COMMUNICATION-OPTIMAL PARALLEL AND SEQUENTIAL QR AND LU FACTORIZATIONS

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Abstract. We present parallel and sequential dense QR factorization algorithms that are both
optimal (up to polylogarithmic factors) in the amount of communication they perform, and just as
stable as Householder QR.

We prove optimality by extending known lower bounds on communication bandwidth for se-
quential and parallel matrix multiplication to provide latency lower bounds, and show these bounds
apply to the LU and QR decompositions. We not only show that our QR algorithms attain these
lower bounds (up to polylogarithmic factors), but that existing LAPACK and ScaLAPACK algo-
rintems perform asymptotically more communication. We also point out recent LU algorithms in the
literature that attain at least some of these lower bounds.

1. Introduction. The large and increasing costs of communication motivate
redesigning algorithms to avoid it whenever possible. In the parallel case, communi-
cation refers to messages between processors, which may be sent over a network or
via a shared memory. In the sequential case, communication refers to data movement
between different levels of the memory hierarchy. In both the parallel and sequential
cases we model the time to communicate a message of \( n \) words as \( \alpha + \beta n \), where \( \alpha \)
is the latency and \( \beta \) is the reciprocal bandwidth. Many authors have pointed out
technology trends causing floating point to become faster at an exponentially higher
rate than bandwidth, and bandwidth at an exponentially higher rate than latency
(see e.g., Graham et al. [23]).

We present parallel and sequential dense QR factorization algorithms that are
both optimal (sometimes only up to polylogarithmic factors) in the amount of com-
munication (latency and bandwidth) they require, and just as numerically stable as
conventional Householder QR. Some of the algorithms are novel, and some extend
earlier work. The first set of algorithms, “Tall Skinny QR” (TSQR), are for matrices
with many more rows than columns, and the second set, “Communication-Avoiding
QR” (CAQR), are for general rectangular matrices. The algorithms have significantly
lower latency cost in the parallel case, and significantly lower latency and bandwidth
costs in the sequential case, than existing algorithms in LAPACK and ScaLAPACK.

It will be easy to see that our parallel and sequential TSQR implementations
communicate as little as possible. To prove optimality of CAQR, we extend known
lower bounds on communication bandwidth for sequential and parallel versions of
conventional \( \Theta(n^3) \) matrix multiplication (see Hong and Kung [28] and Irony, Toledo,
and Tiskin [27]) to also provide latency lower bounds, and show that these bounds
also apply to \( \Theta(n^3) \) implementations of dense LU and QR decompositions. Showing
that the bounds apply to LU is easy, but QR is more subtle. We show that CAQR
attains these lower bounds (sometimes only up to polylogarithmic factors).

Implementations of TSQR and CAQR demonstrating significant speedups over
LAPACK and ScaLAPACK will be presented in other work [17]; here we concentrate
on proving optimality.

Tables 1.1–1.6 summarize our performance models and lower bounds for TSQR,
CAQR, and LAPACK’s sequential and ScaLAPACK’s parallel QR factorizations. Our
model of computation looks the same for the parallel and sequential cases, with running
time = \#flops \times \text{time per flop} + \#words moved \times (1/bandwidth) + \#messages \times latency, where the last two terms constitute the communication. We do not model
overlap of communication and computation, which while important in practice can at
most improve the running time by a factor of 2, whereas we are looking for asymptotic improvements. In the tables we give the #flops, #words moved and #messages as functions of the number of rows \( m \) and columns \( n \) (assuming \( m \geq n \)), the number of processors \( P \) in the parallel case, and the size of fast memory \( W \) in the sequential case. To make these tables easier to read, we omit most lower order terms, make boldface the terms where the new algorithms differ significantly from Sca/LAPACK, and make the optimal choice of matrix layout for each parallel algorithm: This means optimally choosing the block size \( b \) as well as the processor grid dimensions \( P_r \times P_c \) in the 2-D block cyclic layout. (See Section 3 for discussion of these parameters, and detailed performance models for general layouts.)

Tables 1.1–1.3 present the parallel performance models for TSQR, CAQR on general rectangular matrices, and CAQR on square matrices, respectively. First, Table 1.1 shows that parallel TSQR requires only \( \log P \) messages, which is both optimal and a factor \( 2n \) fewer messages than ScaLAPACK’s parallel QR factorization PDGEQRF. Table 1.2 shows that parallel CAQR needs only \( \Theta(\sqrt{nP/m}) \) messages (ignoring polylogarithmic factors) on a general \( m \times n \) rectangular matrix, which is both optimal and a factor \( \Theta(\sqrt{mn/P}) \) fewer messages than ScaLAPACK. Note that \( \sqrt{mn/P} \) is the square root of each processor’s local memory size, up to a small constant factor. Table 1.3 presents the same comparison for the special case of a square \( n \times n \) matrix.

Next, Tables 1.4–1.6 present the sequential performance models for TSQR, CAQR on general rectangular matrices, and CAQR on square matrices, respectively. Table 1.4 compares sequential TSQR with sequential blocked Householder QR. This is LAPACK’s QR factorization routine DGEQRF when fast memory is cache and slow memory is DRAM, and models ScaLAPACK’s out-of-DRAM QR factorization routine PFDGEQRF when fast memory is DRAM and slow memory is disk. Sequential TSQR transfers fewer words between slow and fast memory: \( 2mn \), which is both optimal and a factor \( mn/(4W) \) fewer words than transferred by blocked Householder QR. Note that \( mn/W \) is how many times larger the matrix is than the fast memory size \( W \). Furthermore, TSQR requires fewer messages: at most about \( 3mn/W \), which is close to optimal and \( \Theta(n) \) times lower than Householder QR. Table 1.5 compares sequential CAQR and sequential blocked Householder QR on a general rectangular matrix. Sequential CAQR transfers fewer words between slow and fast memory: \( \Theta(m\sqrt{W}) \), which is both optimal and a factor \( \Theta(m/\sqrt{W}) \) fewer words transferred than blocked Householder QR. Note that \( m/\sqrt{W} = \sqrt{m^2/W} \) is the square root of how many times larger a square \( m \times m \) matrix is than the fast memory size \( W \). Sequential CAQR also requires fewer messages: \( 12mn^2/W^{3/2} \), which is optimal. We note that our analysis of CAQR applies for any \( W \), whereas our analysis of the algorithms in LAPACK and ScaLAPACK assume that at least 2 columns fit in fast memory, that is \( W \geq 2m \); otherwise they may communicate even more. Finally, Table 1.6 presents the same comparison for the special case of a square \( n \times n \) matrix.
Table 1.1

|       | TSQR                              | PDGEQRF                           | Lower bound                       |
|-------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| # flops | $\frac{2mn^2}{P} + \frac{2n^3}{3} \log P$ | $\frac{2mn^2}{P} - \frac{2n^3}{3P}$ | $\Theta \left( \frac{mn^2}{P} \right)$ |
| # words | $\frac{2}{3} n^2 \log P$            | $\frac{2}{3} n^2 \log P$           | $\frac{n^2}{P} \log P$            |
| # messages | $\log P$                          | $2n \log P$                        | $\log P$                          |

Performance models of parallel TSQR and ScaLAPACK's parallel QR factorization PDGEQRF on an $m \times n$ matrix with $P$ processors, along with lower bounds on the number of flops, words, and messages. We assume $m/P \geq n$.

Table 1.2

|       | Par. CAQR                          | PDGEQRF                           | Lower bound                       |
|-------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| # flops | $\sqrt{\frac{mn^2}{P}} \log P - \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{mn^2}{P}} \log \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)$ | $\sqrt{\frac{mn^2}{P}} \log P - \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{mn^2}{P}} \log \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)$ | $\Theta \left( \frac{mn^2}{P} \right)$ |
| # words | $\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{mn^2}{P}} \log^2 \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right) \cdot \log \left( \frac{P \sqrt{mP}}{n} \right)$ | $\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \log \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right) \cdot \log \left( \frac{P \sqrt{mP}}{n} \right)$ | $\Theta \left( \frac{mn^2}{P} \right)$ |

Performance models of parallel CAQR and ScaLAPACK's parallel QR factorization PDGEQRF on an $m \times n$ matrix with $P$ processors, along with lower bounds on the number of flops, words, and messages. The matrix is stored in a 2-D $P_r \times P_c$ block cyclic layout with square $b \times b$ blocks. We choose $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ optimally and independently for each algorithm.

Table 1.3

|       | Par. CAQR                          | PDGEQRF                           | Lower bound                       |
|-------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| # flops | $\frac{4n^4}{3P}$                  | $\frac{4n^4}{3P}$                  | $\Theta \left( \frac{n^4}{P} \right)$ |
| # words | $\frac{3n^2}{4 \sqrt{P}} \log P$   | $\frac{3n^2}{4 \sqrt{P}} \log P$ | $\Theta \left( \frac{n^2}{\sqrt{P}} \right)$ |
| # messages | $\frac{3}{8} \sqrt{P} \log^2 P$    | $\frac{5n}{4} \log^2 P$            | $\Theta \left( \sqrt{P} \right)$ |

Performance models of parallel CAQR and ScaLAPACK's parallel QR factorization PDGEQRF on a square $n \times n$ matrix with $P$ processors, along with lower bounds on the number of flops, words, and messages. The matrix is stored in a 2-D $P_r \times P_c$ block cyclic layout with square $b \times b$ blocks. We choose $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ optimally and independently for each algorithm.
| # flops | Seq. TSQR | Householder QR | Lower bound |
|---------|------------|----------------|-------------|
|        | $2mn^2$   | $2mn^2$        | $\Theta(n^3)$ |
| # words | $2mn$     | $\frac{mn^2}{2}$ | $2mn$       |
| # messages | $\frac{2mn}{W}$ | $\frac{2mn}{W}$ | $\frac{2mn}{W}$ |

Table 1.4

Performance models of sequential TSQR and blocked sequential Householder QR (either LAPACK’s in-DRAM DGGEQRF or ScaLAPACK’s out-of-DRAM PFDGEQRF) on an $m \times n$ matrix with fast memory size $W$, along with lower bounds on the number of flops, words, and messages. We assume $m \gg n$ and $W \geq 3n^2/2$. $\bar{W} = W - n(n + 1)/2$, which is at least about $\frac{3}{4}W$.

| # flops | Seq. CAQR | Householder QR | Lower bound |
|---------|------------|----------------|-------------|
|        | $4n^3/3$   | $\frac{4n^3}{3}$ | $\Theta(n^3)$ |
| # words | $\frac{n^3}{\sqrt{W}}$ | $\frac{n^3}{3W} + \frac{3n^2}{4}$ | $\Theta(\frac{n^3}{\sqrt{W}})$ |
| # messages | $12\frac{n^3}{W^{3/2}}$ | $\frac{n^3}{2W}$ | $\Theta(\frac{n^3}{W^{3/2}})$ |

Table 1.5

Performance models of sequential CAQR and blocked sequential Householder QR (either LAPACK’s in-DRAM DGGEQRF or ScaLAPACK’s out-of-DRAM PFDGEQRF) on an $m \times n$ matrix with fast memory size $W$, along with lower bounds on the number of flops, words, and messages.

| # flops | Seq. CAQR | Householder QR | Lower bound |
|---------|------------|----------------|-------------|
|        | $4n^3/3$   | $\frac{4n^3}{3}$ | $\Theta(n^3)$ |
| # words | $\frac{n^3}{\sqrt{W}}$ | $\frac{n^3}{3W} + \frac{3n^2}{4}$ | $\Theta(\frac{n^3}{\sqrt{W}})$ |
| # messages | $12\frac{n^3}{W^{3/2}}$ | $\frac{n^3}{2W}$ | $\Theta(\frac{n^3}{W^{3/2}})$ |

Table 1.6

Performance models of sequential CAQR and blocked sequential Householder QR (either LAPACK’s in-DRAM DGGEQRF or ScaLAPACK’s out-of-DRAM PFDGEQRF) on a square $n \times n$ matrix with fast memory size $W$, along with lower bounds on the number of flops, words, and messages.

Finally, we note that although our new algorithms perform slightly more floating point operations than LAPACK and ScaLAPACK, they have the same highest order terms in their floating point operation counts. (For TSQR, which is intended for the case $m \gg n$, only the term containing $m$ is highest order.) In fact we prove a matching lower bound on the amount of arithmetic, assuming we avoid “Strassen-like” algorithms in a way made formal later.

Now we briefly describe related work and our contributions. The tree-based QR idea itself is not novel (see for example, [6, 7, 12, 22, 25, 31, 38, 40, 41]), but we have a number of optimizations and generalizations:

- Our algorithm can perform almost all its floating-point operations using any fast sequential QR factorization routine. For example, we can use blocked Householder transformation exploiting BLAS3, or invoke Elmroth and Gustavson’s recursive QR (see [38, 41]).
- We use TSQR as a building block for CAQR, for the parallel resp. sequential factorization of arbitrary rectangular matrices in a two-dimensional block cyclic layout.
Most significantly, we prove optimality for both our parallel and sequential algorithms, with a 1-D layout for TSQR and 2-D block layout for CAQR, i.e., that they minimize bandwidth and latency costs. This assumes $\Theta(n^3)$ (non-Strassen-like) algorithms, and is usually shown in a Big-Oh sense, sometimes modulo polylogarithmic terms.

