

Linear Systems – Part 2

Intensive Computation

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Methods for solving linear equations

- **Direct methods**: find the ***exact*** solution in a finite number of steps
- **Iterative methods**: produce a sequence of approximate solutions hopefully converging to the exact solution

Cholesky Factorization Method

Cholesky factorization Method for solving $Ax = b$

- A **direct** method
- The idea is:
 - every **positive definite matrix** A can be factored as $A=LL^T$

A **complex matrix** A is called **positive definite** if $\Re[x^* Ax] > 0$ for all nonzero complex vectors $x \in \mathbb{C}$, where x^* denotes the conjugate transpose

If A is a **real matrix** then A is **positive definite** if $x^T Ax > 0$ where denotes x^T the transpose

Cholesky Factorization Method

Cholesky factorization Method for solving $Ax = b$

- A **direct** method
- The idea is:
 - every **positive definite matrix** A can be factored as $A=LL^T$
 - where **L is lower triangular** with **positive diagonal elements**
 - L is called the Cholesky factor of A
 - L can be interpreted as 'square root' of a positive definite matrix
- The method:
 - Provides an exact result (**ignoring roundoff**)
 - Is *computationally expensive*

Cholesky Factorization Method

We partition matrix A as LL^T as follows

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & A_{12}^T \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & L_{21}^T \\ 0 & L_{22}^T \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} l_{11}^2 & l_{11}L_{21}^T \\ l_{11}L_{21} & L_{21}L_{21}^T + L_{22}L_{22}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky Factorization Method

We have the following steps:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & A_{12}^T \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & L_{21}^T \\ 0 & L_{22}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Step 1** - Determine l_{11} and L_{21}

$$l_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}}$$

$$L_{21} = \frac{1}{l_{11}} A_{21}$$

- **Step 2** - Compute L_{22} from

$$A_{22} - L_{21}L_{21}^T = L_{22}L_{22}^T$$

- This is a Cholesky factorization of order $n-1$

Cholesky Factorization Method

Proof that the algorithm works for positive definite A of order n

- if A is positive definite then $a_{11} > 0$
- if A is positive definite then

$$A_{22} - L_{21}L_{21}^T = A_{22} - \frac{1}{l_{11}} A_{21}A_{21}^T$$

is positive definite

- Hence we can apply again the factorization on the

Cholesky Factorization Method

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 & -5 \\ 15 & 18 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{32} & l_{31} \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky Factorization Method

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 & -5 \\ 15 & 18 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{32} & l_{31} \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

First column of L $l_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}} = 5$ $L_{21} = \frac{1}{l_{11}} A_{21}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 & -5 \\ 15 & 18 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & l_{22} & 0 \\ -1 & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky Factorization Method

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 & -5 \\ 15 & 18 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{32} & l_{31} \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Second column of L – Apply the same procedure to

$$A_{22} - L_{21}L_{21}^T \\ (= L_{22}L_{22}^T)$$

$$A_{22} - L_{21}L_{21}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 0 \\ 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$l_{22} = \sqrt{a_{22}} = 3$$

$$L_{32} = \frac{1}{l_{22}} A_{32} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 \\ 3 & 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 1 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky Factorization Method

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 & -5 \\ 15 & 18 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{32} & l_{31} \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Third column of L $l_{33}^2 = 10 - 1$ $l_{33} = 3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 & -5 \\ 15 & 18 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky Factorization Method

Solve $Ax = b$ *A positive definite of order n*

Step 1 $A = LL^T \rightarrow LL^T$ factorization

Step 2 $Ly = b \rightarrow$ Solve by forward substitution

Step 3 $L^T x = y \rightarrow$ Solve by backward substitution

LL^T decomposition – Algorithm cost

We have:

- Multiplication and division operations for the factorization: $O(n^3)$
- Multiplication and division operations for solving the triangular systems: $O(n^2)$
- Addition and subtraction operations: $O(n^3)$
- *Anyway usually we consider the number of floating point operations $FLOPs$*

Inverse of a positive definite matrix

Suppose A is positive definite with Cholesky factorization LL^T

- L is invertible (its diagonal elements are nonzero)

