

HU, C., ZHAO, Y., YU, L., JIANG, Y. and XIONG, Y. 2020. A simple encoder scheme for distributed residual video coding. *Multimedia tools and applications* [online], 79(27-28), pages 20061-20078. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-020-08811-y>

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HU, C., ZHAO, Y., YU, L., JIANG, Y. and XIONG, Y.

2020

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A simple encoder scheme for distributed residual video coding

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Received: 11 January 2019 / Revised: 24 December 2019 / Accepted: 28 February 2020 /

Abstract

Rate-Distortion (RD) performance of Distributed Video Coding (DVC) is considerably less than that of conventional predictive video coding. In order to reduce the performance gap, many methods and techniques have been proposed to improve the coding efficiency of DVC with increased system complexity, especially techniques employed at the encoder such as encoder mode decisions, optimal quantization, hash methods etc., no doubt increase the complexity of the encoder. However, low complexity encoder is a widely desired feature of DVC. In order to improve the coding efficiency while maintaining low complexity encoder, this paper focuses on Distributed Residual Video Coding (DRVC) architecture and proposes a simple encoder scheme. The main contributions of this paper are as follows: 1) propose a bit plane block based method combined with bit plane re-arrangement to improve the dependency between source and Side Information (SI), and meanwhile, to reduce the amount of data to be channel encoded 2) present a simple iterative dead-zone quantizer with 3 levels in order to adjust quantization from coarse to fine. The simulation results show that the proposed scheme outperforms DISCOVER scheme for low to medium motion video sequences in terms of RD performance, and maintains a low complexity encoder at the same time.

Keywords Distributed residual video coding (DRVC) Bit plane block based .
Low complexity encoder

1 Introduction

Distributed Video Coding (DVC), based on Slepian-Wolf [27] and Wyner-Ziv [34] theorems, is an emerging video coding paradigm and it shifts the computational complexity and storage burdens from encoder to decoder. It encodes video frames independently and decodes them jointly, which is a promising scheme for applications with limited resources [25], such as sensor networks, wireless video surveillance, etc. However, RD performance of DVC is still considerably less than that of conventional motion-compensation based video

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coding such as H.264/AVC. As indicated in [16], the mostly adopted DVC framework DISCOVER consistently outperforms H.264/AVC Intra-coding (i.e., all the frames are Intra coded) in terms of RD performance, except for scenes with complex motion. Nevertheless, the RD performance of DISCOVER remains generally inferior to that of a full H.264/AVC codec. The gap of the coding performance is due to a number of reasons: sub-optimality of channel coding tools, inaccuracies in the correlation noise model, and bad SI qualities. To further enhance the RD performance of the DVC framework, many methods and techniques have been proposed at the cost of the system complexity, especially techniques used at the encoder such as encoder mode decisions, optimal quantization, hash methods etc., no doubt increase the complexity of the encoder.

Encoder Block Mode Decision (EBMD) is a useful method for improving the coding efficiency and many literatures [9, 11, 13, 17, 22, 24, 32] have focused on this method. Authors in [22] presented a structure of Temporal Group of Blocks (TGOB) at the encoder, which assesses the spatial-temporal properties of each image block to determine suitable modes dynamically. Experimental results show that achieved RD gains depend on video content. This method is not suitable, and is more complex for videos of high dynamics. In [11, 17], in order to reduce the computational complexity, the mode selection algorithm uses the Sum of Absolute Difference (SAD) between the blocks as an indication of the temporal coherence solution. A bit plane Motion Estimation (ME) algorithm is proposed in [13] and the residual error of ME is used in the selection of the coding mode for each block. In [24], SI is required to be generated at the encoder and an iterative algorithm is proposed to select the mode dynamically to improve the accuracy of mode decision. In [9, 32], Lagrange RD cost function of each mode is calculated for each block and the block mode with the minimum cost is chosen as the best mode. Although the above EBMD algorithms improve the RD performance considerably, the complexity of the encoder is also increased.

SI plays an important role in DVC. This is because higher compression efficiency and lower bitrates could be achieved with an increased dependence of SI. Since the decoder does not have any information about current WZ frame, the hash can be sent at the encoder as auxiliary information to assist SI generation [1, 2, 8, 14, 15, 20, 26, 30]. The common hash function is CRCs [26]. Both low frequency DCT coefficients and high frequency DCT coefficients are used for hash codes in [2] and [1]. Adaptive hash-based approach was proposed in [8] which selects different number of low frequency coefficients as the hash code for blocks of a frame to achieve optimal RD performance. Other information, such as the b most significant bit planes that are entropy coded [14, 30] and a down-sampled WZ frame that is intra coded [15], can be used as hash information. The detailed analyses of hash-based motion estimation were presented in [20]. Most experimental results show that hash-based methods benefit video with medium to high bitrates than that with low bitrates. This indicates that more hash code is required for better SI. Therefore, the performance of the hash-based DVC is enhanced at the cost of increased number of hash code and the complexity of encoding.

Quantization is another important technique employed at the encoder. In most of the existing DVC schemes, scalar quantization is often used due to its simplicity. Scalar quantization scheme does not take into account of the DCT coefficient distribution in a block or the characteristics of the video sequences, therefore it cannot achieve optimal coding performance. Adaptive quantization methods have been proposed in many DVC schemes [12, 28, 31, 33, 35]. Literature [35] first analyzed three types of adaptive quantization methods including frame level adaptive quantization [12], sub-band level adaptive quantization

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[28] and overall adaptive quantization [31], and then proposed a perception-based adaptive quantization scheme. The scheme is very complex because SI needs to be generated at the encoder and model of Perceptual Distortion Probability (PDP) is developed to estimate the perceptual distortion of SI and to derive the target perceptual distortion. Three components (i.e. quality of SI frame, perceptual features and RD optimization) are integrated with the estimated perceptual distortion of SI and target perceptual distortion to determine the optimal quantization matrix adaptively and iteratively. An optimal entropy-constrained non-uniform scalar quantizer was proposed for pixel domain DVC in [33] that is also complex. First, an estimation of the rate and distortion model based on the conditional probability density function is adopted at the encoder. Then, a rate-distortion optimization function is derived. A modified Lloyd-Max algorithm with a novel quantization partition updating algorithm is used to optimize the RD function. Experimental results in both literatures show that the proposed quantization schemes improve the RD performance, but it also increases the complexity of the encoder due to the heavy computational load and the complexity of the developed algorithms.

