

## Retracing the residual curve of a Lyapunov equation solver

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**Abstract** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  and consider the Lyapunov matrix equation  $AX + XA^T + BB^T = 0$ . If  $A + A^T < 0$ , then the extended Krylov subspace method (EKSM) can be used to compute a sequence of low rank approximations of  $X$ . In this paper we show how to construct a symmetric negative definite matrix  $A$  and a column vector  $B$ , for which the EKSM generates a predetermined residual curve.

**Keywords** Lyapunov matrix equations · the extended Krylov subspace method

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### 1 Introduction, basic notation, and general assumptions

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  and consider the Lyapunov matrix equation

$$AX + XA^T + BB^T = 0. \quad (1.1)$$

This equation is uniquely solvable if and only if

$$\lambda + \mu \neq 0 \quad (1.2)$$

for all eigenvalues  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  of  $A$ , and the solution  $X$  is symmetric. If  $A$  is stable, then the central condition (1.2) is satisfied. Moreover, the solution  $X$  is symmetric positive semidefinite, and the range of  $X$  is the smallest  $A$ -invariant subspace containing the range of  $B$ , i.e.

$$\text{Ran } X = K(A, B) = \cup_{j=1}^{\infty} K_j(A, B),$$

where  $K_j(A, B)$  is the standard Krylov subspace given by

$$K_j(A, B) = \text{span}\{A^i B : i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, j-1\}, \quad 1 \leq j.$$

If  $A$  is a dense matrix then we can solve equation (1.1) using one of several dense methods [2, 6, 10, 28]. They all require  $O(n^3)$  arithmetic operations and  $O(n^2)$  words of storage, but efficient parallel algorithms have been implemented [15, 16, 8, 7].

In many applications  $A$  is stable, even negative definite, and  $B$  is a tall matrix with  $p \ll n$  columns. Frequently, but not universally, the eigenvalues for  $X$  decay rapidly and  $X$  can be approximated accurately with a low rank matrix. This is the low rank phenomenon for Lyapunov matrix equations [23, 1]. During the last 20 years a number of iterative methods have been developed in order to compute good low rank approximations to  $X$  directly [24, 12, 14, 13, 22, 19, 25, 4, 3, 18]. Recently the extended Krylov subspace method (EKSM) has been applied to this problem [5, 26, 17]. It is possible to treat the Lyapunov matrix equation as a standard linear system using  $O(n)$  rather than  $O(n^2)$  resources [20]. However, it is necessary to use a very compact representation of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$  which does not permit preconditioning in the usual sense.

In Section 2 we give a very brief description of the extended Krylov subspace method for Lyapunov equations. In Section 3 we show how to construct a symmetric negative definite matrix  $A$  and column vector  $B$ , for which the EKSM generates a predetermined residual curve.

Our analysis centers around the sparsity patterns of the auxiliary matrices produced by the EKSM. We use the symbols “+”, “-”, and “\*” to indicate respectively a positive, a negative and a nonzero number. As usual, the symbol “×” indicates a number which is not necessarily zero. A few zeros will be written explicitly to emphasize their presence, while the majority are left blank. We illustrate our notation with the familiar example of inverting a nonsingular lower triangular matrix

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ - & + \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad L \in \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{R}) \wedge L^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ + & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

We will use the notation  $e_j^{(k)}$  to denote the  $j$ th column vector of the  $k$  by  $k$  identity matrix  $I_k$ . The notation  $e_j$  refers exclusively to the case of  $k = n$ , i.e.  $e_j = e_j^{(n)}$ .

Our analysis is restricted to the case where  $n$  is even and  $B$  consists of a single column, i.e.  $n = 2m$  for some positive integer  $m$  and  $p = 1$ . In addition, we assume that

$$K(A, B) = \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (1.3)$$

These assumptions simplify the analysis by eliminating the possibility of rank degradation and early breakdowns in the underlying Krylov process.

