# ATHENS 2007 – Parallel Numerical Simulation Iterative Solution of Linear Systems

Michael Bader

March, 20th-24th, 2006

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### Outlines

Part I: Relaxation Methods Part II: Conjugate Gradient

## Part I: Relaxation Methods

- Residual-Based Correction
- Relaxation
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- Gauss-Seidel Relaxation
- Successive-Over-Relaxation (SOR)
- Does It Always Work?

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# Part II: Conjugate Gradients

- Quadratic Forms
- Steepest Descent
- Conjugate Directions
- Machine A. Orthogonality
- Conjugate Gradients
- CG Algorithm
- CG Convergence
- Preconditioning

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# Systems of Linear Equations in Scientific Computing

- discretization of both ODE and PDE leads to large systems of linear equations (LSE)
- solving these LSE is one of the most important/expensive tasks in scientific computing
- LSE resulting from ODE or PDE are typically:
  - sparse (because of the local discretization stencils)
  - large
     (because of the desired accuracy)

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# **Direct Solvers for Sparse LSEs**

## Direct solvers are often not competitive:

- computing time grows quickly with the number of unknowns:
  - 2D-Poisson:
    - $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  required for band elimination  $\mathcal{O}(N^{3/2})$  required for nested dissection
- classical elimination destroys sparsity:
  - hence, additional memory is required
  - 2D-Poisson:  $\mathcal{O}(N^{3/2})$  required for band elimination  $\mathcal{O}(N\log N)$  required for nested dissection
- exact solution is not necessarily required, as the SLE itself is only an approximation

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# **Iterative Solvers for Sparse LSEs**

## Goals for iterative solvers:

- take advantage of the sparsity pattern; use little or no additional memory
- compute a series of approximations

$$x^{(0)} \rightarrow x^{(1)} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow x^{(i)} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \lim_{i \to \infty} x^{(i)} = x$$

that converges *quickly* and *uniformly* to the solution *x* 

 modest growth of computing time; objective: rule-of-thumb like

"for 3 digits, you need 10 steps" (regardless of number of unknowns)

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## **Families of Iterative Solvers**

- relaxation methods:
  - Jacobi-, Gauss-Seidel-Relaxation, . . .
  - Over-Relaxation-Methods
- Krylov methods:
  - Steepest Descent, Conjugate Gradient, . . .
  - GMRES, ...
- Multilevel/Multigrid methods, Domain Decomposition, . . .

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# Part I Relaxation Methods

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Does It Always

# The Residual Equation

• for Ax = b, we define the **residual**:

$$r^{(i)} = b - Ax^{(i)}$$

- and the error:  $e^{(i)} := x x^{(i)}$ (thus  $x := x^{(i)} + e^{(i)}$ );
- short computation:

$$r^{(i)} = b - Ax^{(i)} = Ax - Ax^{(i)} = A(x - x^{(i)}) = Ae^{(i)}.$$

residual equation:

$$Ae^{(i)}=r^{(i)}$$

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## **Residual Based Correction**

Solve Ax = b using the residual equation  $Ae^{(i)} = r^{(i)}$ 

- r (which can be computed) is an indicator for the size of the error e (which is not known).
- use residual equation to compute a *correction* to  $x^{(i)}$
- basic idea: solve a modified (easier) SLE:

$$B\hat{\mathbf{e}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{r}^{(i)}$$
 where  $B \sim A$ 

• use  $\hat{e}^{(i)}$  as an approximation for  $e^{(i)}$ , and set

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + \hat{\mathbf{e}}^{(i)}.$$

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## Relaxation

## How should we choose *B*?

- $B \sim A$  (B "similar" to A), i.e.  $B^{-1} \approx A^{-1}$ , or at least  $B^{-1}y \approx A^{-1}y$  for most vectors y.
- Be = r should be easy/fast to solve

## **Examples:**

- $B = diag(A) = D_A$  (diagonal part of A)  $\Rightarrow$  Jacobi iteration
- B = L<sub>A</sub> (lower triangular part of A)
   ⇒ Gauss-Seidel iteration

