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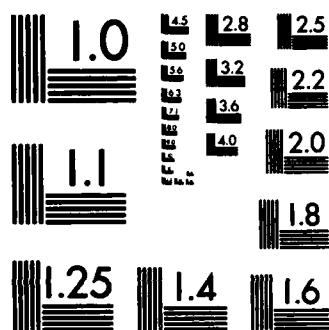MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

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A VERSATILE PARALLEL
IMAGE PROCESSOR SYSTEM:
FINAL REPORT

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October 1983

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This report describes the research supported by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research grant AFOSR-78-3581, during the period March 1, 1978 to December 31, 1982. The main thrust of the research was the design of "PASM."

PASM is a large-scale multimicroprocessor system being designed at Purdue University for image processing and pattern recognition. This system can be dynamically reconfigured to operate as one or more independent SIMD and/or MIMD machines. PASM consists of a parallel computation unit, which contains N processors, N memories, and an interconnection network; Q micro controllers, each of which controls N/Q processors; N/Q parallel secondary storage devices; a distributed memory management system; and a system control unit, to coordinate the other system components. Possible values for N and Q are 1024 and 16, respectively.

This report consists of two parts. The first is an overview of the PASM system. It is a preprint of a paper to appear as a chapter in *Computer Architectures for Spatially Distributed Data*, H. Freeman and G. G. Pieroni, editors, Springer-Verlag, New York, NY, 1983. In this paper the interconnection network, control schemes, and memory management in PASM are described. Examples of how PASM can be used to perform image processing tasks are also given. The second part of the final report is a list of the 53 publications that describe in detail the research that was supported by this grant.

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20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)

PASM, a large-scale multimicroprocessor system being designed at Purdue University for image processing and pattern recognition, is described. This system can be dynamically reconfigured to operate as one or more independent SIMD and/ or MIMD machines. PASM consists of a parallel computation unit, which contains N processors, N memories, and an interconnection network; Q micro controllers, each of which controls N/Q processors; N/Q parallel secondary storage devices; a distributed memory management system; and a system control unit, to coordinate the other system components. Possible values for N and Q are 1024 (CONTINUED)

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ITEM #20, CONTINUED: and 16, respectively. The interconnection network, control schemes, and memory management in PASM are described. Examples of how PASM can be used to perform image processing tasks are given.

In addition, there is a list of 53 publications that describe in detail the research that has been supported by this grant.

THE PASM SYSTEM AND PARALLEL IMAGE PROCESSING

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1. Introduction

One way to do image processing faster is through the use of parallelism. Different modes of parallelism can be employed in a computer system. The SIMD (single instruction stream – multiple data stream) mode [9] typically uses a set of N processors, N memories, an interconnection network, and a control unit (e.g., Illiac IV [6], STARAN [5], CLIP4 [8], MPP [16]). The control unit broadcasts instructions to the processors and all active ("enabled") processors execute the same instruction at the same time. Each processor executes instructions using data taken from a memory with which only it is associated. The interconnection network allows interprocessor communication. An MSIMD (multiple-SIMD) system is a parallel processing system which can be structured as one or more independent SIMD machines (e.g., MAP [13]). The Illiac IV was originally designed as an MSIMD system [3]. The MIMD (multiple instruction stream – multiple data stream) mode [9] typically consists of N processors and N memories, where each processor can follow an independent instruction stream (e.g., C.mmp [27], Cm* [25]). As with SIMD architectures, there is a multiple data stream and an interconnection network. A partitionable SIMD/MIMD system is a parallel processing system which can be structured as one or more independent SIMD and/or MIMD machines (e.g., TRAC [17]).

In this paper, the organization of <u>PASM</u> [20], a <u>pa</u>rtitionable <u>S</u>IMD/<u>M</u>IMD system being designed at Purdue University, is overviewed. Example parallel image processing algorithms for use on PASM are given.

<u>PASM</u>   is to be a large-scale dynamically reconfigurable multimicroprocessor system.   It is a special-purpose system aimed at exploiting the parallelism of image processing and pattern recognition tasks. PASM can be partitioned so that it operates as many independent SIMD and/or MIMD machines of various sizes, and it is being developed using a variety of problems in image processing and pattern recognition to guide the design choices.   It can also be applied to related areas such as speech processing and biomedical signal processing.

PASM is to serve as a research tool for experimenting with parallel processing.   The design attempts to incorporate the needed flexibility for studying large-scale SIMD and MIMD parallelism, while keeping system costs "reasonable." Portions of PASM have been simulated and a prototype is planned for the near future.

In section 2, the PASM organization is overviewed.   Section 3 describes the Parallel Computation Unit.   The Micro Controllers are discussed in section 4.   In section 5, the secondary memory system is explored.   Parallel algorithms for computing global histograms and 2-D FFTs are given in sections 6 and 7, respectively.

2.   <u>PASM</u> <u>Organization</u>

A block diagram of the basic components of PASM is shown in Fig. 1. The <u>Parallel</u> <u>Computation</u> <u>Unit</u> (<u>PCU</u>) contains $N=2^n$ processors, N memory modules, and an interconnection network.   The <u>PCU</u> <u>processors</u> are microprocessors that perform the actual SIMD and MIMD computations.   The <u>PCU</u> <u>memory</u> <u>modules</u> are used by the PCU processors for data storage in SIMD mode and both data and instruction storage in MIMD mode.   Thus, each PCU processor can operate in both the SIMD and MIMD modes of parallelism.   The <u>interconnection</u> <u>network</u> provides a means of communication among the PCU processors and memory modules.

