

On computing quadrature-based bounds for the A-norm of the error in conjugate gradients

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joint work with

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Problem formulation

Consider a system

$$\mathbf{A}x = b$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is **symmetric, positive definite**.

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- \mathbf{A} is large and sparse ,
- we do not need exact solution ,
- we are able to perform $\mathbf{A}v$ effectively (v is a vector) .

Without loss of generality, $\|b\| = 1, x_0 = 0$.

The conjugate gradient method

input \mathbf{A} , b

$r_0 = b$, $p_0 = r_0$

for $k = 1, 2, \dots$ **do**

$$\gamma_{k-1} = \frac{r_{k-1}^T r_{k-1}}{p_{k-1}^T \mathbf{A} p_{k-1}}$$

$$x_k = x_{k-1} + \gamma_{k-1} p_{k-1}$$

$$r_k = r_{k-1} - \gamma_{k-1} \mathbf{A} p_{k-1}$$

$$\delta_k = \frac{r_k^T r_k}{r_{k-1}^T r_{k-1}}$$

$$p_k = r_k + \delta_k p_{k-1}$$

test quality of x_k

end for

Mathematical properties of CG

optimality property

The k th Krylov subspace,

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, b) \equiv \text{span}\{b, \mathbf{A}b, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{k-1}b\}.$$

CG $\rightarrow x_k, r_k, p_k$

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- CG finds the solution of $\mathbf{A}x = b$ in at most n steps.
- The CG approximation x_k is optimal

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}} = \min_{y \in \mathcal{K}_k} \|x - y\|_{\mathbf{A}}.$$

A practically relevant question

How to measure quality of an approximation?

- **using residual information,**

- normwise backward error,
- relative residual norm.

“Using of the residual vector r_k as a measure of the “goodness” of the estimate x_k is not reliable” [Hestenes & Stiefel 1952]

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- **using error estimates,**

- estimate of the \mathbf{A} -norm of the error,
- estimate of the Euclidean norm of the error.

“The function $(x - x_k, \mathbf{A}(x - x_k))$ can be used as a measure of the “goodness” of x_k as an estimate of x .” [Hestenes & Stiefel 1952]

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The (relative) \mathbf{A} -norm of the error plays an important role in stopping criteria in many problems [Deuffhard 1994], [Arioli 2004], [Jiránek, Strakoš, Vohralík 2006]

Outline

- 1 CG and the Lanczos algorithm
- 2 CG (Lanczos) and orthogonal polynomials
- 3 CG and Quadrature
- 4 How to compute the estimates?
- 5 Experiments and questions

The Lanczos algorithm

Let \mathbf{A} be symmetric, compute orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, b)$

```
input  $\mathbf{A}, b$   
 $v_1 = b/\|b\|, \delta_1 = 0$   
 $\beta_0 = 0, v_0 = 0$   
for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  do  
   $\alpha_k = v_k^T \mathbf{A} v_k$   
   $w = \mathbf{A} v_k - \alpha_k v_k - \beta_{k-1} v_{k-1}$   
   $\beta_k = \|w\|$   
   $v_{k+1} = w/\beta_k$   
end for
```

$$\mathbf{T}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & \\ \beta_1 & \ddots & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \beta_{k-1} & \\ & & & \beta_{k-1} & \alpha_k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} v_k = \beta_k v_{k+1} + \alpha_k v_k + \beta_{k-1} v_{k-1}.$$

The Lanczos algorithm can be represented by

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{V}_k = \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{T}_k + \beta_k v_{k+1} e_k^T, \quad \mathbf{V}_k^* \mathbf{V}_k = \mathbf{I}.$$

CG versus Lanczos

Let A be symmetric, positive definite

The CG approximation is the given by

$$x_k = \mathbf{V}_k y_k \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{T}_k y_k = \|b\|e_1,$$

and

$$v_{k+1} = (-1)^k \frac{r_k}{\|r_k\|}.$$

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CG generates LDL^T factorization of $\mathbf{T}_k = \mathbf{L}_k \mathbf{D}_k \mathbf{L}_k^T$ where

$$\mathbf{L}_k \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ \sqrt{\delta_1} & \ddots & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \sqrt{\delta_{k-1}} & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{D}_k \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_0^{-1} & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \gamma_{k-1}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

