



**Miguel Oliveira
Inocêncio**

**Co-processador da Transformada e Quantização
para AV1**

AV1 Transform and Quantization Co-Processor

DOCUMENTO PROVISÓRIO



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para AV1**

AV1 Transform and Quantization Co-Processor

Dissertação de Mestrado apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro, para
obtenção do grau de Mestre em Engenharia Electrónica e de Telecomu-
nicações, sob orientação do Professor Doutor António Navarro . . .

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Professor Catedrático da Universidade de Aveiro (orientador)

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KLM

Professor Catedrático da Universidade N

agradecimientos / acknowledgements

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Palavras-Chave

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Keywords

Abstract

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Acronyms

AOM Alliance for Open Media.

AV1 AOM Video 1.

CMOS Complementary metal–oxide–semiconductor.

Codec Encoder-Decoder.

CRT Cathode Ray Television.

FFT Fast Fourier Transform.

fps frames per second.

GPU Graphical Processing Unit.

HEVC High Efficiency Video Coding.

IC Integrated Circuit.

MPEG Motion Picture Experts Group.

TV Television.

UHD Ultra-High-Definition.

Glossary

Codec Encoder-Decoder. Also referred to the method of compressing and decompressing a video sequence.

Interlaced scanning Technique used by televisions for broadcasting and displaying, where only odd or even numbered lines of a frame are transmitted/displayed at a time, alternately.

JPEG Still image compression format, developed by the Joint Photographic Experts Group (JPEG).

libaom Reference software for AV1, released by Google in June 2018.

Progressive scanning Technique used by more recent screens, where each frame is displayed as a whole, from top to bottom, and left to right.

RGB Color space based on the addition of Red, Green and Blue components for complex color representation.

VP8/VP9 Open-format video codecs developed by Google, released in 2008 and 2013, respectively.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 | Background and Motivation

Since the spark of television research in 1887, a tremendous investment has been put into increasing the quality of images, cameras and screens that display them [1].

In the early years of mechanical television, this desire was pursued by making changes to the *Nipkow* disks, up to the decline of the mechanical TV, around the 1930's. The consequential rise of all-electronic TVs started with the capture of images with the same cathode tubes put into Cathode Ray Televisions (CRTs), with broadcasts of the live analog recordings, since there were no available methods of storing images, up to 1955, with the development of the open-reel magnetic tape [2].

The evolution of Complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor (CMOS) technologies however, led to the downfall of cathode ray tubes, and to the rise of image capture to a digital sensor, that allowed better image captures and lower demands in terms of physical storage space. However, with the desire for higher fidelity video, the quantity of information captured also increased. Whether by increasing the sensor resolution, color bit depth or frame rate, the captured video sequences have increased its size throughout the years. For instance, for a video of 640×360 (considered as a low resolution), at 30 frames per second (fps), considering each captured color (RGB) is represented with 8 bits, there is approximately 166 Million bits per second (Mbps) of captured information. This means that a short 5 minute video would occupy more than 6 Giga Bytes (GB) of memory. This aspect gets more severe once higher resolutions are considered. For newer standards such as 4K Ultra-High-Definition (UHD) (3840×2160) or 8K UHD (7680×4320), under the same conditions, a ten minute video would occupy 448 GB and 1792 GB of raw data, respectively.

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To further aggravate the situation, video consumption got massively adopted on the average consumer level, and continues to grow, both in the average number of hours watched by users and in the resolutions of the video, making the bandwidth used on the visualization of video footage the highest between all other application. With the development of higher video sizes, increase of the average number of connected devices per user and overall market expansion through the number of consumers, this margin will continue to grow [3, Trends 1 & 4].

This problem has led to the introduction of a new concept: *Video Compression*¹, which is the process of reducing the size of a video sequence, while still maintaining its playback capabilities. The Codec takes advantage of redundant information present on the raw data to reduce the size of the video, without heavily modifying the original picture or its quality.

The first form of video compression, Interlaced scanning, dates from 1940, and was purely

¹Also called *Video Coding*.

analog. This solution was introduced with the intent of reducing the necessary broadcasting bandwidth for old CRTs, without decreasing the displayed fps. And even though this technique has been implemented over more than seventy years, it has proven to be so efficient that most TV channels today still use interlaced broadcasting.

However, analog television is now obsolete, as well as CRTs. The massive developments in Integrated Circuit (IC) fabrication led to the rise of the digital era we now live in. Therefore, most screens (be it televisions, monitors or cellphones) use digital, Progressive scanning. As such, the use of analog compression techniques wasn't applicable. Accordingly, the evolution of digital video led to the development of digital compression techniques, such as the one presented in this work.

Being purely digital, these methodologies rely on computers and other processors to analyze data and apply the compression algorithms, making them very demanding processes from a computational standpoint. As expected, a high compression ratio is only obtainable by a high complexity algorithm, which also increases with the size of the video (more data leads to more analysis). Since in the early days of digital video, the used resolutions were lower as to the ones used in the present days, the compression algorithms used were not very demanding. However as the pursuit for higher quality video continued, so did the necessity for better compression ratios, and therefore the computational needs also increased. Such complex softwares lead to a high power consumption from the processor executing it, making such implementations unsuitable for portable, battery limited applications, such as cellphones or laptops. Besides this huge factor, such softwares tend to be very slow, specially when a real time compression or decompression is desired.

