A Deterministic Eviction Model for Removing Redundancies in Video Corpus

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ABSTRACT
The traditional storage approaches are being challenged by huge data volumes. In multimedia content, every file does not necessarily get tagged as an exact duplicate; rather they are prone to editing and resulting in similar copies of the same file. This paper proposes the similarity-based deduplication approach to evict similar duplicates from the archive storage, which compares the samples of binary hashes to identify the duplicates. This eviction is done by initially dividing the query video into dynamic key frames based on the video length. Binary hash codes of these frames are then compared with existing key frames to identify the differences. The similarity score is determined based on these differences, which decides the eradication strategy of duplicate copy. Duplicate elimination goes through two levels, namely removal of exact duplicates and similar duplicates. The proposed approach has shortened the comparison window by comparing only the candidate hash codes based on the dynamic key frames and aims the accurate lossless duplicate removals. The presented work is executed and tested on the produced synthetic video dataset. Results show the reduction in redundant data and increase in the storage space. Binary hashes and similarity scores contributed to achieving good deduplication ratio and overall performance.

Keywords: Archive
Comparison window
Deduplication
Hash codes
Multimedia
Similarity scores

1. INTRODUCTION
The multi-objective deduplication technique which removes the duplicate files is making its relevance and applicability in the storage world. In the view of digital data, its growth [1] and its storage challenges; the progress of deduplication can be seen for textual data [2], [3], [4], [5], [6] and relational data [7], [8]. Comparatively less research is observed for multimedia files. There is a huge multimedia universe within the data universe which is growing fast in the popularity because of social media, online courses, distance learning, presentations, self-study and growth of smartphone devices including mobile phones and tablets. With the growth of internet usage along with an increase in internet bandwidth, there has been a significant increase in online video data streaming along with video data downloading. Videos are becoming a powerful e-learning trend. From education viewpoint; students, researchers, professors, and individuals also prefer watching videos instead of reading manuscripts or books. The majority of them prefer downloading the videos, which results in a huge video basket resulting the need for data reduction in case of redundancy. Widely used methods for reduction are compression and deduplication. MPEG [9] addresses the compression of individual videos but not similar videos.

Inline deduplication [10] limits the storage of a duplicate file. The search for duplicates occur before the file is stored, but this is very time-consuming and resource-intensive process; particularly with the video files wherein CPU and memory resources are kept busy till the process of video streaming, and a duplicate
check is over. While in this work, we focus on archive storage and propose the post-process deduplication on
the videos with the dynamic splitting of the videos and reduced comparison candidate key frames based on
video length and duplicate removal window.

The prime objective of deduplication is to reduce multiple redundant copies. Deduplication
performance depends on the factors such as: comparison window, space savings, metadata lookup and above
all the accuracy percentage of duplicate content. The performance rises with more duplicates and more
similarity. Unlike other text deduplication methods, duplicate removal ratio is improved in multimedia
content by identifying similar duplicates. Video similarity can occur with respect to resolution, formatting,
frame rate and content difference. The existing written work focuses on the progress of similar features
among the videos. In [11], the author proposes the framework, aiming an efficient and fast duplicate removal
process. Key factors are- hash table indexing, video similarity and temporal locality of the frames. The author
creates multiple buckets and each bucket stores the extracted frames sharing the same hash code. Frames
extracted in the bucket are queried for finding the similarity and removing the duplicates.

Near-duplicate removal based on shot-similarity is proposed in [12], to identify the duplicate scene
shots. It focuses on the same event captured with different cameras, angles, and different temporal offsets. A
similarity between a set of trajectories is calculated for finding the duplicates. The similarity is measured for
strict near duplicates, object duplicates, and scene duplicates. The authors of [13], [14] have proposed a
secure video deduplication framework based on H.264 compression and a block level codec used for high
definition videos. A security parameter is focused on encryption, proof of storage, proof of ownership and
removal. However, shot and scene similarity and security aspects are not within the scope of this paper.