- $X = L^{-T}L^{-1}$ is a **right inverse** of A :

$$AX = LL^T L^{-T} L^{-1} = LL^{-1} = I$$

- $X = L^{-T}L^{-1}$ is a **left inverse** of A :

$$XA = L^{-T} L^{-1} LL^T = L^{-T} L^T = I$$

- hence **A is invertible with inverse:**

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

Cholesky for sparse matrices

- If A is very sparse, then L is often (but not always) sparse
- If L is sparse, the **cost of the factorization is less than $(1/3)n^3$**
- Exact cost depends on:
 - n
 - *#nonzero* elements
 - sparsity pattern
- Very large sets of equations ($n \sim 10^6$) are solved by exploiting sparsity

Cholesky for sparse matrices

- Consider a *sparse systems*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a^T \\ a & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$

- Factorization

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a^T \\ a & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ a & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a^T \\ 0 & L_{22}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky for sparse matrices

- Fill-in effect

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\
 * & * & & & & & & \\
 * & & * & & & & & \\
 * & & & * & & & & \\
 * & & & & * & & & \\
 * & & & & & * & & \\
 * & & & & & & * & \\
 * & & & & & & & *
 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix}
 * & & & & & & & \\
 * & * & & & & & & \\
 * & * & * & & & & & \\
 * & * & * & * & & & & \\
 * & * & * & * & * & & & \\
 * & * & * & * & * & * & & \\
 * & * & * & * & * & * & * & \\
 * & * & * & * & * & * & * & *
 \end{bmatrix}
 \times
 \begin{bmatrix}
 * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\
 & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\
 & & * & * & * & * & * & * \\
 & & & * & * & * & * & * \\
 & & & & * & * & * & * \\
 & & & & & * & * & * \\
 & & & & & & * & * \\
 & & & & & & & *
 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Factorization can produce a 100% fill-in

Cholesky for sparse matrices

- We can **reorder the equations** of the systems

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a^T \\ a & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ c \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} I & a \\ a^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

- Factorization

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & a \\ a^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ a^T & \sqrt{1 - a^T a} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & a \\ 0 & \sqrt{1 - a^T a} \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky for sparse matrices

- We can reorder the equation of the systems

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a^T \\ a & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ c \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} I & a \\ a^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} * & & & & & & & * \\ & * & & & & & & * \\ & & * & & & & & * \\ & & & * & & & & * \\ & & & & * & & & * \\ & & & & & * & & * \\ & & & & & & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} * & & & & & & & * \\ & * & & & & & & * \\ & & * & & & & & * \\ & & & * & & & & * \\ & & & & * & & & * \\ & & & & & * & & * \\ & & & & & & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} * & & & & & & & * \\ & * & & & & & & * \\ & & * & & & & & * \\ & & & * & & & & * \\ & & & & * & & & * \\ & & & & & * & & * \\ & & & & & & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

- Factorization with zero fill-in

Permutation matrices

Permutation matrix - identity matrix with rows reordered

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector Ax is a permutation of x

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A^T x$ is the inverse permutation applied to x

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A^T A = A A^T = I$ then **A is invertible and $A^{-1} = A^T$**

Permutation matrices

Solving $Ax=b$ when A is a permutation matrix

The solution of $Ax=b$ is vector $x=A^Tb$

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.5 \\ -3.2 \\ 8.0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3.5 \\ -3.2 \\ 8.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8.0 \\ 3.5 \\ -3.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solution is $x=[8.0, 3.5, -3.2]^T$

Sparse Cholesky factorization

- If A is sparse and positive definite, it is usually factored as

$$A = PLL^T P^T$$

- where P is a permutation matrix and L is lower triangular with positive diagonal elements
- *Interpretation*: we permute the rows and columns of A and factor

$$P^T A P = L L^T$$

- Note that:
 - choice of P greatly affects the sparsity L
 - many heuristic methods exist for selecting good permutation matrices P

