# CS 6351 DATA COMPRESSION

# APPLICATIONS BEYOND COMPRESSION

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#### **OBJECTIVES OF THIS LECTURE**

By the end of this lecture, you will be able to:

- Describe applications of many of the DC techniques, in other areas, such as:
  - Progressive transmission
  - Audio-visual query-by-example search
  - Differentiated error protection providing graceful recovery from bit errors
  - Watermarking
  - Feature extraction and feature selection in machine learning
  - Auto-encoders in deep learning (e.g., word embedding)
  - Feature learning in deep learning
  - Convolution Neural Networks (CNN) in deep learning

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#### **OUTLINE**

- Progressive transmission
- Indexing for query by example (look-like and sound-like search)
- Differentiated error protection
- Watermarking
- Feature extraction and feature selection in machine learning
- Auto-encoders in deep learning (e.g., word embedding)
- Feature learning in deep learning
- Convolution Neural Networks (CNN) in deep learning

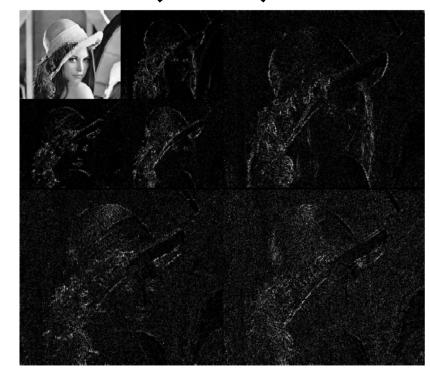
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# PROGRESSIVE TRANSMISSION (1/5)



# PROGRESSIVE TRANSMISSION (2/5)

- How? Use subband coding
- Structure the coded bistream by subband
  - 1. The bistream of the LL subband,
  - 2. Then the bitstream of the next 3 HF subbands
  - 3. Then the bitstream of the next 3 HF subbands
  - 4. And so
- When transmitting, transmit the bitstream in that order
- The receiver decodes the received pieces, assuming the higher-pass subbands of the yet unreceived bitstream pieces to be zeros, and displays them



- As more pieces of the coded bistreams are received, the decoder decodes them, and algebraically adds that decoded part to the image in display
- By repeating this until all the bitstream pieces (i.e., subbands) are received, the image is finally displayed at full resolution

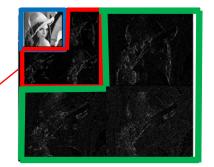


#### Lena received+reconstructed from the LL band



#### Improved after receiving the next 3 HF bands





Improved after receiving the next 3 HF bands



Improved after receiving the next 3 HF bands



# PROGRESSIVE TRANSMISSION (5/5)

- Alternatively, you can use block DCT
- Encode the DCT coefficients of the blocks so that the lower-frequency components' encoding is distinguishable from the higher-frequency components' encodings.
- When transmitting, transmit the bitstream in that order (lower-frequency components are transmitted first, and later components transmitted successively later)
- The receiver decodes the received DCT components, assuming the yet unreceived components to be zeros, and displays.
- As later DCT components are received, they are decoded, assuming all other DCT components are zeros,
  - the new decoded "image" is added to the already displayed image
- By repeating this until all the DCT components are received, the image is finally displayed at full resolution

# INDEXING FOR QUERY BY EXAMPLE (1/5)

#### -- LOOK-LIKE AND SOUND-LIKE SEARCH --

- Imagine there is a large collection of images
  - like all those on the Web, or
  - all those in your own personal collection
  - Or any collection of intermediate size
- Finding the image that resembles a given (query) image is of great interest
- To conduct such searches fast and with high accuracy (precision and recall):
  - It is too slow to compare live the query image with each image in the collection
  - Instead, we need indexing, which is a common technique in all search and retrieval
- Indexing is a form of representing each object in your collection (e.g., text files, images, songs, etc.) with a small amount of differentiating information, called the index of the object

