# Lecture 09 – Krylov Methods and Third Party Libraries

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NERS/ENGR 570 - Methods and Practice of Scientific Computing (F20)



## Outline

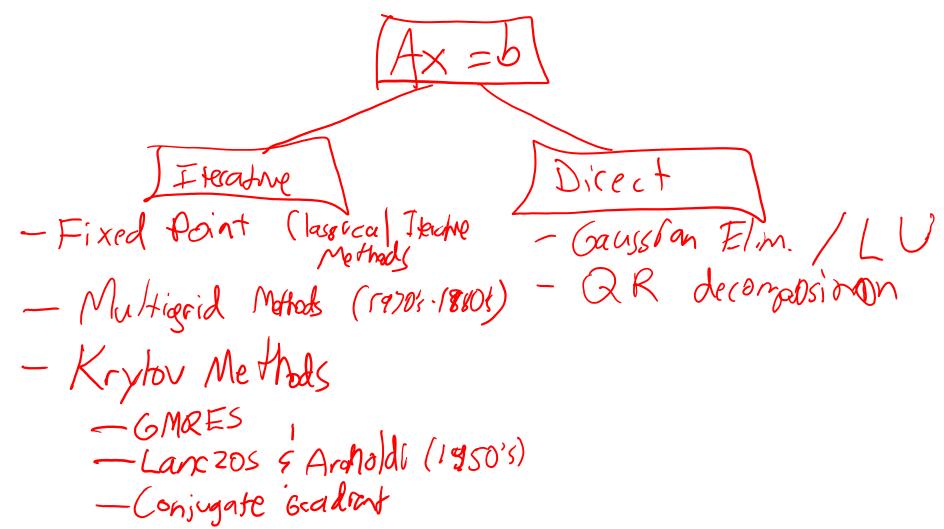
- Krylov Methods
- Convergence and Preconditioning
- Third Party Libraries
  - BLAS/LAPACK
  - PETSc
  - Trilinos

## Learning Objectives: By the end of Today's Lecture you should be able to

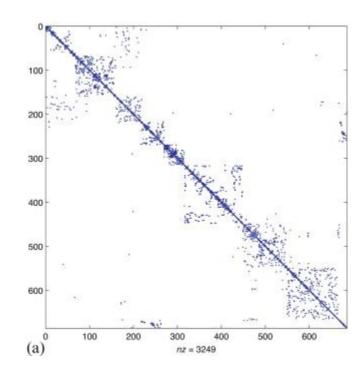
- (Knowledge) explain what defines a Krylov method
- (Knowledge) explain the underlying algorithmic features of GMRES
- (Knowledge) have an intuition about how well a Krylov method will converge
- (Knowledge) describe how preconditioners work
- (Knowledge) quickly navigate documentation for BLAS, LAPACK, PETSc, and Trilinos to find more information about a particular capability of the library

## Review/Recap

### Overview of Solution Methods



## Krylov Methods



Reference: Yousef Saad, Iterative Methods for Sparse Linear Systems, SIAM

## Krylov (subspace) Methods

Use Krylov subspaces

$$K_p(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ab}, \mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{b}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^p\mathbf{b}\}$$

- Krylov subspaces are easy and efficient to construct
  - Use only matrix-vector operations (this is good for large sparse systems!)
- Krylov methods also rely on projection
  - Specifically projection to the Krylov subspace

## General Idea: Projection Methods

- Two types: orthogonal and oblique
- For a linear system: Ax = b
  - A exists in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{K}$  and  $\mathbb{L}$  are two subspaces within  $\mathbb{R}^n$  where  $\mathbb{K} \perp \mathbb{L}$
  - An approximation of the solution is:  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \delta$
  - which has the residual:  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{b}$
- Solution by orthogonal projection means

Find 
$$\widetilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbf{x}_0 + K$$
 such that  $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(\ell)} \perp L$ 

$$\mathbf{r}_{0} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_{0}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{0} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}_{0} + \delta) \perp L$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{0} - \mathbf{A}\delta \perp L$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{new} = \mathbf{r}_{0} - \mathbf{A}\delta$$

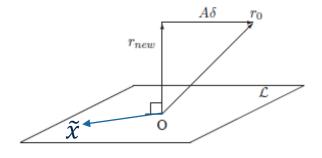


Figure 5.1: Interpretation of the orthogonality condition.

