

12.11.2021

# Digital Image Processing (CSE/ECE 478)

## Lecture-21: Image Compression (contd.)

Ravi Kiran and Sudipta Banerjee



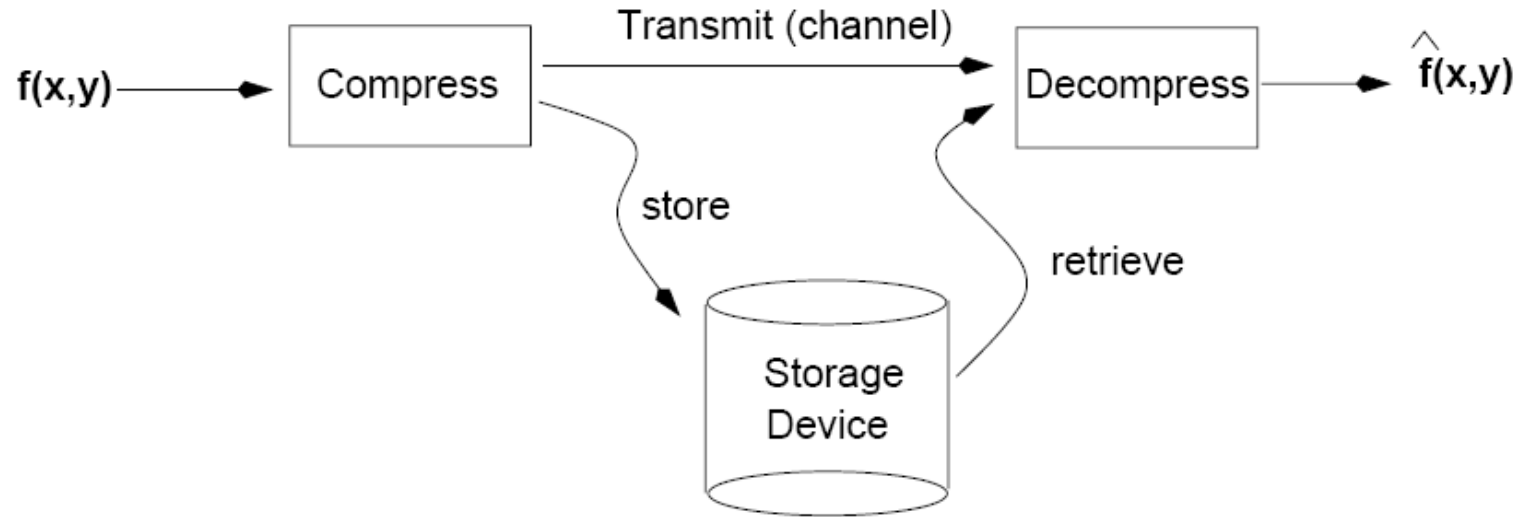
Center for Visual Information Technology (CVIT), IIT Hyderabad



*Some slides borrowed from Vineet Gandhi @CVIT!*

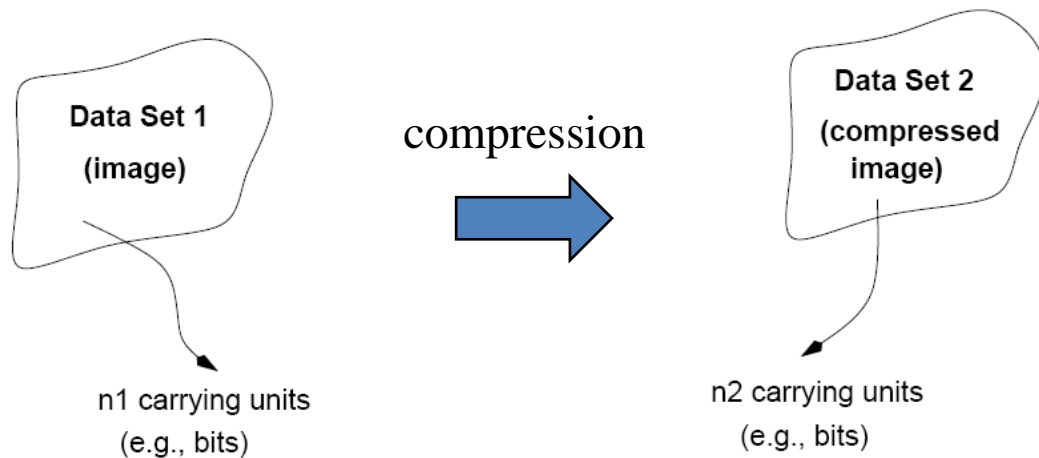
# Image Compression

- Goal: Reduce amount of data required to represent a digital image



*.. By leveraging redundancies in image data*

# Compression Ratio



Compression ratio:  $C_R = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$

# Relevant Data Redundancy

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{C_R}$$

Example:

$$\text{If } C_R = \frac{10}{1}, \text{ then } R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{10} = 0.9$$

(90% of the data in dataset 1 is redundant)

$$\text{if } n_2 = n_1, \text{ then } C_R = 1, R_D = 0$$

$$\text{if } n_2 \ll n_1, \text{ then } C_R \rightarrow \infty, R_D \rightarrow 1$$

# Types of Redundancy

(1) Coding Redundancy

(2) Spatial/Temporal Redundancy

(3) Psychovisual Redundancy

- Image compression attempts to reduce one or more of these redundancy types.

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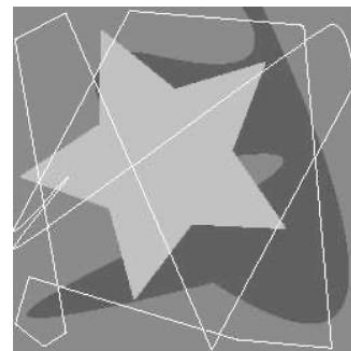
# Coding - Definitions

- **Code:** a list of symbols (letters, numbers, bits etc.)
- **Code word:** a sequence of symbols used to represent some information (e.g., gray levels).
- **Code word length:** number of symbols in a code word.

Example: (binary code, symbols: 0,1, length: 3)

0: 000	4: 100
1: 001	5: 101
2: 010	6: 110
3: 011	7: 111

# Coding Redundancy



- Case 1:  $l(r_k) = \text{constant length}$

Example:

$r_k$	$p_r(r_k)$	Code 1	$l_1(r_k)$
$r_0 = 0$	0.19	000	3
$r_1 = 1/7$	0.25	001	3
$r_2 = 2/7$	0.21	010	3
$r_3 = 3/7$	0.16	011	3
$r_4 = 4/7$	0.08	100	3
$r_5 = 5/7$	0.06	101	3
$r_6 = 6/7$	0.03	110	3
$r_7 = 1$	0.02	111	3

$$\text{Average \# of bits: } L_{avg} = E(l(r_k)) = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k)P(r_k)$$

$$\text{Total \# of bits: } NML_{avg}$$

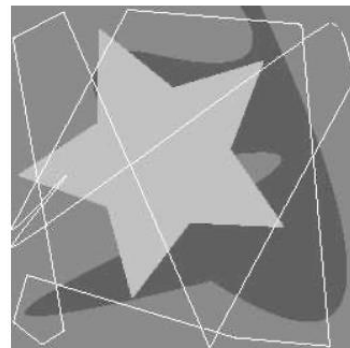
Assume an image with  $L = 8$

$$\text{Assume } l(r_k) = 3, \quad L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^7 3P(r_k) = 3 \sum_{k=0}^7 P(r_k) = 3 \text{ bits}$$

