

## Gaussian Elimination:

### I) LU Factorization: (no pivots): $A = LU$ by triangular-triangularization

① Algorithm:  $U = A$   $L = I$

for  $k = 1$  to  $m-1$

for  $j = k+1$  to  $m$

$$l_{jk} = u_{jk} / u_{kk}$$

$$u_{j,k:m} = u_{j,k:m} - l_{jk} u_{k,k:m}$$

work:  $\Theta(\frac{2}{3}m^3)$

② Solve:  $Ax = b$

$$LUx = b$$

① Solve  $Ly = b$  for  $y$

② Solve  $Ux = y$  for  $x$

\* This is not backward stable \*

### II) Pivoting: the diagonal entry is called the Pivot

① Complete Pivoting: find largest entry left in matrix and pivot around that  $\rightarrow$  move columns, rows, etc  $\rightarrow$  huge cost!

② Partial Pivoting: only pivot around the rows; ie:  $L_{m-1}P_{m-1} \dots L_2P_2L_1P_1A = U$

③  $PA = LU$

① Permute row of  $A$  by  $P$

② Apply GE w/o pivoting to  $PA$

④ Algorithm:  $U = A$ ,  $L = I$ ,  $P = I$

for  $k = 1$  to  $m-1$

Select  $i \geq k$  to  $\max |u_{ik}|$

$$u_{k,k:m} \leftrightarrow u_{i,k:m} \quad (\text{interchange 2 rows})$$

work:  $\sim \Theta(\frac{2}{3}m^3)$

$$l_{k,1:k-1} \leftrightarrow l_{i,1:k-1}$$

$$P_k \leftrightarrow P_{i,:}$$

for  $j = k+1$  to  $m$

$$l_{jk} = u_{jk} / u_{kk}$$

$$u_{j,k:m} = u_{j,k:m} - l_{jk} u_{k,k:m}$$

### III) Stability of G.E.: \* not stable in general... BUT FAST

### IV) Cholesky Factorization: \* For Hermitian matrices \* $\rightarrow$ Every Hermitian matrix has unique Cholesky factorization

① Basically use a "symmetric version of LU" to factor into Cholesky

② Idea:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & w^* \\ w & K \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ w/\alpha & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & K - ww^*/\alpha_{11} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & w^*/\alpha \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\alpha = \sqrt{a_{11}}$

↑  
Hermitian

$= R^* A R$

③ Work:  $\sim \Theta(\frac{1}{3}m^3)$

\* Stable and fast \*

④ Algorithm:  $Ax = b$

$$R^* R x = b$$

① Solve  $R^* y = b$  for  $y$

② Solve  $Rx = y$  for  $x$

}  $\sim \Theta(m^2)$

# Stability and Facts

I) Norms:  $\|A\|_1 = \text{max column sum}$   $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\text{largest eigenvalue of } A^*A} = \text{largest singular value}$   
 $\|A\|_\infty = \text{max row sum}$

II) Stability: ① Backward Stability: "A backward stable algorithm gives exactly the right answer to nearly the right question"

② Condition Number:  $K = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$  ; if  $\|\cdot\|_2$  then  $K = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n}$

③ Backward Stable Algorithms: ① QR for  $Ax=b$  using Householder Reflections

② Back substitution

③ Least Squares w/ a) Householder for QR  
b) QR w/ Gram-Schmidt if  $A^*b$  is formed implicitly  
c) SVD w/ full rank

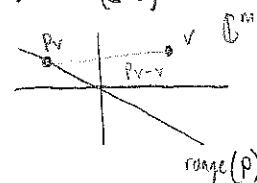
# QR Factorization and Least Squares

**I) Projectors:**  $P \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ , then if  $P^2 = P$ ,  $P$  is a projector.  $\rightarrow$  if  $v \in \text{range}(P)$ , then if  $v = Px \Rightarrow P_v = P^2x = Px = v$

①  $I - P$  is complementary projector of  $P \rightarrow I - P$  projects onto  $\text{null}(P)$  :  $\text{range}(I - P) = \text{null}(P)$  and  $\text{range}(P) = \text{null}(I - P)$

② A projector  $P$  is orthogonal iff  $P = P^*$

③ if  $\text{range}(P) = S_1$  and  $\text{range}(I - P) = S_2$ , then  $S_1 + S_2 = \mathbb{C}^n$



**II) QR Factorization:**  $A = QR$  ;  $Q$ : orthogonal matrix,  $R$ : upper  $\Delta$  ;  $A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \dots] = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \dots \\ 0 & r_{22} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$

① Gram-Schmidt: ① Classical (unstable) Algorithm: for  $j=1$  to  $n$

$\uparrow$   
due to rounding error

$$v_j = a_j$$

for  $i=1$  to  $j-1$

$$r_{ij} = q_i^* a_j$$

$$v_j = v_j - r_{ij} q_i$$

$$r_{jj} = \|v_j\|$$

$$q_j = v_j / r_{jj}$$

\* Every  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) has a full QR factorization and here reduced \*

