

A Comparative Study of Preconditioning Techniques for Large Sparse Systems Arising in Finite Element Limit Analysis

Omid Kardani, Andrei V. Lyamin, and Kristian Krabbenhøft

Abstract— The efficiency of several preconditioned Conjugate Gradient (PCG) schemes for solving of large sparse linear systems arising from application of interior point methods to nonlinear Finite Element Limit Analysis (FELA) is studied. Direct solvers fail to solve these linear systems in large sizes, such as large 2D and 3D problems, due to their high storage and computational cost. This motivates using iterative methods. However, iterative solvers are not efficient for difficult problems without preconditioning techniques. In this paper, the effect of various preconditioning techniques on the convergence behavior of the preconditioned Conjugate Gradient (PCG) is investigated through a detailed comparative study. Furthermore, numerical results of applying PCG to several sample systems are presented and discussed thoroughly in a parametric study. Our results suggest that while incomplete Cholesky preconditioners are by far the most efficient techniques for sequential computations, significant gains may result from use of sparse approximate inverse methods in parallel environment in this field.

Index Terms— incomplete Cholesky factorization, approximate inverse preconditioner, limit analysis, preconditioned conjugate gradient method, cone programming

I. INTRODUCTION

The application of second order cone programming (SOCP) to solving optimization problems arising in Geomechanics has recently been of growing interest and significant advances have been made in this field. Some of the most important applications include traditionally difficult problems in plasticity [24], finite element limit analysis [26] and most recently granular contact dynamics [25]. In this paper, we focus on the case of finite element limit analysis (FELA). Upon formulating the original problem as SOCP, it can be solved by primal-dual interior point method (IPM). An efficient IPM algorithm for conic quadratic optimization was proposed by Anderson et al [2]. However, in each step of this method, a symmetric positive definite (SPD) linear system of equation needs to be solved. Due to their robustness and accuracy, the direct solvers have been traditionally used for this task [2], [38].

O. Kardani is with the Center for Geotechnical and Materials Modelling, University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia (phone: +612-4921-5842; e-mail: Omid.Kardani@uon.edu.au).

A. V. Lyamin is with the Center for Geotechnical and Materials Modelling, University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia (e-mail: Andrei.Lyamin@newcastle.edu.au).

K. Krabbenhøft is with the Center for Geotechnical and Materials Modelling, University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia (e-mail: Kristian.Krabbenhøft@newcastle.edu.au).

However, for large 3D problems direct solvers require prohibitively high storage and computational efforts. Therefore, the use of iterative solvers becomes imperative. But highly ill-conditioning of the linear systems arising in IPM iterations for our application leads to extremely slow convergence and lack of accuracy for iterative solvers. This motivates using appropriate preconditioners to enhance the efficiency of the iterative solution schemes.

In this study, we use preconditioned Conjugate Gradient method (PCG) with various preconditioning techniques and make a comparison of their effects on the robustness of PCG method. A comparison with another similar preconditioned iterative approach is given in [27]. The preconditioning methods we studied fall into two major groups of preconditioners.

The first group consists of the incomplete factorization schemes. These are actually different variants of the incomplete LU factorization which have been extensively studied and proved to be efficient for ill-conditioned systems. A recent study of such preconditioners with some modifications can be found in [32]. Since the systems we are addressing in our application involve symmetric positive definite (SPD) coefficient matrices, we employed incomplete Cholesky (IC) factorization techniques which are particularly designed for SPD systems [4], [15] and [34]. For a fairly recent survey see [4] and references therein.

The other class of preconditioning techniques we studied is sparse approximate inverse preconditioners. These techniques have been vigorously studied and developed during the last decade [4], [7]. They are of particular interest when parallel implementation of the solution schemes is considered [12].

The remaining structure of the paper is as follows: in section 2, the SOCP as well as its application to finite element limit analysis is briefly introduced and the linear systems arising in this context are reviewed. In section 3, PCG method with various preconditioners from two mentioned classes of preconditioning techniques is briefly discussed. Then, numerical results of applying the PCG method to some samples systems arising in our specific application are presented and discussed in section 4. Finally, conclusions and future work are given in section 5.

II. FINITE ELEMENT LIMIT ANALYSIS AS SOCP PROBLEM

Conic programming in the field of plasticity is concerned with the following standard form of problems:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} \quad \alpha \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{B}^T \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \alpha \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{p}_0, \\ & \quad \quad \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma} \in \kappa \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

in which constant and variable loads are given by \mathbf{p}_0 and \mathbf{p} , respectively. α denotes the load multiplier and \mathbf{B}^T is the discrete equilibrium operator. Also, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is the vector of the stresses and κ denotes an admissible stress space.

Krabbenhoft et al. [26] proposed a practical form of SOCP for limit analysis by casting the Mohr-Coulomb criterion under plane strain conditions as quadratic cone. The resulting optimization problem then reads:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} \quad \alpha \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{B}^T \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \alpha \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{p}_0 \\ & \quad \quad \quad \boldsymbol{\rho} = \mathbf{D} \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{d} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \boldsymbol{\rho} \in \kappa_q \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where κ_q is the following quadratic cone

$$\kappa_q = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\rho} \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1} \mid \rho_1 \geq \sqrt{\rho_2^2 + \rho_3^2} \right\}, \tag{3}$$

and

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin \phi & \sin \phi & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{d} = \begin{pmatrix} 2c \cos \phi \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

with ϕ and c denoting the friction angle and cohesion, respectively.

