

Image Compression Overview

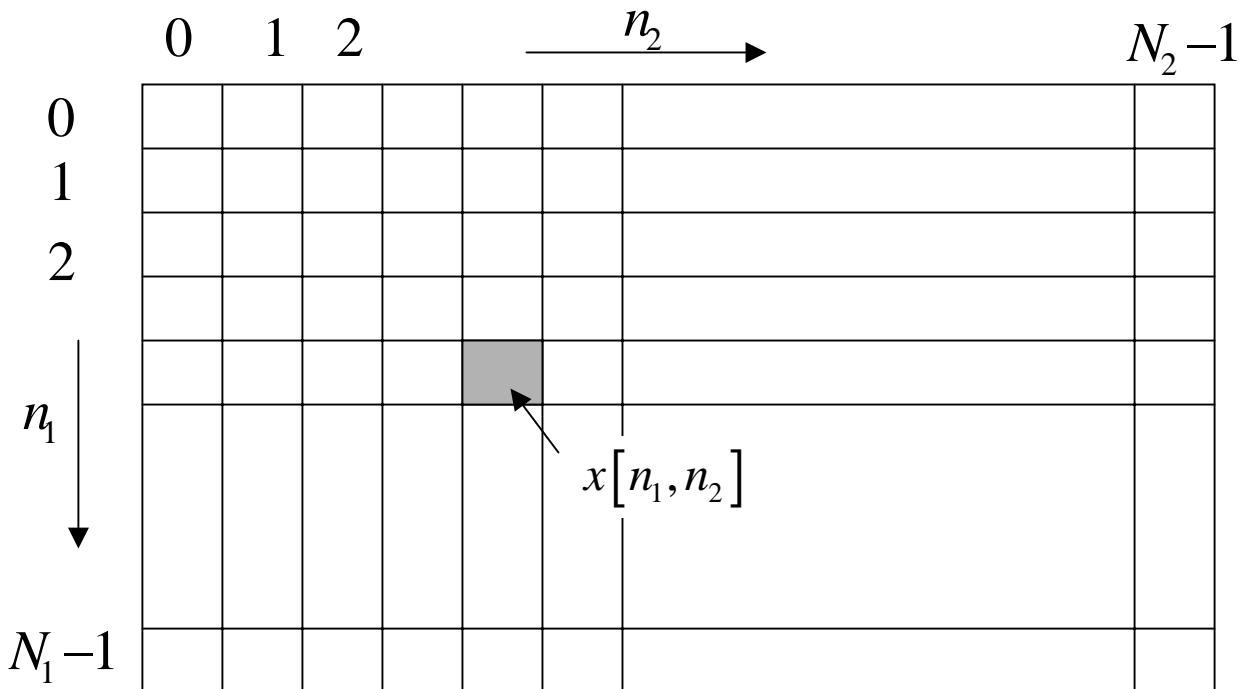
- Goal of this chapter: provide a first introduction of some key terms and ideas of image compression, without rigorous treatment
- Lossless vs lossy compression
- Measuring distortion and compression
- Statistical redundancy and entropy
- Compression as a vector quantization problem
- Quantization
- Transforms
- Compression with predictive feedback



Digital images

- A digital image is a two-dimensional sequence of samples

$$x[n_1, n_2], \quad 0 \leq n_1 < N_1, \quad 0 \leq n_2 < N_2$$



Discrete image intensities

- Unsigned B-bit imagery $x[n_1, n_2] \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^B - 1\}$
- Signed B-bit imagery $x[n_1, n_2] \in \{-2^{B-1}, -2^{B-1} + 1, \dots, 2^{B-1} - 1\}$
- Most common: $B=8$, but larger B are used in medical, military, or scientific applications.
- Useful interpretation

$$x[n_1, n_2] = \left\langle 2^B x'[n_1, n_2] \right\rangle$$

Real-valued
intensities,
range 0...1
or $-1/2 \dots +1/2$

Rounding
to nearest
integer



Multiple image components

- Color images typically represented by three values per sample location, for **red**, **green** and **blue** primary components

$$x_R [n_1, n_2], \quad x_G [n_1, n_2], \quad x_B [n_1, n_2]$$

- General multi-component image

$$x_C [n_1, n_2], \quad c = 1, 2, \dots, C$$

- Examples:

- Color printing: cyan, magenta, yellow, black dyes, sometimes more
- Hyperspectral satellite imaging: 100s of channels



Some classes of imagery

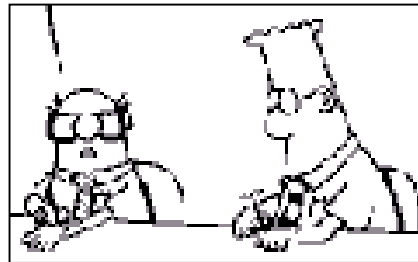
- “Natural” image



- Text image

Stanford University
electrical engineering

- Graphics



Lossless compression

- Minimize number of bits required to represent original digital image samples w/o any loss of information.
- All B bits of each sample must be reconstructed perfectly.
- Achievable compression usually rather limited.
- Applications
 - Binary images (facsimile)
 - Medical images
 - Master copy before editing
 - Palettized color images



Lossy compression

- Some deviation of decompressed image from original (“distortion”) is often acceptable:
 - Human visual system might not perceive loss, or tolerate it.
 - Digital input to compression algorithm is imperfect representation of real-world scene
- Much higher compression than with lossless.
- Lossy compression used widely for natural images (e.g. JPEG) and motion video (e.g. MPEG).



