widely used is the

**LEAPFROG:**

$$v_{n+\frac{1}{2}} = v_n + a_n \frac{\Delta t}{2} \quad \text{Kick}$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + v_{n+\frac{1}{2}} \Delta t \quad \text{Drift}$$

$$v_{n+1} = v_{n+\frac{1}{2}} + a_{n+1} \frac{\Delta t}{2} \quad \text{Kick}$$

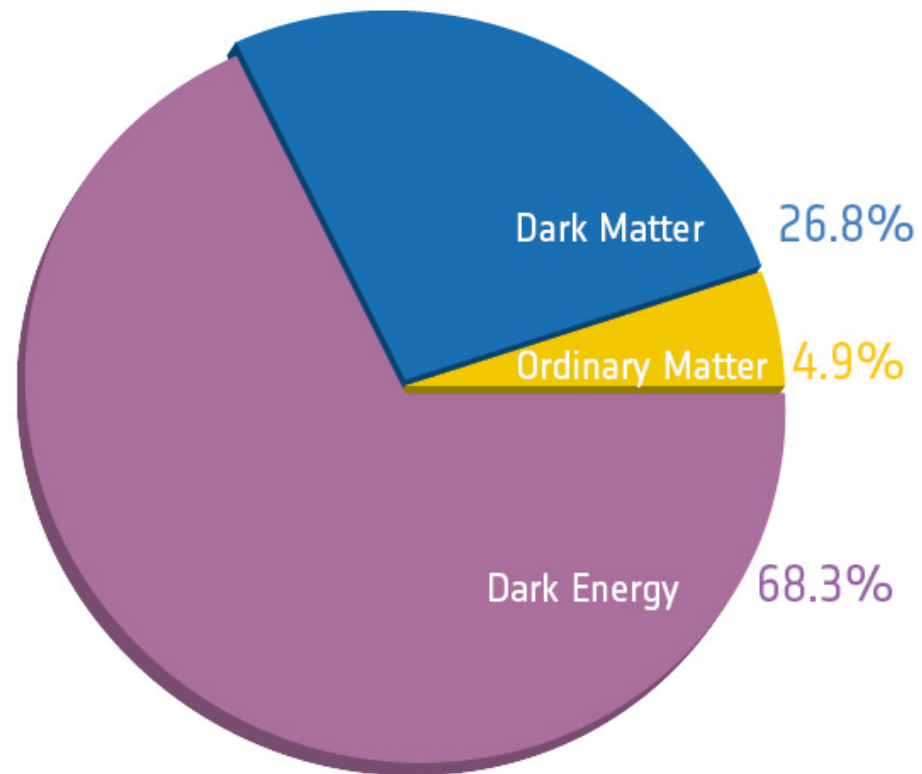
**Time-reversible and explicitly energy conserving**

What else?

Extending to non-standard models



# Standard Cosmology after Planck



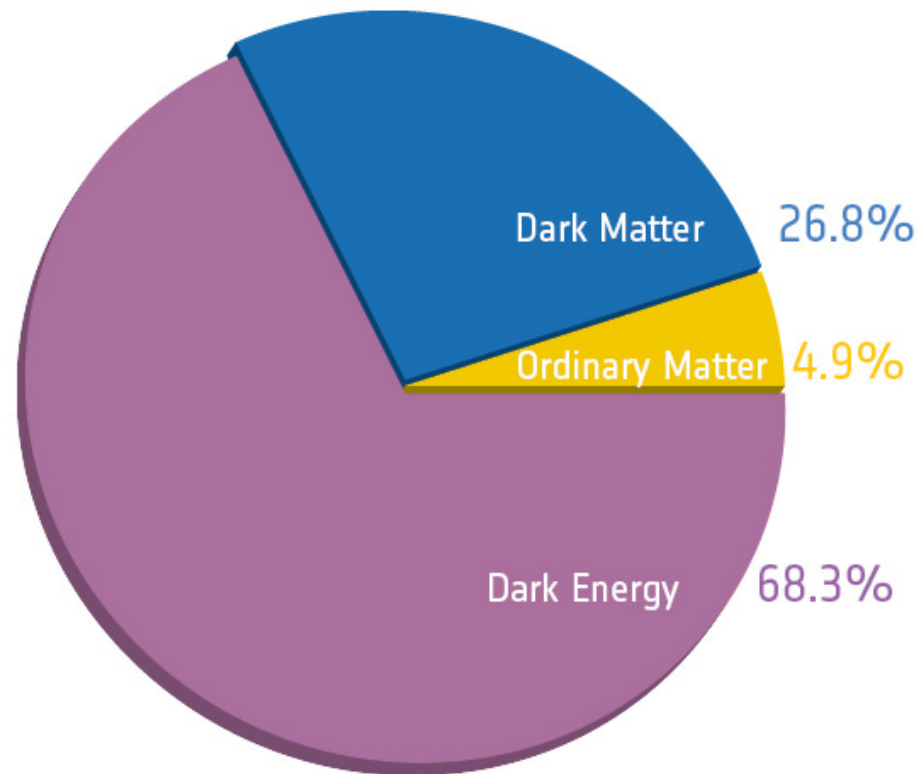
The Universe after Planck:  
6 parameters to fit all data

$$\Omega_b = 0.049 \quad \Omega_{\text{CDM}} = 0.265$$

$$\Omega_\Lambda = 0.6844 \quad \sigma_8 = 0.831$$

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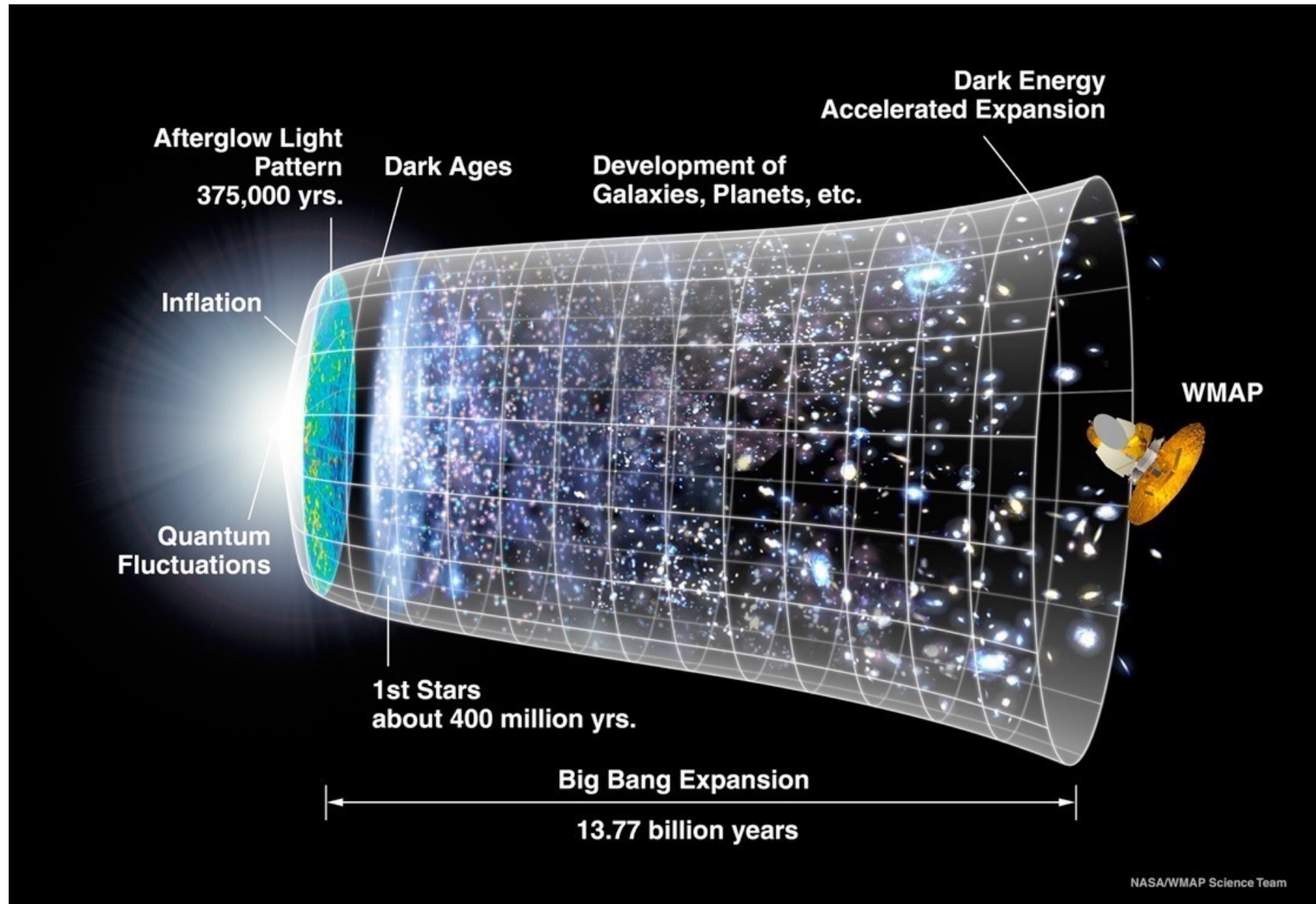
Standard  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology is based on a **series of assumptions**:

- **Cosmological Principle** (homogeneity & isotropy);
- **Gaussian and Adiabatic** initial conditions;
- Dark Matter is **Cold and Collisionless**;
- **Neutrinos are massless**;
- Dark Energy is a **Cosmological Constant**;
- **GR** is the complete theory of gravity;

# The Dark Energy problem

Starting point:

observational evidence of an accelerated expansion



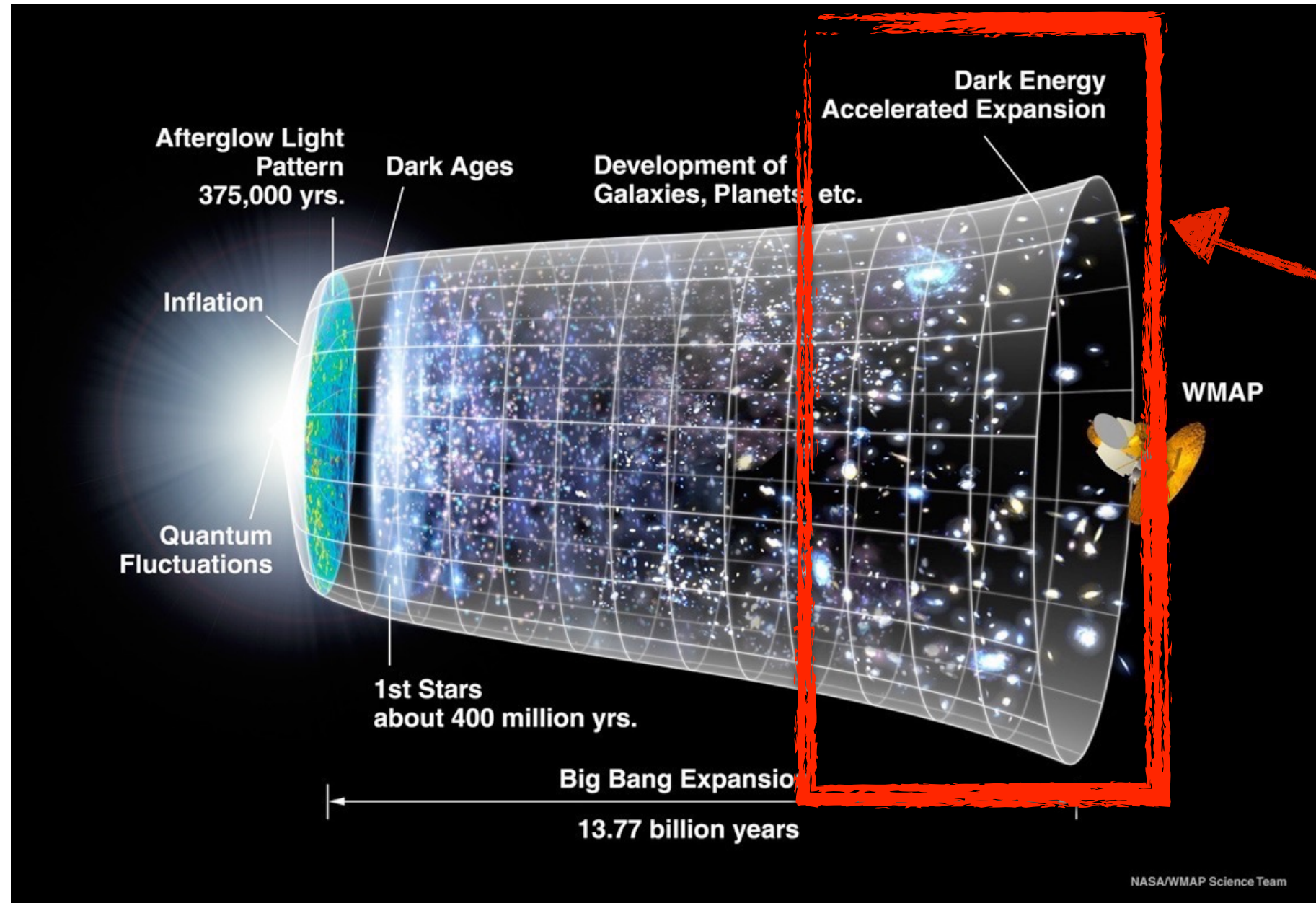
Can we explain this somehow?



# The Dark Energy problem

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***“Until it is solved,  
the problem of the  
dark energy will be a  
roadblock on our  
path to a  
comprehensive  
physical theory”***

**S. Weinberg**

Can we explain this somehow?

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- No direct evidence of the existence of Dark Matter particles
- No direct evidence of inflation



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- No direct evidence of inflation

## 2) “Naturalness” problems

- Fine-tuning of cosmological parameters
- Coincidence problem

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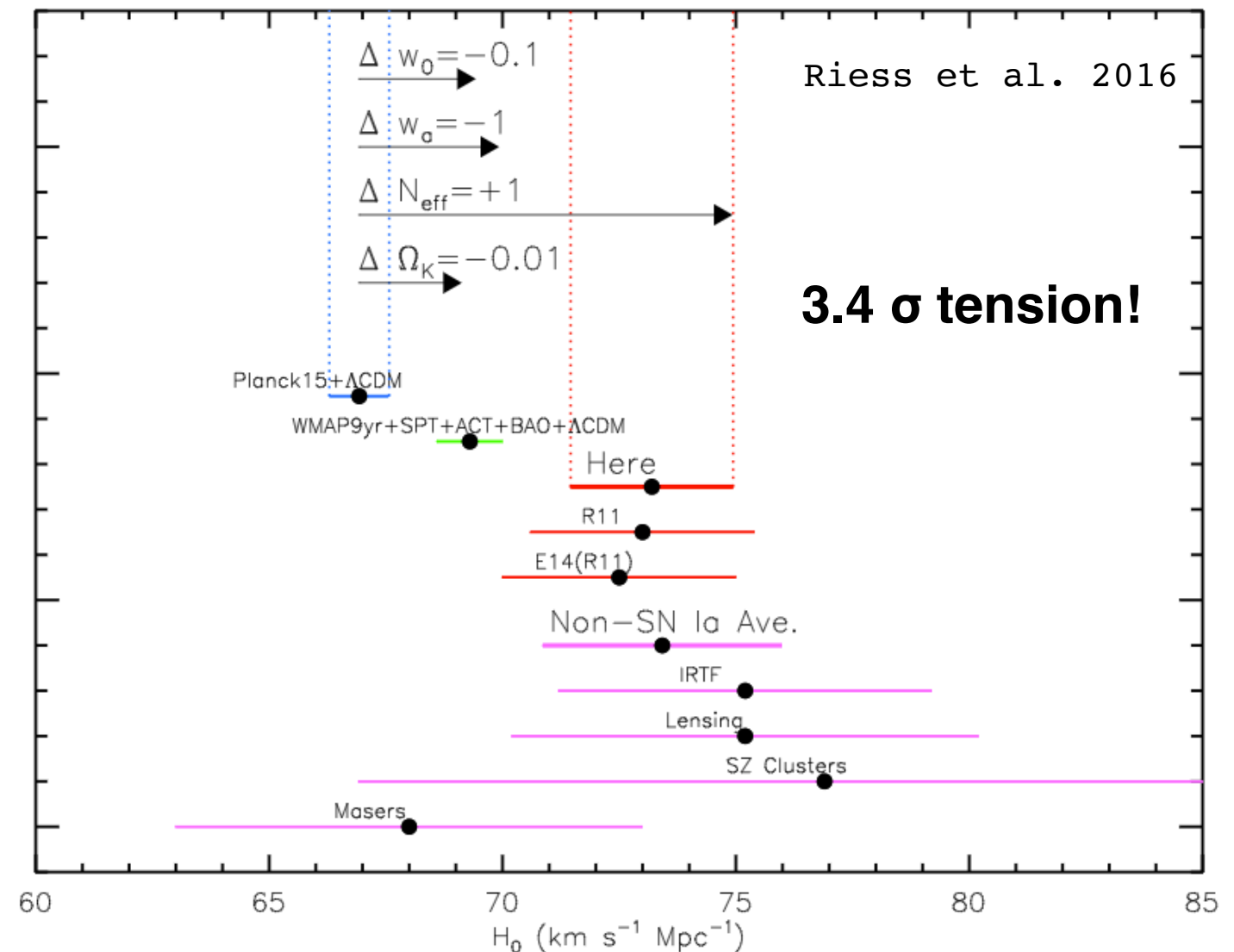
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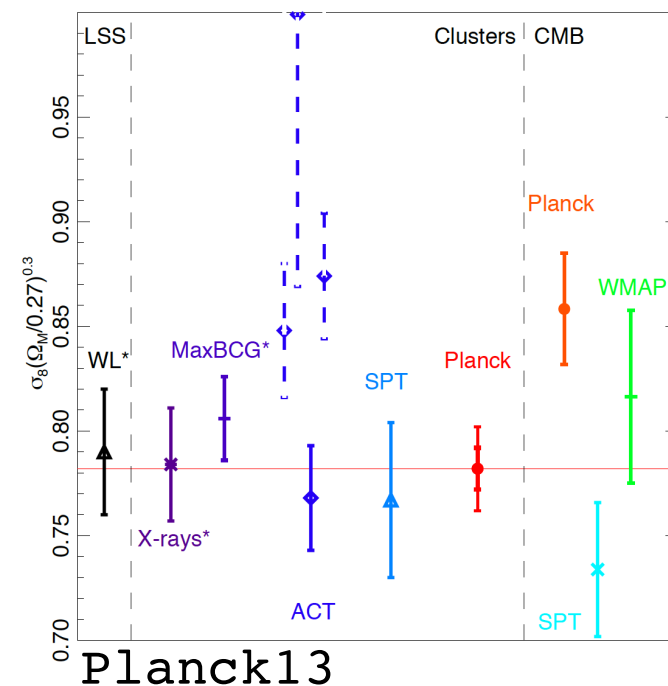
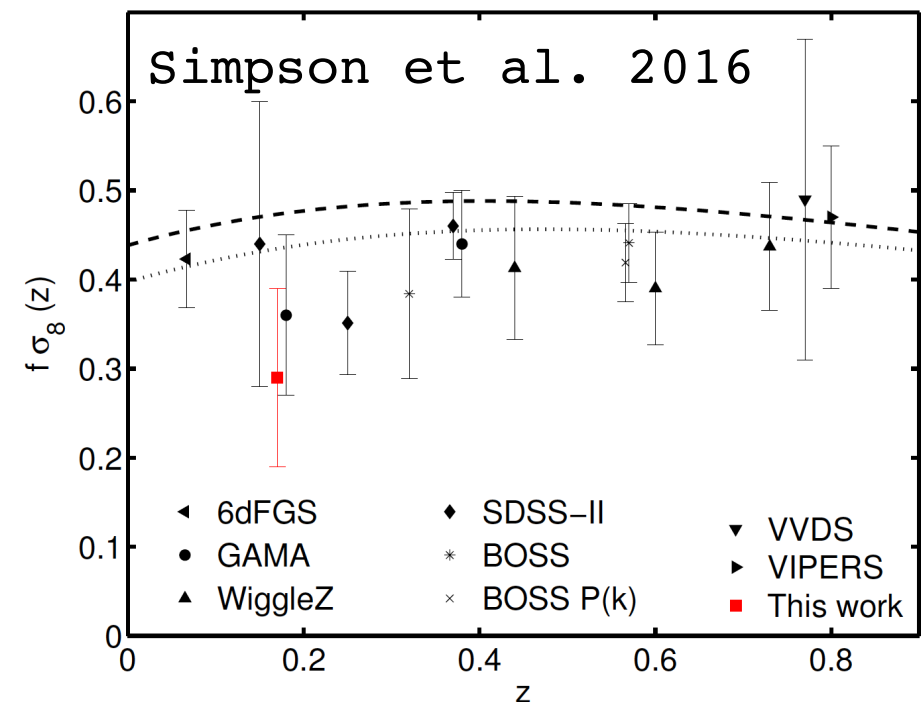
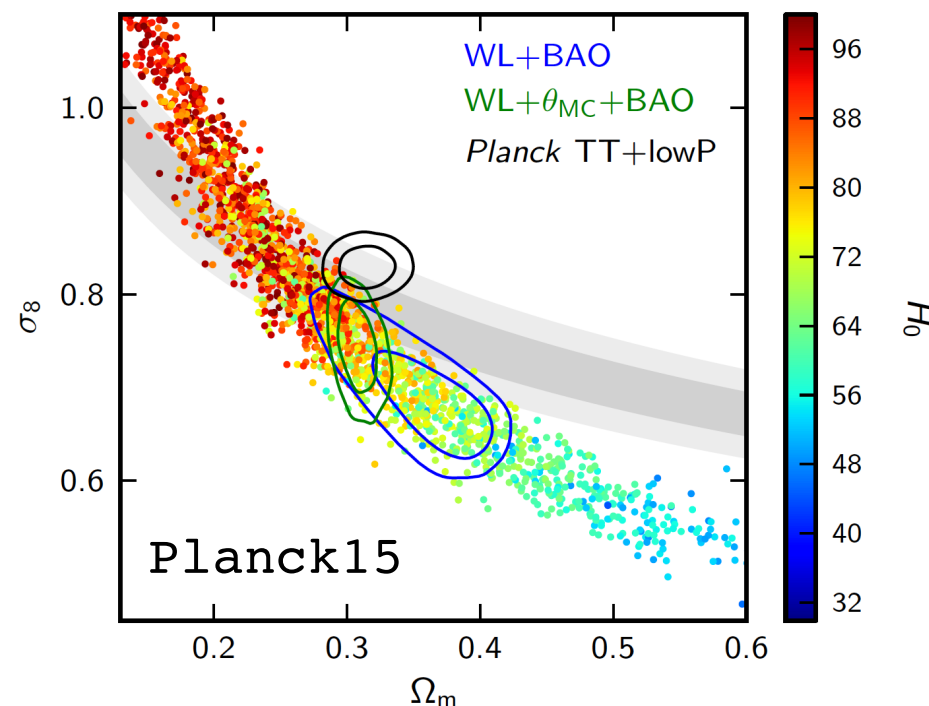
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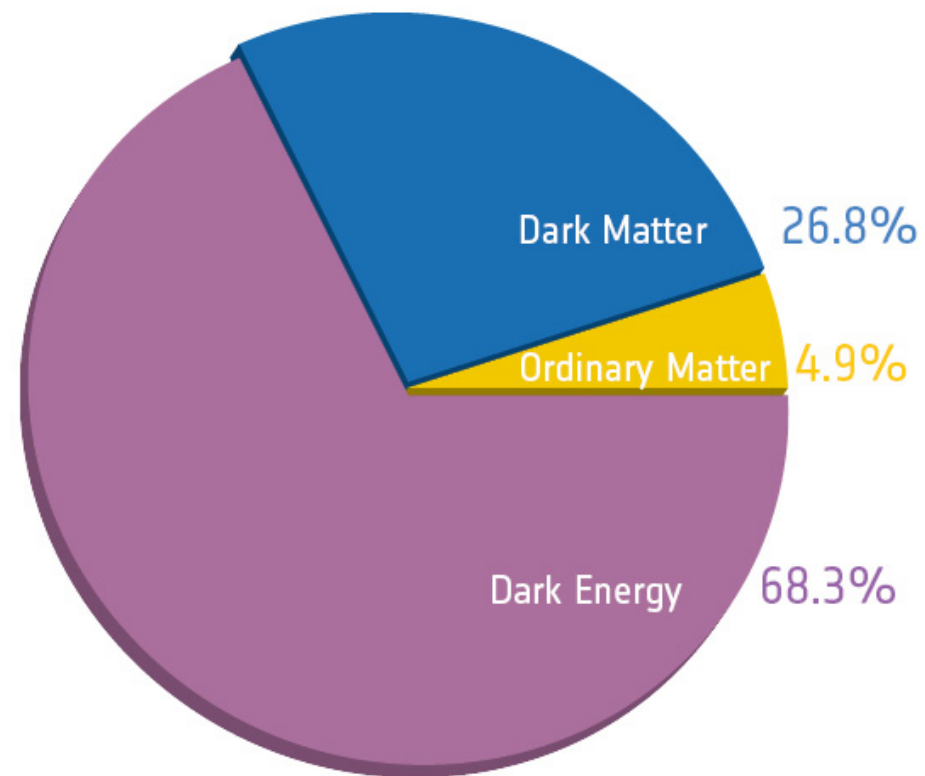
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# Testing the assumptions of the Standard Model



The Universe after Planck:  
6 parameters to fit all data

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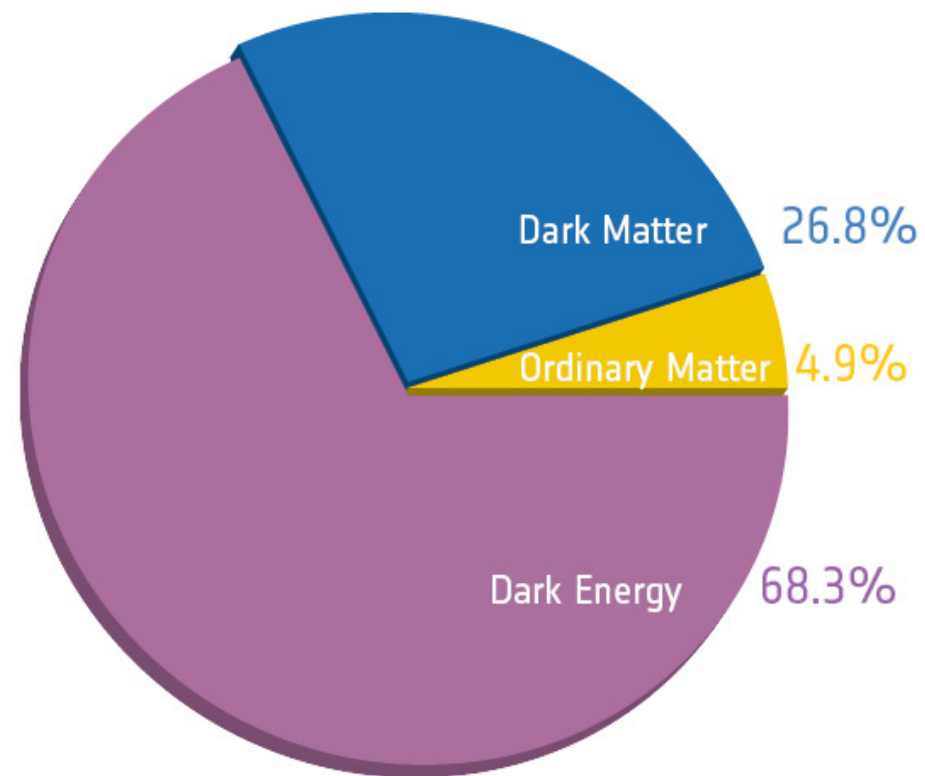
$$\Omega_\Lambda = 0.6844 \quad \sigma_8 = 0.831$$

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Standard  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology is based on a **series of assumptions**:

- **Cosmological Principle**;
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# DARK ENERGY MODELS BEYOND THE COSMOLOGICAL CONSTANT

# Classification of Dark Energy models

This will be just a purely phenomenological classification, based on the expected effects on structure formation and how these will affect N-body simulation methods.

For a more formal classification, see e.g.

