

# System Level Design of the Adaptive Arithmetic Encoding Used in the JPEG 2000 Standard

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**Abstract:** Hardware implementation of the JPEG 2000 image compression standard for real-time image compression requires implementation of the adaptive arithmetic encoder among other related algorithms. In this work, a system level design for the adaptive arithmetic encoder used in the JPEG 2000 standard is proposed. This design is based on the assumption that the bit-sequence and its corresponding context, obtained through bit modelling for the encoder, are input to the system in their proper order. The output bit-sequence is also used as input to the encoder bit modelling. The original bit-sequence provides the context based on the assumption that the first pass is the cleanup pass and the first context is the Run Length context. All other contexts are recursively evaluated as arithmetic encoder encodes the bit sequence. The final encoding is lossless and results in perfect recovery of the original block image when proper decoding algorithm is used.

#### 1. Introduction

Compression and decompression of the real-time image sequences require hardware implementation of compression as well as decompression algorithms in the corresponding hardware platforms. Coding in the JPEG 2000 standard is based on the adaptive arithmetic coding [1]. During the compression stage, the coding is called encoding and during the decompression stage, the coding is referred to as decoding. Wavelet coefficients will first go through what is referred to as bit modelling before the encoding process can take place. We have already presented a system level design for the wavelet coefficient bit modelling used in the JPEG 2000 standard [2]. In this work, we have developed a particular system level implementation design for the corresponding adaptive arithmetic encoder. We have also used a similar approach in designing a system level implementation of the JPEG 2000 decoding algorithm as described in [3].

In this design we assume that the compressed bit-sequence and its corresponding context, obtained through bit modelling for the encoder, are properly input to the system. The final bit-stream is the output bit-sequence that is resulted from this system. Our main reference in this work is the JPEG 2000 Part I Final Committee Draft Version 1.0 dated 16 March 2000 [4]. The relevant part of this reference is Annex C. For the sake of space and brevity of our presentation, we do not repeat the discussion that is presented in this reference. Interested reader is referred to pp. 71-84 of [4], namely Section C.1 and C.2 of Annex C. In the following, whenever an explanation of the method or procedure is given it is always with the aforementioned reference.

A system level architecture capable of encoding JPEG2000 algorithm is proposed in [5]. In this work, embedded block coding with optimized truncation (EBCOT), using column-based coding architecture of tier-1 block coding engine, is discussed. This implementation is based on hardware descriptive language (HDL) and Xilinx FPGAs. Another VLSI architecture for a generic block coder with concurrent symbol processing is proposed in [6]. This approach combines bit plane coder with arithmetic coder to achieve better throughput. A pipelined binary arithmetic coder architecture is proposed in [7] in order to achieve higher rate than the conventional architectures. In this work, we propose a system level implementation that takes advantage of parallelization and trades off hardware for speed to achieve the highest possible throughput for any VLSI implementation.

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Efficient hardware implementation of the arithmetic encoding requires several registers, counters, and look-up-tables (LUTs). We introduce these items along with some circuitry, as we as we foresee appropriate for this design. At first we present the overall system in- put/output diagram and then proceed with explanation and design of each individual elements in the system. With reference to Figure 1, the inputs to this system consist of two input lines one with one-bit word that is the input bit-sequence coming from the bit modeller and the other one is a five-bit word that represents the context of the corresponding input bit. With reference to [4], there are nineteen different contexts that are always represented by unsigned integers between 0 and 18 inclusive. Initially the context for the first compressed bit is assumed to be 18. Contexts 0 through 8 are used for significance propagation and cleanup



Figure 1. Overall structure of the Input/Output relation for the Adaptive Arithmetic Encoder.



Figure 2. RAMs used for MPS and I index to be accessed dynamically and initialized as specified at the beginning of encoding of each block.

passes, contexts 9 through 13 are used for sign contexts, contexts 14 through 16 are used for the magnitude refinement coding passes, context 17 is used for Uniform context and context 18 is used for Run-Length context.

In the following we discuss the structure and functionality of different sub-blocks that are needed for this design.

#### 2. Registers, Memories, Counters, and Look-Up-Tables (LUTS)

There is a need for two sets of random-access memories (RAMs) in order to store the values for the most probable symbol (MPS) and index (I) associated to each context. Since we only have nineteen different contexts, the size of these RAMs should be 32 (assuming that their size should be power of 2). The MPS is a one-bit word but the index (I) is a six-bit word. It should be pointed out that the values used for the index are unsigned integers between 0 and 46. Initially these two RAMs are set as shown in Figure 2. The 'Reset' operation is a little complex and may take several clock cycles for its completion.

