SI231b: Matrix Computations

Lecture 23: State-of-the-art Iterative Methods: Krylov Subspace Methods

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Start-of-the-art Iterative Methods

The Jacobi, Gauss-Seidel, and SOR iteration are all *stationary iteration*, i.e., they all have the form

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{c},$$

where neither **B** nor **c** depends on k.

The convergence of stationary iteration cannot be guaranteed and often slow once converged (recall Lecture 22).

Start-of-the-art iterative methods belong to the category of Krylov subspace methods, where the approximate solution is searched in a low-dimensional subspace

$$\mathcal{K}_{\textit{k}}(\boldsymbol{A},\ \boldsymbol{b}) = \text{span}\left\{\boldsymbol{b},\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{b},\boldsymbol{A}^2\boldsymbol{b},\cdots,\boldsymbol{A}^{k-1}\boldsymbol{b}\right\}.$$

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Motivation: Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, its characteristic polynomial is given by

$$p_A(\lambda) = \det(\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = \lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1\lambda + c_0,$$

where $c_0 = (-1)^n \det(\mathbf{A})$.

The Cayley-Hamilton Theorem states that

$$p_A(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}^n + c_{n-1}\mathbf{A}^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1\mathbf{A} + c_0\mathbf{I} = 0.$$

For nonsingular A, this in turn gives

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = -\frac{(-1)^n}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \left(\mathbf{A}^{n-1} + c_{n-1} \mathbf{A}^{n-2} + \cdots + c_1 \mathbf{I} \right)$$

Therefore, the solution for $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is given by

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = -\frac{(-1)^n}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \left(c_1 \mathbf{b} + c_2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{b} + c_3 \mathbf{A}^2 \mathbf{b} + \cdots + \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{b} \right)$$

Krylov subspace methods compute the approximated solution from the low-dimensional subspace

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = \operatorname{span}\left\{\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{b}, \cdots, \mathbf{A}^{k-1}\mathbf{b}\right\}.$$

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Krylov Subspace Methods

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$$\mathcal{K}_1(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \subset \mathcal{K}_2(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \subset \mathcal{K}_3(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \subset \cdots \subset \mathcal{K}_n(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$$

The Krylov subspace methods compute the iterative solution successive from $\mathcal{K}_1(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}), \ \mathcal{K}_2(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}), \ \cdots$ with better approximation of $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

Better or optimal approximation often refers to some sort of projection, Krylov subspace methods are also called Krylov projection methods.

Krylov subspace methods can be distinguished in four different classes,

- ▶ Ritz-Galerkin approach: construct $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$ so that the residual $\mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k \perp \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b});$
- ightharpoonup minimum residual norm approach: compute $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$ so that the norm of the residual $\|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k\|_2$ is minimal over $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$;
- **Petrov-Galerkin** approach: find $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$ so that the residual $\mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k$ is orthogonal to some other k-dimensional subspace;
- ▶ minimum error norm approach: determine $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbf{A}^T \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$ so that $\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\|_2$ is minimal.

Widely Used Krylov Subspace Methods

Widely used Krylov subspace methods include

- ► conjugate gradient (CG) [1952]:
 - for symmetric positive definite systems;
 - Ritz-Galerkin type.
- ▶ minimal residual (MINRES) [1975]:
 - for symmetric indefinite systems;
 - minimum residual norm approach.
- generalized minimal residual (GMRES) [1986]:
 - for non-symmetric systems;
 - · minimum residual norm approach.

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Conjugate Gradient

Motivation: for symmetric positive definite (SPD) matrix **A**, the residual $\mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k$ should be orthogonal to $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$.

Some facts:

- 1. orthogonal residuals: $\mathbf{r}_i^T \mathbf{r}_k = 0$ for i < k
 - $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \to \mathbf{r}_k \in \mathcal{K}_{k+1}(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b});$
 - $\mathbf{r}_i \in \mathcal{K}_{i+1}(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \subset \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}).$
- 2. conjugate (**A**-orthogonal) update directions: $(\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_{i-1})^T \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{x}_k \mathbf{x}_{k-1}) = 0$ for i < k.

Can you show/prove this?

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Conjugate Gradient Iteration Algorithms

With the key properties introduced before, we have the CG iteration

CG Iteration:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_0 &= \mathbf{0}, \ \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{b}, \ \mathbf{d}_0 = \mathbf{b} \\ \text{while } \| r_k \| > \text{tol \& } k < \text{max_iter} \\ & \alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{r}_{k-1}}{\mathbf{d}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_{k-1}} \quad \text{step size of solution update} \\ & \mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_{k-1} \\ & \mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{r}_{k-1} - \alpha_k \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_{k-1} \\ & \beta_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{r}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{r}_{k-1}} \quad \text{step size of search direction update} \\ & \mathbf{d}_k = \mathbf{r}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{d}_{k-1} \quad \text{new search direction} \\ & k \leftarrow k + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Facts:

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{d}_0, \mathbf{d}_1, \dots, \mathbf{d}_{k-1}\}$$

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Convergence of Conjugate Gradient

Optimality of CG

Let CG be applied to an SPD system $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, then \mathbf{x}_k is the unique point in $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$ that minimizes $\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{A}}$, and the convergence of CG is monotonic, i.e.,

$$\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{A}} \leq \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{A}}.$$

Here $\|\mathbf{z}\|_{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{z}$ for arbitrary \mathbf{z} .

Can you prove this?

Convergence rate of CG

Let CG be applied to an SPD system $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{b}$ and \mathbf{A} has 2-norm condition number κ_* then

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{A}}}{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{A}}} \leq 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1}\right)^k$$

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Generalized Minimum Residual (GMRES)

Motivation:

CG only applies to symmetric positive definite problems, and the residual may not be monotonic decreasing.

