

# VLSI Architectures for the Finite Impulse Response Filter

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**Abstract**—We review the various VLSI architectures that have been proposed for the finite impulse response filter problem. In addition, new architectures are proposed and improved designs for some of the earlier architectures are developed.

## I. INTRODUCTION

VLSI architectures for a variety of problems have been proposed by several authors. A bibliography of over 150 research papers dealing with this subject appears in [1]. In this paper, we are concerned solely with the finite impulse response (FIR) filter problem. The input to this problem is a  $1 \times w$  vector  $A = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_w)$  and a  $1 \times (n + w)$  vector  $X = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n+w-1})$ . The output is a  $1 \times (n + 1)$  vector  $Y = (y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n)$  where

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^w a_j x_{i+j-1}, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n. \quad (1)$$

The FIR problem is of interest to VLSI designers as (1) is difficult to solve in real time for wide-band signal processing applications. Furthermore, the FIR problem has relatively favorable sensitivity properties with respect to round-off errors. Consequently, most application needs can be satisfied using fixed-point arithmetic of moderate precision. Additionally, the problem may be solved by algorithms requiring a simple control and flow of data. This facilitates highly parallel and pipelined computation.

VLSI architectures for this problem have been proposed earlier in [2]–[6]. The design of [3] and [4] uses a unidirectional chain of processors as in Fig. 1(a). Here data flow is from left to right. The design of [2], [5], and [6] employs a bidirectional chain of processors as in Fig. 1(b). In this, data flows both from left to right and from right to left.

In this paper, we examine each of the above two architectures. In addition, we consider broadcast chains [Fig. 1(c)] as used in [7]–[11] (among others) for the matrix multiplication, back substitution, LU decomposition, and the adaptive recursive filtering problems. A broadcast line has the property that data put on this line and becomes

available at all PE's on the line in  $O(1)$  time. Furthermore, the systolic ring architecture [Fig. 1(d)] used in [3] for the LU decomposition problem is also examined.

In evaluating our designs, we assume that the VLSI system will be attached to the host processor using a bus as in Fig. 2. The evaluation of a VLSI design should take the following into account.

1) Bus bandwidth—How much data is to be transmitted between the host and the VLSI system in any cycle? This figure is denoted by  $B$ .

2) Speed—How much time does the VLSI system need to complete its task? This time may be decomposed into the times  $T_C$  (time for computations) and  $T_D$  (time for data transmissions both within the VLSI system and between the host and the VLSI system).

One may expect that by using a very high bandwidth  $B$  and a large number of processors  $P$ , we can make  $T_C$  and  $T_D$  quite small. So,  $T_C$  and  $T_D$  are not in themselves a very good measure of the effectiveness with which the resources  $B$  and  $P$  have been used. Let  $D$  denote the total amount of data that needs to be transmitted between the host and VLSI system. The ratio

$$R_D = B * T_D / D$$

measures the effectiveness with which the bandwidth  $B$  has been used. Clearly,  $R_D \geq 1$  for every VLSI design. As an example, consider the multiplication of two  $n \times n$  matrices. The host needs to send  $2n^2$  elements to the VLSI system and receive  $n^2$  elements back. So,  $D = 3n^2$ . With a bandwidth of  $n$ ,  $T_D$  must be at least  $3n$ .  $T_D$  will exceed  $3n$  if the bandwidth is not used to capacity at all times.

Let  $C$  denote the time spent for computation by a single processor algorithm. The ratio

$$R_C = P * T_C / C$$

measures the effectiveness of processor utilization. Once again, we see that  $R_C \geq 1$  for every VLSI design. Consider the problem of multiplying two  $n \times n$  matrices  $A$  and  $B$  to get  $X$ . Each element of  $X$  is the sum of  $n$  products. We shall count one multiplication and addition as one arithmetic (or computation) step. Hence,  $C = n^3$ . If  $P = n$ , then  $T_C \geq n^2$ .

In evaluating a VLSI design, we shall be concerned with  $T_C$  and  $T_D$  and also with  $R_C$  and  $R_D$ . We would like  $R_C$  and  $R_D$  to be close to 1. Finally, we may combine the two

