University of Al-Hamdaniya Computer Science Department Digital image processing



Image Compression

Lec-15

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Image Compression is reducing the size of the image data while retaining the necessary data for the image file. The shrinking file size is called the compressed file that is used to retrieve the compressed image.

هو تقليل حجم بيانات الصورة مع الاحتفاظ بالبيانات الضرورية لملف الصورة اي ان حجم الملف المتقلص يسمى بالملف المضغوط الذي يستخدم لاسترجاع الصورة المضغوطة.

We should know:

- 1. Image Type
- 2. Image Size
- 3. Image data

The compression process consists of two phases:

- 1. Image compression
- 2. Decompression

Data compression: is the process of reducing the amount of data required to represent given quantity of information. The data and information are not the same meaning.

Data refers to the means by which the information is conveyed. البيانات هي الوسائل التي يتم من خلالها نقل المعلومات.

Various amounts of data can represent the same amount of information.

Data redundancy: is the central concept in image compression and can be mathematically defined.

The **goal of image compression** is to reduce the amount of data required to represent a digital image.

Image compression methods:

- 1. Lossless (Reversible يمكن ارجاعها)
- 2. Lossy (Non reversible لايمكن ارجاعها)

Lossless Data Compression

- In lossless data compression, the integrity of the data is preserved يحافظ عليها. The original data and the data after compression and decompression are exactly the same because; the compression and decompression algorithms are exact inverses of each other is no part of the data is lost in the process.
- Redundant المكور data is removed in compression and added during decompression.
 Lossless compression methods are normally used when we cannot afford to lose any data.
 In general the lossless method:
- 1. Information preserving, المعلومات
- 2. Low compression ratios.

Lossy (Non reversible)

Our eyes and ears cannot distinguish subtle الطفيفة changes. In such cases, we can use a lossy data compression method. These methods are cheaper; they take less time and space when it comes to sending millions of bits per second for images and video.

Several methods have been developed using lossy compression techniques:

- 1. JPEG (Joint Photographic Experts Group) encoding is used to compress pictures and graphics
- 2. MPEG (Moving Picture Experts Group) encoding is used to compress video, and
- 3. MP3 (MPEG audio layer 3) for audio compression.

In general the lossy method:

- 1. Not information preserving
- 2. High compression ratios

Definitions

```
n1 = data·

n2 = data redundancy (i·e·, data after compression)·

Compression ratio (C_R) = \frac{n_1}{n_2}

Relative data redundancy (R_D) = 1 - \frac{1}{C_R}
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Example:

if
$$C_R = 10$$
, then $R_D = \left(1 - \frac{1}{10}\right) \times 100 = (0.9) \times 100 = 90\%$

((90% of data in dataset1 is redundant))

Compression attempts to reduce one or more of these redundancy types.

There are several ways of lossless method we can take some of them as follows:

- 1. Huffman Coding
- 2. Run-Length coding (RLC).
- 3. Difference coding (predictive coding)

Yields the smallest possible number of unique code symbols per source symbol.

يحقق أصغر عدد ممكن من الرموز الفريدة لكل مصدر رمز.

Basic idea: Different gray levels occur with different probability (non-uniform histogram).

<u>Code:</u> a list of symbols (letters, numbers, bits etc.)

Code word: a sequence of symbols used to represent a piece of information or an event (e.g., gray levels).

Code word length: number of symbols in each 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

➤ Use shorter code words for the more common gray levels and longer code words for the less common gray levels. This is called Variable Length Coding.

The amount of data in an $M \times N$ image with L gray levels is equal to $M \times N \times L_{avg}$, where:

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

 $l(r_k)$ is the number of bits used to represent gray level r_k , and

 $P(r_k)$ is the probability of gray level r_k in the image.

Total number of bits= $N * M * L_{avg}$

Huffman Coding steps:

Step 1.

- 1. Sort the gray levels by decreasing probability.
- 2. Add the two smallest probabilities.
- 3. Sort the new value into the list.
- 4. Repeat until only two probabilities remain.

Example:

$$a_1 = 0.1$$
, $a_2 = 0.4$, $a_3 = 0.06$

$$, a_4 = 0.1, a_5 = 0.04, a_6 = 0.3$$

Original source		Source reductions				
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 —	0.4	
a ₁	0.1	0.1	0.2 —	→ 0.3 →		
a_4	0.1	0.1 —	0.1 -			
a_3	0.06	→ 0.1 —	1			
a ₅	0.04					

Huffman Coding steps:

Step 2.

- Give the code 0 to the highest probability and the code 1 to the lowest probability in the present node.
- Go backwards through the tree and add 0 to the highest and 1 to the lowest probability in each node until all gray levels have a unique code.

	Origina	al source			S	ource	reductions	S		
Symbol	Prob.	Code		1		2	110000	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 Г	0.2	010	← □ 0.3	01	7	
a ₄	0.1	0100	0.1	0100	0.1	011				
a_3	0.06	01010	0.1	0101						
a ₅	0.04	01011								

Lavg assuming Huffman coding:

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=1}^{\circ} l(a_k)P(a_k)$$
= 3 × 0.1 + 1 × 0.4 + 5 × 0.06 + 4 × 0.1 + 5 × 0.04 + 2 × 0.3
= 2.2 bit/symbol

Laxg assuming binary codes: 6 symbol, we need a 3-bit code

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

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

Example

r_k	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
1	0.4	→ 0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	√ 0.6
4	0.3	→ 0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	/ 0.4
0	0.1	→ 0.1	0.1	0.1	√0.2	→ 0.3	
5	0.1	→ 0.1	0.1	0.1	/0.1	/	
3	0.05	→ 0.05	0.05	→ 0.1			
2	0.03	→ 0.03	→ 0.05				
6	0.01	→ 0.02	/				
7	0.01	/					
	$L_{avg} = 3$						
r_k	code	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	/0
4	00	00	00	00	00	00	\1
0	011	011	011	011	/ 010	← 01	
5	0100	0100	0100	0100	√ 011	/	
3	01010	01010	01010	←0101			
2	010110	010110	← 01011	/			
6	0101110	← 010111	/			:	
7	0101111	/					
7	0101111						

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} I(r_k) p_r(r_k) = 2.27$$

$$C_R = \frac{n_1}{n_2} = \frac{3}{2.27} = 1.32$$

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{C_R} = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} = \frac{3 - 2.27}{3} = 0.24$$

- 1. The Huffman code results in unambiguous code.
- 2. The code is reversible without loss.
- The table for the translation of the code has to be stored together with the coded image.
- 4. The Huffman code does not take correlation between adjacent pixels into consideration

Run-Length Coding (RLC)

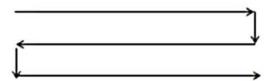
2. Run-Length coding (RLC).

Every code word is made up of a pair (g, l) where g is the gray level, and l is the number of pixels with that gray level (length, or "run").

Example:

Creates the run-length code (56, 3)(82, 3)(83, 1)(80, 4)(56, 5).

The code is calculated row by row.



Very efficient coding for binary data. Important to know position, and the image dimensions must be stored with the coded image. Used in most fax machines.

Difference coding (Predictive Coding)

3. Difference coding

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x_i & \text{if } i = 0 \\ x_i = x_i - x_{i-1} & \text{if } i > 0 \end{cases}$$

<u>Example</u>

Original = $56 \ \underline{56} \ \underline{56} \ \underline{82} \ \underline{82} \ \underline{82} \ \underline{83} \ \underline{80} \ \underline{80} \ \underline{80} \ \underline{80} \ \underline{56} \ \underline{56} \ \underline{56} \ \underline{56} \ \underline{56} \ \underline{56}$ Code $f(\underline{xi}) = 56 \ 0 \ \underline{0} \ 26 \ 0 \ \underline{0} \ 1 \ -3 \ 0 \ \underline{0} \ \underline{0} \ -24 \ 0 \ \underline{0} \ \underline{0} \ \underline{0} \ \underline{0}$

Both run-length coding, and difference coding are reversible, and can be combined with, e.g., Huffman coding.

Example: Consider the pixel {23, 34, 39, 47, 55, 63}. Demonstrate the predictive coding.

Solution:

Value	Predictive Coding
23	23
34	34 - 23 = 11
39	39 - 34 = 5
47	47 - 39 = 8
55	55 - 47 = 8
63	63 - 55 = 8

- Max value in original sequence = 63 Requires (6-bits + 1-bit for sign)
- No. of bits required to code original message = 6*7 = 42
- Max value in predicted code is = 23 Requires (5-bits + 1-bit for sign)
- No. of bits required to code predictive code = 6*6 = 36

- □ If the difference crosses the threshold limit, it creates a problem known as Overloading
- ☐ Solution of this is to ignore the differences and use the original message for coding

Consider the pixel {23, **64**, 39, 47, 55, 63}

Value	Predictive Coding
23	23
64	64-23 = 41
39	39-64 = -25
47	47-39 = 8
55	55-47 = 8
63	63-55 = 8

- Max value in original sequence = 63 Requires (6-bits + 1-bit for sign)
- No. of bits required to code original message = 6*7 = 42
- Solution
- 5*(5+1) + 1(6+1) = 5*6+7
- 30 + 7 = 37

End of Lecture