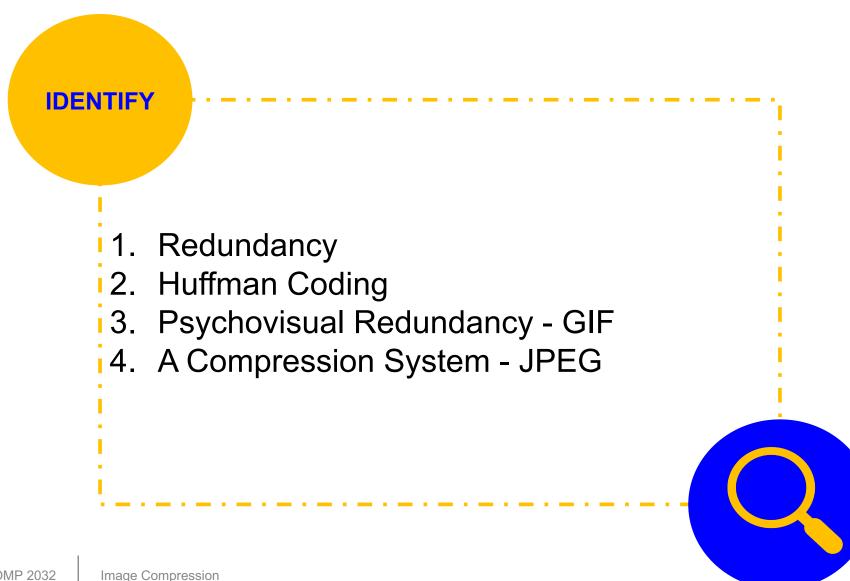


## Introduction to Image Processing

Lecture 10 Image Compression



## **Learning Outcomes**





## Redundancy



## **Image Compression**

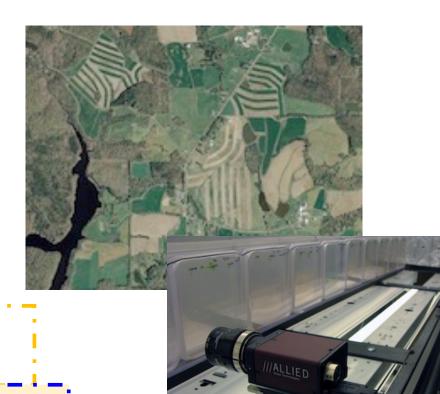
Individual image(s)

Are easy to acquire, collections increases rapidly

In some applications, images are gathered automatically

Luckily, image data is redundant in several ways

- Coding redundancy
- Spatial redundancy
- Psychovisual redundancy





## **Coding Redundancy**

The grey level histogram of an image gives the probability (frequency)

of occurrence of grey level r<sub>k</sub>—

$$p(r_k) = \frac{n_k}{n} \qquad k = 0, 2, ..., L - 1$$

If the number of bits used to represent each value of  $r_k$  is  $I(r_k)$ , the average number of bits required to represent a pixel is

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k) p(r_k)$$

To code an MxN image requires MNL<sub>avg</sub> bits



## **Coding Redundancy**

If an m-bit natural binary code is used to represent grey level then

- All pixels take the same amount of space,
- $P(r_k)$  value sum to 1, so:

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k) p(r_k) = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} mp(r_k) = m$$

- And an image occupies MN<sub>m</sub> bits

But some pixel values are more common than others...



## Variable Length Encoding

Assigning fewer bits to the more probable grey levels than to less probable ones can achieve data compression, e.g.:

$r_k$	$p_r(r_k)$	Code 1	$l_1(r_k)$	Code 2	$l_2(r_k)$
$r_{87} = 87$	0.25	01010111	8	01	2
$r_{128} = 128$	0.47	10000000	8	1	1
$r_{186} = 186$	0.25	11000100	8	000	3
$r_{255} = 255$	0.03	11111111	8	001	3
$r_k$ for $k \neq 87, 128, 186, 255$	0	_	8	_	0

