

# Binary Image Compression Algorithms for FPGA Implementation

Fahad Lateef, Najeem Lawal, Muhammad Imran

**Abstract** — In this paper, we presents results concerning binary image compression algorithms for FPGA implementation. Digital images are found in many places and in many application areas and they display a great deal of variety including remote sensing, computer sciences, telecommunication systems, machine vision systems, medical sciences, astronomy, internet browsing and so on. The major obstacle for many of these applications is the extensive amount of data required representing images and also the transmission cost for these digital images. Several image compression algorithms have been developed that perform compression in different ways depending on the purpose of the application. Some compression algorithms are lossless (having same information as original image), and some are lossy (loss information when compressed). Some of the image compression algorithms are designed for particular kinds of images and will thus not be as satisfactory for other kinds of images. In this project, a study and investigation has been conducted regarding how different image compression algorithms work on different set of images (especially binary images). Comparisons were made and they were rated on the bases of compression time, compression ratio and compression rate. The FPGA workflow of the best chosen compression standard has also been presented. These results should assist in choosing the proper compression technique using binary images.

**Index Terms**—Binary Image Compression, CCITT, FPGA, JBIG2, Lempel-Ziv-Welch, PackBits, TIFF, Zip-Deflate.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

COMPUTER usage for a variety of tasks has increased immensely during the last two decades. The arrival of the digital camera caused there to be the need for greater use of storage, manipulation and the transmission of digital images. A plurality of compression algorithms of images have been developed to carry out the compression in different ways depending on the purpose of application. In some image compression algorithms, it is possible to change the parameters used in order to adjust the compression in relation to the image. Some of the image compression algorithms are designed for particular types of images and will thus be unsatisfactory for other kinds of images.

In image compression, choosing the proper compression technique can make a significant difference to the appearance (Quality), size and transfer of an image file. People often fail to interpret or understand correctly the image compression topic, because there is a real lack of understanding with regards to the capabilities of the different types of compression algorithm. It is necessary to understand which type of compression to use for different types of images, otherwise the final result may be a poor image quality or that the image file sizes that are significantly larger than necessary.

The aim of this project was to make a comparison of some of

the most used image compression algorithms on a set of binary images on the bases of compression time, compression ratio and compression rate. The majority of the compression algorithms which had been tested are TIFF compression algorithms. Different types of images have been tested on different compression algorithms. Images with different formats, characteristics, photometric interpretation, different physical dimensions, size, no. of objects, thus a series of images have been used. It has been noted how well different compression algorithms work for different types of images and that some algorithms perform better than others depending on the application and type of image being working with.

## 2 RELETED WORK

There are many image compression algorithms which have been researched in bi-level image encoding domain. There are two types of image compression: lossless image compression and lossy image compression [1]. The majority of the binary image compression algorithms are lossless. Examples of these include, Run Length Encoding [2] and Arithmetic Coding [3], [4]. RLE includes ITU-T Fax Group 3 (G3-1D, G3-2D) encoding, Group 4 (G4) encoding [5], [6], [7], [31], [32] using Huffman [8], rectangular partition encoding [9] and so on. The ISO/IEC JBIG and JBIG2 [3] [26] standards for lossless bi-level image compression use arithmetic coding. Lossy image compression algorithms, such as JPEG (Joint Photographic Experts Group) encoding [10], [11]. JPEG compression algorithms are normally used for color images compression, but are not as good in relation to pure binary image compressions. Paper [12] presents an algorithm for lossless binary image compression based on Block Arithmetic coder (BAC). In paper [13], a lossless bi-level image compression scheme is proposed that can achieve a high compression ratio using rectangular parti-

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tioning of the black region (1's) of the input image. Paper [14] proposes two lossless compression algorithms using the same rectangle partitioning, but this involves 2D Run Length coding. Rectangle partitioning of a binary image into overlapping and non-overlapping rectangles can be studied in [15]. In paper [16], the new standard JBIG2 for lossless and lossy compression of bi-level images is presented. Paper [17] presents two efficient methods to improve the resolution scalability for bi-level images using JPEG2000. In paper [18], a binary image compression scheme is proposed, based on chain coding techniques and entropy coders.

### 3 BINARY IMAGE COMPRESSION

Binary images are used widely in daily life, especially for OA (Office Automation), document process, line drawings, letters, facsimiles, maps...etc. Although color documents are often seen, there is still a rapid increase in the use of binary images. The storage and transmission of binary images becomes ever more important when these images are required to be preserved and transmitted. The stored binary images may have large space requirements and in order to reduce the storage space and transmission time, efficient coding technologies have been proposed. Many image compression algorithms have been researched in binary image encoding domain in [19].

