

A Video Encoder Based on Generalized Bit-Planes

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Abstract—Among the best performing video coding methods are the ones based on the matching pursuits algorithm. In them, the motion compensated frame difference is decomposed on an overcomplete dictionary of atoms in a greedy fashion. It is represented by a sequence of pairs specifying the atoms used and their corresponding coefficients. The rate \times distortion trade-off is achieved by varying both the number of atoms and how the coefficients are quantized. Several strategies have been presented in order to solve the problem of, given a target rate or distortion, determining the optimum number of atoms as well as the quantizers of the corresponding coefficients. In this paper we propose a novel method for performing matching pursuits quantization, based on the notion of decomposition in generalized bit-planes. The structure of such decompositions is such that once the decomposition is carried out, it is already quantized, and there is no need to set up any quantization parameters. It does so by generating a decomposition that is readily organized in bit-planes. It provides an elegant solution to the trade-off between quantization of coefficients and number of passes in the matching pursuits algorithm. In fact, we show that it can be regarded as a generalization of any decomposition on a dictionary followed by linear quantization of the coefficients. In addition, we present a theorem that sets bounds for the R-D performance of such generalized decompositions. We test the effectiveness of the proposed method using the framework of Neff and Zakhor's matching pursuits video encoder. The results obtained are promising, presenting, without any ad-hoc assumptions about the R-D behavior of the coded frames or any increase in computational complexity, a significant improvement over the classical matching pursuits video coders. Also, the results are as good as the ones obtained employing more sophisticated strategies.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE classical algorithms used in video coding are based on the block discrete cosine transform (DCT). An effective alternative for such methods is given by decompositions over redundant dictionaries using the Matching Pursuits (MP) Algorithm [1]. An efficient video encoder using the MP Algorithm has been presented by Neff and Zakhor [2]. It provides good coding efficiency and is free from blocking artifacts. Its success has encouraged research on this topic.

In the MP algorithm we usually decompose a signal \mathbf{x} of dimension N on a redundant dictionary $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{g}_1, \mathbf{g}_2, \dots, \mathbf{g}_M\}$, $\|\mathbf{g}_i\| = 1, \forall i$. The \mathbf{g}_i are in general referred to as atoms. The dictionary is said to be redundant because, in general, $M > N$. The signal \mathbf{x} is then approximated in P passes as [1]

$$\mathbf{x} \approx \sum_{n=1}^P p_n \mathbf{g}_{\gamma_n} \quad (1)$$

The pairs (p_n, γ_n) are computed by algorithm 1 below

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Algorithm 1

1. Start with $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{x}$, $n = 1$.
2. Repeat until a stop criterion is met
 - (a) Choose $\gamma_n \in \{1, \dots, M\}$ such that
$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{g}_{\gamma_n} = \max_{1 \leq j \leq M} \{\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{g}_j\}.$$
 - (b) Choose $p_n = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{g}_{\gamma_n} \rangle$.
 - (c) Replace \mathbf{w} by $\mathbf{w} - p_n \mathbf{g}_{\gamma_n}$.
 - (d) Increment n .
3. Stop.

Details of this algorithm can be found in [1]. There, it is shown that the energy of the residuals decrease monotonically as the number of passes P is increased, and tends to zero as P tends to infinity.

From the above, we see that the Matching Pursuits algorithm performs a kind of successive approximation of a signal \mathbf{x} , since, for each atom added, the error in the approximation decreases [1]. Therefore, in principle, the approximation error can be controlled by the number of atoms used. However, when the coefficients p_n are quantized, the approximation error also depends on how the quantization is performed. Several strategies have been proposed for dealing with this problem in the literature. In [3] the quantizer of the coefficients p_n in each frame is chosen using a two-pass procedure. In the first pass, the frame is decomposed without the coefficients p_n being quantized. Then, the quantizer of the second pass is chosen as 60% of the smallest $|p_n|$ used. In [3] a simplification in this algorithm is proposed, aiming at the reduction of the complexity of this two-pass algorithm. The first pass is eliminated and the quantizer is chosen based on the smallest $|p_n|$ of the previous frame. The results of the two-pass and one-pass algorithms are very similar, although the former performs a little better than the latter. Rate \times distortion approaches have also been proposed, as the one in [4]. There, an adaptive entropy-constrained quantization scheme is used, based on the fact that the magnitude of the coefficients are bounded by an exponential function of the number of passes.

