A High-Definition H.264/AVC Intra-Frame Codec IP for Digital Video and Still Camera Applications

Chun-Wei Ku, Chao-Chung Cheng, Guo-Shiuan Yu, Min-Chi Tsai, and Tian-Sheuan Chang, Member, IEEE

Abstract—This paper presents a real-time high-definition 720p@30fps H.264/MPEG-4 AVC intra-frame codec IP suitable for digital video and digital still camera applications. The whole design is optimized in both the algorithm and architecture levels. In the algorithm level, we propose to remove the area-costly plane mode, and enhance the cost function to reduce hardware cost and to increase the processing speed while provide nearly the same quality. In the architecture design, in additional to the fast module implementation the process is arranged in the macroblock-level pipelining style together with three careful scheduling techniques to avoid the idle cycles and improve the data throughput. The whole codec design only needs 103 K gate count for a core size of 1.28×1.28 mm² and achieves real-time encoding and decoding at 117 and 25.5 MHz, respectively, when implemented by 0.18- μ m CMOS technology.

Index Terms—High definition, intra-frame codec, ISO/IEC 14496-10 AVC, ITU-T Rec. H.264, Joint Video Team (JVT).

I. INTRODUCTION

ITH the demand of higher video quality, lower bit rate, and feasibility of fast growing semiconductor processing, a new video coding standard is developed by the Joint Video Team (JVT) of ISO/IEC MPEG and ITU-T VCEG as the next generation video compression standard, which is known as H.264 or MPEG-4 Part 10 Advanced Video Coding (MPEG-4 AVC) [1]. Comparing with previous MPEG-2 and MPEG-4 video standards, the latest H.264 video coding can improve the coding efficiency by up to 50% with various newly introduced coding tools [2]. These new tools include the simplified transform, variable block-size motion compensation, and context adaptive entropy coding. A new intra-frame prediction technique is also introduced to use neighboring pixel values to predict currently coding block, instead of the simple dc/ac predictions in MPEG-4. The intra-frame coding capability in H.264 can achieve higher coding efficiency than that in the previous standards and even competitive with the latest still image coding standard, JPEG2000 [3]. Thus, this intra-only

Manuscript received December 7, 2005; revised April 24, 2006. This work was supported in part by the National Science Council, Taiwan, R.O.C., under Grant NSC-93-2200-E-009-028. This paper was recommended by Associate Editor K.-H.Tzou.

- C.-W. Ku is with MediaTek, Inc., Hsinchu 300, Taiwan, R.O.C.
- C.-C. Cheng is with the Graduate Institute of Electronics Engineering, National Taiwan University, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan, R.O.C.
 - G.-S. Yu is with Faraday Technology Inc., Hsinchu 300, Taiwan, R.O.C.
- M.-C. Tsai is with Andes Technology Inc., Hsinchu 300, Taiwan, R.O.C.
- T.-S. Chang is with the Department of Electronics Engineering, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan, R.O.C. (e-mail: tschang@twins.ee.nctu.edu.tw).

Color versions of Figs. 3, 6–10, 14, and 15 are available online at http://iee-explore.ieee.org.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TCSVT.2006.879992

coding and decoding is very suitable for applications like digital video recorder and digital still camera that do not need or cannot afford the inter prediction capability.

In this paper, we present an H.264 intra-frame codec IP chip that can be configured as both encoder and decoder. The chip combines and shares encoder and decoder hardware resources for lower area cost. The design is optimized from algorithm level to architecture level for hardware implementation. In the intra-codec process, the intra-prediction occupies most of the computing cycles, in which the plane mode implementation occupies significant cycle count and half of area of intra-predictor. Thus, in the hardware oriented algorithm level optimization, we try to eliminate the plane mode usage. However, direct removal will cause quality degradation. Therefore, we propose an enhanced cost function to improve the quality a little bit first to compensate the quality loss of plane mode removal. This algorithm optimization significantly reduces the required processing cycles in hardware and saves almost half of intra-prediction hardware and buffer cost with negligible quality loss. Furthermore, in the architecture level, we balance the processing speed of hardware design by macroblock level pipelining, and minimize its idle cycles by three scheduling techniques. The area cost and processing speed are further optimized by the bottom module designs, like reconfigurable intra-prediction datapath and zero-skipped context adaptive variable length coding (CAVLC) codec. Besides, the decoding process can easily fit into the encoding one with additional CAVLC decoder, a few multiplexers, and buffers due to modularized design approaches. The final chip implementation can achieve real-time high-defintion (HD) sized encoding and decoding with low hardware cost and operating frequency.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we first briefly take an overview of H.264 intra-coding and decoding flow. Then, we present our algorithm-level optimizations to fit the hardware design in the concern of cost and quality in Section III. Section IV shows the entire codec architecture and its detailed component designs. The experimental results of implementation and comparison with other H.264 encoder or decoder are shown in Section V. Finally, a conclusion remark is given in Section VI.

II. OVERVIEW OF H.264 INTRA-CODING AND DECODING

Figs. 1 and 2 show the intra-frame encoding flow and decoding flow of H.264 [1], respectively. To encode a macroblock in the intra-frame, the process first performs the intra-mode prediction. Then the prediction mode with minimum cost value is chosen as the best mode by cost generation and mode decision function. Residuals after the prediction are further processed by the forward transform, quantization, dequantization, inverse

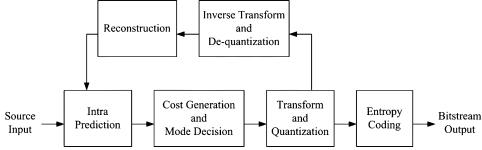


Fig. 1. H.264/AVC intra-frame encoding flow.

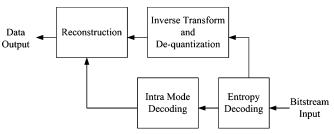


Fig. 2. H.264/AVC intra-frame decoding flow.

transform, and finally reconstructed as reference for next macroblock processing. Besides, the coefficients after quantization and mode information are handled by entropy coding, CAVLC and universal variable length coding (UVLC). On the contrary, the decoding process recovers residuals through CAVLC decoder, dequantization, and inverse transform in the proper order. With residuals, decoded macroblocks can be reconstructed by adding them to predicted data according to the mode information. For details, see [1].

A. Intra-Prediction

The intra-prediction modes for the luma components can be one of nine 4×4 modes or one of four 16×16 modes. These intra-prediction modes will use the neighboring boundary pixels of upper and left blocks as the reference. The prediction process is the performance bottleneck in hardware design of encoder since prediction for the next block has to wait for the reconstructed reference samples from feedback loop. Similar procedures are also applied to the chroma components.

