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# EFFICIENT ALGEBRAIC TWO-LEVEL SCHWARZ PRECONDITIONER FOR SPARSE MATRICES 

HUSSAM AL DAAS*, PIERRE JOLIVET ${ }^{\dagger}$, AND TYRONE REES ${ }^{\dagger}$


#### Abstract

Domain decomposition methods are among the most efficient for solving sparse linear systems of equations. Their effectiveness relies on a judiciously chosen coarse space. Originally introduced and theoretically proved to be efficient for positive definite self-adjoint operators, spectral coarse spaces have been proposed in the past few years for indefinite and non-self-adjoint operators. This paper presents a new spectral coarse space that can be constructed in a fully-algebraic way, unlike most existing spectral coarse spaces. We present a theoretical convergence result for Hermitian positive definite diagonally dominant matrices. Numerical experiments and comparisons against state-of-the-art preconditioners in the multigrid community show that the resulting two-level Schwarz preconditioner is efficient, especially for non-self-adjoint operators. Furthermore, in this case, our proposed preconditioner outperforms state-of-the-art preconditioners.


Key words. Algebraic domain decomposition, Schwarz preconditioner, sparse linear systems, diagonally dominant matrices.

1. Introduction. In this paper, we develop an algebraic overlapping Schwarz preconditioner for the linear system of equations

$$
A x=b,
$$

for a sparse matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and a given vector $b \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$. Solving sparse linear systems of equations is omnipresent in scientific computing. Direct approaches, based on Gaussian elimination, have proved to be robust and efficient for a wide range of problems [23]. However, the memory required to apply sparse direct methods often scales poorly with the problem size, particularly for three-dimensional discretizations of partial differential equations (PDEs). Furthermore, the algorithms underpinning sparse direct software are poorly suited to parallel computation, which makes them difficult to adapt to emerging computing architectures.

Iterative methods for solving linear systems [45] have been an active research topic since early computing days. Their simple structure, at their most basic level requiring only matrix-vector multiplication and vector-vector operations, makes them attractive for tackling large-scale problems. However, since the convergence rate depends on the properties of the linear system, iterative methods are not, in general, robust. For the class of iterative methods known as Krylov subspace methods, we may alleviate this by applying a preconditioner, which transforms the problem into one with more favourable numerical properties. The choice of the preconditioner is usually problem-dependent, and a wide variety of preconditioning techniques have been proposed to improve the convergence rate of iterative methods, see for example the recent survey [44] and the references therein.

Multilevel domain decomposition (DD) and multigrid methods are widely used preconditioners [21, 47, 52, 53, 54]. They have proved to be effective on a wide variety of matrices, but they are especially well suited to sparse Hermitian positive definite (HPD) matrices arising from the discretization of PDEs. Their efficiency stems from a judicious combination of a cheap fine-level approximate solver with a

[^0]coarse-space correction. In the last two decades, there has been a great advance in the development of spectral coarse spaces that yield efficient preconditioners. Spectral coarse spaces were initially proposed in the multigrid community for elliptic PDEs with positive definite self-adjoint operators [15, 19, 24, 34], and similar ideas were later picked up by the DD community for the same kind of problems $[2,3,4,7,32$, $33,40,48,49]$. The spectral coarse space based on Generalized Eigenvalues in the Overlap (GenEO) was introduced in [48] to construct a scalable DD preconditioner for symmetric positive definite matrices arising from the discretization of elliptic PDEs using the finite element method. The past three years have seen several approaches to tackle symmetric indefinite systems and non-self-adjoint problems. For example, spectral coarse spaces for least squares problems and symmetric indefinite saddlepoint systems were proposed in [5, 39], where coarse spaces are proposed for related Hermitian positive definite matrices. An exciting new development is that a number of multigrid methods and spectral coarse spaces have been suggested for problems with indefinite or non-self-adjoint operators $[9,10,11,12,13,14,22,36,37]$. These coarse spaces are mainly based on heuristics and show efficiency on several challenging model problems arising from discretized PDEs.

A variety of mathematical tools such as the fictitious subspace lemma [41] and local Hermitian positive semi-definite (HPSD) splitting matrices [2] are now available to analyze and propose effective coarse spaces for positive definite selfadjoint operators. For example, the authors in [2] show that given local HPSD splitting matrices of an HPD matrix, one can construct a spectral coarse space such that the condition number of the preconditioned matrix is bounded by a userdefined number. However, these tools may not be directly used for indefinite or non-self-adjoint operators. An alternative approach to studying the convergence of DD methods in the indefinite or non-self-adjoint case is to use Elman's theory [25] of GMRES convergence, see for example $[8,10,18]$.

