

Making Precision Livestock Farming More Energy Efficient Using Compression Algorithms

Alejandro Mc Ewen
Universidad Eafit
Colombia
amce@eafit.edu.co

Felipe Henao
Universidad Eafit
Colombia
fhenao3@eafit.edu.co

Simón Marín
Universidad Eafit
Colombia
smaring1@eafit.edu.co

Mauricio Toro
Universidad Eafit
Colombia
mtorobe@eafit.edu.co

ABSTRACT

Recently, the concept of precision livestock farming (PLF) has emerged, which has the focus of implementing information and communication technologies to improve the process of livestock farming. The problem is that once the data in farms can be digitalized, we need to find a way to make the system more energy efficient. Solving this problem is very important because it can improve the process of precision livestock farming, and thus improve the efficiency of livestock farming. Some related problems are the detection and individual identification of Holstein Friesian cattle, the use of an animal welfare platform for extensive livestock production, and the use of machine learning in precision livestock farming. We propose to use two compression algorithms Nearest Neighbor that is lossy, and the LZ77 is lossless. We couldn't compress the file as much as we would have liked but we still achieved some compression, as for runtime and memory consumption it is appropriate for the purpose of the algorithms. From the work, we realized that we could have used a more effective algorithm for images for the lossless compression.

Keywords

Compression algorithms, machine learning, deep learning, precision livestock farming, animal health.

1. INTRODUCTION

Farming is a very important in the economy and society. So, the more efficient the sector can be the better every is for it. If one can implement technology with farming a lot of process could be made more precise and efficient. This would help fulfill the need for food in the worlds growing population.

1.1. Problem

The problem is that farms don't have a great way to identify sick cattle. The only resource they can use is the famers intuition. With this unprecise method many cattle die because they aren't treated. The problem is to device a more precise method to identify sick cattle.

1.2 Solution

In this work, we used a convolutional neural network to classify animal health, in cattle, in the context of precision livestock farming (PLF). A common problem in PLF is that

networking infrastructure is very limited, thus data compression is required.

Due to the limited network infrastructure, we implement compression algorithms to make the system more energy efficient. The algorithm we used is the nearest neighbor, a lossy image-compression algorithm, because is easier to implement in comparison to others and it doesn't take an average, instead it selects certain pixels which defines better the lines which results in a clearer image in comparison to other lossy algorithms.

1.3 Article structure

In what follows, in Section 2, we present related work to the problem. Later, in Section 3, we present the data sets and methods used in this research. In Section 4, we present the algorithm design. After, in Section 5, we present the results. Finally, in Section 6, we discuss the results, and we propose some future work directions.

2. RELATED WORK

In what follows, we explain four related works on the domain of animal-health classification and image compression in the context of PLF.

3.1 Computer and electronics in Agriculture

Farms needs to become more efficient to meet the food needs of a growing population. The problem is how can we make farming more efficient. The solution proposed by the article is to use precision livestock farming and machine learning to recognize healthy and not healthy cattle. The paper then does an in-depth investigation on various methods being used a research in this field. They did this with a Boolean search algorithm in various databases including Google Scholar, IEEE Xplore, Scopus, and Springer. After this they search for key words that satisfied the criteria that machine learning was being used for gracing, and that machine was being to enhance precision livestock farming in respects to the animal's health. This gave them 35 articles to use in their analysis. Finally, they ended by stating the limitation and challenges the industry has to solve to make this technology into a success.[10]

3.2 An Animal Welfare Platform for Extensive Livestock Production Systems

The article talks about the importance of keeping animal's welfare. Now more than ever people advocate for animals right and research has found that animal welfare correlates to people's welfare. The problem is how can one keep track of

animal welfare. The researcher developed a collar that connects to a webserver to get the multiple variables like position and velocity for each animal. Then with this data they pass it through a machine learning, and it returns a well-being score. Finally, they state a few of the many applications this idea has for example using them in cattle.[6]

