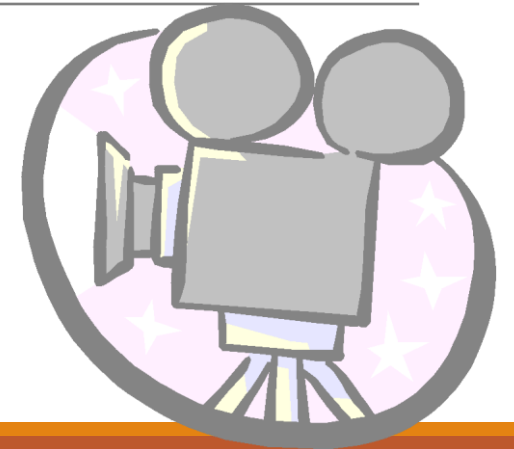


# Image Processing

CS-317/CS-341

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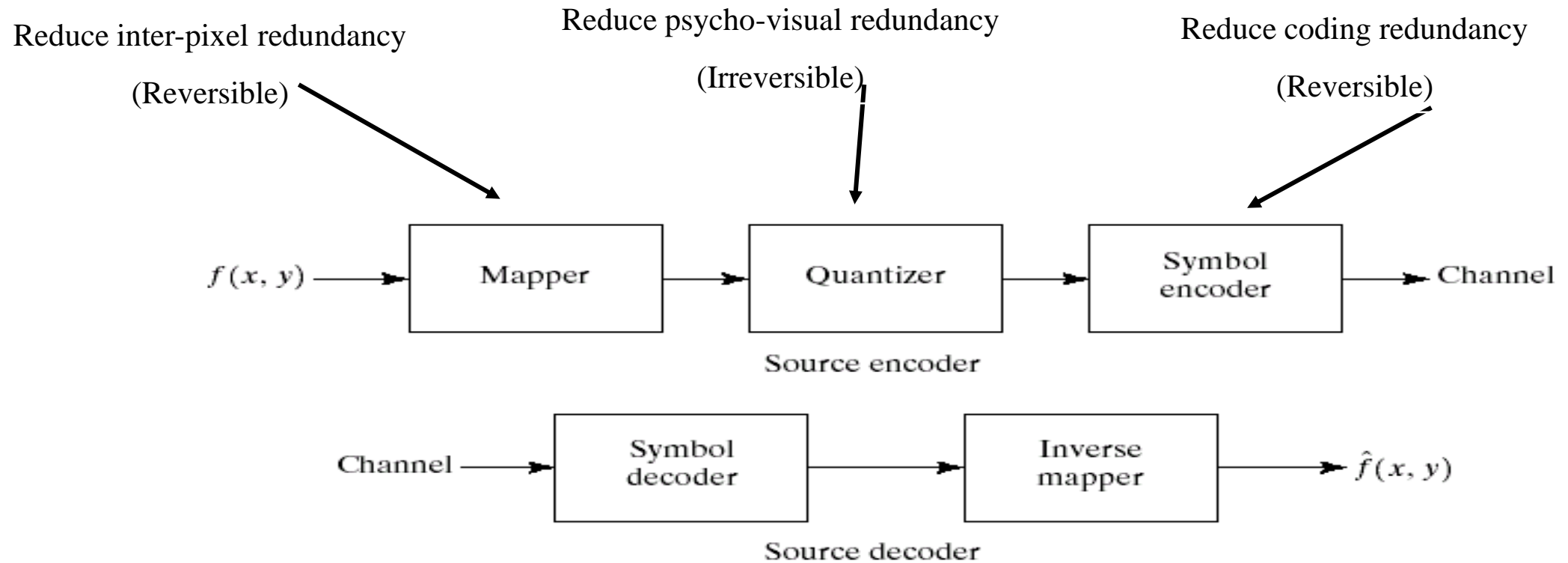


# Outline

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- Lossless Compression
  - Run length coding
- Lossy image compression techniques

# Image Compression model



(a) Source encoder and (b) source decoder model.

# Run-length encoding

- Run-length encoding is probably the simplest method of compression.
- It can be used to compress data made of any combination of symbols.
- It does not need to know the frequency of occurrence of symbols and can be very efficient if data is represented as 0s and 1s.
- The general idea behind this method is to replace consecutive repeating occurrences of a symbol by one occurrence of the symbol followed by the number of occurrences.
  - replace runs of symbols (possibly of length one) with pairs of (run-length, symbol)*
  - For images, the maximum run-length is the size of a row*
- The method can be even more efficient if the data uses only two symbols (for example 0 and 1) in its bit pattern and one symbol is more frequent than the other.

# Run-length coding (RLC) (addresses interpixel redundancy)

Reduce the size of a repeating string of symbols (i.e., runs):

1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1  $\rightarrow$  (1,5) (0, 6) (1, 1)

a a a b b b b b b c c  $\rightarrow$  (a,3) (b, 6) (c, 2)

No. of vector=3, maximum length=6, so 3 bits in binary are required, no. of bits per pixel=1

Size=no. of vectors\* (bit requirement for each vector+no. of bits per pixel)

$$3*(3+1)=12$$

$$\text{Original size} = 12*1=12$$

# Run-length coding (RLC) (addresses interpixel redundancy)

Reduce the size of a repeating string of symbols (i.e., runs):

## Horizontal RLC

0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

No. of vectors :  $(0,5) ; (0, 3), (1, 2); (1,5); (1,5); (1,5)$

No. of vector=6, maximum length=5, so 3 bits in binary are required, no. of bits per pixel=1

Size=no. of vectors\* (bit requirement for each vector+no. of bits per pixel)

$$6*(3+1)=24$$

Original size=  $5*5*1=25$ , CR= $25/24=1.042:1$

# Run-length coding (RLC) (addresses interpixel redundancy)

Reduce the size of a repeating string of symbols (i.e., runs):

## Vertical RLC

0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

No. of vectors :  $(0,2) (1,3); (0, 2),(1,3);(0,2),(1,3) );(0,1),(1,4);(0,1), (1,4)$

