

Tidal tails and bridges in galactic encounters

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ABSTRACT: We develop a restricted n-body simulation to study tidal tail and bridge formation in galactic encounters, providing a quantitative analysis of their development and shape, as well as of the effects of varying the inclination of the encounter and the strength of the perturbation. We further show that a full n-body simulation of rotationally supported *bulge : disk : dark matter halo* galaxies leads to orbital decay and efficient angular momentum transfer away from the luminous components. The resulting merger is well-described as an elliptical galaxy approximated by a *de Vaucouleur* profile. Moreover, we make use of a simulated annealing algorithm to construct a model for the Antennae galaxies without human intervention and show that it matches its morphology and Doppler shift observations from the Hydrogen 21-cm line.

[Word count: 3255]

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1 Introduction

The discovery of multiple *anomalous* pairs of galaxies in the 1950s, with regions protruding into space (tails) and thin structures joining the pairs (bridges), lead to the suggestion that tidal encounters could have played a role in their formation. After all, the Antennae, the Mice, and many other pairs of such objects (figure 1) were often described so as to be "in obvious interaction" [1]. While these processes are nowadays understood to drive star formation [2, 3] and play a role in galactic evolution [4, 5], they were originally met with skepticism, as it was thought that encounters were tremendously unlikely and that tides could not produce such thin and elongated structures. In 1972, the pivotal work of Toomre & Toomre [6] established, through restricted n-body numerical simulation, the feasibility of tidal bridge and tail formation in close galactic encounters.

16 years later, Barnes advanced the field by considering the first self-consistent model including a dark matter halo and displaying dynamical friction [7]. Further models included star formation [8] and merged tree based codes [9] with Soft Particle Hydrodynamics (SPH) [10, 11], rivalling the also common Adaptive Mesh Refinement (AMR) method.

Following [12], the current approaches can be divided into two. First, efforts at exploring the large parameter space to provide statistical interpretations, where the publicly

available GalMer dataset is the prime example [13]. Second, attempts at matching particular galaxies and observations [14, 15], such as star formation profiles [16] and cluster evolution [17], with high complexity and resolution.

In this work, however, we first deliberately develop a restricted n-body simulation. Hence we aim to show that bridges and tails are kinematic phenomena, that do not, for instance, necessitate self-gravity to explain the thinness of their features. This is presented in section 2. More advanced topics on dynamical friction in dark matter halos and reproducing astronomical observations are presented later in sections 3 and 4 respectively.



Figure 1. A selection of interacting galaxies as captured by the Hubble telescope. From left to right, The Tadpole (Arp 188), The Antennae (NGC 4038/4039) and The Mice (NGC 4676). We refer to *tails* as the elongated regions protruding from galaxies into space (all cases) and to *bridges* as the thin structures joining a pair of galaxies (right). Tails are commonly referred to as *counterarms* when they are clearly bound to their progenitor; we do not make such blurred distinction here.

2 Parabolic encounters

2.1 Analysis & implementation

Qualitative understanding of the tidal structures can be obtained by considering a simplified model in which two heavy point masses, one of which is surrounded by massless test particles constituting a galactic disk, interact gravitationally in a parabolic encounter of pericenter distance $r_{\min} = 1$.¹ The inclusion of test particles surrounding the main mass only is deliberate, as for massless particles a second ring can be directly superposed from a complementary simulation where the main and companion masses have been interchanged. In fact, neglecting self-gravity, an *a priori* radial density distribution for the ring is unnecessary, as its effect could be reproduced by reweighting the particles based on their initial positioning once the simulation is complete. We thus place the test particles on discrete rings that can be trivially followed independently. The choice of parabolic trajectories is driven by two factors: (i) we expect encounters to be rare and not initially bound ($e \geq 1$). (ii) when no dynamical friction is included, lasting features are more likely to occur for soft, low eccentricity interactions.

¹We choose units such that $G = 1$. One can choose to rescale all results to a typically-sized encounter, based on the Antennae, by letting 10.4 kpc, $5 \times 10^{11} M_{\odot}$ and 21.3 Gyr correspond to 1 unit of length, mass and time respectively.

The code is presented in appendix A and documented thoroughly, but it is worth highlighting that we make use of an Object Oriented approach and configuration files for module reusing, save the progress of the simulation dynamically to avoid data loss, and vectorize the operations for clarity and performance (section 3.1). This leads to trivial generalization to more than two galaxies, different distributions and galactic objects, or SPH.

Numerically, we employ a 4th order symplectic Verlet integrator and include ‘‘Plummer’’ gravitational softening [18] with characteristic length scale $\epsilon = 0.1$ to prevent numerical instabilities and realistically account for the extended bulge. Employing massless rings further reduces statistical fluctuations (relaxation effects).² Since each test mass does not represent a single star, the use of adaptive timesteps to model close interactions is unnecessary.

We perform four tests to validate the correctness and probe the numerical behaviour of our approach:

- i We verify that galaxies evolve unperturbed in isolation, with absolute variations in the test particles’ orbital radii of $< 10^{-3}$.
- ii We confirm that pairs of masses follow the expected analytical orbits for no softening to within $< 10^{-3}$ for various eccentricities and mass ratios.
- iii We study the deviation of test particles from their correct trajectories in a simple encounter and select a conservative timestep $dt = 10^{-3}$ for which the discrepancy is 4×10^{-3} length units on average within the timescale of interest (figure 2, left).
- iv We ensure the energy of the system is conserved, to within 1% in the same encounter (figure 2, right).

2.2 Prograde and retrograde encounters

We first present a prograde encounter (figure 3), where the spin of the disk and the orbital angular momentum are aligned. A violent interaction is observed, leading to both a tail and a bridge. For this equal mass encounter, only particles that are initially placed at a radius of at least $0.4r_{\min}$ contribute to the tidal structures, with more loosely bound rings resulting in a larger tail. Equivalently, close encounters are necessary for significant tails and bridges to form.

This prograde encounter suggests that tidal tails are the result of a broad resonance between orbiting particles and the companion mass. This is more easily observed in figure 4 where the particles are coloured according to their final fate. As the companion mass approaches the galaxy, the circularly symmetric disk elongates. At this point, the test masses closer to the companion will form a bridge; those on the opposite side will result in a tidal tail that can become several times larger than the original disk. It should be noted

²The mass of a galaxy is certainly not concentrated in its central bulge, but massless rings allow for an efficient $O(n)$ implementation in the number of test particles. Additionally, we stress once more that it will allow us to show that tidal tails are a merely kinematic phenomenon.

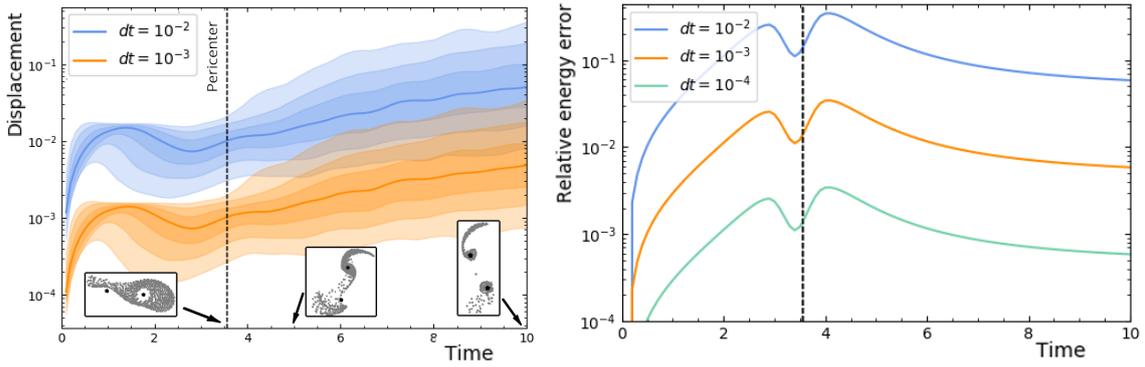


Figure 2. Errors in the displacement of the test masses (left) and in the energy of the system (right) for a prograde equal mass encounter (figure 3). The smoothed shaded regions contain 38%, 68% and 88% of the particles. For the chosen timestep $dt = 10^{-3}$ test particles deviate from their correct trajectory (taken as $dt = 10^{-4}$) by 4×10^{-3} length units on average within the timescale of interest, exceeding our plotting resolution. The energy is conserved to within $\sim 1\%$.

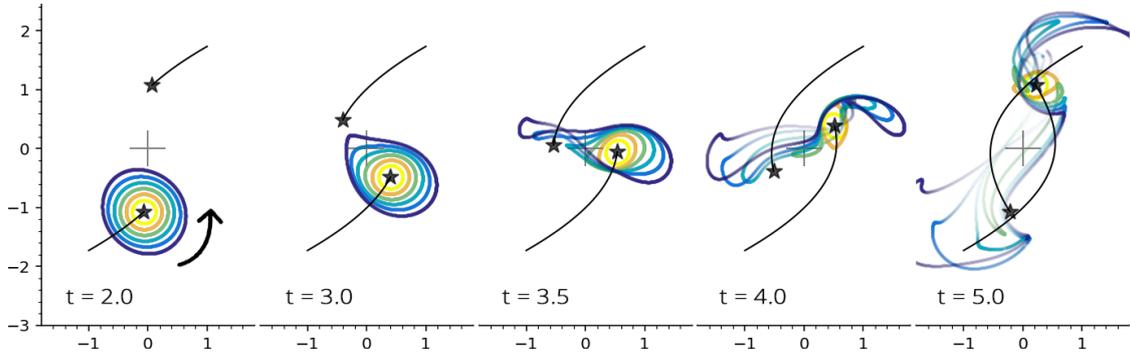


Figure 3. A prograde flat parabolic encounter with a companion of equal mass. Coloured rings originally placed at a radius .2, .3, .4, .5, .6, .7 and .8 from the main mass are shown at different times, with opacity reflecting the local density of particles. The central cross indicates the position of the center of mass and the stars that of the main and companion central masses. Only rings placed at a radius of .4 (green) or higher lead to bridges and tails, with further rings resulting in larger features.

that, whereas the tail is permanent in this encounter, the bridge is transient, with most particles eventually falling back to the main mass or being trapped by the companion, and few escaping from both masses. Of those particles that follow the perturbing mass, 94% will remain bound to it (figure 5), albeit in highly elliptical orbits, in sharp contrast to the largely unbound particles in the tail, which can span more than a 100 kpc in real galaxies.

To further support the resonance proposition, we show a similar interaction but where the encounter is retrograde (figure 6). The rings are now mostly undisturbed, even at large radii where for a real encounter the galactic rings themselves would have overlapped. Although it is tempting to argue these features on the basis of the Lagrangian points of the

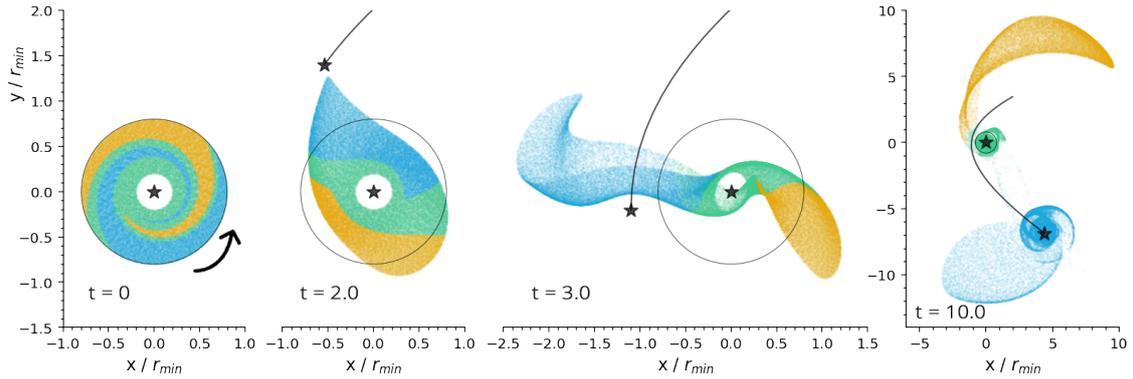


Figure 4. A prograde flat parabolic encounter with a companion of double the mass. A uniform disk of size $0.6r_{\min}$ surrounds the main mass and is coloured according to the eventual fate of each particle: tail (orange), orbiting the main mass (green) or stolen by the companion (blue). Whereas the bridge is transient and has negligible density at large times, the tail formed is permanent and progressively grows to become several times larger than the original disk.

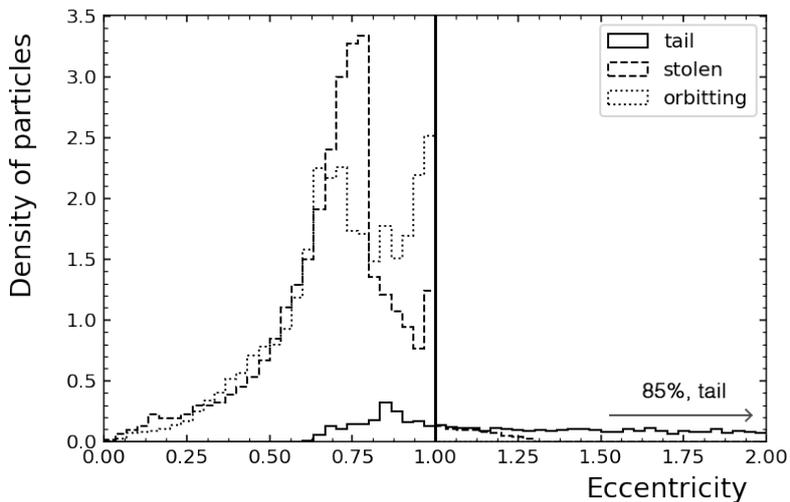


Figure 5. Eccentricity at large times for the encounter shown in figure 4 (prograde, parabolic, $m_{\text{companion}} = 2 \times m_{\text{main}}$). All of the particles that remain close to the main mass (green in figure 4) and 98% of those that follow the companion (blue) are bound, although in highly eccentric orbits. For the tail (orange), the opposite holds, with 94% of the particles having eccentricity $e > 1$ (85% of those particles have $e > 2$ and are not shown).

system, we must note that tails also form in inclined encounters (see later in section 2.4), and as such the resonance idea must be interpreted broadly.

2.3 A quantitative analysis

To perform a more quantitative analysis, it is necessary to design an accurate, automated measurement scheme. We develop a sequential segmentation algorithm for this task, illus-

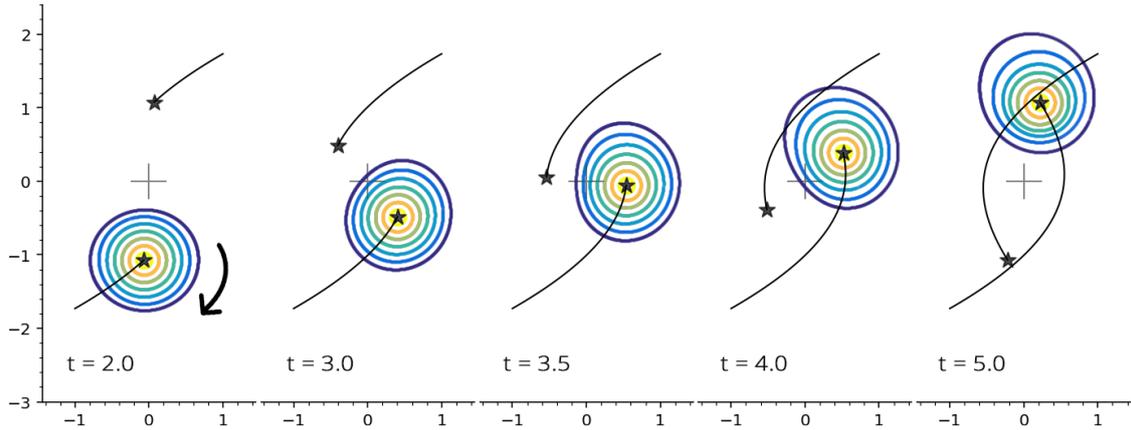


Figure 6. A retrograde flat parabolic encounter with a companion of equal mass. Coloured rings originally placed at a radius .2, .3, .4, .5, .6, .7 and .8 from the main mass are shown at different times. The rings remain mostly undisturbed, with no bridge or tail formation.