We describe special cases in which existing sequential algorithms by Elmroth and Gustavson [19] and also LAPACK’s DGEQRF attain minimum bandwidth. In particular, with the correct choice of block size, Elmroth’s and Gustavson’s RGEQRF algorithm attains minimum bandwidth and flop count, though not minimum latency.

We observe that there are alternative LU algorithms in the literature that attain at least some of these communication lower bounds: [24] describes a parallel LU algorithm attaining both bandwidth and latency lower bounds, and [47] describes a sequential LU algorithm that at least attains the bandwidth lower bound.

We outline how to extend both algorithms and optimality results to certain kinds of hierarchical architectures, either with multiple levels of memory hierarchy, or multiple levels of parallelism (e.g., where each node in a parallel machine consists of other parallel machines, such as multicore). In the case of TSQR we do this by adapting it to work on general reduction trees.

It is possible to do a stable QR factorization (or indeed most any dense linear algebra operation) at the same asymptotic speed as matrix multiplication (e.g., in $\Theta(n \log_2 7)$ operations using Strassen) [15] and so with less communication as well, but we do not discuss these algorithms in this paper.

We note that the $Q$ factor will be represented as a tree of smaller $Q$ factors, which differs from the traditional layout. Many previous authors did not explain in detail how to apply a stored TSQR $Q$ factor, quite possibly because this is not required for solving a single least squares problem: Adjoining the right-hand side(s) to the matrix $A$, and taking the QR factorization of the result, requires only the $R$ factor. Previous authors discuss this optimization. However, many of our applications require storing and working with the implicit representation of the $Q$ factor. Our performance models show that applying this tree-structured $Q$ has about the same cost as the traditionally represented $Q$.

The rest of this report is organized as follows. Section 2 presents TSQR, describing its parallel and sequential optimizations, performance models, comparisons to LAPACK and ScaLAPACK, and how it can be adapted to other architectures. Section 3 presents CAQR analogously. (This paper is based on the technical report [16], to which we leave many of the detailed derivations of the performance models.) Section 4 presents our lower bounds for TSQR, and Section 5 for CAQR (as well as LU). Section 6 describes related work. Section 7 summarizes and describes open problems and future work.

2. Tall-Skinny QR - TSQR. In this section, we present the TSQR algorithm for computing the QR factorization of an $m \times n$ matrix $A$, stored in a 1-D block row layout. We assume $m \geq n$, and typically $m \gg n$. (See [4] for a description of 1D and 2D layouts.)

Subsection 2.1 describes parallel TSQR on a binary tree, sequential TSQR on a “flat” tree, and then TSQR as a reduction on an arbitrary tree. Subsection 2.2 describes performance models, and Subsection 2.3 compares TSQR to alternative algorithms, both stable and unstable; we will see that TSQR does asymptotically
less communication than the stable alternatives, and is about as fast as the fastest unstable alternative (CholeskyQR).

2.1. TSQR as a reduction operation. We will describe a family of algorithms that takes an $m$-by-$n$ matrix $A = [A_0; A_1; \cdots; A_{p-1}]$ and produces the $R$ factor of its QR decomposition. Here we use Matlab notation, so that the $A_i$ are stacked atop one another, and we assume $A_i$ is $m_i$-by-$n$. In later sections we will assume $m_i \geq n$, but that is not necessary here.

The basic operation in our examples is to take two or more matrices stacked atop one another, like $\hat{A} = [A_0; A_1]$, and replace them by the $R$ factor of $\hat{A}$. As long as more than one matrix remains in the stack, the reduction continues until one $R$ factor is left, which we claim is the $R$ factor of the original $A$. The pattern of which pairs (or larger groups) of matrices are combined in one step forms what we will call a reduction tree.

We write this out explicitly for TSQR performed on a binary tree starting with $p = 4$ blocks. We start by replacing each $A_i$ by its own individual $R$ factor:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_0 \\ A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Q_0 R_0 \\ Q_1 R_1 \\ Q_2 R_2 \\ Q_3 R_3 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.1)$$

Proceeding with the first set of reductions, we write

$$\begin{pmatrix} R_0 \\ R_1 \\ R_2 \\ R_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_0 & R_1 \\ R_2 & R_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Q_{01} R_{01} \\ Q_{23} R_{23} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.2)$$

Thus $[R_0; R_1]$ is replaced by $R_{01}$ and $[R_2; R_3]$ is replaced by $R_{23}$. Here and later, the subscripts on a matrix like $R_{ij}$ refer to the original $A_i$ and $A_j$ on which they depend.

The next and last reduction is

$$\begin{pmatrix} R_{01} \\ R_{23} \end{pmatrix} = Q_{0123} R_{0123}. \quad (2.3)$$

We claim that $R_{0123}$ is the $R$ factor of the original $A = [A_0; A_1; A_2; A_3]$. To see this, we combine equations (2.1), (2.2) and (2.3) to write

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_0 \\ A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Q_0 \\ Q_1 \\ Q_2 \\ Q_3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} Q_{01} \\ Q_{23} \end{pmatrix} \cdot Q_{0123} \cdot R_{0123} \quad (2.4)$$

For this product to make sense, we must choose the dimensions of the $Q$ factors consistently: They can all be square, or when all $m_i \geq n$, they can all have $n$ columns (in which case each $R$ factor will be $n$-by-$n$). (The usual representation of $Q$ factors by Householder vectors encodes both possibilities.) In either case, we have expressed $A$ as a product of (block diagonal) orthogonal matrices (which must therefore also be orthogonal), and the triangular matrix $R_{0123}$. By uniqueness of the QR decomposition (modulo signs of diagonal entries of $R_{0123}$), this is the QR decomposition of
A. We note that we will not multiply the various $Q$ factors together, but leave them represented by the “tree of $Q$ factors” implied by equation (2.4).

We abbreviate this algorithm with the following simple notation, which makes the binary tree apparent:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_0 \rightarrow R_0 \\
A_1 \rightarrow R_1 \\
A_2 \rightarrow R_2 \\
A_3 \rightarrow R_3
\end{array}
\]

The notation has the following meaning: if one or more arrows point to the same matrix, that matrix is the $R$ factor of the matrix obtained by stacking all the matrices at the other ends of the arrows atop one another. This notation not only makes the parallelism in the algorithm apparent (all QR decompositions at the same depth in the tree can potentially be done in parallel), but implies that any tree leads to a valid QR decomposition. For example, conventional QR decomposition may be expressed as the trivial tree

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_0 \\
A_1 \\
A_2 \\
A_3
\end{array} 
\]

The tree we will use for sequential TSQR with limited fast memory $W$ is the following so-called “flat tree”:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A_0 \rightarrow R_0 \\
A_1 \rightarrow \rightarrow R_{01} \\
A_2 \rightarrow \rightarrow R_{012} \\
A_3 \rightarrow \rightarrow R_{0123}
\end{array}
\]

The idea of sequential TSQR is that if fast memory can only hold a little more than a fraction $m/p$ of the rows of $A$ (a little more than $m/4$ for the above tree), then the algorithm proceeds by reading in the first $m/p$ rows of $A$, doing its QR decomposition, keeping $R_0$ in fast memory but writing the representation of $Q_0$ back to slow memory, and then repeatedly reading in the next $m/p$ rows, doing the QR decomposition of them stacked below the $R$ factor already in memory, and writing out the representation of the new $Q$ factor. This way the entire matrix is read into fast memory once, and the representation of all the $Q$ factors is written out to fast memory once, which is clearly the minimal amount of data movement possible.

For an example of yet another TSQR reduction tree more suitable for a hybrid parallel / out-of-core factorization, see [16, Section 4.3].

It is evident that all these variants of TSQR are numerically stable, since they just involve repeated applications of orthogonal transformations. Note also that the local QR factorizations in both the parallel and sequential TSQR algorithms can avoid storing and performing arithmetic with zeros in the triangular factors. This optimization still allows the use of high-performance QR algorithms (such as the BLAS 3 $YTY^T$ representation of Schreiber and Van Loan [44] and the recursive QR factorization of Elmroth and Gustavson [19]) for the local computations. For details, see Demmel et al. [16, Section 7].

We close this subsection by observing that the general theory of reduction operations applied to associative operators (e.g., optimizing the shape of the reduction tree [36], or how to compute prefix sums of $a_1 \ast a_2 \ast \cdots \ast a_p$ where $\ast$ could be scalar...
addition, matrix multiplication, etc.) applies to QR decomposition as well, because the mapping from \([A_0; A_1]\) to its \(R\) factor is associative (modulo roundoff and the choice of the signs of the diagonal entries).

2.2. Performance models for TSQR. We present performance models for parallel and sequential TSQR. We outline their derivations, which are straightforward based on the previous descriptions, and leave details to [16, Section 8]. In the next section we will compare the models for TSQR with alternative algorithms.

The runtimes will be functions of \(m\) and \(n\). In the parallel case, the runtime will also depend on the number of processors \(P\), where we assume each processor stores \(m/P\) rows of the input matrix \(A\). (It is easiest to think of the rows as contiguous, but if they are not, we simply get the QR decomposition of a row-permutation of \(A\), which is still just the QR decomposition). In the sequential case the runtime will depend on \(W\), the size of fast memory. We assume fast memory is large enough to contain at least \(n\) rows of \(A\), and an \(R\) factor, i.e. \(W \approx \frac{2}{3} n^2\). In both parallel and sequential cases, we let \(\gamma = \) time per flop, \(\beta = \) reciprocal bandwidth (time per word) and \(\alpha = \) latency (time per message). We assume no overlap of communication and computation (as said before, this could speed up the algorithm at most \(2\times\)). All logarithms are in base 2.

A parallel TSQR factorization on a binary reduction tree performs the following computations along the critical path: one local QR factorization of a fully dense \(m/P \times n\) matrix, and \(\log P\) factorizations, each of a \(2n \times n\) matrix consisting of two \(n \times n\) upper triangular matrices. The factorization requires \(\frac{2mn^2}{p} + \frac{2n^3}{3} \log P\) flops (ignoring lower order terms here and elsewhere) and \(\log P\) messages, and transfers a total of \(\frac{1}{2} n^2 \log P\) words between processors. Thus, the total run time is

\[
\text{Time}_{\text{Par. TSQR}}(m, n, P) = \left(\frac{2mn^2}{P} + \frac{2n^3}{3} \log P\right) \gamma + \left(\frac{1}{2} n^2 \log P\right) \beta + (\log P) \alpha .
\]

(2.5)

Now we consider sequential TSQR. To first order, TSQR performs the same number of floating point operations as standard Householder QR, namely \(2mn^3 - \frac{2n^3}{3}\). As described before, sequential TSQR moves \(2mn\) words by dividing \(A\) into submatrices that are as large as possible, i.e., \(m'\) rows each such that \(m' \cdot n + \frac{n(n+2)}{2} \leq W\), or \(m' \approx (W - \frac{n(n+1)}{2})/n = \tilde{W}/n\), where \(\tilde{W} = W - \frac{n(n+1)}{2}\). Assuming \(A\) is stored so that groups of \(m'\) rows are in contiguous memory locations, the number of messages sequential TSQR needs to send is \(\frac{2mn}{m'n} = \frac{2mn}{\tilde{W}}\). Thus the runtime for sequential TSQR is

\[
\text{Time}_{\text{Seq. TSQR}}(m, n, W) = \left(\frac{2mn^2}{3} - \frac{2n^3}{3}\right) \gamma + (2mn) \beta + \left(\frac{2mn}{W}\right) \alpha .
\]

(2.6)

We note that \(\tilde{W} \approx 2W/3\), so that the number of messages \(2mn/\tilde{W} \approx 3mn/W\).

