Digital Image Processing

Lecture #12 Ming-Sui (Amy) Lee

Course Information

Following Schedule

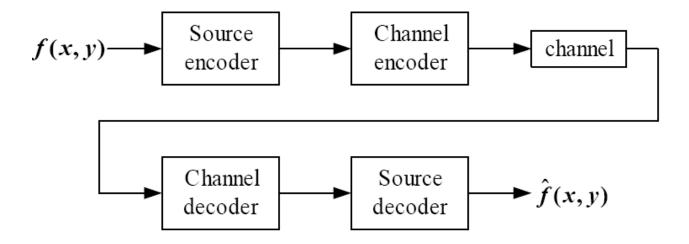
| 04/01 | Lecture 5 | 05/20 | Lecture 10 |
|-------|-----------|-------|-------------------|
| 04/08 | Lecture 6 | 05/27 | Lecture 11 |
| 04/15 | Lecture 7 | 06/03 | Lecture 12 |
| 04/22 | Midterm | 06/10 | Demo |
| 04/29 | Lecture 8 | 06/17 | Demo |
| 05/06 | Proposal | 06/24 | Final Package Due |
| 05/13 | Lecture 9 | | |

Announcement

- Final demo video
 - Due: 11:59 a.m. on Jun. 9, 2021
 - 10~12 minutes for each team
 - Video format: mpg, avi, mp4 or wmv
 - Provide a valid link on NTU COOL for us to download
 - DIP_Teamxx_FinalDemo.mpg/avi/mp4/wmv
 - Remember to include
 - Paper title / Motivation / Problem definition /
 - Algorithm / Experimental results
 - Reference



Compression Model



- The encoder is composed of a source encoder and a channel encoder
 - Source encoder remove input redundancies
 - Channel encoder
 increase the noise immunity of the source encoder's output

Compression Model

Source encoder

 reduce or eliminate any coding, interpixel, or psychovisual redundancies in an input image

Channel encoder

- If the channel between the encoder and decoder is noise free (not prone to error), the channel encoder and decoder are omitted
- As the output of the source encoder contains little redundancy, it would be highly sensitive to transmission noise without the addition of the "controlled redundancy"

Compression Model

- Examples of source coding and channel coding
 - Source coding
 - Huffman code
 - Arithmetic code
 - Channel coding
 - Hamming code

Source Coding - Huffman Code

Entropy

 From information theory, the average number of bits needed to encode the symbols in a source S is always bounded by the entropy of S

$$H = \sum p_i \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}$$

• E.g.
$$i=2, p_1=1, p_2=0$$
 $\Rightarrow H=0$
$$p_1=1/2, p_2=1/2 \Rightarrow H=1 \ bits/symbol$$

$$i = 4, p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = 1/4 \implies H = 2 \text{ bits / symbol}$$

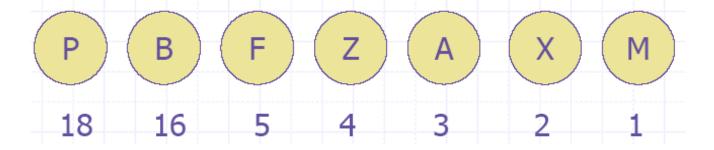
Source Coding

- Huffman code
 - Given the statistical distribution of the gray levels
 - Generate a code that is as close as possible to the minimum bound, entropy
 - A variable length code

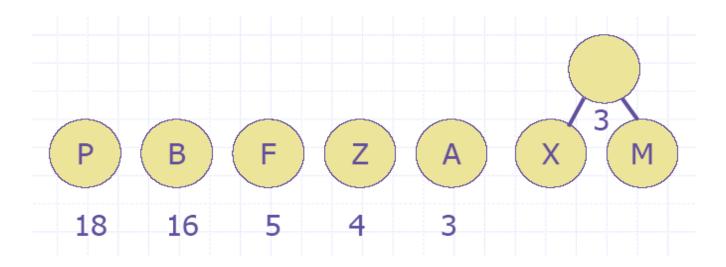
Five steps:

- Find the gray-level probabilities for the image by finding the histogram
- Order the input probabilities (histogram magnitudes)from smallest to largest
- Combine the smallest two by addition (if multiple → Not a unique code)
 - → Repeat until one tree is formed
- For each node, assign 0 to the left, 1 to the right
- Traverse the tree from root to the leaf to generate the code

