

Linear Vector Space

The idea is to generalise the notion of a vector from an "arrow" & redefine it as a member of a **Linear Vector Space (LVS)**

→ Advantage is that many more mathematical objects such as fns, matrices etc. start behaving as vectors. **Abstraction**

To define an LVS, we first define a field

Field: Any set of nos. which are closed under operations of addition, multiplication, subtraction & division comprises a field.

Let us now imagine a set of abstract objects denoted by the symbol $|>$. Two kinds of operations are permitted with $|>$.

- We can add two $|>$'s to get another $|>$
- We can multiply a $|>$ with a no. coming from the field to get another $|>$. i.e. $|c> = \alpha \cdot |b>$

Set of rules which define an LVS

- A** : a) If $|a>, |b> \in S$, then $|a> + |b> \in S$
- b) If $|a> \in S$ & α is a no. from the field, then $\alpha \cdot |a> \in S$
- c) There exists a null element indicated by $|0> \in S$ such that $|a> + |0> = |a>$
- d) For any $|a> \in S$, there exists another $|a'| \in S$ such that $|a'| + |a> = |0>$

such that $|a\rangle + |a'\rangle = |0\rangle$

B: For any $|a\rangle, |b\rangle$ & $|c\rangle$ in S in complex nos. α & β (from a field)

e) $|a\rangle + |b\rangle = |b\rangle + |a\rangle$ [Commutative law]

f) $(|a\rangle + |b\rangle) + |c\rangle = |a\rangle + (|b\rangle + |c\rangle)$

[Associative law of addition]

g) $1 \cdot |a\rangle = |a\rangle$

h) $\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot |a\rangle) = (\alpha \cdot \beta) \cdot |a\rangle$ [Associative law of multiplication]

i) $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot |a\rangle = \alpha \cdot |a\rangle + \beta \cdot |a\rangle$ [Distributive law w.r.t. addition of complex nos.]

j) $\alpha \cdot (|a\rangle + |b\rangle) = \alpha \cdot |a\rangle + \alpha \cdot |b\rangle$ [Distributive law w.r.t. addition of $|>$'s]

A set S of $|>$'s whose elements satisfy all the properties A & B is called a **Linear Vector Space**. Elements of this set are called **vectors**.

Pls. convince yourself that arrows on the plane (or in 3D) are vectors as per the above def'n.

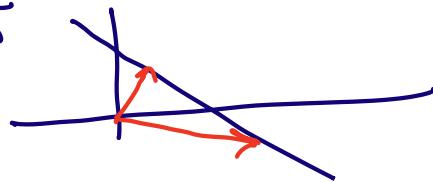
What is the use of all this abstraction?

Many more objects also behave as vectors in addition to the ones which have **magnitude** & **direcⁿ** [the school def'n of a vector]

Decide which is a LVS :-

1) The set of all arrows which end on the line

$$y = -3x + 5$$



2) Polynomials with real coefficients of degree 2.

$$2x^2 + 5x \quad -2x^2$$

3) Polynomials with real coefficients up to degree 2

The vectors $|1\rangle, |2\rangle, |3\rangle \dots |N\rangle$ are said to be

linearly independent if

$$\sum_i a_i |i\rangle = |0\rangle \quad \text{implies all } a_i = 0$$

The max^m no. of linearly ind. vectors in an LVS
is called the dimension of the space.

The set of vectors $|i\rangle$ that are LI & have the property that each vector $|a\rangle \in S$, can be expressed as a linear combination of the vectors $|i\rangle$ is called a basis of S.

Linear Operator :- An operator (consumes a vector & produces another vector) A is called a linear operator if

α, β are from the field

$$A. \{ \alpha. |a\rangle + \beta. |b\rangle \}$$

$$= \alpha \cdot A \cdot |a\rangle + \beta \cdot A \cdot |b\rangle$$

In general linear operators do not commute
i.e. $A \cdot B \cdot \Delta \neq B \cdot A \cdot \Delta$

Statement w/o proof Every linear operator in a finite dimensional LVS can be represented by a matrix provided a basis is chosen.