Build a codebook, replace 'true' pixel values with code



The process can be reversed by inverting the codebook

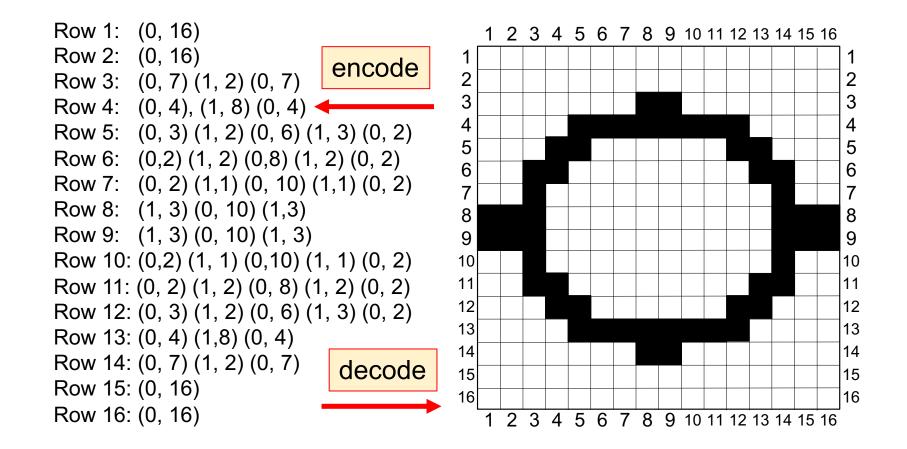


## **Spatial Redundancy**

- Sometimes called Interpixel Redundancy
- Neighbouring pixels often have similar values
- Compression based on spatial redundancy involves some element of pixel grouping or transformation
- Simplest is Run-Length Encoding
  - Maps the pixels along each scan line into a sequence of pairs (g<sub>1</sub>, r<sub>1</sub>), (g<sub>2</sub>, r<sub>2</sub>), ...,
  - Where g<sub>i</sub> is the ith grey level, r<sub>i</sub> is the run length of ith run



## **A Binary Example**





## **Psychovisual Redundancy**

Some grey level and colour differences are imperceptible; goal is to compress without noticeable change to the image







16 grey levels



16 grey levels



number to each pixel before quantization

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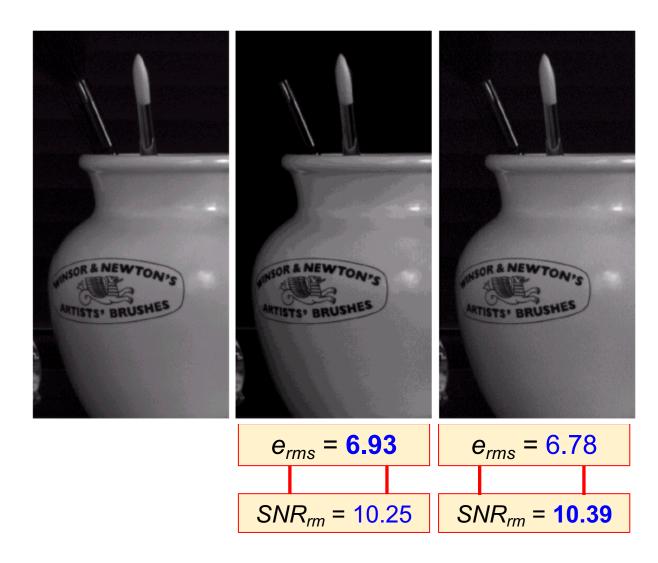
## **Evaluating Compression**

- Fidelity Criteria: success is judged by comparing original and compressed version
- Some measures are objective, e.g., root mean square error (e<sub>rms</sub>) and signal to noise ratio (SNR)
- Let f(x,y) be the input image, f'(x,y) be reconstructed input image from compressed bit stream, then

$$e_{rms} = \left(\frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} (f'(x,y) - f(x,y))^{2}\right)^{1/2} SNR = \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} (f'(x,y))^{2}}{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} (f'(x,y) - f(x,y))^{2}}$$



## **Fidelity Criteria**





## **Fidelity Criteria**

- E<sub>rms</sub> and SNR are convenient objective measures
- Most decompressed images are viewed by human beings
- Subjective evaluation of compressed image quality by human observers are often more appropriate

Rating scale of Television Allocations Study Organisation. (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.

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## **Image Compression Systems**

- Transform input data in a way that facilitates reduction of interpixel redundancies
- Reversible
- Transform input data in a way that facilitates reduction of psychovisual redundancies
- Not reversible

- Assigns the shortest code to the most frequently occurring output values
- Reversible

Symbol coder

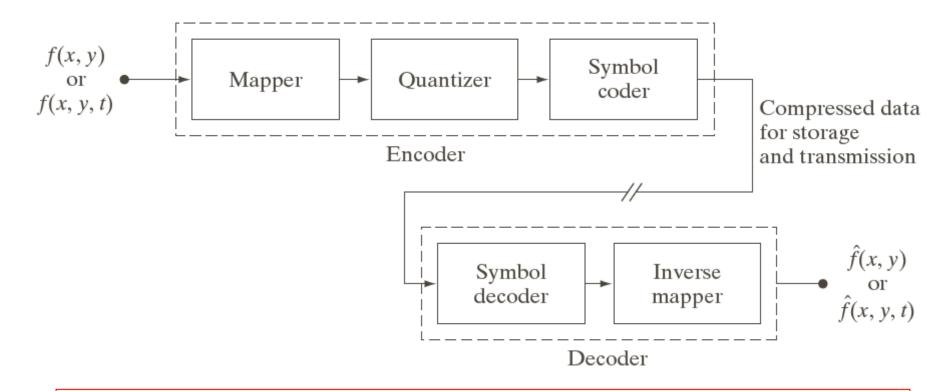
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Mapper

