

Content-Based Multimedia Identification: A New Approach for Digital Rights Management

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Abstract: The explosive growth of multimedia content on the Internet is revolutionizing the way of multimedia security and copyright management. Unfortunately, the two major technological solutions in the past decade, namely encryption and watermarking, are ill-equipped to deal with the change. This article introduces the third solution, i.e., *Content-based Multimedia Identification* (CBMI). The key idea is to automatically generate a new descriptor from the content, called *mediaprint*, as the identifier of that media item. Compared with the *active* protection (i.e., encryption) and authentication (i.e., watermarking) approaches, CBMI offers a *passive* but reproducible and reliable approach to manage rights of the digital content.

Keywords: Digital rights management, Content-based multimedia identification, mediaprinting

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The Internet is revolutionizing multimedia content distribution, shifting the way content producers and users approach digital rights, especially along with the rapid increase in the popularity of online content-sharing sites such as Flickr and YouTube. These sites offer immense opportunities for users to upload and share digital images, audio and video content. However, the ability for anyone to make perfect copies and the ease by which those copies can be freely distributed also facilitate misuse, illegal copying and distribution (“piracy”),

plagiarism, and misappropriation [1]. In early 2006, a short video titled “*The Bloody Case that Started from a Steam Bun*” became popular very quickly on the Internet in China. This video was re-made by a blogger from a hit movie “*The Promise*,” thereby raising a wide-range feud about the online video copyright protection in China. Another well-known example is Viacom’s \$1 billion lawsuit against YouTube in March 2007 for “massive intentional copyright infringement.” Since the year of 2000, the explosive growth of the unlicensed distribution and sharing of digital content on the Internet has raised a large amount of copyright issues, consequently producing a serious impact on the development of media industry. Therefore, how to manage the copyrights of multimedia content on the Internet has become an important issue of global concern.

To address the illegal copying and distribution of multimedia content, digital rights management (DRM) has been widely studied. DRM is generally taken to refer to the technologies or systems that protect and enforce the rights associated with the use of digital content [1]. Encryption and watermarking are two major DRM approaches in the past two decades [2], by either *proactively* encrypting multimedia content or digital watermarking/fingerprinting for *posterior* authentication. However, the technical challenges for securing media content on the Internet are formidable. The contents released by millions of Internet users cannot be canned again into “bottles” being locked by encryption or affixed with watermarks. This article describes a new approach being investigated recently, i.e., *Content-based Multimedia Identification* (CBMI), which offers a *passive* but reproducible and reliable DRM measure.

Current DRM Approaches: Encryption and Watermarking

This section first gives a brief review of current two DRM approaches — encryption and watermarking, and then explains why they cannot successfully solve the problem of managing the copyrights of multimedia content on the Internet.

As one of the most fundamental technologies of information security, encryption is the process of

controlling access to confidential data, known as *plaintext*, by scrambling the data into an unintelligible form (i.e., *ciphertext*) with knowledge of an encryption key [1]. The inverse process, known as decryption, is very easy to perform with knowledge of a decryption key while very difficult to perform without it. Compared with other data, encrypting multimedia content needs to take some special application requirements into account. For example, some errors in a multimedia content bit-stream may not crash the usage of the content. However, even if the multimedia encryption approach is perfect, it still faces several more fundamental problems when applied to content on the Internet:

- **Analog hole:** The encrypted multimedia content, once decrypted and played back, can be illegally copied or recorded by digital/analogue devices, consequently getting rid of the control of the encryption systems. The so-called *analog hole* is one of the main reasons why piracy is so rampant on the Internet.
- **Protection cost and complexity:** The encryption approach to DRM can be implemented in a constrained environment, but is almost impossible in the scale of the Internet since it relies on the full deployment of a global information security infrastructure which needs huge cost and has high complexity. For example, all user devices must be equipped with an *interoperable* decryption module, say, which is able to decrypt multimedia content packaged by different encryption techniques. Moreover, once the encryption system is cracked, to fix the damage or upgrade the system requires additional costs.
- **Fair use and public availability after copyright expiration:** From the legal point of view, using encryption techniques to protect multimedia content would cause unnecessary troubles for the fair use. Moreover, encryption also hampers the public availability of multimedia content after copyright expiration
- **Conflict with the intrinsic value of media content:** Different with the security of general confidential information, the intrinsic value of multimedia content in general depends on their visibility and accessibility to the public. In many cases, however, encryption may reduce the pos-

sibility that a multimedia item reaches more potential consumers.

