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Image Coding With EZT, SPIHT Algorithm And Context Modeling Using Wavelet Transform

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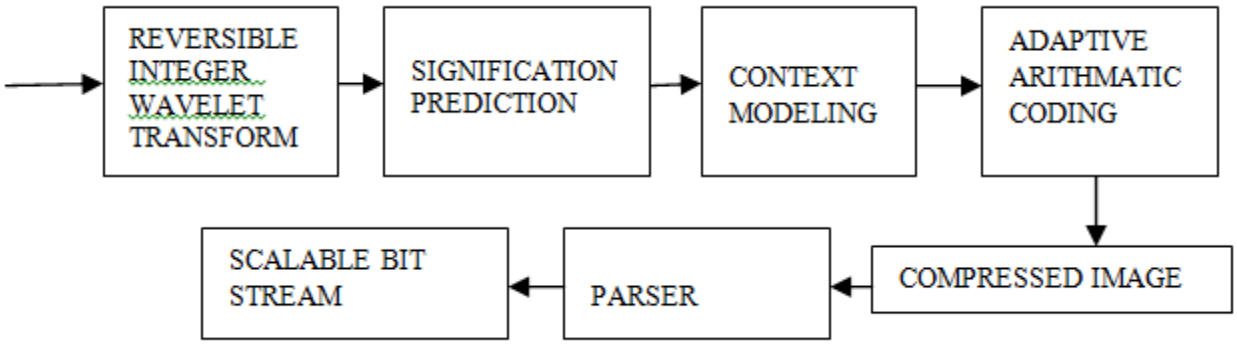
Abstract -Wavelet transform is a type of signal representation that can give the frequency content of the signal at a particular instant of time. The Objective of Compression is to reduce the memory and efficient use of bandwidth. JPEG-2000 is an emerging standard for still image compression. Image compression must not only reduce the necessary storage and bandwidth requirements, but also allow extraction for editing, processing, and targeting particular devices and applications. Entropy coding is carried out as context-dependent, binary, arithmetic coding of bitplanes. Wavelet filters with more analyzing vanishing moments generally perform well with natural and smooth images and not so with images with a lot of edges and high frequency components.

The analysis filter bank has decomposed the image into four parts. LL is the analog of the low pass image.

HL, LH and HH each contain high frequency information and are analogs of the wavelet components. In analogy with the wavelet transform, we can now leave the _ wavelet sub images HL, LH and HH unchanged, and apply our filter bank to the LL sub image. Then this block in the upper left-hand corner of the analysis image will be replaced by four blocks L'L', H'L', L'H' and H'H', in the usual order. We use the approach of Embedded Zero Tree Algorithm in both MATLAB® and VHDL and it is efficient for hardware implementation.

Embedded Zero Tree Algorithm, Set Partitioning in Hierarchical trees algorithm and EZW with Context modeling algorithm were compared using the results of Peah to signal noise Ratio.

IMAGE



I. INTRODUCTION

Wavelet transform is a type of signal representation that can give the frequency content of the signal at a particular instant of time. The Objective of Compression is to reduce the memory and efficient use of bandwidth. Two Types of Compression are Lossy compression and Lossless compression

A typical image consists of a rectangular array of pixels, each pixel coded by bits. In contrast to an audio signal, this signal has a fixed length.

The pixels are transmitted one at a time, starting in the upper left-hand corner of the image and ending with the lower right. However for image processing purposes it is more convenient to take advantage of the 2D geometry of the situation and consider the image not as a linear time sequence of pixel values but as a geometrical array in which each pixel is assigned its proper location in the image.

At this point [7] the analysis filter bank has decomposed the image into four parts. LL is the analog of the low pass image.

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HL, LH and HH each contain high frequency (or difference) information and are analogs of the wavelet components. In analogy with the wavelet transform, we can now leave the _ wavelet sub images HL, LH and HH unchanged, and apply our filter bank to the LL sub image. Then this block in the upper left-hand corner of the analysis image will be replaced by four blocks L'L', H'L', L'H' and H'H', in the usual order. We could stop here, or we could apply the filter bank to L'L' and divide it into four pixel blocks L"L", H"L", L"H" and H"H". Each iteration adds a net three additional subbands to the analyzed image. Thus one pass through the filter bank gives 4 subbands, two passes give 7, and three passes yield 10 and four yield 13. Four or five levels are common. For a typical analyzed image, most of the signal energy is in the low pass image in the small square in the upper left-hand corner. It appears as a bright but blurry miniature facsimile of the original image. The various wavelet subbands have little energy and are relatively dark.

If we run the analyzed image through the synthesis filter bank, iterating an appropriate number of times, we will reconstruct the original signal. However, the usual reason for going through this procedure is to process the image before reconstruction. The storage of images consumes a huge number of bits in storage devices; compression of the number of bits defining the image, say by a factor of 50, has a great impact on the amount of storage needed. Transmission of images over data networks is greatly speeded by image compression. The human visual system is very relevant here. One wants to compress the image in ways that are not apparent to the human eye. If we increase the size of the units in a given subband then fewer bits will be needed per pixel in that subband and fewer bits will need to be stored. This will result in a loss of detail but may not be apparent to the eye, particularly in subbands with low energy. This is called quantization. The compression level, say 20 to 1, is mandated in advance. Then a bit allocation algorithm decides how many bits to allocate to each subband to achieve that over-all compression while giving relatively more bits to high energy parts of the image, minimizing distortion, etc. Then the newly quantized system is *entropy code*d.

