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Non-linear additive Schwarz preconditioners and application in computational fluid dynamics

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Xiao-Chuan Cai^{1,*}, David E. Keyes^{2,†} and Leszek Marcinkowski^{3,§}

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¹*Department of Computer Science, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80309-0430, U.S.A.*

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²*Department of Mathematics & Statistics, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA 23529-0077, U.S.A.*

³*Department of Mathematics, Warsaw University, Poland*

SUMMARY

9 The focus of this paper is on the numerical solution of large sparse non-linear systems of algebraic
11 equations on parallel computers. Such non-linear systems often arise from the discretization of non-linear
13 partial differential equations, such as the Navier–Stokes equations for fluid flows, using finite element
15 or finite difference methods. A traditional inexact Newton method, applied directly to the discretized
17 system, does not work well when the non-linearities in the algebraic system become unbalanced. In
this paper, we study some preconditioned inexact Newton algorithms, including the single-level and
multilevel non-linear additive Schwarz preconditioners. Some results for solving the high Reynolds
number incompressible Navier–Stokes equations are reported. Copyright © 2002 John Wiley & Sons,
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19 KEY WORDS: non-linear preconditioning; inexact Newton methods; Krylov subspace methods;
non-linear additive Schwarz; multilevel methods; domain decomposition; non-linear
equations; parallel computing; incompressible flows

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1. INTRODUCTION

23 Newton's method is one of the most popular techniques for solving large non-linear systems
of equations in engineering applications due to the fact that the method is easy to implement,

* Correspondence to: Xiao-Chuan Cai, Department of Computer Science, University of Colorado at Boulder, CB
430, Boulder, Colorado 80309-0430, U.S.A.

† E-mail: cai@cs.colorado.edu

‡ E-mail: keyes@icase.edu

§ E-mail: lmarcin@mimuw.edu.pl

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1 especially in its Jacobian-free Newton–Krylov form, and converges quickly if the starting point
 2 is inside the domain of convergence. However, it is well-known that the radius of the domain
 3 of convergence of Newton’s method is inversely proportional to the relative non-linearity of
 4 the function; i.e. as the relative non-linearity increases the domain of convergence shrinks,
 5 and as a result, finding a good starting point becomes very difficult [1]. Many globalization
 6 techniques have been developed in order to find a good starting point, such as the line search
 7 and trust region methods [1], continuation methods [2], mesh sequencing methods [3], etc.
 8 In this paper, we present a different approach that increases the domain of convergence of
 9 Newton’s method by reducing the non-linearity of the function.

10 Consider a given non-linear function $F : \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^n$. We are interested in calculating a vector
 11 $u_* \in \mathfrak{R}^n$, such that

$$F(u_*) = 0 \tag{1}$$

12 starting from an initial guess $u^{(0)} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$. Here $F = (F_1, \dots, F_n)^T$, $F_i = F_i(u_1, \dots, u_n)$, and $u = (u_1,$
 13 $\dots, u_n)^T$. Inexact Newton algorithms (IN) [1, 4] are commonly used for solving such systems.
 14 In this paper, we work in the framework of non-linearly preconditioned inexact Newton
 15 algorithms (PIN), recently introduced in Reference [5]. In other words, we try to find the
 16 solution u_* of Equation (1) by solving an equivalent system of non-linear equations

$$\mathcal{F}(u_*) = 0 \tag{2}$$

17 Equations (1) and (2) are equivalent in the sense that they have the same solution. Other
 18 than having the same solution, the non-linear functions $F(\cdot)$ and $\mathcal{F}(\cdot)$ may have completely
 19 different forms.

2. SINGLE-LEVEL NON-LINEAR ADDITIVE SCHWARZ PRECONDITIONING

20 In this section, we describe a non-linear preconditioner based on the additive Schwarz method
 21 [6, 7]. Let

$$S = (1, \dots, n)$$

22 be an index set; i.e. one integer for each unknown u_i and F_i . We assume that S_1, \dots, S_N is a
 23 partition of S in the sense that

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^N S_i = S, \quad \text{and} \quad S_i \subset S$$

24 Here, we allow the subsets to have overlap. Let n_i be the dimension of S_i ; then, in general,

$$\sum_{i=1}^N n_i \geq n$$

25 Using the partition of S , we introduce subspaces of \mathfrak{R}^n and the corresponding restriction and
 26 extension matrices. For each S_i we define $V_i \subset \mathfrak{R}^n$ as

$$V_i = \{v \mid v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)^T \in \mathfrak{R}^n, v_k = 0, \text{ if } k \notin S_i\}$$

1 and a $n \times n$ restriction (also extension) matrix I_{S_i} whose k th column is either the k th column
 3 of the $n \times n$ identity matrix $I_{n \times n}$ if $k \in S_i$ or zero if $k \notin S_i$. Note that the matrix I_{S_i} is always
 5 symmetric and the same matrix can be used as both restriction and extension operator. Many
 other forms of restriction/extension are available in the literature; however, we only consider
 the simplest form in this paper.

