Image Compression

Preview

- Methods of compressing data prior to storage and / or transmission are of significant practical and commercial
- Image compression addresses the problem of reducing the amount of data required to a digital image.
- The underlying basis of the reduction process is the removal of redundant data.

Fundamentals

- The data compression refers to the process of reducing the amount of data required to represent a given quantity of information.
- The difference of data and information.
- Data are the means by which information is conveyed.
- Data redundancy is a central issue in digital image compression

Fundamentals

The relative data redundancy RD :

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{C_R}$$

Where CR is compression ratio .

$$C_R = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

n1, n2 donate the number of information – carrying units in two data set that represent the same information .

n1=n2CR =1RD =0n1 contains no redundant datan2 << n1</td>CR $\rightarrow \infty$ RD $\rightarrow 1$ significant compress & High redundant datan2 >> n1CR $\rightarrow 0$ RD $\rightarrow -\infty$ n2 contains much more data than n1undesirable case

CR=10 every 10 information in n1 represented by 1 bit in n2, n1 has 90% redundancy

3 basic Data redundancies

Coding Redundancy .

Spatial and Temporal Redundancy.

• i.e. Video sequence (Correlated pixels are not repeated.)

Irrelevant Information.

Information that ignored by human visual system

Coding Redundancy

 Lets assume, that a discrete random variable rk in the interval [0, 1] represents the gray levels of an image and each rk occurs with probability

 $P_r(r_K)$

$$P_r(r_K) = \frac{n_K}{n}$$
 k=0,1,2,....L-1

Where L is the number gray levels,

 $\mathbf{N}_{\mathbf{K}}$ is the number of times that the \mathbf{K}^{th} gray level appears in image .

n is the total number of pixel in the image .

Coding Redundancy

The average length of the code words assigned to the various gray level values

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{K=0}^{L-1} l(r_K) p_r(r_K)$$

where $l(r_k)$ no. lof bits used to represent each gray $p_r(r_k)$ probability that gray level occurs



r _k	$p_r(r_k)$	Code 1	$l_1(r_k)$	Code 2	$l_2(r_k)$
$r_0 = 0$	0.19	000	3	11	2
$r_1 = 1/7$	0.25	001	3	01	2
$r_2 = 2/7$	0.21	010	3	10	2
$r_3 = 3/7$	0.16	011	3	001	3
$r_4 = 4/7$	0.08	100	3	0001	4
$r_5 = 5/7$	0.06	101	3	00001	5
$r_6 = 6/7$	0.03	110	3	000001	6
$r_7 = 1$	0.02	111	3	000000	6

TABLE 8.1

Example of variable-length coding.

$$L_{avg} = \sum l(r_K) p_r(r_K)$$

= 2(0.19) + 2(0.25) + 2(0.21) + 3(0.16) + 4(0.08)+ 5(0.06) + 6(0.03) + 6(0.02)= 2.7bits.

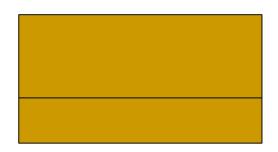
Example

- The resulting compression ratio C_R is 3/2.7 or 1.11.
- Thus approximately 10% of the data resulting from the use of code 1 is redundant.
- The exact level of redundancy can be determine from

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{1.11} = 0.099$$

Spatial and Temporal redundancy

- Each line has the same intensity
- All 256 intensity are of equal probability.
- Pixels intensity are independent of each other
- Pixels are correlated vertically
- Pixels intensity can be predicted from their
- Neighbor intensities, so the information carried
- By one pixel is small.



Histogram

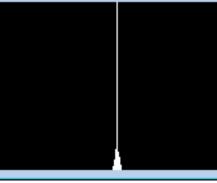
Irrelevant Information

- Information that ignored by HVS are obvious candidates for omission.
- Original size is 256X256X8
- All are seems to be of the same color
- Compression =256X256X8/8

= 65536:1

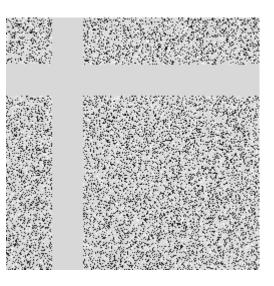


Fig0801(c).tif_Hist4



Irrelevant Information

- this type of redundancy is different from the other 2 types
- Its elimination is possible because the information itself is not essential for HVS.
- Its removal referred to <u>Quantization</u>
- This means mapping of a broad range of intensity into limited range
- Quantization is irreversible operation.



