

Conjugate Gradients for Beginners

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ABSTRACT

The conjugate-gradient method is a general purpose simultaneous equation solving method ideal for geophysical inversion and imaging. A simple form of the algorithm iteratively searches the plane of the gradient and the previous step.

INTRODUCTION

The solution time for simultaneous linear equations grows cubically with the number of unknowns. For equations with hundreds of unknowns the solutions require minutes to hours. What can we do about geophysical problems with unknowns numbering in the millions? The number of unknowns somehow must be reduced by theoretical means, or else we must turn to numerical approximation methods. A numerical technique known as the *conjugate-gradient method* provides good approximations.

The conjugate-gradient method is an all-purpose optimizer and simultaneous equation solver. It is useful for systems of arbitrarily high order because its iterations can be interrupted at any stage and the partial result is an approximation that is often useful. Like most simultaneous equation solvers, the exact answer (assuming exact arithmetic) is attained in a finite number of steps.

The conjugate-gradient method is really a family of methods. There are perhaps a dozen or more forms of the conjugate-gradient algorithm. The various methods differ in treatment of underdetermined systems, accuracy in treating ill conditioned systems, space requirements, and numbers of dot products. Conjugate-gradient methods are an active area of computer science research. A popular program by Michael Saunders is 625 lines. My plan here is to present the geometrical concepts and a one-page program. The program should handle most practical cases. Since you will understand the one-page

program, it will be convenient for alterations such as making snapshots of the residual during the descent.

CHOICE OF DIRECTION

Any collection of search lines can be used for function minimization. Even if the lines are random, the descent can reach the desired extremum because if the value does not decrease when moving one way along the line, it almost certainly decreases when moving the other way.

Why steepest descent is a slow way to go

Before we can understand why the conjugate-gradient method is so fast, we need to see why the steepest descent method is so slow. Visualize a contour map of a mountainous terrane. The gradient is perpendicular to the contours. Contours and gradients are *curved lines*. In the steepest descent method you start at a point where you compute the gradient direction at that point. Then you begin a *straight line* descent in that direction. Eventually the gradient direction probably curves away from your direction of travel, but you continue on your straight line until you have stopped descending and are about to ascend. There you compute another gradient vector, turn, and descend again and again.

What could be wrong with such a direct strategy? The problem centers at the stopping locations. The stops occur where the descent direction becomes *parallel* to the contour lines. If the descent line were not parallel to the contour lines then further descent would be possible. So after each stop, you turn 90° from parallel to perpendicular to the local contour line for the next descent. Suppose the line from where you are to the absolute minimum requires you to make a 45° turn. Such a turn can never be made. Instead of moving like a rain drop down the centerline of a rain gutter, you move a fine-toothed zigzag path crossing and recrossing the centerline. The gentler the slope of the rain gutter, the finer the teeth on the zigzag path.

Choosing the distance to the minimum is called *line search*. For a quadratic function the minimum point can be found analytically. Consider minimizing the dot product $(r - \alpha g) \cdot (r - \alpha g)$ where r is a previous residual, g is a descent direction, and α is the distance to be determined. Set to zero the derivative of the dot product with respect to α . This gives $\alpha = (r \cdot g)/(g \cdot g)$.

From the rain gutter example you see the problem of steepest descent is that you overshoot the centerline before stopping. If you must use the steepest descent method, it seems you should make one steepest descent step. After that you should undershoot the

local minimum, say by 2/3 of the distance. Conventional wisdom is to overshoot all steps by about 3/2.

CONJUGATE GRADIENT

In the conjugate-gradient method a line is not searched. Instead a plane is searched. A plane is made from an arbitrary linear combination of two vectors. Take one vector to be the gradient vector g . Take the other vector to be the previous descent step vector, say $s = x_j - x_{j-1}$. Instead of αg we need a linear combination, say $\alpha g + \beta s$. For minimizing quadratic functions the plane search requires only the solution of a two-by-two set of linear equations for α and β . The equations will be specified along with the program. (For *nonquadratic* functions a plane search is considered intractable, whereas a line search proceeds by bisection).

Magic

There are a number of properties of the conjugate-gradient approach that I haven't explained because I don't know any simple explanation. Luenburger's book is a good place to look for formal explanations of this magic. (His book also provides other forms of the conjugate-gradient algorithm). Known properties are:

1. The conjugate-gradient descent method gets the exact answer (assuming exact arithmetic) in exactly n descent steps, where n is the number of unknowns.
2. Since it is helpful to use the previous step, you might wonder why not use the previous two steps, after all, it is not hard to solve a three-by-three set of simultaneous linear equations. It turns out that the third direction would do you no good. The distance moved on the extra direction would be zero.