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## Jacobi Relaxation

Iteration formulas in matrix-vector notation:

residual notation:

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + D_A^{-1}r^{(i)} = x^{(i)} + D_A^{-1}(b - Ax^{(i)})$$

for implementation:

$$x^{(i+1)} = D_A^{-1} \left( b - (A - D_A) x^{(i)} \right)$$

for analysis:

$$x^{(i+1)} = (I - D_A^{-1}A)x^{(i)} + D_A^{-1}b =: Mx^{(i)} + Nb$$

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# Jacobi Relaxation - Algorithm

• based on:  $x^{(i+1)} = D_A^{-1} (b - (A - D_A)x^{(i)})$ for i from 1 to n do xnew[i] := (b[i]- sum( A[i,j]\*x[j], j=1..i-1) - sum( A[i,j]\*x[j], j=i+1..n) ) / A[i,i]; end do; for i from 1 to n do x[i] := xnew[i];end do;

## properties:

- additional storage required (xnew)
- x, xnew can be computed in any order
- x, xnew can be computed in parallel

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## **Gauss-Seidel Relaxation**

Iteration formulas in matrix-vector notation:

residual notation:

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + L_A^{-1} r^{(i)} = x^{(i)} + L_A^{-1} (b - Ax^{(i)})$$

for implementation:

$$x^{(i+1)} = L_A^{-1} \left( b - (A - L_A) x^{(i)} \right)$$

for analysis:

$$x^{(i+1)} = (I - L_A^{-1}A)x^{(i)} + L_A^{-1}b =: Mx^{(i)} + Nb$$

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# Gauss-Seidel Relaxation - Algorithm

- based on:  $x^{(i+1)} = L_A^{-1} \left( b (A L_A) x^{(i)} \right)$
- solve  $L_A x^{(i+1)} = b (A L_A) x^{(i)}$  via backwards substitution:

## properties:

- no additional storage required
- $\bullet$  inherently sequential computation of  $\boldsymbol{x}$
- usually faster than Jacobi

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## Successive-Over-Relaxation (SOR)

- observation: Gauss-Seidel corrections are "too small"
- add an over-relaxation-factor  $\alpha$ :

• for 2D-Poisson: optimal  $\alpha$  ( $\approx$  1.7) improves convergence:  $\mathcal{O}(n^2) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(n^{3/2})$ 

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# Does It Always Work?

- simple answer: no (life is not that easy . . . )
- Jacobi: matrix A needs to be diagonally dominant
- Gauß-Seidel: matrix A needs to be positive definite
- How about performance?
  - → usually quite slow

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# Part II Conjugate Gradients

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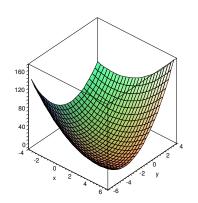
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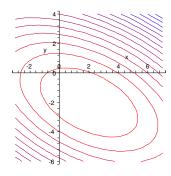
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## **Quadratic Forms**

A *quadratic form* is a scalar, quadratic function of a vector of the form:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^{T}Ax - b^{T}x + c$$
, where  $A = A^{T}$ 





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# Quadratic Forms (2)

The gradient of a quadratic form is defined as

$$f'(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(x) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

• 
$$f'(x) = Ax - b$$

• 
$$f'(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow Ax - b = 0 \Leftrightarrow Ax = b$$

 $\Rightarrow$  Ax = b equivalent to a **minimisation problem** (if A positive definite)

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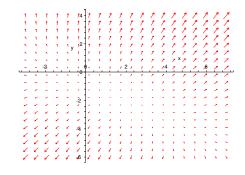
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# **Steepest Descent**

- gradient f'(x): direction of "steepest ascent"
- f'(x) = Ax b = -r (with residual r = b Ax)
- residual r: direction of "steepest descent"



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# Steepest Descent (2)

- basic idea to find minimum: move into direction of steepest descent
- most simple scheme:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + \alpha \mathbf{r}^{(i)}$$

- α constant ⇒ Richardson iteration (often considered as a relaxation method)
- better choice of α: move to lowest point in that direction
   ⇒ Steepest Descent