*Pourtsidou et al. (2013)*

*Skordis et al. (2015)*

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	time evolution	spatial fluctuations	interactions
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Interacting DE (Coupled and Extended Quintessence, Modified Gravity)	✓ a dynamical (scalar) degree of freedom	✓ fluctuations sourced by the interaction	✓ non-minimally coupled to matter

# Interacting Dark Energy and structure formation

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An interaction between a matter field and a scalar field can be described by **a source term in the respective continuity equations**:

$$\nabla_{\mu} T_{\nu}^{\mu}(\phi) = -QT^{(\text{DM})} \nabla_{\nu} \phi \qquad \nabla_{\mu} T_{\nu}^{\mu}(\text{DM}) = +QT^{(\text{DM})} \nabla_{\nu} \phi$$

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that in the so-called quasi-static limit ( $\partial^2\delta\phi/\partial t^2 \ll \nabla^2\delta\phi$ ) gives:

$$\nabla^2\delta\phi = -\frac{dV}{d\phi}(\delta\phi) - Q\delta_{\text{DM}}$$

and assuming a flat potential ( $dV/d\phi \ll \delta_{\text{DM}}$ ):

$$\nabla^2\delta\phi \approx -Q\delta_{\text{DM}} \Rightarrow \delta\phi \approx -Q\Phi$$

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Scalar fifth-forces are tightly constrained from solar system tests of gravity, need to allow for a **non-universal coupling** so that CDM is coupled and baryons are uncoupled ( $Q_c \neq 0$ ,  $Q_b = 0$ ):

$$\ddot{\delta}_c + \left(2H - 2Q\dot{\phi}\right)\dot{\delta}_c - \frac{3}{2}H^2 \left[ (1 + 2Q^2)\Omega_c\delta_c + \Omega_b\delta_b \right] = 0$$

$$\ddot{\delta}_b + 2H\dot{\delta}_b - \frac{3}{2}H^2 [\Omega_c\delta_c + \Omega_b\delta_b] = 0$$

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This implies an effective violation of the Weak Equivalence Principle:

$$\vec{a}_{\text{CDM}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi(1+2Q^2)+2Q\dot{\phi}\vec{v}_{\text{CDM}} \quad \vec{a}_{\text{b}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi$$

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The term  $2Q\dot{\phi}\vec{v}_{\text{CDM}}$  is called **“friction term”** and arises from momentum conservation:

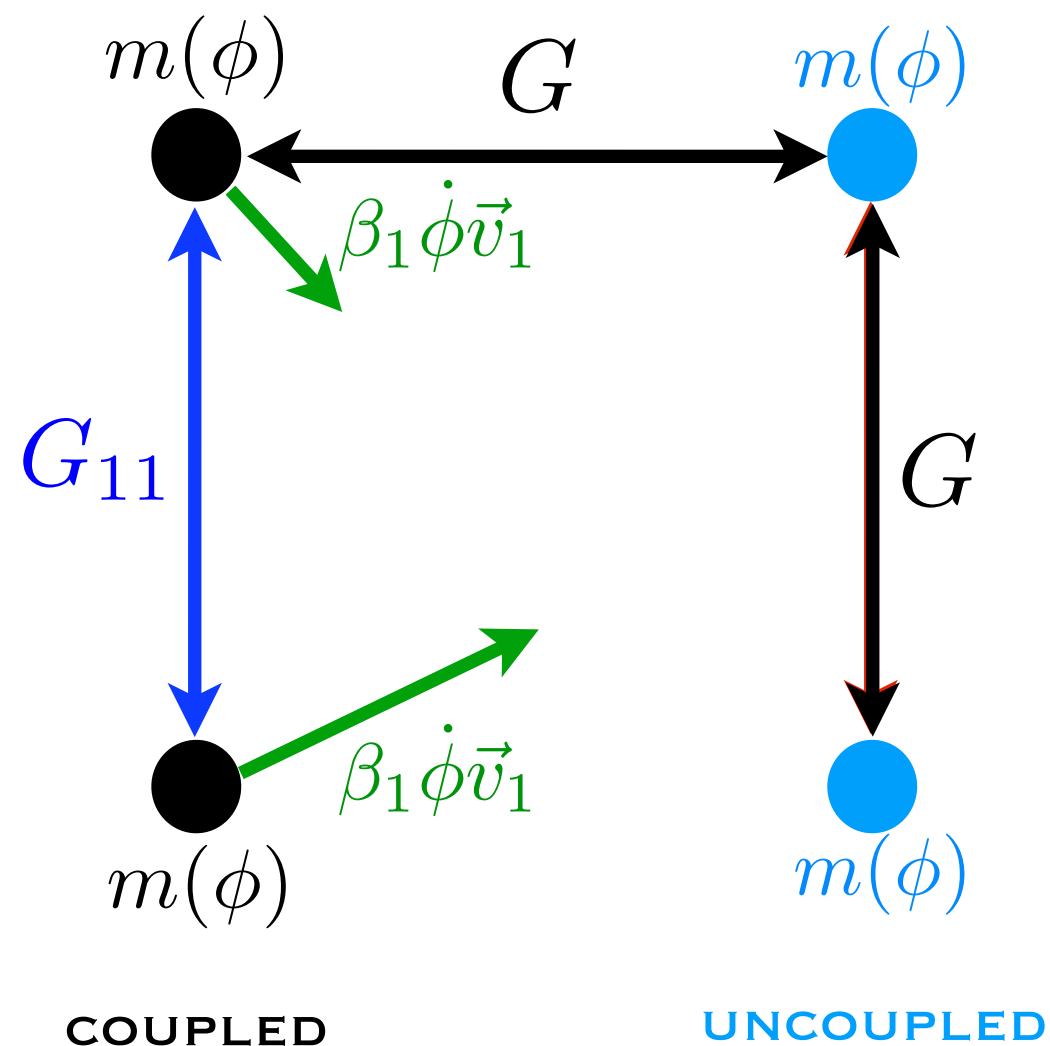
$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \frac{d(m(\phi)\vec{v})}{dt} = m(\phi)\vec{a} + \frac{dm}{d\phi}\dot{\phi}\vec{v}$$

# Interacting Dark Energy and structure formation

Standard Coupled Quintessence: interacting DM and non-interacting baryons:

$$\vec{a}_{\text{DM}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi_{\text{N}} - 2Q^2\vec{\nabla}\Phi_{\text{DM}} + Q\dot{\phi}\vec{v}_{\text{DM}}$$

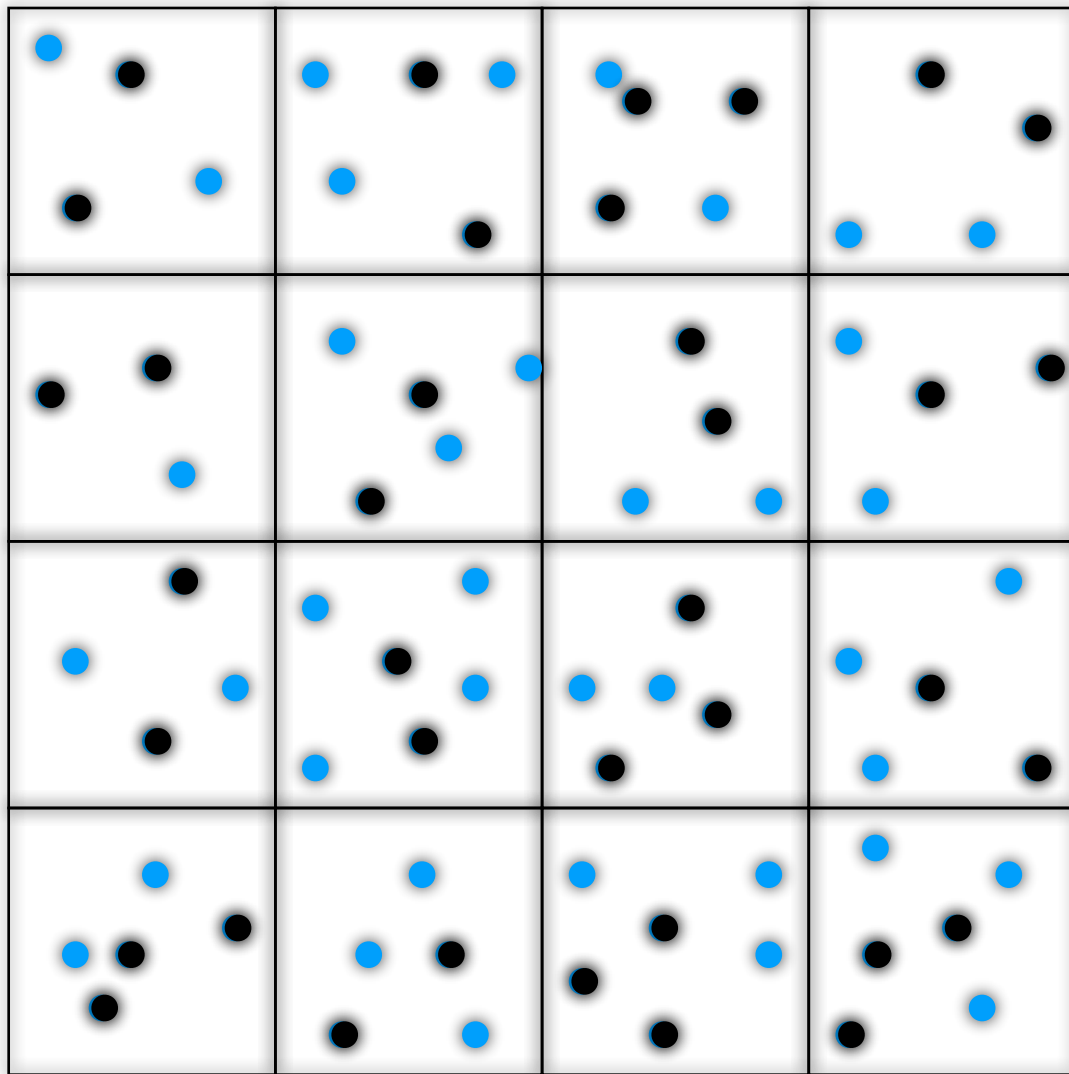
$$\vec{a}_{\text{b}} = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi_{\text{N}}$$



# N-body algorithms for interacting Dark Energy

In interacting DE the coupling determines two different gravitational forces for dark matter and baryons:

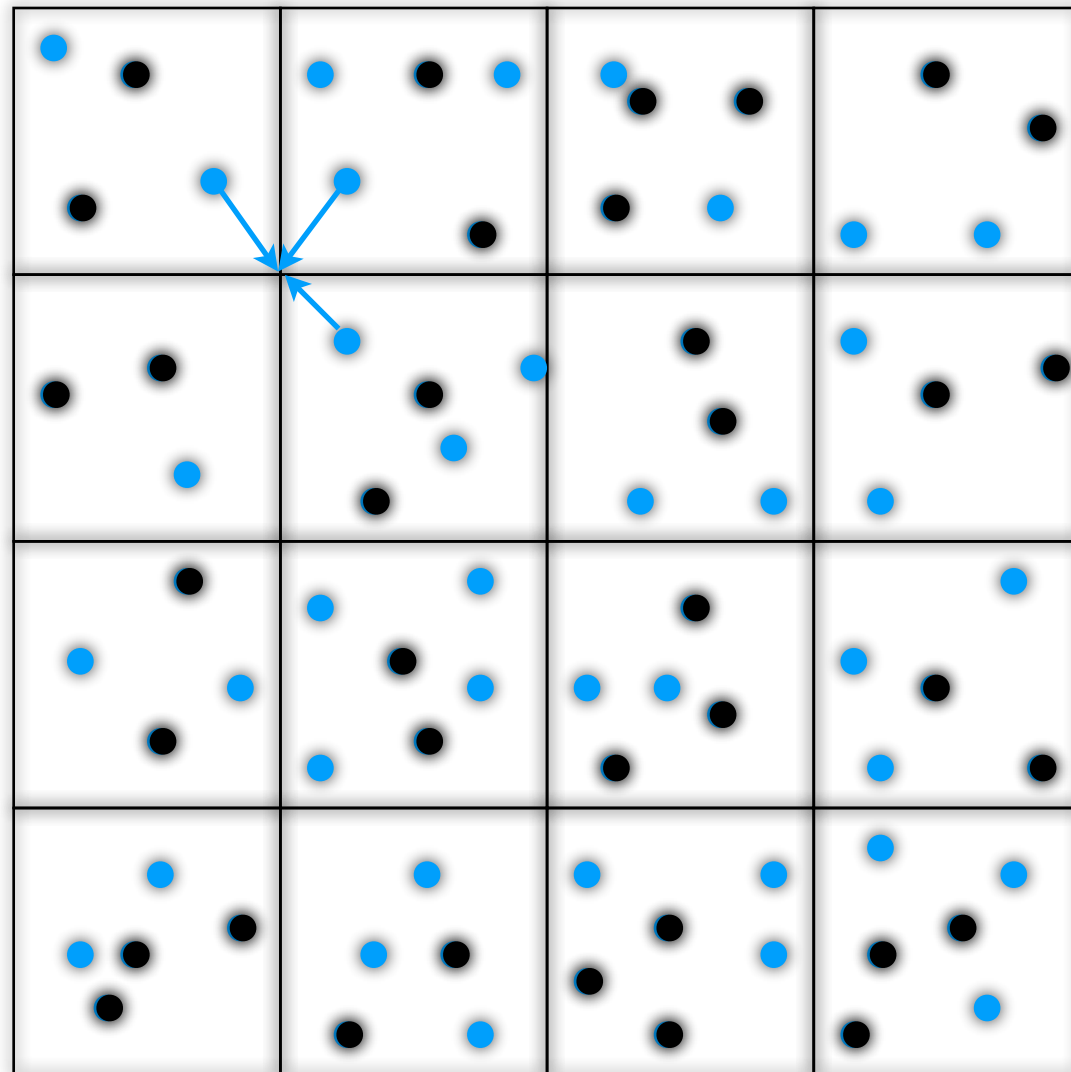
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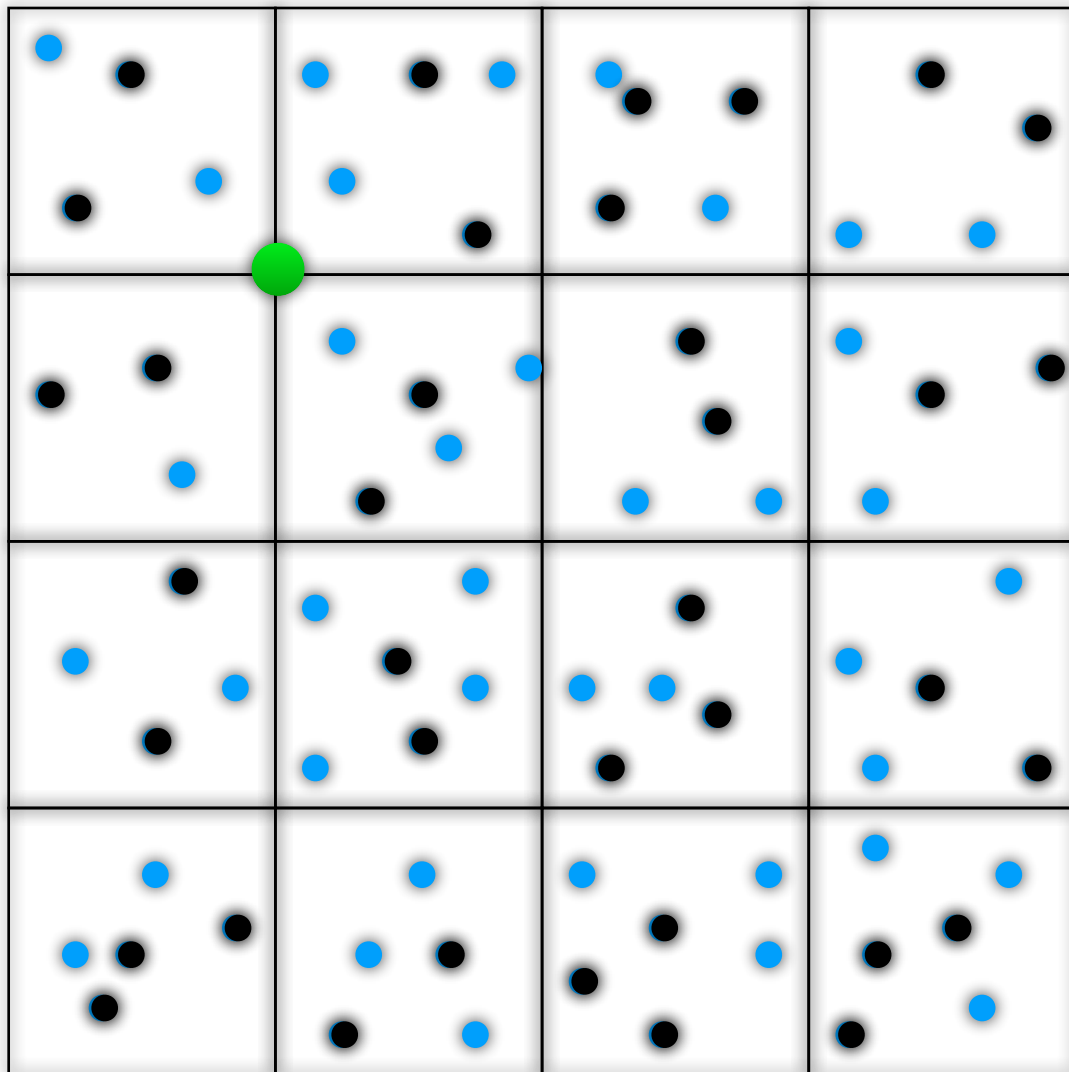
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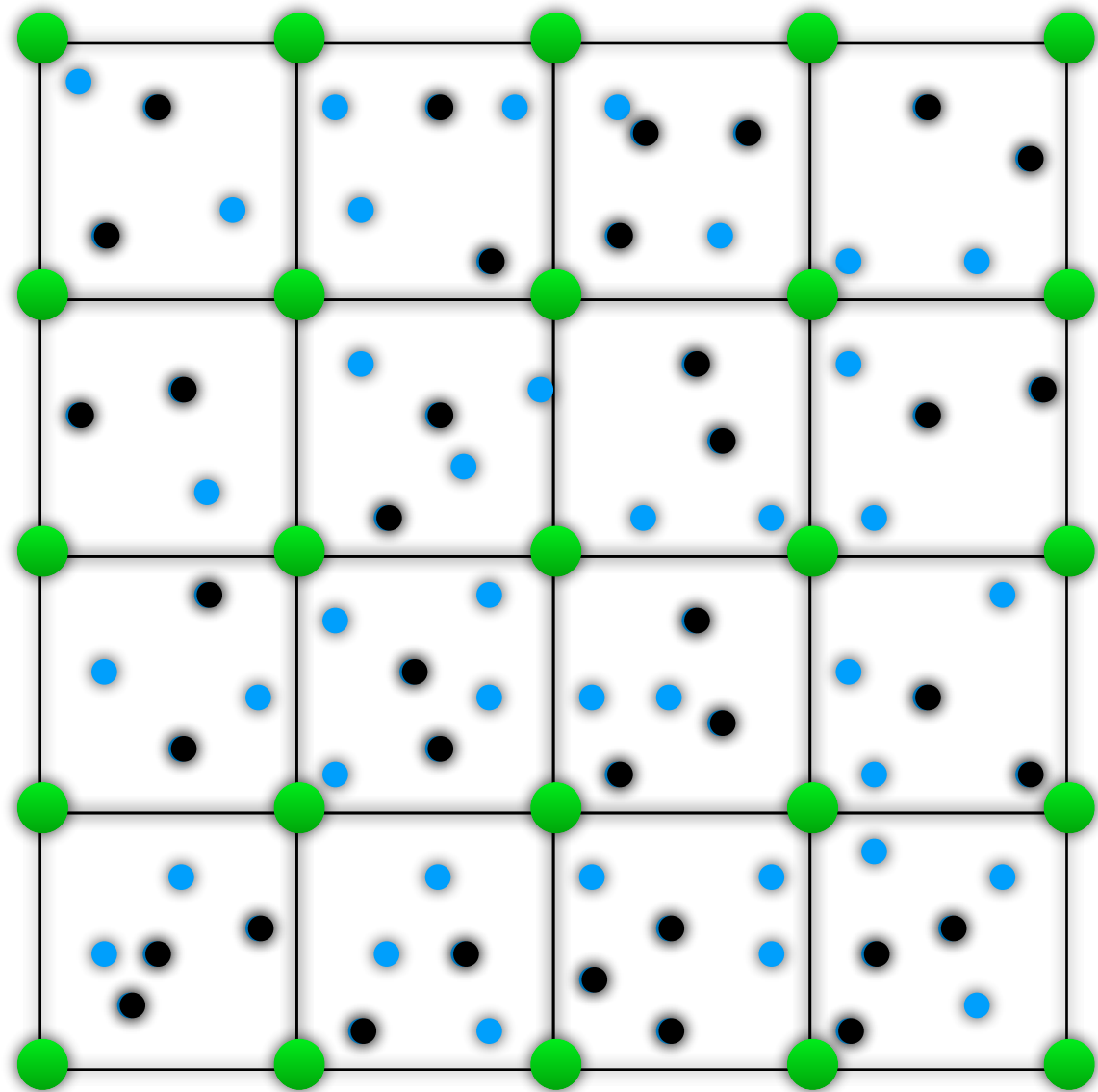
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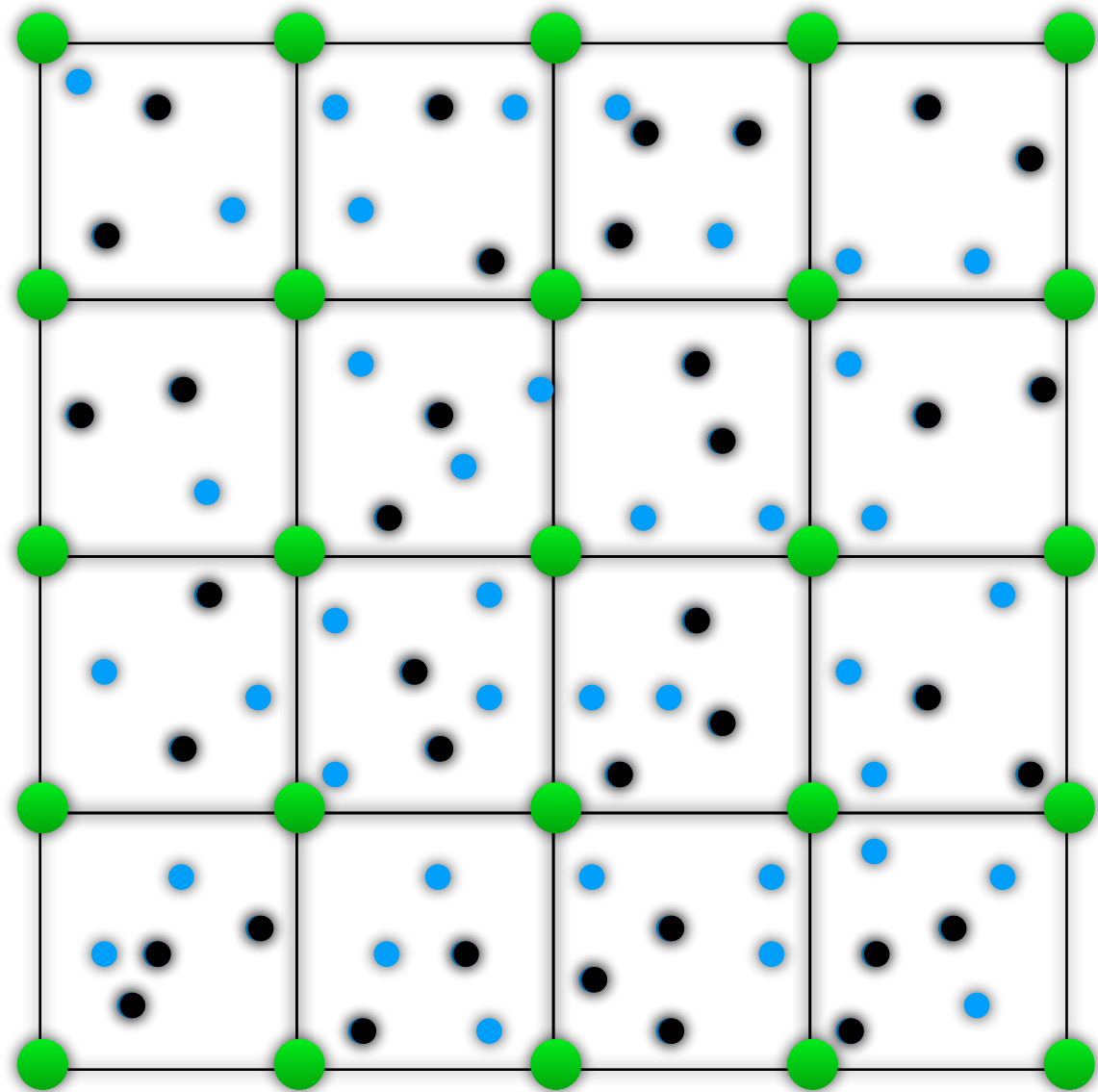


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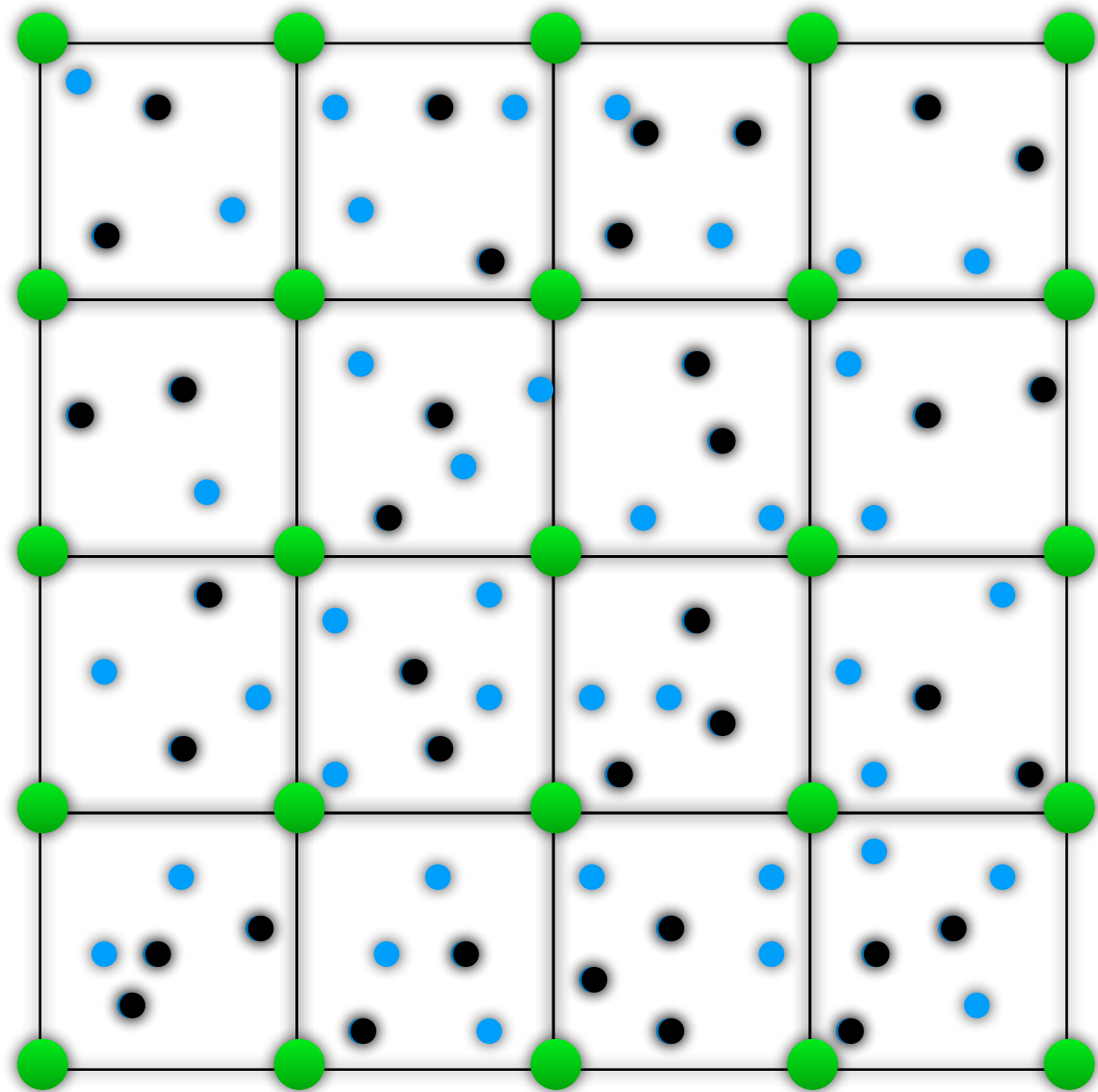
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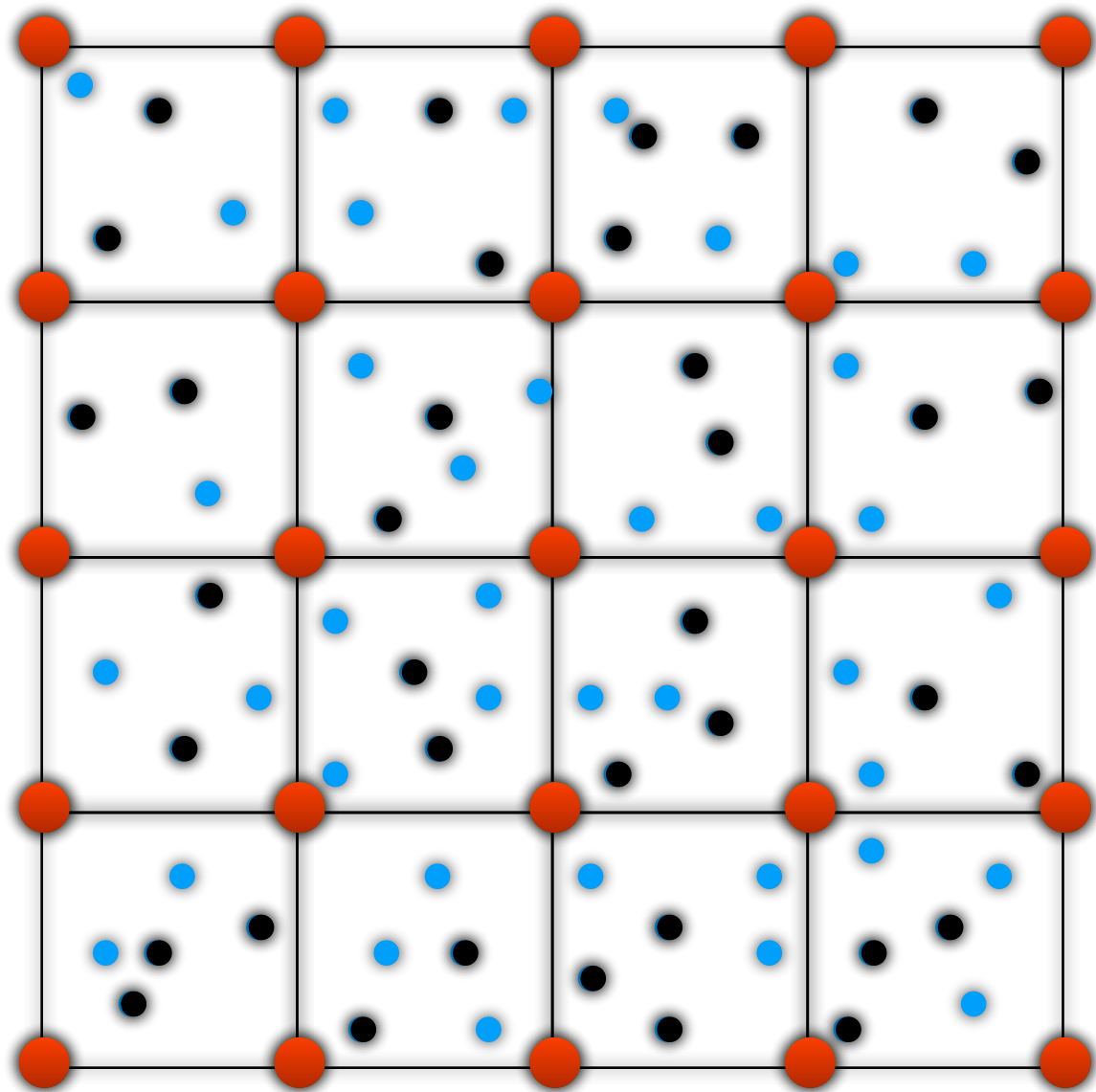


