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Stationary Linear Iterative Methods in parallel

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- The picture in the title page is not mine. It was included in the \LaTeX Beamer template and I assume it is OK to use it.
- All source code and the report can be found at: <https://gitlab.com/Drunte/public-sor>
- Sources can be found in the report.
- Most proofs will be omitted in this presentation, see the report instead.
- The equation at the end of section 5.4 in the report should be:

$$A_{RB} = PAP^T$$

- Theorem 4 should conclude: $\kappa(A) = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$

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- Partial differential equations



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- Partial differential equations
- PDE's are hard to solve exactly.



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- So solutions must be approximated instead.



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- Approximated by a linear equation system.



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- So solutions must be approximated instead.
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- Approximated by a linear equation system.
- Options for solving said systems.



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- So solutions must be approximated instead.
- Poisson type is the target of investigation.
- Approximated by a linear equation system.
- Options for solving said systems.
- Increased performance by working in parallel.



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- Increased performance by working in parallel.
- Due to strong coupling: a remedy is Red-Black ordering.



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- So solutions must be approximated instead.
- Poisson type is the target of investigation.
- Approximated by a linear equation system.
- Options for solving said systems.
- Increased performance by working in parallel.
- Due to strong coupling: a remedy is Red-Black ordering.
- Implementation details, experiment results and conclusions.



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Poisson's equation

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Poisson's equation is given by:

$$-\Delta u(x) = f(x), \quad x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n,$$

$$u(x) = g(x), \quad x \in \partial\Omega.$$

Where $u(x)$ is the solution, x is our independent variable, Ω is a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^n , $\partial\Omega$ is its boundary, $f(x)$ describes the problem, $g(x)$ is the boundary conditions and $-\Delta$ is the Laplace operator.

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- We want a linear system on the form: $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$



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- We want a linear system on the form: $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$
- First we partition Ω into an equidistant grid of cells.



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- We want a linear system on the form: $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$
- First we partition Ω into an equidistant grid of cells.

n^2-n	n^2-n+1	n^2-n+2	...	n^2-1
...
$2n$	$2n+1$	$2n+2$...	$3n-1$
n	$n+1$	$n+2$...	$2n-1$
0	1	2	...	$n-1$



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-
- Now \mathbf{f} can be generated by evaluating $f(x)$ over each cell center.



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0	1	2	...	$n-1$

-
- Now \mathbf{f} can be generated by evaluating $f(x)$ over each cell center.
- Likewise, \mathbf{u} will approximate $u(x)$ at these cell centers.

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- We want a linear system on the form: $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}$
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n	$n+1$	$n+2$...	$2n-1$
0	1	2	...	$n-1$

- Now \mathbf{f} can be generated by evaluating $f(x)$ over each cell center.
- Likewise, \mathbf{u} will approximate $u(x)$ at these cell centers.
- The derivation of A comes next.

Symmetric difference approximation

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For simplicity i chose to use a square equidistant grid and square $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$.

The $-\Delta$ operator can be approximated by a matrix in different ways. The one i chose was the symmetric central finite difference scheme. From the definition of the derivative we get:

- The two discrete derivatives: $f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$ and $f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x)-f(x-h)}{h}$.



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- The two discrete derivatives: $f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$ and $f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x)-f(x-h)}{h}$.
- Combining these two to approximate the second order derivative yields:

$$f''(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)}{h^2}$$



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- Combining these two to approximate the second order derivative yields:

$$f''(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)}{h^2}$$

- Now taking second derivatives in two different directions and negating we get:

$$-\Delta u \approx \frac{-u(v_1, v_2 + h) - u(v_1 - h, v_2) + 4u(v_1, v_2) - u(v_1 + h, v_2) - u(v_1, v_2 - h)}{h^2}$$



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5-point stencil

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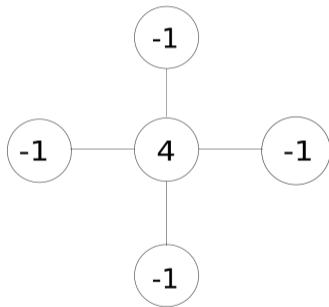
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This expression can be represented by a stencil after multiplying the h^2 factor.