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# Steepest Descent – find $\alpha$

- task: *line search* along the line  $x^{(1)} = x^{(0)} + \alpha r^{(0)}$
- choose  $\alpha$  such that  $f(x^{(1)})$  is minimal:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} f(x^{(1)}) = 0$$

use chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} f(x^{(1)}) = f'(x^{(1)})^T \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} x^{(1)} = f'(x^{(1)})^T r^{(0)}$$

• remember  $f'(x^{(1)}) = -r^{(1)}$ , thus:

$$-\left(r^{(1)}\right)^{\prime}r^{(0)}\stackrel{!}{=}0$$

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# Steepest Descent – find $\alpha$ (2)

$$(r^{(1)})^T r^{(0)} = (b - Ax^{(1)})^T r^{(0)} = 0$$

$$(b - A(x^{(0)} + \alpha r^{(0)}))^T r^{(0)} = 0$$

$$(b - A(x^{(0)})^T r^{(0)} - \alpha (Ar^{(0)})^T r^{(0)} = 0$$

$$(r^{(0)})^T r^{(0)} - \alpha (r^{(0)})^T Ar^{(0)} = 0$$

Solve for  $\alpha$ :

$$\alpha = \frac{\left(r^{(0)}\right)^T A r^{(0)}}{\left(r^{(0)}\right)^T r^{(0)}}$$

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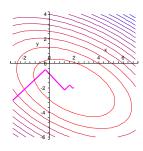
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# Steepest Descent – Algorithm

$$r^{(i)} = b - Ax^{(i)}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{(r^{(0)})^T A r^{(0)}}{(r^{(0)})^T r^{(0)}}$$

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + \alpha r^{(i)}$$



## Observations:

- rather slow convergence
- $\|\mathbf{e}^{(i)}\|_{A} \leq \left(\frac{\kappa-1}{\kappa+1}\right)^{i} \|\mathbf{e}^{(0)}\|_{A}$ , where  $\kappa = \lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$  (largest/smallest eigenvalues of A)
- many steps in the same direction

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# **Conjugate Directions**

- steepest descent takes repeated steps in the same direction
- obvious idea: try to do only one step in each direction
- possible approach: choose orthogonal search directions  $d^{(0)} \perp d^{(1)} \perp d^{(2)} \perp ...$
- notice: errors orthogonal to previous directions:  $e^{(1)} \perp d^{(0)}, e^{(2)} \perp d^{(1)} \perp d^{(0)}, \dots$

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# Conjugate Directions (2)

 $\bullet$  compute  $\alpha$  from

$$\left(d^{(0)}\right)^T e^{(1)} = \left(d^{(0)}\right)^T \left(e^{(0)} + \alpha d^{(0)}\right) = 0$$

• formula for  $\alpha$ :

$$\alpha = -\frac{\left(d^{(0)}\right)^T e^{(0)}}{\left(d^{(0)}\right)^T d^{(0)}}$$

• **but**: we don't know  $e^{(0)}$ 

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## A-Orthogonality

• make the search directions A-orthogonal:

$$\left(d^{(i)}\right)^T A d^{(j)} = 0$$

again: errors orthogonal to previous directions:

$$\left(e^{(i+1)}\right)^T A d^{(i)} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

• equiv. to minimisation in search direction  $d^{(i)}$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} f\left(x^{(i+1)}\right) = f'\left(\left(x^{(i+1)}\right)^T \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} x^{(i+1)}\right) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow -\left(r^{(i+1)}\right)^T d^{(i)} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left(d^{(i)}\right)^T A e^{(i+1)} = 0$$

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# **A-Conjugate Directions**

remember the formula for conjugate directions:

$$\alpha = -\frac{\left(d^{(0)}\right)^T e^{(0)}}{\left(d^{(0)}\right)^T d^{(0)}}$$

with A-orthogonality:

$$\alpha = -\frac{(d^{(i)})^T A e^{(i)}}{(d^{(i)})^T A d^{(i)}} = \frac{(d^{(i)})^T r^{(i)}}{(d^{(i)})^T A d^{(i)}}$$

 only one task left: find A-orthogonal search directions ATHENS 2007 – Parallel Numerical Simulation