Another DRM approach that has been widely studied is digital watermarking. A watermark is a signal embedded within the multimedia content. In addition to being perceptually invisible or inaudible to humans, watermarks should also be statistically undetectable and resistant to any malicious attempts to remove them. The embedded watermarks may be detected by a watermark detector. There are two types of digital watermarks, i.e., robust watermarks and (semi-)fragile watermarks. Robust watermarks are able to resist a designated class of transformations in copyright protection applications (to carry ownership or forensic information, or to carry copy and access control information). Fragile and semi-fragile watermarks are commonly used to provide authenticity or signal/content integrity verification. Fragile watermarks fail to be detected even after a slight modification; while semi-fragile watermarks are designed to survive a group of selected attacks while ignoring others (mostly unintentional). As a derivative from digital watermarking technology, digital fingerprinting is to embed a distinct set of marks into a given host signal to produce a set of fingerprinted signals that “appear” identical for use, but have a slightly different bit representation from one another.

However, several problems for either robust or (semi-)fragile watermarks still exist:

- **Inevitable degradation of quality:** It is certain that the quality of multimedia content will be degraded more or less after watermarks are embedded. In general it is easy to create *either* robust watermarks *or* imperceptible watermarks, but the creation of watermarks that are both robust *and* imperceptible has proven to be quite challenging [3].
- **Cannot cover the multimedia content having been spread out:** As a DRM approach featured by *proactively* embedding and *posteriorly* detecting mechanism, digital watermarking approach can be used to newly-released multimedia content, but not to those that have been spread out on the Internet.
- **Failure to solely solve the ownership authentication issue:** In practice, everyone can embed

Concepts Related to Mediaprint

Perceptual hash (or *robust hash*, *soft hash*), as the extensions to the cryptographic *hash*, is a unique binary string or code for multimedia authentication. Different with the cryptographic hash function which generates different hash values for different inputs, the perceptual hash value is expected to change only when the input is perceptually different. Similar to the cryptographic hash function, a good perceptual hash function should be robust, and generate a unique and unpredictable value. As the security foundation for authentication, unpredictability means it is very hard to find (forge) perceptually different inputs with the same hash value. But for the CBMI purpose, this property is not essential in most cases. Some existing works on perceptual hashing were really concerned about unpredictability and some others didn't care for it at all. In fact, the perceptual hash value may be generated by hashing a unique descriptor of CBMI with cryptographic hashing functions.

Fingerprinting, which was first introduced in 1983 [1], is the process of embedding a distinct set of marks into a given host signal to produce a set of fingerprinted signals which "appear" identical for use, but have a slightly different bit representation from one another. The fingerprinting technique used for CBMI in the last

his/her watermarks into multimedia content. Thus to authenticate the content ownership, there must be an independent registration authority who neutrally executes the functions of registration and authentication. However, with the presence of such authority, the ownership of the registered content can be directly authenticated even without those embedded watermarks.

Over the past decade, there are many practices that attempt to exploit encryption-based or watermarking-based techniques to reduce piracy on the Internet. As a direct response to the widespread success of MP3, Secure Digital Music Initiative (SDMI) was formed with the purpose of developing specifications, protecting the playing, storing and distributing of digital music. However, the proposed audio watermarking algorithms were cracked at the open challenge phase of SDMI. Apple's FairPlay might be one of the most successful commercial encryption-based DRM systems. However, Steve Jobs, CEO of Apple, claimed "(Encryption-based) DRMs haven't worked, and

several years is totally different with the original meaning of fingerprinting.

Another similar concept is *audio signature* and *visual signature* from MPEG. Since one meaning of signature is "a distinctive mark, characteristic, or sound indicating identity", audio and video signature seems to be a good choice for CBMI. The weakness of this choice is possible confusion with well-known digital signature or electronic signature which is attached to data being authenticated. The audio signature is used in MPEG-7 [2] as a descriptor to identify an audio item in 2001. At July 2007, MPEG started to define visual signature as a MPEG-7 visual descriptor to uniquely identify individual image and video items [3].

To avoid the possible confusion, this article proposes to use mediaprint (similarly, audioprint, videoprint and so on) to denote a robust and unique identifier for multimedia content.

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may never work, to halt music piracy" in Feb 2007 [7].