### 4 IMAGE COMPRESSION ALGORITHM

The following are the compression algorithms used in this project.

- PackBits
- Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW)
- Zip(Deflate)
- JBIG2
- CCITT Fax 3 & 4

#### 4.1 PackBits:

PackBits is a simple data compression technique used for both binary and color images. PackBits is less acceptable with color images which have a number of color ranges, because they tend not to have large number of runs of the same color [20]. This scheme provides a good and fast compression of binary images i.e. fax or scanned documents using run-length encoding. It requires more bits for the code, when there is a rapid change in adjacent pixels or a group of adjacent pixels (shorter run lengths of white or black pixels) to represent the run length. PackBits is a one-dimensional scheme which does not span or extend over multiple rows of scan lines.

##### 4.1.1 Working:

Working with PackBits reduces repeated strings of the same characters into "run count" and "run value", which are stored in one byte each, and the assembling of each of the two bytes is directed to the RLE packet. The first byte or header byte of RLE packets contains a number (repeated character) and the second byte is the data byte which represents the character itself.

The header of an RLE packet is a signed byte and the data byte can be signed, unsigned, or packed. Thus this scheme is also called a byte oriented run-length scheme. PackBits can store the data of a compressed image in a TIFF file or retain it in memory.

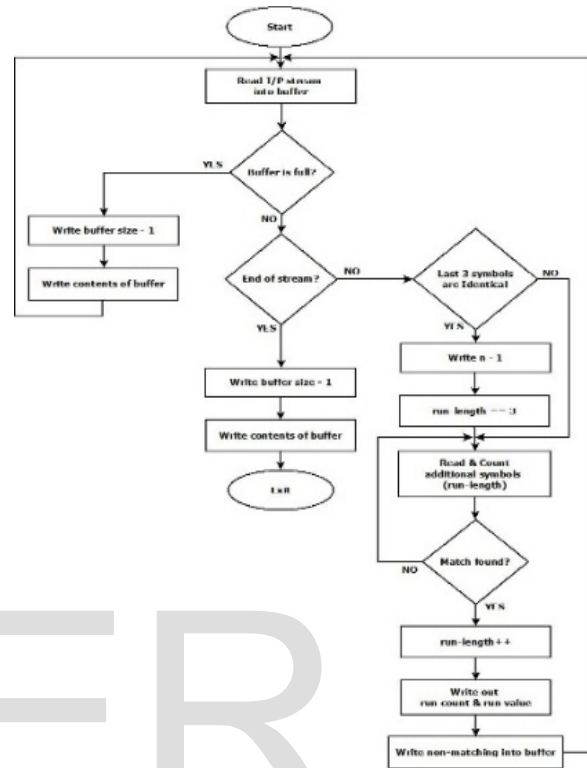


Figure 1: Run-Length Encoding PackBits (Flow Chart)

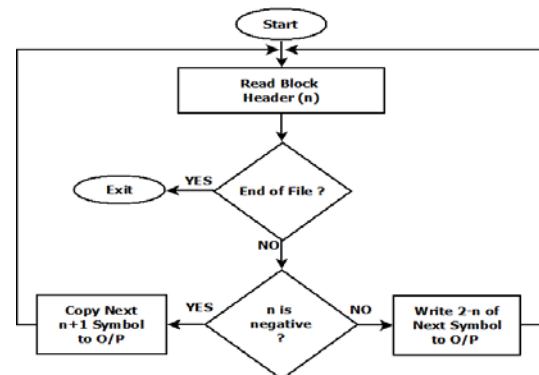


Figure 2: PackBits decoding Steps (Flowchart)

#### 4.2 Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW):

Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW) is one of the prominent and important compression techniques for general purpose data compression developed by A. Lempel, J. Ziv and Terry A. Welch. The LZW algorithm is used to compress text, images, and similar data files to about one-half of their original size.

##### 4.2.1 Working:

LZW is a lossless compression algorithm based on a data dic-

tionary (translation table or string table). It reads the string of input characters, maps into the code and adds to a table of strings. The length of the output code can be any length, having more bits than a single character e.g. Using 8-bit character, the first 256 codes are assigned to a standard character set and the remainder are assigned to strings.

