# PLTMG: A Software Package for Solving Elliptic Partial Differential Equations Users' Guide 9.0

Randolph E. Bank

Department of Mathematics University of California at San Diego La Jolla, California 92093-0112

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# **Preface**

Many people have made contributions to the development of this version of PLTMG; I am indebted to them all for their help. The original grid refinement algorithms used in PLTMG were derived in 1976 as joint work with Todd Dupont of the University of Chicago. The approximate Newton strategies incorporated in the present version of *PLTMG* represent joint work with Donald J. Rose of Duke University. The gradient recovery and a posteriori error estimation procedures are joint work with Jinchao Xu of Pennsylvania State University. The algorithms used in the pseudo-arclength continuation procedures are joint work with Tony Chan of the University of California at Los Angeles and Hans Mittelmann of Arizona State University. The interior point algorithms used in the three new optimization problems treated in this version are joint work with Philip Gill of University of California at San Diego. The adaptive mesh smoothing algorithms and the multigraph iterative procedures are joint work with R. Kent Smith of Agere. The X-Windows interface and many of the graphics enhancements were jointly developed with Michael Holst of the University of California at San Diego. The parallel adaptive paradigm is joint work with Michael Holst. The parallel domain decomposition solver is joint work with Shaoying Lu, and the dual function used for parallel adaptive meshing is joint work with Jeffrey Ovall, Both were UCSD graduate students. Many people made contributions to the test problems, reported bugs and suggested improvements that have been incorporated in the current version.

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### Chapter 1

# Introduction

## 1.1 Problem Specification.

Consider the elliptic boundary value problem

$$-\nabla \cdot a(x, y, u, \nabla u, \lambda) + f(x, y, u, \nabla u, \lambda) = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega,$$
 (1.1)

with boundary conditions

$$u = g_2(x, y, \lambda)$$
 on  $\partial \Omega_2$ ,  
 $a \cdot n = g_1(x, y, u, \lambda)$  on  $\partial \Omega_1$ , (1.2)  
 $u, a \cdot n$  continuous on  $\partial \Omega_0$ .

Here  $\Omega$  is a bounded region in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , n is the unit normal, a is the vector  $(a_1, a_2)^t$ ,  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ , f,  $g_1$ , and  $g_2$  are scalar functions.  $\partial \Omega_0$  is a portion of  $\partial \Omega$  where periodic boundary conditions are applied. In some problems solved by PLTMG, the parameter  $\lambda$  is not used, while in others  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is a scalar parameter or  $\lambda \in \mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)$ , where  $\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)$  denotes the usual Sobolev space. Let

$$\mathcal{H}_{p}^{1} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{H}^{1}(\Omega) \mid \phi \text{ is continuous on } \partial \Omega_{0} \},$$
  
$$\mathcal{H}_{g}^{1} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{H}_{p}^{1} \mid \phi = g_{2} \text{ on } \partial \Omega_{2} \},$$
  
$$\mathcal{H}_{e}^{1} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{H}_{p}^{1} \mid \phi = 0 \text{ on } \partial \Omega_{2} \}.$$

Then the weak form of (1.1)-(1.2) is: find  $u \in \mathcal{H}_g^1$  such that

$$a(u, v) = 0$$
 for all  $v \in \mathcal{H}_e^1$ , (1.3)

where

$$a(u,v) = \int_{\Omega} a(u,\nabla u,\lambda) \cdot \nabla v + f(u,\nabla u,\lambda) v \, dx \, dy - \int_{\partial \Omega_1} g_1(u,\lambda) v \, ds. \tag{1.4}$$

In some problems solved by PLTMG, a functional  $\rho(u, \lambda)$  plays an important role. Functionals we consider are of the form

$$\rho(u,\lambda) = \int_{\Omega} p_1(x,y,u,\nabla u,\lambda) \, dx \, dy + \int_{\Gamma} p_2(x,y,u,\nabla u,\lambda) \, ds, \tag{1.5}$$

where  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  are scalar functions. Here  $\Gamma = \partial \Omega \cup \Gamma_0$ , where  $\Gamma_0$  consists of certain internal curves specified by the user.

This version of the PLTMG package address five major problem classes. These are briefly described below.

#### 1.1.1 Elliptic Boundary Value Problem.

For this problem, PLTMG solves a discrete analog of (1.3). The parameter  $\lambda$  does not play a role in this problem. Let  $\mathcal{T}$  denote a triangulation of  $\Omega$  and let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the space of  $C^0$  piecewise linear polynomials associated with  $\mathcal{T}$ . PLTMG usually represents such a piecewise polynomial using the standard nodal basis; a function can then be specified by giving its values at the vertices. Let  $\mathcal{T}: \mathcal{H}^1(\Omega) \to \mathcal{M}$  denote continuous piecewise linear interpolation operator that interpolates at the vertices of  $\mathcal{T}$ . Then

$$\mathcal{M}_{p} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{M} \mid \phi \text{ is continuous on } \partial \Omega_{0} \},$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{g} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{M}_{p} \mid \phi = \mathcal{I}(g_{2}) \text{ on } \partial \Omega_{2} \},$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{e} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{M}_{p} \mid \phi = 0 \text{ on } \partial \Omega_{2} \}.$$

The discrete equations solved by PLTMG are formulated as follows: find  $u_h \in \mathcal{M}_d$  such that

$$a(u_h, v) = 0$$
 for all  $v \in \mathcal{M}_e$ . (1.6)

#### 1.1.2 Obstacle Problem.

The second class of problems addressed by PLTMG are the subset of variational inequalities known as obstacle problems. Let

$$\mathcal{K} = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{H}_g^1 \, | \, \underline{u} \le \phi \le \overline{u} \}.$$

The obstacle problem is formulated as

$$\min_{u \in \mathcal{K}} \rho(u) \tag{1.7}$$

where  $\rho$  is a functional of the form (1.5). The parameter  $\lambda$  is not used in this problem. Implicit in our formulation of this problem is an assumption that the Frechet derivative of  $\rho$  corresponds to an elliptic boundary problem of the form (1.3). We also assume that the bound constraints are consistent with the boundary conditions.

The discrete form of this problem is as follows. Let

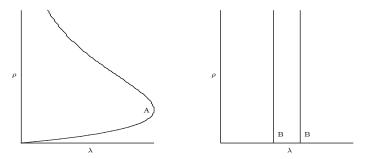
$$\mathcal{K}_h = \{ \phi \in \mathcal{M}_q \, | \, \mathcal{I}(\underline{u}) \le \phi \le \mathcal{I}(\overline{u}) \}.$$

We then seek  $u_h \in \mathcal{K}_h$  that satisfies

$$\min_{u_h \in \mathcal{K}_h} \rho(u_h) \tag{1.8}$$

#### 1.1.3 Continuation Problem.

Continuation problems addressed by PLTMG are all of the form (1.3), where the parameter  $\lambda \in \mathcal{R}$ . Continuation problems also require a functional  $\rho$  as in (1.5). Solutions of (1.3)–(1.5) in general define a family of curves on the  $(\lambda, \rho)$  plane. Typical curves are shown in Figure 1.1.



**Figure 1.1.** Continuation curves  $\rho = \rho(\lambda)$ .

The singular point labeled "A" in the figure on the left is a limit (turning) point, and those labeled "B" in the figure on the right are bifurcation points (this figure corresponds to the special case of a linear eigenvalue problem). The purpose of the continuation process is to compute solutions  $(u, \lambda)$  corresponding to points on these curves.

PLTMG provides a suite of options for solving continuation problems. Among them are options for following a solution curve to a target value in  $\lambda$  or  $\rho$ , locating limit and bifurcation points, and switching branches at bifurcation points. Because some problems might have more than one parameter of interest, PLTMG also has options for switching parameters and functionals (changing the definitions of  $\lambda$  and  $\rho$ ) during the calculation, as a means of exploring higher dimensional spaces.

#### 1.1.4 Parameter Identification Problem.

In this problem, a partial differential equation of the form (1.3) appears as a constraint in an optimization problem. Here we seek  $\lambda \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $u \in \mathcal{H}_q$  that satisfy

$$\min \rho(u, \lambda) \tag{1.9}$$

subject to the constraint (1.3) and the simple bounds

$$\underline{\lambda} \le \lambda \le \overline{\lambda}.\tag{1.10}$$

We define the Lagrangian

$$L(u, v, \lambda) = \rho(u, \lambda) + a(u, v), \tag{1.11}$$

where  $v \in \mathcal{H}_e$  is a Lagrange multiplier. We can solve the optimization problem by seeking stationary points of  $L(u, v, \lambda)$  constrained by the simple bounds (1.10).

In the discretized problem, we seek  $u_h \in \mathcal{M}_g$ , a discrete Lagrange multiplier  $v_h \in \mathcal{M}_e$ , and  $\lambda_h \in \mathcal{R}$  that correspond to a stationary point of  $L(u_h, v_h, \lambda_h)$ , constrained by the simple bounds

$$\underline{\lambda} \le \lambda_h \le \overline{\lambda}.\tag{1.12}$$

As in the case of continuation problems, a problem of the form (1.9)–(1.10) may involve more than one parameter of interest. At present, PLTMG does not allow  $\lambda$  to be a vector of parameters, but it does allow parameter switching (redefining the meaning on  $\lambda$ ) during the course of the calculation. Thus one can sequentially minimize (1.9) with respect to one of the parameters, holding the others fixed.

#### 1.1.5 Optimal Control Problem.

This problem is very similar to the parameter identification problem, expect now  $\lambda \in \mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)$  (or perhaps some weaker space where pointwise values of (1.14) below are defined). Thus we seek  $u \in \mathcal{H}_g$  and  $\lambda \in \mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)$  that satisfy

$$\min \rho(u, \lambda) \tag{1.13}$$

subject to the constraint (1.3) and the simple bounds

$$\lambda(x,y) \le \lambda \le \overline{\lambda}(x,y) \tag{1.14}$$

for  $(x,y) \in \Omega$ . As before, we define the Lagrangian

$$L(u, v, \lambda) = \rho(u, \lambda) + a(u, v), \tag{1.15}$$

where  $v \in \mathcal{H}_e$  is a Lagrange multiplier. We seek stationary points of  $L(u, v, \lambda)$  constrained by the simple bounds (1.14).

In the discretized problem, we seek  $u_h \in \mathcal{M}_g$ , a discrete Lagrange multiplier  $v_h \in \mathcal{M}_e$ , and  $\lambda_h \in \mathcal{M}$  that correspond to a stationary point of  $L(u_h, v_h, \lambda_h)$ . constrained by the simple bounds

$$\mathcal{I}(\underline{\lambda}) \le \lambda_h \le \mathcal{I}(\overline{\lambda}). \tag{1.16}$$

#### 1.2 Main Subroutines

The software package consists of six primary subroutines. These main routines and their functions are summarized in Table 1.1. The package uses two basic data structures to specify the domain  $\Omega$ : the triangulation and the skeleton. Loosely speaking, a triangulation specifies the domain  $\Omega$  as the union of triangles. A skeleton

specifies the domain as the union of one or more subdomains and requires only a description of the boundary of each subdomain. The user can specify the domain as either a triangulation or a skeleton. Specifying a triangulation generally requires less data only for simple domains that can be triangulated with very few triangles. If the domain has a complicated geometry or has internal interfaces that the user would like the triangulation to respect, then it is usually easier to specify the domain as a skeleton. Both data structures are documented in Chapter 2.

Subroutine	Main Function
TRIGEN	Mesh generation and modification
PLTMG	Solve partial differential equation
TRIPLT	Display solution or related function
INPLT	Display input data
GPHPLT	Display performance statistics
MTXPLT	Display sparse matrix

**Table 1.1.** The main subroutines in the package.

Subroutine TRIGEN is mainly concerned with transforming the data structures defining the domain. TRIGEN also provides a posteriori error estimates for the solution in the  $\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)$  and  $\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)$  norms. TRIGEN provides options for creating triangulation and skeleton data structures, and adaptively modifying the triangulation data structure. TRIGEN also provides options for various tasks related to parallel processing, namely partitioning the mesh, broadcasting a given mesh to all processors, reconciling a fine mesh distributed among several processors, and (possibly) collecting a fine mesh from many processors onto just one. TRIGEN is documented in Chapter 3.

Subroutine PLTMG uses finite element discretizations based on  $C^0$  piecewise linear triangular finite elements and includes algorithms to address each of the problem classes described above. In the case of parallel processing, PLTMG includes a domain decomposition solver for each problem class. PLTMG is described in detail in Chapter 4.

Subroutine TRIPLT provides graphical displays of the solution and other grid functions. Three-dimensional color surface/contour plots with shading and an arbitrary viewing perspective are available. Subroutine INPLT provides a graphical display of the mesh data (triangulation or skeleton) defining  $\Omega$ . Subroutine GPH-PLT provides a variety of graphical displays of convergence histories, statistical data, and other interesting output from PLTMG. Subroutine MTXPLT displays the stiffness matrix A or the (approximate) LDU factorization of A in a graphical format. These routines are described in detail in Chapter 5.

An elementary interactive test driver, ATEST, is described in Chapter 6. AT-EST provides options for calling each of the main routines, as well as other useful functions such as writing and reading data files, resetting parameters, and executing problem specific subroutines provided by the user. Several short machine dependent routines are required for timing and graphics. These are also described in

Chapter 6. In Chapter 7, the example problem data sets included with the source code are briefly described.

PLTMG was originally conceived as a prototype program to study the theoretical and practical aspects of the multigrid iterative method, adaptive grid refinement and error estimation procedures, and their interaction. As such, PLTMG was designed to (formally) handle a wide class of elliptic operators and reasonably general domains. The boundary of the problem class has expanded as problems were encountered that required its enlargement to be solved. The problem class addressed by this version of PLTMG should not be interpreted as the limit of the class of problems that could be successfully solved by the techniques embodied by this package. Conversely, one should not assume that every problem (formally) within this class can be solved using the existing code.

As with other versions of the package, time efficiency is a secondary consideration to robustness, versatility, and ease of maintenance. While *PLTMG* is probably not the fastest code that could be used for any particular problem, we believe that it will deliver reasonable execution times in most environments.

#### 1.3 Installation.

The package is provided in both single and double precision versions. The code development was done in single precision, and the program S2D of Jim Meyering (available from Netlib) was used to create the double precision version. The source code is contained in several files as indicated in Table 1.2. The majority of the source code is machine independent. The X-Windows interface is based on the Motif widget set and can be used only on systems which support X-Windows. Certain X-Windows libraries must be loaded along with the PLTMG software. The OpenGL graphics program SG of Michael Holst has been integrated as one of several available graphics devices. SG is available elsewhere, and its MALOC library must be loaded along with the PLTMG software. Finally, the parallel processing options in PLTMG are based on MPI, and the MPI library must also be loaded in order to resolve all external names.

File	Contents
pltmg.f	most source code
mgmpi.f (mgmpi_stubs.f)	MPI interface
mgvio.f (mgvio_stubs.f)	SG interface
xgui.c (xgui_stubs.c)	X-Windows interface
mgxdr.c	XDR interface
atest.f	test driver program
burger.f, battery.f, circle.f, control.f	
domains.f, ident.f, jcn.f, message.f	test problem data sets
mnsurf.f, naca.f, ob.f, square.f	

Table 1.2. Files in the basic distribution.

1.3. Installation. 7

In MPI is not available or not desired, one can substitute the supplied stub interface routines. The stub routines are a set of MPI interface routines with all calls to MPI library functions and subroutines deleted. By using the stub routines in place of the regular interface, one can create an executable with no unresolved external references without loading the MPI library. In this case, however, all the parallel options of PLTMG are disabled.

In a similar fashion, if SG is not available or not desired, one can use the stub routines in place of standard interface routines. If the stub routines are used, the MALOC library is not needed, but the SG OpenGL and BH file graphics devices are disabled. Finally, if the X-Windows libraries are not available, one can replace the X-Windows interface with stub routines. In this case, the graphical user interface and the corresponding X-Windows graphics devices are all disabled, but the X-Windows libraries are not needed.

## Chapter 2

# Data Structures

#### 2.1 Overview.

In this chapter, we define the data structures used in the PLTMG package. We begin with the two data structures used to define the region  $\Omega$ : the triangulation and the skeleton. In this version of PLTMG, the triangulation and skeleton data structures have been extended to accommodate the demands of parallel computation. Triangulation and skeleton data structure definitions are summarized in Table 2.1 and described in detail in Sections 2.2 and 2.3.

The arrays IP, RP, and SP contain many scalar parameters, switches, control variables, flags, and pointers, some that must be specified by the user and others that are internally computed but may be of interest to the user. These are described in Section 2.4. Finally, the coefficient functions defining the differential operator and functional  $\rho$  in (1.1)–(1.3), and the optional function QXY used by TRIGEN and TRIPLT, are described in Section 2.5.

# 2.2 The Triangulation.

In this section, we define the triangulation data structure. Let  $\mathcal{T}$  denote the triangulation consisting of triangles  $t_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq NTF$ , vertices  $v_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq NVF$ , and edges  $b_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq NBF$ . Triangles may have curved edges, which are approximated by arcs of circles. The centers of the circles are given by  $c_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq NCF$ . Curved edges may be on the boundary or in the interior of the region  $\Omega$ .

For example, consider the circle of radius one with a crack along the positive x-axis. This domain can be triangulated using 8 triangles, 10 vertices, and 10 boundary edges, 8 of which are curved, as illustrated in Figure 2.1. Vertices  $v_2$  and  $v_{10}$  have the same (x, y) coordinates, but  $v_2$  is "above" the crack and  $v_{10}$  is "below." Similarly, edge  $b_1$  is the top of the crack, while edge  $b_{10}$  is the bottom. The ordering of vertices, triangles, and edges is arbitrary.

The arrays VX and VY are of length NVF and contain as their Ith entries the (x,y) coordinates of  $v_I$ , illustrated for this example in Table 2.2. If a triangle

array	definition					
(VX(I), VY(I))	vertex coordinates					
(XM(I), YM(I))	circle center coordinates					
IBNDRY(1,I)	first endpoint number					
IBNDRY(2,I)	second endpoint number					
IBNDRY(3,I)	circle center number					
IBNDRY(4,I)	edge type					
IBNDRY(5,I)	reserved for parallel processing					
IBNDRY(6,I)	edge label					
ITNODE for triangulation						
ITNODE(1,I)	first vertex number					
ITNODE(2,I)	second vertex number					
ITNODE(3,I)	third vertex number					
ITNODE(4,I)	reserved for parallel processing					
ITNODE(5,I)	element label					
ITI	NODE for skeleton					
ITNODE(1,I)	first vertex number					
ITNODE(2,I)	first edge number					
ITNODE(3,I)	congruent region number					
ITNODE(4,I)	reserved for parallel processing					
ITNODE(5,I)	region label					

Data structure definitions.

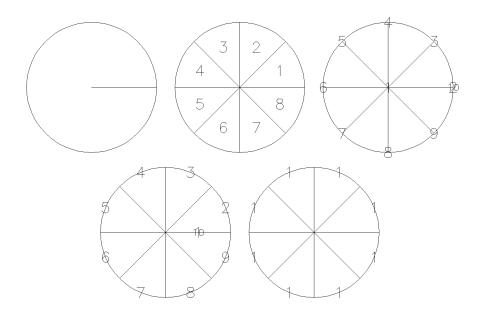
IBNDRY(4,I)	edge type
2	Dirichlet boundary
1	natural boundary
0	internal
-K	linked with edge $K$
3, 4, 5	reserved for parallel processing

Edge type definitions.

Table 2.1.

has a curved edge, that edge is approximated by a circular arc passing through the endpoints of the edge, with the center of the circle located at one of the points  $c_i$ . Because there are generally two such arcs for every pair of endpoints, the shorter arc is taken to be the correct edge; therefore, one must specify curved edges that subtend (strictly) less than  $\pi$  of arc;  $\pi/4$  is a reasonable upper bound. The centers of the circles used to specify curved edges are given in the arrays XM and YM of length NCF, which contain as their Ith entries the x and y coordinates of the center  $c_I$ . The data for our example is shown in Table 2.2.

To simplify data entry, we provide the routine CENTRE for computing the center of a circle given three points on its boundary. CENTRE is called using the



**Figure 2.1.** Clockwise, from upper left: example domain; triangle numbers; vertex numbers; curved edges; edge numbers.

statement

Call CENTRE( X1, Y1, X2, Y2, X3, Y3, XC, YC )

Here (X1,Y1) and (X2,Y2) are the endpoints of an arc of the circle, and (X3,Y3) is a third point on the arc (e.g., the midpoint). CENTRE returns the center of the circle in (XC,YC).

A given triangle  $t_I \in \mathcal{T}$  is specified by giving an accounting of its three vertices and by specifying an integer label or tag. Such labels are provided strictly for the convenience of the user and can be used to identify differing regions or material properties associated with the element. The array ITNODE is a  $5 \times NTF$  integer array whose Ith column contains information about  $t_I$ . The first three entries of ITNODE contain the three vertex numbers of triangle  $t_I$ . ITNODE(J,I) = K, for  $1 \le J \le 3$ , means (VX(K), VY(K)) is the Jth vertex of  $t_I$ . The ordering of the vertices of a given triangle is arbitrary and independent of the other triangles. Entry ITNODE(4,I) is used internally by PLTMG in parallel processing, denoting the processor that "owns"  $t_I$ ; one can simply initialize ITNODE(4,I) = 0. Entry ITNODE(5,I) contains any user provided label for  $t_I$ . In our example, we choose to label each element by the quadrant in the Euclidean plane in which it lies. The ITNODE array for our example is shown in Table 2.2.

The array IBNDRY is a  $6 \times NBF$  integer array whose Ith column contains

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>PLTMG$  reorders vertices as necessary to ensure a counterclockwise orientation for elements.

I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
VX(I)	0	1	$1/\sqrt{2}$	0	$-1/\sqrt{2}$	-1	$-1/\sqrt{2}$	0	$1/\sqrt{2}$	1
VY(I)	0	0	$1/\sqrt{2}$	1	$1/\sqrt{2}$	0	$-1/\sqrt{2}$	-1	$-1/\sqrt{2}$	0
XM(I)	0									
YM(I)	0									

The VX, VY, XM and YM arrays. NVF = 10 and NCF = 1.

I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
IBNDRY(1,I)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
IBNDRY(2,I)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1
IBNDRY(3,I)	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
IBNDRY(4,I)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
IBNDRY(5,I)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IBNDRY(6,I)	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

The IBNDRY array. NBF = 10.

I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ITNODE(1,I)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
ITNODE(2,I)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ITNODE(3,I)	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ITNODE(4,I)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ITNODE(5,I)	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4

The ITNODE array. NTF = 8.

**Table 2.2.** Data structures for a triangulation.

information the indices of the endpoints of the interval. IBNDRY(J,I) = K,  $1 \leq J \leq 2$ , means (VX(K),VY(K)) is an endpoint of  $b_I$ . Ordering of vertices is arbitrary. Entry IBNDRY(3,I) contains the index for the circle center for the edge. IBNDRY(3,I) = K means (XM(K),YM(K)) is the circle center for edge  $b_I$ . If the edge is straight, IBNDRY(3,K) = 0.

The fourth entry defines the boundary type for edge  $b_I$ . The possibilities for edge type are shown in Table 2.1. There are several reasons to include internal edges (IBNDRY(4,I) = 0) in a triangulation. First, if the internal edge is curved, it must be specified in IBNDRY in order to be treated properly. Second, the set  $\Gamma$  in equation (1.3) taken as the edge set in IBNDRY; thus internal edges which are part of  $\Gamma$  must be defined in IBNDRY. An important restriction on internal edges of a triangulation is that they must lie on an internal interface. That is, the two triangles sharing  $b_I$  must have different labels as their fourth entries in ITNODE.

The fourth type of edge is a linked edge. Linked edges occur only in pairs. If  $b_I$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>PLTMG orders the vertices of boundary edges to correspond to a left-handed (usually counterclockwise, except for holes) traversal of the boundary.

2.3. The Skeleton.

and  $b_J$  are a pair of linked edges, then IBNDRY(4,I) = -J and IBNDRY(4,J) = -I. Linked edges  $b_I$  and  $b_J$  must be geometrically congruent. That is,  $b_I$  must be mapped to  $b_J$  using a translation and orthogonal rotation. Continuity of the solution  $u_h$  and weak continuity of  $a \cdot n$  is imposed on linked edge pairs. Thus if  $b_I$  and  $b_J$  are boundary edges, this is equivalent to imposing periodic boundary conditions. In the course of parallel processing, PLTMG creates edges of types 3-5. Entry IBNDRY(5,I) is also used internally by PLTMG for parallel processing.

Entry IBNDRY(6,I) contains an integer label for the edge, similar to ITN-ODE(5,\*); this label can be used to uniquely identify a particular edge, or to associate some property with the edge. The IBNDRY array for our example is shown in Table 2.2.

In our example, we impose Dirichlet boundary conditions on the outer boundary of the circle, and also along the top of the crack, and Neumann boundary conditions on the bottom of the crack. The outer boundary of the circle is labeled 0, the top of the crack 2, and the bottom of the crack 1.

In the case of a singular Neumann problem (e.g.,  $a_1 \equiv u_x$ ,  $a_2 \equiv u_y$ ,  $f \equiv 0$ , and  $\partial \Omega_1 = 0$  in (1.1)), the solution u is determined only up to an arbitrary constant. To make such a solution unique, the user may select a distinguished vertex where u will be specified. The parameter IDBC, where  $1 \leq IDBC \leq NVF$ , denotes the vertex number. In other situations, one should set IDBC = 0.

#### 2.3 The Skeleton.

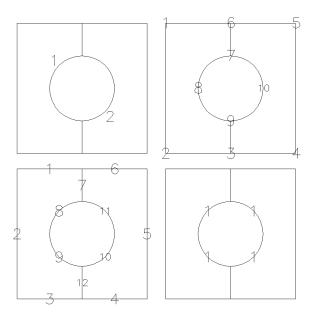
The skeleton data structure is often the easiest data structure for the user to specify by hand, especially if the domain has complicated geometry, symmetry, or internal interfaces. In the skeleton data structure, the domain  $\Omega$  is viewed as the union of NTF simply connected subregions  $\Omega_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le NTF$ . The regions need not be convex, and the case NTF = 1 is not excluded. A shared boundary between two subregions (an internal interface) will be respected by the triangulation process in TRIGEN; that is, the interface will be represented as one or more triangle edges in the triangulation.

The boundary of each  $\Omega_i$  should be a simple closed curve that does not intersect itself. Thus, for example, if  $\Omega$  has a hole, adding a single cut between the outer boundary and the hole will not be adequate. At least two subregions will be required in this case.

Having decomposed the domain into NTF subregions, we decompose the boundaries of the subregions into NBF edges  $b_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le NBF$ . Each edge has two endpoints  $\nu_i^j$ ,  $1 \le j \le 2$ , and if it is a curved edge, it will have a circle center  $c_i$ . All curved edges are approximated by a circular arc as in the triangulation data structure. Curved edges must subtend less than  $\pi/2$  of arc. Globally, the vertices are labeled  $v_k$ ,  $1 \le k \le NVF$ , and the circle centers are labeled  $c_k$ ,  $1 \le k \le NCF$ . The intersection of any two edges should be at most one common endpoint.

As an example, we consider the square region with a hole illustrated in Figure 2.2. In this example, we decompose the region into 2 subregions (NTF = 2), using 10 vertices (NVF = 10), 12 edges (NBF = 12), and 1 circle center (NCF = 1)

as shown.



**Figure 2.2.** Clockwise, from upper left: example domain decomposed into two subregions; vertex numbers; midpoint numbers; edge numbers.

Global numbering of the subregions, edges, vertices, and midpoints is arbitrary. The arrays VX, VY, XM, and YM have similar definitions for the triangulation and skeleton. These arrays for our example domain are shown in Table 2.3. The (x,y) coordinates of vertex  $v_k$ ,  $1 \le k \le NVF$ , are specified in the arrays VX and VY. The (x,y) coordinates of circle center  $c_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le NCF$ , are specified in the arrays XM and YM.

Edges are specified in IBNDRY as in the case of the triangulation. Descendents of Dirichlet, natural, and linked edges are included in the output IBNDRY array when  $\Omega$  is triangulated using TRIGEN. Descendents of internal edges are retained only if they separate regions with different labels. Descendent edges inherit the label of the original edge. In our example, we will assign Dirichlet boundary conditions to the left and right sides and the bottom of the domain, and natural boundary conditions elsewhere. The IBNDRY array then has the form given in Table 2.3.

A subregion  $\Omega_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq NTF$ , is defined by an ordered sequence of edges (at least three) that form its boundary. The sequence is ordered such that the boundary of  $\Omega_i$  is traversed in a counterclockwise direction (thus providing notions of "inside" and "outside"). Each edge in the sequence shares exactly one endpoint with the edge that precedes it and the edge that follows it in the sequence; the first and last edges in the sequence also share one endpoint. A particular edge can appear only once in the sequence.

The array ITNODE is used to define the subregions. Column I of ITNODE

2.3. The Skeleton. 15

I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
VX(I) $VY(I)$	-2	-2	0	2	2	0	0	-1	0	1
	2	-2	-2	-2	2	2	1	0	-1	0
XM(I) YM(I)	0									
YM(I)	0									

The VX, VY, XM, and YM arrays. NVF = 10 and NCF = 1.

I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
IBNDRY(1,I)	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	7	9
IBNDRY(2,I)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	10	3
IBNDRY(3,I)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
IBNDRY(4,I)	1	2	2	2	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
IBNDRY(5,I)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IBNDRY(6,I)	2	1	3	3	1	2	0	4	4	4	4	0

The IBNDRY array. NBF = 12.