Content-Based Multimedia Identification

The difficulties that both encryption-based and watermarking-based approaches faced bring forward the emergence of a new approach, which attempts to *passively* protect copyrights by identifying multimedia content items and monitoring whether they are illegally distributed and shared on the Internet. In general, there are three ways to identify media items. The first way is to use *manually-assigned* identifier which is independent on the data representation (e.g., bit-stream) and content of an item, such as ISRC numbers for music works or UUID for any item. These identifiers are like an ID card number to a citizen. However, the ID card number alone is not sufficient to identify and authenticate a terrorist, and the face, fingerprint or even DNA should also be used. A simple way to identify a media item in a content-dependent manner is to use *data-sensitive* me-

thods such as hash functions, which can generate a digest value as its identifier. In this way, only the association at the bit level exists between a media item and its identifier. However, one obvious disadvantage of this way is that it can not identify perceptively the same media content that may have different data representations, making it still unable to effectively find the modified or transformed copies. Thus a better way is to identify media items in a *perception-sensitive* but *data-insensitive* manner. In this article, we refer to it as *Content-based Multimedia Identification* (CBMI for short).

The key idea of CBMI is to automatically generate a perceptual descriptor from the content as the identifier of a media item. The new descriptor should be robust (unchanging) across a wide range of transformations (e.g., editing operations), but should be sufficiently different for every “original” content item to identify it uniquely and reliably. However, there is a wide range of disagreement about what the descriptor should be referred to. Some existing examples of its designation include *fingerprint*, *perceptual hash*, *audio and visual signatures* from MPEG or *media DNA* (e.g., *video DNA*) in industry. These designations are not able to reflect the intrinsic properties of the new descriptor, or may produce some confusion with other technologies that are basically different with CBMI (The “Concepts Related to Mediaprint” sidebar gives a short discussion for these designations). In this article, we refer to the descriptor as *mediaprint* by following the word-formation of fingerprint and voiceprint. It is expected that different types of mediaprints may be needed for different types of media, which are referred to as *imageprint*, *audioprint*, *videoprint* respectively for image, audio and video, or *visualprint* and *auralprint* in more general context. This concept can also be naturally extended to *docprints* for documents and *softwareprints* for software source code. Correspondingly, *mediaprinting* is used to denote the process of extracting mediaprints from the media content for CBMI.

Basically, a mediaprint should have at least the following two intrinsic properties:

- **Robustness:** A mediaprint shall be identical for an “original” content item and its copies mod-

ified by using a wide range of modifications (e.g., editing operations) or transformations (e.g., transcoding, analog VCR recapturing to digital, movie camcording);

- **Uniqueness:** Mediaprints extracted from different “original” media items which are not modified copies of one another shall be significantly different. In other words, mediaprint shall have a strong ability to identify a media item.

Moreover, mediaprints shall be based on intrinsic measurements from the media content, rather than extrinsically affixed labels like the watermarks. In addition, MPEG proposed some other common requirements for its visual signature [4], including fast matching, fast extraction, compactness, non-alteration, self-containment, and coding agnosticism. For example, the non-alteration property reveals the fact that visual signature should be extracted and measured without having to alter the content. These requirements can be further used to describe and constrain the extraction, expression and matching of mediaprints.

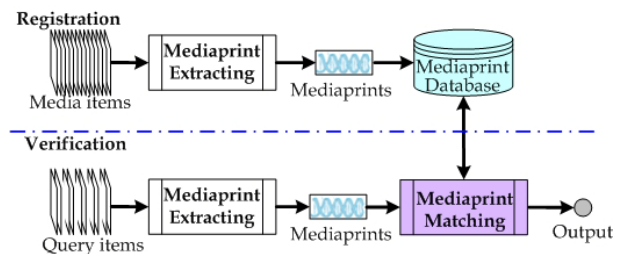


Figure 1. Processes of mediaprint-based CBMI.

Mediaprints offer an effective means to identify media items based on the content. As shown in Figure 1, mediaprint-based CBMI typically includes two processes. In the registration process, mediaprints of the copyrighted media items provided by their owners, no matter whether they are newly released or have been spread out, are extracted and stored in a mediaprint database. For a query item, its mediaprint is extracted and then compared with all mediaprints in the database to verify whether it matches a registered item. We can see that no extrinsic labels are needed in these processes.

By mediaprints, CBMI offers a passive approach to protect the copyrights of multimedia content on

the Internet, without proactively altering multimedia content by encryption or embedding extrinsic labels such as watermarks or digital fingerprints. The paradigm shown in Figure 2 illustrates how mediaprint-based CBMI is used for piracy detection on the Internet. Firstly, copyrighted media content are registered with their mediaprints and copyright information (e.g., expiration). Secondly, the system uses crawlers to discover and download the monitored media items from the content-sharing sites or P2P systems. Then mediaprints are extracted from these media items and compared with all mediaprints in the registration database. Finally, a piracy judgment is carried out to determine whether copyright protection actions should be taken. It should be noted that the system can be used by the intellectual property authorities to discover and reduce piracy, plagiarism and misappropriation, or by content-sharing operators to prevent their users from uploading media items that might potentially cause copyright infringements. It can also help content users to reduce misuse by employing a mediaprinting plug-in which automatically extracts the mediaprint of a media content item and then sends it to an online mediaprint database to verify its copyright status.

