



Solving large-scale continuous-time algebraic Riccati equations by doubling

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ABSTRACT

We consider the solution of large-scale algebraic Riccati equations with numerically low-ranked solutions. For the discrete-time case, the structure-preserving doubling algorithm has been adapted, with the iterates for A not explicitly computed but in the recursive form $A_k = A_{k-1}^2 - D_k^{(1)} S_k^{-1} [D_k^{(2)}]^\top$, with $D_k^{(1)}$ and $D_k^{(2)}$ being low-ranked and S_k^{-1} being small in dimension. For the continuous-time case, the algebraic Riccati equation will be first treated with the Cayley transform before doubling is applied. With n being the dimension of the algebraic equations, the resulting algorithms are of an efficient $O(n)$ computational complexity per iteration, without the need for any inner iterations, and essentially converge quadratically. Some numerical results will be presented. For instance in Section 5.2, Example 3, of dimension $n = 20\,209$ with 204 million variables in the solution X , was solved using MATLAB on a MacBook Pro within 45 s to a machine accuracy of $O(10^{-16})$.

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1. Large-scale algebraic Riccati equations

Let the system matrix A be large and sparse, possibly with band structures. The discrete-time algebraic Riccati equation (DARE):

$$\mathcal{D}(X) \equiv -X + A^\top X (I + GX)^{-1} A + H = 0, \quad (1a)$$

and the continuous-time algebraic Riccati equation (CARE):

$$\mathcal{C}(X) \equiv A^\top X + XA - XGX + H = 0, \quad (1b)$$

with the low-ranked

$$G = BR^{-1}B^\top, \quad H = CT^{-1}C^\top, \quad (1c)$$

where $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l}$ and $m, l \ll n$, arise often in linear–quadratic optimal control problems [1,2].

The solution of CAREs and DAREs has been an extremely active area of research; see, e.g., [3,1,2]. The usual solution methods such as the Schur vector method, symplectic SR methods, the matrix sign function, the matrix disk function or the

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doubling method have not made (full) use of the sparsity and structure in A , G and H . Requiring in general $O(n^3)$ flops and workspace of size $O(n^2)$, these methods are obviously inappropriate for the large-scale problems we are interested in here.

For control problems for parabolic PDEs and the balancing based model order reduction of large linear systems, large-scale CAREs and DAREs have to be solved [4–9]. As stated in [10,11], “the basic observation on which all methods for solving such kinds of matrix equations are based, is that often the (numerical) rank of the solution is very small compared to its actual dimension and therefore it allows for a good approximation via low rank solution factors”. Importantly, without solving the corresponding algebraic Riccati equations, alternative solutions to the optimal control problem require the deflating subspace of the corresponding Hamiltonian matrices or (generalized) symplectic pencils which are prohibitively expensive to compute.

Benner, Fassbender and Saak have done much on large-scale algebraic Riccati equations; see [10–13] and the references therein. They built their methods on (inexact) Newton’s methods with inner iterations for the associated Lyapunov and Stein equations. We shall adapt the structure-preserving doubling algorithm (SDA) [14–16], making use of the sparsity in A and the low-ranked structures in G and H . For other applications of the SDA, see [17].

2. Structure-preserving doubling algorithm for DAREs

We shall abbreviate the discussion for DAREs; please consult [18] for details.

The structure-preserving doubling algorithm (SDA) [15], assuming $(I + GH)^{-1}$ exists, has the following form:

$$\begin{cases} G \leftarrow G + A(I + GH)^{-1}GA^\top, \\ H \leftarrow H + A^\top H(I + GH)^{-1}A, \\ A \leftarrow A(I + GH)^{-1}A. \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

We shall apply the Sherman–Morrison–Woodbury formula (SMWF) to $(I + GH)^{-1}$ and make use of the low-ranked forms of G and H in (1c).

2.1. Large-scale SDA

From the first glance, the iteration for A in the SDA in (2) appears doomed, with $O(n^3)$ operations for the products of full matrices. However, with the low rank form in (1c), we shall organize the SDA into the form: (for $k = 1, 2, \dots$)

$$\begin{cases} A_k = A_{k-1}^2 - D_k^{(1)}S_k^{-1} \left[D_k^{(2)} \right]^\top, \\ G_k = B_k R_k^{-1} B_k^\top, \\ H_k = C_k T_k^{-1} C_k^\top. \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

The application of the SMWF on $(I_n + G_k H_k)^{-1}$ yields

$$\begin{aligned} A_{k+1} &= A_k (I_n + G_k H_k)^{-1} A_k \\ &= A_k \left[I_n - G_k C_k T_k^{-1} (I_{l_k} + C_k^\top G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} C_k^\top \right] A_k \\ &= A_k \left[I_n - B_k (I_{m_k} + R_k^{-1} B_k^\top H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} B_k^\top H_k \right] A_k, \end{aligned}$$

where C_k and B_k have respectively l_k and m_k columns. It will be obvious that it is more convenient to work with S_k^{-1} , R_k^{-1} and T_k^{-1} , and we retain the inverse notation only for historical reasons, although there is no actual inversion involved. Consequently, with $C_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l_k}$ and $B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m_k}$, we have

$$A_{k+1} = A_k^2 - D_{k+1}^{(1)} S_{k+1}^{-1} \left[D_{k+1}^{(2)} \right]^\top, \tag{4}$$

with the update of “size” l_k defined by

$$D_{k+1}^{(1)} = A_k C_k C_k, \quad D_{k+1}^{(2)} = A_k^\top C_k, \quad S_{k+1}^{-1} = T_k^{-1} (I_{l_k} + C_k^\top G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{l_k \times l_k}, \tag{5a}$$

or the update of “size” m_k defined by

$$D_{k+1}^{(1)} = A_k B_k, \quad D_{k+1}^{(2)} = A_k^\top H_k B_k, \quad S_{k+1}^{-1} = (I_{m_k} + R_k^{-1} B_k^\top H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_k \times m_k}, \tag{5b}$$

all involving $O(n^3)$ operations for a dense A . The operation counts will be reduced to $O(n)$ with the assumption that the maximum number of nonzero components in any row or column of A is much less than n (see Table 2 in Section 4.2). The trick is *not* to form A_k explicitly. Note that we have to store all the B_i , C_i , R_i^{-1} and T_i^{-1} for $i = 0, 1, \dots, k - 1$ to facilitate the multiplication of low-ranked matrices by A_k or A_k^\top .

