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Introduction to compression and quantization

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TSIA 207





Plan

Introduction

Vision

Representation

Uniform Quantization

Predictive Quantization



Plan

Introduction

Vision

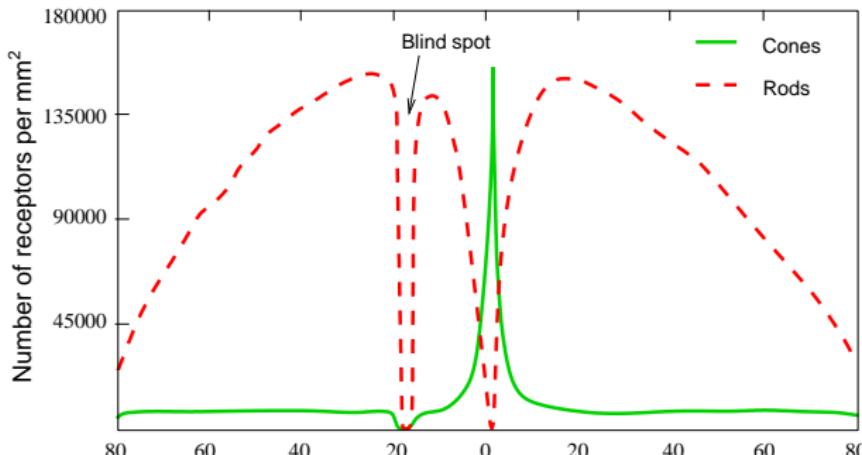
Representation

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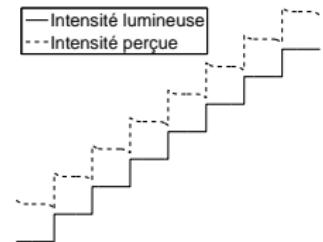
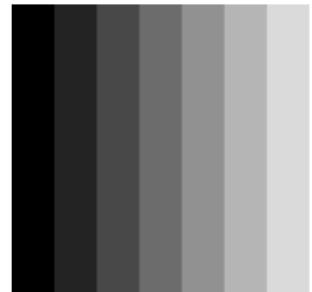
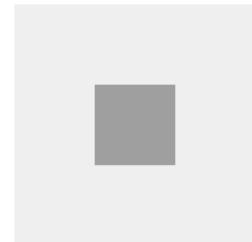
The eye

- ▶ Light is transformed in neural impulsions by the rods and the cones in the retina
 - ▶ **Cones** (6÷7 millions, at the center of the retina): sensitive to colors, good resolution, work in high illumination
 - ▶ **Rods** (75÷150 millions) : sensitive to light intensity, smaller resolution, work in low illumination

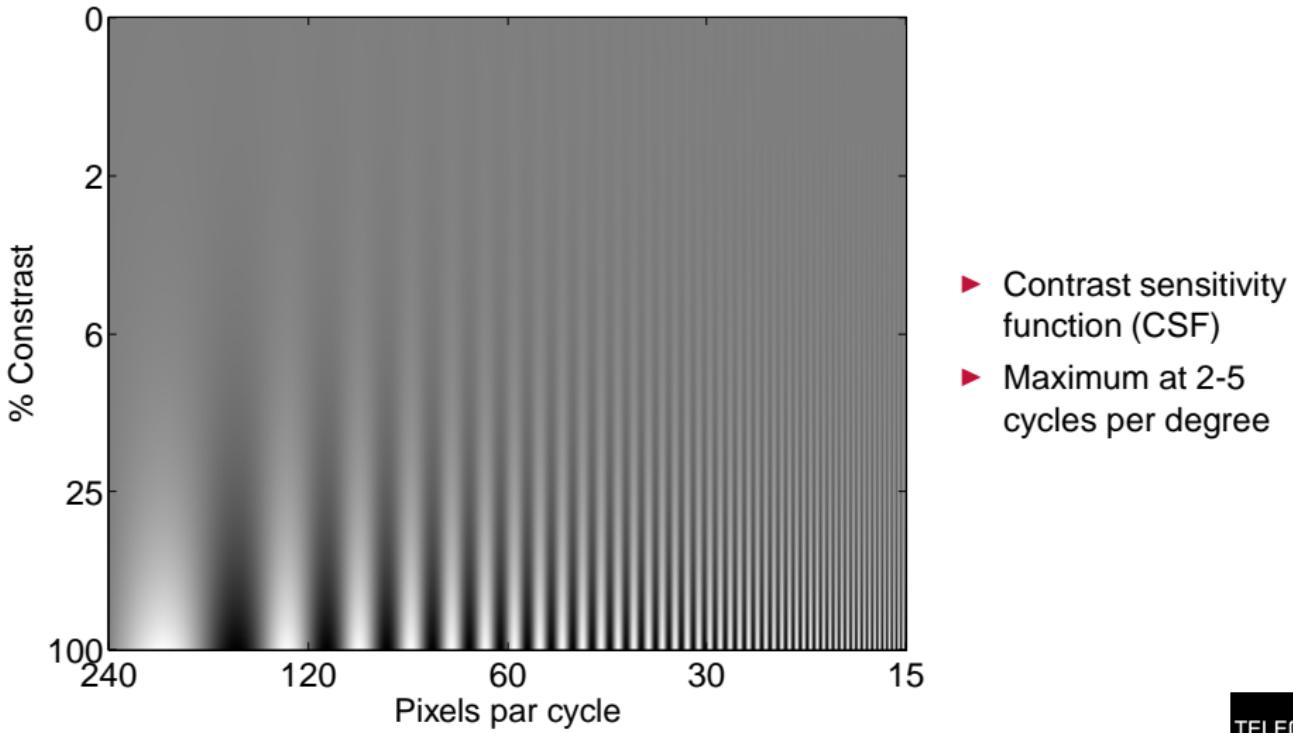


Light Perception

- ▶ Perceived luminosity: log function of intensity
- ▶ Global dynamic range: $\approx 10^{10}$ (100dB)
- ▶ Adaptation to light conditions

