# Conjugate gradients method

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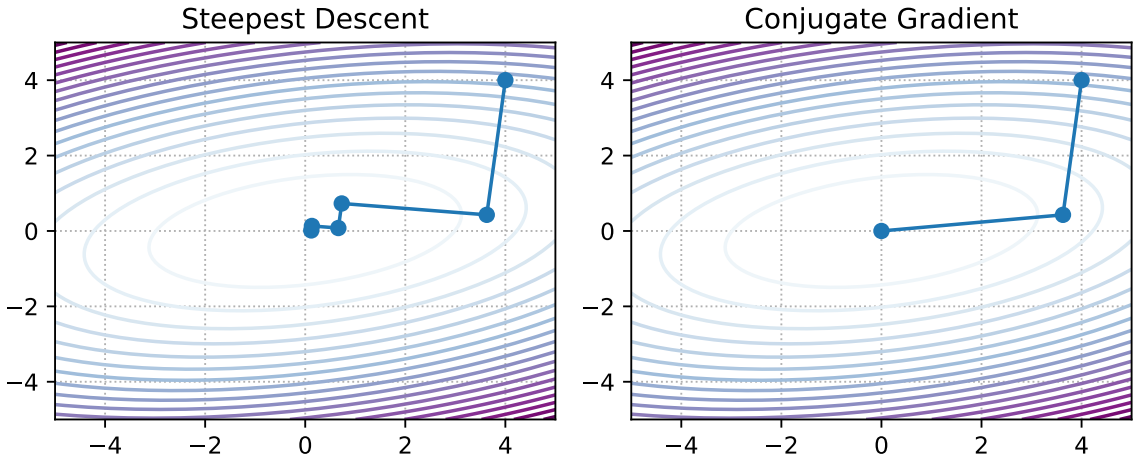
# Strongly convex quadratics

Consider the following quadratic optimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} x^\top A x - b^\top x + c, \text{ where } A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}. \quad (1)$$

Optimality conditions

$$Ax^* = b$$



# Exact line search aka steepest descent

$$\alpha_k = \arg\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(x_{k+1}) = \arg\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k))$$

More theoretical than practical approach. It also allows you to analyze the convergence, but often exact line search can be difficult if the function calculation takes too long or costs a lot. An interesting theoretical property of this method is that each following iteration is orthogonal to the previous one:

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Optimality conditions:

$$\nabla f(x_k)^T \nabla f(x_{k+1}) = 0$$

Optimal value for quadratics

$$\nabla f(x_k)^\top A(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k)) - \nabla f(x_k)^\top b = 0 \qquad \alpha_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_k)^T \nabla f(x_k)}{\nabla f(x_k)^T A \nabla f(x_k)}$$

