Iterative Solution of Sparse Equation Systems

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Topics

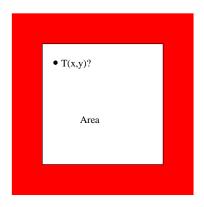
Iterative Solution of Sparse Linear Equation Systems

- Problem formulation
- Iteration methods
- Parallelisation
- Multigrid methods
- Parallelisation of multigrid methods

Problem Formulation: Example

A continuous problem and its discretisation:

- Example: A thin, quadratic metal plate is fixed at every side.
- The temporal constant temperature distribution at the boundary of the metal plate is known.
- Which temperature exists at each inner point of the metal plate, if the system is in a stationary state?



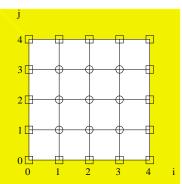
Problem Formulation: Continuous

- The process of heat conduction can be described (approximately) by a mathematical model.
- The geometry of the metal plate is decribed by an area Ω ⊂ R².
- Wanted is the temperature distribution T(x, y) for all $(x, y) \in \Omega$.
- The temperature T(x, y) for (x, y) on the boundary $\partial \Omega$ is known.
- Is the metal plate homogeneous (same heat conduction coefficient everywhere), then the temperature in the inner domain is described by the partial differential equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = 0, \quad T(x, y) = g(x, y) \text{ auf } \partial\Omega.$$
 (1)

Problem Formulation: Discrete

- In the computer one cannot determine the temperature at every position $(x, y) \in \Omega$ (innumerable many), but only at some selected ones.
- For that be $\Omega = [0, 1]^2$ choosen specially (unit square).
- Via the parameter h = 1/N, for a $N \in \mathbb{N}$, we choose specially the points $(x_i, y_j) = (ih, jh)$, for all $0 \le i, j \le N$.
- One denotes this set of points also as regular, equidistant grid.



The points at the boundary have been marked with other symbols (squares) as the inner ones (circles).

Discretisation I

How can the temperature T_{ij} at point (x_i, y_j) be determined?

- By a standard method: the method of "Finite Differences"
- Idea: The temperature at point (x_i, y_j) is expressed by the values of the four neighboring points:

$$T_{i,j} = \frac{T_{i-1,j} + T_{i+1,j} + T_{i,j-1} + T_{i,j+1}}{4}$$
 (2)

$$\iff T_{i-1,j} + T_{i+1,j} - 4T_{i,j} + T_{i,j-1} + T_{i,j+1} = 0$$
 (3) für $1 < i, j < N - 1$.

• From the form of (3) one recognices, that all $(N-1)^2$ equations for $1 \le i, j \le N-1$ together form a linear equation system:

$$AT = b (4)$$

Discretisation II

- Here G(A) corresponds exactly to the above drawn grid, if one neglects the boundary points (squares). The righthand side b of (3) is not even zero, but contains the temperature values at the boundary!
- The such calculated temperature values $T_{i,j}$ at the points (x_i, y_j) are not identical with the solution $T(x_i, y_i)$ of the partial differential equation (1). Furthermore applies

$$|T_{i,j}-T(x_i,y_i)|\leq O(h^2)$$
 (5)

• This error is denoted as "discretisation error". An increase in the size of *N* corresponds such to an exacter temperature calculation.

Iteration Methods I

- We now want to solve the equation system (4) "iteratively". Herefore we determine an arbitrary value of the temperature T_{i,j} at each point 1 ≤ i, j ≤ N − 1 (the temperature at the boundary is wellknown).
- Starting from this approximate solution we now want to calculate an improved solution. Herefore we use the formula (2) and set

$$T_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{T_{i-1,j}^n + T_{i+1,j}^n + T_{i,j-1}^n + T_{i,j+1}^n}{4} \quad \text{für alle } 1 \le i, j \le N-1.$$
 (6)

• Obviously the improved values $T_{i,j}^{n+1}$ can be calculated simultaneously for each of the indices (i,j), since they only depend on the old values $T_{i,j}^n$.

