Weighted Graph Based Ordering Techniques for Preconditioned Conjugate Gradient Methods *

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Abstract

We describe the basis for a matrix ordering heuristic for improving incomplete factorization for preconditioned conjugate gradient techniques applied to anisotropic PDE's. Several new matrix ordering techniques, derived from well-known algorithms in combinatorial graph theory, which attempt to implement this heuristic, are described. These ordering techniques are tested against a number of matrices arising from linear anisotropic PDE's, and compared with other matrix ordering techniques. A variation of RCM is shown to generally improve the quality of incomplete factorization preconditioners.

Keywords: Preconditioned conjugate gradient, preconditioner, matrix ordering, weighted graph

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1 Introduction

Preconditioned conjugate gradient (PCG) methods have been proven to be robust and competitive techniques for the solution of matrices arising from PDE's in a number of applications [10, 4, 16, 2, 13, 5, 19, 32, 30]. The successful application of PCG methods depends to a great extent on the formation of a rapidly convergent preconditioner. A number of studies have examined the effect of matrix ordering on the quality of preconditioners based on incomplete factorization [6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 25, 11]. In [6, 7, 8] evidence was presented to demonstrate how matrix ordering can have a profound effect on the quality of preconditioners, and a heuristic noted that was shown to produce good matrix ordering. This study examines the use of efficient algorithms from combinatorial graph theory which implement that matrix ordering heuristic.

By way of background, we refer the reader to [33, 7, 20] for an outline of level based, incomplete L/U factorization (denoted ILU(l), where l is the level of fill retained in the preconditioner). We will be referring to matrices as weighted graphs, where the matrix rows represent vertices, and the graph edges are encoded in the off-diagonals, the magnitude of the off-diagonal coefficients providing the "strength" of the connections. The reader may wish to review [26, 28, 17, 6] for relevant information on this view of matrices.

Duff and Meurant [12] studied a large number of preconditioner orderings for matrices arising from isotropic and anisotropic PDE's discretized on a regular grid. Their study considered orderings based solely on the sparsity pattern of the matrix, and concluded that Reverse Cuthill-McKee (RCM) ordering [17] was, in general, a good choice. This ordering reduces the bandwidth of the matrix, which tends to increase the overlap of fill and hence reduce the effect of dropped terms in ILU factorization. Dutto [13] also considered sparsity pattern based orderings, this time on Jacobian matrices arising from the discrete Navier-Stokes equations on irregular grids. Her results coincided with those of Duff and Meurant, indicating that RCM ordering, or the related Gibbs ordering [18] were good choices.

Recently, D'Azevedo, Forsyth, and Tang derived the Minimum Discarded Fill (MDF) and Minimum Update Matrix (MUM) orderings [6, 7, 8], which are sensitive to the matrix coefficients, as well as the sparsity pattern. The development of these orderings was prompted in part by the problem of highly anisotropic PDE's, whose discretization can lead to matrices for which the wrong ordering will produce very unsatisfactory preconditioners. The analysis leading to these techniques revealed that the most effective ordering for an anisotropic matrix follows the direction of the weakest node connections first.

MDF ordering is capable of detecting anisotropy in a matrix graph, and exploiting it to produce exceptionally good orderings. Its one drawback is that it is expensive to compute; the algorithm has a time complexity of roughly $\mathcal{O}(Nd^3)$, where N is the number of matrix rows, and d is the average number of non-zeros in a matrix row. MUM ordering, which is an approximation of MDF, does not detect anisotropy when the fill level l is small, but has been shown to produce workable orderings even for difficult matrices. Unfortunately, it is also fairly expensive to compute. In [4, 3] MUM was

tested against the Navier-Stokes equations, and in [7, 25] both MUM and MDF were tested against problems arising from linear PDE's with moderately extreme (1000:1) anisotropy.

The objective of this study is to implement and test the heuristic of following weak connections in the matrix graph to produce an ordering, but using algorithms which are considerably faster than MDF or MUM. The mathematical motivation for this heuristic will be outlined in more detail in Section 2.