To amend for these factors, and to increase the reachability of high quality video to as many users as possible, these applications needed to have a viable solution that didn't compromise its usability. Accordingly, a new approach has been implemented on the most recent codec's. Besides the optimization of pure software compression/decompression solutions, there has been a great focus on the development of specialized hardware for such codecs. This solution could redress many of the problems presented previously, making them viable on a mobile implementation, as well as other specialized appliances, since such co-processors usually present a better performance than generic ones. This tendency has already been verified on the implementation choices on recent smartphones [4, p. 14], as well as recent *Nvidia* Graphical Processing Unit (GPU) lineups [5].

Since each compression algorithm tend to be very different from its predecessors, either by making changes to its bitstream or functioning principles, each time a new codec is released, there is a need to backup its development with a new set of hardware implementations. This makes the improvement of video compression techniques a continuous effort, in many engineering branches, as the technology needs to keep up with the demands of consumers, in a variety of applications.

Due to the broad access to video, and its influence in a variety of markets (besides video consumption itself), big companies have made investments on the improvement of video quality, and respective compression algorithms. These investments have provoked somewhat of a "*Codec War*". Since 2010, several video codecs have been deployed, and quickly replaced by a newer version, which presents better compression gains, at a lower quality degradation, such as the replace of *VP8* (released in 2008) with *VP9* (2013).

1.2 | Scope

AOM Video 1 (AV1) is the most recently released² video codec. It was developed as a Joint Development Foundation [6] project, under the name of Alliance for Open Media (AOM)³. This codec took the same objective as its main predecessor, *VP9*, which was to be an open source, royalty free alternative to Motion Picture Experts Group (MPEG)'s state of the art video codec, *High Efficiency Video Coding (HEVC)*.

Upon release, *VP9* rivaled *HEVC*'s performance. However, soon after, the market demanded higher compression performance, giving origin to consortium of enterprises that now represent AOM, and to the development of *AV1*, in 2015. The first release of this coding format was made in March 2018, with the first release of its reference software, *libaom*, being made three months later, in June 2018.

Besides its main objectives, *AV1* was also developed with the intent of being implementable in hardware. Therefore, various design choices were made to make the algorithm low memory consuming, and highly parallelizable.

The desired compression performance was obtained at the cost of a highly complex algorithm (and reference software), that severely outperforms *VP9*, at the cost of much higher compression times [7].

Taken these factors, there is a high demand for dedicated hardware architectures, that can speed up the compression/decompression times and reach real-time usability on live-streaming applications, such as video-conferencing, live-content visualization, etc.

*Thesis objectives

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1.3 | Outline

*General outline of the different chapters **Last section to do**

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²Currently, there are other codecs being developed, without official bitstream release

³Further explained in Chapter 2

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CHAPTER 2

Video Compression Systems

2.1 | Basic Functioning

2.1.1 Human Visual System

*Essency of video compression relies on making changes the image without serious perception by the user

*Eye Functioning

*"Known Issues" (lower perception to chroma, high frequencies, etc)

*Opportunity to explore various types of redundancies to the image

2.1.2 Redundancy Exploitation

*Types of redundancies (Temporal, Statistical and Coding)

*Color subsampling

*Intra-prediction

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*Transform and Quantization

*Entropy Coding

2.1.3 Basic Video Compression/Decompression System

*Encoder Model

*Decoder Model

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*Previous generations

2.3 | AV1

Review *AV1 Bitstream and Decoding Process*

*Development Process

*AOMedia companies

*Comparison with past generations

*Introduction of modules not present on other video codecs

*Block diagram

2.4 | Performance Analysis

*Compression gains

*Quality assessment

*Complexity (general/modules) and timing issues

CHAPTER 3

Video Coding Transforms

3.1 | Introduction

As mentioned previously, the basic principle behind the compression of video, is the reduction of inter-pixel/inter-symbol correlation. Therefore, all of the integral blocks of a video compression system output a better compressed symbol than its input. One of such blocks is the *Transform*, which is the focus of this work.

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The technique implemented by this process relies on the energy compaction in the frequency domain to reduce the correlation within a frame block, i.e. the input of the Transform block is evaluated in the frequency domain, and is quantified on its main frequencies, on a spatial and/or temporal domain, similarly to the process executed on an Fast Fourier Transform (FFT).

Besides its use in video coding, many other areas use some sort of component transformation, namely in audio compression, voice identification, et al.

A useful interpretation of this process is to see it as the decomposition of the input as a set of basis vectors (1D transforms) or images/matrices (2D transforms). The transformation outputs, y_i , can be seen as the weights of each basis vector/image, \vec{e}_i , that summed return the input, \vec{z} , i.e.

$$\vec{z} = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \vec{e}_i \quad (3.1)$$

which means that the coefficients are related to the amount of correlation between the input and each basis component, and can be obtained with the inner product of the input and each basis vector [1, sec. 4.1.4 & 4.2.2].

$$y_i = \vec{e}_i^T \vec{z} \quad (3.2)$$

3.2 | Background

3.3 | Used Transformation Kernels

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CHAPTER 4

Developed Architecture

4.1 | REEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEE

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