

# Chapter 8: Numerical Methods for Linear Algebra

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# Numerical Methods for Linear Algebra

- In this chapter we we will discuss numerical techniques broadly aimed at solving the following two problems:
  - Solving a system of linear equations
  - Obtaining the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of matrices. This is also called diagonalization of matrices.
- We will start our discussion by reviewing methods for solving a linear system of equations.

# System of Linear Equations

- Let us consider a system of  $n$  linear equations

$$\begin{aligned}a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\&\vdots \\a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n &= b_n\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

- which can be expressed compactly in the matrix form

$$AX = b,\tag{2}$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}; \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}; \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}\tag{3}$$

- Our aim is to develop numerical methods for solving such equations.

# Gaussian Elimination method

- First we discuss Gaussian elimination method, which is also the method that we humans use to solve simultaneous linear equations
- The approach is based on the concept of successive elimination of variables until the solution is found
- Let us consider the following example to demonstrate this approach

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3x_1 - x_2 + x_3 + 2x_4 & = & 8 \\ 6x_1 - 4x_2 + 3x_3 + 5x_4 & = & 13 \\ 3x_1 - 13x_2 + 9x_3 + 3x_4 & = & -19 \\ -6x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 - 18x_4 & = & -34 \end{array} \quad (4)$$

- Let us first make the coefficient of  $x_1$  1 in the first equation by dividing it by 3, leading to

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - \frac{1}{3}x_2 + \frac{1}{3}x_3 + \frac{2}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{8}{3} \\ 6x_1 - 4x_2 + 3x_3 + 5x_4 & = & 13 \\ 3x_1 - 13x_2 + 9x_3 + 3x_4 & = & -19 \\ -6x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 - 18x_4 & = & -34 \end{array}$$

# Gaussian Elimination Method

- Next we eliminate  $x_1$  from the lower three equations ( $2 \leq j \leq 4$ ) by subtracting  $a_{j1}$ \*first-equation from remaining three, leading to

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - \frac{1}{3}x_2 + \frac{1}{3}x_3 + \frac{2}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{8}{3} \\ -2x_2 + x_3 + x_4 & = & -3 \\ -12x_2 + 8x_3 + x_4 & = & -27 \\ 2x_2 + 3x_3 - 14x_4 & = & -18 \end{array}$$

- Next, we eliminate  $x_2$  from lower two equations by first dividing the second equation by -2, and then by subtracting  $a_{j2}$ \*second-equation ( $j = 3, 4$ ) from the lower two equations leading to

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - \frac{1}{3}x_2 + \frac{1}{3}x_3 + \frac{2}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{8}{3} \\ x_2 - \frac{1}{2}x_3 - \frac{1}{2}x_4 & = & \frac{3}{2} \\ 2x_3 - 5x_4 & = & -9 \\ 4x_3 - 13x_4 & = & -21 \end{array}$$

# Gaussian Elimination Method...

- First we divide Eq. 3 by two and subtract 4\*third-equation from the fourth one to obtain

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - \frac{1}{3}x_2 + \frac{1}{3}x_3 + \frac{2}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{8}{3} \\ x_2 - \frac{1}{2}x_3 - \frac{1}{2}x_4 & = & \frac{3}{2} \\ x_3 - \frac{5}{2}x_4 & = & -\frac{9}{2} \\ -3x_4 & = & -3 \end{array}$$

- Now we divide the last equation by -3 to finally obtain

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - \frac{1}{3}x_2 + \frac{1}{3}x_3 + \frac{2}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{8}{3} \\ x_2 - \frac{1}{2}x_3 - \frac{1}{2}x_4 & = & \frac{3}{2} \\ x_3 - \frac{5}{2}x_4 & = & -\frac{9}{2} \\ x_4 & = & 1 \end{array} \quad (5)$$

- This equations can be expressed as the following matrix equation

$$UX = b' \quad (6)$$

# Gaussian Elimination...

- where  $U$  denotes an “upper triangular” in which only the diagonal and elements above it are non-zero, while those placed lower than the diagonal are zero
- In this case

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{5}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad b' = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{8}{3} \\ \frac{3}{2} \\ -\frac{9}{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

- In other words, by performing a series of elementary row operations, we have managed to reduce the original coefficient matrix  $A$  to an upper-triangular matrix  $U$ , and the constants vector  $b$  to  $b'$ .