How to do this?

Consider the operator

$$T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3a_1 + a_2 \\ a_1 + a_3 \\ a_1 - a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Is T a linear operator?

$$T \left\{ \alpha \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$= T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha a_1 + \beta b_1 \\ \alpha a_2 + \beta b_2 \\ \alpha a_3 + \beta b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3\alpha a_1 + 3\beta b_1 + \alpha a_2 + \beta b_2 \\ \alpha a_1 + \beta b_1 + \alpha a_3 + \beta b_3 \\ \alpha(a_1 - a_3) + \beta(b_1 - b_3) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha(3a_1 + a_2) + \beta(3b_1 + b_2) \\ \alpha(a_1 + a_3) + \beta(b_1 + b_3) \\ \alpha(a_1 - a_3) + \beta(b_1 - b_3) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 3a_1 + a_2 \\ a_1 + a_3 \\ a_1 - a_3 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 3b_1 + b_2 \\ b_1 + b_3 \\ b_1 - b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Std. basis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

T operates on col^n matrices with 3 entries.

$$= \alpha \cdot T \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \cdot T \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore T \cdot \left\{ \alpha \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

#1 Find the matrix representation of T in the standard basis

order
imp.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \}$$

ordered basis.
Don't switch
=

Algo
Apply T on basis vectors:

$$T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \textcircled{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \textcircled{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \textcircled{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \textcircled{1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \textcircled{0} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \textcircled{0} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \textcircled{0} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \textcircled{1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \textcircled{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix rep. of T
in the std. basis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

#2 Consider the LVS of polynomials with real coeff. up to degree 2.

$$f(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2$$

Consider the operator $\frac{d}{dx} \equiv A$

Is this a Linear operator? } → Check

Choose a set of basis vectors $\{1, x, x^2\}$

Find the matrix rep. of A in this basis

Algo : $A \cdot |1\rangle \equiv \frac{d}{dx} \cdot (1) = 0 = 0 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$

$$A \cdot |x\rangle \equiv \frac{d}{dx} (x) = 1 = 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$A \cdot |x^2\rangle \equiv \frac{d}{dx} (x^2) = 2x = 0 + 2 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's go a bit further.

Consider the effect of this operator on the vector $1+5x+3x^2$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} (1+5x+3x^2) &= 5+6x \\ &= 5+6x+0 \cdot x^2 \end{aligned}$$

Take the matrix rep. of A & operate

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider a 2nd linear operator $B = x \cdot \frac{d}{dx}$ [verify]

Find the matrix rep. of B in

the same basis

$$x \frac{d}{dx} |1\rangle = x \frac{d}{dx} (1) = 0 = 0 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$x \frac{d}{dx} |2\rangle = x \frac{d}{dx} (x) = x = 0 + 1 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$x \frac{d}{dx} |3\rangle = x \frac{d}{dx} (x^2) = 2x^2 = 0 + 0 \cdot x + 2 \cdot x^2$$

Mat. rep. of B in this basis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Product of linear operators is itself a LO

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(x \frac{d}{dx} \right) = x \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d}{dx} = A \cdot B$$

Let A.B operate on the vector $17 + 15x + 18x^2$

$$\left(x \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d}{dx} \right) \{ 17 + 15x + 18x^2 \}$$

$$= x \frac{d^2}{dx^2} (18x^2) + \frac{d}{dx} (15x) + 36x$$

$$= 36x + 15 + 36x^2 = 15 + 72x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

Now check if the matrix def. do the same

↓ ob.

$$A \cdot B \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\therefore A \cdot B \cdot \{17 + 15x + 18x^2\}$ in matrix notation is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 17 \\ 15 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ 72 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Does A & B commute?

$$x \frac{d}{dx} \cdot \left(\frac{d}{dx} \right) = x \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \cdot \left(x \frac{d}{dx} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} + x \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$$

Do the matrix representations commute?

