Chapter 5 Numerical methods for system of linear equations

School of science

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- ■1. Numerical method for linear equations
- ■2. Direct method v,s. iterative method

- 1. Numerical method for linear equations
 - ☐ Almost half of the problems in engineering involve the solution of linear equations
 - \square Suppose the *n-th* order linear equations:

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \dots & \text{or } Ax = b \end{cases}$$

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

where
$$A = (a_{ij})_{n \times n}$$
 $b = (b_j)_{n \times 1}$ $x = (x_i)_{n \times 1}$

- A is called the coefficient matrix of the equations, and when it is a nonsingular matrix of order n, i.e., $|A| \neq 0$, the equations have a unique solution.
- \blacksquare X is the solution vector, and B is a constant vector
- In linear algebra, we've learned to solve the problem by Cramer's rule, which is a direct method (belonging to analytical method). While, with *n*↑, the amount of computation ↑

Cremer's rule

when $\det A \neq 0$, the equations has only one solution:

$$x_i = \frac{\det(A_i)}{\det(A)} \qquad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$$

computation cost $\approx (n-1)*(n+1)!$

Very large, not feasible when n is large enough.

- Direct method v,s. iterative method
 - □ Direct method: the exact solution is obtained by finite calculation, suitable for small coefficient matrix with little computation cost.
 - □ Iterative method: the iterative method transforms the problem into an infinite sequence and approximates the exact solution. It is suitable for very large coefficient matrix, but has the problem of convergence and requires large amount of computation

- ☐ In application, the choice of method shall be determined according to the characteristics and requirements of the problem
- □ In this chapter, direct method, such as Gaussian elimination and LU factorization will be introduced. Meanwhile, the iterative method, e.g., *Jacobi* iteration, *Gauss-Seidel* iteration will also be introduced.

contents

- ■1. introduction
- ■2. Gaussian elimination
- ■3. computation cost

- ☐ It is an ancient method for solving linear equations
- ☐ A direct method for n-array linear equations

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n \end{cases}$$

Solving Ax=b, x=?

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Gaussian elimination

denote:
$$\mathbf{A}^{(1)} = \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}^{(1)} = \mathbf{b}, a_{ij}^{(1)} = a_{ij}, b_i^{(1)} = b_i$$

thus the augmented matrix of matrix A is

$$(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \mathbf{b}^{(1)}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & a_{13}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{1n}^{(1)} & b_{1}^{(1)} \\ a_{21}^{(1)} & a_{22}^{(1)} & a_{23}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{2n}^{(1)} & b_{2}^{(1)} \\ a_{31}^{(1)} & a_{32}^{(1)} & a_{33}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{3n}^{(1)} & b_{3}^{(1)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1}^{(1)} & a_{n2}^{(1)} & a_{n3}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{nn}^{(1)} & b_{n}^{(1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

First step:

suppose
$$a_{11}^{(1)} \neq 0$$
, take $-m_{i1} = -\frac{a_{i1}^{(1)}}{a_{11}^{(1)}}$, $(i = 2,3,...,n)$

multiplication the 1-th row then adding to the i-th row, thus

$$(\mathbf{A}^{(2)}, \mathbf{b}^{(2)}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & a_{13}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{1n}^{(1)} & b_{1}^{(1)} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & a_{23}^{(2)} & \dots & a_{2n}^{(2)} & b_{2}^{(2)} \\ 0 & a_{32}^{(2)} & a_{33}^{(2)} & \dots & a_{3n}^{(2)} & b_{3}^{(2)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & a_{n2}^{(2)} & a_{n3}^{(2)} & \dots & a_{nn}^{(2)} & b_{n}^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$
where
$$a_{ij}^{(2)} = a_{ij}^{(1)} - m_{i1}a_{1j}^{(1)}, \quad i, j = 2,3,...,n$$

$$b_{i}^{(2)} = b_{i}^{(1)} - m_{i1}b_{1}^{(1)}, \quad i = 2,3,...,n$$

Second step:

suppose
$$a_{22}^{(2)} \neq 0$$
, take $-m_{i2} = -\frac{a_{i2}^{(2)}}{a_{22}^{(2)}}$, $(i = 3,4,...,n)$

multiplication the 2-th row then adding to the i-th row, thus

$$(\mathbf{A}^{(3)}, \mathbf{b}^{(3)}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & a_{13}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{1n}^{(1)} & b_{1}^{(1)} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & a_{23}^{(2)} & \dots & a_{2n}^{(2)} & b_{2}^{(2)} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33}^{(3)} & \dots & a_{3n}^{(3)} & b_{3}^{(3)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & a_{n3}^{(3)} & \dots & a_{nn}^{(3)} & b_{n}^{(3)} \end{pmatrix}$$
where
$$a_{ij}^{(3)} = a_{ij}^{(2)} - m_{i2}a_{2j}^{(2)}, \quad i, j = 3, 4, \dots, n$$

$$b_{i}^{(3)} = b_{i}^{(2)} - m_{i2}b_{2}^{(2)}, \quad i = 3, 4, \dots, n$$

continue the elimination process, and after n-1 times we have:

$$(\mathbf{A}^{(n)}, \mathbf{b}^{(n)}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & a_{13}^{(1)} & \dots & a_{1n}^{(1)} & b_{1}^{(1)} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & a_{23}^{(2)} & \dots & a_{2n}^{(2)} & b_{2}^{(2)} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33}^{(3)} & \dots & a_{3n}^{(3)} & b_{3}^{(3)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_{nn}^{(n)} & b_{n}^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}$$

