

Multimedia Software Systems

CS4551

Basics of Lossy Compression Algorithms

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Lossy Compression

- Decompressed signal is not like original signal –data loss
- Objective: minimize the *distortion* for a given compression ratio
 - Ideally, we would optimize the system based on *perceptual distortion* (difficult to compute)
 - We'll need a few more concepts from statistics...

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Distortion Measurements

- y : the original value of a sample (e.g $I(i,j)$ the image pixel at (i,j))
- y^{\wedge} : the sample value after compression/decompression (e.g $K(i,j)$ the approximated image pixel at (i,j))
- 1. Measuring differences (errors)
 - $f(y-y^{\wedge})$: error (or noise or distortion) where f is a distance function (e.g MSE that is **Mean Squared Error**)

$$MSE = \frac{1}{m \cdot n} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} [I(i,j) - K(i,j)]^2$$

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Distortion Measurements (2)

- 2. SNR (Signal to Noise Ratio) or PSNR (Peak SNR) in dB

$$\begin{aligned} PSNR &= 10 \cdot \log_{10} \left(\frac{MAX_I^2}{MSE} \right) \\ &= 20 \cdot \log_{10} \left(\frac{MAX_I}{\sqrt{MSE}} \right) \\ &= 20 \cdot \log_{10}(MAX_I) - 10 \cdot \log_{10}(MSE) \end{aligned}$$

- MAX_I - the maximum possible value of the sample. For example, when the pixels are represented using 8 bits per sample, this is 255.
- Typical values for the $PSNR$ in lossy image and video compression are between 30 and 50 dB for 8bit depth image, where higher is better.
- In the absence of noise, the two images I and K are identical, and thus the **MSE** is zero. In this case the PSNR is undefined.

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Original uncompressed image Q=90, PSNR 45.53dB Q=30, PSNR 36.81dB Q=10, PSNR 31.45dB
 Example luma PSNR values for a [jpeg](#) compressed image at various quality levels.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peak_signal-to-noise_ratio

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Lossy Compression – Simple Examples

- Subsampling:
 - retain only samples on a *subsampling grid* (spatial/temporal).
 - See examples in previous lecture
 - Compression achieved by reducing the number of samples
 - Has fundamental limitations: see sampling theorem
- Quantization: quantize with fewer bits
 - Compression achieved by reducing the number of bits per sample
 - Different quantization methods: Scalar uniform/non-uniform quantizations, Vector quantization
 - As Quantization Interval size increases –compression increases (so does error!)
- Can we do better than simple subsampling and quantization?

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Transform Coding

- The rationale behind the transform coding is that if \mathbf{Y} is the result of a transform \mathbf{T} of the input \mathbf{X} in such a way that the components (a.k.a. channels) of \mathbf{Y} are much less correlated, the \mathbf{Y} can be coded more efficiently than \mathbf{X} .
- Eg. Let's assume \mathbf{T} : RGB \rightarrow YCbCr color space conversion
 - \mathbf{T} transforms a RGB image into a YCbCr image.
 - Y(Luminance) component is little related to CbCr (Chrominance).
 - Luminance component can be compressed differently from color components.
 - Human visual system is more sensitive to luminance. So we can apply sub-sampling (a simple compression) to color components or use a bigger quantization interval (less number of bits for the quantization) for color components.
- In general, the transform \mathbf{T} itself does not compress any data. The compression comes from the processing and quantization of the components of \mathbf{Y} .

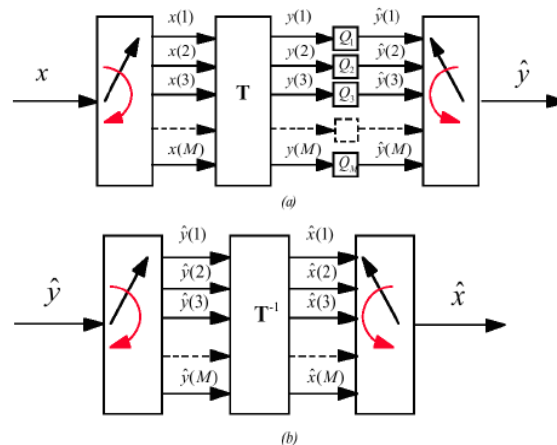
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Transform Coding (2)

