

Mathematical Tripod Part II: Michaelmas Term 2015

Numerical Analysis – Lecture 21

Lemma 4.29 (Properties of Krylov subspaces) Given A and \mathbf{v} , let δ_m be the dimension of the Krylov subspace $K_m(A, \mathbf{v})$. Then the sequence $\{\delta_m\}_1^n$ increases monotonically and has the following properties.

1) There exists a positive integer $s \leq n$ such that $\delta_m = m$ for $m \leq s$ and $\delta_m = s$ for $m > s$.

2) If we can express \mathbf{v} as $\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{s'} c_i \mathbf{w}_i$, where (\mathbf{w}_i) are eigenvectors of A corresponding to distinct eigenvalues and all (c_i) are nonzero, then $s = s'$.

Remark 4.30 Assumption in the second part (regarding \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w}_i) does not require that all the eigenvalues of A should be distinct. It is sufficient to have n linearly independent eigenvectors.

Proof. 1) Clearly, $K_m(A, \mathbf{v}) \subseteq K_{m+1}(A, \mathbf{v}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, therefore $\delta_m \leq \delta_{m+1} \leq n$. We further note that $\delta_1 = 1$ (since $A^0 \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \neq 0$) and $\delta_m \leq m$, because each subspace $K_m(A, \mathbf{v})$ is spanned by m vectors. Let s be the greatest integer such that $\delta_s = s$. Then $s = \delta_s \leq \delta_{s+1} \leq s$, therefore $\delta_{s+1} = \delta_s$ and the spaces $K_s(A, \mathbf{v})$ and $K_{s+1}(A, \mathbf{v})$ are the same. This implies that $A^s \mathbf{v}$ belongs to $K_s(A, \mathbf{v})$, i.e., $A^s \mathbf{v} = \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} a_j A^j \mathbf{v}$. But then

$$A^{s+r} \mathbf{v} = \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} a_j A^{j+r} \mathbf{v}, \quad r \geq 0,$$

and that shows that the spaces $K_{s+r+1}(A, \mathbf{v})$ and $K_{s+r}(A, \mathbf{v})$ are the same for every $r \geq 0$. Therefore, for every $m > s$, we have $K_m(A, \mathbf{v}) = K_s(A, \mathbf{v})$ and respectively $\delta_m = \delta_s = s$.

2) Suppose now that $\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{s'} c_i \mathbf{w}_i$, where (\mathbf{w}_i) are eigenvectors of A with the corresponding distinct eigenvalues λ_i . Then $A^j \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{s'} c_i \lambda_i^j \mathbf{w}_i$, and we deduce that

$$K_s(A, \mathbf{v}) \subseteq \text{Sp}\{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_{s'}\}.$$

Since eigenvectors are linearly independent, it follows that $\delta_s = s \leq s'$.

Assume next that $s < s'$. We have already proved that in this case $\delta_{s'} = \delta_s = s$, therefore the vectors $(A^j \mathbf{v})_0^{s'-1}$ are linearly dependent. In other words, there exist $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{s'-1}$, not all zero, so that $p(A)\mathbf{v} := \sum_{j=0}^{s'-1} a_j A^j \mathbf{v} = 0$, where $p(x) := \sum_{j=0}^{s'-1} a_j x^j$ is a polynomial of degree $\leq s' - 1$. Therefore,

$$0 = p(A)\mathbf{v} = p(A) \sum_{i=1}^{s'} c_i \mathbf{w}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{s'} p(\lambda_i) c_i \mathbf{w}_i.$$

Since the eigenvectors are linearly independent and all c_i are nonzero, we deduce from the above that $p(\lambda_i) = 0$ for $i = 1 \dots s'$, i.e. that the polynomial p has s' different roots $x = \lambda_i$. But this is a contradiction because p is of degree $\leq s' - 1$. Hence the assumption $s < s'$ is false, therefore $s = s'$, and the proof is complete. \square

Application 4.31 (Number of iterations in CGM) It follows from the previous lemma that the number of iterations of the CGM for solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is at most the number of distinct eigenvalues of A . Further, if \mathbf{b} is expressed as a linear combination of eigenvectors of A with distinct eigenvalues, then the number of iterations is bounded from above by the number of nonzero terms in the linear combination.