Hashing based on multiple features for detecting near-duplicate videos is illustrated in [15].
Similarity and performance are evaluated by calculating Euclidean distance and mean average precision.
The research presented in [16] introduces an efficient yet effective novel global descriptor; where non-geometric
distortions and all other transformations for video format files result in detection of near duplicate video copy
tasks. For processing videos, they are converted into image frames; authors of [17] investigated Euclidean
distance and shape based similar image retrieval by means of Zernike moments. The validity of digital
images is verified by comparing histogram and principal component analysis of two images by the
authors of [18].

This paper focuses on removing duplicate and similar videos from the backup or archive storage.
The archive is a collection of older and inactive data which is hardly ever accessed. It deals with long-term
data preservation. We intend to reduce the multimedia data size of the archives by performing deduplication
on the videos. Comparison window is shortened by an effective sampling of the required key frames based on
length of the video. In addition, after finding the similarity, the copy which occupies less space is preserved
in the storage. It is a two level approach, where the video is checked for the exact duplicates; this results in
the removal of a duplicate copy if an exact content match is found. If the exact duplicate copy is not found,
then the system searches for the near duplicate ones and they are removed by similarity ranking of the frames
based on their binary hashes.

The order of the remaining sections in this article is structured as follows. Description of design and
algorithm for removing near-duplicate videos is expressed in Section II. Besides it, the section also illustrates
a model describing the data growth and data removal rate in an archive. Performance analysis and results
stating the storage savings are illustrated in section III. The work is concluded in Section IV.

2. SYSTEM PROCEDURE
2.1. Video Redundancy Elimination

Deduplication is a partition dichotomy of the videos into two opposed classes=\{duplicates, non-
duplicates\} based on their fingerprint values. Videos are prone to editing trends; which results in its alteration
and filtration. With respect to generic video editing trend, the duplicate class can be further alienated into two
subclasses: \{near-duplicates, no-duplicates\} based on similarity percentage among the videos. Considering
the scenario that there are \(V\) videos, \(n\) copies of the video and every video takes the storage space \(V_s\), then the
total storage space overhead \(Total_{space}\) and the duplicate degree \(\text{Dup}_{\text{degree}}\) can be computed as given in
Equation (1) and (2):

\[
Total_{space} = \sum_{i=1}^{V} n_i V_s
\]

\[
\text{Dup}_{\text{degree}} = \sum_{i=1}^{V} n_i V_s
\]
The target is how to find these duplicate copies $n$ to minimize the required storage space and duplicate degree. The system architecture for the application which aims to control the media crowd in the archive and lessen the number of copies $n$ is as exposed in Figure 1. The application implements duplicate video elimination process in two phases namely, duplicate check based on the video signatures and similar frames. Description of these modules is given in Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2. Table I brief various notations and methods used in these algorithms.

Table 1. Glossary of Notations and Methods

| Notation | Notations | Meaning | Method | Methods | Meaning |
|----------|-----------|---------|--------|---------|---------|
| $Q_v$    | Query Video | Video Dedup() | Get Hash | Find duplicate videos |
| $H_a$    | Hash algorithm for video signature | Fingerprint() | Load fingerprints available in the metadata |
| HashMD  | Metadata hash fingerprints | Update Metadata() | Pass the reference link for the duplicate video |
| DupType | Type of duplicate – near/no | Similarity Check() | Check similarity score between the videos |
| HCMD  | Collection of hash codes in metadata | Get Frame Hash Codes() | Load hash codes available in the metadata |
| KFQv  | Query video key frames | Extract Frames() | Split query video into key frames |
| HCQkf | Collection of hash codes in query video key frames | Calculate Hash() | Calculate hash code of key frames |
| Hkf | Hash algorithm for key frames | Select Candidates() | Select comparison candidate key frames |
| CandHQCkf | Query video candidate hash codes | | |
| CandHCMD | Metadata video candidate hash codes | | |
| Dist$x,y$ | Distance between hash codes $x$ and $y$ | | |
| $\tau$ | Parameter for sampling candidate hash codes | | |
| Sim$\text{score}$ | List of similarity score of candidate hash codes | | |
| finalSim$\text{score}$ | Final similarity ranking | | |
| $\omega$ | Decision parameter for near-duplicates | | |
| $\gamma$ | Parameter for selecting candidate key frame | | |

