

國立交通大學

電機與控制工程學系

碩士論文

具平行化處理之

JPEG2000 方塊編解碼晶片設計

Design of the efficient Pass-Parallel
Context Formation Codec for JPEG2000

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中華民國九十三年七月

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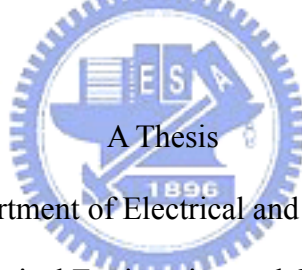
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摘 要



JPEG2000 是一種新的靜態影像壓縮規格，它擁有比 JPEG 更好的壓縮率，並也提供了更多的特色，但是相對的，JPEG2000 也比 JPEG 需要更多的 memory 以及運算量，其中又以 EBCOT 為最，因此我們針對 EBCOT 裡的 context formation 提出了一些加快運算以及減少 memory 的方法。Sample-Skipping method 可以直接對需要編碼的 sample 執行動作，略過不需被編碼的 sample，而 Pass-Parallel method 可以使三個 coding pass 在同一層 bit-plane 上平行處理，column-based architecture 則可同時判斷同一行的四個 sample 中是否需要被編碼，這三種方法可以有效的加速 JPEG2000 的編解碼速度，大約可以將編解碼所需的時間減少至 36%。我們的設計經過 CMOS 0.25 製程合成後，晶片面積大小為 $1775 \mu\text{m} \times 1695 \mu\text{m}$ ，工作頻率最快可以到達 133 MHz，在 100 MHz 下，處理一張 2304×1728 的灰階影像時，編碼時間為 0.323 秒，解碼則需 0.512 秒。


Design of the efficient Pass-Parallel Context Formation Codec for JPEG2000

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ABSTRACT



JPEG2000 is a new still image compression standard. It has better compression performance than the JPEG standard and also provides new features not available in JPEG. However, the high performance and new features require more complex computations and hardware cost than traditional JPEG. Moreover, most of the computation time is in EBCOT. Therefore, an efficient JPEG2000 codec design is proposed to ease in the overhead. We focus on context formation module of EBCOT Tier-1 in JPEG2000. Two speedup methods, Sample-Skipping and Pass-Parallel, are adopted in our design. The Sample-Skipping method is to skip no-operation samples in each column and then codes the need-to-be-coded samples directly. The Pass-Parallel method is to process three coding passes of the same bit-plane in parallel to improve the system performance. A column-based architecture using these combined speedup methods is then proposed to check four samples in a column concurrently. The prototype chip of the proposed technique is synthesized in CMOS 0.25 μm 1P5M technology. The area of this chip is 1775 μm \times 1695 μm . The clock frequency can reach 133 MHz. With clock frequency, 100 MHz, it needs 0.323 second to encode and 0.512 second to decode an image with 2304 \times 1728 image size.

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僅以本論文

獻給家人及所有關愛我的人

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CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

JPEG2000 is a recent still image compression standard developed by ISO/IEC JTC1/SC29/WG1. It was drafted at the end of 2000 as an international standard. JPEG2000 not only has the better compression performance than JPEG standard does, but also provides more features than the traditional JPEG.

It provides error resilience, superior low bit rate compression, region-of-interest coding (ROI), lossy and lossless compression, progression transmission by pixel accuracy and resolution, random code-stream access and processing, etc.

JPEG2000 can apply to many applications, such as internet, color facsimile, printing, scanning, digital photography, remote sensing, mobile, medical imagery, digital libraries, and E-commerce.

However, the memory requirement and computation complexity of JPEG2000 is much higher than that of JPEG. In Addition, over half of the computation time is occurred in Embedded Block Coding with Optimized Truncation (EBCOT). Thus, EBCOT becomes the critical part of JPEG2000 system.

To solve this problem, two speedup methods are adopted. The Sample-Skipping method can skip no-operation samples in a column, and the Pass-Parallel method can process three coding passes of the same bit-plane in parallel. By using two methods, the process time can be reduced to about 36% of previous work. Under CMOS 0.25 technology, the area of this chip is $1775 \mu\text{m} \times 1695 \mu\text{m}$, and the clock frequency can

reach 100 MHz. It can encode 2304×1728 image within 0.323 seconds, and decode it within 0.512 second.

1.1. JPEG2000 Overview

The block diagram of JPEG2000 encoder is depicted in Figure 1-1. Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT) and EBCOT are the two main modules of JPEG2000. EBCOT coding algorithm is proposed by David Taubman [1]. It is a two-tiered coder, where Tier-1 is a context-based adaptive arithmetic coder, and Tier-2 is the rate-distortion optimization and bitstream layer formation.

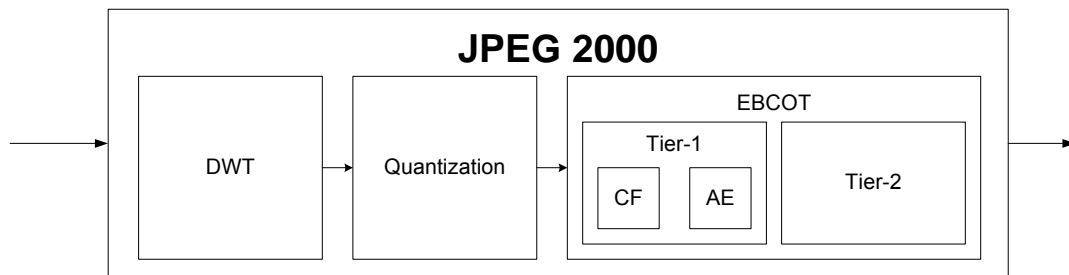


Figure 1-1 Block diagram of JPEG2000 encoder

In encoder, the discrete wavelet transform (DWT) is applied for the input image data. The generated coefficients may be performed by quantization process are then coded by context formation module (CF) and adaptive binary arithmetic coder (AC). Finally, the output code-stream can be executed by post-compression rate-distortion optimization algorithm (Tier-2) to reach more effective compression.

During encoding, an image is divided into several rectangular structures called tiles. Either lossless $5/3$ filters of DWT or lossy $9/7$ filters can be applied to a tile to decompose it into several subbands. If lossy compression is chosen, the wavelet coefficients are scalar quantized. After the DWT and quantization processes, each wavelet subband is then divided into code-blocks.

Each code-block is coded by context formation module. CF generates context labels and decisions to arithmetic coder. After all code-blocks are encoded independently, Tier-2 collects all bitstream with their rate-distortion information, and

then picks important bits to form the final bitstream according to rate-distortion optimization criteria.

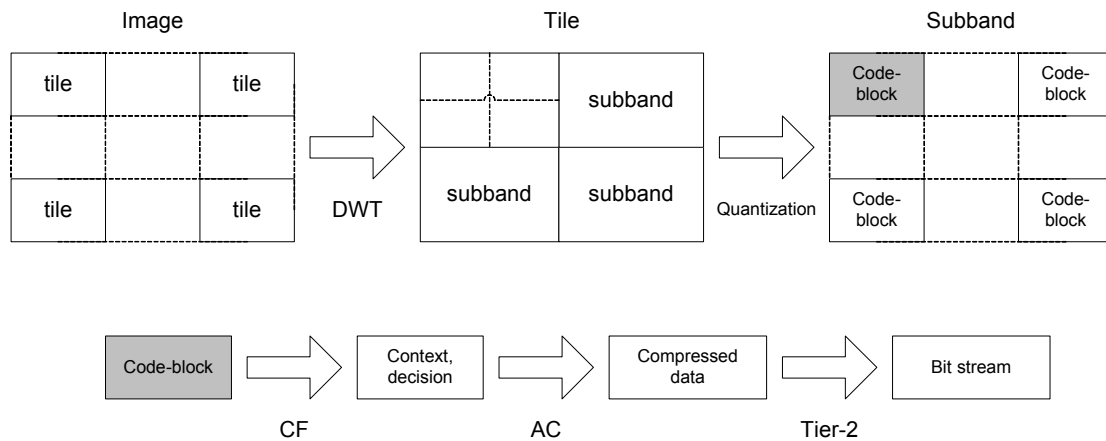


Figure 1-2 Entire encoding process of JPEG2000

Decoder can be seen as the inverse of the encoder and it can be achieved by performing the encoding steps in the reverse order except CF and AC. In decoder, not both contexts and decisions are generated from AC. Instead, contexts are still generated from CF like in encoder.

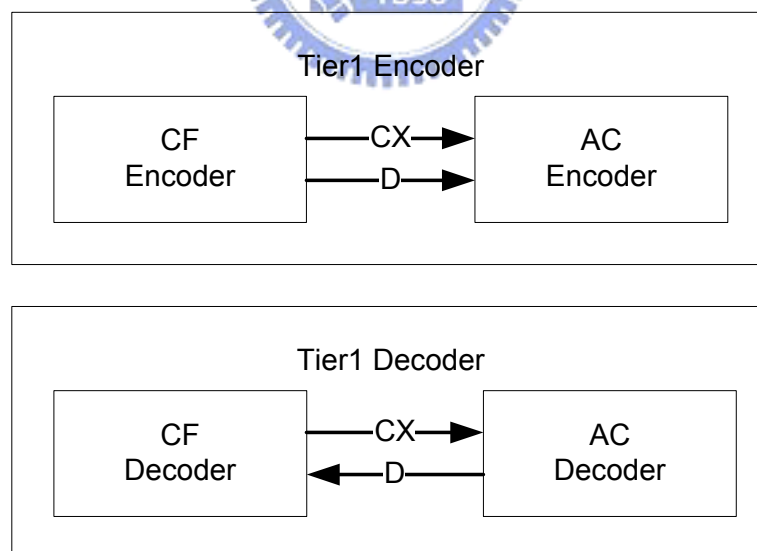


Figure 1-3 Direction of Context (CX) and Decision (D) in encoder and decoder

1.2. JPEG2000 Performance

The section presents the outperformance of JPEG2000 in terms of the high

compression ratio and various functionalities. The comparison results in this section are resulted from previous works [10]. The compared standards include reversible JPEG2000 (JPEG2000_R), non-reversible JPEG2000 (JPEG2000_{NR}), near-lossless JPEG (JPEG-LS), lossless JPEG (L-JPEG), progressive JPEG (P-JPEG), MPEG-4 VTC (VTC), and Portable Network Graphics (PNG).

Lossless compression

	JPEG2000 _R	JPEG-LS	L-JPEG	PNG
bike	1.77	1.84	1.61	1.66
café	1.49	1.57	1.36	1.44
cmpnd1	3.77	6.44	3.23	6.02
chart	2.60	2.82	2.00	2.41
aerial2	1.47	1.51	1.43	1.48
target	3.76	3.66	2.59	8.70
us	2.63	3.04	2.41	2.94
average	2.50	2.98	2.09	3.52

Table 1-1 Lossless compression ratios

It can be seen that in almost all cases the best performance is obtained by JPEG-LS (except the “target” image). JPEG2000 provides, in most cases, competitive compression ratios with the added benefit of scalability. This shows that as far as lossless compression is concerned, JPEG2000 seems to perform reasonably well in terms of its ability to efficiently deal with various types of images.

Progressive compression

Figure 1-4 depicts the average rate-distortion behavior obtained by applying progressive compression schemes. The compared standards include JPEG2000_R, JPEG2000_{NR}, VTC, and P-JPEG. As shown in Figure 1-4, progressive lossy JPEG2000 outperforms all other schemes. The progressive lossless JPEG2000 does not perform as well, mainly due to the use of reversible wavelet filters.

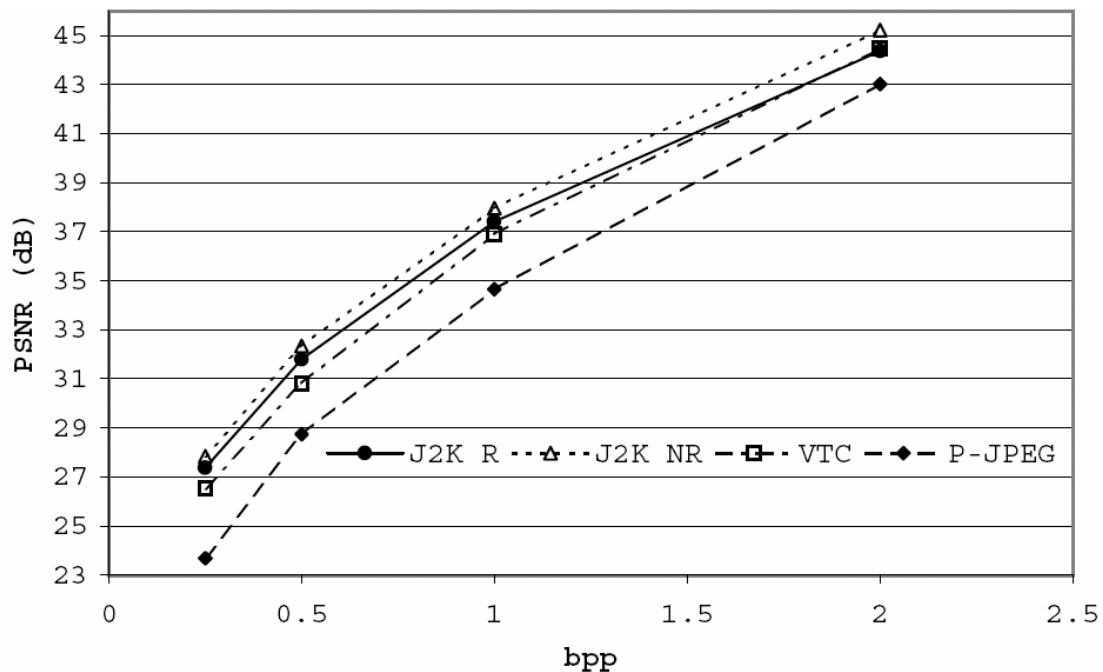


Figure 1-4 PSNR corresponding to average RMSE, of all test images, for each algorithm when performing lossy decoding at 0.25, 0.5, 1 and 2 bpp of the same progressive bitstream.

Error resilience

bpp		ber: 0	ber: 1e-6	ber: 1e-5	ber: 1e-4
0.25	JPEG2000	23.06	23.00	21.62	16.59
	JPEG	21.94	21.79	20.77	16.43
0.5	JPEG2000	26.71	26.42	23.96	17.09
	JPEG	25.40	25.12	22.95	15.73
1.0	JPEG2000	31.90	25.12	22.95	15.73
	JPEG	30.34	29.24	23.65	14.80
2.0	JPEG2000	39.91	36.38	27.23	17.33
	JPEG	37.22	30.68	20.78	12.09

Table 1-2 PSNR, in dB, corresponding to average RMSE, of 200 runs, of the decoded “café” image when transmitted over a noisy channel with various bit error rates (ber) and compression bitrates, for JPEG baseline and JPEG2000.

Table 1-2 compares the error resilience of JPEG2000, with the non-reversible filter, and JPEG baseline. Under the different transmission error results, the reconstructed image quality of JPEG2000 is higher than JPEG.

Functionality

	JPEG2000	JPEG-LS	JPEG	MPEG-4 VTC	PNG
lossless compression performance	+++	++++	+	-	+++
lossy compression performance	+++++	+	+++	++++	-
progressive bitstreams	+++++	-	++	+++	+
ROI	++	-	-	+	-
arbitrary shaped objects	-	-	-	++	-
random access	++	-	-	-	-
low complexity	++	+++++	+++++	+	+++
error resilience	+++	++	++	+++	+
non-iterative rate control	+++	-	-	+	-
genericity	+++	+++	++	++	+++

Table 1-3 Functionality matrix. A “+” indicates that it is supported, the more “+” the more efficiently or better it is supported. A “-” indicates that it is not supported.

Table 1-3 summarizes the results of the computation of different algorithms. The table shows that JPEG2000 offers the richest set of features within an integrated algorithmic approach.

1.3. Thesis Organization

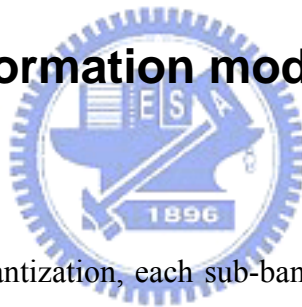
In this thesis, we focus on the analysis of the EBCOT Tier-1 CF algorithm, and propose an efficient block-coding engine for this critical module.

The thesis is composed of six chapters. It is organized as follows. The next chapter reviews and analyses the CF algorithm of EBCOT. Chapter 3 proposes two speed-up methods, Sample-Skipping and Pass-Parallel. The architecture based on these speed-up ideas is discussed in chapter 4. Experimental results are given in chapter 5. And chapter 6 makes a brief conclusion about this thesis.

CHAPTER 2.

OVERVIEW OF EBCOT TIER-1 CF AND ANALYSIS

2.1. Context Formation module of EBCOT Tier-1



After the DWT and quantization, each sub-band is partitioned into code-block (a rectangular grouping of coefficients typically 64×64 or 32×32 in dimension). All quantized wavelet coefficients of each code-block are expressed in sign-magnitude representation (in 1's complement) and divided into one sign bit-plane and several magnitude bit-planes.

