On the Improvements of the MPEG-2 Encoding Algorithm by Timed-Arc Petri Nets*

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Abstract

In this paper we analyse a parallel version of the MPEG algorithm for video encoding, by using Timed-Arc Petri nets. These are a timed extension of Petri nets, in which tokens have an age, and arcs connecting places with transitions are labelled with a time interval, thus establishing a restriction for the tokens that must be used in order to fire the transitions. With this model it is possible that some tokens become dead, in the sense that they cannot be used for the firing of any transitions in the future, and then we exploit this fact in order to extend the classical notion of safeness, thus defining the soft-safeness of a Timed-Arc Petri net. Then, we analyse a version of the MPEG–2 encoder, modelling it with a MTAPN. The main consequence that we can obtain from the model is that some parts of the algorithm can be made in parallel, and thus, provided that we have several processors, we can improve the performance of the encoder significatively.

1 Introduction

A survey of the different approaches to introduce time in Petri nets is presented in [5]. We can identify a first group of models, which assign time delays to transitions, either using a fixed and deterministic value [12, 13] or choosing it from a probability distribution [3]. Other models use time intervals to establish the enabling times of transitions [10]. Finally, we have also some models that introduce time on tokens [2, 4, 14]. In such a case tokens become classified into two different classes: available and unavailable ones. Available tokens are those that can be immediately used for firing a transition, while unavailable cannot. We have to wait for a certain period of time for these tokens to become available, although it is also possible for a token to remain unavailable forever (such tokens are said to be *dead*). More recently, Cerone and Maggiolo-Schettini [6] have defined a very general model (statically timed Petri nets), where timing constraints are intervals statically associated with places, transitions and arcs.

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Thus, models with timing constraints attached only to places, transitions or arcs can be obtained by considering particular subclasses of this general framework.

Timed-Arc Petri nets [1, 4, 7, 8, 14, 15] are a timed extension of Petri nets in which tokens have associated a non-negative real value indicating the elapsed time from its creation (*its age*), and arcs from places to transitions are also labelled by time intervals, which establish restrictions on the age of the tokens that can be used to fire the adjacent transitions. As a consequence of these restrictions some tokens may become *dead*, because they will be never available, since they are too old to fire any transitions in the future. The interpretation and use of Timed-Arcs Petri nets can be obtained from a collection of processes interacting with one another according to a rendez-vous mechanism. Each process may execute either local actions or synchronization ones. Local actions are those that the process may execute without cooperation from another process, and thus in the Petri net model of the whole system they would appear as transitions with a single precondition place, while synchronization actions would have several precondition places, which correspond to the states at which each one of the involved processes is ready to execute the action. Then, each time interval establishes some timing restrictions related to a particular process (for instance the time that a local processing may require). In consequence, the firing of a synchronization action can be done in a time window, which depends on the age of the tokens on its precondition places.

Therefore, Timed-Arc Petri nets are a very appropriate model for the description of concurrent systems with time restrictions, such as manufacturing systems, real-time systems, process control, workflow systems, etc. In this paper we show the use of TAPNs for the modelling of safe concurrent systems. But we also exploit the fact that some tokens may become dead in order to extend the classical notion of safeness, defining the *soft-safeness* of a TAPN. As illustration, we model the MPEG-2 Video Encoder by using TAPNs. The ISO/IEC 13818–2 standard [9], commonly known as MPEG–2, is a standard intended for a wide range of applications, including Video–on–Demand (VoD), High Definition TV (HDTV) and video communications using broadband networks.

The MPEG standards were designed with these two requirements:

- The need for a high compression, which is achieved by exploiting both spatial and temporal redundancies within an image sequence.
- The need for random access capability, which is obtained by considering a special kind of pictures (I pictures), which are encoded with no reference to other frames, only exploiting the spatial correlation in a frame.

This algorithm has been analyzed in [11] by means of the Stochastic Process Algebra *ROSA*, where a proposal of improvement consisting in the simultaneous encoding of both B-images and the potential advantages that can be obtained with this little change are presented.

