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DOUBLE-PRECONDITIONING FOR FRACTIONAL LINEAR SYSTEMS. APPLICATION TO STATIONARY FRACTIONAL PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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XAVIER ANTOINE* AND EMMANUEL LORIN[†]

5 Abstract. This paper is devoted to the numerical computation of fractional linear systems. The 6 proposed approach is based on an efficient computation of Cauchy integrals allowing to estimate the 7 real power of a (sparse) matrix A. A first preconditioner M is used to reduce the length of the Cauchy integral contour enclosing the spectrum of MA, hence allowing for a large reduction of the number 8 9 of quadrature nodes along the integral contour. Next, ILU-factorizations are used to efficiently solve the linear systems involved in the computation of approximate Cauchy integrals. Numerical 10 11 examples related to stationary (deterministic or stochastic) fractional Poisson-like equations are finally proposed to illustrate the methodology. 12

13 **Key word.** Real power of a matrix; Cauchy integral; preconditioning; deterministic and sto-14 chastic fractional stationary partial differential equations; unbounded domain.

1. Introduction. This paper is devoted to the efficient computation of the real power $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^*_+$ of a large and sparse matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ or $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ which is supposed to be diagonalizable in \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , and to the solution to *fractional linear systems*

18 (1.1)
$$A^{\alpha}u = f,$$

where $f \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is given. The most natural method, also used in this paper, is based on 19 the approximation of a Cauchy integral with a closed contour enclosing the spectrum 20 of A. In this case, classical quadrature rules can be used for an accurate approximation 21 of A^{α} [3]. Alternatively, A^{α} can be performed [6] by using Padé's approximants for z^{α} . 22 Another approach, proposed in [6] and more specifically devoted to the computation of 23 $A^{\alpha}b$ for a given vector b, is based on the solution to a differential system. A common 24 point to all these approaches is that they require estimates of matrix inverses or 25solutions to linear systems. More generally, we refer to [6] for a discussion about the 26 computation of g(A)b for a holomorphic function g. 27

As said above, our strategy is based on the approximation of a Cauchy integral by a numerical quadrature rule [3, 6] involving J_A quadrature nodes/points, which is clearly expected to be embarrassingly parallel. Unless when specified, we assume that the spectrum of the matrix A is unknown so that a direct spectral decomposition in an orthonormal basis cannot be *a priori* used. Then, for $k \ge 0$, A^{α} is defined as (see e.g. Theorem 6.2.28 from [7])

34 (1.2)
$$A^{\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} A^k \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{\alpha-k} (zI - A)^{-1} dz ,$$

where Γ_A is a closed contour in the complex plane enclosing the spectrum of the matrix A, I is the identity matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\mathbf{i} = \sqrt{-1}$. In practice, when using the Cauchy integral to estimate A^{α} , it is clearly necessary to have some informations about the spectrum of the matrix A to define the contour path (see Section 3). Selecting k

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³⁹ in (1.2) can be dependent on the location of the spectrum of A and the value of α . ⁴⁰ We refer to Subsection 4.6 for a discussion on the choice of the value of k. When ⁴¹ using the Cauchy integral approach, two important issues related to the question of ⁴² preconditioning can penalize the efficiency of the algorithm for solving a fractional ⁴³ linear system:

• first, the length $\ell(\Gamma_A)$ of the contour integral must be as small as possible to reduce the cost of the quadrature rule. Indeed, the number of linear systems to solve linearly grows according to the number J_A of quadrature points. To reduce this cost, we propose to use a preconditioned Cauchy integral formula based on a preconditioner M, leading to a contour length $\ell(\Gamma_{MA}) \ll \ell(\Gamma_A)$.

49 50

• Second, when the J_A (or J_{MA}) linear systems must be resolved, they also need to be preconditioned to be solved in conjunction with (for instance) a GMRES solver.

Proceeding this way, we then propose in Section 4 a double-preconditioning technique to efficiently estimate the real power of *A*. The first preconditioner allows for a reduction of the contour length, while the second preconditioner is used for efficiently solving the induced linear systems. Different Cauchy integral preconditioners are proposed and numerically tested. In Section 5, we present an efficient computational method for solving fractional linear systems, using the double-preconditioning method developed in Section 4.

This work is partially motivated by the computation of approximate solutions to deterministic or stochastic stationary fractional PDEs, and more specifically general 61 fractional Poisson-like equations [9]. Such stationary equations can be solved approximately by using traditional finite difference methods which can require the solution 62 to a so-called fractional linear system: find u such that $A^{\alpha}u = f$, for A, f, α given. A 63 Cauchy integral preconditioning is then proposed in Section 6 to efficiently solve this 64 problem for various cases of equations (deterministic or stochastic). Let us remark 65 that this strategy, used here to solve Poisson-like equations, can also be naturally 66 67 extended e.g. to fractional diffusion or Schrödinger equations (see again [9]). We propose several numerical experiments to illustrate the properties of the proposed 68 approach for the stationary case. 69

Along the paper, some basic numerical experiments are presented to illustrate the main ideas and concepts. A discussion about the computational complexity of the derived method and a comparison with a direct finite difference approximation of the fractional Poisson equation is also proposed in Subsection 6.2. Some more elaborated experiments are reported in Subsection 6.3. We conclude in Section 7.

2. Fast computation of A^{α} when $\mathbf{Sp}(A)$ is given. An explicit knowledge of 75the spectrum $\operatorname{Sp}(A) := \{\lambda_k\}_{1 \leq k \leq n}$ of the matrix A leads to an efficient computation 76 of A^{α} . Such a situation occurs for instance when considering that the matrix A is a 77 783-, 5- or 7-points approximation of the Laplace operator with null Dirichlet boundary conditions on a finite interval, a square or a cube, respectively. In this case, the 79 full spectrum (eigenvalues and eigenvectors) of the discrete laplacian A is indeed 80 analytically known. Assuming that the transition matrix P_A and diagonal matrix Λ_A 81 are explicitly known $(A = P_A \Lambda_A P_A^{-1})$, we then have: $A^{\alpha} = P_A \Lambda_A^{\alpha} P_A^{-1}$. Indeed, from 82 (1.2) we can write that 83

84

$$\begin{split} A^{\alpha} &= (2\pi i)^{-1} A \int_{\Gamma} z^{\alpha - 1} (zI - A)^{-1} dz = \left(P_A \Lambda_A P_A^{-1} \right)^{\alpha} \\ &= P_A (2\pi i)^{-1} \Lambda_A \int_{\Gamma} z^{\alpha - 1} (zI - \Lambda_A)^{-1} dz P_A = P_A \Lambda_A^{\alpha} P_A^{-1}. \end{split}$$

Consequently, to solve $A^{\alpha}u = f$, with $f \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and A invertible, we can proceed as follows $u = A^{-\alpha}f = P_A^{-1}\Lambda_A^{-\alpha}P_Af$, which in practice leads to solving

87
$$\begin{cases} v = \Lambda_A^{-\alpha} P_A f_A \\ P_A u = v . \end{cases}$$

Equivalently, for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, by using the residue theorem one gets

$$A^{\alpha} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \operatorname{Res}(z^{\alpha}(zI - A)^{-1}, \lambda_{k}) = P_{A}^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \operatorname{Res}(z^{\alpha}(zI - \Lambda_{A})^{-1}, \lambda_{k}) P_{A}$$
$$= P_{A}^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} D_{A}^{(k)} P_{A},$$

90 where $D_A^{(k)} = \{d_{A;ij}^{(k)}\}_{1 \le i,j \le n}$, and

91
$$d_{A;jj}^{(k)} = \begin{cases} \lambda_j^{\alpha} & \text{if } j = k\\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases}, \qquad d_{A;ij} = 0, \text{ if } i \neq j.$$

Obviously, we have $\Lambda_A = \sum_{k=1}^n D_A^{(k)}$. In this paper, we will exclude this situation, which makes trivial the computation of the solution to fractional linear systems.

3. Construction of the integral contour. In the general case, the direct strategy detailed in Section 2 cannot be used. We propose to develop an approach based on the discretization of the contour integral formula (1.2). Let us first consider the problem of building the contour Γ_A . When the spectrum location of the matrix *A* is known, Γ_A can be chosen such that its length is as small as possible. However, this is usually not the case, the crucial property of Γ_A being that it must enclose the whole spectrum of *A*. Various simple contours can be considered.

101 • A rectangular contour $\mathcal{G}(a, b, c, d)$ with left lower corner $a+\mathbf{i}b$ and right upper 102 corner $c + \mathbf{i}d$.

• A circular contour $C(z, R) := \{z + Re^{i\theta}, \theta \in [0, 2\pi]\}$, centered at $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and with radius R.

105 In the following, Γ_A will refer to a rectangular contour and C_A to a circular one. 106 The most natural and simple approach consists in evaluating the eigenvalue of A107 with largest modulus, i.e. $\lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} := \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |\lambda_i^{(A)}|$, where $\{\lambda_i^{(A)}\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ denotes the 108 (complex) eigenvalues of A (with possible multiplicity). As a consequence, we can 109 define the contour as a circle $C(\lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} + \varepsilon)$, where ε is a strictly positive number. When 100 the contour is circular (with k = 1 in formula (1.2)), the Cauchy integral can be 101 reformulated as follows

89

$$A^{\alpha} = (2\pi \mathbf{i})^{-1} A \int_{\mathcal{C}_A} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - A)^{-1} dz$$

= $(2\pi)^{-1} A \int_0^{2\pi} \left((\lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} + \varepsilon) e^{\mathbf{i}\theta} \right)^{(\alpha-1)} \left((\lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} + \varepsilon) e^{\mathbf{i}\theta} I - A \right)^{-1} (\lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} + \varepsilon) e^{\mathbf{i}\theta} d\theta.$

113 Alternatively, we can construct Γ_A as $\mathcal{G}(\lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} - \varepsilon, \lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} - \varepsilon, \lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} + \varepsilon, \lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} + \varepsilon)$.

This general approach can unfortunately be inefficient from a practical point of view to numerically approximate the Cauchy integral by a quadrature formula, for instance with a clusterized spectrum. If the matrix A is hermitian, the contour can naturally be constructed more precisely. Typically, if $\lambda_{\min}^{(A)} = \min_{1 \le j \le n} \lambda_j^{(A)}$ and $\lambda_{\max}^{(A)} = \max_{1 \le j \le n} \lambda_j^{(A)}$ are computed by using a standard eigenvalue solver, then the simplest contour is a rectangle $\mathcal{G}_A(\lambda_{\min}^{(A)} - \varepsilon, -\varepsilon, \lambda_{\max}^{(A)} + \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$. 4. Cauchy integral preconditioner. In this section, we propose a *Cauchy integral preconditioning* strategy which potentially allows for a drastic reduction of the integral contour (1.2), then leading to a much faster algorithm than with a direct computation of A^{α} .