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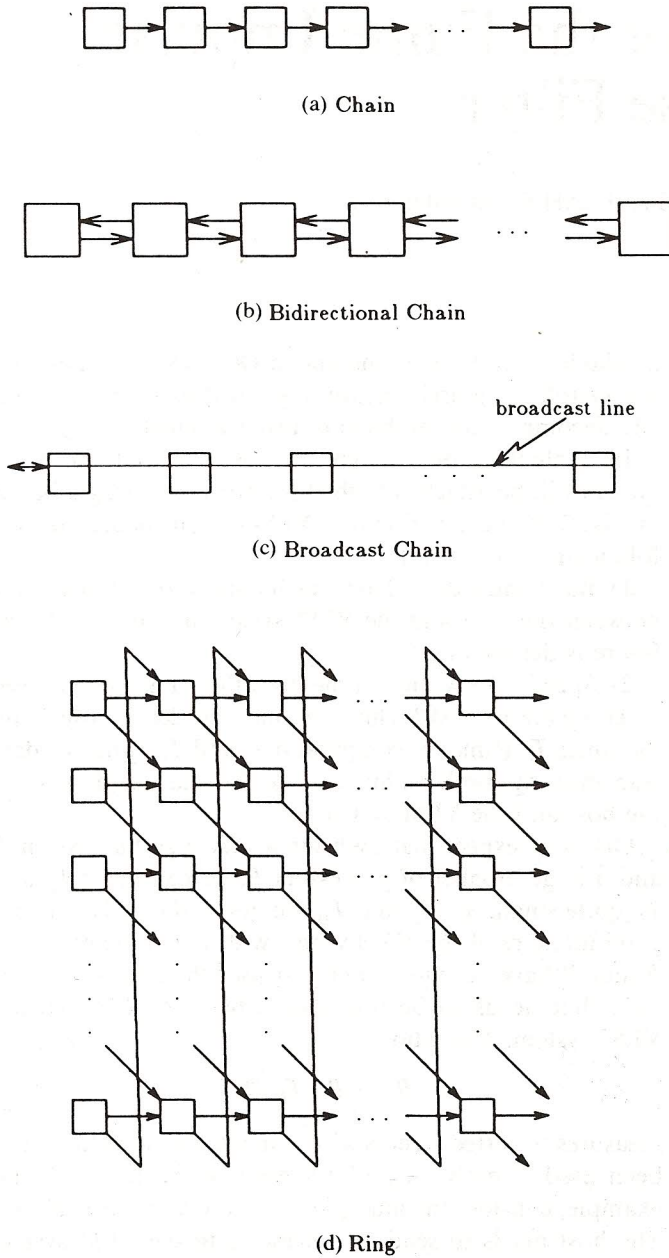


Fig. 1. Different VLSI architectures. (a) Chain. (b) Bidirectional chain. (c) Broadcast chain. (d) Ring.

efficiency ratios  $R_C$  and  $R_D$  into the single ratio  $R = R_C * R_D$ . A design that makes effective use of the available bandwidth and processors will have  $R$  close to 1.

The efficiency measure  $R$  as defined here is the same as that used in [8] and [9] to evaluate VLSI designs for matrix multiplication and back substitution. This measure is also quite similar to that proposed in [7]. In fact, the two measures become identical when  $T_C = T_D$ .

For each of the designs considered in this paper, we compute  $R_C$ ,  $R_D$ , and  $R$ . In several cases, our designs have lower efficiency ratios than all earlier designs using the same model. In comparing different architectures for the same problem, one must be wary about overemphasizing the importance of  $R_C$ ,  $R_D$ , and  $R$ . Clearly, using  $P=1$  and  $B=1$ , we can get  $R_C = R_D = R = 1$  and no speedup at all. So, we are really interested in minimizing  $T_C$

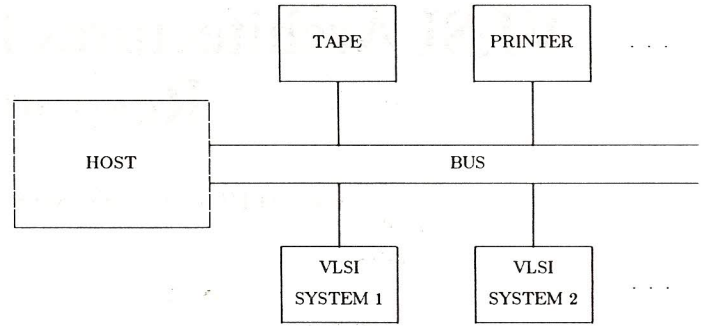


Fig. 2. Connecting to a host computer.

and  $T_D$  while keeping  $R$  close to 1. Some of our designs reduce  $T_C$  at the expense of  $R$ .

## II. FINITE IMPULSE RESPONSE (FIR) FILTER

### A. The Problem

**Input:** A  $1 \times w$  vector  $A$  and a  $1 \times (n + w)$  vector  $X$ .

**Output:** A  $1 \times (n + 1)$  vector  $Y$  that satisfies (1).

**Parameters:**  $C = (n + 1)w$ ,  $D = 2(n + w) + 1$ .

### B. Broadcast Chain

The broadcast capability permits a very straightforward and efficient solution to the FIR filter problem. We provide two such solutions. The first solution uses  $w$  PE's and has a throughput of  $T_C = n + w$ . The VLSI architecture is shown in Fig. 3(a) and the algorithm executed by the system is given in Fig. 4. Each PE has three registers,  $A$ ,  $X$ , and  $Y$ .  $Z(i)$  denotes register  $Z$  of PE( $i$ ),  $Z \in \{A, X, Y\}$ .