Ordering techniques sensitive to both the matrix sparsity patterns and matrix coefficients which attempt to follow anisotropy, and hence improve level-based ILU factorizations, will be outlined. A modification to the RCM algorithm will be considered. Orderings based on the standard graph theoretical algorithms for a minimum spanning tree (MST), and the single-source problem (SSP), on the matrix graph will be tested. The main attraction of the MST and SSP algorithms as anisotropy detectors is their speed. Properly implemented, they have a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N\log(N))$, (where N is the number of matrix rows). These techniques are described in detail in Section 3

A number of matrices taken from the discretization of linear PDE's will serve as test cases. These test cases are outlined in Section 4. The numerical results of matrix solver runs on these matrices for each ordering will be presented in Section 5, and summarized in the final section.

2 The Motivation for Weighted Graph Based Techniques

Consider the anisotropic PDE

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(K\,\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right)=-q(x,y),\quad (x,y)\in(0,1)\times(0,1) \tag{1}$$

with a Neumann boundary condition, $K = 1000$, and discretized on a 30×30 regular grid with a five-point molecule with $h = 1/30$ as the grid size. The right hand side $q(x, y)$ was defined as

$$q(x,y)=\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (x,y)=(0,0),\\ -1 & \text{if } (x,y)=(1,1),\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere}\end{cases}.$$

The resulting matrix was solved with the preconditioned conjugate gradients method using an ILU(1) preconditioner. A zero initial guess was used, and the matrix was solved to a reduction of 10^{-12} in the l_2 norm of the residual. Table 1 shows the solution time when the matrix was ordered in two ways: natural x-y ordering numbered the nodes in the x direction first, and natural y-x ordering numbered the nodes in the y direction first. Theorem 1 will show why the incomplete factorization in the x-y direction was poorer, despite both preconditioners having the same level of fill, and number of fill entries.

If matrix A is symmetric, the fill entries in factor L can be conveniently described through a graph model [26, 28]. Let the elimination sequence be $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ and $\mathcal{G}_k = (\mathcal{V}_k, \mathcal{E}_k)$ be the graph of $A_k = \left[a_{ij}^{(k)}\right]$

$$\mathcal{V}_k = \{v_{k+1}, \ldots, v_n\} \ , \quad \mathcal{E}_k = \left\{(v_i, v_j) \mid a_{ij}^{(k)} \neq 0\right\}$$

where k is the step of the elimination.

It can be shown [17] that there is a nonzero entry l_{ij} if and only if there exists a path $(v_i, v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_m}, v_j)$ in the graph of A where

$$v_i, \ldots, v_{i_m} \in \{v_1, \ldots, v_{j-1}\} \ .$$

The size of l_{ij} is related to the size of entries on this path.

Theorem 1 *Let A be an M-matrix and let $(v_i, v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_m}, v_j)$ be a path in the graph A where*

$$v_i, \ldots, v_{i_m} \in \{v_1, \ldots, v_{j-1}\} \ ,$$

then for $i > j$

$$l_{ij} \geq \frac{|a_{ii_1} a_{i_1 i_2} \cdots a_{i_m j}|}{d_{i_1} d_{i_2} \cdots d_{i_m} d_j}, \quad d_k = a_{kk} \ .$$

Proof: *See [24] and [7].*

For the anisotropic problem 1, the resulting matrix is a symmetric M-matrix. All edges aligned along the x-axis have values $\mathcal{O}(K/K+1)$, and edges aligned along the y-axis have values $\mathcal{O}(1/K)$. If the natural x-y row order is used, then all new fill entries will be oriented more in the x direction (see Figure 1). From the lower bound in Theorem 1, the fill entries in the matrix will have a slow decay rate. Conversely, if the natural y-x ordering is used, the fill entries will have a more rapid decay rate. Thus the value of the fill using the y-x ordering will have less of a bearing on the quality of the preconditioner as the level of fill increases than the fill using the x-y ordering.

In this study MDF ordering [6] and MUM ordering [7, 8] will be used as examples of effective, matrix coefficient sensitive orderings. Both orderings attempt to minimize the amount of fill discarded by the incomplete factorization process. MDF uses a more accurate, and more expensive measure for the discarded fill, and is, as noted in the introduction, capable of detecting anisotropy. The reader is referred to the cited papers for the details about MDF and MUM, and earlier comparative studies using these algorithms.

Reverse Cuthill-McKee ordering [17] will be used as a generally effective [12, 13] matrix coefficient insensitive ordering which is quick to compute. Because we will be making a modification to this algorithm to render it coefficient sensitive, we briefly outline the algorithm in Figure 2.

