AMath 483/583 — Lecture 23

Outline:

- · Linear systems: LU factorization and condition number
- · Heat equation and discretization
- · Iterative methods

Sample codes:

- \$UWHPSC/codes/openmp/jacobi1d omp1.f90
- \$UWHPSC/codes/openmp/jacobi1d_omp2.f90

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Announcements

Homework 6 is in the notes and due next Friday.

Quizzes for this week's lectures due next Wednesday.

Office hours today 9:30 - 10:20.

Next week:

Monday: no class

Wednesday: Guest lecture —

Brad Chamberlain, Cray

Chapel: A Next-Generation Partitioned Global Address Space (PGAS) Language

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DGESV — Solves a general linear system

SUBROUTINE DGESV(N, NRHS, A, LDA, IPIV, B, LDB, INFO)

NRHS = number of right hand sides

B = matrix whose columns are right hand side(s) on input solution vector(s) on output.

LDB = leading dimension of B.

INFO = integer returning 0 if successful.

A = matrix on input, L,U factors on output,

IPIV = Returns pivot vector (permutation of rows)

integer, dimension(N)

Row I was interchanged with row IPIV(I).

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Gaussian elimination as factorization

If A is nonsingular it can be factored as

$$PA = LU$$

where

P is a permutation matrix (rows of identity permuted),

 ${\it L}$ is lower triangular with 1's on diagonal,

 ${\cal U}$ is upper triangular.

After returning from dgesv:

A contains L and U (without the diagonal of L),

IPIV gives ordering of rows in P.

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Gaussian elimination as factorization

Example:

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrr} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1/2 & -1/3 & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 4 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 1.5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/3 \end{array}\right]$$

IPIV = (2,3,1)

and A comes back from DGESV as:

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc} 4 & 3 & 6 \\ 1/2 & 1.5 & 1 \\ 1/2 & -1/3 & 1/3 \end{array}\right]$$

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dgesv examples

See \$UWHPSC/codes/lapack/random.

Sample codes that solve the linear system Ax = b with a random $n \times n$ matrix A, where the value n is run-time input.

randomsys1.f90 is with static array allocation.

randomsys2.f90 is with dynamic array allocation.

randomsys3.f90 also estimates condition number of A.

$$\kappa(A) = ||A|| \, ||A^{-1}||$$

Can bound relative error in solution in terms of relative error in data using this:

$$Ax^* = b^* \text{ and } A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b} \implies \frac{\|\tilde{x} - x^*\|}{\|x^*\|} \leq \kappa(A) \frac{\|\tilde{b} - b^*\|}{\|b^*\|}$$

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Heat Equation / Diffusion Equation

Partial differential equation (PDE) for u(x,t)in one space dimension and time.

 $\it u$ represents temperature in a 1-dimensional metal rod.

Or concentration of a chemical diffusing in a tube of water.

The PDE is

$$u_t(x,t) = Du_{xx}(x,t) + f(x,t)$$

where subscripts represent partial derivatives,

D =diffusion coefficient (assumed constant in space & time),

f(x,t) = source term (heat or chemical being added/removed).

Also need initial conditions u(x,0)

and boundary conditions $u(x_1,t)$, $u(x_2,t)$.

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Steady state diffusion

If f(x,t) = f(x) does not depend on time and if the boundary conditions don't depend on time, then u(x,t) will converge towards steady state distribution satisfying

$$0 = Du_{xx}(x) + f(x)$$

(by setting $u_t = 0$.)

This is now an ordinary differential equation (ODE) for u(x).

We can solve this on an interval, say $0 \le x \le 1$ with

Boundary conditions:

$$u(0) = \alpha, \qquad u(1) = \beta.$$

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Steady state diffusion

More generally: Take D = 1 or absorb in f,

$$u_{xx}(x) = -f(x)$$
 for $0 \le x \le 1$,

Boundary conditions:

$$u(0) = \alpha,$$
 $u(1) = \beta.$

Can be solved exactly if we can integrate f twice and use boundary conditions to choose the two constants of integration.

