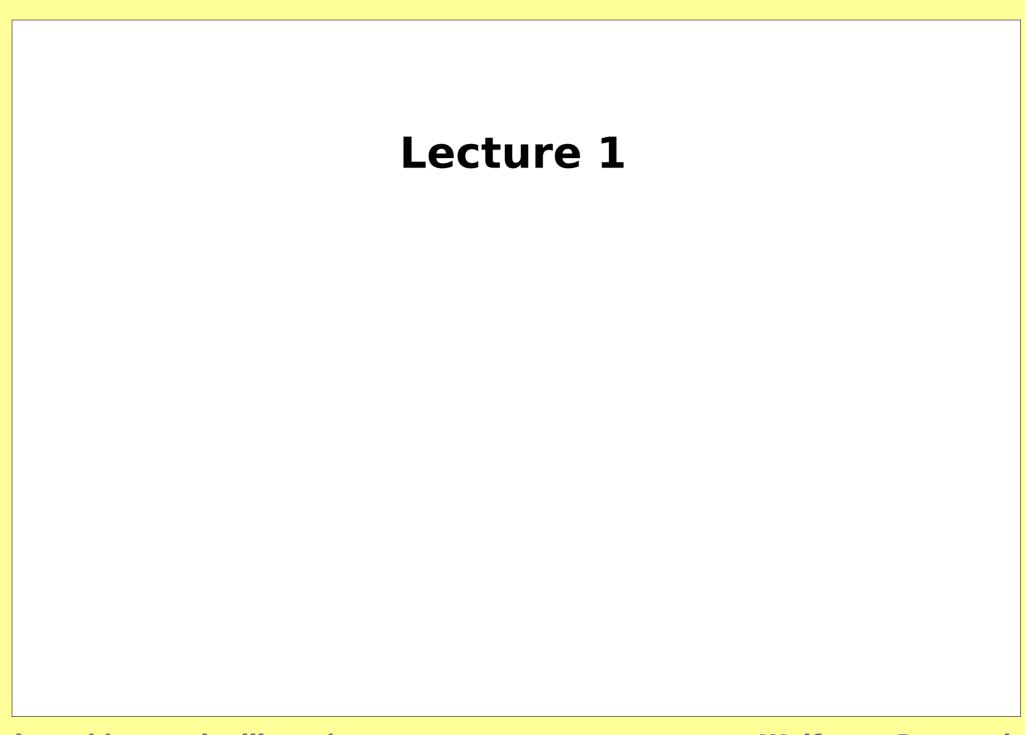
Finite element methods in scientific computing

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Overview

The numerical solution of partial differential equations is an immensely practical field!

It requires us to know about:

- Partial differential equations
- Methods for discretizations, solvers, preconditioners
- Programming
- Adequate tools

Partial differential equations

Many of the big problems in scientific computing are described by partial differential equations (PDEs):

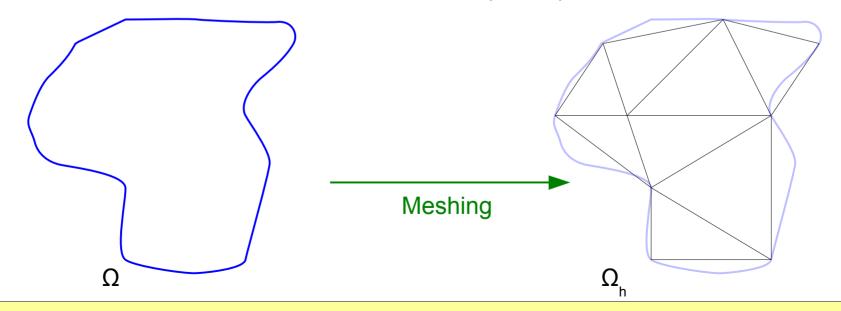
- Structural statics and dynamics
 - Bridges, roads, cars, ...
- Fluid dynamics
 - Ships, pipe networks, ...
- Aerodynamics
 - Cars, airplanes, rockets, ...
- Plasma dynamics
 - Astrophysics, fusion energy
- But also in many other fields: Biology, finance, epidemiology, ...

There are 3 standard tools for the numerical solution of PDEs:

- Finite element method (FEM)
- Finite volume method (FVM)
- Finite difference method (FDM)

Common features:

Split the domain into small volumes (cells)

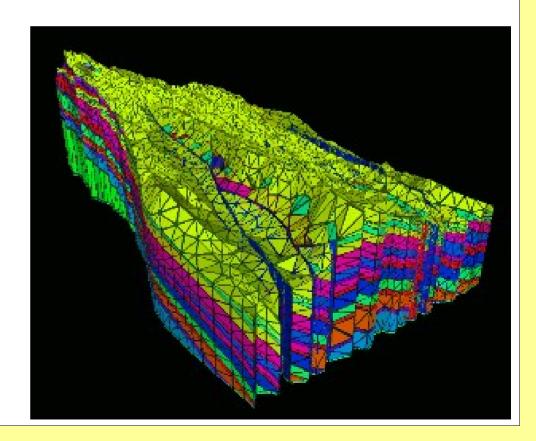


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- Define balance relations on each cell
- Obtain and solve very large (non-)linear systems

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Today and tomorrow: We will not go into details of this, but consider only the parallel computing aspects.

Common features:

- Split the domain into small volumes (cells)
- Define balance relations on each cell
- Obtain and solve very large (non-)linear systems

Problems:

- Every code has to implement these steps
- There is only so much time in a day
- There is only so much expertise anyone can have

In addition:

- We don't just want a simple algorithm
- We want state-of-the-art methods for everything

Examples of what we would like to have:

- Adaptive meshes
- Realistic, complex geometries
- Quadratic or even higher order elements
- Multigrid solvers
- Scalability to 1000s of processors
- Efficient use of current hardware
- Graphical output suitable for high quality rendering

Q: How can we make all of this happen in a single code?

How we develop software

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Not a question of feasibility but of how we develop software:

- Is every student developing their own software?
- Or are we re-using what others have done?
- Do we insist on implementing everything from scratch?
- Or do we build our software on existing libraries?

How we develop software

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There has been a major shift on how we approach the second question in scientific computing over the past 10-15 years!

How we develop software

The secret to good scientific software is (re)using existing libraries!

Existing software

There is excellent software for almost every purpose!

Basic linear algebra (dense vectors, matrices):

- BLAS
- LAPACK

Parallel linear algebra (vectors, sparse matrices, solvers):

- PETSc
- Trilinos

Meshes, finite elements, etc:

- deal.II the topic of this class
- ...