## INDEXING FOR QUERY BY EXAMPLE (2/5)

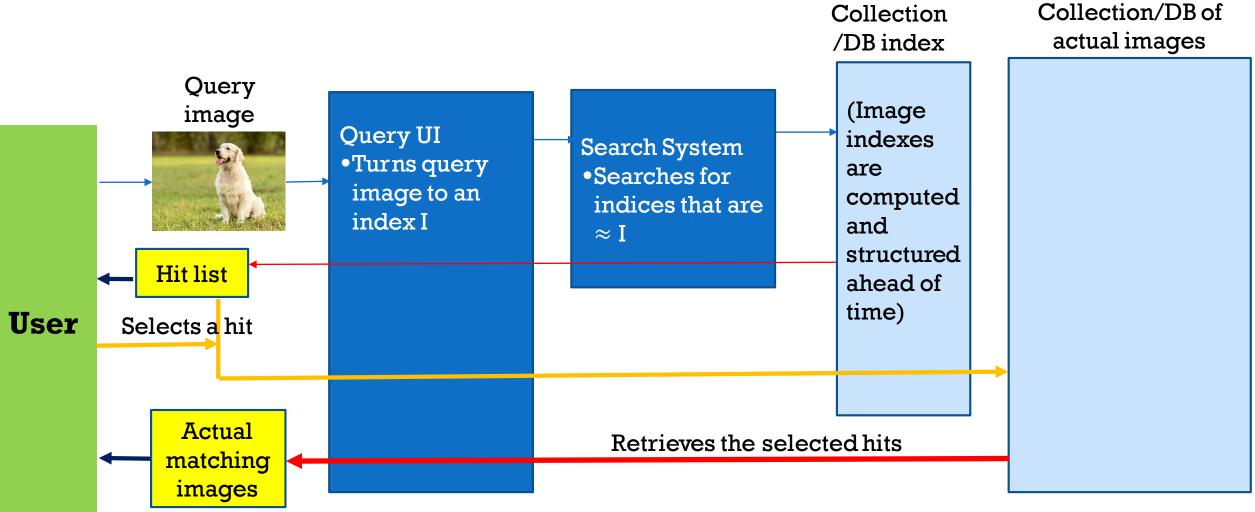
#### -- LOOK-LIKE AND SOUND-LIKE SEARCH --

- The set of all the indices of the objects is called the index of the collection
- The index of the collection should be organized in such a way that searching against that index is as fast as possible
- Searching (for an image that resembles a query image) is done as follows:
  - 1. Compute the index of the query image
  - 2. Search for that index in the collection index, or, find in the collection index all the indices whose distance (e.g., MSE) from the query index is very small
  - 3. Take those matching indices from step 2, retrieve the corresponding images, and display them to the user as the hits (or matches) of the search

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## INDEXING FOR QUERY BY EXAMPLE (2/5)

#### -- LOOK-LIKE AND SOUND-LIKE SEARCH --

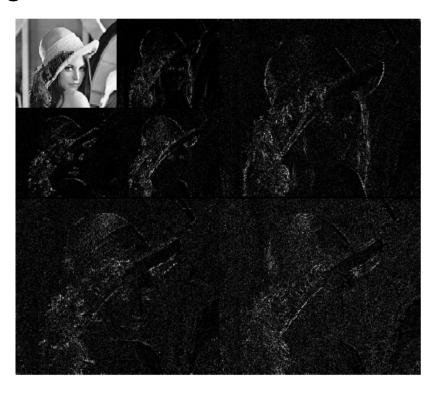


# INDEXING FOR QUERY BY EXAMPLE (3/5)

#### -- LOOK-LIKE AND SOUND-LIKE SEARCH --

- The problem is then: how to compute a small index for a given image
- One approach is to have as an image index a thumbnail of the image





Take the LL subband as the thumbnail index

# INDEXING FOR QUERY BY EXAMPLE (4/5)

#### -- LOOK-LIKE AND SOUND-LIKE SEARCH --

- But such a thumbnail is not robust against shifting or rotation of the images
- Also, the thumbnails can still be too big
- A better alternative so to compute the DCT of the LL subband, and keep only a few low-frequency components as the actual index
- This latter approach produces smaller indices, and is a little more robust to rotation/shifts in the images
- Another alternative is not to use subband coding, but instead to
  - divide each image into reasonably small blocks (though could be larger than 8x8),
  - apply DCT on each block,
  - take a few DCT low-frequency components from each block, and
  - finally take the combination of those selected components as an index for the image