Lossy compression: measuring distortion

- Most commonly employed: Mean Squared Error

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{N_1 N_2} \sum_{n_1=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{n_2=0}^{N_2-1} \left(x[n_1, n_2] - \hat{x}[n_1, n_2] \right)^2$$

... or, equivalently, Peak Signal to Noise Ratio

$$\text{PSNR} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{(2^B - 1)^2}{\text{MSE}} \text{ dB}$$

- Advantages
 - Easy calculation
 - Mathematical tractability in optimization problems
- Disadvantage
 - Neglects properties of human vision



Gamma correction

- Display devices (e.g. CRTs) highly nonlinear

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Screen} \\ \text{luminance} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} L \sim x^\gamma, \quad \gamma = 1.8 \dots 2.8 \end{array} \right.$$

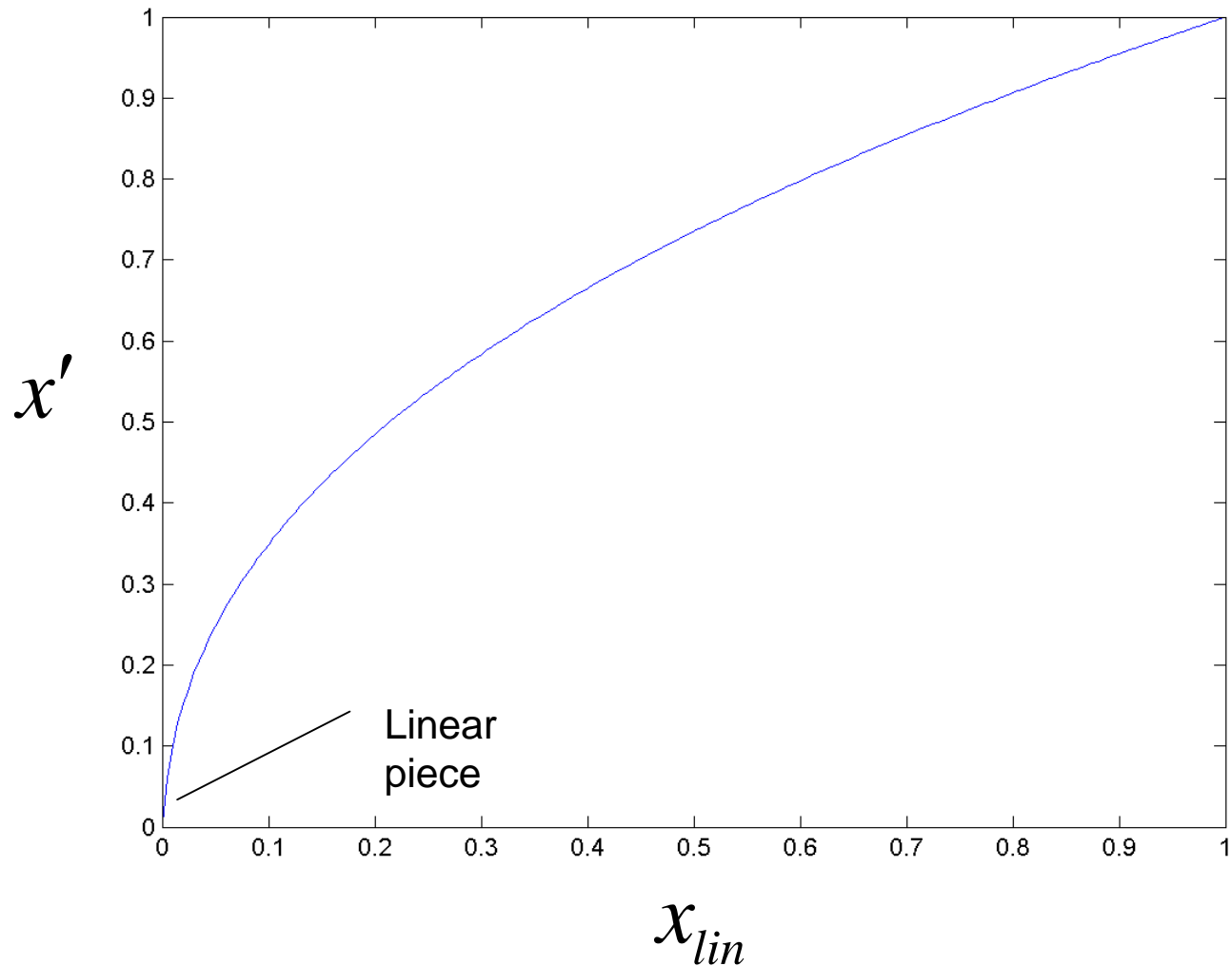
- Cameras compensate by γ -predistortion circuitry
- IEC 61966-2-1 standard for γ -predistorted color space sRGB (“standard RGB”), each normalized linear RGB component mapped by

$$x' = \begin{cases} gx_{lin} & \text{if } 0 \leq x_{lin} \leq \varepsilon \\ (1 + \beta) x_{lin}^{1/\gamma} - \beta & \text{if } \varepsilon \leq x_{lin} \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

