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# Introduction

Current and future visual communications for applications such as

- broadcasting
- storage
- videotelephony
- video- and audiographic-conferencing
- news gathering services
- interactive multimedia (information, training, entertainment) services assume a substantial audio component.
- Even text, graphics, fax, still images, email documents, etc. will gain from voice annotation and audio clips.

## **Motivations**

- Main motivations for low bit rate coding:
  - need to minimize transmission costs or provide cost efficient storage
  - demand to transmit over channels of limited capacity such as mobile radio channels
  - need to support variable-rate coding in packet-oriented networks
  - need to share capacity for different services (voice, audio, data, graphics, images) in integrated service network

# PCM Audio Data Rate and Data Size

Quality	Sampling Rate (KHz)	Bits per Sample	Data Rate Kbits/s Kbytes/s	Data Size in 1 minute 1 hour
Telephone	8	8 (Mono)	64Kbps 8	480KB 28.8MB
AM Radio	11.025	8 (Mono)	88.2Kbps 11.0	660KB 39.6MB
FM Radio	22.050	16 (Stereo)	705.6Kbps 88.2	5.3MB 317.5MB
CD	44.1	16 (Stereo)	1.41Mbps 176.4	10.6MB 635MB

Conclusion  $\rightarrow$  need advanced coding for compressing sound data

#### **Basic requirements**

- High quality of the reconstructed signal with robustness
  - to variations in spectra and levels
  - random and bursty channel bit errors
- Low complexity and power consumption of the codecs
  - more constraints on decoders than on encoders
- Additional network-related requirements:
  - Iow encoder/decoder delays
  - robust tandeming of codecs, transcodability
  - a graceful degradation of quality with increasing bit error rates (mobile radio and broadcast applications)
- Coded bit streams must allow
  - editing, fading, mixing, and dynamic range compression
- Synchronization between audio and video bitstreams

## Wideband audio vs. Speech

- First proposals to reduce wideband audio coding rates have followed those for speech coding
- Speech and audio are still quite different and audio has
  - higher sampling rate
  - better amplitude resolution
  - higher dynamic range
  - Iarger variations in power density spectra
  - differences in human perception
  - higher listener expectation of quality
  - stereo and multichannel audio signal presentations
- Speech can be coded very efficiently because a speech production model is available
  - nothing similar exists for audio signals.

# Evolution of audio coding

- Rapid progress in source coding
  - linear prediction
  - subband coding
  - transform coding
  - vector quantization
  - entropy coding
- Currently good coding quality can obtained with bit rates of
  - 1 bit/sample for speech
  - 2 bits/sample for audio
- Expectations over the next decade
  - ▶ 0.5 bit/sample for speech
  - 1 bits/sample for audio

## Quality measures – 1

- Digital representations of analog waveforms cause some kind of distortion which can be specified
  - by subjective criteria as mean opinion score (MOS) as a measure of perceptual similarity
  - by simple objective criteria (i.e. SNR) as a measure of waveform similarity between source and reconstructed signal
  - by objective measures of perceptual similarity which take into account facts about human auditory perception.
- Mean opinion score (MOS)
  - subjects classify the quality of coders on an N-point quality scale
  - the final result is an averaged judgment called MOS
  - two five-point adjectival grading scales are in use, one for signal quality, and the other one for signal impairment, and an associated numbering

# Quality measures – 2

- MOS advantages
  - different impairment factors can be assessed simultaneously
  - even small impairments can be graded
- MOS disadvantages
  - MOS value vary with time and listener panel to listener panel
  - difficult to duplicate test results at a different test site
  - in the case of audio signals, MOS values depend strongly on the selected test items
- ISO/MPEG tests
  - three signals A,B,C; A is unprocessed source, B and C are the reference and the system under test
  - the selection B/C is double blind
  - subjects have to decide if B or C is the reference and have to grade the remaining one



Perception





### **Perception : Fourier analysis**

Fourier analysis is a useful tool for sound processing

phase information is not as perceptually important as amplitude





- The power spectra are not presented on a linear frequency scale but on limited frequency bands called *critical bands*.
  - Rough description as a filterbank of bandpass filters with bandwidths that increase with the center frequency.