B. Cost Generation and Mode Decision

The best mode decision of intra-prediction¹ can be either the time consuming rate distortion optimization (RDO) or just much simpler sum of absolute transform difference (SATD) of each 4×4 block defined as follows:

$$C = SATD$$
 (For most probable mode) (1)

(2)

$$C = SATD + 4\lambda(Q_p)$$
 (For other modes)

SATD =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{4} \sum_{j=1}^{4} |T(s_{ij} - p_{ij})|$$
 (3)

¹H.264/MPEG-4 AVC Reference Software JM8.6

TABLE I H.264/AVC QUANTIZATION COEFFICIENTS

	Positions	Positions	
QP	(0,0),(2,0),(2,2),(0,2)	(1,1),(1,3),(3,1),(3,3)	Other positions
0	13107	5243	8066
1	11916	4660	7490
2	10082	4194	6554
3	9362	3647	5825
4	8192	3355	5243
5	7282	2893	4559

where $\lambda(Qp)$ denotes the lambda values which are derived from the approximate exponential function depending on the quantization parameters, and sij and pij are the (i,j)th elements of source block and predicted block, respectively. Since there are 52 quantization parameters, there are total 52 related lambda values. In addition, the function T(x) in (3) represents the 4 \times 4 discrete Hadamard transform (DHT), as shown in (4), where the matrix X means the residual matrix

C. Transform and Quantization

In H.264, an approximated 4 \times 4 discrete cosine transform (DCT) is used. It can be divided into two parts, 4 \times 4 integer transform and fractional scalar multiplication factors that are further merged into the quantization stage. The forward 4 \times 4 integer transform with quantization is illustrated in (5), and the inverse one with dequantization is illustrated in (6). In which, the matrices with factors a and b denote the scalar multiplication. The dc values of sixteen blocks will be further processed by 4 \times 4 DHT or 2 \times 2 DHT for the 16 \times 16 and 8 \times 8 intra-predictions. The data after transformed are then quantized by integer quantization.

In the quantization stage, there are 52 values of quantization parameters and corresponding quantization steps supplied in H.264 standard. The scaling factors mentioned above are incorporated into these quantization coefficients. These coefficients are implemented in the reference software as multiplication tables shown in Tables I and II. After this stage, the quantized data

	Positions	Positions	
QP	(0,0),(2,0),(2,2),(0,2)	(1,1),(1,3),(3,1),(3,3)	Other positions
0	10	16	13
1	11	18	14
2	13	20	16
3	14	23	18
4	16	25	20
5	18	29	23

TABLE II H.264/AVC DEQUANTIZATION COEFFICIENTS

is sent to not only entropy coding unit but feedback loop to be reconstructed

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ X \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\otimes \begin{bmatrix} a^{2} & ab/2 & a^{2} & ab/2 \\ ab/2 & b^{2}/4 & ab/2 & b^{2}/4 \\ a^{2} & ab/2 & a^{2} & ab/2 \\ ab/2 & b^{2}/4 & ab/2 & b^{2}/4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X_{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 1 & 1/2 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1/2 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\times \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} a^{2} & ab & a^{2} & ab \\ ab & b^{2} & ab & b^{2} \\ a^{2} & ab & a^{2} & ab \\ ab & b^{2} & ab & b^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1/2 & -1/2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} .$$

$$(6)$$

D. Entropy Coding

In baseline profile, standard uses CAVLC for coding the quantized samples to bit stream. The following items are coded in a proper order: number of nonzero coefficients, sign marks of trailing ones, levels of remaining nonzero coefficients, number of total zeros, and runs of zeros between nonzero coefficients. The decoding process is the reverse of the encoding one. For encoding process, the coefficients should be first scanned in the reversed zigzag order before coding.

III. HARDWARE ORIENTED ALGORITHM OPTIMIZATION

A. Enhanced SATD Cost Function for Mode Decision

In determining the coding performance of intra-only H.264, the cost function for mode decision is the most important part. In which, though RDO can provide the best performance, its complexity hinders its use in the hardware design. Thus, the SATD method is adopted. However, how to determine the transform for SATD computation will become the main issue now. The transform choice used in SATD should be computationally simple

but also effective to estimate the energy of the signals. Thus, in the reference software, the 4×4 DHT is adopted, but it is far from the real transform in the whole encoding process. A better choice for SATD shall approximate the effect of transform and quantization as that used in H.264 encoding to estimate the real bit rate. Therefore, previous designs [4], [5] use the 4×4 integer transform as the choice. Although their approaches can achieve better performance than DHT does, it is still not good enough since the fractional multiplication factors do not be taken into consideration. A complete transform function in H.264 shall include both the integer transform and multiplication factors in the quantization formula as shown in (5). However, to incorporate these factors into the cost function directly will cost a lot of computation since they are not simple numbers for computation. Besides, these factors cannot be directly derived from (5) since the quantization coefficients shall also be included.

To solve the problems, we propose a new cost function that combines the integer transform and simplified multiplication factors. The simplified factors are derived from quantization coefficients shown in Tables I and II. Derivation from the quantization coefficients enables us to consider both the effect of transform and quantization. From these tables, we can obtain the required factors by approximating the relationship among the reciprocal of dequantization coefficients and simplifying them to be computationally simple as

1/quant_coef:

$$p(0,0)^{-1}: p(0,1)^{-1}: p(1,1)^{-1} \sim = 30: 19: 12$$
 (7)
1/dequant_coef:
 $p(0,0)^{-1}: p(0,1)^{-1}: p(1,1)^{-1} \sim = 30: 25: 20$ (8)

where the symbols p(x,y) represent the quantization and dequantization coefficients of different positions in Tables I and II. These simplified scaling factors from inverse quantization are adopted as shown in (9) by considering the final performance and implementation cost. In the formula, division by 32 is added to avoid the enlargement of the cost values, which can be carried out with simple wiring to reduce computational complexity as well as hardware cost. Therefore, this cost function is able to estimate the energy of residuals after the transform more accurate than other methods while keeps computation simple and suitable for hardware implementation. Besides, it can provide better quality than that in the reference software and can be used to compensate the quality loss of plane mode removal discussed in the next subsection.

$$C(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ X \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\otimes \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 25 & 32 & 25 \\ 25 & 20 & 25 & 20 \\ 32 & 25 & 32 & 25 \\ 25 & 20 & 25 & 20 \end{bmatrix} /32.$$

$$(9)$$

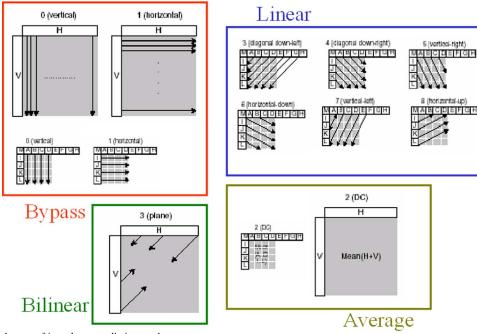


Fig. 3. Four categorized types of intra-luma prediction modes.