- In Transform Coding, a segment of information undergoes an *invertible* mathematical transformation.
- Segments of information can be samples (assume M samples) such as
 - 8x8 pixel block ($M=64$) of an image frame
 - A segment of speech
 - A chunk of data in any other format
- Transform Coding works as follows:
 - Let $\mathbf{X} = \{x(1), x(2), \dots, x(M)\}$ is a segment of information
 - Apply a suitable *invertible* transformation \mathbf{T} (typically a matrix multiplication) to \mathbf{X}
 - \mathbf{Y} is the result of the transformation $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{X}) = \{y(1), y(2), \dots, y(M)\}$
 - Quantize, get $\mathbf{Y}^{\wedge} = \{y^{\wedge}(1), \dots, y^{\wedge}(M)\}$ and transmit \mathbf{Y}^{\wedge}

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Transform Coding (3)



Transform coder (a) and decoder (b).

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Transform Coding (4)

- Quantizers in different channels may have different numbers of quantization levels (different quantization interval size) \Rightarrow each channel ultimately might yield a different number of bits.
- Bit budget B : if we quantize $y(1), \dots, y(M)$ using $B(1), \dots, B(M)$ bits respectively, then

$$B = \sum_{i=1}^{i=M} B(i)$$

- Optimal bit allocation: allocate more bits to those channels that have the highest variance

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Transform Groups

- Frequency transforms— Discrete Fourier transforms, Hadamard transforms, Lapped Orthogonal transforms, Discrete Cosine transforms
 - Involves converting the signal from the sample domain (e.g. 1D time domain for audio and 2D spatial domain for images) to the frequency domain.
- Statistical transforms— Karhunen-Loève Transforms (a.k.a. *Eigenvector Transform*)
- Wavelet transforms— While similar to frequency transforms, these transforms work more efficiently because the input is transformed to a multi-resolution frequency representation.

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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

- The *DCT* is a widely used transform coding technique. It is able to perform de-correlation of the input signal in a data independent manner.
- It has the property that different channels represent the signal power along different (spatial or temporal) *frequencies* similarly to the (discrete) Fourier transform

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Background Before DCT

- DC (Direct Current) : An electrical signal with constant magnitude (eg. A battery carrying 1.5 volts DC)
- AC (Alternating Current) : an electrical signal that changes its magnitude periodically at a certain frequency. (eg. 110 volts AC, 60Hz)
- Most real signal is complex. However, any signal can be expressed as a sum of multiple sinusoidal waveform. (a.k.a. Fourier Analysis)

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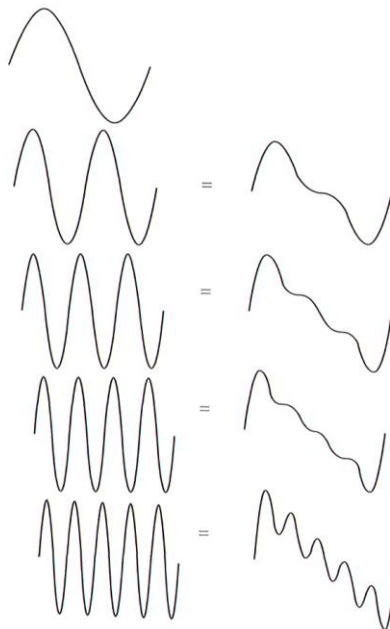
Fundamental
frequency

+ 0.5 \times
2 \times fundamental

+ 0.33 \times
3 \times fundamental

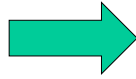
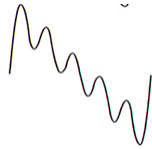
+ 0.25 \times
4 \times fundamental

