



CS 598KN

Advanced Multimedia Systems Design
Lecture 2 – Video and Basic
Compression Concepts

Klara Nahrstedt
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Overview

- Basics of Video Characteristics
- Basic Coding Concepts
- RLE, Huffman Coding, JPEG



VIDEO CHARACTERISTICS

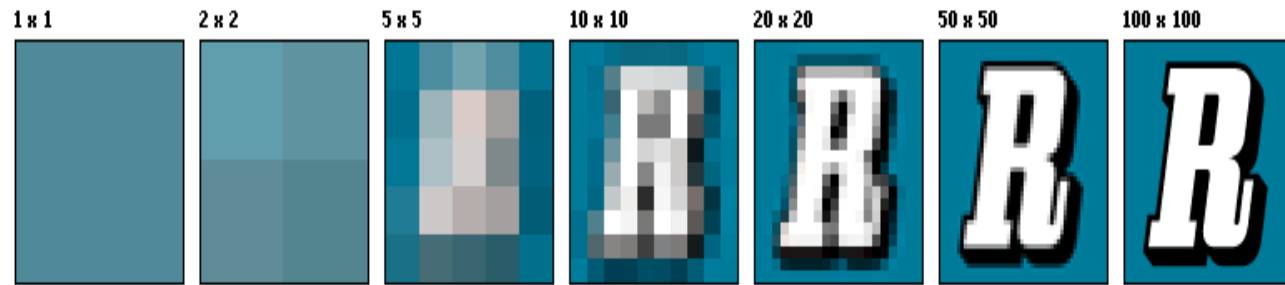
Video

- Sequence of Digital Images
- Important Video Characteristics
 - Spatial Characteristics
 - Video Image Resolution characterized by Size and Viewing Distance, Brightness, Color
 - Temporal Characteristics
 - Temporal resolution characterized by Video Frame Rate and Flicker avoidance

Visual Perception: Resolution and Brightness

■ Spatial Resolution (depends on:)

- Image size
- Viewing distance



■ Brightness

- Perception of brightness is higher than perception of color
- Different perception of primary colors
 - Relative brightness:
green:red:blue=59%:30%:11%



■ B/W vs. Color

Temporal Resolution

- Flicker

- ☐ Perceived if frame rate or refresh rate of screen too low ($< 50\text{Hz}$)
- ☐ Especially in large bright areas

- Higher refresh rate requires

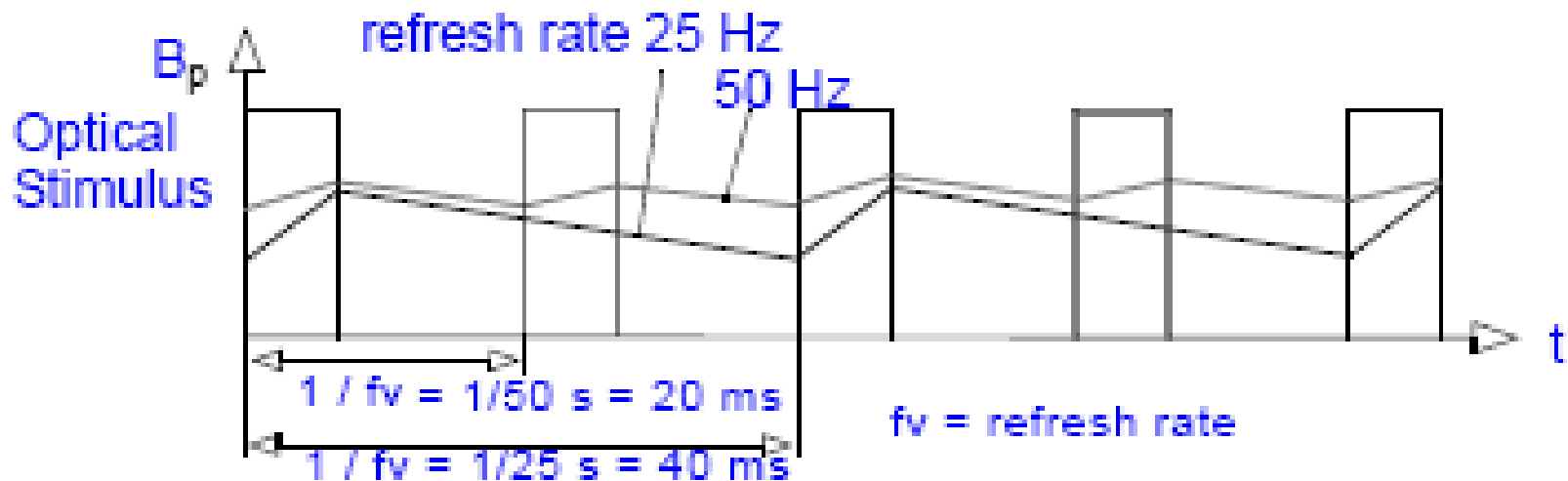
- ☐ Higher scanning frequency
- ☐ Higher bandwidth

Visual Perception Influence

- Viewing distance
- Display ratio (width/height – 4/3 for conventional TV, new TVs have ratio 16/9)
- Number of details still visible
- Intensity (luminance)

Visual Perception: Temporal Resolution

- *Effects caused by inertia of human eye*
- *Perception of 16 frames/second as continuous sequence*
- *Special Effect: Flicker*



Analog Video (TV)

■ Production (capture)

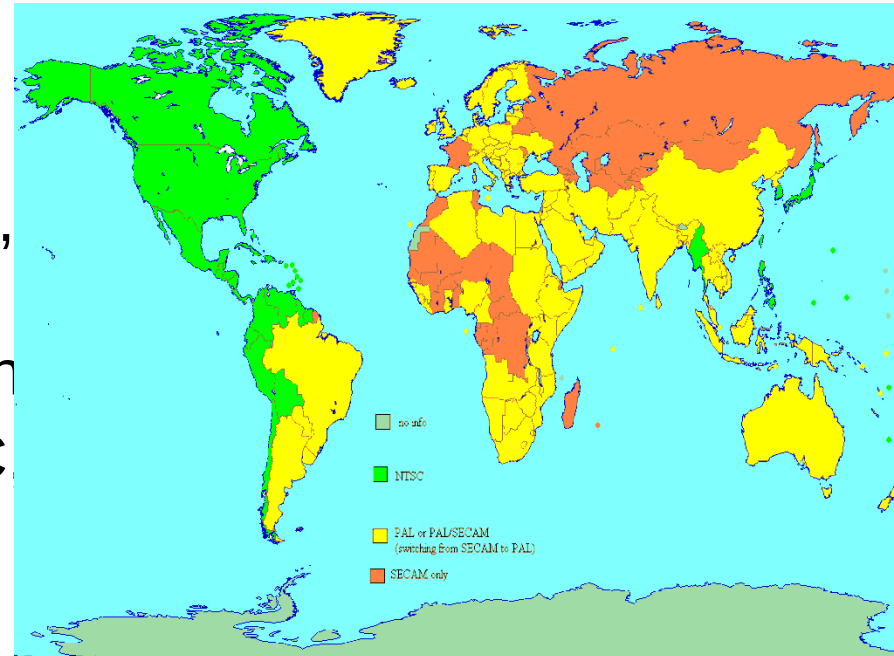
- 2D array of light energy to electrical signals
- signals must adhere to known, structured formats

■ Representation and Transmission

- popular formats include NTSC, PAL, SECAM, HDTV

■ Re-construction

- CRT technology and raster scanning
- display issues (refresh rates, temporal resolution)
- relies on principles of human visual system



Analog Video Representations

- Composite

- USA NTSC - 6MHz (4.2MHz video), 29.97 fps

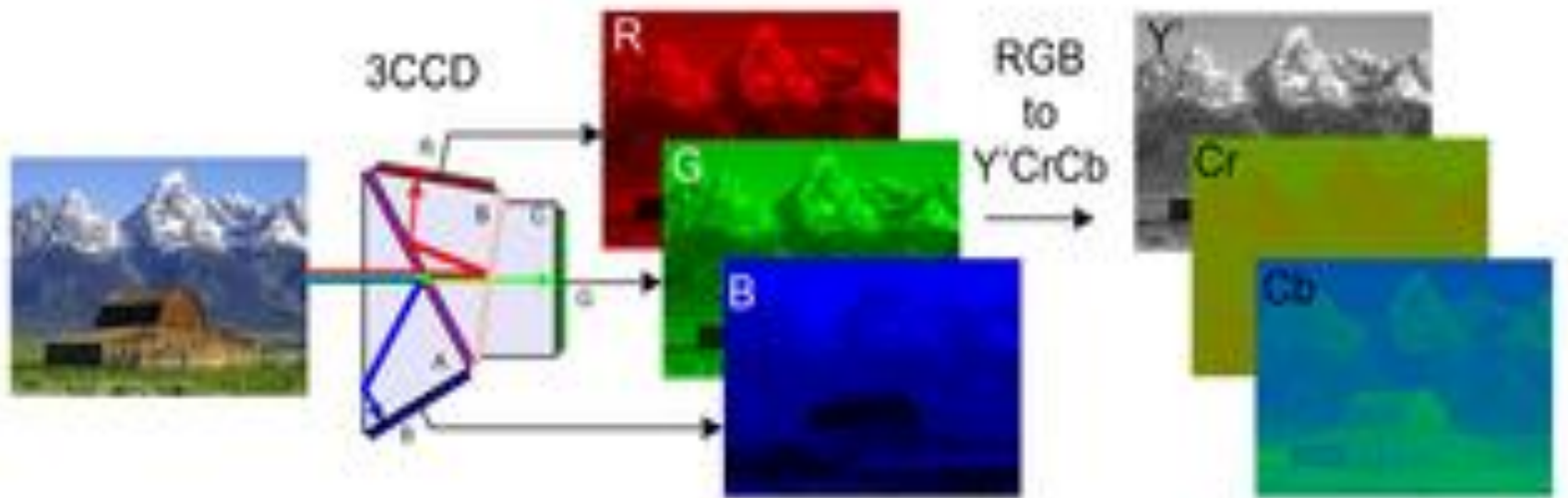
- Component

- Maintain separate signals for color

- **Color spaces**

- RGB, YUV, $YC_R C_B$, YIQ (color space in USA)
 - Y component determines **brightness** of the color (luminance or luma)
 - U and V components determine the **color** itself (chroma)