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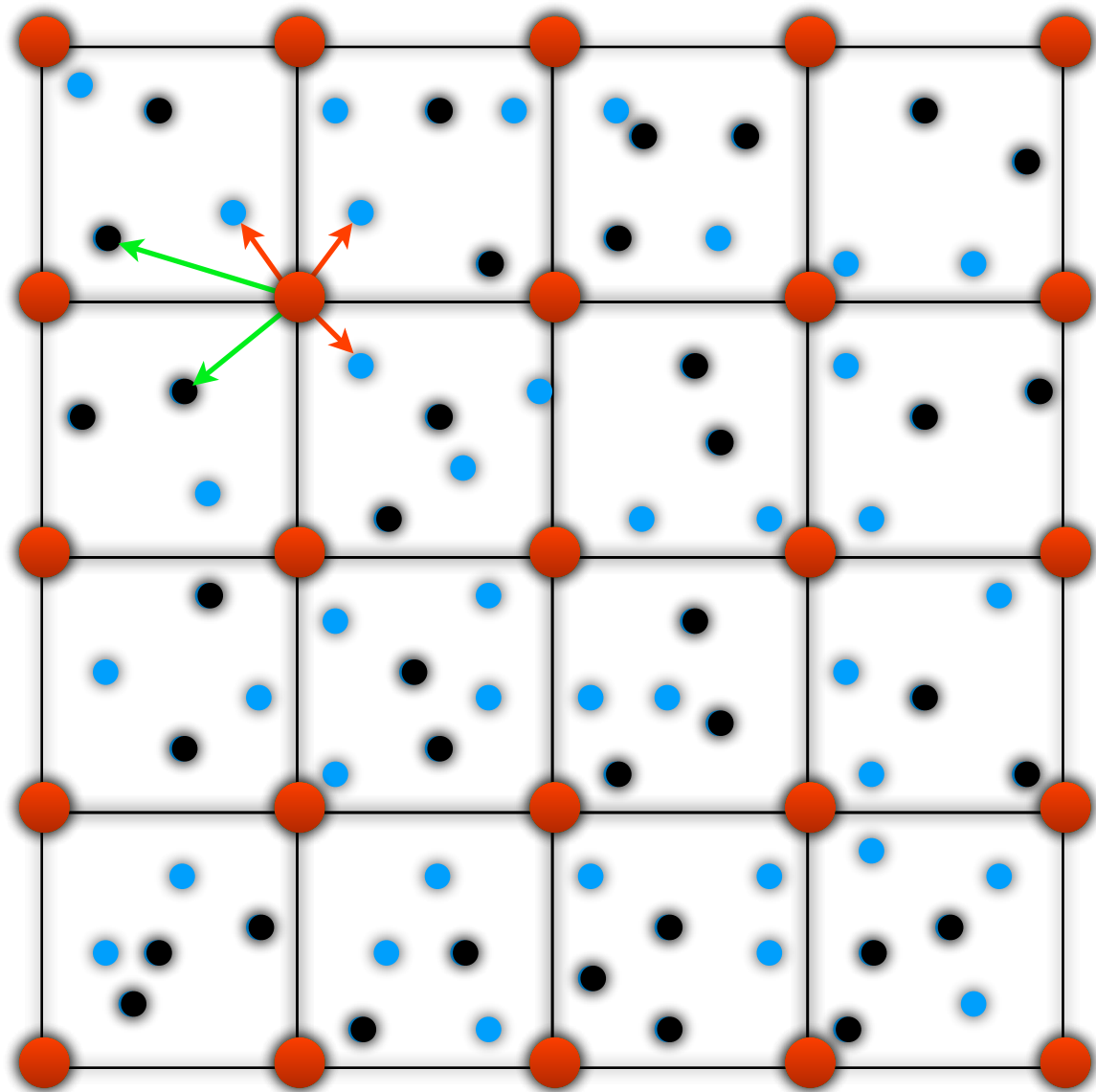


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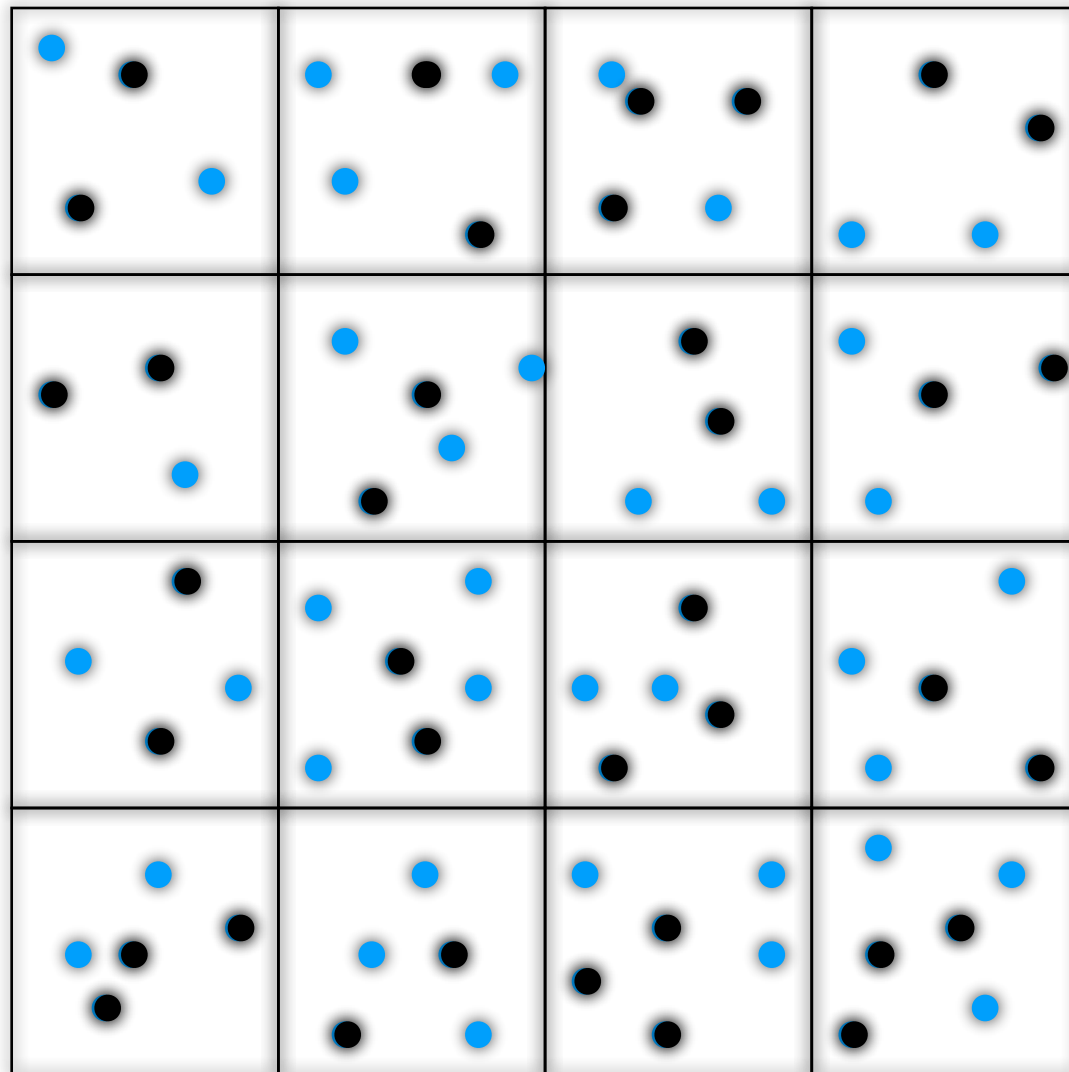


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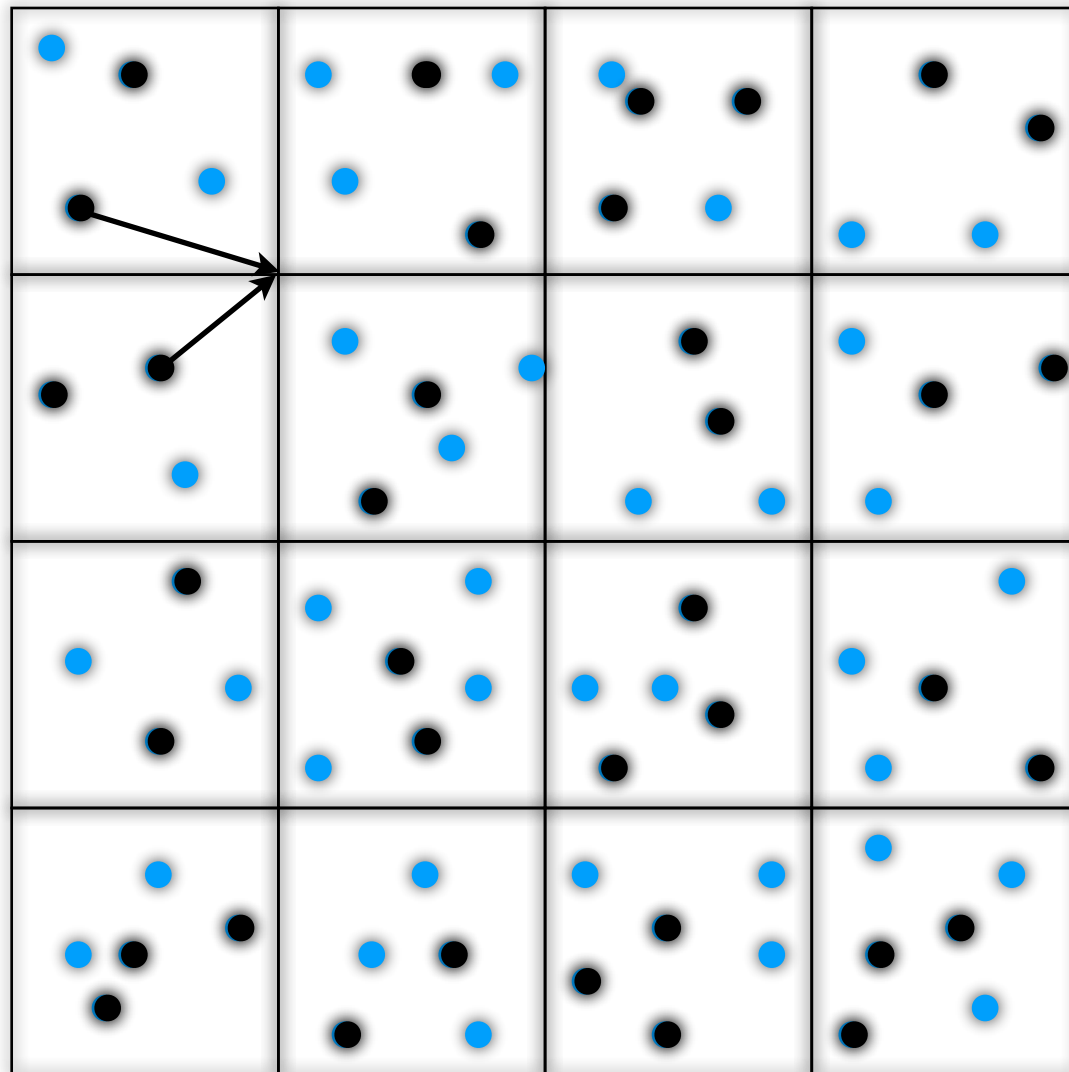


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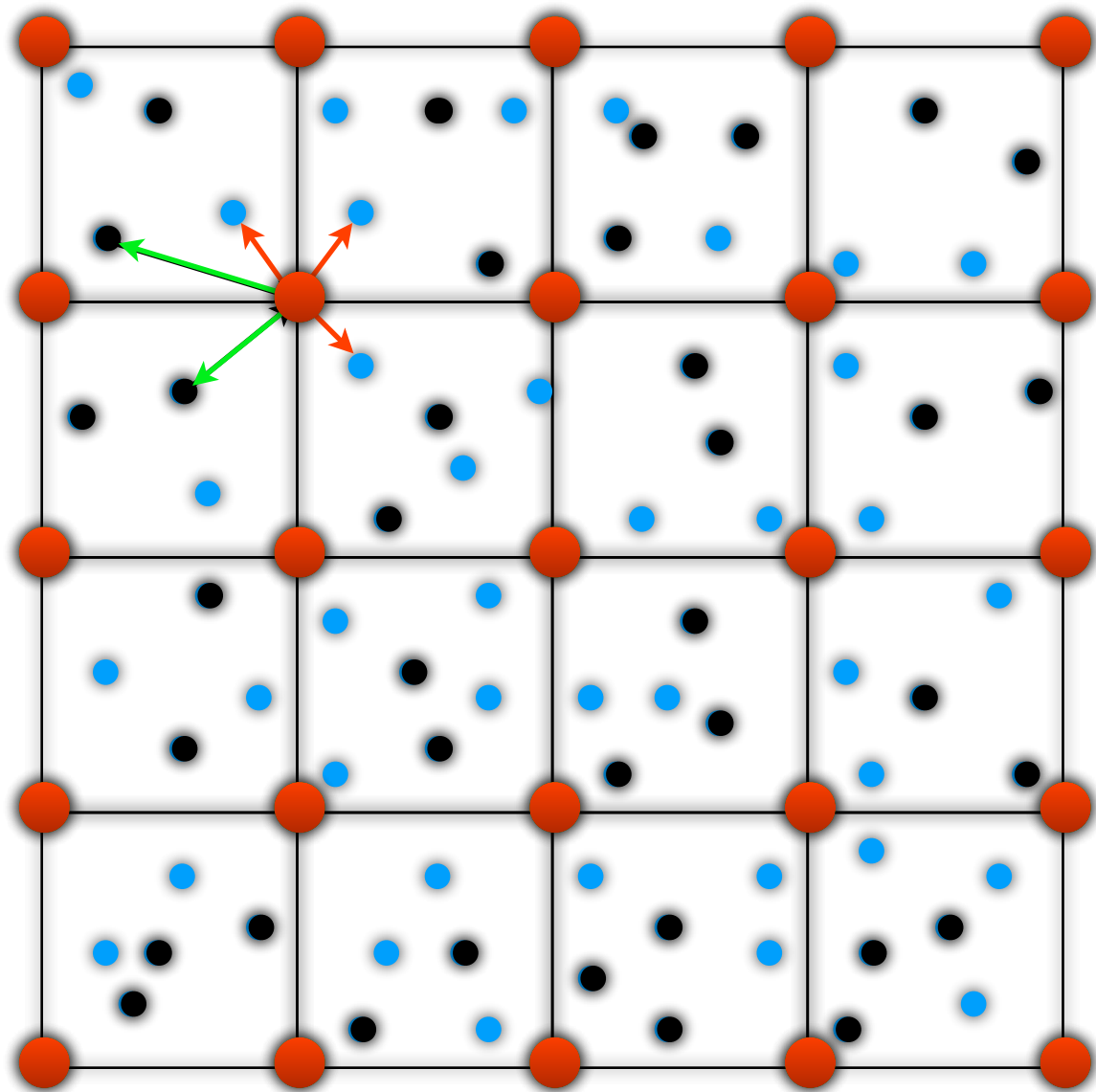


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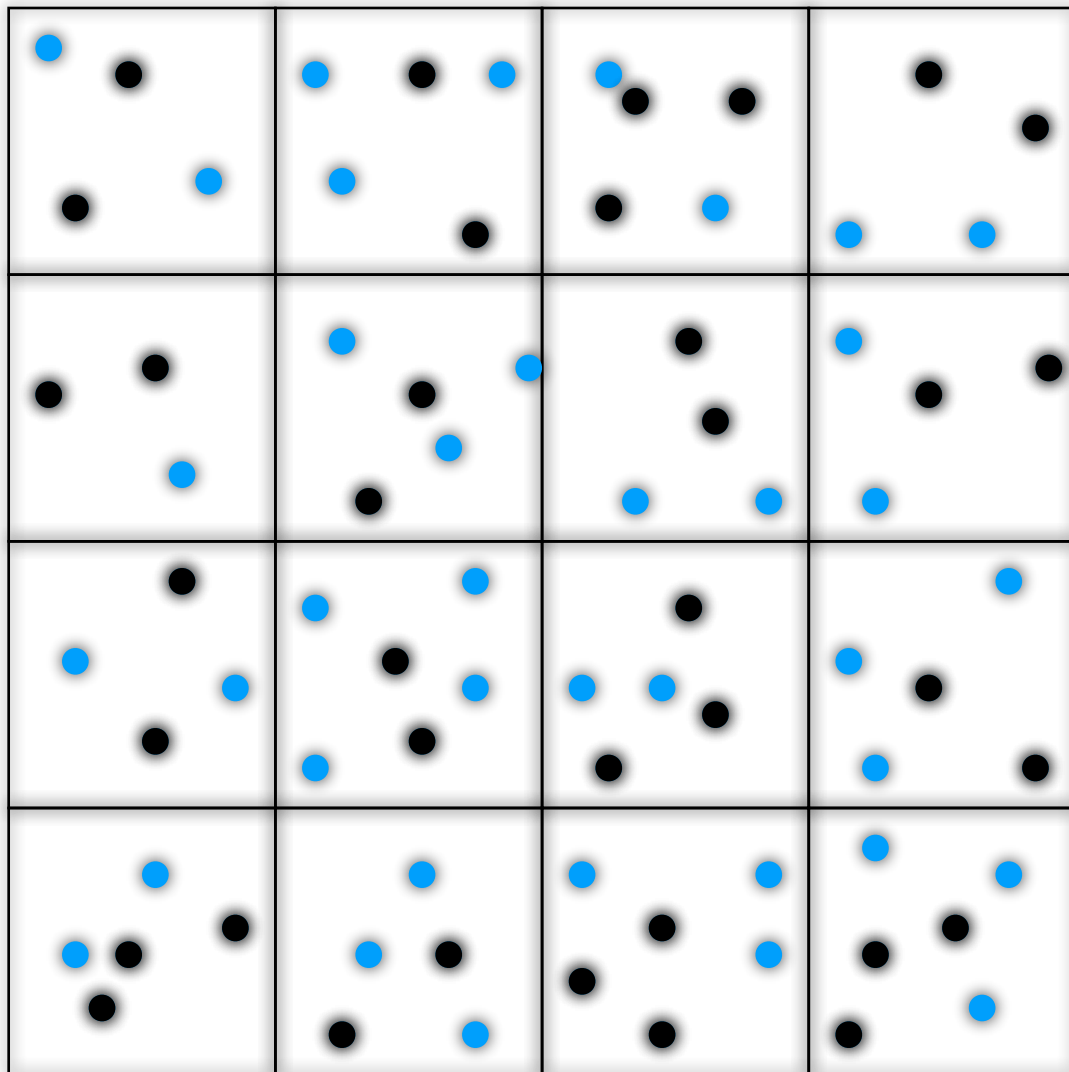


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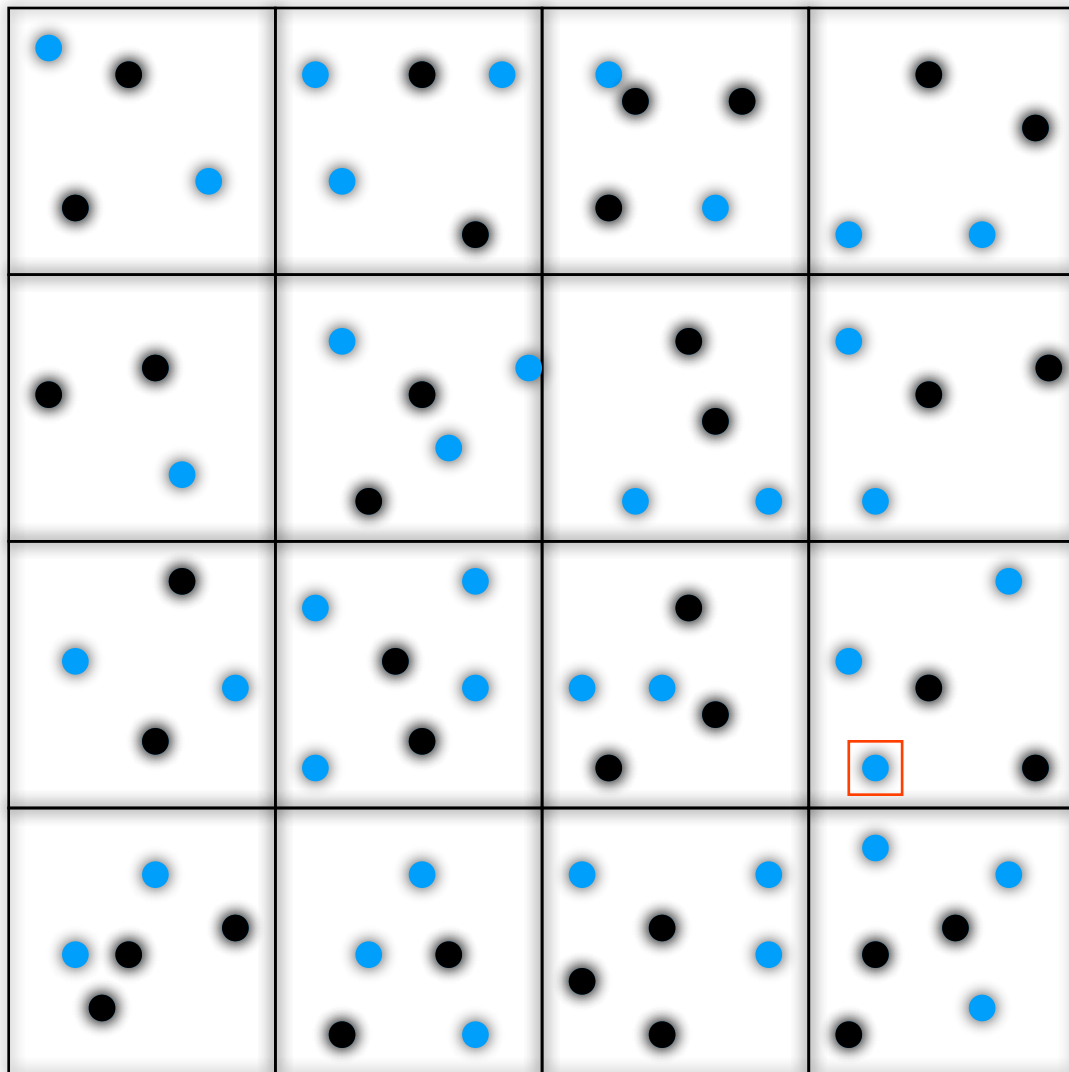