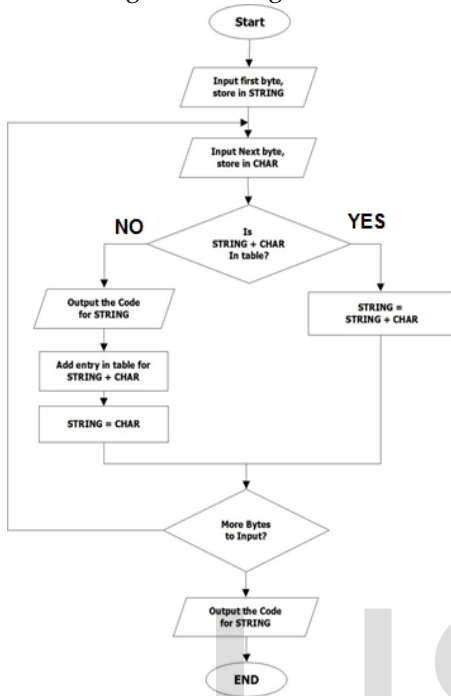


Figure 3: Lempel-Ziv-Welch (Flow Chart) [21]

**4.3 Zip (deflate encoding):**

Zip allows many compression methods such as shrunk, Imploded, Deflate or Deflate64. In this project the zip-deflate (combination of LZ77 and Huffman encoding) algorithm was used. A zip encoding technique is used in many compression programs such as WinZip, pkzip, gzip etc. Zip is a highly effective compression algorithm in terms of efficiency and speed. It is also a dictionary based algorithm used to encode a recurring sequence. Zip supports most data formats, including text and images because it treats the input data as a generic stream of bytes.

**4.3.1 Working:**

Zip algorithms work by replacing the repeated occurrences of data with references to a single copy of that data existing previously in the input (uncompressed) data stream.

**4.4 LZ77:**

LZ77 is a dictionary based encoding algorithm which replaces a string of symbols with a reference to a dictionary location for the same string. The dictionary does not contain a list of all known symbols; it contains the last "N" symbols encoded/decoded.

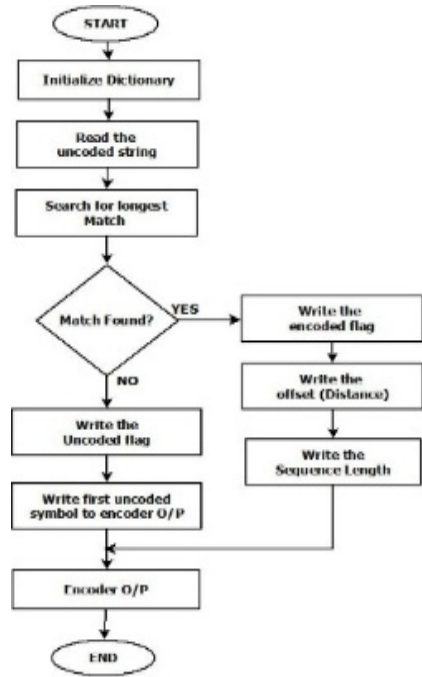


Figure 4: Flow chart Encoder (LZ77).

If there is a large N, then it will take longer to search for a match in the dictionary and will require more bits to store the offset into the dictionary. The amount of symbols in the dictionary is represented by a whole power of 2. After the process and addition of the (N + 1) symbol to the dictionary, the first symbol is removed and an equal number of the oldest symbols are caused to slide out by additional symbols.

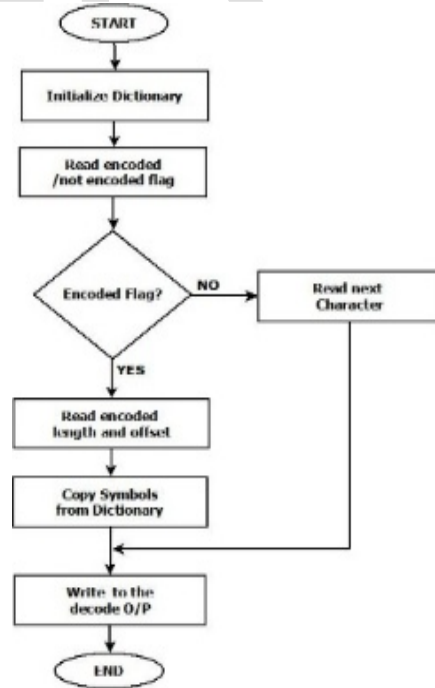


Figure 5: Flow chart Decoder (LZ77).

4.4.1 Huffman Code Trees:

There are two different code trees used for coding. The first tree contains codes for literals or sequence lengths, and the second tree contains codes for the distances, details can be found in [22]. The sequence length is limited to 258 bytes and the distance is limited to 32K bytes. When no match has been found in the previous 32K bytes, then they are called literal bytes (255 byte values). The value 256 indicates the End-of-Block, and values 257...285 indicate the length codes. The Huffman trees themselves are compressed using Huffman encoding.

Deflate stores only the code length belonging to a particular code with additional specifications to ensure that each application is able to create identical code trees. Symbols with a shorter code length or which are represented by the same code length are assigned to the left branch (binary 0). The length of code is restricted to a maximum of 15 bits.