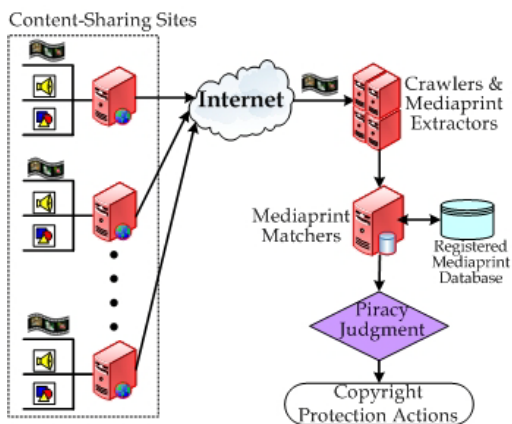
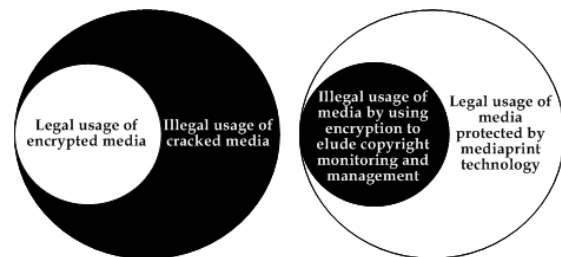


Figure 2. Mediaprint-based CBMI for piracy detection on the Internet.

For the DRM purpose, mediaprint-based CBMI is significantly different with encryption, watermarking and digital fingerprinting. Figure 3 compares encryption-based and mediaprint-based

DRM approaches from the costs for legal and illegal consumption, in which legal and illegal usages of media content are respectively denoted by white and black circles. Since encryption-based approach employs encryption and authorization techniques to actively protect the media content, legal users must pay the additional cost for the copyright protection while illegal users do not pay any cost to consume and distribute the cracked content. Clearly, this is not rational and desirable. On the contrary, by using mediaprint-based approach, legal users can freely consume media content without any additional cost for copyright protection; while illegal users can still consume the content with no extra cost, but if they want to distribute copyrighted media content on the Internet, the additional cost must be paid to elude the copyright monitoring of mediaprint-based DRM systems. That is, they must use the encryption or alike techniques to transform the media content into scrambled or quality-loss versions. Moreover, this approach can effectively cope with the problems of the analog hole, fair use and public availability after copyright expiration. It can also be easily implemented in the scale of the Internet by deploying servers at content-sharing sites or Internet gateways in a scalable way, say, according to the values of the content or the distribution of piracy activities.



(a) Encryption-based DRM approach. (b) Mediaprint-based DRM approach.

Figure 3. Comparison of encryption-based and mediaprint-based DRM approaches from the costs for legal and illegal consumption.

Moreover, we can compare watermark-based and mediaprint-based DRM approaches from the perspective of content quality loss in the cases of legal and illegal usages, as shown in Figure 4. In watermark/digital fingerprint based approach, legal users consume quality-loss content embed-

ded with watermark or digital fingerprints, but illegal users can consume possibly quality-lossless content if they crack the watermarking or digital fingerprinting algorithms, or misappropriate the original copy. The situation is different in media-print-based approach, where legal users can freely consume and distribute lossless content while illegal users can only consume and distribute quality-loss content since they must transform the media content in order to elude copyright monitoring. This approach is also able to manage the copyrights of multimedia content that have been spread out on the Internet. In addition, the registration of mediaprints is helpful to solve the ownership authentication issue.

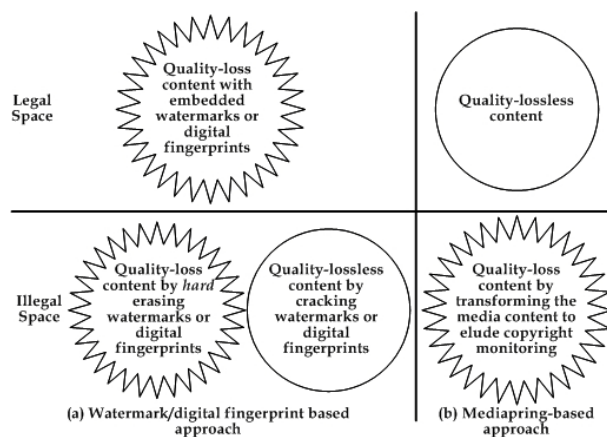


Figure 4. Comparison of watermark/digital fingerprint based and mediaprint-based DRM approaches from the content quality loss.