4.1. General consideration. A Cauchy integral preconditioner is a matrix *M* such that

126 (4.1)
$$(MA)^{\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} MA \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - MA)^{-1} dz ,$$

127 where we expect that $\ell(\Gamma_{MA}) \ll \ell(\Gamma_A)$, ℓ denoting the length of a curve in the complex 128 plan. Typically, M will be chosen as a preconditioner for solving the linear system 129 Ax = b, i.e. $M \approx A^{-1}$. However, additional constraints need to be added. The 130 integral preconditioner of interest is two-fold

131 1. clustering of the spectrum of the preconditioned matrix MA,

132 2. accurate estimate of the center of the spectrum of MA, more specifically 1. This idea is summarized in Fig. 1. Getting a shorter integration path for the Cauchy

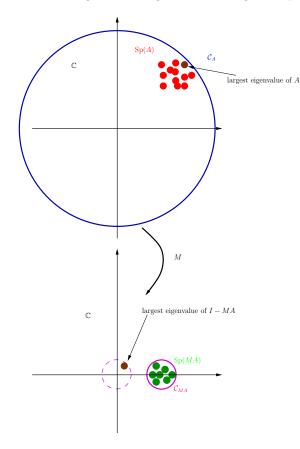
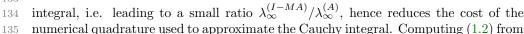


FIG. 1. Clusterized spectra of the matrices A and MA, and their respective circular contours C_A and C_{MA} by using the above strategy.

133



(4.1) is expected to be more efficient than with a direct computation. To determine the 136

contour for the preconditioned integral, we can proceed as for Γ_A but by computing 137

the eigenvalue of I - MA with largest amplitude, which is denoted by $\lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)}$. Next, we consider a circular contour $\mathcal{C}_{MA} = \mathcal{C}(1, \lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)} + \varepsilon)$ centered at 1 and with radius $\lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)}$. The reason for computing $\lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)}$ instead of $\lambda_{\infty}^{(MA)}$ is that I - MA has a spectrum centered at 0, implying that Sp(MA) is centered at 1. An alternative to the circular contour is a square domain : $\mathcal{G}(-\lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)} - \varepsilon, -\lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)} - \varepsilon, \lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)} + \varepsilon)$ 138139 140 141142 $\varepsilon, \lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)} + \varepsilon).$ 143

The following sections are devoted to the selection of the preconditioner M. Some 144constraints naturally arise, which makes its selection non-trivial. 145

4.2. Scaling Cauchy integral preconditioner. The simplest Cauchy integral 146preconditioner is a scaling matrix. Its interest may be limited, but in some cases it 147148 can be highly efficient. It simply consists in defining $M = c_A I$, where c_A is given by the 2-norm of the matrix A, i.e. $c_A = \|A\|_2 := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n - 0} \|Ax\|_2 / \|x\|_2$. An-149other possible choice, which is proved to be less efficient in practice, is $c_A = \lambda_{\infty}^{(A)} =$ 150 $\max_{i=1,\dots,N} |\lambda_i^{(A)}|$. This simple scaling naturally implies that the following relation is 151 satisfied 152

153 (4.2)
$$A^{\alpha} = M^{-\alpha} (MA)^{\alpha},$$

and $\ell(\Gamma_{MA}) < \ell(\Gamma_A)$. As a consequence, we expect a reduction of the length of 154the Cauchy integral contour and then an improvement of the overall efficiency of the 155algorithm for computing A^{α} . In general, the equality (4.2) is not valid, except for 156some very specific matrices and preconditioners. 157

4.3. Polynomial Cauchy integral preconditioner. The connection between 158 $(MA)^{\alpha}$ and A^{α} is a priori not trivial if M and A do not commute. However, if M is for 159instance a polynomial preconditioner $p_K(A)$ [5], then obviously $p_K(A)A = Ap_K(A)$. 160 The simplest approach to construct p_K consists in using a truncated Neumann series 161expansion. More precisely, for $\omega \in (0, 2/||A||), K \ge 1$ and $N := I - \omega A$, we define 162

163 (4.3)
$$M = p_K(A) = \omega(I + N + \dots + N^K).$$

Since $(\omega A)^{-1} = I + N + N^2 + \cdots$, we can easily deduce the inequality: $||I - MA|| \leq$ 164 $||N^{K+1}|| \leq ||N||^{K+1}$, where $||\cdot||$ is a matrix norm. Other polynomial preconditioners 165can be used (see Subsection 4.4) and more generally other types of Cauchy integral 166 preconditioners may as well be implemented (see below) as long as they i) allow for a 167 reduction of the length of the contour and ii) provide an efficient computation of A^{α} 168 (resp. $A^{-\alpha}$) from $(MA)^{\alpha}$ (resp. $(MA)^{-\alpha}$). This leads to the following proposition 169which is important from a practical point of view. 170

Proposition 4.1. Assuming that M is a polynomial Cauchy integral precondi-171tioner of the matrix A, then, for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^*$, we have $A^{\alpha} = M^{-\alpha} (MA)^{\alpha}$. 172

Proof. The proof is straightforward. For the matrix $A = \{A_{ij}\}_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$, we introduce 173 $M = p_K(A)$, for $K \ge 1$. Then, one gets AM = MA and (for k = 1 in (1.2)) 174

$$(MA)^{\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} MA \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - MA)^{-1} dz$$

= $(2\pi i)^{-1} AM \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} z^{\alpha-1} (zM^{-1} - A)^{-1} M^{-1} dz$.

175

176 Next, setting $z \leftarrow M^{-1}z$ and $\Gamma_A = M^{-1}\Gamma_{MA}$, we deduce that

$$(MA)^{\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} AM \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} M^{\alpha-1} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - A)^{-1} M^{-1} M dz$$

$$= (2\pi i)^{-1} A \int_{\Gamma_A} M^{\alpha} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - A)^{-1} dz$$

$$= M^{\alpha} (2\pi i)^{-1} A \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - A)^{-1} dz = M^{\alpha} A^{\alpha}.$$

178

Using a polynomial preconditioning leads to a reduction of the computational complexity of $p_K^{\alpha}(A)$ compared to A^{α} . In particular, we can easily prove that : $(p_K(A)A)^{\alpha} = p_K^{\alpha}(A)A^{\alpha}$, which means formally that $A^{\alpha} = p_K^{-\alpha}(A)(p_K(A)A)^{\alpha}$. However, evaluating A^{α} from $p_K^{\alpha}(A)$ is a priori not a simple task, although an iteration algorithm could be explored. At this stage, we propose an alternative preconditioning, particularly efficient for diagonally dominant matrices.

4.4. Differential-based preconditioner. We propose now a preconditioning method based on the solution to a differential system, used typically for computing $A^{\alpha}b$, for $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. For $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, we recall [2, 3, 6] that the *n*-dimensional dynamical system

189 (4.5)
$$y'(\tau) = -\alpha (A - I) (I + \tau (A - I))^{-1} y(\tau), \quad y(0) = b_{1}$$

190 is such that $y(\tau) = (I + \tau(A - I))^{-\alpha}b$, $y(1) = A^{-\alpha}b$. Therefore, (4.5) can be used 191 for computing $u = A^{-\alpha}f$. We can then approximate $A^{-\alpha}f$ as follows : $y(\tau) \approx$ 192 $(I - \alpha\tau(A - I))f =: M_{\tau}f$. Thus, we have

193
$$(M_{\tau}A)^{-\alpha} = \frac{M_{\tau}A}{2i\pi} \int_{\Gamma_{M_{\tau}A}} z^{-\alpha-1} (zI - M_{\tau}A)^{-1} dz = \frac{M_{\tau}}{2i\pi} \int_{\Gamma_{M_{\tau}A}} z^{-\alpha-1} (zA - M_{\tau})^{-1} dz.$$

Since M_{τ} is nothing but a parameterized polynomial preconditioner, we trivially have $AM_{\tau} = M_{\tau}A$ and then $(M_{\tau}A)^{\alpha} = M_{\tau}^{\alpha}A^{\alpha}$. This approach is partially relevant for non-diagonally dominant matrices when the approximations are accurate, i.e. for τ and α small enough. The preconditioning strategy is parallel to the one proposed with Cauchy integral, but this time applied to a differential system solver (Crank-Nicolson). This approach will be further investigated in a forthcoming paper.

4.5. Numerical approximations and experiments on contour integrals. From a practical point of view, the contour integral is numerically computed by using a quadrature rule leading to the approximate matrix computation (for k = 1 in (1.2))

203
$$A_{h}^{\alpha} := (2\pi i)^{-1} A \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{A}} h_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{\alpha - 1} (z_{j} I - A)^{-1}$$

where $\{w_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq J_A}$ are the quadrature weights and $\{z_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq J_A}$ the integration nodes. The local discretization steps of the path are denoted by \mathbb{h}_j , and $\mathbb{h} = \max_{1 \leq j \leq J_A} \mathbb{h}_j$. In matrix norm, the order of convergence σ is such that

207
$$\left\|A_{\mathrm{h}}^{\alpha} - (2\pi\mathrm{i})^{-1}A\int_{\Gamma_{A}} z^{\alpha-1}(zI-A)^{-1}dz\right\| \leqslant Ch^{\sigma}$$

208 In the following, we propose some numerical illustrations.

Experiment 1. Let us start by considering the one-dimensional operator $-\triangle + V$ 209 defined on the computational domain]-2;2[with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary 210conditions. The potential V is $V(x) = i \exp(-20x^2)$. We use a 3-points finite differ-211 ence discretization based on n = 101 interior points to approximate $-\Delta$. On Fig. 2, 212we represent two rectangular contours Γ_A and Γ_{MA} , where A is symmetric and M is 213 the polynomial preconditioner $p_K(A)$ as defined in (4.3) for K = 5. We numerically 214 get $\ell(\Gamma_A) \approx 5 \times 10^3$ and $\ell(\Gamma_{MA}) \approx 2$. Since $\ell(\Gamma_A)/\ell(\Gamma_{MA}) \approx 2.5 \times 10^3$, the numerical 215 216 discretization based on Γ_{MA} is expected to be much faster than with Γ_A , for the same accuracy, since it needs far less discretization points. 217

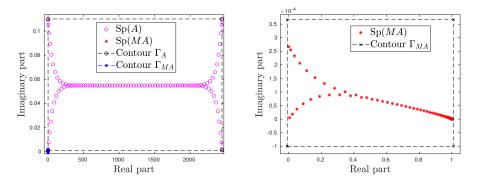


FIG. 2. **Experiment 1.** (Left) Spectrum of the complex-valued matrices A and MA, and associated contours. (Right) Zoom on the spectrum of MA and contour Γ_{MA} .

Experiment 2. In this second example, we consider a complex-valued random matrix 218 $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n, A_{ij} = \operatorname{rand}(0, 1) + \operatorname{irand}(0, 1)$, where $\operatorname{rand}(0, 1)$ 219denotes a real number randomly chosen between 0 and 1 (that is taking its value in 220 221 state space for a uniform distribution $\mathcal{U}(0,1)$. Moreover, we report the results for both n = 101 and n = 1001. We draw in Fig. 3 the corresponding spectra in the 222 complex plane, including the contours Γ_A and Γ_{MA} for n = 101 (top) and n = 1001223 (bottom). This shows the drastic clustering of the spectrum for the preconditioned 224225matrix.