The problems of the form (2) can be efficiently solved using primal-dual interior point method for conic quadratic optimization proposed by Anderson et al [2]. In each step of this method, after some computationally cheap calculations, in order to update the current solution approximate, a Newton search direction vector is calculated by a system of linear equations of the general form

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}, \tag{4}$$

in which \mathbf{A} is a large sparse and symmetric positive definite (SPD) matrix, needs to be solved in order to find the search direction. These systems have been traditionally solved by performing a Cholesky factorization [2]. However, for 3D and large 2D problems the time and space complexity to build and store Cholesky factors are quite expensive. As a potential solution to this problem, use of iterative solver methods is considered.

III. PRECONDITIONED CONJUGATE GRADIENT METHOD

As mentioned earlier, system (4) is problematic to solve by direct solvers for three dimensional and large two dimensional

problems with millions of equation and unknowns involved. This necessitates exploiting efficient iterative schemes. Since the system is SPD, one of the most efficient iterative solvers is the famous Conjugate Gradient (CG) method [34]. In terms of convergence, it is well known that the number of iterations of the CG method to satisfy a certain stopping criterion is proportional to $\sqrt{\kappa}$, in which κ is called the condition number of the coefficient matrix and $\kappa = \frac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}}$ where

λ_{\max} and λ_{\min} are the largest and smallest eigenvalues in magnitude of the coefficient matrix, respectively [34]. As a result, CG shows poor convergence behaviour for solving ill-conditioned linear systems. This is the case with the linear systems encountered in our application. Therefore, it seems logical to develop methods in order to enhance the efficiency of iterative solution schemes by improving the condition of the linear system. These improving methods are called preconditioning techniques. We are exploring two major classes of preconditioning techniques and their effect on the convergence behaviour of preconditioned CG (PCG) solver. Before discussing these techniques, let us present the PCG algorithm here for ease of reference.

Algorithm 1 – PCG Linear Solver

Initialize:

1. Let \mathbf{x}_0 be an arbitrary initial guess

2. $\mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{b}$

3. $\mathbf{z}_0 = \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{r}_0$

4. $\mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{z}_0$

5. For $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \text{MaxIter}$

6. $\alpha_j = \frac{\mathbf{r}_j^T \mathbf{z}_j}{\mathbf{p}_j^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_j}$

7. $\mathbf{x}_{j+1} = \mathbf{x}_j + \alpha_j \mathbf{p}_j$

8. $\mathbf{r}_{j+1} = \mathbf{r}_j - \alpha_j \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_j$

9. If the stopping criterion is met, exit the loop.

10. $\mathbf{z}_{j+1} = \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{r}_{j+1}$

11. $\beta_j = \frac{\mathbf{r}_{j+1}^T \mathbf{z}_{j+1}}{\mathbf{z}_j^T \mathbf{r}_j}$

12. $\mathbf{p}_{j+1} = \mathbf{z}_{j+1} + \beta_j \mathbf{p}_j$

13. *End For*

The calculation involved once in step 3 and then in every CG iteration in step 10 of the above algorithm is known as preconditioning operation. Matrix \mathbf{M} is called the preconditioner and is actually a sparse approximate of the coefficient matrix \mathbf{A} . In the remaining of this section we focus on different methods of forming the preconditioner \mathbf{M} .

A. INCOMPLETE CHOLESKY FACTORIZATION

Since system (4) is SPD, one of the most efficient iterative solvers is PCG method preconditioned with incomplete Cholesky (IC) factorization techniques [4], [15] and [34]. IC factorization is done by the same procedure as the complete form. The only difference is that some of the fill-ins in the course of the factorization process are discarded. This leads to sparse factors which approximate exact Cholesky factors. Discarding new fill-ins is controlled by employing a dropping rule. In this way, a number of incomplete Cholesky factorization preconditioners can be constructed such as drop tolerance-based IC, IC with fixed fill-in and double threshold IC.

Drop tolerance-based incomplete Cholesky factorization

One way to control the amount of fill-in allowed in the factorization process is to accept or discard new entries with regards to their absolute values. For this purpose, a drop tolerance $\tau > 0$, which is a positive real number, is used and fill-ins in step k^{th} can be controlled in the following manner:

$$\begin{cases} a_{ij}^{(k)} \text{ is kept} & |a_{ij}^{(k)}| > \tau \sqrt{d_i^{(k)} d_j^{(k)}} \\ a_{ij}^{(k)} \text{ is dropped} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (5)$$

in which $d_i^{(k)}$ and $d_j^{(k)}$ are the i^{th} and j^{th} diagonal elements of the matrix in step k^{th} , respectively. This class of incomplete factorization methods are studied widely and shown to be very reliable preconditioners provided the suitable drop tolerance is chosen [4], [10], [31], [34].

