An Efficient Architecture and High-Throughput Implementation of CCSDS-123.0-B-2 Hybrid Entropy Coder Targeting Space-Grade SRAM FPGA Technology

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Nowadays, hyperspectral imaging is recognized as cornerstone remote sensing technology. The explosive growth in image data volume and instrument data rates, compete with limited on-board storage and downlink bandwidth, making hyperspectral data compression a mission critical task. Recently, the consultative committee for space data systems (CCSDS) extended the previous issue of the CCSDS-123.0 Recommended Standard for multi/hyperspectral image compression to provide Near-Lossless compression functionality. A key feature of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 is the improved Hybrid Entropy Coder providing substantially better compression performance than the Issue 1 entropy coders at low bit rates. In this paper, we introduce a high-throughput hardware implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 Hybrid Entropy Coder. The introduced architecture exploits the systolic design pattern providing modularity and latency insensitivity in a deep and elastic pipeline, achieving constant throughput of 1 sample/cycle with small field programmable gate array (FPGA) resource footprint. This architecture is described in portable VHDL register transfer level (RTL) and implemented, validated and demonstrated on a commercially available Xilinx KCU105 development board hosting a Xilinx Kintex Ultrascale XCKU040 SRAM FPGA, and thus, is directly transferable to the Xilinx Radiation Tolerant Kintex Ultrascale XQRKU060 space-grade devices. Moreover, state-of-the-art SpaceFibre (ECSS-E-ST-50-11C) serial link interface and test equipment were used in the validation platform to emulate an on-board deployment. The introduced CCSDS-123.0-B-2 Hybrid Entropy Coder achieves a constant throughput performance of 305 MSamples/s. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first published fully-compliant architecture and high-throughput implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 Hybrid Entropy Coder, targeting space-grade FPGA technology.

1. INTRODUCTION

Hyperspectral imaging is recognized as a cornerstone remote sensing technology. The latest high-resolution and high-speed space-borne imagers have brought an explosive growth in data volume. For example, the HyspIRI sensor developed by NASA can produce up to 5 TB of data per day. This competes with the limited on-board storage resources and downlink bandwidth, making hyperspectral image compression a mission critical on-board processing task. Due to the high data volume reduction often needed to meet spacecraft downlink bandwidth requirements, lossy compression is becoming increasingly important. In this context, the Multispectral Hyperspectral Data Compression (SLS-MHDC) Working Group of the Consultative Committee for Space Data Systems (CCSDS) standardized the new Issue 2 “Low-Complexity Lossless and Near-Lossless Multispectral and Hyperspectral Image Compression” standard CCSDS-123.0-B-2 [1]. This new Issue 2 extends Issue 1 [2], incorporating support for low-complexity near-lossless compression, while retaining lossless compression capabilities. Near-lossless refers to the ability to perform compression in a way that limits the maximum error in the reconstructed image to a user-specified bound.

A key feature of CCSDS-123.0-B-2 is the improved hybrid entropy coder option. At high bit-rates, the hybrid entropy coder encodes most samples using a family of codes that are equivalent to those used by the sample-adaptive encoder of Issue 1, and, thus, has nearly identical high-bit-rate performance. However, at low bit rates it has substantially better performance than the Issue 1 entropy encoders [3]. For example, the sample-adaptive encoder of Issue 1 cannot reach bit-rates lower than 1 b-per-sample due to design constraints, while the Rice-based block-adaptive encoder (described in CCSDS-121.0-B-3) may, but at a nonnegligible bit-rate overhead.

The hybrid entropy coder specified in CCSDS-123.0-B-2 is an extended version of the NASA fast lossless extended (FLEX) original hybrid entropy coder [4], [5]
so that decoding proceeds in reverse order. This permits a more memory-efficient implementation than FLEX’s original entropy coder, which was based on an interleaved entropy coding approach. The hybrid entropy coder includes codes equivalent to the length-limited Golomb-power-of-2 codes used by the sample-adaptive entropy coder with the addition of 16 variable-to-variable length “low-entropy” codes to provide better compression of low-entropy data. Such low-entropy data become more prevalent as increased predictor quantization step sizes are used, i.e., increasingly lossy compression. The hybrid entropy coder adaptively switches between high and low entropy encoding methods on a sample-by-sample basis, using code selection statistics similar to those used by the sample-adaptive coder. A single output codeword from a low-entropy code may encode multiple samples, which allows obtaining lower compressed data rates than can be produced by the sample-adaptive entropy coder.

Apart from the compression needs, on-board applications require devices that are capable of high-performance with low power consumption and radiation hardness characteristics. The current state-of-the-art SRAM-based field programmable gate array (FPGA) technology offers radiation hardening by design (RHBD), high density and dynamic partial reconfiguration for in-flight adaptability and time-space partitioning of on-board data processing tasks. An excellent example of such technology is the RHBD Xilinx Kintex-Ultascale XQRKU060 FPGA which provides exceptional hardness to single-event upset, typical immunity of 80 MeV-cm²/mg to single-event latchup, data path protection from single-event transients and maximum tolerance of 100 Krad to total ionizing dose [6]. The XQRKU060 FPGA offers those technological advantages and is considered a suitable device for on-board payload data processing applications due to its ability to support upgrades after launch, greatly enhancing mission profile and extending valuable mission life time.

The first, fully compliant, architecture and implementation of CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder was presented in [7]. The architecture achieved variable throughput performance depending on hyperspectral image statistics operating at one sample/cycle only for high-entropy data and at no less than 0.33 samples-per-cycle, for low-entropy data. The maximum throughput (one sample/cycle) which was achieved for lossless compression configuration of a high entropy hyperspectral cube was 344 MSamples/sec targeting the XQRKU060 space-grade FPGA. However, even for lossless compression of low-entropy data or near-lossless mode, where low-entropy coded samples occur increasingly more often, the throughput performance is degraded when the absolute error limit constant increases, with a lower bound of 114 MSample/sec.