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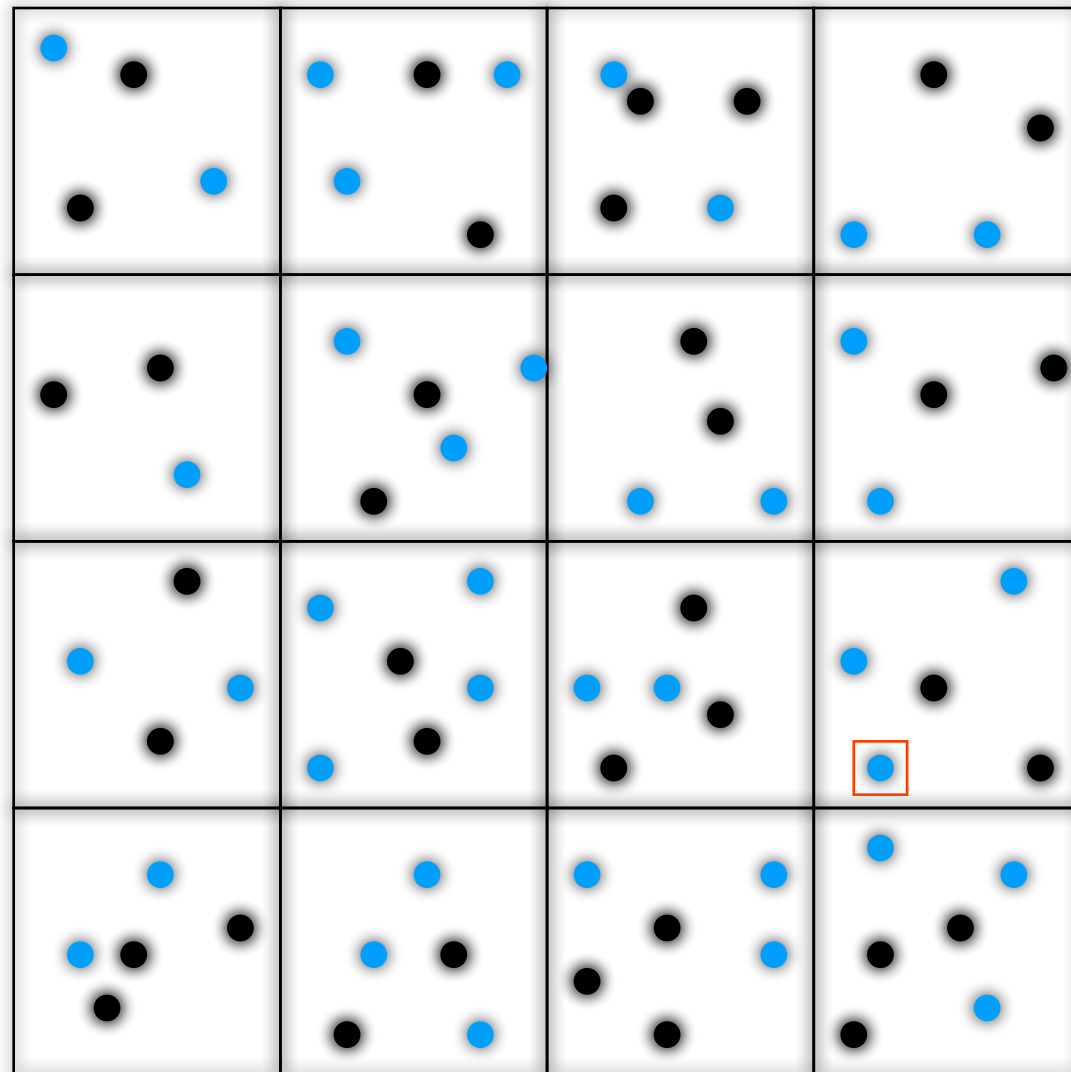
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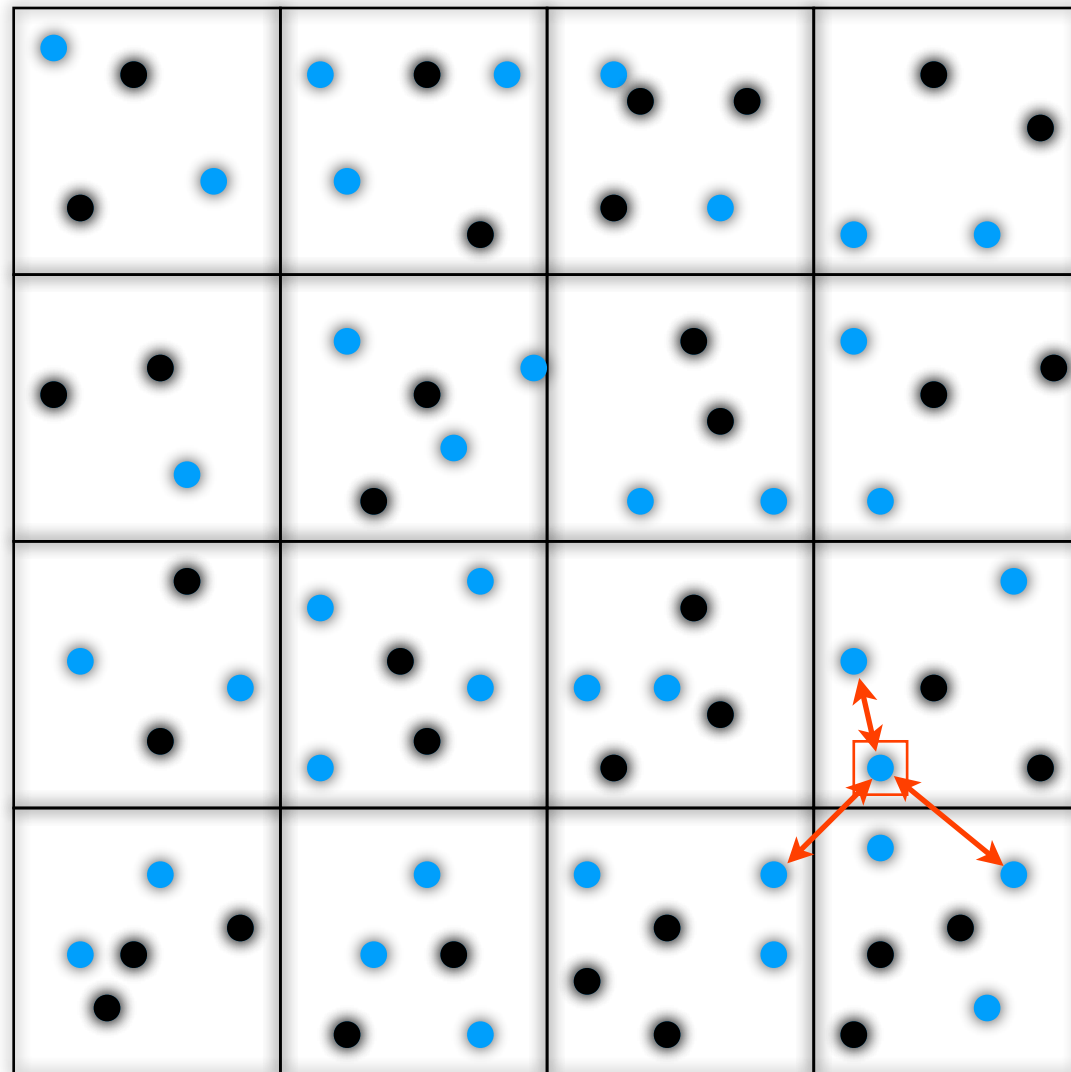
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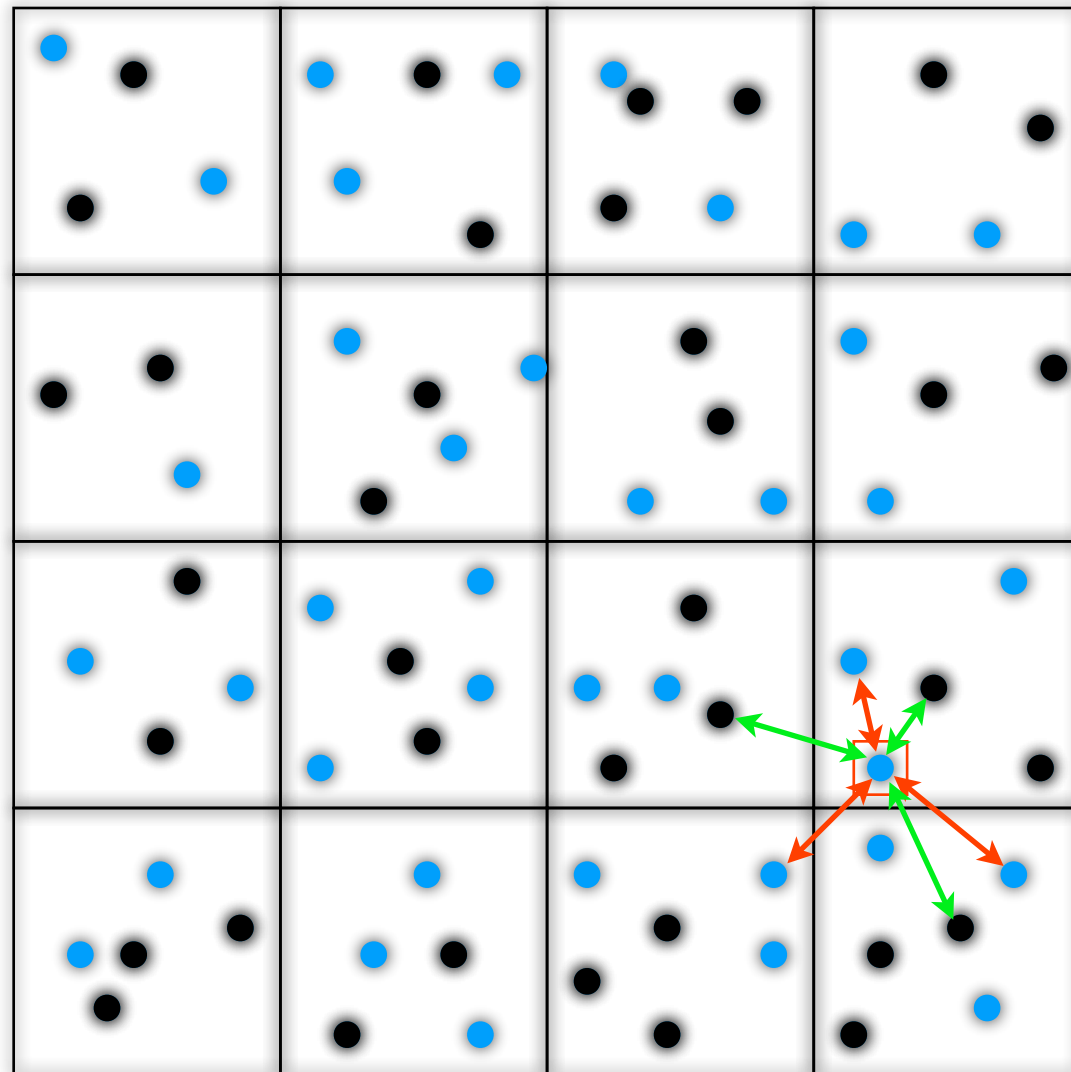
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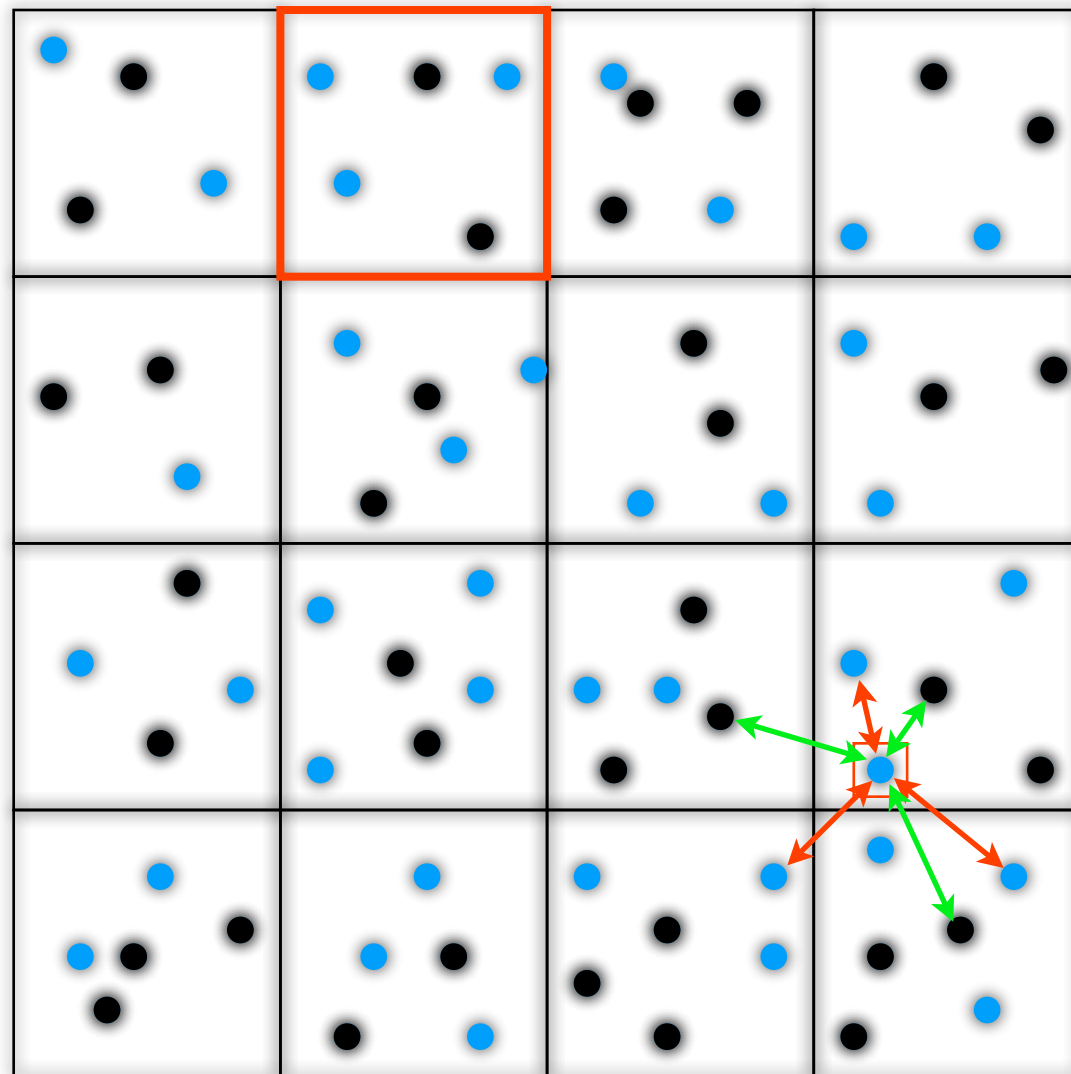
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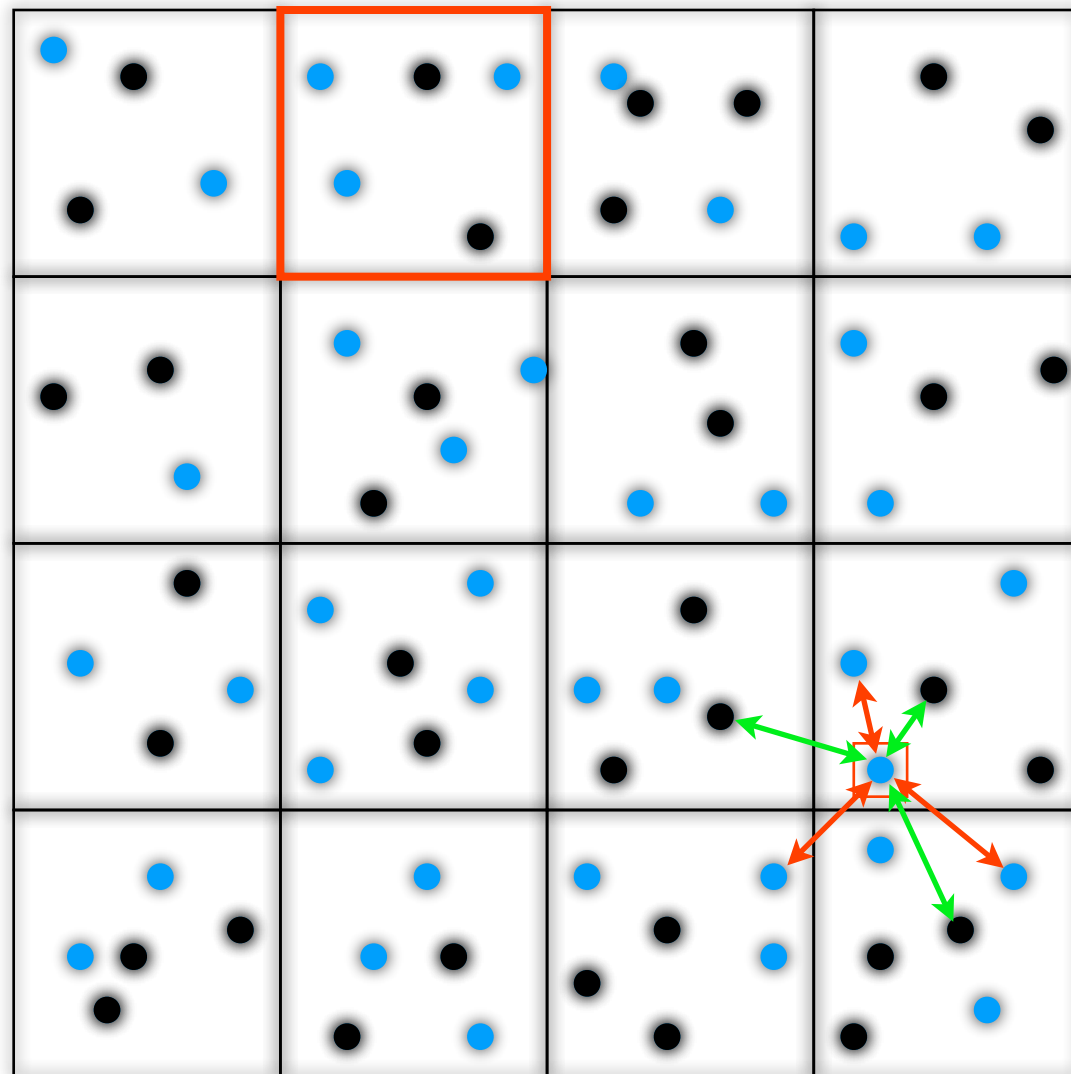
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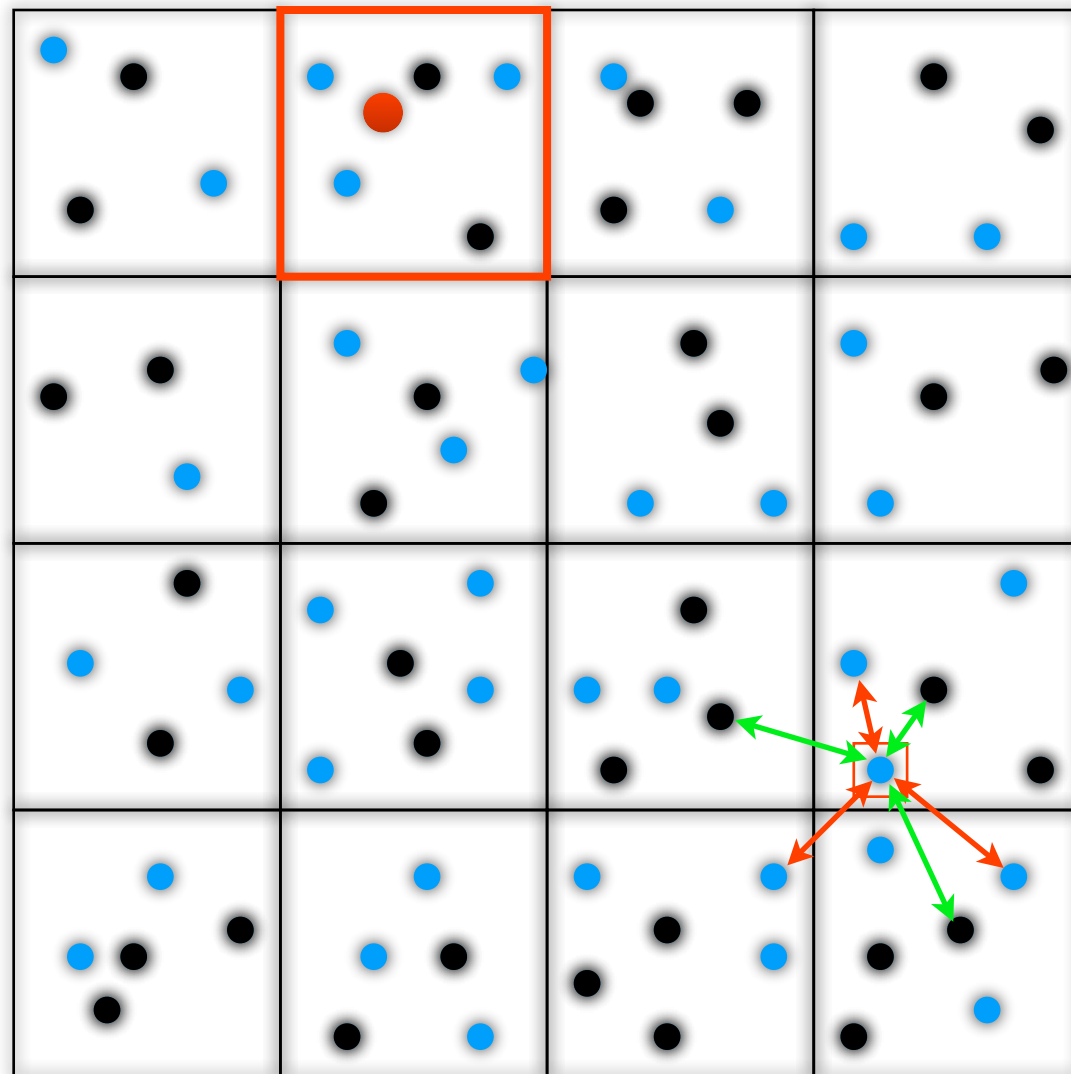
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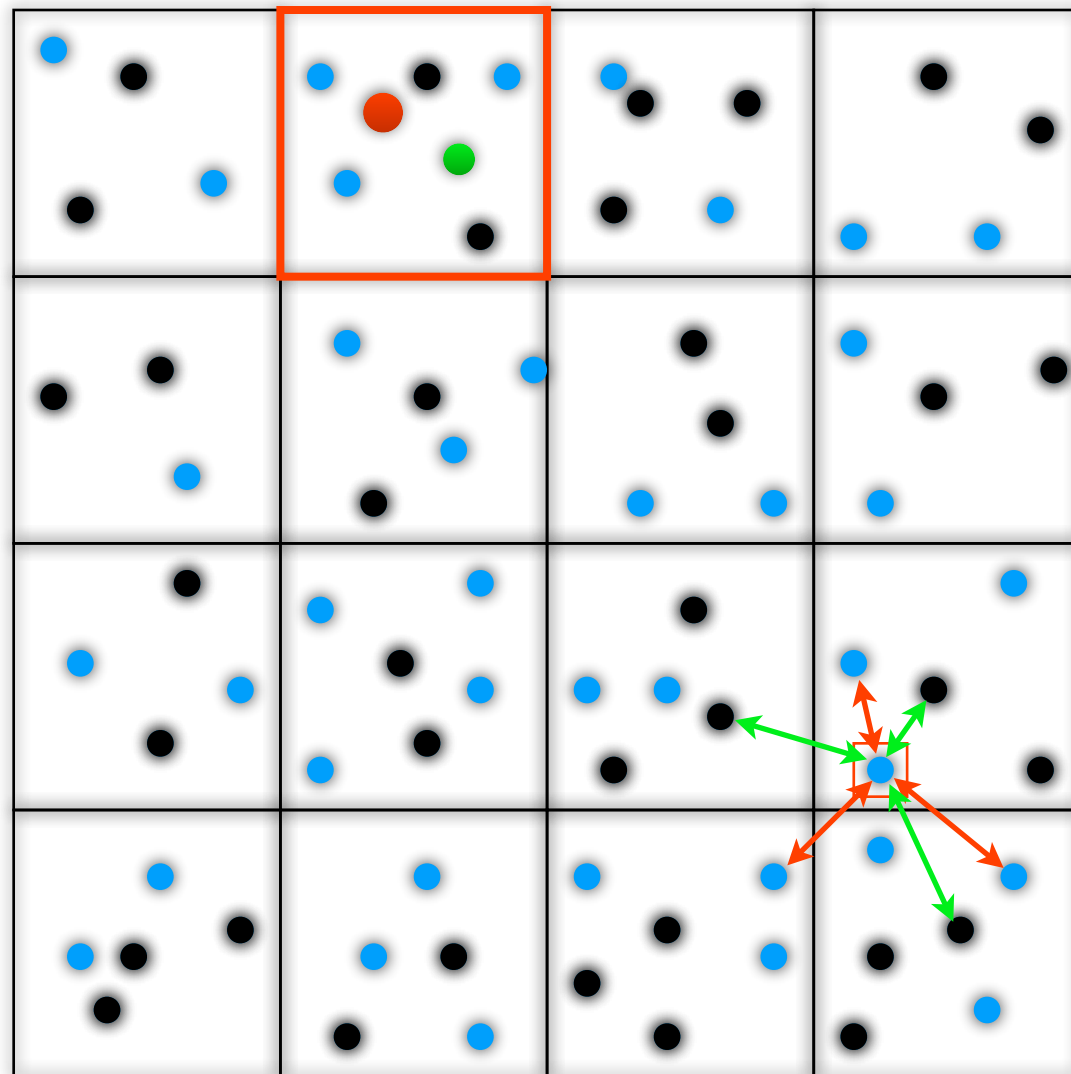
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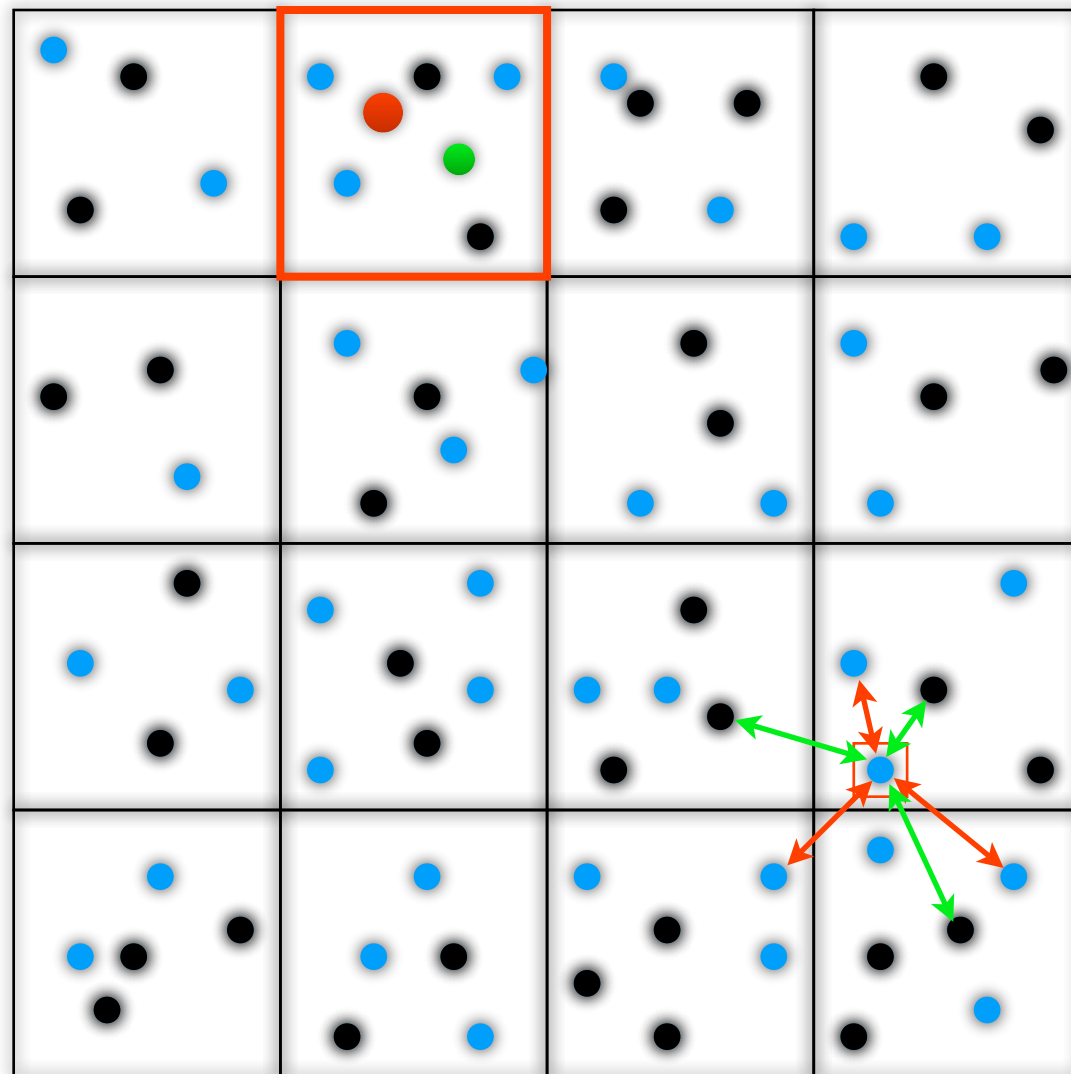
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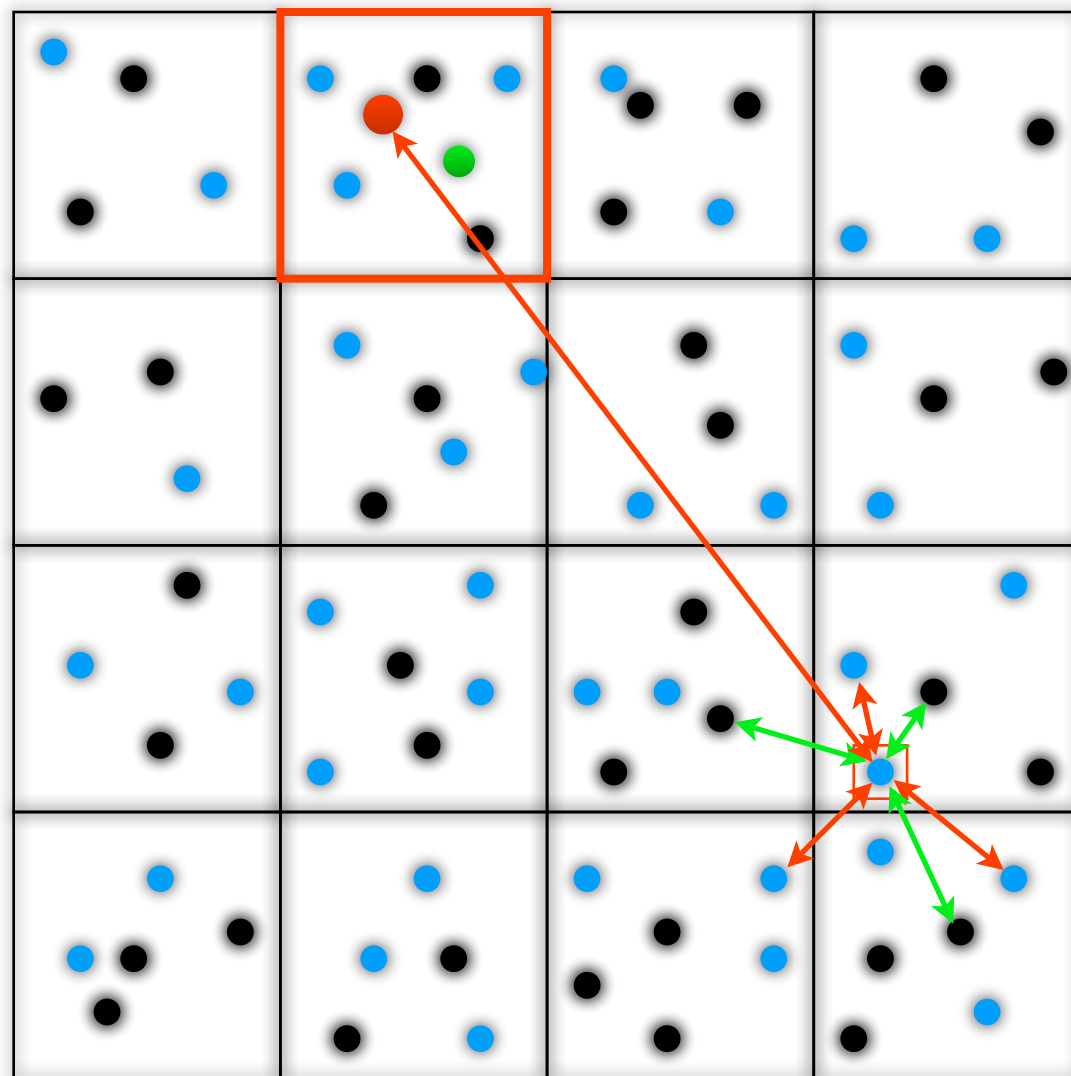
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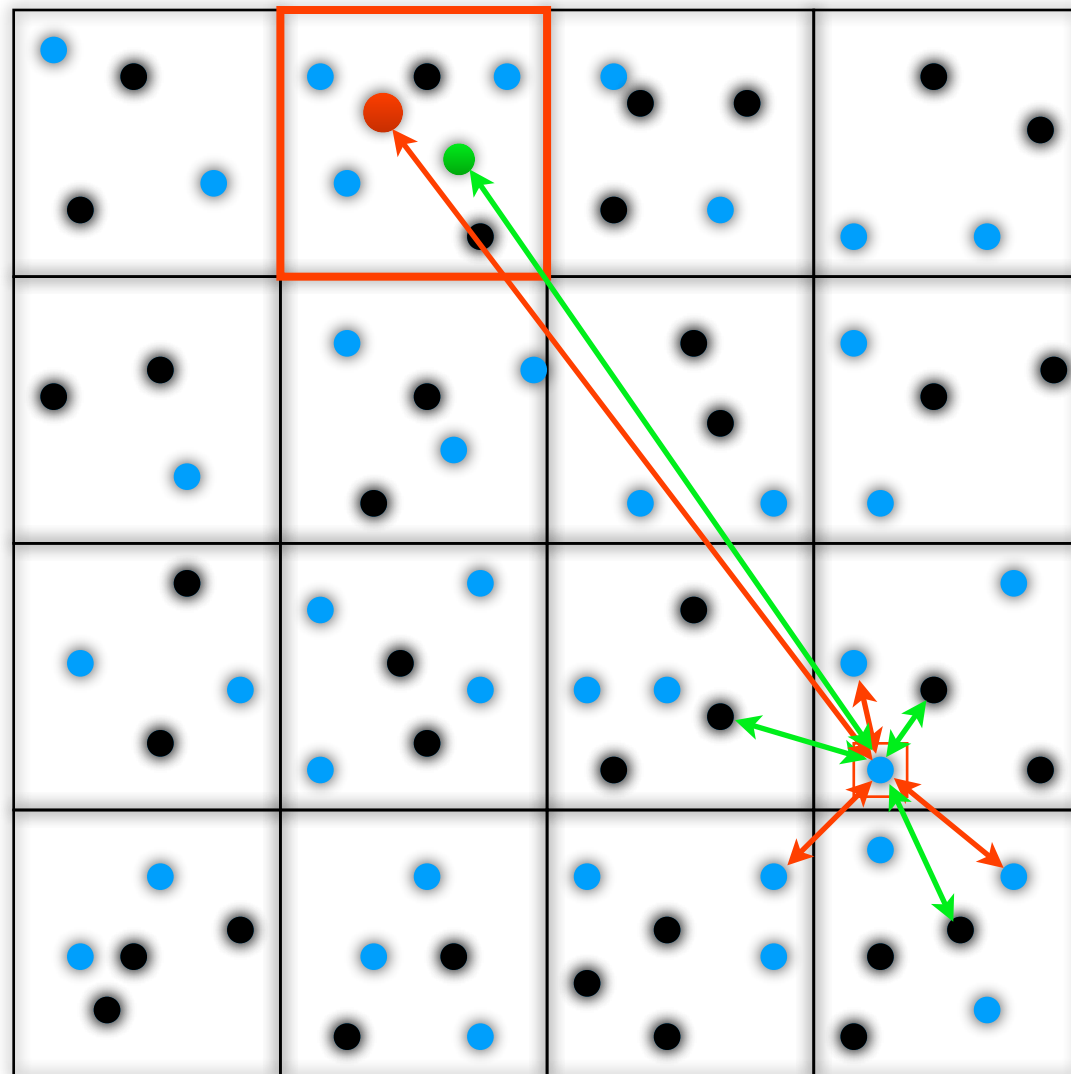
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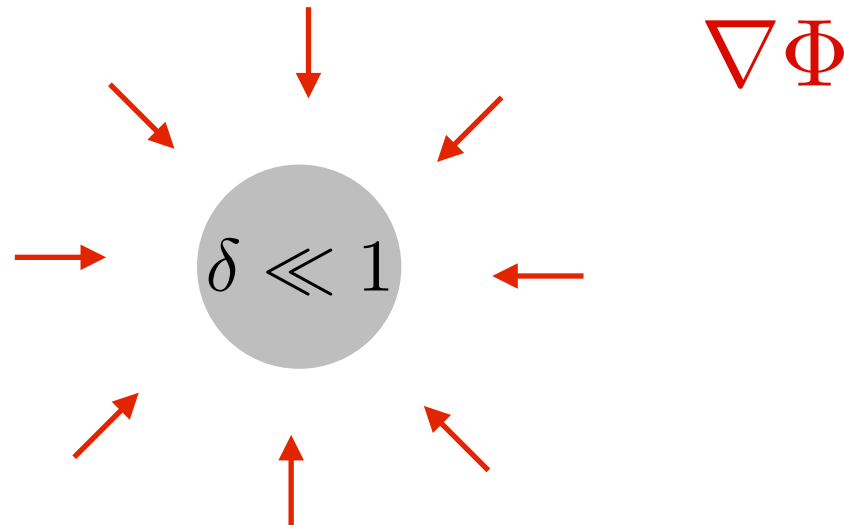
Linear Regime


$$\delta \ll 1$$

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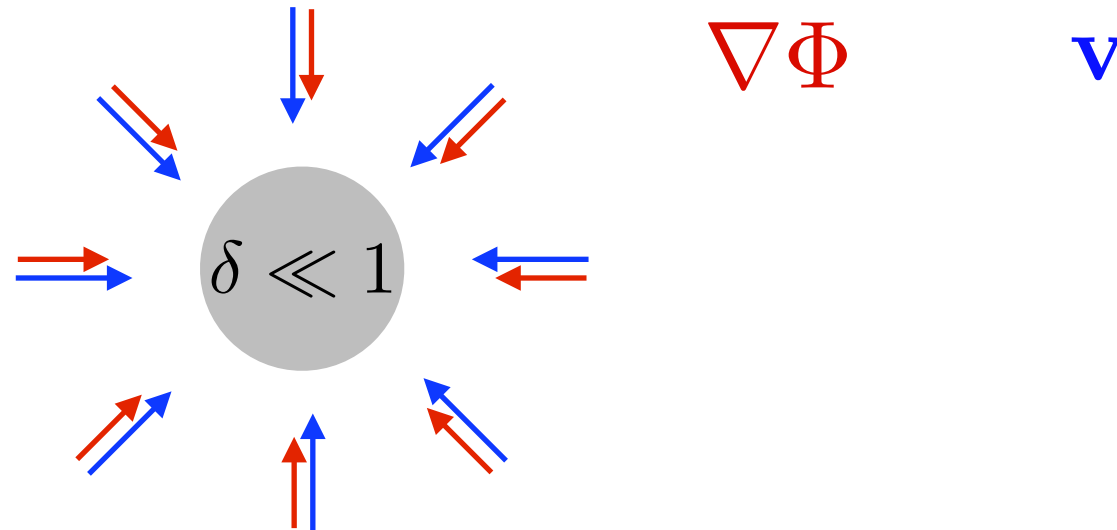




