

Domain Decomposition Preconditioners for Communication-Avoiding Krylov Methods on a Hybrid CPU/GPU Cluster

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Abstract—Krylov subspace projection methods are the most widely used iterative methods for solving large-scale linear systems of equations. Researchers have demonstrated that communication-avoiding (CA) techniques can improve Krylov methods’ performance on modern computers, where communication is becoming increasingly expensive compared to arithmetic operations. In this paper, we extend these studies by two major contributions. First, we present our implementation of a CA variant of the Generalized Minimum Residual (GMRES) method, called CA-GMRES, for solving nonsymmetric linear systems of equations on a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster. Our performance results on up to 120 GPUs show that CA-GMRES can give a speedup of 2.5x in total solution time over standard GMRES on a hybrid cluster with twelve Intel Xeon CPUs and three Nvidia Fermi GPUs on each node. We then outline a domain decomposition framework to introduce a family of preconditioners that are suitable for CA Krylov methods. Our preconditioners do not incur any additional communication and allow the easy reuse of existing algorithms and software for the subdomain solves. Experimental results on the hybrid CPU/GPU cluster demonstrate that CA-GMRES with preconditioning can achieve a speedup of 7.4x over CA-GMRES without preconditioning, and speedup of 1.7x over GMRES with preconditioning in total solution time. These results confirm the potential of our framework to develop a practical and effective preconditioned CA Krylov method.

I. INTRODUCTION

On modern computers, communication is becoming increasingly expensive compared to arithmetic operations. This holds both in terms of throughput and energy consumption. “Communication” includes data movement or synchronization between parallel execution units, as well as data movement between levels of the local memory hierarchy. To address this hardware trend, researchers have been studying techniques to avoid communication in *Krylov subspace projection methods*, a popular class of iterative methods for solving large-scale sparse linear systems of equations. Effectiveness of such *communication-avoiding* (CA) techniques to improve the performance of Krylov methods has been demonstrated on shared-memory multicore CPUs [9], on distributed-memory CPUs [18], and on multiple graphics processing units (GPUs) on a single compute node [16]. In this paper, we extend

these studies and show the performance of a CA variant of the Generalized Minimum Residual (GMRES) method [12] for solving a nonsymmetric linear system of equations on a *hybrid CPU/GPU cluster*. Our performance results on up to 120 GPUs demonstrate speedups of up to 2.5x.

The CA Krylov methods were originally proposed as *s*-step methods over thirty years ago [15], but they have not been widely adopted in practice. One reason for this is that though in practice, Krylov methods depend on preconditioning to accelerate their convergence rate, no effective preconditioners have been shown to work seamlessly with a CA method. This is partially because the existing CA preconditioning techniques revoke one of the most attractive features of Krylov methods, namely that they require no knowledge of the internal representation of the coefficient matrix A or of any preconditioners. In fact, most of the existing implementations of the Krylov methods only require two independent “black-box” routines, one for sparse-matrix vector product ($SpMV$) and the other for preconditioning ($Preco$). This black-box feature makes it easy to use any existing algorithm or software for $Preco$ in the Krylov methods, and also to test a new preconditioning technique. The CA Krylov methods introduce a new computational kernel, *matrix powers kernel* (MPK), that replaces $SpMV$ and generates a set of Krylov subspace basis vectors all at once [8]. Then, all the existing techniques for preconditioning a CA method require close integration of $Preco$ with $SpMV$ within MPK , violating this handy black-box feature and making it difficult to test and develop an effective preconditioner.

To fill this crucial gap, in this paper, we propose a domain decomposition framework to develop an effective CA preconditioning technique. Our preconditioner may be considered as a variant of an additive Schwarz preconditioner, modified to ensure consistent interfaces between the subdomains without additional communication beyond what MPK already needs. However, more importantly, since we rely on domain decomposition, our preconditioner is not tightly coupled with $SpMV$. Hence, beside adding the local solver to apply the precon-

ditioner, our preconditioner does not require any changes to *MPK*, and it can use any existing solver or preconditioner software package as the local solver on each subdomain. In other words, our CA preconditioner does not force any change to the sparse matrix's data structure or constrain the sparsity pattern of the subdomain solver. It thus defines a new third category of CA preconditioning techniques. To study the proposed framework's performance, we combine this with CA-GMRES on a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster. Though this is merely our initial implementation, our experimental results on up to 30 GPUs show that CA-GMRES with preconditioning can obtain speedups of 7.4x over CA-GMRES without preconditioning, and speedups of 1.7x over GMRES with preconditioning.

In addition to demonstrating the potential of our framework, our current studies illustrate the importance and the challenge of developing such preconditioning techniques. Moreover, in this paper, we focus on CA-GMRES because we know from past experience [16] how to implement it efficiently and in a numerically stable way. However, CA variants of short-recurrence iterations like CG and BiCGSTAB spend much less time in vector operations than CA-GMRES, and thus, our work on an effective CA preconditioner may benefit CA versions of other Krylov methods even more than CA-GMRES.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. After surveying related work in Section II, we first present, in Section III, our implementation of CA-GMRES and its performance on a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster. Then, in Section IV, we describe our CA preconditioning framework, outline our initial implementation, and give numerical and performance results on a hybrid cluster. Section V shows final remarks and future work. Throughout this paper, we denote the i -th row and the j -th column of a matrix A by $\mathbf{a}_{i,:}$ and $\mathbf{a}_{:,j}$, respectively, while $A_{j:k}$ is the submatrix consisting of the j -th through the k -th columns of A , inclusive, and $A(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j})$ is the submatrix consisting of the rows and columns of A that are given by the row and column index sets \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} , respectively. We use $nnz(A)$ and $|A|$ to denote the number of nonzeros in the matrix A and the matrix dimension, respectively. All the experiments were conducted on the Keeneland system¹ at the Georgia Institute of Technology. Each of its compute nodes consists of two six-core Intel Xeon CPUs and three NVIDIA M2090 GPUs, with 24GB of main CPU memory per node and 6GB of memory per GPU. We used the GNU gcc 4.4.6 compiler and CUDA nvcc 5.0 compiler with the optimization flag `-O3`, and linked with Intel's Math Kernel Library (MKL) version 2011_sp1.8.273 and OpenMPI 1.6.1. The test matrices used for our experiments are listed in Figure 9.

II. RELATED WORK

Most existing CA preconditioning techniques fall into one of two categories [8]. The first category naturally fits how CA methods compute sparse matrix-vector products. These include preconditioners like sparse approximate inverses with the same sparsity structure as the matrix A , or block Jacobi

and polynomial preconditioners [4], [14], [15]. For instance, in block Jacobi preconditioning, each processor (or GPU) independently solves its local problem. For a conventional Krylov method, this block Jacobi without overlap does not require any additional communication. However, even this is difficult to integrate into a CA method since after *Preco*, each local *SpMV* requires from its neighbors the preconditioned input vector elements on its interface, introducing extra communication. Depending on the sparsity structure of the matrix, a CA method may require significantly greater communication in order to use block Jacobi preconditioner. See [6, Chapter 7] for an illustration of this increasing communication requirement for a tridiagonal matrix that would result from a finite difference discretization of Poisson's equation with Dirichlet boundary conditions on a finite 1D domain. Previous authors proposed block Jacobi preconditioner, apparently without realizing the challenge of implementing it for a CA method. This was a surprising result that stirred us to develop the preconditioner framework presented in this paper.