No. of vector=10, maximum length=4, so 3 bits in binary are required, no. of bits per pixel=1

Size=no. of vectors\* (bit requirement for each vector+no. of bits per pixel)

$$10*(3+1)=40$$

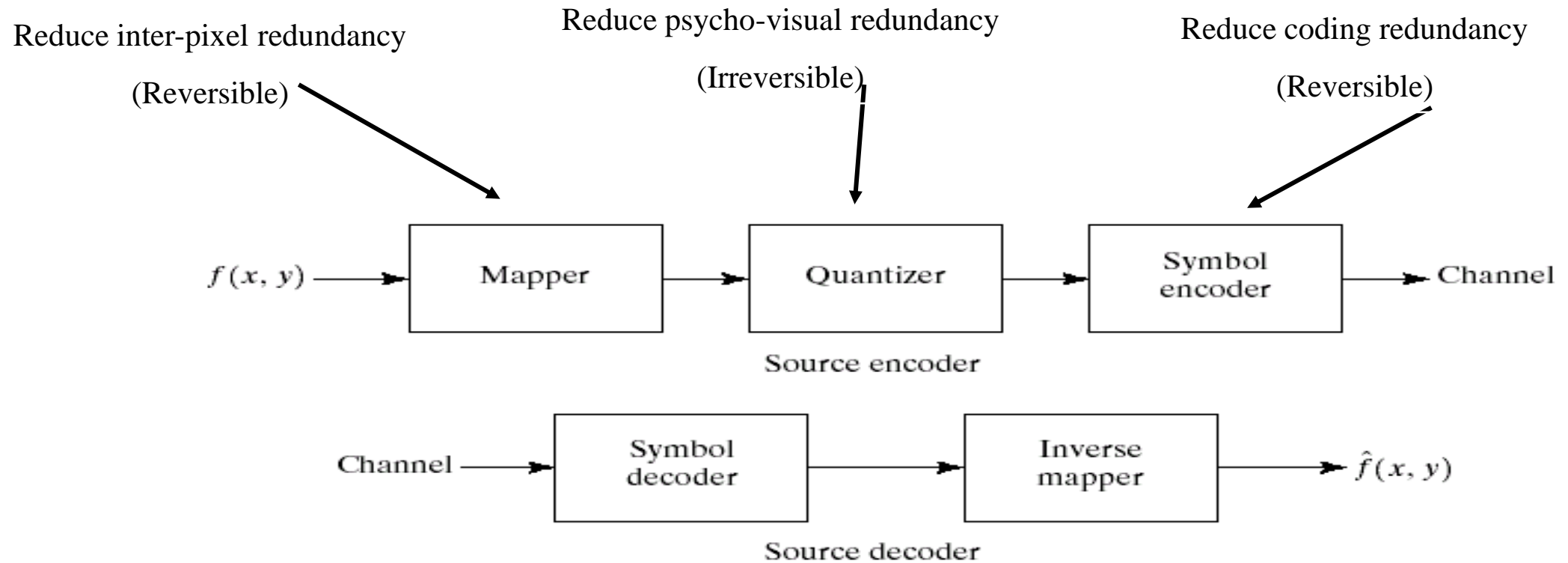
$$\text{Original size} = 5*5*1=25, \text{CR}=25/40=0.625:1$$

---

# Lossy Image Compression



# Image Compression model



(a) Source encoder and (b) source decoder model.

# Why Lossy?

---

In most applications related to consumer electronics, lossless compression is not necessary

- What we care is the subjective quality of the decoded image, not those intensity values

With the relaxation, it is possible to achieve a higher compression ratio (CR)

- For photographic images, CR is usually below 2 for lossless, but can reach over 10 for lossy

# A Simple Experiment

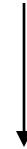
---

Bit-plane representation

$$A = a_0 + a_1 2 + a_2 2^2 + \dots \dots + a_7 2^7$$



Least Significant Bit  
(LSB)



Most Significant Bit  
(MSB)

Example

$$A = 129 \rightarrow a_0 a_1 a_2 \dots a_7 = 10000001$$

$$a_0 a_1 a_2 \dots a_7 = 00110011 \rightarrow A = 4 + 8 + 64 + 128 = 204$$

# A Simple Experiment (Con't)

- How will the reduction of gray-level resolution affect the image quality?
  - Test 1: make all pixels even numbers (i.e., knock down  $a_0$  to be zero)
  - Test 2: make all pixels multiples of 4 (i.e., knock down  $a_0, a_1$  to be zeros)
  - Test 3: make all pixels multiples of 4 (i.e., knock down  $a_0, a_1, a_2$  to be zeros)

# Experiment Results



original



Test 1



Test 2



Test 3

# How to Measure Image Quality?

---

## Subjective

- Evaluated by human observers
- Do not require the original copy as a reference
- Reliable, accurate yet impractical

## Objective

- Easy to operate (automatic)
- Often requires the original copy as the reference (measures fidelity rather than quality)

# Objective Quality Measures

---

Mean Square Error (MSE)

$$MSE = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{i=1}^H \sum_{j=1}^W [\overset{\text{original}}{X}(i, j) - \overset{\text{decoded}}{Y}(i, j)]^2$$

Peak Signal-to-Noise-Ratio (PSNR)

$$PSNR = 10 \log_{10} \frac{255^2}{MSE} (dB)$$

Question:

Can you think of a counter-example to prove objective measure is not consistent with subjective evaluation?

