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An a posteriori error estimator for the spectral fractional power of the Laplacian

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Abstract

We develop a novel a posteriori error estimator for the L^2 error committed by the finite element discretization of the solution of the fractional Laplacian. Our a posteriori error estimator takes advantage of the semi-discretization scheme using a rational approximation which allows to reformulate the fractional problem into a family of non-fractional parametric problems. The estimator involves applying the implicit Bank–Weiser error estimation strategy to each parametric non-fractional problem and reconstructing the fractional error through the same rational approximation used to compute the solution to the original fractional problem. We provide several numerical examples in both two and three-dimensions demonstrating the effectivity of our estimator for varying fractional powers and its ability to drive an adaptive mesh refinement strategy.

Keywords: Finite element methods, A posteriori error estimation, Fractional partial differential equations, Adaptive refinement methods, Bank–Weiser error estimator

2020 Mathematics Subject Classification: 65N15, 65N30

1 Introduction

Fractional partial differential equations (FPDEs) have gained in popularity during the last two decades and are now applied in a wide range of fields [72] such as anomalous diffusion [22, 41, 50, 55, 75], electromagnetism and geophysical electromagnetism [29, 83], phase fluids [9, 11, 54], porous media [11, 40, 20, 36], quasi-geostrophic flows [27] and spatial statistics [21, 71].

The main interest in fractional models lies in their ability to reproduce nonlocal behavior with a relatively small number of parameters [15, 39]. While this nonlocality can be interesting from a modeling perspective, it also constitutes an ongoing challenge for numerical methods since applying standard approaches naturally leads to large dense linear systems that are computationally intractable.

In the last decade various numerical methods have been derived in order to circumvent the main issues associated with the application of standard numerical methods to FPDEs, the two main ones being the non-locality leading to dense linear systems and, for some particular definitions of the fractional operator, the evaluation of singular integrals [6, 8].

We focus on discretization schemes based on finite element methods, other methods can be found e.g. in [1, 67, 78]. Among the methods addressing the above numerical issues, we can cite: methods

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to efficiently solve eigenvalue problems [41], multigrid methods for performing efficient dense matrix–vector products [6, 8], hybrid finite element–spectral schemes [7], Dirichlet-to-Neumann maps (such as the Caffarelli–Silvestre extension) [13, 37, 45, 58, 75, 80], semigroups methods [46, 47, 79], rational approximation methods [2, 66, 68], Dunford–Taylor integrals [21, 23, 24, 26, 28, 31, 61, 68] (which can be considered as particular examples of rational approximation methods) and reduced basis methods [48, 49, 52].

Although we focus exclusively on the spectral definition of the fractional Laplacian, there is no unique definition of the fractional power of the Laplacian operator. The three most frequently found definitions of the fractional Laplacian are: the integral fractional Laplacian, defined from the principal value of a singular integral over the whole space $\mathbb{R}^d$ [6, 8, 25, 37, 51], the regional fractional Laplacian, defined by the same singular integral but over a bounded domain only [44, 55, 57, 74] and the spectral fractional Laplacian, defined from the spectrum of the standard Laplacian over a bounded domain [7, 14, 17, 46, 66, 73]. The different definitions are equivalent in the entire space $\mathbb{R}^d$, but this is no longer the case on a bounded domain [22, 55, 70, 72]. These definitions lead to significantly different mathematical problems associated with infinitesimal generators of different stochastic processes [72, 55].

Efficient methods for solving fractional problems typically rely on a combination of different discretization methods. For example, [28], which is also the foundation of this work, combines a quadrature scheme for the Dunford–Taylor integral representation of the spectral fractional Laplacian with a standard finite element method in space. Both the quadrature scheme and the finite element method induce discretization errors. Each of these schemes is associated with its own discretization error. In order to achieve a solution to a given accuracy while avoiding wasted computational time, these errors need to be balanced.

A priori error estimation has been tackled for some definitions of the fractional Laplacian, such as the integral Laplacian [5, 6, 7, 22, 28, 62] and the spectral fractional Laplacian [13, 14, 17, 28, 73, 75]. Unlike the standard Laplacian equation, solutions to the fractional Laplacian problems often exhibit strong boundary layers even for smooth data, particularly when the fractional power is low [63]. These singularities lead to computational difficulties and have to be taken into account using, for example a priori geometric mesh refinement towards the boundary of the domain [5, 18, 25, 31, 58], or partition of unity enrichments [30]. We emphasize that [28] contains already an a priori error analysis in the L^2 norm for the combined rational sum finite element method that we use in this work.

A posteriori error estimation has also been considered in the literature on fractional equations. A simple residual based estimator is proposed for the integral fractional Laplacian in [6]. A similar idea is used in the context of nonlocal variational inequalities in [62, 76]. Gradient-recovery based a posteriori error estimation has been developed in the context of fractional differential equations in [84]. In [22, 45] the authors present another estimator, based on the solution to local problems on cylindrical stars, for the integral fractional Laplacian discretized using the Caffarelli–Silvestre extension. A weighted residual estimator is derived in [59] in the same context.

To our knowledge, no a posteriori error estimation method has been derived for the spectral fractional Laplacian, discretized using the rational approximation approach of [28].

2 Contribution

The main contribution of this work is the derivation of a novel a posteriori error estimator for the combined rational finite element approximation of the spectral fractional Laplacian. It is a natural a posteriori counterpart to the a priori results developed in [28].

Our work starts with the quadrature rule for the Dunford–Taylor integral proposed in the seminal work [28]. This method, and other rational approximation–based discretization methods, decompose the original fractional problem into a set of independent parametric non–fractional problems. From this point we develop an associated set of independent non–fractional a posteriori error estimation problems. We compute the Bank–Weiser hierarchical estimators [19] of the error between each non–fractional parametric problem solution and its finite element discretization, then the fractional problem discretization error is estimated by the sum of the parametric contributions via the rational approximation.

Our method leads to a fully local and parallelizable solution technique for the spectral fractional Laplacian with computable L^2 error. Our method is valid for any finite element degree (however, for the sake of brevity we do not show results with higher degree finite elements) and for one, two and three dimensional problems [36].

We implement our method in DOLFINx [64], the new problem solving environment of the FEniCS Project [12]. A simple demonstration implementation is included in the supplementary material. We show numerical results demonstrating that the estimator can correctly reproduce the a priori convergence rates derived in [28].

Our newly developed error estimator is then used to steer an adaptive mesh refinement algorithm, resulting in improved convergence rates for small fractional powers and strong boundary layers.

3 Motivation

Given a fractional power s in $(0, 1)$ and a rational approximation $\mathcal{Q}_s^\kappa(\lambda)$ of the function λ^{-s} , it is possible to construct a semi-discrete approximation u_κ of the solution u to a fractional Laplace equation as a weighted sum of solutions $(u_l)_l$ to non-fractional parametric problems. Then, a fully discrete approximation of u is obtained by discretizing the parametric solutions $(u_l)_l$ using a finite element method.