Algorithms seeking the reduction of storage space are presented below. Algorithm 1 describes the high-level operational flow of the deduplication process. Input is the query video and hash algorithm [19] which uses avalanche effect. The fingerprint or hash signature of query video is matched against the existing fingerprints in the metadata. On the exact match; a duplicate copy is removed, and metadata is updated by passing the reference link for the duplicate copy. If a match is not found query video is given to the method described in Algorithm 2 for finding its similar copy. Algorithm 2 exhibits the process for finding similarity.
scores of the videos. Algorithm loads the key frame hash codes available in the metadata corpus. The length of metadata corpus is as given in Equation (3), where v is number of videos and kf is number of key frames.

\[ |HC_{MD}| = \sum_{i=1}^{v} \sum_{j=1}^{kf} HC_{MD_{ij}} \]  

(3)

Query video is divided into KFQv key frames. Length of KFQv is dynamic and it differs as per the video length. Hash codes are calculated for all these key frames. Understanding the length of metadata corpus |HCMD|, candidate hash codes CandHCQkf and CandHCMD are selected from query hashcodes and metadata hashcodes based on the parameter \( \tau \) as illustrated in Algorithm 3. The value of \( \tau \) is kept dynamic as per the value of KFQv. For each candidate hash codes, distance is calculated by comparing the codes as per Equation (4). Similarity score is calculated from these distances as shown in Equation (5), for each candidate hash codes. After calculating the individual similarity score, the final similarity ranking of query video is calculated by taking an average of the individual scores. If this final score is bigger than the stated threshold \( \omega \), query video is measured as a near-duplicate one as described in Equation (6). The final score less than the threshold \( \omega \), means query video is not a duplicate and is considered as a new video file. This new video is stored in the storage and key frame details and their respective hash codes are stored in the metadata.

Algorithm 1: Video deduplication based on hash signatures
Input: Query video \( Q_v \); Hash Algorithm \( H_a \)
Output: Duplicate type – duplicate or no-duplicate

Begin video Dedup
\( Hash_{MD}[] \leftarrow \text{getHashFingerprints()} \)
\( fp \leftarrow \text{fingerPrint}(H_a, Q_v) \); Search \( fp \) of the video in metadata \( Hash_{MD}[] \)
if \( fp = Hash_{MD}[] \) then
    Video is duplicate; remove the copy
    Update Metadata()
else
    \( Dup_{type} = \text{similarityCheck}(Q_v) \)
    if \( Dup_{type} = \text{Near-duplicate} \) then
        Video is Unique; save the copy
    else // video is duplicate
        Update Metadata()
end if
End

Algorithm 2: Video deduplication based on hash similarities
Input: Query video \( Q_v \)
Output: Duplicate type{near-duplicate, no-duplicate}

Begin similarity Check
\( HC_{MD}[] \leftarrow \text{getFrameHashCodes()} \)
\( KF_{Qv}[] \leftarrow \text{extractFrames}(Q_v); //Dynamic for each (key frame in KF_{Qv}[])
    \( HC_{Qkf}[] \leftarrow \text{calculateHash}(KF_{Qv}, H_{kf}) \)
End for
//select candidate hash codes
\( CandHCQkf[] \leftarrow \text{selectCandidates}(HC_{Qkf}[], \tau) \)
\( CandHCMD[] \leftarrow \text{selectCandidates}(HC_{MD}[], \tau) \) for each( candidate in CandHCQkf[] and \( CandHCMD[] \))
Calculate \( Sim_{score}[] \)
end for
\( \text{finalSim}_{score} \leftarrow \text{average}(Sim_{score}[]) \)
if \( (\text{finalSim}_{score} \geq \omega) \) then
    \( Dup_{type} = \text{‘Near-duplicate’} \)
else
    \( Dup_{type} = \text{‘No-duplicate’} \)
End