But, process algebras lack for the ability of capturing real concurrency. Therefore, we have modelled this encoding algorithm with TAPNs, and we have concluded from the analysis of the model that a better performance could be obtained in the encoding process by introducing some minor changes on the encoder. Specifically, we have computed some bounds for the time required to encode each type of image of a video sequence, and we have concluded both that some improvements can be introduced in the encoding process of the B-images

and that if we exploit the potential degree of parallelism of the algorithm it would be possible to obtain a significant reduction on the necessary time for encoding each GoP.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we present timed-arc Petri nets and their semantics. In Section 3 we describe how the MPEG-2 encoder works and we present a MTAPN that models this algorithm. Finally, the analysis of the algorithm and some conclusions are presented in Section 4.

2 Timed-Arc Petri Nets

We deal with timed-arc Petri nets, which have their tokens annotated with an age (a real value indicating the elapsed time from its creation) and arcs connecting places with transitions have associated a time interval, which limits the age of the tokens that must be consumed to fire the adjacent transition.

However, a transition is not forced to be fired when all its preconditions contain tokens with an adequate age, and the same is true even if the age of any of these tokens is about to expire. More in general, in the model we consider[1] there is not any kind of urgency, what we can interpret in the sense that the model is *reactive*, as transitions will be only fired when the environment requires it. But then, it can be the case that the external context may lose the ability to fire a transition if some needed tokens become too old. Even more, it is possible that some tokens become *dead*, which means definitely useless because their increasing age will not allow in the future the firing of any of their postcondition transitions.

Definition 1 (Timed-arc Petri nets)
We define a timed-arc Petri net (TAPN) as a tuple [2] $N = (P, T, F, times)$, where P is a finite set of *places*, T is a finite set of transitions ($P \cap T = \emptyset$), F is the *flow relation* ($F \subseteq (P \times T) \cup (T \times P)$), and *times* is a function that associates a closed time interval to each arc (p, t) in F, i.e.:

$$times \ : \ F|_{P \times T} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^+ \times (\mathbb{R}_0^+ \cup \{\infty\})$$

When $times(p, t) = [x_1, x_2]$ we write $\pi_i(p, t)$ to denote x_i, for $i = 1, 2$.

As we previously mentioned, tokens are annotated with real values, so markings are defined by means of multisets on $\mathbb{R}_0^+$. More exactly, a marking M is a function:

$$M \ : \ P \longrightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}_0^+)$$

where $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}_0^+)$ denotes the set of finite multisets of non-negative real numbers. Thus, as usual, each place is annotated with a certain number of tokens, but each one of them has associated a non-negative real number (its *age*). We will denote the set of markings of N by $\mathcal{M}(N)$, and using classical set notation, we will denote the number of tokens on a place p by $|M(p)|$.

As initial markings we only allow markings M such that for all p in P, and any $x > 0$ we have $M(p)(x) = 0$ (i.e., the *initial age* of any token is 0). Then,

[1] Other proposals of Timed-arc Petri nets [8] enforce the firing of transitions with an earliest and maximal firing rule.

[2] We consider only arcs with weight 1 to simplify some definitions, but the extension to general arcs with greater weights is straightforward.