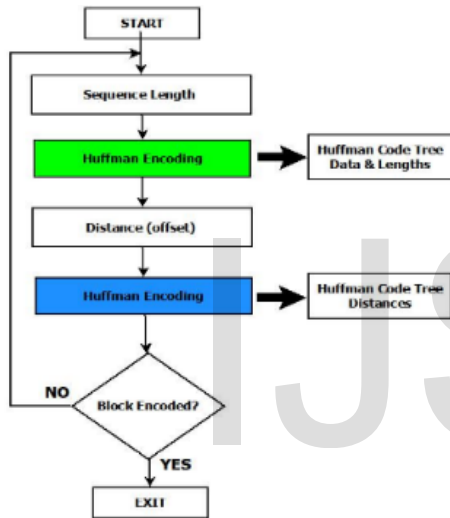


Figure.6: Block diagram Dynamic Huffman (Deflate)

4.5 JBIG2:

Joint Bi-level Image Experts Group developed a standard which defines a compression method suitable for both lossy and lossless image compression. JBIG2 is a compression technique for bi-level images consisting of a single rectangular bit plane, in which each pixel is one of only two possible colors (Black or White). JBIG2 can be used for grayscale or color images by the compression of a binary layer in a Mixed Raster format [23].

The JBIG2 encoder firstly segments an image into different regions and uses different coding techniques for compressing region segments. There are three basic coding schemes for compressing region segments and each scheme is effective for specific types of images [24].

1. Generic regions
2. Halftone regions
3. Text regions

There are two methods used to encode generic regions, for

which the first method is based on arithmetic coding (MQ coder) and the second is based on Modified-Modified-Read (MMR). Both achieve high compression and are effective for regions of line art, figures etc.

4.5.1 Generic regions:

4.5.1.1 Arithmetic Coding (MQ coder):

Arithmetic coding differs from MMR (Huffman coding) in that, rather than separating input into component symbols and replacing each with code, it encodes the entire message into a single number (interval is scaled with a factor 2 bit shift to the left) maximizing the precisions in the calculations.

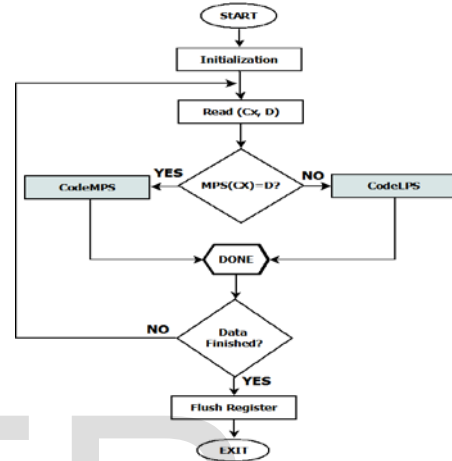


Figure 7: MQ Encoder flow chart

The MR coder encodes a code stream which consists of a sequence of symbols (0's and 1's) which are categorized as: The Less Probable Symbols (LPS), and the More Probable Symbols (MPS), based on the probability of their occurrence. The intervals are to be recorded as a probability model, and each interval is divided into two subintervals corresponding to the probability of each symbol. When LPS or MPS occur, the subinterval associated with that symbol becomes the new interval. This loop continues until all the symbols have been received and the characteristic of the last subdivided interval represents the encoded data [25].

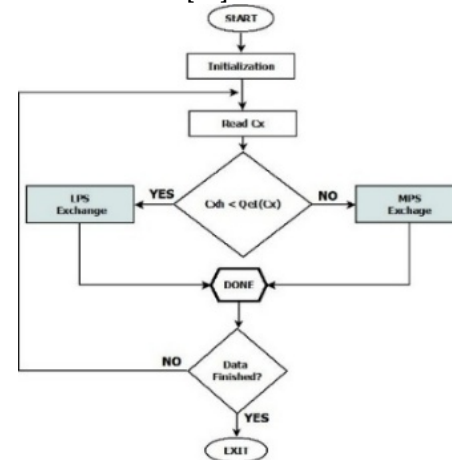


Figure 8: MQ Decoder flow chart

An estimation of the probability on the LPS and the MPS renormalization path is conducted in the probability estimation block. The renormalization block generates compressed bits. The compressed data out block contains the compressed data and, finally, the FLUSH block is used to terminate the encoding operations and it generates the required terminating marker. Details can be found in [26].

There are two disadvantages in relation to arithmetic coding, one being that high precision arithmetic is required to shrink the current interval and the second is that no output is produced until the entire file has been read [27].

