

This week and next: Krylov subspace methods for $Ax=b$

- $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, nonsingular ($\det A \neq 0$), $b \in \mathbb{C}^n$, solve $Ax=b$

- Krylov subspace: $y \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$$K_k(A, y) = \text{span} \{ y, Ay, \dots, A^{k-1}y \}$$

Goal: Iterative solvers for $Ax=b$ using Krylov subspaces.

- Note that $K_k(A, y) \subseteq K_{k+1}(A, y)$ but there is no guarantee that $\dim K_k(A, y) = n$ for large enough k . ($k \geq n$)
(think about x_0 being an eig. vector of A)
i.e., $K_k(A, y)$ may not span the whole \mathbb{C}^n .

— Why is it possible, at least in theory, to find a good approximation of $x=A^{-1}b$ in some Krylov subspace w/ reasonable choice of y ?
This is guaranteed by the following theorem:

Thm (Cayley-Hamilton)

Let $p(\lambda)$ be the characteristic polynomial of A ,

i.e. $p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A)$, then $p(A) = 0$ \square

— Using this theorem, we show that $x=A^{-1}b \in K_n(A, b)$:

Indeed, let $p(\lambda)$ be characteristic polynomial of A ,

i.e., $p(\lambda) = \lambda^n + a_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\lambda + a_0$

then $a_0 = p(0) = \det(-A) = (-1)^n \det(A) \neq 0$

so by $p(A) = 0$, i.e. $A^n + a_{n-1}A^{n-1} + \dots + a_1A + a_0I = 0$

multiply both sides by A^{-1} , we get

$$A^{n-1} + a_{n-1} A^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 I + a_0 A^{-1} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{-1} = -\frac{1}{a_0} A^{n-1} - \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_0} A^{n-2} - \dots - \frac{a_1}{a_0} I$$

$$\Rightarrow x = A^{-1}b = -\frac{1}{a_0} A^{n-1}b - \dots - \frac{a_1}{a_0} b \in K_n(A, b)$$

- That is to say, $x = A^{-1}b \in K_n(A, b)$

If we design our algorithm "good" enough,
the algorithm can terminate in finite steps

• Projection methods

- Given a subspace $K \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$, projection methods aim to find an approximate solution to $Ax=b$ from K ,
(search subspace.)

- If $\dim K = k$, then we need k constraints to be able to extract a unique approximation.

A typical way is to impose k linearly (independent) orthogonality conditions, which force the residual $b - Ax$ to be orthogonal to k linearly independent vectors.
(test subspace L)

i.e. find $\tilde{x} \in K$, such that $b - A\tilde{x} \perp L$

- To make use of the initial guess x_0 , we want to formulate the problem as

$$\text{find } \tilde{x} \in x_0 + K, \text{ such that } b - A\tilde{x} \perp L$$

- Let $V = [\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_k]$ be a basis of K

$W = [\vec{w}_1 \dots \vec{w}_k]$ be a basis of L

then $b - A\tilde{x} \perp L$ (let $\tilde{x} = x_0 + Vy$)

$$\Leftrightarrow W^* (b - A(x_0 + Vy)) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (W^*AV)y = \underbrace{W^*(b - Ax_0)}_{=: r_0} \quad (*)$$

if W^*AV is invertible, then

$$\tilde{x} = x_0 + V(W^*AV)^{-1}W^*r_0$$

Krylov subspace methods set $K = K_k(A, r_0)$.

the approximate solution has the form

$$\tilde{x} = x_0 + p_{k-1}(A)r_0 \quad p_{k-1}: (k-1)\text{-degree polynomial}$$

When $x_0 = 0$, we have $\tilde{x} = p_{k-1}(A)b$.

There are many Krylov subspace methods. Depending different choices of L , the methods can be classified into three different categories.

1) $L = K_k(A, r_0)$

Algorithm: general A

Full orthogonalization method
(FOM)

Hermitian A

Lanczos / D-Lanczos

conjugate gradient (CG)

$$2) \mathcal{L} = AK$$

| Algorithm: <u>general A</u> | <u>Hermitian A</u> |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| GMRES | MINRES |
| Generalized Conjugate Residual (GCR) | Conjugate Residual (CR) |
| ORTHOMIN | |

$$3) \mathcal{L} = K_k(A^*, r_0)$$

Algorithm: non-symmetric Lanczos, Biorthogonal CG, (BiCG)
 Quasi-Minimal Residual, Stabilized BiCG (QMR)

In order to compute $(*)$, we need to find an(orthonormal) basis for $K_k(A, r_0)$

Recall Arnoldi's iteration.