CRITICAL BAND BOUNDARIES

### Perception : Critical bands – 2

- Strong perceptual interference between frequencies in the same critical bands
  - Explanation: it looks that critical bands are related to sections of the acoustic nerve
- The scale related to critical bands is called **bark scale**
- Bandwidth of about 100 Hz below ~500 Hz
- Bandwith increase of about 20% above ~500 Hz

band	center	bounds
1	50	-100
2	150	100-200
3	250	200-300
7	700	630-770
11	1370	1270-1480
15	2500	2320-2700
19	4800	4400-5300
20	5800	5300-6400
25	19500	15500-

### Perception : Hearing limitations – 1

- Frequencies < 16-20 Hz and > 16-20 kHz are not perceived
- Amplitudes below a given threshold are not perceived
  - the threshold depends on the frequency



### Perception : Hearing limitations – 2

Perceived intensity depends also on frequency

dynamic range (quitest to loudest) is about 100 dB



# Perception : Masking – 1

Simultaneous masking is a frequency domain phenomenon where a low-level signal (the maskee) can be made inaudible by a simultaneously occurring stronger signal (the masker)

masker and maskee should have close enough frequencies

- The masking threshold, in the context of source coding also known as threshold of just noticeable distortion (JND), varies with time. It depeds on
  - ▶ the sound pressure level (SPL),
  - ▶ the frequency of masker,
  - the characteristics of masker and maskee
- Without masker, a signal is inaudible if its sound pressure level is below the *threshold of audibility* anyway
- The distance between the level of the masker and the masking threshold is called *signal-to-mask ratio* (SMR).

## Perception : Masking – 2





- Different masking effects appear when masking and maskee are tones or noise
  - tone masking noise => strong
  - noise masking tone => weak
- Simultaneous masking changes with frequency



### Perception : Masking – 4

- Masking effect is strictly related to the presence of critical bands
  - a weak stimulus is not perceived when a strong one excites the same perceptors
- almost constant in bark scale







## **Perception : Temporal masking**

- Temporal masking may occur when two sounds appear within a small interval of time.
  - a stronger sound may mask the weaker one, even if the maskee precedes the masker (pre- and post masking)





## **Perception : Source localization**

- Sound perception has some of limitations related to the source localization
  - stereo signals (or more)
- Low frequencies:
  - impossible to localize the audio source, mono is enough
- High frequencies:
  - Iocalization is based on amplitude envelope only
- In general, for stereo signals there may be
  - interchannel dependencies
  - interchannel masking effects
  - stereo-irrelevant components of the multichannel signal



**Fundamentals** 

### **Compression & Quantization**

#### How big is audio data? What is the bitrate?

- Fs frames/second (e.g. 8000 or 44100)
   xC samples/frame (e.g. 1 or 2 channels)
   xB bits/sample (e.g. 8 or 16)
- ►  $\rightarrow$  *Fs* ·*C*·*B* bits/second (e.g. 64 Kbps or 1.4 Mbps)

#### How to reduce?

- lower sampling rate  $\rightarrow$  less bandwidth (muffled)
- ► lower channel count → no stereo image
- ► lower sample size → quantization noise
- Or: use data compression



## Data compression: Redundancy vs. Irrelevance

- Two main principles in compression:
  - remove redundant information
  - remove irrelevant information
- Redundant info is implicit in remainder
  - e.g. signal bandlimited to 20kHz, but sample at 80kHz
  - $\blacktriangleright$   $\rightarrow$  can recover every other sample by interpolation:
- Irrelevant info is unique but unnecessary
  - e.g. recording a microphone signal at 80 kHz sampling rate