We may choose between (5a) and (5b) based on the sizes l_k and m_k . Ignoring the small saving in the inversion of smaller matrices, the compression and truncation in the next section produces the leaner B_k and C_k , which makes the choice here irrelevant. However, this choice may be important when G or H are not low-ranked.

The induction proof of the general form of A_k in (4)–(5b) can be completed by considering the initial $k = 1$ case, which is trivial.

For B_k, C_k and R_k , applying the SMWF to $(I + G_k H_k)^{-1}$ in the SDA, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G_{k+1} &= G_k + A_k G_k A_k^T - A_k C_k C_k^T T_k^{-1} (I_{l_k} + C_k^T G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} C_k^T G_k A_k^T \\ &= G_k + A_k G_k A_k^T - A_k B_k (I_{m_k} + R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k G_k A_k^T, \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} H_{k+1} &= H_k + A_k^T H_k A_k - A_k^T H_k G_k C_k T_k^{-1} (I_{l_k} + C_k^T G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} C_k^T A_k \\ &= H_k + A_k^T H_k A_k - A_k^T H_k B_k (I_{m_k} + R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k A_k. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

These imply that

$$B_{k+1} = [B_k, A_k B_k], \quad C_{k+1} = [C_k, A_k^T C_k], \tag{8}$$

$$R_{k+1}^{-1} = R_k^{-1} \oplus \left[R_k^{-1} - R_k^{-1} B_k^T C_k T_k^{-1} (I_{l_k} + C_k^T G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} C_k^T B_k R_k^{-1} \right] \tag{9a}$$

$$= R_k^{-1} \oplus \left[R_k^{-1} - (I_{m_k} + R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k B_k R_k^{-1} \right], \tag{9b}$$

$$T_{k+1}^{-1} = T_k^{-1} \oplus \left[T_k^{-1} - T_k^{-1} C_k^T G_k C_k T_k^{-1} (I_{l_k} + C_k^T G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} \right] \tag{10a}$$

$$= T_k^{-1} \oplus \left[T_k^{-1} - T_k^{-1} C_k^T B_k (I_{m_k} + R_k^{-1} B_k^T H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} B_k^T C_k T_k^{-1} \right] \tag{10b}$$

with the initial values

$$A_0 = A, \quad B_0 = B, \quad C_0 = C, \quad R_0 = R, \quad T_0 = T. \tag{11}$$

We have shown that the SDA can be organized into the form (3). The existence of R_k^{-1}, T_k^{-1} and $(I_n + G_k H_k)^{-1}$ guarantees the same for other inverses in (9a)–(10b). Note that R_k^{-1}, S_k^{-1} and T_k^{-1} are symmetric for all k . Again, the choice in (9a)–(10b) may be relevant when G or H are not low-ranked.

For well-behaved DAREs [14,15], we have $H_k = C_k T_k^{-1} C_k^T \rightarrow X$ and $G_k = B_k R_k^{-1} B_k^T \rightarrow Y$ (solution of the dual DARE) as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Note that the ranks of X and Y have been observed to be numerically low-ranked. Under suitable assumptions [14,15], the convergence of the SDA implies the convergence of $A_k = O(|\lambda|^{2k}) \rightarrow 0$, for some $|\lambda| < 1$. Together with (8)–(10b), we see that B_{k+1} and C_{k+1} equal, respectively, the sums of B_k and C_k and the diminishing components $A_k B_k$ and $A_k^T C_k$. Thus the observation about the low numerical ranks of X and Y has been shown to be true.

2.2. Compression and truncation of B_k and C_k

Now we shall consider an important aspect of the SDA for large-scale DAREs (SDA_ls)—the growth of B_k and C_k . Obviously, as the SDA converges, increasingly smaller components are added to B_k and C_k . As is apparent from (8), the growth in the sizes and ranks of these iterates is potentially exponential. Let the computational complexity of the SDA_ls be $O(n) = \alpha n + O(1)$. If the convergence is slow relative to the growth in B_k and C_k , the algorithm will fail, with α growing exponentially (see Table 2 in Section 4.2). In such cases, X is obviously no longer numerically low-ranked, with respect to some given truncation tolerance (see τ_1, τ_2 in (10) and (11)). It will then be extremely challenging to approximate X in $O(n)$ computational complexity to high accuracy, by any method. One possibility will be to accept approximations to X to lower accuracies with a higher truncation tolerance, thus lowering the corresponding numerical rank of X .

To reduce the dimensions of $B_k, C_k, D_k^{(1)}$ and $D_k^{(2)}$, we shall compress their columns by orthogonaization. Consider the QR decompositions with column pivoting:

$$\begin{aligned} B_k &= Q_{1k} M_{1k} + \tilde{Q}_{1k} \tilde{M}_{1k}, \\ C_k &= Q_{2k} M_{2k} + \tilde{Q}_{2k} \tilde{M}_{2k} \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\|\tilde{M}_{1k}\| \leq \tau_1, \quad \|\tilde{M}_{2k}\| \leq \tau_2$$

where τ_i ($i = 1, 2$) are some small tolerances controlling the compression and truncation process, l_k and m_k are respectively the numbers of columns in B_k and C_k bounded from above by some corresponding m_{\max} and l_{\max} ,

$$r_{1k} = \text{rank}B_k \leq l_k \leq m_{\max} \ll n,$$

$$r_{2k} = \text{rank}C_k \leq m_k \leq l_{\max} \ll n,$$

and for $i = 1, 2$, $Q_{ik} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r_{ik}}$ are unitary and $M_{ik} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_{ik} \times n_{ik}}$ are full-ranked and upper triangular. We then have

$$B_k R_k^{-1} B_k^\top = Q_{1k} (M_{1k} R_k^{-1} M_{1k}^\top) Q_{1k}^\top + O(\tau_1), \tag{12}$$

$$C_k T_k^{-1} C_k^\top = Q_{2k} (M_{2k} T_k^{-1} M_{2k}^\top) Q_{2k}^\top + O(\tau_2), \tag{13}$$

and we should replace B_k and R_k^{-1} (or, C_k and T_k^{-1}) respectively by the leaner Q_{1k} and $M_{1k} R_k^{-1} M_{1k}^\top$ (or, Q_{2k} and $M_{2k} T_k^{-1} M_{2k}^\top$). We may ignore compressing and truncating $D_k^{(1)}$ and $D_k^{(2)}$ after compressing and truncating B_k and C_k . As a result, we ignore the $O(\tau_i)$ terms and control the growth of r_{ik} while sacrificing a hopefully negligible bit of accuracy.