Incomplete Cholesky factorization with fixed fill-in

Incomplete factorization with fixed fill-in was first introduced by Jones and Plassmann [19]. In their proposed algorithm, the fill-in is controlled by keeping a limited number of elements which have the largest absolute values in each row of the Cholesky factor. They set this fixed number of fill-ins for each row to be the number of nonzero elements in the same row of the triangular part of the original matrix. A similar strategy was used by Lin and More [28]. However, in their method, they let a fixed number of additional elements to be accepted in each row of the Cholesky factor. Again, the acceptance of fill-ins is based on their absolute value. By denoting this fixed number by ρ , this preconditioner is known as FFIC(ρ). Note that in the special case $\rho = 0$, the Jones and Plassmann's preconditioner [19] is obtained.

Double threshold incomplete Cholesky factorization

The idea of using two different levels of dropping in the process of incomplete factorization is first proposed by Saad [33]. He designed a so called ILUT(τ, ρ) preconditioner with two thresholds τ , which is a drop tolerance and ρ , which is in fact the maximum number of nonzero elements allowed in each row of the incomplete factors. This preconditioner was shown to be quite powerful for difficult

problems [4], [33]. The same strategy can be employed for incomplete Cholesky factorization of SPD matrices to produce so-called ICT(τ, ρ) preconditioner.

Robust Incomplete Cholesky Factorization

IC has been proved to exist for M-matrices [31] and also H-matrices with positive diagonals [30]. However, it can fail for general SPD matrices due to pivot breakdowns; that is, occurring a zero or negative pivot during the factorization process. There are several remedies for this problem.

One way is to apply a global shift to the diagonal of the matrix before starting the factorization. In this method which was proposed by Manteuffel [30], the original matrix **A** is replaced by

$$\mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{D}, \quad (6)$$

where **D** is the diagonal of **A** and α is known as diagonal shifting parameter. Applying this diagonal shifting strategy with an appropriate shift parameter α to the diagonally scaled form the coefficient matrix which is $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$ can be quite efficient and leads to very powerful preconditioners [28], [35], and [36]. However, the process of choosing α is based on trial and error.

Another strategy to achieve a stable factorization without any pivot breakdowns for general SPD matrices is to design a modified incomplete factorization without modifying the original matrix. The most famous and widely used strategy in this category is the robust incomplete factorization presented by Ajiz and Jennings [1]. Their method, which is abbreviated as AJRIC(τ), is in fact a modified form of drop tolerance-based IC factorization. It proceeds by adding the absolute value of each dropped element (or a factor of it [17]) to both corresponding diagonal elements of the matrix. This strategy leads to a breakdown-free IC factorization. Similar strategies can be found in [37].

B. SPARSE APPROXIMATE INVERSE

Sparse approximate inverse preconditioners have been widely developed and investigated during the recent years. In contrast to incomplete factorization approach, these preconditioners, in fact, approximate the inverse of the coefficient matrix. Hence, their main advantage is that the implementation of the preconditioner within the iterative solution scheme requires only matrix-vector products and as a result the preconditioning operation can be effectively parallelized. In addition, they have been shown to be robust since they never suffer from pivot breakdowns such as those happen in the process of incomplete factorization [4].

Generally, the inverse of a sparse matrix is usually a dense matrix. However, in most cases, it has been shown that a lot of elements in the inverse matrix are very small in absolute value. As a result, it is possible to approximate the inverse matrix with a sparse matrix. Sparse approximate inverses are classified into two groups based on whether the preconditioner is presented in the form of a single matrix or a product of two or more matrices [4].

Minimizing the Frobenius norm of the error matrix

These preconditioners which are first proposed by Benson [3] try to find sparse matrix \mathbf{M} as the solution of the following problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{M} \in \Sigma} \|\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{M}\|_F, \quad (7)$$

in which Σ is a set of sparse matrices and $\|\cdot\|_F$ denotes the Frobenius norm of a matrix. With the knowledge that

$$\|\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{M}\|_2^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n \|\mathbf{e}_k - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{m}_k\|_2^2, \quad (8)$$

in which \mathbf{e}_k shows the k^{th} column of the identity matrix and \mathbf{m}_k is the k^{th} column of \mathbf{M} . Finding \mathbf{M} for the problem (9) can be fulfilled by solving n independent linear least-square problems. Note that these problems need to be solved with respect to sparsity conditions imposed by Σ . Letting Σ be a fixed sparsity pattern leads to some popular sparse approximate inverses such as so called SPAI preconditioner proposed by Grote and Huckle [16]. As matrix \mathbf{M} obtained from (9) is not necessarily SPD even for SPD matrix \mathbf{A} , SPAI preconditioner cannot be used for preconditioned Conjugate Gradient solver.

Kolotilina and Yeremin [22] proposed a factored approximate inverse preconditioner known as FSAI. Similar to SPAI, FSAI is also based on the minimization of the Frobenius norm. However, in order to obtain a SPD preconditioner, FSAI computes a sparse lower triangular matrix \mathbf{F} which is in fact an approximation of the inverse of the Cholesky Factor of \mathbf{A} , i.e. $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{L}^{-1}$. Then, the preconditioner is set to be $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}$. The only issue is again choosing an appropriate sparsity pattern in advance. There have been several studies devoted to this matter in references [11], [18]. The FSAI preconditioner is robust for general SPD matrices and have shown to be efficient for ill-conditioned problems [5], [14], [21] and [22].

