

Lecture 10-11: Iterative methods for Elliptic problems

Last lecture we reduced the Poisson equation in the unit square

$$\nabla^2 u \equiv u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f \quad \text{in } 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1, \quad (10.1)$$

with Dirichlet conditions $u = 0$ on the 4 sides of the square to the set of $M \equiv (N-1)(N-1)$ simultaneous algebraic equations

$$A\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{b}, \quad \text{where } A \text{ is an } M \times M \text{ sparse matrix,} \quad (10.2)$$

and \mathbf{U} was an M -vector of the unknowns,

$$\mathbf{U} = (U_{11}, U_{12} \dots U_{1N-1}, U_{21} \dots U_{N-2,N-1}, U_{N-1,1} \dots U_{N-1,N-1}). \quad (10.3)$$

For this problem, on a square grid A can be written in block form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} T & | & I & \vdots & O & | & O \\ - - - & + & - - - & + & - - - & + & - - - \\ I & | & T & \vdots & \ddots & | & O \\ \dots\dots & + & \dots\dots & + & \dots\dots & + & \dots\dots \\ O & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & | & I \\ - - - & + & - - - & + & - - - & + & - - - \\ O & | & O & \vdots & I & | & T \end{pmatrix} \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (10.4)$$

If you ever wish to construct such a block matrix in Matlab, the *kron* function is useful. Usually, however, we will not wish to deal with the matrices directly. The critical point is that the matrix A is **sparse** – almost all its entries are zero. Yet because of its pentadiagonal structure, its inverse is full. This renders direct solution methods unattractive, requiring large amounts of storage and CPU. In contrast, iterative methods require very little storage or time *per iteration*. What we have to ascertain, is whether they converge, and how quickly. If we need too many iterations, there may be no gain over Gaussian elimination (or LU decomposition) requiring $O(M^3) = O(N-1)^6$ operations.

An iterative scheme essentially splits the matrix A into two components, $A = B + C$, where B is chosen to be easy to invert. It then solves

$$B\mathbf{U}^{j+1} = \mathbf{b} - C\mathbf{U}^j \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{U}^{j+1} = B^{-1}\mathbf{b} - (B^{-1}C)\mathbf{U}^j. \quad (10.5)$$

If we introduce the error vector $\mathbf{Z}^j = \mathbf{U}^j - \mathbf{U}$, where \mathbf{U} is the exact solution to (10.2) then

$$\mathbf{Z}^{j+1} = (B^{-1}C)\mathbf{Z}^j. \quad (10.6)$$

In this form it is clear that fastest convergence occurs for small spectral radius $\rho(B^{-1}C)$.

The simplest iterative scheme essentially takes $B = D$, where D is a diagonal part of A and C has zeros on its diagonal. We then defined the iterative **Jacobi** scheme

$$\mathbf{U}^{j+1} = D^{-1}(\mathbf{b} - C\mathbf{U}^j) \quad \text{or} \quad U_{mn}^{j+1} = \frac{1}{4} \left[U_{mn+1}^j + U_{mn-1}^j + U_{m+1n}^j + U_{m-1n}^j - h^2 f_{mn} \right]. \quad (10.7)$$

This calculates all the new iterations at level $j + 1$ before updating U . We also considered the **Gauss-Seidel** scheme, which uses the new calculated values as soon as they become available. Assuming m and n are scanned in an increasing direction, this scheme can be written as

$$U_{mn}^{j+1} = \frac{1}{4} \left[U_{mn+1}^j + U_{mn-1}^{j+1} + U_{m+1n}^j + U_{m-1n}^{j+1} - h^2 f_{mn} \right]. \quad (10.8)$$

This essentially involves back-substitution of the calculated values. In terms of the matrix, $B = D + L$ where L is the lower triangular part of A . The spectral radii of the Jacobi & Gauss-Seidel matrices can be found. In fact, for large $M \equiv (N - 1)^2$ it can be shown that

$$\rho_J = \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{N} \right) \simeq 1 - \frac{\pi^2}{2N^2}, \quad \rho_G = \rho_J^2 \simeq 1 - \frac{\pi^2}{N^2}. \quad (10.9)$$

This agrees with the factor of 4 error reduction we found using the human computer last time. We can therefore estimate how many iterations are needed to obtain p figures of accuracy. For the error to be reduced by a factor of 10^p . If $\rho^\alpha = 10^{-p}$ then

$$\alpha = \frac{p \log 10}{-\log \rho} \simeq 0.467pN^2 \quad \text{or} \quad 0.233pN^2$$

for Jacobi or Gauss-Seidel. This is disappointingly large for large N , but faster than direct methods. Can we do better somehow?

We may represent the scheme in terms of the **residual** vector $\mathbf{r}^j = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{U}^j$, which is the amount by which the j^{th} estimate fails to satisfy the equation. We then have that

$$\mathbf{U}^{j+1} = \mathbf{U}^j + B^{-1}\mathbf{r}^j \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{r}^{j+1} = C B^{-1}\mathbf{r}^j.$$

If we assume that we are altering the estimate in a good direction, we might try to take larger steps, and choose a parameter $\omega > 1$ and define the **overrelaxation** scheme

$$\mathbf{U}^{j+1} = \mathbf{U}^j + \omega B^{-1}\mathbf{r}^j. \quad (10.10)$$

In terms of the code we modify (10.7) to read

$$U_{mn}^{j+1} = (1 - \omega)U_{mn}^j + \frac{\omega}{4} \left[U_{mn+1}^j + U_{mn-1}^{j+1} + U_{m+1n}^j + U_{m-1n}^{j+1} - h^2 f_{mn} \right]. \quad (10.11)$$

We can then investigate which values of ω give best behaviour. This is a very powerful idea in general. Even if we start with an unstable scheme, it may become stable by choosing a small value of ω . For a stable scheme, choosing $\omega > 1$ probably will speed up the convergence.

In general the optimum ω varies with N . But the optimal ω brings a very marked improvement to $\rho \simeq 1 - 2\pi/N$ and $\alpha \simeq 0.37pN$. The **Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR)** method (10.11) requires $O(N)$ iterations not $O(N^2)$. But can we do better still?

Let's investigate all this on a computer.