RGB to YCbCr Conversion



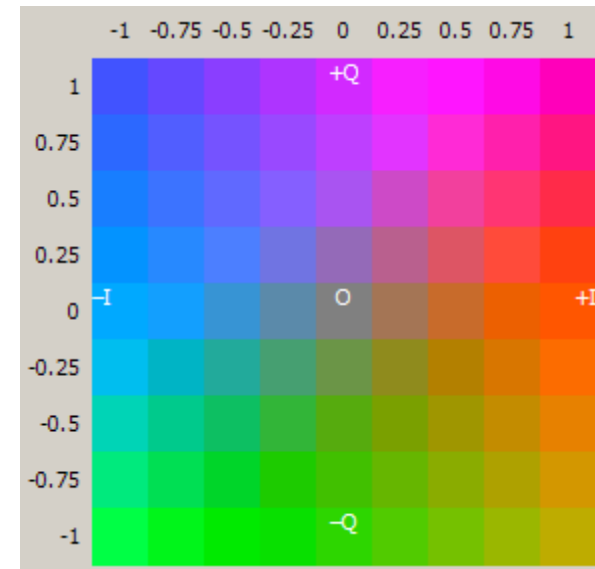
YIQ

- NTSC standard
- Y – luma information
- I – in-phase (chroma)
- Q quadrature amplitude modulation (chroma)
- YIQ from RGB

$$Y = .299R + .587G + .114B$$

$$I = .74 (R - Y) - .27 (B - Y)$$

$$Q = 0.48 (R - Y) + 0.41 (B - Y)$$



YIQ with Y=0.5

HDTV

- Digital Television Broadcast (DTB) System
- Twice as many horizontal and vertical columns and lines as traditional TV
- Resolutions:
 - 1920x1080 (1080p) – Standard HDTV
- HDTV Frame rate (refresh rate): 60 times a second or 60Hz (60 frames per second);

UHD (Ultra-High-Definition)

- Resolutions:

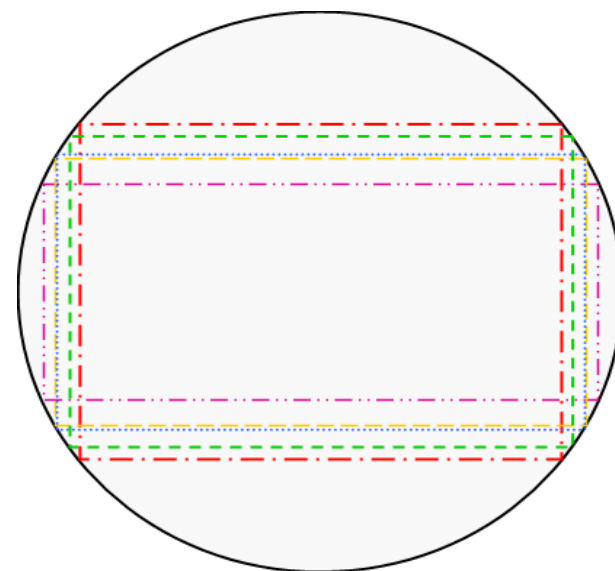
- 3840 pixel x 2160 lines (8.3 megapixel) – 4K UHD
 - 7680 pixels x 4320 lines (33.2 megapixel) – 8K UHD

- UHD Frame rate (refresh rate): 120fps and 240fps

Aspect Ratio and Refresh Rate

■ Aspect ratio

- Conventional TV is 4:3 (1.33)
- HDTV is 16:9 (2.11)
- Cinema uses 1.85:1 or 2.35:1



--- 4:3
--- 3:2
... 16:9
--- 1.85:1
... 2.39:1

■ Frame Rate

- NTSC is 60Hz interlaced (actually 59.94Hz)
- PAL/SECAM is 50Hz interlaced
- Cinema is 24Hz non-interlaced

2.39:1

16:9

4:3

1.85:1

3:2



BASIC CODING CONCEPTS

Data Compression

- Branch of information theory
 - minimize amount of information to be transmitted
- Transform a sequence of characters into a new string of bits
 - same information content
 - length as short as possible

Concepts

- Coding (the code) maps source messages from alphabet (A) into code words (B)
- Source message (symbol) is basic unit into which a string is partitioned
 - can be a single letter or a string of letters
- EXAMPLE: aa bbb cccc ddddd eeeee fffffffggggggggg
 - $A = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, \text{space}\}$
 - $B = \{0, 1\}$

Taxonomy of Codes

- Block-block
 - source msgs and code words of fixed length; e.g., ASCII
- Block-variable
 - source message fixed, code words variable; e.g., Huffman coding
- Variable-block
 - source variable, code word fixed; e.g., RLE, LZW
- Variable-variable
 - source variable, code words variable; e.g., Arithmetic

Example of Block-Block

- Coding “aa bbb cccc ddddd
eeeeee fffffffggggggggg”
- Requires 120 bits

Symbol	Code word
a	000
b	001
c	010
d	011
e	100
f	101
g	110
space	111

Example of Variable-Variable

- Coding “aa bbb cccc ddddd eeeee fffffffggggggggg”
- Requires 30 bits
 - don't forget the spaces

Symbol	Code word
aa	0
bbb	1
cccc	10
dddd	11
eeee	100
ffff	101
gggg	110
space	111

Static Codes

- Mapping is fixed before transmission
 - message represented by same codeword every time it appears in ensemble
 - Huffman coding is an example
- Better for independent sequences
 - probabilities must be known in advance; or values computed from other data sources

Dynamic Codes

- Mapping changes over time
 - also referred to as *adaptive* coding
- Attempts to exploit locality of reference
 - periodic, frequent occurrences of messages
 - dynamic Huffman is an example
- Hybrids?
 - build set of codes, select based on input



Traditional Evaluation Criteria

- Algorithm complexity
 - running time
- Amount of compression
 - redundancy
 - compression ratio
- How to measure?

Measure of Information

- Consider symbols s_i and the probability of occurrence of each symbol $p(s_i)$
- In case of **fixed-length coding** , smallest number of bits per symbol needed is
 - $L \geq \log_2(N)$ bits per symbol
 - Example: Message with 5 symbols need 3 bits ($L \geq \log_2 5$)

Variable-Length Coding-Entropy

- What is the minimum number of bits per symbol?
- Answer: Shannon's result – theoretical minimum average number of bits per code work is known as Entropy (H)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n -p(s_i) \log_2 p(s_i)$$

Entropy Example

- Alphabet = {A, B}
 - $p(A) = 0.4$; $p(B) = 0.6$
- Compute Entropy (H)
 - $-0.4 \log_2 0.4 + -0.6 \log_2 0.6 = .97$ bits
- Maximum uncertainty (gives largest H)
 - occurs when all probabilities are equal

Redundancy

- Difference between avg. codeword length (L) and avg. information content (H)
 - If H is constant, then can just use L
- Relative to the optimal value

Compression Ratio

- Compare the average message length and the average codeword length
 - e.g., average $L(\text{message})$ / average $L(\text{codeword})$
- Example:
 - {aa, bbb, cccc, ddddd, eeeeeee, fffffff, gggggggggg}
 - average message length is 5
- Relative to the original data

Symmetry

- Symmetric compression

- ☐ requires same time for encoding and decoding
- ☐ used for live mode applications (teleconference)

- Asymmetric compression

- ☐ performed once when enough time is available
- ☐ decompression performed frequently, must be fast
- ☐ used for retrieval mode applications (e.g., an interactive CD-ROM)

Entropy Coding Algorithms (Content Dependent Coding)

■ Run-length Encoding (RLE)

- Replaces sequence of the same consecutive bytes with number of occurrences
- Number of occurrences is indicated by a special flag (e.g., !)
- Example:
 - abccccccccccdeffffggg (20 Bytes)
 - abc!9def!4ggg (13 bytes)

Variations of RLE (Zero-suppression technique)

- Assumes that only one symbol appears often (blank)
- Replace blank sequence by M-byte and a byte with number of blanks in sequence
 - Example: M3, M4, M14,...
- Some other definitions are possible
 - Example:
 - $M4 = 8$ blanks, $M5 = 16$ blanks, $M4M5 = 24$ blanks

Huffman Encoding

- Statistical encoding
- To determine Huffman code, it is useful to construct a binary tree
- Leaves are characters to be encoded
- Nodes carry occurrence probabilities of the characters belonging to the subtree
- Example (homework): How does a Huffman code look like for symbols with statistical symbol occurrence probabilities:
 $P(A) = 8/20$, $P(B) = 3/20$, $P(C) = 7/20$, $P(D) = 2/20$?

