

(2.68) Definition (Jacobi method).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be an invertible matrix with $A(k,k) \neq 0$ for every k . Defined:¹

$$D = \text{diag}(A) \quad , \quad M = A - D$$

the matrix D is invertible and the system $Ax = b$ is equivalent to $x = -D^{-1}Mx + D^{-1}b$. The *Jacobi method* (applied to the system $Ax = b$) is the iterative method defined by: $H_j = -D^{-1}M$ and $c_j = D^{-1}b$.

(2.69) Definition (strictly diagonally dominant matrix).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. The matrix A is *strictly row-diagonally dominant* if

$$\text{for every } k: |A(k,k)| > \sum_{i \neq k} |A(k,i)|$$

(2.70) Theorem (strictly diagonally dominant \Rightarrow invertible).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. If A is strictly row-diagonally dominant then A is invertible.

(Proof: By contradiction, if A were strongly row-diagonally dominant and non-invertible then there would exist a column $y \neq 0$ such that $Ay = 0$. Let y_j be the component of y of maximum modulus (certainly different from zero). Then it would be:

$$A(j,1)y_1 + \dots + A(j,j)y_j + \dots + A(j,n)y_n = 0 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad A(j,j)y_j = - \sum_{i \neq j} A(j,i)y_i$$

hence:

$$|A(j,j)y_j| = \left| \sum_{i \neq j} A(j,i)y_i \right| \Rightarrow |A(j,j)| |y_j| \leq \sum_{i \neq j} |A(j,i)||y_i|$$

Since, by definition, $y_j \neq 0$ and for every $i \neq j$ it is $|y_i| / |y_j| \leq 1$ finally it would be:

$$|A(j,j)| \leq \sum_{i \neq j} |A(j,i)| \left| \frac{y_i}{y_j} \right| \leq \sum_{i \neq j} |A(j,i)|$$

i.e. a contradiction.)

(2.71) Example.

Let:²

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

¹ If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\text{diag}(A)$ denotes the matrix $[A(1,1); \dots; A(n,n)]$. The notation is borrowed from *Scilab*.

² If an element is *not specified* when writing an array, its value is *zero*.

- The matrix A is strictly row-diagonally dominant and therefore invertible, and has all diagonal entries nonzero. The Jacobi method is defined and we have:

$$H_J = -\frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & & 0 \\ 1 & & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad c_J = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The eigenvalues of H_J ($\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$, $\lambda_3 = 1/3$, $\lambda_4 = -1/3$) all have modulus less than one. By the Characterization Theorem (2.66) of Lecture 22, the method is convergent. For every $g \in \mathbb{R}^4$, the sequence generated by the method starting from g is convergent to the solution x^* of the system $Ax = b$.

(2.72) Theorem (sufficient convergence condition for the Jacobi method).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a strictly row-diagonally dominant matrix and let $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then the Jacobi method applied to the system $Ax = b$ is convergent.

The result is a simple consequence of the following theorem and observation.

(2.73) Theorem (norm and spectral radius).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and let N be a norm in \mathbb{R}^n . Then: $\rho(A) \leq \|A\|_N$.

Proof. By definition: $\|A\|_N = \max\{N(Av), N(v) = 1\}$. Then, let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ be an eigenvalue of A and $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be an associated eigenvector. Then, setting $w' = w / N(w)$ we have:

$$N(w') = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad N(Aw') = N\left(A \frac{w}{N(w)}\right) = \frac{N(Aw)}{N(w)} = \frac{N(\lambda w)}{N(w)} = |\lambda| \frac{N(w)}{N(w)} = |\lambda|$$

hence $|\lambda| \in \{N(Av), N(v) = 1\}$. Finally:

$$\rho(A) = \max\{|\lambda| \text{ s.t. } \lambda \in \sigma(A)\} \leq \max\{N(Av), N(v) = 1\} = \|A\|_N$$

(2.74) Remark.

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and- let $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If A is strictly row-diagonally dominant then for the H_J matrix of the Jacobi method applied to the system $Ax = b$ we have $\|H_J\|_\infty < 1$.

(Homework: Prove that the statement is an immediate consequence of the definition of strictly row-diagonally dominant matrix.)

(2.75) Example (*Scilab*).