**4.5.2 Text regions:**

There are two methods used to encode text regions or symbol regions. In relation to compression based on symbols that can be non-text or any alphabet, these symbols are stored in dictionaries and are encoded as generic regions. The first method to encode the symbol regions is Pattern Matching and Substitution (PM&S) and the second method is Soft Pattern Matching (SPM) Details can be found in [28].

**4.5.3 Halftone regions:**

There are two methods used to encode halftone regions, the first method involves context-based arithmetic coding used in JBIG1 [29]. The second method is to reverse the half tone process (converting it back to gray scale) [30]. High levels of compression can be achieved by halftone regions, but apart from in special circumstances, they are lossy.

**4.6 CCITT Group 3:**

The CCITT is derived from French: (Comité Consultatif International Téléphonique et Télégraphique). It was developed in 1985 by the International Telegraph and Telephone Consultative Committee.

The main application of Group 3 is in relation to bi-level images, fax transmission and is also effective for scanned images and handwritten documents.

Group 3 are represented by two types

- One Dimensional G3
- Two Dimensional G3

**4.6.1 One Dimensional coding scheme:**

In the G3 one dimensional coding scheme, the line data is made up of a series of variable length code words in which each code word represents a run-length of black runs and white runs. If the data line begins with black runs, it will send a white run-length of zero. Tables in [31] show all the code words for white run-lengths and black run-lengths. There are two types of code words, one which terminates a code word (range of 0 to 63 pels) and other is a make-up code word (range of 64 to 1728 pels).

**4.6.2 Two-Dimensional coding scheme:**

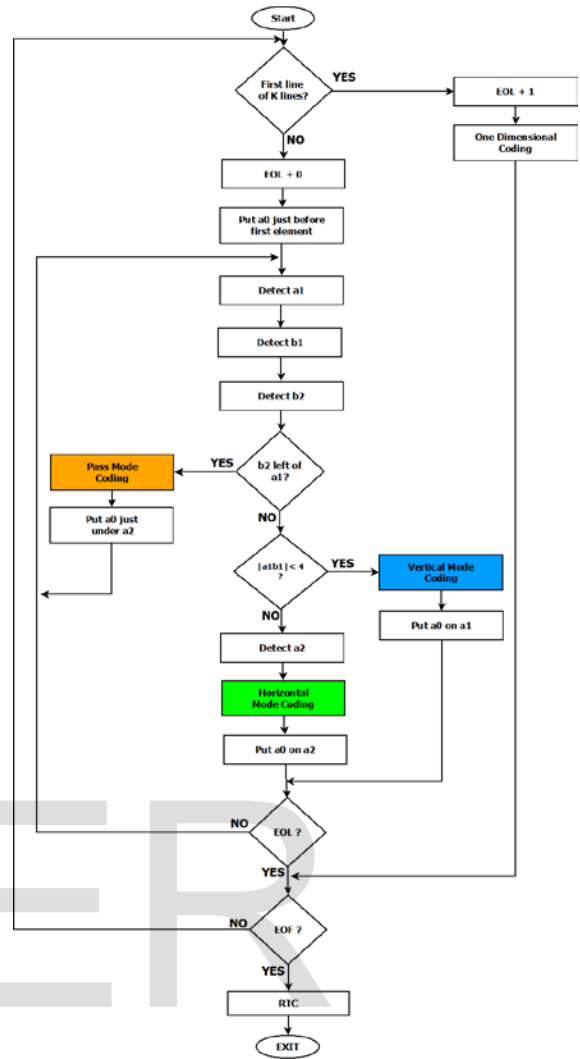


Figure 9: Flow diagram Group 3 Two-Dimensional Coding.

The two-dimensional coding scheme is an extension of the one-dimensional coding scheme. A method used in the two-dimensional coding scheme is called line-by-line coding. Coding procedure of CCITT Group 3 can be found in [31].

**4.7 CCITT G4:**

Group 4 is an extended version of Group 3 2D, developed by the International Telegraph and Telephone Consultative Committee. The only difference between Group 4 and Group 3 2D is the parameter K or K factor. Group 4 uses an imaginary line which serves as the reference line (scan line of white pixels).

The Group 4 algorithm is more efficient than the Group 3 2D and has replaced the use of Group 3 2D in many applications. The encoding speed of G4 is faster than that of the G3 2D algorithm and G4 does not require any EOL [32].