In our approach, we take the maximum advantage of using look-up-tables (LUTs) for storage of previously calculated values. This design can benefit from four look-up-tables (LUTs) in order to store the next most probable symbol (NMPS or Next MPS), the next least probable symbol (NLPS), current estimate of the least probable symbol (LPS) probability,

#### System Level Design of the Adaptive Arithmetic Encoding Used in the JPEG 2000 Standard

	70		Continue						
	ja (j				Address in HEX	Qe in HEX	NMPS in HEX	NLPS in HEX	SWITCH
	iāX	Qe Out 16	<b>→</b>		0x13	0x3401	0x14	0x12	0
	P 4	6 m 1			0x14	0x3001	0x15	0x13	0
	O i	3 Out -	-		0x15	0x2801	0x16	0x13	0
	μĘ	MPS Out 🖗	→		0x16	0x2401	0x17	0x14	0
	38 .				0x17	0x2201	0x18	0x15	0
	-₩¥ ^	ILPS Out	<b>→</b>		0x18	0x1C01	0x19	0x16	0
	<u>0</u> 0				0x19	0x1801	0x1A	0x17	0
					0x1A	0x1601	0x1B	0x18	0
Address in HEX	Qe in HEX	NMPS in HEX	NLPS in HEX	SWITCH	0x1B	0x1401	0x1C	0x19	0
0x00	0x5601	0x01	0x01	1	0x1C	0x1201	0x1D	0x1A	0
0x01	0x3401	0x02	0x06	0	0x1D	0x1101	0x1E	0x1B	0
0x02	0x1801	0x03	0x09	0	0x1E	0x0AC1	0x1F	0x1C	0
0x03	0x0AC1	0x04	0x0C	0	0x1F	0x09C1	0x20	0x1D	0
0x04	0x0521	0x05	0x1D	0	0x20	0x08A1	0x21	0x1E	0
0x05	0x0221	0x26	0x21	0	0x21	0x0521	0x22	0x1F	0
0x06	0x5601	0x07	0x06	1	0x22	0x0441	0x23	0x20	0
0x07	0x5401	0x08	0x0E	0	0x23	0x02A1	0x24	0x21	0
0x08	0x4801	0x09	0x0E	0	0x24	0x0221	0x25	0x22	0
0x09	0x3801	0x0A	0x0E	0	0x25	0x0141	0x26	0x23	0
0x0A	0x3001	0x0B	0x11	0	0x26	0x0111	0x27	0x24	0
0x0B	0x2401	0x0C	0x12	0	0x27	0x0085	0x28	0x25	0
0x0C	0x1C01	0x0D	0x14	0	0x28	0x0049	0x29	0x26	0
0x0D	0x1601	0x1D	0x15	0	0x29	0x0025	0x2A	0x27	0
0x0E	0x5601	0x0F	0x0E	1	0x2A	0x0015	0x2B	0x28	0
0x0F	0x5401	0x10	0x0E	0	0x2B	0x0009	0x2C	0x29	0
0x10	0x5101	0x11	0x0F	0	0x2C	0x0005	0x2D	0x2A	0
0x11	0x4801	0x12	0x10	0	0x2D	0x0001	0x2D	0x2B	0
0x12	0x3801	0x13	0x11	0	0x2E	0x5601	0x2E	0x2E	0

Figure 3. Structure of the four LUTs and their corresponding values.

i.e.,  $Q_e$  values, and the SWITCH bit. These LUTs should have a capacity of at least 47 (or 64 if the size of these LUTs are restricted to be in powers of 2). Word-lengths in these LUTs are as follows:  $Q_e$  is 16-bit, NMPS and NLPS are 6-bit each, and SWITCH is 1-bit. The setup of these LUTs are explained in Figure 3.

Operation of the arithmetic encoder depends on two specific registers that are the core of the system. These registers, referred to as A-register and C-register (Code Register), are organized as shown in Figure 4. During the encoding operation we need to have a dedicated register, referred to as B-register, to hold the b bits of the code register (C-register) for outputting the compressed code as needed. The B-register, not shown, is an 8-bit register that will be discussed with more details during the analysis of the C-register.