A hardware architecture to implement the significance map coding for the embedded zero tree wavelet (EZW) algorithm. The architecture is regular and modular and is suitable for VLSI implementation. The approach is based on developing an efficient scheme to determine ancestor descendant relationships in the wavelet coefficient data stream by rearrangement of the data stream for simpler VLSI implementation.

For edge detection one is looking for regions of rapid change in the image and the wavelet subbands are excellent for this. Noise will also appear in the wavelet subbands and a noisy signal could lead to false positives by edge detection algorithms.

1.1 Literature Survey

To build integer-to-integer[7,8] wavelet transforms based upon the idea of factoring wavelet transforms into lifting steps. Huge data size prohibits fast distribution of data. Thus there is need to seek encoding methods that can support storage and transmission of images at a spectrum of resolutions and encoding fidelities from lossy to lossless compression. The embedded zero tree wavelet algorithm (EZW) is a simple, yet remarkably effective, image compression algorithm, having the property that the bits in the bit stream are generated in order of importance, yielding a fully embedded code. One difficulty in designing the EZW architecture is in locating the corresponding parent coefficient for a given child coefficient. The VLSI architecture uses address pointers to specify the addresses of a child coefficient and its corresponding parent coefficient stored in memory. We present VLSI architecture to implement the significance map coding for the EZW algorithm which is regular and modular and which does not require addressing hardware to locate the parent and children coefficients in memory. The approach is based on developing an efficient scheme to determine ancestor descendant relationships in the coefficient data stream by rearrangement of the data stream. The problem of determining the significance map is formulated in view of the ancestor-descendant relationships in the coefficient data stream and the corresponding VLSI architecture to implement the formulated requirements is reported.

Other than EZW algorithm we use Set Partitioning in Hierarchical trees and EZW with context modeling for comparative purposes. The model is based on stochastic complexity considerations and is implemented with a tree structure. It is efficiently estimated by a modification of the universal Algorithm Context.

1.2 Objective Of The Thesis

Invertible wavelet transforms that map integers to integers[8] have important applications in lossless coding. The idea of factoring wavelet transforms into so-called lifting steps. This allows the construction of an integer version of every wavelet transform.

JPEG-2000[6] is an emerging standard for still image compression. An overview of the standard, and some description of the capabilities provided by the standard.

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JPEG-2000 standard specifies the minimum compliant decoder and optional, value-added extensions. Although the standard specifies only the decoder and bit stream syntax, we describe JPEG-2000 from the point of view of encoding. We take this approach, as we believe it is more amenable to a compact description more easily understood by most readers.

Digital imagery becomes more common place and of higher quality, there is the need to manipulate more and more data. Thus, image compression must not only reduce the necessary storage and bandwidth requirements, but also allow extraction for editing, processing, and targeting particular devices and applications. The JPEG-2000 image compression system has a rate-distortion advantage over the original JPEG. More importantly, it also allows extraction of different resolutions, pixel fidelities, regions of interest, components, and more, all from a single compressed bitstream. This allows an application to manipulate or transmit only the essential information for any target device from any JPEG 2000 compressed source image. JPEG-2000 has a long list of features, a subset of which are:

- State-of-the-art low bit-rate compression performance
- Progressive transmission by quality, resolution, component, or spatial locality
- Lossy and lossless compression (with lossless decompression available naturally through all types of progression)
- Random (spatial) access to the bit stream
- Pan and zoom (with decompression of only a subset of the compressed data)
- Compressed domain processing (e.g., rotation and cropping)
- Region of interest coding by progression
- Limited memory implementations

1.3 Block Coding

Entropy coding [22] is performed independently on each code-block. This coding is carried out as context-dependent, binary, arithmetic coding of bitplanes. Consider a quantized code-block to be an array of integers in sign-magnitude representation, and then consider a sequence of binary arrays with one bit from each coefficient. The first such array contains the most significant bit (MSB) of all the magnitudes. The second array contains the next MSB of all the magnitudes, continuing in this fashion until the final array which consists of the least significant bits of all the magnitudes. These binary arrays are referred to as bitplanes.

The number of bitplanes in a given code-block (starting from the MSB) which are identically zero is signaled as side information, as described later. So, starting from the first bitplane having at least a single 1, each bitplane is encoded in three passes (referred to as sub-bitplanes). The scan pattern followed for the coding of bitplanes, within each code-block (in all subbands). This scan pattern is basically a column-wise raster within stripes of height four. At the end of each stripe, scanning continues at the beginning (top-left) of the next stripe, until an entire bitplane (of a code-block) has been scanned.

The prescribed scan is followed in each of the three coding passes. The decision as to which pass a given bit is coded in is made based on the "significance" of that bit's location and the significance of neighboring locations. A location is considered significant if a 1 has been coded for that location (quantized coefficient) in the current or previous bitplanes.

The first pass in a new bitplane is called the significance propagation pass. A bit is coded in this pass if its location is not significant, but at least one of its eight-connected neighbors is significant. If a bit is coded in this pass, and the value of that bit is 1, its location is marked as significant for the purpose of coding subsequent bits in the *current* and subsequent bitplanes. Also, the sign bit is coded immediately after the 1 bit just coded. The second pass is the magnitude refinement pass. In this pass, all bits from locations that became significant in a previous bitplane are coded. The third and final pass is the clean-up pass, which takes care of any bits not coded in the first two passes.