The elimination process is done

At this time, the original equations change to

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}^{(1)}x_1 + a_{12}^{(1)}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}^{(1)}x_n = b_1^{(1)} \\ a_{22}^{(2)}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}^{(2)}x_n = b_2^{(2)} \end{cases}$$

$$a_{nn}^{(n)}x_n = b_n^{(n)}$$

Back substitution the equations above, we can get

$$\begin{cases} x_n = \frac{b_n^{(n)}}{a_{nn}^{(n)}} \\ x_i = \frac{b_n^{(i)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}^{(i)} x_j}{a_{ii}^{(i)}}, i = n-1, n-2, \dots, 1 \end{cases}$$

$$a_{kk}^{(k)} \text{ is called the reduced main element}$$

Conclusion

- Gaussian elimination = elimination (upper triangle matrix) + back substitution (lower triangle matrix)
- It must satisfies $a_{kk}^{(k)} \neq 0, (k=1,2,...,n)$, during the elimination. If some $a_{kk}^{(k)}=0$, the row and column should be exchanged before elimination

Computation cost

elimination calculation

k step	division	multiplication(A)	multiplication	sum and subtraction
1	n-1	$(n-1)^2$	n-1	$(n-1)^2$
2	n-2	$(n-2)^2$	n-2	$(n-2)^2$
:	: <u> </u>	: \	: \	:
n-1	1	1	1	1
total	n(n-1)/2	n(n-1)(2n-1)/6	n(n-1)/2	n(n-1)(2n-1)/6
computation cost in total:				
$\sum_{n=1}^{n-1} (n-k) + \sum_{n=1}^{n-1} (n-k)^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{n-1} (n-k)$ (n-k)				
$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (n-k) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (n-k)$				
$=\frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)(2n-1)}+\frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)}=\frac{n^3}{n^3}+\frac{n^2}{n^3}-\frac{5n}{n^3}$				
-	2	6 7 2	$-\frac{1}{3}$ $+\frac{1}{2}$ $-\frac{1}{6}$	

Computation cost

back substitution calculation needs:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (n-k) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Total computation cost of Gaussian elimination to solve Ax=b is :

$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (\frac{n^3}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{5n}{6}) = \frac{n^3}{3} + n^2 - \frac{n}{3} = O(n^3)$$

Conclusion

- Gaussian elimination = elimination (upper triangle matrix) + back substitution (lower triangle matrix)
- The total computation cost is $O(n^3)$
- It must satisfies $a_{kk}^{(k)} \neq 0, (k=1,2,...,n)$, during the elimination. If some $a_{kk}^{(k)}=0$, the row and column should be exchanged before elimination

Example: solve the equation by Gaussian elimination

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 6 \\ 4x_2 - x_3 = 5 \\ 2x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = 1 \end{cases}$$

Solution : solving with the use of augmented matrix of A

$$(A \mid b) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 & 5 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_3 - 2*r_1 \to r_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 & 5 \\ 0 & -4 & -1 & -11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Contents

■§5.2 LU factorization

Solving
$$Ax=b$$
, $x=?$

- ■1. calculate : $L_{n-1} L_{n-2} ... L_1 A = U$
- ■2. denote: $L=L_1^{-1}$ L_2^{-1} ... L_{n-1}^{-1}
- $\blacksquare 3$. thus: A = LU
- ■4. compute : LU=b
- ■5. solve : Ly=b, Ux=y

For the matrix A with order n

$$\mathbf{A}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(1)} \\ a_{21}^{(1)} & a_{22}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1}^{(1)} & a_{n2}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{nn}^{(1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

suppose $a_{11}^{(1)} \neq 0$, set $m_{i1} = a_{i1}^{(1)} \div a_{11}^{(1)}, i = 2, 3, \dots, n$, denote

$$L_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -m_{21} & 1 \\ -m_{31} & 1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ -m_{n1} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

suppose $a_{22}^{(2)} \neq 0$, set $m_{i2} = a_{i2}^{(2)} \div a_{22}^{(2)}, i = 3,4,\dots,n$, denote

$$L_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & -m_{32} & 1 & & \\ & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ & -m_{n2} & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

thus
$$A^{(3)} = L_2 A^{(2)} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & a_{13}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(1)} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & a_{23}^{(2)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(2)} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33}^{(3)} & \cdots & a_{3n}^{(3)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & a_{n3}^{(3)} & \cdots & a_{nn}^{(3)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Following the same process, and at (n-1)-th step:

$$A^{(n)} = L_{n-1}A^{(n-1)} = egin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(1)} \\ & a_{22}^{(2)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(2)} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & a_{nn}^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}$$
 where $L_{n-1} = egin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & \\ & &$