It is interesting to observe that many of the state of the art image compression methods use successive approximation [5]. They achieve successive approximation by encoding the wavelet transform coefficients in bit-planes. For each added bit-plane, the error in the representation decreases. This is for example the case of the JPEG2000 standard [6]. Taking this into consideration, it is natural to wonder whether it could advantageous to

perform the quantization of the MP coefficients in bit-planes. In this paper we propose a novel algorithm to perform an MP-like decomposition in which a signal is decomposed in generalized bit-planes, each bit-plane being composed by a set of atoms. In it, unlike the classical Matching Pursuits, there are no coefficients to be quantized, that is, only the atoms corresponding to each generalized bit-plane need to be transmitted. It provides an elegant solution to the coefficient quantization problem in the MP algorithm, and presents improvements over the existing MP-based encoders. This paper is organized as follows: Section II outlines the theory of signal decomposition in generalized bit-planes, that is the base of the proposed algorithm. In section III we describe a practical video encoder using generalized bit-planes, with the experimental results described in section IV. Section V presents the conclusions.

II. SIGNAL DECOMPOSITION IN GENERALIZED BIT-PLANES

Suppose \mathbf{x} is a signal that can be decomposed in a redundant dictionary $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{g}_1, \mathbf{g}_2, \dots, \mathbf{g}_M\}$, $\|\mathbf{g}_i\| = 1, \forall i$ as

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{n=1}^M c_n \mathbf{g}_n \quad (2)$$

Without loss of generality, we are assuming that $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$. Also, note that we are considering that the dictionary \mathcal{D} is complete, so that an expansion in M terms can represent \mathbf{x} with zero distortion. In addition, since $\|\mathbf{g}_i\| = 1$, there is an expansion in the form of equation (2) such that $|c_n| \leq 1$.

Since $|c_n| \leq 1$, we can write the binary representation for c_n as $c_n = s_n \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-j} b_{j,n}$. $s_n \in \{-1, 1\}$ is the sign of c_n , and $b_{j,n} \in \{0, 1\}$. Replacing this value of c_n in equation (2) we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= \sum_{n=1}^M s_n \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-j} b_{j,n} \mathbf{g}_n = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-j} \sum_{n=1}^M b_{j,n} s_n \mathbf{g}_n \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-j} \sum_{n=1}^M b_{j,n} \bar{\mathbf{g}}_n \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Note that since $s_n \in \{-1, 1\}$, then $\bar{\mathbf{g}}_n = s_n \mathbf{g}_n \in \bar{\mathcal{D}} = \{\pm \mathbf{g}_1, \pm \mathbf{g}_2, \dots, \pm \mathbf{g}_M\}$. Now, defining the indexes $i_{j,l}$ such that, for $l \in \{1, 2, \dots, L_j\}$, $b_{j,i_{j,l}} = 1$, and zero elsewhere, the summation in equation (3) can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-j} \sum_{l=1}^{L_j} \bar{\mathbf{g}}_{i_{j,l}} \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) can be regarded as a generalized bit-plane decomposition of the signal \mathbf{x} . The bit-plane j is composed by the functions $\bar{\mathbf{g}}_{i_{j,l}}$ for $l = 1, \dots, L_j$. In [7] a convergent algorithm for finding such decompositions has been proposed, in the same philosophy of the MP algorithm. In fact, the algorithm proposed

in [7] finds decompositions of the following form

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \alpha^j \sum_{l=1}^{L_j} \bar{\mathbf{g}}_{i_{j,l}} \quad (5)$$