All coding is done using context dependent binary arithmetic coding. The arithmetic coder employed is the MQ-coder as specified in the JBIG-2 standard. The coding for the first and third passes is identical with the exception that run coding is sometimes employed in the third pass. Run coding occurs when all four locations in a column of the scan are insignificant and each has only insignificant neighbors. A single bit is then coded to indicate whether the column is identically zero or not. If not, the length of the zero run (0 to 3) is coded, reverting to the "normal" bit-by-bit coding for the location immediately following the 1 that terminated the zero run. The sign and magnitude refinement bits are also coded using contexts designed specifically for that purpose.

The context models are always reinitialized at the beginning of each code-block. Similarly, The best performance is obtained when these are the only reinitializations /terminations.

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It is allowable however, to reset/terminate at the beginning/end of every sub-bitplane within a code-block. This frequent reset/termination, plus optionally restricting context formation to include data from only the current and previous "scan-stripes" is sufficient to enable parallel encoding of all sub-bitplanes within a code-block (of course, parallel encoding of the code-blocks themselves is always possible). Reset/termination strategies can also impact the error resilience of the decoder. Finally, "selective arithmetic coder bypass" can be used to significantly reduce the number of symbols arithmetically coded. In this mode, the third coding pass of every bitplane employs arithmetic coding, as before. However, after the fourth bitplane is coded, the first and second passes are included as raw (uncompressed) data. For natural imagery, all of these modifications produce a surprisingly small loss in compression efficiency. For other imagery types (graphics, compound documents, etc.) significant losses can be observed.

1.4 Packets And Layers

The packet header contains: block inclusion information for each block in the packet (some blocks will have no coded data in any given packet); the number of completely zero bitplanes for each block; the number of sub-bitplanes included for each code-block; and the number of bytes used to store the coded sub-bitplanes of each block. It should be noted that the header information is coded in an efficient and embedded manner itself. The data contained in a packet header supplements data obtained from previous packet headers (within the same packet partition location) in a way to just enable decoding of the current packet.

1.5 Parsing

Even though a JPEG-2000 bit stream can be stored in any reasonable desired order, it can of course, only exist in one order at a time. However, because the coded data within packets are identical regardless of the progression type chosen, it is trivial to change the order, or to extract any required data from the bit stream. The JPEG-2000 bit stream contains markers which identify the progression type of the bitstream. Other markers may be written which store the length of every packet in the bitstream. To change a bitstream from progressive by resolution to progressive by SNR, a parser can read all the markers, change the type of progression in the markers, write the lengths of the packets out in the new order, and write the packets themselves out in the new order.

There is no need to run the MQ-coder, the context model, or even decode the block inclusion information. The complexity is only slightly higher than a pure copy operation. A parser can read the markers from a 3 component file, and write markers for a one component file, and discard all packets containing color components. Similarly, while editing, a compressed image might be stored at 2 bpp or even losslessly. If 2000 images are to be distributed on a CD-ROM, the layers contributing the least to quality can be discarded across the image set, until the required size is reached. Fifty layers provide enough information to extract almost any desired bit rate at any desired resolution.

1.6 Image Editing And Compression

All uncompressed tiled image formats allow regions of an image to be edited, and only those tiles affected need to be rewritten to disk. With compression the compressed size of an edited tile can change. Because of the flexibility in quantization in JPEG-2000 it is possible to truncate an edited tile to fit in the previous size.

1.7 Ezw Architecture

The processors are implemented using delay elements, comparators (C), logic gates and multiplexers. For simpler VLSI implementation, if the threshold value is constrained to be an exact power of two, then each comparator can be replaced with a bitwise-and operation between the coefficient magnitude and the power-of-two threshold. The control input level selector selects the level of the coefficient in the tree hierarchy.

The other control inputs[5] level0-child-selector and level1-childselector selects from one of the four children of the parent coefficient. Initially, registers RO-R7 are set to zeros and flip-flops FO-F3 are set to 1. The initial values of flip-flops F4-F11 do not affect the processing. Data inputs, control inputs and outputs for processors P1 and P2 respectively for the tree hierarchy for a threshold value T, of 32.

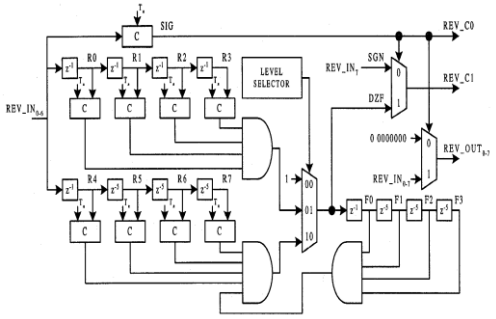

Figure 1.3 VLSI Architecture for processor 1

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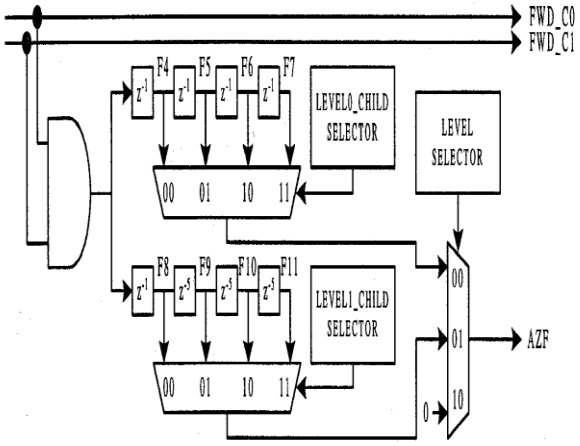