3.3 Cloud Services Integration for Farm Animals' Behavior Studies Based on Smartphones as Activity Sensors

This article talks about the use of sensors in livestock farming, and the most critical parameter that can be monitored in animals is their behavior, since it provides information about their health and reproductive status. When analyzing an animal's behavior there are three main components, which are: the location obtained by radio frequency triangulation or GPS, the low frequency component of behavior as posture of the animal and the high frequency component of behavior. For this purpose, the use of smartphones was suggested as they are easily obtained, contain important sensors and don't require any hardware development. To monitor the animals' behavior, sensors like microphones, pressure sensors, electromyography, location sensors and accelerometers are used. In sensor data, all raw data is recorded with a decimal precision of 6 digits, so to compress this data they performed two things: remove redundancies and changing data to 3, 4 and 5 decimal digits. Once this data is reduced in volume, the data is stored and treated appropriately on the cloud. To store this data, the paper proposes an architecture structure which combines lambda architecture and a hosting and sharing platform. This platform separates data into video streams and is treated by streaming processing and time/event related data. Finally, they state that the lambda architecture proposed for collecting, storing, processing and sharing data between research teams can be used for other things different from cow behavior so that different teams can contribute to the system.[5]

3.4 Visual Localization and Individual Identification of Holstein Friesian Cattle via Deep Learning

This article talks about using computer vision pipelines with the aim to prove that Holstein Friesian cattle identification can be done automatically and non-intrusively. Traceability and identification of this cattle is highly demanded not only by exports and consumers demand but also countries introduced legally obligatory frameworks regarding national databases along with ear tagging, so the aim is to be able to improve in efficiency in the farm and contribute to animal welfare by making a non-intrusive and automated program to identify and trace these types of cattle. The first goal is to detect and locate Friesian cattle in images taken from a top-down or aerial standpoint, this is done by using the R-CNN (Regional Convolutional Regional Network) adaptation of the VGG CNN M 1024. Then, they used single frame individual identification and video based LRCN identification to individually identify the Friesian cattle. From this the results they obtained were near perfect results

with a mean average precision of 99.3%, which proves that by standard deep learning pipelines, automatic Holstein Friesian detection and individual identification can be done. [1]

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this section, we explain how the data was collected and processed and, after, different image-compression algorithm alternatives to solve improve animal-health classification.

3.1 Data Collection and Processing

We collected data from Google Images and Bing Images divided into two groups: healthy cattle and sick cattle. For healthy cattle, the search string was "cow". For sick cattle, the search string was "cow + sick".

In the next step, both groups of images were transformed into grayscale using Python OpenCV and they were transformed into Comma Separated Values (CSV) files. It was found out that the datasets were balanced.

The dataset was divided into 70% for training and 30% for testing. Datasets are available at <https://github.com/mauriciotoro/ST0245-Eafit/tree/master/proyecto/datasets>.

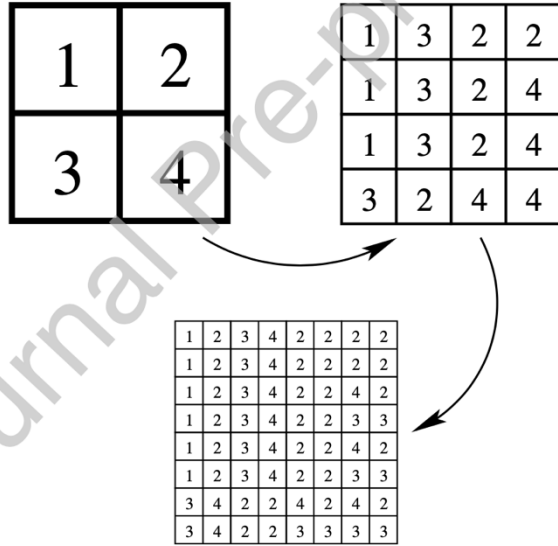
Finally, using the training data set, we trained a convolutional neural network for binary image-classification using Google Teachable Machine available at <https://teachablemachine.withgoogle.com/train/image>.