\* Each  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) of full rank has unique reduced QR factorization w/  $r_{jj} > 0$  \*

② Solution of  $Ax = b$  via QR:  $Ax = b$  ; let  $A = QR$

$$Q^* A = Q^* Q R = R$$

$$\Rightarrow Q^* A x = Q^* b$$

$$R x = Q^* b$$

**III) Modified Gram-Schmidt:** "triangular orthogonalization"  $\rightarrow$  making columns of a matrix orthonormal

① Algorithm: for  $i=1$  to  $n$

$$v_i = a_i$$

for  $i=1$  to  $n$

$$r_{ii} = \|v_i\|$$

$$q_i = v_i / r_{ii}$$

for  $j=i+1$  to  $n$

$$r_{ij} = q_i^* v_j$$

$$v_j = v_j - r_{ij} q_i$$

$\sim O(2mn^2)$  operations

$$\sim A R_1 R_2 R_3 \dots R_n = \hat{Q}$$

$$\hat{Q}^{-1}$$

\* instead of computing a single orthogonal projector of rank  $m - (j-1)$ ,

MGs uses a sequence of  $j-1$  projections of rank  $m-1$ . \*

**IV) Householder Triangularization:** "orthogonal triangularization"  $\rightarrow$  apply sequence of unitary matrix operations :  $Q_1 \dots Q_k Q_{k+1} A = R$

$$\text{① Process: } \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{Q_1} \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{Q_2} \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & x \end{bmatrix}$$

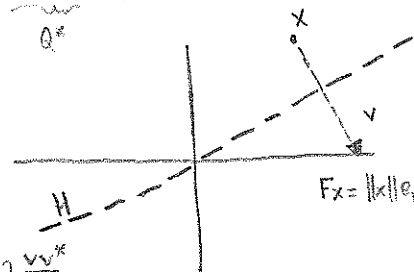
$A$

$Q_1 A$

$Q_2 Q_1 A$

(nonzero elements change)

(non-zero elements change)



② Householder Reflector: let  $Q_k = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & F \end{bmatrix}$  ;  $I$  is  $(k-1) \times (k-1)$  identity and  $F = I - 2 \frac{vv^*}{v^*v}$

\*  $F$  reflects the space  $\mathbb{C}^{m-k+1}$  across  $H$  orthogonal to  $v = \|x\|e_1 - x$

③ Work: for  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  :  $\sim O(2mn^2 - \frac{2}{3}n^3)$

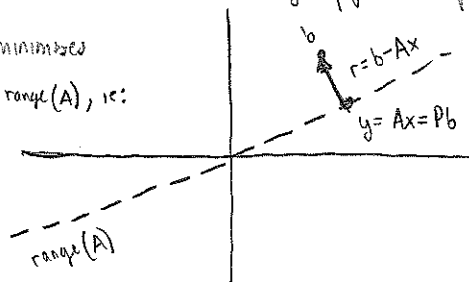
V) Least-Squares: for overdetermined systems  $\rightarrow$  more rows than columns in  $Ax=b$   $\rightarrow$  minimize 2-Norm of residual

① Orthogonal Projection / Normal Eqs: find closed  $Ax$  in  $\text{range}(A)$  so  $\|b-Ax\|_2$  is minimized

$r = b - Ax$  must be orthogonal to  $\text{range}(A)$   $\rightarrow$  geometrically occurs provided  $Ax = Pb$ , where  $P$  is orthogonal projector that maps  $\mathbb{C}^m$  onto  $\text{range}(A)$

② Theorem: Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) and  $b \in \mathbb{C}^m$ . The  $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$  that minimizes  $\|b - Ax\|_2$  is such that if and only if  $r \perp \text{range}(A)$ , i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} A^* r &= 0 \\ \rightarrow A^* A x &= A^* b \\ \rightarrow x &= (A^* A)^{-1} A^* b \quad \leftarrow \text{Pseudo-inverse} \end{aligned}$$



③ Solving w/ Cholesky: if  $A$  full rank  $\rightarrow A^* A = R^* R$ ,  $R$ : upper- $\Delta$  hence eqs become:  $A^* A x = A^* b$   
 $R^* R x = A^* b$

① Algorithm: ① form  $A^* A$  and  $A^* b$

② Compute Cholesky factorization

③ Solve Lower  $\Delta$  sys:  $Rw = A^* b$  for  $w$

④ Solve Upper  $\Delta$  sys:  $R^* x = w$  for  $x$

work:  $\sim \mathcal{O}(mn^2 + \frac{n^3}{3})$

\* reduces to 2  $\Delta$  sys of eqs \*

④ Solving w/ QR: using reduced  $\hat{Q}\hat{R}$ ,  $y = Pb = \hat{Q}\hat{Q}^* b$  since  $y \in \text{range}(A)$ , sys.  $Ax = y$  has exact solution