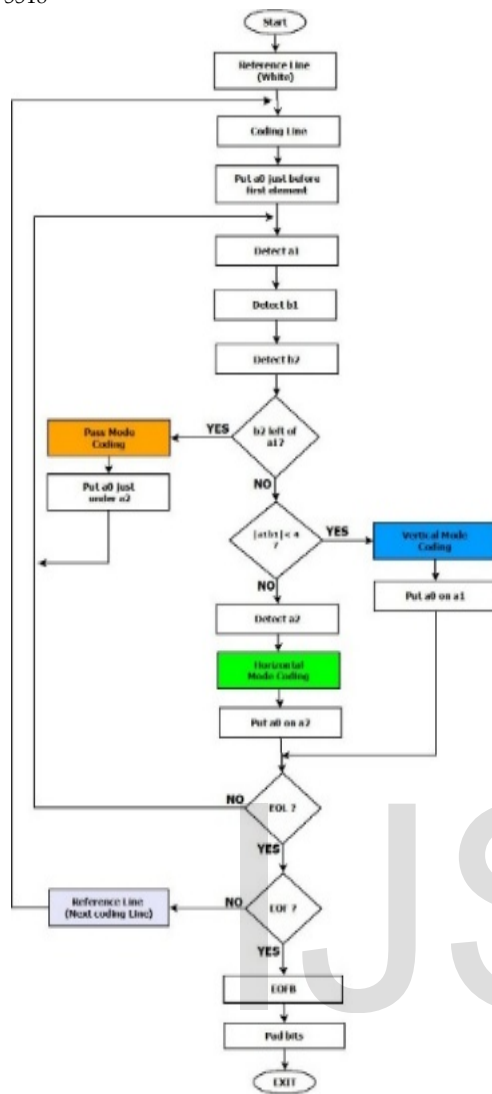


Figure 10: Flow diagram Group 4.

## 5 IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation structure has been divided into four phases. The first phase involves building and compiling, second phase testing, third phase assessment and selection and in the fourth phase, the FPGA workflow for the best algorithm is presented.

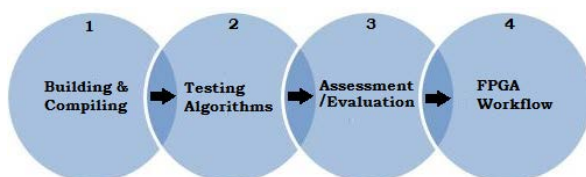


Figure 11: Implementation Structure

### 5.1 Building/Compiling:

All the compression algorithms are compiled in the C Language using Microsoft Visual C++ and are properly configured for the command line. "Most of the compression algo-

gorithms which are used in this project are of TIFF compression algorithms".

### 5.2 Testing Algorithms:

The testing or performance of any compression algorithm is highly dependent on the type of data to which it is applied. The image compression algorithms used in this project are PackBits coding, ZIP (deflate) coding, JBIG2 coding (used MQ Codec), LZW coding, CCITT Group3 (1D, 2D (T.4)) and CCITT Group 4 (T.6) coding techniques.

### 5.3 Assessment/Evaluating:

It is not so easy to decide which test images should be used for the evaluation in the testing images compression system. There are different images that have been tested on different algorithms, as one algorithm that performs well on one image may not perform well on the other image. Assessing the compression system includes

- Image Compression Time
- Image Compression Ratio
- Image Compression Rate

#### 5.3.1 Image Compression Time:

Image compression time is the time required to add data to the system, plus the time required to compress that data. Image compression time also depends on the amount of image data. The image compression time for the majority of compression algorithms can be characterized by the equation (1)

$$T_C = D_V \times T_{RD} + T_{CD} \quad (1)$$

Where  $T_C$  is the Total time,  $D_V$  is the volume of data,  $T_{RD}$  is time required to read data or add data to the system and  $T_{CD}$  is time required to compress the data.

All the compression algorithms have been tested on the hardware<sup>1</sup> and software<sup>2</sup>. The compression time has been measured using the CPU clock of the system. The system time has been measured just before the process starts and immediately after the process ends and by subtracting both the processing time is obtained. This Time (number) is meant to provide a rough approximation, not to be accurate, because the performance varies depending upon the hardware and the characteristics of the data.

#### 5.3.2 Image Compression Ratio:

The Image compression ratio is used to measure the ability of the data compression by comparing the size of the compressed image to the size of the original (uncompressed) image.

<sup>1</sup> Test Hardware: Intel(R) Core(TM) i5 CPU M430 @2.27 GHz, 2267 MHz ; 2 Core(s), 4 logical Processor(s) ; 6 GB RAM

<sup>2</sup> Test Software: Microsoft Visual Studio 2008 Professional Edition ; Xilinx ISE Design Suite 13.4

$$C_{RATIO} = \frac{S_o}{S_c} \quad (2)$$

Where  $C_{RATIO}$  is image Compression ratio,  $S_o$  is Original (un-compressed) image size and  $S_c$  is compressed image size.