Consider Example (2.71). To construct the matrix A in *Scilab*, the following assignments are used:³

3 In *Scilab*: for any integer n , `eye(n,n)` is the identity matrix of order n ; if A is a matrix and m,k,l are integers then: `A(m:k,l) = [A(m,l);...;A(k,l)]`.

```
--> A = 3 * eye(4,4)
```

```
A = [4x4 double]
```

```
3.    0.    0.    0.
0.    3.    0.    0.
0.    0.    3.    0.
0.    0.    0.    3.
```

```
--> A(2:4,1) = 1
```

```
A = [4x4 double]
```

```
3.    0.    0.    0.
1.    3.    0.    0.
1.    0.    3.    0.
1.    0.    0.    3.
```

```
--> A(1:3,4) = 1
```

```
A = [4x4 double]
```

```
3.    0.    0.    1.
1.    3.    0.    1.
1.    0.    3.    1.
1.    0.    0.    3.
```

```
--> b = [1;1;1;1]
```

```
b = [4x1 double]
```

```
1.
1.
1.
1.
```

To construct the H_j matrix and the c_j column:⁴

```
--> D = diag(diag(A))
```

```
D = [4x4 double]
```

```
3.    0.    0.    0.
0.    3.    0.    0.
0.    0.    3.    0.
0.    0.    0.    3.
```

⁴ In *Scilab*, if A is an $n \times n$ matrix then $\text{diag}(A) = [A(1,1); \dots; A(n,n)]$; if $v = [v_1; \dots; v_n] \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then $\text{diag}(v)$ is the diagonal matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $M(1,1) = v_1, \dots, M(n,n) = v_n$.

```
--> M = A - D
```

```
M = [4x4 double]
```

```
0.    0.    0.    1.
1.    0.    0.    1.
1.    0.    0.    1.
1.    0.    0.    0.
```

```
--> HJ = - diag(1./diag(A)) * M
```

```
HJ = [4x4 double]
```

```
0.          0.    0. -0.3333333
-0.3333333  0.    0. -0.3333333
-0.3333333  0.    0. -0.3333333
-0.3333333  0.    0.    0.
```

```
--> cJ = diag(1./diag(A)) * b
```

```
cJ = [4x1 double]
```

```
0.3333333
0.3333333
0.3333333
0.3333333
```

An approximation to the solution of the system $Ax = b$, computed using the built-in *backslash* (`\`) function⁵ is:

```
--> y = A\b
```

```
y = [4x1 double]
```

```
0.25
0.1666667
0.1666667
0.2500000
```

To obtain an approximation of the solution with the Jacobi method, ten elements of the sequence generated by the method are calculated starting from the vector 0.⁶ At each iteration the instruction `disp(norm(x - y,%inf))` shows the value $\|x - y\|_\infty$ or the distance between the last calculated element, x , of the sequence and y .

```
--> x = zeros(4,1); for k = 1:10, x = HJ * x + cJ; disp(norm(x - y,%inf)); end
```

5 The assignment $y = A \backslash b$ is equivalent to the sequence: $(S,D,P) = \text{EGPP}_M(A)$; $w = \text{SA}_M(S,P b)$; $y = \text{SI}_M(D,w)$.

6 If m,n are integers, `zeros(m,n)` is the matrix of order $m \times n$ whose elements are all equal to zero.

0.1666667

0.0555556

0.0185185

0.0061728

0.0020576

0.0006859

0.0002286

0.0000762

0.0000254

0.0000085

Note that, as expected by the convergence of the sequence, the distance $\|x - y\|_\infty$ is decreasing.

(2.76) Definition (Gauss-Seidel method).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be an invertible matrix with $A(k,k) \neq 0$ for every k . Defined:⁷

$$T = \text{tril}(A) , \quad M = A - T$$

the matrix T is invertible and the system $Ax = b$ is equivalent to $x = -T^{-1}Mx + T^{-1}b$. The *Gauss-Seidel method* (applied to the system $Ax = b$) is the iterative method defined by: $H_{GS} = -T^{-1}M$ and $c_{GS} = T^{-1}b$.

(2.77) Example.

Let A and b be as in Example (2.71).

- The matrix A is strictly row-diagonally dominant and therefore invertible, and has all diagonal entries nonzero. The Gauss-Seidel method is defined and we have:

$$H_{GS} = \begin{bmatrix} & -1/3 \\ & -2/9 \\ & -2/9 \\ & 1/9 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4} , \quad c_{GS} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/9 \\ 2/9 \\ 2/9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The eigenvalues of H_{GS} ($\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0$, $\lambda_4 = 1/9$) all have modulus less than one. By the Characterization Theorem (2.66) of Lecture 22 the method is convergent. For every $g \in \mathbb{R}^4$ the sequence generated by the method starting from g is convergent to

⁷ If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we denote by $\text{tril}(A)$ the strictly lower triangular part of A , that is, the (lower triangular) matrix B such that: $i \leq j \Rightarrow B(i,j) = A(i,j)$ and $i > j \Rightarrow B(i,j) = 0$. The notation is borrowed from *Scilab*.

the solution x^* of the system $Ax = b$.