$$Ax = y$$

$$\hat{Q}\hat{R}x = \hat{Q}\hat{Q}^* b$$

$$\hat{R}x = \hat{Q}^* b$$

work:  $\sim \mathcal{O}(2mn^2 - \frac{2}{3}n^3)$

\* reduces to  $\Delta$ -sys of eqs \*

⑤ Solving w/ SVD:  $A = \hat{U}\hat{\Sigma}V^*$ , let  $P = \hat{U}\hat{U}^*$

$$y = Pb = \hat{U}\hat{U}^* b$$

work:  $\sim \mathcal{O}(2mn^2 + 11n^3)$

$$\Rightarrow Ax = y$$

\* reduces to diagonal sys of eqs \*

$$\hat{U}\hat{\Sigma}V^* x = \hat{U}\hat{U}^* b$$

$$\hat{\Sigma}V^* x = \hat{U}^* b$$

Algorithm: ① Compute reduced SVD:  $A = \hat{U}\hat{\Sigma}V^*$

② Compute  $\hat{U}^* b$

③ Solve diagonal sys:  $\hat{\Sigma}w = \hat{U}^* b$  for  $w$

④ let  $x = Vw$

⑥ Comparisons:

① Speed  $\rightarrow$  Cholesky

② Stability  $\rightarrow$  QR (if  $A$  is not rank deficient)

③ Rank-Deficient  $\rightarrow$  SVD

# Eigenvalues

## I) Eigenvalue Problems:

- ① Geometric Multiplicity: # of linearly independent eigenvectors for the same  $\lambda$ . This is also the dimension of the null-space of  $A - \lambda I$
- ② Theorem:  $\lambda$  is eigenvalue  $\iff \exists$  non-zero vector such that  $\lambda x - Ax = 0 \iff \lambda I - A$  is non-singular  $\iff |\lambda I - A| = 0$
- ③ Algebraic Multiplicity: multiplicity of the root,  $\lambda$ , for the characteristic polynomial
- ④ Similarity Transformation: if  $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is non-singular, the map  $A \rightarrow X^{-1}AX$  is similarity transform
  - Theorem: if  $X$  is non-singular, then  $A$  and  $X^{-1}AX$  have the same eigenvalues, characteristic poly, geo. and alg. multiplicity

$$\det(A) = \prod_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \quad \text{and} \quad \text{tr}(A) = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j$$

Note: algebraic multiplicity  $\geq$  geo multiplicity

### ⑤ Decompositions:

① Diagonalizable:  $A = X\Lambda X^{-1} \leftarrow A$  is non-defective (alg mult = geometric multiplicity)

② Unitary Diagonalizable:  $A = Q\Lambda Q^*$   $\leftarrow$  this is both an Eigenvalue decomp and SVD

Note: A matrix is unitary diagonalizable iff it is normal, i.e.  $A^*A = AA^*$

③ Schur Factorization:  $A = QTQ^*$ ;  $T \rightarrow$  upper triangular  $\iff$  eigenvalues are along main diagonal; \* EVERY MATRIX \*

## II) Overview: An eigenvalue solver must be iterative

① most eigenvalue solvers generally compute a Schur Factorization

### ② Two Phases:

① Phase 1:  $A \rightarrow$  Hessenberg form (or tridiagonal if  $A=A^*$ ) total work  $\sim O(n^3)$

② Phase 2: Hessenberg (tridiagonal)  $\rightarrow$  Upper triangular (diagonal if  $A=A^*$ ) total work  $\sim O(n^2)$  ... but could run  $\infty$

## III) Reduction to Hessenberg:

• select a householder reflector  $Q_1^*$  that leaves first row unchanged and multiply it on right and left of  $A$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{Q_1^*} \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{Q_1} \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \end{bmatrix}$$

$A \qquad Q_1^*A \qquad Q_1^*AQ_1$

then just keep apply  $Q_1^* \dots Q_1^*AQ_1Q_2 \dots Q_k$

• operation count:  $\sim \frac{10}{3}n^3$

• Note if  $A$  is Hermitian  $\sim \frac{4}{3}n^3$

• this process is backward stable

## IV) Rayleigh Quotient, Inverse Iteration:

Real, symmetric matrices  $\sum \lambda_j$  - eigenvalues,  $\sum q_j$  - eigenvectors (orthonormal)

① Rayleigh Quotient:  $r(x) = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$

; if  $x$  is an eigenvector then  $r(x) = \lambda$ ; Note:  $\nabla r(x) = \frac{2}{x^T x} (Ax - r(x)x) = 0$  if  $x$  is an eigenvector

