- **d.** Let  $Q = (D L)^{-1}A$ . Show that  $T_g = I Q$  and  $P = Q^t[AQ^{-1} A + (Q^t)^{-1}A]Q$ .
- **e.** Show that  $P = Q^t DQ$  and *P* is positive definite.
- **f.** Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $T_g$  with eigenvector  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Use part (b) to show that  $\mathbf{x}^t P \mathbf{x} > 0$  implies that  $|\lambda| < 1$ .
- **g.** Show that  $T_g$  is convergent and prove that the Gauss-Seidel method converges.
- **18.** The forces on the bridge truss described in the opening to this chapter satisfy the equations in the following table:



This linear system can be placed in the matrix form



- **a.** Explain why the system of equations was reordered.
- **b.** Approximate the solution of the resulting linear system to within  $10^{-2}$  in the  $l_{\infty}$  norm using as initial approximation the vector all of whose entries are 1s with **(i)** the Jacobi method and **(ii)** the Gauss-Seidel method.

# **7.4 Relaxation Techniques for Solving Linear Systems**

We saw in Section 7.3 that the rate of convergence of an iterative technique depends on the spectral radius of the matrix associated with the method. One way to select a procedure to accelerate convergence is to choose a method whose associated matrix has minimal spectral radius. Before describing a procedure for selecting such a method, we need to introduce a new means of measuring the amount by which an approximation to the solution to a linear system differs from the true solution to the system. The method makes use of the vector described in the following definition.

The word residual means what is left over, which is an appropriate name for this vector.

*Definition 7.23* Suppose  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is an approximation to the solution of the linear system defined by  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ . The **residual vector** for  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$  with respect to this system is  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} - A\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ .

> In procedures such as the Jacobi or Gauss-Seidel methods, a residual vector is associated with each calculation of an approximate component to the solution vector. The true objective is to generate a sequence of approximations that will cause the residual vectors to converge rapidly to zero. Suppose we let

$$
\mathbf{r}_i^{(k)} = (r_{1i}^{(k)}, r_{2i}^{(k)}, \dots, r_{ni}^{(k)})^t
$$

denote the residual vector for the Gauss-Seidel method corresponding to the approximate solution vector  $\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}$  defined by

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

The *m*th component of  $\mathbf{r}_i^{(k)}$  is

$$
r_{mi}^{(k)} = b_m - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{mj} x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i}^n a_{mj} x_j^{(k-1)},
$$
\n(7.13)

or, equivalently,

$$
r_{mi}^{(k)} = b_m - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{mj} x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{mj} x_j^{(k-1)} - a_{mi} x_i^{(k-1)},
$$

for each  $m = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ .

In particular, the *i*th component of  $\mathbf{r}_i^{(k)}$  is

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

so

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

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

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

so Eq. (7.14) can be rewritten as

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

Consequently, the Gauss-Seidel method can be characterized as choosing  $x_i^{(k)}$  to satisfy

$$
x_i^{(k)} = x_i^{(k-1)} + \frac{r_{ii}^{(k)}}{a_{ii}}.\tag{7.16}
$$

We can derive another connection between the residual vectors and the Gauss-Seidel technique. Consider the residual vector  $\mathbf{r}_{i+1}^{(k)}$ , associated with the vector  $\mathbf{x}_{i+1}^{(k)}$  =  $(x_1^{(k)}, \ldots, x_i^{(k)}, x_{i+1}^{(k-1)}, \ldots, x_n^{(k-1)})^t$ . By Eq. (7.13) the *i*th component of  $\mathbf{r}_{i+1}^{(k)}$  is

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

By the manner in which  $x_i^{(k)}$  is defined in Eq. (7.15) we see that  $r_{i,i+1}^{(k)} = 0$ . In a sense, then, the Gauss-Seidel technique is characterized by choosing each  $x_{i+1}^{(k)}$  in such a way that the *i*th component of  $\mathbf{r}_{i+1}^{(k)}$  is zero.

Choosing  $\hat{x}_{i+1}^{(k)}$  so that one coordinate of the residual vector is zero, however, is not necessarily the most efficient way to reduce the norm of the vector  $\mathbf{r}_{i+1}^{(k)}$ . If we modify the Gauss-Seidel procedure, as given by Eq. (7.16), to

$$
x_i^{(k)} = x_i^{(k-1)} + \omega \frac{r_{ii}^{(k)}}{a_{ii}},
$$
\n(7.17)

then for certain choices of positive  $\omega$  we can reduce the norm of the residual vector and obtain significantly faster convergence.