Details of these registers are decided and designed based on the kind of operations that are desired for each register. The A-register should accommodate operations like setting the register to the fixed value of  $Q_e$  or 0x8000, subtracting  $Q_e$  from the content of the register, comparing  $Q_e$  with the content of the register, and shifting the content of the register to the left by one bit. These operations are designed in such a way that any of them can only take one clock cycle. This claim is based on the assumption that the value of  $Q_e$  is not changed in the previous clock cycle and the comparison and the subtraction operations are readily



Figure 4. Structures of the two main registers in the operation of the arithmetic encoder.







Figure 6. Structure of the C-register circuitry along with the two possible ways of getting the B-register values. Output MUXs are already registered and there is no need for a specific register to hold data.

Available at the moment that they are needed. The circuitry of the A-register is shown in figure 5. Since in some occasions we need to know the state of the MSB of this register, the MSB value is also used as an output.

In the case of C-register, there are more operations and internal registers. The circuitry in this case is shown in Figure 6. In this case there are two registers a 32—bit register and a 8—bit register. The 32—bit register denoted as C Out represents the current value of the C- register. On the other hand, the 8—bit register, denoted as B Out represents the compressed byte one clock cycle after Get B is issued. In this design we assume that the 'shift-left' operation is foreseen before hand and is prepared for use right at the time that it is asked for. Therefore, our assumption is that all operations are calculated and ready for use at the input of the 8—input MUX for selection. If this is not true for any of the operations then we need to allow enough time for their preparation before accepting the content of the C-register as its final value. There are two simple operations on the B Input that is also included as part of the C-register circuitry.



Figure 7. Circuitry for comparison of B value with 0xFF.

There are two simple operations on the 'B Out' that can be carried out properly by using simple gates or digital comparators. In several situations we need to check if 'B Out' is equal to 0xFF. Also, in one case we need to increment B by 1 and then check if B equals to 0xFF. This last operation can be simplified by conducting a comparison between 'B Out' (without incrementing it) with 0xFE. These operations are explained in Figure 7.

Finally there is a need for a special counter to properly keep track of the CT parameter. This parameter keeps track of the compressed bit positions in the C-register. Operations needed for this counter are setup, decrement and increment. The setup operation works with two inputs. The 'Set' input, which is a 1—bit input, signals the setup operation and the 'Set Value' input, which is a 4—bit input, indicating the value that the counter should be set to. Block diagram of this counter is shown in Figure 8.



Figure 8. Block diagram of the CT Counter

For registers, LUTs, RAMs and CT Counter each operation takes only one clock cycle with the assumptions stated earlier. As we proceed we address those assumptions for the more complex operations of the decoding process.

#### 3. Circuits Operation

In this section we first present the sequence of operations in a form of a pseudo code and then we formulate their proper hardware implementation. Our assumption is that the first bit and its context is preceded by a 'START' signal and the last bit and its context is followed by an 'END' signal. Based on the JPEG 2000 standard, the sequence of encoding operations are as follows:

First, right at the time that the 'START' signal is issued the INITIALIZATION will be carried on. Then, the sequence of bits along with the corresponding sequence of contexts is delivered to the decoder. The speed of delivery of the bit-sequence depends on the overall speed of the encoder and is assumed to come at proper speed. This can be controlled by the way that the bits are read from memory or, if the bits are arriving at a lower speed, it is assumed that the bits enter the circuitry as soon as they become available. There might be a need for an input buffer to regulate the data delivery to the input of the decoder.

In table 1 the pseudo code of the initialization along with the main operation is presented. The circuitry for the initialization is shown in figure 9 and the circuitry for the main operation is shown in figure 10. These processes start by the 'Start' signal. The main process ends by the 'End' signal. The main process refers to other more detailed processes as discussed in the following.

One process that is referred to is the CODELPS operation. The pseudo code for this operation is shown in table 2. The corresponding circuitry for this operation is shown in

Table 1. Pseudo Code for The Main Operations

1
INITIALIZATION:
1- Set A-register to $0x8000$ : A = $0x8000$
2- Set C-register to 0: $C = 0$
3- Reset All RAMs
4- If 'B Out' equals $0xFF(B \stackrel{?}{=} 0xFF)$ ,
Set CT-counter to 13 (0xD): (CT = $0$ xD), Else
Set CT-counter to $12 (0xC)$ : (CT = $0xC$ )
LOOP:
1- Get Bit 'D' and its context 'CX'
2- Use 'CX' as address into all RAMs to get 'MPS' and 'I'
3- Use 'I' as address into all LUTs to get Qe, 'NMPS', 'NLPS', and
'SWITCH'
4- Calculate C M P S = $D \cdot M P S + D \cdot M P S$
5 - If C M P S = 1,
USE CODEMPS, Else
USE CODELPS
6- If NOT FINISHED,
Go to LOOP, Else
USE FLUSH operations
End LOOP



Figure 9. The circuitry for the initialization of the encoding process.



