

Audio Coding Based on Integer Transforms

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Abstract

In recent years audio coding has become a very popular field for research and applications. Especially perceptual audio coding schemes, such as MPEG-1 Layer-3 (MP3) and MPEG-2 Advanced Audio Coding (AAC), are widely used for efficient storage and transmission of music signals. Nevertheless, for professional applications, such as archiving and transmission in studio environments, lossless audio coding schemes are considered more appropriate.

Traditionally, the technical approaches used in perceptual and lossless audio coding have been separate worlds. In perceptual audio coding, the use of filter banks, such as the lapped orthogonal transform “Modified Discrete Cosine Transform” (MDCT), has been the approach of choice being used by many state of the art coding schemes. On the other hand, lossless audio coding schemes mostly employ predictive coding of waveforms to remove redundancy. Only few attempts have been made so far to use transform coding for the purpose of lossless audio coding.

This work presents a new approach of applying the lifting scheme to lapped transforms used in perceptual audio coding. This allows for an invertible integer-to-integer approximation of the original transform, e.g. the IntMDCT as an integer approximation of the MDCT. The same technique can also be applied to low-delay filter banks. A generalized, multi-dimensional lifting approach and a noise-shaping technique are introduced, allowing to further optimize the accuracy of the approximation to the original transform.

Based on these new integer transforms, this work presents new audio coding schemes and applications. The audio coding applications cover lossless audio coding, scalable lossless enhancement of a perceptual audio coder and fine-grain scalable perceptual and lossless audio coding. Finally an approach to data hiding with high data rates in uncompressed audio signals based on integer transforms is described.

Zusammenfassung

Die Audiocodierung hat sich in den letzten Jahren zu einem sehr populären Forschungs- und Anwendungsgebiet entwickelt. Insbesondere gehörangepaßte Verfahren zur Audiocodierung, wie etwa MPEG-1 Layer-3 (MP3) oder MPEG-2 Advanced Audio Coding (AAC), werden häufig zur effizienten Speicherung und Übertragung von Audiosignalen verwendet. Für professionelle Anwendungen, wie etwa die Archivierung und Übertragung im Studiobereich, ist hingegen eher eine verlustlose Audiocodierung angebracht.

Die bisherigen Ansätze für gehörangepaßte und verlustlose Audiocodierung sind technisch völlig verschieden. Moderne gehörangepaßte Audiocoder basieren meist auf Filterbänken, wie etwa der überlappenden orthogonalen Transformation “Modifizierte Diskrete Cosinus-Transformation” (MDCT). Verlustlose Audiocoder hingegen verwenden meist prädiktive Codierung zur Redundanzreduktion. Nur wenige Ansätze zur transformationsbasierten verlustlosen Audiocodierung wurden bisher versucht.

Diese Arbeit präsentiert einen neuen Ansatz hierzu, der das Lifting-Schema auf die in der gehörangepaßten Audiocodierung verwendeten überlappenden Transformationen anwendet. Dies ermöglicht eine invertierbare Integer-Approximation der ursprünglichen Transformation, z.B. die IntMDCT als Integer-Approximation der MDCT. Die selbe Technik kann auch für Filterbänke mit niedriger Systemverzögerung angewandt werden. Weiterhin ermöglichen ein neuer, mehrdimensionaler Lifting-Ansatz und eine Technik zur Spektralformung von Quantisierungsfehlern eine Verbesserung der Approximation der ursprünglichen Transformation.

Basierend auf diesen neuen Integer-Transformationen werden in dieser Arbeit neue Verfahren zur Audiocodierung vorgestellt. Die Verfahren umfassen verlustlose Audiocodierung, eine skalierbare verlustlose Erweiterung eines gehörangepaßten Audiocoders und einen integrierten Ansatz zur fein skalierbaren gehörangepaßten und verlustlosen Audiocodierung. Schließlich wird mit Hilfe der Integer-Transformationen ein neuer Ansatz zur unhörbaren Einbettung von Daten mit hohen Datenraten in unkomprimierte Audiosignale vorgestellt.

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1 Introduction

In recent years audio coding has become a very popular field for research and applications. Especially perceptual audio coding schemes, such as MPEG-1 Layer-3 [MPE93b] and MPEG-2 Advanced Audio Coding (AAC) [AAC97], are widely used for efficient storage and transmission of music signals. Professional applications however, such as archiving and transmission in studio environments, highlight the disadvantages of these perceptual audio coding schemes arising from their limited robustness against post-processing and tandem coding. For these applications lossless or near-lossless audio coding schemes can deliver a better compromise between compression and audio quality.

Traditionally, the technical approaches to perceptual and lossless audio coding have been separate worlds. In perceptual audio coding, the use of filter banks, such as the lapped orthogonal transform “Modified Discrete Cosine Transform” (MDCT), has been the approach of choice being used by many state of the art coding schemes, e.g. MPEG-2/4 AAC [AAC97, MPE01]. These filter banks provide a representation of the audio signals by spectral values, which are then quantized according to perceptual criteria. The use of prediction instead of filter banks is not exploited that much in perceptual audio coding. However, for applications requiring a low system delay this approach can be used advantageously [SYHE02]. On the other hand, lossless audio coding schemes mostly employ predictive coding of waveforms to remove redundancy [Moo79, SH86, CT93, CCR93, BOvdVvdK96, Rob94, HS01a, Lie02, Ghi03]. Only few attempts have been made so far to use transform coding for the purpose of lossless audio coding [PLN97, KSB97, KSB99]. In theory, predictive coding and transform coding can achieve the same coding gain for stationary random signals [JN84]. In practice however, the use of trigonometric transforms, such as the Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) or the MDCT, for the purpose of lossless audio coding is ambivalent. While they provide a good decorrelation of the input signal,

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the number of possible output values increases considerably compared to the number of possible input values. Thus a quantization operation is necessary in order to achieve a reduction of the data rate. This quantization either has to be fine enough to allow neglecting the resulting error after rounding to the target word length, or an additional residual error has to be coded in time domain.

One missing link for combining these two worlds might be a lapped transform with properties similar to those of the transforms used so far, which additionally provides the feature of producing integer spectral values, while maintaining the perfect reconstruction property. Recently some successful approaches were presented to solve the corresponding problem in the field of image coding [KS98, LT01, JPEb]. These approaches are based on a technique known as lifting scheme [DS98] or ladder network [BE92].

This work presents the application of this technique to the field of audio coding. It demonstrates how to apply the lifting scheme to lapped orthogonal transforms, such as the Modified Discrete Cosine Transform (MDCT), in order to obtain an invertible integer approximation called “Integer Modified Discrete Cosine Transform” (IntMDCT). Furthermore, a generalized, multi-dimensional lifting scheme is developed and a noise-shaping technique is incorporated. Both make the IntMDCT better suited for the purpose of lossless audio coding.

A wide range of efficient audio coding schemes can be designed on the basis of this new transform, such as transform-based lossless coding, lossless enhancement of a perceptual audio codec or an integrated fine-grain scalable perceptual and lossless audio coding scheme. Additionally, an efficient system for data hiding with high data rates in uncompressed audio signals can be built based on the IntMDCT.

2 Overview

This thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 3 reviews the state-of-the-art relevant for this work. It describes firstly the general structure of filter banks and transforms with a special focus on the Modified Discrete Cosine Transform (MDCT), and secondly the technique of data compression by entropy coding. Based on this, the basic principles and some examples of perceptual audio coding schemes are presented. Furthermore, approaches to scalable perceptual audio coding are reviewed. Lossless audio coding techniques are described, based both on predictive coding and transform coding. First proposals for scalable perceptual and lossless audio coding are described. Finally, the basic technique for obtaining invertible integer transforms, namely the ladder network or lifting scheme, and the application of this technique in the context of image coding is presented.

Chapter 4 presents a new approach of applying the lifting scheme to transforms used in audio coding applications, such as the MDCT and low-delay filter banks. Furthermore, improvements of this technique utilizing a generalized, multi-dimensional lifting scheme and noise shaping techniques are presented.

Chapter 5 presents new audio coding schemes and applications based on integer transforms. The audio coding applications cover lossless audio coding, scalable lossless enhancement of a perceptual audio coder and fine-grain scalable perceptual and lossless audio coding. Finally, an approach to data hiding with high data rates in uncompressed audio signals based on integer transforms is presented.

3 State of the Art

3.1 Filter Banks and Transforms

3.1.1 General Structure of Filter Banks

Filter banks play an important role in audio signal processing. They provide a spectral decomposition of the audio signal using a set of bandpass filters. The basic structure of a filter bank with N filters in the z -domain is illustrated in Figure 3.1. The output values of the analysis stage are called “subband values” or “spectral values”.

In the context of audio coding the following properties of filter banks are of particular importance:

Critical Sampling

In the filter bank shown in Figure 3.1 every input sample produces one output sample in each filter. So the total number of output samples is N times the number

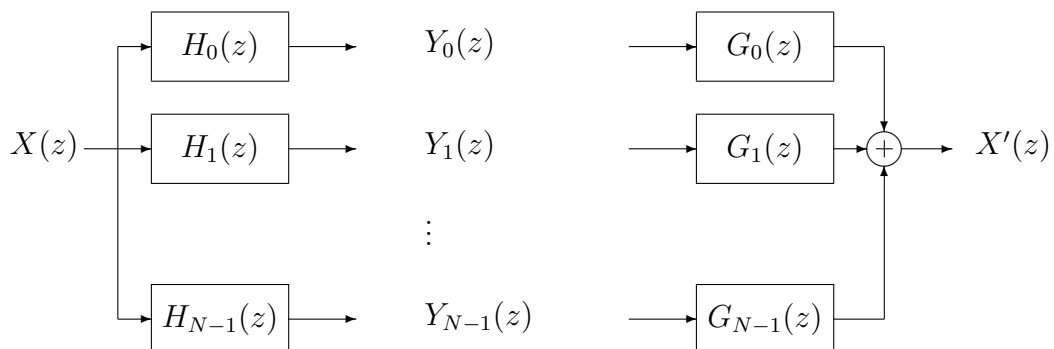


Figure 3.1: General structure of filter bank (analysis and synthesis stage)

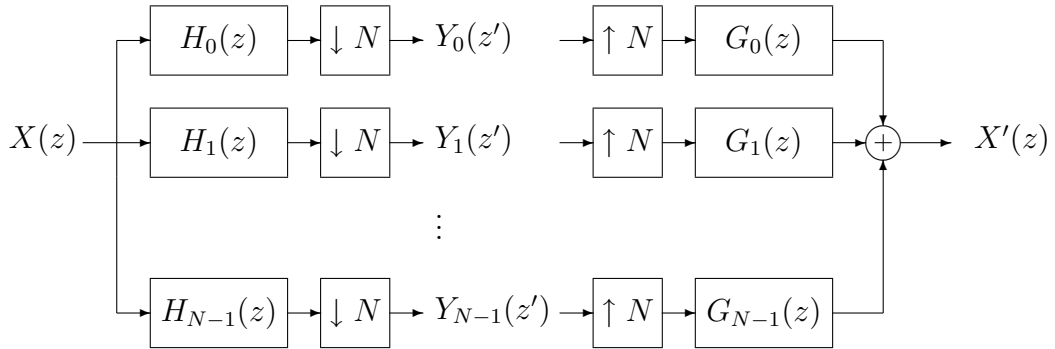


Figure 3.2: Critically sampled uniform filter bank (analysis and synthesis stage)

of input samples. In the context of audio coding this is not preferable. As every filter output represents only a part of the signal bandwidth, the output signal of each filter can be downsampled according to the bandwidth it represents, based on Shannons sampling theorem [Sha49]. As the filters are not ideal bandpass filters, this process introduces aliasing which has to be taken into account in the synthesis filter bank.

Specifically for uniform filter banks, i.e. filter banks dividing the spectrum of the signal into N bands of equal bandwidth, downsampling by a factor of N can be applied after each filter, while still representing the desired bandpass signal. Thus the total number of output values after the downsampling is equal to the number of input samples. Figure 3.2 illustrates this structure. Filter banks with this property are called “critically sampled”. It should be considered that in this case the subband signals $Y_0(z'), \dots, Y_{N-1}(z')$ operate in the downsampled domain, and hence a delay of z'^{-1} for the subband signals corresponds to a delay of z^{-N} for the input resp. output signal.

Perfect Reconstruction

From the filter bank output a time domain signal can be recovered by applying the appropriate synthesis filter bank. Figure 3.2 also illustrates the structure of the synthesis filter bank corresponding to a uniform, critically sampled analysis filter bank. The subband values are upsampled and filtered by synthesis filters before adding them up.

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A cascade of an analysis and a synthesis filter bank is said to have the property of “perfect reconstruction” if the reconstructed output signal is identical to the input signal with only a certain delay z^{-d} .

$$X'(z) = z^{-d}X(z)$$

The value d is referred to as the “system delay”.

The property of perfect reconstruction is desired in audio coding systems in order to avoid artifacts introduced by the filter bank.

3.1.2 Polyphase Decomposition

The polyphase decomposition gives both a mathematical formulation of critically sampled filter banks and leads to computationally efficient implementations. It was introduced in [BBC76] and has become a frequently used formulation for filter banks. It is comprehensively described e.g. in [Vai93].

The basic idea is to decompose a filter given by its transfer function in the z -domain

$$H(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k)z^{-k} \quad (3.1)$$

into a sum of N terms

$$\begin{aligned} H(z) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(kN)z^{-kN} \\ &+ z^{-1} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(kN+1)z^{-kN} \\ &+ \dots \\ &+ z^{-(N-1)} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(kN+(N-1))z^{-kN} \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

Defining N filters

$$E_l(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} e_l(k)z^{-k}$$

with

$$e_l(k) = h(kN+l), \quad 0 \leq l \leq N-1$$

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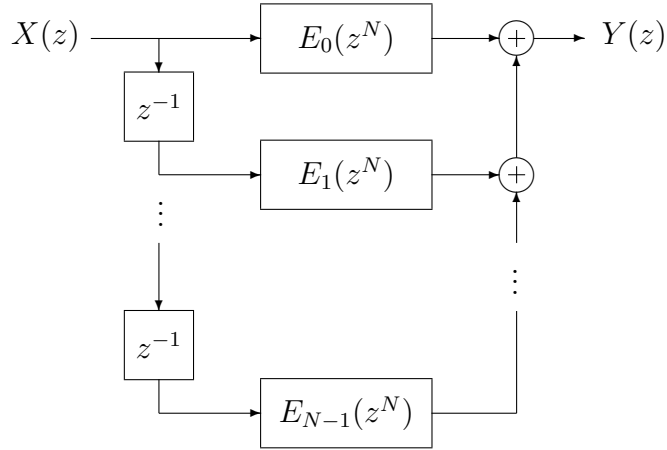


Figure 3.3: Polyphase implementation of $H(z)$

we get

$$H(z) = \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} z^{-l} E_l(z^N) \quad (3.3)$$

which is called the “type 1 polyphase representation” [Vai93]. The $E_l(z^N)$ are called the “polyphase components” of $H(z)$. Figure 3.3 illustrates the resulting implementation of $H(z)$ based on the polyphase decomposition in Equation 3.3.

This structure allows for an efficient implementation of critically sampled filter banks. The filter $H(z)$ is followed by a downsampling stage of the factor N , see Figure 3.2. Hence the polyphase structure can operate at a reduced rate and only needs to be applied every N -th sample. Each time N succeeding samples are fed into the system and stored in the delay chain.

The polyphase decomposition can also be considered as a scalar product of two N -dimensional vectors of polynomials in z resp. z^{-1} :

$$H(z) = \begin{pmatrix} E_0(z^N) & E_1(z^N) & \dots & E_{N-1}(z^N) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ z^{-1} \\ \vdots \\ z^{-(N-1)} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.4)$$

In the case of a filter bank with N filters $H_0(z), H_1(z), \dots, H_{N-1}(z)$ this structure

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can be extended to

$$\begin{aligned}
 \begin{pmatrix} H_0(z) \\ H_1(z) \\ \vdots \\ H_{N-1}(z) \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} E_{0,0}(z^N) & E_{0,1}(z^N) & \dots & E_{0,N-1}(z^N) \\ E_{1,0}(z^N) & E_{1,1}(z^N) & \dots & E_{1,N-1}(z^N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E_{N-1,0}(z^N) & E_{N-1,1}(z^N) & \dots & E_{N-1,N-1}(z^N) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ z^{-1} \\ \vdots \\ z^{-(N-1)} \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= P(z^N) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ z^{-1} \\ \vdots \\ z^{-(N-1)} \end{pmatrix} \tag{3.5}
 \end{aligned}$$

where the rows of the $N \times N$ matrix $P(z^N)$ correspond to the polyphase components of the N filters. P is called the ‘‘polyphase matrix’’ of the filter bank. According to the Noble identities for multirate systems [Vai93], applying $P(z^N)$ followed by downsampling by N is equivalent to downsampling by N followed by $P(z')$. Thus the downsampling required for critically sampled filter banks can be done before applying the polyphase matrix P .

Similarly, the synthesis filter bank can also be represented by a polyphase matrix Q . In this case an N -dimensional input is mapped to a 1-dimensional output by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & z^{-1} & \dots & z^{-(N-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Q_{0,0}(z^N) & Q_{0,1}(z^N) & \dots & Q_{0,N-1}(z^N) \\ Q_{1,0}(z^N) & Q_{1,1}(z^N) & \dots & Q_{1,N-1}(z^N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Q_{N-1,0}(z^N) & Q_{N-1,1}(z^N) & \dots & Q_{N-1,N-1}(z^N) \end{pmatrix} \tag{3.6}$$

Figure 3.4 illustrates the corresponding polyphase implementation of the analysis and synthesis filter bank.

In the context of the polyphase decomposition the property of perfect reconstruction can be described mathematically by the constraint that the synthesis polyphase matrix has to be the inverse of the analysis polyphase matrix, except for a certain delay.

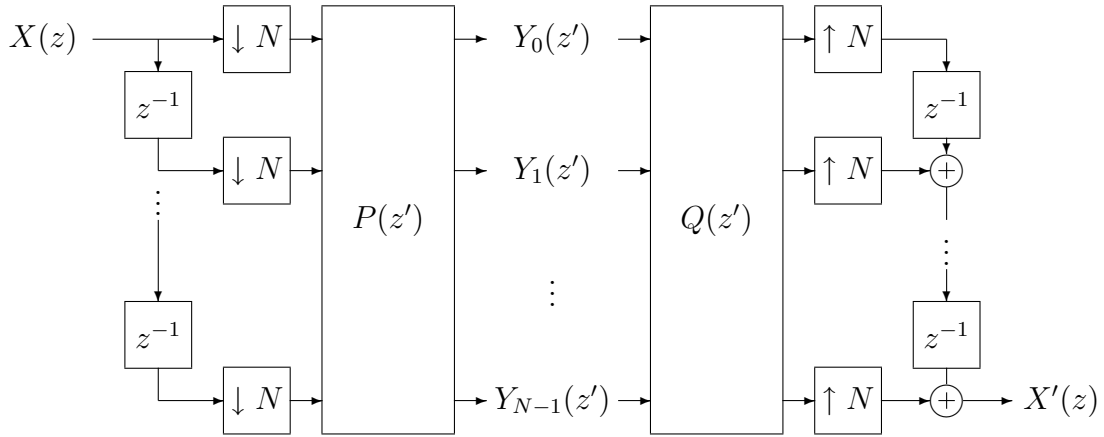


Figure 3.4: Polyphase implementation of a critically sampled filter bank (analysis and synthesis stage)

3.1.3 Block Transforms

Several types of block transforms are of particular importance in signal processing. Historically filter banks and transforms were considered as different techniques, but mathematically this distinction cannot be upheld. Every non-overlapping linear block transform with N input values and N output values is also a critically sampled filter bank with N filters of length N . In this case the polyphase matrix only contains polynomials of order zero. Hence, a block transform can be described by an $N \times N$ matrix A , and every block or vector x of N samples is transformed into $X = Ax$. Usually, in signal processing only orthogonal (resp. unitary) block transforms are considered, i.e. the inverse of A is the transpose (resp. conjugate transpose) of A . The orthogonality is useful for three reasons [Mal92]:

- The inverse transform is immediately defined by A , no matrix inversion is necessary.
- Considering a flow graph of the forward transform, the inverse transform can be obtained by simply transposing the flow graph, i.e. running it backwards.
- Orthogonal block transforms provide the property of energy conservation, i.e. $\|X\| = \|x\|$ where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean norm. Furthermore, the reverse is also true: Every energy conserving block transform is orthogonal

(resp. unitary).

Discrete Fourier Transform

The Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) of length N is defined by

$$X(k) = \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} x(l)W_N^{kl} \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.7)$$

for the forward transform, and

$$x(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(k)W_N^{-kl} \quad l = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.8)$$

for the inverse transform, where the primitive N -th root of unity W_N is defined by

$$W_N = e^{-j2\pi/N}$$

This transform decomposes a sequence of N complex input samples into a weighted sum of N complex spectral values ranging from 0 up to 2π . Every complex spectral value contains both a cosine and a sine component. In the case of real input samples the upper half of the spectral values can be reconstructed from the lower half, and hence becomes redundant.

Usually a scaling factor of $1/N$ is used in the inverse DFT, although for energy conservation a scaling factor of $1/\sqrt{N}$ in both the forward and the inverse transforms would be required.

Fast Fourier Transform

One important advantage of the DFT is the availability of numerous fast implementations. A direct implementation of an $N \times N$ block transform would require $O(N^2)$ operations. The Fast Fourier Transform (FFT), introduced to signal processing in [CT65], reduces the computational complexity to $O(N \log N)$.

The well-known basic principle is the following, see e.g. [OS75]: In case that N is a power of 2, the radix-2 decimation-in-time approach decomposes the input signal $x(l)$ into even and odd components, resulting in

$$X(k) = \sum_{l=0}^{N/2-1} x(2l)W_{N/2}^{kl} + W_N^k \sum_{l=0}^{N/2-1} x(2l+1)W_{N/2}^{kl} \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.9)$$

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due to the periodicity of $W_{N/2}$. Hence the DFT of length N is obtained by N complex multiplications and additions and two DFTs of length $N/2$. This process is repeated recursively, resulting in $O(N \log(N))$ operations.

Several variations of this basic principle are described in literature, such as the decimation-in-frequency [OS75] and the split-radix approach [DH84]. The FFT plays an important role in signal processing, because several other block transforms, such as the Discrete Cosine Transform [Har76], can utilize the FFT for fast algorithms.

Discrete Cosine Transforms

The Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) decomposes a sequence of N real input samples into a weighted sum of N real spectral values equally spaced between 0 and π . Four different types of the DCT are distinguished, according to the classification in [Wan84], see also [RY90]. They mainly differ in the indexing of time and frequency axes. At this point, only type II and type IV are described, as they are of particular interest in signal processing.

DCT of Type II

The DCT of type II (DCT_{II}) is defined by

$$X(k) = \gamma_k \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} x(l) \cos \frac{k(l + \frac{1}{2})\pi}{N}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.10)$$

with

$$\gamma_0 = 1/\sqrt{2}, \quad \gamma_k = 1, \quad k = 1, \dots, N-1$$

The DCT_{II} is the most widely used type of a DCT. It decomposes the input signal into N distinct frequency values including a DC value. Especially in image and video coding a two-dimensional version of the DCT_{II} plays an important role. An 8×8 DCT_{II} is used in JPEG image coding [JPEa] and MPEG-1/2 video coding [MPE93a, MPE00]. The dedicated DC value of the DCT_{II} is especially important for these applications.

The importance of the DCT_{II} is also due to the asymptotic equivalence to the Karhunen-Loeve Transform (KLT) for an autoregressive process [ZN77]. For images and for speech signals an autoregressive process provides a good estimate for the

statistical correlation properties. Hence the DCT_{II} is a practical alternative to the optimally decorrelating but signal-dependent KLT.

DCT of Type IV

The DCT of type IV (DCT_{IV}) is defined by

$$X(k) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} x(l) \cos \frac{(2k+1)(2l+1)\pi}{4N}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.11)$$

Its inverse transform has the same coefficients, and is defined by

$$x(l) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(k) \cos \frac{(2k+1)(2l+1)\pi}{4N}, \quad l = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.12)$$

The applications for the DCT_{IV} are not as wide-spread as for the DCT_{II} , mainly because of the absence of a dedicated DC value. Nevertheless, the DCT_{IV} is important for audio coding applications, because it can be seen as a part of the Modified Discrete Cosine Transform (MDCT), as will be shown in the following sections. Based on the DCT_{IV} , such filter banks can be built in a straight-forward way.

3.1.4 The MDCT

The application of non-overlapping block transforms in audio coding, especially in perceptual audio coding, is not very suitable. The quantization of succeeding blocks leads to discontinuities in the reconstructed signal, which become easily audible as so-called blocking artifacts. In frequency domain this can be explained by considering the frequency responses of the corresponding subband filters. As their frequency selectivity is inferior to those of filter banks with longer impulse responses, a quantization of one subband value produces a quantization error covering a larger frequency range, resulting in an unflat quantization error in time domain.

An early approach to overcome this limitation was to introduce an overlap between succeeding blocks and apply a windowing function in both the analysis and synthesis stage [Kra86, Bra87]. This technique allows the reduction of blocking artifacts, but as the resulting filter bank is no longer critically sampled, the compression efficiency decreases.

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The Modified Discrete Cosine Transform (MDCT) allows to overcome this limitation and provides both critical sampling and overlapping of blocks. It is based on a technique called “Time Domain Aliasing Cancellation” (TDAC), introduced in [PB86, PJB87]. In [PB86] alternating Discrete Cosine Transforms and Discrete Sine Transforms are used to achieve perfect reconstruction. In [PJB87] a DCT_{IV} based approach is chosen, allowing to use the same block transform in each block. The latter is the most commonly used version. It is usually referred to as MDCT, especially in connection with audio coding applications, such as MPEG-2 AAC [AAC97]. Nevertheless, other names are also used, e.g. Cosine-Modulated Filter Bank [RT91, KV91] or Modulated Lapped Transform (MLT) [Mal92]. A similar approach for lapped transforms focusing on image coding is given by the so-called Lapped Orthogonal Transform (LOT) [MS88, MS89], providing linear phase filters. It is also possible to extend the concept of lapped transforms to an overlap of more than two blocks, e.g. by the Extended Lapped Transform (ELT) [Mal92], or by Low Delay Filter Banks [SS96, SK00].

The forward MDCT is defined by

$$X(m) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{2N-1} w(k)x(k) \cos \frac{(2k+1+N)(2m+1)\pi}{4N} \quad (3.13)$$

$$m = 0, \dots, N-1$$

In each block the values $x(N), \dots, x(2N-1)$ represent the new input samples, the values $x(0), \dots, x(N-1)$ represent the input samples of the previous block. In this way an overlap of 50% is obtained.

The inverse MDCT is defined by

$$y(k) = w(k) \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} X(m) \cos \frac{(2k+1+N)(2m+1)\pi}{4N} \quad (3.14)$$

$$k = 0, \dots, 2N-1$$

The output signal is obtained by adding up the outputs of the inverse MDCT of two succeeding blocks in their overlapping area.