+ 0.5 \times
5 \times fundamental



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Temporal to Frequency



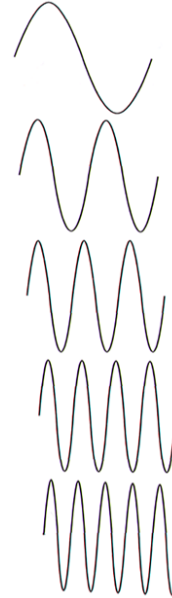
1x
Fundamental
frequency

+ 0.5 ×
2 × fundamental

+ 0.33 ×
3 × fundamental

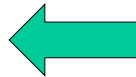
+ 0.25 ×
4 × fundamental

+ 0.5 ×
5 × fundamental



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Frequency to Temporal



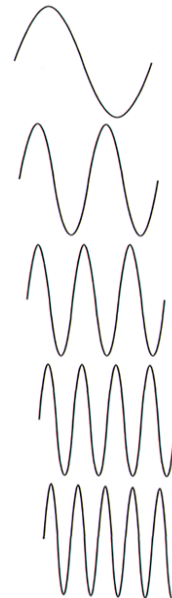
1x
Fundamental
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+ 0.5 ×
2 × fundamental

+ 0.33 ×
3 × fundamental

+ 0.25 ×
4 × fundamental

+ 0.5 ×
5 × fundamental



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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

- Let's start with 1D digital signal.
- Definition of 1D DCT

$$F(u) = \frac{C(u)}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \cos \frac{(2i+1)u\pi}{2M} f(i)$$

where $u = 0, \dots, M-1$

M = the number of samples in the signal

$$C(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \text{if } u = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- 1D DCT transforms the signal $f(i)$ in the **time domain** to $F(u)$ in the **frequency domain**.

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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

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M = the number of samples in the signal

$$C(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \text{if } u = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Plot cos graphs with different frequencies at
<https://www.desmos.com/calculator/nqfu5lxaaj>

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Inverse Discrete Cosine Transform (IDCT)

- Definition of 1D IDCT

$$f(i) = \sum_{u=0}^{M-1} \frac{C(u)}{2} \cos \frac{(2i+1)u\pi}{2M} F(u)$$

where $u = 0, \dots, M - 1$

M = the number of samples in the signal

$$C(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \text{if } u = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- 1D IDCT transforms back the coefficients $F(u)$ in frequency domain into the original signal $f(i)$ in the time domain.

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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

- The role of DCT is to use Cosine function to decompose the original signal into its one DC component and several AC components of the original signal.
- When $u = 0$, DCT yields the DC coefficient. When $u = 1..M-1$, it yields the first, second, ... (M-1)th AC coefficients.
- The role of IDCT is to reconstruct (recompose) the signal using DC and ACs.

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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

- Let's consider $M=8$ then

$$F(u) = \frac{C(u)}{2} \sum_{i=0}^7 \cos \frac{(2i+1)u\pi}{16} f(i) : \text{forward transform}$$

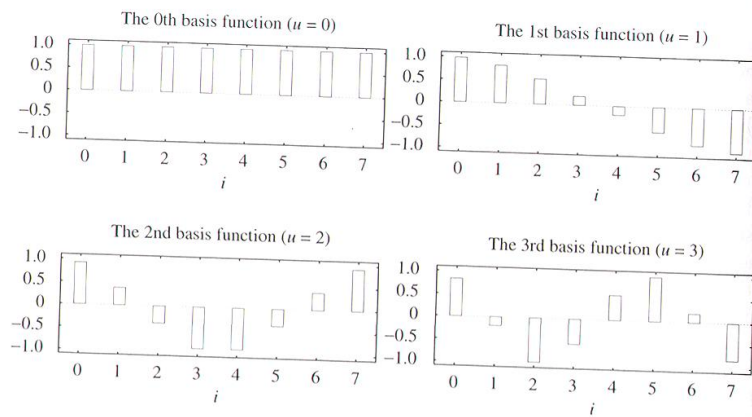
$$f(i) = \sum_{u=0}^7 \frac{C(u)}{2} \cos \frac{(2i+1)u\pi}{16} F(u) : \text{inverse transform}$$