Solving sparse positive definite eqs

- If A is sparse and positive definite, we solve $Ax = b$ via factorization

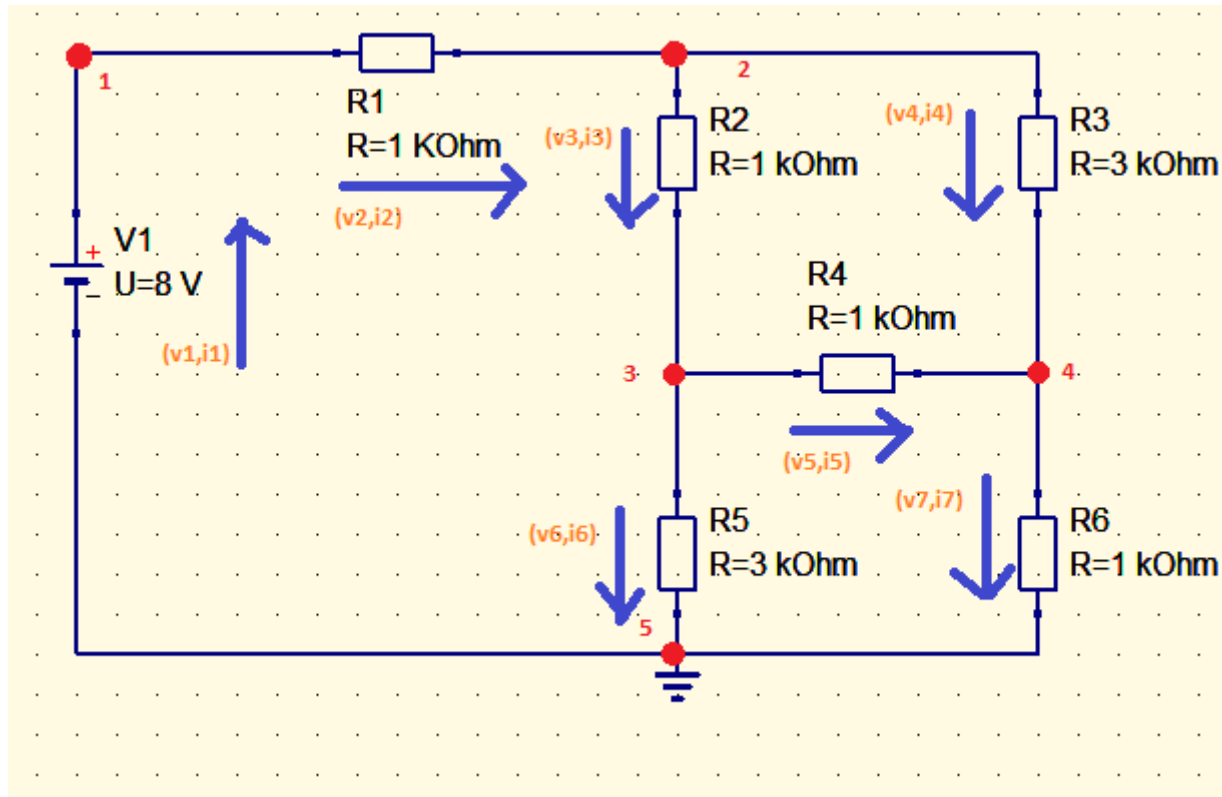
$$A = PLL^T P^T$$

- **Algorithm**

- $b' = P^T b$
 - solve $Lz = b'$ by forward substitution
 - solve $L^T y = z$ by backward substitution
 - 4. $x = Py$:
- That is **we solve $(P^T A P)y = b'$** using the Cholesky factorization of $P^T A P$

Example

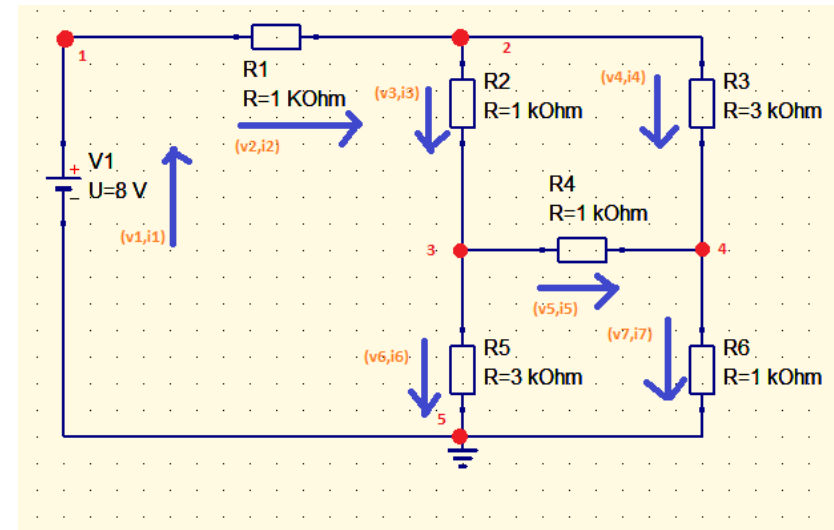
- Example of a sparse system
- Consider an electric circuit with only resistors



