

Algorithms for Lattice QCD III

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Introduction

1 General idea of Markov Chain Monte Carlo

HMC algorithm \rightarrow classical equations of motion

2 Integrators and Fermions

\det \rightarrow pseudofermions

\rightarrow Need solution of Dirac equation

Hasenbusch factorization

Other fermion methods

3 Methods to solve the Dirac equation

Hasenbusch

Hasenbusch '03

$$\det Q^2 = \det \frac{Q^2}{Q^2 + \mu_1^2} \det \frac{Q^2 + \mu_1^2}{Q^2 + \mu_2^2} \cdots \det(Q^2 + \mu_N^2)$$

RHMC

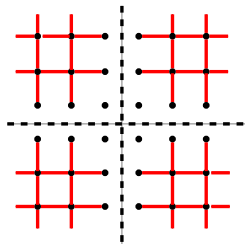
Kennedy, Horvath, Sint '99, Clark, Kennedy '07

$$\det Q^2 = \prod_{i=1}^N \det \sqrt[N]{Q^2}$$

Domain decomposition

Lüscher '04

$$\det Q = \det Q_{\text{block}} \det R$$



- Domain decomposition
→ Divide the lattice in blocks

$$\det D = \det D_{\text{block}} \cdot \det D_R$$

- Do not update links connecting blocks
→ longer autocorrelations
- Good for slow communication.

To simulate non-degenerate flavors

$$\det D = \det(\mathbf{1}_e + D_{oo}) \quad \det \hat{D} = \det(\mathbf{1}_e + D_{oo}) \cdot W \cdot \det R^{-1}$$

R : rational approximation to $(\hat{D}^\dagger \hat{D})^{-1/2}$

$$W = \det(\hat{D}R)$$

Rational Zolotarov approximation

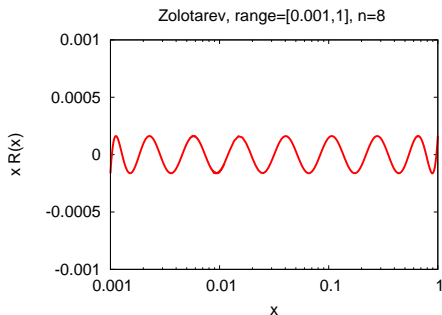
$$R_{n,\epsilon}(y) = A \frac{(y + a_1)(y + a_3) \dots (y + a_{2n-1})}{(y + a_2)(y + a_4) \dots (y + a_{2n})}$$

valid in range $\epsilon \leq y \leq 1$

Simulate with $R = 1 \rightarrow$ include R by reweighting

Zolotarev rational approximation

$$R_{n,\epsilon}(y) = A \frac{(y + \alpha_1)(y + \alpha_3) \dots (y + \alpha_{2n-1})}{(y + \alpha_2)(y + \alpha_4) \dots (y + \alpha_{2n})}$$



Shifts $\alpha_i > 0$ can be quite small, in example $\sim 10^{-6}$.
Small shifts have small contributions.

Split approximation in several factors

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_{n,\epsilon}(\mathbf{y}) &= A \frac{(y + a_1)(y + a_3) \dots (y + a_{2n-1})}{(y + a_2)(y + a_4) \dots (y + a_{2n})} \\
 &= A \frac{(y + a_1)(y + a_3)}{(y + a_2)(y + a_4)} \frac{(y + a_5) \dots (y + a_{2n-1})}{(y + a_5) \dots (y + a_{2n})}
 \end{aligned}$$

Each factor on a single pseudo-fermion, e.g.,

$$S_{\text{RHMC}} = S_1 + S_2 = \phi_1^\dagger \frac{(y + a_2)(y + a_4)}{(y + a_1)(y + a_3)} \phi_1 + \phi_2^\dagger \frac{(y + a_6)(y + a_8)}{(y + a_5)(y + a_7)} \phi_2$$

Why?

Can use different solvers for different PF.