A recently proposed CA preconditioning technique based on an incomplete LU factorization, CA-ILU(0) [7], can be considered as an advanced member of this first category. Unfortunately, for some types of problems, these preconditioners of this category may be only moderately effective in improving the convergence rate or in exploiting parallelism, or may introduce a significant overhead in computation or communication, depending on the sparsity structure of A . For example, the effectiveness of polynomial preconditioning, like that proposed in [11], to reduce the iteration count tends to decrease with the degree of the polynomial, while its computational cost increases. Though CA-ILU(0) uses special global nested dissection ordering to limit the amount of required communication, the authors' experiments focus on structured grids, while leaving the extension to unstructured meshes as future work.

Another critical aspect of these preconditioners in the first category is that they are still closely integrated with *MPK*. Hence, these preconditioners often require significant changes in how *MPK* interacts with the input vectors, and are designed for specific types of preconditioners (e.g., approximate inverse or ILU(0)). On contrary, in this paper, we provide a framework that decouples *Preco* from *SpMV* and allows us to use an existing preconditioning software as a black-box routine for preconditioning CA methods. Finally, the second class of existing CA preconditioners requires radical changes to the representation of both the sparse matrix A and its preconditioner, such that their off-diagonal blocks are stored using a low rank representation. To the best of our knowledge, there is no implementation or empirical evaluation of such CA preconditioners. Furthermore, most users of Krylov solvers do not wish to make such radical changes to their data structures.

III. CA-GMRES ON A HYBRID CPU/GPU CLUSTER

A. CA-GMRES Algorithm

The Generalized Minimum Residual (GMRES) method [12] is a Krylov subspace method for solving a nonsymmetric

¹<http://keeneland.gatech.edu/KDS>

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GMRES( $A, M, \mathbf{b}, m$ ):
repeat (restart-loop)
1. Generate Krylov Basis on GPUs:  $\sim O(m \cdot nnz(|A| + |M|) + m^2 n)$  flops.
    $\mathbf{q}_{:,1} = \mathbf{q}_{:,1} / \|\mathbf{q}_{:,1}\|_2$  (with  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{q}_{:,1} = \mathbf{b}$ , initially)
   for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$  do
     Preconditioner (Preco) Application:
        $\mathbf{z}_{:,j} := M^{-1} \mathbf{q}_{:,j}$ 
     Sparse Matrix-Vector (SpMV) Product:
        $\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1} := A \mathbf{z}_{:,j}$ 
     Orthonormalization (Orth):
        $\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1} := (\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1} - Q_{1:j} \mathbf{h}_{1:j,j}) / h_{j+1,j}$ ,
       where  $\mathbf{h}_{1:j,j} = Q_{1:j}^T \mathbf{q}_{:,j+1}$  and
        $h_{j+1,j} = \|\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1} - Q_{1:j} \mathbf{h}_{1:j,j}\|_2$ .
     end for
2. Solve Projected Subsystem on CPUs:  $\sim O(m^2)$  flops.
   solve the least-squares problem  $\mathbf{g} = \min_{\mathbf{t}} \|H\mathbf{t} - Q^T \mathbf{b}\|_2$ 
   to update solution  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} + Z_{1:m} \mathbf{g}$  and
   restart with  $\mathbf{q}_{:,1} = \mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ 
until solution convergence

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Fig. 1. Pseudocode of GMRES on CPU/GPU. m is the restart length.

linear system. Its solution minimizes the residual norm over the generated projection subspace at each iteration. GMRES' j -th iteration first generates a new basis vector by applying the preconditioner (*Preco*) to the previously orthonormalized basis vector $\mathbf{q}_{:,j}$, followed by the sparse-matrix vector product (*SpMV*) with the resulting vector (i.e., $\mathbf{z}_{:,j} := M^{-1} \mathbf{q}_{:,j}$ and $\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1} := A \mathbf{z}_{:,j}$). Then, the new orthonormal basis vector $\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1}$ is computed by orthonormalizing (*Orth*) the resulting vector $\mathbf{q}_{:,j+1}$ against the previously orthonormalized basis vectors $\mathbf{q}_{:,1}, \mathbf{q}_{:,2}, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{:,j}$.

To reduce both the computational and storage requirements of computing a large projection subspace, users often restart GMRES after computing a fixed number $m + 1$ of basis vectors. Before restart, GMRES updates the approximate solution $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ by solving a least-squares problem $\mathbf{g} := \arg \min_{\mathbf{t}} \|\mathbf{c} - H\mathbf{t}\|$, where $\mathbf{c} := Q_{1:m+1}^T (\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}})$, $H := Q_{1:m+1}^T A Z_{1:m}$, and $\hat{\mathbf{x}} := \hat{\mathbf{x}} + Z_{1:m} \mathbf{g}$. The matrix H , a by-product of the orthogonalization procedure, has upper Hessenberg form. Hence, the least-squares problem can be efficiently solved, requiring only about $3(m+1)^2$ flops. For an n -by- n matrix A with $nnz(A)$ nonzeros, and a preconditioner M whose application requires $nnz(M)$ flops, *SpMV*, *Preco*, and *Orth* require a total of about $2m \cdot nnz(|A|)$, $2m \cdot nnz(|M|)$, and $2m^3 n$ flops over the m iterations, respectively (i.e., $n, nnz(A), nnz(M) \gg m$). Figure 1 shows pseudocode for restarted GMRES.

Both *SpMV* and *Orth* require communication. This includes point-to-point messages or neighborhood collectives for *SpMV*, and global all-reduces in *Orth*, as well as data movement between levels of the local memory hierarchy (for reading the sparse matrix and for reading and writing vectors, assuming they do not fit in cache). Communication-Avoiding GMRES (CA-GMRES) aims to reduce this communication by redesigning the algorithm to replace *SpMV* and *Orth* with three new kernels – *MPK*, *BOrth*, and *TSQR* – that generate and orthogonalize a set of s basis vectors all at once. In theory, CA-GMRES communicates no more than a single GMRES iteration (plus a lower-order term), but does the work of s