These decompositions are more general than the one in equation (4), since the term 2^{-j} has been replaced by α^j , for $0 < \alpha < 1$. We refer to α as the *approximation scaling factor*. In [7] there have been derived conditions for the algorithm to be convergent (that is, for any signal \mathbf{x} be approximated with arbitrary precision by adding a sufficient number of terms to the summations). These conditions impose that $\Theta(\bar{\mathcal{D}}) \leq \frac{\pi}{3}$, where $\Theta(\bar{\mathcal{D}})$ is the largest angle between any signal $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and the closest atom in dictionary $\bar{\mathcal{D}}$. However, even for signals of moderate dimension (e.g., $N \geq 64$), the dictionaries that could provide $\Theta(\bar{\mathcal{D}}) \leq \frac{\pi}{3}$ would have very large cardinality. This would lead to inefficient decompositions from an R-D perspective, since a large number of bits would be needed to encode the indexes $i_{j,l}$.

In this paper we propose a novel algorithm for finding such decompositions, that is convergent whenever $0 < \alpha < 1$ and $\Theta(\bar{\mathcal{D}}) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$. The advantage of this algorithm is that $\Theta(\bar{\mathcal{D}}) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ is only a very mild restriction, being satisfied whenever \mathcal{D} is complete [1]. In this algorithm a greedy decomposition is carried out by adding one $\bar{\mathbf{g}}_{i_{j,l}}$ at a time, until a rate and/or distortion criterion is met. Given a dictionary $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_q\}$, $\|\mathbf{v}_i\| = 1, \forall i$, the algorithm is as follows (the input signals are normalized so that $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$):

Algorithm 2

1. Start with $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{x}$, $m = 1$.
2. Repeat until a stop criterion is met
 - (a) Choose $r_m \in \{1, \dots, q\}$ such that
$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{r_m} = \max_{1 \leq j \leq q} \{\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}_j\}.$$
 - (b) Choose $k_m = \left\lceil \frac{\ln(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{r_m})}{\ln(\alpha)} \right\rceil$, where $\lceil y \rceil$ is the smallest integer larger than or equal to y .
 - (c) Replace \mathbf{w} by $\mathbf{w} - \alpha^{k_m} \mathbf{v}_{r_m}$.
 - (d) Increment m .
3. Stop.

Note that Algorithm 2 approximates \mathbf{x} in P passes as

$$\mathbf{x}^{(P)} = \sum_{m=1}^P \alpha^{k_m} \mathbf{v}_{r_m} \quad (6)$$

If we define L_j as the number of values m such that $k_m = j$, we can rename the corresponding indexes r_m as $i_{j,l}$ for $l = 1, \dots, L_j$. Therefore, if we make the dictionary \mathcal{C} in Algorithm 2 equal to $\bar{\mathcal{D}}$, then equation (6) is equivalent to equation (5) for $P \rightarrow \infty$.

We can say that Algorithm 2 is convergent if $\lim_{P \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}^{(P)} = \mathbf{x}$. In that sense, its convergence is guaranteed by Theorem 1 (the proof can be found in the appendix).

Theorem 1: Be $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$, $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$, such that it is approximated by Algorithm 2 using a dictionary \mathcal{C} with P steps, generating $\mathbf{x}^{(P)}$ as in equation (6), and be $\Theta(\mathcal{C})$ the largest angle between any signal $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and the closest atom in dictionary \mathcal{C} . We have that $\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\| = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(P)}\| \leq \beta_c^{(P)}$, where $\beta_c = \sqrt{1 - (2\alpha - \alpha^2) \cos^2(\Theta(\mathcal{C}))} < 1$ for every $0 < \alpha < 1$ and $0 \leq \Theta(\mathcal{C}) < \frac{\pi}{2}$.