\* Rayleigh Quotient is quadratically accurate estimate of eigenvalues \*

\* Eigenvectors are stationary pts of  $r(x)$

### ② Power Iteration:

$v^{(0)} =$  some  $v$  w/  $\|v\|=1$

for  $k=1,2,\dots$

$$w = Av^{(k-1)}$$

$$v^{(k)} = w / \|w\|$$

$$\lambda^{(k)} = (v^{(k)})^T A v^{(k)}$$

\* Finds eigenvector associated w/ largest eigenvalue

\* If two eigenvalues are close in magnitude  $\rightarrow$  convergence is slow

\* Quadratic convergence

### ③ Inverse Iteration:

$v^{(0)} =$  some  $v$  w/  $\|v\|=1$

for  $k=1,2,\dots$

costs  $O(n^2)$  if done once fits  $\rightarrow$  Solve  $(A - \mu I)w = v^{(k-1)}$

$$v^{(k)} = w / \|w\|$$

$$\lambda^{(k)} = (v^{(k)})^T A v^{(k)}$$

quadratic convergence

\*  $\mu$  is eigenvalue estimate

\* Note if we use  $\mu = \lambda^{(k)}$  for each step becomes Rayleigh Quotient Iteration

\* Cubic convergence

\* this costs  $O(n^3)$  at each step \*

V) QR Algorithm w/ Shifts: stable procedure for computing QR factorizations of  $A, A^2, A^3, \dots \rightarrow$  gives cubic convergence

\* NOTE: STILL ASSUMING REAL/SYMMETRIC MATRICES \*

① Algorithm:  $(Q^{(k)})^T A^{(k)} Q^{(k)} = A$  ;  $A^{(k)}$  is tridiagonalization of  $A$

for  $k=1, 2, 3, \dots$

pick  $\mu^{(k)}$  ;  $\mu^{(k)} = A_{nn}^{(k-1)} \leftarrow$  vector

$Q^{(k)} R^{(k)} = A^{(k-1)} - \mu^{(k)} I$  ; QR factorization of  $A^{(k-1)} - \mu^{(k)} I$

$A^{(k)} = R^{(k)} Q^{(k)} + \mu^{(k)} I$

} Piva QR Algorithm

② Simultaneous Iteration: Algorithm: Pick  $\hat{Q}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  (orthonormal column  $\rightarrow$  usually pick  $I$ )

for  $k=1, 2, \dots$

$Z = A \hat{Q}^{(k-1)}$

$\hat{Q}^{(k)} R^{(k)} = Z$  reduced QR of  $Z$  \* column space of  $\hat{Q}^{(k)}$  and  $Z^{(k)}$  are equal and equal to  $A^k \hat{Q}^{(1)}$

③ Simultaneous Iteration  $\leftrightarrow$  QR algorithm applied to full set of  $n=m$  vectors (Identity)

④ Theorem: Simultaneous Iteration:  $\underline{Q}^{(1)} = I$

$Z = A \underline{Q}^{(k-1)}$

$Z = \underline{Q}^{(k)} R^{(k)}$

$A^{(k)} = (\underline{Q}^{(k)})^T A \underline{Q}^{(k)}$

QR:  $A^{(1)} = A$

$A^{(k-1)} = \underline{Q}^{(k-1)} R^{(k-1)}$

$A^{(k)} = R^{(k)} \underline{Q}^{(k)}$

$\underline{Q}^{(k)} = \underline{Q}^{(1)} \underline{Q}^{(2)} \dots \underline{Q}^{(k)}$

both:  $\underline{R}^{(k)} = R^{(k)} R^{(k-1)} \dots R^{(1)}$

\* These two processes generate identical sequences of matrices  $\underline{R}^{(k)}$ ,  $\underline{Q}^{(k)}$ , and  $A^{(k)}$ , namely those defined by the QR factorization of the  $K^{th}$  power of  $A$ ,

$A^k = \underline{Q}^{(k)} \underline{R}^{(k)}$   $\leftarrow$  constructs orthonormal bases for powers of  $A$

together w/ the projection,

$A^{(k)} = (\underline{Q}^{(k)})^T A \underline{Q}^{(k)}$   $\leftarrow$  Why it finds eigenvalues  $\rightarrow$  diagonal elements of  $A^{(k)}$  are Rayleigh Quotients corresponding to columns of  $\underline{Q}^{(k)}$

\* Converges linearly \*

VI) QR w/ Shifts:

# Krylov Subspaces

I) Overview: 1) Krylov Subspace: Set of vectors  $b, Ab, A^2b, \dots$

2) Table:

	$Ax=b$	$Ax=\lambda x$
$A=A^*$	Conjugate Gradients	Lanczos
$A \neq A^*$	GMRES BICG	Arnoldi

\* Conjugate Gradients needs  $A$  to be symmetric positive definite as well

3) Idea: Projection of  $A$  into Krylov subspace to reduce to a sequence of matrix problems of dimensions  $n=1,2,\dots$

Notes: • if  $A$  is hermitian  $\rightarrow$  reduced matrices are triangular

• if  $A$  is not  $\rightarrow$  Hessenberg Form

• These methods typically reduce order of the problem, i.e.  $\mathcal{O}(n^3) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(n^2)$

II) Arnoldi Iteration: Gram-Schmidt style iterator for transforming a matrix to Hessenberg form for finding eigenvalues/eigenvectors

Recall: Two steps to find eigenvalues iteratively: ① Reduce to Hessenberg (or triangular)