## Irrelevant data in audio coding

- For coding of audio signals, irrelevant means perceptually insignificant
  - ► an empirical property
- Compact Disc standard is adequate:
  - 44 kHz sampling for 20 kHz bandwidth
  - ▶ 16 bit linear samples for ~ 96 dB peak SNR
- Reflect limits of human sensitivity:
  - 20 kHz bandwidth, 100 dB intensity
  - sinusoid phase, detail of noise structure
  - dynamic properties hard to characterize
- Problem: separating salient & irrelevant

## Quantization

Represent waveform with discrete levels

Equivalent to adding error e[n]:

$$x[n] = Q[x[n]] + e[n]$$

e[n] ~ uncorrelated, uniform white noise





x(t) $x_{s}(t)$  $\hat{x}_{s}(t)$ 0,1,1,0,1,0,0,0 Uniform Symbol-to-bit Quantizer Sampler mapper  $\bigwedge x(t)$  $\bigwedge x_s(t)$  $\hat{x}_{s}(t)$ 2.0 1.8 1.0 1.0 0.9 0.3  $\hat{t}$  $\overline{t}$  $2T_s$   $3T_s$  $T_s$  $T_{s}$  $2T_s$  $3T_s$  $T_s 2T_s 3T_s t$  $\overline{t}$ 



### Quantization noise (Q-noise)

- Uncorrelated noise has flat spectrum
  - With a B bit word and a quantization step D
    - max signal range (x) =  $-(2^{B-1}) \cdot D .. (2^{B-1}-1) \cdot D$
    - quantization noise (e) = -D/2 ... D/2
    - → Best signal-to-noise ratio (power)

$$SNR = E[x^2]/E[e^2]$$
$$= (2^B)^2$$

.. or, in dB,  $20 \cdot \log_{10} 2 \cdot B \approx 6 \cdot B$  dB



# Non-Uniform Quantization

- Used to transmit in ISDN
  - 8 kHz, 8 bits: 64kbps
- Logarithmic quantization
  - dynamic range as 13/14 linear bits
  - 16 bits are compressed with a non linear technique in 8 bits samples

$$y = \begin{cases} 128 + \frac{127}{\ln(1+\mu)} \bullet \ln(1+\mu|x|), & x \ge 0\\ \\ 127 - \frac{127}{\ln(1+\mu)} \bullet \ln(1+\mu|x|), & x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

#### $\mu$ -law Compression – 1







Techniques

## Principles in low bit rate coding – 1

- Digital coding at high bit rates is dominantly waveform-preserving, i.e., the amplitude-versus-time waveform of the decoded signal approximates that of the input signal.
  - the basic error criterion of codec design is the difference signal between input and output waveform
- At lower bit rates, facts about the production and perception of audio signals have to be included in coder design.
  - the error criterion has to be in favor of an output signal that is useful to human receiver rather than favoring an output signal that follows and preserves the input waveform
- Basically, an efficient source coding algorithm will
  - remove redundant components of source signal by exploiting correlations between its samples
  - remove components which are irrelevant to the ear.

# Principles in low bit rate coding – 2

- The dependence of auditory perception on frequency and the perceptual tolerance of errors can directly influence encoder designs
  - noise-shaping techniques can shift coding noise to frequency bands where that noise is not of perceptual importance
  - the noise shifting must be dynamically adapted to the actual short-term spectrum in accordance with the signal-to-mask ratio
- the encoding process is controlled by the signal-to-mask ratio versus frequency curve from which the needed amplitude resolution in each critical band is derived
  - the bit allocation and rate in each critical band can be computed
- Given the bitrate for a complete masking distortion
  - the coding scheme will be perceptually transparent
  - the decoded signal is subjectively indistinguishable from a reference.