3.2 Lossy Image-compression alternatives

In what follows, we present different algorithms used to compress images. *(In this semester, examples of such algorithms are Seam carving, image scaling, discrete cosine transform, wavelet compression and fractal compression).*

3.2.1 V-variable image compression

V-variable compression works by grouping pixel into a bigger pixel. It does this by making for groups of pixels using the k-means algorithm to separate them into as many groups as needed and then creating a bigger pixel combining the pixels into the most common pixel in the group. The complexity of the algorithm is linear because that is the time it takes to go and replace every pixel and run the k-means algorithm. This is how v-variable compression creates compressed images.[6]



3.2.2 Fractal Encoding

Fractal coding consists of removing repetitive structures in the image data, called fractals, from the image to be compressed. For this type of encoding, first we divide the input gray-scale image into blocks that do not overlap, these are called as Range blocks. For each R_i a Domain block (D_i) is selected so that this Domain block is similar to the Range block and twice the size. The complexity of fractal encoding is $O(n^4)$, since each range block is compared to all domain blocks.[8]



Figure 1 – In Partitioned Iterated Function System, self-similarity is shown by comparing larger portions of the image (Domain blocks) and smaller portions (Range blocks).

3.2.3 Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

Discrete Cosine Transform consists of representing the input image into a two-dimensional matrix, as $P(i, j)$ and then, using the Discrete Cosine transform on the matrix, we obtain $P'(i, j)$. Here, the image is divided into N blocks of size $m \times m$, and is represented as a sum of cosine functions oscillating at different frequencies, following the formula:

$$f(u, v) = \frac{2}{N} C(u)C(v) \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2x+1)}{16} \right] \cos \left[\frac{\pi(2y+1)}{16} \right]$$

Where $u=1,2,..., N-1$ and $v=1,2,..., N-1$ and $C(x)$ is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ if $x=0$ or 1 if $x \neq 0$. Then, redundant image data is removed through quantization. The complexity of DCT is $O(n^2)$. [8]

239	32
34	-3
-70	2
5	0
-17	-3
2	4
-3	0
1	-1

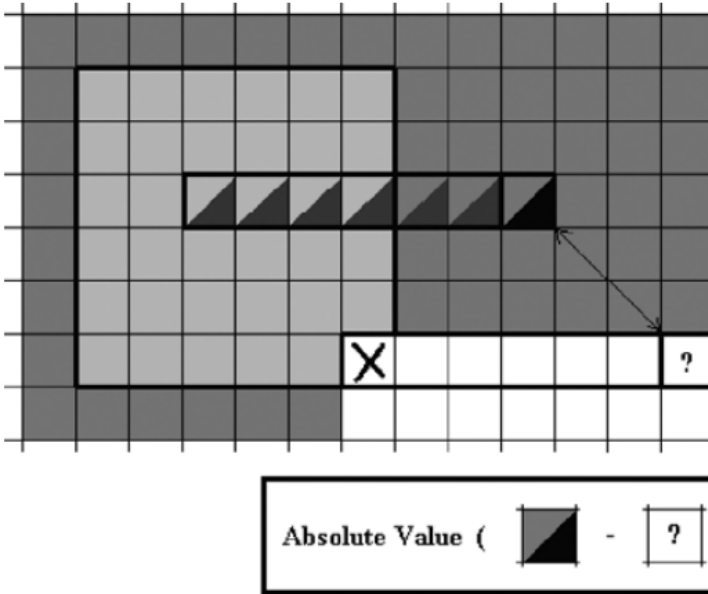
3.3.2 Burrows-Wheeler Transform

This Burrows-Wheeler Transform works by grouping similar characters together. This makes it easier to compress and require less space. It does this by rotating the string of characters and then selecting the option with the most repeated characters. Then it can use the output of the algorithm to get the original string. The complexity of this algorithm is linear because to make all the rotation it takes linear time or the length of the string. This is how the Burrows-Wheeler Transform algorithm works.[2]