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CA-GMRES( $A, M, \mathbf{b}, s, m$ ):
repeat (restart-loop)
1. Generate Krylov Basis on GPUs:  $\sim O(m \cdot nnz(|A| + |M|) + m^2 n)$  flops.
    $\mathbf{q}_{:,1} = \mathbf{q}_{:,1} / \|\mathbf{q}_{:,1}\|_2$  (with  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{q}_{:,1} = \mathbf{b}$ , initially)
   for  $j = 1, 1+s, \dots, m$  do
     1.1. Matrix Powers Kernel (MPK):
       for  $k = j+1, j+2, \dots, j+s$  do
          $\mathbf{z}_{:,k} := M^{-1} \mathbf{q}_{:,k}$  (Preco)
          $\mathbf{q}_{:,k+1} := A \mathbf{z}_{:,k}$  (SpMV)
       end for
     1.2. Block Orthonormalization (BOrth):
       orthogonalize  $Q_{j+1:j+s}$  against  $Q_{1:j}$ 
     1.3. Tall-Skinny QR (TSQR) factorization:
       orthonormalizing  $Q_{j+1:j+s}$  against each other
     end for
2. Solve Projected Subsystem on CPUs:  $\sim O(m^2)$  flops.
   solve the least-squares problem  $\mathbf{g} = \min_{\mathbf{t}} \|H\mathbf{t} - Q^T \mathbf{b}\|_2$ 
   to update solution  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} + X_{1:m} \mathbf{g}$  and
   restart with  $\mathbf{q}_{:,1} = \mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ 
until solution convergence

```

Fig. 2. Pseudocode of CA-GMRES on CPU/GPU. s is the *MPK* basis length and m is the restart length.

iterations. In Section IV, we propose a preconditioning technique that can be integrated into *MPK* without incurring any additional communication phases. Figure 2 shows pseudocode for restarted CA-GMRES.

B. CA-GMRES Implementation

Our CA-GMRES implementation on a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster extends our previous implementation on a multicore CPU with multiple GPUs on one node [16]. Namely, to utilize the multiple GPUs, we distribute the matrix A over the GPUs in a 1D block row format, using a matrix reordering or graph partitioning algorithm (see Section IV-B). The basis vectors $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{s+1}$ are then distributed in the same format. Since CA-GMRES' computational cost is typically dominated by the first step of generating the basis vectors, we accelerate this step with distributed GPUs, while the second step of solving the least squares problem is redundantly performed by each MPI process on CPU. On a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster with multiple GPUs on each node, a single MPI process can manage multiple GPUs on the node in order to combine or avoid the MPI communication to the GPUs on the same node.

C. Orthogonalization Kernels

In our previous study [16], we investigated the performance of several orthogonalization procedures for multiple GPUs on a single compute node. In that study, in most cases, CA-GMRES obtained the best performance using classical Gram-Schmidt (CGS) [1] and Cholesky QR (CholQR) [13] for *BOrth* and *TSQR*, respectively. Hence, in this paper, we use CGS-based *BOrth* and CholQR-based *TSQR* for distributed GPUs as well.

In CholQR, each GPU first computes the block dot products of its local vectors (i.e., $B^{(d)} := Q_{1:s+1}^{(d)T} Q_{1:s+1}^{(d)}$), using the optimized GPU kernels developed in [16], [17], and asynchronously copies the result to its MPI process. Second, the MPI process accumulates the results of its local GPUs, and computes the Gram matrix via a global MPI all-reduce (i.e.,

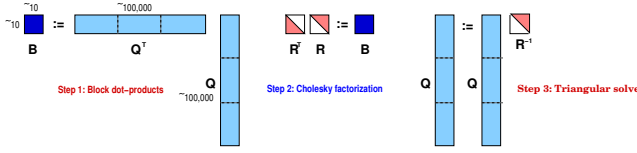


Fig. 3. Illustration of CholeskyQR Orthogonalization Process.

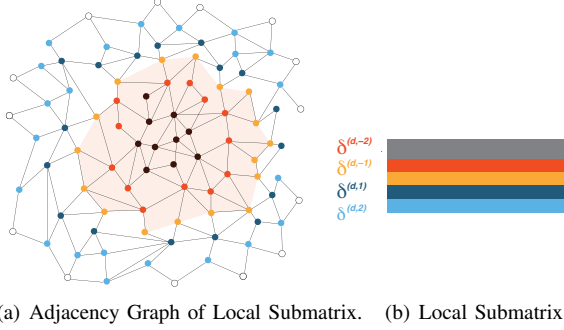


Fig. 4. Illustration of Extending and Sorting a Local Matrix for MPK.

$B = \sum_{d=1, \dots, n_g} B^{(d)}$. Third, each MPI process redundantly computes the Cholesky factorization of the Gram matrix on the CPUs (i.e., $RR^T := B$), and broadcasts the Cholesky factor R to its local GPUs. Finally, each GPU orthogonalizes the local part of the basis vectors through a triangular solve (i.e., $Q_{1:s+1}^{(d)} := Q_{1:s+1}^{(d)} R^{-1}$). Figure 3 illustrates this process. We implement CGS similarly.

D. Matrix Powers Kernel

Our implementation reorders the rows of the *local* submatrix $\bar{A}^{(d)}$ on the d -th GPU in descending order of their edge distances from the subdomain boundary in the adjacency graph of A . We then expand the local submatrix to include the *nonlocal* entries that are ℓ edges away from the local matrix for $\ell = 1, 2, \dots, s$. More specifically, let $\delta^{(d, -\ell)}$ be the set of the local vertices whose shortest path from a nonlocal vertex is of length ℓ , while $\delta^{(d, \ell)}$ is the set of the nonlocal vertices whose shortest path from a local vertex is of length ℓ (see Figure 4 for an illustration). We refer to $\delta^{(d, -\ell)}$ and $\delta^{(d, \ell)}$ as the ℓ -level *underlap* and *overlap*, respectively, of the d -th subdomain. Then, the d -th GPU owns its extended local submatrix $\bar{A}^{(d, s)} = A(\mathbf{i}^{(d, s)}, :)$, where $\mathbf{i}^{(d, s)} = \bigcup_{\ell \leq s} \delta^{(d, \ell)}$ and the row index set $\mathbf{i}^{(d, s)}$ is sorted such that those row indexes in $\delta^{(d, \ell)}$ with a smaller ℓ come first. For example, in Figure 4, we store the block rows of the local submatrix, that are colored in black, red, green, blue, and then orange in that order.

When applying MPK, each GPU first exchanges all the required vector elements to compute s matrix powers with its neighboring GPUs. Then, for $k = 1, 2, \dots, s$, each GPU computes the k -th matrix power by independently invoking *Preco* and *SpMV* with the k -th extended local matrix $\bar{A}^{(d, \ell)}$, where $\ell = s - k + 1$, without further inter-GPU communication (see Step 1.1 in Figure 2). Before the iteration to compute the matrix powers, the required vector elements must be commu-

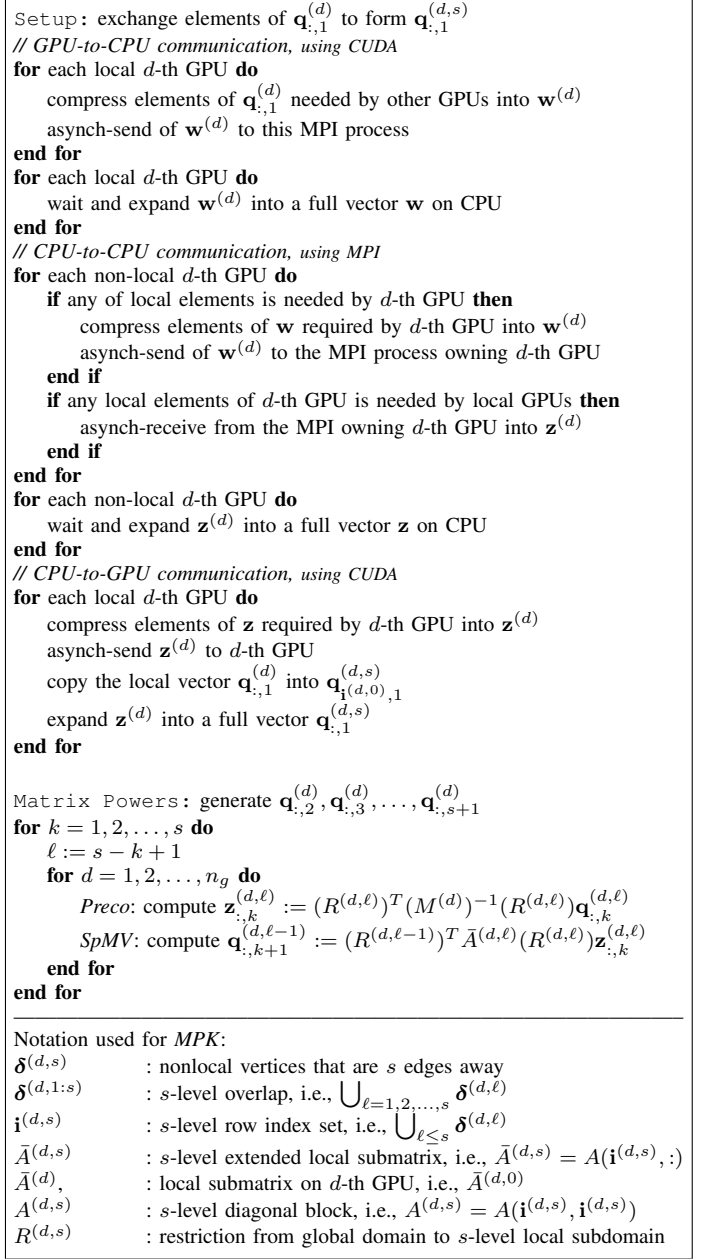


Fig. 5. Pseudocode of Matrix Powers Kernel, $MPK(s, \mathbf{q}_{:,1})$, where s is the number of basis vectors that MPK generates.

