

We need to find a matrix  $B$   
rather than  $A$ :

$$A(x_{k+1} - x_k) = G - Ax_k$$



$$B(x_{k+1} - x_k) = G - Ax_k$$

so that we will have convergence,

$$\|x_{k+1} - x_k\| \rightarrow 0$$

and which is simpler to invert.

Then, we have

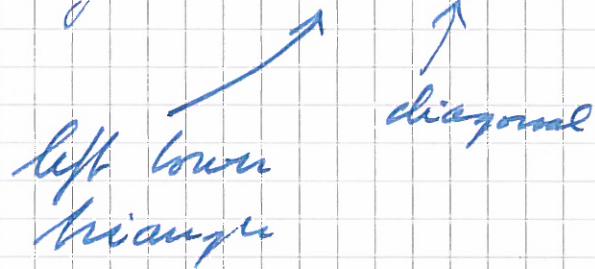
$$x_{k+1} = B^{-1}G + B^{-1}(B-A)x_k$$

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Convergence is secured if  
 all eigenvalues of  $B^{-1}(B-A)$   
lie within the unit circle.

How to choose B?

$$\text{Splitting } A = L + D + R$$



Jacobi iteration

Set  $B = D$ .

$$x_{k+1} = D^{-1}G + D^{-1}(D-A)x_k$$

$$J = \overbrace{D^{-1}(D-A)}^{\text{"Jacobi" matrix.}}$$

## Convergence

Largest eigenvalue in  $J$ :  $\lambda_j$ .

$$x_{k+1} = D^{-1}G + \lambda_j x_k = c + \lambda_j x_k$$

$$x_{k+1} = c + \lambda_j (c + \lambda_j x_{k-1})$$

$$= c + \lambda_j c + \lambda_j^2 c + \dots + \lambda_j^k c$$

$$= \frac{1 - \lambda_j^k}{1 - \lambda_j} c$$

Convergence rate:

$$\boxed{\lambda_j = \frac{\|x_{k+1} - x_k\|}{\|x_k - x\|}}$$

Solution.

$$\|x_{k+1} - x_k\| = |\lambda_j^k| \|c\|$$

$$\|x_k - x\| = \left| \frac{1 - \lambda_j^k - 1}{1 - \lambda_j} \right| \|c\| = \left| \frac{\lambda_j^k}{1 - \lambda_j} \right| \|c\|$$

Hence,

$$\boxed{\lambda_j = |1 - \lambda_j|}$$

Convergence of Jacobi method is usually low since

$$|\lambda_j| \approx 1.$$

### Gauss-Seidel relaxation

$$(D+L)(x_{k+1} - x_k) = b - Ax_k$$

↑

$$A = L + D + R$$

$$\underbrace{(D+L)}_{\sim} x_{k+1} = G - Rx_k$$

Invert  $D+L$  through forwards substitution.

Gauss-Seidel convergence

rate:

$$\rho_{GS} = \frac{\|x_{k+1} - x_k\|}{\|x_k - x\|} = |1 - \lambda_j^2|$$

$\nearrow$

This means that  
 the convergence rate  
 is significantly  
 better than that  
 of the Jacobi method,  
 $\rho_j = |1 - \lambda_j|$ .

### SOR - Successive Overrelaxation.

This is an efficient  
 algorithm that should  
 be considered.

The idea is to place the new  $x_{k+1}$  somewhere between  $x_k$  and  $x_{k+1}^{GS}$  - the result of a Gauss-Seidel relaxation step.

$$x_{k+1} = \omega x_{k+1}^{GS} + (1-\omega)x_k$$

relaxation parameter.

Convergence when  $0 < \omega < 2$ .

$$(D+L) x_{k+1}^{GS} = G - R x_k$$



$$x_{k+1} = \omega x_{k+1}^{GS} + (1-\omega)x_k$$



$$(D+L) x_{k+1} = \omega G - (R - (1-\omega)A) x_k$$

Iteration matrix

$$S = -(D+L)^{-1}(R - (1-\omega)A)$$

Optimal value for  $\omega$ :

$$\omega = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \lambda_j^2}}$$

This value leads to a convergence

rate

$$\lambda_s = |1 - \lambda_j|$$

where

$$\lambda_s = \left( \frac{\lambda_j}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \lambda_j^2}} \right)^2$$