Separate expensive but small contributions

→ larger time scale

Twisted mass reweighting

Wilson fermions: Dirac operator is not protected from zero eigenvalues.

$$S_f = -\text{tr} \log Q^2$$

→ action can become infinite

→ field space separated in sectors

Consequences

- Thermalization difficult
- Problems with ergodicity
- Difficulties with numerical integration (spikes in forces)

Twisted mass reweighting

Solution:

- Run with protected Dirac operator
- Correct in the measurement

Reweighting (Ferrenberg & Swendsen '82)

$$\begin{aligned}\langle O \rangle &= \frac{1}{Z} \int \prod_{i,\mu} dU_{i,\mu} e^{-S_g - S_{f,\text{eff}}} O[U] \\ &= \frac{Z'}{Z} \times \frac{1}{Z'} \int \prod_{i,\mu} dU_{i,\mu} e^{-S_g - S'_{f,\text{eff}}} \left(O[U] e^{-(S_{f,\text{eff}} - S'_{f,\text{eff}})} \right) \\ &= \frac{\langle O e^{-(S_{f,\text{eff}} - S'_{f,\text{eff}})} \rangle'}{\langle e^{-(S_{f,\text{eff}} - S'_{f,\text{eff}})} \rangle'}\end{aligned}$$

Twisted mass reweighting

Want a reweighting factor with little fluctuation

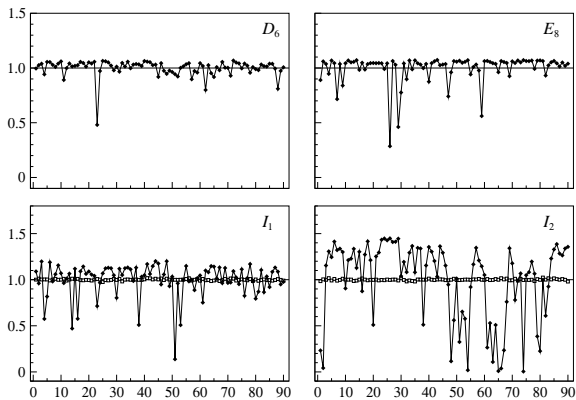
Proposal by Lüscher & Palombi

$$\det Q^2 \rightarrow \begin{cases} \det (Q^2 + \mu^2) \\ \det \frac{(Q^2 + \mu^2)^2}{Q^2 + 2\mu^2} \end{cases}$$

Reweighting factor

$$\det X^{-1} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \det \left(1 + \frac{\mu^2}{Q^2}\right) & = \prod_{\lambda} \left(1 + \frac{\mu^2}{\lambda^2}\right) \\ \det \left(1 + \frac{\mu^2}{Q^2} \frac{(Q^2 + \mu^2)}{Q^2 + 2\mu^2}\right) & = \prod_{\lambda} \left(1 + \frac{\mu^4}{\lambda^4}\right) \end{cases}$$

Second term less sensitive to UV contribution.



Summary

Fermion action $-\text{tr} \log D$ cannot be simulated directly.

Use pseudofermions *together* with matrix factorization

Several factorizations lead to working setups.

Need of solving the Dirac equation in each force evaluation.

Solving the Dirac equation

The solution of the Dirac equation

$$D\psi = \phi$$

is the most costly part of lattice simulations including dynamical fermions.

Dirac operator D can be viewed as a matrix acting in \mathbb{C}^{12V}

For Wilson, staggered and domain wall fermions this matrix is sparse.

→

Application of D on vector scales $\propto V$.

Cayley-Hamilton theorem

The Krylov space \mathcal{K}_n of order n generated by a starting vector ϕ and a matrix D is

$$\mathcal{K}_n(D, \phi) = \text{span}\{\phi, D\phi, \dots, D^{n-1}\phi\}$$

Cayley-Hamilton theorem

The value of a function (also the inverse) of an $N \times N$ matrix can be constructed from its powers up to N .

→ Solution of Dirac equation is in \mathcal{K}_N .

This theorem is not of much practical help if N is in the millions.

Krylov space solvers

Use the Krylov space to iteratively construct the solution of the Dirac equation to a specified precision.

$$\mathbf{D} \psi = \phi$$

The basic problem is that it is not practical to save the Krylov space.

- too much memory would be needed
- Only up to $\mathcal{O}(20)$ vectors can be stored

Different algorithms make different choices on how many vectors to compute before restarting.

$$\mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{D}, \phi) \rightarrow \rho_0 \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{D}, \rho_0) \rightarrow \rho_1 \rightarrow \dots$$

$$D\psi = \phi$$

For a certain approximation $\tilde{\psi}$ you can define the **residue**

$$\rho = \phi - D\tilde{\psi}$$

this ρ can be used as a new right hand side

$$D\psi_1 = \rho \rightarrow \psi = \tilde{\psi} + \psi_1$$

Used in

- Restarting iterative solvers
- Single precision acceleration
- Chronologically predicted solutions

