# **Conjugate Gradient Method**

- direct and indirect methods
- positive definite linear systems
- Krylov sequence
- spectral analysis of Krylov sequence
- preconditioning

### Three classes of methods for linear equations

methods to solve linear system Ax = b,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ 

- dense direct (factor-solve methods)
  - runtime depends only on size; independent of data, structure, or sparsity
  - work well for n up to a few thousand
- sparse direct (factor-solve methods)
  - runtime depends on size, sparsity pattern; (almost) independent of data
  - can work well for n up to  $10^4$  or  $10^5$  (or more)
  - requires good heuristic for ordering

### • **indirect** (iterative methods)

- runtime depends on data, size, sparsity, required accuracy
- requires tuning, preconditioning, . . .
- good choice in many cases; only choice for  $n=10^6$  or larger

# Symmetric positive definite linear systems

SPD system of equations

$$Ax = b, \qquad A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}, \qquad A = A^T \succ 0$$

#### examples

- Newton/interior-point search direction:  $\nabla^2 \phi(x) \Delta x = -\nabla \phi(x)$
- ullet least-squares normal equations:  $(A^TA)x = A^Tb$
- ullet regularized least-squares:  $(A^TA + \mu I)x = A^Tb$
- $\bullet$  minimization of convex quadratic function  $(1/2)x^TAx-b^Tx$
- solving (discretized) elliptic PDE (e.g., Poisson equation)

- ullet analysis of resistor circuit: Gv=i
  - -v is node voltage (vector), i is (given) source current
  - -G is circuit conductance matrix

$$G_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{total conductance incident on node } i & i = j \\ -(\text{conductance between nodes } i \text{ and } j) & i \neq j \end{array} \right.$$

#### **CG** overview

- proposed by Hestenes and Stiefel in 1952 (as direct method)
- solves SPD system Ax = b
  - in theory (i.e., exact arithmetic) in n iterations
  - each iteration requires a few inner products in  ${\bf R}^n$ , and one matrix-vector multiply  $z\to Az$
- ullet for A dense, matrix-vector multiply  $z \to Az$  costs  $n^2$ , so total cost is  $n^3$ , same as direct methods
- ullet get advantage over dense if matrix-vector multiply is cheaper than  $n^2$
- with roundoff error, CG can work poorly (or not at all)
- but for some A (and b), can get good approximate solution in  $\ll n$  iterations

#### **Solution and error**

- $x^* = A^{-1}b$  is solution
- $x^*$  minimizes (convex function)  $f(x) = (1/2)x^TAx b^Tx$
- $\nabla f(x) = Ax b$  is gradient of f
- with  $f^* = f(x^*)$ , we have

$$f(x) - f^* = (1/2)x^T A x - b^T x - (1/2)x^{*T} A x^* + b^T x^*$$

$$= (1/2)(x - x^*)^T A (x - x^*)$$

$$= (1/2) \|x - x^*\|_A^2$$

i.e.,  $f(x) - f^*$  is half of squared A-norm of error  $x - x^*$ 

 $\bullet$  a relative measure (comparing x to 0):

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

(fraction of maximum possible reduction in f, compared to x = 0)

#### Residual

• r = b - Ax is called the **residual** at x

• 
$$r = -\nabla f(x) = A(x^* - x)$$

 $\bullet$  in terms of r, we have

$$f(x) - f^* = (1/2)(x - x^*)^T A(x - x^*)$$
$$= (1/2)r^T A^{-1}r$$
$$= (1/2)||r||_{A^{-1}}^2$$

- ullet a commonly used measure of relative accuracy:  $\eta = \|r\|/\|b\|$
- $\tau \leq \kappa(A)\eta^2$  ( $\eta$  is easily computable from x;  $\tau$  is not)

### Krylov subspace

(a.k.a. controllability subspace)

$$\mathcal{K}_k = \operatorname{span}\{b, Ab, \dots, A^{k-1}b\}$$

$$= \{p(A)b \mid p \text{ polynomial}, \operatorname{deg} p < k\}$$

we define the Krylov sequence  $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots$  as

$$x^{(k)} = \underset{x \in \mathcal{K}_k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ f(x) = \underset{x \in \mathcal{K}_k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ \|x - x^*\|_A^2$$

the CG algorithm (among others) generates the Krylov sequence

# Properties of Krylov sequence

- $f(x^{(k+1)}) \le f(x^{(k)})$  (but ||r|| can increase)
- $x^{(n)} = x^*$  (i.e.,  $x^* \in \mathcal{K}_n$  even when  $\mathcal{K}_n \neq \mathbf{R}^n$ )
- $x^{(k)} = p_k(A)b$ , where  $p_k$  is a polynomial with  $\deg p_k < k$
- less obvious: there is a two-term recurrence

