

Section 08. Algebraic Multigrid Methods



From GMG To AMG

Q: Anisotropic coefficients? Jump coefficients? Heterogenous coefficients? Non-symmetric problems?

- Prolongation and restriction for GMG usually depend only on the topological structure of the grids without using the grid coordinates.
- In GMG, the topologies of the graph for the stiffness matrices on different levels are explicitly clear from the geometric refinement procedure.
- The key to an efficient GMG algorithm is to construct effective and cheap smoothers for the problem at hand.
- For GMG, smoothness of error is defined geometrically. In more general settings, a geometrically smooth error can be non-smooth.
- AMG algorithms employ simple smoothers and attempt to construct a **suitable operator-dependent interpolation** using the algebraic information of A .
- AMG algorithms focus on how to pick coarse space and constructing interpolation to approximate the error components that cannot be effectively reduced by smoothing.



Toward Good AMG Performance

- ① Some simple graph theory results and algorithms
 - Maximum independent set
 - Ordering and Tarjan's algorithm
- ② Designing algebraic multigrid methods
 - General setup methods for AMG
 - Two-level convergence theory
 - Algebraic smoothness
 - Prolongation and restriction operators
- ③ Some examples of AMG methods
 - Classical AMG
 - Classical AMG with aggressive coarsening
 - Smoothed/unsmoothed aggregation AMG
- ④ Convergence results of AMG methods



Maximum Independent Set

- Set of vertices $\subseteq \{1, \dots, N\}$. An edge in E is an unordered pair (j, k) with $j, k \in V$.
- An **undirected graph** $G := (V, E)$, where V is a set of **vertices** and E is a set of **edges**.
- A graph $G_0 = (V_0, E_0)$ is called a **subgraph** of $G = (V, E)$, if $V_0 \subset V$ and $E_0 \subset E$.
- If $(j, k) \in E$ is an edge in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, vertices j and k are said to be **adjacent**.
- The set of neighboring vertices $N_i \subseteq V$ of i is the set of all vertices that are adjacent to i .
- An **independent set** of G is a set of vertices where no two vertices are adjacent.
- A **maximal independent set** (mIS) is an independent set such that adding any other vertex would introduce an adjacent pair. A graph can have many mIS's of varying sizes.
- The largest mIS, or several equally large mIS's, is called a **maximum independent set** or MIS.
- MIS problem: Find an independent set in the graph $G = (V, E)$ of maximum cardinality.

However, finding MIS is NP-hard and it is natural to ask for approximation algorithms.



Path and Adjacency Graph

- A **path** from a vertex i to another vertex j is a sequence of edges

$$p(i, j) := \{(i, k_1), (k_1, k_2), \dots, (k_{\ell-2}, k_{\ell-1}), (k_{\ell-1}, j)\} \subseteq E;$$

the number of edges ℓ is called the length of this path.

- A vertex j is **connected** to another vertex i if there is a path from j to i .
- The distance between j and i is defined as the length of the shortest path between them.
- The distance between j and i is equal to 1 if they are adjacent, and is ∞ if they are not connected.
- An undirected graph G is **connected** if any pair of vertices are connected by a path.
- The **adjacency graph** $G(A)$ of matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is a graph $G = (V, E)$ with

$$V := \{1, 2, \dots, N\} \quad \text{and} \quad E := \{(i, j) : a_{i,j} \neq 0\}.$$

Sparse matrices do not provide geometric information for the underlying graph except the combinatorial/topological properties of $G(A)$ or its subgraphs.

Coefficient Matrix and Graph

Different discretizations on different meshes could lead to same coefficient matrix A and $G(A)$.

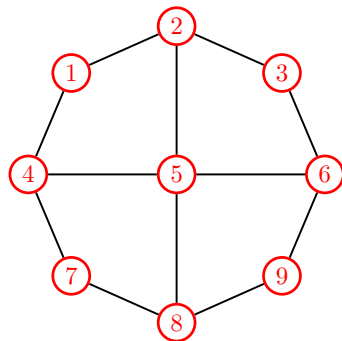
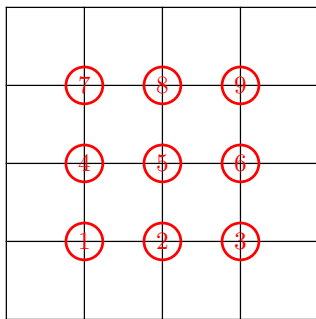
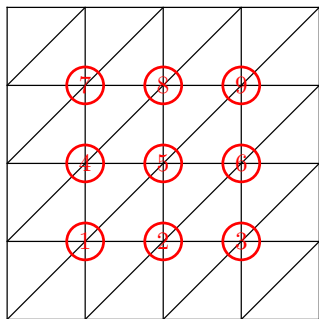


Figure: Finite element grid (left), finite difference grid (middle), and graph of stiffness matrices (right).



M-Matrix And Its Properties

Definition (M-matrix)

A matrix A is an **M-matrix** if it is irreducible (i.e., the graph $G(A)$ is connected) and

$$a_{i,i} > 0, \quad a_{i,j} \leq 0 \quad (i \neq j), \quad \text{and} \quad a_{j,j} \geq \sum_{i \neq j} |a_{i,j}|, \quad a_{j,j} > \sum_{i \neq j} |a_{i,j}| \quad \text{for at least one } j.$$

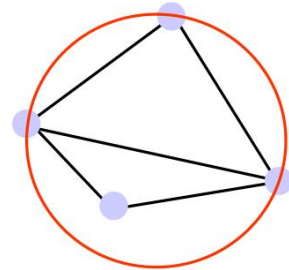
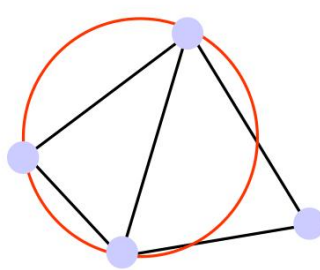
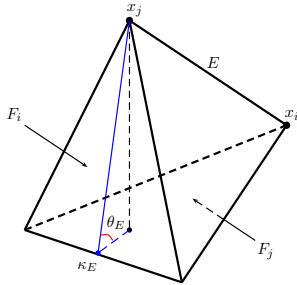
- Stiffness matrices of FE discretizations might not be M-matrices in general.
- Whether a stiffness matrix is an M-matrix depends on the underlying mesh \mathcal{M} .
- We can apply simple filtering schemes to construct an approximate M-matrix A_M from A .

Remark (Delaunay triangulation and M-matrix):

The stiffness matrix for the Poisson's equation is an M-matrix if the triangulation is Delaunay. This condition is nearly sharp — The opposite direction is true with a few possible exceptions near the boundary.

FE Matrix And M-Matrix

Let $\omega_E(\tau) := \frac{1}{d(d-1)} |\kappa_E(\tau)| \cot \theta_E(\tau)$.