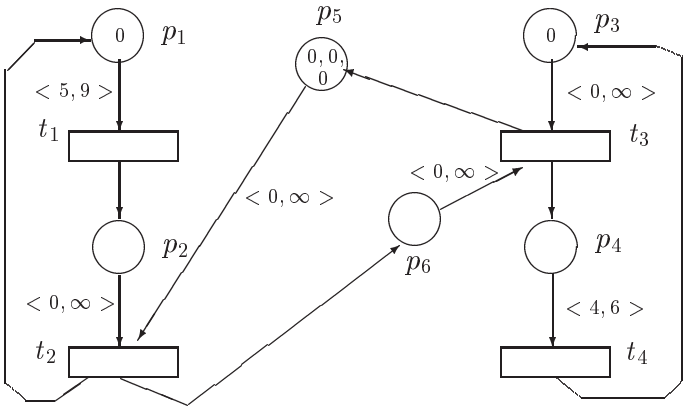

Figure 1: Timed-arc Petri net modelling the PC-problem

we define *marked timed-arc Petri nets* (MTAPN) as pairs (N, M), where N is a timed-arc Petri net, and M is an initial marking on it. As usual, from this initial marking we will obtain new markings, as the net evolves, either by firing transitions, or by time elapsing. In consequence, given a non-zero marking, even if we do not fire any transitions at all, starting from this marking we get an infinite reachability set of markings, due to the token aging.

A timed-arc Petri net with an arbitrary marking can be graphically represented by extending the usual representation of P/T nets with the corresponding time information. In particular we will use the age of each token to represent it. Therefore, MTAPNs have initially a finite collection of zero values labelling each place. □

Fig. 1 shows a MTAPN modelling a producer/consumer system, where we have represented by transition t_1 the action corresponding to the manufacturing process of the producer, which takes between 5 and 9 units of time, and by t_2 the action of including the generated object into the buffer. Notice that the initial tokens on p_5 represent the capacity of the buffer (3), and the arc connecting this place with t_2 is labelled by the interval $< 0, \infty >$, because these tokens can be consumed at any instant in the future. Tokens on p_6 represent the objects on the buffer which have not been yet consumed. Transition t_3 models the action of taking out an object from the buffer, which can occur at any instant. Finally, transition t_4 models the processing that makes the consumer for the objects extracted from the buffer, and this action takes between 4 and 6 units of time.

Let us observe that if the enabling time for the firing of one of these transitions (t_1 or t_4) expires, the system eventually becomes deadlocked, because we obtain a *dead* token either on p_1 or p_4.

Let us now see how we can fire transitions, and how we model the time elapsing.

Definition 2 (Firing rule)
Let $N = (P, T, F, times)$ be a TAPN, M a marking on it, and $t \in T$.

(i) We say that t is *enabled* at the marking M if and only if: $\forall p \in {}^\bullet t \ \exists x_p \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$ such that $M(p)(x_p) > 0 \wedge x_p \in times(p, t)$, i.e., on each precondition of t we have some token whose age belongs to $times(p, t)$.

(ii) If t is enabled at M, it can be fired, and by its firing we reach a marking M', defined as follows:

$$M'(p) = M(p) - C^-(p,t) + C^+(t,p),\ \forall p \in P$$

where both the subtraction and the addition operators work on multisets, and:

- $C^-(p,t) = \begin{cases} \{x_p\} & \text{if } p \in {}^\bullet t, x_p \in times(p,t) \\ & \text{and } x_p \in M(p) \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $C^+(t,p) = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } p \notin t^\bullet \\ \{0\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Thus, from each precondition place of t we remove a token fulfilling (i), and we add a new token (with age 0) on each postcondition place of t.

As usual, we denote these evolutions by $M[t\rangle M'$, but it is noteworthy that these evolutions are in general non-deterministic, because when we fire a transition t, some of its precondition places could hold several tokens with different ages that could be used to fire it. Besides, we see that the firing of transitions does not consume any time. Therefore, in order to model the time elapsing we need the function *age*, defined below. By applying it we age all the tokens of the net by the same time:

(iii) The function $age : \mathcal{M}(N) \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}(N)$ is defined by:

$$age(M,x)(p)(y) = \begin{cases} M(p)(y-x) & \textit{if } y \geq x \\ 0 & \textit{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marking obtained from M after x units of time without firing any transitions will be that given by $age(M,x)$.