② Take that matrix and reduce to upper triangular (or diagonal) } Schur Form

① Computing a Hessenberg reduction:  $A = QHQ^*$   $\leftrightarrow$  Householder reflectors  
Arnoldi Iteration

② Orthogonal Similarity:  $A = QHQ^*$  or  $AQ = QH$  ;  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$

Let  $Q_n$  = matrix of first  $n$  columns of  $Q$  ;  $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  ;  $\tilde{H}_n = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & & h_{1n} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & & h_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{AQ_n}_{m \times n} = \underbrace{Q_{n+1}}_{m \times n} \tilde{H}_n$$

Note:  $Aq_n = h_{1n}q_1 + h_{2n}q_2 + \dots + h_{nn}q_n + h_{n+1,n}q_{n+1}$   $\leftarrow q_{n+1}$  depends on itself and previous Krylov vecs

③ Algorithm:  $b = \text{anything}$ ,  $q_1 = b/\|b\|$

for  $n=1,2,\dots$

$$v = Aq_n$$

for  $j=1,2,\dots,n$

$$h_{jn} = q_j^* v$$

$$v = v - h_{jn}q_j$$

} Gram-Schmidt

$$h_{n+1,n} = \|v\|$$

$$q_{n+1} = v / h_{n+1,n}$$

$\leftarrow$  due  $q_1, \dots, q_n$  form basis of  $\mathcal{K}_n = \langle b, Ab, \dots, A^{n-1}b \rangle$   
 $= \langle q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{C}^m$

\* ④ In a nutshell, the Arnoldi process is the systematic construction of orthonormal basis for successive Krylov subspaces \*

or

A computation of projections onto successive Krylov subspaces

⑤ Ritz Values: Eigenvalues of  $H_n$  are called Arnoldi eigenvalue estimates and some are good approximations of the eigenvalues for  $A$

⑥ Theorem: The matrix  $Q_n$  generated by Arnoldi are reduced QR factor of the Krylov matrix,  $K_n = Q_n R_n$ ,

⑦ In Hessenberg matrix  $H_n$  are projection,  $H_n = Q_n^* A Q_n$

⑧ Successive iterates via,  $AQ_n = Q_{n+1} \tilde{H}_n$

### III) How Arnoldi Locates E-val's:

Note: Ritz value (e-val's of  $H_n$ ) converge rapidly are usually the extreme eigenvalues of  $A$  (e-val's near edge of spectrum of  $A$ )

① Arnoldi and Polynomial Approximation:  $x \in K_n \Rightarrow x = \sum_k c_k A^k b = Q(A)b \leftarrow$  some poly. times  $b$

• Arnold/Lanczos Approx Problem: Find  $P^n$  such that  $\|P^n(A)b\|_2$  is a minimum;  $P^n \in \mathcal{P}^n = \{ \text{non-zero polys of deg } n \}$

• Theorem: If  $K_n$  has full rank during Arnoldi iteration,  $\|P^n(A)b\|_2$  has unique solution  $\rightarrow$  the characteristic polynomial of  $H_n$

• Least Squares: If  $p \in \mathcal{P}^n$   $P(A)b = A^n b - Q_n y$  for some  $y \in \mathbb{C}^n$  and  $Q_n = [q_1 \dots q_n]$  (first  $n$ -column of  $Q$ )

$\rightarrow$  Find the point in  $K_n$  closest to  $A^n b$ , i.e.  $\min \|A^n b - Q_n y\|_2$



### ② How to find e-val's:

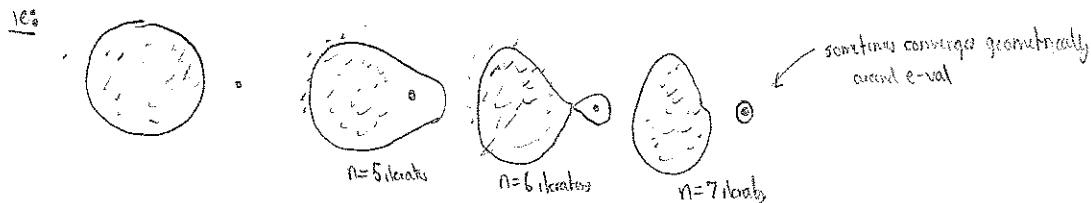
• Extreme Case:  $A$  is diagonalizable and has  $n \ll m$  distinct eigenvalues, hence minimal

degree  $n$  poly, then after  $n$  step of Arnoldi all e-val's should be found exactly by getting characteristic poly of  $H_n$  from  $P^n(A)$ .