I	1	2
ITNODE(1,I)	1	4
ITNODE(2,I)	2	5
ITNODE(3,I)	0	1
ITNODE(4,I)	0	0
ITNODE(5,I)	1	2

I	1	2
ITNODE(1,I)	1	5
ITNODE(2,I)	2	6
ITNODE(3,I)	0	-1
ITNODE(4,I)	0	0
ITNODE(5,I)	1	2

The ITNODE array for mapping by rotation (left) and by reflection (right). NTF = 2.

Table 2.3. Skeleton data structures.

corresponds to the region  $\Omega_I$ . Entry ITNODE(1,I) is a global vertex number for one of the vertices on the boundary of  $\Omega_I$ . Unless  $ITNODE(3,I) \neq 0$  (see below) the choice of vertex is arbitrary. The second entry, ITNODE(2,I), is the global edge number of the first edge in a counterclockwise traversal of  $\Omega_I$ , beginning at vertex  $v_K$ , where ITNODE(1,I) = K.

Entry ITNODE(3,I) is used to specify certain symmetries the user may wish to impose on the triangulation. Two subregions are congruent if one can be mapped onto the other using an affine transformation consisting of a translation, an orthogonal rotation, and perhaps a simple reflection. If this mapping also induces one-to-one correspondences between the edges, vertices, and circle centers used to define the regions, then the user can specify that the two regions be triangulated in a similar fashion.

ITNODE(3,I) = 0 specifies that  $\Omega_I$  can be triangulated independently of other regions.  $ITNODE(3,I) = J, \ 0 < J < I$ , specifies that  $\Omega_I$  can be mapped onto  $\Omega_J$  using just a translation and rotation.  $ITNODE(3,I) = -J, \ 0 < J < J$ 

I, specifies that  $\Omega_I$  can be mapped onto  $\Omega_J$  using a translation, rotation, and a reflection. If  $ITNODE(3,I)=\pm J$ , then ITNODE(1,I) must correspond to the vertex on  $\partial\Omega_I$  which is mapped to the vertex corresponding to ITNODE(1,J) on  $\partial\Omega_J$ . If  $ITNODE(3,I)\neq 0$ , TRIGEN will map the triangulation generated for  $\Omega_J$  onto  $\Omega_I$ , ensuring the desired symmetry properties of the overall triangulation. Note that this is not a symmetric relation; ITNODE(3,I)=J does not mean ITNODE(3,J)=I. In particular, if  $|ITNODE(3,I)|\geq I$ , TRIGEN will return in an error condition.

In our example,  $\Omega_2$  can be mapped onto  $\Omega_1$  by either rotation or reflection. We can ensure the triangulation for  $\Omega_2$  will be similar to that for  $\Omega_1$ , either under rotation or reflection. The resulting triangulations may be different in the two cases.<sup>3</sup> ITNODE arrays for the two situations are illustrated in Table 2.3. Entry ITNODE(4,I) is used by PLTMG in parallel processing. Entry ITNODE(5,I) is a label for the region; all the triangles created in  $\Omega_I$  inherit this label.

We provide the utility subroutine SKLUTL to aid in the creation of the skeleton data structures. Subroutine SKLUTL is called using the statement

Call SKLUTL( ISW, VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, IP, W, IFLAG )

This routine takes as input a skeleton data structure defined VX, VY, XM, YM, IBNDRY, and ITNODE. The integers NTF, NVF, NCF, NBF should be specified in the IP array. The integer ISW specifies the task, as indicated in Table 2.4. W is a work array of length LENW, whose minimum length depends on ISW, but  $LENW \geq 5(NBF + NVF)$  is sufficient.

ISW	task
0	create ITNODE array
1	refine long arcs
2	determine congruent regions

Table 2.4. The values of ISW.

If ISW=0, SKLUTL computes all entries of the ITNODE array, given the remaining arrays in the skeleton data structure (VX, VY, XM, YM,and IBNDRY), and the parameters NVF, NCF, and NBF in the IP array. The value of NTF is returned in the IP array. The regions are labeled with ITNODE(5,I)=I for  $1 \leq I \leq NTF$ , although these labels can subsequently be reset by the user. Also ITNODE(3,I)=0 for  $1 \leq I \leq NTF$ . If ISW=1, SKLUTL accepts as input a complete skeleton description, and divides curved edges as necessary to ensure that all curved edges subtend less than  $\pi/4$  of arc. New edges and vertices are added as necessary, and the relevant skeleton parameters updated. New values of NBF and NVF are returned in the IP array. If ISW=2, SKLUTL accepts as input a complete skeleton description, and finds congruent regions. The values of ITNODE(3,I) (and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> We could ensure greater symmetry in the triangulation by decomposing  $\Omega$  into 4 or 8 congruent regions instead of 2 and then setting ITNODE(3,I) appropriately.

possibly ITNODE(1,I) and ITNODE(2,I)) are reset as necessary. If two regions are congruent but the congruence is not unique, as in our example, an arbitrary choice is made from among the possibilities. Errors are returned in the integer IFLAG as described in Table 2.8.

Several other routines in the package check skeleton data structures for common errors in the data. If found, such errors are reported by setting the parameter IFLAG as described in Table 2.8.

# 2.4 Parameter and Work Arrays.

W is a real array of length LENW; all internal storage for PLTMG and the other routines in the package is allocated from this array. A is a real array of length MAXA. JA is an integer array of length MAXJA. These arrays are the main sparse matrix data structures used by the multigraph solver in PLTMG [21]. They are used internally and need not be initialized by the user.

IP, RP, and SP are integer, real, and CHARACTER\*80 arrays, respectively, of length 100 containing various user specified parameters, and internally generated parameters, switches, flags, and pointers. A list of the currently used locations, their names, and brief definitions appears in Tables 2.5–2.7. Parameters marked "u" should be supplied by the user.

The parameter IFIRST is an initialization switch. If IFIRST=0, no initialization takes place. If IFIRST=1, the array W is partitioned, and the triangulation data structure is checked. The first MAXV entries in W are allocated to the computed solution u (IUU=1), providing the user easy access to the solution. Array entry IP(25) is the error flag IFLAG. A summary of the possible values for IFLAG is given in Table 2.8.

## 2.5 Coefficient Functions.

Several routines in the package require knowledge of the partial differential equation (1.1), the boundary conditions (1.2), the functional  $\rho$  in (1.3), and, on occasion, an alternate function of the solution. This information is provided by the user through subroutines A1XY, A2XY, FXY, GNXY, GDXY, P1XY, P2XY, and QXY.

Subroutines A1XY, A2XY, FXY, and P1XY have identical argument lists.

```
Call A1XY( X, Y, U, UX, UY, RL, ITAG, VALUES ),
Call A2XY( X, Y, U, UX, UY, RL, ITAG, VALUES ),
Call P1XY( X, Y, U, UX, UY, RL, ITAG, VALUES ),
Call FXY( X, Y, U, UX, UY, RL, ITAG, VALUES ).
```

In these subroutines, all of the arguments except VALUES are provided as

I	IP(I)	u	definition	
1	NTF	u	number of triangles / regions	
2	NVF	u	number of vertices	
3	NCF	u	number of circle centers	
4	NBF	u	number of edges	
5	IFIRST	u	initialization switch	
6	IPROB	u	problem type	
7	IDBC	u	special Dirichlet vertex number	
8	ISPD	u	symmetric / nonsymmetric switch	
9	ITASK	u	problem task	
10	MXCG	u	maximum conjugate gradient iterations	
11	MXNWTT	u	maximum damped Newton iterations	
16	NEVP	u	number of evaluation points	
18	MAXJA	u	length of $JA$ array	
19	MAXA	u	length of $A$ array	
20	LENW	u	length of the work array $W$	
21	MAXT	u	number of columns in the array ITNODE	
22	MAXV	u	length of the arrays $VX$ and $VY$	
23	MAXC	u	length of the arrays $XM$ and $YM$	
24	MAXB	u	number of columns in the array IBNDRY	
25	IFLAG		error flag	
26	IADAPT	u	mesh generation option switch	
27	IREFN	u	uniform refinement control	
28	NVTRGT	u	target value for number of vertices	
29	NRGN	u	number of contour lines for skeleton	
31	NEWNTF		number of elements owned by processor	
32	NEWNVF		number of vertices owned by processor	
33	NEWNBF		number of edges owned by processor	
34	NVV		number of interface vertices	
35	NBB		number of interface edges	
36	NVI		number of coarse interface vertices	
37	NBI		number of coarse interface edges	
38	NTG		global number of elements	
39	NVG		global number of vertices	
40	NBG		global number of edges	
41	IUSRSW	u	USRCMD switch	
42	MODE	u	ATEST mode switch	
43	NGRAPH	u	number of graphics windows	

Table 2.5. IP array definitions.

I	IP(I)	u	definition	
44	FDEVCE	u	TRIPLT graphics device	
45	GDEVCE	u	GPHPLT graphics device	
46	JDEVCE	u	INPLT graphics device	
47	MDEVCE	u	MTXPLT graphics device	
48	MPISW	u	MPI switch	
49	NPROC	u	number of processes	
50	IRGN		individual process number	
51	MXCOLR	u	maximum number of colors	
52	IFUN	u	alternate function switch for TRIPLT	
53	INPLSW	u	alternate graph switch for INPLT	
54	IGRSW	u	alternate graph switch for GPHPLT	
55	IMTXSW	u	alternate graph switch for MTXPLT	
56	NCON	11	number of contours	
57	ICONT	u	continuity switch	
58	ISCALE	u	scale option switch	
59	LINES	u	line drawing option switch	
60	NUMBRS	u	numbering option switch	
61	NX	u	numbering option switch	
62	NY	u	(NX,NY,NZ)	
63	NZ	u	is the viewing perspective for TRIPLT	
64	MX	u	(MX,MY,MZ)	
65	MY	u	is the viewing perspective for GPHPLT	
66	MZ	u	and MTXPLT	
67	LEVEL	u	matrix level	
68	ICRSN	u	graphics coarsening switch	
69	ITRGT	u	target size of graphics mesh	
70	IBASE	a	MPI internal edge base number	
71	NVDD		total number of interface vertices	
72	LIPATH		length of IPATH array	
73	LENJA		used locations in JA array	
74	LENA		used locations in A array	
75	LVL		number of multigraph levels	
76	NEF		number of mutigraph levels	
77	NGF		number of grid functions	
78	DBCTAG		element label associated with <i>IDBC</i>	
79	IEVALS		number of function evaluations on last call	
80	ITNUM		number of Newton iterations on last call	
81	MAXPTH		maximum size for IPATH array	
L	******** 111		maximum size for ir rifi array	

Table 2.5, continued. IP array definitions.

I	IP(I)	u	definition	
83	IUU		pointer to the solution $u$	
84	IUX		pointer to the gradient $u_x$	
85	IUY		pointer to the gradient $u_y$	
86	IU0		pointer to the initial solution $u_0$	
87	IUDOT		pointer to the tangent $\dot{u}$ or vector $vx_0$	
88	IU0DOT		pointer to the initial $dotu_0$ or vector $vy_0$	
89	IUDL		pointer to the dual solution	
90	IEVR		pointer to the right singular function $\psi_r$	
91	IEVL		pointer to the left singular function $\psi_{\ell}$	
92	JTIME		pointer to timing array	
93	JHIST		pointer to convergence history array	
94	JPATH		pointer to continuation path history array	
95	KA		pointer to multigraph pointer array	
96	JSTAT		pointer to parallel statistics array	
97	IEE		pointer to local error estimates array	
98	IPATH		pointer to IPATH array	
99	IZ		pointer to temporary workspace	

Table 2.5, continued. IP array definitions.

input. In particular  $(X,Y) \in \Omega$  is the evaluation (quadrature) point, and

$$U = u_h(X, Y),$$

$$UX = \frac{\partial u_h}{\partial x}(X, Y),$$

$$UY = \frac{\partial u_h}{\partial y}(X, Y),$$

$$RL = \lambda_h,$$

 $(RL = \lambda_h(X, Y) \text{ when } \lambda_h \in \mathcal{S})$ . The parameter ITAG=ITNODE(5,I) is the user specified label associated with element  $\tau_I \in \mathcal{T}$  containing (X, Y). From this input data, the user provides values of the given function and its derivatives in the array VALUES. This array is of size 15. All entries are initially set to zero by the calling routine; thus the user need supply only nonzero values.

To simplify this process, PLTMG supplies a labeled common block

common /VAL0/ K0, KU, KX, KY, KL, KUU, KUX, KUY, KUL, KXU, KXX, KXY, KXL, KYU, KYX, KYY, KYL, KLU, KLX, KLY, KLL

containing a predefined list of integer pointers mapping function and derivative values to particular entries in the VALUES array. The details of this mapping are given in Table 2.9 for the case of f; the identical mapping is used for  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  and  $p_1$ .

	DD/I)	1	1.0.44	
I	RP(I)	u	definition	
1	RLTRGT	u	target value for $\lambda$	
2	RTRGT	u	target value for $\rho(u,\lambda)$	
3	RMTRGT	u	target value for $\mu$	
4	RLLWR	u	lower bound for $\lambda$	
5	RLUPR	u	upper bound for $\lambda$	
6	DTOL	u	drop tolerance for incomplete factorization	
8	SMIN	u	lower limit for contour colors	
9	SMAX	u	upper limit for contour colors	
10	RMAG	u	window magnification factor	
11	CENX	u	(CENX,CENY) are the window center coordinates	
12	CENY	u		
15	HMAX	u	approximate largest element size	
16	GRADE	u	largest growth factor for adjacent elements	
17	HMIN	u	approximate smallest edge length	
21	RL		current value of $\lambda_h$	
22	R		current value of $\rho(u_h, \lambda_h) = \rho_h$	
23	RLDOT		current value of $\dot{\lambda}_h$	
24	RDOT		current value of $\dot{\rho}_h$	
25	$SV\!AL$		current value of smallest singular value	
26	RLSTRT		starting value for $\lambda_h$	
27	RSTRT		starting value for $\rho(u_h, \lambda_h)$	
31	RL0		previous value of $\lambda_h$	
32	R0		previous value of $\rho(u_h, \lambda_h) = \rho_h$	
33	RL0DOT		previous value of $\dot{\lambda}_h$	
34	R0DOT		previous value of $\dot{\rho}_h$	
35	SVAL0		previous value of smallest singular value	
37	ENORM1		estimate for $  u-u_h  _{\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)}$	
38	UNORM1		the norm $  u_h  _{\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)}$	
39	ENORM2		estimate for $  u-u_h  _{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}$	
40	UNORM2		the norm $  u_h  _{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}$	

Table 2.6. RP array definitions.

For example, if

$$f = \lambda \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + u^2,$$

then the following code fragment would be included in Subroutine FXY.

```
VALUES(K0) = RL * UX + U**2

VALUES(KX) = RL

VALUES(KU) = 2. * U

VALUES(KL) = UX
```

I	RP(I)	u	definition	
51	EPS		the machine epsilon	
52	STEP		damping step $s$ for Newton's method	
53	BNORM		norm of current Newton residual $\ \mathcal{G}\ $	
54	RELERR		relative size of Newton update $\ \delta U\ /\ U\ $	
55	ANORM		maximum diagonal entry in Jacobian matrix	
56	RELRES		the relative residual $\ \mathcal{G}_k\ /\ \mathcal{G}_0\ $	
57	BRATIO		the relative residual $\ \mathcal{G}_k\ /\ \mathcal{G}_{k-1}\ $	
58	BNORM0		norm of initial Newton residual $\ \mathcal{G}_0\ $	
59	RELER0		relative size of first Newton update $\ \delta U\ /\ U\ $	
60	DNEW		the discrete inner product $-\langle G_u \delta U, G \rangle$	
63	RMU		current value of $\mu$	
64	RMU0		previous value of $\mu$	
67	SCLEQN		current value of scalar equation $N-\sigma$	
68	SCALE		scaling factor for scalar equation	
69	THETAL		$(2-\theta)\dot{\lambda}_h$ in scalar equation	
70	THETAR		$\theta \dot{\rho}_h$ in scalar equation	
71	SIGMA		the step $\sigma$ for scalar equation	
72	DELTA		Newton update for $\lambda_h$	
73	DRDRL		the value of $\partial \rho / \partial \lambda$	
74	SEQDOT		the value of $N$	
76	QUAL		target element quality	
77	$\overline{ANGMN}$		target minimum angle	
78	DIAM		approximate diameter of $\Omega$	
79	BEST		value of TRIGEN quality function	
80	AREA		area of $\Omega$	
81	TOLA		angle tolerance	
82	ARCMIN		minimum arc	
82	ARCMAX		maximum arc	
84	TOLZ		contour tolerance	
85	TOLF		function value tolerance	
87	XMIN			
88	XMAX		$\Omega \subset (XMIN, XMAX) \times (YMIN, YMAX)$	
89	YMIN			
90	YMAX			

Table 2.6, continued. RP array definitions.

VALUES(KUU) = 2.VALUES(KLX) = 1.

The subroutine corresponding to  $p_2$  is P2XY and is called using

I	SP(I)	u	definition	
1	ITITLE	u	title for INPLT	
2	FTITLE	u	title for TRIPLT	
3	GTITLE	u	title for GPHPLT	
4	MTITLE	u	title for MTXPLT	
5	SHCMD	u	string for shell command	
6	RWFILE	u	save file for read/write commands	
7	JRFILE	u	read file for journal command	
8	JWFILE	u	write file for journal command	
9	BFILE	u	output file	
10	JTFILE	u	temporary file for journal command	
11	IOMSG		error message string	
12	CMD		current command string	
12	LOGO	u	logo for X-Windows display	
14	BGCLR	u	background color for X-Windows display	
15	BTNBG	u	button background color for X-Windows display	
18	PSFILE	u	root name for PostScript files	
19	XPFILE	u	root name for xpm files	
20	BHFILE	u	root name for bh files	
21	SGHOST	u	host name for $SG$ display	

Table 2.7. SP array definitions.

Call P2XY(X, Y, DX, DY, U, UX, UY, RL, ITAG, JTAG, VALUES).

The arguments are a superset of those of the previous subroutines, and all arguments with the same name serve the same purpose. This routine is called only with points (X,Y) lying on some edge  $e_J \in \Gamma$ . The additional arguments (DX,DY) are the unit normal direction for the edge, and JTAG=IBNDRY(6,J) is the user specified label for the given edge. The mapping given in Table 2.9 is used here as well.

The subroutine corresponding to  $g_1$  is GNXY and is called using

Call GNXY(X, Y, U, RL, ITAG, VALUES).

This routine is called only for points  $(X,Y) \in \partial \Omega_1$ , and as in the previous cases, all arguments except the array VALUES are input. In this case ITAG=IBNDRY(6,I) is the user supplied label for the edge, and VALUES is an array of size 6. Here the labeled common block

common /VAL1/ K0, KU, KL, KUU, KUL, KLU, KLL

IFLAG	general return codes
0	normal return
25	wrong input data structure
IFLAG	PLTMG and TRIGEN errors
1	zero pivot in sparse factorization
2	Newton method line search failed
6	illegal problem type
9	continuation procedure failed
10	multigraph iteration failed to converge
11	Newton (Newton/DD) iteration failed to converge
48	MPI was off for a command needing MPI
49	NPROC > NTF in load balance
71	no interface unknowns in DD solver
72	IPATH array not created
97	unmatched interface edges in <i>IPATH</i>
IFLAG	storage errors
18	storage exhausted in matrix array $JA$
19	storage exhausted in matrix array $A$
20	storage exhausted in work array $W$
21	storage exhausted in array ITNODE
22	storage exhausted in arrays $VX$ and $VY$
23	storage exhausted in arrays $XM$ and $YM$
24	storage exhausted in array IBNDRY
IFLAG	data errors for triangulation
-31	illegal $ITNODE(K, *)$ $K = 1, 2, 3$
-32	overlapping triangles in ITNODE
IFLAG	data errors for triangulation and skeleton
-40	illegal value for NVF, NCF, NTF, or NBF
-41	illegal $IBNDRY(K, *)$ $K = 1, 2$
-42	illegal $IBNDRY(3,*)$
-43	illegal $IBNDRY(4,*)$
-44	incorrect circle center coordinates
-45	arc greater than $\pi/2$ in length
-46	error in linked edges
-47	boundary vertex without two boundary edges
-48	ITNODE and IBNDRY are not consistent
IFLAG	data errors for skeleton
-51	illegal $ITNODE(1,*)$
-52	illegal $ITNODE(2,*)$
-53	skeleton tracing error
-54	region specified in clockwise order
-55	illegal $ITNODE(3,*)$

Table 2.8. Error flag values.

pointer	index	function
K0	1	f
KU	2	$f_u$
KX	3	$f_{u_x}$
KY	4	$f_{u_y}$
KL	5	$f_{\lambda}$
KUU	6	$f_{uu}$
KXX	7	$f_{u_x u_x}$
KYY	8	$f_{u_y u_y}$
KUX=KXU	9	$f_{uu_x}$
KUY=KYU	10	$f_{uu_y}$
KXY=KYX	11	$f_{u_x u_y}$
KUL=KLU	12	$f_{u\lambda}$
KXL=KLX	13	$f_{u_x\lambda}$
KYL=KLY	14	$f_{u_y\lambda}$
KLL	15	$f_{\lambda\lambda}$

Table 2.9. VALUES array for subroutine FXY.

assists in mapping function and derivative values to particular entries in the VAL-UES array. The details of the mapping are given in Table 2.10.

pointer	index	function
K0	1	g
KU	2	$g_u$
KL	3	$g_{\lambda}$
KUU	4	$g_{uu}$
KUL=KLU	5	$g_{u\lambda}$
KLL	6	$g_{\lambda\lambda}$

Table 2.10. VALUES array for subroutine GNXY.

The subroutine corresponding to  $g_2$  is GDXY and is called using

Call GDXY(X, Y, RL, ITAG, VALUES).

This routine also supplies the upper and lower bounds for the inequality constraints on  $u_h$  for the obstacle problem, bounds on  $\lambda_h$  in the case that  $\lambda = \lambda(x,y)$ , and the initial guess  $u_0$  for the solution  $u_h$ . When called to supply a Dirichlet boundary condition,  $(X,Y) \in \partial \Omega_2$  and ITAG=IBNDRY(6,I) is an edge label. When called in regard to inequality constraints and the initial guess,  $(X,Y) \in \Omega$  and ITAG=ITNODE(5,I) is the element label supplied by the user. Similar to the other routines, VALUES is an output array of size 6. It's entries can be conveniently

accessed through pointers provided in the labeled common block

common /VAL2/ K0, KL, KLL, KLB, KUB, KIC

The details are provided in Table 2.11.

pointer	index	function
K0	1	g
KL	2	$g_{\lambda}$
KLL	3	$g_{\lambda\lambda}$
KLB	4	$\underline{u}, \underline{\lambda}$
KUB	5	$\overline{u}, \overline{\lambda}$
KIC	6	$u_0$

Table 2.11. VALUES array for subroutine GDXY.

Subroutine QXY is

Call QXY(X, Y, U, UX, UY, RL, ITAG, VALUES)

This routine provides the alternate function to display in *TRIPLT* and the alternate function for adaptive algorithms and skeleton generation in *TRIGEN*. The arguments are defined as in the other coefficient functions. The output array *VAL-UES* has dimension 5; It's entries can be conveniently accessed through pointers provided in the labeled common block

common /VAL3/ KF, KF1, KF2, KSK, KAD

whose entries are documents in Table 2.12.

pointer	index	function
K0	1	alternate scalar function for TRIPLT
KF1	2	first component of vector function for TRIPLT
KF2	3	second component of vector function for TRIPLT
KSK	4	alternate function for skeleton creation in TRIGEN
KAD	5	alternate function for adaptive algorithms in TRIGEN

Table 2.12. VALUES array for subroutine QXY

# 2.6 Sparse Matrix Storage.

Matrices generated in the solution process are stored in the sparse matrix format described in [3] using an integer array JA and a real array A. As an example,

consider the  $4 \times 4$  matrix given by

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ & a_{32} & a_{33} & \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & & a_{44} \end{pmatrix}.$$

This matrix is stored in JA and A as illustrated in Table 2.13. All nonzeros are stored in the array A. First the diagonal entries are stored, followed by the upper triangular entries, stored row by row. If the matrix is nonsymmetric, this is followed by the lower triangular entries, stored column by column. Symmetric and nonsymmetric storage is governed by the parameter ISPD as indicated in Table 2.14. The first NVF + 1 entries of JA are pointers. In particular, entries JA(I) to JA(I+1) - 1 of the JA array contain column indices for nonzeros in row I of the strict upper triangle. As illustrated in Table 2.13, the column indices stand in correspondence to the nonzeros of the upper triangle stored in the array A. If nonsymmetric storage is used, entries of the transposed lower triangle are stored in the same order as the upper triangle.

I										10	11	12	13
JA(I)													
A(I)	$a_{11}$	$a_{22}$	$a_{33}$	$a_{44}$	_	$a_{12}$	$a_{14}$	$a_{23}$	$a_{24}$	$a_{21}$	$a_{41}$	$a_{32}$	$a_{42}$

**Table 2.13.** Sparse matrix data structures. JA has 9 entries. A has 9 entries if ISPD = 1 or 13 entries if ISPD = 0.

ISPD	storage/iteration options
0	nonsymmetric/biconjugate gradient
1	symmetric/conjugate gradient

Table 2.14. The values of ISPD.

In the multigraph iterative method [21, 3], sparse matrices for each level, as well as ILU factorizations, permutation matrices, and inter level transfer matrices arise. These matrices are all stored in the user supplied arrays JA and A. JA is an integer array of length LENJA; A is a real array of length LENA; A in internal array, KA, allocated from the work array W, contains pointers into the JA and A arrays for all the matrices generated by the multigraph solver. See [3] for details.

## Chapter 3

# Mesh Generation

#### 3.1 Overview.

Subroutine TRIGEN creates or adaptively modifies the data structures defining the region  $\Omega$ . There are options to generate a triangulation from a skeleton, a skeleton from a triangulation, adaptively refine or unrefine a triangulation, uniformly refine a triangulation, and adaptively smooth the vertices of a triangulation. TRIGEN also has several options for partitioning and mesh management in parallel computation environments. The parameter IADAPT specifies various options for TRIGEN, summarized in Table 3.1.

TRIGEN is called using the statement

Call TRIGEN( VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, JA, A, IP, RP, SP, IU, RU, SU, W, QXY )

Except for the case IADAPT = 5, on input the arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY should define a triangulation. For IADAPT = 5, the input should be a skeleton. The arrays JA, A, and W provide workspace, while IU, RU, and SU are broadcast and received in MPI communication steps, but are not directly used in TRIGEN. When TRIGEN is used to adaptively modify an existing triangulation the procedures generally rely on local a posteriori error estimates for the finite element approximation, although some options are provided for adaptation based on other functions.

# 3.2 Creating a Triangulation from a Skeleton.

When IADAPT = 5, on input the arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY should define a skeleton as described in Section 2.3. TRIGEN triangulates the subregions defining the skeleton in the order that they are given in ITNODE, taking into account shared internal boundaries and the symmetry requirements.

Let t be a triangle with area a and side lengths  $h_1$ ,  $h_2$ , and  $h_3$ . The quality

IADAPT			option
	$u_h$	QXY	
	0		error estimates only
	1	-1	refine $or$ unrefine mesh
	2	-2	unrefine and refine mesh
	3	-3	smooth mesh points
4			uniform refinement
5			$skeleton \rightarrow triangulation$
	6	-6	$triangulation \rightarrow skeleton$
	7		load balance (MPI)
8			reconcile mesh (MPI)
9			gather mesh (MPI)

**Table 3.1.** Some options use a posteriori error estimates for the computed solution  $u_h$  or interpolation errors for the alternative function QXY. Other options require MPI for parallel communication.

of t, q(t), is measured using the formula

$$q(t) = 4\sqrt{3}a/(h_1^2 + h_2^2 + h_3^2). (3.1)$$

The function q(t) is normalized to equal one for an equilateral triangle and to approach zero for triangles with small angles. In attempting to compute a high quality triangulation, TRIGEN uses

$$q(t) \ge .6 \tag{3.2}$$

as a test for acceptability of a triangle (sufficiently small interior angles on the boundaries of the subregions  $\Omega_i$  could cause (3.2) to be violated).

The triangulation process for those regions for which  $ITNODE(3,I) \neq 0$  is simple and is carried out by generating the appropriate affine mapping. The triangulation process for subregions with ITNODE(3,I)=0 is somewhat complicated but embodies three straightforward heuristics.

Given a subregion viewed as a polygon (possibly with curved edges, and interior angles of size  $\pi$  or greater), TRIGEN first tries to reduce the order of the polygon by one by "chopping" off a triangle using a vertex with small interior angle. Inequality (3.2) and several less obvious conditions must be satisfied for a successful chop. When the chopping strategy is no longer successful, TRIGEN checks to see if the remaining polygon is convex with six or fewer sides. If it is, TRIGEN tries to triangulate the entire remaining subregion by adding the centroid as a vertex and connecting it to each boundary vertex. All the resulting triangles must satisfy (3.2) and some other conditions for this strategy to be successful.

If the second strategy fails or is inapplicable, *TRIGEN* tries to break the polygon into two smaller polygons by connecting two nonadjacent vertices by a straight line. *TRIGEN* excludes many potential cuts as geometrically infeasible or

otherwise undesirable. From the remaining possibilities TRIGEN picks the cut that maximizes the minimum of the four interior angles the cut creates. TRIGEN then applies the three strategies to the two newly created polygons in recursive fashion. After the region has been successfully triangulated, TRIGEN tries to improve the triangulation by (locally) rearranging edges and adjusting vertex locations such that the criterion (3.2) is optimized.