Visualization, dealing with parameter files, ...

deal.II

deal.II is a finite element library. It provides:

- Meshes
- Finite elements, quadrature,
- Linear algebra
- Most everything you will ever need when writing a finite element code

On the web at

http://www.dealii.org/

What's in deal.II

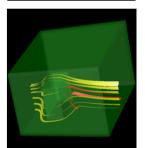
Linear algebra in deal.II:

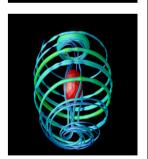
- Has its own sub-library for dense + sparse linear algebra
- Interfaces to PETSC, Trilinos, UMFPACK

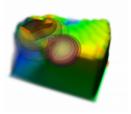
Parallelization:

- Uses threads and tasks on multicore machines
- Uses MPI, up to 100,000s of processors

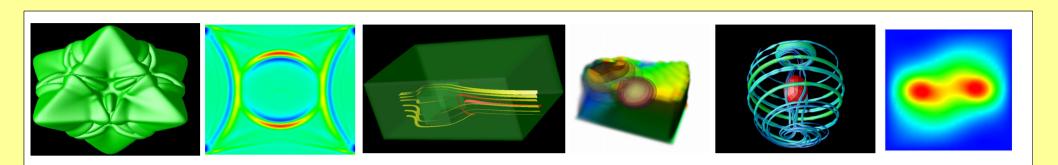






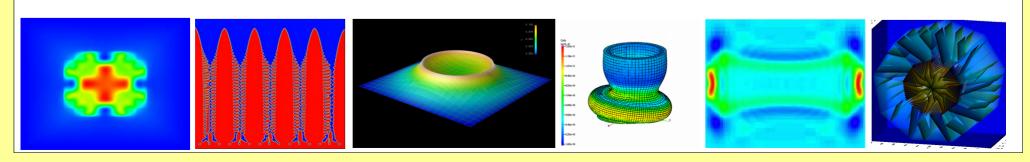


On the web



Visit the deal.II library:

http://www.dealii.org/



deal.II

Mission:

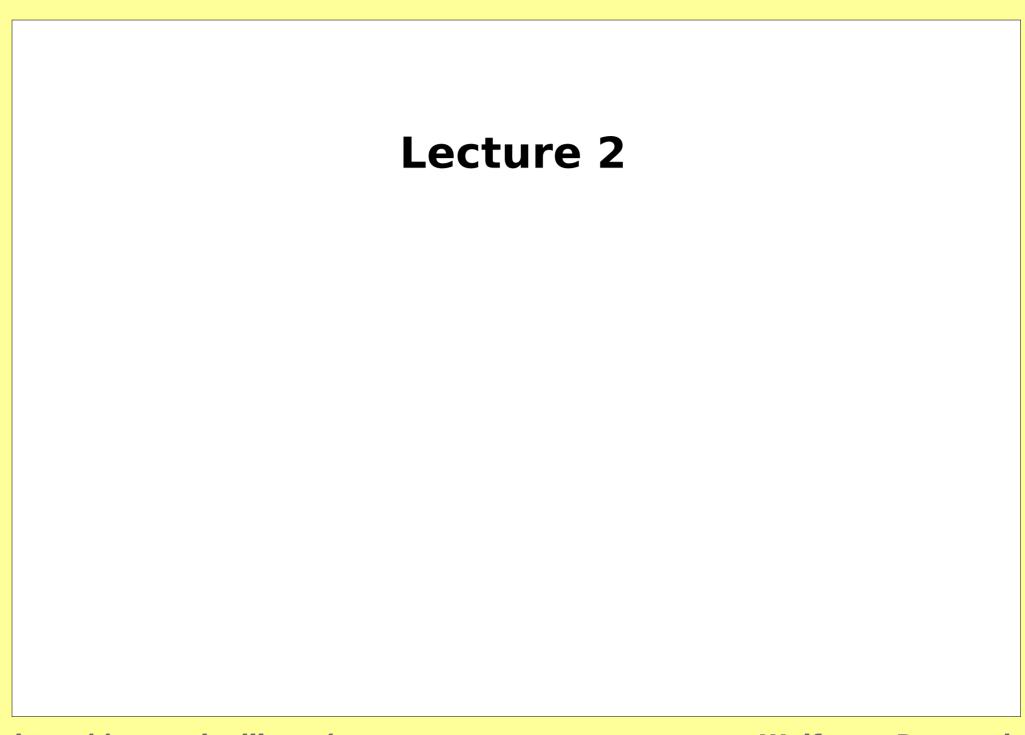
To provide everything that is needed in finite element computations.

Development:

As an open source project

As an inviting community to all who want to contribute

As professional-grade software to users

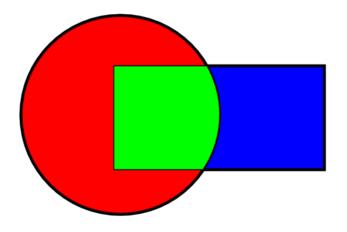


General approach to parallel solvers

Historically, there are three general approaches to solving PDEs in parallel:

- Domain decomposition:
 - Split the domain on which the PDE is posed
 - Discretize and solve (small) problems on subdomains
 - Iterate out solutions
- Global solvers:
 - Discretize the global problem
 - Receive one (very large) linear system
 - Solve the linear system in parallel
- A compromise: Mortar methods

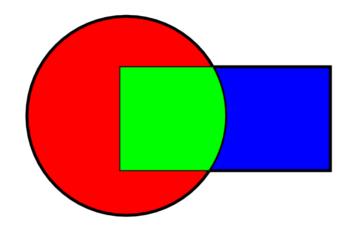
Historical idea: Consider solving a PDE on such a domain:



Source: Wikipedia

Note: We know how to solve PDEs analytically on each part of the domain.

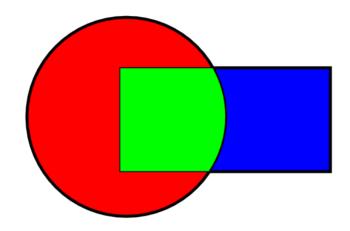
Historical idea: Consider solving a PDE on such a domain:



Approach (Hermann Schwarz, 1870):

- Solve on circle using arbitrary boundary values, get u^1
- Solve on rectangle using u^1 as boundary values, get u^2
- Solve on circle using u^2 as boundary values, get u^3
- Iterate (proof of convergence: Mikhlin, 1951)

Historical idea: Consider solving a PDE on such a domain:



This is called the *Alternating Schwarz* method. When discretized:

- Shape of subdomains no longer important
- Easily generalized to many subdomains
- This is called Overlapping Domain Decomposition method

History's verdict:

- Some beautiful mathematics came of it
- Iteration converges too slowly
- Particularly with large numbers of subdomains (lack of global information exchange)
- Does not play nicely with modern ideas for discretization:
 - mesh adaptation
 - hp adaptivity

Global solvers

General approach:

- Mesh the entire domain in one mesh
- Partition the mesh between processors
- Each processor discretizes its part of the domain
- Obtain one very large linear system
- Solve it with an iterative solver
- Apply a preconditioner to the whole system

Global solvers

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Note: Each step here requires communication; much more sophisticated software necessary!