Sparsity pattern

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The resulting matrix has the following sparsity pattern:



The full line on the main diagonal has all 4's and the dotted lines are all -1.
For a grid of size $n \times n$ the matrix is of size $m \times m$ with $m = n^2$.

Preliminaries

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Some notations.

- x_i : the i 'th element of a vector x .
- $A_{i,j}$: the element of a matrix A , of row i and column j .
- A^{-1} : the inverse of a matrix A .
- A^T : the transpose of a matrix A .
- $u^T v$: the inner product of two vectors u and v .
- $x^{(k)}$: the k 'th iterate of some iterative process.
- $\lambda(A)$: the set of eigenvalues of A .
- $\lambda \in \lambda(A)$: λ is an eigenvalue of A .

Existence and uniqueness

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A linear equation system $Ax = b$ has a unique solution given by:

$$x = A^{-1}b$$

if and only if:

- A is non-singular.
- A has full rank.
- $b \in \text{range}(A)$.
- $\lambda \neq 0 \quad \forall \lambda \in \lambda(A)$
- (other equivalent properties are omitted).



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Symmetric positive definite

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A symmetric positive definite, SPD, matrix has the following properties:

- Symmetry: $A = A^T$.



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A symmetric positive definite, SPD, matrix has the following properties:

- Symmetry: $A = A^T$.
- $\lambda > 0 \quad \forall \lambda \in \lambda(A)$



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A symmetric positive definite, SPD, matrix has the following properties:

- Symmetry: $A = A^T$.
- $\lambda > 0 \quad \forall \lambda \in \lambda(A)$
- For any $x \neq 0$, $x^T Ax > 0$



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A symmetric positive definite, SPD, matrix has the following properties:

- Symmetry: $A = A^T$.
- $\lambda > 0 \quad \forall \lambda \in \lambda(A)$
- For any $x \neq 0$, $x^T Ax > 0$
- All SPD matrices has full rank.



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The symmetric difference matrix is SPD

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Short proof by Gershgorin circle theorem.

- A is symmetric.



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Short proof by Gershgorin circle theorem.

- A is symmetric.
- Since A is weakly diagonally dominant all eigenvalues lie in the circle(interval) around 4 with radius 4.



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Short proof by Gershgorin circle theorem.

- A is symmetric.
- Since A is weakly diagonally dominant all eigenvalues lie in the circle(interval) around 4 with radius 4.
- Due to the irreducible property, A is non-singular and thus this interval is half-open.



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- All eigenvalues are in the half-open set $(0,8]$.



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- Due to the irreducible property, A is non-singular and thus this interval is half-open.
- All eigenvalues are in the half-open set $(0,8]$.
- no eigenvalue is 0.



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- Due to the irreducible property, A is non-singular and thus this interval is half-open.
- All eigenvalues are in the half-open set $(0,8]$.
- no eigenvalue is 0.
- All eigenvalues are > 0 .



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Eigenvalues and condition number

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The eigenvalues of A are given by:

$$\lambda_k = 4 \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi i}{2(n+1)}\right) + 4 \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi j}{2(n+1)}\right), \quad k = i + (j-1)n, \quad i, j = 1..n.$$

The condition number of A is:

$$\kappa(A) = \frac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}} \approx \frac{8}{8 \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2(n+1)}\right)} \approx \frac{1}{\frac{\pi^2}{4(n+1)^2}} = \frac{4(n+1)^2}{\pi^2} = \mathcal{O}(n^2).$$

Here we used the small angles approximation of \sin .

Lipschitz continuity

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- The spectral radius of a matrix, $\rho(A)$, is given by: $\rho(A) = \max_{\lambda \in \lambda(A)} |\lambda|$.



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- The spectral radius of a matrix, $\rho(A)$, is given by: $\rho(A) = \max_{\lambda \in \lambda(A)} |\lambda|$.
- A mapping $\phi : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is said to be globally Lipschitz continuous if and only if:

$$\|\phi(x) - \phi(y)\| \leq L\|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m,$$

holds for some $L \in \mathbb{R}^+$. The smallest such L is called the Lipschitz constant of ϕ . If $L < 1$ then ϕ is said to be a contraction.