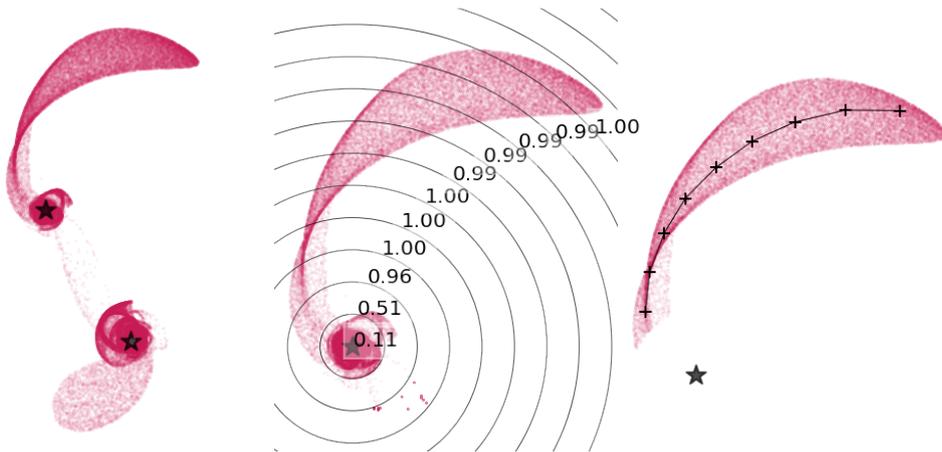


Figure 7. Depiction of the algorithm described in section 2.3. A limited number of concentric spheres (shown as rings) are used here for illustration purposes only, annotated with their f value. The stray particles from the bridge are emphasized in the middle picture and completely removed by the algorithm.

trated in figure 7 and described here:

1. We divide the space with planes normal to the segment joining the massive centers, at distances 30% and 70% along its length. The middle region is defined as the bridge to within a width of 3 units and removed.
2. The remaining particles are classified as belonging to the main or companion mass based on their relative distance to each. Those belonging to the main mass are divided

into 100 concentric spheres centered on the main mass, and the quantity $f = \frac{\sum_i \vec{r}_i}{\sum_i |r_i|}$, where r_i denotes the radial vector of the i^{th} particle is computed for each ring.

3. The start of the tail is associated with a sharp increase in f . We choose a cutoff at $f_0 = 0.80$, select the first ring with a value of f larger than f_0 and remove all closer rings. We also calculate the vector $\vec{q} = \sum_i \vec{r}_i$ for the now innermost ring and remove all particles in a direction opposite to \vec{q} placed in the now innermost 5 rings, as these are commonly stray particles from the bridge. The barycenters of the spherical shells can now be joined to determine the shape and length of the tail.

The algorithm is satisfactorily checked to match human expectations for all the cases presented in this report.³ We employ it to study the time evolution of prograde encounters, based on the qualitative example in the preceding section, but where the companion mass varies from that of the main mass (figure 8). It confirms that tidal bridges are transient features whose life is however extended when the perturbing mass is small. Tidal tails, on the contrary, are only significant when the companion is at least of similar mass, but can then span vast lengths. It follows that when two tails are observed, as is the case for The Antennae (figure 1, middle), both galaxies should have similar masses.

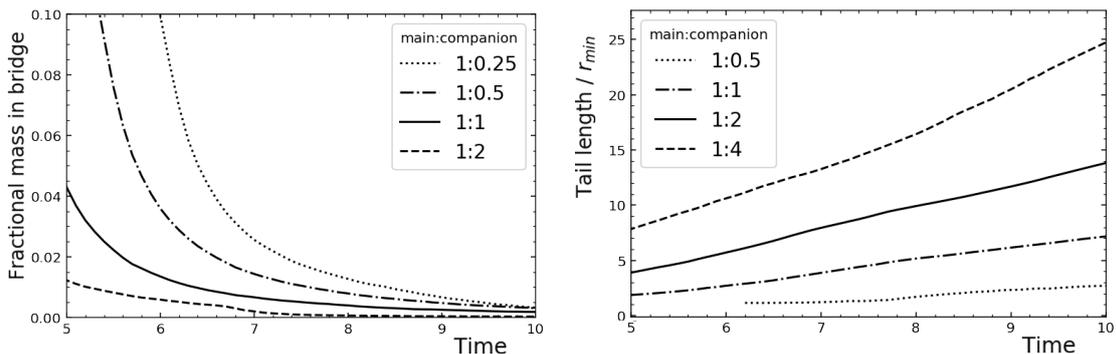


Figure 8. Evolution of the mass in the bridge (left) and the tail length (right) for a set of flat, prograde, elliptic encounters of different *main mass:companion mass* ratios. A uniform disk of size $0.6r_{\text{min}}$ initially surrounded the main mass.

At large times, when the bridge has become negligible, we may assign each particle to one of three groups: still orbiting the main galaxy, part of the tail, or stolen by the companion. Figure 9 shows that the fractional mass belonging to each group is a strong function of the perturbing mass to main mass ratio. When the companion is multiple times more massive, the encounter is highly disruptive and a large fraction of the disk ends up either stolen ($> 30\%$) or forming the tail ($> 40\%$).

Making use of the algorithm introduced, we can additionally analyse the shape of the tail. To the surprise of the author, flat encounters display a universal tail shape, independent of the mass of the companion, the time since pericenter and mostly the closeness of

³We have, in fact, already made use of it to colour the particles based on their final classification in figure 4.

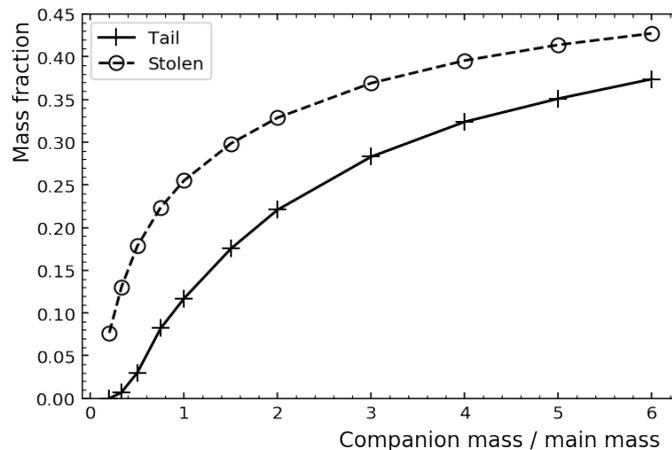


Figure 9. Fractional mass of the disk that, at large times, belongs to the tidal tail (solid) or has been stolen by the companion (dashed) as a function of the companion mass. The remaining fractional mass mostly continues closely orbiting the main mass. The main mass is initially surrounded by a uniform disk of radius $0.7r_{\min}$.

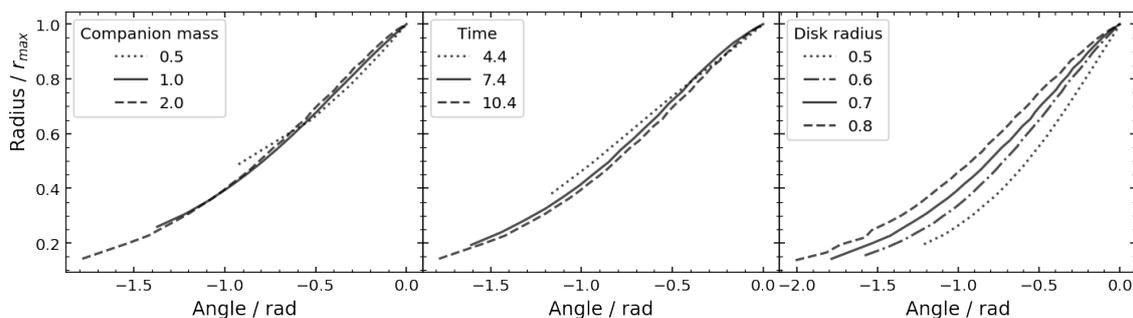


Figure 10. Shape of the tail for flat prograde encounters with pericenter distance $r_{\min} = 1$ differing on the mass of the companion (left), the time since pericenter (center) and the radius of the ring (right). The radial distance is normalized by dividing by the radial extension of the tail. The fact that the curves start at different radii is simply due to the difficulty of meaningfully defining the tail close to the main mass.

the encounter (figure 10). Although this will not hold true for more general interacting geometries, it makes it easier to guess appropriate viewing angles or initial conditions, since tails such as those of the Mice galaxies are now known not to be flat but rather curved away from the viewing plane.

2.4 Extending the geometry

It is clear that for a flat galactic encounter as presented so far both tails would be curved in the same direction. Observations of for instance the Antennae, where this is not the case, urge us to generalize the geometry of the event. This can be accomplished through the

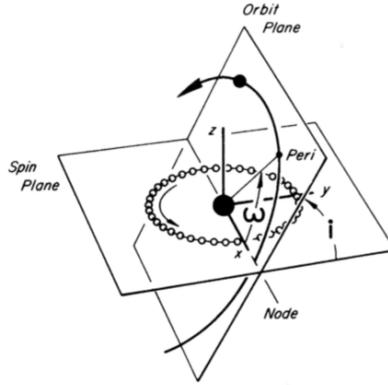


Figure 11. The interacting geometry, reproduced from [6]. i denotes the angle between the galactic and orbital planes; ω denotes the angle between the galactic plane and the pericenter, as measured from the main mass.

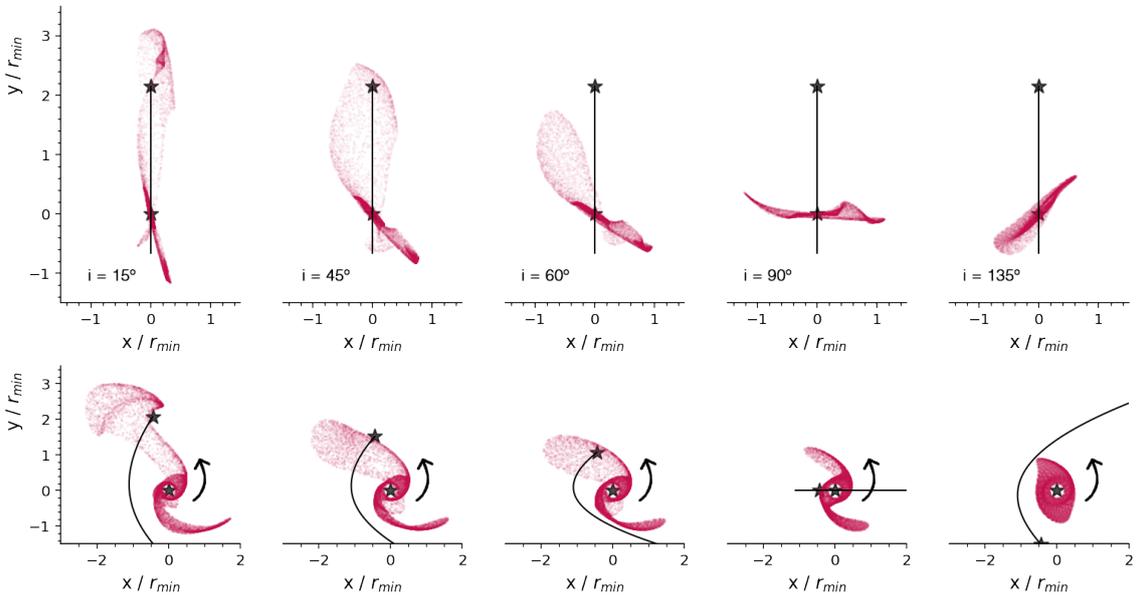


Figure 12. Tail and bridge formation in parabolic encounters of equal mass with $\omega = 0^\circ$ for varying inclination angles i . Each event is plotted at $t = 5$ for a viewing direction along the intersection of the orbital and galactic planes (top row) and normal to the galactic plane (bottom). The 3rd event from the left is an example of a *faux*-bridge, as it can be seen to not be connected to the companion in the top row but may appear to be in the bottom one.

introduction of two angles, the inclination i ⁴ and the pericenter argument ω , as illustrated in figure 11. A survey of the inclination, restricted to parabolic encounters of equal mass with $\omega = 0^\circ$, results in a curious phenomenon. Figure 12 shows that bridges only form for low inclinations ($i < 60^\circ$). Higher values lead to *faux*-bridges, as no mass is stolen and they

⁴ $i = 0^\circ$ corresponds to a flat prograde encounter; $i = 180^\circ$ to a flat retrograde encounter.

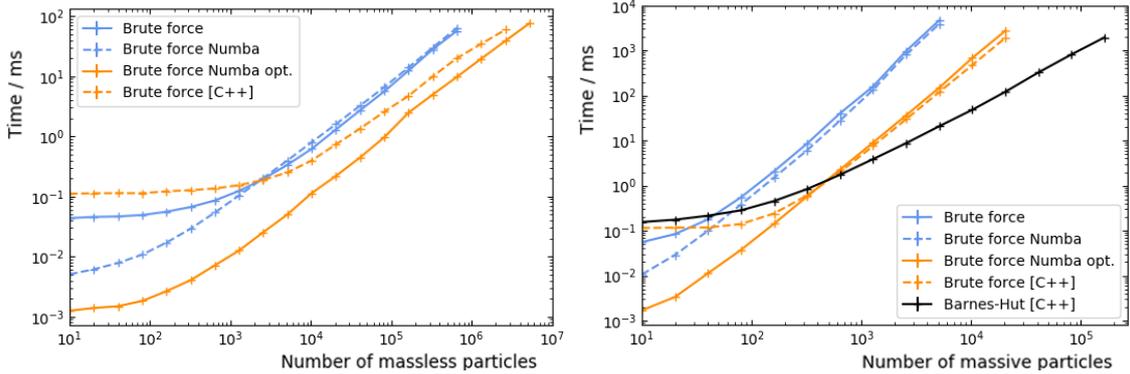


Figure 13. Performance comparison of the methods used to compute the gravitational forces in double precision. A variable number of particles are placed randomly in a cubic box. We show results for a single massive particle and massless test particles (left) and all massive particles (right). "Brute-force Numba" denotes the same code used for the "Brute-Force" algorithm but having compiled it using Numba whereas "Brute-force Numba opt." denotes an optimized version devised for low-level performance, similar in style to "Brute Force C++". The Barnes-Hut approximation agrees to within 1% with the exact methods for the shown $\theta_{\max} = 0.7$. All measurements were made in a single thread of a 2.7 GHz Intel Core i5 and have statistical uncertainties comparable to the marker size.

are not connected to the companion but may appear to be from certain viewing angles. Tails can on the other hand be formed for high inclination, with the main difference being that they appear less curved when the galaxy is viewed normal to the spin plane.⁵

3 Dark matter halos

3.1 Computational performance

Although a dark matter halo can be introduced by considering extended matter distributions, as opposed to central point masses, to consider halo-halo interactions and include orbital decay through dynamical friction a full n-body simulation is required. One may consider a brute-force pairwise summation algorithm, but it is clear that its $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ complexity on the number of massive particles makes it a suboptimal choice. To that end, we implement a Barnes-Hut tree that provides an approximation to the gravitational forces with complexity $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$. Due to the vast overhead of object creation in Python, we implement the tree in C++, compile it to a shared library, and use the standard library module `ctypes` to call the functions from Python. For a fair comparison, we also provide a version of the pairwise summation algorithm written in C++ and one written in Python but compiled to low-level instructions using *Numba*.⁶ Figure 13 shows the expected results,

⁵One could at this point include a survey of ω . We do not find it worthwhile as the resulting tails all look far too similar—the interested reader is referred to [6]—and we would perhaps only highlight that tidal structure formation is inhibited as ω moves away from 0° for high inclinations ($i > 60^\circ$). At this point this is more of a blessing, as one can then conceptually superpose two encounters to match astronomical observations by modifying the value of ω , without worrying too much about drastically affecting the tails.