nicated among GPUs distributed over different MPI processes. To this end, each GPU first packs its local vector elements that are needed by the neighboring GPUs into a buffer, which is then asynchronously copied to the CPU. Once the MPI process receives the message from its GPU, it expands it into a full-length vector. After expanding the messages from all the local GPUs, the MPI process packs the vector elements required by another GPU into a single message, and asynchronously sends it to the corresponding MPI process. Finally, when the MPI process receives a message from another process, it expands the messages into a full-length vector, and after expanding all the messages, it packs and copies the required elements to its GPUs, which then expand the packed elements into their

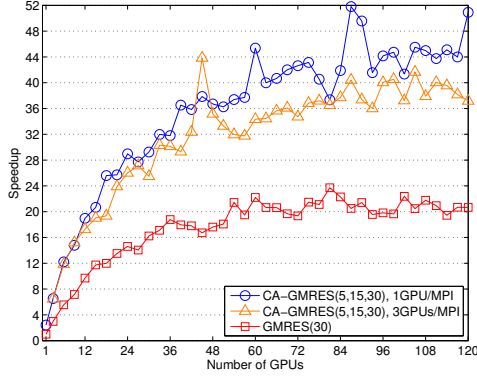


Fig. 6. Parallel Strong Scaling of CA-GMRES and GMRES on Distributed GPUs (over GMRES on one GPU), for the `G3_Circuit` matrix.

full-length vectors (see Figure 5 for the pseudocode).²

Our implementation of CA-GMRES can use different values of the step size s for MPK , and for the orthogonalization kernels $BOrth$ and $TSQR$ [17]. This often improves the performance of CA-GMRES, because with a larger value of s , MPK adds computational and storage overheads, and may potentially increase communication volume. As a result, the optimal value of s for MPK may be smaller than the optimal s for $BOrth$ or $TSQR$. This has been also observed in [9], where in some cases, MPK 's optimal step size was one. In addition, as we will discuss in Section IV, the quality of our CA preconditioner can degrade with a larger value of s . It thus becomes critical to use a relatively small s for $Preco$, especially with a large number of subdomains, or equivalently on a large number of GPUs. Hence, our implementation of $CA-GMRES(s, \hat{s}, m)$ can take three input parameters, where s and \hat{s} are the step sizes used for MPK and for $BOrth$ and $TSQR$, respectively, and m is the restart length. The special case of $s = 1$ means that CA-GMRES does not need a specialized MPK implementation; it merely uses the standard matrix-vector multiply and preconditioner application, and relies on CA-GMRES' orthogonalization kernels for performance improvements over GMRES. This is a reasonable strategy for long-recurrence Krylov solvers like GMRES, but CA variants of short-recurrence methods like CG will likely need an optimized MPK , since they spend much less time in inner products.

E. Performance Studies

Figure 6 compares the parallel strong scaling performance of GMRES and CA-GMRES by showing their total solution time speedups over the time required by GMRES on one GPU for the `G3_Circuit` matrix. The matrix A is distributed among the GPUs such that each GPU has about an equal number of rows after the reverse Cuthill-McKee (RCM) ordering is applied [5] (see Section IV-C for more detailed experimental setups, except the greater stopping criteria of

²Since we typically have more CPU cores than GPUs on a node, Pthreads are used to process the messages from multiple GPUs in parallel. The GPUs on the same node communicate without using MPI.

Method	No. of GPUs	6	12	24	48
GMRES(30)	No. of Restarts	39	35	130	79
	Time (s)	3.51	3.13	10.60	10.54
CA-GMRES(1, 30)	No. of Restarts	39	35	131	79
	Times (s)	2.10	1.59	7.55	7.77
	Speedup	1.60	1.97	1.40	1.36

Fig. 7. Parallel Weak Scaling Performance Studies for the `brick` matrices, starting with $n = 1M$ on 6 GPUs to $n = 8M$ on 48 GPUs using 3GPUs/MPI.

10^{-8} is used here). CA-GMRES obtained the average and maximum speedups of 2.06 and 2.53 over GMRES on the same number of GPUs, respectively. The speedup leveled off around 60 GPUs because the local submatrix became too small for the GPU to obtain any strong scaling speedup. We expect that on a larger number of compute nodes, the MPI communication becomes more dominant, and the speedups obtained by avoiding the communication will increase [18]. The figure also shows the performance of CA-GMRES that launches one MPI process on each node and lets each process manage the three local GPUs on the node. At least in our experiments, the overhead of each MPI to manage multiple GPUs (e.g., sequentially launching GPU kernels on multiple GPUs) outweighed the benefit of avoiding the intra-node MPI communication, for which many MPI implementations are optimized. Hence, for the rest of the paper, unless otherwise specified, we use one MPI process to manage a single GPU.

Figure 7 shows the parallel weak scaling performance of GMRES and CA-GMRES, where the matrix dimension is increased linearly with the number of GPUs, starting from 1, 035, 351 on 6 GPUs. To accommodate the large CPU memory usage during setup, we launched one MPI per node, which manage three GPUs on the node, on 48 GPUs. The `brick` matrices come from the discretization of the Poisson's equation with Dirichlet boundary conditions on a 3-D brick-shaped mesh, in which the number of elements in two dimensions are fixed. The third dimension has four different types of material blocks, two of which have the element sizes graded. Note that while problem size increases, the difficulty of the problem varies depending on the dimension that was scaled up. This results in the difference in the number of restarts as we increase the problem size. Again, CA-GMRES provided better weak scaling than GMRES on this hybrid CPU/GPU cluster.

IV. CA DOMAIN DECOMPOSITION PRECONDITIONERS

A. CA-Preconditioning Framework