CG versus Lanczos

Summary

- Both algorithms generate an orthogonal basis of the Krylov subspace $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, b)$.
- Lanczos generates an orthonormal basis v_1, \dots, v_k using a **three-term recurrence** $\rightarrow \mathbf{T}_k$.
- CG generates an orthogonal basis r_0, \dots, r_{k-1} using a **coupled two-term recurrence** $\rightarrow LDL^T$ factorization of \mathbf{T}_k .
- It holds that

$$v_{k+1} = (-1)^k \frac{r_k}{\|r_k\|}.$$

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Orthogonal vectors \rightarrow orthogonal polynomials

- residuals r_0, \dots, r_{k-1} form an **orthogonal basis** of $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, b)$,
- “CG is a **polynomial method**”,

$$v \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, b) \quad \Rightarrow \quad v = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \zeta_j \mathbf{A}^j b = q(\mathbf{A})b$$

where q is a polynomial of degree at most $k - 1$.

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- **Notation:** $r_k = q_k(\mathbf{A})b$, $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{U}^T$, $b = \mathbf{U}\omega$.

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$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= r_i^T r_j = b^T q_i(\mathbf{A})q_j(\mathbf{A})b = \omega^T q_i(\mathbf{\Lambda})q_j(\mathbf{\Lambda})\omega \\ &= \sum_{\ell=1}^N \omega_\ell^2 q_i(\lambda_\ell)q_j(\lambda_\ell) \equiv \langle q_i, q_j \rangle_{\omega, \mathbf{\Lambda}}. \end{aligned}$$

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- CG implicitly constructs a **sequence of orthogonal polynomials**.

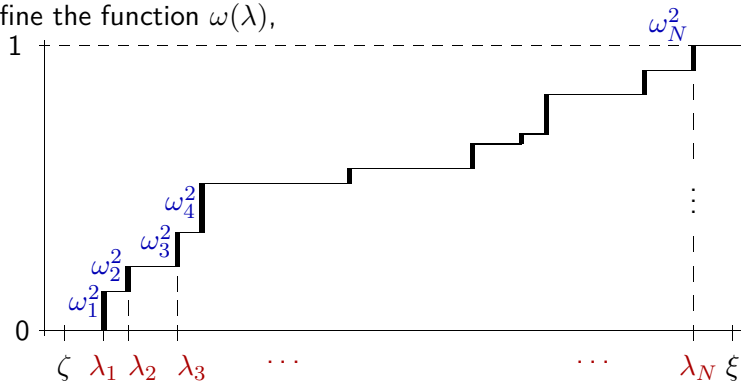
Distribution function $\omega(\lambda)$

$$\mathbf{A}, b \rightarrow \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\omega, \Lambda} : \quad \langle f, g \rangle_{\omega, \Lambda} = \sum_{\ell=1}^N \omega_{\ell}^2 f(\lambda_{\ell}) g(\lambda_{\ell}).$$

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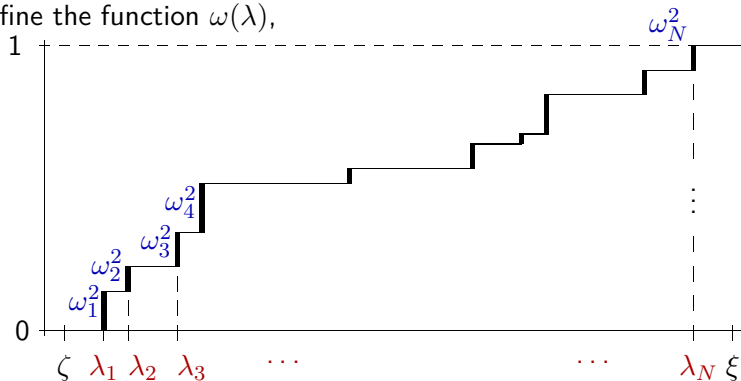
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Then,

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\omega, \Lambda} = \int_{\zeta}^{\xi} f(\lambda) g(\lambda) d\omega(\lambda).$$

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Orthogonal polynomials and Gauss Quadrature

General theory

Quadrature formula

$$\int_{\zeta}^{\xi} f(\lambda) d\omega(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i f(\nu_i) + \mathcal{R}_k[f].$$

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Gauss Quadrature formula:

- Maximal degree of exactness $2k - 1$
- Weights and nodes can be computed using **orthogonal polynomials** (e.g. ν_i are the roots).
- Orthogonal polynomial can be generated by a three-term recurrence. Coefficients \rightarrow Jacobi matrix.
- Gauss quadrature weight and nodes can be computed from the corresponding Jacobi matrix.

