## QUASI-TRIDIAGONAL MATRICES AND TYPE-INSENSITIVE DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS\*

BY

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1. Introduction. In solving linear partial differential equations by finite difference methods a boundary value problem is reduced to solving a set of linear equations. In such instances the matrix involved usually takes a special form and consists mainly of zeros. Many of these matrices fall into the class to be considered here which may be called *quasi-tridiagonal* matrices. That is, we consider partitioned matrices of the form

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} M_{1} & E_{1} & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ D_{2} & M_{2} & E_{2} & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ 0 & D_{3} & M_{3} & E_{3} & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 & D_{q-1} & M_{q-1} & E_{q-1} \\ 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 & D_{q} & M_{q} \end{bmatrix} = [D_{n}, M_{n}, E_{n}]_{1}^{q}, \quad (1.1)$$

where the  $D_n$ ,  $M_n$ ,  $E_n$  are matrices with the same number of rows,  $E_n$ ,  $M_{n+1}$ ,  $D_{n+2}$  have the same number of columns, and the  $M_n$  are square. We propose to solve

$$Qv = g \tag{1.2}$$

by direct methods.

Various discretizations lead to matrices of this type. That the usual finite-difference approximation of certain boundary problems for the Poisson and the bi-harmonic equation yield matrices of the form (1.1) has been shown by O. Karlqvist [4], A. F. Cornock [2], L. H. Thomas [8] and others [6, 7]. Whereas the usual method of solution of the resulting linear equation is by iteration these authors propose direct methods for solving the above problems.

The processes described here are, in part, extensions of those described by Karlqvist [4] and Cornock [2]. Furthermore it is shown that the finite difference equations obtained from symmetric positive systems, as defined by K. O. Friedrichs [5], also fall into the class of matrices of the form (1.1). These include, in addition to pure elliptic or hyperbolic equations, a certain class of boundary problems for equations of mixed type such as the Tricomi equation. Where iterative methods for such problems seem to present difficulties, even when Q is positive definite and symmetric, the direct methods for solving (1.2) are shown below to be feasible for this larger class of problems.

A criterion is given for the process to apply which is similar to that found for the

<sup>\*</sup>Manuscript received July 15, 1959; revised manuscript received December 1, 1959. This work presented in this paper is supported by the AEC Computing and Applied Mathematics Center, Institute of Mathematical Sciences, New York University, under Contract AT(30-1)-1480 with the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission.

LDU theorem [3]. It is also shown that when the  $M_n$  have the same order p, and the  $D_n$  are easily invertible, then the process may be reduced to multiplication of matrices and the inversion of one matrix of order p. This last fact was noted by Cornock [2] for the Poisson and bi-harmonic case.

More generally, if for  $r = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ;  $k \leq q$ , and for integers q, such that  $1 \leq q_1 < q_2 < \dots < q_k = q$ ,  $q_0 = 0$ , the matrices  $M_n$ , for  $q_{r-1} < n \leq q_r$ , all have the same order p, then it is shown that the process may be reduced to multiplications and the inversion of k matrices of orders  $p_1, \dots, p_k$ .

A code to solve (1.2) has been written by Max Goldstein for the I.B.M.-704 at New York University and this code has been successfully applied to a symmetric positive problem for the Tricomi equation.

This code has also been applied to solving pure elliptic problems to compare the direct method with iterative methods. The direct method was used, for instance to solve the bi-harmonic boundary problem of a simply supported rectangular slab. A comparison of running time would indicate that the direct method is considerably faster than iterative methods for this type of problem.

2. Direct methods. We seek a reduction of Q to the form

$$Q = LU, (2.1)$$

where L and U are square matrices, partitioned in the same manner as Q, of the form

$$L = [C_n, I_n, 0]_1^q, \qquad (2.2)$$

$$U = [0, A_n, E_n]_1^a, \qquad (2.3)$$

where  $I_n$  is a unit matrix of the same order as  $M_n$ . We also partition the column vectors v and g in the same manner.