As discussed in Section I, it is difficult to introduce preconditioning in CA Krylov methods. Instead of forming the basis vectors for the Krylov subspace $\mathcal{K}_k(A, \mathbf{q}_{:,1}) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{q}_{:,1}, A\mathbf{q}_{:,1}, \dots, A^k\mathbf{q}_{:,1}\} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{q}_{:,1}, \mathbf{q}_{:,2}, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{:,k+1}\}$, we must generate the basis vectors for the preconditioned subspace $\mathcal{K}_k(M^{-1}A, \mathbf{q}_{:,1})$ or $\mathcal{K}_k(AM^{-1}, \mathbf{q}_{:,1})$ (left or right preconditioning, respectively). The challenge is that to compute the local product with the k -th matrix power, each processor (or GPU) needs to know not only its local elements of the input vector at $\mathbf{i}^{(d,0)}$ but also those at the ℓ -level overlap $\delta^{(d,1:\ell)}$, where $\ell = s - k + 1$ (for $k = 1, 2, \dots, s$). Therefore, additional

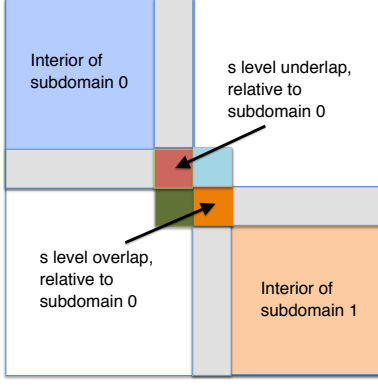


Fig. 8. Matrix Partitioning for the CA Preconditioner for two subdomains. The underlap and the overlap relative to subdomain 0 are shown.

communication is needed, if when applying the preconditioner (i.e., $\mathbf{z}_{:,k} := M^{-1}\mathbf{q}_{:,k}$), the action of M^{-1} to generate these vector elements of $\mathbf{z}_{:,k}$ at $\mathbf{i}^{(d,\ell)}$ requires any element of the input vector $\mathbf{q}_{:,k}$ aside from those at the row index set $\mathbf{i}^{(d,\ell)}$, where $\mathbf{i}^{(d,\ell)} = \mathbf{i}^{(d,0)} \cup \delta^{(d,1:\ell)}$.

A simple preconditioner that works for CA methods is a diagonal preconditioner. For this, the d -th processor (or GPU) only needs to know the diagonals of the local submatrix and the s -level overlap, i.e., $\text{diag}(A^{(d,s)})$. This requires only small computational and storage overheads, but may only reduce the iteration count moderately. Real applications often prefer other types of preconditioners that have higher overheads but are more effective in reducing the iteration count. These include preconditioners based on domain decomposition or multigrid. We focus on domain decomposition preconditioners since they are local in nature and are well suited for parallel computing.

We now describe our communication avoiding domain decomposition preconditioners. As explained in Section II, it is difficult to integrate into a CA method even a block Jacobi preconditioner, where each processor (or GPU) independently applies *Preco* by solving its local problem associated with the local diagonal block $A^{(d)}$. This is because after the preconditioner is applied, each local *SpMV* requires from its neighbors the preconditioned input vector elements on the overlaps, introducing extra communication. To avoid this additional communication, we “shrink” the diagonal blocks to make them disjoint from the s -level overlaps. To define our preconditioners, recall our notations in Section III-D; in the view of the d -th subdomain, the distance- s neighbors of the vertices in the graph of A is the s -level overlap $\delta^{(d,s)}$, while the set of local vertices distance- s away from a non-local vertex is the s -level underlap $\delta^{(d,-s)}$. To simplify our notation, when it is clear from the context, we use $\mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}$ and $\delta^{(\ell_1:\ell_2)}$ to represent $\mathbf{i}^{(d,-s-1)}$ and $\delta^{(d,\ell_1:\ell_2)}$, where $\mathbf{i}^{(d,-s-1)} = \bigcup_{\ell \leq -s-1} \delta^{(d,\ell)}$ and $\delta^{(d,\ell_1:\ell_2)} = \bigcup_{\ell_1 \leq \ell \leq \ell_2} \delta^{(d,\ell)}$. Then, the square s -level extended local submatrix $A^{(d,s)}$ has the following block structure:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A(\mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}, \mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}) & A(\mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}, \delta^{(-s:-1)}) \\ A(\delta^{(-s:-1)}, \mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}) & A(\delta^{(-s:-1)}, \delta^{(-s:-1)}) & A(\delta^{(-s:-1)}, \delta^{(1:s)}) \\ & A(\delta^{(1:s)}, \delta^{(-s:-1)}) & A(\delta^{(1:s)}, \delta^{(1:s)}) \end{pmatrix}.$$

The global view of $A^{(d,s)}$ for two subdomains is shown in Figure 8. Given $|A| = n$ and $|A^{(d,0)}| = n^{(d,0)}$, we define the standard rectangular n -by- $n^{(d,0)}$ extension matrix $(R^{(d,0)})^T$ with zeros and ones, which extends by zero the local vector associated with vertices of the local submatrix $A^{(d,0)}$ to form a global vector. The corresponding s -step variant $(R^{(d,s)})^T$ is defined in the same fashion. Correspondingly, $R^{(d,s)}$ is the restriction matrix that restricts a vector from the global domain to the s -level local subdomain. With that notation, the restricted additive Schwarz preconditioner [3] with s -level overlap becomes:

$$M_{RAS}^{-1} = \sum_{d=1}^{n_g} ((R^{(d,0)})^T) (A^{(d,s)})^{-1} (R^{(d,s)}),$$

where n_g is the number of the non-overlapping subsets of the row index set of A (i.e., the number of subdomains or GPUs). By varying the amount of overlap at each iteration, we obtain a sequence of s different preconditioners that we refer to as the s -step preconditioner; at the k -th iteration, we have

$$(M_{RAS}^{(k)})^{-1} = \sum_{d=1}^{n_g} ((R^{(d,0)})^T) (A^{(d,\ell)})^{-1} (R^{(d,\ell)}),$$

where $\ell = s - k + 1$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, s$. This is similar to the restricted additive Schwarz preconditioner. However, the s -step preconditioner changes at each iteration, shrinking both its underlap and overlap to match with the extended local submatrix of *MPK*. While the restriction operator changes accordingly, the extension operator uses the same non-overlapping extension operator allowing unique updates from the sub-domains. It is easy to see that in the special case of $s = 0$, the s -step preconditioner reduces to the block Jacobi preconditioner.

In order to use the above framework as a stationary preconditioner for CA-GMRES, we need to provide a consistent view of the preconditioner both across subdomains (for correctness) and across iterations (for being stationary). To be consistent across subdomains, in our implementation, we consider only the diagonal blocks of $A^{(d,s)}$ and use diagonal preconditioning for the two diagonal blocks $A(\delta^{(-s:-1)}, \delta^{(-s:-1)})$ on the underlap and $A(\delta^{(1:s)}, \delta^{(1:s)})$ on the overlap. Then, to be consistent across iterations, we use a constant underlap s . Hence, at the k -th iteration, our *underlap* preconditioner is defined as