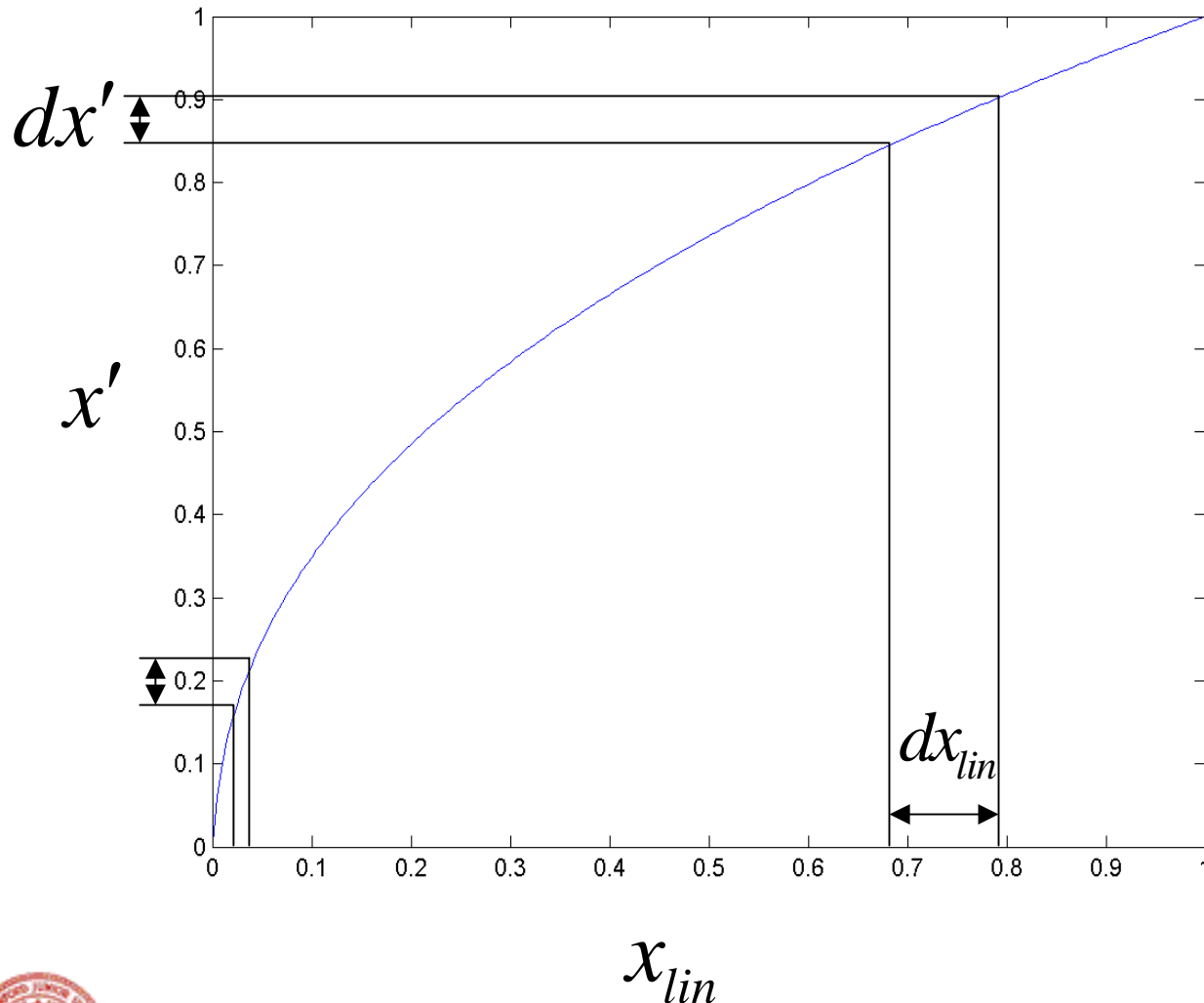
$$\gamma = 2.4, \quad \beta = 0.055, \quad \varepsilon = \left(\frac{\beta}{(1 - \beta) \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right)} \right)^\gamma, \quad g = \frac{\beta}{\varepsilon(\gamma - 1)}$$



sRGB γ -characteristic



Effect of a small error



$$\begin{aligned} dx_{lin} &= \gamma (x')^{\gamma-1} dx' \\ &= \gamma (x_{lin})^{1-1/\gamma} dx' \end{aligned}$$

Roughly matches
Weber's Law.

PSNR distortion
measure only useful
in the γ -corrected
domain.