⁶*Numba* is a Python library which "translates Python functions to optimized machine code at runtime".

	mass ratios <i>bulge : disk : halo</i>	eccentricity <i>e</i>	no. of particles <i>bulge : disk : halo</i>
A	1 : 1 : 0	0.5	500 : 500 : 0
B	1 : 3 : 16	0.5	500 : 500 : 0
C	1 : 1 : 0	1.0	500 : 500 : 2000
D	1 : 3 : 16	1.0	500 : 500 : 2000

Table 1. Parameters for the 4 encounters considered in section 3. The total mass of each galaxy and distance of closest approach are kept constant at $r_{\min} = 1$ and $M = 1$. The interaction geometry is loosely inspired by the Antennae, following [7], with $i_1 = i_2 = 60^\circ$ and $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = 30^\circ$.

with the Barnes-Hut algorithm outperforming all other approaches when more than 400 massive particles are used. It is clear that interfacing with C++ results in an overhead but we expect this to be $\mathcal{O}(n)$, as this is the size of the exchanged arrays. For massless test particles, the use of code optimized for *Numba* ($\mathcal{O}(n)$) leads to the fastest performance due to no interfacing costs.

For a sensible 10 ms computing time step, 10^4 massive or 10^6 massless bodies may be used.⁷ The implementation is optimized for memory reusing, loop unrolling and cache hit minimization but further improvements could straightforwardly be achieved through concurrency and Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) techniques or more laboriously by exploiting the GPU.⁸ We note that we have implemented basic unit testing for these routines and are thus confident that they are in agreement.

3.2 Orbital decay

Following [7], we use prototype *bulge:disk:dark halo* cold (rotationally supported) galaxies.⁹ The bulge is constructed using a Plummer distribution of characteristic length 0.04, the disk using an exponential distribution of decay length 0.2, and the dark matter halo using a NFW profile with $R_s = 1$ and cut-off at $R_0 = 5$. We simulate 4 different encounters, summarized in table 1, elliptical ($e = 0.5$) and parabolic, both with halo and no halo.

Figure 14 shows the trajectory followed by the bulge in all four encounters. A full n-body simulation results in orbital decay in all cases. In fact, dynamical friction is so efficient that even hyperbolic trajectories can decay in a few crossings. It must be noted as such that, whereas a dark halo is not necessary to observe dynamical friction, when included orbital decay may occur even at large separations, greatly enhancing the probability of interactions in the Universe and the importance of galactic mergers.

⁷Scaling to the $\sim 10^{11}$ stars in the Milky Way is unreasonable, as a more accurate SPH simulation would be preferred over mindless scaling. In any case, we note that locally adaptative timestep algorithms would then allow to model close star interactions without significant performance drawbacks.

⁸This, or alternatively the use of BLAS, would also allow one to compute only the upper-half of the skew-hermitian matrices involved. Numpy does not provide specific routines for hermitian and skew-hermitian matrices leading to either wasteful computation or cumbersome code.

⁹We do not evolve the galaxies in isolation and construct them so as to be formally in equilibrium, as opposed to adiabatically. Softening of the gravitational potential is thus needed to minimize two-body relaxation effects.

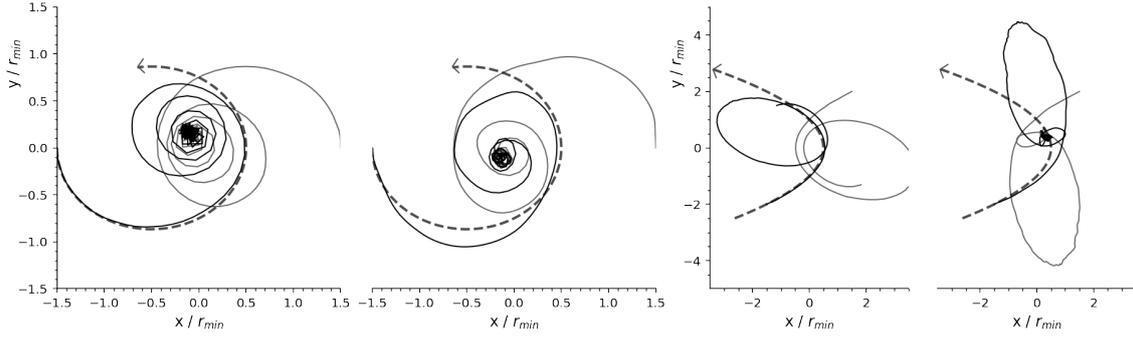


Figure 14. Trajectories of the central bulge for the full n-body simulation. Encounters from left to right: elliptical with no halo (A), elliptical with halo (B), parabolic with no halo (C), parabolic with halo (D). Efficient dynamical friction is observed in all examples. Solid lines represent the bulge trajectories and dashed lines the Keplerian trajectories that would be observed for point galaxies. The view is normal to the orbital plane.

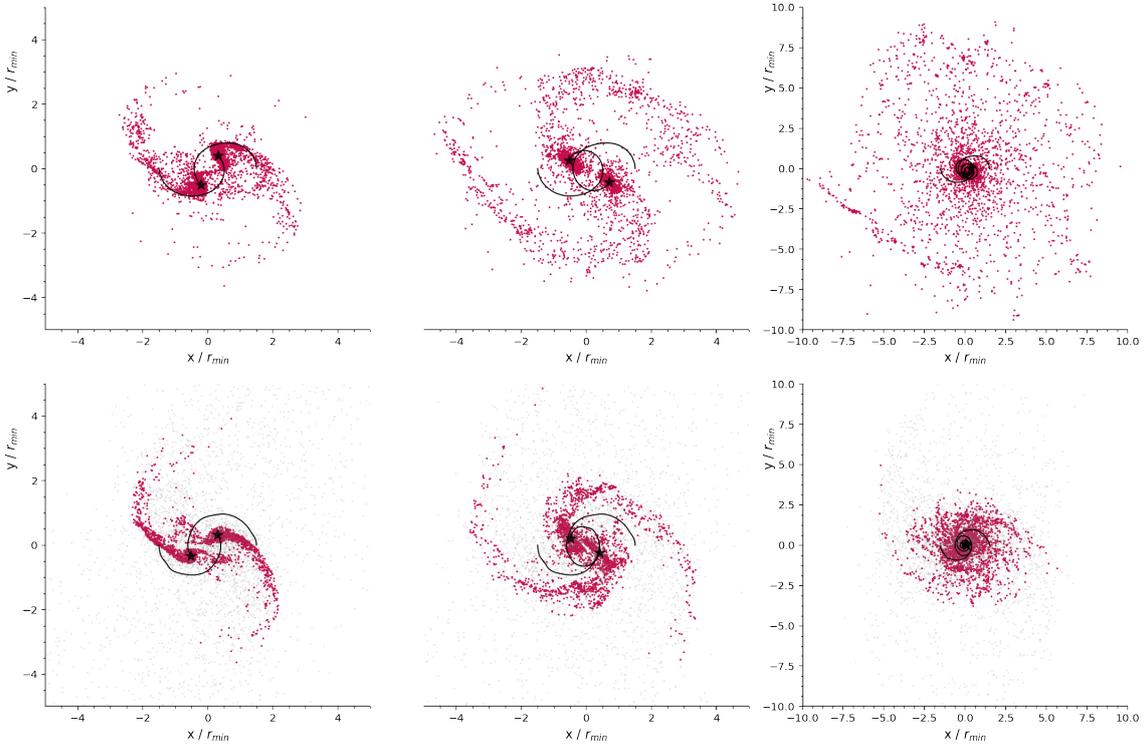


Figure 15. Elliptical encounters with *bulge:disk:halo* mass ratios 1:1:0 (top, A) and 1:3:16 (bottom, B). We show snapshots of the luminous components slightly after the first pericenter (left), slightly before the second pericenter (center) and at large times when the galaxies have merged (right). A full n-body simulation results in the expected orbital decay. A dark halo leads to thinner tails and a more compact merger remnant. The view is normal to the orbital plane.

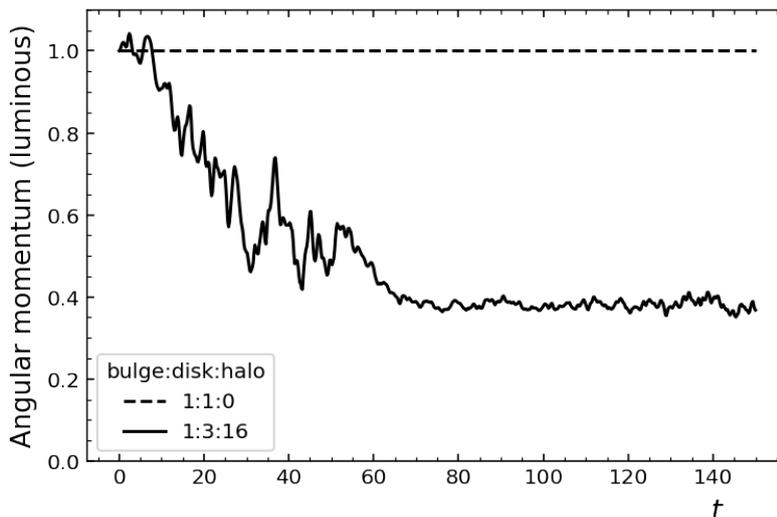


Figure 16. Evolution of the angular momentum of the luminous component for hyperbolic encounters with no dark matter halo (dashed, C) and with a dark matter halo (solid, D). The angular momentum in encounter C is conserved to within relative numerical error of 10^{-10} (providing a further test of the numerical implementation), whereas in D 60% of the angular momentum of the luminous components is transferred away. The exact pairwise summation method is employed for accuracy.

When all luminous components are plotted (figure 15), the halo results in thinner tails, consistent with many observed systems, and a more compact merger remnant. The explanation is straightforward: it provides a mechanism for angular momentum in the disk and bulge to be transferred away. This is confirmed by encounter D (figure 16), where the merger only possesses 40% of the initial angular momentum in the luminous components.

3.3 Structure of a merger remnant

The idea that that two spiral galaxies can merge to create an elliptical galaxy was established as reasonable by Toomre in subsequent work (see the "Toomre sequence" [4]) and first studied closely in the context of dark halos by Barnes [7] (see [12] for a review). Numerically, the study is simple, as one only needs to allow our previous encounter D, the most physically plausible of them all, to evolve until dynamical equilibrium is reached.

The merger is consistent with the properties of a typical elliptical galaxy with principal axes in the ratio 7 : 10 : 13. One observes in figure 17 that the resulting galaxy has a size only slightly larger than its progenitors, as has been noted before. More interestingly, the resulting merger is well described by *de Vaucouleurs' law*, a commonly used model parameterising the surface brightness I as a function of the distance to the center of the galaxy R as $\log(I) = \log(I_0) - kr^{1/4}$, where I_0 and k are constants. This provides evidence for the now accepted theory that elliptical galaxies may originate from the merging of other galaxies. Based on this idea, CDM models propose the hierarchical scenario, where many large scale structures in the Universe can be explained through successive gravitational

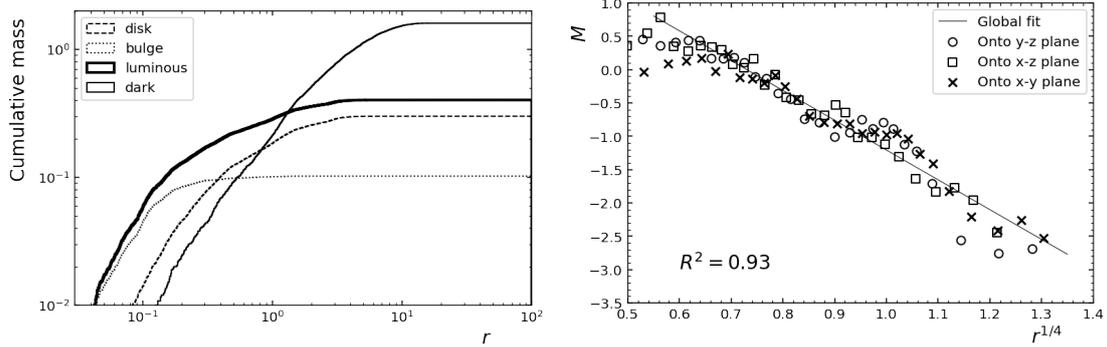


Figure 17. Cumulative mass distribution of the resultant merger for encounter D (left) and magnitude $M = \log(\text{surface density})$ (in arbitrary units) as a function of $r^{1/4}$ (right). The surface density is well-described by *de Vaucouleurs' law*, as has been reported multiple times ([7] and references therein). The 5 closest and 2 furthest points for each series are omitted in the fit, as they are highly dependent on the original bulge distribution and suffer from high uncertainty in the determination of the radii.

collapse due to instabilities and galactic mergers.

4 The Antennae galaxies

4.1 Analysis & implementation: Automated matching

The Antennae galaxies are one of the best studied mergers due to their proximity [19, 20], allowing for the result of the simulations to be compared to data in great detail. Owing to this, and further motivated by their beauty, we aim in this section to explain how the pair could have arisen. Our target is to find a set of parameters consistent with the observations through an algorithm that scans the parameter space without any human intervention. This is an area of active research (Identikit [21, 22], AGC [23]) where simplified simulations are used and humans still commonly carry out part of the process manually [24]. In the case of the Antennae, the state of the art simulations are to this day largely based on the parameters proposed by Toomre & Toomre [14].

We experiment with Bayesian optimization and genetic algorithms, but find them to suffer from boundary issues¹⁰ and unnecessary hyperparameter complexity for the problem. We settle for Simulated Annealing due to its ability to handle a relatively large number of parameters (table 2) and to converge without too many evaluations.

In detail, we select a sensible range for each allowed parameter and draw the first sample at random.¹¹ We choose an exponential cooling scheme for the *temperature* and in every

¹⁰The algorithm repeatedly evaluates (less likely optimal) points near the boundaries, particularly when Upper Confidence Boundary acquisition functions are employed. For a large number of parameters this is computationally wasteful and whereas proposed solutions exist [25] this would take us too far into the field of black-box optimization.

¹¹To lower the number of parameters and ensure performance, we make use of the simplified model from section 2, with massless test particles in a uniform ring, deemed appropriate for obtaining a plausible set of geometrical parameters.