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \alpha_k r^{(k)} + \beta_k (x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)})$$

for some  $\alpha_k$ ,  $\beta_k$  (basis of CG algorithm)

### **Cayley-Hamilton theorem**

characteristic polynomial of A:

$$\chi(s) = \det(sI - A) = s^n + \alpha_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_n$$

by Caley-Hamilton theorem

$$\chi(A) = A^n + \alpha_1 A^{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_n I = 0$$

and so

$$A^{-1} = -(1/\alpha_n)A^{n-1} - (\alpha_1/\alpha_n)A^{n-2} - \dots - (\alpha_{n-1}/\alpha_n)I$$

in particular, we see that  $x^* = A^{-1}b \in \mathcal{K}_n$ 

# Spectral analysis of Krylov sequence

- $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ , Q orthogonal,  $\Lambda = \mathbf{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$
- define  $y = Q^T x$ ,  $\bar{b} = Q^T b$ ,  $y^* = Q^T x^*$
- $\bullet$  in terms of y, we have

$$f(x) = \bar{f}(y) = (1/2)x^T Q \Lambda Q^T x - b^T Q Q^T x$$
$$= (1/2)y^T \Lambda y - \bar{b}^T y$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n ((1/2)\lambda_i y_i^2 - \bar{b}_i y_i)$$

so 
$$y_i^\star = \bar{b}_i/\lambda_i$$
,  $f^\star = -(1/2)\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{b}_i^2/\lambda_i$ 

### Krylov sequence in terms of y

$$y^{(k)} = \underset{y \in \bar{\mathcal{K}}_k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \bar{f}(y), \qquad \bar{\mathcal{K}}_k = \operatorname{span}\{\bar{b}, \Lambda \bar{b}, \dots, \Lambda^{k-1} \bar{b}\}$$

$$y_i^{(k)} = p_k(\lambda_i)\bar{b}_i, \quad \deg p_k < k$$

$$p_k = \underset{\deg p < k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{b}_i^2 \left( (1/2) \lambda_i p(\lambda_i)^2 - p(\lambda_i) \right)$$

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* = \bar{f}(y^{(k)}) - f^*$$

$$= \min_{\deg p < k} (1/2) \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{b}_i^2 \frac{(\lambda_i p(\lambda_i) - 1)^2}{\lambda_i}$$

$$= \min_{\deg p < k} (1/2) \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_i^{*2} \lambda_i (\lambda_i p(\lambda_i) - 1)^2$$

$$= \min_{\deg q \le k, \ q(0) = 1} (1/2) \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_i^{*2} \lambda_i q(\lambda_i)^2$$

$$= \min_{\deg q \le k, \ q(0) = 1} (1/2) \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{b}_i^2 \frac{q(\lambda_i)^2}{\lambda_i}$$

$$\tau_k = \frac{\min_{\deg q \le k, \ q(0)=1} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_i^{\star 2} \lambda_i q(\lambda_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_i^{\star 2} \lambda_i}$$

$$\leq \min_{\deg q \le k, \ q(0)=1} \left( \max_{i=1,\dots,n} q(\lambda_i)^2 \right)$$

- if there is a polynomial q of degree k, with q(0) = 1, that is small on the spectrum of A, then  $f(x^{(k)}) f^*$  is small
- ullet if eigenvalues are clustered in k groups, then  $y^{(k)}$  is a good approximate solution
- if solution  $x^*$  is approximately a linear combination of k eigenvectors of A, then  $y^{(k)}$  is a good approximate solution

### A bound on convergence rate

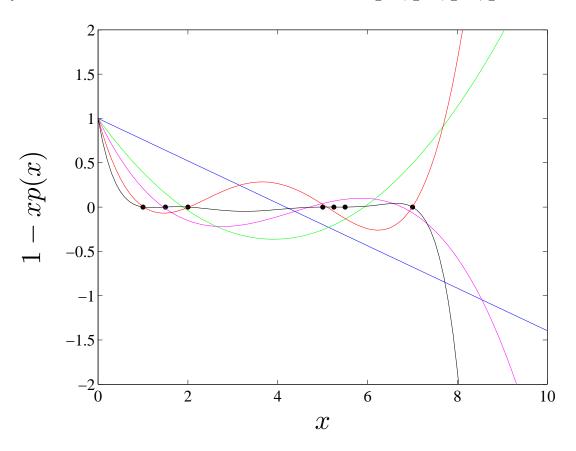
• taking q as Chebyshev polynomial of degree k, that is small on interval  $[\lambda_{\min}, \lambda_{\max}]$ , we get

$$au_k \le \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1}\right)^k, \qquad \kappa = \lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$$