where $i = 0, \dots, 7$ and $u = 0, \dots, 7$

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1D DCT Basis Functions

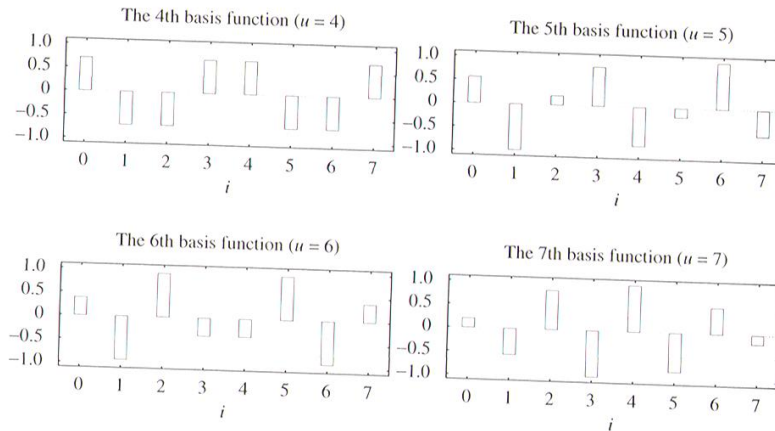
- Let's consider $M=8$, then we have following basis cosine functions.



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1D DCT Basis Functions

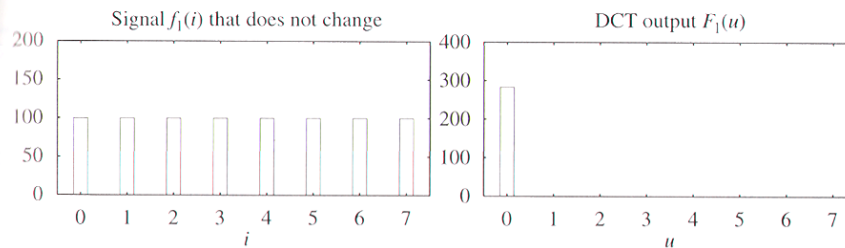
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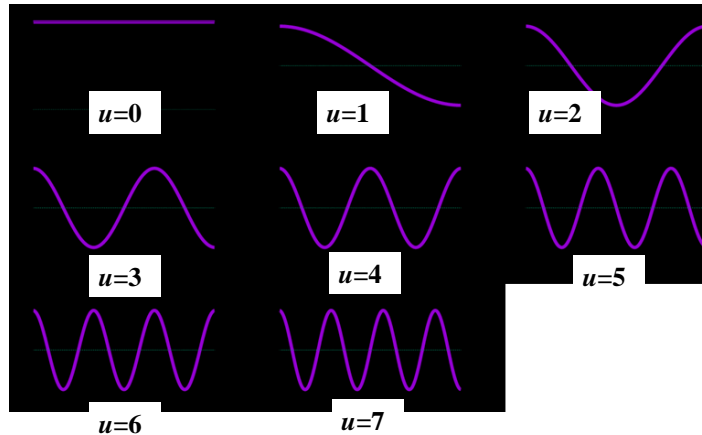
Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) - Example

- If the original signal $f_I(i) = 100, i = 0, \dots, 7$ ($M=8$), then $F_I(0) \approx 283, F_I(1) = F_I(2) = \dots = F_I(7) = 0$



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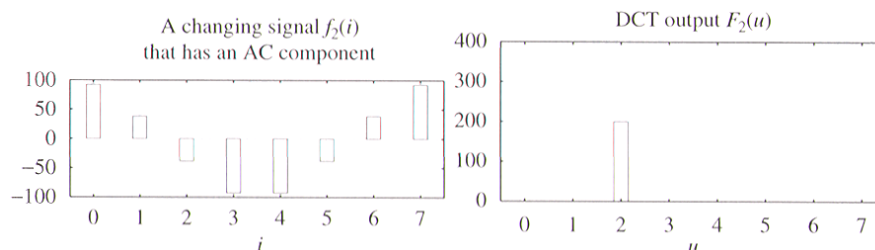
1D DCT Basis Functions : DCT0 ~ DCT 7



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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) - Example

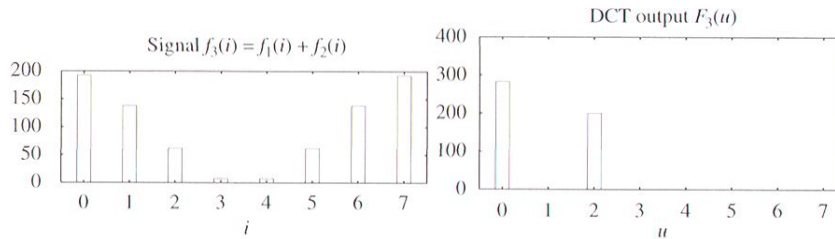
- If the original signal $f_2(i)$ has the same frequency and phase as the second cosine basis function and its amplitude is 100, then $F_2(0)=0$, $F_2(1)=0$, $F_2(2)=200$, $F_2(3)=\dots=F_2(7)=0$