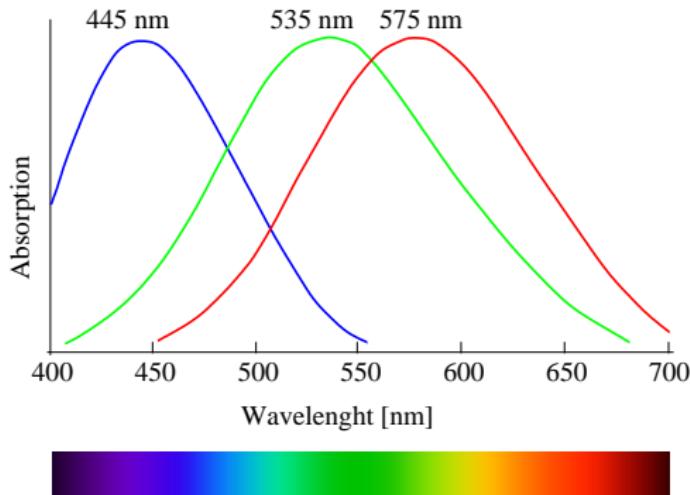


Contrast sensitivity function



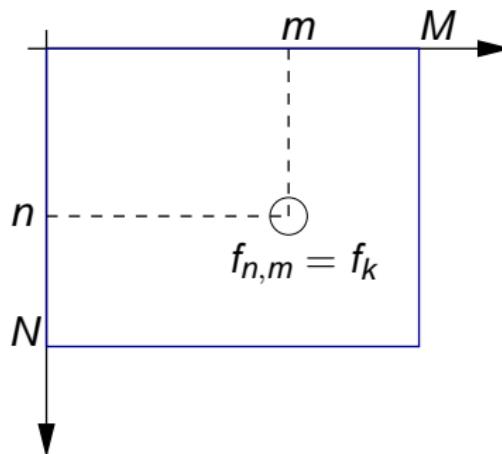
Color perception

- ▶ Visible light: $400 \div 700 \text{ nm}$
- ▶ Cones sensitivity depends on the wavelength
 - ▶ 65% red cones
 - ▶ 33% green cones
 - ▶ 2% blue cones
- ▶ The color sensation corresponds to the *tristimulus*
- ▶ Combination of *primary colors*



Representation of digital images

- ▶ Discrete grid, image $N \times M$ pixels
- ▶ Pixel (m, n) is also accessible in “raster scan” in position k
 $k = (n - 1)M + m$
- ▶ Notation: $f_{n,m}$ or f_k



