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SUNDIALS

Multiphysics+MPIManyVector Performance Testing

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September 26, 2019

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This work performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344.

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1 Introduction

In this report we document performance test results on a SUNDIALS-based multiphysics demonstration application. We aim to assess the large-scale parallel performance of new capabilities that have been added to the SUNDIALS [4, 14] suite of time integrators and nonlinear solvers in recent years under funding from both the Exascale Computing Project (ECP) and the Scientific Discovery through Advanced Scientific (SciDAC) program, specifically:

1. SUNDIALS’ new `MPIManyVector` module, that allows extreme flexibility in how a solution “vector” is staged on computational resources.
2. ARKode’s new multirate integration module, `MRISStep`, allowing high-order accurate calculations that subcycle “fast” processes within “slow” ones.
3. SUNDIALS’ new flexible linear solver interfaces, that allow streamlined specification of problem-specific linear solvers.
4. SUNDIALS’ new `N.Vector` additions of “fused” vector operations (to increase arithmetic intensity) and separation of reduction operations into “local” and “global” versions (to reduce latency by combining multiple reductions into a single `MPI.Allreduce` call).

We anticipate that subsequent reports will extend this work to investigate a variety of other new features, including SUNDIALS’ generic `SUNNonlinearSolver` interface and accelerator-enabled `N.Vector` modules, and upcoming `MRISStep` extensions to support custom “fast” integrators (that leverage problem structure) and IMEX integration of the “slow” time scale (to add diffusion).

2 Problem Description

We simulate the three-dimensional nonlinear inviscid compressible Euler equations, combined with advection and reaction of chemical species,

$$\mathbf{w}_t = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}, t). \quad (1)$$

Here, the independent variables are $(\mathbf{x}, t) = (x, y, z, t) \in \Omega \times (t_0, t_f]$, where the spatial domain is a three-dimensional cube, $\Omega = [x_l, x_r] \times [y_l, y_r] \times [z_l, z_r]$. The partial differential equation is completed using initial condition $\mathbf{w}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \mathbf{w}_0(\mathbf{x})$ and face-specific boundary conditions, $\{\text{xlbc}, \text{xrbc}, \text{ylbc}, \text{yrbc}, \text{zlbc}, \text{zrbc}\}$, corresponding to conditions that may be separately applied at the spatial locations $\{(x_l, y, z), (x_r, y, z), (x, y_l, z), (x, y_r, z), (x, y, z_l), (x, y, z_r)\}$, respectively, and where each condition may be any one of:

- periodic (requires that *both* faces in this direction use this condition),
- homogeneous Neumann (i.e., $\nabla w_i(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$ for $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$ with outward-normal vector \mathbf{n} , and for each species w_i),
- homogeneous Dirichlet (i.e., $w_i(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0$ for $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$ and for each species w_i), or

- reflecting (i.e., homogeneous Neumann for all species *except* the momentum field perpendicular to that face, that has a homogeneous Dirichlet condition),

The computed solution is given by $\mathbf{w} = [\rho \ \rho v_x \ \rho v_y \ \rho v_z \ e_t \ \mathbf{c}]^T = [\rho \ m_x \ m_y \ m_z \ e_t \ \mathbf{c}]^T$, that corresponds to the density (ρ), x,y,z -momentum (m_x, m_y, m_z), total energy per unit volume (e_t), and vector of chemical densities ($\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_c}$) that are advected along with the fluid. The advective fluxes $\mathbf{F} = [F_x \ F_y \ F_z]^T$ are given by

$$F_x(\mathbf{w}) = [\rho v_x \ \rho v_x^2 + p \ \rho v_x v_y \ \rho v_x v_z \ v_x(e_t + p) \ \mathbf{c}v_x]^T \quad (2)$$

$$F_y(\mathbf{w}) = [\rho v_y \ \rho v_x v_y \ \rho v_y^2 + p \ \rho v_y v_z \ v_y(e_t + p) \ \mathbf{c}v_y]^T \quad (3)$$

$$F_z(\mathbf{w}) = [\rho v_z \ \rho v_x v_z \ \rho v_y v_z \ \rho v_z^2 + p \ v_z(e_t + p) \ \mathbf{c}v_z]^T. \quad (4)$$

The reaction term $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w})$ and external force $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ are test-problem-dependent, and the ideal gas equation of state relates the pressure and total energy density,

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \frac{R}{c_v} \left(e_t - \frac{\rho}{2} (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2) \right) \\ \Leftrightarrow \\ e_t &= \frac{p c_v}{R} + \frac{\rho}{2} (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2), \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

or equivalently,

$$\begin{aligned} p &= (\gamma - 1) \left(e_t - \frac{\rho}{2} (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2) \right) \\ \Leftrightarrow \\ e_t &= \frac{p}{\gamma - 1} + \frac{\rho}{2} (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2), \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The above model includes the physical parameters:

- R is the specific ideal gas constant (287.14 J/kg/K for air).
- c_v is the specific heat capacity at constant volume (717.5 J/kg/K for air),
- γ is the ratio of specific heats, $\gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_v} = 1 + \frac{R}{c_v}$; this is typically 1.4 for air, and 5/3 for astrophysical gases.

The speed of sound in the gas is given by

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma p}{\rho}}. \quad (7)$$

The fluid variables (ρ , \mathbf{m} , and e_t) are non-dimensionalized; when converted to physical CGS values these have units:

- $[\rho] = \text{g/cm}^3$,
- $[v_x] = [v_y] = [v_z] = \text{cm/s}$, which implies that $[m_x] = [m_y] = [m_z] = \text{g/cm}^2/\text{s}$,
- $[e_t] = \text{g/cm/s}^2$.

The chemical densities have physical units $[\mathbf{c}_i] = \text{g/cm}^3$, although when these are transported by the fluid these are converted to dimensionless units as well.

3 Implementation

We apply a method of lines approach for converting the system of partial differential equations (PDEs) (1) into a discrete set of equations. To this end, we first discretize in space, converting the PDE system into a very large system of ordinary differential equation (ODE) initial-value problems (IVPs). We then apply the `MRISStep` time-integrator from the ARKode SUNDIALS package. This time integration approach in turn requires a sub-integrator for the “fast” chemical reactions, for which we employ the `ARKStep` time-integrator, also from ARKode. `ARKStep`, in turn, requires the solution of very large-scale systems of nonlinear algebraic equations. We discuss our use of each of the above components in the following subsections.

