Information and Coding

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Principles

- Let $x^n = x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ be the sequence of values (scalars or vectors) produced by an information source until time n.
- Predictive coding is based on encoding sequence $r^n = r_1 r_2 \dots r_n$, instead of the original sequence x^n , where

$$r_n = x_n - \hat{x}_n$$

and

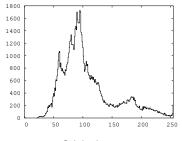
$$\hat{x}_n = p(x^{n-1}) = p(x_1 x_2 \dots x_{n-1})$$

- The \hat{x}_n are the estimates and the values of the sequence r^n are the residuals.
- Function *p*() is the estimator or predictor.
- The aim of predictive coding is to have $H(r^n) < H(x^n)$.

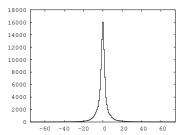


Example





Original H = 7.26 bits/symbol



Predictor 1 JPEG H = 4.49 bits/symbol

Simple 1D prediction

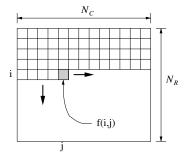
Simple polynomial predictors used in some audio encoders:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{x}_{n}^{(0)} = 0\\ \hat{x}_{n}^{(1)} = x_{n-1}\\ \hat{x}_{n}^{(2)} = 2x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}\\ \hat{x}_{n}^{(3)} = 3x_{n-1} - 3x_{n-2} + x_{n-3} \end{cases}$$

and the corresponding residuals, computed efficiently:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{r}_{n}^{(0)} = x_{n} \\ \hat{r}_{n}^{(1)} = r_{n}^{(0)} - r_{n-1}^{(0)} \\ \hat{r}_{n}^{(2)} = r_{n}^{(1)} - r_{n-1}^{(1)} \\ \hat{r}_{n}^{(3)} = r_{n}^{(2)} - r_{n-1}^{(2)} \end{cases}$$

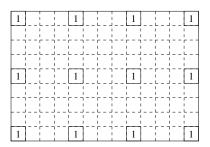
 Typically, images are encoded from left to right, top to bottom, i.e., in raster-scan order:



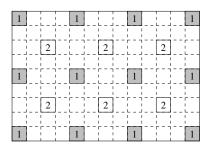
• In this case, the sequence x^n is obtained by concatenating the first $\lfloor n/N_c \rfloor$ image rows, plus the $n \mod N_c$ pixels from row number $\lfloor n/N_c \rfloor + 1$.

- Other approaches use hierarchical decompositions (or multi-resolution).
- This is the case of the HINT method (Hierarchical INTerpolation):

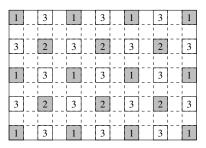
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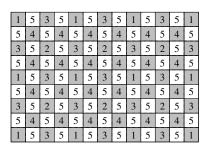
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1		3		1		3		1		3		1
	4		4		4		4		4		4	
3		2		3		2		3		2		3
	4		4		4		4		4		4	
1		3		1		3		1		3		1
	4		4		4		4		4		4	
3		2		3		2		3		2		3
	4		4		4		4		4		4	
1		3		1		3		1		3		1

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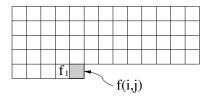


Predictors

- For efficient encoding, the estimated values should be as close as possible to the real values, i.e., the r_k values should be small.
- The decoder must be able to generate the same sequence, \hat{x}^n , of estimated values, i.e., the predictor cannot introduce any error during encoding / decoding.
- Therefore, the predictor must be causal, and, in lossy coding, the predictor at the encoder must use the reconstructed values, \tilde{x}^{n-1} , instead of the original values, x^{n-1} .

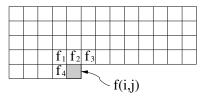
Predictors

- Generally, the complexity of the predictor depends on two aspects:
 - The number of values used for calculating the estimates (the order of the predictor).
 - The spatial (or temporal) configuration of these values.
- Consider the example of a spatial predictor of order 1, where the estimated value is given by the immediately preceding value:



Predictors

- This type of predictor can be easily extended to higher orders, using the last k processed pixels of the image.
- However, for orders higher than 3 or 4, the efficiency does not increase significantly.
- This happens because images are 2D signals, not 1D sequences of data.
- Therefore, generally, the spatial configurations used for predictive image coding have a 2D shape:

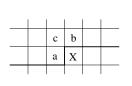


Lossless predictive coding

- One of the main advantages of predictive coding is allowing a simple design of lossless encoders.
- In fact, most lossless encoders for audio and image rely on predictive coding techniques.
- However, for lossless coding, there is an additional constraint regarding the predictor: the estimates generated must be platform independent.
- Generally, this constraint implies that the predictor can use only integer arithmetic.