3 Weighted Graph Algorithms

As noted above, the following techniques are all matrix coefficient sensitive, and based on well established algorithms. The following algorithms seek out the weak connections in the matrix graph, and attempt to produce an ordering consistent with the heuristic that follows from Theorem 1.

The precise details of the implementation of the algorithms from graph theory may be found in [31], and many data structures textbooks. All of these algorithms have a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$ or better.

3.1 Modified RCM

RCM, as it stands in Figure 2, can miss the anisotropy of a problem and produce a poor ordering (see Section 5, also [4]). Step 3b of the algorithm as given was modified so that un-numbered neighbors of a node were sorted by the weight of their connection strengths whenever their degree was equal. Since the ordering is reversed in the final stage, it was not clear whether an ascending, or descending connection strength order was appropriate, so both were tried. We will denote the modified RCM with degree tie breaking in ascending order as $\mathrm{RCM_A}$, and in descending order as $\mathrm{RCM_D}$.

3.2 Minimum Spanning Tree with Three Versions

Three ordering methods based on the minimum spanning tree (MST) of the matrix graph were tested. The MST on the matrix graph creates an acyclic subgraph using the smallest possible edge weights, and hence will select edges that connect nodes weakly. Consistent with the heuristic outlined in Section 2, these weak connections will be followed to attempt to produce a good ordering.

In the first variation on the algorithm, a root node is selected on the tree, and a depth-first search performed. The nodes are numbered in the order in which they are encountered in the tree, always choosing the weakest connections first at branching points. The depth-first search will thus tend to follow lines of weakly connected nodes, producing an ordering that follows the anisotropy in the desired direction, and which keeps nodes grouped locally in a reasonably natural fashion. This ordering will be denoted $\mathrm{MST_D}$.

The second variation on the algorithm is a pre-processing step done before the MST is constructed. A small ($\ll$ off-diagonals) value is multiplied by the original node number, and (symmetrically) added to the row above (i.e. also to the column below) the diagonal entry corresponding to that node. This forces a slight bias in the matrix so that when the MST algorithm must decide between previously tied values, an edge will be selected that reflects the original ordering. A depth-first search is then performed on the tree. We will see that tie-breaking by natural ordering proves useful in situations of mixed anisotropy and isotropy. This variation will be denoted $\mathrm{MST_D^T}$.

The final variation on MST-based ordering computes the distance from the given root node to each node on the MST. The nodes are then sorted in order of this distance.

This effectively produces level sets, much as with RCM [17], only biased in the desired direction of the anisotropy by the removal of strong edge connections. The Cuthill-McKee (CM) ordering (which RCM reverses) produces level sets that might also be thought of as nodes grouped by contours on the graph. This variation distorts the contours, using the MST as a measure of distance in the graph. This variation will be denoted $\mathrm{MST_C}$.

3.3 Single Source Problem with Contouring

$\mathrm{MST_C}$ ordering uses a somewhat crude measure of distance from a given root node. The solution to the single source problem on a weighted graph produces the exact minimum distance from a root node to all nodes in the graph. For anisotropic problems, nodes with weak connections to the root will appear "closer" to it than those with strong connections. With the single source problem solved, this ordering, as with $\mathrm{MST_C}$, sorts the nodes in order of distance from the root, again producing distorted level sets, or contour sets which follow the weakly connected direction of the anisotropy. This ordering will be denoted SSP.

The reader will note that given a graph with all equal weights, this will produce exactly Cuthill-McKee ordering. SSP ordering is, by the contour set analogy, a "skewed" CM ordering. This in turn suggests that, as with RCM, reversing the SSP ordering might be beneficial. Thus we will also consider Reversed SSP, or RSSP ordering.

4 Test Problems

All of the ordering methods mentioned were tested against fourteen problems, eleven on a regular grid and three on simplicial grids. Each test case is different in some aspect of dimension, isotropy or anisotropy, direction of anisotropy, varying coefficients, and grid type. The problems are all based on the PDE

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(K_x \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(K_y \frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right) = -q(x,y), \quad (x,y) \in (0,1)\times(0,1) \tag{2}$$

in two dimensions, and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(K_x \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(K_y \frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(K_z \frac{\partial U}{\partial z}\right) = -q(x,y,z), \tag{3}$$

$$(x,y,z) \in (0,1)\times(0,1)\times(0,1)$$

in three dimensions. The usual five- or seven-point finite difference discretization was used on the regular grid problems, with an harmonic average used to deal with cases where the coefficients (K_x, K_y or K_z) were discontinuous [1]. Despite the fact that a number of the problems produced only positive semi-definite matrices, the PCG method still converged.