TABLE III Probability Distribution of All 16 \times 16 Modes in Different Sequences With 300 I-Frames When $\mathrm{QP}=28$

Camianaa	16x16 modes							
Sequence	Total ratio	Veritical	Horizontal	DC	Plane			
Mobile	3.3%	0.8%	1.0%	1.3%	0.2%			
Coastguard	10.7%	0.8%	3.8%	4.6%	1.6%			
Stefan	20.7%	3.4%	12.8%	2.0%	2.5%			
Paris	15.5%	3.2%	4.6%	4.4%	3.4%			
Foreman	23.1%	5.1%	4.3%	8.0%	5.7%			
Akiyo	47.5%	5.3%	4.8%	25.7%	11.8%			

B. Plane Mode Removal

The various intra-prediction modes can further be organized systematically into four types according to their prediction properties and computation complexity. These four types of intraluma prediction modes are illustrated in Fig. 3: bypass, average, linear, and bilinear type. The bypass type is easy to be implemented since the prediction samples are the same as boundary pixels. In average type, neighboring eight pixels (for 4×4 prediction) or 32 pixels (for 16 × 16 prediction) are summarized and divided to generate an average value for all prediction samples. The linear type contains most of the 4×4 prediction modes with directional approach, and the samples are linearly interpolated from boundary pixels. Finally, in the bilinear type, also known as plane mode, samples are derived by the approximation of bilinear function. Though being simplified to be only integer arithmetic operations, the plane mode is still much more computationally complex than other modes, hard to reuse its results for other prediction, and occupies almost half of the area in intra-prediction unit.

A solution for this problem is to eliminate the plane mode from the intra-prediction and replace it with other modes. This may raise the issue of performance loss. Table III shows the probability distribution of all 16×16 prediction modes. The macroblocks predicted in plane mode is only 4.2% in average

and generally not larger than 5.7% except the sequence "Akiyo" which contains smooth image. However, after simulation we find that the intra-prediction with plane mode only reduces about 1% of bit rate than that without plane mode for those video sequences. The loss of 1% bit rate difference can be easily compensated by the proposed enhanced cost function. With this, we can achieve almost the same results as the original one but save lots of computational cycles and area cost.

C. Simulation Results

Table IV illustrates the comparison results for encoding of six CIF-size sequences with all intra-frames in different quantization parameters (QP) among four algorithms: the original reference software, SAITD algorithm in [5], proposed enhanced cost function, and the previous one combining with plane mode removal. In most cases of the simulation, it is obvious that the proposed cost function is able to achieve better coding efficiency than or [5] does, with almost the same or even better PSNR. We can also observe that the proposed algorithm can reduce average 0.08% bit rate for all sequences. After combining with technique of plane mode removal, the bit rate increase is compensated and not larger than 0.06% in average. Fig. 4 shows two rate-distortion (RD) curves of sequences "Foreman" and "Stefan," where QP range is from 16 to 34. The curves of proposed algorithm are very close to those from reference code and even better in the high bit rate coding. The algorithm-level optimization makes the final hardware design not only simpler but also with good video quality.

IV. ARCHITECTURE DESIGN

A. Analysis of Hardware Complexity

To achieve the target throughput for our target of video application, HD 720p (1280×720 at 30 fps), the complexity of hardware shall be first analyzed before design. Table V shows the

 $TABLE\ IV$ Comparison Between the Original , Previous Algorithm [5], and Proposed Algorithm in 300 Intra-Frames