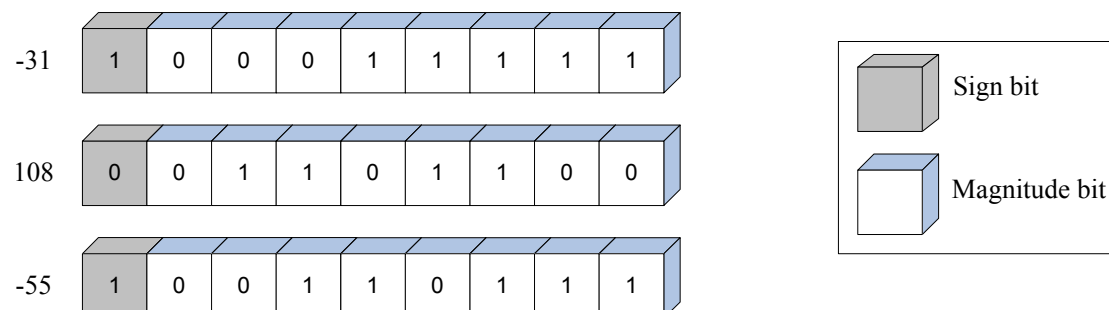


Figure 2-1 There are three sample with 9 bits, the first one is sign bits and others are magnitude bits. And the representation of negative is 1's complement.

A code-block is composed of many bit-planes. A bit-plane is composed of many stripes. A stripe is composed of many columns. And a column is composed of four samples (in other words, every four rows form a stripe).

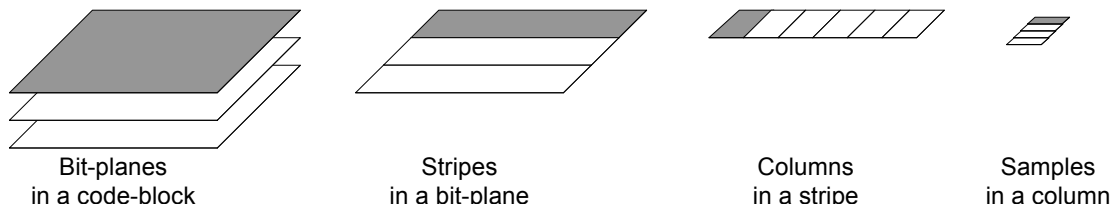


Figure 2-2 Scanning hierarchy of a code-block is bit-plane, stripe, column, sample

Each coding pass of a code-block is scanned in a particular order. The scan order of each code-block is bit-plane by bit-plane, from MSB (the most significant bit-plane with at least a non-zero element) to LSB (the least significant bit-plane), rather than sample by sample. In every bit-plane, the scanning order is stripe by stripe from top to bottom. And in every stripe, the scanning order is column by column from left to right, sample by sample from top to bottom in every column.

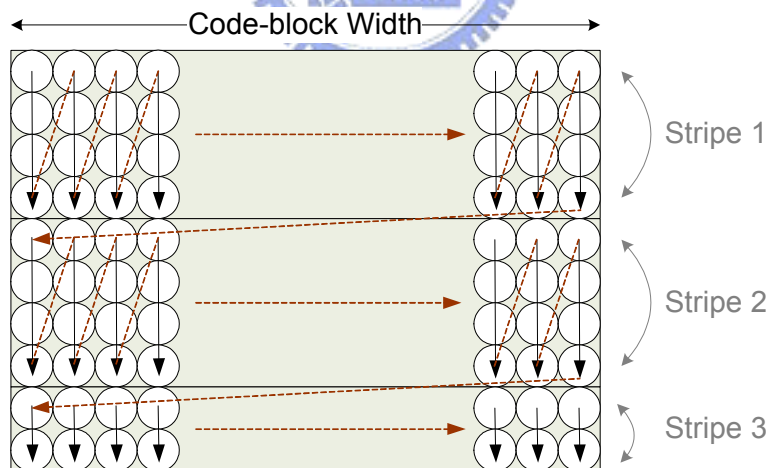


Figure 2-3 Scan order of a bit-plane in every pass

EBCOT block coder is a context-base adaptive arithmetic coder. Each sample in each bit-plane is coded by its context and sends to the arithmetic coder along with a decision. The context of each sample is decided by five coding states, four coding primitives, and three coding passes.

2.1.1. Five coding states

There are five states for block coding in context formation module. They are magnitude state, sign state, significance state, refinement state, and coded state.

Magnitude state

The magnitude bit of every sample in the current coding bit-plane is recorded in the magnitude states. The magnitude state is different in every bit-plane for a sample. It comes from the coefficients generated from DWT in encoding. In decoder, the magnitude state is reconstructed depending on the decision generated from arithmetic decoder.

Sign state

The sign bit of every sample is recorded in the sign states. A zero bit indicates a positive numbers and a one bit indicates a negative numbers. The sign state of every sample is the same across all bit-planes. It also comes from the coefficients generated from DWT in encoder and also reconstructed depending on the decision generated from arithmetic decoder, just like magnitude state.

Significance state

A sample is called significant after the first '1' bit is met while coding from MSB to LSB, and is called insignificant before the first '1' bit appears, as illustrated in Figure 2-4. The significance state records if a sample is significant in the current bit-plane. It is set to one when the magnitude bit of the sample is the first '1'. The significance state may be changed by Pass 1 and Pass 3 coding.

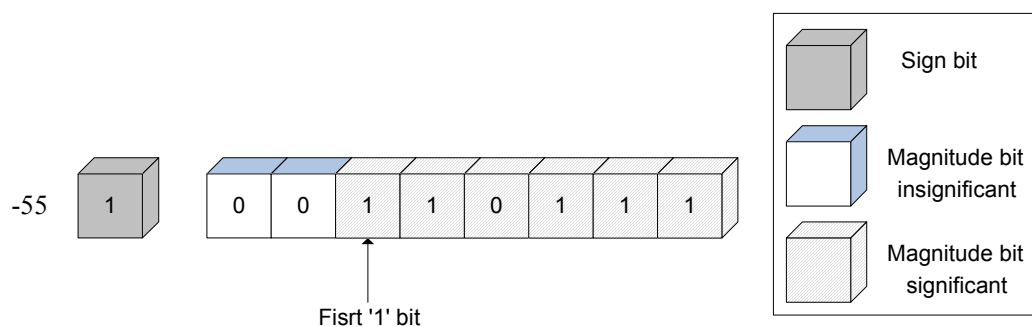


Figure 2-4 A sample is called significant after the first '1' bit is met.

Refinement state

The refinement state indicates whether or not a sample has already been coded in magnitude refinement pass in previous bit-plane. In the beginning of coding in each code-block, refinement bits are all set to zero. And refinement bit is set to one after a sample is coded by magnitude refinement coding at first time. The refinement states may be changed only in Pass 2 coding.

Coded state

The coded state indicates whether or not a sample has already been coded in a previous coding pass of the same bit-plane. When a sample is coded in significance propagation pass or magnitude refinement pass, the coded state bit is set to one. After the cleanup pass, the coded state bits are all reset to zero.

Note that, all the significance state bits and sign state bits are hold across all bit-planes, but the coded state bits are reset at the end of each bit-plane (in the end of Pass 3 coding). The magnitude state bits and sign state bits are coefficients from DWT in encoding, but in decoding they are reconstructed by the decisions generated from arithmetic decoder.



2.1.2. Four coding primitives

The context label of each sample is generated according to the status of its neighbors using four coding primitives: zero coding (ZC), sign coding (SC), magnitude refinement coding (MRC), and run-length coding (RLC). The eight neighbor samples of current sample X are separate into three groups : vertical ($V_0 \cdot V_1$), horizontal ($H_0 \cdot H_1$), and diagonal ($D_0 \cdot D_1 \cdot D_2 \cdot D_3$), as shown in Figure 2-5. The four coding operation for generating contexts are introduced below.

D_0	V_0	D_1
H_0	X	H_1
D_2	V_1	D_3

Figure 2-5 Neighbors states used to form the context

Zero Coding (ZC)

The sample that is insignificant and prepares to become significant will be coded by zero coding. It is used in significant propagation pass and clean up pass. Eight neighbor samples are classified into 9 groups, corresponding to 9 contexts, as shown in Table 2-1. ΣH represents the sum of significant horizontal neighbors, ΣV represents the sum of significant vertical neighbors, and ΣD represents the sum of diagonal neighbor samples. The decision of ZC is the magnitude bit of the current sample in the bit-plane.

LL and LH sub-band (vertical high-pass)			HL sub-band (horizontal high-pass)			HH sub-band (diagonally high-pass)		Context label
ΣH_i	ΣV_i	ΣD_i	ΣH_i	ΣV_i	ΣD_i	$\Sigma(H_i + V_i)$	ΣD_i	
2	x	x	x	2	x	x	≥ 3	8
1	≥ 1	x	≥ 1	1	x	≥ 1	2	7
1	0	≥ 1	0	1	≥ 1	0	2	6
1	0	0	0	1	0	≥ 2	1	5
0	2	x	2	0	x	1	1	4
0	1	x	1	0	x	0	1	3
0	0	≥ 2	0	0	≥ 2	≥ 2	0	2
0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 2-1 Context table for zero coding

Sign Coding (SC)

In sign coding, only vertical and horizontal neighbor samples will be used. Computation of the context label can be viewed as a two-step process.

For the first step, the significance state and sign state of the vertical and horizontal neighbors are used to form the vertical and horizontal contribution, as shown in Table 2-2.

For the second step, a context label and an XOR bit are formed from vertical and horizontal contributions, as shown in Table 2-3. It reduces the nine permutations of the vertical and horizontal contributions into five context labels. The decision bit that will be sent to arithmetic coder in encoding is then

produced by exclusive-or the XOR bit and the sign bit.

$$D = \text{sign bit} \otimes \text{XOR bit}$$

In decoding, the sign bit could be reconstructed by exclusive-or XOR bit and the decision bit generated from arithmetic decoder.

$$\text{Sign bit} = D \otimes \text{XOR bit}$$

Sign contribution		Significant, positive	Significant, negative	Insignificant
		V ₀ (or H ₀)		
Significant, positive	V ₁ (or H ₁)	1	0	1
Significant, negative		0	-1	-1
Insignificant		1	-1	0

Table 2-2 Sign contribution truth table for sign coding

Horizontal contribution	Vertical contribution	Context label	XOR bit
1	1	13	0
1	0	12	0
1	-1	11	0
0	1	10	0
0	0	9	0
0	-1	10	1
-1	1	11	1
-1	0	12	1
-1	-1	13	1

Table 2-3 Context table for sign coding

Magnitude Refinement Coding (MRC)

The sample that has been significant in previous bit-planes will be coded by magnitude refinement coding. And it is used in magnitude refinement pass only. The context label is dependent on whether or not this sample has ever been coded in MRC and the summation of the significance state of neighbors. Table 2-4 shows the three contexts for magnitude refinement coding. The decision bit is the magnitude bit of the current sample in the bit-plane.

$\Sigma H_i + \Sigma V_i + \Sigma D_i$	First refinement for this coefficient	Context label
X	False	16
≥ 1	True	15
0	true	14

Table 2-4 Context table for magnitude refinement coding

Run-Length Coding (RLC)

In run-length coding, four contiguous samples in a column are coded used one context, rather than one context for each sample in other coding. RLC is used when the four contiguous samples in a column are all insignificant and their neighbors are all insignificant too. If there are fewer than four rows remaining in a code-block, then no run-length coding is used. In RLC, if none of bits of the four samples become significant, context 17 with data 0 is used. In other word, if all magnitude bits of the four contiguous samples in a column are zero, context label 17 with decision bit 0 is used sending to arithmetic coder. On the other hand, if any bit of the four samples does become significant (at least one magnitude bit of the four samples is one), context 17 with decision data 1 is used. And the first significant sample is sent using uniform coding, followed by the sign coding of the first significant sample. The rest samples of this column are coded using zero coding (same samples also need sign coding). The reason will be described later in cleanup pass.

2.1.3. Three coding passes

There are three coding passes in each bit-plane, and they are significance propagation pass (Pass 1), magnitude refinement pass (Pass 2), and cleanup pass (Pass 3).

The coding order of three coding passes is that Pass 1 is the first, Pass 2 is the next, and Pass 3 is the last coding pass in the every bit-plane except in MSB. In MSB, only Pass 3 is used (this will be explained later in this section). Figure 2-6 shows the coding order of three coding passes in a code-block.

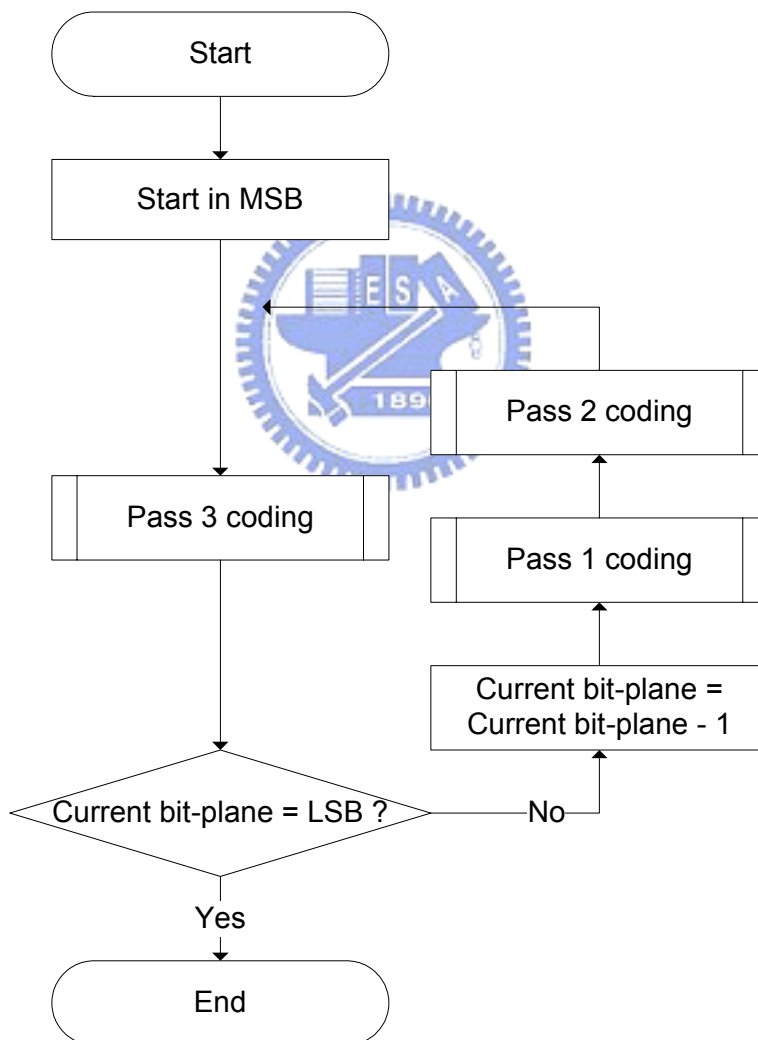


Figure 2-6 the coding order of three coding passes

Each sample in a bit-plane is coded in only one of the three coding passes and skipped in the other two passes. The method to determine which coding pass the current sample belongs to is illustrated in Figure 2-7.

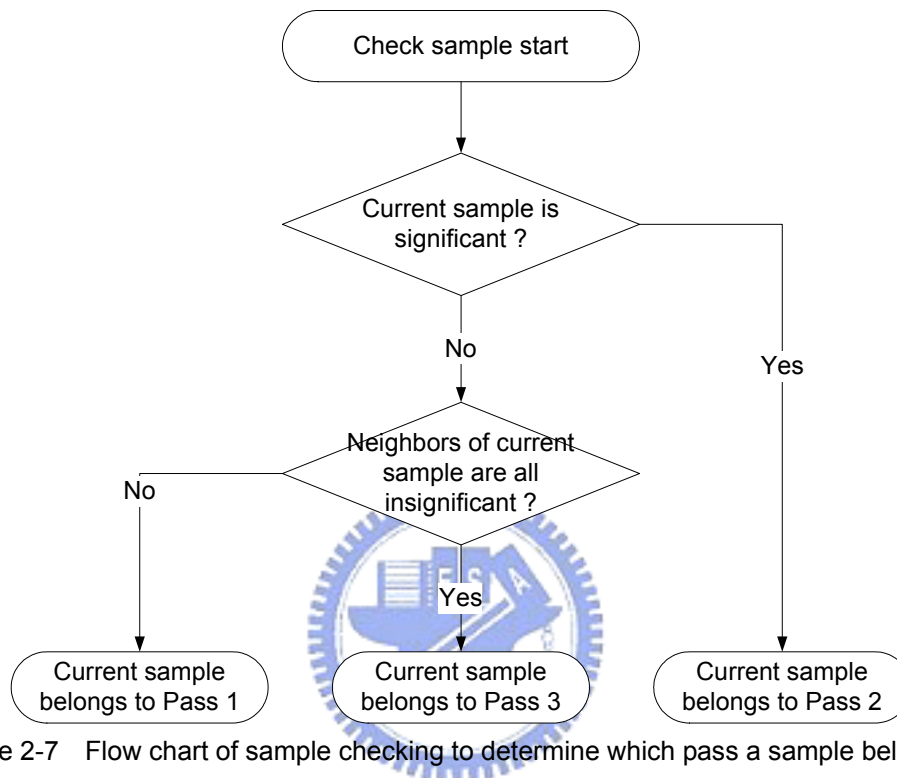


Figure 2-7 Flow chart of sample checking to determine which pass a sample belongs to

Significance propagation pass

Significance propagation pass (Pass 1) only includes the samples that are insignificant but have at least one immediate neighbor (V_0 , V_1 , H_0 , H_1 , D_0 , D_1 , D_2 , D_3) that is significant. Clearly, these samples are most likely to become significant. A sample belongs to Pass 1 is coded using zero coding. If the sample does become significant (the magnitude bit of the sample is the first '1' from MSB to LSB), it also uses sign coding followed zero coding, and sets the significance bit immediately.