An a posteriori error estimator is then computed as the weighted sum of the Bank–Weiser estimators of the error between each u_l and its finite element discretization. As we will see in the following, the resulting numerical scheme is simple and its implementation in code is straightforward. Furthermore it maintains the appealing embarrassingly parallel nature of rational approximation schemes [28, 61, 66].

We remark on why we have chosen to use the Bank–Weiser type error estimator, as opposed to one of the many other error estimation strategies, e.g. explicit residual, equilibrated fluxes, or recovery-type estimators (see [10, 43] and references therein). In the case of fractional powers of the Laplacian operator, the resulting set of parametric problems consists of singularly-perturbed reaction–diffusion equations. It has been proven in [82] that the Bank–Weiser estimator is robust with respect to the coefficients appearing in these parametric problems when the error is measured in the natural norm. To our knowledge, no such robustness, which our numerical experiments do indicate, has been established for the L^2 -norm for the Bank–Weiser estimator. Nevertheless, our numerical experiments indicate that this does appear to be the case. Moreover, the Bank–Weiser estimator can be straightforwardly applied to higher-order finite element methods and higher-dimension problems. In addition, its computational stencil is highly local which is particularly appealing for three-dimensional problems see e.g. [36].

In this work we focus on error estimation in the L^2 norm, the estimation of the error in the ‘natural’ fractional norm is the topic of ongoing work. For simplicity, we only consider fractional powers of the Laplacian with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions.

4 Problem statement

For any subset ω of $\bar{\Omega}$ we denote $L^2(\omega)$ the space of square integrable functions on ω and $(\cdot, \cdot)_\omega$ its usual inner product. Let $H^1(\omega)$ be the Sobolev space of functions with first order weak derivatives in $L^2(\omega)$. The space $H^1(\omega)$ is endowed with the usual inner product $(\nabla \cdot, \nabla \cdot)_{L^2(\omega)} + (\cdot, \cdot)_{L^2(\omega)}$. We will omit the dependence in ω in the subscripts when $\omega = \Omega$. We will make use of the notation $\partial v / \partial n := \nabla v \cdot n$ for the normal derivative of a smooth enough function v . We denote $H_0^1(\Omega)$ the subspace of functions in $H^1(\Omega)$ with a zero trace on Γ .

We consider the family of eigenfunctions $\{\psi_i\}_{i=1}^\infty \subset H_0^1(\Omega)$ of the standard Laplacian operator with uniform zero Dirichlet boundary condition on Ω as well as the corresponding family of eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$. We assume the Laplacian eigenvalues are sorted in increasing order and we assume $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is a lower bound of the spectrum

$$\lambda_0 \leq \lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_i \leq \lambda_{i+1} \leq \dots \quad (1)$$

The family $\{\psi_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ is an orthonormal basis of $L^2(\Omega)$. For s in $(0, 1)$ we introduce the spectral fractional

Sobolev space $\mathbb{H}^s$ and its natural norm

$$\mathbb{H}^s := \left\{ v \in L^2(\Omega), \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i^s (v, \psi_i)^2 < \infty \right\}, \quad \|v\|_{\mathbb{H}^s}^2 := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i^s (v, \psi_i)^2. \quad (2)$$

Especially, for $0 \leq s \leq 1$ we have $H_0^1(\Omega) = \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega) \subseteq \mathbb{H}^s(\Omega) \subseteq L^2(\Omega) =: \mathbb{H}^0(\Omega)$ and the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\mathbb{H}^s}$ coincide with $\|\cdot\|_{L^2}$ when $s = 0$ and with $|\cdot|_{H^1}$ when $s = 1$.

4.1 The spectral fractional Laplacian

Let s be a real number in $(0, 1)$ and f be a given function in $L^2(\Omega)$. We consider the following fractional Laplacian problem: we look for a function u such that

$$(-\Delta)^s u = f \text{ in } \Omega, \quad u = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma. \quad (3)$$

The solution u of eq. (3) is defined using the spectrum of the standard Laplacian [14]

$$u := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i^{-s} (f, \psi_i) \psi_i. \quad (4)$$

If we notice that

$$(u, \psi_i) = \lambda_i^{-s} (f, \psi_i), \quad \forall i \geq 1, \quad (5)$$

then, for f in $L^2(\Omega)$ we can show that

$$\|u\|_{\mathbb{H}^{2s}} = \|f\|_{L^2}. \quad (6)$$

Moreover, we can derive an *equivalent* formulation of eq. (3). If we multiply eq. (3) by test functions v in $\mathbb{H}^s(\Omega)$ and integrate over Ω , we obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} (-\Delta)^s u v = \int_{\Omega} f v, \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{H}^s(\Omega). \quad (7)$$

Now, using the decompositions of u , v and f in the basis $(\psi_i)_{i=1}^{+\infty}$ we have

$$((-\Delta)^s u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i^s u_i v_i = \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i^{s/2} u_i \lambda_j^{s/2} v_j (\psi_i, \psi_j) = \left((-\Delta)^{s/2} u, (-\Delta)^{s/2} v \right).$$

Then, the solution u to eq. (7) satisfies

$$\left((-\Delta)^{s/2} u, (-\Delta)^{s/2} v \right) = (f, v), \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{H}^s(\Omega). \quad (8)$$

Conversely, if u is solution to eq. (8), we can show eq. (5) which leads to eq. (4) and eq. (3).

4.2 Rational approximation

Our method relies on rational approximations of the real function $\lambda \mapsto \lambda^{-s}$ for s in $(0, 1)$ and $\lambda \geq \lambda_0$ for some fixed $\lambda_0 > 0$. We are particularly interested in an example provided in [28]. This example is based on the following expression derived from Euler's reflection formula

$$\lambda^{-s} = \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{2sy} (1 + e^{2y} \lambda)^{-1} dy. \quad (9)$$

Then, the rational approximation is obtained from eq. (9) by discretizing the integral on the right-hand side with a trapezoidal quadrature rule,

$$\lambda^{-s} \simeq \mathcal{Q}_s^{\kappa}(\lambda) := \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi \kappa} \sum_{l=-M(\kappa)}^{N(\kappa)} e^{2sl\kappa} (1 + e^{2l\kappa} \lambda)^{-1}, \quad (10)$$

where $\kappa > 0$ is the fineness parameter and

$$M(\kappa) := \left\lceil \frac{\pi^2}{4s\kappa^2} \right\rceil, \quad \text{and} \quad N(\kappa) := \left\lceil \frac{\pi^2}{4(1-s)\kappa^2} \right\rceil, \quad (11)$$

where $\lceil \cdot \rceil$ is the ceiling function.

This particular scheme has some advantages compared to other rational methods. The coefficients $(e^{2sl\kappa})_{l=-M}^N$ and $(e^{2l\kappa})_{l=-M}^N$ are very easy to compute in comparison with methods based on e.g. best uniform rational approximations (BURA) (see [2, 66, 68, 69]). This scheme is also among the most efficient as shown in recent comparison studies (see [68, 81]). Various other examples of rational approximations can be found e.g. in [2, 3, 60, 66, 81]. We want to highlight again that the error estimation scheme developed later can be derived in the same manner regardless of the choice of the rational approximation, as long as it leads to a set of well-posed non-fractional parametric problems.

