



Introduction to Krylov Subspace Methods

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Model Problems

1D elliptic boundary value problem

$$-u''(x) = f(x), x \in [0, 1]$$

$$u(0) = g_0, u(1) = g_1$$

2D elliptic boundary value problem

$$\Omega = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$$

$$\underbrace{-\Delta u(x, y)}_{-u_{xx}(x, y) - u_{yy}(x, y)} = f(x, y), (x, y) \in \Omega$$

$$u(x, y) = g(x, y), (x, y) \in \partial\Omega$$

3D elliptic boundary value problem

$$-\Delta u = f \text{ in } [0, 1]^3 + \text{b.c.}$$

Discretization using Finite Differences

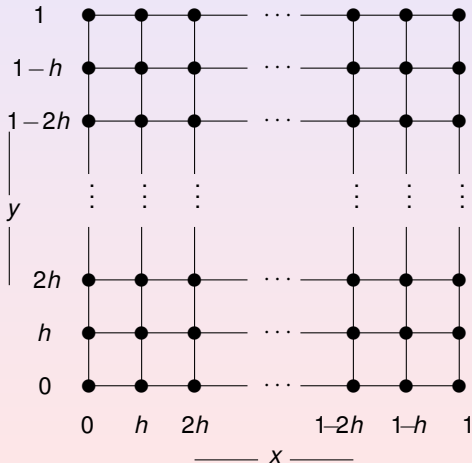
1D problem: $h = \frac{1}{N+1}$. $[0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega_h = \{0, h, 2h, \dots, 1-h, 1\}$



2D problem:

$\Omega = [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \Omega_h =$

$\{(k, l)h : k, l = 0, \dots, N+1\}$



1D boundary value problem

Differential equation

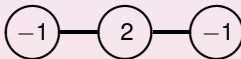
$$-y''(x) = f(x), \quad y(0) = g_0, \quad y(1) = g_1$$

↓

Difference equation

$$\frac{-u_{i-1} + 2u_i - u_{i+1}}{h^2} = f_i, \quad u_0 = g_0, \quad u_{N+1} = g_1, \quad \text{where } u_i \equiv u(ih) \quad \forall i$$

3-point stencil



$$T_h = \frac{1}{h^2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & & & \\ -1 & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & -1 & \\ & & -1 & 2 & \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow T_h u = f.$$

2D boundary value problem

Differential equation

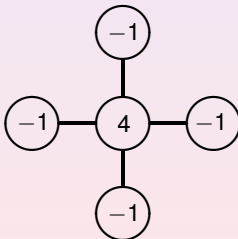
$$-\Delta y(x, y) = f(x, y), \text{ in } \Omega = [0, 1]^2, \quad y = g \text{ on } \partial\Omega$$

↓

Difference equation

$$\frac{-u_{i-1,j} - u_{i,j-1} + 4u_{ij} - u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j+1}}{h^2} = f_{ij}$$

5-point-difference stencil



Linear system

$$A_h u = f$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & \cdots & * \\ * & * & & & \\ * & & * & & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ * & & & & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Gaussian elimination (LU decomposition) without pivoting yields

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} * & & & & 0 \\ * & * & & & \\ * & * & * & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ * & * & * & \cdots & * \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & \cdots & * \\ & * & * & \cdots & * \\ & & * & \ddots & * \\ & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & & & & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Factors are dense! Giant memory consumption and computation time!