The algorithm consists of two FOR loops. The first initializes the  $A$  register of each PE such that  $A(i) = a_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq w$ . Following this initialization, the system goes through  $n + w - 1$  steps in which the following happens.

1) Each PE receives the same  $x$  value from the broadcast line.

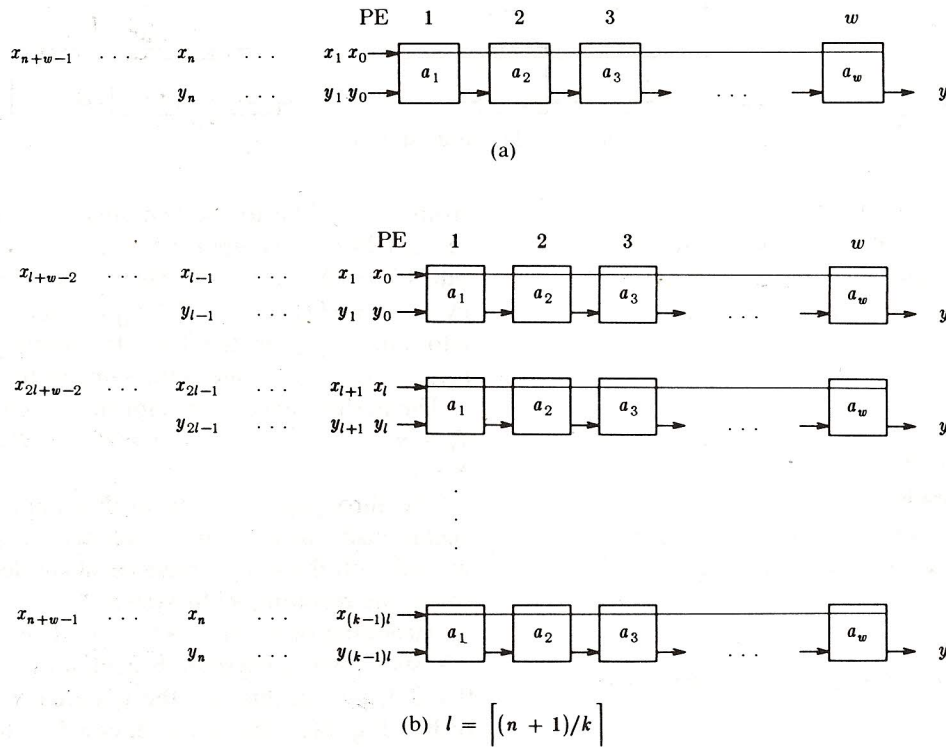
2) Each PE sends its  $Y$  value to the PE on its right. PE(1) initializes its  $Y$  register to zero. PE( $w$ ) outputs its  $Y$  register.

3) Each PE updates its  $Y$  register to  $Y + AX$ .

The first two events occur concurrently, while the third occurs after the first two have completed. It is easy to see that the first  $w$   $Y$ 's output by PE( $w$ ) are garbage and the next  $n + 1$   $Y$ 's output are  $y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n$  as given by (1).

In computing the performance figures for this VLSI system, we note that  $B = 2$  as the system requires at most one input and one output to occur concurrently. Observe that there is no  $Y$  input to the system as PE(1) simply initializes  $Y(1)$  to 0 internally. So, we get  $P = w$ ,  $B = 2$ ,  $T_C = n + w$ ,  $T_D = n + 2w + 1$ ,  $R_C \sim 1 + w/n \sim 1$ ,  $R_D \sim 1 + w/(n + w) \sim 1$  and  $R \sim 1$ .

The throughput of the VLSI system may be reduced to  $o(n/k)$  by using  $k$  independent subsystems as in Fig. 3(b). Each subsystem has  $w$  PE's. Subsystem  $b$  computes  $y_i$ ,  $[(n + 1)/k]b \leq i < [(n + 1)/k](b + 1)$ ,  $0 \leq b \leq k$ . The per-

Fig. 3.  $w$  PE broadcast chain.

```

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $w$  do
     $A(j) \leftarrow a_j$       { input  $a_j$  }
end
for  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $n + w - 1$  do
    do in parallel
        broadcast  $x_j$  to  $X(i)$ ,       $1 \leq i \leq w$ 
         $Y(i) \leftarrow Y(i-1)$        $2 \leq i \leq w$ 
         $Y(1) \leftarrow 0$ 
        output  $Y(w)$       { output  $y_j - w$  }
    end
     $Y(i) \leftarrow Y(i) + A(i) * X(i)$        $1 \leq i \leq w$       { each PE computes }
end
output  $Y(w)$       { output  $y_n$  }

```

Fig. 4. Algorithm for  $w$  PE broadcast chain.

formance figures are  $P = kw$ ,  $B = 2k$ ,  $T_C = \lceil (n+1)/k \rceil + w - 1$ ,  $T_D = \lceil (n+1)/k \rceil + 2w$ ,  $R_C \sim 1 + (kw)/(n+1)$ ,  $R_D \sim 1 + 2kw/(n+w) \sim 1$ , and  $R \sim 1$ .