In addition to EBMD, hash and quantization schemes, there are other technologies employed at the encoder to improve the coding efficiency. Literature [6] proposed an interpolation side information algorithm that uses the SIFI algorithm at the encoder to obtain global motion vector. The proposed algorithm can improve the quality of SI effectively. However, due to the feature-point matching process at the encoder, the complexity of the encoder is increased significantly. Literature [23] proposed a DVC scheme based on the Human Visual System (HVS), in which any changes below the Just-Noticeable-Difference (JND) distortion threshold can hardly be perceived. In order to employ the JND model, a simple SI is generated at the encoder. Experimental results demonstrate that the proposed algorithm saves the bitrates significantly. The additional encoding complexity are mainly contributed by the generation of SI and the calculation of JND values.

The tradeoff between the RD performance and the encoder complexity is still a challenge in DVC. In order to improve the coding efficiency, and meanwhile to maintain a low complex encoder, a simple encoder scheme for DRVC has been proposed in this paper. Our main contributions include:

- (1) propose a Bit Plane Block Based (BPBB) method combined with Bit Plane Rearrangement (BPRA) to improve the dependency between source and SI, and meanwhile to reduce the amount of data to be channel encoded. In view of the principle of DVC, the compression efficiency comes from the correlation between source and SI, that is, high correlation results in high compression efficiency. In this paper, based on the analysis of the statistical distribution of residual pixel values, BPBB is proposed to divide each bit plane into non-overlapping 4×4 blocks and each block is classified as 0-Block or 1-Block according to a simple criterion. BPRA is proposed to remove the bits that are not required to be channel encoded.
- (2) present an iterative and 3-level dead-zone quantizer. The proposed quantizer has only 3 quantization levels and is very simple. In order to reduce the quantization errors and thus adjust quantization from coarse to fine, the quantized interval will be narrowed at each iteration. Another benefit of the iterative quantization is that the reconstructed frame at last iteration can be used as the refined SI for the current frame, and thereby this can improve the coding efficiency.

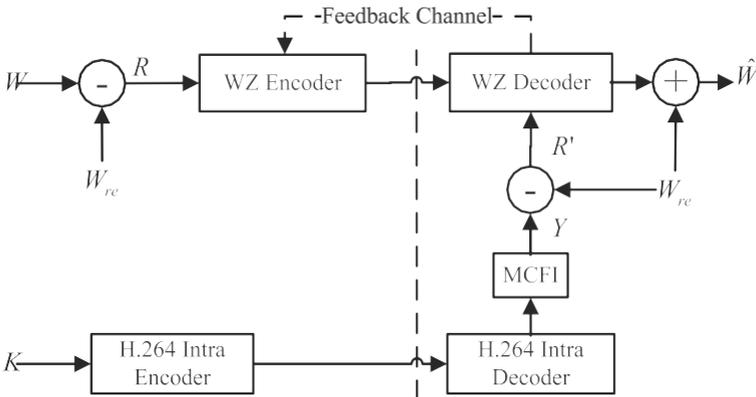
The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 introduces the related studies on DRVC. Section 3 presents the proposed simple encoder scheme for DRVC in

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2 details. In Section 4, experimental results are shown and discussed. Finally, we conclude
3 the paper in Section 5.

4 5 6 **2 Related work about DRVC**

7 The DVC architectures have been developed by researchers in Stanford University, which
8 mainly includes pixel-domain DVC (PDDVC) [4], transform-domain DVC (TDDVC) [3],
9 and distributed residual video coding (DRVC) [5]. This paper focuses on DRVC, which
10 compresses residual frames by PDDVC codec Fig. 1 illustrates the basic architecture of
11 DRVC. At the encoder, a video sequence is divided into key frames K and WZ frames W .
12 For key frames K , the H.264/AVC intra-encoding and decoding are implemented. For WZ
13 frames W , residual frames $R = W - W_{re}$ are obtained and Wyner-Ziv encoded, where
14 W_{re} is a simple estimation to W and is accessible at both encoder and decoder side. After
15 encoding, the parity bits are stored in the buffer and transmitted to the decoder upon the
16 request. At the decoder, a more accurate estimation to W , donated as Y , is generated from
17 previously decoded key frames by motion compensated frame interpolation (MCFI) [7].
18 $R^1 = Y - W_{re}$ is Wyner-Ziv decoded as the decoder SI for R . Finally, the reconstruction
19 $\hat{W} = W_{re} + \hat{R}$ is achieved.