It has been shown in [28] that $\mathcal{Q}_s^\kappa$ converges uniformly to λ^{-s} at an exponential rate as $\kappa \rightarrow 0$. Especially, the approximation error is bounded by

$$|\lambda^{-s} - \mathcal{Q}_s^\kappa(\lambda)| \leq \varepsilon_s(\kappa), \quad \forall \lambda \geq \lambda_0, \quad \forall \kappa > 0, \quad (12)$$

with

$$\varepsilon_s(\kappa) = \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2s} + \frac{1}{2(1-s)\lambda_0} \right] \left[\frac{1}{1 - e^{-\pi^2/(2\kappa)}} + 1 \right] e^{-\pi^2/(2\kappa)}. \quad (13)$$

Asymptotically, $\varepsilon_s(\kappa)$ behaves like $e^{-\pi^2/(2\kappa)}$ as $\kappa \rightarrow 0$.

5 Discretization

We combine the rational approximation eq. (10) with a finite element method to derive a fully discrete approximation of the solution u to eq. (8).

5.1 Rational semi-discrete approximation

From eq. (10) we can derive semi-discrete approximations of the solution u to eq. (8) by considering

$$u_\kappa := \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi \kappa} \sum_{l=-M(\kappa)}^{N(\kappa)} e^{2sl\kappa} u_l, \quad (14)$$

where the functions $\{u_l\}_{l=1}^N$ are solutions to the parametric problems: for each l in $\llbracket -M, N \rrbracket$, find u_l in H_0^1 such that

$$(u_l, w) + e^{2sl\kappa} (\nabla u_l, \nabla w) = (f, w) \quad \forall w \in H_0^1. \quad (15)$$

It has been proved in [28] that the semi-discrete approximation u_κ converges to u in $L^2(\Omega)$ at the same speed as $\mathcal{Q}_s^\kappa(\lambda)$ converges to λ^{-s} . More precisely,

$$\|u - u_\kappa\|_{L^2} \leq \varepsilon_s(\kappa) \|f\|_{L^2}, \quad \forall \kappa > 0. \quad (16)$$

where $\varepsilon_s(\kappa)$ is defined in eq. (13).

We can deduce from eq. (16) the following two important points. Firstly, the rational approximation u_κ converges to u exponentially fast in κ . Therefore, it does not constitute a bottleneck in the rate of convergence when combined with a finite element method to obtain a fully discrete approximation. Secondly, the right-hand side of eq. (16) is technically an *a posteriori estimation* of the rational discretization error since $\varepsilon_s(\kappa)$ and $\|f\|_{L^2}$ can be calculated almost entirely using *a priori* known data. The only parameter that is not so easily computable in ε_s is λ_0 , a lower bound of the spectrum of the Laplacian on Ω . The bound $\varepsilon_s(\kappa)$ can be optimized by taking $\lambda_0 = \lambda_1$ but given its exponential convergence rate, $\varepsilon_s(\kappa)$ will not drastically deteriorates if $\lambda_0 < \lambda_1$. Moreover, precise guaranteed lower bounds for λ_1 could be obtained following e.g. [38, 42].

5.2 Finite element discretization

In order to get a fully discrete approximation of u , we use a finite element method to discretize the parametric problems eq. (15). Although it is not mandatory, we use the same mesh and same finite element space for all the parametric problems. We discuss this choice, and possible alternative strategies, in section 7.

Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a mesh on the domain Ω , composed of cells $\mathcal{T} = \{T\}$, facets $\mathcal{E} = \{E\}$ (we call *facets* the edges in dimension two and the faces in dimension three), and vertices. The mesh $\mathcal{T}$ is supposed to be regular, in Ciarlet's sense: $h_T/\rho_T \leq \gamma$, $\forall T \in \mathcal{T}$, where h_T is the diameter of a cell T , ρ_T the diameter of its inscribed ball, and γ is a positive constant fixed once and for all. The subset of facets that are not coincident with the boundary Γ (called interior facets) is denoted $\mathcal{E}_I$. Let n^+ and n^- in $\mathbb{R}^d$ be the outward unit normals to a given edge as seen by two cells T^+ and T^- incident to a common edge E . The space of polynomials of order p on a cell T is denoted $\mathcal{P}_p(T)$ and the continuous Lagrange finite element space of order p on the mesh $\mathcal{T}$ is defined by

$$V^p := \{v_p \in H^1(\Omega), v_p|_T \in \mathcal{P}_p(T) \forall T \in \mathcal{T}\}. \quad (17)$$

We denote V_0^p the finite element space composed by functions of V^p vanishing on the boundary Γ . For a given index l , the finite element discretization of eq. (15) reads: for each l in $\llbracket -M, N \rrbracket$, find $u_{l,p}$ in V_0^p such that

$$(u_{l,p}, v_p) + e^{2l\kappa} (\nabla u_{l,p}, \nabla v_p) = (f, v_p), \quad \forall v_p \in V_0^p. \quad (18)$$

Then, combining eq. (14) with eq. (18) we can give a fully discrete approximation of the solution to eq. (8)

$$u \approx u_{\kappa,p} := \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi \kappa} \sum_{l=-M(\kappa)}^{N(\kappa)} e^{2sl\kappa} u_{l,p}. \quad (19)$$

The computation of $u_{\kappa,p}$ is summarized in the top part of fig. 1.

6 Finite element discretization error analysis

According to what we have seen in section 4.2, the rational approximation error, characterized by $\|u - u_\kappa\|_{L^2}$ converges exponentially fast. Consequently, we will consider this error to be negligible and assume that the rational scheme $\mathcal{Q}_s^\kappa$ is precise enough (i.e. κ is small enough) so that

$$u \simeq u_\kappa. \quad (20)$$

Our goal is to bound the discretization error in the L^2 norm

$$\|u - u_{\kappa,p}\|_{L^2} \simeq \|u_\kappa - u_{\kappa,p}\|_{L^2}. \quad (21)$$

Since for any $s \in (0, 1)$, the discrepancy $u - u_{\kappa,p}$ belongs to $\mathbb{H}^s(\Omega) \subset L^2(\Omega)$, the error can be measured in the L^2 norm for any value of the fractional power s .