Figure 1.4 VLSI architecture for processor 2

Each of the four symbols POS, NEG, ISZ and ZTR can be coded using two binary digits. To formulate the coding process, four additional binary symbols DZF, AZF, SIG and SGN are defined. The symbol DZF (Descendant-ZTR-Flag) is set to '1' for a given coefficient if all its descendant coefficients are ZTR symbols. Similarly, the symbol AZF (Ancestor-ZTR Flag) is set to '1' for a given coefficient if it descends from an ancestor coefficient which is a ZTR symbol. The symbol SIC (Significant-Coefficient) is set to '0' if the current coefficient is significant and the symbol SGN(Sign-Coefficient) is set to the sign bit of the current coefficient which in sign-magnitude representation is *'0'* for positive coefficients and ' 1 ' for negative coefficients. Using these four symbols and letting the binary digits (C0,Cl) represent the symbols POS (CO=O,Cl=O), NEG (CO=O,Cl=l), ISZ (CO=l,Cl=O) and ZTR (CO=l,Cl=l), the coding of the coefficients can be represented by:

SIG = 0 if coefficient magnitude ≥ threshold
= 1 if coefficient magnitude < threshold
SGN = 0 if coefficient value ≥ 0
= 1 if coefficient value < 0
DZF = 1 if all descendants are ZTR symbols
= 0 otherwise
CO = SIG (4)
C1 = SGN ifCO=O
= DZF ifCO=l
AZF = 1 if ancestor is ZTR symbol
= 0 otherwise

II. CHAPTER

2.1 Integer To Integer

We denote[9] by $(s_{0,j})_j$ the original signal of interest, $(s_{1,j})_j$ and $(d_{1,j})_j$ the low pass and high pass coefficients respectively after a wavelet transform. In construction of integers to $(s_{0,j})_j$ represented in integers to $(s_{1,j})_j$ and $(d_{1,j})_j$ also represented in integers. The transform is reversible. i.e. We can also recover $(s_{0,j})_j$ from $(s_{1,j})_j$ and $(d_{1,j})_j$.

One example wavelet transform that maps integers to integers is the haar transform, when written in its normalized form

$$D_{1,l} = S_{0,2l+1} - S_{0,2l}$$
$$S_{1,l} = S_{1,l} - [d_{1,l/2}]$$

This form is known as the S transform.

S+P transform in which linear prediction is performed on the low pass coefficients $S_{1,t}$ to generate a new set of high pass coefficients after an S transform.

The general form of the transform is

$$d_{1,l}^{1} = S_{0,\,2l+1} - S_{0,2l}$$
$$S_{1,l} = S_{0,2l} + [d_{1,l}^{(2)}/2]$$
$$d_{1,l} = d_{1,l}^{(1)} + [\alpha_{-1}(s_{1,l-2} - s_{1,l-1}) + \alpha 0\,(s_{1,l-1} - s_{1,l}) + \alpha 1\,(s_{1,l} - s_{1,l+1}) - \beta_1\, d^{(1)}_{1,l+1}$$

Wavelet transforms implemented as invertible integer wavelet transforms. The first set of transforms have names of the form (N,Ň) , where N is the number of vanishing moments of the analyzing high pass filter, While Ň is the number of vanishing moments of the synthesizing high pass filter.

The next transform (2+2,2) is inspired by he S+P transform- we use one extra lifting step to build the earlier (2,2) into a transform with 4 vanishing moments of the high pass analyzing filter. The idea is to first compute a (2,2) yielding low pass samples $s_{1,l}$ and preliminary detail or high pass samples $d^{(1)}_{1,l}$ and then use the $s_{1,l}$ combined with $d_{1,l+n}$ to compute $d'_{1,l}$ as a prediction of $d^{(1)}_{1,l.}$ The final detail sample then is $d^{(1)}_{1,l} - d'_{1,l.}$

Wavelet filters with more analyzing vanishing moments generally perform well with natural and smooth images and not so with images with a lot of edges and high frequency components. On the other hand low order filters like S-transform generally perform the worst, especially with natural images.

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2.2 Bit Plane Coder

After receiving the lossless integer wavelet transforms, it has been sent to the bit plane coder. Bitplane coder consists of significance prediction, context modeling and adaptive arithmetic coding. We use significance and refinement consistent with the terminology of zero tree embedded coding.

Embedded Coding:

It is the one [8] representing a sequence of binary decisions that distinguish an image from the "null" image. It is similar in spirit to binary finite-precision representations of real number. It will produce a fully embedded bit stream . It will provide[20] competitive compression performance. The Advantages are Precise rate control and No training of any kind required

2.3 Level Of Decomposition

Two – fold problems:

1. Obtain the best image quality for a given bit rate.
2. Accomplishing this task in an embedded fashion i.e. in such a way that all encoding of the same image of lower bit rates are embedded in the beginning of the bit stream for the target bit rate.

First stage of a discrete wavelet transforms. The image is divided into four subbands using separable filters. Each coefficient represents a spatial area corresponding to approximately a 2 x 2 area of the original picture.

The image is divided into four subbands using separable filters. Each coefficient in the subbands LL2, LH2, HL2 and HH2 represents a spatial area corresponding to approximately a 4 x 4 area of the original picture.