Concrete example:

$$\lambda_j = 0.5$$

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Ohm law:

$$i_{12} = \frac{1}{R_{12}} (V_2 - V_1)$$

$$i_{23} = \frac{1}{R_{23}} (V_3 - V_2)$$

$$i_{34} = \frac{1}{R_{34}} (V_4 - V_3)$$

$$i_{45} = \frac{1}{R_{45}} (V_5 - V_4)$$

Kirchhoff law:

$$i_{12} = i_{23}$$

$$i_{23} = i_{34}$$

$$i_{34} = i_{45}$$

Combining:

$$R_{23} (V_2 - V_1) = R_{12} (V_3 - V_2)$$

$$R_{34} (V_3 - V_2) = R_{23} (V_4 - V_3)$$

$$R_{45} (V_4 - V_3) = R_{34} (V_5 - V_4)$$

In the following, we will assume that  $A$  is always positive definite.

(One can do without this assumption, but this renders the algorithm more complex - we have to "square"  $A$ .)

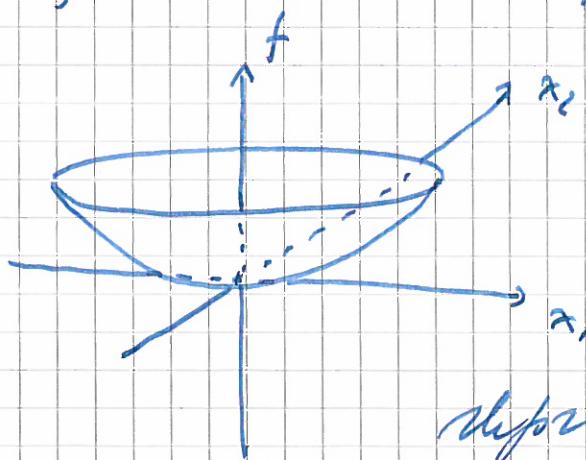
$$Ax = b \Rightarrow$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x - b^T x$$

a function of  $x$ .

A positive definite  $\Rightarrow$

$f(x)$  has the shape



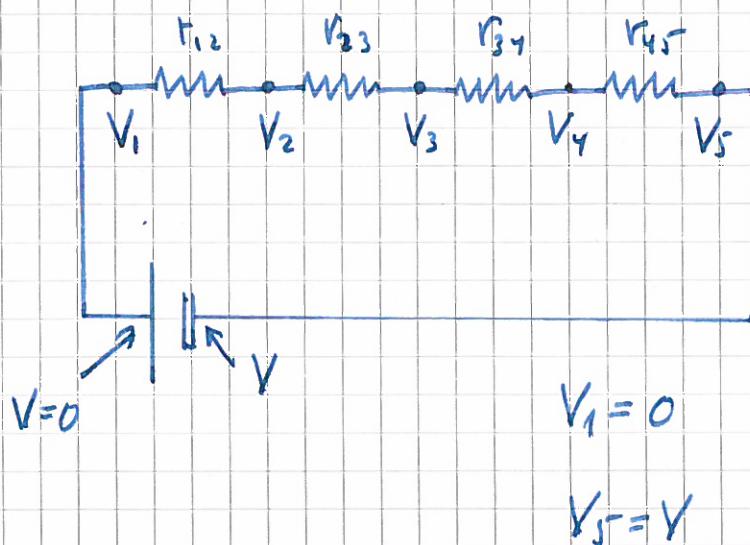
deformed cup.

$\lambda_0 = 0.5$	$\lambda_1 = 0.5$
$\lambda_{9s} = 0.25$	$\lambda_{6s} = 0.75$
$\lambda_s = 0.02$	$\lambda_s = 0.93$

Different philosophy:

Stepest descent method.

Example of 4 resistors in series:



Collecting terms:

$$(R_{12} + R_{23})V_2 - R_{12}V_3 = R_{23}V_1 = 0$$

$$-R_{34}V_2 + (R_{23} + R_{34})V_3 - R_{23}V_4 = 0$$

$$-R_{45}V_3 + (R_{34} + R_{45})V_4 = R_{34}V_5 = R_{34}V$$

In matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} (R_{12} + R_{23}) & -R_{12} & 0 \\ -R_{34} & (R_{23} + R_{34}) & -R_{23} \\ 0 & -R_{45} & (R_{34} + R_{45}) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ V_3 \\ V_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ R_{34}V \end{pmatrix}$$

This is matrix A.