	$v_1$			$\left\lceil g_{1} \right\rceil$
v =	<i>v</i> 2	,	<i>a</i> =	$ g_2 $
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	_v			$\lfloor g_q \rfloor$

Comparing right and left hand sides of (2.1) we set, for  $1 < n \leq q$ ,

$$A_1 = M_1$$
,  $D_n = C_n A_{n-1}$ ,  $M_n = C_n E_{n-1} + A_n$ 

If the  $A_n$  are non-singular, the  $A_n$  and  $C_n$  may be obtained recursively from

$$A_n = M_n - D_n A_{n-1}^{-1} E_{n-1} , \qquad A_1 = M_1$$
(2.4)

$$C_n = D_n A_{n-1}^{-1}, \qquad 1 < n \le q.$$
(2.5)

To solve for v let Uv = y, then Ly = g; y and v may then be obtained recursively from

$$y_n = g_n - C_n y_{n-1} \qquad 1 < n \le q, \tag{2.6}$$

where

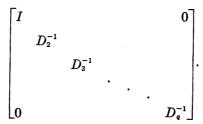
$$y_1 = g_1$$
, and  
 $v_n = A_n^{-1}(y_n - E_n v_{n+1})$   $1 \le n < q$ , (2.7)

where

$$v_a = A_a^{-1} y_a \, .$$

We will refer to this recursive method (2.4)-(2.7) as an LU-process. It should be noted that this process requires the inversion of  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $A_q$  and their storage for use on the "backward sweep" (2.7).

In certain cases most of these inversions may be avoided. For instance, if all the matrices  $M_n$  are of the same order p and the  $D_n$  are easily invertible, we may premultiply Q by the quasi-diagonal matrix



We may thus assume that  $D_n = I$ ,  $2 \le n \le q$ . If we let  $A_n = H_{n-1}^{-1}H_n$  then the LU-process becomes

$$H_n = H_{n-1}M_n - H_{n-2}E_{n-1} \qquad 2 \le n \le q, \tag{2.8}$$

where  $H_0 = I, H_1 = M_1$ ;

$$H_{n-1}(y_n - g_n) = -H_{n-2}y_{n-1}, \qquad 2 \le n \le q, \qquad (2.9)$$

where  $y_1 = g_1$  and  $H_q v_q = H_{q-1} y_q$ .

If we let  $u_n = H_{n-1}y_n$  then from (2.9)

$$u_n = H_{n-1}g_n - u_{n-1}, \quad 1 < n \le q, \quad (2.10)$$

where  $u_1 = g_1$ . To obtain the  $v_n$  we go back to the original equation (1.2) whence

$$v_{n-1} = g_n - M_n v_n - E_n v_{n+1} , \quad 1 \le n < q - 1$$
(2.11)

where  $v_{q-1} = g_q - M_q v_q$  and  $v_q$  is solved from

$$H_a v_a = u_a . \tag{2.12}$$

We have, in this case, only one matrix  $H_q$  of order p to invert.

This recursion (2.8)-(2.12) will be called an *H*-process. This method may be used, for instance, in solving problems for the Poisson or bi-harmonic equations over a rectangle. In the case of Poisson's equation the q inversions of the *LU*-process are reduced to solving only one set of p equations where p is the number of mesh points on a horizontal line. This fact was noted for these equations by Cornock [2] in specific examples.

For regions which are made up of rectangles a similar result may be obtained. For instance, in solving Poisson's equation for an L-shaped region made up of two rectangles  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$  each having  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$  points on a horizontal mesh line, respectively, only two matrices of order  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  need be inverted.

To treat the general case let us assume that for  $1 \le q_1 < q_2 < \cdots < q_k = q$ ,  $q_0 = 0$  the  $M_n$  have the same order  $p_r$  for  $q_{r-1} < n \le q_r$ . The matrix Q can then be partitioned again by combining those  $M_n$  having the same order. That is, let

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 $Q = [D'_n, M'_n, E'_n]_1^k$ 

where

$$D'_{r+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & D_{q_{r}+1} \\ & & 0 \\ & & \vdots \\ 0 & & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad 1 \le r < k,$$
$$M'_{r+1} = \begin{bmatrix} D_n , M_n , E_n \end{bmatrix}_{q_{r}+1}^{q_{r}+1}, \quad 0 \le r < k$$
$$E'_{r+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ E_{q_{r}+1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad 0 \le r < k - 1.$$

The LU-process can be performed for this new form for Q. Let  $g'_r$ ,  $y'_r$ ,  $v'_r$ ,  $1 \le r \le k$  be corresponding column vectors of dimension  $p_r$  repartitioned as Q, where, for instance, we denote

$$v'_{r+1} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{q_r+1} \\ \vdots \\ v_{q_r+1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad 0 \le r < k.$$