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holds for some $L \in \mathbb{R}^+$. The smallest such L is called the Lipschitz constant of ϕ . If $L < 1$ then ϕ is said to be a contraction.

- An affine mapping $\psi : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ of the form: $\psi(x) = Mx + c$ with $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ and $x, c \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is Lipschitz continuous with Lipschitz constant $L = \rho(M)$.

Banach fixed-point theorem

- Let ϕ be a Lipschitz continuous mapping and consider the fixed-point problem:

$$x^* = \phi(x^*), \quad \text{for some } x^* \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

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Banach fixed-point theorem

- Let ϕ be a Lipschitz continuous mapping and consider the fixed-point problem:

$$x^* = \phi(x^*), \quad \text{for some } x^* \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

- A solution exists and is unique if and only if ϕ is a contraction.

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- Let ϕ be a Lipschitz continuous mapping and consider the fixed-point problem:

$$x^* = \phi(x^*), \quad \text{for some } x^* \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

- A solution exists and is unique if and only if ϕ is a contraction.
- The fixed-point problem can be solved by a process called fixed-point iteration, given by:

$$x^{(k+1)} = \phi(x^{(k)})$$

where $x^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ denotes the k 'th iterate, and is started by an initial guess $x^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.



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Banach fixed-point theorem

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- Let ϕ be a Lipschitz continuous mapping and consider the fixed-point problem:

$$x^* = \phi(x^*), \quad \text{for some } x^* \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

- A solution exists and is unique if and only if ϕ is a contraction.
- The fixed-point problem can be solved by a process called fixed-point iteration, given by:

$$x^{(k+1)} = \phi(x^{(k)})$$

where $x^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ denotes the k 'th iterate, and is started by an initial guess $x^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

- The fixed-point iteration converges globally to a unique x^* independent of initial guess $x^{(0)}$.

$$x^* = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(k)}.$$

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We want to solve $Ax = b$.

- First option: finding A^{-1} and multiply by b .



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The End

We want to solve $Ax = b$.

- First option: finding A^{-1} and multiply by b .
- This won't work for several reasons.



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The End

We want to solve $Ax = b$.

- First option: finding A^{-1} and multiply by b .
- This won't work for several reasons.
 - Finding A^{-1} needs more memory than we have and it takes too long.



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We want to solve $Ax = b$.

- First option: finding A^{-1} and multiply by b .
- This won't work for several reasons.
 - Finding A^{-1} needs more memory than we have and it takes too long.
 - It suffers from instability and ill-conditionness.



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We want to solve $Ax = b$.

- First option: finding A^{-1} and multiply by b .
- This won't work for several reasons.
 - Finding A^{-1} needs more memory than we have and it takes too long.
 - It suffers from instability and ill-conditionness.
- Second option: LU or Cholesky.



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We want to solve $Ax = b$.

- First option: finding A^{-1} and multiply by b .
- This won't work for several reasons.
 - Finding A^{-1} needs more memory than we have and it takes too long.
 - It suffers from instability and ill-conditionness.
- Second option: LU or Cholesky.
- These won't work either for the same reasons above.

Iteration methods

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Why iterate?

- No memory expensive factorizations.



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Why iterate?

- No memory expensive factorizations.
- Matrix-vector multiplication is fast for sparse matrices.



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Why iterate?

- No memory expensive factorizations.
- Matrix-vector multiplication is fast for sparse matrices.
- Avoid accuracy decay due to ill-conditionness.



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Stationary linear iterative methods, SLIM

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The core idea for SLIM methods is to formulate $Ax = b$ as a fixed-point problem and then solve it by fixed-point iteration.

