

Iterative Methods:

Basic idea:

- Convert $A\mathbf{x} = b$ into $\mathbf{x} = C\mathbf{x} + d$
- Make an initial guess at the solution. This guess is \mathbf{x}_0 .
- Apply $\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = C\mathbf{x}_i + d$ until solution is acceptable

Conceptually similar to iterative root finding techniques (e.g. Newton's Method). The difference is that \mathbf{x} is now a vector of values.

Advantages:

- Speed
- Roundoff errors do not accumulate

Disadvantages:

- Might not work (solution might not converge)

Conversion of equations:

Start with $Ax = b$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Divide each equation by a_{ii} :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_{12}/a_{11} & a_{13}/a_{11} \\ a_{21}/a_{22} & 1 & a_{23}/a_{22} \\ a_{31}/a_{33} & a_{32}/a_{33} & 1 \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} b_1/a_{11} \\ b_2/a_{22} \\ b_3/a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Break up LHS :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12}/a_{11} & a_{13}/a_{11} \\ a_{21}/a_{22} & 0 & a_{23}/a_{22} \\ a_{31}/a_{33} & a_{32}/a_{33} & 0 \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} b_1/a_{11} \\ b_2/a_{22} \\ b_3/a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rearrange :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_{12}/a_{11} & -a_{13}/a_{11} \\ -a_{21}/a_{22} & 0 & -a_{23}/a_{22} \\ -a_{31}/a_{33} & -a_{32}/a_{33} & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} b_1/a_{11} \\ b_2/a_{22} \\ b_3/a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

We now have $x = Cx + d$:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_{12}/a_{11} & -a_{13}/a_{11} \\ -a_{21}/a_{22} & 0 & -a_{23}/a_{22} \\ -a_{31}/a_{33} & -a_{32}/a_{33} & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} b_1/a_{11} \\ b_2/a_{22} \\ b_3/a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Bottom Line: $c_{ii} = 0$, $c_{ij} = -a_{ij}/a_{ii}$, $d_i = b_i/a_{ii}$

Jacobi:

```
x = x0;  
while true  
    xold = x;  
    x = C * xold + d;  
    if x and xold are close enough, break, end  
end
```

Gauss –Seidel:

```
x= x0  
while true  
    xold = x;  
    for i = 1 : n  
        x(i) = C(i, :) * x + d(i);  
    end  
    if x and xold are close enough, break, end  
end
```

The difference is that in the case of Gauss-Seidel the new $x(0)$ is used in calculating the new $x(1)$, the new $x(1)$ and $x(2)$ are used in calculating the new $x(3)$, and so on.

Jacobi:

Better suited to parallel computing

Sufficient condition for convergence: original A *diagonally dominant* *

Necessary and sufficient condition: magnitude of largest eigenvalue of $C < 1$

Gauss –Seidel:

Usually preferred

Converges faster

Sufficient condition for convergence: original A *diagonally dominant* *

* A matrix is diagonally dominant if

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1:n \\ j \neq i}} |a_{ij}|$$

[A b]	=	0.0819	-0.0286	0	0	1.0667
		-0.0286	0.0668	-0.0200	0	0.7273
		0	-0.0200	0.0736	-0.0250	0.8571
		0	0	-0.0250	0.0639	2.1111

Note that A is diagonally dominant.

x by left division: 24.2593 32.2101 36.4865 47.3208

Gauss-Seidel results:

1	13.023256	16.469098	16.127522	39.354248
2	18.768290	23.760043	31.482329	45.362650
3	21.311643	29.449105	35.070560	46.766741
4	23.296199	31.373600	36.070842	47.158156
5	23.967535	31.960637	36.363430	47.272646
6	24.172315	32.135949	36.449992	47.306519
7	24.233470	32.188059	36.475668	47.316566
8	24.251648	32.203532	36.483288	47.319548
9	24.257046	32.208126	36.485550	47.320433
10	24.258648	32.209489	36.486222	47.320695
11	24.259124	32.209894	36.486421	47.320773
12	24.259265	32.210014	36.486480	47.320797
13	24.259307	32.210050	36.486498	47.320803

