

## LU FACTORIZATION ON PARALLEL COMPUTERS

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**Abstract**—A new parallel algorithm for the  $LU$  factorization of a given dense matrix  $A$  is described. The case of banded matrices is also considered. This algorithm can be combined with Sameh and Brent's [*SIAM J. Numer. Anal.* **14**, 1101-1113, (1977)] to obtain the solution of a linear system of algebraic equations. The arithmetic complexity for the dense case is  $\frac{1}{3}n^3$  ( $\frac{1}{2}bn$  in the banded case), using  $3(n - 1)$  processors and no square roots.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The parallel computers to be considered belong to a class of computers called the single instruction stream-multiple data stream (SIMD) machines. The more general multiple instruction stream-multiple data stream (MIMD) machines capable of executing different instructions simultaneously are not considered here. Wing and Huang[15], Wallach and Konrad[13], Jess and Kees[5], and Huang and Wing[3] discuss the solution of linear systems and  $LU$  factorization on MIMD machines. SIMD machines are best suited for algorithms requiring the same operations on large arrays of independent data.

The solution of a linear system of equations lies at the heart of many programs for scientific computation. With the recent development and availability of various parallel computers, new algorithms have appeared for solving tridiagonal systems of equations suitable for these machines. Notable among these methods are the recursive doubling method (Stone[12]), the cyclic reduction method (Lambiotte and Voigt[7]), and the partition method (Sameh and Kuck[11], Wang[14]). The solution of triangular systems was considered by Chen, Kuck and Sameh[1], Orcutt[8], Sameh and Brent[9] and Chen and Sameh[2]. See also [6, 10], and references there. Here we are interested in developing an algorithm for  $LU$  factorization of a matrix. This algorithm, combined, for example, with the one due to Sameh and Brent[9], yields the solution of linear systems on a parallel computer.

The arithmetic complexity for the dense (banded) case is  $\frac{1}{3}n^3$  ( $\frac{1}{2}bn$ ), using  $3(n - 1)$  processors and no square roots.

In the next section the algorithm is developed. The main theorem will be proved in Section 3. Section 4 will be devoted to numerical experiments with the algorithm.

### 2. DEVELOPMENT OF THE ALGORITHM

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix possessing an  $LU$  factorization (with  $l_{ii} = 1, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). Then

$$u_{ij} = a_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} l_{ik}u_{kj}, \quad i \leq j, \quad (1)$$

$$l_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} l_{ik}u_{kj}}{u_{jj}}, \quad i > j. \quad (2)$$

Note that (1) expresses the entries of the  $i$ th row of  $U$  in terms of the first  $i - 1$  rows of  $U$  and the first  $i - 1$  columns of  $L$ . Again, (2) expresses the entries of the  $j$ th column of  $L$  in terms of the first  $j - 1$  rows of  $U$ , the first  $j - 1$  columns of  $L$ , and the  $j$ th diagonal entry of  $U$ . In this way we can build up  $U$  row by row and  $L$  column by column (alternately).

It is clear that in order to obtain the entries of  $L$  and  $U$  via (1)–(2), one cannot utilize the parallelism of the computer. Let us construct the following  $n$  matrices

$$T^{(m)} = (t_{ij}^{(m)}), \quad m = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1.$$

The entries of the matrices are defined as follows:

$$t_{ij}^{(0)} = a_{ij}, \quad i \leq i, j \leq n, \tag{3.0}$$

$$t_{ij}^{(1)} = a_{11}a_{ij} - a_{i1}a_{1j}, \quad 2 \leq i, j \leq n, \tag{3.1}$$

$$t_{11}^{(1)} = t_{11}^{(0)},$$

$$t_{ij}^{(2)} = t_{22}^{(1)}t_{ij}^{(1)} - t_{i2}^{(1)}t_{2j}^{(1)}, \quad 3 \leq i, j \leq n, \tag{3.2}$$

$$t_{22}^{(2)} = t_{11}^{(1)}t_{22}^{(1)},$$

⋮

$$t_{ij}^{(m)} = t_{mm}^{(m-1)}t_{ij}^{(m-1)} - t_{im}^{(m-1)}t_{mj}^{(m-1)}, \quad m + 1 \leq i, j, \leq n,$$