However, the application coverage of the mediaprint-based DRM approach is limited to the public space (e.g., on the Internet). That is, this approach cannot be used to protect the copyrights of media content that are consumed in the users' private spaces (e.g., in private PCs or MP3 players), unless these private spaces are permitted to be accessed by third-party mediaprint-based DRM systems or the end users actively install a piece of mediaprint verification client software.

Key Issues of Mediaprinting

To make mediaprint-based CBMI applicable for DRM on the Internet, there are at least three key

issues that should be addressed:

- Content distortion modeling:** Although dozens of modifications and transformations are listed out by some existing works (e.g., [4], [8]), there is still no a general content distortion model. In general, content distortions that should be addressed by CBMI must catch up with the quality change limitation acceptable by human. As one of most important properties of the human auditory/vision system, sparseness plays a crucial role in aural-visual perception and cognition. For example, a human being can easily tell whether a video has been ever watched or not, whether it was played on different devices (e.g., cinematograph or TV) or in different environmental conditions (e.g., illumination). In these cases, the sparse representation of the visual information may be the same, or at least similar, which as a consequence can be used as the ideal "mediaprint." Naturally, understanding the similarities and differences between an "original" content item and its "modified" versions from the perspective of human aural-visual perception plays a fundamental role for mediaprinting. This can further boil down to a content distortion model, which helps understanding and characterizing the variant and invariant components of the media content when they are subjected to a wide range of modifications and transformations. Ultimately, this model will provide a theoretical basis for mediaprinting.
- Mediaprint extraction:** For various CBMI applications, how to extract unique mediaprints from content that are robust across a wide range of distortions is the core task. Intuitively, mediaprint extraction is similar to feature extraction in content-based multimedia retrieval in that they all aim at describing media content according to discrete dimensions, such as color distribution, texture and the shape and motion of objects. However, what makes mediaprint extraction more difficult is that mediaprints must describe images/audios/videos as unique entities.
- Mediaprint usage:** The third issue is how to use mediaprints for CBMI and related DRM applications. This involves at least two aspects: how to fast search and compare mediaprints to allow large volumes of media content to be matched

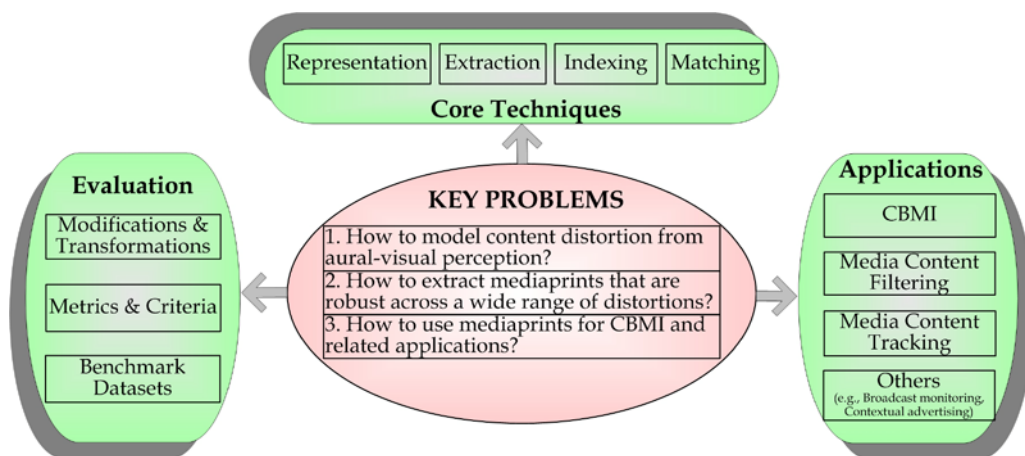


Figure 5. The view of the various facets of mediaprinting.

rapidly, and how to evaluate the performance of mediaprinting (e.g., verification capabilities and speed). Moreover, the development of industry standards should also be taken into account for deploying mediaprint-based interoperable DRM systems.

Mediaprinting: Core Techniques and Evaluation

To address above issues, a possible organization of the various facets of mediaprinting is shown in Figure 5. Roughly speaking, there are three aspects related to mediaprinting: core techniques, evaluation and applications. In this section, the first two aspects are discussed.