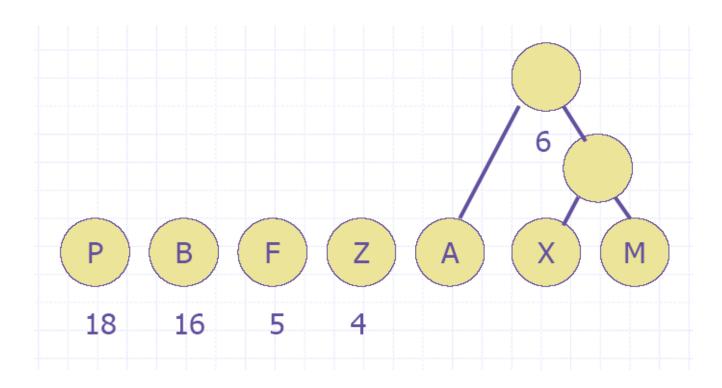
- Example
 - Relative frequency of characters in a message text
 - A larger number indicates higher frequency of use
 - □ Higher frequency → shorter code
 - □ Lower frequency → longer code



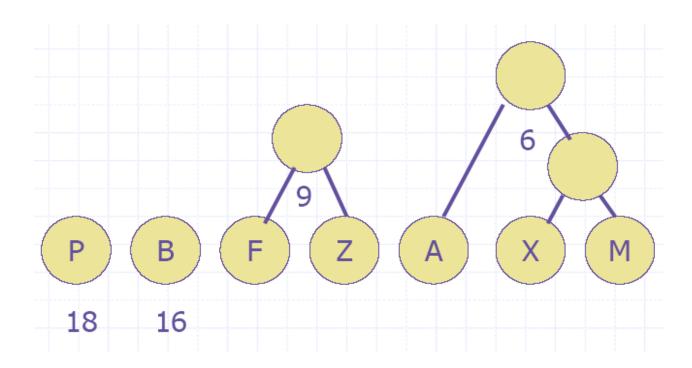
Group lowest sum up the frequencies



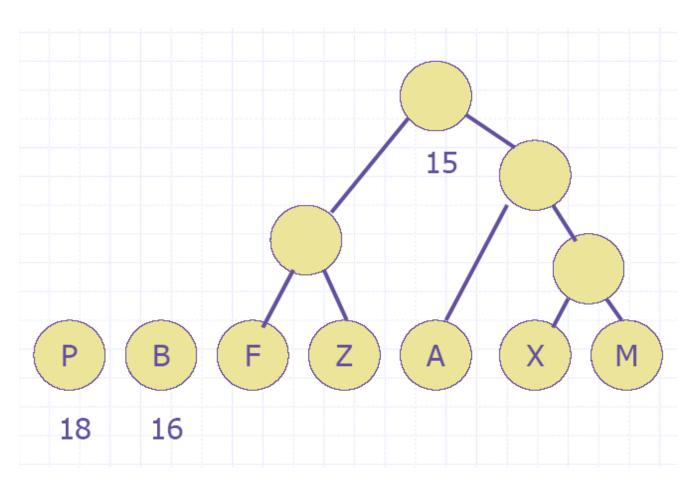
□ Group next two lowest



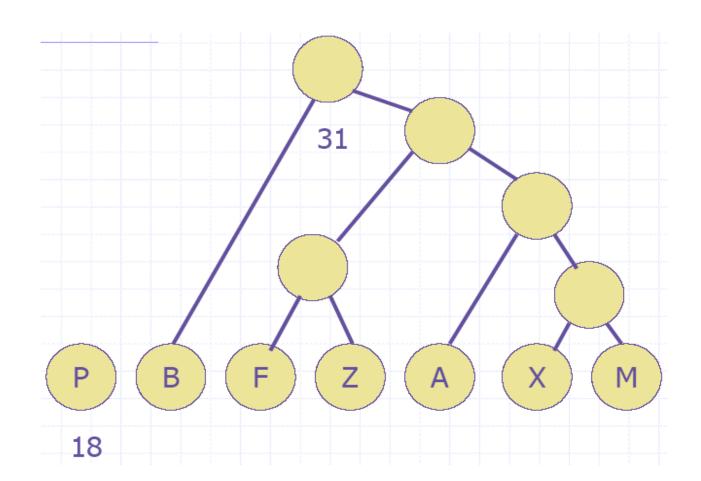
Group next two lowest



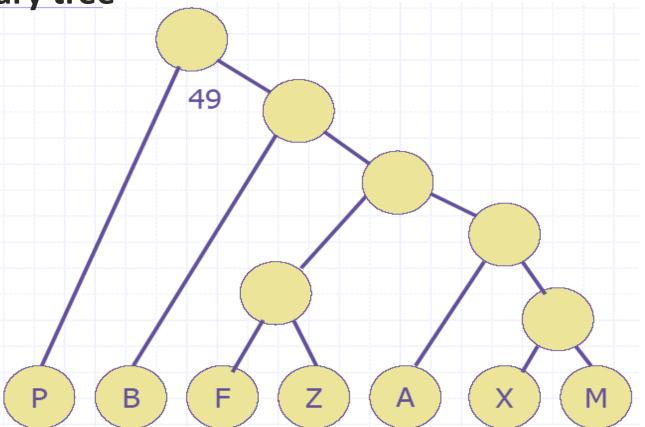
□ Group next two lowest



