

Preconditioned conjugate gradient method

Solve $A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$, A sym. posdef.

If one can find Q sym. posdef. which is easy to invert and approximate A well, then, writing

$$Q^{-1} = S S^T$$

$$\underbrace{S^T A S}_{\hat{A}} \underbrace{S^{-1} \vec{x}}_{\hat{\vec{x}}} = \underbrace{S^T \vec{b}}_{\hat{\vec{b}}}$$

↳ sym. posdef.

If $Q = A$ was true, then $\hat{A} = S^T S^{-T} S^{-1} S = I$

⇒ If Q approximates A well, then we expect $k(\hat{A}) \ll k(A)$

Conjugate gradient for $\hat{A} \hat{\vec{x}} = \hat{\vec{b}}$

In each iteration

$$\textcircled{1} \hat{t}_k = \frac{\langle \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k)}, \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k)}, \hat{A} \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k)} \rangle}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \hat{\vec{x}}^{(k+1)} = \hat{\vec{x}}^{(k)} + \hat{t}_k \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k)}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k+1)} = \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k)} - \hat{t}_k \hat{A} \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k)}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \hat{s}_k = \frac{\langle \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k+1)}, \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k+1)} \rangle}{\langle \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k)}, \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k)} \rangle}$$

$$\textcircled{5} \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k+1)} = \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k+1)} + \hat{s}_k \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k)}$$

$$\langle \vec{r}^{(k)}, \vec{v}^{(k)} \rangle = \langle \vec{r}^{(k)}, \vec{r}^{(k)} \rangle$$

$$\vec{r}^{(k)} = \vec{b} - A \vec{x}^{(k)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}^{(k)} &= \vec{b} - A \vec{x}^{(k)} \\ &= S^{-T} \hat{\vec{b}} - S^{-T} \hat{A} S^{-1} S \hat{\vec{x}}^{(k)} \\ &= S^{-T} (\hat{\vec{b}} - \hat{A} \hat{\vec{x}}^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

Notation: $\vec{x}^{(k)} = S \hat{\vec{x}}^{(k)}$ $\vec{v}^{(k)} = S \hat{\vec{v}}^{(k)}$ $\vec{r}^{(k)} = S^{-T} \hat{\vec{r}}^{(k)}$

$$S \cdot \textcircled{2} \quad \vec{x}^{(k+1)} = \vec{x}^{(k)} + \hat{t}_k \vec{v}^{(k)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 S \cdot \textcircled{5} \quad \vec{v}^{(k+1)} &= S \hat{r}^{(k+1)} + \hat{S}_k \vec{v}^{(k)} & \langle x, By \rangle &= \langle B^T x, y \rangle \\
 &= S S^T \vec{r}^{(k+1)} + \hat{S}_k \vec{v}^{(k)} \\
 &= Q^{-1} \vec{r}^{(k+1)} + \hat{S}_k \vec{v}^{(k)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{1} \quad \hat{t}_k &= \frac{\langle \hat{r}^{(k)}, \hat{r}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \hat{v}^{(k)}, \hat{A} \hat{v}^{(k)} \rangle} = \frac{\langle S^T \vec{r}^{(k)}, S^T \vec{r}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle S^{-1} \vec{v}^{(k)}, \hat{A} S^{-1} \vec{v}^{(k)} \rangle} \\
 &= \frac{\langle \vec{r}^{(k)}, S S^T \vec{r}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}^{(k)}, S^{-T} \hat{A} S^{-1} \vec{v}^{(k)} \rangle} = \frac{\langle \vec{r}^{(k)}, Q^{-1} \vec{r}^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}^{(k)}, A \vec{v}^{(k)} \rangle}.
 \end{aligned}$$

• Choose the preconditioner Q

Jacobi preconditioner: $Q = \text{diagonal of } A$

§.1 Power method for matrix eigenvalue

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix (possibly w/ complex entries).