The user can control the triangulation process to some extent through the parameters HMAX and GRADE. Element size is controlled by HMAX. Normally, one should choose  $0 < HMAX \le 1$ . TRIGEN then attempts to create triangles with edges shorter than  $HMAX \cdot \operatorname{diam}(\Omega)$ . If  $HMAX \le 0$  or HMAX > 1, TRIGEN will reset HMAX = 1. Setting HMAX only places an upper bound on triangle sizes; the sizes of the triangles actually generated depend strongly on the geometry of the  $\Omega_i$  and may not achieve the bound.

GRADE is (approximately) the largest ratio of sizes of elements sharing a common edge (1/GRADE) is the smallest ratio). GRADE should be set on the interval  $1.5 \le GRADE \le 2.5$ ; values outside this interval are set to the appropriate end point. Generally speaking, smaller values of GRADE result in smoother transitions from regions of large elements to those of small elements, and a higher overall quality measured by (3.1). On the other hand, larger values of GRADE tend to produce meshes with fewer elements, more rapid transitions in element size, and lower overall quality. One may have to experiment to achieve the proper balance between these conflicting objectives.

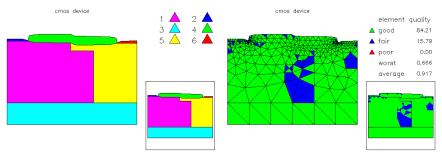
For example, consider the domain pictured in Figure 3.1, top left. The remaining pictures in Figure 3.1 show triangulations generated by TRIGEN for various values of HMAX and GRADE, illustrating their effect on the resulting triangulation.

The pictures are made by INPLT (see Section 5.3), which draws the mesh with elements colored according to the quality measure q(t) in (3.1). In the pictures, an element is "good" if  $q(t) \geq \sqrt{3}/2$ , "fair" if  $.6 \leq q(t) < \sqrt{3}/2$ , and "poor" if q(t) < .6. This is an interesting region to triangulate because the two narrow subregions at the top require small elements. TRIGEN tries to use larger elements in the larger subregions, but is constrained by the choices of HMAX and GRADE. Decreasing HMAX or GRADE tends to improve the overall quality of the triangulation, at the expense of introducing more elements.

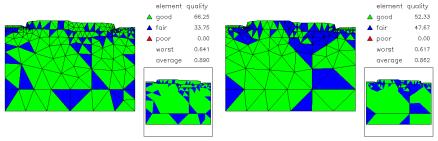
#### 3.3 A Posteriori Error Estimates.

Of central importance to the adaptive procedures is the computation of a posteriori local error estimates [2, 1, 40, 42]. Our present a posteriori error estimate is based on a superconvergent approximation of  $\nabla u$  [22, 23]. In particular, given the finite element function  $u_h$ , we compute the piecewise linear vector function  $S^m Q_h \nabla u_h$ , where  $Q_h$  is the  $\mathcal{L}^2$  projection, and S is a smoothing operator based on the discrete Laplace operator; in PLTMG, we take m=2. See [22, 23] for details. The recovered gradient is stored in PLTMG in the grid arrays UX and UY.

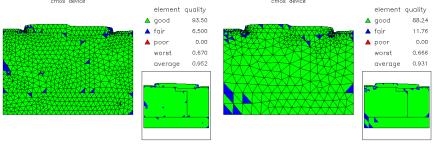
Using the recovered gradient, we compute a local error estimate  $\epsilon_t$  for  $t \in \mathcal{T}$ .



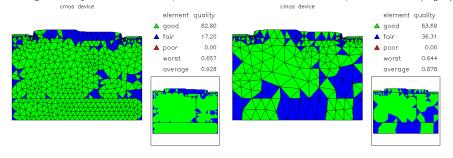
A skeleton with NTF = 6, NVF = 30, NBF = 35, NCF = 0 (left). The triangulation for HMAX = 0, GRADE = 1.5 has NTF = 513, NVF = 294 (right).



The triangulation for HMAX = 0, GRADE = 2.0 has NTF = 323, NVF = 196 (left). The triangulation for HMAX = 0, GRADE = 2.5 has NTF = 258, NVF = 161 (right).



The triangulation for HMAX = .03, GRADE = 1.5 has NTF = 1323, NVF = 722 (left). The triangulation for HMAX = .06, GRADE = 1.5 has NTF = 672, NVF = 380 (right).



**Figure 3.1.** The triangulation for HMAX = .03, GRADE = 2.5 has NTF = 913, NVF = 512 (left). The triangulation for HMAX = .06, GRADE = 2.5 has NTF = 369, NVF = 223 (right).

Our estimate is motivated by noting that under certain circumstances,  $\|\nabla(u_q - u_I)\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}$  is an asymptotically exact estimate of  $\|\nabla(u - u_h)\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}$ . Here  $u_q$  is the piecewise quadratic interpolant for u. Thus  $u_q - u_I$  is a locally defined quadratic polynomial with value zero at all vertices of the mesh. On a given element t,  $u_q - u_I$  can be expressed as a linear combination of quadratic "bump functions"  $q_k$  associated with the edge midpoints of t,

$$u_q - u_I = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \ell_k^2 t_k^t M_t t_k \, q_k(x, y)$$
 (3.3)

where  $\ell_k$  is the length of edge k,  $t_k$  is the unit tangent, and

$$M_t = -\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{xx} u_q & \partial_{xy} u_q \\ \partial_{yx} u_q & \partial_{yy} u_q \end{pmatrix}.$$

is the Hessian matrix. All terms on the right hand side of (3.3) are known except for the second derivatives appearing in the Hessian matrix  $M_t$ . In our local error indicator, we simply approximate the second derivatives in the Hessian matrix  $M_t$ using derivatives of  $S^m Q_h \nabla u_h$ . In particular, let

$$\tilde{M}_{t} = -\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{x} S^{m} Q_{h} \partial_{x} u_{h} & \partial_{x} S^{m} Q_{h} \partial_{y} u_{h} \\ \partial_{y} S^{m} Q_{h} \partial_{x} u_{h} & \partial_{y} S^{m} Q_{h} \partial_{y} u_{h} \end{pmatrix}, 
\tilde{M}_{t} = \frac{\alpha_{t}}{2} (\tilde{M}_{t} + \tilde{M}_{t}^{t}),$$

$$\epsilon_{t} = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \ell_{k}^{2} \mathbf{t}_{k}^{t} \bar{M}_{t} \mathbf{t}_{k} q_{k}(x, y).$$
(3.4)

The normalization constant  $\alpha_t$  is chosen such that the local error indicator  $\eta_t$  satisfies

$$\eta_t \equiv \|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(t)} = \|(I - S^m Q_h) \nabla u_h\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(t)}.$$

Normally we expect that  $\alpha_t \approx 1$ , which is likely to be the case in regions where the Hessian matrix for the true solution is well defined. Near singularities, u is not smooth and we anticipate difficulties in estimating the Hessian. For elements near such singularities,  $\alpha_t$  provides a heuristic for partly compensating for poor approximation.

Global a posteriori estimates  $\|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}$  and  $\|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}$  are stored as the parameters *ENORM2* and *ENORM1*, respectively.

# 3.4 Adaptive Mesh Refinement and Unrefinement.

When IADAPT = 1, the current mesh is adaptively refined or unrefined. When NVTRGT > NVF, the mesh is refined, while if NVTRGT < NVF, the mesh is unrefined. In either case, the goal is to achieve the best possible mesh using (approximately) NVTRGT vertices.

When IADAPT = 2, both refinement and unrefinement are employed. First, the mesh is unrefined to obtained a mesh with approximately NVTRGT < NVF

vertices. The mesh is then refined to obtain a mesh with approximately *NVF* vertices. The output triangulation thus has approximately the same number of vertices as the input triangulation, but the topology of the mesh and the distribution of mesh points can be quite different.

Our basic refinement algorithm uses the longest edge bisection procedure of Rivara [30, 37] and does not generate a refined element tree. All current elements are placed in a heap data structure according to the size of the error estimates. The element with largest error estimate is at the root of the heap. This element is selected for refinement and is bisected along its longest edge. The neighbor element sharing that edge is also bisected along its longest edge. If the result is a triangulation (i.e., the longest edge for both elements is the same), the process stops. Otherwise, it is recursively applied to the longest edge neighbors of all refined elements. An example is shown is Figure 3.2. This process is known to have finite termination, typically in a very small number of steps. When the longest edge bisection process finally results in a triangulation, the new elements are created and added to the triangulation data structures. New elements inherit the second derivative information from their parents, so error estimates can be computed and the heap updated. Using the updated heap, the refinement process continues, until a mesh with approximately NVTRGT vertices is created. Local edge swapping and mesh smoothing algorithms are applied to locally optimize the shape regularity of the final mesh in terms of the quality measure (3.1).

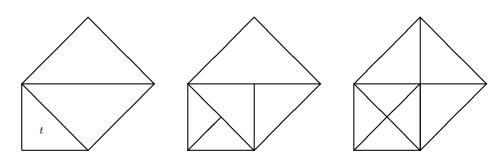


Figure 3.2. Element t is refined by the longest edge bisection method. The original mesh is on the left. The first step of bisection (middle) does not yield a compatible triangulation. However, the second step (right) does yield a triangulation.

In the case of unrefinement, the basic step consists of deleting vertices from the mesh, rather than directly unrefining elements. Each vertex v is associated with a region  $\Omega_v$ , as illustrated in Figure 3.3. The error associated with vertex v is the largest error of any element contained in  $\Omega_v$ . With these definitions, the unrefinement procedure is quite analogous to the refinement procedure described above. All the vertices are placed in a heap based on their errors, with the vertex of smallest error at the root. Certain vertices, which are critical to the geometric integrity of the domain as a whole (e.g., corner vertices on the boundary of the region), are given artificially large errors. Vertices of low degree have their errors reduced a bit to favor their elimination.

In the elimination step, the root vertex of the heap is eliminated from the mesh. The region  $\Omega_v$  associated with this mesh is then triangulated using the boundary vertices, as shown in Figure 3.3. The newly created elements inherit second derivative information from the original elements in  $\Omega_v$  (through suitable averaging), and error estimates are computed for the new elements using (3.4) The vertices lying on  $\partial\Omega_v$  have their errors updated as required, and the heap is updated. The process is continued until a mesh with NVTRGT vertices is achieved. As in the case of refinement, local edge swapping and mesh smoothing are used to improve the shape regularity of the final mesh in terms of the quality measure (3.1).

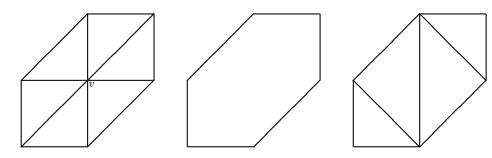


Figure 3.3. On the left is the subregion  $\Omega_v$ , associated with vertex v. To unrefine the mesh, vertex v and all its incident edges are removed from the triangulation (middle). The region  $\Omega_v$  is then triangulated using the boundary vertices (right).

If IADAPT = -1 or IADAPT = -2, the refinement and/or unrefinement processes are carried out using interpolation errors for the function QXY in place of the a posteriori error estimates. In particular, for a given element t, let  $q_2$  denote the quadratic interpolating polynomial for QXY, characterized by nodes at vertices and edge midpoints of t, and let  $q_1$  denote the linear interpolant characterized by the vertices of t. Then  $\tilde{e}_h = q_2 - q_1$  is a quadratic polynomial that is zero at the vertices of t. Second derivatives for the interpolation error are computed in a fashion analogous to the case of error estimates and used in the adaptive processes.

We do not anticipate that this option will be used much; it was originally implemented to allow subroutine TRIGEN to be debugged independently of subroutine PLTMG. On the other hand, there may be special cases where some function other than  $\|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(t)}$  should be optimized. Note that if TRIGEN is called before a solution  $u_h$  is computed by PLTMG, the arguments U, UX, UY, and RL in function QXY will be arbitrary and should be ignored.

Some examples are shown in Figure 3.4. In these examples, we employ the

alternate function  $QXY = r^{1/4} \sin(\theta/4)$  defined on the circular domain with a crack shown in Figure 2.1. The initial mesh with NVF = 10 is shown in Figure 3.4, upper left. Three refined meshes were generated from this mesh using calls to TRIGEN with IADAPT = -1 and NVTRGT = 40, 160, 640.

# 3.5 Adaptive Mesh Smoothing.

When IADAPT = 3, subroutine TRIGEN does no refinement or unrefinement of the mesh but rather adjusts the (x, y) coordinates of the mesh points (VX and VY) in an attempt to optimize the mesh.

The procedure consists of a Gauss–Seidel-like iteration on the vertices in the mesh, where each vertex is locally optimized with all other vertices held fixed [19]. Four sweeps are performed. Typically a given vertex v is allowed to move within the region  $\Omega_v$  shown in Figure 3.3. Not all vertices in the mesh are allowed to move. Some boundary and interface vertices must remain fixed to preserve the definition of the region. These vertices are called *corners*. Corners include actual geometric corners of the region, vertices where boundary conditions change type or label, vertices where interfaces intersect the boundary, and vertices where two or more interfaces intersect. An interface here is taken as any sequence of triangle edges that separate triangles with different user defined labels. Vertices on the boundary or on interfaces that are not designated corners are allowed to move only along the boundary or interface. The remaining vertices, called *interior* vertices, are allowed to move freely within  $\Omega_v$ . As in our refinement algorithms, some local mesh smoothing based on (3.1) is used to locally optimize the shape regularity of the mesh.

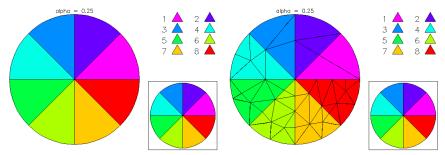
For each vertex v = (x, y) in the mesh, we solve the minimization problem

$$\min_{x,y} \|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega_v)}^2 \tag{3.5}$$

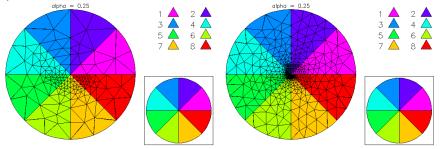
of order two by a damped Newton's method. As noted above, we assume the second derivatives are constant in each element t having v as a vertex, leading to an overall piecewise constant approximation of the second derivatives on  $\Omega_v$ . All other dependencies on v = (x, y) are taken into account by Newton's method. Boundary and interface vertices have an additional constraint equation, so an appropriately constrained version of problem (3.5) is solved for those vertices. Besides its usual task of ensuring sufficient decrease, the damping strategy for Newton's method is also used to ensure that the point (x, y) remains well within  $\Omega_v$ , so that all triangles are always well defined. It is interesting to note that the function  $\|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega_v)}$  contains a natural barrier function that becomes infinite as (x, y) approaches  $\partial \Omega_v$ .

In the case IADAPT = -3, the adaptive smoothing procedure uses the interpolation errors for the function QXY in place of the a posteriori error estimates, in a fashion analogous to the cases of refinement and unrefinement with IADAPT < 0.

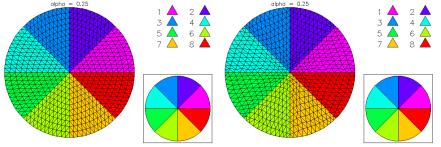
The mesh smoothing option is illustrated in Figure 3.4. We first uniformly refined the original mesh with IADAPT = 4 and IREFN = 12 (see Section 3.6). We then made two calls to TRIGEN with IADAPT = -3 to smooth the mesh points.



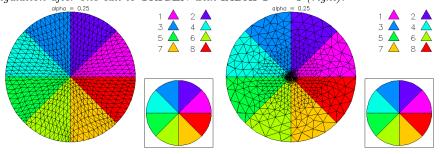
The initial triangulation with NTF = 8, NVF = 10, NBF = 10 and NCF = 1 (left). The refined triangulation with IADAPT = -1, NVTRGT = 40 has NTF = 60, NVF = 40 (right).



The refined triangulation with IADAPT = -1, NVTRGT = 160 has NTF = 287, NVF = 160 (left). The refined triangulation with IADAPT = -1, NVTRGT = 640 has NTF = 1217, NVF = 640 (right).



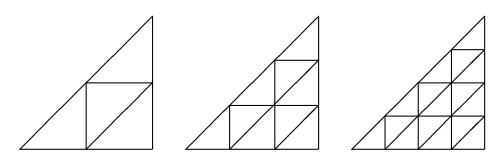
Beginning again from the original mesh with NTF = 8, the uniformly refined triangulation with IADAPT = 4 and IREFN = 12 has NTF = 1152, NVF = 637 (left). The same triangulation after one call to TRIGEN with IADAPT = -3 (right).



**Figure 3.4.** The same triangulation after two calls to TRIGEN with IADAPT = -3 (left). The triangulation after calling TRIGEN with IADAPT = -2 and NVTRGT = 400 has NTF = 1209, NVF = 638 (right).

#### 3.6 Uniform Refinement.

When IADAPT = 4, subroutine TRIGEN will perform a uniform refinement of the existing triangulation. The refinement is controlled by the parameter IREFN > 1. Each element in the triangulation is uniformly divided into  $IREFN^2$  similar triangles. Some examples are shown in Figure 3.5.



**Figure 3.5.** Uniform refinement for the cases IREFN = 2, 3, 4.

# 3.7 Creating a Skeleton from a Triangulation.

When  $IADAPT = \pm 6$ , subroutine TRIGEN generates skeleton data structures from a triangulation. This skeleton can then be used to generate a new triangulation (using TRIGEN with IADAPT = 5), providing what amounts to a static rezoning capability. This might be useful in situations where it is important or desirable to have grid lines in the mesh aligned with contour lines of a given function. Generating such a skeleton by hand might be cumbersome, or even impossible a priori if the function in question depends on the solution u. If IADAPT = 6, the solution is used to define the contour lines. If IADAPT = -6, the alternate function QXY is used. TRIGEN evaluates QXY at each vertex of each element in the mesh. QXY generally will be multivalued at the vertices because of discontinuities in  $\nabla u_h$ . Therefore, TRIGEN computes a weighted average of QXY at each vertex, with weights proportional to the area of each element containing the vertex. The resulting grid function is then interpreted as a continuous piecewise linear polynomial.

NRGN equally spaced contour lines for the function specified by IADAPT are used as subregion boundaries. The value of NRGN has a significant impact on new triangulations later produced by TRIGEN. Larger values of NRGN generally result in the creation of more subregions. Since the length scales of the subregions are used in determining the length scales of the resulting triangles, triangulating a skeleton with thin subregions will result in many small triangles. Using fewer contours generally will result in larger length scales and potentially fewer triangles in the resulting mesh.

Contour spacing is also controlled to some extent through the parameter HMIN, which must satisfy  $0 < HMIN \le 1$ . This parameter controls minimum contour spacing by (approximately) ensuring the contours are at least  $HMIN \cdot \operatorname{diam}(\Omega)$  apart. This requirement may effectively reduce the value of NRGN in conflicting situations.

At a conceptual level, the problem of creating a skeleton is similar to the problem of drawing a contour map in *TRIPLT*. However, in *TRIPLT*, except for the global problem of ordering the triangles for a surface plot, all the calculations proceed on an element-by-element basis, with the calculation for one element not interacting in any significant algorithmic way with the calculation for any other element. Here there are significant interactions on a global level, requiring a data structure that can contain the entire contour map.

Thus we develop a data structure in which  $\Omega$  is partitioned into polygonal subregions. The boundary of a given subregion consists of portions of triangle edges and contour lines. The contours of a piecewise linear polynomial are straight lines in each element, with continuity between elements. Initially, each subregion is contained within a single triangle of the mesh and has 3–5 sides, depending on the orientation and number of specified contour lines that appear in the element.

These subregions could, by themselves, be developed into a skeleton. However, such a data set would have many more subregions and vertices than necessary. Thus *TRIGEN* performs transformations on the list of regions, aimed at reducing both the number of subregions and the number of vertices required to define them.

One basic step is to merge two subregions that share a common boundary into one larger subregion, thus eliminating all the internal edges and vertices along the common boundary. *TRIGEN* attempts to merge smaller subregions to form larger ones, generally respecting the following guidelines:

- Subregions with different labels cannot be merged. The labels are those originally provided by the user in *ITNODE*.
- If the common boundary is a contour edge, then the subregions cannot be merged.
- If the common boundary is not contiguous, then the subregions cannot be merged, as this would create a non–simply connected subregion.

The second guideline may be violated for exceptionally small subregions, which can occur frequently in the initial decomposition. If retained, they would cause many small triangles to be created by TRIGEN. If a subregion has an area A satisfying  $A \leq HMIN^2 \mid \Omega \mid$ , then TRIGEN will try to merge it with a larger subregion, even if it must violate the second guideline to do so. Generally, TRIGEN tries to create the largest subregions possible within its constraints.

A vertex is said to have degree k if it has k incident polygon edges. A path is a sequence of connected degree two vertices, generally terminated at each end by a vertex of degree greater than two. TRIGEN eliminates unnecessary vertices, adhering to the following guidelines:

• A vertex is a candidate for deletion only if it has degree two. This means that

the vertex is an internal vertex shared by only two subregions or a boundary vertex contained in only one subregion.

- A boundary vertex cannot be removed if the two boundary edges it separates
  have different boundary condition types or different labels. The labels are
  those originally provided by the user in IBNDRY.
- A vertex is removed only if it is (approximately) collinear with the vertices on the path containing the given vertex, or if it is a redundant vertex on a circular arc approximation of the path.

The data reduction transformations described above maintain a data set corresponding to a valid skeleton. Thus, after the transformations are completed, the remaining subregions are used to generate the appropriate skeleton data structures.

As an example, we consider the region shown in Figure 3.6, upper left. In this example, we first generated a triangulation using TRIGEN with IADAPT = 5, HMAX = .1, and GRADE = 1.5, shown in Figure 3.6 upper right. Using this triangulation as input, we generated three additional skeletons, with NRGN = 5, 10, 20. For all cases HMIN = .05, and IADAPT = -6, with the alternative function  $QXY = x^2 + y^2$ . For purposes of comparison, for each skeleton we computed a new triangulation based on that skeleton, using TRIGEN with IADAPT = 5, HMAX = .1, and GRADE = 1.5.

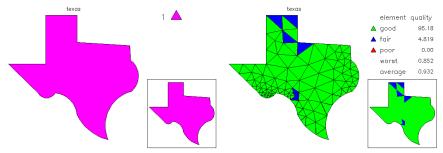
Note that increasing NRGN increases the complexity of the skeleton, tending to make more narrow regions, which in turn forces TRIGEN to create triangulations with more elements. On the other hand, using more regions forces the resulting triangulation to more closely follow the alternate function  $QXY = x^2 + y^2$ .

# 3.8 Parallel Adaptive Methods.

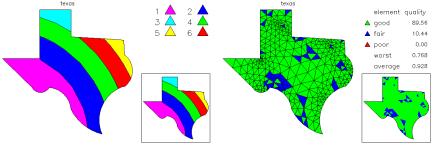
In this section we summarize the general strategy for adaptive mesh generations that is implemented in *PLTMG*. A number of static and dynamic load balancing approaches for unstructured meshes have been proposed in the literature [41, 38, 27, 28, 24, 29, 25]; most of the dynamic strategies involve repeated application of a particular static strategy. One of the difficulties in all of these approaches is the amount of communication that must be performed both to assess the current load imbalance severity, and to redistribute the work among the processors once the imbalance is detected and an improved distribution is calculated.

The approach used by PLTMG is based upon the Bank-Holst algorithm [10, 11, 31, 32], that addresses the load balancing problem in a new way, requiring far less communication. Another important point is that our approach allows PLTMG to run in a parallel environment without a large investment in additional coding. This approach has three main components:

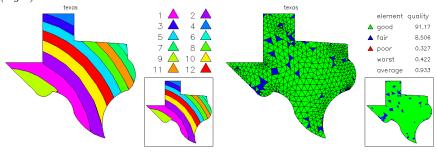
Step 1: A small (nonlinear) problem is solved on an initial coarse mesh, and a posteriori error estimates are computed for the coarse grid solution. The triangulation is partitioned such that each subdomain has approximately equal error (although they can significantly differ in size and numbers of elements).



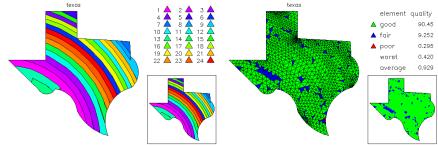
The original skeleton with NTF = 1, NVF = 30, NBF = 30, NCF = 5 (left). The triangulation has NTF = 166, NVF = 108 (right).



A skeleton created with NRGN=5, based on the original triangulation, has NTF=6, NVF=61, NBF=66, NCF=7 (left). The new triangulation has NTF=517, NVF=303 (right).



A skeleton created with NRGN = 10, based on the original triangulation, has NTF = 12, NVF = 95, NBF = 106, NCF = 9 (left). The new triangulation has NTF = 917, NVF = 522 (right).



**Figure 3.6.** A skeleton created with NRGN = 20, based on the original triangulation, has NTF = 24, NVF = 171, NBF = 194, NCF = 13 (left). The new triangulation has NTF = 2032, NVF = 1109 (right).

- Step 2: Each processor is provided the complete coarse mesh and solution, and instructed to solve the *entire* (nonlinear) problem, with the stipulation that its adaptive refinement should be limited largely to its own partition. Load balancing is achieved by instructing each processor to create a refined mesh with the same number of nodes.
- Step 3: A final mesh is computed using the union of the refined partitions provided by each processor. This mesh is reconciled such that the (virtual) mesh made up of the refined subregions would be conforming. A final solution is computed, using a domain decomposition method. An initial guess is provided by the local solutions.

The above approach has several interesting features. First, the load balancing problem (Step 1) is reduced to the numerical solution of a small problem on a single processor, without requiring any modifications to *PLTMG*. Second, the adaptive mesh generation calculation (Step 2) takes place independently on each processor, and can also be performed with no communication.

The only parts of the calculation requiring communication are

- 1. the initial fan-out of the mesh distribution to the processors, once the decomposition is determined by the error estimator.
- 2. the mesh regularization, requiring communication to produce a global conforming mesh.
- 3. the final solution phase. Note that a good initial guess for Step 3 is provided in Step 2 by taking the solution from each subregion restricted to its partition.

The options  $7 \le IADAPT \le 9$  provide basic parallel mesh management tools that support this paradigm. The domain decomposition solver is implemented as an option in subroutine PLTMG.

## 3.9 Mesh Partitioning.

When IADAPT = 7, TRIGEN computes a posteriori error estimates and partitions the mesh as in the Bank-Holst paradigm. If PLTMG is running on NPROC processors, then the mesh is partitioned into NPROC subregions, such that each subregion has approximately equal error. This algorithm is a variant of the recursive spectral bisection algorithm [26, 36, 39]. While this particular mesh partitioning algorithm is one of the more expensive of the choices that we could make, it is typically used only once on a relatively small problem. Although this calculation is important in the parallel processing environment, it is done on a single processor and does not use the MPI library. At the conclusion of the load balancing step, TRIGEN creates new internal edges in IBNDRY at the interface between different subregions.

We define the  $NTF \times NTF$  symmetric, positive semi-definite M-matrix A by

$$A_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} -1 & i \neq j \text{ and } t_i \text{ and } t_j \text{ share a common edge} \\ 0 & i \neq j \text{ and } t_i \text{ and } t_j \text{ do not share a common edge} \\ s_i & i = j, \, s_i = -\sum_{k \neq i} A_{ik} \end{array} \right.$$

A typical row of A will have three nonzero off-diagonal elements and  $A_{ii} = 3$ ; this is the so-called *discrete Laplacian* for the dual graph for the triangulation (the triangles themselves are the nodes of the dual graph, and the edges are defined by the adjacency relation). We consider the eigenvalue problem

$$A\psi = \lambda\psi \tag{3.6}$$

Our approach is standard; by construction, the smallest eigenvalue for (3.6) is  $\lambda_1 = 0$  and  $\psi_1 = (1, 1, ..., 1)^t$ . Our interest is in the second eigenvector  $\psi_2$ , known as the Fiedler vector.

We use a standard binary tree with 2 NPROC - 1 nodes (NPROC leaves and NPROC - 1 internal nodes). The root is labeled i = 1 and node i has children 2i and 2i + 1,  $1 \le i \le NPROC - 1$ . Associated with each node is a weight  $\omega_i$  denoting the number of leaves contained in its subtree. In particular,  $\omega_i = 1$ ,  $i = 2 NPROC - 1, \ldots, NPROC$  and  $\omega_i = \omega_{2i} + \omega_{2i+1}$  for  $i = NPROC - 1, \ldots, 1$ .

The entire mesh is assigned to root, and it is partitioned among its two children as follows. We first approximately solve the eigenvalue problem (3.6) for the whole mesh, and then create a permutation of the elements  $\{q_i\}$  such that

$$\psi_{2,i} \leq \psi_{2,j}$$
 if and only if  $q_i < q_j$ 

We then find the index k which provides the best partition of the form

$$\frac{1}{\omega_2} \sum_{q_i < k} \|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(t_{q_i})}^2 \approx \frac{1}{\omega_3} \sum_{q_i > k} \|\nabla \epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(t_{q_i})}^2.$$

The corresponding submeshes are assigned to the children nodes.

We apply this procedure recursively, at each level dividing each group of elements into two smaller groups by solving an eigenvalue problem of the type (3.6) restricted to that group of elements. The final result is *NPROC* subregions with approximately equal error.

We now briefly describe some details of our procedure for computing the second eigenvector of (3.6). Our procedure is essentially just a classical Rayleigh quotient iteration [35], modified both to bias convergence to  $\lambda_2$ , and to account for the fact that the linear systems arising in the inverse iteration substep are solved (approximately) by an iterative process. To simplify notation and avoid multiple subscripts, we let  $\phi_k \approx \psi_2$ , where k now denotes the iteration index.