Example

To solve an electric circuit with only resistors, we can write the equations describing the circuit where:

- Unknowns are
 - B branch currents (i)
 - N node voltages (e)
 - B branch voltages (v)
- Equations are
 - N+B Conservation Laws
 - B Constitutive Equations



For our circuit

- $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7$ **branch voltages**
- $i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5, i_6, i_7$ **branch currents**
- e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4 **node voltages** with voltage of node 5 equal to 0

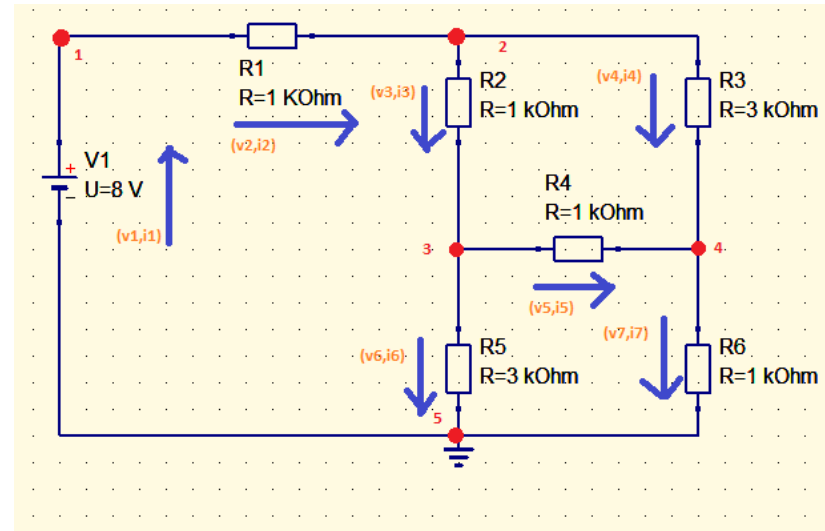
Example

Branch Constitutive Equations

- $-v_1 = V_1$
- $v_2 - R_1 \times i_2 = 0$
- $v_3 - R_2 \times i_3 = 0$
- $v_4 - R_3 \times i_4 = 0$
- $v_5 - R_4 \times i_5 = 0$
- $v_6 - R_5 \times i_6 = 0$
- $v_7 - R_6 \times i_7 = 0$

Kirchhoff's Current Law (KCL)

- $-i_1 + i_2 = 0$ (node 1)
- $-i_2 + i_3 + i_4 = 0$ (node 2)
- $-i_3 + i_5 + i_6 = 0$ (node 3)
- $-i_4 - i_5 + i_7 = 0$ (node 4)



Kirchhoff's Voltage Law (KVL)

- $v_1 + e_1 = 0$
- $v_2 - e_1 + e_2 = 0$
- $v_3 - e_2 + e_3 = 0$
- $v_4 - e_2 + e_4 = 0$
- $v_5 - e_3 + e_4 = 0$
- $v_6 - e_3 = 0$
- $v_7 - e_4 = 0$

Example

- In matrix form

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \left[\begin{array}{cccc|cc}
 -1 & 1 & & & & & \\
 & -1 & 1 & 1 & & & \\
 & & -1 & & 1 & 1 & \\
 & & & -1 & -1 & & 1 \\
 \hline
 & & & & 1 & & & 1 \\
 & & & & & 1 & & -1 & 1 \\
 & & & & & & 1 & & -1 & 1 \\
 & & & & & & & 1 & & -1 & 1 \\
 & & & & & & & & 1 & & -1 \\
 \hline
 -R_1 & & & & -1 & & & & & & \\
 & -R_2 & & & & 1 & & & & & \\
 & & -R_3 & & & & 1 & & & & \\
 & & & -R_4 & & & & 1 & & & \\
 & & & & -R_5 & & & & 1 & & \\
 & & & & & -R_6 & & & & 1 & \\
 \hline
 \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{c}
 i_1 \\
 i_2 \\
 i_3 \\
 i_4 \\
 \hline
 i_5 \\
 i_6 \\
 i_7 \\
 \hline
 v_1 \\
 v_2 \\
 v_3 \\
 v_4 \\
 \hline
 v_5 \\
 v_6 \\
 v_7 \\
 \hline
 e_1 \\
 e_2 \\
 e_3 \\
 e_4
 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c}
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 \hline
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 \hline
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 \hline
 V_1 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