Experiment 3. Let us introduce the matrix $A = \{A_{ij}\}_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, defined by 226the two matrices B and C such that, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$: $B_{ij} = n \operatorname{rand}(0, 1), C_{ij} = 20n + \operatorname{rand}(0, 1)\delta_{ij}$, with n = 100, and $A = B + B^T + C$, which then has a real-valued 227 228 spectrum. For $\alpha = 0.9$, we compare the relative error $\|A_{\rm ref}^{\alpha} - A_{\rm h}^{\alpha}\|_2 / \|A_{\rm ref}^{\alpha}\|_2$ vs the 229number of quadrature points J_A and J_{MA} , with and without scaling preconditioner 230 $M = I/||A||_2$ (see Subsection 4.2), for circular and rectangular contours in the precon-231 ditioned and non-preconditioned cases. The reference solution $A_{\rm ref}^{\alpha}$ is computed by 232 matlab through a spectral decomposition (see Subsection 2) and we use a composite 233 midpoint quadrature rule. We first report on Fig. 4 (Top-Left) Sp(A), Sp(MA), the 234circular contours C_A and the preconditioned one C_{MA} with a scaling preconditioner, as 235well as the rectangular contours Γ_A and Γ_{MA} (with the same preconditioner). We then 236zoom in the neighborhood of Sp(A) in Fig. 4 (Top-Right), and in the neighborhood 237238 of Sp(MA) in Fig. 4 (Bottom-Left). We then compare in Fig. 4 (Bottom-Right) the convergence with respect to the contour choice (rectangle, circle). More specifically, 239we plot the relative error as a function of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$. 240 As expected, the preconditioning improves the convergence rate for both the rectan-241242 gular and circular contours. We also remark that the non-preconditioned rectangular

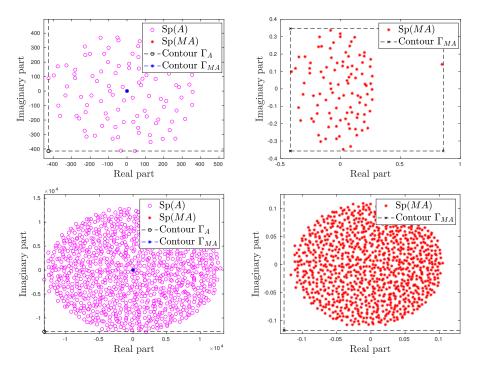


FIG. 3. Experiment 2. Sp(A) and Sp(MA), and rectangular contour: (Top-Left) : n = 101; (Top-Right) : zoom for n = 101; (Bottom-Left) n = 1001; (Bottom-Right) : zoom for n = 1001.

contour allows for a slightly more precise estimate of the Cauchy integral than for the 243244 non-preconditioned circular one. This is mainly due to the structure of the spectrum which is concentred around 0. As a consequence, the rectangle contour is very thin, 245then leading to a more accurate computation of the approximate operator $A_{\rm h}^{\alpha}$. The 246choice of the contour is naturally highly correlated to the structure of the spectrum. 247 **Experiment 3bis.** To complete the illustrations, let us consider the matrix A =248 $B + 0.75B^T + C$, where $B_{ij} = n \operatorname{rand}(0, 1)$ and $C_{ij} = 20n + \operatorname{rand}(0, 1)\delta_{ij}, 1 \leq i, j \leq n$, 249 for n = 100. The matrix A has a complex-valued spectrum. For $\alpha = 0.9$, Sp(A) is 250reported in Fig. 5 (Left) and a zoom on Sp(MA) is given in Fig. 5 (Right). We 251observe that the circular contour is more efficient here than the rectangular one (see 252Fig. 6). 253

4.6. Selection of the parameter k in the Cauchy integral formulation (1.2). We discuss now the selection of the Cauchy integral formulation, and more specifically the value of $k \in \mathbb{N}$ in formula (1.2). Since $z \in \Gamma_A$, we have $|z| > \rho(A)$, where $\rho(A)$ denotes the spectral radius of A. Denoting by $A_{\rm h}$ the approximate Cauchy integral using an order σ -composite-quadrature rule with $\mathbb{h} = \sup_j |z_{j+1} - z_j|$, there exists $c = c(A, \sigma) > 0$ such that

260 (4.6)
$$\frac{\|A_{\text{ref}}^{\alpha} - A_{\text{h}}^{\alpha}\|}{\|A_{\text{ref}}^{\alpha}\|} \leqslant c h^{\sigma} \sup_{z \in \Gamma_{A}} \frac{\left\|\frac{d^{\sigma}}{dz^{\sigma}} z^{\alpha-k} (zI-A)^{-1}\right\|}{\|A_{\text{ref}}^{\alpha}\|}$$

To minimize the error, this suggests that, if $\rho(A)$ is large, we should typically take $k \ge \lceil \alpha \rceil$, so that $k - \alpha \le 0$. In practice, it is natural to simply select $k = \lceil \alpha \rceil$.

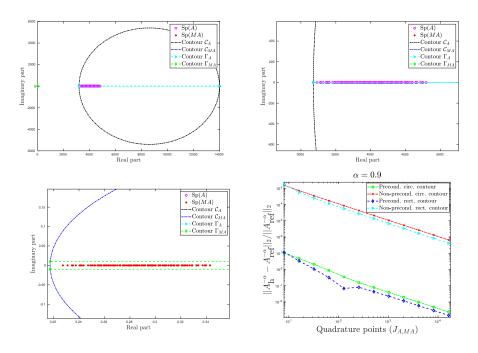


FIG. 4. **Experiment 3.** (Top-Left) Sp(A) and Sp(MA), with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, and C_A , C_{MA} , Γ_A , Γ_{MA} . (Top-Right) zoom on Sp(A). (Bottom-Left) zoom on Sp(MA). (Bottom-Right) Relative error vs the number of integration points for $\alpha = 0.9$.

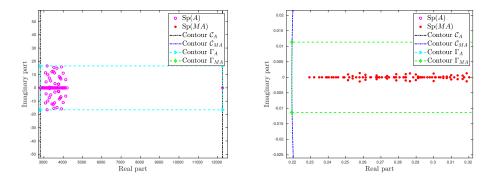


FIG. 5. Experiment 3bis. (Left) Sp(A), Sp(MA) with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, C_A , C_{MA} and Γ_A , Γ_{MA} . (Right) Zoom on Sp(MA).

However, whenever $\rho(A)$ is small, a natural choice in relation (1.2) is k = 0. Indeed, 263in this case, as |z| is larger but close to $\rho(A)$, a small error (4.6) is expected and taking 264 $k < \alpha$ could even deteriorate the approximation. For instance, it looks reasonable to 265use (1.2) with $k = \lceil \alpha \rceil$ for a direct evaluation of A^{α} and to use k = 0 for evaluating 266 $(MA)^{\alpha}$ when M is an accurate (in the sense that $\rho(MA)$ is very small, typically 267 < 1) Cauchy integral preconditioner. If $\rho(MA)$ is still larger than 1, it is preferable 268 (theoretically) to take $k = [\alpha]$ to evaluate $(MA)^{\alpha}$. In the following, we arbitrary fix 269 k = 1 (or k = 0), as most of the computations are done for $0 < \alpha < 1$ (or $1 < \alpha < 2$) 270and that $\rho(MA)$ will still be large enough to justify the fact that $k = \lceil \alpha \rceil$ provides a 271

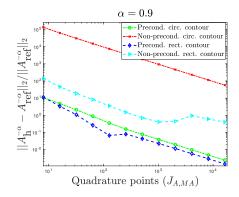


FIG. 6. Experiment 3bis. Relative error ($\alpha = 0.9$) vs the number of integration points.

- better approximation than for k = 0. Notice that in the chosen benchmarks, we did not observe any noticeable effect of the selected formulation.
- 274 Experiment 4. To illustrate the discussion, we compare the relative error in 2-

275 norm of A^{α} for $\alpha = 0.5$, where the matrix $A = \{A_{ij}\}_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$ is defined as: $A_{ij} =$

276 $n \operatorname{rand}(0,1) + \operatorname{i} n \operatorname{rand}(0,1)$, with n = 400. We compare the error (4.6) for k = 0,

277 (4.7)
$$A^{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2i\pi} \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{\alpha} (zI - A)^{-1} dz,$$

278 and k = 1

279 (4.8)
$$A^{\alpha} = \frac{A}{2i\pi} \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{\alpha-1} (zI - A)^{-1} dz.$$

280 We consider a circular contour where the number of quadrature nodes varies between

281 2 and 4096, and report in Fig. 7 the convergence of $||A^{\alpha} - A_{h}^{\alpha}||_{2}/||A^{\alpha}||_{2}$ for k = 0, 1,282 in the non-preconditioned case, vs the number of quadrature points. We notice that 283 taking k = 0 or k = 1 does not impact the behavior of the error.

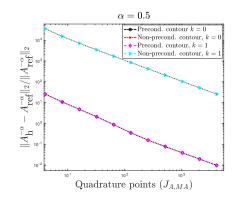


FIG. 7. Experiment 4. Relative error ($\alpha = 0.5$) vs the number of integration points.

5. Fractional linear systems $A^{\alpha}u = f$. In the previous subsections, we developed an efficient methodology to estimate the real power of a matrix. In this paper, we are more specifically interested in the solution to *fractional linear systems* $A^{\alpha}u = f$, with $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $f \in \mathbb{C}^n$, for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^*_+$. For invertible matrices, we formally have $u = A^{-\alpha}f$.

5.1. Solution to fractional linear systems $A^{\alpha}u = f$, with [M, A] = 0. We assume here that M^{α} can efficiently be estimated numerically. If not, it is then more appropriate to proceed as in Subsection 5.2. We recall that for any matrix M such that $(MA)^{\alpha} = M^{\alpha}A^{\alpha}$, we can compute $A^{-\alpha}f$, from $(MA)^{-\alpha}f$, and

293 (5.1)
$$u = A^{-\alpha}f = M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}f,$$

this approach being a priori valid for any invertible matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. We can formally proceed as follows (e.g. for k = 0 in (1.2))

296
$$u = A^{-\alpha} f = (2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{-\alpha} (zI - A)^{-1} f dz$$

where Γ_A encloses the spectrum of the matrix A. To estimate $(2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{-\alpha} (zI - A)^{-1} f dz$, a Cauchy integral preconditioner is proposed. We denote by M a preconditioner for $A^{-\alpha}$, such that A and M commute: [M, A] = 0. Since $A^{-\alpha} = M^{\alpha} (MA)^{-\alpha}$, one gets

301
$$(MA)^{-\alpha}f = (2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} z^{-\alpha} (zI - MA)^{-1} f dz.$$

Computed on a finite grid $\Gamma_{MA}^{(h)} \subsetneq \Gamma_{MA}$, with spatial resolution $h = \max_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J_{MA}} h_j$ and a quadrature of order σ , the approximate Cauchy integral to $(MA)^{-\alpha}$ is denoted by $S_h^{(-\alpha)} \approx (MA)^{-\alpha}$ and is defined as

305 (5.2)
$$S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-\alpha)} = (2\pi i)^{-1} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} \mathbb{h}_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha} (z_{j} I - MA)^{-1},$$

306 where $\{w_j\}_j$ are some interpolation weights. More precisely

• in the case of a rectangular contour, $z_j \in \Gamma_{MA}^{(h)}$ and $z_{j+1} = z_j + h_{j+1}$, with $h_j = \delta x_j + i \delta y_j$. Denoting $(z_j I - MA)^{-1} f = u_j$, we have

$$(5.3) \begin{aligned} u_{\mathbb{h}} &:= M^{\alpha} S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-\alpha)} f = (2\pi i)^{-1} M^{\alpha} \sum_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J_{MA}} \mathbb{h}_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha} u_{j} \\ (z_{j}I - MA) u_{j} &= f, \text{ for all } 1 \leqslant j \leqslant J_{MA}, \end{aligned}$$