Interestingly, we need only R, T and $I + G_k H_k$ to be invertible (which imply the invertibility of R_k and T_k for all k), opening up the possibility of dealing with DAREs with indefinite R s and T s [19].

Eqs. (4) (used recursively but *not* explicitly), (5a) (or (5b)), (8), (9a) (or (9b)), (10a) (or (10b)), (12) and (13), together with the corresponding initial values in (11), constitute the SDA_Is.

2.3. SDA and Krylov subspaces

There is an interesting relationship between the SDA_Is and Krylov subspaces. Define the Krylov subspaces

$$\mathcal{K}_k(A, B) \equiv \begin{cases} \text{span}\{B\} & (k = 0), \\ \text{span}\{B, AB, A^2B, \dots, A^{2k-1}B\} & (k > 0). \end{cases}$$

From (4) and (8), we can see that

$$B_0 = B \in \mathcal{K}_0(A, B), \quad B_1 = [B, AB] \in \mathcal{K}_1(A, B)$$

and, for some low-ranked F ,

$$B_2 = [B_1, A_1 B_1] = [B, AB, (A^2 - ABF^\top)(B, AB)] \in \mathcal{K}_2(A, B).$$

(We have abused notations, with $V \in \mathcal{K}_k(A, B)$ meaning $\text{span}\{V\} \subseteq \mathcal{K}_k(A, B)$.) Similarly, it is easy to show that

$$B_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(A, B), \quad C_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(A^\top, C).$$

In other words, the general SDA is closely related to approximating the solutions X and Y using Krylov subspaces, with additional components vanishing quadratically. However, for problems of small size n , B_k and C_k become full-ranked after a few iterations.

The Krylov subspaces $\mathcal{K}_k(A, B)$ play a vital part in the fast convergence of the SDA, which comes from two sources. Apart from the diminishing A_k contributing in (2) in the updating of G and H , the power of approximation of the corresponding Krylov subspaces also contributes, creating cancellations in G_{k+1} and H_{k+1} in (6) and (7). This phenomenon has been confirmed in some extreme examples, with some eigenvalue λ of the symplectic matrix pencil associated with the DARE nearly on the unit circle [16]. Instead of the number of iterations predicted purely from λ for convergence, the SDA requires significantly less.

2.4. Errors of SDA_Is

The SDA_Is can be interpreted as a Galerkin method, or directly from (2). With

$$\delta_k \equiv \max\{\|\delta G_k\|, \|\delta H_k\|, \|\delta A_k\|\},$$

where $\delta G_k, \delta H_k$ and δA_k are respectively the truncation/round-off errors in G_k, H_k and A_k , we can show

$$\delta_{k+1} \leq (1 + c_k)\delta_k + O(\delta_k^2), \tag{14}$$

with $c_k \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. A more detailed discussion can be found in [18, Section 2.5]. Essentially, we limit the rank of the approximation to X , trading off the accuracy in X with the efficiency of the SDA_Is. Assume that the compression and truncation in (12) and (13) create errors of $O(\tau_i)$ ($i = 1, 2$) in G_k and H_k , respectively. It is easy to see from (14) that errors of the same magnitude will propagate through to A_{k+1}, G_{k+1} and H_{k+1} . The fact that $A_k \rightarrow 0$ implies $c_k \rightarrow 0$ and contributes towards diminishing these errors. From our numerical experience, the trade-off between the ranks of G_k and H_k and the accuracy of the approximate solutions to X and Y is the key to the success of our computation. If these ranks grow out of control, unnecessary and insignificant small additions to the iterates overwhelm the computation in terms of flop counts and memory requirement. Limiting the ranks will obviously reduce the accuracy of the approximate solution. We found we do not have to experiment much with the tolerances for the compression/truncation and convergence while trying to achieve a balance between accuracy and the feasibility/efficiency of the SDA.

Table 1
Krylov subspaces for solution X and adjoint solution Y .

Equation	X	Y
DARE, Stein equation	$\mathcal{K}_k(A^\top, C)$	$\mathcal{K}_k(A, B)$
CARE, Lyapunov equation	$\mathcal{K}_k(A_\gamma^{-\top}, A_\gamma^{-\top}C)$	$\mathcal{K}_k(A_\gamma^{-1}, A_\gamma^{-1}B)$

3. CAREs

One possible approach for large-scale CAREs is to transform them to DAREs using Cayley transforms.

3.1. SDA after Cayley transform

From [14], the matrices A , G and H in the CARE (1b) are first treated with the Cayley transform:

$$A_0 = I + 2\gamma (A_\gamma + GA_\gamma^{-\top}H)^{-1}, \tag{15}$$

$$G_0 = 2\gamma A_\gamma^{-1}G (A_\gamma^\top + HA_\gamma^{-1}G)^{-1}, \tag{16}$$

$$H_0 = 2\gamma (A_\gamma^\top + HA_\gamma^{-1}G)^{-1}HA_\gamma^{-1}, \tag{17}$$

with $A_\gamma \equiv A - \gamma I$ and a suitable $\gamma > 0$ chosen to optimize the condition of various matrix inversions. A simple application of the SMWF implies

$$(A_\gamma + GA_\gamma^{-\top}H)^{-1} = A_\gamma^{-1} - A_\gamma^{-1}GA_\gamma^{-\top}C \cdot T^{-1}(I_l + C^\top A_\gamma^{-1}GA_\gamma^{-\top}CT^{-1})^{-1} \cdot C^\top A_\gamma^{-1} \tag{18a}$$

$$= A_\gamma^{-1} - A_\gamma^{-1}B \cdot (I_m + R^{-1}B^\top A_\gamma^{-\top}HA_\gamma^{-1}B)^{-1}R^{-1} \cdot B^\top A_\gamma^{-\top}HA_\gamma^{-1}. \tag{18b}$$