Representation of digital images

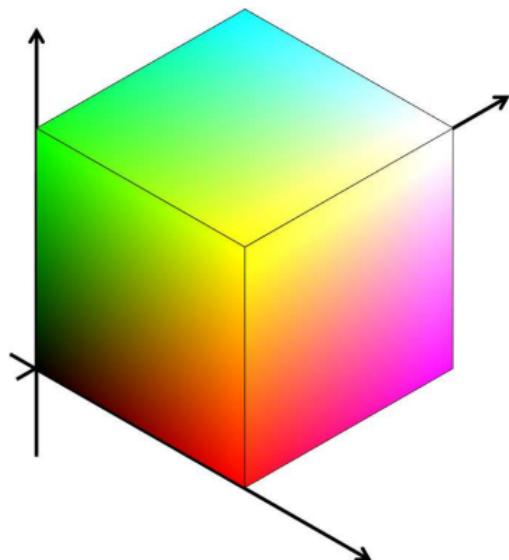
Images color : RGB Format

Color images = three components

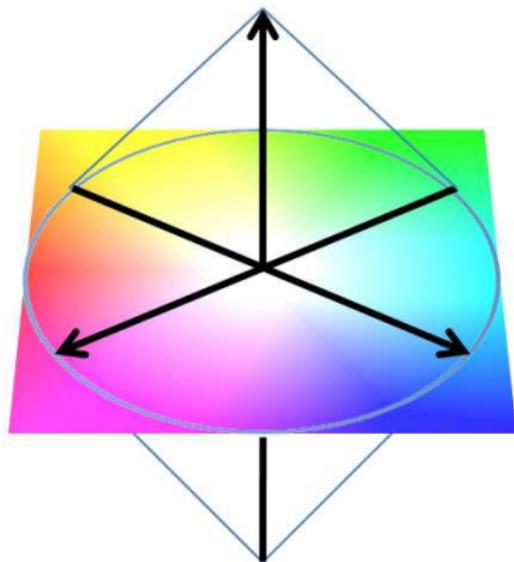


Representation of digital images

Color spaces



Espace RGB



Espace HSV

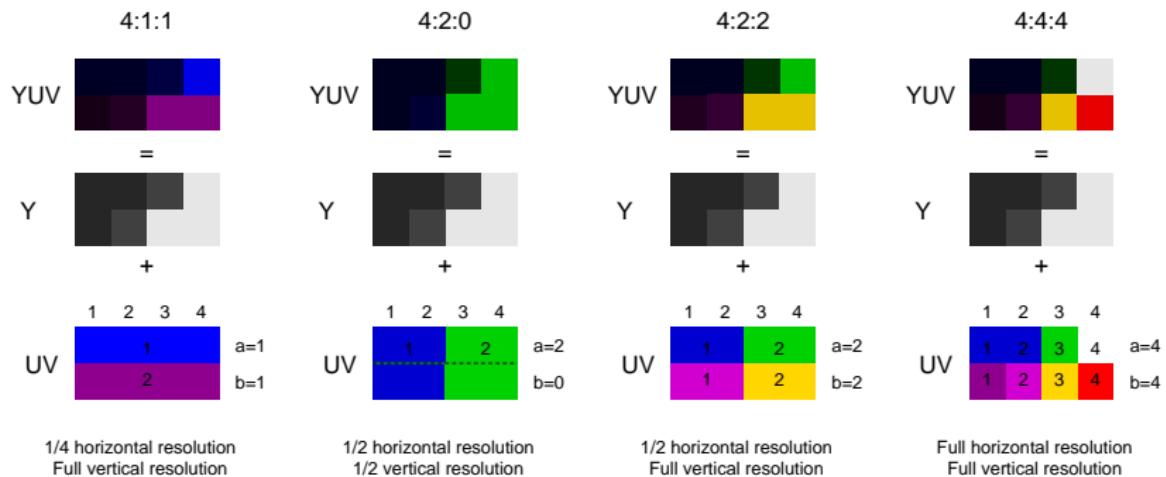
Representation of digital images

Color images: YUV Format

One luminance component (Y) and two chromainance components (U and V, typically subsampled)



Color space subsampling



Compression: Motivations

- ▶ HD DVB System
 - 1 luminance component 1920×1080
 - 2 chrominance components 960×540
 - 8 bits quantization
 - 25 images per second
 - $R \approx 622 \text{ Mbps}$
- ▶ 2-hours movie $\approx 560 \text{ GB}$

Compression fundamentals

Why is it possible to compress?

- ▶ Statistical redundancy
 - ▶ images are spatially homogeneous
 - ▶ successive images are similar one to another
- ▶ Psychovisual redundancy
 - ▶ Spatial frequency sensitivity
 - ▶ Masking effects
 - ▶ Contours importance
 - ▶ Other limits of the HVS
- ▶ A compression algorithm should take into account both kinds of redundancy to maximize its performance

Lossless and lossy algorithms

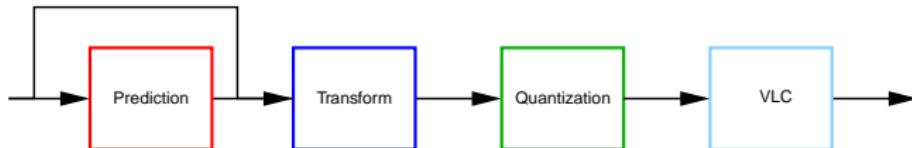
- ▶ Lossless algorithms
 - ▶ Perfect reconstruction
 - ▶ Based on statistics
 - ▶ Small compression ratio
- ▶ Lossy algorithms
 - ▶ Decoded \neq original
 - ▶ Based on quantization
 - ▶ Psychovisual redundancy: “visually lossless”
 - ▶ High compression ratio

Symmetric and asymmetric algorithms (video)

- ▶ Symmetric algorithms
 - ▶ Same complexity for encoder and decoder
 - ▶ No motion estimation/compensation
 - ▶ Low compression ratio
 - ▶ Possibly real-time
- ▶ Asymmetric algorithms
 - ▶ Encoder (much) more complex than decoder
 - ▶ Motion Estimation/Compensation
 - ▶ High compression ratio
 - ▶ Typically “off line”, or hardware implementations

Basic tools for compression

- ▶ Transform
 - ▶ It concentrates information in a few coefficients
- ▶ Prediction
 - ▶ Alternative (and sometimes additional) method for information concentration
- ▶ Quantization
 - ▶ Rate reduction: rough representation of less important coefficients
- ▶ Lossless coding, or variable length coding (VLC)
 - ▶ Residual redundancy reduction





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Definitions

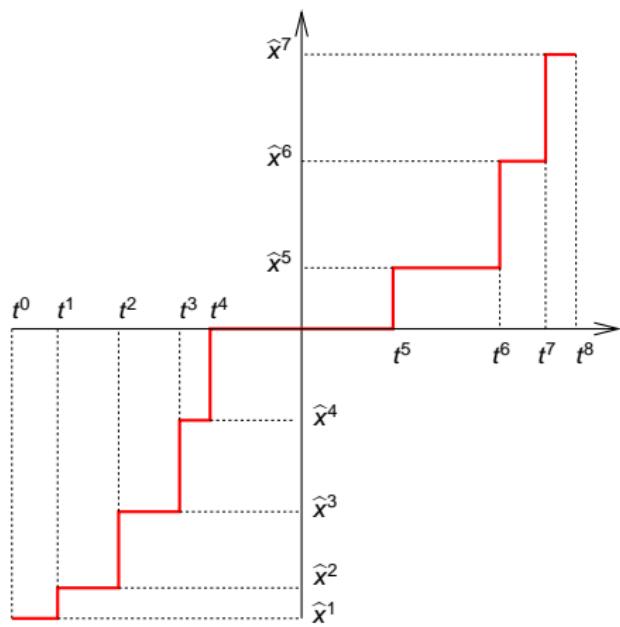
$$Q : x \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow y \in \mathcal{C} = \{\hat{x}^1, \hat{x}^2, \dots, \hat{x}^L\} \subset \mathbb{R}$$