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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) - Example

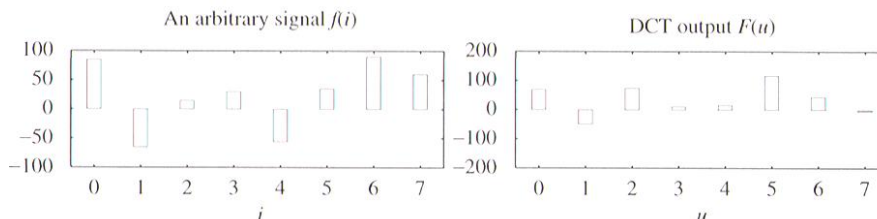
- If the original signal $f_3(i)$ is the sum of the previous two signals ($f_3(i) = f_1(i) + f_2(i)$), then $F_3(0)=283$, $F_3(1)=0$, $F_3(2)=200$, $F_3(3)=\dots = F_3(7)=0$



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Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) - Example

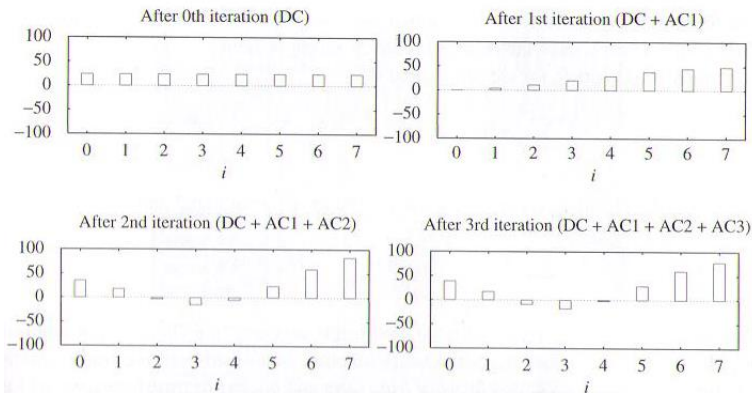
- If the original signal $f(i)$ has $f(0)=85$, $f(1)=-65$, $f(2)=15$, $f(3)=30$, $f(4)=-56$, $f(5)=35$, $f(6)=90$, $f(7)=60$, then $F(0)=69$, $F(1)=-49$, $F(2)=74$, $F(3)=11$, $F(4)=16$, $F(5)=117$, $F(6)=44$, $F(7)=-5$



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IDCT Example

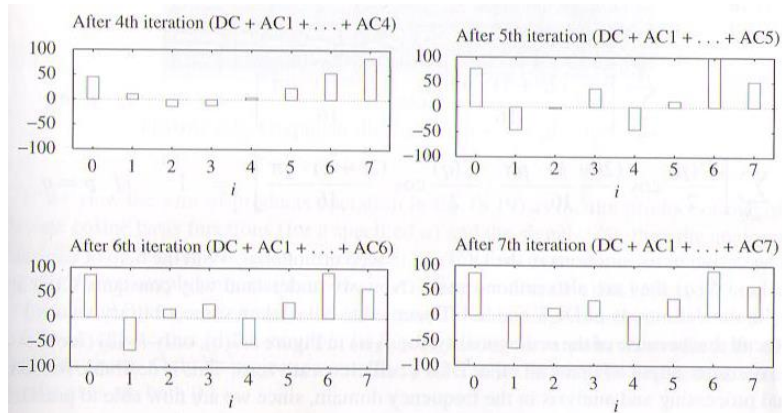
- $F(u)$: 69, -49, 74, 11, 16, 117, 44, -5 where $u=0,\dots,7$