This allows for some shifting, and especially for sub-image search

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# INDEXING FOR QUERY BY EXAMPLE (5/5)

#### -- LOOK-LIKE AND SOUND-LIKE SEARCH --

- The previous approaches presented for image search can be easily modified to handle sound search
  - The query is a small sound (e.g., a hum, a whistle, piece of recording, ...)
  - The search will find the full pieces of sound/music that resemble/contain the query sound
- Also, those same techniques can be adapted for indexing libraries of videos in order to do video search

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## DIFFERENTIATED ERROR PROTECTION (1/6)

- Imagine you compress an image/sound/video, and transmit the coded bistream (live)
  - During transmission, there is a high chance some of the bits get corrupted due to ambient noise in the atmosphere
- Or you stored the coded bitstream on disk, and days/years later, the file is a little corrupted due to some (perhaps minor) disk failure (e.g., a scratch)
- How can we protect against such mishaps?
- And can we protect in a way that achieves graceful degradation?
  - Graceful degradation: quality degradation proportional to the amount of error, rather than "all or nothing"

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# DIFFERENTIATED ERROR PROTECTION (2/6)

- In signal processing and information theory, there is a whole area called *Error-Correcting Coding* (ECC)
- The idea behind ECC is to
  - Divide the (long) binary string (e.g., the coded bitstream) into smaller substrings
  - Add some "redundancy" bits to each substring
  - The values of those redundancy bits are determined by the specific ECC scheme and by the values of the substrings
  - Depending on the ECC scheme and the length of the redundancy bits, one can detect and correct a number (say k) of flipped/corrupted bits in each substring

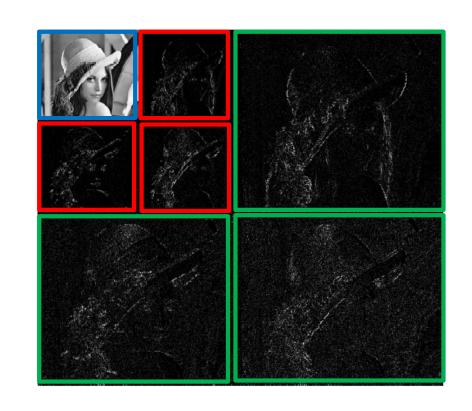
#### DIFFERENTIATED ERROR PROTECTION (3/6)

- Pros of this ECC scheme:
  - If the number of errors is  $\leq k$ , then all the errors can be corrected, and the receiver/decoder can decode the bitstream fully and correctly
- Cons:
  - If the number of errors in at least one substring is > k, then that substring cannot be corrected  $\Rightarrow$  the whole coded bitstream will likely be undecodable  $\Rightarrow$  losing the whole input
- This all-or-nothing situation is undesirable
- Rather, it will be good to be able to recover something
  - preferably the whole thing at a slightly lower resolution
- This is referred to in CS and in Engineering as graceful degradation
  - No matter how many errors, we will still be able to reconstruct/recover at a decreasingly lower resolution

#### DIFFERENTIATED ERROR PROTECTION (4/6)

#### -- GRACEFUL RECOVERY FROM BIT ERRORS --

- To achieve this graceful degradation, and even minimize the degradation, we can use JPEG/DCT compression, as well as subband coding
- In subband coding, for example
  - 1. Apply subband coding to get the subbands
  - 2. Quantize the subbands with scalar quantizers
  - 3. Turn each subband separately into a coded bitstream
  - 4. For each very high frequency subband, add a small number of redundancy bits to that band's bitstream
  - 5. As we get into lower frequency subbands, add increasingly more redundancy bits to their bitstreams
- This way, the more important data is protected more
- We are able to detect & correct more bit errors in the lower frequency subbands



