Mathematical Tripos Part II: Michaelmas Term 2020

Numerical Analysis – Lecture 19

Approach 4.20 (Minimization of quadratic function) The methods we considered so far for solving Ax = b, namely Jacobi, Gauss-Seidel, and those with relaxation, fit into the scheme

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + c_k d^{(k)}$$
,

where we were aimed at getting $\rho(H) < 1$ for the iteration matix H. Say, for Jacobi with relaxation, we set $c_k = \omega$ and $d^{(k)} = D^{-1}(\boldsymbol{b} - A\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)})$.

For solving Ax = b with a (positive definite) matrix A > 0, there is a different approach to constructing good iterative methods. It is based on succesive minimization of the quadratic function

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)}) := \| \boldsymbol{x}^* - \boldsymbol{x}^{(k)} \|_A^2 = \| \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)} \|_A^2,$$

since the minimizer is clearly the exact solution. Here, $\|\boldsymbol{y}\|_A := (A\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{y})^{1/2} := \sqrt{\boldsymbol{y}^T A \boldsymbol{y}}$ is a Euclidean-type distance which is well-defined for A > 0. So, at each step k, we are decreasing the A-distance between $\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)}$ and the exact solution \boldsymbol{x}^* . Thus, for a symmetric positive definite A > 0, we choose an iterative method that provides the descent condition

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + c_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \Rightarrow F(\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}) < F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}).$$
 (4.5)

An equivalent approach is to minimize the quadratic function

$$F_1(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{x}^T A \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{b},$$

which attains its minimum when $\nabla F_1(\boldsymbol{x}) = A\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b} = 0$, and which does not involve the unknown \boldsymbol{x}^* . It is easy to check that $F_1(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2}F(\boldsymbol{x}) - \frac{1}{2}c$, where $c = \boldsymbol{x}^{*T}A\boldsymbol{x}^*$ is a constant independent of k, hence equivalence.

Example 4.21 Both the Jacobi and the Gauss-Seidel methods satisfy (4.5), precisely

$$\begin{split} (A \boldsymbol{e}^{(k+1)}, \boldsymbol{e}^{(k+1)}) &= (A \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}) - (C \boldsymbol{y}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(k)}) < (A \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}) \,, \\ \text{where for Gauss-Seidel:} \quad C = D > 0, \qquad \boldsymbol{y}^{(k)} := (L_0 + D)^{-1} A \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}; \\ \text{and for Jacobi:} \quad C = 2D - A > 0, \qquad \boldsymbol{y}^{(k)} := D^{-1} A \boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}. \end{split}$$

Method 4.22 (*A*-orthogonal projection) Next, we strengthen the descent condition (4.5), namely given $\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)}$ and some $\boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}$ (called a *search direction*), we will seek $\boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)}$ from the set of vectors on the line $\ell = \{\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}\}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}}$ such that it makes the value of $F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)})$ not just smaller than $F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)})$, but as small as possible (with respect to this set), namely

$$\boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)} := \arg\min_{\alpha} F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}).$$
(4.6)

Lemma 4.23 The minimizer in (4.6) is given by the formula

$$\boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, \qquad \alpha_k = \frac{(\boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)})}{(A\boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)})}.$$
 (4.7)

Proof. From the definition of *F*, it follows that in (4.6) we should choose the point $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \in \ell$ that minimizes the *A*-distance between \mathbf{x}^* and the points $\mathbf{y} \in \ell$. Geometrically, it is clear that the minimum occurs when $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ is the A-orthogonal projection of \mathbf{x}^* onto the line $\ell = {\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}}$, i.e., when

$$\boldsymbol{x}^* - \boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)} \perp_A \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \Rightarrow A(\boldsymbol{x}^* - \boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)}) \perp \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} - \alpha_k A \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \perp \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}.$$

This gives expression for α_k in (4.7).

Method 4.24 (The steepest descent method) This method takes $d^{(k)} = -\nabla F_1(x^{(k)}) = b - Ax^{(k)}$ for every *k*, the reason being that, locally, the negative gradient of a quadratic function shows the direction of the (locally) steepest descent at a given point. Thus, the iterations have the form

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k (\mathbf{b} - A \mathbf{x}^{(k)}), \qquad k \ge 0.$$
 (4.8)

It can be proved that the sequence $(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)})$ converges to the solution \boldsymbol{x}^* of the system $A\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b}$ as required, but usually the speed of convergence is rather slow. The reason is that the iteration (4.8) decreases the value of $F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)})$ locally, relatively to $F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(k)})$, but the global decrease, with respect to $F(\boldsymbol{x}^{(0)})$, is often not that large. The use of *conjugate directions* provides a method with a global minimization property.



Definition 4.25 (Conjugate directions) The vectors $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are *conjugate* with respect to a symmetric positive definite matrix A if they are nonzero and A-orthogonal: $(u, v)_A := (Au, v) = 0$.

Theorem 4.26 (Non-examinable) Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, A > 0, let $\{d^{(k)}\}_{k=0}^{n-1}$ be a set of the conjugate directions, i.e., $(Ad^{(k)}, d^{(i)}) = 0$ for i < k. Then the value of $F(\mathbf{x}^{(m+1)})$ obtained through step-by-step minimization for each k = 0..m as described in (4.7) coincides with the minimum of $F(\mathbf{y})$ taken over all $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \sum_{k=0}^{m} c_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ simultaneously, namely

$$\arg\min_{c_0,...,c_m} F(\boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{x}^{(m+1)} = \boldsymbol{x}^{(0)} + \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}.$$

Proof. Again, it is clear geometrically that the minimal *A*-distance between the exact solution x^* and the points y on the plane $\mathcal{P} := \{x^{(0)} + \sum_{k=0}^{m} c_k d^{(k)} : c_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is attained when $x^{(m+1)} \in \mathcal{P}$ is the *A*-orthogonal projection of x^* onto \mathcal{P} , i.e.,

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{y}\in\mathcal{P}}F(\boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{x}^{(m+1)} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{x}^* - \boldsymbol{x}^{(m+1)} \perp_A \{\boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}\}_{k=0}^m$$

It can be shown then, that (for conjugate $\{d^{(k)}\}$) the latter conditions provide expressions for α_k as given in (4.7).

So, if a sequence $(d^{(k)})$ of conjugate directions is at hands, we have an iterative procedure with good approximation properties.

The (*A*-orthogonal) basis of conjugate directions is constructed by *A*-orthogonalization of the sequence $\{r_0, Ar_0, A^2r_0, ..., A^{n-1}r_0\}$ with $r_0 = b - Ax_0$. This is done in the way similar to orthogonalization of the monomial sequence $\{1, x, x^2, ..., x^{n-1}\}$ using a recurrence relation.

Remark 4.27 It is possible to extend the methods for solving Ax = b with symmetric positive definite A to any other matrices by a simple trick. Suppose we want to solve Bx = c, where $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is nonsingular. We can convert the above system to the symmetric and positive definite setting by defining $A = B^T B$, $b = B^T c$ and then solving Ax = b with the conjugate gradient algorithm (or any other method for positive definite A).