Proposition (Condition for M-matrix)

The stiffness matrix for the Poisson's equation is an M-matrix, if and only if

$$\sum_{\tau \supset E} \omega_E(\tau) \geq 0, \quad \forall E.$$



Delaunay Triangulation and M-Matrix

Definition (Delaunay triangle)

In the context of a finite point set V , a triangle is Delaunay if its vertices are in V and its open circumdisk is empty—namely, it contains no point of V .

- Any number of points in V can lie on a Delaunay triangle's circumcircle.
- An edge is Delaunay if its vertices are in V and it has at least one empty open circumdisk.
- A Delaunay triangulation of V is a triangulation in which every triangle is Delaunay.

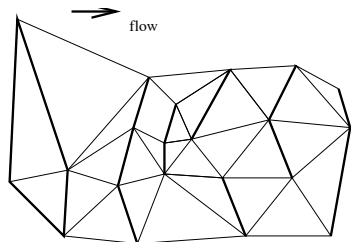
Delaunay triangulation is a foundational geometric structure:

- In 2D, among all possible triangulations of given points, the Delaunay triangulation maximizes the **minimum angle**, thereby reducing the occurrence of narrow and sharp angles.
- The Delaunay triangulation improves interpolation accuracy.
- Extensive research has been dedicated to Delaunay triangulations, resulting in highly efficient algorithms for constructing and updating these meshes.

Cross-Wind Ordering

Reminder: Relaxation order is very important for the local relaxation methods like GS.

Example: Convection-diffusion problem



$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \approx \epsilon & \approx \epsilon & \cdots & \cdots \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \approx \epsilon & \cdots & \cdots \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \ddots & \cdots \\ A_{K1} & A_{K2} & A_{K3} & \cdots & A_{KK} \end{bmatrix}$$

- In the above figure, the bold edges represent the cross-wind connections:
- If we number the blocks sequentially from left to right, with the degrees of freedom within each block ordered arbitrarily, the stiffness matrix will have a lower triangular structure.
- Based on this idea, the Cross-Wind-Block method has been proposed for convection-dominated problems [Wang and Xu 1999]

Examples of Cross-Wind Ordering

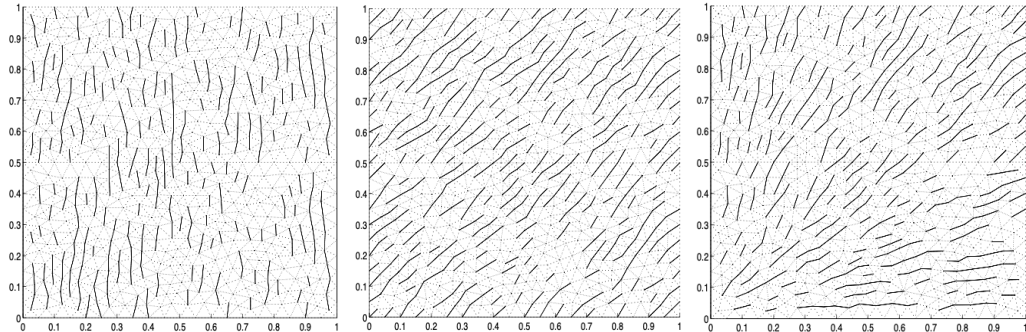


Figure: Flow velocity $v = (1, 0)$ (left), $v = (-1, 1)$ (middle), and $v = (-y, x)$ (right) [Wang and Xu 1999]



Coefficient Matrix and Graph

Strongly connected component:

- A maximal subset of vertices such that there is a path between any two vertices in the subset.
- Tarjan's algorithm is used to find strongly connected components in a graph.

Tarjan's algorithm uses depth-first search on the digraph:

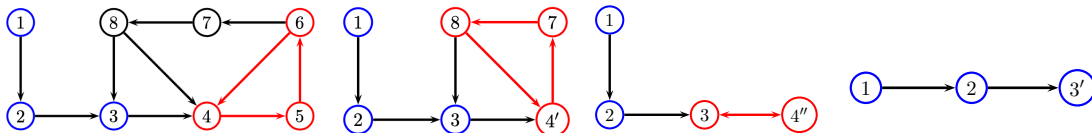
- 1 Drop some of the non-essential entries from the matrix A — Transform the graph corresponding to A to a directed graph.
- 2 Find the strongly connected components in this directed graph — Each one of these components will correspond to a diagonal block in the stiffness matrix after permutation.

Remark (Preprocessing to a get directed graph):

Sometimes the graph corresponding to A is undirected (for example, the finite element stiffness matrix of the Poisson's equation). If we consider a non symmetric problem, situation could be very different. For instance, we can make the graph directed by dropping some of the "insignificant" entries of A . For example, by setting a threshold $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$, we drop all a_{ki} if $|a_{ki}/a_{ik}| < \epsilon$.

A Simple Example of Graph Ordering

Consider a 2D flow problem



- Start from vertex 1 and then follow the path

$$1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 4.$$

- Collapse $\{4, 5, 6\}$ as a single vertex $v_{\text{macro}} = 4'$.

- Following the path and continue until

$$1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4' \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 8 \rightarrow 4'.$$

- Collapse the cycle and set $4'' = \{4', 7, 8\}$.

- Collapse the cycle $\{4'', 3, 4''\}$ to a vertex $3'$.

- What is left now is a simple graph with three vertices.



Tarjan's Algorithm

Algorithm (Simplified Tarjan's algorithm)

Given a directed graph G with N vertices.

- ① If all vertices of G have been numbered, stop.
- ② Set $i = 0$.
- ③ Choose any unnumbered vertex $v \in G$.
- ④ If v has no edge out, we number it $N - i$, set $i = i + 1$, and return to Step 3.
- ⑤ If v has been visited before (encounter a cycle), then
 - Collapse all the vertices in the cycle as a single vertex v_{macro} ;
 - Connect v_{macro} with all vertices which were connected to member(s) of v_{macro} ;
 - Thus we obtain a new graph G' . Goto Step 2 and continue with G' .

There might be a lot of renumbering when collapsing the cycles. The fix is to use a stack and do not renumber anything until the whole connected component is in the stack.



Algebraic Setup Methods

Q: How to construct multilevel hierarchy in an algebraic fashion? How to construct AMG to improve efficiency (convergence and complexity)?

Algorithm (Setup step for algebraic multigrid methods)

For a given sparse matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, we apply the following steps:

Step 1. Selecting a smoother: Choose a smoother S for $Au = f$.

Step 2. Coarsening: Identify a **coarse space** $V_c \subset V$, which contains smooth vectors.

Step 3. Constructing a prolongation: Construct a **prolongation** P in two steps:

3a. Decide, for each fine variable, which coarse variables are used for interpolation;

3b. Determine the weights for prolongation P .

Step 4. Multilevel cycling: Apply the same algorithm one or more times for the coarse problem $A_c u_c = f_c$, where $A_c = P^T A P$ and $f_c = P^T f$.