Global solvers

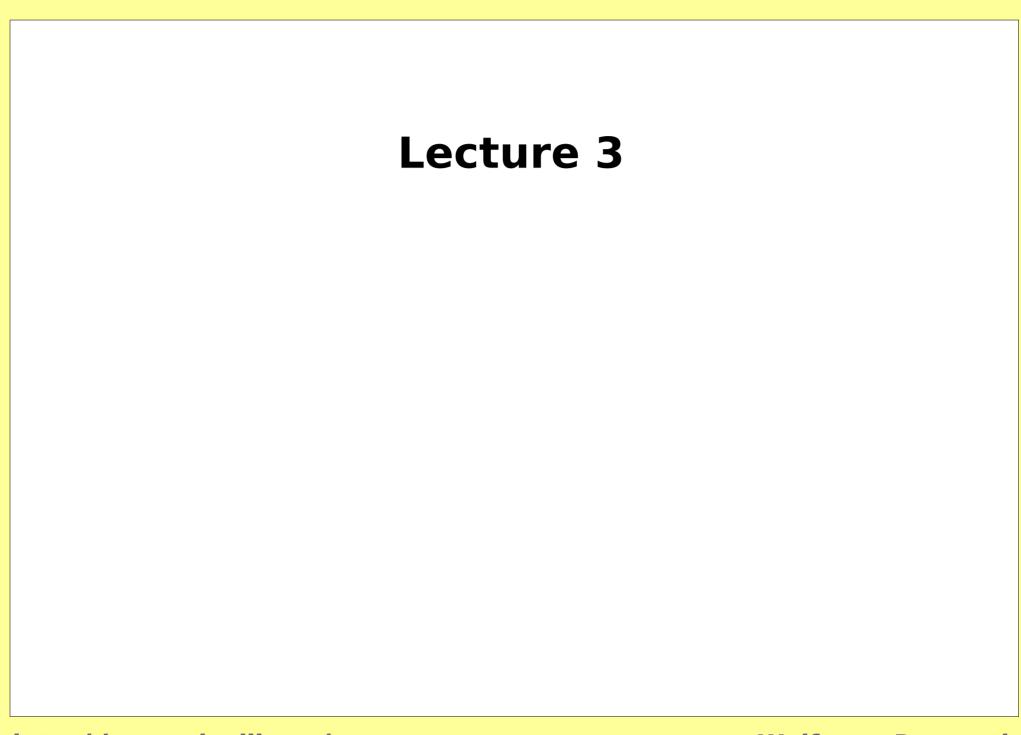
Pros:

- Convergence independent of subdivision into subdomains (if good preconditioner)
- Load balancing with adaptivity not a problem
- Has been shown to scale to 100,000s of processors

Cons:

- Requires much more sophisticated software
- Relies on iterative linear solvers
- Requires sophisticated preconditioners

But: Powerful software libraries available for all steps.



Finite element methods with MPI

Philosophy:

- Global objects require O(N) memory (N=# of cells)
- Every global data structure needs to be distributed:
 - Triangulation
 - Constraints on the solution
 - Data attached to cells
 - Matrix
 - Solution and right hand side vectors
 - Postprocessed data (DataOut)
- No processor may hold all data for a global object
- Processors hold O(N/P) "locally owned" data
- Processors may also hold $O(\varepsilon N/P)$ "ghost elements"

Finite element methods with MPI

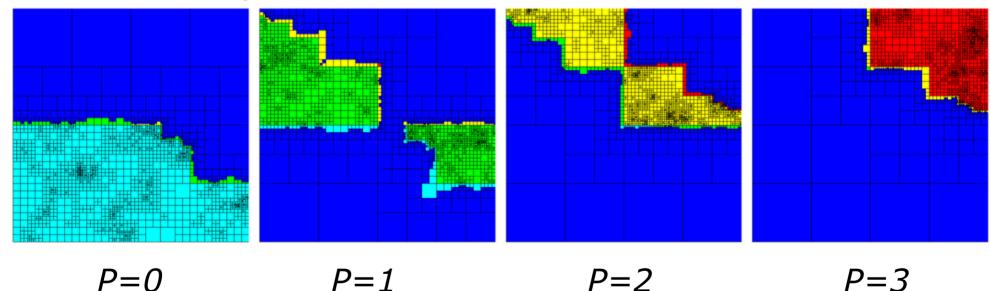
Philosophy:

- Every processor may only work on locally owned data (possibly using ghost data as necessary)
- Software must carefully communicate data that may be necessary early on, try to avoid further communication
- Use PETSc/Trilinos for linear algebra
- (Almost) No handwritten MPI necessary in user code

Finite element methods with MPI

Example:

- There is an "abstract", global triangulation
- Each processor has a triangulation object that stores "locally owned", "ghost" and "artificial" cells (and that's all it knows):



(magenta, green, yellow, red: cells owned by processors 0, 1, 2, 3; blue: artificial cells)

Parallel user programs

How user programs need to be modified for parallel computations:

- Need to let
 - system matrix, vectors
 - hanging node constraints
 know about what is *locally owned*, *locally relevant*
- Need to restrict work to locally owned data
 Communicate everything else on an as-needed basis
- Need to create one output file per processor
- Everything else can happen in libraries under the hood

Situation:

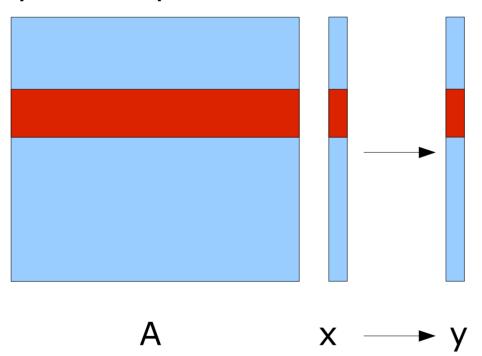
- Multiply a large NxN matrix by a vector of size N
- Matrix is assumed to be dense
- Every one of P processors stores N/P rows of the matrix
- Every processor stores N/P elements of each vector
- For simplicity: N is a multiple of P

```
struct ParallelVector {
  unsigned int size;
  unsigned int my elements begin;
  unsigned int my elements end;
  double *elements;
  ParallelVector (unsigned int sz,MPI Comm comm) {
    size = sz;
    int comm size, my_rank;
    MPI Comm size (comm, &comm size);
    MPI Comm rank (comm, &my rank);
    my elements begin = size/comm size*my rank;
    my elements end = size/comm size*(my rank+1);
    elements = new double[my elements end-my elements begin];
```

```
struct ParallelSquareMatrix {
  unsigned int size;
  unsigned int my rows begin;
  unsigned int my rows end;
  double *elements;
  ParallelSquareMatrix (unsigned int sz,MPI Comm comm) {
    size = sz;
    int comm size, my rank;
    MPI Comm size (comm, &comm size);
    MPI Comm rank (comm, &my rank);
    my rows begin = size/comm size*my rank;
    my rows end = size/comm size*(my rank+1);
    elements = new double[(my rows end-my rows begin)*size];
```

What does processor P need:

Graphical representation of what P owns:



To compute the *locally owned* elements of y, processor P needs all elements of x