Convergence criteria and accuracy

$$\mathbf{D} \psi = \phi$$

The convergence of the algorithm will be tested using

$$|\rho| = |\phi - \mathbf{D}\tilde{\psi}| < \epsilon|\phi|$$

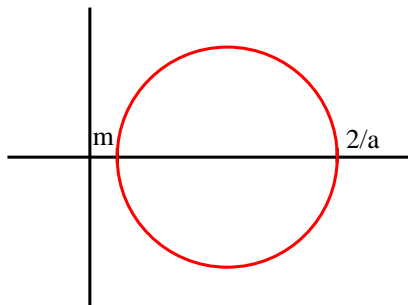
This deviates from the exact solution by at most

$$|\tilde{\psi} - \psi| < \epsilon\kappa(\mathbf{D})|\psi|$$

with $\kappa(\mathbf{D})$ the **condition number**

$$\kappa(\mathbf{D}) = |\mathbf{D}||\mathbf{D}^{-1}|$$

Condition number



For λ_{\min} , λ_{\max} the smallest/largest EV of $D^\dagger D$

$$\lambda_{\min} \propto m$$

$$\lambda_{\max} \propto 1/a$$

Condition number $\kappa(D) \propto (am)^{-1}$.

The GCR algorithm

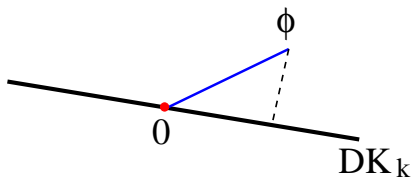
The Generalized Conjugate Residue algorithm constructs for each k the solution of the Dirac equation

$$\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_k, \dots$$

that minimizes the residue

$$\rho_k = \phi - D\psi_k$$

This minimum is attained where $D\psi_k$ is the orthogonal projection of ϕ to DK_k .



The GCR algorithm

This orthogonal projection is simplified computing an orthonormalized basis χ_i

$$DK_k = \text{span}\{\chi_i\}.$$

Then the computation of the new residue—the orthogonal projection—is just

$$\rho_k = \eta - \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} c_l \chi_l \quad \text{with} \quad c_l = (\chi_l, \eta)$$

The GCR algorithm

At some point in the algorithm one thus has
The orthonormal basis of $D\mathcal{K}_{k-1}$ and the residues

$$\{\chi_0, \chi_1, \dots, \chi_{k-1}\} \quad \{\rho_0, \rho_1, \dots, \rho_{k-1}\}$$

one constructs the current residue

$$\rho_k = \eta - \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} c_l \chi_l \quad \text{with} \quad c_l = (\chi_l, \eta)$$

and adds to the basis χ_k , the contribution of $D\rho_k$.

Compute the representation of the χ in terms of the $D\rho$.

$$\chi_k = \sum_{j=0}^k a_{kj} D\rho_j \quad \text{with} \quad \rho_0 = \phi$$

Computing the current solution

$$\chi_k = \sum_{j=0}^k a_{kj} D \rho_j$$

and

$$\rho_k = \eta - \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} c_l \chi_l \quad \text{with} \quad c_l = (\chi_l, \eta)$$

Putting everything together, we have

$$D \psi_k = \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} c_l \chi_l = \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} c_l \sum_{j=0}^l a_{lj} D \rho_j$$

Now we can divide by D and get the solution ψ_k in terms of the already computed residues.

$$\psi_k = \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} c_l \sum_{j=0}^l a_{lj} \rho_j$$

Convergence rate

The solution is constructed in the Krylov space
→ the residue is a polynomial of D times source.

$$\rho_k = p_k(D)\phi$$

The GCR algorithm minimizes the residue

$$|\rho_k| = \min_p |p_k(D)\phi| \leq \min_p |p_k(D)| |\phi|$$

Take diagonalizable $D \rightarrow D = V\Lambda V^{-1}$, with Λ diagonal

$$|p_k(D)| = |Vp_k(\Lambda)V^{-1}| \leq \kappa(V) |p_k(\Lambda)|$$

This leads to the inequality

$$|\rho_k| \leq \kappa(V) \max_{\lambda \in \mathbb{D}} |p_k(\lambda)| |\phi|$$

Assumption is that spectrum is contained in a disk \mathbb{D} right of origin.

