# Krylov subspace methods

Short Recurrence Methods for Non-Hermitian Problems

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## Krylov subspace methods

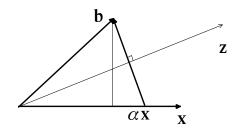
GMRES optimal in iterations but expensive in time and memory if many iterations requires. Main cost is keeping all vectors and complete orthogonalization.

Can we devise an optimal method with a short recurrence? No, unless (non-Hermitian) matrix very special. (Faber&Manteuffel result)

However, we can construct short recurrence methods that are very good in most cases.

## **Oblique** Projection

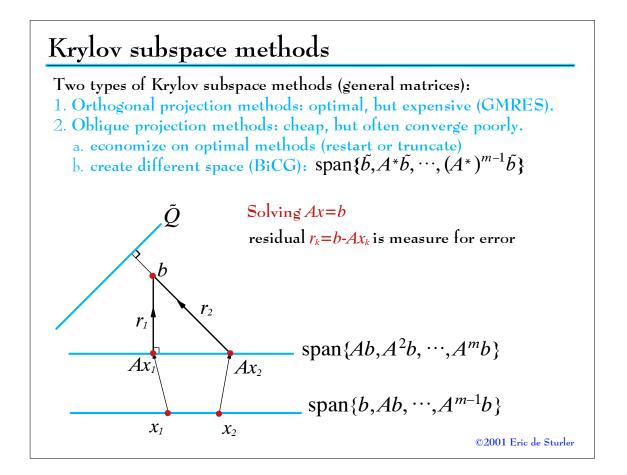
Find approximation to **b** in range(x) such that  $b - ax \perp z$ .



This gives  $z^H(b - ax) = 0 \Longrightarrow a = \frac{z^H b}{z^H x}$ .

If  $z^H x = 0$  no solution exists.

The quality of the approximation from an oblique projection depends on the angle between the search space, range(x), and the space that defines the projection, range(z).



# Oblique projection

In multiple dimensions the quality of the approximation from an oblique projection depends on *the canonical or principle angles* between search space and space that defines projection. The residual from an oblique projection may be much larger than the optimal residual.

Result may be very poor if one or more angles near  $\pi/2$ .

Linear system: Ax = b,  $x \in \operatorname{range}(V_m)$  and  $r = b - AV_m y \perp \operatorname{range}(\tilde{V}_m)$ 

 $\tilde{V}_m^H(b - AV_m y) = 0 \quad \iff \quad \tilde{V}_m^H A V_m y = \tilde{V}_m^H b$ 

Solve  $m \times m$  system (small).

Computation of  $\tilde{V}_m^H A V_m y$ ,  $\tilde{V}_m$ , and  $V_m$  using short recurrences requires special choices for  $\tilde{V}_m$ .

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## Short recurrence methods: BiCG

In order to use a short recurrence we need to make special choices. Given arbitrary  $v_1$  and  $\tilde{v}_1$  we generate two Krylov sequences:

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{v}_i &= \left(A\boldsymbol{v}_{i-1} - \sum_{j < i} a_j \boldsymbol{v}_j\right) / \|.\| \in K^i(A, \boldsymbol{v}_1) \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_i &= \left(A^H \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_{i-1} - \sum_{j < i} a_j \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_j\right) / \|.\| \in K^i(A^H, \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_1) \end{split}$$

Neither the vectors  $v_i$  nor the vectors  $\tilde{v}_i$  are orthogonal. However,  $v_i^H \tilde{v}_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$  and  $v_i^H \tilde{v}_i \neq 0$  by choice of  $a_i$  and  $\tilde{a}_i$ .

We now have the following orthogonality results (analogous to CG):

 $Av_i \perp \tilde{v}_j$  for j < i-1 since  $(Av_i)^H \tilde{v}_j = v_i^H A^H \tilde{v}_j = v_i^H \left( \sum_{k=1}^{j+1} \gamma_k \tilde{v}_k \right)$ , and  $A^H \tilde{v}_i \perp v_j$  for j < i-1.

So we can generate two mutually orthogonal ( $\equiv$  biorthogonal) sequences of vectors using short recurrences.

Note that in this case  $\tilde{V}_i^H A V_i$  is tridiagonal.