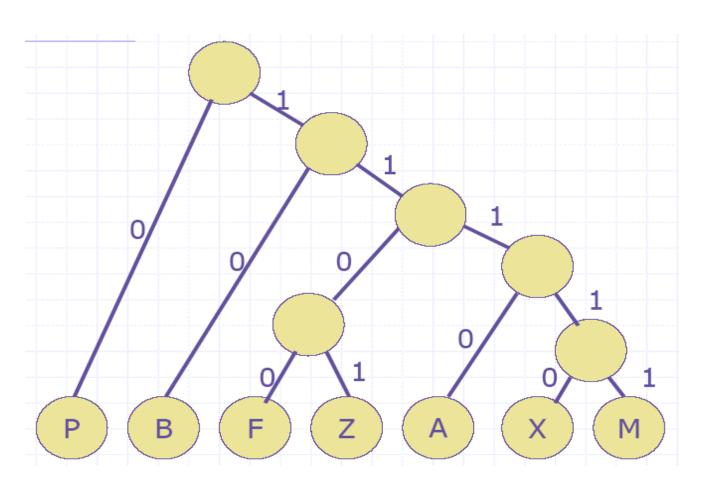
□ Group next two lowest



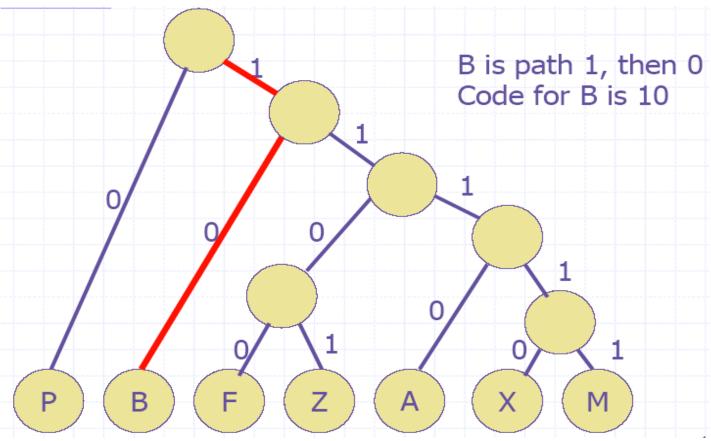
 Finally all characters are leaf nodes of a single binary tree



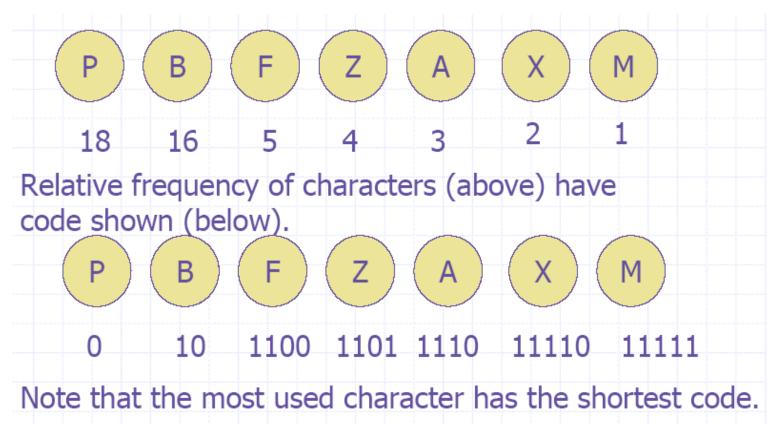
□ Assign 0 to left and 1 to right



 Code for a character is the path to that character node from the root



Code for a character is the path to that character node from the root



Encode the following message

Message text is: PAMBAZ Message coded is: 01110111111011101101 1100 10 1101 1110

How to decode the coded message?