□

Although we have defined the evolution by firing single transitions, this can be easily extended to the firing of *steps* or *bags* of transitions; those transitions that could be fired together in a single step could be also fired in sequence in any order, since no *aging* is produced by the firing of transitions. In this way we obtain step transitions that we denote by $M[R\rangle M'$. Finally, by alternating step transitions and time elapsing we can define a timed step semantics, where timed step sequences are those sequences $\sigma = M_0[R_1\rangle_{x_1} M_1 \ldots M_{n-1}[R_n\rangle_{x_n} M_n$, where M_i are markings, R_i multisets of transitions and $x_i \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$, in such a way that $M_i[R_{i+1}\rangle M'_{i+1}$ and $M_{i+1} = age(M'_{i+1}, x_{i+1})$. Note that we allow $x_i = 0$ in order to capture the execution in time zero of two causally related steps.

Then, given a MTAPN (N, M_0), we define $[M_0\rangle$ as the set of reachable markings on N starting from M_0, and we say that N is bounded if for every $p \in P$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $M \in [M_0\rangle$ we have $|M(p)| \leq n$.

A token on a place p at a marking M is said to be *dead* if it can never be used to fire any transitions, i.e., it will remain on its place forever, just growing up. Thus, we say that a marking is *dead* when all its tokens are *dead*.

In a previous paper [14] we have shown that TAPNs have a greater expressiveness than PNs, even although TAPNs are not Turing complete, because they cannot correctly simulate a 2-counter machine. In that paper we proved that reachability is undecidable for TAPNs. Other properties that we have studied in a more recent paper [7] are coverability, boundedness and detection of dead tokens, which are all decidable for TAPNs. Decidability of coverability has been also proved in [1] for an extended version of TAPNs, in which all arcs can be annotated with bags of intervals in $\mathbb{N} \times (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})$.

3 MPEG-2 Encoding Algorithm

MPEG standards were designed with two requirements in mind, namely, the need for a high compression, and the need for random access capability. These techniques exploit the fact that video sequences usually contain statistical redundancies in both temporal and spatial directions. Thus, MPEG digital video coding techniques are statistical in nature. Specifically, the basic statistical property upon which MPEG compression techniques rely is inter–pixel region correlation. The contents of a particular pixel region can be predicted from nearby pixel regions within the same frame (intra–frame coding) or from pixel regions of a nearby frame (inter–frame coding).

Perhaps the ideal method for reducing temporal redundancies is one that tracks every pixel from frame to frame. However, this extensive search is computationally expensive. Under the MPEG standards, this search is performed by tracking the information within 16×16 pixels regions, called *macroblocks*. Given two contiguous frames, $frame(t)$ and $frame(t-1)$, for each macroblock in $frame(t)$, the encoder determines the best matching macroblock in $frame(t-1)$ and calculates the *motion vector*, which captures the macroblock translation information. Therefore, the *temporal redundancy reduction processor* generates a representation for $frame(t)$ by using the corresponding macroblock from $frame(t-1)$, and this representation only contains the motion vector and the prediction error (changes between both frames). This technique is called *motion compensated prediction*.

In order to reduce spatial redundancies a DCT (Discrete Cosine Transform) is used. With this coding process some subjective redundancies in the image are removed, on the basis of human visual criteria.

The combination of these two techniques described above are the key elements of the MPEG encoding process. Furthermore, in order to achieve the requirement of random access and high compression, the MPEG–2 standard specifies three types of compressed video frames: I pictures, P pictures and B pictures. I pictures (intracoded pictures) are coded with no reference to other frames, exploiting only spatial correlation in a frame. P pictures (predictive coded pictures) are coded by using motion compensated prediction of a previous I or P picture. Finally, B pictures (bidirectionally–predictive coded pictures) are obtained by motion compensation by using past and future reference frames (I or P pictures).

A group of consecutive I, P and B pictures constitute a structure called Group of Pictures (GoP). Therefore, a video sequence may be seen as a sequence of GoPs.

The block diagram of the MPEG encoder is depicted in Figure 2. In order to understand how the MPEG–2 encoder works, we will consider a typical GoP consisting on the frames IBBP. Despite B pictures appear before P pictures, the encoding order is IPBB because B pictures require both past and future frames as references.