Core Techniques: Representation, Extraction and Matching

Expressive representation models, robust extraction and efficient matching algorithms are three core techniques in mediaprinting. From the design perspective, the representation and extraction of mediaprints cannot be totally separated. A representation model of mediaprints determines to a large extent the realm for extraction techniques. Figure 6 shows a possible view of mediaprint representations at different levels and their corresponding extraction procedures. At the bit level, media content can be treated as general data, and hereby data hashing functions can be used to generate a fixed-length string as its mediaprint. Similar to content-based multimedia retrieval which

finds similar content by audio-visual features at the signal level, a more sophisticated approach is to extract invariant features in spatial/temporal/frequency domain and then convert them into mediaprints. Then the task becomes how to find such invariant features. To further explore the *intrinsic* differences between an “original” content item and its “modified” copies, content distortion models at the perception level should be investigated. Thus an ideal approach is to simulate the human visual/aural system which generates a compact expression (i.e., mental image) for a media item by physiological sparse coding. One example is that you can easily recall a song only based on a weak melody flying from the street corner. Another example is that even on a black-white TV, you can almost immediately recognize a movie being watched many years ago in a cinema. These cases show that human brain stores multimedia content in the long-term memory in a very compact or sparse way. However, how to generate such high-level mediaprints remains an open problem.

Roughly speaking, mediaprint extraction approaches can be further classified into two categories: *feature-based* and *process-based*. The feature-based approach generates a mediaprint by extracting physically meaningful features that can reflect the uniqueness of the media content from certain facets. Typically, the features selected for generating mediaprints should be robust to a con-

tent distortion model — in contrast to features in pattern recognition applications, for example, which should be robust to a categorization model. Note that these features can also be directly extracted from the content, and can be obtained after feature transforms such as dimension reduction. In general, the human auditory/vision system only extracts some transformation-invariant salient features in identification tasks. Thus we need to investigate which salient features can be used to generate mediaprints.

The process-based approach generates mediaprints from media content directly by a linear or non-linear mapping function. One typical mapping function is through an artificial neural network. Neural networks identify the watched/listened content by functionally simulating the human auditory/vision process (e.g., sparse coding). Compared with the feature-based approach, the process-based approach is in essence a non-analytic procedure in which mediaprints do not rely on an explicit representation such as a feature set, but are hidden in a mapping function. In practice, a combination of the two approaches may obtain a better CBMI performance. An example is to map a feature-based large-size mediaprint to a compact one by the process-based approach.

Efficient matching is the third core technique in mediaprinting. In general, there are two different query scenarios when mediaprints are used in CBMI and related DRM applications [4]: direct matching and partial matching. Their difference lies in whether *the whole mediaprint* or its *certain segment* of the query item matches with a certain segment of one or more mediaprints in the database. As a consequence, there are different requirements for the matching algorithms. For example, a direct matching algorithm is required to output the start point and the end point of a matched segment in a registered content item; while a partial matching algorithm is required to output the start position and duration in both the registered and query items. Moreover, to enable fast mediaprint matching in a very large database, efficient indexing models should also be elaborately designed. For example, some researchers (e.g., [6]) proposed an invert indexing model of mediaprints, which quantizes a mediaprint as a

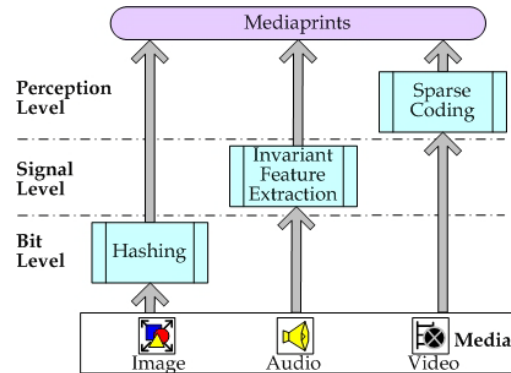


Figure 6. The mediaprint representations at different levels.

coded string and then creates an invert list of all possible segments of codes for efficiently indexing. In recent years, mediaprinting and related technologies have attracted a wide range of research interest. Please refer to the “Related Work on Mediaprinting” sidebar for more details.

Evaluation

With numerous mediaprinting techniques and systems proposed and in operation, evaluation becomes a critical issue, which helps us to choose from many different proposed ideas and to test new approaches against older ones. For any media print-based CBMI system, an evaluation strategy involves determining the following aspects: various types of modifications and transformations that simulate various content distortions, appropriate metrics and criteria for evaluating competing approaches, and benchmark datasets.