Example: $\alpha = 20$, $\beta = 60$, f(x) = 0 (no heat source)

Solution:
$$u(x) = \alpha + x(\beta - \alpha)$$
 $\implies u''(x) = 0.$

No heat source \implies linear variation in steady state ($u_{xx} = 0$).

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Steady state diffusion

More generally: Take D=1 or absorb in f,

$$u_{xx}(x) = -f(x)$$
 for $0 \le x \le 1$,

Boundary conditions:

$$u(0) = \alpha,$$
 $u(1) = \beta.$

Can be solved exactly if we can integrate f twice and use boundary conditions to choose the two constants of integration.

More interesting example:

Example: $\alpha = 20, \ \beta = 60, \ f(x) = 100e^x,$

Solution: $u(x) = (100e - 60)x + 120 - 100e^x$.

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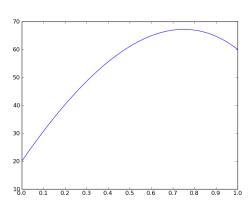
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Steady state diffusion





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Finite difference method

Define grid points $x_i = i\Delta x$ in interval $0 \le x \le 1$, where

$$\Delta x = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

So $x_0=0,\ x_{n+1}=1,$ and the n grid points $x_1,\ x_2,\ \dots,\ x_n$ are equally spaced inside the interval.

Let $U_i \approx u(x_i)$ denote approximate solution.

We know $U_0 = \alpha$ and $U_{n+1} = \beta$ from boundary conditions.

Idea: Replace differential equation for u(x) by system of nalgebraic equations for U_i values (i = 1, 2, ..., n).

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Finite difference method

$$U_i \approx u(x_i)$$

$$u_x(x_{i+1/2}) \approx \frac{U_{i+1} - U_i}{\Delta x}$$

$$u_x(x_{i-1/2}) \approx \frac{U_i - U_{i-1}}{\Delta x}$$

So we can approximate second derivative at x_i by:

$$u_{xx}(x_i) \approx \frac{1}{\Delta x} \left(\frac{U_{i+1} - U_i}{\Delta x} - \frac{U_i - U_{i-1}}{\Delta x} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left(U_{i-1} - 2U_i + U_{i+1} \right)$$

This gives coupled system of n linear equations:

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left(U_{i-1} - 2U_i + U_{i+1} \right) = -f(x_i)$$

for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. With $U_0 = \alpha$ and $U_{n+1} = \beta$.

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Tridiagonal linear system

$$\alpha - 2U_1 + U_2 = -\Delta x^2 f(x_1)$$
 $(i = 1)$
 $U_1 - 2U_2 + U_3 = -\Delta x^2 f(x_2)$ $(i = 2)$

For n = 5:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \\ U_3 \\ U_4 \\ U_5 \end{bmatrix} = -\Delta x^2 \begin{bmatrix} f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \\ f(x_3) \\ f(x_4) \\ f(x_5) \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}.$$

General $n \times n$ system requires $O(n^3)$ flops to solve.

Tridiagonal $n \times n$ system requires O(n) flops to solve.

Could use LAPACK routine dgtsv.

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Heat equation in 2 dimensions

One-dimensional equation generalizes to

$$u_t(x, y, t) = D(u_{xx}(x, y, t) + u_{yy}(x, y, t)) + f(x, y, t)$$

on some domain in the x-y plane, with initial and boundary conditions.

We will only consider rectangle $0 \le x \le 1$, $0 \le y \le 1$.

Steady state problem (with D = 1):

$$u_{xx}(x,y) + u_{yy}(x,y) = -f(x,y)$$

This is a PDE in two spatial variables. (Poisson Problem)

Laplace's equation if $f(x,y) \equiv 0$. $\nabla^2 = (\partial_x^2 + \partial_y^2)$ is the Laplacian operator.