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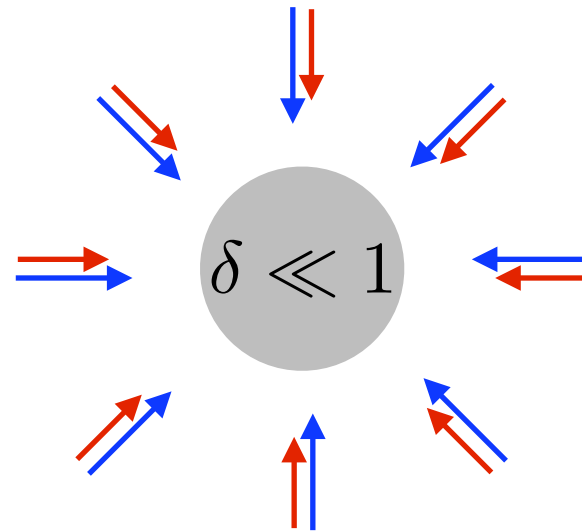
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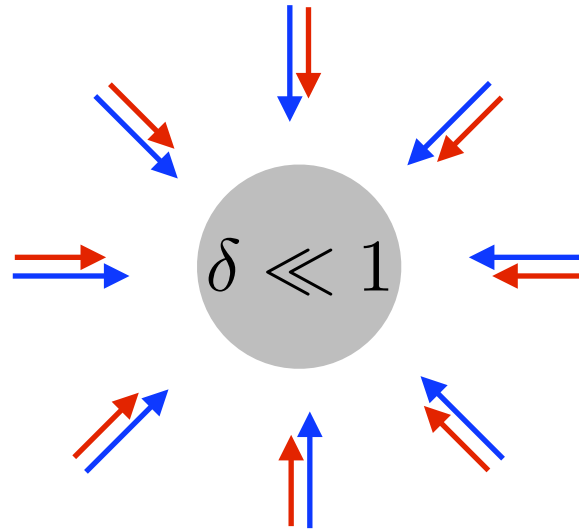


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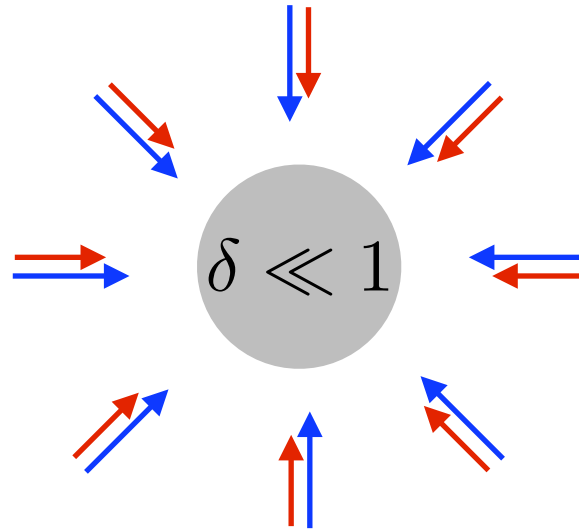


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friction/drag has no  
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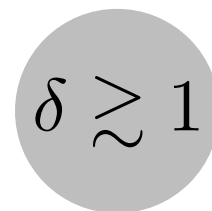
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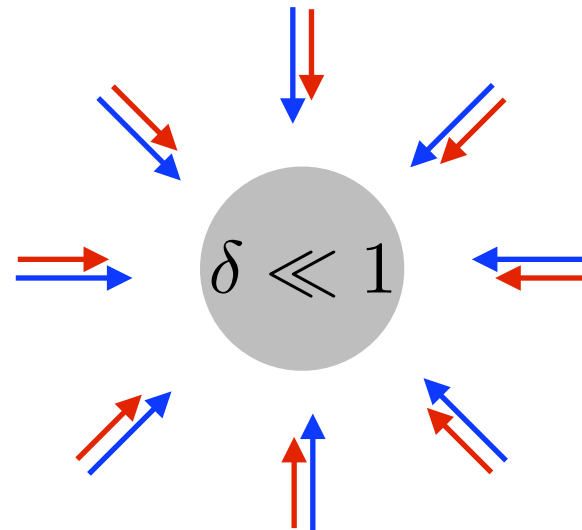
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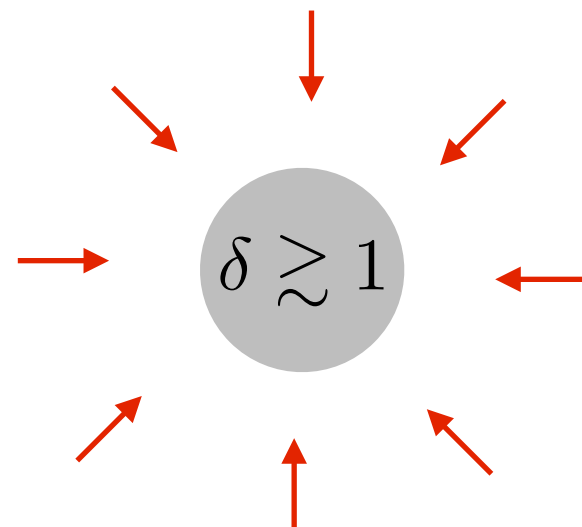
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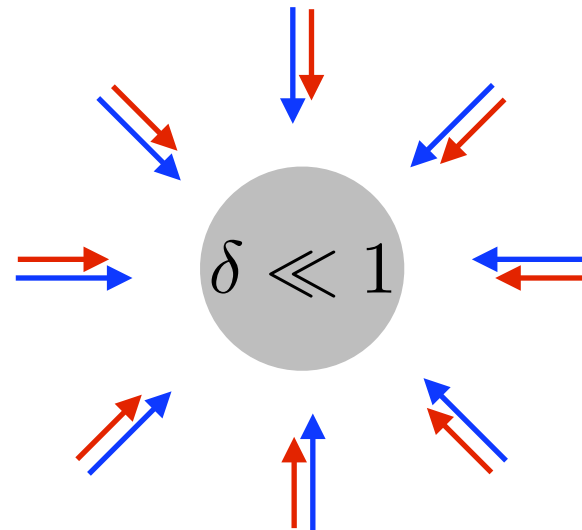


$\nabla\Phi$

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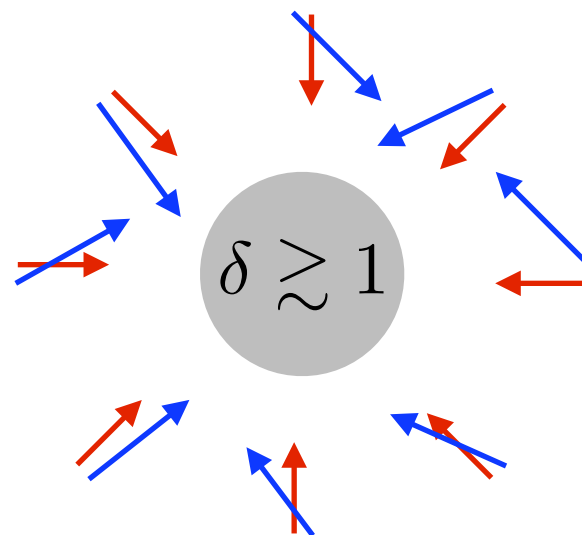
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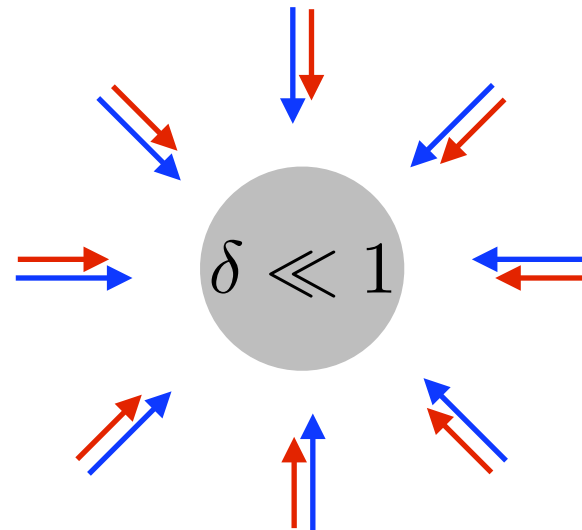


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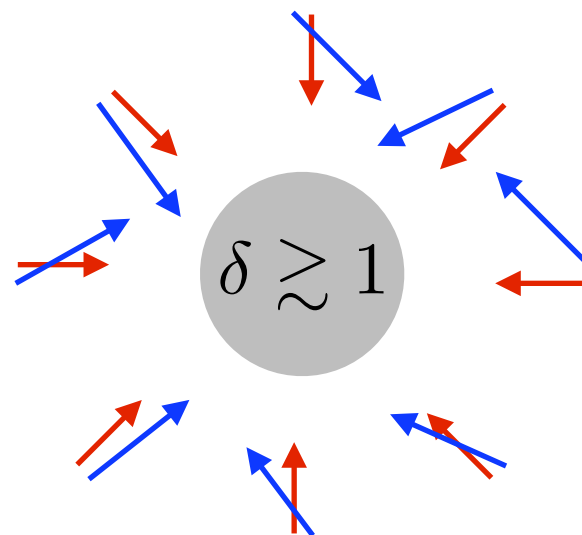
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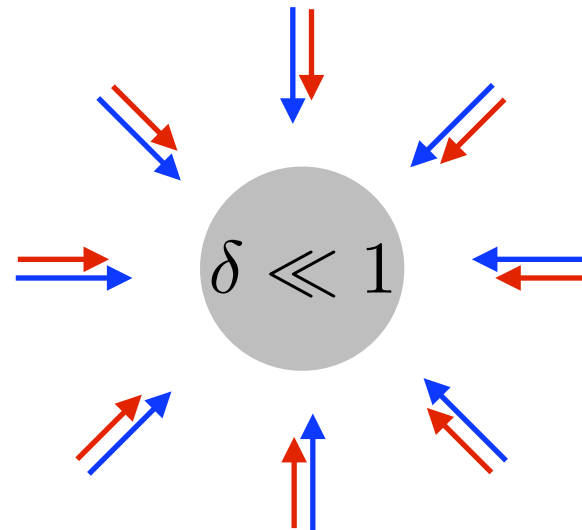
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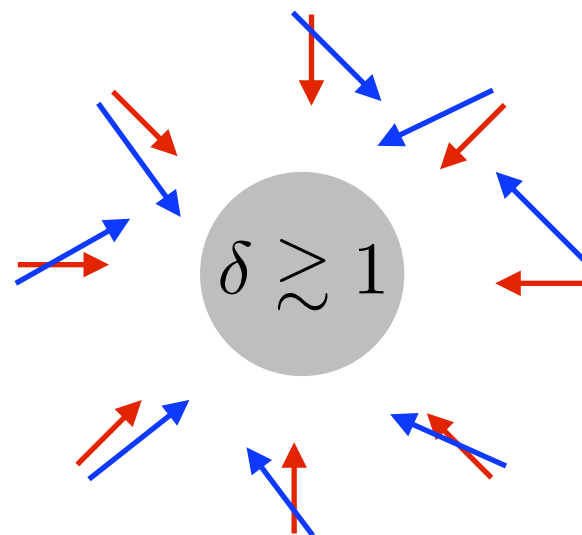
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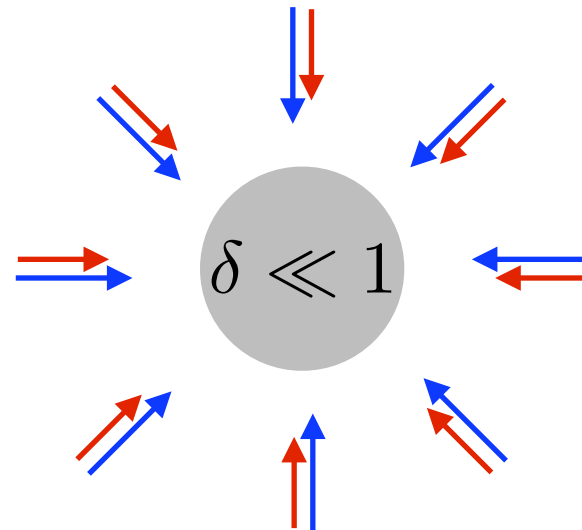
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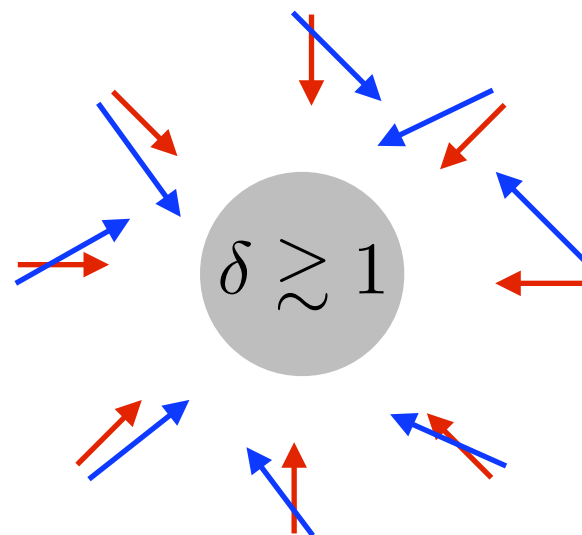
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**Very different effects at linear and non-linear scales**

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An alternative approach to the Dark Energy problem is to modify General Relativity in the low curvature regime by changing the gravitational Action. One of the most popular models of this modified gravity approach is  $f(R)$ :

$$S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} f(R) + S_m(g_{\mu\nu}, \Psi_m)$$

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By varying this Action with respect to the metric tensor, with a similar procedure as for the standard GR Action, one gets the  $f(R)$  field eqs:

$$f_R R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} f(R) g_{\mu\nu} - \nabla_\mu \nabla_\nu f_R + g_{\mu\nu} \square f_R = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$$

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└ trace  $\longrightarrow$   $3\square f_R + f_R R - 2f(R) = -8\pi G(\rho - 3p)$

where we have defined  $f_R \equiv df/dR$

# Modified Gravity: $f(R)$

In GR one has  $f(R) = R - 2\Lambda$  so that  $f_R = 1$  and  $\square f_R = 0$

On the contrary, if  $f_R$  is a function of  $R$  one has  $\square f_R \neq 0$  so that  $f_R$  corresponds to a new propagating scalar degree of freedom.



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A particularly relevant model of  $f(R)$  gravity is given by the choice (Hu & Sawicki 2007):

$$f(R) = R - m^2 \frac{c_1 (R/m^2)^n}{c_2 (R/m^2)^n + 1} \quad m^2 \equiv \frac{8\pi G \rho_0}{3}$$

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In this setup the  $f(R)$  model will differ from the standard  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology only at the level of linear and non-linear perturbations

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By perturbing this equation at linear order (posing  $f_R = \bar{f}_R + \delta f_R$ ):

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2\right) \delta f_R = -M^2(f_R)\delta f_R + \frac{8\pi G}{3\bar{f}_R}\delta\rho_M$$

That in the quasi-static approximation becomes:

$$\nabla^2 \delta f_R = M^2(f_R)\delta f_R - \frac{8\pi G}{3\bar{f}_R}\delta\rho_M$$

that is **the same equation we saw for interacting dark energy**.

However, differently from the case of interacting Dark Energy, in f(R) one **CANNOT assume**

$$M^2(f_R)\delta f_R \ll \delta\rho_M \quad \textbf{NOT TRUE}$$

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This can be rewritten as:

$$\nabla^2 f_R = \frac{1}{3c^2} (\delta R - 8\pi G \delta \rho) \quad \delta R = \bar{R}(a) \left( \sqrt{\frac{\bar{f}_R(a)}{f_R}} - 1 \right) \quad (\star)$$

with the solution of the field configuration affecting structure formation through

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Not possible to solve ( $\star$ ) using PM or Tree methods. Need to resort on the iterative Newton-Raphson approach (Newton-Gauss-Seidel relaxation method)

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If superposition principle does not hold, it is not possible to solve the equation using PM or Tree methods. Need to resort on the iterative Newton-Raphson approach (Newton-Gauss-Seidel relaxation method)

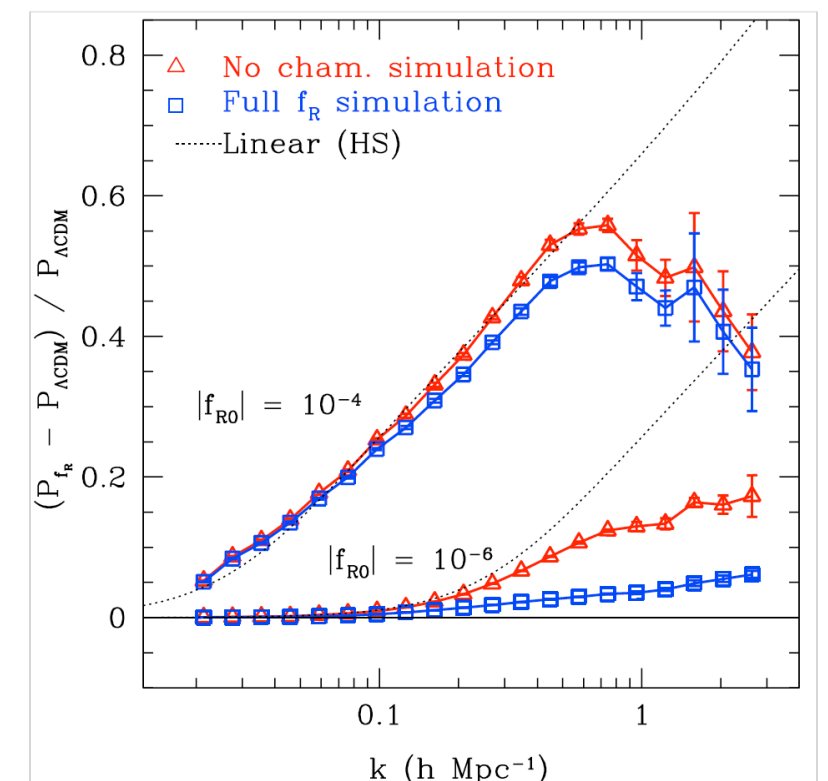
This has been implemented in several simulation codes after the first simulations performed by *Oyaizu et al. 2008*:

*Ecosmog (Li et al. 2012)*

*MG-Gadget (Puchwein et al. 2013)*

*Isis (Llinares et al. 2014)*

*MG-Arepo (Arnold et al. 2019)*



# N-body algorithms for MG

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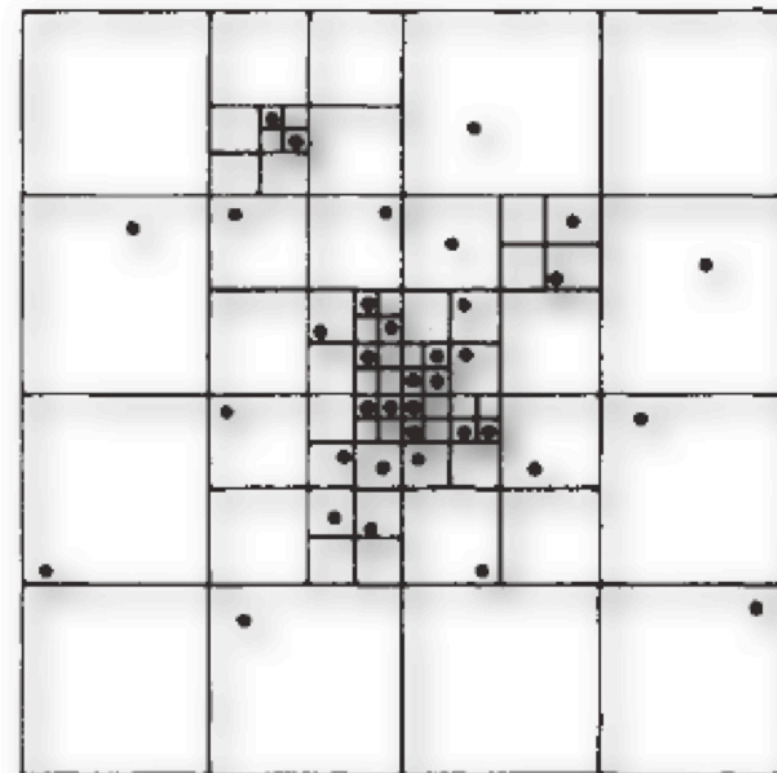
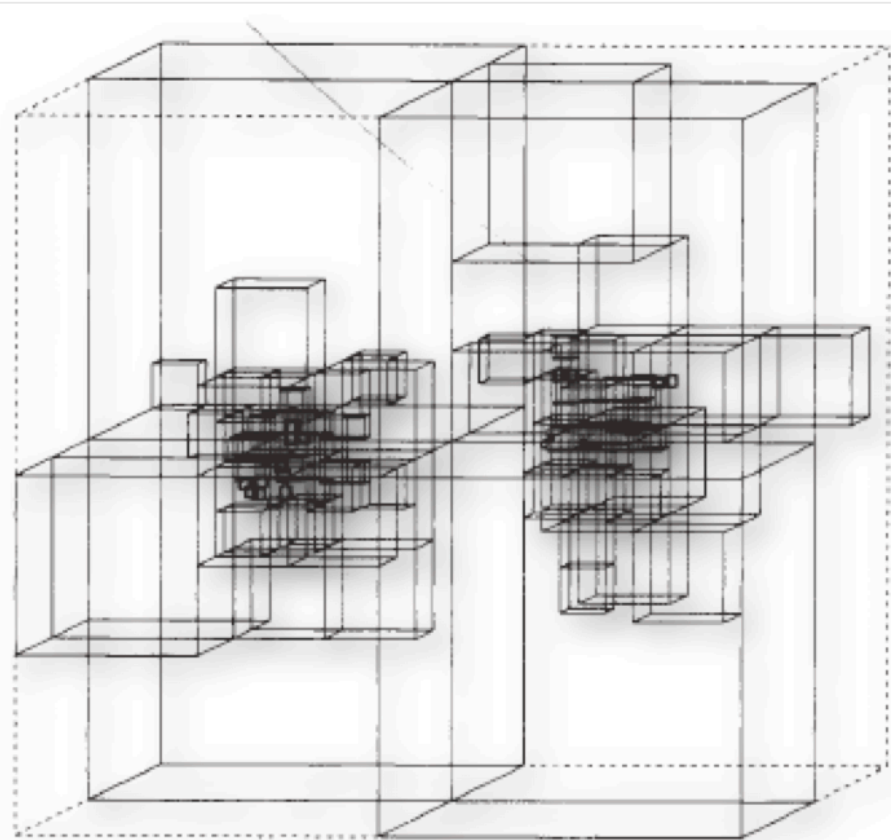
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Barnes & Hut 1986



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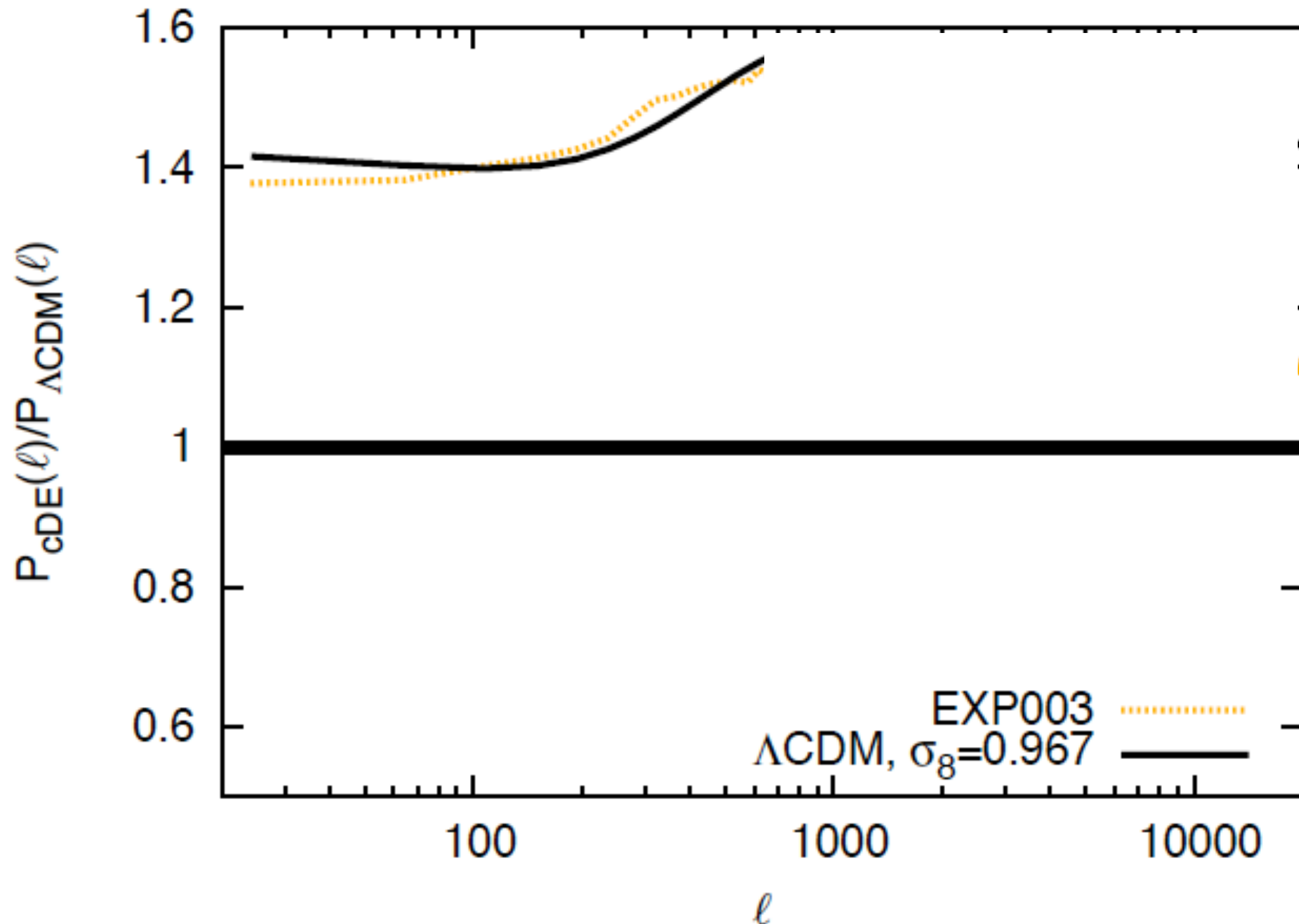
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- The tree nodes are used as the cells of an adaptive mesh
- Employs multi-grid acceleration to achieve faster convergence
- Once  $f_R$  is known,  $\delta R(f_R)$  is also known, and the Poisson equation can be solved by adding up the standard and the MG contributions

# Why doing Cosmological Simulations (for extended cosmological models)?

# Interacting Dark Energy

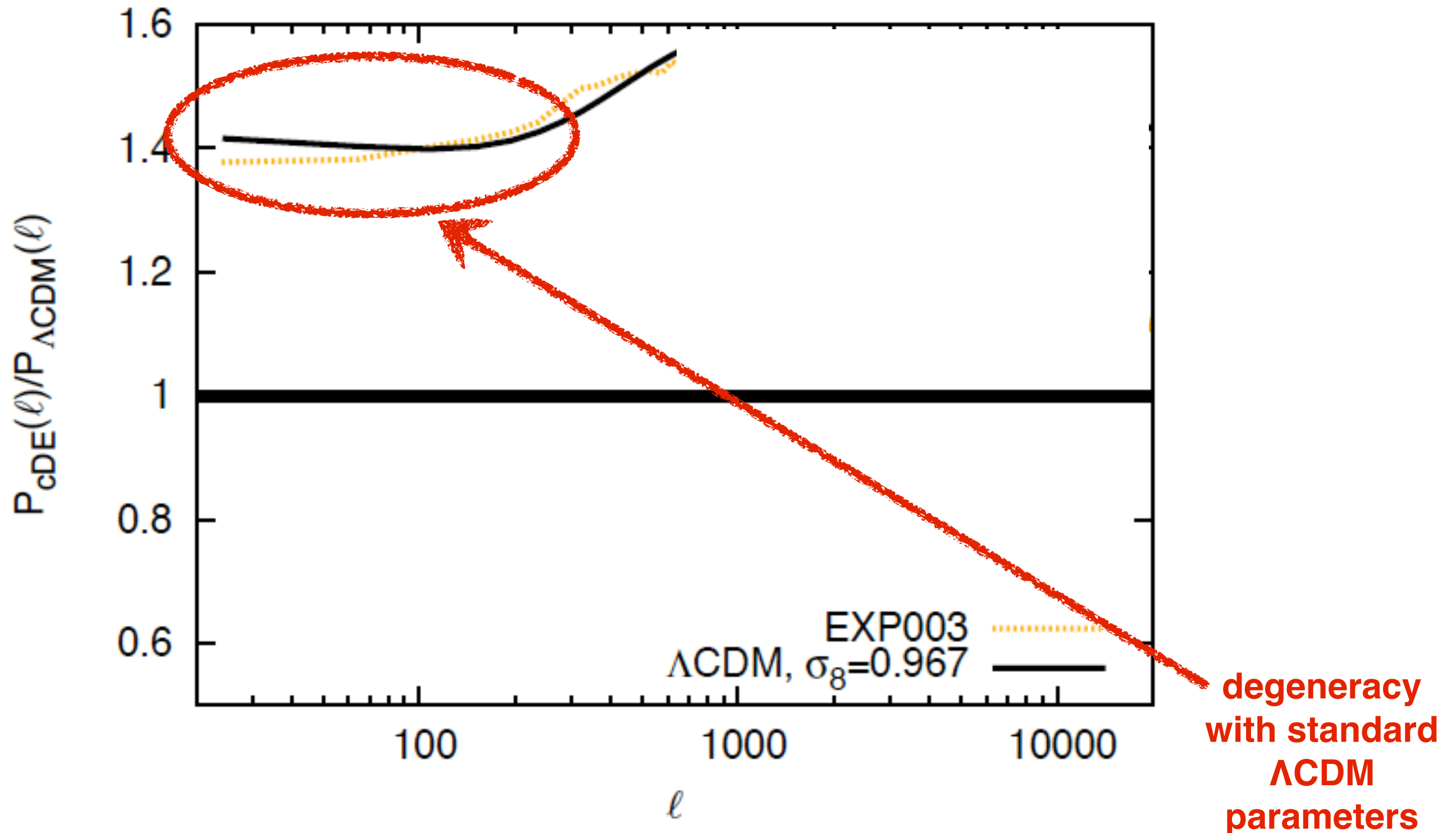
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Lensing power spectrum **extracted from N-body simulations** with a ray-tracing technique (Pace, MB, et al. 2014)