In general, content modifications and transformations can be divided into three categories:

- Coding format changes, such as coding in different standards, changes from transcoding like coding formats, bitrates, and frame sizes;
- Editing operations, such as deletion or insertion of frames, insertion of text or logo, and image processing (e.g., brightness change, rotation, scaling, flip, crop, blur, skew, perspective, and aspect ratio change);
- Quality change, such as addition of noise, analog VCR recording and recapturing, movie camcording, etc.

Recently, MPEG launched a series of robustness tests to various types of modifications, including

Related Work on Mediaprinting

Most of current efforts on mediaprinting have focused on technologies that deal with how to extract invariant features to generate mediaprints. Some representatives of such developments for different types of media content are reviewed as follows.

Imageprinting

According to the way in which features are extracted from images, it is possible to distinguish three extraction approaches for imageprints. In the first approach (e.g., [1]), features extracted from the whole image are used to generate imageprints. Even though this approach performed well in many cases, it can not keep robust to local modifications such as cropping, embedding and combining. Thus an alternative approach is to extract local features to generate imageprints for the image. One case is to partition an image into several blocks (or regions) and then to extract features of these blocks [2, 3]. Recently, a keypoint-based approach is attracting more and more research interest. For example, Monga *et al.* [4] proposed an image perceptual hashing algorithm using visually significant feature points.

Audioprinting

There are many proposals for audioprinting, differentiated by the features used for generating audioprints and the matching algorithms. Some audio features originally designed to content-based audio retrieval are used to generate audioprints, such as mean energy [5], normalized spectral sub-band moments [6], audio spectrum flatness (ASF) for MPEG audio signature. One example addressing high-dimensional audioprint matching is the approximate nearest neighbor search algorithm for binary audioprint vectors proposed by Miller *et al.* [7].

Videoprinting

A video clip can be treated as a sequence of images or a 3D data stream. Thus videoprinting approaches can be divided into two categories. The first approach employs 3D data transforms (e.g., spatio-temporal DCT [8]) to extract a global descriptor of a video clip. However, this approach is difficult to be applied to partial content matching, namely, to identify whether only one segment of a query clip matches with a certain segment of a registered one. Instead, by summarizing one video

clip with a set of sampled frames or keyframes, another approach (e.g., [9], [10]) is to employ imageprinting methods on these frames, and then assemble the corresponding frameprints together to form the videoprint. To further improve the performance, the temporal and spatial information such as the difference or correlation of neighboring frames (e.g., [11], [12]) can be utilized to generate videoprints that would be more robust and have stronger ability to identify video clips.

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11 basic and 6 complex modifications for images [4], and 9 modifications for videos [5]. These modifications are also subjected to different levels (e.g., light, medium, and heavy). In the evaluation experiments, they are used to generate a database of

modified media items from the original content. To test the robustness of different mediaprinting techniques, detection capabilities are often evaluated in the presence of various modifications. The evaluation criteria are relatively simple for

mediaprinting algorithms of non-temporal media such as images. In this case, the comparison of the mediaprints of the original and modified images is used to determine whether the modified ones match their corresponding originals, and the number of detected matches is counted to measure the detection capabilities of the algorithms. The evaluation criteria are more complex for mediaprinting algorithms of temporal media such as audio and video, mostly due to the complexity of how a match is considered as a success. The evaluation criteria of a successful match are given respectively for direct matching and partial matching in [5]: For direct matching, more than 50% overlap between the estimated position and the ground-truth position is required. While for partial matching, the difference between the durations of the ground truth segment and the (estimated) matched segment should be shorter than 2 seconds. More importantly, the overlap between the ground-truth segments respectively in the original and query media items should be at least half of the duration of the ground-truth segment. Given such criteria, two metrics can be used to evaluate the detection capabilities: *false alarm rate* (FAR) and *miss alarm rate* (MAR). A false alarm denotes that two media items or segments with distinct content are misjudged into a match by the mediaprinting algorithm. Thus FAR is used to measure the proportion of mismatches to the total number of query items. The success ratio (SR) proposed in [5] can be viewed as a variation of FAR where $SR = 1 - FAR$. Similarly, a miss alarm denotes that two media items or segments with the same content are misjudged into a non-match by the mediaprinting algorithm. Thus MAR is used to measure the probability that miss alarms take place. Clearly, $MAR = 1 - recall$, where *recall* is a statistical measure that reflects the fraction of correct matches in all homologous pairs. TRECVID also proposed an overall measure, i.e., minimal normalized detection cost rate (DCR), to evaluate the detection effectiveness for content-based copy detection, a new task firstly appeared in 2008 [8]. In addition, the *match number per second* (MPS) is used in MPEG to measure the matching efficiency [5].