We suppose that we have a current iterate  $\phi_k$  which satisfies  $\phi_k^t \phi_k = 1$  and  $\psi_1^t \phi_k = 0$ . Using  $\phi_k$  we compute the approximate eigenvalue  $\tilde{\lambda}_{2,k} \approx \lambda_2$  from the Rayleigh quotient  $\tilde{\lambda}_{2,k} = \phi_k^t A \phi_k$ , and approximately solve the linear system

$$A\tilde{\delta}_k = r_k \equiv \tilde{\lambda}_{2,k} \phi_k - A\phi_k.$$

Note that by construction  $\psi_1^t r_k = \phi_k^t r_k = 0$ . This linear system is solved using the multigraph procedure [21].

From  $\tilde{\delta}_k$ , we form the vector  $\delta_k$  satisfying  $\delta_k^t \delta_k = 1$  and  $\psi_1^t \delta_k = \phi_k^t \delta_k = 0$ . Finally, we solve the  $2 \times 2$  eigenvalue problem for  $\hat{A}$ , where

$$\hat{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_k^t \\ \delta_k^t \end{pmatrix} A \begin{pmatrix} \phi_k & \delta_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $v = (\alpha, \beta)^t$  is an eigenvector corresponding to the smaller eigenvalue, we form  $\tilde{\phi}_{k+1} = \alpha \phi_k + \beta \delta_k$ . Then  $\phi_{k+1}$  is formed from  $\tilde{\phi}_{k+1}$  by normalization and orthogonalization to  $\psi_1$ .

#### 3.10 Parallel Communication.

TRIGEN has three options ( $7 \le IADAPT \le 9$ ) that require MPI library routines for communication. When IADAPT = 7, following the load balance computation, the processor corresponding to IRGN = 1 broadcasts its mesh, solution, and supporting data to all processors.

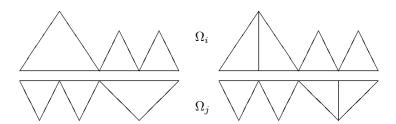
The option IADAPT = 8 reconciles the mesh. This is the most complex of the MPI options in TRIGEN, and is typically called once, at the conclusion of the second step of the Bank-Holst paradigm. It **must** be called before the domain decomposition solution in subroutine PLTMG, as PLTMG makes use of the parallel interface data structure IPATH generated by this call.

In creating the IPATH data structure, each processor first organizes its triangulation and solution data structures. Generally, edges and vertices on the interface between region IRGN and the rest of the domain appear first in their respective arrays (IBNDRY, VX, VY, U, etc). This data is organized to correspond to counter clockwise traversal of the interface. Next in all arrays comes data corresponding to the interior of subregion IRGN; generally, this should be the majority of the data. Finally, at the end of each array appears data corresponding to regions other than IRGN. Each processor then assembles its contributions to the preliminary IPATH array based on the reordered data, and this information is then exchanged among processors using MPI. IPATH in an integer array of length  $4 \times LIPATH$  containing information about the interface edges.

After the boundary exchange, each processor tries to match its boundary interface edges to those provided by neighboring regions, in order to establish the structure of the global mesh. Typically this mesh is not conforming. When non-matching edges are found, the region that is less refined does additional refinement until its boundary edges form a one-to-one match with those of its neighbors. An example is shown in Figure 3.7.

Each processor then reorders its data structures and communicates its contribution to the *IPATH* array a second time. This time the edge matching process concludes with no nonconforming edges found. By matching boundary edges at the interface, one also effectively matches vertices on the interface; this information is needed for the domain decomposition solver.

The option IADAPT=9 is in some sense the inverse of IADAPT=7. In this case, the global conforming mesh is assembled on the single processor corresponding to IRGN=1. Each processor organizes its data as in the case IADAPT=8, but now the data outside of IRGN is discarded. The remaining data is then gathered by the processor corresponding to IRGN=1 and global conforming data structures are generated on this processor. The option IADAPT=9 is provided as a convenience feature, and is not needed in the Bank-Holst paradigm. We remark that the ITNODE, IBNDRY, VX, VY, and other arrays need to be sufficiently large to



**Figure 3.7.** The coarse side of a non matching interface (left) is refined to make the global mesh conforming (right).

accommodate the entire global conforming mesh, which may not be possible for large parallel computations.

## Chapter 4

# **Equation Solution**

#### 4.1 Overview.

Subroutine *PLTMG* solves the problems described in Section 1.1. The solution process for each class of problems has certain unique aspects, but all make use of Newton's method. Solvers for the resulting systems of linear equations are all based on the multigraph iterative method.

Subroutine *PLTMG* is entered using the statement

Call PLTMG( VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, JA, A, IP, RP, SP, W, A1XY, A2XY, FXY, GNXY, GDXY, P1XY, P2XY )

On input, the arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY define a triangulation. Fortran subroutines A1XY, A2XY, FXY, GNXY, GDXY, P1XY, and P2XY are documented in Section 2.5. Parameters IP, RP, and SP arrays read and written by PLTMG are summarized in Tables 2.5–2.7. The arrays JA, A, and W provide workspace.

The parameter IPROB indicates the problem class; the various options are shown in Table 4.1. The case IPROB > 0 indicates a standard sequential solve, either on a single processor, or on multiple processors as part of the second phase of the Bank-Holst paradigm. The case IPROB < 0 indicates the global parallel domain decomposition solve as part of the Bank-Holst paradigm. Because this is a global solve it involves some MPI communication at each iteration step. When IPROB < 0, the parallel domain decomposition solve is preceded by a local solve on each processor, in order to insure the quality of the initial guess for the global problem.

The cases  $IPROB = \pm 3$  and  $IPROB = \pm 4$  have various suboptions unique to their particular problem class. The available options are specified through the parameter ITASK. These are summarized in Table 4.2.

IPROB	problem option			
1	elliptic boundary value problem			
2	obstacle problem			
3	continuation problem			
4	parameter identification problem			
5	optimal control problem			
-1	DD solve for elliptic boundary value problem			
-2	DD solve for obstacle problem			
-3	DD solve for continuation problem			
-4	DD solve for parameter identification problem			
-5	DD solve for optimal control problem			

Table 4.1. The parameter IPROB.

ITASK	IPROB	option
0	1	default
0	2	default
0	3	continue to the nearest target point
1		continue to the nearest target or singular point
2		switch branches at a bifurcation point
3		switch $\lambda$ and/or $\rho$ ; initialize with $\lambda$ fixed
4		switch $\lambda$ and/or $\rho$ ; initialize with $\rho$ fixed
5		solve with $\sigma = 0$ , $\theta = 0$ ( $\lambda$ fixed)
6		solve with $\sigma = 0$ , $\theta = 2$ ( $\rho$ fixed)
7		solve with $\sigma = 0,  \theta = 1$
0	4	default
8		switch $\lambda$ and initialize
0	5	default

Table 4.2. The parameter ITASK.

# 4.2 Elliptic Boundary Value Problems.

When IPROB = 1, PLTMG solves the discrete system (1.6). If the underlying boundary values problem is not self-adjoint some upwinding terms based on the Scharfetter–Gummel discretization scheme [4, 8] are added to the discretization; in this case (1.6) should be replaced by: find  $u_h \in \mathcal{M}_d$  such that

$$a_h(u_h, v) = 0$$
 for all  $v \in \mathcal{M}_e$ , (4.1)

where  $a_h(u_h, v)$  reflects the additional stabilization terms. In any event, (4.2) corresponds to the system of nonlinear equations

$$\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{U}) = 0, \tag{4.2}$$

where the unknown vector  $\mathcal{U}$  corresponds to the values of the finite element solution  $u_h$  at the vertices of the triangulation. The Jacobian matrix

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{U}) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{U})}{\partial \mathcal{U}}$$

is a sparse stiffness matrix corresponding to a *linear* elliptic boundary value problem (linearized about  $\mathcal{U}$ ). Even in the event the the original problem is linear, PLTMG solves all problems with IPROB = 1 as nonlinear, and formally applies Newton's method to (4.2). In Figure 4.1, we summarize our approximate Newton procedure with line search.

#### Procedure Newton

```
N1 Begin with initial guess \mathcal{U}_0, and a sufficient decrease parameter \tau. Set k \leftarrow 0, s_0 \leftarrow 1, and compute \mathcal{G}_0 and \|\mathcal{G}_0\|.

N2 solve (approximately) \mathcal{A}_k \delta \mathcal{U}_k = -\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{U}_k).

N3 compute \mathcal{U}_{k+1} = \mathcal{U}_k + s_k \delta \mathcal{U}_k, \mathcal{G}_{k+1}, \|\mathcal{G}_{k+1}\|, and \xi_{k+1} = \|\mathcal{G}_{k+1}\|/\|\mathcal{G}_k\|.

N4 if 1 - \xi_{k+1} < \tau s_k, then decrease s_k and go to N3; else set s_{k+1} \leftarrow s_k/(s_k + (1 - s_k)\xi_{k+1}/100) and k \leftarrow k + 1.

N5 if converged, then exit; else go to N2.
```

#### Figure 4.1.

The scalar  $s_k$  is the damping parameter. When the sufficient decrease criterion is not satisfied on line N4 and  $s_k$  must be reduced, the next value is found through application of one step of a guarded secant/bisection algorithm to the one-dimensional minimization problem

$$\min_{s_k} \|\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{U}_k + s_k \delta \mathcal{U}_k)\|.$$

If sufficient decrease is achieved, the current  $s_k$  is used to predict  $s_{k+1}$ ; this formula is designed to force rapid increase of  $s_{k+1} \to 1$  when  $\xi_{k+1}$  becomes small as superlinear convergence occurs, and at the same time provide a reasonable first guess in the early stages of the Newton iteration, when damping is most important. A maximum of MXNWTT damped Newton iterations are allowed. PLTMG reports the actual number of Newton iterations used on the most recent call in the parameter ITNUM, and the number of evaluations of  $\mathcal G$  as IEVALS;  $IEVALS \geq ITNUM$ , since more than one function evaluation may be used in each line search.

All sets of linear equations involving the matrices  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{U})$  and  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{U})^t$  have the appearance of finite element discretizations of linear elliptic boundary value problems. These systems are solved using the multigraph iterative method [21, 20]. The multigraph iteration is an algebraic multigrid method, governed by several input parameters. The parameter *ISPD* described in Table 2.14 specifies whether

symmetric or nonsymmetric storage is used in the A array. At each level an ILU factorization is used as a smoother. The parameter DTOL is the drop tolerance for this approximate factorization. Generally, smaller values of DTOL result in more accurate ILU factorizations, but higher costs in space and time per iteration. The extreme case DTOL = 0 results in a sparse direct factorization (if sufficient storage is available).

The multigraph iteration is used as a preconditioner for a composite step conjugate gradient or biconjugate gradient iteration, specified through ISPD as indicated in Table 2.14. The composite step algorithms [7, 6] are similar to the standard biconjugate gradient and conjugate gradient methods, respectively, except that they occasionally proceed from the iterate for step k to the iterate for step k+2. Such composite steps are taken to improve the stability of the recurrence relations and smooth the behavior of the residual norm. The maximum number of iterations to be used per solution is specified by the parameter MXCG. Note that as many as MXCG iterations are used each time a system of linear equations is solved.

As a simple example, we solve the Poisson equation

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
-\Delta u &=& 1 & \text{in } \Omega, \\
u &=& 0 & \text{on } \partial \Omega,
\end{array}$$

The domain  $\Omega$  was provided as a skeleton and is shown in Figure 4.2. This problem was solved using eight processors. The skeleton was triangulated, and then a mesh with NVF = 2000 was adaptively created on one processor. The processor then did a load balance step (IADAPT = 7 in TRIGEN) and broadcast this mesh to all processors. The load balance and initial solution are shown in Figure 4.2. Each processor then independently continued the refinement process on its subregion, creating a local mesh with approximately 8000 vertices. The global refined mesh was made conforming (IADAPT = 8 in TRIGEN) and the domain decomposition solver invoked in PLTMG (IPROB = -1). The resulting global refined mesh had NVG = 32908 vertices. The global mesh, solution, and a posteriori error estimate are shown in Figure 4.2. The mesh is colored by element size, and element edges are not drawn.

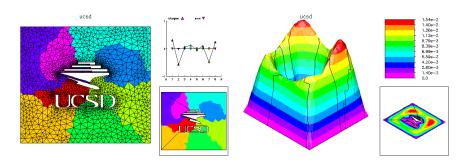
## 4.3 Domain Decomposition Solver

Here we describe the domain decomposition algorithm implemented in PLTMG for Step 3 of the Bank-Holst paradigm (see Section 3.8). This algorithm is described in detail in [14]. It is motivated by and similar to the domain decomposition algorithms described in [13, 12]. In the case IPROB = -1, this solver is used in place of the simple multigraph solver in line N2 of Procedure Newton given in Figure 4.1.

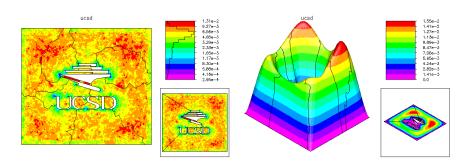
For simplicity in our discussion here, we restrict attention to the case of just two subdomains. In our scheme, each subregion contributes equations corresponding all fine mesh points, including its interface. Thus in general there will be multiple unknowns and equations in the global system corresponding to the interface grid points. This is handled by equality constraints that impose continuity at all mesh points on the interface. The result is a mortar-element like formulation, using Dirac



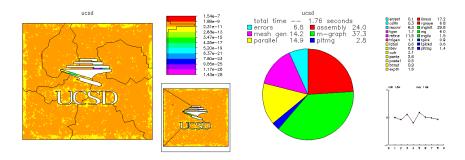
The skeleton and initial mesh with NVF = 1382.



The mesh with NVF = 2000 showing the load balance and corresponding solution.



The global refined mesh with NVG = 32908 and corresponding solution.



 $\delta$  functions for the mortar element space. In any event, with a proper ordering of unknowns, the global system of equations has the block  $5 \times 5$  form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{1\gamma} & & & & & \\ A_{\gamma 1} & A_{\gamma \gamma} & & & & I \\ & & A_{\nu \nu} & A_{\nu 2} & -I \\ & & A_{2\nu} & A_{22} & \\ & I & -I & & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta U_1 \\ \delta U_{\gamma} \\ \delta U_{\nu} \\ \delta U_2 \\ \Lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_{\gamma} \\ R_{\nu} \\ R_2 \\ U_{\nu} - U_{\gamma} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4.3}$$

Here  $A_{11}$  and  $A_{22}$  correspond to the fine grid points on processors 1 and 2, respectively, that are not on the interface, while  $A_{\gamma\gamma}$  and  $A_{\nu\nu}$  correspond to interface points. The fifth block equation imposes continuity, and its corresponding Lagrange multiplier is  $\Lambda$ . The identity matrix appears because the global fine mesh is conforming. The introduction of the Lagrange multiplier and the saddle point formulation (4.3) are only for expository purposes; indeed,  $\Lambda$  is never computed or updated.

On processor 1, we develop a similar but "local" saddle point formulation. That is, the fine mesh subregion on processor 1 is "mortared" to the remaining course mesh on processor 1. This leads to a linear system of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{1\gamma} & & & & & \\ A_{\gamma 1} & A_{\gamma \gamma} & & & & I \\ & & \bar{A}_{\nu \nu} & \bar{A}_{\nu 2} & -I \\ & & \bar{A}_{2\nu} & \bar{A}_{22} & \\ & I & -I & & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta U_1 \\ \delta \bar{U}_{\gamma} \\ \delta \bar{U}_2 \\ \Lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_{\gamma} \\ R_{\nu} \\ 0 \\ U_{\nu} - U_{\gamma} \end{pmatrix}, \tag{4.4}$$

where quantities with a bar (e.g.,  $\bar{A}_{22}$ ) refer to the coarse mesh. A system similar to (4.4) can be derived for processor 2. With respect to the right hand side of (4.4), the interior residual  $R_1$  and the interface residual  $R_{\gamma}$  are locally computed on processor 1. We obtain the boundary residual  $R_{\nu}$ , and boundary solution  $U_{\nu}$  from processor 2; processor 2 in turn must be sent  $R_{\gamma}$  and  $U_{\gamma}$ . The residual for the coarse grid interior points is set to zero. This avoids the need to obtain  $R_2$  via communication, and to implement a procedure to restrict  $R_2$  to the coarse mesh on processor 1. Given our initial guess, we expect  $R_1 \approx 0$  and  $R_2 \approx 0$  at all iteration steps.  $R_{\gamma}$  and  $R_{\nu}$  are not generally small, but  $R_{\gamma} + R_{\nu} \rightarrow 0$  at convergence.

As with the global formulation (4.3), equation (4.4) is introduced mainly for exposition. The goal of the calculation on processor 1 is to compute the updates  $\delta U_1$  and  $\delta U_{\gamma}$ , which contribute to the global conforming solution. To this end, we formally reorder (4.4) as

$$\begin{pmatrix}
-I & I & \\
-I & \bar{A}_{\nu\nu} & & \bar{A}_{\nu2} \\
& & A_{11} & A_{1\gamma} \\
I & & A_{\gamma 1} & A_{\gamma \gamma} & \\
& \bar{A}_{2\nu} & & \bar{A}_{22}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
\Lambda \\
\delta \bar{U}_{\nu} \\
\delta U_{1} \\
\delta U_{\gamma} \\
\delta \bar{U}_{2}
\end{pmatrix} =
\begin{pmatrix}
U_{\nu} - U_{\gamma} \\
R_{\nu} \\
R_{1} \\
R_{\gamma} \\
0
\end{pmatrix}.$$
(4.5)

Block elimination of the Lagrange multiplier  $\Lambda$  and  $\delta U_{\nu}$  in (4.5) leads to the block

 $3 \times 3$  Schur complement system

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{1\gamma} & \\ A_{\gamma 1} & A_{\gamma \gamma} + \bar{A}_{\nu \nu} & \bar{A}_{\gamma 2} \\ \bar{A}_{2\nu} & \bar{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta U_1 \\ \delta U_{\gamma} \\ \delta \bar{U}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_{\gamma} + R_{\nu} + \bar{A}_{\nu \nu} (U_{\nu} - U_{\gamma}) \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4.6}$$

The system matrix in (4.6) corresponds to the final adaptive refinement step on processor 1, with possible modifications due to global fine mesh regularization. It is exactly the matrix used in the preliminary local solve to generate the initial guess for the global domain decomposition iteration. In the solution of (4.6), the components  $\delta U_1$  and  $\delta U_{\gamma}$  contribute to the global solution update, while  $\delta \bar{U}_2$  is discarded. We remark that the global iteration matrix corresponding to this formulation is not symmetric, even if all local system matrices are symmetric.

The domain decomposition algorithm is incorporated as the solver for the approximate Newton iteration described in Figure 4.1. In particular, only one domain decomposition iteration (a so-called *inner iteration*) is used in each approximate Newton step. Thus, loosely speaking, each solve of (4.6) alternates with a line search step in which the global solution is updated. The Newton line search procedure requires global communication to form some norms and inner products, as well as the boundary exchange described above.

#### 4.4 Obstacle Problems.

When IPROB = 2, PLTMG solves the obstacle problem (1.8). The inequality constraints are treated via an interior point procedure [9]. In particular, we consider the Lagrange function

$$\rho(u_h) - \mu \sum_{i=1}^{NVF} d_i \left\{ \log(u_h(p_i) - \underline{u}(p_i)) - \log(\overline{u}(p_i) - u_h(p_i)) \right\}$$
(4.7)

where  $\mu > 0$  is a small barrier parameter; the user specifies the target value in RMTRGT. Vertices of the triangulation are denoted by  $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$ , and  $d_i$  is the diagonal entry of the mass matrix corresponding to  $p_i$ . The weights  $d_i = O(h_i^2)$  scale the barrier terms in a fashion similar to  $\rho(u_h)$ , and make  $\mu$  independent of the mesh.

The overall solution strategy is to compute stationary points of the Lagrange function (4.7) for a decreasing sequence of  $RMTRGT = \mu > 0$  values, following a smooth trajectory moving towards the boundary of the feasible region. This has much in common with the more general path following procedures used in the case IPROB = 3. If one alternates solution steps with adaptive refinement steps as in a typical adaptive feedback loop, one should generally reduce  $\mu$  as  $O(\sqrt{NVF})$  so that errors introduced by the continuation procedure are roughly comparable in size to the approximation errors introduced by the finite element discretization.

The assembly and solution procedures are quite similar to the case IPROB = 1. In particular, the right hand side is modified by terms of the form

$$-\mu d_i \left\{ (u_h(p_i) - \underline{u}(p_i))^{-1} + (u_h(p_i) - \overline{u}(p_i))^{-1} \right\},\,$$

and the diagonal of the stiffness matrix (Hessian matrix of the functional  $\rho(u_h)$ ) is modified by terms of the form

$$\mu d_i \left\{ (u_h(p_i) - \underline{u}(p_i))^{-2} + (u_h(p_i) - \overline{u}(p_i))^{-2} \right\}.$$

With these modifications, the approximate Newton strategy described in Section 4.2 is used here.

When IPROB = -2, the domain decomposition algorithm outlined in Section 4.3 is used, with appropriate modifications to the stiffness matrix and right hand sides. As in the case IPROB = -1, only one domain decomposition solve (inner iteration) is used in each approximate Newton iteration.

As an example, we use PLTMG to solve the variational inequality

$$\min_{u \in K} \int_{\Omega} \{ |\nabla u|^2 - 2f(x, y)u \} dx \, dy$$

where the domain  $\Omega = (0,1) \times (0,1)$ , and

$$K = \left\{ u \in \mathcal{H}_0^1(\Omega) : |u| \le \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{10}\sin(\pi x)\sin(\pi y) \right\},$$
$$f(x,y) = -\Delta(\sin(3\pi x)\sin(3\pi y)).$$

In the absence of the obstacle, this is a simple elliptic equation with exact solution  $u = \sin(3\pi x)\sin(3\pi y)$ .

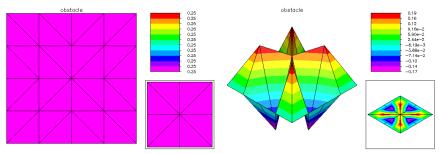
In this calculation, we began with a uniform  $5 \times 5$  mesh, and adaptively refined towards a final mesh with NVF = 16000. On the initial mesh we took  $\mu = 1$ . At each refinement step, we first solved the problem with the existing value of  $\mu$  and then reduced  $\mu$  by a factor of 2 and solved a second time;  $\mu = 2^{-7}$  in the final mesh. As previously mentioned, this strategy tries to balance discretization errors with the errors introduced by  $\mu$ . In Figure 4.3, we show several of the meshes and corresponding solutions. Elements in the meshes are colored by size, and for the finer meshes, triangle edges are no longer drawn. We note the smallest elements occur near the boundaries of the contact zones, which are resolved as part of the computation; the largest elements appear in the interiors of the contact zones. In Figure 4.3, we also show the a posteriori error estimate for the finest mesh. Here we see that the error is relatively small in the contact zones. It is somewhat larger but reasonably uniform outside the contact patches, indicating that the adaptive procedure has done a good job in this example.

#### 4.5 Continuation Problems.

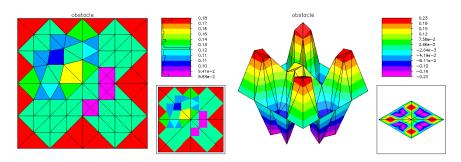
In the case of continuation problems (IPROB = 3), the parameter ITASK specifies the the continuation option. Available options are summarized in Table 4.2. For convenience in notation, we will systematically drop the subscript h from all variables in this section (e.g.,  $\lambda_h$  will be denoted  $\lambda$ ).

When the continuation process is used, we use a normalization equation of the form

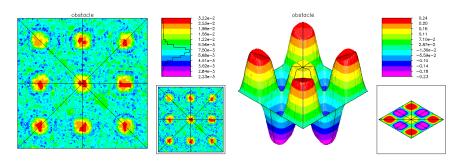
$$N(u, \lambda) = \sigma.$$



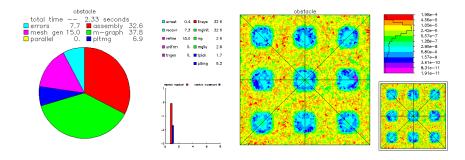
 $The\ initial\ uniform\ mesh\ and\ solution.$ 



The first adaptive mesh with NVF=64.



The final adaptive mesh with NVF = 16000.



The scalar  $\sigma = SIGMA$  is the steplength. *PLTMG* uses two different normalization equations [5, 34]. Most frequently, we use

$$N(u,\lambda) = \theta \dot{\rho}_0(\rho - \rho_0) + (2 - \theta)\dot{\lambda}_0(\lambda - \lambda_0). \tag{4.8}$$

Here  $\theta = THETA$  is a parameter selected by PLTMG; by choosing  $\theta$  and  $\sigma$  properly, it is possible to achieve target values in either  $\rho$  or  $\lambda$ . The vector  $(u_0^t, \lambda_0)$  is the current solution point and  $(\dot{u}_0^t, \dot{\lambda}_0)$  the current unit tangent vector. The scalar  $\dot{\rho}$  is defined formally using the chain rule for differentiation:

$$\dot{\rho} = \rho_u \dot{u} + \rho_\lambda \dot{\lambda}.$$

The other normalization used in PLTMG is based on the pseudo-arclength method, characterized by

$$N(u,\lambda) = \theta \int_{\Omega} \dot{u}_0(u - u_0) \, dx \, dy + (2 - \theta) \dot{\lambda}_0(\lambda - \lambda_0). \tag{4.9}$$

The normalization (4.9) is used when (4.8) is not well defined (e.g., if  $\dot{\rho}_0 = \dot{\lambda}_0 = 0$ ). For reasonable choices of  $\rho$ , these will be isolated points on the solution manifold, such as symmetry-breaking bifurcation points. In such instances, (4.9) is used on a temporary basis until (4.8) is defined again.

The values  $0 \le ITASK \le 4$  embody the basic continuation path following options available in PLTMG. The values  $5 \le ITASK \le 7$  are designed for updating the solution at a fixed point when the mesh has been changed by a call to TRIGEN.

An initial solution is provided by the user through subroutine GDXY. Thereafter, the continuation proceeds from the last successfully computed point. A brief outline of the basic continuation process (ITASK=0) or ITASK=1 is given in Figure 4.4.

#### **Procedure Continue**

- C1 Begin with initial solution  $(u_0^t, \lambda_0)$  and tangent vector  $(\dot{u}_0^t, \dot{\lambda}_0)$ .
- C2 compute the step  $\sigma$  for the normalization equation; predict  $(u^t, \lambda) \leftarrow (u_0^t, \lambda_0) + \alpha(\dot{u}_0^t, \dot{\lambda}_0)$ .
- C3 correct  $(u^t, \lambda) \leftarrow NWT(u^t, \lambda)$ ; compute  $\psi_{\ell}, \psi_r$ , and  $\nu$ ; compute tentative  $\dot{u}$  and  $\dot{\lambda}$ .
- C4 if a singular point was detected and ITASK = 1, then go to C7.
- C5 set  $(u_0^t, \lambda_0) \leftarrow (u^t, \lambda)$  and  $(\dot{u}_0^t, \dot{\lambda}_0) \leftarrow (\dot{u}^t, \dot{\lambda})$ .
- **C6** if  $(u_0^t, \lambda_0)$  is a target point, then exit; else go to **C2**.
- C7 compute the singular point using secant/bisection algorithm on  $\nu(\sigma) = 0$ ; exit.

Figure 4.4.

PLTMG always returns with  $(RLTRGT,RTRGT)=(RL,R)\equiv(\lambda,\rho)$ . To continue with ITASK=0 or ITASK=1, the user specifies a target value for either RTRGT or RLTRGT. If  $RLTRGT\neq RL$ , then PLTMG seeks a solution with  $\lambda=RLTRGT$ . Similarly, if  $RTRGT\neq R$ , then PLTMG seeks a solution with  $\rho=RTRGT$ .

A step  $\sigma$  and a predicted solution are computed on line C2. The predictor is a standard Euler type commonly used in continuation procedures. The step size calculation is influenced not only by the user request but also by imposed requirements that the predicted solution be sufficiently accurate. The procedures used in this portion of the calculation are described in detail in [16]. The solution is corrected on line C3. The correction process symbolized by the operator NWT involves the solution of a set of nonlinear equations, and is discussed in greater detail below.

*PLTMG* locates singular points by computing the smallest singular value  $\nu$  of the Jacobian matrix. A modified inverse iteration procedure computes the left and right singular vectors  $\psi_{\ell}$  and  $\psi_{r}$  corresponding to  $\nu$  as part of each correction step C3. If the matrix is symmetric (ISPD=1), then  $\psi_{\ell}\equiv\psi_{r}$ . In a somewhat nonstandard fashion for singular values, we normalize the singular vectors to have unit length and satisfy

$$\int_{\Omega} \psi_{\ell} \psi_r \, dx > 0.$$

Requiring the sign of the inner product of  $\psi_{\ell}$  and  $\psi_{r}$  to be positive forces the singular value  $\nu$  to change sign at a singular point (normally one requires  $\nu \geq 0$  and then the inner product changes sign at singular points). Unfortunately, while  $\nu$  changes sign in a continuous fashion at singular points, it can also change sign discontinuously at regular points. For example, in the linear eigenvalue problem, along the trivial branch  $\nu$  will continuously pass through zero at each eigenvalue and will discontinuously change sign at some point between each consecutive pair of eigenvalues where the smallest singular value of the Jacobian changes from the preceding to the following eigenvalue.