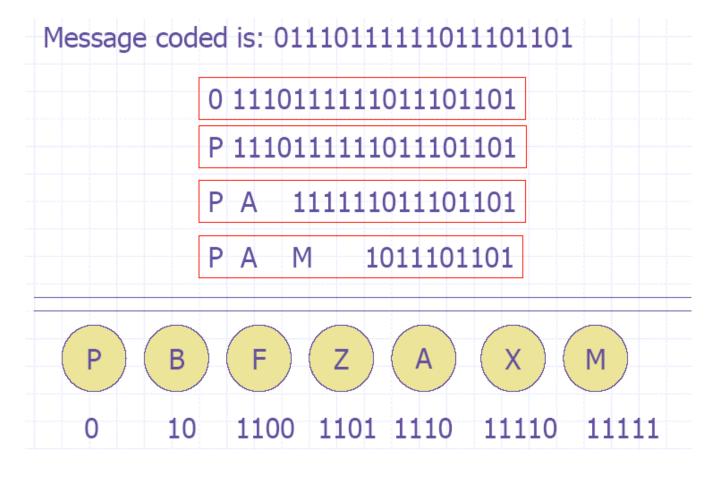
Message coded is: 01110111111011101101

Read the code bit by bit, as the bits correspond to some Character, accept that series of bits as that character

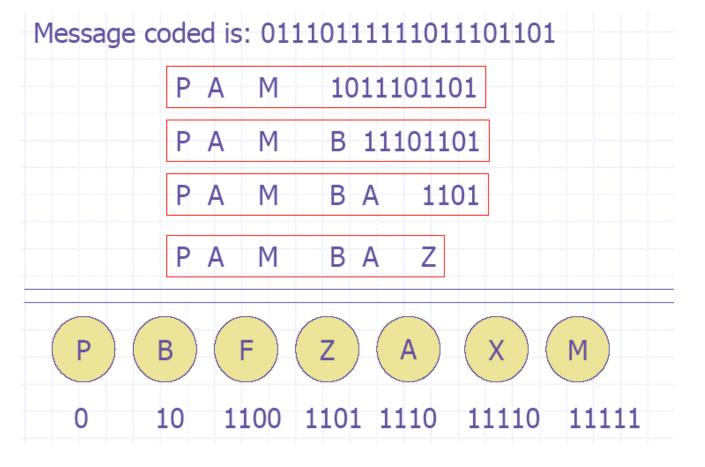
P B F Z A X M

0 10 1100 1101 1110 11111

How to decode the coded message?

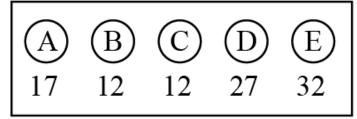


How to decode the coded message?



- Another example
 - A character's code is found by starting at the root and following the branches that lead to that character. The code itself is the bit value of each branch on the path, taken in sequence

Frequency of characters



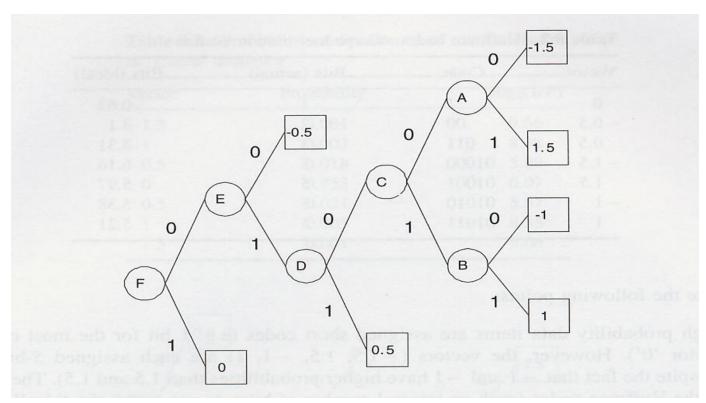
- Shorter codes are assigned to higher probability data items
- No code contains any other codes as a prefix
- Reading from the left-hand bit, each code is uniquely decodable

- Another example
 - Carphone sequence
 - Probability of motion vectors



| Vector | Probability P | $\log_2(1/P)$ |
|--------|---------------|---------------|
| | 0.014 | 6.16 |
| -1 | 0.024 | 5.38 |
| -0.5 | 0.117 | 3.10 |
| 0 | 0.646 | 0.63 |
| 0.5 | 0.101 | 3.31 |
| 1 | 0.027 | 5.21 |
| 1.5 | 0.016 | 5.97 |

