

Solving Linear Systems of Equations

Many practical problems could be reduced to solving a linear system of equations formulated as $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. This chapter studies the computational issues about directly and iteratively solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

- A Linear System of Equations
- Vector and Matrix Norms
- Matrix Condition Number ($Cond(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|$)
- Direct Solution for $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

LU-decomposition by Gaussian Elimination

Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting

Cholesky Algorithm for $A = LL^t$ (A is positive definite)

- Iterative Solutions

Jacobi method

Gauss-Seidel method

Other methods

- Applications

Overdetermined, Underdetermined, Homogeneous Systems

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

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

$$\begin{matrix} & & & \cdot & & \\ & & & \cdot & & \end{matrix}$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

Definition: A linear system is said to be *overdetermined* if there are more equations than unknowns ($m > n$), *underdetermined* if $m < n$, *homogeneous* if $b_i = 0$, $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m$.

$$x + y = 1 \quad x + y = 3 \quad x + y = 2$$

$$(A) \quad x - y = 3 \quad (B) \quad x - y = 1 \quad (C) \quad 2x + 2y = 4$$

$$-x + 2y = -2 \quad 2x + y = 5 \quad -x - y = -2$$

(A) has no solution, (B) has unique solution, (C) has infinitely many solutions

$$(D) \quad x + 2y + z = -1 \quad (E) \quad x + 2y + z = 5$$

$$2x + 4y + 2z = 3 \quad 2x - y + z = 3$$

(D) has no solution, (E) has infinitely many solutions

Some Special Matrices

$$A = [a_{ij}] \in R^{n \times n}$$

- *Diagonal* if $a_{ij} = 0 \forall i \neq j$
- *Lower - Δ* if $a_{ij} = 0$ if $j > i$
- *Unit lower - Δ* if A is lower- Δ with $a_{ii} = 1$
- *Lower Hessenberg* if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j > i + 1$
- *Band* matrix with *bandwidth* $2k + 1$ if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $|i - j| > k$

- A band matrix with *bandwidth* 1 is *diagonal*
- A band matrix with *bandwidth* 3 is *tridiagonal*
- A band matrix with *bandwidth* 5 is *pentadiagonal*
- A lower and upper Hessenberg matrix is *tridiagonal*

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 8 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 6 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 7 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 6 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 7 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

A Direct Solution of Linear Systems

A linear system

$$2x + y + z = 5$$

$$4x - 6y = -2$$

$$-2x + 7y + 2z = 9$$

A matrix representation

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}, \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}.$$

♣ Solution using MATLAB

```
>> A = [2, 1, 2; 4, -6, 0; -2, 7, 2];  
>> b = [5, -2, 9]';  
>> x = A\b (x = [1; 1; 2])
```

Elementary Row Operations

- (1) Interchange two rows: $A_r \leftrightarrow A_s$
- (2) Multiply a row by a nonzero real number: $A_r \leftarrow \alpha A_r$
- (3) Replace a row by its sum with a multiple of another row: $A_s \leftarrow \alpha A_r + A_s$

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

♣ Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2 A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ 4 & -14 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_3 A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let

$$L_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$L_3 L_2 L_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -8 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = U \quad (\text{Upper } - \Delta)$$

$$A = (L_1^{-1} L_2^{-1} L_3^{-1})U = LU, \quad \text{where } L \text{ is unit lower } - \Delta$$

Computing An Inverse Matrix By Elementary Row Operations

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_1 I$$

$$E_2 E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_2 E_1 I$$

$$E_3 E_2 E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_3 E_2 E_1 I$$

$$E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -2 & -3 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1 I = A^{-1}$$

where the elementary matrices are

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

LU-Decomposition

If a matrix A can be decomposed into the product of a unit lower- Δ matrix L and an upper- Δ matrix U , then the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ can be written as $LUX = \mathbf{b}$. The problem is reduced to solving two simpler triangular systems $Ly = \mathbf{b}$ and $Ux = y$ by forward and back substitutions.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$L_3 L_2 L_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -8 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = U \Rightarrow A = L_1^{-1} L_2^{-1} L_3^{-1} U = LU$$

where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -8 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