20 In [5], DRVC has been proved that it has the same performance as the TDDVC due to
21 the exploitation of temporal correlation, and it also has less complex than TDDVC because
22 of no DCT transformation. In our previous work [18, 19], we proposed an efficient Encoder
23 Rate Control (ERC) solution and a novel EBMD for DRVC. The proposed EBMD only
24 depends on the values of residual pixels without measurement of block difference, compression
25 rate or distortion function used in the existing EBMD. The proposed ERC is at frame
26 level instead of bit plane level, resulting in fewer computational load and lower latency. The
27 simulation results show that our scheme outperforms DISCOVER and the state-of-the-art
28 ERC solution for video sequences with low motion, and has competitive RD performance
29 for other video sequences. Literature [10] presented two types of DRVC based system.
30 The first one is DRVC based on low-quality reference (LQR) hash, in which the decoded
31 LQR hash is used as W_{re} and the residual R is decomposed by Discrete Wavelet Transform
32 (DWT) followed by SW-SPIHT (Slepian-Wolf Set Partitioning In Hierarchical Trees)
33 coding. The experimental results show this scheme achieves better RD performance than
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35 **Fig. 1** Basic architecture of DRVC

the existing schemes due to use of the residual coding and the efficient LQR hash-based motion compensation. The other one is DRVC combined with the SW-SPIHT coding and the intra mode decision technique, in which the reference frame W_{re} is obtained by the weighted average interpolation of the previous and next decoded key frames. The residual R is decomposed by DWT, and the resulting coefficients are classified to different modes. The experimental results show this hybrid DVC obtains up to 3 dB improvement for Hall Monitor sequence and up to 0.9 dB improvement for Foreman when compared with DISCOVER. However, the DRVC based systems in [10] still have high complexity at the encoder due to the considerable computational loads of DWT, LQR hash, SW-SPIHT and mode decision.

3 Proposed DRVC scheme

3.1 Architecture of the proposed scheme

In this section, the proposed DRVC scheme is described in Fig. 2. It has the following new features when compared to the basic DRVC described in Section 2.

- 1) At the encoder, a dead-zone quantizer with 3 levels is used to quantize residual frame R . The quantization process can be applied iteratively if high quality frames are required.
- 2) Two bit planes denoted as BP_1 and BP_2 are extracted from the quantized indexes that are binary presented.
- 3) A bit plane block based (BPBB) method is proposed to divide each bit plane into a number of 4 blocks and the blocks are classified as 0-Block or 1-Block. Two bit planes, which include the block information and are denoted as BP_1^{block} and BP_2^{block} respectively, are fed into LDPCA encoder.
- 4) A bit plane re-arrangement (BPRA) scheme is proposed to remove the bits that are not required to be channel encoded. The re-arranged bit planes denoted as BP_1^{ra} and BP_2^{ra} respectively are fed into LDPCA encoder.

The LDPCA encoder in 3) is the same as that in 4), and only one LDPCA encoder is required at the encoder. But for sake of clarification, two LDPCA encoders are presented in Fig. 2.

- 5) At the decoder, R^1 is processed in the same way as R at the encoder and the bit planes are decoded one by one. The decoded BP_1^{block} and BP_2^{block} are used to refine decoder SI, so a simple bit plane refinement (BP refine) is proposed. After LDPCA decoding,

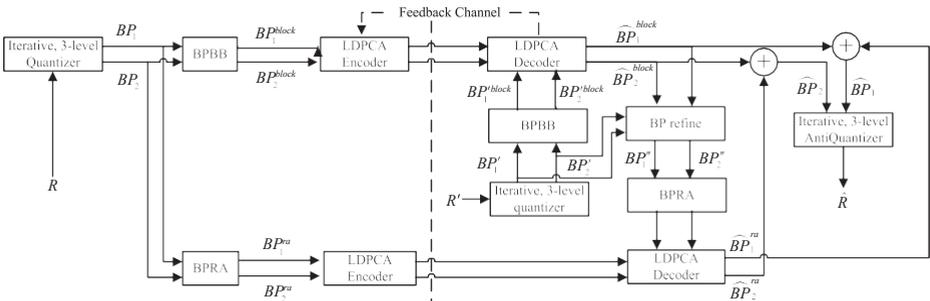


Fig. 2 Proposed DRVC architecture

the decoded $BP_i^{block}(i = 1, 2)$ and $BP_i^{ra}(i = 1, 2)$ denoted as \hat{BP}_i^{block} and \hat{BP}_i^{ra} respectively, are combined to obtain the decoded $BP_i(i = 1, 2)$, namely \hat{BP}_i . Finally, the inverse quantization [29] is implemented to reconstruct the residual frames \hat{R} .

3.2 Analysis of the distribution of residual pixels

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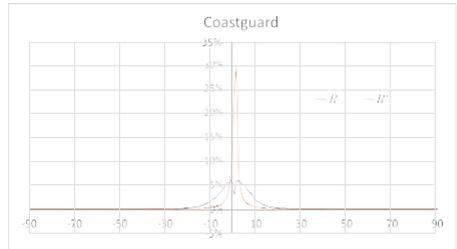
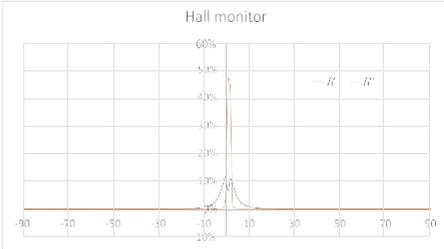
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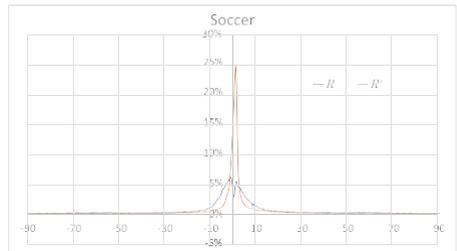
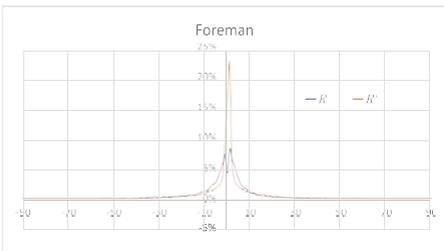
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The motivation of the proposed DRVC framework is based on the analysis of the statistical distribution of residual pixels in R and R' frames. Figure 3 illustrates the probability distribution curves of residual pixels in some of R and R' frames extracted from Hall Monitor, Foreman, Coastguard, and Soccer video sequences. It can be seen that both curves are steep around 0, indicating that most of the residual pixels have small magnitudes. Furthermore, the distribution curve of residual pixels in R' is sharper than that in R , that is, R' has more residual pixels concentrated on 0. This is because R' can be regarded as the motion-compensated errors from (1), (2) and (3). Equation (1) is used to calculate W_{re} , which is the average interpolation of the previous and next decoded key frames (namely \hat{K}_{pre} and \hat{K}_{nex}). Equation (2) is used to calculate Y where $mv = (mv_x, mv_y)$ is the estimated motion vector. Equation (3) is used to calculate R' . From the three equations, (4) is derived to denote R' , where $\hat{K}_{pre}(x + mv_x, y + mv_y) - \hat{K}_{pre}(x, y)$ and $\hat{K}_{nex}(x - mv_x, y - mv_y) - \hat{K}_{nex}(x, y)$ are called motion-compensated error of the previous and next decoded key frame respectively. Since there is little change of background and foreground information between one frame and its compensated reference frame, the motion-compensated errors tend to be small. This results in that the majority of the cases are $R' = Y - W_{re} \approx 0$.