Methods involving Eq. (7.17) are called **relaxation methods**. For choices of  $\omega$  with  $0 < \omega < 1$ , the procedures are called **under-relaxation methods**. We will be interested in choices of  $\omega$  with  $1 < \omega$ , and these are called **over-relaxation methods**. They are used to accelerate the convergence for systems that are convergent by the Gauss-Seidel technique. The methods are abbreviated **SOR**, for **Successive Over-Relaxation**, and are particularly useful for solving the linear systems that occur in the numerical solution of certain partial-differential equations.

Before illustrating the advantages of the SOR method, we note that by using Eq. (7.14), we can reformulate Eq. (7.17) for calculation purposes as

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

To determine the matrix form of the SOR method, we rewrite this 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,

$$
\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = (D - \omega L)^{-1} [(1 - \omega)D + \omega U] \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega (D - \omega L)^{-1} \mathbf{b}.
$$
 (7.18)

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

$$
\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = T_{\omega} \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{c}_{\omega}.\tag{7.19}
$$

**Example 1** The linear system  $Ax = b$  given by

$$
4x1 + 3x2 = 24,\n3x1 + 4x2 - x3 = 30,\n- x2 + 4x3 = -24,
$$

has the solution (3, 4, −5)*<sup>t</sup>* . 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  $k = 1, 2, \ldots$ , the equations for the Gauss-Seidel method are

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

and the equations for the SOR method with  $\omega = 1.25$  are

$$
x_1^{(k)} = -0.25x_1^{(k-1)} - 0.9375x_2^{(k-1)} + 7.5,
$$
  
\n
$$
x_2^{(k)} = -0.9375x_1^{(k)} - 0.25x_2^{(k-1)} + 0.3125x_3^{(k-1)} + 9.375,
$$
  
\n
$$
x_3^{(k)} = 0.3125x_2^{(k)} - 0.25x_3^{(k-1)} - 7.5.
$$

The first seven iterates for each method are listed in Tables 7.3 and 7.4. 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  $\omega = 1.25$ .

**Table 7.3**



**Table 7.4**



An obvious question to ask is how the appropriate value of  $\omega$  is chosen when the SOR method is used. Although no complete answer to this question is known for the general  $n \times n$  linear system, the following results can be used in certain important situations.

#### *Theorem 7.24* **(Kahan)**

If  $a_{ii} \neq 0$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ , then  $\rho(T_\omega) \geq |\omega - 1|$ . This implies that the SOR method can converge only if  $0 < \omega < 2$ . ×,

The proof of this theorem is considered in Exercise 9. The proof of the next two results can be found in [Or2], pp. 123–133. These results will be used in Chapter 12.

#### *Theorem 7.25* **( Ostrowski-Reich)**

If *A* is a positive definite matrix and  $0 < \omega < 2$ , then the SOR method converges for any choice of initial approximate vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ . п *Theorem 7.26* If *A* is positive definite and tridiagonal, then  $\rho(T_g) = [\rho(T_j)]^2 < 1$ , and the optimal choice of  $\omega$  for the SOR method is

$$
\omega = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{1 - [\rho(T_j)]^2}}.
$$

 $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ 

 $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ 

With this choice of  $\omega$ , we have  $\rho(T_{\omega}) = \omega - 1$ .

**Example 2** Find the optimal choice of  $\omega$  for the SOR method for the matrix

$$
A = \left[ \begin{array}{rrr} 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 \end{array} \right].
$$

*Solution* This matrix is clearly tridiagonal, so we can apply the result in Theorem 7.26 if we can also who that it is positive definite. Because the matrix is symmetric, Theorem 6.24 on page 416 states that it is positive definite if and only if all its leading principle submatrices has a positive determinant. This is easily seen to be the case because

$$
\det(A) = 24, \quad \det\left(\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 7, \quad \text{and} \quad \det\left(\begin{bmatrix} 4 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 4.
$$

Because

$$
T_j = D^{-1}(L+U) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -3 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -0.75 & 0 \\ -0.75 & 0 & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.25 & 0 \end{bmatrix},
$$

we have

$$
T_j - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & -0.75 & 0 \\ -0.75 & -\lambda & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.25 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix},
$$

so

$$
\det(T_j - \lambda I) = -\lambda(\lambda^2 - 0.625).
$$

Thus

$$
\rho(T_j) = \sqrt{0.625}
$$

and

$$
\omega = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{1 - [\rho(T_j)]^2}} = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{1 - 0.625}} \approx 1.24.
$$

This explains the rapid convergence obtained in Example 1 when using  $\omega = 1.25$ .