## 2 The extended Krylov subspace method

This section contains a brief description of the extended Krylov subspace method (EKSM) for Lyapunov matrix equations. Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a nonsingular matrix and let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The extended Krylov subspace  $\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B)$  is defined by

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = \text{span}\{A^{-j}B, A^{-j+1}B, \dots, A^{-1}B, B, AB, \dots, A^{j-1}B\}.$$

It is clear that

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = K_{2j}(A, A^{-j}B)$$

and

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) \subseteq \mathbf{EK}_{j+1}(A, B).$$

The extended Krylov subspaces were introduced by Druskin and Knizhnerman [5] who sought to approximate  $f(A)B$  for a class of analytic functions  $f$ .

Simoncini [26] was the first to apply the extended Krylov subspace method to the Lyapunov matrix equation

$$AX + XA^T + BB^T = 0,$$

where  $A$  is negative definite.

Now, let  $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^n$  be any sequence of orthonormal vectors such that

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{2j}\},$$

and let  $V_j \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2j}$  be the matrix given by

$$V_j = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_{2j-1} \ v_{2j}].$$

It is clear that

$$AV_m = V_m H_m$$

for some matrix  $H_m \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , simply because the columns of  $V_m$  span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In fact, there is only one choice for  $H_m$ , namely

$$H_m = V_m^T AV_m$$

because  $V_m^T V_m = I_n$ . Moreover, since

$$A\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) \subset \mathbf{EK}_{j+1}(A, B), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1$$

and

$$\dim \mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = 2j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$

the matrix  $H_m$  must necessarily be upper block Hessenberg with block size 2. In short,

$$H_m = \begin{bmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} & \dots & \dots & H_{1m} \\ H_{21} & H_{22} & \dots & \dots & \vdots \\ 0 & H_{32} & H_{33} & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & H_{m,m-1} & H_{mm} \end{bmatrix}, \quad H_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}.$$

The extended Krylov subspace method seeks an approximation of the form

$$X_j = V_j Y_j V_j^T, \quad Y_j \in \mathbb{R}^{2j \times 2j}$$

such that the corresponding residual given by

$$R(X_j) = AX_j + X_j A^T + BB^T$$

satisfies the Galerkin condition

$$V_j^T R(X_j) V_j = 0.$$

This condition is satisfied if and only if  $Y_j$  solves the reduced order equation

$$H_j Y_j + Y_j H_j^T + \beta^2 e_1^{(2j)} e_1^{(2j)T} = 0, \quad \beta = \|B\|_2, \quad (2.1)$$

where

$$H_j = V_j^T A V_j \in \mathbb{R}^{2j \times 2j}.$$

If  $A$  is negative definite then  $H_j$  is negative definite and equation (2.1) has a unique solution. It can be shown that the Frobenius norm of the residual satisfies

$$\|R(X_j)\|_F = \sqrt{2} \|H_{j+1,j} E_j^T Y_j\|_F, \quad j < m, \quad (2.2)$$

where  $E_j$  consists of the last two columns of  $I_{2j}$  and  $\|\cdot\|_F$  denotes the Frobenius norm. By assumption

$$\text{Ran } V_m = EK_m(A, B) = \mathbb{R}^n$$

and it is easy to see that

$$R(X_m) = 0.$$

This is the finite termination property for the extended Krylov subspace method. It is primarily of theoretical interest as we can rarely afford to execute  $m$  iterations.

Simoncini [26] uses a clever variation of the Arnoldi algorithm to compute matrices

$$V_j = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_{2j-1} \ v_{2j}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2j}$$

such that

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = \text{Ran } V_j, \quad V_j^T V_j = I_{2j}.$$

Simultaneously, the matrices

$$H_j = V_j^T A V_j \in \mathbb{R}^{2j \times 2j}$$

are extracted without explicitly forming the products, and the reduced order equations are solved using a dense method, say, the Bartel-Stewart method [2].

At this point we would like to emphasize that  $Y_j$  depends exclusively on  $H_j$  and  $\beta$ , i.e

$$Y_j = Y_j(H_j, \beta).$$

In particular,  $Y_j$  is independent of  $H_{j+1,j}$  which determines the Frobenius norm of the residual via equation (2.2). We will use this observation to prove that any positive residual curve is possible. Moreover, since  $X_j$  depends exclusively on  $\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B)$ , rather than on any particular basis, we are free to choose whichever basis that will simplify our analysis.