If PLTMG detects a change in sign in  $\nu$  along the solution curve between the starting point and target point, and if ITASK=1, the computation of the target point is abandoned in favor of computation of the possible singular point. A secant/bisection algorithm for the equation  $\nu(\sigma)=0$  is used. More details of these procedures can be found in Bank and Chan [5] and the references therein. At the conclusion of this iteration, some tests are made to determine if the point is a bifurcation point, a limit point, or a regular point.

The algorithms in PLTMG were designed to handle only simple limit and bifurcation points, although on occasion we have observed them to work on some higher degree singular points as well. When a target or singular point has been successfully computed, PLTMG returns with (RLTRGT, RTRGT) set to the current values of  $(\lambda, \rho)$ .

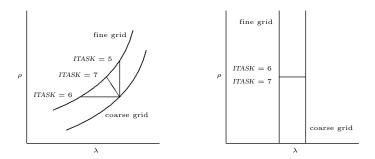
If PLTMG is called with ITASK = 2 at a bifurcation point, parameters relevant for the continuation procedure are initialized for the bifurcating branch, but the solution itself remains unchanged. In the next call to PLTMG with ITASK = 0

or ITASK = 1, the continuation procedure will follow the bifurcating branch.

If PLTMG is called with ITASK = 3 or ITASK = 4, parameters relevant for the continuation procedure are reinitialized using the new parameter or functional; the solution itself remains unchanged. The two cases differ in that either  $\lambda$  or  $\rho$  can be held fixed during the reinitialization; for either case it is possible to specify either a new continuation parameter  $\lambda$ , a new functional  $\rho$ , or both.

The successful use of the continuation procedure requires guidance from the user. For example, it is possible to specify target values that cannot be reached. Also, since singular points are detected by changes in sign of  $\nu$ , one can fool the singular-point detection algorithm by specifying target values sufficiently far away that two sign changes are passed on one step.

We now consider the cases  $5 \le ITASK \le 7$ . We begin by noting that the discretization process can introduce spurious solution curves or cause significant distortions in the solution curves of the continuous problem (1.1); one must therefore be cautious in interpreting the numerical results [33]. As the mesh is refined or the mesh points are smoothed, the solution curves generally will move; the assumption of PLTMG is that, as a function of the discretization, the solution curves converge in some uniform fashion to those of the continuous problem, and that the mesh is sufficiently fine to capture the qualitative features of the continuous problem's solution curves in the regions of interest [5, 15]. Typically, for each point on the current grid, there are three natural points on a nearby new grid solution curve that can be associated with it: the point with the same  $\lambda$  value (ITASK = 5), the point with the same  $\rho$  value (ITASK = 6), and the point of intersection with the perpendicular hyperplane passing through the current solution point (ITASK = 7). Some typical examples are illustrated in Figure 4.5.



**Figure 4.5.** The effect of ITASK in the case of mesh refinement.

In some situations, all three points may not exist, or they may not be distinct. This is illustrated in Figure 4.5, right, where ITASK = 6 and ITASK = 7 correspond to the same fine grid point, while no (nearby) solution exists for ITASK = 5.

We now consider the linear algebraic aspects of the problem. As with other problem types, the nonlinear systems for IPROB = 3 are solved by the approximate Newton iteration [18, 17] described in Figure 4.1. The nonlinear system to be solved

has the form

$$G(u, \lambda) = 0,$$
  
 $N(u, \lambda) = \sigma.$ 

Here the operator G represents the finite element equations of order NVF, and N the normalizing equation used in the continuation process;  $\sigma$  is the steplength. At each step of the Newton process, the linear system to be solved has the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} G_u & G_\lambda \\ N_u & N_\lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta u \\ \delta \lambda \end{pmatrix} = -\begin{pmatrix} G(u,\lambda) \\ N(u,\lambda) - \sigma \end{pmatrix}, \tag{4.10}$$

where  $\delta u$  is a vector of length NVF and  $\delta \lambda$  is a scalar. The solution is constructed by solving

$$\begin{split} G_u v &= -G, \\ G_u w &= -G_\lambda - c_0 G_u \dot{u}, \\ \delta \lambda &= -\frac{N_u v + N - \sigma}{N_u (w + c_0 \dot{u}) + N_\lambda}, \\ \delta u &= v + \delta \lambda (w + c_0 \dot{u}). \end{split}$$

The coefficient  $c_0 = 1/\dot{\lambda}$ , provided  $\dot{\lambda} \neq 0$ ;  $c_0 = 0$  otherwise. Thus the right-hand side  $G_{\lambda} + c_0 G_u \dot{u}$  has the appearance of a residual, and w may be viewed as an incremental update. In particular, the vector  $w + c_0 \dot{u}$  is proportional to the next tangent vector at convergence. The tentative tangent  $\dot{u}$  is thus easily updated at every Newton step, along with  $u, \lambda, \rho, \psi_r$ , and  $\psi_\ell$  and is available for regularizing the right-hand side for w on the next Newton step. The linear systems involving  $G_u$  and  $G_u^t$  are solved by the multigraph algorithm.

The block elimination process is embedded in the overall damped Newton process [16, 17] given in Figure 4.1. Here  $\mathcal{U}_k^t = (u^t, \lambda)$  is the kth Newton iterate,  $\delta \mathcal{U}_k^t = (\delta u^t, \delta \lambda)$ , and  $\mathcal{G}_k^t = (G^t, N - \sigma)$ . The norm  $\|\mathcal{G}_k\|$  is given by

$$\|\mathcal{G}_k\|^2 = \|G\|^2 + c|N - \sigma|^2,$$

where c is a scaling parameter (SCALE in the RP array) chosen to balance the two terms appropriately.

The case IPROB = -3 corresponds to a parallel solve of the block linear system (4.10), embedded in the overall Newton iteration. It is defined only for the cases ITASK = 5, 6, 7; at present there is no parallel implementation of the basic path following options. Thus we assume that the continuation is done on a coarse mesh on a single processor, and parallel computation is used only in the context of computing a highly refined solution at a particular point.

For continuation problems, *PLTMG* provides a limited amount of written output summarizing the state of the computation. All formats are designed for output devices having a minimum of 80 characters per line. All output is directed to the subroutine *FILUTL*, which is responsible for creating the files *BFILE* and *JWFILE*.

For each call to PLTMG a banner is printed. Each continuation step results in a single line of output containing seven numbers. A typical example of such output is illustrated below:

```
pltmg: lambda rho lambda dot rho dot eigenvalue 0 3 0.99004E+01 0.39814E+01 -0.80768E-02 0.39890E+01 -0.94673E-04
```

The first column contains the current value of IFLAG (in this example, IFLAG=0). The second contains the value of ITNUM, the actual number of approximate Newton iterations used. The next four columns contain the current values of the parameter  $\lambda$ , the functional  $\rho$ , and their derivatives with respect to arclength along the current solution manifold  $\dot{\lambda}$  and  $\dot{\rho}$ . The column labeled "eigenvalue" gives an approximation to the smallest singular value  $\nu$  of the Jacobian matrix  $\mathcal{G}_u$ .

As an example, we consider the nonlinear eigenvalue problem

$$-\Delta u = \lambda \sin u \quad \text{in } \Omega \equiv (0,1) \times (0,1),$$
  
$$u = 0 \quad \text{on } \partial \Omega.$$

with the functional given by

$$\rho(u,\lambda) = \int_{\Omega} u^2 \, dx \, dy.$$

This problem has bifurcation points at the eigenvalues of the linear eigenvalue problem,  $-\Delta u = \lambda u$ , which are given by  $\lambda_{k\ell} = (k^2 + \ell^2)\pi^2$ ,  $k = 1, 2, ..., \ell = 1, 2, ...$  We chose as our coarse mesh a  $17 \times 17$  uniform mesh.

Our goal is to compute the first four eigenvalues and eigenfunctions. The first and third eigenvalues have multiplicity one. The second and fourth eigenvalues have multiplicity two. While the algorithms in PLTMG are not designed to handle multiplicities greater than one, the code performed in a satisfactory fashion and computed all four eigenvalues without difficulty. As a cautionary remark, one should not assume that the situation in this respect will always be so favorable.

We initialize at  $\lambda=0$  and continue to  $\lambda=10$  with ITASK=0 and then to  $\lambda=22$  with ITASK=1. At  $\lambda=22$ , the sign of  $\nu$  (eigenvalue) has changed, so PLTMG computes the singular point, in this case the first eigenvalue.

```
pltmg:
          lambda
                                  lambda dot
                                                rho dot
                                                            eigenvalue
                        rho
   1
       0.00000E+00
                    0.00000E+00
                                 0.10000E+01
                                              0.00000E+00
                                                           0.76859E-01
    2 0.10000E+02
                    0.00000E+00
                                 0.10000E+01
                                              0.00000E+00
                                                           0.38191E-01
 0 2 0.22000E+02 0.00000E+00
                                 0.10000E+01
                                              0.00000E+00 -0.82128E-02
pltmg: find limit / bifurcation point
 0 2 0.19876E+02 0.00000E+00
                                 0.10000E+01
                                             0.00000E+00 -0.35329E-06
pltmg: probable bifurcation point
 0 0 0.19876E+02 0.00000E+00 0.10000E+01 0.00000E+00 -0.35329E-06
```

Note that the secant/bisection algorithm converged in one step. After determining that the singular point was a bifurcation point, PLTMG makes an additional calculation to ensure that the tangent vector  $\dot{u}_h$  corresponds to the current branch (in this case, the trivial branch).

We save the solution in a file in order to continue from this point to the second eigenvalue in a convenient manner (see Section 6.7), and switch branches (ITASK=2). We then routinely continue on the bifurcating branch in several steps  $(\rho=.01,\lambda=25,50,100,150,300,500)$ . At  $\lambda=500$ , we refine the mesh with a call to TRIGEN (IADAPT=1,NVTRGT=1000), creating a mesh with NVF=1000. We follow with a call to PLTMG with ITASK=7. The eigenfunction and mesh are shown in Figure 4.6.

We restore the solution at the bifurcation point and continue along the trivial branch to the second eigenvalue. We save the solution, switch branches and explore the bifurcating branch in a fashion similar to the first eigenvalue. A similar procedure is repeated for the third and fourth eigenvalues. The eigenfunctions computed on a refined mesh of NVF = 1000 are shown in Figure 4.6. In Figure 4.7, we show the complete history of the calculation in terms of the continuation path.

#### 4.6 Parameter Identification Problems.

When IPROB = 4, PLTMG solves the parameter identification problem (1.9)-(1.12). The simple bounds on  $\lambda_h$  are treated in a fashion analogous to the case IPROB = 2. In particular, we consider the Lagrangian

$$\rho(u_h, \lambda_h) + a(u_h, v_h) - \mu \left\{ \log(\lambda_h - \underline{\lambda}) - \log(\overline{\lambda} - \lambda_h) \right\}$$
(4.11)

where  $\mu > 0$  is the barrier parameter and  $v_h$  is the Lagrange multiplier (a member of the finite element subspace). Our procedure computes a stationary point of the Lagrangian (4.11) using an approximate Newton method.

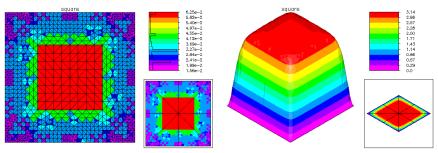
The linear algebra problem at each Newton iteration is of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} H & A^t & C_u \\ A & 0 & C_v \\ C_v^t & C_v^t & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta u \\ \delta v \\ \delta \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_u \\ b_v \\ b_\lambda \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4.12}$$

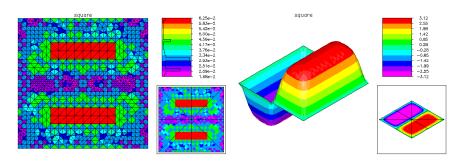
Here the matrix A is the Jacobian matrix corresponding the the bilinear form  $a(u_h, v_h)$ . In particular, linear systems involving A (or  $A^t$ ) are solved using the multigraph iteration. The matrix H is symmetric and has the same sparsity pattern as A; other characteristics strongly depend on the particular problem.  $C_u$  and  $C_v$  are generally dense column vectors, and D is a scalar. The vectors  $\delta u$  and  $\delta v$  are the (Newton) updates for  $u_h$  and the Lagrange multiplier  $v_h$ , respectively, and  $\delta \lambda$  is the scalar (Newton) update for  $\lambda_h$ .  $b_u$ ,  $b_v$  and  $b_\lambda$  correspond to the appropriate Newton residuals.

Our solution algorithm is just standard block elimination, with a small algebraic modification that reduces the number of solves with A or  $A^t$  from 4 to 3. Here we summarize the procedure. First we solve

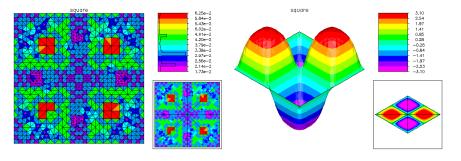
$$A\bar{b}_v = b_v,$$
  
$$A\bar{C}_v = C_v.$$



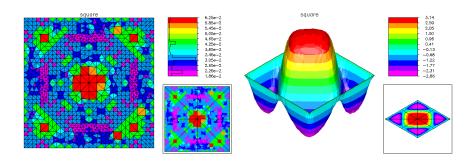
 $The\ first\ eigenfunction.$ 



 $The\ second\ eigenfunction.$ 



 $The\ third\ eigenfunction.$ 



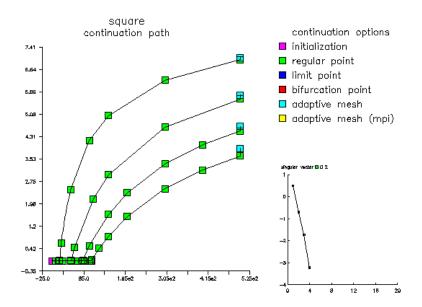


Figure 4.7. The continuation path.

Both systems are (approximately) solved using the multigraph iteration. Then we form

$$\bar{b}_u = b_u - H\bar{b}_v,$$
$$\bar{C}_u = C_u - H\bar{C}_v,$$

which requires two sparse matrix multiplications with H. Next we compute  $\delta\lambda$  using the (scalar) Schur complement

$$\delta\lambda = \frac{b_{\lambda} - C_{u}^{t}\bar{b}_{v} - \bar{C}_{v}^{t}\bar{b}_{u}}{D - C_{u}^{t}\bar{C}_{v} - \bar{C}_{v}^{t}\bar{C}_{u}}.$$

We then form  $\delta u$  from

$$\delta u = \bar{b}_v - \bar{C}_v \delta \lambda,$$

and find  $\delta v$  from

$$A^t \delta v = \bar{b}_u - \bar{C}_u \delta \lambda.$$

The latter requires the use of the multigraph iteration for a third time. The basic Newton iteration is again that given in Figure 4.1 with the interpretation  $\mathcal{U}^t = (u_h^t, v_h^t, \lambda_h)$  and  $\mathcal{G}^t = (b_u^t, b_v^t, b_\lambda)$ .

The parameter identification problem has one additional option, specified by ITASK = 8. If the problem has more than one scalar control parameter, one can switch parameters, sequentially optimizing the solution with respect to one parameter with the others held fixed. If ITASK = 8, PLTMG reinitializes certain variables that depend on  $\lambda$  before starting the Newton iteration.

When IPROB = -4, a parallel Newton algorithm is implemented, similar in structure to the case IPROB = -1. A domain decomposition solver analogous to that described in Section 4.3 is incorporated into the block elimination algorithm defined above.

As an example, we consider the problem

$$\min \int_{\Omega} e^{-20(x^2+y^2)} (u-1)^2 \, dx,$$

subject to the boundary value problem

$$-(1+\lambda^2)\Delta u = 1 \qquad \text{in } \Omega$$

$$\nabla u \cdot n = 0 \qquad \text{on } \partial\Omega_1$$

$$u = 0 \qquad \text{on } \partial\Omega_2$$

and the inequality constraints

$$0 < \lambda < 2$$
.

The domain was provided as a skeleton and the initial mesh generated by TRIGEN. Both are shown in Figure 4.8. The initial mesh was then refined in five steps to a final mesh with NVF = 10001 vertices. On this final mesh  $\lambda = .9931$ . The final mesh, the solution, and the Lagrange multiplier are shown in Figure 4.8. The interior point parameter  $\mu$  was set to  $\mu = 1$  for the initial mesh, and reduced by a factor of 2 at each mesh refinement step, yielding  $\mu = 10^{-5}$  on the finest mesh.

## 4.7 Control Problems.

When IPROB = 5, PLTMG solves the control problem (1.13)-(1.16). This problem is similar to the case IPROB = 4 except that now  $\lambda_h$  is a piecewise linear polynomial rather than a scalar. Here we consider the Lagrangian

$$\rho(u_h, \lambda_h) + a(u_h, v_h) - \mu \sum_{i=1}^{NVF} d_i \left\{ \log(\lambda_h(p_i) - \underline{\lambda}(p_i)) - \log(\overline{\lambda}(p_i) - \lambda_h(p_i)) \right\}$$
(4.13)

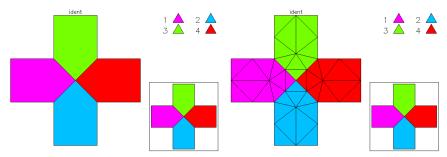
where  $\mu > 0$  is the barrier parameter,  $d_i$  is the diagonal of the mass matrix corresponding to vertex  $p_i$ , and  $v_h$  is the Lagrange multiplier. As usual, our algorithm seeks a stationary point of the Lagrangian (4.13) using an approximate Newton method.

The linear algebra problem at each Newton step is of the form

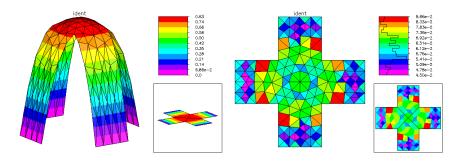
$$\begin{pmatrix} H & A^t & S_u \\ A & 0 & S_v \\ S_u^t & S_v^t & G \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta u \\ \delta v \\ \delta \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_u \\ b_v \\ b_\lambda \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4.14}$$

Here H and A are defined as before. In typical problems G is a symmetric, positive definite matrix. Often the functional  $\rho$  contains regularization terms for the control function  $\lambda_h$ . For example, if the regularization term is of the form

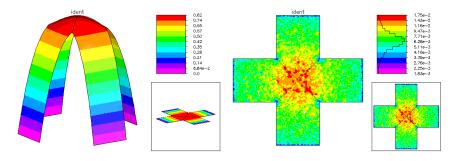
$$\gamma \int_{\Omega} \lambda^2 \, dx,$$



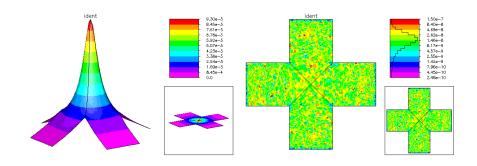
The skeleton and initial mesh with NVF=33.



The solution and first adaptive mesh with NVF = 152.



The solution and final adaptive mesh with NVF = 10001.



then the corresponding contribution to G is  $\gamma M$ , where M is the mass matrix. As before, linear systems involving A and  $A^t$  are easily solved using the multigraph iteration. Additionally, linear systems involving G are approximately solved using a simple symmetric Gauss-Seidel iteration with conjugate gradient acceleration. The matrices  $S_u$  and  $S_v$  have the same symmetric sparsity structure as G and A, but are generally not symmetric.

Our solver is based on block Gaussian elimination, similar to the case IPROB = 4. However, in the case of (4.14), it is too expensive to compute an exact Schur complement for the 3,3 block; instead we approximate the Schur complement by G. Thus, our solution algorithm is really just a preconditioner. In particular, it is one step of a block symmetric Gauss-Seidel iteration. This is realized as follows:

$$\begin{split} & A\tilde{c}_u = b_v, \\ & A^t\tilde{c}_v = b_u - H\tilde{c}_u, \\ & G\delta\lambda = b_\lambda - S_u^t\tilde{c}_u - S_v^t\tilde{c}_v, \\ & A\delta u = b_v - S_v\delta\lambda, \\ & A^t\delta v = b_u - H\delta u - S_u\delta\lambda. \end{split}$$

Linear systems involving A and  $A^t$  are solved using the multigraph iteration, and that involving G is solved by SGS/CG. If G were replaced by the Schur complement and all linear systems solved exactly, this would yield the exact solution.

When IPROB = -5, a parallel Newton algorithm is implemented, similar in structure to the case IPROB = -1. A domain decomposition solver analogous to that described in Section 4.3 is incorporated into the block preconditioner defined above. As in the case IPROB = 5, only one block SGS iteration is used.

As an example, we solve the optimal control problem

$$\min \int_{\Omega} (u - u_0)^2 + \gamma \lambda^2 \, dx$$

subject to the constraint equation

$$-\Delta u = \lambda \quad \text{in } \Omega \equiv (0,1) \times (0,1),$$
  
$$u = 0 \quad \text{on } \partial \Omega,$$

and the inequalities

$$1 \le \lambda \le 10$$
.

The target function  $u_0$  was

$$u_0 = \sin(3\pi x)\sin(3\pi y)$$

and the regularization parameter  $\gamma = 10^{-4}$ .

This problem was solved in parallel using eight processors. An initial  $9 \times 9$  uniform mesh was adaptively refined to NVF = 1000. See Figure 4.9. This mesh was load balanced and broadcast to the eight processors. Each processor then adaptively refined its partition to  $NVF \approx 4000$ , yielding a global refined mesh with

NVG=16668. The interior point parameter  $\mu=\mu_0=.01$  on the  $9\times 9$  mesh, and thereafter was reduced by a factor of 2 in each refinement step, both in creating the mesh with NVF=1000 that was used for the load balance, and in the subsequent parallel adaptive refinement steps. The final  $\mu=\mu_02^{-4}$ . The global refined mesh, solution u, Lagrange multiplier v, and the control function  $\lambda$  are shown in Figure 4.9, along with the a posteriori error estimate and some timing data.

## 4.8 Subroutine PLTEVL.

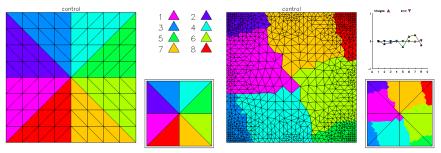
Subroutine *PLTEVL* evaluates the solution and its gradient at a list of user specified evaluation points. *PLTEVL* is called using the statement

Call PLTEVL(X, Y, U, UX, UY, VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, IP, RP, W)

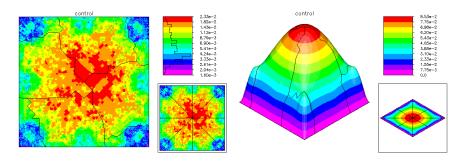
The arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY define a triangulation. |NEVP| is the number of evaluation points. If NEVP > 0, PLTEVL carries out some relatively expensive initialization and then evaluates the function and gradient. If NEVP < 0, PLTEVL assumes the initialization has been done on a previous call (with no intervening calls to other routines in the package), and will bypass the initialization. The arrays X and Y are of length |NEVP|, with (X(I),Y(I)) being the Ith evaluation point. The output arrays U, UX, and UY are of size |NEVP|, with U(I) containing the function value and (UX(I),UY(I)) the gradient value at the Ith evaluation point. Since the gradient is piecewise constant, it is not uniquely defined along internal triangle edges and at vertices. At such evaluation points a representative (arbitrary) assignment is made from among the possibilities. If a given evaluation point lies outside the domain  $\Omega$ , the corresponding function and gradient values are set to the minimum value of the function.

The main problem in evaluating a grid function at an arbitrary point (x, y) is determining which element contains the point. Since the meshes in PLTMG are generally unstructured and nonuniform, this requires searching and testing lists of elements. PLTEVL has an expensive initialization phase where elements are sorted to minimize this searching.

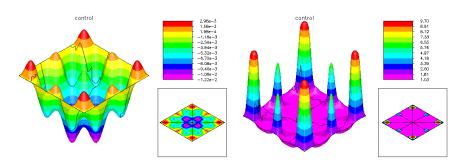
This is done by assigning each triangle to a node in a binary tree. We begin by embedding the entire mesh in a rectangle that becomes the root node of the tree. The root rectangle is then bisected, either horizontally or vertically, by connecting a pair of opposing midpoints. This bisection splits the list of triangles into three groups: those completely in the left (top) rectangle, those completely in the right (bottom) rectangle, and a third group (ideally small) that have nontrivial intersections with both rectangles. The decision whether to divide horizontally, vertically, or not at all depends mainly on the size of this last group relative to the other two. In any event, if a refinement is made, the two new leaves inherit the lists of elements completely contained in their corresponding rectangles, and the third group of elements remains associated with the father element. The leaves (son rectangles) then become candidates for further bisection. The overall process creates the binary



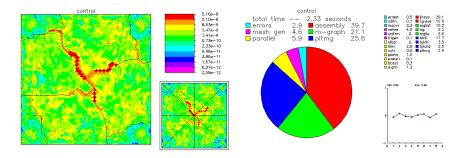
The initial  $9 \times 9$  mesh and the load balance (NVF = 1000).



The global refined mesh with NVG = 16668 and the corresponding solution.



The Lagrange multiplier v and the control function  $\lambda$ .



tree, in which each node is a rectangle, and associated with each node is a short list of triangles.

The point  $(x,y) \in t$ , where t is an element of the triangulation, if and only if all its barycentric coordinates with respect to t are nonnegative (this test is modified slightly for a triangle with a curved boundary edge). The evaluation of the barycentric coordinates requires the assembly and solution of a  $3 \times 3$  set of linear equations

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ y \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $(x_i, y_i)$  are the vertices of t.

The evaluation of a function at the point (x, y) uses two different strategies. In the first, we find a triangle t associated with the leaf of the tree whose rectangle contains the point (x, y); this is done by following a path in the binary tree from the root to the desired leaf.

We evaluate the barycentric coordinates of (x,y) with respect to t; if all are nonnegative, we are done. If one (or two) coordinates are negative, we locate the neighbor element to t corresponding to a negative coordinate; this element is closer to (x,y) than t itself. We then replace t by its neighbor and repeat the test on the new element. In this way we map out a fairly direct path from the seed element to the element that contains the point. Since the seed triangle was associated with the leaf of the binary tree containing the point, we expect the path to contain few elements.

This strategy fails if at some step there is no neighbor element, i.e., we arrive at the boundary. If the domain  $\Omega$  is convex, this implies the point (x,y) is not in  $\Omega$ . Since we make no convexity assumption on  $\Omega$ , it could also mean for example, that we have arrived at a crack and the point is in an element on the other side of the crack. Thus, if the first strategy fails, we build a list of all elements that might contain the point. This is done by marching down the binary tree from the root to the leaf containing the point. The lists of triangles associated with all the nodes along this path are joined to form the list for the given point. This list is checked, beginning with those triangles associated with the leaf, and continuing through the tree towards the root. In this process, either we find an element containing the point or we exhaust the list and conclude that (x,y) is not in  $\Omega$ . In practice, this second strategy is required infrequently, even if  $\Omega$  is not convex.

# Chapter 5

# **Graphics**

### 5.1 Overview.

The graphics package associated with *PLTMG* is composed of subroutines *TRIPLT*, *INPLT*, *GPHPLT*, and *MTXPLT*. These routines are written in self-contained, portable Fortran, addressing the graphics output device through subroutines *PLINE*, *PFILL*, *PFRAME*, and *PLTUTL*. The specifications for these routines are given in Section 6.12.

Typical graphics output consists of three windows or frames. There is a large square window on the left, and two smaller square windows on the right. The main image typically appears in the large frame, and other useful information (for example, a legend matching colors to function values) appears in the smaller frames. The graphics interface now provides z-buffer information, for use in three dimensional imaging systems such as OpenGL. All the graphics routines are written such that the image appearing in the main window can be animated using such graphics systems when appropriate.

Subroutine TRIPLT graphs the solution and various associated functions (e.g.,  $\dot{u}$ ,  $\psi_r$ ,  $\epsilon_t$ ). TRIPLT also has options for plotting vector functions (e.g.,  $\nabla u_h$ ). Subroutine INPLT can display either a triangulation or a skeleton, with elements or regions colored according to various attributes such as the quality of the elements in a triangulation. Subroutine GPHPLT displays various graphs and charts containing timings, convergence histories, and other items of interest. Subroutine MTXPLT displays several sparse matrices associated with the solution process.

The parameter MXCOLR is a device dependent constant, stating the maximum number of colors available for use by the graphics package. We assume that  $2 \leq MXCOLR$ . While it is possible to make some interesting plots and contour maps with TRIPLT using only monochrome devices (MXCOLR=2), TRIPLT makes extensive use of available color facilities in producing (shaded) three-dimensional surface plots and vector plots. GPHPLT, MTXPLT, and INPLT also use color, but in less critical ways.

Subroutines TRIPLT, INPLT and GPHPLT offer some capabilities for parallel

processing. In the parallel processing environment, only the master process (corresponding to IRGN=1) makes calls to the graphics interface routines (PLTUTL, PFRAME, LINE, and PFILL. However, in the case of TRIPLT or INPLT, one may wish to plot the solution, error, or some other function in situations where the data is distributed among the processors. If MPI is turned on (MPISW=1), then TRIPLT and INPLT collect data from all other processors, and draw a composite picture consisting of the union of the refined regions for each processor. If the problem is sufficiently large that it is impossible or inefficient to collect all the data on a single processor, each processor can coarsen its data before sending it to the master process. This coarsening process is controlled by the parameters ICRSN and ITRGT. If MPI is turned off (MPISW=-1), then TRIPLT and INPLT draw the function on processor one (refined in region one and coarse elsewhere). For some options, GPHPLT collects data from all processors when MPI is turned on, for example in presenting timing and load balancing data. Subroutine MTXPLT currently has no parallel processing capabilities.