Standard Setting for AMG

Assumption (Standard AMG setting)

The coefficient matrix A is SPD, the prolongation P has full column-rank, and the smoother S is given.

- Let $V = \mathbb{R}^N$ and $V_c = \mathbb{R}^{N_c}$ denote the fine and coarse spaces, respectively.
- For simplicity, we only consider the $V(0, 1)$ exact two-grid method.
- The CGC operator corresponds to the matrix $I - \Pi_c$ and

$$\Pi_c = P A_c^{-1} P^T A = P (P^T A P)^{-1} P^T A$$

is a projection onto $\text{range}(P)$.

- The error reduction matrix for the TG method can be written as

$$E_{\text{TG}} := (I - SA)(I - \Pi_c).$$

The convergence rate of TG depends on (1) effectiveness of the smoother S and (2) approximability of the coarse space $\text{range}(P)$.

Convergence Theory for TG

Theorem (Convergence rate of TG algorithm)

If there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\|(I - SA)e\|_A^2 \leq \|e\|_A^2 - \delta \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2, \quad \forall e \in V, \quad (64)$$

then the $V(0, 1)$ two-grid method satisfies that

$$\|E_{\text{TG}}\|_A^2 = 1 - \hat{\delta}, \quad \text{with } \hat{\delta} := \inf_{(I - \Pi_c)e \neq 0} \frac{\|e\|_A^2 - \|(I - SA)e\|_A^2}{\|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2} \geq \delta.$$

Sketch of the proof:

Notice that $\|e\|_A^2 = \|\Pi_c e\|_A^2 + \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2$. $(I - \Pi_c)e = 0$ yields $(I - SA)(I - \Pi_c)e = 0$. Then

$$\|E_{\text{TG}}\|_A^2 = \sup_{e \neq 0} \frac{\|(I - SA)(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2}{\|e\|_A^2} = \sup_{(I - \Pi_c)e \neq 0} \frac{\|(I - SA)(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2}{\|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 + \|\Pi_c e\|_A^2}.$$

If \hat{e} achieves the above sup, then $(I - \Pi_c)\hat{e}$ also achieves the sup. So the convergence factor achieves the supremum when $\Pi_c \hat{e} = 0$. Hence, $\|E_{\text{TG}}\|_A^2 = \sup_{(I - \Pi_c)e \neq 0} \|(I - SA)e\|_A^2 / \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2$. \square

Remarks on TG Convergence

Condition (64) is essential for TG to be efficient

- For the error components that cannot be reduced by CGC, the smoother S must be effective uniformly.
- For the error components that can be reduced by CGC efficiently, S could be ineffective.
- The components for which S is ineffective are called **smooth** and they should be in range(P).

Modification: Such a $\hat{\delta}$ is difficult to obtain and we need to find some positive lower bounds of $\hat{\delta}$. Introduce a **nonnegative function** $g(e) \geq 0$, such that

$$\alpha_g(e) := \frac{\|e\|_A^2 - \|(I - SA)e\|_A^2}{g(e)} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_g(e) := \frac{\|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2}{g(e)}.$$

Remark: Let $\hat{\alpha}_g := \inf_{g(e) \neq 0} \alpha_g(e)$ and $\hat{\beta}_g := \sup_{g(e) \neq 0} \beta_g(e)$. Due to the fact

$$\begin{aligned} \|E_{\text{TG}}e\|_A^2 &\leq \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 - \hat{\alpha}_g g((I - \Pi_c)e) \leq \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 - \hat{\alpha}_g \hat{\beta}_g^{-1} \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 \\ &= \left(1 - \hat{\alpha}_g \hat{\beta}_g^{-1}\right) \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 \leq \left(1 - \hat{\alpha}_g \hat{\beta}_g^{-1}\right) \|e\|_A^2, \end{aligned}$$

we have $\hat{\delta} \geq \hat{\alpha}_g \hat{\beta}_g^{-1}$. \implies More practical TG convergence theorem.

More Practical Assumptions

Smoothing effect:

$$\|(I - SA)e\|_A^2 \leq \|e\|_A^2 - \bar{\alpha}_g g(e), \quad \forall e \in V, \quad (65)$$

Approximability of coarse space:

- Strong approximation assumption (SAA):

$$\exists \bar{\beta}_{g,s}, \text{ such that } \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 \leq \bar{\beta}_{g,s} g(e), \quad \forall e \in V. \quad (66)$$

- Weak approximation assumption (WAA):

$$\exists \bar{\beta}_{g,w}, \text{ such that } \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 \leq \bar{\beta}_{g,w} g((I - \Pi_c)e), \quad \forall e \in V. \quad (67)$$

Theorem (Convergence estimate of two-level AMG)

If both (65) and (66) (or its weaker version (67)) hold, then $V(0, 1)$ two-grid method satisfies

$$\|E_{TG}\|_A^2 \leq 1 - \bar{\alpha}_g \bar{\beta}_g^{-1}.$$

Typical Choices of g

Q: How to choose the function $g(e)$? How to enforce convergence conditions on the prolongation P ?

- A trivial choice $g(e) := \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2$. Then we have $\hat{\alpha}_g = \hat{\delta}$ and $\hat{\beta}_g \equiv 1$.
- Another possibility is $g(e) := \|e\|_{AD^{-1}A}^2$ [Ruge and Stüben 1987]. SAA becomes

$$\inf_{e_c \in V_c} \|e - Pe_c\|_A^2 \leq \bar{\beta}_s \|e\|_{AD^{-1}A}^2, \quad \forall e \in V. \quad (68)$$

- Noticing $\Pi_c = P(P^T AP)^{-1}P^T A$ and let $e_c \in V_c$, we have

$$\|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 \leq \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_{AD^{-1}A} \|(I - \Pi_c)e - Pe_c\|_D.$$

- If we assume, instead of (68), that

$$\inf_{e_c \in V_c} \|e - Pe_c\|_D^2 \leq \bar{\beta}_w \|e\|_A^2, \quad \forall e \in V, \quad (69)$$

then WAA holds:

$$\|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A^2 \leq \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_{AD^{-1}A} \|(I - \Pi_c)e - Pe_c\|_D \leq \bar{\beta}_w^{\frac{1}{2}} \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_{AD^{-1}A} \|(I - \Pi_c)e\|_A.$$



Defining Coarse Space

Reminder: The **desirable coarse space** should well approximate the lower end of the spectrum of $\bar{S}A$.

- However, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to obtain small eigen-pairs of $\bar{S}A$.
- The standard local relaxation methods satisfy that

$$\rho_A^{-1}(v, v)_A \lesssim (\bar{S}Av, v)_A \lesssim (v, v)_A.$$

It motivates the following definition of the algebraic smooth vector:

Definition (Algebraic smoothness)

Let $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ be a small parameter. If $e \in V$ satisfies

$$(\bar{S}Ae, e)_A \leq \varepsilon(e, e)_A, \quad \text{i.e. } (\bar{S}Ae, Ae) \leq \varepsilon \|e\|_A^2,$$

then e is algebraically ε -smooth (or the ε -algebraic low-frequency) with respect to A .