The extended Krylov subspace method differs from the original Arnoldi method introduced by Saad [24] and extended by Jaimoukha and Kasenally [12] in the choice of the applied subspaces. Contributions to the analysis of the convergence rate for these two methods have been made by Simoncini and Druskin [27] and Knizhnerman and Simoncini [17]. Recently we have shown that any positive residual curve is possible for the standard Arnoldi method for Lyapunov equations. In fact, there is considerable freedom of choice, and both symmetric and nonsymmetric equations can be constructed [21].

### 3 The main result

Our primary objective is to establish the following theorem for the residual curve for the EKSM for Lyapunov matrix equations.

**Theorem 3.1** *Let  $n = 2m$  be an even positive integer and let  $\{r_j\}_{j=1}^{m-1}$  be a sequence of positive real numbers. Then there exists a symmetric positive definite matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that the residual curve for the extended Krylov subspace method applied to*

$$AX + XA^T = e_1 e_1^T$$

satisfies

$$\|R_j\|_F = r_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1, \quad \|R_m\|_F = 0.$$

The key to proving Theorem 3.1 is to understand the relationship between the matrices  $A$  and  $B$  which define the Lyapunov matrix equation, and the matrices  $V_m$  and  $H_m$  which determine the residuals. We now begin the process of constructing a class of matrices for which this relationship is particularly simple, i.e.  $V_m = I_n$  and  $H_m = A$ , while retaining enough flexibility to control the norm of the residuals.

Let  $W_m(A, B)$  be the matrix defined by

$$\begin{aligned} W_m(A, B) &= [B, A^{-1}B, AB, A^{-2}B, \dots, A^{m-1}B, A^{-m}B] \\ &= [w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, \dots, w_{2m-1}, w_{2m}]. \end{aligned}$$

The definition of  $\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B)$  implies

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = \text{span}\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{2j-1}, w_{2j}\}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

Now, let  $V_m \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be any orthonormal matrix such that

$$\text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i\} = \text{span}\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_i\}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (3.1)$$

Then, in particular

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(A, B) = \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{2j-1}, v_{2j}\}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

The following Lemma 3.1 describes the sparsity patterns of the matrices  $H_m$  and  $K_m$  defined by

$$H_m = V_m^T A V_m \quad (3.2)$$

and

$$K_m = H_m^{-1} = V_m^T A^{-1} V_m. \quad (3.3)$$

**Lemma 3.1** *Let  $n = 2m$  be a positive integer, let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a nonsingular matrix and let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy  $K(A, B) = \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $V_m \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be any orthonormal matrix such that equation (3.1) is satisfied and let  $H_m$  be defined by equation (3.2). Then  $H_m$  is upper block Hessenberg with block size 2 and the subdiagonal blocks satisfy*

$$H_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1,$$

while

$$H_{mm} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ * & \times \end{bmatrix}.$$

In addition, the matrix  $K_m = H_m^{-1}$  is upper block Hessenberg with block size 2, the first diagonal block of  $K_m$  satisfies

$$K_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ * & \times \end{bmatrix},$$

while the subdiagonal blocks of  $K_m$  satisfy

$$K_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \times \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

*Proof* We begin by illustrating the statement of the lemma in the case of  $m = 3$  where the sparsity patterns of  $H_m$  and  $K_m$  are given by

$$H_m = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ * & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & * & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & & * & \times \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad K_m = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ * & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ * & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & * & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}.$$

The fact that  $H_m$  is upper block Hessenberg can be extracted from the discussion in Section 2. We will now show why the subdiagonal blocks satisfy

$$H_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This phenomenon was first explained by Simoncini [26] in terms of the KPIK algorithm<sup>1</sup>. Here we provide a proof in terms of the matrices  $W_m$  and  $V_m$ . We begin by examining the subdiagonal block  $H_{21}$ . By definition,  $v_1 = \alpha w_1$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $Av_1 = \alpha AB = \alpha w_3$ . Therefore,  $Av_1 \in \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  and  $h_{41} = 0$ . Similarly,  $v_2 = \beta w_1 + \gamma w_2$  for some  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ . Hence,  $Av_2 = \gamma B + 0 \cdot A^{-1}B + \beta AB \in \text{span}\{w_1, w_2, w_3\}$ . Therefore,  $Av_2 \in \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  and  $h_{42} = 0$ . This explains why

$$H_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In general, we have  $v_i \in \text{span}\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_i\}$  for all  $i$ . If  $i \in \{1, 3, 5, \dots\}$ , then  $Aw_i = w_{i+2}$ , and  $Av_i \in \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{i+2}\}$ . If  $i \in \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$ , then  $Aw_i = w_{i-1}$ , but since  $Aw_{i-1} = w_{i+1}$  we have  $Av_i \in \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{i+1}\}$ . This explains the general structure of the subdiagonal blocks  $H_{j+1,j}$ .