\diamond If $\mathbf{b} = [5, -2, 9]^t$, then $\mathbf{y} = [5, -12, 2]^t$ and $\mathbf{x} = [1, 1, 2]^t$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 3 \\ -2 & 3 & -4 \\ 4 & -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Analysis of Gaussian Elimination

♣ Algorithm

```
for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ 
    for  $k = i + 1, i + 2, \dots, n$ 
         $m_{ki} \leftarrow a_{ki}/a_{ii}$  if  $a_{ii} \neq 0$ 
         $a_{ki} \leftarrow a_{ki}$ 
        for  $j = i + 1, i + 2, \dots, n$ 
             $a_{kj} \leftarrow a_{kj} - m_{ki} * a_{ij}$ 
        endfor
    endfor
endfor
```

- The Worst Computational Complexity is $O(\frac{2}{3}n^3)$

1. # of divisions are $(n - 1) + (n - 2) + \dots + 1 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$
2. # of multiplications are $(n - 1)^2 + (n - 2)^2 + \dots + 1^2 = \frac{n(n-1)(2n-1)}{6}$
3. # of subtractions are $(n - 1)^2 + (n - 2)^2 + \dots + 1^2 = \frac{n(n-1)(2n-1)}{6}$

The Analysis of Gaussian Elimination and Back Substitution to solve Ax=b

$$\frac{2}{3}n^3 + \frac{3}{2}n^2 - \frac{7}{6}n$$

$$R_1 : a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$R_2 : a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$R_i : a_{i1}x_1 + a_{i2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{in}x_n = b_i$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$R_n : a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

By Guassian Elimination, we need $C_1 = [\sum_{k=1}^n (k+1)(k-1) + \sum_{k=1}^n k(k-1)]$ flops to reduce the above linear system of equations equivalent to the following upper triangular system.

$$R_1 : u_{11}x_1 + u_{12}x_2 + \cdots + u_{1n}x_n = c_1$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$R_i : u_{ii}x_i + \cdots + u_{in}x_n = c_i$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$R_n : u_{nn}x_n = c_n$$

We need $C_2 = \sum_{k=1}^n (2k-1) = n^2$ flops to solve an upper triangular linear system of equations. Therefore, the total number of flops of solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is summarized as

$$C_1 + C_2 = \frac{2}{3}n^3 + \frac{3}{2}n^2 - \frac{7}{6}n + n^2$$

PA=LU

Let $A \in R^{4 \times 4}$ and $L_3 P_3 L_2 P_2 L_1 P_1 A = U$ by Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting.
Denote

$$L_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \alpha_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_5 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad L_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha_6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Without loss of generality, let

$$P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then $P_2 L_1 = (P_2 L_1 P_2^{-1}) P_2 = L_1^{(2)} P_2$, where

$$L_1^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \alpha_1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem: For any $A \in R^{n \times n}$, there exists a permutation matrix P such that $PA = LU$, where L is unit lower - Δ and U is upper - Δ .

Gaussian Elimination with partial Pivoting

♣ Algorithm

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

p(i)=i

endfor

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$

(a) select a pivotal element $a_{p(j),i}$ such that $|a_{p(j),i}| = \max_{i \leq k \leq n} |a_{p(k),i}|$