3.1 Spatial discretization

We discretize the domain Ω into a uniform grid of dimensions $n_x \times n_y \times n_z$, such that we have a three-dimensional rectangular cuboid of cell-centered values (x_i, y_j, z_k) wherein

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= x_l + \left(i + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta x, & \Delta x &= \frac{x_r - x_l}{n_x}, & i &= 0, \dots, n_x - 1 \\ y_j &= y_l + \left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta y, & \Delta y &= \frac{y_r - y_l}{n_y}, & j &= 0, \dots, n_y - 1, \\ z_k &= z_l + \left(k + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta z, & \Delta z &= \frac{z_r - z_l}{n_z}, & k &= 0, \dots, n_z - 1. \end{aligned}$$

This spatial domain is then decomposed in parallel using a standard 3D domain decomposition approach over n_p MPI tasks, with layout $n_{px} \times n_{py} \times n_{pz}$, defined automatically via the `MPI_Dims_create` utility routine, as illustrated in Figure 1. This results in each MPI task “owning” a local grid of dimensions $n_{xloc} \times n_{yloc} \times n_{zloc}$.

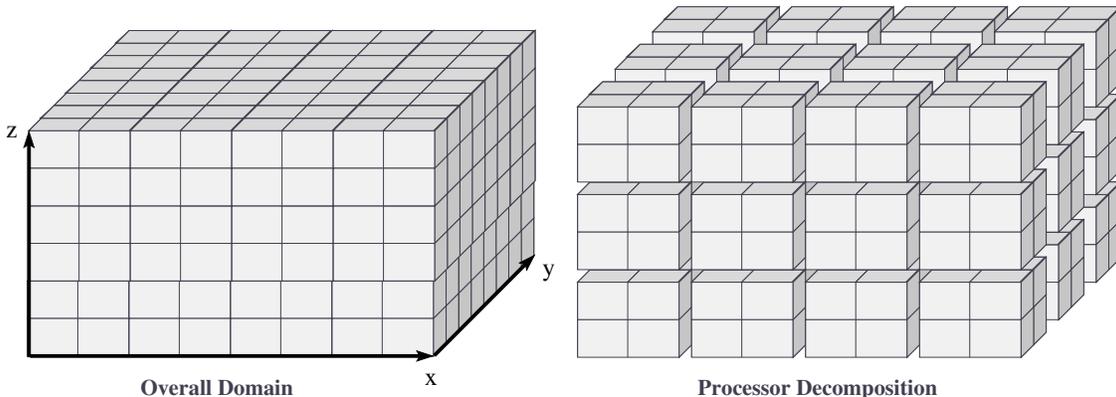


Figure 1: Illustration of 3-dimensional domain decomposition algorithm with 36 MPI tasks broken into a $4 \times 3 \times 3$ layout. Each MPI task in this illustration owns a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ local grid.

Within each cell in the domain we store $5 + n_c$ variables, corresponding to the values of \mathbf{w} at that spatial location. Here, we employ the newly-introduced `N_Vector_MPIManyVector` implementation, that allows creation of a single `N_Vector` out of any valid set of subsidiary `N_Vector` objects. To this end, we store each of the five fluid fields (ρ , m_x , m_y , m_z and e_t) in its own `N_Vector_Parallel` object to simplify access and I/O. We then store all chemical species owned by each MPI task in a single `N_Vector_Serial` object (*note: this will eventually be changed to use a device-specific `N_Vector` object, such as `N_Vector_CUDA`, `N_Vector_RAJA`, or `N_Vector_OpenMPDEV`*). Each MPI task then combines its pointers for the five fluid vectors, along with its own chemical species vector, into its full “solution” `N_Vector_MPIManyVector`, \mathbf{w} , using the `N_VNew_MPIManyVector` routine. An illustration of this `MPIManyVector` structure is shown in Figure 2.

The final item to note with regard to the spatial discretization is our approach for approximating the flux divergence $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w})$ shown in equation (1). For this, we apply a 5th-order FD-WENO reconstruction, where we precisely follow the algorithm laid out in the seminal paper by Shu [13], which we briefly summarize here.

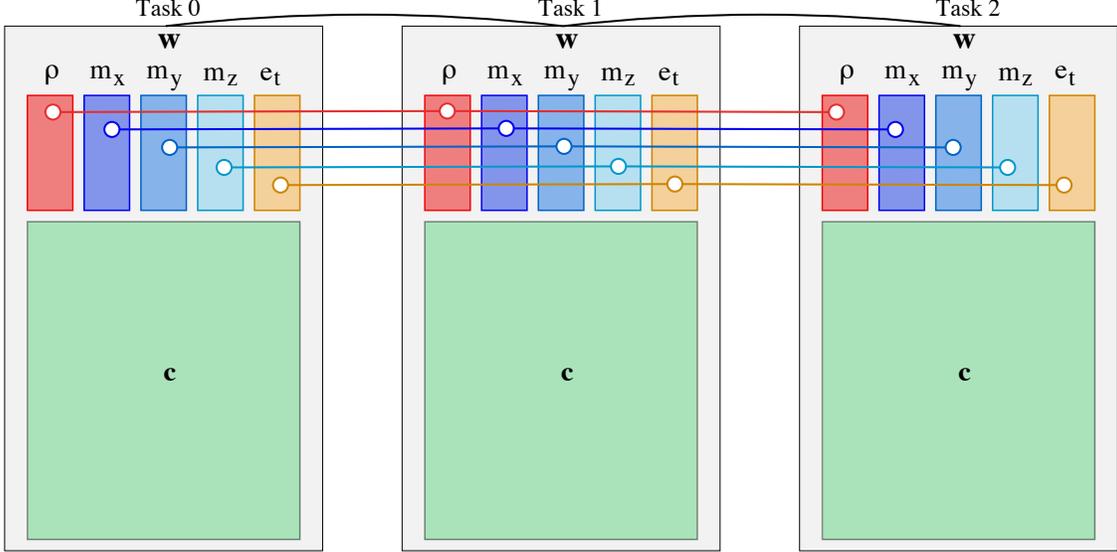


Figure 2: Illustration of `MPIManyVector` use in this problem. Each of the fluid fields (ρ , m_x , m_y , m_z and e_t) are stored in `N_Vector_Parallel` objects, connected via the 3-dimensional Cartesian MPI communicator. The chemical densities, however, are stored together in a single `N_Vector_Serial` object on each MPI task (with no communicator directly connecting them). These six vectors on each MPI task are then grouped together into a single `N_Vector_MPIManyVector`, \mathbf{w} , that inherits the 3-dimensional Cartesian MPI communicator from its parallel subvectors.