6.1 Heuristics

Let us start with some heuristics motivating the derivation of our a posteriori error estimator. The main idea is to derive a function $e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}$ that locally represents the discretization error in the solution to the fractional problem $(u_\kappa - u_{\kappa,p})|_T$ on a cell T of the mesh. Thanks to the rational approximation we notice that

$$(u_\kappa - u_{\kappa,p})|_T = \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi \kappa} \sum_{l=-M}^N e^{2sl\kappa} (u_l - u_{l,p})|_T. \quad (22)$$

So we can use the framework proposed by Bank and Weiser in [19] to derive solutions $e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}}$ such that

$$e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}} \simeq (u_l - u_{l,p})|_T, \quad \forall l \in \llbracket -M, N \rrbracket, \forall T \in \mathcal{T}. \quad (23)$$

We obtain $e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}$ using the rational approximation sum

$$e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}} := \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi \kappa} \sum_{l=-M}^N e^{2sl\kappa} e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}} \simeq (u_\kappa - u_{\kappa,p})|_T, \quad \forall T \in \mathcal{T}. \quad (24)$$

Finally, we can estimate the L^2 error on the cell T by taking the norm of the function $e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}$

$$\|e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\|_{L^2} \approx \|u_\kappa - u_{\kappa,p}\|_T. \quad (25)$$

These heuristics are summarized in fig. 1.

We would like to emphasize that the Bank–Weiser estimator is not the only possible choice. In fact, the Bank–Weiser estimator could be replaced with another estimator based on the solves of local problems, such as e.g. the one used in [75].

6.2 A posteriori error estimation

Let us now derive our a posteriori error estimation method more precisely. As mentioned in the last subsection, this estimator is based on a hierarchical estimator computed from the solves of local Neumann problems on the cells and introduced for the first time by Bank and Weiser in [19].

Let T be a cell of the mesh. We make use of the following local finite element spaces

$$V_T^p := \{v_{p,T} \in \mathcal{P}_p(T), \ v_{p,T} = 0 \text{ in } (\Omega \setminus \bar{T}) \cup (\bar{T} \cap \partial\Omega)\}. \quad (26)$$

Let us now consider two non-negative integers p_+ and p_- such that $p_+ > p_- \geq 0$ and $\mathcal{L}_T : V_T^{p_+} \rightarrow V_T^{p_-}$ the local Lagrange interpolation operator. We introduce the *local Bank–Weiser space*, defined by

$$V_T^{\text{bw}} := \ker(\mathcal{L}_T) = \{v_{p_+,T} \in V_T^{p_+}, \ \mathcal{L}_T(v_{p_+,T}) = 0\}. \quad (27)$$

The local parametric Bank–Weiser problem associated to the parametric problems eq. (15) and eq. (18) reads

$$\int_T e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}} v_T^{\text{bw}} + e^{2sl\kappa} \int_T \nabla e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}} \cdot \nabla v_T^{\text{bw}} = \int_T r_{l,T} v_T^{\text{bw}} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{E \in \partial T} \int_E J_{l,E} v_T^{\text{bw}}, \quad \forall v_T^{\text{bw}} \in V_T^{\text{bw}} \quad (28)$$

where $r_{l,T}$ and $J_{l,T}$ are defined as follow:

$$r_{l,T} := f|_T - u_{l,p}|_T + e^{2l\kappa} \Delta u_{l,p}|_T, \quad \text{and} \quad J_{l,T} := e^{2l\kappa} \left\| \frac{\partial u_{l,p}}{\partial n} \right\|_E. \quad (29)$$

The solution $e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}}$ in V_T^{bw} is the local parametric Bank–Weiser solution. More details about the computation and implementation of the Bank–Weiser solutions can be found in [19, 36].

Then, we derive the local *fractional* Bank–Weiser solution by summing the local parametric Bank–Weiser solutions into the rational approximation sum

$$e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}} := \frac{2 \sin(\pi s)}{\pi \kappa} \sum_{l=-M}^N e^{2sl\kappa} e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}}. \quad (30)$$

The local fractional Bank–Weiser estimator is then defined as the L^2 norm of this local solution

$$\eta_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}} := \|e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\|_{L^2(T)}. \quad (31)$$

The global fractional Bank–Weiser estimator is then defined by

$$\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}^2} := \sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \eta_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}^2}. \quad (32)$$

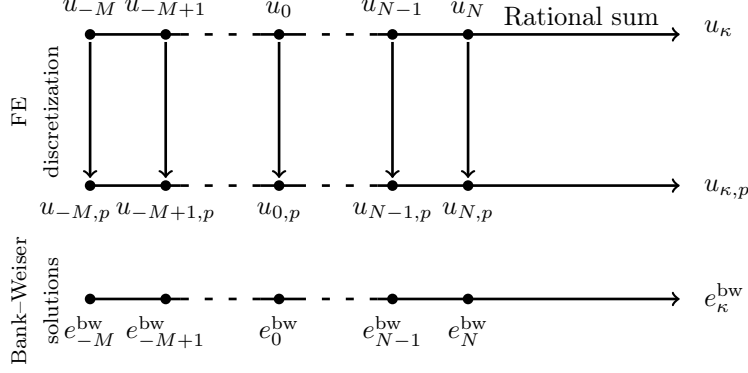


Figure 1: Summary of the computation of the fractional solution approximation and of the fractional Bank-Weiser solution.

7 Adaptive refinement

One of the main applications of a posteriori error estimation is to drive adaptive mesh refinement algorithms. When the error is unevenly spread across the mesh, refining uniformly is a waste of computational resources leading to suboptimal convergence rates in the number of degrees of freedom. This problem is compounded for computationally expensive problems like fractional problems. Moreover, it is known that fractional problems often show a boundary layer behavior, the discretization error is consequently large in a localized region near the boundary [4, 32, 81]. This problem has been tackled using graded meshes that are refined near the boundary based on a priori or a posteriori considerations [22, 45, 62, 73]. As expected, the use of graded meshes improves the convergence of the methods.

Adaptive refinement algorithms are based on the loop

$$\dots \longrightarrow \text{Solve} \longrightarrow \text{Estimate} \longrightarrow \text{Mark} \longrightarrow \text{Refine} \longrightarrow \dots$$

In this work we are concerned with developments in the modules *solve* and *estimate*. We are using totally standard approaches, namely the Dörfler algorithm [53] for the *mark* module and the Plaza-Carey algorithm [77] for the *refine* module.

Rational approximation methods have the advantage of being fully parallelizable due to the independence of the parametric problems from each other. Similarly, the local a posteriori error estimation method we have presented earlier is also parallelizable since the computation of the local Bank-Weiser solutions on the cells are independent from each other. Our error estimation strategy combines these advantages and is fully parallelizable both with respect to the parametric problems and local estimators computation. An example of error estimation and adaptive refinement algorithm based on our method is shown in fig. 2.

The algorithm presented in fig. 2 is based on three loops: one **While** loop and two **For** loops. The **While** loop is due to the adaptive refinement procedure and can not be parallelized. However, the two **For** loops are fully parallelizable and this parallelization can be highly advantageous for large three-dimensional problems.