## Orthogonalization Schemes: Arnoldi and GMRES

#### **Arnoldi**

 Uses Gram-Schmidt procedure to build an orthonormal basis

```
ALGORITHM 6.4 Full Orthogonalization Method (FOM)
           Compute r_0 = b - Ax_0, \beta := ||r_0||_2, and v_1 := r_0/\beta
           Define the m \times m matrix H_m = \{h_{ij}\}_{i,j=1,\dots,m}; Set H_m = 0
           For j = 1, 2, ..., m Do.
               Compute w_i := Av_i
               For i = 1, \ldots, j Do:
5.
 6.
                   h_{ij} = (w_j, v_i)
 7.
                   w_j := w_j - h_{ij}v_i
8.
               EndDo
               Compute h_{i+1,j} = ||w_i||_2. If h_{i+1,j} = 0 set m := j and Goto 12
               Compute v_{i+1} = w_i/h_{i+1,i}.
10.
           EndDo
12.
           Compute y_m = H_m^{-1}(\beta e_1) and x_m = x_0 + V_m y_m
```

#### **GMRES**

Generalized Minimum Residual

```
ALGORITHM 6.9 GMRES
             Compute r_0 = b - Ax_0, \beta := ||r_0||_2, and v_1 := r_0/\beta
            For j = 1, 2, ..., m Do:
                 Compute w_i := Av_i
                 For i = 1, \ldots, j Do:
                     h_{ij} := (w_i, v_i)
                     w_i := w_i - h_{ij}v_i
                 EndDo
                 h_{j+1,j} = ||w_j||_2. If h_{j+1,j} = 0 set m := j and go to 11
                v_{j+1} = w_j/h_{j+1,j}
10.
             EndDo
            Define the (m+1) \times m Hessenberg matrix \bar{H}_m = \{h_{ij}\}_{1 \leq i \leq m+1, 1 \leq j \leq m}.
11.
           ► Compute y_m the minimizer of \|\beta e_1 - \bar{H}_m y\|_2 and x_m = x_0 + V_m y_m.
12
```

### Arnoldi Factorization

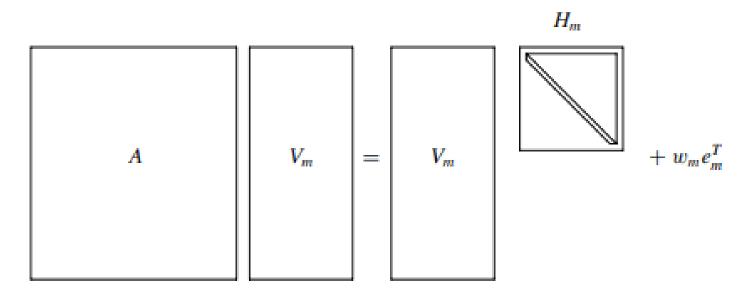


Figure 6.1. The action of A on  $V_m$  gives  $V_m H_m$  plus a rank-one matrix.