- ▶ C : Dictionary, it is a discrete subset of \mathbb{R}
- ▶ \hat{x}^i : quantization level, codeword
- ▶ $e = x - Q(x)$: Quantization noise
- ▶ $\Theta^i = \{x : Q(x) = \hat{x}^i\}$: Decision regions or cells

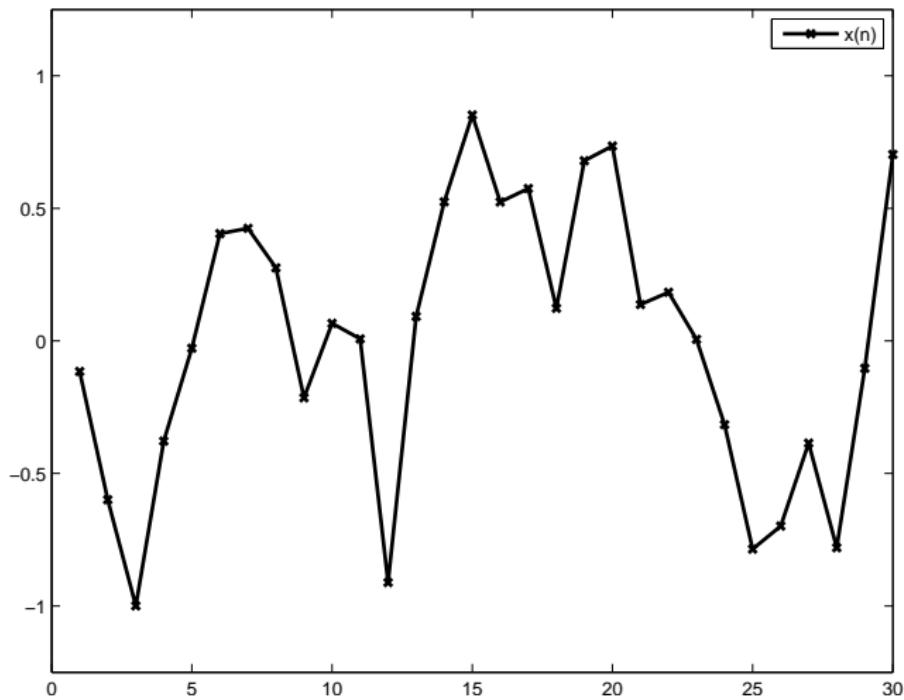
Regions and levels completely define the QS

Definition : scalar quantization (SQ)

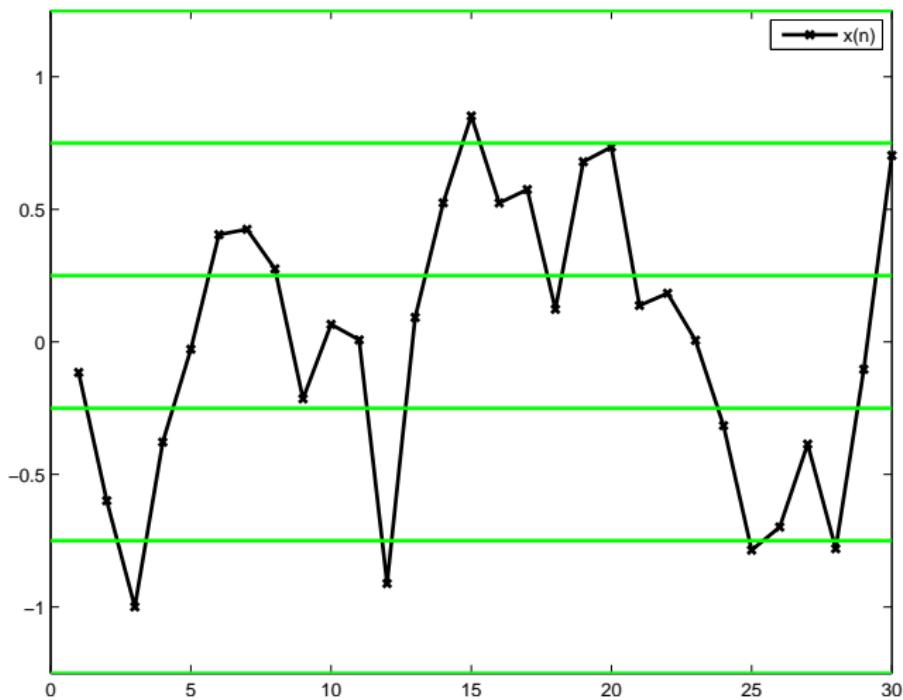
$$Q : x \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow y \in \mathcal{C} = \{\hat{x}^1, \hat{x}^2, \dots, \hat{x}^L\} \subset \mathbb{R}$$