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# A-Conjugate Directions (2)

classical approach to find orthogonal directions: conjugate Gram-Schmidt process:

- from linearly independent vectors  $u^{(0)}, u^{(1)}, \dots, u^{(i-1)}$
- construct orthogonal directions  $d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(i-1)}$

$$d^{(i)} = u^{(i)} + \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \beta_{ik} d^{(k)}$$
$$\beta_{ik} = -\frac{(u^{(i)})^T A d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^T A d^{(k)}}$$

- keep all old search vectors in memory
- $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  computational complexity

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# **Conjugate Gradients**

use residuals to construct conjugate directions:

$$d^{(i)} = r^{(i)} + \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \beta_{ik} d^{(k)}$$

directions  $d^{(i)}$  should be A-orthogonal:

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} (d^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(j)} = (r^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(j)} + \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \beta_{ik} (d^{(k)})^{T} A d^{(j)}$$

*d*-vectors are *A*-orthogonal, hence:

$$0 = (r^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(j)} + \beta_{ij} (d^{(j)})^{T} A d^{(j)} \quad \Rightarrow \beta_{ij} = -\frac{(r^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(j)}}{(d^{(j)})^{T} A d^{(j)}}$$

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# Conjugate Gradients – Status

conjugate directions:

$$\alpha_{i} = \frac{(d^{(i)})^{T} r^{(i)}}{(d^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(i)}}$$

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + \alpha_{i} d^{(i)}$$

use residuals to compute search directions:

$$d^{(i)} = r^{(i)} + \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \beta_{ik} d^{(k)}$$
$$\beta_{ik} = -\frac{(r^{(i)})^T A d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^T A d^{(k)}}$$

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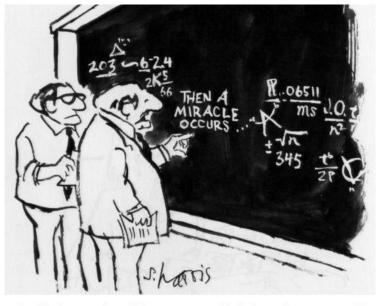
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"I think you should be more explicit here in step two."

from What's so Funny about Science? by Sidney Harris (1977)

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## A Miracle Occurs – Part 1

Two small contributions:

propagation of the error

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + \alpha_i d^{(i)}$$
  
 $x^{(i+1)} - x = x^{(i)} - x + \alpha_i d^{(i)}$   
 $e^{(i+1)} = e^{(i)} + \alpha_i d^{(i)}$ 

propagation of residuals

$$r^{(i+1)} = -Ae^{(i+1)} = -A\left(e^{(i)} + \alpha_i d^{(i)}\right)$$
  
 $\Rightarrow r^{(i+1)} = r^{(i)} - \alpha_i Ad^{(i)}$ 

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## A Miracle Occurs – Part 2

Orthogonality of the residuals:

- search directions are A-orthogonal
- only one step in each directions
- hence: error is A-orthogonal to previous search directions:  $(d^{(i)})^T A e^{(j)} = 0$ , for i < j
- residuals are orthogonal to previous search directions:  $(d^{(i)})^T r^{(j)} = 0$ , for i < j
- search directions are built from residuals: span  $\left\{d^{(0)}, \dots, d^{(i-1)}\right\}$  = span  $\left\{r^{(0)}, \dots, r^{(i-1)}\right\}$
- hence: residuals are orthogonal

$$(r^{(i)})^{T}r^{(j)} = 0, \quad i < j$$

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### A Miracle Occurs – Part 3

combine orthogonality and recurrence for residuals:

$$(r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(j+1)} = (r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(j)} - \alpha_{j} (r^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(j)}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{j} (r^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(j)} = (r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(j)} - (r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(j+1)}$$