In this work, we propose a fully-algebraic spectral coarse space for the two-level Schwarz preconditioner for general sparse matrices. We review the overlapping DD framework in section 2, including a summary of the main features of local HPSD splitting matrices. For each subdomain, we introduce the local block splitting using lumping in the overlap of a sparse matrix in section 3. The coarse space is then constructed by solving locally and concurrently a generalized eigenvalue problem involving the local block splitting matrix and the local subdomain matrix. In the case where the matrix is HPD diagonally dominant, we prove that the local block splitting matrices are local HPSD splitting matrices, and in that case, we show that one can bound the condition number of the preconditioned matrix from above by a userdefined number. In comparison to the previously introduced HPSD splitting matrices in [4], the proposed splitting in this paper is significantly cheaper to construct. If $n_{i}$ is the number of unknowns per subdomain, the proposed splitting can be constructed in $O\left(n_{i}\right)$ operations. The splitting from [4] has a cubic cost $O\left(n_{i}^{3}\right)$ coming from a preprocessing step requiring the solution of a subdomain-wise local singular value decomposition. We heuristically generalize the proposed method for general sparse matrices.

Unlike most existing spectral coarse spaces, especially those suggested for non-symmetric matrices, we obtain the matrices involved in the local generalized eigenvalue problem efficiently from the coefficient matrix; the preconditioner is therefore fully-algebraic. In order to assess the proposed preconditioner, we provide in section 4 a set of numerical experiments on problems arising from a wide range of applications including the convection-diffusion equation and other linear systems
from the SuiteSparse Collection [20]. Furthermore, we compare our proposed preconditioner against state-of-the-art preconditioners in the multigrid community. Finally, we give concluding remarks and future lines of research in section 5 .

The contributions we bring in this paper are:

1. we introduce the local block splitting using lumping in the overlap;
2. we show that the resulting splitting corresponds to local HPSD splitting when the matrix is HPD diagonally dominant, which leads to bounding the condition number of the preconditioned matrix in this case;
3. we demonstrate empirically the efficiency of the resulting preconditioner for general sparse matrices.
Notation. Let $1 \leq n \leq m$ and let $M \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ be a complex sparse matrix. Let $\llbracket 1, p \rrbracket$ denote the set of the first $p$ positive integers, and let $S_{1} \subset \llbracket 1, m \rrbracket$ and $S_{2} \subset \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$. $M\left(S_{1},:\right)$ is the submatrix of $M$ formed by the rows whose indices belong to $S_{1}$ and $M\left(:, S_{2}\right)$ is the submatrix of $M$ formed by the columns whose indices belong to $S_{2}$. $M\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)$ denotes the submatrix formed by taking the rows whose indices belong to $S_{1}$ and only retaining the columns whose indices belong to $S_{2}$. [ $\left.S_{1} S_{2}\right]$ means the concatenation of any two sets of integers $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$, where the order of the concatenation is important. $I_{n}$ is the identity matrix of size $n$, the transpose matrix of $M$ is denoted $M^{\top}$, and the adjoint of $M$, denoted $M^{H}$, is the conjugate transpose of $M$, i.e., $M^{H}=\bar{M}^{\top}$. $\operatorname{ker}(M)$ and $\operatorname{range}(M)$ denote the null space and the range of $M$, respectively.
4. Domain decomposition. Consider $\mathcal{G}\left(A+A^{\top}\right)$, the undirected adjacency graph of the coefficient matrix in (1), and number its nodes, $V$, from 1 to $n$. Using a graph partitioning algorithm, we split $V$ into $N \ll n$ nonoverlapping subdomains, i.e., disjoint subsets $\Omega_{I i}, i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$, of size $n_{I i}$. Let $\Omega_{\Gamma i}$ be the subset, of size $n_{\Gamma i}$, of nodes that are distance one in $\mathcal{G}(A)$ from the nodes in $\Omega_{I i}, i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$. We define the overlapping subdomain, $\Omega_{i}$, as $\Omega_{i}=\left[\Omega_{I i}, \Omega_{\Gamma i}\right]$, with size $n_{i}=n_{\Gamma i}+n_{I i}$. The complement of $\Omega_{i}$ in $\llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$ is denoted by $\Omega_{\mathrm{c} i}$.

Associated with $\Omega_{i}$ is a restriction (or projection) matrix $R_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{i} \times n}$ given by $R_{i}=I_{n}\left(\Omega_{i},:\right) . R_{i}$ maps from the global domain to the overlapping subdomain $\Omega_{i}$. Its transpose $R_{i}^{\top}$ is a prolongation matrix that maps from subdomain $\Omega_{i}$ to the global domain.

We define the one-level Schwarz preconditioner as

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{\mathrm{ASM}}^{-1}=\sum_{i=1}^{N} R_{i}^{\top} A_{i i}^{-1} R_{i}, \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we assume $A_{i i}=R_{i} A R_{i}^{\top}$ is nonsingular for $i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$.
Applying this preconditioner to a vector involves solving concurrent local problems in each subdomain. Increasing $N$ reduces the size of the subdomains, leading to smaller local problems and, correspondingly, faster computations. However, in practice, preconditioning by $M_{\text {ASM }}^{-1}$ alone is often not enough for the convergence of the iterative solver to be sufficiently rapid. We can improve convergence, while still maintaining robustness with respect to $N$, by applying a suitably chosen coarse space, or second-level $[2,8,21,27]$.