Iteration Methods II

One can indeed show, that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} T_{i,j}^n = T_{i,j} \tag{7}$$

applies.

- The error $|T_{i,j}^n T_{i,j}|$ in the *n*-th approximate solution is denoted as "iteration error".
- How large is this iteration error then? One needs a criterium up to which n one needs to compute.

Iteration Methods III

• Herefore one considers how well the values $T_{i,j}^n$ fulfill the equation (3), this means we set

$$E^{n} = \max_{1 \le i, j \le N-1} \left| T_{i-1,j}^{n} + T_{i+1,j}^{n} - 4T_{i,j}^{n} + T_{i,j-1}^{n} + T_{i,j+1}^{n} \right|$$

Commonly one uses this error only relatively, thus one iterates as long until

$$E^n < \epsilon E^0$$

applies. Then the initial error E^0 has been reduced by the reduction factor ϵ .

This leads us to the sequential method:

Iteration Methods IV

- All that can be written more compact in vector notation. Then AT = b is the equation system (4) to be solved. The approximation values $T_{i,j}^n$ correspond to vectors T^n each.
- Formally T^{n+1} is calculated as

$$T^{n+1} = T^n + D^{-1}(b - AT^n)$$

with the diagonal matrix D = diag(A). This scheme is denoted as Jacobi method.

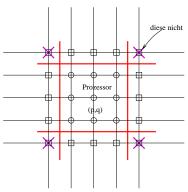
• The error E^n is constituted by

$$E^n = \|b - A \cdot T^n\|_{\infty}$$
,

where $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ is the maximum norm of a vector.

Parallelisation I

- The algorithm allows again a data parallel formulation.
- Therefore the $(N+1)^2$ grid points are subdivided onto a $\sqrt{P} \times \sqrt{P}$ processor array by partitioning of the index set $I = \{0, ..., N\}$.
- The partitioning happens here block-wise:



Parallelisation II

- Processor (p, q) computes then the values $T_{i,j}^{n+1}$ with $(i, j) \in \{start(p), \dots, end(p)\} \times \{start(q), \dots, end(q)\}.$
- ullet To do this, he needs however also the values $T_{i,j}^n$ from the neighboring processors with

$$(\textit{i},\textit{j}) \in \{\textit{start}(\textit{p})-1,\ldots,\textit{end}(\textit{p})+1\} \times \{\textit{start}(\textit{q})-1,\ldots,\textit{end}(\textit{q})+1\}.$$

- These are the nodes, that have been marked with squares in the figure above!
- Each processor stores such beyond its assigned grid points an additional layer of grid points.

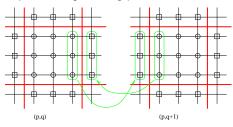
Parallelisation III

• The parallel algorithm therefore consists of the following steps:

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initial values T^0_{i,j} are known by all processors. 