The <u>Micro</u> <u>Controllers</u> (<u>MCs</u>) are a set of microprocessors which act as the control units for the PCU processors in SIMD mode and orchestrate the activities of the PCU processors in MIMD mode.   There are $Q=2^q$ MCs.   Each MC controls N/Q PCU processors.   A virtual SIMD
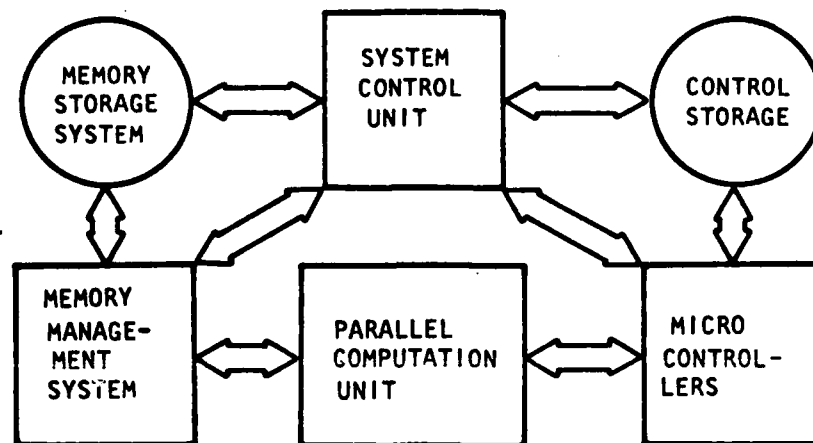
Fig. 1.   Block diagram overview of PASM.

machine (partition) of size RN/Q, where $R=2^r$ and $1 \leq r \leq q$, is obtained by loading R MC memory modules with the same instructions simultaneously. Similarly, a virtual MIMD machine of size RN/Q is obtained by combining the efforts of the PCU processors of R MCs. Q is therefore the maximum number of partitions allowable, and N/Q is the size of the smallest partition. Possible values for N and Q are 1024 and 32, respectively. Control Storage contains the programs for the MCs.

The Memory Storage System provides secondary storage space for the data files in SIMD mode, and for the data and program files in MIMD mode. Multiple storage devices are used in the Memory Storage System to allow parallel data transfers. The Memory Management System controls the transferring of files between the Memory Storage System and the PCU memory modules. It employs a set of cooperating dedicated microprocessors.

The System Control Unit is a conventional machine, such as a PDP-11, and is responsible for the overall coordination of the activities of the other components of PASM. The types of tasks the System Control Unit will perform include program development, job scheduling, and coordination of the loading of the PCU memory modules from the Memory Storage System with the loading of the MC memory modules from Control Storage. By carefully choosing which tasks should be assigned to the System Control Unit and which should be assigned to other system components, the System Control Unit can work effectively and not become a bottleneck.

Sections 3 through 5 provide more information about the PASM system. References for further reading about PASM appear at the end of this paper.

3. Parallel Computation Unit

The Parallel Computation Unit (PCU) is shown in Fig. 2. A memory module is connected to each processor to form a processor - memory pair called a Processing Element (PE). The N PEs are numbered from 0 to N-1 and each PE knows its number (address). The interconnection network is used for communications among PEs. A pair of memory units is used for each memory module. This double-buffering scheme allows data to be moved between one memory unit and secondary storage (the Memory Storage System) while the processor operates on data in the other memory unit.

The PCU processors will be specially designed for parallel image processing. A PASM prototype (for N=16, Q=4) has been designed based on Motorola MC68000 processors. The final (N=1024) system would most likely employ custom VLSI processors.

Two types of multistage interconnection networks are being considered for PASM: the Generalized Cube [19] and the Augmented Data Manipulator (ADM) [18]. Features of the Generalized Cube network will be described to familiarize the readers with the properties of multi-stage networks.
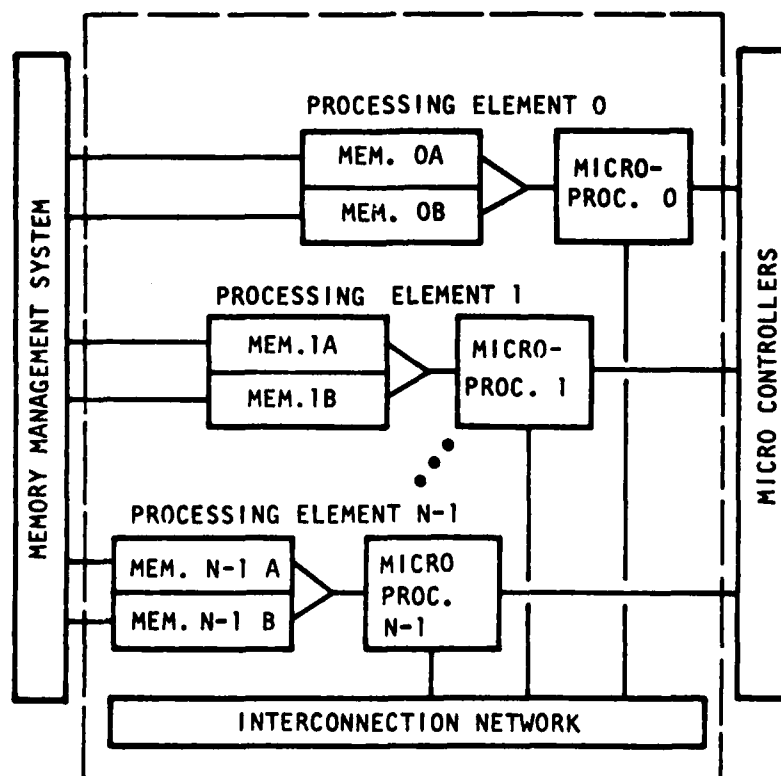

Fig. 2.   Parallel Computation Unit (PCU).

The **Generalized** **Cube** network is a multistage cube-type network topology which was introduced as a standard for comparing network topologies. Other multistage cube-type networks include the baseline [26], delta [14], Extra Stage Cube [1], indirect binary n-cube [15], omega [12], STARAN flip [4], and SW-banyan (S=F=2) [10]. The Cube has **N inputs** and **N outputs**. It is shown in Fig. 3 for N=8. PE i, $0 \leq i < N$, would be connected to input port i and output port i of the unidirectional network.