Let $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n}$ be a subspace of dimension $0<n_{0} \ll n$ and let $R_{0} \in \mathbb{C}^{n_{0} \times n}$ be a matrix such that the columns of $R_{0}^{H}$ span the subspace $\mathcal{R}$. Assuming that $A_{00}=R_{0} A R_{0}^{H}$ is nonsingular, we define the two-level Schwarz preconditioner as

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{\text {additive }}^{-1}=R_{0}^{H} A_{00}^{-1} R_{0}+M_{\text {ASM }}^{-1} \text {. } \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $R_{i}$ is real valued hence its adjoint is its transpose while $R_{0}$ may be complex valued thus its adjoint is its Hermitian transpose. Such preconditioners have been used to solve a large class of systems arising from a range of engineering applications (see, for example, $[3,5,29,35,38,47,51]$ and references therein).

We denote by $D_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{i} \times n_{i}}, i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$, any non-negative diagonal matrices such that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{N} R_{i}^{\top} D_{i} R_{i}=I_{n}
$$

We refer to $\left(D_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ as an algebraic partition of unity.
Variants of one- and two-level preconditioners. The so-far presented Schwarz preconditioners are the additive one-level (2.1) and the additive two-level based on additive coarse space correction (2.2). It was noticed in [17] that scaling the onelevel Schwarz preconditioner by using the partition of unity usually yields faster convergence. The resulting one-level preconditioner is referred to as the restricted additive Schwarz preconditioner and is defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{\mathrm{RAS}}^{-1}=\sum_{i=1}^{N} R_{i}^{\top} D_{i} A_{i i}^{-1} R_{i} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, there are a number of ways of how to combine the coarse space with a one-level preconditioner such as the additive, deflated, and balanced combinations, see for example [50]. Given a one-level preconditioner $M_{\star}^{-1}$, where the subscript $\star$ stands for either ASM or RAS, the two-level preconditioner with additive coarse space correction is defined as

$$
M_{\star, \text { additive }}^{-1}=R_{0}^{H} A_{00}^{-1} R_{0}+M_{\star}^{-1}
$$

The two-level preconditioner based on a deflated coarse space correction is

$$
M_{\star, \text { deflated }}^{-1}=R_{0}^{H} A_{00}^{-1} R_{0}+M_{\star}^{-1}\left(I-A R_{0}^{H} A_{00}^{-1} R_{0}\right)
$$

Due to its simple form, the additive two-level Schwarz based on the additive coarse space correction is the easiest to analyze. However, we observe that the deflated variant combined with the restricted additive Schwarz preconditioner has better performance in practice. The theory and presentation in this work employ the additive two-level Schwarz preconditioner using an additive coarse space correction, however, all numerical experiments involving the proposed preconditioner employ the restricted additive two-level Schwarz with deflated coarse space correction so that the two-level preconditioner used in section 4 reads as

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{\text {deflated }}^{-1}=R_{0}^{H} A_{00}^{-1} R_{0}+M_{\mathrm{RAS}}^{-1}\left(I-A R_{0}^{H} A_{00}^{-1} R_{0}\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the aforementioned variants are agnostic to the choice of partitioning and the coarse space. That is, once the restriction operators to the subdomains and the coarse space are set, all these variants are available.

Local HPSD splitting matrices of sparse HPD matrix. A local HPSD matrix associated with subdomain $i$ is any HPSD matrix of the form

$$
P_{i} \widetilde{A}_{i} P_{i}^{\top}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{I i} & A_{I \Gamma, i} \\
A_{\Gamma I, i} & \widetilde{A}_{\Gamma, i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $P_{i}=I_{n}\left(\left[\Omega_{I i} \Omega_{\Gamma i} \Omega_{\mathrm{C} i}\right],:\right)$ is a permutation matrix, $A_{I i}=A\left(\Omega_{I i}, \Omega_{I i}\right), A_{I \Gamma, i}=$ $A_{\Gamma I, i}^{\top}=A\left(\Omega_{I i}, \Omega_{\Gamma i}\right)$, and $\widetilde{A}_{\Gamma, i}$ is any HPSD matrix such that the following inequality holds

$$
0 \leq u^{\top} \widetilde{A}_{i} u \leq u^{\top} A u, \quad u \in \mathbb{C}^{n}
$$

First presented and analyzed in [2], local HPSD splitting matrices provide a framework to construct robust two-level Schwarz preconditioners for sparse HPD matrices. Recently, this has led to the introduction of robust multilevel Schwarz preconditioners for finite element SPD matrices [3], sparse normal equations matrices [5], and sparse general SPD matrices [4].
3. Two-level Schwarz preconditioner for sparse matrices. We present in this section the construction of a two-level preconditioner for sparse matrices. First, we introduce a new local splitting matrix associated with subdomain $i$ that uses local values of $A$ to construct a preconditioner which is cheap to set up. In the special case where $A$ is HPD diagonally dominant, we prove that these local matrices are local HPSD splitting matrices of $A$. We demonstrate empirically that these matrices, when used to construct a GenEO-like coarse space, produce a two-level Schwarz preconditioner that outperforms existing two-level preconditioners in many applications, particularly in the difficult case where $A$ is not symmetric.

