

Example

Use the Gauss-Seidel iterative technique to find approximate solutions to

$$\begin{aligned}10x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 &= 6, \\ -x_1 + 11x_2 - x_3 + 3x_4 &= 25, \\ 2x_1 - x_2 + 10x_3 - x_4 &= -11, \\ 3x_2 - x_3 + 8x_4 &= 15\end{aligned}$$

starting with $\mathbf{x} = (0, 0, 0, 0)^t$ and iterating until

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}\|_{\infty}}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\|_{\infty}} < 10^{-3}.$$

Solution

Previously, this problem was solved by the Jacobi method with 10 iterations.

For the Gauss-Seidel method we write the system, for each $k = 1, 2, \dots$ as

$$\begin{aligned}
x_1^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{10}x_2^{(k-1)} - \frac{1}{5}x_3^{(k-1)} + \frac{3}{5}, \\
x_2^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{11}x_1^{(k)} + \frac{1}{11}x_3^{(k-1)} - \frac{3}{11}x_4^{(k-1)} + \frac{25}{11} \\
x_3^{(k)} &= -\frac{1}{5}x_1^{(k)} + \frac{1}{10}x_2^{(k)} + \frac{1}{10}x_4^{(k-1)} - \frac{11}{10} \\
x_4^{(k)} &= -\frac{3}{8}x_2^{(k)} + \frac{1}{8}x_3^{(k)} + \frac{15}{8}
\end{aligned}$$

When $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0, 0, 0, 0)^t$, we have $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (0.6000, 2.3272, -0.9873, 0.8789)^t$.

Subsequent iterations give the value in the below table:

k	0	1	2	3	4	5
$x_1^{(k)}$	0.0000	0.6000	1.030	1.0065	1.0009	1.0001
$x_2^{(k)}$	0.0000	2.3272	2.037	2.0036	2.0003	2.0000
$x_3^{(k)}$	0.0000	-0.9873	-1.014	-1.0025	-1.0003	-1.0000
$x_4^{(k)}$	0.0000	0.8789	0.9844	0.9983	0.9999	1.0000

Because

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{x}^{(5)} - \mathbf{x}^{(4)}\|_{\infty}}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(5)}\|_{\infty}} = \frac{0.0008}{2.000} = 4 \times 10^{-4}$$

$\mathbf{x}^{(5)}$ is accepted as a reasonable approximation to the solution.

Note: Jacobi method requires twice as many iterations for the same accuracy.

Writing the Gauss-Seidel method in matrix form:

Multiplying both sides of equation,

$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left[- \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (a_{ij} x_j^{(k)}) - \sum_{j=i+1}^n (a_{ij} x_j^{(k-1)}) + b_i \right]$$

By a_{ii} and collecting all k th iterate terms, results in:

$$a_{i1}x_1^{(k)} + a_{i2}x_2^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{ii}x_i^{(k)} = -a_{i,i+1}x_{i+1}^{(k-1)} - \cdots - a_{in}x_n^{(k-1)} + b_i,$$

for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Writing all n equations gives

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a_{11}x_1^{(k)} & = & -a_{12}x_2^{(k-1)} - a_{13}x_3^{(k-1)} - \cdots - a_{1n}x_n^{(k-1)} + b_1, \\ a_{21}x_1^{(k)} + a_{22}x_2^{(k)} & = & -a_{23}x_3^{(k-1)} - \cdots - a_{2n}x_n^{(k-1)} + b_2, \\ \vdots & & \\ a_{n1}x_1^{(k)} + a_{n2}x_2^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n^{(k)} & = & b_n; \end{array}$$

with the definitions of D , L , and U given previously, we have

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

and

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

Letting $T_g = (D - L)^{-1}U$ and $\mathbf{c}_g = (D - L)^{-1}\mathbf{b}$, gives

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = T_g \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{c}_g$$

For the lower-triangular matrix $D - L$ to be nonsingular, it is necessary and sufficient that $a_{ii} \neq 0$, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

If A is a square matrix, the **characteristic polynomial** of A is defined by

$$p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$$

- λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.
- corresponding eigenvector $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ is determined by solving the system

$$(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

Example

Determine the eigenvalues and eigenvectors for the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution The characteristic polynomial of A is

$$\begin{aligned} p(\lambda) &= \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 - \lambda & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 4 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -(\lambda^3 - 7\lambda^2 + 16\lambda - 12) = -(\lambda - 3)(\lambda - 2)^2, \end{aligned}$$

so there are two eigenvalues of A : $\lambda_1 = 3$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$.

An eigenvector \mathbf{x}_1 corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 3$ is a solution to the equation $(A - 3 \cdot I)\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{0}$, so

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

which implies that $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = x_3$. So,

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = (0, 1, 1)^t$$

Similarly,

$$\lambda_2 = 2 \implies (A - 2 \cdot I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \implies$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

In this case the eigenvector has only to satisfy the equation

$$x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 = 0$$

which can be done in various ways. For example,

$$x_1 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = 2x_3 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = (0, 2, 1)^t$$

$$x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = -2x_3 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_3 = (-2, 0, 1)^t$$

Spectral Radius

The **spectral radius** $\rho(A)$ of a matrix A is defined by

$$\rho(A) = \max |\lambda|, \quad \text{where } \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } A$$

Theorem

If A is strictly diagonally dominant, then for any choice of $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$, both the Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel methods give sequences $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ that converge to the unique solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

Theorem

If $\rho(T) < 1$ and \mathbf{c} is a given vector, then the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ defined by $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = T\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{c}$ converges, for any $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, to a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with $\mathbf{x} = T\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}$, and

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}\| \approx \rho(T)^k \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}\|$$

Relaxation Techniques for solving Linear Systems

Relaxation Techniques are used to accelerate Convergence.