Sequence	QP		Ji	м 8.6		\$	SAITD Alg	gorithun in	[6]	Рторо	sed Enhan	ced Cost I	unction	Propos		ed Cost Fo de Remov	
		SNR Y	SNR U	SNR V	Bit-rate	SNR Y	SNR U	SNR V	Bit-rate	SNR Y	SNR U	SNR V	Bit-rate	SNR Y	SNR U	SNR V	Bit-rate
	10	51.16	51.48	51.57	14916.58	+0.01	+0.00	+0.00	+0.13%	+0.00	+0.00	+0.00	-0.11%	+0.00	+0.00	+0.00	-0.08%
	16	46.38	47.27	47.43	10537.41	+0.10	+0.00	+0.00	+0.11%	+0.06	+0.00	-0.01	-0.16%	+0.06	+0.00	+0.00	-0.11%
Stefan	22	41.36	43.10	43.15	7173.14	+0.02	-0.08	-0.08	+0.14%	-0.01	-0.09	-0.08	-0.19%	-0.01	-0.09	-0.08	-0.11%
Stetan	28	36.41	38.95	38.96	4585.29	-0.02	-0.23	-0.24	+0.15%	-0.05	-0.23	-0.24	-0.24%	-0.05	-0.23	-0.25	-0.16%
	34	31.55	36.31	36.26	2738.20	-0.04	-0.44	-0.47	+0.55%	-0.07	-0.44	-0.47	-0.16%	-0.08	-0.46	-0.48	-0.10%
	40	27.15	34.04	33.82	1497.84	-0.03	-0.48	-0.50	+1.60%	-0.12	-0.48	-0.50	-0.04%	-0.12	-0.56	-0.54	-0.09%
	10	51.05	51.16	51.21	20465.17	+0.01	+0.00	+0.01	+0.01%	+0.00	+0.00	+0.00	-0.10%	+0.00	+0.00	+0.01	-0.08%
	16	45.93	46.25	46.29	15361.27	+0.04	+0.01	+0.01	+0.05%	+0.04	+0.01	+0.01	-0.10%	+0.04	+0.01	+0.01	-0.08%
Mobile	22	40.39	41.34	41.34	10885.73	+0.02	-0.07	-0.07	+0.12%	+0.01	-0.07	-0.07	-0.13%	+0.01	-0.07	-0.06	-0.10%
Moone	28	35.04	36.88	36.76	7179.38	+0.03	-0.17	-0.18	+0.26%	+0.01	-0.17	-0.18	-0.16%	+0.01	-0.16	-0.18	-0.12%
	34	29.94	34.07	33.84	4407.88	+0.02	-0.27	-0.26	+0.70%	-0.02	-0.27	-0.26	-0.13%	-0.02	-0.26	-0.26	-0.06%
	40	25.44	31.56	31.22	2423.79	+0.03	-0.38	-0.38	+1.63%	-0.06	-0.38	-0.38	+0.01%	-0.06	-0.38	-0.39	+0.09%
	10	51.04	51.44	51.70	14685.35	+0.01	+0.01	+0.00	+0.05%	+0.00	+0.00	+0.00	-0.09%	+0.00	+0.01	+0.01	-0.06%
	16	46.16	47.35	47.63	10114.93	+0.08	-0.05	-0.05	+0.12%	+0.06	-0.05	-0.05	-0.09%	+0.06	-0.05	-0.04	-0.00%
Paris	22	41.26	43.42	43.59	6701.11	-0.02	-0.27	-0.23	+0.39%	-0.05	-0.27	-0.23	-0.05%	-0.04	-0.28	-0.22	+0.03%
Pans	28	36.49	39.40	39.54	4235.43	-0.05	-0.50	-0.34	+0.70%	-0.10	-0.50	-0.34	-0.06%	-0.10	-0.52	-0.36	+0.09%
	34	31.91	36.67	36.92	2529.59	-0.15	-0.60	-0.52	+0.83%	-0.22	-0.59	-0.52	-0.06%	-0.23	-0.63	-0.52	+0.12%
	40	27.65	34.20	34.63	1403.82	-0.20	-0.64	-0.54	+1.20%	-0.28	-0.65	-0.54	-0.12%	-0.29	-0.67	-0.57	+0.10%
	10	51.37	51.64	52.03	7486.68	+0.04	+0.00	-0.01	+0.54%	+0.01	+0.00	-0.01	-0.08%	+0.02	+0.01	+0.00	+0.12%
	16	47.34	48.46	49.40	4159.54	+0.16	-0.06	-0.11	+0.95%	+0.09	-0.05	-0.12	-0.10%	+0.10	-0.06	-0.12	+0.42%
Akiyo	22	43.82	45.93	47.03	2326.15	+0.00	-0.29	-0.39	+1.20%	-0.12	-0.31	-0.39	-0.17%	-0.12	-0.37	-0.41	+0.44%
AKIYO	28	40.33	42.52	43.93	1370.30	-0.18	-0.53	-0.77	+1.49%	-0.33	-0.54	-0.76	+0.27%	-0.35	-0.63	-0.85	+0.62%
	34	36.60	40.08	41.83	810.03	-0.34	-0.54	-0.92	+1.50%	-0.53	-0.53	-0.93	+0.66%	-0.60	-0.66	-1.08	+0.64%
	40	32.73	37.50	39.97	477.60	-0.41	-0.60	-0.76	+3.31%	-0.67	-0.59	-0.77	-0.10%	-0.72	-0.57	-1.02	+0.36%
	10	51.09	51.52	51.87	11838.11	+0.02	+0.00	+0.00	+0.05%	+0.01	+0.00	+0.00	-0.16%	+0.01	+0.01	+0.01	-0.13%
	16	46.26	47.56	48.57	7665.68	+0.10	+0.03	-0.01	+0.28%	+0.08	+0.03	-0.01	-0.14%	+0.08	+0.03	+0.00	-0.04%
Foreman	22	41.46	44.10	45.91	4511.86	+0.09	-0.16	-0.26	+0.90%	+0.04	-0.16	-0.27	-0.10%	+0.04	-0.16	-0.27	+0.04%
rusciliali	28	37.26	40.91	42.79	2467.35	+0.03	-0.32	-0.42	+1.80%	-0.06	-0.32	-0.42	-0.08%	-0.06	-0.34	-0.46	+0.10%
	34	33.47	39.27	40.75	1298.85	-0.06	-0.36	-0.50	+3.00%	-0.24	-0.36	-0.50	+0.04%	-0.24	-0.41	-0.57	+0.39%
	40	30.01	37.79	38.63	665.23	-0.08	-0.31	-0.50	+5.57%	-0.39	-0.31	-0.50	-0.03%	-0.41	-0.37	-0.59	+0.67%
	10	51.03	51.70	52.09	13665.67	+0.01	-0.01	+0.00	+0.02%	+0.00	-0.01	+0.00	-0.17%	+0.00	-0.01	+0.00	-0.16%
	16	45.88	48.20	49.05	9454.85	+0.04	+0.06	+0.05	+0.15%	+0.04	+0.06	+0.05	-0.20%	+0.04	+0.06	+0.05	-0.18%
C	22	40.48	45.56	46.94	5955.56	+0.07	-0.13	-0.11	+0.44%	+0.07	-0.13	-0.11	-0.20%	+0.07	-0.14	-0.12	-0.18%
Coastguard	28	35.63	43.08	44.72	3437.66	+0.15	-0.27	-0.15	+1.33%	+0.12	-0.27	-0.15	-0.11%	+0.12	-0.35	-0.18	-0.14%
	34	31.51	41.47	43.21	1812.79	+0.04	-0.28	-0.10	+2.16%	-0.05	-0.28	-0.10	-0.14%	-0.05	-0.40	-0.15	-0.10%
	40	27.94	40.11	41.95	882.64	-0.04	-0.27	-0.14	+2.70%	-0.17	-0.26	-0.13	-0.09%	-0.18	-0.38	-0.23	+0.01%

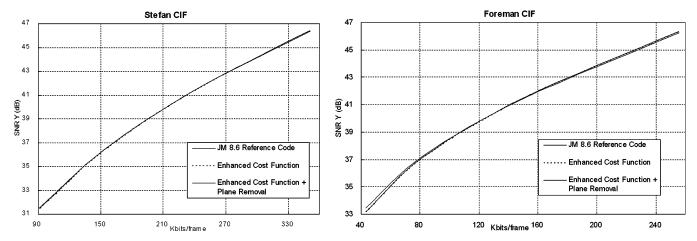


Fig. 4. RD curves of CIF sequences "Stefan" and "Foreman" in QP range from 16 to 34.

data throughput requirement in different video sizes at 30 fps. Thus, our design is required to have the ability to sequentially carry out the data throughput of at least 108,000 macroblocks/s, which is identical to 27.65 Mpixels/s.

To estimate the required operating frequency for hardware design, we start the exploration of the computation cycles for intra-prediction. We simplify this problem by neglecting the cycles of data transfer between on-chip and off-chip memory, and assuming that only prediction cycles are performed. With such assumption, the total cycle count for predicting one set of macroblocks in encoding process, including one luma and two chroma components, is $3456\,(16\times16\times9+16\times16\times3+2\times16\times4\times3)$, where plane modes are removed and extra setup cycles are excluded,) and the related frequency is 373.25 MHz

TABLE V
DATA THROUGHPUT REQUIREMENT FOR DIFFERENT VIDEO SIZE

17:	deo Size	Data Throughput				
V 1	deo Size	Mega pixs/sec	kilo mbs/sec			
QCIF	176 x 144	0.76	2.97			
CIF	352 x 288	3.04	11.88			
ITU-R	720 x 576	12.44	48.60			
SDTV	720 x 480	10.37	40.50			
HDTV	1280 x 720	27.65	108.00			
TIDIV	1920 x 1080	62.21	243.00			

TABLE VI OPERATING FREQUENCY FOR N-PIXEL PARALLEL ENCODER

V': 1 C':		Frequency at N-Parallel (MHz)					
V 10	Video Size		N=2	N=4	N=16		
QCIF	176 x 144	10.26	5.13	2.57	0.64		
CIF	352 x 288	41.06	20.53	10.26	2.57		
ITU-R	720 x 576	167.96	83.98	41.99	10.50		
SDTV	720 x 480	139.97	69.98	34.99	8.75		
HDTV	1280 x 720	373.25	186.62	93.31	23.33		
ши	1920 x 1080	839.81	419.90	209.95	52.49		

TABLE VII
OPERATING FREQUENCY FOR N-PIXEL PARALLEL DECODER

17:	doo Cizo	Frequency at N-Parallel (MHz)						
Video Size		N=1	N=2	N=4	N=16			
QCIF	176 x 144	1.14	0.57	0.29	0.07			
CIF	352 x 288	4.56	2.28	1.14	0.29			
ITU - R	720 x 576	18.66	9.33	4.67	1.17			
SDTV	720 x 480	15.55	7.78	3.89	0.97			
HDTV	1280 x 720	41.47	20.74	10.37	2.59			
III/I V	1920 x 1080	93.31	46.66	23.33	5.83			

for 720p video size with processing of one pixel at a time. This speed requirement is far beyond the generally acceptable range and hard to be implemented.