Then the characteristic polynomial of A is

$$\det(A - \lambda I)$$

(deg- n poly. in λ). It has n complex roots (counting multiplicities), which are the (complex) eigenvalues of A .

• To find eigenvalues, one can calculate coefficients of $\det(A - \lambda I)$ and apply a polynomial root finding algorithm. However, this doesn't work for large n because polynomial roots can be very sensitive to polynomial coefficients.

Power method

Suppose the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ satisfy

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$$

and A is diagonalizable over \mathbb{C} , i.e., \exists basis $\vec{u}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{u}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{C}^n$
s.t.

$$A \vec{u}^{(i)} = \lambda_i \vec{u}^{(i)} \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

Then we take an initial vector $\vec{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, write

$$\vec{x}^{(0)} = a_1 \vec{u}^{(1)} + \dots + a_n \vec{u}^{(n)} \quad \text{assume } a_1 \neq 0$$

Do iteration

$$\vec{x}^{(k+1)} = A \vec{x}^{(k)}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}^{(k)} &= A^k \vec{x}^{(0)} = a_1 A^k \vec{u}^{(1)} + \dots + a_n A^k \vec{u}^{(n)} \\ &= a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{u}^{(1)} + a_2 \lambda_2^k \vec{u}^{(2)} + \dots + a_n \lambda_n^k \vec{u}^{(n)} \\ &= a_1 \lambda_1^k \left(\vec{u}^{(1)} + \frac{a_2}{a_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \vec{u}^{(2)} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{a_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \vec{u}^{(n)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$|\cdot| < 1$$

As $k \rightarrow \infty$, $\vec{x}^{(k)}$ "converges" to the direction $\vec{u}^{(1)}$.

To get a numerical approximation of λ_1

$$\vec{x}^{(k)} \approx a_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{u}^{(1)} \quad \vec{x}^{(k+1)} \approx a_1 \lambda_1^{k+1} \vec{u}^{(1)}$$

By taking a linear function ϕ on \mathbb{C}^n

$$\phi(\vec{x}) = c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_n x_n$$

(such that $\phi(\vec{u}^{(1)}) \neq 0$)

$$\phi(\vec{x}^{(k+1)}) \approx \phi(\lambda_1 \vec{x}^{(k)}) = \lambda_1 \phi(\vec{x}^{(k)})$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 \approx \frac{\phi(\vec{x}^{(k+1)})}{\phi(\vec{x}^{(k)})}$$

- Power method can only give the largest eigenvalue λ_1 .

Inverse power method

Suppose $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_{n-1}| > |\lambda_n| > 0$

Then A^{-1} has eigenvalues $\lambda_n^{-1}, \dots, \lambda_1^{-1}$ which satisfy

$$|\lambda_n^{-1}| > |\lambda_{n-1}^{-1}| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_1^{-1}|$$

Applying power method to A^{-1} , i.e.,

$$\bar{x}^{(k+1)} = A^{-1} \bar{x}^{(k)} \quad (\text{that is, solving } \bar{x}^{(k+1)} \text{ from } A \bar{x}^{(k+1)} = \bar{x}^{(k)})$$

we can find λ_n^{-1} which gives λ_n (the smallest eigenvalue of A).

Shifted inverse power method

Take $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$. The matrix $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$

has eigenvalues

$$(\lambda_1 - \mu)^{-1}, \dots, (\lambda_n - \mu)^{-1}$$

$$A \vec{u} = \lambda \vec{u}$$

$$(A - \mu I) \vec{u} = (\lambda - \mu) \vec{u}$$

Applying power method to $(A - \mu I)^{-1}$, we get the $(\lambda_i - \mu)^{-1}$

w/ the largest absolute value among $(\lambda_1 - \mu)^{-1}, \dots, (\lambda_n - \mu)^{-1}$

i.e., we get the eigenvalue λ_i of A which is the closest to μ