Thus:

$$A^{(n)} = L_{n-1}A^{(n-1)} = L_{n-1}L_{n-2}A^{(n-2)} = \dots = L_{n-1}L_{n-2}\dots L_2L_1A^{(1)}$$

where

$$\mathbf{L}_{k} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \mathbf{1} & & \\ & & -m_{k+1k} & \mathbf{1} & \\ & & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ & & -m_{nk} & & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \text{ the k-th row}$$

so that:
$$A = A^{(1)} = L_1^{-1}L_2^{-1}...L_{n-1}^{-1}A^{(n)} = LU$$

where $L = L_1^{-1}L_2^{-1}...L_{n-1}^{-1}$, $U = A^{(n)}$

Moreover:

$$\mathbf{L}_{k}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & m_{k+1k} & 1 & \\ & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ & & m_{nk} & & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ m_{21} & 1 & & \\ m_{31} & m_{32} & 1 & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & m_{n3} & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

L is called the unit lower triangular matrix;

U is the upper triangle matrix.

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(1)} \\ & a_{22}^{(2)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(2)} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & a_{nn}^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}$$

A=LU is the LU factorization of matrix A (Doolittle decomposition)

- Theorem: suppose the sequential principal minors of the matrix A of order n is nonzero, then there exists the unique unit lower triangle matrix L and upper triangle matrix U, thus satisfies A=LU.
- Proof: suppose there are two decomposition

$$A = LU = \overline{L}\overline{U}$$

as
$$\overline{\mathbf{L}}^{-1}\mathbf{L} = \overline{\mathbf{U}}\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \mathbf{E}$$
 thus $\mathbf{L} = \overline{\mathbf{L}}$, $\mathbf{U} = \overline{\mathbf{U}}$.
so $Ax = b \Rightarrow LUx = b$, and set $Ux = y$, thus $\begin{cases} \mathbf{L}y = \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{U}x = \mathbf{y} \end{cases}$

$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ m_{21} & 1 & & & & \\ m_{31} & m_{32} & 1 & & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & & \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & m_{n3} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} & \dots & u_{1n} \\ u_{22} & u_{23} & \dots & u_{2n} \\ u_{33} & \dots & u_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & m_{n3} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
We have:
$$u_{1j} = a_{1j} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots n$$

$$K=1$$

For k=2,3,...,n, calculation U:

If already known the (i-1)-th row of U and (i-1)-th column of L, by the matrix multiplication we have

$$a_{ij} = m_{i1}u_{1j} + m_{i2}u_{2j} + m_{i3}u_{3j} + \dots + m_{in}u_{nj}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} m_{ik}u_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} m_{ik}u_{kj} + u_{ij}, \quad j \ge i$$

where:
$$u_{ij} = a_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} m_{ik} u_{kj}$$
 $j = i, i+1, \dots, n$

Find the element in i-th row of U

For k=2,3,...,n, calculation L:

and:
$$a_{ij} = m_{i1}u_{1j} + m_{i2}u_{2j} + m_{i3}u_{3j} + \dots + m_{in}u_{nj}$$

= $\sum_{k=1}^{j-1} m_{ik}u_{kj} + m_{ij}u_{jj}$, $i = j+1, \dots, n$

if: $u_{ij} \neq 0$,

we have:
$$m_{ij} = \frac{1}{u_{jj}} (a_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} m_{ik} u_{kj})$$
, $i = j+1, \dots, n$

Find the element in i-th column of L

According to:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ m_{21} & 1 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \dots & u_{1n} \\ u_{22} & \dots & u_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_{nn} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

we have:

$$y_1 = b_1$$
 $y_i = b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} m_{ij} y_j$, $i = 2,3,\dots,n$
 $x_n = y_n \div u_{nn}$ $x_i = \frac{1}{u_{ii}} (y_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n u_{ij} x_j), i = n-1,\dots,2,1$

This is the LU factorization for solving equations Ax=b

Example: solve linear equations with LU factorization

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & \frac{5}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & \frac{5}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & & \\ -1 & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad L_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = A^{(2)} = L_2 L_1 A$$

§ 5.2 LU factorization

Example: solve linear equations with LU factorization

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & \frac{5}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{1}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{2}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L = L^{-1}L^{-1}$$

$$A = LU$$

§ 5.2 LU factorization

- The computation cost of LU factorization of linear equations Ax=b is about $O(1/3n^3)$, which is almost equal to the computation cost of Gaussian elimination
- The advantage of LU factorization is that when solving a sequential linear equations $Ax=b_k$, (k=1,2,...,m) with the same coefficient matrix A, it can greatly save the amount of computation.