Here. problem solvable by reordering

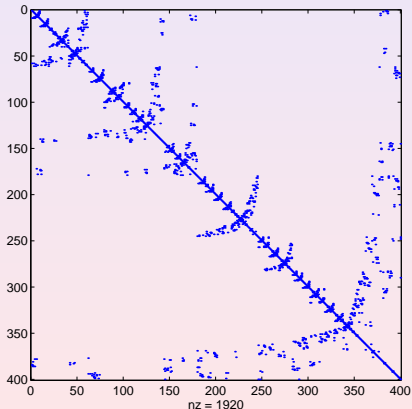
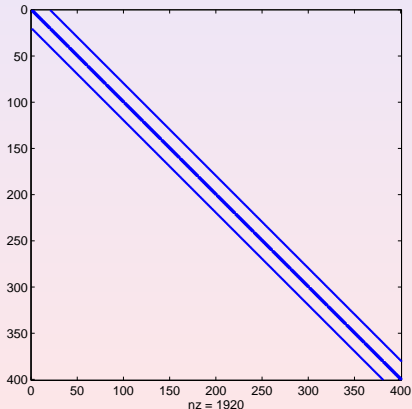
$$A \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} * & & & * \\ & * & & * \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ * & * & \dots & * & * \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} * & & & & 0 \\ & * & & & \\ & & * & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ * & * & * & \dots & * \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} * & & & * \\ & * & & * \\ & & * & * \\ & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & & & & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Unfortunately: Reordering does not always help!

1D/2D/3D BVP: matrix is sparse, symmetric positive definite

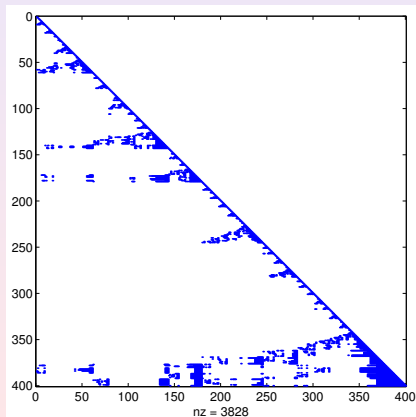
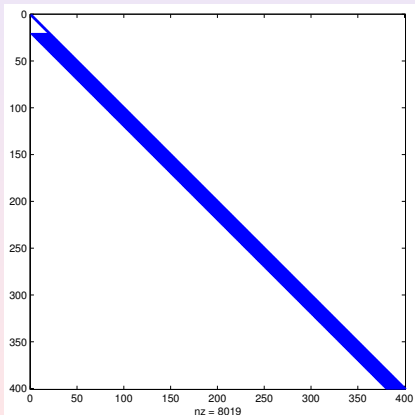
Adapted direct solver $A = LL^T$, Cholesky decomposition

Reorder matrix entries in advance (“(approximate) minimum degree”)



2D boundary value problem

triangular factors L from Cholesky decomposition



2D boundary value problem

h	problem size	comp. time[sec]	$nnz(L + L^T)/nnz(A)$
$\frac{1}{31}$	961	0.01	4.4
$\frac{1}{63}$	3969	0.01	6.2
$\frac{1}{127}$	$1.6 \cdot 10^4$	0.12	8.3
$\frac{1}{255}$	$6.5 \cdot 10^4$	0.45	11.1
$\frac{1}{511}$	$2.6 \cdot 10^5$	2.4	14.4
$\frac{1}{1023}$	$1.0 \cdot 10^6$	11.5	18.8
$\frac{1}{2047}$	$4.2 \cdot 10^6$	54.0	23.2

- computation time slightly worse than linear
- memory requirement also a little bit worse than linear
- $h = \frac{1}{2047}$ extremely small for 2D!

3D boundary value problem

h	problem size	comp. time[sec]	$nnz(L + L^T)/nnz(A)$
$\frac{1}{31}$	$3.0 \cdot 10^4$	1.5	67.4
$\frac{1}{63}$	$2.5 \cdot 10^5$	38.5	212.0
$\frac{1}{127}$	$2.0 \cdot 10^6$	crash, integer overflow	

- computation time drastically grows
- memory requirement is even worse
- $h = \frac{1}{63}$ is “normal” size for 3D!