Total number of bits:  $3NM$



# Coding Redundancy (cont'd)



- Case 2:  $l(r_k) =$  variable length

Table 6.1 Variable-Length Coding Example				variable length	
$r_k$	$p_i(r_k)$	Code 1	$l_1(r_k)$	Code 2	$l_2(r_k)$
$r_0 = 0$	0.19	000	3	11	2
$r_1 = 1/7$	0.25	001	3	01	2
$r_2 = 2/7$	0.21	010	3	10	2
$r_3 = 3/7$	0.16	011	3	001	3
$r_4 = 4/7$	0.08	100	3	0001	4
$r_5 = 5/7$	0.06	101	3	00001	5
$r_6 = 6/7$	0.03	110	3	000001	6
$r_7 = 1$	0.02	111	3	000000	6

$$C_R = \frac{n_1}{n_2}$$

$$C_R = \frac{3}{2.7} = 1.11 \text{ (about 10\%)}$$

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{1.11} = 0.099$$

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^7 l(r_k)P(r_k) = 2.7 \text{ bits}$$

Total number of bits:  $2.7NM$

Coding redundancy occurs because least probable and most probable intensity values are represented using same length code. Most images do not have uniform intensity

# Types of Redundancy

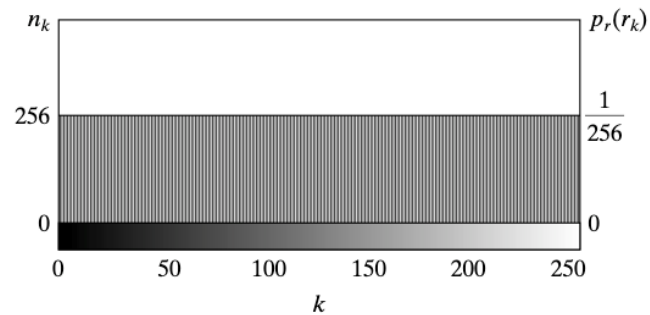
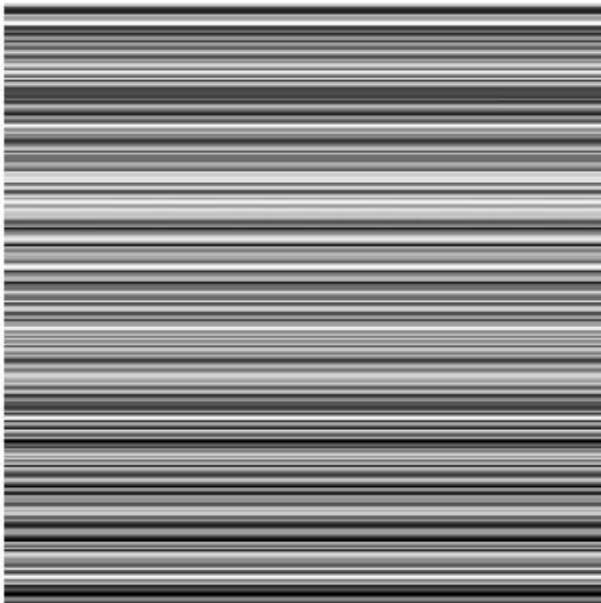
(1) Coding Redundancy

(2) Spatial/Temporal Redundancy

(3) Psychovisual Redundancy

- Image compression attempts to reduce one or more of these redundancy types.

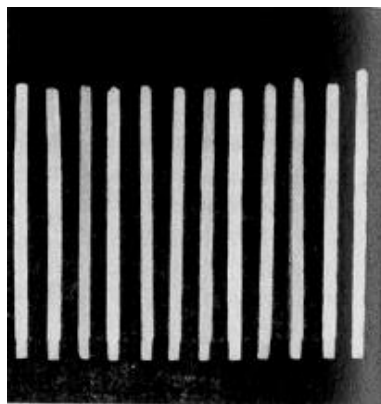
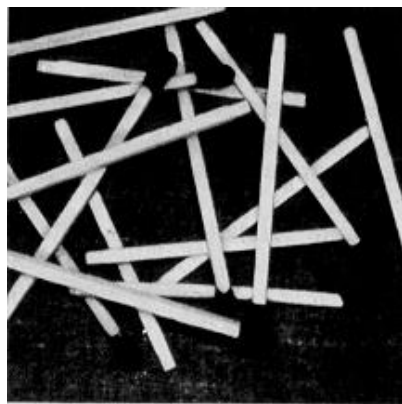
# Spatial Redundancy



Run-length coding can be used to account for spatial redundancies

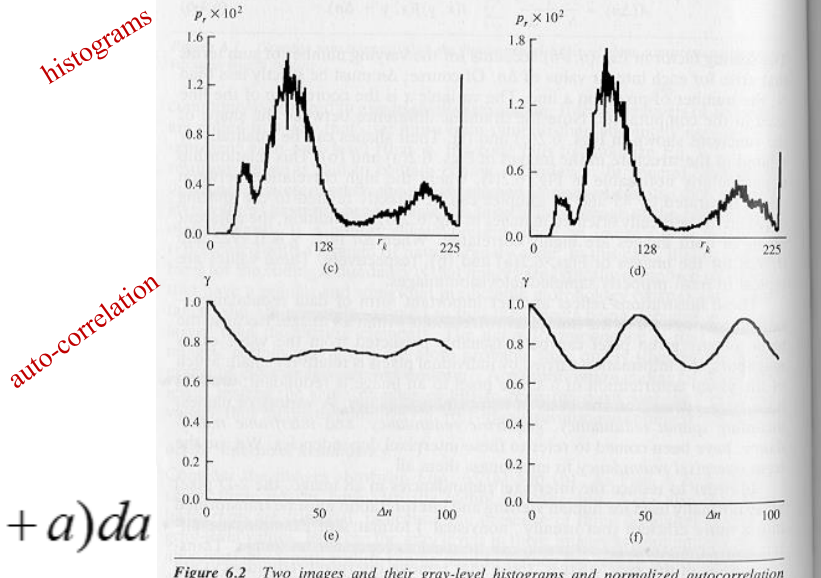
# Spatial redundancy

- Interpixel redundancy exists → pixel values are correlated
- i.e., a pixel value can be reasonably predicted by its neighbors



$$f(x) \circ g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(x+a)da$$

auto-correlation:  $f(x)=g(x)$



# Spatial and temporal redundancy



# Types of Redundancy

(1) Coding Redundancy

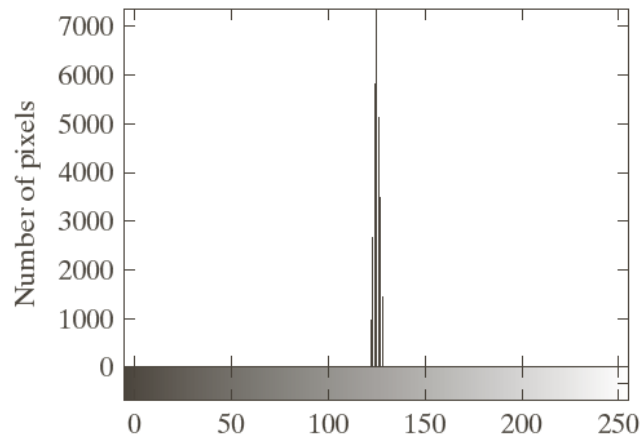
(2) Spatial/Temporal Redundancy

(3) Psychovisual Redundancy

- Image compression attempts to reduce one or more of these redundancy types.