An MPI example: MatVec

```
void mat vec (A, x, y) {
   int comm size=..., my rank=...;
   for (row block=0; row block<comm size; ++row block)
     if (row block == my rank) {
        for (col_block=0; col_block<comm_size; ++col_block)</pre>
           if (col block == my rank) {
             for (i=A.my_rows_begin; i<A.my_rows_end; ++i)
              for (j=A.size/comm_size*col_block; ...)
                y.elements[i-y.my rows begin] = A[...i,j...] * x[...j...];
           } else {
             double *tmp = new double[A.size/comm_size];
             MPI_Recv (tmp, ..., row_block, ...);
             for (i=A.my_rows_begin; i<A.my_rows_end; ++i)
              for (j=A.size/comm_size*col_block; ...)
                y.elements[i-y.my_rows_begin] = A[...i,j...] * tmp[...j...];
             delete tmp;
     } else {
        MPI_Send (x.elements, ..., row_block, ...);
```

An MPI example: MatVec

Analysis of this algorithm

- We only send data right when we need it:
 - receiving processor has to wait
 - has nothing to do in the meantime
 - A better algorithm would:
 - send out its data to all other processors
 - receive messages as needed (maybe already here)
- As a general rule:
 - send data as soon as possible
 - receive it as late as possible
 - try to interleave computations between sends/receives
- We repeatedly allocate/deallocate memory should set up buffer only once

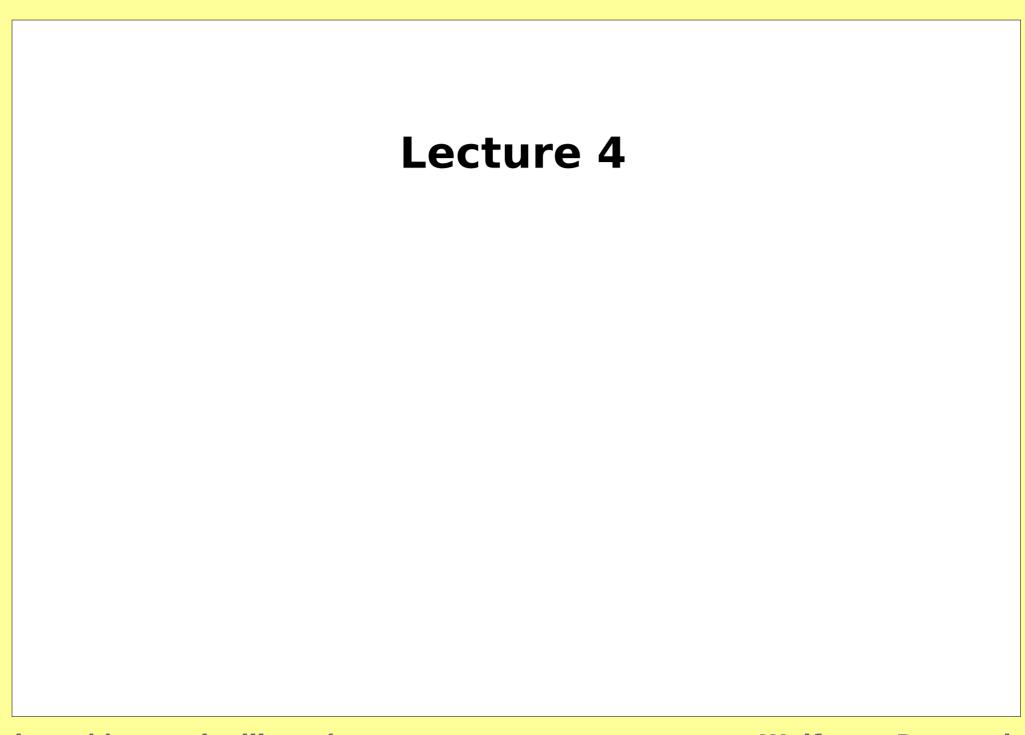
An MPI example: MatVec

```
void vmult (A, x, y) {
   int comm size=..., my rank=...;
   for (row block=0; row block<comm size; ++row block)
     if (row block != my rank)
        MPI Send (x.elements, ..., row_block, ...);
  col block = my rank;
  for (i=A.my rows begin; i<A.my rows end; ++i)
    for (j=A.size/comm_size*col_block; ...)
      y.elements[i-y.my_rows_begin] = A[...i,j...] * x[...j...];
  double *tmp = new double[A.size/comm_size];
   for (col_block=0; col_block<comm_size; ++col_block)</pre>
     if (col block != my rank) {
        MPI Recv (tmp, ..., row block, ...);
        for (i=A.my_rows_begin; i<A.my_rows_end; ++i)
           for (j=A.size/comm_size*col_block; ...)
               y.elements[i-y.my_rows_begin] = A[...i,j...] * tmp[...j...];
   delete tmp;
```

Message Passing Interface (MPI)

Notes on using MPI:

- Usually, algorithms need data that resides elsewhere
- Communication needed
- Distributed computing lives in the conflict zone between
 - trying to keep as much data available locally to avoid communication
 - not creating a memory/CPU bottleneck
- MPI makes the flow of information explicit
- Forces programmer to design data structures/algorithms for communication
- Well written programs have relatively few MPI calls



Solver questions

The finite element method provides us with a linear system

$$Ax = b$$

We know:

- A is large: typically a few 1,000 up to a few billions
- A is sparse: typically no more than a few 100 entries per row
- A is typically ill-conditioned: condition numbers up to 10⁹

Question:

How do we go about solving such linear systems?

Direct solvers

Direct solvers – compute a decomposition of A:

 Can be thought of as variant of LU decomposition that finds triangular factors L, U so that

$$A = LU$$

- Sparse direct solvers save memory and CPU time by considering the sparsity pattern of A
- Very robust
- Work grows as $O(N^{1+2(d-1)/d})$, i.e.,
 - $O(N^2)$ in 2d
 - $-O(N^{7/3})$ in 3d
- Memory grows as $O(N^{1+(d-1)/d})$, i.e.,
 - $-O(N^{3/2})$ in 2d
 - $-O(N^{5/3})$ in 3d

Direct solvers

Where to get a direct solver:

- Several very high quality, open source packages
- Most widely used ones are
 - UMFPACK
 - SuperLU
 - MUMPS
- The latter two are even parallelized

But:

It is generally very difficult to implement direct solvers efficiently in parallel.

Iterative solvers

Iterative solvers improve the solution in each iteration:

- Start with an initial guess x_o
- Continue iterations till a stopping criterion is satisfied (typically that the error/residual is less than a tolerance)
- Return final guess X_k

- Depending on solver and preconditioner type, work can be O(N)
 or (much) worse
- Memory is typically linear, i.e., O(N)

Note: The final guess does not solve Ax = b exactly!

Iterative solvers

There is a wide variety of iterative solvers:

- CG, MinRes, GMRES, ...
- All of them are actually rather simple to implement:
 They usually need less than 200 lines of code
- Consequently, many high quality implementations

Advantage: Only need multiplication with the matrix, no modification/insertion of matrix elements required.