Hence, in decoding, the ZC decision received from arithmetic decoder is the magnitude bit of the sample in current bit-plane. If the ZC decision bit received from arithmetic decoder is '1' that means the sample does become significant in this bit-plane. And it also needs to be coded using SC. By exclusive-or SC decision generated from arithmetic decoder and XOR bit, it could get the sign bit of the sample.

Magnitude refinement pass

Magnitude refinement pass (Pass 2) includes samples that are already significant in previous bit-plane and don't belong to significance propagation pass in the same bit-plane. The sample belongs to Pass 2 will be coded by magnitude refinement coding only.

In decoding, the decision generated from arithmetic decoder is the magnitude bit of the current sample in this bit-plane.



Cleanup pass

Cleanup pass (Pass 3) includes samples that don't belong to Pass 1 and Pass 2. There are three cases in Pass 3: 1) If there is any sample in this column that does not belong to Pass 3 or not meet the RLC rule. In this case, only the ZC (or ZC and SC) is used in the samples that have not been coded in previous coding passes. 2) Suppose magnitude bits of the four contiguous samples are X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_4 . If all the four contiguous samples in Pass 3 are need-to-be-coded samples and meet RLC rule, and X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_4 are all zero, then only RLC is used. 3) If all the four contiguous samples in Pass 3 are need-to-be-coded samples and meet RLC rule, but not all of X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_4 is zero. In this case, RLC, Uniform coding, and SC (or SC and ZC) are all used.

Table 2-5 shows the second and the third cases in Pass 3. Condition 1 is exactly the second case. Table 2-5 condition 2~5 belong to the third case, and

the uniform coding is also used in these condition. In uniform coding, it sends two context-decision pairs to arithmetic coder. Suppose the two decisions are D1 and D2. The values of D1 and D2 point out which is the first magnitude bit with the value '1' from X_1 to X_4 . If X_1 is '1', just like in Table 2-5 condition 2, then (D1, D2) is set to (0, 0). And the four samples with the four magnitude bits, from X_1 to X_4 , need to be coded by ZC (except X_1 , it only needs to be coded by SC). On the other hand, if both X_1 and X_2 are '0' and X_3 is the first '1', just like in Table 2-5 condition 4, then (D1, D2) is set to (1, 1). And the two samples with magnitude bit, X_3 and X_4 , need to be coded by ZC (X_3 only needs to be coded by SC).

Condition	Value of X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4	RLC context and decision	Uniform context and decision (D1, D2)		Which sample needs to be coded by ZC+SC?
1	0, 0, 0, 0	(17, 0)	non	non	non
2	1, x, x, x	(17, 1)	(18, 0)	(18, 0)	X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4
3	0, 1, x, x	(17, 1)	(18, 0)	(18, 1)	X_2, X_3, X_4
4	0, 0, 1, x	(17, 1)	(18, 1)	(18, 0)	X_3, X_4
5	0, 0, 0, 1	(17, 1)	(18, 1)	(18, 1)	X_4

Table 2-5 Contexts and decisions of the second and the third cases in Pass 3 (x: don't care)

In Pass 3 decoding, if all the four contiguous samples in this column belong to Pass 3 and meet the RLC rule, the unique RLC context is given to the arithmetic decoder. If the RLC decision returned from arithmetic decoder is '0', it means the four magnitude bits are all zeros and remain insignificant. Otherwise, if the RLC decision is '1', it means there is at least one of the four magnitude bits with value '1'. And then two uniform decisions (D1 and D2) received from arithmetic decoder denote which magnitude bit from top of the column down is the first '1' magnitude bit.

Note that in Pass 3 decoding, if the uniform decisions (D1, D2) received from arithmetic decoder are (0, 0), it could conjecture that magnitude bit X_1 is '1'. Therefore, the zero coding of first '1' sample can be omitted in encoding.

The samples in the first nonzero bit-plane are all insignificant. From the descriptions above, neighbors of all samples are insignificant, so they don't belong to significance propagation pass. And by reason of all samples are insignificant, the magnitude refinement pass is not used in this bit-plane, too. Only cleanup pass is used in the first nonzero bit-plane.

2.2. Analysis of Context Formation

2.2.1. Execution time

As discussed in section 2.1.3, each sample in a bit-plane is checked three times, one for each pass, although each sample will be coded in only one of the three coding passes, and skipped in the other two passes. Since not all samples belong to the same pass in general case, the checking time results in a “bubble cycle”. That is, in sample-based serial checking architecture, checking four samples in a column costs four clock cycles no matter how many NBC (need-to-be-coded) samples in it. It wastes many clock cycles on processing sample location.

In Figure 2-8, if each sample location requires a single clock cycle per coding pass for checking whether or not the sample is NBC sample, it wasted 29 (64-35) clock cycles in Pass 1 and 59 (64-5) clock cycles in Pass 2 and 40 (64-24) clock cycles in Pass 3.

3	3	3	3	3	1	2	1
3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	2	1	3	3
1	2	1	1	1	1	3	3
1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3
3	3	1	2	1	1	1	1
3	3	1	1	1	1	2	1
3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1

1 Need to be coded sample by pass 1

2 Need to be coded sample by pass 2

3 Need to be coded sample by pass 3

Figure 2-8 There are 35 NBC samples of Pass 1 coding and 5 NBC samples of Pass 2 and 24 NBC samples of Pass 3 in a bit-plane of a 8x8 code-block

Table 2-6 shows the analysis results obtained from four 256×256, gray level test images: “Lena”, “Flower”, “Toys”, and “Pepper”. For Lena image, there are

50178 of 447488 samples encoded belong to Pass 1. It means that there are 397310 (447488-50178) clock cycles wasted for checking which sample is NBC in Pass 1, and 164976 (447488-282512) clock cycles wasted for checking in Pass 2, and 332690 (447488-114798) clock cycles for checking in Pass 3. In other words, it wastes at least 894976 (397310 + 164976 + 332690) clock cycles in coding “Lena” image. Obviously, there are a large number of clock cycles may be wasted if we use straightforward method.

Image	Number of encoded samples			
	Pass 1	Pass 2	Pass 3	Total
Lena	50178	282512	114798	447488
Flower	42077	324624	90006	456704
Toys	18574	367655	72523	458752
Pepper	49706	303921	115365	468992
Average	40133	319678	98173	457984

Table 2-6 Number of encoded samples that belong to a given coding pass

2.2.2. Memory requirement

As described in section 2.1.1, it needs five states to form the contexts. If a code-block size is 32×32 , 1024 samples, the internal memory needed are 3K (1024 × 3) bits (Only significance state, refinement state, and coded state need to be saved).

And as described in section 2.2.1, the context information is still required in each pass even if no samples are coded in this pass. Suppose there are eight bit-planes in a code-block needed to be coded, every data in the coefficients memory will be accessed 24 (8 bit-plane × 3 coding passes) times. And the memory will total be accessed 24576 (24 × 1024 samples) times. This situation also increases the number of unnecessary memory access.

CHAPTER 3.

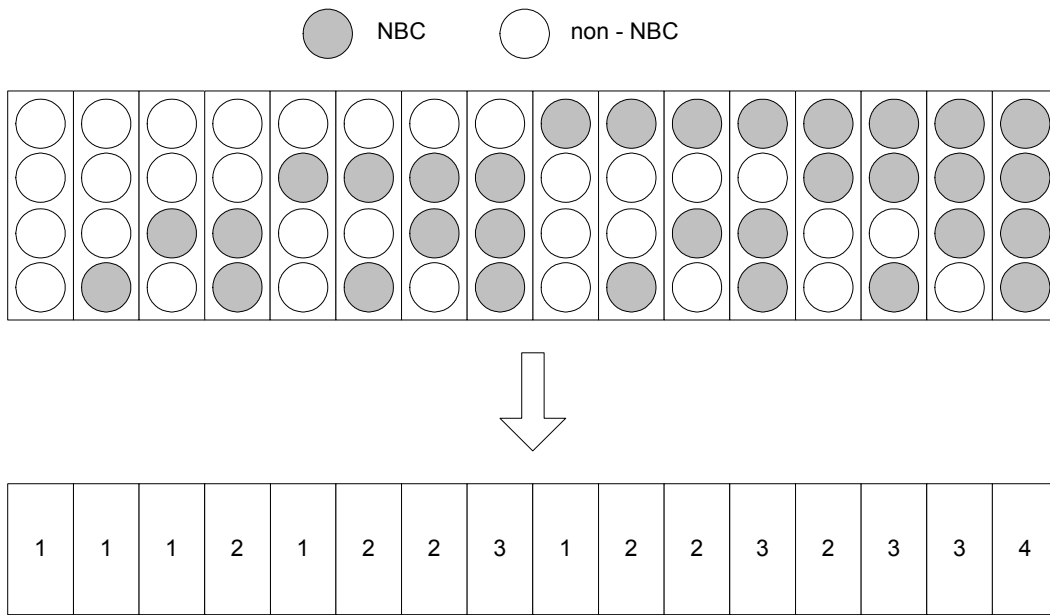
PROPOSED SPEEDUP METHOD

In this chapter, we will introduce two proposed speedup methods. The first one is Sample-Skipping. The Sample-Skipping method can check four contiguous samples in a column simultaneously, and avoid wasting time on non-NBC samples. The second one is Pass-Parallel. The Pass-Parallel architecture merges three coding passes of bit-plane into a single coding pass to improve the system performance.

3.1. Sample-Skipping

The key idea of the Sample-Skipping method is to skip no-operation samples in a single column, and directly code NBC samples. By column-based, samples in a column can be parallel checked to see whether or not they are NBC samples. It can be applied to all three coding passes. If there are n NBC samples in a column ($0 < n \leq 4$), only n clock cycles will spent on coding this column, and $4-n$ clock cycles will be saved. If none of NBC samples is in this column, it only spends one clock cycle on checking. Since most columns have less than four NBC samples, the method can improve cycle time greatly. It is more coefficient than the straightforward method.

Figure 3-1 shows the number of clock cycles spent on coding a column while Sample-Skipping is used. And Figure 3-2 shows the flow chart of Sample-Skipping.



Clock cycles required while coding the column

Figure 3-1 The number of clock cycles required while coding a column. Notice the first column, it only spend one cycle to coding a column with no NBC samples. The spent clock cycles in all kinds of columns are less than four clock cycles.

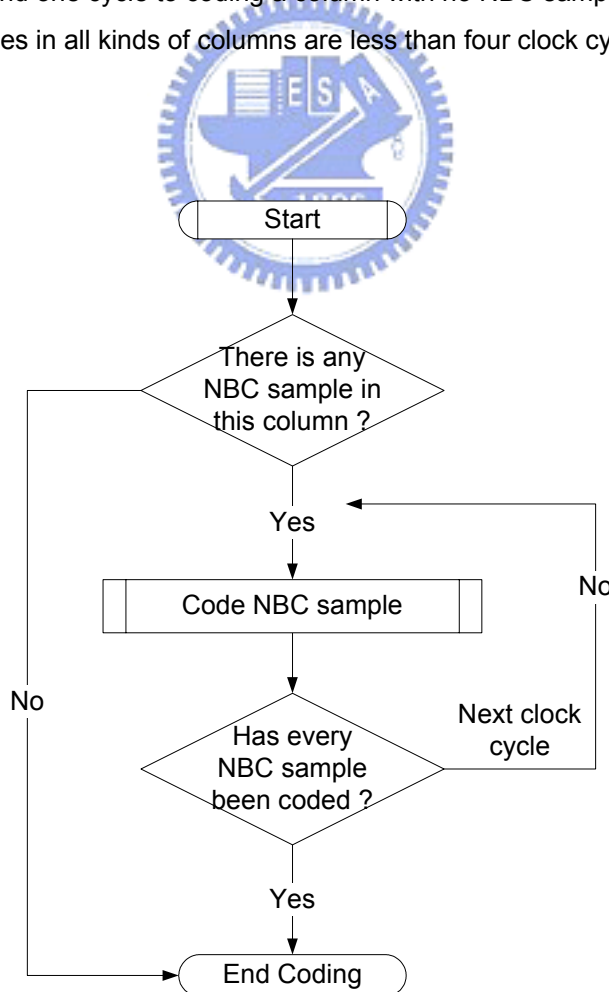


Figure 3-2 Flow chart of Sample-Skipping

In Sample-Skipping, data are supplied to one column at a time. We use a 6×3 context window instead of a 3×3 context window (just like Figure 2-5). The 6×3 window is illustrated in Figure 3-3, and $X_1, X_2, X_3,$ and X_4 are the four current samples. $A_0, B_0, C_0, A_1, C_1, A_2, X_2, C_2$ mean the eight immediate neighbors of X_1 . And $A_1, X_1, C_1, A_2, C_2, A_3, X_3, C_3$ mean the eight immediate neighbors of X_2 . So are X_3 and X_4 .

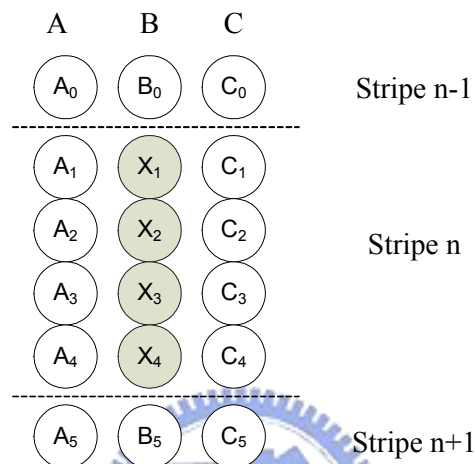


Figure 3-3 A 6×3 context window for coding a column of samples X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 .

3.1.1. NBC in Sample-Skipping

In Sample-Skipping method, how to find out the NBC samples before coding a column is important. Because the values of magnitude bits can be known before encoding, and which sample will become significant in this bit-plane can be predicted. For this reason, in encoding, it could determine which sample is the NBC sample per coding pass before coding. But in decoding, it is difficult to predict NBC samples of Pass 1 and Pass 3 before coding.

The condition is illustrated in Figure 3-4. Before coding, it could predict that X_1 and X_3 are NBC samples for Pass 1 decoding, and X_2 is non-NBC for the moment. But during decoding X_1 , if the ZC decision generated from arithmetic decoder is '1', then sample X_1 will become significant and X_2 will be a NBC sample. Hence, the numbers of NBC samples will change following Pass1 decoding processing. It could not predict all NBC samples before coding.

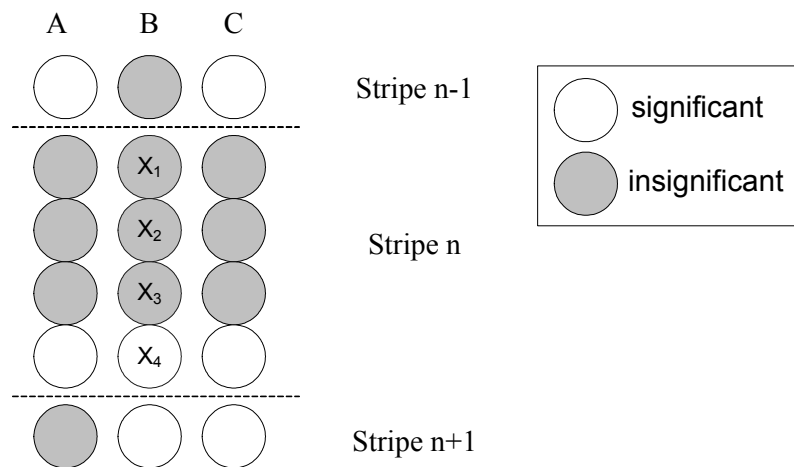


Figure 3-4 Significance state of samples in a context window before coding X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4

The condition in Pass 3 decoding is separated into two parts, RLC and non-RLC. In non-RLC, it is the same as the condition in Pass 1. In RLC, as described in section 2.1.3, it must rely on decision generated from arithmetic decoder to determine whether or not all magnitude bits are zero. And it also needs the uniform decisions to determine which sample becomes significant in uniform coding. So, in Pass 3 decoding, it is the same as Pass 1 decoding, the numbers of NBC samples will change following decoding processing.

3.2. Pass-Parallel

The Pass-Parallel method is to process three coding passes of the same bit-plane in parallel. There are some issues occurring due to the architecture. First, since the three coding passes work concurrently, the samples belong to Pass 3 may become significant earlier than Pass 1 and Pass 2 and this situation will mistake the following coding for samples which belong to Pass 1 and Pass 2. Second, if the sample that currently coded belongs to Pass 2 or Pass 3, the significance of samples that have not been visited in the context window shall be predicted.