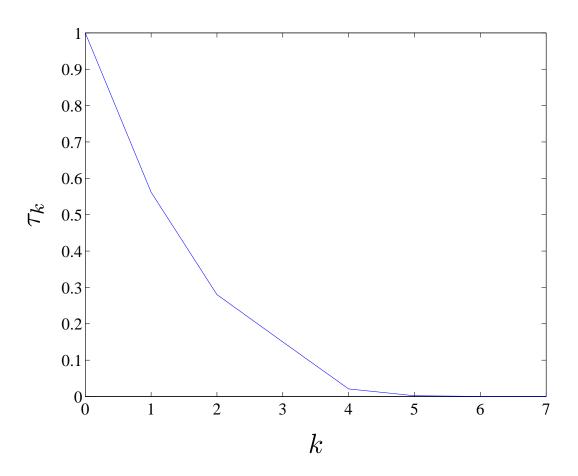
ullet convergence can be much faster than this, if spectrum of A is spread but clustered

# Small example

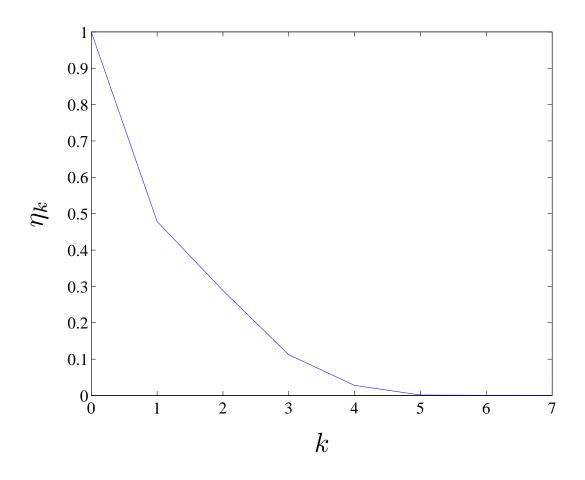
 $A \in \mathbf{R}^{7 \times 7}$ , spectrum shown as filled circles;  $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4$ , and  $p_7$  shown



# Convergence



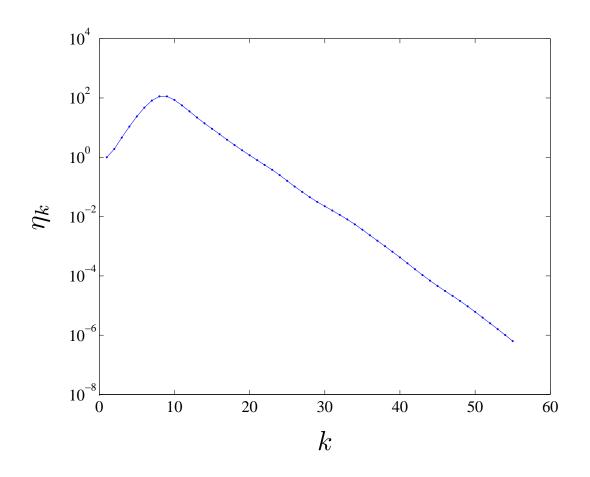
# Residual convergence



### Larger example

- solve Gv = i, resistor network with  $10^5$  nodes
- ullet average node degree 10; around  $10^6$  nonzeros in G
- random topology with one grounded node
- ullet nonzero branch conductances uniform on [0,1]
- ullet external current i uniform on [0,1]
- ullet sparse Cholesky factorization of G requires too much memory

# Residual convergence



### **CG** algorithm

(follows C. T. Kelley)

```
x := 0, \quad r := b, \quad \rho_0 := \|r\|^2 for k = 1, \dots, N_{\max} quit if \sqrt{\rho_{k-1}} \le \epsilon \|b\| if k = 1 then p := r; else p := r + (\rho_{k-1}/\rho_{k-2})p w := Ap \alpha := \rho_{k-1}/p^Tw x := x + \alpha p r := r - \alpha w \rho_k := \|r\|^2
```

# **Efficient matrix-vector multiply**

- ullet sparse A
- ullet structured (e.g., sparse) plus low rank
- products of easy-to-multiply matrices
- fast transforms (FFT, wavelet, . . . )
- inverses of lower/upper triangular (by forward/backward substitution)
- fast Gauss transform, for  $A_{ij} = \exp(-\|v_i v_j\|^2/\sigma^2)$  (via multipole)