In order to properly conserve mass, momentum, and energy in (1), we first compute the fluxes at each of the six faces surrounding the cell (x_i, y_j, z_k) , and apply these in a standard conservative fashion, namely

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w}(x_i, y_j, z_k, t)) &\approx \frac{1}{\Delta x} [F_x(\mathbf{w}(x_{i+1/2}, y_j, z_k, t)) - F_x(\mathbf{w}(x_{i-1/2}, y_j, z_k, t))] + \\ &\quad \frac{1}{\Delta y} [F_y(\mathbf{w}(x_i, y_{j+1/2}, z_k, t)) - F_y(\mathbf{w}(x_i, y_{j-1/2}, z_k, t))] + \\ &\quad \frac{1}{\Delta z} [F_z(\mathbf{w}(x_i, y_j, z_{k+1/2}, t)) - F_z(\mathbf{w}(x_i, y_j, z_{k-1/2}, t))]. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Since the cells (x_i, y_j, z_k) and (x_{i+1}, y_j, z_k) share the same flux value $F_x(\mathbf{w}(x_{i+1/2}, y_j, z_k, t))$, this results in conservation to full machine precision (modulo boundary conditions, source terms, and reaction processes). The 5th-order FD-WENO scheme is used to construct each of these face-centered flux values. This algorithm computes the flux $F_x(\mathbf{w}(x_{i+1/2}, y_j, z_k, t))$ using a 6-point stencil of solution values $\mathbf{w}(x_{i-2}, y_j, z_k, t)$, $\mathbf{w}(x_{i-1}, y_j, z_k, t)$, $\mathbf{w}(x_i, y_j, z_k, t)$, $\mathbf{w}(x_{i+1}, y_j, z_k, t)$, $\mathbf{w}(x_{i+2}, y_j, z_k, t)$, and $\mathbf{w}(x_{i+3}, y_j, z_k, t)$, i.e., the 6 “closest” cell centers to the face $(x_{i+1/2}, y_j, z_k)$ along the x -direction. The stencils are analogous in the y and z directions. Thus under our three-dimensional domain decomposition approach outlined above, each MPI task must obtain three layers of “ghost” cells from each of its six neighboring subdomains.

We thus compute the flux divergence $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w})$ using the following steps:

1. Begin exchange of boundary layers with neighbors via asynchronous `MPI_Isend` and `MPI_Irecv` calls.
2. Compute and store the fluxes at each face in the strict interior of the subdomain, i.e., for all cell faces whose 6-point stencil involves no data from neighboring MPI tasks. For example, we compute $F_x(\mathbf{w}(x_{i-1/2}, y_j, z_k))$ over the ranges $i = 3, \dots, n_{xloc} - 3$. Since the vast majority of computational effort in this portion of the algorithm lies within the arithmetically intense FD-WENO reconstruction itself, we first copy the local stencil of $6 \times (5 + n_c)$ unknowns from their various `N_Vector` locations into a contiguous buffer before performing the FD-WENO reconstruction at each face.
3. Wait for completion of all asynchronous `MPI_Isend` and `MPI_Irecv` calls.

4. Compute the face-centered fluxes near subdomain boundaries, i.e., those face-valued fluxes that were omitted above. As these stencils now depend on values from neighboring subdomains, the only difference from step 2 is that this must use a different routine to copy the local stencil into the contiguous buffer, since these copies must appropriately handle data from the `MPI_Irecv` buffers.
5. Finally, compute the formula (8) over the entire local subdomain, i.e., for each location (x_i, y_j, z_k) over the ranges $i = 0, \dots, n_{xloc} - 1$, $j = 0, \dots, n_{yloc} - 1$, and $k = 0, \dots, n_{zloc} - 1$.

We note that due to the high arithmetic intensity of the FD-WENO approach, each MPI task need not own a very large computational subdomain for the point-to-point communication to be completely overlaid by computation in step 2.

3.2 Temporal discretization

After spatial semi-discretization, the original PDE system (1) may be written as an ODE initial-value problem,

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{f}^S(t, \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{f}^F(t, \mathbf{y}), \quad (9)$$

where \mathbf{y} contains the spatial semi-discretization of the solution vector \mathbf{w} , $\mathbf{f}^S(t, \mathbf{y})$ contains the spatial semi-discretization of the terms $(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w}))$ and $\mathbf{f}^F(t, \mathbf{y})$ contains the spatial semi-discretization of the term $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w})$. Here, we use the “*S*” superscript to denote the “slow” dynamical processes (advection and externally-applied forces), and “*F*” to denote the “fast” reaction processes.

For non-reactive flows in which $\mathbf{f}^F = \mathbf{0}$, the initial value problem is nonstiff, and is therefore solved using a temporally-adaptive explicit Runge–Kutta method from ARKode’s `ARKStep` module. While that use case is supported by our demonstration code, we do not examine this “single physics” use case here.

For problems involving chemical reactions, the multiphysics initial-value problem (9) typically exhibits multiple temporal scales. We therefore solve these problems using ARKode’s `MRISStep` module, that employs a third-order accurate *multirate infinitesimal step* method for problems characterized by two time scales [10, 11, 12]. Here, a single time step to evolve $\mathbf{y}(t_{n-1}) \rightarrow \mathbf{y}(t_{n-1} + h^S)$, denoted by $\mathbf{y}_{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbf{y}_n$, for the full initial-value problem (9), proceeds according to the following algorithm:

1. set $\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{y}_{n-1}$,
2. for $i = 2, \dots, s + 1$:
 - (a) define the “fast” initial condition: $\mathbf{v}(t_{n,i-1}^S) = \mathbf{z}_{i-1}$,
 - (b) compute the forcing term

$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{1}{c_i^S - c_{i-1}^S} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (A_{i,j}^S - A_{i-1,j}^S) \mathbf{f}^S(t_{n,j}^S, \mathbf{z}_j),$$

- (c) for $\tau \in (t_{n,i-1}^S, t_{n,i}^S]$, solve the “fast” initial-value problem

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}}(\tau) = \mathbf{f}^F(\tau, \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{r}, \quad (10)$$

- (d) set the new “slow” stage: $\mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{v}(t_{n,i}^S)$,

3. set the time-evolved solution: $\mathbf{y}_n = \mathbf{z}_{s+1}$,

where (A^S, b^S, c^S) correspond to the coefficients for an explicit, s -stage “slow” Runge–Kutta method, A^S is padded with a final row, $A_{s+1,j}^S = b_j^S$, and where $t_{n,j}^S = t_{n-1} + c_j^S h^S$ for $j = 1, \dots, s$ correspond to the “slow” stage times. In this demonstration application, we use the default “KW3” `MRISStep` slow Runge–Kutta coefficients [6]. For evolution of the “fast” problems (10) above, we use a temporally-adaptive, diagonally-implicit Runge–Kutta method from ARKode’s `ARKStep` module, namely the “ARK437L2SA” DIRK method from [5].