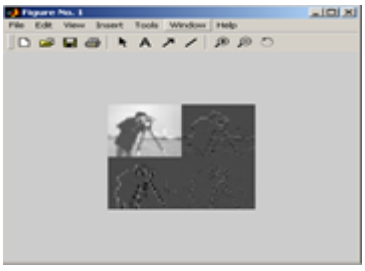

Figure 2.1 first stage DWT

LL	LH
HL	HH

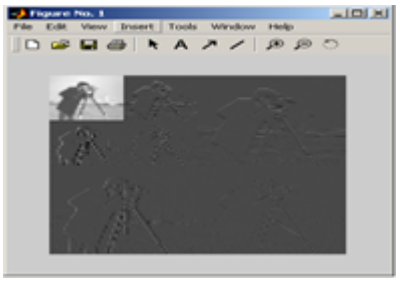

Figure 2.2 two scale wavelet decomposition

LL2	LH2	LH1
HL2	HH2	
HL1		HH1

The image is divided into four subbands using separable filters. Each coefficient in the subbands LL2, LH2, HL2 and HH2 represents a spatial area corresponding to approximately a 4 x 4 area of the original picture.

*2.4 Embedded Zero Tree Wavelet Algorithm***:**

The embedded zero tree wavelet algorithm (EZW) is a simple, yet remarkably effective, image compression algorithm, having the property that the bits in the bit stream are generated in order of importance, yielding a fully embedded code. The embedded code represents a sequence of binary decisions that distinguish an image from the "null" image. Parent child dependencies of sub bands. Arrow points from the sub band of the parent to the sub band of the children.

- The lowest frequency sub band is the top left and the highest frequency subband is the bottom right.
- Wavelet tree consisting of all the descendants of a single coefficient in sub band HH3.
- The coefficient in HH3 is a zero tree root if it is significant and all of it descendants are insignificant.

Scanning order of the sub bands for encoding a significance map that parents must be scanned children. Note that all positions in a given sub band are scanned before the scan moves to the next sub band.

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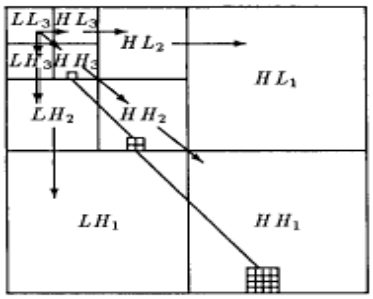

Figure 2.3 Parent child dependencies

2.5 Relationship Of Zero Tree To Bitplane Coding:

For each coefficient get eventually coded as significant, the sign and bit position of the Most Significant Binary Digit (MSDB) are measured and encoded during a dominant pass. Binary digit as a sequence of binary decisions in a binary tree proceeding from left to right, if we have not yet encountered a '1' we expect the probability distribution for the next digit to be strongly biased '0'. The digits to the left and including the MSDB are called the dominant bits and are measured during dominant passes. Those binary digits to the right of the MSDB are called subordinate bits.

Zero tree – A new data structure is defined to improve the compression of significance maps of wavelet coefficients.

The significance map can be efficiently represented as a string of symbols from a 4 symbols are used.

1. Zero tree root (**zr**) => if (|xWT| < Ti) && (all descendants of xWT < Ti)
2. Isolated zero (**iz**)

=> if (|xWT| < Ti) && ((some descendants of xWT > Ti) || (xWT is the last item))

3. Significant positive (**sp**)

=> if (|xWT| >= Ti) && (xWT > 0)

4. Significant negative (**sn**)

=> if (|xWT| >= Ti) && (xWT < 0)

The first pass in a new bitplane is called the significance propagation pass. A bit is coded in this pass if its location is not significant, but at least one of its eight-connected neighbors is significant. If a bit is coded in this pass, and the value of that bit is 1, its location is marked as significant for the purpose of coding subsequent bits in the current and subsequent bitplanes. Also, the sign bit is coded immediately after the 1 bit just coded.

The second pass is the magnitude refinement pass. In this pass, all bits from locations that became significant in a previous bitplane are coded. The third and final pass is the clean-up pass, which takes care of any bits not coded in the first two passes.

2.6 Spiht Algorithm:

A new, fast and different implementation based on set partitioning [17-19] in hierarchical trees (SPIHT), which provides even better performance than EZW algorithm. SPIHT algorithm is based on 3 concepts: Ordered bit plane progressive transmission, Set partitioning sorting algorithm, Spatial orientation trees.

A major objective in a progressive transmission scheme is to select the most important information – which yields the largest distortion reduction – to be transmitted first. Ordered bit plane progressive transmission scheme that incorporates the two concepts: Ordering the coefficients by magnitude, transmitting the most significant bits (MSBs) first. The sorting algorithm divides the set of pixels into partitioning subsets Tm and performs the significance test by using the function.

$$\mathbf{Sn(T)} = \begin{cases} 1, \max\{(i,j) \in T \,||\, C_{i,j}| > 2^n\} \\ 0, \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The following sets of coordinates are used to present the new coding method :

- **(i, j)** set of coordinates of all offspring of node (i, j) ;
- **D (i, j)** set of coordinates of all descendants of the node (i, j) ;
- **H** set of coordinates of all spatial orientation tree roots ;

L (i, j) = D (i, j) – O (i, j)

This SPIHT algorithm uses the principles of partial ordering by magnitude, set partitioning by significance of magnitudes with respect to a sequence of decreasing thresholds, ordered bit plane progressive transmission, and self-similarity across scale in an image wavelet transform.