§ 5.2 supplement (with partial pivot)

Problem:

- $a_{kk}^{(k)} = 0$ or $a_{kk}^{(k)}$ is small enough may appear in Gaussian elimination and LU factorization. In that case, traditional calculation process could not continue to go on otherwise may cause very large rounding error.
- To avoid this, elements with large absolute values can be selected as principal elements by exchanging the order of equations, which leads to the idea of partial pivoting.

§ 5.2 supplement (row pivot)

Example: LU factorization with row pivot

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \widetilde{A}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\widetilde{A}^{(1)} = AP_1$$
 $A^{(1)} = L_1 \widetilde{A}^{(1)}$ $A^{(1)} = L_1 AP_1$

§ 5.2 supplement (row pivot)

Example: LU factorization with row pivot

$$A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \widetilde{A}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & -\frac{1}{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\widetilde{A}^{(2)} = A^{(1)}P_2$$
 $A^{(2)} = L_2\widetilde{A}^{(2)}$ $A^{(2)} = L_2A^{(1)}P_2$

§ 5.2 supplement (row pivot)

Solving
$$Ax=b$$
, $x=?$

- ■1. calculate: $L_{n-1} L_{n-2} L_1 A P_1 ... P_{n-2} P_{n-1} = U$
- ■2. denote: $L=L_1^{-1}L_2^{-1}...L_{n-1}^{-1}$, $P=P_1...P_{n-2}P_{n-1}$
- $\blacksquare 3$. thus: $A = LUP^{-1}$
- ■4. compute : $LUP^{-1}x=b$
- ■5. solve : Ly=b, Uz=y, x=Pz

§ 5.2 supplement (column pivot)

Example: Gaussian elimination/LU factorization with column pivoting

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \widetilde{A}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{25}{6} & \frac{5}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{1}{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\widetilde{A}^{(1)} = P_{1}A \qquad A^{(1)} = L_{1}\widetilde{A}^{(1)} \qquad A^{(1)} = L_{1}P_{1}A$$

§ 5.2 supplement (column pivot)

Example: Gaussian elimination/LU factorization with column pivoting

$$A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{25}{6} & \frac{5}{3} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \widetilde{A}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{25}{6} & \frac{5}{3} \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{25}{6} & \frac{5}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{12}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & 0 & 1 \\ & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad L_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & \frac{6}{25} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\widetilde{A}^{(2)} = P_{2}A^{(1)} \qquad A^{(2)} = L_{2}\widetilde{A}^{(2)} \qquad A^{(2)} = L_{2}P_{2}A^{(1)}$$

§ 5.2 supplement (column pivot)

Solving
$$Ax=b$$
, $x=?$

- ■1. calculate : $L_3P_3L_2P_2L_1P_1A=U$
- ■2. calculate : $L_3P_3L_2P_2L_1P_2P_3*(P_3P_2P_1) = U$
- ■3. denote : $L_3P_3L_2P_2L_1P_2P_3*PA=U$

$$L = P_3 P_2 L_1^{-1} P_2 L_2^{-1} P_3 L_3^{-1}$$

- ■3. thus: PA=LU compute PAx=LUx=Pb
- $\blacksquare 4. \text{ solve}: Ly=Pb, Ux=y$

§ 5.2 supplement (column pivot)

In MATLAB function lu():

$$[L, U, P] = lu(A)$$

Is the column pivot that satisfies: PA = LU

tridiagonal matrix is very important in the interpolation and boundary value problems.

where
$$Ax = b$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & c_1 & & & \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & a_{n-1} & b_{n-1} & c_{n-1} & \\ & & & x_n & \\ & & & & & & x$$

Obviously, A is nonsingular, thus the LU factorization gives:

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & a_{n-1} & b_{n-1} & c_{n-1} \\ & a_n & b_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \textbf{Crout decomposition} \\ & \textbf{bidiagonal matrix} \\ & \textbf{matrix} \\ & & \\ & &$$

So that we have:

$$\begin{cases} \gamma_1 = b_1, & \delta_1 = \frac{c_1}{\gamma_1} \\ \beta_i = a_1, & \gamma_i = b_i - \beta_i \delta_{i-1} \quad (i = 2, 3, \dots, n) \end{cases}$$

$$\delta_i = \frac{c_i}{\gamma_i} \quad (i = 2, 3, \dots, n-1)$$

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow LUx = b \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} Ly = b & \text{Quasi-diagonal} \\ Ux = y & \text{linear equations} \end{cases}$$

Solving Ly=b that we have :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \gamma_1 & & & & \\ \beta_2 & \gamma_2 & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & \beta_{n-1} & \gamma_{n-1} & \\ & & \beta_n & \gamma_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1} \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_1 = \frac{b_1}{\gamma_1}, \quad y_i = \frac{b_i - \beta_i y_{i-1}}{\gamma_i} \quad (i = 2, 3, \dots, n)$$

equivalent to elimination process

Solving Ux=y that we have :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \delta_1 & & & \\ & \mathbf{1} & \delta_2 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \mathbf{1} & \delta_{n-1} \\ & & & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_{n-1} \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_{n-1} \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_n = y_n, x_i = y_i - \delta_i x_{i+1} \quad (i = n-1, \dots, 1)$$

equivalent to back substitution process

Also named Thomas method

■§5.4 Norm and the state of equations

Review:

Full rank of matrix A

rank(A)=n:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

A norm is a function $\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{C}^m \to \mathbb{R}$ that assigns a real-valued length to each vector. In order to conform to a reasonable notion of length, a norm must satisfy the following three conditions. For all vectors x and y and for all scalars $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$,

(1)
$$||x|| \ge 0$$
, and $||x|| = 0$ only if $x = 0$,
(2) $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$,
(3) $||\alpha x|| = |\alpha| ||x||$.