For the various regular grid problems the same number of points were used in each of the x, and y, (and z in three dimensions) directions. If we define the node spacing

$h = 1/(N_{\text{edge}} - 1)$ where N_{edge} is the number of nodes along the edge of the unit square or cube, then

$$x_i = (i-1)h,\ y_j = (j-1)h,\ z_k = (k-1)h, \quad 1 \le i, j, k \le N_{\text{edge}}\ .$$

This discrete (x_i, y_j, z_k) coordinate system, along with a value for N_{edge}, will be used in the definition of the regular grid problems. The term $q_d(x_i, y_j, z_k)$ denotes the discretized right hand side, and is zero unless otherwise noted. The unit square or cube region will be denoted $\mathbf{R}$, with boundary $\delta\mathbf{R}$, as required.

The three problems on irregular grids are too complicated to fully describe here. The reader is referred to [15] for a more detailed definition of the REFINE2D and FE2D problems, and [21] for the FE3D problem.

Preliminary testing revealed that the matrices from irregular grid problems were more easily ordered and solved if they were first symmetrically scaled so that their diagonal entries were equal to one. Regular grid matrices were more effectively ordered if they were not scaled. Thus all the following testing will be done on the unscaled regular grid, and scaled irregular grid matrices.

4.1 Problem 1. LAP5D

This first problem is the two dimensional Laplace's equation on the unit square with Neumann boundary conditions and five point sources, discretized on a regular 30×30 grid. It is similar to that used in [12, 7].

4.2 Problem 2. BIG1DIR

This problem is similar to that presented as Equation 1 earlier in the paper. A single, fairly strong anisotropy defines the problem.

Parameters: 2 Dimensions, Regular Grid, Neumann BC's

$$\begin{aligned} N_{\text{edge}} &= 30 \\ (K_x, K_y) &= (1000, 1) \end{aligned}$$

Source terms $q_d(x_i, y_j)$ defined as in LAP5D.

4.3 Problem 3. VDVORST

Tested in [25], this problem from [9] also exhibits fairly extreme anisotropy over the entire region, but with variations in the coefficient strengths.

Parameters: 2 Dimensions, Regular Grid, Dirichlet BC's

$$N_{\text{edge}} = 41$$

$$(K_x, K_y) = \begin{cases} (100, 0.01) & \text{in } (0.25, 0.75) \times (0.25, 0.75) \\ (1, 0.0001) & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$q(x,y) = \begin{cases} 100 & \text{in } (1/4,3/4)\times(1/4,3/4) \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$U = 0 \text{ on } \delta\mathbf{R}$$

4.4 Problem 4. STONE

Stone's third problem [29] presents a large isotropic region, with inset isotropic and anisotropic blocks of different orientations and magnitudes. See [29, 7] for the exact specification of this problem, which is two dimensional, and on a 31×31 regular grid.

4.5 Problem 5. ANISO

The region in this problem is completely anisotropic, but with four distinct regions in two directions. The ratio of K_x to K_y was 100:1 in each region. It is defined on a two dimensional, 30×30 regular grid. For exact specifications, see [7].

4.6 Problem 6. LAP7D

This problem is the three dimensional Laplace's equation on the unit cube with Neumann boundary conditions and five point sources, discretized on a $30 \times 30 \times 30$ regular grid.

4.7 Problem 7 & 8. BIG1DIR3E and BIG1DIR3F

These two problems have uniform coefficients that give them strong directions of anisotropy. Two directions were used hoping to differentiate between the methods that are incapable of detecting anisotropy.

Parameters: 3 Dimensions, Regular Grid, Neumann BC's

$$N_{\text{edge}} = 30$$

$$(K_x, K_y, K_z) = \begin{cases} (100,1,1000) & \text{for BIG1DIR3E} \\ (1000,100,1) & \text{for BIG1DIR3F} \end{cases}$$

Source terms $q_d(x_i, y_j, z_k)$ defined as in LAP7D.

4.8 Problem 9. STONE3D

This is a three dimensional version of the 2D STONE problem. It was formed by projecting the blocks defined by STONE into three dimensions using the 2D pattern for the z ranges.