- Another example
 - Huffman tree for Carphone sequence



- Another example
 - Huffman code for motion vectors of Carphone sequence

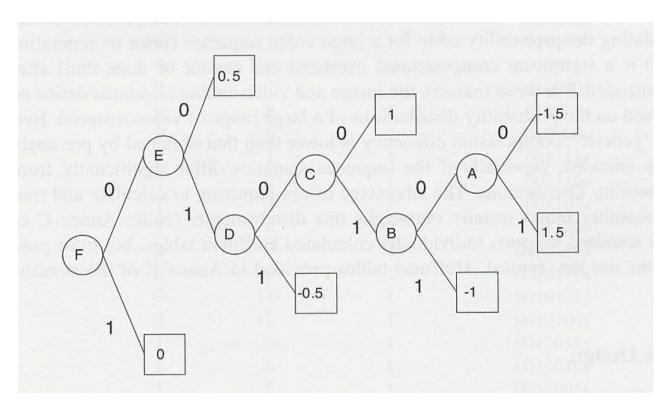
| Code | Bits (actual) |
|-------|---|
| 1 | 1 |
| 00 | 2 |
| 011 | 3 |
| 01000 | 5 |
| 01001 | 5 |
| 01010 | 5 |
| 01011 | 5 |
| | 1 00 011 01000 01001 01010 |

- Another example
 - Claire sequence
 - Probability of motion vectors



| Vector | Probability | $\log_2(1/P)$ |
|--------|-------------|---------------|
| -1.5 | 0.001 | 9.66 |
| -1 | 0.003 | 8.38 |
| -0.5 | 0.018 | 5.80 |
| 0 | 0.953 | 0.07 |
| 0.5 | 0.021 | 5.57 |
| 1 | 0.003 | 8.38 |
| 1.5 | 0.001 | 9.66 |

- Another example
 - Huffman tree for Claire sequence

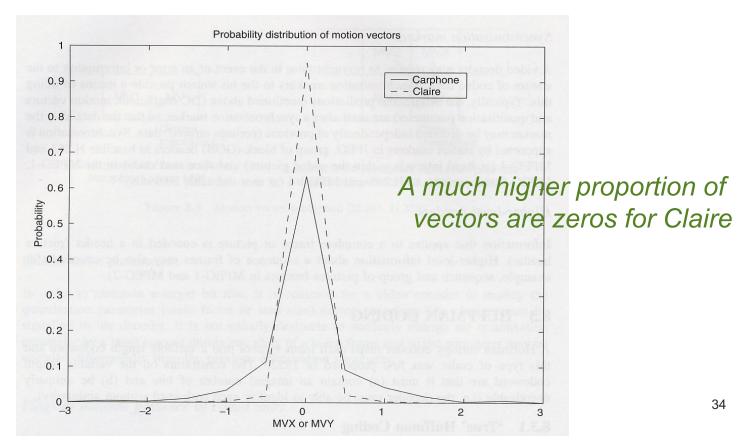


- Another example
 - Huffman code for motion vectors in Claire sequence

| Vector | Code | Bits (actual) |
|--------|-----------------|----------------|
| 0 | Lawellow 1 1000 | and olice 1006 |
| 0.5 | 00 | 2 |
| -0.5 | 011 | 3 |
| 1 | 0100 | 4 |
| -1 | 01011 | 5 |
| -1.5 | 010100 | 6 |
| 1.5 | 010101 | 6 |

 To achieve optimum compression, a separate code table is required for each of the two sequences, Carphone and Claire

- Distribution of motion vectors
 - Carphone and Claire sequences



Source Coding - Arithmetic Code

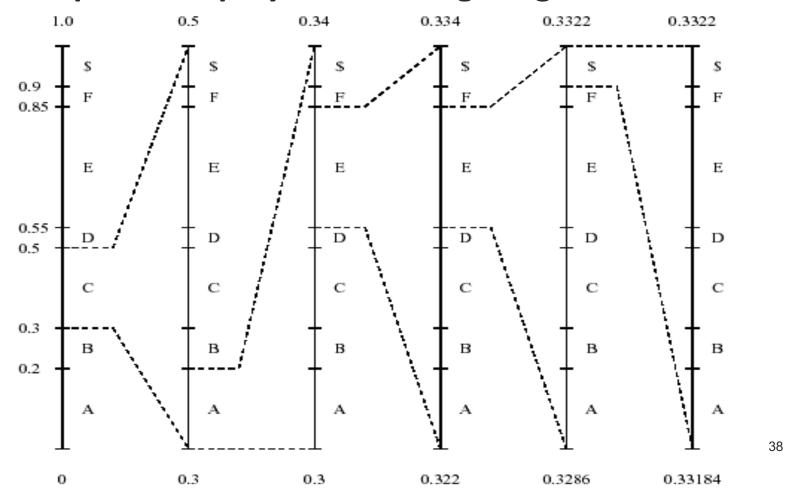
Arithmetic Code

- Use the probability distribution of the data
- Convert sequence of data symbols into a single fractional/floating point number between 0 and 1
- The longer the sequence of symbols, the greater the precision required to represent the fractional number
- No direct correspondence between the code and the individual pixel values
- Theoretically achieves the maximum compression
- Quite different from Huffman coding, arithmetic coding is stream-based. It overcomes the drawbacks of Huffman coding