As we will describe in Section 4 below when discussing our physical test problem, chemically-reactive flows exhibit fast transient behavior, so their stable evolution heavily depends on the inherent robustness

of temporally-adaptive integration. However, the primary purpose of this report is to document parallel performance of the `MPIManyVector` and other algebraic solver enhancements that have been recently added to SUNDIALS. As such, we employ a hybrid adaptive + fixed-step integration approach for the fast time-scale subproblems (10). Specifically, we partition the overall temporal domain $(t_0, t_f]$ into two parts, $(t_0, t_0 + h_t]$ and $(t_0 + h_t, t_f]$. The first portion is considered the “transient” time period, where chemical species exhibit *very* fast dynamical changes, as they rapidly adjust from their initial conditions to their slower (but still fast) solution trajectories. This time period is therefore evolved with `ARKStep`’s temporal adaptivity enabled; the adaptivity parameters employed for this phase of the simulations are provided in Table 1.

Parameter	Value
<code>ARKStepSetAdaptivityMethod</code>	(2, 1, 0)
<code>ARKStepSetMaxNumSteps</code>	5000
<code>ARKStepSetSafetyFactor</code>	0.99
<code>ARKStepSetErrorBias</code>	2.0
<code>ARKStepSetMaxGrowth</code>	2.0
<code>ARKStepSetMaxNonlinIters</code>	10
<code>ARKStepSetNonlinConvCoef</code>	0.01
<code>ARKStepSetMaxStep</code> ¹	$h^S/1000$
Relative tolerance	10^{-5}
Absolute tolerance	10^{-9}

Table 1: `ARKStep` parameters for adaptive integration of initial transient dynamics. Only values that are changed from the standard `ARKStep` defaults are shown. For the line `ARKStepSetMaxStep`, h^S is the value of the fixed step size that was used to evolve the “slow” dynamics – due to the explicit CFL stability condition, this is adjusted in proportion to the spatial mesh size, i.e., $h^S \propto \min(\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z)$.

The second (and typically much longer) time interval, $(t_0 + h_t, t_f]$, is evolved using a fixed “fast” time step size, $h^F = h^S/1000$, thereby bypassing `ARKStep`’s built-in temporal adaptivity approaches to produce a more predictable amount of work as the problem is pushed to larger scales. The challenge with using fixed time step sizes in such an application is that in fixed-step mode, any algebraic solver convergence failure becomes fatal, and causes the entire simulation to halt. Thus, the value of h_t must be chosen appropriately, to balance the need for adaptivity-based robustness during initial transient chemical evolution (i.e., larger h_t) against the desire for a fixed amount of computational work per MPI task when performing weak scaling studies (i.e., smaller h_t). We present the values used in the current studies in Section 4, when discussing the particular test problem used here.

Both evolution periods, $(t_0, t_0 + h_t]$ and $(t_0 + h_t, t_f]$, are evolved using single calls to `MRISolve`, although the second period can be broken into a sequence of separate subperiods so that solution statistics can be displayed, and/or solution checkpoint files can be written to disk. However, since this study focuses on overall solver performance, all such diagnostic and solution output is disabled.

3.3 Algebraic solvers

Since the slow time scale is currently treated explicitly, the only algebraic solvers present in these calculations occur when evolving each “fast” subproblem (10). As these subproblems are evolved using diagonally implicit Runge–Kutta (DIRK) methods, each stage may require the solution of a nonlinear algebraic system of equations. We briefly outline the structure of these DIRK methods, and then discuss the algebraic solvers used for these problems.

Considering the fast IVP

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}}(\tau) = \mathbf{f}^F(\tau, \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{r} \equiv \mathbf{f}(\tau, \mathbf{v}),$$

a σ -stage DIRK method with coefficients (A, b, c) evolves one time step $\mathbf{v}(\tau_{m-1}) \rightarrow \mathbf{v}(\tau_{m-1} + \theta)$, denoted for short by $\mathbf{v}_{m-1} \rightarrow \mathbf{v}_m$, via the algorithm:

1. for $i = 1, \dots, \sigma$, solve for the “stages” ζ_i that satisfy the equations

$$\zeta_i = \mathbf{v}_{m-1} + \theta \sum_{j=1}^i A_{i,j} \mathbf{f}(\tau_{m,j}, \zeta_j), \quad (11)$$

where $\tau_{m,j} = \tau_{m-1} + c_j \theta$,

2. compute the time-evolved solution

$$\mathbf{v}_m = \mathbf{v}_{m-1} + \theta \sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} b_i \mathbf{f}(\tau_{m,i}, \zeta_i),$$

3. (optional) compute the embedded solution

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_m = \mathbf{v}_{m-1} + \theta \sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} \tilde{b}_i \mathbf{f}(\tau_{m,i}, \zeta_i).$$

The solution of at most σ nonlinear algebraic systems (11) is required to compute each stage ζ_i . Writing these systems in standard root-finding form, for each fast substep we must solve σ separate nonlinear algebraic systems:

$$0 = \mathcal{F}(\zeta_i) \equiv \left[\zeta_i - \theta A_{i,i} \mathbf{f}(\tau_{m,i}, \zeta_i) \right] - \left[\mathbf{v}_{m-1} + \theta \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} A_{i,j} \mathbf{f}(\tau_{m,j}, \zeta_j) \right], \quad i = 1, \dots, \sigma. \quad (12)$$

where the first bracketed term contains the implicit portions of the nonlinear residual, and the second bracketed term contains known data. We note that each $\zeta_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x n_y n_z (5+n_c)}$ can be a *very* large vector. However since $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{f}^F(\tau, \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{r}$, and $\mathbf{f}^F(\tau, \mathbf{v})$ is just the spatially semi-discretized version of the reaction function $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{v})$, we see that although equation (12) is nonlinear, it only involves couplings between unknowns that are co-located at each spatial location, (x_i, y_j, z_k) . Thus we may instead consider equation (12) to be equivalent to a system of $n_x n_y n_z$ separate nonlinear systems of equations, each coupling only $5 + n_c$ unknowns.