For most of the examples of graphics output, we solved Laplace's equation in a circle of radius one with a crack along the positive x axis. This domain was used to illustrate the triangulation data structure in Section 2.2. Nonhomogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions were imposed on the circular boundary such that the true solution is  $u = r^{1/4} \sin(\theta/4)$ , the leading term in the singularity due to the crack tip. Some example output in Section 5.4 came from other problems, in cases where it could not be provided by our simple example.

# 5.2 Subroutine TRIPLT.

TRIPLT is called using the statement

Call TRIPLT( VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, IP, RP, SP, W, QXY )

The arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY should define a triangulation. TRIPLT uses several variables from the IP, RP, and SP arrays, as shown in Tables 2.5–2.7. The string variable FTITLE is the character string displayed as a label above the graph. Additionally, TRIPLT uses the work array W and the Fortran subroutine QXY. Subroutine QXY is documented in Section 2.5. The error flag IFLAG is set as in Table 2.8 if there is insufficient storage.

The parameter *IFUN* specifies the function to be plotted. The available options are summarized in Table 5.1. Some of these functions are not defined for all problem types. Although there are many possibilities for *IFUN*, they may be classified as *surface plots* and *vector plots*.

For surface plots, all functions are continuous with the (possible) exceptions of the error, which is piecewise constant on triangles, and QXY, which can be multivalued at vertices due to discontinuities in  $\nabla u_h$ . If desired, a discontinuous function can be mapped to a continuous function using a local averaging technique. This is invoked by setting the switch ICONT = 1.

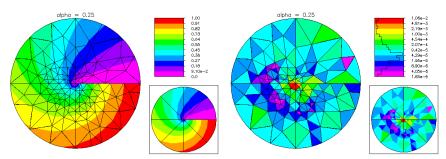
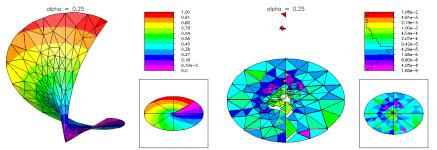
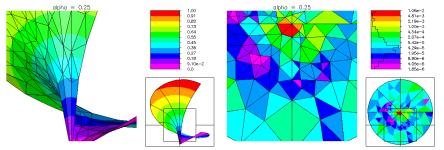


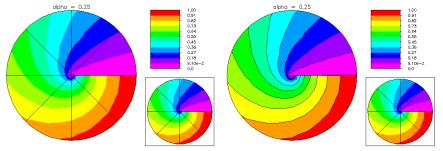
Figure 5.1. The solution IFUN = 0 and the error IFUN = 5.



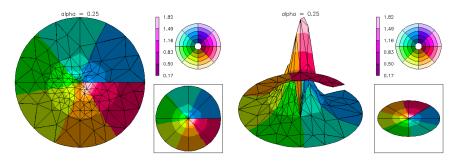
**Figure 5.2.** The case IFUN = 0, (NX, NY, NZ) = (1, -1, -1), and IFUN = 5, (NX, NY, NZ) = (1, 1, 1).



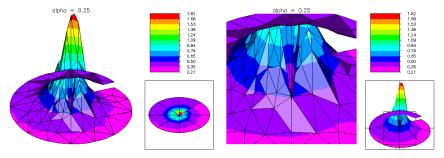
**Figure 5.3.** The case IFUN = 0, (NX, NY, NZ) = (1, -1, -1), RMAG = 2, CENX = .5, CENY = .3, and the case IFUN=5, (NX, NY, NZ) = (0, 0, 1), RMAG = 2, CENX = .5, CENY = .3.



**Figure 5.4.** The case LINES = 1 and the case LINES = 3. The corresponding picture for LINES = 0 is in Figure 5.1.



**Figure 5.5.** The case IFUN = 2. (NX, NY, NZ) = (0, 0, 1) and (NX, NY, NZ) = (1, -1, -1).



**Figure 5.6.** The case IFUN = 3, (NX, NY, NZ) = (1, -1, -1). In the picture on the right RMAG = 2, CENX = .5, and CENY = .3.

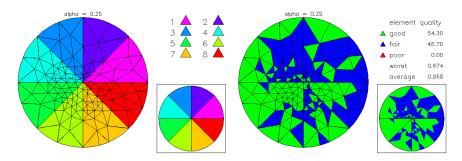
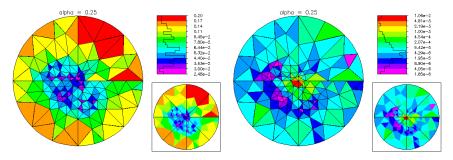


Figure 5.7. Triangles colored by label (INPLSW = 0) and by quality (INPLSW = 2).



**Figure 5.8.** Triangles colored by size INPLSW = 5) and by error (INPLSW = 6).

IFUN	displayed function
0	the solution $u_h$
1	the scalar function $ S^mQ_h\nabla u_h $
2	the vector function $S^m Q_h \nabla u_h$
3	the alternate function $QXY$
4	the alternate vector function $QXY$
5	the error estimate $\ \epsilon_t\ _{\mathcal{H}^1(t)}$
6	the tangent function $\dot{u}$
7	the right singular vector $\psi_r$
8	the left singular vector $\psi_{\ell}$
9	the Lagrange multiplier $u_m$
10	the control variable $\lambda_h$
11	the dual function

Table 5.1. The values of IFUN.

### 5.2.1 Surface Plots.

In the case of surface plots, NCON specifies the number of contours (colors) to be used. If NCON > MXCOLR - 2, some colors are used for more than one contour. The parameters SMIN and SMAX can be used to specify the limits of the color scale. If SMIN < SMAX, then these values are used as limits, with parts of the function lying outside (SMIN, SMAX) colored white. Otherwise, the largest and smallest values of the displayed function are used as limits.

Each picture consists of three frames; a large plot on the left and a two-part legend on the right. The upper right contains a scale relating colors to function values; three scales are available using the switch ISCALE as described in Section 5.2.4. For the case IFUN = 5, ICONT = 0, a histogram showing the distribution of errors  $\|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{H}^1(t)}$  is also provided in this legend. Four line-drawing options using LINES and eight labeling options using NUMBRS are also available. RMAG, CENX, and CENY provide a zoom-in capability as described in Section 5.2.3. The main image can be animated using three dimensional imaging systems such as OpenGL.

The triple d=(NX,NY,NZ) specifies the viewing perspective. The three-dimensional surface is projected into the plane orthogonal to d, and the function is drawn as it would appear to an observer viewing the surface from a line of sight parallel to d. The vectors (NX,NY,NZ) and -(NX,NY,NZ) cause the same projection to be computed; however, different pictures are generally produced for the two cases. In the former case one observes the projection on the "front" of the plane, and in the latter case one observes the projection on the "back" of the plane. If MXCOLR is sufficiently large, the surface will be shaded relative to a light source directly behind the viewer, imparting some additional three-dimensional character to the picture.

The lower right-hand legend provides guidance in understanding three-dimensional surface plots. In this case the legend contains a "flat" version of the main picture, al-

lowing another avenue for orienting oneself with respect to the viewing perspective. Some examples of surface plots are given in Figures 5.1–5.4.

#### 5.2.2 Vector Plots.

Color plays an important role in the vector plots. Different colors correspond to different directions in the vector field. This is illustrated in the color wheel portion of the upper right-hand legend. The number of directions is specified by the parameter NCON. Different intensities of the same color correspond to the magnitude of the vector; darker shades correspond to smaller magnitudes, and lighter shades correspond to higher magnitudes. The correspondence between color intensity and vector magnitude is illustrated for an example color in the upper right-hand legend. The parameters SMIN and SMAX are used to specify the limits of the color intensity scale for the magnitude of the vector. As with surface plots, if SMIN < SMAX, then these values are used as limits; otherwise the largest and smallest magnitudes of the vector function are used.

Three scales for the vector magnitude are available using the option switch ISCALE. Four line-drawing options using LINES and eight labeling options using NUMBRS are also available, and RMAG, CENX, and CENY provide zoom-in capabilities. The triple (NX,NY,NZ) specifies a direction as in the case of surface plots. In this case the surface plotted is the linear interpolant of the magnitude of the vector function.<sup>4</sup> In this case the elements remain colored as in a two dimensional vector plot. Some examples of vector plots are given in Figure 5.5. The vector function  $S^mQ_h\nabla u_h$  can also be plotted as a scalar function  $|S^mQ_h\nabla u_h|$ . Some examples are given in Figure 5.6.

#### 5.2.3 The Parameters RMAG, CENX, and CENY.

The parameters RMAG, CENX, and CENY provide a zoom-in option. RMAG is the magnification factor relative to the picture coordinates. For example, if RMAG=1 the whole picture will be drawn; if RMAG=2, the picture is scaled by a factor of 2 in both directions and thus no longer fits on the output device. One must now choose a window and view only a portion of the picture. The fractions  $0 \le CENX \le 1$  and  $0 \le CENY \le 1$  are used for this purpose. In particular (CENX, CENY) specifies the point that will appear at the center of the magnified window. If RMAG=1, the values of CENX and CENY are ignored. Some examples are shown in Figure 5.3 and Figure 5.6 (right).

As an aid to understanding, the lower right legend contains a copy of the complete picture (corresponding to RMAG = 1). Whenever RMAG > 1, a small box is drawn in this legend depicting the portion of the picture appearing in the main graph. The box is supplemented by a crosshair locator, since the box becomes too small to be visible for large magnification factors.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> For the actual magnitude, the surface of each triangular element is not necessarily a plane, making the hidden surface problem more difficult.

## 5.2.4 The Parameters ISCALE, LINES, and NUMBRS.

The parameter ISCALE provides three scaling options, summarized in Table 5.2. For linear scaling, drawn contours are equally spaced with respect to the largest and smallest values of the given function z(x,y). If ISCALE=1, then the contours are equally spaced with respect to the largest and smallest values of  $\log z$ . If ISCALE=2, then the contours are equally spaced with respect to largest and smallest values of the function  $\sinh^{-1}z$ . The logarithmic scaling clearly requires z to be positive. The  $\sinh^{-1}$  scaling is always defined, having a (signed) logarithmic behavior for large |z| and a linear behavior for small |z|. If ISCALE=1 and  $z\leq 0$  at some vertex, then TRIPLT defaults to the  $\sinh^{-1}$  scaling. In Figure 5.1, the solution  $u_h$  was drawn using the linear scale (ISCALE=0), while the error estimate was drawn using the logarithmic scale (ISCALE=1).

ISCALE	scale
0	linear
1	logarithmic
2	$\sinh^{-1}$
LINES	line drawing option
-2	matrix element boundaries
-1	skeleton graphics triangulation
0	all triangle edges
1	boundary/interface edges
2	load balance boundary edges
3	contours
NUMBRS	labeling option
-2	matrix element locations
-1	matrix element values
0	no labels
1	triangles/subregions
2	vertices
3	edges
4	curved edges
5	edge type
6	edge labels
7	processor
8	vertex type
ICRSN	coarsening option
0	no coarsening
1	coarsen global mesh

Table 5.2. The values of ISCALE, LINES, NUMBRS and ICRSN.

Three line drawing options are available, specified through the parameter LINES, as summarized in Table 5.2. If LINES = 0, TRIPLT will draw edges

of all triangles in the mesh. If LINES = 1, only boundary edges and edges separating triangles from different regions are drawn. The case LINES = 2 is similar to the case LINES = 1, except that here boundary edges and edges separating triangles from different processors are drawn. When LINES = 3 for surface plots, TRIPLT draws boundary triangle edges and contour lines separating contours of different colors. This option produces a traditional contour map on monochrome devices and thus is useful when MXCOLR = 2. Some examples for LINES = 1 and LINES = 3 are shown in Figure 5.4. The option LINES = 3 is not implemented for vector plots.

Eight labeling options are available in TRIPLT; these are specified through the parameter NUMBRS, as summarized in Table 5.2. When  $NUMBRS \neq 0$ , three-dimensional plotting is disabled; the result will be a "flat" (but labeled) surface. Some examples are shown in Figures 2.1 and 2.2.

### 5.2.5 The Parameters ICRSN and ITRGT.

When NVF becomes very large, the amount of data used to make an image may become too large for animated display systems like OpenGL or for Postscript files of reasonable size.<sup>5</sup> In this situation, one may wish to compress the data and make a lower resolution image. The parameter ICRSN indicates whether or not to coarsen the mesh, as indicated in Table 5.2. If ICRSN = 1, then the parameter ITRGT specifies the target number of vertices for the coarsened mesh. The coarsening option is very much like the mesh coarsening option in TRIGEN; many of the same subroutines are used, and the overall coarsening strategy is the same. However, the coarsening criteria is different.

In the case of TRIPLT, let  $p_i$  be a vertex in the mesh and  $\Omega_i$  denote the patch of triangles having  $p_i$  as one its vertices. For each vertex, we compute the best (least squares) linear polynomial on  $\Omega_i$  that interpolates the displayed function at  $p_i$ . A discrete  $\ell^2$  norm of the difference between this linear polynomial and the displayed function at the vertices lying on  $\partial\Omega_i$  is used as the coarsening criterion. Such a criterion does not directly control the shape regularity or approximation properties of the mesh, but does tend to minimize the visual disruptions caused by deleting  $p_i$  and creating a triangulation of  $\Omega_i$  based on its boundary vertices. All vertices are placed in a heap, and the least disruptive vertex is eliminated until the target ITRGT is achieved. When MPI is on (MPISW=1), each processor independently coarsens the mesh for its subregion to a target of ITRGT/NPROC vertices. Thus, when the submeshes are later combined, the global mesh appearing in the image will have at most ITRGT vertices.

When the mesh is coarsened, all numbering options are disabled; NUMBRS = 0 is always used. The setting LINES = 0 is reset to LINES = 1, and ICONT = 1 is always used.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Raster graphics images like those produced by X-Windows displays and XPM files are largely independent of the size of the underlying data set.

### 5.2.6 Some Algorithmic Details.

The main algorithms of interest in *TRIPLT* are those for hidden line and surface removal. In the general case of a surface plot, one must make comparisons between various triangles to determine whether a given triangle blocks another with respect to the viewer. Since the triangular mesh is generally unstructured, our goal is to organize the data to minimize the number of comparisons between triangles.

Generally, for surface plots in which  $(NX, NY, NZ) \neq (0, 0, 1)$ , a partial order is constructed in which elements farthest from the viewer are ordered first, and those closest to the viewer are ordered last. The elements are then drawn and colored in order, with the elements closer to the viewer (possibly) overwriting some elements that are farther away. The notion of distance from the viewer is defined with respect to the x and y coordinates only, so that the same ordering is computed independently of the function being graphed. A typical element is compared only to elements with which it shares a common edge; it is ordered before any edge neighbors closer to the viewer and after any neighbors farther away. Since any element has at most three neighbors, this greatly limits the number of comparisons necessary and completely solves the ordering problem for a convex domain with no holes.

Unfortunately, many domains are not convex and have holes, so that elements with boundary edges must be treated as special cases. Thus we make a list of triangles with boundary edges, sort them with respect to the direction (in the (x,y) plane) perpendicular to the (NX,NY) components of the viewing direction. Boundary edges are also sorted by whether they face "backward" or "forward" with respect to (NX,NY). With these preliminary calculations done, all pairs of relevant triangles that might conflict are tested and appropriate ordering constraints imposed. For a mesh with NTF triangles, the number of boundary triangles is  $O(\sqrt{NTF})$ , so that in the worst case (every boundary element compared with every other boundary element), this will still be only O(NTF) work. Since only O(NTF) work is required for the interior elements, the overall work is still O(NTF).

# 5.3 Subroutine INPLT.

Subroutine INPLT is a graphics routine for displaying the input data defining a triangulation or a skeleton. INPLT is called using the statement

Call INPLT(VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, IP, RP, SP, W)

The arrays VX, VY, IBNDRY, ITNODE, XM, and YM define either a triangulation or a skeleton (INPLT uses the value of ITNODE(3,1), which is zero for a skeleton and positive for a triangulation, to distinguish these cases). The string variable ITITLE is displayed as a banner above the graph. Variables in the IP, RP, and SP arrays used by INPLT are shown in Tables 2.5–2.7. INPLT was used to make Figures 3.1 3.4, and 3.6, among others in this manual.

INPLSW	triangulation	skeleton
0	user label	user label
1	load balance	uniform color
2	element quality	subregion
3	largest angle	
4	smallest angle	
5	element size	
6	error estimate	

Table 5.3. The values of INPLSW.

### 5.3.1 Triangle Plots.

For triangle plots, the elements in the triangulation are colored to depict some feature of the mesh. The available options are controlled by the switch *INPLSW* as summarized in Table 5.3.

If INPLSW = 0, the elements in the mesh are colored according to the user supplied labels in ITNODE(5,I); all elements with the same label will have the same color. If INPLSW = 1, the elements in the mesh are colored according to the load balance (ITNODE(4,I)).

For  $2 \leq INPLSW \leq 4$ , INPLT colors the elements of the triangulation according to their quality, measured by q(t) in (3.1), their largest angle, and their smallest angle, respectively. For each of the three measures, five numbers are printed in the upper right legend. The row labeled "average" refers to the average of that quantity over all elements in the mesh; "worst" reports the smallest value of q(t), largest angle, or smallest angle of all elements. The rows labeled "good," "fair," and "poor" report the percentage of elements in each category and depict the corresponding colors.

For q(t), good means  $q(t) \geq \sqrt{3}/2$ , fair means  $.6 \leq q(t) < \sqrt{3}/2$ , and poor means q(t) < .6. For large angles, good means  $A(t) \leq \pi/2$ , fair means  $\pi/2 < A(t) \leq 2\pi/3$ , and poor means  $A(t) > 2\pi/3$  (A(t) is the largest angle). For small angles, good means  $a(t) < a(t) \leq a(t)$ , fair means  $a(t) < a(t) \leq a(t)$  and poor means  $a(t) < a(t) \leq a(t)$ , fair means  $a(t) \leq a(t) \leq a(t)$  and poor means  $a(t) < a(t) \leq a(t)$ , fair means  $a(t) \leq a(t) \leq a(t)$ , and poor means  $a(t) \leq a(t) \leq a(t)$ , fair means  $a(t) \leq a(t) \leq a(t)$ ,

When INPLSW=5, INPLT produces an image in which each element is colored according to its size. A histogram showing the distribution of element sizes appears in the legend. Although any scaling option available through ISCALE can be used, generally the logarithmic scaling (ISCALE=1) produces the most useful image.

When INPLSW = 6, INPLT produces an image in which each element is colored according to its error  $\|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{H}^1(t)}$ . This is similar to the case of TRIPLT with IFUN=5 and ICONT=0, except that the INPLT image is strictly two dimensional.

This option is included because the coarsening procedure used in INPLT with ICRSN=1 assumes discontinuous element data, and generally produces higher quality reduced resolution images than TRIPLT for this highly oscillatory function. As in the case INPLSW=5, all scaling options are available, but ISCALE=1 is typically most useful. Some example images made using INPLT are shown in Figures 5.7 and 5.8.

The meanings and use of RMAG, CENX, CENY, and MXCOLR are identical to TRIPLT. Labeling options using NUMBRS are summarized in Table 5.2. INPLT was used with various NUMBRS options to produce Figure 2.1 although the legends on the right-hand sides of the pictures were deleted. For the main graph, three line-drawing options are available using LINES, as summarized in Table 5.2.

Subroutine INPLT also allows mesh coarsening, but the criterion is different. In INPLT, each element is a single color and the images are two dimensional, and the coarsening criterion reflects these differences. If all elements in  $\Omega_i$  are the same color, then  $p_i$  is eliminated. In the case INPLSW=5,6, if this initial coarsening does not produce a mesh with fewer than ITRGT vertices, the elements are scanned, and all elements with two or more neighbors of the same color (different from their color) are switched to that color. This has the effect of smoothing the boundary between regions of different colors. The coarsening process is then applied to the relabeled mesh. This process is repeated as necessary until the target value is exceeded. As with TRIPLT, NUMBRS=0 is always specified for a coarsened mesh and LINES=0 is reset to LINES=1.

#### 5.3.2 Skeleton Plots.

As with triangle plots, the subregions of the skeleton are colored according to the option specified by INPLSW as summarized in Table 5.3. If INPLSW = 0, the subregions are colored according to the user supplied labels in ITNODE(5,I), similar to the case of a triangulation. If INPLSW = 1, each subregion is given the same color, while if INPLSW = 2, each subregion is given a different color.

Subroutine *INPLT* draws a skeleton by first creating a crude triangulation based on the skeleton, and then drawing the triangulation. Here shape regularity and overall quality of the triangulation is not an issue; rather, keeping the number of elements small and computing the triangulation quickly are important. The option LINES = -1 displays the underlying triangulation used in the skeleton plot. It was included mainly for debugging purposes.

The parameters RMAG, CENX, CENY, and MXCOLR are the same as for triangle plots. Labeling options using NUMBRS are summarized in Table 5.2. There are no coarsening or parallel computation options available for skeleton plots. INPLT was used with various NUMBRS options to produce Figure 2.2.

# 5.4 Subroutine GPHPLT.

Subroutine *GPHPLT* displays an assortment of data related to the performance of various algorithms and subroutines in *PLTMG* and *TRIGEN* using a graphical format.

GPHPLT is called using the statement

Call GPHPLT(IP, RP, SP, W)

GPHPLT makes use of the arrays PATH, HIST, PSTAT. KA, and TIME, initialized by PLTMG and TRIGEN when FIRST=1 and containing data generated during the solution process. The string variable GTITLE is displayed as a banner above the graph. Other variables in the IP, RP, and SP arrays used by GPHPLT are shown in Tables 2.5–2.7.

IGRSW	displayed graph
0	Newton iteration convergence history
1	multigraph iteration convergence history
-1	matrix sizes in multigraph iteration
2	individual subroutine timing statistics
-2	time pie chart
3	the continuation path
-3	load balance
4	error estimates for $\mathcal{H}^1$ norm
-4	error estimates for $\mathcal{L}^2$ norm
5	the IP array
-5	the SP array
6	the RP array
-6	the KA array

Table 5.4. The values of IGRSW.

*IGRSW* is an integer switch for selecting the displayed graph; the available possibilities are summarized in Table 5.4.

#### 5.4.1 Iteration Information.

For the cases IGRSW = -1, 0, 1, information about various iterations is displayed. In all three cases, the same three graphs are drawn. The large main window contains the information indicated in Table 5.4 for the corresponding value of IGRSW. The other two graphs appear in the two smaller frames on the right. Examples are shown in Figures 5.9–5.10.

In the case IGRSW = 0, in the main window GPHPLT graphs the functions

$$\mathcal{R}_k = \log_{10} \left\{ \frac{\|\mathcal{G}_k\|}{\|\mathcal{G}_0\|} \right\}$$
 and  $\mathcal{E}_k = \log_{10} \left\{ \frac{\|\delta \mathcal{U}_k\|}{\|\mathcal{U}_k\|} \right\}$ .

 $\mathcal{G}_k$  is the residual for the Newton iteration, while  $\delta S_k$  is the incremental change in the solution  $S_k$ . The precise meaning of  $\mathcal{G}_k$  and  $S_k$  varies according to the system of nonlinear equations solved for each problem class addressed by PLTMG. Both

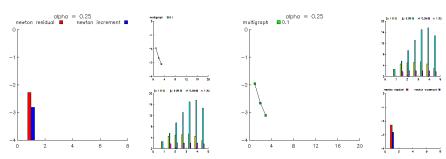


Figure 5.9. The cases IGRSW = 0 and IGRSW = 1.

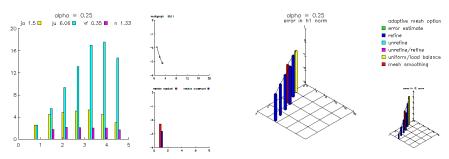


Figure 5.10. The cases IGRSW = -1 and IGRSW = 4.

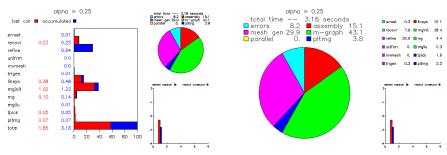


Figure 5.11. The cases IGRSW = 2 and IGRSW = -2.

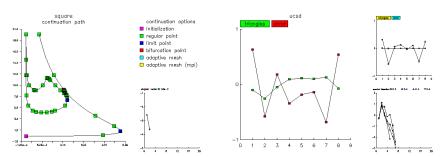


Figure 5.12. The cases IGRSW = 3 and IGRSW = -3.

convergence histories are plotted in a bar graph of  $\mathcal{R}_k$  and  $\mathcal{E}_k$  versus iteration index k.

The convergence history for the most recently solved set of equations is displayed. When this corresponds to a regular (serial) solution (IPROB>0), the relative residuals are red bars, while the solution increments are blue. At most, information about the last twenty Newton iterations is displayed. When IPROB<0, the Newton iteration employs the parallel domain decomposition/multigraph solver in place of the simple multigraph solver. In this case, the residuals are magenta bars, and the solution increments are evan.

Nominally, the rate of convergence for Newton's method should asymptotically be quadratic; however, the convergence becomes linear when systems of linear equations involving the Jacobian matrix are only approximately solved.

In the case IGRSW = 1, in the main window GPHPLT graphs the function

$$\mathcal{S}(k) = \log_{10} \left\{ \frac{\|r_k\|}{\|r_0\|} \right\}.$$

Here  $r_k$  is the residual of a set of linear equations to be solved by the multigraph method and k is the iteration number. The displayed histories are for linear systems solved in the most recent Newton iteration. Up to four such systems are solved in each Newton step, depending on the value of IPROB. In all cases, only information about the last twenty cycles of the most recent iteration is saved and displayed.

Either the composite step conjugate gradient method or composite step biconjugate gradient method is used [7, 6], preconditioned by a multigraph incomplete factorization [21]. Each individual step is marked with a small icon; a color pair (green, red), (blue, yellow), (cyan, magenta), (white, black) is assigned to each history. In each case, for simple steps the icon is colored with the first color (e.g., green), while for composite steps the icon is colored with the second color (e.g., red).

In the case IGRSW = -1, in the main window statistics related to the multigraph method are displayed. The horizontal axis is  $\log_{10} N$  where N is the order of the matrix. For each level  $(N_k)$  three bars are displayed; the heights are proportional to the average number of nonzeros per row in the upper triangular part of the system matrix (yellow), the ILU factorization (cyan), and the transfer matrix to the next coarser level (magenta). More detailed information about matrix sizes is available by setting IGRSW = -6.

# 5.4.2 Timing Statistics.

If IGRSW = 2, GPHPLT prints a summary of timing statistics for PLTMG and TRIGEN. An example is given in Figure 5.11. Statistics are given both for the total accumulated time since initialization (IFIRST = 1) and for the time spent during the last call to PLTMG or TRIGEN. The timings are itemized with respect to subroutines that carry out major computational tasks in the package. These subroutines are listed in Table 5.5. Depending on the problem, some of these routines may not be called.

subroutine	main function
TGEN	create triangulation from skeleton
REFINE	adaptively refine the triangulation
UNREFN	adaptively unrefine the triangulation
UNIFRM	uniformly refine the triangulation
MVMESH	adaptively smooth the mesh points
ERREST	compute error estimates for $u_h$
CDLFN	Compute dual function
RGEN	create skeleton from triangulation
LDBAL	compute a load balance
LDEV	solve eigenvalue subproblem in load balance
CUTR	reorganize data structures for reconciling mesh
PASTE	reconcile mesh along interface of IRGN
PASTE1	reconcile mesh along interface not part of IRGN
BCAST	broadcast mesh to all processors
COLLCT	gather mesh from all processors
EXPTH	exchange boundary interface data
TRIGEN	all other time spent in TRIGEN
MGINIT	initialize multigraph data structures
MG	solve equations using multigraph iteration
MGILU	compute sparse ILU factorizations
CEV	compute the singular value $\mu$ and vectors $\psi_r$ and $\psi_\ell$
LINSYS	compute the stiffness matrix and right-hand side
PREDCT	compute the steplength $\sigma$ for continuation
BLK3	block elimination for $IPROB = 3$
BLK4	block elimination for $IPROB = 4$
BLK5	block elimination for $IPROB = 5$ and $IPROB = -5$
SWBRCH	switch branches at a bifurcation point
TPICK	line search for Newton iteration
BLK3DD	block elimination for $IPROB = -3$
RGNSYS	assemble linear system for domain decomposition
TPICKD	line search for Newton/DD iteration
BLK4DD	block elimination for $IPROB = -4$
RECOVR	Compute $S^m Q_h \nabla u_h$
PLTMG	all other time spent in <i>PLTMG</i>

Table 5.5. Subroutines timed by GPHPLT.

A bar graph is drawn illustrating the percentage of time spent in each routine. Each bar in the graph is partitioned into a part corresponding to the last call to *PLTMG* (red) and a part corresponding to all preceding calls (blue). The timing pie graph described below appears in the upper right frame.

If IGRSW = -2, GPHPLT displays a pie graph summarizing the same information. Each routine in Table 5.5 is assigned to one of six categories: linear system

assembly (red), multigraph solver (green), mesh generation (magenta), a posteriori error estimation (cyan), parallel processing routines (yellow), and other *PLTMG* routines (blue). A pie graph showing the fraction of total time spent in each of the six categories is drawn in the main frame. Details of individual contributions from the subroutines listed in Table 5.5 are summarized in the upper right frame. Sample output is shown in Figure 5.11.

When MPISW=1, the times displayed for  $IGRSW=\pm 2$  are time averaged across all processors. In this case, in the lower right frame, a graph displaying the deviation from the average time for each processor is drawn.