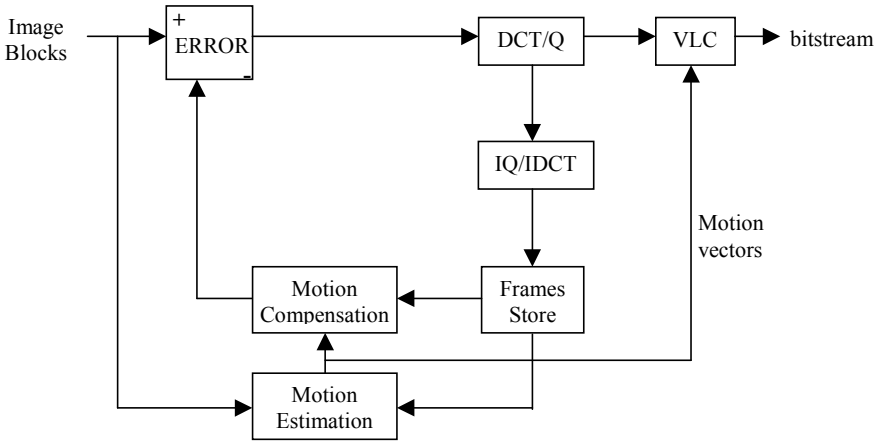

Figure 2: Block diagram of the MPEG–2

The first frame in a GoP (I picture) is encoded in intra mode without references to any past or future frames. The DCT is applied to each macroblock and then it is uniformly quantized (Q). After quantization, it is encoded using a variable length code (VLC) and it is sent to the output buffer. At the same time the reconstruction (IQ) of all non–zero DCT coefficients belonging to one macroblock and the Inverse DCT (IDCT) give us a compressed I picture which is stored temporarily in the *Frame Store (FS)*.

When the input is coded either as P or B pictures, the encoder does not code the picture macroblocks directly. Instead, it codes the prediction errors and the motion vectors. With P pictures, for each macroblock in the current picture, the motion estimation gives us the coordinates of the macroblock in the I picture that best matches its characteristics and thus, the motion vector may be calculated. The motion compensated prediction error is obtained by subtracting each pixel in a macroblock with its motion shifted counterpart in the previous frame. The prediction error and the motion vectors are coded (VLC) and sent to the output buffer. As in the previuos case, a compressed P picture is stored in the Frame Store.

With B pictures, the motion estimation process is performed twice: for a past picture (I picture in this case), and for a future picture (P picture). Prediction errors and both motion vectors for each macroblock are coded (VLC) and sent to the output buffer. Notice that the compressed B pictures are not stored in the Frame Store, since they are not needed to calculate any other pictures.