Quantiser



## **Image Compression Systems**



Functional block diagram of a general image compression system

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## **Exploiting Coding Redundancy**

Try to maintain a high level of information in compressed images

- These methods are derived from information theory.
- Not limited to images, are applicable to any digital information
  - Speak of symbols instead of pixel values and sources instead of images
  - Exploit nonuniform probabilities of symbols (nonuniform histogram) and use a variable-length code

Evaluation requires a measure of the information content of a source:

**Entropy** 

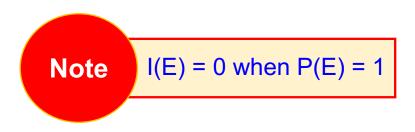


## **Entropy**

- The 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



Suppose that grey level values are generated by a random variable, then r<sub>k</sub> contains:

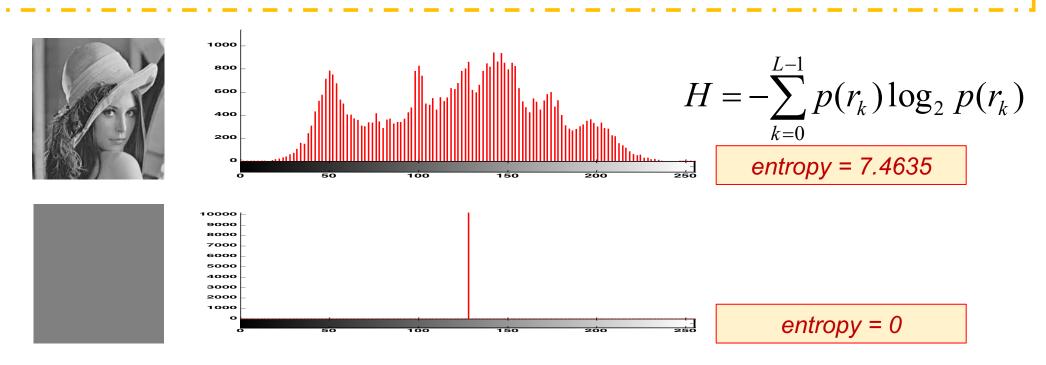
$$I(r_k) = -\log(P(r_k))$$

units of information



## **Entropy**

Entropy is the average information content of an image, a measure of histogram dispersion



Can't compress to less than H bits/pixel without losing information



- Compute probabilities of each symbol by histogramming the source
- Process probabilities to pre-compute codebook: code(i)

- Encode source symbol-by-symbol:-

symbol(i) -> code (i)

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- Transmit coded signal and codebook

Codebook is static (fixed)

- The need to pre-process (histogram) the source before encoding begins is a disadvantage



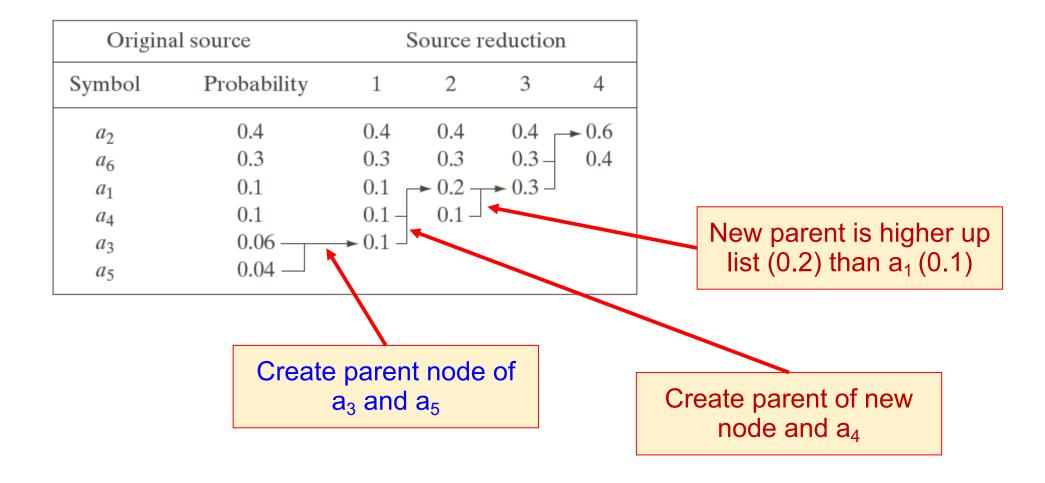
#### Builds a binary tree in which symbols to be coded are nodes

- Create a list of nodes, one per for symbol, sorted in order of symbol frequency (or probability)
- REPEAT (until only one node left)
  - Pick the two nodes with the lowest frequencies/probabilities and create a parent of them
  - Randomly assign the codes 0, 1 to the two new branches of the tree and delete the children from the list
  - Assign the sum of the children's probabilities to their parent and insert it in the list

