Mathematical Tripos Part II: Michaelmas Term 2021 Numerical Analysis – Lecture 19

Conjugate gradient method The conjugate gradient method is the method of conjugate directions (Theorem 4.23 from previous lecture) where the directions $d^{(i)}$ are chosen so that they *A*-orthogonalize the residuals, i.e., the $d^{(i)}$ satisfy

$$\operatorname{span}(\boldsymbol{d}^{(0)},\ldots,\boldsymbol{d}^{(k-1)}) = \operatorname{span}(\boldsymbol{r}^{(0)},\ldots,\boldsymbol{r}^{(k-1)})$$
 (4.8)

for every iteration k, in addition to being pairwise A-orthogonal. This can be achieved by setting $d^{(0)} = r^{(0)}$ and applying the Gram-Schmidt step at each iteration

$$\boldsymbol{d}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{i < k} \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(i)} \rangle_A}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(i)} \rangle_A} \boldsymbol{d}^{(i)}.$$
(4.9)

Because of our particular choice of $d^{(k)}$, the equation above simplifies dramatically and the terms $i \leq k - 1$ in the summation above happen to be zero! This is the *key point* of the CG method. Let's prove this. Recall that the iterates are defined by $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \alpha_k d^{(k)}$ so that the residuals satisfy $r^{(k+1)} = r^{(k)} - \alpha_k A d^{(k)}$. It is easy then to see by induction, using the property (4.8) that

$$\operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{d}^{(i)}\}_{i=0}^{k-1} = \operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{r}^{(i)}\}_{i=0}^{k-1} = \operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{r}^{(0)}, A\boldsymbol{r}^{(0)}, \dots, A^{k-1}\boldsymbol{r}^{(0)}\} =: K_k(A, \boldsymbol{r}^{(0)})$$

where $K_m(A, v) = \text{span}\{A^i v\}_{i=0}^{m-1}$ is the *m*'th *Krylov* subspace of *A* wrt *v*. The result of Theorem 4.23 tells us that $r^{(k+1)}$ is orthogonal to $K_{k+1}(A, r^{(0)})$. Now for i < k, we have $d^{(i)} \in K_k(A, r^{(0)})$ and so $Ad^{(i)} \in K_{k+1}(A, r^{(0)})$. This implies that $\langle r^{(k+1)}, Ad^{(i)} \rangle = 0$ for i < k, and shows that the terms i < k in Equation (4.9) are equal to zero.

The conjugate gradient algorithm can thus be summarized in the following: Set $d^{(0)} = r^{(0)} = b - Ax^{(0)}$ and iterate, for $k \ge 0$:

$$\begin{cases} \boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} & \alpha_k = \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, A \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle} \\ \boldsymbol{d}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} + \beta_k \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} & \beta_k = -\frac{\langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}, A \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, A \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle} \end{cases}$$
(4.10)

where $r^{(k)}$ stands for $b - Ax^{(k)}$. We can summarize the properties of the Conjugate Gradient Method in the following theorem.

Theorem 4.26 (Properties of CGM) For every $m \ge 0$, the conjugate gradient method has the following properties.

(1) The linear space spanned by the residuals $\{r^{(i)}\}$ is the same as the linear space spanned by the conjugate directions $\{d^{(i)}\}$ and it coincides with the space spanned by $\{A^i r^{(0)}\}$:

$$\operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{r}^{(i)}\}_{i=0}^{m} = \operatorname{span}\{\boldsymbol{d}^{(i)}\}_{i=0}^{m} = \operatorname{span}\{A^{i}\boldsymbol{r}^{(0)}\}_{i=0}^{m}.$$

- (2) The residuals satisfy the orthogonality conditions: $\langle \mathbf{r}^{(m)}, \mathbf{r}^{(i)} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{r}^{(m)}, \mathbf{d}^{(i)} \rangle = 0$ for i < m.
- (3) The directions are conjugate (A-orthogonal): $\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(m)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(i)} \rangle_A = \langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(m)}, A \boldsymbol{d}^{(i)} \rangle = 0$ for i < m.

Using these properties we can simplify the expressions for α_k and β_k . Indeed, using the second equation in (4.10), and the fact that $\mathbf{r}^{(k)} \perp \mathbf{d}^{(k-1)}$, we have

$$\langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} \rangle = \| \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} \|_2^2$$
(4.11)

which shows that

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}\|_2^2}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, A \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle} > 0.$$

Also, we can write:

$$\beta_{k} = -\frac{\langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}, \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{d}^{(k)} \rangle} \stackrel{(a)}{=} -\frac{\langle \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}, \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} - \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} - \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} \rangle} \stackrel{(b)}{=} \frac{\|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}\|^{2}}{\langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} \rangle} \stackrel{(c)}{=} \frac{\|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}\|^{2}}{\|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}\|^{2}} > 0.$$

where we used in (a) the fact that $Ad^{(k)}$ is a multiple of $r^{(k+1)} - r^{(k)}$, and in (b) orthogonality of $r^{(k+1)}$ to both $r^{(k)}$, $d^{(k)}$ (Theorem 4.26(2)), and in (c) we used (4.11).