Idea:

$$Ax = b$$

- 1 $x_0, r_0 = b - Ax_0$, build $v_1 = r_0$, choose $x_1 \in x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0\} = x_0 + \text{span}\{v_1\}$,
- 2 build $v_2 = Av_1$, choose $x_2 \in x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0\} = x_0 + \text{span}\{v_1, v_2\}$,
- 3 build $v_3 = Av_2$, choose $x_3 \in x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, A^2r_0\} = x_0 + \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$,
- 4 ...
- 5 build $v_k = Av_{k-1}$, choose $x_k \in x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\} = x_0 + \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$,

Questions

- How well can we approximate x by elements x_k from $x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$?
- How can we efficiently compute a suitable approximation?

$K_k(A, r_0) = \text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$ (Krylov subspace)

$$x_k \in x_0 + K_k(A, r_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow r_k = b - Ax_k = b - A \left(x_0 + \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} \alpha_l A^l r_0 \right) = \left(I + \sum_{l=1}^k \alpha_l A^l \right) r_0$$

$$I + \sum_{l=1}^k \alpha_l A^l = p_k(A)$$

is a polynomial of degree k w.r.t. A such that $p_k(0) = 1$.

Suppose that x_k is the “best” solution such that $\|r_k\|$ is minimal.

$$\Rightarrow \|r_k\| = \|p_k(A)r_0\| = \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)r_0\|$$

Suppose for simplicity that A is normal, i.e., we have a unitary matrix U such that

$$A = U\Lambda U^H, \text{ where } \Lambda = \text{diag}_j(\lambda_j)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \|r_k\|_2 &\leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)\|_2 \cdot \|r_0\|_2 \\ &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|Uq_k(\Lambda)U^H\|_2 \cdot \|r_0\|_2 \\ &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(\Lambda)\|_2 \cdot \|r_0\|_2 \\ &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)| \cdot \|r_0\|_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|r_k\|_2}{\|r_0\|_2} \leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)|.$$

In particular, if $A = A^H$, then A is normal and this bound applies.

Suppose that $A = A^H$ is positive definite. We have a unitary matrix U such that

$$A = U\Lambda U^H, \text{ where } \Lambda \text{ is diagonal, } \lambda_i > 0$$

$\|x\|_A = \sqrt{x^H A x} = \|A^{1/2}x\|_2$ is a norm

$$\begin{aligned} \|C\|_A &= \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Cx\|_A}{\|x\|_A} = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|A^{1/2}Cx\|_2}{\|A^{1/2}x\|_2} = \sup_{y \neq 0} \frac{\|A^{1/2}CA^{-1/2}y\|_2}{\|y\|_2} \\ &\Rightarrow \|C\|_A = \|A^{1/2}CA^{-1/2}\|_2. \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} (x - x_k)^H A (x - x_k) &= (x - x_k)^H A A^{-1} A (x - x_k) = (b - Ax_k)^H A^{-1} (b - Ax_k) \\ &\Rightarrow \|x - x_k\|_A = \|r_k\|_{A^{-1}}, \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that x_k is the “best” solution such that the error $\|x - x_k\|_A$ is minimal.

$$\Rightarrow \|x - x_k\|_A = \|r_k\|_{A^{-1}} = \|p_k(A)r_0\|_{A^{-1}} = \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)r_0\|_{A^{-1}}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow \|x - x_k\|_A &= \|r_k\|_{A^{-1}} = \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)r_0\|_{A^{-1}} \\
 &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|A^{-1/2}q_k(A)r_0\|_2 \\
 &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)A^{-1/2}r_0\|_2 \\
 &\leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)\|_2 \cdot \|A^{-1/2}r_0\|_2 \\
 &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|Uq_k(\Lambda)U^H\|_2 \cdot \|r_0\|_{A^{-1}} \\
 &= \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)| \cdot \|x - x_0\|_A
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\|x - x_k\|_A}{\|x - x_0\|_A} \leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)|.$$

$$x_k \in x_0 + K_k(A, r)$$

Summary so far:

- $A = U\Lambda U^H$ normal, $\|b - Ax_k\|_2$ minimal

$$\frac{\|r_k\|_2}{\|r_0\|_2} \leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)|.$$

