

# IMAGE COMPRESSION- I

Week VIII  
Feb 25

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## Reading..

- Chapter 8
  - Sections 8.1, 8.2
  - 8.3 (selected topics)
  - 8.4 (Huffman, run-length, loss-less predictive)
  - 8.5 (lossy predictive, transform coding basics)
  - 8.6 Image Compression Standards (time permitting)

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## Image compression

Objective: To reduce the amount of data required to represent an image.

Important in data storage and transmission

- Progressive transmission of images (internet, www)
- Video coding (HDTV, Teleconferencing)
- Digital libraries and image databases
  - Medical imaging
  - Satellite images

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## IMAGE COMPRESSION

- Data redundancy
- Self-information and Entropy
- Error-free and lossy compression
- Huffman coding
- Predictive coding
- Transform coding

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## Lossy vs Lossless Compression

**Compression techniques**

Information preserving  
**(loss-less)**

↓

Images can be compressed and restored without any loss of information.  
Application: Medical images, GIS

**Lossy**

↓

Perfect recovery is not possible but provides a large data compression.  
Example : TV signals, teleconferencing

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## Data Redundancy

- **CODING**: Fewer bits to represent frequent symbols.
- **INTERPIXEL / INTERFRAME**: Neighboring pixels have similar values.
- **PSYCHOVISUAL**: Human visual system can not simultaneously distinguish all colors.

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## Coding Redundancy

Fewer number of bits to represent frequently occurring symbols.

Let  $p_r(r_k) = n_k / n$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, L-1$ ;  $L$  # of gray levels.

Let  $r_k$  be represented by  $l(r_k)$  bits. Therefore average # of bits required to represent each pixel is

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k) p_r(r_k) \rightarrow (A)$$

Usually  $l(r_k) = m$  bits (constant).  $\Rightarrow L_{avg} = \sum_k m p_r(r_k) = m$

## Coding Redundancy (contd.)

- Consider equation (A): It makes sense to assign fewer bits to those  $r_k$  for which  $p_r(r_k)$  are large in order to reduce the sum.
- this achieves data compression and results in a variable length code.
- More probable gray levels will have fewer # of bits.

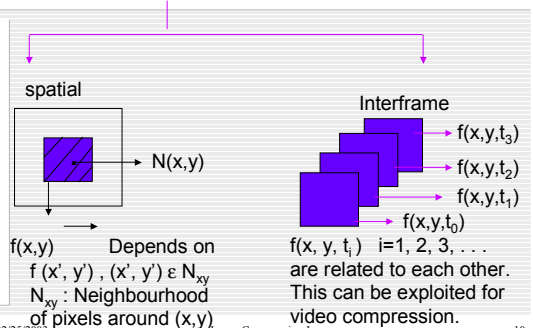
$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k) p_r(r_k) \rightarrow (A)$$

## Coding: Example

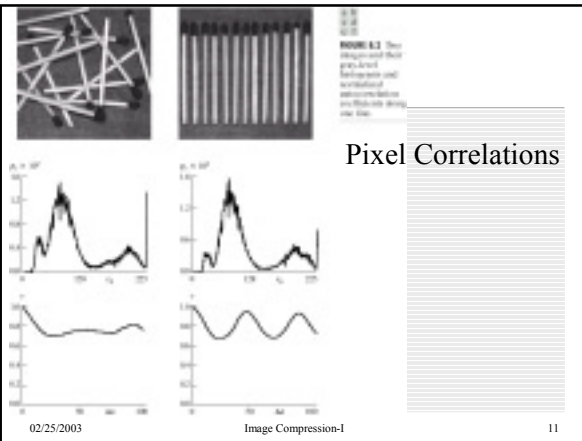
Example (From text)

$r_k$	$p_r(r_k)$	Code	$l(r_k)$	$L_{avg}$ $= \sum p_r(r_k) l(r_k)$ $= 2.7$ Bits
$r_0 = 0$	0.19	11	2	
$r_1 = 1/7$	0.25	01	2	
$r_2 = 2/7$	0.21	10	2	
$r_3 = 3/7$	0.16	001	3	
$r_4 = 4/7$	0.08	0001	4	
$r_5 = 5/7$	0.06	00001	5	
$r_6 = 6/7$	0.03	000001	6	
$r_7 = 1$	0.02	000000	6	