The following points regarding Algorithm 2 should be highlighted:

- (i) Algorithm 2 performs a decomposition such that, for every atom added, the distortion in the approximation of \mathbf{x} decreases by at least $\beta < 1$. Thus, when the number of passes $P \rightarrow \infty$, $\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\| \rightarrow 0$, that is, algorithm 2 is convergent.
- (ii) The representation output by Algorithm 2 is given by just a sequence of pairs of indexes (k_m, r_m) , $m = 1, 2, \dots, P$. This implies that there is no need for coefficients quantization as in the classical MP algorithm (see equation (2) and the discussion that follows). In other words, it can be said that Algorithm 2 performs both the decomposition and quantization at the same time. Thus, it presents an elegant solution to the coefficient quantization problem inherent in the classical MP algorithm, described in section I.
- (iii) The decomposition obtained can be organized in bit-planes as in equation (5). This can be done by noting that, in equation (6), the indexes r_m for the values of m such that $k_m = j$ correspond to the atoms comprising bit-plane j .
- (iv) The number of atoms used in the decomposition can be set arbitrarily and each atom corresponds to a pair (k_m, r_m) . This permits a precise rate control, since the decomposition can be stopped when the bit-budget is exhausted. This feature can be very useful in more sophisticated R-D schemes.

III. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE VIDEO ENCODER

In this section the effectiveness of Algorithm 2 will be evaluated by employing it in the framework of Neff and Zakhor's Matching Pursuits video encoder [2]. Essentially, Algorithm 2 will replace the decomposition and quantization strategy employed in [2], using exactly the same dictionary \mathcal{D} , as well as the same atom encoding procedure. The indexes r_m (see equation (6)) are encoded in the same way as the atoms indexes in [2]. On the other hand, instead of encoding the value of the inner product p_n (see equation (2)), the index k_m of the bit plane corresponding to the atom of index r_m is encoded. An adaptive arithmetic coder [8] is used for this purpose. Since we do not know at first what is the maximum value that k_m can assume, we had to perform a slight modification to the arithmetic encoder in [8]. The

initial number of possible indexes k_m is set to two ($k_m=1$ and $k_m=2$) plus an escape code. If we need to transmit $k_m=3$ we first transmit the escape code to indicate an increase in the number of symbols and then transmit the code for $k_m=3$. At this point the possible symbols are $k_m=1,2,3$ plus an escape code. The same process is repeated for each new value of k_m that is out of the current range. Also, when we start coding the next frame the number of possible values of k_m is the same as the one at the end of the previous frame. It was verified experimentally that, as long as the initial number of symbols is small enough, it does not influence significantly the performance of the algorithm.

Since Algorithm 2 assumes that the norm of the input signal is $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$, we need to compute, for each video frame, the largest norm of the macroblocks, X_{\max} . It is important to note that, for each macroblock, as in [2], we search for the closest atom by centering every atom in every pixel of the macroblock. This implies that the atoms searched for in a macroblock B_i invade the neighboring macroblocks. Then, effectively, it is as if the dimension of the signal we are decomposing is not the one of macroblock B_i , but the dimension of B_i plus the pixels of the neighboring macroblocks invaded by the atoms used to decompose B_i . Referring to figure 1, since the luminance macroblocks are 16×16 , the value of X_{\max} is computed for a region of $(15 + n_{\max}) \times (15 + n_{\max})$ centered in the macroblock ($n_{\max} \times n_{\max}$ is the support of the atom having largest support). In our case, $n_{\max} = 35$, and X_{\max} is computed considering 50×50 windows centered in every macroblock (see figure 1). We also need to send the approximation scaling factor (α) at the header of the video sequence. Note that since the use of Algorithm 2 permits precise bit-rate control (see comment (iv) at the end of section II), then the strategy used for bit-rate allocation was to divide the bit-budget of the sequence equally among all its frames. Clearly other more sophisticated rate control algorithms could be used taking advantage of the precise rate control that such decompositions may provide, as in [9].

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We have coded the sequences Container, Coast-guard, Hall-monitor, Mother-and-daughter, Silent-voice and Foreman with 300 QCIF frames at 30 frames/s, sub-sampled in time by factors of 4 (rates under 20kbps) and 3 (other rates) to generate 7.5 frames/s and 10 frames/s, respectively. Coding was done only on luminance component in bit-rates that vary in the range 10-100kbps.