### 5.3.3 Image Compression Rate:

The image compression performance can be evaluated using the compression rate in units of bits per pixel (bpp), which is defined as the average number of bits used to represent a single pixel.

$$Compression_{RATE} = \frac{Compressed\ Image\ Size\ bits}{Number\ of\ Pixels} \text{ bpp} \quad (3)$$

## 5.4 FPGA Workflow:

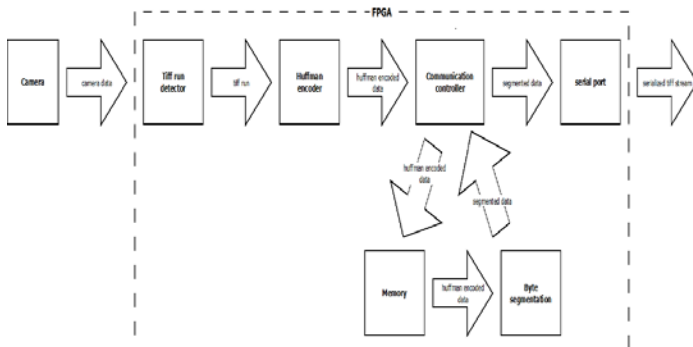


Figure 12: FPGA Workflow CCITT Group 4

## 6 RESULTS

Hundreds of images were tested, some of the testing results, comparison graphs and charts are presented in this section.

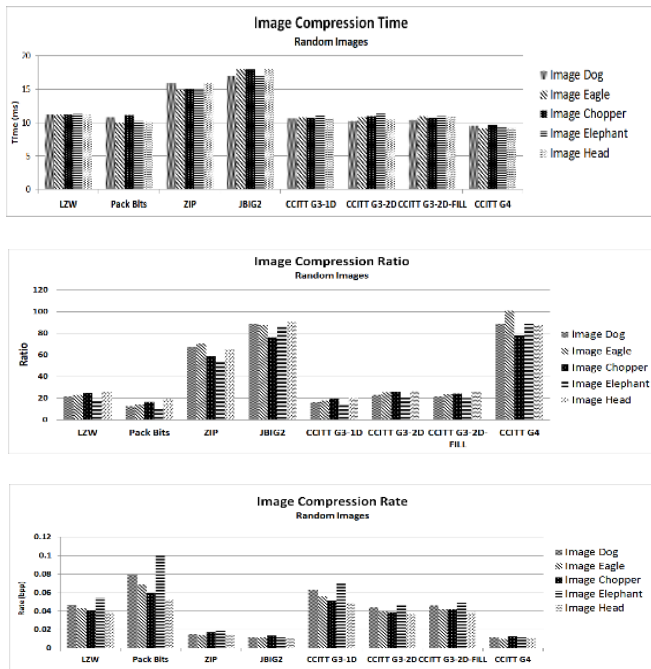


Figure 13: Image Compression Time, Ratio and Rate (Different Object Shape).

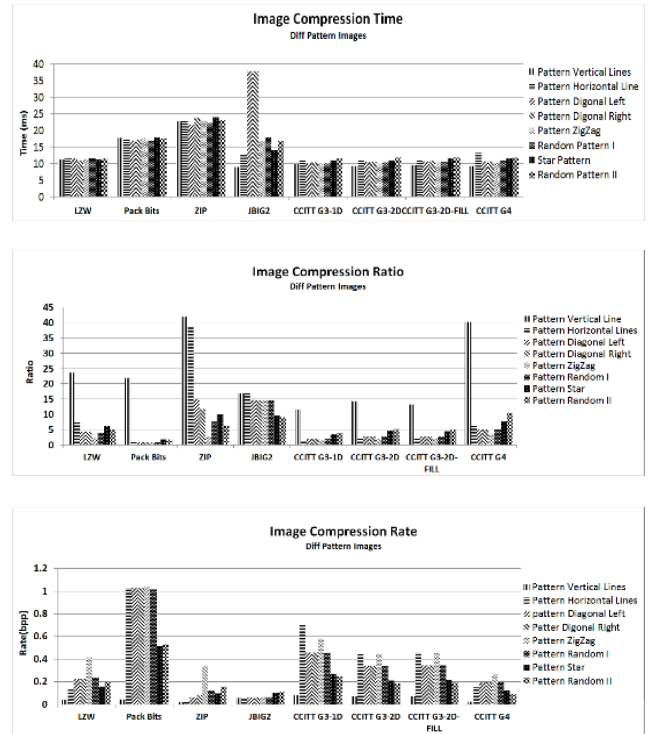


Figure 14: Image Compression Time, Ratio and Rate (Different Pattern Images).