Let  $y'_1 = g'_1$ ,  $y'_2 = g'_2 - C'_2 y'_1$  where  $D'_2 = C'_2 A'_1$ . If we let

$$y_1' = A_1' w_1' \tag{2.13}$$

 $w'_1$  may be obtained by an *H*-process for (2.13). If we denote the *H* matrices that enter here by  $H_1$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $H_{a_1}$  then only  $H_{a_1}$  need be inverted and

$$y_{2}' = \begin{bmatrix} g_{q_{1}+1} - D_{q_{1}+1}w_{q_{1}} \\ g_{q_{1}+2} \\ \vdots \\ g_{q_{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus it is seen that only the last vector component  $w_{q_1}$  of  $w'_1$  is needed and the reverse sweep given by (2.11) may be omitted. It will also appear later that only  $w_{q_1}$  and  $H_{q_1}^{-1}H_{q_1-1}$ need be saved for future use. (It should be noted that where an H process is used the D matrices in  $M'_n$  are assumed to be non-singular and that this process is feasible only if these D's are easily, if not explicitly, invertible.)

To obtain  $y'_3$  we must compute  $A'_2$ , which would generally require the inversion of  $A'_1$ . This however is not the case here. Since if we decompose  $A'_1$  by the method of (2.1), (2.2), (2.3) into  $A'_1 = L_1U_1$  then a straightforward computation shows that

$$D_2'(A_1')^{-1}E_1' = D_2'U_1^{-1}L_1^{-1}E_1' = \begin{bmatrix} D_{a_1+1}H_{a_1}^{-1}H_{a_1-1}E_{a_1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Thus  $A'_2$  differs from  $M'_2$  only in that  $M_{q_1+1}$  is replaced by

$$M_{q_1+1} - D_{q_1+1}H_{q_1}^{-1}H_{q_1-1}E_{q_1}.$$

That is  $A'_2$  is also of the form (1.1) and has all of its M matrices of the same order  $p_2$ . We are therefore reduced to the previous case. We may proceed in this manner until all the  $y'_r$ ,  $1 \leq r \leq k$  have been computed and we note that  $v'_k = w'_k$ . In this last computation, of course, (2.11) will have to be used to get all of  $v'_k$ .

To obtain the other  $v'_r$  we note from (2.7) that, for r < k,

$$w'_r = w'_r - (A'_r)^{-1} E'_r v'_{r+1} = w'_r - z'_r$$

where we let  $z'_r$  be the solution of

$$A'_{r}z'_{r} = E'_{r}v'_{r+1} . (2.14)$$

If the last vector component  $v_{q}$ , of  $v'_{r}$  would be known the other components would be obtainable from the original equations as in (2.11). Since

$$E'_{r}v'_{r+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ E_{g}, v_{g,r+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

if follows from (2.10) and (2.12) that if an H-process were carried out for (2.14) then

$$z_{qr} = H_{qr}^{-1} H_{qr-1} E_{qr} v_{qr+1}$$
,

where  $H_{a,-1}^{-1}H_{a,-1}$  is the matrix that entered in the computation of  $w_{a,-1}$ . Thus if these are saved from before, the remaining  $v'_{a,-1}$  are obtained without any further matrix inversions.

Assuming therefore that the work to invert the *D*-matrices in the  $M'_n$  is negligible we see that for a problem involving k sets of *M*-matrices of equal order only the k matrices  $H_{q_1}$ ,  $H_{q_2}$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $H_{q_k}$  need be inverted. Thus in solving Poisson's or the bi-harmonic equation over a region made up of k adjoining rectangles the inversion of at most krelatively small matrices is required. A similar statement applies in higher dimensions.

We note that in the particular case where Q is the discrete Laplacian, where  $M_n = J$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, q, D_n$ ,  $E_n$  are identities and  $J = [1, -4, 1]_1^p$ , the inverse of  $H_q$  can be given explicitly [4]. If we denote the allied Chebyshev polynomials by

$$h_a(a) = rac{\sinh (q+1)x}{\sinh x}, \quad 2 \cosh x = a,$$

then  $H_q = h_q(J)$ . The eigenvalues of J and  $H_q$  are given by

$$\lambda_m = 2 \cos \frac{m\pi}{p+1} - 4, \quad h_q(\lambda_m), \quad m = 1, 2, \cdots, p,$$

respectively, and the matrix of normalized eigenvectors is

$$G = \left(\frac{2}{p+1}\right)^{1/2} \left\{ \sin \frac{km\pi}{p+1} \right\}_{k,m=1}^{p}.$$