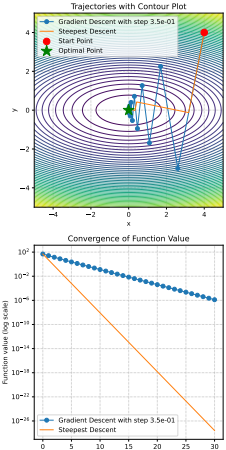



Figure 1: Steepest Descent

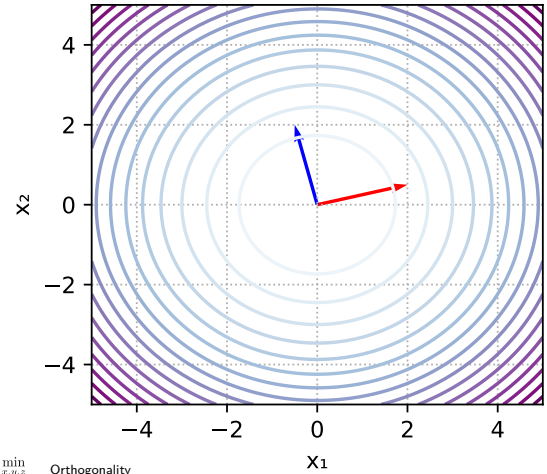
Open In Colab ♣

# Conjugate directions. $A$-orthogonality.

$v_1$ and $v_2$ are orthogonal

$v_1^T v_2 = 0.00$

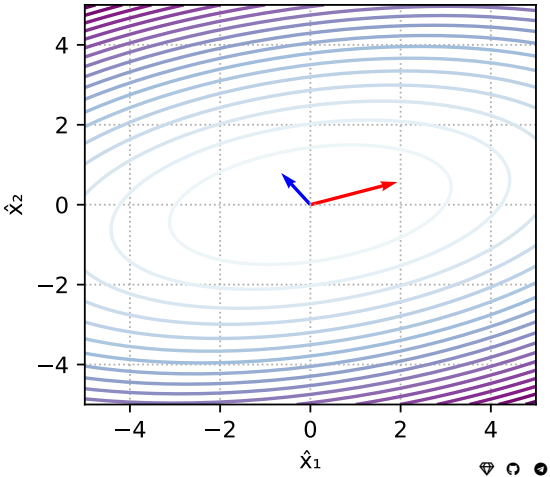
$v_1^T A v_2 = 1.19$




$\hat{v}_1$ and $\hat{v}_2$ are $A$-orthogonal

$\hat{v}_1^T \hat{v}_2 = -0.80$

$\hat{v}_1^T A \hat{v}_2 = -0.00$



# Conjugate directions. $A$-orthogonality.

Suppose, we have two coordinate systems and some quadratic function $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ix$ looks just like on the left part of Figure 2, while in other coordinates it looks like $f(\hat{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\hat{x}^T A\hat{x}$, where $A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$.

$$\frac{1}{2}x^T Ix \qquad\qquad \frac{1}{2}\hat{x}^T A\hat{x}$$

Since $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$:

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### $A$-orthogonal vectors

Vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called $A$-orthogonal (or $A$-conjugate) if

$$x^T Ay = 0 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad x \perp_A y$$

When $A = I$, $A$-orthogonality becomes orthogonality.

# Gram–Schmidt process

**Input:** $n$ linearly independent vectors $u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1}$.

**Output:** $n$ linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal $d_0, \ldots, d_{n-1}$.

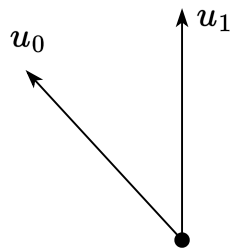


Figure 3: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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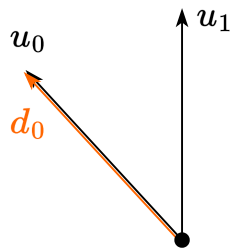


Figure 4: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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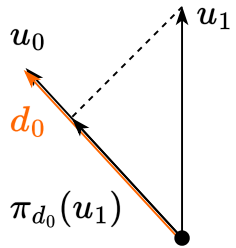


Figure 5: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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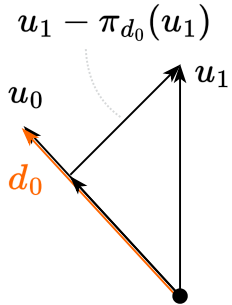


Figure 6: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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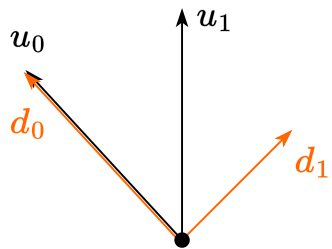


Figure 7: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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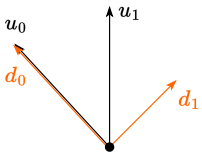


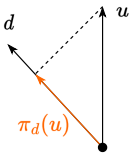


$$\pi_d(u) = \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\|_2^2} d$$

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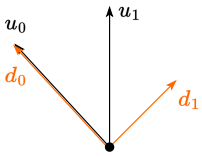


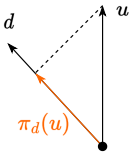


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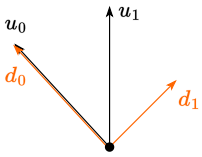


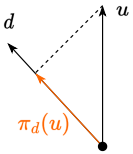


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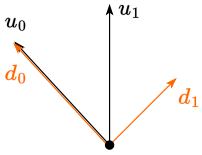


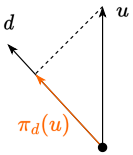


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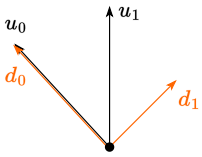


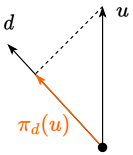


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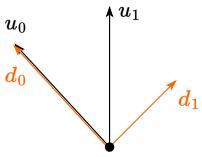


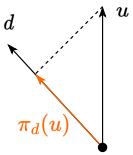


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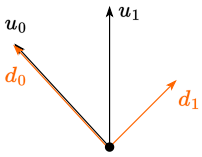