It is not hard to see, with the above initial A_0 , G_0 and H_0 , that the SDA_ls still works, again with exactly the same forms and updating formulae for A_k , B_k , C_k , $D_k^{(1)}$, $D_k^{(2)}$ and the inverses of R_k , S_k and T_k . One relevant difference for CAREs is that $A_0 \neq A$ but satisfies, from (15), (18a) and (18b),

$$A_0 = (I_n + 2\gamma A_\gamma^{-1}) - D_0^{(1)}S_0^{-1} \left[D_0^{(2)} \right]^\top \tag{19}$$

with

$$B_0 = A_\gamma^{-1}B, \quad C_0 = A_\gamma^{-\top}C. \tag{20}$$

The corresponding size l and m perturbed updates have the forms, respectively,

$$D_0^{(2)} = C_0, \quad D_0^{(1)} = A_\gamma^{-1}GC_0, \quad S_0^{-1} = 2\gamma (I_l + T^{-1}C_0^\top GC_0)^{-1}T^{-1}; \tag{21a}$$

$$D_0^{(1)} = B_0, \quad D_0^{(2)} = A_\gamma^{-\top}HB_0, \quad S_0^{-1} = 2\gamma (I_m + R^{-1}B_0^\top HB_0)^{-1}R^{-1}. \tag{21b}$$

Note that all computations can be realized in $O(n)$ operations, assuming that the operations $A_\gamma^{-1}B$ and $A_\gamma^{-\top}C$ are achievable in $O(n)$ flops; see [20, Section 9.1] for a banded A .

Similarly, we have

$$R_0^{-1} = 2\gamma \left[R^{-1} - R^{-1}B^\top C_0 \cdot (I_l + T^{-1}C_0^\top GC_0)^{-1}T^{-1} \cdot C_0^\top BR^{-1} \right] \tag{22a}$$

$$= 2\gamma \left[R^{-1} - R^{-1}B_0^\top HB_0 (I_m + R^{-1}B_0^\top HB_0)^{-1}R^{-1} \right], \tag{22b}$$

and

$$T_0^{-1} = 2\gamma \left[T^{-1} - T^{-1} (I_l + C_0^\top GC_0T^{-1})^{-1}C_0^\top GC_0T^{-1} \right] \tag{23a}$$

$$= 2\gamma \left[T^{-1} - T^{-1}C^\top B_0 \cdot R^{-1} (I_m + B_0^\top HB_0R^{-1})^{-1} \cdot B_0^\top CT^{-1} \right]. \tag{23b}$$

For CAREs, we have

$$B_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(A_\gamma^{-1}, A_\gamma^{-1}B), \quad C_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(A_\gamma^{-\top}, A_\gamma^{-\top}C). \tag{24}$$

Note that the Krylov subspaces $\mathcal{K}_k(A^{\pm 1}, B)$ and $\mathcal{K}_k(A^{\pm \top}, C)$ have been used in the solution of CAREs and Lyapunov equations in [21–26], quite different from the subspaces associated with the SDA here. This difference may explain the superiority of our methods. From (24) and [18,27], we can see clearly the appropriate choices of Krylov subspaces for DAREs and CAREs, as well as the corresponding Stein and Lyapunov equations. A summary is contained in Table 1.

We summarize the algorithm below, with the particular choice of (4), (5a), (8), (9a), (10b), (12) and (13). We would like to emphasize that care has to be exercised in Algorithm 1 below, with the multiplications by A_{k+1} and A_{k+1}^\top carried out recursively using (4) and (5a) or (5b). Otherwise, computations cannot be carried out in $O(n)$ complexity. Similar care has to be taken in the computation of residuals (used in Algorithm 1 below) or differences of iterates (as an alternative convergence control), as discussed in Section 4.2 later.

Algorithm 1 (SDA_Is)	
Input:	$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, $R^{-1} = R^{-\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l}$, $T^{-1} = T^{-\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$ shift $\gamma > 0$, positive tolerances τ_1 , τ_2 and ϵ , and m_{\max} , l_{\max} ;
Output:	$B_\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m_\epsilon}$, $R_\epsilon^{-1} = R_\epsilon^{-\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_\epsilon \times m_\epsilon}$, $C_\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l_\epsilon}$ and $T_\epsilon^{-1} = T_\epsilon^{-\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{l_\epsilon \times l_\epsilon}$, with $C_\epsilon T_\epsilon^{-1} C_\epsilon^\top$ and $B_\epsilon R_\epsilon^{-1} B_\epsilon^\top$ approximating, respectively, the solutions X and Y to the large-scale CARE (1b) and its adjoint;
	Compute $A_\gamma = A - \gamma I$;
	Set $k = 0$, $\tilde{r}_0 = 2\epsilon$; $B_0 = A_\gamma^{-1} B$, $C_0 = A_\gamma^{-\top} C$;
	$R_0^{-1} = 2\gamma \left[R^{-1} - R^{-1} B^\top C_0 \cdot (I_l + T^{-1} C_0^\top G C_0)^{-1} T^{-1} \cdot C_0^\top B R^{-1} \right]$,
	$T_0^{-1} = 2\gamma \left[T^{-1} - T^{-1} C^\top B_0 \cdot R^{-1} (I_m + B_0^\top H B_0 R^{-1})^{-1} \cdot B_0^\top C T^{-1} \right]$;
	$D_0^{(2)} = C_0$, $D_0^{(1)} = A_\gamma^{-1} G C_0$, $S_0^{-1} = 2\gamma (I_l + T^{-1} C_0^\top G C_0)^{-1} T^{-1}$,
	$A_0 = I_n + 2\gamma A_\gamma^{-1} - D_0^{(1)} S_0^{-1} \left[D_0^{(2)} \right]^\top$;
	Compute $h = \ H_0\ = \ C_0 T_0^{-1} C_0^\top\ $;
	Do until convergence:
	If the relative residual $\tilde{r}_k = d_k / (h_k + \tilde{m}_k + h) < \epsilon$,
	Set $B_\epsilon = B_k$, $R_\epsilon^{-1} = R_k^{-1}$, $C_\epsilon = C_k$ and $T_\epsilon^{-1} = T_k^{-1}$;
	Exit
	End If
	Compute $B_{k+1} = [B_k, A_k B_k]$, $C_{k+1} = [C_k, A_k^\top C_k]$;
	$R_{k+1}^{-1} = R_k^{-1} \oplus \left[R_k^{-1} - R_k^{-1} B_k^\top C_k T_k^{-1} (I_l + C_k^\top G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1} C_k^\top B_k R_k^{-1} \right]$,
	$T_{k+1}^{-1} = T_k^{-1} \oplus \left[T_k^{-1} - T_k^{-1} C_k^\top B_k (I_m + R_k^{-1} B_k^\top H_k B_k)^{-1} R_k^{-1} B_k^\top C_k T_k^{-1} \right]$;
	with $A_{k+1} = A_k^2 - D_{k+1}^{(1)} S_{k+1}^{-1} \left[D_{k+1}^{(2)} \right]^\top$,
	$D_{k+1}^{(1)} = A_k G_k C_k$, $D_{k+1}^{(2)} = A_k^\top C_k$, $S_{k+1}^{-1} = T_k^{-1} (I_l + C_k^\top G_k C_k T_k^{-1})^{-1}$;
	Compress B_{k+1} and C_{k+1} , using the tolerances τ_1 and τ_2 , and modify R_{k+1}^{-1} and T_{k+1}^{-1} , as in (12) and (13);
	Compute $k \leftarrow k + 1$, $d_k = \ \mathcal{D}(H_k)\ $, $h_k = \ H_k\ $ and $\tilde{m}_k = \ M_k\ $, as in Section 4.2;
	End Do