In words, the three conditions means

- (1) positive;
- (2) triangle inequality;
- (3) scaling a vector scales by the same amount

$$||x||_{2} = \sqrt{x_{1}^{2} + \dots + x_{n}^{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_{1}|, \dots, |x_{n}|\} = \max_{1 \le i \le n}\{|x_{i}|\}$$

$$||x||_{1} = |x_{1}| + \dots + |x_{n}| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}|$$

$$||x||_{p} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$1 \le p < \infty$$

Example:

Calculate the 1-norm, 2-norm and max-norm of the vector $x = (1,2,3)^T$

Example:

Calculate the 1-norm, 2-norm and max-norm of the vector $x = (1,2,3)^T$

Solution:
$$||x||_1 = 6$$
, $||x||_{\infty} = 3$, $||x||_2 = \sqrt{14}$.

For the two norms $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\cdot\|'$ in \mathbb{R}^n , if there exist two real number m, M>0 that for any vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies

 $m||x|| \le ||x||' \le M||x||$, thus, the two norms are equivalent.

It is very easy to know that 1-norm, 2-norm and max-norm are equivalent.

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\|_{\infty} &= \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{ \ |x_{i}| \ \} \leq \sqrt{x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + \dots + x_{n}^{2}} = \|x\|_{2} \, o \\ & such \ as \ \|x\|_{\infty} = |x_{j}| = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{ \ |x_{i}| \ \} \\ & thus \ \|x\|_{\infty} = |x_{j}| \geq \sqrt{\frac{x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + \dots + x_{n}^{2}}{n}} = \frac{\|x\|_{2}}{\sqrt{n}} \\ & \Rightarrow \frac{\|x\|_{2}}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \|x\|_{\infty} \leq \|x\|_{2} \\ & 2 - norm \ \text{is equivalent} \ to \ \infty - norm \, . \end{aligned}$$

■ Matrix norm induced by vector norm suppose A is a $m \times n$ matrix, the matrix norm can be defined equivalently in terms of the unit vector under A :

$$||A||_{(m,n)} = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{C}^n \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{||Ax||_{(m)}}{||x||_{(n)}} = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{C}^n \\ ||x||_{(n)} = 1}} ||Ax||_{(m)}.$$

General matrix norm of a n-dimensional matrix A must satisfies the following conditions

- (1) $||A|| \ge 0$, and ||A|| = 0 only if A = 0,
- $(2) ||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||,$
- $(3) ||\alpha A|| = |\alpha| ||A||.$
- (1) positive;
- (2) triangle inequality;
- (3) scaling a vector scales by the same amount

Example:

1-norm of matrix A is equal to the "maximum column sum" of A. write A in terms of its columns

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \end{array} \right],$$

$$||Ax||_1 = \left\| \sum_{j=1}^n x_j a_j \right\|_1 \le \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j| \, ||a_j||_1 \le \max_{1 \le j \le n} ||a_j||_1.$$

choose
$$x_j = e_j$$

$$||A||_1 = \max_j \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}| \right\}$$

Similarly, the ∞-norm of matrix A is equal to the "maximum row sum" of A. write A in terms of its rows

$$||A||_{\infty} = \max_{i} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| \right\}$$

The 2-norm of matrix A is called the spectral norm

$$\left\|A\right\|_{2} = \sqrt{\lambda_{1}}, \lambda_{1} = \max\left\{\lambda\left(A^{H}A\right)\right\}$$

The Hilbert-Schmidt or Frobenius norm, defined by

$$||A||_F = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2\right)^{1/2}.$$

Bounding ||AB|| in an Induced Matrix Norm

The induced matrix norm of a matrix product can also be bounded. Let $\|\cdot\|_{(\ell)}$, $\|\cdot\|_{(m)}$, and $\|\cdot\|_{(n)}$ be norms on \mathbb{C}^l , \mathbb{C}^m , and \mathbb{C}^n , respectively, and let A be an $l \times m$ matrix and B an $m \times n$ matrix. For any $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ we have

$$||ABx||_{(\ell)} \le ||A||_{(\ell,m)} ||Bx||_{(m)} \le ||A||_{(\ell,m)} ||B||_{(m,n)} ||x||_{(n)}.$$