•  $(r^{(i)})^T r^{(j)} = 0$ , if  $i \neq j$ :

$$(r^{(i)})^T A d^{(j)} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \frac{1}{\alpha_i} (r^{(i)})^T r^{(i)}, & i = j \\ -\frac{1}{\alpha_{i-1}} (r^{(i)})^T r^{(i)}, & i = j+1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$$

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### A Miracle Occurs - Part 4

• computation of  $\beta_{ii}$ :

$$\beta_{ik} = -\frac{(r^{(i)})^{T} A d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^{T} A d^{(k)}}$$

$$= \begin{cases} -\frac{(r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(i)}}{\alpha_{i} (d^{(i-1)})^{T} A d^{(i-1)}}, & i = j+1 \\ 0 & i > j+1 \end{cases}$$

• remember:  $\alpha_i = \frac{(d^{(i)})^T r^{(i)}}{(d^{(i)})^T A d^{(i)}}$ 

$$\Rightarrow \beta_{i} = -\frac{(r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(i)}}{(d^{(i-1)})^{T} r^{(i-1)}} = \frac{(r^{(i)})^{T} r^{(i)}}{(r^{(i-1)})^{T} r^{(i-1)}}$$

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# Conjugate Gradients - Algorithm

Start: 
$$d^{(0)} = r^{(0)} = b - Ax^{(0)}$$

2 
$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + \alpha_i d^{(i)}$$

$$r^{(i+1)} = r^{(i)} - \alpha_i Ad^{(i)}$$

$$\beta_{i+1} = \frac{\left(r^{(i+1)}\right)^T r^{(i+1)}}{\left(r^{(i)}\right)^T r^{(i)}}$$

$$d^{(i+1)} = r^{(i+1)} + \beta_{i+1} d^{(i)}$$

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### Conjugate Gradients – Convergence

#### **Convergence Analysis:**

uses Krylow subspace:

span 
$$\left\{r^{(0)}, Ar^{(0)}, A^2r^{(0)}, \dots, A^{i-1}r^{(0)}\right\}$$

"Krylow subspace method"

#### **Convergence Results:**

- in principle: direct method (n steps)
- in practice: iterative scheme

$$\left\| \mathbf{e}^{(i)} \right\|_{A} \le 2 \left( \frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1} \right)^{t} \left\| \mathbf{e}^{(0)} \right\|_{A}, \quad \kappa = \lambda_{\text{max}} / \lambda_{\text{min}}$$

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## Preconditioning

- convergence depends on matrix A
- idea: modify linear system

$$Ax = b \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad M^{-1}Ax = M^{-1}b,$$

then: convegence depends on matrix  $M^{-1}A$ 

• optimal preconditioner:  $M^{-1} = A^{-1}$ :

$$A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}b \Leftrightarrow x = A^{-1}b.$$

- in practice:
  - avoid explicit computation of  $M^{-1}A$
  - find an M similar to A, compute effect of  $M^{-1}$
  - find an  $M^{-1}$  similar to  $A^{-1}$

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Steepest Descent

Conjugate Directions

A-Orthogonality

Gradients

CG Algorithm

CG Convergence

### **CG** and **Preconditioning**

- just replace A by  $M^{-1}A$  in the algorithm??
- problem:  $M^{-1}A$  not necessarily symmetric (even if M and A both are)
- workaround: find  $EE^T = M$ , then:

$$Ax = b \quad \leadsto \quad E^{-1}AE^{-T}\hat{x} = E^{-1}b, \quad \hat{x} = E^{T}x$$

- undesirable, because E has to be computed (however, neither M nor  $M^{-1}$  might be known explicitly
- $\bullet \ \ \text{some re-computations} \to \text{next slide}$