CG, Lanczos and Gauss quadrature

At any iteration step k , CG (implicitly) determines **weights** and **nodes** of the k -point Gauss quadrature

$$\int_{\zeta}^{\xi} f(\lambda) d\omega(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i^{(k)} f(\theta_i^{(k)}) + \mathcal{R}_k[f].$$

\mathbf{T}_k ... Jacobi matrix, $\theta_i^{(k)}$... eigenvalues of \mathbf{T}_k , $\omega_i^{(k)}$... scaled and squared first components of the normalized eigenvectors of \mathbf{T}_k .

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$$\left(\mathbf{T}_n^{-1}\right)_{1,1} = \left(\mathbf{T}_k^{-1}\right)_{1,1} + \mathcal{R}_k[\lambda^{-1}].$$

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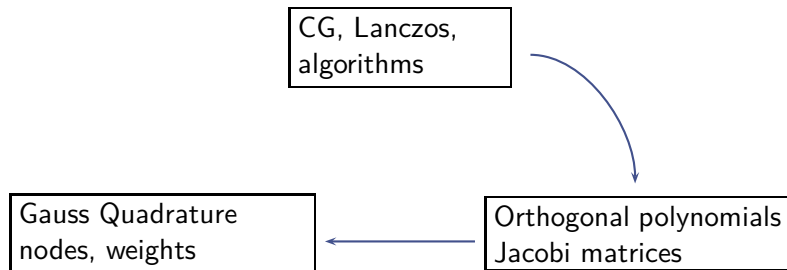
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CG-related quantities

$$\|x\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \gamma_j \|r_j\|^2 + \|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2.$$

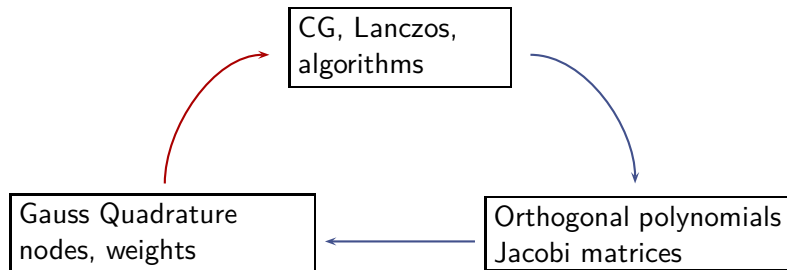
CG, Orthogonal polynomials, and Quadrature

Overview



CG, Orthogonal polynomials, and Quadrature

Overview



$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{T}_n^{-1})_{1,1} &= (\mathbf{T}_k^{-1})_{1,1} + \mathcal{R}_k[\lambda^{-1}] \\ \|x\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 &= \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \gamma_j \|r_j\|^2 + \|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2.\end{aligned}$$

So why we need quadrature approach?

More general quadrature formulas

$$\int_{\zeta}^{\xi} f d\omega(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i f(\nu_i) + \sum_{j=1}^m \tilde{w}_j f(\tilde{\nu}_j) + \mathcal{R}_k[f],$$

the weights $[w_i]_{i=1}^k$, $[\tilde{w}_j]_{j=1}^m$ and the nodes $[\nu_i]_{i=1}^k$ are **unknowns**, $[\tilde{\nu}_j]_{j=1}^m$ are **prescribed** outside the open integration interval.

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$m = 1$: **Gauss-Radau** quadrature. **Algebraically**: Given $\mu \equiv \tilde{\nu}_1$, find $\tilde{\alpha}_{k+1}$ so that μ is an eigenvalue of the extended matrix

$$\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & & \\ \beta_1 & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \beta_{k-1} & & \\ & & \beta_{k-1} & \alpha_k & \beta_k & \\ & & & \beta_k & \tilde{\alpha}_{k+1} & \end{bmatrix}.$$

Quadrature for $f(\lambda) = \lambda^{-1}$ is given by $(\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{k+1}^{-1})_{1,1}$.