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# DIFFERENTIATED ERROR PROTECTION (5/6) -- GRACEFUL RECOVERY FROM BIT ERRORS --

- This is called differentiated error protection
  - Different parts of the data is protected with different levels of protection (i.e., with different numbers of redundancy bits)
  - The more important a data part, the more protection it gets
- There is a higher probability to fully recover from (even more errors) in the low-freq subbands
- If we can't recover from the errors in a high-frequency subband, we can replace it by zeros during the reconstruction/synthesis/decoding stage.
- This leads to a (slightly) lower resolution, but still the whole image is reconstructed
- Furthermore, even if more errors occur and more (probably high-freq) subbands are corrupted beyond the redundancy bits' ability to recover them, we can replace those corrupted subbands by zeros, and still recover a lower-resolution reconstruction

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# DIFFERENTIATED ERROR PROTECTION (6/6)

#### -- IN BLOCK-DCT ENCODING --

- Use the same previous approach to bock-DCT-based encoding
- Simply protect the low-frequency components' portion of the bitstream with more redundancy bits
- As you move to higher and higher frequency components (AC terms), protect their portion of the coded bitstream with fewer and fewer redundancy bits
- At decoding time, any corrupted (likely higher-frequency) components that cannot be recovered are replaced by zeros before applying the inverse DCT
- This will result in recovering the whole image, at increasingly lower resolution, depending on the number of unrecoverable errors

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## WATERMARKING (1/4)

#### -- DEFINITION --

- Watermarking is the process of hiding information inside a file
- If the file is an image, the watermark information is not visible when the image is displayed
  - Occasionally, though, people want to <u>show</u> the watermark, like the word "draft" across the diagonal of the page, whether it is an image or a text
- If the file is audio, the watermark information is not "heard" when the file is played
- Same if the file is a video
- Furthermore, the presence of the watermark should not affect the quality of the file (whether image, audio or video)

## WATERMARKING (2/4)

#### -- **USES**--

- Watermarking is used for copyright protection
- Suppose you have an image on your Web page and you want to sell it to customers such that
  - No customer is allowed to mass-copy it for profit
- You can embed (hide) a watermark in that image, where the watermark varies from buyer to buyer, like when the watermark codes the buyer's id
- If a buyer makes and sells copies of the image they bought from you, do
  - 1. Grab one of those copies
  - 2. Recover the watermark from it
  - 3. Identify the original buyer from that watermark
  - 4. Sue that buyer

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# WATERMARKING (3/4)

#### -- DESIRABLE PROPERTIES --

- A watermark should be embeddable (hide-able) in any image
- A watermark should be undetectable
- A watermark should be indestructible (or at least should be quite robust to attacks)
  - The watermark should not be erased or distorted by various signal processing operations: filtering, compression, cropping, image enhancement, etc.
- If an image is printed on a piece of paper then digitized, it is desirable to still have the watermark preserved in that last digitized image
- Similar properties should hold for audio watermarks and video watermarks

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# WATERMARKING (3/4)

#### -- HOW TO EMBED WATERMARKS LIKE THAT--

- It is a challenging problem
- The more robust to attacks you want the watermark to be, the more challenging
- One simple way is to hide the watermark in high-frequency components
  - Modifying the HF components slightly will not produce perceptible changes
  - That is because we are less sensitive to high-frequency data
- But such a simple approach is not robust
- Other approaches involve hiding many replicas of the watermark in silent/blank spaces (like varying the spaces between words in some coded way where the code identifies the buyer)
- Other sophisticated ways code the watermark in a clever way in the HF components, such that even signal operation won't totally destroy it

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# WATERMARKING (4/4) -- AN ART BY ITSELF --

• We will not say more about watermarking

 Suffice it to say that transforms could serve as one method of hiding watermarks

• Usually that method has to be combined with other methods to produce increasingly more robust watermarks

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# FEATURE EXTRACTION AND FEATURE SELECTION IN MACHINE LEARNING (1/2)

- In machine learning, objects are typically represented by a vector of certain measurements.
- The measurements are called *features*
- The vector of the measurements is called the *feature vector* representing the object
- For example, facial recognition is a machine learning (classification) problem
  - Each human face is represented by one feature vector
  - The features can be anything that, collectively, would distinguish (and identify) a person
  - For example, features can be: length of ears, length of eyes, length of nose bridge, height of the forehead, distance between the inner corners of the eyes, etc.
  - Other types of features could be statistical features, such as "average' height of the forehead (reflecting the hairline), variance of the pixels in the forehead (capturing wrinkles), ...