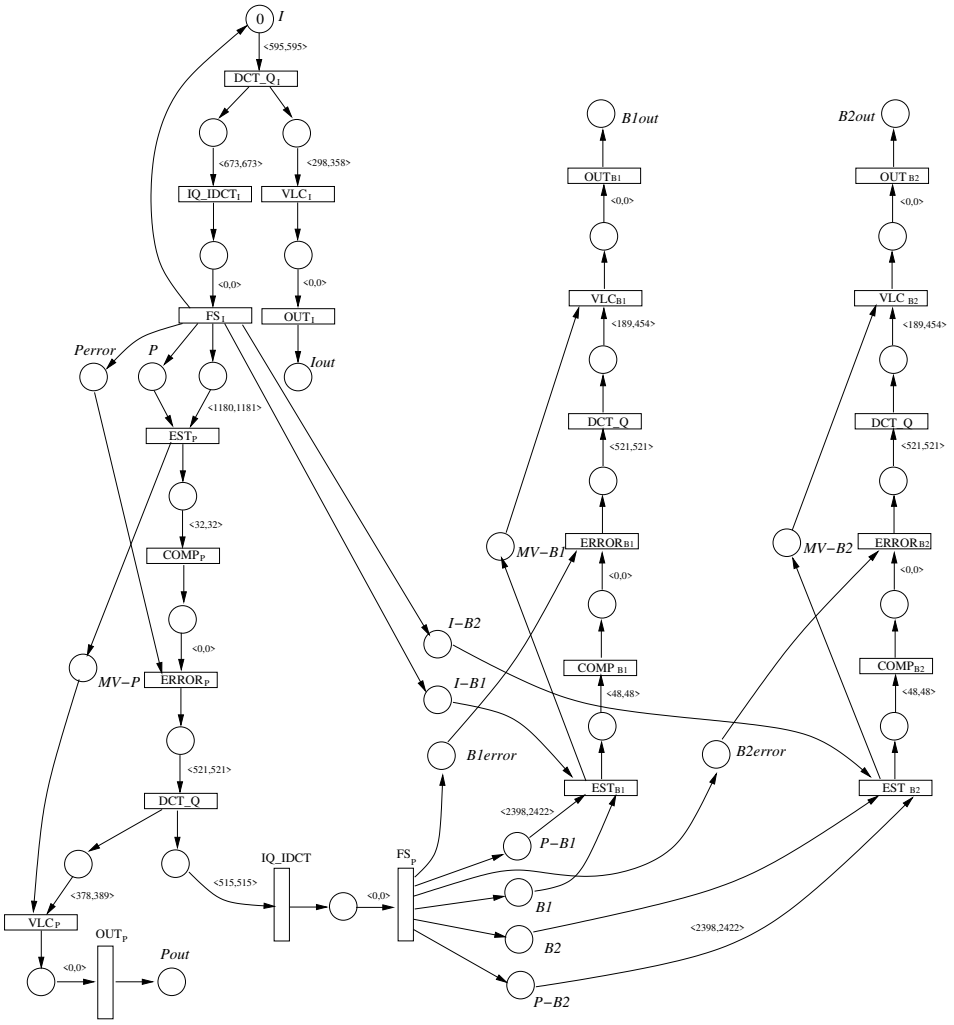

Figure 3: TAPN which models the MPEG–2 codification process of a GoP

3.1 Timed-Arc Petri Net modelling the MPEG-2

Figure 3 shows the timed-arc Petri net modelling the MPEG-2 encoding algorithm[3]. The left-hand side describes the first part of the encoding algorithm, which corresponds to the generation of both I and P encoded pictures (but remember that even if P pictures are generated before the B pictures, they will appear the last in the final video sequence). Once the places *I-B1, I-B2, P-B1, P-B2* are marked the second part of the net becomes activated (right-hand side), which models the *B1* and *B2* picture encoding process. *Iout* (*Pout* resp.) represents the output of an encoded *I-picture* (*P-picture*), while places *B1out* and *B2out* represent the output of B1 and B2 pictures.

[3] For simplicity, we omit in this picture the label of the arcs when they are labelled by $<0, \infty>$.

Picture	Min	Max
I	893 ms	953 ms
P	3688 ms	3738 ms
GoP	11567 ms	12085 ms

Table 1: Measured real values

The time intervals that label the arcs connecting places with transitions have been obtained from several real measurements, by coding the "Composed" Video sequence. This experiment has been repeated a number of times, and the results being reported below are therefore the minimum and the maximum of all these trials[4]. During these trials, no other operations were taken place in our experimental setup. The "Composed" Video sequence (format PAL CCIR601, 720x576 pixels) is a representative video sequence which has several different motion levels, and we have encoded it by using a completely software-based MPEG-2 video encoder derived from that developed in Berkeley, which is freely available in the MPEG Home Page: *http://www.mpeg.org*.

In order to get the real values for the different elements of the encoder we have included some patches into the source code, which correspond with the beginning and the end of the elementary actions that we have described in the specification of the algorithm. The real values thus obtained for I and P pictures being in the output buffer are shown in Table 1, as well as the times for encoding the complete GoP.