# Gaussian elimination...

- The final step in solving the equations, i.e., obtaining the values of  $x_i$ , is back substitution
- In this we start with the lowest equation, i.e., the 4th one in this case, to obtain the value of  $x_4$

$$x_4 = 1$$

- We substitute this in the third equation

$$x_3 - \frac{5}{2} \times 1 = -\frac{9}{2}$$
$$\implies x_3 = -2$$

- Next we substitute the values of  $x_3$  and  $x_4$  in the second equation

$$x_2 - \frac{1}{2} \times (-2) - \frac{1}{2} \times 1 = \frac{3}{2}$$
$$\implies x_2 = 1$$



# Gaussian Elimination Method

- In the final step, we substitute the values of  $x_2$ ,  $x_3$ , and  $x_4$  in the first equation to obtain the value of  $x_1$ , completing the solution

$$x_1 - \frac{1}{3} \times 1 + \frac{1}{3} \times (-2) + \frac{2}{3} \times 1 = \frac{8}{3}$$
$$\implies \boxed{x_1 = 3}$$

- Thus, in the matrix language, the process of Gaussian elimination consists of reduction the coefficient matrix to an upper-triangular form, followed by the process of back substitution

# Gaussian Elimination...

- One can verify that for a general  $n \times n$  coefficient matrix  $A$ , the reduction to  $U$  form is achieved by

$$a_{ij} \leftarrow a_{ij} - \left( \frac{a_{ik}}{a_{kk}} \right) a_{kj}$$
$$b_i \leftarrow b_i - \left( \frac{a_{ik}}{a_{kk}} \right) b_k$$

where  $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ ,  $k+1 \leq i \leq n$ , and  $k+1 \leq j \leq n$

- The back substitution step is implemented as

$$x_i = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left( b_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij} x_j \right) \quad \text{for } i = n, n-1, n-2, \dots, 1$$

# Pseudo-code for Gaussian Elimination Method

```
Real array:  $a(n:n)$ ,  $b(n)$ ,  $x(n)$ 
Integer:  $i$ ,  $j$ ,  $k$ ,  $n$ 
real:  $sum$ ,  $xmult$ 
#Code begins
read  $n$  and allocate arrays  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $x$ 
Initialize/read the values of  $a(i,j)$ 
initialize/read the values of  $b(i)$ 
for  $k=1$  to  $n-1$ 
  for  $i=k+1$  to  $n$ 
     $xmult = a(i,k)/a(k,k)$ 
     $a(i,k) = xmult$ 
    for  $j = k+1$  to  $n$ 
       $a(i,j) = a(i,j) - xmult * a(k,j)$ 
    end for loop of  $j$ 
     $b(i) = b(i) - xmult * b(k)$ 
  end for loop of  $i$ 
end for loop of  $k$ 
```

## Gaussian elimination code....

```
#Gaussian elimination complete, now start back substitution
x(n)=b(n)/a(n,n)
#Now run the for loop in the reverse order
for i=n-1 to 1
  sum=b(i)
  for j=i+1 to n
    sum=sum-a(i,j)*x(j)
  end for loop of j
  x(i)=sum/a(i,i)
end for loop of i
# solution is complete, array x contains those, which one can print
print (x(i),i=1,n)
end program
```

# Instabilities of the Gaussian Elimination Method

- Let us consider the following  $2 \times 2$  system of linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} 0x_1 + x_2 &= 1 \\ x_1 + x_2 &= 2 \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

- If we apply the Gaussian elimination method (GEM) naively to this problem, we will have to divide the first equation by 0, leading to a failure of the procedure in the first step itself
- However, if we flip the equations

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= 2 \\ 0x_1 + x_2 &= 1 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

we immediately obtain the solution because the coefficient matrix is already in the UT form.