# Irrelevant information or perceptual redundancy

- Not all visual information is perceived by eye/brain, so throw away those that are not



# Psychovisual redundancy (cont'd)

Example: quantization

256 gray levels



16 gray levels



16 gray levels + random noise



$$C=8/4 = 2:1$$

add a small pseudo-random number  
to each pixel prior to quantization



# Information theory

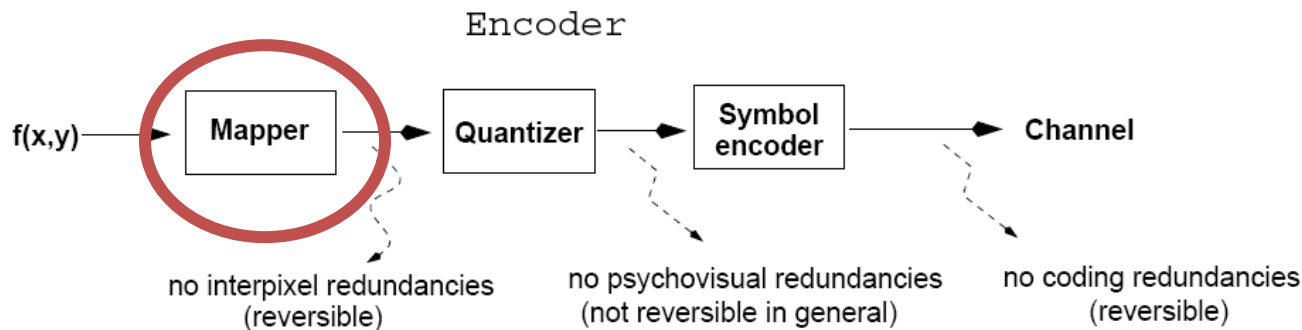
- Basic Premise: Generation of information can be treated as a probabilistic process defined over symbols.
- Symbol - carrier of information
- Consider a symbol with an occurrence probability  $p$ .
- The amount of information contained in the symbol is defined as:

$$I = \log_2 \frac{1}{p} \text{ bits} \quad \text{or} \quad I = -\log_2 p$$

# Information theory: Shannon's theorem

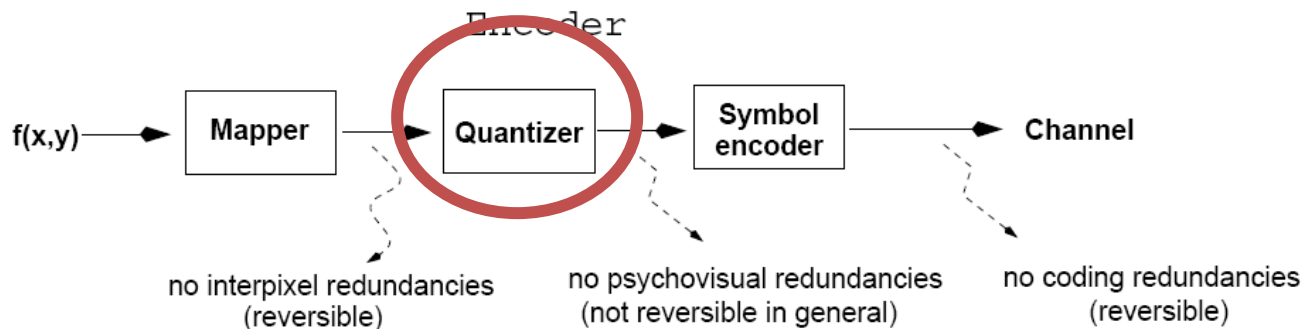
- Shannon's **noiseless source coding theorem**: For a discrete, memoryless, information source, the minimum bit rate required to encode a symbol on average is equal to the entropy of the source – **provides a lower bound on the bit rate for encoding statistically independent symbols**
- In other words: we can't do better than the entropy
- For a memory information source (finite Markov), the bound might not hold

# Image Compression Model



- 
- **Mapper**: transforms data to account for interpixel redundancies.

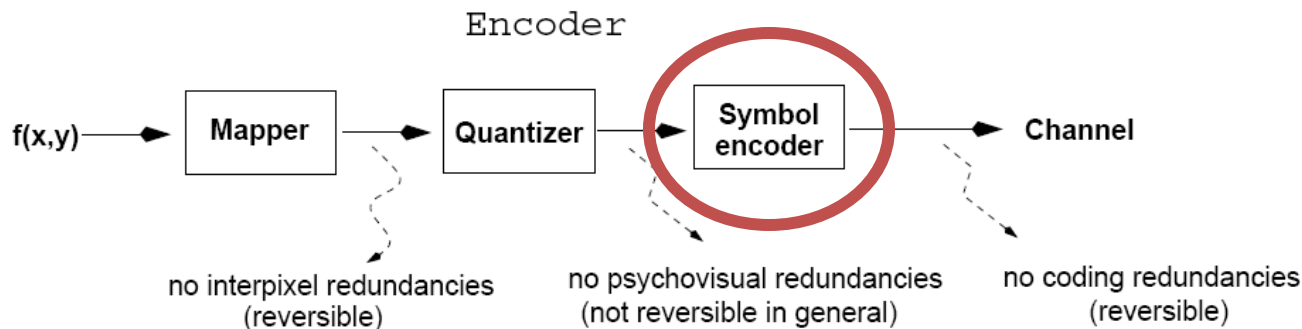
# Image Compression Model (cont'd)



- 

- **Quantizer:** quantizes the data to account for psychovisual redundancies.

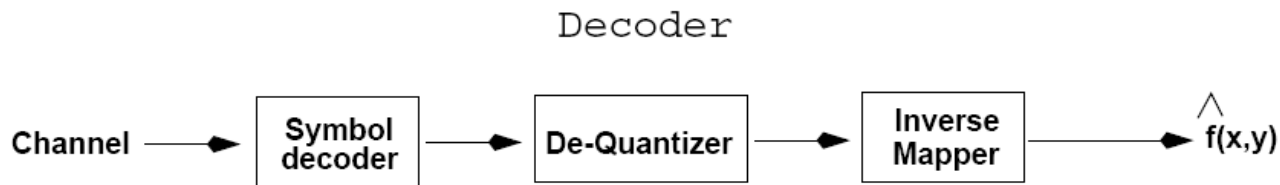
# Image Compression Model (cont'd)



- 

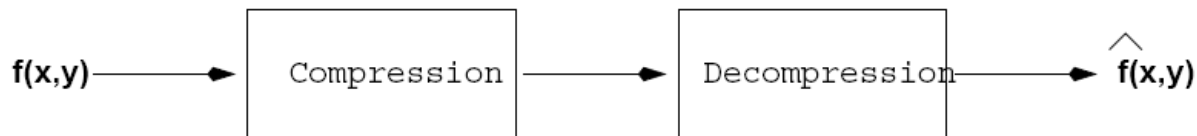
- **Symbol encoder:** encodes the data to account for coding redundancies.