It is not symmetric, but  
it is positive definite.



All eigenvalues are positive.

For our electrical example from  
page 48:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(\vec{V}) = \frac{1}{2} & [ (R_{12} + R_{23}) V_2^2 - (R_{11} + R_{34}) V_2 V_3 \\
 & + (R_{23} + R_{34}) V_3^2 - (R_{23} + R_{45}) V_3 V_4 \\
 & + (R_{34} + R_{45}) V_4^2 ] - R_{34} V_3 V_4.
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\nabla f(x) = Ax - b = 0$



When  $x$  is the solution to the equation  $Ax = 0$ .

Hence, finding the minimum of  $f$  is equivalent to solving  $Ax = 0$ .

$$Ax = 0 \quad (\Leftrightarrow)$$

$$\boxed{\{x' \mid \min_{x'} f(x')\}}$$

## Banachy steepest descent method.

- \* Choose an initial  $x_0$ .
- \* move in the direction of  $-\nabla f(x_0)$
- \* Stop at  $\min_x f(x)$  along this direction  
 $\Rightarrow x_1.$
- \* Repeat.

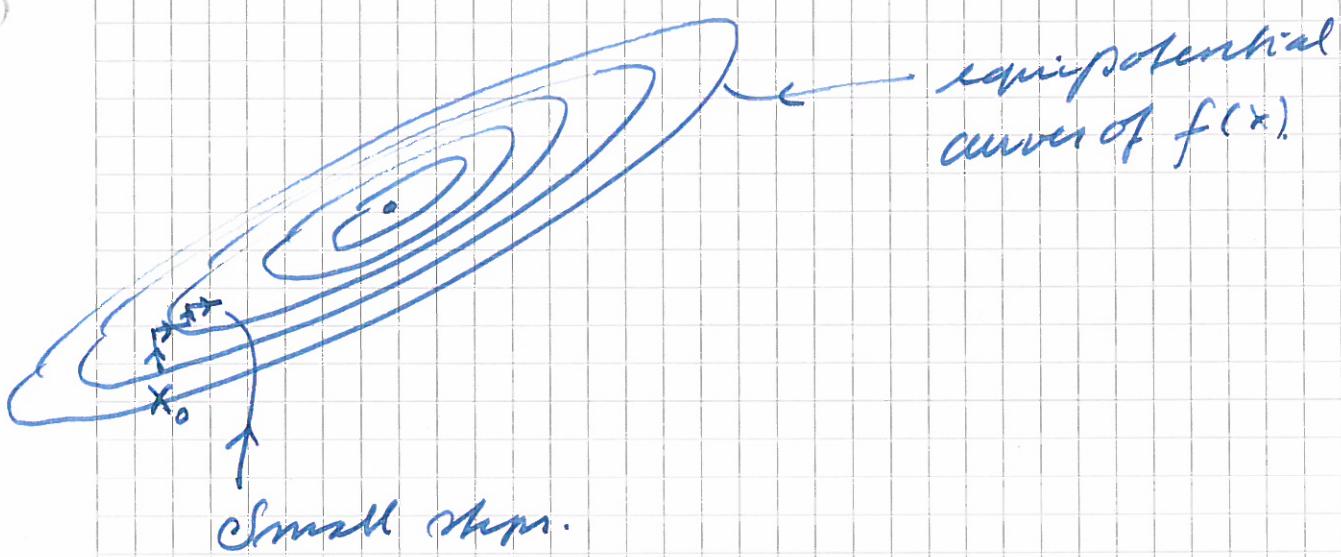
find  $\frac{d}{dt} \{ f(x_0 + t \nabla f(x_0)) \} = 0$

There is a problem:

Changes of direction  
 Are all orthogonal  
 To each other.

- otherwise,  $x_i = x_{i-1} + \lambda \nabla f(x_{i-1})$   
 would not be a minimum in  
 the gradient direction.

Result: Small zig-zag steps.



$A, b$  contains  $N(N+1)$  parameters:

Number of minimizations  $\sim N^2$

Whereas dimensionality of  
 $x$ -space is  $N$ .