Parameters: 3 Dimensions, Regular Grid, Neumann BC's

$$N_{\text{edge}} = 31$$

$$(K_x, K_y, K_z) = \begin{cases} (1, 100, 100) & \text{for } (x_i, y_j, z_k) \ 15 \le i \le 31, \ 1 \le j \le 17, \ 1 \le k \le 17 \\ (100, 1, 1) & \text{for } (x_i, y_j, z_k) \ 6 \le i \le 13, \ 6 \le j \le 13, \ 6 \le k \le 13 \\ (0, 0, 0) & \text{for } (x_i, y_j, z_k) \ 13 \le i \le 20, \ 22 \le j \le 29, \ 22 \le k \le 29 \\ (1, 1, 1) & (x_i, y_i, z_k) \text{ elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$q_d(4, 4, 4) = 1, \quad q_d(4, 28, 28) = 0.5, \quad q_d(24, 5, 5) = 0.6$$

$$q_d(15, 16, 16) = -1.83, \quad q_d(28, 28, 28) = -0.27$$

4.9 Problem 10 & 11. ANISO3E and ANISO3F

These are three dimensional versions of the ANISO problem. Six blocks are defined so that abutting regions have different strong directions of anisotropy. Again, two variations are defined, ANISO3E showing only one distinct direction in each block.

Parameters: 3 Dimensions, Regular Grid, Neumann BC's

$$N_{\text{edge}} = 30$$

$$(K_x, K_y, K_z) = \begin{cases} (100, 1, K_v) & \text{in } (0, 1/2) \times (0, 1/2) \times (0, 1/2) \\ & \text{and } (1/2, 1) \times (1/2, 1) \times (0, 1/2) \\ (K_v, 1, 100) & \text{in } (1/2, 1) \times (0, 1/2) \times (1/2, 1) \\ & \text{and } (0, 1/2) \times (1/2, 1) \times (1/2, 1) \\ (100, K_v, 1) & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$K_v = \begin{cases} 100 & \text{for ANISO3E} \\ 1000 & \text{for ANISO3F} \end{cases}$$

Source terms $q_d(x_i, y_j, z_k)$ defined as in LAP7D.

4.10 Problem 12. REFINE2D

A finite element method using linear triangular basis functions was used to discretize this problem. In this example, K_x and K_y are constant. Grid refinement was applied, and the final triangulation was such that the resulting matrix was an M-matrix.

4.11 Problem 13. FE2D

A finite element method using linear triangular basis functions was also used for this problem. However, K_x and K_y varied by four orders of magnitude. The grid was defined by constructing a distorted quadrilateral grid, and then triangulating in an obvious manner. A Delaunay-type edge swap was used to produce an M-matrix.

4.12 Problem 14. FE3D

This problem is a three-dimensional version of FE2D. A finite element discretization was used, with linear basis functions defined on tetrahedra. The coefficients (K_x, K_y, K_z) vary eight orders of magnitude (this model was derived from actual field data from a groundwater flow experiment). The nodes were defined on a $25 \times 13 \times 10$ grid (3250 nodes) of distorted hexahedra, which were then divided into tetrahedra. The resulting matrix was *not* an M-matrix, and the average node connectivity was fifteen. In general it is not possible, for a given node placement, to obtain an M-matrix in three-dimensions if linear tetrahedral elements are used [22].

5 Numerical Results

The numerical experiments were run on a Sun 4/670 server (nominally rated at 4 MFLOPS) using double precision arithmetic. The convergence criterion

$$\|r^k\|_2 \leq tol\|r^0\|_2, \quad tol = 10^{-12}$$

was used, where r^k was the residual vector after the k^{th} iteration of conjugate gradient acceleration. In all cases the initial guess was chosen to be the zero vector.

A note concerning CPU times is in order. The mechanism provided in Sun FORTRAN for computing CPU times tends to be out as much as 10% between runs of the same test, and provides an accuracy of only 0.01 of a CPU second. The reader should keep this margin of error in mind while interpreting the following results. All results are for CPU time required only for the program execution, and are reported in seconds.

5.1 Ordering Time

Table 2 lists the time required to perform the various orderings for a few of the problems. The time to perform RCM ordering is given, and the other ordering times are scaled by that value for each problem. On average, performing RCM ordering accounted for between 2 and 4% of the overall solution time. The time required for MDF varies considerably depending on the fill level requested for the calculation, so MDF for level 1 fill is given.