Huffman Encoding (Example)

Step 1 : Sort all Symbols according to their probabilities
(left to right) from Smallest to largest
these are the leaves of the Huffman tree

$$P(B) = 0.51$$

$$P(C) = 0.09$$

$$P(E) = 0.11$$

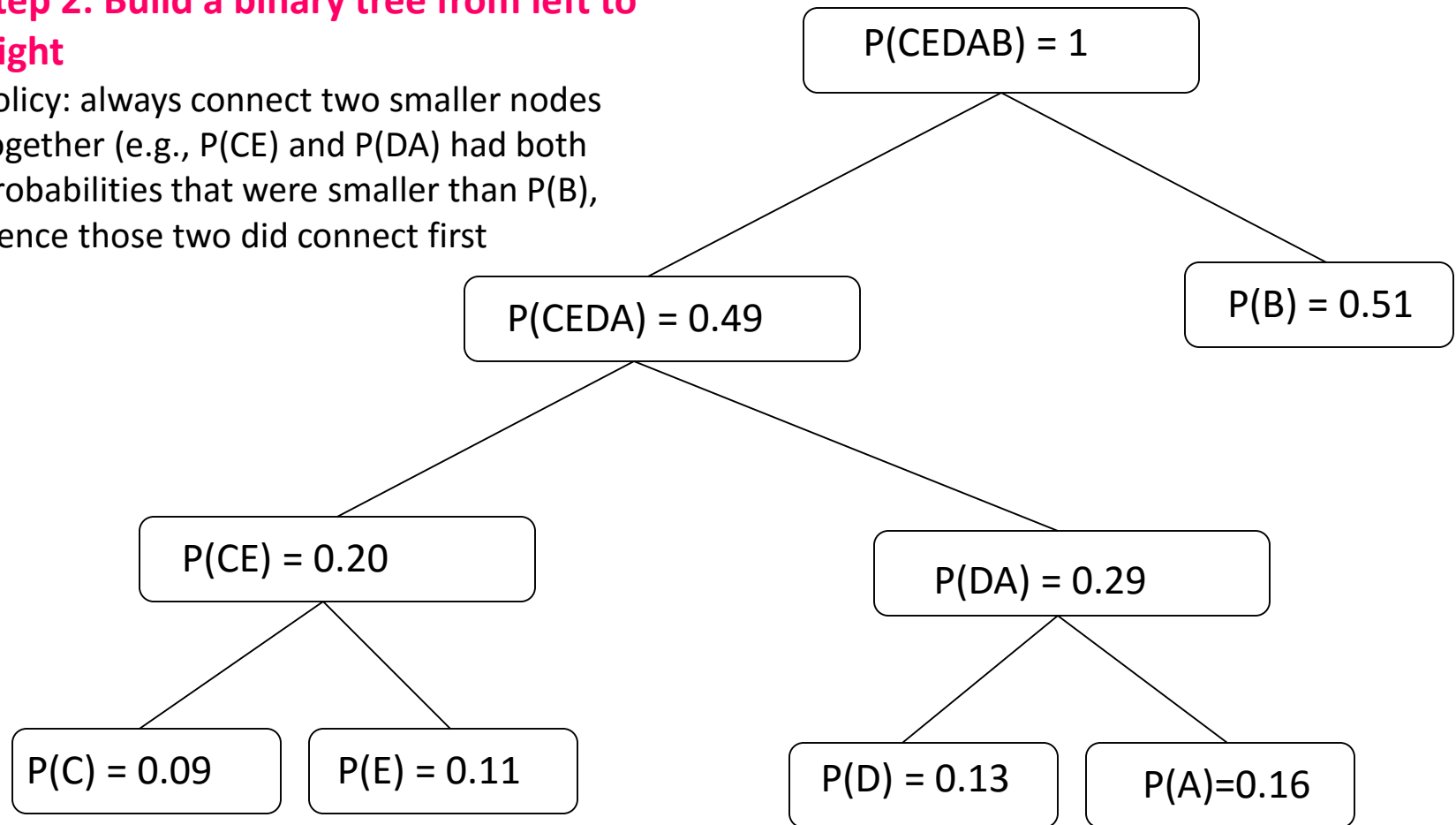
$$P(D) = 0.13$$

$$P(A) = 0.16$$

Huffman Encoding (Example)

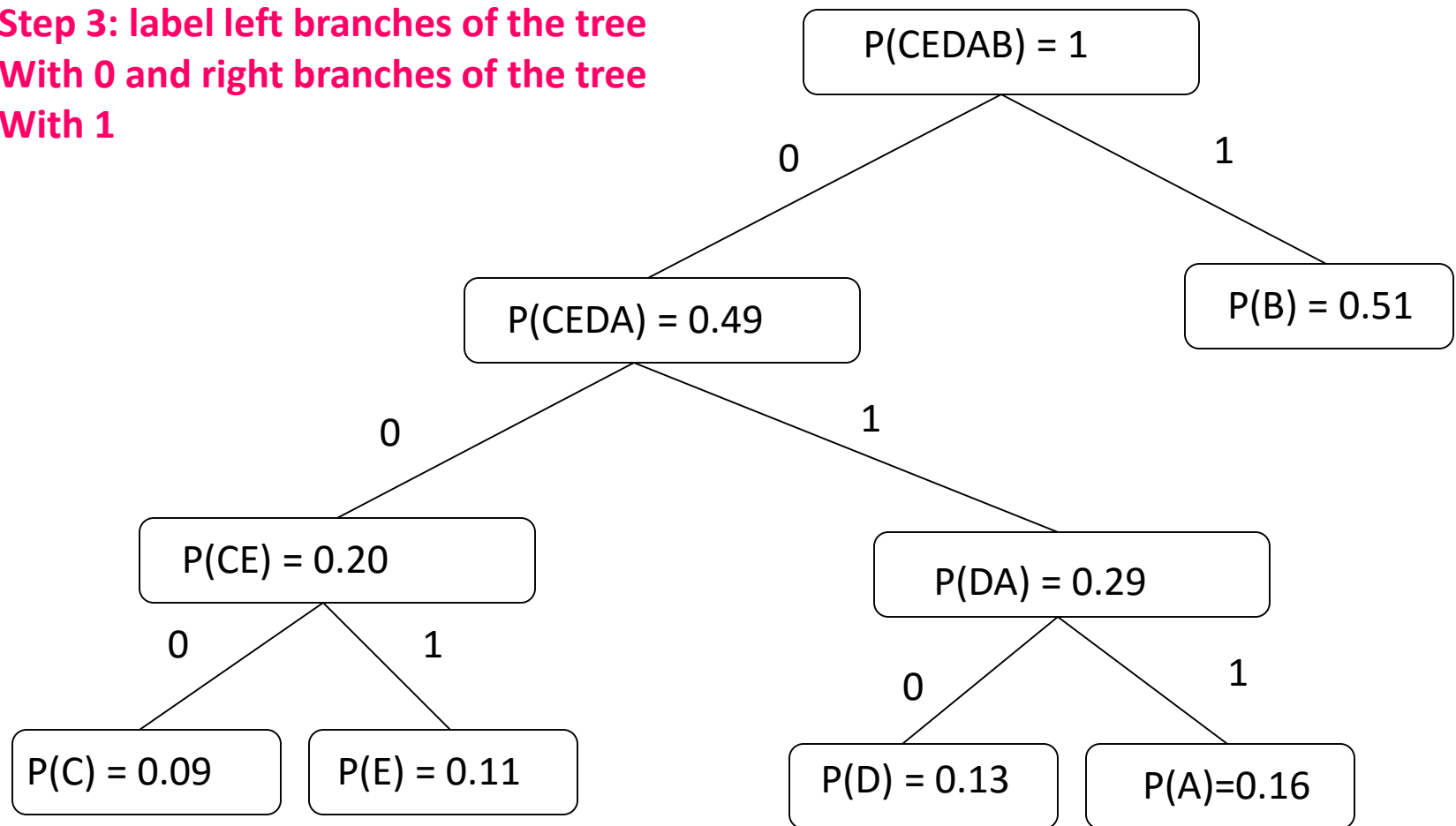
Step 2: Build a binary tree from left to Right

Policy: always connect two smaller nodes together (e.g., $P(CE)$ and $P(DA)$ had both Probabilities that were smaller than $P(B)$, Hence those two did connect first



Huffman Encoding (Example)

Step 3: label left branches of the tree
With 0 and right branches of the tree
With 1



Huffman Encoding (Example)