$$(M_{UN}^{(k)})^{-1} = \sum_{d=1}^{n_g} ((R^{(d,0)})^T) (\hat{A}^{(d,\ell)})^{-1} (R^{(d,\ell)}),$$

where $\ell = s - k + 1$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, s$, and

$$\hat{A}^{(d,\ell)} = \begin{pmatrix} A(\mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}, \mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}) & \\ & \text{diag}(A(\delta^{(-s:\ell)}, \delta^{(-s:\ell)})) \end{pmatrix}.$$

The restriction operator still shrinks the overlap to work effectively with CA-GMRES without incurring any additional communication cost.

Name	Source	n	nnz/n
G3_Circuit	UF Collection	1,585,478	4.8
PDE_1M(α)	Trilinos	1,030,301	26.5
PDE_10M(α)	Trilinos	10,218,313	26.8
brick_n	Trilinos	$\sim n$	~ 25

Fig. 9. Test Matrices.

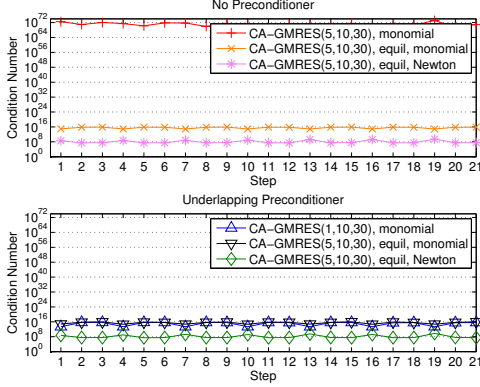


Fig. 10. Condition Number of Gram Matrix, G3_Circuit matrix, 6 GPUs.

In summary, our underlap preconditioner is a special case of the s -step domain decomposition preconditioner outlined above. Since we use diagonal preconditioners for both the underlap and overlap regions, an equivalent formulation of the local preconditioner $\mathcal{M}_{UN}^{(d,s)}$ corresponding to $\hat{A}^{(d,s)}$ is

$$\mathcal{M}_{UN}^{(d,s)} = \begin{pmatrix} A(\mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}, \mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}) & \\ & \text{diag}(A(\delta^{(-s-1)}, \delta^{(-s-1)})) \end{pmatrix}.$$

One may use any traditional local subdomain preconditioner for an inexact solution of $A(\mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)}, \mathbf{i}^{(-s-1)})$, including incomplete factorizations or a fixed number of iterations of a stationary method such as Jacobi or Gauss-Seidel. This formula defines the preconditioner's action on each local subdomain. In addition, at the k -th iteration, each processor redundantly computes the diagonal preconditioner's action on the ℓ -level overlap $\delta^{(1:\ell)}$ in a shrinking fashion. Mathematically, the preconditioner is fixed; it does not change across iterations.

B. Experimental Setup

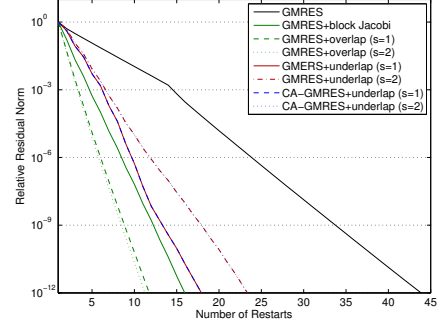
We tested two matrix reordering algorithms to distribute the matrix A among the GPUs: reverse Cuthill-McKee (RCM) [5] from HSL³, and k -way graph partitioning (KWY) from METIS⁴. With RCM, after reordering, we distribute the matrix so that each GPU has about an equal number of rows. As the local solver for our underlapping preconditioner, we investigated stationary iterative methods (Jacobi or Gauss-Seidel), the level or drop-tolerance based incomplete LU factorization, ILU(k) or ILU(τ), respectively, of ITSOL⁵, and the sparse approximate inverse (SAI) of ParaSails⁶. Each MPI process

³<http://www.hsl.rl.ac.uk/catalogue/mc60.xml>

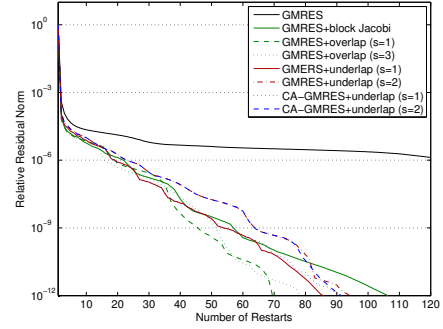
⁴<http://glaros.dtc.umn.edu/gkhome/metis/metis/overview>

⁵<http://www-users.cs.umn.edu/~saad/software/ITSOL/index.html>

⁶<http://computation.llnl.gov/casc/parasails/parasails.html>



(a) PDE_1M(0.0) matrix, with restart = 20.



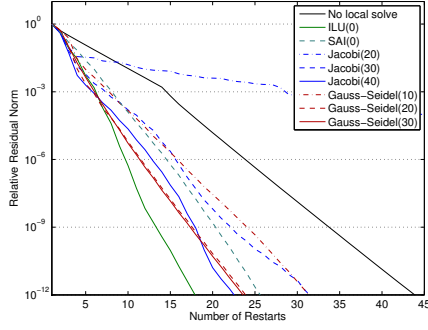
(b) G3_Circuit matrix, with restart = 30.

Fig. 11. Solution Convergence, using Different Domain Decomposition Preconditioners with Local ILU(0)'s on 6 GPUs.

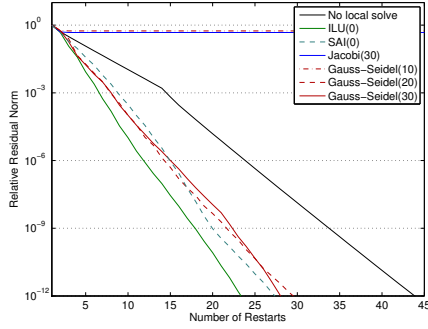
independently computes its local preconditioner on the CPU and copies it to the GPU. Then, at each iteration, the MPI process applies the preconditioner (*Preco*) using cuSPARSE's sparse-matrix vector multiplies or sparse triangular solves in the Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) matrix storage format. It performs sparse matrix-vector multiplies (*SpMV*) with the matrix A using our own GPU kernel in the ELLPACKT format [16]. We consider the computed solution to have converged when the residual ℓ_2 -norm is reduced by at least twelve orders of magnitude.

Figure 9 shows the properties of the test matrices used for our experiments. The G3_Circuit matrix comes from a circuit simulation problem. Such matrices are difficult to precondition; doing so effectively is current research. The "PDE" problem comes from a scaling example in the TrilinosCouplings package of the Trilinos library. It arises from discretizing Poisson's equation with Dirichlet boundaries on a cube Ω , using a regular hexahedral mesh. The PDE is $\text{div}(T\nabla u) = f$ in Ω , $u = g$ on $\partial\Omega$, where T is a 3-by-3 material tensor, and f and g are given functions. Discretizing results in a linear system $Ax = b$, which is symmetric as long as T is.

We set $T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \alpha \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \alpha & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and control the iteration count by varying α . When $\alpha = 0$, the problem takes few iterations. As α approaches 1, the problem takes more. For $\alpha > 1$, the



(a) CA-GMRES(1, 20), for the $\text{PDE_1M}(0.0)$ matrix.



(b) CA-GMRES(2, 20), for the $\text{PDE_1M}(0.0)$ matrix.

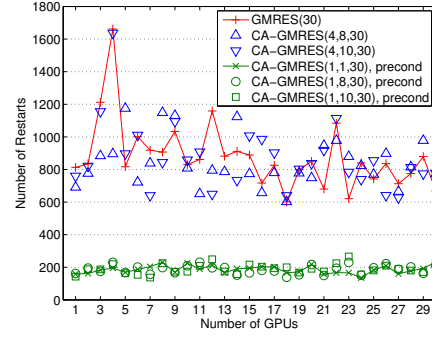
Fig. 12. Solution Convergence, using Different Local Solvers for an Underlapping Preconditioner on 6 GPUs.

matrix A is no longer positive definite. We present results for different values of α .

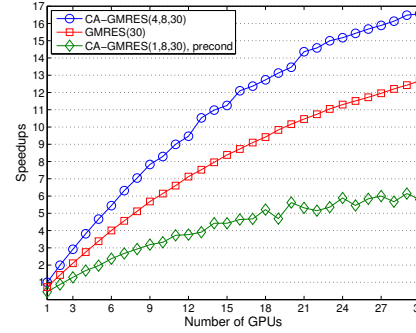