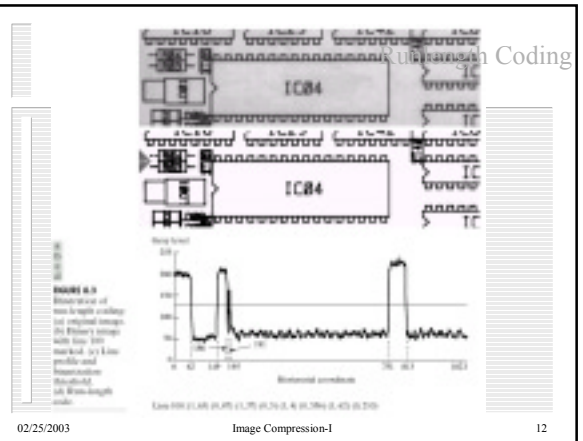
## Inter-pixel/Inter-frame



## Pixel Correlations



## Run Length Coding



## Psychovisual

- Human visual system has limitations ; good example is quantization. conveys information but requires much less memory/space.
- (Example: Figure 8.4 in text; matlab)

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## Quantization



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## IGS Code(Table 8.2)

Pixel	Gray Level	Sum	IGS Code
$j-1$	N/A	0000000	N/A
$j$	01001100	00101100	0110
$j+1$	10001001	10000111	1001
$j+2$	10001111	10001110	1000
$j+3$	11110100	11110000	1111

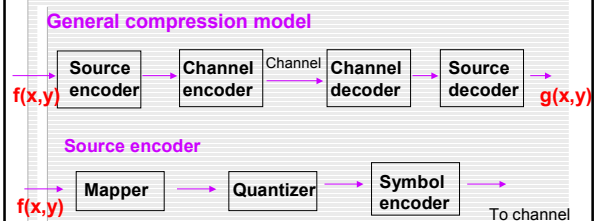
TABLE 8.2 IGS quantization procedure.

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## General Model



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## Source Encoder

**Mapper:** Designed to reduce interpixel redundancy. example:

- Run length encoding results in compression.
- Transform to another domain where the coefficients are less correlated than the original. Ex: Fourier transform.

**Quantizer:** reduces psychovisual redundancies in the image - should be left out if error-free encoding is desired.

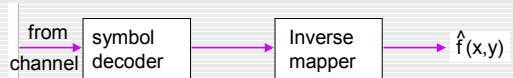
**Symbol encoder:** creates a fixed/variable length code - reduces coding redundancies.

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## Source Decoder



Note: Quantization is **NOT** reversible

Question(s):

- Is there a minimum amount of data that is sufficient to completely describe an image without any loss of information?
- How do you measure information?

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## Self-Information

- Suppose an event  $E$  occurs with probability  $P(E)$ ; then it is said to contain  $I(E) = -\log P(E)$  units of information.
- $P(e) = 1$  [always happens]  $\Rightarrow I(e) = 0$  [conveys no information]
- If the base of the logarithm is 2, then the unit of information is called a “bit”.
- If  $P(E) = 1/2$ ,  $I(E) = -\log_2(1/2) = 1$  bit. Example: Flipping of a coin; outcome of this experiment requires one bit to convey the information.

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## Self-Information (contd.)

Assume an information source which generates the symbols  $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{L-1}\}$  with

$$\text{prob } \{a_i\} = p(a_i) \quad ; \quad \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} p(a_i) = 1$$

$$I(a_i) = -\log_2 p(a_i) \quad \text{bits.}$$

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## ENTROPY

Average information per source output is

$$H = -\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} p(a_i) \log_2 p(a_i) \quad \text{bits / symbol}$$

$H$  is called the **uncertainty** or the **entropy** of the source.

If all the source symbols are equally probable then the source has a maximum entropy.