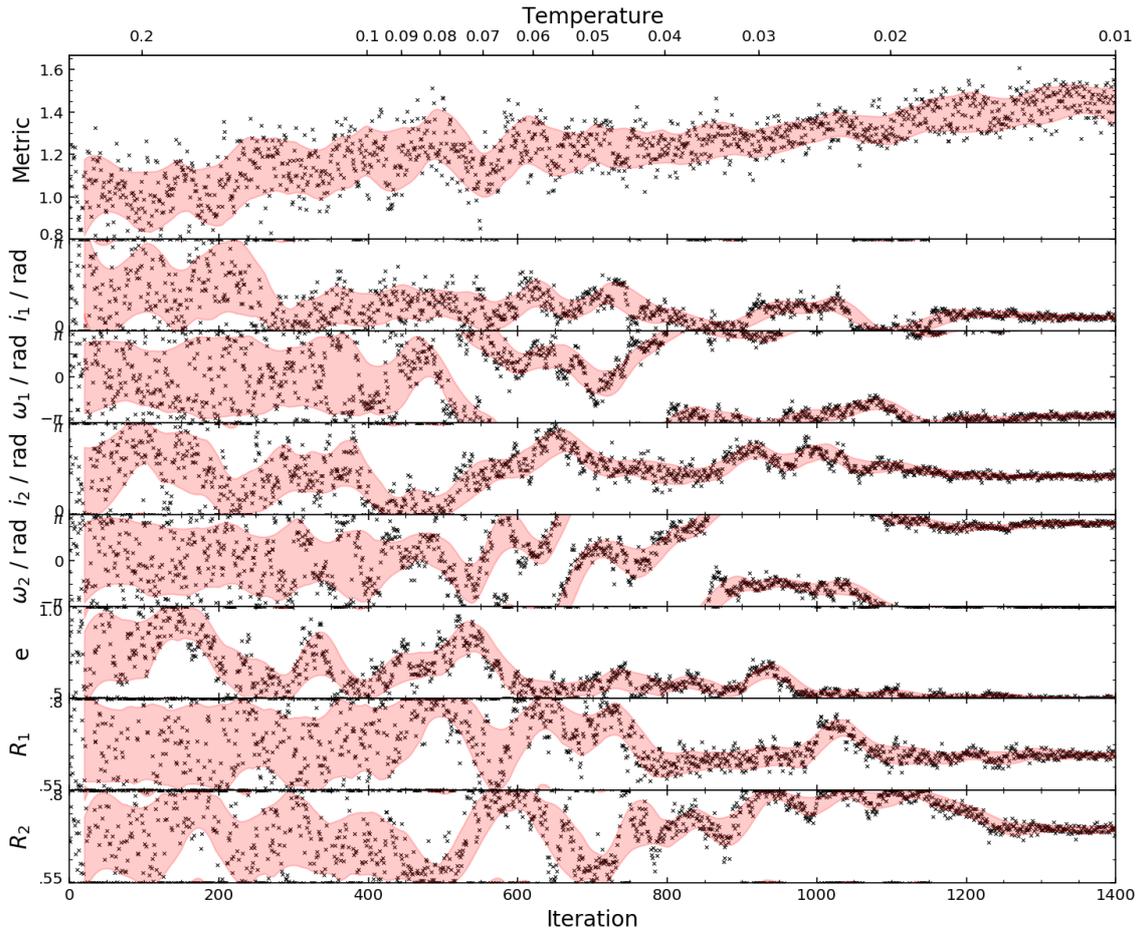


Figure 18. Evolution of the simulated annealing algorithm. Each dot shows a single evaluation, with the performance metric shown in the first row (higher is better) and the initializing parameters in all the following. The shaded regions indicate the 10%–90% confidence bands. Note that there is a significant error ($\sim \pm 0.04$) in each metric evaluation, since it involves probing multiple displaying parameters stochastically. The algorithm is seen to converge to a set of parameters, with a generally upwards trend for the metric, providing evidence for its correctness.

iteration perturb each parameter of the current best result by adding numbers drawn from a Gaussian distribution with standard deviation linearly proportional to the temperature. The score for each evaluation is the F_1 score between two low resolution binarized images: the ground truth derived from astronomical observations and a 2D projection of the simulation.¹² The choice is driven by the necessity for an extremely fast performance evaluation, as each simulation must be compared to the ground truth at multiple time instants (t), viewing directions (θ, ϕ), possible rotations along the line of sight (Ω), scalings (s) and

¹²The F_1 score is the harmonic average of the sensitivity and recall and matched human expectations of what constituted a good match. We segment the ground truth into two galaxies, match them separately and add the two scores.

Parameter	Allowed range	Final value
Mass ratio ^a	1.0	1.0
Eccentricity	0.5 - 1.0	0.5
1st galaxy:		
Inclination (i_1)	0 - π	26.3°
Pericenter arg. (ω_1)	$-\pi$ - π	-153.0°
Disk radius (R_1)	0.55 - 0.8	0.65
2nd galaxy:		
Inclination (i_2)	0 - π	76.8°
Pericenter arg. (ω_2)	$-\pi$ - π	147.3°
Disk radius (R_2)	0.55 - 0.8	0.70 (0.64)
Viewing:		
θ	0 - π	(1.86)
ϕ	0 - 2π	(4.10)
Ω	0 - 2π	(5.10)
Scaling ^b	-	(12.0 kpc)
(x, y) ^c offset	-	-
HI spectrum:		
Velocity offset	-	(43 km/s)
Velocity scaling ^c	-	(150 km/s)

Table 2. Parameters matched by the simulated annealing algorithm. The velocity offset and velocity scaling are not matched by the algorithm but introduced here for later use. We show in parenthesis those parameters which we modify or select manually. ^aWe set the ratio of their masses to 1 as astronomical observations and previous work suggest this is reasonable [14]. ^bOne dimensionless unit in the simulation corresponds in this case to the distance and velocity given in the table for the assumed 22 Mpc distance to the Antennae with total mass for each galaxy $5 \times 10^{11} M_\odot$, following [14]. ^cThe offset is physically meaningless here as it depends on the framing of the ground truth image, but must nevertheless be matched.

translations (x, y) to obtain the best match. In fact, despite each single image comparison being optimized to take $20\mu s$, the simulation itself only amounts to $\sim 10\%$ of the computing cost.¹³ The correctness of the algorithm is examined by globally optimizing several single- and multi-dimensional analytical functions with additive Gaussian distributed noise.

4.2 Observations and the Hydrogen 21-cm line

Figure 18 shows the results of running the simulated annealing algorithm for 1400 samples (~ 2 days of computing time). The final parameters are those of the best run and are tabulated in table 2. The low eccentricity may be particularly worrying as a low period elliptical orbit could hardly have been the case. In reality, having neglected orbital decay, it

¹³Among the other explored metrics, we highlight the Wasserstein distance, obtained by solving an optimal transport problem, which matched human expectations better and can be made translationally invariant but is too computationally expensive to evaluate.

was expected that a closer despite unphysical match would result from elliptical encounters. It is due to this same omission of a dark matter halo that many previous approaches ran simulations with $e = 0.5$ [6]. The final model, which qualitatively matches the Antennae except for a small number of stray particles next to one of the disks is shown in figure 19. The parameters found agree only partially with those provided originally by Toomre and Toomre [6]. When taken to follow their convention,¹⁴ our parameters read $i_1 = 26.3^\circ$, $i_2 = 76.8^\circ$, $\omega_1 = 27.0^\circ$, $\omega_2 = -32.7^\circ$ compared to theirs $i_1 = i_2 = 60^\circ$, $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = -30^\circ$. We believe this is due to the problem being under-constrained with only one observation viewpoint.

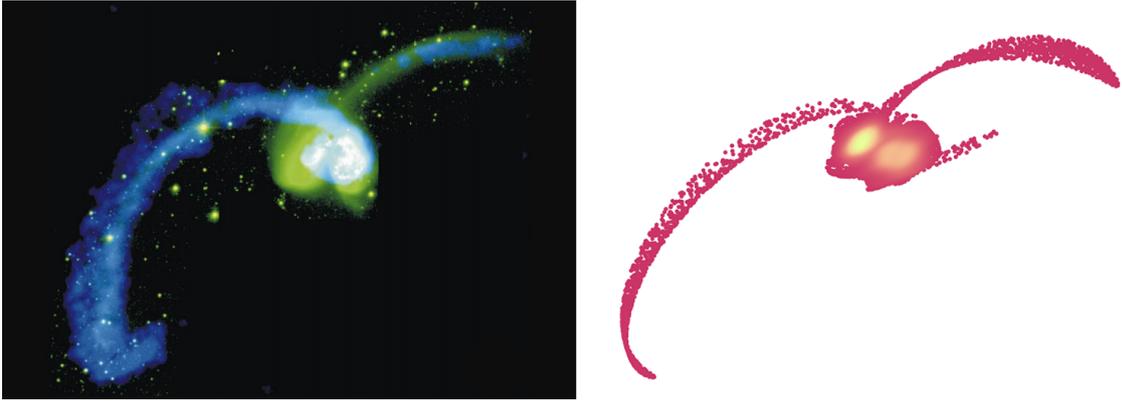


Figure 19. Comparison between observations of the Antennae galaxies obtained from [20] (left), from which the low resolution binarised ground truth is obtained, and the result of our best simulation at time $t=13.5$ (right). 20,000 test masses are included per galaxy for plotting purposes with brightness indicating the density of each region. The observations combine HI data (green) with optical images (white and blue).

Moreover, we compare our model to HI observations and find a surprisingly good agreement (figure 20), including the "twists" at the tail ends.¹⁵ We emphasize here that our simulated annealing algorithm did not attempt to match the line of sight velocity observations in any way, and as such this independent test gives us confidence in our model. Even more surprisingly, the match is similar to that of recent SPH models (including radiative cooling, star formation and feedback from Type II supernovae) [14]. It would be unfair to put these two models at the same level, as the main reason for the "extra machinery" is to probe bursts of star formation in the overlapping region,¹⁶ but it is certainly now reasonable to say that Toomre & Toomre [6] couldn't have been more right when they wrote that "[these structures are] in essence kinematic".

¹⁴Toomre and Toomre allow i to take negative values but restrict ω to be $|\omega| < 90^\circ$.

¹⁵We expect that a closer reproduction of the features of the tails would require a more realistic model of the galaxies (bulge + disk + halo, see section 3), but the number of parameters would become intractable.

¹⁶The Antennae are currently undergoing a starburst phase in the overlap region, a feature that has proven hard to replicate, as many simulations predict enhanced star formation at the galactic centers instead [26]. It has been suggested that collisions of Giant Molecular Clouds could account for this feature [26, 27].

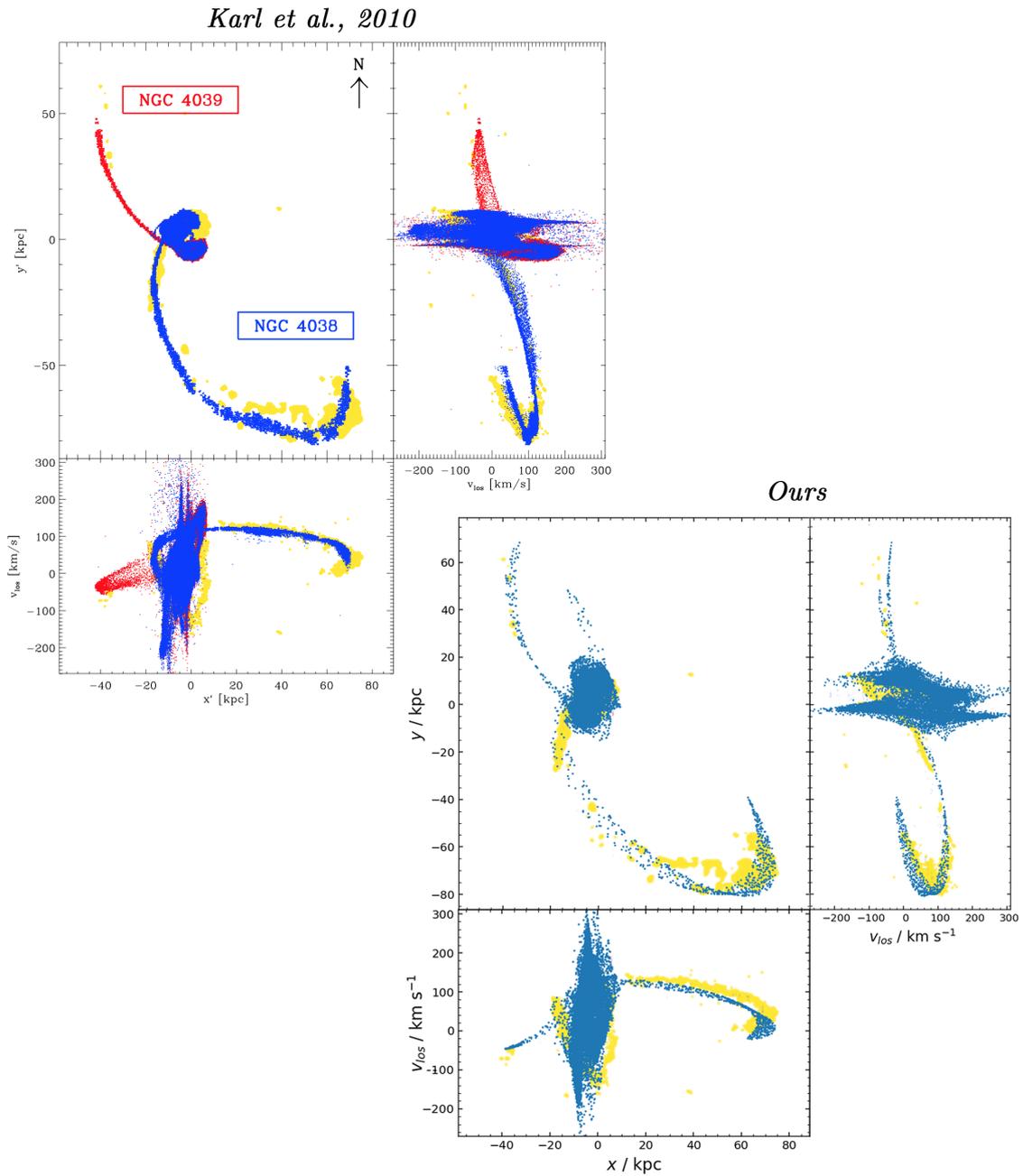


Figure 20. Comparison to HI kinematic data from [20]. Yellow points represent the observational data, blue and red the model. We show the results from *Karl et al., 2010* [14] (top left, Soft Particle Hydrodynamics + Star formation + Radiative cooling + Type II Supernovae feedback) and of our best model (bottom right). The velocity offset and scaling were matched manually. The initial radius of the second galaxy was modified slightly (table 2).

5 Conclusions

We have shown that a simplified model where two galaxies, surrounded by massless rings of particles, interact is sufficient to reproduce many of the phenomena associated with these encounters, emphasizing that bridges, tails and counterarms are at heart a kinematic phenomenon. Bridges are found to be transient and a feature of soft perturbations whereas tails require the perturbing galaxy to be of similar size. Both are however dependent on *spin-orbit coupling*, i.e. the alignment of the spin of the galaxy with the angular momentum of the orbit, as bridges, and to a lesser extent tails, are inhibited by high inclination encounters.

We also consider self-gravitating rotationally supported models and find them to exhibit dynamical friction. A dark matter halo provides an efficient mechanism for orbital decay and for angular momentum to be transferred away from the luminous components, leading to elliptical merger remnants that follow *de Vaucouleur's* law. Finally, we provide a simple model for the Antennae galaxies obtained by sampling the high dimensional space without human intervention, comparable to current semi-supervised and unsupervised approaches ([21–23]). The obtained model matches observational data of the HI spectroscopic line to great accuracy. The main open area remains a study of star formation, which would require a SPH simulation.

In any case, the idea that galactic interactions account for the morphology of some peculiar galaxies is well established. More interesting open topics include whether cosmological simulations based on Cold Dark Matter models (Λ CDM) can lead to a structured formation of the universe through galactic mergers, and the study of dwarf galaxy formation in the tidal tails [28].

A Source code listing

Legible documentation, automatically generated using `pdoc` from the docstrings, can be found in the `docs/` folder. We structure the code in an Object Oriented manner, to allow for our modules to be reused, and follow appropriate style conventions. The simplest way to run an encounter is through the command line:

```
> python run_simulation.py config.yml --output_folder --verbose
```

We make use of configuration files in YAML (`.yml`) format. These are extremely simple and concise, as one only needs to specify those parameters that differ from the default (`config/default.yml`). For example, the encounter proposed for the Antennae in [6] can be specified as:

```

1 |         name: toomre1972
2 |         galaxy1:
3 |             orientation: [240, -30]
4 |             disk:
5 |                 l: .7
6 |         galaxy2:
7 |             orientation: [120, -30]
8 |             disk:
9 |                 particles: 2000
10 |                l: .7

```

A `.yaml` can contain multiple encounters separated with three dashes (as per usual YAML standard). In this case the extra encounters need only specify those parameters that change with respect to the first encounter, making parameter surveys simple. `.yaml` files for the encounters we consider can be found in the `config/` folder. The core of the simulation (`Simulation`, `Galaxy`) can be found in the file `simulation.py`, and makes use of the routines defined in `acceleration.py`. The gravitational computation routines are general—allowing some particles to be set as massless—and have been optimized to take advantage of compiler loop unrolling and vectorization as well as to minimize cache hits and memory allocations for performance.