310 i.e.
$$u_{\rm h} = M^{\alpha} S_{\rm h}^{(-\alpha)} f.$$

309

In the case of a circular contour of center
$$z_c$$
 and radius $r_{\varepsilon}^{(A)}$, we have : $z_j = z_c + r_{\varepsilon}^{(A)} e^{i\theta_j} \in \mathcal{C}_{MA}^{(h)}$ and $z_{j+1} = z_c + (z_j - z_c)e^{i\delta\theta_{j+1}}$, with $\theta_{j+1} = \theta_j + \delta\theta_{j+1}$.
We then consider the following quadrature

314
$$u_{\rm h} = (2\pi i)^{-1} M^{\alpha} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} \delta \theta_j w_j r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)} e^{i\theta_j} (r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)})^{-\alpha} e^{-i\alpha\theta_j} u_j,$$
$$(r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)} e^{i\theta_j} I - MA) u_j = f, \text{ for all } 1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}.$$

A double-preconditioning is then implemented, the first one to reduce the contour length in the Cauchy integral, and then the second one to efficiently evaluate $(zI - MA)^{-1}f$, thus leading to

318 (5.4)
$$S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-\alpha)} f = (2\pi i)^{-1} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} \mathbb{h}_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha} (z_{j} I - MA)^{-1} f.$$

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Since $\ell(\Gamma_{MA}) \ll \ell(\Gamma_A)$ (or $\ell(\mathcal{C}_{MA}) \ll \ell(\mathcal{C}_A)$), we get $J_{MA} \ll J_A$, which justifies the use of a Cauchy integral preconditioner M. Let us remark that when MA can be analytically diagonalized, the matrix power can be very efficiently computed, as

322 stated in the following proposition.

Proposition 5.1. If MA is diagonalizable, then we have $MA = P_{MA}D_{MA}P_{MA}^{-1}$ and

325
$$S_{h}^{(\alpha)}f = (2\pi i)^{-1} P_{MA} \Big[\sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} h_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha} (z_{j}I - D_{MA})^{-1} \Big] P_{MA}^{-1} f,$$

where D_{MA} is a diagonal matrix. As a consequence, in this case only one linear system (related to P_{MA}) has to be solved. However, except in some very simple cases (including low dimensional cases), P_{MA} and D_{MA} cannot be analytically calculated or computed.

330 **Proof.** Since MA is diagonalizable, we have

331

335

351

$$(MA)^{\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma} z^{\alpha} (zI - MA)^{-1} dz = (P_{MA} D_{MA} P_{MA}^{-1})^{\alpha}$$
$$= P_{MA} (2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma} z^{\alpha} (zI - D_{MA})^{-1} dz P_{MA} = P_{MA} D_{MA}^{\alpha} P_{MA}^{-1}$$

332 Next, we discretize the integral by using a classical quadrature formula:

333
$$S_{\mathbb{h}}^{-\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} P_{MA} \Big[\sum_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J_{MA}} \mathbb{h}_j w_j z_j^{-\alpha} (z_j I - D_{MA})^{-1} \Big] P_{MA}^{-1} ,$$

334 which concludes the proof. \Box

In order to efficiently solve the linear systems (5.3), we simply compute in parallel the incomplete LU-factorizations [5]: for any $1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}$, $z_jI - MA \approx -L_jU_j$. We then define the preconditioners $N_j = -U_j^{-1}L_j^{-1}$ used to solve: $N_j(z_jI - MA)u_j =$ N_jf . The J_{MA} linear systems are preconditioned and solved independently. On the other hand, if the systems are solved sequentially, $u_j^{(k)} \rightarrow_k u_{j+1}$ in \mathbb{R}^n in at most niterations and we can benefit from the previous computations

• From given $u_0^{(0)}$, solve $N_0(z_0I - MA)u_0 = N_0f$, for $z_0 \in \Gamma_{MA}^{(h)}$ (or $\in \mathcal{C}_{MA}^{(h)}$), by using the above algorithm, where $N_0 = -U_0^{-1}L_0^{-1}$.

- At index j + 1: assuming u_j was previously computed, take as initial guess $u_{j+1}^{(0)} = u_j$ since for J_{MA} large enough, that is $|z_j - z_{j'}|$ small enough, we expect that u_{j+1} is close to u_j .
- It is not necessary to implement an ILU-factorization for any $1 \le j \le J_{MA}$. Basically, only a few ILU-factorizations are sufficient. By denoting $N_j = L_j U_j$, for j' close to j and by using continuity arguments, we expect that, in terms of conditioning, we have

$$\operatorname{cond}(N_j(z_jI - A)) \approx \operatorname{cond}(N_j(z_{j'}I - A)) \ll \operatorname{cond}(z_{j'}I - A)$$

• Deduce $u = A^{-\alpha} f$, by estimating first $S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-1-\alpha)} f$, then we have $u \approx u_{\mathbb{h}} := AM^{\alpha+1}S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-1-\alpha)} f$.

We notice that performing a full LU-factorization on A provides a matrix M such that [M, A] = 0. However, computing M^{α} may be as almost complex as computing A^{α} . We therefore prefer to use ILU-factorizations. 5.2. Solution to fractional linear systems $A^{\alpha}u = f$, with $[M, A] \neq 0$. The most general and interesting case occurs when A and M do not commute. Then, we can no longer directly deduce the solution to $A^{\alpha}u = f$, from the solution to $M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}f$. The natural procedure then consists in solving

361
$$M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}A^{\alpha}u = M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}f$$

meaning that we precondition the linear system $A^{\alpha}u = f$ by $M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}$ which is now only an (accurate) approximation to $A^{-\alpha}$. It is still necessary to be able to efficiently compute $M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}x$ for any vector x. From a practical point of view, we have $M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}x \approx M^{\alpha}S_{h}^{(-\alpha)}x$, where $S_{h}^{(-\alpha)}x$ is defined by (5.4) (setting f = x). The linear system is numerically solved by using an iterative scheme, but also requires intermediate solutions to sparse linear systems in order to estimate $M^{\alpha}(MA)^{-\alpha}x$. First, we approximate $(MA)^{-\alpha}x$ by v_{h} such that

369 (5.5)
$$\begin{aligned} v_{h} &= (2\pi i)^{-1} M^{\alpha} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} h_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha} u_{j} \\ (z_{j}I - MA) u_{j} &= x, \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq J_{MA} . \end{aligned}$$

Next, we evaluate $M^{\alpha}v_{\rm h}$, which is more or less computationally complex. If M is a diagonal matrix (Jacobi) preconditioner, computing $M^{\alpha}v_{\rm h}$ is straightforward, while for ILU-preconditioning additional operations are needed, as described below.

5.3. Jacobi Cauchy integral preconditioner. Let us consider a Jacobi preconditioner, assuming that A is *diagonally dominant* and that $A_{ii} \neq 0$, for all $1 \leq i \leq$ n. Setting $M = \text{diag}(A_{11}^{-1}, \dots, A_{nn}^{-1})$, we then have

376
$$(MA)^{\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} z^{\alpha} (zI - MA)^{-1} dz$$

Similarly to the proof of Proposition 4.1 but noticing that a priori $AM \neq MA$ (in particular when the diagonal terms of A are not all equal), then $A^{\alpha} \neq M^{-\alpha}(MA)^{\alpha}$, with $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^*$. Interestingly, M^{α} can however be very efficiently computed since M is diagonal.

5.4. ILU Cauchy integral preconditioner. Incomplete-LU factorizations ap-381 pear as some natural candidates for solving fractional linear systems for two main 382 reasons. First, they usually allow for a better preconditioning than Jacobi. Secondly, 383 the triangular structure of the L and U matrices leads to an efficient computation of 384 intermediate sparse linear systems. More specifically, we propose the following ap-385 proach. We first implement an ILU-factorization LU of the matrix A, with a threshold 386 parameter $\zeta > 0$, and formally denote $M = (LU)^{-1}$. In addition to (5.5), it is needed 387 to approximate $M^{\alpha}v_{\rm h}$. In this goal, and unlike Jacobi preconditioning, it is necessary 388 to solve additional triangular linear systems, i.e. we approximate $M^{\alpha}v_{\rm h}$, by $w_{\rm h}$ such 389 that 390

391 (5.6)
$$\begin{aligned} w_{h} &= (2\pi \mathbf{i})^{-1} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{M}} \mathbb{h}_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha} v_{j} ,\\ (z_{j} \widetilde{L} \widetilde{U} - I) v_{j} &= \widetilde{L} \widetilde{U} v_{h}, \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq J_{M} . \end{aligned}$$

These new linear systems can be very efficiently solved since they are sparse and triangular. In addition, in order to improve the efficiency of the computation of $M^{\alpha}v_{\rm h}$, a Jacobi Cauchy integral preconditioner or scaling of M itself can be used as well, so that the quadrature is applied on a contour of reduced length which can be apriori as long as Γ_A , as proposed in Subsection 4.2. 397 **5.5.** Parallelization aspects. The computation of $(MA)^{-\alpha}$ can then be performed in parallel as follows. For p processors, we decompose Γ in p subcontours Γ_{ℓ} : 398 $\Gamma = \bigcup_{\ell=1}^p \Gamma_\ell$ and $\ell(\Gamma_\ell) = \ell(\Gamma)/p$ and write 399

$$(MA)^{-\alpha} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{p} (MA)_{\ell}^{-\alpha} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{p} (2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\Gamma_{\ell}} z^{-\alpha} (zI - MA)^{-1} dz.$$

We first implement an ILU-factorization and construct \widetilde{L} and \widetilde{U} . For any fixed value 401 402 of ℓ .