(b) $p(i) \longleftrightarrow p(j)$

(c) for $k = i + 1, i + 2, \dots, n$

$$m_{p(k),i} = a_{p(k),i} / a_{p(i),i}$$

for $j = i + 1, i + 2, \dots, n$

$$a_{p(k),j} = a_{p(k),j} - m_{p(k),i} * a_{p(i),j}$$

endfor

endfor

endfor

• An example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 9 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & -2 \\ 2 & -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow P_{23}P_{13}A = LU = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 & 4 \\ 0 & 9 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{-9}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Matlab Codes for Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting

```
%%-----%%
%% gausspp.m - drive of Gaussian Elimination wit Partial Pivoting      %%
%%-----%%
fin=fopen('gaussmat.dat','r');
n=fscanf(fin,'%d',1);
A=fscanf(fin,'%f',[n n]);    A=A';
b=fscanf(fin,'%f',n);
X=gausspivot(A,b,n)

%%-----%%
%% gausspivot.m - Gaussian elimination with Partial Pivoting          %%
%%-----%%
function X=gausspivot(A,b,n)

if (abs(det(A))<eps)
    disp(sprintf('A is singular with det=%f\n',det(A)))
end

C=[A, b];
%----- Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting -----%
for i=1:n-1
    [pivot, k]=max(abs(C(i:n,i)));
    if (k>1)
        temp=C(i,:);
        C(i,:)=C(i+k-1,:);
        C(i+k-1,:)=temp;
    end
    m(i+1:n,i)= -C(i+1:n,i)/C(i,i);
    C(i+1:n,:)=C(i+1:n,:)+m(i+1:n,i)*C(i,:);
end
%----- Back substitution -----%
X=zeros(n,1); % Let X be a column vector of size n
X(n)=C(n,n+1)/C(n,n);
for i=n-1:-1:1
    X(i)=(C(i,n+1)-C(i,i+1:n)*X(i+1:n))/C(i,i);
end
```

Doolittle's LU Factorization

♣ Algorithm: $A \in R^{n \times n}$, $A = LU$, L is unit lower- Δ , U is upper- Δ .

for $k = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$

$$L_{kk} \leftarrow 1$$

for $j = k, k + 1, \dots, n - 1$

$$U_{kj} \leftarrow A_{kj} - \sum_{s=0}^{k-1} L_{ks} U_{sj}$$

endfor

for $i = k + 1, k + 2, \dots, n - 1$

$$L_{ik} \leftarrow [A_{ik} - \sum_{s=0}^{k-1} L_{is} U_{sk}] / U_{kk}$$

endfor

endfor

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 & -3 \\ 3 & 17 & 3 \\ -3 & 3 & 27 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 & -3 \\ 0 & 16 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 25 \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

Crout's LU Factorization

♣ Algorithm: $A \in R^{n \times n}$, $A = LU$, L is lower- Δ , U is unit upper- Δ .

for $k = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$

$$U_{kk} \leftarrow 1$$

for $i = k, k + 1, \dots, n - 1$

$$L_{ik} \leftarrow A_{ik} - \sum_{s=0}^{k-1} L_{is} U_{sk}$$

endfor

for $j = k + 1, k + 2, \dots, n - 1$

$$U_{kj} \leftarrow [A_{kj} - \sum_{s=0}^{k-1} L_{ks} U_{sj}] / L_{kk}$$

endfor

endfor

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 & -3 \\ 3 & 17 & 3 \\ -3 & 3 & 27 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 16 & 0 \\ -3 & 4 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

Cholesky Algorithm

♣ Algorithm: $A \in R^{n \times n}$, $A = LL^t$, A is positive definite and L is lower- Δ .

for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$

$$L_{jj} \leftarrow [A_{jj} - \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} L_{jk}^2]^{1/2}$$

for $i = j + 1, j + 2, \dots, n - 1$

$$L_{ij} \leftarrow [A_{ij} - \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} L_{ik} L_{jk}] / L_{jj}$$

endfor

endfor

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 & -3 \\ 3 & 17 & 3 \\ -3 & 3 & 27 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = LL^t$$

Vector Norms

Definition: A vector norm on R^n is a function

$$\tau : R^n \rightarrow R^+ = \{x \geq 0 \mid x \in R\}$$

that satisfies

- (1) $\tau(\mathbf{x}) > 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \quad \tau(\mathbf{0}) = 0$
- (2) $\tau(c\mathbf{x}) = |c|\tau(\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall c \in R, \quad \mathbf{x} \in R^n$
- (3) $\tau(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq \tau(\mathbf{x}) + \tau(\mathbf{y}) \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in R^n$

Hölder norm (p -norm) $\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$ for $p \geq 1$.