4. Computational issues

4.1. Residuals and convergence control

Consider the difference of successive iterates:

$$dG_k \equiv B_k R_k^{-1} B_k^\top - B_{k+1} R_{k+1}^{-1} B_{k+1}^\top = \tilde{B}_{k+1} \tilde{R}_{k+1}^{-1} \tilde{B}_{k+1}^\top,$$

we have

$$\tilde{B}_{k+1} \equiv [B_k, B_{k+1}], \quad \tilde{R}_{k+1}^{-1} \equiv R_k^{-1} \oplus (-R_{k+1}^{-1}).$$

Similarly, with $dH_k \equiv C_k T_k^{-1} C_k^\top - C_{k+1} T_{k+1}^{-1} C_{k+1}^\top$, we have

$$dH_k = \tilde{C}_{k+1} \tilde{T}_{k+1}^{-1} \tilde{C}_{k+1}^\top$$

with

$$\tilde{C}_{k+1} \equiv [C_k, C_{k+1}], \quad \tilde{T}_{k+1}^{-1} \equiv T_k^{-1} \oplus (-T_{k+1}^{-1}).$$

Alternatively, (6) and (7) imply similar results.

For the residual $r_k \equiv \|\mathcal{D}(H_k)\|$ of the DARE, the corresponding relative residual equals

$$\tilde{r}_k \equiv \frac{r_k}{\|H_k\| + \|M_k\| + \|H\|}, \quad M_k \equiv A^\top H_k A - A^\top H_k B (R + B^\top H_k B)^{-1} B^\top H_k A,$$

and with the help of the SMWF, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}(H_k) &= -H_k + A^\top H_k A - A^\top H_k B (R + B^\top H_k B)^{-1} B^\top H_k A + H \\ &= \widehat{C}_k \widehat{T}_k^{-1} \widehat{C}_k^\top \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{C}_k &\equiv [C_k, A^\top C_k, C], \\ \widehat{T}_k^{-1} &\equiv (-T_k^{-1}) \oplus \check{T}_k^{-1} \oplus T^{-1}, \\ \check{T}_k^{-1} &\equiv T_k^{-1} - T_k^{-1} C_k^\top B (R + B^\top H_k B)^{-1} B^\top C_k T_k^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

For relative error estimates and residuals, we also need the norms of

$$H_k = C_k T_k^{-1} C_k^\top, \quad H = C T^{-1} C^\top, \quad M_k = A^\top C_k \check{T}_k^{-1} C_k^\top A.$$

All the calculations in this subsection involve the norms of similar low-rank symmetric matrices. For H_k , as in (13), we can orthogonalize C_k and transform T_k^{-1} accordingly, analogous to (12) and (13). With the orthogonal $\widetilde{B}_k, \widetilde{C}_k, \widetilde{C}_k, C_k, C$ and $A^\top C_k$, and the transformed $\widetilde{R}_k^{-1}, \widetilde{T}_k^{-1}, \widehat{T}_k^{-1}, T_k^{-1}, T^{-1}$ and \check{T}_k^{-1} respectively, we have the efficient formulae

$$\begin{aligned} \|dG_k\| &= \|\widetilde{R}_{k+1}^{-1}\|, & \|dH_k\| &= \|\widetilde{T}_{k+1}^{-1}\|, & r_k &= \|\widehat{T}_k^{-1}\|, \\ \|H_k\| &= \|T_k^{-1}\|, & \|H\| &= \|T^{-1}\|, & \|M_k\| &= \|\check{T}_k^{-1}\| \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

for the 2- and F -norms.