2.3. Comparison of TSQR to alternative algorithms. We compare parallel and sequential QR to alternative algorithms, both stable and unstable: Classical Gram-Schmidt (CGS), Modified Gram-Schmidt (MGS), Cholesky QR, and Householder QR, as implemented in LAPACK and ScaLAPACK; only the latter are numerically stable in all cases. In summary, TSQR not only has the lowest complexity (comparing highest order terms), but has asymptotically lower communication complexity than the only numerically stable alternatives. We outline our approach and leave details of counting to [16, Section 9].
### Parallel algorithm

| Algorithm  | # flops               | # messages            | # words               |
|------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| TSQR       | $\frac{2mn^2}{P} + \frac{2n}{3} \log(P)$ | $\log(P)$            | $\frac{n^2}{2} \log(P)$ |
| PDGEQRF    | $\frac{2mn^2}{P} - \frac{2n^3}{3P}$       | $2n \log(P)$         | $\frac{n^2}{2} \log(P)$ |
| MGS        | $\frac{2mn^2}{P}$      | $2n \log(P)$         | $\frac{n^2}{2} \log(P)$ |
| CGS        | $\frac{2mn^2}{P}$      | $2n \log(P)$         | $\frac{n^2}{2} \log(P)$ |
| CholeskyQR | $\frac{2mn^2 + n^3}{P}$ | $\log(P)$            | $\frac{n^2}{2} \log(P)$ |

**Performance models of various parallel QR algorithms for “tall-skinny” matrices, i.e. with $m \gg n$. We show only the best-performing versions of MGS (right-looking) and CGS (left-looking).**

### Sequential algorithm

| Algorithm  | # flops               | # messages            | # words               |
|------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| TSQR       | $2mn^2 - \frac{2n^3}{3}$ | $2mn_\frac{W}{W}$    | $2mn - \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{mn^2}{W}$ |
| PDGEQRF    | $2mn^2 - \frac{2n^3}{3}$ | $2mn_\frac{W}{W}$    | $m\frac{n^2}{2W} + \frac{mn^2}{6W} + \frac{3mn}{2} - \frac{2n^2}{4}$ |
| MGS        | $2mn^2$                | $2mn_\frac{W}{W}$    | $3mn$               |
| CholeskyQR | $2mn^2 + \frac{n^3}{3}$ | $\frac{6mn}{W}$    | $\frac{3mn}{2W}$    |

**Performance models of various sequential QR algorithms for “tall-skinny” matrices, i.e. with $m \gg n$. PDGEQRF is our model of ScaLAPACK’s out-of-DRAM QR factorization; $W$ is the fast memory size, and $\tilde{W} = W - n(n+1)/2$. Lower-order terms omitted.**

MGS and CGS can be either right-looking or left-looking. For CGS either alternative has the same communication complexity, but for MGS the right-looking variant has much less latency, so we present its performance model.

Cholesky QR forms $A^TA$, computes its upper triangular Cholesky factor $R$, and forms $Q = AR^{-1}$. It can obviously be unstable, but is frequently used when $A$ is expected to be well-conditioned (see section 9).

We need to say a little more about sequential Householder QR. LAPACK’s right-looking DGEQRF repeatedly sweeps over the entire matrix, potentially leading to proportionally as much memory traffic as there are floating point operations, a factor $\Theta(n)$ more than sequential TSQR; a left-looking version of DGEQRF would be similar. To make a fairer comparison, we model the performance of a left-looking QR algorithm that was optimized to minimize memory movement in an out-of-DRAM environment, i.e., where fast memory is DRAM and slow memory is disk. This routine, PFDGEQRF [13] was designed to combine ScaLAPACK’s parallelism with minimal disk accesses. As originally formulated, it uses ScaLAPACK’s parallel QR factorization PDGEQRF to perform the current panel factorization in DRAM, but we assume here that it is running sequentially since we are only interested in modeling the traffic between slow and fast memory. PFDGEQRF is a left-looking method, as usual with out-of-DRAM algorithms (left-looking schemes do fewer writes than right-looking schemes, since writes are often more expensive.) PFDGEQRF keeps two panels in memory: a left panel of fixed width $b$, and the current panel being factored, whose width $c$ can expand to fill the available memory. Details of the algorithm and analysis may be found in [13] and [16, Appendix F], where we choose $b$ and $c$ to minimize disk traffic; we summarize the performance model in Table 2.2.

Examining Table 2.1, we see that all parallel algorithms have the same highest order term in their flop counts, $\frac{2mn^2}{P}$, and also use the same bandwidth, $\frac{n^2}{2} \log P$, but that parallel TSQR sends $2n$ times fewer messages than the only stable alternative.
(PDGEQRF), and is about as fast as the fastest unstable method (Cholesky QR). In other words, only parallel TSQR is simultaneously fastest and stable.

Examining Table 2.2, we see a similar story, with sequential TSQR sending about \( \frac{mn}{4W} \) times fewer words and \( \frac{2}{n} \) times fewer messages than the only stable alternative, PFDGEQRF. Note that \( \frac{mn}{4W} \) is how many times larger the entire matrix is than fast memory. Since we assume \( W \geq n^2 \), the number of words TSQR sends is less than the number of words CholeskyQR sends.

3. Communication-Avoiding QR - CAQR. We present the CAQR algorithm for computing the QR factorization of an \( m \)-by-\( n \) matrix \( A \), with \( m \geq n \). In the parallel case \( A \) is stored on a two-dimensional grid of processors \( P = P_r \times P_c \) in a 2-D block-cyclic layout, with blocks of dimension \( b \times b \). We assume that all the blocks have the same size; we can always pad the input matrix with zero rows and columns to ensure this is possible. In the sequential case we also assume \( A \) is stored in a \( P_r \times P_c \) 2-D blocked layout, with individual \( mP_r \)-by-\( nP_c \) blocks stored contiguously in memory. For a detailed description of the 2-D block cyclic layout, see [5].

Stated most simply, parallel (resp. sequential) CAQR simply implements the right-looking QR factorization using parallel (resp. sequential) TSQR as the panel factorization. The rest is bookkeeping.

Section 3.1 discusses parallel CAQR in more detail, and comparing performance to ScaLAPACK. We also show, given \( m, n \) and \( P \), to choose \( P_r, P_c \) and \( b \) to minimize running times of both algorithms; our proof of CAQR’s optimality depends on these choices. Section 3.2 does the same for sequential CAQR and an out-of-DRAM algorithm from ScaLAPACK, whose floating point operations are counted sequentially. Subsection 3.3 discusses other sequential QR algorithms, including showing that recursive QR routines of Elmroth and Gustavson [19] also minimize bandwidth, though possibly not latency.

3.1. Parallel CAQR. We describe a few details most relevant to the complexity but refer the reader to [16, Section 13] for details. At the \( j \)-th step of the algorithm, parallel TSQR is used to factor the panel of dimension \( m - (j - 1)b \)-by-\( b \), whose top left corner is at matrix diagonal entry \( (j - 1)b + 1 \). We assume for simplicity that the \( m_j = m - (j - 1)b \) rows are distributed across all \( P_r \) processors in the processor column. When we do parallel TSQR on the panel, all the at most \( mP_r \) local rows of the panel stored on a processor are factored together in the first step of TSQR. After the panel factorization, we multiply the transpose of the \( Q \) factor times the trailing submatrix as follows. First, the Householder vectors representing the \( Q \) factor of the \( mP_r \) local rows of the panel are broadcast to all the processes in the same processor row, and applied to their submatrices in an embarrassingly parallel fashion. Second, the Householder vectors \( Y \) of the smaller \( Q \) factors in TSQR’s binary reduction tree are independently broadcast along their processor rows, and the updates to the \( b \) rows in each pair of processors are performed in parallel, with the triangular \( T \) factor of the block Householder transformation \( I - YTY^T \) being computed by one of the two processors, and with the two processors exchanging only \( b \) rows of data.

Table[3.1] summarizes the operation counts, including divisions counted separately, as well as a similar model for ScaLAPACK’s PDGEQRF for comparison. We make the following observations. Parallel CAQR does slightly more flops than ScaLAPACK (but only in lower order terms), and sends nearly the same of words (actually very slightly fewer). But CAQR reduces the \( 3n \log P_r \) term in ScaLAPACK’s message count by a factor of \( b \), and so can reduce the overall message count by as much as a factor of \( b \) (depending \( P_r \) and \( P_c \)). Thus by increasing the block size \( b \), we can lower
the number of messages by a large factor. But we can’t raise $b$ arbitrarily without increasing the flop count; next we show how to choose the parameters $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ to minimize the runtime.

| # messages | Parallel CAQR |
|------------|---------------|
| $\frac{3n}{P_c} \log P_r + \frac{4n}{P} \log P_c$ |
| # words | $\left(\frac{n^2}{P_r} + \frac{bn}{2}\right) \log P_r + \left(\frac{m-n-n^2/2}{P_r} + 2n\right) \log P_c$ |
| # flops | $2n^2(3m-n) + \frac{6n^2}{2P} + \frac{16n(2m-n)}{2P} + \left(\frac{4n^2}{3} + n\left(3b+5\right)\right) \log P_r - b^2 n$ |
| # divisions | $\frac{m-n-n^2/2}{P_r} + \frac{bn}{2} \left(\log P_r - 1\right)$ |

| # messages | ScalAPACK’s PDGEQRF |
|------------|----------------------|
| $3n \log P_r + \frac{4n}{P} \log P_c$ |
| # words | $\left(\frac{n^2}{P_r} + bn\right) \log P_r + \left(\frac{m-n-n^2/2}{P_r} + \frac{bn}{2}\right) \log P_c$ |
| # flops | $2n^2(3m-n) + \frac{16n^2}{2P} + \frac{32n(2m-n)}{2P} - \frac{b^2 n}{P}$ |
| # divisions | $\frac{m-n-n^2/2}{P_r}$ |

**Table 3.1**

Performance models of parallel CAQR and ScalAPACK’s PDGEQRF when factoring an $m \times n$ matrix, $m \geq n$, distributed in a 2-D block cyclic layout on a $P_r \times P_c$ grid of processors with square $b \times b$ blocks. All terms are counted along the critical path. In this table exclusively, “flops” only includes floating-point additions and multiplications, not floating-point divisions, which are shown separately. Some lower-order terms are omitted.

When choosing $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ to minimize the runtime, they must satisfy the following conditions:

\[ 1 \leq P_r, P_c \leq P_r , \quad P_r \cdot P_c = P_c \leq \frac{m}{P_r} , \quad 1 \leq b \leq \frac{m}{P_r} \quad \text{and} \quad 1 \leq b \leq \frac{n}{P_c} \quad (3.1) \]

For simplicity we will assume that $P_r$ evenly divides $m$ and that $P_c$ evenly divides $n$. Example values of $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ which satisfy the constraints in Equation (3.1) are

\[ P_r = \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} , \quad P_c = \sqrt{\frac{nP}{m}} \quad \text{and} \quad b = \sqrt{\frac{mn}{P}} \]

These values are chosen simultaneously to minimize the approximate number of words sent, $n^2/P_r + mn/P_r$, and the approximate number of messages, $5n/b$, where for simplicity we temporarily ignore logarithmic factors and lower-order terms in Table 3.1. This suggests using the following ansatz:

\[ P_r = K \cdot \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} , \quad P_c = \frac{1}{K} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{nP}{m}} \quad \text{and} \quad b = B \cdot \sqrt{\frac{mn}{P}} , \quad (3.2) \]

for general values of $K$ and $B \leq \min\{K, 1/K\}$, since we can thereby explore all possible values of $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ satisfying (3.1).

Using the substitutions in Equation (3.2), the flop count (neglecting lower-order terms, including the division counts) becomes

\[ \frac{mn^2}{P} \left(2 - B^2 + \frac{3B}{K} + \frac{BK}{2}\right) - \frac{n^3}{P} \left(\frac{2}{3} + \frac{3B}{2K}\right) + \frac{mn^2 \log \left(K \cdot \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}}\right)}{P} \left(\frac{4B^2}{3} + \frac{3BK}{2}\right) . \quad (3.3) \]
We wish to choose $B$ and $K$ so as to minimize the flop count. We know at least that we need to eliminate the dominant $mn^2 \log(\ldots)$ term, so that parallel CAQR has the same asymptotic flop count as ScaLAPACK’s PDGEQRF. This is because we know that CAQR performs at least as many floating-point operations (asymptotically) as PDGEQRF, so matching the highest-order terms will help minimize CAQR’s flop count.

To make the high-order terms of (3.3) match the $2mn^2/P - 2n^3/(3P)$ flop count of ScaLAPACK’s parallel QR routine, while minimizing communication as well, we can pick $K = 1$ and

$$B = o \left( \log^{-1} \left( \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \right) \right);$$

for simplicity we will use

$$B = \log^{-2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \right)$$

(3.4)

although $B$ could be multiplied by some positive constant.

The above choices of $B$ and $K$ make the flop count as follows, with some lower-order terms omitted:

$$\frac{2mn^2}{P} - \frac{2n^3}{3P} + \frac{3mn^2}{P \log \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)}$$

(3.5)

Thus, we can choose the block size $b$ so as to match the higher-order terms of the flop count of ScaLAPACK’s parallel QR factorization PDGEQRF.

Using the substitutions in Equations (3.2) and (3.4) with $K = 1$, the number of messages becomes

$$\sqrt{\frac{nP}{m}} \cdot \log^2 \left( \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \right) \cdot \log \left( P \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \right).$$

(3.6)

Using the substitutions in Equation (3.2) and (3.4), the number of words transferred between processors on the critical path, neglecting lower-order terms, becomes

$$\sqrt{\frac{mn^3}{P} \log P - \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{n^5}{mP} \log \left( \frac{nP}{m} \right)} + \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{mn}{P} \log^3 \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)} \approx \sqrt{\frac{mn^3}{P} \log P - \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{n^5}{mP} \log \left( \frac{nP}{m} \right)}}.$$

(3.7)

The results of these computations are shown in Table 3.2, which also shows the results for ScaLAPACK, whose analogous analysis appears in [16, Section 15], and the communication lower bounds, which are discussed in Section 5.

3.2. Sequential CAQR. As stated above, sequential CAQR is just right-looking QR factorization with TSQR used for the panel factorization. (In fact left-looking QR with TSQR has the same costs [16, Appendix C], but we stick with the right-looking algorithm for simplicity.) We also assume the $m$-by-$n$ matrix $A$ is stored in a $P_r \times P_c$ 2-D blocked layout, with individual $\frac{m}{P_r}$-by-$\frac{n}{P_c}$ blocks stored contiguously in memory, with $m \geq n$ and $\frac{m}{P_r} \geq \frac{n}{P_c}$. 

