

**Definition - Conjugate Directions.** Let  $Q$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix and  $Q \succ 0$ . Any two non-zero vectors (directions)  $d^{(1)}, d^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be *conjugate vectors* or *conjugate directions* with respect to  $Q$ , if  $(d^{(1)})^T Q d^{(2)} = 0$ .

If  $Q = I$ , conjugacy reduces to orthogonality. More than two vectors are  $Q$ -conjugate if they are all mutually  $Q$ -conjugate.

**Result.** Let  $\{d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(k)}\}$  be a set of  $k + 1$  non-zero vectors which are conjugate with respect to a given positive definite matrix  $Q$ . Then the vectors  $d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(k)}$  are linearly independent.

**Proof.** To prove, we have to show that  $\alpha_0 d^{(0)} + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \alpha_k d^{(k)} = 0$  implies that each  $\alpha_j = 0$ . Consider:

$$\alpha_0 d^{(0)} + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \alpha_k d^{(k)} = 0$$

and pre-multiply both sides by  $(d^{(j)})^T Q$ . Then by conjugacy, it reduces to

$$\alpha_j ((d^{(j)})^T Q d^{(j)}) = 0$$

But, since  $Q \succ 0$ ,  $(d^{(j)})^T Q d^{(j)} > 0$ . Thus,  $\alpha_j = 0$ . We can do this for any  $j$ , and thus prove all  $\alpha_j$ 's are 0. □

For the problem  $\min \frac{1}{2} x^T Q x - b^T x$  where  $Q \succ 0$  and  $Q^T = Q$ , note that at  $x^*$ ,  $Qx^* = b$  by setting gradient to 0. And  $x^* = Q^{-1}b$ . We can solve this system of linear equations to find  $x^*$ , but we wanna do it without explicitly finding  $Q^{-1}$  so that it can be applied to general function where a  $Q$  might not exist. We gone prove that given  $n$  non-zero  $Q$ -conjugate vectors we can find  $x^*$  without having to compute  $Q^{-1}$ .

**Result.** Let  $d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(n-1)}$  be a set of  $n$  non-zero vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which are conjugate with respect to  $Q$ . Then  $x^*$ , which is the unique solution to the system  $Qx = b$  is given by

$$x^* = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left( \frac{(d^{(k)})^T b}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \right) d^{(k)}$$

**Proof.**  $d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(n-1)}$  are  $n$  linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Or, equivalently, they form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Therefore, there exist scalars

$\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n-1}$  such that:

$$x^* = \alpha_0 d^{(0)} + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} d^{(n-1)}$$

Now, pre-multiply with  $(d^{(k)})^T Q$  and use conjugacy to determine  $\alpha_k$ :

$$\alpha_k = \frac{(d^{(k)})^T Q x^*}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}}$$

but since  $x^*$  is solution of equation  $Qx = b$ ,  $Qx^* = b$ .

□

We will now rethink this as an iterative process:

**Conjugate Direction Theorem.** Let  $\{d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(n-1)}\}$  be a set of  $n$  non-zero vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which are conjugate with respect to  $Q$ . For any  $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  generated according to

$$\begin{aligned} x^{k+1} &= x^k + \alpha_k d^{(k)}, \\ \alpha_k &= -\frac{(g^k)^T d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}}, \\ g^k &= Qx^k - b, \end{aligned}$$

converges to the unique solution  $x^*$  of the system  $Qx = b$  exactly after  $n$  steps, i.e.  $x^n = x^*$ .

**Proof.** Since  $d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(n-1)}$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , there exist scalars  $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{n-1}$  such that:

$$x^* - x^0 = \lambda_0 d^{(0)} + \lambda_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \lambda_{n-1} d^{(n-1)}$$

Again, pre-multiplying with  $(d^{(k)})^T Q$ , we get

$$\lambda_k = \frac{(d^{(k)})^T Q (x^* - x^0)}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}}$$

And, by following the iterative scheme:

$$\begin{aligned} x^1 - x^0 &= \alpha_0 d^{(0)} \\ x^2 - x^0 &= x^1 + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} - x^0 = \alpha_0 d^{(0)} + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} \\ &\vdots \\ x^k - x^0 &= \alpha_0 d^{(0)} + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} d^{(k-1)} \end{aligned}$$

Pre-multiplying by  $(d^{(k)})^T Q$ :

$$(d^{(k)})^T Q(x^k - x^0) = 0 \quad (1)$$

Now,

$$\lambda_k = \frac{(d^{(k)})^T Q(x^* - x^k + x^k - x^0)}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}}$$

but by 1:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_k &= \frac{(d^{(k)})^T Q(x^* - x^k)}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \\ &= \frac{(d^{(k)})^T (Qx^* - Qx^k)}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \\ &= \frac{(d^{(k)})^T (b - Qx^k)}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \\ &= \frac{(d^{(k)})^T (-g^k)}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \\ &= \alpha_k \end{aligned}$$

Also,  $x^n - x^0 = \alpha_0 d^{(0)} + \alpha_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} d^{(n-1)}$ . But  $\alpha_k = \lambda_k \Rightarrow x^n - x^0 = \lambda_0 d^{(0)} + \lambda_1 d^{(1)} + \dots + \lambda_{n-1} d^{(n-1)} = x^* - x^0$ . Thus,  $x^n = x^*$ . □

## Conjugate gradient method for Quadratic case

Step 1 Choose  $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $d^{(0)} = -g^0 = b - Qx^0$ . Set  $k = 0$ .

Step 2 Use the scheme:

$$\begin{aligned} x^{k+1} &= x^k + \alpha_k d^{(k)} \\ \alpha_k &= \frac{-(g^k)^T d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \\ d^{(k+1)} &= -g^{k+1} + \beta_k d^{(k)} \\ \beta_k &= \frac{(g^{k+1})^T Q d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}} \\ g^k &= Qx^k - b \end{aligned}$$

Step 3 Continue till we get  $x^n = x^*$ .

Note that we do not need all the conjugate directions from the start, we are generating them using  $\beta_k$ .  $\beta_k$  is such that new direction is conjugate to all previous directions:  $(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(i)} = 0, \forall i = 0, 1, \dots, k$ . This can be seen simply by pre-multiplying  $d^{(k+1)}$  with  $(d^{(k)})^T Q$  for  $i = k$  and by induction for the rest of  $i$ .

**Result.** For conjugate gradient method, following hold:

- $(g^{k+1})^T d^{(k)} = 0$
- $\alpha_k = \frac{(g^k)^T g^k}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}}$
- $\beta_k = \frac{(g^{k+1})^T g^{k+1}}{(g^k)^T g^k}$
- $(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(i)} = 0, (i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1)$

## General unconstrained problem

$\alpha_k$  is obtained from minimization of  $\phi(\alpha) = f(x^k + \alpha d^{(k)})$ . And after every  $n-1$  iterations, the process is restarted (Powell's correction). The direction is reset to the steepest descent direction.

How is  $\alpha_k$  obtained? Here's the sketch:

- We know that  $\alpha = \frac{(d^{(k)})^T d^{(k)}}{(d^{(k)})^T Q d^{(k)}}$ .
- Begin with an estimate  $\hat{\alpha}_k$ .
- Determine  $\hat{f} \equiv f(x^k + \hat{\alpha}_k d^{(k)})$ .
- Now, approximate  $f(x)$  around  $x = x^k$  with Taylor's series and evalu-

ate at  $x^k + \hat{\alpha}_k d^{(k)}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= f(x^k) + (\nabla f(x^k))^T (x - x^k) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x^k)^T \nabla^2 f(x^k) (x - x^k) \\
 f(x^k + \hat{\alpha}_k) &= f(x^k) + (\nabla f(x^k))^T (\hat{\alpha}_k d^{(k)}) + \frac{1}{2} (\hat{\alpha}_k d^{(k)})^T \nabla^2 f(x^k) (\hat{\alpha}_k d^{(k)}) \\
 \hat{f} &\approx f(x^k) + \hat{\alpha}_k (d^{(k)})^T \nabla f(x^k) + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\alpha}_k (d^{(k)})^T \nabla^2 f(x^k) d^{(k)}
 \end{aligned}$$

- From the actual value of  $\hat{f}$  and approximated value of  $\hat{f}$  we can produce an estimate for the denominator in calculation of  $\alpha$ :

$$(d^{(k)})^T \nabla^2 f(x^k) d^{(k)} = 2 \frac{\hat{f} - f(x^k) - \hat{\alpha}_k (d^{(k)})^T \nabla f(x^k)}{\hat{\alpha}_k^2}$$

- Use this to find  $\alpha$ .