Arithmetic Coding Encoder

```
BEGIN
   low=0.0;
                 high=1.0;
                               range=1.0;
   while (symbol != terminator)
          get (symbol);
          low=low+range*Range_low(symbol);
          high=low+range*Range_high(symbol);
          range=high-low;
   output a code so that low<= code<high;
END
```

Graphical display of shrinking ranges for "CAEE\$"



- Encode symbols "CAEE\$"
 - New low, high and range generated

| Symbol | low | high | range | |
|--------|-------------|---------|---------|--|
| | 0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | |
| C | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.2 | |
| Α | A 0.30 0.34 | | 0.04 | |
| Е | 0.322 | 0.334 | 0.012 | |
| Е | 0.3286 | 0.3322 | 0.0036 | |
| \$ | 0.33184 | 0.33220 | 0.00036 | |

Generating codeword for encoder BEGIN

```
code=0;
k=1;
while (value(code)<low)
    { assign 1 to the kth binary fraction bit
    if (value(code) > high)
        replace the kth bit by 0
        k=k+1;
    }
```

END

The final step in Arithmetic encoding calls for the generation of a number that falls within the range [low, high). The above algorithm will ensure that the shortest binary codeword is found

Arithmetic coding decoder BEGIN

```
get the binary code and convert to decimal value =
value(code);
Do
   { find a symbol s so that
     Range_low(s) <= value < Range_high(s);
     output s;
     low=Range low(s);
     high=Range_high(s);
     range =high-low;
    value=[value-low]/range;
Until symbol s is a terminator
```

Decode symbols "CAEE\$"

```
low=Range_low(s);
high=Range_high(s);
range =high-low;
value=[value-low]/range;
```

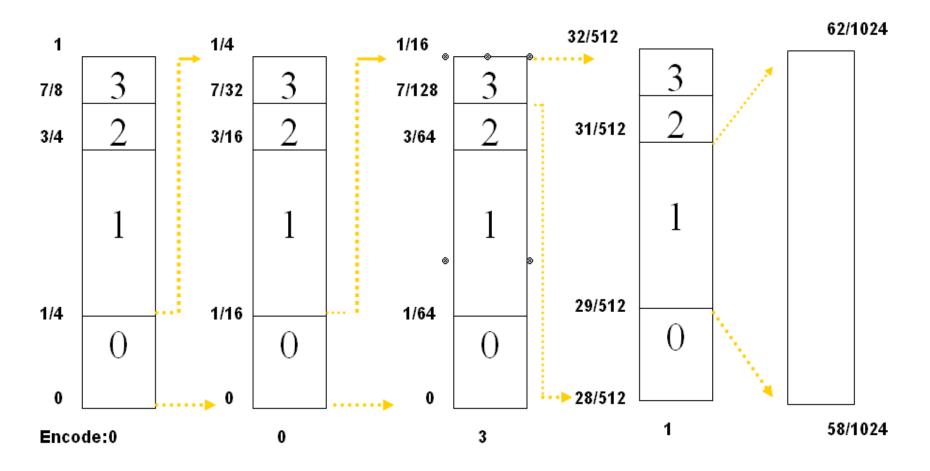
. . .

| value | Output Symbol | low | high | range |
|------------|---------------|------|------|-------|
| 0.33203125 | С | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.2 |
| 0.16015625 | А | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| 0.80078125 | E | 0.55 | 0.85 | 0.3 |
| 0.8359375 | E | 0.55 | 0.85 | 0.3 |
| 0.953125 | \$ | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.1 |