In both the forward and the inverse transform a window function w is applied in the time domain. By comparing the output of the overlap-add procedure with the input signal, a constraint for the window function to achieve perfect reconstruction

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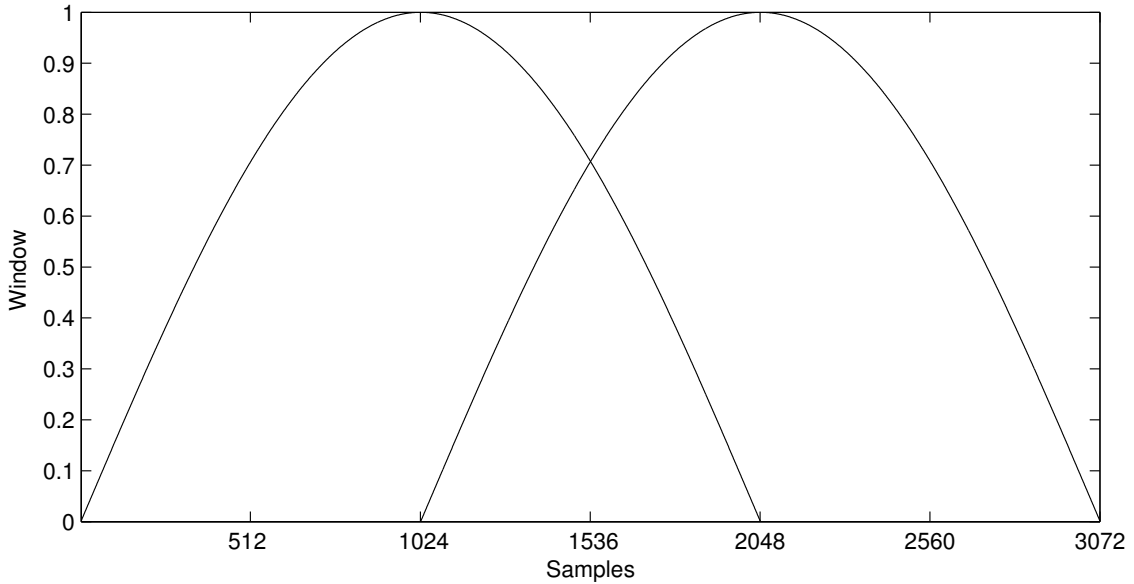


Figure 3.5: Sequence of two sine windows with 50% overlap

can be derived. According to [Edl89] the following so-called TDAC condition is required to assure the time domain aliasing cancellation:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} w(k)^2 + w(N+k)^2 &= 1 \\ w(k) &= w(2N-1-k) \end{aligned} \right\} k = 0, \dots, N-1 \quad (3.15)$$

A popular example for a window fulfilling this condition is a sine window

$$\begin{aligned} w(k) &= \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4N}(2k+1)\right) \\ k &= 0, \dots, 2N-1 \end{aligned} \quad (3.16)$$

Figure 3.5 illustrates a sequence of two sine windows for a block length $N = 1024$.

Before applying the overlap-add of two succeeding blocks during the inverse MDCT, time domain aliasing occurs. This can be explained by considering the MDCT as a DCT of length $2N$ with subsequent sub-sampling in the frequency domain [PJB87]. The effect can be regarded as a mirroring of the output of the inverse MDCT before the overlap-add stage, centered in the middle of each overlapping region.

3.1.5 MDCT by Windowing / Time Domain Aliasing and DCT_{IV}

A more explicit, block-oriented approach to the MDCT is possible by considering the polyphase representation, derived in this section.

Based on the symmetries of the cosine function and the symmetry condition in Equation 3.15, the following matrix decomposition of the MDCT can be verified:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{MDCT} = & \\
 & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} & & -1 \\ & \ddots & \\ -1 & & \end{pmatrix} \\
 & \cdot \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 & 1 & & & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \ddots & & & & & & \\ 1 & & & & & 1 & & & & & \\ & & & & & & 1 & & & & -1 \\ & & & & & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & & & & & 1 & -1 & \\ & & & & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & & & & w(0) \\ & & & & & & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & & & & & w(N-1) \\ & & & & & & & & & & w(N-1) \\ & & & & & & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & & & & & w(0) \end{pmatrix} \qquad (3.17)
 \end{aligned}$$

By means of this decomposition, the process of time domain aliasing is performed explicitly in time domain, followed by a DCT_{IV} of length N . The processes of time domain aliasing and windowing are now combined and called ‘‘Windowing/TDA’’ in the following. By additionally incorporating the delay z^{-1} of one block of N samples,

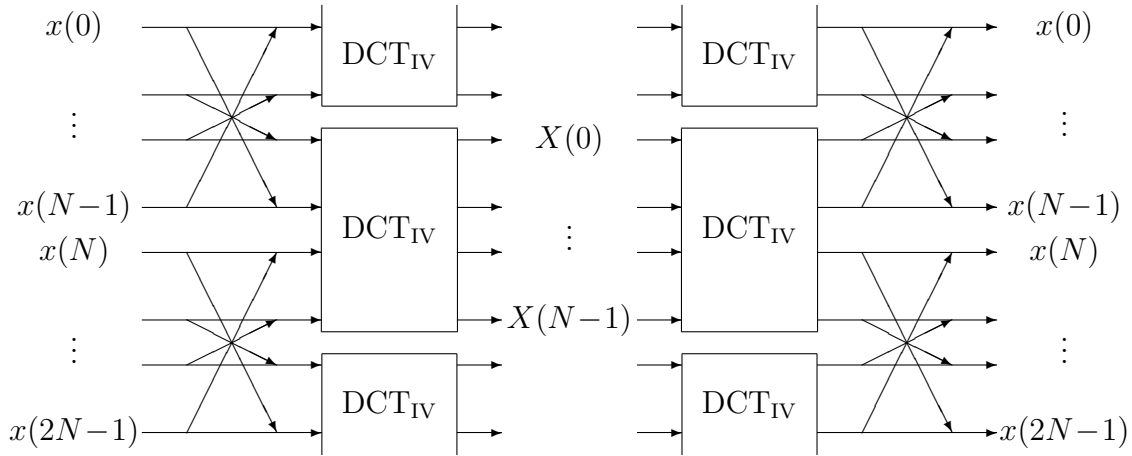


Figure 3.6: Decomposition of MDCT and inverse MDCT into Windowing/TDA and DCT_{IV}

For the inverse MDCT the same procedure can be applied in reversed order. The inverse DCT_{IV} is the DCT_{IV} itself. The Givens rotations applied in the Windowing/TDA stage are inverted by applying rotations with negative angles. The whole process is illustrated in Figure 3.6.

Similar derivations of this decomposition can also be found in [DMP91], [Mal92] and [SS96]. This decomposition of the MDCT is one main key to the integer approach in this work.

3.1.6 Low Delay Filter Banks

Besides the MDCT, non-orthogonal versions of modulated filter banks have also been considered for audio coding applications due to their possibility to reduce the overall delay or to more closely adapt to psychoacoustic requirements [SS96, SK00]. These filter banks can be designed by decomposing their structure into a DCT_{IV} and a cascade of preprocessing steps. In a polyphase representation these preprocessing steps appear as maximum delay and zero delay matrices and a diagonal factor matrix.

A forward and an inverse MDCT with N frequency bands introduce a system delay of $2N-1$ samples, see [AGHS99]. By decomposing the MDCT into Windowing/TDA and DCT_{IV} , as done in Equation 3.18, it can be observed that the DCT_{IV} generates

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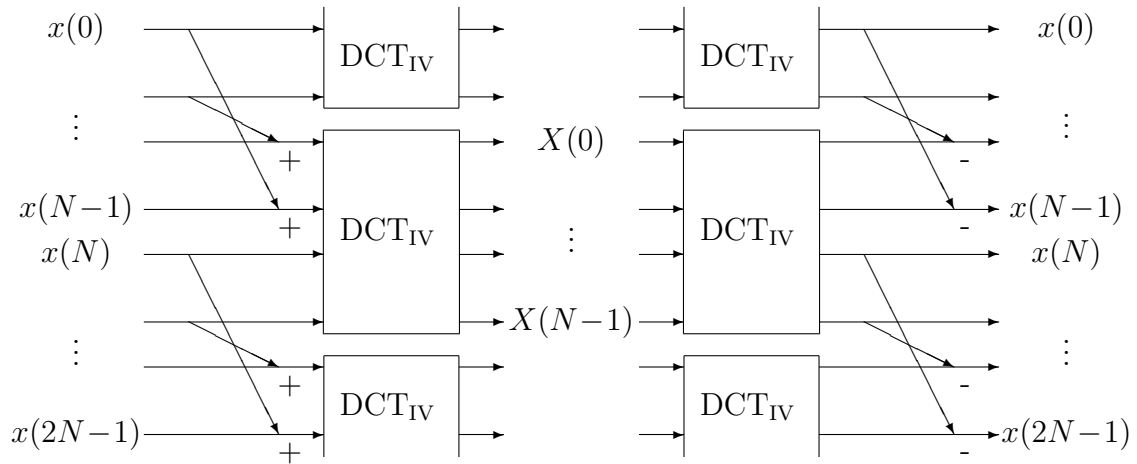


Figure 3.7: Low delay filter bank based on modified MDCT structure

$N - 1$ samples delay and the Windowing/TDA generates additional N samples. The latter is due to the fact that the Windowing/TDA process makes the current block dependent on the previous block and vice versa. The basic idea for low delay filter banks [SS96, SK00] is to allow this dependency in the analysis filter bank only in forward direction. If the previous block does not depend on the current block, the Windowing/TDA stage does not introduce any additional delay. An example based on a slightly modified MDCT structure is illustrated in Figure 3.7. Multiplications are omitted in this figure for simplicity.

This example leads to a filter bank with perfect reconstruction, a system delay of $N - 1$ samples and filter impulse responses of length $N + N/2$. The impulse responses can be further extended without introducing additional delay by using more than $N/2$ samples from the previous blocks.

A general case of modulated filter banks with arbitrary system delay is derived in [SK00]. In that approach, the Windowing/TDA stage of MDCT polyphase decomposition in Equation 3.18 is replaced by a more general structure consisting of the following building blocks:

Zero delay matrices

These blocks are defined by

$$L_i(z) := J + \text{diag}(l_0^i, \dots, l_{N/2-1}^i, 0, \dots, 0) \cdot z^{-1} \quad (3.23)$$

where $l_0^i, \dots, l_{N/2-1}^i$ are real coefficients and

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ & \dots & \\ 1 & & \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.24)$$

The inverse is

$$L_i^{-1}(z) = J - \text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, l_{N/2-1}^i, \dots, l_0^i) \cdot z^{-1} \quad (3.25)$$

No multiplications with z^{-1} are required for causality. Thus a cascade of forward and inverse zero delay matrices does not introduce additional delay. Consequently, these blocks allow to increase the filter length, but not the system delay.

Maximum delay matrices

These blocks are defined by

$$L_i(z^{-1}) \cdot z^{-1} \quad (3.26)$$

The inverse is

$$L_i^{-1}(z^{-1}) \cdot z^{-1} \quad (3.27)$$

Both the forward and the inverse block require a multiplication with z^{-1} for causality. Thus a cascade of forward and inverse maximum delay matrices introduces a delay of z^{-2} , resulting in a filter bank with increased system delay.

Diagonal matrix

This building block is defined by

$$D = \text{diag}(d_0, \dots, d_{N-1}) \quad (3.28)$$

with real coefficients d_0, \dots, d_{N-1} .

With these basic matrices, the following generalization of the Windowing/TDA stage is derived in [SK00]:

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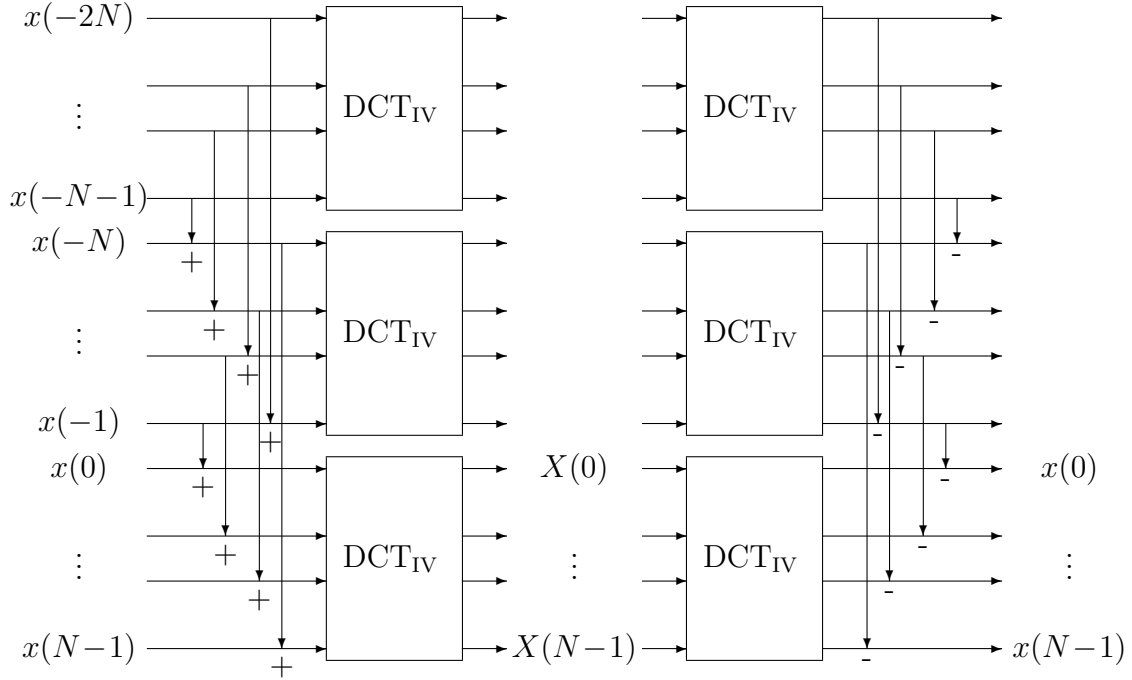


Figure 3.8: Low delay filter bank with two zero delay stages

$$F_a(z) = \prod_{j=0}^{\nu-1} L_{\mu+\nu-1-j}(z) \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{\mu-1} (L_{\mu-1-i}(z^{-1}) \cdot z^{-1}) \cdot D \quad (3.29)$$

where ν is the number of zero delay matrices and μ is the number of maximum delay matrices.

The inverse Windowing/TDA stage, with a suitable delay for causality, is

$$F_s = F_a^{-1}(z) = D^{-1} \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{\mu-1} (L_i^{-1}(z^{-1}) \cdot z^{-1}) \prod_{j=0}^{\nu-1} L_{\mu+j}^{-1}(z) \quad (3.30)$$

This generalization allows for a wide range of filter banks, including minimum delay, orthogonal and maximum delay filter banks. The resulting structure of a low delay filter bank with $\nu = 2$ and $\mu = 0$ can be seen in Figure 3.8. In the example derived from the MDCT in Figure 3.7 there is $\nu = 1$ and $\mu = 0$. The MDCT, illustrated in figure 3.6, is also covered by this generalization, featuring an orthogonal Windowing/TDA stage and $\nu = \mu = 1$.

3.2 Data Compression by Entropy Coding

Entropy coding is an important technique for both perceptual and lossless audio coding. The goal of entropy coding is to reduce the redundancy when coding signals with an unequal probability distribution. According to [Sha48], the theoretical limit of redundancy reduction for a memoryless discrete source is given by the entropy of M symbols x_i with probabilities $p(x_i)$

$$E = \sum -p(x_i) \log_2(p(x_i)) \quad (3.31)$$

The redundancy is given by the difference of the entropy value to the entropy of a uniformly distributed source with M symbols:

$$R = \log_2 M - E \quad (3.32)$$

Nowadays, numerous entropy coding methods are established. A large family of codes follows the principle of variable-size prefix codes [Sal00]. Among them there are Rice codes, Golomb codes, Shannon-Fano Codes and Huffman codes. The last one is described in some more detail in the following.

3.2.1 Huffman Coding

Huffman coding [Huf52] is widely used in perceptual audio coding. A Huffman codebook is assembled using a bottom up strategy, combining the two symbols with the lowest probabilities to a new composite symbol recursively.

In case all probabilities are negative powers of two, this code can remove all redundancy. In the general case some redundancy will remain. By combining several symbols and coding them with a codebook of higher dimension, this redundancy can be reduced. This limitation results from the integer length of the codewords, as opposed to the fractional values in the entropy calculations.

3.2.2 Arithmetic Coding

Another popular coding method, Arithmetic Coding, allows to overcome the limitations of integer lengths of codewords. The basic theory was already described in

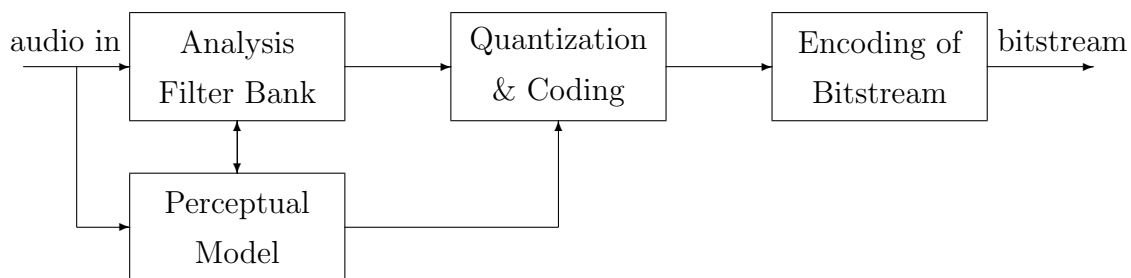


Figure 3.9: General structure of a monophonic perceptual audio encoder

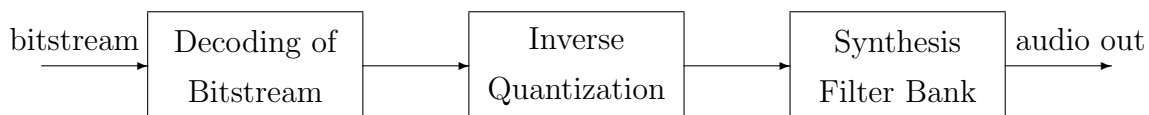


Figure 3.10: General structure of a monophonic perceptual audio decoder

[Sha48]. The realizability within finite precision arithmetic was shown much later, as described in [MT02]. In an arithmetic coder, instead of a code word for each symbol a sequence of symbols is coded as one fractional number with sufficiently high precision. In each stage of encoding a symbol, an interval of values is divided into sub-intervals of widths according to the probabilities. The sub-interval representing the symbol to be coded becomes the new interval for the next stage. Eventually, an arbitrary number within the final interval has to be transmitted to the decoder. In this way no integer number of bits has to be assigned to individual symbols or groups of symbols, and hence an optimum removal of redundancy is possible theoretically.

3.3 Perceptual Audio Coding

3.3.1 Basic Principles

The majority of perceptual audio coding schemes currently in use follow the general structure illustrated in Figures 3.9 and 3.10.

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A filter bank is employed to obtain a block by block spectral representation of the audio signal. The resulting spectral values are quantized and entropy coded. This process is controlled by a perceptual model which calculates the current masking threshold of the audio input signal. Based on the masking threshold and the current bitrate constraints, a quantized representation of the spectral values is determined. This is usually done iteratively by two nested loops, the rate loop and the distortion loop, resulting in a trade-off between the inaudibility of quantization errors and the bitrate constraints. Finally the quantized and entropy coded values and additional side information are multiplexed into a bitstream.

Early approaches to exploit masking properties of the human ear for speech and audio coding applications were presented in [BT75, Kra79, SAH79]. However, these approaches began to receive significant attention from the field of audio coding much later in [Kra86, Bra87, TLS87].

Filter banks, especially the commonly used MDCT, and entropy coding techniques have already been described in detail in the previous sections. The other techniques used in perceptual audio coding are described in more detail in the following.

Perceptual Model

The perceptual model estimates the perceptual masking threshold of the current audio frame. It is based on the simultaneous masking phenomenon described e.g. in [ZF90]. Two slightly different effects are considered depending on the tonality of the masker. Results for tones masked by narrow-band noise and for tones masked by tones are described there.

Figure 3.11 shows the masking curves introduced by narrow-band noise around three different frequency values. Around the 1 kHz masker two test tones are shown, where the left one is audible and the right one is masked.

For tonal maskers similar masking curves occur, but in that case the signal to mask ratio is much larger. To determine the appropriate masking threshold a tonality measure can be used to interpolate between the both fashions of simultaneous masking [Joh88, BJ90].

Additionally, the psychoacoustic phenomenon of temporal masking [ZF90] also plays an important role. According to this phenomenon transient events mask other

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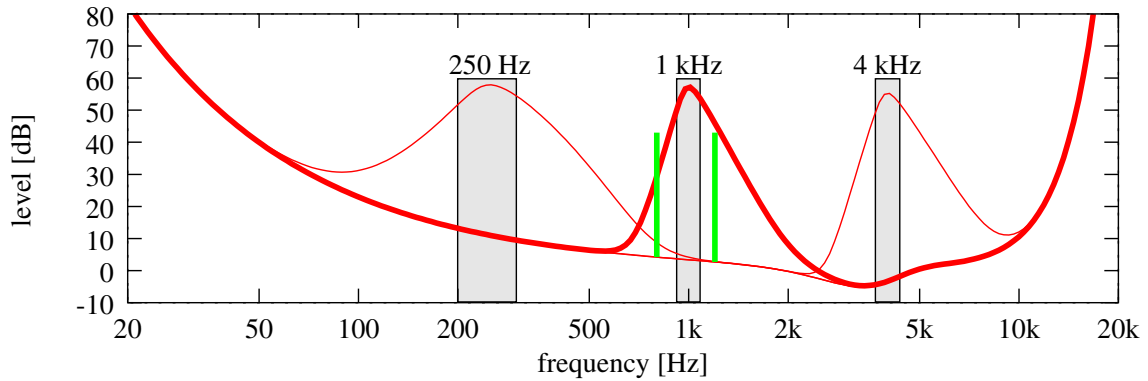


Figure 3.11: Frequency masking of narrow-band noise according to [ZF90]

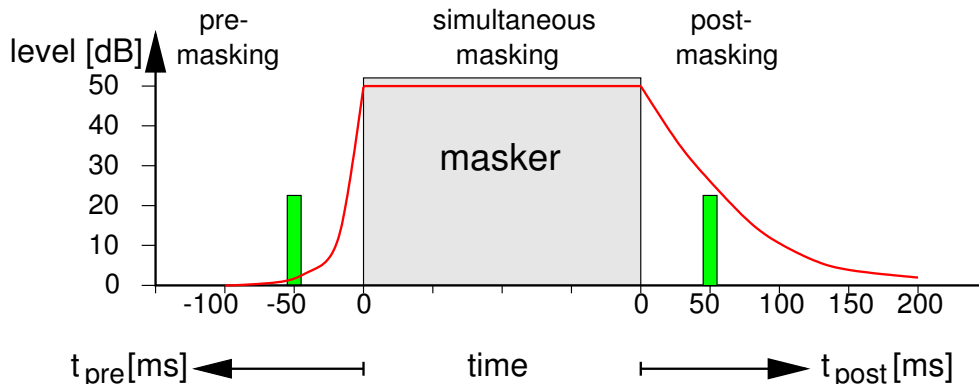


Figure 3.12: Temporal masking according to [ZF90]

events of lower level shortly before and for a longer period after the masking event. This is illustrated in Figure 3.12. A masker introduces a certain amount of pre- and post-masking, while the latter is of much longer duration. The illustrated test signal positioned 50 ms before the onset of the masker is audible, while the test signal 50 ms after the masker is masked.

In contrast to frequency masking, this phenomenon can not be exploited to a such significant degree in perceptual audio coding. It mainly has to be considered in order not to exceed the given temporal masking threshold in the block based processing of the audio codec. Especially the masking threshold before a transient signal can easily be exceeded, resulting in the so-called “pre-echo phenomenon” [Bra88].

Quantization

The spectral values are quantized with the intention of hiding a quantization error just below the masking threshold. Usually, the spectrum is divided into several frequency bands in line with the Bark scale [ZF90], e.g. half Bark per band. In each of these bands the same quantizer is applied. A commonly used quantization method is a power law quantizer. In that approach the spectral values are at first compressed by a certain power function (e.g. $x^{0.75}$) and subsequently quantized uniformly. This approach was already used by the “OCF” codec introduced in [Bra87] and is described in detail in [Spo88]. The power law quantizer turns out to be a good compromise between a uniform quantizer with a constant noise floor and a logarithmic quantizer with a constant signal to noise ratio. The power law quantizer introduces a certain noise shaping within each frequency band, which is beneficial for more closely meeting the required masking threshold.

3.3.2 Additional Audio Coding Tools

Window Switching

A filter bank with a large number of filters (e.g. an MDCT with 1024 bands) is advantageous for perceptual coding of tonal signals in order to exploit the frequency masking. On the other hand, for transient signal portions the same configuration can cause severe pre-echo artifacts. In this case the quantization error spreading over the whole length of the analysis window can easily violate the pre-masking threshold.

A successful method to meet these varying requirements is presented in [Edl89]. It is shown that the shape of the MDCT window function can be changed in each block individually while maintaining the perfect reconstruction property. Furthermore, using a window function with a reduced range of overlap, the succeeding block can switch to an MDCT with a lower number of bands, covering a smaller range of time domain samples. In this way a trade-off between frequency resolution and time resolution can be made dynamically according to the signal characteristics.

Based on the decomposition of the MDCT described in Section 3.1.5, the process of window switching can be described in a very modular way. In order to switch to

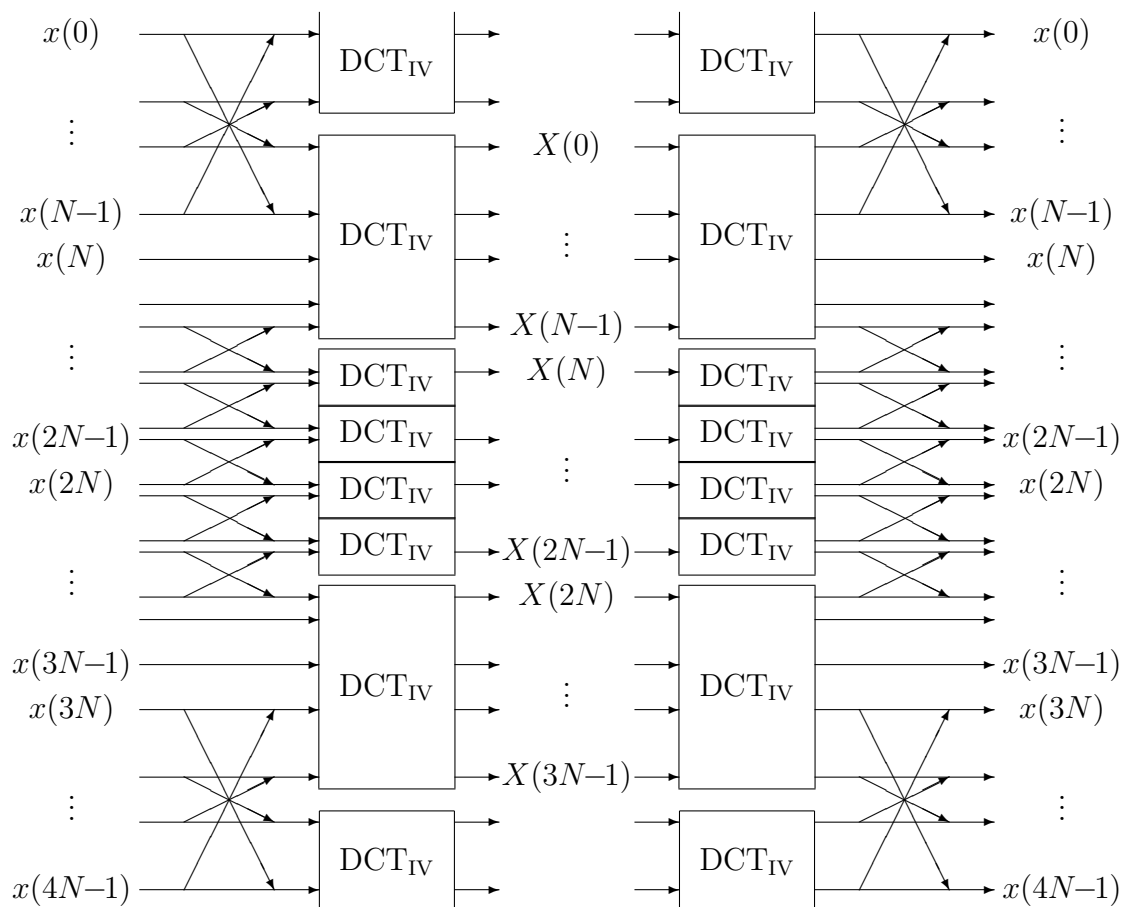


Figure 3.13: Window switching for MDCT and inverse MDCT decomposed into Windowing/TDA and DCT_{IV}

a lower transform length, the range of values covered by the Windowing/TDA stage has to be reduced. The succeeding block can then switch to a DCT_{IV} of shorter length. The range covered by the Windowing/TDA stage is always centered around the border of two DCT_{IV} blocks. Figure 3.13 illustrates a situation where switching between a long block and four short blocks is applied.