Technique 4.32 (Preconditioning) We change variables, $\mathbf{x} = P^T \hat{\mathbf{x}}$, where P is a nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix. Thus, instead of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, we are solving the linear system

$$PAP^T \hat{\mathbf{x}} = P\mathbf{b}.$$

Note that symmetry and positive definiteness of A imply that PAP^T is also symmetric and positive definite. Therefore, we can apply conjugate gradients to the new system. This results in the

solution \hat{x} , hence $x = P^T \hat{x}$. This procedure is called the *preconditioned conjugate gradient method* and P is called the *preconditioner*.

The *condition number* $\kappa(A)$ of a symmetric positive-definite matrix A is the ratio $\lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$ between the magnitude of its largest and the least eigenvalue. The closer is this number to 1, the faster is convergence. The main idea of preconditioning is to pick P so that $\kappa(P^T A P)$ is much smaller than $\kappa(A)$, thus accelerating convergence.

The identity $(P A P^T)^j P = P (A P^T P)^j$ implies that

$$\dim K_m(P A P^T, P \mathbf{b}) = \dim K_m(A P^T P, \mathbf{b}),$$

i.e. that the dimension of the Krylov subspace for the preconditioned CGM, is equal to the dimension of $K_m(A P^T P, \mathbf{b})$. If we set

$$S^{-1} := P^T P =: (Q Q^T)^{-1},$$

then it is suggestive to choose $S = Q Q^T$ as an approximation to A which is easy to invert, so that $A S^{-1}$ is close to identity, thus

$$\dim K_m(A P^T P, \mathbf{b}) = \dim K_m(A S^{-1}, \mathbf{b}) \approx \dim K_m(I, \mathbf{b}) \ll n.$$

1) The simplest choice of S is $D = \text{diag } A$.

2) Another possibility is to choose S as a band matrix with small bandwidth. For example, solving the Poisson equation with the five-point formula, we may take S to be the tridiagonal part of A . In that case we commence with the Cholesky factorization of $S = Q Q^T$, so that $S^{-1} = Q^{-T} Q$, hence $P = Q^{-1}$. The main expense in each step of the method is the computation of

$$\mathbf{z} = P \mathbf{y} = Q^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

for some $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, but note that computing $Q^{-1} \mathbf{y}$ is the same as solving the linear system $Q \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}$, which is cheap as Q is a triangular matrix.

3) One can also take $P = L^{-1}$, where L is the lower triangular part of A (maybe imposing some changes). For example, for the Poisson equation, with $m = 20$ hence dealing with 400×400 system, we take P^{-1} as the lower triangular part of A , but change the diagonal elements from 4 to $\frac{5}{2}$. Then we get a computer precision after just 30 iterations.

Example 4.33 For the tridiagonal system $A \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, we choose the preconditioner as follows.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & & & \\ -1 & 2 & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & -1 & 2 \\ & & & & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ -1 & 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad S = Q Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & & & \\ -1 & 2 & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & -1 & 2 \\ & & & & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrix S coincides with A except at the $(1,1)$ entry. The matrix $C = Q^{-T} A Q^{-1}$ for the preconditioned CGM has just two distinct eigenvalues, and we recover the exact solution just in two steps.

Matlab demo: Download the Matlab GUI for *Preconditioning of Conjugate Gradient* from <http://www.maths.cam.ac.uk/undergrad/course/na/ii/precond/precond.php>. Run the GUI to solve different systems of linear equations, trying different preconditioners P . You can select from some preset preconditioners but can propose your own customised preconditioners as well. What does preconditioning do to the spectrum of the system matrix?