Based on the statistical distributions of residual pixels analyzed above, the key techniques in the proposed DRVC scheme are designed and detailed in Sections 3.3, 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6.



(a) the 8th R and R' of Hall monitor (b) the 3th R and R' of Coastguard



(c) the 4th R and R' of Foreman (d) the 8th R and R' of Soccer

Fig. 3 Probability distribution curves of residual pixels in some of R and R'

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For simplification, the probability distribution of residual pixels in R and R^l are denoted as the distribution of R and R^l respectively.

$$W_{re} = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{K}_{pre}(x, y) + \hat{K}_{nex}(x, y)) \quad (1)$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{2}[\hat{K}_{pre}(x + mv_x, y + mv_y) + \hat{K}_{nex}(x - mv_x, y - mv_y)] \quad (2)$$

$$R^l = \frac{1}{2}[\hat{K}_{pre}(x + mv_x, y + mv_y) + \hat{K}_{nex}(x - mv_x, y - mv_y)] - W_{re} \quad (3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(\hat{K}_{pre}(x, y) + \hat{K}_{nex}(x, y)) - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{K}_{pre}(x + mv_x, y + mv_y) + \hat{K}_{nex}(x - mv_x, y - mv_y)) + [\hat{K}_{pre}(x + mv_x, y + mv_y) - \hat{K}_{pre}(x, y)] + [\hat{K}_{nex}(x - mv_x, y - mv_y) - \hat{K}_{nex}(x, y)] \quad (4)$$

3.3 Iterative, 3-level quantizer

Quantization has a significant impact on the coding performance of DRVC because it is performed on the original residual pixel values directly. If the distributions of R and R^l in one quantization partition mismatch too much, the bit error probability between R and R^l will be large and more parity bits will be used. Therefore, coarse quantization can save bitrates. This is why a 3-level quantizer is proposed. Since the values of residual pixels range from -255 to 255, a dead zone quantizer is used and the quantization partition bin is designed as $[-255 \quad -l \quad l \quad 255]$. Comparing the distribution curves of R and R^l in Fig. 3, it can be expected that the larger the quantized interval $2l$ is, the less the mismatches between R and R^l are. Thus, more parity bits can be saved. Although coarse quantization saves bitrates, it leads to an increase of distortions in reconstructed frames. In order to obtain high quality frames, the quantization process can work iteratively. The quantized interval $2l$ is narrowed down at each iteration to help with the quantization from coarse to fine. Furthermore, the reconstructed frame at last iteration can be used as the refined SI for the current frame, and thereby this can improve the coding efficiency.

3.4 Bit plane block based (BPBB) module

Given that the quantization partition bin $[-255 \quad -l \quad l \quad 255]$ and the corresponding quantized indexes are binary presented by 10, 00 and 01 respectively, two bit planes denoted as BP_1 and BP_2 are extracted. The proposed BPBB module divides each bit plane into non-overlapping 4×4 blocks and each block is classified as 0-Block or 1-Block according to a simple criterion, that is, a block that has 16 bits of 0 is 0-Block and otherwise it is defined as 1-Block. There are only two types of blocks so only one bit is used to encode 0-Block as 0 and 1-Block as 1. Then two new bit planes, BP_1^{block} and BP_2^{block} that indicate the block type information, are obtained and fed into LDPCA encoder. An explicit description of the BPBB process is demonstrated in Fig. 4b.

3.5 Bit plane re-arrangement (BPRA) module

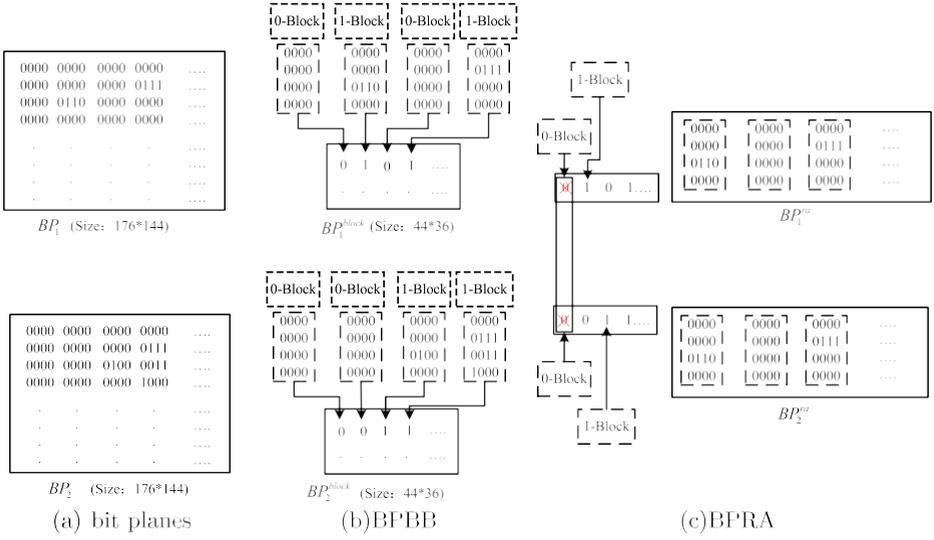
After BPBB process, there are four types of combinations for blocks in BP_1 and their co-located blocks in BP_2 , that is, (0-Block, 0-Block), (0-Block, 1-Block), (1-Block, 0-Block)