To enhance CA-GMRES' numerical stability, before solving, we equilibrate A and b [8]. That is, we first scale its rows, and then its columns, by their ∞ -norms. We also use a Newton basis $\mathbf{q}_{:,k+1} = (A\mathbf{M}^{-1} - \theta_k I)\mathbf{q}_{:,k}$, where the shifts θ_k are the eigenvalues of the first restart's Hessenberg matrix H , in a Leja order [2]. Figure 10 shows the condition number of the Gram matrices generated during CholQR for the G3_Circuit matrix. These condition numbers are the square of the condition numbers of the basis vectors generated by MPK (see Section III-C). The figure shows that equilibration, using the Newton basis, and preconditioning all contribute to improve these condition numbers. While in our experiments, we used the same basis step size s and orthogonalization parameters for testing CA-GMRES with and without preconditioning, we could potentially use a larger s or omit reorthogonalization when preconditioning. This may significantly increase the benefit of preconditioning. To maintain orthogonality, in all of our experiments, we always orthogonalize the basis vectors twice.

C. Convergence Studies with a Fixed GPU Count

Figure 11 compares convergence with respect to the relative residual norm $\|\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}\|_2 / \|\mathbf{b}\|_2$, using different preconditioners on six GPUs, where the local solver is level-based ILU(0).



(a) Number of Restarts.

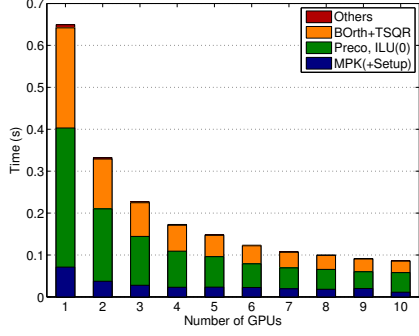


(b) Average Restart Time (over CA-GMRES on One GPU).

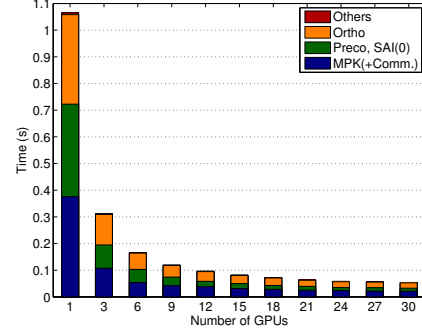
Fig. 13. Parallel Strong Scaling Performance on Distributed GPUs of CA-GMRES using an Underlapping Preconditioner with Local ILU(0)'s, for the G3_Circuit matrix.

For instance, for the PDE matrix in Figure 11(a), as expected, a larger overlap reduced the number of iterations required for the solution convergence, while a larger underlap increased it. However, either an overlap or underlap preconditioner significantly reduced the iteration count. In addition, CA-GMRES' convergence matches that of GMRES. For the G3_Circuit matrix, Figure 11(b) shows similar results, but for this more ill-conditioned system, the reduction in the iteration count was much greater.

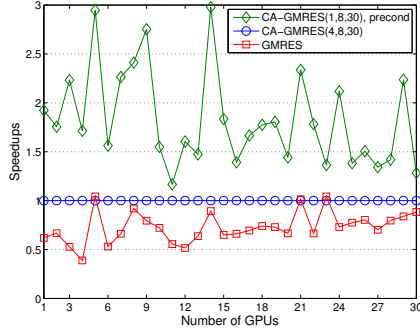
Figure 12 shows convergence, when we used different local solvers in combination with our underlapping preconditioner on six GPUs. For instance, we considered Jacobi iteration as a local solver, because on both CPUs and (esp.) GPUs, the sparse triangular solve that ILU requires is often much slower than the SpMV that MPK or Jacobi uses (see Section IV-D). Unfortunately, even for this relatively well-conditioned system, in order to match ILU(0)'s convergence, the $s = 1$ case required many Jacobi iterations, and it did not converge when $s = 2$. Even though it needed fewer Gauss-Seidel iterations, the iteration count was still large, especially considering that each Gauss-Seidel iteration performs a (forward) triangular solve. Only the sparse approximate inverse (SAI) was competitive with ILU(0) on this small number of GPUs. However, SAI may not be effective on a larger number of GPUs, or for an ill-conditioned system such as the G3_Circuit matrix.



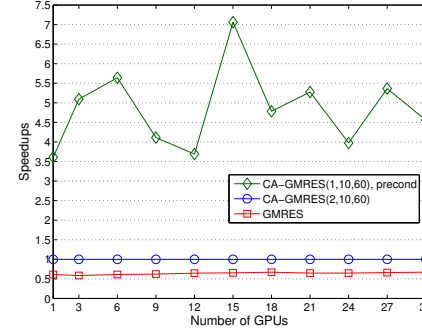
(a) Breakdown of Average Restart Time, CA-GMRES(1, 8, 30).



(a) Breakdown of Average Restart Time, CA-GMRES(1, 10, 60).



(b) Total Solution Time Speedup (over CA-GMRES).



(b) Total Solution Time Speedup (over CA-GMRES).

Fig. 14. Parallel Strong Scaling Performance on Distributed GPUs of GMRES, CA-GMRES, and CA-GMRES using an Underlapping Preconditioner with Local ILU(0)'s, for the `G3_Circuit` matrix.

Fig. 15. Parallel Strong Scaling Performance on Distributed GPUs of GMRES, CA-GMRES, and CA-GMRES using an Underlapping Preconditioner with Local SAI(0)'s, for the `PDE_1M(1.0275)` matrix.

D. Parallel Scaling Studies

We first examine the performance of our underlapping preconditioner for the `G3_Circuit` matrix. This is a relatively ill-conditioned system and a sparse approximate inverse is not an effective preconditioner for this problem. Hence, we used ILU(0) as our local solver. The performance of the sparse triangular solver of cuSparse depends strongly on the sparsity pattern of the triangular factor [10]. For our experiments, we first used a k -way graph partitioning to distribute the matrix among the GPUs, and each local submatrix is then reordered using a nested dissection algorithm. We have observed that the performance of the triangular solver can be significantly improved using the nested dissection ordering (e.g., a speedup of 1.56). Figure 14(a) shows the breakdown of the average time spent in one restart loop. Even with the nested dissection ordering, though *Preco* and *MPK* perform about the same number of floating-point operations, *Preco* required significantly longer time since the triangular solution is inherently serial (e.g., by a factor of 4.67, where *MPK* includes the setup time). As a result, Figure 13(b) shows that the time per iteration of CA-GMRES was significantly longer when the underlap preconditioner was used (e.g., by a factor of 3.41) when compared with the time per iteration of unpreconditioned CA-GMRES. However, as Figure 13(a)

shows, the preconditioner significantly reduced the iteration count, and as Figure 14(b) shows, the total solution time was also greatly reduced using the preconditioner (e.g., by a factor of 2.95). Figure 16 shows the detailed performance results including the time and iteration count for the `G3_Circuit` matrix on up to 30 GPUs.

Compared to the `G3_Circuit` matrix, our `PDE` matrices are relatively well-conditioned, and SAI(0) is often effective as the local solver. Figure 15(a) shows the average breakdown of the restart loop time for the `PDE` problem. The time to apply the SAI(0) preconditioner was about the same as that of *SpMV* with the local submatrix and was significantly shorter than that of the sparse triangular solve required by ILU(0) (see Figure 14(a)). This can be seen from the relatively shorter preconditioner apply times. As a result, compared with Figure 14(b) for the `G3_Circuit` matrix, Figure 15(b) shows greater speedups obtained using the underlap preconditioner for the `PDE` matrices (e.g., by a factor 7.4). Figure 17 shows the detailed performance profiles with different `PDE` matrices both in terms of the size and in terms of difficulty to solve, on up to 27 GPUs. The `PDE_1M(0.0)` matrix is positive definite, while the `PDE_1M(1.0275)` matrix is indefinite. In order to accelerate the converge for this indefinite problem, compared to $m = 20$ used for $\alpha = 0.0$, a larger restart