Measures of compression

- Image represented by “bit-stream” \mathbf{c} of length $\|\mathbf{c}\|$.
- Compare no. of bits w/ and w/o compression

$$\text{compression ratio} = \frac{N_1 N_2 B}{\|\mathbf{c}\|}$$

- Alternatively

$$\text{bit-rate} = \frac{\|\mathbf{c}\|}{N_1 N_2} \text{ bits/pixel}$$

- For lossy compression, bit-rate more meaningful than compression ratio, as B is somewhat arbitrary.



Typical bit-rates after compression

- Substantially dependent on image content: consider typical natural images
- Lossless compression: $(B-3)$ bpp (bits per pixel)
- Assume viewing on computer monitor, 90 pixels/inch.
- Lossy compression,
 - high quality: 1 bpp
 - moderate quality: 0.5 bpp
 - usable quality: 0.25 bpp
- Perceived distortion depends on sampling density and contrast



How does compression work?

- Exploit statistical redundancy.
 - Take advantage of patterns in the signal.
 - Describe frequently occurring events efficiently.
 - Lossless coding: only statistical redundancy
- Introduce acceptable deviations.
 - Omit “irrelevant” detail that humans cannot perceive.
 - Match the signal resolution (in space, time, amplitude) to the application
 - Lossy coding: exploit statistical and visual redundancy



Statistical redundancy

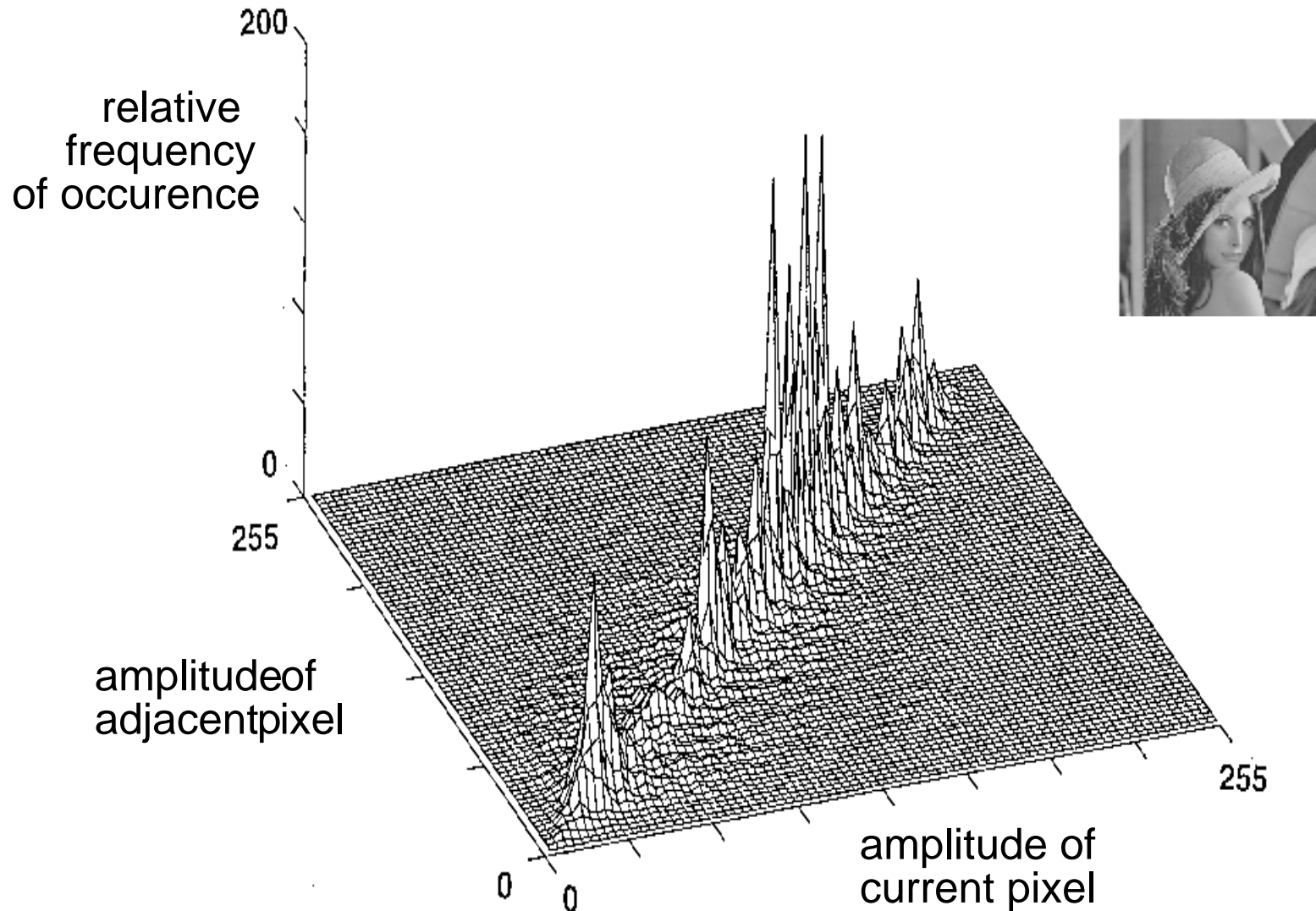
- Trivial example: Given two B-bit integers (e.g., representing two adjacent pixels)

$$x_1, x_2 \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^B - 1\}$$

- Assume that x_1, x_2 only takes on values $\{0, 1\}$
 - Compression to 1 bpp
- Further assume, that $x_1 = x_2$
 - Compression to 0.5 bpp
- Hope: bit-rate increases only slightly, as long as the above assumptions hold with high probability



