



ISSN 2278 – 0211 (Online)

## VLSI Implementation of Edge-Oriented Image Scaling Architecture

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### **Abstract:**

*Image scaling is a resizing of digital image and it is a very important technique which has been widely used in many image processing applications. In this paper, we present an edge-oriented area-pixel scaling architecture. To achieve the goal of low cost, the area-pixel scaling technique is implemented with a low-complexity VLSI architecture in our design. A simple edge catching technique is adopted to preserve the image edge features effectively so as to achieve better image quality. Compared with the previous low-complexity techniques, our method performs better in terms of both quantitative evaluation and visual quality.*

*Resizing the image has become a significant trend to design a low-cost, high quality, and high performance image scalar by VLSI technique for multimedia electric products.*

*The image scaling is done by means of applying image interpolation methods. Image interpolation is that a method to increase or decrease the number of pixels in a digital image. Image interpolation is of two types namely adaptive interpolation and non adaptive interpolation. Various non adaptive algorithms are proposed for the image scaling, the nearest neighbour algorithm is the simplest method with low complexity and easy implementation. The seven-stage VLSI architecture of our image scaling processor yields a processing rate of about 157.072MHz using Xilinx Artix -7 FPGA device.*

**Keywords:** Image scaling, Interpolation, Pipeline, VLSI

### **1. Introduction**

IMAGE scaling is widely used in many fields ranging from consumer electronics to medical imaging. It is indispensable when the resolution of an image generated by a source device is different from the screen resolution of a target display. For example, we have to enlarge images to fit HDTV or to scale them down to fit the mini-size portable LCD panel. Resizing the image would produce severe jaggging and blurring in the HR image. For example,

In digital image scaling, image interpolation algorithms are used to convert an image from one resolution to another resolution without losing the visual content in the image. In the colour, image interpolation is the process of estimating the missing colour samples to reconstruct a full colour image [1]. Image scaling is widely used in many fields, ranging from consumer electronics, such as digital camera, mobile phone, tablet, display devices and medical imaging like computer assisted surgery (CAS) and digital radiographs [2]. In many applications, from consumer electronics to medical imaging, it is desirable to improve the restructured image quality and processing performance of hardware implementation [3]. For example, a video source with a  $640 \times 480$  video graphics arrays (VGA) resolution may need to fit the  $1920 \times 1080$  resolution of a high definition multimedia interface (HDMI). Image up scaling [4] methods are implemented for a variety of computer equipments like printers, digital television, media players, image processing systems, graphics renderers, and so on. On the other hand, high resolution image may need to be scaled down to a small size in order to fit the lower resolution of small liquid crystal display panels. That is, the image scaling is a challenging and very significant issue in digital image processing [5]. The problem is to attain a digital image to be displayed on a large bitmap from unique data sample in a smaller grid, and this image should appear like it had been attained with a sensor having the resolution of the up-scaled image or, as a minimum, present a "natural" texture. Methods that are normally used to solve the problem (i.e., pixel replication, bilinear, or bi-cubic interpolation) do not realize these requirements, producing images with visual artifacts like pixelization, jagged contours, and over smoothing. Therefore, a set of advanced adaptive methods have been presented [4]. a video source with a  $640 \times 480$  video graphics array resolution may need to fit the  $1920 \times 1080$  resolution of a high-definition multimedia interface, this is achieved by means of

image scaling processor.. The most simple and widely used scaling methods are the nearest neighbour and bilinear techniques. In recent years, many efficient scaling methods have been proposed in the literature.

According to the required computations and memory space, we can divide the existing scaling methods into two classes: lower complexity and higher complexity scaling techniques. The complexity of the former is very low and comparable to conventional bilinear method. The latter yields visually pleasing images by utilizing more advanced scaling methods. In many practical real-time applications, the scaling process is included in end-user equipment, so a good lower complexity scaling technique, which is simple and suitable for low-cost VLSI implementation, is needed. In this paper, we consider the lower complexity scaling techniques only.

Kim et al. presented a simple area-pixel scaling method. It uses an area-pixel model instead of the common point-pixel model and takes a maximum of four pixels of the original image to calculate one pixel of a scaled image. By using the area coverage of the source pixels from the applied mask in combination with the difference of luminosity among the source pixels. Andreadis et al. [8] proposed a modified area-pixel scaling algorithm and its circuit to obtain better edge preservation. Both Bilinear and Bi-cubic obtain better edge-preservation but require about two times more of computations than the bilinear method.