Fig. 3.   Generalized Cube topology, shown for N=8.

The Generalized Cube topology has $\underline{n}$ = $\log_2 N$ stages, where each stage consists of a set of N lines connected to N/2 interchange boxes. Each **interchange** **box** is a two-input, two-output device. The labels of the input/output (**I/O**) lines entering the upper and lower inputs of an interchange box are used as the labels for the upper and lower outputs, respectively. Each interchange box can be set to one of the four legitimate states shown in Fig. 3.

The connections in this network are based on the cube interconnection functions [21, 22]. Let $P = p_{n-1} \cdots p_1 p_0$ be the binary representation of an arbitrary I/O line label. Then the n cube interconnection functions can be defined as:

$$\text{cube}_i(p_{n-1} \cdots p_1 p_0) = p_{n-1} \cdots p_{i+1} \overline{p}_i p_{i-1} \cdots p_1 p_0$$

where $0 \leq i < n$, $0 \leq P < N$, and $\overline{p}_i$ denotes the complement of p_i. This means that the cube_i interconnection function connects P to $\text{cube}_i(P)$, where $\text{cube}_i(P)$ is the I/O line whose label differs from P in just the i-th

Fig. 4. Three-dimensional cube structure, with vertices labeled from 0 to 7 in binary.

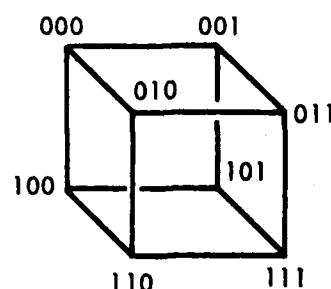bit position. Stage i of the Generalized Cube topology contains the $cube_i$ interconnection function, i.e., it pairs I/O lines that differ only in the i-th bit position.

The reason that these interconnections are referred to as cube connections can be seen by considering the case for N=8. This is shown in Fig. 4. The eight vertices can be labeled so each vertex is connected to the n=3 vertices that differ from it in just one bit position. The horizontal connections are $cube_0$, the diagonals are $cube_1$, and the verticals are $cube_2$.

Using routing tags (as headers on messages) allows network control to be distributed among the PEs. The routing tags for one-to-one data transfers consist of n bits. If certain broadcast capabilities are included, then 2n bits are used. The routing tags set the state of each interchange box individually.

The n-bit routing tag for one-to-one connections is computed from the input port number and desired output port number. Let S be the source address (input port number) and D be the destination address (output port number). Then the routing tag $T = S \oplus D$ (where "$\oplus$" means bitwise "exclusive-or"). Let $t_{n-1} \dots t_1 t_0$ be the binary representation of T. An interchange box in the network at stage i need only examine t_i. If t_i=1, an exchange is performed, and if t_i=0, the straight connection is used. For example, if N=8, S=011, and D=110, then T=101. The corresponding stage settings are exchange, straight, exchange. Because the exclusive-or operation is commutative, the incoming routing tag is the same as the return tag. Since the destination PE has the routing tag to the source PE, it is easy to perform handshaking if desired. The address of the source PE can be computed by the destination PE using $S = D \oplus T$.

Routing tags that can be used for broadcasting data are an extension of the above scheme. They are described in [19].

The Cube network can be partitioned into independent subnetworks of varying sizes. The <u>partitionability</u> of a network is its ability to

divide the system into independent subsystems of different sizes. Furthermore, in this case, each subnetwork of size $N' \leq N$ will have all of the connection properties of a Cube network built to be of size N'.

The key to partitioning the Cube network so that each subnetwork is independent is based on the choice of the I/O ports that belong to the subnetworks. The requirement is that the addresses of all of the I/O ports in a partition of size 2^i agree (have the same values) in n-i of their bit positions.

For example, Fig. 5 shows one way a network of size eight can be partitioned into two subnetworks, each of size four. Group A consists of ports 0, 2, 4, and 6. Group B consists of ports 1, 3, 5, and 7. All ports in group A agree in the low-order bit position (it is a 0). All ports in group B agree in the low-order bit position (it is a 1). By setting all of the interchange boxes in stage 0 to straight, the two groups are isolated. This is because stage 0 is the only stage which allows input ports which differ in their low-order bit to exchange data. As stated above, each subnetwork has the properties of a Cube network. Thus, each subnetwork can be separately further subdivided, resulting in subnetworks of various sizes. This network property allows the PASM PCU PEs to be partitioned into independent virtual machines of various sizes.
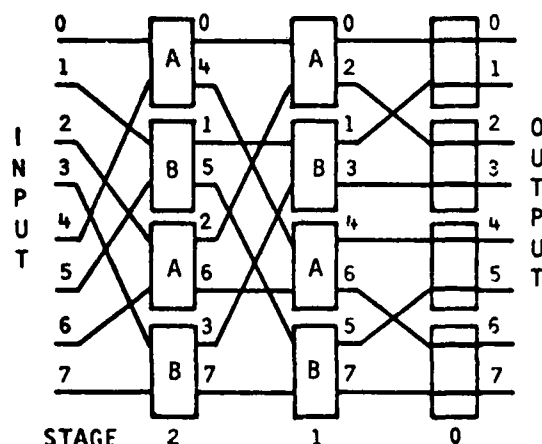

Fig. 5.   Cube network of size eight partitioned into two subnetworks of size four based on the low-order bit position.

The routing tag scheme discussed previously can be used in conjunction with the partitioning concepts. Tags can be logically AND-ed with masks to force to 0 tag positions which correspond to interchange boxes which should be forced to the straight state.

The tradeoffs between the Cube and ADM multistage networks for PASM are currently under study. The ADM network is more flexible, but is more complex. The Cube may be more cost effective and sufficient for the system's needs. The Extra Stage Cube network [1] is a fault-tolerant variation of the Cube which is planned for inclusion in the PASM prototype.