3.2.1. Pass-Parallel in Encoding

To solve these issues in encoding, the coding operations for Pass 3 are delayed by two stripe columns to avoid the effect between Pass 3 and the other two passes. Subsequently, to eliminate the dependence of coding operation on the next stripe the “vertical causal” mode is also adopted. In vertical causal mode, the samples in the next stripe are considered to be insignificant. Compared with context window in Figure 3-1, the significance states of A_5 , B_5 , and C_5 are considered to zero when coding X_4 .

Figure 3-5 shows the position of context windows per coding pass in Pass-Parallel encoding architecture. Note that the context window of each coding pass is 5×3 for vertical causal mode and the context window of Pass 3 lags that of Pass 1 and Pass 2 by two columns.

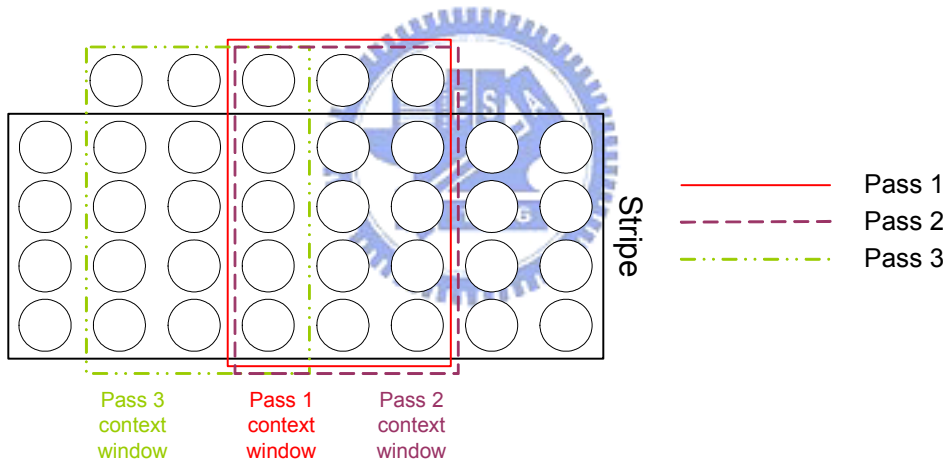


Figure 3-5 Context windows of three coding passes in the Pass-Parallel encoding architecture

To solve the second issue, we take two states, significance state 0 (σ_0) and significance state 1 (σ_1), instead of significance state, refinement state and coded state. If a sample becomes significant after Pass 1 coding, the σ_0 is set to ‘1’. If a sample becomes significant after Pass 3 coding, the σ_1 is set to ‘1’. Besides, both σ_0 and σ_1 are set to ‘1’ immediately after the Pass 2 is used in this current sample.

From the definition, if a sample has been coded in Pass 2, then σ_0 and σ_1 are both set to ‘1’. In other words, if one of σ_0 and σ_1 is ‘0’, it means that the sample has not been coded by Pass 2. Hence, the refinement state can be replaced by

$$\gamma = \sigma_0 \oplus \sigma_1 \quad \text{where '}\oplus\text{' is the XOR operator} \quad (1)$$

Obviously, the current significance state σ can be calculated during the coding process. For samples belong to Pass 1, the significance states of the visited samples are equal to σ_0 . Since samples that have not been visited may become significant by Pass 3 in last bit-plane, the significance states of the samples that have not been visited are expressed by

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \vee \sigma_1 \quad \text{where '}\vee\text{' is the OR operator} \quad (2)$$

For samples belong to Pass 2, the significance states of the visited samples are equal to σ_0 . Since the current significant sample must be coded in Pass 2, and the neighbors of current sample must be coded in Pass 1, the neighbor sample of current sample will become significant in Pass 1 coding if its magnitude bit is '1'. This condition is illustrated in Figure 3-6. And the significance states of the samples that have not been visited are expressed by

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \vee \sigma_1 \vee v_p \quad \text{where } v_p \text{ is the magnitude bit} \quad (3)$$

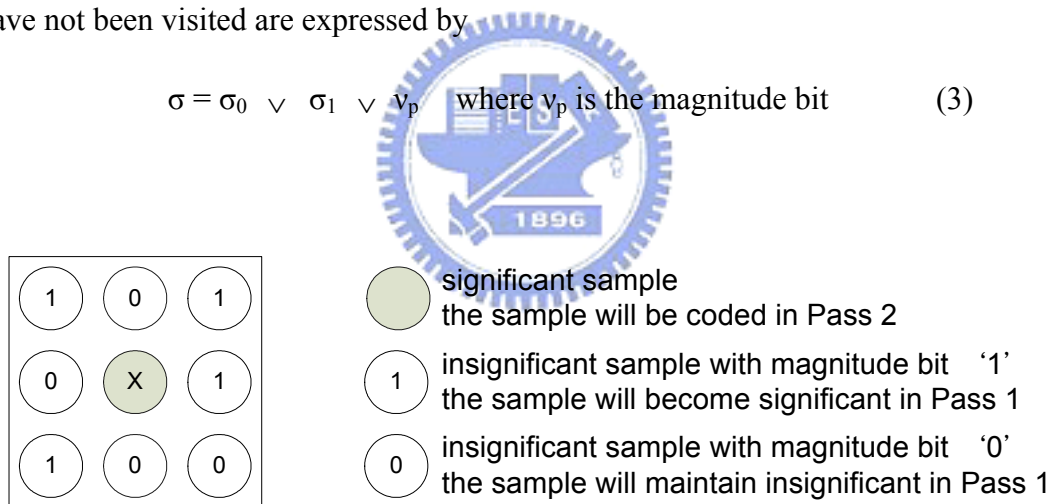


Figure 3-6 All the neighbors will be coded by Pass 1 if the center sample belongs to Pass 2. And some neighbors with magnitude bit '1' will become significant in Pass 1, the others with magnitude bit '0' will maintain insignificant.

For samples belong to Pass 3, the significance states of all neighbors are determined by Equation (2).

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \vee \sigma_1 \quad \text{where '}\vee\text{' is the OR operator} \quad (2)$$

3.2.2. Pass-Parallel in Decoding

The most difference between encoding and decoding in Pass-Parallel is Pass 2 coding. In decoding, the magnitude bit v_p is generated from arithmetic decoder; therefore, it is hard to predict the significance states of the samples that have not been visited by Equation (3). To solve this problem, the coding operation for Pass 2 is delayed by two stripe columns, the same as Pass 3.

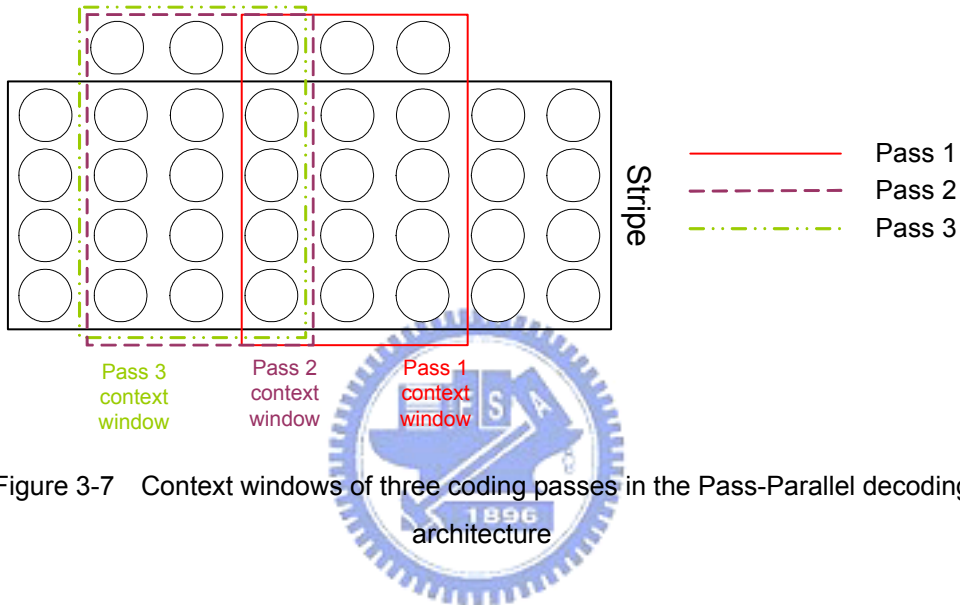


Figure 3-7 Context windows of three coding passes in the Pass-Parallel decoding architecture

And some equations for predicting significant states must be changed. For the samples belong to Pass 1, since the significant state σ_0 of samples that have become significant in last bit-plane by Pass 3 remains to be '0' after Pass 1 coding, the significance states of all neighbors are determined by Equation (2).

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \vee \sigma_1 \quad \text{where '}\vee\text{' is the OR operator} \quad (2)$$

For samples belong to Pass 2, the significance states of the visited samples are equal to σ_0 the same as encoding. Because Pass 2 delays two columns, the neighbor samples that have not been visited in Pass 2 have been visited by Pass 1. So the significance states of the samples that have not been visited are determined by Equation (2).

For samples belong to Pass 3, the significance states of all neighbors are determined by Equation (2), the same as encoding.

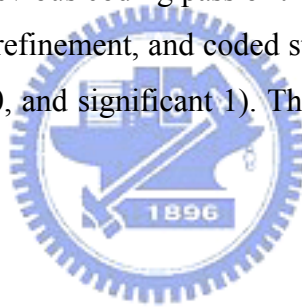
3.2.3. Advantages of Pass-Parallel

In conclusion, the main advantages of using Pass-Parallel processing are:

1) Fast computation: No clock cycles are wasted on non-NBC samples. (Unless all of the four samples in a column are non-NBC samples. But in this case, it only spends one clock cycles on coding).

2) Less memory access: Since the three coding passed of a bit-plane are merged into a single pass, every data of memory is accessed one time for a bit-plane. And about 67% of memory accesses are saved.

3) Reduce memory requirement: We don't need to identify whether or not each sample has been coded in a previous coding pass of the same bit-plane. The five states (magnitude, sign, significant, refinement, and coded states) are replaced by four states (magnitude, sign, significant 0, and significant 1). Therefore, the 1K (32×32) coded memory is saved.



3.3. Execution Time with Pass-Parallel

Table 3-1 shows the number of checked clock cycles in Sample-Skipping, Sample-Skipping + Pass-Parallel and the straightforward method. The four test images are the same as Table 2-6. Column “SS (P1)” represents the number of clock cycles required if the Sample-Skipping method is used in Pass 1, and so are SS (P2) and SS (P3). The last column represents the number of cycle time with straightforward method.

Image	Number of checked clock cycles					
	SS(P1)	SS (P2)	SS(P3)	SS(Total)	SS + PP	Straightforward
Lena	125260	301893	131053	558206	432185	1211392
Flower	121712	335971	114880	572563	443815	1239040
Toys	107717	371320	103057	582094	454921	1245184
Pepper	130682	323847	136892	591421	455503	1275904
Average	121343	333258	121470	576071	446606	1242880

Table 3-1 Number of checked clock cycles in Sample-Skipping (SS) and Pass-Parallel (PP)

For “Lena” image, the total number of clock cycles in Sample-Skipping method is reduced to 46% compared with straightforward method. If using both Sample-Skipping and Pass-Parallel method, the processing cycle time is reduced to 36%. Obviously, it could improve the system performance if Sample-Skipping and Pass-Parallel are applied.



CHAPTER 4.

ARCHITECTURE DESIGN

In this chapter, we introduce the overall block diagram of Context Formation module first. The four register primitive elements (sign, magnitude, significance 0, and significance 1) are described in section 4.1. The description of context formulation module and Sample-Skipping method are discussed in section 4.2. The details of Pass-Parallel controller are in section 4.3. Section 4.4 shows the pipeline architecture.

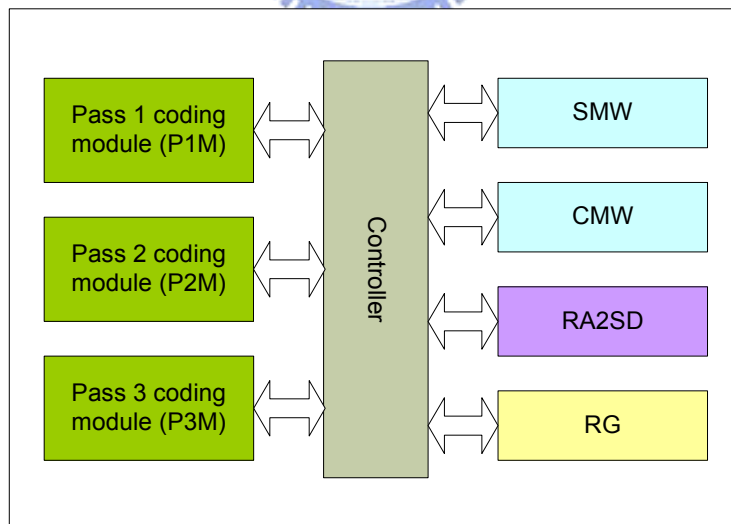


Figure 4-1 Block diagram of context formation

Figure 4-1 illustrates the block diagram of context formation (CF). It divides CF into eight blocks. The eight blocks belong to five groups as shown below:

Pass Coding Module

This group contains P1M (Pass 1 coding module), P2M (Pass 2 coding module), and P3M (Pass 3 coding module). The three pass coding modules produce context labels by using four register primitive elements, and produce (or receive in decoding) decisions. The Pass 1 coding module contains ZC, SC, and SS primitives. The Pass 2 coding module contains MRC and SS primitives. And the Pass 3 coding module contains ZC, SC, RLC, and SS primitives.

Memory

This group contains RA2SD block. RA2SD is a memory of 1024×2 bits. The significance state 0 and significance state 1 are saved in RA2SD.

Memory read

This group contains RG (Register Data Generator). The function of RG is to fill in register primitives with values loaded from two memories (four states).

Memory write

This group contains SMW (Significance Memory Write Module) and CMW (Coefficient Memory Write Module). The SMW block updates the value of significance state after three coding passes in each bit-plane. The CMW block only works in decoding process, it writes the value of sign bit to coefficients memory if the sample is decoded by sign coding in current bit-plane, and also writes the magnitude bits of every bit-plane to coefficients memory.

Controller

Controller is the core of the design. It manages the overall coding data flow, and generates write and read address for all memories and register primitive elements. It also controls the pipeline architecture.

4.1. Column-Based Operation

In the proposed architecture, column-based operation is adopted instead of sample-based operation. The basic idea of column-based operation is to check four vertical samples of a column simultaneously. It is just like 5×3 context window in Figure 3-5 or Figure 3-7. In order to fit the Pass-Parallel architecture, it integrates context window of three coding passes into a 5×5 registers for each significance states and sign states.

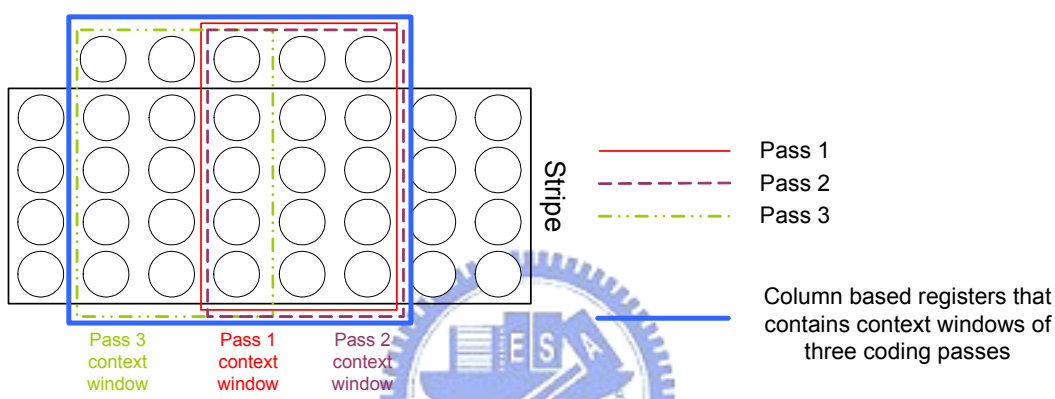


Figure 4-2 Column-based registers (5×5)

In magnitude states, it needs only four magnitude bits of four samples in current column. It doesn't need the neighbors for magnitude state in last stripe, so the column-based registers size is 4×5 .

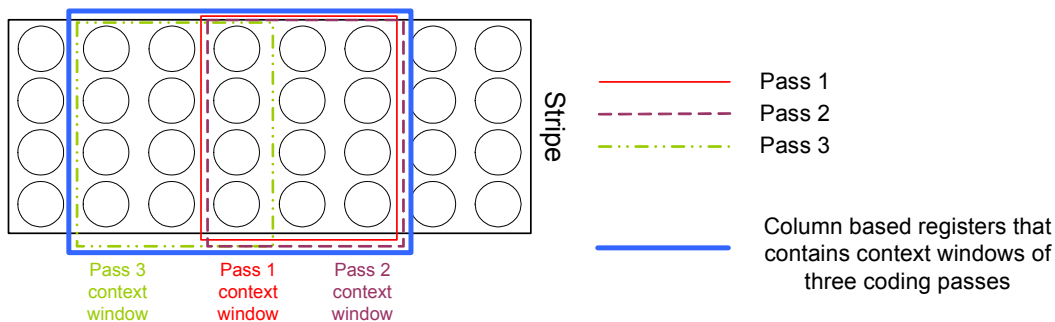


Figure 4-3 Column-based registers (4×5)

Take sign state registers in encoding for example. Suppose the coding order of column number is $0, 1, \dots, n-2, n-1, n, n+1, n+2$, and so on. By using Pass-Parallel method described in section 3.2, the coding operations for Pass 3 are delayed by two

columns. At time N, Column n-2 is coded in Pass 3 and column n is coded in Pass 1 and Pass 2, as shown in Figure 4-4 upper.