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Finite difference equations for 2D Poisson problem

Let $U_{ij} \approx u(x_i, y_j)$.

Replace differential equation

$$u_{xx}(x,y) + u_{yy}(x,y) = -f(x,y)$$

by algebraic equations

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left(U_{i-1,j} - 2U_{i,j} + U_{i+1,j} \right) + \frac{1}{\Delta y^2} \left(U_{i,j-1} - 2U_{i,j} + U_{i,j+1} \right) = -f(x_i, y_j)$$

If $\Delta x = \Delta y = h$:

$$\frac{1}{h^2} \left(U_{i-1,j} + U_{i+1,j} + U_{i,j-1} + U_{i,j+1} - 4U_{i,j} \right) = -f(x_i, y_j).$$

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Finite difference equations for 2D Poisson problem

$$\frac{1}{h^2} \left(U_{i-1,j} + U_{i+1,j} + U_{i,j-1} + U_{i,j+1} - 4U_{i,j} \right) = -f(x_i, y_j).$$

On $n \times n$ grid ($\Delta x = \Delta y = 1/(n+1)$) this gives a linear system of n^2 equations in n^2 unknowns.

The above equation must be satisfied for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ and $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n.$

Matrix is $n^2 \times n^2$,

e.g. on 100 by 100 grid, matrix is $10,000 \times 10,000$. Contains $(10,000)^2 = 100,000,000$ elements.

Matrix is sparse: each row has at most 5 nonzeros out of n^2 elements! But structure is no longer tridiagonal.

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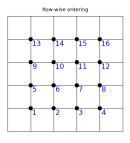
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Finite difference equations for 2D Poisson problem





Matrix has block tridiagonal structure:

$$A = \frac{1}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} T & I & & & \\ I & T & I & & \\ & I & T & I & \\ & & I & T & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} T & I & & & \\ I & T & I & & \\ & I & T & I \\ & & I & T \end{bmatrix} \qquad T = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 & & \\ 1 & -4 & 1 & \\ & 1 & -4 & 1 \\ & & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Iterative methods

Back to one space dimension first...

Coupled system of n linear equations:

$$(U_{i-1} - 2U_i + U_{i+1}) = -\Delta x^2 f(x_i)$$

for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. With $U_0 = \alpha$ and $U_{n+1} = \beta$.

Iterative method starts with initial guess $U^{[0]}$ to solution and then improves $U^{[k]}$ to get $U^{[k+1]}$ for $k=0, 1, \ldots$

Note: Generally does not involve modifying matrix A.

Do not have to store matrix A at all, only know about stencil.

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Jacobi iteration

$$(U_{i-1} - 2U_i + U_{i+1}) = -\Delta x^2 f(x_i)$$

Solve for U_i :

$$U_{i} = \frac{1}{2} \left(U_{i-1} + U_{i+1} + \Delta x^{2} f(x_{i}) \right).$$

Note: With no heat source, f(x) = 0,

the temperature at each point is average of neighbors.

Suppose $U^{[k]}$ is a approximation to solution. Set

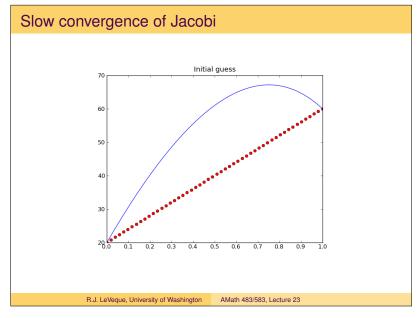
$$U_i^{[k+1]} = \frac{1}{2} \left(U_{i-1}^{[k]} + U_{i+1}^{[k]} + \Delta x^2 f(x_i) \right) \ \, \text{for} \, i = 1, \, \, 2, \, \, \ldots, \, \, n.$$

Repeat for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ until convergence.

Can be shown to converge (eventually... very slow!)