In the following sections, it will be assumed that the PEs will be partitioned such that their addresses agree in the low-order bit positions. This constraint will allow either the Cube or ADM network to be used as the partitionable interconnection network in PASM.

4. Micro Controllers

In general, the possible advantages of a partitionable system include:

(a) fault tolerance - If a single PE fails, only those virtual machines (partitions) which must include the failed PE need to be disabled. The rest of the system can continue to function.

(b) multiple simultaneous users - Since there can be multiple independent virtual machines, there can be multiple simultaneous users of the system, each executing a different program.

(c) program development - Rather than trying to debug a program on, for example, 1024 PEs, it can be debugged on a smaller size virtual machine of 32 PEs.

(d) variable machine size for efficiency - If a task requires only N/2 of N available PEs, the other N/2 can be used for another task.

(e) subtask parallelism - Two independent subtasks that are part of the same job can be executed in parallel, sharing results if necessary.

Some form of multiple control units must be provided in order to have a partitionable SIMD/MIMD system. In PASM, this is done by having $Q=2^q$ MCs, physically addressed (numbered) from 0 to Q-1. Each MC controls N/Q PCU processors, as shown in Fig. 6.

Each MC is a microprocessor attached to a memory module. A memory module consists of a pair of memory units so that memory loading and computations can be overlapped. In SIMD mode, each MC fetches instructions from its memory module, executing the control flow instructions (e.g. branches) and broadcasting the data processing instruc-

Fig. 6.   PASM Micro Controllers (MCs).

tions to its PCU processors. The physical addresses of the N/Q pro-
cessors which are connected to an MC must all have the same low-order
q bits so that the network can be partitioned. The value of these
low-order q bits is the physical address of the MC. A virtual SIMD
machine of size RN/Q, where $R=2^r$ and $0 \leq r \leq q$, is obtained by loading R
MCs with the same instructions and synchronizing the MCs. The physi-
cal addresses of these MCs must have the same low-order q-r bits so
that all of the PCU processors in the partition have the same low-
order q-r physical address bits. Similarly, a virtual MIMD machine of
size RN/Q is obtained by combining the efforts of the PCU PEs associ-
ated with R MCs which have the same low-order q-r physical address
bits. In MIMD mode, the MCs may be used to help coordinate the ac-
tivities of their PCU PEs.

Permanently assigning a fixed number of PCU PEs to each MC has
several advantages over allowing a varying assignment, such as used in
MAP. One advantage is that the operating system need only schedule
(and monitor the "busy" status of) Q MCs, rather than N PCU PEs. When
Q=32 and N=1024, this is a substantial savings. Another advantage is
that no crossbar switch is needed for connecting processors and con-
trol units (such as proposed for MAP [13]). A third advantage is that
it supports network partitioning. In addition, this fixed connection
scheme allows the efficient use of multiple secondary storage devices,

which is discussed below. The main disadvantage of this approach is
that each virtual machine size must be a power of two, with a minimum
value of N/Q. However, for PASM's intended experimental environment,
flexibility at reasonable cost is the goal, not maximum processor
utilization.

The loading of programs from Control Storage into the MC memory un-
its is controlled by the System Control Unit. When large SIMD jobs
are run, that is, jobs which require more than N/Q processors, more
than one MC executes the same set of instructions. Each MC has its
own memory, so that if more than one MC is to be used, several
memories must be loaded with the same set of instructions. The
fastest way to load several MC memories with the same set of instruc-
tions is to load all of the memories at the same time. A shared bus
from Control Storage is used to do this parallel loading.

This basic MC organization can be enhanced to allow the sharing of
memory modules by the MCs in a partition. The MCs can be connected by
a shared reconfigurable ("shortable") bus [2, 11], as shown in Fig. 7.
The MCs must be ordered on the bus in terms of the bit reverse of
their addresses due to the partitioning rules. This enhanced MC con-
nection scheme could provide more program space for jobs using multi-

MC MEMORY MODULES

MC PROCESSORS
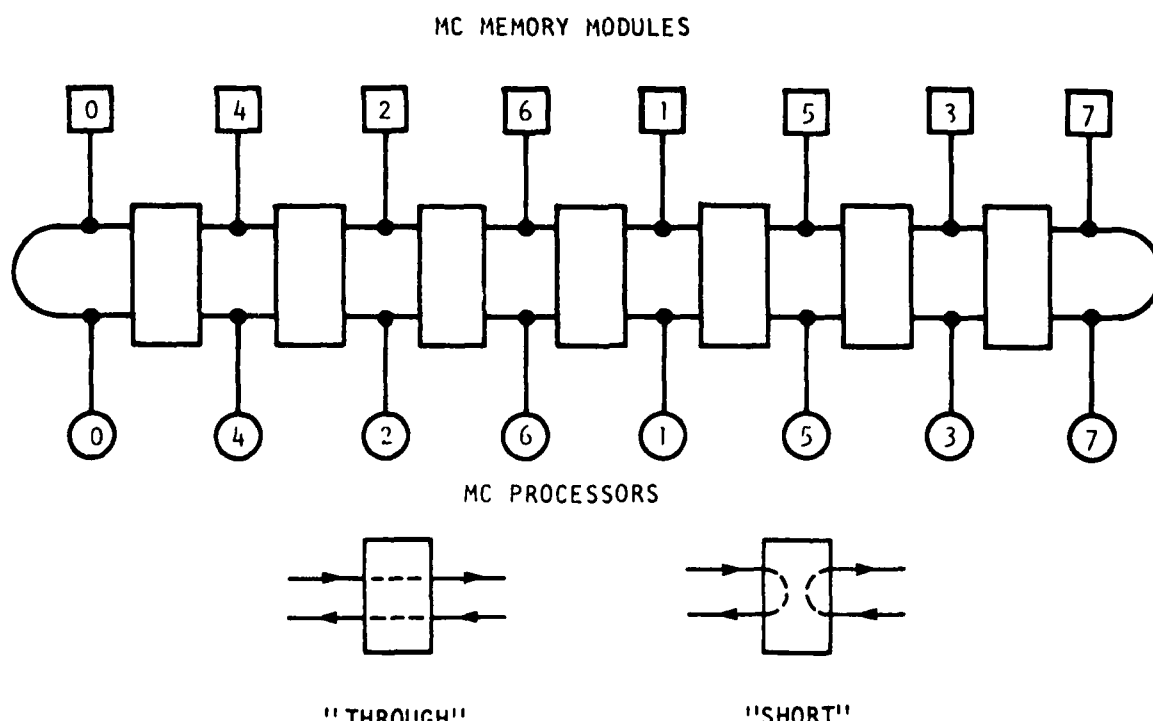
"THROUGH"   "SHORT"