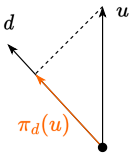


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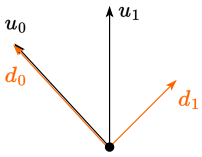


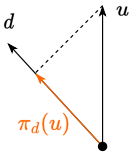


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$$d_k = u_k + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \beta_{ik} d_i \qquad \beta_{ik} = -\frac{\langle d_i, u_k \rangle}{\langle d_i, d_i \rangle} \tag{2}$$

# General idea

- In an isotropic $A = I$ world, the steepest descent starting from an arbitrary point in any $n$ orthogonal linearly independent directions will converge in $n$ steps in exact arithmetic. We attempt to construct the same procedure in the case $A \neq I$ using the concept of $A$-orthogonality.

# General idea

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- We will prove, that $\alpha_i$ and $d_i$ could be selected in a very efficient way (Conjugate Gradient method).

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5. Repeat steps 2-4 until $n$ directions are built, where $n$ is the dimension of space (dimension of $x$).

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Lemma 1. Linear independence of A-conjugate vectors.

If a set of vectors $d_1, \ldots, d_n$ - are $A$-conjugate (each pair of vectors is $A$-conjugate), these vectors are linearly independent. $A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$.

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Thus, $\alpha_j = 0$, for all other indices one has to perform the same process

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- Note also, that since $x_{k+1} = x_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i d_i$, we have

$$e_{k+1} = e_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i d_i. \tag{5}$$

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# Lemms for convergence

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Consider residual of the CD method at $k$ iteration $r_k$, then for any $i < k$:

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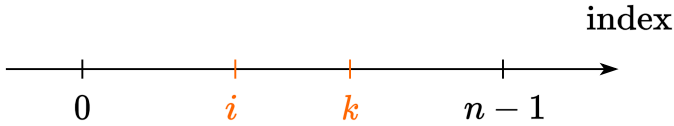
Multiply both sides by $-d_i^T A$·

$$-d_i^T A e_k = \sum_{j=k}^{n-1} \alpha_j d_i^T A d_j = 0$$




Thus, $d_i^T r_k = 0$ and residual $r_k$ is orthogonal to all previous directions $d_i$ for the CD method.

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- In fact, we use the Gram-Schmidt process with $A$-orthogonality instead of Euclidian orthogonality to get them from a set of starting vectors.
- The residuals on each iteration $r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1}$ are used as starting vectors for Gram-Schmidt process.

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CG = CD + $r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1}$ as starting vectors for Gram–Schmidt + $A$-orthogonality.

# Lemms for convergence

Lemma 5. Residuals are orthogonal to each other in the CG method

All residuals are pairwise orthogonal to each other in the CG method:

$$r_i^T r_k = 0 \qquad \forall i \neq k \tag{8}$$

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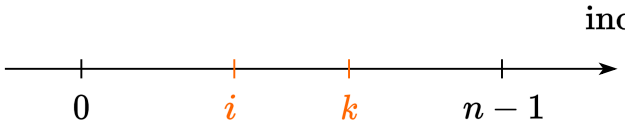


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Multiply both sides of (9) by $r_k^T \cdot$ for some index $k$:

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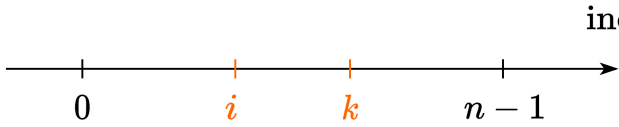


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If $j < i < k$, we have the lemma 4 with $d_i^T r_k = 0$ and $d_j^T r_k = 0$. We have:

$$r_k^T u_i = 0 \;\text{ for CD }\; r_k^T r_i = 0 \;\text{ for CG}$$

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Moreover, if $k = i$:

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**Lemma 6. Residual recalculation**

$$r_{k+1} = r_k - \alpha_k A d_k \tag{12}$$

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**Lemma 6. Residual recalculation**

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$$r_{k+1} = -Ae_{k+1} = -A\left(e_k + \alpha_k d_k\right) = -Ae_k - \alpha_k A d_k = r_k - \alpha_k A d_k$$

Finally, all these above lemmas are enough to prove, that $\beta_{ji} = 0$ for all $i, j$, except the neighboring ones.