**Algorithm** 

Path from root to node gives code for corresponding symbol

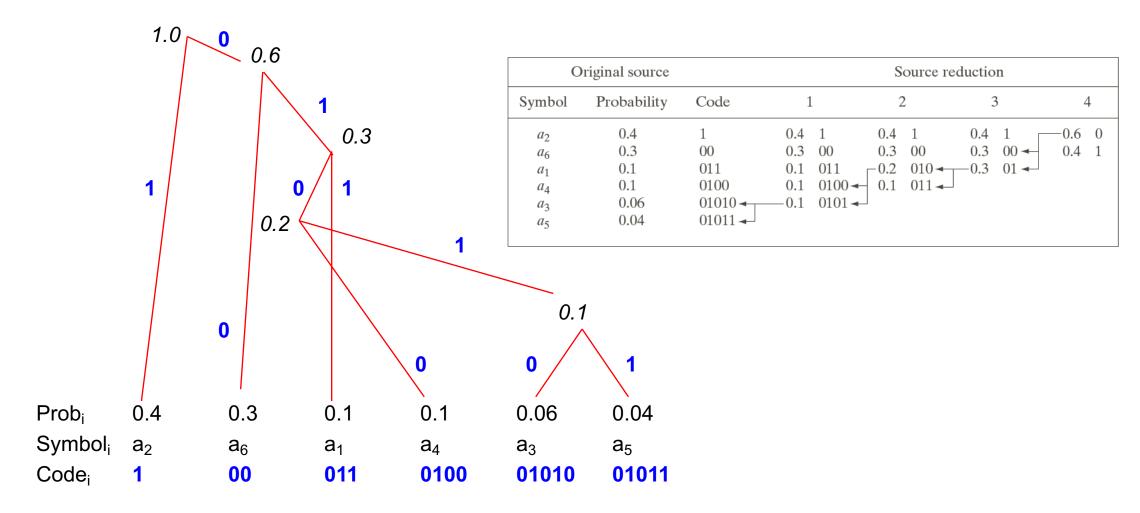




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- The algorithm systematically places nodes representing high probability symbols further up the tree: their paths (and so codes) are shorter
- No code is prefix to any other don't need to mark boundaries between nodes
  - e.g., 01101010 must be a<sub>1</sub>a<sub>3</sub>

In this example

- Average length of the code is 2.2 bits/symbol
  - The entropy of the source is 2.14 bits/symbol

In general

Break image into small (e.g., 8 x 8) blocks

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Each block is a symbol to be encoded



## Break



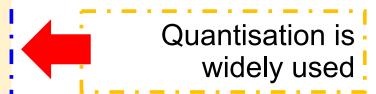


## Psychovisual Redundancy GIF



## **Using Psychovisual Redundancy**

- Represent areas of grey level/colour space with fewer bits
- Lossy: cannot be inverted
- -Find the best tradeoff between

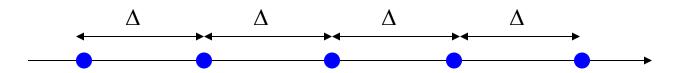


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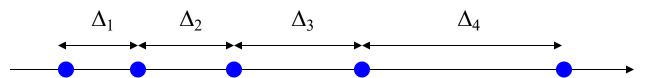
Maximal compression ←→ minimal distortion

Scalar Quantisation (i.e., quantising scalar values)

Uniform scalar quantisation:



Non-uniform scalar quantisation:





#### **Vector Quantisation**

Palettised image (gif)



- Map vector values (R,G,B) onto scalar values
- Multiple vectors map to each scalar



Vector quantisation



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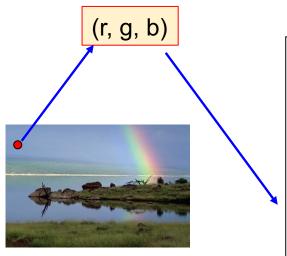
True colour R,G,B 8 bits each 1677216 possible colours gif
8 bits per pixel
256 possible colours

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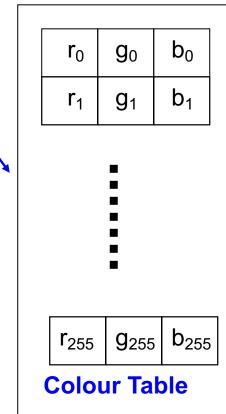