- $A = U\Lambda U^H$ s.p.d., $\|x - x_k\|_A$ minimal

$$\frac{\|x - x_k\|_A}{\|x - x_0\|_A} \leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)|.$$

- $A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$ simple, $\|b - Ax_k\|_2$ minimal

$$\frac{\|r_k\|_2}{\|r_0\|_2} \leq \|V\|_2 \|V^{-1}\|_2 \cdot \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_i |q_k(\lambda_i)|.$$

- General case, $\|b - Ax_k\|_2$ minimal. Not more than

$$\frac{\|r_k\|_2}{\|r_0\|_2} \leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \|q_k(A)\|_2.$$

If the eigenvalues are contained in a line segment $[\alpha, \beta]$ in \mathbb{C} that does not include the origin, then (transformed and normalized) Chebyshev polynomials are optimal.

$$c_k(x) = \cos(k \arccos x)$$

Choose $q_k(x) = \frac{c_k(Lx)}{c_k(L0)}$, where $L : [\alpha, \beta] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$.

- $A = U\Lambda U^H$ normal, $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in [\alpha, \beta]$ not including 0, $\kappa = \max |\alpha|, |\beta| / \min |\alpha|, |\beta|$

$$\frac{\|r_k\|_2}{\|r_0\|_2} \leq 2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1} \right)^k.$$

- $A = U\Lambda U^H$ s.p.d., $\kappa = \max_i \lambda_i / \min_i \lambda_i$

$$\frac{\|x - x_k\|_A}{\|x - x_0\|_A} \leq 2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1} \right)^k.$$

- A general

$$\mathcal{F}(A) = \{x^H A x : \|x\|_2 = 1\} \text{ (field of values)}$$

eigenvalues are always inside $\mathcal{F}(A)$

$\mathcal{F}(A)$ is convex, but generally not the convex hull of the eigenvalues.

Suppose that $\mathcal{F}(A) \subset D(c, \rho)$ not including the origin

$$\frac{\|r_k\|_2}{\|r_0\|_2} \leq 2 \left(\frac{\rho}{|c|} \right)^k.$$

- Further approximation results based on ellipses, Faber polynomials, ϵ -pseudospectra.

Even in the case of Chebyshev polynomials the bounds are not optimal, isolated eigenvalues or clusters of isolated eigenvalues can be treated separately leading to an improved bound.

Example. A s.p.d. $\lambda_{n-p+1} = \dots = \lambda_n$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\|X - X_k\|_A}{\|X - X_0\|_A} &\leq \min_{q_k(0)=1} \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |q_k(\lambda_i)| \leq \max_{i=1, \dots, n} \frac{|c_{k-p}(L\lambda_i)|}{|c_{k-p}(L0)|} \cdot \frac{|\lambda_n - \lambda_i|^p}{|\lambda_n|^p} \\ &\leq \max_{i=1, \dots, n-p} \frac{|c_{k-p}(L\lambda_i)|}{|c_{k-p}(L0)|} \cdot 1, \end{aligned}$$

where $c_{k-p}(LX)$ is the optimal Chebyshev polynomial with respect to $L : [\lambda_1, \lambda_{n-p}] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|X - X_k\|_A}{\|X - X_0\|_A} \leq 2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{\hat{\kappa}} - 1}{\sqrt{\hat{\kappa}} + 1} \right)^{k-p}, \text{ where } \hat{\kappa} = \frac{\lambda_{n-p}}{\lambda_1}.$$

Suppose we wish to build r_0, Ar_0, A^2r_0, \dots to form $\text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$. Then we preferably would like to have an orthonormal basis of this space.