Temporal Noise Shaping

By means of the technique of entropy coding in spectral domain a high coding gain can be achieved especially for tonal signals. For transient parts of the signal the coding gain is low due to the flat spectrum of transient signals. As set out in

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[HJ96, HJ97b], this flatness can be exploited by applying linear prediction in the frequency domain. A forward-adaptive linear predictive coding (LPC) approach [JN84] is applied, utilizing the autocorrelation function of the spectral values and the Levinson-Durbin recursion. The required filter order typically ranges between 4 and 12. In [HJ96] two alternatives are described. One uses an open loop predictor, the other uses a closed loop predictor. The first alternative is called “Temporal Noise Shaping” (TNS). The quantization after the prediction leads to an adaptation of the resulting quantization noise to the temporal structure of the audio signal and therefore prevents pre-echoes in perceptual audio coders. In contrast to the Window Switching technique, TNS also delivers an improvement for pitch-based signals such as speech. TNS in combination with filter banks such as the MDCT can be seen as a continuously signal-adaptive filter bank [HJ97a], allowing control over the time and frequency structure of the quantization noise.

Joint Stereo Coding

Two widely used joint stereo coding techniques are described in [HEB92]: Intensity Stereo Coding and M/S Stereo Coding.

Intensity Stereo Coding is used as a tool for irrelevancy reduction at lower bitrates. In the high frequency range only one channel is transmitted, in addition to the energy envelope of both channels. This technique allows to reduce the bitrate for stereo signals, but it can also lead to a loss of spatial information.

M/S Stereo Coding aims for high quality coding at higher bitrates. For this technique a matrixing can be applied in order to code sum and difference instead of the left and the right channel. This allows to exploit inter-channel redundancy and it shapes the quantization noise spatially to avoid stereo unmasking effects.

Perceptual Noise Substitution

The Perceptual Noise Substitution (PNS) technique is a parametric coding technique for noise-like signal portions. It was introduced for high-quality audio coding in [Sch96, HS98]. It allows to efficiently code noise-like frequency bands by just transmitting the total energy of this band and synthesizing the spectral values based on a noise generator in the decoder.

3.3.3 MPEG-1 Layer-3 and MPEG-2/4 AAC

Nowadays numerous perceptual audio coding schemes following the basic principles described in Section 3.3.1 are available. As examples, the coding schemes MPEG-1 Layer-3 (MP3) [MPE93b] and MPEG-2 AAC [AAC97] shall be described in some detail here. A comprehensive description of both coding schemes can also be found in [Bra99].

MPEG-1 Layer-3

In this codec a hybrid filter bank is used, consisting of a 32-band polyphase filter bank cascaded with an 18-band MDCT, resulting in 576 frequency bands. A method to reduce aliasing effects of cascaded filter banks [Edl92] is included. The window switching technique is used, allowing 3 times a 6-band MDCT instead of the 18-band MDCT for transient signal portions. The quantization and coding stage utilizes a non-uniform quantizer and Huffman coding. In order to determine a perceptually optimum quantization result within a fixed bitrate, usually two nested loops (rate loop and distortion loop) are applied. To allow for a local variation of the bitrate within the constraint of a constant bitrate, a bit-reservoir technique is applied. For stereo signals Intensity coding and M/S coding can be employed.

MPEG-2 AAC

MPEG-2 Advanced Audio Coding (AAC) can be seen as a further development of MPEG-1 Layer-3. It is based on similar technical principles. Nevertheless, a backwards compatibility was not considered in order to get the best improvement in coding efficiency. Figure 3.14 shows a block diagram of an MPEG-2 AAC encoder. In the following the most important improvements compared to MPEG-1 Layer-3 are described. An MDCT with a high frequency resolution of 1024 bands is used instead of a hybrid filter bank. The block switching technique allows to switch to eight times 128 bands for transient signals. Additionally the TNS tool can be used. The joint stereo coding tools Intensity and M/S coding have become more flexible in that they can be switched on or off for each scale factor band individually. An optional prediction tool can further improve the coding efficiency for very tonal

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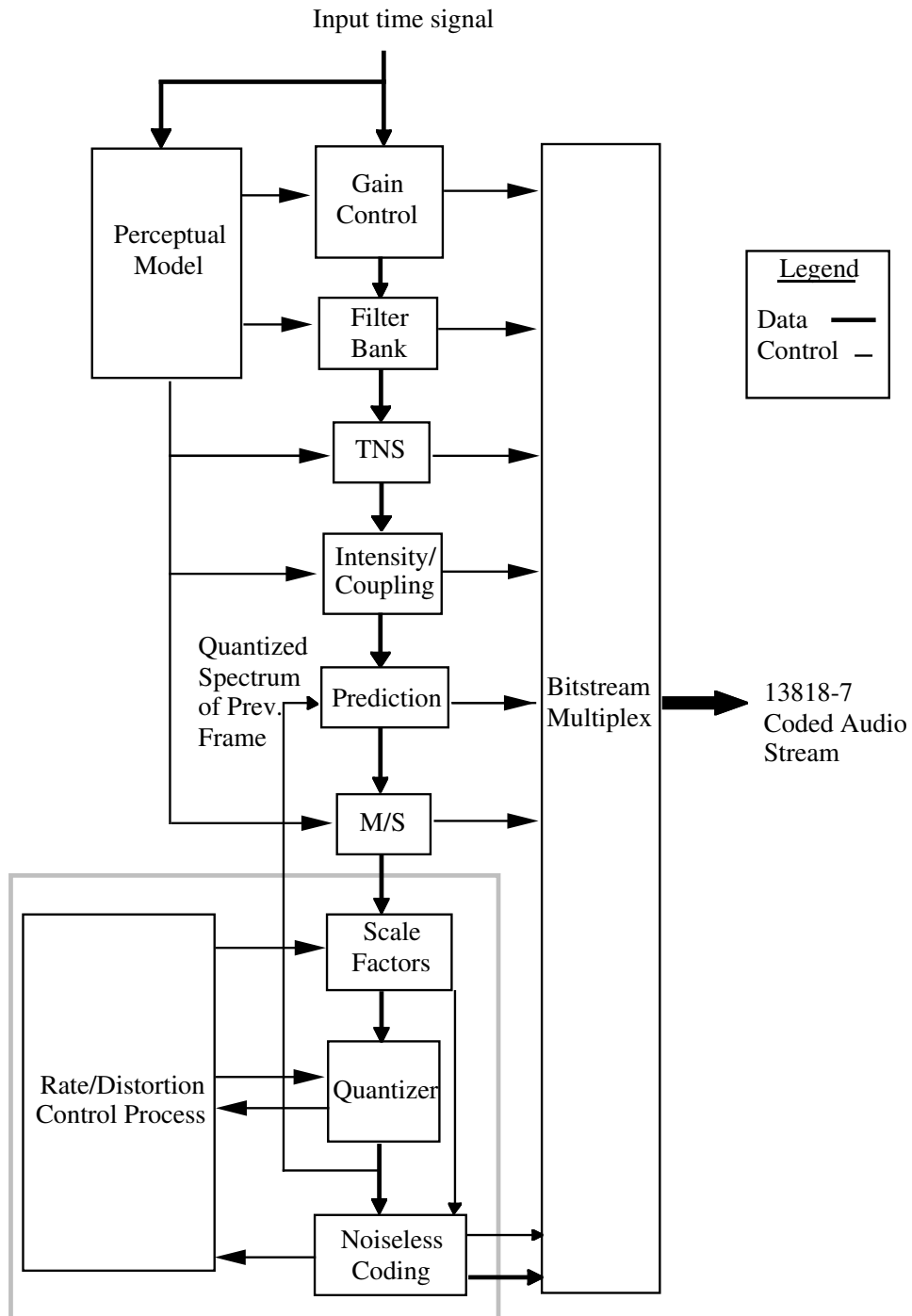


Figure 3.14: Block diagram of MPEG-2 AAC encoder

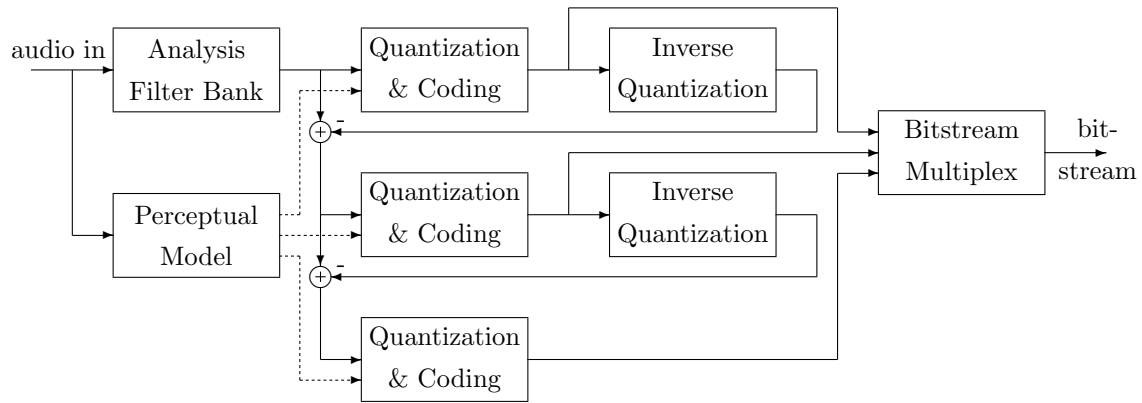


Figure 3.15: Basic principle of scalable perceptual audio coder

signals by applying a backward adaptive predictor on each frequency value. Finally, the Huffman coding is made more flexible.

3.4 Scalable Perceptual Audio Coding

3.4.1 Scalable Enhancement of AAC

Scalable Coding, also called “Hierarchical Coding”, allows to arrange the coded signal in a hierarchical way. Usually the bitstream is divided into so-called “Layers”. The more layers are decoded, the higher is the signal quality and the overall bitrate. Every enhancement layer provides additional information for decoding to higher quality.

The concept of scalability was introduced to perceptual audio coding in [BG94]. In that publication the scalability was obtained by a time-domain approach, using complete encoding and decoding stages and calculation of the time-domain error after each stage. In [GB95] a frequency-domain approach is presented. It allows to encode several layers in frequency domain by starting with a coarse quantization of the spectral values and refining them for the enhancement layers. Figure 3.15 illustrates the basic structure of a three-layer system utilizing several stages of quantization and inverse quantization in frequency domain. An evaluation of different scalable approaches can be found in [Gri01].

The frequency domain approach is also adopted as a scalable extension of AAC in MPEG-4 [MPE01, Gri97]. Additionally, this scalable codec allows other codecs such as CELP or TwinVQ as core codecs in the first layer. Furthermore, a mono-stereo scalability is possible, allowing a mono signal to be enhanced to a stereo signal. A comprehensive description of the MPEG-4 AAC Scalable codec can be found in [Gri99].

In [ARR01] a modification of the structure in Figure 3.15 is proposed, considering the compander property of the non-uniform quantizer and performing all quantization stages in the compressed domain. Rudimentarily, this approach is already mentioned in [GB95].

3.4.2 Fine-Grain Scalable Audio Coding

The concept of fine-grain scalable audio coding by bitsliced arithmetic coding (BSAC) was introduced for audio coding in [PKKS97] and is standardized as a part of MPEG-4 [MPE01].

In this context, BSAC plays the role of an alternative lossless coding kernel for MPEG-4 AAC, utilizing the MDCT and applying a perceptually controlled bandwise quantization to the spectral values. The main difference between BSAC and the standard AAC lossless coding kernel is that the quantized values are not Huffman coded, but arithmetically coded in bitslices. This allows a fine grain scalability by omitting some of the lower bitslices while maintaining a compression efficiency comparable to that of the Huffman coding approach.

3.5 Lossless Audio Coding

Lossless audio coding can be achieved either by predictive coding or by transform coding. The basic principles and some representative systems will be described in the following. The theory behind both approaches is described in [JN84], also showing that the theoretically possible coding gain for stationary random signals is equal in both approaches.

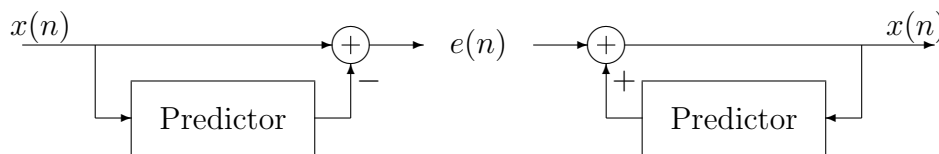


Figure 3.16: Basic principle of predictive coding

3.5.1 Prediction-Based Lossless Audio Coding

Predictive coding is a widely adopted technique for lossless audio coding. Early adoptions of this technique to lossless audio coding can be found in [Moo79] and [SH86]. In [Moo79] first and second order difference values of the audio samples are coded. In [SH86] this concept is extended by using a set of integer coefficient filters.

The basic principle of predictive coding is to predict the value of the current sample based on the values of previous samples, and only encode the remaining difference value. In the decoder the same predictor is used to reconstruct the original values. This is illustrated in Figure 3.16.

In [JN84] the theoretical background of obtaining an optimum linear prediction filter with a minimum mean squared error is described. Based on the autocorrelation function of the signal, the optimum linear predictor of length N is described by the Wiener-Hopf equations. The Levinson-Durbin algorithm provides an efficient recursive algorithm for finding this optimum prediction filter.

Several lossless audio coding approaches using this linear predictive coding (LPC) technique have been published [CT93, CCR93, BOvdVvdK96, Rob94]. Alternative approaches use IIR prediction filters instead of FIR prediction filters [CG96, CLS97, GCS⁺99] or backward adaptive prediction [Ang97]. Furthermore, the linear prediction concept can also be applied successfully to correlated stereo channels, resulting in a stereo prediction as an alternative to mid-side coding [CT93, Lie02, Ghi03].

In recent years numerous predictive lossless audio codecs have been developed and published on the internet as freeware, e.g. Shorten [Rob94, Sof], LPAC [Lie04], Monkey's Audio [Ash], FLAC [Coa], OptimFROG [Ghi]. Several articles provide performance evaluations of some of these codecs, e.g. [HS01a]. Especially on the internet, some frequently updated comparisons can be found, e.g. [Spe04, Hei04]. These comparisons use several Audio CDs with popular music as input signals. They

report compression ratios of 55% resp. 53% of the original size, depending on the selection of the input signals.

3.5.2 Transform-Based Lossless Audio Coding

An approach for using transform coding for lossless audio coding has been presented in [PLN97]. In this approach the DCT is used to transform the audio signal block by block. A quantization is applied to the spectral values to allow efficient entropy coding of the spectral values. This quantization introduces an error into the signal representation which is coded additionally in time domain. The basic structure in this approach is motivated by the idea mentioned in [CG96] to use a lossy coding algorithm and additionally code the error signal to achieve lossless coding.

A similar approach was presented in [KSB97, KSB99]. In that approach the MDCT is used instead of the DCT.

Both approaches have the same drawback: The transforms used produce floating point values even for integer input values. The number of possible output values increases considerably compared to the number of possible input values. One reason for this effect is the energy compaction property of the transform, resulting in a higher range of possible spectral values compared to the range of input values. Another reason is given by the actual coefficients of the transform. As they stem from trigonometric functions, they are usually irrational numbers. Thus the spectral values consist of linear combinations of these irrational numbers. Due to these properties of the underlying transform it seems impossible to directly encode all possible spectral values in an efficient way. Hence a quantization is necessary to achieve a reduction of data rate. By applying a quantization, the perfect reconstruction property of the transform is destroyed. Consequently, for lossless audio coding either the quantization has to be fine enough to allow neglecting the resulting error, or the error signal has to be coded additionally in time domain.

One major goal of this work is to eliminate this drawback. This will be achieved by introducing a quantization in the transform without destroying the perfect reconstruction property.

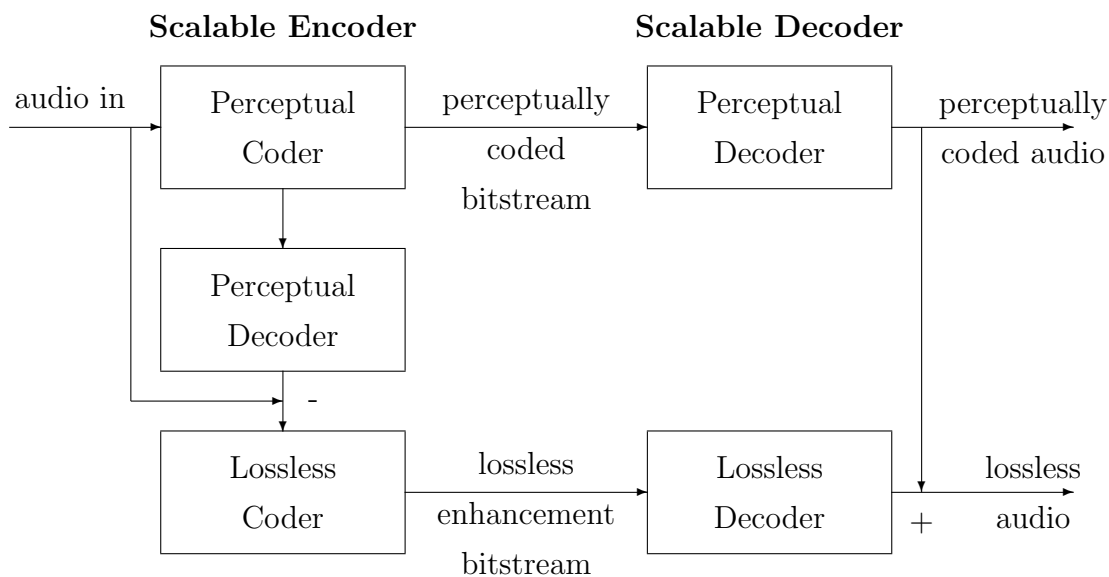


Figure 3.17: Principle of scalable perceptual and lossless coding in time domain

3.6 Scalable Perceptual and Lossless Audio Coding

In principle, a perceptual codec can be extended to a scalable perceptual and lossless system by including the perceptual decoder in the encoder, calculating the error signal in time domain and additionally coding this residual signal. This basic idea has already been mentioned in [CG96]. Figure 3.17 illustrates the general structure of such an approach. A system utilizing this approach has been presented in [MIJM00] using an MPEG-4 audio codec as a perceptual core codec.

A drawback of these approaches, as was already mentioned in [CG96], is the bit-exact conformance of the core codec. In order to assure lossless decoding, a bit-exact operation of the perceptual core codec has to be demanded. Usually this is not the case in specifications of perceptual codecs, see e.g. [MPE01]. Due to different decoder implementations, slightly different waveform outputs can occur. This does usually not affect the perceptual quality of the different outputs, but it precludes a realization of this scalable system based on different available implementations of the underlying perceptual decoder.

One goal of this work is to eliminate this drawback by providing an architecture for scalable perceptual and lossless coding in frequency domain.

3.7 Integer-to-Integer Transforms

3.7.1 Ladder Network and Lifting Scheme

Usually, orthogonal block transforms are decomposed into Givens rotations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

in order to obtain fast algorithms. While these basic building blocks are mathematically invertible by just applying a rotation with the corresponding negative angle, this inversion can in general not be done exactly within a limited precision of the input values and the coefficients. Especially for lossless coding of integer input values, integer output values are desired, while the invertibility (or perfect reconstruction property) should be maintained.

This issue can be solved by using a structure called “lifting scheme” or “ladder network”. The “ladder network” technique was introduced into digital signal processing in [Cro72] and [MS73]. In these publications it was used as an implementation method for digital filters. In [BE92] this technique is applied to transform coding to maintain perfect reconstruction in the presence of quantization. Both a general solution for 2×2 matrices with determinant 1, and some examples for higher dimensions are presented. In [THK95] ladder networks are applied to two-band FIR filter banks.

A very similar approach is introduced in [DS98, CDSY98], using the name “lifting scheme”. In these publications decompositions of 2×2 matrices are utilized in the context of wavelet transforms.

In more recent publications the term “lifting scheme” has become more frequently used than the term “ladder network”. In the following the author will also use the term “lifting scheme”.

The basic building blocks of the lifting scheme are called “lifting steps”. They have the general structure

$$L_a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ a & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{3.33}$$

with a real value a called “lifting coefficient”, or the transpose of this matrix. The

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lifting step L_a maps two value (x_1, x_2) to

$$L_a(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_2 + ax_1) \quad (3.34)$$

The inverse lifting step is given by

$$L_a^{-1} = L_{-a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -a & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.35)$$

In case of integer input values (x_1, x_2) a rounding function $[\cdot]$ can be included into the lifting step L_a in order to obtain integer output values. The resulting integer lifting step is given by

$$L_{a,[\cdot]}(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_2 + [ax_1]) \quad (3.36)$$

Despite of the rounding function, this integer lifting step can still be inverted. The inverse integer lifting step is given by

$$L_{a,[\cdot]}^{-1}(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_2 - [ax_1]) \quad (3.37)$$

If the rounding function $[\cdot]$ is odd symmetric, the inverse integer lifting step can also be expressed by

$$L_{a,[\cdot]}^{-1} = L_{-a,[\cdot]} \quad (3.38)$$

Overall, every lifting step can be approximated by an integer mapping without sacrificing the invertibility. Hence, every matrix that can be decomposed into lifting steps can be converted into an invertible integer approximation with this technique.

A lifting step decomposition for a 2×2 matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

with $b \neq 0$ and determinant 1 is described in [BE92] by

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ (d-1)/b & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ (a-1)/b & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.39)$$

Based on this general decomposition for 2×2 matrices the following lifting decomposition for Givens rotations can easily be obtained:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{\cos \alpha - 1}{\sin \alpha} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \sin \alpha & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{\cos \alpha - 1}{\sin \alpha} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.40)$$

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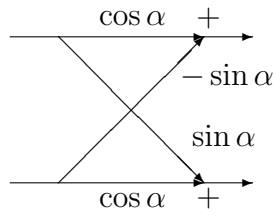


Figure 3.18: Givens rotation

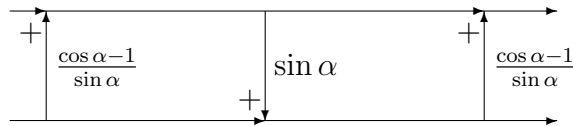


Figure 3.19: Givens rotation by three lifting steps

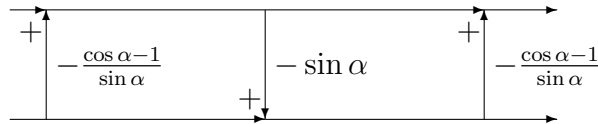


Figure 3.20: Inverse Givens rotation by three lifting steps

Figure 3.18 illustrates the direct application of a Givens rotation. Figures 3.19 and 3.20 show the forward and inverse lifting decompositions.

By converting the three lifting steps in Equation 3.40 into integer lifting steps, an integer approximation of this Givens rotation is obtained, called “integer rotation” in the following. This integer rotation can be inverted without introducing an error by applying the inverse lifting steps in reverse order using the same rounding function.

Every transform that can be decomposed into Givens rotations can utilize this decomposition and can consequently be approximated by an invertible integer transform.

3.7.2 Integer Transforms

In recent years lifting-based filter banks and transforms have widely been discussed and adopted in the context of image coding. The image coding standard JPEG2000 [JPEb] adopts a lifting based Discrete Wavelet Transform, in line with the development in [DS98, CDSY98].

As was mentioned above, every transform, that can be decomposed into Givens rotations, can be approximated by a lossless integer transform using the lifting scheme. Concerning transforms focusing on image coding this technique has already been presented several times. In [KS98] an 8-point lossless Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) is obtained. In [KS00] an 8-point lossless Lapped Orthogonal Transform (LOT) is described. In [LT01, Tra00b, Tra00a] this technique is further refined to get fast multiplierless approximations of DCT and LOT used in image coding. Similarly, an approximation of the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) has been proposed in [OCN01].

In [WVVY01] an integer DCT is used to remove inter-channel redundancy of a perceptually coded multichannel audio signal. This is done in a lossless way after the quantization of the MDCT values of the respective channels.

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4.1 The Integer Modified Discrete Cosine Transform

As shown in Section 3.1.5, the MDCT can be decomposed into a Windowing/TDA stage consisting of Givens rotations and the DCT_{IV} . This stage can be implemented with lifting steps by defining the lifting coefficients

$$cs_k = \frac{w(N-1-k) - 1}{w(k)} \quad , \quad s_k = w(k) \quad (4.1)$$

based on the window function $w(k)$, $k = 0, \dots, 2N-1$. Thus the Windowing/TDA stage can be performed by utilizing $N/2$ integer rotations. Figure 4.1 illustrates the structure of the resulting Integer Windowing/TDA stage.

The DCT_{IV} can also be decomposed into Givens rotations by utilizing a fast $O(N \log N)$ algorithm. A possible decomposition is described in [Wan84]. In [SBE92] another decomposition of the DCT_{IV} into Givens rotations is described implicitly by presenting a fast algorithm for the MDCT. Another very common fast algorithm for the DCT_{IV} utilizes the FFT in combination with two stages of Givens rotations, see [Mal92].

All these decompositions have in common that, overall, the MDCT is completely decomposed into Givens rotations. Hence, the lifting scheme can be applied to get an invertible integer approximation of the MDCT, called Integer Modified Discrete Cosine Transform (IntMDCT) in the following. This approach was first presented by the author in [GSKB01].