### 3.1. Local block splitting matrices of $A$ using lumping in the overlap.

Definition 3.1. Local block splitting matrix. Given the overlapping partitioning of A presented in section 2 , we have for each $i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$

$$
P_{i} A P_{i}^{\top}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
A_{I i} & A_{I \Gamma i} & \\
A_{\Gamma I i} & A_{\Gamma i} & A_{\Gamma c i} \\
& A_{c \Gamma i} & A_{c i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let $s_{i}$ be the vector whose $j$ th component is the sum of the absolute values of the $j$ th row of $A_{\Gamma c i}$, and let $S_{i}=\operatorname{diag}\left(s_{i}\right)$. Define $\widetilde{A}_{\Gamma i}=A_{\Gamma i}-S_{\mathcal{A}_{2}}$. The local block splitting matrix of $A$ associated with subdomain $i$ is defined to be $\widetilde{A}_{i}=R_{i}^{\top} \widetilde{A}_{i i} R_{i}$, where

$$
\widetilde{A}_{i i}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{I i} & A_{I \Gamma i} \\
A_{\Gamma I i} & \widetilde{A}_{\Gamma i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Note that we only require the sum of the absolute values of each row in the local matrix $A_{\Gamma с i}$ to construct the local block splitting matrix of $A$ associated with subdomain $i$. Then, each of these values is subtracted from the corresponding diagonal entry of the local matrix $A_{\Gamma i}$. We can therefore construct $\widetilde{A}_{i i}$ cheaply and concurrently for each subdomain.

The following lemma shows that if $A$ is HPD diagonally dominant, the local splitting matrices defined in Definition 3.1 are local HPSD splitting matrices.

Lemma 3.2. Let $A$ be HPD diagonally dominant. The local block splitting matrix $\widetilde{A}_{i}$ defined in Definition 3.1 is local HPSD splitting matrix of $A$ with respect to subdomain $i$.

Proof. First, note that the $j$ th diagonal element of $\widetilde{A}_{i}$ is

$$
\widetilde{A}_{i}(j, j)= \begin{cases}A(j, j) & \text { if } j \in \Omega_{I i} \\ A(j, j)-s_{i}(j) & \text { if } j \in \Omega_{\Gamma i} \\ 0 & \text { if } j \in \Omega_{\mathrm{c} i}\end{cases}
$$

where $s_{i}$ is the vector whose $j$ th component is the sum of the absolute values of the $j$ th row of $A_{\Gamma c i}$. Therefore, by construction, $\widetilde{A}_{i}$ is Hermitian diagonally dominant, hence HPSD. Furthermore, $A-\widetilde{A}_{i}$ is Hermitian and diagonally dominant, hence HPSD. By the local structure of $\widetilde{A}_{i}$, we conclude it is HPSD splitting of $A$ with respect to subdomain $i$.
3.2. Coarse space. In this section, we present a coarse space for the two-level Schwarz preconditioner. For each $i \in \llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$, given the local nonsingular matrix $A_{i i}$, the local splitting matrix $\widetilde{A}_{i i}=R_{i} \widetilde{A}_{i} R_{i}^{\top}$, and the partition of unity matrix $D_{i}$, let $L_{i}=\operatorname{ker}\left(D_{i} A_{i i} D_{i}\right)$ and $K_{i}=\operatorname{ker}\left(\widetilde{A}_{i i}\right)$. Now, define the following generalized eigenvalue problem:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { find }(\lambda, u) \in \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}^{n_{i}} \text { such that } \\
& \Pi_{i} D_{i} A_{i i} D_{i} \Pi_{i} u=\lambda \widetilde{A}_{i i} u, \tag{3.1}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\Pi_{i}$ is the projection on range $\left(\widetilde{A}_{i i}\right)$.
Given a number $\tau>0$, the coarse space we propose is defined to be the space generated by the columns of the matrix

$$
R_{i}^{H}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
R_{1}^{\top} D_{1} Z_{1} & \cdots & R_{N}^{\top} D_{N} Z_{N}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $Z_{i}$ is the matrix whose columns form a basis of the subspace