Iterative methods

Iterative methods for solving $Ax = b$

- Begin with an **approximation** to the solution x_0
- Then provide a **series of improved approximations** x_1, x_2, \dots
- That **converge** to the exact solution

Iterative methods

- The method can be **stopped** as soon as the approximations x_i have converged to an **acceptable precision** (which might also be something as 10^{-3})
- With a **direct method**, the process of elimination and back-substitution has to be carried right through to **completion**, or else **abandoned** altogether

Iterative methods

- The **main attraction of iterative methods** is that for certain problems (particularly those where the matrix A is large and sparse) they are **much faster than direct methods**
- On the other hand, **iterative methods can be unreliable**: for some problems they may exhibit very **slow convergence**, or they may **not converge** at all

The Jacobi Method

- Consider the system

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

.....

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + a_{n3}x_3 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

The Jacobi Method

- Rewrite the system in the form:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

.....

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + a_{n3}x_3 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

$$x_1 = -\frac{a_{12}}{a_{11}}x_2 - \frac{a_{13}}{a_{11}}x_3 - \cdots - \frac{a_{1n}}{a_{11}}x_n + \frac{b_1}{a_{11}}$$

$$x_2 = -\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}}x_1 - \frac{a_{23}}{a_{22}}x_3 - \cdots - \frac{a_{2n}}{a_{22}}x_n + \frac{b_2}{a_{22}}$$

.....

$$x_n = -\frac{a_{n1}}{a_{nn}}x_1 - \frac{a_{n3}}{a_{nn}}x_2 - \cdots - \frac{a_{nn-1}}{a_{nn}}x_{n-1} + \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}}$$

The Jacobi Method

- Consider $x^{(0)} = (x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, x_3^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)})$ as an **initial approximation** of the solution and **substitute** $x_i^{(0)}$ in the eqs

$$x_1^{(1)} = -\frac{a_{12}}{a_{11}} x_2^{(0)} - \frac{a_{13}}{a_{11}} x_3^{(0)} - \dots - \frac{a_{1n}}{a_{11}} x_n^{(0)} + \frac{b_1}{a_{11}}$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = -\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}} x_1^{(0)} - \frac{a_{23}}{a_{22}} x_3^{(0)} - \dots - \frac{a_{2n}}{a_{22}} x_n^{(0)} + \frac{b_2}{a_{22}}$$

.....

$$x_n^{(1)} = -\frac{a_{n1}}{a_{nn}} x_1^{(0)} - \frac{a_{n2}}{a_{nn}} x_2^{(0)} - \dots - \frac{a_{nn-1}}{a_{nn}} x_{n-1}^{(0)} + \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}}$$

The Jacobi Method

- **Iterate** the substitution of $x^{(k)} = (x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, x_3^{(k)}, \dots, x_n^{(k)})$ such that **at each step a new solution approximation** is obtained

$$x_1^{(k+1)} = -\frac{a_{12}}{a_{11}} x_2^{(k)} - \frac{a_{13}}{a_{11}} x_3^{(k)} - \dots - \frac{a_{1n}}{a_{11}} x_n^{(k)} + \frac{b_1}{a_{11}}$$

$$x_2^{(k+1)} = -\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}} x_1^{(k)} - \frac{a_{23}}{a_{22}} x_3^{(k)} - \dots - \frac{a_{2n}}{a_{22}} x_n^{(k)} + \frac{b_2}{a_{22}}$$

.....

$$x_n^{(k+1)} = -\frac{a_{n1}}{a_{nn}} x_1^{(k)} - \frac{a_{n2}}{a_{nn}} x_2^{(k)} - \dots - \frac{a_{nn-1}}{a_{nn}} x_{n-1}^{(k)} + \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}}$$

The Jacobi Method

Example

- Consider the system

$$10x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 = 6$$

$$-x_1 + 11x_2 - x_3 + 3x_4 = 25$$

$$2x_1 - x_2 + 10x_3 - x_4 = -11$$

$$3x_2 - x_3 + 8x_4 = 15$$

The Jacobi Method

Example

- Rewrite the system

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{10}x_2 - \frac{1}{5}x_3 + \frac{3}{5}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{11}x_1 + \frac{1}{11}x_3 - \frac{3}{11}x_4 + \frac{25}{11}$$