# Image Compression Models (cont'd)



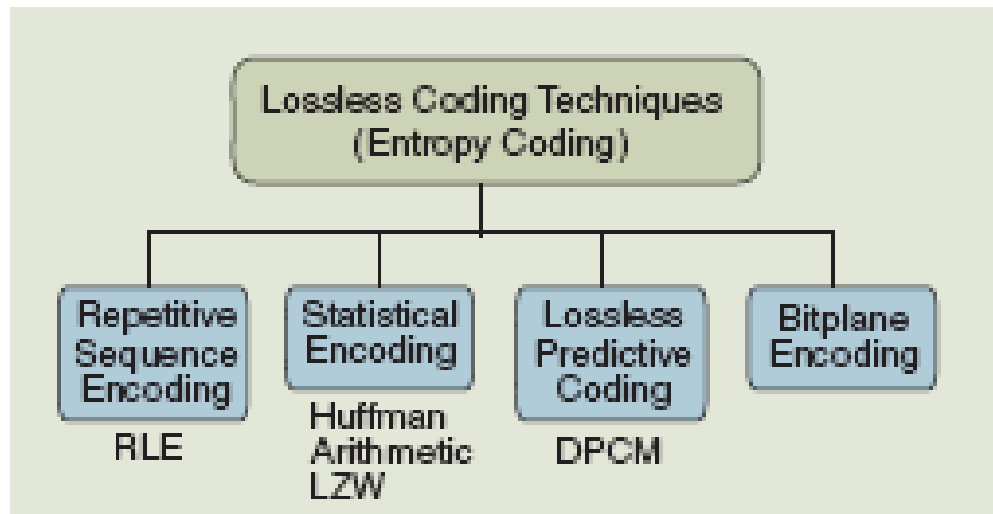
- The decoder applies the inverse steps.
- Note that quantization is **irreversible** in general.

# Lossless Compression



$$e(x, y) = \hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y) = 0$$

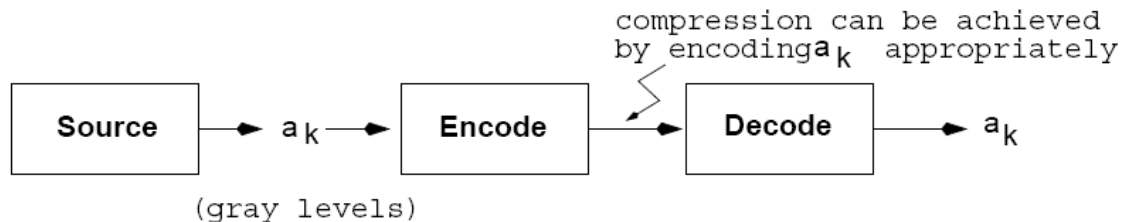
# Taxonomy of Lossless Methods





# Huffman Coding

(addresses coding redundancy)



- A **variable-length coding** technique.
- Source symbols are encoded **one** at a time!
  - There is a **one-to-one correspondence** between source symbols and code words.
- **Optimal code** - minimizes code word length per source symbol.

# Huffman Coding (cont'd)

## • Forward Pass

1. Sort probabilities per symbol
2. Combine the lowest two probabilities
3. Repeat *Step2* until only two probabilities remain.

Original source		Source reduction			
Symbol	Probability	1	2	3	4
$a_2$	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6
$a_6$	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	
$a_1$	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4
$a_4$	0.1	0.1			
$a_3$	0.06	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4
$a_5$	0.04		0.1		

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

$a_3$   $a_1$   $a_2$   $a_2$   $a_6$

## • Backward Pass

Assign code symbols going backwards

Original source			Source reduction			
Sym.	Prob.	Code	1	2	3	4
$a_2$	0.4	1	0.4 1	0.4 1	0.4 1	0.6 0
$a_6$	0.3	00	0.3 00	0.3 00	0.3 00	0.4 1
$a_1$	0.1	011	0.1 011	0.2 010	0.3 01	
$a_4$	0.1	0100	0.1 0100			
$a_3$	0.06	01010	0.1 0101	0.1 011		
$a_5$	0.04	01011				

# Huffman Coding (cont'd)

- $L_{avg}$  assuming Huffman coding:

$$L_{avg} = E(l(a_k)) = \sum_{k=1}^6 l(a_k)P(a_k) =$$

$$3 \times 0.1 + 1 \times 0.4 + 5 \times 0.06 + 4 \times 0.1 + 5 \times 0.04 + 2 \times 0.3 = 2.2 \text{ bits/symbol}$$

6 symbols, we need a 3-bit code

- $(a_1: 000, a_2: 001, a_3: 010, a_4: 011, a_5: 100, a_6: 101)$

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=1}^6 l(a_k)P(a_k) = \sum_{k=1}^6 3P(a_k) = 3 \sum_{k=1}^6 P(a_k) = 3 \text{ bits/symbol}$$

# Huffman Coding/Decoding

- Coding/Decoding can be implemented using a **look-up table**.
- Decoding can be done unambiguously.

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

$a_3$   $a_1$   $a_2$   $a_2$   $a_6$

Original source			Source reduction			
Sym.	Prob.	Code	1	2	3	4
$a_2$	0.4	1	0.4 1	0.4 1	0.4 1	0.6 0
$a_6$	0.3	00	0.3 00	0.3 00	0.3 00	0.4 1
$a_1$	0.1	011	0.1 011	0.2 010	0.3 01	
$a_4$	0.1	0100	0.1 0100	0.1 011		
$a_5$	0.06	01010	0.1 0101			
$a_3$	0.04	01011				

Original source		
Sym.	Prob.	Code
$a_2$	0.4	1
$a_6$	0.3	00
$a_1$	0.1	011
$a_4$	0.1	0100
$a_3$	0.06	01010
$a_5$	0.04	01011

## Arithmetic (or Range) Coding (addresses coding redundancy)

- The main weakness of Huffman coding is that it encodes source symbols **one** at a time.
- Arithmetic coding encodes **sequences** of source symbols together.
  - There is **no** one-to-one correspondence between source symbols and code words.
- Slower than Huffman coding but can achieve better compression.

# Arithmetic Coding (cont'd)

- A sequence of source symbols is assigned to a sub-interval in  $[0,1)$  which can be represented by an arithmetic code, e.g.:



- Start with the interval  $[0, 1)$  ; a sub-interval is chosen to represent the message which becomes smaller and smaller as the number of symbols in the message increases.