Joint histogram of two horizontally adjacent pixels



Entropy

- Statistical redundancy is formalized by the concept of entropy of Shannon's information theory
- Minimum bit-rate for encoding x_1 or x_2 separately

$$H(x_1) \quad H(x_2)$$

- Minimum bit-rate for encoding x_1 and x_2 jointly

$$H(x_1, x_2) \leq H(x_1) + H(x_2)$$

- Entropies $H(x_1)$, $H(x_2)$, $H(x_1, x_2)$ are determined entirely by the statistical distribution of values x_1 and x_2



Visual Irrelevance

- For images to be viewed by humans, no need to represent more than the visible resolution in
 - space
 - time
 - brightness
 - color
- Required resolution might depend on image content (“masking”)
- For some applications, only a specific region of the image might be relevant, e.g., in
 - medical imaging
 - military imaging



Irrelevance in Color Imagery

- Human visual system has much lower acuity for color hue and saturation than for brightness
- Use color transform to facilitate exploiting that property

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Luminance} \\ \text{component} \end{array} \left(\begin{array}{c} x_Y \\ x_{Cb} \\ x_{Cr} \end{array} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.299 & 0.587 & 0.114 \\ -0.169 & -0.331 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & -0.419 & -0.0813 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_R \\ x_G \\ x_B \end{pmatrix}$$

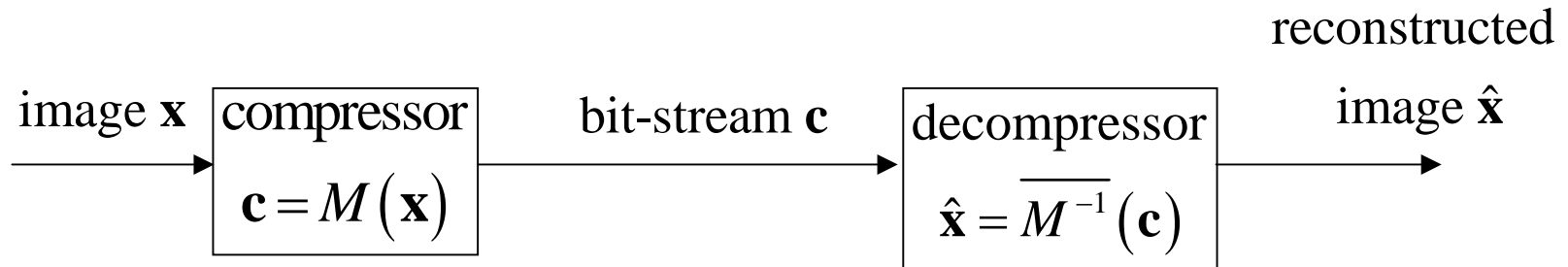
Chrominance components

RGB components (γ -predistorted)

- **Note** $x_{Cb} = 0.564(x_B - x_Y)$ $x_{Cr} = 0.713(x_R - x_Y)$
- Cb and Cr often sub-sampled 2:1 relative to Y .



Compression as a global mapping



Lookup table interpretation	lookup table $2^{N_1 N_2 B}$ entries	fixed length $\ c\ $	lookup table $2^{\ c\ }$ entries
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- Lossless compression $\overline{M^{-1}} = M^{-1}$
- Lossy compression