The complete conjugate gradient method can thus be written as follows:

Algorithm 4.27 (Standard form of the conjugate gradient method) -

- (1) Set k = 0, $x^{(0)} = 0$, $r^{(0)} = b$, and $d^{(0)} = r^{(0)}$;
- (2) Calculate the matrix-vector product $\boldsymbol{v}^{(k)} = A\boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}$ and $\alpha_k = \|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}\|^2 / \langle \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}, \boldsymbol{v}^{(k)} \rangle > 0$;
- (3) Apply the formulae $\boldsymbol{x}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}$ and $\boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{r}^{(k)} \alpha_k \boldsymbol{v}^{(k)}$;
- (4) Stop if $||r^{(k+1)}||$ is acceptably small;
- (5) Set $\boldsymbol{d}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)} + \beta_k \boldsymbol{d}^{(k)}$, where $\beta_k = \|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k+1)}\|^2 / \|\boldsymbol{r}^{(k)}\|^2 > 0$;
- (6) Increase $k \rightarrow k + 1$ and go back to (2).

The total work is dominated by the number of iterations, multiplied by the time it takes to compute $v^{(k)} = Ad^{(k)}$. Thus the conjugate gradient algorithm is highly suitable when most of the elements of *A* are zero, i.e. when *A* is *sparse*.

Finite termination We have already seen that the method of conjugate directions (Theorem 4.23 in previous lecture) terminates after at most n steps. We restate this result in the special case of the conjugate gradient method.

Corollary 4.28 (A termination property) If the conjugate gradient method is applied in exact arithmetic, then, for any $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, termination occurs after at most n iterations. More precisely, termination occurs after at most s iterations, where $s = \dim \operatorname{span}\{A^i \mathbf{r}_0\}_{i=0}^{n-1}$ (which can be smaller than n).

Proof. Assertion (2) of Theorem 4.26 states that residuals $(\mathbf{r}^{(k)})_{k\geq 0}$ form a sequence of mutually orthogonal vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , therefore at most n of them can be nonzero. Since they also belong to the space span $\{A^i\mathbf{r}_0\}_{i=0}^{n-1}$, their number is bounded by the dimension of that space.

We can bound the dimension of the Krylov subspace $\operatorname{span}\{A^i r_0\}_{i=0}^{n-1}$ using the number of distinct eigenvalues of A.

Theorem 4.29 (Number of iterations in CGM) Let A > 0, and let s be the number of its distinct eigenvalues. Then, for any v,

$$\dim K_m(A, \boldsymbol{v}) \le s \quad \forall \, m \,. \tag{4.12}$$

Hence, for any A > 0*, the number of iterations of the CGM for solving* Ax = b *is bounded by the number of distinct eigenvalues of* A*.*

Proof. Inequality (4.12) is true not just for positive definite A > 0, but for any A with n linearly independent eigenvectors (u_i) . Indeed, in that case one can expand $v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i u_i$, and then group together eigenvectors with the same eigenvalues: for each λ_{ν} we set $w_{\nu} = \sum_{k=1}^{m_{\nu}} a_{i_k} u_{i_k}$ if $Au_{i_k} = \lambda_{\nu} u_{i_k}$. Then

$$v = \sum_{\nu=1}^{s} c_{\nu} w_{\nu}, \qquad c_{\nu} \in \{0, 1\},$$

hence $A^i v = \sum_{\nu=1}^s c_{\nu} \lambda_{\nu}^i w_{\nu}$, thus for any *m* we get $K_m(A, v) \subseteq \operatorname{span}\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_s\}$, and that proves (4.12). By Corollary 4.28, the number of iteration in CGM is bounded by dim $K_m(A, r^{(0)})$, hence the final conclusion.

Remark 4.30 Theorem 4.29 shows that, unlike other iterative schemes, the conjugate gradient method is both iterative and direct: each iteration produces a reasonable approximation to the exact solution, and the exact solution itself will be recovered after *n* iterations at most.

Convergence One can prove a more quantitative version of Theorem (4.29).

Theorem 4.31 Let A be symmetric positive definite. After k iterations of the conjugate gradient method, the error $e^{(k)} = x^* - x^{(k)}$ satisfies

$$\|\boldsymbol{e}^{(k)}\|_{A} = \min_{P_{k}} \|P_{k}(A)\boldsymbol{e}^{(0)}\|_{A}$$

where the minimization is over all polynomials P_k of degree $\leq k$ that satisfy $P_k(0) = 1$.

Proof. We know from Lecture 18 (Equation (4.7) applied recursively) that $e^{(k)}$ is obtained from $e^{(0)}$ by projecting out (in the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_A$) the components $d^{(0)}, \ldots, d^{(k-1)}$. This means that

$$\|m{e}^{(k)}\|_A = \min_{m{v}} \|m{e}^{(0)} - m{v}\|_A$$

where the minimization is over all $v \in \text{span}(d^{(0)}, \ldots, d^{(k-1)})$. For the conjugate gradient method, this subspace is the same as $\text{span}(r^{(0)}, \ldots, A^{k-1}r^{(0)})$, and since $r^{(0)} = Ae^{(0)}$, this means that any such v can be written as $v = \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i A^i e^{(0)}$. Let $P_k(t) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i t^i$ we get the desired equality.

Remark 4.32 If A has s distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_s > 0$, then with $P_s(t) = \prod_{i=1}^s (1 - t/\lambda_i)$ we have deg $P_s = s$, $P_s(0) = 1$, and and $P_s(A) = 0$. Thus this shows that the CG method terminates after s iterations.