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Fig. 4 Process of BPBB and BPRA

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and (1-Block,1-Block). The BPRA module is designed to remove the bits belonging to the combination of (0-Block, 0-Block) in both BP_1 and BP_2 . These bits of 0 do not need to be channel encoded and transmitted. This is because the block information will be known at the decoder side after BP_1^{block} and BP_2^{block} are decoded correctly, and the removed bits in (0-Block, 0-Block) can be recovered by 0s. After BPRA, the re-arranged bit planes, namely BP_1^{ra} and BP_2^{ra} , are fed into LDPCA encoder. The process of the BPRA is shown in Fig. 4c.

3.6 BP refinement

When BP_1^{block} and BP_2^{block} are decoded correctly, the block information is known at the decoder. Using 0-blocks in BP_1^{block} and BP_2^{block} can help refining BP_1^1 and BP_2^1 , which are the bit planes extracted from R^1 . If one block is 0-Block, its corresponding 16 bits in BP_1^1 or BP_2^1 can be corrected by 0s. Then the refined BP_1^1 and BP_2^1 , denoted as $BP_1^{1|}$ and $BP_2^{1|}$ are used to help decoding BP_1^{ra} and BP_2^{ra} respectively.

4 Experiments and analyses

In order to evaluate the performance of the proposed DRVC scheme, an extensive simulation has been carried out on four test video sequences, namely Hall Monitor, Foreman, Coastguard, and Soccer with QCIF resolution and the frame rate of 15Hz (i.e., 149 frames for Soccer, Foreman, Coastguard respectively, and 165 frames for Hall Monitor). The GOP of 2 is used which is mostly adopted in literatures. Odd frames are KEY frames encoded by H.264/AVC Intra mode with QP parameter equal to 20, 25, 27, 29, 30, and 34 respectively. Even frames are WZ frames used to obtain residual frames. The value of parameter l and the number of iterations of the 3-level dead-zone quantizer are selected so that the average

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Table 1 Conditional probability matrix between BP_1 and BP_1^1

	y	0	1
x			
0		0.9999	0.0769
1		0.0001	0.9231

quality of WZ frames is similar to that of Key frames. For lower frame quality, the quantization is implemented once and l is chosen as 96. For higher frame quality, the quantization is implemented twice and the corresponding values of l are 96 and 64 respectively. The thresholds of 96 and 64 are obtained empirically. For LDPCA codec [21], LDPCA with 396 nodes is adopted in the proposed work. In the case of the bitstream length less than 396, the padding zeros are applied.

4.1 Efficiency of BPBB

The compression efficiency of DVC depends on the correlation between source and SI strongly. The higher the correlation is, the lower the compressed bitrates are. The proposed DRVC scheme is based on the bit plane level and the bit plane correlation between source and SI can be measured by the binary conditional probability $P(X|Y)$. X and Y are binary source and there are four cases of the conditional probabilities, namely $P(X=0|Y=0)$, $P(X=1|Y=0)$, $P(X=0|Y=1)$ and $P(X=1|Y=1)$. The sum of $P(X=0|Y=0)$ and $P(X=1|Y=1)$, denoted as SoP, is used to measure the correlation between the bit plane at the encoder and the bit plane at the decoder. The bigger the sum is, the higher the dependency is. For example, Table 1 shows a matrix of $P(X|Y)$ that are the binary conditional probabilities between BP_1 and BP_1^1 . Table 2 shows another matrix of $P(X|Y)$ that are the binary conditional probabilities between BP_2 and BP_2^1 . The SoPs in Tables 1 and 2 are 1.923 (0.9999+0.9231) and 1.8887 (0.9998+0.8889), respectively. It clearly demonstrates that the correlation between BP_1 and BP_1^1 is better than that between BP_2 and BP_2^1 , and therefore the number of bits sent for decoding BP_1 is less than that for decoding BP_2 .

The proposed BPBB method can improve the dependency between source and SI. In order to test the hypothesis, the correlations between BP_i ($i = 1, 2$) and BP_i^1 ($i = 1, 2$) and the correlations between BP_i^{block} ($i = 1, 2$) and BP_i^{block} ($i = 1, 2$) of all the residual frames for four test video sequences are calculated. These are the correlations before and after using BPBB. Figure 5 illustrates the comparisons of these SoPs. Since the quantization can be applied up to twice depending on the frame quality, the comparisons of SoPs with different values of l are presented. It is clear that most points are above the diagonal line regardless of the values of l , indicating that the correlation between BP_i^{block} ($i = 1, 2$) and BP_i^{block} ($i = 1, 2$) are commonly higher than that between BP_i ($i = 1, 2$) and BP_i^1 ($i = 1, 2$). Figure 5 demonstrates that the dependency between source and SI have been improved by using BPBB method. Furthermore, the size of BP_i^{block} ($i = 1, 2$) is only one sixteenth of the size of BP_i ($i = 1, 2$). Due to the increase of the correlation and the