$$x_3 = -\frac{1}{5}x_1 + \frac{1}{10}x_2 + \frac{1}{10}x_4 - \frac{11}{10}$$

$$x_4 = -\frac{3}{8}x_2 + \frac{1}{8}x_3 + \frac{15}{8}$$

The Jacobi Method

Example

- Start iterations with $x^{(0)} = (0, 0, 0, 0)$

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{1}{10} x_2^{(0)} - \frac{1}{5} x_3^{(0)} + \frac{3}{5} = 0.6000$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{1}{11} x_1^{(0)} + \frac{1}{11} x_3^{(0)} - \frac{3}{11} x_4^{(0)} + \frac{25}{11} = 2.2727$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = -\frac{1}{5} x_1^{(0)} + \frac{1}{10} x_2^{(0)} + \frac{1}{10} x_4^{(0)} - \frac{11}{10} = -1.1000$$

$$x_4^{(1)} = -\frac{3}{8} x_2^{(0)} + \frac{1}{8} x_3^{(0)} + \frac{15}{8} = 1.8750$$

The Jacobi Method

Example

- Continuing with iterations, we obtain the sequence of approximations shown in the Table

k	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$x_1^{(k)}$	0.0000	0.6000	1.0473	0.9326	1.0152	0.9890	1.0032	0.9981	1.0006	0.9997
$x_2^{(k)}$	0.0000	2.2727	1.7159	2.0533	1.9537	2.0114	1.9922	2.0023	1.9987	2.0004
$x_3^{(k)}$	0.0000	-1.1000	-0.8852	-1.0493	-0.9681	-1.0103	-0.9945	-1.0020	-0.9990	-1.0004
$x_4^{(k)}$	0.0000	1.8750	0.8852	1.1309	0.9739	1.0214	0.9944	1.0036	0.9989	1.0006

The Jacobi Method in Matrix Form

- Consider the system $Ax=b$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- We **split A into**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & & 0 \\ -a_{21} & \cdots & & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -a_{n1} & \cdots & -a_{nm-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_{12} & \cdots & -a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & -a_{n-1n} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} = D - (-L - U)$$

- That is $Ax=b$ is transformed in $(D - (-L - U))x=b$

The Jacobi Method in Matrix Form

- Assume D^{-1} exists

$$D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{a_{11}} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a_{22}} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{a_{nn}} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Then $x = D^{-1}(-L - U)x + D^{-1}b$
- The matrix form of Jacobi iterative method is

$$x^{(k+1)} = D^{-1}(-L - U)x^{(k)} + D^{-1}b \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The Jacobi Method

- We need a **stopping criterion**
- We are interested in the **error \mathbf{e}** at each iteration between the **true solution \mathbf{x}** and the **approximation $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$** : $\mathbf{e}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$
- Obviously, we don't usually know the true solution \mathbf{x}
- To better understand the behavior of an iterative method, we can consider a system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ for which we *do* know the true solution and analyze how quickly the approximations are converging to the true solution

The Jacobi Method

- We can consider different ways of measuring the error:

- $x^{(k+1)} - x^{(k)}$

- $e^{(k)} = x - x^{(k)}$ where x is the exact solution

- $\|e^{(k)}\|$

We consider norm l^2 , that is:

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

- $\frac{\|x^{(k+1)} - x^{(k)}\|}{\|x^{(k+1)}\|}$

- We use one of the previous measures asking that it is $< \varepsilon$

The Jacobi Method

- **Theorem** The Jacobi method converges if the coefficient matrix A is a **strictly diagonally dominant matrix**
- An $n \times n$ matrix A is strictly diagonally dominant if the **absolute value** of each entry on the **main diagonal** is greater than the sum of the absolute values of the other entries in the same

row:

$$|a_{11}| > |a_{12}| + |a_{13}| + \cdots + |a_{1n}|$$

$$|a_{22}| > |a_{21}| + |a_{23}| + \cdots + |a_{2n}|$$

...

$$|a_{nn}| > |a_{n1}| + |a_{n3}| + \cdots + |a_{n,n-1}|$$

Jacobi method – Algorithm cost

- Multiplication operations for each iteration: $n(n-1) \rightarrow O(n^2)$
- If we do k iteration the cost is: $kn(n-1)$
- We also have the divisions with a_{ii} during the first iteration \rightarrow the cost is kn^2
- To decide **between Gauss and Jacobi** methods we evaluate:

$$kn^2 < \frac{1}{3}n^3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad k < \frac{1}{3}n$$

*Hence when using the **Jacobi method** we need to **evaluate how many iterations** are needed before stopping*