# FEATURE EXTRACTION AND FEATURE SELECTION IN MACHINE LEARNING (2/2)

- DCT and DFT can yield features as well
- As we have seen, the frequency components, as features, have some interesting properties (including energy compaction)
- In particular, if a feature vector is quite long (e.g., many pixels), turning the features into frequencies and keeping only the lower-frequency components yield a smaller yet still representative/differentiating vector
- Note:
  - We're not saying that frequencies are the best or the only features
  - Rather, frequencies are potential features (among others) that have some desirable properties
  - So, one can combine a variety of features (e.g., frequencies, statistical, other measurements) into a single feature vector

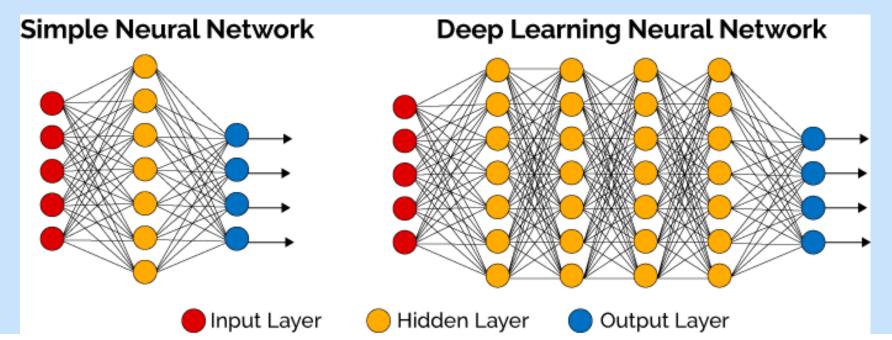
#### **AUTOENCODERS IN DEEP LEARNING**

- Autoencoders are a special case of deep neural networks
- They are meant to code/represent features and feature vectors better
  - Shorter (and thus faster to use and to store)
  - More effective way (i.e., lead to better trained classifiers)
  - More meaningful way (e.g., words can represented by vectors that capture semantics)
  - Perhaps at different levels of abstraction, for example:
    - From pixels to edges
    - From edge boundaries
    - From boundaries to basic but recognizable shapes such as circles and triangles, etc.....
- Before we can understand autoencoders and their connection to compression/decompression (coding/decoding)
  - We need to understand neural networks at some high level

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# (DEEP) NEURAL NETWORKS (1/3)

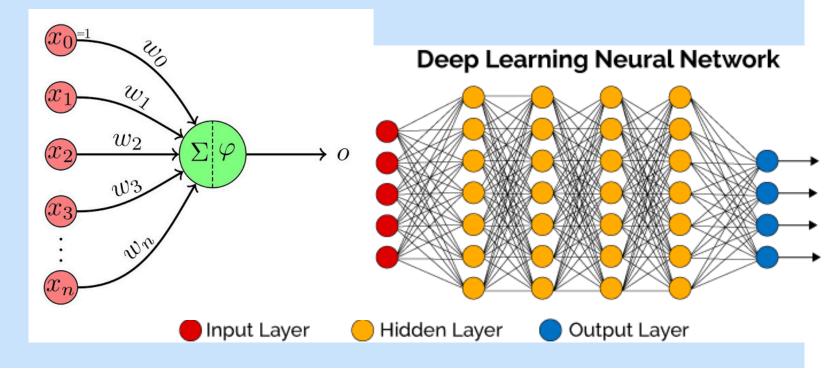
- General architecture of a (feed-forward) NN
- Every edge has a weight; the weights are the parameters of the NN
- Training a NN involves modifying the edge weights until the output of the NN agrees with the desired output to the fullest extent possible