Back to solving $A \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{B}$ iteratively

Eigenvectors & Eigenvalues

$$A \cdot \vec{v} = \lambda \cdot \vec{v}$$

For $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ find \vec{v} & λ

$$\lambda = 3 \text{ & } 1 \rightarrow \vec{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determined up to an arbitrary multiplicative constant.

Earlier we saw that the norm of the iteration matrix R , decides convergence. However this was not a necessary condition

$$\|\vec{x}^{(k+1)} - \vec{x}^{(e)}\| \leq \|R\|^m \cdot \underbrace{\|\vec{x}^{(0)} - \vec{x}^{(e)}\|}_{\text{initial error}}$$

Let us take the some example for an arbitray matrix A .

$$\vec{e}^{(0)} = \vec{x}^{(e)} - \vec{x}^{(0)}$$

Recall $\vec{x}^{(k+1)} = R \cdot \vec{x}^{(k)} + \vec{c}$

$$\therefore \vec{e}^{(k+1)} = R \cdot \vec{e}^{(k)}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{x}^{(e)} = R \cdot \vec{x}^{(e)} + \vec{c}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{e}^{(k+1)} = R^2 \cdot \vec{e}^{(k-1)}$$

$$= R^{(k+1)} \cdot \vec{e}^{(0)}$$

Let the eigenvectors of the R -matrix be

$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ [assume they span the n -dimensional space]

$$\vec{e}^{(0)} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n$$

$$\vec{e}^{(1)} = R \cdot \vec{e}^{(0)}$$

$$= R \cdot [c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n]$$

$$= [c_1 \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n \vec{v}_n]$$

$$\vec{e}^{(2)} = R \cdot \vec{e}^{(1)}$$

$$= c_1 \lambda_1^2 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n^2 \vec{v}_n$$

$$\vec{e}^{(k+1)} = c_1 \lambda_1^{k+1} \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^{k+1} \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n^{k+1} \vec{v}_n$$

It is thus clear that

$$\|\vec{e}^{(k+1)}\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ if } |\lambda_{\max}| < 1$$

$\|\vec{e}^{(k+1)}\| \rightarrow 0$ if $|\lambda_{\max}| < 1$

Defⁿ : Spectral radius of a matrix B

$$\rho(B) = \max_i |\lambda_i|$$

Thus in terms of the spectral radius, we have the necessary & sufficient condition for convergence.

$$\rho(R) = \rho(A_1^{-1} \cdot A_2) < 1$$

Note that $\|R\| < 1$ is only a sufficient but not a necessary condition for convergence.

W/O Proof : The iteration converges for any initial guess vector $\vec{x}^{(0)}$ if and only if $\rho(R) < 1$

↳ necessary & sufficient condition

Not for exam

↳ If the spectral radius $\rho(T) < 1$, then
 $(I - T)^{-1} = \frac{I}{I - T} = I + T + T^2 + T^3 + \dots$

↳ Reminds you of what?

Digression: $\|A\|_2 = [\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)]^{1/2}$

max. magnitude eigenvalue

$$= [\rho(A^T A)]^{1/2}$$

Note that $\rho(A) \neq \|A\|_2$

Prove that $\rho(B) \leq \|B\|$ for any norm

↳ Homework

Example: $2x + y + z = 4$

$$x + 2y + z = 4$$

$$x + y + 2z = 4$$

For the GS method,

$$R = -(L + D)^{-1} \cdot U$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 R &= - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{8} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 4 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{8} & +\frac{3}{8} \end{bmatrix} \quad \|R\|_1 = \frac{4}{8} + \frac{2}{8} + \frac{3}{8} \\
 &\qquad\qquad\qquad = \frac{9}{8} > 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Will GS converge?