# Arithmetic Coding (cont'd)

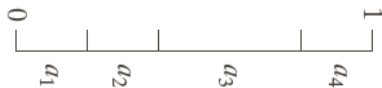
Encode message:  $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_3 \alpha_4$

Source Symbol	Probability
$a_1$	0.2
$a_2$	0.2
$a_3$	0.4
$a_4$	0.2

1) Start with interval  $[0, 1)$



2) Subdivide  $[0, 1)$  based on the probabilities of  $\alpha_i$

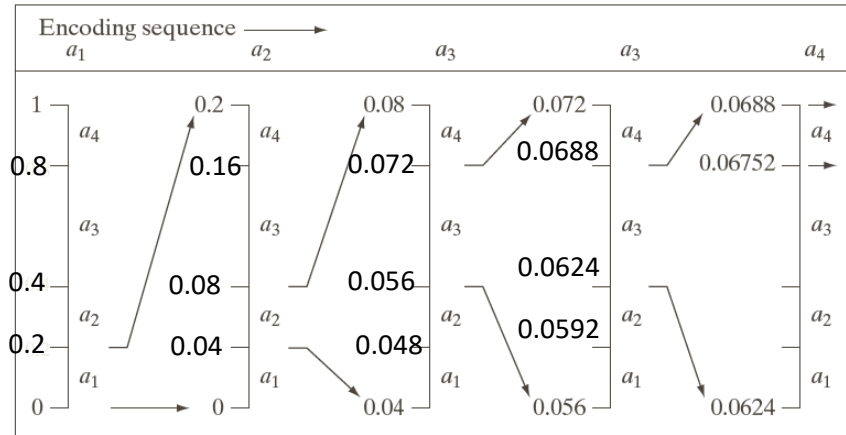


Initial Subinterval
$[0.0, 0.2)$
$[0.2, 0.4)$
$[0.4, 0.8)$
$[0.8, 1.0)$

3) Update interval by processing source symbols

# Example

Source Symbol	Probability	Initial Subinterval
$a_1$	0.2	$[0.0, 0.2)$
$a_2$	0.2	$[0.2, 0.4)$
$a_3$	0.4	$[0.4, 0.8)$
$a_4$	0.2	$[0.8, 1.0)$



Encode

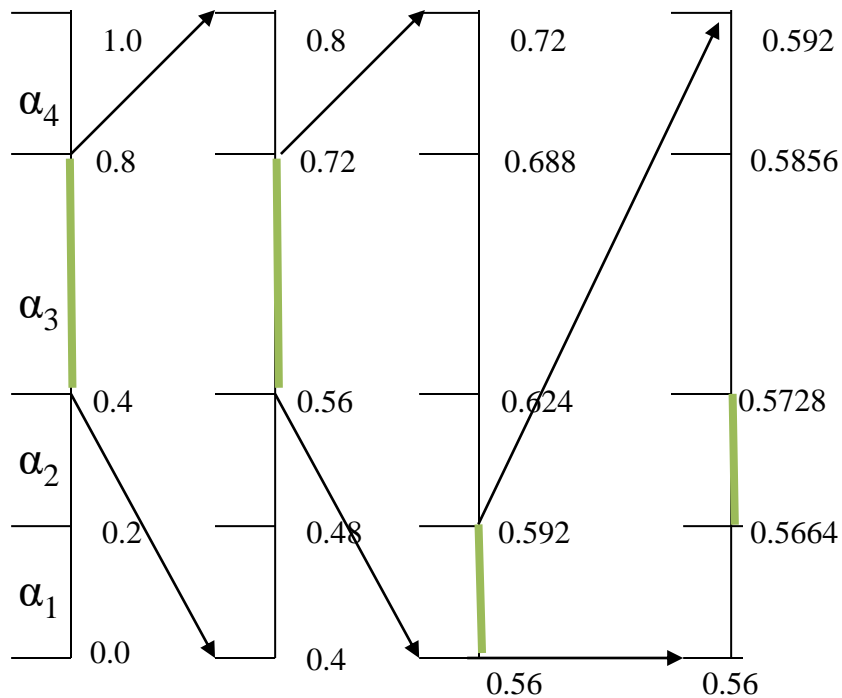
$\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_3 \alpha_4$



$[0.06752, 0.0688)$



# Arithmetic Decoding



Decode 0.572

(code length=4)



$\alpha_3 \alpha_3 \alpha_1 \alpha_2$

# LZW (Lempel-Ziv-Welch) Coding

## (addresses interpixel redundancy)

- Requires no prior knowledge of symbol probabilities.
- Assigns **fixed length** code words to **variable length** symbol sequences.
  - There is **no** one-to-one correspondence between source symbols and code words.
- Included in GIF, TIFF and PDF file formats

# LZW Coding

- A **codebook** (or **dictionary**) needs to be constructed.
- Initially, the first 256 entries of the dictionary are assigned to the gray levels 0,1,2,...,255 (i.e., assuming 8 bits/pixel)

Consider a 4x4, 8 bit image

```

39 39 126 126
39 39 126 126
39 39 126 126
39 39 126 126
  
```

**Initial Dictionary**

Dictionary Location	Entry
0	0
1	1
⋮	⋮
255	255
256	-
⋮	⋮
511	-

# LZW Coding (cont'd)

As the encoder examines image pixels, gray level sequences (i.e., blocks) that are not in the dictionary are assigned to a new entry.

39 39 126 126  
 39 39 126 126  
 39 39 126 126  
 39 39 126 126

Dictionary Location	Entry
0	0
1	1
.	.
255	255
256	39-39
511	-

- Is 39 in the dictionary.....Yes
- What about 39-39.....No
- \* Add 39-39 at location 256



# Example

39 39 126 126  
 39 39 126 126  
 39 39 126 126  
 39 39 126 126

CR = empty

repeat

P=next pixel

CS=CR + P

If CS is found:

(1) No Output

(2) CR=CS

else:

(1) Output D(CR)

(2) Add CS to D

(3) CR=P

Concatenated Sequence:  $CS = CR + P$

(CR) (P)

Currently Recognized Sequence	Pixel Being Processed	Encoded Output	Dictionary Location (Code Word)	Dictionary Entry
	39			
39	39	39	256	39-39
39	126	39	257	39-126
126	126	126	258	126-126
126	39	126	259	126-39
39	39			
39-39	126	256	260	39-39-126
126	126			
126-126	39	258	261	126-126-39
39	39			
39-39	126			
39-39-126	126	260	262	39-39-126-126
126	39			
126-39	39	259	263	126-39-39
39	126			
39-126	126	257	264	39-126-126
126		126		

# Decoding LZW

- Use the dictionary for decoding the “encoded output” sequence.
- The dictionary need not be sent with the encoded output.
- Can be built on the “fly” by the decoder as it reads the received code words.

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

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

1 1 1 1 1 0 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)

- Encodes a run of symbols into two bytes: (symbol, count)
- Can compress any type of data but cannot achieve high compression ratios compared to other compression methods.

## Combining Huffman Coding with Run-length Coding

- Assuming that a message has been encoded using Huffman coding, additional compression can be achieved using run-length coding.