# Results

---



Shifted (MSE=337.8)

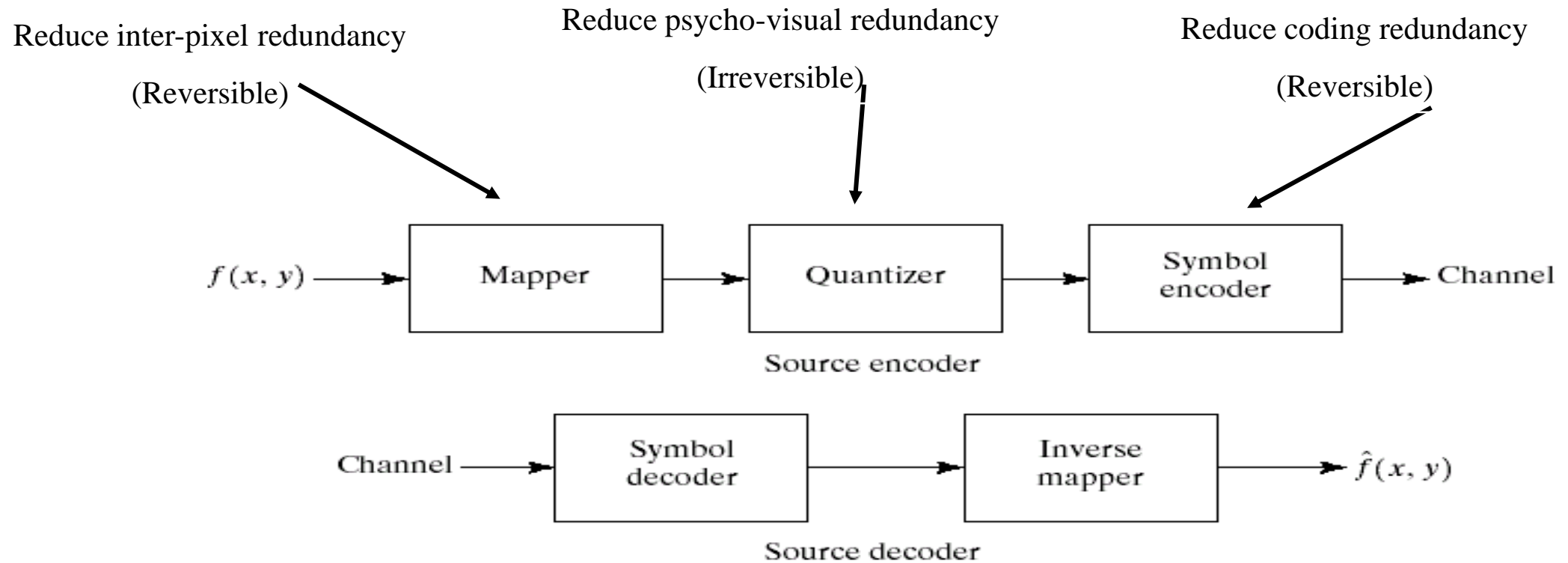


Original *cameraman* image

By shifting the last row of the image to become the first row, we affect little on subjective quality but the measured MSE is large



# Image Compression model



(a) Source encoder and (b) source decoder model.

# Lossy Image Compression

## Quantization basics

- Uniform Quantization

# What is Quantization?

---

In image compression

- To limit the possible values of a pixel value or a transform coefficient to a discrete set of values by information theoretic rules

# Examples

---

Unlike entropy, we encounter it everyday (so it is not a monster)

Continuous to discrete

- a quarter of milk, two gallons of gas, normal temperature is 98.6F, my height is 5 foot 9 inches

Discrete to discrete

- Round your tax return to integers
- The mileage of my car is about 55K.

# Scalar vs. Vector Quantization

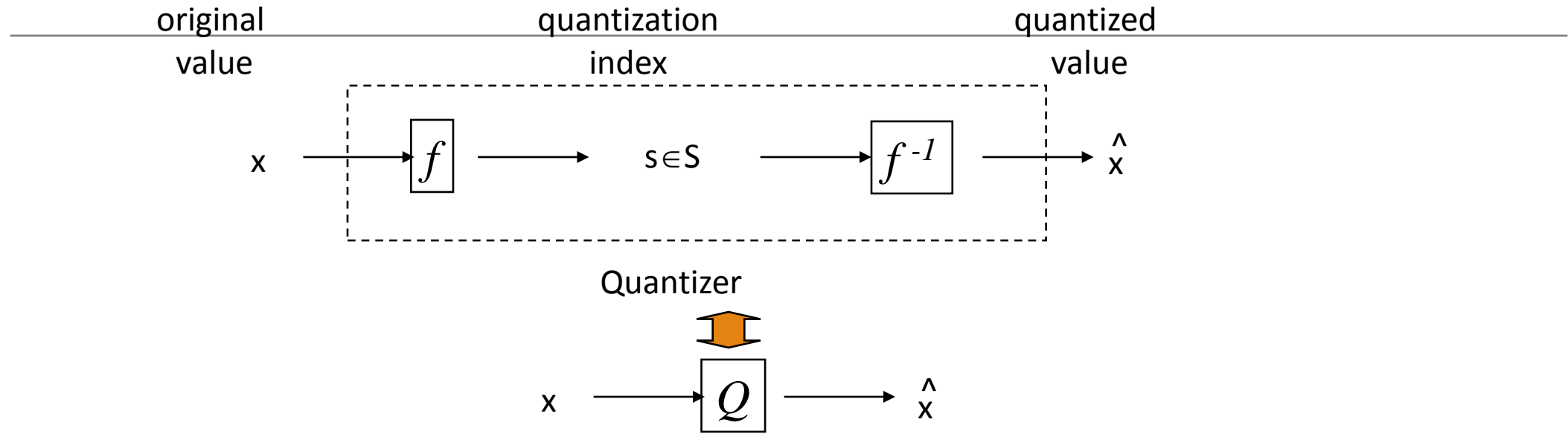
---

We only consider the scalar quantization (SQ) in this course

- Even for a sequence of values, we will process (quantize) each sample independently

Vector quantization (VQ) is the extension of SQ into high-dimensional space

# Definition of (Scalar) Quantization



*$f$  finds the **closest** (in terms of Euclidean distance) approximation of  $x$  from a **codebook**  $C$  (a collection of codewords) and assign its index to  $s$ ;  $f^{-1}$  operates like a table look-up to return the corresponding codeword*

# Numerical Example-3

$$Q(x) = 8 + \left\lfloor \frac{x}{16} \right\rfloor \cdot 16, x \in [0, 255]$$

225	222	235	228		232	216	232	232
220	206	209	44		216	200	216	40
49	56	64	42	→ $Q$ →	56	56	72	40
128	106	94	27		136	104	88	24
x					$\hat{x}$			