# Shifting

- suppose we have guess  $\hat{x}$  of solution  $x^{\star}$
- ullet we can solve  $Az=b-A\hat{x}$  using CG, then get  $x^\star=\hat{x}+z$
- in this case  $x^{(k)} = \hat{x} + z^{(k)} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{x \in \hat{x} + \mathcal{K}_k} f(x)$ ( $\hat{x} + \mathcal{K}_k$  is called *shifted Krylov subspace*)
- ullet same as initializing CG alg with  $x:=\hat{x}$ , r:=b-Ax
- good for 'warm start', *i.e.*, solving Ax = b starting from a good initial guess (e.g., the solution of another system  $\tilde{A}x = \tilde{b}$ , with  $A \approx \tilde{A}$ ,  $b \approx \tilde{b}$ )

# Preconditioned conjugate gradient algorithm

- idea: apply CG after linear change of coordinates x = Ty,  $\det T \neq 0$
- use CG to solve  $T^TATy = T^Tb$ ; then set  $x^* = T^{-1}y^*$
- ullet T or  $M=TT^T$  is called *preconditioner*
- in naive implementation, each iteration requires multiplies by T and  $T^T$  (and A); also need to compute  $x^* = T^{-1}y^*$  at end
- can re-arrange computation so each iteration requires one multiply by M (and A), and no final solve  $x^* = T^{-1}y^*$
- called preconditioned conjugate gradient (PCG) algorithm

### Choice of preconditioner

- ullet if spectrum of  $T^TAT$  (which is the same as the spectrum of MA) is clustered, PCG converges fast
- extreme case:  $M = A^{-1}$
- ullet trade-off between enhanced convergence, and extra cost of multiplication by M at each step
- ullet goal is to find M that is cheap to multiply, and approximate inverse of A (or at least has a more clustered spectrum than A)

# Some generic preconditioners

- diagonal:  $M = \mathbf{diag}(1/A_{11}, \dots, 1/A_{nn})$
- incomplete/approximate Cholesky factorization: use  $M=\hat{A}^{-1}$ , where  $\hat{A}=\hat{L}\hat{L}^T$  is an approximation of A with cheap Cholesky factorization
  - compute Cholesky factorization of  $\hat{A}$ ,  $\hat{A}=\hat{L}\hat{L}^T$
  - at each iteration, compute  $Mz=\hat{L}^{-T}\hat{L}^{-1}z$  via forward/backward substitution
- examples
  - $-\hat{A}$  is central k-wide band of A
  - $\hat{L}$  obtained by sparse Cholesky factorization of A, ignoring small elements in A, or refusing to create excessive fill-in

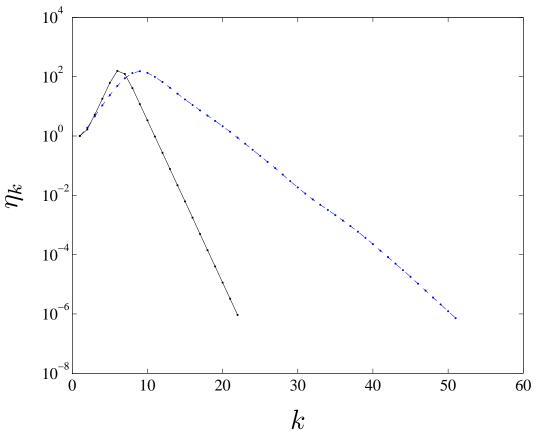
# Preconditioned conjugate gradient

(with preconditioner  $M \approx A^{-1}$  (hopefully))

$$\begin{aligned} x &:= 0, \quad r := b - Ax_0, \quad p := r \quad z := Mr, \quad \rho_1 := r^T z \\ \text{for } k &= 1, \dots, N_{\text{max}} \\ \text{quit if } \sqrt{\rho_k} &\leq \epsilon \|b\|_2 \text{ or } \|r\| \leq \epsilon \|b\|_2 \\ w &:= Ap \\ \alpha &:= \frac{\rho_k}{w^T p} \\ x &:= x + \alpha p \\ r &:= r - \alpha w \\ z &:= Mr \\ \rho_{k+1} &:= z^T r \\ p &:= z + \frac{\rho_{k+1}}{\rho_k} p \end{aligned}$$

# Larger example

residual convergence with and without diagonal preconditioning



### **CG** summary

- in theory (with exact arithmetic) converges to solution in n steps
  - the bad news: due to numerical round-off errors, can take more than n steps (or fail to converge)
  - the good news: with luck (i.e., good spectrum of A), can get good approximate solution in  $\ll n$  steps
- ullet each step requires  $z \to Az$  multiplication
  - can exploit a variety of structure in A
  - in many cases, never form or store the matrix A
- compared to direct (factor-solve) methods, CG is less reliable, data dependent; often requires good (problem-dependent) preconditioner
- but, when it works, can solve extremely large systems