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

e.g., (0,1)(1,1)(0,1)(1,0)(0,2)(1,4)(0,2)

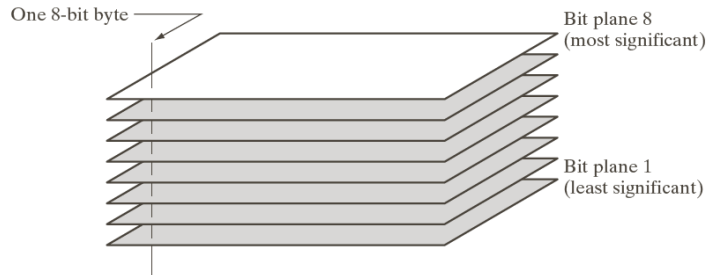


# Bit-plane coding

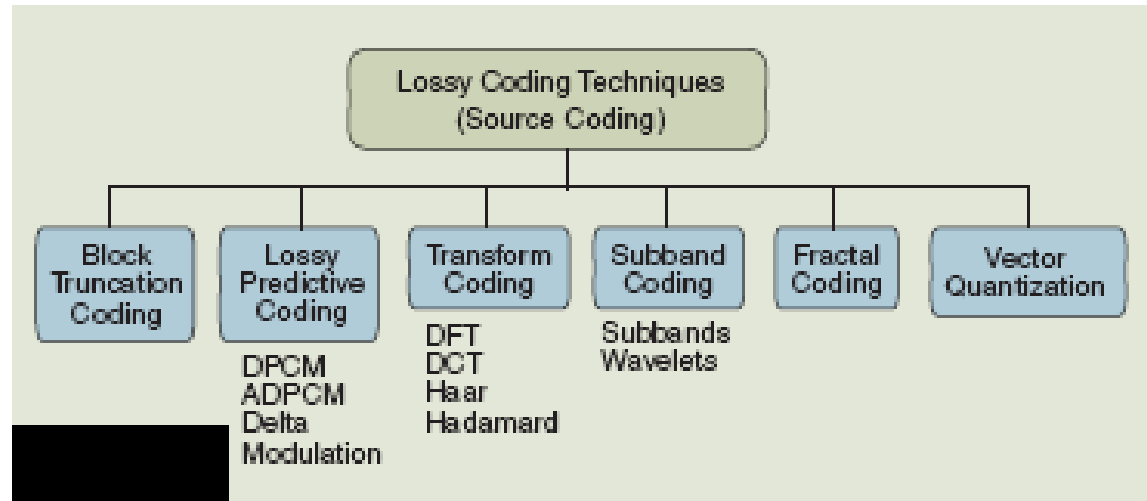
(addresses interpixel redundancy)

- Process each **bit plane** individually.

- (1) Decompose an image into a series of binary images.
- (2) Compress each binary image (e.g., using run-length coding)

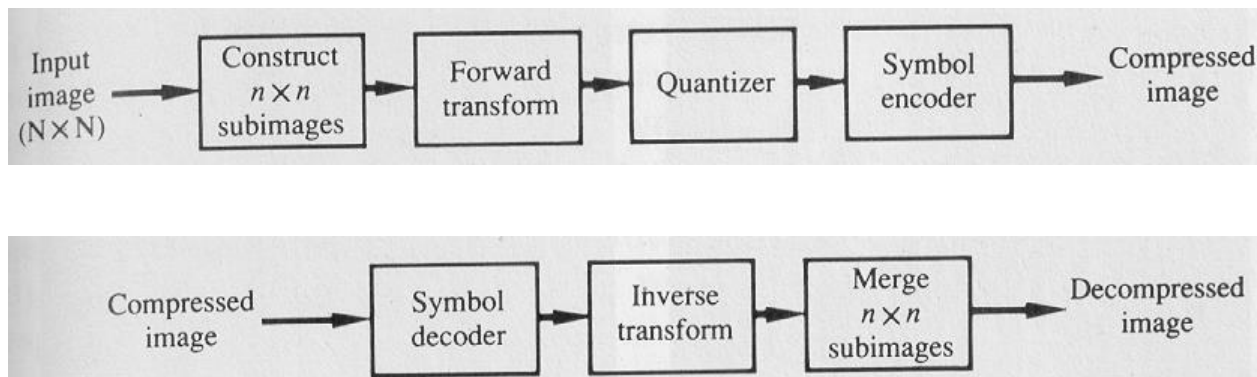


# Lossy Methods - Taxonomy



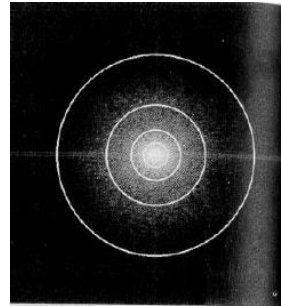
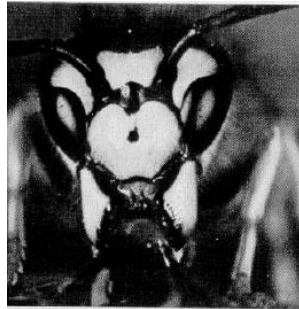
# Lossy Compression

- Transform the image into some other domain to reduce interpixel redundancy.



# Example: Fourier Transform

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} F(u, v) e^{\frac{j2\pi(ux+vy)}{N}}, \quad x, y=0, 1, \dots, N-1$$



Note that the magnitude of the FT decreases, as  $u, v$  increase!

$$K \ll N$$

$$\hat{f}(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{u=0}^{K-1} \sum_{v=0}^{K-1} F(u, v) e^{\frac{j2\pi(ux+vy)}{N}}, \quad x, y=0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

$\sum_{x,y} (\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y))^2$  is very small !!

# Transform Selection

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} T(u, v)h(x, y, u, v)$$

- $T(u, v)$  can be computed using various transformations, for example:
  - DFT
  - DCT (Discrete Cosine Transform)
  - KLT (Karhunen-Loeve Transformation) or Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- JPEG using DCT for handling interpixel redundancy.

# DCT (Discrete Cosine Transform)

[proposed by Nasir Ahmed, T. Natarajan, K.R.Rao (1972)]



All Real

$$\text{Forward: } C(u, v) = \alpha(u)\alpha(v) \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y) \cos\left(\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2N}\right) \cos\left(\frac{(2y+1)v\pi}{2N}\right),$$

$$u, v=0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

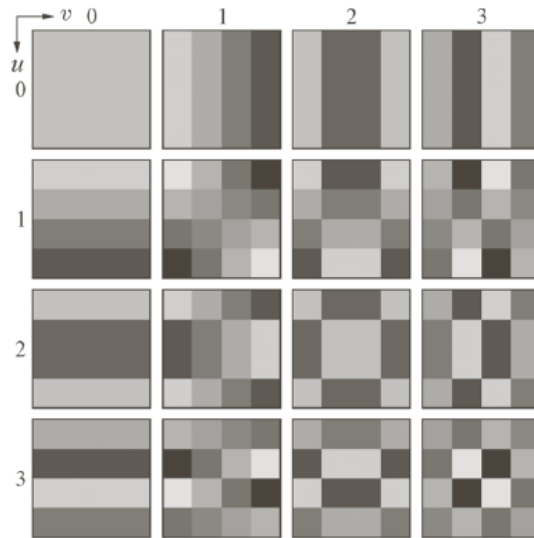
$$\text{Inverse: } f(x, y) = \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \sum_{v=0}^{N-1} \alpha(u)\alpha(v) C(u, v) \cos\left(\frac{(2x+1)u\pi}{2N}\right) \cos\left(\frac{(2y+1)v\pi}{2N}\right),$$

$$x, y=0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

$$\alpha(u) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{1/N} & \text{if } u=0 \\ \sqrt{2/N} & \text{if } u>0 \end{cases} \quad \alpha(v) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{1/N} & \text{if } v=0 \\ \sqrt{2/N} & \text{if } v>0 \end{cases}$$

# DCT (cont'd)

- Basis functions for a 4x4 image (i.e., cosines of different frequencies).