Method by Gram-Schmidt:

0. $h_{10} = \|r_0\|_2, v_1 = r_0/h_{10}$

1. build $q = Av_1$ and orthogonalize q against v_1

$$q := q - v_1 h_{11}, \text{ where } h_{11} = v_1^H q.$$

$$h_{21} = \|q\|_2, v_2 = q/h_{21}$$

2. build $q = Av_2$ and orthogonalize q against v_1, v_2

$$q := q - v_1 h_{12} - v_2 h_{22}, \text{ where } h_{12} = v_1^H q, h_{22} = v_2^H q.$$

$$h_{32} = \|q\|_2, v_3 = q/h_{32}$$

3. ...

k. build $q = Av_{k-1}$ and orthogonalize q against v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}

$$q := q - v_1 h_{1,k-1} - \dots - v_{k-1} h_{k-1,k-1}, \text{ where } h_{1,k-1} = v_1^H q, \dots, h_{k-1,k-1} = v_{k-1}^H q.$$

$$h_{k,k-1} = \|q\|_2, v_k = q/h_{k,k-1}$$

- Gram-Schmidt's method successively forms an orthonormal basis v_1, \dots, v_k of $\text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$.
- Numerically it is more advisable to overwrite q after each update step by its projected update (modified Gram-Schmidt)

Arnoldi's method = modified Gram-Schmidt applied to $\{r_0, Ar_0, A^2r_0, \dots\}$

r_0 given, $h_{10} = \|r_0\|_2$, $v_1 = r_0/h_{10}$

for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$q = Av_k$

for $l = 1, \dots, k$

$h_{lk} = v_l^H q$

$q := q - v_l h_{lk}$

end

$h_{k+1,k} = \|q\|_2$

$v_{k+1} = q/h_{k+1,k}$

end

A different look at Arnoldi's method. Recall that

$$\begin{aligned}
 Av_k - v_1 h_{1k} - \dots - v_k h_{kk} &= q_{final} = v_{k+1} h_{k+1,k} \\
 \Rightarrow Av_k &= [v_1, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}] \begin{bmatrix} h_{1k} \\ \vdots \\ h_{kk} \\ h_{k+1,k} \end{bmatrix}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Successively applied, column by column this yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 A \underbrace{[v_1, \dots, v_k]}_{V_k} &= \underbrace{[v_1, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}]}_{V_{k+1}} \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & \dots & \dots & h_{1k} \\ h_{21} & \ddots & & \vdots \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & h_{kk} \\ \hline 0 & & & h_{k+1,k} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \Leftrightarrow AV_k &= V_{k+1} \begin{bmatrix} & & H_k & \\ \hline 0 & \dots & 0 & h_{k+1,k} \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow AV_k = V_{k+1} \underline{H}_k
 \end{aligned}$$

- This method is known as Arnoldi's method when computing eigenvalue and invariant subspace information from H_k to obtain approximate eigenvalues (Ritz values) and approximate invariant subspaces for A .

$$H_k x = \mu x \Rightarrow A(V_k x) = \mu(V_k x) + v_{k+1} h_{k+1,k} x_k$$

- H_k, \underline{H}_k are called upper Hessenberg matrices
- Arnoldi's method can be used to compute the minimum residual solution. This leads to the GMRES method.

Suppose that $r_0 = b - Ax_0$ is given for Arnoldi's method.

Then $x_k \in x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$ is equivalent to

$$x_k = x_0 + V_k d \text{ for some suitable } d$$

$$\Rightarrow r_k = b - Ax_k = b - Ax_0 - AV_k d = r_0 - V_{k+1} \underline{H}_k d = V_{k+1} (h_{10} e_1 - \underline{H}_k d)$$

$$\Rightarrow \|r_k\|_2 = \|h_{10} e_1 - \underline{H}_k d\|_2.$$

- we can minimize $\|r_k\|_2$ by minimizing $\|h_{10} e_1 - \underline{H}_k d\|_2$
- The latter problem is easily solved by a *QR* decomposition since \underline{H}_k is almost upper triangular
- When the *QR* decomposition is performed, $h_{10} e_1$ is updated and its $(k + 1)$ -st component (in modulus) refers to $\|r_k\|_2$

x_0 $r_0 = b - Ax_0$ given, $h_{10} = \|r_0\|_2$, $v_1 = r_0/h_{10}$, $z = h_{10}e_1$.