Remarks on Algebraic Smoothness

Algebraic smooth error:

- For algebraic smooth error component e , we have

$$\left((I - \bar{S}A)e, e \right)_A \geq (1 - \varepsilon)(e, e)_A \implies \frac{\|(I - SA)e\|_A^2}{\|e\|_A^2} \geq 1 - \varepsilon.$$

- This suggests that the smoother is not effective for e .

An alternative definition:

- Since \bar{S} is SPD, the algebraically smooth vectors satisfy that

$$\|e\|_A^2 = (\bar{S}^{\frac{1}{2}} A e, \bar{S}^{-\frac{1}{2}} e) \leq (\bar{S} A e, A e)^{1/2} (\bar{S}^{-1} e, e)^{1/2} \leq \varepsilon^{1/2} \|e\|_A (\bar{S}^{-1} e, e)^{1/2}.$$

- We can derive the following characterisation of algebraically smooth (low-frequency) vectors:

$$\|e\|_A^2 \leq \varepsilon \|e\|_{\bar{S}^{-1}}^2.$$

Key: Smooth error components in algebraic sense is whatever left after the smoothing steps.



Where To Find Smooth Error

- FE system of the Poisson's equation with Neumann boundary condition:

$$\frac{1}{h} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & & & & \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & -1 \\ & & & & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_{N-1} \\ u_N \end{pmatrix} = h \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_{N-1} \\ f_N \end{pmatrix}.$$

- FE discretization of the second-order elliptic equation with mixed boundary condition:

$$(Au, v) = \sum_{\substack{(i,j) \in E \\ i < j}} -a_{i,j}(u_i - u_j)(v_i - v_j), \quad \text{if } u_j = v_j = 0, \quad \forall x_j \in \Gamma_D. \quad (70)$$

- According to (70), the algebraically smooth error e satisfies that

$$\sum_{i < j} -a_{i,j}(e_i - e_j)^2 = (Ae, e) \leq \varepsilon \|e\|_{\overline{S}}^2 \ll 1. \quad (71)$$

⇒ Smooth error varies slowly in the direction of relatively “large” (negative) $a_{i,j}$.



Strongly Coupled Variables

The above observation motivates **strongly n-coupled variables**:

- Let $\theta_{\text{str}} \in (0, 1)$ be a given real number, usually called **relative strength** parameter.
- If a pair of indices (i, j) satisfies that

$$-a_{i,j} \geq \theta_{\text{str}} \left| \min_k a_{i,k} \right|,$$

then we say that the variable i is **strongly n-coupled** to the variable j .

Remarks on strongly coupled variables:

- This definition considers the i -th row of A and (i, j) and (j, i) are two different pairs.
- This definition can be generalized to **strongly coupled variables** by considering all coupling.
- S_j denotes the set of indices which **affects** j and S_j^T denotes the ones which are **affected** by j :

$$S_j := \{i \in N_j : i \text{ strongly coupled to } j\} \quad \text{and} \quad S_j^T := \{i \in V : j \in S_i\}.$$



Long-Distance Coupled Variables

In many cases, only considering direct neighbors for strong coupling is not enough! In order to reduce complexity, we can consider longer distance neighbors.

- After finding the strongly coupled variables, we can filter the coefficient matrix to obtain a filtered matrix A_S by removing non-strongly coupled connections.
- The above definition of strongly coupled variables applies to the direct connections; sometimes, we also need to consider indirect (i.e., long-range) connections.
- A typical example is the AMG method with aggressive coarsening.
- A variable i is said **strongly coupled** to another variable j along a path of length ℓ if there exists a sequence of edges

$$\{(i, k_1), (k_1, k_2), \dots, (k_{\ell-2}, k_{\ell-1}), (k_{\ell-1}, j)\} \subseteq E$$
 such that $k_{l+1} \in S_{k_l}$ for $l = 1, 2, \dots, \ell - 2$.
- If there exist a path of length ℓ such that i is strongly coupled to j , then we say that i is ℓ -strongly coupled to j and denoted by $j \in S_i^\ell$.

A Simple Example: 2D Five-Point Stencil

Consider five-point stencil finite difference on the mesh given in the following figure (left). Consider the vertex at the center (point 13). Then

$$S_{13} = \{12, 8, 14, 18\} \quad \text{and} \quad S_{13}^2 = \{12, 8, 14, 18, 11, 3, 15, 23, 7, 9, 19, 17\}.$$

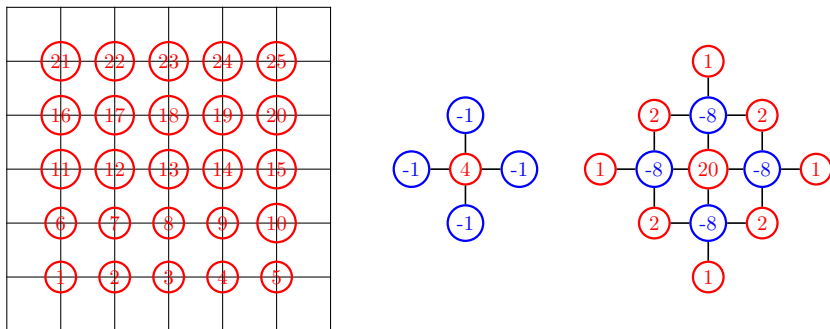


Figure: Finite difference grid (left), strong connections and weights in A of vertex 13 (middle), and 2-strong connections and weights in A^2 of 13 (right).

Example: Stiffness Matrix

$A =$

4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	-1	4	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-1	0	0	0	0	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0	0	-1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	0	0	0	0	-1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	4	-1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4	-1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	4
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	-1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	-1

Figure: The stiffness matrix A for five-point stencil finite difference scheme on the above mesh.



Example: Stiffness Matrix²

```
>> A*A
```

```
ans =
```

```

18  -8   1   0   0  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
-8  19  -8   1   0   2  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 1  -8  19  -8   1   0   2  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1  -8  19  -8   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   0   1  -8  18   0   0   0   2  -8   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
-8   2   0   0   0  19  -8   1   0   0  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 2  -8   2   0   0  -8  20  -8   1   0   2  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8  20  -8   1   0   2  -8   2   0   0   1   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8  20  -8   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   0
 0   0   0   2  -8   0   0   1  -8  19   0   0   0   2  -8   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0
 1   0   0   0   0  -8   2   0   0   0  19  -8   1   0   0  -8   2   0   0   0   1   0   0
 0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0  -8  20  -8   1   0   2  -8   2   0   0   1   0   0
 0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8  20  -8   1   0   2  -8   2   0   0   1   0
 0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8  20  -8   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0   1
 0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   0   0   1  -8  19   0   0   0   2  -8   0   0   0
 0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0  -8   2   0   0   0  19  -8   1   0   0  -8   2   0   0
 0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0  -8  20  -8   1   0   2  -8   2
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8  20  -8   0   0   2  -8
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8  19   0   0   2  -8
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0  18  -8   1   0   0
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   0  -8  19  -8   1
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   2   0   1  -8
 0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   1   0   0   0   2  -8   0   0   1  -8

```

Figure: The stiffness matrix A^2 for five-point stencil finite difference scheme on the above mesh.