Here it should be noted that fast algorithms for the DCT_{IV} usually comprise a

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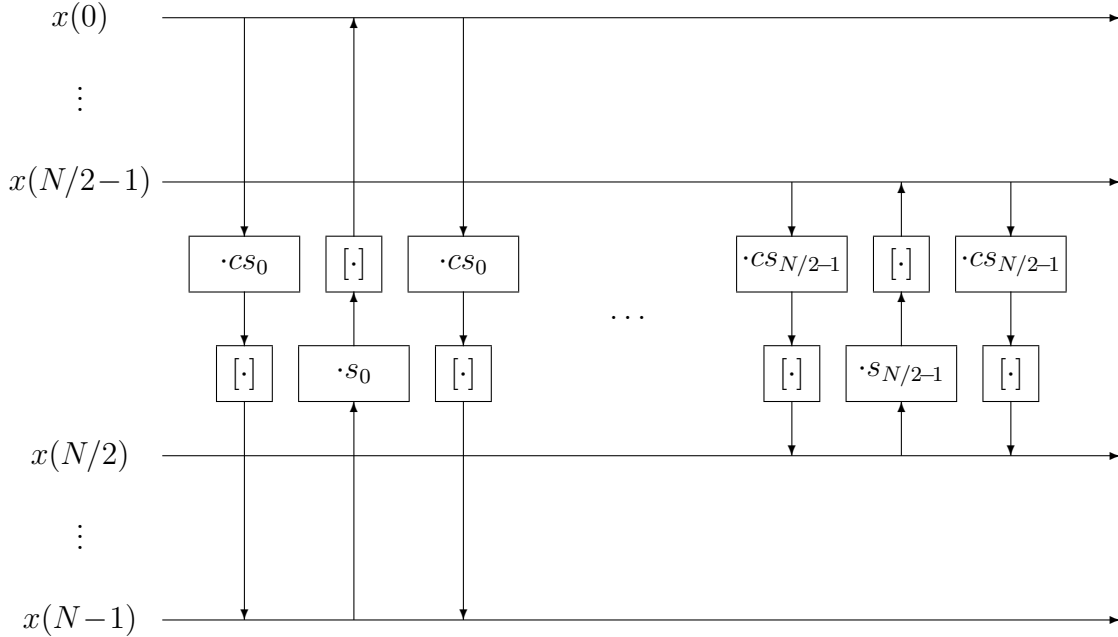


Figure 4.1: Integer Windowing/TDA using lifting

large number of trivial sum-difference butterflies

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.2)$$

A direct implementation of these butterflies, as usually done in fast algorithms, would be invertible, but the energy of the signals would increase by a factor of 2 for each butterfly. In order to avoid this for the IntMDCT, these butterflies are normalized and implemented as integer rotations with an angle of $\pi/4$. The lifting implementation assures an energy conservation, apart from the introduced quantization error. Hence the IntMDCT provides a certain kind of energy conservation. Due to the overlapping structure, an energy conservation on a block by block basis, like the one described by Parseval's Theorem, can not be achieved. Energy can be distributed unequally between two succeeding blocks. Nevertheless, the average energy per block is maintained because during the complete process only integer rotations are applied. Despite this energy conservation, it has to be considered that the range of possible integer spectral values is higher than the range of the integer input values. This is due to the energy compaction property of the transform. The maximum possible value can be estimated by considering the ideal case that the

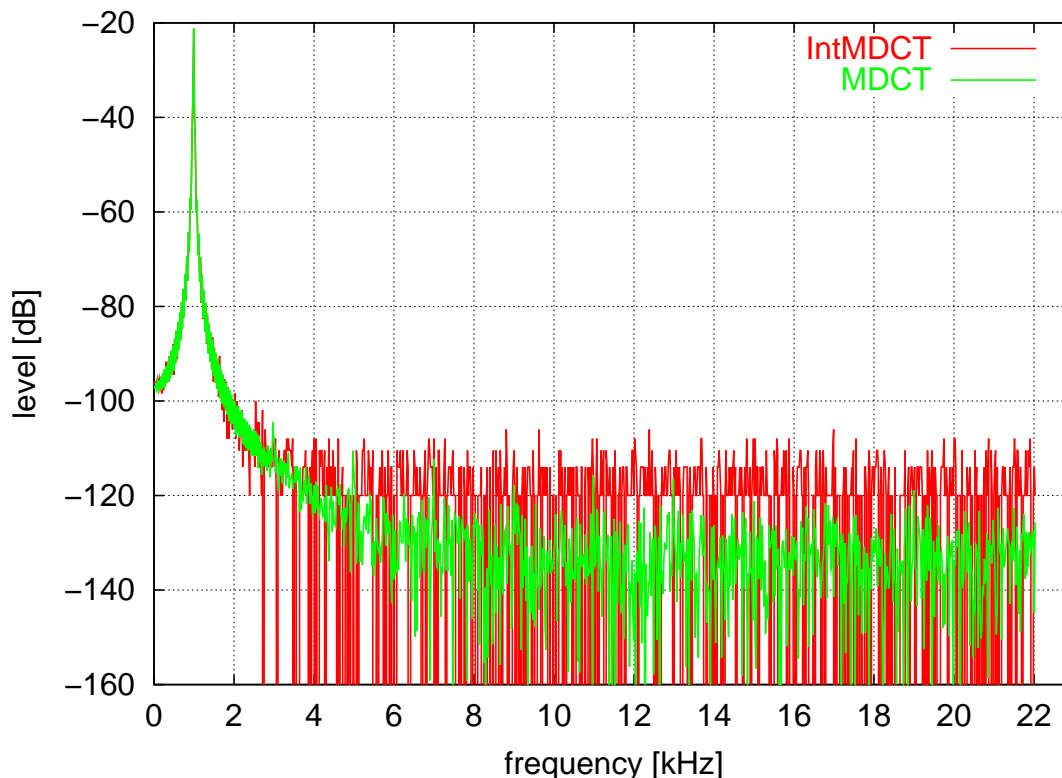


Figure 4.2: IntMDCT and MDCT spectra of sine 1kHz -20dBFS

energy of a full-scale sinusoidal signal is compacted to exactly one spectral value.

The IntMDCT inherits most of the favorable properties of the MDCT, including the overlapping structure and critical sampling by means of Time Domain Aliasing Cancellation. When evaluating the frequency selectivity of the IntMDCT, it has to be noted that non-linearities are inherent in the lifting steps due to the quantization. Consequently, it is not sufficient to consider the IntMDCT in the way of conventional linear FIR filters by computing frequency responses. The frequency selectivity of the IntMDCT is therefore estimated by comparing the IntMDCT spectrum of certain input signals with the MDCT spectrum.

Figure 4.2 shows both IntMDCT and MDCT magnitude spectra of a 1 kHz sine wave with a level of -20dBFS. Both transforms use a resolution of 1024 spectral values and a sine window.

As can be seen from Figure 4.2, the inherent non-linearities become apparent as an internal ‘noise floor’ at a level of around -110dBFS. Since the absolute level

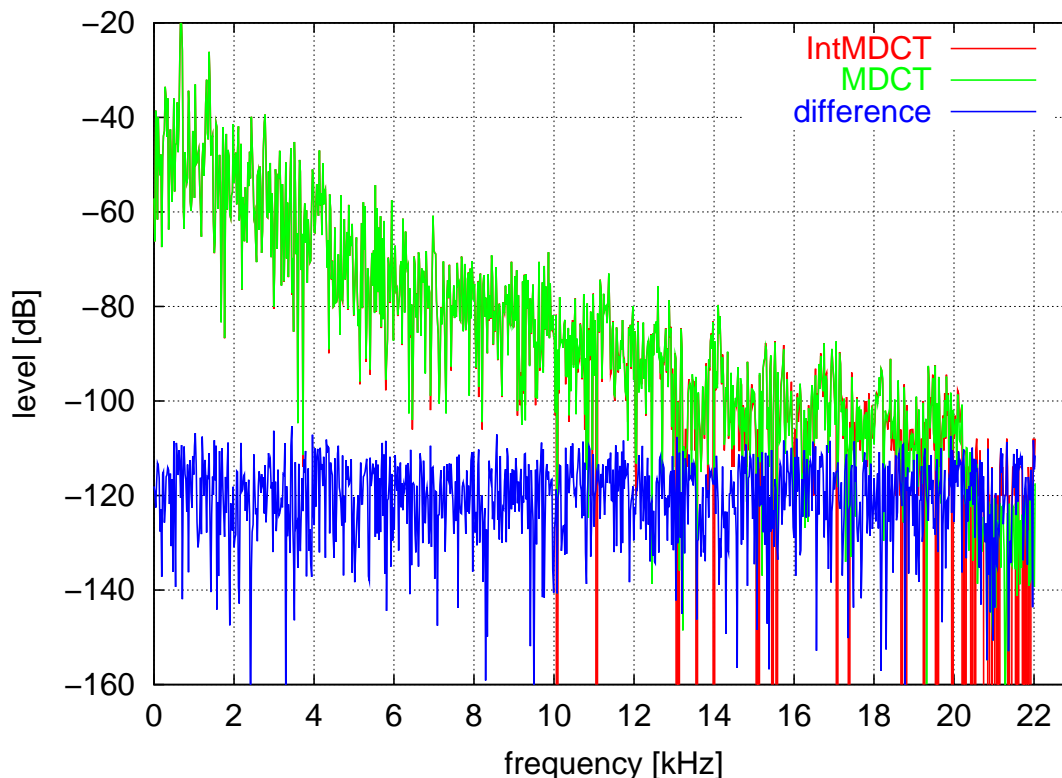


Figure 4.3: IntMDCT and MDCT spectra of Carl Orff’s Carmina Burana

of these rounding errors stays approximately constant for most part of the input signal, the frequency selectivity of the IntMDCT depends on the input signal level. For audio signals containing significant energy in each frequency band, however, the added distortion can be neglected and the IntMDCT closely approximates the MDCT. Figure 4.3 depicts absolute IntMDCT, MDCT and difference values for Carl Orff’s Carmina Burana (track 64 of SQAM [SQA88], see Table 7.1). The difference values are not correlated with the spectral values and assume a constant order of magnitude over the whole spectrum.

4.2 Integer Low Delay Filter Banks

The low delay filter banks described in Section 3.1.6 can be seen as a generalization of the MDCT with arbitrary system delay. In this section it will be shown that a lifting-based integer approximation is also possible in this general case.

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Looking at the general decomposition of the Windowing/TDA stage in the analysis filter bank in Section 3.1.6, it can be observed that the basic building blocks of zero delay matrices and maximum delay matrices already consist of lifting steps.

Hence, the only task remaining to obtain a complete decomposition into lifting steps is the decomposition of the $N \times N$ diagonal matrix in Equation 3.28:

$$D = \text{diag}(d_0, \dots, d_{N-1})$$

Without loss of generality it can be assumed that the determinant of D is 1. To obtain a lifting decomposition of D , the following decomposition of a 2×2 diagonal matrix with determinant 1 is used:

$$\begin{pmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & d^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ d^{-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -d \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & d^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.3)$$

Similar to the lifting decomposition of Givens rotations, this decomposition can be regarded as a special case of the 3-step lifting decomposition of 2×2 matrices presented in Equation 3.39. In [DS98] a similar lifting decomposition of 2×2 diagonal matrices is accomplished by four lifting steps.

The diagonal matrix D can be decomposed into $N - 1$ 2×2 diagonal matrices with a determinant of 1 by starting with

$$D = \text{diag}(d_0, d_0^{-1}, 1, \dots, 1) \cdot \text{diag}(1, d_0 \cdot d_1, d_2, \dots, d_{N-1}) \quad (4.4)$$

and applying the same decomposition recursively to the $(N - 1) \times (N - 1)$ matrix $\text{diag}(d_0 \cdot d_1, d_2, \dots, d_{N-1})$.

In this way the low delay filter bank described in Section 3.1.6 can be completely decomposed into lifting steps, as long as the minor restriction is met that the determinant of the diagonal matrix D is one.

This result is a generalization of the result published by the author in [GS02]. In that paper the lifting decomposition was obtained under the restriction that $d_i = 1/d_{N-1-i}$ for $i = 0, \dots, N/2 - 1$. This has been shown to be equivalent to constraining the prototype windows in the analysis and synthesis filter bank to be identical except for a sign. However such a restriction is not severe, as it holds in most practical applications.

4.3 Improved IntMDCT Using Multi-Dimensional Lifting

4.3.1 Introduction

As described in the previous sections, integer transforms can be obtained by decomposing the transform into Givens rotations and applying the lifting scheme or ladder network to each Givens rotation. These integer rotations introduce a rounding error in each step. For succeeding stages of integer rotations the rounding error accumulates. The resulting difference between the spectral values of the original transform and the spectral values of the corresponding integer transform is called “approximation error” in the following. This approximation error becomes a drawback, especially for long transforms of e.g. 1024 spectral values, as used in audio coding applications. Specifically for the high frequency range, where audio signals usually contain a rather small amount of energy, the approximation error can be larger than the actual signal and becomes the main limiting factor for lossless coding efficiency.

So the main design objective for improved integer transforms is the reduction of the approximation error. Besides that, the computational complexity should also be considered. The current approach of applying the lifting scheme to each Givens rotation, including trivial sum-difference butterflies, increases the computational complexity, compared to the original non-integer version of the transform, by a factor of about 2.

Some publications [BE92], [KS98], [HS01b], [WSY03], mostly focusing on lossless image coding, propose a reduction of the resulting approximation error by a generalized lifting decomposition. In these generalizations the processing of more than two values is proposed. The corresponding $N \times N$ matrix is decomposed into unit upper and lower triangular matrices. In order to implement a lossless integer approximation of this decomposition, a maximum of $N - 1$ rounding operations is introduced for each triangular matrix. So the total number of rounding operations can be reduced compared to the conventional lifting approach. In [BE92] and [HS01b] triangular matrix decompositions using $2N - 1$ or $N + 1$ rounding operations are reported. Unfortunately, these approaches cannot simply be applied to long transforms used in audio coding because the resulting algorithm has a considerable computational

complexity ($O(N^2)$) compared to fast, rotation-based algorithms ($O(N \log N)$). Furthermore, the dynamic range of the values in the triangular matrices can increase too much to allow a practical implementation.

The approach presented in [WSY03] uses block matrices to recursively obtain a triangular matrix decomposition. While the new approach presented in the following is based on similar block matrices, no recursion is necessary here. This approach was published by the author in [GYS03, GYSH04].

4.3.2 From Classic to Multi-Dimensional Lifting

Based on the general lifting decomposition of 2×2 matrices in Equation 3.39 the following decomposition has been derived in Equation 4.3:

$$\begin{pmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & d^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ d^{-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -d \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & d^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

This decomposition provides the basic idea for the new approach put forward in this section. The equation still holds when all values are replaced by $n \times n$ matrices. Thus, for any invertible $n \times n$ matrix T and for the $n \times n$ identity matrix I_n the following decomposition of $2n \times 2n$ block matrices is possible:

$$\begin{pmatrix} T & 0 \\ 0 & T^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -I_n & 0 \\ T^{-1} & I_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_n & -T \\ 0 & I_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_n \\ I_n & T^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.5)$$

Apart from some simple operations, such as permutations or multiplication by -1 , all three blocks of this decomposition have the following general structure:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ A & I_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.6)$$

with an $n \times n$ matrix A .

To this $2n \times 2n$ block matrix a generalized lifting scheme can be applied, called “Multi-Dimensional Lifting” or “MDL” in the following. Similar to the conventional lifting scheme with 2×2 matrices presented in Section 3.7.1, these $2n \times 2n$ matrices can be used for invertible integer approximations of the transform T in the following way: The first half of the integer input values are processed by the matrix A , rounded to integer values, and finally added to the second half of the values.

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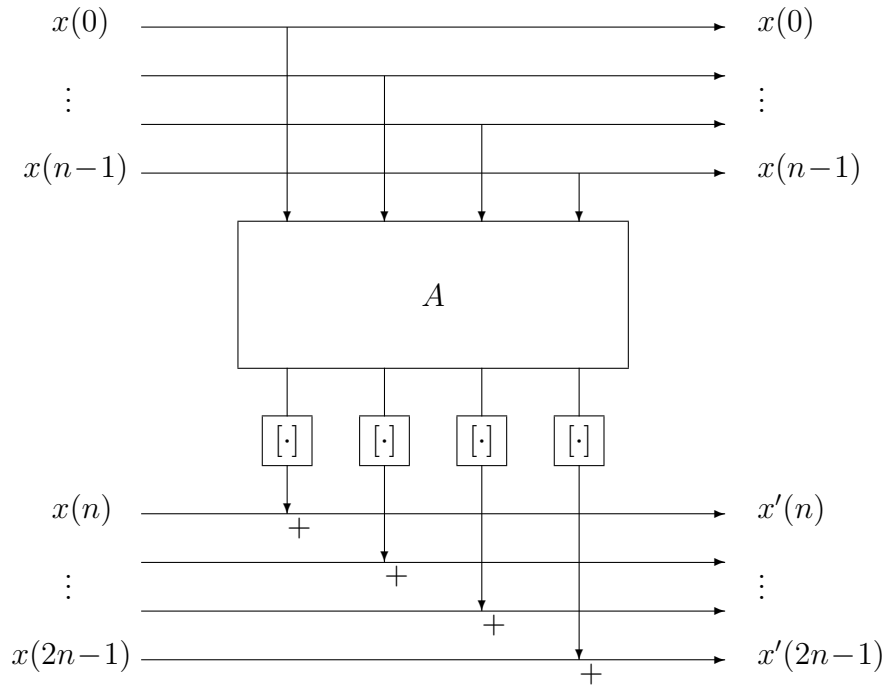


Figure 4.4: Forward step for multi-dimensional lifting with rounding ($[\cdot]$)

The inverse of the block matrix is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ A & I_n \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ -A & I_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.7)$$

In this way, the process can be inverted without any error by simply applying the same matrix A and the same rounding, and subtracting the resulting values instead of adding them. As the first half of the values is not modified in the forward step, they are still available for the inverse operation. Figures 4.4 and 4.5 illustrate the forward and inverse step. No special restrictions apply to the matrix A , e.g. it does not necessarily have to be invertible.

4.3.3 IntMDCT by Multi-Dimensional Lifting

In the IntMDCT approach presented in Section 4.1, both the Windowing/TDA stage and the DCT_{IV} are decomposed into Givens rotations and approximated by integer rotations. The number of Givens rotations necessary for the DCT_{IV} is $O(N \log N)$ for a transform of length N . The Windowing/TDA stage consists of only $N/2$ Givens

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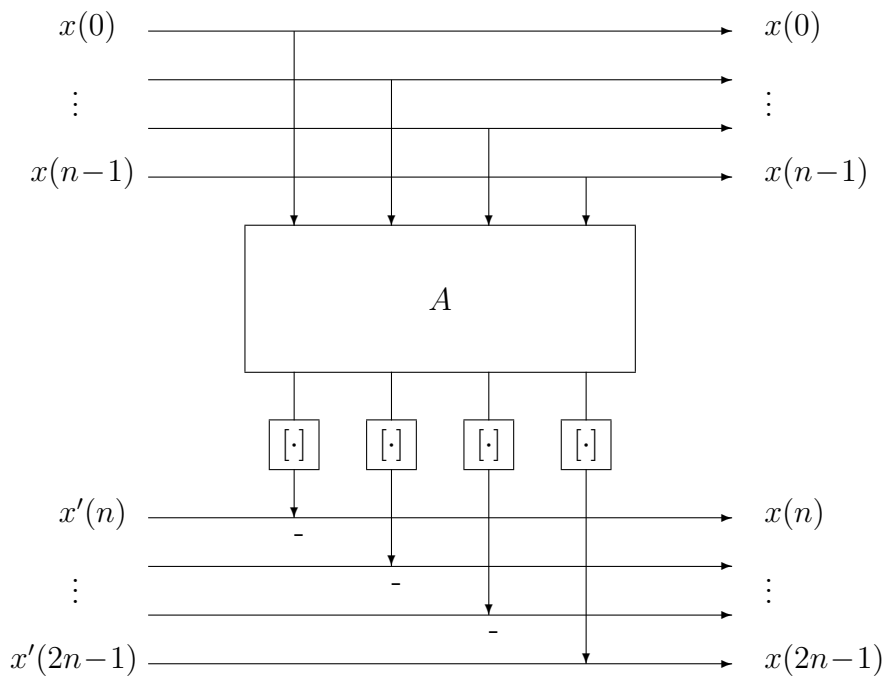


Figure 4.5: Inverse step for multi-dimensional lifting with rounding

rotations, resulting in $3N/2$ rounding steps. Consequently, concerning transform lengths used in audio coding applications, e.g. 1024, the main contribution to the approximation error results from the integer approximation of the DCT_{IV} block.

Based on the multi-dimensional lifting approach the number of rounding operations necessary for the integer approximation of the DCT_{IV} can be reduced to $O(N)$, as shown in the following.

4.3.4 The Stereo IntMDCT

The most straight-forward way of using the multi-dimensional lifting approach for the calculation of the IntMDCT is to apply a DCT_{IV} to two blocks of input signals simultaneously. These blocks can either be two subsequent blocks of the input signal or correspond to the left and the right channel of a stereo input signal. The decomposition in Equation 4.5 is applied to the DCT_{IV} matrix. Since the inverse of

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a DCT_{IV} is again the DCT_{IV} , the decomposition in Equation 4.5 becomes:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & 0 \\ 0 & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -I_N & 0 \\ \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & -\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \\ 0 & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_N \\ I_N & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.8)$$

The steps of permutations and multiplications with -1 can be isolated to separate block matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & 0 \\ 0 & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -I_N & 0 \\ 0 & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & 0 \\ \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & -\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \\ 0 & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & 0 \\ \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_N \\ I_N & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.9)$$

Thus, apart from permutations and multiplications with -1 , the application of the DCT_{IV} to two blocks of signals can be performed using three multi-dimensional lifting steps:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_N & 0 \\ \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & -\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \\ 0 & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & 0 \\ \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.10)$$

This process is illustrated for a stereo signal with left channel x_L and right channel x_R in Figure 4.6, including the rounding operations required for the integer approximation. The inverse process is illustrated in Figure 4.7.

With this approach, two DCT_{IV} transforms of length N can be implemented in an invertible integer fashion with only $3N$ rounding steps, i.e. $3N/2$ rounding steps per transform.

The DCT_{IV} used in the three multi-dimensional lifting steps can be of an arbitrary implementation, such as floating-point or fixed-point based, and does not need to be invertible. It just has to be performed in the same way in the forward and inverse IntMDCT. The overall computational complexity is about 1.5 times larger than in case of a non-integer implementation of the two DCT_{IV} transforms. Compared to the approach in Section 4.1 based on the conventional lifting scheme, a significant complexity reduction is achieved. This is due to the fact that this implementation, being about twice as complex as a conventional DCT_{IV} , has to handle the trivial sum-difference butterflies by integer rotations in order to guarantee energy conservation, as described in Section 4.1.

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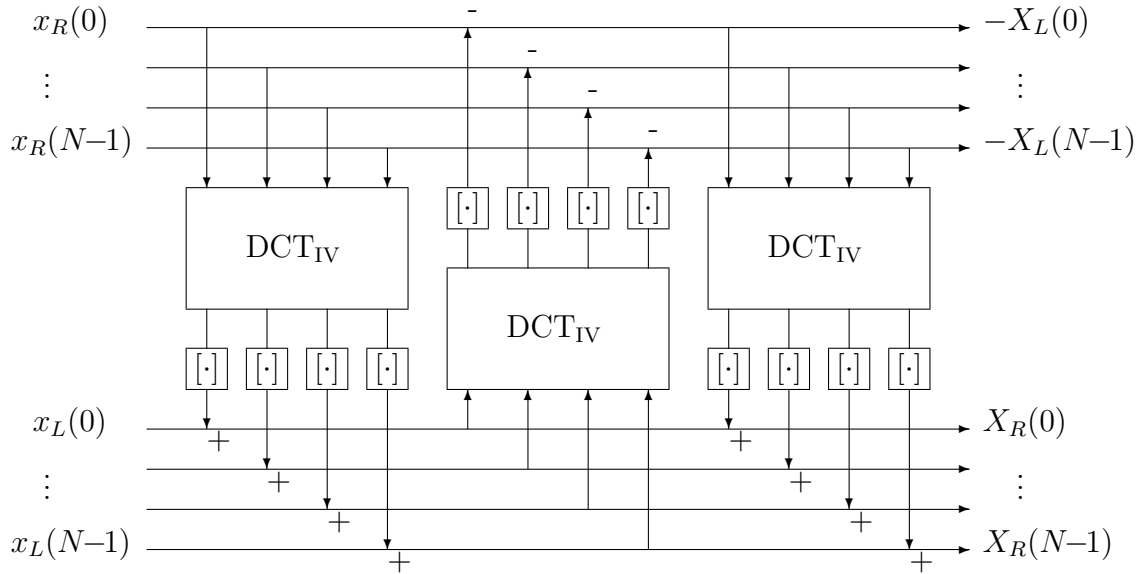


Figure 4.6: Invertible integer approximation of two blocks of DCT_{IV} by three multi-dimensional lifting steps

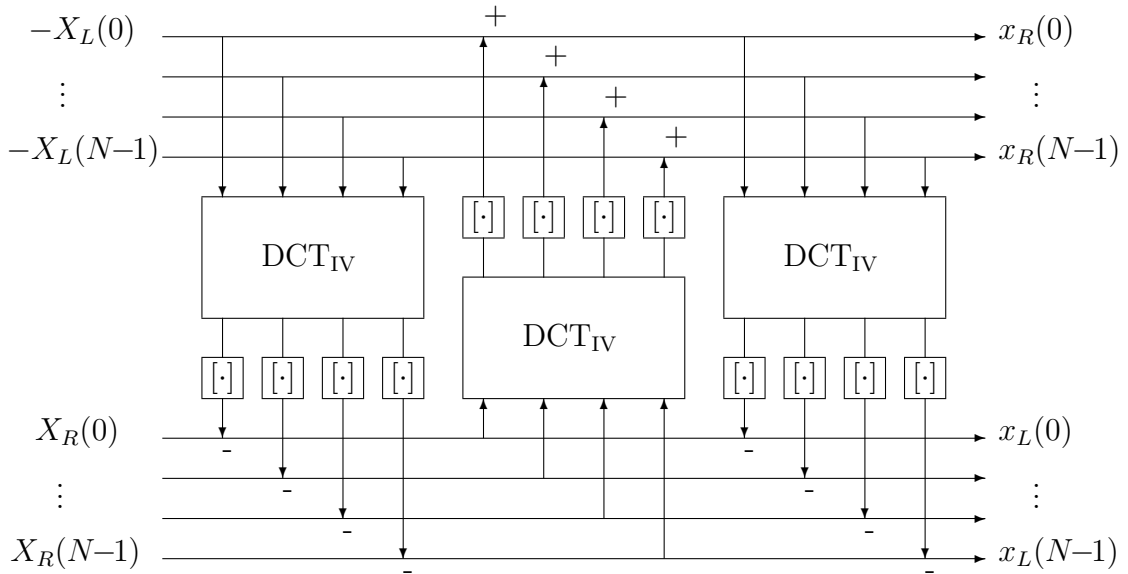


Figure 4.7: Inverse of integer approximation of two blocks of DCT_{IV} by three multi-dimensional lifting steps

4.3.5 The Mono IntMDCT

The Stereo IntMDCT approach requires the simultaneous calculation of two DCT_{IV} transforms, e.g. by calculating the DCT_{IV} of two subsequent blocks or by calculating the DCT_{IV} of left and right channel simultaneously. While the first alternative introduces an additional delay of one block, the second alternative only is possible for stereo signals. If neither delay nor stereo processing is desired, multi-dimensional lifting is still viable, but some additional stages of Givens rotations become necessary.

A DCT_{IV} of length N (see Equation 3.11)

$$\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N)} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \cos \frac{(2k+1)(2l+1)\pi}{4N} \right)_{k,l=0,\dots,N-1} \quad (4.11)$$

can be decomposed into two DCT_{IV} of length $N/2$ and some additional processing steps. In the following, such a decomposition is described. A similar decomposition can also be found in [ZBL01].