## Special cases: Symmetric Matrices

## Lanczos algorithm for symmetric matrices

 This is a simplification of Arnoldi's method, where the Hessenberg matrix is tridiagonal

```
ALGORITHM 6.15 The Lanczos Algorithm

1. Choose an initial vector v_1 of 2-norm unity. Set \beta_1 \equiv 0, v_0 \equiv 0

2. For j = 1, 2, ..., m Do:

3. w_j := Av_j - \beta_j v_{j-1}

4. \alpha_j := (w_j, v_j)

5. w_j := w_j - \alpha_j v_j

6. \beta_{j+1} := \|w_j\|_2. If \beta_{j+1} = 0 then Stop

7. v_{j+1} := w_j/\beta_{j+1}

8. EndDo
```

#### **Conjugate Gradient (CG)**

Only for symmetric systems

```
ALGORITHM 6.16 Lanczos Method for Linear Systems

1. Compute r_0 = b - Ax_0, \beta := \|r_0\|_2, and v_1 := r_0/\beta

2. For j = 1, 2, ..., m Do:
3. w_j = Av_j - \beta_j v_{j-1} (If j = 1 set \beta_1 v_0 \equiv 0)
4. \alpha_j = (w_j, v_j)
5. w_j := w_j - \alpha_j v_j
6. \beta_{j+1} = \|w_j\|_2. If \beta_{j+1} = 0 set m := j and go to 9
7. v_{j+1} = w_j/\beta_{j+1}
8. EndDo
9. Set T_m = \text{tridiag } (\beta_i, \alpha_i, \beta_{i+1}), and V_m = [v_1, ..., v_m].
10. Compute y_m = T_m^{-1}(\beta e_1) and x_m = x_0 + V_m y_m
```

### Bi-Orthognalization Schemes: Lanczos and BiCGSTAB

#### Lanczos (Generalize for nonsymmetric)

Build 2 subspaces

```
\mathcal{K}_m(A, v_1) = \text{span}\{v_1, Av_1, \dots, A^{m-1}v_1\}\

\mathcal{K}_m(A^T, w_1) = \text{span}\{w_1, A^Tw_1, \dots, (A^T)^{m-1}w_1\}\
```

```
ALGORITHM 7.1 The Lanczos Biorthogonalization Procedure

1. Choose two vectors v_1, w_1 such that (v_1, w_1) = 1.

2. Set \beta_1 = \delta_1 \equiv 0, w_0 = v_0 \equiv 0

3. For j = 1, 2, \dots, m Do:

4. \alpha_j = (Av_j, w_j)

5. \hat{v}_{j+1} = Av_j - \alpha_j v_j - \beta_j v_{j-1}

6. \hat{w}_{j+1} = A^T w_j - \alpha_j w_j - \delta_j w_{j-1}

7. \delta_{j+1} = |(\hat{v}_{j+1}, \hat{w}_{j+1})|^{1/2}. If \delta_{j+1} = 0 Stop

8. \beta_{j+1} = (\hat{v}_{j+1}, \hat{w}_{j+1})/\delta_{j+1}

9. w_{j+1} = \hat{w}_{j+1}/\beta_{j+1}

10. v_{j+1} = \hat{v}_{j+1}/\delta_{j+1}

11. EndDo
```

#### **BICGSTAB**

 Variation of Conjugate Gradient Squared (Transpose free Bi-Conjugate Gradient)

```
ALGORITHM 7.7 BICGSTAB

1. Compute r_0 := b - Ax_0; r_0^* arbitrary;
2. p_0 := r_0.
3. For j = 0, 1, \ldots, until convergence Do:
4. \alpha_j := (r_j, r_0^*)/(Ap_j, r_0^*)
5. s_j := r_j - \alpha_j Ap_j
6. \omega_j := (As_j, s_j)/(As_j, As_j)
7. x_{j+1} := x_j + \alpha_j p_j + \omega_j s_j
8. r_{j+1} := s_j - \omega_j As_j
9. \beta_j := \frac{(r_{j+1}, r_0^*)}{(r_j, r_0^*)} \times \frac{\alpha_j}{\omega_j}
10. p_{j+1} := r_{j+1} + \beta_j (p_j - \omega_j Ap_j)
11. EndDo
```