• Practical Case: We do same thing but get Ritz values and e-val's are approximate

③ Arnoldi Lemniscates (a curve  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $|r(z)| = C$ )  $\rightarrow$  Arnoldi:  $C = \frac{\|P^n(A)b\|}{\|b\|}$

• as  $n$  increases (more iterations), lemniscates surround themselves around extreme e-val's then shrink rapidly around them



### IV) GMRES: "generalized minimal residuals" $\rightarrow$ solving $Ax = b$

Note: exact solution  $x_* = A^{-1}b$

Idea: At step  $n$ , approx  $x_*$  by  $x_n \in K_n$  that minimizes norm of  $r_n = b - Ax_n$  \*Least Squares\*

① Least-Squares:  $K_n = m \times n$  Krylov matrix  $\rightarrow AK_n = \begin{bmatrix} Ab & A^2b & \dots & A^n b \end{bmatrix}$ ; column space is  $AK_n$

• wish to solve  $\|AK_n c - b\|_2 = \min \rightarrow$  ① could use QR for  $AK_n$  ② Or find  $c$ ,  $x_n = K_n c$  } QR is unstable unfortunately for this

• Use Arnoldi: a) use Arnoldi to construct sequence of  $Q_n$ 's; recall  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  span  $K_n$

b) Hence the least squares are solved as:  $\|AQ_n y - b\| = \min$  then  $x_n = Q_n y$

c) Doing substitutions,  $AQ_n = Q_{n+1} \tilde{H}_n$   $\|Q_{n+1} \tilde{H}_n y - b\| = \min$

$\|\tilde{H}_n y - Q_{n+1}^* b\| = \min$ ;  $Q_{n+1}^* b = \|b\| \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow$  Final Least Squares:  $\|\tilde{H}_n y - \|b\| e_1\|_2 = \min$



## ② Mechanics of GMRES

① Algorithm:

$$q_1 = b/\|b\|$$

for  $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

each step minimizes the residual over all vectors  $x_n \in X_n$

[step  $n$  of Arnoldi]

Find  $y$  to minimize  $\|Q_n y - \|b\|e_1\|_2$

can solve least-squares step via QR factorization in  $O(n^2)$

$$x_n = Q_n y$$

## ③ GMRES and Poly Approximation:

Consider  $P_n = \{ \text{polys of deg} \leq n, \text{ with } p(0)=1 \}$

$x_n = (A^0 + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + \dots + c_{n-1} A^{n-1}) b = q_n(A) b$ ; note: these coeffs  $c_k$  are from  $\mathbb{C}$  ← solution to unstable method of least-squares

Now residual,  $r_n = b - A x_n = [I - A q_n(A)] b = p_n(A) b$

Hence GMRES process chooses coefficients of  $p_n$  to minimize the norm of the residual.

## ④ Convergence of GMRES:

① GMRES converges monotonically  $\|r_{n+1}\| \leq \|r_n\|$  (Note:  $p_n \in p_{n+1}$  but  $p_n \neq p_{n+1}$ )

② After  $m$  steps (recall  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ ), the process must converge (in absence of rounding errors):  $\|r_m\| = 0$

$$\|r_n\| = \|p_n(A) b\| \leq \|p_n(A)\| \|b\| \Rightarrow \frac{\|r_n\|}{\|b\|} \leq \inf_{p_n \in P_n} \|p_n(A)\|$$

## V) Lanczos Iteration: Basically Arnoldi but for Hermitian matrices

### ① Simplifications:

①  $H_n$  is real and symmetric  $\Rightarrow$  it is tridiagonal

② Ritz values are also real

③ Much cheaper than Arnoldi  $\rightarrow$  instead of  $(n+1)$  recurrence we have 3-term

### ② Iteration:

$$\text{Define } H_n = T_n = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & \\ \beta_1 & \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \\ & \beta_2 & \ddots & \beta_{n-1} \\ & & \beta_{n-1} & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

### Algorithm:

$\beta_0 = 0, q_0 = 0, b = \text{arbitrary}, q_1 = b/\|b\|$

for  $n=1, 2, \dots$

$$v = A q_n$$

$$\alpha_n = q_n^T v$$

$$v = v - \beta_{n-1} q_{n-1} - \alpha_n q_n$$

$$\beta_n = \|v\|$$

$$q_{n+1} = v/\beta_n$$

$$\text{Note: } K_n = Q_n R_n, T_n = Q_n^T A Q_n \Rightarrow A Q_n = Q_{n+1} \tilde{T}_n$$

$$A q_n = \beta_{n-1} q_{n-1} + \alpha_n q_n + \beta_n q_{n+1}$$

## VI) Lanczos and Gauss Quadrature:

### ① Orthogonal Polys on $[-1, 1]$ :

$\beta_0 = 0, q_0(x) = 0, q_1(x) = 1/\sqrt{2}$

for  $n=1, 2, \dots$

$$v(x) = x q_n$$

$$\alpha_n = \langle q_n, v \rangle$$

$$v = v - \beta_{n-1} q_{n-1}(x) - \alpha_n q_n(x)$$

$$\beta_n = \|v\|$$

$$q_{n+1} = v/\beta_n$$

\* Produces Legendre Polys \*

\* Note:  $\alpha_n's = 0, \beta_n = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \frac{1}{4n^2})^{-1/2}$

### ② Jacobi Matrix:

$$K_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x^2 & \dots & x^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \quad Q_n = \begin{bmatrix} q_1(x) & q_2(x) & \dots & q_n(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