## Notes

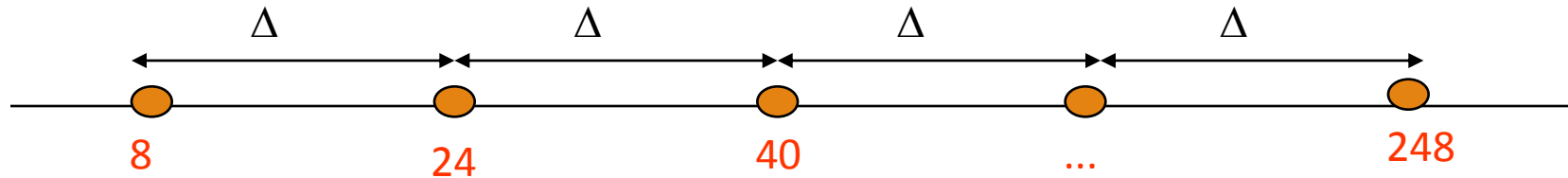
- For scalar quantization, each sample is quantized **independently**
- Quantization is **irreversible**

# Uniform Quantization (UQ) for Uniform Distribution

## Uniform Quantization

A scalar quantization is called uniform quantization (UQ) if all its codewords are uniformly distributed (equally-distanced)

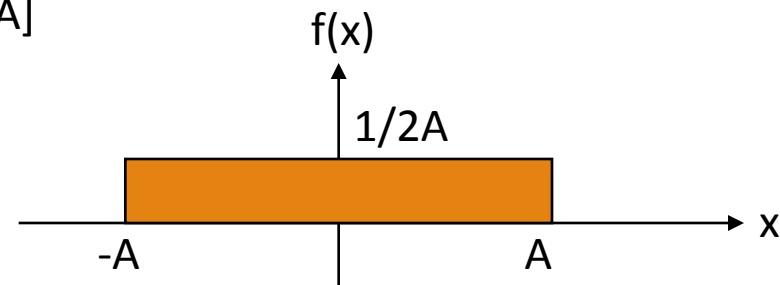
Example (quantization stepsize  $\Delta=16$ )



## Uniform Distribution

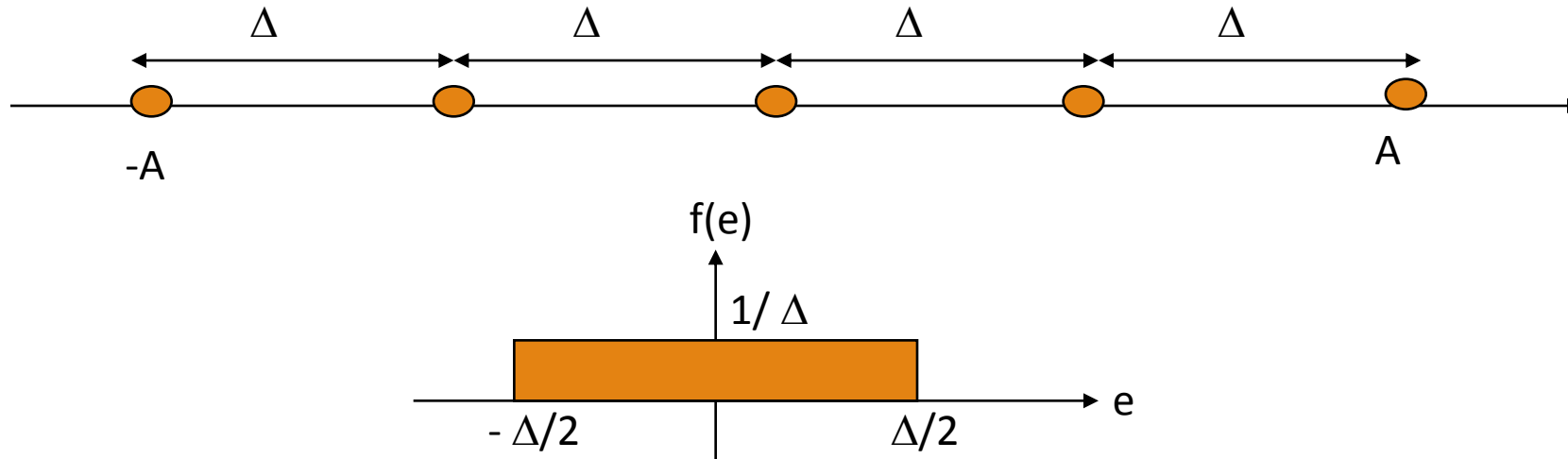
denoted by  $U[-A, A]$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2A & x \in [-A, A] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$