Note from these results that the graph based orderings take roughly 1 to 4 times longer to produce than RCM, which is considerably less than the 10 to 21 times longer for MUM, and 28 to 191 times longer for MDF. Note that RCM_A and RCM_D take, on average, the same amount of time to compute, so the numbers for RCM_D are not shown.

5.2 Solution Time

One test run was made for each of the ordering methods, on each of the fourteen test matrices, for preconditioners using ILU(0), ILU(1) and ILU(2). Of particular interest

in analyzing the results are the number of iterations required to solve the problem to the desired tolerance, the amount of fill produced in the ILU factorization, and the total time required for the iterative solve. Since the last measurement is a result of the first two, only the iterative solve times will be presented in detail.

Natural (default node order) ordering, was generally worse than RCM in 2D, and on irregular grids, producing marginally better solution times on 3D regular grids. Results with MUM were mixed, however, MUM generally does best on problems with large computational molecules [7, 8], and the problems posed here have relatively small molecules. MDF proved again to be a good ordering in most cases.

The weighted graph based orderings performed best at ILU(1). Table 3 shows the time required for the iterative solve using each of the ordering methods at this level of fill. Because RCM is popular, and often viewed as the best matrix coefficient insensitive ordering [12, 13], we have scaled all the solution times by the value for RCM ordering for that matrix. At ILU(0), weighted graph methods generally performed as well as RCM on regular grid problems, and significantly worse on irregular grids. At ILU(2), the MST and SSP based orderings fared somewhat poorly.

At ILU(1), the MST based algorithms ran significantly faster than RCM in all two-dimensional, regular grid cases where the regions were completely anisotropic. Tie breaking (MST_D^T) was required to produce good results in the two 3D problems where one direction of anisotropy was dominant. Tie breaking also was required to produce adequate results for STONE, which had mixed anisotropic and isotropic regions, but the result was still slower than RCM.

Table 3 shows that SSP and RSSP ordering produced significant improvements over RCM only when the region was anisotropic in a single direction. Unlike the MST algorithms, the SSP orderings could not follow the sharp changes in anisotropic direction of the ANISO problem (see next subsection).

The RCM_A ordering showed favourable results. At worst it caused a 30% slower solution over RCM, and that in only one case at ILU(1). It generally produced solutions taking 47% to 108% the time of basic RCM, and did better on irregular grids, and regions that were all anisotropic in a single direction. Comparing the BIG1DIR3E and BIG1DIR3F problems, RCM_A produced a solution in the same time for both, whereas basic RCM failed to follow the direction of anisotropy of the latter case, and produced a poor ordering. At ILU(0), and ILU(2), RCM_A was never worse than 12% slower than RCM, and slightly faster in almost half the cases. RCM_D fared somewhat poorly, and was never significantly faster than RCM_A, hence its timing results are not shown.

We note in passing that, in the preliminary testing for this study, different root node placements were tried for the MST and SSP orderings. This was shown to have little effect on the solution time.

5.3 Some Ordering Pictures

Using MATLAB [23], a number of pictures of graph orderings are given in Figures 3, 4 and 5. In this visualization technique, nodes numbered first appear as darker squares,

and the nodes numbered last appear as the lightest squares.

Figure 3 shows the orderings produced by MDF(0), MST_D, and SSP on the VD-VORST problem. Notice how MDF(0) picks up the interior region of differing coefficients. The other orderings pick up only on the single direction of weak connections, producing essentially the same pictures.

Figure 4 shows the MDF(0), MST_D, and SSP orderings on the ANISO problem. Note the similarity between the MDF(0) and MST orderings, both detected and followed the changes in the direction of anisotropy. Note the SSP ordering tended to order the middle and work outward, missing the basic anisotropy. (Note that the two anomalously ordered blocks were caused by an unavoidable tie-breaking problem inherent in the binary heap used to compute the Single Source Problem.)

Figure 5 shows the MDF(0), MST_D, and MST_D^T orderings on the STONE problem. While MDF identifies and orders the various blocks in the test, the MST routines fail to identify them. Thus we see a weakness in the MST routines when isotropic and anisotropic regions exist in the same problem. However, if the subregions of anisotropy are known in advance, MST ordering could potentially be applied to those individual subregions, then the results linked to produce a final ordering. MDF(0) is essentially doing this for the STONE problem.