The C++ library can be found in the `cpp/` folder and the simulated annealing algorithm is contained in `run_simulated_annealing.py`. Moreover, the submission includes an interactive widget (`analysis/interactive.ipynb`) that can be used to examine the encounters. Its interface is shown in figure 21.

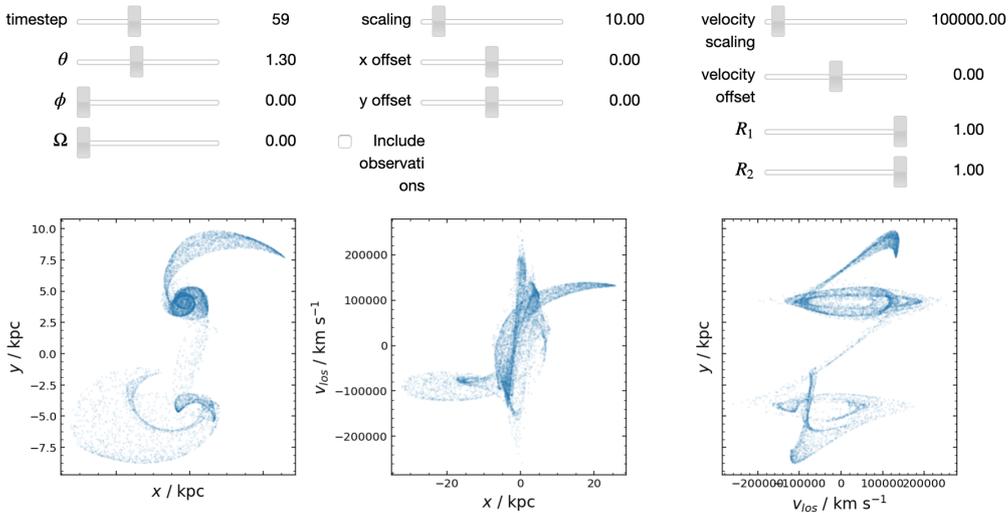


Figure 21. Interface of the interactive widget `analysis/interactive.ipynb` that can be used to analyse the encounters. It allows the time and viewing direction to be varied. For massless particles in rings, the radii of the galaxies can also be modified without rerunning the simulation. Observational data of the Antenna Hydrogen 21-cm line can be matched using this tool.

Due to their obvious length we do not reproduce here helper functions (`utils.py`), statistical distributions (`distributions.py`) and analysis and plotting code (`analysis/`),

except for the segmentation algorithm (`segmentation.py`) described in section [2.3](#). These can be found in the online submission and should be ran from the main module, that is for instance:

```
> python -m analysis.tailShapePlot
```

Configuration and running encounters

config/default.yml

```
1  ---
2  # When calling > python simulation.py filename.yml --output_folder
3  # the simulation will use the default parameters here unless specified
4  name: default
5
6  simulation:
7    dt: 0.001 #timestep of the simulation
8    tmax: 15 #total runtime of the simulation
9    soft: 0.1 #plummer softening characteristic length
10   saveEvery: 100 #the state of the simulation is saved every saveEvery steps
11   method: bruteForce #method for computing gravitational forces
12   # One of 'bruteForce', 'bruteForceNumba',
13   # 'bruteForceNumbaOptimized', 'bruteForceCPP', 'barnesHutCPP'.
14
15  orbit:
16    e: 1 #eccentricity
17    rmin: 1 #separation at pericenter
18    R0: 4 #separation at t=0
19
20  galaxy1:
21    orientation: [0, 0] #[theta, phi] in degrees
22    # These are related to i, ω through theta = i + 180 and ω = phi
23    centralMass: 1 #mass of the central point object
24    bulge:
25      model: plummer #alternatively: hernquist
26      totalMass: 0
27      particles: 0 #number of particles
28      l: .04 #characteristic length scale both for plummer and Hernquist models
29    disk:
30      model: uniform #alternatively: rings, exp
31      totalMass: 0
32      particles: 2000 #number of particles
33      l: 0.8 #for uniform: single number for maximum radius
34      #l: [0., .7, 100] #for rings: [closest ring, furthest ring, number of rings]
35      #l: .2 #for exp: characteristic decay length
36    halo:
37      model: NFW #Navarro-Frenk-White profile only
38      totalMass: 0
39      particles: 0 #number of particles
40      rs: 1 #characteristic length scale of NFW. Cutoff is 5*rs
41
42  # The same options are available for the second galaxy
43  galaxy2:
44    orientation: [0, 0]
```

```
45   centralMass: 1
46   bulge:
47     model: plummer
48     totalMass: 0
49     particles: 0
50     l: .04
51   disk:
52     model: uniform
53     totalMass: 0
54     particles: 0 #the second galaxy does not possess a ring by default
55     l: 0.7
56   halo:
57     model: NFW
58     totalMass: 0
59     particles: 0
60     rs: 1
```

run_simulation.py

```
1  """Command line tool to run a YAML simulation configuration file."""
2
3  import yaml
4  import argparse
5
6  from utils import update_config
7  from simulation import Simulation, Galaxy
8
9
10 # Parse command line arguments:
11 # > python simulation.py config_file.yml output_folder
12 parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(description='Run a galactic
13 collision simulation.')
14 parser.add_argument('config_file', type=argparse.FileType('r'),
15 help='Path to configuration file for the simulation, in YAML format.
16 See the config folder for examples.')
17 parser.add_argument('--output_folder', default=None,
18 help='Name of the output folder in data/ where the results will be
19 saved. The directory will be created if necessary. If none is provided,
20 the name attribute in the configuration file will be used instead.')
21 parser.add_argument('--verbose', action='store_true', default=False,
22 help='In verbose mode the simulation will print its progress.')
23
24 args = parser.parse_args()
25
26 # Load the configuration for this simulation
27 CONFIG = yaml.load(open("config/default.yml", "r")) # default configuration
28 updates = list(yaml.load_all(args.config_file))
29
30 for update in updates:
```

```

31     # For multiple configurations in one file,
32     # the updates are with respect to the first one.
33     update_config(CONFIG, updates[0])
34     update_config(CONFIG, update)
35     # If no output folder is provided, the name in CONFIG is used instead
36     outputFolder = (CONFIG['name'] if args.output_folder is None
37                    else args.output_folder)
38
39     # Run the simulation
40     sim = Simulation(**CONFIG['simulation'], verbose=args.verbose,
41                   CONFIG=CONFIG)
42     galaxy1 = Galaxy(**CONFIG['galaxy1'], sim=sim) # create the galaxies
43     galaxy2 = Galaxy(**CONFIG['galaxy2'], sim=sim)
44     sim.setOrbit(galaxy1, galaxy2, **CONFIG['orbit']) # define the orbit
45     sim.run(**CONFIG['simulation'], outputFolder=outputFolder)

```

Numerical components

acceleration.py

```

1  """Defines the possible routines for computing the gravitational forces in the
2  simulation.
3
4  All the methods in this file require a position (n, 3) vector, a mass (n, )
5  vector and an optional softening scale float."""
6
7  import ctypes
8  import numpy.ctypeslib as ctl
9  import numpy as np
10 from numba import jit
11
12
13 def bruteForce(r_vec, mass, soft=0.):
14     """Calculates the acceleration generated by a set of masses on themselves.
15     Complexity  $O(n*m)$  where  $n$  is the total number of masses and  $m$  is the
16     number of massive particles.
17
18     Parameters:
19         r_vec (array): list of particles positions.
20             Shape (n, 3) where  $n$  is the number of particles
21         mass (array): list of particles masses.
22             Shape (n,)
23         soft (float): characteristic plummer softening length scale
24     Returns:
25         forces (array): list of forces acting on each particle.
26             Shape (n, 3)
27     """
28     # Only calculate forces from massive particles

```

```

29     mask = mass!=0
30     massMassive = mass[mask]
31     rMassive_vec = r_vec[mask]
32     #  $x \times m \times 1$  matrix ( $m$  = number of massive particles) for broadcasting
33     mass_mat = massMassive.reshape(1, -1, 1)
34     # Calculate displacements
35     # r_ten is the direction of the pairwise displacements. Shape (n, m, 3)
36     # r_mat is the absolute distance of the pairwise displacements. (n, m, 1)
37     r_ten = rMassive_vec.reshape(1, -1, 3) - r_vec.reshape(-1, 1, 3)
38     r_mat = np.linalg.norm(r_ten, axis=-1, keepdims=True)
39     # Avoid division by zeros
40     #  $a = M/(r+\epsilon)^2$ , where  $\epsilon$  is the softening scale
41     # r_ten/r_mat gives the direction unit vector
42     accel = np.divide(r_ten * mass_mat/(r_mat+soft)**2, r_mat,
43                    where=r_ten.astype(bool), out=r_ten) # Reuse memory from r_ten
44     return accel.sum(axis=1) # Add all forces on each particle
45
46 @jit(nopython=True) # Numba annotation
47 def bruteForceNumba(r_vec, mass, soft=0.):
48     """Calculates the acceleration generated by a set of masses on themselves.
49     It is done in the same way as in bruteForce, but this
50     method is ran through Numba"""
51     mask = mass!=0
52     massMassive = mass[mask]
53     rMassive_vec = r_vec[mask]
54     mass_mat = massMassive.reshape(1, -1, 1)
55     r_ten = rMassive_vec.reshape(1, -1, 3) - r_vec.reshape(-1, 1, 3)
56     # Avoid np.linalg.norm to allow Numba optimizations
57     r_mat = np.sqrt(r_ten[:,0:1]**2 + r_ten[:,1:2]**2 + r_ten[:,2:3]**2)
58     r_mat = np.where(r_mat == 0, np.ones_like(r_mat), r_mat)
59     accel = r_ten/r_mat * mass_mat/(r_mat+soft)**2
60     return accel.sum(axis=1) # Add all forces in each particle
61
62 @jit(nopython=True) # Numba annotation
63 def bruteForceNumbaOptimized(r_vec, mass, soft=0.):
64     """Calculates the acceleration generated by a set of masses on themselves.
65     This is optimized for high performance with Numba. All massive particles
66     must appear first."""
67     accel = np.zeros_like(r_vec)
68     # Use superposition to add all the contributions
69     n = r_vec.shape[0] # Number of particles
70     delta = np.zeros((3,)) # Only allocate this once
71     for i in range(n):
72         # Only consider pairs with at least one massive particle i
73         if mass[i] == 0: break
74         for j in range(i+1, n):
75             # Explicitly separate components for high performance
76             # i.e. do not do delta = r_vec[j] - r_vec[i]

```

```

77     # (The effect of this is VERY relevant (x10) and has to do with
78     # memory reallocation) Numba will vectorize the loops.
79     for k in range(3): delta[k] = r_vec[j,k] - r_vec[i,k]
80     r = np.sqrt(delta[0]*delta[0] + delta[1]*delta[1] + delta[2]*delta[2])
81     tripler = (r+soft)**2 * r
82
83     # Compute acceleration on first particle
84     mr3inv = mass[i]/(tripler)
85     # Again, do NOT do accel[j] -= mr3inv * delta
86     for k in range(3): accel[j,k] -= mr3inv * delta[k]
87
88     # Compute acceleration on second particle
89     # For pairs with one massless particle, no reaction force
90     if mass[j] == 0: break
91     # Otherwise, opposite direction (+)
92     mr3inv = mass[j]/(tripler)
93     for k in range(3): accel[i,k] += mr3inv * delta[k]
94     return accel
95
96 # C++ interface, load library
97 ACCLIB = None
98 def loadCPPLib():
99     """Loads the C++ shared library to the global variable ACCLIB. Must be
100     called before using the library."""
101     global ACCLIB
102     ACCLIB = ctypes.CDLL('cpp/acclib.so')
103     # Define appropriate types for library functions
104     doublepp = np.ctypeslib.ndpointer(dtype=np.uintp) # double**
105     doublep = ctypes.ndpointer(np.float64, flags='aligned, c_contiguous')#double*
106     # Check cpp/acclib.cpp for function signatures
107     ACCLIB.bruteForceCPP.argtypes = [doublepp, doublep,
108         ctypes.c_int, ctypes.c_double]
109     ACCLIB.barnesHutCPP.argtypes = [doublepp, doublep,
110         ctypes.c_int, ctypes.c_double, ctypes.c_double,
111         ctypes.c_double, ctypes.c_double, ctypes.c_double]
112
113 def bruteForceCPP(r_vec, m_vec, soft=0.):
114     """Calculates the acceleration generated by a set of masses on themselves.
115     This is ran in a shared C++ library through Brute Force (pairwise sums)
116     Massive particles must appear first."""
117     # Convert array to data required by C++ library
118     if ACCLIB is None: loadCPPLib() # Singleton pattern
119     # Change type to be appropriate for calling library
120     r_vec_c = (r_vec.ctypes.data + np.arange(r_vec.shape[0])
121         * r_vec.strides[0]).astype(np.uintp)
122     # Set return type as double*
123     ACCLIB.bruteForceCPP.restype = np.ctypeslib.ndpointer(dtype=np.float64,
124         shape=(r_vec.shape[0]*3,))

```

```

125     # Call the C++ function: double* bruteForceCPP
126     accel = ACCLIB.bruteForceCPP(r_vec_c, m_vec, r_vec.shape[0], soft)
127     # Change shape to get the expected Numpy array (n, 3)
128     accel.shape = (-1, 3)
129     return accel
130
131 def barnesHutCPP(r_vec, m_vec, soft=0.):
132     """Calculates the acceleration generated by a set of masses on themselves.
133     This is ran in a shared C++ library using a BarnesHut tree"""
134     # Convert array to data required by C++ library
135     if ACCLIB is None: loadCPPLib() # Singleton pattern
136     # Change type to be appropriate for calling library
137     r_vec_c = (r_vec.ctypes.data + np.arange(r_vec.shape[0])
138         * r_vec.strides[0]).astype(np.uintp)
139     # Set return type as double*
140     ACCLIB.barnesHutCPP.restype = np.ctypeslib.ndpointer(dtype=np.float64,
141         shape=(r_vec.shape[0]*3,))
142     # Explicitly pass the corner and size of the box for the top node
143     px, py, pz = np.min(r_vec, axis=0)
144     size = np.max(np.max(r_vec, axis=0) - np.min(r_vec, axis=0))
145     # Call the C++ function: double* barnesHutCPP
146     accel = ACCLIB.barnesHutCPP(r_vec_c, m_vec, r_vec.shape[0],
147         size, px, py, pz, soft)
148     # Change shape to get the expected Numpy array (n, 3)
149     accel.shape = (-1, 3)
150     return accel

```

simulation.py

```

1  """Definition of the Simulation class and the Galaxy constructor."""
2
3  import os
4  import pickle
5  import numpy as np
6  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
7
8  from utils import random_unit_vectors, cascade_round
9  from distributions import PLUMMER, HERNQUIST, UNIFORM, EXP, NFW
10 import acceleration
11
12 #####
13 #####
14 #####
15 class Simulation:
16     """Main class for the gravitational simulation.
17
18     Attributes:
19         r_vec (array): position of the particles in the current timestep.
20         Shape: (number of particles, 3)