In this article, we introduce an efficient architecture and high-throughput hardware implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder. The proposed architecture extends our previous work in [7] achieving a constant throughput of one sample/cycle introducing an efficient codetable lookup by modifying the low entropy coder without any performance degradation when using near-lossless mode even with larger values of error limits. Moreover, the proposed architecture is implemented in portable VHDL RTL and exploits the systolic design pattern to provide modularity and latency insensitivity in a deep and elastic pipeline minimizing the number of stalls. The introduced hybrid entropy coder architecture is validated and demonstrated on a commercially available Xilinx KCU105 development board hosting a Xilinx Kintex Ultrascale XCKU040 SRAM FPGA, and is, therefore, directly transferable to the Xilinx Radiation Tolerant Kintex UltraScale XQRKU060 space-grade devices for space deployments. Moreover, state-of-the-art SpaceFibre (ECSS-E-ST-50-11 C) high-speed serial link interface and test equipment were used in the validation platform to match space deployment. The introduced CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy encoder achieves a constant high-throughput performance of 305 MSamples/s (4.88 Gbps @ 16bpppb), with minimal footprint that is 2.10% (5086) of device LUTs and 0.17% (1) BRAMs of FPGA resources. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first published, fully compliant, architecture and high-throughput implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder, also targeting space-grade FPGA technology.

The rest of this article is organized as follows: Section II provides background information about the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 recommended standard and the hybrid entropy coder algorithm, while Section III describes the introduced architecture. Section IV provides experimental results including the verification of the proposed architecture, the validation of the implemented design on Xilinx KCU105 development board interfacing with SpaceFibre, as well as resource and throughput performance statistics of the implemented design. Section V presents related work and comparisons. Finally, Section VI concludes this article.

II. BACKGROUND

A. CCSDS-123.0-B-2 Overview

The CCSDS-123.0-B-2 standard (as shown in Fig. 1) was designed to provide an effective method of performing lossless or near-lossless compression of 3-D image
data with low implementation complexity for space-borne imagers. Near-lossless compression refers to the ability to perform compression such that the maximum error in the reconstructed image can be limited to a user-specified bound by adjusting the absolute and relative error parameters.

Incoming image samples enter at compressor’s input. Image indices are denoted as \( s_z(t) \), where \( t = y \cdot N_x + x \), \( x = 0, \ldots, N_x - 1 \), \( y = 0, \ldots, N_y - 1 \) are the spacial coordinates (\( N_x \) columns and \( N_y \) rows) and \( z = 0, \ldots, N_z - 1 \) the spectral dimension. Image samples produced by multispectral and hyperspectral imagers are typically interleaved in one of three common orderings: \( z,y,x \) [band SeQuential (BSQ)]; \( y,x,z \) [band interleaved pixels (BIP)], and \( y,z,x \) [band interleaved lines (BIL)]. In BSQ the compression of all image samples of a spectral band is computed before processing the following bands; in BIP a sample is compressed for all the bands before processing next samples; finally, in BIL each line of samples is compressed for all the bands before processing the next lines.

The predictor uses a low-complexity adaptive linear prediction method to predict the value of each sample based on the values of nearby samples in a small 3-D neighborhood. Prediction can be performed causally in a single pass through the image, making use of an adaptively weighted prediction algorithm. Since the original input samples will not be available to the decompressor due to lossy compression, the predictor performs calculations based on sample representatives \( x_p(t) \) instead.

Besides using sample representatives, the predictor in Issue 2 also differs from Issue 1 in that each prediction residual \( \Delta_z(t) \), that is, the difference between the predicted and actual sample values, is quantized using a uniform quantizer. The quantizer step size can be controlled via an absolute error limit (so that samples can be reconstructed with a user-specified error bound) and/or a relative error limit (so that samples predicted to have smaller magnitude can be reconstructed with lower error). Lossless compression in a band is obtained by setting the absolute error limit to zero. The quantized prediction residual \( q_z(t) \) is then mapped to an unsigned integer mapped quantizer index \( \delta_z(t) \). These mapped quantizer indices make up the output of the predictor.

The encoder receives those mapped quantizer indices from the predictor and encodes them using a family of codes. The standard describes three possible encoder options, the sample adaptive encoder, block-adaptive encoder, and hybrid entropy coder. The CCSDS-120.2-G-2 information report [3] includes detailed benchmarks of the encoders and highlights that even though the hybrid entropy coder is the more complex encoder option, it is capable of improved compression performance for both lossless and near-lossless compression for well-chosen parameters. A comprehensive review of the standard can also be seen in [8].

### Algorithm 1: Functionality of Hybrid Entropy Coder

```plaintext
if \( t = 0 \) then
    init()
else if \( t = N_xN_y - 1 \) then
    compressed_image_tail()
else
    \( (\Sigma_z(t), \Gamma(t)) \) ← update_acss(\( \Sigma_z(t - 1), \Gamma(t - 1), \delta_z(t) \))
    hilo ← entropy_coder_selection(\( \Sigma_z(t), \Gamma(t) \))
    if hilo = 1 then
        codeword ← high_entropy_coder(\( \delta_z(t) \))
        to_bitstream(codeword)
    else
        codeword ← low_entropy_coder(\( \delta_z(t) \))
        if codeword_match = 1 then
            to_bitstream(codeword)
        end if
    end if
end if
```

### B. Hybrid Entropy Encoding Algorithm

The hybrid entropy coder is a modified version of the one originally used by the FLEX entropy coder. It includes codes equivalent to the length-limited Golomb power-of-2 (GPO2) codes (i.e., Golomb codes with parameters that are powers of 2, also known as Golomb–Rice codes [3]) used by the sample-adaptive encoder, but extended with an additional 16 variable-to-variable length low-entropy codes. During encoding it adaptively switches between these two coding methods on a sample-by-sample basis based on code selection statistics. A single output codeword from a low-entropy code may encode multiple samples, which allows obtaining lower compression data rates (under one bit-per-pixel) than those achievable by the sample-adaptive entropy coder.