One deficiency of this improved throughput design is that the  $y_i$ 's are not output in order (for example,  $y_1$  is output after  $y_{\lceil (n+1)/k \rceil}$ ).

Our second broadcast chain VLSI design for the FIR filter problem employs  $n+1$  PE's. Hence, it is applicable only when  $n$  is known in advance. Often, in applications, the value of  $n$  is determined by examining the  $y_i$ 's. Hence, it is a dynamic quantity.

The  $n$  PE architecture is shown in Fig. 5 and the corresponding algorithm is shown in Fig. 6. As in the previous design, each PE has the three registers:  $A$ ,  $X$ , and  $Y$ . PE( $i$ ) computes  $y_i$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq n$ . The contents of the  $X$  registers following the first FOR loop are shown in Fig. 5. In

the second FOR loop, the  $n+1$  PE's compute their respective  $y_i$ 's. This takes  $w$  iterations in which each PE does the following:

1) receive  $a_j$  into its  $A$  register on the  $j$ th iteration,

2) shift its  $X$  register content to the PE on its right. PE( $n$ ) inputs a new  $X$  while PE(0) simply loses its old  $X$  value,

3) update its  $Y$  value to  $Y + AX$ .

Events 1) and 2) are performed concurrently while event 3) occurs after the first two have been completed. Once  $w$  iterations of this loop are completed,  $Y(i) = y_i$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq n$ . The  $n+1$   $Y$  values may now be output in  $n+1$  time.

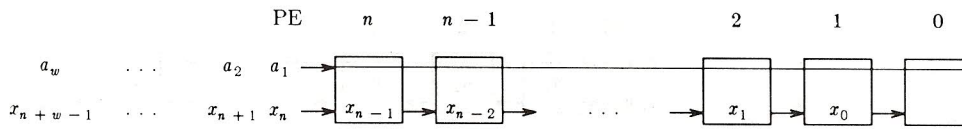
In obtaining the performance figures, we assume that the initialization of the  $Y$  registers to zero is overlapped with the initialization of the  $A$  registers. Consequently, we get  $P = n+1$ ,  $B = 2$ ,  $T_C = w$ ,  $T_D = 2n + w + 1$ ,  $R_C = 1$ ,  $R_D \sim 2$ , and  $R \sim 2$ .

As in the case of our earlier design, the throughput can be improved by using  $k$  subsystems, each having  $\lceil (n+1)/k \rceil$  PE's. The distribution of the  $y_i$ 's computed by each subsystem is the same as in the earlier design. The performance figures are  $P \sim n+1$ ,  $B = 2k$ ,  $T_C = w$ ,  $T_D = 2\lceil (n+1)/k \rceil + w - 1$ ,  $R_C \sim 1$ ,  $R_D \sim 2 + (kw)/(n+w) \sim 2$ , and  $R \sim 2$ . Note that when  $k = n+1$ , this reduces to the case of  $n+1$  independent PE's.

### C. Bidirectional Chain

Kung [2] and Leiserson [5] have proposed an  $O(n)$  bandwidth bidirectional chain architecture to solve the band-matrix  $\times$  vector problem. Since the FIR filter problem is a special case of the band-matrix  $\times$  vector problem,



Fig. 5.  $n$  PE broadcast chain.

```

Y(i) ← 0      0 ≤ i ≤ n
for j ← 0 to n - 1 do    { input  $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}$  }
  do in parallel
    X(i) ← X(i + 1)      0 ≤ i ≤ n - 1
    X(n) ←  $x_j$ 
  end
end
for j ← 1 to w do
  do in parallel
    broadcast  $a_j$  to A(i),      0 ≤ i ≤ n
    X(i) ← X(i + 1)      0 ≤ i ≤ n - 1
    X(n) ←  $x_{n+j-1}$ 
  end
  Y(i) ← Y(i) + X(i) * A(i)      0 ≤ i ≤ n
end
output  $y_0, \dots, y_n$ 

```

Fig. 6. Algorithm for  $n$  PE broadcast chain.

the same architecture can also be used to solve the FIR filter problem. However, since only one row of coefficients of the band matrix is unique, only  $O(1)$  bandwidth is required. The resulting architecture is shown in Fig. 7.

The  $x$  values are input from the right with one  $x$  value entering every two cycles. The  $a$  values may be entered from the left using the left-to-right connections. Hence, the initialization process takes  $w$  cycles and leaves  $A(i) = a_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq w$  and  $X(i) = x_{\lfloor i/2 \rfloor}$  for  $i$  odd,  $1 \leq i \leq w$ . Following this, there are  $2n + w$  cycles in which each processor updates its  $Y$  register to  $Y + AX$  and then transmits its  $Y$  register content right and its  $X$  register content left. A new  $y$  and  $x$  value enter the system every two cycles.