Disadvantage: Efficiency hinges on availability of good preconditioners.

Direct vs iterative

Guidelines for direct solvers vs iterative solvers:

Direct solvers:

- Always work, for any invertible matrix
- Faster for problems with <100k unknowns
- Need too much memory + CPU time for larger problems
- Do not parallelize well

Iterative solvers:

- ✓ Need O(N) memory
- Can solve very large problems
- Often parallelize well
- Choice of solver/preconditioner depends on problem

Advice for iterative solvers

There is a wide variety of iterative solvers:

CG: Conjugate gradients

MinRes: Minimal residuals

GMRES: Generalized minimal residuals

F-GMRES: Flexible GMRES

SymmLQ: Symmetric LQ decomposition

BiCGStab: Biconjugate gradients stabilized

QMR: Quasi-minimal residual

• TF-QMR: Transpose-free QMR

• ...

Which solver to choose depends on the properties of the matrix, primarily symmetry and definiteness!

Advice for iterative solvers

Guidelines for use:

CG: Matrix is symmetric, positive definite

MinRes: -

GMRES: Catch-all

F-GMRES: Catch-all with variable preconditioners

SymmLQ: -

BiCGStab: Matrix is non-symmetric but positive definite

• QMR: -

• TF-QMR: -

All others: -

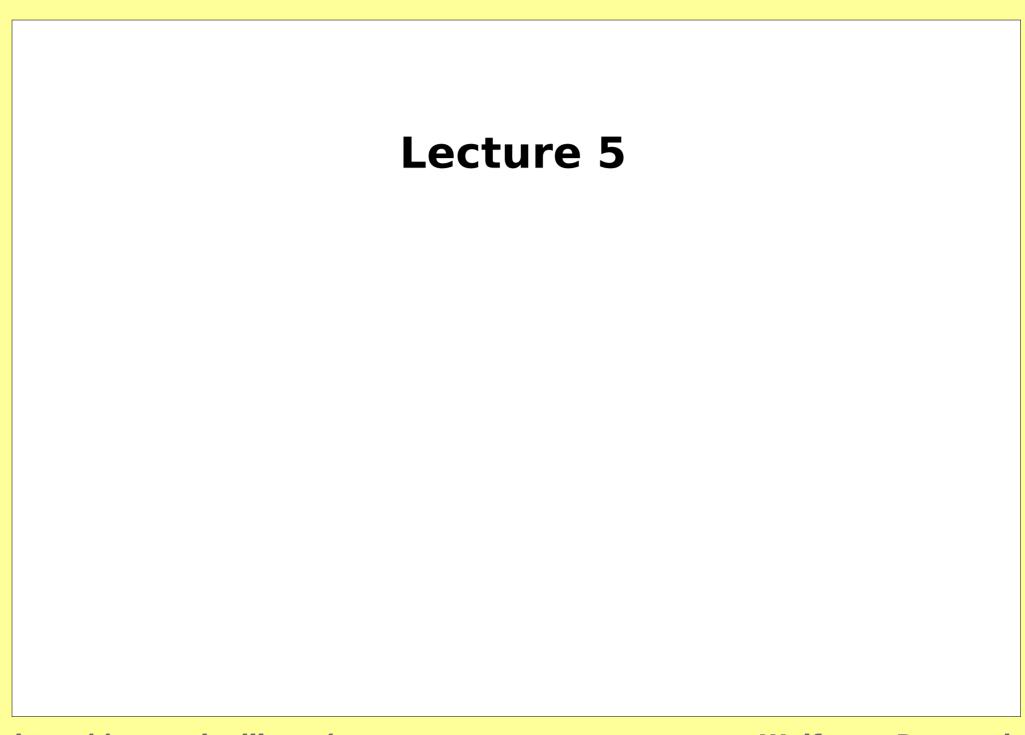
In reality, only CG, BiCGStab and (F-)GMRES are used much.

Advice for iterative solvers

Note:

All iterative solvers are bad without a good preconditioner!

The art of devising a good iterative solver is to devise a good preconditioner!



The finite element method provides us with a linear system

$$Ax = b$$

that we then need to solve.

Basic observations:

- For sparse direct solvers, speed of solution only depends on sparsity pattern
- For iterative solvers, performance also depends on the values in A
- Performance measures:
 - number of iterations
 - cost of every iteration

The finite element method provides us with a linear system

$$Ax = b$$

that we then need to solve.

Factors affecting performance of iterative solvers:

- Symmetry of a matrix
- Whether A is definite
- Condition number of A
- How the eigenvalues of A are clustered
- Whether A is reducible/irreducible

Example 1: Using CG to solve

$$Ax = b$$

where A is SPD, each iteration reduces the residual by a factor of

$$r = \frac{\sqrt{\kappa(A)} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa(A)} + 1} < 1$$

- For a tolerance ε we need $n = \frac{\log \varepsilon}{\log r}$ iterations
- Problem: The condition number typically grows with the problem size → number of iterations grows

Example 2: When solving

$$Ax = b$$

where A has the form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

then every decent iterative solver converges in 1 iteration.

Note 1: This, even though condition number may be large

Note 2: This is true, in particular, if A=I.

Idea: When solving

$$Ax = b$$

maybe we can find a matrix P^{-1} and instead solve

$$P^{-1}Ax = P^{-1}b$$

Observation 1: If $P^{-1}A \sim D$ then solving should require less iterations

Corollary: The perfect preconditioner is a multiple of the inverse matrix, i.e., $P^{-1} = A^{-1}$.

Idea: When solving

$$Ax = b$$

maybe we can find a matrix P^{-1} and instead solve

$$P^{-1}Ax = P^{-1}b$$

Observation 2: Iterative solvers only need matrix-vector multiplications, no element-by-element access.

Corollary: It is sufficient if P^{-1} is just an operator

Idea: When solving

$$Ax = b$$

maybe we can find a matrix P^{-1} and instead solve

$$P^{-1}Ax = P^{-1}b$$

Observation 3: There is a tradeoff:

fewer iterations vs cost of preconditioner.