#### 5.4.3 Continuation Path.

When IGRSW=3, GPHPLT displays the continuation path generated by the continuation procedure IPROB=3. Target points are marked by small boxes, generally using different colors for different values of ITASK. A legend appears in the upper right frame summarizing the possibilities. Up to one hundred target points generated by calls to PLTMG are saved and displayed. Successive points are interpolated using parabolic arcs matching the values of  $(\lambda, \rho)$  and the tangent vectors  $(\dot{\lambda}, \dot{\rho})$ . In the lower right frame appears a convergence history for the most recent singular vector computation. Sample output is shown in Figure 5.12.

### 5.4.4 Parallel Statistics

When IGRSW = -3, GPHPLT plots the functions

$$T_k = \log_2 \left\{ \frac{NPROC \cdot NTF(\Omega_k)}{\sum_k NTF(\Omega_k)} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad E_k = \log_2 \left\{ \frac{NPROC \|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega_k)}}{\sum_k \|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega_k)}} \right\}$$

where  $1 \le k \le NPROC$ . Both curves appear in the large frame. When MPISW = 1 the information from all processors is obtained by an exchange of data using the MPI library. This is the most useful situation. When MPISW = -1, the same graph is made using local data on the given processor; this case is typically not interesting. In the upper right frame is a similar graph for the distribution of error and elements following the initial load balancing step (IADAPT = 7). In the lower right frame appear convergence histories for eigenvalue computations in the load balancing phase. Convergence histories are shown for the four most recent problems. Sample output is shown in Figure 5.12.

#### 5.4.5 Error Estimates.

In the case IGRSW = 4, GPHPLT graphs the function

$$\mathcal{F}_1(NVF, \mathit{ICALL}) = \log_{10} \left\{ \frac{\|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)}}{\|u_h\|_{\mathcal{H}^1(\Omega)}} \right\},$$

and in the case IGRSW = -4, GPHPLT graphs the function

$$\mathcal{F}_0(NVF, ICALL) = \log_{10} \left\{ \frac{\|\epsilon_t\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}}{\|u_h\|_{\mathcal{L}^2(\Omega)}} \right\}.$$

Here  $\epsilon_t$  is the computed approximation of the error  $u - u_h$ . While it is hoped that these approximations accurately reflect the true state of affairs, the estimates are based on a posteriori calculations involving only the computed solution. Some judgment of the validity of such computations may be required. An example is shown in Figure 5.10.

Since there are several adaptive options in TRIGEN that do not involve a change in NVF, error estimates are plotted as a function of both NVF and ICALL. In particular,  $\mathcal{F}_j$  is graphed versus  $\log_{10} NVF$  and ICALL in a three-dimensional graph. All data points (up to the 20 most recent) for which error estimates are available are marked with rectangular cylinders of different colors. A legend appears in the upper right frame summarizing the possibilities. In the case IGRSW = 4, the plot of  $\mathcal{F}_0$  appears in the lower right frame; if IGRSW = -4, the plot of  $\mathcal{F}_1$  in the lower right frame.

The triple d=(MX,MY,MZ) specifies the viewing perspective for these graphs in a fashion similar to (NX,NY,NZ) for surface plots. The choice (1,1,1) is a reasonable default. The choice (0,-1,0) yields a traditional two-dimensional graph of  $\log_{10} \mathcal{F}_j$  versus  $\log_{10} NVF$ , and is useful for situations where only refinement options are used in TRIGEN. The choice (1,0,0) yields a two-dimensional graph of  $\log_{10} \mathcal{F}_j$  versus ICALL and is useful when only mesh smoothing options are employed. The main image can be animated using three dimensional imaging systems such as OpenGL.

# 5.4.6 Displaying Data Arrays.

The options  $|IGRSW| \ge 5$ , GPHPLT displays the IP, RP, SP, or KA arrays. Unlike other graphics options, here the entire graphics window is treated as a single frame. In the case of the IP and RP arrays, all 100 entries, their names, and their current values are displayed. Entries that can be interactively reset in the ATEST driver are colored red, unused entries appear in black, and all other entries are colored blue. This situation is similar for the SP array, except only the first 50 entries are displayed (the remainder are all presently unused). When IGRSW = -6, information about the multigraph solver stored in the KA array is displayed. This includes the order and number of nonzeros in the system matrix and ILU factorization for all of the levels, as well as the sizes of the inter-level transfer matrices. Examples are shown in Figures 5.13–5.14.

# 5.5 Subroutine MTXPLT.

Subroutine MTXPLT displays the sparsity structure of the stiffness matrix A, the LDU factors from the ILU factorization, or the error matrix E = LDU - A. MTX-PLT is called using the statement

```
Call MTXPLT( JA, A, IP, RP, SP, VX, VY, W)
```

The arrays JA and A should contain the matrices generated through an appropriate call to PLTMG. MTXPLT uses several variables from the IP, RP, and

```
| Company | Comp
```

Figure 5.13. The cases IGRSW = 5 and IGRSW = 6.

```
| Title | Opho | 0.25 | 26 | Invest | No. | Invest | No. | Invest | Invest | No. | Invest | I
```

Figure 5.14. The cases IGRSW = -5 and IGRSW = -6.

SP arrays, as shown in Tables 2.5–2.7. The VX and VY arrays are used for options that display matrix graphs. The string variable MTITLE is the character string displayed as a label above the graph. The error flag IFLAG is set as in Table 2.8.

The parameter IMTXSW specifies the matrix to be plotted. The available options are summarized in Table 5.6. The parameter LEVEL indicates the multigraph level of the matrix to be drawn. If LEVEL < 1 or LEVEL > LVL then the matrix from the finest level LVL is displayed.

IMTXSW	displayed matrix
±1	LDU colored by element type
±2	LDU colored by element size
±3	A colored by element type
±4	A colored by element size
±5	E colored by element type
±6	E colored by element size
±7	matrix graph, colored by level

**Table 5.6.** The values of IMTXSW.

The main picture in divided into an  $N \times N$  square grid. Grid cell (i, j) corresponds to matrix element (i, j). For the case of LDU factorizations, the strictly lower triangular part of L, the diagonal D, and the strictly upper tri-

angular part of U are displayed (L and U have unit diagonal entries). Matrix elements stored in sparse matrix data structures are colored according to type or size. If IMTXSW > 0, then matrix element magnitudes are displayed. If IMTXSW < 0, then (signed) matrix element values are displayed. For the cases |IMTXSW| = 2, 4, 6, the parameters NCON and ISCALE are used to determine the color scale in a fashion similar to TRIPLT. In the case IMTXSW = 7, the graph of the matrix is drawn, with vertices of the graph colored by level. When IMTXSW = -7, just the vertices in the matrix graph are drawn. Some examples are shown in Figures 5.15 and 5.16. The parameters (MX, MY, MZ) can be used to set a viewing perspective in a fashion similar to GPHPLT. In perspective views, matrix elements are displayed as rectangular cylinders with height proportional to element value or magnitude. LINES and NUMBRS can be set as indicated in Table 5.2. Similar to TRIPLT, if  $NUMBRS \neq 0$  and  $(MX, MY, MZ) \neq (0, 0, 1)$ , the picture will be drawn on a "flat" surface. The parameters RMAG, CENX, and CENY may be used as in Section 5.2.3 to provide zoom-in capabilities. The main image can be animated using three dimensional imaging systems such as OpenGL. Some examples are shown in Figures 5.17 and 5.18.

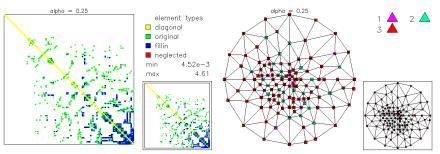
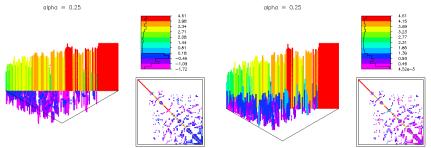


Figure 5.15. The case IMTXSW = 1 (left) and IMTXSW = 7 (right).



**Figure 5.16.** The cases IMTXSW = -2 (left) and IMTXSW = 2 (right). (MX, MY, MZ) = (1, 1, 1) in both images.

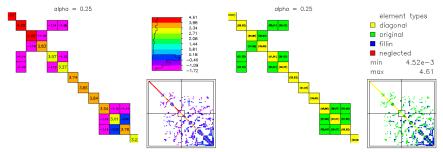


Figure 5.17. RMAG = 10, NUMBRS = -1 (left) and NUMBRS = -2 (right).

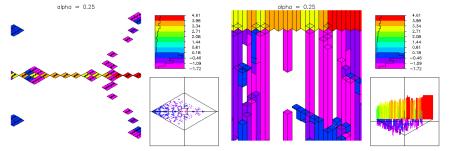


Figure 5.18. RMAG = 10, (MX, MY, MZ) = (1, 1, 1). NUMBRS = -2 (left) and NUMBRS = 0 (right).

# Chapter 6

# **Test Driver**

### 6.1 Overview.

Program *ATEST* is the test driver used in the development and testing of the *PLTMG* package. *ATEST* is a flexible program in that it accepts simple command strings directing it to call subroutines or perform other tasks. It is not limited to a fixed sequence of tasks on a particular run; any routine can be called as often as desired, with certain parameters reset for each call at the discretion of the user.

The program ATEST can operate in four modes, governed by the switch MODE. If MODE = -1, ATEST runs as an interactive program, accepting commands from the user via a terminal window. If MODE = 1, ATEST runs interactively, accepting commands from the user via an X-Windows interface. This interface is based on the Motif widget set and can be used only in environments supporting X-Windows. If MODE = 1, ATEST runs as a batch program, reading commands from a journal file and sending all output to appropriate output files. Finally, if MODE = -2, ATEST runs as a slave mode under MPI; this mode cannot be directly set by the user, but is set by ATEST if it determines that it is a slave node in a parallel computation. In this situation, the user specifies MODE only for the master node, which can be any of the three other options.

A common command syntax is used for all modes. This is described first for the case MODE = -1 in Section 6.2. The extensions used in the X-Windows interface are described in Section 6.3.

Several files are written by ATEST. The file BFILE contains a complete record of all commands and printed output produced during the session. The file JWFILE contains a record of all commands read and processed during the session, formatted as a journal file. See Section 6.8 for a discussion of journal files. ATEST also creates a temporary file JTFILE used in connection with the journal command. While most commands invoke one of the major routines in the package, there are a few utility routines (e.g. for reading and writing files) which are documented in Sections 6.7–6.10.

### 6.2 Terminal Mode.

In terminal mode, commands are entered from a terminal window in character strings of 80 characters, counting blanks. The syntax of a command can take several forms, but the root command is always a single letter. The commands that are currently recognized by *ATEST* are summarized in Table 6.1.

Command	Action
s	call PLTMG
t	call TRIGEN
f	call TRIPLT
g	call GPHPLT
i	call INPLT
m	call $MTXPLT$
w	write data set to a file
r	read data set from a file
j	read journal file
k	execute shell command
u	call USRCMD
p	MPI toggle
q	quit

**Table 6.1.** Available commands for ATEST.

The terminal window prompt is the string *command:*. At this prompt, one can enter a command string (e.g., s), reset parameters as described below, or enter a blank line to see a list of the available commands. In this latter case the terminal window will appear as follows.

```
command:
                        triplt f
                                    gphplt g
                                                 inplt i
                                                             mtxplt m
trigen t
            pltmg s
                        usrcmd u
                                    journl j
                                                 shell k
read
     r
            write w
                                                             mpi
quit
command:
```

A syntax error in a given command string causes the entire string to be ignored. ATEST will display the string command error and present the command prompt for a new input string.

The most simple commands are just single lower case letters as shown in Table 6.1. However, associated with most commands are various parameters which can be reset before calling the given routine. To see a listing of the parameters associated with a given command and their current values, without executing the command itself, enter the command in upper case at the command prompt. For example, the command F will display the parameters which can be interactively reset in connection with TRIPLT.

```
command:F
ifun f 0
                 iscale s 0
                                   lines 1 0
                                                      numbrs n 0
                       nx 0
fdevce d 0
                 nx
                                   ny
                                          ny 0
                                                      nz
                                                            nz 1
ncon c 11
                 icont
                       ic O
                                   icrsn
                                          cr 0
                                                      itrgt it 10000
mxcolr mc 100
                 smin
                       sn 0.0
                                   smax
                                          sx 0.0
                                                      rmag
                                                            m 1.0
cenx cx 0.5
                        cy 0.5
                  ceny
ftitle t "circle"
```

#### command:

There are thirteen integer parameters, five real parameters, and one string parameter affecting subroutine *TRIPLT* that can be interactively reset by the user. To the right of each parameter is a one- or two-letter alias (to avoid typing long names), followed by the current value.

To reset some parameters associated with a command c (c = s, f, g, etc.), without invoking the command itself, one can type a string of the form

```
command:C name1=value1, name2=value2, ... , namek=valuek
```

Note that the root command appears in upper case. The *namek* refer to variable names or their aliases, and valuek refer to integer, real, or string values. Several parameters can be reset, with different entries separated by commas. Values for integer parameters should be integers, while values for real parameters can be specified using integer, fixed point, or exponential notation. There are three types of string parameters: short, long and file. Short strings are typically single words and can not contain any blank characters. Files are typically file names, and they also can not contain any blank characters. All other strings are long, and can contain any printable ASCII characters other than double quotes. Values of long string parameters should appear within double quotes. Short and file string parameters are not enclosed with double quotes. Blank spaces are ignored everywhere but within the value field of a long string parameter. A syntax error in the input line (e.g., a misspelled variable name) causes the entire command to be ignored and no variables to be reset. ATEST will respond command error and then ask for the next command. For example, here we reset ISCALE = 1, NCON = 20, CENX = .3, RMAG = 10, and FTITLE = A new title for circle. Subroutine TRIPLT is not called, but the parameters are updated and redisplayed as

```
command:F s=1, ncon=20, cenx=.3, rmag=1.e1, t="A new title for circle"
ifun f 0
                  iscale s 1
                                     lines 1 0
                                                        numbrs n 0
fdevce d
        0
                  nx
                         nx 0
                                     ny
                                            ny 0
                                                        nz
                                                               nz 1
     c 20
                         ic 0
ncon
                  icont
                                     icrsn
                                            cr 0
                                                        itrgt it 10000
mxcolr mc 100
                         sn 0.0
                                     smax
                                            sx 0.0
                  smin
                                                        rmag
cenx cx 0.3
                  ceny
                        cy 0.5
ftitle t "A new title for circle"
```

#### command:

One can reset some parameters for a given command c, and then invoke the command itself, using a string of the form

```
command:c name1=value1, name2=value2, ..., namek=valuek
```

Note that the only difference is that the root command now appears in lower case rather than upper case. Thus

```
command:f s=1, ncon=20, cenx=.3, rmag=1.e1, t="A new title for circle"
```

resets the indicated parameters as in the previous example. However, instead of displaying the updated values, subroutine TRIPLT is called.

Finally, the graphics and MPI commands (f, i, g, m and p) have a short form allowing one crucial parameter (*IFUN*, *INPLSW*, *IGRSW*, *IMTXSW*, and *MPISW*, respectively) to be reset without typing even the alias. For example,

```
command:f5
```

is the short form for

command:f ifun=5

The short and long forms of these commands cannot be mixed. Thus

command:f5, ncon=10

is not valid.

## 6.3 X-Windows Mode.

When MODE = 0, the driver ATEST creates an X-Windows interface for the PLTMG package. The functional capabilities are the same as for the terminal window mode, but the possibilities for data entry are more varied. An example of the X-Windows interface appears in Figure 6.1.

The main display contains three elements. The upper portion of the display contains *command buttons*. Below the command buttons is a one line *command window*. The bottom portion of the display is the *history window*. The interface supports up to ten graphics displays.

The command buttons stand in one to one correspondence with the basic ATEST command set shown in Table 6.1. In particular, clicking the left mouse button (button one) with the pointer over a command button is equivalent to the typed lower-case version of that command. For example, clicking mouse button one on the TRIPLT command button causes subroutine TRIPLT to be called as in the command f. On the other hand, clicking on the right mouse button (button three) with the pointer over a command button is equivalent to the upper case version of the command. Clicking mouse button three on the TRIPLT command button causes the parameters for the TRIPLT command to be displayed in a popup reset window, as in the typed command F. This is shown is figure 6.2.

The parameters associated with a given command are displayed in the reset window in a format similar to terminal mode. However, each parameter value is



Figure 6.1. The X-Windows interface.

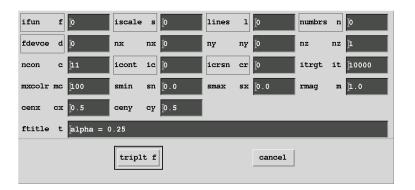


Figure 6.2. An example reset window.

displayed in one line text-editing window, and can be reset by typing in the new value. For some parameter names (e.g., IFUN in Figure 6.2), the name has a colored border. Clicking on the name causes a display of radio buttons, listing available options for the given parameter, to pop up. Clicking on the appropriate option causes the parameter to be reset to the corresponding value. The radio button popup associated with the parameter IFUN appears in Figure 6.3.

For file selection commands (*READ*, *WRITE*, and *JOURNL*), the generic reset window is replaced by the Motif file-selection widget. The file-selection popup



Figure 6.3. An example radio buttons popup.

for the JOURNAL command is shown in Figure 6.4.

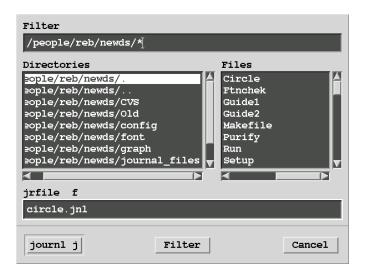


Figure 6.4. An example file selection popup.

The X-Windows interface also allows commands to be entered from the keyboard as in terminal mode. In particular, one can place the pointer in the command window, and enter a command from the keyboard as in terminal mode.

The history window displays the contents of the output file, *BFILE*, as it is created. If the file becomes sufficiently large, only the tail of the file is displayed.

The X-Windows driver also supports ten graphics displays (numbered 0-9).

6.4. Batch Mode. 97

The parameter NGRAPH,  $1 \leq NGRAPH \leq 10$ , states the number of windows to create initially. Graphics displays can be dismissed and recreated as necessary. These windows use only X-Windows primitives, and display static images which cannot be manipulated (e.g. rotated) with the mouse. Graphics popups can be resized in the usual way, but maintain a 3/2 aspect ratio. Also, any existing image is erased upon resize, and must be redrawn.

When executing a journal file in X-Windows mode, if a graphics command is executed, depending on the graphics device selected, ATEST can pause after the picture is drawn, and create a small popup continue button. In this case, ATEST waits until the user dismisses the continue popup before continuing to execute the journal file. This allows time for the user to view the picture before processing the next command in the journal file.

The X-Windows display can be interactively resized in the usual way. However, ATEST will adjust the user-specified resizing such that an overall aspect ratio of 3/2 is maintained. ATEST also imposes a minimum size requirement on the main window.

The string parameters BGCLR and BTNBG allow the user to specify the background and button background colors for the main display. Motif automatically defines the remaining colors used in the display. These parameters can be given any of the named colors supported by X-Windows. The string parameter LOGO is provided to X-Windows for use as titlebars and other identifiers.

Finally, we remark that the X-Windows interface does not follow the pattern of many X-Windows programs, in that the *PLTMG* package was not integrated into the X-Windows system with the X-Windows interface serving as the main routine. Indeed, the X-Windows interface is realized as a collection of C language subroutines called by a Fortran driver. These routines use the same database of Fortran character strings as the terminal window interface to define their displays, and return command strings of the same type described in the terminal windows interface. Both the X-Windows interface and the terminal window interface are quite generic, in that neither contains direct links to any of the main routines in the package. Thus changes in the behavior of routines comprising the package have no impact on the interface routines and at most modest impact on the database of character strings that define the displays.

## 6.4 Batch Mode.

When MODE = 1, the ATEST driver runs as a batch program. All commands are read from the journal file specified in JRFILE. Graphics output should be directed to files (BH, Postscript, and XPM) rather than to interactive displays.

# 6.5 Parallel Processing

When run as a parallel program using NPROC processors, ATEST uses a master-slave model. One process, the master process, runs in terminal, X-Windows, or batch mode, and the remaining NPROC-1 slave processes all run with MODE=

-2. Slave nodes receive command strings from the master node via MPI communication. At any given time, the parallel computation is in one of two possible states that specify how slave nodes should process commands. Somewhat arbitrarily, the two states are denoted "off" and "on". When MPI is on, all processors execute all commands from the user, whether entered interactively or through a journal file. When MPI is off, only the master process executes most commands. Slave nodes remain active and still receive and evaluate the command strings they receive. Some commands (namely p and q) continue to be executed and some parameter updates continue on all processors in the off state. However, in the off state, slave nodes are mainly waiting for MPI to be turned on again.

The p command is used to switch between the on and off states of MPI. When MPISW=1, MPI is on, and when MPISW=-1, MPI is off. The p command is unusual in that it can behave as a toggle; executing p with no argument switches the MPI state. The p command can also be employed in the usual way to explicitly set the MPI state using the parameter MPISW (e.g., p1 turns on MPI, while p-1 turns off MPI). When the master process is running in X-Windows mode, a small icon appears to the right of the command window when MPI is turned on, and disappears when MPI is turned off.

A common and effective way to use MPI is to create a journal file that contains a script for the entire computation (including p commands) The j command issued in the MPI on state directs all processors to run the journal file. The master process will then execute the entire script, while the slave nodes execute the parts of the journal file that correspond to the on state.

An issue with respect to file names arises in the context of parallel processing. Some files, for example a journal file, are intended to be read by all processors. In other situations, for example writing data files, each processor is intended to process its own version of the file. Then name conflicts can potentially become catastrophic if all nodes read and write files on the same file system. To resolve this conflict in a simple way that allows the user to easily specify on a case-by-case basis if the file is a single file or a file with distinct copies on each node, ATEST scans all file names, looking for the characteristic string MPIXXX. If found, this string is replaced by MPI001, MPI002, etc, where the integer part denotes the processor. Thus, for example if one sets

JRFILE = MYFILE.JNL

all nodes process the same file with the name MYFILE.JNL. If one sets

 $RWFILE = MYFILE\_MPIXXX.RW$ 

node one would process the file  $MYFILE\_MPI001.RW$ , node two would process the file  $MYFILE\_MPI002.RW$ , and so on.

## 6.6 Array Dimensions and Initialization.

ATEST has six labeled common blocks:

```
common /atest1/ip(100),rp(100),sp(100)
common /atest2/iu(100),ru(100),su(100)
common /atest3/mode,jnlsw,jnlr,jnlw,ibatch
common /atest4/jcmd,cmdtyp,list
common /atest5/idevce
common /atest6/nproc,myid,mpisw
```

The IP, RP, and SP arrays are described in Section 2.4. The arrays IU, RU, and SU are not directly used by ATEST or any of the other routines. They are provided to the user for storing integer, real, and string parameters associated with a particular problem. The advantages in using these arrays are that they are saved and read in the w and r commands; the common block ATEST2 can be included in subroutines AIXY, A2XY, etc., where the parameters may be needed; and they can form part of the interface for resetting problem parameters using USRCMD. ATEST3 contains internal control parameters used by ATEST; each has a corresponding location in the IP array. ATEST4 contains string and integer variables that are used for internal communication among the user interface routines. The block ATEST5 contains an integer specifying the current graphics output device, while ATEST6 contains parameters relevant to MPI.

The input data arrays ITNODE(5,MAXT), IBNDRY(6,MAXB), VX(MAXV), VY(MAXV), XM(MAXC), YM(MAXC), JA(MAXJA), A(MAXA), and the work array W(LENW) are declared at the beginning of ATEST. The sizes of the arrays, MAXT, MAXV, MAXC, MAXB, MAXJA, MAXA, and LENW, are specified at the beginning of ATEST using a parameter statement; changing sizes to suit a particular computing environment or problem is thus a simple matter.

To use ATEST, the user must provide Fortran subroutines A1XY, A2XY, FXY, GNXY, GDXY, P1XY, P2XY, and QXY. Subroutine USRCMD should be provided, if only as a dummy routine. The user must also supply subroutine GDATA, in which the input arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY are specified, along with some parameters in IP, RP, SP, and possibly IU, RU, and SU. Other entries of the IP, RP, and SP arrays not required to be provided by the user through GDATA are given default values at the beginning of ATEST, but can be reset by the user as desired.

## 6.7 Reading and Writing Files.

The w and r commands are used to save and restore data sets. The arrays IP, RP, SP, IU, RU, SU, VX, VY, XM, YM, IBNDRY, and ITNODE, JA, A, and portions of W corresponding to the current state of the calculation are written to (w command) or read from (r command) the file RWFILE. Data files are formatted as machine independent binary files using the XDR protocol. The w and r commands can be used with both the triangulation and skeleton data structures.

One can use the w and r commands to save and restore the solution at various points along a continuation path. One can also save solutions in the current run for post processing (graphics, etc.), which can then occur in a later run.

#### 6.8 Journal Files.

The j command causes ATEST to read its command strings from the file JRFILE, rather than accepting them interactively from the user. It is the only option available in batch mode. A journal file is an ASCII file containing a sequence of command strings as described in Section 6.2. The symbol # appearing as the first character in a line causes that line to be interpreted as a comment. When the end of the file is reached ATEST returns to terminal or X-Windows mode and again accepts commands interactively. If a q command is encountered in a journal file, ATEST will exit.

#### 6.9 Shell Command.

The k command causes the string stored in the variable SHCMD to be executed by the user's shell. It is included mainly as a convenience, in particular as a means to include system file manipulation commands within journal files.

## 6.10 Subroutine USRCMD.

The u command is used to call the user supplied routine USRCMD.

Call USRCMD

This routine is written by the user to perform any tasks not covered by other commands. In our experience, the most frequent use of *USRCMD* has been to reset parameters unique to a particular problem.

USRCMD is affected by the variable IUSRSW. If IUSRSW=0, the return from USRCMD causes ATEST to present the command prompt. If  $IUSRSW\neq 0$ , the return from USRCMD results in a branch to the user supplied routine GDATA before presenting the command prompt. This switch is useful if modified parameters affect the geometry of the region, boundary conditions, etc., requiring modifications of the input arrays.

Since the most frequent use of *USRCMD* is to modify problem dependent parameters, we now describe how to build an interface within *USRCMD* allowing one to reset parameters in a fashion similar to the other commands. This is done via subroutine *USRSET*, which is called as follows:

Call USRSET(FILE, LEN, IU, RU, SU)

IU, RU, and SU are integer, real, and CHARACTER\*80 arrays, respectively, of size 100 containing the parameters to be reset. It is often convenient to use the

IU, RU, and SU arrays provided by ATEST in common block ATEST2 for this purpose. FILE is a CHARACTER\*80 array of length LEN, described below. In terminal mode, the command u creates a display listing the user parameters and their current values, similar to the upper case form of other commands. Commands of the form

```
command:u name1=value1, name2=value2, ..., namek=valuek
```

reset the indicated parameters and then display the updated values. In X-Windows mode, pressing the *USRCMD* command button with mouse button one pops up a reset window, similar to pressing mouse button three for the other commands.

The array FILE contains a list of commands that define the variables to be reset, and characterize the reset display. The commands in FILE have a syntax similar to the basic scripting language we have defined for ATEST itself. However, in this case there are just two basic commands: n (name variable) and s (string for radio button). These are summarized in Table 6.2.

Parameters associated with $n$ command			
Name	Alias	Type	Value
vname	n	short	maximum of 6 characters
alias	a	short	maximum of 2 characters
vtype	t	short	i (int), r (real), s (short), l (long), f (file)
index	i	int	pointer to $IU$ , $RU$ , $SU$
Parameters associated with $s$ command			
Name	Alias	Type	Value
vname	n	short	variable name
value	v	-	depends on vname
label	1	long	label associated with value in radio buttons

Table 6.2. Command syntax for USRSET.

Note that integer variables are stored in the IU array, real variables in the RU array, and short, long and file strings are all stored as entries in the SU array. In order to correctly define the reset window, all four variables associated with the n command should be defined in each n command. Similarly, the three variables associated with the s command should all be defined in each s command. Otherwise, the syntax for each command follows the usual rules of the scripting language. Below is an example code fragment that could define a simple FILE array.

```
\begin{split} &FILE(1)=\text{'N }I=1,\ N=NTRI,\ A=NT,\ T=I'\\ &FILE(2)=\text{'N }I=2,\ N=IBC\ ,\ A=BC,\ T=I'\\ &FILE(3)=\text{'S }N=IBC,\ V=1,\ L="NEUMANN\ BC"'\\ &FILE(4)=\text{'S }N=IBC,\ V=2,\ L="DIRICHLET\ BC"'\\ &LEN=4 \end{split}
```

The first two lines are n commands that define two integer variables. The first line defines a variable with name NTRI, alias NT, that is stored as IU(1). The second defines a variable IBC, alias BC, that is stored as IU(2). The variable IBC can take on two values, 1 and 2, that are associated with Neumann and Dirichlet boundary conditions, respectively. The third and fourth lines above are s commands that define the structure of a radio box associated with the IBC name in the X-Windows popup. Note that since the LABEL is a long string, its value must be enclosed in double quotes.

#### 6.11 Subroutine GDATA.

The user provides subroutine *GDATA*, which defines the region through an initial triangulation or a skeleton. A call to *GDATA* is among the first executable statements in *ATEST*.

```
Call GDATA( VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, IBNDRY, IP, RP, SP, IU, RU, SU, W)
```

Through this call the user is minimally expected to supply values for NTF, NVF, NCF, and NBF in the IP array, as well as the relevant values for the input arrays VX, VY, XM, YM, ITNODE, and IBNDRY. Entries in RP, SP, IU and RU, as well as parameters in IP other than those mentioned above, may be optionally specified in GDATA.