The mapped quantizer indices, \( \delta_z(t) \) of dynamic range \( D_z \) from the predictor’s output are the inputs of the encoder. The coder maintains the adaptive code selection statistics (ACSS), a high-resolution accumulator, \( \Sigma_z(t) \), and a counter \( \Gamma(t) \). Based on the ratio of these variables, the running \( \delta_z(t) \) is encoded with a high entropy or a low entropy code.

Initially when \( t = 0 \), both variables are initialized, and the first sample of every band, \( \delta_z(0) \), is emitted uncompressed. For the rest of the encoding process, both variables are updated before coding the sample and rescaled when the counter saturates (indicated by the rescaling factor \( \gamma^* \)), as shown in (1) and (2). After rescaling, the most significant value of \( \Sigma_z(t) \) is emitted to enable recalculation of the accumulator during the decoding process.

\[
\Sigma_z(t) = \begin{cases} 
\Sigma_z(t - 1) + 4\delta_z(t) & , \Gamma(t - 1) < 2^{v^*} - 1 \\
\frac{\Sigma_z(t - 1) + 4\delta_z(t) + 1}{2} & , \Gamma(t - 1) = 2^{v^*} - 1 
\end{cases}
\]

(1)
\[
\Gamma(t) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{(\Gamma(t-1) + 1)}{2}, & \Gamma(t-1) < 2^{2r} - 1 \\
\frac{(\Gamma(t-1) + 1)}{2}, & \Gamma(t-1) = 2^{2r} - 1.
\end{cases}
\]

In (3), the choice of coder is represented by the high/low entropy flag (hilo), where \( T_0 \) is a constant provided by the standard. When the flag is set, the current sample shall be encoded with a high entropy code, otherwise with a low entropy code

\[
hilo = \begin{cases} 
1, & \sum_{z}(t) \cdot 2^{14} \leq T_0 \cdot \Gamma(t) \\
0, & \text{else}
\end{cases}
\]

Each high entropy sample is then encoded by a reverse length-limited Golomb power-of-2 (RLL-GPO2) code. Each code is identified by a code index \( k_z(t) \), being the largest positive integer satisfying

\[
k_z(t) = \max(D - 2, 2)
\]

\[
\Gamma(t)2^{k_z(t)} \leq \sum_{z}(t) + \frac{49}{25}\Gamma(t).
\]

The RLL-GPO2 codeword for the high entropy sample \( \delta_z(t) \), \( n_{k_z(t)}(\delta_z(t)) \) is defined as follows:

1) If \( [\delta_z(t)/2^{k_z(t)}] < U_{\max} \), where \( U_{\max} \) is the maximum unary length, then \( n_{k_z(t)}(\delta_z(t)) \) consists of the \( k_z(t) \) least significant bits of the binary representation of \( \delta_z(t) \), followed by a “one,” followed by \( [\delta_z(t)/2^{k_z(t)}] \) zeros.

2) Otherwise, \( n_{k_z(t)}(\delta_z(t)) \) consists of the \( D \)-bit binary representation of \( \delta_z(t) \) followed by \( U_{\max} \text{ “zeros.”} \)

Low entropy samples are encoded using one of 16 variable-to-variable length family of codes. The code index of the low entropy code to be used for encoding the low entropy sample \( \delta_z(t) \) is the largest positive \( i \) satisfying

\[
\sum_{z}(t) \cdot 2^{14} \leq T_i \cdot \Gamma(t), \quad 0 \leq i \leq 15
\]

where \( T_0, \ldots, T_{15} \) are constants provided by the standard and \( T_0 \) is used in (5).

For each code \( i \) a prefix of previously input samples is maintained. When a sample is processed, a symbol is added to the corresponding prefix. The standard defines a list of complete prefixes for each code.

When a code’s prefix matches a complete prefix, then a unique codeword corresponding to that sequence of symbols is emitted and the prefix is cleared for this code \( i \).

The complete prefixes of any low entropy code \( i \), can only contain samples satisfying \( \delta_i(t) \leq L_i \), where \( L_0, \ldots, L_{15} \) are constant symbol limits provided by the standard. When a sample exceeds this limitation, then \( \gamma_0(\delta_i(t) - L_i - 1) \) is emitted, and an escape symbol \( X \) (here represented as \( L_i + 1 \)) is added to the code’s prefix. The addition of the escape symbol, completes the prefix and the corresponding codeword is emitted. Therefore, in this case an RLL-GPO2 codeword is followed by a low entropy codeword. The input symbol selection can be summarized as

\[
\iota_z(t) = \begin{cases} 
\delta_z(t), & \delta_z(t) \leq L_i \\
L_i + 1, & \delta_z(t) > L_i
\end{cases}
\]

A more detailed description of the encoding procedure including code tables and limits, can be found in the standard [1]. The encoding procedure is outlined in pseudocode in Algorithm 1.

III. INTRODUCED ARCHITECTURE

The hybrid entropy coder is designed as an IP core described in technology agnostic VHDL register transfer level (RTL). However, technology specific blocks (e.g., DSP48E blocks in Xilinx FPGAs) are used by inference, as well as, generic usage for memory technology mapping between inference and vendor specific memory cells. The encoder operates in the BIP ordering to be matched with a lossless predictor in BIP order (e.g., [9]); however, it can be modified to match specific instrument sensors and mission requirements, with different pixel order (BIL and BSQ). The top-level block diagram of the proposed hybrid entropy coder architecture implemented as an IP core is shown in Fig. 2.