At iteration k, we shall search $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$ such that $\|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k\|_2$ is minimal, i.e., we should solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k\|_2.$$

Denote $\mathbf{K}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}^{k-1}\mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}$ as the Krylov matrix, since $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$, then $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{K}_k\mathbf{c}$ with $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, then \mathbf{x}_k is given by solving the least square problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{c}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}_k \mathbf{c}\|_2.$$

However, this scheme is numerically unstable due to the ill-conditioning of \mathbf{K}_k (recall the power method).

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Mechanism of GMRES

Instead of using **b**, Ab, A^2b , \cdots as basis, we compute an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})$, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{q}_k\}.$$

Let $\mathbf{Q}_k = [\mathbf{q}_1, \ \mathbf{q}_2, \ \cdots, \ \mathbf{q}_k]$, then the least square problem becomes

$$\min_{\mathbf{c}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_k \mathbf{c}\|_2.$$

To summarize, we need

- 1. compute the orthonormal basis $\mathbf{q}_1, \ \mathbf{q}_2, \ \cdots, \ \mathbf{q}_k$ of $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \ \mathbf{b})$;
- 2. compute the QR factorization of \mathbf{AQ}_k to solve the least square problem.

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Arnoldi Iteration

Starting from $\mathbf{q}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|_2}$, the above two steps

- 1. QR factorization of the Krylov matrix \mathbf{K}_k ;
- 2. QR factorization of \mathbf{AQ}_k .

can be done simultaneously by the Arnoldi iteration $\mathbf{AQ}_k = \mathbf{Q}_{k+1} \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k$.

$$\mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & \cdots & h_{1k} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} & \cdots & \vdots \\ & h_{32} & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & h_{k,k-1} & h_{k,k} \\ & & & h_{k+1,k} \end{bmatrix}}_{\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k}$$

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Arnoldi Iteration

The Arnoldi iteration can be computed in a stable manner using modified Gram-Schmidt method,

Arnoldi Iteration:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{q}_1 &= \frac{\mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|_2} \\ \text{for } \mathbf{k} &= 1, \ 2, \ \cdots \\ \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{q}_k \\ \text{for } \mathbf{j} &= 1, \ 2, \ \cdots, \ \mathbf{k} \\ h_{j,k} &= \mathbf{q}_j^T \mathbf{v} \\ \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{v} - h_{j,k} \mathbf{q}_j \\ \text{end} \\ h_{k+1,k} &= \|\mathbf{v}\|_2 \\ \mathbf{q}_{k+1} &= \frac{\mathbf{v}}{h_{k+1,k}} \end{aligned}$$

Note: the Arnoldi iteration is a long-term recursion, i,e, the new vector should be orthogonal projected onto all previous basis vectors.

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From Arnoldi to Lanczos

From the Arnoldi iteration $\mathbf{AQ}_k = \mathbf{Q}_{k+1}\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k$, we observe that

$$\mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_k = \mathbf{H}_k,$$

where \mathbf{H}_k is a $k \times k$ matrix obtained by removing the last row of $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k$.

The eigenvalues of \mathbf{H}_k are called *Ritz values* or *Arnoldi eigenvalue estimates*, which are good approximation of the k largest eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} [Trefthen & Bau 97].

When **A** is symmetric, the Arnoldi iteration then becomes the Lanczos iteration that gives

$$\mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_k = \mathbf{T}_k,$$

where T_k is a tridiagonal matrix. Therefore, the Lanczos iteration is a *short-term* recurrence.

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Efficient GMRES Implementation and Convergence

At step k, the least square problem

$$\begin{split} \min_{\mathbf{c}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_k \mathbf{c}\|_2 &= \min_{\mathbf{c}} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Q}_{k+1} \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k \mathbf{c}\|_2 \\ &= \min_{\mathbf{c}} \|\mathbf{Q}_{k+1}^T \mathbf{b} - \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k \mathbf{c}\|_2 \\ &= \min_{\mathbf{c}} \left\| \|\mathbf{b}\|_2 \mathbf{e}_1 - \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k \mathbf{c} \right\|_2, \end{split}$$

with $\mathbf{e}_1 = [1, 0, \cdots, 0]^T$.

The least square problem is of size $(k+1) \times k$, and solving this least square problem using QR factorization takes only $\mathcal{O}(k^2)$ flops. (how and why?)

The convergence of GMRES is complicated to analyze, we omit the details but just give two useful conclusions:

▶ The GMRES converges monotoniclly, i.e.,

$$\|\mathbf{r}_{k+1}\|_2 \leq \|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2$$

► GMRES gives exact solution (without rounding-off error) at most n iterations, i.e., $\|\mathbf{r}_n\|_2 = 0$

Readings

You are supposed to read

Gene H. Golub and Charles F. Van Loan. Matrix Computations, Johns Hopkins University Press, 2013.

Chapter 11.2, 11.3.

► Lloyd N. Trefethen and David Bau III. Numerical Linear Algebra, SIAM, 1997.

Lecture 33, 35, 38

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Announcement

Our final exam takes places

- ▶ when: Dec. 23, 2021 from 10:15 to 12:15;
- ▶ where: Teaching Center 201;
- what: SI231b Matrix Computations;
- **how**: one page cheat-sheet of A4 size is allowed.

If you are interested to be a TA, you are welcome to contact me.

You are welcome to write useful suggestions/comments/feedback.

DO REMEMBER to submit your final report in time!

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