for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$q = Av_k$$

for $l = 1, \dots, k$

$$h_{lk} = v_l^H q$$

$$q := q - v_l h_{lk}$$

end

$$h_{k+1,k} = \|q\|_2$$

$$v_{k+1} = q/h_{k+1,k}$$

proceed with the QR decomposition of $\|z - \underline{H}_k d\|_2$:

1) Apply plane rotations from previous steps to the most recent column k of H_k

2) Compute a plane rotation to eliminate $h_{k+1,k}$ from the pair $(h_{kk}, h_{k+1,k})^T$

3) apply this rotation also to $(z_k, z_{k+1})^T$

end

Compute d from $\|z - \underline{H}_k d\|_2$, where \underline{H}_k is upper triangular

$$x_{final} = x_0 + V_k d$$

- Typically GMRES is only run for a limited number of steps
- v_1, \dots, v_k need to be stored
- After, say m steps GMRES is stopped, x_{final} is computed and GMRES is restarted with $x_0 = x_{final}$ (restarted GMRES(m))

In theory we could update x_k simultaneously during Arnoldi's method

Let $\underline{H}_k = Q_k R_k$ be the QR decomposition,

$$\Rightarrow x_k = x_0 + V_k \underbrace{\underline{H}_k^+ h_{10}}_d e_1 = x_0 + (V_k R_k^{-1}) \underbrace{(Q_k^H h_{10})}_z e_1$$

If we compute the last column $p_k = V_k R_k^{-1} e_k$ successively, then

$$x_k = x_0 + V_k R_k^{-1} z = x_{k-1} + p_k z_k.$$

$$AV_k = V_{k+1}\underline{H}_k \Rightarrow V_k^H AV_k = V_k^H V_{k+1}\underline{H}_k = H_k$$

$$H_k = V_k^H AV_k, A = A^H \Rightarrow H_k = H_k^H$$

- If H_k is Hermitian, then H_k is already tridiagonal (Arnoldi is then called Lanczos)
- If $\underline{H}_k = Q_k R_k$, then the upper triangular part of R_k only consists of three bands in total

$$R_k = \begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & * & * & \\ 0 & & & * & \end{bmatrix}$$

- The Arnoldi method only selectively has to apply reorthogonalization
- MINRES does not require more than v_k, v_{k-1}, v_{k-2} .
- x_k can be updated using the additional search direction p_k .
- $p_k = V_k R_k^{-1} e_k$ requires a back substitution with R_k , only v_{k-2}, v_{k-1}, v_k are needed

$$x_k = x_0 + V_k R_k^{-1} z = x_{k-1} + p_k z_k.$$

$x_0, r_0 = b - Ax_0$ given, $h_{10} = \|r_0\|_2$, $v_1 = r_0/h_{10}$, $z = h_{10}e_1$.

for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$q = Av_k$$

$$q := q - v_{k-1}\bar{h}_{k,k-1}$$

$$h_{kk} = v_k^H q$$

$$q := q - v_k h_{kk}$$

$$h_{k+1,k} = \|q\|_2$$

$$v_{k+1} = q/h_{k+1,k}$$

proceed with the QR decomposition of $\|z - \underline{H}_k d\|_2$:

- 1) Apply plane rotations from step $k - 1, k - 2$ to the most recent column k of H_k
- 2) Compute a plane rotation to eliminate $h_{k+1,k}$ from the pair $(h_{kk}, h_{k+1,k})^T$
- 3) apply this rotation also to $(z_k, z_{k+1})^T$
- 4) Compute p_k
- 5) update x_k from x_{k-1}

end

$A = A^H$ positive definite $\Rightarrow H_k = H_k^T$ positive definite.