Given $r_0 \in \mathbb{C}^n$, Arnoldi's iteration compute

$Q_k = [\dot{q}_1 \dots \dot{q}_k] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k}$ orthonormal basis for $K_k(A, r_0)$

such that

$$\boxed{AQ_k = Q_k H_k + h_{k+1,k} q_{k+1} e_k^*} \quad (*)$$

where $H_k \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times k}$ is upper Hessenberg, $q_{k+1} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$q_{k+1}^* Q_k = 0$, $e_k = (0, \dots, 0, 1)^T \in \mathbb{C}^n$ unit vector

we also have $Q_k^* A Q_k = H_k$

Suppose now we take $\mathcal{L} = K_k(A, r_0)$

then we can take $V=W=Q_k \Rightarrow W^*AV = Q_k^*AQ_k = H_k$

from Arnoldi, $r_0 = \beta q_1 \Rightarrow W^*r_0 = \beta Q_k^*q_1 = \beta e_1$
($\beta = \|r_0\|_2$) ($e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0)^T$)

$$(*) \Rightarrow H_k y_k = \beta e_1 \quad (**)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_k = H_k^{-1}(\beta e_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_k = x_0 + Q_k y_k$$

- How accurate is x_k ? (When to stop?)

Compute residual

$$r_k = b - Ax_k = r_0 - AQ_k y_k$$

$$= r_0 - Q_k H_k y_k - h_{k+1,k} q_{k+1} e_k^* y_k$$

$$= \underbrace{r_0 - Q_k(\beta e_1)}_{=0} - h_{k+1,k} \underbrace{(e_k^* y_k)}_{=: y_k^{(k)}} q_{k+1}$$

$$\|r_k\|_2 = \|b - Ax_k\|_2 = |h_{k+1,k}| |y_k^{(k)}| \quad \leftarrow \text{no overhead in computing residual}$$

- What if Arnoldi breakdown? ($h_{j+1,j} = 0$ for some $j \leq k$)

(assume $j=k$ for simplicity)

- In this case, (**) is uniquely solvable.

b.c. $AQ_k = Q_k H_k$ and if λ, w is an eigen pair of H_k

then $AQ_k w = Q_k H_k w = \lambda Q_k w \Rightarrow (\lambda, Q_k w)$ is an eig. pair of A

but since A is nonsingular, we know $\lambda \neq 0$

- From the residual formula we know $b - Ax_k = 0 \leftarrow$ exact soln!

This is lucky breakdown!

- Cost:
 - Arnoldi: Flops: $O(k^2 n)$ Memory: $O(kn)$
 - + $k \times$ cost of Aq
 - Solve (**): since H_k is upper Hessenberg, we use QR fact. to solve (**), i.e. compute $H_k = \tilde{Q} \tilde{R}$, then solve $\tilde{R}y = \tilde{Q}^*(\beta e_1)$.
 - \tilde{Q} is $O(k^2)$ by Givens
 - $\tilde{R}y = \tilde{Q}^*(\beta e_1)$ is $O(k^2)$ for back sub + mat. vec. mult.
- What if k is already large but residual is still large?
 - We can use restart method, i.e., set a new $x_0 \leftarrow x_k$ and rerun the algorithm

Algorithm (FOM(k))

Given $x_0 \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $k \geq 1$.

Compute $r_0 = b - Ax_0$, $\beta = \|r_0\|_2$,

Step 1: Run Arnoldi to compute $Q_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k}$, $H_k \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times k}$

$h_{k+1,k} \in \mathbb{R}$, if $|h_{j+1,j}| < \epsilon$ during iteration, move to step 2

Step 2: Compute $y_k = H_k^{-1}(\beta e_1)$, and $x_k = x_0 + Q_k y_k$

if $|h_{k+1,k}| |y_k^{(k)}| < \epsilon$, break

else let $x_0 \leftarrow x_k$, recompute r_0 and β . goes to step 1.

- A key problem we didn't touch above: Is H_k always invertible?

Unfortunately, the answer is no:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^T A = I. \text{ unitary} \Rightarrow |\lambda| = 1$$

let $b = (1, 0, \dots, 0)^T = e_1$, $x_0 = 0$,

if we run Arnoldi, $q_1 = b = e_1$

and $Aq_i = e_{i+1} \perp q_1, \dots, q_i \Rightarrow q_i = e_i, i=2, \dots, k$

so $Q_k = \begin{bmatrix} I_k \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$

so $H_k = \underbrace{Q_k^* A Q_k}_{k \times k \text{ submatrix in } A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{singular for all } 1 \leq k \leq n-1!$

only when $k=n$, $H_k = A$, invertible, and $x_n = A^{-1}b$

FOM(k) totally fails!

When A is Hermitian positive definite, H_k is guaranteed to be invertible (FOM is mathematically equivalent to CG for Hermitian A)