Convergence Estimate on Space Decomposition

Definition (Algebraic high-frequency)

Let $\zeta \in (0, 1]$. If $e \in V$ satisfies that

$$\|e\|_A^2 \geq \zeta \|e\|_{\bar{S}^{-1}}^2,$$

then e is called the ζ -algebraic high-frequency vector with respect to A .

Theorem (Convergence estimate based on space decomposition)

Let $V_c \subset V$ be the coarse space and V_{hf} consist of ζ -algebraic high frequencies. For any $v \in V$, there exist $v_c \in V_c$ and $v_{\text{hf}} \in V_{\text{hf}}$ such that $v = Pv_c + v_{\text{hf}}$ and $\|v_{\text{hf}}\|_A^2 \leq \beta \|v\|_A^2$. Then the resulting two-level AMG satisfies

$$\|E_{\text{TG}}\|_A \leq 1 - \zeta\beta^{-1}.$$

Sketch of the proof:

Notice that we have the following estimate

$$\inf_{w_c \in V_c} \|v - Pw_c\|_{\bar{S}^{-1}}^2 \leq \|v_{\text{hf}}\|_{\bar{S}^{-1}}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\zeta} \|v_{\text{hf}}\|_A^2 \leq \frac{\beta}{\zeta} \|v\|_A^2.$$

Constructing Prolongation and Restriction

Iteration matrices for CGC

$$\text{Coarse-grid correction matrix: } u' = u + P(RAP)^{-1}R(f - Au)$$

$$\text{Error propagation matrix: } e' = (I - P(RAP)^{-1}RA)e$$

$$\text{Residual propagation matrix: } r' = (I - AP(RAP)^{-1}R)r$$

Remark: If $e \in \text{range}(P)$, i.e., $e = Pv_c$ for some v_c , then we have

$$e' = e - P(RAP)^{-1}RAe = e - P(RAP)^{-1}RAPv_c = e - Pv_c \equiv 0.$$

\Rightarrow Exact CGC is exact on $\text{range}(P)$ \Rightarrow Find P such that (smooth) error sits in $\text{range}(P)$!

Prolongation and restriction for AMG

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{ff} & A_{fc} \\ A_{cf} & A_{cc} \end{pmatrix}, \quad P := \begin{pmatrix} W \\ I \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad R := \begin{pmatrix} Z & I \end{pmatrix}.$$

Q: How to find **good** and **practical** prolongation operator P and restriction operator R accordingly?

Natural Prolongation and Restriction

Iteration matrices for F -relaxation (keep C -variables)

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} S_f & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \implies e' = \begin{pmatrix} I - S_f A_{ff} & -S_f A_{fc} \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} e \implies r' = \begin{pmatrix} I - A_{ff} S_f & 0 \\ -A_{cf} S_f & I \end{pmatrix} r.$$

If A_{ff} is **well-conditioned**, smoother S_f should work well for the fine error, i.e.

$$r_f = A_{ff} e_f + A_{fc} e_c \approx 0 \implies e_f \approx -A_{ff}^{-1} A_{fc} e_c.$$

Remark: This gives an **ideal** interpolation [Falgout, Vassilevski 2004]:

If $S_f = A_{ff}^{-1}$, $P_* := \begin{pmatrix} -A_{ff}^{-1} A_{fc} \\ I \end{pmatrix}$ represents fine error exactly ($e' = P_* e_c$).

How to choose restriction R for prolongation P_* ? Since $RAP_* \equiv A_{cc} - A_{cf} A_{ff}^{-1} A_{fc}$, CGC results in

$$r'_f = r_f, \quad r'_c = r_c - (A_{cc} - A_{cf} A_{ff}^{-1} A_{fc})(RAP_*)^{-1}(Zr_f + r_c) \equiv -Zr_f.$$

$\implies Z$ should be set to **zero!** $\implies R$ is an injector.



Motivating Good Interpolations

- Let $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ be a projection onto $\text{range}(P)$: $Q = PT$, where $T \in \mathbb{R}^{N_c \times N}$ and $TP = I_c$.
- If $T_s := (P^T AP)^{-1} P^T A$, then it is easy to see that $Q_s = PT_s = \Pi_c$.
- A simplified choice $T_w := (P^T DP)^{-1} P^T D$ can be used.
- For any vector $0 \neq e \in V$, we can assume (**strong** and **weak** approximability) that

$$\inf_{e_c \in V_c} \frac{\|e - Pe_c\|_A^2}{\|e\|_{AD^{-1}A}^2} \leq \frac{\|e - Qe\|_A^2}{\|e\|_{AD^{-1}A}^2} \leq \bar{\beta}_s \quad \text{or} \quad \inf_{e_c \in V_c} \frac{\|e - Pe_c\|_D^2}{\|e\|_A^2} \leq \frac{\|e - Qe\|_D^2}{\|e\|_A^2} \leq \bar{\beta}_w.$$

Assumption (Weak approximability)

$$\|(I - PT)v\|_D \leq \beta \|v\|_A, \quad \forall v \in V.$$

- Above inequalities give bounds for constructing P such that the TG method converges well.
- The error becomes pretty “smooth” after a few relaxation steps.
- An appropriate coarse space should approximate a smooth vector v accurately.

Ideal Interpolation

- According to the above WAA inequality, we want to minimize

$$\mu_D(Q, e) := \frac{\|(I - Q)e\|_D^2}{\|e\|_A^2}, \quad \forall e \neq 0.$$

D can be generalized to an SPD matrix X and

$$\mu_X(Q, e) := \frac{\|(I - Q)e\|_X^2}{\|e\|_A^2}, \quad \forall e \neq 0.$$

- Assume that $\mu_X(Q, e) \leq \kappa$. Then

$$\inf_{e_c \in V_c} \frac{\|e - Pe_c\|_X^2}{\|e\|_A^2} \leq \frac{\|e - Qe\|_X^2}{\|e\|_A^2} = \mu_X(Q, e) \leq \kappa. \quad (72)$$

We now minimize

$$\inf_P \sup_{e \neq 0} \mu_X(P, e)$$

to find the “best possible” prolongation P (**ideal interpolation**) [Falgout, Vassilevski 2004].

Properties of Ideal Interpolation

Lemma (Falgout, Vassilevski 2004)

Assume $Q = PT$ and $TP = I_{N_c}$. So Q is a projection onto $\text{range}(P)$. Then $\|E_{TG}\|_A^2 \leq 1 - \frac{1}{\mu}$, where

$$\mu := \sup_{e \neq 0} \frac{e^T (I - Q)^T \bar{S}^{-1} (I - Q) e}{e^T A e} \geq 1.$$

The magnitude of μ reflects the approximation property of the AMG method \implies Make it small.