Gauss-Seidel Code:

```
function [ x, flag, k ] = GaussSeidel( A, b, x0, tol, maxk, disp)
%GAUSSSEIDEL solves  $Ax = b$  using Gauss-Seidel iteration
% Inputs: A = n x n coefficient matrix
%      b = n x 1 right hand side
%      x0 = n x 1 initial guess
%      tol = tolerance, iteration ends when the norm of the change in
%      x becomes less than tol
%      maxk = maximum iterations
%      disp = display option 0 (default) = no display
% Outputs: x = n x 1 solution
%      flag = set to 1 on success, 0 on failure (max iterations)
%      k = iterations

if nargin < 6, disp = 0; end

[n, nn] = size(A); [m, mm] = size(b);
if n ~= nn || n ~= m || mm ~= 1, error('bad dimensions'), end
```

The process of creating C and d fails if any of the diagonal elements of A are zero.

This problem could be addressed by employing row pivoting.

```
% generate the iteration matrices C and d
C = zeros(size(A)); d = zeros(size(b));
for i = 1 : n
    if A(i, i) == 0, error ('zero diagonal element'), end
    C(i, :) = -A(i, :) / A(i, i); C(i, i) = 0;
    d(i) = b(i) / A(i, i);
end

x = x0; % setup for iterating
```

Iterating ends when the norm of the difference between the old and new vectors is less than the specified tolerance.

$$\text{norm}(v) = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2 + \dots}$$

```
for k = 1: maxk

    xold = x;
    for i = 1 : n
        x(i) = C(i, :) * x + d(i);
    end

    % display code omitted to save space

    if norm(x - xold) < tol
        flag = 1; return; % solution has converged
    end

end

flag = 0; % no convergence

end
```


Problem: (ch 5; Curve Fitting) A physics lab has produced the experimental results shown below. Theory predicts that $y = mx + b$ (i.e. that x and y are linearly related). What are m and b ?

x	y
1.0000	5.4704
2.0000	7.0865
3.0000	8.3603
4.0000	10.1030
5.0000	11.2308
6.0000	12.7550
7.0000	14.1710
8.0000	15.6777
9.0000	17.7830

One possibility (not recommended) :

- Take a piece of graph paper
- Plot the points
- Draw a line that more or less matches the points
- Determine m by measuring rise and run ($m = \text{rise/run}$)
- Determine b from the y intercept of the line

This process is painful and the results are likely to be inaccurate.

A better way:

Load the data into Matlab:

```
>> load data1.txt % creates a matrix called data1
```

Get the x and y values into separate vectors (for convenience):

```
>> x = data1(:, 1);
```

```
>> y = data1(:, 2);
```

Use *polyfit* to find the straight line that best matches the data:

```
>> p = polyfit (x, y, 1);
```

```
>> fprintf ('The best fit line is %f * x + %f\n', p(1), p(2));
```