Algorithm 3 illustrates the steps for selecting sample candidate key frames for the comparison.
Algorithm 3: Candidate key frame selection

Input: $HC[]$ Collection of hashcodes in metadata or query video and $\tau$ deciding the candidates

Output: $Cand_{HC}[]$

Begin select Candidates
    for each (hash code $k$ in $HC[]$)
        if ($\tau == 1$) then
            $Cand_{HC}[] \leftarrow HC[k]$
        else
            $Cand_{HC}[] \leftarrow HC[k+\gamma]$
    End

2.1. Probability Model for Similar Video Deletion

This section illustrates the probabilistic and deterministic model describing the fundamental relationships between exact and near-duplicate videos, their storage space requirement and the rate of their growth and removal. The probabilistic experiment involves random variables namely, video hash signatures and similarity score. Given a sample space $\Omega$ of $V$ videos; where the probability of duplicate video is $p$ and non-duplicate is $(1-p)$, then the probability of getting exactly $k$ duplicate videos based on the hash signatures is as shown in Equation (7).

$$P(k \text{ Duplicates}) = \binom{V}{k} p^k (1-p)^{V-k}$$ (7)

As videos are editing prone, the process of redundant video removal as near-duplicates is further processed based on its similarity score $\text{Sim}_\text{score}$ and a threshold value $\omega$. Threshold $\omega$ is the parameter which illustrates about the similarity score, and the value is less than 1. Probability that the $\text{Sim}_\text{score}$ takes values in the interval from $\omega$ to 1 is same as the probability of all possible outcomes where this score can come. The Probability density and expected value of $\text{Sim}_\text{score}$ for its numerical possibilities $s$ are described in Equation (8) and (9).

$$P(\omega \leq \text{Sim}_\text{score} \leq 1) = \int_\omega^1 f_{\text{Sim}_\text{score}}(s)ds$$ (8)

$$E(\text{Sim}_\text{score}) = \int_\omega^1 s f_{\text{Sim}_\text{score}}(s)ds$$ (9)

A discrete time model illustrated in Figure 2 describes the evolution from video arrival for the backup to its storage process. The model has six possible states and seven possible transitions between the states annotated with their representative transition probabilities. At any known time; after the arrival, video can move to either of the states such as duplicate, similar or non-duplicate based on the video characteristics (fingerprint, similarity score). Once the video is identified as a duplicate or more similar, the system goes to the video reference state and stays in the same state. The system stays in the unique video state if there is no match on fingerprints and videos are not similar.

![Figure 2. Probabilistic discrete time model for video storage](image-url)
After n transitions the total probability of system $\mathcal{S}_{st}$ starting at state $s$ and ending at state $t$, $\forall s,t$ and $k$ intermediate states is given in Equation (10).

$$\mathcal{S}_{st}(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathcal{S}_{si}(n-1)P_{it}$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

Total probability of system starting in state 1 – “video arrival” and ending in the state 5 – “Reference” is as illustrated below in the Equations (11) to (13) [state 2- “Duplicate” and state 3- “Similar”]

$$\mathcal{S}_{15}(n) = \mathcal{S}_{12}(n-1)P_{25} + \mathcal{S}_{13}(n-1)P_{35}$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

$$\mathcal{S}_{15}(n) = 0.3 \times 1 + 0.3 \times 0.5$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

$$\mathcal{S}_{15}(n) = 0.45$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

Transition matrix for the model described in Figure 2 is as illustrated in Table 2 below. The probability of going from “video arrival” to “duplicate” is 30%. Initial state of system is [1,0,0,0,0,0] i.e. first state is “video arrival”. At one-time unit 30% videos are gone into “duplicate” state, 30% videos are gone into “similarity” state, and 40% of the videos are in “non-duplicate” state.