# DCT (cont'd)

Using  
8 x 8 sub-images  
yields 64 coefficients  
per sub-image.

Reconstructed images  
by truncating  
50% of the  
coefficients

More compact  
transformation

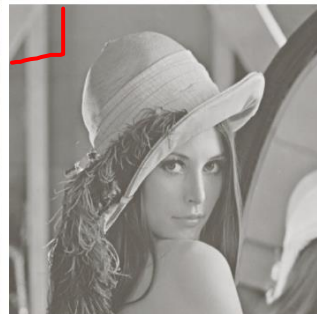
DFT



WHT



DCT



RMS error: 2.32

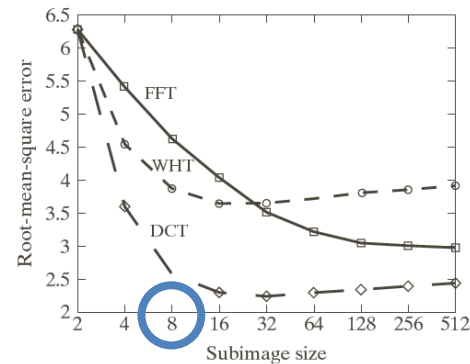
1.78

1.13



# DCT (cont'd)

- Sub-image size selection:



Reconstructions

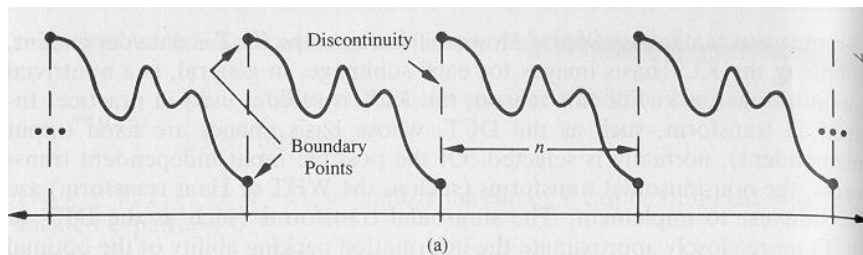


# DCT (cont'd)

- DCT minimizes "blocking artifacts" (i.e., boundaries between subimages do not become very visible).

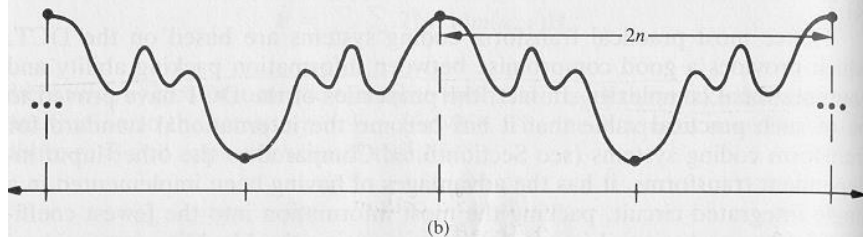
DFT

has  $n$ -point periodicity



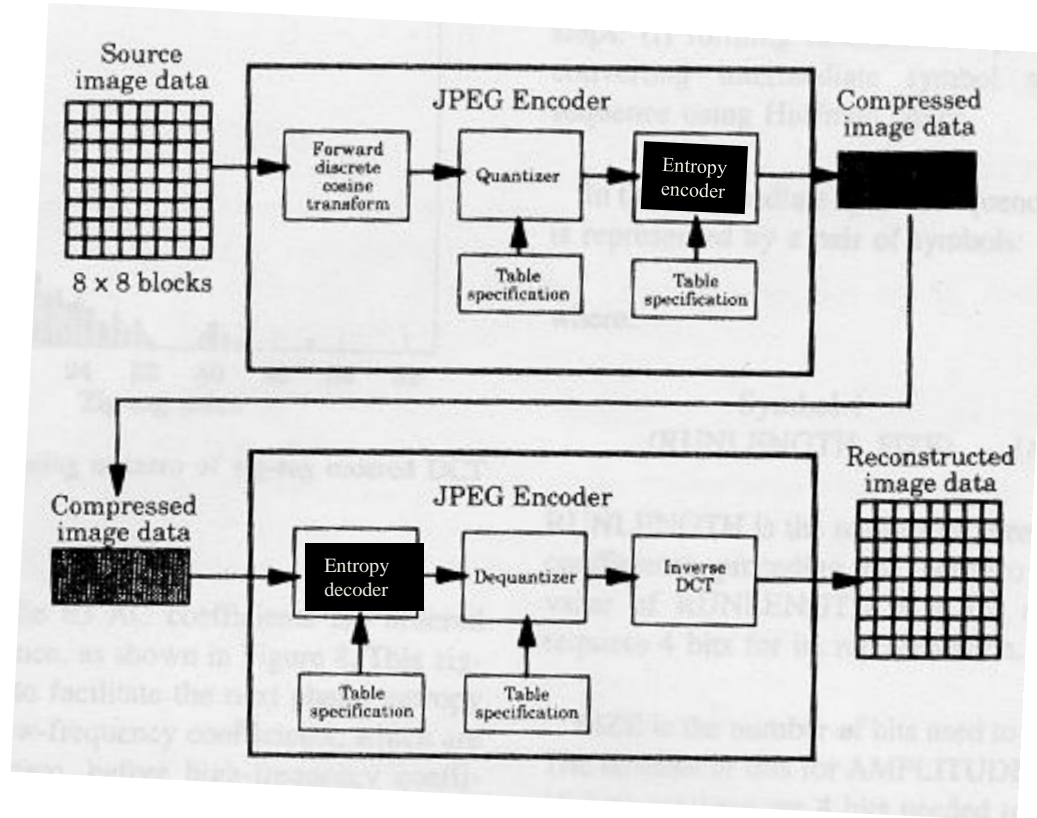
DCT

has  $2n$ -point periodicity



# JPEG Compression

Accepted as an international image compression standard in 1992.



# JPEG - Steps

1. Divide image into 8x8 subimages/bocks.

**For each subimage do:**

2. Shift the gray-levels in the range  $[-128, 127]$

3. Apply DCT  $\rightarrow$  64 coefficients

1 DC coefficient:  $F(0,0)$

63 AC coefficients:  $F(u,v)$

# Example

(a) Original 8 × 8 block	(b) Shifted block	(c) Block after FDCT Eqn. (5)
140 144 147 1140 140 155 179 175 144 152 140 147 140 148 167 179 152 155 136 167 163 162 152 172 168 145 156 160 152 155 136 160 162 148 156 148 140 136 147 162 147 167 140 155 155 140 136 162 136 156 123 167 162 144 140 147 148 155 136 155 152 147 147 136	12 16 19 12 11 27 51 47 16 24 12 19 12 20 39 51 24 27 8 39 35 34 24 44 40 17 28 32 24 27 8 32 34 20 28 20 12 8 19 34 19 39 12 27 27 12 8 34 8 28 -5 39 34 16 12 19 20 27 8 27 24 19 19 8	185 -17 14 -8 23 -9 -13 -18 20 -34 26 -9 -10 10 13 6 -10 -23 -1 6 -18 3 -20 0 -8 -5 14 -14 -8 -2 -3 8 -3 9 7 1 -11 17 18 15 3 -2 -18 8 8 -3 0 -6 8 0 -2 3 -1 -7 -1 -1 0 -7 -2 1 1 4 -6 0