After finishing coding column n-2 by Pass 3 and column n by Pass 1 and Pass 2, the data registers will shift left, B to A, C to B, D to C, E to D, and new data loaded from memory is stored in the right column F. At time N+1, the column n-1 is coded in Pass 3, and column n+1 is coded in Pass 1 and Pass 2, as depicted in Figure 4-4 medium.

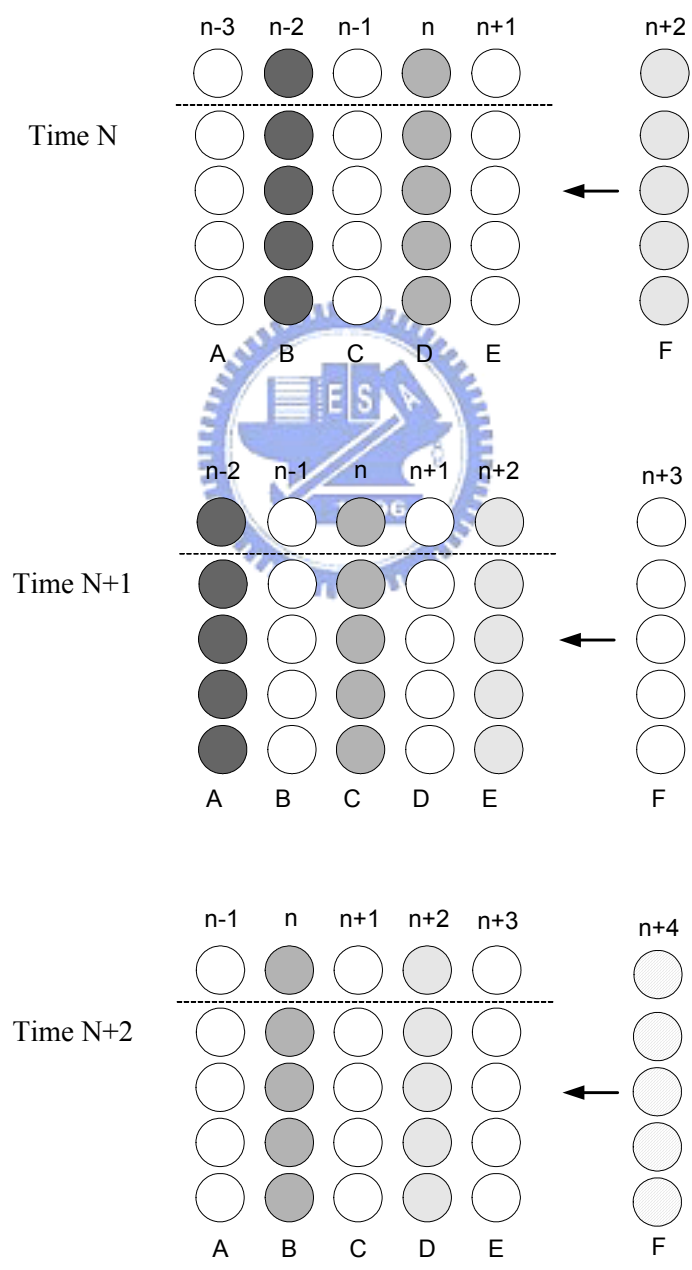


Figure 4-4 Flow chart of column-based registers while time N, time N+1, and time N+2

At time $N+2$, the data registers shifted to left again, and column n is coded in Pass 3, column $n+2$ is coded in Pass 1 and Pass 2. The result is depicted in Figure 4-4 lower.

Note the register F in Figure 4-4. Because reading memory data needs many clock cycles, in fact, it is a ping-pong register named $F1$ and $F2$ to reduce processing cycle time.

As described, there are two advantages of column-based operations: 1) samples in a column can be checked simultaneously, and then Sample-Skipping method can be applied. 2) Memory access frequency of these state variables can be reduced.

4.2. Pass Coding Module

The main work of pass coding module is to produce context label for arithmetic coder. In encoding, it also sends decision to arithmetic encoder, but in decoding, it receives decision from arithmetic decoder to reconstruct the coefficients memory for DWT. Pass coding module also includes Sample-Skipping architecture in it.

Figure 4-5 shows the block diagram of Pass 1 coding module. The Sign Register PE, Magnitude Register PE, Significance 0 Register PE, and Significance 1 Register PE are described in section 4.1. It includes Sample-Skipping, Zero coding, and Sign coding in the Pass 1 coding module.

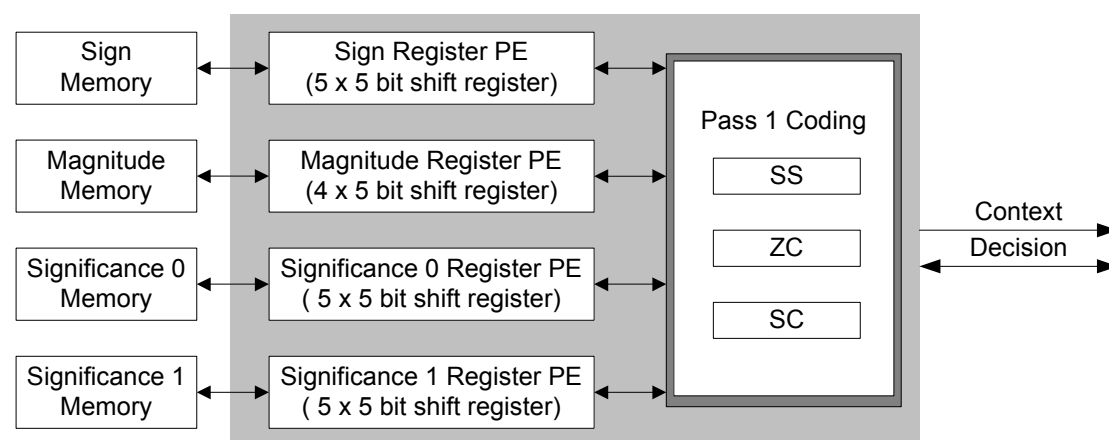


Figure 4-5 Block diagram of Pass 1 coding module

Figure 4-6 shows the block diagram of Pass 2 coding module. There are Magnitude Register PE, Significance 0 Register PE, and Significance 1 Register PE in the Pass 2 coding module (it does not include Sign Register PE), and also Sample-Skipping and Magnitude Refinement Coding in it. Figure 4-7 shows the block diagram of Pass 3 coding module. The difference between Pass 1 coding module and Pass 3 coding module is that there is a RLC block in Pass 3 coding module.

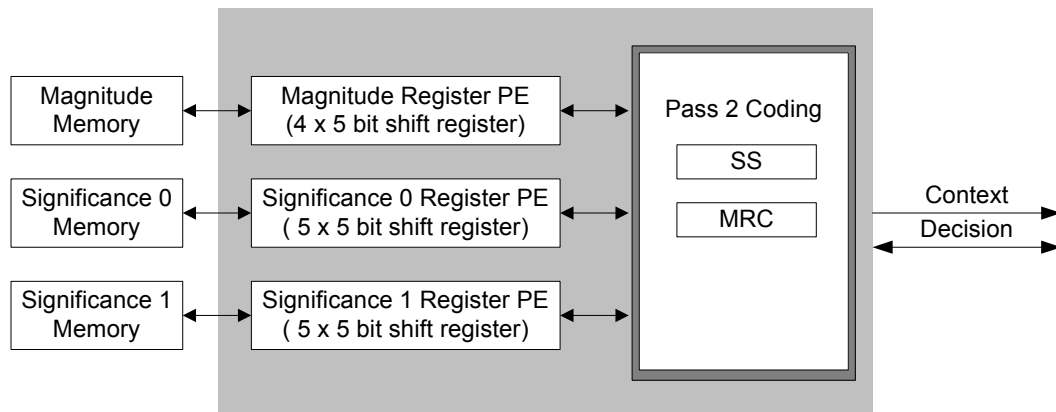


Figure 4-6 Block diagram of Pass 2 coding module

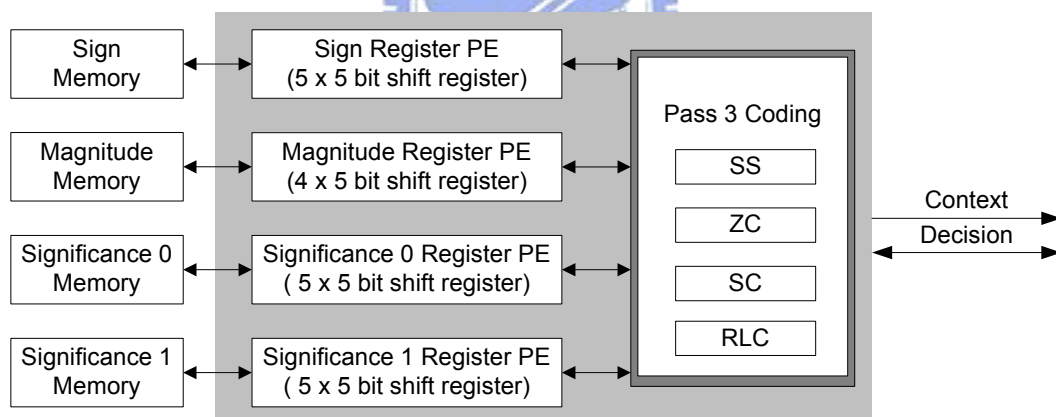


Figure 4-7 Block diagram of Pass 3 coding module

4.2.1. Sample-Skipping architecture

The key idea of the Sample-Skipping method is to skip no-operation samples, and directly code NBC samples, as we described in section 3.1. In the beginning of Sample-Skipping process, a NBC flag to NBC index converter is applied.

The NBC flag is a four bits register, and it indicates which samples in the current coding column are NBC samples. If a bit of NBC flag is 1, it means the

corresponding sample is NBC; otherwise, the corresponding sample is non-NBC. The corresponding sample of the 0th bit of NBC flag is X_0 . And the corresponding samples of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd bits of NBC flag are X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 .

The NBC index is an array of four integers range from 0 to 3. It is used to record the coding order of NBC samples. If X_0 and X_2 are NBC samples, the coding order of this column is that X_0 is the first and X_2 is the second, and the third and the last could be any number range from 0 to 3 because it only needs to code the first two NBC samples. So, according to NBC index, N_0 (the 0th integer) is the first NBC sample in coding order. N_1 (the 1st integer), N_2 (the 2nd integer), and N_3 (the 3rd integer) are the second, third, and the last NBC in coding order.

Table 4-1 shows the NBC index converted from NBC flag. Take the 7th row for example, the value of NBC flag is 0101, and it means there are two NBC samples (X_0 and X_2) in this column. Obviously, the first NBC sample is X_0 and the second NBC sample is X_2 . And the corresponding NBC index is $(x, x, 2, 0)$.

NBC flag (X_3, X_2, X_1, X_0)	NBC index (N_3, N_2, N_1, N_0)
0000	x, x, x, x
0001	x, x, x, 0
0010	x, x, x, 1
0011	x, x, 1, 0
0100	x, x, x, 2
0101	x, x, 2, 0
0110	x, x, 2, 1
0111	x, 2, 1, 0
1000	x, x, x, 3
1001	x, x, 3, 0
1010	x, x, 3, 1
1011	x, 3, 1, 0
1100	x, x, 3, 2
1101	x, 3, 2, 0
1110	x, 3, 2, 1
1111	3, 2, 1, 0

Table 4-1 NBC flag converts to NBC index

Figure 4-8 shows the flow chart of Sample-Skipping method. The current NBC sample is N_0 if 'I' equals to 0. And the current NBC sample is N_1 , N_2 , or N_3 if 'I' is 1, 2, or 3. In the beginning of the flow, set 'I' to be zero, and check if there is any NBC sample in this column. If none, finish coding in this column. Otherwise, it means that there is at least one NBC sample, and the first NBC sample (N_0) is coded immediately. After generating context label of the NBC sample, increase 'I' by one, and check whether or not the number of NBC samples is equal to 'I'. It means total NBC samples have been coded already if 'I' is equal to the number of NBC samples. So, if number of NBC samples equals to 'I', finishing coding in this column; otherwise, coding the next NBC sample (N_1) at next clock cycle and follows the flow until all NBC samples have been coded.

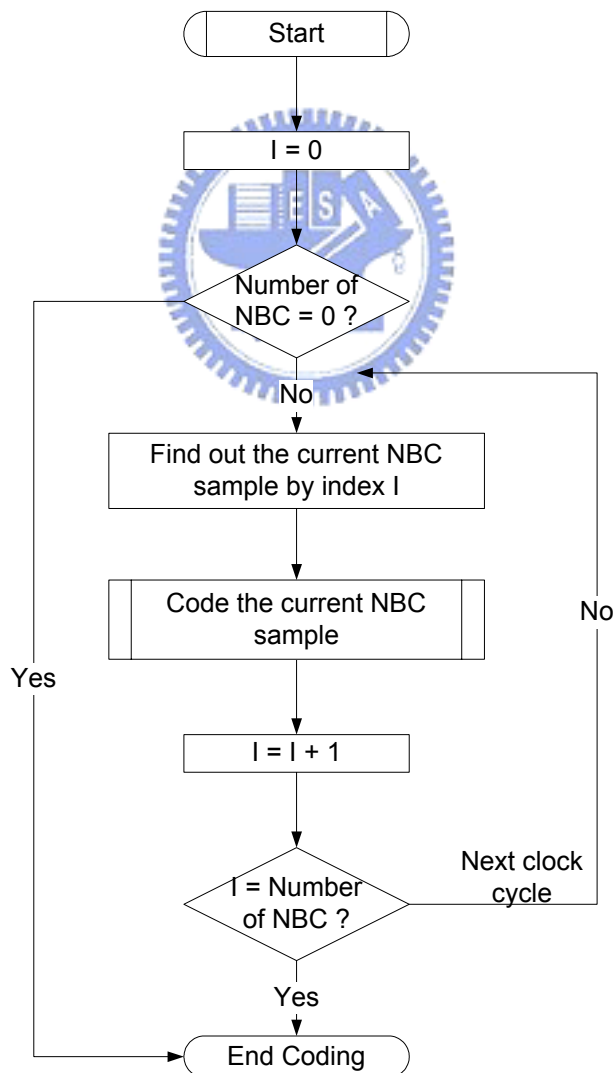


Figure 4-8 Flow chart of Sample-Skipping architecture (include of finding out the current NBC sample by index I)

Only in Pass 2 decoding, the NBC samples could be checked before starting coding. The NBC samples of Pass 1 and Pass 3 decoding may be changed according to the decision from arithmetic coder. Therefore, the MRC (or the Pass 2 coding) is the simplest coding of four coding primitives. Let's introduce the Pass 2 coding module first.

4.2.2. Pass 2 coding module architecture

Figure 4-9 shows the flow chart of Pass 2 coding module, it's similar to the flow chart of Sample-Skipping.

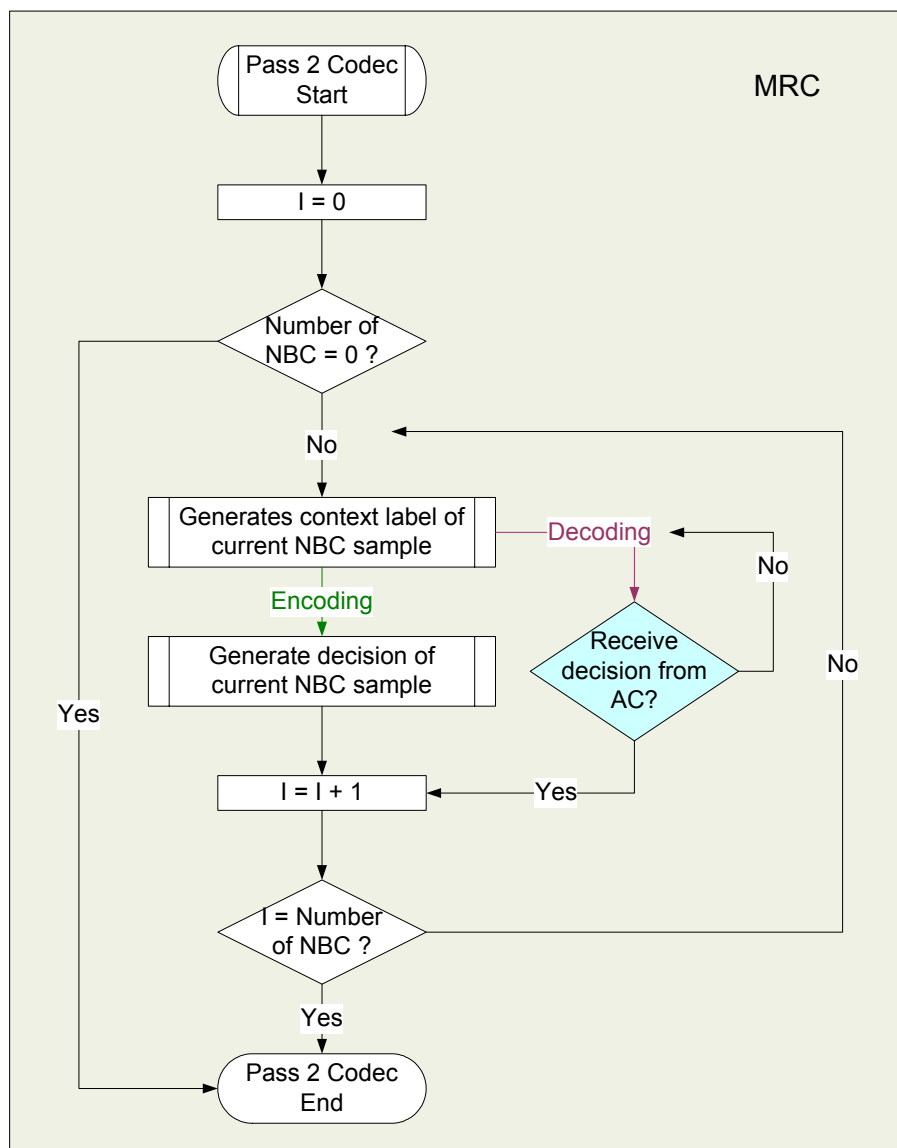


Figure 4-9 Flow chart of the Pass 2 coding module (MRC)

While there is at least one NBC sample in this column, the Pass 2 coding module will generate context label, and then there are two directions. The green one is for encoding. It is the same as Sample-Skipping flow chart while following the green direction. The purple one is for decoding. Following the purple one, it does not provide decision to arithmetic decoder. On the contrary, it waits for the decision generated from arithmetic decoder. Until receiving the decision from arithmetic decoder, it goes on with the flow chart.