# Principles in low bit rate coding – 3

- if the necessary bit rate for a completely masking of distortions is not possible,
  - the global masking threshold serves as a weighting function for spectral error
  - the resulting error spectrum will have the shape of the global masking threshold
- we cannot go to limits of masking or just noticeable distortion because
  - postprocessing may (e.g. filtering in equalizers) demask the noise,
  - our current knowledge about auditory masking is very limited
     => safety margin needed

## Frequency domain coders

- The short-term spectral characteristics of the signal and the masking properties of the ear are exploited to reduce bitrate
  - Direct method for noise-shaping and suppression of frequency components that not need to be transmitted.
  - Source spectrum is split into frequency bands
  - Each frequency component is quantized separately => quantization noise associated with a particular band is contained within that band.
- The number of bits used to encode frequency components varies.
  - component being subjectively more important are quantized more finely, i.e. more bit allocated
- A dynamic bit allocation controlled by the spectral short-term envelope of the source signal is needed.
  - information transmitted to the decoder as side information

## Subband coding – 1

- The source signal is fed into an analysis filter bank consisting of M bandpass filters which are contiguous in frequency so that the set of subband signals can be recombined additively to produce the original signal or a close version thereof.
- Each filter output is critically decimated (i.e. sampled at twice the nominal bandwitdth) by a factor equal to *M*.
  - => an aggregate number of subband samples that equals that in the source signal
- Each decimated filter output is quantized separately.
- In the receiver, the sampling rate of each subband is increased to that of the source signal by filling in the appropriate number of zeros samples.
- Interpolated subband signals appear at the bandpass outputs of the synthesis filter bank.



- Quantize separately in different bands
  - quantization noise stay within band; gets masked



- Critical sampling: 1/M of spectrum per band
  - aliasing inevitable
  - Quadrature Mirror Filters: cancel with alias of adjacent bands



## Polyphase Filter Bank – 1

- Characteristics
  - Lossy (even without quantization)
  - ► Fairly simple with reasonable resolution
- What It Does:
  - Divides input signal into equal width sub-bands.
  - Sub-bands overlap a lot, introduces error for analyzing.
- MP3 Specific
  - Input signal size is 32 samples which produces 32 sub-bands.
  - Vital part of Layers 1,2,3
  - Examples of subband coding
    - ISO/MPEG Audio Coding, Layers I and II



$$s_t[i] = \sum_{k=0}^{63} \sum_{j=0}^{7} M[i][k] * (C[k+64j] * x[k+64j])$$

where:

```
i is the subband index and ranges from 0 to 31,

st[i] is the filter output sample for subband i at time t, where t is an integer multiple of 32 audio sample intervals,

C[n] is one of 512 coefficients of the analysis window defined in the standard,

x[n] is an audio input sample read from a 512 sample buffer, and

M[i][k] = \cos[\frac{(2*i+1)*(k-16)*\pi}{64}] are the analysis matrix coefficients.
```

# Pre-echoes – 1

Crucial part in frequency domain coding of audio signals is the appearance of *pre-echoes*.

for example, a silent period is followed be a percussive sound, such as from castanets or triangles, within the same coding block

=> comparably large instantaneous quantization errors=> pre-echoes can become distinctively audible, especially at low at low bit rates with comparably high error contributions

pre-echoes can be masked by the time domain effect of premasking if the time spread is of short length (in the order of a few milliseconds)

=> pre-echoes can be avoided by using blocks of short lengths. However, a larger percentage of the total bit rate is required for the transmission of side information if the blocks are too short.

a solution to this problem is to switch between block sizes of different lengths



# Transform coding

- A block of input samples is linearly transformed via a discrete transform into a set of transform coefficients.
- These coefficients are then quantized and transmitted in digital form to the decoder.
- In the decoder an inverse transform maps the signal back into the time domain.
- Typical transforms are the discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) or the discrete cosine transform (DCT), calculated via FFT, and modified versions thereof.
- Discrete transforms can be viewed as filter banks. The finite lengths of its bandpass impulse responses may be so-called block boundary effects.

=> State-of-the-art coders employ a *modified DCT* (MDCT) with overlapping analysis blocks which can essentially eliminate these effects.