Convergence rate

$$|\rho_k| \leq \kappa(\mathbf{V}) \max_{\lambda \in \mathbb{D}} |p_k(\lambda)| |\phi|$$

Theory of polynomial approximations:

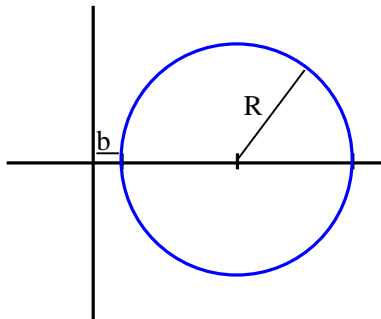
The optimal polynomial, for which the maximum is attained is

$$p_k(\lambda) = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{R+b}\right)^k$$

R is radius of the disk,
 b the distance from origin.

$$|\rho_k| \leq \kappa(\mathbf{V}) \left(1 - \frac{b}{R}\right)^{-k} |\phi|$$

For $b \ll R$ this decays roughly exponentially $e^{-k \frac{b}{R}}$



GCR: Summary

Above, one iteration of the GCR has been described.

It requires to order k

$2k$ spinor fields of storage.

k matrix vector products.

Typical is the computation 20–40 vectors.

Then perform a restart.

Preconditioning

At small quark masses, the condition number of D becomes large.

Many matrix-vector multiplications needed for solution.

Preconditioning

$$LDR\psi' = L\phi \quad \rightarrow \quad \psi = R^{-1}\psi'$$

with L and R chosen such that LDR is well conditioned.

Many variants of preconditioning.

A good preconditioning will work on low-mode part of spectrum.

Even-odd preconditioning

If the Dirac operator only connects nearest-neighbors, the lattice can be split in “even” and “odd” sites.

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} D_{ee} & D_{eo} \\ D_{oe} & D_{oo} \end{pmatrix}$$

and we can use the matrices L and R

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -D_{eo}D_{oo}^{-1} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -D_{oo}^{-1}D_{oe} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

to get

$$LDR = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{D} & 0 \\ 0 & D_{oo} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{D} = D_{oo} - D_{oe}D_{ee}^{-1}D_{eo}$$

\hat{D} is the Schur complement

\hat{D} has less than half the condition number of D .

Preconditioning

Even-odd is the prime example of “classical” preconditioning.

It is used in all simulations with next-nearest operators only.

Another example is SSOR.

Complicated to implement → not used so frequently.

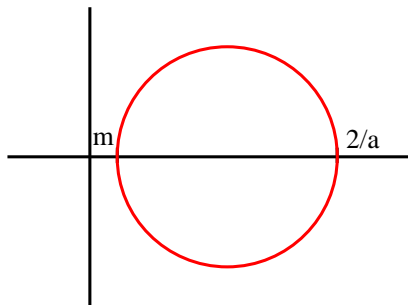
Their benefit is limited: they do not know about the physics.

For large quark masses, standard Krylov-space solvers + eo work fine.

Small quark masses: condition number $\propto am$.

Need to take the IR physics into consideration to get more significant speed-up.

Deflation



When quark mass gets small

$$\kappa \propto 1/(am)$$

due to small eigenvalues with $\text{Re}\lambda \approx m$.

Exact deflation with eigenvectors

Eliminate these eigenmodes from the Dirac equation.

$$D \psi_i = \lambda_i \psi_i$$

Projector on small eigenmodes ψ_i

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} \psi_i \psi_i^\dagger$$

Using it, we can split the Dirac equation in two

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} P D P & 0 \\ 0 & (1 - P) D (1 - P) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow D^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \psi_i \psi_i^\dagger & 0 \\ 0 & [(1 - P) D (1 - P)]^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \psi_i \psi_i^\dagger & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & [(1 - P)D(1 - P)]^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Reduction of condition number $\kappa \rightarrow \left| \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_{N_s+1}} \right| \kappa$

Efficient if small number of very small eigenvalues
 ϵ -regime calculations

Need to compute eigenvectors (can be set up with approximate vectors)

For constant effect need $N_s \propto V$ vectors.

In large volume, computation of a single eigenvector exceedingly expensive.

Summary

The solution to the Dirac equation is essential part of lattice computations with fermions.

Methods take advantage of the sparsity of the Dirac matrix.

Matrix-Vector multiplications essential operation, is $O(V)$.

Cost can be high for small quark masses

→ shrinking gap to origin

→ problem with exceptionally small eigenvalues

Need to find a *physical* solution to problem.