Using the restriction operator, we define the subdomain non-linear function as

7
$$F_{S_i} = I_{S_i} F$$

We next define the major novel feature of the algorithm, namely the non-linearly pre-
 9 conditioned function. For any given $v \in \mathcal{R}^n$, define $T_i(v) \in V_i$ as the solution of the following
 subspace non-linear system:

11
$$F_{S_i}(v - T_i(v)) = 0$$

for $i = 1, \dots, N$. We introduce a new function

13
$$\mathcal{F}^{(1)}(u) = \sum_{i=1}^N T_i(u) \tag{3}$$

which we refer to as the non-linearly preconditioned $F(u)$. The one-level non-linear additive
 15 Schwarz preconditioned inexact Newton algorithm (ASPIN or ASPIN(1)) is defined as: Find
 the solution u^* of (1) by solving the non-linearly preconditioned system

17
$$\mathcal{F}^{(1)}(u) = 0 \tag{4}$$

with an inexact Newton method using $u^{(0)}$ as the initial guess. As shown in Reference [5],
 19 ASPIN(1) is non-linearly scalable, but the number of iterations in the global linear solver
 increases as the number of subdomains (or the number of processors, as in our implementation)
 21 increases. A multilevel version of ASPIN(1) is therefore introduced below, which is scalable
 both non-linearly and linearly.

23 **3. TWO-LEVEL NON-LINEAR ADDITIVE SCHWARZ PRECONDITIONING**

In this section, we describe a parallel non-linear preconditioner based on the two-level additive
 25 Schwarz method [6, 7]. The focus is on the construction of the coarse space operator. We
 refer to the non-linear algebraic system (1) as the *fine system* which has n unknowns and n
 27 equations. We also need a *coarse system*,

$$F^c(u_*^c) = 0 \tag{5}$$

29 which is a non-linear algebraic system with n^c unknowns and n^c equations. The coarse and
 fine functions $F^c(u^c)$ and $F(u)$ approximate each other in a certain sense.

31 We next define the grid transfer operators. Note that our definitions are quite general; for
 example, the coarse and fine grids need not be nested. Let $S^c = (1, \dots, n^c)$ be an index set, i.e.
 33 one integer for each unknown of the coarse system, and assume that S_1^c, \dots, S_N^c is a partition
 of S^c in the sense that $\bigcup_{i=1}^N S_i^c = S^c$. For simplicity, we partition the fine and the coarse
 35 systems into the same number of subsets. Also for simplicity, in our parallel implementation,

1 we allocate the subsystems corresponding to the index sets S_i , and S_i^c to the same processor.
 2 We define the subdomain fine-to-coarse restriction operator as $R_i: S_i \rightarrow S_i^c$, in the sense that
 3 for each vector $v_i \in V_i$, there is a unique vector $v_i^c \in V_i^c$, such that

$$v_i^c = R_i v_i$$

5 where R_i is a n_i by n_i^c matrix. In a similar way, we can introduce an extension operator from
 the coarse subspace S_i^c to the fine subspace S_i , $E_i: S_i^c \rightarrow S_i$. In practice, E_i is usually taken as
 7 the transpose of the matrix R_i . Even though the subsets S_i^c and S_j^c may overlap each other, the
 restriction operators R_i and R_j are consistent in the sense that for any $v \in \mathfrak{R}^n$, if $k \in S_i^c \cap S_j^c$,
 9 then

$$(R_i v)_k = (R_j v)_k$$

11 where $(\)_k$ indicates the value of the k th component of the vector. We define a global fine-
 to-coarse restriction operator $R^c: \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{n^c}$ as follows: For any $v \in \mathfrak{R}^n$, the k th component of
 13 $R^c v$ is defined as