4.2.3. Pass 1 coding module architecture

Figure 4-11 shows the flow chart of the Pass 1 coding module, and it is also the flow chart of zero coding and sign coding. Note that the previous section of Figure 4-11 is similar to the flow chart of the Pass 2 coding module. But after generating decision in encoding or receiving decision from arithmetic decoder in decoding, it has to check whether or not the sample needs to be coded in sign coding by the value of decision (i.e. '1' means that needs to be coded by SC, and '0' means that does not need to be coded by SC).

If the SC is needed, it must generate the context label of SC, and receive the decision of SC from arithmetic decoder. The rest flow path of Pass1 coding is similar to Sample-Skipping flow chart.

4.2.4. Pass 3 coding module architecture

The coding primitives of Pass 3 coding are SC, ZC, and RLC. Since the SC and ZC in Pass 3 coding and Pass 1 coding are the same, in this section, we focus on the flow of RLC (and the uniform coding). The path of flow chart, as depicted in Figure 4-10, also has two directions which green one for encoding and purple one for decoding.

Following green paths (encoding paths), Pass 3 coding module generates run-length context label (17) and decision. If none of the magnitude bits in the column is 1, the four samples do not need to be coded by uniform coding, and Pass 3 coding in this column is finished. Otherwise, it means the four samples needs to be coded using uniform coding. After sending two uniform context labels (18) to arithmetic

encoder, RLC and uniform coding in this column are finished. And the rest of NBC samples will be coded by ZC and SC.

Following purple paths (decoding paths), it generates run-length context label (17). If the RLC decision received from arithmetic decoder is zero, it means that none of the four magnitude bits in this column is 1, and finishes Pass 3 coding in this column. If the RLC decision received from arithmetic decoder is one, then not all four magnitude bits are zero, and this column needs to be coded using uniform coding. According to the two uniform decisions generated from arithmetic decoder, it could determine how many samples needed to be coded by ZC and SC.

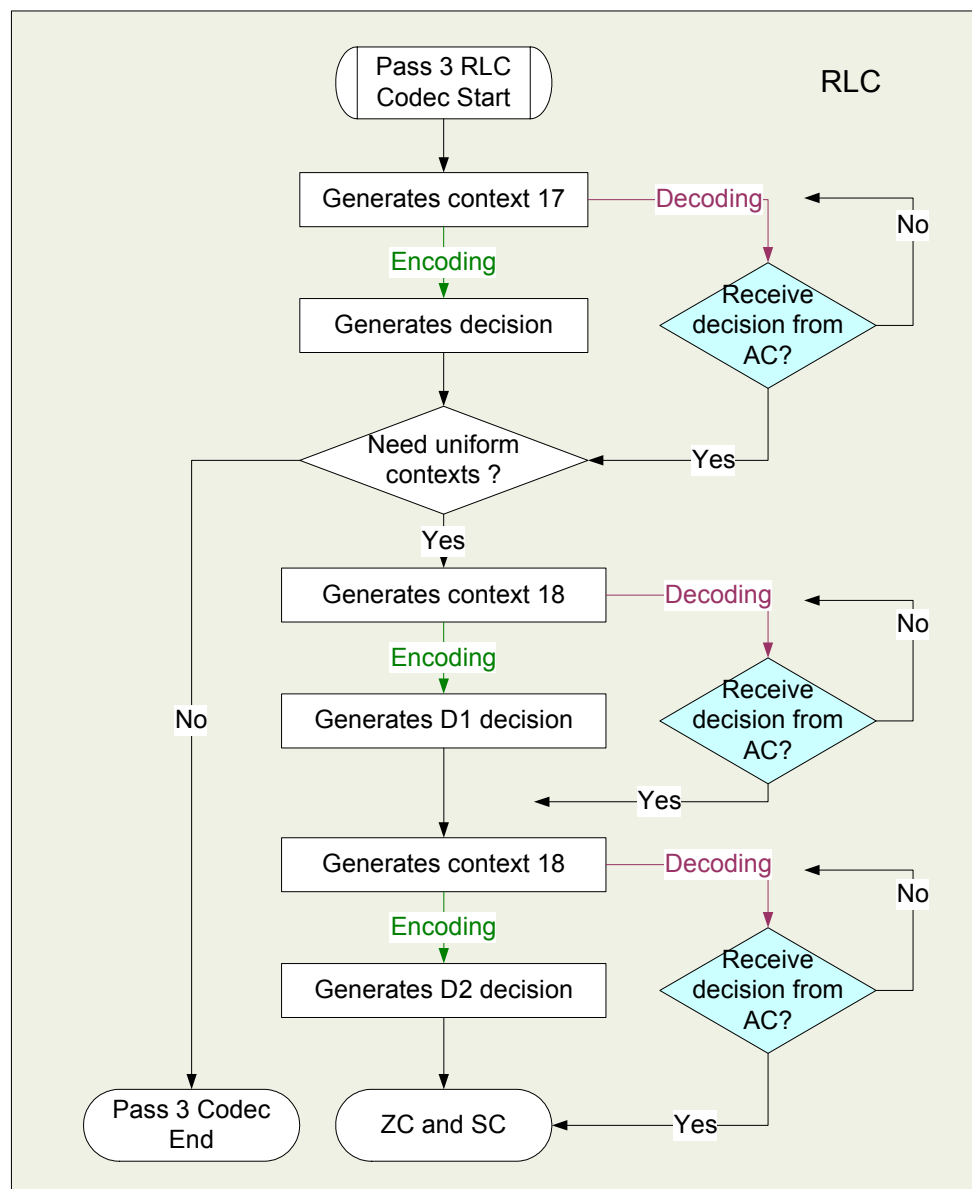


Figure 4-10 Flow chart of Pass 3 coding (RLC)

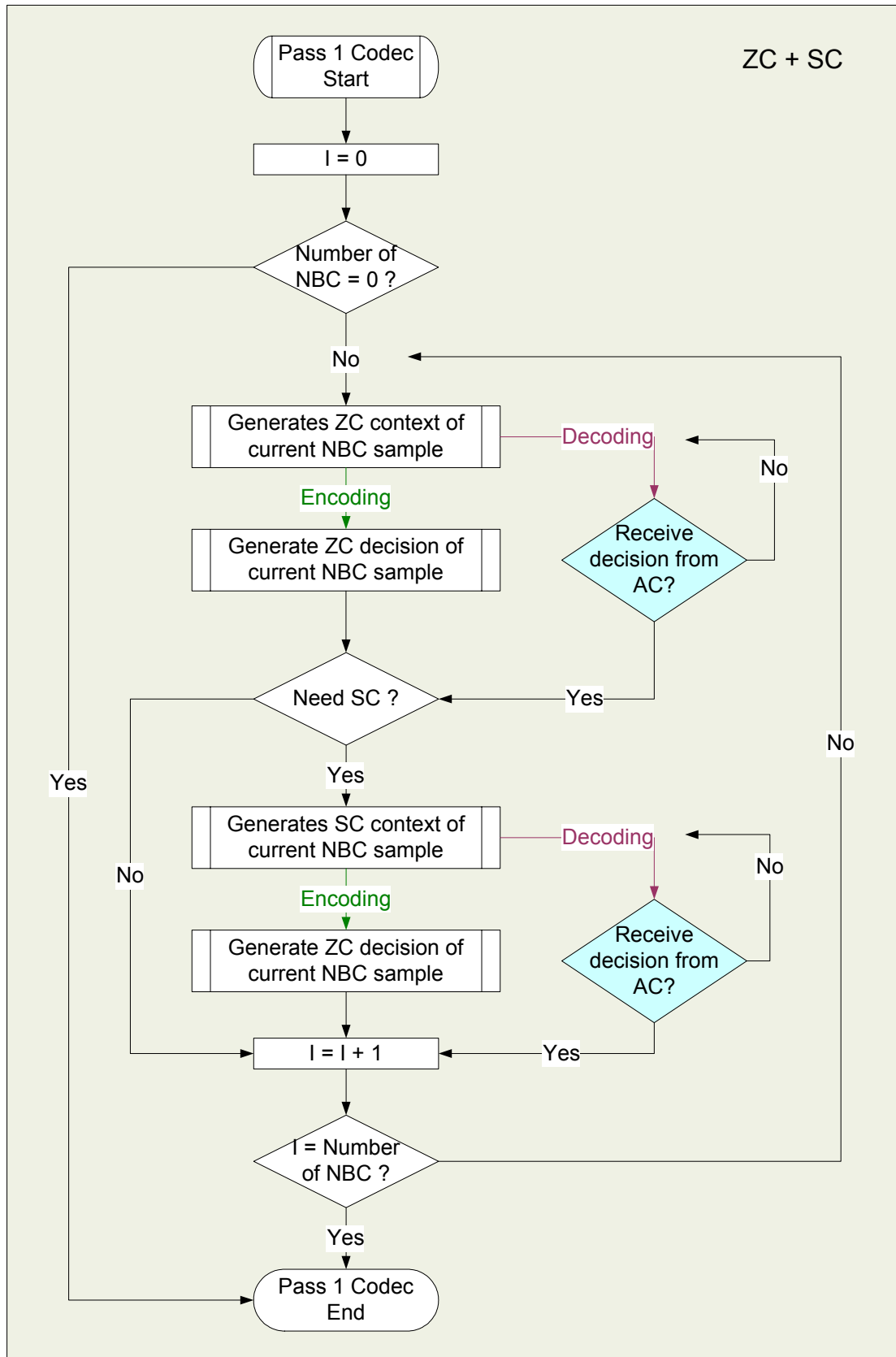


Figure 4-11 Flow chart of Pass 1 coding (ZC+SC)

4.3. SMW and CMW Architecture

After a column is processed by three coding passes, the memories must be updated if there are any changes in the significance states, or coefficient states. The SMW (Significance Memory Write Module) is used for updating the value of significance states. The CMW (Coefficient Memory Write Module) is used for updating the value of magnitude and sign states, and CMW only works in decoding.

Significance Memory Write Module (SMW)

Figure 4-12 shows the flow chart of SMW. It is similar to the flow chart of Sample-Skipping depicted in Figure 4-8. The only difference between them is that SMW changes “Code the current NBC sample” to “Write data to memory”. The index NBCH is used to record if the sample is a need-to-be-changed-value sample, just like NBC.

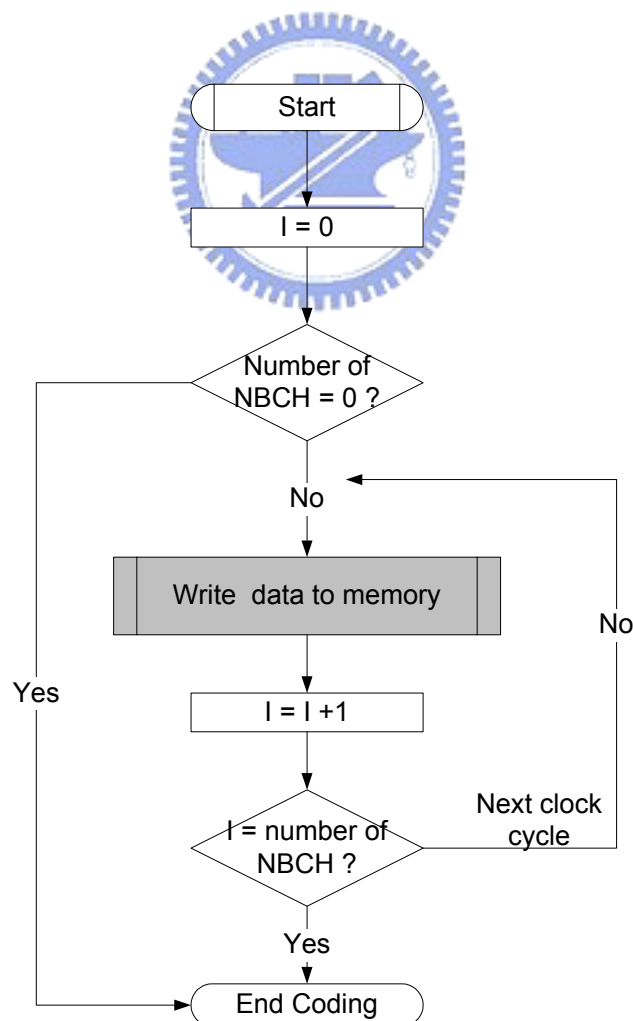


Figure 4-12 Flow chart of writing new significance states into memory

The significance memory (RA2SD) is composed of significance state 0 and significance state1, and it is a 1024×2 bits memory. The 0th bit represents the significance state 0, and the 1st bit represents the significance state 1. The data prepared for writing into significance memory RA2SD is combined from significance 0 register and significance 1 register.

Coefficient Memory Write Module (CMW)

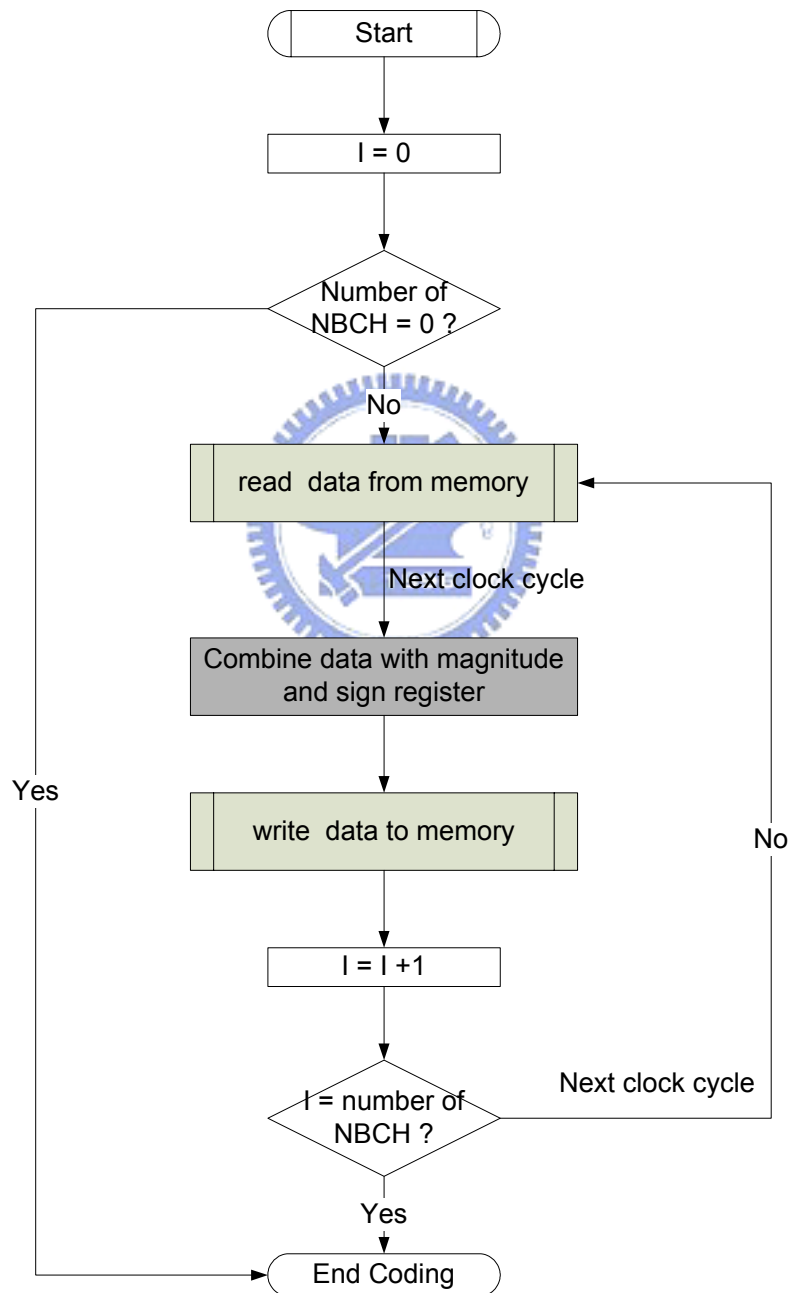


Figure 4-13 Flow chart of writing coefficients into memory. It is similar to the flow chart of writing significance states into memory. But the data must be loaded from memory before writing.