Number of GPUs	1	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
GMRES(30)	326 (813)	168 (1212)	73 (1001)	53 (1033)	48 (1159)	31 (889)	19 (601)	19 (680)	22 (840)	17 (713)	15 (669)
CA-GMRES(6, 30)	347 (1026)	116 (995)	142 (2257)	44 (1001)	26 (712)	29 (970)	23 (860)	25 (1027)	19 (823)	25 (1154)	19 (939)
CA-GMRES(8, 30)	202 (691)	89 (884)	39 (722)	42 (1131)	25 (795)	20 (774)	14 (602)	19 (947)	16 (824)	12 (665)	14 (773)
CA-GMRES(10, 30)	183 (760)	96 (1155)	45 (1011)	34 (1094)	17 (649)	22 (1007)	13 (640)	16 (918)	12 (739)	10 (627)	12 (776)
CA-GMRES(1, 1, 30)+ILU(0)	316 (158)	126 (183)	70 (187)	44 (169)	46 (212)	35 (194)	26 (167)	23 (159)	18 (136)	21 (160)	30 (233)
CA-GMRES(1, 8, 30)+ILU(0)	105 (162)	40 (175)	25 (201)	15 (167)	15 (197)	11 (166)	8 (139)	8 (150)	8 (151)	9 (187)	11 (211)
CA-GMERS(1, 10, 30)+ILU(0)	85 (143)	39 (187)	18 (154)	15 (173)	18 (249)	13 (217)	10 (200)	9 (174)	7 (156)	9 (190)	11 (225)

Fig. 16. Total Solution Time in Seconds (Number of Restarts), using an Underlapping Preconditioner with Local ILU(0)'s, and a Global k -way Partition and a Local Nested Dissection Ordering, for the G3_Circuit matrix. The seconds are rounded to the nearest integer.

Number of GPUs	1	3	9	15	21	27	1	3	9	15	21	27
GMRES(20)	11 (41)	3.22 (41)	1.37 (41)	1.04 (41)	0.98 (41)	0.92 (41)	2911 (2558)	847 (2449)	364 (2726)	228 (2492)	195 (2676)	164 (2566)
GMRES(20)+SAI(0), $s = 1$	7 (17)	1.84 (16)	0.82 (18)	0.67 (20)	0.63 (23)	0.55 (22)	686 (463)	130 (292)	66 (400)	40 (353)	28 (318)	21 (278)
CA-GMRES(2, 10, 20)	8 (41)	2.29 (41)	1.00 (41)	0.81 (41)	0.61 (41)	0.59 (41)	1780 (2558)	496 (2449)	227 (2726)	149 (2492)	127 (2676)	109 (2566)
CA-GMRES(1, 10, 20)+SAI(0)	6 (17)	1.56 (16)	0.68 (18)	0.55 (20)	0.51 (23)	0.43 (22)	493 (463)	97 (312)	55 (462)	21 (259)	24 (377)	20 (359)

(a) PDE_1M(0.0) (left, $m = 20$) and PDE_1M(1.0275) (right, $m = 60$) matrices.

Number of GPUs	3	9	15	21	27	3	9	15	21	27
GMRES(40)	81 (44)	29 (44)	19 (44)	16 (44)	13 (44)	126 (68)	45 (68)	28 (68)	22 (68)	18 (68)
GMRES(40)+SAI(0), $s = 1$	49 (19)	17 (19)	11 (20)	9 (21)	7 (22)	82 (32)	29 (33)	15 (28)	14 (35)	11 (35)
CA-GMRES(2, 10, 40)	55 (44)	21 (44)	14 (44)	11 (44)	10 (44)	86 (68)	31 (68)	20 (68)	15 (68)	14 (68)
CA-GMRES(1, 10, 40)+SAI(0)	39 (19)	13 (19)	9 (20)	7 (21)	6 (22)	65 (32)	23 (33)	12 (28)	11 (35)	9 (35)

(b) PDE_10M(0.0) (left) and PDE_10M(1.0) (right) matrices.

Fig. 17. Total Solution Time in Seconds (Number of Restarts), using an Underlapping Preconditioner with Local SAI(0)'s and a Global k -way Graph Partitioning, for the PDE matrices. Seconds are rounded to the nearest integer for clarity where appropriate.

length of $m = 60$ was used when $\alpha = 1.0275$. In order to accommodate the large CPU memory required for set up with the PDE_10M matrices, we launched one MPI per node, which managed three GPUs on the node. The figure also shows that CA-GMRES with underlap preconditioner improves the performance over GMRES with the same preconditioner (e.g., by a factor of 1.7). We expect that this improvement will increase on a computer where the communication between the parallel processes or threads is more dominant and for larger problem sizes.

We emphasize that the matrix A 's distribution over the GPUs not only affects CA-GMRES' performance (e.g., storage, computation, and communication overheads associated with s -step overlap), but it also determines the preconditioner's effectiveness (e.g., the size of the s -step underlap). For the PDE matrices presented here, we distributed the matrix over GPUs using k -way graph partitioning. In contrast, when we used RCM ordering, both overlap and underlap sizes increased quickly with the number of subdomains. As a result, even on few (e.g., 21) GPUs, some underlaps extended all the way inside the local subdomains, and the local preconditioners became diagonal scaling. Hence, on a larger number of subdomains, not only did the computational and communication overheads of CA-GMRES increase, but also the number of iterations increased quickly. This led to a quick reduction in speedups gained using the underlap preconditioner on a larger number of GPUs.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper presents our implementation of CA-GMRES on a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster and demonstrates speedups of 2.5x over standard GMRES on up to 120 GPUs. We also proposed a novel framework based on domain decomposition to precondition CA Krylov methods, which allowed us to

use existing software libraries for local preconditioning. Even when our implementation of this framework used simple ILU(0) and SAI(0) preconditioners to solve on each GPU's domain, the number of GMRES iterations was greatly reduced. As a result our preconditioned CA-GMRES achieved a 7.4x speedup in total solution time over CA-GMRES and a 1.7x speedup in total solution time over preconditioned GMRES on a GPU cluster. This showed the proposed framework's potential for effectively preconditioning CA Krylov methods. We continue to explore ways to improve our framework's performance. For instance, since the same parameter s is used for the basis size in *MPK* and the subdomain underlap in *Preco*, there is a trade-off between reducing communication and increasing the iteration count as s varies. To address this issue, we are investigating other techniques to precondition the underlap or overlap regions, and a more flexible way of preconditioning the CA methods. We are also working to improve the performance of our CA-GMRES on a hybrid CPU/GPU cluster by exploiting both CPUs and GPUs, and by adaptively adjusting parameters such as the step size.

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