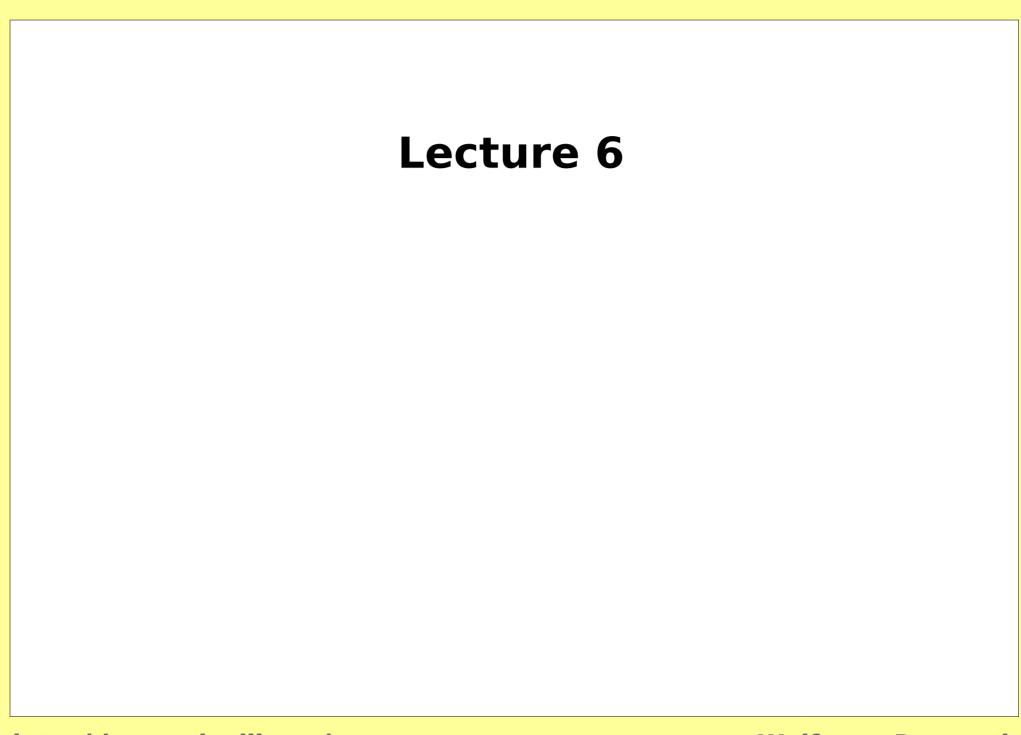
Corollary: Preconditioning only works if P^{-1} is cheap to compute and if P^{-1} is cheap to apply to a vector.

Consequence: $P^{-1} = A^{-1}$ does not qualify.

Notes on the following lectures:

 For quantitative analysis, one typically needs to consider the spectrum of operators and preconditioners

 Here, the goal is simply to get an "intuition" on how preconditioners work



Remember: When solving the preconditioned system

$$P^{-1}Ax = P^{-1}b$$

then the best preconditioner is $P^{-1}=A^{-1}$.

Problem: (i) We can't compute it efficiently. (ii) If we could, we would not need an iterative solver.

But: Maybe we can approximate $P^{-1} \sim A^{-1}$.

Idea 1: Do we know of other iterative solution techniques?

Idea 2: Use incomplete decompositions.

Approach 1: Remember the oldest iterative techniques!

To solve Ax = b we can use *defect correction*:

Under certain conditions, the iteration:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - P^{-1}(Ax^{(k)} - b)$$

will converge to the exact solution x

- Unlike Krylov-space methods, convergence is linear
- The best preconditioner is again $P^{-1} \sim A^{-1}$

Approach 1: Remember the oldest iterative techniques!

Preconditioned defect correction for Ax = b, A = L+D+U:

Jacobi iteration:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \omega D^{-1} (A x^{(k)} - b)$$

The Jacobi preconditioner is then

$$P^{-1} = \omega D^{-1}$$

which is easy to compute and apply.

Note: We don't need the scaling ("relaxation") factor.

Approach 1: Remember the oldest iterative techniques!

Preconditioned defect correction for Ax = b, A = L+D+U:

Gauss-Seidel iteration:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \omega (L+D)^{-1} (Ax^{(k)} - b)$$

The Gauss-Seidel preconditioner is then

$$P^{-1} = \omega (L+D)^{-1}$$
 i.e. $h=P^{-1}r$ solves $(L+D)h=\omega r$

which is easy to compute and apply as L+D is triangular.

Note 1: We don't need the scaling ("relaxation") factor.

Note 2: This preconditioner is not symmetric.

Approach 1: Remember the oldest iterative techniques!

Preconditioned defect correction for Ax = b, A = L+D+U:

SOR (Successive Over-Relaxation) iteration:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \omega (D + \omega L)^{-1} (A x^{(k)} - b)$$

The SOR preconditioner is then

$$P^{-1} = (D + \omega L)^{-1}$$

Note 1: This preconditioner is not symmetric.

Note 2: We again don't care about the constant factor in *P*.

Approach 1: Remember the oldest iterative techniques!

Preconditioned defect correction for Ax = b, A = L+D+U:

• SSOR (Symmetric Successive Over-Relaxation) iteration:

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \frac{1}{\omega(2-\omega)} (D + \omega U)^{-1} D(D + \omega L)^{-1} (A x^{(k)} - b)$$

The SSOR preconditioner is then

$$P^{-1} = (D + \omega U)^{-1} D (D + \omega L)^{-1}$$

Note: This preconditioner is now symmetric if *A* is symmetric!

Approach 1: Remember the oldest iterative techniques!

Common observations about preconditioners from stationary iterations:

- Have been around for a long time
- Generally useful for small problems (<100,000 DoFs)
- Not particularly useful for larger problems

Approach 2: Approximations to A^{-1}

Idea 1: Incomplete decompositions

- Incomplete LU (ILU):
 Perform an LU decomposition on A but only keep elements of L, U that fit into the sparsity pattern of A
- Incomplete Cholesky (IC): LL^T decomposition if A is symmetric
- Many variants:
 - strengthen diagonal
 - augment sparsity pattern
 - thresholding of small/large elements

Summary

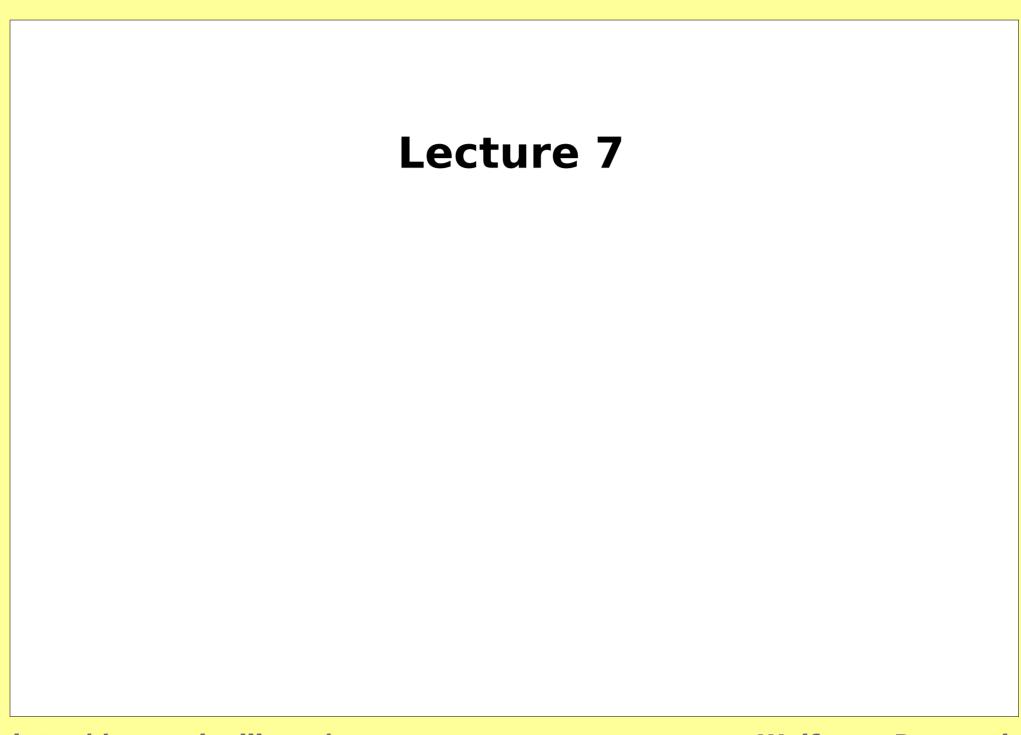
Conceptually: We now need to solve the linear system

$$P^{-1}Ax = P^{-1}b$$

Goal: We would like to approximate $P^{-1} \sim A^{-1}$.