Note that there is no guarantee that the mesh we obtain at the end of the main **While** loop in fig. 2 is optimal for all the parametric problems. For some of the parametric solutions without boundary layers the mesh is certainly over-refined. An alternative approach could be to compute the L^2 norms of the parametric Bank-Weiser solutions $e_{i,T}^{bw}$ in order to derive parametric Bank-Weiser estimators and refine the meshes independently for each parametric problem. This would require the storage of a possibly different mesh for each parametric problem at each iteration. More importantly, this would mean summing parametric finite element solutions coming from different and possibly non-nested meshes. Properly addressing this question is beyond the scope of this study. Nonetheless, we give some hints the numerical section section 9.1.

```

Choose a tolerance  $\varepsilon > 0$ 
Choose an initial mesh  $\mathcal{T}_{n=0}$ 
Choose  $\kappa$  such that  $\varepsilon_s(\kappa)\|f\|_{L^2} < \varepsilon$ 
Generate the rational approximation  $\mathcal{Q}_s^\kappa$  coefficients
Initialize the estimator  $\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}} = \varepsilon + 1$ 
While  $\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}} > \varepsilon$ :
    Initialize the local Bank–Weiser solutions  $\{e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\}_T$  to zero
    Initialize the solution  $u_{\kappa,p}$  to zero
    For each parametric problem  $l \in \llbracket -M, N \rrbracket$ :
        Solve eq. (18) on  $\mathcal{T}_n$  to obtain  $u_{l,p}$ 
        Add  $(2 \sin(\pi s)/\pi s) e^{2sl\kappa} u_{l,p}$  to  $u_{\kappa,p}$ 
        For each cell  $T$  of  $\mathcal{T}_n$ :
            Solve eq. (28) to obtain  $e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}}$ 
            Add  $(2 \sin(\pi s)/\pi s) e^{2sl\kappa} e_{l,T}^{\text{bw}}$  to  $e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}$ 
    Compute the  $L^2$  norms of  $\{e_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\}_T$  to obtain  $\{\eta_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\}_T$ 
    Take the square root of the sum of  $\{\eta_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\}_T$  to obtain  $\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}}$ 
    If  $\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}} \leq \varepsilon$ :
        Stop the loop
        Return  $u_{\kappa,p}$  and  $\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}}$ 
    Mark the mesh using  $\{\eta_{\kappa,T}^{\text{bw}}\}_T$ 
    Refine the mesh and replace  $\mathcal{T}_n$  by  $\mathcal{T}_{n+1}$ 

```

Figure 2: Error estimation and adaptive refinement algorithm outline in pseudo-code.

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Num. param. prob.	408	176	149	176	408

Table 1: Number of parametric problems solved for each fractional power.

8 Implementation

We have implemented our method using the DOLFINX finite element solver of the FEniCS Project [12]. Each parametric subproblem is submitted to a batch job queue. A distinct MPI communicator is used for each job. We use a standard first-order Lagrange finite element method and the resulting linear system is solved using the conjugate gradient method preconditioned using BoomerAMG from HYPRE [56] via the interface in PETSc [16]. To compute the Bank-Weiser error estimator for each subproblem we use the methodology outlined in [36] and implemented in the FEniCSx-EE package [35]. For every subproblem the computed solution and error estimate is written to disk in HDF5 format. A final step, running on a single MPI communicator, reads the solutions and error estimates for all subproblems, computes the quadrature sums using `axpy` operations, defines the marked set of cells to be refined using the Dörfler algorithm [53], and finally refines the mesh using the Plaza-Carey algorithm [77].

A more complex implementation using a single MPI communicator split into sub-communicators would remove the necessity of reading and writing the solution and error estimate for each subproblem to and from disk. However, in practice the cost of computing the parametric solutions massively dominates all other costs.

9 Numerical results

First, we need to choose the value of κ in order to guarantee that the rational approximation error is negligible. From eq. (16), we know a bound that depends on s , λ_0 and $\|f\|_{L^2}$. However, in all our test cases we know that $\lambda_0 = \lambda_1 = 1$ is a lower bound for the spectrum of the Laplacian and the data f is always chosen such that $\|f\|_{L^2} = 1$. It turns out that taking $\kappa = 0.26$ ensures that $\|u - u_\kappa\|_{L^2} \leq 10^{-8}$, no matter the choice of $s \in (0, 1)$. This choice leads to a different number of parametric problems to solve for each fractional power, these numbers are detailed in table 1.

When analytical solutions are known, we provide the efficiency indices of the Bank-Weiser estimator, defined by $\eta_\kappa^{\text{bw}} / \|u_\kappa - u_{\kappa,1}\|_{L^2}$.

9.1 Two-dimensional product of sines test case

We solve eq. (3) on the square $\Omega = (0, \pi)^2$ with data $f(x, y) = (2/\pi) \sin(x) \sin(y)$. The analytical solution to this problem is given by $u(x, y) = 2^{-s} (2/\pi) \sin(x) \sin(y)$. Moreover, the analytical solutions to the parametric problems eq. (15) are also known $u_l(x, y) = (1 + 2e^{2l\kappa})^{-1} (2/\pi) \sin(x) \sin(y)$. The problem is solved on a hierarchy of structured (triangular) meshes. For this test case the solution u shows no boundary layer behavior, therefore adaptive refinement cannot improve the convergence rate. Consequently we only perform uniform refinement on this case. As we can see on fig. 3, the Bank-Weiser estimator tends to be very accurate when the mesh is fine enough when $s = 0.3$ and $s = 0.7$. In fact, its accuracy is robust with respect to the fractional power. The efficiency indices are computed by taking the average of the ratios for the five last meshes of the hierarchy and are shown for various fractional powers in table 3.

Theorem 4.3 from [28] gives a convergence rate for the finite element scheme depending on the elliptic regularity index α of the Laplacian over Ω , on the fractional power and on the regularity index δ of the data f . Since Ω is convex the elliptic "pick-up" regularity index α can be taken to be 1 [22] and since f is infinitely smooth the coefficient δ can be taken as large as wanted. Consequently, Theorem 4.3 in [28] predicts a convergence rate of dof^{-1} for this test case. The convergence rates we measure in practice, shown in table 2, are coherent with this prediction. These rates are computed from a linear regression fit on the values obtained on the five last meshes of the hierarchy.

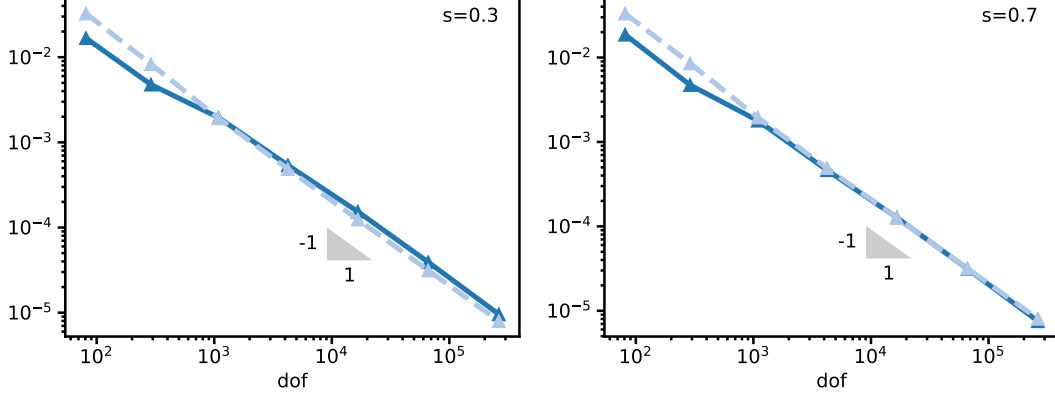


Figure 3: **Two-dimensional product of sines test case:** the Bank-Weiser estimator $\eta_{\kappa}^{\text{bw}}$ in solid blue line is compared to the exact error in dashed light blue line for $s = 0.3$ and $s = 0.7$.