(2.78) Theorem (sufficient convergence condition for the Gauss-Seidel method).

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If:

(1) A is a strictly row-diagonally dominant matrix

or:

(2) A a symmetric positive-definite matrix

then the Gauss-Seidel method applied to the system $Ax = b$ is convergent.

(2.4) COST OF SOLVING A SYSTEM OF LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH AN ITERATIVE METHOD

(2.79) Remark.

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and let x' , x'' be the approximations of the solution x^* of the system $Ax = b$ obtained, respectively, with a *direct method* and with an *iterative method* (equipped, as we will see, with an appropriate halt condition). We want to compare x' and x'' from the point of view of *arithmetic cost*.

Assume x' is calculated by using the sequence EGPP-SA-SI. The asymptotic cost of the computation is then: $(2/3) n^3$.

The cost of computing x'' is:

$$(\text{cost of one iteration}) * (\text{number of iterations})$$

We then need to determine the cost of *one* iteration.

Consider, for example, the Gauss-Seidel method. To compute the column $x(k+1)$, there are (at least) two alternatives:

- (1) compute $-T^{-1}Mx(k) + T^{-1}b$;
- (2) compute the solution of the system $Tx = -Mx(k) + b$.

For the cost of the first alternative we have:

(1.a) $2n^2 - 3n$ operations to compute $-T^{-1}Mx(k)$

(1.b) n operations to compute the sum $-T^{-1}Mx(k) + T^{-1}b$

hence a total of $2n^2 - 2n$ operations.

For the cost of the second alternative we have:

(2.a) $n^2 - 2n + 1$ operations to compute $-Mx(k)$

- (2.b) n operations to compute the sum $-Mx(k) + b$
 (2.c) n^2 operations to compute the solution of the system

hence a total of $2n^2 - n + 1$ operations.

In both cases, the *asymptotic cost* is $2n^2$. Therefore, if x^* was calculated with k iterations of the Gauss-Seidel method, the asymptotic cost of the calculation is $2kn^2$. The Gauss-Seidel method is cheaper than the direct method if $k < n/3$.

(Homework: check the costs for both alternatives.)

It is necessary to study the *speed of convergence* of an iterative method.

(2.80) Example.

Let $H = \text{diag}(s_1, s_2)$ with $|s_2| < |s_1| < 1$ and let $c = 0$. By the Characterization Theorem of Convergent Methods (see Theorem (2.66) of Lecture 22), the iterative method defined by H and zero is convergent: for every $g \in \mathbb{R}^2$ the sequence $x(k)$ converges to zero. How quickly?

Let:

$$g = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 \\ g_2 \end{bmatrix} \neq 0.$$

Then:

$$x(k) = H^k g = \text{diag}(s_1^k, s_2^k) g = \begin{bmatrix} s_1^k g_1 \\ s_2^k g_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and, using the one norm:

$$\|x(k)\|_1 = |s_1^k g_1| + |s_2^k g_2|$$

- If $g_1 \neq 0$:

$$\|x(k)\|_1 = |s_1|^k |g_1| (1 + |s_2/s_1|^k |g_2/g_1|)$$

hence:

$$\frac{\|x(k)\|_1}{|s_1|^k} \rightarrow |g_1| \neq 0$$

and:

$$\|x(k)\|_1 \text{ tends to zero as rapidly as } |s_1|^k$$

- On the contrary, if $g_1 = 0$:

$$\frac{\|x(k)\|_1}{|s_2|^k} \rightarrow |g_2| \neq 0$$

and:

$$\|x(k)\|_1 \text{ tends to zero as rapidly as } |s_2|^k$$

therefore, since $|s_2| < |s_1|$, *more rapidly* than $|s_1|^k$.

(2.81) Theorem (speed of convergence).

What happens in Example (2.80) holds in general.

Consider the convergent iterative method defined by $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let x^* be the solution of the system $(I - H)x = c$ and let $x(k)$ be the sequence generated by the method starting from $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, denoted by $\rho(H)$ the spectral radius of H :⁸

$$\|x(k) - x^*\| \text{ tends to zero at least as quickly as } \rho(H)^k$$

Furthermore, if the initial vector g is chosen randomly, the probability that the sequence converges to zero *more quickly than* $\rho(H)^k$ is zero.

(2.82) Example.

Based on what was obtained in examples (2.71) and (2.77) where $\rho(H_j) = 1/3$ and $\rho(H_{gs}) = 1/9$: with a random choice of $g \in \mathbb{R}^2$, the sequence generated by the Gauss-Seidel method converges to x^* *more quickly* than the one generated by the Jacobi method.

8 See Definition (2.65) of Lecture 22.