Step 4: Create Huffman Code

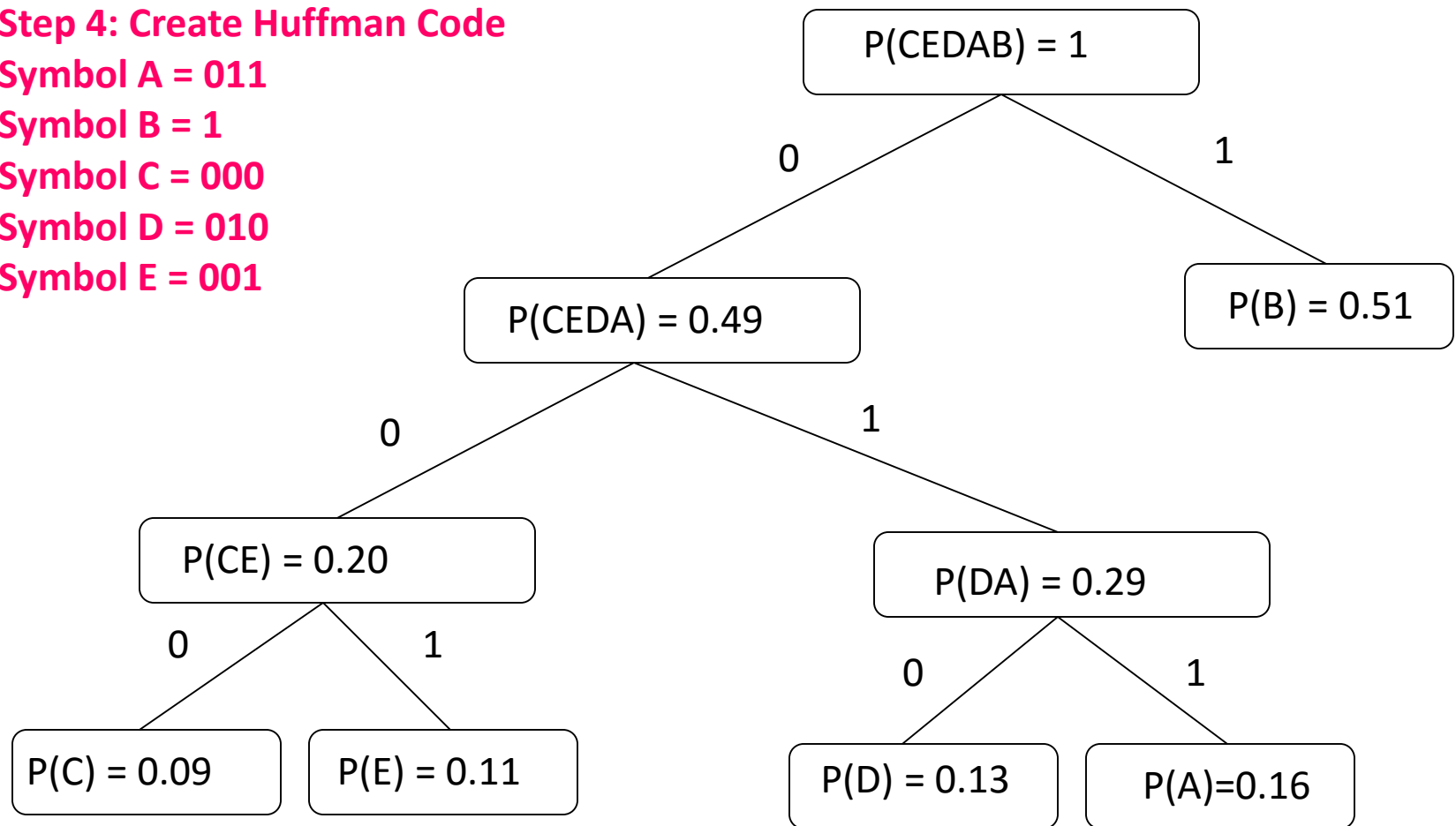
Symbol A = 011

Symbol B = 1

Symbol C = 000

Symbol D = 010

Symbol E = 001

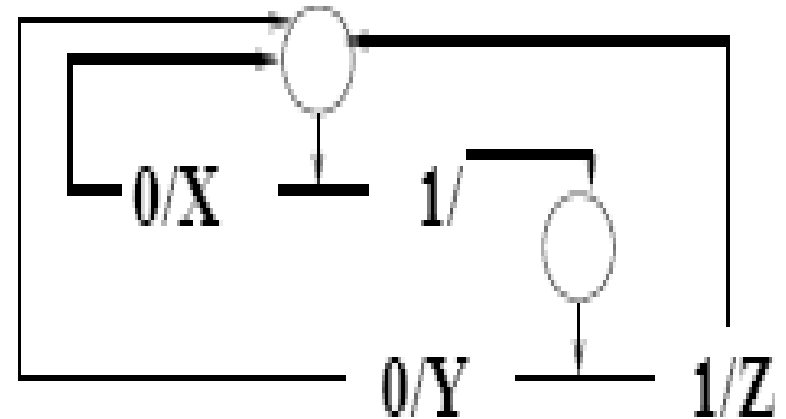


Huffman Decoding

- Assume Huffman Table

■ Symbol	Code
X	0
Y	10
Z	11

Consider encoded
bitstream:
000101011001110



What is the decoded string?

Limitations

- Diverges from lower limit when probability of a particular symbol becomes high
 - always uses an integral number of bits
- Must send code book with the data
 - lowers overall efficiency
- Must determine frequency distribution
 - must remain stable over the data set



IMAGE COMPRESSION (CONCEPTS USED IN MPEG AND H.26X)

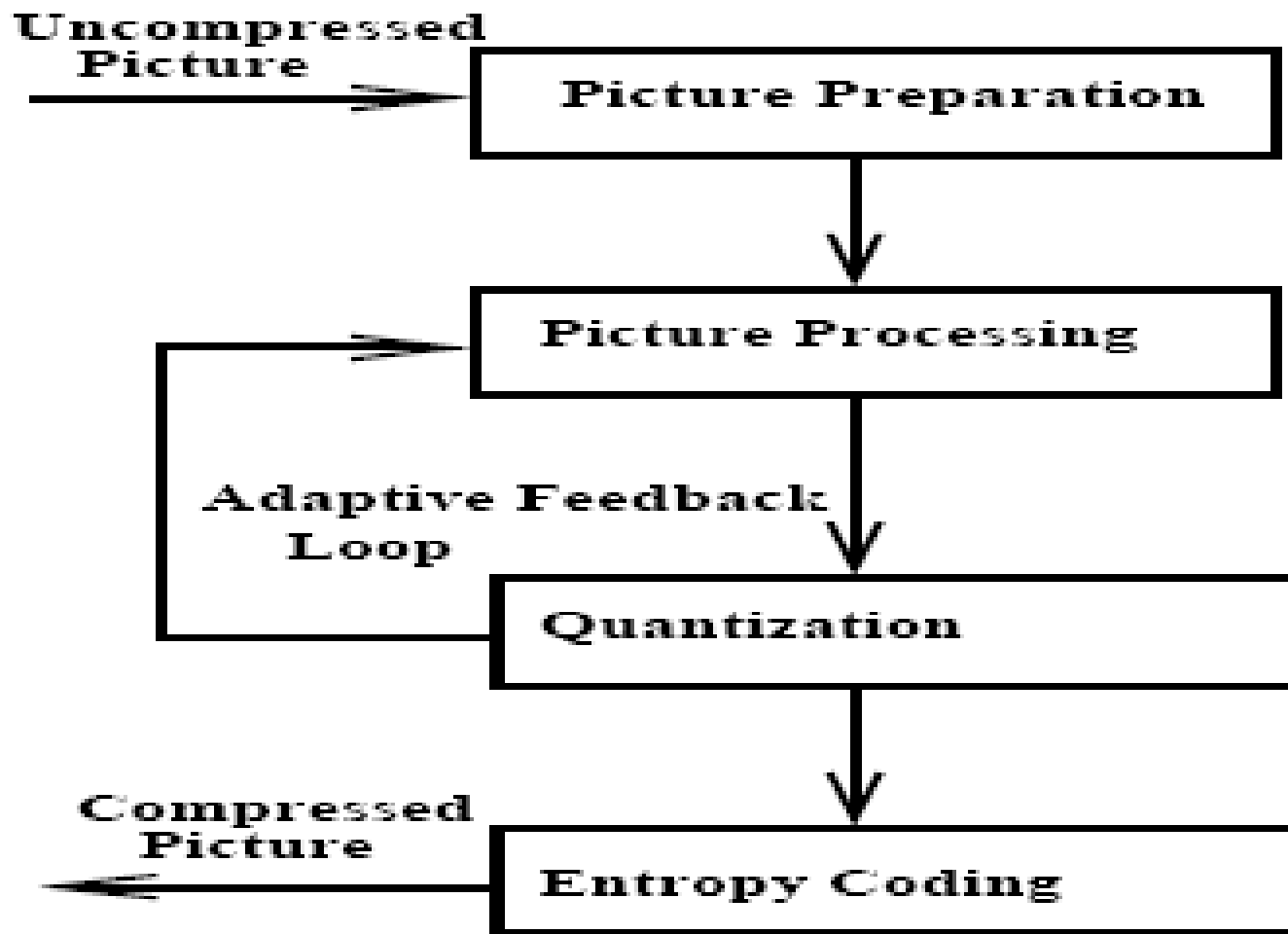


JPEG (Joint Photographic Experts Group)

■ Requirements:

- ☐ Very good compression ratio and good quality image
- ☐ Independent of image size
- ☐ Applicable to any image and pixel aspect ratio
- ☐ Applicable to any complexity (with any statistical characteristics)

Hybrid Coding





Picture Preparation

- Generation of appropriate digital representation
- Image division into 8x8 blocks
- Fix number of bits per pixel (first level quantization – mapping from real numbers to bit representation)

Other Compression Steps

- Picture processing (Source Coding)
 - Transformation from time to frequency domain (e.g., use Discrete Cosine Transform)
 - Motion vector computation in video
- Quantization
 - Reduction of precision, e.g., cut least significant bits
 - Quantization matrix, quantization values
- Entropy Coding
 - Huffman Coding + RLE