while (E^n > \epsilon E^0) {
    calculate T^{n+1}_{i,j} for (i,j) \in \{start(p), \ldots, end(p)\} \times \{start(q), \ldots, end(q)\}; exchange boundary values (squares) with neighbors; calculate E^{n+1} for (i,j) \in \{start(p), \ldots, end(p)\} \times \{start(q), \ldots, end(q)\}; Determine global maximum; n = n + 1; }
```

In the exchange step two neighboring processors exchange values:



Parallelisation IV

- For this exchange step one uses either asynchronous communication or synchronous communication with coloration.
- We calculate the scalability of a single iteration:

$$W = T_{S}(N) = N^{2}t_{op} \implies N = \sqrt{\frac{W}{t_{op}}}$$

$$T_{P}(N,P) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{N}{\sqrt{P}}\right)^{2}t_{op}}_{\text{calculation}} + \underbrace{\left(t_{s} + t_{h} + t_{w}\frac{N}{\sqrt{P}}\right)4}_{\text{boundary exchange}} + \underbrace{\left(t_{s} + t_{h} + t_{w}\right)\operatorname{Id}P}_{\text{global comm: max.}}$$

$$T_{P}(W,P) = \frac{W}{P} + \frac{\sqrt{W}}{\sqrt{P}}\frac{4t_{w}}{\sqrt{t_{op}}} + (t_{s} + t_{h} + t_{w})\operatorname{Id}P + 4(t_{s} + t_{h})$$

$$T_{O}(W,P) = PT_{P} - W =$$

$$= \sqrt{W}\sqrt{P}\frac{4t_{w}}{\sqrt{t_{op}}} + P\operatorname{Id}P(t_{s} + t_{h} + t_{w}) + P4(t_{s} + t_{h})$$

Parallelisation V

- Asymptotically we obtain the iso-efficiency function $W = O(P \operatorname{Id} P)$ from the second term, albeit the first term will be dominant for practical values of N dominant. The algorithm is nearly optimal scalable.
- Because of the block-wise partitioning one has a surface-to-volume effect: $\frac{N}{\sqrt{P}} / \left(\frac{N}{\sqrt{P}}\right)^2 = \frac{\sqrt{P}}{N}$. In three space dimensions one obtains $\left(\frac{N}{P^{1/3}}\right)^2 / \left(\frac{N}{P^{1/3}}\right)^3 = \frac{P^{1/3}}{N}$.
- For same N and P the efficiency is such a little bit worse compared to two dimensions.

Multigrid Methods I

- If we ask about the total efficiency of a method, then the number of operations is distinctive.
- Hereby is

$$T_{S}(N) = IT(N) \cdot T_{IT}(N)$$

- How many iterationen have now indeed to be executed depends besides N of course on the used method.
- For that one obtains the following classifications:

```
Jacobi, Gauß-Seidel: IT(N) = \mathcal{O}(N^2)

SOR with \omega_{\text{opt}}: IT(N) = \mathcal{O}(N)

Conjugated gradients (CG): IT(N) = \mathcal{O}(N)

Hierarchical basis d=2: IT(N) = \mathcal{O}(\log N)