Fig. 7.   Reconfigurable shared bus scheme for interconnecting MC
           processors and MC memory modules, shown for Q=8. Each box
           can be set to "through" or "short."

ple MCs and would also provide a degree of fault tolerance, since
known-faulty MC memory modules could be ignored. These advantages
come at the expense of additional system complexity, and the inclusion
of the enhanced scheme in PASM will depend on cost constraints at im-
plementation time.

Within each partition the PCU processors and memory modules are as-
signed logical addresses. Given a virtual machine of size RN/Q, the
processors and memory modules for this partition have logical ad-
dresses (numbers) 0 to (RN/Q)-1, $R=2^r$, $0 \leq r \leq q$. The logical number of a
PCU PE is the high-order r+n-q bits of its physical number. Similar-
ly, the MCs assigned to the partition are logically numbered (ad-
dressed) from 0 to R-1. For R>1, the logical number of an MC is the
high-order r bits of its physical number. The PASM language compilers
and operating system will be used to convert from logical to physical
addresses, so a system user will deal only with logical addresses.

There are instructions which examine the collective status of all
of the PEs of a virtual SIMD machine, such as "if any," "if all," and
"if none." These instructions change the flow of control of the pro-
gram at execution time depending on whether any or all processors in
the virtual SIMD machine satisfy some condition. For example, if each
PE is processing data from a different section of a radar unit, but
all PEs are looking for enemy planes, it is desirable to know "if any"
of the PEs has discovered a possible attack. This requires communica-
tion among the MCs comprising the virtual SIMD machine. There is a
set of buses shared by MCs for this purpose.

When operating in SIMD mode, all of the active PCU PEs will execute
instructions broadcast to them by their MC. A masking scheme is a
method for determining which PCU PEs will be active at a given point
in time. PASM will use PE address masks and data conditional masks.

The PE address masking scheme uses an n-position mask to specify
which of the N PCU PEs are to be activated. Each position of the mask
corresponds to a bit position in the addresses of the PEs. Each posi-
tion of the mask will contain either a 0, 1, or X ("don't care") and
the only PEs that will be active are those whose address matches the
mask: 0 matches 0, 1 matches 1, and either 0 or 1 matches X. Square
brackets denote a mask. Superscripts are used as repetition factors.
For example: MASK $[X^{n-1}1]$ activates all odd-numbered PEs; MASK
$[1^{n-i}X^i]$ activates PEs $N-2^i$ to N-1. PE address masks are specified in
the SIMD program.

A negative PE address mask is similar to a regular PE address mask,
except that it activates all those PEs which do not match the mask.

Negative PE address masks are prefixed with a minus sign to distinguish them from regular PE address masks. For example, for N=8, MASK [-01X] activates all PEs except 2 and 3. This type of mask can activate sets of PEs a single regular PE address mask cannot.

Data conditional masks will be implemented in PASM for use when the decision to enable and disable PEs is made at execution time. Data conditional masks are the implicit result of performing a conditional branch dependent on local data in an SIMD machine environment, where the result of different PEs' evaluations may differ. As a result of a conditional where statement of the form

            where <data-condition> do ... elsewhere ...

each PE will set its own flag to activate itself for either the "do" or the "elsewhere," but not both. The execution of the "elsewhere" statements must follow the "do" statements; i.e., the "do" and "elsewhere" statements cannot be executed simultaneously. For example, as a result of executing the statement:

            where A < B do C ← A elsewhere C ← B

each PE will load its C register with the minimum of its A and B registers, i.e., some PEs will execute "C ← A," and then the rest will execute "C ← B." This type of masking is used in such machines as the Illiac IV [3] and PEPE [7]. "Where" statements can be nested using a run-time control stack.

5. Secondary Memory System

The Memory Storage System will consist of N/Q independent Memory Storage Units, numbered from 0 to (N/Q)-1. These devices will allow fast loading and unloading of the N double-buffered PCU memory modules and will provide storage for system image data and MIMD programs.

Each Memory Storage Unit is connected to Q PCU memory modules. For $0 \le i < N/Q$, Memory Storage Unit i is connected to those memory modules whose physical addresses are of the form $(Q*i)+k$, $0 \le k < Q$. Recall that, for $0 \le k < Q$, MC k is connected to those PEs whose physical addresses are of the form $(Q*i)+k$, $0 \le i < N/Q$. This is shown for N=32 and Q=4 in Fig. 8.

For a partition of size N/Q, the two main advantages of this approach are that (1) all of the memory modules can be loaded in parallel and (2) the data is directly available no matter which partition (MC group) is chosen. This is done by storing in Memory Storage Unit

A virtual machine of RN/Q PEs, $1 \leq R \leq Q$, logically numbered from 0 to RN/Q-1, requires only R parallel block loads if the data for the memory module whose high-order n-q logical address bits equal i is loaded into Memory Storage Unit i. This is true no matter which group of R MCs (which agree in their low-order q-r address bits) is chosen.