# Quantization Noise of UQ



Quantization noise of UQ on uniform distribution is also uniformly distributed

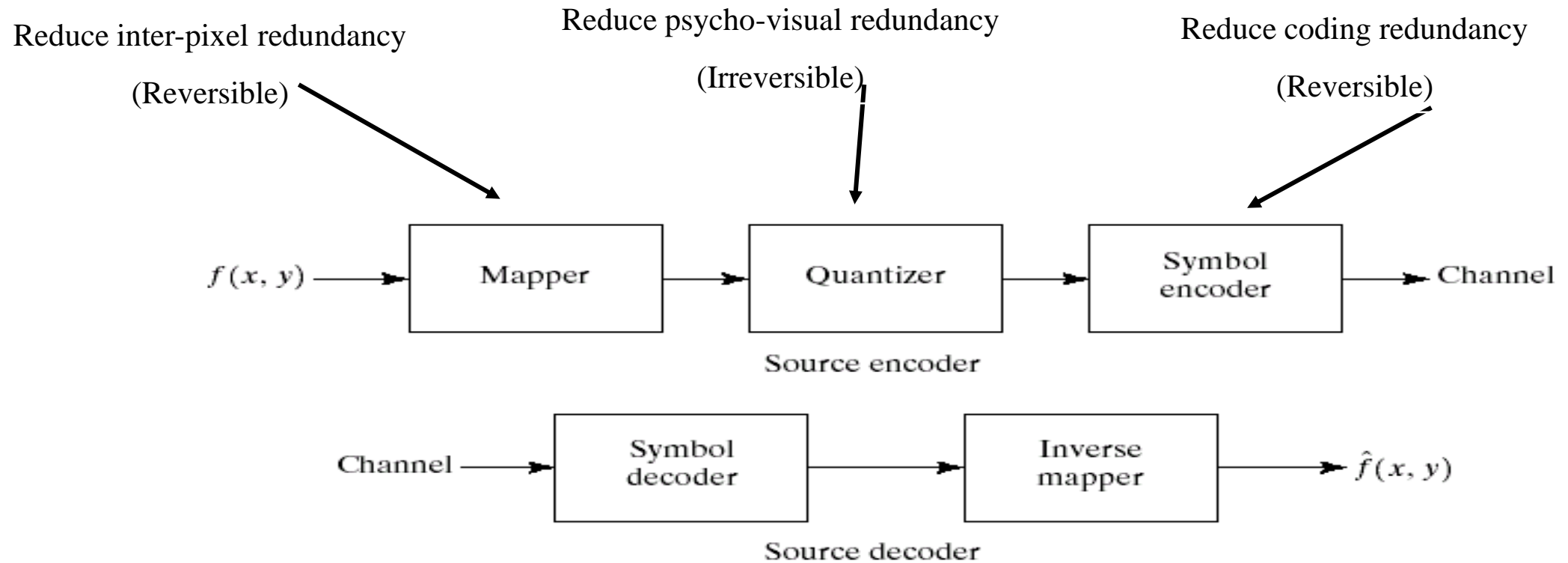
Recall

Variance of  $U[-\Delta/2, \Delta/2]$  is

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12} \Delta^2$$

# Basic Transformation

# Image Compression model : Transformation

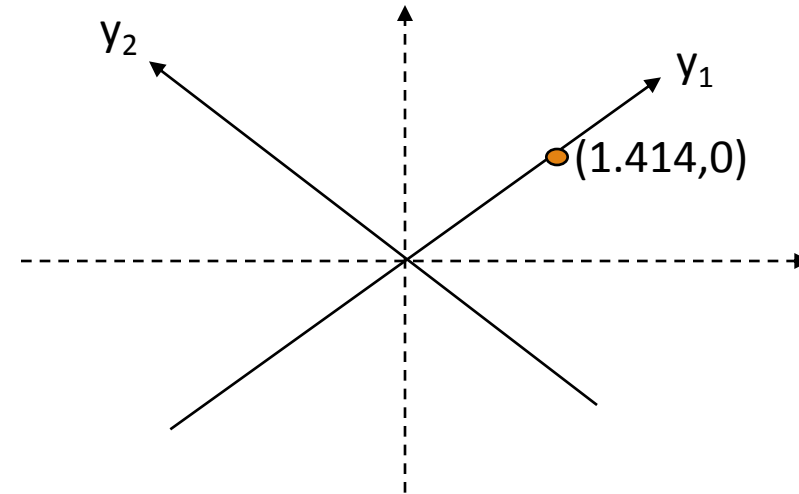
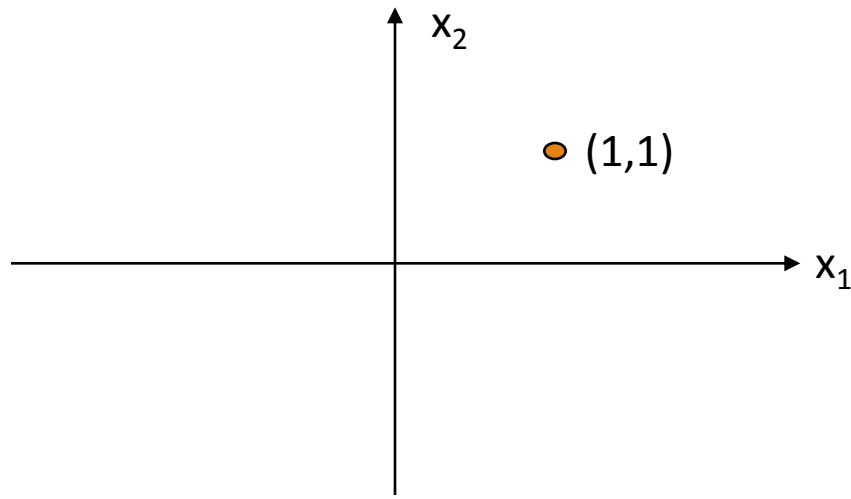


(a) Source encoder and (b) source decoder model.

# Lossy Image Compression

- Lossy transform coding
  - Image Transforms (Discrete Cosine Transform)
  - Joint Photographic Expert Group (JPEG)

# An Example of 1D Transform with Two Variables



$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{y} = \mathbf{A} \vec{x}, \underset{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{Transform matrix}}}{\mathbf{A}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Generalization into N Variables

forward transform

$$\vec{y}_{N \times 1} = \mathbf{A}_{N \times N} \vec{x}_{N \times 1}$$

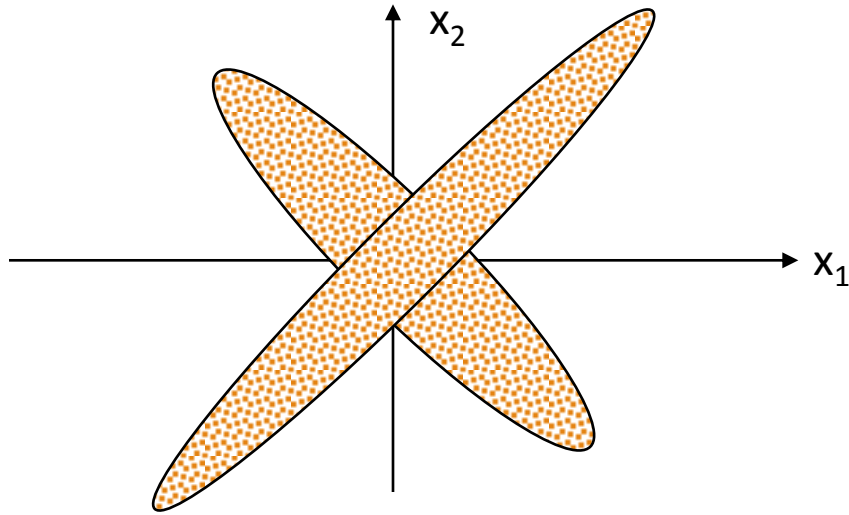
$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \vec{b}_i, \vec{b}_i = [a_{i1}, \dots, a_{iN}]^T$$