$$t_{mm}^{(m)} = t_{m-1, m-1}^{(m-1)}t_{mm}^{(m-1)}. \tag{3.m}$$

**Remarks**

1. The entries of  $T^{(m)}$  can be computed simultaneously. The waiting time can be minimized if one works on more than one column at a time. For example, suppose  $n = 10, p = 3 \times 9$ ; then  $T^{(1)}$  is of order 9, and one can construct one column at a time.  $T^{(2)}$  is of order 8, and one constructs one column and an entry from the next column. Therefore one needs seven steps to obtain all entries of  $T^{(2)}$  except the last one. At this point one can start constructing  $T^{(3)}$ . The first time we have idle processors will be when  $T^{(8)}$  is constructed, since we cannot construct all  $T^{(8)}$  with the only entry of  $T^{(9)}$ .

2. All  $T^{(m)}$  can be saved on  $A$  if they are computed by columns. Let  $\mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{t}_i^{(m)}$  be the  $i$ th columns of  $A, T^{(m)}$  respectively. Then Eqs. (3) can be written as follows:

$$\mathbf{t}_i^{(0)} = \mathbf{a}_i, \tag{3.0}'$$

$$\mathbf{t}_i^{(1)} = t_{11}^{(0)}\mathbf{t}_i^{(0)} - t_{i1}^{(0)}\mathbf{t}_1^{(0)}, \tag{3.1}'$$

$$\mathbf{t}_i^{(2)} = t_{22}^{(1)}\mathbf{t}_i^{(1)} - t_{i2}^{(1)}\mathbf{t}_2^{(1)}, \tag{3.2}'$$

⋮

$$\mathbf{t}_i^{(m)} = t_{mm}^{(m-1)}\mathbf{t}_i^{(m-1)} - t_{im}^{(m-1)}\mathbf{t}_m^{(m-1)}. \tag{3.m}'$$

The diagonal entries  $t_{ii}^{(j)}$  are given as before.

3. If  $A$  is a banded matrix with bandwidth  $b$  and the number of processors  $p = 3Mb$ , then one can construct  $M$  columns of  $T^{(m)}$  at a time. This is possible because in this case both  $L$  and  $U$  have a smaller bandwidth  $((b + 1)/2)$ .

4. It turned out that for moderate  $n$ , formulae (3) give rise to overflow. In order to avoid this problem one normalizes these formulae as follows:

$$\tau_{ij}^{(m)} = \frac{t_{ij}^{(m)}}{t_{mm}^{(m)}}.$$

Once all the  $T^{(m)}$  are ready, one can construct  $L$  and  $U$  in parallel, using

$$u_{ij} = \frac{t_{ij}^{(i-1)}}{t_{i-1, i-1}^{(i-1)}}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq j \leq n \quad (t_{00}^{(0)} \equiv 1) \tag{4}$$

and

$$l_{ij} = \frac{t_{ij}^{(j-1)}}{t_{jj}^{(j-1)}}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq i \leq n. \tag{5}$$

In terms of  $\tau_{ij}^{(m)}$  formulae (4)–(5) are

$$u_{ij} = \tau_{ij}^{(i-1)}, \tag{4}'$$

$$l_{ij} = \frac{\tau_{ij}^{(j-1)}}{\tau_{jj}^{(j-1)}}. \tag{5}'$$

$$u_{N+1j} = a_{N+1j} - \sum_{k=1}^N l_{N+1k} u_{kj}.$$

Note that the entries of  $U$  are the normalized entries of  $T^{(m)}$ .

In the next section we prove that (4)–(5) are equivalent (1)–(2).

### 3. MAIN RESULT

#### THEOREM

Let  $A$  be a  $n \times n$  matrix possessing an  $LU$  factorization with  $l_{ii} = 1, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Then eqns (4)–(5) are equivalent to (1)–(2).