We still have to prove that certain entries of  $H_m$  are nonzero. To this end, we first examine the matrix  $K_m$ . It is clear that

$$A^{-1}V_m = V_m K_m$$

<sup>1</sup> Jagels and Reichel [11] have proved a similar result for the symmetric positive definite case using orthogonal Laurent polynomials.



However, since  $A$  and  $H_m$  are similar it is clear that

$$K(A, B) = \mathbb{R}^n \Leftrightarrow K(H_m, e_1) = \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Therefore,  $W_m(H_m, e_1)$  is nonsingular and its diagonal entries must be nonzero. Now, the key is to notice that every element on the diagonal of  $W_m(H_m, e_1)$  is a product of certain entries from either  $H_m$  or  $K_m$ . We must have

$$K_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ * & \times \end{bmatrix},$$

or the second diagonal entry of  $W_m$  is not sure to be nonzero. Similarly, it follows that

$$H_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} * & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad K_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \times \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

Finally, it remains to be shown that

$$H_{mm} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ * & \times \end{bmatrix}.$$

By examining the sparsity pattern of  $H_m$  we discover that it suffices to show that the last component of  $H_m^m e_1$  is nonzero. However, the last component of each of the  $2m-1$  vectors in the set

$$\{H_m^j e_1 : -(m-1) \leq j \leq m-1\}$$

is zero, but together with the vector  $H_m^m e_1$  they span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This is only possible if the last component of  $H_m^m e_1$  is nonzero.  $\square$

Lemma 3.1 characterizes the sparsity pattern for the matrix  $H_m$  generated by the EKSM as well as the sparsity pattern for the inverse matrix  $K_m$ . On the other hand, if we can find matrices  $H_m$  and  $K_m$  such that  $H_m K_m = I_n$  and  $H_m$  and  $K_m$  have these sparsity patterns, then not only is

$$W_m(H_m, e_1) = [w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots \ w_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

nonsingular, but more importantly

$$\text{span}\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_i\} = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_i\}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

because  $W_m(H_m, e_1)$  is upper triangular. In particular, we find that

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(H_m, e_1) = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{2j-1}, e_{2j}\}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

We now impose the extra condition that  $A$  is symmetric positive definite. Let  $H_m = L_m L_m^T$  be the Cholesky factorization of  $H_m = V_m^T A V_m$ . Lemma 3.2 describes the sparsity pattern for  $L_m$  and the inverse matrix  $T_m = L_m^{-1}$ .



**Lemma 3.2** Let  $n = 2m$  be an even positive integer and let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be symmetric positive definite. Let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and assume  $K(A, B) = \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $W_m$  and  $V_m$  be as in Lemma 3.1. Let  $H_m = L_m L_m^T$  denote the Cholesky factorization of  $H_m = V_m^T A V_m$ . Then  $L_m$  is a lower block bidiagonal matrix with block size 2 and

$$L_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} * & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1, \quad L_{mm} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

In addition,  $T_m = L_m^{-1}$  is a lower block diagonal matrix with block size 2 and

$$T_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}, \quad T_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \times \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

Lemma 3.2 states that  $L_m$  and  $T_m$  inherit their sparsity patterns from the lower half of  $H_m$  and  $K_m$ . We illustrate this by displaying the case of  $m = 3$ , where

$$L_m = \begin{bmatrix} + & & & & & \\ \times & + & & & & \\ * & \times & + & & & \\ \hline & & \times & + & & \\ & & * & \times & + & \\ \hline & & & & * & \times & + \\ & & & & & * & + \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad T_m = \begin{bmatrix} + & & & & & \\ * & + & & & & \\ \times & + & & & & \\ * & \times & + & & & \\ \hline & & \times & + & & \\ & & * & \times & + & \\ \hline & & & & \times & + \\ & & & & * & \times & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

The diagonal entries of  $L_m$  are positive simply because  $L_m$  is the Cholesky factor for the symmetric positive definite matrix  $H_m$ .