**basis vectors** (column vectors of transform matrix)

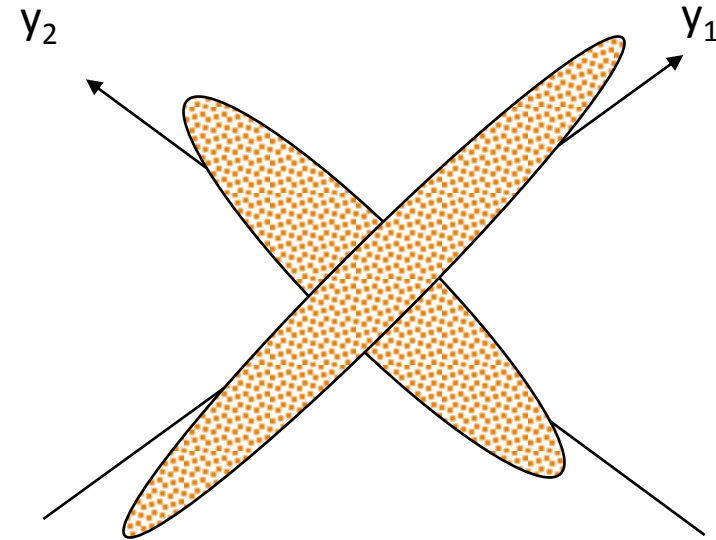
# Decorrelating Property of Transform

---



$x_1$  and  $x_2$  are highly correlated

$$p(x_1 x_2) \neq p(x_1)p(x_2)$$



$y_1$  and  $y_2$  are less correlated

$$p(y_1 y_2) \approx p(y_1)p(y_2)$$

# Transform=Change of Coordinates

---

Intuitively speaking, transform plays the role of facilitating the source modeling

- Due to the decorrelating property of transform, it is easier to model transform coefficients ( $Y$ ) instead of pixel values ( $X$ )

An appropriate choice of transform (transform matrix  $A$ ) depends on the source statistics  $P(X)$

- We will only consider the class of transforms corresponding to unitary matrices



# Unitary Matrix and 1D Unitary Transform

## Definition

A matrix  $A$  is called **unitary** if  $A^{-1} = A^*{}^T$

conjugate      transpose  
                 ↙      ↘

When the transform matrix  $A$  is unitary, the defined transform  $\vec{y} = A\vec{x}$  is called **unitary transform**

## Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}^T$$

For a real matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , it is unitary if  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^T$

# Inverse of Unitary Transform

For a unitary transform, its inverse is defined by

$$\vec{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \vec{y} = \mathbf{A}^{*T} \vec{y}$$

## Inverse Transform

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* & \cdots & \cdots & a_{N1}^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1N}^* & \cdots & \cdots & a_{NN}^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \vec{b}_i, \vec{b}_i = [a_{1i}^*, \dots, a_{Ni}^*]^T$$

basis vectors corresponding to inverse transform

# Properties of Unitary Transform

---

Energy **compaction**: only few transform coefficients have large magnitude

- Such property is related to the decorrelating role of unitary transform

Energy **conservation**: unitary transform preserves the 2-norm of input vectors

- Such property essentially comes from the fact that rotating coordinates does not affect Euclidean distance

# Energy Compaction Example

Hadamard matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 98 \\ 98 \\ 100 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{y} = \mathbf{A}\vec{x} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 98 \\ 98 \\ 100 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 198 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

significant  
insignificant

# Energy Conservation

$$\vec{y} = \mathbf{A}\vec{x} \quad \text{A is unitary} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \|\vec{y}\|^2 = \|\vec{x}\|^2$$

Proof

$$\|\vec{y}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N |y_i|^2 = \vec{y}^{*T} \vec{y} = (\mathbf{A}\vec{x})^{*T} (\mathbf{A}\vec{x})$$

$$= \vec{x}^{*T} (\mathbf{A}^{*T} \mathbf{A}) \vec{x} = \vec{x}^{*T} \vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N |x_i|^2 = \|\vec{x}\|^2$$

# Numerical Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\vec{y} = \mathbf{A}\vec{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Check:

$$\|\vec{x}\|^2 = 3^2 + 4^2 = 25, \|\vec{y}\|^2 = \frac{7^2 + 1^2}{2} = 25$$

# Implication of Energy Conservation

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \vec{y} = [y_1, \dots, y_N]^T & \xrightarrow{\boxed{Q}} & \hat{\vec{y}} = [\hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_N]^T \\
 \uparrow \boxed{T} & & \downarrow \boxed{T^{-1}} \\
 \vec{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_N]^T & & \hat{\vec{x}} = [\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_N]^T \\
 \vec{y} = \mathbf{A}\vec{x} & & \hat{\vec{y}} = \mathbf{A}\hat{\vec{x}} \\
 & \searrow \quad \swarrow & \\
 & \vec{y} - \hat{\vec{y}} = \mathbf{A}(\vec{x} - \hat{\vec{x}}) & \\
 & \downarrow \text{\textcolor{brown}{\mathbf{A}} is unitary} & \\
 & \|\vec{y} - \hat{\vec{y}}\|^2 = \|\vec{x} - \hat{\vec{x}}\|^2 &
 \end{array}$$