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| Parallel CAQR w/ optimal $b$, $P_r$, $P_c$ | # flops $\frac{2mn^2 - 2n^3}{P} - \frac{n^3}{3P}$ | # messages $\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{m^3P}{n}} \log^2 \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right) \cdot \log \left( P \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \right)$ |
|-----------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| # words $\sqrt{\frac{mn^3}{P}} \log P - \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{n^5}{mP}} \log \left( \frac{nP}{m} \right)$ | | |
| Optimal $b$ $\sqrt{\frac{m^3P}{n}} \log^{-1} \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)$ | | |
| Optimal $P_r$ $\sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}}$ | | |
| Optimal $P_c$ $\sqrt{\frac{nP}{m}}$ | | |

| PDGEQRF w/ optimal $b$, $P_r$, $P_c$ | # flops $\frac{2mn^2 - 2n^3}{P} - \frac{n^3}{3P}$ | # messages $\frac{n}{4} \log \left( \frac{mP^5}{n} \right) \log \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right) + \frac{3n}{2} \log \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)$ |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| # words $\sqrt{\frac{mn^3}{P}} \log^2 \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right) \cdot \log \left( P \sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}} \right)$ | | |
| Optimal $b$ $\sqrt{\frac{m^3P}{n}} \log^{-1} \left( \frac{mP}{n} \right)$ | | |
| Optimal $P_r$ $\sqrt{\frac{mP}{n}}$ | | |
| Optimal $P_c$ $\sqrt{\frac{n}{P}}$ | | |

| Theoretical lower bound | # messages $\sqrt{\frac{mnP}{P}}$ | # words $\sqrt{\frac{mn^3}{P}}$ |

| Table 3.2 | Highest-order terms in the performance models of parallel CAQR, ScaLAPACK’s PDGEQRF, and theoretical lower bounds for each, when factoring an $m \times n$ matrix, distributed in a 2-D block cyclic layout on a $P_r \times P_c$ grid of processors with square $b \times b$ blocks. All terms are counted along the critical path. The theoretical lower bounds assume that $n \geq 2^{33}m/P$, i.e., that the matrix is not too tall and skinny. In summary, if we choose $b$, $P_r$, and $P_c$ independently and optimally for both algorithms, the two algorithms match in the number of flops and words transferred, but CAQR sends a factor of $\Theta(\sqrt{mn/P})$ messages fewer than ScaLAPACK QR. This factor is the local memory requirement on each processor, up to a small constant.

For TSQR to work as analyzed we need to choose $P_r$ and $P_c$ large enough for one such $\frac{mP}{n}$-by-$\frac{n}{P}$ block to fit in fast memory, plus a bit more. For CAQR we will need to choose $P_r$ and $P_c$ a bit larger, so that a bit more than 3 such blocks fit in fast memory; this is in order to perform an update on two such blocks in the trailing matrix given Householder vectors from TSQR occupying $\frac{mn}{P_rP_c} + \frac{n^2}{P_c^2}$ words, or at most $\frac{4mn}{P}$ altogether. In other words, we need $\frac{4mn}{P} \leq W$ or $P \geq \frac{4mn}{W}$.

Leaving details to [16, Appendix C], we summarize the complexity analysis by

$$T_{seq, CAQR}(m, n, P_c, P_r) \leq \left( \frac{3}{2} P(P_c - 1) \right) \alpha + \left( \frac{3}{2} mn \left( P_c + \frac{4}{3} \right) - \frac{1}{2} n^2 P_c \right) \beta + \left( 2n^2 m - \frac{2}{3} n^3 \right) \gamma$$

(3.8)

where we have ignored lower order terms, and used $P_r$ as an upper bound on the
number of blocks in each panel since this only increases the run time slightly, and is simpler to evaluate than for the true number of blocks $P_r - \lfloor (J - 1) \frac{n_P}{m_P} \rfloor$.

Now we choose $P_r$, $P_c$, and $P_{ac}$ to minimize the runtime. From the above formula for $T_{seq. CAQR}(m, n, P_c, P_r)$, we see that the runtime is an increasing function of $P_r$ and $P_c$, so that we would like to choose them as small as possible, within the limits imposed by the fast memory size $P_c \geq \frac{4mn}{W}$. So we choose $P = \frac{4mn}{W}$ (assuming here and elsewhere that the denominator evenly divides the numerator). But we still need to choose $P_r$ and $P_c$ subject to $P_r \cdot P_c = P$.

Examining $T_{seq. CAQR}(m, n, P_c, P_r)$ again, we see that if $P$ is fixed, the runtime is also an increasing function of $P_c$, which we therefore want to minimize. But we are assuming $\frac{m}{P_r} \geq \frac{n}{P_c}$, or $P_c \geq \frac{n}{m}$. The optimal choice is therefore $P_c = \frac{4mn}{W}$ or $P_c = \sqrt{\frac{4n}{W}}$, which also means $\frac{m}{P_r} = \frac{n}{P_c}$, i.e., the blocks in the algorithm are square. This choice of $P_r = \frac{2m}{\sqrt{W}}$ and $P_c = \frac{2n}{\sqrt{W}}$ therefore minimizes the runtime, yielding

$$T_{seq. CAQR}(m, n, W) \leq \left(12 \frac{mn^2}{W^{3/2}}\right) \alpha + \left(3 \frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}\right) \beta + \left(2mn^2 - \frac{2n^3}{3}\right) \gamma.$$ (3.9)

We note that the bandwidth term is proportional to $\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}$, and the latency term is $W$ times smaller, both of which match (to within constant factors), the lower bounds on bandwidth and latency to be described in Section 5.

The results of this analysis are shown in Table 3.3, which also shows the results for an out-of-DRAM algorithm PFDGEQRF from ScaLAPACK, whose internal block sizes $b$ and $c$ have been chosen to minimize disk traffic, and where we count the floating point operations sequentially (see [16, Appendix F]); it can also be thought of as a hypothetical model for an optimized left-looking version of LAPACK’s DGEQRF.

3.3. Other Bandwidth Minimizing Sequential QR Algorithms. In this section we describe special cases in which previous sequential QR algorithms also minimize bandwidth, although they do not minimize latency. In particular, we discuss two variants of Elmroth’s and Gustavson’s recursive QR (RGEQR3 and RGEQRF [19]), as well as LAPACK’s DGEQRF.

The fully recursive routine RGEQR3 is analogous to Toledo’s fully recursive LU routine [17]: Both routines factor the left half of the matrix (recursively), use the resulting factorization of the left half to update the right half, and then factor the right half (recursively again). The base case consists of a single column. The output of RGEQR3 applied to an $m$-by-$n$ matrix returns the $Q$ factor in the form $I - YTY^T$, where $Y$ is the $m$-by-$n$ lower triangular matrix of Householder vectors, and $T$ is an $n$-by-$n$ upper triangular matrix. A simple recurrence for the number of memory
## Sequential CAQR w/ optimal $P_c, P_c$

|                  | Expression                                                                 |
|------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| # flops          | $2mn^2 - \frac{2}{3}n^3$                                                  |
| # messages       | $12\frac{mn^2}{W^{3/2}}$                                                  |
| # words          | $3\sqrt[3]{n^2}$                                                         |
| Opt. $P$         | $4mn/W$                                                                   |
| Opt. $P_r$       | $2m/\sqrt{W}$                                                            |
| Opt. $P_c$       | $2n/\sqrt{W}$                                                            |

## ScaLAPACK’s PFDGEQRF w/ optimal $b, c$

|                  | Expression                                                                 |
|------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| # flops          | $2mn^2 - \frac{2}{3}n^3$                                                  |
| # messages       | $\frac{mn^2}{2W} + \frac{2mn}{W}$                                        |
| # words          | $\frac{m^2n^2}{4W} - \frac{mn^3}{6W} + \frac{3mn}{2} - \frac{3n^2}{4}$   |
| Opt. $b$         | $1$                                                                        |
| Opt. $c$         | $\approx \frac{W}{m}$                                                   |

## Theoretical lower bound

|                  | Expression                                                                 |
|------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| # messages       | $\frac{3n^2(m-\frac{4}{3})}{16(8W^{3/2})} - 1$                            |
| # words          | $\frac{3n^2(m-\frac{4}{3})}{16(8W^{3/2})} - W$                            |

### Table 3.3

Highest-order terms in the performance models of sequential CAQR, ScaLAPACK’s out-of-DRAM QR factorization PFDGEQRF running on one processor, and theoretical lower bounds for each, when factoring an $m \times n$ matrix with a fast memory capacity of $W$ words.

---

Theoretical lower bound

$$B(m, n) = \begin{cases} 
B(m, \frac{n}{2}) + B(m - \frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}) + O\left(\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}\right) & \text{if } mn > W \text{ and } n > 1 \\
\frac{mn}{m} & \text{if } mn \leq W \\
\frac{mn}{m} & \text{if } m > W \text{ and } n = 1 \\
\end{cases}$$

$$\leq \begin{cases} 
2B(m, \frac{n}{2}) + O\left(\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}\right) & \text{if } mn > W \text{ and } n > 1 \\
\frac{mn}{m} & \text{if } mn \leq W \\
\frac{mn}{m} & \text{if } m > W \text{ and } n = 1 \\
\end{cases}$$

$$= O\left(\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}\right) + mn$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.10)

So RGEQR3 attains our bandwidth lower bound. (The $mn$ term must be included to account for the case when $n < \sqrt{W}$, since each of the $mn$ matrix entries must be accessed at least once.) However, RGEQR3 does a factor greater than one times as many floating point operations as sequential Householder QR.

Now we consider RGEQRF and DGEQRF, which are both right-looking algorithms and differ only in how they perform the panel factorization (by RGEQR3 and DGEQR2, resp.). Let $b$ be the width of the panel in either algorithm. It is easy to see that a reasonable estimate of the number of memory references just for the updates by all the panels is the number of panels times the minimum number of memory references for the average size update $\Theta(\max(mn, \frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}))$, or $\Theta(\max(\frac{mn}{b}, \frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}))$. Thus we need to pick $b$ at least about as large as $\sqrt{W}$ to attain the desired lower bound $O\left(\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}}\right)$.

Concentrating now on RGEQRF, we get from inequality (3.10) that the $\frac{n}{b}$ panel factorizations using RGEQR3 cost at most an additional
\[ \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n}{b} \cdot \left[ \frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}} + mb \right] \right) = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}} + mn \right) \text{ memory references, or } \mathcal{O}(mn) \text{ if we pick } b = \sqrt{W}. \] Thus the total number of memory references for RGEQRF with \( b = \sqrt{W} \) is \( \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{2mn^2}{\sqrt{W}} + mn \right) \) which attains the desired lower bound.

Next we consider LAPACK’s DGEQRF. In the worst case, a panel factorization by DGEQR2 will incur one slow memory access per arithmetic operation, and so
\[ \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n}{b} \cdot mb^2 \right) = \mathcal{O}(mnb) \] for all panel factorizations. For the overall algorithm to be guaranteed to attain minimal bandwidth, we need \( mnb = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{mn^2}{\sqrt{W}} \right) \), or \( b = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{W}} \right) \).

Since \( b \) must also be at least about \( \sqrt{W} \), this means \( W = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{W}} \right) \), or that fast memory size may be at most large enough to hold a few rows of the matrix, or may be much smaller.

RGEQR3 does not always minimize latency. For example, considering applying RGEQR3 to a single panel with \( n = \sqrt{W} \) columns and \( m > W \) rows, stored in a block-column layout with \( \sqrt{W} \)-by-\( \sqrt{W} \) blocks stored columnwise, as above. Then a recurrence for the number of messages RGEQR3 requires is
\[
L(m, n) = \begin{cases} 
L(m, \frac{n}{2}) + L(m - \frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}) + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{W}}\right) & \text{if } n > 1 \\
\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{mn}{\sqrt{W}}\right) & \text{if } n = 1 
\end{cases}
\]
which is larger than the minimum \( \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{mn}{\sqrt{W}}\right) = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{W}}\right) \) attained by sequential TSQR when \( n = \sqrt{W} \).

In contrast to DGEQRF, RGEQRF, and RGEQR3, CAQR minimizes flops, bandwidth and latency for all values of \( W \).

4. Lower Bounds for TSQR. We present communication lower bounds for TSQR. As we already mentioned for the sequential case, it is obviously necessary to read \( mn \) words from from slow to fast memory (the input), and write \( mn \) words from fast to slow memory (the output), for a lower bound of \( 2mn \) words moved. Sequential TSQR attains this trivial lower bound. Since the size of a message is bounded by the size of fast memory \( W \), it clearly requires at least \( 2mn \) messages to send this much data. Since TSQR sends \( \frac{2mn}{W} \leq \frac{2mn}{W - \frac{2m}{W} - n} \leq \frac{3mn}{W} \) messages, it attains this bound to within a constant factor, and is very close when \( W \gg n^2 \).