$$c = M(x) = \arg \min_{c'} D(x, \overline{M^{-1}}(c'))$$

- Leads to idempotent compression system

$$M(\overline{M^{-1}}(c)) = c$$

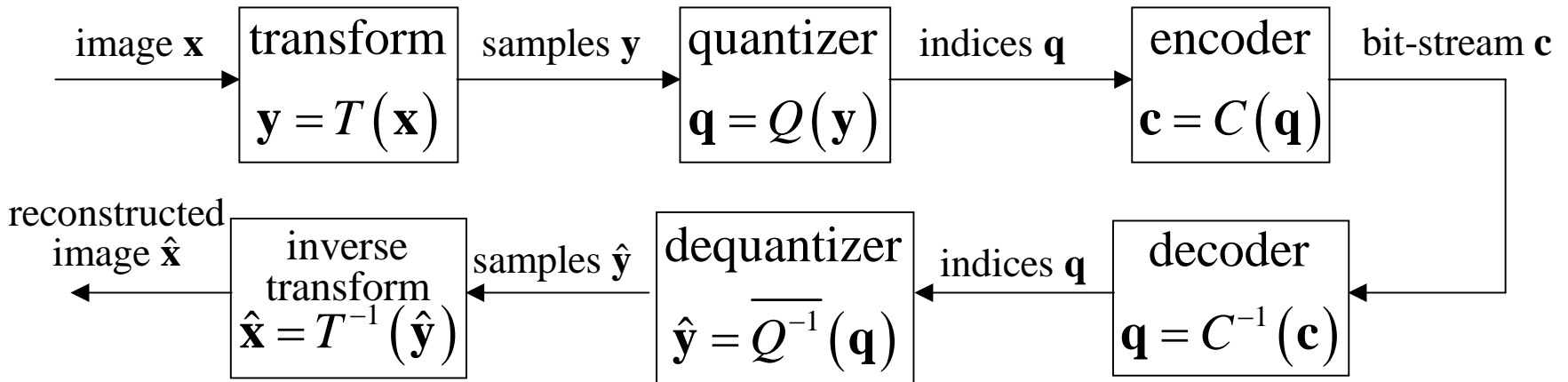


Compression as a global mapping (cont.)

- Variable length encoding: need formulation of trade-off between rate and distortion
- Lookup table formulation corresponds to approach taken by fixed-length vector quantization
- Size of lookup tables for entire image is impractical (both for encoder and decoder)
- Impose structure on mappings M and $\overline{M^{-1}}$
 - Avoid exponential increase of complexity with image size and size of bit-stream
 - Maintain achievable performance close to unconstrained system



Typical structured compression system



- Transform $T(\mathbf{x})$ usually invertible
- Quantization $Q(\mathbf{y})$ not invertible, introduces distortion
- Combination of encoder $C(\mathbf{q})$ and decoder $C^{-1}(\mathbf{c})$ lossless



Variable length coding

- Goal: exploit non-uniformity of probability distribution of quantization indices

- Simple example: Probabilities Code words

$$P_q(q) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & \text{if } q = 0 \\ 1/4 & \text{if } q = 1 \\ 1/8 & \text{if } q = 2 \\ 1/8 & \text{if } q = 3 \end{cases} \quad \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 01 \\ 001 \\ 000 \end{matrix}$$

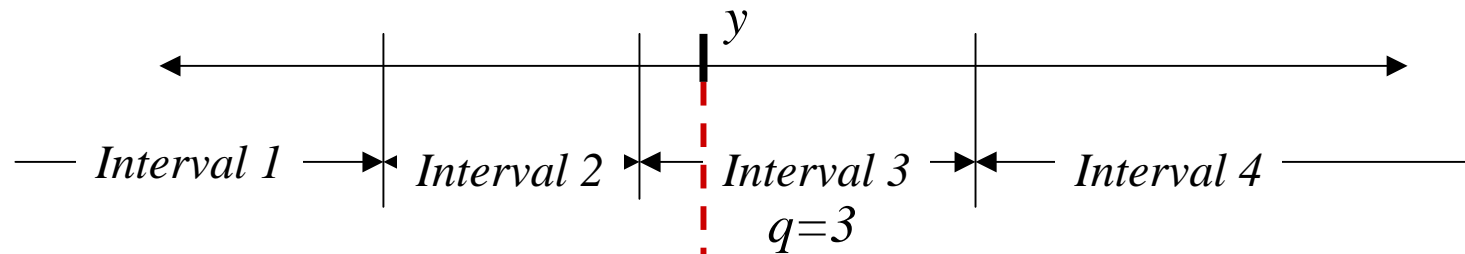
Average code word length $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \text{ bits} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 2 \text{ bits} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{8} \cdot 3 \text{ bits} = 1.75 \text{ bits}$

- Often much bigger gains for image compression

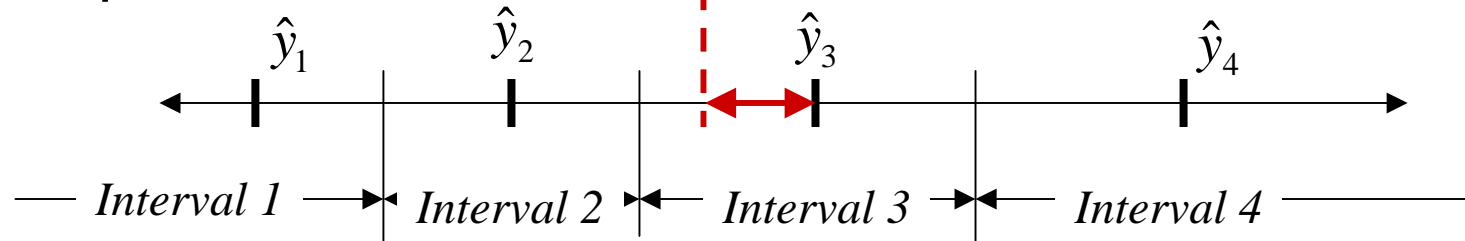


Quantization

- Goal: reduce the number of possible amplitude values for coding
- Simple scalar quantizer with four output indices