Equalized Histogram

How do we measure information?

- What is the information content of a message/image?
- What is the minimum amount of data that is sufficient to describe completely an image without loss of information?

Modeling Information

Information generation is assumed to be a probabilistic process.

Idea: associate information with probability!

A random event *E* with probability P(E) contains:

$$I(E) = log(\frac{1}{P(E)}) = -log(P(E))$$
 units of information

<u>Note:</u> I(E)=0 when P(E)=1 The event always occurs

How much information does a pixel contain?

Suppose that gray level values are generated by a random variable, then r_k contains:

$$I(r_k) = -log(P(r_k))$$
 units of information!

How much information does an image contain?

Average information content of an image:



using
$$I(r_k) = -\log(P(r_k))$$

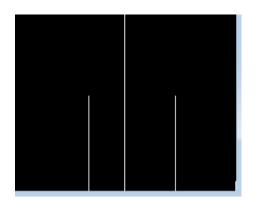
Entropy $H = -\sum_{k=0}^{L-1} P(r_k)\log(P(r_k))$ units/pixel

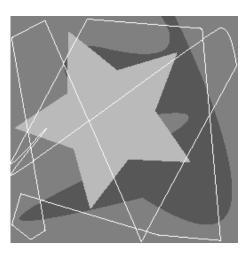
It is not possible to code an image with fewer than H bits/pixel

(assumes statistically independent random events)

Example:

- $H = -[.25 \log_2 0.25 + .47 \log_2 0.47 + .47 \log_2 0.4$
- .25 log₂ 0.25 + .03 log₂ 0.03]
- = [-0.25(-2) + .47(-1.09) + .25(-2) + .03(-5.06)]
- = 1.6614 bits/pixel





What about H for the second type of redundancy?

Fidelity Criteria

Objective fidelity criterion

Loss of information – compress – decompress .

Subjective fidelity criteria

Quality of image .

Fidelity criteria

- Irrelevant information represents a loss, so we need a mean of quantifying the nature of loss
- When the level of information loss can be expressed as a function of the original or input image and the compressed and decompressed output image, it is based on an objective fidelity criterion.
- Example : the error at any x,y

$$e(x, y) = \hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y)$$

Approximate

The total error

$$\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \left[\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y) \right]$$

Original

• The square root

$$e^{rms} = \left[\frac{1}{MN}\sum_{x=0}^{M-1}\sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \left[\hat{f}(x,y) - f(x,y)\right]^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

The mean square signal – to – noise

$$SNR_{rms} = \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}(x, y)^{2}}{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \left[\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y) \right]^{2}}$$

Fidelity Criteria(Subjective)

TABLE 8.3

Rating scale of the Television Allocations Study Organization. (Frendendall and Behrend.)

Value	Rating	Description
1	Excellent	An image of extremely high quality, as good as you could desire.
2	Fine	An image of high quality, providing enjoyable viewing. Interference is not objectionable.
3	Passable	An image of acceptable quality. Interference is not objectionable.
4	Marginal	An image of poor quality; you wish you could improve it. Interference is somewhat objectionable.
5	Inferior	A very poor image, but you could watch it. Objectionable interference is definitely present.
6	Unusable	An image so bad that you could not watch it.

Huffman Coding (coding redundancy)

- A variable-length coding technique.
- Optimal code (i.e., minimizes the number of code symbols per source symbol).
- Assumption: symbols are encoded one at a time!

Huffman Coding (cont'd)

• Forward Pass

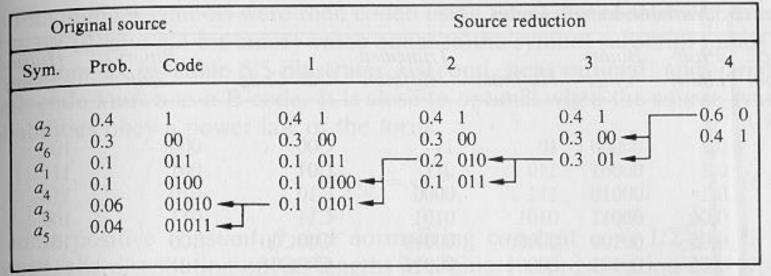
- 1. Sort probabilities per symbol
- 2. Combine the lowest two probabilities
- 3. Repeat Step2 until only two probabilities remain.