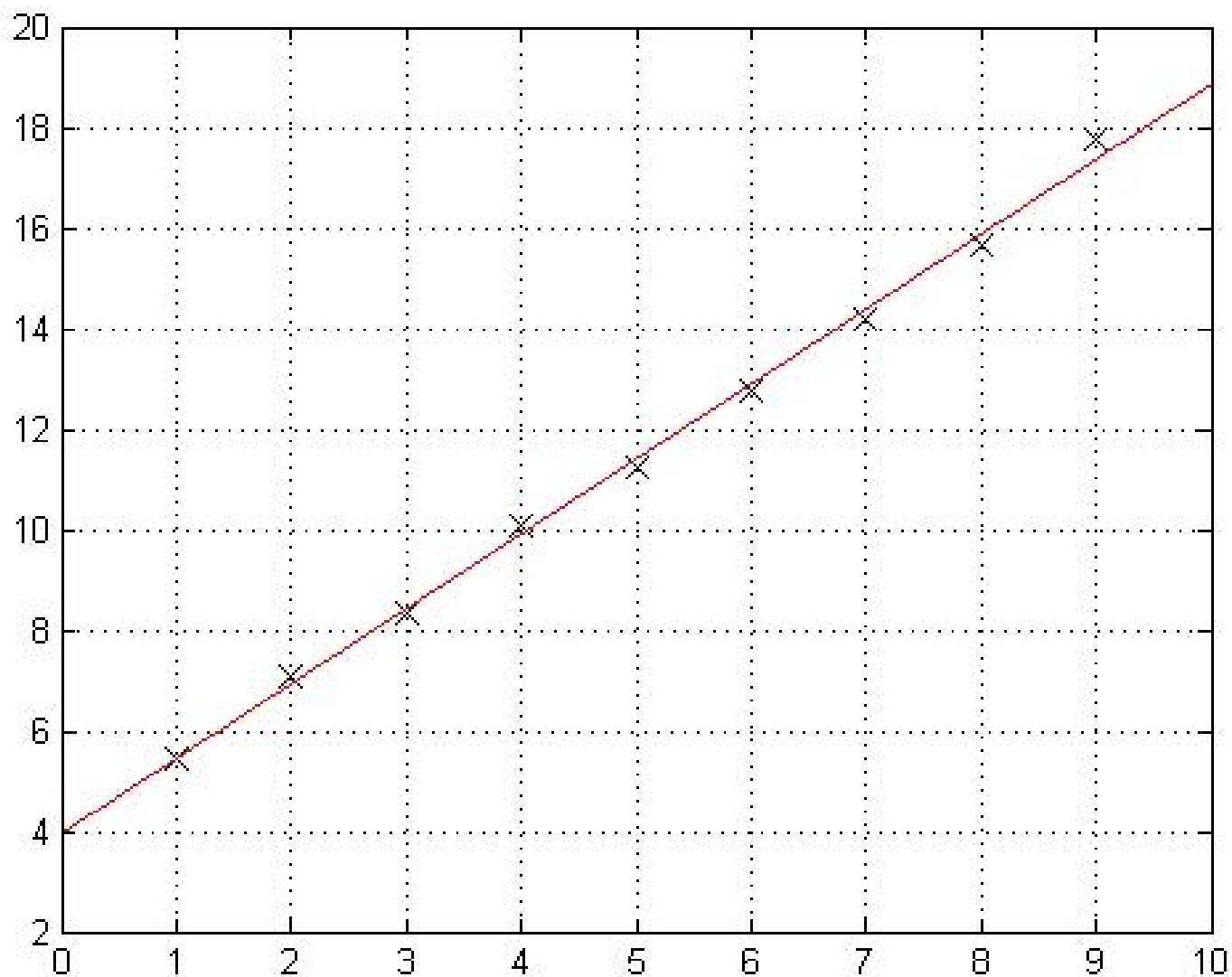
Create a nice plot showing both data points and the straight line:

```
xf = [0 10]; % only two points are required to define a straight line
```

```
yf = polyval (p, xf); % get corresponding y values
```

```
plot (x, y, 'xk', xf, yf, 'r', 'MarkerSize', 10); grid on;
```