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If we let

$$L = [h_q(\lambda_1), \cdots, h_q(\lambda_p)]$$

be a diagonal matrix then

where

 $H_{\mathfrak{g}}^{-1}=GL^{-1}G.$ 

For large problems the  $H_a$  may be ill-conditioned. For the above problem the *P*-condition  $P(H_a)$ , or ratio of largest to smallest eigenvalue of  $H_a$  is

$$P(H_q) \sim \frac{\pi \sinh 6 (q+1)}{(p+1) \sinh 6 \cdot \sinh \left(\frac{q+1}{p+1}\pi\right)},$$

so that this may get quite large for large q = p. The inversion of  $H_q$  may then present severe difficulties. It may however be feasible to break the problem into k groups as indicated above even though all the  $M_n$  have the same order.

Since (2.11) represents a marching process there is also the possibility of severe loss in accuracy in the value of  $v_1$  for large q. The value of p does not appear to be an important factor in this loss for the discrete Laplacian problem. In the cases tried for q = 5, a 704 code yielded results accurate to at least five significant digits for values of p = 5, 10, 20, 40.

3. Criterion for decomposition. A sufficient condition for the validity of the decomposition is similar to that given for the LDU theorem [3]. Let

$$Q_1 = M_1, \qquad Q_2 = \begin{pmatrix} M_1 E_1 \\ D_2 M_2 \end{pmatrix}, \cdots,$$
$$Q_k = [D_n, M_n, E_n]_1^k, \cdots, Q_q = Q.$$

If  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $Q_q$  are non-singular then the decomposition (2.1)-(2.3) exists, and is uniquely given by the recursion (2.4), (2.5). In this case det  $Q = \prod_{k=1}^{q} \det A_k$  and if the  $M_k$  all have the same order and  $D_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $D_q$  are non-singular then det  $Q = \det H_q$ .

The proof follows easily by induction. From the Schur-Frobenius formula

$$\det Q_{q+1} = \det \begin{bmatrix} Q_q & K \\ R & M_{q+1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \det Q_q \cdot \det (M_{q+1} - RQ_q^{-1}K)$$
$$R = (0 \cdots 0 D_{q+1}), \quad K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ E_q \end{bmatrix} \cdot \text{From the inductive hypothesis}$$
$$Q_q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A_1^{-1} & * \\ 0 & A_q^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_1 & 0 \\ \cdot & I_q \end{bmatrix},$$
$$K = \begin{bmatrix} I_1 & 0 \\ I_1 & I_q \end{bmatrix},$$

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so that  $RQ_a^{-1}K = D_{a+1}A_a^{-1}E_a$  and det  $Q_{a+1} = \det Q_a \cdot \det A_{a+1}$ . This implies that  $A_{a+1}$  is non-singular and also proves the formulas for det Q.

A sufficient condition for  $Q_1$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $Q_n$  to be non-singular is, clearly, that for all u

$$\gamma u^{T} Q u \ge u^{T} u \tag{3.1}$$

for some non-zero constant  $\gamma$ .

4. Applications. We consider, as an application of the above processes, the problem of solving a certain boundary problem for the Tricomi equation<sup>1</sup>

$$Tu \equiv yu_{xx} - u_{yy} - f(x, y) = 0$$
(4.1)

by a difference approximation given by Friedrichs [5]. These difference approximations for symmetric positive systems have been further investigated by C. K. Chu [1].

The problem for (4.1) is posed for the parallelogram

$$P: |y - x| \le t, \quad |x| \le r; t, \quad r > 0$$
(4.2)

such that

$$Tu = 0, \qquad (x, y) \varepsilon P \tag{4.3}$$

$$u_x + u_y = 0$$
 for  $|x - y| = t$ ,  $|x| \le r$  (4.4)

$$u_y = 0 \text{ for } x = -r, \quad |y - x| \le t.$$
 (4.5)

No condition is specified on x = r.