Theorem (Falgout, Vassilevski 2004)

Given a matrix $G \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (N - N_c)}$ and $\text{rank}(G) = N - N_c$ such that $TG = 0$. Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ be SPD. Define

$$\mu_X(Q, e) := \frac{e^T (I - Q)^T X (I - Q) e}{e^T A e}.$$

We have

$$\mu_X^* := \min_P \max_{e \neq 0} \mu_X(Q, e) = \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}((G^T X G)^{-1} G^T A G)}$$

and the **unique** minimizer is P_* that satisfies $P_*^T A G = 0$.

A Simple Counterexample

This theory is misleading in several ways:

- The ideal interpolation is unique and not sparse in general.
- It is not practical to use ideal interpolation.
- Q: What role does G play and where it enters in an algorithm?

Example [Xuefeng Xu, Z. 2018]. Let $N = 3$, $N_c = 1$. Assume that

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P_o = R_o^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = D.$$

Applying the theory by Falgout and Vassilevski, one can obtain that

$$\mu_X^* = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad P_* = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \implies P_*^T A G = 0.$$

However, we have $\max_{e \neq 0} \mu_X(P_o R_o, e) = 2 = \mu_X^* \implies P_o$ is also ideal, yet sparse!

Theory of Ideal Interpolation

Definition: The set of ideal interpolations is $\mathbb{P}_* := \{P : \mu_X^* = \min_P \max_{e \neq 0} \mu_X(PR, e)\}$

Let $B := A - AP(P^T AP)^{-1}P^T A$, $Y_X := (G^T XG)^{-\frac{1}{2}}G^T YG(G^T XG)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}_* = \{P : \lambda_{\min}(A_X) = \lambda_{\min}(B_X)\}.$$

Theorem (Ideal Interpolation Set [Xuefeng Xu, Z. 2018; Xuefeng Xu, Thesis 2019])

We have $\mathbb{P}_0 \subseteq \mathbb{P}_* = \mathbb{P}_2 \subseteq \mathbb{P}_1$. If $P_* \in \mathbb{P}_0$, then $P_* = A^{-1}R^T(RA^{-1}R^T)^{-1}$. Here

$$\mathbb{P}_0 := \{P \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N_c} : P^T AG = 0\},$$

$$\mathbb{P}_1 := \{P \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N_c} : \text{null}(P^T AG) \cap V_A \neq \emptyset\},$$

$$\mathbb{P}_2 := \{P \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N_c} : \text{null}(P^T AG) \cap V_B \neq \emptyset\},$$

$$V_A := \{v \in \mathbb{R}^{N-N_c} \setminus \{0\} : G^T AGv = \lambda_{\min}(A_X)G^T XGv\},$$

$$V_B := \{v \in \mathbb{R}^{N-N_c} \setminus \{0\} : G^T BGv = \lambda_{\min}(B_X)G^T XGv\}.$$

Unfortunately, the ideal interpolation P_* is usually **expensive** to compute! Q: How to simplify it?



Simplified Assumption on P

Q: How to give the assumption more practical?

- By the weak approximation assumption and choosing $D := \|A\|I$, we have

$$\|A\|^{1/2} \|v - Qv\| \leq \beta \|v\|_A.$$

- If v is in the near-null space of A , i.e., $\|v\|_A \approx 0$, then $Qv \approx v$. \implies We can employ a simplified assumption – Constant-preserving!

Remark (Canonical prolongation operator)

Let $\mathbf{1}_N := (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$. Since the basis functions form a **partition of unity**, it follows that

$$(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N) \mathbf{1}_N = \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_i = 1 = \sum_{l=1}^{N_c} \phi_l^c = (\phi_1^c, \dots, \phi_{N_c}^c) \mathbf{1}_{N_c} = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N) P \mathbf{1}_{N_c}.$$

Hence we have that the prolongation matrix preserves constant away from the boundary $P \mathbf{1}_{N_c} = \mathbf{1}_N$.

Assumption (Constant preserving)

$$P \mathbf{1}_{N_c} = \mathbf{1}_N.$$

Direct Interpolation

It is “reasonable” [Stüben 2000; 2001] to assume, for smooth error components, that

$$A_{ff}e_f + A_{fc}e_c \approx 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij}e_j \approx 0, \quad i \in F$$

Hence we have

$$a_{ii}e_i + \sum_{j \in N_i} a_{ij}e_j = 0, \quad i \in F.$$

This is not an interpolation though (j could be in F too)! We modify it as

$$a_{ii}e_i + \alpha_i \sum_{j \in N_i \cap C} a_{ij}e_j = 0, \quad \alpha_i := \frac{\sum_{k \in N_i} a_{ik}}{\sum_{k \in N_i \cap C} a_{ik}}, \quad i \in F.$$

If $A_{i,:}$ has zero row-sum, we have $\alpha_i := \frac{-a_{ii}}{\sum_{k \in N_i \cap C} a_{ik}}$. So we obtain

$$e_i = \sum_{j \in N_i \cap C} w_{ij}e_j, \quad w_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_{k \in N_i \cap C} a_{ik}} \implies W = \text{diag}(A_{fc}\mathbf{1}_c)^{-1}A_{fc}.$$

Ideal Restriction

Now we turn to a general interpolation operator P . Any error can be written as

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} e_f \\ e_c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} We_c \\ e_c \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_f \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \text{range}(P) + \text{perturbation}$$

Because CGC is exact on $\text{range}(P)$, the new error can be given as

$$e' = \left(I - P(RAP)^{-1}RA \right) \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_f \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Remark: We can construct R_* , for all ϵ_f , such that

$$0 \equiv R_* A \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_f \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Z_* & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{ff} & A_{fc} \\ A_{cf} & A_{cc} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_f \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \implies Z_* = -A_{cf}A_{ff}^{-1}.$$

This yields the so-called **ideal restriction** $R_* := (Z_* \ I)$.

Apparently, in this case, we can show that

$$e'_f = \epsilon_f = e_f - We_c \quad \text{and} \quad e'_c = 0.$$



Approximated Ideal Restriction

Local Approximation of Ideal Restriction: Notice that the ideal restriction satisfies

$$R_*A = \begin{pmatrix} Z_*A_{ff} + A_{cf} & Z_*A_{fc} + A_{cc} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & S_c \end{pmatrix}.$$

Motivated by this relation, we can construct Z locally: For any $i \in C$, let

$$\sum_{k \in N_i \cap F} a_{kj} z_{ik} = -a_{ij}, \quad \forall j \in N_i \cap F.$$

That is to say,

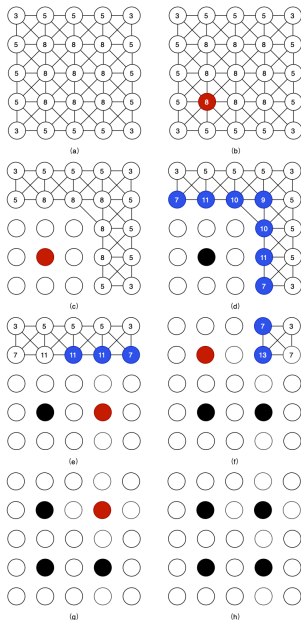
$$(RA)_{ij} = 0, \quad \forall i \in C, j \in N_i \cap F.$$

This is the main motivation of the so-called ℓ AIR scheme [Manteuffel, Ruge, Southworth 2018].