But: We don't need to know the entries of P^{-1} – we only see it as an operator.

Then: We can put it all into an iterative solver such as Conjugate Gradients that only requires matrix-vector products.



Global solvers

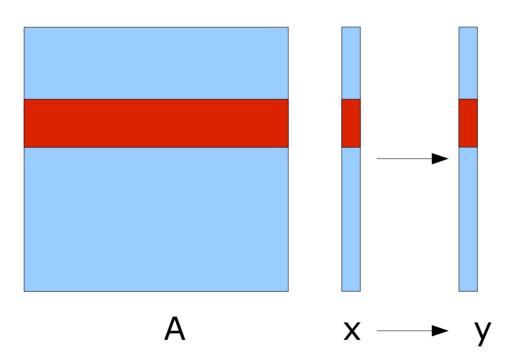
Examples for a few necessary steps:

- Matrix-vector products in iterative solvers (Point-to-point communication)
- Dot product synchronization
- Available parallel preconditioners

Matrix-vector product

What does processor P need:

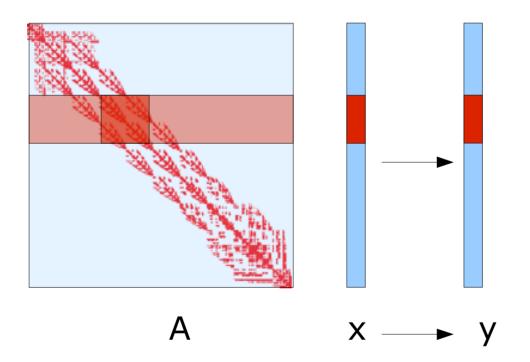
Graphical representation of what P owns:



- To compute the *locally owned* elements of y, processor P needs all elements of x
- All processors need to send their share of x to everyone

What does processor P need:

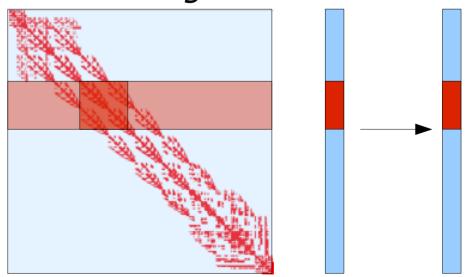
But: Finite element matrices look like this:



For the *locally owned* elements of y, processor P needs **all** x_j for which there is a nonzero A_{ij} for a locally owned row i.

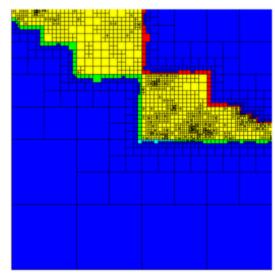
What does processor P need to compute its part of y:

- All elements x_j for which there is a nonzero A_{ij} for a locally owned row i.
- In other words, if x_i is a locally owned DoF, we need all x_j that couple with x_i
- These are exactly the locally relevant degrees of freedom
- They live on *ghost cells*



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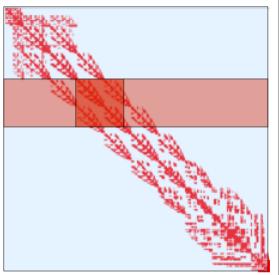
Parallel matrix-vector products for sparse matrices:

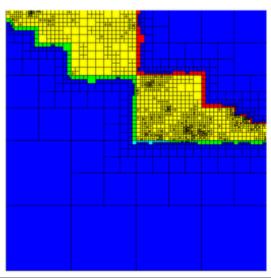
- Requires determining which elements we need from which processor
- Exchange this up front once

Performing matrix-vector product:

- Send vector elements to all processors that need to know
- Do local product (dark red region)
- Wait for data to come in
- For each incoming data packet, do nonlocal product (light red region)

Note: Only point-to-point comm. needed!





Vector-vector dot product

Consider the Conjugate Gradient algorithm:

$$\mathbf{r}_0 := \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0$$

$$\mathbf{p}_0 := \mathbf{r}_0$$

$$k := 0$$

repeat

$$\alpha_k := \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{p}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_k}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} := \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{k+1} := \mathbf{r}_k - \alpha_k \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_k$$

if r_{k+1} is sufficiently small then exit loop

$$\beta_k := \frac{\mathbf{r}_{k+1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{r}_{k}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{r}_{k}}$$

$$\mathbf{p}_{k+1} := \mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_k \mathbf{p}_k$$

$$k := k + 1$$

end repeat

The result is \mathbf{x}_{k+1}

Vector-vector dot product

Consider the Conjugate Gradient algorithm:

$$\mathbf{r}_0 := \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0$$

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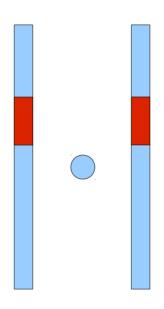
$$k := k + 1$$

end repeat

The result is \mathbf{x}_{k+1}

Vector-vector dot product

Consider the dot product:



$$x \cdot y = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i y_i = \sum_{p=1}^{P} \left(\sum_{\text{local elements on proc } p} x_i y_i \right)$$

Parallel considerations

Consider the Conjugate Gradient algorithm:

- Implementation requires
 - 1 matrix-vector product
 - 2 vector-vector (dot) productsper iteration
- Matrix-vector product can be done with point-to-point communication
- Dot-product requires global sum (reduction) and sending the sum to everyone (broadcast)
- All of this is easily doable in a parallel code

Consider Krylov-space methods algorithm:

To solve Ax=b we need

- Matrix-vector products z=Ay
- Various vector-vector operations
- A preconditioner v=Pw

Want: P approximates A⁻¹

Question: What are the issues in parallel?