Another example

Probability Table

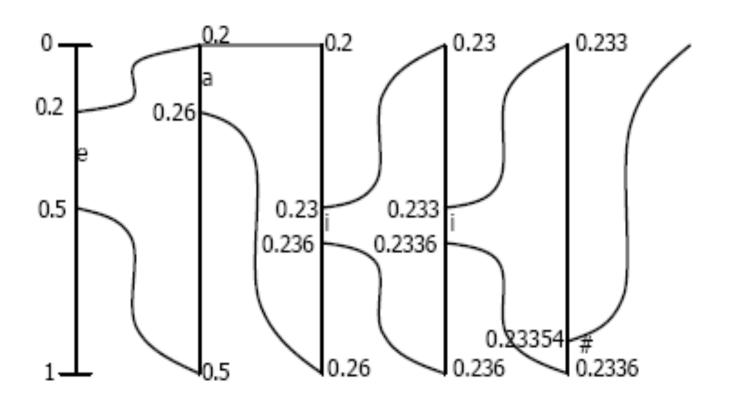
| Pixel value | probability | Initial Subinterval |
|-------------|-------------|------------------------|
| 0 | 64/256=1/4 | 0 - 1/4 |
| 1 | 128/256=1/2 | 1/4 - 3/4 |
| 2 | 32/256=1/8 | 3/4 - 7/8 |
| 3 | 32/256=1/8 | 7/8 - 1 |



Example

| Letter | Probability | Interval |
|--------|-------------|-----------|
| a | 0.2 | [0,0.2) |
| е | 0.3 | [0.2,0.5) |
| i | 0.1 | [0.5,0.6) |
| 0 | 0.2 | [0.6,0.8) |
| u | 0.1 | [0.8,0.9) |
| # | 0.1 | [0.9,1) |

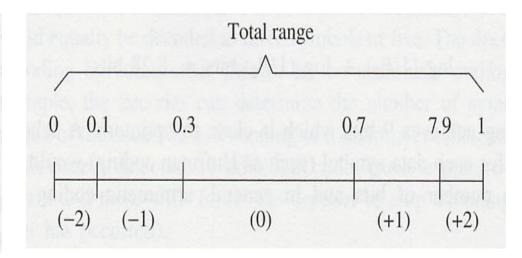
■ Message can be any $x \in [0.23354, 0.2336)$



Example

 Each vector is assigned a subrange within the range 0-1 depending on its probability of occurrence

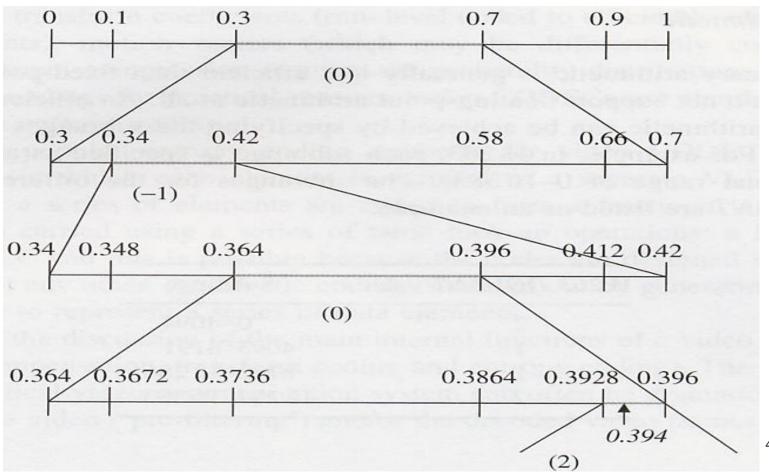
| Vector | Probability | Subrange |
|--------|-------------|----------|
| -2 | 0.1 | 0-0.1 |
| -1 | 0.2 | 0.1-0.3 |
| 0 | 0.4 | 0.3-0.7 |
| 1 | 0.2 | 0.7-0.9 |
| 2 | 0.1 | 0.9-1.0 |



Encoding procedure

| Encoding procedure | Range $(L \rightarrow H)$ | Symbol | Subrange $(L \rightarrow H)$ | Notes |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|--------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Set the initial range | 0 → 1.0 | and Of | | |
| 2. For the first data | | (0) | $0.3 \rightarrow 0.7$ | |
| symbol, find the | | | | |
| corresponding subrange | | | | |
| (low to high). | | | | |
| 3. Set the new range (1) | $0.3 \rightarrow 0.7$ | | | |
| to this subrange | | | | |
| 4. For the next data symbol, | | (-1) | $0.1 \rightarrow 0.3$ | This is the subrange |
| find the subrange L to H | | | | within the interval 0–1 |
| 5. Set the new range (2) to | $0.34 \rightarrow 0.42$ | | | 0.34 is 10% of the range; |
| this subrange within the | | | | 0.42 is 30% of the range |
| previous range | | | | |
| 6. Find the next subrange | | (0) | $0.3 \rightarrow 0.7$ | |
| 7. Set the new range (3) | $0.364 \rightarrow 0.396$ | | | 0.364 is 30% of the range; |
| within the previous range | | | | 0.396 is 70% of the range |
| 8. Find the next subrange | | (2) | $0.9 \rightarrow 1.0$ | |
| 9. Set the new range (4) | $0.3928 \rightarrow 0.396$ | | | 0.3928 is 90% of the range; |
| within the previous range | | | | 0.396 is 100% of the range |
| | | | | |