Incomplete biconjugation process

Another approach which is originally proposed for nonsymmetric matrices by Benzi and Tuma [8] is to factorize the inverse of a matrix incompletely using a two way Gram-Schmidt process applied to \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^T at the same time. This process is known as \mathbf{A} -biorthogonalization. The preconditioner obtained in this way is called AINV and is of the form

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{R}^T \square \mathbf{A}^{-1}, \quad (9)$$

where $\mathbf{D} = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ is a diagonal matrix where $d_j = \langle \mathbf{s}_j, \mathbf{s}_j \rangle_{\mathbf{A}}$ ($1 \leq j \leq n$) and $\mathbf{S} = [\mathbf{S}_1, \dots, \mathbf{S}_n]$ and $\mathbf{R} = [\mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_n]$ are unit diagonal upper triangular matrices. In addition, a dropping rule is applied after each update the columns of \mathbf{S} and \mathbf{R} . Note that in the SPD case, $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{R}$ and as the pivots are nonzero, the preconditioner does not encounter any breakdowns for general SPD

matrices, hence its name SAINV for stabilized AINV [5], [20].

In the next section, we present the numerical results of applying the preconditioners discussed in this section to PCG method in an attempt to solve sample systems of the form (4) arising from solving problem (2) by primal-dual interior point method.

IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

In this section numerical results of applying PCG method preconditioned with different preconditioners are presented and discussed. As discussed earlier, we have implemented several preconditioners from two main classes of preconditioning techniques. Among the incomplete Cholesky (IC) factorization variants, our experiments involve IC with fixed fill-in (FFIC), Ajiz-Jennings' Robust IC (AJRIC) and IC with double threshold (ICDT). In addition, factorized approximate inverse (FSAI) and stabilized approximate inverse (SAINV) have been implemented from the variants of approximate inverse preconditioners.

The algorithms are coded and compiled using Intel Fortran Compiler XE 12.1 in the Visual Studio 2010 environment. Finally, the computations are all carried out on a desktop computer with 2.8 GHz quad-core processor and 4.0 GB of RAM operating under 64-bit Windows 7.

Sample Systems

The set of eight sample systems use in this study are all arising in the course of IPM method applied to finite element limit analysis for Geotechnical problems. A summary of the features of the sample coefficient matrices, including the dimension of the matrix (size), the number of nonzero elements of the matrix (NNZ), the minimum and maximum eigenvalues in magnitude (Min Eig and Max Eig) and the condition number of the matrix (CN) (calculated by dividing the maximum eigenvalue by the minimum one) are presented in Table I.

TABLE I
PROPERTIES OF SAMPLE MATRICES

Sample Matrix	Size	NNZ	Min Eig	Max Eig	CN
C_Small	45,473	3,161,485	2.8E-3	9.1E5	3.2E8
C_Mid	231,170	3,290,336	3.4E-4	3.2E6	9.4E9
C_Large	452,402	6,109,998	2.6E-5	6.4E6	2.5E11
C_Xlarge	1,530,902	21,786,298	1.8E-5	1.6E7	8.9E11
T_Small	26,365	1,794,413	1.3E-4	4.3E5	3.3E9
T_Mid	207,153	14,461,305	2.8E-6	9.7E7	3.5E13
T_Large	402,958	28,281,869	1.8E-6	4.5E6	2.5E12
T_Xlarge	893,239	79,549,743	1.5E-6	7.2E7	4.8E13

As seen from the Table I, all three sample matrices are very ill-conditioned due to very poor scaling of the entries of the matrices. This suggests a weak performance of the iterative solvers without any preconditioning.

Pre-processing of Sample Systems

In order to improve our preconditioning techniques some changes have been made to the coefficient matrix in all or some of the samples before performing the preconditioning

process. These modifications are a result of extensive numerical experiments performed on similar systems [23]. First of all, for all preconditioners and systems, the coefficient matrices were diagonally scaled as in (8). According to large amount of literature this scaling can improve the preconditioning procedure, mostly in terms of speed of the preconditioner construction and also the efficiency of the resulting preconditioner (see [4] and references therein).

Secondly, some reordering has been applied to the coefficient matrices before building the preconditioning matrix. For IC preconditioners, the coefficient matrices were pre-ordered using reverse Cuthill-McKee (RCM) [13]. This is because RCM has shown the best effect among all ordering schemes with regards to both computational cost and robustness of the incomplete Cholesky factorization preconditioners [4], [6]. For Sparse approximate inverse methods, on the other hand, we used Multiple Minimum Degree (MMD) [29]. This ordering scheme has proven to have promising effects on improving the computational cost of constructing approximate inverse preconditioners as well as the degree of parallelism of the resulting preconditioner [4, 5, 9].