6 Summary

We have presented and tested seven new matrix ordering techniques which are sensitive to the coefficients, as well as the sparsity pattern, of matrices. These techniques attempt to implement the heuristic, based on Theorem 1, that ordering along lines of weakly connected nodes results in an improved incomplete factorization for PCG methods.

MDF ordering again proved to be very good, however, it is expensive to compute. It would be the most useful if a large number of similar matrix problems were to be solved which could efficiently exploit a single MDF ordering computation.

Methods based on the minimum spanning tree and single source problem only showed significant advantage over RCM on two-dimensional regions that were entirely anisotropic, with one level of fill in the preconditioner. The single source problem based techniques were unable to follow changes in the direction of anisotropy, and hence were only advantageous when no changes in direction were present.

The modified RCM technique RCM_A proved to be generally better than RCM, and rarely significantly worse. RCM_A performed consistently well on irregular grids, and for all levels of fill. We conclude that RCM_A is, in general, a good choice over plain RCM.

A number of questions surrounding good matrix ordering for ILU preconditioners remain to be solved. Good results have been obtained for systems of equations using block ordering [14, 4], but more work needs to be done in this area. Also, investigations into ordering based on eigenvalue computations, called spectral ordering (and closely related to [27]), are being undertaken.

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Figure 1: Orientation of new fill in x-y and y-x natural orderings. New fill is indicated by dotted lines.

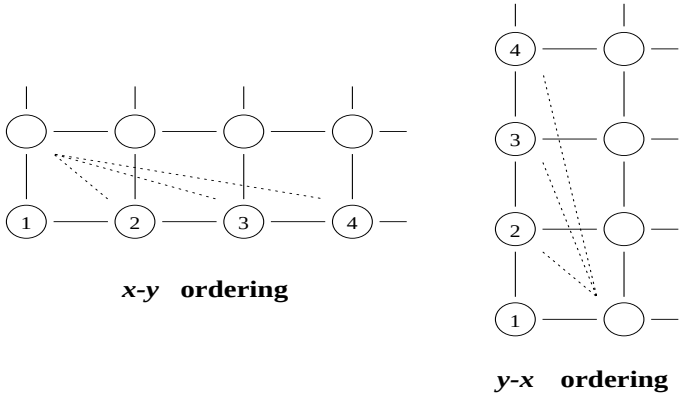

Figure 2: The Reverse Cuthill-McKee (RCM) ordering algorithm

1. Determine a starting pseudo-peripheral node $\mathcal{R}$.
2. Number $\mathcal{R}$ first in the ordering.

3. For $i = 1 \ldots$ (Number of Nodes) do (following node ordering)
   3a. $\mathcal{U} = \{$ all un-numbered neighbors of node $i\}$
   3b. Number elements of $\mathcal{U}$ in order of node degree
   enddo

4. Reverse the ordering determined in stage 3.

Table 1: Solution time for an anisotropic problem with two orderings.

Ordering	Solution Time (s)	Iterations
Natural x-y	1.13	35
Natural y-x	0.43	7

Table 2: Time Required to Perform Ordering

	Ordering Method									
	(CPU s)	Scaled by RCM								
Problem	RCM	MST_D	MST_D^T	MST_C	SSP	RSSP	RCM_A	RCM_D	MDF	MUM
LAPD5	0.03	1.7	3.3	3.0	1.3	2.0	2.0	1.7	32.7	21.3
ANISO	0.03	2.0	4.0	3.7	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.7	31.0	15.7
LAPD7	1.85	2.2	2.6	2.7	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.4	70.4	10.5
STONE3D	2.13	2.2	3.3	3.1	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4	69.5	9.8
FE2D	0.09	3.3	3.2	3.9	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.1	27.8	10.7
FE3D	0.53	2.8	3.1	2.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	191.3	12.1

Table 3: Time Required to Perform Iteration (at ILU(1))