Transformation				
1. Input	2. All rotations	3. Sort into lexical order	4. Take the last column	5. Output
<div> ^BANANA </div>	<div> ^BANANA ^BANANA A ^BANAN NA ^BANA ANA ^BAN NANA ^BA ANANA ^B BANANA ^ </div>	<div> ANANA ^B ANA ^BAN A ^BANAN BANANA ^ NANA ^BA NA ^BANA ^BANANA ^BANANA </div>	<div> ANANA ^B ANA ^BAN A ^BANAN BANANA ^ NANA ^BA NA ^BANA ^BANANA ^BANANA </div>	<div> BNN^AA A </div>

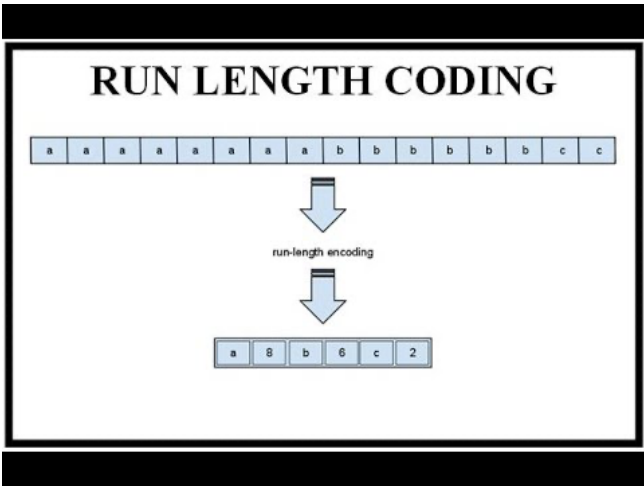
3.3.3 Grayscale two-dimensional Lempel-Ziv image compression scheme (GS-2D-LV)

In G2-2D-LV, an image is encoded by ordering the pixels by rows, which is known as raster scan order, processing one block of pixel each step. For each block of pixels, a similar match is located in the data that has already been encoded, if there is no suitable match the block of pixels is encoded using a prediction scheme. After the whole image is encoded, a statistical compression scheme is used to encode the match location, match position, residual and prediction error. The complexity of the GS-2D-LV scheme is linear.[9]



3.3.4 Run Length Encoding (RLE)

Run length encoding is compressing an image by grouping equal values into the value and a counter. This allows for images with a lot of repeat values in a row that are the majority to be made into a much shorter string. This coupled with other methods like Burrows-Wheeler Transform can make the image even shorter. The complexity of this algorithm is linear because it only takes one look through the string to compress it in this fashion.[8]



4. ALGORITHM DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

In what follows, we explain the data structures and the algorithms used in this work. The implementations of the data structures and algorithms are available at Github¹.

4.1 Data Structures

For the lossy image-compression algorithm, we used a matrix, which is an array of numbers distributed in rows and columns, this type of data structure has a complexity $O(1)$ for access, $O(n)$ for search and it is not possible to insert or delete. We used this data structure because for this algorithm our only interest is to search.



Figure 1: 4x4 matrix, which has 4 rows and 4 columns and contains 16 elements.

4.2 Algorithms

In this work, we propose a compression algorithm which is a combination of a lossy image-compression algorithm and a lossless image-compression algorithm. We also explain how decompression for the proposed algorithm works.

4.2.1 Lossy image-compression algorithm

The lossy image-compression algorithm we used is the Nearest Neighbor algorithm. For image compression, this algorithm consists of searching the arrays and selecting certain pixels to represent the image and puts them into a compressed image. For decompression, what it does is expand the compressed image by the same factor it was compressed, so the decompressed image results in the same dimensions as before it was compressed but since only some of the pixels are selected to represent the image, there is some data loss after decompression.