To achieve the goal of lower cost, we present an edge-oriented area-pixel scaling processor in this paper. The area-pixel scaling technique is approximated and implemented with the proper and low-cost VLSI circuit in our design. The proposed scaling processor can support floating-point magnification factor and preserve the edge features efficiently by taking into account the local characteristic existed in those available source pixels around the target pixel. Furthermore, it handles streaming data directly and requires only small amount of memory: one line buffer rather than a full frame buffer.

The experimental results demonstrate that the proposed design performs better than other lower complexity image scaling methods in terms of both quantitative evaluation and visual quality. The seven-stage VLSI architecture for the proposed design was implemented and synthesized by using Verilog HDL and XST(Xilinx Synthesis Technology), respectively. In our simulation, the circuit can achieve 157.072MHz using Xilinx Artix-7.

## 2. Area-Pixel Scaling Technique

### 2.1. An Overview of Area-Pixel Scaling Technique

Assume that the source image represents the original image to be scaled up/down and target image represents the scaled image. The area-pixel scaling technique performs scale-up scale-down transformation by using the area pixel model instead of the common point pixel model. Each pixel is treated as one small rectangle but not a point; its intensity is evenly distributed in the rectangle area. Fig. 1 shows an example of image scaleup process of the area-pixel model where a source image of  $4 \times 4$  pixels is scaled up to the target image of  $5 \times 5$  pixels. Obviously, the area of a target pixel is less than that of a source pixel. A window is put on the current target pixel to calculate its estimated luminance value. As shown in Fig. 1(c), the number of source pixels overlapped by the current target pixel window is one, two, or a maximum of four. Let the luminance values of four source pixels overlapped by the window of current target pixel at coordinate  $(k,l)$  be denoted as  $FS(m,n)$ ,  $FS(m+1,n)$  and  $FS(m+1,n+1)$  respectively. The estimated value of current target pixel, denoted  $FT((k,l))$  can be calculated by weighted averaging the luminance values of four source pixels with area coverage ratio as

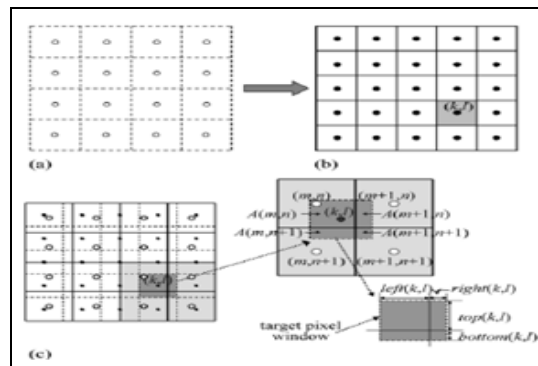
$$FT((k,l)) = 01 \sum [Fs(m+1,n+j) \times W(m+1,n+j)] \quad (1)$$


Figure 1: (a) source image of  $4 \times 4$  pixels. (b) A target image of  $5 \times 5$  pixels.  
(c) Relations of the target pixel and source pixels Equations.

Where  $W(m,n)$ ,  $W(m+1,n)$ ,  $W(m,n+1)$  and  $W(m+1,n+1)$  represent the weight factors of neighboring source pixels for the current target pixel at  $(k,l)$ . Assume that the regions of four source pixels overlapped by current target pixel window are denoted as  $A(m,n)$ ,  $A(m+1,n)$ ,  $A(m,n+1)$  and  $A(m+1,n+1)$  respectively, and the area of the target pixel window is denoted as  $Asum$ . The weight factors of four source pixels can be given as

$$[W(m,n), W(m+1,n), W(m,n+1) \text{ and } W(m+1,n+1)] = [A(m,n)/Asum, A(m+1,n)/Asum, A(m,n+1)/Asum, A(m+1,n+1)/Asum] \quad (2)$$

Where  $Asum = A(m,n) + A(m+1,n) + A(m,n+1) + A(m+1,n+1)$ . Let the width and height of the overlapped region  $A(m,n)$  be denoted as  $left(k,l)$  and  $top(k,l)$ , and the width and height of  $A(m+1,n+1)$  be denoted as  $right(k,l)$  and  $bottom(k,l)$ , respectively, as shown in Fig. 1(c).

Then, the areas of the overlapped region can be calculated

$$[A''(m,n),A''(m+1,n),A''(m,n+1),A''(m+1,n+1)]=[left''(k,l) \times top''(k,l), right''(k,l) \times top''(k,l), left''(k,l) \times bottom''(k,l), right''(k,l) \times bottom''(k,l)]. \quad (3)$$

Obviously, many floating-point operations are needed to determine the four parameters  $left''(k,l), top''(k,l), right''(k,l)$  and  $bottom''(k,l)$ , if the direct area-pixel implementation is adopted.