Linear prediction: the lossless mode of JPEG

 The lossless mode of JPEG (ISO/IEC 10918-1, ITU-T T.81, 1992) provides seven linear predictors:



Mode	Predictor
1	а
2	b
3	С
4	a+b-c
5	a + (b - c)/2
6	b + (a - c)/2
7	(a+b)/2

- Generally, the performance of the several predictors may vary considerably from image to image.
- If encoding time is not a problem, then all of them can be tested and the one with the best compression rate chosen.

Linear prediction: the lossless mode of JPEG

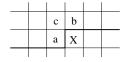
Example:



Predictor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entropy	4.49	4.21	4.74	4.17	4.16	4.04	4.10

The nonlinear predictor of JPEG-LS

 JPEG-LS (ISO/IEC 14495-1, ITU-T T.87, 1999) uses a predictor based on the same spatial configuration as that of JPEG:



 However, instead of a linear predictor, it uses the nonlinear predictor

$$\hat{X} = \begin{cases} \min(a, b) & \text{if} \quad c \ge \max(a, b) \\ \max(a, b) & \text{if} \quad c \le \min(a, b) \\ a + b - c & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Note that the linear part of this predictor (a + b - c) is the same as predictor number 4 of JPEG.

The nonlinear predictor of JPEG-LS

Example:



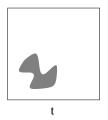


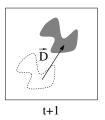


(b)

Predictor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	JLS
Entropy (a)	4.49	4.21	4.74	4.18	4.16	4.04	4.10	3.98
Entropy (b)	5.60	5.05	5.82	5.19	5.23	4.97	5.15	4.93

- Typically, the differences between consecutive frames of a video sequence are due to motion of the scene objects.
- Exceptions occur when there are scene changes, zoom-in / zoom-out operations and camera translation.





 To explore this redundancy, it is frequent to use temporal prediction (interframe compression), which relies on motion compensation.

- Conditional replenishment video coding:
 - Finds zones in the video frame where there were changes with respect to the previous frame.
 - Only those zones are encoded.
 - This technique does not use motion compensation. It just performs a detection of temporal activity.
- Video coding based on motion compensation involves the following steps:
 - Estimation of the motion vectors.
 - Compensation, i.e., temporal prediction.
 - Encoding of the motion vectors.
 - Encoding of the prediction residuals.



- There are a large number of techniques for motion detection, but one of them is clearly the most common approach for video coding.
- For each frame block (for example, of N × N pixels), it seeks the
 position where it minimizes some measure in relation to the
 previous frame (the reference frame).
- Note that this approach tries to find the position that minimizes a measure of interest, which might not correspond to the true motion in the scene...

• Typically, we want to minimize some measure C(i, j), such as

$$C(i,j) = \sum_{r=1}^{N} \sum_{c=1}^{N} d\left(g(r,c,t) - g(i+r,j+c,t+1)\right)$$

where $d(\cdot)$ is, for example, $(\cdot)^2$ or $|\cdot|$.

- Due to complexity constraints, searching is limited to a neighborhood of $(N+2\Delta)\times(N+2\Delta)$ pixels around the block, i.e., $-\Delta \leq i,j \leq \Delta$.
- If exhaustive search is used, it is guaranteed to find the minimum of C(i,j)...
- This approach is generally computationally too demanding, hence other sub-optimal techniques have been proposed.

• Example:



Frame 200



Direct difference H = 5.23 bpp

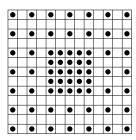


Frame 201



 $H=4.38 \ \mathrm{bpp}$

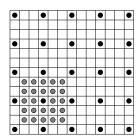
- Several of the sup-optimal approaches for finding the best reference block rely on spatial sub-sampling.
- For example, considering that the most probable zone for finding the reference block is in the near neighborhood of the block, then we may use the following scheme:



Total: 169 blocks

Sub-optimal: 65 blocks

 If we consider that after finding a reasonably good reference block it is probable that others better than itself can be found in the near neighborhood, then we can use a greedy search:



Total: 169 blocks

Sub-optimal: 49 blocks

• A number of other variants of local search have been proposed...

• For example, the logarithmic search:

