

# 15. Conjugate gradient method

- conjugate gradient method for linear equations
- complexity
- conjugate gradient method as iterative method
- applications in nonlinear optimization

# Unconstrained quadratic minimization

$$\text{minimize } f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - b^T x$$

with  $A$  symmetric positive definite and  $n \times n$

- equivalent to solving the linear equation  $Ax = b$
- the residual  $r = b - Ax$  is the negative gradient:  $r = -\nabla f(x)$

## Conjugate gradient method (CG)

- invented by Hestenes and Stiefel around 1951
- the most widely used iterative method for solving  $Ax = b$ , with  $A \succ 0$
- can be extended to non-quadratic unconstrained minimization

# Krylov subspaces

**Definition:** a sequence of subspaces

$$\mathcal{K}_0 = \{0\}, \quad \mathcal{K}_k = \text{span}\{b, Ab, \dots, A^{k-1}b\} \quad \text{for } k \geq 1$$

## Properties

- subspaces are nested:  $\mathcal{K}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{K}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K}_2 \subseteq \dots$
- dimensions increase by at most one:  $\dim \mathcal{K}_{k+1} - \dim \mathcal{K}_k$  is zero or one
- if  $\mathcal{K}_{k+1} = \mathcal{K}_k$ , then  $\mathcal{K}_i = \mathcal{K}_k$  for all  $i \geq k$ :

$$A^k b \in \text{span}\{b, Ab, \dots, A^{k-1}b\} \implies A^i b \in \text{span}\{b, Ab, \dots, A^{k-1}b\} \quad \text{for } i > k$$

## Solution of $Ax = b$

**Key property:**

$$A^{-1}b \in \mathcal{K}_n$$

this holds even when  $\mathcal{K}_n \neq \mathbf{R}^n$

- from Cayley–Hamilton theorem,

$$p(A) = A^n + a_1 A^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n I = 0$$

where  $p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^n + a_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} \lambda + a_n$

- multiplying on the right with  $A^{-1}b$  shows

$$A^{-1}b = -\frac{1}{a_n} \left( A^{n-1}b + a_1 A^{n-2}b + \cdots + a_{n-1}b \right)$$

# Krylov sequence

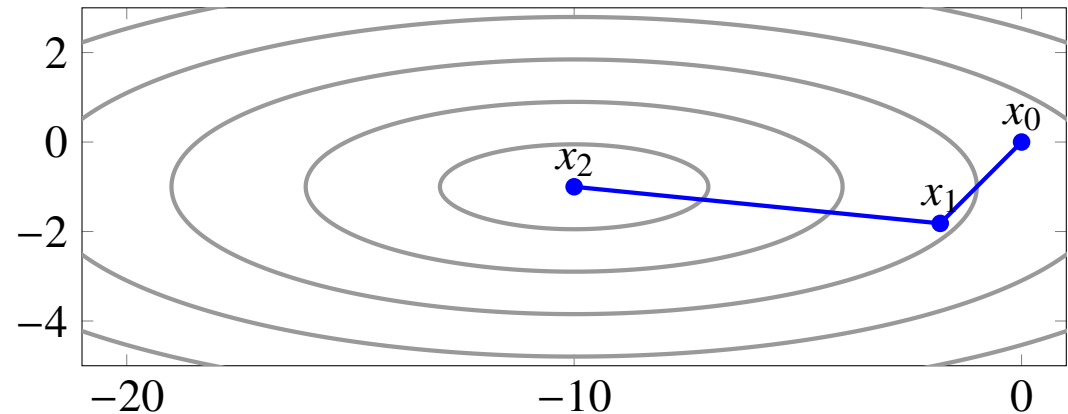
$$x_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{K}_k} f(x), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

- from previous page,  $x_n = A^{-1}b$
- CG method is a recursive method for computing the Krylov sequence  $x_0, x_1, \dots$
- we will see there is a simple two-term recurrence

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - t_k \nabla f(x_k) + s_k(x_k - x_{k-1})$$

## Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Residuals of Krylov sequence

$$x_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{K}_k} f(x), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

- optimality conditions in definition of Krylov sequence:

$$x_k \in \mathcal{K}_k, \quad \nabla f(x_k) = Ax_k - b \in \mathcal{K}_k^\perp$$

- hence, the residual  $r_k = b - Ax_k$  satisfies

$$r_k \in \mathcal{K}_{k+1}, \quad r_k \in \mathcal{K}_k^\perp$$

the first property follows from  $b \in \mathcal{K}_1$  and  $x_k \in \mathcal{K}_k$

the (nonzero) residuals form an orthogonal basis for the Krylov subspaces:

$$\mathcal{K}_k = \operatorname{span}\{r_0, r_1, \dots, r_{k-1}\}, \quad r_i^T r_j = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

# Conjugate directions

the “steps”  $v_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  in the Krylov sequence (defined for  $i \geq 1$ ) satisfy

$$v_i^T A v_j = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j, \quad v_i^T A v_i = v_i^T r_{i-1}$$

(proof on next page)

- the vectors  $v_i$  are *conjugate*: orthogonal for inner product  $\langle v, w \rangle = v^T A w$
- in particular, if  $v_i \neq 0$ , it is linearly independent of  $v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}$

the (nonzero) vectors  $v_i$  form a *conjugate basis* for the Krylov subspaces:

$$\mathcal{K}_k = \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}, \quad v_i^T A v_j = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

*Proof of properties on page 15.7*

- assume  $j < i$ ; we show that  $Av_i$  and  $v_j$  are orthogonal ( $v_i^T Av_j = 0$ ):

$$v_j = x_j - x_{j-1} \in \mathcal{K}_j \subseteq \mathcal{K}_{i-1}$$

and

$$Av_i = A(x_i - x_{i-1}) = -r_i + r_{i-1} \in \mathcal{K}_{i-1}^\perp$$

- the expression  $v_i^T Av_i = v_i^T r_{i-1}$  follows from the fact that  $t = 1$  minimizes

$$f(x_{i-1} + tv_i) = f(x_{i-1}) + \frac{1}{2}t^2(v_i^T Av_i) - t(v_i^T r_{i-1}),$$

since  $x_i = x_{i-1} + v_i$  minimizes  $f$  over the entire subspace  $\mathcal{K}_i$



# Conjugate vectors

it will be convenient to work with a sequence of scaled vectors  $p_k = v_k/\alpha_k$  with

$$\alpha_k = \frac{v_k^T r_{k-1}}{\|r_{k-1}\|_2^2}$$

- the scaling factor  $\alpha_k$  was chosen to satisfy

$$p_k^T r_{k-1} = \|r_{k-1}\|_2^2$$

- using  $v_k^T A v_k = v_k^T r_{k-1}$  (page 15.7), we can express  $\alpha_k$  as

$$\alpha_k = \frac{p_k^T r_{k-1}}{p_k^T A p_k} = \frac{\|r_{k-1}\|_2^2}{p_k^T A p_k}$$

- in this notation, the Krylov sequence and residuals satisfy

$$x_k = x_{k-1} + \alpha_k p_k, \quad r_k = r_{k-1} - \alpha_k A p_k$$

## Recursion for $p_k$

the vectors  $p_1, p_2, \dots$ , can be computed recursively as  $p_1 = r_0$ ,

$$p_{k+1} = r_k - \frac{p_k^T A r_k}{p_k^T A p_k} p_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (1)$$

(proof on next page)

- this can be further simplified using

$$r_k = r_{k-1} - \frac{\|r_{k-1}\|_2^2}{p_k^T A p_k} A p_k \quad \implies \quad \|r_k\|_2^2 = -\frac{r_k^T A p_k}{p_k^T A p_k} \|r_{k-1}\|_2^2$$

- substituting in the recursion for  $p_{k+1}$  gives

$$p_{k+1} = r_k + \frac{\|r_k\|_2^2}{\|r_{k-1}\|_2^2} p_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

*Proof of (1):*  $p_{k+1} \in \mathcal{K}_{k+1} = \text{span}\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k, r_k\}$ , so we can express it as

$$p_{k+1} = \gamma_1 p_1 + \dots + \gamma_{k-1} p_{k-1} + \beta p_k + \delta r_k$$

- $\delta = 1$ : take inner product with  $r_k$  and use

$$r_k^T p_{k+1} = \|r_k\|_2^2, \quad r_k^T p_1 = \dots = r_k^T p_k = 0 \quad (r_k \in \mathcal{K}_k^\perp)$$

- $\gamma_1 = \dots = \gamma_{k-1} = 0$ : take inner products with  $Ap_j$  for  $j \leq k-1$ , and use

$$p_j^T Ap_i = 0 \quad \text{for } j \neq i, \quad p_j^T Ar_k = 0$$

(second equality because  $Ap_j \in \mathcal{K}_{j+1} \subseteq \mathcal{K}_k$  and  $r_k \in \mathcal{K}_k^\perp$ )

- hence,  $p_{k+1} = r_k + \beta p_k$ ; inner product with  $Ap_k$  shows that

$$\beta = -\frac{p_k^T Ar_k}{p_k^T Ap_k}$$

# Conjugate gradient algorithm

define  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $r_0 = b$ , and repeat for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$  until  $r_k$  is sufficiently small:

1. if  $k = 0$ , take  $p_1 = r_0$ ; otherwise, take

$$p_{k+1} = r_k + \frac{\|r_k\|_2^2}{\|r_{k-1}\|_2^2} p_k$$

2. compute

$$\alpha = \frac{\|r_k\|_2^2}{p_{k+1}^T A p_{k+1}}, \quad x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha p_{k+1}, \quad r_{k+1} = r_k - \alpha A p_{k+1}$$

main computation per iteration is matrix-vector product  $A p_{k+1}$

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# Notation

$$\text{minimize } f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - b^T x$$

## Optimal value

$$f(x^\star) = -\frac{1}{2}b^T A^{-1}b = -\frac{1}{2}\|x^\star\|_A^2$$

## Suboptimality at $x$

$$f(x) - f^\star = \frac{1}{2}\|x - x^\star\|_A^2$$

## Relative error measure

$$\tau = \frac{f(x) - f^\star}{f(0) - f^\star} = \frac{\|x - x^\star\|_A^2}{\|x^\star\|_A^2}$$

here,  $\|u\|_A = (u^T Au)^{1/2}$  is  $A$ -weighted norm

## Error after $k$ steps

- $x_k \in \mathcal{K}_k = \text{span}\{b, Ab, \dots, A^{k-1}b\}$ , so  $x_k$  can be expressed as

$$x_k = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i A^{i-1} b = p(A)b$$

where  $p(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \lambda^{i-1}$  is a polynomial of degree  $k - 1$  or less

- $x_k$  minimizes  $f(x)$  over  $\mathcal{K}_k$ ; hence

$$2(f(x_k) - f^\star) = \inf_{x \in \mathcal{K}_k} \|x - x^\star\|_A^2 = \inf_{\deg p < k} \|(p(A) - A^{-1})b\|_A^2$$

we now use the eigenvalue decomposition of  $A$  to bound this quantity

## Error and spectrum of $A$

- eigenvalue decomposition of  $A$

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^T = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i q_i q_i^T \quad (Q^T Q = I, \quad \Lambda = \mathbf{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n))$$

- define  $d = Q^T b$

the expression on the previous page simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned} 2(f(x_k) - f^\star) &= \inf_{\deg p < k} \|(p(A) - A^{-1})b\|_A^2 \\ &= \inf_{\deg p < k} \|(p(\Lambda) - \Lambda^{-1})d\|_\Lambda^2 \\ &= \inf_{\deg p < k} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(\lambda_i p(\lambda_i) - 1)^2 d_i^2}{\lambda_i} \\ &= \inf_{\deg q \leq k, q(0)=1} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{q(\lambda_i)^2 d_i^2}{\lambda_i} \end{aligned}$$