9.1.1 Parametric problems discretization error

Since we know the analytical solutions to the parametric problems in this case, it is possible to compute the exact parametric discretization errors $\|u_l - u_{l,1}\|_{L^2}$, for each $l \in \llbracket -M, N \rrbracket$. It is possible then to investigate the consequences of using the same mesh for all the parametric problems. In fig. 4 we have plotted the exact parametric errors after five steps of (uniform) refinement. As we can notice, the same mesh leads to a wide range of parametric errors values, especially for fractional powers s close to 1. These errors are particularly low for high values of the index l , when the diffusion part of the operator is dominant. However, when l becomes less than zero, i.e. when the reaction part is dominant the mesh seems to have an equal effect on the parametric errors. As expected these results suggest that the method can be optimized by using different meshes depending on l . In particular, coarser meshes would be sufficient for high values of l . These results are obtained for uniform refinement, further investigations deserve to be carried out for adaptive refinement.

As we explained earlier, using a different hierarchy of meshes for each parametric problem may be computationally advantageous, at the expense of ease of implementation. Several hierarchies of meshes would need to be stored and, in the case of adaptive mesh refinement, interpolation between possibly non-nested meshes would be required in order to compute the fractional solution u . To avoid these complications when adaptive refinement is used, we propose the following:

1. use the same hierarchy of meshes for all the parametric problems but not the same mesh. Some parametric problems might be solved on coarser meshes from the hierarchy and others on finer ones. This would allow to keep only one hierarchy of meshes stored in memory. Moreover, it would avoid the interpolation between non-nested meshes, since meshes from the same hierarchy being always nested.
2. selectively refine the mesh hierarchy: estimate the error globally for each parametric problem (this can be done using the local parametric Bank-Weiser solutions) and mark the parametric problems for which a finer mesh is required, using e.g. a marking algorithm similar to Dörfler's marking strategy.

9.2 Three-dimensional product of sines test case

This test case is the three-dimensional equivalent of the last test case. We solve eq. (3) on the cube $\Omega = (0, \pi)^3$ with data $f(x, y, z) = (2/\pi)^{3/2} \sin(x) \sin(y) \sin(z)$. The analytical solution to this problem is given by $u(x, y, z) = 3^{-s} (2/\pi)^{3/2} \sin(x) \sin(y) \sin(z)$. The problem is solved on a hierarchy of uniformly refined Cartesian (tetrahedral) meshes. As for the two-dimensional case, the solution u shows no boundary layer behavior and adaptive refinement is not required. For the same reasons as for

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Estimator	-0.92	-0.97	-0.99	-1.00	-1.00
Exact error	-1.00	-1.00	-1.00	-1.00	-0.94

Table 2: **Two-dimensional product of sines test case:** convergence rates of the Bank–Weiser estimator and of the exact error for various fractional powers.

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Est. eff. index	0.86	1.16	1.08	0.96	0.78

Table 3: **Two-dimensional product of sines test case:** efficiency indices of the Bank–Weiser estimator for various fractional powers.

the two-dimensional case, Theorem 4.3 from [28] predicts a convergence rate of $\text{dof}^{-2/3}$ for the finite element scheme. fig. 5 shows the values of the Bank–Weiser estimator and of the exact error (computed from the knowledge of the analytical solution) for $s = 0.3$ and $s = 0.7$. As in the two-dimensional case, the efficiency indices are relatively robust with respect to the fractional powers. They are shown for various fractional powers in table 5 and are computed by taking the average of the indices from the three last meshes of the hierarchy. As we can see, the Bank–Weiser estimator efficiency indices for this three-dimensional case are not as good as in the two-dimensional case. We have already observed this behavior for non-fractional problems [34]. We can notice that the convergence rates, given in table 4, are coherent with the predictions of Theorem 4.3 from [28]. The convergence rates are computed from a linear regression on the values computed from the three last meshes of the hierarchy.

9.3 Two-dimensional checkerboard test case

We solve the problem introduced in the numerical results of [28]. We consider a unit square $\Omega = (0, 1)^2$ with data $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given for all $(x_1, x_2) \in \Omega$ by

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (x_1 - 0.5)(x_2 - 0.5) > 0, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

The data $f \in \mathbb{H}^{1/2-\varepsilon}(\Omega)$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$. So in Theorem 4.3 of [28] the index $\delta < 1/2$ and since Ω is convex again α can be chosen equal to 1. Then, the predicted convergence rate (for uniform refinement) is $\ln(\sqrt{\text{dof}})\text{dof}^{-\beta}$ with

$$\beta = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } s > \frac{3}{4}, \\ s + \frac{1}{4}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

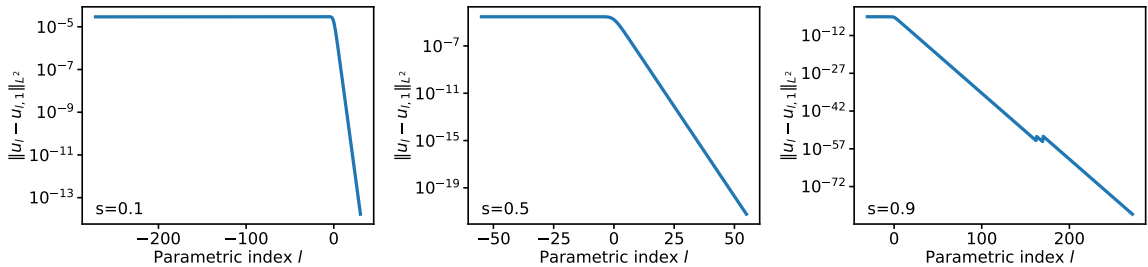


Figure 4: **Two-dimensional product of sines test case:** variation of the exact parametric errors with respect to the index $l \in \llbracket -M, N \rrbracket$ for three different fractional powers.