## BiConjugate Gradient Method (3-term rec.)

Solve 
$$Ax = b$$
; choose  $x_0 \to r_0 = b - Ax_0$ ; choose  $\tilde{r}_0$ ;  
Iterate:  
 $\delta_m = \tilde{r}_m^* r_m, \quad a_m = \tilde{r}_m^* A r_m / \delta_m, \quad \beta_{m-1} = \gamma_{m-1} \frac{\delta_m}{\delta_{m-1}}, \quad \gamma_m = -a_m - \beta_{m-1}$   
 $r_{m+1} = \gamma_m^{-1} (Ar_m - a_m r_m - \beta_{m-1} r_{m-1}); \qquad AR_m = R_{m+1} \underline{T}_m;$   
 $\tilde{r}_{m+1} = \tilde{\gamma}_m^{-1} (A^* \tilde{r}_m - \tilde{a}_m \tilde{r}_m - \tilde{\beta}_{m-1} \tilde{r}_{m-1}); \qquad A^* \tilde{R}_m = \tilde{R}_{m+1} \underline{T}_m;$   
 $x_{m+1} = -\frac{a_m}{\gamma_m} x_m - \frac{\beta_{m-1}}{\gamma_m} x_{m-1} - \gamma_m^{-1} r_m;$   
 $\tilde{R}_m^* R_m = \Delta_m = diag(\delta_0, \delta_1, \dots, \delta_{m-1});$   
 $x_{m+1} = x_0 + R_m y \to r_{m+1} = r_0 - R_{m+1} \underline{T}_m y; r_{m+1} \perp \tilde{R}_m;$   
 $\tilde{R}_m^* (r_0 - AR_m y) = 0 \Rightarrow \delta_0 e_1 - \Delta_n T_n y = 0 \Rightarrow y = T_n^{-1} e_1;$   
 $r_{m+1} = R_{m+1} (e_1 - \underline{T}_m T_m^{-1} e_1);$   
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## BiConjugate Gradient Method

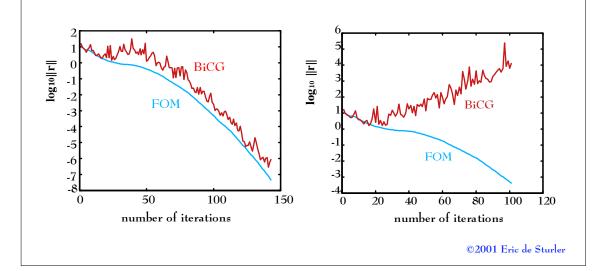
Using again an implicit decomposition of the tridiagonal matrix  $T_k = L_k D_k U_k$  we get a coupled two term recurrence that allows us to discard old vectors.

$$x_0 \to r_0 = b - Ax_0; p_0 = r_0;$$
 choose  $\tilde{r}_0 : \tilde{r}_0^H r_0 \neq 0$  and  $\tilde{p}_0 = \tilde{r}_0.$ 

For k = 1, 2, ...  $a_{k-1} = \frac{\tilde{r}_{k-1}^{H} r_{k-1}}{\tilde{p}_{k-1}^{H} A p_{k-1}};$   $x_k = x_{k-1} + a_{k-1} p_{k-1};$   $r_k = r_{k-1} - a_{k-1} A p_{k-1};$   $\tilde{r}_k = \tilde{r}_{k-1} - \bar{a}_{k-1} A^H \tilde{p}_{k-1};$   $\beta_{k-1} = \frac{\tilde{r}_k^H r_k}{\tilde{r}_{k-1}^H r_{k-1}};$   $p_k = r_k + \beta_{k-1} p_k;$   $\tilde{p}_k = \tilde{r}_k + \bar{\beta}_{k-1} \tilde{p}_k;$ End Drawbacks of BiCG?