We close this section with Algorithm 7.3 for the SOR method.

### **SOR**

**ALGORITHM 7.3**

To solve  $A$ **x** = **b** given the parameter  $\omega$  and an initial approximation **x**<sup>(0)</sup>:

**INPUT** the number of equations and unknowns *n*; the entries  $a_{ij}$ ,  $1 \le i, j \le n$ , of the matrix A; the entries  $b_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ , of **b**; the entries  $XO_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ , of  $XO = X^{(0)}$ ; the parameter ω; tolerance *TOL*; maximum number of iterations *N*.

OUTPUT the approximate solution  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  or a message that the number of iterations was exceeded.

Step 1 Set  $k = 1$ .

Step 2 While  $(k \leq N)$  do Steps 3–6.

Step 3 For  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ 

$$
\text{set } x_i = (1 - \omega)XO_i + \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \Big[ \omega \left( - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} XO_j + b_i \right) \Big].
$$

Step 4 If  $||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{XO}|| < \text{TOL}$  then OUTPUT  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ ;

(*The procedure was successful*.) STOP.

Step 5 Set  $k = k + 1$ .

Step 6 For  $i = 1, \ldots, n$  set  $XO_i = x_i$ .

Step 7 OUTPUT ('Maximum number of iterations exceeded'); (*The procedure was successful*.) STOP.

The*NumericalAnalysis*subpackage of the Maple *Student* package implements the SOR method in a manner similar to that of the Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel methods. The SOR results in Table 7.4 are obtained by loading both *NumericalAnalysis* and *LinearAlgebra*, the matrix *A*, the vector  $\mathbf{b} = [24, 30, -24]^t$ , and then using the command

*IterativeApproximate*( $A$ ,  $b$ , *initialapprox* = *Vector*( $[1., 1., 1., 1.]$ ), *tolerance* =  $10^{-3}$ , *maxiterations* = 20, *stoppingcriterion* = *relative*(*infinity*), *method* = *SOR*(1.25), *output* = *approximates*)

The input *method* =  $SOR(1.25)$  indicates that the SOR method should use the value  $\omega$  = 1.25.

## **EXERCISE SET 7.4**

**1.** Find the first two iterations of the SOR method with  $\omega = 1.1$  for the following linear systems, using  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \mathbf{0}$ :



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- **3.** Repeat Exercise 1 using  $\omega = 1.3$ .
- **4.** Repeat Exercise 2 using  $\omega = 1.3$ .
- **5.** Use the SOR method with  $\omega = 1.2$  to solve the linear systems in Exercise 1 with a tolerance  $TOL = 10^{-3}$  in the  $l_{\infty}$  norm.
- **6.** Use the SOR method with  $\omega = 1.2$  to solve the linear systems in Exercise 2 with a tolerance  $TOL = 10^{-3}$  in the  $l_{\infty}$  norm.
- **7.** Determine which matrices in Exercise 1 are tridiagonal and positive definite. Repeat Exercise 1 for these matrices using the optimal choice of  $\omega$ .
- **8.** Determine which matrices in Exercise 2 are tridiagonal and positive definite. Repeat Exercise 2 for these matrices using the optimal choice of  $\omega$ .
- **9.** Prove Kahan's Theorem 7.24. [*Hint:* If  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  are eigenvalues of  $T_\omega$ , then det  $T_\omega = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$ . Since det  $D^{-1} = det(D - \omega L)^{-1}$  and the determinant of a product of matrices is the product of the determinants of the factors, the result follows from Eq. (7.18).]
- **10.** The forces on the bridge truss described in the opening to this chapter satisfy the equations in the following table:



This linear system can be placed in the matrix form



- **a.** Explain why the system of equations was reordered.
- **b.** Approximate the solution of the resulting linear system to within  $10^{-2}$  in the  $l_{\infty}$  norm using as initial approximation the vector all of whose entries are 1s and the SOR method with  $\omega = 1.25$ .