Table 2 Conditional probability matrix between BP_2 and BP_2^1

	y	0	1
x			
0		0.9998	0.1111
1		0.0002	0.8889

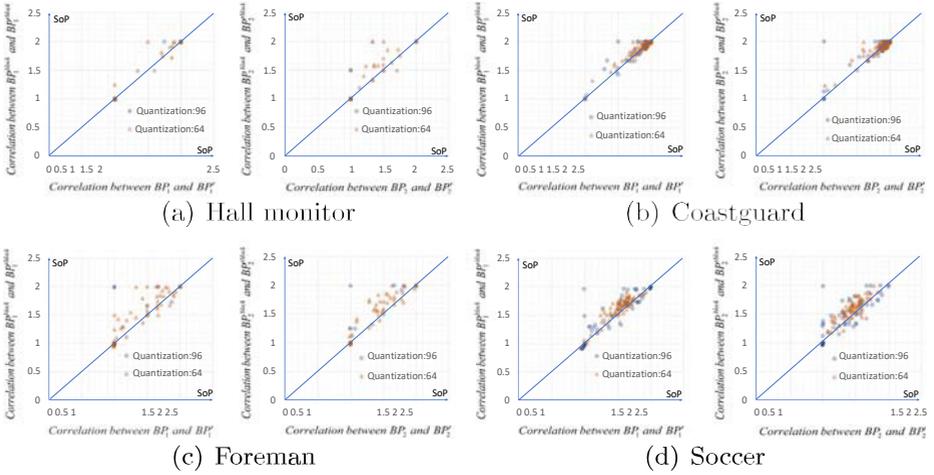


Fig. 5 Comparisons of SoPs for video sequences with different values of l

decrease of the size, it can be predicted that the bitrates send for decoding BP_i^{block} will be reduced significantly, This demonstrates that the proposed BPBB is very effective in bitrates reduction. In addition, Fig. 5 also reveals that the efficiency of BPBB correlates to the numbers of the points which are under the diagonal line. The larger the number of the points under the diagonal line is, the lower the efficiency is. Among the four videos, the efficiency of BPBB for Hall Monitor is the highest while that for Soccer is the lowest. This is because Hall Monitor is a low motion sequence and has many 0-Blocks at both encoder and decoder sides after using BPBB, and vice versa for Soccer sequence.

4.2 Efficiency of BPRA

As described in Section 3, BPRA is used to remove the bits of (0-Block, 0-Block) combination in both BP_1 and BP_2 and thus to reduce the amount of data to be channel encoded. The percentage of the removed bits is calculated by using (5).

$$Rduce = \frac{[Number\ of\ (0 - Block, 0 - Block)] \times 16}{176 \times 144} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

Figure 6 shows the average reducing percentages of all R for Hall monitor, Coastguard, Foreman and Soccer with different values of l . It can be seen that the percentages range from 85% to nearly 100%. This indicates that a great number of bits have been saved, and therefore the BPBA scheme is effective. Furthermore, the percentages of the removed bits with $l=64$ are less than that with $l=96$. It is because the number of 0-Blocks at the encoder with $l=64$ is less than that with $l=96$, the details of which are analyzed in Section 4.4.

4.3 Efficiency of BP refinement

0-Blocks are obtained from the decoded $BP_i^{block}(i = 1, 2)$ and then are used to refine $BP_i^j(i = 1, 2)$ at the decoder by setting the corresponding 16 bits with 0s. In order to evaluate the efficiency of the BP refinement, the relative improvement ratio of the bit error probability of each bit plane is defined by (6) where ρ_i^j and $\rho_i^{j||}$ are the bit error probability

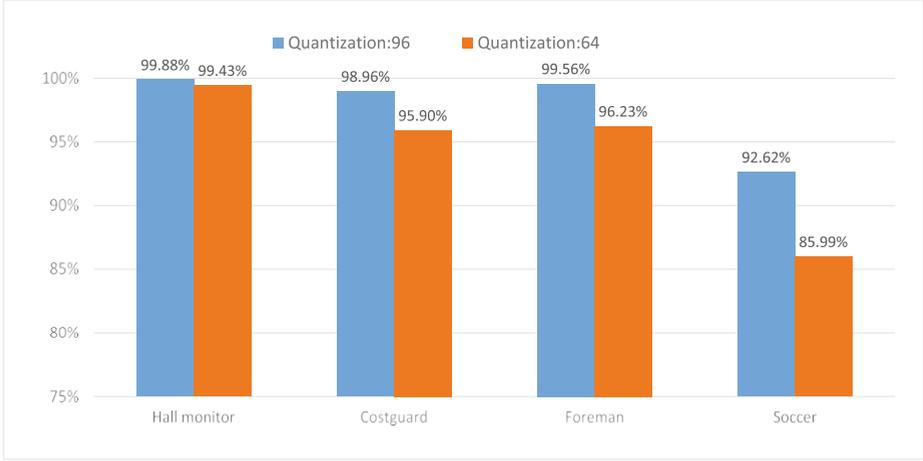


Fig. 6 Average reducing percentages for video sequences with different values of l

of the i^{th} ($i = 1, 2$) bit plane before and after using BP refinement. ρ_i^I and ρ_i^{II} are obtained by (7) and (8) respectively, where $b_{i,j}$, $b_{i,j}^I$ and $b_{i,j}^{II}$ ($i = 1, 2; j = 1 \cdots 176 \times 144$) denote the binary bits in BP_i , BP_i^I , BP_i^{II} respectively and the symbol \oplus denotes the binary XOR operator.

$$\rho_i = \frac{\rho_i^I - \rho_i^{II}}{\rho_i^I} \times 100\% \quad (6)$$

$$\rho_i^I = \frac{(b_{i,j} \oplus b_{i,j}^I)}{176 \times 144} \times 100\% \quad (7)$$

$$\rho_i^{II} = \frac{(b_{i,j} \oplus b_{i,j}^{II})}{176 \times 144} \times 100\% \quad (8)$$

Figure 7 shows the average ρ_i of all the residual frames for Hall monitor, Coastguard, Foreman and Soccer. It can be seen that the maximum ratio is only 12% and the efficiency is not significant. That is because the principle of BP refinement is using the 0-Blocks at encoder to rectify the co-located 1-Block at decoder. As analyzed in Section 4.4, the number of 1-Blocks at the decoder is relatively low, and the number of 1-Blocks that need to be corrected is lower. Therefore, the refinement is limited.