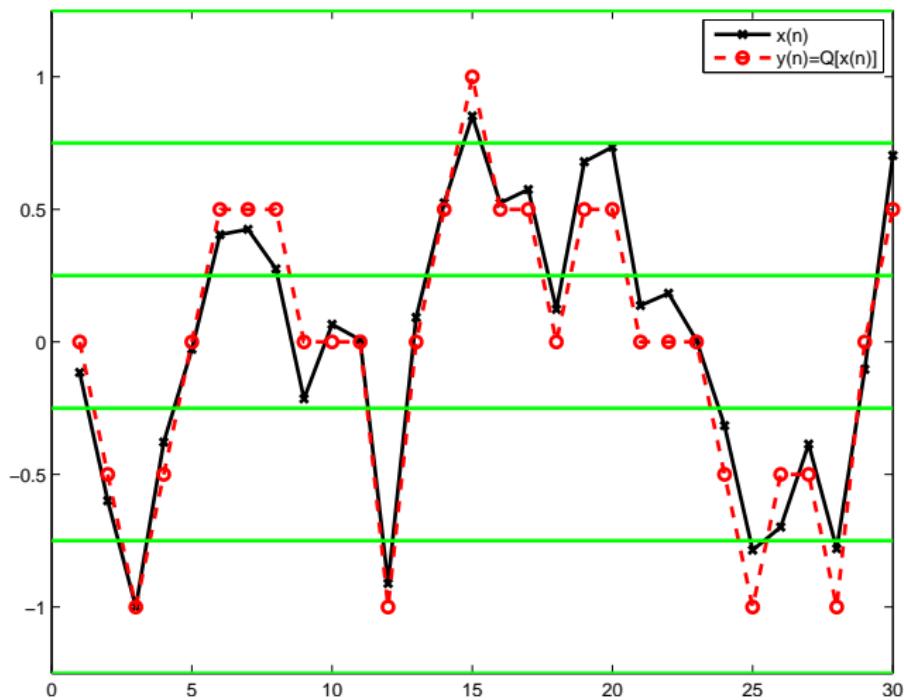
Example 1



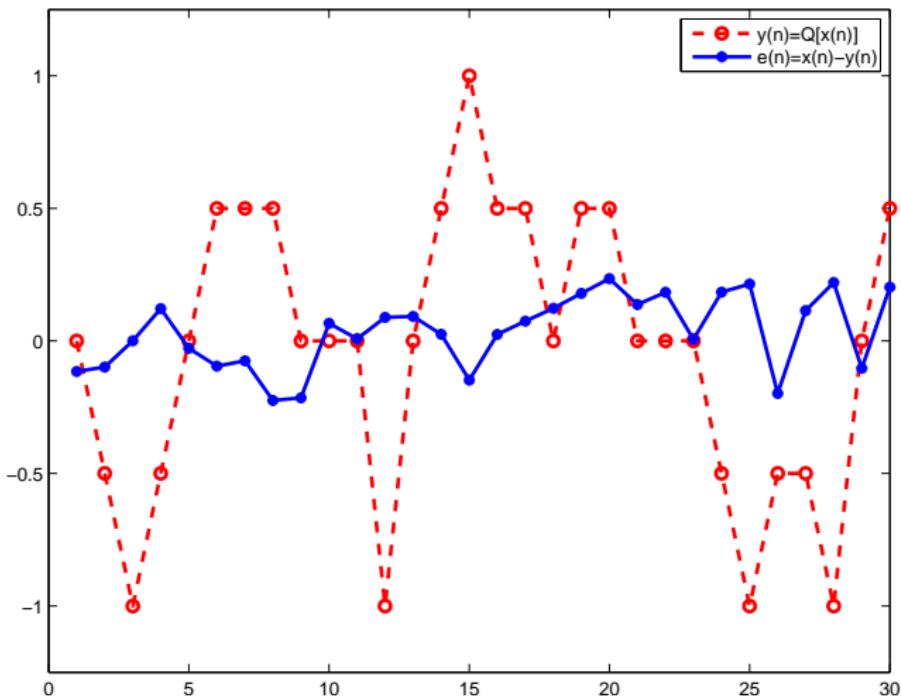
Example 1



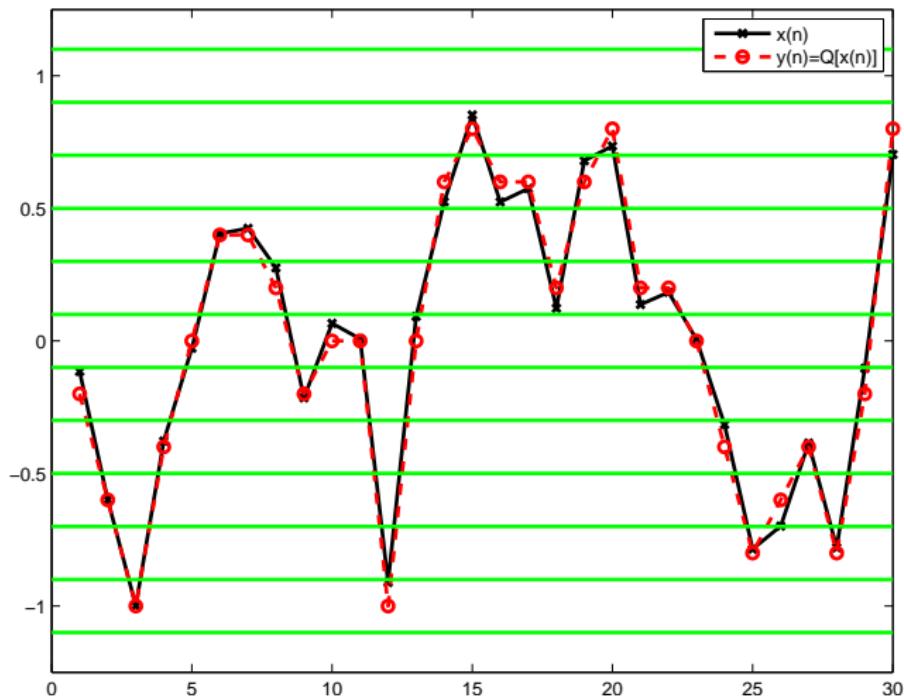
Example 1



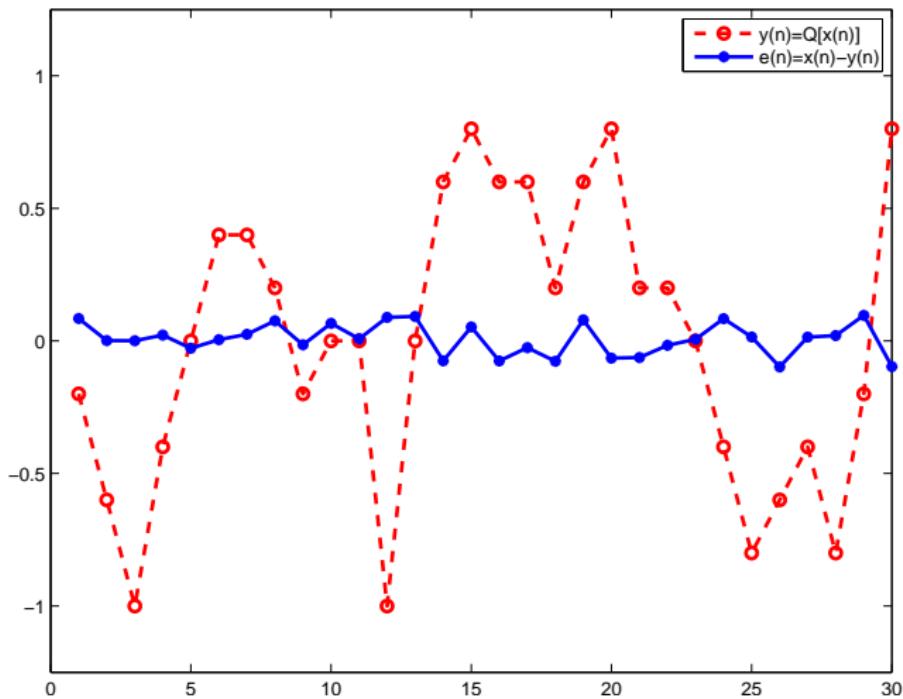
Example 1



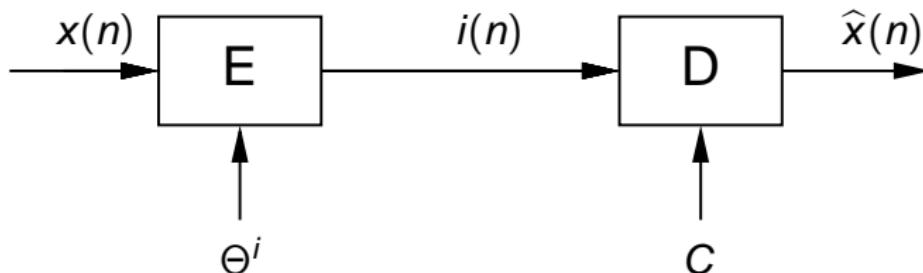
Example 2



Example 2



Quantization as coding / decoding



- ▶ The encoder sends $i(n)$
- ▶ The decoder associates to $i(n)$ a codeword $\hat{x}^{i(n)}$
- ▶ Terminology: quantization is $x \rightarrow i$ *inverse quantization* is $i \rightarrow \hat{x}^i$

Rate of a QS

- ▶ Number of bits needed to represent $i(n)$
- ▶ We assume $R = \log_2 L$
- ▶ Good approximation of real-life rates (entropy coders)

Distortion

- ▶ We use the squared error:

$$d[x(n), \hat{x}(n)] = |e(n)|^2 = |x(n) - \hat{x}(n)|^2$$

- ▶ For a signal $x(\cdot)$ of duration N , we use the mean square error (MSE):

$$D = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} d[x(n), \hat{x}(n)]$$

- ▶ For random signals,

$$D = E \left\{ |X(n) - Q(X(n))|^2 \right\} = E \left\{ |E(n)|^2 \right\}$$

- ▶ In this case, distortion is the variance of the random process $E(n) = X(n) - Q(X(n))$, and is indicated as σ_Q^2

Uniform Quantization