## Convergence of Krylov Methods

- ullet Convergence is related to properties of the eigenspectrum of the coefficient matrix, old A.
  - But more specifically the condition number:

$$\|\mathbf{r}^{(\ell)}\| \propto \kappa(\mathbf{A})$$

- Convergence is often not monotonic
- GMRES does well if eigenvalues of A are clustered.
- BiCGSTAB does well if eigenvalues are spread out
  - It isolates extremal eigenvalues

Re

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### More about condition numbers

- Generally it tells us how much an output value can change relate to a small change in the input
  - Bounds accuracy of approximate solution to a linear system
- Generally given by:

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\sigma_{\max}(\mathbf{A})}{\sigma_{\min}(\mathbf{A})}$$

Recall that under certain conditions the SVD may be equivalent to the eigendecomposition so sometimes:

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{|\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A})|}{|\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A})|}$$

Note that this differs from the classical iterative techniques where generally convergence is given by:

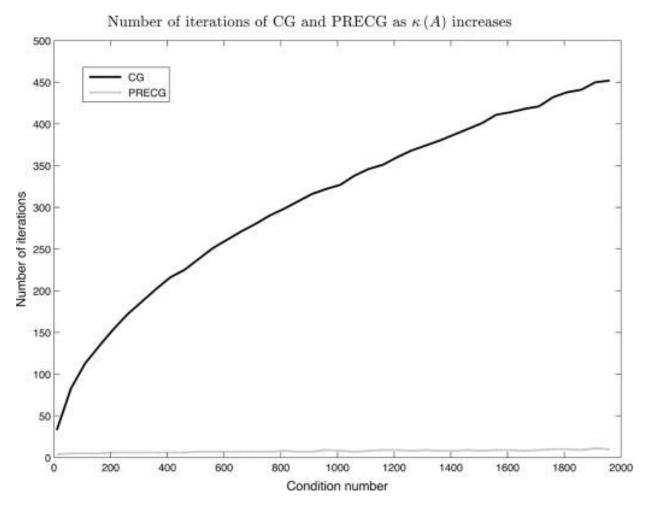
$$\rho(\mathbf{A}) = \max_{i} |\lambda_{i}(\mathbf{A})| = |\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A})|$$

• The discretization of most PDE's give condition numbers that are **unbounded**, and *increase as the problem size increases*.

## Preconditioning

- ullet Objective: Lower the condition number of  $oldsymbol{A}$  to achieve faster convergence
  - Left Preconditioner:  $M^{-1}Ax = M^{-1}b$
  - Right Preconditioner:  $AM^{-1}Mx = b$  solve  $AM^{-1}u = b$ , then u = Mx
- Properties of a good preconditioner
  - Large decrease in condition number for a wide range of A
  - Efficient to construct and apply
- Krylov methods generally only as good as their preconditioner.
  - This is conservation of misery.
  - Research into preconditioners still an active topic
  - Consequently, for some problems classical iteration schemes are still the best choice

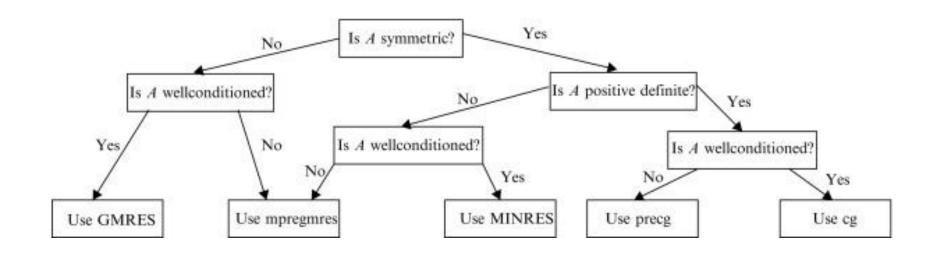
## Importance of a Preconditioner



## Lots of Types of Preconditioners

- Classical methods; Jacobi, SOR, SSOR
- Decomposition:
  - Incomplete LU (ILU): do an LU factorization but don't change sparsity
    - Very difficult to parallelize
  - Cholesky
- Polynomials: Chebyshev, Least-Squares
- Multigrid
- "Physics-based"