JPEG Compression

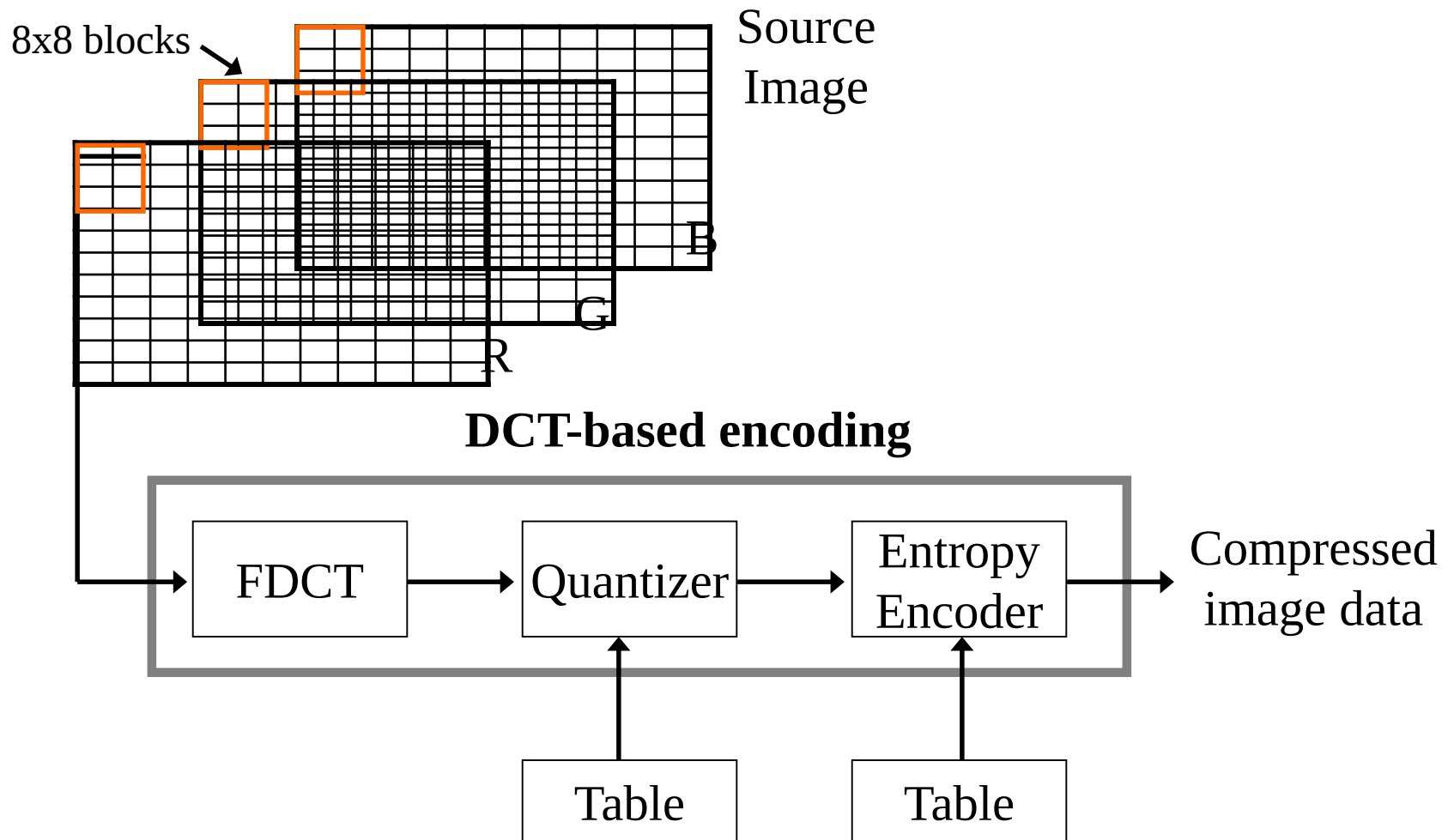
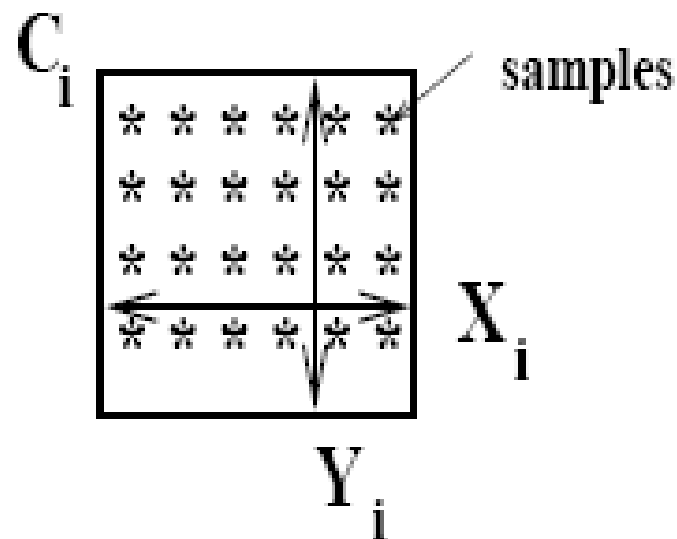
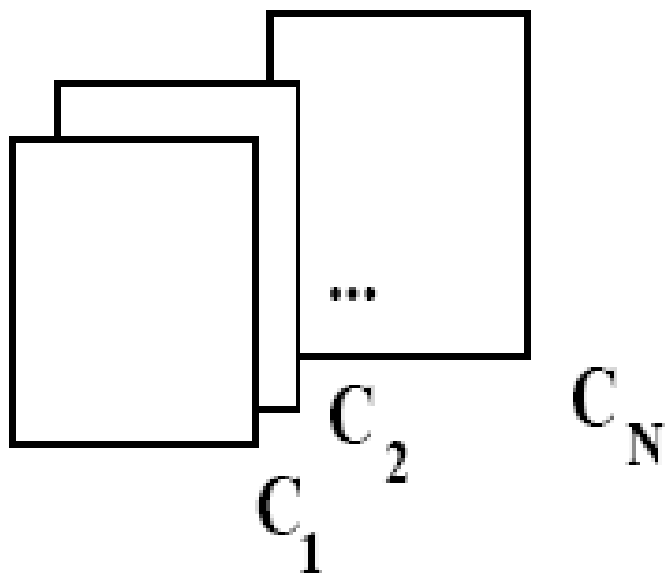


Image Preparation

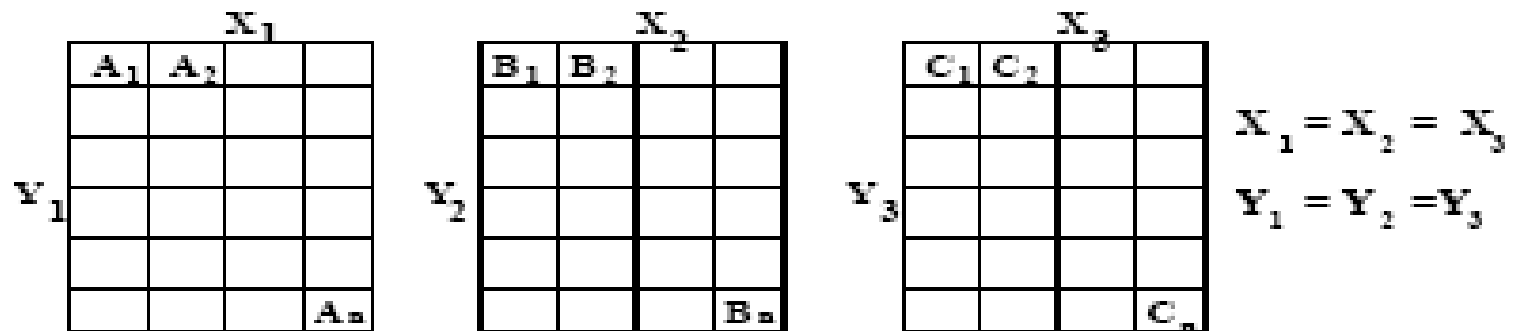
- The image preparation is NOT BASED on
 - 9-bit YUV encoding
 - Fixed number of lines and columns
 - Mapping of encoded chrominance
- Source image consists of components (C_i) and to each component we assign YUV, RGB or TIQ signals.

Division of Source Image into Planes

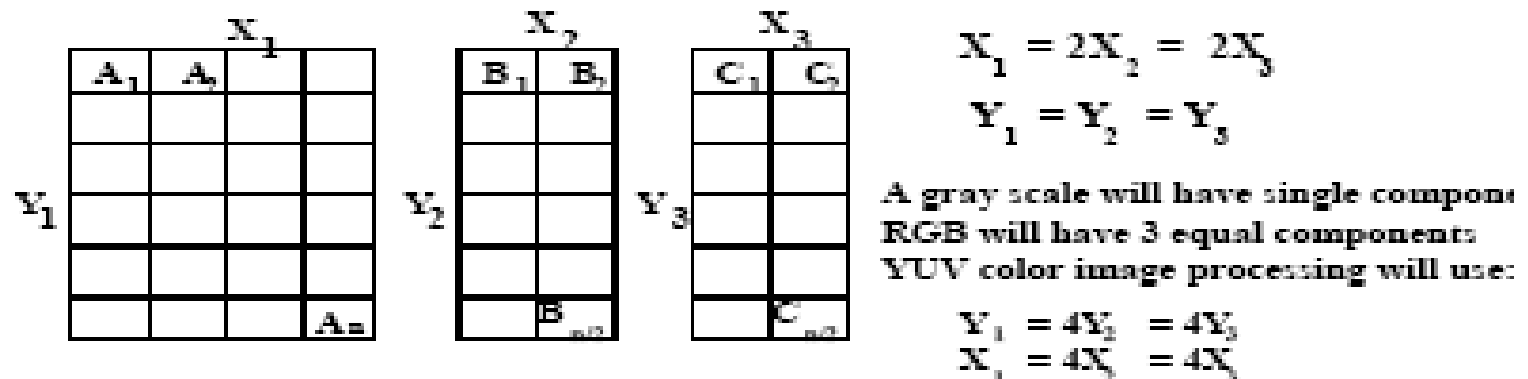


Components and their Resolutions

A./ Components with the same resolution



B./ Components with different resolution



Color Transformation (optional)

- Down-sample chrominance components
 - compress without loss of quality (color space)
 - e.g., YUV 4:2:2 or 4:1:1
- Example: 640 x 480 RGB to YUV 4:1:1
 - Y is 640x480
 - U is 160x120
 - V is 160x120

Image Preparation (Pixel Allocation)

- Each pixel is presented by 'p' bits, value is in range of $(0, 2^p - 1)$
- All pixels of all components within the same image are coded with the same number of bits
- Lossy modes use precision 8 or 12 bits per pixel
- Lossless mode uses precision 2 up to 12 bits per pixel

Image Preparation - Blocks

- Images are divided into data units, called blocks – definition comes from DCT transformation since DCT operates on blocks
- Lossy mode – blocks of 8x8 pixels; lossless mode – data unit 1 pixel

Data Unit Ordering

- *Non-interleaved*: scan from left to right, top to bottom for each color component
- *Interleaved*: compute one “unit” from each color component, then repeat
 - full color pixels after each step of decoding
 - but components may have different resolution

Interleaved Data Ordering

- Interleaved data units of different components are combined into Minimum Coded Units (MCUs)
- If image has the same resolution, then MCU consists of exactly one data unit for each component
- If image has different resolution for each component, reconstruction of MCUs is more complex