CMW works only in decoding process. It is a little different between SMW and CMW. After three passes coding, we could get a magnitude bit of a sample in current bit-plane and maybe the sign bit if the sample is coded in SC at the bit-plane. The coefficient memory is a 1024×9 bits memory, 1 bit for sign bit and 8 bits for magnitude bits. In the magnitude register, it only could record one magnitude bit for a sample. So, it could not get coefficient data by combining the two register. In CMW, before writing data to memory, it needs to read data from memory. And then store the magnitude bit and sign bit into the current position of data. According to this concept, the CMW costs more clock cycles than SMW.

4.4. Pipeline

Recall the column-based registers, in the encoding, the register B is coded using Pass 3 coding, and register D is coded using Pass 1 and Pass 2 coding, as described in section 4.1. The sample which has been coded by three coding passes will shift to register A, and SMW will update significance memory by the data of four samples in register A. The register F is stored of data loaded from memory by RG. Figure 4-14 shows the relation of five blocks (P1M, P2M, P3M, RG, and SMW) and six registers in encoding.

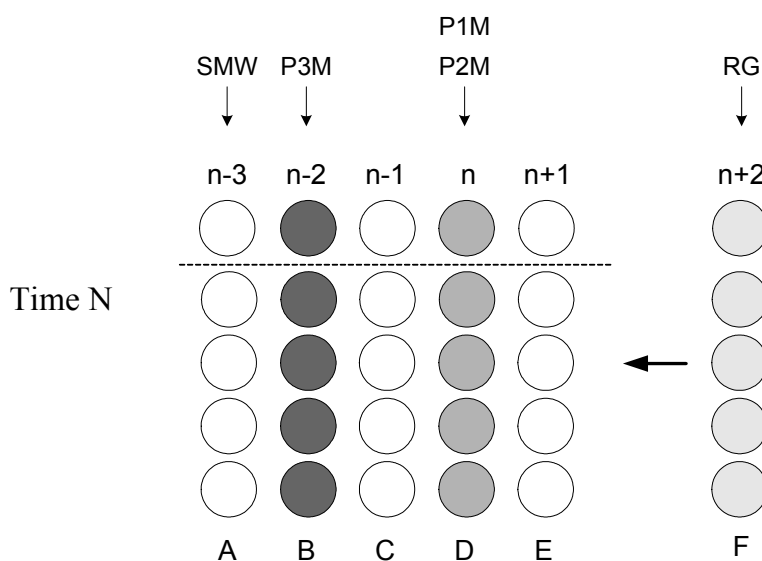


Figure 4-14 Relation of five blocks and six registers in encoding

In decoding, Pass 2 coding module delays two columns to register B. And

register A is coded also by CMW. Figure 4-15 shows the relation of six blocks (P1M, P2M, P3M, RG, SMW, and CMW) and six registers.

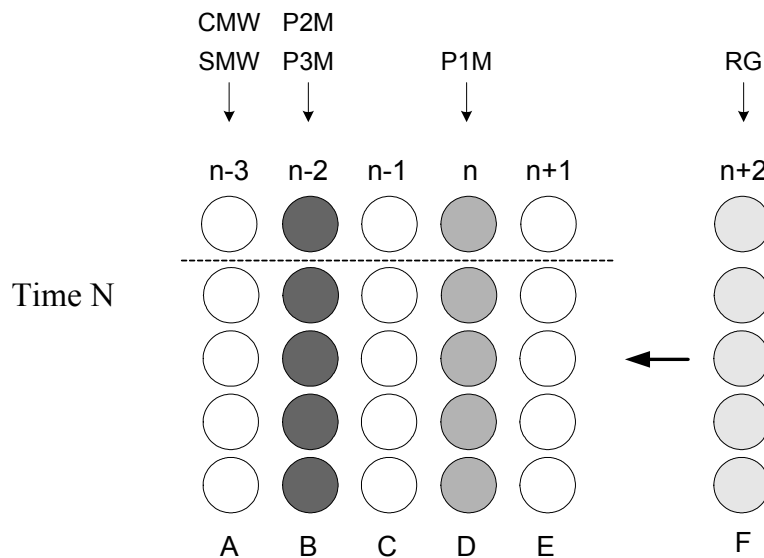


Figure 4-15 Relation of six blocks and six registers in decoding

From Figure 4-14 and Figure 4-15, we know that if every module finishes its work in the corresponding register, the data of registers will shift left. According to this concept, pipeline architecture is easy to implement.

Figure 4-17 is the flow chart of pipeline architecture. The code-block size is 8×7 , 7 columns and 8 rows. We define the index of every sample as follows.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	33	34	35	36	37	38
64	65	66	67	68	69	70
96	97	98	99	100	101	102
128	129	130	131	132	133	134
160	161	162	163	164	165	166
192	193	194	195	196	197	198
224	225	226	227	228	229	230

Figure 4-16 Index of every sample for a 8×7 code-block

And we name column by the index of first sample in that column. For example, the light yellow ellipse named 0 represents the column composed of sample 0, sample 32, sample 64, and sample 96. The pink ellipse named 1 represents the column composed of sample 1, sample 33, sample 65, and sample 97.

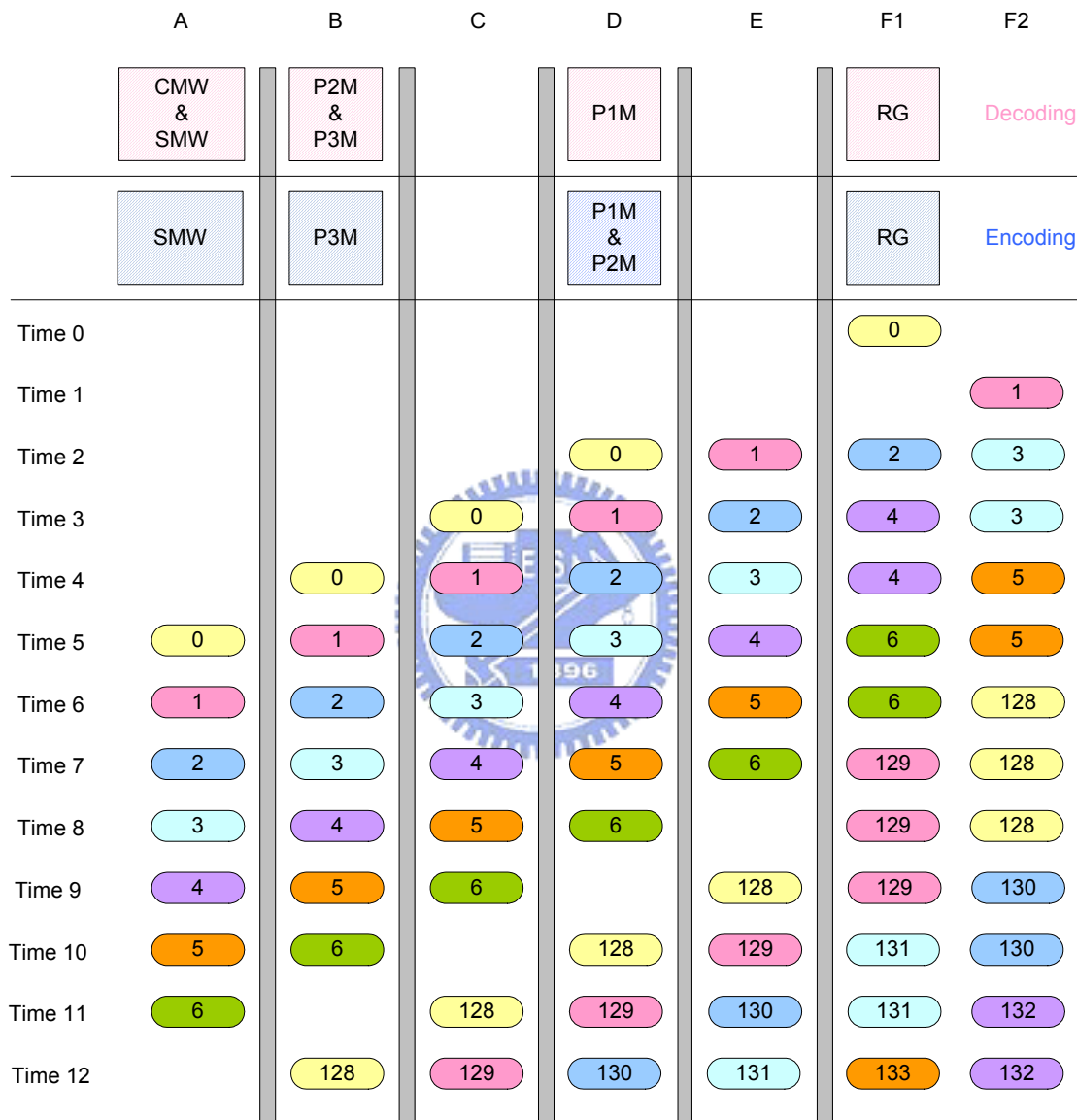


Figure 4-17 Pipeline architecture of encoding and decoding in normal case

Take encoding for example. At the beginning (Time 0 and Time 1), RG loads data of column 0 and column 1 from memory and stores into register F1 and F2. At Time 2, the data of registers is shift to left. The data of column 0 and column 1 is stored into register D and register E. P1M and P2M have to encode register D (column 0), and RG keeps on loading data from memory and storing into register F1

or F2 at Time 2. After P1M and P2M finish encoding register D and RG has loaded data of column 2, the work at Time 2 is finished.

At Time 3, the data of registers is shift to left again. The data of column 0 is stored into register C, and the data of column 1, 2 is stored into register D, E. After P1M and P2M finish coding column 1 in register D and RG stores data of column 3 into register, the work at Time 3 is finished.

At Time 4, the data of column 0 is shift left to register B, and the data of column 1, 2, 3 is shift to register C, D, E. P3M begins working at the time, and it has to code column 0. After P1M and P2M finish coding column 2, and P3M finishes coding column 0, and RG stores data of column 4 into register, the work at Time 4 is finished.

At Time 5, SMW begins working and coding column 0 in register A.

It goes on like this until Time 8. After the work at Time 7 is finished, all data of registers is shift to left except register F2. Note that column 6 is the last column in the first stripe. Since there is no column in right, the right neighbors of column 6 are considered to be insignificant. In other words, if the neighbors fall outside the code-block, they are considered to be insignificant.

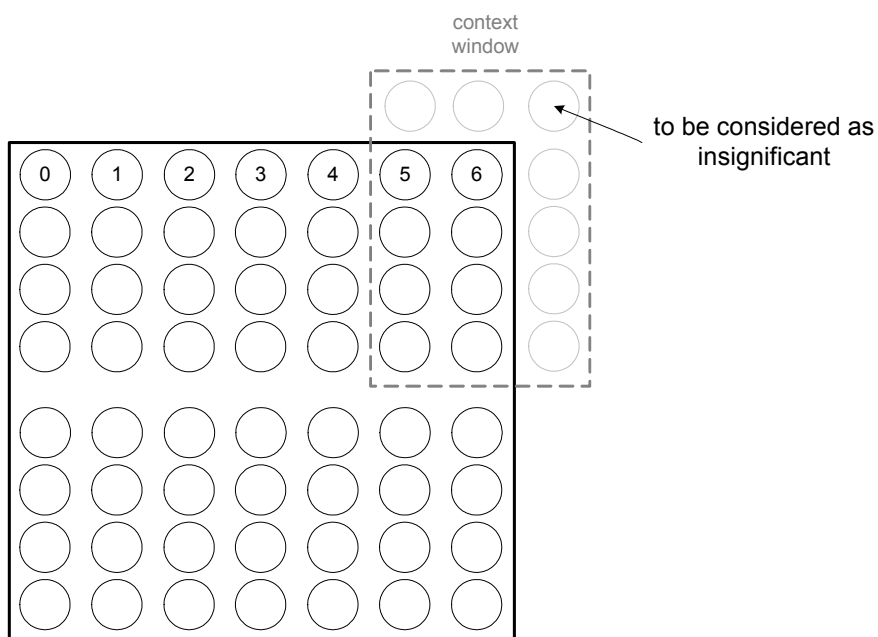


Figure 4-18 If the context window is out of code-block, it considers the samples that don't exist in fact as insignificant.

And it is the same as column 128. Since column 128 is the first column in the second stripe, the left neighbors of column 128 are also considered to be insignificant. For this reason, the data of column 128 must lag the data of column 6 by one column. Hence, the data of register F2 (column 128) does not need to shift left into register after the work at Time 7 is finished, but register A,B,C,D,E must shift left. Then, the pipeline is going on with concepts described above until finishing coding a bit-plane.

If the width of a code-block is less than 7, the time for RG loading data of column 128 must be noticed. Figure 4-19 shows the pipeline for an 8×6 code-block. At Time 4, although register F2 is empty, RG could not load the data of column 128, and it must wait until Time 6 for loading memory.

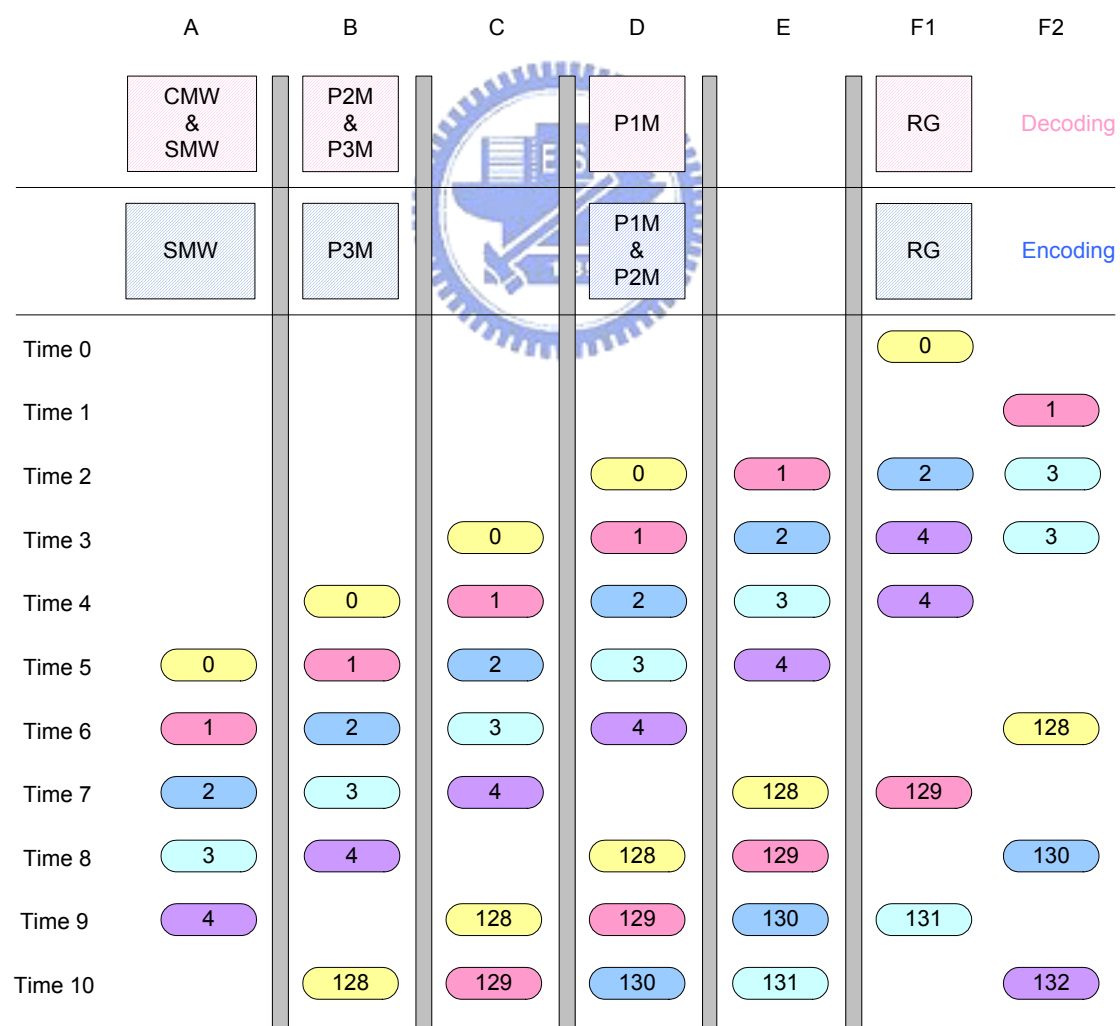


Figure 4-19 Pipeline architecture of encoding and decoding in special case

Since it needs nine neighbors of the current sample in context window, when loading data of column 128, it also needs to load the data of sample 96. And notice that at Time 4, the column 0 is coding by P3M. If RG loads data of sample 96 from memory, the data has not been updated yet (the significance states of the sample may be changed after three coding passes), and RG will load the error data of sample 96. It is the same at Time 5. In order to get the right data of sample 96, RG must load data after SMW updates memory. Hence, it must wait until SMW finishes work in column 0. And if RG wants to load data of column 129, it also must wait until SMW finishes work in column 1. The relation of position of every column is illustrated in Figure 4-20.