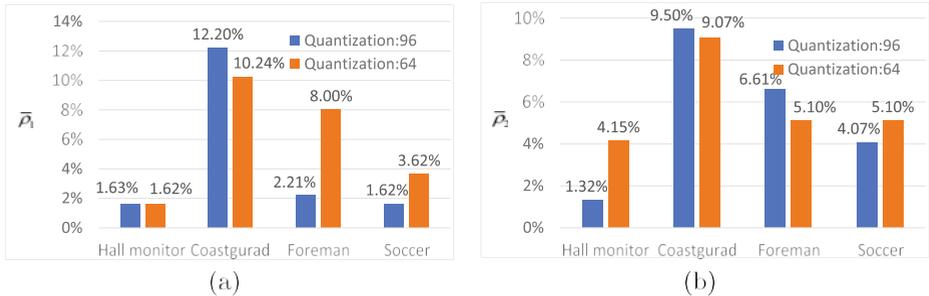


Fig. 7 Relative improving ratio of the bit error probability of **a** the first plane **b** the second plane

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4.4 Analysis of the iterative quantization

In this work, the quantization process is carried out iteratively according to the reconstructed frame quality. For the low frame quality, the quantization is applied once and the corresponding l is 96. For the high frame quality, the quantization is applied twice and the according values of l are 96 and 64 for the first and second iteration respectively. Since the residual pixels within the interval $(-l)$ are encoded as 00, it can be drawn that more 0-Blocks are obtained at both sides if more residual pixels fall into this interval after quantization and BPBB, and there are certainly more 0-Blocks for $l=96$ than that for $l=64$. Furthermore, based on the specific distribution of R and R^l in Fig. 3, it is clear that R^l has more 0-Blocks than R . This is because more residual pixels in R^l are concentrated around 0, indicating more residual pixels falling into the interval $(-l)$. Figure 8 shows the average percentages of 0-Blocks in R and that in R^l for the four videos sequences with different value of l , which demonstrates the above analyses. From Fig. 8, the highest percentage is up to 100% for Hall Monitor and the lowest percentage is 92.51% for Soccer.

As discussed in Section 3.3, if the distribution of R and R^l in one quantization partition mismatch too much, the correlation between source and SI is weak and the coding efficiency is low. With respect to the proposed scheme, since the 0-Blocks are in majority at both encoder and decoder sides, the mismatches in one quantization partition can be treated as the difference of the number of 0-Blocks at both sides. The bigger the difference is, the weaker the correlation between the source and SI is. Figure 8 shows that the difference becomes bigger when l changes from 96 to 64 for all four test sequences and thus the correlation becomes weaker. For example, for Soccer sequence the difference of the number of 0-Blocks at both sides changes from 2.29% (99.76%-97.47%) to 3.83% (96.34%-92.51%) when l changes from 96 to 64. Therefore, it can be concluded that reducing l can help with quantization from coarse to fine but will reduce the efficiency of the proposed scheme at the same time.

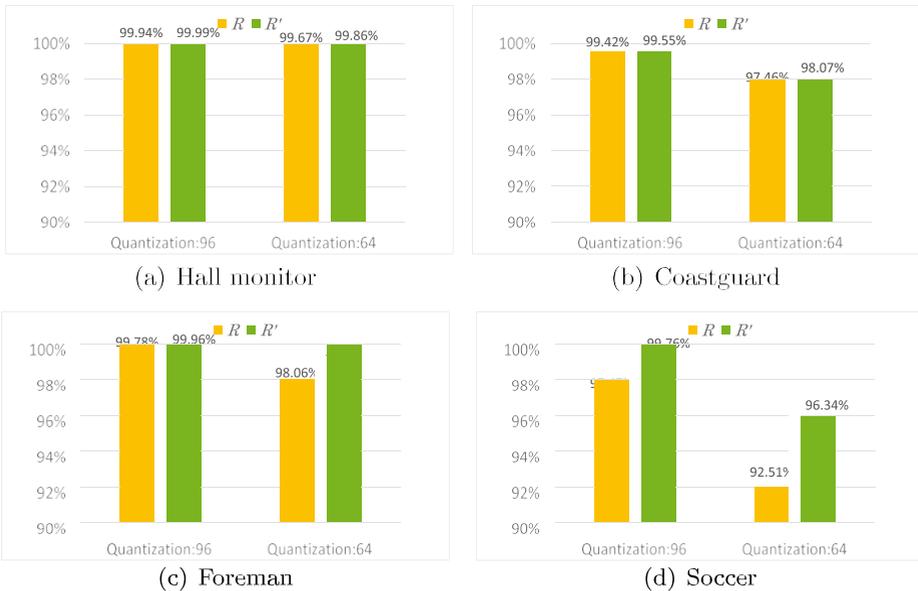


Fig. 8 Average percentages of 0-Blocks in R and R^l for video sequences with different values of l

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4.5 RD performance

Figure 9 compares RD performance of the proposed DRVC scheme, DISCOVER and our previous work [19]. Only luminance component is considered in the calculation of the RD performance. DISCOVER has become a benchmark for DVC research due to its good performance. The simulation results of DISCOVER are obtained from [16]. Our previous work [19] proposed a relatively simple encoder, which outperforms other DRVC systems in terms of encoder complexity [19].