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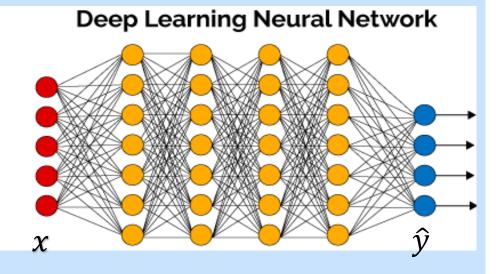
# DEEP NEURAL NETWORKS (2/3)

- Each feature vector (representing an object) is fed at the input layer:
  - The  $i^{th}$  feature is given to the  $i^{th}$  node in the input layer
- Each node in a layer (other than the input layer) receives n inputs from the n nodes in the previous layer, and computes its output as follows:  $O = \phi(\sum_i x_i w_i)$
- $\phi$  is called the *activation* function
- $\phi$  can be the
  - Sigmoid:  $\phi(t) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-t}}$
  - $\phi(t) = \tanh t$
  - ReLu:  $\phi(x) = \max(x, 0)$
  - Etc.



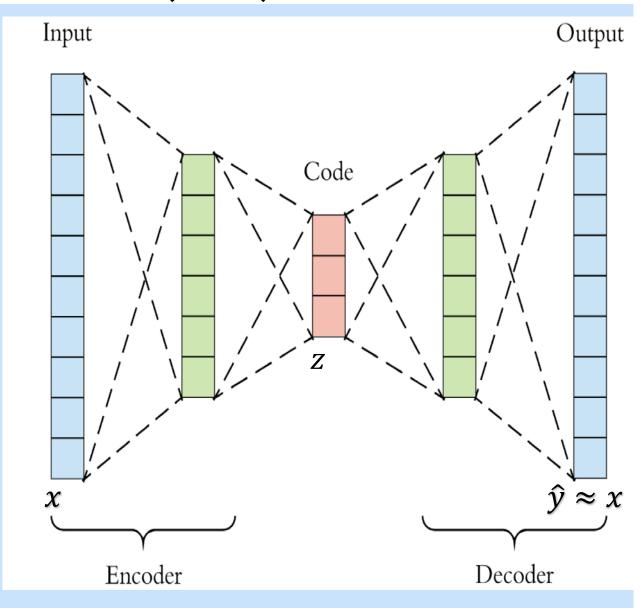
## **DEEP NEURAL NETWORKS (3/3)**

- The output of the whole DNN is a vector
- To "train" a DNN, you need a training dataset
- Each element (aka, instance/sample in the dataset is a pair (x, y) of vectors:
  - the input vector (a feature vector) x, and
  - the desired output vector *y*
- During training, instances (x, y) are used
  - 1. x is fed to the DNN as input
  - 2. The DNN produces as output a vector  $\hat{y}$
  - 3. Some error function between y and  $\hat{y}$  is computed
  - 4. Some backpropagation is performed to modify the edge weights based on the error, with the intent of reducing the error
- The previous step is repeated until the error is reduced/stabalized to some level



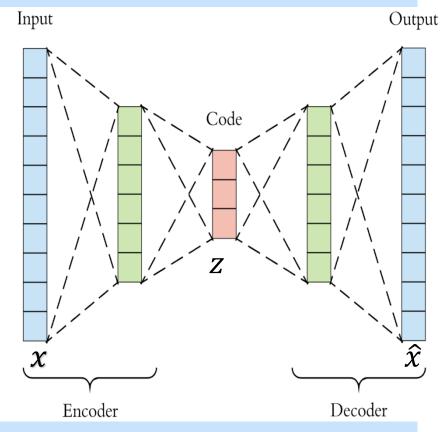
# **AUTOENCODERS (1/3)**

- An autoencoder is a DNN trained
   on a dataset where
   each output vector = the input vector
- Think of the dataset as a set of basic/raw feature vectors x without actual outputs y
  - We turn each x into a pair (x,x), so y=x
  - Train the DNN with those pairs
- When the DNN is trained, the output z of the code layer (orange) is taken as a new feature vector representing x