For parallel TSQR, the lower bound on latency is obviously \( \log P \), since TSQR needs to compute a nontrivial function of data that is spread over \( P \) processors, and a binary reduction tree of depth \( \log P \) clearly minimizes latency (by using the butterfly variant). Parallel TSQR attains this lower bound too.

Bandwidth lower bounds for parallel TSQR are more interesting. We analyze this in a way that applies to more general situations, starting with the following: Suppose processor 1 and processor 2 each own some of the arguments of a function \( f \) that processor 1 wants to compute. What is the least volume of communication required to compute the function? We are interested in smooth functions of real or complex arguments, and so will use techniques from calculus rather than modeling the arguments as bit strings.

In this way, we will derive necessary conditions on the function \( f \) for it to be evaluable by communicating fewer than all of its arguments to one processor. We will apply these conditions to various linear algebra operations to capture our intuition that it is in fact necessary to move all the arguments to one processor for correct
evaluation of $f$: Subsection 4.1 will show that if $f$ is a bijection as a function of the $n$ arguments on processor 2, and if processor 2 can only send one message to processor 1, then it indeed has to send all $n$ arguments (part 3 of Lemma 4.1). Subsection 4.2 extends this to reduction operations where each processors sends one message to its parent in a reduction tree, which is the case we are considering in this paper. Subsection 4.3 goes a step further and asks whether less data can be sent overall by allowing processors 1 and 2 to exchange multiple but smaller messages; the answer is sometimes yes, but again not for the reduction operations we consider.

4.1. Communication lower bounds for one-way communication between 2 processors. Suppose $x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is owned by processor 1 (P1) and $y^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is owned by P2; we use superscripts to remind the reader of the dimension of each vector-valued variable or function. Suppose P1 wants to compute $f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)}) : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^r$. We first ask how much information P2 has to send to P1, assuming it is allowed to send one message, consisting of $n \leq n$ real numbers, which themselves could be functions of $y^{(n)}$. In other words, we ask if functions $h^{(\Omega)}(y^{(n)}) : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and $F^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)}) : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^r$, exist such that $f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)}) = F^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, h^{(\Omega)}(y^{(n)}))$. When $n = n$, the obvious choice is to send the original data $y^{(n)}$, so that $h^{(\Omega)}(y^{(n)}) = y^{(n)}$ is the identity function and $f^{(r)} = F^{(r)}$. The interesting question is whether we can send less information, i.e. $\underline{n} < n$.

Unless we make further restrictions on the function $h$ we are allowed to use, it is easy to see that we can always choose $n = 1$, i.e. send the least possible amount of information: We do this by using a space-filling curve [43] to represent each $y^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by one of several preimages $\tilde{y} \in \mathbb{R}$. In other words, $h^{(1)}(y^{(n)})$ maps $y^{(n)}$ to a scalar $\tilde{y}$ that P1 can map back to $y^{(n)}$ by a space filling curve. This is obviously unreasonable, since it implies we could try to losslessly compress $n$ 64-bit floating point numbers into one 64-bit floating point number. However, by placing some reasonable smoothness restrictions on the functions we use, since we can only hope to evaluate (piecewise) smooth functions in a practical way anyway, we will see that we can draw useful conclusions about practical computations. To state our results, we use the notation $J_f(x, y)$ to denote the $r \times m$ Jacobian matrix of $f^{(r)}$ with respect to the arguments $x^{(m)}$. Using the above notation, we state

**Lemma 4.1.** Suppose it is possible to compute $f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)})$ on P1 by communicating $\underline{n} < n$ words $h^{(\Omega)}(y^{(n)})$ from P2 to P1, and evaluating $f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)}) = F^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, h^{(\Omega)}(y^{(n)}))$. Suppose $h^{(\Omega)}$ and $F^{(r)}$ are continuously differentiable on open sets. Then necessary conditions for this to be possible are as follows.

1. Given any fixed $y^{(n)}$ in the open set, then for all $x^{(m)}$ in the open set, the rows of $J_y f(x,y)$ must lie in a fixed subspace of $\mathbb{R}^r$ of dimension at most $\underline{n} < n$.

2. Given any fixed $\tilde{y}^{(\Omega)} \in \mathbb{R}^\underline{n}$ satisfying $\tilde{y}^{(\Omega)} = h^{(\Omega)}(y^{(n)})$ for some $y^{(n)}$ in the interior of the open set, there is a set $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ containing $y^{(n)}$, of dimension at least $n - \underline{n}$, such that for each $x$, $f(x,y)$ is constant for $y \in C$.

3. If $r = n$, and for each fixed $x$, $f^{(r)}(x,y^{(n)})$ is a bijection, then it is necessary and sufficient to send $n$ words from P2 to P1 to evaluate $f$.

**Proof.** Part 1 is proved simply by differentiating, using the chain rule, and noting the dimensions of the Jacobians being multiplied:

$$J_y^{(r \times n)} f^{(r)}(x, y) = J_h^{(r \times \underline{n})} F^{(r)}(x, h) \cdot J_y^{(\underline{n} \times n)} h^{(\Omega)}(y)$$

implying that for all $x$, each row of $J_y^{(r \times m)} f^{(r)}(x, y)$ lies in the space spanned by the $\underline{n}$ rows of $J_y^{(\underline{n} \times n)} h^{(\Omega)}(y)$. 17
Part 2 is a consequence of the implicit function theorem. Part 3 follows from part 2, since if the function is a bijection, then there is no set \( C \) along which \( f \) is constant.

Either part of the lemma can be used to derive lower bounds on the volume of communication needed to compute \( f(x, y) \), for example by choosing an \( z \) equal to the lower bound minus 1, and confirming that either necessary condition in the Lemma is violated, at least in some open set.

We illustrate this for a simple matrix factorization problem.

**Corollary 4.2.** Suppose \( P_1 \) owns the \( r_1 \times c \) matrix \( A_1 \), and \( P_2 \) owns the \( r_2 \times c \) matrix \( A_2 \), with \( r_2 \geq c \). Suppose \( P_1 \) wants to compute the \( c \times c \) Cholesky factor \( R \) of \( R^T \cdot R = A_1^T \cdot A_1 + A_2^T \cdot A_2 \), or equivalently the \( R \) factor in the QR decomposition of \( \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \end{bmatrix} \). Then \( P_2 \) has to communicate at least \( c(c+1)/2 \) words to \( P_1 \), and it is possible to communicate this few, namely either the entries on and above the diagonal of the symmetric \( c \times c \) matrix \( A_1^T \cdot A_2 \), or the entries of its Cholesky factor \( R \), so that \( R^T \cdot R = A_1^T \cdot A_1 + R^T \cdot R \) is a bijection, note that it is a composition of three bijections: the mapping from \( R \) to the entries on and above the diagonal of \( Y = A_1^T \cdot A_2 \), the entries on and above the diagonal of \( Y \) and those on and above the diagonal of \( X = A_1^T \cdot A_1 + Y \), and the mapping between the entries on and above the diagonal of \( X \) and its Cholesky factor \( f(A_1, R) \).

**Proof.** That it is sufficient to communicate the \( c(c+1)/2 \) entries described above is evident. We use Corollary 1 to prove that these many words are necessary. We use the fact that mapping between the entries on and above the diagonal of the symmetric positive definite matrix and its Cholesky factor is a bijection (assuming positive diagonal entries of the Cholesky factor). To see that for any fixed \( A_1 \), \( f(A_1, R) \) is the Cholesky factor of \( A_1^T \cdot A_1 + R^T \cdot R \) is a bijection, note that it is a composition of three bijections: the mapping from \( R \) to the entries on and above the diagonal of \( Y = A_1^T \cdot A_2 \), the entries on and above the diagonal of \( Y \) and those on and above the diagonal of \( X = A_1^T \cdot A_1 + Y \), and the mapping between the entries on and above the diagonal of \( X \) and its Cholesky factor \( f(A_1, R) \).

**4.2. Reduction operations.** We can extend this result slightly to make it apply to the case of more general reduction operations, where one processor \( P_1 \) is trying to compute a function of data initially stored on multiple other processors \( P_2 \) through \( P_s \). We suppose that there is a tree of messages leading from these processors eventually reaching \( P_1 \). Suppose each \( P_i \) only sends data up the tree, so that the communication pattern forms a DAG (directed acyclic graph) with all paths ending at \( P_1 \). Let \( P_i \)'s data be denoted \( y^{(n)} \). Let all the variables on \( P_1 \) be denoted \( x^{(m)} \), and treat all the other variables on the other processors as constants. Then exactly the same analysis as above applies, and we can conclude that every message along the unique path from \( P_i \) to \( P_1 \) has the same lower bound on its size, as determined by Lemma 1. This means Corollary 1 extends to include reduction operations where each operation is a bijection between one input (the other being fixed) and the output. In particular, it applies to TSQR.

We emphasize again that using a real number model to draw conclusions about finite precision computations must be done with care. For example, a bijective function depending on many variables could hypothetically round to the same floating point output for all floating point inputs, eliminating the need for any communication or computation for its evaluation. But this is not the case for the functions we are interested in.

Finally, we note that the counting must be done slightly differently for the QR decomposition of complex data, because the diagonal entries \( R_{i,i} \) are generally taken to be real. Alternatively, there is a degree of freedom in choosing each row of \( R \), which can be multiplied by an arbitrary complex number of absolute value 1.
4.3. Extensions to two-way communication. While the result of the previous subsection is adequate for the results of this paper, we note that it may be extended as follows. For motivation, suppose that P1 owns the scalar \(x\), and wants to evaluate the polynomial \(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i x^{i-1}\), where P2 owns the vector \(y^{(n)}\). The above results can be used to show that P2 needs to send \(n\) words to P1 (all the coefficients of the polynomial, for example). But there is an obvious way to communicate just 2 words: (1) P1 sends \(x\) to P2, (2) P2 evaluates the polynomial, and (3) P2 sends the value of the polynomial back to P1.

More generally, one can imagine \(k\) phases, during each of which P1 sends one message to P2 and then P2 sends one message to P1. The contents of each message can be any smooth functions of all the data available to the sending processor, either originally or from prior messages. At the end of the \(k\)-th phase, P1 then computes \(f(x, y)\).

More specifically, the computation and communication proceeds as follows:

- In Phase 1, P1 sends \(g^{(n_1)}_1(x^{(m)})\) to P2
- In Phase 1, P2 sends \(h^{(n_1)}_1(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)}))\) to P1
- In Phase 2, P1 sends \(g^{(m_2)}_2(x^{(m)}, h^{(n_1)}_1(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)})))\) to P2
- In Phase 2, P2 sends \(h^{(n_2)}_2(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)}), g^{(m_2)}_2(x^{(m)}, h^{(n_1)}_1(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)}))))\) to P1
- ...
- In Phase \(k\), P1 sends \(g^{(m_k)}_k(x^{(m)}, h^{(n_1)}_1(...), h^{(n_2)}_2(...), ..., h^{(n_{k-1})}_k(...))\) to P2
- In Phase \(k\), P2 sends \(h^{(n_k)}_k(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(...), g^{(m_2)}_2(...), ..., g^{(m_k)}_k(...))\) to P1
- P1 computes
  \[
  f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)}) = F^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, h^{(n_1)}_1(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)})),
  h^{(n_2)}_2(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)}), g^{(m_2)}_2(x^{(m)}, h^{(n_1)}_1(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)})))),
  ...
  h^{(n_k)}_k(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(...), g^{(m_2)}_2(...), ..., g^{(m_k)}_k(...))
  \]

**Lemma 4.3.** Suppose it is possible to compute \(f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)})\) on P1 by the scheme described above. Suppose all the functions involved are continuously differentiable on open sets. Let \(n = \sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i\) and \(m = \sum_{i=1}^{k} m_i\). Then necessary conditions for this to be possible are as follows.

1. Suppose \(n < n\) and \(m \leq m\), i.e. P2 cannot communicate all its information to P1, but P1 can potentially send its information to P2. Then there is a set \(C_x \subset \mathbb{R}^m\) of dimension at least \(m - m\) and a set \(C_y \subset \mathbb{R}^n\) of dimension at least \(n - n\) such that for \((x, y) \in C = C_x \times C_y\), the value of \(f(x, y)\) is independent of \(y\).

2. If \(r = n = m\), and for each fixed \(x\) or fixed \(y\), \(f^{(r)}(x^{(m)}, y^{(n)})\) is a bijection, then it is necessary and sufficient to send \(n\) words from P2 to P1 to evaluate \(f\).

**Proof.** We define the sets \(C_x\) and \(C_y\) by the following constraint equations, one for each communication step in the algorithm:

- \(g^{(m_1)}_1 = g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)})\) is a fixed constant, placing \(m_1\) smooth constraints on \(x^{(m)}\).
- In addition to the previous constraint, \(\delta^{(n_1)}_1 = \delta^{(n_1)}_1(y^{(n)}, g^{(m_1)}_1(x^{(m)}))\) is a fixed constant, placing \(n_1\) smooth constraints on \(y^{(n)}\).
• In addition to the previous constraints, 
  \(\tilde{g}_2^{(m_2)} = \tilde{g}_2^{(m_2)}(x^{(m)}, h_1^{(n_1)}(y^{(n)}), g_1^{(m_1)}(x^{(m)}))\) is a fixed constant, placing \(m_2\) more smooth constraints on \(x^{(m)}\).