## Choosing a Krylov Method



## Summary of Krylov Methods

#### **Orthogonalization**

- Usually requires more storage
  - e.g. Hessenberg matrix and GMRES vectors
  - Restarted forms attempt to mitigate this
- Guaranteed to converge
  - May require full orthogonalization

#### **Bi-Orthogonalization**

- Avoid storage by doing twice the work (bi-orthogonalization)
  - Uses 3-term recurrence for orthogonalizing
- Not guaranteed to converge, but it usually does

#### **Probably need a preconditioner**



## Scientific Computing Libraries

BLAS, LAPACK, PETSc, Trilinos, and Others

- BLAS is a (Fortran) programming interface to low-level linear algebra routines.
- Examples of basic linear algebra operations:
  - Dot products, addition of vectors, scalar multiplication of vectors.
  - Matrix-vector multiplications.
  - Matrix-matrix multiplications.

#### • Why BLAS?

- Handwritten simple linear algebra routines can run at widely varying speeds.
- Loop unrolling and finding correct compiler flags is key and sometimes becomes difficult
- when using a new compiler or computer.
- Basic linear algebra routines form the backbone of many sophisticated solvers and BLAS package tries to provide most optimized version of basic linear algebra routines.
- Linking to BLAS, we get code that runs much faster than hand-written version of code.

- BLAS-1 operations:
  - Routines which involve only vector operations: dot-products, vector norms.
  - S Single Precision, D Double Precision, C Complex, Z Double precision complex

```
x <---> y
         x \leftarrow - alpha * x S, D, C, Z, CS, ZD
COPY
     x <-- y
                                  S, D, C, Z
         y \leftarrow -- alpha * x + y S, D, C, Z
AXPY
         dot <--
                                  S, D, DS
DOT
DOTU
     dot < -- x^T*y \qquad C, Z
     dot <-- x^H*y C, Z

nrm2 <-- || x ||_2 S, D, SC, DZ
DOTC
NRM2
ASUM
            nrm1 < -- | | x | | 1 S, D, SC, DZ
```

- BLAS-2 operations:
  - This level contains matrix-vector operations including, among other things, a generalized matrix-vector multiplication (gemv):

```
y <-- alpha*A*x + beta*y, y <-- alpha*A^T*x + beta*y (General Real Matrix)
GEMV
           y <-- alpha*A*x + beta*y, y <-- alpha*A^T*x + beta*y
                                                                      (General Banded)
           y <-- alpha*A*x + beta*y
                                                                      (Hermitian (complex))
           y <-- alpha*A*x + beta*y
HBMV
                                                                      (Hermitian (banded))
           y <-- alpha*A*x + beta*y
                                                                      (Symmetric)
           y <-- alpha*A*x + beta*y
                                                                      (Symmetric banded)
TRMV
           y \leftarrow A^*x , x \leftarrow A^T^*x
                                                                      (Triangular)
TBMV
           \vee <-- A^*x , x <-- A^*x
                                                                      (Triangular banded)
           v \leftarrow inv(A) *x, x \leftarrow inv(A^T) *x
TRSV
```

- BLAS-3 Matrix-matrix operations:
  - This level operations are matrix-matrix multiplications.

```
_GEMM C <-- alpha op(A) op(B) + beta C
_SYMM C <-- alpha AB + beta C
_HEMM C <-- alpha AB + beta C
_SYRK C <-- alpha A A^T + beta C
_HERK C <-- alpha A A^H + beta C
_SYRK2 C <-- alpha A B^T + alpha B A^T + beta C
_TRMM B <-- alpha op(A) B
_TRSM B <-- alpha op(inv(A)) B
```