For CAREs, and persist with the same notations, we have

$$r_k \equiv \|\mathcal{C}(H_k)\|, \quad \tilde{r}_k \equiv \frac{r_k}{\|A^\top H_k + H_k A\| + \|H_k G H_k\| + \|H\|}.$$

Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C}(H_k) &= A^\top H_k + H_k A - H_k G H_k + H \\ &= \widehat{C}_k \widehat{T}_k^{-1} \widehat{C}_k^\top \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{C}_k &\equiv [A^\top C_k, C_k, C], & \check{T}_k^{-1} &\equiv T_k^{-1} C_k^\top G C_k T_k^{-1}, \\ \check{T}_k^{-1} &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & T_k^{-1} \\ T_k^{-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, & \widehat{T}_k^{-1} &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & T_k^{-1} \\ T_k^{-1} & -\check{T}_k^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \oplus T^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

After orthogonalizing \widehat{C}_k, C_k, C and \check{C}_k and transforming respectively $\widehat{T}_k^{-1}, T_k^{-1}, T^{-1}, \check{T}_k^{-1}$ and \check{T}_k^{-1} , we have similar results as in (25):

$$\begin{aligned} r_k &= \|\widehat{T}_k^{-1}\|, & \|H_k\| &= \|T_k^{-1}\|, & \|H\| &= \|T^{-1}\|, \\ \|H_k G H_k\| &= \|\check{T}_k^{-1}\|, & \|A^\top H_k + H_k A\| &= \|\check{T}_k^{-1}\|. \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

If we replace the symmetry term $\|A^\top H_k + H_k A\|$ with $2\|A^\top H_k\|$ in the denominator of the relative residual, we then have

$$A^\top H_k = (A^\top C_k) T_k^{-1} C_k^{-1}.$$

We then need to orthogonalize $A^\top C_k$ as well and transform T_k^{-1} from the left and the right, yielding $\|A^\top H_k\| = \|T_k^{-1}\|$.

4.2. Operation and memory counts

We shall assume that $c_\gamma mn$ flops are required in the solution of $A_\gamma Z = R$ or $A_\gamma^\top Z = R$, with $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. A start up cost of $[c_\gamma(l + m) + 4l^2 + 1]n$ flops for the SDA_ls is made up of the following:

- (1) setting up $A_\gamma = A - \gamma I_n$, requiring n flops;
- (2) setting up $B_0 = A_\gamma^{-1} B$ and $C_0 = A_\gamma^{-1} C$, requiring $c_\gamma(l + m)n$ flops; and
- (3) the orthogonalization of C_0 and the modification of T_0^{-1} , in the calculation of $h = \|H_0\| = \|T_0^{-1}\|$, requiring $4l^2 n$ flops.

Table 2
Operation and memory counts for the k th iteration in Algorithm 1 (SDA_ls).

Computation	Flops	Memory
B_{k+1}, C_{k+1}	$[2^{k+1}c_\gamma(l_k + m_k) + (6l_k + 1)N_k]n$	$N_{k+1}n$
$R_{k+1}^{-1}, T_{k+1}^{-1}$	$4l_k m_k n$	$O(l_k^2 + m_k^2)$
$D_{k+1}^{(1)}, D_{k+1}^{(2)}$	$O(l_k^3 + m_k^3)$	–
S_{k+1}^{-1}	$O(l_k^3)$	$O(l_k^2)$
Compress B_{k+1}, C_{k+1}	$4(l_k^2 + m_k^2)n$	–
Modify $R_{k+1}^{-1}, T_{k+1}^{-1}$	$O(l_k^3 + m_k^3)$	–
\tilde{r}_{k+1}	$[4(2l_k + l)^2 + 8l_k^2 + 2l_k m]n$	–
Total	$[2^{k+1}c_\gamma(l_k + m_k) + (6l_k + 1)N_k + 4(l_k^2 + m_k^2 + l_k m_k) + 4(2l_k + l)^2 + 8l_k^2 + 2l_k m]n$	$N_{k+1}n$

The operation and memory counts of Algorithm 1 (SDA_ls) for the k th iteration are summarized in Table 2. In the third column, the number of variables is recorded. Only the dominant $O(n)$ operations or memory requirement are included. Note that most of the work is done in the computation of B_{k+1} and C_{k+1} , for which $A_k B_k$ and $A_k^\top C_k$ have to be calculated recursively, as A_k is not available explicitly. In Table 2, we shall use the notation $N_k \equiv \sum_{j=1}^k (l_j + m_j)$. The operation count for the QR decomposition of an $n \times r$ matrix is $4nr^2$ flops [28, p. 250].

With l_k and m_k controlled by the compression and truncation in Section 2.2, the operation count will be dominated by the calculation of B_{k+1} and C_{k+1} . In our numerical examples in Section 5, the flop count near the end of Algorithm 1 dominates, with the work involved in one iteration approximately doubled that of the previous one. This corresponds to the 2^{k+1} factor in the total flop count. However, the last iteration is virtually free, as there is no need to prepare B_{k+1} and C_{k+1} for the next iteration.

Note that the 2^{k+1} factor in the operation count is not as frightening as it looks. If it is not of $O(1)$ relative to n , then the SDA is converging very slowly, using up a lot of iterations. Then the solution X is not numerically low-ranked, according to the truncation and convergence tolerances τ_1, τ_2 and ϵ , which have to be increased. We then have to accept a lower accuracy in the approximate solution H_k with a lower and manageable rank.

5. Numerical examples

5.1. Test examples

We have tested the SDA_ls on selected numerical examples from [29]. The suite of challenging problems involves continuous-time systems originated from the boundary control problem modelling the cooling of rail sections. The PDE model was semi-discretized using 2D finite elements to a continuous-time linear system with n variables, where $n = 1357, 5177, 20\,209, 79\,841$. The accuracy of the approximate solutions for the CARE examples is good, with relative residuals of $O(10^{-16})$, as compared to the lesser accuracy achieved in [18,27] for DAREs and Stein/Lyapunov equations. Scaling the ARE or varying the values of γ (the shift in the Cayley transform from CAREs to DAREs), τ_i ($i = 1, 2$), l_{\max} or m_{\max} may improve the accuracy of the approximate solution or the speed of convergence. For example, a much worse relative residual of $O(10^{-10})$ was achieved for $\gamma = 10^5$.

We have not attempted to select an optimal γ for the Cayley transform of the CAREs, accepting gratefully the good results from $\gamma = 0.5$. From our experience in [14] and from the numerical tests below, we found γ is easy and insensitive to choose. Typically, the condition number of $A_\gamma = A - \gamma I$ drops rapidly from infinity at $\gamma = \lambda_1(A)$ (the smallest positive eigenvalue of A) and usually $\gamma = \lambda_1(A) + \epsilon$, with a small $\epsilon > 0$, is acceptable. For CAREs from PDE boundary control problems, an inexpensive search for the smaller values of n will lead to acceptable choices.