Quadrature formulas

Golub - Meurant - Strakoš approach

Quadrature formulas for $f(\lambda) = \lambda^{-1}$ take the form

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{T}_n^{-1})_{1,1} &= (\mathbf{T}_k^{-1})_{1,1} + \mathcal{R}_k^{(G)}, \\ (\mathbf{T}_n^{-1})_{1,1} &= (\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_k^{-1})_{1,1} + \mathcal{R}_k^{(R)},\end{aligned}$$

and $\mathcal{R}_k^{(G)} > 0$ while $\mathcal{R}_k^{(R)} < 0$ if $\mu \leq \lambda_{\min}$.

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and $\mathcal{R}_k^{(G)} > 0$ while $\mathcal{R}_k^{(R)} < 0$ if $\mu \leq \lambda_{\min}$. Equivalently

$$\begin{aligned}\|x\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 &= \tau_k + \|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2, \\ \|x\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 &= \tilde{\tau}_k + \mathcal{R}_k^{(R)}.\end{aligned}$$

where $\tau_k \equiv (\mathbf{T}_k^{-1})_{1,1}$, $\tilde{\tau}_k \equiv (\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_k^{-1})_{1,1}$.

[Golub & Meurant 1994, 1997, 2010, Golub & Strakoš 1994]

Idea of estimating the \mathbf{A} -norm of the error

Consider two quadrature rules at steps k and $k + d$, $d > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|x\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 &= \tau_k + \|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2, \\ \|x\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 &= \hat{\tau}_{k+d} + \hat{\mathcal{R}}_{k+d}.\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

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Then

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \hat{\tau}_{k+d} - \tau_k + \hat{\mathcal{R}}_{k+d}.$$

Gauss quadrature: $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_{k+d} = \mathcal{R}_{k+d}^{(G)} > 0 \rightarrow$ lower bound,

Radau quadrature: $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_{k+d} = \mathcal{R}_{k+d}^{(R)} < 0 \rightarrow$ upper bound.

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How to compute efficiently

$$\hat{\tau}_{k+d} - \tau_k ?$$

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Estimate based on Gauss quadrature rule

Evaluation

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \tau_{k+d} - \tau_k + \|x - x_{k+d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2$$

We use a simple formula

$$\tau_{k+d} - \tau_k = \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} (\tau_{j+1} - \tau_j) \equiv \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j.$$

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The quantity

$$\Delta_j = \left(\mathbf{T}_{j+1}^{-1}\right)_{1,1} - \left(\mathbf{T}_j^{-1}\right)_{1,1}$$

can be computed by an algorithm by Golub and Meurant

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The quantity

$$\Delta_j = \left(\mathbf{T}_{j+1}^{-1}\right)_{1,1} - \left(\mathbf{T}_j^{-1}\right)_{1,1}$$

can be computed by an algorithm by Golub and Meurant, or simply using the formula

$$\Delta_j = \gamma_j \|r_j\|^2.$$

Estimate based on Gauss-Radau quadrature rule

Given a node $\mu \leq \lambda_{\min}$,

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \tilde{\tau}_{k+d} - \tau_k + \mathcal{R}_{k+d}^{(R)}, \quad \mathcal{R}_{k+d}^{(R)} < 0.$$

Reduction to the problem of computing

$$\Delta_j^{(\mu)} \equiv \tilde{\tau}_{j+1} - \tau_j = \left(\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{j+1}^{-1}\right)_{1,1} - \left(\mathbf{T}_j^{-1}\right)_{1,1}.$$

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$$\Delta_j^{(\mu)} \equiv \tilde{\tau}_{j+1} - \tau_j = \left(\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{j+1}^{-1} \right)_{1,1} - \left(\mathbf{T}_j^{-1} \right)_{1,1}.$$

First, we need to determine $\tilde{\alpha}_{j+1}$ so that μ is an eigenvalue of

$$\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{j+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & & \\ \beta_1 & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \beta_{j-1} & & \\ & & & \beta_{j-1} & \alpha_j & \beta_j \\ & & & & \beta_j & \tilde{\alpha}_{j+1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Second, compute $\Delta_j^{(\mu)}$ using the Golub-Meurant algorithm.