*Proof.* By induction. Using (1) for  $i = 1$ , (3.0), and the fact that  $t_{00}^{(0)} \equiv 1$ , one can immediately see that

$$u_{1j} = a_{1j} = \frac{t_{1j}^{(0)}}{t_{00}^{(0)}}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

From (2) for  $j = 1$  and (3.0), it is clear that

$$l_{i1} = \frac{a_{i1}}{a_{11}} = \frac{t_{i1}^{(0)}}{t_{11}^{(0)}}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Suppose that (4) is true for  $1 \leq i \leq j \leq N$  and that (5) is true for  $1 \leq j \leq i \leq N$ . Then one needs to show that

$$u_{N+1j} = \frac{t_{N+1j}^{(N)}}{t_{NN}^{(N)}}, \quad j \geq N + 1, \tag{6}$$

and

$$l_{iN+1} = \frac{t_{iN+1}^{(N)}}{t_{N+1N+1}^{(N)}}, \quad i \geq N + 1. \tag{7}$$

To show (6) we start with (1) for  $i = N + 1$ :

Using the induction hypothesis and (3.0), we get

$$u_{N+1j} = t_{N+1j}^{(0)} - \frac{t_{N+11}^{(0)} t_{1j}^{(0)}}{t_{11}^{(0)} t_{00}^{(0)}} - \frac{t_{N+12}^{(1)} t_{2j}^{(1)}}{t_{22}^{(1)} t_{11}^{(1)}} - \dots - \frac{t_{N+1N}^{(N-1)} t_{Nj}^{(N-1)}}{t_{NN}^{(N-1)} t_{N-1N-1}^{(N-1)}}.$$

The least common denominator for the first two terms, together with (3.1), yields

$$u_{N+1j} = \frac{t_{N+1j}^{(1)}}{t_{11}^{(1)}} - \frac{t_{N+12}^{(1)} t_{2j}^{(1)}}{t_{22}^{(1)} t_{11}^{(1)}} - \dots - \frac{t_{N+1N}^{(N-1)} t_{Nj}^{(N-1)}}{t_{NN}^{(N-1)} t_{N-1N-1}^{(N-1)}}.$$

Again we take a common denominator for the first two terms and use (3.2) to get

$$u_{N+1j} = \frac{t_{N+1j}^{(2)}}{t_{22}^{(2)}} - \dots - \frac{t_{N+1N}^{(N-1)} t_{Nj}^{(N-1)}}{t_{NN}^{(N-1)} t_{N-1N-1}^{(N-1)}}.$$

Continuing this process, combining two terms at a time, one has

$$u_{N+1j} = \frac{t_{N+1j}^{(N-1)}}{t_{N-1N-1}^{(N-1)}} - \frac{t_{N+1N}^{(N-1)} t_{Nj}^{(N-1)}}{t_{NN}^{(N-1)} t_{N-1N-1}^{(N-1)}} = \frac{t_{N+1j}^{(N)}}{t_{NN}^{(N)}}.$$

In a similar fashion one proves (7).

The arithmetic complexity of the algorithm in the dense case is  $\frac{1}{3}n^2$ , using  $3(n - 1)$  processors. In the banded case the complexity is  $\frac{1}{2}bn$ , using  $3(n - 1)$  processors. In both cases square roots are not needed. Increasing the number of processors will reduce the complexity. For the dense case the complexity is reduced to  $\frac{1}{2}n$  by using  $3(n - 1)^2$  processors.

*Remark concerning error analysis*

Let \* denote any of the four arithmetic operations. Then a floating-point operation (on a computer having a double-precision accumulator) satisfies

$$fl(x * y) = x * y(1 + \delta)$$

and  $|\delta| \leq \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is a unit roundoff (see[11]). It can be shown (see[11]) that

$$fl(t_{ij}^{(1)}) = t_{ij}^{(1)}(1 + \delta_1\varepsilon + \theta_1\varepsilon),$$

and, by induction,

$$fl(t_{ij}^{(m)}) = t_{ij}^{(m)}(1 + \delta_m\varepsilon + \theta_m\varepsilon), \tag{8}$$

where  $\theta_m = 2^m - 1$  and  $\delta_m = \delta_{m-1} + \theta_{m-1} + 2$ . Thus  $\delta_m = 2^m + m - 1$ . Using (4)–(5) one obtains

$$fl(u_{ij}) = u_{ij}(1 + \delta_{i+1}\varepsilon), \tag{9}$$

$$fl(l_{ij}) = l_{ij}(1 + \delta_{j+1}\varepsilon). \tag{10}$$

4. NUMERICAL EXPERIMENTS

In order to gain more insight into the performance of the algorithm presented, several examples have been selected for illustration. Since we do not have a parallel processor, we simulated it on a serial computer (VAX 11/780). In this simulation each processor is brought into the VAX 11/780 one at a time, and its program is executed. When this is completed, it is then rolled out, and the processor that is furthest back in its execution time is brought in next. The time spent by a processor consists of the program execution time and the data communication time. Here the synchronization time was negligible.