Finally, in some of the samples when applying preconditioners FFIC and ICDT, the factorization process encountered a pivot breakdown. This is because these preconditioners are not essentially robust, i.e. breakdown-free, for general SPD matrices. In such cases, the preconditioner construction phase was re-performed on the diagonally shifted version of the coefficient matrix as in (7). Note that in these cases a fixed and probably not optimal value of 0.2 was used, which prevented the factorization from breakdown in all such cases.

PCG Convergence Results

The implemented preconditioners are all implemented in the PCG method as in Algorithm 1. Moreover, the following stopping criterion is utilized for all PCG method runs:

$$\|r_k\|_\infty \leq \varepsilon \times (\|b\|_\infty + \|x_k\|_\infty \|A\|_\infty), \quad (15)$$

in which $\|b\|_\infty$, $\|r_k\|_\infty$ and $\|x_k\|_\infty$ are the infinity norm of the right hand side vector, the current residual and solution vectors, respectively. Also, $\|A\|_\infty$ denotes the infinity norm of the coefficient matrix, which is in fact the maximum of the row sums of the matrix. In the following reported results the value of stop tolerance ε is set to 10^{-12} . The maximum number of CG iterations allowed is also set to be equal to the dimension of the corresponding coefficient matrix in each case.

Before proceeding with our numerical experiments, some pre-processing procedures were performed on some or all of our sample systems in order to improve the efficiency of the preconditioning techniques. These procedures which will be discussed next include ordering, scaling and diagonal shifting.

In this sub-section, the results from applying the previously mentioned iterative solvers are presented. In each case, different parameters for the preconditioners have been tested

and results are given and compared. In addition, in all following tables, some common notations are used as follows: PCN: condition number of the preconditioned matrix; P-Time: CPU time (in seconds) spent on building the preconditioner; CG-Time: CPU time (in seconds) spent on CG process until a stopping criterion is met; CG-Iter: the number of iterations performed by CG algorithm until convergence; Total time: Total time of the algorithm including P-Time and CG-Time.

Incomplete Cholesky factorization with fixed fill-in (FFIC(ρ))

Table II shows the convergence behavior of the PCG method preconditioned with FFIC(ρ) for different values of ρ. In all cases, the algorithm failed due to pivot breakdown. A global diagonal shifting strategy, therefore, has been employed.

TABLE II
CONVERGENCE RESULTS OF PCG WITH FFIC PRECONDITIONER

Matrix	ρ	PCN	P-Time	CG Time	CG Iter	Total Time
C_Small	0	7.6E3	4.12	10.08	560	14.20
	10	7.7E3	4.75	12.41	564	17.16
	50	7.4E3	5.51	14.93	553	20.44
	100	7.0E3	6.98	17.22	538	24.20
C_Mid	0	3.4E4	16.32	22.22	1186	38.54
	10	3.3E4	16.78	26.74	1168	43.52
	50	3.3E4	17.68	32.82	1168	50.50
	100	2.8E4	19.35	35.84	1076	55.19
C_Large	0	5.8E4	45.69	53.89	1549	99.58
	10	5.9E4	46.12	66.46	1563	112.58
	50	5.6E4	47.85	79.42	1522	127.27
	100	5.2E4	49.27	90.73	1467	140.00
C_Xlarge	0	8.3E4	83.42	229.85	1853	313.27
	10	8.5E4	85.68	284.41	1876	370.09
	50	8.4E4	92.48	347.00	1865	439.48
	100	7.9E4	101.62	398.69	1808	500.31
T_Small	0	8.2E3	5.29	5.95	582	11.24
	10	8.4E3	6.01	7.35	589	13.36
	50	7.6E3	4.12	10.08	560	14.20
	100	7.7E3	4.75	12.41	564	17.16
T_Mid	0	7.4E3	5.51	14.93	553	20.44
	10	7.0E3	6.98	17.22	538	24.20
	50	3.4E4	16.32	22.22	1186	38.54
	100	3.3E4	16.78	26.74	1168	43.52
T_Large	0	3.3E4	17.68	32.82	1168	50.50
	10	2.8E4	19.35	35.84	1076	55.19
	50	5.8E4	45.69	53.89	1549	99.58
	100	5.9E4	46.12	66.46	1563	112.58
T_Xlarge	0	5.6E4	47.85	79.42	1522	127.27
	10	5.2E4	49.27	90.73	1467	140.00
	50	8.3E4	83.42	229.85	1853	313.27
	100	8.5E4	85.68	284.41	1876	370.09

According to Table II, in some samples additional fill-ins lead to fewer number of CG iterations. This can be interpreted as the result of improvement in the condition number of the coefficient matrix. On the other hand, by allowing more fill-

ins, the preconditioner becomes less sparse and consequently the time of even fewer number of CG iterations grows. With regards to total time taken for both preconditioning and solving process, allowing no fill-ins seems to be the best option in most cases.

Ajiz-Jennings' robust incomplete Cholesky factorization (AJRIC(τ))

This is one of the most popular versions of incomplete Cholesky factorization which is widely used in different engineering applications [4]. As mentioned in the previous section, it is a breakdown-free version of the incomplete Cholesky factorization with drop tolerance for general SPD matrices. The convergence analysis of the PCG method preconditioned with AJRIC(τ) for different values of the drop tolerance τ applied to our three sample matrices are given in Tables III.