Try GS with the initial guess

$$\vec{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix}, \vec{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x}^{(e)} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

Does it converge?

Now try computing $\rho_{GS}(R)$. For the complex eigenvalues $\lambda = a + ib$, $|\lambda| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$. You may encounter complex eigenvalues for the R -matrix for this example.

We saw earlier that the decomposition of the error vector into eigenvectors of the R-matrix

$$\vec{e}^{(k+1)} = c_1 \lambda_1^{k+1} \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^{k+1} \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n^{k+1} \vec{v}_n$$

If $\rho(R) = \max_i |\lambda_i(R)| < 1$, then the iteration converges.

What determines the rate of convergence when $\rho(R) < 1$?

Compare two R matrices below

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.5 \\ 0.6 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

&

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 1.1 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_{\max} = 0.6$$

$$\lambda_{\max} = 1.1$$

Which will converge?
A 3rd algo for solving $A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$ iteratively

Recall Gauss-Siedel (A = L + D + U) is the decomposition

$$A \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow (L+D) \cdot \vec{x} = -U \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{x} = -(L+D)^{-1} \cdot U \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{b} \rightarrow \text{Gauss-Siedel}$$

In relaxation methods, we do the following

$$x_i^{(k)} = (1-\omega) x_i^{(k-1)} + \omega x_{i, G.S}^{(k)}$$

$\boxed{\omega: \text{free parameter}}$

$$\Rightarrow x_i^{(k)} = (1-\omega) x_i^{(k-1)} + \omega \left[b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^N a_{ij} x_j^{(k-1)} \right] / a_{ii}$$

$\boxed{\text{Set } \omega=1 \text{ to recover G.S.}}$

$$\Rightarrow a_{ii} x_i^{(k)} = (1-\omega) a_{ii} x_i^{(k-1)} + \omega \left[\dots \right]$$

In matrix notation

$$D \vec{x}^{(k)} = (1-\omega) D \vec{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega \left[\vec{b} - L \vec{x}^{(k)} - U \vec{x}^{(k-1)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow (D + \omega L) \cdot \vec{x}^{(k)} = [(1-\omega) D - \omega U] \cdot \vec{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{x}^{(k)} = (D + \omega L)^{-1} \cdot [(1-\omega) D - \omega U] \cdot \vec{x}^{(k-1)} \\ + \omega (D + \omega L)^{-1} \cdot \vec{b}$$

$\boxed{\text{The matrix decomp. of } A \text{ for relaxation methods is}}$

$$A_1 = \frac{D}{\omega} + L \quad \& \quad A_2 = \left(\frac{1-\omega}{\omega} \right) D - U$$

$$\boxed{A_1 - A_2 = L + D + U}$$

$$\therefore A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow (A_1 - A_2) \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\left(\frac{D}{\omega} + L \right) - \left\{ \left(\frac{1-\omega}{\omega} \right) D - U \right\} \right] \vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[(D + \omega L) - \left\{ (1-\omega) D - \omega U \right\} \right] \vec{x} = \omega \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow (D + \omega L) \vec{x} = [(1-\omega) D - \omega U] \vec{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega \vec{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow (D + \omega L) \vec{x}^{(k)} = [(1-\omega) D - \omega U] \vec{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega (D + \omega L)^{-1} \vec{b}$$

45

The idea is to choose " ω " optimally such that the iteration converges fastest. Note that ω can be ≥ 1 implying over-relaxation OR under-relaxation.