As an example, consider Fig. 8, and assume a virtual machine of size 16 is desired. The data for the memory modules whose logical addresses are 0 and 1 is loaded into Memory Storage Unit 0, for memory modules 2 and 3 into unit 1, etc. Assume the partition of size 16 is chosen to consist of the processors connected to MCs 1 and 3. Given this assignment of MCs, the PCU memory module whose physical address is 2*i+1 has logical address i, $0 \leq i < 16$. The Memory Storage Units first load memory modules physically addressed 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, and 29 (simultaneously), and then load memory modules 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31 (simultaneously). No matter which pair of MCs is chosen, only two parallel block loads are needed. Thus, for a virtual machine of size RN/Q, this secondary storage scheme allows all RN/Q memory modules to be loaded in R parallel block transfers, $1 \leq R \leq Q$.

This same approach can be taken if only $(N/Q)/2^d$ distinct Memory Storage Units are available, where $0 \leq d \leq n-q$. In this case, however, $R2^d$ parallel block loads will be required instead of just R. The number and types of devices that will be used in PASM will depend upon speed requirements, cost constraints, and the state-of-the-art of storage technology at implementation time.

The Memory Management System is composed of a separate set of microprocessors dedicated to performing tasks in a distributed fashion, i.e., one processor handles Memory Storage System bus control, one handles the peripheral device I/O, etc. This distributed processing approach is chosen in order to provide the Memory Management System with a large amount of processing power at low cost. The division of tasks chosen is based on the main functions which the Memory Management System must perform, including: (1) generating tasks based on PCU memory module load/unload requests from the System Control Unit; (2) scheduling of Memory Storage System data transfers; (3) control of input/output operations involving peripheral devices and the Memory Storage System; (4) maintenance of the Memory Management System file directory information; and (5) control of the Memory Storage System bus system.

Fig. 8.   Organization of the Memory Storage System, shown for N=32
          and Q=4. "MSU" is Memory Storage Unit.

i the data for a task which is to be loaded into the i-th logical
memory module of the virtual machine of size N/Q, $0 \leq i < N/Q$. Memory
Storage Unit i is connected to the i-th memory module in each MC group
so that no matter which MC group of N/Q processors is chosen, the data
from the i-th Memory Storage unit can be loaded into the i-th logical
memory module, $0 \leq i < N/Q$, simultaneously. Thus, for virtual
machines of size N/Q, this secondary storage scheme allows all N/Q
memory modules to be loaded in one parallel block transfer.

6. Parallel Computation of a Global Histogram

In this section, an SIMD algorithm for computing the global histogram of an algorithm is given [20]. Assume there are $B=2^b$ bins in the histogram, $B \leq N$. An M by M image is represented by an array of M^2 pixels (picture elements), where the value of each pixel is assumed to be a b-bit unsigned integer representing one of B possible gray levels. The B-bin histogram of the image contains a j in bin i if exactly j of the pixels have a gray level of i, $0 \leq i < B$.

Assume the image is equally distributed among the N PEs in PASM, i.e., each PE has M^2/N pixels, and $B \leq M^2/N$. Since the image is distributed over N PEs, each PE will calculate a B-bin histogram based on its M^2/N segment of the image. Then these "local" histograms will be combined using the algorithm described below. This algorithm is demonstrated for N=16 and B=4 bins in Fig. 9.

Each block of B PEs performs B simultaneous recursive doublings [24] to compute the histogram for the portion of the image contained in the block in the first b steps. At the end of the b steps, each PE has one bin of this partial histogram. This is accomplished by first dividing the B PEs of a block into two groups. Each group accumulates

```
          PE
          0   (0,1,2,3)\  /(0,1)\  /(0)     /(0)       /(0)
 Block    1   (0,1,2,3) \/ (0,1) \/ (1)    / (1)      / (1)
   0      2   (0,1,2,3) /\ (2,3) /\ (2)   / (2)      /(2)
          3   (0,1,2,3)/  \(2,3)/  \(3)  /(3)       /(3)

          4   (0,1,2,3)\  /(0,1)\  /(0)/
 Block    5   (0,1,2,3) \/ (0,1) \/ (1)/
   1      6   (0,1,2,3) /\ (2,3) /\ (2)/
          7   (0,1,2,3)/  \(2,3)/  \(3)

          8   (0,1,2,3)\  /(0,1)\  /(0)     /(0)
 Block    9   (0,1,2,3) \/ (0,1) \/ (1)    / (1)
   2      10  (0,1,2,3) /\ (2,3) /\ (2)   / (2)
          11  (0,1,2,3)/  \(2,3)/  \(3)  /(3)

          12  (0,1,2,3)\  /(0,1)\  /(0)/
 Block    13  (0,1,2,3) \/ (0,1) \/ (1)/
   3      14  (0,1,2,3) /\ (2,3) /\ (2)/
          15  (0,1,2,3)/  \(2,3)/  \(3)
```
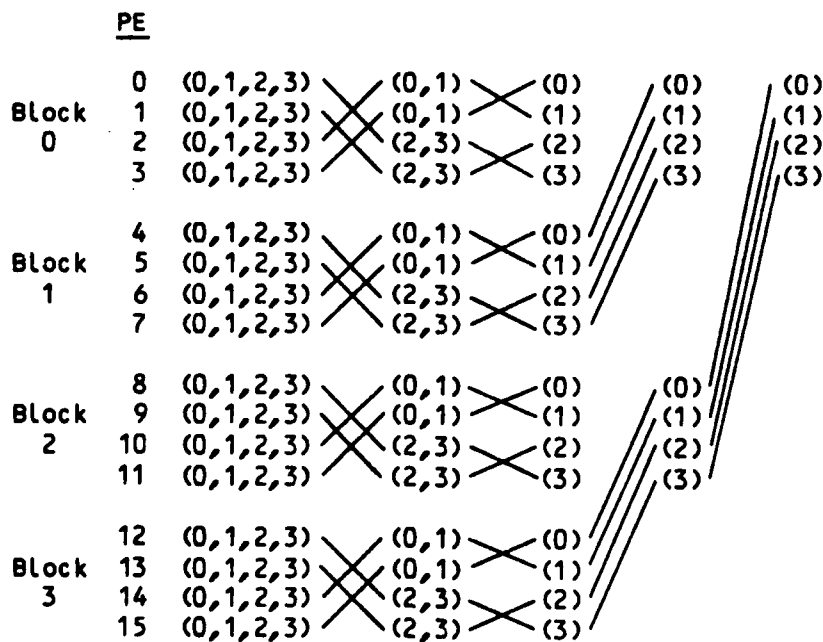
Fig. 9. Histogram calculation for N=16 PEs, B=4 bins. (w,...,z) denotes that bins w through z of the partial histogram are in the PE.