The value of α (see equation (6)) chosen at the beginning of coding interferes with the number of vectors used to code each frame. Smaller values of α lead to smaller values of k_m but also to a worse approximation in each pass; this leads to a larger number of vectors in order to maintain a given distortion. Likewise, larger values of α lead to larger values of k_m and to a smaller number of vectors. We can see then that there is a trade-off among the value of α , the number of vectors and the range of values of k_m . Therefore, the value of α can potentially af-

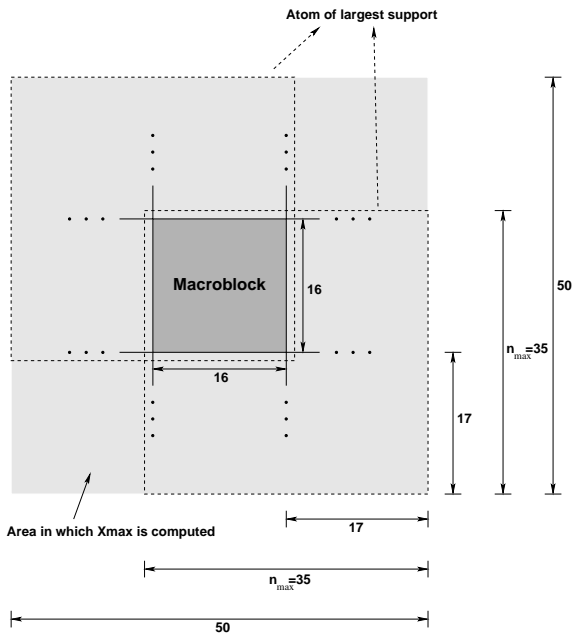


Fig. 1. Illustration of the area in which X_{\max} is computed.

fect the rate \times distortion characteristics of the encoder. This trade-off can be seen in figures 2 and 3. There, we show the variation of the average number of bits spent for both specifying the atoms indexes r_m and coefficients k_m (see equation (6)) against α . The straight lines represent these values for the MP algorithm (γ_n and p_n in equation (1)). The sequences used are Mother and Coast for 24kbps and 64kbps, respectively. In this figure, we can see that increasing α , the bits spent to code the atoms indexes tend to decrease, while the bits spent to code the coefficients k_m tend to increase. In addition, we can note that for values of α under 0.65, approximately, the MPGBP algorithm spends less bits for encoding the k_m than the MP algorithm for encoding the projection p_n . However, the MPGBP algorithm spends more bits for encoding the atoms indexes than the MP algorithm. It was verified experimentally that this result holds for all bit-rates or video sequences used. Indeed, in the appendix, we have shown theoretically that the distortion tends to decrease faster as α increases (see figure 9).

In figures 4 and 5 we can see the variation of the average PSNR with α for rates 24kbps and 48kbps, respectively. We can verify that the variation of α does not interfere significantly with the results, except when this parameter is next to one or under 0.4, when there is a significant drop in performance. An α in the range $[0.4, 0.85]$ is a good choice. In our experiments, we have used an $\alpha = 0.56$ for all cases. It is interesting to note that despite the variation in the number of bits spent with the atoms indexes r_m and coefficients k_m , the average peak signal to noise ratio (PSNR) of the sequences is approximately constant for $\alpha \in [0.4, 0.85]$.

Table I compares the PSNR of the original matching pursuits video encoder (MP) [2] with our adaptation using generalized bit-planes (MPGBP) for some rates and sequences of video. In

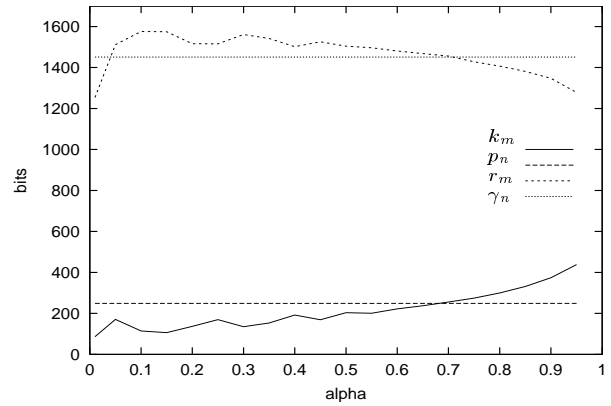


Fig. 2. Average bits spent for k_m , p_n , r_m and γ_n against alpha for Mother sequence for 24kbps.