Since the treatment given by Friedrichs calls for a rectangular region, P is transformed by  $\xi = x$ ,  $\eta = y - x$  into the rectangle

$$|\xi| \le r, \qquad |\eta| \le t \tag{4.6}$$

and the equation (4.1) is written as the system

$$\begin{pmatrix} y & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} v_{i} - \begin{pmatrix} y & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} v_{\eta} = \begin{pmatrix} f \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
(4.7)

where  $y = \xi + \eta$ ,  $v = (v_1, v_2)^T$ ,  $v_1 = u_x$ ,  $v_2 = u_y$ . It is shown in [1] and [5] that after a premultiplication of (4.7) by a suitable two by two matrix of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \rho & y \\ 1 & \rho \end{bmatrix},$$

(4.7) and its boundary conditions can be brought into the required symmetric positive form. That is (4.1), (4.4), (4.5) can be written in the form

$$\frac{1}{2}(\alpha^{\xi}v_{\xi} + \alpha^{\xi}v_{\eta} + (\alpha^{\xi}v)_{\xi} + (\alpha^{\xi}v)_{\eta}) + \kappa v = g, \qquad (4.8)$$

where for a constant  $\epsilon$ 

$$\alpha^{\xi} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho y & y \\ y & \rho \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \rho = 1 + \epsilon \eta, \qquad (4.9)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>A subscript of  $x, y, \xi$  or  $\eta$  indicates partial derivative.

$$\alpha^{\eta} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} (1+\rho)y & \rho+y \\ \rho+y & 1+\rho \end{array} \right],$$
(4.10)

$$g = \begin{bmatrix} \rho f \\ f \end{bmatrix}, \tag{4.11}$$

$$\kappa = -\frac{1}{2}(\alpha_{\epsilon}^{\xi} + \alpha_{\eta}^{\eta}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \epsilon y & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & \epsilon \end{bmatrix} .$$
(4.12)

As is shown in [1] and [5] the boundary conditions can be written in the form

$$\beta v = \mu v, \qquad (4.13)$$

where

$$\beta = -\alpha^{\xi}, \quad \mu = -\alpha^{\xi}_{-} = - \begin{bmatrix} \rho y & y \\ y & \frac{2y}{\rho} - \rho \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for} \quad \xi = -r, \quad (4.14)$$

$$\beta = \alpha^{\xi}, \quad \mu = \alpha^{\xi}_{+} = \alpha^{\xi} \quad \text{for} \quad \xi = r$$
 (4.15)

$$\beta = -c^{*}, \quad \mu = -\alpha^{*} \quad \text{for} \quad \eta = -t \quad \text{where}$$

$$\alpha^{\eta}_{-} = \frac{1}{\rho - 1} \begin{bmatrix} 2\rho^{2} - y(\rho^{2} + 1) & (1 + \rho)(\rho - y) \\ (1 + \rho)(\rho - y) & \rho^{2} - 2y + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\beta = \alpha^{\eta}, \quad \mu = \alpha^{\eta}_{-} \quad \text{for} \quad \eta = t.$$

$$(4.16)$$

To obtain the difference equations we divide the intervals (-r, r), (-t, t) by the 2p - 1, 2q - 1 points,

$$\xi_i = (i - p) \Delta \xi, \quad 1 \le i \le 2p - 1, \quad 1 < p,$$
 (4.18)

$$\eta_i = (j - q) \Delta \eta, \quad 1 \le j \le 2q - 1, \quad 1 < q,$$
(4.19)

respectively, where p and q are odd integers and

$$\Delta \xi = \frac{r}{\rho - 1}$$
,  $\Delta \eta = \frac{t}{q - 1}$ 

are the respective interval lengths.

According to [5] an equation is written only for the pq odd numbered points  $(\xi_i, \eta_i)$ ,  $i = 2m - 1, j = 2n - 1, 1 \le m \le p, 1 \le n \le q$ . If we write  $v_{ij} = v(\xi_i, \eta_j), \alpha_{ij}^{\xi} = \alpha^{\xi}(\xi_i, \eta_j)$  and similarly for the other variables then the difference equations are given for an interior point 1 < m < p, 1 < n < q, by

$$\frac{1}{2h}\left(\alpha_{i+1,i}^{\xi}v_{i+2,j}-\alpha_{i-1,j}^{\xi}v_{i-2,j}\right)+\frac{1}{2k}\left(\alpha_{i,j+1}^{\xi}v_{i,j+2}-\alpha_{i,j-1}^{\xi}v_{i,j-2}\right)+\kappa_{ij}v_{ij}=g_{ij},\quad(4.20)$$

where  $h = 2 \Delta \xi$ ,  $k = 2 \Delta \eta$ .