### 3. The Proposed Low Complexity Algorithm

Observing (1)–(3), we know that the direct implementation of area-pixel scaling requires some extensive floating-point computations for the current target pixel at  $(k,l)$  to determine the four parameters,  $left''(k,l), top''(k,l), right''(k,l)$  and  $bottom''(k,l)$ . In the proposed processor, we use an approximate technique suitable for low-cost VLSI implementation to achieve that goal properly. We modify (3) and implement the calculation of areas of the overlapped regions as

$$[A''(m,n),A''(m+1,n),A''(m,n+1), A''(m+1,n+1)] = [left''(k,l) \times top''(k,l), right''(k,l) \times top''(k,l), left''(k,l) \times bottom''(k,l), right''(k,l) \times bottom''(k,l)]. \quad (4)$$

Those  $left''(k,l), top''(k,l), right''(k,l)$  and  $bottom''(k,l)$  are all 6-b integer and given as

$$[left''(k,l), top''(k,l), right''(k,l), bottom''(k,l)] = Appr [left''(k,l), top''(k,l), right''(k,l), bottom''(k,l)] \quad (5)$$

Where  $Appr$  represents the approximate operator adopted in our design and will be explained in detail later. To obtain better visual quality, a simple low-cost edge catching technique is employed to preserve the edge features effectively by taking into account the local characteristic existed in those available source pixels around the target pixel.

The final areas of the overlapped regions are given as  $[A''''(m,n), A''''(m+1,n), A''''(m,n+1), A''''(m+1,n+1)] = ( [A''(m,n), A''(m+1,n), A''(m,n+1), A''(m+1,n+1)] )$  (6) where we adopt a tuning operator to tune the areas of four overlapped regions according to the edge features obtained by our edge-catching technique. By applying (6) to (1) and (2), we can determine the estimated luminance value of the current target pixel.

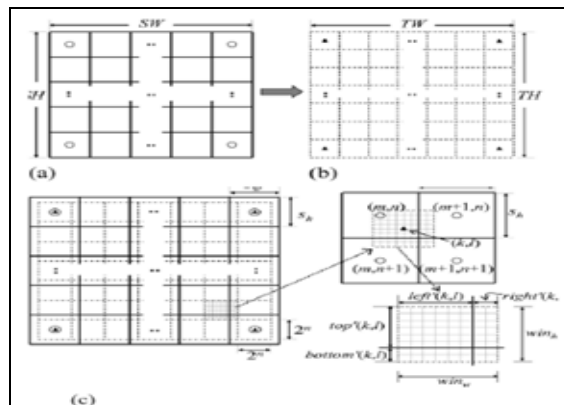


Figure 2: Example of image enlargement for our method (a) A source image of  $SW \times SH$  pixels (b) A target image of  $TW \times TH$  pixels (c) Relations of the target pixels and source pixels

#### 3.1. The Approximate Technique

Fig. 2 shows an example of our image scale up process where a source image of  $SW \times SH$  pixels is scaled up to the target image of  $TW \times TH$  pixels and every pixel is treated as one rectangle. As shown in Fig. 2(c), we align those centers of four corner rectangles (pixels) in the source and target images. For simple hardware implementation, each rectangular target pixel is treated as  $2n \times 2n$  grids with uniform size ( $n$  is 3 for Fig. 2). Assume that the width and the height of the target pixel window are denoted as  $winw$  and  $winh$ , then the area of the current target pixel window ( $A_{sum}$ ) can be calculated as  $winw \times winh$ . In our design, the values of  $winw$  and  $winh$  are determined based on the current magnification factors,  $mf_w$  for  $x$  direction and  $mf_h$  for  $y$  direction where  $mf_w = TW/SW$  and  $mf_h = TH/SH$ . In the case of image enlargement  $winw = 2n$  when  $100\% < mf_w < 200\%$ . When  $200\% < mf_w < 400\%$ ,  $winw$  will be enlarged to  $2n+1$  and so on. In the case of image reduction  $winw$  is reduced to  $2n-1$  when  $50\% < mf_w < 100\%$ . When  $25\% < mf_w < 50\%$ ,  $winw$  is  $2n-2$ , and so on. With the similar way, we can also determine the value of  $winh$  by using  $mf_h$ . In the design, the division operation in (2) can be implemented simply with a shifter As shown in Fig. 3(c), the relationships among  $left''(k,l), top''(k,l)$ , and  $bottom''(k,l)$  can be denoted as follows:

$$Right''(k,l) = winw - left''(k,l) \quad (7)$$

$$Bottom''(k,l) = winh - top''(k,l) \quad (8)$$

As soon as  $left''(k,l)$  and  $top''(k,l)$  are determined,  $Right''(k,l)$  and  $Bottom''(k,l)$  can be calculated easily. Thus, we focus on finding the values of  $left''(k,l)$  and  $top''(k,l)$  only. In our design,  $left''(k,l)$  is calculated as

$$left''(k,l) = \min(srcright(m,n) - winleft(k,l), winw) \quad (9)$$

where  $\min$  represents the minimum operation, and  $winleft(k,l)$  represents the horizontal displacement (in the unit of grid) from the left boundary of the source image to the left side of the current pixel window at coordinate  $(k,l)$ , and can be calculated as

$$winleft(k,l) = winleft(k-1,l) + 2n \cdot srcright(m,n) \quad (10)$$

represents the horizontal displacement (in the unit of grid) from the left boundary of the source image to the right side of the top-left source pixel overlapped by the current pixel window at (k,l), and can be calculated as

$$srcright(m,n) = srcright(m-1,n) + sW + Tw \tag{11}$$

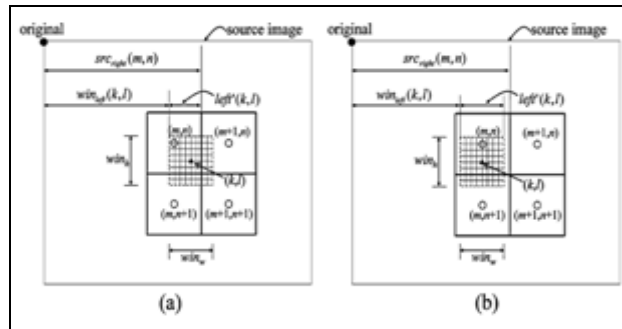


Figure 3: Two possible cases for  $left''(k,l)$ . (a)  $left''(k,l) = srcright(m,n) - winleft''(k,l)$  (b)  $left''(k,l) = winw$

Where  $sw$  is the width of a source pixel relative to a  $2n \times 2n$  target pixel and  $Tw$  is the regulating value used to reduce the accumulated error caused by rounding  $sw$ . Both  $sw$  and  $Tw$  are in the unit of grid. As shown in Fig. 3(a) if  $srcright(m,n) - winleft''(k,l)$  is smaller than  $winw$ , the current pixels'  $left''(k,l)$  is equal to  $srcright(m,n) - winleft''(k,l)$ . otherwise  $left''(k,l)$  is equal to  $winw$ , as shown in Fig. 3(b). Similarly,  $top''(k,l)$  is given as

$$Top''(k,l) = \min(srcbtm(m,n) - wintop(k,l), winh) \tag{12}$$

where  $wintop(k,l)$ , represents the vertical displacement from the top boundary of the source image to the top side of the target pixel window at (k,l), and can be calculated as  $wintop(k,l) = wintop(k,l-1) + 2n$

$srcbtm(m,n)$  represents the vertical displacement from the top boundary of the source image to the bottom side of the top-left source pixel overlapped by the target pixel window at coordinate (k,l) and can be calculated as

$$(srcbtm(m,n) = (srcbtm(m,n-1) + sh + Th) \tag{14}$$

Where  $sh$  is the height of a source pixel in the unit of grid, and  $Th$  is the regulating value used to reduce the accumulating error caused by rounding  $sh$ . Initially,  $winleft(0,0) = (sw - winw) / 2$ ,  $srcright(0,0) = sw$  and  $wintop(0,0) = (sh - winh) / 2$  and  $srcbtm(0,0) = sw$ . All variables among (9)–(14) are integers. We use a few low-cost integer addition/subtraction operations rather than extensive floating-point multiplication/division computations to obtain the approximated values of  $left''(k,l)$  and  $top''(k,l)$ . In the following paragraph, the steps to determine  $Tw$  and  $Th$  are described. Since we set each target pixel as  $2n \times 2n$  grids,  $sw$  and  $sh$  can be denoted and calculated as follows:

$$Sw = [(TW-1)/SW-1] \times 2n \tag{15}$$

$$Sh = [(TH-1)/SH-1] \times 2n \tag{16}$$

In the design, both  $Sw$  and  $Sh$  are rounded to integers. The rule is that a fractional part of less than 0.5 is dropped, while a fractional part of 0.5 or more leads to be rounded to the next bigger integer. The former will produce the rounding-down error and the latter will produce the rounding-up error. Each kind of errors is accumulated and might cause the values of  $left''(k,l)$  or  $top''(k,l)$  to be incorrect. To reduce accumulated rounding error, we adopt  $Tw$  and  $Th$  to regulate and  $left''(k,l)$  and  $top''(k,l)$  respectively. There are two working modes existed in our processor. At normal mode, the accumulation of rounding-up/down error of  $left''(k,l)$  is less than one grid, so no regulation is needed and  $Tw$  will be set to zero. As soon as the accumulation of rounding-up/down error of  $left''(k,l)$  is greater than or equal to one grid, the processor will enter regulating mode and set the value of  $Tw$  to 1. The same idea can be applied to  $top''(k,l)$  and  $rh$ . Let  $rw$  represent the regulating times required for each row, thus it can be given as

$$rw = 2n \times (TW-1) - Sw \times (SW-1) \text{ if } Sw \text{ is rounded up to an integer} \tag{17}$$

In other words, there are times that is set as 0 or 1 for each row. If  $rw$  is rounded down, the total sum of grids at direction in the target image is larger than that in the source image without regulation. Therefore, it is necessary to "compress" the target image by overlapping grids. We choose pixels in a row of the target image regularly, and shift left each pixel of them with one grid to finish aligning. Fig. 4 shows an example of the image scaleup process where a source image of 8 8 pixels is scaled up to the target image of 11 11 pixels. According to (15),  $Sw = 3$ , since  $3 \times 8 = 24 < 27$ , and  $3 \times 8 = 24 < 27$ . Then,  $rw$  is rounded down to the integer 11 and is 3. Therefore, we overlap three grids via shifting left three target pixels with one grid in this row to do the job of aligning. The accumulation effect of rounding errors can be reduced.

On the contrary, if  $rw$  is rounded up, we need to "expand" the target image by inserting grids. We choose pixels in a row of the target image regularly, and shift right each pixel of them with one grid to do aligning. Fig. 4 shows another example of the image scaleup process where a source image of 8 8 pixels is scaled up to the target image of 13 13 pixels. According to (15),  $Sw = 5$ , since  $5 \times 8 = 40 > 39$ , and  $5 \times 8 = 40 > 39$ . In the example,  $rw$  is rounded up to the integer 14 and is 2. Therefore, two grids are inserted via shifting right two target pixels with one grid in this row to do aligning. The same way is also applied to the vertical-direction process. Using (7)–(17), we can realize the approximate operator in (5) with the low-complexity computations

### 3.2. The Low-Cost Edge-Catching Technique

In the design, we take the sigmoidal signal [15] as the image edge model for image scaling. Fig. 4(a) shows an example of the 1-D sigmoidal signal. Assume that the pixel to be interpolated is located at coordinate  $k$  and its nearest available neighbors in the image are

located at coordinate  $m$  for the left and  $m+1$  for the right. Let  $s = k-m$  and  $E(k)$  represent the luminance value of the pixel at coordinate  $k$ . If the estimated value  $E(k)$  of the pixel to be interpolated is determined by using linear interpolation, it can be calculated as

$$E(k) = (1-s) \times E(m) + s \times E(m+1) \quad (18)$$

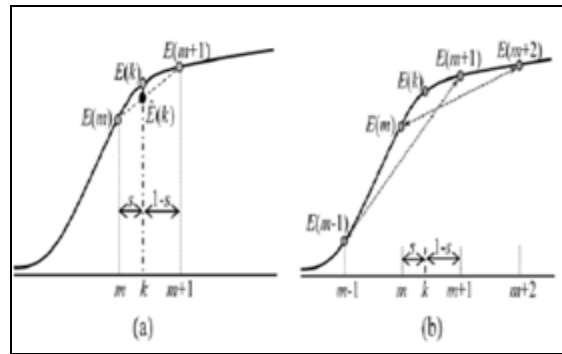


Figure 4: Local characteristic of the data in the neighborhood of  $k$ . (a) An image edge model (b) Local  $c/s$