the sums for half of the bins, and sends the bins it is not accumulating to the group which is accumulating those bins. At each step of the algorithm, each group of PEs is divided in half such that the PEs with the lower addresses form one group, and the PEs with the higher addresses form another. The accumulated sums are similarly divided in half based on their indices in the histogram. The groups then exchange sums, so that each PE contains only sum terms which it is accumulating. The newly-received sums are added to the sums already in the PE. After b steps, each PE has the total value for one bin from the portion of the image contained in the B PEs in its block.

The results for these blocks can be combined in n−b steps to yield the histogram of the entire image distributed over B PEs, with the sum for bin i in PE i, $0 \leq i < B$. This is done by performing n−b steps of a recursive doubling [24] algorithm to sum the partial histograms from the N/B blocks, shown by the last two steps of Fig. 9. Note that B recursive doublings are being performed simultaneously, one for each bin. A general algorithm to compute the B-bin histogram for an image distributed over N PEs is given in [20].

Now consider relative speeds of sequential and parallel computation of the histogram. A sequential algorithm to compute the histogram of an M by M image requires M^2 additions. The SIMD algorithm uses M^2/N additions for each PE to compute its local histogram. At step i in the merging of the partial histograms, $0 \leq i < b$, the number of parallel data transfer/adds required is $B/2^{i+1}$. A total of B−1 transfer/adds are therefore performed in the first b steps of the algorithm. Then n−b parallel transfers and additions are needed to combine the block histograms. This technique therefore requires B−1+n−b parallel transfer/add operations, plus the M^2/N additions needed to compute the local PE histograms. For example, if N=1024, M=512, and B=128, the sequential algorithm would require 262,144 additions; the parallel algorithm uses 256 addition steps plus 130 transfer/add steps. The result of the algorithm, i.e., the histogram, is distributed over the first B PEs. This distribution may be efficient for further processing on the histogram, e.g., finding the maximum or minimum, or for smoothing the histogram. If it is necessary for the entire histogram to be in a single PE, B−1 additional parallel data transfers are required. Both the Cube and ADM multistage networks can perform all of the required inter-PE data transfers efficiently.

7. 2-D FFT Algorithms

In this section, an SIMD algorithm to compute the 2-D FFT of an image is given [23]. A standard approach to computing the 2D-DFT of an image S is to perform the 1-D DFT on the rows of S, giving an intermediate matrix G, and then perform the 1-D DFT on the columns of G. The resulting matrix F is the 2-D DFT of S. Suppose that an SIMD machine has N=M PEs, each of which has one row of an M by M input image S. An efficient method for obtaining F, the DFT of S, is to perform M 1-D FFTs in parallel on the rows of S to get G, "transpose" G, and then perform M 1-D FFTs in parallel on the columns of G to get F^T. This is shown in Fig. 10. (F^T can be transposed to give F, however, this may not be necessary depending on what further processing is done on F.)

To form the transpose of G, G^T, such that each row of G^T is in a different PE, the basic operation performed is the transfer of array

PE

0	$S_{0,0}$ $\cdots$ $S_{0,M-1}$				$G_{0,0}$ $\cdots$ $G_{0,M-1}$	
.	.		serial		.	
.	.	$\leftarrow$	1D FFTs	$\leftarrow$	.	
.	.		on rows		.	
.	.		of S		.	
M-1	$S_{M-1,0}$ $\cdots$ $S_{M-1,M-1}$				$G_{M-1,0}$ $\cdots$ $G_{M-1,M-1}$	

$\downarrow$

transpose G

PE

$\downarrow$

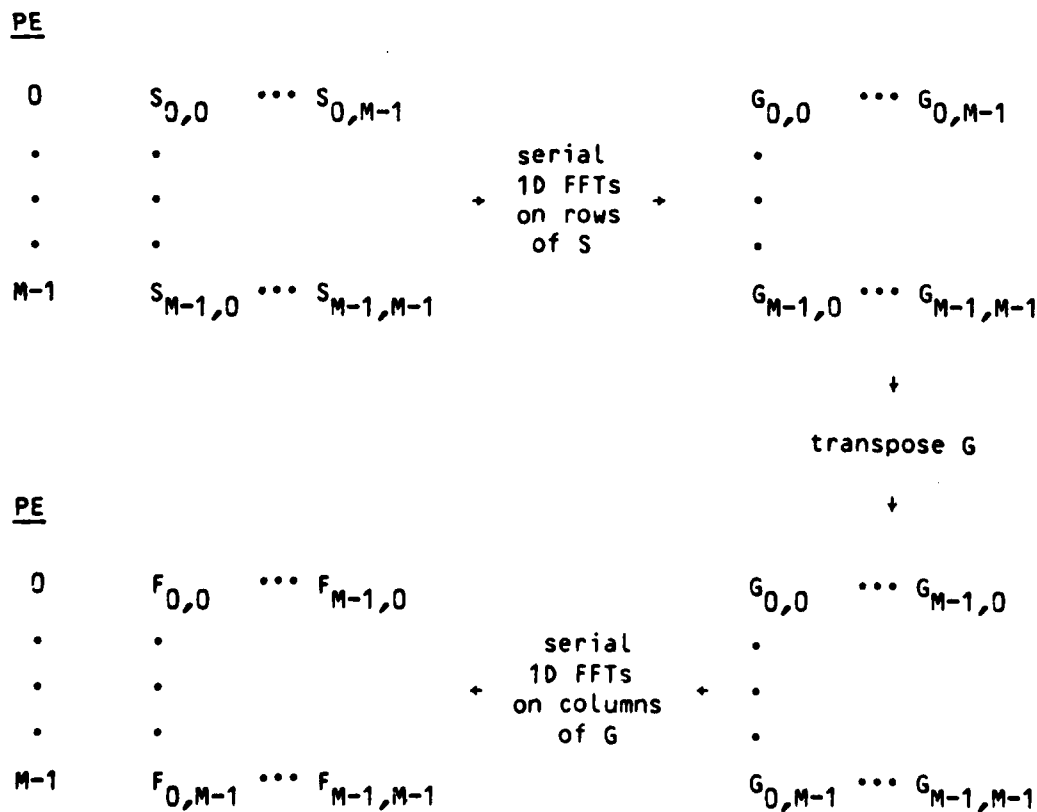|						
0	$F_{0,0}$ $\cdots$ $F_{M-1,0}$				$G_{0,0}$ $\cdots$ $G_{M-1,0}$	
.	.		serial		.	
.	.	$\leftarrow$	1D FFTs	$\leftarrow$	.	
.	.		on columns		.	
.	.		of G		.	
M-1	$F_{0,M-1}$ $\cdots$ $F_{M-1,M-1}$				$G_{0,M-1}$ $\cdots$ $G_{M-1,M-1}$	