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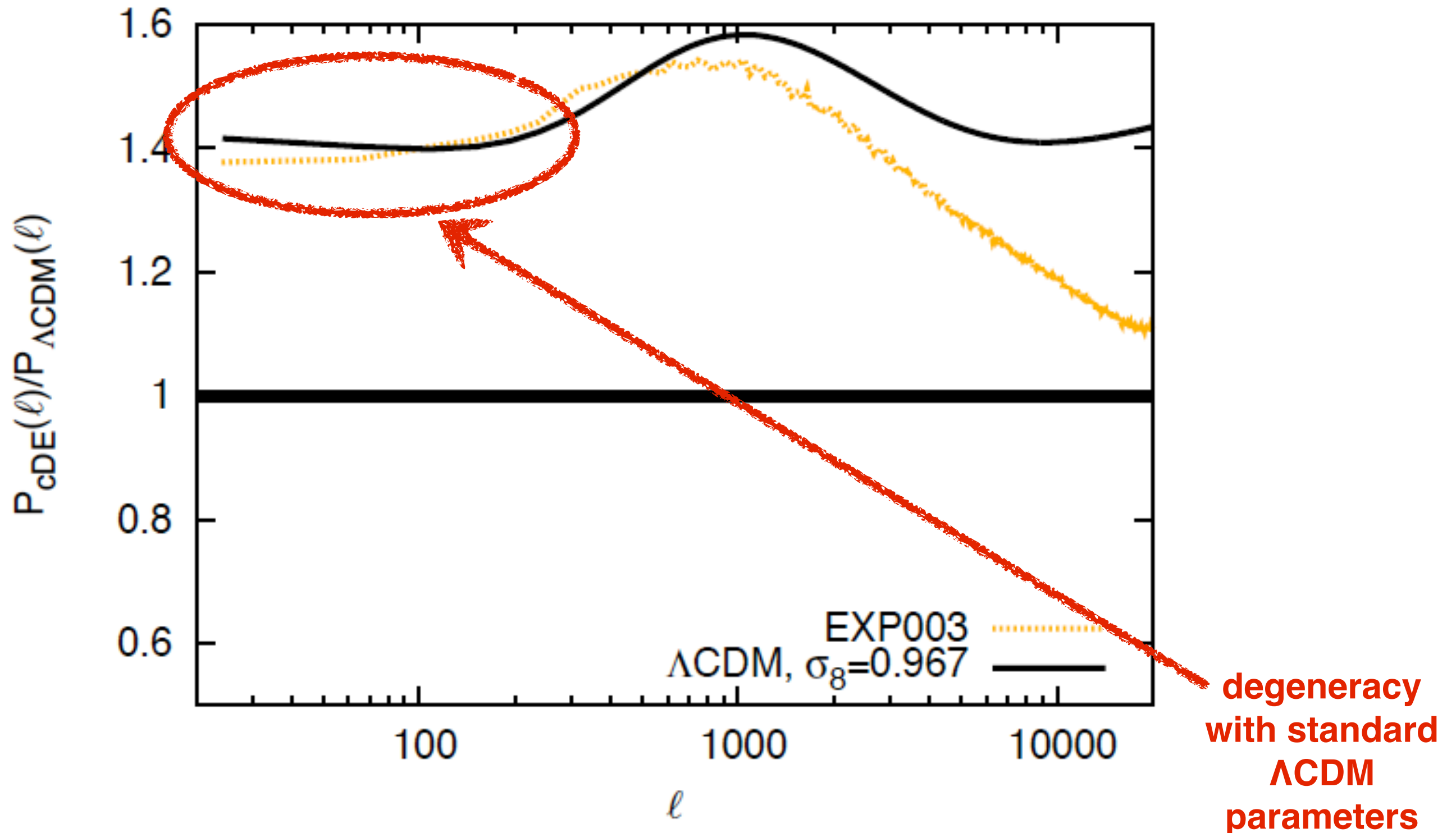
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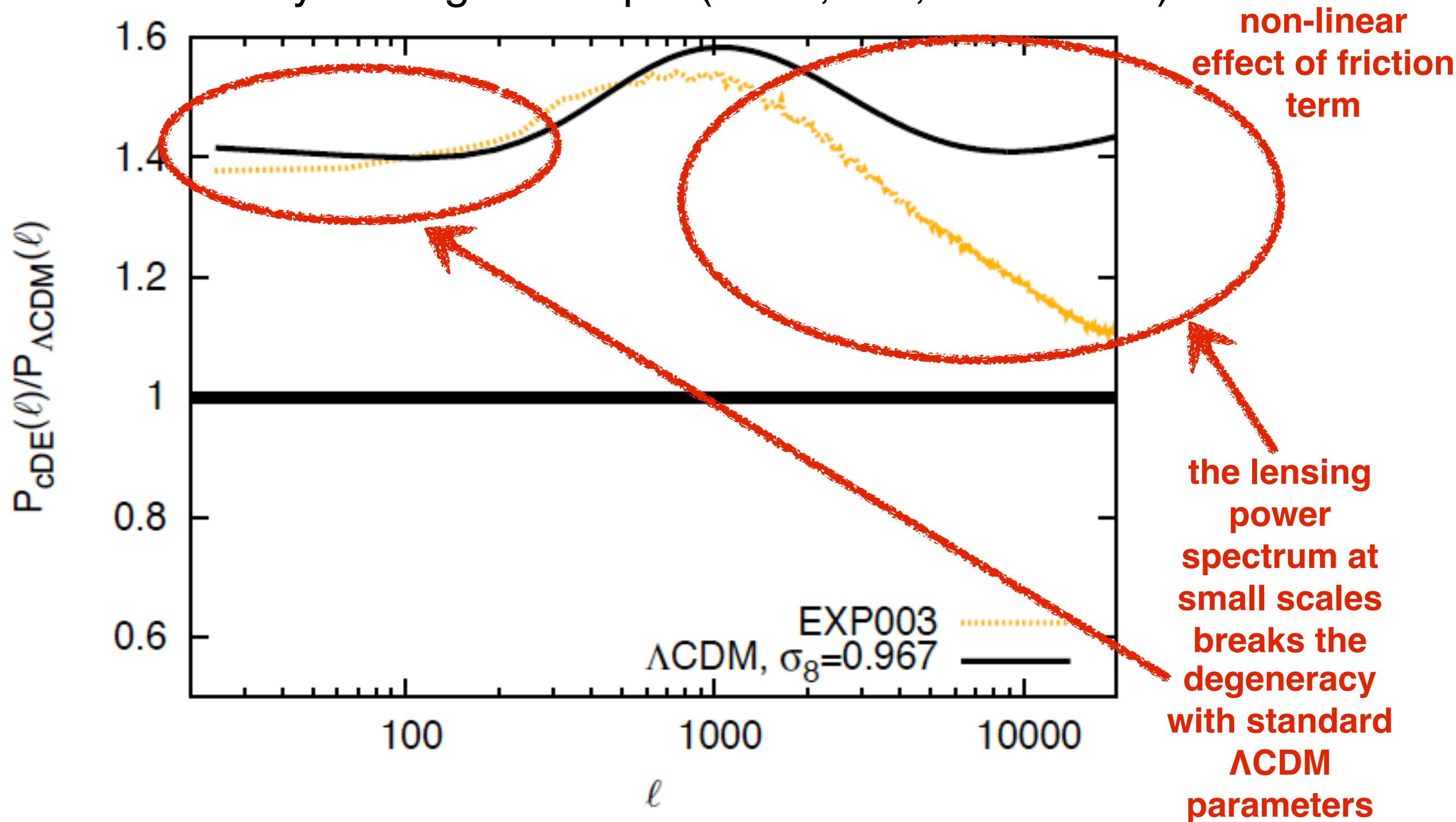
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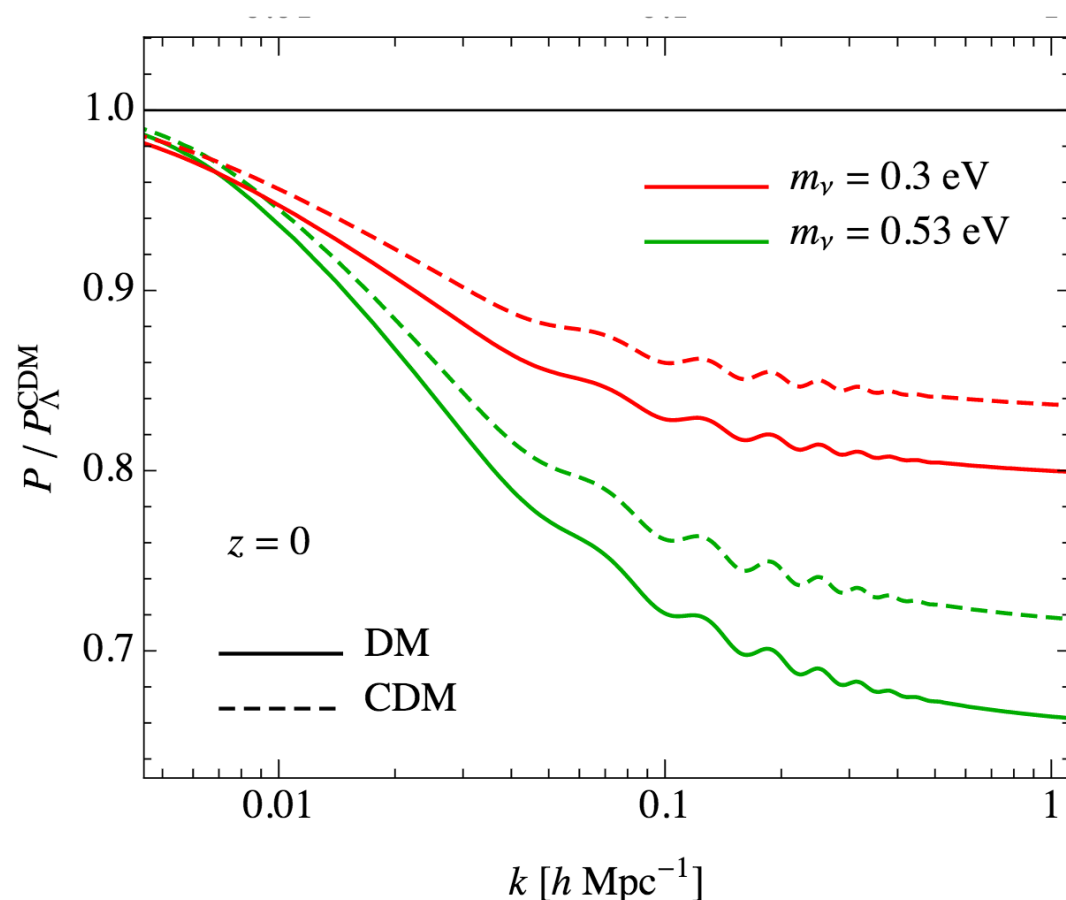
$$\bar{v}_{th} \sim 160(1+z) \frac{\text{eV}}{m_\nu}$$
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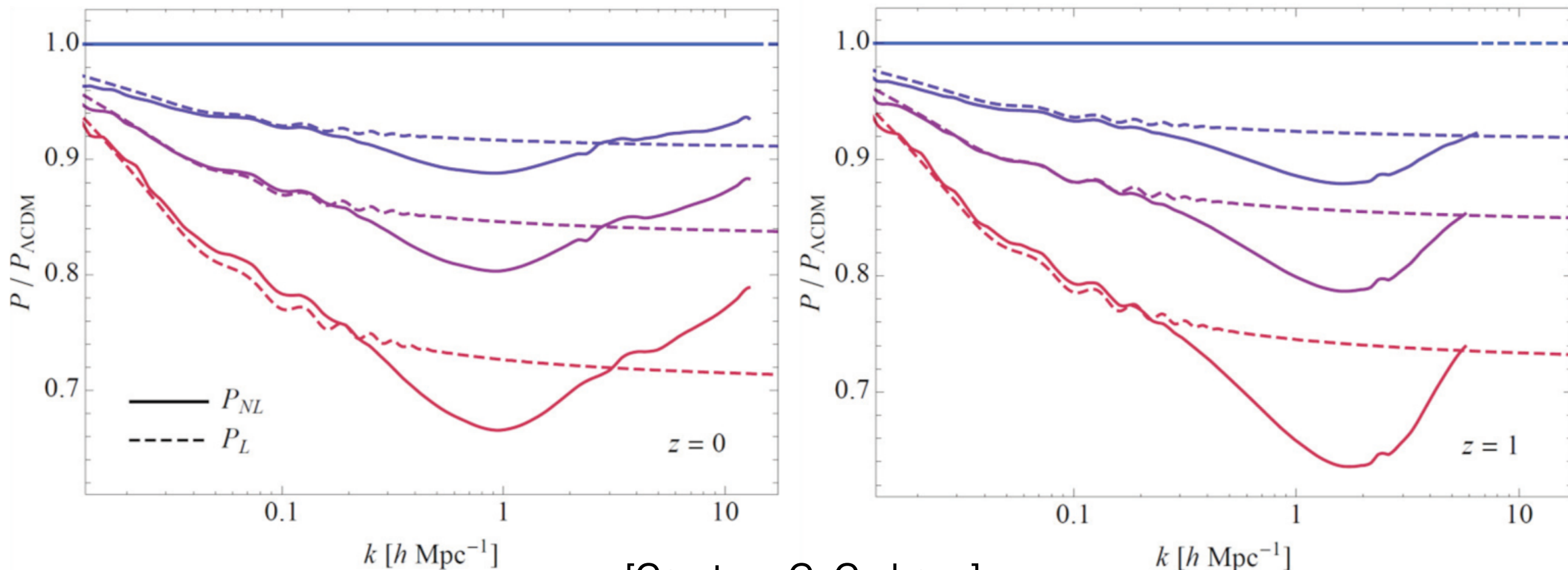


Free streaming suppresses structure at small scales

Castorina et al. 2016

# The effect of Massive Neutrinos

$$m_\nu = 0.17; 0.3; 0.53 \text{ eV}$$



[Courtesy C. Carbone]

[see also Bird, Viel & Haehnelt 2012]

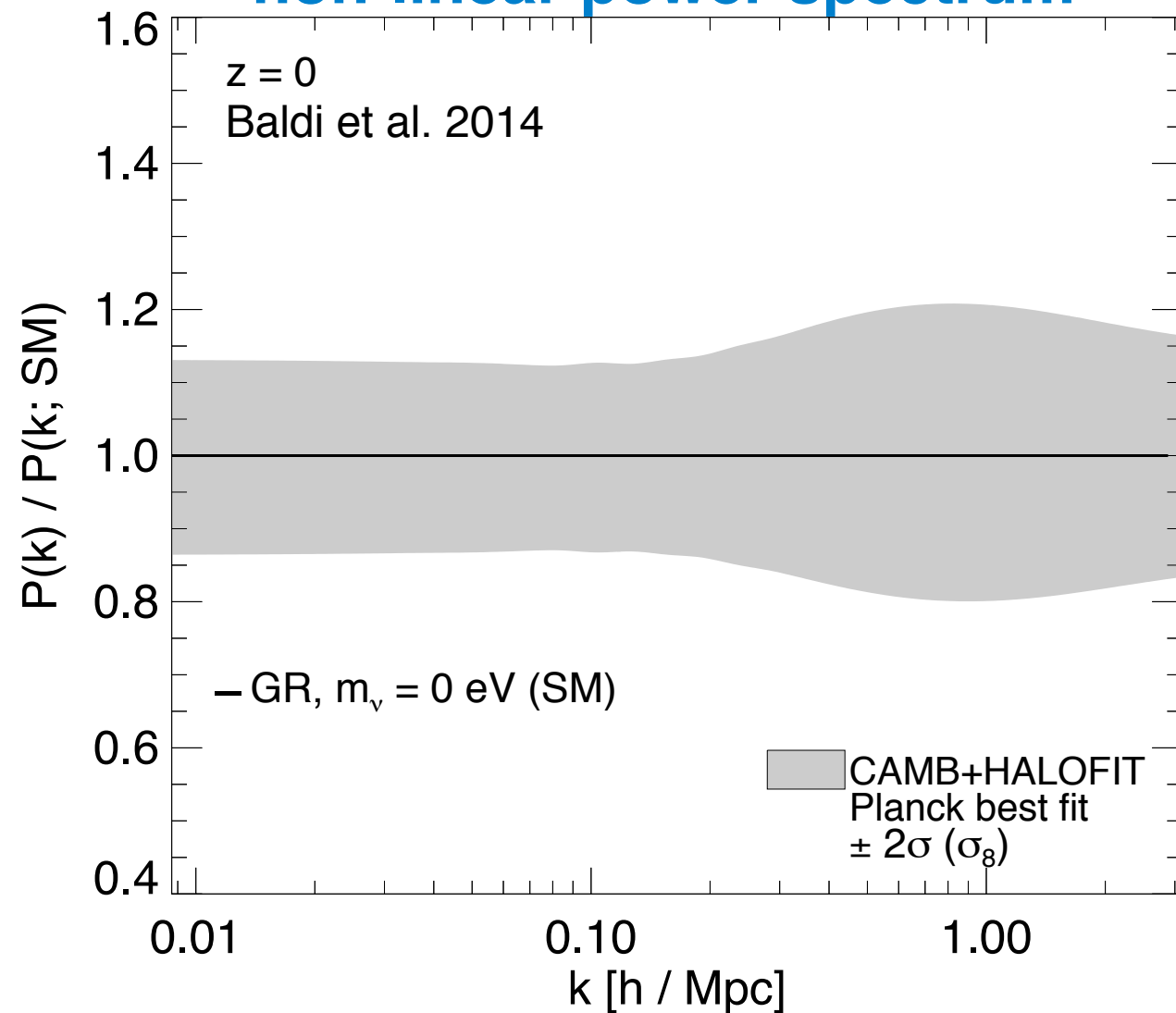
Nonlinear suppression of the matter  $P(k) \sim 15\%$  larger than linear predictions at  $k \sim 1-2 h/\text{Mpc}$  (critical range of scales for WL surveys)



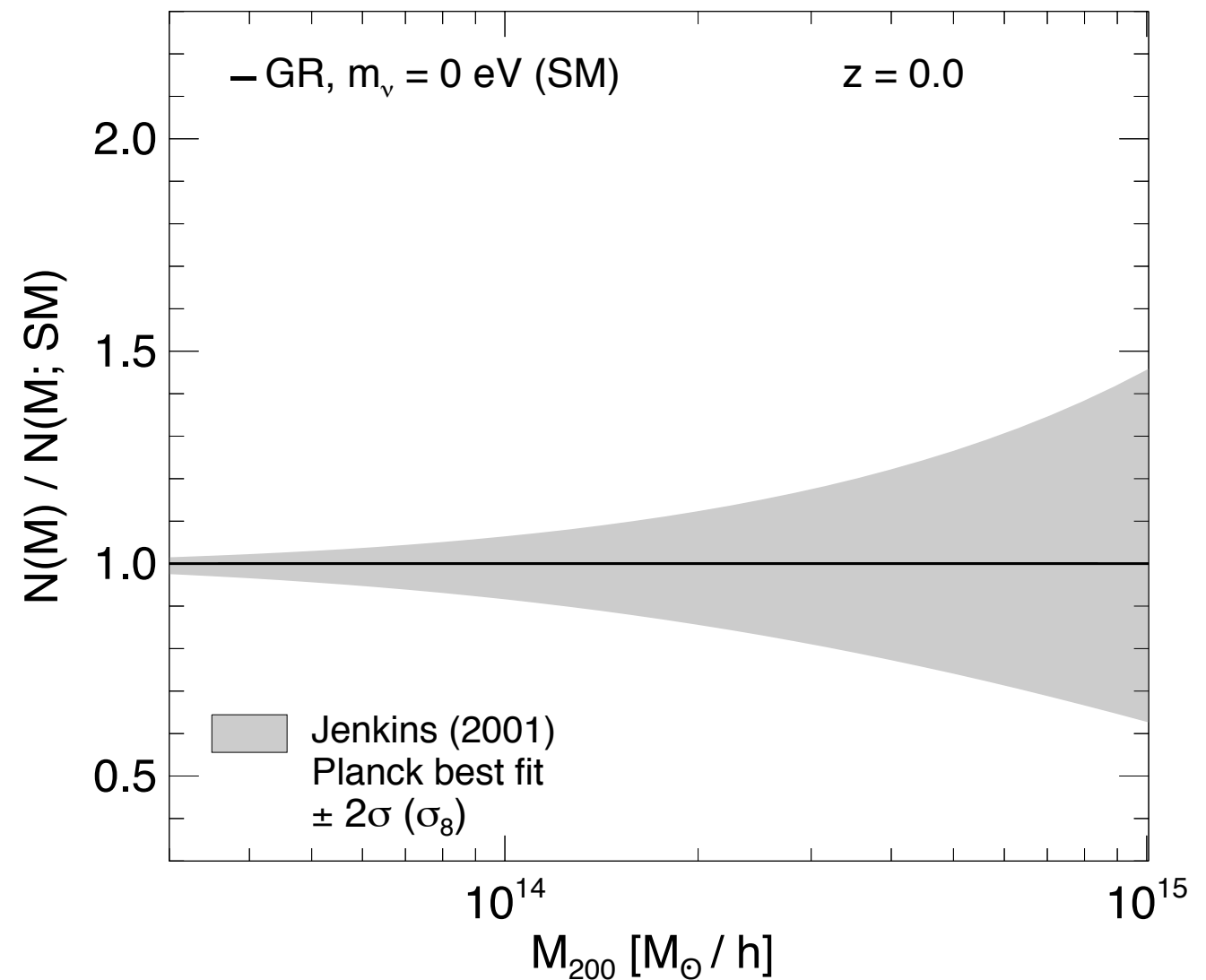
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MB et al. 2014