• In addition to the previous constraints, 
  \(\tilde{h}_2^{(m_2)} = \tilde{h}_2^{(m_2)}(y^{(n)}, g_1^{(m_1)}(x^{(m)}), g_2^{(m_2)}(x^{(m)}, h_1^{(n_1)}(y^{(n)}), g_1^{(m_1)}(x^{(m)})))\) is a fixed constant, placing \(n_2\) more smooth constraints on \(y^{(n)}\).

• ... 

• In addition to the previous constraints, 
  \(\tilde{g}_k^{(m_k)} = g_k^{(m_k)}(x^{(m)}, h_1^{(n_1)}(\ldots), h_2^{(n_2)}(\ldots), \ldots, h_{k-1}^{(n_{k-1})}(\ldots))\) is a fixed constant, placing \(m_k\) more smooth constraints on \(x^{(m)}\).

• In addition to the previous constraints, 
  \(\tilde{h}_k^{(m_k)} = h_k^{(m_k)}(y^{(n)}, g_1^{(m_1)}(\ldots), g_2^{(m_2)}(\ldots), \ldots, g_k^{(m_k)}(\ldots))\) is a fixed constant, placing \(n_k\) more smooth constraints on \(y^{(n)}\).

Altogether, we have placed \(n = \sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i < n\) smooth constraints on \(y^{(n)}\) and \(m = \sum_{i=1}^{k} m_i \leq m\) smooth constraints on \(x^{(m)}\), which by the implicit function theorem define surfaces \(C_y(\tilde{h}_1^{(n_1)}, \ldots, \tilde{h}_k^{(n_k)})\) and \(C_x(\tilde{g}_1^{(m_1)}, \ldots, \tilde{g}_k^{(m_k)})\), of dimensions at least \(n - \sum m_i > 0\) and \(m - \sum n_i \geq 0\), respectively, and parameterized by \(\{\tilde{h}_1^{(n_1)}, \ldots, \tilde{h}_k^{(n_k)}\}\) and \(\{\tilde{g}_1^{(m_1)}, \ldots, \tilde{g}_k^{(m_k)}\}\), respectively. For \(x \in C_x\) and \(y \in C_y\), the values communicated by P1 and P2 are therefore constant. Therefore, for \(x \in C_x\) and \(y \in C_y\), \(f(x, y) = F(x, h_1, \ldots, h_k)\) depends only on \(x\), not on \(y\). This completes the first part of the proof.

For the second part, we know that if \(f(x, y)\) is a bijection in \(y\) for each fixed \(x\), then by the first part we cannot have \(n < n\), because otherwise \(f(x, y)\) does not depend on \(y\) for certain values of \(x\), violating bijectivity. But if we can send \(n = n\) words from P2 to P1, then it is clearly possible to compute \(f(x, y)\) by simply sending every component of \(y^{(n)}\) from P2 to P1 explicitly.

**Corollary 4.4.** Suppose P1 owns the c-by-c upper triangular matrix \(R_1\), and P2 owns the c-by-c upper triangular matrix \(R_2\), and P1 wants to compute the \(R\) factor in the QR decomposition of \(\begin{pmatrix} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{pmatrix}\). Then it is necessary and sufficient to communicate \(c(c + 1)/2\) words from P2 to P1 (in particular, the entries of \(R_2\) are sufficient).

We leave extensions to general communication patterns among multiple processors to the reader.

5. Lower Bounds for CAQR. In this section, we review known lower bounds on communication bandwidth for parallel and sequential \(O(n^3)\) matrix-matrix multiplication of matrices stored in 2-D layouts, extend some of them to the rectangular case, and then extend them to LU and QR, showing that our sequential and parallel CAQR algorithms have optimal communication complexity with respect to both bandwidth (in a Big-Oh sense, and sometimes modulo polylogarithmic factors).

We will also use the simple fact that if \(B\) is a lower bound on the number of words that must be communicated to implement an algorithm, and if \(W\) is the size of the local memory (in the parallel case) or fast memory (in the sequential case), so that \(W\) is the largest possible size of a message, then \(B/W\) is a lower bound on the latency, i.e. the number of messages needed to move \(B\) words into or out of the memory. We use this to derive lower bounds on latency, which are also attained by our algorithms (again in a Big-Oh sense, and sometimes modulo polylogarithmic factors).

We begin in section 5.1 by reviewing known communication complexity bounds
for $\Theta(n^3)$ matrix multiplication, due first to Hong and Kung \cite{28} in the sequential case, and later proved more simply and extended to the parallel case by Irony, Toledo and Tiskin \cite{27}.

It is easy to extend lower bounds for matrix multiplication to lower bounds for LU decomposition via the following reduction of matrix multiplication to LU:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
I & 0 & -B \\
A & I & 0 \\
0 & 0 & I
\end{pmatrix} =
\begin{pmatrix}
I & 0 & -B \\
A & I & I \\
0 & 0 & I
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
I & 0 & -B \\
A & I & I \\
0 & 0 & I
\end{pmatrix}
.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1)

See \cite{24} for an implementation of parallel LU that attains these bounds. See \cite{47} for an implementation of sequential LU and a proof that it attains the bandwidth lower bound (whether the latency lower bound is attained is an open problem).

It is reasonable to expect that lower bounds for matrix multiplication will also apply (at least in a Big-Oh sense) to other one-sided factorizations, such as QR. As we will see, QR is not as simple as LU.

All this assumes commutative and associative reorderings of conventional $\Theta(n^3)$ matrix multiplication, and so excludes faster algorithms using distributivity or special constants, such as those of Strassen \cite{46} or Coppersmith and Winograd \cite{9}, and their use in asymptotically fast versions of LU and QR \cite{15}. Extending communication lower bounds to these asymptotically faster algorithms is an open problem.

5.1. Matrix Multiplication Lower Bounds. We review lower bounds in \cite{28, 27} for multiplication of two $n$-by-$n$ matrices $C = A \cdot B$ using commutative and associative (but not distributive) reorderings of the usual $\Theta(n^3)$ algorithm. In the sequential case, they assume that $A$ and $B$ initially reside in slow memory, that there is a fast memory of size $W < n^2$, and that the product $C = A \cdot B$ must be computed and eventually reside in slow memory. They bound from below the number of words that need to be moved between slow memory and fast memory to perform this task:

$$
\# \text{ words moved} \geq \frac{n^3}{2\sqrt{2W^{1/2}}} - W \approx \frac{n^3}{2\sqrt{2W^{1/2}}}. \hspace{1cm} (5.2)
$$

Since only $W$ words can be moved in one message, this also provides a lower bound on the number of messages:

$$
\# \text{ messages} \geq \frac{n^3}{2\sqrt{2W^{3/2}}} - 1 \approx \frac{n^3}{2\sqrt{2W^{3/2}}}. \hspace{1cm} (5.3)
$$

In the rectangular case, where $A$ is $n$-by-$r$, $B$ is $r$-by-$m$, and $C$ is $n$-by-$m$, so that the number of arithmetic operations in the standard algorithm is $2mnr$, the above two results still apply, but with $n^3$ replaced by $mn^2$.

The parallel case is considered in \cite{27}. There is actually a spectrum of algorithms, from the so-called 2D case, that use little extra memory beyond that needed to store equal fractions of the matrices $A$, $B$ and $C$ (and so about $3n^2/P$ words for each of $P$ processors, in the square case), to the 3D case, where each input matrix is replicated up to $P^{1/3}$ times, so with each processor needing memory of size $n^2/P^{2/3}$ in the square case. We only consider the 2D case, which is the conventional, memory scalable approach. In the 2D case, with square matrices, Irony et al show that if each processor has $m\mu n^2/P$ words of local memory, and $P \geq 32\mu^3$, then at least one of the processors must send or receive at least the following number of words:

$$
\# \text{ words sent or received} \geq \frac{n^2}{4\sqrt{2(\mu P)^{1/2}}} \hspace{1cm} (5.4)
$$
and so using at least the following number of messages (assuming a maximum message size of \( n^2/P \)):

\[
\# \text{ messages} \geq \frac{P^{1/2}}{4\sqrt{2}(\mu)^{3/2}} . \tag{5.5}
\]

We wish to extend this to the case of rectangular matrices. We do this in preparation for analyzing CAQR in the rectangular case. The proof is a simple extension of Thm. 4.1 in [27].

**Theorem 5.1.** Consider the conventional matrix multiplication algorithm applied to \( C = A \cdot B \) where \( A \) is \( n \text{-by}-r \), \( B \) is \( r \text{-by}-m \), and \( C \) is \( n \text{-by}-m \), implemented on a \( P \) processor distributed memory parallel computer. Let \( \bar{n}, \bar{m}, \text{ and } \bar{r} \) be the sorted values of \( n, m, \text{ and } r \), i.e. \( \bar{n} \geq \bar{m} \geq \bar{r} \). Suppose each processor has \( 3\bar{n}\bar{m}/P \) words of local memory, so that it can fit 3 times as much as \( 1/P \)-th of the largest of the three matrices. Then as long as

\[
\bar{r} \geq \sqrt{\frac{864\bar{n}\bar{m}}{P}} \tag{5.6}
\]

(i.e. none of the matrices is “too rectangular”) then the number of words at least one processor must send or receive is

\[
\# \text{ words moved} \geq \frac{\sqrt{\bar{n}\bar{m}} \cdot \bar{r}}{\sqrt{96P}} \tag{5.7}
\]

and the number of messages is

\[
\# \text{ messages} \geq \frac{\sqrt{P \cdot \bar{r}}}{\sqrt{864\bar{n}\bar{m}}} \tag{5.8}
\]

**Proof.** We use (5.2) with \( \bar{m}\bar{n}/P \) substituted for \( n^3 \), since at least one processor does this much arithmetic, and \( W = 3\bar{n}\bar{m}/P \) words of local memory. The constants in inequality (5.6) are chosen so that the first term in (5.2) is at least \( 2W \), and half the first term is a lower bound.

It is well-known that the communication lower bound for sequential matrix multiplication is attained by “tiling” or “blocking” the matrices into square blocks of dimension \( \sqrt{W/3} \), and for parallel matrix multiplication by Cannon’s algorithm [8].

**5.2. Lower Bounds for CAQR.** Now we need to extend our analysis of matrix multiplication. We assume all variables are real; extensions to the complex case are straightforward. Suppose \( A = QR \) is \( m \text{-by}-n \), \( n \) even, so that

\[
\bar{Q}^T \cdot \bar{A} \equiv \left( Q(1 : m, 1 : \frac{n}{2}) \right)^T \cdot A(1 : m, \frac{n}{2} : 1 : n) = R(1 : \frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2} : 1 : n) \equiv \bar{R} .
\]

It is easy to see that \( \bar{Q} \) depends only on the first \( \frac{n}{2} \) columns of \( A \), and so is independent of \( \bar{A} \). The obstacle to directly applying existing lower bounds for matrix multiplication of course is that \( \bar{Q} \) is not represented as an explicit matrix, and \( \bar{Q}^T \cdot \bar{A} \) is not implemented by straightforward matrix multiplication. Nevertheless, we argue that the same data dependencies as in matrix multiplication can be found inside many implementations of \( \bar{Q}^T \cdot \bar{A} \), and that therefore the geometric ideas underlying the analysis in [27] still apply. Namely, there are two data structures \( \bar{Q} \) and \( \bar{A} \) indexed with pairs of subscripts \((j, i)\) and \((j, k)\) respectively with the following properties.
Suppose $A$ stores $\bar{A}$ as well as all intermediate results which may overwrite $\bar{A}$.

$Q$ represents $\bar{Q}$, i.e., an $m$-by-$\frac{n}{2}$ orthogonal matrix. Such a matrix is a member of the Stiefel manifold of orthogonal matrices, and is known to require $\frac{mn}{2} - \frac{n}{4} \left( \frac{n}{2} + 1 \right)$ independent parameters to represent, with column $i$ requiring $m - i$ parameters, although a particular algorithm may represent $\bar{Q}$ using more data.

The algorithm operates mathematically independently on each column of $\bar{A}$, i.e., methods like that of Strassen are excluded. This means that the algorithm performs at least $\frac{mn}{2} - \frac{n}{4} \left( \frac{n}{2} + 1 \right)$ multiplications on each $m$-dimensional column vector of $\bar{A}$ (see subsection 5.3 for a proof), and does the same operations on each column of $\bar{A}$.

For each $(i, k)$ indexing $\bar{R}_{i,k}$, which is the component of the $k$-th column $\bar{A}_{i,k}$ of $\bar{A}$ in the direction of the $i$-th column $\bar{Q}_{i,i}$ of $\bar{Q}$, it is possible to identify at least $m - i$ common components of $\bar{A}_{i,k}$ and of $\bar{Q}_{i,i}$ such that a parameter associated with $\bar{Q}_{j,i}$ is multiplied by a value stored in $\bar{A}_{j,k}$.

The last point, which says that $\bar{Q}^T \cdot \bar{A}$ has at least the same dependencies as matrix multiplication, requires illustration.