The performance figures for this design are readily seen to be  $P = w$ ,  $B = 2$ ,  $T_C = 2n + w$ ,  $T_D = 2(n + w)$ ,  $R_C \sim 2$ ,  $R_D \sim 2$ , and  $R \sim 4$ .

Leiserson [5] has pointed out that pairs of processors may be combined, as only half the processors are active at any time. When this is done,  $R_C$  and  $R$  become 1 and 2, respectively.

Robert and Tchunte [6] have proposed a  $w + 1$  PE bidirectional chain with improved throughput. The same throughput can be obtained using only  $w$  PE's. Our new bidirectional chain design is similar to that of [6] and to that proposed in [9] for the back-substitution problem. Fig. 8(a) and (b) shows an example for each of the cases:  $w$  even and  $w$  odd. The corresponding algorithm is shown in Fig. 9. The PE's at the left compute all terms involving the  $a_i$ 's for  $i$  odd while those on the right compute all terms for  $i$  even. All PE's (except PE( $w$ )) have three registers  $A$ ,  $X$ , and  $Y$ . PE( $w$ ) has an additional register  $Z$ .  $Y$  values move towards the middle PE, PE( $w$ ), while  $X$  values move

from the middle to the two ends. In each cycle, each PE (except PE( $w$ )) computes  $Y \leftarrow Y + AX$ , while PE( $w$ ) computes  $Y \leftarrow (Y + Z) + AX$ . Hence, the computation time per cycle is  $\max\{t_{ADD}, t_{MUL}\} + t_{ADD}$  where  $t_{ADD}$  is the time to add and  $t_{MUL}$  is the time to multiply. Assuming that  $t_{ADD} \leq t_{MUL}$ , this time is the same as for the other designs.

The performance figures for the design are  $P = w$ ,  $B = 2$ ,  $T_C = n + \lfloor w/2 \rfloor + 1$ ,  $T_D = n + 2w + 1$ ,  $R_C \sim 1$ ,  $R_D \sim 1$ , and  $R \sim 1$ .

The throughput can be further improved. One way to accomplish this is to use  $k$  subsystems of  $w$  PE's each as we did with the  $w$  PE broadcast chain design. As remarked there, the resulting VLSI system does not compute the  $y_i$ 's in ascending order of  $i$ . An alternative is to distribute the  $y_i$ 's such that subsystem  $b$  computes  $y_i$ ,  $i = b + jk$ ,  $j = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . In this case the  $y_i$ 's are computed in the right order. Fig. 8(c) shows the design for the case  $w = 8$  and  $k = 2$ . The first subsystem is used to compute all the  $y_i$ 's for  $i$  even and the second to compute all the  $y_i$ 's for  $i$  odd. The computation of each such  $y_i$  is divided into four independent subcomputations. We note that the method may be extended to get an  $o(n/k)$  throughput design for any fixed  $k$  by computing  $k$   $y_i$ 's in each cycle. Unlike the back-substitution problem [9], the scalar product (1) does not need to be put into another form since all the  $x_i$ 's are available before computation starts. The VLSI system that incorporates this is quite a bit more complex. We shall not present the details here.

#### D. Unidirectional Chain

References [3] and [4] have proposed a unidirectional chain design to solve the FIR filter problem. Fig. 10(a) shows their architecture. The corresponding algorithm is given in Fig. 11. Each PE has four registers:  $A$ ,  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$ . The  $Z$  register is used to delay the rightward motion of the  $x$ 's. Each  $x$  value enters a PE through its  $Z$  register, then moves to the  $X$  register in the next cycle, and exits on the following cycle to the  $Z$  register of the PE on its right.

The operation of the VLSI system has two phases to it. The first is the initialization phase in which  $A(i)$  is initialized to  $a_i$ . While this is happening, half the PE's get their  $X$  and  $Z$  registers initialized to  $x$  values. Fig. 10(b) shows the status after this. In each cycle of the second phase, the  $X$ ,  $Z$ , and  $Y$  values move rightwards and the  $Y$  values get updated. Fig. 10(c) shows the status following  $w$  cycles of the second phase. The algorithm is given in Fig. 11.

The performance figures of this design are  $P = w$ ,  $B = 2$ ,  $T_C = n + w$ ,  $T_D = n + 2w + 1$ ,  $R_C \sim 1 + w/n \sim 1$ ,  $R_D \sim 1 + w/(n + w) \sim 1$ , and  $R \sim 1$ .