non-linear power spectrum



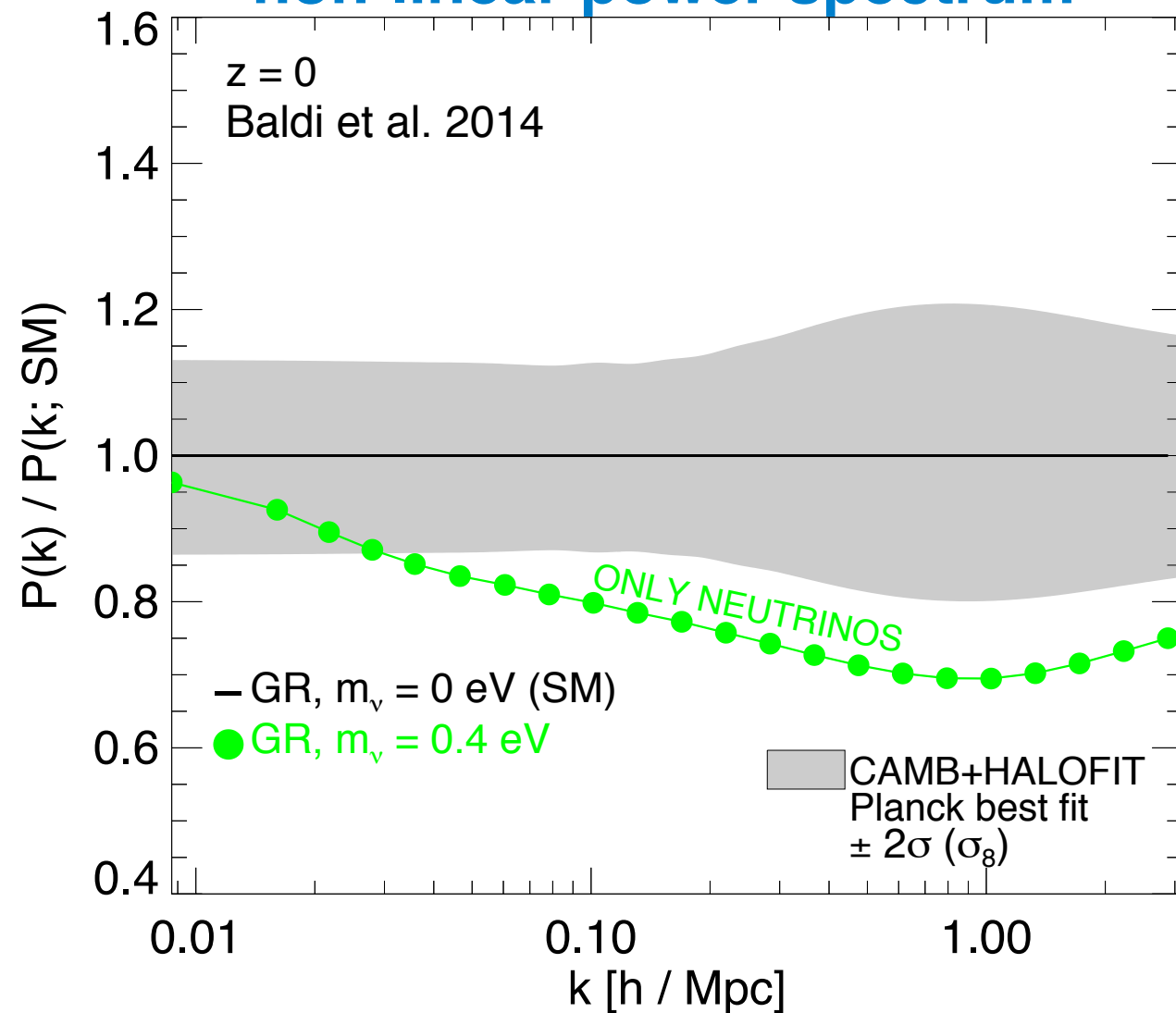
halo mass function



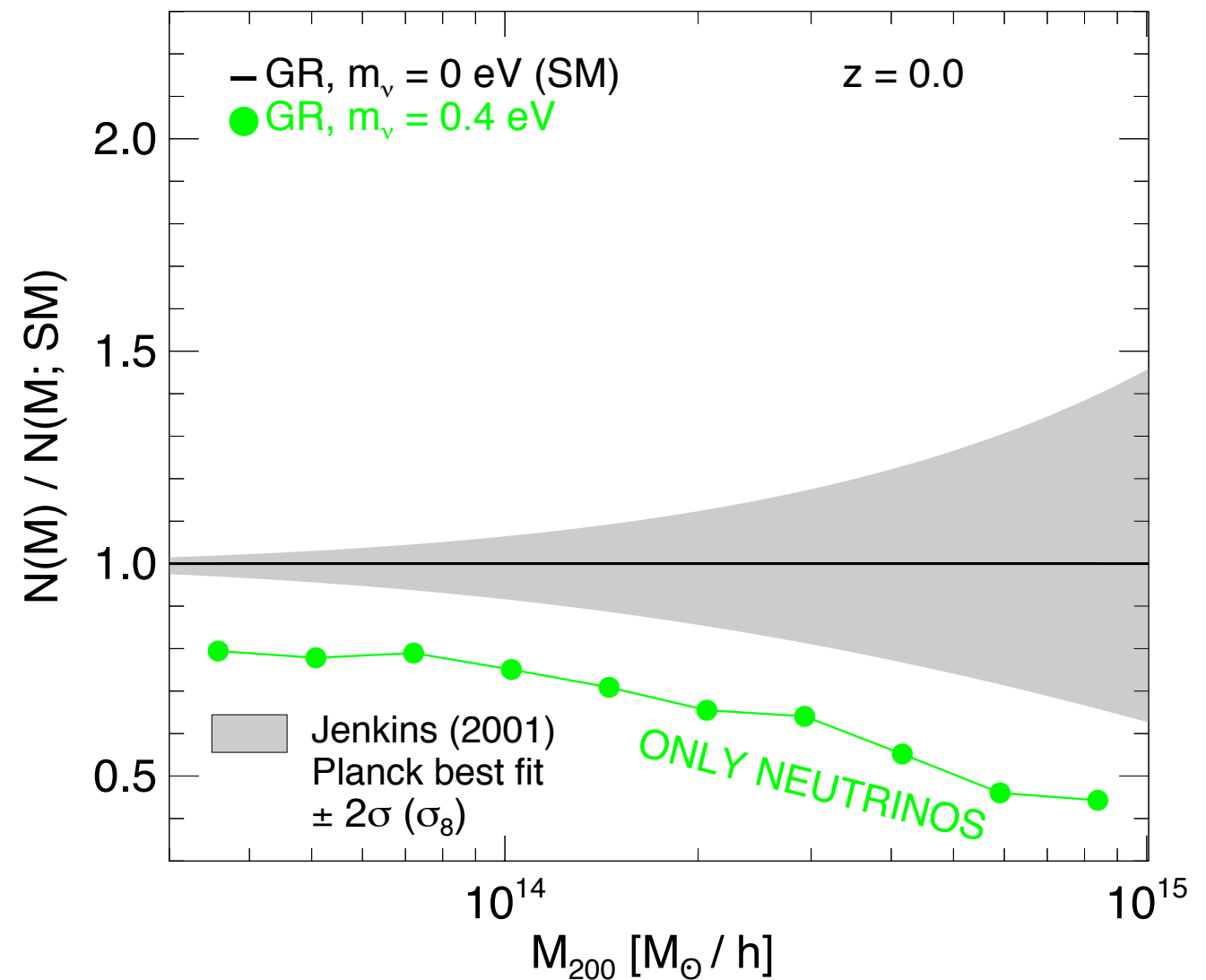
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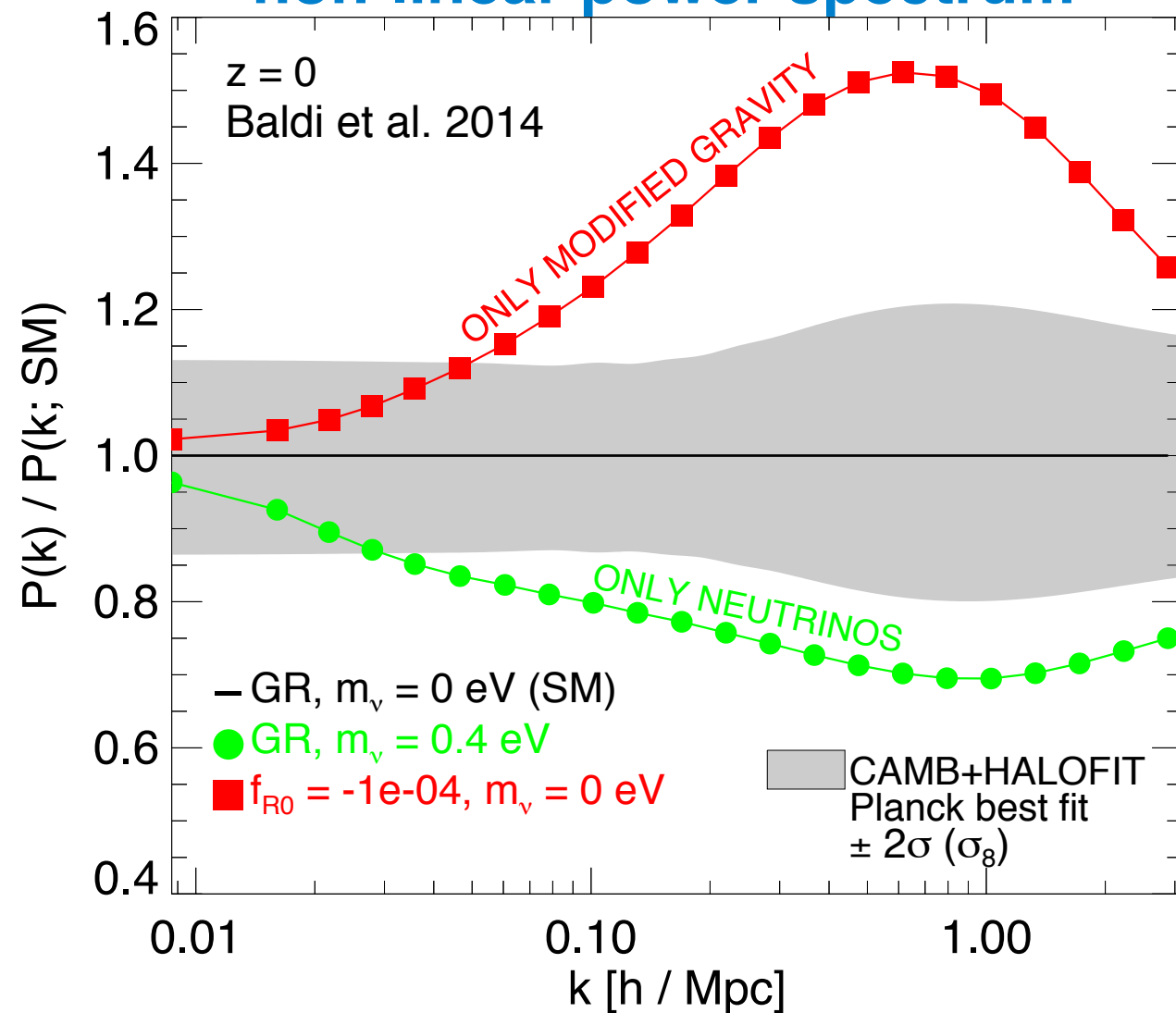
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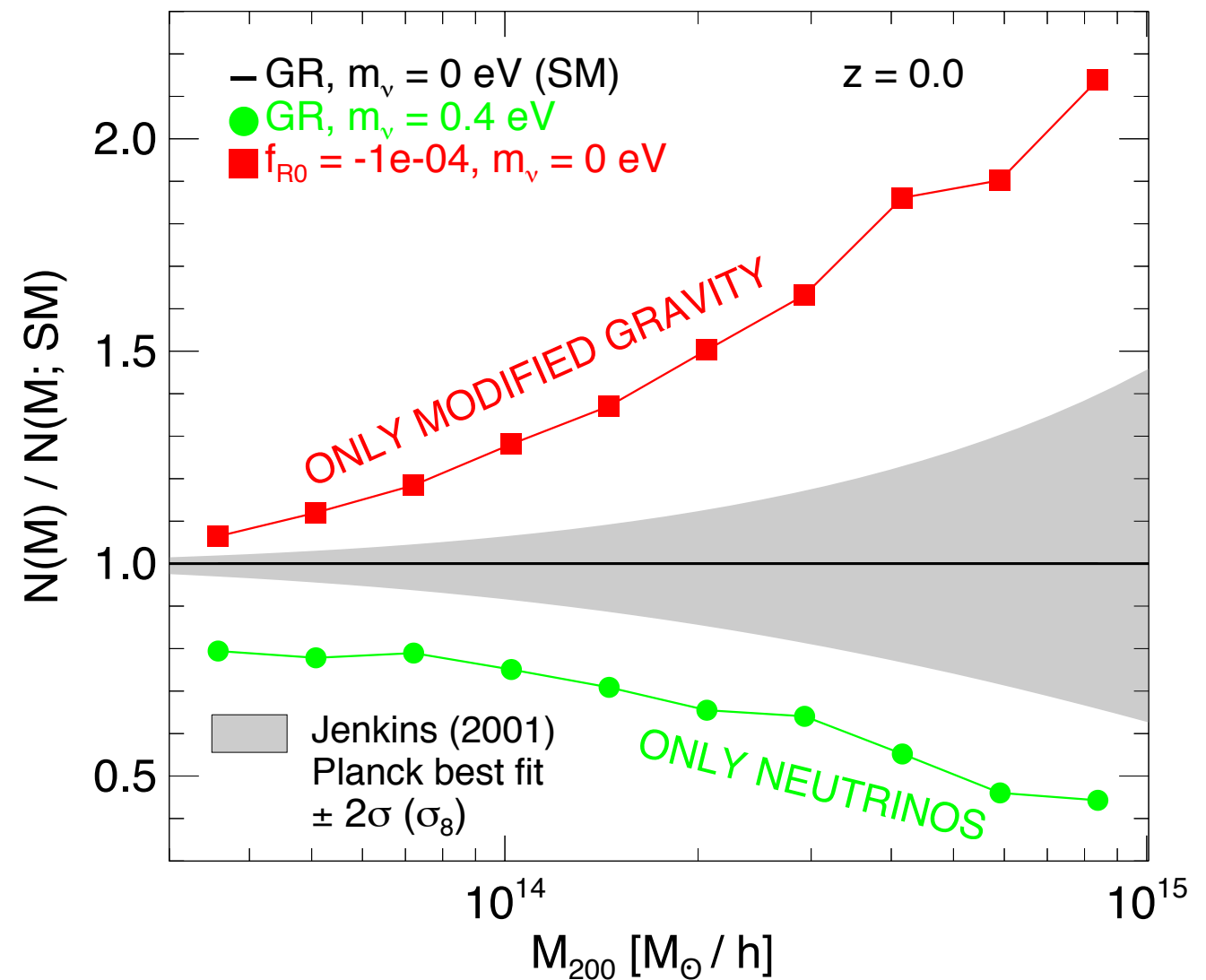
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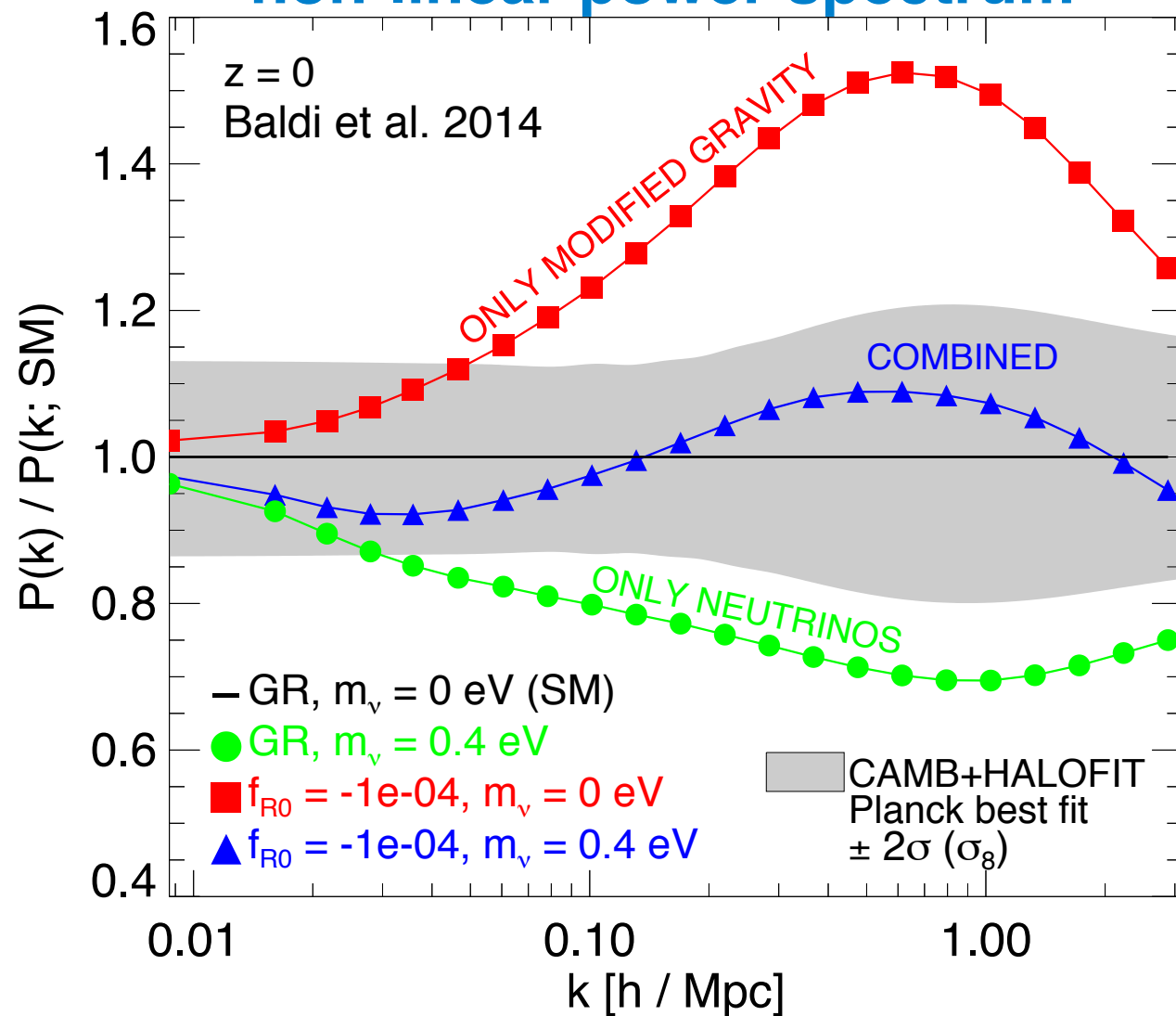
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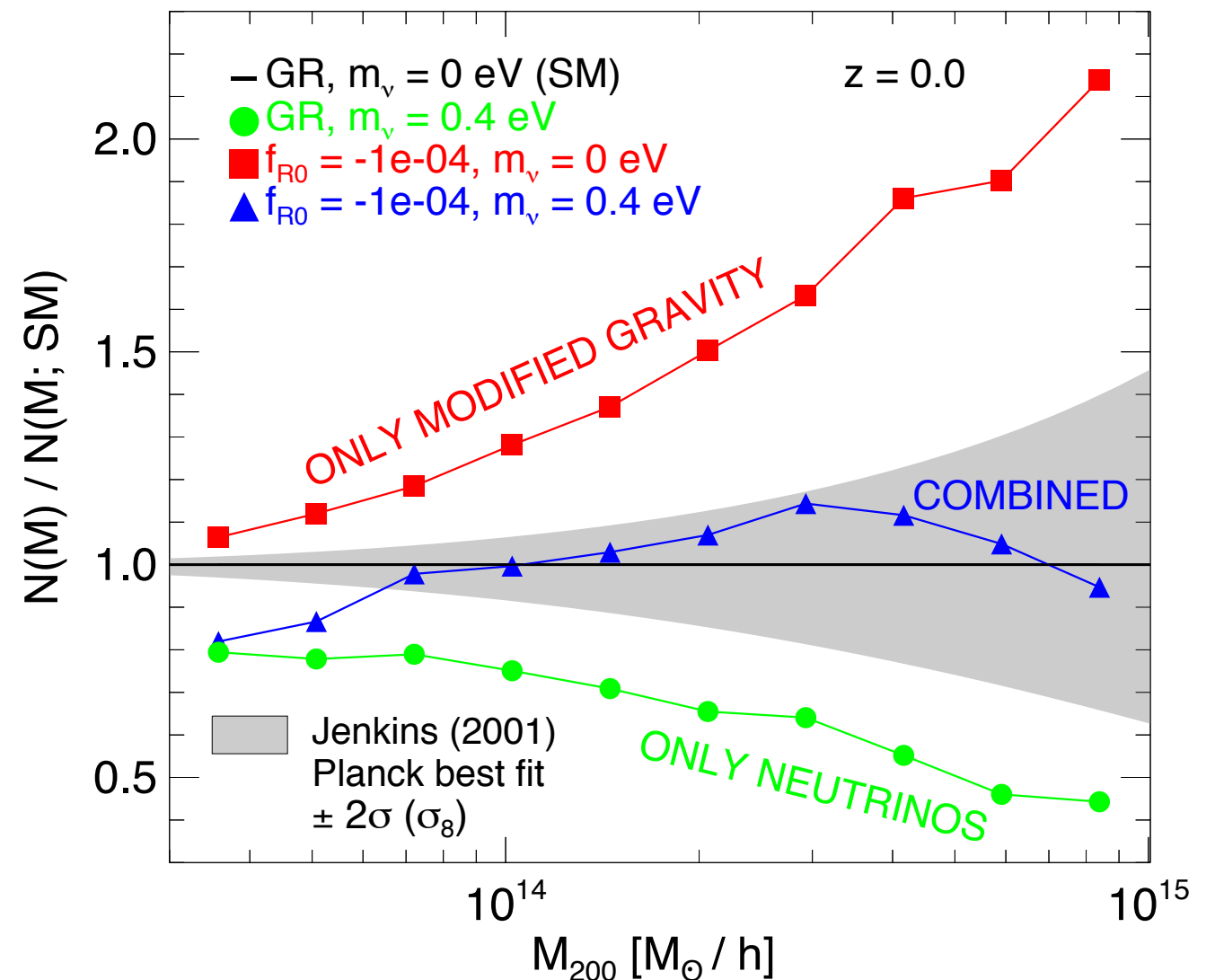
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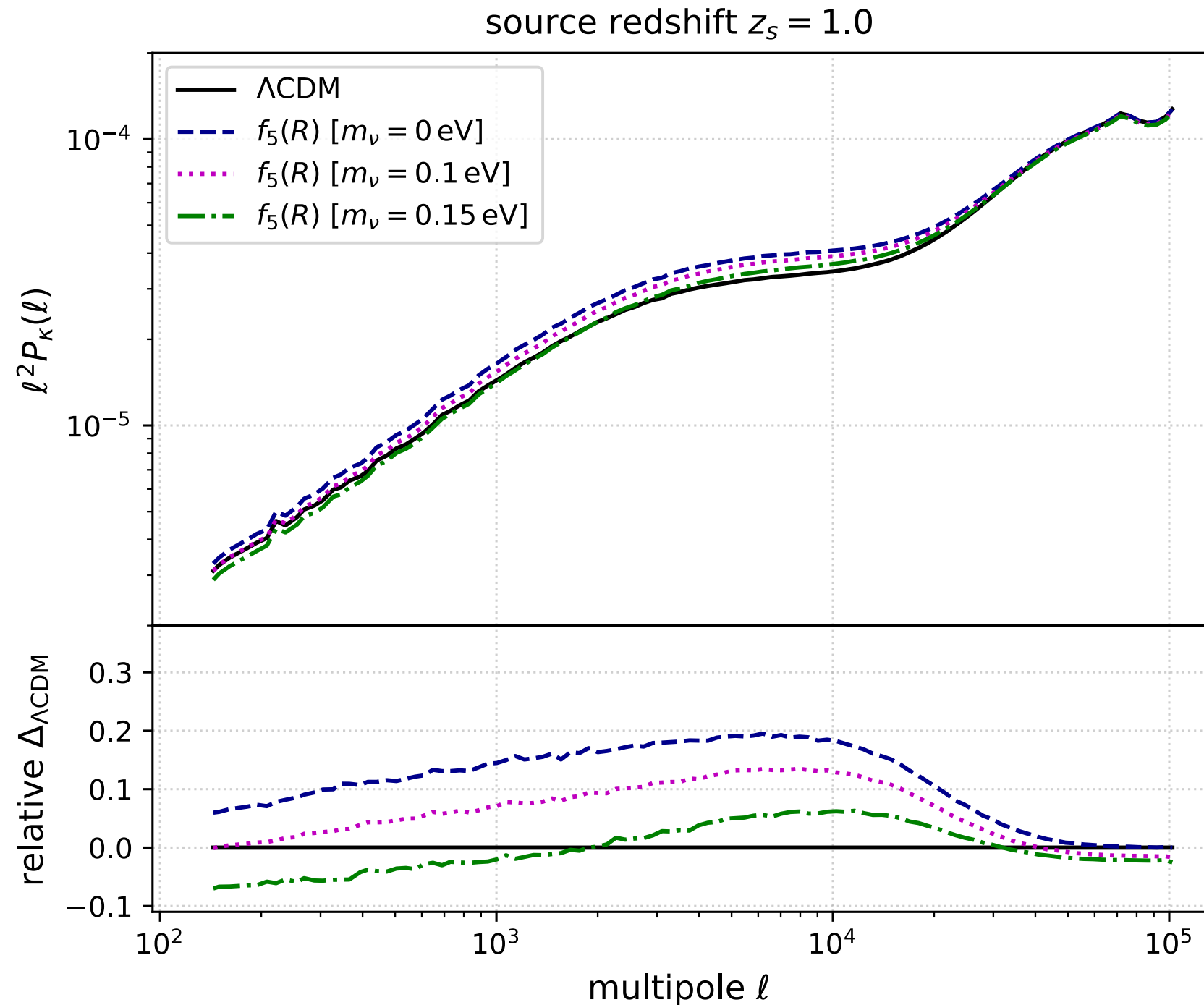
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The deviations expected for a non-zero neutrino mass and for an  $f(R)$  theory of gravity are **suppressed below observational resolution if both phenomena coexist** → **RISK OF MISINTERPRETING THE DATA!!!**

# The $f(R)$ -massive neutrinos degeneracy

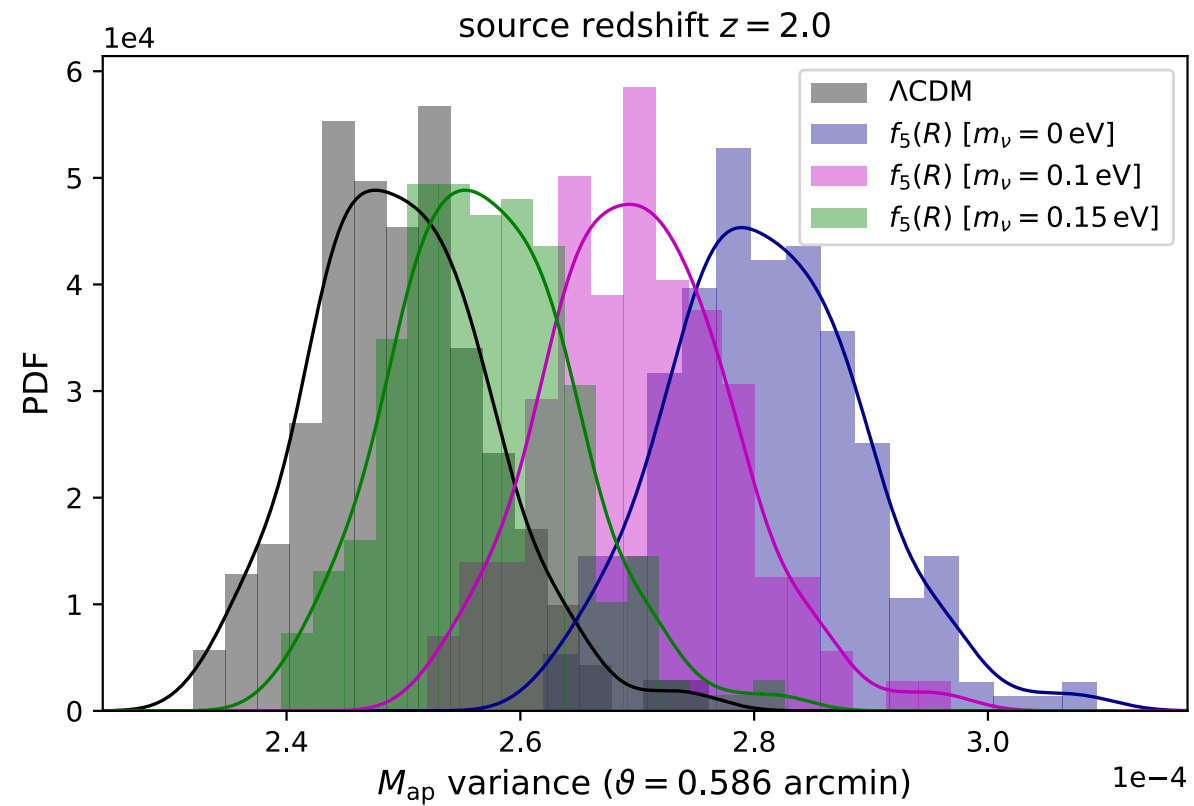
Peel, MB et al., A&A 2018 (arXiv:1805:05146)



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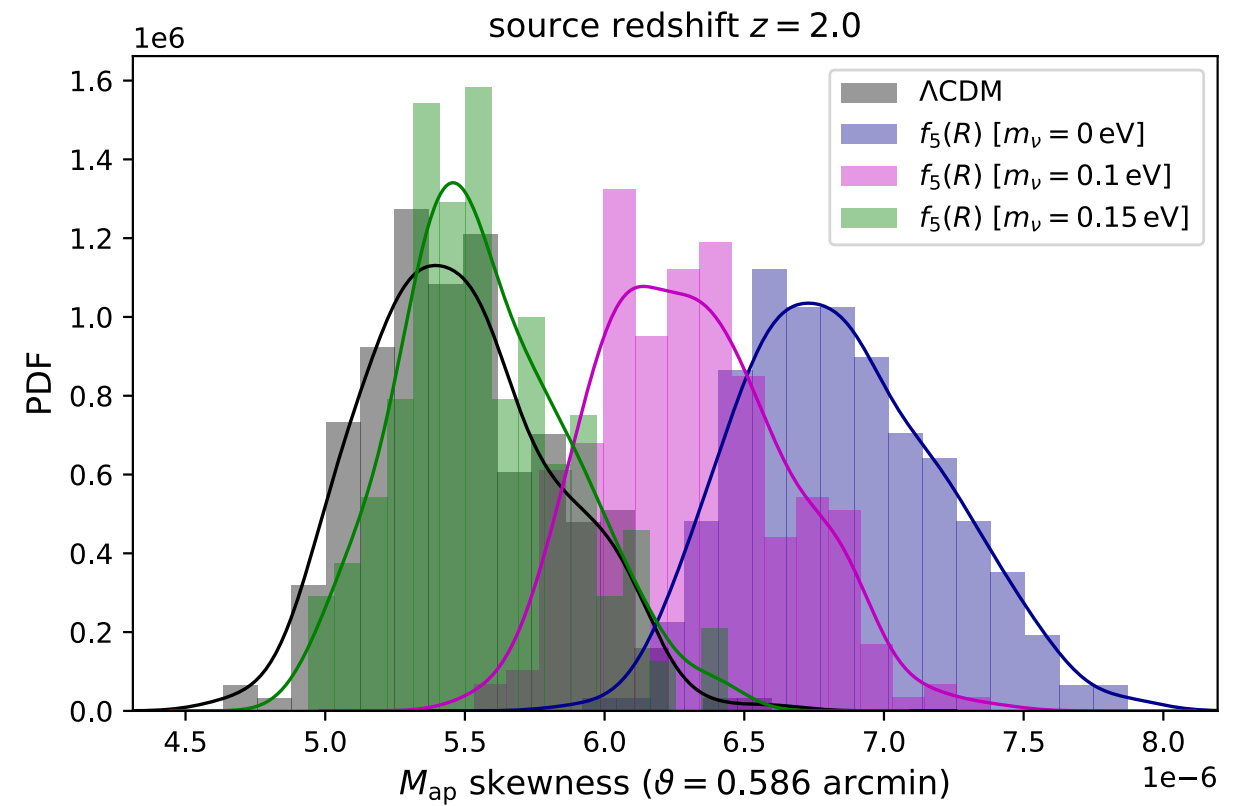
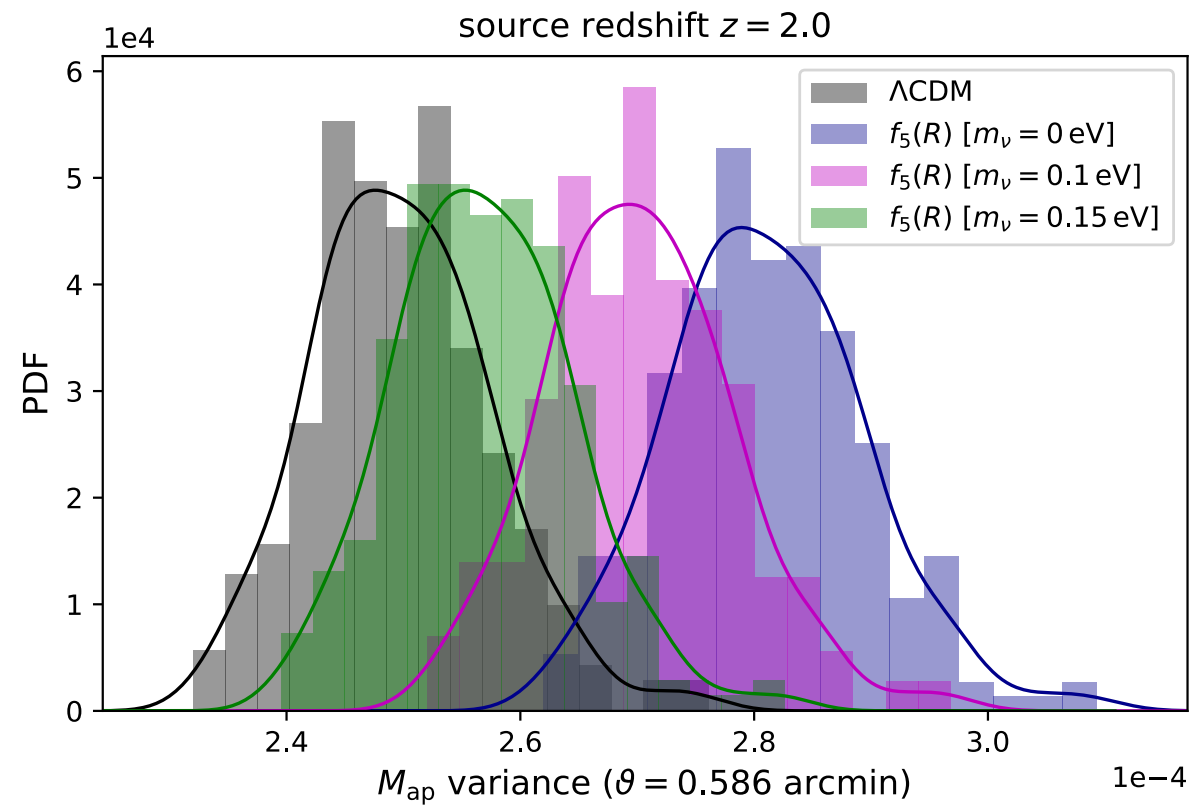
*Peel et al. 2018*