*$H$  gives the lower bound on the number of bits required to code a signal.*

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## Noiseless coding theorem

### (Shannon)

It is possible to code, without any loss of information, a source signal with entropy  $H$  bits/symbol, using  $H + \epsilon$  bits/symbol where  $\epsilon$  is an arbitrary small quantity.

$\epsilon$  can be made arbitrarily small by considering increasingly larger blocks of symbols to be coded.

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## Error-free coding

### Error-free coding

#### Coding redundancy

Ex: Huffman coding

#### Interpixel redundancy

Ex: Runlength coding

Yields smallest possible # of code symbols per source symbol when symbols are coded one at a time.

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## Huffman code: example

**Huffman code:** Consider a 6 symbol source

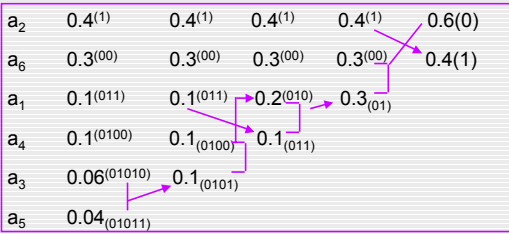
	$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$a_4$	$a_5$	$a_6$
$p(a_i)$	0.1	0.4	0.06	0.1	0.04	0.3

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## Huffman coding: example (contd.)



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## Example (contd.)

### Average length:

$$(0.4)(1) + 0.3(2) + 0.1 \times 3 + 0.1 \times 4 + (0.06 + 0.04)5 = 2.2 \text{ bits/symbol}$$

$$-\sum p_i \log p_i = 2.14 \text{ bits/symbol (Entropy)}$$

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## Huffman code: Steps

- Arrange symbol probabilities  $p_i$  in decreasing order
- While there is more than one node
  - Merge the two nodes with the smallest probabilities to form a new node with probabilities equal to their sum.
  - Arbitrarily assign 1 and 0 to each pair of branches merging in to a node.
- Read sequentially from the root node to the leaf node where the symbol is located.

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## Huffman code (final slide)

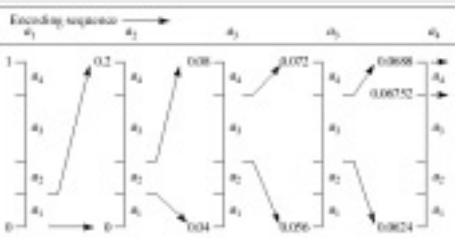
- Lossless code
- Block code
- Uniquely decodable
- Instantaneous (no future referencing is needed)

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## Fig. 8.13: Arithmetic Coding



Coding rate: 3/5 decimal digits/symbol  
Entropy: 0.58 decimal digits/symbol.

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## Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW) coding

- Uses a dictionary
- Dictionary is adaptive to the data
- Decoder constructs the matching dictionary based on the codewords received.
- used in GIF, TIFF and PDF file formats.

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## LZW-an example

Consider a 4x4, 8-bits per pixel image

39	39	126	126
39	39	126	126
39	39	126	126
39	39	126	126

The dictionary values 0-255 correspond to the pixel values 0-255. Assume a 512 word dictionary.

## LZW-dictionary construction

Currently Recognized Sequence	Pixel Being Processed	Encoded Output	Dictionary Location (Code Value)	Dictionary Entry
39	39	39	256	39-39
39	126	39	257	39-126
126	126	126	258	126-126
126	39	126	259	126-39
39	39			
39-39	126	256	260	39-39-126
126	126			
126-126	39	258	261	126-126-39
39	39			
39-39	126			
39-39-126	126	260	262	39-39-126-126
126	39			
126-39	39	258	263	126-39-39
39	126			
39-126	126	257	264	39-126-126
126	126			

TABLE 8.7  
LZW coding example.

## Run-length Coding

### Run-length encoding (Binary images)

0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0  
 4    6    3    3    2

Lengths of 0's and 1's is encoded. Each of the bit planes in a gray scale image can be run length - encoded.

One can combine run-length encoding with variable length coding of the run-lengths to get better compression.