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IDCT Example

- $F(u)$: 69, -49, 74, 11, 16, 117, 44, -5 where $u=0,\dots,7$



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Orthonormal Basis Functions

Functions $B_p(i)$ and $B_q(i)$ are orthonormal if

$$\sum_i [B_p(i) \cdot B_q(i)] = 0, p \neq q$$

$$\sum_i [B_p(i) \cdot B_q(i)] = 1, p = q$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^7 \left[\cos \frac{(2i+1)p\pi}{16} \cdot \cos \frac{(2i+1)q\pi}{16} \right] = 0, p \neq q$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^7 \left[\frac{C(p)}{2} \cos \frac{(2i+1)p\pi}{16} \cdot \frac{C(q)}{2} \cos \frac{(2i+1)q\pi}{16} \right] = 1, p = q$$

- DCT basis functions (with the help of C(u)) are orthonormal. With this property, the signal is not amplified during the transformation. We get the same signal back.

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Summary – 1D Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

- The 0th DCT coefficient $F(0)$
 - $F(0)$ corresponds to the DC component of the signal $f(i)$.
 - $F(0)$ is equal to the average magnitude of the signal.
- The other seven DCT coefficients
 - They reflect the various changes (AC) components at different frequencies.
 - If we denote $F(1)$ as AC1, $F(2)$ as AC2... $F(7)$ as AC7, then AC1 completes half a cycle as a cosine function over [0..7] (low frequency); AC2 completes a full cycle; ... ; and AC7 completes three and a half cycle (high frequency).

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2D DCT Formula

- 2D Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) and Inverse DCT

* *DCT*

$$F(u, v) = \frac{C(u)C(v)}{4} \sum_{i=0}^7 \sum_{j=0}^7 \cos \frac{(2i+1)u\pi}{16} \cos \frac{(2j+1)v\pi}{16} f(i, j)$$

* *IDCT*

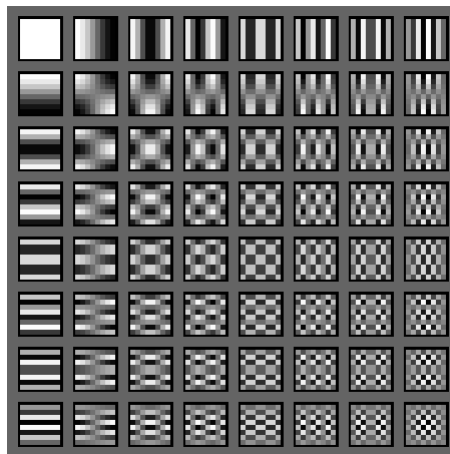
$$f(i, j) = \sum_{u=0}^7 \sum_{v=0}^7 \frac{C(u)C(v)}{4} \cos \frac{(2i+1)u\pi}{16} \cos \frac{(2j+1)v\pi}{16} F(u, v)$$

where $i, j, u, v = 0, 1, \dots, 7$

$$C(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

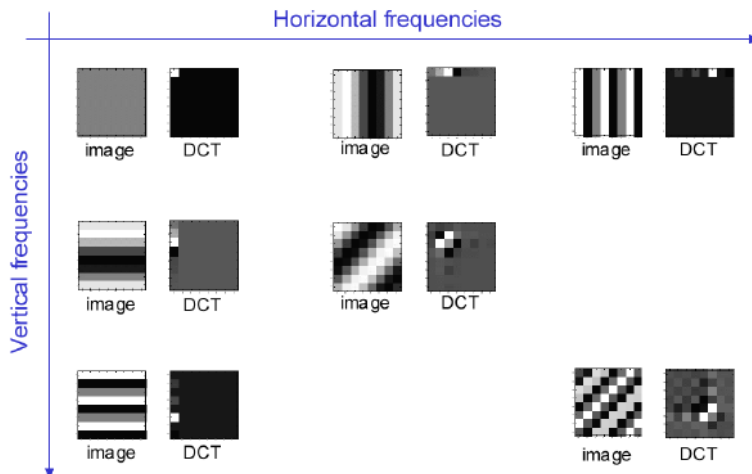
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8x8 2D DCT Basis Functions



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Examples of 8x8 DCTs



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DCT for Compression

- How can we use this transformation for compression?
 - Each component is little dependent to each other.
 - Human visual system is less sensitive to high frequency components.
 - So we apply different quantization interval size to each components. i.e. More bits for DC component and less bits for AC components.

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