Fractal Image Compression using Hierarchical Classification of Sub-images

Nilavra Bhattacharya¹, Swalpa Kumar Roy¹, Utpal Nandi² and Soumitro Banerjee³

¹Dept. of Computer Sc.& Tech., Indian Institute of Engineering Science & Technology, Shibpur, India ²Dept. of Computer Science, Vidyasagar University, Midnapore, India ³Dept. of Physical Sciences, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Kolkata, India



Keywords: Fractal Image Compression, Fisher Classification, IFS, PIFS, Hierarchical Classification, Block Classification.

Abstract:

In fractal image compression (FIC) an image is divided into sub-images (domains and ranges), and a range is compared with all possible domains for similarity matching. However this process is extremely time-consuming. In this paper, a novel sub-image classification scheme is proposed to speed up the compression process. The proposed scheme partitions the domain pool hierarchically, and a range is compared to only those domains which belong to the same hierarchical group as the range. Experiments on standard images show that the proposed scheme exponentially reduces the compression time when compared to baseline fractal image compression (BFIC), and is comparable to other sub-image classification schemes proposed till date. The proposed scheme can compress Lenna (512x512x8) in 1.371 seconds, with 30.6 dB PSNR decoding quality (140x faster than BFIC), without compromising compression ratio and decoded image quality.

1 INTRODUCTION

The theory of fractal based image compression using iterated function system (IFS) was first proposed by Michael Barnsley (Barnsley, 1988). A fully automated version of the compression algorithm was first developed by Arnaud Jaquin, using partitioned IFS (PIFS) (Jacquin, 1992). Jaquin's FIC scheme is called the baseline fractal image compression (BFIC). Fractal compression is an asymmetric process. Encoding time is much greater compared to decoding time, since the encoding algorithm has to repeatedly compare a large number of domains with each range to find the best-match.

Plenty of research has focused on how to speedup the compression process, and almost all of them explored how to reduce the number of domain blocks in the domain pool. Fisher (1994) divided the domain pool into 72 classes according to certain combinations of the four quadrants of a block. His work proved the efficiency of the classification schemes: the searching time got reduced to the order of magnitude of seconds without great loss of image quality. Tong and Pi (2001) and later Wu et al. (2005) used standard deviation to classify blocks. Wang et al. (2000) and Duh et al. (2005) used the edge properties of the blocks to group them into three or four classes, and this resulted in a speedup ratio of 3 to 4. Xing et al. (2008) refined Fisher's scheme and obtained 576 classes based on a block's mean pixel value and its variance. Han (2008) used a fuzzy pattern classifier to classify image blocks. Tseng et al. (2008) used Particle Swarm Optimization to classify image blocks. Jayamohan and Revathy (2012) classified domains based on Local Fractal Dimensions and used AVL trees to store the classification. Wang and Zheng (2013) used Pearson's Correlation Coefficient as a measure of similarity between domains and ranges, and classified image blocks based on it.

In this paper a novel sub-image classification scheme is proposed, which greatly improves the compression time (when compared to BFIC), and is comparable to other sub-image classification schemes proposed till date, in terms of speed. The layout of this paper is as follows: the mathematical background of Fractal Image Compression is briefly outlined in section 2, while Fisher's classification scheme is explained in section 3. The proposed classification scheme (abbreviated as P-I) is explained in section 4.1 and a further optimization technique (abbreviated as P-II) is given in section 4.2. Experimental results are given in section 5. The conclusions are made in section 6, which are followed by acknowledgements, and finally the references.

Bhattacharya N., Roy S., Nandi U. and Banerjee S..
Fractal Image Compression using Hierarchical Classification of Sub-images.
DOI: 10.5220/0005265900460053
In *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference on Computer Vision Theory and Applications* (VISAPP-2015), pages 46-53
ISBN: 978-989-758-089-5
Copyright © 2015 SCITEPRESS (Science and Technology Publications, Lda.)

2 FRACTAL COMPRESSION

2.1 The Theory

A typical affine transform from a domain to a range is shown in Equation (1). Constants $a_{i,j}$ represent the scaling factors from the domain to the range, while constants $d_{i,j}$ represent the top-left corner of the domain. Constants s_i and o_i control the contrast and the brightness of the transformation respectively. Hence, an affine map is basically a collection of constants.

$$W_{i} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{i,1} & a_{i,2} & 0 \\ a_{i,3} & a_{i,4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_{i} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} d_{i,1} \\ d_{i,2} \\ o_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$
(1)

A domain and a range is compared using an RMS metric (Fisher, 1994). Given two square sub-images containing *n* pixel intensities, a_1, \ldots, a_n (from the domain) and b_1, \ldots, b_n (from the range), with contrast *s* and brightness *o* between them, the RMS distance between the domain and the range is given by

$$R = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (s \cdot a_i + o - b_i)^2$$
(2)

Detailed mathematical description of IFS theory and other relevant results can be found in (Barnsley, 1988; Edgar, 2007; Falconer, 2013).

2.2 The Pain

As mentioned in section 1, an enormous number of domain-range comparisons is the main bottleneck of the compression algorithm. E.g., consider an image of size 512×512 . Let the image be partitioned into 4×4 non-overlapping range blocks. There will be $2^{14} = 16384$ range blocks. Let there be 8×8 overlapping domain blocks (most implementations use domain sizes that are double the size of range). Then, for a complete search, each range block has to be compared with $505 \times 505 = 255025$ domain blocks. The total number of comparisons will be around 2^{32} . The time complexity can be estimated as $\Omega(2^n)$.