TABLE III
CONVERGENCE RESULTS OF PCG WITH AJRIC PRECONDITIONER

Matrix	τ	PCN	P-Time	CG Time	CG Iter	Total Time
C_Small	1.0E-2	6.8E3	4.83	9.54	530	14.37
	1.0E-3	6.5E3	5.12	11.40	518	16.43
	1.0E-4	6.7E3	8.63	14.20	526	22.83
	1.0E-5	6.5E3	10.49	16.58	518	27.07
C_Mid	1.0E-2	3.1E4	15.76	21.21	1132	36.97
	1.0E-3	2.9E4	17.48	25.07	1095	42.55
	1.0E-4	3.2E4	20.22	32.34	1151	52.56
	1.0E-5	2.8E4	22.30	35.84	1076	58.14
C_Large	1.0E-2	5.3E4	43.16	51.52	1481	94.68
	1.0E-3	5.2E4	47.94	62.37	1467	110.31
	1.0E-4	5.3E4	48.59	77.28	1481	125.87
	1.0E-5	5.1E4	52.13	89.86	1453	141.99
C_Xlarge	1.0E-2	7.9E4	84.64	224.27	1808	308.91
	1.0E-3	8.0E4	89.05	275.92	1820	364.97
	1.0E-4	8.0E4	97.67	338.63	1820	436.30
	1.0E-5	7.8E4	112.19	396.27	1797	508.46
T_Small	1.0E-2	7.8E3	4.01	5.80	568	9.81
	1.0E-3	7.8E3	5.12	7.09	568	12.21
	1.0E-4	7.9E3	7.86	8.75	571	16.61
	1.0E-5	7.9E3	9.24	10.37	571	19.61
T_Mid	1.0E-2	7.1E5	24.61	446.43	5422	471.04
	1.0E-3	6.9E5	27.04	537.88	5345	564.92
	1.0E-4	7.1E5	32.10	669.64	5422	701.74
	1.0E-5	7.0E5	36.19	787.93	5383	824.12
T_Large	1.0E-2	6.3E5	45.17	822.35	5107	867.52
	1.0E-3	6.3E5	48.01	1005.09	5107	1053.10
	1.0E-4	6.2E5	55.26	1223.62	5066	1278.88
	1.0E-5	6.3E5	64.50	1461.95	5107	1526.45
T_Xlarge	1.0E-2	8.9E5	87.26	2749.22	6070	2836.48
	1.0E-3	9.1E5	90.11	3397.80	6138	3487.91
	1.0E-4	9.2E5	101.64	4193.12	6172	4294.76
	1.0E-5	8.9E5	124.15	4887.48	6070	5011.63

Table III shows that by choosing a smaller value for the drop tolerance, the expense of constructing the preconditioner increases since more fill-ins allowed in the incomplete factor. However, in most cases the number of iterations of CG method decreases for smaller drop tolerances, yet the preconditioner is less sparse and as a result the CG solver is

more time consuming. Looking for a balance between these two features, one can suggest the values in the interval $[1.0e-2, 1.0e-3]$ to be more appropriate in our application.

Furthermore, a comparison between Tables II and III reveals that the AJRIC preconditioner is generally more efficient than FFIC for our sample problems.

Incomplete Cholesky factorization with double threshold (ICDT(τ, ρ))

In Tables IV, the convergence behavior of the PCG method preconditioned with ICDT(τ, ρ) is given for different values of τ and ρ applied to our sample matrices. Here the test values for the fill-in parameter ρ and the drop tolerance τ have been selected from the most effective ones according to Tables III and IV, respectively. Note that the choice of $\rho=0$ the preconditioner will be identical to FFIC(0), hence skipped in Table IV. Again, the factorization breakdowns were encountered, so a global diagonal shifting strategy has been utilized.