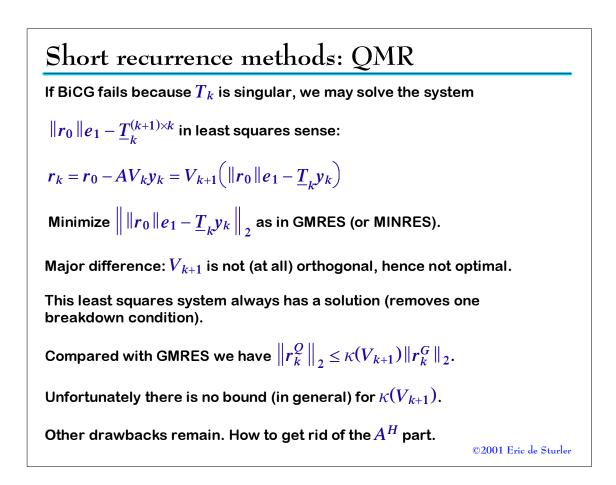
#### Convergence

Some of the most popular methods today are derived from BiCG: CGS, BiCGstab, TFQMR, QMR, ...



#### Short recurrence methods: BiCG

- In general, method does not satisfy any (strict) minimization property and hence may converge (very) erratically. (In practice the method often converges surprisingly well -- this is not a drawback--).
- 2. Two matvec.s per iteration, only one extends search space.
- 3. Need  $A^H$  which may be more expensive to work with or may not even be available (matrix-free implementations)
- 4. Breaks down without finding solution:
  - a.  $\tilde{r}_k = 0$ , which means  $K^k(A^H, \tilde{r}_k)$  is invariant
  - b.  $\tilde{r}_k^H r_k = 0$ , where  $\tilde{r}_k \neq 0$  and  $r_k \neq 0$ .
  - c.  $T_k$  singular (only for coupled 2-term recurrence)



#### Short recurrence methods: CGS

Cunning Plan (P. Sonneveld):

If we only need  $K(A^H, \tilde{r}_0)$  for projection, then all we need are the inner products with the vectors  $\tilde{r}_i$  and  $\tilde{p}_i$ .

Since  $\tilde{r}_i = \bar{R}_i(A^H)\tilde{r}_0$ , we have

 $\tilde{r}_i^H r_i = [\bar{R}_i(A^H)\tilde{r}_0]^H [R_i(A)r_0] = \tilde{r}_0^H R_i^2(A)r_0.$ 

Analogously, the other inner products are prod. polynomials in A. If we can find (easy) recurrences to represent the products of polynomials times a vector (like  $R_i^2(A)r_0$ ), then we only need  $\tilde{r}_0$  and we can discard the Krylov space generated with  $A^H$ .

Moreover we now compute approximations from Krylov space  $K^{2i}(A, r_0)$  using  $2 \times i$  matvec.s. So , we no longer waste matvec.s.

Finally, if  $R_i(A)r_0$  small, then *typically*  $R_i^2(A)r_0$  much smaller. Unfortunately, when  $R_i(A)r_0$  large ...

## Lanczos product methods

Since CGS 'squares the residual' the residual may be large when  $R_i(A)r_0$  not small. In fact, even when  $R_i(A)r_0$  small,  $R_i^2(A)r_0$  may not be.

This may lead to very irregular (nervous) convergence behavior with large peaks in the residual norm. This may ruin accuracy and sometimes convergence.

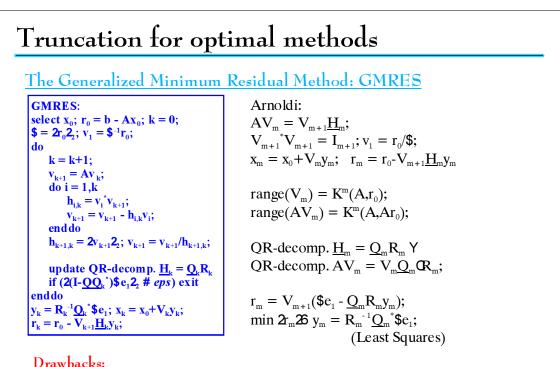
Nevertheless, for a long time CGS was the method of choice for a large class of problems.

Instead of squaring the polynomial, to avoid large peaks in CGS convergence, we may multiply by another polynomial:

 $\boldsymbol{r}_k = \boldsymbol{M}_k(\boldsymbol{A})\boldsymbol{R}_k(\boldsymbol{A})\boldsymbol{r}_0,$ 

where,  $M_k$  is used to improve convergence and avoid peaks. For example, one-step minimum residual polynomial. This yields the BiCGStab (Stabilized) method. Currently among the most popular Krylov methods with GMRES and TFQMR (QMR squared).

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Orthogonalization cost: O(Nm<sup>2</sup>); Memory requirements: O(Nm) Remedy: Restart