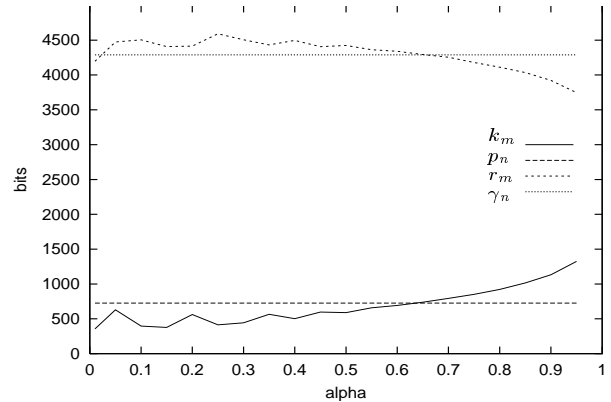


Fig. 3. Average bits spent for k_m , p_n , r_m and γ_n against alpha for Coast sequence for 64kbps.

this table, the first column shows the PSNR for MPGBP algorithm while the second column shows PSNR for MP algorithm. The third column shows the improvement of the MPGBP over MP algorithm. We can see from this table that MPGBP is always better than the original matching pursuits algorithms [2] for different bit-rates and video sequences.

Figures 6 and 7 show the variation of the average PSNR with rate for both implementations of the matching pursuits encoders for Mother and Silent sequences, respectively. We can see from these figures that the use of the generalized bit-planes scheme consistently improves the performance of the matching pursuits encoder from [2] for all rates. In addition, this improvement increases with the bit rate. Indeed, our results are comparable to the best ones in the literature, that have been obtained using sophisticated adaptive strategies [3]. The knee on the curves around 20kbps is due to the increase of the frame rate from 7.5 fps to 10 fps.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have proposed a novel algorithm for performing matching pursuits decomposition. Instead of generating at its output a sequence of pairs comprising atoms indexes

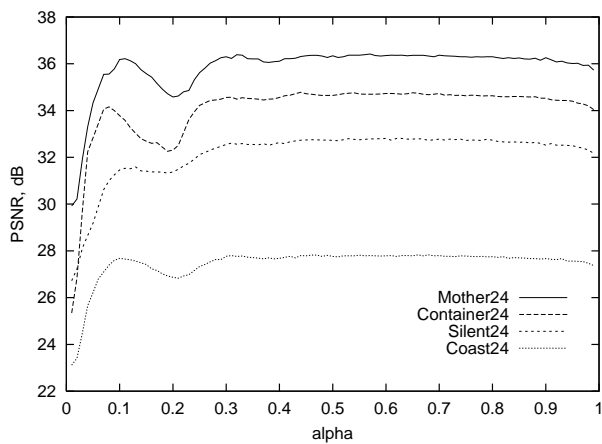


Fig. 4. Variation of the average PSNR with alpha parameter for Mother, Silent, Container and Coast sequences for 24kbps.

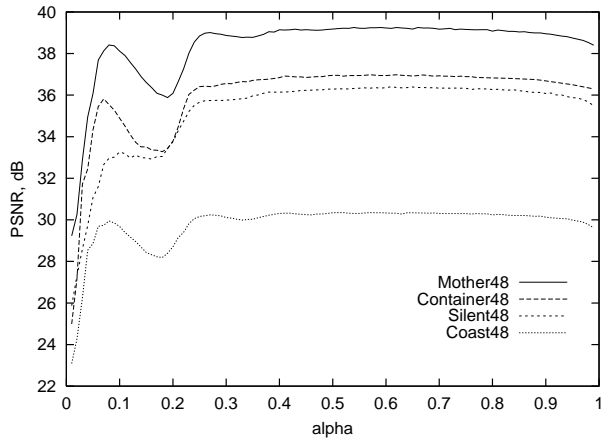


Fig. 5. Variation of the average PSNR with alpha parameter for Mother, Silent, Container and Coast sequences for 48kbps.