A uniform SQ (UQ) is characterized by:

- ▶ $\forall i, t^i = t^{i-1} + \Delta$
- ▶ $\hat{x}^i = \frac{t^i + t^{i-1}}{2}$

UQ is simple, it minimizes the maximum error and is optimal for uniform RV's (random variables)

Moreover

- ▶ $\Delta^i = \Delta = 2A/L$

Uniform Quantization : distortion

Hypothesis : $X \sim \mathcal{U}(-A, A)$. Find $\sigma_Q^2 = E[(X - \hat{X})^2]$

Uniform Quantization : distortion

Hypothesis : $X \sim \mathcal{U}(-A, A)$. Find $\sigma_Q^2 = E[(X - \hat{X})^2]$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_Q^2 &= E[(X - \hat{X})^2] \\ &= \int_{-A}^A p_X(u)[u - Q(u)]^2 du\end{aligned}$$

Uniform Quantization : distortion

Hypothesis : $X \sim \mathcal{U}(-A, A)$. Find $\sigma_Q^2 = E[(X - \hat{X})^2]$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_Q^2 &= E[(X - \hat{X})^2] &= \int_{-A}^A p_X(u)[u - Q(u)]^2 du \\ \dots &= \sum_{i=1}^L \int_{\Theta^i} \frac{1}{2A} [u - \hat{x}^i]^2 du &= \frac{1}{2A} \sum_{i=1}^L \int_{\hat{x}^i - \Delta/2}^{\hat{x}^i + \Delta/2} [u - \hat{x}^i]^2 du \\ &= \frac{1}{2A} \sum_{i=1}^L \int_{-\Delta/2}^{\Delta/2} t^2 dt &= \frac{1}{2A} L \frac{\Delta^3}{12} = \frac{\Delta^2}{12}\end{aligned}$$