Figure 10. The circuitry of the main operation that includes the Initialization as the final ending of the encoding procedure.

Table 2. Pseudo Code for Codelps Operations
1- Subtract Q e from A to get the new A: A? (A - Qe)
2- If A < Qe,</li>
Add Qe to C: C? (C + Qe), Else
Set A to Qe: A = Qe
3- If 'SWITCH' = '1' Change 'MPS' to its complement and store the new value into the corresponding RAM at the address given by 'CX'.
4- Set 'I' to 'NLPS'
5- CONDUCT RENORM OPERATIONS

Figure 11. In this operation there is a reference to another operation called RENORM. The RENORM procedure is discussed after presentation of the CODEMPS operation as follows.



Figure 11. The circuitry for the CODELPS operation.

Table 3. Pseudo Code for CODEMPS Operations

1- Subtract Q e from A to get the new A: A? (A - Q e	)
2- If MSB (Most Significant Bit) of A is '1', Add Qe	to C : C ◀
(C + Q e) Else Conduct the following:	
(a) If $A < Qe$ ,	
Set A to $Qe : A = Qe$ , Else	
Add Qe to C: C? $(C + Qe)$	
(b) Set 'I' to 'NMPS'	
(c) CONDUCT RENORM OPERATIONS	

The next process that is referred to in the Main process is the CODEMPS operation. The pseudo code for this operation is shown in table 3. The corresponding circuitry for this operation is shown in figure 12.

The pseudo code of the RENORM operation, which is referred to in both CODELPS and CODEMPS, is shown in table 4. The corresponding circuitry is shown in figure 13. This set of operations refers to another operation called BYTEOUT. It is also referring to itself under certain circumstances, which makes it a recursive operation under this condition.

The set of operations called BYTEOUT constitutes the stage in which compressed code is sent out whenever is ready. The pseudo code for this operation is given in table 5. The corresponding hardware circuitry for this stage is shown in figure 14.





# Table 4. Pseudo Code for The Renorm Operations

LOOP:
1 - Conduct the following:
(a) Shift left A by 1 bit
(b) Shift left C by 1 bit
(c) Decrement 'CT' counter by 1
2- If 'CT' is '0', CONDUCT BYTEOUT
OPERATIONS
3- If MSB of A is '0', go to LOOP





-1 and $-2$ . The second Cours for $D + 1$ is $C + 1$ .	Table 5.	Pseudo	Code for	BYTEOUT	<b>Operations</b>
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If B equals to $0x FF(B^? 0xFF)$ , = Conduct the RIGHT operations, Else If 'c' (carry bit in the C-register) is '0' Conduct the LEFT operations, Else Increment B by 1: B ? B + 1 If B equals to $0xFF$
Set 'c' bit to '0' and conduct the RIGHT operations, Else
Get B1 (Use 'c' bit as part of the 8- bit 'B Out') Set 12 MSBs of the C-register to zeros Set counter 'CT' to 7
LEFT operations: All simultaneous: Get B2 (Use all the 'b' bits as the 8- bit 'B Out') Set 13 MSBs of the C-register to zeros Set counter 'CT' to 8
RIGHT operations: All simultaneous:



Figure 14. The circuitry for the BYTEOUT operation.

Finally, at the end of the code block, the procedure that is referred to as FLUSH will be conducted. The pseudo code for this operation is given in table 6. The corresponding hardware circuitry is shown in figure 15.

Table	6.	Pseudo	Code f	for FL	LUSH	Operations





Figure 15. The circuitry for the FLUSH operation.

## 4. Conclusion

System level design for the hardware implementation of the adaptive arithmetic encoder used in the JPEG 2000 image compression standard is presented. This implementation is one of the significant part of the complete hardware implementation of the JPEG 2000 encoding standard. In this implementation, the bit-sequence and its corresponding context, obtained through the bit modelling for the encoder, are used as input to the system. The output of this implementation is the compressed bit-sequence used for storage or transmission of the image. The final encoding is lossless and results in perfect recovery of the original block image when is used in conjunction with the corresponding JPEG 2000 decoder.

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