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### CG with Preconditioner

Start: 
$$r^{(0)} = b - Ax^{(0)}$$
;  $d^{(0)} = M^{-1}r^{(0)}$ 

2 
$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} + \alpha_i d^{(i)}$$

$$r^{(i+1)} = r^{(i)} - \alpha_i A d^{(i)}$$

$$\beta_{i+1} = \frac{\left(r^{(i+1)}\right)^T M^{-1} r^{(i+1)}}{\left(r^{(i)}\right)^T M^{-1} r^{(i)}}$$

$$d^{(i+1)} = M^{-1}r^{(i+1)} + \beta_{i+1}d^{(i)}$$

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### **Implementation**

Preconditioning steps:  $M^{-1}r^{(i)}, M^{-1}r^{(i+1)}$ 

- $M^{-1}$  known then multiply  $M^{-1}r^{(i)}$
- M known, then solve  $My = r^{(i)}$  to obtain  $y = M^{-1}r^{(i)}$
- neither M, nor  $M^{-1}$  are known explicitly:
  - algorithm to solve  $My = r^{(i)}$  is sufficient!
  - → any approximate solver for Ae = r<sup>(i)</sup>
     algorithm to compute M<sup>-1</sup> is sufficient!
    - compute (sparse) approximate inverse
  - ightarrow compute (sparse) approximate inverse
- Examples: Mutigrid, Jacobi, ILU, SPAI, . . .

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**Quadratic Forms** 

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# Part III

# **Multigrid Methods**

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Multigrid Idea No 1

> nuitigria idea No !

A Two-Grid Method

Correction Scheme
- Components

The Multigri V-Cycle

More Multigrid Schemes

### Convergence of Relaxation Methods

#### Observation

- slow convergence
- high frequency error components are damped more efficiently
- smooth error components are reduced very slowly

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### **Convergence Analysis**

- remember iteration scheme:  $x^{(i+1)} = Mx^{(i)} + Nb$
- derive iterative scheme for the error  $e^{(i)} := x x^{(i)}$ :

$$e^{(i+1)} = x - x^{(i+1)} = x - Mx^{(i)} - Nb$$

- for **consistent** scheme, x is a fixpoint of the iteration (x = Mx Nb)
- hence:

$$e^{(i+1)} = Mx + Nb - Mx^{(i)} - Nb = Me^{(i)}$$
  
 $e^{(i)} = M^{i}e^{(0)}$ .

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### Convergence Analysis (2)

- iteration equation for error:  $e^{(i)} = M^i e^{(0)}$
- consider eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  and eigenvectors  $v_j$  of iteration matrix M:

$$Mv_j = \lambda_j v_j \quad \Rightarrow \quad M(\underbrace{\sum_j \alpha_j v_j}_{=:e^{(0)}}) = \sum_j \lambda_j \alpha_j v_j$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad M^i e^{(0)} = M^i (\sum_j \alpha_j v_j) = \sum_j \lambda_j^i \alpha_j v_j$$

- ullet convergence, if all  $|\lambda_i| < 1$
- ullet speed of convergence dominated by largest  $\lambda_j$

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### The Smoothing Property

- for 1D-Poisson: eigenvectors:  $\sin(k\pi j/n)$
- eigenvalues:  $4\sin^2(\frac{k\pi}{2n})$
- decompose the error  $e^{(i)}$  into eigenvector  $(\sin(k\pi x_j)$ , Fourier mode analysis)
- smallest eigenvalue of A (for k = 1):  $\mathcal{O}(n^{-2})$
- largest eigenvalue of  $M = I D_A^{-1}A$ :  $\mathcal{O}(1 n^{-2})$
- convergence determined by  $\mathcal{O}(1-n^{-2})$

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### The Smoothing Property (2)

#### Result of convergence analysis:

- The high frequency part (with respect to the underlying grid) is reduced quite quickly.
- The low frequency part (w.r.t. the grid) decreases only very slowly; actually the slower, the finer the grid is.
- ⇒ "smoothing property"

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## Multigrid Idea No. 1

- result from convergence analysis:
   "high-frequency error" is relative to mesh size
- on a sufficiently coarse grid, even very low frequencies can be "high-frequency" (if the mesh size is big)

### "Multigrid":

- use multiple grids to solve the system of equations
- on each grid, a certain range of error frequencies will be reduced efficiently

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### Multigrid Idea No. 2

#### Solve the problem on a coarser grid:

- will be comparably (very) fast
- can give us a good initial guess:
  - nested iteration/"poor man's multigrid"
  - unfortunately, will not improve a fine grid solution any further