First idea: Block-diagonal preconditioners

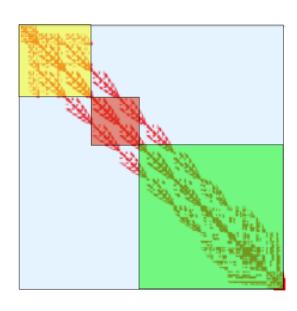
Pros:

- P can be computed locally
- *P* can be applied locally (without communication)
- P can be approximated (SSOR, ILU on each block)

Cons:

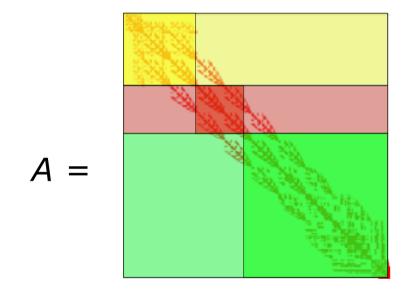
- Deteriorates with larger numbers of processors
- Equivalent to Jacobi in the extreme of one row per processor

Lesson: Diagonal block preconditioners don't work well! We need data exchange!

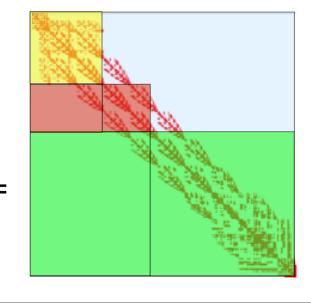


Second idea: Block-triangular preconditioners

Consider distributed storage of the matrix on 3 processors:



Then form the preconditioner from the lower triangle of blocks:



Second idea: Block-triangular preconditioners

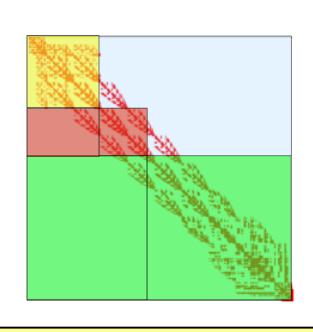
Pros:

- P can be computed locally
- P can be applied locally
- P can be approximated (SSOR, ILU on each block)
- Works reasonably well

Cons:

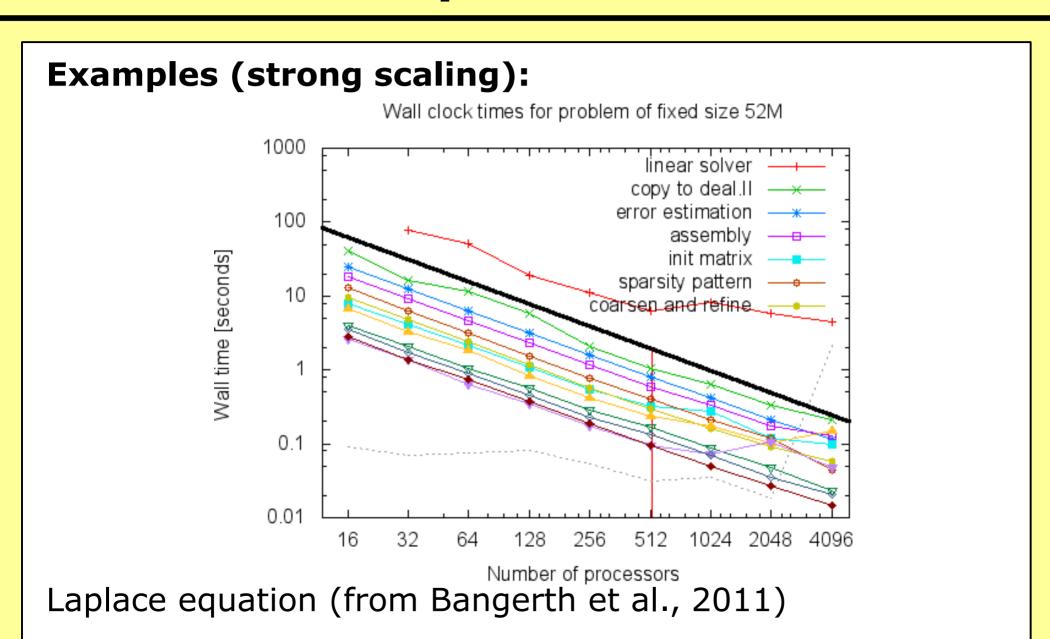
- Equivalent to Gauss-Seidel in the extreme of one row per processor
- Is sequential!

Lesson: Data flow must have fewer then O(#procs) synchronization points!



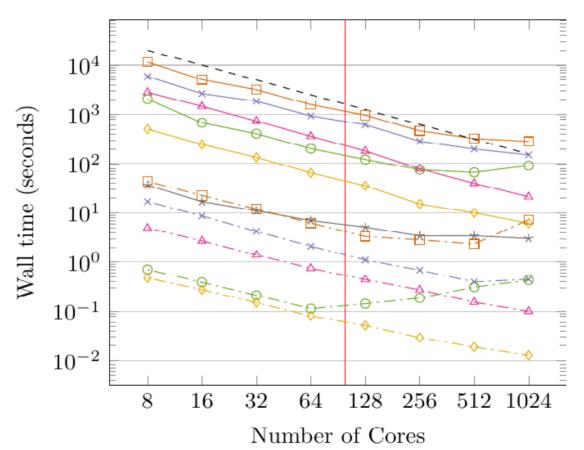
What works:

- Geometric multigrid methods for elliptic problems:
 - Require point-to-point communication in smoother
 - Very difficult to load balance with adaptive meshes
 - O(N) effort for overall solver
- Algebraic multigrid methods for elliptic problems:
 - Require point-to-point communication
 - . in smoother
 - . in construction of multilevel hierarchy
 - Difficult (but easier) to load balance
 - Not quite O(N) effort for overall solver
 - "Black box" implementations available (ML, hypre)



Examples (strong scaling):

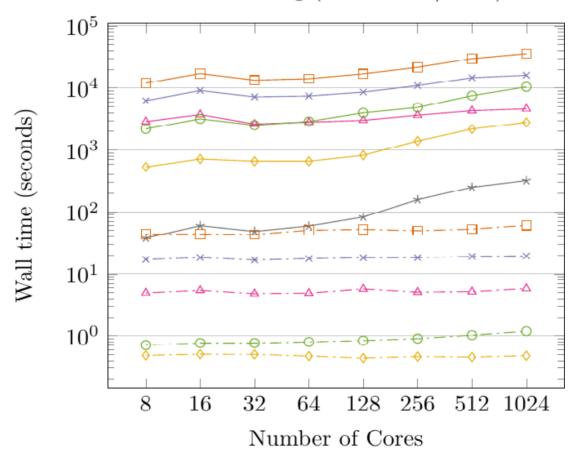
Strong Scaling (9.9M DoFs)



Elasticity equation (from Frohne, Heister, Bangerth, submitted)

Examples (weak scaling):

Weak Scaling (1.2M DoFs/Core)



Elasticity equation (from Frohne, Heister, Bangerth, submitted)

Parallel solvers

Summary:

- Mental model: See linear system as a large whole
- Apply Krylov-solver at the global level
- Use algebraic multigrid method (AMG) as black box preconditioner for elliptic blocks
- Build more complex preconditioners for block systems (see lecture 38)

Might also try parallel direct solvers