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$$\beta_{ji} = -\frac{\langle d_j, u_i \rangle_A}{\langle d_j, d_j \rangle_A} = -\frac{d_j^T A u_i}{d_j^T A d_j} = -\frac{d_j^T A r_i}{d_j^T A d_j} = -\frac{r_i^T A d_j}{d_j^T A d_j}.$$

Consider the scalar product $\langle r_i, r_{j+1} \rangle$ using (12):

$$\langle r_i, r_{j+1} \rangle = \langle r_i, r_j - \alpha_j A d_j \rangle = \langle r_i, r_j \rangle - \alpha_j \langle r_i, A d_j \rangle$$
$$\alpha_j \langle r_i, A d_j \rangle = \langle r_i, r_j \rangle - \langle r_i, r_{j+1} \rangle$$

1. If $i = j$: $\alpha_i \langle r_i, A d_i \rangle = \langle r_i, r_i \rangle - \langle r_i, r_{i+1} \rangle = \langle r_i, r_i \rangle$. This case is not of interest due to the GS process.
2. Neighboring case $i = j + 1$: $\alpha_j \langle r_i, A d_j \rangle = \langle r_i, r_{i-1} \rangle - \langle r_i, r_i \rangle = -\langle r_i, r_i \rangle$
3. For any other case: $\alpha_j \langle r_i, A d_j \rangle = 0$, because all residuals are orthogonal to each other.

Finally, we have a formula for $i = j + 1$:

$$\beta_{ji} = -\frac{r_i^T A d_j}{d_j^T A d_j} = \frac{1}{\alpha_j} \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{d_j^T A d_j} = \frac{d_j^T A d_j}{d_j^T r_j} \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{d_j^T A d_j} = \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{\langle r_j, r_j \rangle}$$

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And for the direction

$$d_{k+1} = r_{k+1} + \beta_{k,k+1} d_k, \qquad \beta_{k,k+1} = \beta_k = \frac{\langle r_{k+1}, r_{k+1} \rangle}{\langle r_k, r_k \rangle}.$$

# Conjugate gradients method

$\mathbf{r}_0 := \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0$

if $\mathbf{r}_0$ is sufficiently small, then return $\mathbf{x}_0$ as the result

$\mathbf{d}_0 := \mathbf{r}_0$

$k := 0$

repeat

$$\alpha_k := \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_k^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{d}_k}$$

$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} := \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k\mathbf{d}_k$

$\mathbf{r}_{k+1} := \mathbf{r}_k - \alpha_k\mathbf{A}\mathbf{d}_k$

if $\mathbf{r}_{k+1}$ is sufficiently small, then exit loop

$$\beta_k := \frac{\mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{r}_k^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{r}_k}$$

$\mathbf{d}_{k+1} := \mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_k\mathbf{d}_k$

$k := k + 1$

end repeat

return $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$ as the result

# Convergence

**Theorem 1.** If matrix $A$ has only $r$ different eigenvalues, then the conjugate gradient method converges in $r$ iterations.

**Theorem 2.** The following convergence bound holds

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

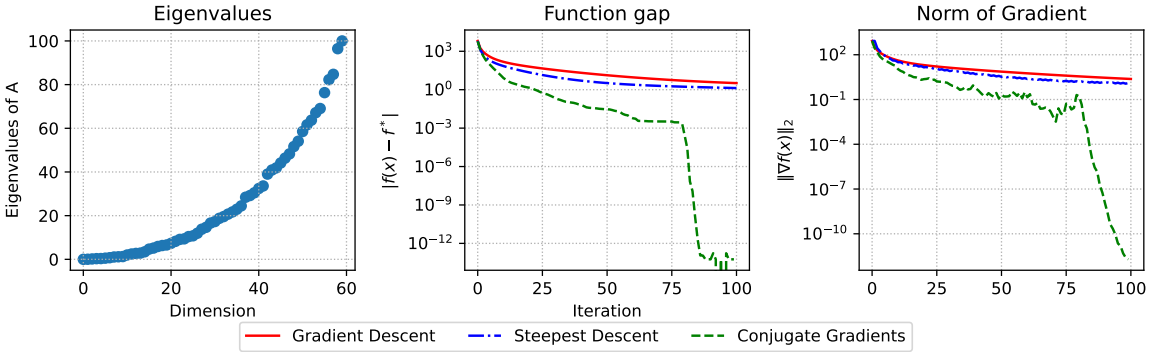
where $\|x\|_A^2 = x^\top A x$ and $\kappa(A) = \frac{\lambda_1(A)}{\lambda_n(A)}$ is the conditioning number of matrix $A$, $\lambda_1(A) \geq ... \geq \lambda_n(A)$ are the eigenvalues of matrix $A$