We may therefore leverage this structure in a myriad of ways to improve parallel performance. At one extreme, we may break apart the large nonlinear system (12) into $n_x n_y n_z$ separate nonlinear systems, performing an independent Newton iteration separately at each spatial location. At a coarser level, we could instead break apart equation (12) into $n_{px} n_{py} n_{pz}$ separate nonlinear systems, one per MPI task, so that each Newton iteration may proceed without parallel communication. The relative merits of these choices (as well as intermediate options, e.g., breaking this into two-dimensional “slabs” or one-dimensional “pencils” of spatial cells) is not investigated here, but may be pursued in future efforts. In this work, we utilize an even coarser approach that solves the full nonlinear system of equations (12) using a *single* modified Newton iteration (the `ARKStep` default), that couples all unknowns across the entire parallel machine. However, we exploit the problem structure by providing a custom *linear* solver module that solves each MPI task-local linear system independently. Due to the structure of \mathbf{f} , the Jacobian matrix $J = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\zeta)}{\partial \zeta}$ is block-diagonal,

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & & & \\ & J_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & J_{n_p} \end{bmatrix},$$

where each MPI task-local block $J_p \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{xloc} n_{yloc} n_{zloc} (5+n_c)}$, is itself block-diagonal,

$$J_p = \begin{bmatrix} J_{p,1,1,1} & & & \\ & J_{p,2,1,1} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & J_{p,n_{xloc},n_{yloc},n_{zloc}} \end{bmatrix},$$

with each cell-local block $J_{p,i,j,k} \in \mathbb{R}^{5+n_c}$. We leverage the extreme sparsity of these MPI task-local Jacobian matrices J_p by constructing each J_p matrix in compressed-sparse-row (CSR) format, and storing them using standard `SUNSparseMatrix` objects. These are thus automatically converted to Newton system matrices $A = I - \gamma J_p$ within `ARKStep`'s generic direct linear solver interface. We then leverage the block-diagonal structure and solve the overall Newton linear systems $Ax = b$ using the `SUNLinSol_KLU` linear solver module separately on each MPI task.

As this is an optimally-parallel direct linear solver for the block-diagonal Newton linear systems, and since \mathbf{f} itself involves no parallel communication, the only ‘‘wasted’’ MPI communication that occurs in our solution of each nonlinear algebraic system (12) is the computation of residual norms $\|\mathcal{F}(\zeta)\|_{WRMS}$ to determine completion of the Newton iteration. In future studies we plan to supply a custom nonlinear solver that will remove this extraneous communication. We also plan to explore alternate strategies that will further leverage the block-diagonal structure (slabs, pencils, etc.), particularly once we transition simulation of the chemical kinetics to GPU accelerators.

4 Test Description

In this work, we consider the test problem of an advecting and reacting primordial gas. In addition to the five ‘‘standard’’ fluid variables described in Section 2, we evolve 10 chemical species (i.e., $n_c = 10$), for a total of 15 variables per spatial location. These species model the chemical behavior of a low density primordial gas, present in models of the early universe [1, 3, 8, 15]. This model consists of the species:

- H – neutral atomic Hydrogen density
- H^+ – positively-ionized atomic Hydrogen density
- H^- – negatively-ionized atomic Hydrogen density
- H_2 – neutral molecular Hydrogen density
- H_2^+ – ionized molecular Hydrogen density
- He – neutral atomic Helium density
- He^+ – partially-ionized atomic Helium density
- He^{++} – fully-ionized atomic Helium density
- e^- – free electron density
- e_g – internal gas energy (proportional to temperature)

The full set of chemical rate equations that encode these reactions comprise the reaction term, $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w})$, used in our code. Both the routine to evaluate this ‘‘right-hand side’’ function, as well as a corresponding routine to evaluate its Jacobian in CSR format, are provided by the `Dengo` software package [16], a source-code generation utility that translates from astrophysical chemical rate equations to C (or `CUDA`) code that, among other things, implements these routines and generates the corresponding reaction rate lookup tables in `HDF5` format [7].

We highlight the fact that the internal gas energy, e_g , may be uniquely defined by the fluid fields, since

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_t &= e_g + \frac{1}{2\rho}(m_x^2 + m_y^2 + m_z^2) \\
 \Leftrightarrow \\
 e_g &= e_t - \frac{1}{2\rho}(m_x^2 + m_y^2 + m_z^2),
 \end{aligned}$$

and thus this reaction network only adds 9 new independent fields to the simulation. However, due to the multirate solver structure described in Section 3.2, wherein control over the simulation cleanly shifts

between “slow” and “fast” phases, we use both e_g and e_t to store the “current” gas/total energy value. Furthermore, by storing two versions of the energy we may use our preferred `N_Vector` data structure layout – five `N_Vector_Parallel` objects for the fluid fields, plus one MPI task-local `N_Vector` for the chemistry fields. We further note that this structure will enable follow-on efforts in which the entire chemical network (data and computation) are moved to GPU accelerators, through merely swapping out our `N_Vector_Serial` object and enabling Dengo’s generation of GPU-enabled source code.

We initialize these simulations using a “clumpy” density field. Here, the overall density field at any point $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$ is given by the formula

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \rho_0 \left(1 + 5e^{-20\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_c\|^2} + \sum_{i=1}^{10 n_p} s_i e^{-2(\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_i\|/r_i)^2} \right), \quad (13)$$

where $\rho_0 = 1.67 \times 10^{-22}$ g / cm³ is the background density, n_p is the total number of MPI tasks in the simulation (i.e., the number of “clumps” is proportional to the number of MPI tasks), and $\mathbf{x}_c = \left(\frac{x_l+x_r}{2}, \frac{y_l+y_r}{2}, \frac{z_l+z_r}{2} \right)$ is the location of the center of the computational domain. We choose the remaining parameters from uniform random distributions in the following intervals:

- $\mathbf{x}_i \in \Omega$, i.e, each clump is centered randomly within the domain,
- $r_i \in [3\Delta x, 6\Delta x]$ is the clump “radius,” i.e., each clump extends anywhere from 3 to 6 grid cells away from its center, and
- $s_i \in [0, 5]$ is the clump “size,” i.e., each clump has density up to 5 times larger than the background density.

The simulation begins with a near-uniform temperature field, with only a single higher-temperature region located in the clump at the domain center:

$$T(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = T_0 \left(1 + 5e^{-20\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_c\|^2} \right), \quad (14)$$

where the background temperature is chosen to be $T_0 = 10$ K.