As a consequence, the design skill such as parallelism is applied to reduce the operating frequency. Tables VI and VII show the estimation results of encoder and decoder for such pixel parallelism, respectively. For encoder design, the suitable choice is to use the four-pixel parallel architecture that operates at frequency of 93.31 MHz and needs 864 cycles for one macroblock. With this, the corresponding four-pixel parallel decoder only needs 96 cycles at 10.37 MHz to decode a macroblock. Such design target can achieve the real-time requirement while is still easy to be implemented.

B. Macroblock Level Pipelining

Previous estimation only assumes the cycle for intra-prediction. However, more cycles will be needed when considering other functions like data transfer between memories and entropy coding. These necessary operations will increase the total cycle count to complete the coding of a macroblock and thus results in higher operating frequency. For example, the CAVLC circuit in [6] takes about 500 cycles to encode a high-quality application video. This will increase the latency to around 1,400 cycles and with the frequency to 150 MHz. In addition, the zigzag scan in

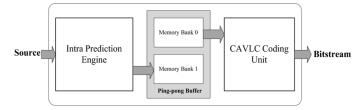


Fig. 5. Proposed ping-pong architecture with macroblock-level pipelining.

CAVLC unit will also increase the cycles since its order is quite different than the raster scan order used in the prediction engine.

To solve above problems, we use the macroblock-level pipelining as shown in Fig. 5. This pipelining enables the overlapped execution of intra-prediction and entropy coding without large cycle increases. After pipelining, the cycle number of a macroblock depends on the longest latency of each processing unit. Besides, this design adopts the ping-pong memory architecture between the intra-prediction and entropy coding to resolve the ordering problem. In the architecture, currently predicted coefficients after quantization are sent to one memory bank of ping-pong buffer, and coefficients of previous intra-predicted macroblock are stored in the other memory bank and ready for CAVLC coding. These ping-pong buffers are also beneficial for decoding process with data reordering and processing rate smoothing.

C. Overall Architecture Design

Fig. 6 shows the overall architecture design based on above algorithm level optimizations and pipelining. This design is directly corresponding to the encoding flow in Fig. 1 and the decoding flow in Fig. 2. It can work as an intra-frame encoder or a decoder with the switch of multiplexers in a dark color shown in Fig. 6. The entire architecture consists of three operation phases: prediction phase, reconstruction phase, and bit-stream phase.

The prediction phase is the most important part in this design. It mainly contains intra-prediction generator, forward transform, cost generation and mode decision unit, quantization, and several buffers and registers. The reconstruction phase, which is used to reconstruct decoded data, is composed of inverse transform, dequantization, and reconstruction FIFO register. In these two phases, four-pixel parallelism is used to achieve the required processing speed. The bit stream phase is separated form previous two phases by the ping-pong coefficient buffer, and it uses the CAVLC codec to perform coding or decoding of bit stream with throughput of at least one coefficient per cycle. In this design, the plane prediction buffer and dual port memory are saved due to the algorithm optimizations when compared to the previous encoder-only design [4]. Details of every component are discussed in the following subsections.

D. Scheduling of Encoding Process

Fig. 7 shows the encoding flow of a macroblock, similar to the coding flow in Fig. 1. First, the intra-prediction generator will generate the predictor values of different modes for current block according to the schedule control unit. Then residual values from difference of predictors and source data are transformed by 4×4 integer transform. Transformed coefficients are

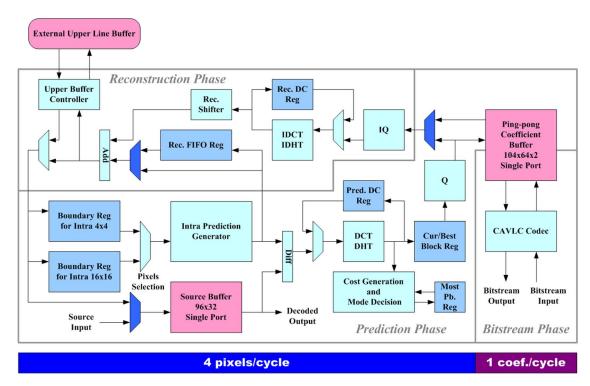


Fig. 6. Proposed H.264/AVC baseline intra-frame codec architecture.

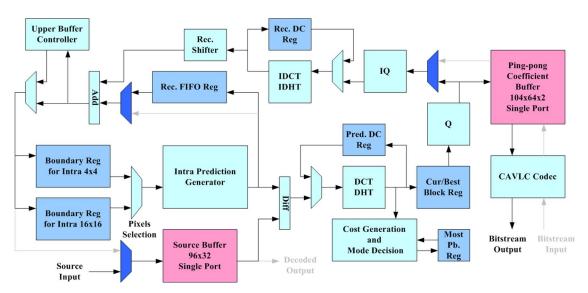


Fig. 7. Encoding flow of the proposed architecture.

further used to compute cost to determine the best mode by the mode decision unit with the enhanced SATD algorithm, and the block with minimum cost is preserved in the best mode registers. Once the best mode is chosen, the transformed coefficients are quantized and stored in the ping-pong memory for further entropy coding. At the same time, these data are also sent to the reconstruction phase to reconstruct the required boundary samples for next blocks.

In the encoder design, the major performance bottleneck is the reconstruction feedback loop since the next 4×4 block cannot start its computation until its boundary samples are reconstructed from previous blocks. This may result in low hardware utilization and longer latency for waiting. In addition to

- the 4×4 block prediction, when performing intra- 16×16 predictions, a macroblock-size buffer could be needed to store the previously processed residual data of 4×4 prediction for later mode decision. To solve these issues, we propose three scheduling techniques adopted in the scheduling control unit to avoid these data dependency problems and eliminate the required large buffer. The three techniques are as follows.
 - Insertion of luma 16 × 16 or chroma 8 × 8 predictions:
 During the empty cycles waiting for reconstructed samples between two intra-4 × 4 blocks, 16 × 16 or 8 × 8 prediction processes are inserted into these bubble cycles to precompute their costs. Unlike the technique used in [4], the prediction unit processes four blocks in one 16 × 16

Main Schedule of Encoding

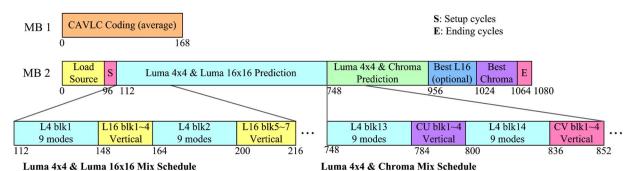


Fig. 8. Pipelining schedule with insertion and recomputation techniques for encoding process.