Therefore the induced norm of AB must satisfy

$$||AB||_{(\ell,n)} \le ||A||_{(\ell,m)} ||B||_{(m,n)}. \tag{3.14}$$

Example:

Find the $||A||_1$, $||A||_2$ and $||A||_{\infty}$ norm of the matrix A=(-1,2,1)

Solution:

$$||A||_1 = \max\{|-1|, 2, 1\} = 2$$

 $||A||_{\infty} = |-1| + 2 + 1 = 4$
 $A^T A = AA^T = 6$, thus $||A||_2 = \sqrt{6}$

The spectral radius of the matrix A , defined by $\rho(A) = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |\lambda_i|$ where λ_i (i=1,2,...,n) is the eigenvalue of A

Theorem:

$$\rho(A) \le ||A|| \text{ for any norm of A}$$

$$(||Ax|| = ||\lambda x|| = |\lambda| ||x||), ||Ax|| \le ||A|| \cdot ||x||$$

$$\Rightarrow |\lambda| ||x|| \le ||A|| \cdot ||x|| \Rightarrow |\lambda| \le ||A|| \Rightarrow \rho(A) \le ||A||$$

Condition number: $cond(A) = ||A|| \cdot ||A^{-1}||$

■§5.5 Iterative method

contents

- □ 1. Introduction
- □ 2. Jacobi iteration
- □ 3. Gauss-Seidel iteration
- □ 4. SOR iteration

Solving large sparse linear equations

1. Introduction

Considering the linear equations

$$Ax = b$$

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow x = Bx + g$$
 (B is not unique)

$$x^{(k+1)} = Bx^k + g$$

1. Introduction

Considering the linear equations

$$Ax = b$$

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow x = Bx + g \text{ (B is not unique)}$$

$$(1)\begin{cases} find the initial point x^{0} \\ x^{(k+1)} = Bx^{k} + g, & k = 0,1,... \end{cases}$$

If the sequence converges to x^* , $\lim_{k\to\infty} x^k = x^*$ then we have $x^* = Bx^* + g$

1. Introduction

From the above, we can know that x^* is the solution of Ax = b

when k is large enough that $x^k \approx x^*$

(1) is called the iteration method, and B is the iteration matrix.

Notice: B is not unique that affects the convergence

Convergence

Spectral radius

The spectral radius of the matrix B, defined by

$$\rho(B) = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |\lambda_i|$$
 eigenvalue

Theorem: If the iteration method $x^{(k+1)} = Bx^k + f$ is convergence for any initial vector x^0 when $\rho(B) < 1$.

Notice: $\rho(B) \ge 1$ doesn't means non-convergence for any initial vector x^0

For iteration method
$$x^{(k+1)} = Bx^{(k)} + f$$
 $(k = 0,1,2,\dots),$

if
$$||B||_1 = \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^n |b_{ij}| < 1$$
 or $||B||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^n |b_{ij}| < 1$

converges for any $x^{(0)}$

homework

Prove: for $||B||_{\infty} < 1$, substrate (1) with x = Bx + f then

$$x_i^{(k+1)} - x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n b_{ij} (x_j^{(k)} - x_j)$$

$$|x_i^{(k+1)} - x_i| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n |b_{ij}| \cdot |x_j^{(k)} - x_j| \leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |b_{ij}| \cdot |x_j^{(k)} - x_j|$$

set
$$\delta_{\mathbf{k}} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_j^{(k)} - x_j|$$
, thus

$$|x_i^{(k+1)} - x_i| \le ||B||_{\infty} \cdot \delta_k$$
 $(i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$

$$\delta_{k+1} \leq \|B\|_{\infty} \delta^k \leq \dots \leq \|B\|_{\infty}^{k+1} \delta_0 \to 0 \quad (k \to \infty)$$

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \max_{1 \le i \le n} \left| x_i^{(k+1)} - x_i \right| = 0, x_i^{(k+1)} \text{ converges } x_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$$

contents

- □ 2. Jacobi iteration
- □ 3. Gauss-Seidel iteration
- □ 4. SOR iteration

■ 2. Jacobi iteration

suppose the equations Ax=b, set A=D-L-U

■ 2. Jacobi iteration

suppose the equations Ax=b, set A=D-L-U

$$(D-L-U)x = b,$$

 $Dx = (L+U)x + b,$
 $x = D^{-1}(L+U)x + D^{-1}b,$

set
$$B = D^{-1}(L+U), g = D^{-1}b,$$
Jacobi iteration: $x^{(k+1)} = Bx^{(k)} + g$

■ 2. Jacobi iteration

suppose the equations Ax=b, set A=D-L-U

set
$$B = D^{-1}(L + U), g = D^{-1}b,$$

Jacobi iteration: $x^{(k+1)} = Bx^{(k)} + g$

 $\rho(B) < 1 \Leftrightarrow \text{iteration convergence}$

■ 2. Component form of Jacobi iteration for the equations Ax = b ($a_{ii} \neq 0$), thus

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \dots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n \end{cases}$$