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(L_{i} \cap K_{i}\right)^{\perp_{K_{i}}} \oplus \operatorname{span}\left\{u\left|\Pi_{i} D_{i} A_{i i} D_{i} \Pi_{i} u=\lambda \widetilde{A}_{i i} u,|\lambda| \geq \frac{1}{\tau}\right\}\right. \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left(L_{i} \cap K_{i}\right)^{\perp_{K_{i}}}$ is the complementary subspace of $\left(L_{i} \cap K_{i}\right)$ inside $K_{i}$. Note that the subspace $\left(L_{i} \cap K_{i}\right)^{\perp_{K_{i}}}$ is spanned by the generalized eigenvectors corresponding to infinite eigenvalues. In inexact arithmetic, those eigenvalues are close to $\varepsilon^{-1}$, where $\varepsilon$ is the machine precision. Furthermore, for $\tau>0$, those infinite eigenvalues still satisfy $|\lambda| \geq \frac{1}{\tau}$. For further analysis of such a generalized eigenvalue problem, we refer the reader to [5, Section 3.3.2].

In [2], the authors presented a theoretical framework to study spectral coarse spaces combined with a Schwarz preconditioner. The highlight of the paper is that finding a local HPSD splitting matrix for each subdomain provides a systematic way to obtain a spectral coarse space that guarantees a user-provided upper bound on the condition number of the preconditioned matrix. However, constructing those local splitting matrices is not a simple task for a general HPD matrix. The proposed local matrices $\widetilde{A}_{i}$ may not be local HPSD splitting matrices of $A$ in general (except if $A$ is HPD diagonally dominant). Nonetheless, they seem to lead to efficient coarse spaces. Note that in the case where $A$ is sparse HPD diagonally dominant, $\widetilde{A}_{i}$ is a local HPSD splitting matrix of $A$, and the definition of the coarse space matches the one defined in [2]. Therefore, the two-level Schwarz preconditioner using the coarse space defined guarantees an upper bound on the condition number of the preconditioned matrix

$$
\kappa_{2}\left(M_{\text {ASM ,additive }}^{-1} A\right) \leq\left(k_{c}+1\right)\left(2+\left(2 k_{c}+1\right) \frac{k_{m}}{\tau}\right)
$$

where $k_{c}$ is the number of colours required to colour the graph of $A$ such that every two neighbouring subdomains have different colours and $k_{m}$ is the maximum number of overlapping subdomains sharing a row of $A$. Therefore, when $A$ is sparse HPD diagonally dominant, the upper bound on $\kappa_{2}\left(M_{\mathrm{ASM}, \text { additive }}^{-1} A\right)$ is independent of $N$ and can be controlled by using the value $\tau$.


Fig. 1. Nonzero sparsity pattern of some of the test matrices from Table 1.
4. Numerical experiments. In this section, we validate the effectiveness of the two-level method when compared to other preconditioners. Table 1 presents a comparison between four preconditioners: $M_{\text {deflated }}^{-1}(2.4)$, BoomerAMG [26], GAMG [1], and AGMG [42]. Throughout the paper, the default PETSc 3.17 parameters for GAMG and BoomerAMG are used. The results are for the rightpreconditioned GMRES [46] with a restart parameter of 30 and a relative tolerance set to $10^{-8}$. We highlight the fact that our proposed preconditioner can handle unstructured systems, not necessarily stemming from standard PDE discretization schemes, by displaying some nonzero patterns in Figure 1. For preconditioners used within PETSc [6] (all except AGMG), the systems are solved using 256 MPI processes. After loading them from the disk, their symmetric part $A^{T}+A$ is first renumbered by ParMETIS [31]. The resulting permutation is then applied to $A$ and the corresponding linear systems are solved using a random right-hand side. The initial guess is always zero. The code that implements these steps is given in Appendix A. For our DD method, we leverage the PCHPDDM framework [30] which is used to assemble spectral coarse spaces using (3.1). The new option -pc_hpddm_block_splitting, introduced in PETSc 3.17, is used to compute the local splitting matrices of $A$ from subsection 3.1. In all experiments, if a threshold $\tau$ for the eigenvalues in (3.2) is specified along with a maximum number of eigenvectors nev to be selected, we compute the eigenvectors associated with the nev largest eigenvalues (in absolute value). Then, at most nev eigenmodes $(\lambda, u)$ are selected and they verify $|\lambda| \geq \frac{1}{\tau}$. At most 300 eigenpairs are computed on each subdomain and the threshold parameter $\tau$ from (3.2) is set to 0.6. These parameters provided good numerical performance after a quick trial-and-error approach on a single problem. We did not want to adjust them for each problem individually, but it will be shown next that they are fine overall without additional tuning.