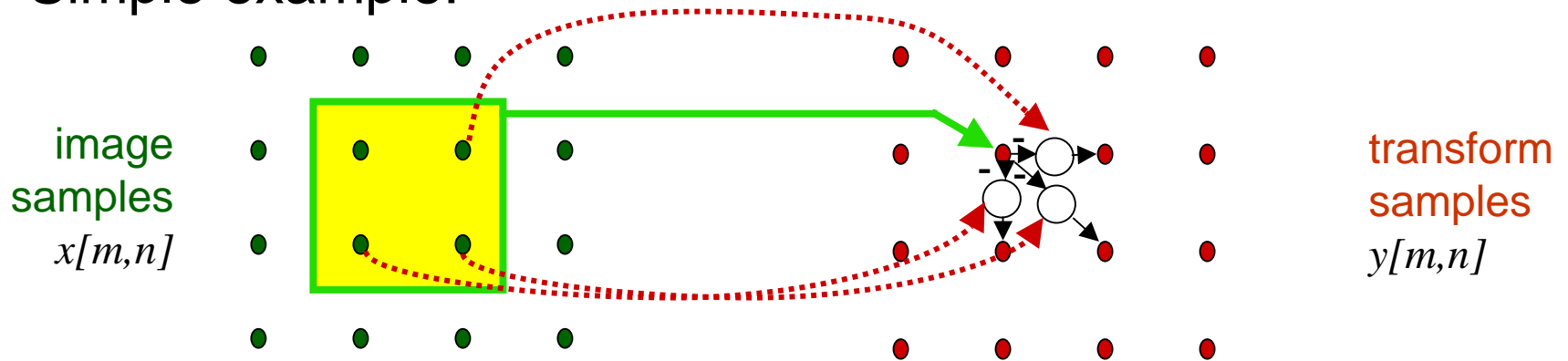


- Dequantization



Transforms

- Goal: represent the image samples in a different form, such that statistical dependencies are greatly reduced
- Simple example:

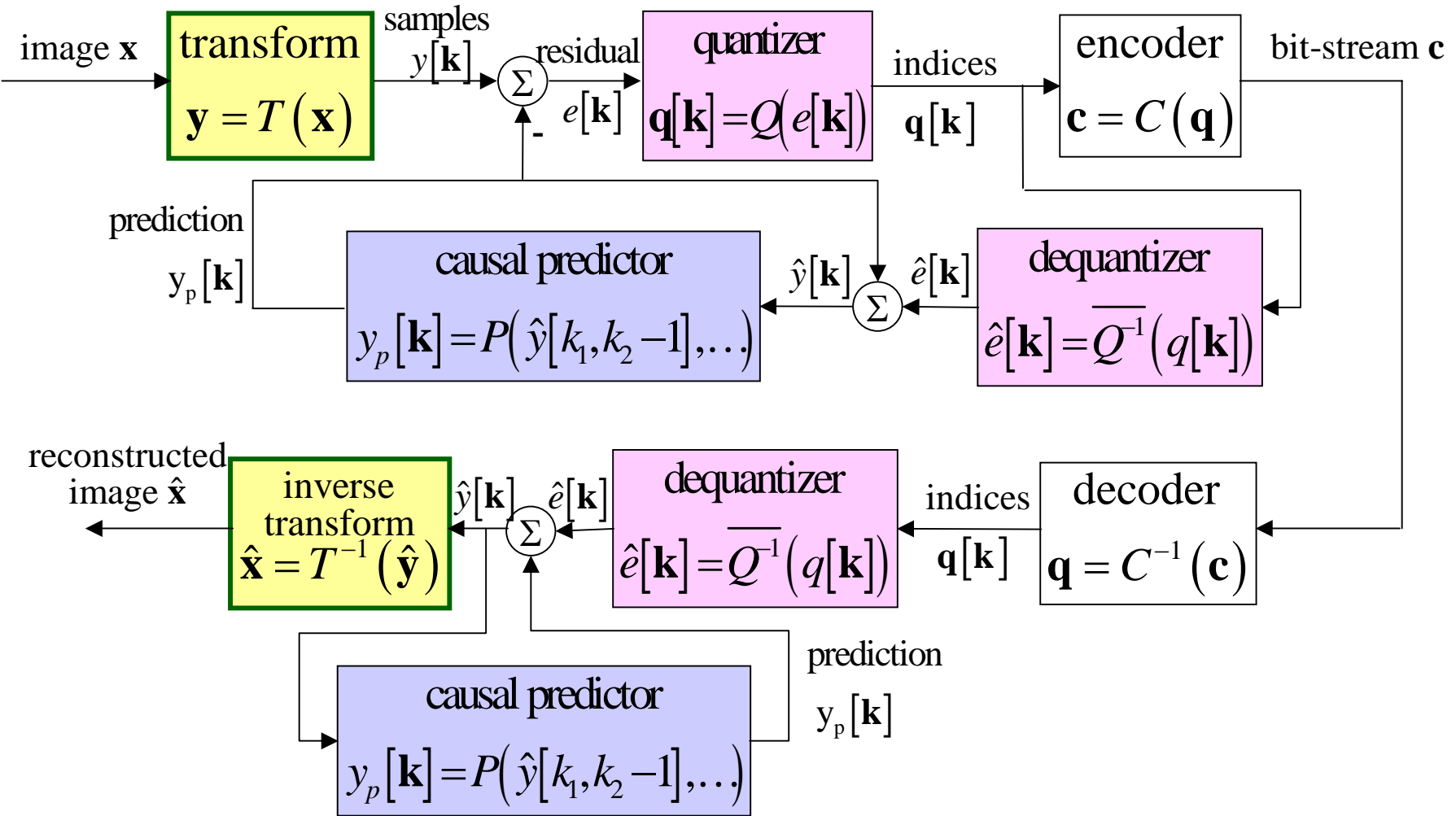


$$y[m,n] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i,j \in \{0,1\}} x[m+i, n+j] & \text{if } m,n \text{ both even} \\ x[m,n] - y\left[2\left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor, 2\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