Define the $N \times N$ matrix L by

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{pmatrix} L_{k,k} & L_{k,N-1-k} \\ L_{N-1-k,k} & L_{N-1-k,N-1-k} \end{pmatrix} = \\ & \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\frac{2k+1}{4N}\pi) & -\sin(\frac{2k+1}{4N}\pi) \\ -\sin(\frac{2k+1}{4N}\pi) & -\cos(\frac{2k+1}{4N}\pi) \end{pmatrix} \quad k = 0, \dots, N/2 - 1 \\ & L_{k,l} = 0 \quad \text{else} \end{aligned} \quad (4.12)$$

the $N \times N$ matrix M by

$$M = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & I_{N/2} \\ -I_{N/2} & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.13)$$

and the $N \times N$ permutation matrices P and Q by

$$\begin{aligned} P_{4k,4k} &= P_{4k+1,4k+1} = P_{4k+2,4k+3} = P_{4k+3,4k+2} = 1 \\ & k = 0, \dots, N/4 - 1 \\ & P_{k,l} = 0 \quad \text{else} \end{aligned} \quad (4.14)$$

i.e. every second pair of values is swapped, and

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{k,2k} &= Q_{N/2+k,2k+1} = 1 \quad k = 0, \dots, N/2 - 1 \\ Q_{k,l} &= 0 \quad \text{else} \end{aligned} \quad (4.15)$$

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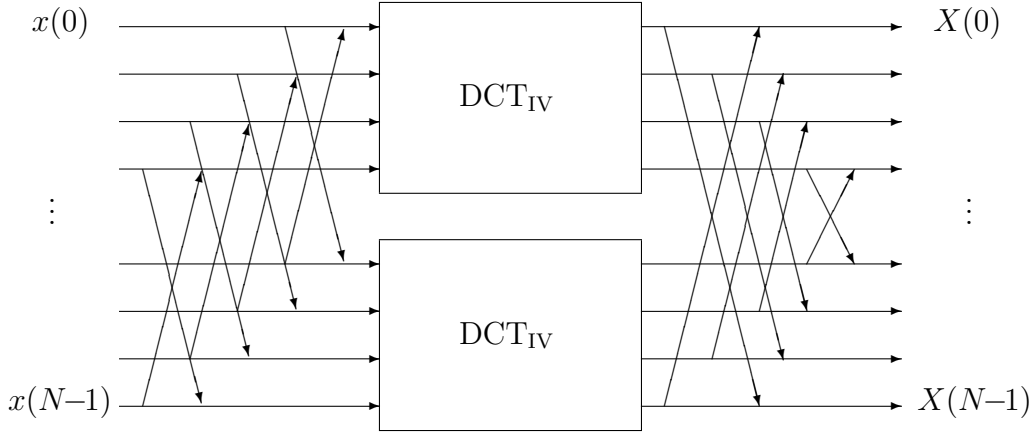


Figure 4.8: DCT_{IV} of length N by two DCT_{IV} of length $N/2$ and two stages of Givens rotations

i.e. the values with even indices are mapped to the first half, and the values with odd indices are mapped to the second half.

With these matrices, the DCT_{IV} of length N can be decomposed into

$$\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N)} = L \begin{pmatrix} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} & 0 \\ 0 & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \end{pmatrix} MQP \quad (4.16)$$

Figure 4.8 illustrates the basic structure of this decomposition.

The two DCT_{IV} of length $N/2$ can be decomposed into three multi-dimensional lifting steps of length $N/2$ using Equation 4.8. The matrices L and M can both be considered as $N/2$ Givens rotations. Instead of decomposing M into $3N/2$ lifting steps, a more efficient approach with a smaller number of rounding operations can be applied here. The matrix M can be implemented using the multi-dimensional lifting steps

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2}I_{N/2} & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & I_{N/2} \\ 0 & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.17)$$

The scaling factors $\sqrt{2}$ and $1/\sqrt{2}$, which are necessary for normalization, can be

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handled by the DCT_{IV} stage. Overall, the following decomposition can be obtained:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \begin{pmatrix} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} & 0 \\ 0 & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \end{pmatrix} M \\
&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \\ -\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \\ -\sqrt{2} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} I_{N/2} & -\frac{1}{2} I_{N/2} \\ I_{N/2} & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \\ 0 & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & 0 \\ -\sqrt{2} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}^{(N/2)} \\ 0 & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \\
&\quad \cdot \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & -\frac{1}{2} I_{N/2} \\ 0 & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{N/2} & 0 \\ I_{N/2} & I_{N/2} \end{pmatrix} \tag{4.18}
\end{aligned}$$

The lifting implementation of matrices L and M can be combined with the DCT_{IV} stage in order to further reduce the overall number of rounding operations. This is done by merging the remaining $N/2$ rounding operations regarding M , and $N/2$ of the $3N/2$ rounding operations regarding L with the rounding operations in the DCT_{IV} stage. This merging of rounding operations is based on the following property of multi-dimensional lifting matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ A & I_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ B & I_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ A+B & I_n \end{pmatrix} \tag{4.19}$$

Overall only $5N/2$ rounding operations are necessary for this invertible integer approximation of the DCT_{IV} of length N . Including the windowing stage, the total number of rounding operations for this IntMDCT is $4N$, i.e. 4 rounding operations per sample.

So far, only the multi-dimensional lifting decomposition of block matrices of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} T & 0 \\ 0 & T^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

given in Equation 4.5 was utilized in this section. Nevertheless, it is also possible to decompose other block matrices into multi-dimensional lifting steps. For example, the following decomposition can be used to implement the combination of one stage

of normalized sum-difference butterflies and two blocks of DCT_{IV} by three stages of multi-dimensional lifting:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & I_N \\ -I_N & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & 0 \\ 0 & \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \end{pmatrix} = \\ \begin{pmatrix} I_N & 0 \\ I_N - \sqrt{2}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} \\ 0 & I_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_N & 0 \\ I_N - \sqrt{2}\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}} & I_N \end{pmatrix} & \quad (4.20) \end{aligned}$$

Such a decomposition provides a way of simultaneously calculating the IntMDCT spectra of a stereo signal and the mid-side matrixing without increasing the number of rounding operations compared to the Stereo IntMDCT processing.

Furthermore, the existence of this decomposition raises the question, whether the DCT_{IV} matrix itself can be decomposed into three multi-dimensional lifting steps without the need for additional pre- or postprocessing steps. In the course of this research several decompositions were developed by the author, but it was not possible to find fast algorithms for these decompositions. Additionally, the dynamic range of the resulting coefficients tends to increase for larger block lengths.

4.3.6 Approximation Accuracy

The approximation accuracy of the IntMDCT based on multi-dimensional lifting is evaluated by applying the transform to the audio material used for the lossless audio coding activities of the ISO MPEG group [MPE02]. The audio material consists of recordings by the New York Symphonic Ensemble and jazz recordings, see Table 7.2. Evaluation is done for both 48 kHz / 16 bit and 96 kHz / 24 bit. Only the left channels of the signals are used in this evaluation. The performance of the different transforms is evaluated comparing mean squared error (MSE), maximum absolute error and an entropy estimate, calculated by $\sum_k \log_2(2|y_k| + 1)$, where y_k represents the integer spectral values. In the subsequent evaluation, the *number of instructions* value reflects the number of additions and multiplications.

For the IntMDCT, a transform length of 1024 frequency bands is used. Table 4.1 shows the results for the conventional lifting based IntMDCT, the multi-dimensional lifting based Mono IntMDCT, and, as a reference, the rounded MDCT, which does not allow lossless operation. Here the approximation error is calculated by building

4 New Integer Transforms for Audio Coding

	Lifting based IntMDCT	MDL based IntMDCT	Rounded MDCT (not lossless)
Rounding operations per sample	22.5	4	1
Instructions per sample	45	32	20
MSE (in LSB)	1.97	0.48	0
max. abs. Error	8	4	0
Entropy estimate 48 kHz 16 bit	$1.180 \cdot 10^8$	$1.166 \cdot 10^8$	$1.160 \cdot 10^8$
Entropy estimate 96 kHz 24 bit	$4.145 \cdot 10^8$	$4.125 \cdot 10^8$	$4.113 \cdot 10^8$

Table 4.1: Comparison of conventional lifting-based IntMDCT, multi-dimensional lifting (MDL) based Mono IntMDCT and rounded MDCT (not lossless)

the difference between the IntMDCT values and the rounded MDCT values. The resulting MSE and maximum absolute error values are similar for both audio input formats, thus only the overall values are displayed.

It can be observed that the approximation error is largely reduced by the multi-dimensional lifting approach, and the estimated entropy comes close to the theoretical limit given by the rounded MDCT.

The multi-dimensional lifting approach leads to a substantial reduction in rounding error compared to the approach presented in Section 4.1. Using this approach, only 3 or 4 rounding steps per sample are required, irrespective of the transform length. This is particularly advantageous for large transform lengths (e.g. 1024) used in audio coding applications, compared to e.g. 22 rounding steps per sample for the previous approach. With the reduction of the rounding error an improved compression performance in the context of lossless audio coding applications can be expected.

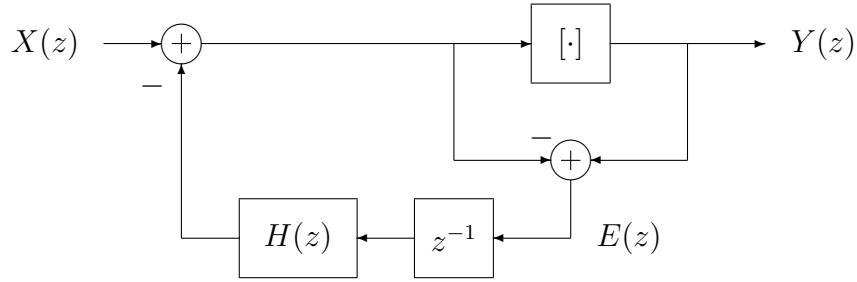


Figure 4.9: Spectral shaping of quantization error

4.4 Improved IntMDCT by Noise Shaping

With the multi-dimensional lifting based IntMDCT in Section 4.3, the necessary number of rounding operations required for the DCT_{IV} can be reduced to 1.5 operations per sample. This is the same number of rounding operations as necessary for the Windowing/TDA stage, which makes a further investigation into the rounding process during the Windowing/TDA stage interesting. In this section noise shaping is introduced in some rounding stages to obtain a frequency dependent behavior of the approximation error.

The technique of noise shaping with regard to quantization of time-domain signals is described in [GC89]. The basic structure is illustrated in Figure 4.9. In each stage, the quantization error is calculated and an error feedback including a filter $H(z)$ is utilized. In the z domain the system can be described by

$$E(z) = Y(z) - (X(z) - E(z)z^{-1}H(z)) \quad (4.21)$$

which is equal to

$$Y(z) = X(z) + E(z)(1 - z^{-1}H(z)) \quad (4.22)$$

Hence the resulting quantization error is filtered by

$$1 - z^{-1}H(z) \quad (4.23)$$

With this filter the spectral shape of the quantization noise can be modified. In A/D conversion this is utilized by applying a high-pass filter, and consequently shifting the quantization noise to the high frequency range. Especially for high sampling rates (e.g. 96 kHz) a large, inaudible frequency range can be utilized for

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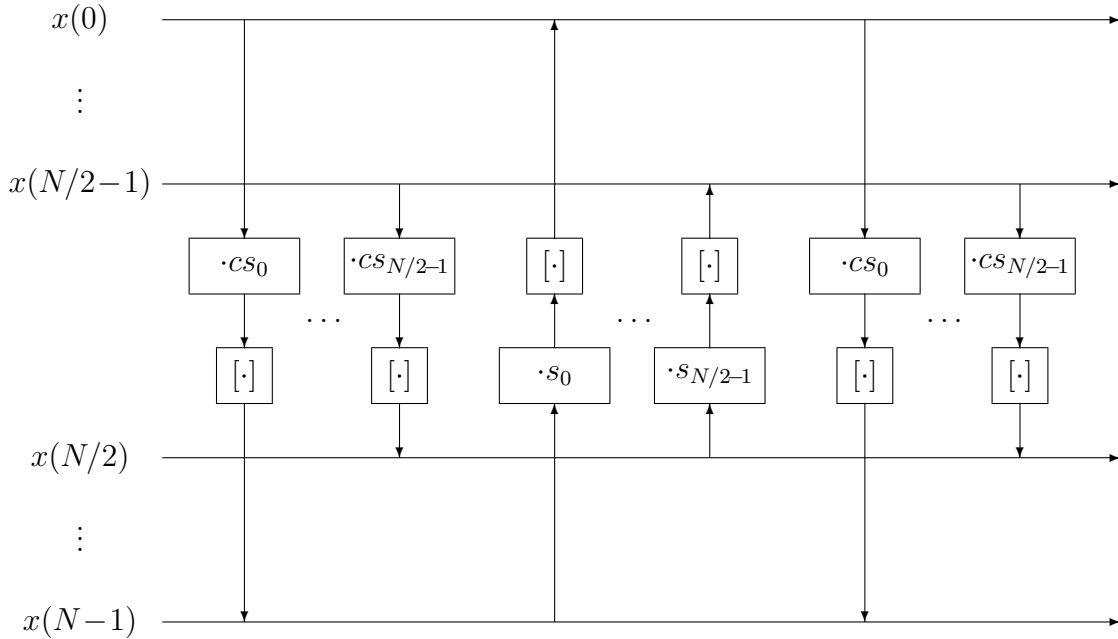


Figure 4.10: Reordered Integer Windowing/TDA using lifting

this purpose. The simplest version of noise shaping is given by $H(z) = 1$, resulting in the high-pass filter $1 - z^{-1}$.

In the context of integer transforms for lossless audio coding the desired shape of the noise floor is exactly the opposite. Especially in the high frequency range, where audio signals usually have a very low amount of energy, the noise floor becomes a drawback for lossless coding efficiency and should be as low as possible. On the other hand, in the lower frequency range audio signals usually have a very high energy compared to the noise floor introduced by the integer transform. Hence a slight increase of the noise floor is not expected to impair the coding efficiency in this frequency range. Overall, a lowpass shape of the quantization noise is desirable in the context of integer transforms.

In order to see, how the noise shaping technique can be applied in the context of the IntMDCT, the Integer Windowing/TDA stage illustrated in Figure 4.1 has to be reordered first. This is possible without changing the output results, as illustrated in Figure 4.10. This reordered structure consists of three stages where $N/2$ succeeding floating-point values are rounded and added to $N/2$ succeeding integer values. In this context the noise shaping technique can be applied, as illustrated in Figure 4.11.

4 New Integer Transforms for Audio Coding

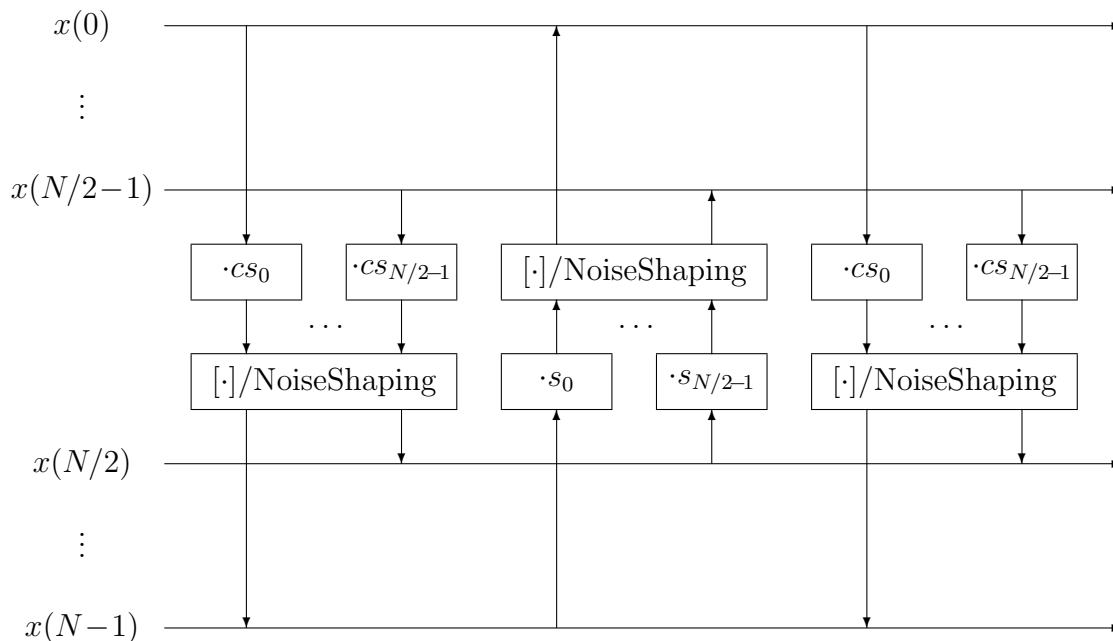


Figure 4.11: Integer Windowing/TDA with noise shaping

The noise shaping can also be applied in some stages of the Integer DCT_{IV} based on multi-dimensional lifting. Generally, application of this technique is useful as long as the signal, to which the quantization error is added, can be regarded as a time domain signal. Concerning the Stereo IntMDCT (see Section 4.3), this is the case for the first of three multi-dimensional lifting steps. This can be seen by considering the quantization error signals δ_1 , δ_2 and δ_3 added in the corresponding rounding stages of the three multi-dimensional lifting steps in Figure 4.6. At the output this results in the error signals

$$-\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}(\delta_1) - \delta_2 \quad (4.24)$$

in the upper part and

$$\delta_1 + \text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}(-\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}(\delta_1) - \delta_2) + \delta_3 = -\text{DCT}_{\text{IV}}(\delta_2) + \delta_3 \quad (4.25)$$

in the lower part.

As the influence of δ_1 cancels out in the lower part, δ_1 only influences the time domain input of the upper part, and hence noise shaping can be applied in the first lifting step. In the second lifting step the situation is ambivalent, as δ_2 influences both time domain and frequency domain. Further studies would be required to

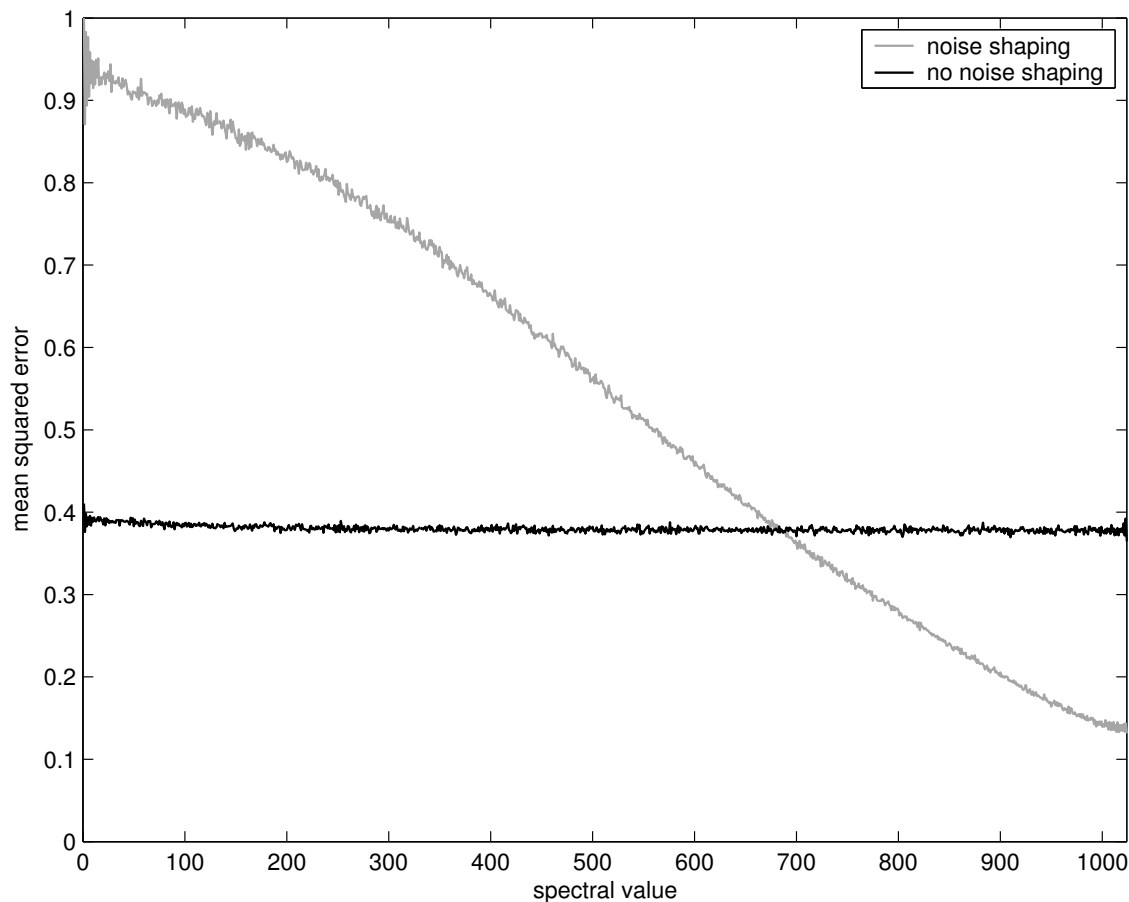


Figure 4.12: Mean squared approximation error of Stereo IntMDCT per spectral value, with noise shaping (gray line) and without noise shaping (black line)

determine the usefulness of noise shaping in this lifting step. Finally, in the third lifting step of the Stereo IntMDCT noise shaping is clearly not possible.

Figure 4.12 illustrates the approximation error of the Stereo IntMDCT, both with and without noise shaping. Without noise shaping an approximately white approximation error can be observed, whereas it is shaped towards the lower frequency range when noise shaping is applied.

Table 4.2 lists the approximation error and entropy estimates both with and without noise shaping, evaluated for the MPEG Lossless [MPE02] test material at 48 kHz / 16 bit. As a reference, the entropy estimate of the rounded MDCT values are also calculated as a theoretical limit.

4 New Integer Transforms for Audio Coding

	No noise shaping	Noise shaping	Rounded MDCT (not lossless)
MSE	0.38	0.54	0
max. abs. Error	4	9	0
Entropy estimate	$2.305 \cdot 10^8$	$2.304 \cdot 10^8$	$2.297 \cdot 10^8$

Table 4.2: Comparison of Stereo IntMDCT with and without noise shaping, and rounded MDCT (not lossless). Input format: 48 kHz / 16 bit

It can be observed that, while the approximation error increases when noise shaping is applied, the value for the entropy estimate is slightly reduced. Hence for typical audio signals, a slight improvement regarding the compression ratio can be expected by using the noise shaping technique.

5 New Audio Coding Schemes and Applications Based on Integer Transforms

5.1 Lossless Audio Coding Based on IntMDCT

5.1.1 Basic Concept

The IntMDCT provides a good spectral representation of an audio signal while staying in integer domain. When applied to tonal parts of an audio signal, this results in a good energy compaction. So an efficient lossless coding scheme can be built by simply combining the IntMDCT with an entropy coding scheme. This coding scheme should suit the properties of the IntMDCT values. In contrast to entropy coding schemes for transform coding described in [AAC97] and [KSB97], the spectral values to be coded are not dynamically scaled to certain quantization step sizes. So a wide range of values has to be considered. In the following a possible entropy coding scheme is described.

5.1.2 Entropy Coding Scheme

In order to adapt to different statistics of the spectral values, the spectral domain is divided into bands derived from the Bark scale. One possible decomposition is described in [AAC97] using approximately two bands per Bark. A different Huffman codebook can be used for each band. The entropy coding scheme is implemented using eight Huffman codebooks with lengths ranging between one and 16384 code words, combined with stacked coding. Values exceeding the maximum codebook

value are coded by stacked coding, as described in [KSB97].

5.1.3 First Results

Using the described entropy coding scheme, first results concerning the compression efficiency are obtained using the following setup: For the IntMDCT a frame length of 1024 samples and a sine window are used. The sound material used for testing comes from the SQAM compact disc [SQA88], listed in Table 7.1. These items have shown to be very critical for perceptual audio coding and have often been used as a reference for lossless audio coding. Encoding all tracks, an average data rate of 4.9 bit per sample is achieved. This is in the same range of efficiency as ‘conventional’ coding schemes, as compared in [HS01a].

For a realistic estimation for lossless coding efficiency of other audio signals it has to be considered that the SQAM items contain a large amount of zero samples at the beginning and at the end of each track. Therefore, frames which only contain zero samples are omitted in the following results. If the whole set of signals is encoded with zero frames omitted the average data rate increases to 5.6 bit per sample.

In Figure 5.1 the average bitrates for individual SQAM items are presented. Especially for the artificial signals (tracks 3-7) and some of the single instruments items (tracks 8-43) a high coding gain is achieved. The worst case item for this compression scheme is Carl Orff’s *Carmina Burana* (track 64) with an average bitrate of 9.1 bit per sample. This complex item contains choir and orchestra and has a very rich spectrum, see Figure 4.3.

Apart from the average data rate, it is also important to know which maximum data rate usually occurs. In these test results the highest peak data rates measured were 14.9 bit per sample for track 31 (cymbal) and track 65 (orchestra, R. Strauss), and 13.9 bit per sample for track 27 (castanets). In all these items the peak data rates occur in transient parts of the signal.

These results for lossless audio coding based on IntMDCT were first published by the author in [GSKB01].

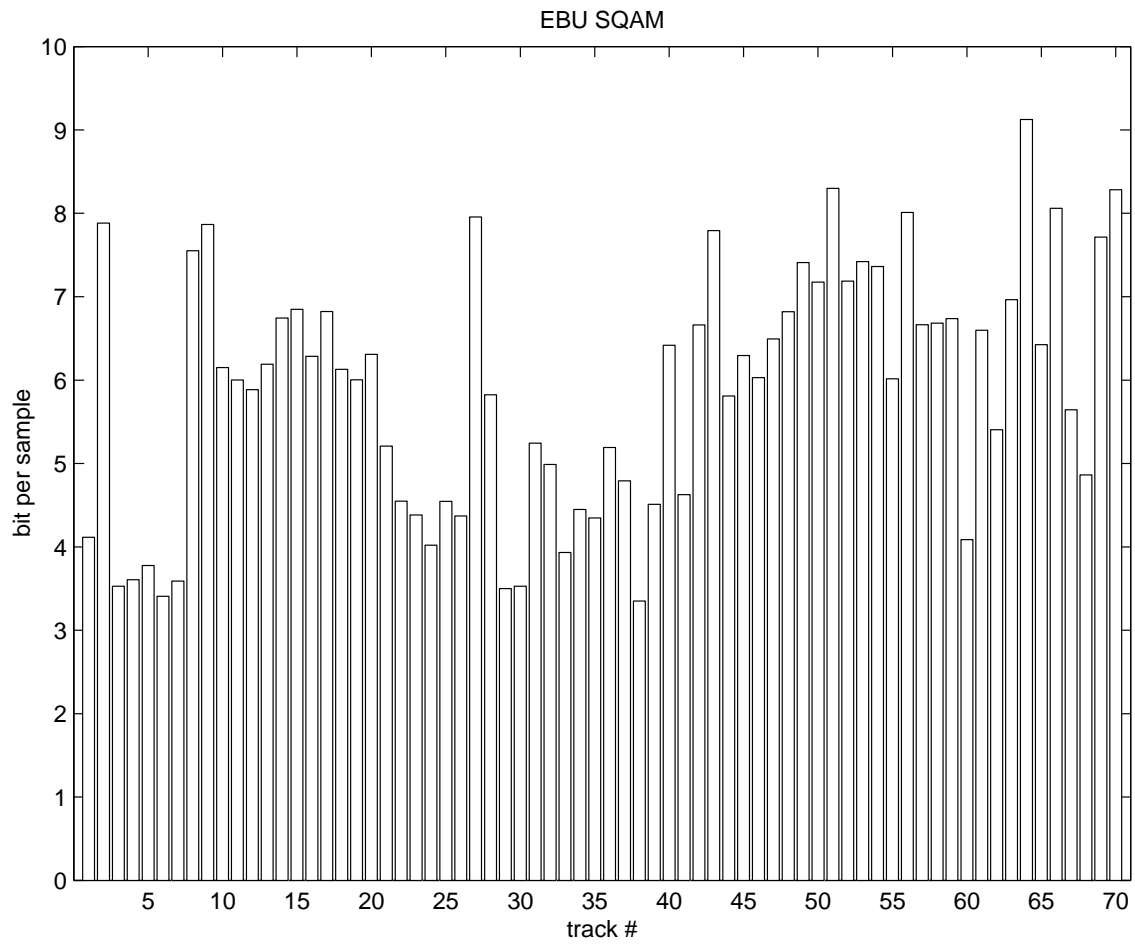


Figure 5.1: Average bitrates for lossless coding of SQAM items, zero frames omitted

5.1.4 Additional Coding Tools

Several additional coding tools for perceptual audio coding, described in Section 3.3.2, can be adapted to lossless operation in order to enhance the performance of an IntMDCT based lossless audio coding scheme:

Window Switching

The window switching technique described in Section 3.3.2 can be applied to the IntMDCT in the same way as done for the MDCT. In the context of lossless audio coding this technique can be used to dynamically adapt between high frequency resolution and high time resolution. This allows to achieve a high coding gain also for non-stationary signal portions.