- (p=1) $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ (Mahattan or City-block distance)
- (p=2) $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2)^{1/2}$ (Euclidean distance)
- (p=∞) $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{|x_i|\}$ (∞ -norm)

Matrix Norms

Definition: A matrix norm on $R^{m \times n}$ is a function

$$\tau : R^{m \times n} \rightarrow R^+ = \{x \geq 0 \mid x \in R\}$$

that satisfies

- (1) $\tau(A) > 0 \quad \forall A \neq O, \tau(O) = 0$
- (2) $\tau(cA) = |c|\tau(A) \quad \forall c \in R, A \in R^{m \times n}$
- (3) $\tau(A + B) \leq \tau(A) + \tau(B) \quad \forall A, B \in R^{m \times n}$

Consistency Property: $\tau(AB) \leq \tau(A)\tau(B) \quad \forall A, B$

- (a) $\tau(A) = \max\{|a_{ij}| \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$
- (b) $\|A\|_F = \left[\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2 \right]^{1/2}$ (Fröbenius norm)

Subordinate Matrix Norm: $\|A\| = \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\| \neq 0} \{\|A\mathbf{x}\| / \|\mathbf{x}\|\}$

- (1) If $A \in R^{m \times n}$, then $\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} (\sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}|)$
- (2) If $A \in R^{m \times n}$, then $\|A\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} (\sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|)$
- (3) Let $A \in R^{n \times n}$ be real symmetric, then $\|A\|_2 = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |\lambda_i|$, where $\lambda_i \in \lambda(A)$

Matrix Condition Number

♣ $Cond(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|$

For the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1.5 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 2.5 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & -0.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Cond_1(A) = \|A\|_1 \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_1 = 6 \times 4.5 = 27$$

$$Cond_\infty(A) = \|A\|_\infty \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_\infty = 8 \times 3.5 = 28$$

$$Cond_2(A) = \|A\|_2 \cdot \|A^{-1}\|_2 = 5.7229 \times 3.0566 = 17.4930$$

Sensitivity and Error Bounds

Let \mathbf{x} and $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ be the solutions to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ and $A\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{b}}$, respectively, where $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x} + \Delta\mathbf{x}$, $\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{b} + \Delta\mathbf{b}$. Then

$$\|\mathbf{b}\| = \|A\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|\mathbf{x}\| \quad \text{or} \quad \|\mathbf{x}\| \geq \frac{\|\mathbf{b}\|}{\|A\|}$$

$$\|\Delta\mathbf{x}\| = \|A^{-1}\Delta\mathbf{b}\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|\Delta\mathbf{b}\|$$

Thus

$$\frac{\|\Delta\mathbf{x}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|\Delta\mathbf{b}\| \cdot \frac{\|A\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|} \leq \text{Cond}(A) \cdot \frac{\|\Delta\mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

Similarly, suppose that $(A + E)\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{b}$ and $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, we have

$$\frac{\|\Delta\mathbf{x}\|}{\|\tilde{\mathbf{x}}\|} \leq \text{Cond}(A) \cdot \frac{\|E\|}{\|A\|}$$

Further derivations to get

$$\frac{\|\Delta\mathbf{x}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \text{Cond}(A) \cdot \left(\frac{\|\Delta\mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|} + \frac{\|E\|}{\|A\|} \right)$$

Iterative Methods for Solving Linear Systems

1. Iterative methods are most useful in solving *large sparse* system.
2. One advantage is that the iterative methods may not require any extra storage and hence are more practical.
3. One disadvantage is that after solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_1$, one must start over again from the beginning in order to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_2$.

♣ Jacobi Method

Given $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, write $A = C - M$, where C is nonsingular and easily invertible. Then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow (C - M)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow C\mathbf{x} = M\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = C^{-1}M\mathbf{x} + C^{-1}\mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = B\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}, \text{ where}$$

$$B = C^{-1}M, \mathbf{c} = C^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

Suppose we start with an initial $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$, then

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = B\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \mathbf{c} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = B\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{c}$$

Jacobi Iterative Method for Solving Linear Systems

Suppose \mathbf{x} is a solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \mathbf{x} &= (B\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \mathbf{c}) - (B\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}) = B(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x} &= B^k(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}) \\ \|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}\| &\leq \|B^k\| \cdot \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}\| \leq \|B\|^k \cdot \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}\| \\ \|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}\| &\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty \text{ if } \|B = C^{-1}M\| < 1.\end{aligned}$$

- For simplest computations, 1-norm or ∞ -norm is used.
- The simplest choice of C, M with $A = C - M$ is $C = \text{Diag}(A)$, $M = -(A - C)$.

Theorem: Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in R^n$ be arbitrary and define $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = B\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{c}$ for $k = 0, 1, \dots$. If \mathbf{x} is a solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, then the necessary and sufficient condition for $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ is $\|B\| < 1$.