The IP core interfaces using AXI4-Stream based I/O, supporting flow control using the protocol handshake (tvalid and tready signals). Internally, each encoder subunit, as shown in Fig. 2, is pipelined using a systolic latency insensitive design pattern, with elastic buffers [10] as pipeline registers. The elastic buffers use
AXI4-Stream handshaking and allow for full throughput (one cycle/sample) when neither source or sink are stalling. This design pattern avoids additional controllers for flow control, or superfluous buffering to manage sink side stalls. At the same time it facilitates unit testing, by having consistent, verified interfaces in internal components on which testbench bus functional models attach with a consistent protocol.

The hybrid entropy coder comprises of six pipelined components at the top level, which are as follows:

1) Adaptive Code Selection Statistics (ACSS) Unit.
2) High/Low (HiLo) Entropy Decision Unit.
3) High Entropy Coder (HiEC) Unit.
4) Low Entropy Coder (LoEC) Unit.
5) Codeword Combiner Unit.
6) Variable Length Code (VLC) Packer Unit.

A. Design Considerations for Hardware Implementation

Using the latency insensitive design pattern, feed-forward processing paths are further pipelined to decrease logic path lengths and increase achievable frequency. However, processing feedback loops imply a total number of delay cycles equal to the pipeline registers in the loop, which if exceeded, limits performance in terms of cycles/sample processed. This creates a pipeline depth versus critical path (achievable Fmax) tradeoff to be considered in these feedback loops. In this context, two components stand out in complexity, the ACSS unit, and the LoEC unit, which contain such feedback loops.

The ACSS unit contains a feedback loop in the update of $\Sigma_z(t)$ and $\Gamma(t)$. Initializing and computing this update depending on previously computed values ($\Sigma_z(t - 1)$, $\Gamma(t - 1)$), is handled by a loop controller module. In this unit, for BIP and BIL order the feedback datapath delay is commonly larger than the pipeline depth ($N_z$ clock cycles), therefore, the loop does not cause a performance degradation in terms of samples-per-cycle processed, unless the number of bands is extremely small. For BSQ order, the feedback datapath comprises of exactly one clock cycle delay, regardless of the number of bands.

The LoEC unit contains a loop where the input codeword in a code-table lookup operation, depends on the output of previous lookups of the same code table.

B. Adaptive Code Selection Statistics Unit

The Adaptive Code Selection Statistics (ACSS) unit maintains and updates the accumulator $\Sigma_z(t)$, and counter $\Gamma(t)$, values according to (1) and (2), supplying them to the downstream units.

Both variables are updated when a new, $\delta_z(t)$, enters the encoder and rescaled when the counter reaches the value of the $\gamma^*$ parameter. Under BSQ ordering one accumulator and one counter would be required. Under BIL ordering, the same elements and resources are required for each spectral band, which is $N_z$ accumulators and counter values. Under BIP ordering $N_z$ accumulator values and a single counter value are required.

For our BIP implementation, the current values of accumulator and counter, $\Sigma_z(t)$ and $\Gamma(t)$, are computed using their previous values, $\Sigma_z(t - 1)$ and $\Gamma(t - 1)$, respectively, creating a dependency. To resolve it, values of $\Sigma_z(t)$ for all bands are stored in an FIFO queue of depth at least equal to the number of bands, also acting as a delay buffer for the value of $\Gamma(t)$, taking advantage of the interleaved processing between the $N_z$ spectral bands. The feed-forward path of the loop is comprised of two pipeline stages, and $N_z > 2$, therefore, the dependency is not violated.

A similar architecture is estimated for the BIL implementation as well. In that case accumulator values would be stored in the FIFO queue at the end of every line of every band. In a BSQ architecture, the FIFO queue would not be included in the feedback datapath, acting only as a buffer for $\Sigma_z(t)$ values at the end of every band in order to be emptied during the construction of the compressed image tail. Finally, Loop Controller logic would be modified to meet each orders handshake requirements.

Code statistics calculation is architecturally very similar to the sample adaptive coder of [2], therefore, an indicative implementation would be close in required resources as in [11]–[13], with the exception of the BSQ order, where the FIFO queue of $N_z$ depth would still be in use for storing $\Sigma_z(t)$ for the compressed image tail.

The top-level architecture of the ACSS unit is shown in Fig. 3. Signals with the “hs” suffix represent handshaking signals, shown in a simplified ready/valid notation. As a whole, the ACSS unit receives a mapped quantizer index, $\delta_z(t)$ (of D bits) input and produces $\Sigma_z(t)$ (of $2 + D + \gamma^*$ bits), $\Gamma(t)$ (of $\gamma^*$ bits), $\delta_z(t)$ and certain flags used for codeword selection downstream. The unit consists of a feed-forward path which updates $\Sigma_z(t)$ and $\Gamma(t)$ and a feedback path, which comprises a queue storing previous $\Sigma_z(t)$ values, returning them as $\Sigma_z(t - 1)$ to the feed-forward path.

Also, for the construction of the compressed image-tail, additional logic is introduced, not shown for clarity, that activates on assertion of the end of image flag, in order
to extract and output the $N_z$ final values of $\hat{\Sigma}_z(t)$ from the feedback queue.

1) Loop controller: The loop controller is a generic infinite impulse response filter flow controller with an arbitrary pipelining depth in the feed-forward and feedback paths defined as RTL generics. There is a feed-forward pipelined path with $M$ pipeline registers and a feedback path with $N$ delay registers. The filter executes a function between the incoming samples and the feedback samples, for example

$$y(t) = \alpha x(t) + y(t - K)$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

where $K$ is the feedback dependency of the loop.