- Instead of computing the minimal solution from $\|h_{10}e_1 - \underline{H_k}d\|_2$, we directly compute d from

$$h_{10}e_1 = H_k d$$

using Cholesky decomposition $L_k D_k L_k^H$ of H_k .

- Formally

$$x_k = x_0 + V_k \underbrace{H_k^{-1} h_{10} e_1}_d = x_0 + (V_k L_k^{-H}) (D_k^{-1} L_k^{-1} h_{10} e_1)$$

- The entries of $L_k^{-1} h_{10} e_1$ can be computed successively by forward substitution
- The columns $p_k = V_k L_k^{-H} e_k$ can be successively computed using back substitution. This only requires v_k, v_{k-1} , since L_k is bidiagonal.
- If x_{k-1} is already computed, then x_k is obtained from x_{k-1} via $x_k = x_{k-1} + \alpha_k p_k$, where α_k is the last row of $D_k^{-1} L_k^{-1} h_{10} e_1$

- the search directions p_k are A -orthogonal, since $L_k^{-1} V_k^H A V_k L_k^{-H} = L_k^{-1} H_k L_k^{-H} = D_k$.
- Solving $h_{10} e_1 = H_k d$ can be shown to minimize $\|x - x_k\|_A$.
- CG is usually stated differently based on minimizing a quadratic functional $\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^H A x - b^H x$.

x_0 initial guess, $r_0 = b - Ax_0$, $p_1 = r_0$, $\rho_0 = r_0^* r_0$
for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$z = Ap_k$$

$$\alpha_k = \rho_{k-1} / (p_k^* z)$$

$$x_k = x_{k-1} + \alpha_k p_k$$

$$r_k = r_{k-1} - \alpha_k z$$

$$\rho_k = r_k^* r_k$$

$$\beta_k = \rho_k / \rho_{k-1}$$

$$p_{k+1} = r_k + \beta_k p_k$$

end

- Iterative methods so far have dealt with $\text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$
- In the general unsymmetric case, GMRES requires to store the whole basis v_1, \dots, v_k of this Krylov subspace
- Only in the Hermitian case this sequence simplifies (MINRES, CG)
- Alternatively we can use a left Krylov subspace

$$\text{span}\{s_0, A^H s_0, \dots, (A^H)^{k-1} s_0\}.$$

- The use of two subspaces will allow to use short recurrences also in the unsymmetric case
- Unfortunately unstable
- Basis for these methods is the two-sided Lanczos method

- Main idea, successively compute two sequences $V_k = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k]$ and $W_k = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k]$ such that

$$W_k^H V_k = I, AV_k \approx V_k T_k, A^H W_k \approx W_k T_k^H,$$

where T_k is tridiagonal.

- The computation of these sequences is interlaced

0. r_0, s_0 are given, set $t_{10} = \|r_0\|_2$, $v_1 := r_0/t_{10}$, $t_{01} = v_1^H s_0$, $w_1 := s_0/t_{01}$.

1. $q := Av_1$, bi-orthogonalize q against v_1 , i.e.,

$$q := q - v_1 t_{11}, \text{ where } t_{11} = w_1^H q$$

After that we have $w_1^H q = 0$.

$z := A^H w_1$, bi-orthogonalize z against w_1 , i.e.,

$$z := z - w_1 \bar{t}_{11}$$

After that we have $z^H v_1 = 0$.

$t_{21} = \|q\|_2$, $v_2 := q/t_{21}$, $t_{12} = v_2^H z$, $w_2 := z/t_{12}$.

2. $q := Av_2$, bi-orthogonalize q against v_1, v_2 , i.e.,

$$q := q - v_1 t_{12} - v_2 t_{22}, \text{ where } t_{22} = w_2^H q$$

After that we have $w_1^H q = w_2^H q = 0$.

$z := A^H w_2$, bi-orthogonalize z against w_1, w_2 , i.e.,

$$z := z - w_1 \bar{t}_{21} - w_2 \bar{t}_{22}$$

After that we have $z^H v_1 = z^H v_2 = 0$.