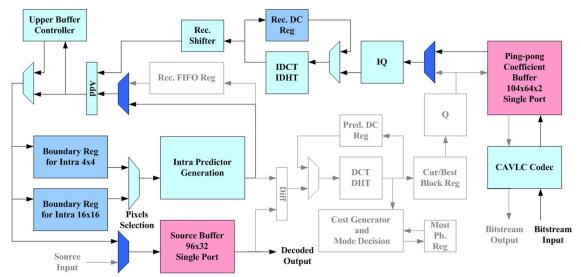


Fig. 9. Decoding flow of the proposed architecture.

mode successively instead of one block for four modes in each bubble. This helps to decrease the registers for accumulating costs. After performing four blocks, it continues processing the next 4×4 prediction. Thus, utilization of the prediction components is improved.

- 2) Early start of next 4 × 4 block prediction: Since the 4 × 4 blocks are processed in the Z-scan order, upper and left boundary samples might not be available at the same time for prediction purpose. To avoid this problem and pull the next block processing earlier, we rearrange the processing order of prediction modes such that prediction process can be started as early as possible if the required data is available. For example, the vertical mode is processed prior to the horizontal mode since the left boundary pixels are not available. This approach can reduce the idle cycles and thus improve the throughput.
- 3) Recomputation of luma 16 × 16 and chroma 8 × 8 best modes: For the 4 × 4 block prediction, we use a small register to save the residuals of the best mode. However, when such a strategy applies to the luma 16 × 16 or chroma 8 × 8 prediction, a large macroblock-size buffer will be required. To solve this problem, we do not store the values obtained in prediction process and recompute the best mode data of luma 16 × 16 and chroma 8 × 8 macroblocks again after the other prediction if it selected as the best mode. Though

Main Schedule of Decoding

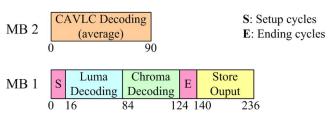


Fig. 10. Pipelining schedule for decoding process.

this approach may increase the total encoding cycles, the increase is still acceptable, and the buffer cost can be reduced.

Fig. 8 shows the detailed pipelining schedule based on these techniques. It takes 1080 cycles to perform an encoding process of a macroblock while the best mode is chosen as intra- 16×16 prediction. However, if the best mode is the 4×4 prediction, optional recomputation cycles from 956 to 1024 shown in Fig. 8 can be eliminated and the total cycles decrease to 1012. In comparison with the previous design [4], the proposed scheduling can save 16% of cycle count.

E. Scheduling of Decoding Process

Fig. 9 shows the decoder flow of this architecture. Unlike the encoding loop in the previous subsection, the decoder is only a

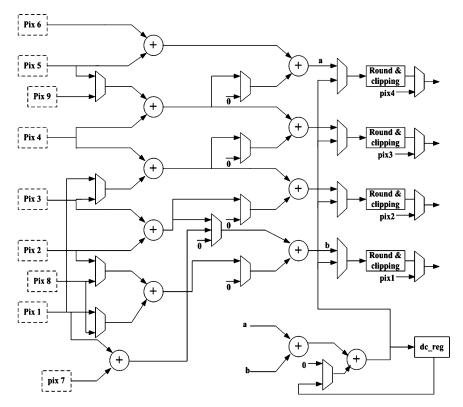


Fig. 11. Proposed reconfigurable datapath of intra-prediction generator unit.

direct datapath without any loop. First, the coefficients are decoded by the CAVLC decoder from the compressed bit stream. In the next macroblock-level pipelining stage, residuals recovered from dequantization unit and inverse 4 × 4 transform are sent to add to the predictors from the prediction generator according to the mode information. All the reconstructed samples are further sent to the source buffer to wait for output. In addition, some boundary samples are further stored in the boundary registers for next prediction. Since the decoder flow needs fewer components than encoder, the unused parts such as mode decision unit and forward transform are shut down to save power. The detailed cycles for decoding process are shown in Fig. 10, which takes 236 cycles to decode one macroblock in the average case.

F. Intra-Prediction Generator Unit

Fig. 11 shows the proposed intra-prediction generator unit with the plane mode removal. The whole 13 intra-prediction modes are organized into four types as described in Fig. 3. The modes in these types use the partial sum of adjacent pixels to compute the desired values for different position in a block. To support various computation of intra-prediction, the datapath of this generator can be reconfigured to handle different modes for luma 4×4 , luma 16×16 , and chroma 8×8 .

The operations for all intra-prediction modes are explained in the following. First, the inputs are selected from boundary registers which store the neighboring pixels of previously reconstructed blocks. Then, for the bypass type of vertical and horizontal modes, the prediction generator does nothing but directly outputs the input values. For the linear type, from mode three to mode eight, desired values are obtained by reusing its

partial sums. For example, the first-level adders generate value like (A+B+1), and then the second-level adders sum up the adjacent partial sums to compute the results like (A+2B+C+2). As to the average type, so called dc modes, it needs to sum up the eight pixels around the blocks, four upper pixels and four left ones, to figure out the average value. For luma 4×4 or chroma 8×8 dc modes, it takes one cycle to calculate the dc value. However, extra four cycles are required for luma 16×16 dc prediction since up to 32 boundary pixels have to be accumulated. We use extra adders and a register to simplify the accumulation operations in the reconfigurable datapath, which saves more control and wiring circuits. After prediction, these values are handled through the difference unit to produce the residuals, which will be sent to the transform unit for further processing.

G. Transform and Quantization Unit

Though several transform designs have been proposed [7], [8], we adopt the same architecture as in [9] to execute integer transform (DCT) and DHT since it is also four-pixel parallel. In addition, two 4×4 block-size registers are located in both forward and inverse transform units to gather the dc coefficients after transform and inverse transform for further DHT computation of dc blocks.

The quantization and dequantization units are shown in Fig. 12. Constant quantization coefficients are all implemented by look-up tables depending on QP, as denoted by quant_coef, dequant_coef, qp_const, qp_shift, and qp_per in Fig. 12. A quantized value is obtained through a multiplication with quant_coef, an addition of qp_const, and shift. To recover the data, a multiplication followed by rounding and shift is

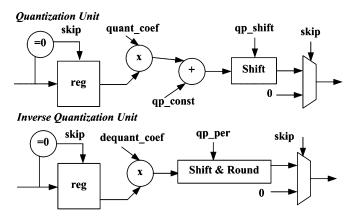


Fig. 12. Proposed quantization and dequantization units.

performed. The design also uses the data guarding technique to reduce power consumption by skipping the zero inputs.

H. Cost Generation and Mode Decision Unit

After transform, the coefficients are sent to both cost generation unit for cost calculation and current block registers to temporarily be stored. The cost generation is implemented according to the enhanced SATD function that is divided in two stages: the integer transform that replaces the Hadamard transform and the extra scaling factors. The above replacement can eliminate the recomputation issue of transform in hardware design and also improve coding performance. The scaling factors in (9) are realized with a two-stage adder tree and simple shifters instead of multipliers to reduce hardware cost and critical time. The cost is then accumulated for 16×16 prediction or compared to the current minimum cost value of 4×4 prediction. If a smaller cost is detected, the minimum cost is replaced by the new one and coefficients in the current block registers are moved to the best block registers. This comparing and replacement procedure will be continued recursively until the best mode with minimum cost is obtained. Eventually, SATD costs of 4×4 prediction and 16×16 prediction are compared again to determine which prediction type is used.