The loop controller ensures that only up to $K$ samples can traverse the filter by manipulating the handshaking signals at the inputs and outputs of the feed-forward and feedback paths. If $K$ is less or equal than the total pipeline stages of the filter ($N + M$), then the loop controller inserts stall cycles in the loop, in order to not violate the data dependency, limiting data throughput to $N/(M+N)$ samples/cycle. Otherwise, the filter operates in a constant data rate of 1 sample/cycle.

For the hybrid entropy coder, the filter is described by (1). For the BIP order, the same equation can be rewritten to resemble (8) as

$$\hat{\Sigma}(t) = \begin{cases} \hat{\Sigma}(t - N_z) + 4\delta(t), & \Gamma(t - N_z) < 2^\gamma - 1 \\ \frac{\hat{\Sigma}(t - N_z) + 4\delta(t) + 1}{2}, & \Gamma(t - N_z) = 2^\gamma - 1 \end{cases}$$

with $M = 2$ pipeline registers in the feed-forward path and $N = N_z$ delay registers on the feedback path. In case of $N_z \leq 2$, stall cycles would be introduced by the loop controller, limiting throughput to $N_z/(N_z + 2)$ samples/cycle, but this is a highly unlikely use case, since there are no multispectral (or hyperspectral) images with such low number of bands (multispectral typically refers to 3 up to 15 bands).

C. High/Low Entropy Decision Unit

The design of this unit revolves around the multiplication between $\Gamma(t)$ and the threshold constant $T_0$, as shown in (3). Constant $T_0$ is not a power of 2, thus embedded multiplier blocks, should be used depending on the FPGA technology. When targeting Xilinx technology, a Xilinx DSP48E2 Slice is used to perform the multiplication operation, registering both inputs and the product with the internal DSP48E2 pipeline registers. After the product is calculated a comparison follows that determines the encoder choice. A binary high/low (hilo) flag signals this decision, and is later used in the codeword combiner unit.

D. High Entropy Coder Unit

In the High Entropy Coder (HiEC) unit $\delta_z(t)$ is encoded with a “high entropy” RLL-GPO2 codeword. The HiEC unit (Fig. 4) comprises two submodules, the three-stage pipelined $k_z(t)$ calculation module and the two-stage pipelined RLL-GPO2 encoding module. The former calculates the code index $k_z(t)$ in $D - 2$ bits, as described in (4) and (5), while the latter calculates the RLL-GPO2 codeword $W_{k_z(t)}(\delta_z(t))$ in $D + U_{\text{max}}$ bits.

The unit receives $\delta_z(t)$ and the code statistics $\hat{\Sigma}_z(t)$ and $\Gamma(t)$, along with $U_{\text{max}}$ and the zero flag ($t = 0$), and produces an RLL-GPO2 code along with its size in 8 b, producing one sample (codeword and code-size pair) per cycle.

E. Low Entropy Coder Unit

The Low Entropy Coder (LoEC) unit is responsible for emitting output codewords from the low entropy code-tables, by combining multiple input symbols in a single output codeword. The encoding procedure is implemented by three subunits, as shown in Fig. 5.

First, the code table index $i$ is selected by Code Index Selection unit, followed by the determination of the input symbol $z_i(t)$ in Input Symbol Calculation unit. A series of
input symbols for a certain \( i \), is used to search for a matching input codeword at the selected code table. If one is found, the corresponding output codeword is emitted as the low entropy codeword along with its respective code length. This procedure is performed by the Low Entropy Code-Tables Lookup unit. Finally, additional logic is implemented to extract flush codes from the 16 flush code tables during the construction of the compressed image tail, signaled by an end-of-image flag.

1) Code Index Selection and Input Symbol Calculation: The Code Index Selection unit selects the code-table index \( i \), which will be selected for lookup. It receives \( \delta_i(t) \) and statistics \( \Sigma_i(t) \) and \( \Gamma(t) \) as inputs and emits the code index \( i \) and input symbol limit \( L_i \), as outputs, where \( i \) is the largest code index satisfying (6).

To perform the \( \Gamma(t) \cdot T_i, \ i = 0, 1, \ldots, 15 \) multiplications, where \( T_i \) are not powers of two, embedded multiplier blocks are used (e.g., three-stage pipelined DSP48E2 Slices in Xilinx technology). All 16 multiplications are performed in parallel, and a comparison scheme selects the code index and input symbol limit.

The Input Symbol Calculation unit determines the input symbol, \( \iota_i(t) \) to be used for the code-table lookup, as described in (7).

2) Low Entropy Code-Table Lookup: The Low Entropy Code-Tables Lookup unit is the most complex unit and the primary performance bottleneck of the design. The unit contains two parallel data paths. The first path provides the low entropy codeword as a lookup to the selected code-table, while the second path calculates the RLL-GPO2 codeword, \( \delta_i(t) - L_i - 1 \), when the input symbol is the escape symbol. The two codewords are concatenated, and a multiplexer selects either the single low entropy codeword, or the concatenated RLL-GPO2 codeword with the low entropy codeword.

a) Low Entropy Code-Tables ROM: A major design consideration is implementing the 16 low entropy code tables and flush tables efficiently. Taking advantage of the code-table tree structure, we adopt the representation of them in code-table ROMs for efficient lookups introduced for the first time in [7]. The structure used to represent the code and flush tables resembles a prefix-free Trie data structure. The tree root is the “null” sequence, while every child node is connected to its parent with an edge representing an input symbol. Terminal nodes are output codewords and nonterminal nodes are flush codewords. A sequence of input symbols that leads to a terminal leaf node during encoding, causes a match codeword to be output. To map this sequence to ROM addresses, a model of the code-table ROMs was developed in software to appropriately order the code-table contents to allow lookup via address increments.