Example



Decoding procedure

The sequence of subranges (and hence the sequence of data symbols) can be decoded from this number as follows.

| Decoding procedure | Range | Subrange | Decoded symbol |
|---|--|-------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Set the initial range | $0 \rightarrow 1$ | | symbol, and the |
| 2. Find the subrange in which the received number falls. This indicates the first data symbol | exceeds that pp. are | $0.3 \rightarrow 0.7$ | (0) |
| 3. Set the new range (1) to this subrange | $0.3 \to 0.7$ | | |
| 4. Find the subrange of the new range in which the received number falls. This indicates the second data symbol | | $0.34 \rightarrow 0.42$ | (-1) |
| 5. Set the new range (2) to this subrange within the previous range | $0.34 \rightarrow 0.42$ | | |
| 6. Find the subrange in which the received number falls and decode the third data symbol | age of the state o | $0.364 \to 0.396$ | (0) |
| 7. Set the new range (3) to this subrange within the previous range | $0.364 \to 0.396$ | | |
| 8. Find the subrange in which the received number falls and decode the fourth data symbol | | $0.3928 \to 0.396$ | 5 (2) |

- An optional alternative to Huffman coding in several video coding standards(e.g. H.263, MPEG-4,H.26L)
- Pre-calculated subranges are defined by the standard (based on typical probability distributions)
 - Advantage: avoiding the need to calculate and transmit probability distributions
 - Disadvantage: suboptimal compression
- Syntax-based Arithmetic coding (SAC) in H.263 (about 5% decrease in bit-rate)

- Patent Issues
 - IBM's Q-coder
 - Q-Coder adaptive binary arithmetic coder
 - Some developers of commercial video coding systems have avoided the use of arithmetic coding because of concerns about potential patent infringement
 - H.264/AVC
 - Arithmetic coding is optional

Channel Coding - Hamming Code

- Hamming code
 - Popular error correcting code in RAM
 - Richard Hamming 1950
- In Hamming code
 - k bits parity code (check bit) and
 - n data code (data bit)
 - form a (n+k) data word
 - Allocate parity codes to the positions of power of 2
 - May be applied to any length of code

Hamming code

Example: 8 bits data 11000100

1
 2
 3
 4
 5
 6
 7
 8
 9
 10
 11
 12

$$P_1$$
 P_2
 1
 P_4
 1
 0
 0
 P_8
 0
 1
 0
 0

- P1=the XOR of bit(3, 5, 7, 9, 11) = $1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 0$
- P2=the XOR of bit(3, 6, 7, 10, 11) = $1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 = 0$
- P4=the XOR of bit(5, 6, 7, 12) = $1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 1$
- P8=the XOR of bit(9, 10, 11, 12) = $0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 1$

Hamming code

Example: 12 bits data word

O Check:

- C1 = the XOR of bits (1,3,5,7,9,11)
- C2 = the XOR of bits (2,3,6,7,10,11)
- C4 = the XOR of bits (4,5,6,7,12)
- C8 = the XOR of bits (8,9,10,11,12)
- C = C8C4C2C1 = 0 0 0 0 (no error occur)

Check (cont'd)

 If C ≠0, then the 4-bit binary number formed by the check bits gives the position of the erroneous bit.
 For example :

| 1 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | Bit position |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----------------|
| 0 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | No error |
| 1 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Error in bit 1 |
| 0 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Error in bit 5 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | C ₈ | C_4 | C_2 | C_1 |
|----------------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| For no error: | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| With error in bit 1: | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| With error in bit 5: | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |

If a nonzero value is found, the decoder simply complements the codeword bit position indicated by the parity word

k bits v.s. n data bits

| Number of check nits, k | Range of data bits, n |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 3 | 2-4 |
| 4 | 5-11 |
| 5 | 12-26 |
| 6 | 27-57 |
| 7 | 58-120 |

- Hamming code
 - Linear code
 - Can be computed in the form of matrices
- Example: 4 data bits: 1011
 - **□** Code generator matrix

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Parity-check matrix

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Hamming code
 - Example (cont'd)

$$h = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Case1:

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Case2:

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$