*Proof* We begin by examining the matrix  $L_m$ . The matrix  $H_m$  is banded with a lower bandwidth of 2. Therefore,  $L_m$  has a lower bandwidth of 2. We emphasize this by writing

$$L_m = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & & & & & \\ L_{21} & \ddots & & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & & L_{m,m-1} & L_{mm} & \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ 0 & \times \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

Now, since  $H_m = L_m L_m^T$  and  $L_m$  is lower block bidiagonal, we have  $H_{j+1,j} = L_{j+1,j} L_{jj}$ . It follows that

$$L_{j+1,j} = H_{j+1,j} L_{jj}^{-T} = \begin{bmatrix} * & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} + & \times \\ 0 & + \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} * & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

Finally, by examining the lower right corner of the identity  $H_m = L_m L_m^T$  we discover that

$$L_{mm} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

We now consider the structure of  $T_m = L_m^{-1}$ . In general, if  $L$  is a nonsingular lower triangular matrix then  $T = L^{-1}$  is a dense lower triangular matrix. However, in our

case  $T_m$  inherits its sparsity pattern from  $K_m$ . As an illustration we exhibit the case of  $m = 3$ , where

$$T_m^T T_m = \begin{bmatrix} + \times & \times \times & \times \times \\ + & \times \times & \times \times \\ \times & + \times & \times \times \\ \times & \times & + \times \\ \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} + & & & & \\ \times & + & & & \\ \times & \times & + & & \\ \times & \times & \times & + & \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & + \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & * & & & \\ * & \times & \times & * & \\ \times & \times & \times & & \\ * & \times & \times & \times & * \\ \times & \times & \times & & \\ & & & \times & \times \\ & & & * & \times \end{bmatrix} = K_m.$$

Now, the key is to exploit the fact that the diagonal entries of  $T_m$  are nonzero. Starting with the last row of this identity and working upwards we deduce that the sparsity patterns of  $T_m$  and the lower triangular part of  $K_m$  are identical. This completes the proof.  $\square$

It is clear that these patterns impose severe conditions on the entries of  $L_m$ . Specifically, since  $I_n = L_m T_m$  and  $L_m$  and  $T_m$  are both lower block diagonal, we must have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = I_{j+1,j} = L_{j+1,j} T_{jj} + L_{j+1,j+1} T_{j+1,j} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ \times & + \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ \times & + \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \times \\ 0 & \times \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \times \\ 0 & \times \end{bmatrix}.$$

By considering entry (1,1) of this equality we see that the first row of  $L_{j+1,j}$  must necessarily be orthogonal to the first column of  $T_{jj} = L_{jj}^{-1}$ . On the other hand, we have the following lemma.

**Lemma 3.3** *Let  $n = 2m$  be an even positive integer and let*

$$L_{jj} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

*Let  $(x_j, y_j)^T$  be the solution of*

$$L_{jj} \begin{bmatrix} x_j \\ y_j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1,$$

*and let  $L_{j+1,j} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  be given by*

$$L_{j+1,j} = \gamma_j \begin{bmatrix} y_j & -x_j \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \gamma_j \neq 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

*Then the matrix  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  given by*

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & & & & \\ L_{21} & \ddots & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & & L_{m,m-1} & L_{mm} \end{bmatrix}$$

is nonsingular and  $T = L^{-1}$  satisfies

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & & & \\ T_{21} & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & T_{m,m-1} & T_{mm} \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$T_{jj} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq m, \quad \text{and} \quad T_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & * \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}, \quad 1 \leq j < m.$$

*Proof* The proof is by induction on the number  $m$  of diagonal blocks. For  $m = 1$  there is little to show, as

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \Rightarrow L \in \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{R}) \wedge T = L^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