There are different ways to achieve this, all based on a splitting of the form: $A = A_1 + A_2$

- $Ax = b$
- $(A_1 + A_2)x = b$
- $A_1x = -A_2x + b$
- $x = -A_1^{-1}A_2x + A_1^{-1}b = Mx + c$

A_1 should be chosen such that it is easy to invert/solve with for example forward/backward substitution and it should be a good approximate inverse to A . M is called the iteration matrix for the method. Convergence of the method is guaranteed if $\rho(M) < 1$. SPD matrices has this property.

Jacobi

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Consider splittings on the form $A = L + D + U$. If we choose $A_1 = D$, $A_2 = L + U$ we get the Jacobi method with iteration matrix:

$$M_{JAC} = -D^{-1}(L + U)$$



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Gauss-Seidel

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If we instead choose $A_1 = L + D$, $A_2 = U$ we get the Gauss-Seidel method with iteration matrix:

$$M_{GS} = -(D + L)^{-1} U$$



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Successive over relaxation, SOR

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Similar to Gauss-Seidel but we introduce a weight factor ω as an extra degree of freedom. The benefit will be apparent later. SOR with $\omega = 1$ is the Gauss-Seidel method. The iteration matrix for SOR is:

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



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Convergence rate

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The convergence rate of the SLIM methods are given by:

$$\|x^{(k+1)} - x^{(k)}\| \leq \rho(M)^k \|x^{(1)} - x^{(0)}\|$$

Thus smaller spectral radius is better.



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Relation between spectral radii

Given $0 < \mu = \rho(M_{JAC}) < 1$ the formula for the spectral radius of $M_{SOR}(\omega)$ is given by:

$$\rho(M_{SOR}(\omega)) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4}(\omega\mu + \sqrt{\omega^2\mu^2 - 4(\omega-1)})^2 & 0 < \omega \leq \omega_{opt}, \\ \omega - 1 & \omega_{opt} \leq \omega < 2. \end{cases}$$

With ω_{opt} :

$$\omega_{opt} = 1 + \left(\frac{\mu}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \mu^2}} \right)^2$$

This gives:

$$0 < \rho(M_{SOR}(\omega_{opt})) < \rho(M_{SOR}(1)) = \rho(M_{GS}) = \mu^2 < \rho(M_{JAC}) = \mu < 1$$

μ can be computed via this formula:

$$1 - \frac{\lambda_{min}}{4} = \rho(M_{JAC}) = \frac{\lambda_{max}}{4} - 1$$

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Krylov subspace methods

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Other iterative methods are GMRES and CG.

- These methods are not suited for solving systems with spread out eigenvalues.



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Other iterative methods are GMRES and CG.

- These methods are not suited for solving systems with spread out eigenvalues.
- A remedy is to use a preconditioner.



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Other iterative methods are GMRES and CG.

- These methods are not suited for solving systems with spread out eigenvalues.
- A remedy is to use a preconditioner.
- The SLIM-methods can be used as preconditioners.



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Multi-grid methods

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- Multi-grid methods requires some attention in design.



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- Multi-grid methods requires some attention in design.
- They require a full solve at the coarsest level.



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- Multi-grid methods requires some attention in design.
- They require a full solve at the coarsest level.
- This solve has to be done by some other method.



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- Multi-grid methods requires some attention in design.
- They require a full solve at the coarsest level.
- This solve has to be done by some other method.
- For example CG with SOR preconditioner.



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- Multi-grid methods requires some attention in design.
- They require a full solve at the coarsest level.
- This solve has to be done by some other method.
- For example CG with SOR preconditioner.
- Another option is to mimic the non-linear case, FASMG, and not do a full solve.



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- Multi-grid methods requires some attention in design.
- They require a full solve at the coarsest level.
- This solve has to be done by some other method.
- For example CG with SOR preconditioner.
- Another option is to mimic the non-linear case, FASMG, and not do a full solve.
- Instead of the full solve, do a number of iterations of a SLIM preconditioner.

Algorithm choice and test problem

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The SLIM methods were chosen due to their secondary use case as preconditioners. As a test problem for the experiments the following choices were made for simplicity.

- $f(x, y) = \sin(\pi x) \cdot \sin(\pi y)$
- $\Omega = [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$
- $g(x, y) \equiv 0$



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Parallelism

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We want a parallel implementation for increased performance. There are some pitfalls where the performance will be similar to a sequential implementation.