If input samples are exhausted before the tree for a code table is fully traversed, then a flush codeword is emitted. Such codewords correspond to each nonterminal tree node and form part of the compressed image tail, which is emitted when sample encoding has finished. The code-table ROMs are looked-up with the last stored address of each tree in sequence of increasing code index, and the corresponding flush codeword is emitted, either from an intermediate node or from the tree’s root address.

To demonstrate, similar but smaller code and flush tables are, along with the corresponding tree shown in Table I. This code table is transformed for efficient lookups into the code-table ROM shown at the lower part of the table, each cell containing a tuple that corresponds to a codeword. The tree root is the “null” sequence, while every child node is connected to its parent with an edge representing an input symbol. Terminal nodes are output codewords and nonterminal nodes are flush codewords. A sequence of input symbols that leads to a terminal leaf node during encoding, causes a match codeword to be output. To map this sequence to ROM addresses, a model of the code-table ROMs was developed in software to appropriately order the code-table contents to allow lookup via address increments.

To implement the code-table ROM scheme, we store 16 ROM address pointers, in the CT ADDRESS LOOKUP memory shown in Fig. 6. Incoming symbols are added to the previous pointer for their corresponding code index to form an ROM address. When an escape symbol appears, a codeword emission is guaranteed from the selected code table and the ROM address is reset to the root address. After the image is fully encoded, additional logic handles flush codewords for the image tail construction.
TABLE I
Example of Low Entropy Code Table and Flush Table Along With Their
Tree and ROM Representations

| Code Table          | Output codeword |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| 0                   | 4'hA            |
| X                   | 5'hB            |
| 10                  | 4'hC            |
| 11                  | 8'hD            |
| 1X                  | 6'hE            |

Example flush table

| Active prefix | Flush word |
|---------------|------------|
| {null}        | 1'h0       |
| 1             | 2'h1       |

Example code-table tree

![Code-table tree diagram]

Example code-table ROM

| Address | Data                  |
|---------|-----------------------|
| 0       | {1'h0, 4'hA}          |
| 1       | {1'h0, p+1r - 3}      |
| 2       | {1'h0, 5'hB}          |
| 3       | {2'h1, 4'hC}          |
| 4       | {2'h1, 8'hD}          |
| 5       | {2'h1, 6'hE}          |

b) Low Entropy Feedback Loop: Low Entropy feedback loop is implemented, as shown in Fig. 6. The selected code-table address is read from the CT_ADDRESS_LOOKUP registers and updated by adding the current input symbol. Then it is used for reading the code-table ROM (CT_ROM) and finally is written back to the registers.

In addition to the low entropy codeword, whenever the input symbol is the escape symbol, an additional RLL-GPO2 codeword for \( \delta_z(t) - L_i - 1 \) is produced by this unit. Therefore, there are two output codewords corresponding to a single input.

The code-table address update procedure is performed in a single clock cycle providing full-throughput of one sample/cycle. The critical path of the design is also located in the feedback loop and defines the maximum achievable frequency.

F. Codeword Combiner Unit and Variable Length Code Packer Unit

Depending on the HiLo decision flag and certain other flags, code combiner unit emits the appropriate codeword into the VLC packer’s input, which produces fixed 64-bit packets. In the case of a low entropy codeword, if the input symbol is the escape symbol, then the high entropy codeword must precede the low entropy code-table output codeword, meaning that there are two codewords to forward to the VLC packer corresponding to the same input sample. Also, whenever \( \Gamma(t) \) rescales, the least significant bit of \( \bar{\Sigma}_z(t) \) is emitted to the bitstream for decoding purposes, meaning that it should precede the current codeword output.

The Codeword Combiner unit handles those special cases using flags produced throughout the encoding to provide the required output codewords to the VLC packer, as well as handling the sequence of outputs that constitute the compressed image tail.

After the Codeword Combiner unit has extracted the appropriate codeword, the VLC packer unit accepts variable-length codewords as inputs along with their length, and packs them into 64-bit packets comprising the final bitstream. This component is reused from previous work in [9] and is capable of operating in high data rates.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The proposed CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder architecture implemented as an IP core was verified using simulation-based (RTL) and FPGA-in-the-loop (FIL)-based verification to speed-up verification process on a ZedBoard FPGA development board against a software golden model in Python, developed and provided by Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB).

The proposed architecture is implemented with the encoder parameters (Table III) defining the image dimensions \((N_x, N_y, N_z)\), sample dynamic range \((D)\), unary length limit \((U_{\text{max}})\), initial count exponent \((\gamma_0)\), and the rescaling counter size \((\gamma^*)\). The encoder can be configured with run-time configurable parameters through a memory-mapped register interface, while VHDL generics are used to constrain the parameters’ maximum allowable range. Using \(N_x\) as an example, at netlist generation time (compile-time) a VHDL generic \(g_{N_x \text{ max}}\) sets the maximum usable number of image columns and then at run-time through the configuration interface, this instance of the IP Core can be configured for values of \(N_x\) to compress images with \(N_x < g_{N_x \text{ max}}\).

This feature allows tailoring to optimize the design by minimizing resource utilization or increasing achievable frequency, at the expense of increased complexity in the RTL architecture and design. In all cases, the generics should not get values that exceed the maximum allowed value of the corresponding parameter as defined by the standard [1].

A. Design Verification

The hybrid entropy coder design was verified using simulation-based verification at VHDL RTL with Mentor Questa against the software golden model to ensure functional coverage of all corner cases and also targeting high VHDL code coverage (statement, branch, FSM, and condition). The testing framework is based on the VUnit [14] Python testing framework and a set of Python scripts. Test campaigns comprising of different images, compile time (generics), and run-time (compression) parameters are described in test files in this framework. The test scripts interpret the parameters to invoke the golden compressor
binary to produce the verification data. Then, a testbench implemented as pass/fail test instrumented with VUnit is invoked with the Questa simulator with automatic checking comparing with golden responses.