# Summary of 1D Unitary Transform

Unitary matrix:  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{*\top}$

Unitary transform:  $\vec{y} = \mathbf{A}\vec{x}$       $\mathbf{A}$  unitary

Properties of 1D unitary transform

- Energy compaction: most of transform coefficients  $y_i$  are small
- Energy conservation: quantization can be directly performed to transform coefficients

$$\| \vec{y} \|^2 = \| \vec{x} \|^2 \Rightarrow \| \vec{y} - \hat{\vec{y}} \|^2 = \| \vec{x} - \hat{\vec{x}} \|^2$$



# From 1D to 2D

Do  $N$  1D transforms in parallel

$$\mathbf{Y}_{N \times N} = \mathbf{A}_{N \times N} \mathbf{X}_{N \times N}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & y_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & y_{NN} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & x_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & x_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{y}_1 & | & \cdots & | & \vec{y}_i & | & \cdots & | & \vec{y}_N \end{bmatrix} \quad \Uparrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & | & \cdots & | & \vec{x}_i & | & \cdots & | & \vec{x}_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{y}_i = \mathbf{A} \vec{x}_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$\vec{x}_i = [x_{i1}, \dots, x_{iN}]^T, \vec{y}_i = [y_{i1}, \dots, y_{iN}]^T$$

# Definition of 2D Transform

2D forward transform  $\mathbf{Y}_{N \times N} = \mathbf{A}_{N \times N} \mathbf{X}_{N \times N} \mathbf{A}_{N \times N}^T$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & y_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & y_{NN} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & x_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & x_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{N1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1N} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$

↑
↑

1D column transform
1D row transform

# 2D Transform (Two Sequential 1D Transforms)

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T$$



column transform

$$\mathbf{Y}_1 = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} \quad (\text{left matrix multiplication first})$$

row transform

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}_1\mathbf{A}^T = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}_1^T)^T$$



row transform

$$\mathbf{Y}_2 = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}^T)^T \quad (\text{right matrix multiplication first})$$

column transform

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}_2$$

## Conclusion:

- 2D separable transform can be decomposed into two sequential
- The ordering of 1D transforms does not matter

# From Basis Vectors to Basis Images

1D transform matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  consists of basis vectors (column vectors)

$$\vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \vec{b}_i, \vec{b}_i = [a_{i1}, \dots, a_{iN}]^T$$

2D transform corresponds to a collection of N-by-N basis images

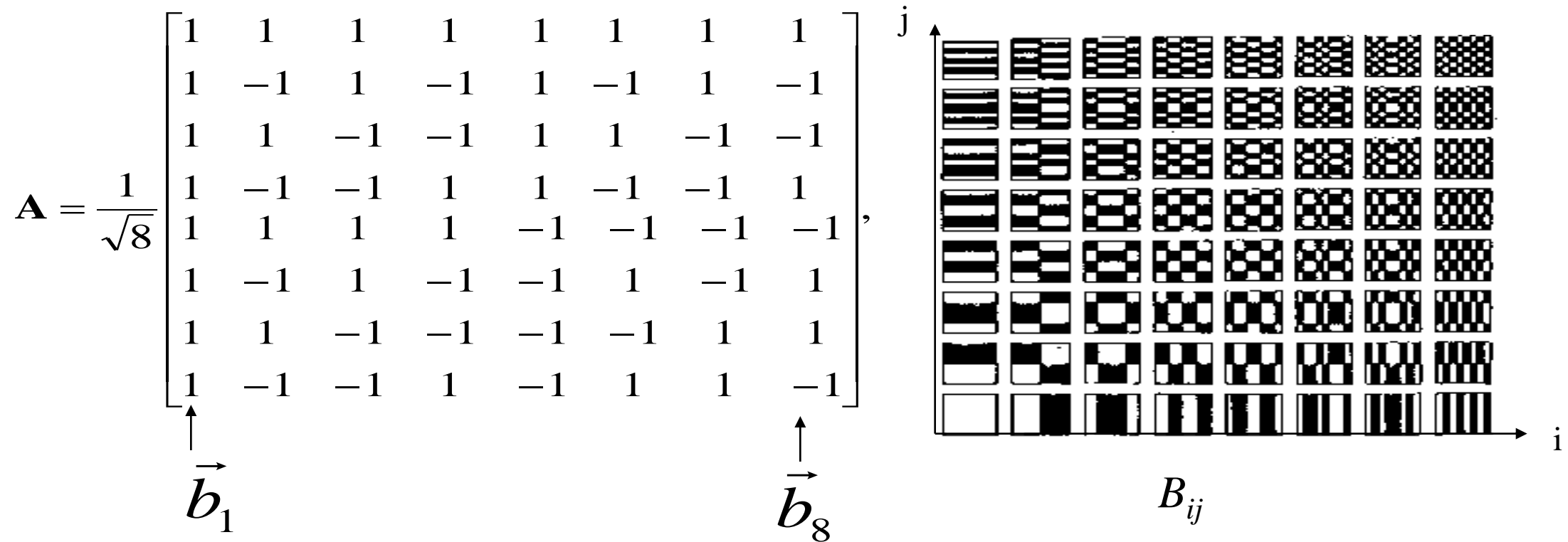
$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N x_{ij} \mathbf{B}_{ij}, \mathbf{B}_{ij} = \vec{b}_i \vec{b}_j^T, \vec{b}_i = [a_{i1}, \dots, a_{iN}]^T$$

↑  
basis image

# Example of Basis Images

Hadamard matrix:

$$\mathbf{A}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{A}_{2n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_n & \mathbf{A}_n \\ \mathbf{A}_n & -\mathbf{A}_n \end{bmatrix}$$



# 2D Unitary Transform

Suppose  $\mathbf{A}$  is a unitary matrix,

forward transform

$$\mathbf{Y}_{N \times N} = \mathbf{A}_{N \times N} \mathbf{X}_{N \times N} \mathbf{A}_{N \times N}^T$$

inverse transform

$$\mathbf{X}_{N \times N} = \mathbf{A}_{N \times N}^{*T} \mathbf{Y}_{N \times N} \mathbf{A}_{N \times N}^*$$