Definition

Suppose $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an approximation to the solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. The **residual vector** for $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ with respect to this system is $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} - A\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$.

Suppose that $x^{(k)}$ is an approximate solution defined by:

$$x^{(k)} = (x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, \dots, x_{i-1}^{(k)}, x_i^{(k-1)}, \dots, x_n^{(k-1)})^t$$

The corresponding residual vector is,

$$r^{(k)} = b - Ax^{(k)}$$

In particular, the i th component of residual vector is,

$$r_i^{(k)} = b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)} - a_{ii}x_i^{(k-1)}$$

So,

$$a_{ii}x_i^{(k-1)} + r_i^{(k)} = b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)} \quad (7.14)$$

Recall, however, that in the Gauss-Seidel method, $x_i^{(k)}$ is chosen to be

$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left[b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)} \right] \quad (7.15)$$

so Eq. (7.14) can be rewritten as

$$a_{ii}x_i^{(k-1)} + r_i^{(k)} = a_{ii}x_i^{(k)}$$

Consequently,


$$x_i^{(k)} = x_i^{(k-1)} + \frac{r_i^{(k)}}{a_{ii}} \quad (7.16)$$


If we modify the above equation as,

$$x_i^{(k)} = x_i^{(k-1)} + \omega \frac{r_i^{(k)}}{a_{ii}} \quad (7.17)$$

then for certain choices of positive ω we can obtain significantly faster convergence.

Methods involving Eq. (7.17) are called **relaxation methods**.

$0 < \omega < 1$  **under-relaxation methods**

$1 < \omega$  **over-relaxation methods**

For the Gauss-Seidel method, we are interested in choices of $\omega > 1$.

This method is Called **SOR (Successive Over-Relaxation)** method.

by using Eq. (7.14), we can reformulate Eq. (7.17) for calculation purposes as

$$x_i^{(k)} = (1 - \omega)x_i^{(k-1)} + \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}} \left[b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)} \right] \quad (*)$$

Combination of the above equation and equation (7.15) results in,

$$x_i^{(k)} = x_i^{(k-1)} + \omega(x_i^{(k)} - x_i^{(k-1)})$$

Thus, at the end of each iteration of the Gauss-Seidel method $x_i^{(k)}$ is modified using the above equation.

To determine the matrix form of the SOR method, we rewrite equation (*) as,

$$a_{ii}x_i^{(k)} + \omega \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} = (1 - \omega)a_{ii}x_i^{(k-1)} - \omega \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)} + \omega b_i$$

so that in vector form, we have

$$(D - \omega L)\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = [(1 - \omega)D + \omega U]\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega \mathbf{b}$$

That is,

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = (D - \omega L)^{-1}[(1 - \omega)D + \omega U]\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega(D - \omega L)^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

Letting $T_\omega = (D - \omega L)^{-1}[(1 - \omega)D + \omega U]$ and $\mathbf{c}_\omega = \omega(D - \omega L)^{-1}\mathbf{b}$,

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = T_\omega \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{c}_\omega$$

Example

The linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ given by

$$\begin{aligned}4x_1 + 3x_2 &= 24, \\3x_1 + 4x_2 - x_3 &= 30, \\-x_2 + 4x_3 &= -24,\end{aligned}$$

has the solution $(3, 4, -5)^t$. Compare the iterations from the Gauss-Seidel method and the SOR method with $\omega = 1.25$ using $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (1, 1, 1)^t$ for both methods.

Solution For each $k = 1, 2, \dots$, the equations for the Gauss-Seidel method are

$$\begin{aligned}x_1^{(k)} &= -0.75x_2^{(k-1)} + 6, \\x_2^{(k)} &= -0.75x_1^{(k)} + 0.25x_3^{(k-1)} + 7.5, \\x_3^{(k)} &= 0.25x_2^{(k)} - 6,\end{aligned}$$

For the SOR method, the Gauss-Seidel equations are modified as,

$$x_1^{(k)} = x_1^{(k-1)} + 1.25 \left(x_1^{(k)} - x_1^{(k-1)} \right)$$

$$x_2^{(k)} = x_2^{(k-1)} + 1.25 \left(x_2^{(k)} - x_2^{(k-1)} \right)$$

$$x_3^{(k)} = x_3^{(k-1)} + 1.25 \left(x_3^{(k)} - x_3^{(k-1)} \right)$$

The first seven iterates for each method are listed in Tables 7.3 and 7.4.

Table 7.3

k	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$x_1^{(k)}$	1	5.250000	3.1406250	3.0878906	3.0549316	3.0343323	3.0214577	3.0134110
$x_2^{(k)}$	1	3.812500	3.8828125	3.9267578	3.9542236	3.9713898	3.9821186	3.9888241
$x_3^{(k)}$	1	-5.046875	-5.0292969	-5.0183105	-5.0114441	-5.0071526	-5.0044703	-5.0027940

Table 7.4

k	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$x_1^{(k)}$	1	6.312500	2.6223145	3.1333027	2.9570512	3.0037211	2.9963276	3.0000498
$x_2^{(k)}$	1	3.5195313	3.9585266	4.0102646	4.0074838	4.0029250	4.0009262	4.0002586
$x_3^{(k)}$	1	-6.6501465	-4.6004238	-5.0966863	-4.9734897	-5.0057135	-4.9982822	-5.0003486

For the iterates to be accurate to seven decimal places, the Gauss-Seidel method requires 34 iterations, as opposed to 14 iterations for the SOR method with $\omega = 1.25$.