# Instabilities of GEM...

- Thus GEM is unstable whenever the coefficients are small, however, the problem in most cases can be solved interchanging equations, which is called pivoting
- For example, in Eq. 8, suppose the coefficient of  $x_1$  in the first equation is a small number  $\varepsilon$  instead of zero

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon x_1 + x_2 &= 1 \\ x_1 + x_2 &= 2\end{aligned}\tag{10}$$

- If we apply GEM to this system, we will obtain

$$\begin{aligned}x_2 &= \frac{2 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}{1 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon}} \\ x_1 &= \frac{1 - x_2}{\varepsilon}\end{aligned}$$

# GEM instabilities...

- In the limit  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , we obtain  $x_2 \approx 1$  and  $x_1 \approx 0$
- The correct solutions are

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{1-\varepsilon} \approx 1$$
$$x_2 = \frac{1-2\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} \approx 1$$

which are quite different from the numerical solutions

- It is easy to verify that, as before, if we swap the two equations, the instability goes away, and we obtain the correct solution by using GEM.
- Let us demonstrate the pivoting approach for a larger set of equations

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 + x_4 & = & -2 \\ 3x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 + 2x_4 & = & 1 \\ x_1 - x_2 - x_3 - x_4 & = & 5 \\ 2x_1 + 0x_2 + 2x_3 + 3x_4 & = & 3 \end{array} \quad (11)$$

## GEM with pivoting...

- First we make an  $n = 4$  dimensional row vector  $S$  consisting of the element of maximum magnitude from each each row

$$S_j = \max\{|a_{ij}|\}, j = 1, \dots, n$$

- With this, we obtain

$$S = (3, 3, 1, 3)$$

- Next, we create a row vector  $r$  obtained by dividing the magnitude of the first element of  $i$ -th row by  $S_i$

$$r_i = \frac{|a_{i1}|}{S_i}$$

- For this case

$$r = \left(\frac{1}{3}, 1, 1, \frac{2}{3}\right)$$



## GEM with pivoting...

- If we define  $r_{max}$  as the maximum element of vector  $r$ , we swap row 1, with the first row corresponding to  $r_{max}$
- In this case, we interchange rows 1 and 2 to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 + 2x_4 &= 1 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 + x_4 &= -2 \\ x_1 - x_2 - x_3 - x_4 &= 5 \\ 2x_1 + 0x_2 + 2x_3 + 3x_4 &= 3 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

- Next, we perform the following row operations

$$\begin{aligned} \text{row}(2) &= \text{row}(2) - \frac{1}{3}\text{row}(1) \\ \text{row}(3) &= \text{row}(3) - \frac{1}{3}\text{row}(1) \\ \text{row}(4) &= \text{row}(4) - \frac{2}{3}\text{row}(1) \end{aligned}$$

- And obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 + 2x_4 &= 1 \\ \frac{5}{3}x_2 + 3x_3 + \frac{1}{3}x_4 &= -\frac{7}{3} \\ -\frac{4}{3}x_2 - x_3 - \frac{5}{3}x_4 &= \frac{14}{3} \\ -\frac{2}{3}x_2 + 2x_3 + \frac{5}{3}x_4 &= \frac{7}{3} \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

- Now, for the lower 3 rows,  $S = (3, 5/3, 2)$ , and  $r = (5/9, 4/5, 1/3)$ , which implies we must interchange rows 2 and 3

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 + 2x_4 &= 1 \\ -\frac{4}{3}x_2 - x_3 - \frac{5}{3}x_4 &= \frac{14}{3} \\ \frac{5}{3}x_2 + 3x_3 + \frac{1}{3}x_4 &= -\frac{7}{3} \\ -\frac{2}{3}x_2 + 2x_3 + \frac{5}{3}x_4 &= \frac{7}{3} \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

- Now we need to perform the row operations  
 $row(3) = row(3) + \frac{5}{4}row(2)$ , and  $row(4) = row(4) - \frac{1}{2}row(2)$

- With this we have

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 + 2x_4 & = & 1 \\ -\frac{4}{3}x_2 - x_3 - \frac{5}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{14}{3} \\ \frac{7}{4}x_3 - \frac{7}{4}x_4 & = & \frac{7}{2} \\ \frac{5}{2}x_3 + \frac{5}{2}x_4 & = & 0 \end{array} \quad (15)$$

- For the last two rows we have  $S = (\frac{7}{4}, \frac{5}{2})$  and  $r = (1, 1)$  which means that no swapping is necessary
- Now only one row operation is needed on row 4,  $row(4) = row(4) - \frac{10}{7}row(3)$ , leading to