Example

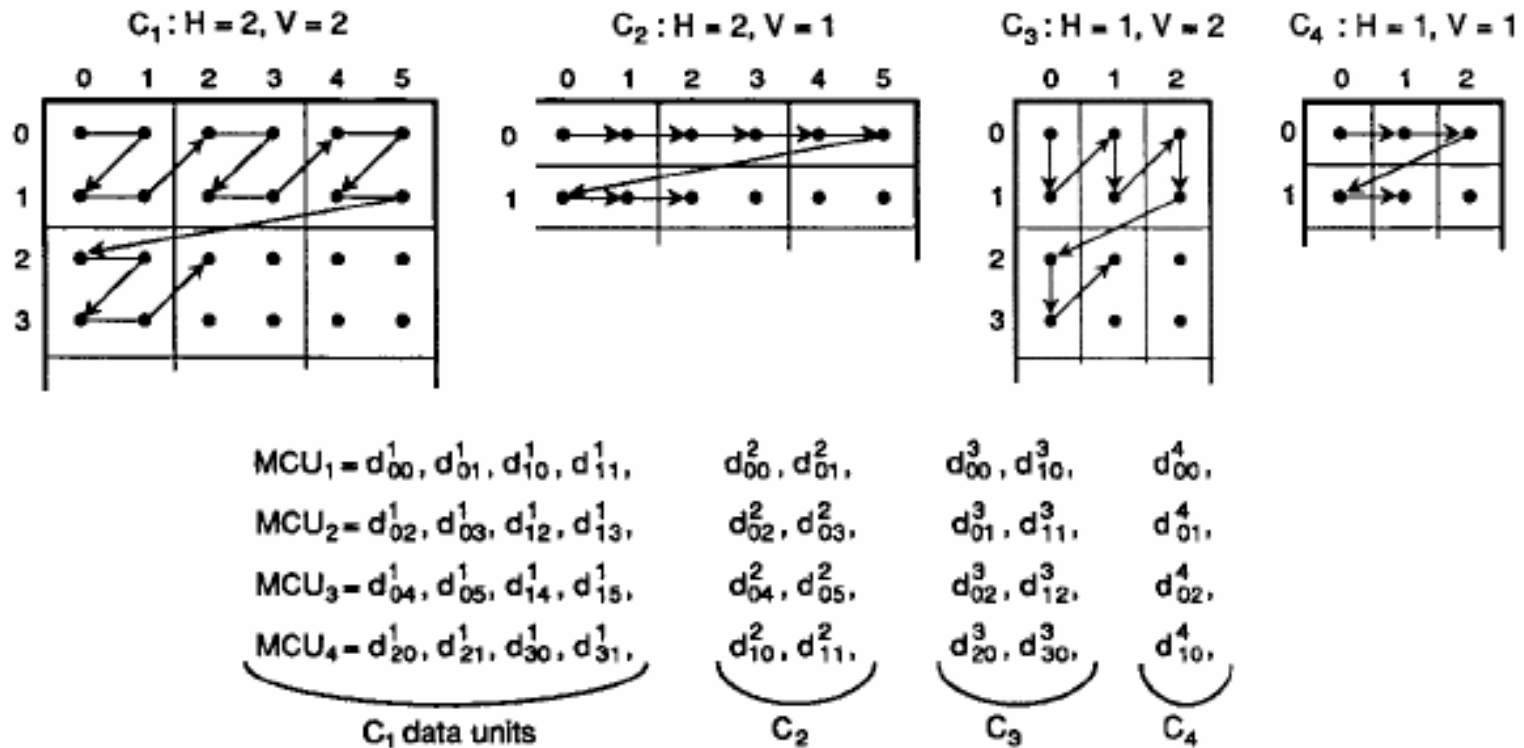


Image Processing

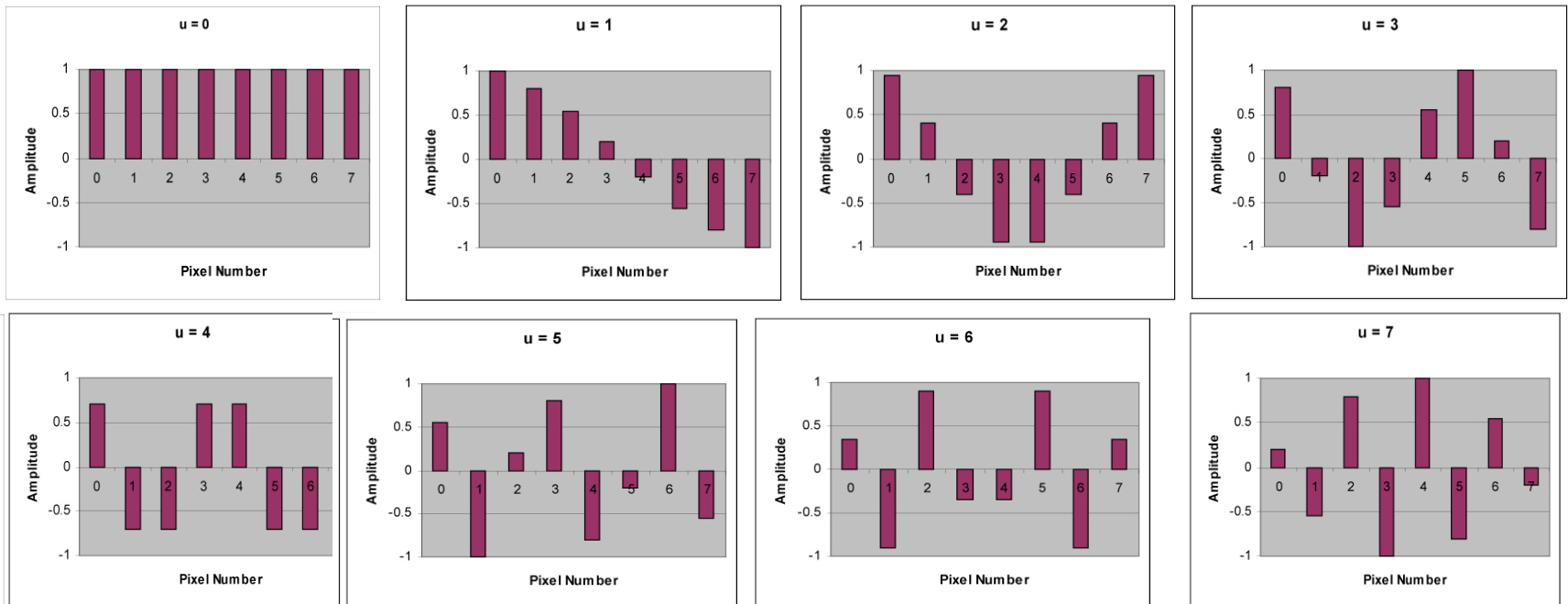
- Shift values $[0, 2^P - 1]$ to $[-2^{P-1}, 2^{P-1} - 1]$
 - e.g. if $(P=8)$, shift $[0, 255]$ to $[-127, 127]$
 - DCT requires range be centered around 0
- Values in 8×8 pixel blocks are spatial values and there are 64 samples values in each block

Forward DCT

- Convert from spatial to frequency domain
 - convert intensity function into weighted sum of periodic basis (cosine) functions
 - identify bands of spectral information that can be thrown away without loss of quality
- Intensity values in each color plane often change slowly

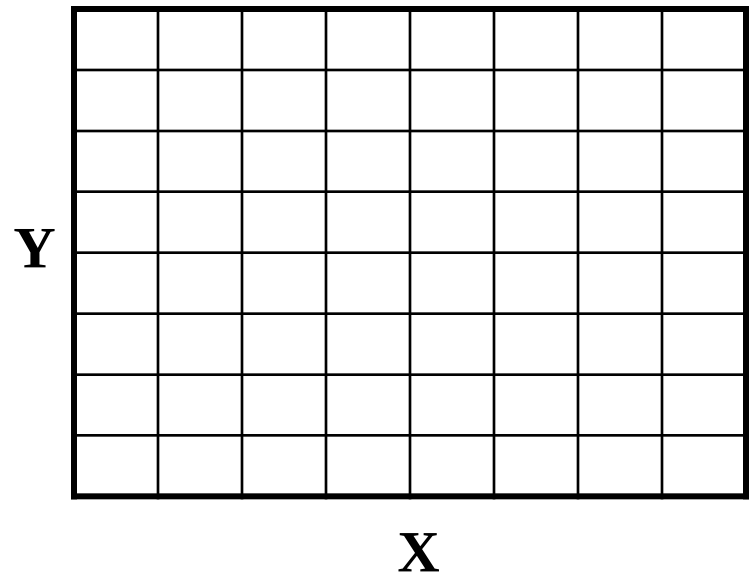
DCT Basic Functions

- Decompose the intensity function into a weighted sum of cosine basis functions



DCT for 2D

- Perform 1D DCT on each row of the block
- Again for each column of 1D coefficients
 - alternatively, transpose the matrix and perform DCT on the rows



Equations for 2D DCT

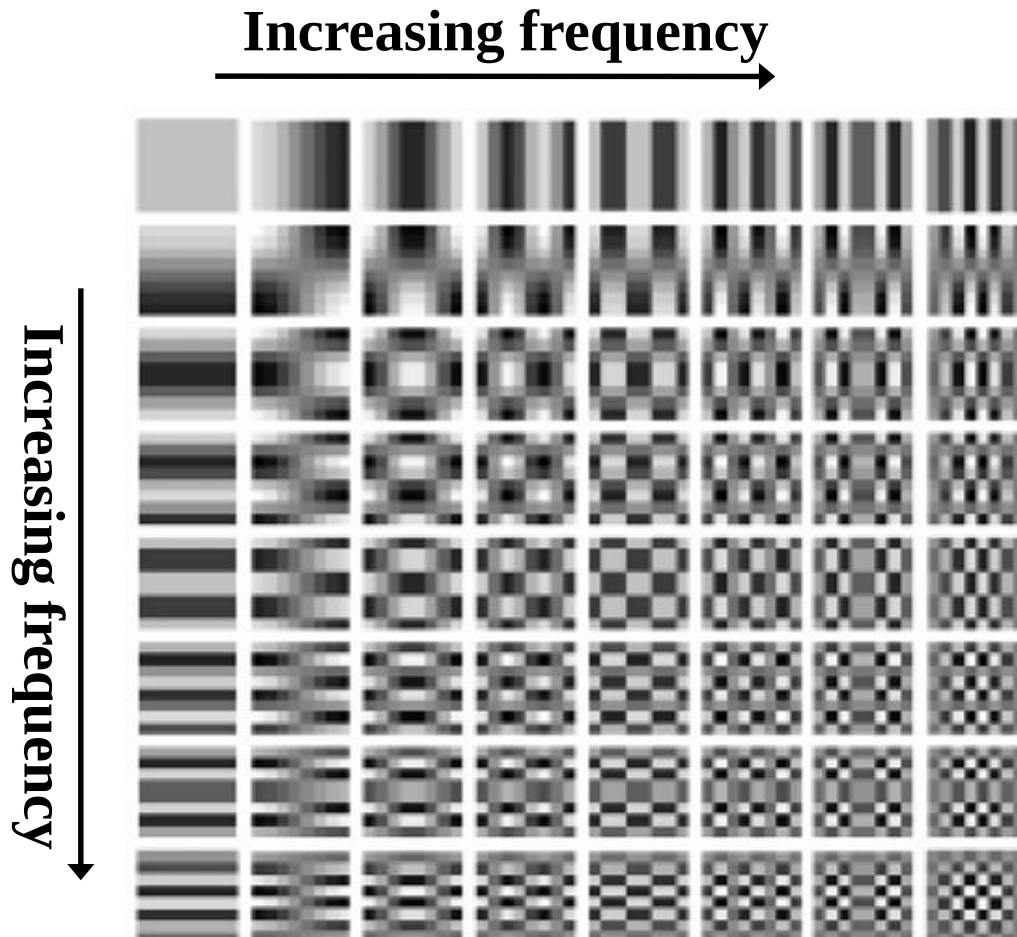
■ Forward DCT:

$$F(u, v) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{nm}} C(u)C(v) \sum_{y=0}^{m-1} \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} I(x, y) * \cos\left(\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2n}\right) * \cos\left(\frac{(2y+1)v\pi}{2m}\right)$$

■ Inverse DCT:

$$I(y, x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{nm}} \sum_{v=0}^{m-1} \sum_{u=0}^{n-1} F(v, u) C(u)C(v) \cos\left(\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2n}\right) * \cos\left(\frac{(2y+1)v\pi}{2m}\right)$$

Visualization of Basis Functions



Coefficient Differentiation

■ $F(0,0)$

- includes the lowest frequency in both directions
- is called **DC coefficient**
- Determines fundamental color of the block

■ $F(0,1) \dots F(7,7)$

- are called **AC coefficients**
- Their frequency is non-zero in one or both directions

Quantization

- Throw out bits
- Consider example: $101101_2 = 45$ (6 bits)
 - We can truncate this string to 4 bits: $1011_2 = 11$
 - We can truncate this string to 3 bits: $101_2 = 5$ (original value 40) or $110_2 = 6$ (original value 48)
- Uniform quantization is achieved by dividing DCT coefficients by N and round the result (e.g., above we used $N=4$ or $N=8$)
- In JPEG – use quantization tables
 - $F_q(u,v) = F(u,v)/Q_{uv}$
 - Two quantization tables – one for luminance and one for two chrominance components

De facto Quantization Table

Eye becomes less sensitive ↓

16	11	10	16	24	40	51	61
12	12	14	19	26	58	60	55
14	13	16	24	40	57	69	56
14	17	22	29	51	87	80	62
18	22	37	56	68	109	103	77
24	35	55	64	81	104	113	92
49	64	78	87	103	121	120	101
72	92	95	98	112	100	103	99

→ Eye becomes less sensitive

Entropy Encoding

- Compress sequence of quantized DC and AC coefficients from quantization step
 - further increase compression, without loss
- Separate DC from AC components
 - DC components change slowly, thus will be encoded using difference encoding

DC Encoding

- DC represents average intensity of a block
 - encode using difference encoding scheme
 - use 3x3 pattern of blocks
- Because difference tends to be near zero, can use less bits in the encoding
 - categorize difference into difference classes
 - send the index of the difference class, followed by bits representing the difference

Difference Coding applied to DC Coefficients

PREDICTOR

$$\text{Diff}_i = \text{DC}_i - \text{DC}_{i-1} \quad i > 0$$

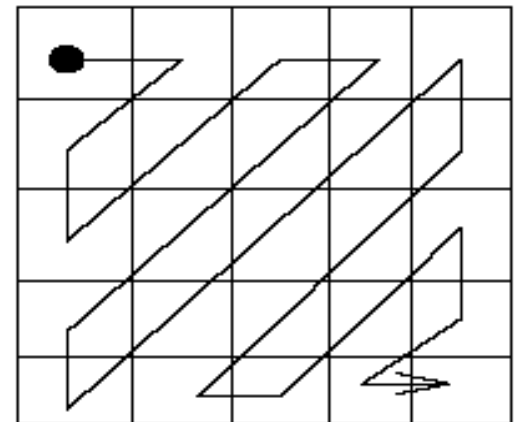
DC_0	DC_1	DC_2
DC_3	DC_4	DC_5
DC_6	DC_7	DC_8



DC_0	Diff_1	Diff_2
Diff_3	Diff_4	Diff_5
Diff_6	Diff_7	Diff_8

AC Encoding

- Use zig-zag ordering of coefficients
 - orders frequency components from low->high
 - produce maximal series of 0s at the end
 - Ordering helps to apply efficiently entropy encoding
- Apply Huffman coding
- Apply RLE on AC zero values

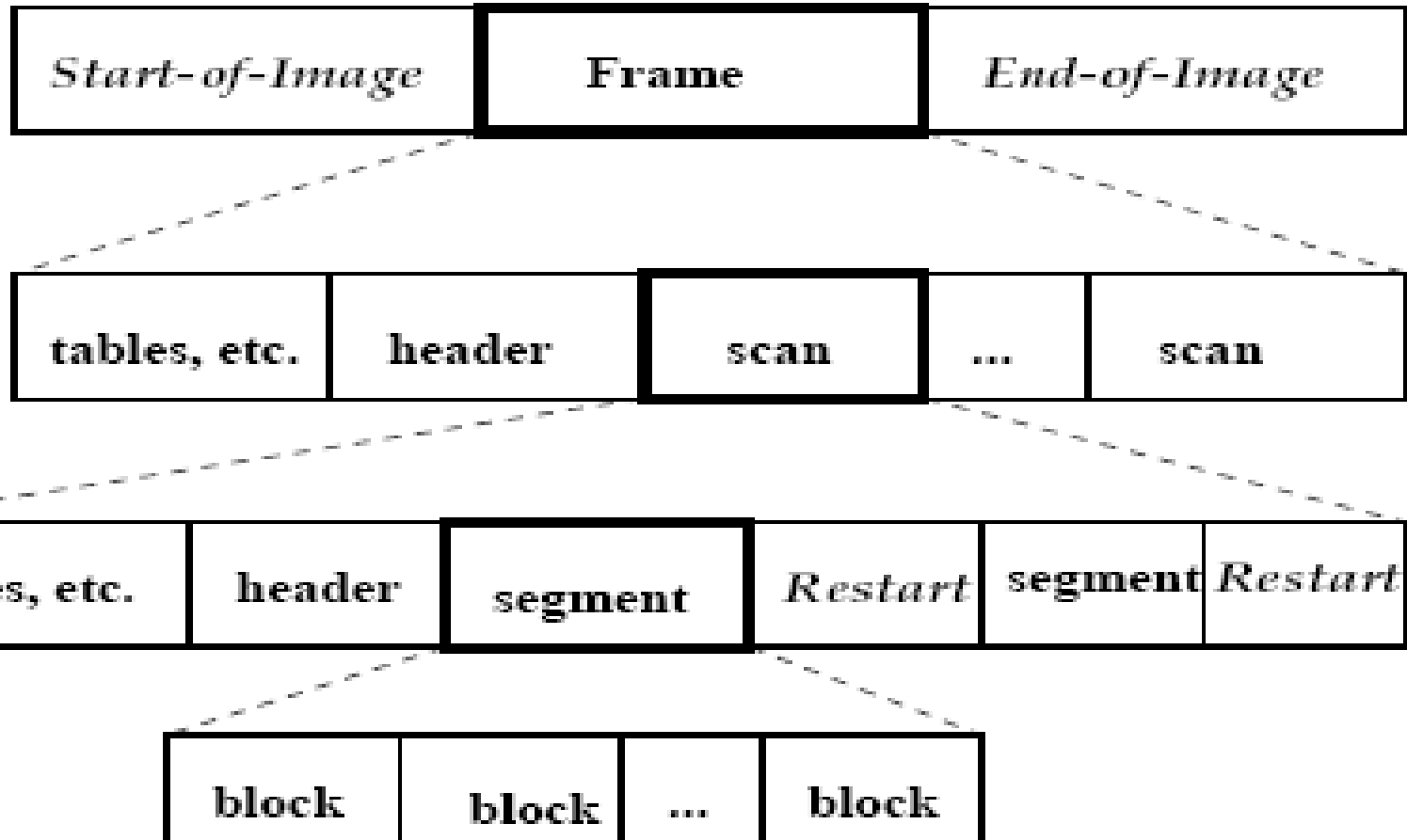




Huffman Encoding

- Sequence of DC difference indices and values along with RLE of AC coefficients
- Apply Huffman encoding to sequence
- Attach appropriate headers
- Finally have the JPEG image!