| States*  | VA     | DUP    | SIM    | ND     | UNI    | REF    |
|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| VA       | 0      | 0.3    | 0.4    | 0      | 0      | 0      |
| DUP      | 0      | 0      | 0      | 0      | 1      | 0      |
| SIM      | 0      | 0      | 0.5    | 0      | 0.5    | 0      |
| ND       | 0      | 0      | 0      | 1      | 0      | 0      |
| UNI      | 0      | 0      | 0      | 1      | 0      | 0      |
| REF      | 0      | 0      | 0      | 0      | 0      | 1      |

*States(VA-Video arrival, DUP-Duplicate, SIM-Similar, ND-non-duplicate, UNI-Unique video, REF-Video reference)

Probability Distribution tells that after running the process for $n$ videos (time units), the system travels to a “unique video” state with probability $p_u$ and with probability $p_r$, system goes to a “reference video” state. The simulation was done on $n=100$ videos and total probability mentioned in the Equation (10) is illustrated below along with the probability distribution with an assumption that the system already had 30 duplicate videos.

$P^n$ is given by:

$$[[0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.55 \ 0.45], [0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 1.00 \ 0.00]], [0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.05 \ 0.00 \ 0.50], [0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 1.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00], [0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 1.00 \ 0.00], [0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 0.00 \ 1.00]]$$

Probability distribution after running the process for 100 videos is - [0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.55, 0.75]

i.e. $p_u = 0.55 \text{ and } p_r = 0.75 \text{ i.e. } (0.45 + 30)$

The deterministic model defines the formulation of inputs and outputs over the time where inputs are the number of duplicate arrivals and outputs are the number of duplicate removals. The rate of change of storage space depends on the rate of video arrivals and rate of video removals as stated in Equation (14).

$$R(\text{storage space}) = R(\text{video arrivals}) - R(\text{video removals})$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)
Considering $s_0$ as the initial value of storage space, with duplicate video arrival and duplicate video removal rate per file as $\alpha$ and $\beta$, the storage size $S(t)$ at any time $t$ can be obtained by rewriting Equation (14) as given in Equation (15).

$$R(\text{storage space}) = S(t) = \alpha S(t) - \beta S(t)$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \alpha S - \beta S$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

Let $r = \alpha - \beta$ in Equation 16, we obtain

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = rS$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

After solving this differential equation, we get -

$$S(t) = s_0 e^{rt}$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

According to Equation (18), the rate of change of storage space on the removal of duplicates depends on the value of $r$, and it should be greater than zero. This paper aim to keep the value of $r$ (duplicate video arrivals-duplicate video removals) $\geq 0$ by removing more duplicate copies.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we firstly compare the compression ratio between the videos by comparing the hashes generated by avalanche effect and the binary hashes. Secondly, the performance of similarity score and precision-recall is observed. Experimentation was implemented on the combined dataset by taking a few videos from the dataset [21]. A synthetic dataset is generated according to the principles discussed in [22] on the videos from [23], YouTube videos and a personal video collection. Dataset videos are either exact duplicates or approximate similar, but different in resolution, encoding formats, content addition, length, etc. Videos used in the standard datasets are too small. Unlike [21], the dataset used for our application contains videos of all time durations from 1 minute to more than 10 minutes.

We first adopt the method of avalanche and it is compared against the binary hashes. Figure 3 shows the results of three various reduction methods (HE- Hash based exact duplicate removal, HS- Hash based similar duplicate removal, SS- Similarity-based similar duplicate removal) on two different datasets; dataset1 is a video collection with exact duplicates; dataset2 contains exact and similar duplicates. Reduction methods are HE- Hash based exact duplicate removal, HS - Hash based similar duplicate removal and SS - Similarity-based similar duplicate removal. HE is adopted on dataset1 and it is observed that data size got reduced to 12%, 28%, and 34% respectively with compression (C), deduplication (DD) and compression plus deduplication (CDD). HS and SS techniques are implemented on the common dataset2 with exact and similar duplicates. With HS the reduction percentage of C, DD, and CDD is observed as 5%, 19%, and 22% because hash based algorithm doesn’t detect similarity features. Significant improvement in the reduction percentage is seen with SS approach as 5%, 46%, and 50% fulfilling the aim of data reduction and an increase in the storage space.