Multigrid methods: IT(N) = \mathcal{O}(1)
```

• The time for an iteration $T_{IT}(N)$ is there for all schemes in $\mathcal{O}(N^d)$ with comparable constant (in the region of 1 to 5).

Multigrid Methods II

- We such see, that e.g. the multigrid method is much faster than the Jacobi method.
- Also the parallelisation of the Jacobi method does not help, since it applies:

$$T_{P,\mathsf{Jacobi}}(N,P) = \frac{\mathcal{O}(N^{d+2})}{P}$$
 und $T_{\mathsf{S},\mathsf{MG}}(N) = \mathcal{O}(N^d)$

- A doubling of N results in a fourfold increase of the effort for the parallelised Jacobi scheme in comparision to the sequential multigrid method!
- This leads to a fundamental paradigm of parallel programming:

Parallelise the best sequential algorithm, if possible anyhow!

Multigrid Methods III

- Let us consider again the discretisation of the Laplace equation $\Delta T = 0$.
- This leads to the linear equation system

$$Ax = b$$

• Here the vector b is determined by the Dirichlet boundary values. Now be an approximation of the solution given by x^i . Herefore set the iteration error

$$e^i = x - x^i$$

Because of the linearity of A we can conclude the following:

$$Ae^{i} = \underbrace{Ax}_{b} - Ax^{i} = b - Ax^{i} =: d^{i}$$

- Here we call di the defect.
- A good approximation for eⁱ is calculated by the solution of

$$Mv^i = d^i$$
 also $v^i = M^{-1}d^i$

• Herefore be M easier to solve than A (in $\mathcal{O}(N)$ steps, if $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$).

Multigrid Methods IV

For special M we get the already known iteration method :

$$M = I \longrightarrow \mathsf{Richardson}$$

 $M = \mathsf{diag}(A) \longrightarrow \mathsf{Jacobi}$
 $M = L(A) \longrightarrow \mathsf{Gau}$ S-Seidel

We obtain the linear iteration method of the form

$$x^{i+1} = x^i + \omega M^{-1}(b - Ax^i)$$

- Here the $\omega \in [0, 1]$ is a damping factor .
- For the error $e^{i+1} = x x^{i+1}$ applies:

$$\mathbf{e}^{i+1} = (I - \omega M^{-1} A) \mathbf{e}^i$$

- Here we denote the iteration matrix $I \omega M^{-1}A$ with S.
- The scheme is exactly then convergent if applies ($\lim_{i\to\infty} e^i = 0$). This holds if the largest absolut eigen value of S is smaller than one.

Smoothing Property I

- If the matrix A is symmetric and positive definite, then it has only real, positive eigen values λ_k for eigen vectors z_k .
- The Richardson iteration

$$\mathbf{x}^{i+1} = \mathbf{x}^i + \omega(\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^i)$$

leads because of M = I to error

$$\mathbf{e}^{i+1} = (I - \omega \mathbf{A})\mathbf{e}^i$$

- Now we set the damping factor $\omega = \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}}$ and consider $e^i = z_k(\forall k)$.
- Then we obtain

$$e^{i+1} = \left(I - \frac{1}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}A\right)z_k = z_k - \frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}z_k = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}\right)e^i$$

$$\left(1 - \frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \lambda_k = \lambda_{\text{max}} \\ \approx 1 & \lambda_k \text{ small } (\lambda_{\text{min}}) \end{cases}$$

Smoothing Property II

- In the case of small eigenvalues we thus have a bad damping of the error (it has the order of magnitude of 1 - O (h²)).
- This behaviour is qualitatively identical for the Jacobi and Gauß-Seidel iteration methods.
- But, to small eigenvalues belong long-wave eigenfunctions.
- This long-wave errors are such damped only very badly.
- With a pictorial view the iteration methods only offer a local smoothing of the error on which they work, since they get new iteration values only from values in the local neighborhood.