Golub and Meurant approach

[Golub & Meurant 1994, 1997]

- CG iteration $\rightarrow \gamma_{k-1}, \delta_k$.

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$$\Delta_{k-1} \equiv \left(\mathbf{T}_k^{-1}\right)_{1,1} - \left(\mathbf{T}_{k-1}^{-1}\right)_{1,1}$$

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- For $k > d$, use formulas

$$\|x - x_{k-d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k-d}^{k-1} \Delta_j + \|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2$$

$$\|x - x_{k-d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k-d}^{k-1} \Delta_j + \Delta_k^{(\mu)} + \mathcal{R}_k^{(R)}$$

for estimating.

CGQL (Conjugate Gradients and Quadrature via Lanczos)

input A, b, x_0, μ

$r_0 = b - Ax_0, p_0 = r_0$

$\delta_0 = 0, \gamma_{-1} = 1, c_1 = 1, \beta_0 = 0, d_0 = 1, \tilde{\alpha}_1^{(\mu)} = \mu,$

for $k = 1, \dots$, until convergence **do**

CG-iteration (k)

$$\alpha_k = \frac{1}{\gamma_{k-1}} + \frac{\delta_{k-1}}{\gamma_{k-2}}, \beta_k^2 = \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_{k-1}^2}$$

$$d_k = \alpha_k - \frac{\beta_{k-1}^2}{d_{k-1}}, \Delta_{k-1} = \|r_0\|^2 \frac{c_k^2}{d_k},$$

$$\tilde{\alpha}_{k+1}^{(\mu)} = \mu + \frac{\beta_k^2}{\alpha_k - \tilde{\alpha}_k^{(\mu)}},$$

$$\Delta_k^{(\mu)} = \|r_0\|^2 \frac{\beta_k^2 c_k^2}{d_k (\tilde{\alpha}_{k+1}^{(\mu)} d_k - \beta_k^2)}, c_{k+1}^2 = \frac{\beta_k^2 c_k^2}{d_k^2}$$

Estimates(k, d)

end for

[Meurant & T. 2012]

- CG iteration $\rightarrow \gamma_{k-1}, \delta_k$.
- Avoid the explicit use of tridiagonal matrices.
- CG provides LDL^T factorization of \mathbf{T}_{k+1} .

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- We have shown how to update LDL^T factorization of $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{k+1}$.
- Quite complicated algebraic manipulations.
- Δ_{k-1} and $\Delta_k^{(\mu)}$ can be computed using very simple formulas.

CGQ (Conjugate Gradients and Quadrature)

input $A, b, x_0, \mu,$

$$r_0 = b - Ax_0, p_0 = r_0$$

$$\Delta_0^{(\mu)} = \frac{\|r_0\|^2}{\mu},$$

for $k = 1, \dots,$ until convergence **do**

CG-iteration(k)

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_{k-1} &= \gamma_{k-1} \|r_{k-1}\|^2, \\ \Delta_k^{(\mu)} &= \frac{\|r_k\|^2 (\Delta_{k-1}^{(\mu)} - \Delta_{k-1})}{\mu (\Delta_{k-1}^{(\mu)} - \Delta_{k-1}) + \|r_k\|^2}\end{aligned}$$

Estimates(k, d)

end for

Preconditioning

The CG-iterates are thought of being applied to

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}}\hat{x} = \hat{b}.$$

We consider symmetric preconditioning

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{L}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{L}^{-T}, \quad \hat{b} = \mathbf{L}^{-1}b.$$

$\mathbf{P} \equiv \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T$, change of variables

$$x_k \equiv \mathbf{L}^{-T}\hat{x}_k, \quad r_k \equiv \mathbf{L}\hat{r}_k, \quad z_k \equiv \mathbf{L}^{-T}\hat{r}_k, \quad p_k \equiv \mathbf{L}^{-T}\hat{p}_k.$$

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It holds that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\hat{x} - \hat{x}_k\|_{\hat{\mathbf{A}}}^2 &= \|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 \\ \|\hat{r}_k\|^2 &= z_k^T r_k. \end{aligned}$$

One can compute the quadratures-based estimates of the **A-norm of the error** using the PCG coefficients $\hat{\gamma}_{k-1}$ and inner products $z_k^T r_k$ (instead of using $\|\hat{r}_k\|^2$).