**Note:** Compare the coefficient of the geometric progression with its analog in gradient descent.

# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

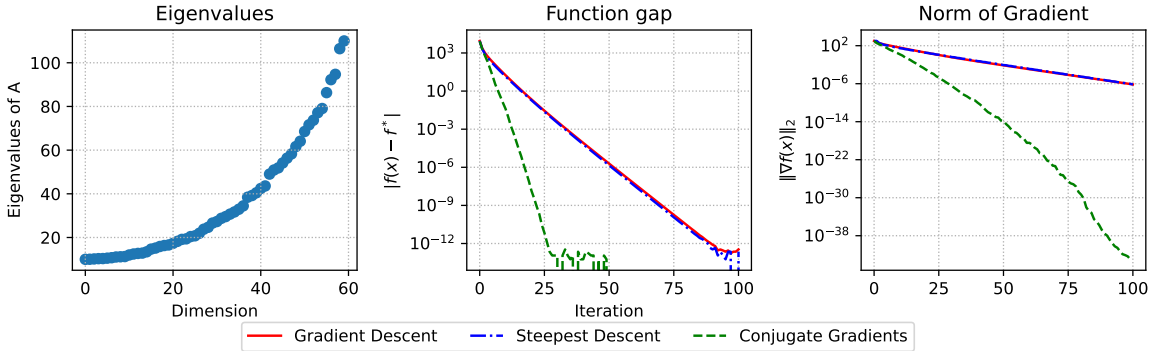
Convex quadratics. n=60, random matrix.



# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

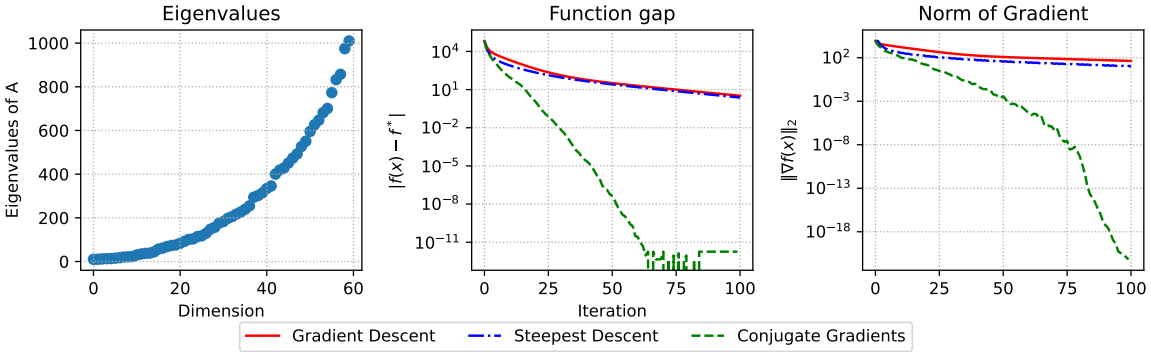
Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, random matrix.



# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

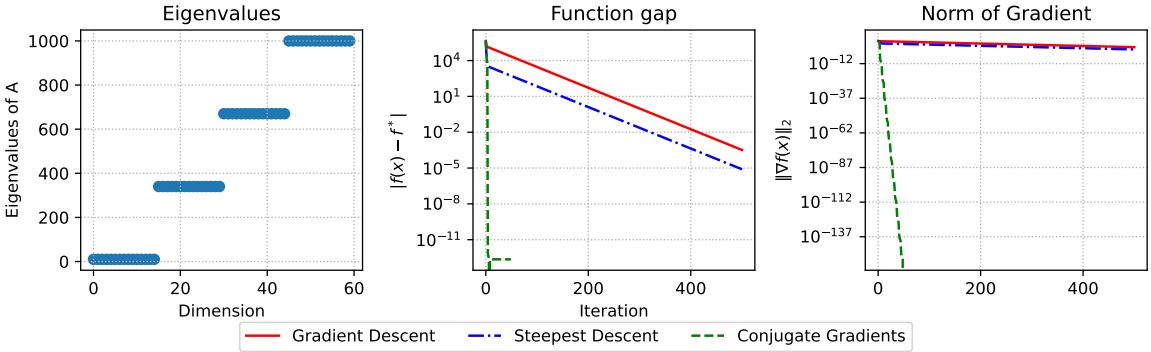
Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, random matrix.



# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

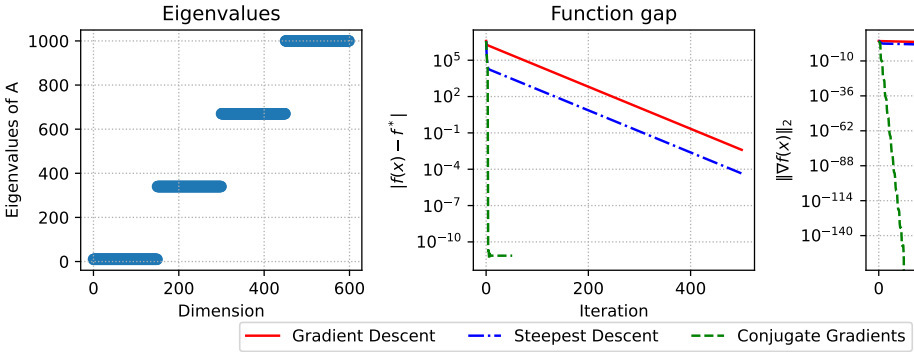
Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, clustered matrix.



# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

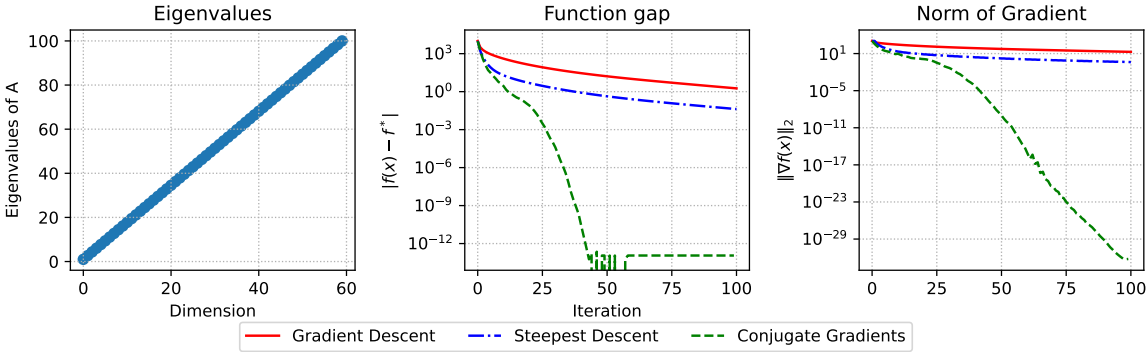
Strongly convex quadratics. n=600, clustered matrix.



# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

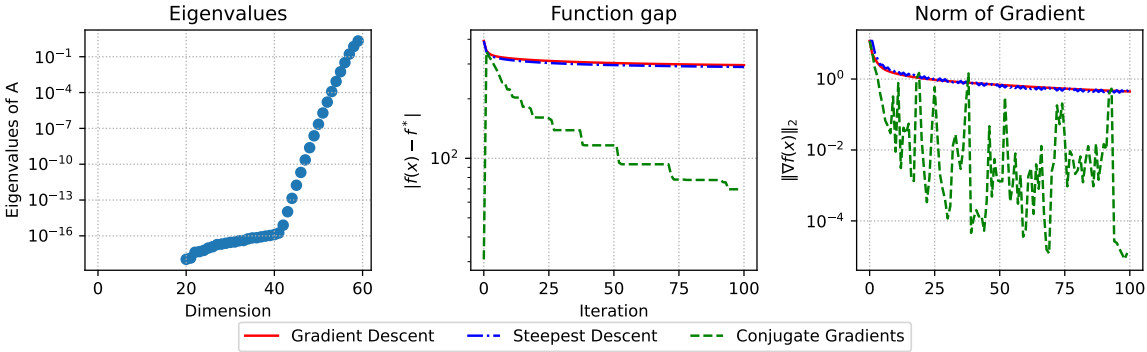
Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, uniform spectrum matrix.



# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - b^T x \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, Hilbert matrix.