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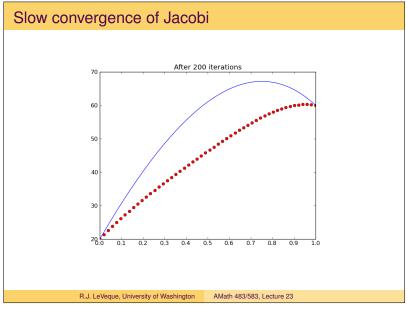
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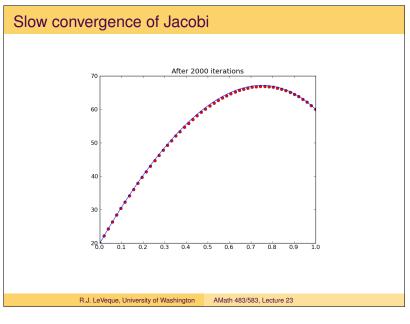


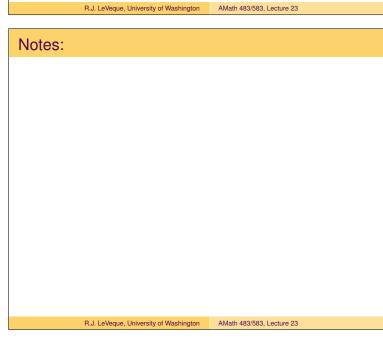
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Iterative methods

Jacobi iteration is about the worst possible iterative method.

But it's very simple, and useful as a test for parallelization.

Better iterative methods:

- Gauss-Seidel
- Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR)
- Conjugate gradients
- · Preconditioned conjugate gradients
- Multigrid

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Iterative methods - initialization

```
! allocate storage for boundary points too:
allocate(x(0:n+1), u(0:n+1), f(0:n+1))
dx = 1.d0 / (n+1.d0)
!$omp parallel do
do i=0, n+1
   ! grid points:
   x(i) = i*dx
   ! source term:
   f(i) = 100.*exp(x(i))
    ! initial guess (linear function):
   u(i) = alpha + x(i) * (beta-alpha)
    enddo
```

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Jacobi iteration in Fortran

```
uold = u ! starting values before updating
do iter=1, maxiter
     dumax = 0.d0
     do i=1, n u(i) = 0.5d0*(uold(i-1) + uold(i+1) + dx**2*f(i)) dumax = max(dumax, abs(u(i)-uold(i)))
     ! check for convergence: if (dumax .lt. tol) exit
     uold = u ! for next iteration
```

Note: we must use old value at i-1 for Jacobi.

Otherwise we get the Gauss-Seidel method.

```
u(i) = 0.5d0*(u(i-1) + u(i+1) + dx**2*f(i))
```

This actually converges faster!

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Jacobi with OpenMP parallel do (fine grain)

See: \$UWHPSC/codes/openmp/jacobi1d_omp1.f90

```
uold = u ! starting values before updating
do iter=1, maxiter
      dumax = 0.d0
      !$omp parallel do reduction(max : dumax)
do i=1,n
  u(i) = 0.5d0*(uold(i-1) + uold(i+1) + dx**2*f(i))
  dumax = max(dumax, abs(u(i)-uold(i)))
         enddo
      ! check for convergence: if (dumax .lt. tol) exit
      !$omp parallel do do i=1,n
            i=1,n
uold(i) = u(i) ! for next iteration
      enddo
enddo
```

Note: Forking threads twice each iteration.

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Jacobi with OpenMP - coarse grain

General Approach:

- Fork threads only once at start of program.
- Each thread is responsible for some portion of the arrays, from i=istart to i=iend.
- Each iteration, must copy u to uold, update u, check for convergence.
- Convergence check requires coordination between threads to get global dumax.
- Print out final result after leaving parallel block

See code in the repository or the notes: \$UWHPSC/codes/openmp/jacobi1d omp2.f90

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