Interchange Format of JPEG





ADDITIONAL SLIDES

Huffman Example

- Construct the Huffman coding tree (in class)

Symbol (S)	$P(S)$
A	0.25
B	0.30
C	0.12
D	0.15
E	0.18



Characteristics of Solution

Symbol (S)	Code
A	01
B	11
C	100
D	101
E	00

Example Encoding/Decoding

Encode “BEAD”

⇒ 110001101

⇒ Decode “0101100”

Symbol (S)	Code
A	01
B	11
C	100
D	101
E	00

Entropy (Theoretical Limit)

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N -p(s_i) \log_2 p(s_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= -.25 * \log_2 .25 + \\ &\quad -.30 * \log_2 .30 + \\ &\quad -.12 * \log_2 .12 + \\ &\quad -.15 * \log_2 .15 + \\ &\quad -.18 * \log_2 .18 \end{aligned}$$

$$H = 2.24 \text{ bits}$$

Symbol	$P(S)$	Code
A	0.25	01
B	0.30	11
C	0.12	100
D	0.15	101
E	0.18	00

Average Codeword Length

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^N p(s_i) \text{codelength}(s_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= .25(2) + \\ &\quad .30(2) + \\ &\quad .12(3) + \\ &\quad .15(3) + \\ &\quad .18(2) \end{aligned}$$

$$L = 2.27 \text{ bits}$$

Symbol	$P(S)$	Code
A	0.25	01
B	0.30	11
C	0.12	100
D	0.15	101
E	0.18	00

Code Length Relative to Entropy

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^N p(s_i) \text{codelength}(s_i)$$

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N -p(s_i) \log_2 p(s_i)$$

- Huffman reaches entropy limit when all probabilities are negative powers of 2
 - i.e., 1/2; 1/4; 1/8; 1/16; etc.
- $H \leq \text{Code Length} \leq H + 1$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} H &= -.01 \cdot \log_2 .01 + \\ &\quad -.99 \cdot \log_2 .99 \\ &= .08 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} L &= .01(1) + \\ &\quad .99(1) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Symbol	$P(S)$	Code
A	0.01	1
B	0.99	0

Group Exercise

- Compute Entropy (H)
- Build Huffman tree
- Compute average code length
- Code “BCCADE”

Symbol (S)	$P(S)$
A	0.1
B	0.2
C	0.4
D	0.2
E	0.1

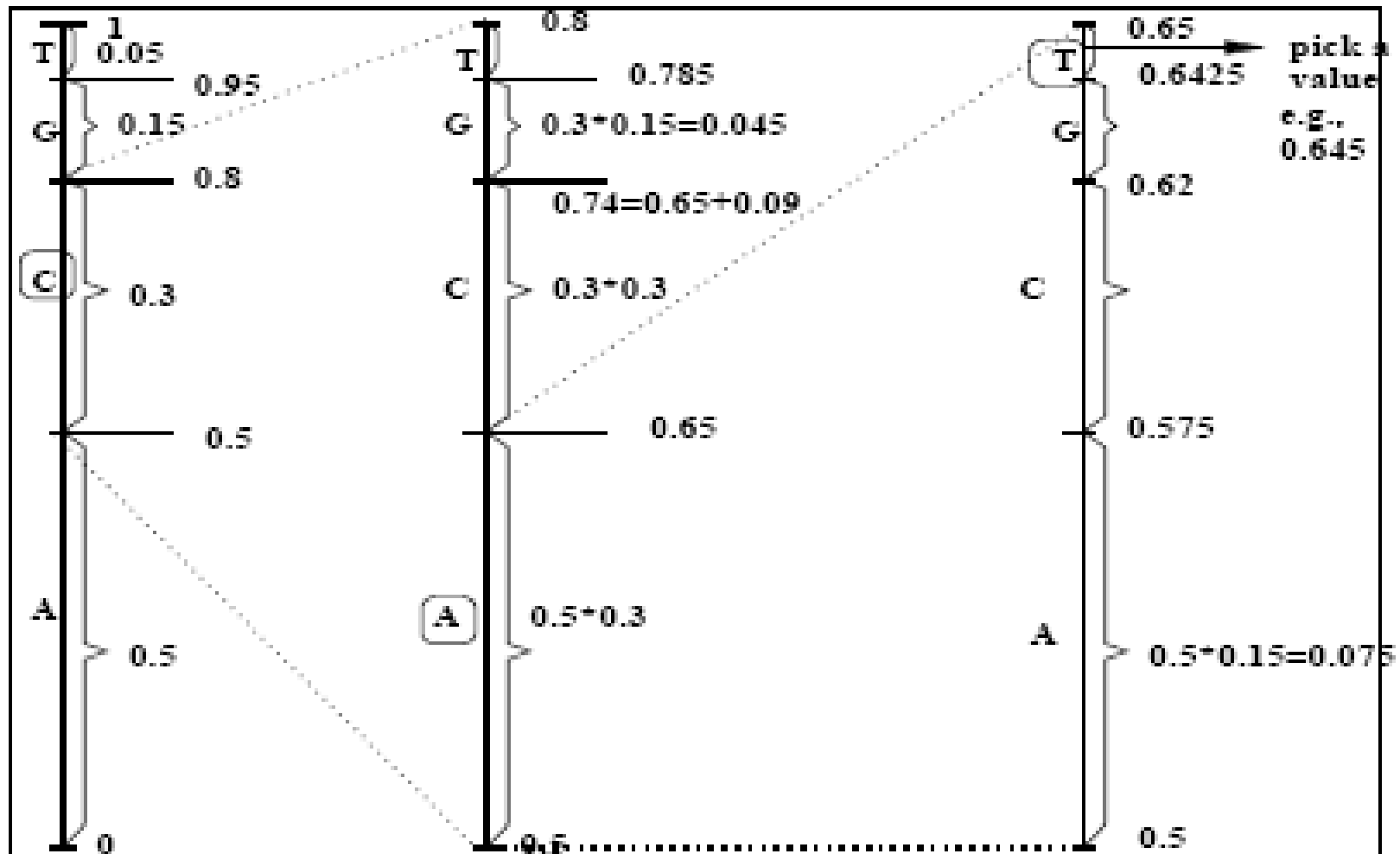
Arithmetic Coding

- Optimal algorithm as Huffman coding wrt compression ratio
- Better algorithm than Huffman wrt transmitted amount of information
 - Huffman – needs to transmit Huffman tables with compressed data
 - Arithmetic – needs to transmit length of encoded string with compressed data

Arithmetic Coding

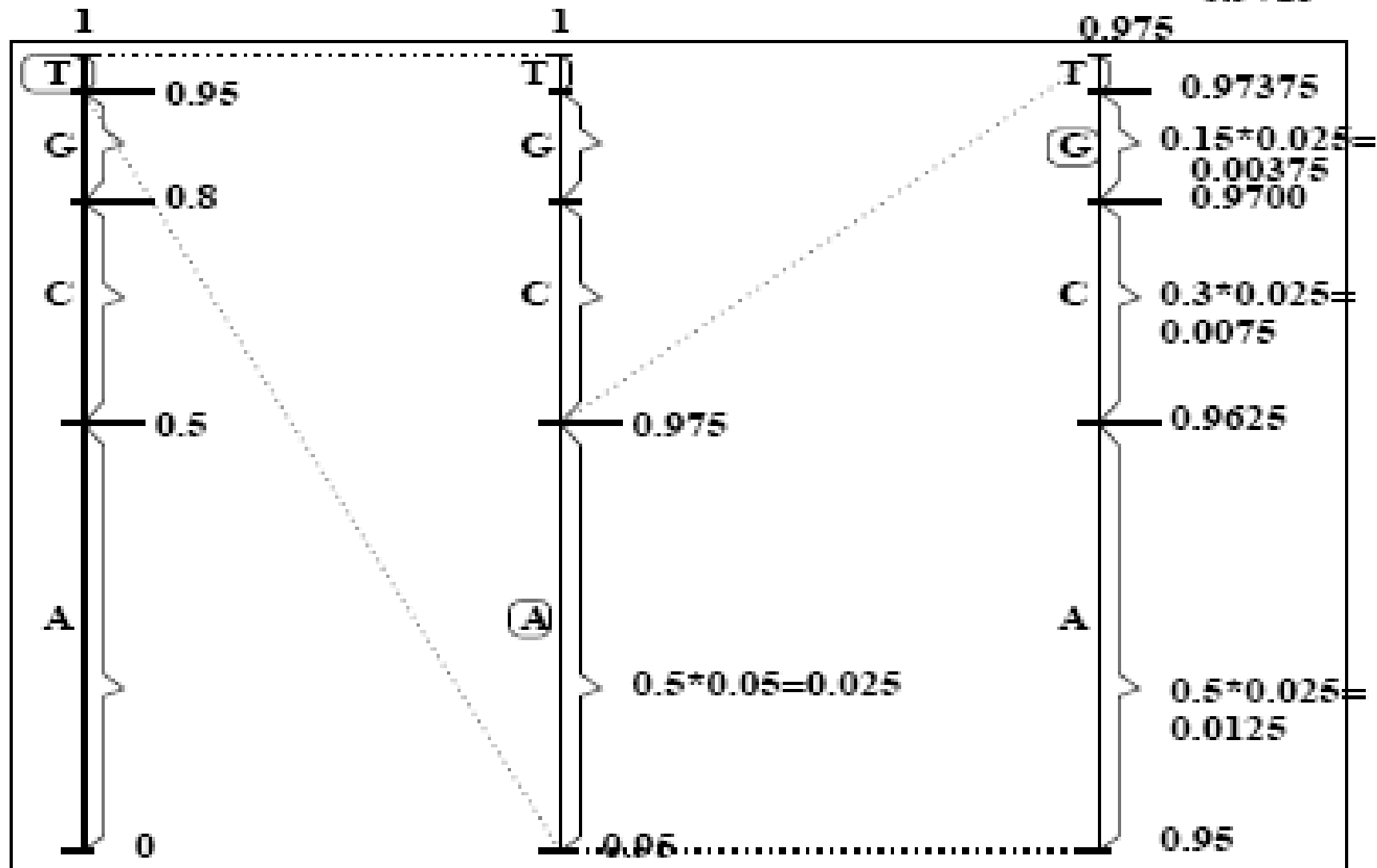
- Each symbol is coded by considering the prior data
- Encoded data must be read from the beginning, there is no random access possible
- Each real number (< 1) is represented as binary fraction
 - $0.5 = 2^{-1}$ (binary fraction = 0.1); $0.25 = 2^{-2}$ (binary fraction = 0.01), $0.625 = 0.5 + 0.125$ (binary fraction = 0.101)

$P(A)=0.5, P(C) = 0.3, P(G) = 0.15, P(T) = 0.05 \Rightarrow$ Encode CAT



Send Value: 0.645

Given: $P(A)=0.5$, $P(C) = 0.3$, $P(G) = 0.15$, $P(T) = 0.05 \Rightarrow$ Decode:
0.9715



Decoded Word: TAG