Quantization noise is actually a uniform RV in $(-\Delta/2, \Delta/2)$

Uniform Quantization : RD curve

$$D = \frac{\Delta^2}{12} = \frac{4A^2}{12L^2} = \frac{A^2}{3 \cdot 2^{2R}} = \sigma_X^2 2^{-2R}$$

$$\text{SNR} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\mathbb{E}\{X^2\}}{D} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_X^2 2^{-2R}}$$
$$= 10 \log_{10} 2^{2R} \approx 6R$$

High Resolution (HR) Uniform Quantization

- ▶ Hypothesis : $L \rightarrow +\infty$, X generic RV
- ▶ In HR, in any given Θ^i we approximate p_X as a (different) constant.
- ▶ Therefore, the quantization noise in Θ^i is $\mathcal{U}(-\frac{\Delta}{2}, \frac{\Delta}{2})$
- ▶ From the total probability law, $E \sim \mathcal{U}(-\frac{\Delta}{2}, \frac{\Delta}{2})$
- ▶ Donc :

$$D = \frac{\Delta^2}{12} = \frac{A^2}{3} 2^{-2R}$$

High Resolution (HR) Uniform Quantization

$$\text{SNR} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\mathbb{E}\{X^2\}}{D} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma_X^2}{A^2/3} 2^{2R} \approx 6R - 10 \log_{10} \frac{\gamma^2}{3}$$

where $\gamma^2 = \frac{X_{\max}^2}{\sigma_X^2} = \frac{A^2}{\sigma_X^2}$ is the *load factor*, i.e. the ratio between the peak power and the average power.

$$D = \frac{A^2}{3} 2^{-2R} = \frac{\gamma^2}{3} \sigma_X^2 2^{-2R} = K_X \sigma_X^2 2^{-2R}$$

Scalar quantization: example on color image

Image Originale, 24 bpp



Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 21 bpp PSNR 47.19 dB TC 1.143



Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 18 bpp PSNR 42.38 dB TC 1.333



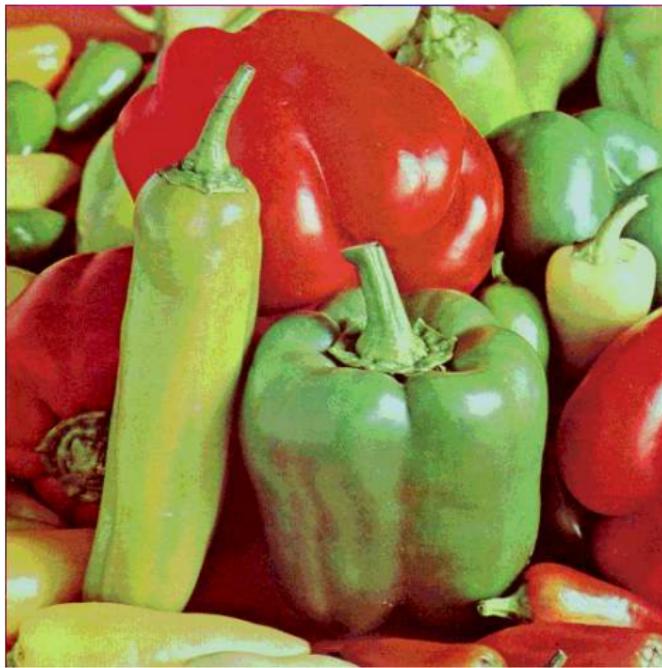
Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 15 bpp PSNR 36.97 dB TC 1.600



Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 12 bpp PSNR 31.40 dB TC 2.000



Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 9 bpp PSNR 29.26 dB TC 2.667



Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 6 bpp PSNR 27.83 dB TC 4.000



Scalar quantization: example on color image

Débit 3 bpp PSNR 25.75 dB TC 8.000





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Predictive quantization

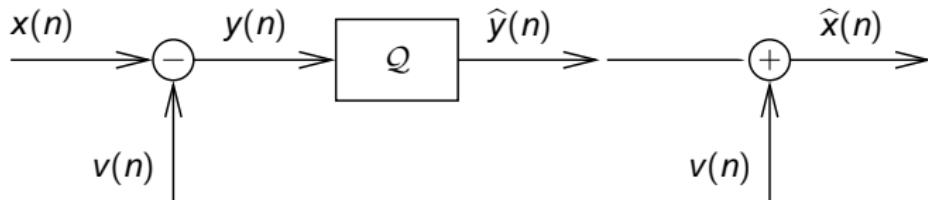
Principles

- ▶ Quantizaion alone is not effective for compression
- ▶ Too simple underlying model: SQ neglects dependencies among samples
- ▶ Idea: exploit sample correlation by prediction
- ▶ Goal: reduction of the signal's variance

Coding scheme

Open loop scheme

- ▶ $x(n)$ is predicted from the past
- ▶ If the prediction is good, $v(n) \approx x(n)$



- ▶ How to provide $v(n)$?
- ▶ What is the gain?