$$\text{e.g. } 9x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 10$$

$$2x_1 + 10x_2 + 3x_3 = 19$$

$$3x_1 + 4x_2 + 11x_3 = 0$$

$$\vec{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \omega = 1.2 \text{ (choose)} \rightarrow \text{over-relaxation}$$

$$x_{1,\text{G.S.}}^{(1)} = \frac{10 - x_2^{(0)} - x_3^{(0)}}{9} = 10/9$$

$$x_1^{(1)} = (1 - 1.2) \underbrace{x_1^{(0)}}_0 + 1.2 x_{1,\text{G.S.}}$$

$$= 1.2 \times \frac{10}{9} = 1.332$$

$$x_{2,\text{G.S.}}^{(1)} = \frac{19 - 2x_1^{(1)} - 3x_3^{(0)}}{10}$$

$$= \frac{19 - 2 \times 1.332 - 3(0)}{10} = 1.6336$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = (1 - 1.2) x_2^{(0)} + 1.2 x_{2,\text{G.S.}}$$

$$= 1.2 \times 1.6336 = 1.96$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = -\frac{3x_1^{(1)} - 4x_2^{(2)}}{11} = \frac{-3 \times 1.332 - 4 \times 1.96}{11}$$

=

$$x_3^{(1)} = (1 - 1.2)x_3^{(0)} + 1.2 x_3, G.S.$$

$$= 1.2 \times \dots$$

$$\vec{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.332 \\ 1.96 \\ -1.1836 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exact soln =

$$\begin{bmatrix} \quad \\ \quad \end{bmatrix}$$

Another example :-

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 - x_2 + x_3 &= -1 \\ -x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 &= 7 \\ x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 &= -7 \end{aligned}$$

$$w = 1.25$$

$$\vec{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.41667 \\ 2.7431 \\ -1.6001 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.4972 \\ 2.1880 \\ -2.2288 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0428 \\ 2.0007 \\ -1.9723 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \vec{x}^{(e)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Positive definite matrix :- A matrix is (pre) definite if $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} > 0$ for all $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$

A above need not be a symmetric matrix.

But even when A is not symmetric, only the symmetric part of A contributes to the above quadratic form. So we will refer to A as being symmetric $\left[A = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(A+A^T)}_{\text{symm. part of } A} + \frac{1}{2}(A-A^T) \right]$

~~# Prove that all the eigenvalues of a symmetric (+ve) definite matrix > 0~~

Positive definiteness is an useful attribute because for $A \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{b}$, if A is positive definite and $0 < \omega < 2$, then the relaxation method converges \rightarrow Ostrowski - Reich theorem

We had earlier checked SOR on the system

$$9x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 10$$

$$2x_1 + 10x_2 + 3x_3 = 19$$

$$3x_1 + 4x_2 + 11x_3 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(A+A^T) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 10 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 10 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 20 & 7 \\ 4 & 7 & 22 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3/2 & 2 \\ 3/2 & 10 & 7/2 \\ 2 & 7/2 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

↳ Symmetric

Check for +ve definiteness [check eigenvalues] part of A

$$\lambda_1 = 15.062$$

$$\lambda_2 = 8 \quad \& \quad \lambda_3 = 6.93798 \quad \text{all} > 0$$

Not for exam

The Ostrowski-Reich theorem follows from a more general theorem Householder-John theorem which says for $A \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{b}$ with the splitting $A = A_1 - A_2$ and $A_1^* + A_2$ is (pre) definite, $\rho(A_1^{-1} \cdot A_2) < 1$ iff A is pre definite

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & 9 \\ 7 & 1 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the spectral radius of the iteration matrix for Gauss-Siedel

$$\rho_{GS}(A_1^{-1} \cdot A_2) = 5.9 \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} GS \text{ will not} \\ \text{converge} \end{array} \right]$$

Multiply both sides of $A \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{b}$ by A^T

$$A^T \cdot A \cdot \vec{x} = A^T \cdot \vec{b}$$

and check if G.S. converges?

Start with

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

in both cases

\equiv

What is $\vec{x}^{(e)} =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \quad \\ \quad \\ \quad \end{bmatrix}$$

- Calculate $\frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)$ & its eigenvalues
- Calculate $Q = A^T \cdot T$ & its eigenvalues
- Evaluate +ve definiteness ?
- \equiv