Remark: With appropriate C/F splitting, A_{ff} is diagonally dominant and the local problems are usually nonsingular. When they are singular or nearly singular, a minimal norm solution in the least-square sense can be used.

[Brezina et al. 2010; Manteuffel, Southworth 2019; Notay 2020]

Classical Coarsening Methods



- **Strong n-coupling:** $-a_{i,j} \geq \theta_{\text{str}} \left| \min_k a_{i,k} \right|$
 - $A = (a_{i,j}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is an M-matrix
 - $G = (V, E)$ is the corresponding graph of A
 - $S_i := \{j \in N_i : j \text{ strongly coupled to } i\}$
 - $S_i^T := \{j \in V : i \in S_j\}$, set affected by i

- **C/F splitting algorithm**

- Split variables into F and C
- Need a measure of importance λ_i for variable i

```

1 U ← V, C ← ∅, F ← ∅;
2 while U ≠ ∅
3    $\lambda_i \leftarrow 2|S_i^T \cap F| + |S_i^T \cap U|, i \in U;$ 
4    $k \leftarrow \arg \max\{\lambda_i, i \in U\};$ 
5    $C \leftarrow C \cup \{k\}, U \leftarrow U \setminus \{k\};$ 
6    $F \leftarrow F \cup S_k^T, U \leftarrow U \setminus S_k^T;$ 
7 end
  
```

Example: Classical Coarsening on Anisotropic Problem

Example: Consider an anisotropic diffusion example on a unit square:

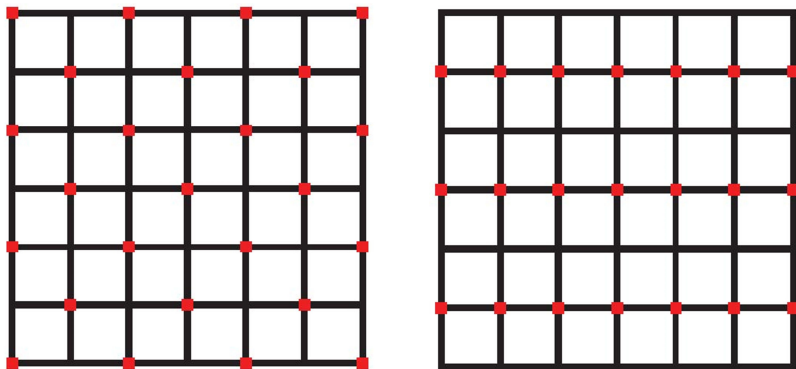
$$-\epsilon u_{xx} - u_{yy} = 0 \quad (\epsilon > 0).$$

- We have $\epsilon \|u_{xx}\| \approx \|u_{yy}\|$: The solution is smooth in y -direction; but rough in x -direction.
- We consider the five-point stencil. The difference equation at the node (x_i, y_j) is

$$-\epsilon \frac{2u_{i,j} - u_{i+1,j} - u_{i-1,j}}{h_x^2} - \frac{2u_{i,j} - u_{i,j-1} - u_{i,j+1}}{h_y^2} = 0.$$

- How to solve such an equation efficiently?
 - (1) Employ an anisotropic grid
 - (2) Use GMG with line smoother
 - (3) Use GMG with semi-coarsening
 - (4) Use AMG

Example: Results After Coarsening



- C/F splitting for the 2D elliptic problem with $\epsilon = 1$ (left) and $\epsilon \ll 1$ (right), where the red points are C-variables and the black points are F-variables.
- If $\frac{\epsilon}{h_x^2} \ll \frac{1}{h_y^2}$, then $u_{i,j}$ depends on $u_{i,j+1}$ and $u_{i,j-1}$ mainly. If we apply the C/F procedure, the coarsening will take place indeed in one direction only (semi-coarsening).



Complexity of AMG Methods

- Considering convergence alone is not meaningful in the algebraic multigrid context.
- An equally important aspect is the complexity of the coarser level matrices in AMG.
- This is because the computational complexity of each AMG cycle could be prohibitively large.
- Usually, the coarser matrices A_{l-1} becomes more dense than A_l .
- When constructing the prolongation P , we must control the sparsity of the coarse level matrices.
- We define a measurement of sparsity, i.e., the operator complexity

$$C_A := \frac{\sum_{l=0}^L \text{nnz}(A_l)}{\text{nnz}(A)},$$

where $\text{nnz}(\cdot)$ is the number of nonzeros of a matrix.

- Apparently, $C_A \geq 1$ is always true and $C_A = 1$ corresponds to the one-level case.
- We would like to make C_A as close to 1 as possible while keeping good convergence performance.

Reducing Complexity of Classical AMG

Reducing cost \implies Reducing complexity \implies Make the coarse-level problems more sparse!

1 Truncated Prolongation:

Some times (e.g. Jacobi interpolation), many interpolatory variables are used for interpolation. But weights for variables “far away” are usually relatively small. We can **drop** relatively small weights and **rescale** the remaining weights to keep the sum unchanged. \implies Reduce complexity of setup.

2 Aggressive Coarsening:

Some times (e.g. small stencils), standard C/F splitting leads to high complexity. Instead of **direct** neighbors, we can consider **long-range** strong connections. \implies Increasing number of “neighbors”, reduce number of C-points.

3 Approximate Coarse Problem:

We can specify a **sparsity pattern** for the coarse problem and then construct a method accordingly. \implies But this might cause serious convergence problem. \implies Requires great caution. Need theory!

[Stüben 2001; Falgout, Schroder 2014; ...]



Example: Aggressive Coarsening

Coarsening method	Standard	Aggressive
Operator complexity	2.889	1.606
Setup time (sec)	1.536	1.036
Number of iterations	6	38
Solve time (sec)	0.791	3.293
Time per iteration (sec)	0.132	0.087

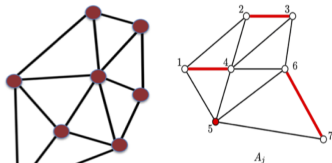
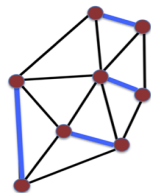
Table: Solving 2D five-point stencil of the Poisson's equation with 1 million DOF using different coarsening methods in the classical AMG method (stopping criteria for PCG is the relative residual smaller than 10^{-6}).