Linear Prediction in Frequency Domain

As pointed out in Section 3.3.2, linear prediction in frequency domain can be used advantageously in the context of perceptual audio coding, especially for transient signals. Both an open loop and a closed loop prediction can be used. This principle can also be applied to lossless audio coding. In this context the second alternative is more appropriate because closed loop prediction allows perfect reconstruction of the input signal. When applying this technique to the IntMDCT spectrum, a rounding to integer values has to be applied to each output value of the prediction filter in order to stay in the integer domain. By using the inverse filter and the same rounding, the original spectrum can be reconstructed perfectly.

Joint Stereo Coding

To exploit the redundancy between two channels, mid/side coding can be applied in a lossless way by applying an integer rotation with an angle of $\pi/4$. The integer rotation has the advantage of energy conservation. The alternative of applying sum and difference to the IntMDCT values would also be lossless, but it would increase the energy by a factor of 2, and hence increase the bitrate.

The usage of joint stereo coding can be switched on and off for each band, as done in MPEG-2 AAC [AAC97]. Other rotation angles may also be considered in order

to reduce redundancy between two channels more flexibly. Clearly, this would also require more side information than for mid/side coding.

For multichannel signals the lossless redundancy reduction scheme based on the Integer Discrete Cosine Transform described in Section 3.7.2 may be considered.

5.2 Scalable Lossless Enhancement of a Perceptual Audio Coder

5.2.1 Introduction

In section 3.4.1 a scalable enhancement of AAC is described, providing a base layer and several enhancement layer bitstreams. Each enhancement layer gradually increases the bitrate and the achieved perceptual quality.

Here, a scalable system, which enhances a perceptually coded base layer bitstream by means of a lossless enhancement layer bitstream, is presented. So lossless decoding can be achieved when decoding both layers. In contrast to the time domain approach described in Section 3.6, however, there is no need to fully decode the base layer in order to perform entropy coding of a time domain residual signal. By virtue of the IntMDCT, coding of the lossless enhancement layer is performed completely in the frequency domain.

5.2.2 Concept of Scalable System

Based on its perfect reconstruction property and the close approximation of the MDCT, the IntMDCT allows to build a scalable lossless enhancement of MDCT-based perceptual audio coding schemes. Figure 5.2 illustrates the concept of the proposed scalable architecture which consists of a conventional perceptual base layer coder and a lossless enhancement coder based on the IntMDCT.

Encoder

The structure of the encoder is an extension of the general structure of a perceptual audio coding scheme, described in Section 3.3.1. In addition to the usual MDCT

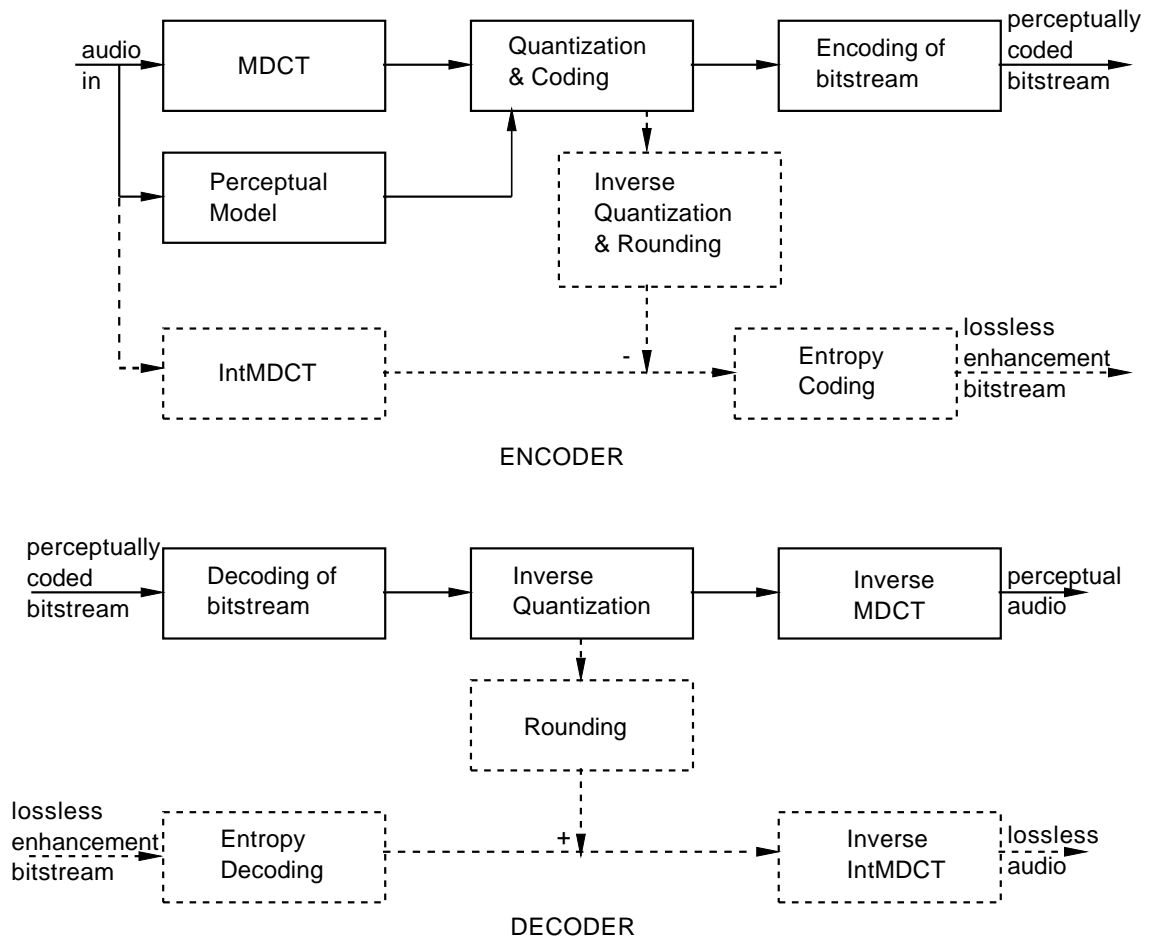


Figure 5.2: Perceptual audio coding scheme (solid lines) and scalable lossless enhancement (dashed lines)

spectrum, the IntMDCT spectrum is calculated. For the lossless enhancement, the difference between the IntMDCT spectrum and the inverse quantized MDCT spectrum is calculated. These difference values are entropy coded and transmitted by means of the lossless enhancement bitstream. This produces both a lossy (perceptually coded) bitstream and a lossless enhancement bitstream which carries the information necessary to exactly reconstruct the input signal.

Decoder

In the decoder the quantized MDCT spectrum is reconstructed from the perceptually coded bitstream. By applying the inverse MDCT, the perceptually coded audio signal can be obtained. If the enhancement bitstream is decoded, the residual IntMDCT spectrum can be obtained in addition. By adding the inverse quantized MDCT spectrum, the IntMDCT spectrum is reconstructed. Finally the inverse IntMDCT is applied to get the losslessly coded audio signal.

A simplified version of this coding scheme may be considered by reusing the IntMDCT for the perceptual part instead of the MDCT. In this way the calculation of only one transform would be required in the encoder.

5.2.3 Bit-Exact Reconstruction of Original Signal

When using a scalable coder that is based on the coding of a time domain residual signal, as described in Section 3.6, the reconstruction precision of the lossy base layer coder becomes critical for achieving an overall lossless reconstruction. Specifically, an implementation with a very high numeric precision is necessary in order to approximate the “exact” output of the decoding process, which is by definition a floating-point process. Even with a very high numerical precision in the base layer decoder, however, an occasional bit-difference between different decoder implementations can not be avoided. In order to design a truly lossless system, the IntMDCT-based solution circumvents this problem. It only requires the inverse quantization process of the perceptual decoder to be specified exactly with integer output. Then the remaining steps for lossless decoding can be performed in the integer domain, and especially an exactly specified inverse IntMDCT assures a bit-exact processing by definition. Consequently, a lossless reconstruction can be

achieved without having to rely on floating-point precision.

5.2.4 Codebook Selection without Side Information

The magnitude of the residual IntMDCT spectrum depends on the accuracy of quantization. Thus, for an efficient entropy coding of the residual signal it is useful to use a selection of entropy codebooks. In the MPEG-2 Advanced Audio Coding (AAC) [AAC97] scheme, described in Section 3.3.3, the spectral coefficients are grouped into scalefactor bands and the spectral values are weighted by an amplification factor derived from the corresponding scalefactor. Since a non-uniform quantizer is applied to the weighted spectral values, the magnitude of residual values not only depends on the scalefactors, but also on the quantized values themselves. Both the scalefactors and quantized spectral values are transmitted in the AAC bitstream and can be utilized for the choice of appropriate codebooks for the residual spectrum without transmitting any additional side information. The choice of the appropriate codebook is made individually for each spectral value depending on the width of the quantization interval applied in the perceptual coding part.

5.2.5 Window Switching

As described in Section 5.1, the window switching technique can also be applied to the IntMDCT. In the context of the scalable perceptual and lossless system described in this section, this can be achieved by using the window switching decisions made by the perceptual core coder in the IntMDCT of the lossless enhancement.

5.2.6 Results for Scalable Perceptual and Lossless Audio Coding

The system shown in Figure 5.2 has been implemented and evaluated using MPEG-2 AAC as the MDCT based perceptual base layer coding scheme. For first results, a simplified version of AAC with MDCT and window switching, but no further coding tools, is used. The lossless enhancement bitstream employs 24 Huffman codebooks with lengths ranging between one and 4096 code words. Each spectral value can use the appropriate codebook without the need of additional side information.

AAC (kbps/channel)	64	80	96
AAC (bits/sample)	1.5	1.8	2.2
Enhancement (bits/sample)	4.2	4.0	3.8
Total (bits/sample)	5.7	5.8	6.0

Table 5.1: Bitrate results for SQAM CD coded with scalable lossless coding scheme

Table 5.1 summarizes bitrate results for the entire SQAM CD [SQA88] (see also Table 7.1), including all zero samples.

The AAC encoder uses constant bitrates resulting in variable bitrates for the lossless enhancement bitstream. The total bitrate of this scalable system is slightly increased compared to the lossless system described in Section 5.1. One reason for this scalable overhead could be the constant bitrate of the AAC codec which is a very inefficient way of representing the zero parts of the tracks. Another reason could be the focus of AAC to produce a perceptually equivalent representation of the audio signal rather than simply reducing the energy of the error signal. Finally, the necessity to round the inverse quantized AAC spectral values to integer values before subtracting them from the IntMDCT spectral values leads to a certain reduction of the lossless coding efficiency of this scalable system.

5.3 Scalable Lossless Enhancement Using the Structure of MPEG-4 AAC Scalable

In the previous section the concept of scalable lossless enhancement of AAC in frequency domain has been presented. This approach was first published by the author in [GHKB02].

The codec described in this section is a further development of this concept. It is completely based on the structure of the MPEG-4 AAC Scalable codec [MPE01]. By utilizing the IntMDCT, this codec is extended to a lossless operation with only a minor extension of the bitstream syntax. Furthermore, scalability of sampling rate and reconstruction word length is supported.

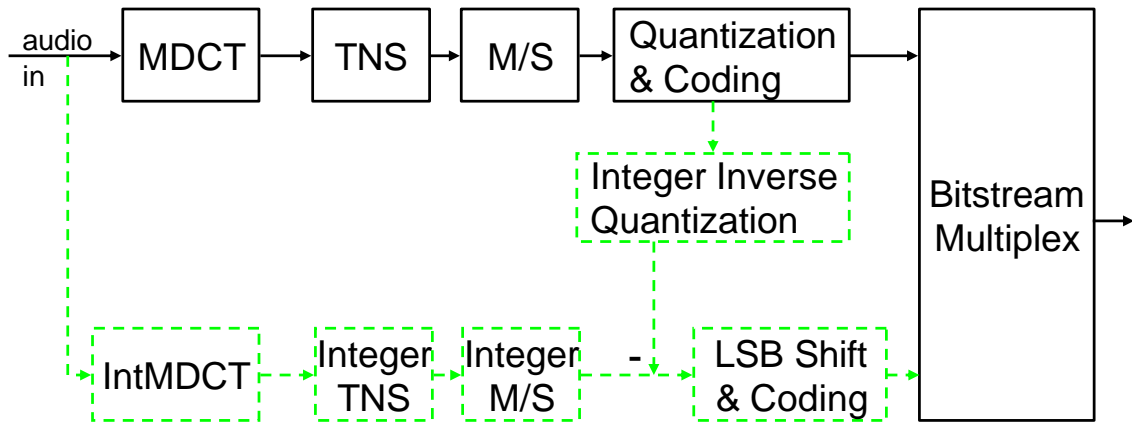


Figure 5.3: Encoder for scalable lossless enhancement of AAC

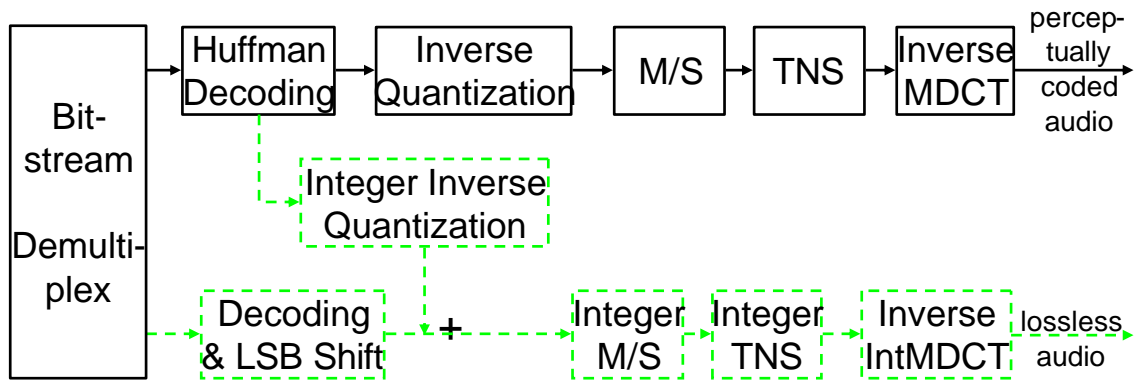


Figure 5.4: Decoder for scalable lossless enhancement of AAC

This scalable lossless audio coding system was published by the author in [GSH⁺03] and proposed to the ISO MPEG committee in [GDHS02, Gei03b, Gei03a] in response to the Call for Proposals on MPEG-4 Lossless Audio Coding [MPE02].

5.3.1 Scalable System Based on AAC

In addition to the general concept of scalable lossless enhancement in frequency domain described in Section 5.2, the coding scheme presented in this section contains several AAC-specific refinements. Figures 5.3 and 5.4 show the encoder and decoder block structure of this codec. To get an efficient lossless extension of AAC, especially the coding tools Mid/Side-Coding (M/S) and Temporal Noise Shaping (TNS) are considered and implemented in a lossless integer fashion.

In the following, the important blocks of this codec are described in detail.

Inverse Quantization to Integer Values

One crucial point for the lossless operation of the system is the inverse quantization and rounding process in the decoder. According to [MPE01], the inverse quantized and rescaled values depend on the quantized value x_{quant} and the scale factor sf , and are calculated by:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{invquant} &= \text{sign}(x_{quant}) * |x_{quant}|^{4/3} \\ gain &= 2^{0.25*(sf-SF.OFFSET)} \\ x_{rescal} &= x_{invquant} * gain \end{aligned} \tag{5.1}$$

These values x_{rescal} are rounded to integer in order to generate the difference values for the lossless enhancement layer. To make these operations reliable and independent of the specific implementation, the codec uses fixed integer look-up tables. According to [MPE01], the maximum allowed absolute amplitude for x_{quant} is 8191. Thus, for one scalefactor an integer table with 8192 values is needed. Such a table is, however, not needed for all possible scale factor values. When increasing the scale factor by 4, the corresponding gain is scaled by a factor of 2. Hence tables are needed for only four specific scale factor values, i.e. sf_0 , $sf_0 + 1$, $sf_0 + 2$, $sf_0 + 3$. With these four tables, all the inverse quantized integer values can be derived by applying bit shift operations.

Encoding of Lossless Enhancement Layer Values with LSB Shift

The coding of the lossless enhancement layer values can be achieved by completely reusing the bitstream syntax of the MPEG-4 AAC Scalable codec [MPE01], described in Section 3.4.1. Only one additional element is introduced in order to enable efficient coding of large spectral values. To achieve an appropriate compression of the integer difference values of the lossless enhancement layer, an entropy coding scheme has to be applied. The noiseless coding tool of AAC can be reused for this task with only small modifications. Compared to the coarsely quantized spectral values of AAC, the integer values for the lossless enhancement layer encompass a much larger range. To apply the AAC noiseless coding tool appropriately, the

absolute values of the integer difference values are divided into LSB and MSB values by applying a certain number of bit shift operations. The MSB values are coded using the AAC noiseless coding tool, and the LSB values are coded as PCM values according to the number of bit shifts. The number of bit shifts can be chosen for each scale factor band individually. To encode the number of bit shifts for each scale factor band, the scale factor coding mechanism of AAC is reused. In the decoder the integer difference values can be reconstructed based on the MSB and LSB values. This technique allows for a flexible adaptation to the statistical characteristics of the integer values. It therefore achieves efficient entropy coding without the need for additional, larger Huffman codebooks. Concerning the bitstream syntax of the lossless enhancement layer, the bitstream syntax of AAC can be reused by adding the functionality of coding the LSB values.

Compliance with AAC Coding Tools

The lossless enhancement is compliant with the AAC coding tools Block Switching and Window Shape Adaptation, TNS, M/S and PNS, described in Section 3.3.2. Thus, no restrictions apply to the usage of these tools in the lossy core. Furthermore, they can even be applied advantageously to the lossless enhancement layer. In detail, the lossless enhancement deals with those tools in the following way:

Block Switching and Window Shape

The IntMDCT in the lossless enhancement layer can use the same window shape and window sequence as the AAC coder, so that the lossless enhancement can simply follow the block switching and window shape decisions of the lossy core coder.

Temporal Noise Shaping (TNS)

The TNS tool in AAC modifies the MDCT spectrum by applying linear prediction filters before quantization. Consequently, the difference between the IntMDCT values of the lossless enhancement layer and the quantized MDCT values of the AAC core layer increases. The TNS tool can, however, also be applied to the IntMDCT values in a lossless way by using the same prediction filter and applying a rounding

to integer values to each output value of the prediction filter. As the MDCT and the IntMDCT values only differ by a small approximation error, the filtered spectral values only differ by the filtered approximation error and the additional rounding error. In the decoder, the original IntMDCT spectrum is reconstructed by using the inverse filter and the same rounding. This lossless version of the TNS filter works as closed loop prediction and provides a redundancy reduction for transient signals, as stated in Section 5.1.

Mid/Side Coding (M/S)

The M/S coding tool in AAC modifies some scale factor bands of the MDCT spectrum by calculating the sum and difference of left and right channel spectral values. The lossless enhancement layer can follow the M/S decisions of the lossy AAC core coder and can apply M/S coding in a lossless way. This is done by applying an integer rotation with an angle of $\pi/4$, based on the lifting scheme. Thereby the energy is conserved and the original IntMDCT values can be reconstructed in the decoder, as also mentioned in Section 5.1.

Perceptual Noise Substitution (PNS)

The lossless enhancement is compliant with the PNS tool described in Section 3.3.2. This is done in the same way as for the AAC Scalable codec: In the scale factor bands where PNS is switched on, the inverse quantized spectral values are assumed to be zero for calculating the difference values for the enhancement layer.

5.3.2 Lossless-Only Mode

The system can also operate in a lossless-only mode. In this mode no AAC core layer is used and the IntMDCT spectral values are coded within one layer. The bitstream is identical to an AAC bitstream, extended by the additional LSB coding described above. The coding tools Block Switching and Window Shape Adaption, TNS and M/S can be used in a lossless way for the purpose of further redundancy reduction.

AAC (kbps/channel)	0	64	80	96
AAC (bits/sample)	0	1.5	1.8	2.2
Enhancement (bits/sample)	4.4	3.6	3.5	3.3
Total (bits/sample)	4.4	5.1	5.3	5.5
Monkey's Audio 3.97 (bits/sample)	4.5			

Table 5.2: Bitrate results for SQAM CD coded with AAC-based scalable lossless codec

5.3.3 Compression Results

The compression performance was evaluated using two different sets of test items. The first evaluation is based on the SQAM CD [SQA88], listed in Table 7.1. Table 5.2 shows the results for various bitrates of the AAC core, including the lossless-only mode.

Comparing these results with the first results presented in Section 5.1 and Section 5.2, a clear improvement can be observed for this more elaborated scalable lossless coding scheme presented in this section.

The prediction-based lossless codec Monkey's Audio 3.97 [Ash] was also evaluated for comparison. This codec has been chosen as a reference for the MPEG-4 lossless coding activities, delivering state-of-the-art compression performance at the time the call for proposals on lossless audio coding [MPE02] was issued. For the SQAM items it turns out that the codec presented in this section slightly outperforms this reference codec when operating in the lossless-only mode. In the scalable mode, however, a slightly higher total bitrate is required.

The second evaluation is based on the audio material provided by the ISO MPEG group for their lossless coding activities [MPE02]. The audio material consists of recordings of the New York Symphonic Ensemble and jazz recordings. Both types of music were originally recorded at 96 kHz / 24 bit or 192 kHz / 24 bit, see Table 7.2. Table 5.3 summarizes the compression results in bits per sample for the AAC-based lossless enhancement, the lossless-only mode, and Monkey's Audio 3.97.

The AAC codec is operating at 64 kbps/channel for 48 kHz, 80 kbps/channel for 96 kHz, and 96 kbps/channel for 192 kHz.

	48 kHz 16 bit	48 kHz 24 bit	96 kHz 24 bit	192 kHz 24 bit
AAC	1.3	1.3	0.8	0.5
Enhancement	6.5	14.4	11.0	9.2
AAC + Enhancement	7.8	15.7	11.8	9.7
Lossless-only	7.5	15.3	11.6	9.5
Monkey's Audio 3.97	7.2	15.2	11.5	9.4
Simulcast (AAC + Monkey's Audio)	8.5	16.5	12.3	9.9

Table 5.3: Compression results (in bits per sample) for MPEG-4 lossless items coded with AAC-based lossless enhancement, lossless-only mode, Monkey's Audio, and a simulcast solution

It can be observed that the enhancement clearly benefits from the AAC core, since the enhancement bitrate is lower than the bitrate in the lossless-only mode. Hence the overall bit demand in the AAC-based mode is only slightly higher than in the lossless-only mode. It can also be observed that the compression performance of the lossless-only mode is only slightly worse than for the Monkey's Audio codec. Comparing the bit demand for the lossless enhancement with the bit demand for lossless coding it can be observed that the scalable solution clearly outperforms a simulcast solution, i.e. a simultaneous transmission of an AAC bitstream and a lossless-only coded bitstream.

5.3.4 Sampling Rate and Word Length Scalability

The codec provides additional scalability concerning sampling rate and word length by dividing the integer difference values of the enhancement layer into several layers. The concept of sampling rate and word length scalability was originally introduced in [MJM⁺03], where a time domain approach was presented. Here, in the context of frequency domain lossless audio coding, the same functionality can be achieved. Figures 5.5 and 5.6 show the block structure of the extended encoder and decoder.

Both directions of format scalability follow the same principle: In the first en-

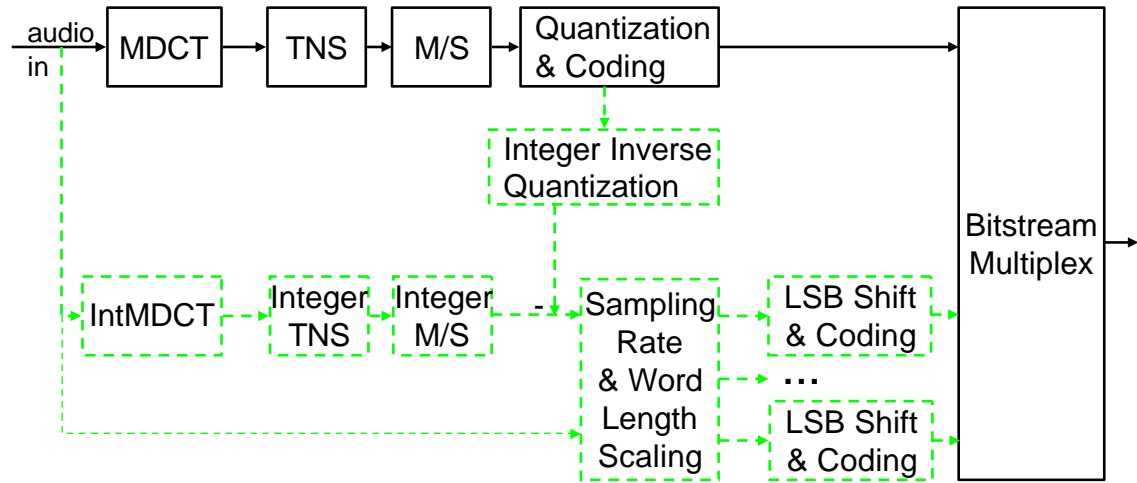


Figure 5.5: Encoder for scalable system based on AAC with additional sampling rate and word length scalability

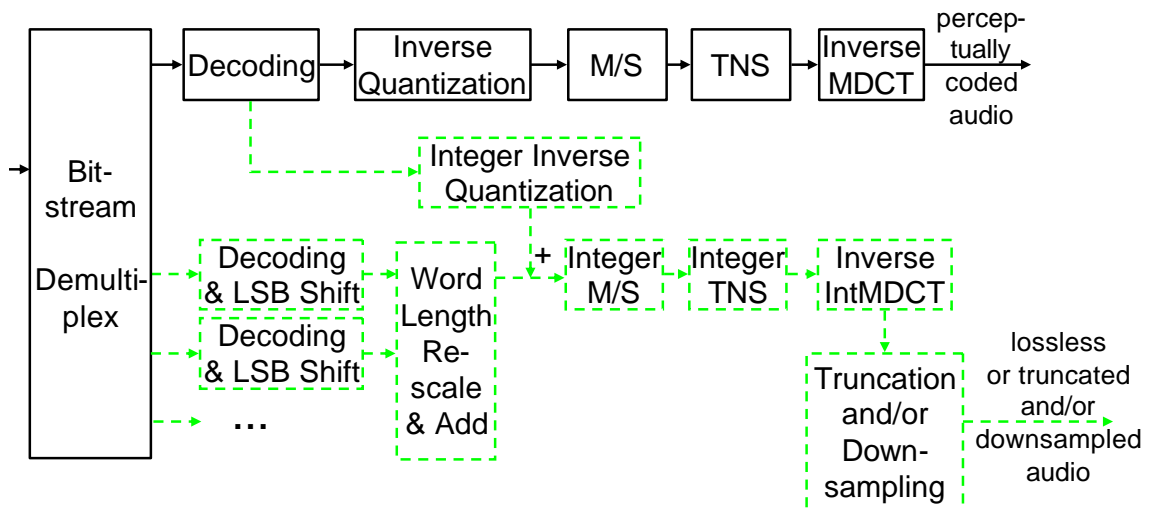


Figure 5.6: Decoder for scalable system based on AAC with additional sampling rate and word length scalability

hancement layer, the spectral values represent the IntMDCT values of a lowpass filtered and/or truncated version of the input signal. Further enhancement layers can increase the bandwidth and/or the word length of the represented signal and finally the full bandwidth and word length is obtained with the last layer. The encoder has the flexibility to create the integer spectral values for the intermediate quality layers either from the integer spectral values of the high quality input signal or from the input signal itself. More advanced ways of calculating the intermediate spectral values might be considered in the encoder. One possible way is to calculate the desired signal of intermediate quality in time domain and apply an additional IntMDCT to this signal. This increases the complexity of the encoder, but it allows to encode exactly the desired intermediate signal. On the other hand the overall compression ratio achievable with this intermediate signal might not be as high as for the simple segmentation of the IntMDCT spectrum described above. Thus the system allows a flexible trade-off between overall compression ratio and quality of the intermediate signal. The next enhancement layer simply encodes the difference values between the desired spectral values and spectral values of the layer beneath. All the enhancement layers can be coded in the same way as the lossless enhancement layer in the two layer lossy-lossless mode described above. In the decoder, all transmitted enhancement layers are decoded and the integer spectral values are added appropriately. The same inverse IntMDCT is applied for all possible intermediate word lengths and sampling rates. The appropriate truncation and downsampling is applied after the inverse IntMDCT.