A comprehensive test suite exercising all combinations of the encoder’s parameters ($U_{\text{max}}, \gamma_0, \gamma^*$) was used to verify functional correctness. Finally, tests incorporating full images from AVIRIS [15] and AVIRIS-NG [16] image sets and synthetic images to debug corner case scenarios were applied to verify the encoder against realistic use-case scenarios.

More comprehensive verification was performed using FIL techniques on a ZedBoard FPGA development board hosting a Xilinx Zynq-7000 systems-on-a-chip (SoC) FPGA device, also leveraging the ARM embedded processor. For the purposes of FIL verification, several hyperspectral test cubes including synthetic and random test images and using multiple configurations were transferred to the board and the compressed images was received from the board using a JTAG-to-AXI interface.

### B. Design Implementation

The CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder was implemented targeting Xilinx Kintex-ultrascale technology (XCKU040-2FFVA1156E FPGA) and is, therefore, directly transferable (in terms of implementation results), to the Xilinx Radiation Tolerant XQRKU060 FPGA. Implementation on the target device was performed using a configuration for the AVIRIS (680×512×224, 16bpppb), AVIRIS-NG (640×512×432, 14bpppb) hyperspectral instruments, which are typical hyperspectral sensors and the standard benchmark in the literature.

Table II presents implementation (Place & Route, Timing Analysis) results for the Kintex Ultrascale FPGA using Xilinx Vivado 2020.2. The implementation parameters used are those suggested as defaults in [17] and [3] ($U_{\text{max}} = 18, \gamma_0 = 1, \gamma^* = 6$). For more accurate implementation results, the generic parameters defining the maximum allowed values of encoder inputs, are set to be equal to the exact input parameter value.

The proposed architecture achieves a constant throughput of ~305 MSamples/sec operating at 305 MHz, while the FPGA resource footprint is kept low. The power consumption is reported for the whole FPGA including SpaceFibre interface IP cores and the Kintex Ultrascale device GTH transceivers.

Design’s data rate throughput can be estimated by the ratio between total image samples and total clock cycles, needed for a complete encoding

$$\text{data rate} = \frac{N_x N_y N_z}{\text{init} + N_x N_y N_z + 16 + N_z + T_{\text{esc syms}}}.$$ (9)

The total number of samples are divided by the total number of clock cycles. Here, init, are the initial cycles required for the pipeline to fill up and for the header generation. In addition to these initial cycles, there are $N_x \cdot N_y \cdot N_z$ samples processed in one cycle each and the cycles consumed for the image tail creation, which are the extraction of 16 flush codewords followed by $N_z$ accumulator values also processed in one cycle each. Finally, $T_{\text{esc syms}}$, is the number of escape symbols that force the low entropy coder to produce an additional RLL-GPO2 codeword to the low entropy code-table codeword, requiring an additional clock cycle in encoding.

Fig. 7 presents the resource usage and maximum frequency after place and route for the generic-configurable parameter $g_{D_{\text{max}}}$. Maximum frequency of the IP core is slightly influenced by the increase of $g_{D_{\text{max}}}$ estimated between 290 and 305 MHz for $g_{D_{\text{max}}} = 2,4,6,...,32$, while resources tend to increase as data-path width is close relating to $g_{D_{\text{max}}}$.

The throughput performance is stable, providing a constant data rate of ~one sample/cycle, which does not depend on the hyperspectral image data statistics and is not degraded when high absolute error limit constants are configured leading to a large number of low entropy encoded samples, as in our preliminary work [7]. The critical path of the design is located in the low entropy coder’s feedback loop datapath, which determines the maximum operational frequency. The code-table ROM component included in this feedback loop path is implemented using asynchronous distributed RAM (LUTRAM), instead of BRAM in order to avoid the RAW hazard of LoEC loop, resulting in increased LUT usage.

### C. Design Validation

The CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder’s validation and demonstration setup is built around SpaceFibre (ECSS-E-ST-50-11 C) test equipment, provided by STAR-Dundee, to interface the Xilinx KCU105 development board and match standard space deployment. SpaceFibre is a very
high-speed (5 Gbit/s) serial link and network technology, designed specifically for use on board spacecraft.

The CCSDS-123.0-B-2 Hybrid Entropy Coder validation and demonstrator set-up includes a standard PC emulating electronic ground support equipment (EGSE). The EGSE PC hosts a STAR-Ultra PCIe board, which is connected to the KCU105 development board using QSFP to SFP+ cable assembly. SpaceFibre interface VHDL IP cores are also implemented in the XCKU040 FPGA hosted in KCU105 board to provide AXI4-Stream interface with the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder IP core data inputs and compressed output over a single data virtual channel (VC). A single lane SpaceFibre link able to provide 6.25 Gbps (effective 5.0 Gbps) data-rate is sufficient for the validation and demonstration of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder.

A large set of test images from the CCSDS corpus of images [18] along with several images from the PRISMA hyperspectral mission [19] launched March 2019, with multiple compression configurations was applied by the EGSE PC for the validation of the hybrid entropy coder. Table IV displays the achieved throughput for some notable images used in the validation process. These figures were validated by SpaceFibre link analyzer software installed in the EGSE PC along with performance counters instrumenting the IP Core in the XCKU040 FPGA. Images were compressed with in lossless ($A^* = 0$) and near-lossless ($A^* > 0$) mode, always operating at $\sim$one sample-per-cycle efficiency in agreement with the data rate estimation of (9). The presented CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder IP core achieved 305 MSamples/sec (4.88 Gbps) throughput performance.