# Error bounds

## Absolute error

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_k) - f^\star &\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d_i^2}{2\lambda_i} \right) \inf_{\deg q \leq k, q(0)=1} \max_{i=1,\dots,n} q(\lambda_i)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \|x^\star\|_A^2 \inf_{\deg q \leq k, q(0)=1} \max_{i=1,\dots,n} q(\lambda_i)^2 \end{aligned}$$

the equality follows from  $\sum_i d_i^2 / \lambda_i = b^T A^{-1} b = \|x^\star\|_A^2$

## Relative error

$$\tau_k = \frac{\|x_k - x^\star\|_A^2}{\|x^\star\|_A^2} \leq \inf_{\deg q \leq k, q(0)=1} \max_{i=1,\dots,n} q(\lambda_i)^2$$

## Convergence rate and spectrum of $A$

- if  $A$  has  $m$  distinct eigenvalues  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m$ , CG terminates in  $m$  steps:

$$q(\lambda) = \frac{(-1)^m}{\gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_m} (\lambda - \gamma_1) \cdots (\lambda - \gamma_m)$$

satisfies  $\deg q = m$ ,  $q(0) = 1$ ,  $q(\lambda_1) = \cdots = q(\lambda_n) = 0$ ; therefore  $\tau_m = 0$

- if eigenvalues are clustered in  $m$  groups, then  $\tau_m$  is small  
can find  $q(\lambda)$  of degree  $m$ , with  $q(0) = 1$ , that is small on spectrum
- if  $x^\star$  is a linear combination of  $m$  eigenvectors, CG terminates in  $m$  steps  
take  $q$  of degree  $m$  with  $q(\lambda_i) = 0$  where  $d_i \neq 0$ ; then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{q(\lambda_i)^2 d_i^2}{\lambda_i} = 0$$

## Other bounds

we omit the proofs of the following results

- in terms of condition number  $\kappa = \lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$

$$\tau_k \leq 2 \left( \frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1} \right)^k$$

derived by taking for  $q$  a Chebyshev polynomial on  $[\lambda_{\min}, \lambda_{\max}]$

- in terms of sorted eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$

$$\tau_k \leq \left( \frac{\lambda_k - \lambda_n}{\lambda_k + \lambda_n} \right)^2$$

derived by taking  $q$  with roots at  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{k-1}$  and  $(\lambda_1 + \lambda_n)/2$

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# Conjugate gradient method as iterative method

## In exact arithmetic

- CG was originally proposed as a direct (non-iterative) method
- in theory, terminates in at most  $n$  steps

## In practice

- due to rounding errors, CG method can take many more than  $n$  steps (or fail)
- CG is now used as an iterative method
- with luck (good spectrum of  $A$ ), good approximation in small number of steps
- attractive if matrix-vector products are inexpensive

# Preconditioning

- make change of variables  $y = Bx$  with  $B$  nonsingular, and apply CG to

$$B^{-T}AB^{-1}y = B^{-T}b$$

- if spectrum of  $B^{-T}AB^{-1}$  is clustered, PCG converges fast
- trade-off between enhanced convergence, cost of extra computation
- the matrix  $C = B^T B$  is called the *preconditioner*

## Examples

- diagonal  $C = \mathbf{diag}(A_{11}, A_{22}, \dots, A_{nn})$
- incomplete or approximate Cholesky factorization of  $A$
- good preconditioners are often application-dependent

## Naive implementation

apply algorithm of page 15.12 to  $\tilde{A}y = \tilde{b}$  where  $\tilde{A} = B^{-T}AB^{-1}$  and  $\tilde{b} = B^{-T}b$

### Algorithm:

define  $y_0 = 0$ ,  $\tilde{r}_0 = \tilde{b}$ , and repeat for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$  until  $\tilde{r}_k$  is sufficiently small:

1. if  $k = 0$ , take  $\tilde{p}_1 = \tilde{r}_0$ ; otherwise, take

$$\tilde{p}_{k+1} = \tilde{r}_k + \frac{\|\tilde{r}_k\|_2^2}{\|\tilde{r}_{k-1}\|_2^2} \tilde{p}_k$$