Furthermore, a single subdomain is mapped to each process, i.e., $N=256$ in (2.3). Eventually, the exact subdomain and second-level operator LU factorizations are computed.
4.1. Adaptive preconditioning. Whilst Table 1 highlights that tuning $\tau$ for individual problems is not necessary to successfully solve a range of problems, it does not validate the ability of our preconditioner to concurrently select the most appropriate local eigenpairs to define an adaptive preconditioner. To that end, for problem G3_circuit, we consider the effect of varying the threshold $\tau$ on

| Identifier | $n$ | $\mathrm{nnz}(A)$ | AGMG | BoomerAMG | GAMG | $M_{\text {deflated }}^{-1}$ | $n_{0}$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| light_in_tissue | 29,282 | 406,084 | 15 | $\ddagger$ | 53 | $\mathbf{6}$ | 7,230 |
| finan512 | 74,752 | 596,992 | 9 | 7 | 8 | $\mathbf{6}$ | 2,591 |
| consph | 83,334 | $6,010,480$ |  |  |  | $\mathbf{9 3}$ | 31,136 |
| Dubcova3 | 146,689 | $3,636,643$ |  | 72 | 71 | $\mathbf{7}$ | 21,047 |
| CO | 221,119 | $7,666,057$ |  | $\mathbf{2 5}$ |  | 26 | 56,135 |
| nxp1 | 414,604 | $2,655,880$ | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ | $\mathbf{2 0}$ | 19,707 |
| CoupCons3D | 416,800 | $17,277,420$ |  | $\dagger$ | 26 | $\mathbf{2 0}$ | 28,925 |
| parabolic_fem | 525,825 | $3,674,625$ | 12 | 8 | 16 | $\mathbf{5}$ | 24,741 |
| Chevron4 | 711,450 | $6,376,412$ |  | $\ddagger$ | $\dagger$ | $\mathbf{5}$ | 22,785 |
| apache2 | 715,176 | $4,817,870$ | 14 | 11 | 35 | $\mathbf{8}$ | 45,966 |
| tmt_sym | 726,713 | $5,080,961$ | 14 | 10 | 17 | $\mathbf{5}$ | 28,253 |
| tmt_unsym | 917,825 | $4,584,801$ | 23 | 13 | 18 | $\mathbf{6}$ | 32,947 |
| ecology2 | 999,999 | $4,995,991$ | 18 | 12 | 18 | $\mathbf{6}$ | 34,080 |
| thermal2 | $1,228,045$ | $8,580,313$ | 18 | $\mathbf{1 4}$ | 20 | 26 | 40,098 |
| atmosmodj | $1,270,432$ | $8,814,880$ | $\dagger$ | 8 | 17 | $\mathbf{7}$ | 76,368 |
| G3_circuit | $1,585,478$ | $7,660,826$ | 25 | 12 | 35 | $\mathbf{8}$ | 71,385 |
| Transport | $1,602,111$ | $23,487,281$ | 18 | 10 | 98 | $\mathbf{9}$ | 76,800 |
| memchip | $2,707,524$ | $13,343,948$ | $\dagger$ | $\mathbf{1 5}$ | $\dagger$ | 36 | 57,942 |
| circuit5M_dc | $3,523,317$ | $14,865,409$ | $\dagger$ | $\mathbf{5}$ |  | 7 | 8,629 |

Table 1
Preconditioner comparison. Iteration counts are reported. $M_{\text {deflated }}^{-1}$ is the restricted two-level overlapping Schwarz preconditioner as in (2.4). No value denotes iteration count exceeds 100. $\dagger$ denotes either a failure in constructing the preconditioner or a breakdown in GMRES. $\ddagger$ denotes the problem is complex-valued and the preconditioner is unavailable. Matrix identifiers that are emphasized correspond to symmetric positive definite matrices, otherwise, matrices are non-selfadjoint.


Fig. 2. Influence of the threshold parameter $\tau$ on the convergence of preconditioned GMRES for problem G3_circuit ( $m=1,585,478$ ).
the performance of our two-level preconditioner. Figure 2 depicts the history of the residual norm for different values of $\tau$ demonstrating the adaptiveness of the constructed coarse space. The table on the right of the figure prints the size of the coarse space corresponding to each selected threshold value $\tau$ along with the iteration count required to reach an unpreconditioned relative residual norm lower than $10^{-8}$.

| Dimension | $k$ | $N$ | $n$ |  | $\nu$ |  |  |  |  | $10^{-1}$ | $10^{-2}$ | $10^{-3}$ | $10^{-4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 1,024 | $6.3 \cdot 10^{6}$ | $23_{(52,875)}$ | $20_{(52,872)}$ | $19_{(52,759)}$ | $20_{(47,497)}$ | $21_{(28,235)}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 2 | 4,096 | $8.1 \cdot 10^{6}$ | $18_{\left(1.8 \cdot 10^{5}\right)}$ | $14_{\left(1.8 \cdot 10^{5}\right)}$ | $11_{\left(1.6 \cdot 10^{5}\right)}$ | $16_{(97,657)}$ | $29_{(76,853)}$ |  |  |  |  |  |