TABLE IV
CONVERGENCE RESULTS OF PCG WITH ICDT PRECONDITIONER

Matrix	ρ	τ	PCN	P-Time	CG Time	CG Iter	Total Time
C_Small	10	1E-2	7.3E3	4.0	9.8	549	14.9
		1E-3	7.2E3	4.2	12.0	546	17.3
	50	1E-2	7.0E3	6.9	14.5	538	21.4
		1E-3	7.1E3	8.2	17.3	542	26.6
C_Mid	10	1E-2	3.1E4	13.0	21.2	1132	36.7
		1E-3	3.0E4	14.8	25.5	1114	42.3
	50	1E-2	3.3E4	15.0	32.8	1168	49.8
		1E-3	3.1E4	18.4	37.7	1132	57.2
C_Large	10	1E-2	5.6E4	40.6	52.9	1522	98.6
		1E-3	5.5E4	43.2	64.1	1509	111.4
	50	1E-2	5.3E4	45.1	77.2	1481	126.4
		1E-3	5.3E4	46.8	91.5	1481	143.4
C_Xlarge	10	1E-2	8.3E4	77.6	229.8	1853	314.5
		1E-3	8.1E4	83.4	277.5	1831	363.0
	50	1E-2	8.2E4	85.9	342.7	1842	432.6
		1E-3	8.2E4	89.3	406.2	1842	497.5
T_Small	10	1E-2	8.3E3	3.5	5.9	586	12.5
		1E-3	8.1E3	4.6	7.2	579	13.8
	50	1E-2	8.1E3	6.0	8.8	579	16.9
		1E-3	8.0E3	7.3	10.4	575	19.8
T_Mid	10	1E-2	7.1E5	20.1	446.4	5422	472.5
		1E-3	7.0E5	23.4	541.7	5383	569.2
	50	1E-2	7.2E5	26.6	674.3	5460	704.0
		1E-3	7.0E5	27.7	787.9	5383	818.6
T_Large	10	1E-2	6.5E5	41.8	835.3	5188	888.2
		1E-3	6.3E5	43.1	1005.0	5107	1058.2
	50	1E-2	6.3E5	55.3	1233.5	5107	1293.8
		1E-3	6.0E5	58.1	1426.7	4984	1488.8
T_Xlarge	10	1E-2	9.1E5	82.2	2780.0	6138	2875.2
		1E-3	8.9E5	85.4	3360.1	6070	3457.5
	50	1E-2	9.2E5	96.0	4193.1	6172	4299.1
		1E-3	9.0E5	108.	4914.8	6104	5025.6

It appears that the computation time taken by CG to solve the preconditioned system is far more dependent on the number of fixed fill-ins rather than on the drop tolerance since

the fixed fill-in parameter determines the density of the preconditioner. The same comment can be given on the storage requirements of the preconditioner. However, in most cases, the drop tolerance has an obvious effect on improvement of the number of iterations of the CG method. According to these observations, the drop tolerance can be interpreted as a parameter responsible for the accuracy of the solution and the fixed fill-in number as a parameter to control the storage requirement and computational expense of the solver.

Factorized sparse approximate inverse (FSAI)

The results from applying PCG with FSAI preconditioner on our samples systems are presented in Table V. To build the preconditioner, *a priori* sparsity pattern needs be determined. In the reported results in Table V, two different sparsity patterns are considered. One is the same as the sparsity pattern of the coefficient matrix **A** and the other one is identical to that of the squared coefficient matrix **A**². Extensive experiments suggest that considering higher powers of matrix **A** for this purpose is of no further improvement in the efficiency of the preconditioner since the cost of constructing the preconditioner grows significantly.

TABLE V
CONVERGENCE RESULTS OF PCG WITH FSAI PRECONDITIONER

Matrix	A PRIORI	PCN	P-Time	CG Time	CG Iter	Total Time
C_Small	A	1.1E+4	5.24	9.76	723	15.00
	A ²	9.5E+3	9.32	13.61	672	22.93
C_Mid	A	8.6E+4	15.01	28.42	2023	43.43
	A ²	8.4E+4	24.72	42.13	1999	66.85
C_Large	A	9.9E+4	41.46	56.64	2171	98.10
	A ²	9.5E+4	58.59	83.20	2126	141.79
C_Xlarge	A	1.6E+5	82.43	256.76	2760	339.19
	A ²	1.2E+5	102.15	333.51	2390	435.66
T_Small	A	2.5E+4	6.01	8.35	1090	14.36
	A ²	2.1E+4	12.89	11.48	999	24.37
T_Mid	A	1.0E+6	20.30	426.09	6900	446.39
	A ²	9.8E+5	46.14	632.65	6830	678.79
T_Large	A	9.6E+5	51.15	816.39	6760	867.54
	A ²	9.3E+5	83.82	1205.3	6654	1289.20
T_Xlarge	A	2.3E+6	92.07	3554.5	10464	3646.5
	A ²	1.9E+6	145.41	4845.6	9510	4991.0

The results from Table V suggest that for all of the sample systems, although use of the sparsity pattern of **A**² leads to a better conditioned matrix and reduces the number of CG iteration, the cost of construction of the preconditioner and the solution time of the PCG algorithm is much higher than the case of employing the sparsity patten of **A**. Moreover, compared to other preconditioning techniques reported so far, the efficiency of FSAI preconditioner in terms of total solution time of the PCG algorithm is quite comparable to ICDT and in most cases slightly better than FFIC. However, it is still outperformed by AJRIC with quite a considerable margin.

Stabilized approximate inverse (SAINV(τ))

Table VI presents the results of the employment of PCG method preconditioned with SANIV to solve the sample systems with two different values of drop tolerance τ . Smaller values of the drop tolerance make the preconditioner construction time prohibitively longer. Note that as all sample systems are SPD, the SANIV preconditioner is computed without any breakdowns.