403

400

we solve, for {z_j^(ℓ)}_j ∈ Γ_ℓ : (z_j^(ℓ) L̃Ũ − A)u_j^ℓ = f_j,
send&receive to the root processor the contribution of each Γ_ℓ, that is: 404 $\sum_{z_i^{(\ell)} \in \Gamma_\ell} (2\pi \mathbf{i})^{-1} \mathbb{h}_j w_j z_j^{-\alpha} u_j.$ 405

5.6. Numerical experiments on fractional linear systems. We provide 406 now a few examples of numerical simulations to illustrate the methodology. 407

Experiment 5. In this example, we compare the efficiency of the different pre-408 conditioners implemented in GMRES for solving (1.1), where f is the unit vector. 409 We report the convergence rate, represented as the residual history vs the GMRES 410 iteration, where the solution is computed from 411

- a direct evaluation of the Cauchy integral without preconditioning (labelled 412 413 No-precond.),
- by using an ILU preconditioner $M^{-\alpha}(MA)^{\alpha}$, with $M = \widetilde{L}\widetilde{U}$ for a drop toler-414 ance at 10^{-4} , and a rectangular (ILU-precond. rect.) and circular contours 415 (ILU-precond. circ.), 416
- with an ILU preconditioner M directly built on the sparse matrix A, and 417 then the preconditioner M^{α} is used on A^{α} (and denoted M_{α} -precond.), 418
- and finally with an ILU preconditioner directly constructed from the full 419 matrix A^{α} that we assume to be given (ILU-precond. on A^{α}). 420
- The matrix A is defined as $A = (B+C) + (B+C)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{200 \times 200}$, where 421

422
$$B_{ii} = 75 \operatorname{rand}(0, 1) + 15, \qquad B_{ii\pm 1} = 5 \operatorname{rand}(0, 1) \mp 8, \qquad B_{ii\pm 2} = \operatorname{rand}(0, 1) \mp 1/2,$$

and $C_{ij} = rand(0, 1)$. We fix the tolerance to 10^{-15} in the GMRES, where the restart 423 parameter is equal to 50. We report in Fig. 8 the results for the ILU-Cauchy inte-424 gral preconditioner with (Left) $J_{A,MA} = 8$ and (Right) $J_{A,MA} = 128$. The number 425of GMRES iterations for the different preconditioners for a fixed number of quadra-426 ture nodes illustrates the efficiency of the proposed Cauchy integral preconditioning. 427 For completeness, the same tests are performed by using a Jacobi Cauchy integral 428 preconditioner (see Fig. 9). 429

Experiment 6. We now solve $A^{\alpha}u = f$, where A is a symmetric diagonally dominant 430full matrix which models a randomly perturbed Laplace operator, i.e. $-\triangle + d\mathcal{W}$, 431 where dW is a small amplitude (2×10^{-2}) random and symmetric process, n = 51432and f is identically equal to 1. Moreover, we consider 3 values of the fractional order, 433 i.e. $\alpha = 0.25$, $\alpha = 0.75$ and $\alpha = 1.5$. We then apply the Jacobi preconditioning for solving the linear systems related to $((z_c + r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)}e^{i\theta_j})I - MA)u_j$, in the following 434 435436 quadrature

$$u_{\mathbb{h}} = (2\pi)^{-1} M^{\alpha}(MA) \sum_{\substack{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA} \\ \left((z_c + r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)} e^{\mathbf{i}\theta_j}) I - MA \right) u_j = f, \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq J_{MA},$$

$$(z_c + r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)} e^{\mathbf{i}\theta_j}) I - MA u_j = f, \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq J_{MA},$$

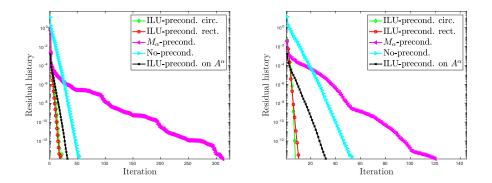


FIG. 8. Experiment 5. Comparison of the residual history vs iterations of the GMRES algorithm (restarted at 50 iterations, and tolerance 10^{-15}) for various preconditioners: ILU Cauchy integral preconditioner (threshold at 10^{-4}), ILU-preconditioner on A^{α} . (Left): $J_{A,MA} = 8$ (Right): $J_{A,MA} = 128$.

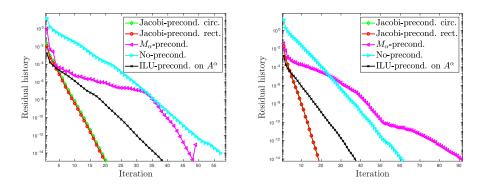


FIG. 9. Experiment 5. Comparison of the residual history vs number of iterations of the GMRES (restarted after 50 iterations, and for a tolerance 10^{-15}) for different preconditioners: Jacobi preconditioner, ILU-preconditioner on A^{α} . (Left): $J_{A,MA} = 8$ (Right) : $J_{A,MA} = 128$.

438 with $u_{\rm h} \approx u = A^{-\alpha} f$. Let us recall that $r_{\varepsilon}^{(A)} = r^{(A)} + \varepsilon$ and that the initial guess 439 for computing u_{j+1} is taken as u_j . We report in Figs. 10 (Top/Bottom Left) the 440 2-norm error $||u_{\rm h} - u_{\rm ref}||_2$ (in logscale) as a function of $J_{A,MA}$. We also provide the 441 corresponding CPU-time with/without Jacobi preconditioning, as well as $||A_{\rm h}^{-\alpha} - A^{-\alpha}||_2$, where we have numerically estimated $A_{\rm h}^{-\alpha}$ from a direct (D) computation

443 $(A_{\mathbb{h}}^{(\mathrm{D})})^{-\alpha}$ such that (k = 1 in relation (1.2))

444 (5.7)
$$(A_{\rm h}^{\rm (D)})^{-\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} A \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_A} h_j w_j z_j^{-\alpha - 1} (z_j I - A)^{-1} ,$$

445 or with a preconditioning $(A_{\mathbb{h}}^{(\mathbf{P})})^{-\alpha}$, from

446 (5.8)
$$(A_{\rm h}^{\rm (P)})^{-\alpha} = (2\pi i)^{-1} M A \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} h_j w_j z_j^{-\alpha - 1} (z_j I - M A)^{-1} .$$

⁴⁴⁷ The same test as above is also performed with n = 501 and $\alpha = 0.75$. The results are ⁴⁴⁸ reported in Fig. 11, with $r^{(A)} = 5.15$ and $r_{MA} = 0.33$, i.e. with a ratio of about 15.5,

449 illustrating the improved computational time.

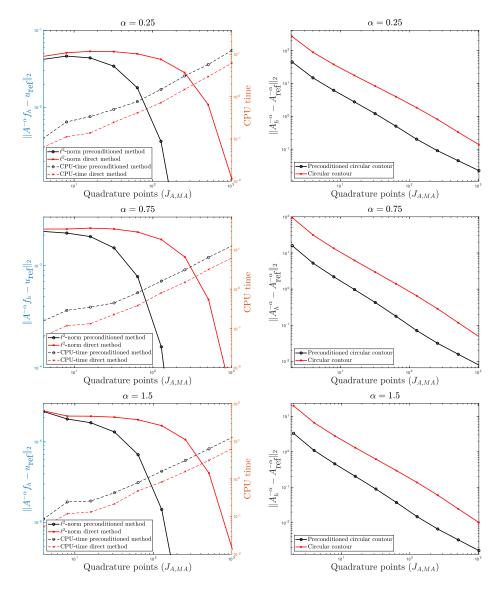


FIG. 10. Experiment 6. (Top-Left) CPU-time (in seconds) in logscale, and $||A^{-\alpha}f_h - u_{ref}||_2$, where $A^{-\alpha}f_h = u_{\rm h}$, as a function of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$, with $\alpha = 0.25$, (Top-Right) $||A_{\rm h}^{-\alpha} - A_{ref}^{-\alpha}||_2$ in logscale as function of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$. (Middle-Left) and (Middle-Right) : $\alpha = 0.75$. (Bottom-Left) and (Bottom-Right) : $\alpha = 1.5$.

450 **Experiment 7.** We propose the following numerical experiment to illustrate the 451 differential-based preconditioner derived in this subsection for solving $A^{\alpha}u_{h} = f_{h}$, 452 with $\alpha = 0.25$ in a case where [M, A] = 0. More precisely, we estimate $A^{-\alpha}f_{h} =$

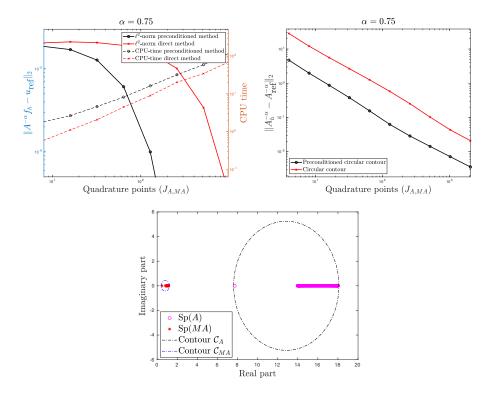


FIG. 11. Experiment 6. (Top-Left) CPU-time (in seconds) in logscale, and $||A^{-\alpha}f_h - u_{ref}||_2$ as a function of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$, with $\alpha = 0.75$, (Top-Right) $||A_h^{-\alpha} - A_{ref}^{-\alpha}||_2$ in logscale as a function of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$, with n = 501. (Bottom) Direct contour C_A and preconditioned contour C_{MA} .

453 $M_{\tau}^{\alpha}(M_{\tau}A)^{-\alpha}f_h$ and, for τ small enough, we have

$$\begin{split} M^{\alpha}_{\tau}(M_{\tau}A)^{-\alpha}f_{h} &= (2\pi\mathtt{i})^{-1}M^{\alpha+1}_{\tau}\int_{\Gamma_{M_{\tau}A}}z^{-\alpha-1}(zA-M_{\tau})^{-1}f_{h}dz\\ &\approx u_{h} = (2\pi\mathtt{i})^{-1}M^{\alpha+1}_{\tau}\sum_{1\leqslant j\leqslant J_{M_{\tau}A}}\mathtt{h}_{j}w_{j}z_{j}^{-\alpha-1}(z_{j}A-M_{\tau})^{-1}f_{h}\\ &\approx u_{h} = (2\pi\mathtt{i})^{-1}\big(I-(\alpha+1)\tau(A-I)+\frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)\tau^{2}}{2}(I-A)^{2}\big)\\ &\times \sum_{1\leqslant j\leqslant J_{M_{\tau}A}}\mathtt{h}_{j}w_{j}z_{j}^{-\alpha-1}(z_{j}A-M_{\tau})^{-1}f_{h}\,. \end{split}$$

454

455We consider A as a 3-point approximation of the Laplace operator on a segment 456]-1;1[, with n = 101 grid-points. We use some circular contours for both the nonpreconditioned and preconditioned Cauchy integrals. In Fig. 12 (left), we report in 457logscale i) the CPU-time (in seconds) for the direct method (with \mathcal{C}_A) and double-458preconditioned method (with $\mathcal{C}_{M_{\tau}A}$), and ii) $||u_{\rm h} - u_{\rm ref}||_2$. We more precisely compare 459a Jacobi Cauchy integral preconditioner with a differential-based preconditioner M_{τ} 460 with $\tau = 8 \times 10^{-1}$, $\tau = 9 \times 10^{-1}$, $\tau = 1$ and $\tau = 1.2$, and with a direct integral compu-461 tation without preconditioner. We also use a Cauchy ILU-preconditioner (\widetilde{LU}) with a 462 drop-tolerance fixed to 10^{-1} , although in this case $[(\widetilde{L}\widetilde{U})^{-1}, A]$ is not necessarily close to zero. We also report $||A_{\rm h}^{-\alpha} - A_{\rm ref}^{-\alpha}||_2$ in logscale in Fig. 12 (Right). The test illus-463 464

465 trates that for a moderately dominant diagonal matrix, the differential-based precon-466 ditioning may be an alternative to Jacobi preconditioning, but an ILU-factorization can be used as well, if the drop tolerance is small enough.