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 + 2x_4 & = & 1 \\ -\frac{4}{3}x_2 - x_3 - \frac{5}{3}x_4 & = & \frac{14}{3} \\ \frac{7}{4}x_3 - \frac{7}{4}x_4 & = & \frac{7}{2} \\ 5x_4 & = & -5 \end{array} \quad (16)$$

- Now that the coefficient matrix is in the UT form, the back substitution begins leading to the final solution

$$x_4 = -1$$

$$x_3 = \frac{4}{7} \left( \frac{7}{2} - \frac{7}{4} \right) = 1 \implies x_3 = 1$$

$$-\frac{4}{3}x_2 - 1 + \frac{5}{3} = \frac{14}{3} \implies x_2 = -3$$

$$3x_1 - 3 - 2 = 1 \implies x_1 = 2$$

# Iterative Methods for Solving a System of Linear Equation

- So far we have discussed direct methods of solving a system of linear equations

$$AX = b,$$

where  $A$  an  $n \times n$  matrix, as discussed earlier

- These methods are based on successive elimination of variables
- GEM approach belongs to this class of methods
- Other methods that belong to this class are GEM with pivoting and Gauss-Jordan elimination method
- These methods are quite efficient when  $n$  is not too large
- The computational time involved in these methods scales typically as  $n^3$
- Therefore, when  $n$  is very large say  $n \sim 10^5 - 10^9$ , these methods will be come intractable

# Iterative methods...

- There is a class of methods called iterative methods which don't have this problem
- In these methods, the main mathematical operation is the multiplication of an  $n$ -dimensional vector by an  $n \times n$  matrix
- This operation scales as  $n^2$ , which reduces the computational effort by an order of magnitude as compared to the elimination methods.
- Furthermore, their computer implementation is also quite easy and straightforward
- We will discuss two methods in this class, namely Point-Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel methods
- Next, we briefly discuss the iterative methods, in general, followed by a discussion of the two above-mentioned methods

# Iterative Methods: General Discussion

- Let us split the  $n \times n$  coefficient matrix  $A$  as

$$A = I - B, \quad (17)$$

where  $I$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix, and  $B = I - A$  is also an  $n \times n$  matrix

- If we substitute Eq. 17 in our linear equations  $AX = b$ , we obtain

$$X = BX + b \quad (18)$$

- But, this equation cannot be treated as the solution, because the solution  $X$  appears on both sides of the equation
- However, it can be used in iterative schemes for obtaining  $X$  as follows

$$X_{i+1} = BX_i + b, \quad (19)$$

where  $X_i$  and  $X_{i+1}$  are the solution vectors obtained after  $i$ -th and  $i+1$ -th iterations

# Iterative Methods...

- Therefore, one can start with a guess solution (trial vector) for  $i = 0$ ,  $X_0$ , and then continue with the iterative scheme of Eq. 19
- But, what is the guarantee that the iterative scheme will converge to the true solution in a reasonably small number of iterations?
- Actually, there is a theorem which states that the iterative scheme of Eq. 19 will converge to the true solution  $X$ , if and only if, the spectral radius of matrix  $B$ ,  $\rho(B) < 1$
- Spectral radius  $\rho(B)$  of a matrix  $B$  is nothing but the maximum magnitude of its eigenvalues
- If the eigenvalues of  $B$  are  $\{b_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ ,  
 $\rho(B) = \max\{|b_i|, i = 1, \dots, n\}$
- Therefore, the success of the iterative approaches depends on finding a suitable matrix  $B$  which satisfies the condition  $\rho(B) < 1$
- Next, we discuss two methods that are based on this



# Point-Jacobi Approach

- In this approach we partition the coefficient matrix  $A$  is

$$A = D + LU, \quad (20)$$

where  $D$  is the diagonal matrix consisting of the diagonal elements of  $A$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 \cdots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad (21)$$

and  $LU$  contains the off-diagonal elements of  $A$

$$LU = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & 0 & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} \cdots & a_{nn-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (22)$$

# Point-Jacobi Method...

- Substituting Eq. 20 in our linear equation  $AX = b$ , and rearranging

$$\begin{aligned}DX &= b - LUX \\ \implies X &= D^{-1}b - D^{-1}LUX\end{aligned}\tag{23}$$