As shown in Fig. 4(a),  $E(k)$  and  $E(k)$  might not match greatly. To solve the problem, we modify the distance  $s$  to make  $E(k)$  approach  $E(k)$  for a better estimation. Assume that the coordinates of the four nearest available neighbors around the current pixel are located at  $m-1, m, m+1$  and  $m+2$ , respectively, as shown in Fig. 4(b). In our design, we define an evaluating parameter  $L$  to estimate the local characteristic of the data in the neighbourhood of  $k$ . It is given as

$$L = |E(m+1) - E(m-1)| - |E(m+2) - E(m)| \quad (19)$$

If the image data are sufficiently smooth and the luminance changes at object edges can be approximated by sigmoidal functions, we can come to the following conclusion. Indicates symmetry, so  $s$  is unchanged.  $L > 0$  indicates that the variation between and is quicker than that between  $E(m+1)$  and  $E(m-1)$  is quicker than that between  $E(m+2)$  and  $E(m)$ . It means that the edge is more homogeneous on the right side, the pixels located at coordinate  $m+1$  should affect the interpolated value more than the pixels located at coordinate  $m$  does. Hence, we can increase  $s$  in order to make the estimated value close to the expected value on the contrary, indicates the edge is more homogeneous on the left side. Thus, we must decrease to obtain a better estimation. Based on the above idea, we modify (18) and calculate the estimated value of current pixels as

$$E(k) = (1-s'') \times E(m) + s'' \times E(m+1) \quad (20)$$

Where  $s''$  is calculated with a simple way and given as

$$s'' = \begin{cases} s + L \times (1-s) / 28 & \text{if } L > 0 \\ s + L \times s / 28 & \text{if } L < 0 \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

A small amount of operations is required to catch the local characteristic of the current pixel. By using the concept of 1-D edge-catching technique shown in (19)–(21), we can tune the areas of four overlapped regions adaptively in the proposed 2-D scaling processor to obtain better image quality. Let  $LA$  represent the evaluating parameter to estimate the local characteristic of the current pixel at coordinate  $(k, l)$ . If  $\text{top}''(k, l)$  is greater than or equal to  $\text{win}h/2$  it means that  $A''(m, n)$  is bigger than or equal to  $A''(m, n+1)$ . Hence, the upper row ( $n$ ) is more important than the lower row ( $n+1$ ) to catch edge features. Thus,  $LA$  is given as

$$LA = |E(m+1, n) - E(m-1, n)| - |E(m+2, n) - E(m, n)| \quad (22)$$

$LA = 0$  indicates symmetry, so  $A''(m, n)$  is unchanged.  $LA > 0$  indicates that the variation between  $E(m+1, n)$  and  $E(m-1, n)$  is quicker than that between  $E(m+2, n)$  and  $E(m, n)$ . It means that the edge is more homogeneous on the right-hand side, so we can increase  $A''(m+1, n)$  in order to make the estimated value close to the expected one. On the contrary,  $LA < 0$  indicates the edge is more homogeneous on the left-hand side, thus we decrease  $A''(m+1, n)$  to obtain a better estimate. Applying the above idea to (6), we can calculate the final areas of the overlapped region as

$$[A''(m, n), A''(m+1, n), A''(m, n+1), A''(m+1, n+1)] = [A''(m, n) - LA \times AC / 28, A''(m+1, n) + LA \times AC / 28, A''(m, n+1), A''(m+1, n+1)] \quad (23)$$

where  $AC = A''(m, n)$  if  $LA > 0$  and  $AC = A''(m+1, n)$  if  $LA < 0$ . On the contrary, if  $\text{top}''(k, l)$  is less than  $\text{win}h/2$ , it means that  $A''(m, n)$  is smaller than  $A''(m, n+1)$ . Hence, the lower row ( $n+1$ ) is more important than the upper row ( $n$ ) to catch edge features. Thus,  $LA$  is given as

$$LA = |E(m+1, n+1) - E(m-1, n+1)| - |E(m+2, n+1) - E(m, n+1)| \quad (24)$$

The final areas of the overlapped regions are given as

$$[A''(m, n), A''(m+1, n), A''(m, n+1), A''(m+1, n+1)] = [A''(m, n), A''(m+1, n), A''(m, n+1), -LA \times AC / 28, A''(m+1, n+1) + LA \times AC / 28] \quad (25)$$

#### 4. VLSI Architecture

Our scaling method requires low computational complexity and only one line memory buffer, so it is suitable for low-cost VLSI implementation. Fig. 5 shows block diagram of the seven stage VLSI architecture for our scaling method. The architecture consists of seven main blocks: approximate module (AM), register bank (RB), area generator (AG), edge catcher (EC), area tuner (AT), target generator (TG), and the controller. Each of them is described briefly in the following subsections.