Suppose $\bar{Q}$ is represented as a product of $\frac{n}{2}$ Householder reflections with a projection $\bar{Q} = (I - \tau_1 u_1 u_1^T) \cdots (I - \tau_n u_n u_n^T)\bar{Q}$ normalized in the conventional way where the topmost nonzero entry of each $u_j$ is one, and $\bar{Q}$ consists of the first $n/2$ columns of the $n$-by-$n$ identity matrix. Then $\bar{Q}_{j,i} = u_i(j)$ is multiplied by some intermediate value of $\bar{A}_{j,k}$, i.e. $\bar{A}_{j,k}$.

Suppose $\bar{Q}$ is represented as a product of block Householder transformations $(I - Z_1 U_1^T) \cdots (I - Z_f U_f^T) \bar{Q}$, where $U_g$ and $Z_g$ are $m$-by-$b_g$ matrices, $U_g$ consisting of $b_g$ Householder vectors side-by-side. Again associate $\bar{Q}_{j,i}$ with the $j$-th entry of the $i$-th Householder vector $u_i(j)$.

Recursive versions of QR [18] apply blocked Householder transformations organized so as to better use BLAS3, but still use us the approach of the last bullet.

Suppose $\bar{Q}$ is represented as a product of $\frac{mn}{2} - \frac{n}{4} \left( \frac{n}{2} + 1 \right)$ Givens rotations, each one creating a unique subdiagonal zero entry in $\bar{A}$ which is never filled in. There are many orders in which these zeros can be created, and possibly many choices of row that each Givens rotation may rotate with to zero out its desired entry. If the desired zero entry in $\bar{A}_{j,i}$ is created by the rotation in rows $j'$ and $j$, $j' < j$, then associate $\bar{Q}_{j,i}$ with the value of the cosine in the Givens rotation, since this will be multiplied by $\bar{A}_{j,k}$.

Suppose, finally, that we use CAQR to perform the QR decomposition, so that $\bar{Q} = Q_1 \cdots Q_f \bar{Q}$, where each $Q_g$ is the result of TSQR on $b_g$ columns. Consider without loss of generality $Q_1$, which operates on the first $b_1$ columns of $\bar{A}$. We argue that TSQR still produces $m - i$ parameters associated with column $i$ as the above methods. Suppose there are $P$ row blocks, each of dimension $\frac{n}{P}$-by-$b_1$. Parallel TSQR initially does QR independently on each block, using any of the above methods; we associate multipliers as above with the subdiagonal entries in each block. Now consider the reduction tree that combines $q$ different $b_1$-by-$b_1$ triangular blocks at any particular node. This generates $(q - 1)b_1(b_1 + 1)/2$ parameters that multiply the equal number of entries of the $q - 1$ triangles being zeroed out, and so can be associated with appropriate entries of $\bar{Q}$. Following the reduction tree, we see that parallel...
TSQR produces exactly as many parameters as Householder reduction, and that these may be associated one-for-one with all subdiagonal entries of $\tilde{Q}(\cdot, 1 : b_1)$ and $\tilde{A}(\cdot, 1 : b_1)$ as above. Sequential TSQR reduction is analogous.

We see that we have only tried to capture the dependencies of a fraction of the arithmetic operations performed by various QR implementations; this is all we need for a lower bound.

Now we resort to the geometric approach of [27]: Consider a three dimensional block of lattice points, indexed by $(i, j, k)$. Each point on the $(i, 0, k)$ face is associated with $\tilde{R}_{i,k}$, for $1 \leq i \leq \frac{n}{2}$ and $1 \leq k \leq m$. Each point on the $(i, j, 0)$ face is associated with $\tilde{Q}_{j,i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq \frac{n}{2}$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$. Finally, each interior point $(i, j, k)$ for $1 \leq i, k \leq \frac{n}{2}$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$ represents the multiplication $\tilde{Q}_{j,i} \cdot \tilde{A}_{j,k}$. The point is that the multiplication at $(i, j, k)$ cannot occur unless $\tilde{Q}_{j,i}$ and $\tilde{A}_{j,k}$ are together in memory.

Finally, we need the Loomis-Whitney inequality [34]. Suppose $V$ is a set of lattice points in 3D, $V_i$ is projection of $V$ along $i$ onto the $(j, k)$ plane, and similarly for $V_j$ and $V_k$. Let $|V|$ denote the cardinality of $V$, i.e. counting lattice points. Then $|V|^2 \leq |V_i| \cdot |V_j| \cdot |V_k|$. We can now state

**Lemma 5.2.** Suppose a processor with local (fast) memory of size $W$ is participating in the QR decomposition of an $m$-by-$n$ matrix, $m \geq n$, using an algorithm of the sort discussed above. There may or may not be other processors participating (i.e. this lemma covers the sequential and parallel cases). Suppose the processor performs $F$ multiplications. Then the processor must move the following number of words into or out of its memory:

$$\text{# of words moved} \geq \frac{F}{(8W)^{1/2}} - W$$ (5.9)

using at least the following number of messages:

$$\text{# of messages} \geq \frac{F}{(8W^3)^{1/2}} - 1$$ (5.10)

**Proof.** The proof closely follows that of Lemma 3.1 in [27]. We decompose the computation into phases. Phase $l$ begins when the total number of words moved into and out of memory is exactly $lW$. Thus in each phase, except perhaps the last, the memory loads and stores exactly $W$ words.

The number of words $n_A$ from different $\tilde{A}_{jk}$ that the processor can access in its memory during a phase is $2W$, since each word was either present at the beginning of the phase or read during the phase. Similarly the number of coefficients $n_Q$ from different $\tilde{Q}_{ji}$ also satisfies $n_Q \leq 2W$. Similarly, the number $n_R$ of locations into which intermediate results like $\tilde{Q}_{ji} \cdot \tilde{A}_{jk}$ can be accumulated or stored is at most $2W$. Note that these intermediate results could conceivably be stored or accumulated in $\tilde{A}$ because of overwriting; this does not affect the upper bound on $n_R$.

By the Loomis-Whitney inequality, the maximum number of useful multiplications that can be done during a phase (i.e. assuming intermediate results are not just thrown away) is bounded by $\sqrt{n_A \cdot n_Q \cdot n_R} \leq \sqrt{8W^3}$. Since the processor does $F$ multiplications, the number of full phases required is at least

$$\left| \frac{F}{\sqrt{8W^3}} \right| \geq \frac{F}{\sqrt{8W^3}} - 1$$
so the total number of words moved is $W$ times larger, i.e.

$$\# \text{ number of words moved} \geq \frac{F}{\sqrt{8W}} - W.$$ 

The number of messages follows by dividing by $W$, the maximum message size. □

The following is our main result for sequential CAQR:

**Corollary 5.3.** Consider a single processor computing the QR decomposition of an $m$-by-$n$ matrix with $m \geq n$, using an algorithm of the sort discussed above. Then the number of words moved between fast and slow memory is at least

$$\# \text{ of words moved} \geq \frac{mn^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{8} \frac{\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}{1} - W \geq \frac{3n^2\left(m - \frac{4}{3}\right)}{16} - W \quad (5.11)$$

using at least the following number of messages:

$$\# \text{ of messages} \geq \frac{mn^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{8} \frac{\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}{1} - 1 \geq \frac{3n^2\left(m - \frac{4}{3}\right)}{16} - 1 \quad (5.12)$$

**Proof.** The proof follows easily from Lemma 5.2 by using the lower bound $F \geq \frac{mn^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{8} \frac{\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}{1}$ on the number of multiplications by any algorithm in the class discussed above (see Lemma 5.5 in subsection 5.3 for a proof). □

The lower bound could be increased by a constant factor by using a specific number of multiplications (say $mn^2 - n^3/3$ using Householder reductions), instead of arguing more generally based on the number of parameters needed to represent orthogonal matrices.

Comparing to the performance model in Section 3.2, especially Table 3.3, we see that sequential CAQR attains these bounds to within a constant factor.

The following is our main result for parallel CAQR:

**Corollary 5.4.** Consider a parallel computer with $P$ processors and $W$ words of memory per processor computing the QR decomposition of an $m$-by-$n$ matrix with $m \geq n$, using an algorithm of the sort discussed above. Then the number of words sent and received by at least one processor is at least

$$\# \text{ of words moved} \geq \frac{mn^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{8} \frac{\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}{1} - W \geq \frac{3n^2\left(m - \frac{4}{3}\right)}{16P} - W \quad (5.13)$$

using at least the following number of messages:

$$\# \text{ of messages} \geq \frac{mn^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{8} \frac{\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}{1} - 1 \geq \frac{3n^2\left(m - \frac{4}{3}\right)}{16P} - 1 \quad (5.14)$$

In particular, when each processor has $W = mn/P$ words of memory and the matrix is not too rectangular, $n \geq \frac{2^{3/m}}{P}$, then the number of words sent and received by at least one processor is at least

$$\# \text{ of words moved} \geq \sqrt{\frac{mn^3}{2^{11}P}} \quad (5.15)$$

using at least the following number of messages:

$$\# \text{ of messages} \geq \sqrt{\frac{n^3P}{2^{11}m}} \quad (5.16)$$
In particular, in the square case \( m = n \), we get that as long as \( P \geq 2^{11} \), then the number of words sent and received by at least one processor is at least

\[
\# \text{ of words moved} \geq \frac{n^2}{2^{11/2} P^{1/2}}
\]  

(5.17)

using at least the following number of messages:

\[
\# \text{ of messages} \geq \sqrt{\frac{P}{2^{11}}}
\]  

(5.18)

Proof. The result follows from the previous Corollary, since at least one processor has to do \( 1/P \)-th of the work.

Comparing to the performance model in Section 3.1 especially Table 3.2 we see that parallel CAQR attains these bounds to within a constant factor.

5.3. Lower Bounds on Flop Counts for QR. This section proves lower bounds on arithmetic for any “columnwise” implementation of QR, by which we mean one whose operations can be reordered so as to be left looking, i.e. the operations that compute columns \( i \) of \( Q \) and \( R \) depend on data only in columns \( 1 \) through \( i \) of \( A \). The mathematical dependencies are such that columns \( i \) of \( Q \) and \( R \) do only depend on columns \( 1 \) through \( i \) of \( A \), but saying that operations only depend on these columns eliminates algorithms like Strassen. (It is known that QR can be done asymptotically as fast as any fast matrix multiplication algorithm like Strassen, and stably [15].)

This section says where the lower bound on \( F \) comes from that is used in the proof of Corollary 5.3 above.

The intuition is as follows. Suppose \( A = QR \) is \( m \)-by-(\( j+1 \)), so that

\[
\bar{Q}^T \cdot \bar{A} \equiv (Q(1:m,1:j))^T \cdot A(1:m,j+1) = R(1:j,j+1) \equiv \bar{R}.
\]

where \( \bar{Q} \) only depends on the first \( j \) columns of \( A \), and is independent of \( \bar{A} \). As an arbitrary \( m \)-by-\( j \) orthogonal matrix, a member of the Stiefel manifold of dimension \( mj - j(j+1)/2 \), \( \bar{Q} \) requires \( mj - j(j+1)/2 \) independent parameters to represent. We will argue that no matter how \( \bar{Q} \) is represented, i.e. without appealing to the special structure of Givens rotations or Householder transformations, that unless \( mj - j(j+1)/2 \) multiplications are performed to compute \( \bar{R} \) it cannot be computed correctly, because it cannot depend on enough parameters.

Assuming for a moment that this is true, we get a lower bound on the number of multiplications needed for QR on an \( m \)-by-\( n \) matrix by summing \( \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [mj - j(j+1)/2] = mn^2 - \frac{n^3}{3} + O(mn) \). The two leading terms are half the multiplication count for Householder QR (and one fourth of the total operation count, including additions). So the lower bound is rather tight.

Again assuming this is true, we get a lower bound on the value \( F \) in Corollary 5.3 by multiplying \( \frac{n^2}{2^{11}} \cdot (m^2 - \frac{n^3}{3} + 1) \leq \frac{mn^2}{2^{11}} - \frac{n^3}{4} + 1 \leq F \).

Now we prove the main assertion, that \( mj - j(j+1)/2 \) multiplications are needed to compute the single column \( \bar{R} = \bar{Q}^T \cdot \bar{A} \), no matter how \( \bar{Q} \) is represented. We model the computation as a DAG (directed acyclic graph) of operations with the following properties, which we justify as we state them.

1. There are \( m \) input nodes labeled by the \( m \) entries of \( \bar{A} \), \( a_{i,j+1} \) through \( a_{m,j+1} \). We call these \( \bar{A} \)-input nodes for short.
2. There are at least \( mj - j(j + 1)/2 \) input nodes labeled by parameters representing \( \bar{Q} \), since this many parameters are needed to represent a member of the Stiefel manifold. We call these \( Q \)-input nodes for short.

3. There are two types of computation nodes, addition and multiplication. In other words, we assume that we do not do divisions, square roots, etc. Since we are only doing matrix multiplication, this is reasonable. We note that any divisions or square roots in the overall algorithm may be done in order to compute the parameters represented \( \bar{Q} \). Omitting these from consideration only lowers our lower bound (though not by much).