- Using Eq. 23, we set up the iteration scheme

$$X_{i+1} = JX_i + D^{-1}b,\tag{24}$$

where  $J = -D^{-1}LU$ , is called the Jacobi matrix

- And the iterative scheme defined by Eq. 24 is called the Point-Jacobi method.
- Note that this method involves the inverse of a diagonal matrix which can be trivially computed

# Point-Jacobi Method...

- $D^{-1}$  is also a diagonal matrix with non-zero elements  $a_{ii}^{-1}$

$$D^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{-1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22}^{-1} & 0 \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 \cdots & 0 & a_{nn}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (25)$$

- As a result

$$D^{-1}b = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{-1}b_1 \\ a_{22}^{-1}b_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn}^{-1}b_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (26)$$

and

$$J = -D^{-1}LU = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -a_{11}^{-1}a_{12} & \cdots & -a_{11}^{-1}a_{1n} \\ -a_{22}^{-1}a_{21} & 0 & \cdots & -a_{22}^{-1}a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -a_{nn}^{-1}a_{n1} & -a_{nn}^{-1}a_{n2} & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (27)$$

# Point-Jacobi Method: An Example

- I wrote a Fortran 90 code implementing the Point-Jacobi method, and tried it on a linear system taken from the Wikipedia

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 11 & -1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 10 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 & 8 \end{pmatrix}, b = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 25 \\ -11 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix}$$

with the solution

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Point-Jacobi Method; example...

- I took the starting vector to be the null vector in all the trials

$$X_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The convergence was assumed when the magnitude of the difference vector *eps* was less than a user specified tolerance *tol*

$$eps = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_{i+1}(j) - X_i(j))^2}$$

$$eps < tol$$

- If  $itr$  is the total number of iterations needed to achieve convergence, for the given problem, the convergence was as follows

$$tol = 1.0 \times 10^{-4}, itr = 13, X = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9999897 \\ 2.0000158 \\ -1.0000125 \\ 1.0000192 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$tol = 1.0 \times 10^{-5}, itr = 16, X = \begin{pmatrix} 1.0000008 \\ 1.9999987 \\ -0.9999990 \\ 0.9999986 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Gauss-Seidel Method

- In Gauss-Seidel approach, the partitioning of the coefficient matrix  $A$  is done slightly differently

$$\begin{aligned}AX &= b \\ \implies (DL + U)X &= b \\ \implies X &= -DL^{-1}UX + DL^{-1}b\end{aligned}$$

- The last equation above can be converted into a formal iteration scheme

$$X_{i+1} = -DL^{-1}UX_i + DL^{-1}b, \quad (28)$$

which is called the Gauss-Seidel iterative method.

- Above  $DL$  is the matrix containing the elements of the diagonal and lower triangle

$$DL = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} \cdots & a_{nn-1} & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad (29)$$

# Gauss-Seidel Method...

- while  $U$  contains the elements of the upper triangle of  $A$ , while rest of its elements are zeros.

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (30)$$

- Eq. 28 involves calculation of the inverse of a non-diagonal matrix, which will be time consuming for large  $n$
- Therefore, the iterative scheme is reformulated as

$$DLX_{i+1} = -UX_i + b \quad (31)$$

- Equation above can be treated like a linear equation in the unknown  $X_{i+1}$ , whose value can be quickly obtained by the forward substitution because the  $DL$  matrix is a lower-triangular one
- Also note that everything on the RHS of this equation is known and easy to compute
- Thus we can completely avoid the calculation of the inverse



# Convergence of Point-Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel Approaches

- As discussed earlier, these approaches will converge provided the matrix involved,  $B$ , in the iterative process has the spectral radius  $\rho(B) < 1$
- One can show that it will always be the case provided the coefficient matrix  $A$  is diagonally dominant
- A matrix is said to be diagonally dominant provided the magnitude of the diagonal element of each row is larger than the sum of the magnitudes of the off-diagonal elements of that row

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n |a_{ij}| \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (32)$$

- Therefore, before using iterative methods to solve a linear system, one should check whether or not it is diagonally dominant using Eq. 32