TABLE 2
Iteration counts of the proposed preconditioner for solving the two- and three-dimensional convection-diffusion problem from (4.1) with order $k$ Lagrange finite element space. The number of subdomains is $N$ and the size of the discrete system is $n$. After each iteration count for each $\nu$, the size of the coarse space problem is typeset between parentheses.
4.2. Linear systems arising from a PDE. A convection-diffusion problem will now be investigated. It reads:

$$
\begin{align*}
\nabla \cdot(V u)-\nu \nabla \cdot(\kappa \nabla u) & =0 \text { in } \Omega \\
u & =0 \text { in } \Gamma_{0}  \tag{4.1}\\
u & =1 \text { in } \Gamma_{1} .
\end{align*}
$$

The problem is SUPG-stabilized [16] and discretized by FreeFEM [28]. It is important to keep in mind that the proposed preconditioner is algebraic, thus there is no specific transfer of information from the discretization kernel to the solver backend. Still, as the yielded linear systems are obtained from a standard finite element discretization, we can relax the selection parameters from those used in Table 1 and set $\tau=0.3$ and at most 60 eigenmodes computed per subdomain (instead of the previous values $\tau=0.6$ and 300 eigenmodes). The domain $\Omega$ is either the unit square or the unit cube meshed semi-structurally to account for boundary layers, see an example of such a mesh in Figure 3a. The value of $\nu$ is constant in $\Omega$. The value of $\kappa$ is given in Figure 3b. The value of the velocity field $V$ is either:

$$
V(x, y)=\binom{x(1-x)(2 y-1)}{-y(1-y)(2 x-1)} \quad \text { or } \quad V(x, y, z)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
2 x(1-x)(2 y-1) z \\
-y(1-y)(2 x-1) \\
-z(1-z)(2 x-1)(2 y-1)
\end{array}\right)
$$

in 2 D and 3 D , respectively. These are standard values taken from the literature [43]. The definition of $\Gamma_{0}$ and $\Gamma_{1}$ may be inferred by looking at the two- and threedimensional solutions in Figures 3c to 3e and Figures 3f to 3h, respectively. The iteration counts reported in Table 2 show that the proposed preconditioner handles this problem, even as $\nu$ tends to zero. In 2D, the operator, resp. grid, complexity is of at most 1.008 , resp. 1.43. In 3D, these figures are 1.02 and 1.7 , respectively.

For comparison, GAMG and BoomerAMG iteration counts are also reported in Table 3 and Table 4, respectively. For these test cases, when it comes to the algorithmic cost of the proposed methodology, we need to emphasize that when both algebraic multigrid and domain decomposition methods converge, our preconditioner is about an order of magnitude slower than multigrid (order of 10 seconds vs. order of a second). Indeed, for these configurations, subdomains are small, with around 2 k (resp. 6 k ) unknowns per subdomain in 3D (resp. 2D). Setting up the one-level preconditioner and solving (3.1) has a negligible cost, but the assembly and exact factorization of the coarse operator become non-negligible. To alleviate this, one could think of solving inexactly the second-level system, or to reduce the threshold criterion $\tau$, which would yield a slightly less robust but cheaper-to-assemble preconditioner. Such an indepth investigation of the algorithmic performance of the proposed preconditioner goes beyond the scope of this paper.


Fig. 3. (a) Mesh, (b) diffusivity coefficient, and solutions of some of the (c)-(e) two- and (f)-(h) three-dimensional test cases from Table 2.

| Dimension | $n$ | 1 | $10^{-1}$ | $10^{-2}$ | $10^{-3}$ | $10^{-4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $6.3 \cdot 10^{6}$ | 42 | 48 | 88 | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ |
| 3 | $8.1 \cdot 10^{6}$ | 40 | 38 | 65 | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ |

Iteration counts of GAMG for solving the two- and three-dimensional convection-diffusion problem from (4.1). $\dagger$ denotes either a failure to converge or a breakdown in GMRES.

| Dimension | $n$ | 1 | $10^{-1}$ | $10^{-2}$ | $10^{-3}$ | $10^{-4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $6.3 \cdot 10^{6}$ | 50 | 49 | 19 | 7 | $\dagger$ |
| 3 | $8.1 \cdot 10^{6}$ | 12 | 9 | 7 | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ |
| TABLE 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Iteration counts of BoomerAMG for solving the two- and three-dimensional convection-diffusion problem from (4.1). † denotes either a failure to converge or a breakdown in GMRES.


FIG. 4. Strong scaling analysis of the proposed preconditioner for solving (4.1) with $\nu=10^{-2}$ in 3D and an increasing number of MPI processes. Numbers in parentheses are iteration counts.