Preconditioning - PCGQ

input \mathbf{A} , b , x_0 , \mathbf{P} , μ

$$r_0 = b - \mathbf{A}x_0, z_0 = \mathbf{P}^{-1}r_0, p_0 = z_0, \Delta_0^{(\mu)} = \frac{z_0^T r_0}{\mu}$$

for $k = 1, \dots, n$ until convergence **do**

$$\hat{\gamma}_{k-1} = \frac{z_{k-1}^T r_{k-1}}{p_{k-1}^T \mathbf{A} p_{k-1}}$$

$$x_k = x_{k-1} + \hat{\gamma}_{k-1} p_{k-1}$$

$$r_k = r_{k-1} - \hat{\gamma}_{k-1} \mathbf{A} p_{k-1}$$

$$z_k = \mathbf{P}^{-1} r_k$$

$$\hat{\delta}_k = \frac{z_k^T r_k}{z_{k-1}^T r_{k-1}}$$

$$p_k = z_k + \hat{\delta}_k p_{k-1}$$

$$\Delta_{k-1} = \hat{\gamma}_{k-1} z_{k-1}^T r_{k-1}$$

$$\Delta_k^{(\mu)} = \frac{z_k^T r_k (\Delta_{k-1}^{(\mu)} - \Delta_{k-1})}{\mu (\Delta_{k-1}^{(\mu)} - \Delta_{k-1}) + z_k^T r_k}$$

Estimates(k, d)

Outline

- 1 CG and the Lanczos algorithm
- 2 CG (Lanczos) and orthogonal polynomials
- 3 CG and Quadrature
- 4 How to compute the estimates?
- 5 Experiments and questions**

Practically relevant questions

The estimation is based on formulas

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j + \|x - x_{k+d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2$$

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j + \Delta_{k+d}^{(\mu)} + \mathcal{R}_k^{(R)}$$

We are able to compute Δ_j and $\Delta_j^{(\mu)}$ almost for free.

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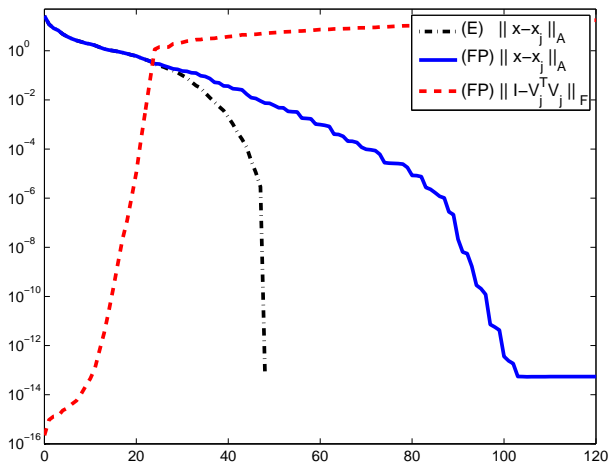
Practically relevant questions:

- What happens in finite precision arithmetic?
- How to choose d ?
- How to choose μ ?

Finite precision arithmetic

CG behavior

Orthogonality is lost, convergence is delayed!



Identities need not hold in finite precision arithmetic!

Rounding error analysis

- Lower bound formula [Strakoš & T. 2002, 2005]: The equality

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j + \|x - x_{k+d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2$$

holds (up to a small inaccuracy) also in finite precision arithmetic for computed vectors and coefficients.