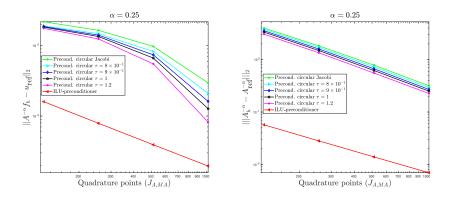


FIG. 12. Experiment 7. Jacobi preconditioner, differential-based preconditioner M_{τ} = with $\tau = 8 \times 10^{-1}$, $\tau = 9 \times 10^{-1}$, $\tau = 1$, and $\tau = 1.2$ and ILU-preconditioner with a drop tolerance at 10^{-1} . (Left) In logscale $||A^{-\alpha}f_h - u_{ref}||_2$ where $A^{-\alpha}f_h = u_h$, as a function of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$, with $\alpha = 0.25$, (Right) $||A_h^{-\alpha} - A_{ref}^{-\alpha}||_2$ in logscale as a function of the number of the number of quadrature points $J_{A,MA}$, with n = 101. (Right) Direct contour C_A and preconditioned contour C_{MA} .

467

6. Application to the approximation of stationary fractional PDEs. The approximation of stationary and time-dependent fractional PDEs is currently a very active research area in particular due to the development of fractional models from physics (see e.g. [9]). We are here interested in the efficient computation of the solution to fractional Poisson-like equations thanks to the solutions to induced "fractional linear systems" $A^{\alpha}x = b$. The fractional Poisson equation on a bounded domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ (d = 1, 2, 3) with null Dirichlet boundary condition on $\partial\Omega$ writes

475 (6.1)
$$\begin{array}{rcl} -(-\triangle)^{\alpha}u &=& f, \text{ in } \Omega, \\ u &=& 0, \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \end{array}$$

476 where $\alpha \in (0, +\infty)$, $f \in L^p(\Omega)$, 1 . The well-posedness of this problem $477 is for instance studied in [1] for <math>\alpha \in (0, 1)$. In particular, it is proved that, for any 478 function $f \in L^p(\Omega)$, with 1 , the unique solution to the Dirichlet problem $479 belongs to the functional space <math>\mathcal{L}^p_{2\alpha,\text{loc}}(\Omega)$, where $\mathcal{L}^p_{2\alpha,\text{loc}}(\Omega) := \{u \in L^p(\Omega) : u\varphi \in L^p(\Omega) : u\varphi \in \mathcal{L}^p_{2\alpha}(\Omega) \text{ for any } \varphi \in C_0^\infty(\Omega)\}$, and $\mathcal{L}^p_{2\alpha}(\Omega) := \{u \in L^p(\Omega) : (-\Delta)^{\alpha}u \in L^p(\Omega)\}$. For 481 any $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ (i.e. the Schwartz's space of rapidly decaying C^∞ -functions [11]) and 482 $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, we have $(-\Delta)^{\alpha}u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$. An equivalent definition [4] in \mathbb{R}^2 can be stated 483 for $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ and any $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ [11] as

$$484 \quad (6.2) - \Delta)^{\alpha} u(\boldsymbol{x}) = C(\alpha) \text{p.v.} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{u(\boldsymbol{x}) - u(\boldsymbol{y})}{|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}|^{2+2\alpha}} d\boldsymbol{y} = C(\alpha) \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \int_{B_{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{x})} \frac{u(\boldsymbol{x}) - u(\boldsymbol{y})}{|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}|^{2+2\alpha}} d\boldsymbol{y},$$

485 where $B_{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{x})$ is the ball of radius ε and center \boldsymbol{x} , $C(\alpha)$ being the constant defined by

486 (6.3)
$$C(\alpha) := \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{1 - \cos(\xi_1)}{|\boldsymbol{\xi}|^{2+2\alpha}} d\boldsymbol{\xi}\right)^{-1}.$$

⁴⁸⁷ The fractional laplacian can also be rewritten [4], for $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ and any $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$, ⁴⁸⁸ as

489 (6.4)
$$(-\triangle)^{\alpha}u(\boldsymbol{x}) = -\frac{1}{2}C(\alpha)\text{p.v.}\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{u(\boldsymbol{x}+\boldsymbol{y}) - 2u(\boldsymbol{x}) + u(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{y})}{|\boldsymbol{y}|^{2+2\alpha}}d\boldsymbol{y}$$

Although nonlocal, this last equality is potentially interesting from a computational point of view (see formula (6.7)).

6.1. Fractional laplacian approximation. For the 2d computational domain $\Omega := \prod_{\ell=1}^{2} - L_{\ell}; L_{\ell}[$, we introduce the inner uniform cartesian grid $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$, with n := $\Pi_{k=1}^{2}N_{k}$ total discretization points, defined by $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}} = \{\mathbf{x}_{i,j} = (x_{1,i}, x_{2,j})\}_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{I}}$, with $x_{1,i} := -L_1 + ih_1, x_{2,j} := -L_2 + jh_2, \mathcal{I} := \{(i,j) \in \mathbb{N}^2 \text{ such that } 1 \leq i \leq N_1, 1 \leq j \leq N_2\}$, setting $h_{\ell} := 2L_{\ell}/(N_{\ell} + 1), \ \ell = 1, 2$, and $\mathbf{h} := (h_1, h_2)$. When all the uniform discretization steps are equal along the directions, we define : $h := h_1 = h_2$, and then $n = N^2$, with $N := N_1 = N_2$.

To fix the ideas, let us now consider the following finite-difference approximation of the Laplacian operator $-\Delta$ based on a 5-point approximation scheme [10] along each direction for a function $\varphi := (\varphi_{i,j})$ set on the grid $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$

502

$$\begin{cases} -\triangle_{h_1}\varphi_{i,j} = \frac{\varphi_{i+2,j} - 16\varphi_{i+1,j} + 30\varphi_{i,j} - 16\varphi_{i-1,j} + \varphi_{i-2,j}}{12h_1^2}, \\ -\triangle_{h_2}\varphi_{i,j} = \frac{\varphi_{i,j+2} - 16\varphi_{i,j+1} + 30\varphi_{i,j} - 16\varphi_{i,j-1} + \varphi_{i,j-2}}{12h_2^2}. \end{cases}$$

A fourth-order approximation of the laplacian is then: $\Delta_h u_h := (\Delta_{h_1} + \Delta_{h_2})u_h$. Let $f_h = \{f_{i,j}\}_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{I}}$ be the projection of the function f on $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$, such that $f_{i,j} = f(\mathbf{x}_{i,j})$, $(i,j) \in \mathcal{I}$. Any other real space method (e.g. finite volume or finite element) could also be used within the method developed below. The approximate solution to system (6.1) is obtained by solving the fractional linear system $A_h^{\alpha}u_h = f_h$, corresponding to the discrete operator $-(-\Delta_h)^{\alpha}$. Let us assume that the approximation of Δ is at order q with discretization step h on the bounded domain $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$. The construction to the approximate solution u_h is performed by computing

511 (6.5)
$$u_h = A^{-\alpha} f_h$$

For the sake of conciseness, we use hereafter the notation " $A = A_h$ ". For a smooth function φ , one gets: $\triangle_h \varphi = \triangle \varphi + \mathcal{O}(h^q R_1(\phi))$, so that as we use a null Dirichlet 513boundary condition [9] we obtain : $\triangle_h^{\alpha} \varphi = \triangle^{\alpha} \varphi + \mathcal{O}(h^{q\alpha} R_{\alpha}(\varphi))$, with R_1 and R_{α} some 514smooth differential operators. To compute u_h , we propose to apply the strategy based on the efficient computation of Cauchy integrals. Inhomogeneous Dirichlet boundary 516conditions would complicate the approximation [9]. Let us also remark that usually real space approximations of the fractional Poisson equation are performed by directly 518approximating $(-\Delta)^{\alpha}$ by polynomials (see for instance [8]). The approach developed 519below is intended instead to illustrate that the efficient computation of matrix powers 520is an attractive alternative by numerically solving (6.5). 521

6.2. Computational complexity analysis in 2d. We recall that the fractional laplacian can also be rewritten [4] under the form (6.2), for $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ and any $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$. A direct finite-difference approximation to (6.2) on a *n*-grid $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_{i;j} = (\boldsymbol{x}_{1,i}, \boldsymbol{x}_{2,j}) : 1 \leq i \leq N, 1 \leq j \leq N \}$ reads

526 (6.6)
$$\mathcal{A}_{\alpha}u_{h} = f_{h},$$

where $u_h := \{u_{i;j}\}_{1 \leq i \leq N; 1 \leq j \leq N} \in \mathbb{C}^{N^2}$, with $u_{i;j} \approx u(\boldsymbol{x}_{i;j})$, and where the matrix \mathcal{A}_{α} 527 is constructed by approximating (6.4) on the finite grid by 528

529 (6.7)
$$-(-\triangle)^{\alpha} u(\boldsymbol{x}_{i;j}) \approx \frac{1}{2} C(\alpha) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{N} \frac{u_{i+k;j+l} - 2u_{i;j} + u_{i-k;j-l}}{|\boldsymbol{y}_{k;l}|^{2+2\alpha}} h_1 h_2.$$

The overall computational complexity to obtain the full matrix \mathcal{A}_{α} is at worse $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$, 530 where the solution to (6.6) requires $\mathcal{O}(n^{\beta})$ operations with $1 < \beta \leq 3$ related to the 531complexity for solving a *full* linear system (once) by a given brute force or specific 532algorithm. In contrast, for any (deterministic or stochastic) stationary operator, the 533 methodology developed in Section 4 requires 534

536

• $\mathcal{O}(n)$ operations in order to construct a sparse approximate laplacian A. • the computation of J_{MA} sparse linear systems, i.e. $\mathcal{O}(J_{MA}n^{\gamma})$ operations,

with $\gamma > 1$. This also contains the cost of the eigenvalue solver to estimate the largest and smallest eigenvalues to design the integral contour. 538

• The rest of the computation is a sparse matrix-vector product, thus requiring $\mathcal{O}(n)$ operations. 540

In fine, the overall computational complexity of the proposed method is $\mathcal{O}(J_{MA}n^{\gamma})$, 541which must be compared to $\mathcal{O}(n^{\beta} + n^2)$. We conclude that a good preconditioned 542Cauchy integral approach allows for i) the use of sparse matrices, ii) efficient quadra-543tures on short length contours, and thus is theoretically much more efficient than a 544direct approach. 545

We now state an important result of this paper. Consider the following system 546

547 (6.8)
$$\begin{array}{rcl} -(-\triangle)^{\alpha}u &=& f, \text{ in } \Omega, \\ u &=& 0, \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \end{array}$$

where $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open and bounded domain, and $f \in C^0(\Omega)$. Let us introduce the 548 numerical solution $u_{h:\mathbb{h}} := M^{\alpha} S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-\alpha)} f_h$, where 549

550
$$S_{h}^{(-\alpha)} = (2\pi i)^{-1} M A \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} h_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha-1} (z_{j} I - M A)^{-1}.$$

Therefore, $u_{h;h}$ is an approximation of the solution $u_h = A^{-\alpha} f_h$, the latter being itself an approximation to the solution u to system (6.8). In the sequel, we need the following discrete norms: for $v \in \ell^{\infty}(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})$, $\|v\|_{\ell^{\infty}(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} := \max_{1 \leq i \leq N_1; 1 \leq j \leq N_2} |v(x_{1,i}, x_{2,j})|$, 553 and for $v \in \ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})$: $||v||_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} := (h_1 h_2 \sum_{1 \leq i \leq N_1; 1 \leq j \leq N_2} |v(x_{1,i}, x_{2,j})|^2)^{1/2}$. 554