Finally, we present a strong scalability experiment of the proposed preconditioner to assess its computational complexity. We consider the three-dimensional problem from Table 2 with $\nu=10^{-2}$, see Figure 3 g . Starting with $N=32$ subdomains, we increase $N$ by a factor of 2 up to 16 and show in Figure 4 the runtime on the first process, as reported by PETSc -log_view option. We also plot the ideal linear decrease with slope -1 . The runtime is comprised of both setup and solve times. Setup time includes generalized eigenvalue problem solving, computing and factoring the coarse space matrix, and factoring the local one-level subdomain matrix. Solve time accounts for solving the linear system by using GMRES preconditioned by the two-level method $M_{\text {deflated }}^{-1}$. We notice that setup times dominate. However, we observe a linear decrease in the setup and the overall runtime which behaves similarly to the ideal scaling. For a larger number of subdomains, a multilevel strategy should be employed so that setup times remain tractable, but this goes beyond the scope of this paper.
5. Conclusion. We presented in this work a fully-algebraic two-level Schwarz preconditioner for large-scale sparse matrices. The proposed preconditioner combines a classic one-level Schwarz preconditioner with a spectral coarse space. The latter is constructed efficiently by solving concurrently in each subdomain a local generalized eigenvalue problem whose pencil matrices are obtained algebraically and cheaply from the local coefficient matrix. Convergence results were obtained for diagonally dominant HPD matrices. The proposed preconditioner was compared to state-of-theart multigrid preconditioners on a set of challenging matrices arising from a wide range of applications including a convection-dominant convection-diffusion equation. The numerical results demonstrated the effectiveness and robustness of the proposed preconditioner, especially for highly non-symmetric matrices.

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## Appendix A. Code reproducibility.

```
#include <petsc.h>
static char help[] = "Solves a linear system after having repartitioned its
        symmetric part.\n\n";
int main(int argc,char **args)
{
    Vec b;
    MSP A,T,
    IS is,rows;
    PetscBool flg;
    PetscViewer vwr;
    char name[PETSC_MAX_PATH_LEN];
    MatPartitioning mpart;
    PetscFunctionBeginUser;
    PetscCall(PetscInitialize(&argc,&args,NULL, help));
    PetscCall(MatCreate(PETSC_COMM_WORLD,&A));
    PetscCall(PetscOptionsGetString(NULL,NULL,"-mat_name",name, sizeof(name),&flg));
    PetscCheck(flg, PETSC_COMM_WORLD,PETSC_ERR_USER,"Missing -mat_name");
    PetscCall(PetscViewerBinaryOpen(PETSC_COMM_WORLD, name,FILE_MODE_READ,&VWr)) ;
    PetscCall(MatLoad(A,vwr));
    PetscCall(PetscViewerDestroy (&vwr));
    PetscCall(MatPartitioningCreate(PETSC_COMM_WORLD,&mpart));
    PetscCall(MatTranspose(A,MAT_INITIAL_MATRIX,&T));
    PetscCall(MatDuplicate(A,MAT_COPY_VALUES,&perm));
    PetscCall(MatAXPY(perm,1.0,T,DIFFERENT_NONZERO_PATTERN));
    PetscCall(MatPartitioningSetAdjacency(mpart,perm)); // partition A^T+A
    PetscCall(MatPartitioningSetFromOptions(mpart));
    PetscCall(MatPartitioningApply(mpart,&is));
    PetscCall(MatDestroy(&perm));
    PetscCall(MatDestroy(&T));
    PetscCall(MatPartitioningDestroy(&mpart));
    PetscCall(ISBuildTwoSided(is,NULL,&rows));
    PetscCall(ISDestroy(&is));
    PetscCall(MatCreateSubMatrix(A,rows,rows,MAT_INITIAL_MATRIX,&perm));
    PetscCall(ISDestroy(&rows));
    PetscCall(MatHeaderReplace(A,&perm)); // only keep the permuted matrix
    PetscCall(KSPCreate(PETSC_COMM_WORLD,&ksp));
    PetscCall(KSPSetOperators(ksp,A,A));
    PetscCall(KSPSetFromOptions(ksp)); // parse command-line options
    PetscCall(MatCreateVecs(A,NULL,&b)); // vector with a compatible dimension
    PetscCall(PetscOptionsGetString(NULL,NULL,"-rhs_name", name, sizeof (name), &flg));
    if (!flg) PetscCall(VecSetRandom(b,NULL)); // random right-hand side
    else {
        PetscCall(PetscViewerBinaryOpen(PETSC_COMM_WORLD, name, FILE_MODE_READ,&vwr)) ;
        PetscCall(VecLoad(b,vwr)); // right-hand side from file
        PetscCall(PetscViewerDestroy(&vwr));
    }
    PetscCall(KSPSolve(ksp,b,b)); // in-place solve
    PetscCall(KSPDestroy(&ksp));
    PetscCall(VecDestroy(&b));
    PetscCall(MatDestroy(&A));
    PetscCall(PetscFinalize()) ;
    return 0;
}
```


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