$[-128, 127]$

(non-centered  
spectrum)

# JPEG Steps

4. Quantize the coefficients (i.e., reduce the amplitude of coefficients that do not contribute a lot).

$$C_q(u, v) = \text{Round}\left[\frac{C(u, v)}{Q(u, v)}\right]$$



$Q(u, v)$ : quantization table

# Example

- Quantization Table  $Q[i][j]$

```

for i=0 to n;
  for j=0 to n;
     $Q[i,j] = 1 + (1+i+j) * \text{quality}$ ;
  end j;
end i;

```

$$1 \leq \text{quality} \leq 25$$

(best - low compression)

(worst - high compression)

(d) Quantization table  
(quality = 2)

3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17
5	7	9	11	13	15	17	19
7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21
9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23
11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25
13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27
15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29
17	19	21	23	25	27	29	31

# Example (cont'd)

**(c) Block after FDCT**  
Eqn. (5)

185	-17	14	-8	23	-9	-13	-18
20	-34	26	-9	-10	10	13	6
-10	-23	-1	6	-18	3	-20	0
-8	-5	14	-14	-8	-2	-3	8
-3	9	7	1	-11	17	18	15
3	-2	-18	8	8	-3	0	-6
8	0	-2	3	-1	-7	-1	-1
0	-7	-2	1	1	4	-6	0

**(d) Quantization table**  
(quality = 2)

3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17
5	7	9	11	13	15	17	19
7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21
9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23
11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25
13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27
15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29
17	19	21	23	25	27	29	31

Quantization



**(e) Block after quantization**  
Eqn. (6)

61	-3	2	0	2	0	0	-1
4	-4	2	0	0	0	0	0
-1	-2	0	0	-1	0	-1	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0





# JPEG Steps (cont'd)

## 6. Encode coefficients using variable length encoding:

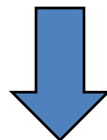
6.1 Form “intermediate” symbol sequence.

6.2 Encode “intermediate” symbol sequence into a binary sequence.

# Final Symbol Sequence

**(g) Intermediate symbol sequence**

(6)(61),(0,2)(-3),(0,3)(4),(0,1)(-1),(0,3)(-4),(0,2)(2),(1,2)(2),(0,2)(-2),  
 [REDACTED] (5,2)(2),(3,1)(1),(6,1)(-1),(2,1)(-1),(4,1)(-1),(7,1)(-1),(0,0)



**(e) Encoded bit sequence (total 98 bits)**

111011110100100100000100011011011011100101111111011  
 11011101011111011011100011101101111101001010

# What is the effect of the “Quality” parameter?



(58k bytes)



(21k bytes)



(8k bytes)

lower compression

higher compression

$$1 \leq \textit{quality} \leq 25$$

# Results using JPEG compression

file size 45853 bytes  
compression ratio: 12.9



Fine details have been lost.

Image has an artificial “**blocky**”  
pattern superimposed on it.

Artifacts will affect the  
performance of fingerprint  
recognition.

# Results using **WSQ** compression

file size 45621 bytes  
compression ratio: 12.9



Fine details are better preserved.

No “blocky” artifacts.

# JPEG

- JPEG compression exploits two observations:
  - **#1**: Human eyes don't see color (chrominance) quite as well as brightness (luminance) → Compress in a color-dominant space (RGB --> YCbCr)
  - **#2**: Human eyes can't distinguish high frequency changes in image intensity (downsample (Cb,Cr), quantize, DCT)

# JPEG Modes

- JPEG supports several different modes
  - Sequential Mode
  - Progressive Mode
  - Hierarchical Mode
  - Lossless Mode
- The default mode is “sequential”
  - Image is encoded in a **single scan** (left-to-right, top-to-bottom).



# Progressive JPEG

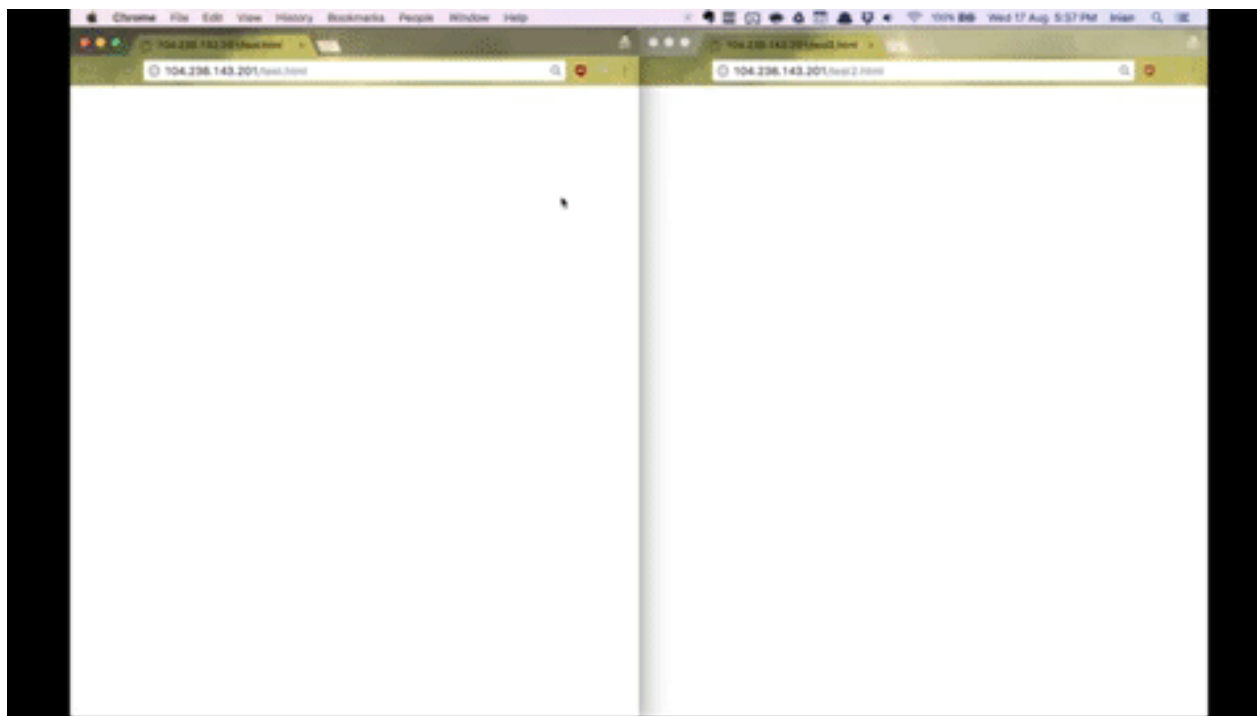
- Image is encoded in **multiple scans**, in order to produce a quick, rough decoded image when transmission time is long.

Sequential



Progressive





## JPEG at 0.125 bpp (enlarged)



## JPEG2000 at 0.125 bpp



# Other popular formats

- GIF → lossy
- PNG → lossless
- Video
  - MPEG etc. (exploit temporal redundancy also)

# Reference

- Ch 8, G&W textbook