#### **Vector Quantisation**



For each pixel in the original image

Find the closest colour in the Colour Table



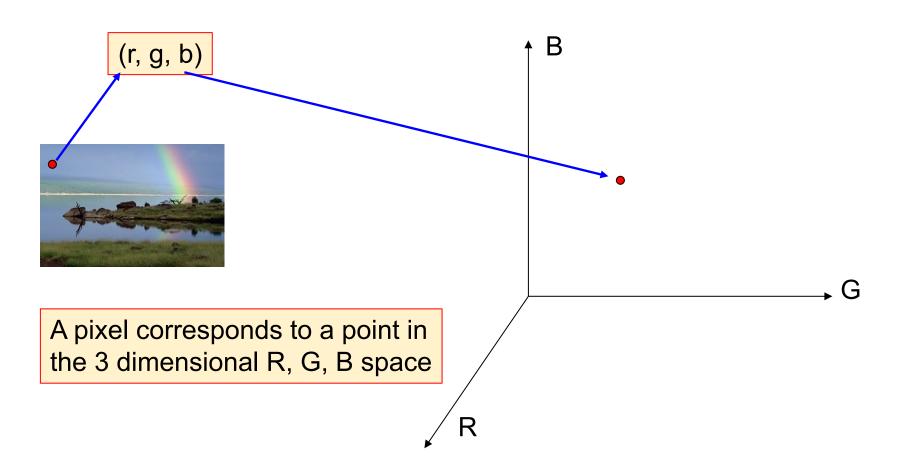


Record the index of that colour (for storage or transmission)

To reconstruct the image, place the indexed colour from the Colour Table at the corresponding spatial location

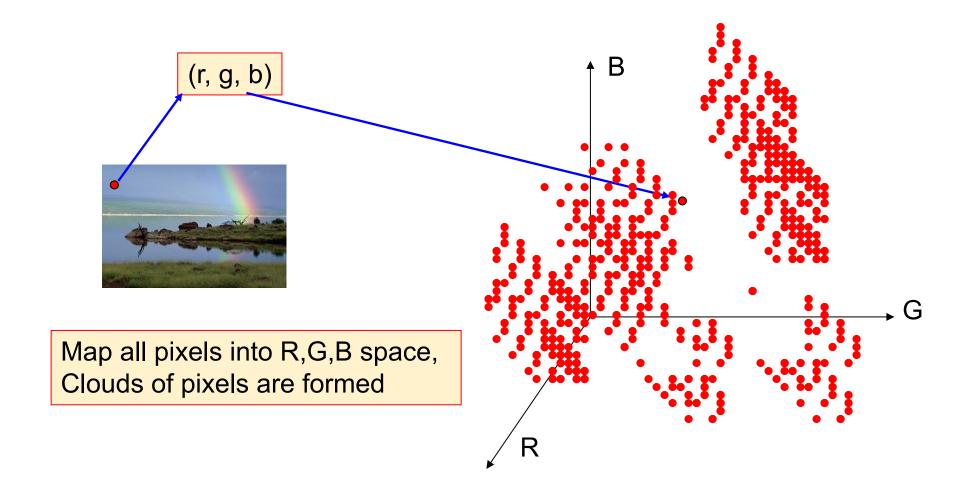
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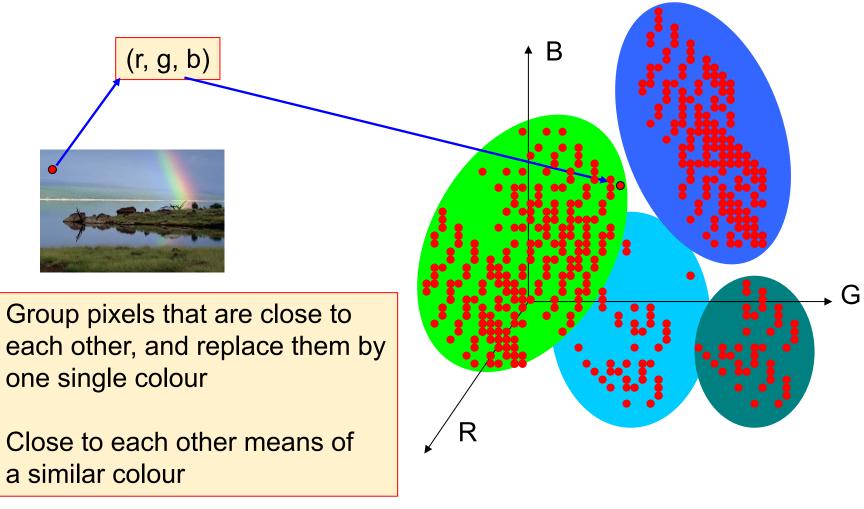
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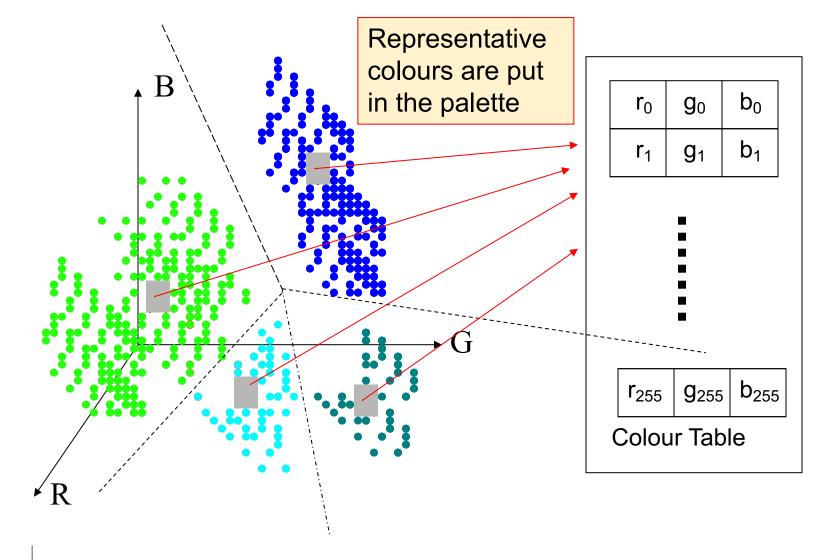