Theorem 6.1. We consider system (6.8). Let us denote by A an order $q \in 2\mathbb{N}^*$ finite-difference approximation to $-\Delta$ on the grid $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$, and by Π_h the projection 556 operator from $C(\Omega)$ to $\ell^{\infty}(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})$, such that $f_h := \prod_h f = \{f(x_i, y_j)\}_{1 \leq i \leq N_1; 1 \leq j \leq N_2}$. The approximate solution $u_{h;h}$ on $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$ to the fractional linear system $A^{\alpha}u_{h} = f_{h}$ is 558 559constructed as follows:

$$u_{h;h} := (2\pi i)^{-1} M^{\alpha}(MA) \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} h_j w_j z_j^{-\alpha - 1} u_j,$$

$$(z_j I - MA) u_j = f_h, \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq J_{MA},$$

where i) M is a Cauchy integral preconditioner such that [M, A] = 0, ii) J_{MA} is 561the total number of quadrature nodes on $\Gamma_{MA}^{(h)}$ (or $\mathcal{C}_{A}^{(h)}$), iii) $\{w_{j}\}_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}}$ are the quadrature weights, and iv) $\{z_{j}\}_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} \in \Gamma_{MA}^{(h)}$ (or $\mathcal{C}_{MA}^{(h)}$) the quadrature nodes. 562563564Then, the following results hold

1. Let us assume that the Cauchy integral quadrature is of order $\sigma \in \mathbb{N}^*$, then 565there exists $C = C(\alpha, \Omega, A, M, \Gamma_{MA}) > 0$ and $D = D(f, \alpha, \Omega, A) > 0$, such 566that 567

568 (6.9)
$$\|u - u_{h;h}\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_h)} \leq C \max_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} \|h_j\|^{\sigma} \|f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_h)} + D(h_1 h_2)^{q\alpha}.$$

2. Setting $n = N_1 N_2$ and for $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, a direct estimate of $A^{-\alpha} u_h$ requires 569 $O(J_A n^{\beta_A})$ operations, with $1 < \beta_A < 3$. By using a Cauchy integral pre-570conditioner M, only $J_{MA} \ll J_A$ linear systems have to be solved along Γ_{MA} . Performing p (parallel) ILU-factorizations N_i on $z_i I - A$ such that 572 $\operatorname{cond}(N_j(z_jI - MA)) \ll \operatorname{cond}(z_jI - MA)$, the overall computational complexity of the double-preconditioning method is at most $\mathcal{O}(J_{MA}n^{\beta_{\text{ILU}}})$, with 574 $\beta_{\rm ILU} \gtrsim 1$ thanks to the cost for building the ILU-preconditioners. 575

Proof. We first prove (6.9). The approximate solution to (6.1) is defined by 577

578 (6.10)
$$u_h = A^{-\alpha} f_h = (2\pi i)^{-1} A \int_{\Gamma_A} z^{-\alpha - 1} (zI - A)^{-1} f_h dz$$

Assuming that an order $\sigma \in \mathbb{N}^*$ quadrature formula is used to approximate (6.10), we 580 have

581
$$S_{h}^{(-\alpha)} = (2\pi i)^{-1} M A \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} h_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha - 1} (z_{j} I - M A)^{-1}.$$

In addition, one gets 582

...

583
$$(MA)^{-\alpha}f_h = (2\pi i)^{-1}MA \int_{\Gamma_{MA}} z^{-\alpha-1} (zI - MA)^{-1} f_h dz.$$

We therefore deduce that there exists $C_1 = C_1(\alpha, A, M, \Gamma_{MA}) > 0$ such that 584

585 (6.11)
$$\|S_{\mathbb{h}}^{(-\alpha)} - (MA)^{-\alpha}\|_2 \leq C_1 \max_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} |\mathbb{h}_j|^{\sigma}$$

Next, we have: $u_{h;h} - u_h = M^{\alpha} S_h^{-\alpha} f_h - A^{-\alpha} f_h$. According to Proposition 5.1, the 586 identity $A^{-\alpha} = M^{\alpha} (MA)^{-\alpha}$ yields 587

588

$$\begin{aligned} \|u_{h;\mathbf{h}} - A^{-\alpha} f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} &= \|M^{\alpha} S_{\mathbf{h}}^{-\alpha} f_h - M^{\alpha} (MA)^{-\alpha} f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} \\ &= \|M^{\alpha} (S_{\mathbf{h}}^{-\alpha} - (MA)^{-\alpha}) f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} \\ &\leqslant \|M^{\alpha}\|_2 \times \|S_{\mathbf{h}}^{(-\alpha)} - (MA)^{-\alpha}\|_2 \times \|f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} \end{aligned}$$

From (6.11), we prove that there exists a positive constant $C = C(\alpha, \Omega, A, M, \Gamma_{MA}) >$ 5890 such that: $||u_{h;\mathbf{h}} - A^{-\alpha}f_h||_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} \leq C \max_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} ||\mathbf{h}_j|^p ||f_h||_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})}$. Next, according to [9], one can find $D = D(f, \alpha, A, \Omega) > 0$ such that: $||u - A^{-\alpha}f_h||_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} \leq D(h_1h_2)^{q\alpha}$. 590We finally have

$$\|u - u_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} \leq \|u_{h;\mathbb{h}} - A^{-\alpha}f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} + \|u - A^{-\alpha}f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})}$$

$$\leq C \max_{1 \leq j \leq J_{MA}} |\mathfrak{h}_j|^{\sigma} \|f_h\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_{\mathbf{h}})} + D(h_1h_1)^{q\alpha} .$$

593

The second part of the theorem is straightforward. A direct estimate, i.e. without 595any preconditioner, requires the solution to J_A linear systems, each requiring $\mathcal{O}(n^{\beta_A})$ operations, for $1 < \beta_A < 1$. When a Cauchy integral preconditioner is used, only $J_{MA} \ll J_A$ linear systems have to be solved. For ILU-preconditioners, the overall complexity is simply $O(J_{MA}n^{\beta_{\text{ILU}}})$, where $\beta_{\text{ILU}} < \beta_A$. \Box

599

600 The following remark is of interest for matrices with complex eigenvalues.

601 Remark 6.1. For matrices with a complex spectrum, the circular contour can also 602 be used as follows: $C_{MA} = C(z_c, r_{MA})$, with center z_c and radius r_{MA} , and enclosing 603 Sp(MA) corresponding to n poles to $(z_jI - MA)^{-1}$. In the following, we define 604 $p_{MA} = J_{MA}/2$. In the case of a circular path, one also gets

605
$$(zI - MA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \left((re^{i\pi\theta} + z_c + z)I - MA \right)^{-1} \frac{e^{i\pi\theta}}{\left(e^{i\pi\theta} + z_c e^{2i\pi\theta}/r \right)} d\theta$$

606 We set $z_j = \sigma_j^{-1} + z_c$ (see [12]), where

607
$$\sigma_j^{-1} = \begin{cases} r_{MA} e^{-i\pi x_j}, & k = 1, \cdots, p_{MA}, \\ r_{MA} e^{-i\pi x_j - p}, & k = p_{MA} + 1, \cdots, 2p_{MA} = J_{MA} \end{cases}$$

608 and

609
$$\widetilde{\sigma}_{j} = \begin{cases} \sigma_{j+p_{MA}}^{-1}, & k = 1, \cdots, p_{MA}, \\ \sigma_{j-p_{MA}}^{-1}, & k = p_{MA} + 1, \cdots, 2p_{MA} = J_{MA} \end{cases}$$

610 We first consider the construction of a preconditioner solving $(z_j I - MA)u_j = f_h$, for 611 $n \in 2\mathbb{N}^*$,

612
$$(\tilde{\sigma}_{j}I - A) \approx \begin{cases} L_{j+p_{MA}}U_{j+p_{MA}}, & j = 1 \cdots, p_{MA}, \\ L_{j-p_{MA}}U_{j-p_{MA}}, & j = p_{MA} + 1 \cdots, 2p_{MA} \end{cases}$$

These LU-factorizations can be used as preconditioners. Theorem 6.1 can easily be established for circular contours.

615 We can extend the methodology to equations of the form

616 (6.12)
$$-(-\triangle)^{\alpha}u + Vu = f, \text{ in } \Omega, u = 0, \text{ on } \partial\Omega,$$

617 where $\alpha \in (0,1)$, $f \in L^p(\Omega)$ and $V := V(\boldsymbol{x}) \in L^{\infty}(\Omega)$, and with null Dirichlet 618 boundary conditions on $\partial\Omega$. We propose the following finite difference approximation 619 $(A^{\alpha} + V_h)u_h = f_h$, where i) the vector f_h and the matrix V_h are respectively the 620 projection on $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$ of f and V, ii) $A = A_h$ is a finite difference approximation of $-\Delta$ 621 on $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$ and iii) u_h is the approximate solution to u in (6.12). We formally have: 622 $(I + A^{-\alpha}V_h)u_h = A^{-\alpha}f_h$. We then proceed as follows. We compute $A^{-\alpha}f_h$ and 623 $A^{-\alpha}V_h$ by using the method developed above. Next,

624 1. we define $g_{\rm h}$ as an approximation to $A^{-\alpha}f_h$ following

$$g_{\mathbb{h}} := (2\pi i)^{-1} A \sum_{1 \leq j \leq J_A} \mathbb{h}_j w_j z_j^{-\alpha - 1} g_j,$$

$$(z_j I - A) g_j = f_h, \text{ for all } 1 \leq j \leq J_A,$$

626 where i)
$$J_A$$
 is the total number of quadrature nodes on $\Gamma_A^{(h)}$, ii) $\{w_j\}_{1 \leq j \leq J_A}$
627 are some interpolation weights, and iii-a) $z_j \in \Gamma_A^{(h)}$ with $z_{j+1} = z_j + \mathbb{h}_{j+1}$ and
628 $\mathbb{h}_j = \delta x_j + \mathbf{i} \delta y_j$ or iii-b) $z_j = z_c + r^{(A)} e^{\mathbf{i} \theta_j}$ and $z_{j+1} = z_c + (z_j - z_c) e^{\mathbf{i} \theta_{j+1}} =$
629 $z_j e^{\mathbf{i} \delta \theta_{j+1}}$, with $\theta_{j+1} = \theta_j + \delta \theta_{j+1}$, where $\delta \theta_{j+1}$ is an angular increment.

2. Similarly, $B_{\rm h}$ is an approximation to $A^{-\alpha}V_h$

$$B_{h}^{(i)} := (2\pi i)^{-1} A \sum_{1 \le j \le J_{A}} h_{j} w_{j} z_{j}^{-\alpha - 1} v_{j}^{(i)},$$

$$A_{j} v_{j}^{(i)} = V_{j}^{(i)} \text{ for all } 1 \le i \le L.$$

$$(z_j I - A) v_j^{(i)} = V_h^{(i)}, \text{ for all } 1 \leq j \leq J_A$$

where $V_h = [V_h^{(1)} \cdots V_h^{(n)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ (resp. $B_h = [B_h^{(1)} \cdots B_h^{(n)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$), setting $\{V_h^{(i)}\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ (resp. $\{B_h^{(i)}\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$) as the column vectors of V_h (resp.