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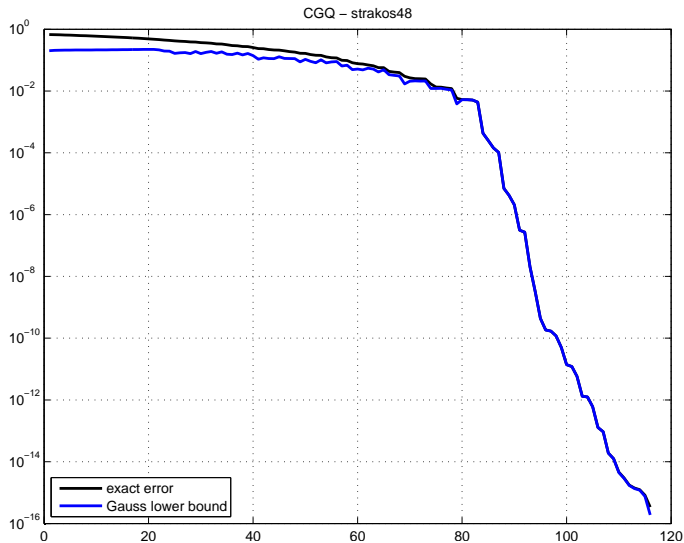
holds (up to a small inaccuracy) also in finite precision arithmetic for computed vectors and coefficients.

- Upper bound formula: There is **no rounding error analysis** of the formula

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j + \Delta_{k+d}^{(\mu)} + \mathcal{R}_{k+d}^{(R)}.$$

The choice of d - Experiment 1

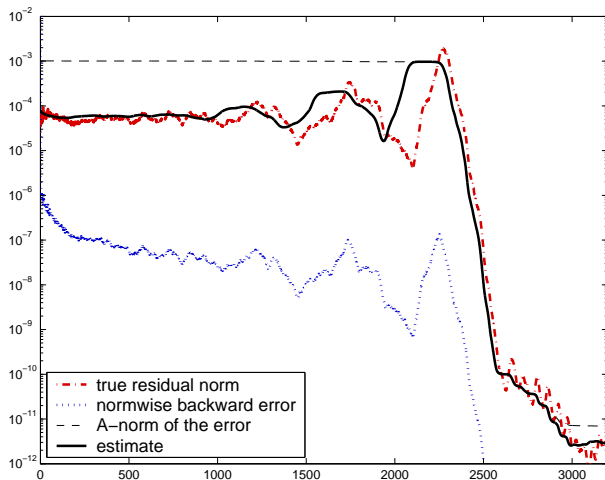
Strakos matrix, $n = 48$, $\lambda_1 = 0.1$, $\lambda_n = 1000$, $\rho = 0.9$, $d = 4$



The choice of d - Experiment 2

R. Kouhia: Cylindrical shell (Matrix Market), matrix s3dkt3m2

PCG, $\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = 3.62e + 11$, $n = 90499$, $d = 200$, $\text{cholinc}(\mathbf{A}, 0)$.



The choice of d

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 = \sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j + \|x - x_{k+d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2$$

We get a tight lower bound if

$$\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 \gg \|x - x_{k+d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2 .$$

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Theoretically, one could use the upper bound,

$$\frac{\|x - x_{k+d}\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2}{\|x - x_k\|_{\mathbf{A}}^2} \leq \frac{\Delta_{k+d}^{(\mu)}}{\sum_{j=k}^{k+d-1} \Delta_j} < \text{tol.}$$

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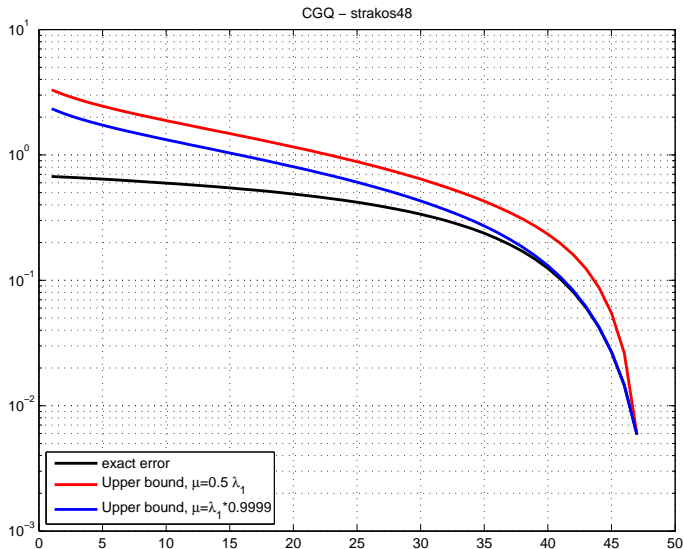
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But, **can we trust the upper bound?**