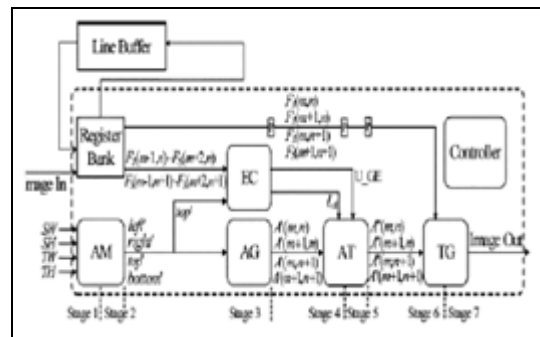


Figure 5: Block diagram of VLSI architecture for our scaling methods

#### 4.1. Approximate Module

When a source image of  $SW \times SH$  pixels is scaled up or down to the target image of  $TW \times TH$  pixels, the AM performs (7)–(17) mentioned in Section III-A, and generates  $left(k,l)$ ,  $top(k,l)$ ,  $right(k,l)$  and  $bottom(k,l)$  respectively, for each target pixel from left to right and from top to bottom.

In our VLSI implementation,  $n$  is set to 3, so each rectangular target pixel is treated as  $23 \times 23$  uniform-sized grids  $winw$ . and  $winh$  are both 6-b integers and their values are restricted to power of 2, so  $winw, winh \in \{1,2,4,8,16,32\}$ . Based on the approximate technique mentioned in the Section III-A, the minimum and the maximum of magnification factors ( $mf_w$  and  $mf_h$ ) supported by the design are 0.125 and 8, respectively. Hence, the minimum and the maximum of magnification factor ( $mf = mf_w \times mf_h$ ) supported by the design are 1/64 and 64, respectively.

AM is composed of two-stage pipelined architecture. In the first stage, the coordinate  $(k,l)$  of the current target pixel and the coordinate  $(m,n)$  of the top-left source pixel overlapped by the current window are determined. In the second stage, AM first calculates  $winleft(k,l)$ ,  $srcright(m,n)$ ,  $wintop(k,l)$  and  $srcbtm(m,n)$  according to (10)–(11) and (13)–(14), and then generates  $left(k,l)$ ,  $right(k,l)$ ,  $top(k,l)$ , and  $bottom(k,l)$  according to (7)–(9) and (12).

#### 4.2. Register Bank

In our design, the estimated value of the current target pixel  $FT(k,l)$  is calculated by using the luminance values of  $2 \times 4$  neighboring source pixels  $FS(m-1,n)$ ,  $FS(m,n)$ ,  $FS(m+1)$ ,  $FS(m+2,n)$ ,  $FS(m-1,n+1)$ ,  $FS(m,n+1)$ ,  $FS(m+1,n+1)$ , and  $FS(m+2,n+1)$ . The register bank, consisting of eight registers, is used to provide those source luminance values at exact time for the estimated process of current target pixel.

Fig. 6 shows the internal connections of RB where every four registers are connected serially in a chain to provide four pixel values of a row in current pixel window, and the line buffer is used to store the pixel values of one row in the source image.

When the controller enables the shift operation in RB, two new values are read into RB (Reg3 and Reg7) and the rest 6-pixel values are shifted to their right registers one by one. The 8-pixel values stored in RB will be used by EC for edge catching and by TG for target pixel estimating.

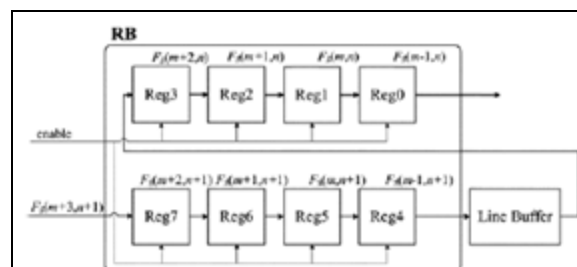


Figure 6: Architecture of register bank

#### 4.3. Area Generator

For each target pixel, AG calculates the areas of the overlapped regions  $A(m,n)$ ,  $A(m,n+1)$ ,  $A(m+1,n)$  and  $A(m+1,n+1)$  according to (4). Fig. 7 shows the architecture of AG where represents the pipeline registers and MULT is the  $4 \times 4$  integer multiplier

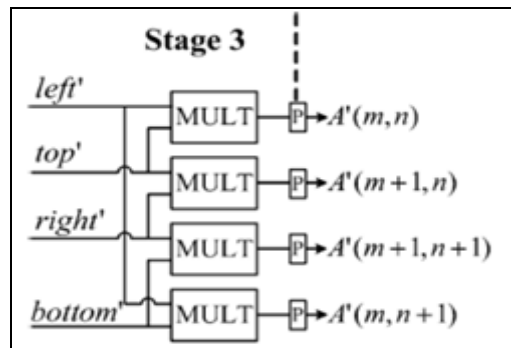


Figure 7: Architecture of area generator

4.4. Edge Catcher

EC implements the proposed low-cost edge-catching technique and outputs the evaluating parameter  $LA$ , which represents the local edge characteristic of current pixel at coordinate  $(k,l)$ . Fig. 8 shows the architecture of EC where SUB unit generates the difference of two inputs and  $|SUB|$  unit generates the two inputs' absolute value of difference.