With respect to benchmark datasets, three well-known evaluations collected testing datasets

and offered them to participants. For the anti-piracy movie fingerprinting test organized by MPAA (Motion Picture Association of America), MovieLabs prepared an amount of movie clips and about fifty transformations to test a dozen candidate systems in 2007. In content-based copy detection task at TRECVID 2008 [8], the reference dataset consists of approximately 200 hours of AV data in 438 reference files. For a visual signature competition, MPEG released a dataset of 135,609 images selected from the CD-ROMs "Art Explosion 800000" in Jul 2007 [4], and released a dataset containing 1,900 video clips of >3 minutes for test in Oct. 2008 [5]. These images and videos are then transformed into modified items, creating a large database for evaluating competing visual signature algorithms. Larger-scale datasets are expected to be publicly available for mediaprinting research and development, especially for audioprinting and videoprinting.

The Potential Applications

This section discusses the potential applications of mediaprint-based CBMI. Although initially inspired by DRM requirements, mediaprinting can extend its reach to non-DRM applications such as media usage monitoring, and content-based retrieval.

Passive DRM

Mediaprint-based CBMI offers a passive yet reproducible and reliable DRM measure. This *passive DRM* approach can be widely used in different application scenarios such as piracy detection, royalty collection and brand management. In Figure 2, we have shown a mediaprint-based CBMI system for piracy detection on the Internet. The system can be easily deployed in the scale of the Internet either by the intellectual property authorities or content-sharing providers. The mediaprint-based CBMI approach can also be applied to royalty collection. Recently, KTV operators in China are required to pay royalty fees by China Audio-Video Copyright Association (CAVCA) on behalf of singers and composers. In this case, a mediaprint-based CBMI system can help the proprietors of copyrighted content know how and where their works are being consumed. Similarly,

imageprinting can be used to effectively detect the plagiarism and misappropriation of registered brands. In the converse situation, an author who has acquired a content item or a consumer who has downloaded a media item from P2P systems can employ this technology to check the provenance and copyright information.

Media usage monitoring

Mediaprinting offers an effective way to media usage monitoring, namely, monitoring how the media content is being used. For streaming media such as video and audio, we can even exploit mediaprinting to track not only which content that is being played, but also which part of the content is being played by using the partial mediaprint matching strategy. The ability to track media usage automatically and precisely provides content owners with valuable data regarding media content usage. For example, an advertising agency could confirm that advertisements have been broadcasted correctly. Mediaprints of these advertisements are useful for automatically linking the users to the corresponding sale sites. Mediaprinting can also be used to prevent illegal insertion to broadcasting programs. Here mediaprints of broadcasting programs can be extracted in real-time and then used to check whether they remain unchanged when being played.

Content-based retrieval

Mediaprinting offers a feasible solution to identify near-duplicates or similar content, consequently beneficial to many multimedia retrieval applications, such as finding a content item with a slightly different appearance on different sites, clustering similar media content, presenting uncluttered search results, and providing additional clues to the retrieval of low-quality media content. For example, with the rapidly increased popularity of online video-sharing sites such as MySpace and YouTube, a huge amount of small-size, low-quality user-generated videos (exactly for this reason they are often called *microvideos*) are distributed online. It is often more difficult to extract the semantic clues of these microvideos than professionally produced videos. A possible approach is to link these microvideos with high-quality videos of the same content, and then use the semantic

clues extracted from those high-quality videos for microvideo annotation and retrieval. This can be implemented by matching their videoprints that are robust to quality changes.

Others

A lot of products and applications related to CBMI have emerged in the past several years. Some companies focusing on mediaprint-based CBMI have rushed into the market — Gracenote, Audible Magic and Shazam for audio, Advestigo, iPharro, MotionDSP, Vobile and Zeitera for video.

As a topic which is not given enough attention previously, mediaprint-based CBMI will influence various multimedia systems. A simple example is to simplify the personal photo-collection management. An ambitious possibility is to reconstruct the Web space by mediaprints rather than manually-assigned URIs.

Conclusion

This article introduces a new approach for multimedia security and copyright management, i.e., content-based multimedia identification (CBMI). The key idea is to automatically generate new identifiers, called mediaprints, to identify the media content. Compared with the active protection provided by encryption and authentication by watermarking, CBMI offers a passive yet reliable DRM measure. It is expected that mediaprinting will be explored in a wider range of applications.

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