■ 2. Component form of Jacobi iteration making the equivalent change

$$\begin{cases} x_{1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}} [b_{1} - 0x_{1} - a_{12}x_{2} - \dots - a_{1n}x_{n}] \\ x_{2} = \frac{1}{a_{22}} [b_{2} - a_{21}x_{1} - 0x_{2} - \dots - a_{2n}x_{n}] \\ \dots \\ x_{n} = \frac{1}{a_{nn}} [b_{n} - a_{n1}x_{1} - a_{n2}x_{2} - \dots - 0x_{n}] \end{cases}$$

■ 2. Component form of Jacobi iteration

Jacobi iteration:

$$\begin{cases} x_1^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{11}} [b_1 - 0x_1^{(k)} - a_{12}x_2^{(k)} - \dots - a_{1n}x_n^{(k)}] \\ x_2^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{22}} [b_2 - a_{21}x_1^{(k)} - 0x_2^{(k)} - \dots - a_{2n}x_n^{(k)}] \\ \dots \\ x_n^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{nn}} [b_n - a_{n1}x_1^{(k)} - a_{n2}x_2^{(k)} - \dots - 0x_n^{(k)}] \end{cases}$$

$$(k = 0,1,2,\dots)$$

■ 2. Component form of Jacobi iteration Jacobi iteration:

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots,$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

□3. Gauss-Seidel iteration

Component form of Jacobi iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots n,$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Component form of Jacobi iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots n,$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Component form of Gauss-Seidel iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots,$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

■ 3. Gauss-Seidel iteration

for the equations Ax=b, set A=D-L-U

■ 3. Gauss-Seidel iteration

for the equations Ax=b, set A=D-L-U

$$(D-L-U)x = b,$$

 $(D-L)x = Ux + b,$
 $x = (D-L)^{-1}Ux + (D-L)^{-1}b,$

set
$$B = (D - L)^{-1}U$$
, $g = (D - L)^{-1}b$,
Gauss-Seidel iteration: $x^{(k+1)} = Bx^{(k)} + g$

■ 3. Gauss-Seidel iteration

for
$$Ax = b$$
, set $A = D - L - U$,
 $B = (D - L)^{-1}U$, $g = (D - L)^{-1}b$,

Gauss-Seidel iteration:
$$\chi^{(k+1)} = B\chi^{(k)} + g$$

 $\rho(B) < 1 \Leftrightarrow \text{iteration convergence}$

Component form of Gauss-Seidel iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

□ 4. SOR (Successive Over-Relaxation) iteration

Component form of Gauss-Seidel iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

■ Component form of Gauss-Seidel iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} (b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

■ SOR iteration

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = (1-\omega)x_{i}^{(k)} + \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}}(b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_{j}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

- 4. SOR iteration
 - □ Component form

$$x_{i}^{(k+1)} = (1-\omega)x_{i}^{(k)} + \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}}(b_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_{j}^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{j}^{(k)}),$$

 ω : relaxation parameter

 $\omega = 1$: Gauss-Seidel iteration

 $0 < \omega < 1$ under-relaxation

 $1 < \omega < 2$: over-relaxation

■ 4. SOR iteration

for the equations Ax=b, set A=D-L-U

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -a_{21} & 0 \\ -a_{31} & -a_{32} & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ -a_{n1} & -a_{n2} & \cdots & -a_{n\,n-1} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_{12} & -a_{13} & \cdots & -a_{1n} \\ 0 & -a_{23} & \cdots & -a_{2n} \\ 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ -a_{n-1} & -a_{n2} & \cdots & -a_{n\,n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

■ 4. SOR iteration

$$(D-L-U)x = b, Dx = (b+Lx+Ux),$$

$$x = D^{-1}(b+Lx+Ux), \omega x = \omega D^{-1}(b+Lx+Ux),$$

$$x = (1-\omega)x + \omega D^{-1}(b+Lx+Ux),$$

$$Dx = D(1-\omega)x + \omega Lx + \omega Ux + \omega b,$$

$$(D-\omega L)x = ((1-\omega)D + \omega U)x + \omega b,$$

$$x = (D-\omega L)^{-1}((1-\omega)D + \omega U)x + (D-\omega L)^{-1}\omega b,$$

■ 4. SOR iteration

$$x = (D - \omega L)^{-1} ((1 - \omega)D + \omega U)x + (D - \omega L)^{-1} \omega b,$$

set
$$B_{\omega} = (D - \omega L)^{-1} ((1 - \omega)D + \omega U), g_{\omega} = (D - \omega L)^{-1} \omega b$$
,
SOR iteration: $x^{(k+1)} = B_{\omega} x^{(k)} + g_{\omega}$

 $\rho(B) < 1 \Leftrightarrow \text{iteration convergence}$

- □ convergence:
- (1) necessary condition for the convergence of SOR iteration starting from any x^0 is:

$$0 < \omega < 2$$

(2) If the matrix A is symmetric positive definite, then SOR is convergence for any x^0 when $0 < \omega < 2$