# Non-linear conjugate gradient method

In case we do not have an analytic expression for a function or its gradient, we will most likely not be able to solve the one-dimensional minimization problem analytically. Therefore, step 2 of the algorithm is replaced by the usual line search procedure. But there is the following mathematical trick for the fourth point:

For two iterations, it is fair:

$$x_{k+1} - x_k = cd_k,$$

where $c$ is some kind of constant. Then for the quadratic case, we have:

$$\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k) = (Ax_{k+1} - b) - (Ax_k - b) = A(x_{k+1} - x_k) = cAd_k$$

Expressing from this equation the work $Ad_k = \frac{1}{c}\left(\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k)\right)$, we get rid of the "knowledge" of the function in step definition $\beta_k$, then point 4 will be rewritten as:

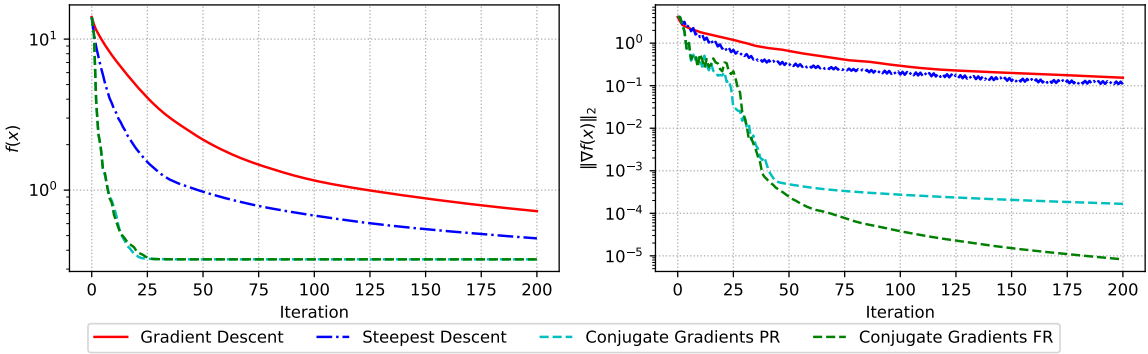
$$\beta_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_{k+1})^\top (\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k))}{d_k^\top (\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k))}.$$

This method is called the Polack-Ribier method.

# Numerical results

$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2}\|x\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\log(1+\exp(-y_i\langle a_i, x\rangle)) \to \min_{x\in\mathbb{R}^n}$$

Regularized binary logistic regression. n=300. m=1000. μ=0



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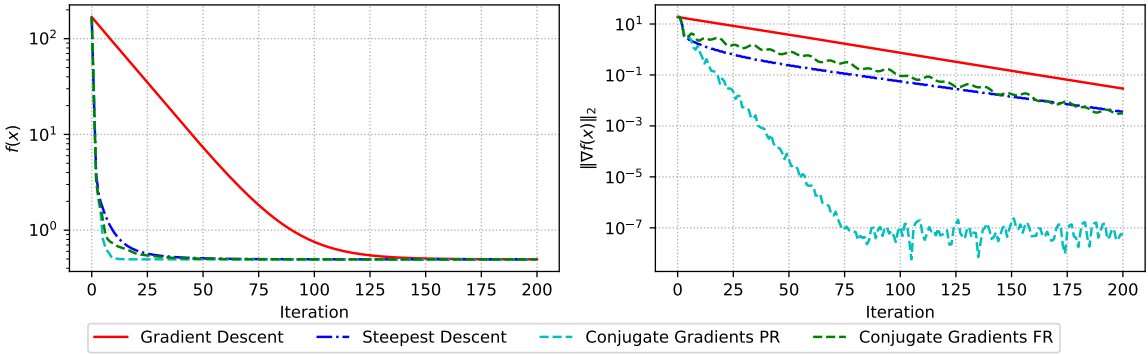
Regularized binary logistic regression. n=300. m=1000. μ=1



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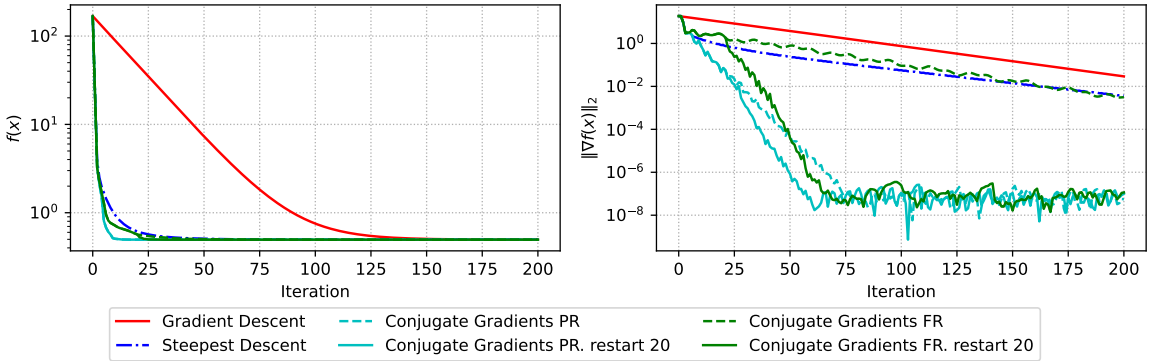