![Figure 3. Compression vs deduplication performance](image-url)
Figure 4 plots the graphical representation of the spread of all different video similarity scores among the dataset. Whiskers show the range of similarity scores for the entire dataset. Lowest score in this sample is 0 and maximum it goes to 1. Median similarity score in the dataset is approximately at 0.7. The first plot shows the representation of similarity score of all the test data. The second plot shows the result of the near duplicate ones when the threshold \( \omega \) was kept 0.7. The rectangular box ranges from the 0.7 to 0.9 with whiskers extending up to maximum 1.0. The last plot is the result of no duplicate ones with scores below 0.7 and an outlier at score 0.0.

![Figure 4. Distribution of similarity scores (Box plots depicting median and quartile values of similarity scores for entire dataset, near duplicates and no duplicates)](image)

Figure 5 describes the comparison of similarity scores with different key frame sizes. As per algorithm 2 frame extraction is kept dynamic as per the video length. From the figure, we conclude that when our proposed system sets the fps (frames per second) ranging 1-5, we get the maximum similarity score from 0.45 to 0.95 with whiskers extending up to 1.0 along with an outlier towards 0, and median 0.75 is closer to the upper quartile. Whereas for fps 10, the similarity score varied from 0.55 to 0.9 with whiskers extending up to lower quartile 0.0 and upper quartile 1.0. In the last case, for fps 15 we got the rectangular box with a range of 0.5 to 0.9. The respective medians indicated from the graph are 0.75, 0.7, and 0.65.

![Figure 5. Comparison of similarity scores with different key frame sizes (Box and whisker plots depicting the comparison of similarity scores for different key frame sizes)](image)

Figure 6. Performance of similar video removal process
(A precision-recall curve depicting the accuracy of similar video detection with \( \omega = 0.7 \). Receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) viewing the performance of the near duplicates and no duplicates classification)

![Figure 6. Performance of similar video removal process](image)
Figure 6 shows the accuracy and performance of the near similar and no duplicates with the threshold $\omega$ as 0.7. Precision is the portion of identified scores that are similar, while recall is the segment of similar scores that are identified. Precision-recall curves are used to identify the confident zone of the overall performance, where a larger area indicates the better performance. Accuracy of the experiment results is measured by the region below the ROC curve. The region towards 1.00 represents a perfect classification. As shown in the Figure 6, area of ROC curve is approximately 0.8-0.9 i.e. towards 1. Taking false positive and false negative into account, the weighted mean i.e. the F1 score is evaluated and the value is 0.89.

Figure 7 shows three ROC curves for threshold $\omega$ values 0.7, 0.75, 0.8 respectively. The excellent accuracy result is being depicted by red curve ($\omega=0.7$) by calculating the area of ROC and it is observed towards 1. PR curve is thought to be more informative in finalizing the threshold value which gives the similarities as predicted. The larger curve area is been observed by red curve with $\omega=0.7$. Hence, the similarity score threshold for detecting more similar videos is measured as 0.7. Videos with $Sim_{score} \geq 0.7$ are considered as duplicates and are deleted from the corpus.

Figure 7. Performance using different similarity score threshold

As per the deterministic model, discussed in Section II, the rate of change of storage space depends on the rate of duplicate video arrivals and rate of duplicate or similar video removals. Removing duplicates is inversely proportional to storage space. Figure 8 shows this rate of change and describes that as the video file redundancy count decreases i.e. as duplicate or similar video files are removed; there is an increase in the storage space.

Figure 8. Rate of change of storage space
4. CONCLUSION

This paper presents the efficient duplicate video removal process based on the video similarities. The reported work shows that deduplication with similarity scores perform well as compare to deduplication with hash signatures on the dataset where there are more similar contents. Original data size has significantly reduced with 50% deduplication ratio. The accuracy of similar video detection is observed with the precision-recall curve with larger curve area and ROC curve area towards 1. The accuracy of video classification as similar duplicates and no duplicates is measured with the F1 score (mean of precision and recall) of 89%.

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