#### ⇒ Idea No. 2: use the residual equation:

- solve Ae = r on a coarser grid
- leads to an approximation of the error e
- add this approximation to the fine-grid solution

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### A Two-Grid Method

#### Algorithm:

- relaxation/smoothing on the fine level system  $\Rightarrow$  solution  $x_h$
- 2 compute the **residual**  $r_h = b_h A_h x_h$
- **9** restriction of  $r_h$  to the coarse grid  $\Omega_H$
- **a** compute a **solution** to  $A_H e_H = r_H$
- **1 interpolate** the coarse grid solution  $e_H$  to the fine grid  $\Omega_h$
- $oldsymbol{\circ}$  add the resulting **correction** to  $x_h$
- again, relaxation/smoothing on the fine grid

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### **Correction Scheme – Components**

smoother: reduce the high-frequency error

components, and get a smooth error

restriction: transfer residual from fine grid to coarse grid, for example by

- injection
- (full) weighting

coarse grid equation: (acts as) discretisation of the PDE on the coarse grid

interpolation: transfer coarse grid solution/correction from coarse grid to fine grid

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### The Multigrid V-Cycle

- smoothing on the fine level system  $\Rightarrow$  solution  $x_l$
- 2 compute the residual  $r_l = b_l A_l x_l$
- **1** restriction of  $r_l$  to the coarse grid  $\Omega_{l-1}$
- solve coarse grid system  $A_{l-1}e_{l-1} = r_{l-1}$  by a recursive call to the V-cycle algorithm
- interpolate the coarse grid solution  $e_{l-1}$  to the fine grid  $\Omega_l$
- $oldsymbol{\circ}$  add the resulting correction to  $x_l$
- post-smoothing on the fine grid

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#### The Multigrid V-Cycle More Multigrid

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### V-Cycle – Implementation

- on the coarsest grid: direct solution
- number of smoothing steps is typically very small (1 or 2)

### Cost (storage and computing time):

- 1D:  $c \cdot n + c \cdot n/2 + c \cdot n/4 + ... \le 2c \cdot n$
- 2D:  $c \cdot n + c \cdot n/4 + c \cdot n/16 + ... \le 4/3c \cdot n$
- 3D:  $c \cdot n + c \cdot n/8 + c \cdot n/64 + ... \le 8/7c \cdot n$
- overall costs are dominated by the costs of the finest grid

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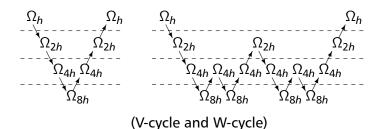
- Components

The Multigrid V-Cycle

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### The W-Cycle

 perform two coarse grid correction steps instead of one



- more expensive
- useful in situations where the coarse grid correction is not very accurate

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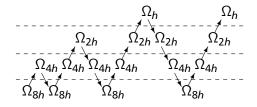
ne Multigrid Cycle

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# The Full Multigrid V-Cycle (FMV)

#### Recursive algorithm:

- perform an FMV-cycle on the next coarser grid to get a good initial solution
- interpolate this initial guess to the current grid
- perform a V-cycle to improve the solution



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### **Speed of Convergence**

- fastest method around (if all components are chosen carefully)
- "textbook multigrid efficiency":

$$\left\| e^{(m+1)} \right\| \leq \gamma \left\| e^{(m)} \right\|,$$

where convergence rate  $\gamma$  < 1 (esp.  $\gamma$  << 1) is independent of the number of unknowns

- ⇒ constant number of multigrid steps to obtain a given number of digits
- ⇒ overall computational work increases only linearly with the number of unknowns

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### Convergence Rates (2)

#### For Poisson Problems ("Model Problem"):

- $\mathcal{O}(n)$  to solve up to "level of truncation"
- "level of truncation":  $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$
- O(n) is achieved by FMV-Cycle
   (1 or 2 cycles sufficient)

#### For Other Problems:

- OK for strongly elliptic problems
- multigrid variants for non-linear problems, parabolic/hyperbolic, . . .
- achieving "textbook efficiency" usually a demanding task

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