I. Reconstruction Phase

The quantized values are stored in the coefficient buffer for entropy coding, and also need to be reconstructed immediately since prediction unit requires its boundary pixels to predict successive blocks. Besides, this reconstruction process in the encoder is the main part of decoder as well. The reconstruction phase as shown in Fig. 6 consists of two paths, one for residual reconstruction and one for predictor generation. The residuals are recovered by dequantization, inverse-transform, and scaling shift in the proper order. At the same time, the corresponding predictors are also obtained and added to the residuals for reconstruction of data. They are immediately generated by the intra-prediction generator in the decoding process but queued in the reconstruction first-in first-out (FIFO) register in the encoding process due to the long latency of transform and mode decision process. After reconstruction, some of these data are stored in the boundary buffers as the reference for prediction of next macroblock.

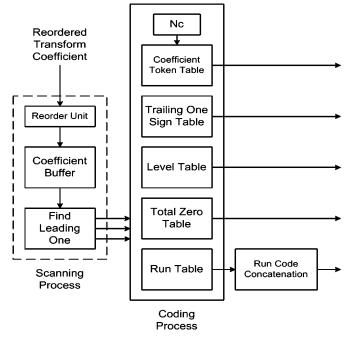


Fig. 13. Proposed architecture for CAVLC encoder.

J. Memory Organization

Only two on-chip memories are used in the proposed codec architecture, a source buffer and a coefficient buffer. The source buffer, a 96-entry 32-bit single-port SRAM, stores four pixels per row, where 64 entries for a luma components and 32 for chroma ones. In the encoding process, this buffer stores the source data of currently encoded macroblock, while in the decoding process, it can be used to save decoded pixels after reconstruction and then output them to external memory at the end of decoding. The coefficient buffer adopts the ping-pong architecture such that the coding loop and entropy coding stage can be pipelined to improve hardware performance. Each bank in the buffer has 104 entries with 64-bit bandwidth for 96 entries of ac coefficients and 8 entries of dc coefficients. Moreover, a line buffer with frame width wide is located in the off-chip memory to store the boundary reference pixels above the current macroblock.

K. CAVLC Codec

Fig. 13 shows the hardware architecture of CAVLC encoder. The encoder can be divided into two parts: scanning process and encoding process, which are work in parallel. During encoding, the transform coefficients are first reordered in the zigzag scan order and then detected and marked as zero if it is zero. The zero coefficients coding is skipped by the leading one detection unit. and only the nonzero ones will be sent to the encoding process. Thus, the corresponding coding data is generated and sent to tables for parallel coding. This efficient zero skipped coding can speedup the process significantly with seven cycles for one block coding in average.

Fig. 14 shows the hardware architecture for CAVLC decoder. This design first decodes the coefficient token and sign mark in the same cycle, and thus the level decoding can be started immediately in the next cycle. During the level decoding process,

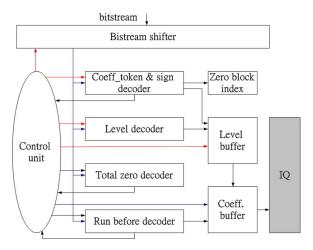


Fig. 14. Proposed architecture for CAVLC decoder.

TABLE VIII LIST OF GATE COUNT

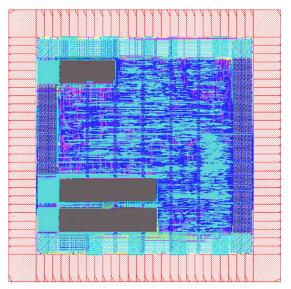
Component	Gate Count
Intra Predictor Generation	3,254
DCT/DHT (with DC register)	9,657
IDCT/IDHT (with DC register)	9,113
Q and IQ	21,466
Cost Generation and Mode	15,992
Reconstruction Unit	3,804
Boundary Prediction Buffer	11,659
Schedule Controller	1,362
UVLC/CAVLC Encoder	9,845
UVLC/CAVLC Decoder	16,421
Total	103,057

the 4×4 zero block information is recorded in the zero block index unit, and the remaining decoding circuit is turned off for such a block. After it, the zero run decoding can be two symbols in one cycle if it is less or equal than six, a common case that is worth to be speedup. Once every run is decoded, the decoded level will be put into their corresponding position in the coefficient buffer, and no extra reordering cycle is required to merge level and zero runs. The cycle count for one macroblock decoding is 90 in average of all sequences when QP is fixed to 28.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A. Implementation

The proposed codec IP architecture is designed by Verilog HDL and implemented using the 0.18-\$\mu\$m 1P6M CMOS technology. Table VIII lists the gate count for each component, and the total gate count is 103.06 K. In this list, we can observe that the quantization and dequantization unit occupies the largest area since it uses four multipliers in four-pixel parallelism to compute the quantized coefficients. The four-pixel parallel design can provide smooth flow without waiting. Besides, the cost generation and mode decision unit has the second largest area due to the two block-size registers and critical timing in summery. The reconfigurable datapath design and elimination of intra-plane prediction makes our intra-prediction generator only needs 3.3 K gate count.



Technology:	UMC 0.18 µm 1P6M CMOS
Voltage:	1.8 V (Core)
Acces 2	3.3 V (I/O)
Core size:	$1.28 \text{x} 1.28 \text{mm}^2$
Package:	144 pin CQFP
SRAM:	(all single port)
Coefficient	104 x 64 bits x 2 banks
Source buffer	96 x 32 bits x 1 bank

Fig. 15. Chip layout and specification.

The chip layout is shown in Fig. 15. It has a core size of $1.28 \times 1.28 \,\mathrm{mm^2}$. In this layout, one 96×32 -bit SRAM is placed at the top and a pair of dual banks 104×64 -bit SRAM is implemented at the bottom of the chip. The design can achieve the highest frequency at 125 MHz. Thus, it can easily support 29.62 Mpixels/s still image encoding and real-time video intraframe coding of high-definition 720p (1280×720 4:2:0 30 fps) video application when clocked at 117 MHz. Besides, it can also support the same decoding throughput with frequency of 25.5 MHz.

B. Comparison With Previous Design

Since no intra-codec has been published, we compare our design with other encoder and decoder design as shown in Table IX. Previous encoder design [4] can only support standard definition (SD) size $(720 \times 480 \text{ 4:2:0 30 fps})$ at frequency of 54 MHz and has a total gate count of 84 K implemented in TSMC 0.25- μ m 1P5M CMOS technology. However, it uses two single-port and one dual-port memories in their architecture and results in a larger core size. In addition, it cannot support the decoding process and needs extra area cost for plane prediction. Our design can support both codec and HD size process with slightly larger area and lower operating frequency. The extra area cost is roughly the area cost of CAVLC decoder. The other design [10] is a pure baseline decoder implementation that supports HD 720p size decoding with frequency of 50 MHz. In comparison, our design needs lower operating frequency for the same decoding capability.