$$(R^c v)_k = (R_i v)_k \quad \text{if } k \in S_i^c$$

15 A global coarse to fine extension operator E^c can be defined as the transpose of R^c . To define
 the coarse function $T_0: \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{n^c}$, we first introduce a projection $T^c: \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{n^c}$ as follows: For
 17 any given $v \in \mathfrak{R}^n$, $T^c v$ satisfies the coarse non-linear system

$$F^c(T^c(v)) = R^c F(v) \tag{6}$$

19 We assume (6) has a unique solution. Associated with T^c , we define an operator $T_0: \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{n^c}$
 by

$$T_0(v) = E^c T^c(v) \tag{7}$$

Suppose that T_0 is given as in (7); it is easy to see that $T_0(u_*)$ can be computed without
 23 knowing the exact solution u_* itself. In fact, from (6), we have

$$T_0(u_*) = E^c u_*^c$$

25 which is the exact solution of the coarse system (5). Throughout this paper, we assume
 that the coarse solution u_*^c is given, through a pre-processing step. We can introduce a new
 27 non-linear function $\mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{n^c}$ by

$$\mathcal{F}^{(2)}(u) = T_0(u) - T_0(u_*) + \sum_{i=1}^N T_i(u) \tag{8}$$

29 which we refer to as the non-linearly preconditioned $F(u)$. The two-level non-linear additive
 Schwarz preconditioned inexact Newton algorithm (ASPIN(2)) is defined as follows: Find the
 31 solution u_* of (1) by solving the non-linearly preconditioned system

$$\mathcal{F}^{(2)}(u) = 0 \tag{9}$$

33 with an inexact Newton method using $u^{(0)}$ as the initial guess. A more complete description
 of ASPIN(2) can be found in Reference [8].

1 4. A BRIEF REVIEW OF INEXACT NEWTON METHODS

3 Consider a non-linear system, for example (1). Suppose $u^{(k)}$ is the current approximate solution; a new approximate solution $u^{(k+1)}$ can be computed through the following steps (IN):

4 *Step 1:* Find the inexact Newton direction $p^{(k)}$ such that

$$5 \quad \|F(u^{(k)}) - F'(u^{(k)})p^{(k)}\| \leq \eta_k \|F(u^{(k)})\| \quad (10)$$

6 *Step 2:* Compute the new approximate solution

$$7 \quad u^{(k+1)} = u^{(k)} - \lambda^{(k)} p^{(k)} \quad (11)$$

8 Here $\eta_k \in [0, 1)$ is a scalar that determines how accurately the Jacobian system needs to be solved using, for example, Krylov subspace methods [4, 9]. $\lambda^{(k)}$ is another scalar that determines how far one should go in the selected inexact Newton direction [1]. IN has two well-known features, namely, (a) if the initial guess is close enough to the desired solution then the convergence is very fast provided that the η_k 's are sufficiently small, and (b) such a good initial guess is generally very difficult to obtain, especially for non-linear equations that have unbalanced non-linearities [10]. The step length $\lambda^{(k)}$ is often determined by the components with the strongest non-linearities, and this may lead to an extended period of stagnation in the non-linear residual curve [11, 3].

10 In this paper, we apply IN to systems (4) or (9), instead of (1). The line search parameter $\lambda^{(k)}$ is determined using the preconditioned merit function

$$11 \quad \frac{1}{2} \|\mathcal{F}\|^2$$

12 which, by design, has more balanced non-linearity than $\frac{1}{2} \|F\|^2$.

13 5. A DRIVEN CAVITY FLOW PROBLEM

14 In this section, we present some numerical results for the following two-dimensional driven cavity flow problem [12], using the velocity–vorticity formulation, in terms of the velocity u , v , and the vorticity ω , defined on the unit square $\Omega = (0, 1) \times (0, 1)$,

$$15 \quad \begin{aligned} -\Delta u - \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial y} &= 0 \\ -\Delta v + \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x} &= 0 \\ -\frac{1}{Re} \Delta \omega + u \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial y} &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

16 Here Re is Reynolds number. The boundary conditions are:

- 17
- bottom, left and right: $u = v = 0$;
 - top: $u = 1, v = 0$.