2.7 Ezw With Context Modeling:

Inspired by theoretical results on universal modeling, a general frame work for sequential modeling of gray-scale images is proposed and applied to lossless compression. The model is based on stochastic complexity considerations and is implemented with a tree structure. It is efficiently estimated by a modification of the universal Algorithm Context. Several variants of the algorithm are described.

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The compression ratios are compared with those obtained with state-of-the-art algorithms available in the literature, with the' results of the comparison consistently favoring the proposed approach.

LOCO-I (LOW Complexity Lossless Compression for Images) [22] is a novel loss-less compression algorithm for continuous-tone images which combines the simplicity of Huffman coding with the compression potential of context models, thus "enjoying the best of both worlds." The algorithm is based on a simple fixed context model, which approaches the capability of the more complex universal context modeling techniques for capturing high order dependencies. The model is tuned for efficient performance in conjunction with a collection of (context-conditioned) Huffman codes, which is realized with an adaptive, symbol-wise, Golomb Rice code. LOCO-I attains, in one pass, and without recourse to the higher complexity arithmetic coders, compression ratios similar or superior to those obtained with state-of-the-art schemes based on arithmetic coding. In fact, LOCO-I is being considered by the IS0 committee a s a replacement for the current lossless standard in low-complexity applications.

Lossless image compression schemes often consist of two distinct and independent components: *modeling* and *coding.* The modeling part can be formulated as an inductive inference problem, in which an image is observed pixel by pixel in some pre-defined order (e.g., raster-scan). At each time instant *i* , and after having scanned past data *xi = ~1 x 2 . . . xi,* one wishes to make inferences on the next pixel value ***si+l*** by assigning a conditional probability distribution *p (.l z z)* to it.' Ideally, the code length contributed by zz+l is - logp(zi+l(z') bits (hereafter, logarithms are taken to the base Z), which averages to the entropy of the probabilistic model. Thus, a skewed (low-entropy) probability distribution, which assigns a high probability value to the next pixel, is desirable. In a *sequential* formulation, the distribution *p (./z 2)* is learned from the past and it is available to the decoder as it decodes the past string sequentially. Alternatively, in a two-pass scheme the conditional distribution can be learned from the whole image in a first pass and must be sent to the decoder as header information. In this case, the total code length includes the length of the header. Yet, both the second encoding pass and the (single-pass) decoding are subject to the same sequential formulation. ~

2.8 Applications Of Universal Context Modeling

Inspired by theoretical results[21] on universal modeling, a general framework for sequential modeling of gray-scale images is proposed and applied to lossless compression.

It is efficiently estimated by a modification of the universal Algorithm Context. Several variants of the algorithm is described. The sequential, lossless compression schemes obtained when the context modeler is used with an arithmetic coder are tested with a representative set of gray-scale images. The compression ratios are compared with those obtained with state-of-the-art algorithms available in the literature, with the' results of the comparison consistently favoring the proposed approach.

Most of the literature in gray-scale image compression deals with lossy schemes for which the original pixel intensities cannot be perfectly recovered from the encoded bit stream. The lossless (or "noiseless") requirement implies that the coding algorithms yield decompressed images identical to the original digitized images. Thus, images from digital radiology in medicine or from satellites in space are usually compressed by reversible methods. Lossless compression is generally the choice also for images obtained at great cost, in applications where the desired quality of the rendered image is unknown at the time of acquisition or in applications where intensive editing or repeated compression decompression are required. Gray-scale images are considered as 2-D arrays of intensity values, digitized to some number of bits. In most applications eight bits are used, although 12 bits is customary in digital radiology. Color images, in turn, are usually represented in some color space (e.g., RGB, YUV, LAB), in which each component is a gray-scale image. Thus, the tools employed in the compression of color images are derived from those developed for gray-scale images,

We present a new low-complexity method for modeling and coding the bit- planes of a wavelet-transformed image in a fully embedded fashion. The scheme uses a simple ordering model for embedding, based on the principle that coefficient bits that are likely to reduce the distortion the most should be described in the encoded bitstream. The ordering model is tied to a conditioning model in a way that deinterleaves the conditioned subsequences of coefficient bits, making them amenable to coding with a very simple, adaptive elementary Golomb code. The proposed scheme, without relying on zero trees or arithmetic coding, attains PSNR vs. bit rate performance superior to that of SPIHT, and competitive with its arithmetic coding variant, SPIHT-AC.

Progressive image compression refers to the encoding of an image into a bitstream that can be parsed efficiently to obtain lower rate and lower resolution descriptions of the image.

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Such descriptions are said to be SNR (signal to noise ratio) and resolution scalable. Most state-of-the-art progressive image compression schemes are based on a wavelet transform followed by quantization of the transform coefficients. The multi-resolution nature of the wavelet transform leads to resolution scalability in a straightforward way. We focus on SNR scalability, where the goal is to produce a so called embedded bitstream which has the property that the of the bitstream yield a continuum of lower rate descriptions of the image at the highest possible levels of quality.

In the context of image coding, a number of reversible integer-to-integer wavelet transforms are compared on the basis of their lossy compression performance, lossless compression performance, and computational complexity. Of the transforms considered, several were found to perform particularly well, with the best choice for a given application depending on the relative importance of the preceding criteria. Reversible integer-to-integer versions of numerous transforms are also compared to their conventional (i.e., nonreversible real-to-real) counterparts for lossy compression. At low bit rates, reversible integer-to-integer and conventional versions of transforms were found to often yield results of comparable quality. Factors affecting the compression performance of reversible integer-to-integer wavelet transforms are also presented, supported by both experimental data and theoretical arguments. Index Terms—Image coding/compression, reversible integer-to-integer wavelet subband transforms.