0	1	2	3	4
32	33	34	35	36
64	65	66	67	68
96	97	98	99	100
128	129	130	131	132
160	161	162	163	164
192	193	194	195	196
224	225	226	227	228

Figure 4-20 Index of every sample for a 8 x 5 code-block

CHAPTER 5.

EXPERIMENT RESULTS

The design flow, testing consideration, and experiment results are described in this section.

5.1. Design Flow



We design JPEG2000 EBCOT following the document, ISO/IEC FCD 15444-1:2000, which is the specification of JPEG2000. The overall cell-based design flow is shown in Figure 5-1.

C model simulation

We use C language to build verification model for simulating and verifying the algorithm. The result generated by our C model is compared with the data of JASPER software to verify the correctness. Software simulation not only verifies the correctness of the proposed algorithm, but also provides the debug information for the hardware design.

RTL code design and simulation

After the architecture is determined from c model, we proceed to RTL (Register Transfer Level) design using VHDL language. After the programming, the RTL codes, together with testbench, are simulated through the ModelSim simulator. Detail debug information from C model can speed up the RTL code design process.

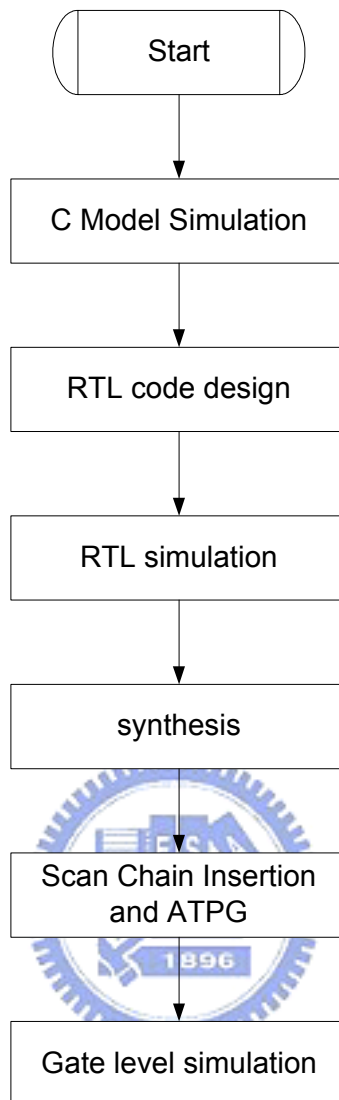


Figure 5-1 Flow chart of cell-based design

Synthesis, Scan Insertion, ATPG, and Gate-level simulation

We adopt Synopsys Design Compiler for the logic synthesis and also ModelSim is used for the gate-level simulation. The key idea of scan chain is to connect all the register in the core in a line or several lines. In general mode, the registers work as usual. While in test mode, registers are multiplexed into a line and test patterns will be shifted in this chain until all the registers are filled with the patterns. In the following cycles, the system shifts out all the bits of the registers to check the combinational logic gates. For our design, the fault coverage is up to 99.24%.

Under 0.25 μ m 1P5M process, our design can process at 133 MHz.

5.2. Design Verification

Verification on C model

We use JasPer Software [11] to verify our design. The Jasper software is official reference software to provide a free software-based reference implementation of the codec specified in the JPEG2000 Part-1 standard. We collect the input data of Tier-1 context formation module in Jasper as the input data in our design, and compare output data of Jasper and ours to verify the correctness of our design.

Verification on RTL code

We use ModelSim 5.5e to verify our architecture described in VHDL code. The test data of coefficients and test data of context-decision pairs are produced earlier by C model. Therefore, we get consist results, which prove that the results and RTL level design in encoding are correct.

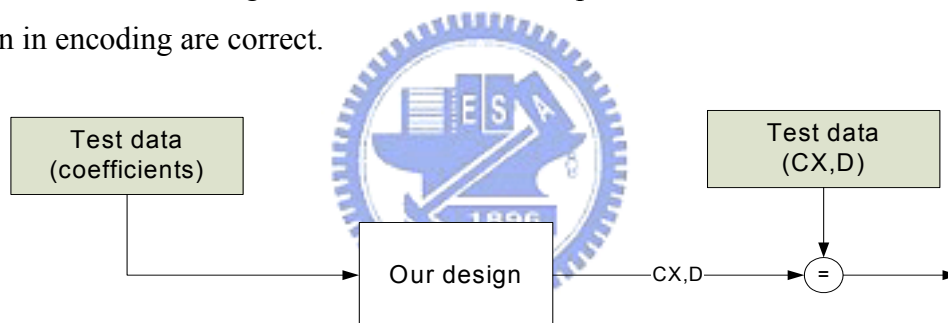


Figure 5-2 Verification flow in encoding

In decoding, since there is no arithmetic decoder to receive contexts and generate decisions for our design, we use the context data and decision data produced by C model to replace the arithmetic decoder. The verification flow in decoding is depicted in Figure 5-3. Initially and usually, our design produces context to compare with the test data of contexts. If they are equal, that means the context generated from our design is correct, and test data of decisions will send to our design. Oppositely, if they are not equal, that means the context generated from our design is wrong and no test data of decision will be sent to our design. The advantage of the flow is that when an error occurs, the design stays at the state that generates the wrong context. In debugging, it is easier to find out which step is incorrect of certain sample in certain bit-plane than coding of a code-block finished. After decoding work is finished, the results will be compared with the test data of coefficients to prove that the results and

RTL level design in decoding are correct.

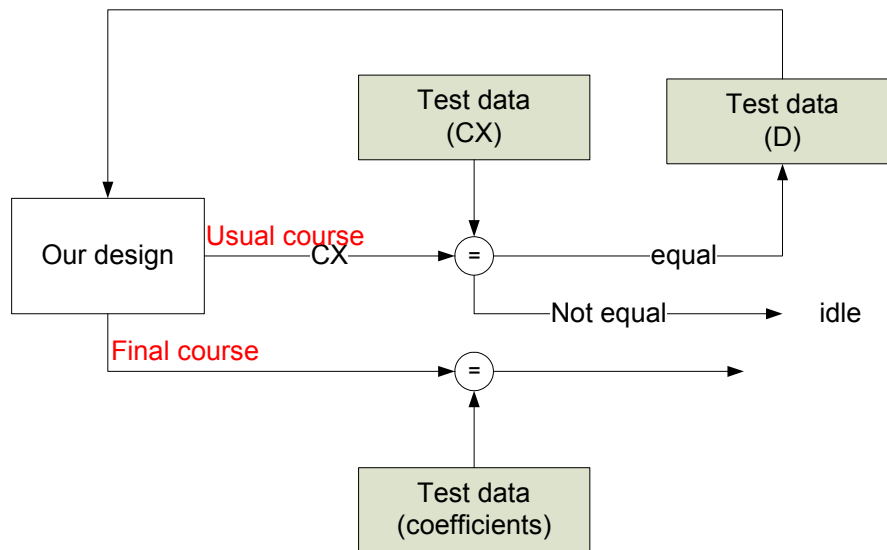


Figure 5-3 Verification flow in decoding

Verification on Gate-level

After we use Synopsys Design Analyzer tool to synthesis the VHDL code to gate level, we use Modelsim 5.5e to verify the gate level netlist. The method for verify gate level netlist is the same as verification on RTL code.

Verification on FPGA

We use the ARM Integrator as our prototyping platform. The CF module and other design for JPEG2000 encoder are realized in Altera FPGA of ARM Integrator. The input source comes from PC camera, and the output data could be decoded by Jasper software.

5.3. Experiment

The result after placement and route is shown in Figure 5-4. The memory which size is 1024×2 bits in the upper left side is used to save two significant state variables. There are totally 120 pads used in this chip, including the data input, data output, internal power and external power. The number of pad used in this chip is listed in Table 5-1. Table 5-2 shows the specification of this design in detail. Logic

gate count is about 19K, and the area is $1775 \mu\text{m} \times 1695 \mu\text{m}$. The maximum clock frequency is 133 MHz. With the clock frequency, 100 Mhz, it can encode 3.98 million pixels image within 0.323 second, corresponding to 2304×1728 image size, or 320×240 RGB image with 50 frames per second. Suppose arithmetic decoder could generate decisions immediately, the throughput in decoding is 6.33 million pixels per second, corresponding to 2304×1728 image with 0.512 second.

Pad Type	Pad Count
Input Pad	46
Output Pad	53
Clock Buffer Pad	1
Internal Power Pad	8
External Power Pad	12

Table 5-1 List of Pad used in this chip

Technology	0.25 CMOS 1P5M
Chip Size	$1775 \mu\text{m} \times 1695 \mu\text{m}$
Gate Count	19057 + 2Kb memory
Clock Frequency	100 MHz
Supply Voltage	2.5 V
Power Consumption	115.9849 mW

Table 5-2 Specifications of this chip

Table 5-3 shows the performance of our design. Due to the different technology and mode, we focus on the throughput only. And since our AC encoder can receive one context-decision pair per second, the encoding throughput in CF is similar as Tier-1. From Table 5-3, our design performs better than others in encoding throughput and supplies the decoding mode with throughput 6.33 million pixels per second.

	Ours	NCTU [7]	NTU	NTU	NTHU
Technology	0.25 μm	0.35 μm	0.35 μm	0.35 μm	0.35 μm
Area (mm^2)	1.775x1.695	3.345x3.138	3.67x3.67	2.381x2.295	
Frequency	100 (133)	142.8	50	100 (133)	50
Mode	CF codec	Tier-1 encoder	Tier-1 encoder	CF encoder	Tier-1 encoder
throughput (encoding)	12.32 M/s	11.72 M/s	9.2 M/s	12.10 M/s	11.22 M/s
throughput (decoding)	6.33 M/s	not supply	not supply	not supply	not supply

Table 5-3 Performance of our design

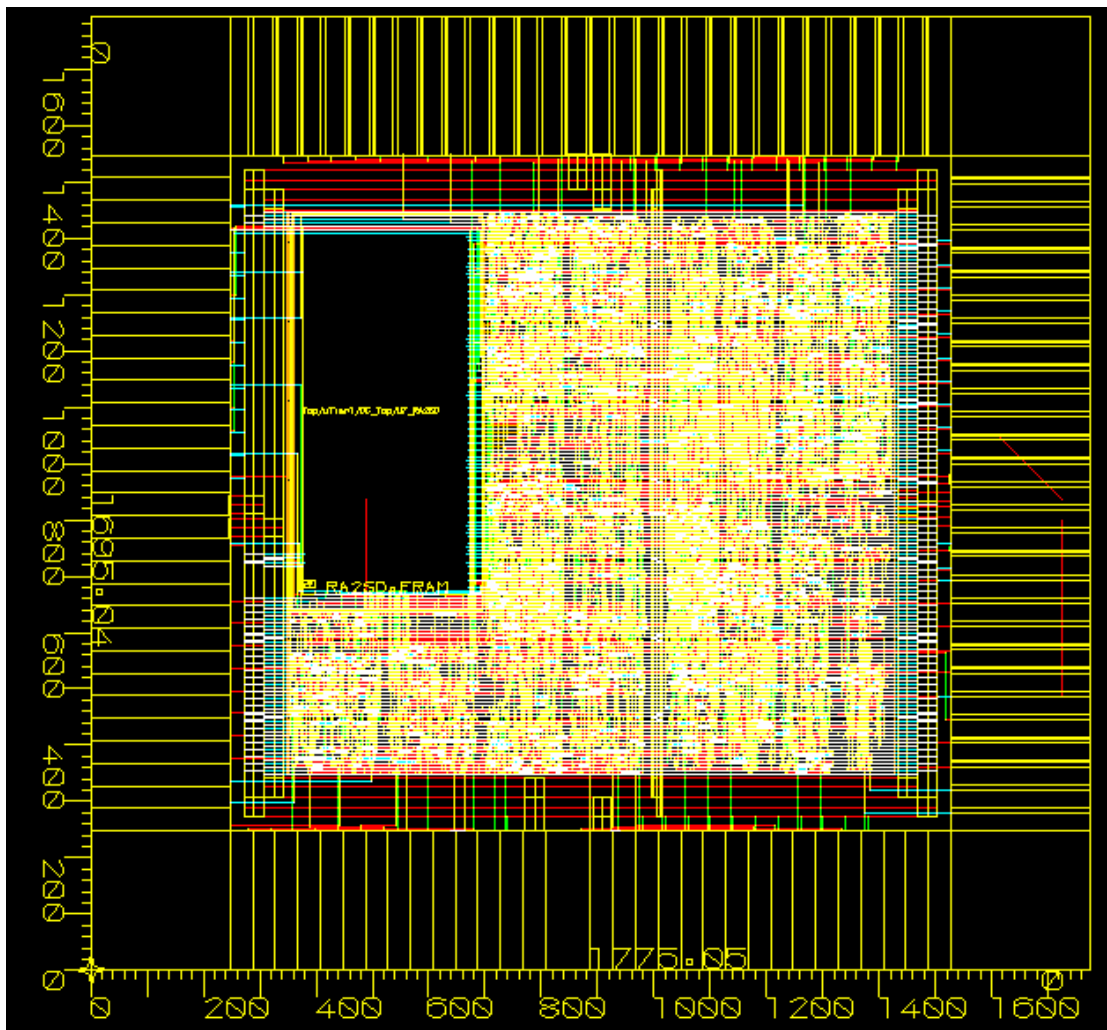


Figure 5-4 Layout view of the CF codec design

CHAPTER 6.

CONCLUSION

In this thesis, we focus on the research and chip design of the context formation module of EBCOT Tier-1 in JPEG2000. The EBCOT Tier-1 coder has high computational complexity, so we propose efficient codec architecture for it. Speedup methods and pipeline technique are adopted in our design. By using this architecture, the process time can be reduced to about 36% of previous work.

In context formation, column-based architecture is used to check four samples in a column concurrently. And two speedup methods, Sample-Skipping and Pass-Parallel, are used. Sample-Skipping can skip no-operation samples in a single column, and directly encode the NBC samples. We will not spend any clock cycle on samples that do not belong to the current coding pass. Pass-Parallel can process three coding passes of the same bit-plane in parallel, and make a 20% reduction in memory requirement. The Sample-Skipping method can reduce the processing time by more than 46% compared to straightforward method. And if both two methods are adopted, the processing cycle time is reduced to 36%.

The design is described with VHDL code and synthesized by Synopsys Design Analyzer. The technology used is CMOS 0.25 technology. The area of this chip is $1775 \mu\text{m} \times 1695 \mu\text{m}$. The clock frequency can reach 133 MHz. With the clock frequency, 100 MHz, it can encode 3.98 million pixels image with 0.323 second, corresponding to 2304×1728 image size. Suppose arithmetic decoder could generate decisions immediately, it can decode 2304×1728 image within 0.512 second.

The future work focuses on distortion estimation in encoding and Sample-Skipping in decoding

Distortion Estimation

A complete context formation module should include the Distortion Estimation, which is the core the rate distortion. In our design, it is difficult to compute the distortion of Pass 1 and Pass 2, so it is restricted to distortion of Pass 3 now. In this situation, the truncation points must fall in the end of bit-plane. Hence, the lossy compression of JPEG2000 performs poorly than truncation points could fall in the end of every pass.

Sample-Skipping in decoding

Figure 6-1 illustrates the key point of disadvantage for Sample-Skipping in our design. In rising edge of 5th clock cycle, CF receives the decision from AC, but it can not send the next context label immediately. So, in the future, we hope it can generate context immediately after receiving decision from AC.

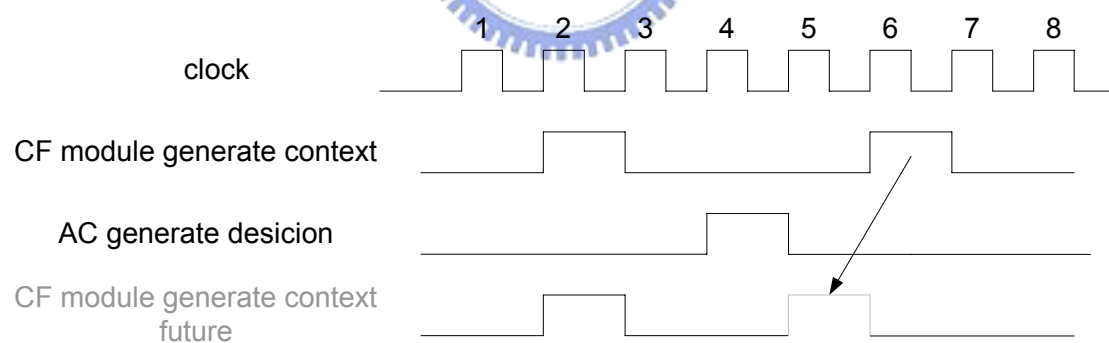


Figure 6-1 Context-decision timing in decoding

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