## BLAS-Example Code

http://www.netlib.org/lapack/explore-html/

```
51
52
53
           DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION ddot(N,DX,INCX,DY,INCY)
       -- Reference BLAS level1 routine (version 3.4.0) --
        -- Reference BLAS is a software package provided by Univ. of Tennessee,
        -- Univ. of California Berkeley, Univ. of Colorado Denver and NAG Ltd..--
           November 2011
 59
           .. Scalar Arguments ..
60
61
           INTEGER INCX, INCY, N
62
           .. Array Arguments ..
           DOUBLE PRECISION DX(*),DY(*)
64
65
67
68
           .. Local Scalars ..
           DOUBLE PRECISION DTEMP
70
71
72
73
74
           INTEGER I, IX, IY, M, MP1
           .. Intrinsic Functions ..
           INTRINSIC mod
75
           ddot = 0.0d0
76
77
           dtemp = 0.0d0
           IF (n.LE.0) RETURN
78
79
80
81
           IF (incx.EQ.1 .AND. incy.EQ.1) THEN
              code for both increments equal to 1
              clean-up loop
              m = mod(n,5)
              IF (m.NE.0) THEN
                 DO i = 1, m
                     dtemp = dtemp + dx(i)*dy(i)
                 IF (n.LT.5) THEN
                     ddot=dtemp
                 RETURN
                 END IF
              END IF
              mp1 = m + 1
              DO i = mp1, n, 5
               dtemp = dtemp + dx(i)*dy(i) + dx(i+1)*dy(i+1) +
98
99
100
                        dx(i+2)*dy(i+2) + dx(i+3)*dy(i+3) + dx(i+4)*dy(i+4)
              END DO
101
```

#### LAPACK

- LA Pack is a collection of Fortran functions that can help you solve Linear Algebra related problems based on BLAS routines.
- LAPACK provides routines for solving systems of simultaneous linear equations, least-squares solutions of linear systems of equations, eigenvalue problems, and singular value problems.
- The associated matrix factorizations (LU, Cholesky, QR, SVD, Schur, generalized Schur) are also provided,
- Dense and banded matrices are handled, but not general sparse matrices. In all areas, similar functionality is provided for real and complex matrices, in both single and double precision.
- Online Reference: http://www.netlib.org/lapack

#### LAPACK Routines

- Simple driver routines: Simple driver routines solve a linear algebra problem
- Eg: Finding eigenvalues of a matrix, solving a set of linear equations etc.,
- Expert driver routines: Expert driver routines do the same things as simple driver routines, but will provide more options or information to the user.
- Eg: SGESV is used to solve linear systems whereas the expert driver SGESVX not only solves the linear system but will also provide the estimate of the condition number of input matrix.
- Computational routines: Routines are mainly for internal use by LA Pack itself and called by driver routines.
- Eg: LU, QR and other factorizations or reduction of symmetric matrix to tridiagonal form.

## LAPACK Naming conventions

Lapack functions are usually named in the form XYYZZZ

```
X = type of problem that the routine solves
```

- S Single precision real
- D Double precision real
- C Single complex
- **Z** Double precision complex