There has been a growing interest in reversible integer-to-integer wavelet transforms for image coding applications .Such transforms are invertible in finite-precision arithmetic (i.e., reversible), map integers to integers, and approximate the linear wavelet transforms from which they are derived. Due largely to these properties, transforms of this type are extremely useful for compression systems requiring efficient handling of lossless coding, minimal memory usage, or low computational complexity. Furthermore, these transforms are particularly attractive for supporting functionalities such as progressive lossy-to-lossless recovery of images lossy compression with the lossless reproduction of a region of interest and strictly lossy compression with minimal memory usage Due to applications like these, we can see that there is a clear need to consider not only the lossless compression performance of a particular reversible integer-to-integer wavelet transform, but also its lossy compression performance.

Several reversible integer-to-integer wavelet transforms are compared on the basis of their lossy compression performance, lossless compression performance, and computational complexity.

Reversible integer-to-integer versions of transforms are also compared to their conventional (i.e., nonreversible real-to-real) counterparts for lossy compression. The objective, in this case, is to quantify any performance degradation associated with the introduction of the reversible and integer-to-integer properties. If these properties do not adversely affect image quality, this would provide a compelling argument for the use of reversible integer-to-integer transforms in strictly lossy compression systems in order to reduce memory and computational requirements. If, however, compression performance is negatively impacted, it would be useful to have some quantitative measure of this degradation. Finally, factors affecting the compression performance of reversible integer-to-integer wavelet transforms are discussed, supported by both experimental data and theoretical arguments. Through the insight such information provides, one can hope to design new and more effective transforms.

3.1 Analysis Of Wavelet F0r 256x256 Image

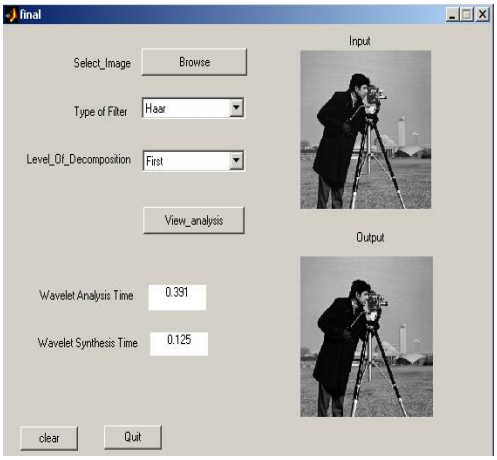

Figure 3.1 GUI FOR WAVLET

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3.2 VHDL Output Waveforms

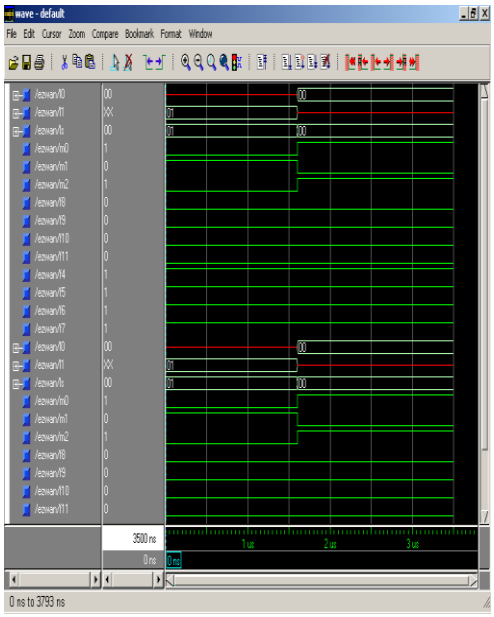
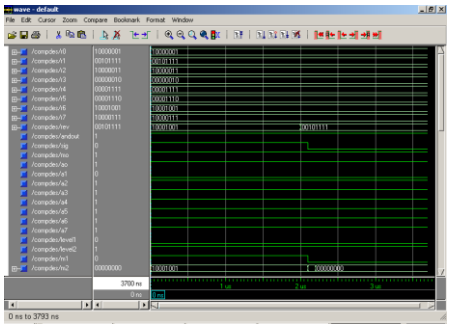


Figure 3.2 ANCESTOR OUTPUT



3.3 Synthesis Report (Area Details In Hardware)

ROM

Device	Used	Available	Utilization
Number of slices	5	1200	0%
Number of slices FF's	8	2400	0%
Number of IOB's	17	96	17%
Number of BRAM's	1	10	10%
Number of GCLK's	1	4	25%

3.4 Reconstructed Image Using Ezw With Context Modeling

Table 3.3
PSNR values for EZW with context modeling

Image	CR	PSNR	MSE
Flowers	1.45	28.43	94.008
MRI Scan	4.28	28.43	94.008
Cameraman	1.656	27.88	106.66
Lena	1.06	28.89	84.46

Figure 3.5 Input Image

Figure 3.6 Reconstructed 3.5 USING EMBEDDED ZERO TREE WAVELET

International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
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Table 3.4
PSNR values for EZW algorithm

Image	CR	PSNR
Flowers	4.92	20.543
MRI Scan	4.85	20.34
Cameraman	5.01	18.54
Lena	5.05	17.85