TABLE IX
DESIGN COMPARISONS

Design Feature	This Work	[5]	[11]
Max operation freq.	125MHz	55MHz	100MHz
System pipeline	MB-based	MB-based	Block-based
Pixel parallelism	4 pixels	4 pixels	4 pixels
CMOS technology	UMC 0.18μm	TSMC0.25µm	UMC 0.18µm
Gate count	103K	85K	450K
Chip core size	1.28x1.28 mm ²	1.86x1.86 mm ²	N/A
On-chip memory	Single 96x32(x1)	Single 96x32(x2)	Single 96x32(x2)
usage (for 720p)	Single104x64(x2)	Single 64x32(x1)	Single 80x32(x1)
		Dual 96x16 (x4)	
Off-chip memory	Single 80x32	Single 80x32	N/A
usage (for 720p)	SDRAM	SDRAM	
Encoder	Supported	Supported	Unsupported
Max target size	HD 1280x720	SD 720x480	N/A
Freq. for HD 720p	117MHz	N/A	N/A
Freq. for SD	43MHz	54MHz	N/A
Cost function	Enhanced DCT-	DCT-based	N/A
	based SATD	SATD	
Plane prediction buffer	No	Yes	N/A
Plane mode prediction	No	Yes	N/A
DC values forwarding	Yes	No	N/A
Coefficient reg. size	4x4 block	16x16 MB	N/A
Processing cycles/MB	< 1080 cycles	< 1300 cycles	N/A
Decoder	Supported	Unsupported	Supported
Max target size	HD 1920x1080	N/A	HD 1920x1080
Freq. for HD 1080p	58MHz	N/A	100MHz
Freq. for HD 720p	25.5MHz	N/A	50MHz
Freq. for SD	9.56MHz	N/A	20MHz
Inter prediction	No	N/A	Yes

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper presents an HD 720p MPEG-4 AVC/H.264 intra-codec IP architecture for closed system like digital video recorder and digital still camera. The design uses various techniques to save area cost and enhance throughput. In the algorithm level modification, we adopt the enhanced SATD cost generation function and eliminate the intra-plane prediction to save the area requirement with only small quality loss. In the hardware implementation, the design is pipelined in the macroblock level to improve data throughput and scheduled with three techniques to improve hardware utilization and reduce area cost. The decoding process is well included in the design by utilizing the reconstruction path of the encoder loop. The design can support real-time HD 720p size video encoding and decoding at 117 and 25.5 MHz, respectively, and it can support still image encoding at the throughput of 29.62 Mpixels/s at 125 MHz. The implemented chip has total gate count of 103.06 K and a core size of $1.28 \times 1.28 \text{ mm}^2$.

REFERENCES

- Draft ITU-T Recommendation and Final Draft International Standard of Joint Video Specification, ITU-T Rec. H.264/ISO/IEC 14496-10 AVC, Mar. 2003.
- [2] A. Puri, X. Chen, and A. Luthra, "Video coding using the H.264/MPEG-4 AVC compression standard," Signal Process. Image Commun., vol. 19, pp. 793–849, 2004.
- [3] T. Halbach, "Performance comparison: H.26L intra coding versus JPEG2000," JVT-D039, Jul. 2002.
- [4] Y.-W. Huang, B.-Y. Hsieh, T.-C. Chen, and L.-G. Chen, "Analysis, fast algorithm, and VLSI architecture design for H.264/AVC intraframe coder," *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. Video Technol.*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 378–401, Mar. 2005.
- [5] H.-M. Wang, C.-H. Tseng, and J.-F. Yang, "Improved and fast algorithm for intra 4 × 4 mode decision in H.264/AVC," in *Proc. IEEE*. *Int. Symp. Circuits Syst.*, May 2005, pp. 2128–2131.

- [6] T.-C. Wang, Y.-W. Huang, C.-Y. Tsai, B.-Y. Hsieh, and L.-G. Chen, "Dual-block-pipelined VLSI architecture of entropy coding for H.264/AVC baseline profile," in *Proc. Int. Symp. VLSI Design*, *Automat. Test*, Apr. 2005, pp. 271–274.
- [7] H.-Y. Lin, Y.-C. Chao, C.-H. Chen, B.-D. Liua, and J.-F. Yang, "Combined 2-D transform and quantization architecture for H.264 video coders," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Symp. Circuits Syst.*, May 2005, pp. 1802–1805.
- [8] K.-H. Chen, J.-I. Guo, K.-C Chao, J.-S. Wang, and Y.-S Chu, "A high-performance low power direct 2-D transform coding IP design for MPEG-4 AVC/H.264 with a switching power suppression technique," in *Proc. Int. Symp. VLSI Design, Automat. Test (VLSI-DAT)*, Apr. 2005, pp. 291–294.
- [9] T.-C. Wang, Y.-W. Huang, H.-C. Fang, and L.-G. Chen, "Parallel 4 × 4 2-D transform and inverse transform architecture for MPEG-4 AVC/H. 264," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Symp. Circuits Syst.*, May 2003, pp. 800–803.
- [10] T.-A. Lin, S.-Z. Wang, T.-M. Liu, and C.-Y. Lee, "An H.264/AVC decoder with 4 × 4-block level pipeline," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Symp. Circuits Syst.*, May 2005, pp. 1810–1813.



Chun-Wei Ku received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electronics engineering from National Chiao-Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C., in 2004 and 2006, respectively.

After graduation he joined MediaTek, Inc., Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C. His major research interests include H.264/AVC video coding, digital signal processing, and associated VLSI architecture design.



Chao-Chung Cheng received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electronics engineering from National Chiao-Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C., in 2003, and 2005, respectively. He is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree in the Graduate Institute of Electronics Engineering from National Taiwan University, Taiwan, R.O.C.

His research interests include digital signal processing, video system design, and computer architecture.



Guo-Shiuan Yu received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electronics engineering from National Chiao-Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C., in 2004 and 2006, respectively.

He is currently with Faraday Technology, Inc., Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C.. His research interests include multimedia video system and digital signal processing.



Min-Chi Tsai received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electronics engineering from National Chiao-Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C., in 2004 and 2006, respectively.

He is currently with Andes Technology, Inc., Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C. His research interests include VLSI design, digital IC design, and memory management for multimedia platform SoC.



architecture.

Tian-Sheuan Chang (S'93–M'06) received the B.S., M.S., and Ph.D. degrees in electronics engineering from National Chiao-Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C., in 1993, 1995, and 1999, respectively.

He is currently with Department of Electronics Engineering, National Chiao-Tung University, as an Assistant Professor. During 2000–2004, he worked at Global Unichip Corporation, Hsinchu, Taiwan, R.O.C. His research interests include IP and SOC design, VLSI signal processing, and computer