- Fast oscillations could be smoothed out fast, whilst long-wave errors survive the local smoothing operations quite unmodified.

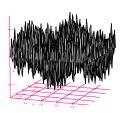
Smoothing Property III

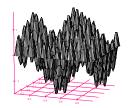
For illustration purposes we consider the following example:

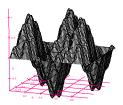
The Laplacian equation $-\Delta u=f$ is discretized via a five-point stencil on a structured grid. The associated eigenfunctions are $\sin(\nu\pi x)\sin(\mu\pi y)$, where $1\leq \nu$ and $\mu\leq h^{-1}-1$ apply. We set $h=\frac{1}{32}$ and the initial error to

$$e^0 = \sin(3\pi x)\sin(2\pi y) + \sin(12\pi x)\sin(12\pi y) + \sin(31\pi x)\sin(31\pi y).$$

With $\omega=\frac{1}{\lambda_{max}}$ one obtains the damping factors (per iteration) for the Richardson iteration as 0.984, 0.691 and 0 for the individual eigenfunctions. The graphs below show the initial error and the error after one resp. five iterations.

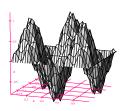


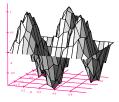




Smoothing Property IV

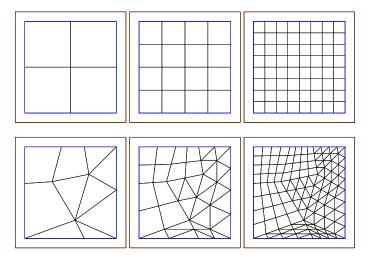
- From this the idea arises to represent the long wave error on coarser grids, after smoothing out the fast oscillations.
- On this coarser grids the effort is then smaller to smooth the error curve.
- Because the curve is somehow smooth after presmoothing, this restriction onto fewer grid points is well possible.





Grid Hierarchy I

- One constructs thus a complete sequence of grids of different accuracy.
- At first one smoothes out on the finest grid the short wave error functions.
- Then we restrict to the next coarser grid, and so on.



Grid Hierarchy II

According to that one obtains a complete sequence of linear systems

$$A_I x_I = b_I$$

since the number of grid points N and therefore the length of x decreases on coarser grids.

- Of couse one wants to return after this restriction again to the original fine grid.
- Herefore we perform a coarse grid correction.
- Let us assume we are on grid level I, thus we consider the LES

$$A_I x_I = b_I$$

• On this level the iterate x_i^i is given with an error of e_i^i , thus the error equation

$$Ae_I^i = b_I - A_I x_I^i$$

Lets suppose, x_l^i is the result of ν_1 Jacobi, Gauß-Seidel or similar iterations.

 Then e_i is relatively smooth and thus also properly representable on a coarser grid, this means it can be interpolated well from a coarser grid to a finer one.

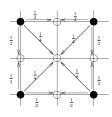
Grid Hierarchy III

- For this be v_{l-1} the error on the coarser grid.
- Then with good approximation applies

$$e_l^i \approx P_l v_{l-1}$$

 Here P_I is an interpolation matrix (prolongation), that performs a linear interpolation and changes the coarse grid vector into a fine grid vector.

1	0	0	0
1/2	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0
0	1	0	0
1/2	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4
0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
0	0	1	0
0	0	1/2	$\frac{1}{2}$
0	0	0	1



Two-grid and Multigrid Methods I

 Through combination of the equations above one obtains the equation for v_{l-1} by

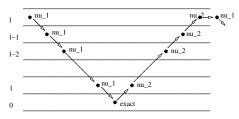
$$R_lAP_lV_{l-1}=R_l(b_l-A_lx_l^i)$$

- Here is $R_lAP_l =: A_{l-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{l-1} \times N_{l-1}}$ and R_l is the restriction matrix, for that one takes e.g. $R_l = P_l^T$.
- The so called two-grid method consists now of the two steps:
 - $\mathbf{0}$ ν_1 Jacobi iterations (on level I)
 - 2 coarse grid correction $x_i^{i+1} = x_i^i + P_i A_{i-1}^{-1} R_i (b_i A_i x_i^i)$
- The recursive application leads to the multigrid methods.