Once again, the throughput may be improved using the strategy of Section II-B. An alternative which results in the

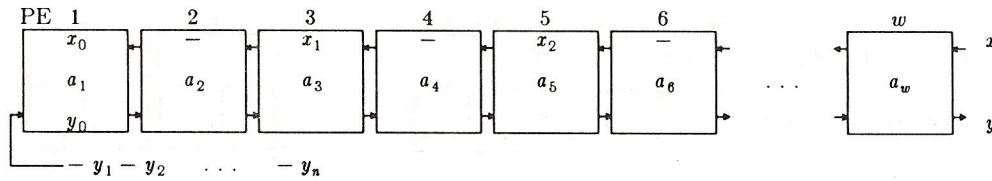
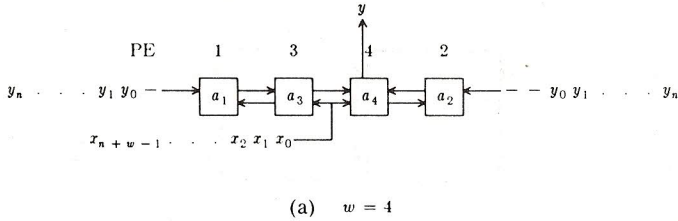
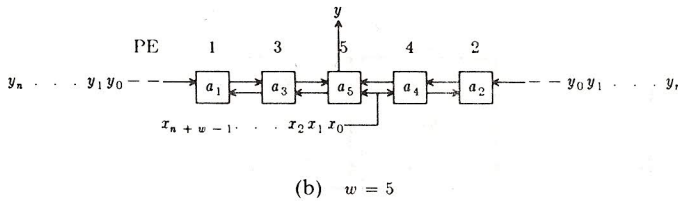
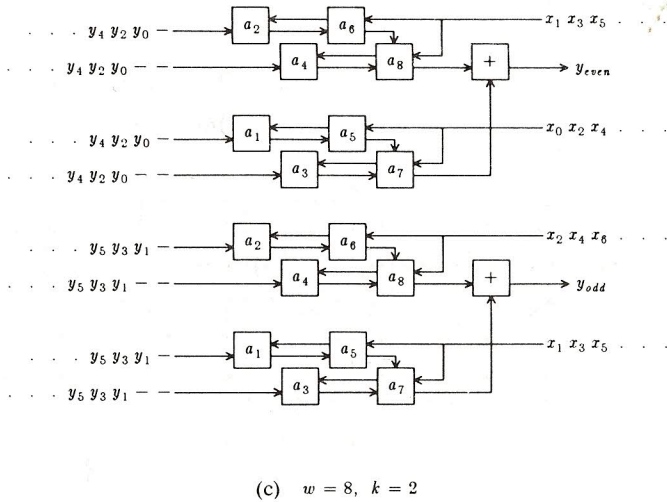


Fig. 7. Bidirectional chain.

(a)  $w = 4$ (b)  $w = 5$ (c)  $w = 8, k = 2$ Fig. 8. Improved throughput bidirectional chain. (a)  $w = 4$ . (b)  $w = 5$ . (c)  $w = 8, k = 2$ .

$y_i$ 's being output in ascending order of  $i$  is described below. For any fixed  $k$ , each PE has  $k + 1$   $X$  registers and  $k$   $Y$  registers. A total of  $w$  PE's are used. The  $k + 1$  registers are set up in  $k$  rows with one row having two registers. The row with two registers shifts up cyclically as we move to the right on the chain of PE's. Fig. 12(a) shows the case  $k = 2, w = 5$  and Fig. 12(b) shows the case  $k = 3, w = 5$ . Each PE has enough hardware to update all its registers in parallel. In each cycle of the VLSI system, the following events occur.

1) Each PE transmits  $X$  values to the right. For some  $X$  registers, this is an inter-PE transfer [e.g.,  $x_{11}$  moves to the register currently containing  $x_9$  in Fig. 12(a)]. For others, this is an intra-PE transfer (e.g.,  $x_{13}$  is transferred to the

$A(i) \leftarrow a_i \quad 1 \leq i \leq w \quad \{ \text{input } a_i \}$

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $\lfloor (w-1)/2 \rfloor$  do

do in parallel

$X(w) \leftarrow X(w-1) \leftarrow x_{j-1}$

$X(i) \leftarrow X(i+2) \quad 1 \leq i \leq w-2$

end

end

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n+w$  do

do in parallel

$X(w) \leftarrow X(w-1) \leftarrow x_{j + \lfloor (w-1)/2 \rfloor - 1}$

$X(i) \leftarrow X(i+2) \quad 1 \leq i \leq w-2$

$Y(i) \leftarrow Y(i-2) \quad 3 \leq i \leq w$

$Y(1) \leftarrow Y(2) \leftarrow 0$

$Z(w) \leftarrow Y(w-1)$

output  $Y(w) \quad \{ \text{output } y_{j - \lfloor w/2 \rfloor - 2} \}$

end

do in parallel

$Y(w) \leftarrow (Y(w) + Z(w)) + A(w) * X(w)$

$Y(i) \leftarrow Y(i) + A(i) * X(i) \quad 1 \leq i \leq w-1$

end

end

output  $Y(w) \quad \{ \text{output } y_n \}$

Fig. 9. Algorithm for improved throughput bidirectional chain.

register currently containing  $x_{11}$ ). The leftmost PE inputs  $k$   $x$  values into its  $k$  leftmost  $X$  registers.