V. COMPARISON WITH PREVIOUS WORK

The previous issue of the standard, CCSDS-123.0-B-1, describes only lossless compression and is considered a mature solution for on-board hyperspectral compression. Issue 2, shares many implementation similarities to Issue 1, regarding the lossless compression option, therefore, implementation of Issue 1 are considered comparable prior work. Multiple implementations have been presented in the literature designed for various tradeoffs and devices, such as FPGAs and GPUs, as well as SoC. SHyLoC 1.0 [11] and SHyLoC 2.0 [12] implementations, available at the European Space Agency (ESA) IP cores library to be licensed for space missions, research, and/or commercial use, under specific conditions, provide a feature complete implementation of CCSDS-123.0-B-1 and CCSDS-121.0-B-2 algorithms, as a technology agnostic IP core suitable for FPGA and application-specific integrated circuits (ASIC) technologies. Moreover, SHyLoC IP cores provide wide and versatile parameterization and configuration options enabling reduced complexity and footprint when dealing with FPGA devices with a limited amount of resources. Other implementations provide high-throughput by using a either a single compression engine, [9], [23], [24], [25] and leveraging the interleaved processing of BIP pixel order format that enables deep pipelining presented for the first time in [26] or by exploiting the CCSDS-123.0 image segmentation and task-level parallelism along with commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) FPGA SoC technologies [27], [28], [29], achieving state-of-the-art throughput performance [30]. Implementation on GPU devices [31]–[33] utilize GPUs and heterogeneous CPU and GPU systems to parallelize the CCSDS-123.0-B-1 standard by exploiting image segmentation and task-level parallelism, achieving very high throughput, but higher energy consumption when compared to FPGA implementations.

Due to the recent release of Issue 2, there are few known implementations of CCSDS-123.0-B-2 in literature to date, none of which involved the VHDL RTL implementation of the hybrid entropy coder or the full CCSDS-123.0-B-2 standard.

In [34] the authors present a parallel implementation in software of the near-lossless CCSDS-123.0-B-2 standard for the evaluation of the RC64 many-core rad-hard processor [35]. However, they implement only the sample adaptive entropy coder, while the hybrid entropy coder was not considered due to implementation challenges related to throughput performance. This parallelization scheme achieves high speed-up when all 64
cores are used, with maximum throughput of 0.45 MSamples/sec, and limited performance when there are idle cores.

In [36], the authors propose parallel implementations of both Issue 1 and Issue 2 of CCSDS-123.0-B-2 in software with OpenMP targeting different space qualified CPUs (i.e., GR740, LS1046). Their work suggests ways of splitting data and assigning jobs among the available CPU cores, for both lossless and near-lossless predictor and hybrid entropy encoder.

The FLEX algorithm [20]–[22] is the algorithmic basis for CCSDS-123.0-B-2 and the hybrid entropy coder is an extension of the FLEX’s original hybrid entropy coder, therefore, FLEX implementations can be considered for comparison purposes. Experimental results for the FLEX entropy coder targeting the Virtex 5 FX130 T FPGA technology reach a maximum frequency of 168.8 MHz and a throughput of 24 MSamples/sec using (7 cycles/sample). For the whole FLEX compressor a throughput of 3.4 MSamples/sec was achieved at 82.5-MHz maximum frequency (24 cycles/sample). Although a direct comparison with FLEX entropy coder in terms of maximum frequency is not appropriate because this article considers a next-generation space-grade FPGA platform, the proposed hybrid entropy coder architecture achieves seven times higher throughput performance in terms of samples/cycle.

Table V summarizes the comparison of RTL implementation of FLEX hybrid entropy coder with the presented work.

The first, full implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 standard, although using high-level synthesis (HLS), was presented in [37]. The CCSDS-123.0-B-2 compressor developed for the ESA CHIME space mission includes a HLS implementation of the near-lossless predictor and reuses the VHDL RTL implementation of the block-adaptive encoder as implemented for the SHyLoC [11] IP Core. The Hybrid Entropy Encoder was not considered, and, thus, comparisons are not appropriate. The compressor in [37] meets CHIME mission requirements of data rate up to 2 Gbps (@16bpp, 125 MHz), with the HLS-generated near-lossless predictor requiring more than one cycles/sample, which the authors plan to improve in future implementations in VHDL RTL.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this article, we introduced an efficient architecture and a high-throughput hardware implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder. The introduced architecture exploits the systolic design pattern to provide modularity and latency insensitivity in a deep and elastic pipeline, as well as an innovative approach on the low entropy coder’s codetable lookup design, and achieves a constant high-throughput implementation in space-grade SRAM FPGA technology (305 MSamples/s operating at one sample/cycle) with a small FPGA resource footprint. The introduced architecture is validated and demonstrated on a commercially available Xilinx KCU105 development board hosting a Xilinx Kintex Ultrascale XCKU040 SRAM FPGA, and, thus, is directly transferable to the Xilinx Radiation Tolerant Kintex UltraScale XQRKU060 space-grade devices for space deployments. Moreover, state-of-the-art SpaceFibre (ECSS-E-ST-50-11 C) interface and test equipment were used in the validation platform to match space deployment. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first published fully compliant architecture and high-throughput implementation of the CCSDS-123.0-B-2 hybrid entropy coder, also targeting space-grade FPGA technology.

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| Implementation                      | LUTs | FFs  | DSP48Es | BRAMs | Frequency (MHz) | Throughput (Cycles/Sample) |
|-------------------------------------|------|------|---------|-------|----------------|---------------------------|
| FLEX Hybrid Entropy Coder [20], [21], [22] | 3341 | 1293 | 16      | 27    | 168.8          | 7                         |
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