Fig. 10. Computation of 2-D FFT of M by M array S using M PEs.

element $G(v,w)$ from PE v to PE w. This is done for M $G(v,w)$'s in parallel by sending data from PE v to PE $(v+i)$ mod M for all of the $G(v,w)$ for which $(w-v)$ mod M = i. The parallel transfer operation is performed for $1 \leq i < M$. For each i value, the element which PE v sends is the w-th element of the row of G held in PE v, where $w = (v+i)$ mod M. That element, received in PE w, is stored as the v-th element of the column of G being created in PE w, where $v = (w-i)$ mod M. The elements on the diagonal $G(v,w)$, where $v=w$, do not have to be transferred. Performing the transpose therefore requires M-1 parallel data transfers.

The serial complexity of 2M 1-D FFTs (i.e., an M by M 2-D DFT) is $M^2 \log_2 M$ "butterflies." The above parallel implementation of the 2-D DFT executes two serial FFT algorithms and has a complexity of $M \log_2 M$ butterfly steps. Thus, an ideal speedup of M is achieved for butterfly operations with a cost of M-1 data transfers.

This approach can be generalized for N<M. For example, if N=M/2 each PE is given two rows of the input matrix S. The FFTs on the rows of S are performed by two serial FFTs, executed one after the other, on the two rows in each PE. This yields G, with each PE having two rows of G. The second step is to form the transpose of G, G^T, where each PE has two rows of G^T (i.e., each PE has two columns of G). If PE i contains rows 2i and 2i+1, then, in general, $G(i,j)$ is transferred from PE $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$ to PE $\lfloor j/2 \rfloor$, $0 \leq i,j < M$. The complexity associated with the transpose is 2M-4 parallel transfers. The -4 term appears because the diagonal and near-diagonal terms are already in the correct PE. The final step is to perform a 1-D DFT on the columns of G. This is done by two serial FFTs in each PE, as above. This gives F^T, with each PE having two rows of F^T. This implementation has a complexity of four serial FFT algorithms, or $2M \log_2 M$ butterfly steps. This is the maximum possible reduction in the number of butterfly steps, given M/2 PEs. The overhead associated with the transpose is 2M-4 transfers.

In general, when this method is implemented on N PEs, $N \leq M$, the complexity will be derived directly from the 1-D FFT algorithm used. If the complexity of the serial 1-D FFT algorithm is C, then the complexity of the 2-D FFT algorithm is 2(M/N)C plus the cost of computing the transpose. If $N = M/(2^r)$, the cost of the transpose is $2^r(M-2^r)$ data transfers. The -2^r term appears because before the transpose each PE holds 2^r rows, and after the transpose each PE holds 2^r columns. Thus, only $M-2^r$ elements of each row need to be transferred. In all cases, the necessary inter-PE data transfers can be done efficiently by the Cube and ADM multistage networks.

Table 1. The PASM design parameters, based on current plans.

	general	full PASM	PASM prototype
Number of PEs	N	1024	16
Number of network stages (Extra Stage Cube)	$\log_2 N + 1$	11	5
Number of MCs	Q	32	4
Number of PEs per MC	N/Q	32	4
Number of Memory Storage Units	N/Q	32	4
Number of Memory Management System processors	fixed	5	5
Smallest size partition	N/Q	32	4
Maximum number of partitions	Q	32	4

8. Conclusions

This paper provided an overview of the PASM system and examples of its use. Table 1 summarizes the PASM design parameters. In order to contrast PASM to a different approach to parallel image processing, Table 2 compares the features of CLIP4 [8] to the planned features of PASM. A reading list for further information about PASM is provided at the end of this paper.

Table 2. A comparison of the features of CLIP4 and the planned features of PASM.

feature	CLIP4	PASM
Year built	1980	1983/4 ? (prototype)
Processor type	1-bit, simple	32-bit, complex (68000 prototype)
Memory size per processor	32 bits	64K words
Network type	8 nearest neighbors	multistage
Number of processors for computation	$96^2 = 9K$	1024 (16 prototype)
Image division	pixel/processor	subimage/PE
I/O	shift by column, rows in parallel	double-buffered PE memories, multiple secondary storage devices
Modes	SIMD	partitionable SIMD/MIMD

In conclusion, the objective of the PASM design is to achieve a system which attains a compromise between flexibility and cost-effectiveness for a specific problem domain. A dynamically reconfigurable system such as PASM should be a valuable tool for both image processing/pattern recognition and parallel processing research.

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