← Jacobi Matrix

$$T_{ij} = \langle q_i, x q_j \rangle$$

← coeff of 2 on highest degree

### ③ Characteristic Poly:

For speed choice of  $b$  and  $A$   $p(A)b = p(x)/\sqrt{2}$  hence we wish to find  $\|p'(x)\| = \text{minimum}$

Theorem: Let  $\{q_n(x)\}$  be sequence of orthogonal polys generated by iteration,  $\{T_n\}$  is sequence of tridiag Jacobi matrices,  $p^n$  is characteristic poly of  $T_n$ . Then for  $n=1, 2, \dots$   $p^n(x) = c_n q_{n+1}(x)$ ,  $c_n \in \mathbb{R}$ , the zeros of  $q_{n+1}(x)$  are eigenvalues of  $T_n \rightarrow$  are distinct and lie in  $(-1, 1)$

④ Quadrature Formulas: Zeros of Legendre Polys are nodes of Gauss-Legendre quadrature formulas ;  $I_n(f) = \sum_{j=1}^n w_j f(x_j) \approx \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx$

① Gauss-Quad Theorem:  $\{x_j\}$  set of  $n$  distinct pts,  $n \in [1, \infty]$ , then  $\exists$  unique choice of  $\{w_j\}$  such that quadrature is exact for any poly of degree  $\leq n-1$

\* No quad formula can do better than  $\partial n-1$ , Newton-Cotes are  $n-1$  \*

② Gauss-Quad Thm 2: Let  $T_n$  be  $n \times n$  Jacobi matrix from iteration, let  $T_n = V D V^T$  be orthogonal diagonalization, then nodes and weights of Gauss-Quad are given by:

$$x_j = \lambda_j$$

$$w_j = 2(v_j)_1^2 \leftarrow \text{"2 times square of 1st component of } v_j \text{" } \quad \forall j=1,2,\dots,n$$

VII) Conjugate Gradients: Solves  $Ax=b$  for symmetric positive definite systems

① Minimizing A-Norm:  $x^T A x > 0 \quad \forall \text{ nonzero } x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  ; define  $\|x\|_A = \sqrt{x^T A x}$

\* In a nutshell, conjugate gradient system of recursive formulas that generate unique sequence of  $x_n \in K_n$  such that  $\|e_n\|_A$  is minimized at each  $n$ .

② Algorithm:  $x_0 = 0, r_0 = b, p_0 = r_0$

for  $n=1,2,\dots$

$$\alpha_n = \frac{r_{n-1}^T r_{n-1}}{p_{n-1}^T A p_{n-1}} \quad ; \text{ step length}$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \alpha_n p_{n-1} \quad ; \text{ approx solution}$$

$$r_n = r_{n-1} - \alpha_n A p_{n-1} \quad ; \text{ residual}$$

$$\beta_n = \frac{r_n^T r_n}{r_{n-1}^T r_{n-1}} \quad ; \text{ improvement step}$$

$$p_n = r_n + \beta_n p_{n-1} \quad ; \text{ search direction}$$

Theorem "Orthogonality of Subspace":

$$K_n = \langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle = \langle p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{n-1} \rangle$$

$$= \langle r_0, r_1, \dots, r_{n-1} \rangle = \langle b, Ab, A^2 b, \dots, A^{n-1} b \rangle$$

② Residuals are orthogonal:  $r_n^T r_j = 0 \quad j < n$

③ Search direction "A-conjugate":  $p_n^T A p_j = 0 \quad j < n$

③ Optimality of CG:

① Theorem: Apply CG to SPD  $Ax=b$ , if iteration has not converged then  $x_n$  is unique pt in  $K_n$  that minimizes  $\|e_n\|_A$ . The convergence is monotonic,  $\|e_n\|_A \leq \|e_{n-1}\|_A$  and  $e_n = 0$  for some  $n \leq m$

Proof: Consider arbitrary pt.  $x = x_n - \Delta x \in K_n$  then  $e = x_n - x = x_n + \Delta x$

$$\begin{aligned} \|e\|_A^2 &= (e_n + \Delta x)^T A (e_n + \Delta x) = e_n^T A e_n + (\Delta x)^T A (\Delta x) + 2 e_n^T A \Delta x \\ &= e_n^T A e_n + (\Delta x)^T A (\Delta x) \quad \underbrace{2 e_n^T A \Delta x}_{=0 \text{ by CG}} \end{aligned}$$

hence b/c  $A$  is positive def,  $(\Delta x)^T A (\Delta x) > 0$  so error is minimized iff  $\Delta x = 0$

③ Optimality Algorithm: Given  $A$  and  $b$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - x^T b$

$$\|e_n\|_A^2 = e_n^T A e_n = (x_n - x_n)^T A (x_n - x_n)$$

$$= x_n^T A x_n - 2 x_n^T A x_n + x_n^T A x_n \quad ; \quad A x_n = b$$

$$= x_n^T A x_n - 2 x_n^T b + x_n^T b$$

$$= 2 \phi(x) + \text{constant}$$

Hence conjugate gradient can be seen as minimizing  $\phi(x), x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , when it achieves its minimum uniquely at  $x_n$