2) Each PE transmits  $k$   $Y$  values to the right. The leftmost PE zeros its  $k$   $Y$  registers.

3) Each PE updates its  $k$   $Y$  registers by computing  $Y \leftarrow Y + AX$ . The  $X$  value used varies with each PE. For example, in Fig. 12(a), each PE uses its square register to update all even  $y_i$ 's and the circle register for the odd  $y_i$ 's.

Events 1) and 2) occur in parallel while event 3) occurs after events 1) and 2) have completed. Let us trace  $y_8$  through the system of Fig. 12(a). We see that the terms accumulated are  $x_{12}a_5 + x_{11}a_4 + x_{10}a_3 + x_9a_2 + x_8a_1$ . A formal correctness proof is easily obtained.

In obtaining the performance figures for this design, we count each PE as  $k$  PE's as the hardware in each is about  $k$  times that in each of the PE's used in our earlier designs. So, we get  $P \sim kw, B = 2k, T_C = \lceil (n+1)/k \rceil + w - 1$ .



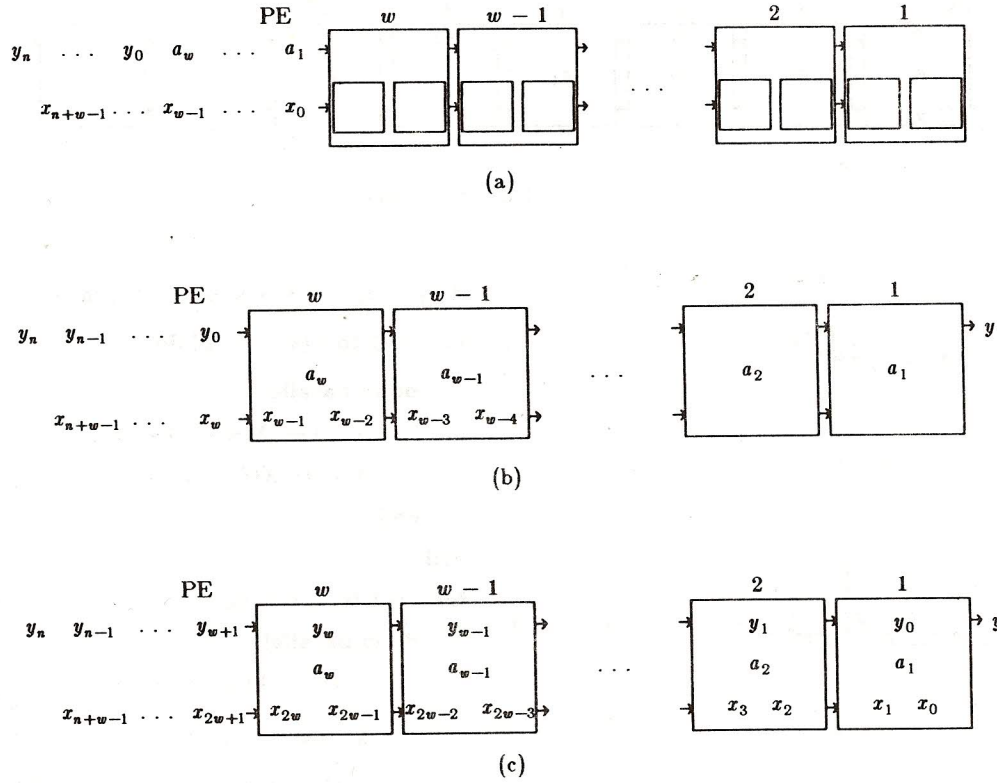


Fig. 10. Unidirectional chain.

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $w$  do

do in parallel

$A(w) \leftarrow a_j$

$A(i) \leftarrow A(i+1)$

$Z(w) \leftarrow x_{j-1}$

$X(i) \leftarrow Z(i)$

$Z(i) \leftarrow X(i+1)$

end

end

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n+w$  do

do in parallel

$Y(w) \leftarrow 0$

$Y(i) \leftarrow Y(i+1)$

output  $Y(1)$

$Z(w) \leftarrow x_{j+w-1}$

$X(i) \leftarrow Z(i)$

$Z(i) \leftarrow X(i+1)$

end

$Y(i) \leftarrow Y(i) + A(i) * X(i)$

end

output  $Y(1)$  { output  $y_n$  }

Fig. 11. Algorithm for unidirectional chain.