4 Analysis and Conclusions

We may compute the times to reach every place of a TAPN, by constructing a state reachability graph. With that process we obtain a time interval for every place. In our case, for the TAPN modelling the MPEG–2 encoder we have obtained the results shown in Table 2.

Frame	Min GoP 1	Max GoP 1	Min GoP N	Max GoP N
I	893 ms	953 ms	893 + 1268 * (N-1) ms	953 + 1268 * (N-1) ms
P	3379 ms	3391 ms	3379 + 1268 * (N-1) ms	3391 + 1268 * (N-1) ms
GoP	6672 ms	6962 ms	6672 + 1268 * (N-1) ms	6962 + 1268 * (N-1) ms

Table 2: Values obtained from the TAPN

Comparing these results with those shown in Table 1 we can see that there are strong differences in order to complete the encoding process of a GoP. For instance, to complete the first GoP the measured values are $[11567\ ms, 12085\ ms]$ while in the TAPN we have obtained $[6672\ ms, 6962\ ms]$. These strong differences are due to the important fact that the encoder only uses a single processor, whereas our TAPN model captures all the intrinsic parallelism of the encoding process, so that with the analysis of the TAPN we are obtaining the required times provided that we have as many processors as needed to take advantage of this parallelism (for a single GoP two processors would be enough).

[4] These values were obtained in a single processor Pentium II - 350MHz platform with 64MB RAM.

Let us now consider the encoding process of N GoPs, according to the TAPN the encoding would take $[6672 + 1268 * (N-1)\ ms, 6962 + 1268 * (N-1)\ ms]$, and thus, the average time for encoding each GoP would converge to 1268 ms. This can be interpreted as the time needed to encode a GoP for an infinite video sequence provided that the number of processors is big enough.

Fig. 4 shows the number of processors required in order to process any sequence of GoPs, according to the TAPN of Fig. 3, i.e., by exploiting all the possible parallelism of the encoding process. From that Figure we may conclude that the best performance could be obtained with **10 processors**.

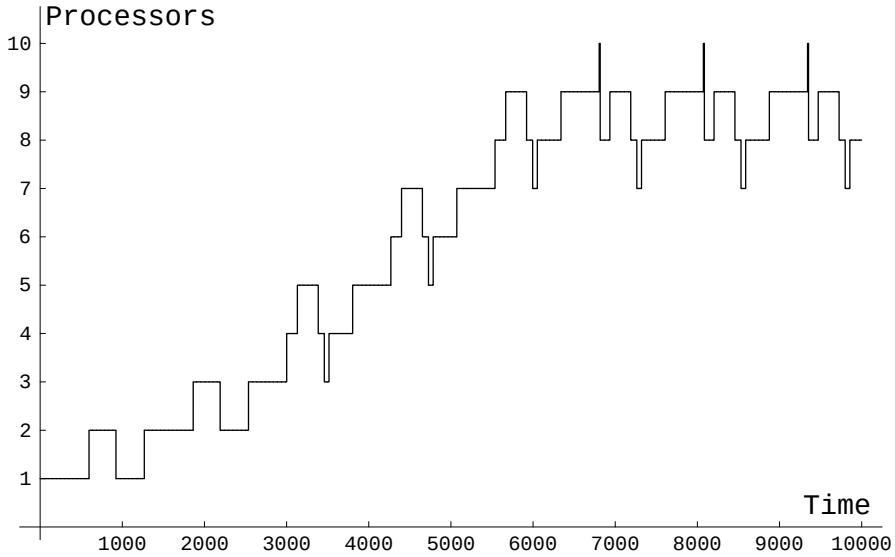

Figure 4: Graph relating the number of required processors and time (ms)

Consequently, the main conclusion from this analysis of the MPEG–2 encoder by using TAPNs is that the performance of the encoding algorithm for a single GoP can be improved in a factor near to 50% by using two processors. Moreover, in longer sequences of GoPs this factor can be increased, and we have obtained an average time of 1268 ms for encoding each single GoP of an infinite video sequence, provided that we have as many processors as required (10 in this particular case).

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