For a boundary point at least one of the subscripts  $i \pm 1$ ,  $j \pm 1$  falls outside the range prescribed. In that case the  $\alpha$  and v of the corresponding term are both evaluated at that boundary point and then replaced according to the rule (4.13). The 2h and/or the 2k in the difference involved are also replaced by h and/or k, respectively.

As an illustration we consider the equation for the point  $(\xi_1, \eta_i)$ , not a corner:

$$\frac{1}{h} \left( \alpha_{2,i}^{\xi} v_{3,i} - (\alpha_{-}^{\xi})_{ij} v_{1j} \right) + \frac{1}{2k} \left( \alpha_{1,i+1}^{\eta} v_{1,i+2} - \alpha_{1,i-1}^{\eta} v_{1,i-2} \right) + \kappa_{1i} v_{1i} = g_{1i} .$$
(4.21)

For the corner point  $(\xi_1, \eta_1)$ , j, 2k,  $\alpha_{1,i-1}^{\eta}v_{1,i-2}$  are replaced by 1, k and  $(\alpha_{-1}^{\eta})_{11}v_{11}$ , respectively in (4.21). The other types of boundary points are treated in a similar manner.

Since each (m, n) yields one equation we obtain pq equations in the pq unknowns  $v_{ii}$ , or 2pq scalar equations for 2pq scalar unknowns. For each of the equations we note that  $v_{ii}$  appears with at most four of its neighbors  $v_{i+2,i}$ ,  $v_{i-2,i}$ ,  $v_{i,i-2}$ ,  $v_{i,i+2}$ . If we set  $v_m^n = v_{ii}$  and denote by  $v^n$  the vector with 2p scalar components arising from the points  $(\xi_i, \eta_{2n-1})$  on a horizontal line, the difference equations take the form

$$\begin{aligned} d_m^n v_m^{n-1} + a_m^n v_{m-1}^n + b_m^n v_m^n + c_m^n v_{m+1}^n + e_m^n v_m^{n+1} &= g_m^n \\ 1 &\le m \le p, \qquad 1 \le n \le q. \end{aligned}$$
(4.22)

This system can be written in the form (1.1), (1.2) where

$$M_{n} = [a_{m}^{n}, b_{m}^{n}, c_{m}^{n}]_{m=1}^{p},$$

$$D_{n} = [0, d_{m}^{n}, 0]_{m=1}^{p},$$

$$E_{n} = [0, e_{m}^{n}, 0]_{m=1}^{p},$$

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} v^{1} \\ v^{2} \\ \vdots \\ v^{q} \end{bmatrix}, \quad g = \begin{bmatrix} g^{1} \\ g^{2} \\ \vdots \\ g^{q} \end{bmatrix},$$

and where for 1 < m < p, 1 < n < q

$$d_m^n = -\frac{1}{2k} \alpha_{i,i-1}^n , \qquad a_m^n = -\frac{1}{2h} \alpha_{i-1,i}^{\xi}$$
$$b_m^n = \kappa_{ij} , \qquad c_m^n = \frac{1}{2h} \alpha_{i+1,j}^{\xi}$$
$$e_m^n = \frac{1}{2k} \alpha_{i,j+1}^n , \qquad g_m^n = g_{ij} .$$

For the boundary points  $n = 1, q, 1 \le m \le p$ ,

$$d_m^1 = 0, \qquad d_m^q = -\frac{1}{k} \alpha_{i,2q-2}^q$$
$$e_m^1 = \frac{1}{k} \alpha_{i,2}^q, \qquad e_m^f = 0$$

and for  $m = 1, p, 1 \leq n \leq q$ 

$$a_1^n = 0, \qquad a_p^n = -\frac{1}{h} \alpha_{2p-2,j}^{\xi}$$
  
 $c_1^n = \frac{1}{h} \alpha_{2,j}^{\xi}, \qquad c_p^n = 0.$ 

1960]