In more detail, the different directions of scalability have the following principles:

Sampling Rate Scalability

The sampling rate scalability is obtained by applying the desired lowpass filter in the encoder, encoding the filtered signal and applying downsampling after the inverse transform in the decoder. In this way, the process of downsampling is not completely done in the encoder, but is split between encoder and decoder. This allows for very efficient coding of the lowpass signal and the residual signal. A possible way of lowpass filtering is to take the IntMDCT spectrum of the full bandwidth signal and set the higher frequency components to zero. For example, the first enhancement

layer encodes the lower half of the spectrum and the second enhancement layer encodes the upper half. The system is, however, not restricted to this way of lowpass filtering. In principle, every lowpass filtered version of the input signal can be used in the encoder by calculating the IntMDCT values of this lowpass filtered signal for the first enhancement layer. The last enhancement layer simply has to code the difference values in order to transmit the full spectral information for the original input signal.

Word Length Scalability

Word length scalability is obtained by dividing every integer difference value into an LSB and an MSB part. For example, the MSB part represents the signal with 16 bit accuracy, the LSB part represents the difference values for 24 bit accuracy. In the first enhancement layer only the MSB values are coded, in the next enhancement layer the remaining LSB values are coded additionally. A possible way of calculating the LSB and MSB values is to put the lower bits into the LSB part and the higher bits into the MSB part. Similar to the sampling rate scalability described above, the system is not restricted to this way of constructing the intermediate signal with lower accuracy. Every truncated version of the input signal can be used to calculate the spectral values necessary for the enhancement layer by calculating the IntMDCT values of the truncated signal. For example, an appropriate dithering could be applied to the intermediate signal. For a partial decoding up to a layer representing a reduced accuracy, the values are scaled to compensate for the missing LSB values (e.g. by 2^8 for 8 LSB Bits) and the inverse IntMDCT is applied. The resulting PCM signal with lower accuracy is then scaled down again to compensate for the previous upscaling. This scaling before and after the inverse IntMDCT is necessary to avoid the additional noise floor introduced by applying the inverse IntMDCT to the modified spectral values.

5.3.5 Application Scenarios

The scalable perceptual and lossless codec is expected to be useful in the following scenarios:

Production

While the need for lossless recording is obvious, during a production there is often the need to include remote parties to evaluate the new material. A standardized format allows all involved parties to participate. A lossy core is helpful to allow, for example, the remote monitoring of a recording session in realtime over cheaper lower capacity networks.

Streaming

It is desirable to have a system which maintains compatibility to lossy coding schemes in terms of transmission characteristics, like frame rates or error characteristics in case of packet loss and which can be scaled to the available network data rate without the need for recoding. This will allow scenarios like pre-listening to a low bitrate lossy version and the upgrade to a higher quality version after purchasing the item.

Archiving

For the application of combined archiving and transmission it is desirable to store the original audio signal in a lossless representation. Low bitrate versions can be extracted to allow for e.g. remote data bank browsing or extraction of quality-restricted trial versions.

It is desirable that all applications described above can be realized with a single coding architecture, allowing lossy, lossy-lossless and lossless operation. A common frame rate allows the same editing tools to be used.

5.4 Fine-Grain Scalable Perceptual and Lossless Audio Coding

This section presents a new integrated framework for fine grain scalable perceptual and lossless audio coding based on IntMDCT. This approach was published by the author in [GHSS03].

5.4.1 Basic Concept

Due to the close approximation of the MDCT values, a perceptual audio coding scheme can also be built upon IntMDCT instead of MDCT by applying a perceptually controlled quantization to the integer spectral values. The goal in this section is to combine the concept of fine-grain scalable perceptual audio coding with the IntMDCT in order to extend this concept towards lossless operation.

In the MPEG-4 BSAC codec described in Section 3.4.2 the bitslices of the perceptually quantized spectral values are already ordered in a perceptual hierarchy. In this way more perceptually shaped noise is introduced as more and more bitslices are omitted. In order to adapt this coding concept to the IntMDCT values a perceptual hierarchy has to be defined. Without such a concept, omitting bitslices of the IntMDCT spectrum would merely lead to white quantization noise.

5.4.2 Perceptual Significance

To achieve the least amount of audible distortion for a given number of bits, a perceptual significance is defined for the bits representing the IntMDCT magnitude values, based on the permissible distortion as provided by a perceptual model. A spectral value is assumed to be transmitted perceptually transparent if all its perceptually significant bits are transmitted. The bitslices for the hierarchical encoding are defined according to their perceptual significance. Every bitslice contains the bits with the same perceptual significance for each spectral value. This is illustrated in Figure 5.7.

If only some of the higher bitslices are transmitted, a quantized magnitude spectrum can be reconstructed, e.g. by simply inserting zeros for all bits that were

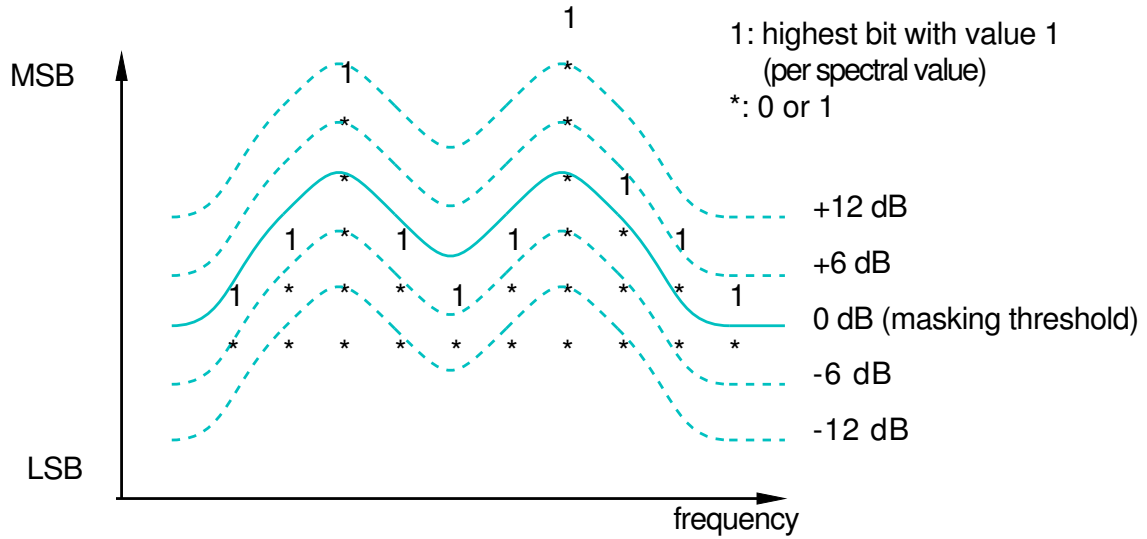


Figure 5.7: Definition of bitslices with equal perceptual significance

omitted. This corresponds to a uniform quantizer with ‘floor’ rounding behavior. Consequently, the energy of the quantization error can be reduced by applying a midrise quantizer with offset. This is achieved by inserting a bit pattern corresponding to the desired offset (e.g. (1,0,0,...) for an offset of 0.5) for the bits that are not transmitted.

The coding of sign information can be done efficiently by transmitting the sign of a spectral value after the first non-zero bit of this spectral value is transmitted. In this way the sign value is only transmitted for spectral values that are not quantized to zero.

To reconstruct the (possibly quantized) spectral values from the hierarchically transmitted bits, the decoder has to know how many bitslices are missing for a specific spectral value. In other words, the decoder has to know the perceptual significance of each spectral value. This is achieved by transmitting the masking threshold as side information. An efficient transmission can be achieved in two alternative ways which will be discussed subsequently.

Bandwise Transmission of Masking Threshold

The effect of masking in frequency domain can be described relative to a non-linear frequency axis, the so-called Bark scale. In the MPEG-4 audio coding schemes

mentioned above a uniformly spaced filter bank delivers spectral bands of equal width. In order to facilitate perceptual noise shaping, the spectral coefficients are grouped into frequency bands which are related to the Bark scale. A scale factor is determined for each band and transmitted as side information. The scale factor determines the quantization step-size for the spectral coefficients of the corresponding scale factor band. This concept can also be used for efficient transmission of the masking threshold in the context of bitsliced coding of IntMDCT values. In this way all IntMDCT values of one band receive the same level of perceptual significance.

Transmission of Continuous Masking Threshold

The masking threshold, as computed by the perceptual model in the encoder, is a continuous function across frequency. Instead of using a piecewise constant function (constant within each scale factor band), it can be approximated by the frequency response of a filter (LPC modeling) resulting in a closer approximation of the desired response. A 12 coefficient filter is found to be generally sufficient for an approximation. These 12 coefficients can be coded efficiently and transmitted to the decoder. This approach is also used in the context of predictive perceptual audio coding using prefilters [SYHE02].

5.4.3 Coding of Subslices

With the approach presented so far, the accuracy of transmitted spectral values is increased by one bit with each additional bitslice, corresponding to an expected increase of the local signal-to-noise ratio by 6 dB. On the other hand, in perceptual coding it is desirable to approximate the desired precision, as determined by the perceptual model, as closely as possible in order not to “waste” bits by overcoding parts of the signal. In MPEG-2/4 AAC this leads to the adoption of finely-spaced scalefactors $2^{0.25*i}$ (with integer values i) which enable control of the quantization noise with a granularity of 1.5 dB. Thus, a stepsize of 6 dB appears too coarse, in comparison, to achieve both an efficient and transparent signal representation.

In order to enable a similar fine adaption of the quantization noise to the masking threshold for bitsliced coding, a subslice coding approach can be employed, as described subsequently. Each subslice contains only a few bits of one slice, and the

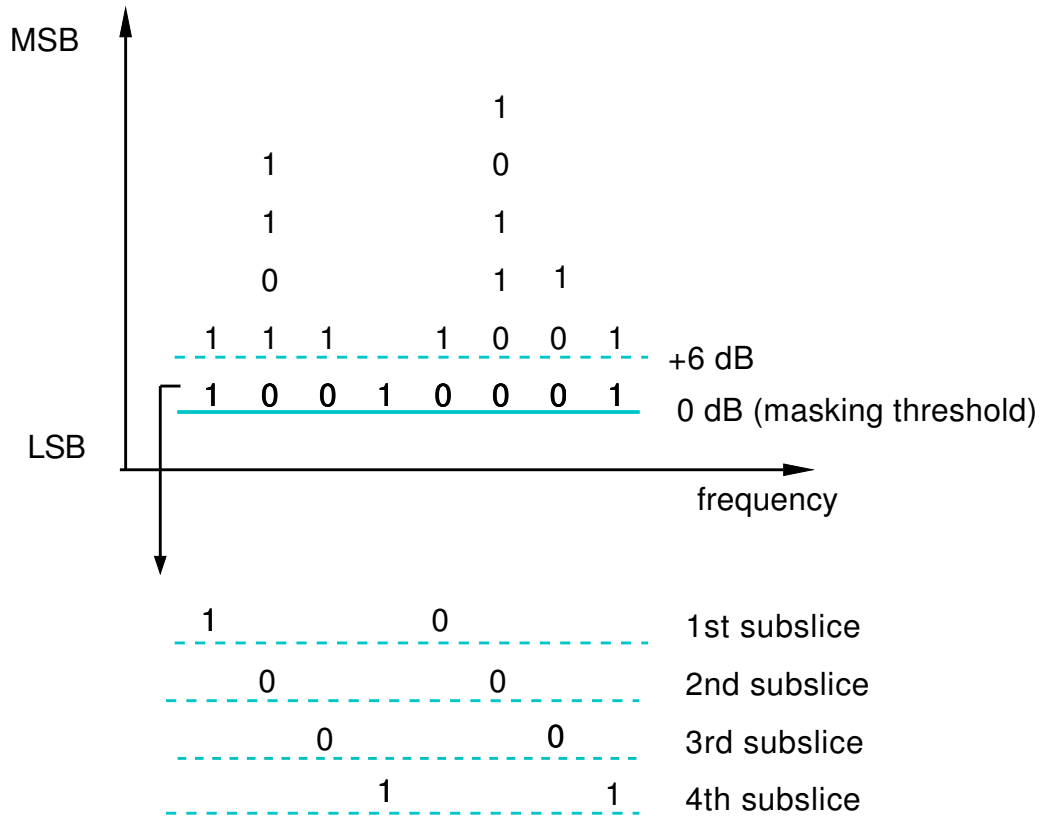


Figure 5.8: Definition of subslices based on simple pattern

coding of a slice is done by sequential coding of several subslices. If, for example, a slice is divided into four subslices, every subslice only contains one out of four spectral values. In perceptual coding the quantization noise is usually measured by the error energy in each band with each band consisting of several spectral values. If, for example, one of the four spectral values is refined by 6 dB by encoding an additional subslice, the total quantization error in this band is reduced by 1.5 dB on average. In this way the concept of encoding subslices allows a fine adaption of the quantization error.

Clearly, the decoder has to know which spectral value has been enhanced in which subslice. One way to achieve this is to use a simple pattern for the spectral values contained in each subslice. Such a pattern is illustrated in Figure 5.8 for the example of four subslices per bitslice. In every subslice one of four spectral values is refined in ascending order.

The simple subslice pattern approach can be enhanced by making the order of

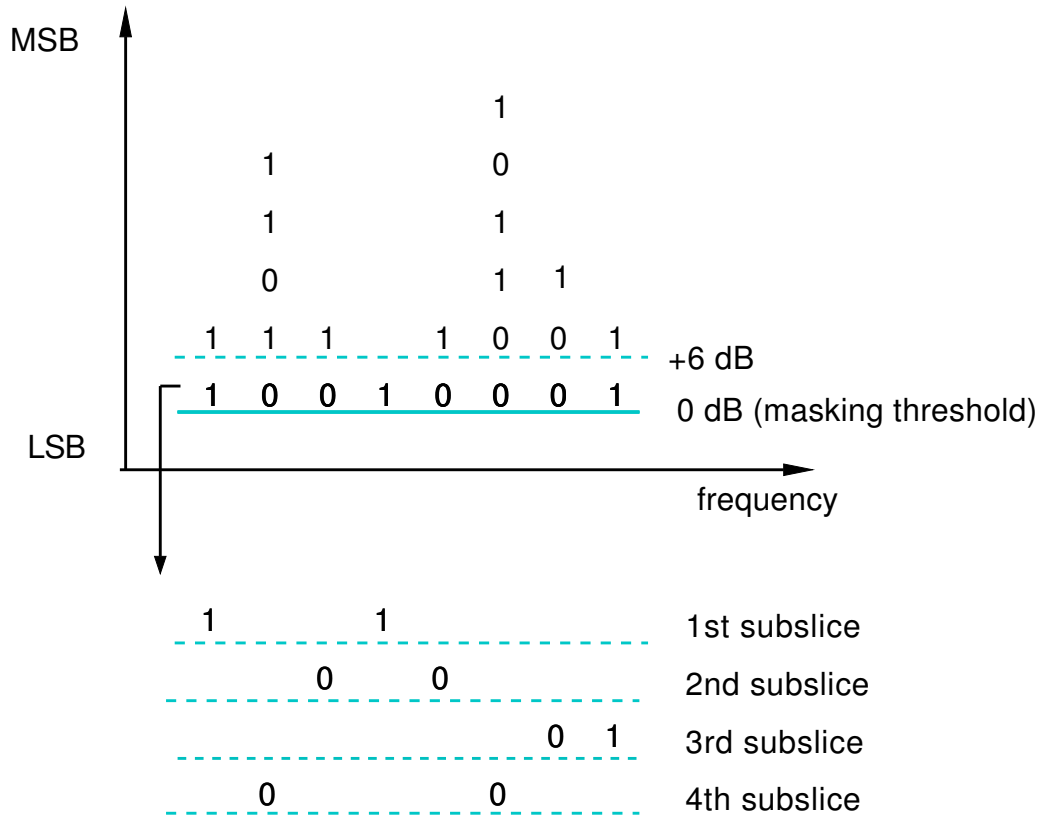


Figure 5.9: Definition of subslices based on values of higher bitslices

spectral value refinement in each subslice signal dependent. This can be achieved without additional side information by considering the masking threshold and the values transmitted so far in the higher subslices. In the case of the transmission of the continuous masking threshold, the assumed quantization error can be compared with the masking threshold for each value and the values with the worst noise-to-mask ratio are refined in the next subslice. In the case of bandwise transmission of the masking threshold, all values in one band have reached the same assumed quantization error after a given bitslice is coded.

Here the order for the subslices can be based on the magnitude of the transmitted values. If the refinement in each subslice starts with the frequency bins with the smaller transmitted values, a noise shaping is achieved within each band. This is illustrated in Figure 5.9. In this example the ‘0 dB’ slice has to be coded next. The order of spectral values for the following subslices can be based on the bit values of the ‘+6 dB and higher’ bitslices which are already transmitted. In this way the

spectral values with smaller values are refined earlier than the spectral values with bigger values.

5.4.4 Results

The system was implemented incorporating a bandwise masking threshold, 4 subslices per bitslice and the noise shaping property described above. Additionally a bandwidth scaling was used. This technique is well known from the scalable audio coding schemes in MPEG-4 [MPE01] and allows a proper tradeoff between audible artifacts and audio bandwidth. In the context of bitsliced coding this tradeoff is achieved by transmitting only the spectral values of the lower frequencies in the bitslices above the masking threshold. In each subslice some high frequency values are coded additionally to increase the bandwidth from subslice to subslice. Furthermore, this system uses the same window switching technique as MPEG-2/4 AAC. Additional coding tools such as Temporal Noise Shaping (TNS) and Mid/Side (MS) coding could also be applied to the IntMDCT spectrum, as described in the previous sections, but in this codec they are not implemented yet. As test signals the twelve critical test items used for the development of the MPEG-4 perceptual audio coding schemes were used, listed in Table 7.3. The bandwidth was limited for the subslices that do not yet achieve transparent quality in order to achieve a proper tradeoff between audible artifacts and bandwidth.

Results for Perceptual Coding

The perceived audio quality after transmitting a certain number of subslices is evaluated based on the ITU-R recommendation BS.1387 PEAQ (Perceptual Evaluation of Audio Quality) measurement method [BS198, TTB⁺00] using the Noise-to-Mask Ratio (NMR) and the Objective Difference Grade (ODG) output values which are briefly described here.

Noise-To-Mask Ratio (NMR)

The NMR estimates the ratio between the actual distortion (“Noise”) and the maximum inaudible distortion, i.e. the masking threshold (“Mask”). NMR values smaller than 0dB indicate the headroom between the noise and the threshold of audibility whereas values larger than 0dB indicate audible distortions.

Objective Difference Grade (ODG)

The ODG values are designed to mimic the listening test ratings obtained from typical test listeners by means of an objective measurement procedure according to the ITU-R recommendation BS.1116 [BS194]. The grading scale ranges from -4 (“very annoying”) to 0 (“imperceptible difference”).

It should be noted that, while the PEAQ method is designed to mimic the results of a subjective listening test, it can not fully replace such a listening test. The PEAQ results just provide estimates of the expected listening test results. For example, signal modifications with a frequency or time resolution finer than the corresponding resolution in the perceptual model of PEAQ might not be evaluated correctly by the PEAQ method.

In Table 5.4 the results for several quality levels are listed. The ‘subslices’ column represents the perceptual significance of the last transmitted subslice. In the ‘bitrate’ column the average stereo bitrates for these test items are listed. Currently no bitrate control is utilized, and thus the resulting average bitrate depends on the input signal (variable bitrate coding). The ‘bandwidth’ column lists the bandwidth chosen for the bandwidth scalability. The last two columns represent the PEAQ results. They presume that the quality continuously increases when additional subslices are coded. It is, however, also visible that the worst NMR values do not improve as fast as the perceptual significance values would indicate. One reason for this behavior could be the perceptual model used in this implementation which is currently not optimized for this application, and further improvement could be expected here. Secondly, the worst NMR values merely reflect the existence of signal portions with maximum distortion rather than the average decrease of distortion from subslice to subslice.

Results for Lossless Coding

When all bitslices of the IntMDCT magnitude spectrum and all sign values are transmitted, the signal can be reconstructed exactly in the decoder, resulting in a lossless audio coding scheme. Table 5.5 lists the average compression results for the signals mentioned above, and compares the results with the results for the lossless coding schemes Monkey’s Audio [Ash] and Shorten [Rob94]. It can be seen that the

Subslice	Bitrate	Bandwidth	ODG	Worst NMR
+6.0 dB	60 kbps	8 kHz	-3.8	+3.0 dB
+4.5 dB	74 kbps	10 kHz	-3.8	+2.1 dB
+3.0 dB	88 kbps	12 kHz	-3.7	+2.0 dB
+1.5 dB	109 kbps	14 kHz	-3.6	+0.8 dB
0 dB	137 kbps	16 kHz	-1.8	-4.7 dB
-1.5 dB	161 kbps	18 kHz	-1.6	-6.7 dB
-3.0 dB	184 kbps	20 kHz	-1.4	-7.6 dB
-4.5 dB	205 kbps	22 kHz	-1.2	-7.5 dB
-6.0 dB	224 kbps	22 kHz	-1.0	-7.9 dB
-12 dB	305 kbps	22 kHz	-0.5	-9.3 dB
-18 dB	382 kbps	22 kHz	-0.1	-9.6 dB
-24 dB	441 kbps	22 kHz	0.0	-10.3 dB

Table 5.4: Average bitrates and quality results for bitsliced coding of MPEG-4 perceptual audio coding test items

lossless compression performance of this new embedded coding scheme is comparable with the performance of other purely lossless audio coding schemes.

The good compression results for lossless coding, i.e. for coding of all bitslices, also indicate that almost no overhead is introduced by this scalable approach, and that the results for perceptual coding could be further improved by an improvement of the underlying perceptual model.

5.4.5 Simplification of the Inverse Decoding Problem

When a perceptually coded audio signal is decoded and then encoded again, usually the perceptual encoder does not recognize that the signal has already been perceptually coded previously, and hence, adds additional quantization noise. This scenario is referred to as “tandem coding”. The goal of the inverse decoder, introduced in [HS00], is to analyze the decoded signal in order to retrieve the original bitstream or at least an equivalent bitstream. This approach can avoid additional quantization error and the resulting tandem coding artifacts. An implementation of an inverse

Lossless coder	Bitrate
Bitsliced IntMDCT	625 kbps
Monkey's Audio 3.97	569 kbps
Shorten	706 kbps
Original	1411 kbps

Table 5.5: Average bitrates for lossless coding of MPEG-4 perceptual audio coding test items

decoder for MPEG-1 Layer-3 [MPE93b] is presented in [MHG02]. In [Hir02] this concept is elaborated for MPEG-2 AAC [AAC97].

The basic structure of these approaches is the following: First the framing offset is determined by applying the analysis filter bank repeatedly with a sliding offset. The correct offset can be found by searching for the characteristic zero values in the quantized spectrum, only occurring for the correct offset. With the correct offset the audio signal can now be analyzed frame by frame. The filter bank parameters are determined by trying different possible window shapes and window lengths. Finally, the quantization information can be determined by analyzing the quantized spectral values.

Regarding these approaches it can be observed that the spectral values in the inverse decoder do not exactly match the quantized spectral values in the encoder. The difference shows up as a white noise floor which has to be considered by including a certain error tolerance in all the analysis steps of the inverse decoder. The main reason for this noise floor is the floating-point processing in the decoder. The synthesis filter bank produces floating point output values which are rounded to integer PCM values for the audio output.

A perceptual audio coder using an integer transform could avoid this uncertainty in the analysis. By utilizing a perceptually controlled quantization mapping integer to integer values and using the integer transform in the decoder, an additional rounding operation to integer PCM values is not necessary. Hence, the quantized integer spectral values can be exactly reconstructed in the inverse decoder, as long as the filter bank parameters are determined correctly. No additional noise is introduced when the quantized spectral values are decoded to PCM values. The determination

of the framing offset and filter bank parameters is also simplified, as spectral values quantized to zero remain exactly zero after applying the analysis filter bank with the correct parameters. Additionally, quantized spectral values can easily be detected as long as the behavior of the quantizer is known.

The fine-grain scalable perceptual and lossless audio coder presented in this section is an example to which this integer-based inverse decoding can be applied. In that codec the perceptually controlled quantization of the integer spectral values is performed by omitting some LSB values. In the decoder the omitted LSBs are filled with a fixed bit pattern in order to obtain a midrise quantizer. The presence of this bit pattern in the inverse decoder characterizes a quantized value and its level of quantization.

5.5 Data Hiding with High Data Rates in Uncompressed Audio Signals

This section describes an approach for data hiding in uncompressed audio signals. By using an integer transform and a perceptual model, a large amount of data can be embedded into uncompressed audio signals without becoming audible.

5.5.1 Previous Data Hiding Approaches

Several approaches have already been proposed for embedding additional data in audio signals.

In [tKvdKZ90, tKvdKZ92] a filter bank and a perceptual model is used to embed additional data to audio signals in an inaudible way. A quantization according to the perceptual model is applied, and the quantization interval is exploited for adding the additional data. As a main application a transmission of additional surround channel information in a stereo signal is considered.

In [GC93, OGvdWV95] a high-rate embedded data channel for the Audio CD is described. In that approach the additional data is embedded as perceptually noise-shaped subtractive dither.