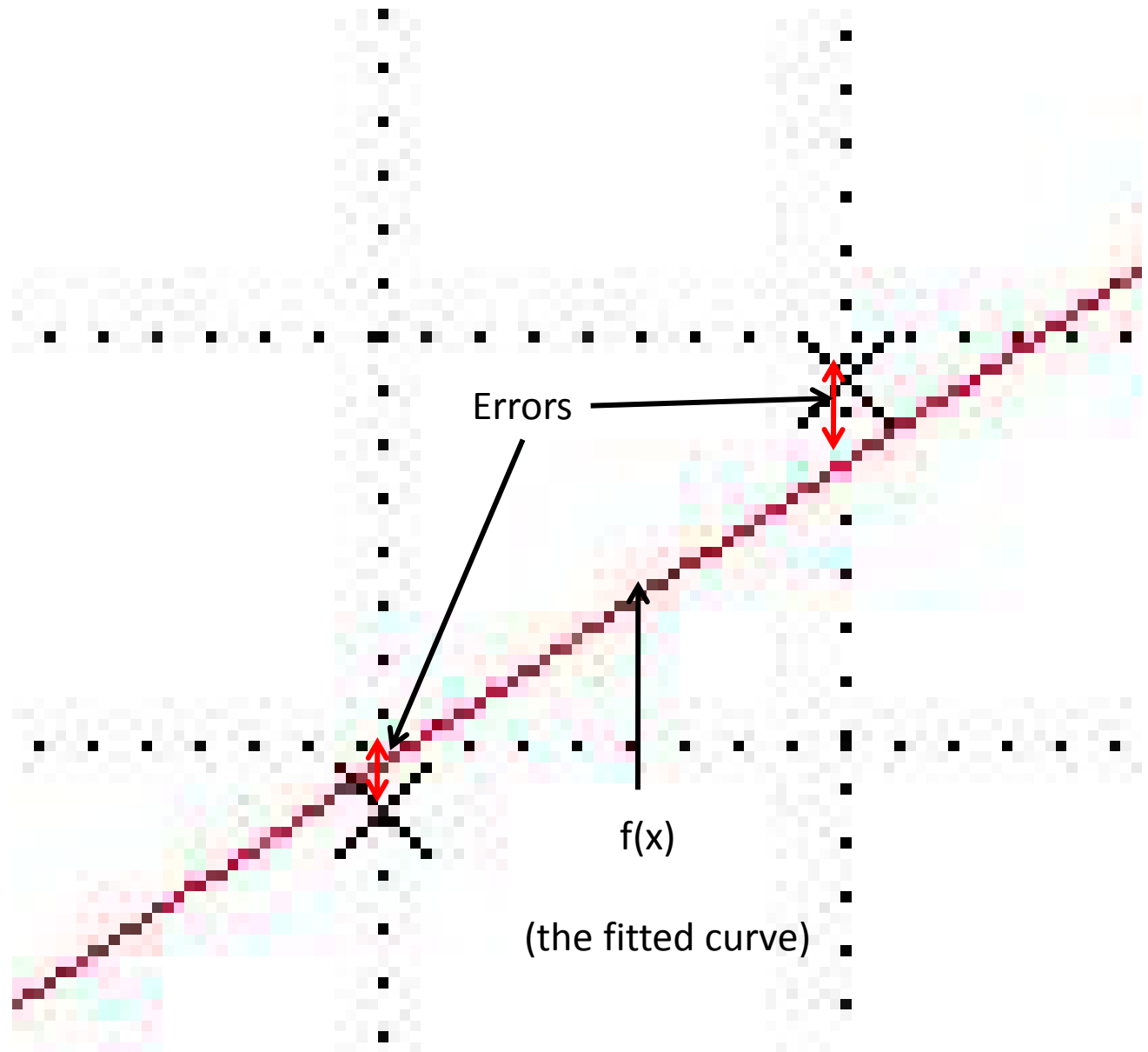
The best fit line is $1.488290 * x + 3.962739$



Errors:

The difference between each data point and the fitted curve.

The basic concept applies whether the fitted curve is a straight line (as in this case) or something more exotic.



Possible “Best Fit” Criteria:

Sum of errors:

positive and negative errors cancel

Sum of absolute errors:

best fit is not unique

Minimax (minimize maximum error):

gives outliers undue influence

best fit not unique

Sum of squares of errors:

best fit is unique

generally used

The “best fit” line is the line that minimizes $\sum (y_i - f(x_i))^2$

Quality of fit:

Correlation of determination (r^2): $r^2 = \frac{S_t - S_r}{S_t}$

S_t is the sum of differences between data points and the average y : $S_t = \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$

S_r is the sum of differences between data points and the fitted line: $S_r = \sum (y_i - f(x_i))^2$

If fitted line fits data points perfectly, $S_r = 0$ and $r^2 = 1$.

If fitted line no better than just using the average y , $S_r = S_t$ and $r^2 = 0$.

Correlation coefficient (r): $r = \sqrt{r^2}$

Calculation of correlation coefficient:

```
function [r] = correlate( x, y, f )  
%CORRELATE calculates the correlation coefficient for given data and function  
  
yBar = mean(y);  
  
St = 0; Sr = 0;  
for i = 1:length(x)  
    St = St + (y(i) - yBar) ^ 2;  
    Sr = Sr + (y(i) - f(x(i))) ^ 2;  
end;  
  
r2 = (St - Sr) / St;  
r2 = max([r2 0]); % avoid silly numbers when fit worse than average  
r = sqrt(r2);  
  
end
```