For m = 1, p, 1 < n < q,

$$b_1^n = \kappa_{ij} - \frac{1}{h} (\alpha_{-}^{\xi})_{ij} , \qquad b_p^n = \kappa_{ij} + \frac{1}{h} \alpha_{ij}^{\xi}$$

and for corner points

$$b_{m}^{n} = \kappa_{ij} - \frac{1}{h} (\alpha_{-}^{\xi})_{ij} - \frac{1}{k} (\alpha_{-}^{\eta})_{ij}, \quad m = 1, \quad n = 1,$$
  

$$b_{m}^{n} = \kappa_{ij} + \frac{1}{h} \alpha_{ij}^{\xi} - \frac{1}{k} (\alpha_{-}^{\eta})_{ij}, \quad m = p, \quad n = 1,$$
  

$$b_{m}^{n} = \kappa_{ij} - \frac{1}{h} (\alpha_{-}^{\xi})_{ij} + \frac{1}{k} (\alpha_{-}^{\eta})_{ij}, \quad m = 1, \quad n = q,$$
  

$$b_{m}^{n} = \kappa_{ij} + \frac{1}{h} \alpha_{ij}^{\xi} + \frac{1}{k} (\alpha_{-}^{\eta})_{ij}, \quad m = p, \quad n = q,$$

where in all cases i = 2m - 1, j = 2n - 1.

Thus this boundary problem for the Tricomi equation yields a matrix of the form (1.1). It has been shown by Chu [1] that, if  $\epsilon$ , r, t are properly chosen, e.g.,  $\epsilon = 1/2$ , r = 1/2, t = 1/5, this matrix satisfies the inequality (3.1). The LU-process is therefore applicable. Since the  $M_n$  all have the same order we may in fact use the H-process providing the  $D_n$  are non-singular and easily invertible. The  $D_n$  are quasi-diagonal, and a simple computation shows that for the above choice of  $\epsilon$ , r, t,  $\alpha^n$  is non-singular.

The above mentioned code was used to solve the problem described above for the choice of

$$f(x, y) = 6yx - 4y^2 + y - 1 - 2x$$

and was run for various values of p and q. The solution to the analytic problem (4.3)-(4.5) can be given explicitly by

$$u(x, y) = (y - x)^{2}(\frac{1}{2} + x) - x/25$$
(4.23)

and for (4.8)-(4.17) it is given by

$$v_1 = \eta^2 - \eta (1 + 2\xi) - 1/25,$$
  

$$v_2 = \eta (1 + 2\xi).$$
(4.24)

For the case of p = 15, q = 15 the code yielded an answer accurate generally to three significant digits. The values given at I(0, 0), II(1/2, 0) by the code are illustrated by Tables I, II respectively:

$p \times q$	<u>3 × 3</u>	$5 \times 5$	$7 \times 13$	$11 \times 7$	$15 \times 15$	
$v_1$	-6.22	-4.07	-4.02	-4.27	-4.04	
Ι						$\times 10^{-2}$
<i>v</i> <sub>2</sub>	-0.37	0.08	0.01	-0.04	-0.01	
<i>v</i> <sub>1</sub>	-7.13	-4.96	-4.34	-3.99	-3.99	
$\begin{matrix} II \\ v_2 \end{matrix}$	-1.01	0.54	0.14	-0.21 <sup>.</sup>	-0.05	$\times 10^{-2}$

The exact solution given by (4.24) for  $\eta = 0$  is  $v_1 = -.04$ ,  $v_2 = 0$ .

TOT

Other problems for the Tricomi equation were run to check the influence of the positivity and boundary conditions. In one case the two by two premultiplier matrix, needed to guarantee "positivity," was omitted. Again an approximate solution was obtained with a slight loss in accuracy. For instance the value at I given by the code was  $v_1 = -.0454$ ,  $v_2 = -.0019$ , for p = 11, q = 7.

A problem for the homogeneous Tricomi equation with inhomogeneous boundary conditions  $(\mu - \beta)v = f$ , for a given f, also yielded results similar to those given above.

Symmetric positive systems for dimensions higher than two may be treated in a similar manner.

As is pointed out in [2] and [4], problems for the bi-harmonic equation can also be put into the form (1.1). The LU-method was carried out for a simply supported rectangular plate and was found to give results accurate to about three significant digits for a 30 by 30 mesh. The running time for this problem was about an hour on the IBM-704.

The above methods may also be combined with iterative or group relaxation methods where each individual group relaxation is done by a direct method. This has already been proposed for a multigroup diffusion problem by Nohel and Timlake [6].

It may also be noted that, in problems where higher order difference schemes are available, the direct methods will require relatively little additional operations and thus one may require fewer mesh points in a given problem.

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