While these techniques allow to embed data at high data rates (e.g. several 100

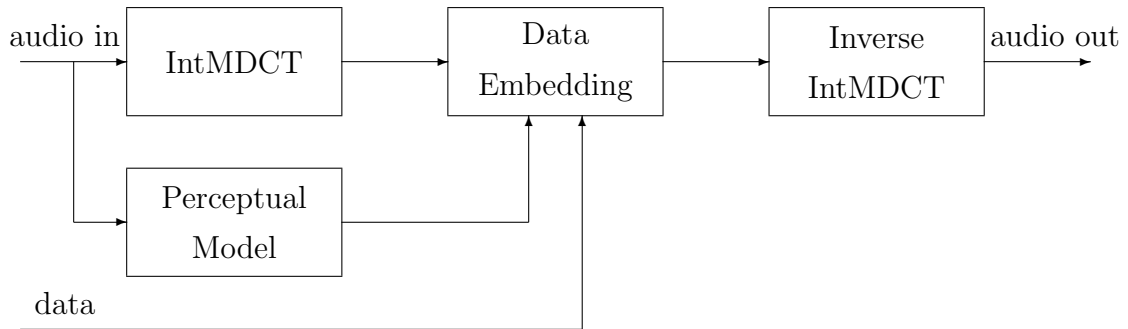


Figure 5.10: Embedding algorithm for data hiding using IntMDCT

kBit/s), the embedded data can only be extracted as long as the digital audio signal is not modified. In recent years techniques of robust embedding, often referred to as “watermarking”, for audio signals have been put forward, allowing to extract the embedded data even after analog transmission or perceptual coding (see e.g. [NH98]). Clearly, while the inaudibility of the watermark is essential, the high robustness does only allow a very small data rate (below 1 kBit/s) to be added. In [SNBH02] an overview of previous audio watermarking approaches and a new scheme allowing a data rate of several kBit/s are presented.

For applications where embedding at high data rates is important, rather than robustness, invertible integer transforms allow a very straight-forward approach for inaudible data embedding. In [XCZ⁺02] a corresponding approach for data hiding in images is presented, utilizing an integer wavelet transform. In this section the IntMDCT will be used to build such a system for audio signals.

5.5.2 Basic Principle

The data embedding is performed in frequency domain, allowing to exploit perceptual masking phenomena in order to embed data inaudibly at a high data rate. The basic principle of the embedding algorithm is shown in Figure 5.10. The frequency representation is obtained by using the IntMDCT described in Chapter 4. A perceptual model determines to which extent each integer spectral value is perceptually significant, e.g. by dividing the binary representation of the absolute value into significant and insignificant bits. The insignificant part can be used for data

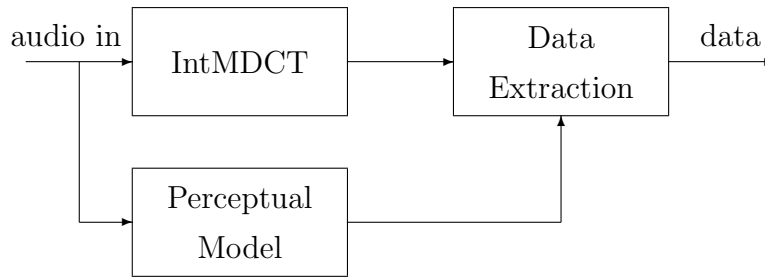


Figure 5.11: Extraction algorithm for data hiding using IntMDCT

embedding. Finally, the inverse IntMDCT is applied in order to obtain the audio signal which contains the embedded data. The advantage of this approach is that, even after a modification of the integer spectral values, a transformation to integer samples is possible without the need for a lossy rounding operation. Hence the modified integer spectral values can exactly be reconstructed again from the integer samples.

Figure 5.11 shows the data extraction algorithm corresponding to the embedding algorithm in Figure 5.10. The embedded data is extracted from the audio signal by using the same transform and the same perceptual model as for the embedding process. The embedded data can be retrieved from the insignificant part of the integer spectral values. Here a constraint for the perceptual model has to be considered: The determined perceptual significance should not change after replacing the insignificant part of the integer spectral values by the embedding data.

5.5.3 Embedding Using Simple Perceptual Model

For the simplest version of the embedding algorithm a constant frame length is chosen (e.g. 256 or 512 spectral values). This allows for a compromise between a good spectral resolution for tonal signals and a good temporal resolution for transient signals. Furthermore, a simple perceptual model is used, demanding a fixed signal to noise ratio for each spectral value. This is achieved by considering the binary representation of each absolute spectral value, and declaring the highest non-zero bit (“leading bit”) and a fixed number of lower bits as significant. This is the most straight-forward approach fulfilling the constraint mentioned above for the

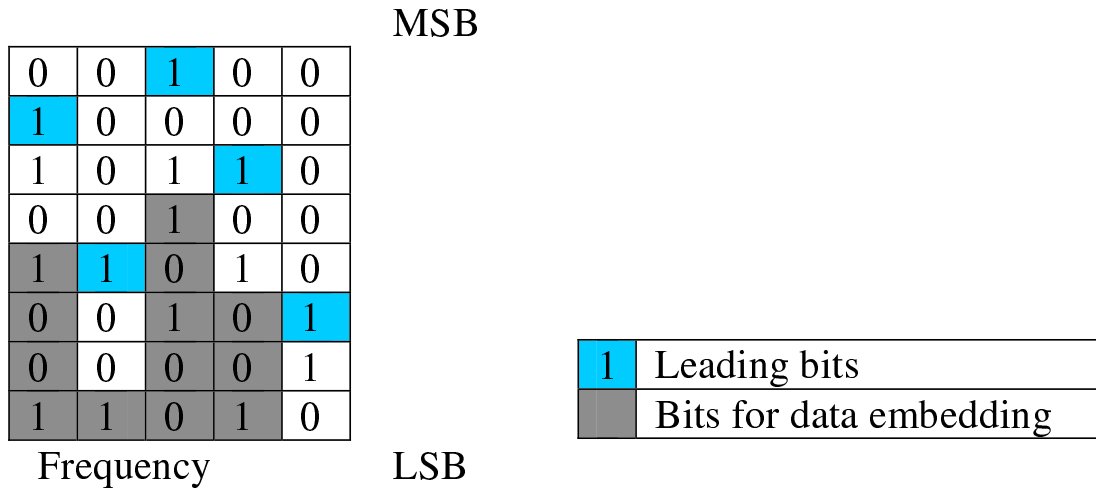


Figure 5.12: Data embedding with simple perceptual model (3 bits significant)

perceptual model. For example, a signal to noise ratio of about 18 dB is achieved by declaring 3 bits as significant. All lower bits of the absolute integer spectral values are considered as perceptually insignificant and can be utilized for data embedding. This is illustrated in Figure 5.12.

5.5.4 First Results

This simple embedding scheme was evaluated trying different constant frame lengths and different numbers of significant bits. In this experiment the insignificant bits were not replaced by embedded data, but by a bit mask (1,0,0,...), resulting in a midrise quantizer. The number of replaced bits was used to calculate the average bitrate available for embedding.

Table 5.6 presents the resulting bitrates, Objective Difference Grades (ODG) and Worst NMR values based on the PEAQ method (see Section 5.4) for different frame lengths and different numbers of significant bits. The tested audio signals represent the test set of twelve critical items used in the development of MPEG-4 [MPE01] perceptual audio codecs, see Table 7.3. They contain both very tonal items (e.g. pitch pipe) critical for short transform lengths, and very transient signals (e.g. castanets) critical for long transform lengths. It can be observed that the best compromise is obtained for frame lengths of 256 or 512. Especially for the frame length of 256,

a value of 4 significant bits already results in an ODG value of 0.0 and a negative worst NMR, presuming that the signal modification might be inaudible, while an embedding bitrate of 142 kBit/s can be achieved. Clearly, the inaudibility would need to be verified additionally by subjective listening tests, as mentioned in Section 5.4.

5.5.5 Framing Detection

For practical purposes it is desirable to start extracting the embedded data at arbitrary samples of the audio signal. For example, it should be possible to truncate the audio signal, to start extracting during an ongoing transmission or to restart the extraction after skipping a part of the audio signal. Hence a mechanism for finding the frame grid of the embedded data is necessary. This can be achieved by adding a small amount of redundancy (e.g. a check sum) to the embedded data. In order to find the correct framing offset, several frames of audio samples have to be transformed repeatedly, with the offset incremented by one sample at each time. By evaluating the check sum of the supposed embedded data, the framing grid can easily be determined. While a false detection of one frame is not fully excluded by using only a small amount of redundancy, a regular occurrence of false detection within the framing grid gets more unlikely, the more frames of audio samples are examined. Hence a small amount of redundancy is sufficient for a reliable detection of the framing grid. Once the framing grid is found, the extraction algorithm can be performed frame by frame. This framing detection works similar to the framing detection used in the “Inverse Decoder” mentioned in Section 5.4.5.

5.5.6 Advanced Perceptual Model and Block Switching

In the embedding algorithm presented so far the perceptual model is very simple and demands a constant signal to noise ratio for each spectral value. Nevertheless, a more signal adaptive perceptual model can also be used, considering e.g. the different demands of tonal and non-tonal maskers and masking across spectral values. It only has to be assured that the discrimination between significant and insignificant part of the integer spectral values operates still in the same way after the insignificant

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frame length	Significant bits	Embedding bitrate	ODG	Worst NMR
128	2	259 kBit/s	-1.6	6.7 dB
128	3	204 kBit/s	-0.7	-0.2 dB
128	4	157 kBit/s	-0.2	-7.0 dB
128	5	117 kBit/s	0.0	-13.3 dB
128	6	84 kBit/s	-0.1	-19.0 dB
128	7	58 kBit/s	0.0	-19.1 dB
128	8	38 kBit/s	0.0	-19.0 dB
256	2	241 kBit/s	-1.0	0.9 dB
256	3	187 kBit/s	-0.3	-6.1 dB
256	4	142 kBit/s	0.0	-14.6 dB
256	5	105 kBit/s	0.0	-18.0 dB
256	6	75 kBit/s	0.0	-19.1 dB
256	7	51 kBit/s	0.0	-19.4 dB
256	8	33 kBit/s	0.0	-19.9 dB
512	2	225 kBit/s	-0.8	12.9 dB
512	3	172 kBit/s	-0.1	5.8 dB
512	4	128 kBit/s	0.0	0.1 dB
512	5	94 kBit/s	0.0	-7.6 dB
512	6	66 kBit/s	0.0	-14.9 dB
512	7	45 kBit/s	0.0	-19.2 dB
512	8	29 kBit/s	0.0	-19.7 dB
1024	2	213 kBit/s	-1.5	25.5 dB
1024	3	161 kBit/s	-0.5	19.8 dB
1024	4	119 kBit/s	-0.2	14.9 dB
1024	5	86 kBit/s	-0.2	7.9 dB
1024	6	60 kBit/s	-0.3	1.5 dB
1024	7	41 kBit/s	0.0	-4.0 dB
1024	8	26 kBit/s	0.0	-9.7 dB

Table 5.6: Embedding bitrate and perceptual quality for different frame lengths and significant bits

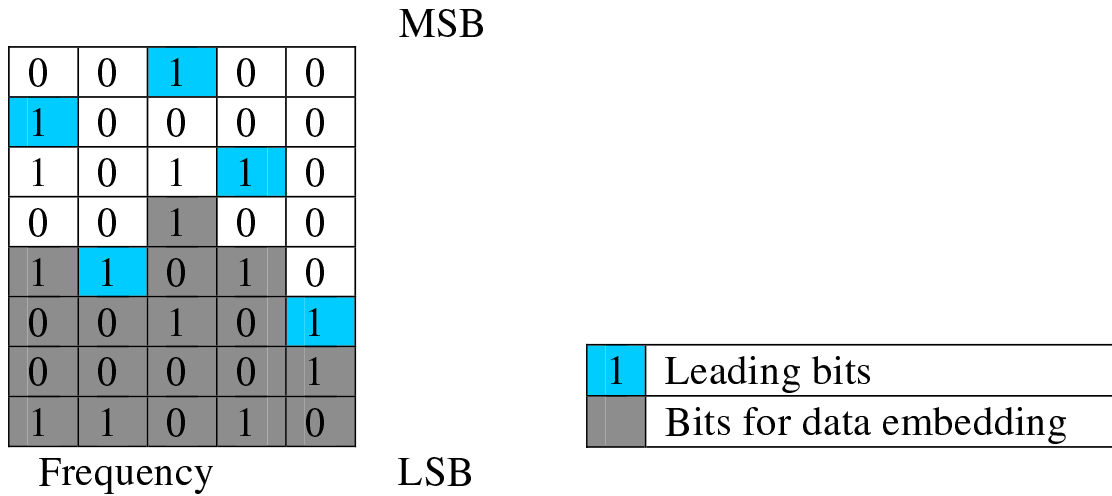


Figure 5.13: Data embedding with perceptual model based on leading bits

part is replaced by the embedded data. This can, for example, be achieved by taking into account only the leading bit of each spectral value in the perceptual model and by assuring that the leading bits are not modified. In case of smaller, masked spectral values, more bits can be embedded in this way. This is illustrated in Figure 5.13.

With the approach presented so far, the maximum possible bitrate of the embedded signal highly depends on the level of the audio signal. Especially in quiet parts of the audio signal the bitrate can even decrease to zero. To avoid this and to assure a certain minimum bitrate, a fixed threshold in quiet can be considered additionally, allowing to embed at least some data especially in the high and low frequency range.

So far only a fixed transform length has been discussed, forcing a compromise between tonal and transient signal portions. Nevertheless, an adaptive block length, as for perceptual audio coding, can also be considered in this context. To enable this, the extractor has to know the current block length without retrieving any additional side information. This can be achieved by evaluating the redundancy in the embedded data necessary for the framing detection. The extractor just has to try several transforms with different possible block lengths and window shapes. The correct choice can then be found by evaluating the check sums. This technique is, again, similar to the technique used in the “Inverse Decoder” described in Section 5.4.5.

5.5.7 Applications

The embedding technique presented in this section is generally interesting in the context of applications where an unmodified transmission of the digital audio samples can be assumed. In such environments additional data with high data rates can be embedded without loss of audio quality.

The Audio CD is an example system where this technique could be included. While maintaining full backwards compatibility, the additional data can be extracted from the digital audio stream, which is usually available via the SPDIF connection in consumer devices. The technique of finding the framing grid in the embedded data also allows to proceed with extracting the embedded data after a part of the playback is skipped.

The channel coding used on the Audio CD allows to correct a certain amount of errors occurring in the raw data. However, if the error rate is increased, some errors can not be corrected and an error concealment technique is applied, trying to make the error inaudible. In the data embedding technique put forward here, this concealment can destroy the embedded data. Nevertheless, this can be counteracted by adding an error correcting channel coding technique, which is adapted to the error characteristics of the Audio CD, to the embedded data stream.

Examples for additional data, which could be embedded with this technique, are:

- Video data

By encoding additional video data with a modern, highly efficient video codec, such as MPEG-4 AVC [MPE03] a video stream with reasonable quality could be embedded in the audio signal.

- Compressed audio data

With the embedding technique presented here a compressed version of the original audio signal could also be embedded in the audio signal itself. In this way a compressed version of the audio signal could already be produced and embedded during the production process of the Audio CD. Hence the compressed audio signal just has to be extracted from the uncompressed audio signal rather than encoding it with higher computational cost. However, an

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inaudible modification of the original signal would have to be accepted for the uncompressed signal carrying the compressed signal.

- Spatial sound information

The embedding technique can be used to add spatial cue information to the audio signal. According to [FB02] a rather small amount of information is necessary to extend an audio signal to a 5.1 channel representation. If these spatial cues are embedded in the stereo audio signal, a device capable of extracting this information can output a 5.1 signal while a stereo playback device still operates in the stereo mode.

6 Conclusions

In this work new integer transforms for audio coding have been presented. The IntMDCT is derived from the Modified Discrete Cosine Transform using the lifting scheme. It preserves most of the attractive properties of the MDCT: It provides perfect reconstruction, overlapping of blocks, critical sampling, good frequency selectivity and a fast algorithm. Additionally, the IntMDCT produces only integer output values for integer input samples. Similarly, the same approach can also be applied to low-delay filter banks. A generalized, multi-dimensional lifting approach and a noise-shaping technique have been introduced, allowing to further optimize the accuracy of approximating the original transform.

As a first application a lossless audio coder can be built by combining the IntMDCT with an entropy coding scheme.

Furthermore, the close approximation of the MDCT by the IntMDCT allows to combine this lossless coding scheme with MDCT based perceptual coding schemes. In particular, a scalable coder can be built which consists of a conventional perceptual base coder and an enhancement in frequency domain achieving lossless operation. This allows for a robust bit-exact reconstruction and a lossless decoding on different platforms. Modern perceptual audio coding schemes, such as MPEG-2 AAC, which make use of numerous additional coding tools can also be extended to a lossless system by applying lossless versions of the coding tools to the IntMDCT values. The system can also be used as a stand-alone lossless codec by simply omitting the perceptual codec. Further options for scalability in sampling rate and word length are provided. This approach allows for a good compression performance both in the scalable mode and in the lossless-only mode.

Another possible application of the IntMDCT is a fine grain scalable perceptual and lossless audio coding scheme. The fine grain scalable perceptual coding is

6 Conclusions

achieved by defining bitslices with equal perceptual significance and applying arithmetic coding to the bit values of the IntMDCT spectrum, arranged along the defined bitslices. The concept of encoding subslices allows to further refine the granularity of quantization in order to obtain a fine adaptation to the masking threshold especially in the range of perceptually transparent quality. Thus, the coding scheme allows for a large number of quality steps and corresponding bitrates for perceptual coding. Furthermore, when all the bitslices are coded, efficient lossless audio coding is achieved.

The IntMDCT can also be used to build a simple and efficient system for data hiding with high data rates in uncompressed audio signals. The embedding is performed in the integer frequency domain by dividing the binary representation into audible and inaudible bits.

Overall, the new approach of invertible integer transforms for audio coding provides a large field of new and efficient applications and bridges the gap between perceptual and lossless audio coding.

7 Outlook

The international standardization body ISO/IEC JTC1/SC29/WG11, also known as the Moving Picture Experts Group (MPEG), is currently issuing an extension of MPEG-4 [MPE01] towards lossless operation. In this work item a scalable lossless enhancement of MPEG-4 AAC will be defined.

As a starting point for the reference model for MPEG-4 Scalable Lossless Coding (SLS) the system described in [YLRK04] was chosen. The basic structure of this system is similar to the system described by the author in [GHKB02] and in Section 5.2. Additionally, a fine-grain scalable bit-plane coding approach allows for an intermediate, near-lossless signal representation. In this way an increasing noise-to-mask ratio headroom is added with each additional bit-plane. This allows for a flexible near-lossless signal representation with constant bitrate.

In the subsequent collaborative phase of the standardization process several improvements for the scalable lossless coding scheme were successfully proposed by the author, including e.g. the multi-dimensional lifting and noise shaping improvements for the IntMDCT described in Section 4.3 and Section 4.4.

Hence, large parts of the new work presented in this thesis are also on their way to being standardized within the future MPEG-4 Scalable Lossless Coding standard.

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List of Abbreviations

AAC	Advanced Audio Coding
AVC	Advanced Video Coding
BSAC	Bitsliced Arithmetic Coding
CD	Compact Disc
dB	Decibel
dBFS	Decibel below Full Scale
DCT	Discrete Cosine Transform
DCT _{II}	Discrete Cosine Transform of type II
DCT _{IV}	Discrete Cosine Transform of type IV
DFT	Discrete Fourier Transform
ELT	Extended Lapped Transform
FFT	Fast Fourier Transform
FIR	Finite Impuls Response
IIR	Infinite Impuls Response
IntMDCT	Integer Modified Discrete Cosine Transform
JPEG	Joint Photographic Experts Group
LOT	Lapped Orthogonal Transform
LPC	Linear Predictive Coding
LSB	Least Significant Bit
MDCT	Modified Discrete Cosine Transform
MDL	Multi-Dimensional Lifting
MLT	Modulated Lapped Transform

MP3	MPEG-1 Layer-3
MPEG	Moving Pictures Expert Group
M/S	Mid/Side
MSB	Most Significant Bit
MSE	Mean Squared Error
NMR	Noise-To-Mask Ratio
ODG	Objective Difference Grade
PEAQ	Perceptual Evaluation of Audio Quality
PNS	Perceptual Noise Substitution
SQAM	Sound Quality Assessment Material
SPDIF	Sony Philips Digital Interface
TDA	Time Domain Aliasing
TDAC	Time Domain Aliasing Cancellation
TNS	Temporal Noise Shaping

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List of Audio Test Items

Track	Resolution	Content
1	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Sine Wave, 1kHz -20dB, -10dB, 0dB
2	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Band-Limited Pink Noise
3	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Electronic Gong 100 Hz
4	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Electronic Gong 400 Hz
5	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Electronic Gong 5 kHz
6	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Electronic Gong 500 Hz, Vibrato
7	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Electronic Tune (Frere Jacques)
8	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Violin
9	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Viola
10	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Violoncello
11	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Double-Bass
12	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Piccolo
13	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Flute
14	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Oboe
15	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Cor Anglais
16	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Clarinet
17	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Bass-Clarinet
18	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Bassoon
19	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Contra-Bassoon
20	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Saxophone

21	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Trumpet
22	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Trombone
23	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Horn
24	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Tuba
25	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Harp
26	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Claves
27	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Castanets
28	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Side Drum Without / With Snares
29	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Bass Drum
30	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Kettle-Drums
31	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Cymbal
32	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Triangle
33	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Gong
34	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Tubular Bells
35	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Glockenspiel
36	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Xylophone
37	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Vibraphone
38	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Marimba
39	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Grand Piano
40	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Harpsichord
41	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Celesta
42	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Accordion
43	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Single Instrument Organ
44	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal Soprano
45	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal Alto
46	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal Tenor
47	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal Bass
48	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal Quartet
49	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Speech Female English
50	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Speech Male English

51	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Speech Female French
52	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Speech Male French
53	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Speech Female German
54	44.1kHz/16bit/mono	Speech Male German
55	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Solo Instruments Trumpet Haydn
56	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Solo Instruments Organ Handel
57	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Solo Instruments Organ Bach
58	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Solo Instruments Guitar Sarasate
59	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Solo Instruments Violin Ravel
60	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Solo Instruments Piano Schubert
61	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal & Orchestra Soprano Mozart
62	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal & Orchestra Soprano Spiritual
63	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal & Orchestra Soloists Verdi
64	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Vocal & Orchestra Choir Orff
65	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Orchestra R. Strauss
66	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Orchestra Wind Ensemble Stravinsky
67	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Orchestra Wind Ensemble Mozart
68	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Orchestra Baird
69	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Pop Music ABBA
70	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Pop Music Eddie Rabbitt

Table 7.1: List of tracks on SQAM / Sound Quality Assessment Material (Recordings For Subjective Tests) [SQA88]

Signal	Max. Resolution	Content
avemaria	192kHz/24bit/stereo	Avemaria / C. Gounod, played by New York Symphonic Ensemble
etude	192kHz/24bit/stereo	Etude / F.Chopin, played by New York Symphonic Ensemble
flute	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Concerto for Two Flutes and Orchestra RV.533 Op.42 No.2 in C major / Vivaldi, played by New York Symphonic Ensemble
clarinet	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Concerto for Clarinet and Orchestra in A major K.622 / Mozart, played by New York Symphonic Ensemble
violin	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Concerto for Violin and String Orchestra No.1, BWV1041 / Bach, played by New York Symphonic Ensemble
haffner	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Symphony No.35 in D major “Haffner”, K.385 / Mozart, played by New York Symphonic Ensemble
cymbal	192kHz/24bit/stereo	Matsushita Electric Industrial Co., Ltd. original recording
broadway	192kHz/24bit/stereo	Broadway / T.McRae, B.Bird, H.Woode, played by Jazz Trio “Maeda Norio Trio”
mfv	192kHz/24bit/stereo	My funny valentine / R.Rodgers, L.Hare, played by Jazz Trio “Maeda Norio Trio”
dcymbals	192kHz/24bit/stereo	Dancin’ cymbals / T.Inomata, played by Jazz Trio “Maeda Norio Trio”

cherokee	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Cherokee / Ray Noble, played by Jazz Big Band “Count Sayno”
fouronsix	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Four on six / Wes Montgomery, played by Jazz Big Band “Count Sayno”
unfo	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Unforgettable / Irving Gordon, played by Jazz Big Band “Count Sayno”
blackandtan	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Black and tan fantasy / Duke Ellington, played by Jazz Big Band “Count Sayno”
waltz	96kHz/24bit/stereo	Waltz for Debby / Bill Evans, played by Jazz Big Band “Count Sayno”

Table 7.2: List of test items used for the development of MPEG-4 lossless audio coding schemes [MPE02]

Signal	Resolution	Content
sc01	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Trumpet solo & orchestra
sc02	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Symphonic orchestra
sc03	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Contemporary pop music
es01	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Suzanne Vega
es02	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	German male speaker
es03	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	English female speaker
sm01	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Bagpipes
sm02	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Glockenspiel
sm03	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Plucked strings
si01	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Harpsichord
si02	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Castanets
si03	44.1kHz/16bit/stereo	Pitch pipe

Table 7.3: List of test items used for the development of MPEG-4 perceptual audio coding schemes

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- Gehörangepaßte Verfahren zur Audiocodierung, wie etwa MPEG-1 Layer-3 (MP3) oder MPEG-2 Advanced Audio Coding (AAC), werden häufig zur effizienten Speicherung und Übertragung von Audiosignalen verwendet.
- Für professionelle Anwendungen, wie etwa die Archivierung und Übertragung im Studiobereich, ist eher eine verlustlose Audiocodierung angebracht.
- Die bisherigen Ansätze für gehörangepaßte und verlustlose Audiocodierung sind technisch völlig verschieden.
- Moderne gehörangepaßte Audiocoder basieren meist auf Filterbänken, wie etwa der überlappenden orthogonalen Transformation “Modifizierte Diskrete Cosinus-Transformation” (MDCT).
- Verlustlose Audiocoder verwenden meist prädiktive Codierung zur Redundanzreduktion.
- Das Lifting-Schema läßt sich auf die in der gehörangepaßten Audiocodierung verwendeten überlappenden Transformationen anwenden. Dies ermöglicht eine invertierbare Integer-Approximation der ursprünglichen Transformation, z.B. die IntMDCT als Integer-Approximation der MDCT.
- Das Lifting-Schema kann auch für Filterbänke mit niedriger Systemverzögerung angewandt werden.
- Ein neuer, mehrdimensionaler Lifting-Ansatz und eine Technik zur Spektralformung von Quantisierungsfehlern ergeben eine Verbesserung der Approximation der ursprünglichen Transformation.
- Integer-Transformationen ermöglichen neue Verfahren zur verlustlose Audiocodierung, eine skalierbare verlustlose Erweiterung eines gehörangepaßten Audiocoders und einen integrierten Ansatz zur fein skalierbaren gehörangepaßten und verlustlosen Audiocodierung.
- Integer-Transformationen ermöglichen ein neuer Ansatz zur unhörbaren Einbettung von Daten mit hohen Datenraten in unkomprimierte Audiosignale.

Erklärung

Ich versichere, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit ohne unzulässige Hilfe Dritter und ohne Benutzung anderer als der angegebenen Hilfsmittel angefertigt habe. Die aus anderen Quellen direkt oder indirekt übernommenen Daten und Konzepte sind unter Angabe der Quelle gekennzeichnet.

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Ilmenau, 11. Oktober 2004

Ralf Geiger