1 The boundary condition on ω is given by its definition:

$$\omega(x, y) = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

3 We test several different Reynolds numbers in the experiments and the numbers are given
 5 in the tables below. The usual uniform mesh finite difference approximation with the 5-point
 7 stencil is used to discretize the boundary value problem. Upwinding is used for the divergence
 9 (convective) terms and central differencing for the gradient (source) terms. To obtain a non-
 11 linear algebraic system of equations F , we use natural ordering for the mesh points, and at each
 13 mesh point, we arrange the knowns in the order of u , v , and ω . The partitioning of F is through
 15 the partitioning of the mesh points in a checkerboard fashion for both the fine and the coarse
 grids. The coarse-to-fine interpolation is defined using the coarse grid bilinear finite element
 basis functions. *overlap* = 1 is used for all the calculations. The implementation is done using
 PETSc [13], and the results are obtained on a cluster of workstations. Double precision is
 used throughout the computations. For both the coarse and the fine grid problems, the initial
 iterate is zero for u , v and ω . We report here only the machine independent properties of the
 algorithms.

We stop the global PIN iterations if

17
$$\|\mathcal{F}(u^{(k)})\| \leq 10^{-10} \|\mathcal{F}(u^{(0)})\|$$

The same stopping condition is used for the coarse grid non-linear systems, which are solved
 19 by a Newton–Krylov–Schwarz method.

The Jacobian systems are solved with GMRES, restarting at 30. The global linear iteration
 21 for solving the global Jacobian system is stopped if the relative tolerance

$$\|\mathcal{F}(u^{(k)}) - \mathcal{F}'(u^{(k)})p^{(k)}\| \leq 10^{-3} \|\mathcal{F}(u^{(k)})\|$$

23 is satisfied. We remark that, unlike the Jacobian matrix of F , the Jacobian matrix \mathcal{F}' is
 25 usually not sparse and cannot be computed explicitly. Following the techniques developed in
 Reference [5], we approximate \mathcal{F}' on each subdomain by $J_{S_i}^{-1}J$, where $J = F'$ and J_{S_i} is the
 27 restriction of J on the subdomain S_i . Similarly on the coarse grid, we use $J_{S_c}^{-1}J$, where J_{S_c}
 is the restriction of J on the coarse grid. We do not use any linear preconditioning when
 solving the Jacobian problems.

29 At the k th global non-linear iteration, non-linear subsystems

$$F_{S_i}(u^{(k)} - g_i^{(k)}) = 0$$

31 must be solved. We use the standard IN with a cubic line search for such systems with initial
 guess $g_{i,0}^{(k)} = 0$. The local non-linear iteration in subdomain S_i is stopped if the following
 33 condition is satisfied:

$$\|F_{S_i}(g_{i,l}^{(k)})\| \leq 10^{-3} \|F_{S_i}(g_{i,0}^{(k)})\|$$

35 In Tables I and II, we report the total number of global non-linear iterations, the total
 number of linear iterations, and the average number of linear iterations per non-linear iteration.

Table I. $Re = 10^3$, fine mesh size 64×64 , coarse mesh size 16×16 .

	Number of processors	Global non-linear iterations	Average linear iteration per non-linear step
ASPIN(1)	$2 \times 2 = 4$	6	15
	$4 \times 4 = 16$	6	22
ASPIN(2)	$2 \times 2 = 4$	5	11
	$4 \times 4 = 16$	7	12

Table II. $Re = 10^4$, fine mesh size 128×128 , coarse mesh size 32×32 .

	Number of processors	Global non-linear iterations	Average linear iteration per non-linear step
ASPIN(1)	$2 \times 2 = 4$	10	17
	$4 \times 4 = 16$	7	24
ASPIN(2)	$2 \times 2 = 4$	8	15
	$4 \times 4 = 16$	7	21

1 For this particular test problem, the non-linearity is determined mostly by the Reynolds number. As Re increases the non-linear system becomes increasingly difficult to solve with the
 3 standard inexact Newton method [5]. However, as shown in Tables I and II, ASPIN is not very sensitive to the increase of Re .

5 As expected from the classical theory of additive Schwarz methods, the one-level algorithm, ASPIN(1), is not scalable with respect to the number of subdomains, which is the same
 7 as the number of processors in our parallel implementation. This is reflected in the average number of global linear iterations. By adding a coarse space, as in ASPIN(2), the number of
 9 global linear iterations can be reduced. For example, in Table I, when we increase the number of processors from 4 to 16, the average number of global linear iterations per non-linear step
 11 stays nearly the same. We observe, in Table II, that when Re is high the size of the coarse grid has to be sufficiently fine in order for the coarse grid problem to be solvable. In practice,
 13 a good coarse grid size is usually not easy to determine since it depends not only on the number of subdomains but also on the Reynolds number. More experience on this issue will
 15 be provided in a forthcoming paper [8].

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