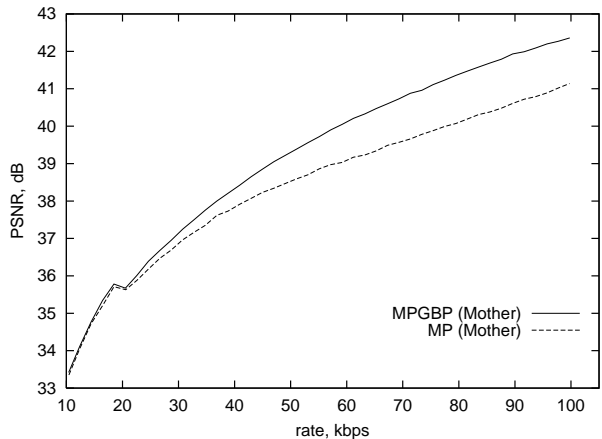


Fig. 6. Variation of the average PSNR with rate for Mother sequence.

and corresponding coefficients, as in the classical MP algorithm, it generates just a sequence of atoms indexes. These indexes can be grouped in generalized bit-planes. The proposed algorithm has the advantage of obviating the need for setting up arbitrary trade-offs between number of atoms used and coefficients quantization. We have shown that the proposed algorithm corresponds to a generalization of the usual decomposition on

TABLE I
COMPARISON, IN TERMS OF PSNR, BETWEEN THE TWO MATCHING PURSUITS IMPLEMENTATIONS.

Seq + Rate	MPGBP	MP [2]	MPGBP-MP
Container10	32.54	32.45	0.06
Mother10	33.42	33.35	0.07
Hall10	33.43	33.30	0.13
Container24	34.70	34.47	0.23
Mother24	36.39	36.18	0.21
Hall24	36.59	36.13	0.46
Silent24	32.77	32.73	0.04
Coast24	27.79	27.66	0.13
Container48	36.95	36.43	0.52
Mother48	39.21	38.45	0.76
Hall48	39.14	38.00	1.14
Silent48	36.35	35.90	0.45
Coast48	30.31	30.26	0.05
Container64	37.94	37.16	0.78
Mother64	40.47	39.34	1.13
Hall64	39.97	38.84	1.13
Silent64	37.85	37.30	0.55
Coast64	31.35	31.25	0.10
Mother96	42.27	41.02	1.25
Foreman96	35.54	35.35	0.19

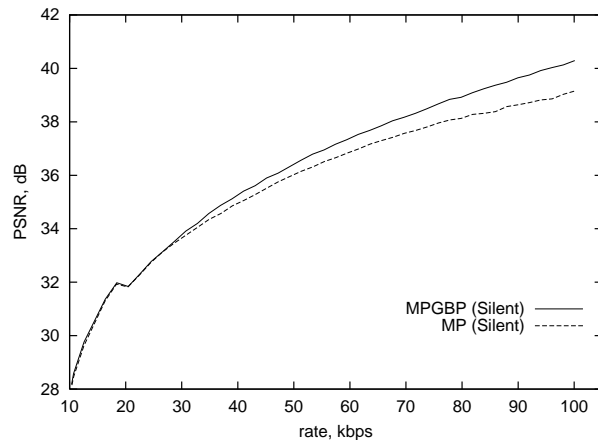


Fig. 7. Variation of the average PSNR with rate for Silent sequence.

a dictionary or basis followed by uniform scalar quantization. Also, we have proved a theorem setting a bound for the distortion obtainable for a decomposition in generalized bit-planes using a given number of atoms.

We have implemented a matching pursuits video encoder using the proposed algorithm replacing the classical matching pursuits decomposition and quantization. Our video encoder was used with different kinds of sequences and for a large variety of bit-rates, yielding consistent results. The results obtained are very promising, leading to a significant improvement over the classical video-MP algorithm [2]. It also provides a performance comparable to the one obtained by the more sophisticated algorithms as, for example, the one in [3]. The generalized bit-plane decomposition obtained with this algorithm opens the possibility for more flexible implementations, as quad-tree based encoders using generalized bit-planes.