4. There are no branches in the algorithm. In other words, the way an entry of \( \bar{R} \) is computed does not depend on the numerical values. This assumption reflects current algorithms, but could in fact be eliminated as explained later.

5. Since the computation nodes only do multiplication and addition, we may view the output of each node as a polynomial in entries of \( \bar{A} \) and parameters representing \( \bar{Q} \).

6. We further restrict the operations performed so that the output of any node must be a homogeneous linear polynomial in the entries of \( \bar{A} \). In other words, we never multiply two quantities depending on entries of \( \bar{A} \) to get a quadratic or higher order polynomial, or add a constant or parameter depending on \( \bar{Q} \) to an entry of \( \bar{A} \). This is natural, since the ultimate output is linear and homogeneous in \( \bar{A} \), and any higher degree polynomial terms or constant terms would have to be canceled away. No current or foreseeable algorithm (even Strassen based) would do this, and numerical stability would likely be lost.

7. There are \( j \) output nodes labeled by the entries of \( \bar{R} \), \( r_{1,j+1} \) through \( r_{j,j+1} \).

The final requirement means that multiplication nodes are only allowed to multiply \( \bar{Q} \)-input nodes and homogeneous linear functions of \( \bar{A} \), including \( \bar{A} \)-input nodes. Addition nodes may add homogeneous linear functions of \( \bar{A} \) (again including \( \bar{A} \)-input nodes), but not add \( \bar{Q} \)-input nodes to homogeneous linear functions of \( \bar{A} \). We exclude the possibility of adding or multiplying \( \bar{Q} \)-input nodes, since the results of these could just be represented as additional \( \bar{Q} \)-input nodes.

Thus we see that the algorithm represented by the DAG just described outputs \( j \) polynomials that are homogeneous and linear in \( \bar{A} \). Let \( M \) be the total number of multiplication nodes in the DAG. We now want to argue that unless \( M \geq mj - j(j + 1)/2 \), these output polynomials cannot possibly compute the right answer. We will do this by arguing that the dimension of a certain algebraic variety they define is both bounded above by \( M \), and the dimension must be at least \( mj - j(j + 1)/2 \) to get the right answer.

Number the output nodes from 1 to \( j \). The output polynomial representing node \( i \) can be written as \( \sum_{k=1}^{m} p_{k,i}(\bar{Q})a_{k,j+1} \), where \( p_{k,i}(\bar{Q}) \) is a polynomial in the values of the \( \bar{Q} \)-input nodes. According to our rules for DAGs above, only multiplication nodes can introduce a dependence on a previously unused \( \bar{Q} \)-input node, so all the \( p_{k,i}(\bar{Q}) \) can only depend on \( M \) independent parameters.

Finally, viewing each output node as a vector of \( m \) coefficient polynomials \( (p_{1,i}(\bar{Q}),...,p_{m,i}(\bar{Q})) \), we can view the entire output as a vector of \( mj \) coefficient polynomials \( V(\bar{Q}) = (p_{1,1}(\bar{Q}),...,p_{m,j}(\bar{Q})) \), depending on \( M \) independent parameters. This vector of length \( mj \) needs to represent the set of all \( m \)-by-\( j \) orthogonal matrices. But the Stiefel manifold of such orthogonal matrices has dimension \( mj - j(j + 1)/2 \), so the surface defined by \( V \) has to have at least this dimension, i.e. \( M \geq mj - j(j + 1)/2 \).

As an extension, we could add branches to our algorithm by noting that the
output of our algorithm would be piecewise polynomials, on regions whose boundaries are themselves defined by varieties in the same homogeneous linear polynomials. We can apply the above argument on all the regions with nonempty interiors to argue that the same number of multiplications is needed.

In summary, we have proven

**Lemma 5.5.** Suppose we are doing the QR factorization of an $m$-by-$n$ matrix using any “columnwise” algorithm in the sense described above. Then at least $mj - j(j + 1)/2$ multiplications are required to compute column $j + 1$ of $R$, and at least \( \frac{mn^2}{4} - \frac{n^2}{8}(\frac{n}{2} + 1) \) multiplications to compute columns $\frac{n}{2} + 1$ through $n$ of $R$.

6. Related work. The central idea in this paper is factoring tall skinny matrices using a tree-based Householder QR algorithm. A number of authors previously figured out the special case of a binary reduction tree for parallel QR. As far as we know, Golub et al. [22] were the first to suggest it, but their formulation requires $n \log P$ messages for QR of an $m \times n$ matrix on $P$ processors. Pothen and Raghavan [38] were the first, as far as we can tell, to implement parallel TSQR using only $\log P$ messages. Da Cunha et al. [12] independently rediscovered parallel TSQR.

Other authors have worked out variations of the algorithm we call “sequential TSQR” [6, 7, 25, 61, 40, 41]. They do not use it by itself, but rather as the panel factorization step in the QR decomposition of general matrices. The references [6, 7, 25, 31, 40] refer to the latter algorithm as “tiled QR,” which is the same as our sequential CAQR with square blocks. However, they use it in parallel on shared-memory platforms, especially single-socket multicore. They do this by exploiting the parallelism implicit in the directed acyclic graph of tasks. Often they use dynamic task scheduling, which we could use but do not discuss in this paper. Since the cost of communication in the single-socket multicore regime is low, these authors are less concerned than we are about minimizing latency; thus, they are not concerned about the latency bottleneck in the panel factorization, which motivates our parallel CAQR algorithm. We also model and analyze communication costs in more detail than previous authors did.

Here are recent examples of related work on sequential CAQR. Gunter and van de Geijn develop a parallel out-of-DRAM QR factorization algorithm that uses a flat tree for the panel factorizations [25]. Buttari et al. suggest using a QR factorization of this type to improve performance of parallel QR on commodity multicore processors [6]. Quintana-Orti et al. develop two variations on block QR factorization algorithms, and use them with a dynamic task scheduling system to parallelize the QR factorization on shared-memory machines [40]. Kurzak and Dongarra use similar algorithms, but with static task scheduling, to parallelize the QR factorization on Cell processors [31].

As far as we know, parallel CAQR is novel. Nevertheless, there is a body of work on theoretical bounds on exploitable parallelism in QR factorizations. These bounds apply to both parallel TSQR and parallel CAQR if one replaces “matrix element” in the authors’ work with “block” in ours. Cosnard, Muller, and Robert proved lower bounds on the critical path length $Opt(m, n)$ of any parallel QR algorithm of an $m \times n$ matrix based on Givens rotations [10]; it is believed that these apply to any QR factorization based on Householder or Givens rotations. Leoncini et al. show that any QR factorization based on Householder reductions or Givens rotations is P-complete [33]. The only known QR factorization algorithm in arithmetic NC (see [11]) is numerically highly unstable [14], and no work suggests that a stable arithmetic NC algorithm exists.

Hong and Kung [28] and Irony, Toledo, and Tiskin [27] proved lower bounds on
communication for sequential and parallel matrix multiplication. We are, as far as we know, the first to attempt extending these bounds to LU and QR factorization. Elmroth and Gustavson proposed a recursive QR factorization (see [18, 19]) which can also take advantage of memory hierarchies. It is future work to analyze whether their algorithm satisfies the same lower bounds on communication as does sequential CAQR. It is natural to ask to how much of dense linear algebra one can extend the results of this paper, that is finding algorithms that attain communication lower bounds. For parallel LU with pivoting, see the technical report by Grigori, Demmel, and Xiang [24], and for sequential LU, see [47].

Block iterative methods frequently compute the QR factorization of a tall and skinny dense matrix. This includes algorithms for solving linear systems $Ax = B$ with multiple right-hand sides (such as variants of GMRES, QMR, or CG [48, 21, 37]), as well as block iterative eigensolvers (for a summary of such methods, see [3, 32]). In practice, modified Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization is usually used when a (reasonably) stable QR factorization is desired. Sometimes unstable methods (such as CholeskyQR) are used when performance considerations outweigh stability. Eigenvalue computation is particularly sensitive to the accuracy of the orthogonalization; two recent papers suggest that large-scale eigenvalue applications require a stable QR factorization [26, 30]. Many block iterative methods have widely used implementations, on which a large community of scientists and engineers depends for their computational tasks. Examples include TRLAN (Thick Restart Lanczos), BLZPACK (Block Lanczos), Anasazi (various block methods), and PRIMME (block Jacobi-Davidson methods) [49, 35, 29, 2, 4, 45].

7. Conclusions and Open Problems. We have shown that known bandwidth lower bounds for parallel and sequential $\Theta(n^3)$ matrix multiplication imply latency lower bounds, shown such bounds apply to both LU and QR algorithms, presented some new and some old QR algorithms that attain these bounds, and referred to LU algorithms in the literature that attain at least some of these bounds. Whether a sequential LU algorithm exists attaining the latency lower bound is an open question. There are numerous ways in which one could hope to extend these results. One natural conjecture is that the bounds apply to other $\Theta(n^3)$ dense linear algebra routines, such as eigenvalue problems, and if they do, we would want to find algorithms that attain them. Another question is finding analogous communication lower bounds for asymptotically faster dense linear algebra algorithms like thosed based on Strassen’s algorithm, or indeed of any matrix multiplication algorithm, based on Raz’s theorem converting any matrix multiplication algorithm to be “Strassen-like” (bilinear noncommutative) [32].

But the following question is of more practical importance. Our TSQR and CAQR algorithms have been described and analyzed in most detail for simple machine models: either sequential with two levels of memory hierarchy (fast and slow), or a homogeneous parallel machine, where each processor is itself sequential. Real computers are more complicated, with many levels of memory hierarchy and many levels of parallelism (multicore, multisocket, multinode, multirack, . . .) all with different bandwidths and latencies. So it is natural to ask whether our algorithms and optimality proofs can be extended to these more general situations. We hinted at how TSQR could be extended to general reduction trees in Section 2 which could in turn be chosen depending on the architecture. But we have not discussed CAQR, which we do here.

We again look at the simpler case of matrix multiplication for inspiration. Con-
sider the sequential case, with \( k \) levels of memory hierarchy instead of 2, where level 1 is fastest and smallest with \( W_1 \) words of memory, level 2 is slower and larger with \( W_2 \) words of memory, and so on, with level \( k \) being slowest and large enough to hold all the data. By dividing this hierarchy into two pieces, levels \( k \) through \( i+1 \) ("slow") and \( i \) through 1 ("fast"), we can apply the theory in Section 5.1 to get lower bounds on bandwidth and latency for moving data between levels \( i \) and \( i+1 \) of memory. So our goal expands to finding a matrix multiplication algorithm that attains not just 1 set of lower bounds, but \( k-1 \) sets of lower bounds, one for each level of the hierarchy.

Fortunately, as is well known, the standard approach to tiling matrix multiplication achieves all these lower bounds simultaneously, by simply applying it recursively: level \( i+1 \) holds submatrices of dimension \( \Theta(\sqrt{W_{i+1}}) \), and multiplies them by tiling them into submatrices of dimension \( \Theta(\sqrt{W_i}) \), and so on.

The analogous observation is true of parallel matrix multiplication on a hierarchical parallel processor where each node in the parallel processor is itself a parallel processor (multicore, multisocket, multirack, ...).

We believe that this same recursive hierarchical approach applies to CAQR (and indeed much of linear algebra) but there is a catch: Simple recursion does not work, because the subtasks are not all simply smaller QR decompositions. Rather they are a mixture of tasks, including smaller QR decompositions and operations like matrix multiplication. Therefore we still expect that the same hierarchical approach will work: if a subtask is matrix multiplication then it will be broken into smaller matrix multiplications as described above, and if it is QR decomposition, it will be broken into smaller QR decompositions and matrix multiplications.

There are various obstacles to this simple approach. First, the small QR decompositions generally have structure, e.g., a pair of triangles. To exploit this structure fully would complicate the recursive decomposition. (Or we could ignore this structure, perhaps only on the smaller subproblems, where the overhead would dominate.)

Second, it suggests that the data structure with which the matrix is stored should be hierarchical as well, with matrices stored as subblocks of subblocks [20]. This is certainly possible, but it differs significantly from the usual data structures to which users are accustomed. It also suggests that recent approaches based on decomposing dense linear algebra operations into DAGs of subtasks [6, 1, 31, 40, 39] may need to be hierarchical, rather than have a single layer of tasks. A single layer is a good match for the single socket multicore architectures that motivate these systems, but may not scale well to, e.g., petascale architectures.

Third, it is not clear whether this approach best accommodates machines that mix hierarchies of parallelism and memory. For example, a multicore / multisocket / multirack computer will have also have disk, DRAM and various caches, and it remains to be seen whether straightforward recursion will minimize bandwidth and latency everywhere that communication takes place within such an architecture.

Fourth and finally, all our analysis has assumed homogeneous machines, with the same flop rate, bandwidth and latency in all components. This assumption can be violated in many ways, for example, by asymmetric read and write bandwidths, by having different bandwidth and latency between racks, sockets, and cores on a single chip, or by having some specialized floating point units like GPUs.

It is most likely that an adaptive, “autotuning” approach will be needed to deal with some of these issues, just as it has been used for the simpler case of a matrix multiplication. Addressing all these issues is future work.
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