**YY** = matrix types

**GE General** 

**BD Bidiagonal** 

**HE Hermitian** 

**HB Hermitian Band** 

**SB Symmetric Band** 

**ZZZ** = indicate the computation performed

Eg: SV = Solve, SVX = Solve Expert

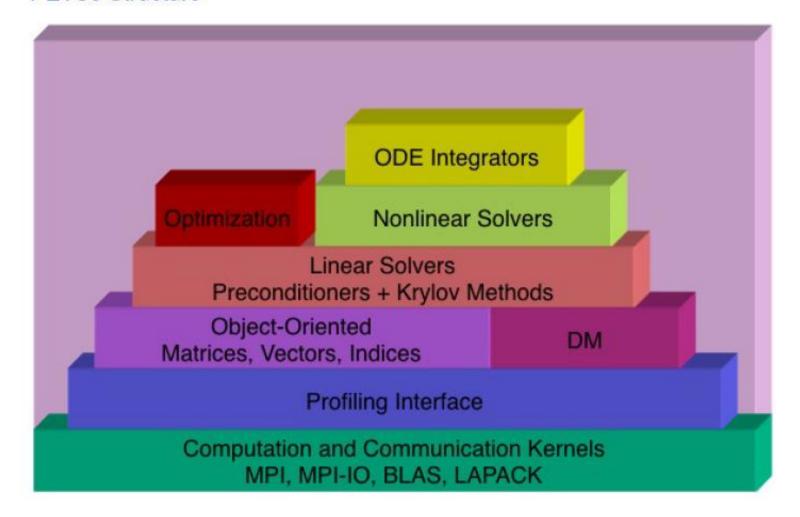
#### PETSc

• Portable Extensible Toolkit for Scientific computing:

Developing parallel, nontrivial PDE solvers that deliver high performance is still difficult and requires months (or even years) of concentrated effort. PETSc is a toolkit that can ease these difficulties and reduce the development time, but it is not a black-box PDE solver, nor a silver bullet. — Barry Smith

- Philosophy: Everything has a plugin architecture
  - Vectors, Matrices, Partitioning algorithms
  - Preconditioners, Krylov accelerators
  - Nonlinear solvers, Time integrators
  - Spatial discretizations
  - Application user loads plugin at run, no source code in sight. PETSc tries to keep solvers independent of physics and discretization.

#### PETSc Structure



## Basic PETSc object usage

#### Every object in PETSc supports a basic interface

Function	Operation
Create()	create the object
Get/SetName()	name the object
Get/SetType()	set the implementation type
<pre>Get/SetOptionsPrefix()</pre>	set the prefix for all options
SetFromOptions()	customize object from the command line
SetUp()	preform other initialization
View()	view the object
Destroy()	cleanup object allocation
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Also, all objects support the -help option.

#### PETSc Vectors

- PETSc vectors are fundamental datatypes of PETSc which is used represent field solutions, right-hand sides etc. Each process locally owns a subvector of contiguous global data.
- Creating PETSc vectors:
  - VecCreate (MPI\_Comm, Vec \*)
  - VecSetSizes (Vec, int n, int N)
  - VecSetTypes (Vec, VecType typename)
  - VecSetFromOptions (Vec)
- Supports all vector space operations VecDot(), VecNorm(), VecScale()

#### PETSc Vectors

- Inserting entries into PETSc vectors:
  - Each process sets or add values and begins communications to send values to correct process and complete the communication.
  - VecSetValues (Vec v, int n, int rows[], PetscScalar values[], mode)
  - VecAssemblyBegin(Vec v)
  - VecAssemblyEnd(Vec v)
- PETSc allows you to access the local storage with VecGetArray() functions.

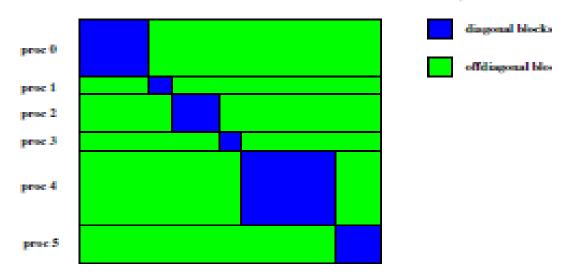
#### PETSc Matrices

PETSc handles both sparse and dense matrix formats in parallel.

```
MatCreate (MPI_Comm, Mat *)
MatSetSizes (Mat, int m, int n, int M, int N)
MatSetType (Mat, MatType typeName)
MatSetFromOptions (Mat)
    Can set the type at runtime
MatMPIBAIJSetPreallocation (Mat,...)
    important for assembly performance
MatSetBlockSize (Mat, int bs)
    for vector problems
MatSetValues (Mat,...)
MuST be used, but does automatic communication
    MatSetValuesBlocked
```