Proof

Since  $\mathbf{A}$  is a unitary matrix, we have

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{*T}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{*T} \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{A}^* = \mathbf{A}^{*T} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{A}^* = \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{X}$$

# Energy Compaction Property of 2D Unitary Transform

- Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 & 100 & 98 & 99 \\ 100 & 100 & 94 & 94 \\ 98 & 97 & 96 & 100 \\ 100 & 99 & 97 & 94 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T} \mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} 391.5 & 0 & 5.5 & 1 \\ 2.5 & -2 & -4.5 & 2 \\ 1 & -0.5 & 2 & -0.5 \\ 2 & 1.5 & 0 & -1.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

A coefficient is called **significant** if its magnitude is above a pre-selected threshold  $th$

insignificant coefficients ( $th=64$ )

## Energy Conservation Property of 2D Unitary Transform

2-norm of a matrix  $\mathbf{X}$

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N |x_{ij}|^2$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T \text{ A unitary} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \|\mathbf{Y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|^2$$

Example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 = 30 = 5^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 + 0^2 = \|\mathbf{Y}\|^2$$

You are asked to prove such property in your homework



# Implication of Energy Conservation

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \mathbf{X} & \longrightarrow & \boxed{\mathbf{T}} & \longrightarrow & \mathbf{Y} & \longrightarrow & \boxed{\mathbf{Q}} & \longrightarrow & \hat{\mathbf{Y}} & \longrightarrow & \boxed{\mathbf{T}^{-1}} & \longrightarrow & \hat{\mathbf{X}} \\ & & & & \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}^T & & & & \hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}^{*T}\hat{\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{A}^* & & & & \\ & & & & \searrow & & \swarrow & & & & & & \\ & & & & \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})\mathbf{A}^T & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & \|\mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|^2 & & & & & & & & \end{array}$$

Similar to 1D case, quantization noise in the transform domain has the same energy as that in the spatial domain

# Important 2D Unitary Transforms

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## Discrete Fourier Transform

- Widely used in non-coding applications (frequency-domain approaches)

## Discrete Cosine Transform

- Used in JPEG standard

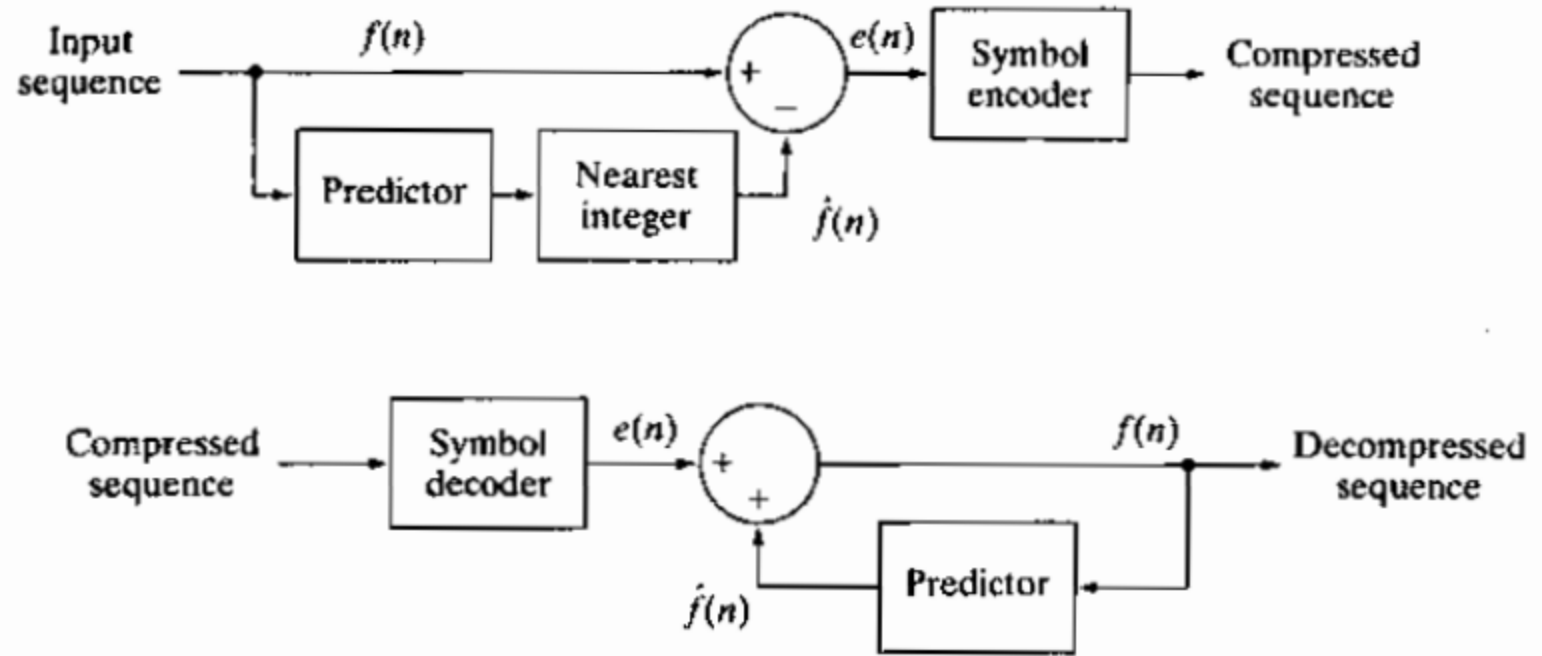
## Hadamard Transform

- All entries are  $\pm 1$
- N=2: Haar Transform (simplest wavelet transform for multi-resolution analysis)

# Predictive Coding

a.  
b.

**FIGURE 8.33**  
A lossless  
predictive coding  
model;  
(a) encoder;  
(b) decoder.



# Suggested Readings

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- ❑ **Digital Image Processing by Rafael Gonzalez, Richard Woods, Pearson Education India, 2017.**
- ❑ **Fundamental of Digital image processing by A. K Jain, Pearson Education India, 2015.**

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**Thank you**