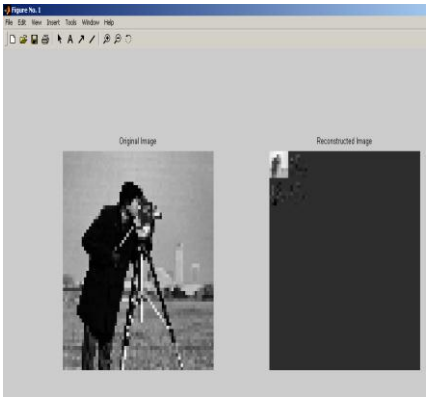

Figure 3.8 Significance Prediction

3.6 Spiht Algorithm

For 128 X 128 Image Pixels

Table 3.5
PSNR values for SPIHT algorithm

Image	CR	PSNR
Cameraman	5.143	13.040
Flowers	5.44	13.236
Rice	5.15	11.114
Lena	5.09	12.49

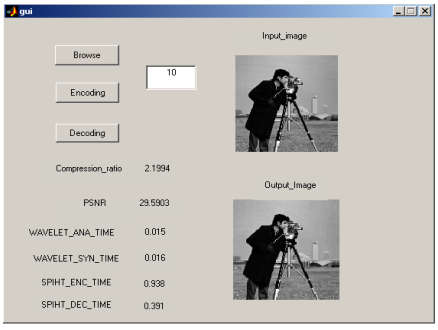

Figure 3.9 GUI for SPIHT algorithm

3.7 Comparative Table For Various Algorithm

For 1 : 100 Resolution

For 256 x 256 Image Pixels

	SPIHT algorithm		EZW with Context Modeling		EZW Algorithm	
Image	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**
Cameraman	5.254	19.5356	3.585	25.488	4.92	20.543
Flowers	5.45	19.455	5.088	31.29	4.85	20.34
Rice	5.15	17.461	4.130	31.448	5.01	18.54
Lena	5.12	18.96	4.286	28.126	5.05	17.85

For 128 X 128 Image Pixels

For 64 X 64 Image Pixels

	SPIHT algorithm		EZW with Context Modeling		EZW Algorithm	
Image	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**
Cameraman	5.143	13.040	3.066	16.424	4.45	12.54
Flowers	5.44	13.236	3.814	23.574	5.05	11.23
Rice	5.15	11.114	3.19	23.57	4.95	11.14
Lena	5.09	12.49	2.84	19.015	5.10	10.14

Table 3.6
Comparative values for various algorithm at resolution 1:100

	SPIHT algorithm		EZW with Context Modeling		EZW Algorithm	
Image	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**
Cameraman	5.056	6.483	2.412	8.504	4.95	5.423
Flowers	5.09	4.455	2.745	9.395	5.15	4.451
Rice	5.4	6.754	2.86	13.244	5.5	5.874
Lena	5.05	5.81	2.37	10.448	4.85	5.48

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For 1 : 50 Resolution

For 256 x 256 Image Pixels

	SPIHT algorithm		EZW with Context Modeling		EZW Algorithm	
Image	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**
Cameraman	3.95	23.97	3.37	26.57	4.01	22.85
Flowers	4.09	24.77	3.822	31.44	3.95	23.45
Rice	3.99	23.57	4.13	31.448	4.10	22.57
Lena	3.93	24.21	3.32	28.39	3.98	23.21

For 128 X 128 Image Pixels

	SPIHT algorithm		EZW with Context Modeling		EZW Algorithm	
Image	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**
Cameraman	3.79	17.44	3.370	20.55	4.10	16.54
Flowers	4.07	18.41	3.042	23.85	4.25	17.45
Rice	3.89	16.66	4.13	25.42	3.45	15.45
Lena	3.83	17.43	3.325	22.37	3.54	16.54

For 64 X 64 Image Pixels

Table 3.7
Comparative values for various algorithm at resolution 1:50

	SPIHT algorithm		Context Modeling		EZW Algorithm	
Image	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**	**CR**	**PSNR**
Cameraman	3.6	14.535	3.37	14.535	3.40	14.14
Flowers	3.93	11.43	2.356	13.524	3.65	10.12
Rice	3.57	9.525	4.13	19.40	3.23	10.45
Lena	3.68	10.57	3.325	16.35	4.45	9.87

3.8 Comparative Graph For Algorithms

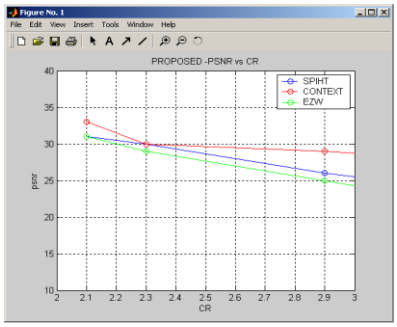

Figure 3.10 Comparative Graph for various algorithm

IV. CONCLUSION

We have presented a regular and modular architecture to implement the significance map coding for the EZW algorithm which is suitable for VLSI implementation. The approach is based on an efficient scheme to determine ancestor-descendant relationships in the wavelet coefficient data stream by rearrangement of the data stream. An area detail for Hardware implementation has been reported.

We have proposed a new low-complexity method for coding the bitplanes of a wavelet-transformed Image. In terms of PSNR our coder is competitive with other coder. The PSNR numbers for the proposed coding method coupled with the EZW algorithm at various bit rates on various images are listed in Table. For comparison purposes, we also include in the table the performance figures on the same test image of the EZW algorithm and the recent Said and Pearlman's method . Our method significantly outperformed the original EZW algorithm at all bit rates, and it fared slightly better than Said and Pearlman's method. The computation time required for the compression is also reduced to some extent.

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