2. compute

$$\alpha = \frac{\|\tilde{r}_k\|_2^2}{\tilde{p}_{k+1}^T \tilde{A} \tilde{p}_{k+1}}, \quad y_{k+1} = y_k + \alpha \tilde{p}_{k+1}, \quad \tilde{r}_{k+1} = \tilde{r}_k - \alpha \tilde{A} \tilde{p}_{k+1}$$

# Improvements

- instead of  $y_k, \tilde{p}_k$  compute iterates and steps in original coordinates

$$x_k = B^{-1}y_k, \quad p_k = B^{-1}\tilde{p}_k$$

- compute residuals in original coordinates:

$$r_k = B^T \tilde{r}_k = b - Ax_k$$

- compute squared residual norms as

$$\|\tilde{r}_k\|_2^2 = r_k^T C^{-1} r_k$$

- extra work per iteration is solving one equation to compute  $C^{-1}r_k$



# Preconditioned conjugate gradient algorithm

define  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $r_0 = b$ , and repeat for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$  until  $r_k$  is sufficiently small:

1. solve the equation  $Cs_k = r_k$
2. if  $k = 0$ , take  $p_1 = s_0$ ; otherwise, take

$$p_{k+1} = s_k + \frac{r_k^T s_k}{r_{k-1}^T s_{k-1}} p_k$$

3. compute

$$\alpha = \frac{r_k^T s_k}{p_{k+1}^T A p_{k+1}}, \quad x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha p_{k+1}, \quad r_{k+1} = r_k - \alpha A p_{k+1}$$

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# Applications in optimization

## Inexact and truncated Newton methods

- use conjugate gradient method to compute (approximate) Newton step
- less reliable than exact Newton methods, but handle very large problems

## Nonlinear conjugate gradient methods

- extend linear CG method to nonquadratic functions
- local convergence similar to linear CG
- limited global convergence theory

# Nonlinear conjugate gradient

$$\text{minimize } f(x)$$

$f$  convex and differentiable

**Modifications** needed to extend linear CG algorithm of page 15.12

- replace  $r_k = b - Ax_k$  with  $-\nabla f(x_k)$
- determine step size  $\alpha$  by line search

# Fletcher–Reeves CG algorithm

CG algorithm of page 15.12 modified to minimize non-quadratic convex  $f$

**Algorithm:** choose  $x_0$  and repeat for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$  until  $\nabla f(x_k)$  is sufficiently small:

1. if  $k = 0$ , take  $p_1 = -\nabla f(x_0)$ ; otherwise, take

$$p_{k+1} = -\nabla f(x_k) + \beta_k p_k \quad \text{where} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2}{\|\nabla f(x_{k-1})\|_2^2}$$

2. update  $x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k p_{k+1}$  where

$$\alpha_k = \underset{\alpha}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(x_k + \alpha p_{k+1})$$

# Some observations

## Interpretation

- first iteration is a gradient step
- general update is gradient step with momentum term

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k) + \frac{\alpha_k \beta_k}{\alpha_{k-1}} (x_k - x_{k-1})$$

- it is common to restart the algorithm periodically by taking a gradient step

## Line search

- with exact line search, reduces to linear CG for quadratic  $f$
- exact line search in computation of  $\alpha_{k-1}$  implies that  $\nabla f(x_k)^T p_k = 0$
- therefore  $p_{k+1}$  is a descent direction at  $x_k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla f(x_k)^T p_{k+1} &= -\|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 + \beta_k \nabla f(x_k)^T p_k \\ &= -\|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 \\ &< 0 \end{aligned}$$

## Variations

**Polak–Ribière:** compute  $\beta_k$  from

$$\beta_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_k)^T (\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k-1}))}{\|\nabla f(x_{k-1})\|_2^2}$$

**Hestenes–Stiefel:** compute  $\beta_k$  from

$$\beta_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_k)^T (\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k-1}))}{p_k^T (\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k-1}))}$$

formulas are equivalent for quadratic  $f$  and exact line search

# References

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