Prediction gain

Prediction Error = Signal Error :

$$q(n) = y(n) - \hat{y}(n) = x(n) - v(n) - \hat{x}(n) + v(n) = \bar{q}(n)$$

Therefore the target of predictive quantization (PQ) is to minimize the distortion of y

Coding gain:

$$\text{SNR}_p = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma_X^2}{D} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_Y^2} + 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{D} = G_P + G_Q$$

Prediction is effective if and only if the prediction error has a smaller variance than the original signal

Example

$$X(n) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\text{E}[X(n)X(m)] = \sigma^2 \rho^{|n-m|}$$

$$V(n) = X(n - 1)$$

$$\rho : G_P > 0 ?$$

Example

$$X(n) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \quad E[X(n)X(m)] = \sigma^2 \rho^{|n-m|}$$
$$V(n) = X(n-1) \quad \rho : G_P > 0 ?$$

$Y(n) = X(n) - X(n-1)$ Zero mean Gaussian RV

$$\sigma_Y^2 = E[(X(n) - X(n-1))^2] = 2\sigma^2 - 2\sigma^2\rho$$

$$G_P = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_Y^2} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\sigma^2}{2(1-\rho)\sigma^2}$$

$$G_P > 0 \Leftrightarrow \rho > \frac{1}{2}$$

Predictors

- ▶ Linear Predictors are simple and moreover optimal for Gaussian RV

$$v(n) = - \sum_{i=1}^P a_i x_{n-i} \quad \text{Filter with } P \text{ parameters}$$

$$y(n) = x(n) - v(n) = \sum_{i=0}^P a_i x_{n-i} \quad \text{Prediction error}$$

- ▶ with $a_0 = 1$.
- ▶ y is the result of filtering x with

$$A(z) = 1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_P z^{-P}$$

- ▶ Optimal filter: minimization of σ_Y^2

AR model

- ▶ If $Y(z) = A(z)X(z)$, $X(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{A(z)}$
- ▶ If the prediction is optimal, $Y(z)$ is white noise with power σ_Y^2
- ▶ Thus, the spectral power density (SPD) of X is
 $S_X(f) = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{|A(f)|^2}$
- ▶ The underlying model for X is autoregressive (AR):

$$X(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{1 + a_1z^{-1} + \dots + a_Pz^{-P}} \Leftrightarrow$$
$$x(n) + a_1x(n-1) + \dots + a_Px(n-P) = y(n)$$

- ▶ $X(n)$ is an AR filtering of white noise $Y(n)$

Predictor selection

Problème :

Find the vector \underline{a} minimizing

$$\sigma_Y^2 = \text{E} \left\{ Y^2(n) \right\} = \text{E} \left\{ \left[X(n) + \sum_{i=1}^P a_i X(n-i) \right]^2 \right\}$$

Predictor selection

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_Y^2 &= E\left\{X^2(n)\right\} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^P a_i E\{X(n)X(n-i)\} + \sum_{i=1}^P \sum_{j=1}^P a_i a_j E\{X(n-i)X(n-j)\} \\ &= \sigma_X^2 + 2 \underline{r}^t \underline{a} + \underline{a}^t \mathbf{R}_X \underline{a}\end{aligned}$$

with:

$$\underline{r} = [r_X(1) \dots r_X(P)] \quad \mathbf{R}_X = \begin{bmatrix} r_X(0) & r_X(1) & r_X(2) & \dots & r_X(P-1) \\ r_X(1) & r_X(0) & r_X(1) & \dots & r_X(P-2) \\ r_X(2) & r_X(1) & r_X(0) & \dots & r_X(P-3) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ r_X(P-2) & r_X(P-3) & r_X(P-4) & \dots & r_X(1) \\ r_X(P-1) & r_X(P-2) & r_X(P-3) & \dots & r_X(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$r_X(k) = E\{X(n)X(n-k)\}$$

Predictor selection

Minimisation of Y variance:

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_Y^2}{\partial \underline{a}} = 2\underline{r} + 2\mathbf{R}_X \underline{a} = 0$$

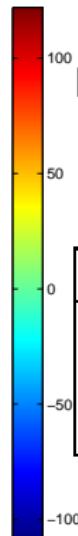
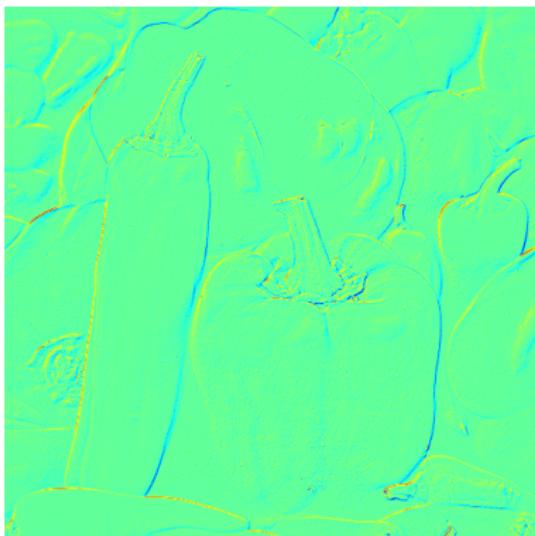
Thus:

$$\underline{a}^{\text{opt}} = -\mathbf{R}_X^{-1} \underline{r} \quad \sigma_Y^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \underline{r}^t \underline{a}^{\text{opt}}$$

Autocorrelation r_X can be estimated as

$$\hat{r}_X(k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1-k} X(n)(X(n+k))$$

Predictive quantization: example



a	b	σ_Y^2
0	0	2902.7
1/2	1/2	78.7
0.449	0.546	78.4