TABLE VI
CONVERGENCE RESULTS OF PCG WITH SAINV PRECONDITIONER

Matrix	τ	PCN	P-Time	CG Time	CG Iter	Total Time
C_Small	0.1	1.0E+4	5.31	9.18	680	14.49
	0.01	9.6E+3	10.12	13.49	666	23.61
C_Mid	0.1	8.5E+4	14.30	27.85	1982	42.15
	0.01	8.4E+4	20.72	41.52	1970	62.24
C_Large	0.1	9.7E+4	40.17	55.23	2117	95.40
	0.01	9.5E+4	56.39	81.99	2095	138.38
C_Xlarge	0.1	1.7E+5	82.19	260.77	2803	342.96
	0.01	1.4E+5	96.71	355.00	2544	451.71
T_Small	0.1	2.5E+4	6.49	8.24	1075	14.73
	0.01	2.2E+4	10.75	11.59	1008	22.34
T_Mid	0.1	9.8E+5	21.62	415.65	6731	437.27
	0.01	9.7E+5	39.79	620.33	6697	660.12
T_Large	0.1	9.7E+5	50.83	808.78	6697	859.61
	0.01	9.3E+5	78.36	1187.8	6557	1266.1
T_Xlarge	0.1	2.1E+6	91.42	3347.3	9854	3438.7
	0.01	1.8E+6	129.01	4648.4	9123	4777.4

Table VI reveals that while the time of constructing SAINV preconditioner is comparable to that of FSAI, the total time of the PCG algorithm is slightly shorter in the former case. Furthermore, selecting a smaller drop tolerance seems to increase the preconditioning time even higher with generally no significant achievement in terms of the CG time.

In addition, similar to FSAI, the SAINV preconditioner is also not as efficient as incomplete Cholesky variants at least in sequential computations. However, in parallel computations this comparison may lead to a totally different statement. Figure I compares the CPU time per PCG iteration with two major classes of preconditioners studied so far, i.e. incomplete Cholesky (IC-CG) and approximate inverse (AI-CG) techniques. As the purpose of such a comparison is to reveal the possible advantage of the approximate inverse preconditioners over incomplete Cholesky techniques in parallel environment, only the best performance results of each class of preconditioners for each problem are included in Figure I.

Figure I shows that the CG time per iteration is higher for CG preconditioned with incomplete Cholesky preconditioner. It is of no surprise as each iteration of an incomplete Cholesky preconditioned CG (IC-CG) includes one matrix-vector product and two triangular system solution while each iteration of an approximate inverse preconditioned CG (AI-CG) involves three matrix vector products.

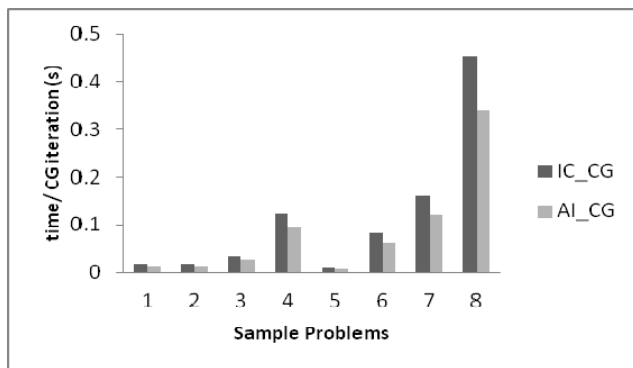


FIGURE I: TIME PER CG ITERATION WITH IC AND AI PRECONDITIONERS

According to Figure I, even in sequential environment, a matrix-vector product is computationally cheaper than a triangular system solution.

V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In this paper we make an extensive numerical study of the preconditioning techniques for large sparse linear systems arising in the course of the interior point method applied to optimization problems in finite element limit analysis. We included in our study to most widely used classes of preconditioners, the incomplete Cholesky (IC) techniques and the approximate inverse (AI) methods. The systems arising in the specified application are usually highly ill-conditioned. As direct solvers can handle these systems efficiently in smaller sizes, we focus our attention to large sparse systems where the use of direct solvers is not practical due to prohibitive computational and memory costs.

Three variants of IC preconditioners and two variants of AI preconditioners which differ in the employed dropping rules were considered. In each case, a detailed parametric numerical study was conducted and the results were discussed and compared with other methods. The parametric study results can serve as a guide to choose the appropriate preconditioner with regards to the problem in hand and specific goals of the application.

Overall, the IC variants seem to be more efficient than the AI techniques in terms of their effect on the conditioning of the system and as a result the speed of the convergence of the method. Among various IC preconditioners, the Ajiz-Jennings' robust incomplete Cholesky preconditioner (AJRIC) showed the best effect on the CG convergence, followed by the incomplete Cholesky preconditioner with double threshold (ICDT) and Incomplete Cholesky preconditioner with fixed fill-in (FFIC). Note that as for ICDT, the exact size of preconditioner is predictable in advance, in applications where this is desirable, ICDT could be an efficient choice.

The performances of the two AI preconditioners are closely comparable with a slight advantage toward the SAINV preconditioner. Although both AI variants are less effective compared to IC techniques, they possess a significant advantage over IC variants. In fact, even in sequential computations, the each iteration of PCG preconditioned with AI techniques is computationally cheaper than one obtained from IC preconditioning. Indeed, in a parallel computational

environment, the much more efficient parallelism characteristics of a matrix-vector product compared to a triangular system solution may compensate the more number of required CG iterations and, in total, outperform the incomplete Cholesky variants. This is an interesting direction for our future research.

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