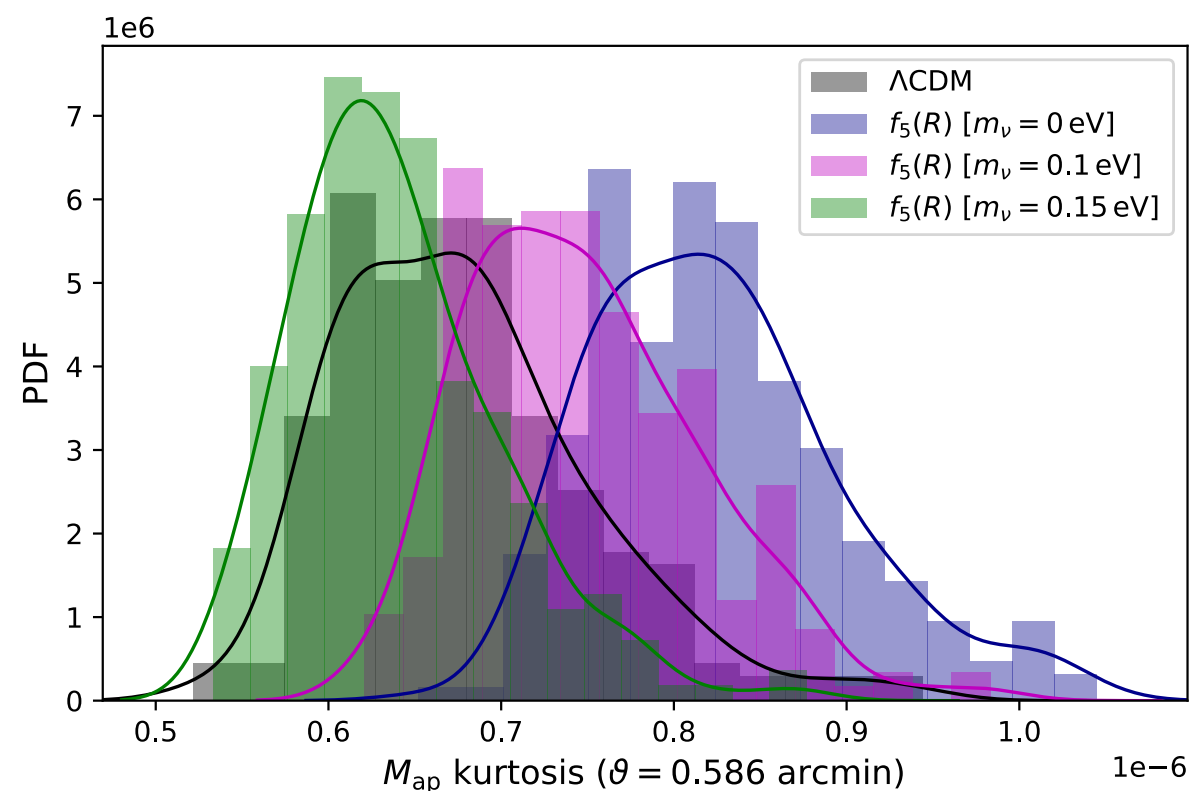
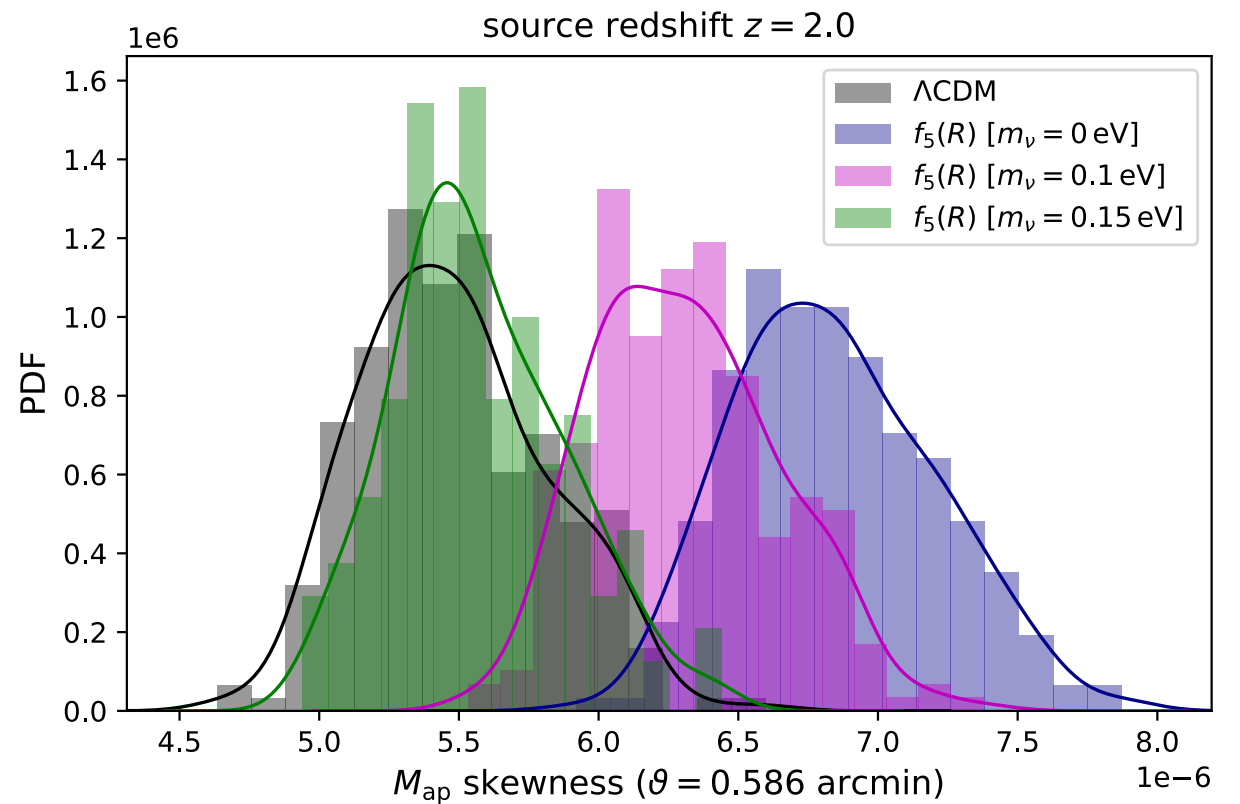
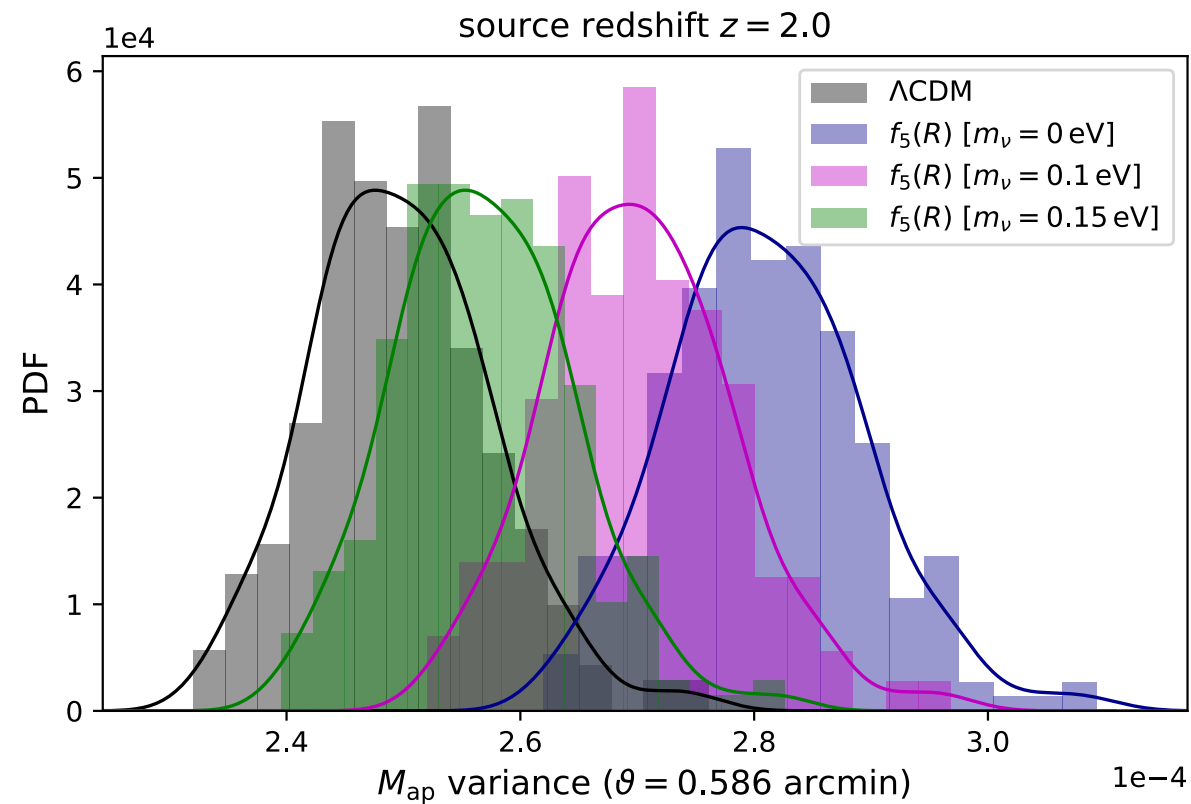
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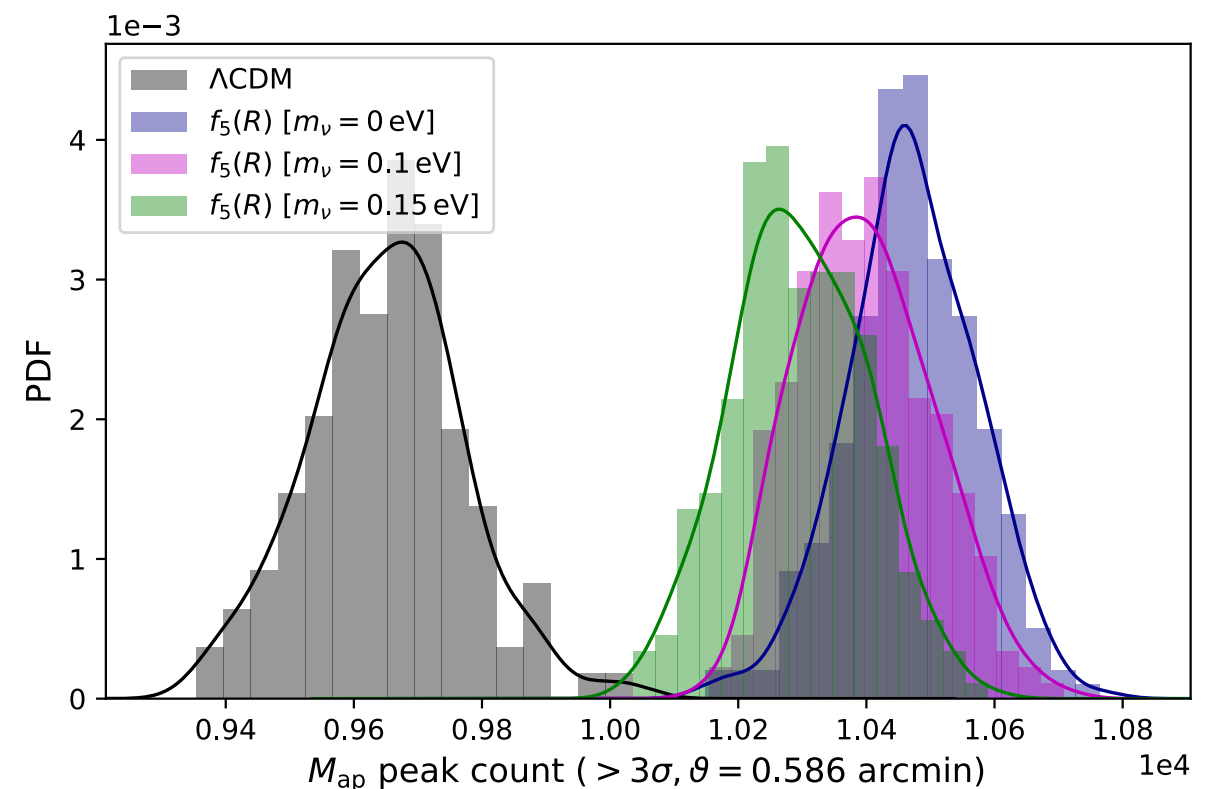
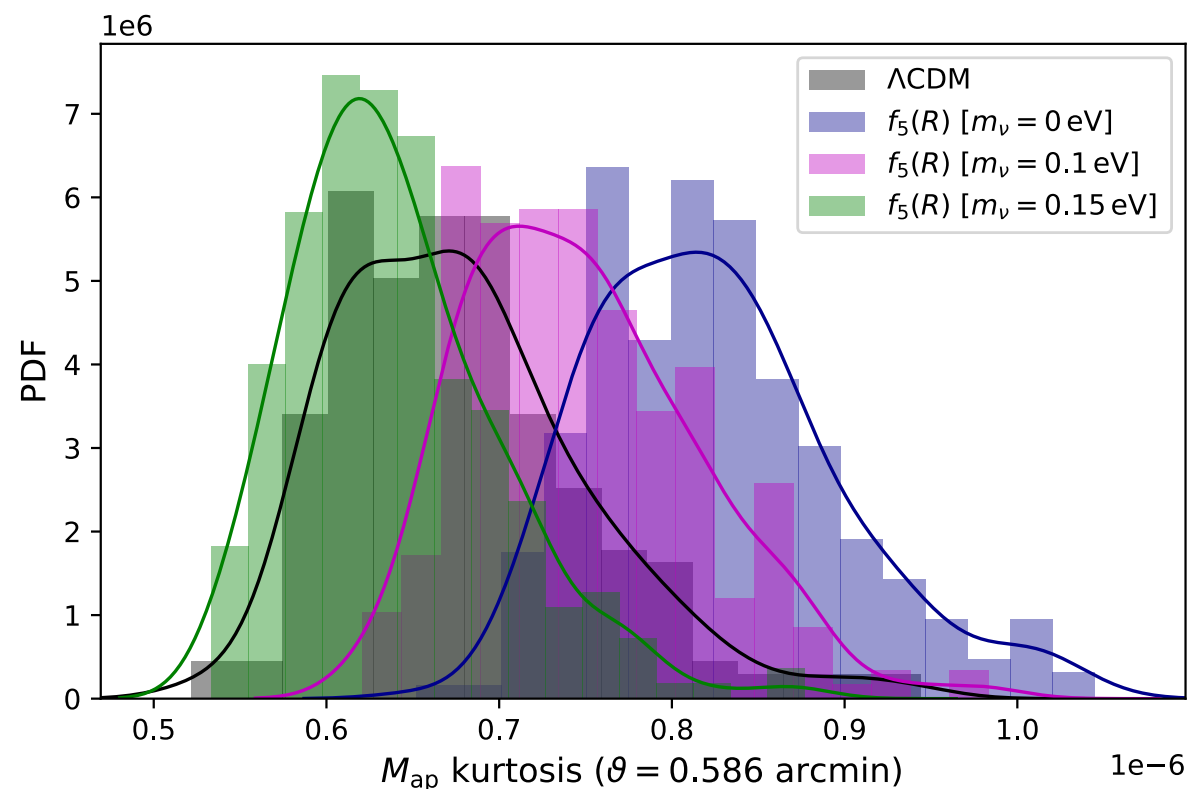
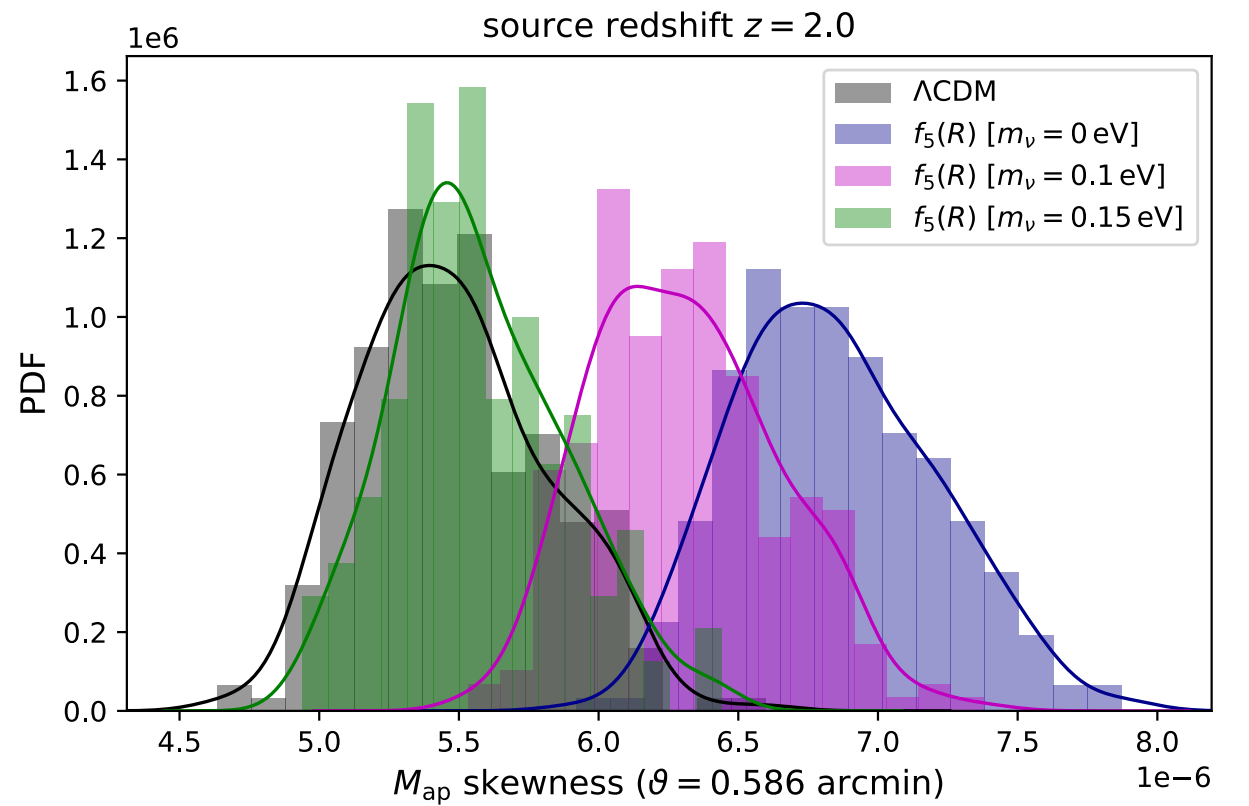
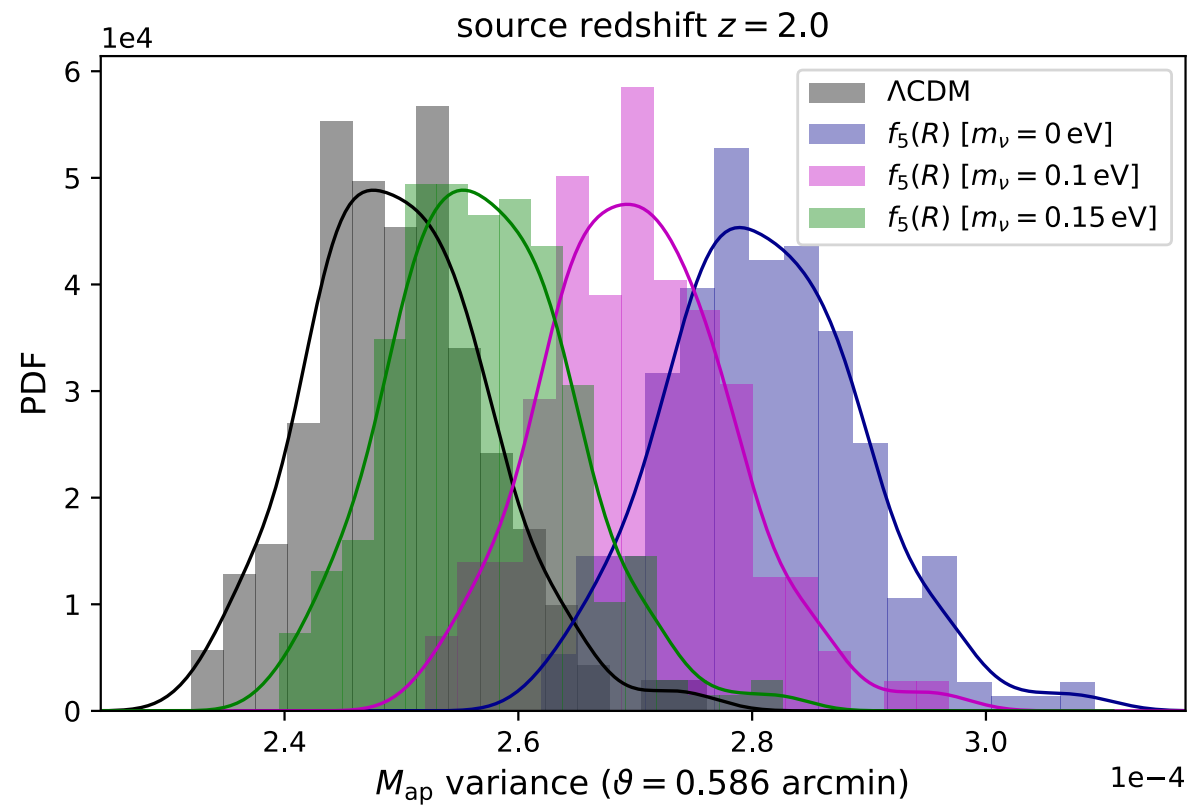
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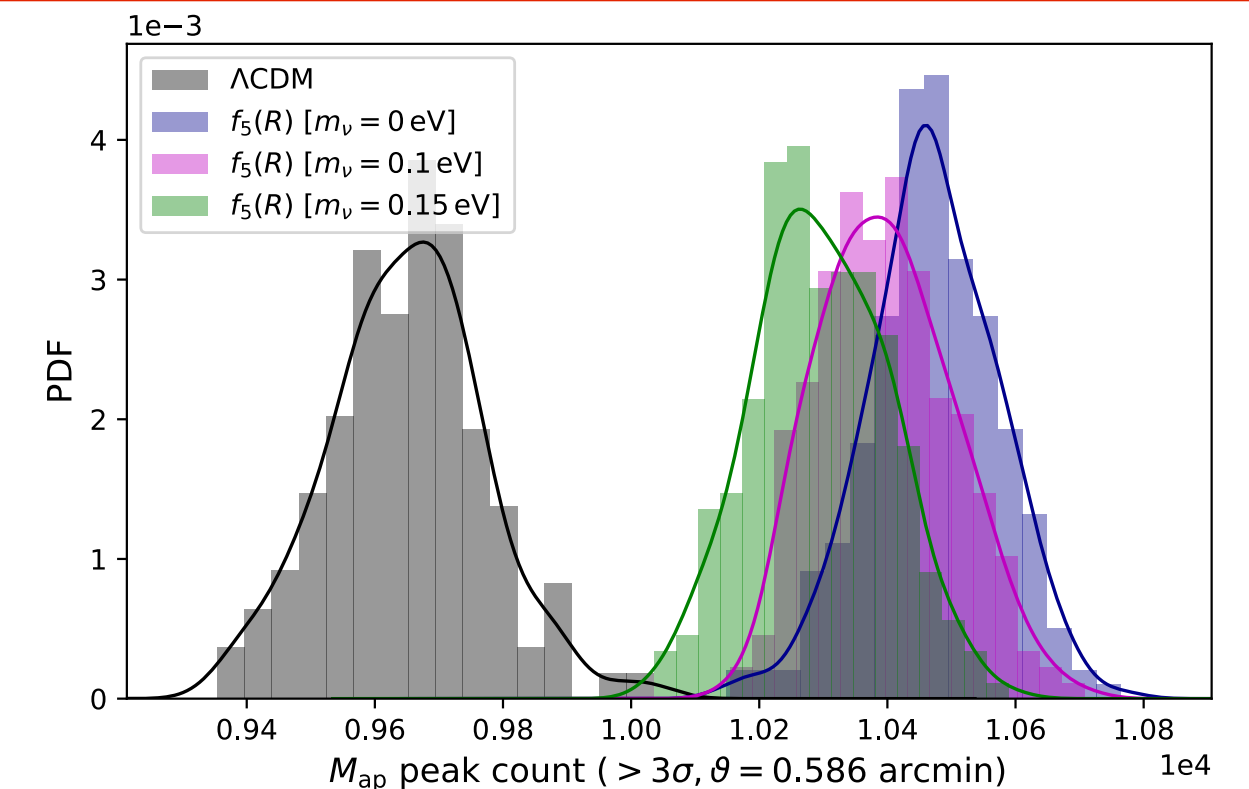
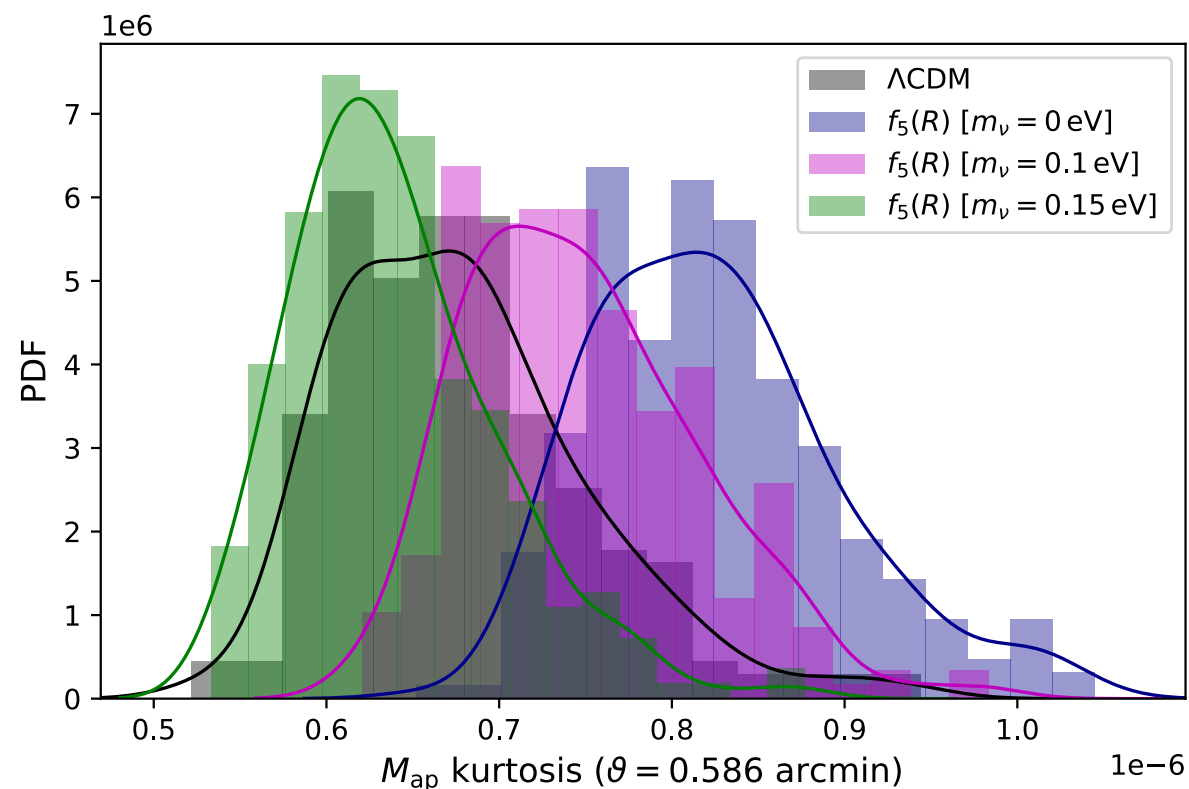
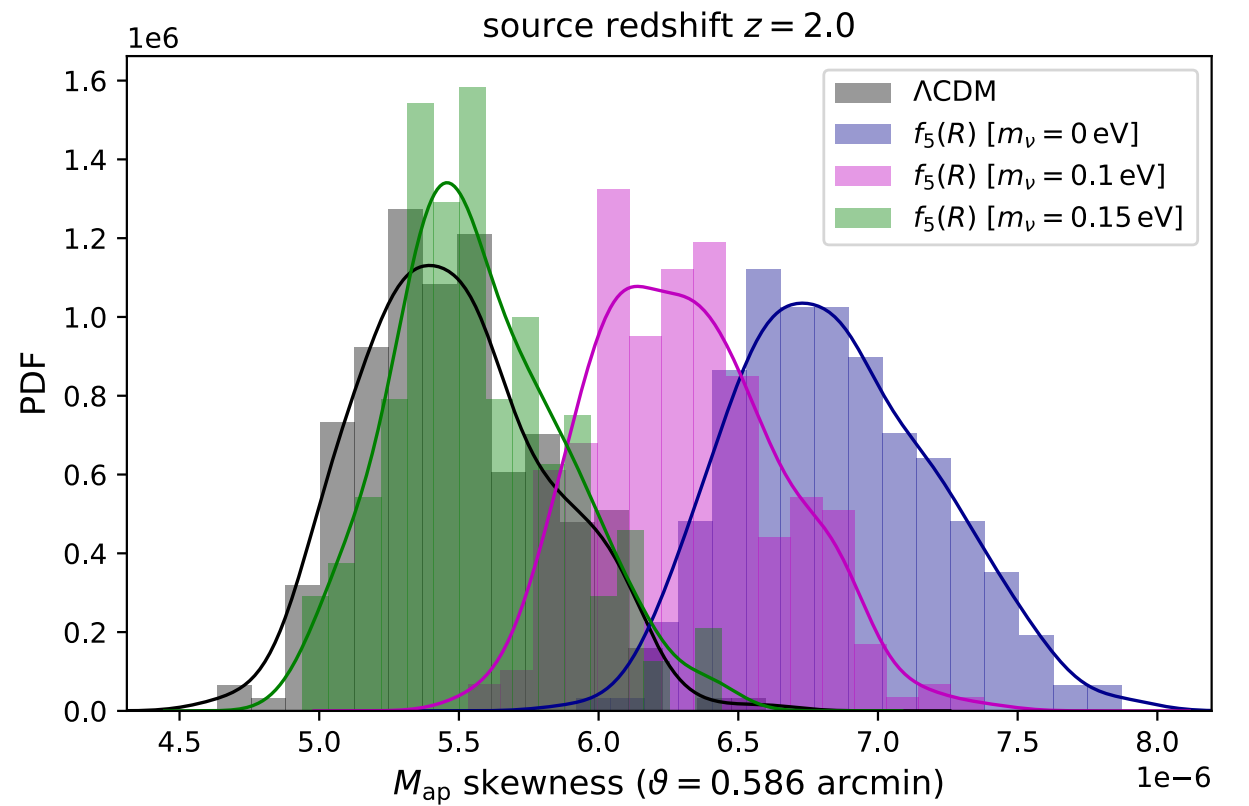
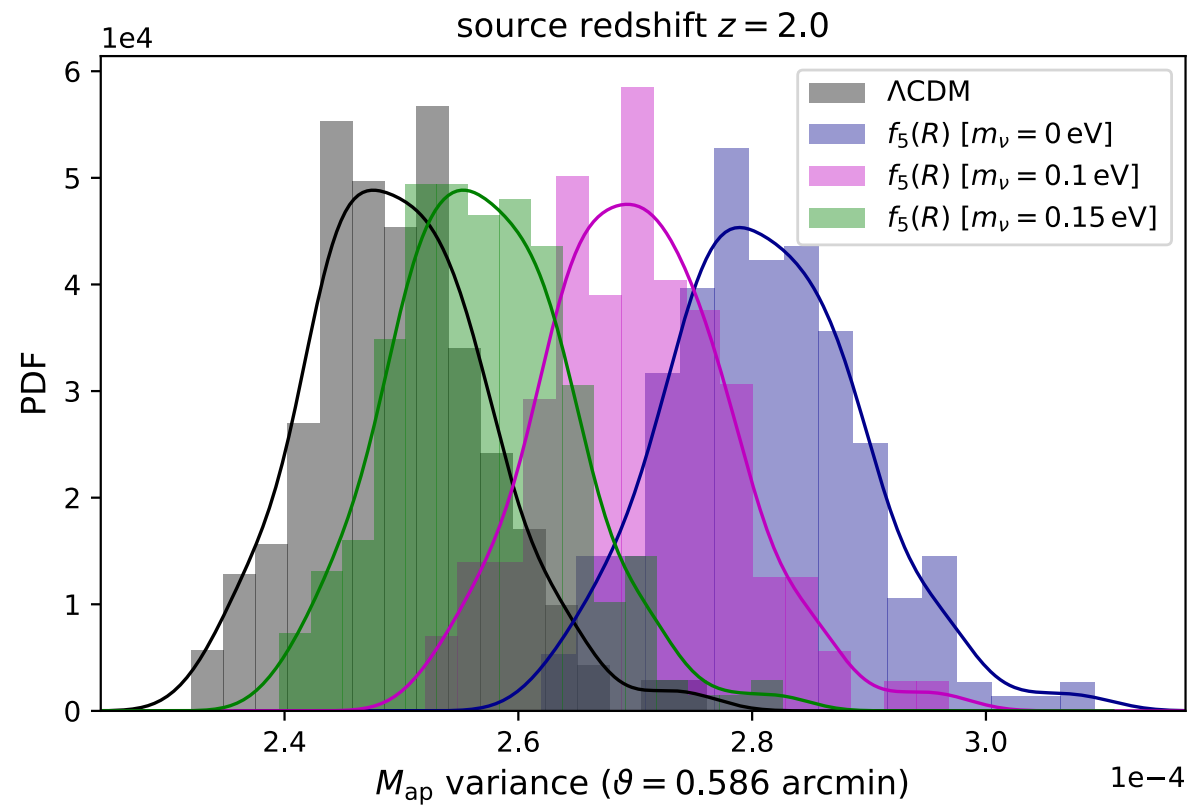
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# Summary and conclusions

- Cosmological simulations are a **necessary tool** to predict the properties and the evolution of **cosmological observables**
- Newtonian simulations can very well describe the evolution of the universe over a wide range of scales (large-scale relativistic effects can be included in post-processing for scales close to the horizon)
- **Different methods** have been developed to solve for the self-gravitational evolution of a system of  $N$  particles representing (i.e. sampling) the cosmic density field: **PM, Tree, TreePM, Multigrid**
- These methods may need to be **combined and /or modified to include additional physics** beyond the standard LCDM model for which they have been developed, such as non-trivial Dark Energy and Modified Gravity models
- Extended simulations **may be the only way** to predict characteristic features of such models allowing **to distinguish them from standard LCDM**



DUSTGRAIN  
fR5,  $m_\nu=0.1$  eV  
CDM

100 Mpc/h

$z = 0.00$

Thank you!

DUSTGRAIN  
fR5,  $m_\nu=0.1$  eV  
Neutrinos

100 Mpc/h

$z = 0.00$