

Welcome to Ma22! (Apr 19)

Krylov Subspace Methods (KSMs)
for $Ax=b$ and $Ax=dx$

Intro: Arnoldi and Lanczos

Many KSMs for $Ax=b$ depending on structure

1) General A : GMRES

Generalized Minimum Residual

2) SPD A (eg Poisson): CG
Conjugate Gradients

Later: Decision tree to choose
(Fig 6.8 in text)

Unlike Splitting Methods: KSMs only
need "blackbox" for $A \cdot x$.
Eg Don't need $\text{diag}(A)$ like Jacobi

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

2) can solve problems when A not
explicitly available, eg only Ax
from a complicated simulation,
or from differentiating a

program that computes $f(x)$
to get ∇f . used in optimization, via
Automatic differentiation (Tensorflow)

If you do have access to A itself, can use
it to avoid communication. Dominant cost
of KSM is multiple $A \cdot x$. Cost of k
 Ax 's, if A too large to fit in cache,
communication cost is $O(k)$ to take
 k steps. Can reorganize KSMs to
take k steps, only read A once, if
 A has "right" sparsity pattern

How to extract info about A from $A \cdot x$
Given starting vector y_1 (say $y_1 = b$ if
solving $Ax = b$)

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, write $c = -K^{-1}A^n y$,

$$AK = K \underbrace{[e_2, e_3, e_1, \dots, -c]}_C = K \cdot C$$

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

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

Is this useful for solving $Ax = b$ or $Ax = \lambda x$?

Disadvantages:

(1) K likely dense if A sparse so solving $Kx = b$ harder than $Ax = b$

(2) K likely very ill-conditioned, because y_i converging to $evec$ for λ_{max} ,
 \Rightarrow nearly parallel

Krylov subspace methods address these problems:

(1) Instead of K , compute Q , Q orthogonal, leading k columns of Q span some space as leading k columns of K

(2) only compute a few leading columns of Q , not all of them

Def: Krylov subspace

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{span} \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k\} \\ &= \text{span} \{y_1, Ay_1, \dots, A^{k-1}y_1\} \\ &= \mathcal{K}_k(A, y_1) \end{aligned}$$

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 definitions of "best" \Rightarrow many algorithms

How to compute Q column by column:

$$K^{-1}AK = C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -c_1 \\ 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \vdots & 1 - c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$(*) \quad \begin{matrix} \square & & \\ \square & \square & \\ \square & & \square \end{matrix} Q^T A Q = R C R^{-1} = \begin{matrix} \square & & \\ & \square & \\ & & \square \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{upper} \\ \text{Hessenberg} \end{matrix} = H$$

(Q6.11)

$$A=A^T \Rightarrow H=H^T = \text{tridiagonal} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \square & & \\ & \square & \\ & & \square \end{bmatrix}$$

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

equate j^{th} column of both sides

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

q_i orthogonal to other $q_i \Rightarrow$ multiply both sides by q_m^T

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

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

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

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

$$q_{j+1} = z / H_{j+1,j}$$

end for

g_j are called Arnoldi vectors
 cost = k multiplications by A
 + $O(k^2)$ flops for MGS

What have we learned about A
 after k steps?

$$Q = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} Q_k & Q_u \end{array} \right]$$

$$Q_k = [g_1, \dots, g_k] \text{ known}$$

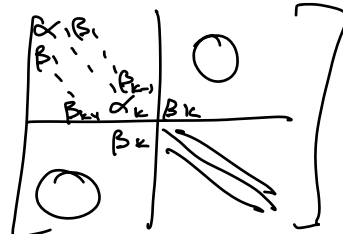
g_{k+1} known

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= Q^T A Q = [Q_k | Q_u]^T A [Q_k | Q_u] \\
 &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} Q_k^T A Q_k & Q_k^T A Q_u \\ \hline Q_u^T A Q_k & Q_u^T A Q_u \end{array} \right] = \\
 &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} H_k & H_{ku} \\ \hline H_{ku} & H_u \end{array} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

A upper Hessenberg $\Rightarrow H_k$ and H_u
 upper Hessenberg

$$H_{ku} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \boxed{0} & H_{k+1,k} \\ \hline \bigcirc & \end{array} \right]$$

H_k and H_{ku} known
 H_u and H_{kk} unknown

If $A = A^T \Rightarrow A = T =$ 

Equate column j of both sides of

$$AQ = QT$$

$$(*) Aq_j = \beta_{j-1}q_{j-1} + \alpha_j q_j + \beta_j q_{j+1}$$

Multiply both sides by $q_j^T \Rightarrow$

$$q_j^T A q_j = \alpha_j$$

Lanczos Algorithm for (partial) reduction of $A = A^T$ to tridiagonal form

$$q_1 = y_1 / \|y_1\|_2, \beta_0 = 0, q_0 = 0$$

for $j = 1$ to k

$$z = Aq_j$$

$$\alpha_j = q_j^T z$$

$$z = z - \alpha_j q_j - \beta_{j-1} q_{j-1} \quad \dots \text{MGS}$$

$$\beta_j = \|z\|$$

$$q_{j+1} = z / \beta_j$$

end for

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 approximate evals of A
To estimate error

$$H_k y = \lambda y$$

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

$$A Q = Q H$$

$$A \begin{pmatrix} Q \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} Q \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} + \underbrace{H_{k+1,k} y_k}_{\text{"error"}}$$

approx
eval of A

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

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

if $A=A^T$ Thm 5.5 $\Rightarrow |H_{k+1,k} y_k|$ bounds distance from λ to nearest eval of A

Numerical Experiment: see Fig 7.2 in text