The comparator CMP outputs logic 1 if the input value is greater than or equal to  $win_h/2$ . The binary compared result, denoted as  $U\_GE$ , is used to decide whether the upper row (row  $n$ ) in current pixel window is more important than the lower row (row  $n+1$ ) in regards to catch edge features. According to (22) and (24), EC produces the final result  $LA$  and sends it to the following AT.

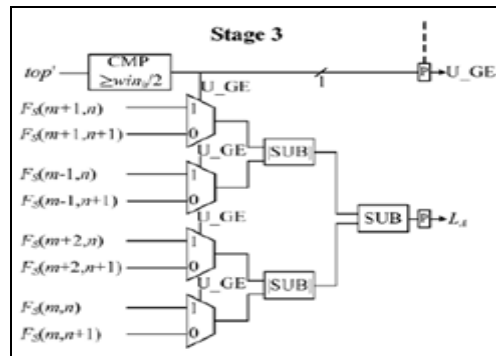


Figure 8: Architecture of edge catcher

4.5. Target Generator

By weighted averaging the luminance values of four source pixels with tuned-area coverage ratio, TG implements (1) and (2) to determine the estimated value  $FT(k,l)$ . Fig. 14 shows the two-stage pipeline architecture of TG. Four MULT units and three ADD units are used to perform (1). Since the value of  $Asum$  is equal to the power of 2, the division operation in (2) can be implemented by the shifter easily.

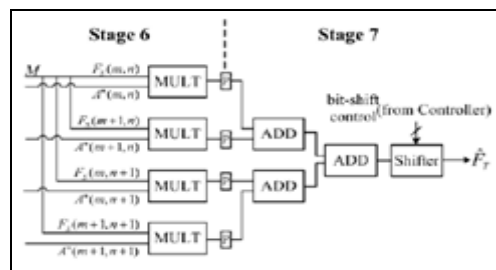


Figure 9: Architecture of target generator

4.6. Controller

The controller, realized with a finite-state machine, monitors the data flow and sends proper control signals to all other components. In the design, AM, AT, and TG require two clock cycles to complete their functions, respectively. Both AG and EC need one clock cycle to finish their tasks, and they work in parallel because no data dependency between them exists. For each target pixel, seven clock cycles are needed to output the estimated value  $FT(k,l)$ .

## 5. Simulation Results

To evaluate the performance of our image-scaling algorithm, we use 6 gray-scale test images, shown in. For each single test image, we reduce/enlarge the original image by using the well-known bilinear method, and then employ various approaches to scale up/down the bilinear-scaled image back to the size of the original test image. Thus, we can compare the image quality of the reconstructed images for various scaling methods. Three well-known scaling methods, nearest neighbour (NN), bilinear (BL) [6], and bicubic (BC) [9], two area-pixel scaling methods, Win (winscale in [7]) and M Win (the modified winscale in [8]), and our method are used for comparison in terms of computational complexity, objectivetesting (quantitative evaluation), and subjective testing (visualquality), respectively.

To reduce hardware cost, we adopt the low-cost technique suitable for VLSI implementation to perform area-pixel scaling. The output images of our scaling method are generated by the proposed VLSI circuit after post-layout transistor-level simulation. Simulation results show that our design achieves better quantitative quality than the previous low-complexity scaling methods [5]–[8]. However, the exact degree of improvement is dependent on the content of different images processed.

The proposed VLSI architecture of the proposed design was implemented by using Verilog HDL. We used XST (Xilinx synthesis technology) to synthesize the design with Xilinx Artix-7. Isim (ISE Simulator) is used for post-layout transistor-level simulation. It works with a clock period of 6.636 ns and can achieve a processing rate of 157.072MHz. This method is also implemented with MATLAB and the result of area method scale up image is shown below.



## 6. Conclusion

A low-cost image scaling processor is proposed in this paper. The experimental results demonstrate that this design achieves better performances in both objective and subjective image quality than other low-complexity scaling methods. Furthermore, an efficient VLSI architecture for the proposed method is presented. In this simulation, it operates with a clock period of 6.366 ns and achieves a processing rate of 157 megapixels/second. The architecture work with monochromatic images, but it can be extended for working with RGB color images easily.

## 7. References

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