## 6.12 Machine Dependent Routines.

During the initial installation of the package, the user must provide several machine dependent routines associated with timing and graphics. Default versions of these routines are provided with the package, which should work without modification in many environments, and in any event can serve as a model for a new implementation. The timing routine TIMER is used by PLTMG and TRIGEN. The graphics routines TRIPLT, GPHPLT, INPLT, and MTXPLT address the graphics output device through the routines PLTUTL, PFRAME, PLINE, and PFILL. These routines are documented in detail below.

## 6.12.1 Timing Routine.

Subroutine TIMER has the calling sequence

```
Subroutine TIMER (TIME, ISW)
```

Here TIME is a  $3 \times 50$  real array and ISW is an integer. The array TIME records the time spent in major subroutines called by PLTMG and TRIGEN. Timer should call an appropriate system routine to determine the current time each time it is entered, and then take various actions depending on the value of ISW. The cases ISW = -2 and ISW = -1 request initialization of the TIME array, while

 $1 \leq ISW \leq 50$  request an individual entry in the *TIME* array be updated. The current time is saved as it is needed for the next call to *TIMER*. Subroutine *TIMER* is machine independent except for the call to the system clock. An example of *TIMER*, calling the Unix function *ETIME*, is given below.

```
subroutine timer(time, isw)
С
            implicit real (a-h,o-z)
            implicit integer (i-n)
                time(3,*)
            real temp(2), etime
            save tx,len
            data tx/0.0e0/
            data len/50/
С
С
        call the clock and return the time in seconds
С
        (time differences are used to compute the elapsed time)
С
        tx=etime(temp)
        udpate time array (1.0e-10 is below resolution of timer)
        if(isw.gt.0) then
            dt=amax1(tx-ty,1.0e-10)
            time(1,isw)=time(1,isw)+dt
            time(2,isw)=time(2,isw)+dt
        else if(isw.eq.-1) then
            do i=1,len
                time(1,i)=0.0e0
            enddo
        else if(isw.eq.-2) then
            do i=1,len
                time(1,i)=0.0e0
                time(2,i)=0.0e0
                time(3,i)=0.0e0
            enddo
        endif
        return
        end
```

## 6.12.2 Graphics Interface.

The four device dependent routines in the graphics package are

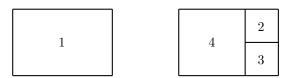
```
Subroutine PLTUTL( NCOLOR, RED, GREEN, BLUE )
Subroutine PFRAME( IFRAME )
Subroutine PLINE( X, Y, Z, N, ICOLOR )
Subroutine PFILL( X, Y, Z, N, ICOLOR )
```

Subroutine PLTUTL takes various actions depending on the value of the integer NCOLOR. NCOLOR > 0 specifies initialization; NCOLOR denotes the number

of colors to be used and satisfies  $2 \leq NCOLOR \leq MXCOLR$ . RED, GREEN, and BLUE are vectors of length NCOLOR. The entries RED(i), GREEN(i), and BLUE(i),  $1 \leq i \leq NCOLOR$ , are floating point numbers on the interval [0,1], corresponding to rgb values for the ith color. Color number 1 is always white (RED(1) = GREEN(1) = BLUE(1) = 1.0), and color number 2 is always black (RED(2) = GREEN(2) = BLUE(2) = 0.0). The rgb values of the remaining entries depend on the picture to be drawn and the value of MXCOLR. PLTUTL should create a color map with the required colors, as these will be referenced in future calls to PLINE and PFILL. If PLTUTL is called with NCOLOR < 0, the drawing is complete and any necessary post processing should be carried out (e.g., close the plot file).

The drawing space used by the graphics routines is always assumed to be either the unit square  $(0,1)\times(0,1)$  or the rectangle  $(0,1.5)\times(0,1)$ . For devices that have a so-called Z-buffer, the drawing space is either the unit cube  $(0,1)\times(0,1)\times(0,1)$  or the brick  $(0,1.5)\times(0,1)\times(0,1)$ . The graphics display itself is always viewed as rectangular with aspect ratio 3/2, which is either a single rectangular frame or three square frames. These frames are numbered 1 to 4 as illustrated in Figure 6.5. The graphics routines write their output to various lists. A list consists of a frame, and certain attributes (rotating/non-rotating, lighted/non-lighted). Some attributes may not have realizations for certain graphics devices. The nine available lists are summarized in Table 6.3.

When graphics is initiated for a certain list, say list k, subroutine PFRAME(k) is called to indicate that subsequent calls of PLINE and PFILL contain data to be written to list k. PFRAME(-k) indicates that the output to the given list should be terminated. By convention, graphics routines are allowed only one open list at a time. Therefore, when PFRAME is invoked with a positive argument, the given list should be opened and the mapping from the unit cube or brick to the actual device coordinates for the given list should be computed. If rotation or lighting attributes are available, these should be set as specified in Table 6.3. When PFRAME is invoked with a negative argument, the given list should be closed.



**Figure 6.5.** Frame definitions.

Subroutine *PLINE* has arguments X, Y, Z, N, and ICOLOR. X, Y, and Z are vectors of length  $N \geq 2$ . The points (X(i),Y(i),Z(i)) lie in the unit cube or the brick  $(0,1.5)\times(0,1)\times(0,1)$ . The Z coordinate is useful only for devices that have a Z-buffer, and can be ignored in other cases. ICOLOR is an integer between 1 and NCOLOR, where NCOLOR was the argument that initialized PLTUTL, indicating

list	frame	rotating	lighted
1	1	no	no
2	2	no	no
3	3	no	no
4	4	no	no
5	4	yes	no
6	4	yes	no
7	4	yes	yes
8	4	yes	yes
9	4	no	yes

**Table 6.3.** list specifications for pframe.

the color to be used. *PLINE* should draw the given polyline (X(i),Y(i),Z(i)) to  $(X(i+1),Y(i+1),Z(i+1)),\ 1\leq i\leq N-1$ , with the specified color in the proper frame.

Subroutine PFILL has arguments X, Y, Z, N, and ICOLOR. X, Y, and Z are vectors of length  $N \geq 3$ . The points (X(i),Y(i),Z(i)) lie in the unit cube or the brick  $(0,1.5)\times(0,1)\times(0,1)$ , and define an N-sided (planar) polygonal region with sides (X(i),Y(i),Z(i)) to (X(i+1),Y(i+1),Z(i+1)) for  $1\leq i\leq N-1$ , and (X(n),Y(n),Z(n)) to (X(1),Y(1),Z(1)). ICOLOR is an integer between 1 and NCOLOR, where NCOLOR was the argument that initialized PLTUTL, indicating the color to be used. PFILL should color the specified polygon with the specified color in the proper frame.

IDEVCE	output driver
0–3	SG sockets 0–3
4	BH file
5	Postscript file
6	XPM file
7–10	X-Windows display 0-3

Table 6.4. Default graphics devices.

The default installation of the package includes several standard output graphics devices. These are described in Table 6.4. SG is an OpenGL program written by Mike Holst that is available separately. It can receive input from a specified INET socket. ATEST allows up to four SG displays to be accessed. Because it is socket based, SG and ATEST can be running on different computers; the parameter SGHOST is the name of the host computer running SG. Since it is based on OpenGL the graphics displays are animated, and images can be manipulated with the mouse.

BH is the protocol developed for communication between ATEST and SG. BH

files are essentially file versions of SG images. The parameter BHFILE gives the file name. The parameter BHFILE is scanned for the string FIGXXX. If found, this string is replaced by FIG001, FIG002, etc, with the counter incremented for each image. This allows the single parameter BHFILE to specify a family of separate BH files. The parameter BHFILE is also scanned for the string MPIXXX. If found, this string is replaced by MPI001, MPI002, etc, where the integer part denotes the processor. This avoids potential name conflicts when running ATEST as a parallel program. The BH file itself is a device independent binary file written using XDR. These files can be saved and later displayed using the SG program.

If the SG interface is not available or not desired, an alternate interface composed of stub routines is provided with the default installation of the program. The alternate interface has the same routines as the regular SG interface, but with all calls to routines and functions in the MALOC library deleted. Using the stub routines, an executable can be created without loading the MALOC library to resolve external references. However, if the stub routines are used, the SG and BH graphics options are disabled.

Postscript and XPM are both ASCII files. The parameters PSFILE and XP-FILE specify the file names. These names are scanned for the strings FIGXXX and MPIXXX, that are replaced if found as described above in the case of BHFILE. Devices 7–10 refer to X-Windows graphics displays. Up to four such displays may be used (although the ATEST driver itself allows up to ten). These graphics windows display static pixmaps (raster images similar to XPM files) that cannot be animated or manipulated, other than resizing the window. X-Windows graphics displays are only available when MODE = 0.

#### 6.12.3 X-Windows Interface.

The X-Windows interface uses several X-Windows libraries, as well as the Motif widget set, and thus can be used only in environments that support the X-Windows system. It is based on the release X11R6. Our intent was to make the interface as generic and simple as possible. Since the *PLTMG* package is constantly evolving, the interface is structured to run arbitrary Fortran programs, so that in the future, large changes in the package need not cause correspondingly large changes in the interface. The X-Windows interface is written in C.

If the X-Windows libraries that support the X-Windows interface are not available, one can use substitute stub routines in place of the regular interface. These alternative stub routines are supplied with the default installation of the package, and are similar to those in the regular X-Windows interface, except that all calls to routines and functions in the X-Windows libraries have been deleted. Using the stub routines, an executable can be created without the need to load X-Windows libraries to resolve external references. However, in this case the X-Windows interface (MODE = 0) is completely disabled. This includes X-Windows graphics options ( $7 \le IDEVCE \le 10$ ).

#### 6.12.4 MPI Interface

The communication used in parallel processing is provided by calls to the MPI library. This library is not provided as part of the *PLTMG* package. The calls to the MPI library are all made from Fortran, and we have concentrated all calls into just a few subroutines. Thus the vast majority of the code comprising the main *PLTMG* routines is self-contained. If the MPI library is not available, one can use substitute stub routines supplied with the default installation in place of the regular interface. The stub routines are similar to the those in the regular interface, except that all calls to routines and functions in the MPI library have been deleted. Using the stub routines, an executable can be created without the need to load the MPI library to resolve external references. In this case, all the parallel computing options provided by *PLTMG*, *TRIGEN*, and the graphics routines are disabled.

## Chapter 7

## **Test Problems**

#### 7.1 Overview.

In this chapter, we briefly document the test problem data sets included with the *PLTMG* source code. These problems encompass a variety of applications and exercise most features of the package. Each data set minimally consists of functions *A1XY*, *A2XY*, *FXY*, *GNXY*, *GDXY*, *P1XY*, *P2XY*, and *QXY* and subroutines *USRCMD* and *GDATA*. Problem specific routines are also included.

## 7.2 Test Problem CIRCLE.

In this problem, we solve the equation

$$-\nabla \cdot (a\nabla u) = 0$$
,

where  $\Omega$  is the unit circle with a crack along the positive x axis. Homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions are imposed on the top of the crack, and homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions are imposed below the crack. The coefficient  $a \equiv a_k$  is piecewise constant in the eight sectors

$$\Omega_k = \{(r, \theta) | 0 \le r \le 1, (k-1)\pi/4 \le \theta \le k\pi/4\}.$$

The domain  $\Omega$  is defined by a triangulation consisting of eight similar triangles, shown in Figure 7.1, that correspond to the eight sectors of constant a. On the boundary of the circle, nonhomogeneous boundary conditions are imposed such that the true solution in sector  $\Omega_k$  is given by

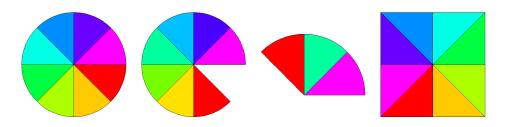
$$u = r^{\alpha} (\beta_k \sin \alpha \theta + \gamma_k \cos \alpha \theta). \tag{7.1}$$

The exponent  $\alpha$  is chosen to correspond to the leading singularity arising from the geometry, change of boundary conditions, and coefficient jumps at the origin. The coefficients  $\beta_k$  and  $\gamma_k$  are chosen to insure continuity of the solution u and the normal component of the flux  $a\nabla u \cdot n$  across the interfaces, and to satisfy the

boundary conditions along the crack. For example, in the case  $a_k = 1$  for all k,  $\alpha = 1/4$  and

$$u = r^{\alpha} \sin \alpha \theta$$
.

The USRCMD for this test problem has ten parameters that can be set. IBC determines the boundary conditions. If IBC = 2, the boundary conditions on the outer boundary of the circle are nonhomogeneous Dirichlet chosen such that (7.1) is the exact solution; if IBC = 1, nonhomogeneous Neumann boundary conditions are imposed on the circular part of the boundary in a similar fashion. One can also alter the geometry of the domain using the parameter NTRI, where  $1 \le NTRI \le 8$ . If NTRI = 8 the entire circle is used as the domain; if NTRI < 8, only the first NTRI sectors are used. Some examples are shown in Figure 7.1. Eight parameters,



**Figure 7.1.** On the far right is the square domain for problems SQUARE, OB and CONTROL. The remaining domains are for test problem CIRCLE with NTRI = 8, NTRI = 7 and NTRI = 3.

A1, A2,...,A8 define the coefficients  $a_k$ . Given the  $a_k$  and NTRI, the values of  $\alpha, \beta_k$  and  $\gamma_k$  are computed in GDATA by solving appropriate nonlinear equations. Since the exact solution is known, we can compute the exact error. For this test problem, the function QXY is defined to be the exact error for graphics options and the true solution (7.1) otherwise.

## 7.3 Test Problem SQUARE.

In this test problem, a complicated equation is solved on a simple domain. The domain is always the unit square shown in Figure 7.1; boundary conditions on each side of the square can be independently specified as Dirichlet or natural, or pairs of opposite sides can be specified as periodic. The region is specified as a triangulation.

The coefficient functions are defined by

$$\begin{split} a_1 &= A1X \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + A1Y \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + A1U \, u, \\ a_2 &= A2X \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + A2Y \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + A2U \, u, \\ f &= -BUX \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - BUY \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - F0(y-x) - CU0 - CU1 \, u - CU2 \, u^2 \\ &- CIR \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} (y-.5) - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} (x-.5) \right) - CEXP \, e^{u(1+EPS \, u)^{-1}} - CSIN \sin u, \\ g_1 &= -DU0 - DU1 \, u, \\ g_2 &= -EU0, \end{split}$$

and the functional  $\rho$  is defined by

$$p_1 = u^2,$$
  
$$p_2 = 0.$$

Any of these nineteen parameters can be set using USRCMD, and any can be used as the continuation parameter  $\lambda$  by specifying the parameter ICONT in USRCMD as in Table 7.1. With this variety of nonlinearities, one can exercise most continuation features of PLTMG.

ICONT	λ	ICONT	λ
0	none	10	CU1
1	A1X	11	CU2
2	A1Y	12	CIR
3	A1U	13	CEXP
4	A2X	14	EPS
5	A2Y	15	CSIN
6	A2U	16	DU0
7	BUX	17	DU1
8	BUY	18	EU0
9	CU0	19	F0

**Table 7.1.** Possible settings for ICONT.

If ICONT = 0, then none of the parameters is regarded as  $\lambda$ , and one should set IPROB = 1 to signify that the problem does not involve continuation.

One can also set the integer parameters LEFT, RIGHT, TOP, and BOTTOM in USRCMD. These refer to the four sides of the square in an obvious fashion and can be individually set to 2 for Dirichlet boundary conditions or to 1 for natural boundary conditions for the given side of the square. A pair of opposite edges can be set to 0 (e.g., TOP = BOTTOM = 0), and IBNDRY will then be set for periodic boundary conditions.

## 7.4 Test Problem DOMAINS.

In this test problem, a simple equation is solved on a variety of complicated domains. This test problem was designed mainly to exercise *TRIGEN*.

The problem to be solved is the linear partial differential equation

$$\begin{split} a_1 &= A1X \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + A1Y \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + A1U \, u, \\ a_2 &= A2X \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + A2Y \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + A2U \, u, \\ f &= -BUX \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - BUY \, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - CU1 \, u - CU0 \end{split}$$

with a combination of homogeneous Dirichlet, homogeneous Neumann, and periodic boundary conditions. The parameters A1X, A1Y, A1U, A2X, A2Y, A2U, BUX, BUY, CU0, and CU1 can all be set in USRCMD. The parameter DOMAIN, satisfying  $1 \leq DOMAIN \leq 20$ , specifies the domain to be used. The various possibilities are shown in Figure 7.2. All domains are defined by skeletons, so TRIGEN must be called to generate a triangulation.

### 7.5 Test Problem NACA.

Test problem NACA solves the equation of potential flow in one of several domains. The equation is of the form

$$-\nabla \cdot \rho(\nabla u)\nabla u = 0,$$

where

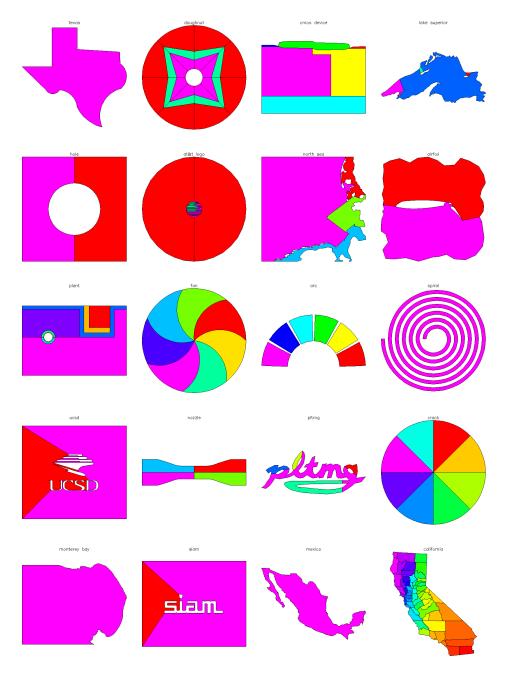
$$\rho(\nabla u) = (1 - u_x^2 - u_y^2)^{\frac{1}{\gamma - 1}}$$

and  $\gamma = 1.4$ . The local Mach number is computed in QXY and is given by

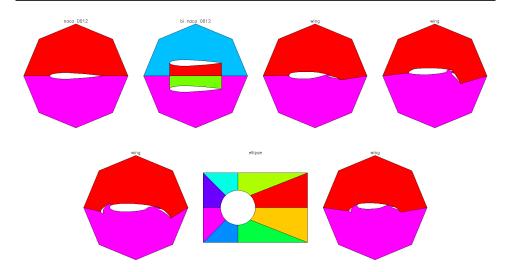
$$q = \sqrt{\frac{2c}{\gamma - 1}},$$
 
$$c = \frac{1}{1 - u_x^2 - u_y^2} - 1.$$

There are seven domain options, chosen using the parameter *DOMAIN* in *USRCMD*. These domains are shown in Figure 7.3. All regions are defined as skeletons, so *TRIGEN* must be used to generate a triangulation.

Neumann boundary conditions are imposed everywhere so each domain has  $IDBC \neq 0$ . There are several parameters in USRCMD that affect these problems. The parameter MINF, specifying the Mach number at infinity  $M_{\infty}$ , sets the boundary conditions on the outer boundary and is also the continuation parameter  $\lambda$  for these problems. The parameter ANGLE specifies the angle of attack (in degrees). The parameter SIZE sets the radius of the outer boundary. The parameter RATIO affects only the case DOMAIN = 6 and is used to set the ratio for the principal axes of the ellipse (RATIO = 1 corresponds to a circle).



**Figure 7.2.** The domains for DOMAIN = i,  $1 \le i \le 20$ .



**Figure 7.3.** The domains for DOMAIN = i,  $1 \le i \le 7$ , with SIZE = 1.

When the local Mach number is less than one the flow is subsonic; PLTMG will work well in regions where the flow is entirely subsonic. As the  $M_{\infty}$  is increased, the solution will begin to develop regions of supersonic flow near the airfoils; PLTMG will continue to work as these regions are forming, but eventually will fail, as the underlying discretization used by PLTMG is not really appropriate for hyperbolic problems.

## 7.6 Test Problem JCN.

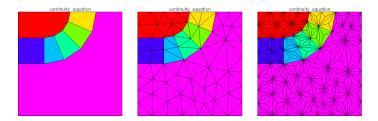
Test problem JCN solves the convection diffusion equation

$$-\nabla \cdot (\nabla u + \beta u) = 0,$$

where  $\beta$  is piecewise constant. The region is shown in Figure 7.4. The domain is specified by skeleton, so TRIGEN must be used to generate a triangulation.

This problem is an idealized model of the current continuity equation from the semiconductor device model that we have used to study the stability of discretizations used in device simulation. The problem has seven regions;  $\beta=0$  in regions one and seven. In the other five regions it has a magnitude of approximately  $10^4$  and is directed radially in each of the five subregions. The solution develops steep gradients at the junction between region seven and the five adjoining subregions.

Constant nonhomogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions are specified along the bottom of the domain and on the left-hand portion of the top of the domain. Homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions are imposed elsewhere. The parameters TOP and BOTTOM in USRCMD can be used to reset the Dirichlet boundary conditions on the top and bottom of the domain. The parameter DU can be used to adjust the size of  $\beta$  in regions 2–5; in particular, the magnitude of  $\beta$  in these five



**Figure 7.4.** The domain for test problem JCN (left), a triangulation produced by TRIGEN (middle), and the corresponding triangulation after a call to USRCMD with OBTUSE = 1 (right).

regions is proportional to DU.

Our original purpose in constructing this example was to test the sensitivity of various upwinding techniques [4] to poor element geometries. Since the goal of TRI-GEN is to produce elements with good geometries, the USRCMD for this problem includes a procedure for systematically degrading the quality of the triangulation by introducing new elements with obtuse angles. If OBTUSE = 1 in USRCMD, then each triangle in the current mesh is divided into three new triangles by connecting its barycenter to its vertices. An example is shown in Figure 7.4. Repeated application of this procedure will produce triangulations with interior angles arbitrarily close to  $\pi$ .

## 7.7 Test Problem OB.

Test problem OB solves the a simple obstacle problem, with coefficient functions defined by

$$\begin{split} p_1 &= AX \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^2 + AY \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2 + CU \, u^2 - 2su, \\ s &= \left(AX(IX\pi)^2 + AY(IY\pi)^2 - CU\right) \sin(IX\pi x) \sin(IY\pi y), \\ \underline{u} &= BDLW + CFLW \sin(IXL\pi x) \sin(IYL\pi y), \\ \overline{u} &= BDUP + CFUP \sin(IXU\pi x) \sin(IYU\pi y), \\ g_1 &= 0. \end{split}$$

The domain  $\Omega$  is the unit square with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions. The input data structure is a triangulation consisting of eight right triangles, shown in Figure 7.1. The parameters AX, AY, CU, BDLW, BDUP, CFLW, CFUP and the integers IX, IY, IXL, IYL, IXU, IYU can all be set by the user in USRCMD. The exact solution to this problem in the absence of the obstacle is  $u = \sin(IX\pi x)\sin(IY\pi y)$ . This problem is mainly designed to test the cases  $IPROB = \pm 2$  in PLTMG.

## 7.8 Test Problem MNSURF.

Test problem MNSURF solves the a simple minimal surface problem with an obstacle. The coefficient functions are given by

$$p_{1} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^{2}}$$

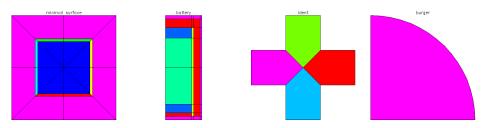
$$\underline{u} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{in } \Omega_{1} \\ -1 & \text{in } \Omega_{2} \\ \ell & \text{in } \Omega_{I} \end{cases}$$

$$\overline{u} = 1.5$$

$$g_{1} = 0,$$

$$g_{2} = 0.$$

The domain  $\Omega$  is the unit square with a mixture of homogeneous Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions. The domain is given as a skeleton, and is shown in Figure 7.5. The region  $\Omega_1$  is the inner square with side 1/2, and  $\Omega_2$  is the outer region. The region  $\Omega_I$  is the small band separating  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$ , consisting of four narrow trapezoids. In each of the four trapezoids,  $\underline{u}$  is a linear polynomial in x or y that interpolates between -1 and 1, insuring continuity of  $\underline{u}$ . The parameter THETA, which can be set in USRCMD, controls the width of the band. The upper bound  $\overline{u}$  is chosen such that it does not affect the solution. As with test problem OB, this problem is mainly designed to test the cases  $IPROB = \pm 2$  in PLTMG.



**Figure 7.5.** The domains for test problems MNSURF, BATTERY, IDENT, and BURGER (left to right).

## 7.9 Test Problem BURGER.

Test problem BURGER solves the nonlinear convection dominated flow

$$-\epsilon \Delta u + u_y + uu_x = 0.$$

The small parameter  $\epsilon > 0$  and can be set in *USRCMD*. If  $\epsilon = 0$ , this is the one dimensional Burger's equation with y playing the role of time. The domain  $\Omega$  is

the quarter circle shown in Figure 7.5, and is specified as a skeleton. Homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions are applied along the circular arc, while Dirichlet boundary conditions are specified on the left side (x=0) and the bottom (y=0) as

$$g_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \le x \le 1/4 \\ 3/2 - 2x & 1/4 \le x \le 3/4 \\ 0 & 3/4 \le x \le 1 \end{cases}$$

This combination of boundary conditions gives rise to a solution similar to the so-called " $\lambda$  shock" of Burger's equation.

#### 7.10 Test Problem BATTERY.

In this test problem we solve the linear elliptic problem

$$-a_1 u_{xx} - a_2 u_{yy} - f = 0$$

where the piecewise constant values of the coefficients are given in Table 7.2. The

Region	$a_1$	$a_2$	f	side	c	$\alpha$
1	25	25	0	left	0	0
2	7	0.8	1	top	1	3
3	5.0	$10^{-4}$	1	$\operatorname{right}$	2	2
4	0.2	0.2	0	bottom	3	1
5	0.05	0.05	0			

Table 7.2. Coefficient definitions.

domain  $\Omega$  is shown in Figure 7.5 and is specified as a skeleton. The five subregions are given labels in ITNODE(5,\*), allowing us to conveniently define the coefficient functions. The boundary conditions are natural boundary conditions of the form

$$g_1 = c - \alpha u$$
.

Here c and  $\alpha$  are piecewise constant functions defined using IBNDRY(6,\*), as indicated in Table 7.2. The data for this problem was supplied by Leszek Demkowicz.

## 7.11 Test Problem CONTROL.

This problem tests the cases  $IPROB = \pm 5$ . The differential equation (constraint) is

$$-\Delta u = \lambda$$

and the objective function  $\rho$  is given by

$$\rho(u,\lambda) = \int_{\Omega} \beta(u - u_0)^2 + \gamma \lambda^2 dx.$$

 $\Omega$  is the unit square, defined as a triangulation similar to test problem *SQUARE*. see Figure 7.1. The function  $u_0$  and the bounds on  $\lambda$  are given by

$$u_0 = \sin(IX\pi x)\sin(IY\pi y),$$

$$\underline{\lambda} = BDLW + CFLW\sin(IXL\pi x)\sin(IYL\pi y),$$

$$\overline{\lambda} = BDUP + CFUP\sin(IXU\pi x)\sin(IYU\pi y).$$

Homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions are applied  $(g_2 = 0)$ . The constants  $BETA = \beta$ .  $GAMMA = \gamma$ , BDLW, BDUP, CFLW, and CFUP, and the integers IX, IY, IXL, IYL, IXU, and IYU can all be reset in USRCMD.

#### 7.12 Test Problem IDENT.

This problem tests the cases  $IPROB = \pm 4$ . The differential equation is

$$-(1+A^2)\Delta u + C2 u^2 + C1 u - C0 = 0.$$

The domain  $\Omega$  is specified as a skeleton, and is shown in Figure 7.5. The boundary conditions are a combination of homogeneous Neumann and Dirichlet, except for the vertical edge on the right where the (possibly) inhomogeneous Dirichlet boundary condition

$$u = D$$

is imposed. The five parameters A, C0, C1, C2, and D can be set in USRCMD, and any can be used as the scalar parameter  $\lambda$  in the optimization problem. This is done setting the parameter IRL (also set in USRCMD) as indicated in Table 7.3.

IRL	λ
1	A
2	C0
3	C1
4	C2
5	D

**Table 7.3.** Possible settings for IRL.

The objective function  $\rho$  is given by

$$\rho(u,\lambda) = \int_{\Omega} e^{-20(x^2 + y^2)} (u - 1)^2 dx,$$

which tries to make the solution u=1 near the origin, located at the center of  $\Omega$ . Upper and lower bounds for  $\lambda$  are set using the parameters RLLWR and RLUPR in the RP array.

### 7.13 Test Problem MESSAGE.

In this test problem, a simple equation is solved on a domain consisting of a message with up to ten lines. This test problem was designed mainly for fun, and to make software demonstrations more interesting.

The problem to be solved is the linear partial differential equation

$$\begin{split} a_1 &= A1X \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + A1Y \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + A1U u, \\ a_2 &= A2X \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + A2Y \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + A2U u, \\ f &= -BUX \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - BUY \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - CU1 u - CU0 \end{split}$$

with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions. The parameters A1X, A1Y, A1U, A2X, A2Y, A2U, BUX, BUY, CU0, and CU1 can all be set in USRCMD. String parameters LINE0, LINE1, ..., LINE9 can be set in USRCMD to a user specified message. Upper case and lower case letters, numbers, and several symbols found on a standard keyboard are available. Two possible domains are shown in Figure 7.6. All domains are defined by skeletons, so TRIGEN must be called to generate a triangulation.

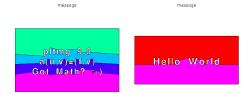


Figure 7.6. Sample domains for test problem MESSAGE.

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