(3) If the matrix A is strictly diagonally dominant, then SOR is convergence for any x^0 when $0 < \omega < 1$

■ 5. Example :

☐ 1. solve the linear equation by Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel iteration

$$\begin{cases} 10x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 14 \\ 2x_1 - 10x_2 + 3x_3 = -5 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + 10x_3 = 14 \end{cases}$$

Exact solution $x^* = (1,1,1)^T$

Solution:

using the Jacobi iteration

$$\begin{cases} x_1^{(k+1)} = -\frac{3}{10} x_2^{(k)} - \frac{1}{10} x_3^{(k)} + \frac{7}{5} \\ x_2^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{5} x_1^{(k)} + \frac{3}{10} x_3^{(k)} + \frac{1}{2} \\ x_3^{(k+1)} = -\frac{1}{10} x_1^{(k)} - \frac{3}{10} x_2^{(k)} + \frac{7}{5} \end{cases}$$

start from the initial point $x^0 = (0,0,0)^T$, we have

$$x_1^{(1)} = 1.4, x_2^{(1)} = 0.5, x_3^{(1)} = 1.4$$

 $x_1^{(2)} = 1.11, x_2^{(2)} = 1.2, x_3^{(2)} = 1.11$

Result:

k	$x_1^{(k)}$	x ₂ ^(k)	X ₃ ^(k)	$\left\ \mathbf{X}^{(k)}\mathbf{-X}^*\right\ _{\infty}$
0	0	0	0	1
1	1.4	0.5	1.4	0.5
2	1.11	1.20	1.11	0.2
3	0.929	1.055	0.929	0.071
4	0.9906	0.9645	0.9906	0.0355
5	1.01159	0.9953	1.01159	0.01159
6	1.000251	1.005795	1.000251	0.005795
7	0.9982364	1.0001255	0.9982364	0.0017636

It can be seen that the iterative sequence converges to the solution of the equations.

Gauss-Seidel iteration:

$$\begin{cases} x_1^{(k+1)} = -\frac{3}{10} x_2^{(k)} - \frac{1}{10} x_3^{(k)} + \frac{7}{5} \\ x_2^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{5} x_1^{(k+1)} + \frac{3}{10} x_3^{(k)} + \frac{1}{2} \\ x_3^{(k+1)} = -\frac{1}{10} x_1^{(k+1)} - \frac{3}{10} x_2^{(k+1)} + \frac{7}{5} \end{cases}$$

start from $x^{(0)}=(0,0,0)^T$, and the result:

k	$x_1^{(k)}$	$X_2^{(k)}$	$X_3^{(k)}$	$\left\ \mathbf{X}^{(k)}\text{-}\mathbf{X}^*\right\ _{\infty}$
0	0	0	0	1
1	1.4	0.78	1.026	0.4
2	1.0634	1.02048	0.987516	0.0634
3	0.9951044	0.99527568	1.00190686	0.0048956

It can be seen that the G-S iteration converges faster than Jacobi iteration. (3 times for G-S and 7 times for Jacobi to reach the same precision)

Example 2:

solving the linear equations via SOR iteration

$$\begin{cases} 4x_1 - 2x_2 - 4x_3 = 10 \\ -2x_1 + 17x_2 + 10x_3 = 3 \\ -4x_1 + 10x_2 + 9x_3 = -7 \end{cases}$$

solving the linear equations via SOR iteration

$$\begin{cases} 4x_1 - 2x_2 - 4x_3 = 10 \\ -2x_1 + 17x_2 + 10x_3 = 3 \\ -4x_1 + 10x_2 + 9x_3 = -7 \end{cases}$$

exact solution is $x^*=(2,1,-1)^T$.

solution: SOR iteration

$$\begin{cases} x_1^{(k+1)} = x_1^{(k)} + \frac{\omega}{4} (10 - 4x_1^{(k)} + 2x_2^{(k)} + 4x_3^{(k)}) \\ x_2^{(k+1)} = x_2^{(k)} + \frac{\omega}{17} (3 + 2x_1^{(k+1)} - 17x_2^{(k)} - 10x_3^{(k)}) \\ x_3^{(k+1)} = x_3^{(k)} + \frac{\omega}{9} (-7 + 4x_1^{(k+1)} - 10x_2^{(k+1)} - 9x_3^{(k)}) \end{cases}$$

start from $x^{(0)}=(0,0,0)^T$, $\omega=1.46$, and the result:

k	$\mathbf{x_1}^{(k)}$	$X_2^{(k)}$	$\mathbf{x_3}^{(k)}$
0	0	0	0
1	3.65	0.8845882	-0.2021098
2	2.32166910	0.4230939	-0.22243214
3	2.5661399	0.6948261	-0.4952594
	• • • • •	••••	••••
20	1.9999987	1.0000013	-1.0000034

It can be seen that the SOR method with ω =1.46 iterates 20 times to reach the 5-th order precision. If taking ω =1, it will cause 110 times iteration to reach the same precision.