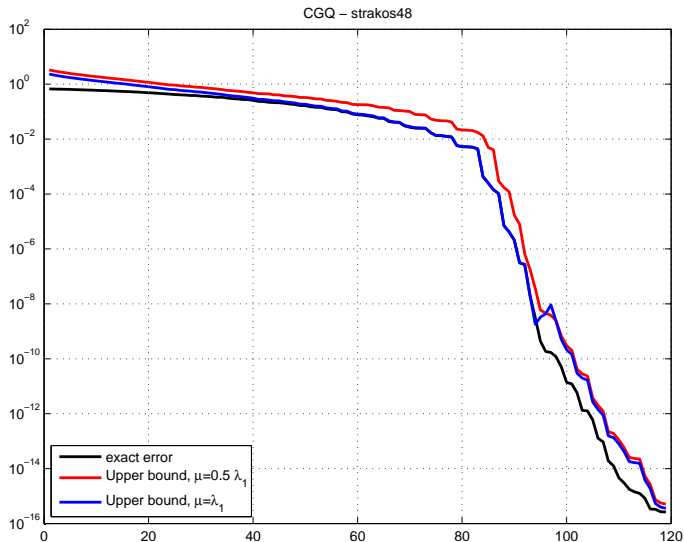
The choice of μ , upper bound, exact arithmetic

Strakos matrix, $n = 48$, $\lambda_1 = 0.1$, $\lambda_n = 1000$, $\rho = 0.9$, $d = 1$



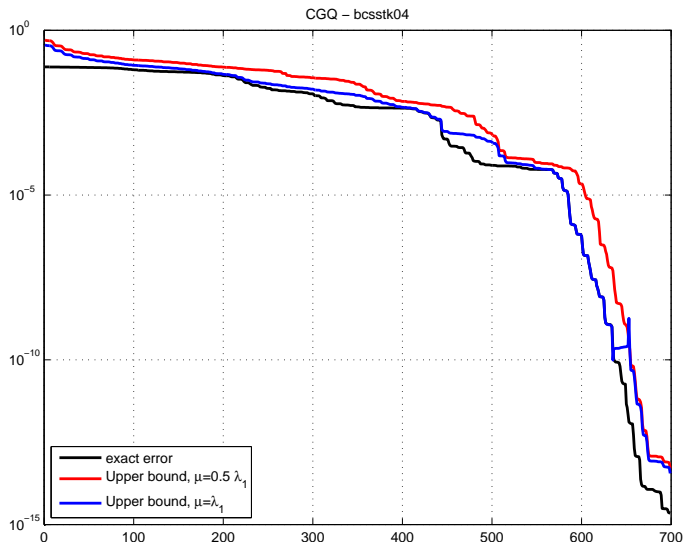
The choice of μ , upper bound, finite precision arithmetic

Strakos matrix, $n = 48$, $\lambda_1 = 0.1$, $\lambda_n = 1000$, $\rho = 0.9$, $d = 1$



The choice of μ , upper bound, finite precision arithmetic

bcsstk04 (Matrix Market), $n = 132$, $d = 1$



Numerical troubles with the upper bound

Given μ , we look for $\tilde{\alpha}_{k+1}$ (explicitly or implicitly) so that μ is an eigenvalue of the extended matrix

$$\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & & \\ \beta_1 & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \beta_{k-1} & & \\ & & & \beta_{k-1} & \alpha_k & \beta_k \\ & & & & \beta_k & \tilde{\alpha}_{k+1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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To find such a $\tilde{\alpha}_{k+1}$, we need to solve the system

$$(\mathbf{T}_k - \mu \mathbf{I})y = e_k.$$

If μ is close to the smallest eigenvalue of \mathbf{T}_k , we can get into numerical troubles!

Conclusions and questions

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- Is there any way how to **involve** the **upper bound**?

Related papers

- G. Meurant and P. Tichý, [On computing quadrature-based bounds for the A -norm of the error in conjugate gradients, Numer. Algorithms, (2012)]
- G. H. Golub and G. Meurant, [Matrices, moments and quadrature with applications, Princeton University Press, USA, 2010.]
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- G. H. Golub and G. Meurant, [Matrices, moments and quadrature. II. BIT, 37 (1997), pp. 687–705.]
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Thank you for your attention!