# Modified Discrete Cosine Transform

- Characteristics
  - Iossless, when there is no quantization
  - complex with good resolution
  - optimized for audio
- What it does
  - divides output of PQF into 18 subbands per input subband

• 32 x 18 = 576 subbands

- attempt to correct some error from PQF's subband overlapping
- MDCT transform splits each subband sequence further in frequency content to achieve a high frequency resolution.
  - ► It is specific for MP3 (MPEG1 Layer III)

### **Discrete Cosine Transform**

DCT

$$C_k(n) = h(2M - 1 - n)\sqrt{\frac{2}{M}} \cos[\frac{\pi}{M}(k + k_0)(n + \frac{M + 1}{2})]$$

- Ck = impulse response
- h = low pass prototype filter
- M = num. of band
- k = the order of the filter
- h(n) is restricted to a rectangular window of length M

$$h_{dct}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ for } \frac{M}{2} \le n \le \frac{3M}{2} \\ 0 \text{ for otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Modified Discrete Cosine Transform

MDCT

h(n) has a longer length

$$h_{MDCT}(n) = \sin[\frac{\pi}{2M}(n+0.5)]$$
 for n = 0..2M - 1

Reduces the spectral leakage between channels by overlapping 50%

#### Hybrid (Subband/Transform) Coding

- Combinations of discrete transform and filter bank implementations
- Different frequency resolutions can be provided at different frequencies in flexible way by using a cascade of a filterbank (with its short delays) and a linear MDCT transform (*hybrid filterbank*).
  - MDCT transform splits each subband sequence further in frequency content to achieve a high frequency resolution.



- MDCT analyzes data in blocks of length 18 or 6 samples.
  - ▶ This is 26 and 12 samples taking into account 50% overlapping.
- Overlapping reduces inconsistencies and misalignment between compressed sections.
- Supports mixed usage of small and large blocks
  - Provides better frequency resolution where it is needed
  - Mixes require transition blocks.





Additional techniques

# Joint stereo

- The correlation between left and right channels is exploited to further reduce overall bitrate
  - ► For low frequencies: impossible to identify source position
    - mono is enough
  - For high frequencies: the identification of source position is based on amplitude envelope
    - mono spectrum
    - two modulations for amplitudes

## **Redundant information**

- Redundancy removal is lossless
  - Signal correlation implies redundant information
    - e.g. if x[n] = x[n 1] + v[n]
       x[n] has a greater amplitude range → more bits
       than v[n]
    - sending v[n] = x[n] x[n 1] can reduce amplitude, hence bitrate



- 'white noise' sequence has no redundancy

#### Problem: separating unique & redundant



#### Shannon information: An unlikely occurrence is more 'informative'

p(A) = 0.5  p(B) = 0.5	p(A) = 0.9  p(B) = 0.1	
ABBBBAAABBABBABBABB	АААААВВААААААВААААВ	
A, B equiprobable	A is expected; B is 'big news'	

- Information in bits *I* = -log<sub>2</sub>(*probability*)
  - clearly works when all possibilities equiprobable
- - ▶ i.e. equal-length tokens are equally likely
- How to achieve this?
  - transform signal to have uniform pdf
  - nonuniform quantization for equiprobable tokens
  - variable-length tokens → Huffman coding

# Quantization for optimum bitrate

#### Quantization should reflect pdf of signal:



- cumulative pdf  $p(x \le x_0)$  maps to uniform x'
- or: nonuniform quantization bins

#### **Or, codeword length per Shannon** $-\log_2(\rho(x))$ :



## Huffman coding

- Variable-length bit sequence tokens
  - ightarrow ightarrow can code unequally probable events
- Tree-structure for unambiguous decoding:



- Can build tables to approximate arbitrary distributions
- Eliminates irrelevance .. within limits

# Bit reservoir

Problem:

- ► A frame with little audio interest may require few bits to encode
  - with a constant bitrate these bits may be unused
- A frame with substantial audio interest may require more bits to encode
  - with a constant bitrate the audio quality may decrease

#### **Solution**:

- Allow frames to give to or take from a reservoir
- Each frame that save spaces, allows subsequent frames to store bits if needed
  - typical situation of a silence (few bits) followed by an attack (many bits)