	Ordering Method									
	(CPU s)	Scaled by RCM								
Problem	RCM	MST_D	MST_D^T	MST_C	SSP	RSSP	RCM_A	Nat	MDF	MUM
LAPD5	0.71	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.08	1.06	0.99	1.06	0.92	1.07
BIG1DIR	0.73	0.92	0.45	0.51	0.47	0.44	0.47	1.07	0.41	0.97
VDVORST	0.76	0.54	0.57	0.62	0.53	0.55	0.59	1.01	0.33	1.01
STONE	0.77	1.86	1.17	2.23	1.29	1.26	1.03	1.04	0.84	1.21
ANISO	0.71	0.66	0.68	1.24	1.66	1.20	1.08	1.10	0.80	1.42
LAPD7	62.81	0.90	1.05	1.10	1.07	1.05	1.07	0.92	0.89	1.01
BIG1DIR3E	131.95	2.06	0.89	0.90	0.88	0.86	0.97	0.97	0.84	1.64
BIG1DIR3F	231.29	1.20	0.58	0.58	0.57	0.61	0.55	0.87	0.49	0.85
ANISO3E	90.40	0.97	1.03	1.15	1.16	1.09	0.98	0.93	0.80	0.91
ANISO3F	104.54	1.32	1.29	1.49	1.67	1.41	1.30	0.83	0.81	1.30
STONE3D	114.47	1.00	1.16	1.27	1.02	1.05	1.06	0.92	0.74	0.87
REFINE2D	1.54	2.39	2.64	2.58	2.01	1.45	0.97	3.42	1.04	1.29
FE2D	1.48	3.32	2.63	2.70	2.24	1.82	0.94	1.95	0.89	1.47
FE3D	7.63	1.15	1.23	1.01	0.92	0.72	0.77	1.09	0.88	0.73

Figure 3: The VDVORST problem ordered with MDF(0), $\mathrm{MST_D}$ and SSP. Node ordering is from darkest to lightest.

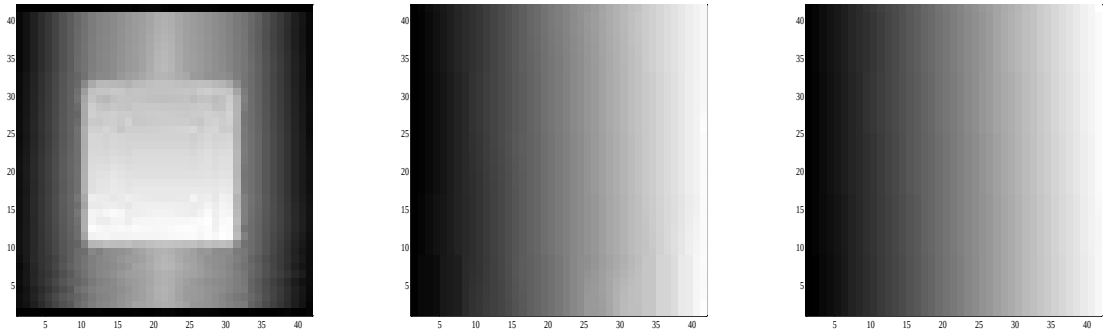

Figure 4: The ANISO problem ordered with MDF(0), $\mathrm{MST_D}$ and SSP. Node ordering is from darkest to lightest.

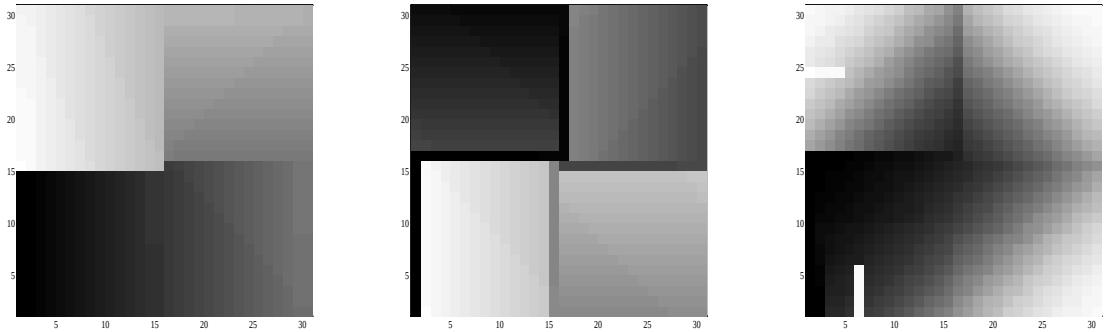

Figure 5: The STONE problem ordered with MDF(0), $\mathrm{MST_D}$, and $\mathrm{MST_D^T}$ orderings. Node ordering is from darkest to lightest.