# **AUTOENCODERS (2/3)**

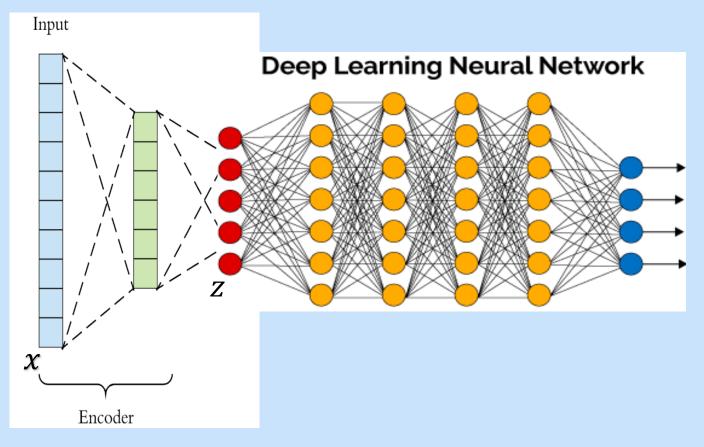
- When the DNN is trained, the output z of the code layer
   (orange) is taken as new feature vector representing x
- Typically, z is a better feature vector (than x)
   representing the underlying object
- By requiring the output to be equal to the input, the
   DNN is compression + decompression
- Due to error in the output, this compression is lossy
- The less loss there is, the more representative z is
- Once trained, the Encoder part is used as an input stage before any other DNN that will use the z vectors as input



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# **AUTOENCODERS (3/3)**

- Once trained, the Encoder part is used as an input stage before any other DNN that will use the z vectors as input
- That way, each original raw feature vector x gets transformed to be a feature vector z before it is fed to the DNN, either for training or for deployment after training



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# AUTOENCODER FOR NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING (NLP) (1/3)

- When the input is individual words, and you want to use DNN's for some text related tasks (like telling if a word is a verb or noun or preposition, etc.)
  - The word has to be represented as a numerical feature vector
  - That is because DNNs can only take numerical feature vectors as input
  - DNN's don't take symbolic input!
- A very basic way of representing a word with a numeric feature vector is the so-called
   1-hot vector
  - Imagine your language having N words (e.g., N=1 million)
  - Order the words of the language like in a dictionary:  $w_1, w_2, ..., w_N$
  - Represent  $w_i$  with a 1-hot vector  $[0, ..., 0, 1, 0 ..., 0]^T$  where 1 is in the  $i^{th}$  position
- The 1-hot vectors are really raw-feature vectors, and are utterly meaningless only referential

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# AUTOENCODER FOR NLP (2/3)

- Train an autoencoder on the words of the language: input/output (x,x) are 1-hot vectors
- After training, every 1-hot vector x is encoded into vector z by the encoder part
- The z vectors are much shorter, and tend to be more meaningful
- In actual practice, the autoencoder for natural languages involves sequences of words at a time so that the autoencoder captures relational semantics between the words that tend to co-occur in the same sentences
- But the main idea is very much the same
- The adjustment just mentioned ends up producing feature vectors z for the words where the z's of related (e.g., synonymous) words are quite similar!!!!
- Those z vectors of words are called word embeddings

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# AUTOENCODER FOR NLP (3/3)

- In short: the idea of lossy compression/decompression (or encoder/decoder)
  - Turned words into algebraically meaningful numerical vectors (word embeddings)

- Examples:
  - $z_{king} z_{queen} \approx z_{man} z_{woman}$
  - $z_{France} z_{Paris} \approx z_{Italy} z_{Rome}$