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APPENDIX

Proof. We can represent the residual signal $\mathbf{r}^{(P)}$ in pass P as (see figure 8)

$$\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{t}\|^2 - 2 \|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\| \|\mathbf{t}\| \cos \theta \quad (7)$$

where θ is the angle between the residual $\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}$ and its closest vector. Since we can assume to be using complete dictionaries, it can be said that $\theta \leq \Theta(\mathcal{C}) < \frac{\pi}{2}$.

Since $\alpha < 1$ then $\exists Q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that (see figure 8)

$$\alpha^{Q+1} \leq \|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\| \cos \theta < \alpha^Q \quad (8)$$

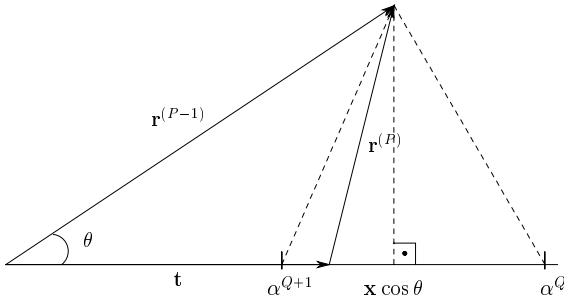


Fig. 8. Illustration of the signal approximation \mathbf{x} .

Equation (8) can be reorganized as

$$\alpha \cos \theta < \frac{\alpha^{Q+1}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|} \leq \cos \theta \quad (9)$$

We choose to \mathbf{t} to be α^{Q+1} . In this case, the residual $\mathbf{r}^{(P)}$ becomes, from equation (7),

$$\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|^2 + (\alpha^{Q+1})^2 - 2 \|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\| \alpha^{Q+1} \cos \theta \quad (10)$$

and consequently

$$\left(\frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\|}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|} \right)^2 = 1 + \left(\frac{\alpha^{Q+1}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|} \right)^2 - 2 \frac{\alpha^{Q+1}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|} \cos \theta \quad (11)$$

From equations (9) and (11) we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\|}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|} \right)^2 &< 1 + \alpha^2 \cos^2 \theta - 2\alpha \cos^2 \theta \\ &= 1 - (2\alpha - \alpha^2) \cos^2 \theta = \beta^2(\theta) \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

The equality would occur for $\frac{\alpha^{Q+1}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(P-1)}\|} = \alpha \cos \theta$.

Since $0 < \alpha < 1$ and $|\cos \theta| \leq 1$, we have that the smallest $\beta^2(\theta)$ value (see equation (12)) is obtained when $\alpha \rightarrow 1$.

In figure 9 we plot the value of $\beta^2(\theta)$ against α for $0 < \alpha < 1$.

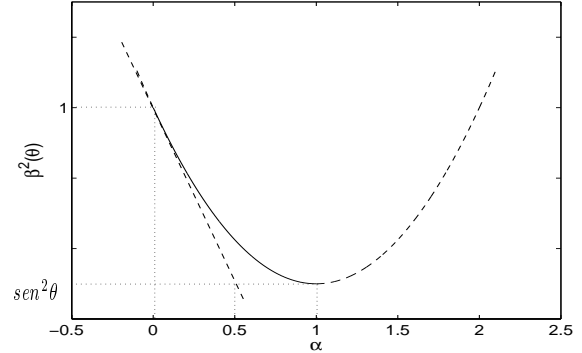


Fig. 9. Plot the value of $\beta^2(\theta)$ against α .

From equation (12), we have that the residual decreases its magnitude by at least $\beta(\theta)$ in each pass. Since $\theta \leq \Theta(\mathcal{C})$, and, for $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, $(2\alpha - \alpha^2) > 0$, then we have that

$$\beta(\theta) \leq \sqrt{1 - (2\alpha - \alpha^2) \cos^2(\Theta(\mathcal{C}))} = \beta_c \quad (13)$$

Thus, since $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$, we can say that, after P passes, $\|\mathbf{r}^{(P)}\| \leq \beta_c^P$.

QED