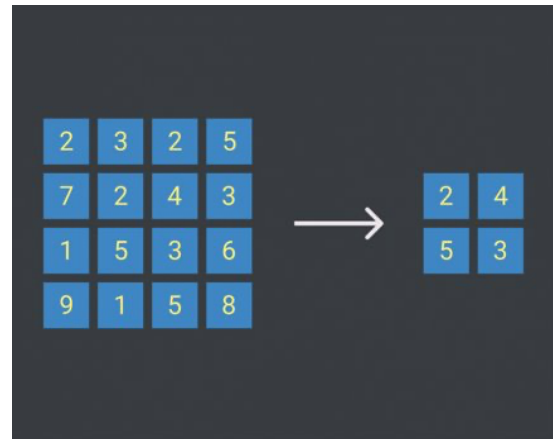


Figure 2.1: Image compression using Nearest Neighbor algorithm.

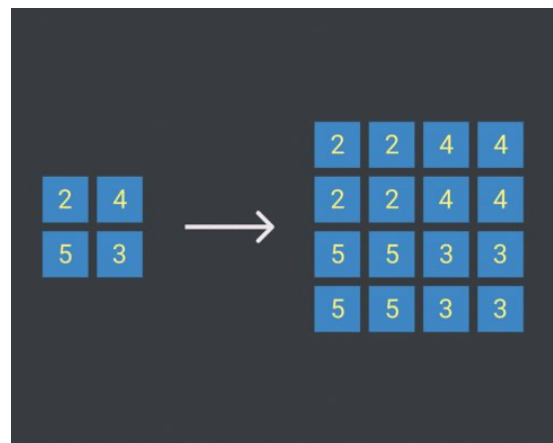


Figure 2.2: Image decompression using Nearest Neighbor algorithm.

4.2.2 Lossless image-compression algorithm

The algorithm we used was LZ77. It works by finding pattern in the image and making a code for to copy those patterns from a previous part of the image to a new part of the image. It does this by creating a code of three parts the first part is a character is a character in the string to insert. The second and third parts are numbers that tell the computer how many spots to jump back and the length of the file to copy. To create this code the algorithm uses a sliding window approach to save a lot of time. It goes and only check a designated window for patterns. Then it creates the code based on the longest pattern it found inside that window. This is how LZ77 works.

4.3 Complexity analysis of the algorithms

The worst case for this algorithm is that there is no pattern in the input. This would make the algorithm check for patterns throughout the whole file and not find any. It would also just

¹<http://www.github.com/ ???????? /proyecto/>

return the input because it couldn't find a pattern to compress the file.

Algorithm	Time Complexity
Compression	$O(N \cdot P)$
Decompression	$O(N)$

Table 2: Time Complexity of the image-compression and image-decompression algorithms. N is the size of the image. P is the prefix value or the size of the window the algorithm checks

Algorithm	Memory Complexity
Compression	$O(N)$
Decompression	$O(N)$

Table 3: Memory Complexity of the image-compression and image-decompression algorithms. N is the size of the image.

4.4 Design criteria of the algorithm

We used this algorithm because it was very effective at reducing the size of the input images. It also gave us a variable to control the amount of compression and the time the algorithm would take so that we could find a sweet spot where it wouldn't take too long to run but it would compress the images well. We also arrived at this algorithm after try to implement and testing run-length encoding and Burrows Wheller encoding, and this was the algorithm that gave us the best results.

5. RESULTS

5.1 Model evaluation

In this section, we present some metrics to evaluate the model. Accuracy is the ratio of number of correct predictions to the total number of input samples. Precision. is the ratio of successful students identified correctly by the model to successful students identified by the model. Finally, Recall is the ratio of successful students identified correctly by the model to successful students in the data set.

5.1 Execution times

In what follows we explain the relation of the average execution time and average file size of the images in the data set, in Table 6.

It took about an hour and a half to compress all the files and it only compressed on average about 0.1 megabytes per file.

	Average execution time (s)	Average file size (MB)
Compression	90 s	1.5 MB
Decompression	1 s	1.9 MB

Table 6: Execution time of the for the LZ77 algorithm.

5.2 Memory consumption

We present memory consumption of the compression and decompression algorithms in Table 7.