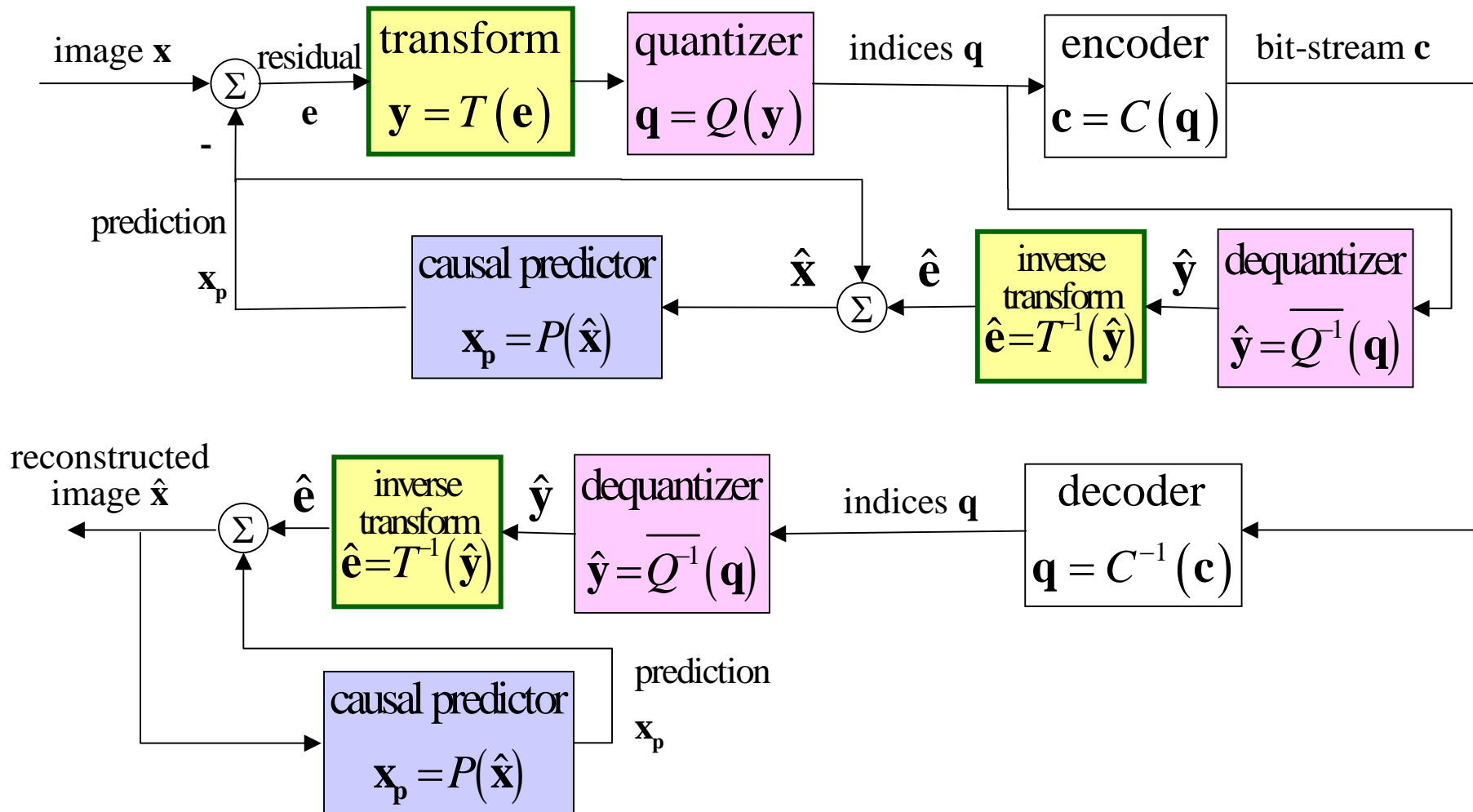
$$\hat{x}[m,n] = \begin{cases} 2\hat{y}[m,n] - \sum_{i,j \in \{0,1\}} \hat{y}[m+i, n+j] & \text{if } m,n \text{ both even} \\ \hat{y}[m,n] - \hat{y}\left[2\left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor, 2\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Compression with predictive feedback in the transform domain



Compression with predictive feedback in the image domain



Reading Assignment

Taubman+Marcellin, Chapters 2.1 and 2.2