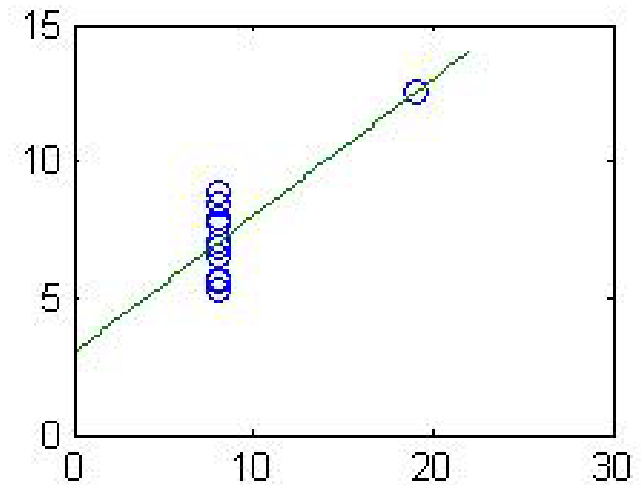
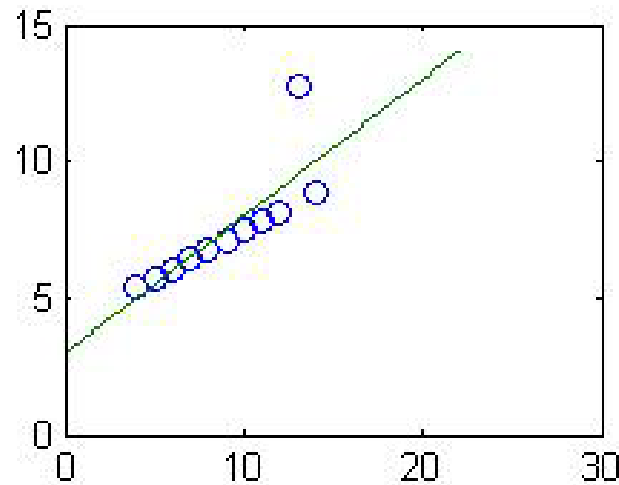
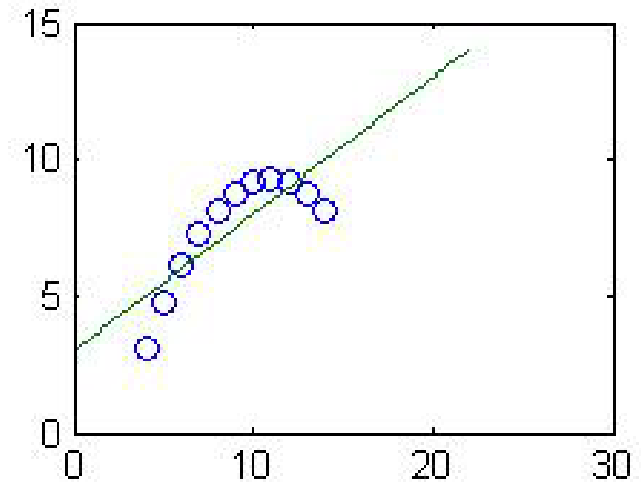
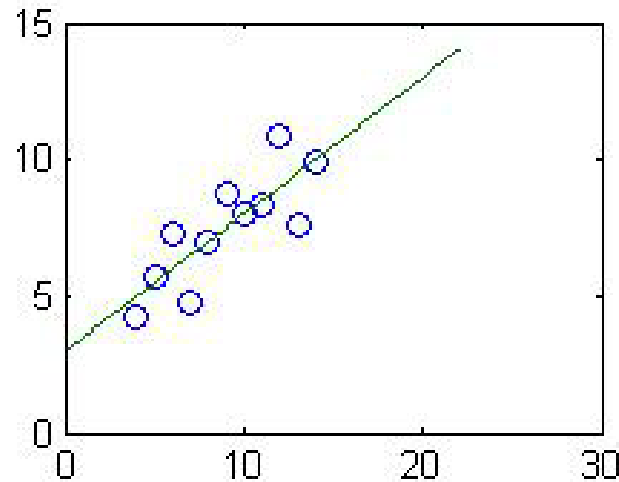
Anscombe's Data:

In all four cases the best fit line is

$$y = 0.5x + 3$$

In all four cases

$$r^2 = 0.67$$



Moral:

- Beware of relying on numbers
- Plots are a valuable tool