In general, we partition  $L_m$  as follows

$$L_m = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{L}_{11} & \\ \hat{L}_{21} & \hat{L}_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$\hat{L}_{11} = L_{11} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{L}_{22} = \begin{bmatrix} L_{22} & & & \\ L_{32} & L_{33} & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & L_{m,m-1} & L_{mm} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\hat{T}_m = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{T}_{11} & \\ \hat{T}_{21} & \hat{T}_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$\hat{T}_{ii} = \hat{L}_{ii}^{-1}, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{T}_{21} = -\hat{L}_{22}^{-1} \hat{L}_{21} \hat{L}_{11}^{-1}.$$

By assumption, the conclusion applies to  $\hat{L}_{22}$ , and  $\hat{T}_{22}$  has the correct structure. It remains to be shown that  $\hat{T}_{21}$  has the correct structure. We have

$$\hat{L}_{21} \hat{L}_{11}^{-1} = -\gamma_1 \begin{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & -x_1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ O_2 \\ \vdots \\ O_2 \end{bmatrix} L_{11}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ O_2 \\ \vdots \\ O_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \quad O_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

because, by construction, the first row of  $L_{21}$  is orthogonal to the first column of  $L_{11}^{-1}$ . The proof is completed by exploiting the structure of the first column of  $\hat{L}_{22}^{-1}$ .  $\square$

The following corollary is an immediate consequence of the sparsity patterns of  $L_m$  and  $T_m$ .

**Corollary 3.1** *Let  $n = 2m$  be an even positive integer and let  $L_m$  and  $T_m$  be as in Lemma 3.3. If we define*

$$H_m = L_m L_m^T > 0, \quad \text{and} \quad K_m = H_m^{-1} = T_m^T T_m > 0,$$

*then  $H_m$  and  $K_m$  are block tridiagonal with block size 2, and*

$$H_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} * & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1, \quad H_{mm} = \begin{bmatrix} + & * \\ * & + \end{bmatrix},$$

*and*

$$K_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} + & * \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}, \quad K_{j+1,j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \times \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m-1.$$

We illustrate the statement of Corollary 3.1 in the case of  $m = 3$  where

$$H_m = \begin{bmatrix} + & \times & * & & & \\ \times & + & \times & & & \\ * & \times & + & \times & * & \\ & & \times & + & \times & \\ & & * & \times & + & * \\ & & & & * & + \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad K_m = \begin{bmatrix} + & * & & & & \\ * & + & \times & * & & \\ \times & + & \times & & & \\ * & \times & + & \times & * & \\ & & \times & + & \times & \\ & & & * & \times & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

The diagonal entries are positive simply because  $H_m$  and  $K_m$  are symmetric positive definite, a property inherited from the original matrix  $A$ .

It is clear that the matrix  $W_m(H_m, e_1)$  satisfies

$$W_m(H_m, e_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ * & \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & * & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & * & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & * & \times & \times \\ & & & & * & \times \\ & & & & & * \end{bmatrix},$$

which implies that

$$\mathbf{EK}_j(H_m, e_1) = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{2j-1}, e_{2j}\}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

We are finally ready to prove Theorem 3.1 in the general case.

*Proof* Consider Algorithm 1 which produces a sequence of matrices  $\{A_j\}_{j=1}^m$ . We claim that  $A = A_m$  realizes the given residual curve. Each of the matrices  $L_j$  satisfies Lemma 3.3. It follows, that  $A_j \in \mathbb{R}^{2j \times 2j}$  is symmetric positive definite and the matrix  $W_j(A_j, e_1^{(2j)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{2j \times 2j}$  given by

$$W_j(A_j, e_1^{(2j)}) = \begin{bmatrix} e_1^{(2j)} & A_j^{-1} e_1^{(2j)} & A_j e_1^{(2j)} & A_j^{-2} e_1^{(2j)} & \dots & A_j^{j-1} e_1^{(2j)} & A_j^{-j} e_1^{(2j)} \end{bmatrix}$$

is upper triangular with nonzero diagonal entries, regardless of the choices made for  $\gamma_i > 0$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, j-1$ . The matrices  $X_j$  are well defined and have full rank, simply because  $A_j$  is positive definite and

$$\text{Ran } X_j = K(A_j, e_1^{(2j)}) = \mathbb{R}^{2j}.$$

In addition, we see that  $X_j$  is in fact the  $j$ th approximation returned by the EKSM when applied to the Lyapunov matrix equation