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## Many clustering algorithms exists

- Supervised
- unsupervised
- We know how many clusters we need: one per palette entry
- We need clusters that are spread across the colour space
- A unsupervised method...

#### **K-Means Clustering**

- Start with estimates of the mean of each cluster  $\mu_1, \mu_2, ..., \mu_k$
- Assign each point, *p*, to the cluster where **□** |*p* -μ<sub>i</sub>| is smallest
- Recompute the means
- Repeat until no changes are made to the clusters



# A Compression System JPEG



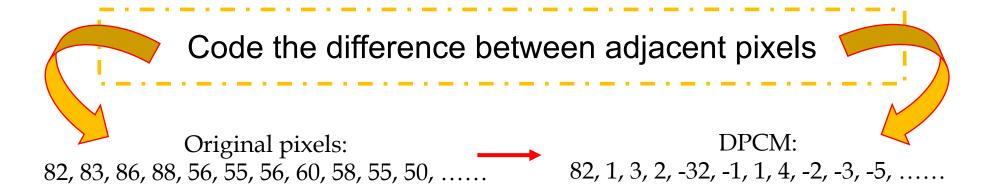
## **Spatial Redundancy**

- Run-length encoding needs adjacent pixels to be equal
- Pixels are more often highly correlated (dependent)
  - Not equal, but can predict the image pixels to be coded from those already coded

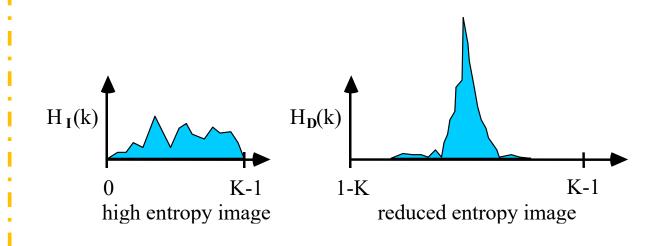
- Each pixel value (except at the boundaries) is predicted based on its neighbours (e.g., linear combination) to get a predicted image
- The difference between the original and predicted images yields a differential or residual image with a reduced set of values
- The differential image is encoded using Huffman coding, or similar



### Differential Pulse-code Modulation



- Prediction is that the next pixel value – current one
- Need the first value to provide a point of reference
- Invertible (lossless) and lower entropy





### **Predictive Coding**

- Higher order pattern prediction
- Use both 1D and 2D patterns (to predict shaded pixel)

1D Causal:	2D Causal:	
1D Non-causal:	2D Non-Causal:	



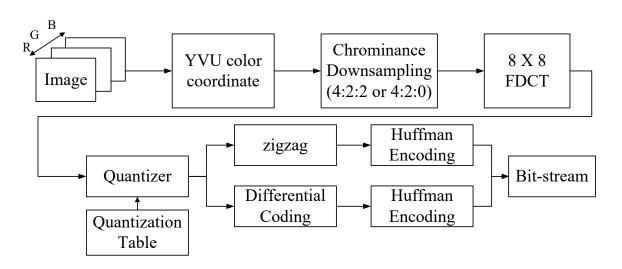
## A Complete System: JPEG

A set of methods with a common *baseline* system



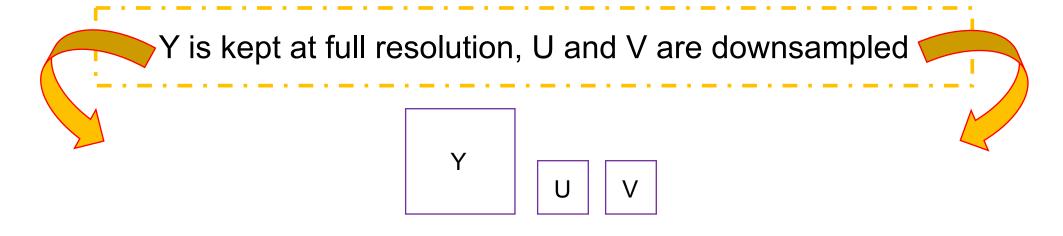
- Discrete Cosine Transform
- Quantisation
- Variable length encoding