In this work parallelism through MPI was chosen over shared memory parallelization. Each process gets a partition of the full problem and need to share its data with its neighbouring processes. This communication was achieved with point-to-point communication.



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The order matters

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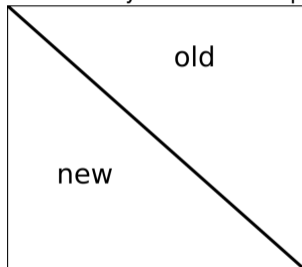
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When we try to solve the equations with forward SOR we encounter a problem immediately.



In order to solve the first equation we need the newly updated values from the neighbouring process. This will cause a waiting problem.



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The order matters

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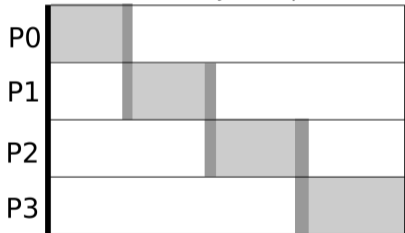
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The workflow this way is sequential, only one process has any work to do at a time.



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Red-Black order

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The remedy is to reorder the equations in the so-called Red-Black order.

21	9	22	10	23	11
6	18	7	19	8	20
15	3	16	4	17	5
0	12	1	13	2	14



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New sparsity pattern

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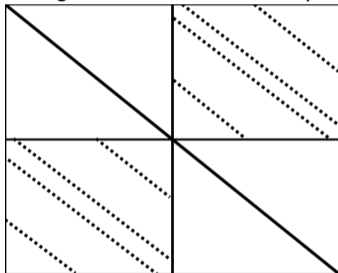
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This gives the matrix a new sparsity pattern.



Now when we apply forward SOR every process has work to do since they only need old values for the first half of the equations.

Red-Black SOR

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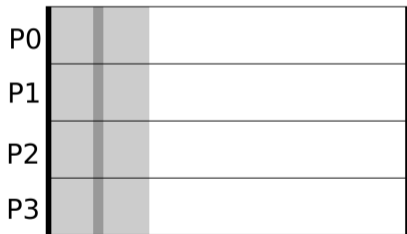
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The key insight is that we can solve the original system with a different order, the Red-Black order, instead of forward SOR. This way we avoid shuffling memory around. The workflow is now much improved.



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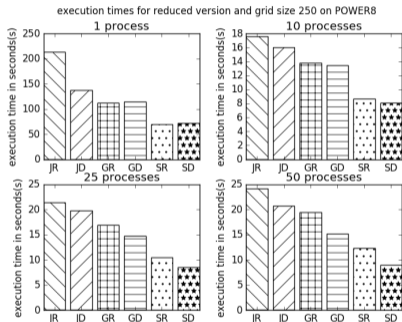
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The experiments were performed on the POWER8 server at LTH. Some results:



Here we can see that going from 1 to 10 processes is a large improvement, whereas going to 25 or 50 brings no benefit.

Experiments continued

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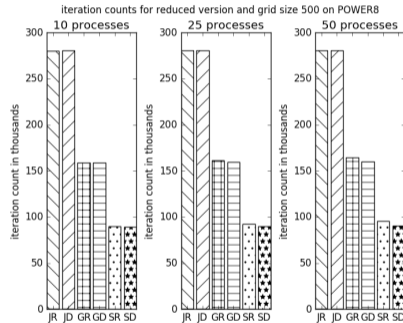
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In another experiment we got:



Here we can see that the iteration count agrees somewhat with the theoretical estimate.

Conclusion and continued work

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- SOR is faster than GS which is faster than Jacobi.
- More processes is faster for larger problems, up to a point.
- More processes for small problems gives no benefit. It can even reduce performance.
- Domain decomposition is slightly faster than by rows.
- Reduced and full versions are very similar in performance.

The next step is to implement these methods on a GPU, which i propose for continued work.

Questions

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All source code and the report can be found at: <https://gitlab.com/Drunte/public-sor>
Questions?



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