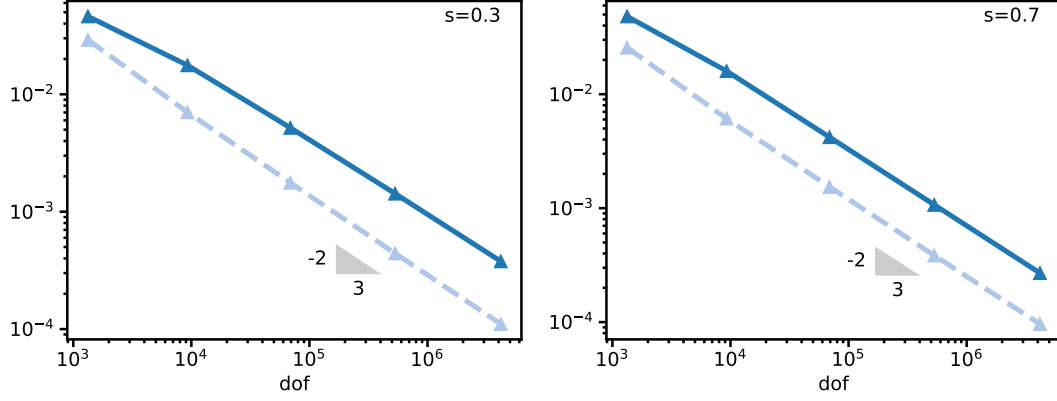


Figure 5: **Three-dimensional product of sines test case:** the Bank–Weiser estimator $\eta_{\kappa}^{\text{bw}}$ in solid blue line is compared to the exact error in dashed light blue line for various fractional powers.

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Estimator	-0.56	-0.60	-0.63	-0.65	-0.66
Exact error	-0.69	-0.69	-0.69	-0.69	-0.69

Table 4: **Three-dimensional product of sines test case:** convergence rates of the Bank–Weiser estimator and of the exact error for various fractional powers.

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Est. eff. index	2.12	3.20	3.08	2.77	2.45

Table 5: **Three-dimensional product of sines test case:** efficiency indices of the Bank–Weiser estimator for various fractional powers.

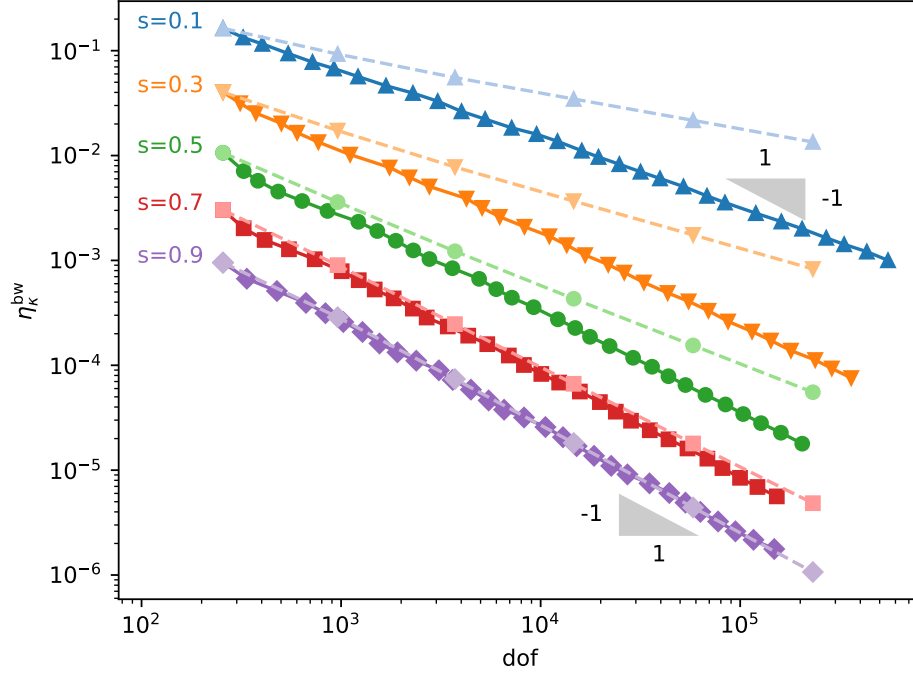


Figure 6: **Two-dimensional checkerboard test case:** for each fractional power we compare the values of the Bank–Weiser estimator $\eta_{\kappa}^{\text{bw}}$ when uniform refinement is performed (dashed light lines) and when adaptive refinement is performed (solid lines).

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Theory [28]	-0.35	-0.55	-0.75	-0.95	-1.00
Est. (unif.)	-0.35	-0.55	-0.76	-0.95	-1.00
Est. (adapt.)	-0.65	-0.84	-0.93	-0.97	-1.01

Table 6: **Two-dimensional checkerboard test case:** convergence slopes of the Bank–Weiser estimator for uniform refinement and for adaptive refinement compared to the values predicted by [28] for various fractional powers.

The predicted (if we omit the logarithmic term) and calculated convergence rates for different choices of s are given in table 6. As we can see on this table, the convergence rates for the Bank–Weiser estimator is globally coherent with the predictions. fig. 6 shows that adaptive refinement improves the convergence rate for small fractional powers. This is expected, the deterioration in the convergence rate is due to the boundary layer behavior of the solution that is getting stronger as the fractional power decreases. When the fractional power is close to 1, the solution behaves like the solution to a non-fractional problem for which adaptive refinement is no longer needed. This can be seen on fig. 7, after 10 steps of adaptive refinement, the mesh associated to fractional power $s = 0.9$ is almost uniformly refined while the meshes associated to $s = 0.5$ and $s = 0.1$ show strongly localized refinement. This explains why in fig. 6 we barely see any improvement in the convergence rate when the mesh is adaptively refined compared to uniformly refined when $s \geq 0.7$.

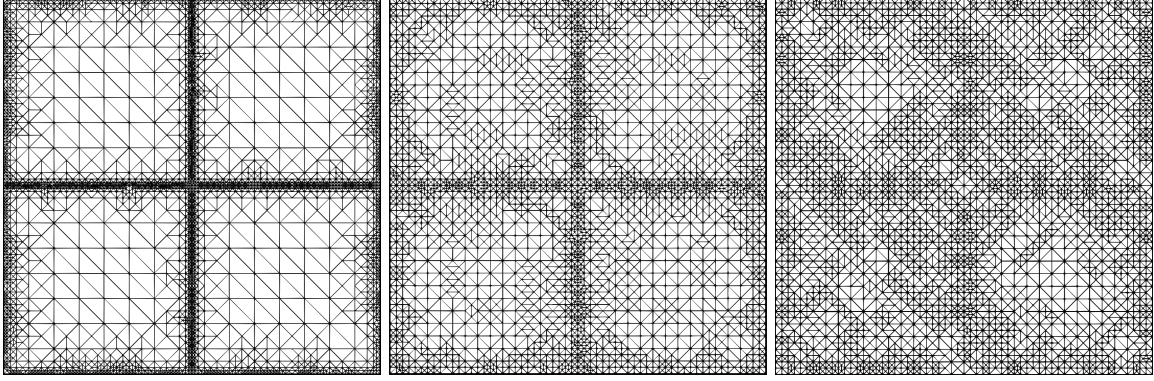


Figure 7: **Two-dimensional checkerboard test case:** meshes obtained after 10 steps of adaptive refinement steered by the Bank–Weiser estimator for $s = 0.1$, $s = 0.5$ and $s = 0.9$ from left to right.