Conjugate-gradient theory for programmers

Let us minimize the sum of the squares of the components of the residual vector

$$\text{residual} = \text{data space} - \text{transform} \text{ model space} \quad (1a)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} R \\ \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Y \\ \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} \\ \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \end{pmatrix} \quad (1b)$$

The solution x is obtained in steps s_j .

$$x = s_1 + s_2 + s_3 + \dots \quad (2)$$

Fourier transformed variables are often capitalized. Here we will let vectors transformed by the \mathbf{A} matrix be capitalized.

$$X = \mathbf{A} x \quad (3a)$$

$$S_j = \mathbf{A} s_j \quad (3b)$$

$$G_j = \mathbf{A} g_j \quad (3c)$$

Obviously a linear combination in solution space, say $s + g$, corresponds to $S + G$ in the conjugate space. The residual is

$$R = Y - \mathbf{A} x = Y - X \quad (4)$$

The last stage of each iteration is to update the solution and the residual.

$$\text{solution update:} \quad x \leftarrow x + s$$

$$\text{residual update:} \quad R \leftarrow R - S$$

The gradient g is a vector of length of x . One such vector is

$$g = \mathbf{A}^T R = \textit{gradient} \quad (5a)$$

$$G = \mathbf{A} g = \textit{conjugate gradient} \quad (5b)$$

To see what g is the gradient of, note that

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial x^*} (Y^* - x^* \mathbf{A}^*) (Y - \mathbf{A} x) = \mathbf{A}^* R \quad (6)$$

In dot product notation, the plane spanned by the gradient and the previous step vector is searched when we minimize with respect to α and β the quadratic:

$$E = (R - \alpha G - \beta S) \cdot (R - \alpha G - \beta S) \quad (7)$$

Differentiating yields the two simultaneous equations. First differentiate (7) with respect to α . Then differentiate (7) with respect to β .

$$0 = G \cdot (R - \alpha G - \beta S) \quad (8a)$$

$$0 = S \cdot (R - \alpha G - \beta S) \quad (8b)$$

You are ready to tackle the program.

PROGRAM

```

# minimize  res(m) = y(m) - aaa(m,n) * x(n)  by conjugate gradients.

subroutine cg( n, x, g, s, m, y, res, gg, ss, aaa, niter)
integer i, j, n, m, iter, niter
real x(n), y(m), res(m), aaa(m,n)
real g(n), s(n), gg(m), ss(m)          # space vectors
real dot, sds, gdg, gds, determ, gdr, sdr, alfa, beta
do i = 1, n
  x(i) = 0.          # clear solution
do i = 1, m
  res(i) = y(i)      # load the residual vector
do iter = 0, niter {
  do j = 1, n {
    g(j) = 0.        # g = residual * A^T = grad
    do i = 1, m
      g(j) = g(j) + res(i) * aaa(i,j)
    }
  }
  do i = 1, m {
    gg(i) = 0.       # gg = A * g = conjugate gradient
    do j = 1, n
      gg(i) = gg(i) + aaa(i,j) * g(j)
    }
  }
  if( iter == 0 ) { # one step of steepest descent
    alfa = dot(m,gg,res) / dot(m,gg,gg)
    beta = 0.
  }
  else { # search plane by solving 2-by-2
    gdg = dot(m,gg,gg) # G · (R - G α - S β) = 0
    sds = dot(m,ss,ss) # S · (R - G α - S β) = 0
    gds = dot(m,gg,ss)
    determ = gdg * sds - gds * gds + 1.e-30
    gdr = dot(m,gg,res)
    sdr = dot(m,ss,res)
    alfa = ( sds * gdr - gds * sdr ) / determ
    beta = (-gds * gdr + gdg * sdr ) / determ
  }
  do i = 1, n # s = model step
    s(i) = alfa * g(i) + beta * s(i)
  do i = 1, m # ss = conjugate
    ss(i) = alfa * gg(i) + beta * ss(i)
  do i = 1, n # update solution
    x(i) = x(i) + s(i)
  do i = 1, m # update residual
    res(i) = res(i) - ss(i)
  }
return; end

```

```

real function dot( n, x, y )
integer i, n
real val, x(n), y(n)
val = 0.
do i=1, n
    val = val + x(i) * y(i)
dot = val
return;    end

```

EXAMPLE

```

y transpose
  3.00   3.00   5.00   7.00   9.00

```

```

A transpose
  1.00   1.00   1.00   1.00   1.00
  1.00   2.00   3.00   4.00   5.00
  1.00   0.00   1.00   0.00   1.00
  0.00   0.00   0.00   1.00   1.00

```

```

for iter = 0, 4
x  0.43457383  1.56124675  0.27362058  0.25752524
res 0.73055887 -0.55706739 -0.39193439  0.06291389  0.22804642
x  0.51313990  1.38677311  0.87905097  0.56870568
res 0.22103608 -0.28668615 -0.55250990  0.37106201  0.10523783
x  0.39144850  1.24044561  1.08974123  1.46199620
res 0.27836478  0.12766024 -0.20252618  0.18477297 -0.14541389
x  1.00001717  1.00006616  1.00001156  2.00000978
res -0.00009474 -0.00014952 -0.00022683 -0.00029133 -0.00036907
x  0.99999994  1.00000000  1.00000036  2.00000000
res -0.00000013 -0.00000003  0.00000007  0.00000018 -0.00000015

```

REFERENCES

- Luenberger, D. G., 1973, Introduction to linear and nonlinear programming: Addison-Wesley.
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