{ input  $a_j$  }

$1 \leq i \leq w-1$

{ input  $x_{j-1}$  }

$1 \leq i \leq w$

$1 \leq i \leq w-1$

{ initialize  $y_{j-1}$  to 0 }

$1 \leq i \leq w-1$

{ output  $y_{j-w-1}$  }

$1 \leq i \leq w$

$1 \leq i \leq w-1$

$1 \leq i \leq w$

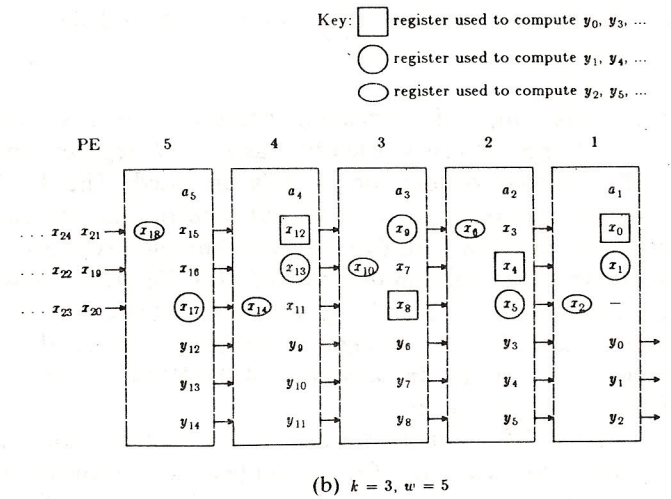
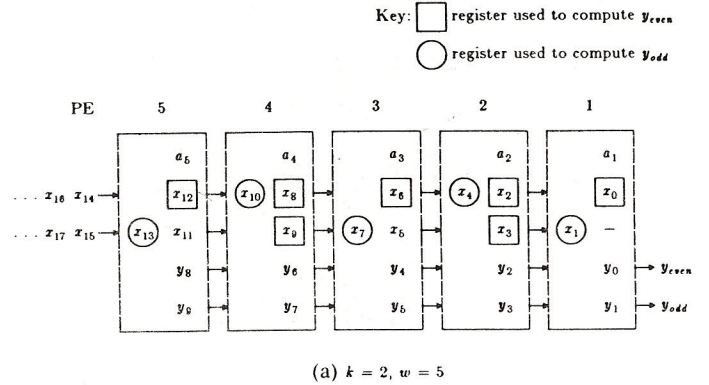
Fig. 12. Improved throughput unidirectional chain. (a)  $k = 2, w = 5$ . (b)  $k = 3, w = 5$ .





TABLE I  
PERFORMANCE SUMMARY

Performance	Architecture				
	Broadcast Chain		Bidirectional Chain		Unidirectional Chain
			[KUNG79]	Our	
$P$	$w$	$n+1$	$w/2$	$w$	$w$
$B$	2	2	2	2	2
$T_C$	$n+w$	$w$	$2n+w$	$n + \lceil w/2 \rceil$	$n+w$
$T_D$	$n+2w$	$2n+w$	$2(n+w)$	$n+2w$	$n+2w$
$R_C$	1	1	1	1	1
$R_D$	1	2	2	1	1
$R$	1	2	2	1	1

$$C = (n+1)w, D = 2(n+w) + 1$$

TABLE II  
PERFORMANCE SUMMARY

Performance	Architecture				
	Broadcast Chain		Bidirectional Chain	Unidirectional Chain	Systolic Ring
$P$	$kw$	$n+1$	$kw+k(k-1)$	$kw$	$kw$
$B$	$2k$	$2k$	$k(k+1)$	$2k$	$2k$
$T_C$	$\left\lceil \frac{n+1}{k} \right\rceil + w$	$w$	$o(n/k)$	$\left\lceil \frac{n+1}{k} \right\rceil + w$	$\left\lceil \frac{n}{k} \right\rceil + w$
$T_D$	$\left\lceil \frac{n+1}{k} \right\rceil + 2w$	$2\left\lceil \frac{n+1}{k} \right\rceil + w$	$o(n/k)$	$\left\lceil \frac{n+1}{k} \right\rceil + 2w$	$\left\lceil \frac{n}{k} \right\rceil + 2w$
$R_C$	$1+(kw)/n$	1	1	$1+(kw)/n$	$1+(kw)/n$
$R_D$	$1 + \frac{2kw}{n+w}$	$2 + \frac{kw}{n+w}$	$(k+1)/2$	$1 + \frac{2kw}{n+w}$	$1 + \frac{(2k-1)w}{(n+w)}$
$R$	1	2	$(k+1)/2$	$\sim 1$	$\sim 1$

$$C = (n+1)w, D = 2(n+w) + 1$$

seen, all three architectures: broadcast chain, unidirectional chain, and bidirectional chain approach an  $R$  of 1 while providing about the same throughput. Table II summarizes the performance figures for the improved throughput designs. Only in the case of a bidirectional chain are we unable to get a design with  $R = 1$ .

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