The cooling of steel profiles examples have components in A, G and H of magnitudes, respectively, of $O(10^3), O(10^{-12})$ and $O(1)$. The resulting CAREs can be badly scaled, possibly leading to ill-condition. (Note from (1b) that a large error of $O(10^{-2})$ magnitude in X may produce a negligible $O(10^{-16})$ contribution to the residual, because of the small elements in G .) We attempted to confirm this by estimating the corresponding condition numbers, as in [30,31], although the various norms of $n^2 \times n^2$ matrices make the task difficult. From [32,33], bounds for a condition number K can be estimated by solving three large-scale Lyapunov equations

$$(A - GX)^\top Z_i + Z_i(A - GX) = -X^i, \quad (i = 0, 1, 2). \tag{27}$$

With G and H_k (approximating X for a large enough k) being low-ranked, the techniques in [27] can be modified to solve (27) (with H_k in place of X) in $O(n)$ flops for $i = 1, 2$, yielding the lower bound K_l for the corresponding condition number κ_{CARE} . For the full-ranked Z_0 (with the right-hand-side $-I$ in (27)) and the sharper lower bound K_l and upper bound K_U of κ_{CARE} , the solution of (27) by doubling is of $O(n^2)$ complexity and expensive. For Examples 1–4 in this section, we present the bounds for κ_{CARE} in Table 3. Note that we do not need the upper bounds K_U to confirm ill-condition. In addition, for

Table 3
Bounds for condition numbers, cooling of steel profile examples.

Example	n	\tilde{K}_L	K_L	K_U
1	1357	3.4677e+2	9.8222e+2	3.0356e+3
2	5177	1.5472e+2	4.1797e+2	1.3560e+3
3	20209	4.7620e+2	5.7338e+2	2.8438e+3
4	79841	5.8594e+1	1.0032e+2	4.1309e+2

Table 4
Example 1 ($\gamma = 0.5, \tau_1 = 10^{-30}, \tau_2 = 10^{-15}, m_k \leq 150, l_k \leq 50$).

k	$\ dH_k\ $	$\ dH_k\ /\ H_k\ $	r_k	\tilde{r}_k	m_k	l_k	δt_k	t_k
1	2.1136e-02	4.0953e-01	1.4687e-02	1.2456e-01	14	12	5.00e-02	6.00e-02
2	2.4908e-02	3.2566e-01	7.1286e-03	4.4522e-02	28	17	4.00e-02	1.00e-01
3	1.8013e-02	1.9080e-01	1.7043e-03	8.9433e-03	56	21	1.00e-01	2.00e-01
4	5.3687e-03	5.3854e-02	1.0030e-04	5.0258e-04	112	25	2.50e-01	4.50e-01
5	3.3637e-04	3.3632e-03	3.5878e-07	1.7928e-06	150	27	6.80e-01	1.13e+00
6	1.2102e-06	1.2101e-05	8.3177e-12	4.1562e-11	150	28	1.42e+00	2.55e+00
7	3.1334e-11	3.1329e-10	5.3625e-17	2.6796e-16	150	29		

Table 5
Example 2 ($\gamma = 0.5, \tau_1 = 10^{-30}, \tau_2 = 10^{-15}, m_k \leq 150, l_k \leq 50$).

k	$\ dH_k\ $	$\ dH_k\ /\ H_k\ $	r_k	\tilde{r}_k	m_k	l_k	δt_k	t_k
1	9.0093e-03	1.8108e-01	2.0396e-03	2.0074e-02	14	12	5.00e-02	7.00e-02
2	2.5058e-03	4.7999e-02	1.0743e-04	1.0268e-03	28	18	1.00e-01	1.70e-01
3	1.3923e-04	2.6601e-03	3.0540e-07	2.9143e-06	56	19	3.30e-01	5.10e-01
4	3.9724e-07	7.5897e-06	7.2655e-12	6.9333e-11	112	21	1.14e+00	1.65e+00
5	1.0134e-11	1.9361e-10	4.9851e-17	4.7572e-16	150	23		

large-scale problems, the upper bound \tilde{K}_U involves the condition number $\kappa(X) \equiv \|X\| \cdot \|X^{-1}\|$ which will be theoretically large and practically impossible to estimate using the low-ranked approximation H_k . For details of the solution of (27) and the estimation of κ_{CARE} , see [27]. Note that the estimation of condition shares the same level of difficulty and stability as the solution of the original problem.

The efficient estimation or bounding of condition numbers for large-scale CAREs and DAREs remain an interesting open problem.

For our examples, the condition numbers of $O(10^1)$ to $O(10^3)$ seem to suggest that the scaling problems of the CAREs does not make the condition of their solution too bad. Recall that worse accuracies ($\geq O(10^{-9})$) were obtained for Lyapunov equations from other Krylov subspace methods for similar examples in [34], [11, Figure 6.1, p. 12] and [12, Figure 8.7, p. 111]. The stability and perturbation analysis of large-scale CAREs and DAREs is still an open problem.

5.2. Numerical results

The numerical results in Examples 1–3 were computed using MATLAB [35] Version R2010a, on a MacBook Pro with a 2.66 GHz Intel Core 2 Duo processor and 4 GB RAM, with a machine accuracy $\text{eps} = 2.22 \times 10^{-16}$. For Example 4, the memory requirement exceeded the capacity of the MacBook Pro used for the other examples. A Dell PowerEdge R910 computer, with 4 × 8-core Intel Xeon 2.26 GHz CPUs and 1024 GB RAM was used instead.

Example 1

The cooling of steel profile example is quoted from [29], with $n = 1357, m = 7, l = 6$.

From Table 4, the accuracy of $O(10^{-16})$, better than those in [34, 11], is achieved within seven iterations, in 2.55 s.

In our experiments in Examples 1–4, we relax m_k to a maximum value of 150 and restricted l_k by setting various τ_2 bounds for l_k . The reasoning behind the strategy is that $H_k = C_k T_k^{-1} C_k^T$, which approximates the solution X of the CARE after convergence. Letting B_k to achieve high accuracy and using τ_2 to control the balance between the growth of C_k and the accuracy of H_k yield acceptable results. On the other hand, other results suggest that the accuracy and growth of both H_k and G_k should be controlled in an equal manner, in order to achieve some sort of optimal efficiency. However, this alternative strategy requires a more extensive and expensive search.