A JPEG-compatible product must only include support for the baseline





Conversion RGB to YUV is optional, but common Y is grey level, U,V are colour (Lecture 2)



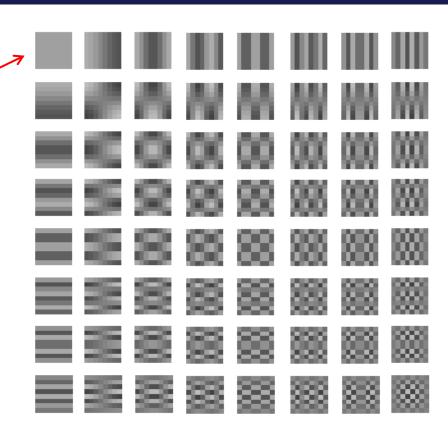
Human vision is more sensitive to grey-level variations than colours

The rest of the process is applied (separately) to each field



### **Image Transforms**

- Like FFT, basis functions are different
- Top left is DC level
- All other are "AC"
- Frequency of basis functions increases with distance from origin
- Basis patterns vary in 2D



$$X(u,v) = \frac{4C(u)C(v)}{N^2} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(m,n) \cos\left(\frac{(2m+1)u\pi}{2N}\right) \cos\left(\frac{(2n+1)v\pi}{2N}\right)$$



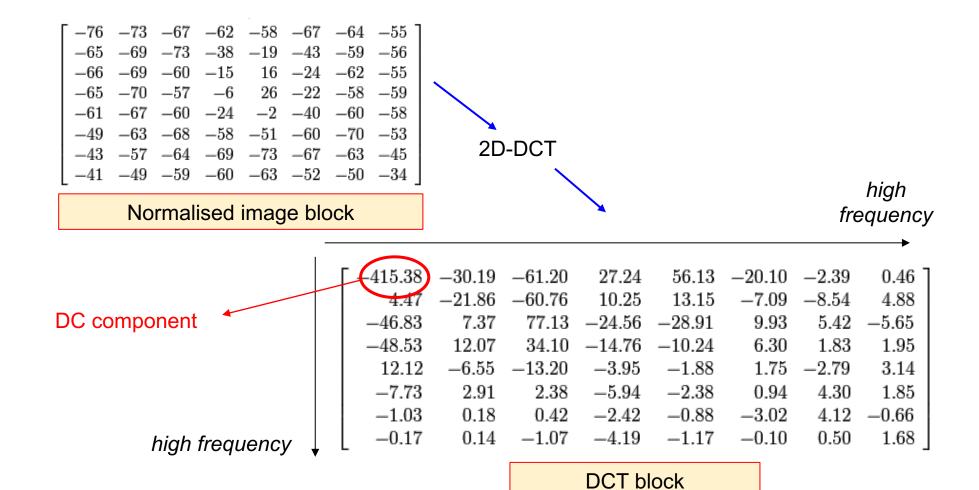
- The image is broken in 8 x 8 pixel blocks, which are processed sequentially, top left to bottom right
- First subtract half maximum intensity value so values are distributed about 0

$$\begin{bmatrix} 52 & 55 & 61 & 66 & 70 & 61 & 64 & 73 \\ 63 & 59 & 55 & 90 & 109 & 85 & 69 & 72 \\ 62 & 59 & 68 & 113 & 144 & 104 & 66 & 73 \\ 63 & 58 & 71 & 122 & 154 & 106 & 70 & 69 \\ 67 & 61 & 68 & 104 & 126 & 88 & 68 & 70 \\ 79 & 65 & 60 & 70 & 77 & 68 & 58 & 75 \\ 85 & 71 & 64 & 59 & 55 & 61 & 65 & 83 \\ 87 & 79 & 69 & 68 & 65 & 76 & 78 & 94 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -76 & -73 & -67 & -62 & -58 & -67 & -64 & -55 \\ -65 & -69 & -73 & -38 & -19 & -43 & -59 & -56 \\ -66 & -69 & -60 & -15 & 16 & -24 & -62 & -55 \\ -65 & -70 & -57 & -6 & 26 & -22 & -58 & -59 \\ -61 & -67 & -60 & -24 & -2 & -40 & -60 & -58 \\ -49 & -63 & -68 & -58 & -51 & -60 & -70 & -53 \\ -43 & -57 & -64 & -69 & -73 & -67 & -63 & -45 \\ -41 & -49 & -59 & -60 & -63 & -52 & -50 & -34 \end{bmatrix}$$