The chemical fields are initialized to values proportional to the overall density, with:

$$\text{H}_2(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 10^{-12} \rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (15)$$

$$\text{H}_2^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 10^{-40} \rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (16)$$

$$\text{H}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 10^{-40} \rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (17)$$

$$\text{H}^-(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 10^{-40} \rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (18)$$

$$\text{He}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 10^{-40} \rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (19)$$

$$\text{He}^{++}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 10^{-40} \rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (20)$$

$$\text{He}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 0.24\rho_0(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{He}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{He}^{++}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (21)$$

$$\text{H}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \rho_0 - \text{H}_2(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{H}_2^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{H}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) \quad (22)$$

$$- \text{H}^-(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{He}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{He}^{++}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) - \text{He}(\mathbf{x}, t_0)$$

$$e^-(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \frac{\text{H}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{1.00794} + \frac{\text{He}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{4.002602} + 2 \frac{\text{He}^{++}(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{4.002602} - \frac{\text{H}^-(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{1.00794} + \frac{\text{H}_2^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{2.01588} \quad (23)$$

$$e_g(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \frac{k_b T(\mathbf{x}, t_0) N(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{\rho(\mathbf{x}, t_0)(\gamma - 1)}, \quad (24)$$

where $k_b = 1.3806488 \times 10^{-16}$ g · cm²/s²/K is Boltzmann’s constant, $\gamma = \frac{5}{3}$ is the ratio of specific heats, and the gas number density $N(\mathbf{x}, t_0)$ is given by

$$N(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = 5.988 \times 10^{23} \left(\frac{\text{H}_2(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{2.01588} + \frac{\text{H}_2^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{2.01588} + \frac{\text{H}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{1.00794} + \frac{\text{H}^-(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{1.00794} \right) \quad (25)$$

$$+ \frac{\text{He}^+(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{4.002602} + \frac{\text{He}^{++}(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{4.002602} + \frac{\text{He}(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{4.002602} + \frac{\text{H}(\mathbf{x}, t_0)}{1.00794}. \quad (26)$$

Finally, we assume that the gas is initially static (i.e., $\mathbf{m}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \mathbf{0}$), and that no external forces are applied (i.e., $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{0}$).

We perform the simulations on the spatial domain $\Omega = [0, 3.0857 \times 10^{30} \text{ cm}]^3$, and enforce reflecting boundary conditions over $\partial\Omega$. Our base grid simulations (discussed below) are computed over the temporal domain $[0, 10^{11} \text{ s}]$.

Since the Dengo-supplied chemical network expects values in CGS units, but our FD-WENO solver prefers dimensionless quantities, we non-dimensionalize by using the scaling factors:

- `MassUnits` = $3 \times 10^{70} \text{ g}$,
- `LengthUnits` = $3.0857 \times 10^{30} \text{ cm}$, and
- `TimeUnits` = 10^{11} s ,

that correspond to the variable scaling factors

- `DensityUnits` = $1.0211 \times 10^{-21} \text{ g/cm}^3$,
- `MomentumUnits` = $3.1507 \times 10^{-2} \text{ g/cm}^2/\text{s}$, and
- `EnergyUnits` = $9.7223 \times 10^{17} \text{ g/cm/s}^2$,

which we use to convert between “dimensional” and “dimensionless” values as control is passed back-and-forth between fluid and chemistry solvers. Furthermore, we note that these choices of `LengthUnits` and `TimeUnits` result in the normalized space-time domain $[0, 1]^3 \times [0, 1]$ – all discussion of time step sizes or the temporal domain in the remainder of this report refer to these quantities in dimensionless units.

As is typical for large-scale explicit simulations, we perform weak scaling studies by examining the time required *per slow step*. Thus as we refine the spatial discretization (e.g., $\Delta x \rightarrow \frac{\Delta x}{2}$) and thus reduce the slow step size (e.g., $h^S \rightarrow \frac{h^S}{2}$), we shorten the overall time interval for each simulation (e.g., $[0, 1] \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{2}]$), thereby guaranteeing a steady number of “slow” time steps. However, since the fast time scale calculations are performed implicitly and thus have no resolution-based CFL stability restriction, we may choose between two alternate options:

- (a) maintain an essentially-constant fast step size (i.e., $h^F \rightarrow h^F$), as would likely occur for chemical accuracy considerations alone,
- (b) refine the fast step size in proportion to the slow step size (i.e., $h^F \rightarrow \frac{h^F}{2}$), resulting in an essentially constant amount of work per MPI task per slow time step as the mesh is refined.

Since the purpose of this report is to examine the parallel scalability of the `MPIManyVector` and other general SUNDIALS enhancements, we chose option (b) above, since option (a) would result in a decreasing number of fast time steps per simulation. Thus the ensuing scalability results may be seen as a “worst-case” performance metric for scalability of multirate methods applied to physical problems of similar structure.

We perform a standard explicit method weak scaling study for this problem, wherein we increase the total number of nodes and total problem size proportionately. For each spatial mesh, we decrease the “slow” step size h^S to maintain a constant CFL stability factor (i.e., $h^S \propto \min(\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z)$). In each simulation, the initial “transient” phase runs over the time interval $(0, 0.1]$, and the “fixed-step” phase runs for the remainder of the time interval. We set a value h^F to maintain a constant timescale separation ratio $h^S/h^F = 1000$; for the transient phase h^F this is the maximum step size for the temporal adaptivity approach; h^F then becomes the fixed step size for the latter portion of the calculation. As stated above, we maintain an essentially-constant computational effort per MPI task by shortening the overall simulation time proportionately with h^S . We note that this causes the relative fraction of “fixed-step” versus “transient” portions of the simulation to decrease at larger scales. However, since we use the same h^F value for the fixed-step phase of the calculation as we use for the *maximum* allowed transient time step size, then as the spatial mesh is refined we find that an increasing fraction of transient chemical time steps use this maximum value, thereby providing a robust solution approach that in the limit achieves a fixed amount of work per MPI task as the mesh is refined. In Table 2 we provide a summary of these parameters for each problem size tested.

Nodes	Spatial Mesh	Total Unknowns	Slow step	Fast step	Final time
2	$125 \times 100 \times 100$	1.875×10^7	1.00×10^{-1}	1.00×10^{-4}	1
16	$250 \times 200 \times 200$	1.5×10^8	5.00×10^{-2}	5.00×10^{-5}	0.5
128	$500 \times 400 \times 400$	1.2×10^9	2.50×10^{-2}	2.50×10^{-5}	0.25
432	$750 \times 600 \times 600$	4.05×10^9	$1.6\bar{6} \times 10^{-2}$	$1.6\bar{6} \times 10^{-5}$	$0.16\bar{6}$
1024	$1000 \times 800 \times 800$	9.6×10^9	1.25×10^{-2}	1.25×10^{-5}	0.125
2000	$1250 \times 1000 \times 1000$	1.875×10^{10}	1.00×10^{-2}	1.00×10^{-5}	0.1
3456	$1500 \times 1200 \times 1200$	3.24×10^{10}	$8.3\bar{3} \times 10^{-3}$	$8.3\bar{3} \times 10^{-6}$	$0.083\bar{3}$

Table 2: Weak-scaling simulation parameters. Each simulation uses 40 CPU cores per node on Summit [9], i.e., these simulations ranged from 80 to 138,240 CPU cores. All simulations begin with an initial time of $t_0 = 0$, run the “transient” phase over the time interval $(0, \min(0.1, t_f)]$, and run the “fixed-step” phase over any remaining interval, $(\min(0.1, t_f), t_f]$.