Theorem: If A is diagonally dominant, i.e., $|a_{ii}| > \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Let $A = C - M$ and $B = C^{-1}M$, then

$$\|B\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n |b_{ij}| \right\} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left\{ \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{|a_{ij}|}{|a_{ii}|} \right\} < 1$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 1 \\ 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

Then

$$B = C^{-1}M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -0.1 \\ -0.2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{c} = C^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.1 \\ 1.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = B\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.1 \\ 1.2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.98 \\ 0.98 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.002 \\ 1.004 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gauss-Seidel Method

Given $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, write $A = C - M$, where C is nonsingular and easily invertible.

Jacobi: $C = \text{diag}(a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn})$, $M = -(A - C)$

Gauss-Seidel: $A = (D - L) - U = C - M$, where $C = D - L$, $M = U$ for Jacobi

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in R^n$ be nonzero, then $C\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = M\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{b}$ implies that

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

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

$$x_1^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{11}} \left(- \sum_{j=2}^n a_{1j} x_j^{(k)} + b_1 \right)$$

$$x_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left(- \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} + b_i \right), \quad \text{for } i = 2, 3, \dots, n$$

The difference between *Jacobi* and *Gauss-Seidel* iteration is that in the latter case, one is using the coordinates of $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ as soon as they are calculated rather than in the next iteration. The program for *Gauss-Seidel* is much simpler.

Convergence of Gauss-Seidel Iterations

Theorem: If A is diagonally dominant, i.e., $|a_{ii}| > \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then Gauss-Seidel iteration converges to a solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

Proof: Denote $A = (D - L) - U$ and let

$$\alpha_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} |a_{ji}|, \quad \beta_j = \sum_{i=j+1}^n |a_{ji}|, \quad \text{and} \quad R_j = \frac{\beta_j}{|a_{jj}| - \alpha_j}$$

Since A is diagonally dominant, then $|a_{jj}| > \alpha_j + \beta_j$, thus

$$R_j = \frac{\beta_j}{|a_{jj}| - \alpha_j} < \frac{|a_{jj}| - \alpha_j}{|a_{jj}| - \alpha_j} = 1 \quad \forall 1 \leq j \leq n$$

Therefore, $R = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} R_j < 1$.

The remaining problem is to show that $\|B\|_\infty = \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty=1} \|B\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \leq R < 1$, where $B = C^{-1}M = (D - L)^{-1}U$.

Let $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = 1$ and $\mathbf{y} = B\mathbf{x}$, then $\|\mathbf{y}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |y_i| = |y_k|$ for some k .

Then

$$\mathbf{y} = B\mathbf{x} = (D - L)^{-1}U\mathbf{x}$$

$$(D - L)\mathbf{y} = U\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow D\mathbf{y} = L\mathbf{y} + U\mathbf{x}$$

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

Then

$$y_k = \frac{1}{a_{kk}} \left(-\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} a_{ki}y_i - \sum_{i=k+1}^n a_{ki}x_i \right)$$

$$\|\mathbf{y}\|_\infty = |y_k| \leq \frac{1}{|a_{kk}|} (\alpha_k \|\mathbf{y}\|_\infty + \beta_k \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty)$$

which implies that for all \mathbf{x} with $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = 1$,

$$\|B\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \|\mathbf{y}\|_\infty \leq \frac{\beta_k}{|a_{kk}| - \alpha_k} = R_k < 1$$

Thus, $\|B\|_\infty = \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty=1} \|B\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \leq R < 1$

Example for Gauss-Seidel Iterations

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 1 \\ 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = D - L - U$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$x_1^{(1)} = \frac{1}{10}(-a_{12}x_2^{(0)} + b_1) = 1.1$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{1}{10}(-a_{21}x_1^{(1)} - 0 + b_2) = 0.98$$

Moreover,

$$x_1^{(2)} = \frac{1}{10}(-a_{12}x_2^{(1)} + b_1) = 1.002$$

$$x_2^{(2)} = \frac{1}{10}(-a_{21}x_1^{(2)} - 0 + b_2) = 0.9996$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = [1.1, 0.98]^t$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = [1.002, 0.9996]^t$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = [1.00004, 0.99992]^t$$