l) Comparison with DISCOVER. From Fig. 9, it can be seen that the proposed DRVC scheme performs better than DISCOVER for Hall Monitor and Coastguard, and obtains up to 1.5dB gains for Hall Monitor sequence. Figure 9 also shows RD performance gap for Foreman at high bitrate and Soccer at all bitrate range. This is because the coding efficiency of the proposed scheme is based on the difference of the number of 0-Blocks at both encoder and decoder sides. For Hall Monitor, as shown in Fig. 8, the differences are 0.05% ($l=96$) and 0.19% ($l=64$), the lowest differences among all the test sequences. Thereby the efficiency of BPBB and BPAR for Hall Monitor are the highest, which can be seen from Figs. 5 and 6. Soccer has the most complex motion in all test sequences, and the differences are 2.29% ($l=96$) and 3.83% ($l=64$), the highest among all test sequences. Thereby, the efficiency of BPBB and BPAR for Soccer is the lowest. The differences for Coastguard (0.18% and 0.59%) are smaller than that for Foreman (0.18% and 1.3%), so the performance of Coastguard is better than that of Foreman. With regard to the encoder complexity, DISCOVER is higher than the proposed work. DISCOVER has introduced DCT and several new modules at the encoder to enhance the overall performance, such as the adaptive GOP selection using a hierarchical clustering algorithm, the encoder rate-control mechanisms computing the minimum rate

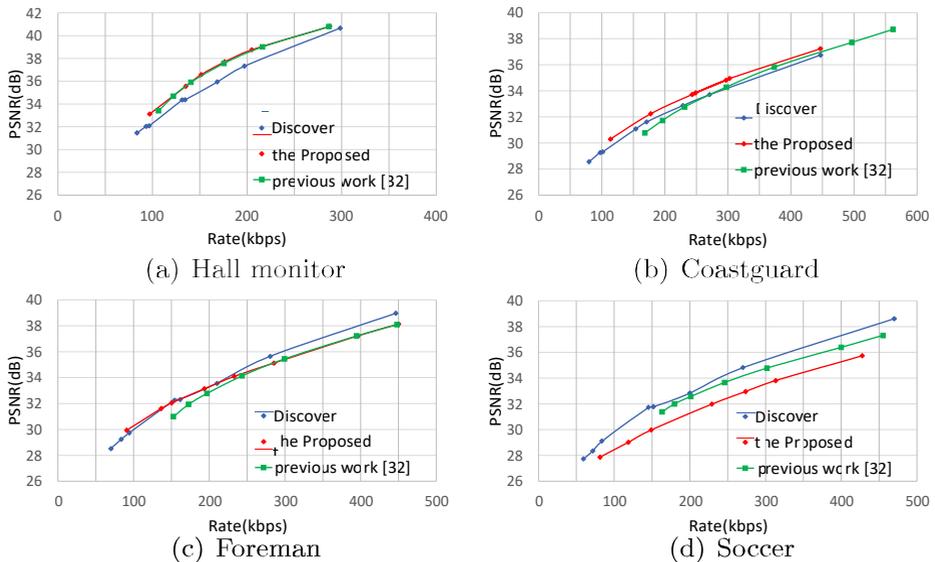


Fig. 9 RD performance of video sequences

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2 for each bit plane of each coefficient band, and the CRC sum of the encoded bit plane.
3 While in the proposed DRVC scheme, only two simple modules named BPBB and
4 BPRA are employed at encoder and there are no heavy computations and complex pro-
5 cess. Furthermore, the proposed DRVC scheme performs well for sequences with low
6 motion, which is well suitable for wireless video surveillance applications where typical
7 video contents have low motion scenes.

- 8 2) Comparison with our previous work [19]. In order to improve the coding efficiency,
9 we presented an efficient encoder rate control solution combined with an encoder
10 block mode decision for DRVC in [19]. The results in [19] show our previous work
11 outperforms DISCOVER and the state-of-the-art rate control solution in terms of RD
12 performance for video sequences with low motion. It also has competitive RD perfor-
13 mance for other types of video sequences. From Fig. 9, the proposed DRVC scheme is
14 better than [19] for Coastguard, similar to [19] for Hall Monitor and better than [19]
15 at low bitrates for Forman. It can be concluded that the proposed work provides a RD
16 performance quite close to [19] except for Soccer. In [19], there are three modules at
17 the encoder side, that is, block mode decision module, scrambling module and rate con-
18 trol module. While the proposed DRVC scheme has two simple modules, BPBB and
19 BPRA, at the encoder. [19] requires low level of computations while the computational
20 requirement in the proposed DRVC scheme is negligible.

23 5 Conclusion

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25 Low complexity encoder is most widely cited advantage of DVC. In order to improve the
26 coding efficiency while maintaining a low complex encoder, a simple encoder scheme for
27 DRVC system is proposed in this paper. There are two modules employed at the encoder.
28 One is BPBB that divides each bit plane into blocks and defined them as 0-Blocks or 1-
29 Blocks according to a simple criterion. The other is BPRA that removes bits of the (0-Block,
30 0-Block) combination. The coding efficiency of the proposed scheme is enhanced based on
31 the dependency improved by BPBB and the amount of data reduced by BPRA. In addition,
32 there is a 3-level quantizer that is implemented at encoder iteratively. If high quality frame is
33 required, the quantized interval is narrowed down and the quantization process repeats. The
34 preceding analyses and experimental results show that there are no heavy computations and
35 complex process at the encoder. The RD performance of the proposed scheme outperforms
36 that of DISCOVER for low to medium motion video sequences, and it is also similar to our
37 previous work [19] except for the sequences with highly irregular motion.

38
39 **Acknowledgment** The research activities that have been described in this paper were funded by China
40 Scholarship Council (CSC NO. 201708440523) and National Natural Science Foundation of China(NSFC
41 NO. 51978271).

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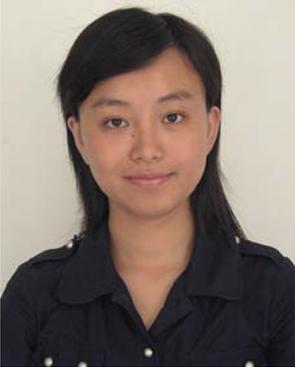
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