For each spatial mesh size, we performed two simulations. The first used two “newer” features added to the SUNDIALS `N_Vector` API:

- *Fused vector operations* – for back-to-back `N_Vector` operations that are performed in SUNDIALS’ various solvers, we created a set of new `N_Vector` kernels that perform this multiple combination of operations per memory access, thereby increasing arithmetic intensity and reducing the number of function calls (or GPU kernel launches).
- *Local reduction operations* – since an `MPIManyVector` is merely a vector that is comprised of a subset of other `N_Vector` objects, any operation requiring an MPI reduction (e.g., dot-product or norm) would naively result in multiple separate `MPI_Allreduce` calls. We therefore created a set of new `N_Vector` routines that only perform the MPI task-local portion of these operations, waiting to call `MPI_Allreduce` until the overall accumulated quantity is available, and thereby reducing MPI latency effects.

The second simulation performed at each spatial mesh size was run with these newer features disabled, so that we could assess the benefits of these newer features “at scale.”

5 Performance Results

For each simulation we manually instrumented the code with profiling timers based on `MPI_Wtime` for a variety of logical subsets of the code:

- Setup – this includes construction of `MRIStep`, `ARKStep`, and `Dengo` data structures, as well as construction of initial condition values. We note that due to the sum over $10n_p$ clumps in creation of the initial density field (13), this component should exhibit slowdown as the problem size is increased. We therefore do not include this contribution when assessing the overall parallel efficiency.
- I/O – this includes all time spent in output of diagnostic information to `stdout` and `stderr` as the simulation proceeds, as well as all time spent in reading and writing HDF5 files. For the results that follow, most of these capabilities were disabled so that disk I/O would not affect our performance measurements.
- MPI – this includes all time spent in parallel communication *by this demonstration application code*. This *does not* include the MPI time spent in SUNDIALS’ `N_Vector` operations (e.g., dot-products and norms).
- Packing – this includes all time spent in packing the contiguous memory buffers (see steps 2 and 4 from Section 3.1) that are used in the FD-WENO flux reconstruction.
- FD-WENO – this includes all time spent in performing the FD-WENO flux reconstruction.

- (f) Euler – this includes the time spent in all steps from Section 3.1, i.e., it should include the sum of (c)-(e) above, as well as the time required to evaluate the flux divergence (8).
- (g) `fslow` – this includes the time spent in (f) above, as well as all translation when converting between dimensional and dimensionless units for the fluid and chemical fields.
- (h) `ffast` – this includes only the time spent in evaluating the ODE right-hand side for the Dengo-supplied chemical network.
- (i) `JFast` – this includes only the time spent in evaluating the Jacobian of `ffast`, and storing those values in CSR matrix format.
- (j) Linear solver setup – this includes all time spent by our custom `SUNLinearSolver` implementation to factor its block-diagonal linear system matrices; this is essentially just the time spent in MPI task-local calls to the `SUNLinSol_KLU` “Setup” routine.
- (k) Linear solver solve – this includes all time spent by our custom `SUNLinearSolver` implementation to solve its block-diagonal linear systems; it is essentially just the time spent in MPI task-local calls to the `SUNLinSol_KLU` “Solve” routine.
- (l) Overall “transient” simulation time – this includes all time spent in evolving the solution over the initial transient time interval, $(t_0, t_0 + h_t]$. We note that this *does not* include the “Setup” time (a) above.
- (m) Overall “fixed-step” simulation time – this includes all time spent in evolving the solution over the second fixed-fast-step time interval, $(t_0 + h_t, t_f]$.
- (n) Total simulation time – this includes *both* the “transient” and “fixed-step” simulation times, as well as the “Setup” time for the simulation, i.e., $(a + l + m)$.

We note that although these profilers only directly measure the time spent in the “multiphysics” portions of this simulation, we may indirectly measure the overall amount of time spent in SUNDIALS modules (`MRISStep`, `ARKStep`, `N.Vector`, etc.) by subtracting the amount of time spent in right-hand side, Jacobian, and linear solver operations from the overall amount of time spent in evolving the system, i.e.,

$$\text{SUNDIALS time} = (l + m) - (g + h + i + j + k)$$

We further note that the vast majority of synchronization points in this code occur in `N.Vector` reduction operations (e.g., dot-products and norms), and thus the “SUNDIALS time” includes all such synchronization points. While some local synchronization occurs from nearest-neighbor communication for flux calculations, this is overlaid by flux computations over subdomain interiors, and is directly measured by the timers (c), (f), and (g) above.

We provide weak-scaling results with these timers in Figure 3. While we collected data on a large number of code components, most of those timers required only trace amounts (less than 0.5%) of the total runtime: Setup, I/O, MPI, Packing, FD-WENO, Euler, `fslow`, `Jfast`, and linear solver setup. We have thus removed these measurements from this figure to focus on the time-intensive aspects of the code, as well as their parallel scalability. Since each profiler resulted in slightly different times on each MPI task, for each curve we plot both the mean task time, as well as error-bars showing the minimum and maximum reported values. However, since the ‘Sundials’ times are only measured indirectly, these minimum and maximum values may be exaggerated since they incorporate the variability from other portions of the code (in addition to variability resulting from within SUNDIALS itself). Thus the error bars for the ‘Sundials’ curve in this Figure likely over-estimate the variability encountered by MPI tasks in the SUNDIALS infrastructure. Additionally, in Table 3 we provide the parallel efficiency of each simulation, in comparison with the 80-task “fused” simulation.

We first note that at the smallest scale tested ($125 \times 100 \times 100$ grid with 80 MPI tasks), the fast chemical right-hand side routine accounted for almost 70% of the total runtime, followed by general SUNDIALS infrastructure (slightly over 20%), and linear system solves (slightly under 10%). Furthermore, of these the fast chemical right-hand side routine and linear solver times showed perfect weak scalability, while the