```

```

21     rprev_vec (array): position of the particles in the previous timestep.
22         Shape: (number of particles, 3)
23     v_vec (array): velocity in the current timestep.
24         Shape: (number of particles, 3)
25     a_vec (array): acceleration in the current timestep.
26         Shape: (number of particles, 3)
27     mass (array): mass of each particle in the simulation.
28         Shape: (number of particles,)
29     type (array): non-unique identifier for each particle.
30         Shape: (number of particles,)
31     tracks (array): list of positions through the simulation for central
32         masses. Shape: (tracked particles, n+1, 3).
33     CONFIG (array): configuration used to create the simulation.
34         It will be saved along the state of the simulation.
35
36     dt (float): timestep of the simulation
37     n (int): current timestep. Initialized as n=0.
38     soft (float): softening length used by the simulation.
39     verbose (boolean): When True progress statements will be printed.
40     """
41
42 def __init__(self, dt, soft, verbose, CONFIG, method, **kwargs):
43     """Constructor for the Simulation class.
44
45     Arguments:
46         dt (float): timestep of the simulation
47         n (int): current timestep. Initialized as n=0.
48         soft (float): softening length used by the simulation.
49         verbose (bool): When True progress statements will be printed.
50         CONFIG (dict): configuration file used to create the simulation.
51         method (string): Optional. Algorithm to use when computing the
52             gravitational forces. One of 'bruteForce', 'bruteForce_numba',
53             'bruteForce_numbaopt', 'bruteForce_CPP', 'barnesHut_CPP'.
54     """
55     self.n = 0
56     self.t = 0
57     self.dt = dt
58     self.soft = soft
59     self.verbose = verbose
60     self.CONFIG = CONFIG
61     # Initialize empty arrays for all necessary properties
62     self.r_vec = np.empty((0, 3))
63     self.v_vec = np.empty((0, 3))
64     self.a_vec = np.empty((0, 3))
65     self.mass = np.empty((0,))
66     self.type = np.empty((0, 2))
67     algorithms = {
68         'bruteForce': acceleration.bruteForce,

```

```

69         'bruteForceNumba': acceleration.bruteForceNumba,
70         'bruteForceNumbaOptimized': acceleration.bruteForceNumbaOptimized,
71         'bruteForceCPP': acceleration.bruteForceCPP,
72         'barnesHutCPP': acceleration.barnesHutCPP
73     }
74     try:
75         self.acceleration = algorithms[method]
76     except: raise Exception("Method '{}' unknown".format(method))
77
78 def add(self, body):
79     """Add a body to the simulation. It must expose the public attributes
80         body.r_vec, body.v_vec, body.a_vec, body.type, body.mass.
81
82     Arguments:
83         body: Object to be added to the simulation (e.g. a Galaxy object)
84     """
85     # Extend all relevant attributes by concatenating the body
86     for name in ['r_vec', 'v_vec', 'a_vec', 'type', 'mass']:
87         simattr, bodyattr = getattr(self, name), getattr(body, name)
88         setattr(self, name, np.concatenate([simattr, bodyattr], axis=0))
89     # Order based on mass
90     order = np.argsort(-self.mass)
91     for name in ['r_vec', 'v_vec', 'a_vec', 'type', 'mass']:
92         setattr(self, name, getattr(self, name)[order])
93
94     # Update the list of objects to keep track of
95     self.tracks = np.empty((np.sum(self.type[:,0]=='center'), 0, 3))
96
97 def step(self):
98     """Perform a single step of the simulation.
99         Makes use of a 4th order Verlet integrator.
100
101     """
102     # Calculate the acceleration
103     self.a_vec = self.acceleration(self.r_vec, self.mass, soft=self.soft)
104     # Update the state using the Verlet algorithm
105     # (A custom algorithm is written mainly for learning purposes)
106     self.r_vec, self.rprev_vec = (2*self.r_vec - self.rprev_vec
107         + self.a_vec * self.dt**2, self.r_vec)
108     self.n += 1
109     # Update tracks
110     self.tracks = np.concatenate([self.tracks,
111         self.r_vec[self.type[:,0]=='center'][:,np.newaxis]], axis=1)
112
113 def run(self, tmax, saveEvery, outputFolder, **kwargs):
114     """Run the galactic simulation.
115
116     Attributes:
117         tmax (float): Time to which the simulation will run to.

```

```

117         This is measured here since the start of the simulation,
118         not since pericenter.
119         saveEvery (int): The state is saved every saveEvery steps.
120         outputFolder (string): It will be saved to /data/outputFolder/
121     """
122     # When the simulation starts, initialize self.rprev_vec
123     self.rprev_vec = self.r_vec - self.v_vec * self.dt
124     if self.verbose: print('Simulation starting. Bon voyage!')
125     while(self.t < tmax):
126         self.step()
127         if(self.n % saveEvery == 0):
128             self.save('data/{}'.format(outputFolder))
129
130     print('Simulation complete.')
131
132     def save(self, outputFolder):
133         """Save the state of the simulation to the outputFolder.
134         Two files are saved:
135             sim{self.n}.pickle: serializing the state.
136             sim{self.n}.png: a simplified 2D plot of x, y.
137         """
138         # Create the output folder if it doesn't exist
139         if not os.path.exists(outputFolder): os.makedirs(outputFolder)
140
141         # Compute some useful quantities
142         # v_vec is not required by the integrator, but useful
143         self.v_vec = (self.r_vec - self.rprev_vec)/self.dt
144         self.t = self.n * self.dt # prevents numerical rounding errors
145
146         # Serialize state
147         file = open(outputFolder+'/data{}.pickle'.format(self.n), "wb")
148         pickle.dump({'r_vec': self.r_vec, 'v_vec': self.v_vec,
149                   'type': self.type, 'mass': self.mass,
150                   'CONFIG': self.CONFIG, 't': self.t,
151                   'tracks': self.tracks}, file)
152
153         # Save simplified plot of the current state.
154         # Its main use is to detect ill-behaved situations early on.
155         fig = plt.figure()
156         plt.xlim(-5, 5); plt.ylim(-5, 5); plt.axis('equal')
157         # Dark halo is plotted in red, disk in blue, bulge in green
158         PLTCON = [('dark', 'r', 0.3), ('disk', 'b', 1.0), ('bulge', 'g', 0.5)]
159         for type_, c, a in PLTCON:
160             plt.scatter(self.r_vec[self.type[:,0]==type_][:,0],
161                       self.r_vec[self.type[:,0]==type_][:,1], s=0.1, c=c, alpha=a)
162         # Central mass as a magenta star
163         plt.scatter(self.r_vec[self.type[:,0]=='center'][:,0],
164                   self.r_vec[self.type[:,0]=='center'][:,1], s=100, marker="*", c='m')

```

```

165     # Save to png file
166     fig.savefig(outputFolder+'sim{}.png'.format(self.n), dpi=150)
167     plt.close(fig)
168
169     def project(self, theta, phi, view=0):
170         """Projects the 3D simulation onto a plane as viewed from the
171         direction described by the (theta, phi, view). Angles in radians.
172         (This is used by the simulated annealing algorithm)
173
174         Parameters:
175             theta (float): polar angle.
176             phi (float): azimuthal angle.
177             view (float): rotation along line of sight.
178         """
179         M1 = np.array([[np.cos(phi), np.sin(phi), 0],
180                       [-np.sin(phi), np.cos(phi), 0],
181                       [0, 0, 1]])
182         M2 = np.array([[1, 0, 0],
183                       [0, np.cos(theta), np.sin(theta)],
184                       [0, -np.sin(theta), np.cos(theta)]])
185         M3 = np.array([[np.cos(view), np.sin(view), 0],
186                       [-np.sin(view), np.cos(view), 0],
187                       [0, 0, 1]])
188
189         M = np.matmul(M1, np.matmul(M2, M3)) # combine rotations
190         r = np.tensordot(self.r_vec, M, axes=[1, 0])
191
192         return r[:,0:2]
193
194     def setOrbit(self, galaxy1, galaxy2, e, rmin, R0):
195         """Sets the two galaxies galaxy1, galaxy2 in an orbit.
196
197         Parameters:
198             galaxy1 (Galaxy): 1st galaxy (main)
199             galaxy2 (Galaxy): 2nd galaxy (companion)
200             e: eccentricity of the orbit
201             rmin: distance of closest approach
202             R0: initial separation
203         """
204         m1, m2 = np.sum(galaxy1.mass), np.sum(galaxy2.mass)
205         # Relevant formulae:
206         #  $r_0 = r(1+e)\cos(\phi)$ , where  $r_0 (\neq R_0)$  is the semi-latus rectum
207         #  $r_0 = r_{\min}(1+e)$ 
208         #  $v^2 = GM(2/r - 1/a)$ , where  $a$  is the semimajor axis
209
210         # Solve the reduced two-body problem with reduced mass  $\mu$  ( $\mu$ )
211         M = m1 + m2
212         r0 = rmin * (1 + e)

```

```

213     try:
214         phi = np.arccos((r0/R0 - 1) / e) # inverting the orbit equation
215         phi = -np.abs(phi) # Choose negative (incoming) angle
216         ainv = (1 - e) / rmin # ainv = 1/a, as a may be infinite
217         v = np.sqrt(M * (2/R0 - ainv))
218         # Finally, calculate the angle of motion. angle = tan(dy/dx)
219         # dy/dx = ((dr/dφ)sin(φ) + r cos(φ))/((dr/dφ)cos(φ) - r sin(φ))
220         dy = R0/r0 * e * np.sin(phi)**2 + np.cos(phi)
221         dx = R0/r0 * e * np.sin(phi) * np.cos(phi) - np.sin(phi)
222         vangle = np.arctan2(dy, dx)
223     except: raise Exception('The orbital parameters cannot be satisfied.
224             For elliptical orbits check that R0 is possible (<rmax).')
225
226     # We now need the actual motion of each body
227     R_vec = np.array([[R0*np.cos(phi), R0*np.sin(phi), 0.]]
228     V_vec = np.array([[v*np.cos(vangle), v*np.sin(vangle), 0.]]
229
230     galaxy1.r_vec += m2/M * R_vec
231     galaxy1.v_vec += m2/M * V_vec
232     galaxy2.r_vec += -m1/M * R_vec
233     galaxy2.v_vec += -m1/M * V_vec
234
235     # Explicitly add the galaxies to the simulation
236     self.add(galaxy1)
237     self.add(galaxy2)
238
239     if self.verbose: print('Galaxies set in orbit.')
240
241
242     #####
243     #####
244 class Galaxy():
245     """Helper class for creating galaxies.
246
247     Attributes:
248         r_vec (array): position of the particles in the current timestep.
249             Shape: (number of particles, 3)
250         v_vec (array): velocity in the current timestep.
251             Shape: (number of particles, 3)
252         a_vec (array): acceleration in the current timestep.
253             Shape: (number of particles, 3)
254         mass (array): mass of each particle in the simulation.
255             Shape: (number of particles,)
256         type (array): non-unique identifier for each particle.
257             Shape: (number of particles,) """
258     def __init__(self, orientation, centralMass, bulge, disk, halo, sim):
259         """Constructor for the Galaxy class.
260

```

```

261         Parameters:
262             orientation (tuple): (inclination i, argument of pericenter w)
263             centralMass (float): mass at the center of the galaxy
264             bulge (dict): passed to the addBulge method.
265             disk (dict): passed to the addDisk method.
266             halo (dict): passed to the addHalo method.
267             sim (Simulation): simulation object
268
269     """
270     if sim.verbose: print('Initializing galaxy')
271     # Build the central mass
272     self.r_vec = np.zeros((1, 3))
273     self.v_vec = np.zeros((1, 3))
274     self.a_vec = np.zeros((1, 3))
275     self.mass = np.array([centralMass])
276     self.type = np.array(['center', 0])
277     # Build the other components
278     self.addBulge(**bulge)
279     if sim.verbose: print('Bulge created.')
280     self.addDisk(**disk)
281     if sim.verbose: print('Disk created.')
282     self.addHalo(**halo)
283     if sim.verbose: print('Halo created.')
284     # Correct particles velocities to generate circular orbits
285     #  $a_{\text{centripetal}} = v^2/r$ 
286     a_vec = sim.acceleration(self.r_vec, self.mass, soft=sim.soft)
287     a = np.linalg.norm(a_vec, axis=-1, keepdims=True)
288     r = np.linalg.norm(self.r_vec, axis=-1, keepdims=True)
289     v = np.linalg.norm(self.v_vec[1:], axis=-1, keepdims=True)
290     direction_unit = self.v_vec[1:]/v
291     # Set orbital velocities (except for central mass)
292     self.v_vec[1:] = np.sqrt(a[1:] * r[1:]) * direction_unit
293     self.a_vec = np.zeros_like(self.r_vec)
294     # Rotate the galaxy into its correct orientation
295     self.rotate(*(np.array(orientation)/360 * 2*np.pi))
296     if sim.verbose: print('Galaxy set in rotation and oriented.')
297
298 def addBulge(self, model, totalMass, particles, l):
299     """Adds a bulge to the galaxy.
300
301     Parameters:
302         model (string): parametrization of the bulge.
303             'plummer' and 'hernquist' are supported.
304         totalMass (float): total mass of the bulge
305         particles (int): number of particles in the bulge
306         l (float): characteristic length scale of the model.
307
308     """
309     if particles == 0: return None
310     # Divide the mass equally among all particles

```

```

309 mass = np.ones(particles) * totalMass/particles
310 self.mass = np.concatenate([self.mass, mass], axis=0)
311 # Create particles according to the radial distribution from model
312 if model == 'plummer':
313     r = PLUMMER.ppf(np.random.rand(particles), scale=1)
314 elif model == 'hernquist':
315     r = HERNQUIST.ppf(np.random.rand(particles), scale=1)
316 else: raise Exception("""Bulge distribution not allowed.
317     'plummer' and 'hernquist' are the supported values""")
318 r_vec = r[:,np.newaxis] * random_unit_vectors(size=particles)
319 self.r_vec = np.concatenate([self.r_vec, r_vec], axis=0)
320 # Set them orbiting along random directions normal to r_vec
321 v_vec = np.cross(r_vec, random_unit_vectors(size=particles))
322 self.v_vec = np.concatenate([self.v_vec, v_vec], axis=0)
323 # Label the particles
324 type_ = [['bulge', 0]]*particles
325 self.type = np.concatenate([self.type, type_], axis=0)
326
327 def addDisk(self, model, totalMass, particles, l):
328     """Adds a disk to the galaxy.
329
330     Parameters:
331         model (string): parametrization of the disk.
332             'rings', 'uniform' and 'exp' are supported.
333         totalMass (float): total mass of the bulge
334         particles (int): number of particles in the bulge
335         l: fot 'exp' and 'uniform' characteristic length of the
336             model. For 'rings' tuple of the form (inner radius,
337             outer radius, number of rings)
338
339     """
340     if particles == 0: return None
341     # Create particles according to the radial distribution from model
342     if model == 'uniform':
343         r = UNIFORM.ppf(np.random.rand(particles), scale=1)
344         type_ = [['disk', 0]]*particles
345         r_vec = r[:,np.newaxis] * random_unit_vectors(particles, '2D')
346         self.type = np.concatenate([self.type, type_], axis=0)
347     elif model == 'rings':
348         # l = [inner radius, outer radius, number of rings]
349         distances = np.linspace(*l)
350         # Aim for roughly constant areal density
351         # Cascade rounding preserves the total number of particles
352         perRing = cascade_round(particles * distances / np.sum(distances))
353         particles = int(np.sum(perRing)) # prevents numerical errors
354         r_vec = np.empty((0, 3))
355         for d, n, i in zip(distances, perRing, range(1[2])):
356             type_ = [['disk', i+1]]*int(n)
357             self.type = np.concatenate([self.type, type_], axis=0)