The sub-total CPU time $t_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \delta t_i$, with δt_i being the CPU time required for the i th iteration.

Example 2

The cooling of steel profile example is quoted from [29], with $n = 5177, m = 7, l = 6$. From Table 5, the accuracy of $O(10^{-16})$ is achieved within five iterations, in 1.65 s.

Table 6Example 3 ($\gamma = 0.5$, $\tau_1 = 10^{-30}$, $\tau_2 = 10^{-15}$, $m_k \leq 150$, $l_k \leq 50$).

k	$\ dH_k\ $	$\ dH_k\ /\ H_k\ $	r_k	\tilde{r}_k	m_k	l_k	δt_k	t_k
1	2.0970e-03	6.9503e-02	9.5344e-04	1.5267e-02	14	12	3.10e-01	3.40e-01
2	1.3979e-03	4.6276e-02	2.1852e-04	3.4613e-03	28	18	4.80e-01	8.20e-01
3	4.2151e-04	1.3954e-02	2.1310e-05	3.3655e-04	56	22	1.57e+00	2.39e+00
4	5.8714e-05	1.9437e-03	9.8193e-07	1.5503e-05	112	27	5.02e+00	7.41e+00
5	3.4402e-06	1.1389e-04	5.8239e-09	9.1950e-08	150	30	1.29e+01	2.03e+01
6	2.2067e-08	7.3052e-07	3.6993e-13	5.8405e-12	150	32	2.45e+01	4.48e+01
7	1.4286e-12	4.7294e-11	4.3294e-17	6.8354e-16	150	34		

Table 7Example 4 ($\gamma = 0.5$, $\tau_1 = 10^{-30}$, $\tau_2 = 10^{-15}$, $m_k \leq 150$, $l_k \leq 50$).

k	$\ dH_k\ $	$\ dH_k\ /\ H_k\ $	r_k	\tilde{r}_k	m_k	l_k	δt_k	t_k
1	4.9846e-03	3.3034e-01	2.4666e-03	7.5553e-02	14	12	2.14e+00	2.19e+00
2	3.6912e-03	1.9665e-01	6.1205e-04	1.6040e-02	28	18	7.55e+00	9.74e+00
3	1.3897e-03	6.9826e-02	2.0793e-04	5.2166e-03	56	22	1.90e+01	2.87e+01
4	9.3791e-04	4.6948e-02	4.7165e-05	1.1799e-03	112	26	5.37e+01	8.24e+01
5	2.8650e-04	1.4341e-02	4.2899e-06	1.0732e-04	150	30	1.34e+02	2.16e+02
6	3.9604e-05	1.9823e-03	1.8623e-07	4.6586e-06	150	34	2.71e+02	4.87e+02
7	2.3081e-06	1.1553e-04	1.0998e-09	2.7512e-08	150	38	5.02e+02	9.88e+02
8	1.4933e-08	7.4744e-07	7.1130e-14	1.7794e-12	150	42	9.79e+02	1.97e+03
9	9.8762e-13	4.9435e-11	1.3150e-17	3.2896e-16	150	45		

Example 3

The cooling of steel profile example is quoted from [29], with $n = 20\,209$, $m = 7$, $l = 6$. From Table 6, the accuracy of $O(10^{-16})$ is achieved within seven iterations, in 44.8 s.

Example 4

The cooling of steel profile example is quoted from [29], with $n = 79\,841$, $m = 7$, $l = 6$. From Table 7, the accuracy of $O(10^{-16})$ is achieved within nine iterations and 1970 s (on the Dell PowerEdge R910). As in previous examples, the cost for the final iteration is minimal, as no preparation is required for the next iteration.

6. Conclusions

We have proposed a structure-preserving doubling algorithm for the large-scale discrete-time algebraic Riccati equation (1a), the SDA_Is, with A being large and sparse(-like), and B and C being low-ranked. Similar continuous-time algebraic Riccati equations (1b) can be treated after an application of Cayley transform. The trick is to apply the Sherman–Morrison–Woodbury formula when appropriate and not to form A_k (the iterate for A) explicitly. For well-behaved DAREs (or CAREs), with eigenvalues of the corresponding symplectic pencil (or Hamiltonian matrix) not on or near the unit circle (or the imaginary axis) and $I + G_k H_k$ being invertible for all k , low-ranked approximations to the solutions X and Y can be obtained efficiently. The convergence of the SDA_Is is quadratic, ignoring the compression and truncation of B_k and C_k , as shown in [14–16]. The computational complexity and memory requirement are both $O(n)$, provided that the growth of B_k and C_k is controlled or the numerical rank of X is low.

Similar to the methods in [10,11], our technique can be applied when A is large and sparse, or is a product (an inverse) of such matrices (a matrix). The feasibility of the SDA_Is depends on whether Av and $A^T v$ for DAREs (or $A^{-1}v$ and $A^{-T}v$ for CAREs) can be formed efficiently, for an arbitrary vector v .

In comparison to the techniques proposed previously, e.g. in [10,11], there is no need for any inner iteration using ADI or Smith iteration, for the Lyapunov or Stein equations arisen from the inexact Newton's iteration. The associated estimation of parameters or initial starting values can also be avoided. Consequently, when successful, the SDA_Is solves large-scale DAREs and CAREs efficiently. For instance in Section 5.2, Example 3, of dimension $n = 20\,209$ with 204 million variables in the solution X , was solved using MATLAB on a MacBook Pro within 45 s to a machine accuracy of $O(10^{-16})$.

For related research projects, strategies for the optimal setting of parameters and optimization of the computation and data structures in the SDA_Is, pre-processing of AREs to optimize their balance or condition, extension of the SDA_Is to Stein and Lyapunov equations as well as periodic systems, implementation on GPUs and other parallel computing platforms, associated computation of controllability and observability Gramians and balanced truncation methods for model order reduction and applications to Riccati differential equations (for optimal control problems with finite time horizon), and real-life problems such as boundary control of PDE models, are being investigated.

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