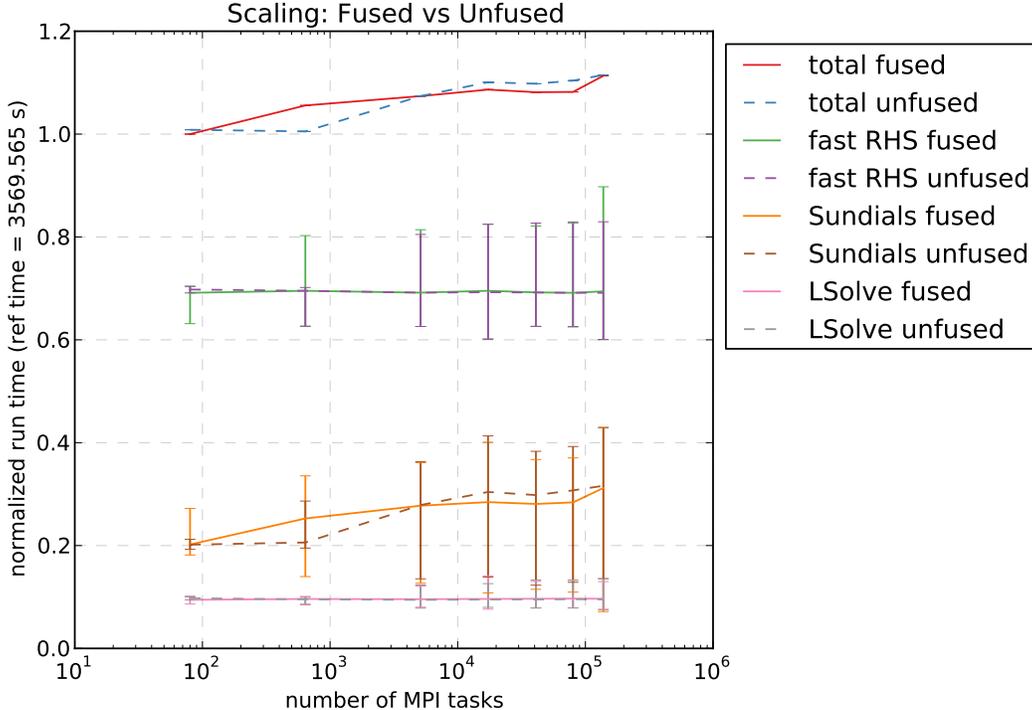


Figure 3: Weak scaling results for both fused and unfused `N_Vector` versions. Only the code components requiring over 0.5% of the total runtime are shown. The parameters used for these tests (grid sizes, nodes, etc.) are provided in Table 2.

	MPI tasks						
	80	640	5,120	17,280	40,960	80,000	138,240
Fused	1.00	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.90
Unfused	0.99	0.99	0.93	0.91	0.91	0.90	0.90

Table 3: Parallel efficiency of weak-scaling simulations, for both “fused” and “unfused” `N_Vector` versions.

time spent in SUNDIALS infrastructure increased by almost 42%, leading to run-time increase of about 11% for the overall simulation code (i.e., approximately 90% parallel efficiency compared to the smallest test). We additionally note that the variance in reported times increased at larger scales, particularly for the SUNDIALS infrastructure, that showed up to 77% variance at 138,240 MPI tasks. Interestingly, the various MPI tasks showed essentially zero variability in the total simulation times reported. This is likely due to the fact that these “total simulation” timers surrounded calls to `MRISolveEvolve`; since the last thing this does before returning is compute an error norm (via `MPI_Allreduce`), it effectively synchronizes all MPI tasks just prior to stopping the timer. Finally, we note that the “fused” and “unfused” versions showed no statistically-significant differences.

6 Conclusions

While we expected the general strong performance results shown in Section 5, some of these came as more of a surprise than others.

From an application viewpoint, we note that our approach for interleaving communication and computation for the advective fluxes proved sufficient, with all directly-measured “MPI” timings remaining at essentially zero for all scales tested. Moreover, due to the multirate structure of this application problem

and testing setup, the advective portion of the right-hand side was essentially “free” in comparison to the chemical kinetics that dominated the simulation time.

From a SUNDIALS-infrastructure viewpoint, we posit that the slowdown shown in the SUNDIALS infrastructure was entirely due to synchronization-induced latency in `MPI_Allreduce` calls. This conclusion is based on two observations. First, while the “fused” version reduced the *number* of these calls by 80%, it left the *frequency* of these synchronization points essentially unchanged, and thus the near-identical runtimes for both indicate that the additional `MPI_Allreduce` calls in the “unfused” version do not increase the overall global synchronization of the code. Moreover, the large variance reported for SUNDIALS infrastructure among MPI tasks indicates that some tasks spent considerably more time waiting at these synchronization points than others. However, since we could only indirectly measure the time spent in SUNDIALS routines, this variance may be exaggerated.

Based on the above, we anticipate that this code will tremendously benefit from three planned investigations. First, we plan to extend this implementation to construct a custom `SUNNonlinearSolver` for the fast time scale. As discussed in Section 3.3, this can be constructed to remove all `MPI_Allreduce` calls at the algebraic solver level, in turn reducing over 98% of the overall `MPI_Allreduce` calls from the “fast” time scale (for the 138,240 MPI task run, there were 61,195 Newton iterations and 1,007 fast time steps; $61195/(61195 + 1007) \approx 0.984$), thereby effectively removing nearly all global synchronization from these simulations.

Second, we plan to port the chemical network data, the fast right-hand side computations, the fast Jacobian construction routine, and the fast-time scale algebraic solvers to GPU accelerators. We note that even at the largest scales tested here ($1500 \times 1200 \times 1200$ grid on 138,240 MPI tasks), evolution of these arithmetically-intense “fast” chemical processes required over 70% of the total runtime (fast RHS + `lsolve`). Moreover, the types of calculations performed in this module should be amenable to GPU architectures, and thus their conversion could likely result in *significant* performance improvements over the results shown here.

Third, instead of requiring application codes to only indirectly measure the time spent in SUNDIALS, and thus lumping all of SUNDIALS’ various actions (*plus* any unmeasured work) into a single performance metric, future performance studies with SUNDIALS would benefit tremendously from *direct* measurements of SUNDIALS performance, notably if these measurements were broken apart into logical units (e.g., vector reductions, vector arithmetic, integrator infrastructure, nonlinear solvers, linear solvers, preconditioners, etc.). We are thus investigating inclusion of direct measurements of SUNDIALS performance through a tool such as Caliper [2]. Additionally, such tools could track more than just runtime, enabling measurement of system-level counters.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Exascale Computing Project (ECP), Project Number: 17-SC-20-SC, a collaborative effort of two DOE organizations – the Office of Science and the National Nuclear Security Administration, responsible for the planning and preparation of a capable exascale ecosystem, including software, applications, hardware, advanced system engineering and early testbed platforms, to support the nation’s exascale computing imperative.

Support for this work was also provided through the Scientific Discovery through Advanced Computing (SciDAC) project “Frameworks, Algorithms and Scalable Technologies for Mathematics (FASTMath),” funded by the U.S. Department of Energy Office of Advanced Scientific Computing Research and National Nuclear Security Administration.

This research used resources of the Oak Ridge Leadership Computing Facility, which is a DOE Office of Science User Facility supported under Contract DE-AC05-00OR22725.

This work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under contract DE-AC52-07NA27344. Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC. LLNL-TR-791538.

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