3. Finally, we solve : $(I - B_{\mathbb{h}})u_{h;\mathbb{h}} = g_{\mathbb{h}}$.

The computation of $B_{\mathbb{h}}^{(i)}$ is naturally embarrassingly parallel. Let us remark that Cauchy integral preconditioning can easily be combined with the above methodology for solving (6.12).

6.3. Numerical experiments on fractional Poisson equations. This sec-tion is devoted to some numerical experiments to illustrate the above approaches.

Experiment 8. 1d modified fractional Poisson equation. We consider : $-(-\Delta + V)^{\alpha}u = f$ on $\Omega =]-2, 2[$, with $f(x) = \exp(-15x^2)$, $\alpha = 0.6$ and V = 5. We use a 5-point stencil approximate laplacian on $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$, where n = 500 and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{500 \times 500}$. To analyze the performance of the proposed approach, we proceed as follows. We numerically compute $\lambda_{\min}^{(A)}$ and $\lambda_{\max}^{(A)}$ with a power and inverse-power methods, respectively, and define a circular contour $C_A = C(0, \lambda_{\infty}^{(I-A)} + \varepsilon_{\theta}^{(A)})$, with $\varepsilon_{\theta}^{(A)} = 5 \times 10^{-2}$. The so-called direct method consists in computing

648 (6.13)
$$u_{h;h} = (2\pi i)^{-1} \sum_{1 \le j \le J_A - 1} h_j \left(\frac{z_j + z_{j+1}}{2}\right)^{-\alpha} (z_j I - A)^{-1} f_h ,$$

with $z_j = z_c + r_{\varepsilon}^{(A)} e^{i\theta_j}$. We define a Jacobi preconditioner $M = \text{diag}(a_{11}^{-1}, \cdots, a_{nn}^{-1})$ and consider $\mathcal{C}_{MA} = \mathcal{C}(0, \lambda_{\infty}^{(I-MA)} + \varepsilon_{\theta}^{(MA)})$, where $\varepsilon_{\theta}^{(MA)} = 5 \times 10^{-2}$. In the following, we compute only one CROUT (row) ILU factorization with tolerance 10^{-6} , setting the restart parameter to 20 iterations, $LU \approx \tilde{z}I - A$ with $\tilde{z} = \lambda_{\min}^{(MA)}$. We find $r_{\varepsilon}^{(A)} \approx 2.7$ and $r_{\varepsilon}^{(MA)} \approx 0.4$, corresponding to a gain factor equal to 6.7. In Fig. 13 (Right), we report in logscale i) the CPU-time (in seconds) for the direct method (with \mathcal{C}_A) and double-preconditioned method (with \mathcal{C}_{MA}), and ii) $\|u_{h;h} - u_{ref}\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_h)}$. The preconditioned approach converges much faster than the direct method which also requires more resources.

Experiment 9. 2d fractional Poisson equation. For $\Omega = [-5, 5] \times [-1, 1]$, we consider the fractional laplacian problem $-(-\Delta)^{\alpha}u = f$, with $f(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(-5x_1^2 - \frac{1}{2})^{\alpha}u$ $10x_2^2$) and $\alpha = 0.4$. We choose a simple 3-point stencil approximate laplacian on $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}} = \{(x_{1,i}, x_{2,j}) \in \Omega : 1 \leq i \leq N_1, 1 \leq j \leq N_2\}$, where $N_1 = 40, N_2 = 20$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, for n = 800. The eigenvalues $\lambda_{\min}^{(A)}$ and $\lambda_{\max}^{(A)}$ are again computed by a power/inverse-power method. We define the rectangle contour $\Gamma_A = \mathcal{G}(\lambda_{\min}^{(A)} - \varepsilon, -\varepsilon, \lambda_{\max}^{(A)} + \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$, with $\varepsilon = 10^{-1}$. The direct method is based on (6.13), with $z_{j+1} = h_{j+1} + z_j$ such that $h_j := \delta x$ or $h_j := \delta y$, leading to $\ell(\Gamma_A^{(h)}) = 2(\lambda_{\max}^{(A)} - \lambda_{\min}^{(A)} + 2\varepsilon)$, where J_A is the number of points to approximate Γ_A . For the Jacobi preconditioner M, we have $\ell(\Gamma_{MA}^{(h)}) = 2(\lambda_{\max}^{(MA)} - \lambda_{\min}^{(MA)} + 2\varepsilon)$. We calculate one CROUT (row) ILU-factorization, setting the tolerance to 10^{-6} and the value of the restart parameter to 20. Moreover, $IU \approx \tilde{z} = \lambda_{\max}^{(MA)} - \lambda_{\max}^{(MA)} = 2(\lambda_{\max}^{(MA)} - \lambda_{\max}^{(MA)} -$ $LU \approx \tilde{z}I - A$, with $\tilde{z} = \lambda_{\min}^{(MA)}$. In Fig. 13 (Middle), we plot in logscale i) the CPU-time (in seconds) for both the direct method (with Γ_A) and double-preconditioned

671 method (with Γ_{MA}), and ii) $||A^{-\alpha}f_h - u_{ref}||_{\ell^2(\Omega)_h}$. It is clear that the preconditioned 672 method is convergent much more rapidly than the direct one.

Experiment 9bis. 2d fractional Poisson equation. For $\Omega =]-2,2[^2]$, we solve 673 the fractional Poisson equation $-(-\Delta)^{\alpha}u = f$, for f(x) = 1 and $\alpha = 0.4$. A 3-674 point stencil scheme is used for the laplacian on the square grid $\Omega_{\mathbf{h}}$, where N = 50, 675 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, and n = 2500. The power and inverse-power method provides $\lambda_{\min}^{(A)}$ and $\lambda_{\max}^{(A)}$. We use the circular contour \mathcal{C}_A , with $\varepsilon_{\theta}^{(A)} = 10^{-2}$. The direct method makes use of (6.13), with $z_j = z_c + r^{(A)} e^{i\theta_j}$. We define the Jacobi preconditioner M and consider 676 677 678 $\mathcal{C}_{MA}^{(\mathrm{h})}$, where $\varepsilon = 5 \times 10^{-2}$. As in Experiment 9, one CROUT factorization is computed with the same parameters. We find $r^{(A)} \approx 8.34$ and $r^{(MA)} \approx 1.6$, corresponding to a 679 680 gain factor equal to 5.2. In Fig. 13 (Middle), we provide in logscale i) the CPU-time 681 (in seconds) for the direct method (with C_A) and double-preconditioned method (with 682 \mathcal{C}_{MA}), and ii) $\|A^{-\alpha}f_h - u_{\mathrm{ref}}\|_{\ell^2(\Omega_h)}$. The preconditioned method is definitively faster 683 than the direct method, which is also more resources consuming.

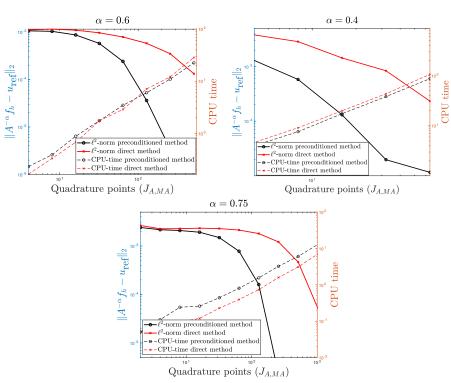


FIG. 13. CPU-time (in seconds) in logscale, and $||A^{-\alpha}f_h - u_{ref}||_2$ in logscale. (Left) **Experiment 8.** 1d Poisson. (Middle) **Experiment 9.** 2d Poisson. (Right) **Experiment 9bis.** 2d Poisson.

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Experiment 10. We finally propose a series of experiments for $(-\triangle + V + dW)^{\alpha}u = f$ on a bounded domain]-10, 10[with null Dirichlet boundary conditions. The Cauchy integral is approximated by using $J_{A,MA} = 128$ quadrature nodes. For $-\triangle$, we use a 5-point scheme. In the following tests, we report the residual history vs the GMRES iteration number (the tolerance is 10^{-15} and the restart parameter is set to 50 iterations). More specifically using circular contours, we compare the convergence i) without Cauchy integral preconditioning (No precond.), ii) Jacobi Cauchy integral

preconditioner (Jacobi precond.), iii) ILU Cauchy integral preconditioner (with scaling 692 matrix for computing $M^{\alpha}x$, see Subsection 4.2) (ILU-precond.), iv) ILU factorization 693 694 M on A and then M^{α} is used to precondition A^{α} , v) and finally no Cauchy integral preconditioning, but ILU preconditioning of A^{α} , assuming it is known (ILU-precond. 695 on A^{α}). The convergence graphs (residual history vs GMRES iteration number) are 696 given in Fig. 14 for 697

- Experiment 10a. V = 0 and the brownian motion dW is approximated by 698 a symmetric random (uniform law) matrix of magnitude 0.12, and $\alpha = 0.75$. 699 • Experiment 10b. V = 0 and the brownian motion dW is computed by a 700 unsymmetric random (uniform law) matrix with magnitude 0.06, and $\alpha =$ 701 0.75.702
 - Experiment 10c. V = 0 and the brownian motion $d\mathcal{W}$ is approximated by a symmetric random (uniform law) matrix with magnitude 0.12, fixing $\alpha = 0.5.$
- Experiment 10d. $V = 100e^{-x^2}$ and the brownian motion dW is approxi-706mated by a symmetric random (uniform law) matrix of magnitude 0.12, and $\alpha = 0.75.$

709 These tests illustrate the fact that the convergence of the GMRES solver is highly

dependent on the presence of a potential and the value of α . Overall, the ILU-Cauchy 710integral preconditioner allows for a faster (sometimes much faster) convergence than 711

any other preconditioning approach. 712

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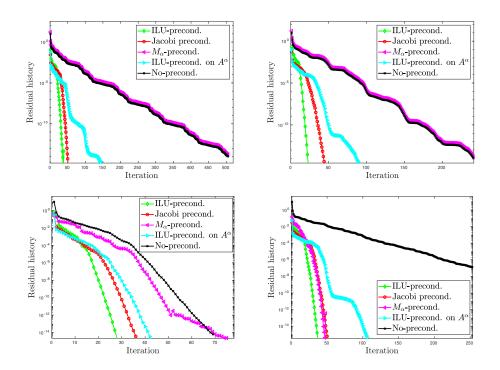


FIG. 14. GMRES convergence. (Top-Left) Experiment 10a; (Top-Right) Experiment 10b; (Botton-Left) Experiment 10c; (Bottom-Right) Experiment 10d.

7. Conclusion. In this paper, we proposed an efficient method for computing 713714the real power of a diagonalizable matrix A and algorithms for solving fractional ⁷¹⁵ linear systems, using quadrature rules for Cauchy integrals and contours enclosing ⁷¹⁶ the spectrum of A. Simple preconditioners are proposed for drastically reducing the ⁷¹⁷ computational complexity thanks to spectrum clustering. Some experiments are re-⁷¹⁸ ported to illustrate the methodology. In particular, applications to (deterministic and ⁷¹⁹ stochastic) stationary fractional Poisson-like equations with Dirichlet boundary con-

720 ditions are given. In a forthcoming paper, we will propose some realistic applications

and comparisons with other methods such as the differential equation approach as

722 defined in Subsection 4.4.

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