Image block

Normalised image block





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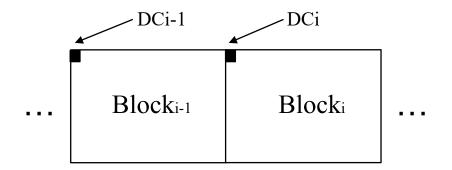
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- AC and DC components are processed separately
- DC components summarise patch intensity, so should vary smoothly over patches, \_\_\_\_

Use different coding (DCPM)

 $\mathsf{Diff}_i = \mathsf{DC}_i - \mathsf{DC}_{i-1}$ 





AC components are quantised

Divide the DCT block entries by values in a quantisation table

Different tables for luminance (Y) and chrominance (UV) blocks

$$Q_Y = \begin{pmatrix} 16 & 11 & 10 & 16 & 24 & 40 & 51 & 61 \\ 12 & 12 & 14 & 19 & 26 & 58 & 60 & 55 \\ 14 & 13 & 16 & 24 & 40 & 57 & 69 & 56 \\ 14 & 17 & 22 & 29 & 51 & 87 & 80 & 62 \\ 18 & 22 & 37 & 56 & 68 & 109 & 103 & 77 \\ 24 & 35 & 55 & 64 & 81 & 104 & 113 & 92 \\ 49 & 64 & 78 & 87 & 103 & 121 & 120 & 101 \\ 72 & 92 & 95 & 98 & 112 & 100 & 103 & 99 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Qc = \begin{pmatrix} 17 & 18 & 24 & 47 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 18 & 21 & 26 & 66 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 24 & 26 & 56 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 47 & 66 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \\ 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 & 99 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X'(u,v) = Round\left(\frac{X(u,v)}{Q(u,v)}\right)$$

X(u,v): original DCT coefficient

X'(u,v): DCT coefficient after quantization

Q(u,v): quantization value



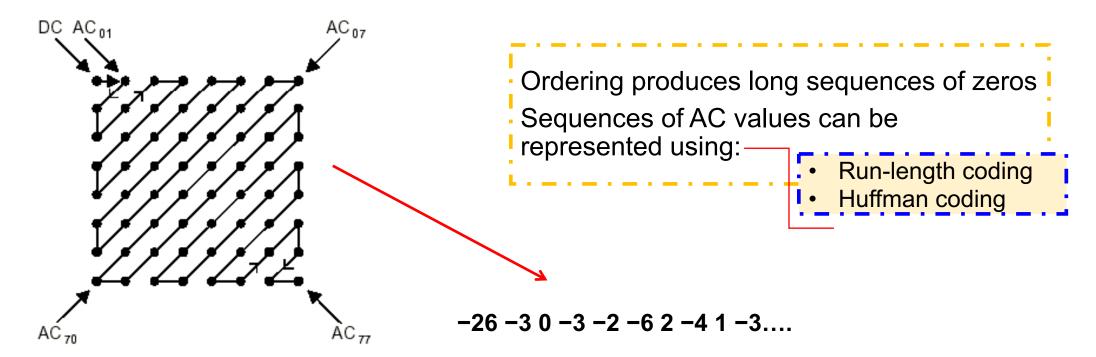


?

- Further compression by representing DCT coefficients with no greater precision than is necessary to achieve the desired image quality
- Generally, the "high frequency coefficients" have larger quantisation values
- Quantisation makes most coefficients zero, it makes JPEG compression efficient, but "lossy"



Zigzag coding orders elements of quantised DCT block (roughly) on frequency







Increasing the amount of quantisation reduces file size but introduces artefacts: blocks become visible







File size: 248K



100 dpi medium JPEG compression



File size: 49K



100 dpi high JPEG compression



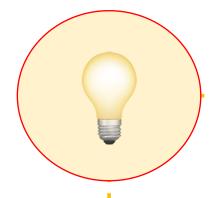
File size: 22K

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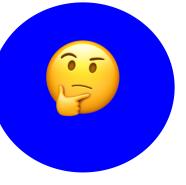
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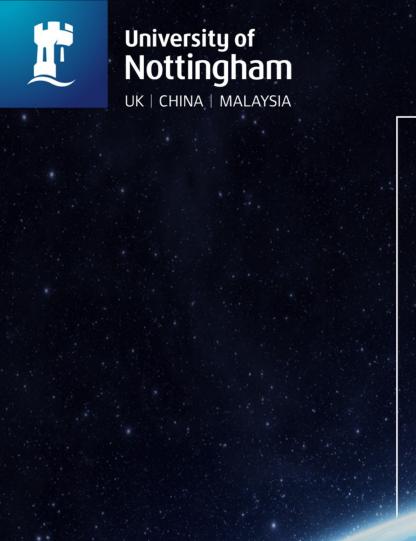


## Summary



- 1. Redundancy
- 2. Huffman Coding
- 3. Psychovisual Redundancy GIF
- 4. A Compression System JPEG





# Questions



# **NEXT:**

Interactive Methods & Compositing