$t_{32} = \|q\|_2$, $v_3 := q/t_{32}$, $t_{23} = v_3^H z$, $w_3 := z/t_{23}$.

- k . At step k : compute v_{k+1}, w_{k+1} and $t_{k+1,k}, \bar{t}_{k,k+1}$ from

$$Av_k = [v_{k-1}, v_k, v_{k+1}] \begin{bmatrix} t_{k-1,k} \\ t_{k,k} \\ t_{k+1,k} \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^H w_k = [w_{k-1}, w_k, w_{k+1}] \begin{bmatrix} \bar{t}_{k,k-1} \\ \bar{t}_{k,k} \\ \bar{t}_{k,k+1} \end{bmatrix},$$

where $w_i^H v_j = \delta_{ij}$.

- Choose $x_k \in x_0 + \text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$, i.e., $x_k = x_0 + V_k d$ and set $r_0 = b - Ax_0$.
- $r_k = b - Ax_k = b - Ax_0 - AV_k d = r_0 - V_{k+1} \underline{T}_k = V_{k+1} (t_{10} e_1 - \underline{T}_k d)$

Iterative methods derived from this choice:

- (a) BiCG: Define d by solving

$$\underline{T}_k d = t_{10} e_1 \Rightarrow x_k = x_0 + V_k \underline{T}_k^{-1} W_k^H r_0.$$

For the solution of the tridiagonal system, LU decomposition is used.

- (b) QMR: Define d by solving

$$\|t_{10} e_1 - \underline{T}_k d\|_2 = \min \Rightarrow x_k = x_0 + V_k \underline{T}_k^+ W_{k+1}^H r_0.$$

For the solution of the least squares system, QR decomposition is used.

- (c) CGS: variant of BiCG that does not require A^H
- (d) TFQMR: variant of QMR that does not require A^H
- (e) BiCGstab: variant of BiCG/CGS that does not require A^H and performs local minimization

- Although unstable, methods like QMR and BiCGstab work relatively well in practice
- All two-sided version allow for short recurrences
- Two sided versions can be used to set up structure-preserving iterative solvers

Example. Suppose that $A^H J = J A$ for some non-singular matrix J .

$$\Rightarrow (A^H)^k J v = J A^k v \Rightarrow \text{span}\{J v, A^H J v, \dots, (A^H)^k J v\} = J \text{span}\{v, A v, \dots, A^k v\}.$$

If we start with the some initial guess r_0 for the right Krylov subspace $\text{span}\{r_0, A r_0, \dots, A^k r_0\}$ and choose $s_0 = J r_0$, then the left Krylov space $\text{span}\{s_0, A^H s_0, \dots, (A^H)^k s_0\}$ is computed from the right one by multiplying with J .

$$\Rightarrow A V_k = V_{k+1} \underline{T}_k, \quad A^H J V_k = J V_{k+1} \begin{bmatrix} \overline{T}_k^H \\ (0 \cdots \overline{t}_{k,k+1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$V_k^H J V_k = I.$$

J -symmetry saves half of the work, since only the right Krylov subspace is needed

- Iterative methods presented here are

either based on Arnoldi's method and $\text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$

or on the two-sided Lanczos method and $\text{span}\{r_0, Ar_0, \dots, A^{k-1}r_0\}$,
 $\text{span}\{s_0, A^H r_0, \dots, (A^H)^{k-1}r_0\}$.

- Numerical methods

either minimize $\|e_1\|_{r_0} \|_2 - \underline{H}_k d\|_2$, resp. $\|e_1\|_{r_0} \|_2 - \underline{T}_k d\|_2$,

or solve $e_1 \|_{r_0} \|_2 = H_k d$, resp. $e_1 \|_{r_0} \|_2 = T_k d$.

- Approximation partially explained by polynomials and eigenvalue distribution
- Nothing is said about how the eigenvalue distribution could be improved
→ Preconditioning (next time)