## Parallel sparse matrix in PETSc

Each process locally owns a submatrix of contiguous global rows Each submatrix consists of diagonal and off-diagonal parts



MatGetOwnershipRange (Mat A, int \*start, int \*end) start: first locally owned row of global matrix end-1: last locally owned row of global matrix

### Other useful features of PETSc

- Iterative solvers:
  - Linear solvers in PETSc KSP: Conjugate Gradient, Bi Conjugate Gradient, GMRES, etc.
  - Lots of sophisticated Preconditioners like block Jacobi, SOR, Multigrid, field-split, etc.
  - Nonlinear solvers (SNES):
    - Newton type with line search and trust-region
    - Quasi Newton methods
    - Nonlinear conjugate gradients
    - User-defined methods.
- Time Integration strategies

#### **TRILINOS**

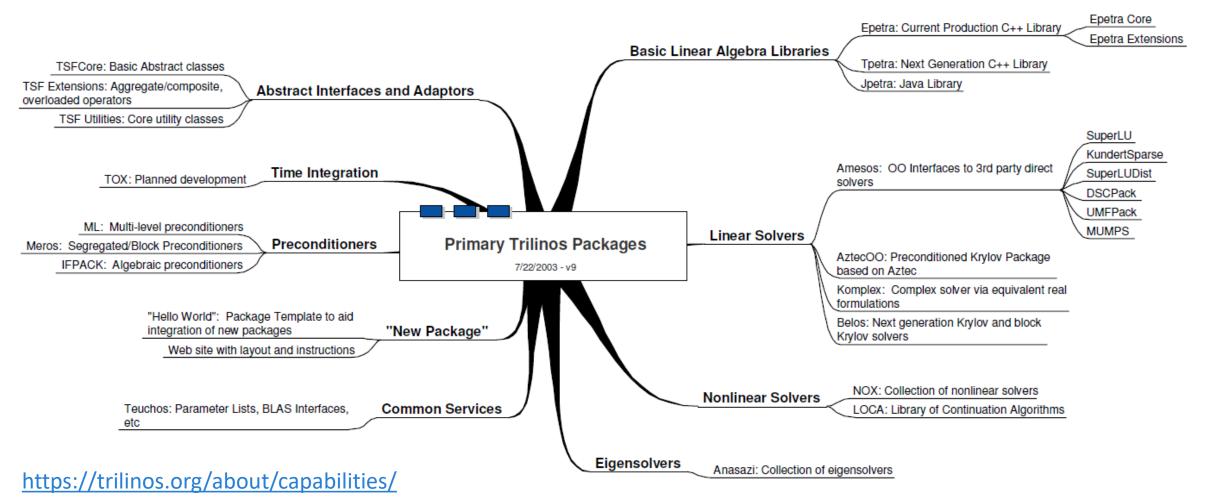
- The Trilinos Project is an effort to develop algorithms and enabling technologies within an object-oriented software framework for the solution of large-scale, complex multi-physics engineering and scientific problems. A unique design feature of Trilinos is its focus on packages.
- More extensive than PETSc and more complex to use.
- Trilinos tries to provide an environment for solving FEM problems and PETSc provides an environment for solving sparse linear algebra problems.



- Trilinos Greek for "String of Pearls"
  - Most package names are Greek
  - Duplication of capability
  - Some are deprecated



User Experience	Parallel Programming Environments	I/O Support	
Mesh & Geometry	Framework & Tools	Discretization	
Linear Algebra Services	Linear & Eigen Solvers	Embedded Nonlinear Analysis	
Software Engineering			





- Contains Tools for:
  - Problem Discretization
  - Solution of Algebraic Systems
  - Uncertainty Quantification
  - Numerical Optimization

https://fastmath-scidac.llnl.gov/software-catalog.html

## Integrating Libraries with your Code eXstreme-scale Software Development Kit

#### xSDK Version 0.5.0: November 2019