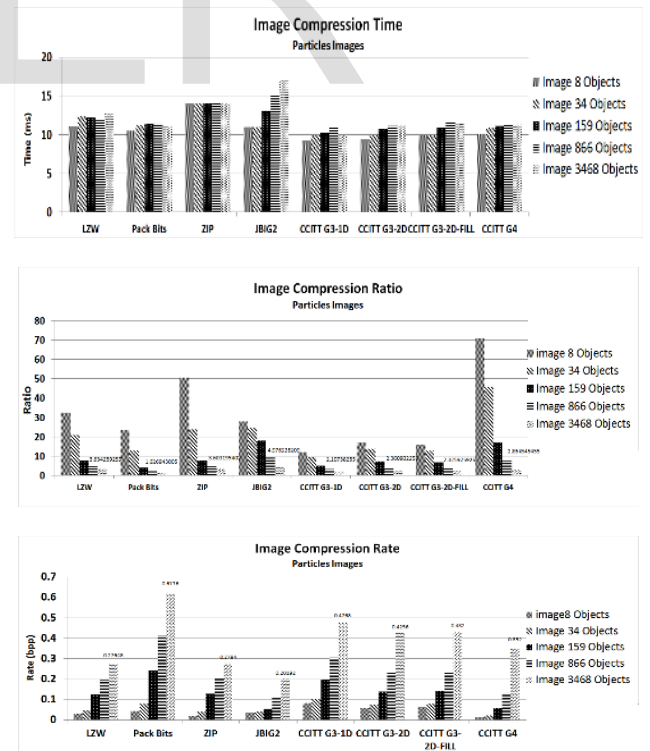


Figure 15: Image Compression Time, Ratio and Rate (Particle Images, Different no of Objects).

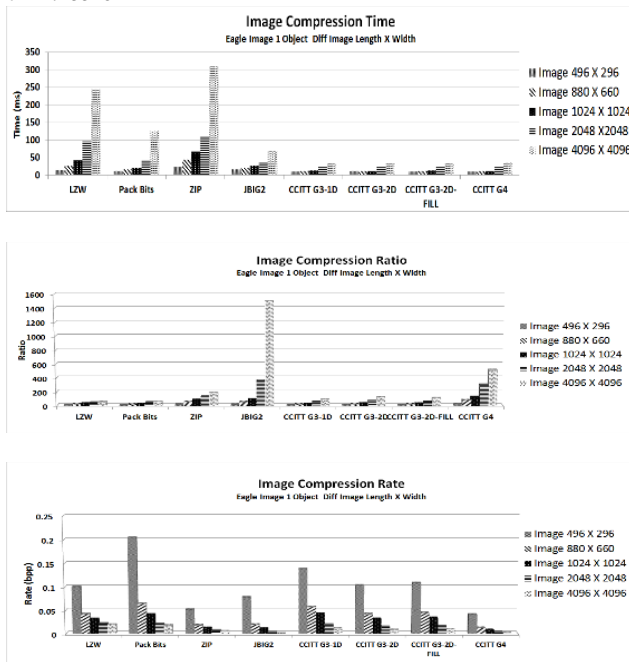


Figure 16: Image Compression Time, Ratio and Rate (Different Image Size, Same Object Size).

## 7 CONCLUSION / FUTURE WORK

Compression scheme depends greatly on the type of data to which it is applied. A scheme that works well on one data set may do poorly on the next. The comparison results show which compression algorithm has the ability to compress images of any size to a significantly reduced size than that of the original size. However the time taken by each image to compress is an approximation of the CPU time taken by the system for each algorithm. This CPU time is the smallest possible that these algorithm can take. This time (number) is meant to provide a rough approximation, not to be accurate, because the performance varies depending upon the hardware and the characteristics of the data. Different compression algorithms have been studied, compared and rated in terms of compression time and compression ratio. The comparison with various forms of image compression techniques suggests that, in the majority of cases, the CCITT G4 compression standard has the best compressed size with an efficient time taken by this compression process. The CCITT G4 has been compared to various generalized algorithms that are being used for different types of images. They were also compared to other CCITT group algorithms i.e. Group 3 one dimensional and two dimensional. The result suggests that CCITT G4 is more reliable in terms of compression time and compression ratio. However the complexity can be traded when the CCITT Group 4 algorithms are implemented on hardware. An FPGA workflow is proposed for CCITT G4 compression standard.

Nowadays, these algorithms are very popular with the sensor based smart camera. These smart cameras usually work in a network with a wireless node or are connected in some remote location by means of a smaller data rate line. Hence, the com-

pression ratios of these algorithms makes them a popular choice and have re-used a technology that has been side-lined by so many newer and better algorithms that focus on more improved color images. This study provides a basis for the implementation of these algorithms on any flexible hardware platform such as FPGA, micro controllers etc. which will provide a faster compression of images received through any medium such as cameras and scanners.

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