Frac. power	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Theory [28]	-0.23	-0.37	-0.50	-0.63	-0.67
Est. (unif.)	-0.24	-0.38	-0.52	-0.62	-0.67
Est. (adapt.)	-0.33	-0.46	-0.55	-0.65	-0.68

Table 7: **Three-dimensional checkerboard test case:** convergence slopes of the Bank–Weiser estimator for uniform refinement and for adaptive refinement compared to the values predicted by [28] for various fractional powers.

9.4 Three-dimensional checkerboard test case

This test case is the three-dimensional version of the above checkerboard problem. We solve eq. (3) on the unit cube $\Omega = (0, 1)^3$, with data f such that

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (x_1 - 0.5)(x_2 - 0.5) > 0 \text{ and } (x_3 - 0.5) < 0, \\ 1, & \text{if } (x_1 - 0.5)(x_2 - 0.5) < 0 \text{ and } (x_3 - 0.5) > 0, \\ -1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (35)$$

The finite element solution u_1 and the corresponding mesh after six steps of adaptive refinement are shown in fig. 8 for the fractional power $s = 0.5$. As for the two-dimensional case, $f \in \mathbb{H}^{1/2-\varepsilon}(\Omega)$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$. Consequently, once again Theorem 4.3 of [28] predicts a convergence rate (for uniform refinement) equal to $\ln(\text{dof}^{1/3}) \text{dof}^{-2\beta/3}$ with β given by eq. (34).

Once again, if we omit the logarithmic term, the predicted and calculated convergence rates are given in table 7. As in the two-dimensional case, the convergence rates of the Bank–Weiser estimator are globally coherent with the predictions and the boundary layer behavior becomes stronger as the fractional power decreases leading to poorer convergence rates. section 9.4 shows the values of the Bank–Weiser estimator for uniform and adaptive refinement and for several fractional powers.

10 Concluding remarks

In this work we presented a novel a posteriori error estimation method for the spectral fractional Laplacian. This method benefits from the embarrassingly parallel character of both the Bank–Weiser error estimator and the rational approximation methods, thus keeping the appealing computational aspects of the underlying methodology in [28]. Here are two important points we want to make to conclude this paper. First, the Bank–Weiser estimator seems to be equivalent to the L^2 exact error at least when structured meshes are used and when the solution u is smooth. Second, adaptive

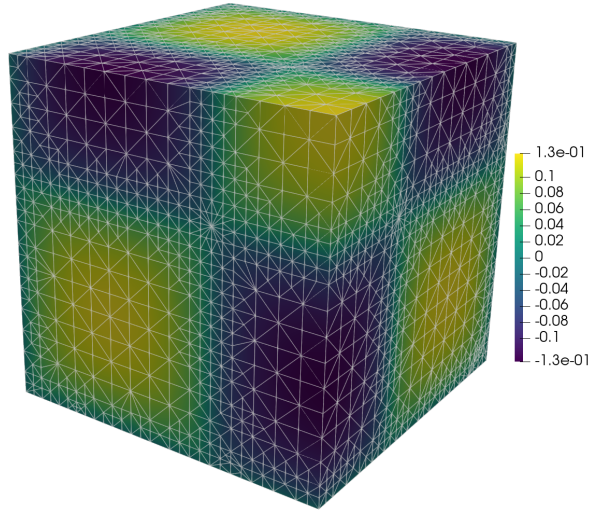


Figure 8: **Three-dimensional checkerboard test case:** finite element solution and mesh after six steps of adaptive refinement when $s = 0.5$. The unit cube domain $(0,1)^3$ is truncated by the three planes passing through the point $(0.25, 0.25, 0.25)$ and orthogonal to the vectors $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 1)$ respectively.

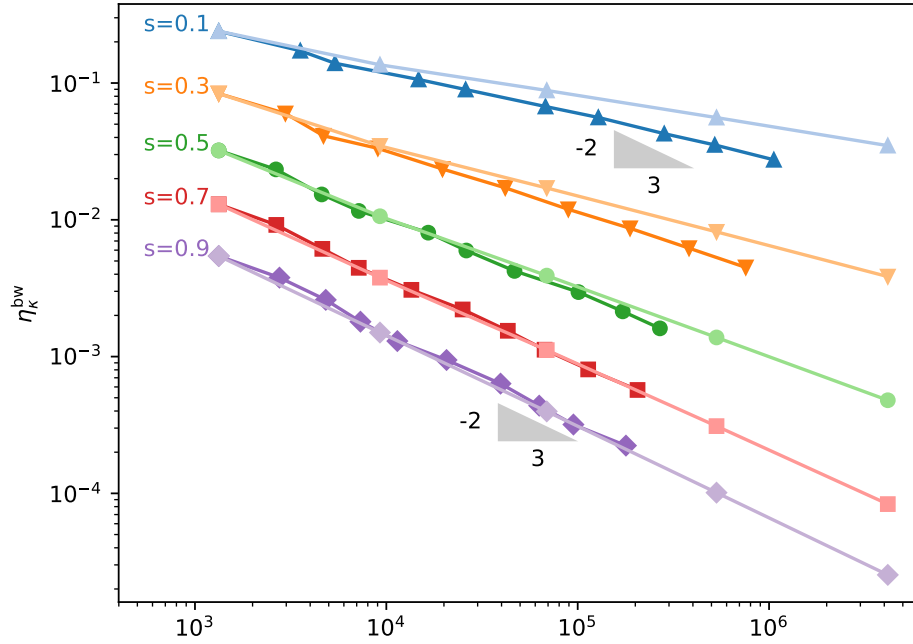


Figure 9: **Three-dimensional checkerboard test case:** for each fractional power we compare the values of the Bank–Weiser estimator η_{κ}^{bw} when uniform refinement is performed (dashed light lines) and when adaptive refinement is performed (solid lines).

refinement methods drastically improves the convergence rate compared to uniform refinement for fractional powers close to 0.

Finally, we give some future directions that we think are worth considering. More numerical tests could be performed, especially for higher order elements and/or using variants of the Bank–Weiser error estimator as considered in [36].

We would like also to study the derivation of an algorithm that allows to use different meshes to discretize the parametric problems in order to save computational time, as explained in section 9.1.1. The a posteriori error estimation of the error in the “natural” norm of the problem i.e. the spectral fractional norm defined in eq. (2) is another extension of this work that is worth to consider. The replacement of the Bank–Weiser estimator by an anisotropic a posteriori error estimator would improve the convergence rate even further in case of boundary layers, see e.g. [17, 58]. Another interesting extension would be to test our method on fractional powers of other kinds of elliptic operators, following [28], on another definition of the fractional Laplacian operator [25] and/or other boundary conditions, following [14].

Supplementary material

A minimal example of adaptive finite element method for the two-dimensional spectral fractional Laplacian can be found in the following FEniCSx–Error–Estimation repository <https://github.com/jhale/fenicsx-error-estimation>. This minimal example code (LGPLv3) is also archived at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.19086695.v3>. A Docker image [65] is provided in which this code can be executed.

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