The solution times of various examples were obtained by using a time scale based on the VAX 11/780 computer. To investigate the behavior and advantages for the concurrent execution of the system simulation problems, the performance evaluation parameters chosen are (1) speed-up ratio, (2) waiting time, and (3) efficiency. The speed-up ratio is defined as the ratio of the serial solution time (TS) to the parallel solution time (TP). In any algorithm for parallel processing, the speed-up ratio should ideally be proportional to the number of processors used ( $p$ ). In practice it is difficult to keep all processors busy all the time. Thus, when a processor has executed all the ready tasks, it must wait for new data from other processors for further execution. Hence, the waiting time (TW) occurs. The efficiency (EFF) represents the ratio of the difference

between the total parallel solution time and the waiting time to the total parallel solution time; i.e.

$$\text{EFF} = \frac{p \cdot \text{TP} - \text{TW}}{p \cdot \text{TP}}.$$

In our first experiment we have taken a  $5 \times 5$  matrix using a various number of processors. The parallel solution time TP, the waiting time TW, the efficiency EFF, and the speed-up ratio are given in Tables 1, 2, 3 for dense, tridiagonal, and pentadiagonal matrices, respectively. Note that time is measured in  $\mu\text{sec}$ .

Table 1. Dense  $5 \times 5$  matrix; TS = 34.6

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	15.2	3	93.4	2.27
5	8.4	7.4	82.4	4.12
8	6.4	16.6	67.6	5.41

Table 2. Tridiagonal  $5 \times 5$  matrix; TS = 10.4

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	4.0	1.6	86.7	2.60
5	2.8	3.6	74.3	3.71
8	2.4	8.8	54.2	4.33

Table 3. Pentadiagonal  $5 \times 5$  matrix; TS = 14.0

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	5.2	1.6	89.7	2.69
5	3.6	3.6	80.0	3.83
8	2.4	5.2	72.9	5.83

In the second experiment we have taken a  $10 \times 10$  matrix. The results are summarized in the following tables.

Table 4. Dense  $10 \times 10$  matrix; TS = 303

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	102	3	99.0	2.97
5	61.6	5	98.4	4.92
8	38.4	12.2	96.0	7.89

Table 5. Tridiagonal  $10 \times 10$  matrix; TS = 50.4

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	17.2	1.2	97.7	2.93
5	10.8	3.6	93.3	4.67
8	6.8	7.2	86.8	7.41

Table 6. Pentadiagonal  $10 \times 10$  matrix;  $T_s = 76$ 

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	26.0	2.0	97.4	2.92
5	15.6	3.6	95.3	4.87
8	10.0	7.2	91.0	7.60

In the last experiment we have taken a  $20 \times 20$  matrix. The results are given in the following tables.

Table 7. Dense  $20 \times 20$  matrix;  $T_s = 1064$ 

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	355.2	1.6	99.8	2.99
5	213.2	2.0	99.8	4.99
8	133.6	8.0	99.2	7.96

Table 8. Tridiagonal  $20 \times 20$  matrix;  $T_s = 220.4$ 

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	74.0	1.6	99.3	2.98
5	44.8	3.6	98.4	4.92
8	28.4	6.8	97.0	7.76

Table 9. Pentadiagonal  $20 \times 20$  matrix;  $T_s = 350.0$ 

$p$	TP	TW	EFF (%)	Speed-up ratio
3	117.2	1.6	99.5	2.99
5	70.8	3.6	99.0	4.94
8	44.8	9.2	97.4	7.81

### Remarks

1. The efficiency goes down when the number of processors increases. The efficiency is the highest when the matrix is dense.

2. The speed-up ratio is an increasing function of the number of processors and the bandwidth.

3. The efficiency increases with the order; thus, this algorithm is good for large matrices.

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