$$AX + XA^T = e_1 e_1^T,$$

where  $A = A_m$ . If  $r < m$ , then the corresponding residual  $R(X_j)$  satisfies

$$\|R(X_j)\|_F = \sqrt{2} \|A_{j+1,j} E_j^T X_j\|_F,$$

where  $E_j$  consists of the last two columns of the  $2j$  by  $2j$  identity matrix  $I_{2j}$ . Now, since

$$A_{j+1,j} = L_{j+1,j} L_{jj}^T = \gamma_j \begin{bmatrix} y_j & -x_j \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} + & * \\ 0 & + \end{bmatrix} = \gamma_j \begin{bmatrix} * & \times \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

it follows that the first row of  $A_{j+1,j} E_j^T X_j$  is a nontrivial linear combination of the last two rows of the nonsingular matrix  $X_j$ . Therefore, there exists a unique  $\gamma_j > 0$ , such that

$$\|R(X_j)\|_F = r_j.$$

□

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**Algorithm 1** Construction of  $A_m$ 


---

1: **for**  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$  **do**

2: Choose  $L_{jj} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  such that

$$L_{jj} = \begin{bmatrix} + & 0 \\ * & + \end{bmatrix}.$$

3: Define

$$L_j = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & & & & \\ L_{21} & \ddots & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & L_{j,j-1} & L_{jj} \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_j = L_j L_j^T.$$

4: **if**  $j < m$  **then**

5: Let  $X_j$  be the solution of

$$A_j X_j + X_j A_j^T = e_1^{(2j)} e_1^{(2j)T}.$$

6: Let  $[x_j \ y_j]^T$  be the solution of

$$L_{jj} \begin{bmatrix} x_j \\ y_j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and define

$$L_{j+1,j} = \gamma_j \begin{bmatrix} y_j & -x_j \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $\gamma_j > 0$  is the unique positive real number, such that

$$\|R(X_j)\|_F = r_j.$$

7: **end if**

8: **end for**

---

The proof of Theorem 3.1 is constructive and a MATLAB implementation is available from the author by request. However, numerically Algorithm 1 is highly

sensitive to the choices made when selecting the diagonal blocks of  $L_m$ . In particular, given a residual curve and a positive number  $\nu$  we can always find a symmetric positive definite matrix  $A$  which reproduces the residual curve and satisfies

$$\kappa_2(A) \geq \nu.$$

This follows immediately from the fact that we are free to choose  $L_{11}$  and Cauchy's interlacing theorem which ensures that

$$\kappa_2(A) = \kappa_2(A_m) \geq \kappa_2(A_{11}) = \kappa_2(L_{11}L_{11}^T).$$

It follows, that even an ill-conditioned matrix  $A$  can generate a rapidly decreasing, but positive residual curve. Refining Algorithm 1 to the point where  $\kappa_2(A_m)$  is minimal is an open question.

## 4 Conclusion

We have shown that any positive residual curve is possible for the extended Krylov subspace method (EKSM) for the Lyapunov equation  $AX + XA^T + BB^T = 0$ , where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is symmetric negative definite and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies  $K(A, B) = \mathbb{R}^n$ . The algorithm is well defined whenever  $A$  is negative definite, but this condition does not ensure that the residual curve decreases rapidly or monotonically to zero. Theorems guaranteeing such behavior must necessarily impose additional assumptions on  $A$  and  $B$ .

## Acknowledgments

This work is reminiscent of the analysis of GMRES for standard linear systems by Greenbaum, Pták and Strakoš [9] and an early copy of the manuscript was entitled "Any positive residual curve is possible for the extended Krylov subspace method for Lyapunov matrix equations" in recognition of their work. Size considerations ultimately lead to the selection of the current title. The author would like to thank the two anonymous referees as well as Bo Kågström whose comments allowed him to improve the presentation. The work is supported by eSENCE, a collaborative e-Science programme funded by the Swedish Research Council within the framework of the strategic research areas designated by the Swedish Government. In addition, support has been provided by the Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research under the frame program A3 02:128 and the EU Mål 2 Project UMIT.

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