	Average memory consumption (MB)	Average file size (MB)
Compression	3.0 MB	1.5 MB
Decompression	3.8 MB	1.9MB

Table 7: Average Memory consumption of all the images in the data set for both compression and decompression of the LZ77 algorithm.

5.3 Compression ratio

We present the average compression ratio of the compression algorithm in Table 8.

	Healthy Cattle	Sick Cattle
Average compression ratio	3:4	8:9

Table 8: Rounded Average Compression Ratio of all the images of Healthy Cattle and Sick Cattle.

6. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

From the results obtained we think that the runtime and memory consumption is appropriate since we only must run the algorithm once and it doesn't take too much extra memory. We think that the compression ratio is not very appropriate because the size of the window that the algorithm is checking we didn't do it very large because it would take a longer time which made it difficult to obtain the results, but the compression can be improved by increasing the size of the window. Also, we realized that LZ77 is not very effective at compressing images because images don't have very clear patterns across their rows.

6.1 Future work

For future work, we could use different algorithm that work better for images, since the algorithm we used is more effective for text so it doesn't work very well in images in comparison to others. In our algorithm what we would like to improve is to implement a method that can compress by parts and not everything at once, because if anything goes wrong at least you can have some parts that are already compressed. A better way we could have compressed the file was by first using the nearest neighbor algorithm and then applying LZ77. This way not as much information is lost in the compression of the file while reducing the size of the file to the size you want.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank for the help with making the compression algorithm more efficient to Julian David Ramirez, student, Eafit for comments that improved our solution.

REFERENCES

- [1] Andrew, W., Greatwood, C., & Burghardt, T. 2017. Visual localisation and individual identification of holstein friesian cattle via deep learning. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from https://openaccess.thecvf.com/content_ICCV_2017_workshops/w41/html/Andrew_Visual_Localisation_and_ICCV_2017_paper.html
- [2] Anon. 2021. Burrows–Wheeler transform. (February 2021). Retrieved February 14, 2021 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Burrows%E2%80%93Wheeler_transform
- [3] Anon. 2021. Codificación Huffman. (January 2021). Retrieved February 14, 2021 from https://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Codificaci%C3%B3n_Huffman
- [4] Anon. 2020. Run-length encoding. (December 2020). Retrieved February 14, 2021 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Run-length_encoding
- [5] Debauche, O., Mahmoudi, S., Andriamandroso, A.L.H. et al. 2019. Cloud services integration for farm animals' behavior studies based on smartphones as activity sensors. J. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12652-018-0845-9>
- [6] Doulgerakis, Vasileios & Kalyvas, Dimitrios & Bocaj, Enkeleda & Giannousis, Christos & Feidakis, Michalis & Laliotis, George & Patrikakis, Charalampos & Bizelis, Iosif. 2019. An Animal Welfare Platform for Extensive Livestock Production Systems. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/338595895_An_Animal_Welfare_Platform_for_Extensive_Livestock_Production_Systems
- [7] Franklin Mendivil, Örjan Stenflo. 2020. Extreme compression of grayscale images. Communications in Nonlinear Science and Numerical Simulation, Vol 9. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cnsns.2020.105546>.
- [8] Kulkarni, A., & Junnarkar, A. (2015). Gray-Scale Image Compression Techniques: A Review. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.735.1396&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- [9] Nathanael J. Brittain, Mahmoud R. El-Sakka. 2007. Grayscale true two-dimensional dictionary-based image compression. Journal of Visual Communication and Image Representation, Vol 18. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvcir.2006.09.001>.
- [10] Rodrigo García, Jose Aguilar, Mauricio Toro, Angel Pinto, Paul Rodríguez. 2020. A systematic literature review on the use of machine learning in precision livestock farming. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture, Vol 179. Retrieved February 14, 2021 from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compag.2020.105826>.
- [11] Anon. 2020. Discrete Cosine Transform. (December 2020). Retrieved February 14, 2021 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete_cosine_transform