```

```

357     phi = np.linspace(0, 2 * np.pi, n, endpoint=False)
358     ringr = d * np.array([np.cos(i), np.sin(i), 0] for i in phi])
359     r_vec = np.concatenate([r_vec, ringr], axis=0)
360 elif model == 'exp':
361     r = EXP.ppf(np.random.rand(particles), scale=1)
362     r_vec = r[:,np.newaxis] * random_unit_vectors(particles, '2D')
363     type_ = [['disk', 0]]*particles
364     self.type = np.concatenate([self.type, type_], axis=0)
365 else:
366     raise Exception("""Disk distribution not allowed.
367         'uniform', 'rings' and 'exp' are the supported values""")
368 self.r_vec = np.concatenate([self.r_vec, r_vec], axis=0)
369 # Divide the mass equally among all particles
370 mass = np.ones(particles) * totalMass/particles
371 self.mass = np.concatenate([self.mass, mass], axis=0)
372 # Set them orbiting along the spin plane
373 v_vec = np.cross(r_vec, [0, 0, 1])
374 self.v_vec = np.concatenate([self.v_vec, v_vec], axis=0)
375
376 def addHalo(self, model, totalMass, particles, rs):
377     """Adds a halo to the galaxy.
378
379     Parameters:
380         model (string): parametrization of the halo.
381             Only 'NFW' is supported.
382         totalMass (float): total mass of the halo
383         particles (int): number of particles in the halo
384         rs (float): characteristic length scale of the NFW profile.
385
386     """
387     if particles == 0: return None
388     # Divide the mass equally among all particles
389     mass = np.ones(particles)*totalMass/particles
390     self.mass = np.concatenate([self.mass, mass], axis=0)
391     # Create particles according to the radial distribution from model
392     if model == 'NFW':
393         r = NFW.ppf(np.random.rand(particles), scale=rs)
394     else: raise Exception("""Bulge distribution not allowed.
395         'plummer' and 'hernquist' are the supported values""")
396     r_vec = r[:,np.newaxis] * random_unit_vectors(size=particles)
397     self.r_vec = np.concatenate([self.r_vec, r_vec], axis=0)
398     # Orbit along random directions normal to the radial vector
399     v_vec = np.cross(r_vec, random_unit_vectors(size=particles))
400     self.v_vec = np.concatenate([self.v_vec, v_vec], axis=0)
401     # Label the particles
402     type_ = [['dark', 0]]*particles
403     self.type = np.concatenate([self.type, type_], axis=0)
404
405 def rotate(self, theta, phi):

```

```

405     """Rotates the galaxy so that its spin is along the (theta, phi)
406     direction.
407
408     Parameters:
409         theta (float): polar angle.
410         phi (float): azimuthal angle.
411     """
412     M1 = np.array([[1, 0, 0],
413                   [0, np.cos(theta), np.sin(theta)],
414                   [0, -np.sin(theta), np.cos(theta)]])
415     M2 = np.array([[np.cos(phi), np.sin(phi), 0],
416                   [-np.sin(phi), np.cos(phi), 0],
417                   [0, 0, 1]])
418     M = np.matmul(M1, M2) # combine rotations
419     self.r_vec = np.tensordot(self.r_vec, M, axes=[1, 0])
420     self.v_vec = np.tensordot(self.v_vec, M, axes=[1, 0])

```

Shared C++ library

acclib.cpp

```

1  #include <vector>
2  #include <iostream>
3  #include <math.h>
4  #include <chrono>
5
6  using namespace std;
7  using namespace std::chrono;
8  #include "Node.h"
9
10
11 /*
12 Calculates the self gravitational acceleration for a set of particles located
13 at r_vec (n, 3) with masses m_vec (n,) using a Barnes-Hut tree with theta = 0.7
14
15 Parameters:
16     r_vec: the position of the particles.
17     m_vec: the masses of the particles.
18     n: the number of particles. This cannot be inferred by C++ and must be
19     passed directly.
20     size: size of the top node in the octree.
21     px, py, pz: coordinates of the lowest corner of the top node.
22     size: characteristic softening scale.
23
24 Returns:
25     The accelerations computed for each mass (n, 3).
26 */
27 extern "C" double* barnesHutCPP(double** r_vec, double* m_vec, int n,

```

```

28     double size, double px, double py, double pz, double soft){
29     // Create nodes
30     std::vector<Node*> nodes;
31     for (int i = 0; i < n; i++){
32         nodes.push_back(new Node(r_vec[i], m_vec[i]));
33     }
34
35     // Create the tree
36     Node* tree = new Node(nodes, size, px, py, pz);
37
38     // Calculate the accelerations for each node. We want to return the
39     // result as an array and use a 1D array for simplicity since this will
40     // be allocated continuously in the heap and can be reshaped in Numpy.
41     double* accel = new double[3*n];
42     for (int i = 0; i < nodes.size(); i++){
43         nodes[i]->treeWalk(*tree, 0.7, soft); // thetamax = 0.7
44         accel[3*i+0] = nodes[i]->g[0];
45         accel[3*i+1] = nodes[i]->g[1];
46         accel[3*i+2] = nodes[i]->g[2];
47     }
48
49     // Return as an (n,) array
50     return accel;
51 }
52
53 /*
54 Calculates the self gravitational acceleration for a set of particles located
55 at r_vec (n, 3) with masses m_vec (n,) using Brute Force pairwise summation.
56 Massive particles must appear first.
57
58 Parameters:
59     r_vec: the position of the particles.
60     m_vec: the masses of the particles.
61     n: the number of particles. This cannot be inferred by C++ and must be
62     passed directly.
63     size: characteristic softening scale.
64
65 Returns:
66     The accelerations computed for each mass (n, 3).
67 */
68 extern "C" double* bruteForceCPP(double** r_vec, double* m_vec,
69     int n, double soft){
70
71     // Initialize result and fill with 0s
72     // Use a 1D array so as not to have to convert back in Numpy
73     double* accel = new double[3*n];
74     for (int i=0; i<3*n; i++){
75         accel[i] = 0;

```

```

76     }
77
78     // Compute the acceleration
79     for (int i=0; i<n; i++){
80         // Only consider pairs with at least one massive particle i
81         if (m_vec[i] == 0.) break;
82         for (int j=i+1; j<n; j++){
83             // Distance between particles
84             double delta[3];
85             for (int k = 0; k < 3; k++) delta[k] = r_vec[j][k] - r_vec[i][k];
86             double r = sqrt(delta[0]*delta[0]
87                 + delta[1]*delta[1]
88                 + delta[2]*delta[2]);
89             double tripler = (r+soft) * (r+soft) * r;
90
91             // Compute acceleration on first particle
92             double mr3inv = m_vec[i]/tripler;
93             for (int k = 0; k < 3; k++) accel[3*j+k] -= mr3inv * delta[k];
94
95             // Compute acceleration on second particle
96             // For pairs with one massless particle, no reaction force
97             if (m_vec[j] == 0.) break;
98             // Otherwise, opposite direction (+)
99             mr3inv = m_vec[j]/tripler;
100            for (int k = 0; k < 3; k++) accel[3*i+k] += mr3inv * delta[k];
101        }
102    }
103
104    // Return as an (n,) array
105    return accel;
106 }

```

Node.h

```

1  #include <vector>
2
3  /*
4  Node class for the Barnes-Hut tree. The choice of pointers as opposed
5  to references is driven by the necessity to interact with Numpy arrays
6  using ctypes.
7  */
8  class Node{
9  private:
10     double COM[3]; // Center of mass
11     double m; // Mass of the node
12     double size; // Size of box, equal for all dimensions
13     std::vector<Node*> children;
14
15 public:

```

```

16     double g[3]; // Gravitational acceleration on the node
17
18     // Constructors
19     Node(const std::vector<Node*> &pBodies, const double pSize,
20         const double px, const double py, const double pz);
21     Node(const double* pr_vec, const double pm);
22
23     // Methods
24     void treeWalk(const Node &node, const double thetamax, const double soft);
25 };

```

Node.cpp

```

1  #include "Node.h"
2  #include <vector>
3  #include <iostream>
4  #include <math.h>
5  using namespace std;
6
7  /*
8  Node constructor. Used recursively to build the Barnes-Hut tree. px, py, pz
9  denote the corner (lowest value for each dimension) of the box of size pSize.
10 pBodies is a vector containing all the nodes that must be placed in this box.
11 */
12 Node::Node(const vector<Node*> &pBodies, const double pSize,
13     const double px, const double py, const double pz){
14     size = pSize; // Required later for treeWalk
15
16     // Divide into subnodes (octants)
17     vector<Node*> subBodies[2][2][2];
18
19     for (int i = 0; i < pBodies.size(); i++){
20         int xIndex, yIndex, zIndex;
21
22         if (pBodies[i]->COM[0] < (px + (size / 2))) xIndex = 0;
23         else xIndex = 1;
24
25         if (pBodies[i]->COM[1] < (py + (size / 2))) yIndex = 0;
26         else yIndex = 1;
27
28         if (pBodies[i]->COM[2] < (pz + (size / 2))) zIndex = 0;
29         else zIndex = 1;
30
31         subBodies[xIndex][yIndex][zIndex].push_back(pBodies[i]);
32     }
33
34
35     // Recursively place the nodes
36     // g++ will unroll these loops

```

```

37     for (int i = 0; i < 2; i++){
38         for (int j = 0; j < 2; j++){
39             for (int k = 0; k < 2; k++){
40                 switch(subBodies[i][j][k].size()){
41                     case 0: continue;
42                     case 1:
43                         subBodies[i][j][k][0]->size = size/2;
44                         children.push_back(subBodies[i][j][k][0]);
45                         break;
46                     default:
47                         children.push_back(new Node(subBodies[i][j][k], size/2,
48                             px + size/2*i, py + size/2*j, pz + size/2*k));
49                 }
50             }
51         }
52     }
53
54     // Recursively calculate the COM
55     memset(COM, 0, sizeof(COM)); // Set COM to 0s
56     m = 0.; // mass
57     for (int i = 0; i < children.size(); i++){
58         m += children[i]->m;
59         for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
60             COM[j] += children[i]->m * children[i]->COM[j];
61     }
62     // COM only relevant if there is mass in the octant
63     if (m > 0) for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) COM[i] /= m;
64 }
65
66 /*
67 Node constructor. Used to build the leaf nodes directly from the data passed
68 from Python using ctypes.
69 */
70 Node::Node(const double* pr_vec, const double pm){
71     // Initialize a node (leaf)
72     for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) COM[i] = pr_vec[i];
73     memset(g, 0, sizeof(g)); // Set g to 0s
74     m = pm; // mass
75 }
76
77 /*
78 Calculate the acceleration at the this node. Used recursively calling
79 treeWalk(topNode, thetamax). This is O(log n) and will be called for
80 each node in the tree: O(n log n). Soft defines the characteristic
81 plummer softening scale.
82 */
83 void Node::treeWalk(const Node &node,

```

```

85     const double thetamax, const double soft){
86     // Calculate distance to node
87     double delta[3];
88     for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) delta[i] = node.COM[i] - COM[i];
89     double r = sqrt(delta[0]*delta[0] + delta[1]*delta[1] + delta[2]*delta[2]);
90
91     if (r==0) return; // Do not interact with self
92
93     // If it satisfies the size/r < thetamax criterion, add the g contribution
94     if (node.children.size() == 0 || node.size/r < thetamax){
95         double tripler = (r+soft) * (r+soft) * r;
96         for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) g[i] += node.m * delta[i] / tripler;
97     }
98     else{ // Otherwise recurse into its children
99         for (int i = 0; i < node.children.size(); i++){
100             treeWalk((*node.children[i]), thetamax, soft);
101         }
102     }
103 }

```

Other

analysis/segmentation.py

```

1     """Segmentation algorithm used to identify the different structures
2     that are formed in the encounter. This file can be called from the
3     command line to make an illustrative plot of the algorithm.
4     """
5
6     import numpy as np
7     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
8     import matplotlib.patches as patches
9
10    import utils
11
12    def segmentEncounter(data, plot=False, mode='all'):
13        """Segment the encounter into tail, bridge, orbiting and
14        stolen particles as described in the report.
15
16        Parameters:
17            data: A data instance as saved by the simulation to a pickle file
18            plot: If true the segmentation will be plotted and shown. Highly
19                useful for debugging.
20            mode (string): If mode is 'all' all parts of the encounter will be
21                identified. If mode is 'bridge' only the bridge will be
22                identified. This is useful when there may be no tail.
23
24

```

```

25 Returns:
26 masks (tuple): tuple of array corresponding to the masks of the
27 (bridge, stolen, orbiting, tail) particles. One can then use
28 e.g. data['r_vec'][bridgeMask].
29 shape (tuple): tuple of (distances, angles) as measured from the
30 center of mass and with respect to the x axis. They define the
31 shape of the tail
32 length (float): total length of the tail.
33 """
34 nRings = 100 # number of rings to use when segmenting the data
35
36 # Localize the central masses
37 r_vec = data['r_vec']
38 centers = r_vec[data['type'][:,0]=='center']
39 rCenters_vec = centers[1] - centers[0]
40 rCenters = np.linalg.norm(rCenters_vec)
41 rCenters_unit = rCenters_vec/np.linalg.norm(rCenters_vec)
42 # Take particles to be on the tail a priori and
43 # remove them as they are found in other structures
44 particlesLeft = np.arange(0, len(r_vec))
45
46
47 if plot:
48     colour = '#c40f4c'
49     f, axs = plt.subplots(1, 3, figsize=(9, 4), sharey=False)
50     f.subplots_adjust(hspace=0, wspace=0)
51     axs[0].scatter(r_vec[:,0], r_vec[:,1], c=colour, alpha=0.1, s=0.1)
52     axs[0].axis('equal')
53     utils.plotCenterMasses(axs[0], data)
54     axs[0].axis('off')
55
56 # Step 1: project points to see if they are part of the bridge
57 parallelProjection = np.dot(r_vec - centers[0], rCenters_unit)
58 perpendicularProjection = np.linalg.norm(r_vec - centers[0][np.newaxis]
59     - parallelProjection[:,np.newaxis] * rCenters_unit[np.newaxis], axis=-1)
60 bridgeMask = np.logical_and(np.logical_and(0.3*rCenters < parallelProjection,
61     parallelProjection < .7*rCenters), perpendicularProjection < 2)
62
63 # Remove the bridge
64 notInBridge = np.logical_not(bridgeMask)
65 r_vec = r_vec[notInBridge]
66 particlesLeft = particlesLeft[notInBridge]
67
68 if mode == 'bridge':
69     return (bridgeMask, None, None, None), None, None
70
71 # Step 2: select stolen particles by checking distance to centers
72 stolenMask = (np.linalg.norm(r_vec - centers[0][np.newaxis], axis=-1)

```

```

73     > np.linalg.norm(r_vec - centers[1][np.newaxis], axis=-1))
74 # Remove the stolen part
75 notStolen = np.logical_not(stolenMask)
76 r_vec = r_vec[notStolen]
77 particlesLeft, stolenMask = particlesLeft[notStolen], particlesLeft[stolenMask]
78
79 # Step 3: segment data into concentric rings (spherical shells really)
80 r_vec = r_vec - centers[0]
81 r = np.linalg.norm(r_vec, axis=-1)
82 edges = np.linspace(0, 30, nRings) # nRings concentric spheres
83 indices = np.digitize(r, edges) # Classify particles into shells
84
85 if plot:
86     axs[1].scatter(r_vec[:,0], r_vec[:,1], c=colour, alpha=.1, s=.1)
87     axs[1].axis('equal')
88     axs[1].scatter(0, 0, s=100, marker="*", c='black', alpha=.7)
89     axs[1].axis('off')
90
91 # Step 4: find start of tail
92 start = None
93 for i in range(1, nRings+1):
94     rMean = np.mean(r[indices==i])
95     rMean_vec = np.mean(r_vec[indices==i], axis=0)
96     parameter = np.linalg.norm(rMean_vec)/rMean
97
98 if plot:
99     circ = patches.Circle((0,0), edges[i-1], linewidth=0.5,edgecolor='black',facecol
100     axs[1].add_patch(circ)
101     txtxy = edges[i-1] * np.array([np.sin(i/13), np.cos(i/13)])
102     axs[1].annotate(":{.2f}".format(parameter), xy=txtxy, backgroundcolor='#ffffff55
103
104 if start is None and parameter>.8 :
105     start = i #Here starts the tail
106     startDirection = rMean_vec/np.linalg.norm(rMean_vec)
107     if not plot: break;
108
109 if start is None: #abort if nothing found
110     raise Exception('Could not identify tail')
111
112 # Step 5: remove all circles before start
113 inInnerRings = indices < start
114 # Remove particles on the opposite direction to startDirection.
115 # in the now innermost 5 rings. Likely traces of the bridge.
116 oppositeDirection = np.dot(r_vec, startDirection) < 0
117 in5InnermostRings = indices <= start+5
118 orbiting = np.logical_or(inInnerRings,
119     np.logical_and(oppositeDirection, in5InnermostRings))
120 orbitingMask = particlesLeft[orbiting]