③ Rate of Convergence:

① if  $A$  has only  $n$ -distinct e-values, then CG converges in at most  $n$  steps

② if  $\|A\|_2 = X$ , then  $\frac{\|e_n\|_A}{\|e_0\|_A} \leq 2 \left( \frac{\sqrt{X}-1}{\sqrt{X}+1} \right)^n$

## Lanczos Iteration:

• Symmetric matrices to reduce to triangular for eigenvalue solvers

$$(I) \quad A Q_n = Q_n T \quad ; \quad T = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & \\ \beta_1 & \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \\ & \beta_2 & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \beta_{n-1} & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & \\ \beta_1 & \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \\ & \beta_2 & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \beta_{n-1} & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$n=1: \quad A q_1 = \alpha_1 q_1 + \beta_1 q_2$$

$$n=2: \quad A q_2 = \beta_1 q_1 + \alpha_2 q_2 + \beta_2 q_3$$

⋮

$$n: \quad A q_n = \beta_{n-1} q_{n-1} + \alpha_n q_n + \beta_n q_{n+1}$$

(II) Algorithm:

$$\beta_0 = 0, \alpha_0 = 0, q_1 = b / \|b\|$$

for  $n=1, \dots$

$$v = A q_n$$

$$\alpha_n = q_n^T v$$

$$v = v - \alpha_n q_n - \beta_{n-1} q_{n-1}$$

$$\beta_n = \|v\|$$

$$q_{n+1} = v / \beta_n$$

## Arnoldi Iteration

• non-symmetric matrices

$$(I) \quad A Q_n = Q_n \tilde{H}_n$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & \dots & q_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & \dots & h_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_{n1} & h_{n2} & \dots & h_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$n=1: \quad A q_1 = h_{11} q_1 + h_{12} q_2$$

$$n=2: \quad A q_2 = h_{21} q_1 + h_{22} q_2 + h_{23} q_3$$

⋮

$$n: \quad A q_n = h_{n1} q_1 + h_{n2} q_2 + \dots + h_{nn} q_n + h_{n,n+1} q_{n+1}$$

$$(II) \quad \text{Algorithm:} \quad q_1 = b / \|b\|$$

for  $n=1, \dots$

$$v = A q_n$$

for  $j=1, \dots, n$

$$h_{jn} = q_j^T v$$

$$v = v - h_{jn} q_j$$

end

$$h_{n,n+1} = \|v\|$$

$$q_{n+1} = v / h_{n,n+1}$$

## QR Factorization of Krylov:

vectors  $q_j$  are orthonormal basis of Krylov subspaces:  $X_n = \langle b, Ab, A^2b, \dots, A^{n-1}b \rangle = \langle q_1, \dots, q_n \rangle$

$X_n = \begin{bmatrix} b & Ab & A^2b & \dots \end{bmatrix} = Q_n R_n \rightarrow$  project of  $A$  onto the span of  $q_j$ .  $H_n = Q_n^T A Q_n$  whose eigenvalues of  $H_n$  are good approximations to eigenvalues of  $A$ .

## GMRES: solving $Ax=b$

• step n, approximate  $x_n$  by  $\tilde{x}_n \in K_n$  that minimizes the norm of the residual  $r_n = b - Ax_n$

(I) let  $c \in \mathbb{C}^m$  s.t.  $AK_n = \begin{bmatrix} A^0 c & A^1 c & \dots & A^{n-1} c \end{bmatrix}$  column space is  $AX_n$

$$\therefore \min \|AK_n c - b\| \quad \leftarrow \text{unstable}$$

instead use Arnoldi to find  $Q_n$ ...

$$\text{let } x_n = Q_n y$$

$$\rightarrow \min \|AQ_n y - b\| \quad ; \text{ recall } AQ_n = \tilde{Q}_n H_n$$

$$\min \|Q_n H_n y - b\|$$

$$\min \|\tilde{H}_n y - Q_n^* b\| \quad ; \quad Q_n^* b = \|b\| \hat{e}_1$$

$$\min \|\tilde{H}_n y - \|b\| \hat{e}_1\|$$

Note:  $\|\tilde{H}_n y - \|b\| \hat{e}_1\|_2 = \sqrt{(H_n y - \|b\| \hat{e}_1)^T (H_n y - \|b\| \hat{e}_1)} = f = \sqrt{y^T H_n^2 y - 2\|b\| y^T \tilde{H}_n^T \hat{e}_1 + \|b\|^2}$

$$\nabla f = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2 H_n^2 y - 2\|b\| \tilde{H}_n^T \hat{e}_1}{\sqrt{\dots}} = 0$$

$$\therefore \boxed{H_n^2 y = \|b\| \tilde{H}_n^T \hat{e}_1}$$