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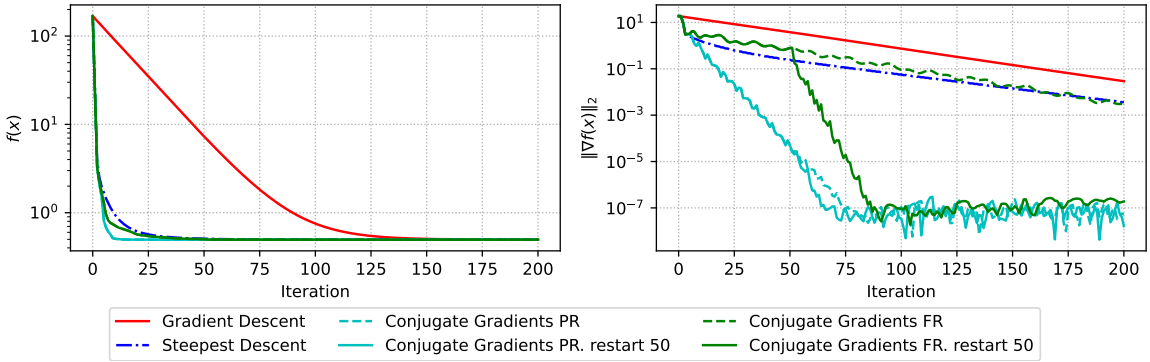

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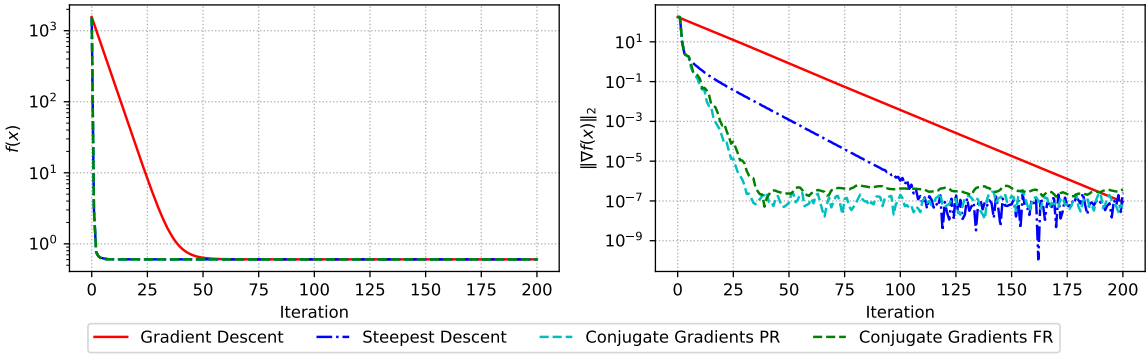
Regularized binary logistic regression. n=300. m=1000. μ=10



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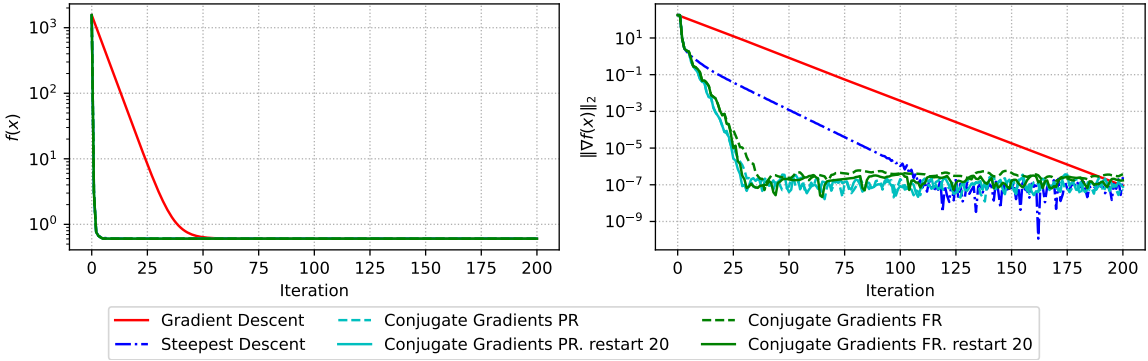
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