```

```

121 r_vec = r_vec[np.logical_not(orbiting)]
122 tailMask = particlesLeft[np.logical_not(orbiting)]
123
124 if plot:
125     axes[2].scatter(r_vec[:,0], r_vec[:,1], c=colour, alpha=0.1, s=0.1)
126     axes[2].axis('equal')
127     axes[2].scatter(0, 0, s=100, marker="*", c='black', alpha=.7)
128     axes[2].axis('off')
129
130 # Step 6: measure tail length and shape
131 r = np.linalg.norm(r_vec, axis=-1)
132 indices = np.digitize(r, edges)
133 # Make list of barycenters
134 points = [list(np.mean(r_vec[indices==i], axis=0))
135           for i in range(1, nRings) if len(r_vec[indices==i])!=0]
136 points = np.array(points)
137 # Calculate total length
138 lengths = np.sqrt(np.sum(np.diff(points, axis=0)**2, axis=1))
139 length = np.sum(lengths)
140 # Shape (for 2D only)
141 angles = np.arctan2(points[:,1], points[:,0])
142 distances = np.linalg.norm(points, axis=-1)
143 shape = (distances, angles)
144
145 if plot:
146     axes[2].plot(points[:,0], points[:,1], c='black', linewidth=0.5, marker='+')
147
148 if plot:
149     plt.show()
150
151 return (bridgeMask, stolenMask, orbitingMask, tailMask), shape, length
152
153
154 if __name__ == "__main__":
155     data = utils.loadData('200mass', 10400)
156     segmentEncounter(data, plot=True)

```

run_simulated_annealing.py

```

1 """Simulated annealing algorithm used to match the simulation of the
2 Antennae to the observations by comparing binarized images."""
3
4 import numpy as np
5 import scipy
6 import pickle
7 from scipy import ndimage
8 from fast_histogram import histogram2d
9 from scipy.signal import convolve2d
10 from numba import jit

```

```

11 from matplotlib.image import imread
12 import datetime
13
14 from simulation import Simulation, Galaxy
15
16 T = .25 # Initial temperature
17 STEPS = 1500
18 DECAY = .998 # Exponential decay factor
19
20 def simToBitmap(sim, theta, phi, view, scale, x, y, galaxy):
21     """Obtain a bitmap of one galaxy as viewed from a given direction.
22     The binning has been chosen so that the scale and the offset (x,y)
23     are expected to be approximately 1 and (0, 0) respectively.
24
25     Parameters:
26         sim (Simulation): Simulation to project.
27         theta (float): polar angle of viewing direction.
28         phi (float): azimuthal angle of viewing direction.
29         view (float): rotation angle along viewing direction.
30         scale (float): scaling factor.
31         x (float): x offset
32         y (float): y offset
33         galaxy (int): galaxy to plot. Either 0, or 1. They are assumed
34             to have the same number of particles.
35
36     """
37     # Obtain components in new x',y' plane
38     r_vec = (sim.project(theta, phi, view) - [[x+.12,y+1.3]]) * scale
39     # Select a single galaxy. We match them separately in the algorithm.
40     if galaxy==0: r_vec = r_vec[2:len(r_vec)//2-1] #omit central masses
41     if galaxy==1: r_vec = r_vec[len(r_vec)//2-1:]
42     # Use a fast histogram, much faster than numpy ()
43     H = histogram2d(r_vec[:,0], r_vec[:,1],
44                   range=[[-5,5], [-5,5]], bins=(50, 50))
45     im = np.zeros((50, 50))
46     H = convolve2d(H, np.ones((2,2)), mode='same') # Smooth the image
47     im[H>=1] = 1 # Binary the image
48
49     return im
50
51 @jit(nopython=True) # Numba annotation
52 def bitmapScoreAlgo(im1, im2):
53     """Computes the f1 score between two binarized images
54
55     Parameters
56         im1 (arr): nzm ground truth image
57         im2 (arr): nzm candidate image
58
59     Returns

```

```

59     f1 score
60     """
61     TP = np.sum((im1==1.0) & (im2==1.0))
62     TN = np.sum((im1==0.0) & (im2==0.0))
63     FP = np.sum((im1==0.0) & (im2==1.0))
64     FN = np.sum((im1==1.0) & (im2==0.0))
65     if TP==0: return 0
66     precision = TP/(TP+FP)
67     recall = TP/(TP+FN)
68     return 2*precision*recall / (precision + recall)
69
70 # The matching algorithm attempts to improve the match by shifting the
71 # image by one pixel in each direction. If none improve the score the
72 # f1-score of said local maximum is returned. To make this highly efficient
73 # (as this is run millions of time) we explicitly write functions to
74 # shift an image by 1 pixel in each direction, as these can then be compiled
75 # using Numba (jit annotation) to low-level code.
76 # Performance is crucial here and must sadly be prioritized over conciseness
77 @jit(nopython=True)
78 def shiftBottom(im, im2):
79     """Shifts an image by one pixel downwards.
80
81     Parameters:
82         im (arr): the nxm image to shift by one pixel.
83         im2 (arr): an nxm array where the new image will be placed.
84
85     Returns:
86         A reference to im2
87     """
88     im2[1:] = im[:-1]
89     im2[0] = 0
90     return im2
91
92 @jit(nopython=True)
93 def shiftTop(im, im2):
94     """Shifts an image by one pixel upwards."""
95     im2[:-1] = im[1:]
96     im2[-1] = 0
97     return im2
98
99 @jit(nopython=True)
100 def shiftLeft(im, im2):
101     """Shifts an image by one pixel to the left."""
102     im2[:,1:] = im[:, :-1]
103     im2[:,0] = 0
104     return im2
105
106 @jit(nopython=True)

```

```

107 def shiftRight(im, im2):
108     """Shifts an image by one pixel to the right."""
109     im2[:, :-1] = im[:, 1:]
110     im2[:, -1] = 0
111     return im2
112
113 @jit
114 def bitmapScore(im1, im2, _prev=None, _bestscore=None, _zeros=None):
115     """Computes the bitmap score between two images. This is the f1-score
116     but we allow the algorithm to attempt to improve the score by
117     shifting the images. The algorithm is implemented recursively.
118
119     Parameters:
120         im1 (array): The ground truth nxm image.
121         im2 (array): The candidate nxm image.
122         _prev: Used internally for recursion.
123         _bestscore: Used internally for recursion.
124         _zeros: Used internally for recursion.
125
126     Returns:
127         f1-score for the two images.
128     """
129     # When the function is called externally, initialize an array of zeros
130     # and compute the score for no shifting. The zeros array is used for
131     # performance to only create a new array once.
132     if _bestscore is None:
133         _bestscore = bitmapScoreAlgo(im1, im2)
134         _zeros = np.zeros_like(im2)
135     # Attempt to improve the score by shifting the image in a direction
136     # Keeping track of _prev allows to not 'go back' and undo and attempt
137     # to undo a shift needlessly.
138     if _prev is not 0: # try left
139         shifted = shiftLeft(im2, _zeros)
140         score = bitmapScoreAlgo(im1, shifted)
141         if score > _bestscore: return bitmapScore(im1, shifted,
142             _prev=1, _bestscore=score, _zeros=_zeros)
143     if _prev is not 1: # try right
144         shifted = shiftRight(im2, _zeros)
145         score = bitmapScoreAlgo(im1, shifted)
146         if score > _bestscore: return bitmapScore(im1, shifted,
147             _prev=0, _bestscore=score, _zeros=_zeros)
148     if _prev is not 2: # try top
149         shifted = shiftTop(im2, _zeros)
150         score = bitmapScoreAlgo(im1, shifted)
151         if score > _bestscore: return bitmapScore(im1, shifted,
152             _prev=3, _bestscore=score, _zeros=_zeros)
153     if _prev is not 3: # try bottom
154         shifted = shiftBottom(im2, _zeros)

```

```

155     score = bitmapScoreAlgo(im1, shifted)
156     if score > _bestscore: return bitmapScore(im1, shifted,
157         _prev=2, _bestscore=score, _zeros=_zeros)
158     # Return _bestscore if shifting did not improve (local maximum).
159     return _bestscore
160
161
162 def attemptSimulation(theta1, phi1, theta2, phi2, rmin=1, e=.5, R=2,
163     disk1=.75, disk2=.65, mu=1, plot=False, steps=2000):
164     """Runs a simulation with the given parameters and compares it
165     to observations of the antennae to return a score out of 2.
166
167     Parameters:
168     theta1 (float): polar angle for the spin of the first galaxy.
169     phi1 (float): azimuthal angle for the spin of the first galaxy.
170     theta2 (float): polar angle for the spin of the second galaxy.
171     phi2 (float): azimuthal angle for the spin of the second galaxy.
172     rmin (float): closest distance of approach of orbit.
173     e (float): eccentricity of the orbit.
174     R (float): initial separation
175     disk1 (float): radius of the uniform disk of the first galaxy
176     disk2 (float): radius of the uniform disk of the first galaxy
177     mu (float): ratio of masses of the two galaxies
178     plot (float): if true the simulation will be saved to data/annealing/
179     steps (float): number of times the f1 score will be computed, along
180     random viewing directions per 100 timesteps.
181
182     Returns:
183     f1-score: score obtained by the simulation.
184     """
185
186     # Initialize the simulation
187     sim = Simulation(dt=1E-3, soft=0.1, verbose=False, CONFIG=None, method='bruteFc
188     galaxy1 = Galaxy(orientation = (theta1, phi1), centralMass=2/(1+mu),
189     sim=sim, bulge={'model':'plummer', 'particles':0, 'totalMass':0, 'l':0},
190     disk={'model':'uniform', 'particles':2000, 'l':disk1, 'totalMass':0},
191     halo={'model':'NFW', 'particles':0, 'rs':1, 'totalMass':0})
192     galaxy2 = Galaxy(orientation = (theta2, phi2), centralMass=2*mu/(1+mu),
193     sim=sim, bulge={'model':'plummer', 'particles':0, 'totalMass':0, 'l':0},
194     disk={'model':'uniform', 'particles':2000, 'l':disk2, 'totalMass':0},
195     halo={'model':'NFW', 'particles':0, 'rs':1, 'totalMass':0})
196     sim.setOrbit(galaxy1, galaxy2, e=e, R0=R, rmin=rmin) # define the orbit
197
198     # Run the simulation manually
199     # Initialize the parameters consistently with the velocities
200     sim.rprev_vec = sim.r_vec - sim.v_vec * sim.dt
201     # Keep track of the best score
202     bestScore = 0

```

```

203     # and its corresponding binarized image and parameters
204     bestImage, bestParams = 0, 0
205     hasReachedPericenter = False
206
207     # Run until tmax = 25
208     for i in range(25001):
209         sim.step()
210         if i%100==0: # Every  $\Delta t = 0.1$ 
211             # Check if we are close to pericenter
212             centers = sim.r_vec[sim.type[:,0] == 'center']
213             if np.linalg.norm(centers[0] - centers[1]) < 1.3*rmin:
214                 hasReachedPericenter = True
215             # Do not evaluate the f1-score until pericenter.
216             if not hasReachedPericenter: continue
217
218             # Check multiple (steps) viewing directions at random
219             localBestScore = 0
220             localBestImage, localBestParams = 0, 0
221             for j in range(steps):
222                 # The viewing directions are isotropically distributed
223                 theta = np.arccos(np.random.uniform(-1, 1))
224                 phi = np.random.uniform(0, 2*np.pi)
225                 # Rotation along line of sight
226                 view = np.random.uniform(0, 2*np.pi)
227                 scale = np.random.uniform(0.6, 1.0)
228                 x = np.random.uniform(-1.0, 1.0) # Offsets
229                 y = np.random.uniform(-1.0, 1.0)
230                 # Get images for each galaxy and compute their score separately
231                 im1 = simToBitmap(sim, theta, phi, view, scale, x, y, galaxy=0)
232                 im2 = simToBitmap(sim, theta, phi, view, scale, x, y, galaxy=1)
233                 score = bitmapScore(GT1, im1) + bitmapScore(GT2, im2)
234                 if score > localBestScore:
235                     localBestScore = score
236                     localBestImage = [im1,im2]
237                     localBestParams = [i, theta, phi, view, scale, x, y]
238
239             if bestScore < localBestScore:
240                 bestScore = localBestScore
241                 bestImage = localBestImage
242                 bestParams = localBestParams
243             if plot:
244                 sim.save('annealing', type='2D')
245
246     print('Best score for this attempt', bestScore)
247     print('using viewing parameters', bestParams)
248
249     return bestScore
250

```

```

251 #####
252 #####
253 #####
254
255 # Generate a (50, 50) bitmap for each galaxy
256 # They are stored globally in GT1 and GT2 (Ground Truth)
257 im = imread('literature/figs/g1c.tif')
258 im = np.mean(im, axis=-1)
259 im = scipy.misc.imresize(im, (50,50))
260 GT1 = np.zeros((50, 50))
261 GT1[im > 50] = 1
262
263 im = imread('literature/figs/g2c.tif')
264 im = np.mean(im, axis=-1)
265 im = scipy.misc.imresize(im, (50,50))
266 GT2 = np.zeros((50, 50))
267
268 # Define the limits and relate scale of the variations in each parameter
269 # In the same order as attemptSimulation
270 # phi1, theta1, phi2, theta2, rmin (fixed), e, R (fixed), disk1, disk2
271 LIMITS = np.array([[np.pi, 2 * np.pi], [-np.pi, np.pi],
272                   [0, np.pi], [-np.pi, np.pi],
273                   [1,1], [.5,1.0], [2.2,2.2], [.5,.8], [.5,.8]])
274 VARIATIONS = np.array([.08, .15, .08, .15, 0, .01, 0, .01, .01])
275
276 # Choose a random starting point and evaluate it
277 bestparams = [np.random.uniform(*l) for l in LIMITS]
278 log = []
279 bestscore = attemptSimulation(*bestparams, steps=500)
280 print('Starting with score', bestscore, 'with parameters', bestparams)
281 log.append([bestscore, bestparams, True])
282
283 for i in range(STEPS):
284     T = T * DECAY #exponential decay
285     # Perturb the parameters
286     params = bestparams + np.random.normal(scale=VARIATIONS) * 2 * T / 0.04
287     # Allow the angles from -pi to pi to wrap around
288     for j in [1,3]:
289         params[j] = np.mod(params[j] - LIMITS[j][0], LIMITS[j][1] - LIMITS[j][0])
290         params[j] += LIMITS[j][0]
291     # Clip parameters outside their allowed range
292     params = np.clip(params, LIMITS[:, 0], LIMITS[:, 1])
293     # Evaluate the score for this attempt, use more steps as i progresses
294     # so as to reduce the noise in the evaluation of the score
295     score = attemptSimulation(*params, steps=500 + i)
296     # Perform simulated annealing with a typical exponential rule
297     if score > bestscore or np.exp(-(bestscore-score)/T) > np.random.rand():
298         # Flip to this new point

```

```

299     print('NEW BEST ____', i, T, score, params)
300     bestscore = score
301     bestparams = params
302     log.append([score, params, True])
303 else: # Remain in the old point
304     log.append([score, params, False])
305 # Save the progress for future plotting
306 pickle.dump(log, open('data/logs/logb.pickle', "wb" ) )

```

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