Example: Non-Galerkin AMG

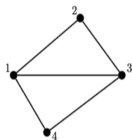
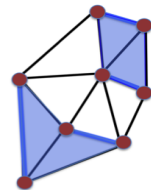
- Galerkin operators: not easy to keep sparsity
- Truncation directly often results in deteriorated convergence
- Non-Galerkin AMG method proposed in [Falgout and Schroder 2014]
- Numerical tests on the Poisson's equation [X. Yue, et al. Tech Report, 2020]

Grid	Num Iterations		Max Stencil		Operator Complexity	
64 X 64	11	11	33	20	2.53	2.45
128 X 128	11	11	37	21	2.59	2.48
256 X 256	11	11	37	22	2.62	2.50
512 X 512	11	11	37	23	2.64	2.51
1024 X 1024	13	11	38	22	2.64	2.51
8 X 8 X 8	10	10	37	36	2.52	2.50
16 X 16 X 16	11	11	53	47	2.84	2.80
32 X 32 X 32	11	11	92	59	3.06	2.99
64 X 64 X 64	12	12	145	83	3.19	3.08
128 X 128 X 128	14	12	259	90	3.27	3.14

Aggregation-Based Coarsening Methods

 A_j 

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

 $A_{j-1} = P_j^T A_j P_j$

Greedy aggregation algorithms

<pre> 1 N_c ← 0, U ← V; 2 for i ∈ U 3 if N_i ⊆ U 4 N_c ← N_c + 1; 5 C_{N_c} ← {i} ∪ N_i, U ← U \ C_{N_c}; 6 end 7 end </pre>	<pre> 1 U ← V; 2 for i ∈ U 3 S_i ← {j ∈ U : j is strongly coupled to i}; 4 construct a column of prolongation P based on S_i; 5 U ← U \ ({i} ∪ S_i); 6 end </pre>
---	---

Constructing prolongation operators:

$$(P)_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i \in C_j \\ 0, & \text{if } i \notin C_j \end{cases} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq N, 1 \leq j \leq N_c$$

- But simple prolongation yields nonuniform convergence!
- Cure 1: Smooth out the piecewise constant basis functions:

$$\psi_i = (I - \omega D^{-1} A) \mathbf{1}_i;$$

Hence we have the partition of unity

$$\sum_i \psi_i = (I - \omega D^{-1} A) \sum_i \mathbf{1}_i = (I - \omega D^{-1} A) \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1}.$$

- Cure 2: Apply more complex multilevel iterations.



Example: Aggregation AMG

- After forming aggregates one can apply UA or SA to give prolongation.
- Apply aggregation methods to solve the 2D Poisson's equation using the five-point stencil.
- For the SA method, we use the standard V-cycle multigrid in the solve phase.
- For the UA methods, we use the AMLI-cycle or K-cycle multigrid for better convergence.

Aggregation method	SA	UA	Pairwise UA
Number of levels	5	5	7
Operator complexity	1.364	1.264	1.332
Setup time (sec)	0.557	0.171	0.277
Number of iterations	16	21	12
Solve time (sec)	1.223	1.696	1.336

Table: Solving 2D five-point stencil of the Poisson's equation with 1 million DOF using aggregation-based AMG methods (stopping criteria for PCG is the relative residual smaller than 10^{-6}).



Algebraic Convergence Analysis

Assumptions on smoothers:

$$\rho(I - S_l A_l) < 1, \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, L$$

A -projection on level l :

$$\Pi_l := P_{l-1} A_{l-1}^{-1} P_{l-1}^T A_l$$

Convergence factor of MG for SPD problems:

- For multilevel AMG methods, we have very limited theoretical results.

The asymptotic convergence factor estimate [McCormick 1985]

$$\rho(E_{\text{MG}}^L) \leq 1 - \min_{1 \leq l \leq L} \min_{v_l \in \mathbb{R}^{n_l}} \frac{\|v_l\|_{A_l}^2 - \|(I - S_l A_l)v_l\|_{A_l}^2}{\|(I - \Pi_l)v_l\|_{A_l}^2}.$$

- We still do not have enough theoretical understanding to AMG methods.
- Usually two-level convergence results are utilized for constructing new AMG's in practice.

[Napov, Notay 2010; Maclachlan, Olson 2014; Notay 2015; Xu, Zikatanov 2017]

Convergence Estimates

Convergence theory for PTG: Assume that

$$\Delta_1 := \min \left\{ 1, \min_{v_c \in \mathcal{V}_c \setminus \{0\}} \frac{v_c^T B_c^{-1} v_c}{v_c^T A_c^{-1} v_c} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta_2 := \max \left\{ 1, \max_{v_c \in \mathcal{V}_c \setminus \{0\}} \frac{v_c^T B_c^{-1} v_c}{v_c^T A_c^{-1} v_c} \right\},$$

where $\mathcal{V}_c := \text{range}(P^T(I - AS))$.

Theorem (Convergence rate of PTG [Xuefeng Xu, Thesis 2019; Xuefeng Xu, Z. 2022])

The convergence rate of PTG can be estimated by

$$1 - \frac{\Delta_2}{K_{\text{TG}}} \leq \|E_{\text{PTG}}\|_A \leq \max \left\{ 1 - \frac{\Delta_1}{K_{\text{TG}}}, \Delta_2 - 1 \right\}$$

Remark: It is easy to see that

$$\min \{1, \lambda_{\min}(B_c^{-1} A_c)\} \leq \Delta_1 \leq 1 \leq \Delta_2 \leq \max \{1, \lambda_{\max}(B_c^{-1} A_c)\}.$$

Hence we can immediately obtain the results [Notay 2007; Falgout, Schroder 2014]:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{\min}(B_{\text{PTG}}^{-1} A) &\geq \lambda_{\min}(B_{\text{TG}}^{-1} A) \min \{1, \lambda_{\min}(B_c^{-1} A_c)\}, \\ \lambda_{\max}(B_{\text{PTG}}^{-1} A) &\leq \lambda_{\max}(B_{\text{TG}}^{-1} A) \max \{1, \lambda_{\max}(B_c^{-1} A_c)\}. \end{aligned}$$



Convergence Theory: From TG to MG

- Perturbed TG analysis: If TG converges uniformly with factor $\sigma < 0.5$, then W-cycle convergence factor ρ is bounded by $\frac{\sigma}{1-\sigma}$ [Notay 2007].
- Q: When can optimality carry over to the V-cycle? Optimal TG is not enough! Need uniform boundedness of the CGC projector Π_l [Napov, Notay 2010].
- Apply the above two-sided bound for the convergence rate of inexact TG method [Xu, Z. 2022]:

Smoother type	Cycle type	Convergence factor	#Iterations
Gauss-Seidel with CF-ordering	TG	0.459	25
	W	0.552	30
	V	0.899	122
Weighted Jacobi with weight 0.5	TG	0.536	36
	W	0.640	47
	V	0.931	227
Weighted Jacobi with weight 0.7	TG	0.859	147
	W	0.866	154
	V	0.941	326