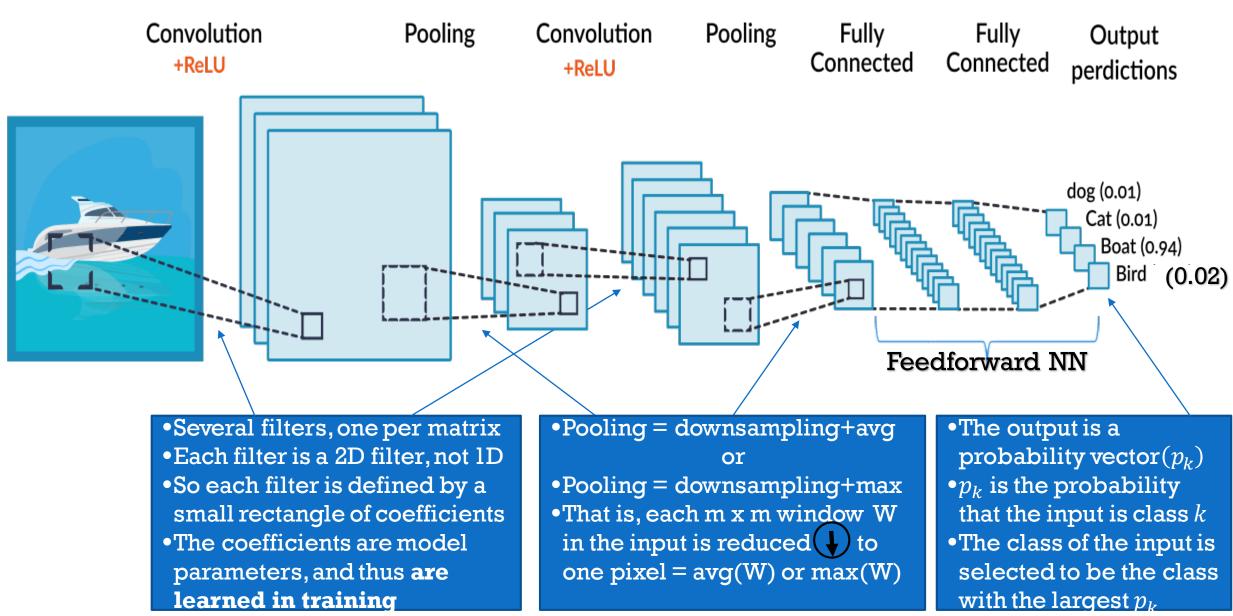
- Thus, if someone doesn't know the word for "female king",
  - they can compute  $z_{queen} \approx z_{king} z_{man} + z_{woman}$ , and
  - get the corresponding word
- Similarly if they want to know the capital of France, assuming they know the capital of Italy
- That enabled the use of DNNs for natural language processing, such as translation from English to Chinese, or finding similar words (or similar concepts), etc.
- The use of DNNs in NLP is revolutionizing that whole field

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#### FEATURE LEARNING IN DEEP LEARNING

- The same idea of autoencoder works in other fields besides NLP
- For example, for image understanding (e.g., OCR):
  - The raw features are simply the dumb pixels
  - Autoencoders can be used to convert the raw features (pixels) of an image into a more meaningful feature vector

#### CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORKS (CNN) (1/2)



# CNN (2/2)

- The filters are **not** human-designed
- Rather, the filters are <u>learned</u> during training, using the training dataset
- Therefore, the filters are customized to the application
- The customization is automated
- Otherwise, we're seeing that filtering is very useful in feature extraction/refinement/learning
  - In moving from raw pixel features to refined pixel features
- CNN's have beaten human performance at certain image understanding tasks
  - ImgeNet contests (image classification)

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#### **CLOSING THOUGHTS**

- We saw many applications of DC techniques outside of Data Compression
- Can you think of other applications?
  - Maybe from your own experiences and backgrounds
- We saw that DC techniques are being used in some aspects of machine learning
- Can machine learning be used to improve/customize compression?
  - Can we train a ML model to do a better transform?
  - Can we train a ML model to predict the next frame, and then compress the residuals (i.e., the differences between the actual frames and the predicted frames)?
- Think of other applications of DC techniques, and feel free to share them with me

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