Original source			Source r	eduction	1205
Symbol	Probability	1	2	3	4
a2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	- 0.6
$a_2 \\ a_6$	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3 -	
a_1	0.1	0.1	0.2	► 0.3 _	0.4
a_4	0.1	0.1 -	0.1	- 0.5	
a3	0.06	0.1	0.11		
a ₅	0.04				

Huffman Coding (cont'd)

Backward Pass

Assign code symbols going backwards



Huffman Coding (cont'd)

L_{avg} using Huffman coding:

$$L_{avg} = E(l(a_k)) = \sum_{k=1}^{6} l(a_k)P(a_k) =$$

• L_{avg} assuming binary codes: 6 symbols, we need a 3-bit code (a_1 : 000, a_2 : 001, a_3 : 010, a_4 : 011, a_5 : 100, a_6 : 101) $L_{avg} = \sum_{k=1}^{6} l(a_k)P(a_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{6} 3P(a_k) = 3 \sum_{k=1}^{6} P(a_k) = 3$ bits/symbol

Huffman Coding/Decoding

- After the code has been created, coding/decoding can be implemented using a look-up table.
 - Note that decoding is done unambiguously.

Original source

	Oliginal source		0.00
010100111100	Sym.	Prob.	Code
a_3 a_1 a_2a_2 a_6	$a_2 \\ a_6 \\ a_1 \\ a_4 \\ a_3 \\ a_5 $	0.4 0.3 0.1 0.1 0.06 0.04	1 00 011 0100 01010 01011

Arithmetic (or Range) Coding (coding redundancy)

- Instead of encoding source symbols one at a time, sequences of source symbols are encoded together.
 - There is no one-to-one correspondence between source symbols and code words.
- Slower than Huffman coding but typically achieves better compression.

Arithmetic Coding (cont.)

A sequence of source symbols is assigned to a sub-interval in [0,1) which corresponds to an arithmetic code, e.g.,

■ We ^{α1 α2 α3 α3 α4} ➡ ^{[0.06752, 0.0688)} ➡ ^{0.068} as the number of symbols in the message increases, the interval used to represent the message becomes smaller.

arithmetic code

Arithmetic Coding (cont.)

Encode message:	α_1	α_2	α_3	α_3	α_4	
-----------------	------------	------------	------------	------------	------------	--

1) Start with interval [0, 1)

0

Probability
0.2
0.2
0.4
0.2

2) Subdivide [0, 1) based on the probabilities of α_i

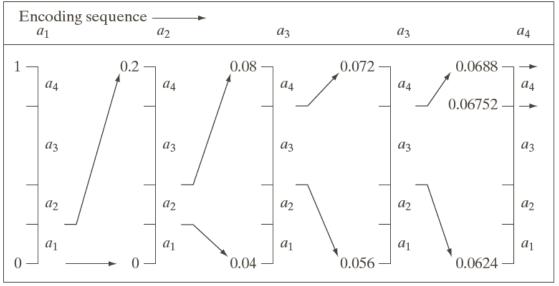


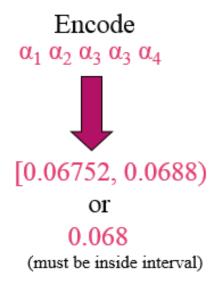
3) Update interval by processing source symbols

Initial Subinterval
[0.0, 0.2)
[0.2, 0.4)
[0.4, 0.8)
[0.8, 1.0)

Example

Source Symbol	Probability	Initial Subinterval
a_1	0.2	[0.0, 0.2)
a_2	0.2	[0.2, 0.4)
<i>a</i> ₃	0.4	[0.4, 0.8)
a_4	0.2	[0.8, 1.0)





Example (cont.)

 $\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3 \ \alpha_3 \ \alpha_4$

- The message is encoded using 3 decimal digits or 3/5 = 0.6 decimal digits per source symbol.
- The entropy of this message is:

$$H = -\sum_{k=0}^{3} P(r_k) log(P(r_k))$$

 $-(3 \times 0.2\log_{10}(0.2)+0.4\log_{10}(0.4))=0.5786 \text{ digits/symbol}$

Note: finite precision arithmetic might cause problems due to truncations!

Arithmetic Decoding