```
\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{mgc}(I,x_{I},b_{I}) \\ \{ & & \text{ if } (1 == 0 \text{ }) \text{ } x_{0} = A_{0}^{-1}b_{0}; \\ & & \text{ else } \{ \\ & \nu_{1} \text{ iterations one-grid method on } A_{I}x_{I} = b_{I}; /\!/ \text{ presmoothing } \\ & d_{I-1} = R_{I}(b_{I} - A_{I}x_{I}); \\ & v_{I-1} = 0; \\ & & \text{ for } (g = 1, \ldots, \gamma) \\ & & & & \text{ mgc}(I - 1, v_{I-1}, d_{I-1}); \\ & x_{I} = x_{I} + P_{I}v_{I-1}; \\ & \nu_{2} \text{ iterations one-grid method on } A_{I}x_{I} = b_{I}; /\!/ \text{ postsmoothing } \} \end{aligned}
```

Two-grid and Multigrid Methods II

- It is sufficient to set $\gamma = 1, \nu_1 = 1, \nu_2 = 0$ to get a iteration count of $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- A single pass from level I to level 0 and back is denoted as V-cycle:



 Effort for two-dimensional structured grids: N is number of grid points in a row on the finest level, and C := t_{op}:

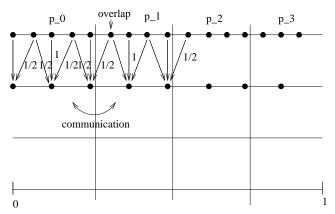
$$T_{IT}(N) = \underbrace{CN^{2}}_{level\ I} + \underbrace{\frac{CN^{2}}{4}}_{level\ I-1} + \underbrace{\frac{CN^{2}}{16}}_{level\ I-1} + \dots + \underbrace{\frac{G(N_{0})}_{coarse\ grid}}_{coarse\ grid}$$

$$= CN^{2}\underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots\right)}_{\frac{4}{3}} + G(N_{0}) = \frac{4}{3}CN_{I} + G(N_{0})$$

Parallelisation I

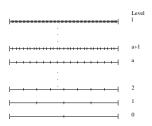
For data partitioning in the grid hierarchy on the individual processors one has to consider:

- In the coarse grid correction has to be checked, whether communication is necessary to calculate the node values in the coarse grid.
- How to handle the coarsest grids, where the number of unknowns in each dimension get smaller than the number of processors?



Parallelisation II

- For illustration of the method we only consider the one-dimensional case. The distribution in the high-dimensional case is according to the tensor product (chessboard-like).
- The processor limits are choosen at $p \cdot \frac{1}{P} + \epsilon$, such the nodes, that reside on the boundary between two processors, are still assigned to the "previous".
- It is to remark, that the defect, that is restringated in the coarse grid correction, can only calculated on the single master node, but not in the overlap!
- To solve the problem with the decreasing node count in the coarsest grids, one uses successively fewer processors. Be for that $a := \operatorname{ld} P$ and again $C := t_{\operatorname{op}}$. On level 0 only one processor calculates, first on level a all are busy.



Parallelisation III

nodes	processors	effort
$N_I = 2^{I-a}N_a$	$P_l = P$	$T=2^{l-a}CN_0$
$N_{a+1}=2N_a$	$P_{a+1} = P$	$T=2CN_0$
N _a	$P_a = P$	$T = CN_0$
$N_2 = 4N_0$	$P_2 = 4P_0$	$T=\frac{CN_2}{4}=CN_0$
$N_1=2N_0$	$P_1=2P_0$	$T = \frac{C\dot{N}_1}{2} = \frac{C2N_0}{2} = CN_0$
N_0	$P_0 = 1$	$G(N_0)\stackrel{be}{pprox} CN_0$
	$N_{l} = 2^{l-a}N_{a}$ $N_{a+1} = 2N_{a}$ N_{a} $N_{2} = 4N_{0}$ $N_{1} = 2N_{0}$	$N_{l} = 2^{l-a}N_{a}$ $P_{l} = P$ $N_{a+1} = 2N_{a}$ $P_{a+1} = P$ N_{a} $P_{a} = P$ $N_{2} = 4N_{0}$ $P_{2} = 4P_{0}$ $N_{1} = 2N_{0}$ $P_{1} = 2P_{0}$

• Let's consider the total effort: From level 0 to level a $\frac{N}{P}$ is constant, thus T_P grows like ld P. Therefore we get

$$T_P = \operatorname{Id} P \cdot CN_0$$

In the higher levels we get

$$T_P = C \cdot \frac{N_I}{P} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \ldots\right) = 2C \frac{N_I}{P}$$

- The total effort is then given by the sum of both partial efforts.
- Here we have not taken into account the communication between the processors.

Parallelisation IV

How effects the usage of the multigrid method the number of iteration steps to be executed?

- We show the number of used processors against the choice of the grid spacing, that has been used.
- The minimal error reduction has been set to 10^{-6} .

P/I	5	6	7	8
1	10			
4	10	10		
16	11	12	12	
64	13	12	12	12

 The table shows the according iteration times in seconds for 2D (factor 4 of grid growths):

P/I	5	6	7	8
1	3.39			
4	0.95	3.56		
16	0.32	1.00	3.74	
64	0.15	0.34	1.03	3.85

Most Important Knowledge

- Jacobi scheme is one of the most simple iteration methods for the solution of linear equation systems.
- For fixed reduction factor ϵ one necessitates a specific number of iterations IT to reach a certain error reduction.
- IT is independent on the choice of the starting value, but depends directly from the choice of the method (e.g. Jacobi scheme) and the grid spacing h (thus N).
- For the Jacobi method applies $IT = O(h^{-2})$. For a halvening of the grid width h one needs the fourfold number of iterations to get the error reduction ϵ . Since an iteration costs also four times more, the effort has increased by a factor of 16!
- There are a series of better iteration schemes for which e.g. $IT = O(h^{-1})$, $IT = O(\log(h^{-1}))$ or even IT = O(1) applies (CG method, hierarchical basis, multigrid method).
- Of course asymptotically $(h \to \infty)$ each of these methods is superior to a parallel naive scheme.
- One should therefore at all parallelize the method with optimal sequential complexity, especially because we want to solve large problems (h small) on parallel machines.