

Welcome back to Ma221! Lecture 38, Nov 27

Krylov Subspace Methods (KSMs)

for  $Ax=b$  and  $Ax=\lambda x$

Intro: Arnoldi + Lanczos

Many KSMs for  $Ax=b$ , depending on structure of  $A$

1) General  $A$ : GMRES

Generalized Minimum Residual

2) SPD  $A$  (eg Poisson): CG

Conjugate gradients

See Fig 6.8 in text for decision tree

Unlike Splitting Methods: only need "black box" for  $Ax$ , sometimes  $A^T x$  too

Eg don't need  $\text{diag}(A)$  like Jacobi

1) can write algorithms that are very general, leave details of  $A \cdot x$  to user

2) can solve problems where  $A$  not explicit, eg  $Ax$  from a complicated simulation, or from "automatically differentiating" a program to get  $f'(x)$ , eg Tensorflow

If you do have access to  $A$ , can optimize to avoid communication, important when  $A \cdot x$  requires moving  $A$  from slow to fast memory, best case reduces the comm. cost of

$\kappa$   $A \cdot x$ 's to  $\cos(\theta)$  of  $\perp$  (depends on sparsity of  $A$ )

How to extract info about  $A$  from  $A \cdot x$

Given starting vector  $y_1$  (eg.  $y_1 = b$ , from  $Ax = b$ )

Compute  $y_2 = Ay_1, y_3 = Ay_2, \dots, y_{i+1} = Ay_i$

$$y_n = A^{n-1} y_1$$

$$K = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n]^{n \times n}$$

$$AK = [Ay_1, \dots, Ay_n] = [y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n, A^n y_1]$$

If  $K$  nonsingular, let  $c = -K^{-1} A^n y_1$

$$AK = K[e_2, e_3, \dots, e_n, -c] = K \cdot C$$

$$C = K^{-1} A \cdot K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & & & 0 & -c_1 \\ 1 & 0 & & & \vdots & -c_2 \\ 0 & 1 & & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & 1 & -c_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ upper Hessenberg companion matrix}$$

$$p(x) = \det(xI - C) = x^n + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x^{i-1}$$

Is this useful?

Cons:

- 1)  $K$  likely dense even if  $A$  sparse  
so solving  $Kx = b$  expensive
- 2)  $K$  likely very ill-conditioned

because  $y_i \rightarrow e_{vec}$  for  $\lambda_{max}$

Krylov subspace methods address these problems:

- (1) Instead of  $K$ , compute orthogonal  $Q$ :  
leading  $k$  columns of  $Q$  span same space  
as leading  $k$  columns of  $K$
- (2) only compute few leading columns of  $Q$ ,  
until some convergence criterion  
satisfied

Define Krylov Subspace:

$$= \text{span} \{y_1, \dots, y_k\}$$

$$= \text{span} \{y_1, Ay_1, A^2y_1, \dots, A^{k-1}y_1\}$$

$$= \mathcal{K}_k(A, y_1)$$

Relationship between  $K$  and  $Q$ :  $K = QR$

Find "best" solution to  $Ax = b$ , or  $Ax = \lambda x$   
inside  $\mathcal{K}_k(A, y_1)$

many defs of "best"  $\Rightarrow$  many algorithms

How to compute  $Q$  column by column:

$$K^{-1}AK = C = \begin{array}{|c} \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$K = QR \Rightarrow R^{-1} Q^T A Q R = C$$

$$(*) \quad Q^T A Q = R C R^{-1} = \nabla \nabla \nabla = \square = H$$

HW Q 6.11

$$A = A^T \Rightarrow Q^T A Q = (Q^T A Q)^T = H^T = H = \begin{bmatrix} \diagup & & \\ & \diagdown & \\ & & \circ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(*) \quad Q^T A Q = H \Rightarrow A Q = Q H$$

equating column  $j$  of both sides

$$A q_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j+1} q_i H_{ij}$$

$q_j$  orthogonal to other  $q_i$

$$q_m^T A q_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j+1} q_m^T q_i H_{ij} = H_{mj} \quad 1 \leq m \leq j$$

$$H_{j,j+1} q_{j+1} = A q_j - \sum_{i=1}^j q_i H_{ij}$$

Arnoldi Algorithm for (partial)  
reduction to upper Hessenberg form:

$$q_1 = y_1 / \|y_1\|_2$$

for  $j = 1$  to  $k$

$$z = A q_j$$

for  $i = 1$  to  $j$

$$H_{ij} = q_i^T z$$

$$z = z - H_{ij} q_i$$

} MGS on  $z$

end for

$$H_{j+1,j} = \|z\|_2$$

if  $H_{j+1,j} = 0$ , quit

$$g_{i+1} = z / H_{i+1,i}$$

end for

$g_j$  called Arnoldi vectors

cost =  $k$   $A \cdot x$ 's  
 $+ O(k \cdot n^2)$  flops for MGS

What have we learned about  $A$  after  $k$  steps?

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_k & Q_u \end{bmatrix} \quad Q_k = [g_1, \dots, g_k]$$

$g_{k+1}$  known

$$H = Q^T A Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_k^T & Q_u^T \end{bmatrix} A \begin{bmatrix} Q_k & Q_u \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} Q_k^T A Q_k & Q_k^T A Q_u \\ Q_u^T A Q_k & Q_u^T A Q_u \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} H_k & H_{ku} \\ H_{ku} & H_u \end{bmatrix}$$

$H$  upper Hessenberg  $\Rightarrow$

$H_k$  and  $H_u$  upper Hessenberg

$$H_{ku} = \begin{bmatrix} \bigcirc & \boxed{H_{k+1,k}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$H_k$  and  $H_{ku}$  known  
 $H_u$  and  $H_{uk}$  unknown



How do we use Arnoldi or Lanczos to solve  $Ax=b$  or  $Ax=\lambda x$ ?

Consider  $Ax=\lambda x$ : use evals of  $H_k$  (or  $T_k$ ) as approx. evals of  $A$   
 To estimate error:

$$H_k y = \lambda y$$

$$H \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} H_k & H_{k+1} \\ H_{k+1}^T & H_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} H_k y \\ H_{k+1} y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda y \\ H_{k+1, k} y \cdot e_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AQ = QH$$

$$A \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} Q[y] \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{approx eval}} = \lambda \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} Q[y] \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{approx eval}} + \underbrace{g_{k+1} H_{k+1, k} y}_{"error"} \cdot e_1$$

$$\| \text{error} \|_2 = |H_{k+1, k} y|$$

so if  $|H_{k+1, k} y|$  small  $\Rightarrow$  eval/eval pair  $(Q \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda)$  has small residual

If:  $A=A^T$ , Thm 5.5  $\Rightarrow |H_{k+1, k} y|$  bounds distance from  $\lambda$  to nearest eval of  $A$  (see Fig 7.2 in text)

Solving  $Ax=b$ : find "best" approx to  $A^{-1}b$  in  $\mathcal{X}_k$ :  $x_k \in \mathcal{X}_k$

1) Choose  $x_k$  to minimize  $\|x_k - x\|$   $x = A^{-1}b$   
but **don't** have enough info, He "unknown"

2) Choose  $x_k$  to minimize residual  
 $\|r_k\|_2$   $r_k = b - Ax_k$

2 Algorithms:

A general: use GMRES

$A = A^T$ : use MINRES

3) Choose  $x_k$  so  $r_k \perp \mathcal{X}_k$   $r_k^T Q_k = 0$   
"orthogonal residual property"  
or a Galerkin condition

$A = A^T \Rightarrow$  use SYMMLQ

A general  $\Rightarrow$  variant of GMRES

4) A s.p.d  $\Rightarrow$  define norm  $\|r\|_{A^{-1}} = (r^T A^{-1} r)^{1/2}$

"best" solution minimizes

$$\begin{aligned}\|r_k\|_{A^{-1}}^2 &= r_k^T A^{-1} r_k \\ &= (b - Ax_k)^T A^{-1} (b - Ax_k) \\ &= (Ax - Ax_k)^T A^{-1} (Ax - Ax_k) \\ &= (x - x_k)^T A (x - x_k) \\ &= \|x - x_k\|_A^2\end{aligned}$$

alg is Conjugate Gradients

Thm: A s.p.d  $\Rightarrow$  defs 3) and 4)

are equivalent

only need 3 vectors + few dot products



and axpy's per iteration