3 FISHER'S CLASSIFICATION

Fisher's classification scheme (Fisher, 1994) is as follows: A square sub-image (domain or range) is divided into upper-left, upper-right, lower-left, and lower-right quadrants, numbered sequentially.

On each quadrant, values A_i (proportional to mean pixel intensity) and V_i (proportional to pixel intensity

variance) are computed. If the pixel values in quadrant *i* are $r_1^i, r_2^i, \dots, r_n^i$, then

$$A_i = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^i \tag{3}$$

and

$$V_i = \sum_{j=1}^n (r_j^i)^2 - A_i^2$$
(4)

Then it is possible to rotate the sub-image (domain or range) such that the A_i are ordered in one of the following three ways:

Major Class 1: $A_1 \ge A_2 \ge A_3 \ge A_4$ Major Class 2: $A_1 \ge A_2 \ge A_4 \ge A_3$ Major Class 3: $A_1 \ge A_4 \ge A_2 \ge A_3$

These orderings constitute three major classes and are called canonical orderings. Under each major class, there are 24 subclasses consisting of ${}^{4}P_{4} = 24$ orderings of the V_{i} . Thus there are 72 classes in all. Fisher noted that the distribution of domains across the 72 classes was far from uniform. So he went on to further simplify the scheme. 24 classes were derived by combining the three major first-classes in the above classification. Fisher concluded: "the improvement attained by using 72 rather than 24 classes is minimal and comes at great expense of time" (Fisher, 1994). In this paper, we refer to this 24-class classification scheme as **FISHER24**.

4 PROPOSED HIERARCHICAL CLASSIFICATION SCHEME

Fisher used values proportional to the mean and the variance of the pixel intensities to classify a subimage. In our proposed schemes, we use only the sum of pixel intensities of various parts of a sub-image to classify the sub-image.

4.1 Proposed Technique - I (P-I)

After selecting the square sub-image (domain / range) (Figure 1(a)), the proposed hierarchical classification algorithm works as follows:

- 1. Divide the sub-image into upper-left, upper-right, lower-left, and lower-right quadrants.
- 2. For each quadrant i (i = 0, 1, 2, 3) calculate the sum of pixel values S_i . If the pixel values in quadrant i are $r_1^i, r_2^i, \dots, r_n^i$, then

$$S_i = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^i \tag{5}$$



Figure 1: Proposed classification scheme and data structures used: (a) Square sub-images (overlapping domains or nonoverlapping ranges) (b) Level I classification - 24 classes based on relative ordering of pixel intensity sums S_0 , S_1 , S_2 , S_3 (c) Level II classification - 4 quadrants of Level I further subdivided into 4 sub-quadrants each; each quadrant *i* assigned a value between 1 and 24 based on relative ordering of sub-quadrant pixel intensity sums S_{i0} , S_{i1} , S_{i2} , S_{i3} (i = 0, 1, 2, 3). 4 quadrants, each having a value between 1 and 24 gives 3311776 classes. (d) Domain pool has domains of 3 sizes - 4 × 4, 8 × 8 and 16 × 16 (e) 24 Level I classes for all 3 domain sizes (f) 331776 Level II classes for every Level I class. Each of the 331776 array cells point to a list of domains falling in that class.

- 3. Based on the relative ordering of S_0 , S_1 , S_2 , S_3 (calculated in Step 2), there can be ${}^4P_4 = 24$ permutations. A number between 1 and 24, that uniquely identifies this particular permutation is assigned to this sub-image. This number is the Level I class for this sub-image (Figure 1(b)).
- 4. Divide each of the quadrants of Step 1 again, into 4 sub-quadrants (16 sub-quadrants in total).
- 5. Calculate the sum of pixel values S_{ij} (i = 0, 1, 2, 3, j = 0, 1, 2, 3) for each sub-quadrant.
- 6. Based on the relative ordering of sub-quadrant pixel-value sums S_{i0} , S_{i1} , S_{i2} , S_{i3} for each quadrant i = 0, 1, 2, 3, each quadrant can be assigned a number between 1 and 24 (similar to step 3). Four quadrants, each being assigned a number between 1 and 24 gives $24^4 = 331776$ cases in total, for the entire sub-image. A number between 1 and 331776, that uniquely identifies this particular case is assigned to this sub-image. This number is the Level II class for this sub-image (Figure 1(c)).

During compression, when the domain pool is being created, data structures are defined as shown in Figure 1(d), Figure 1(e) and Figure 1(f). Domains are first classified by their size, then into Level-I, according to pixel-value-sum of 4 quadrants, and finally into Level-II, according to pixel-value sum of 16 subquadrants. After two rounds of classification, the domain is placed in a list pointed to by the array cell corresponding to the Level-II class (Figure 1(f)).

Later in the compression algorithm, when searching the domain pool for a best-match with a particular range, only those domains that are in the same Level-II class as the range are considered for comparison.

4.2 Proposed Technique - II (P-II)

This is an add-on for the proposed P-I technique (section 4.1) to further reduce the number of domainrange comparisons. The main idea is to keep track of the domains that are getting selected as the best-match more than once, and offering those domains for comparison in subsequent searches, before others, hoping that these will again be a best-match, and searching will be over quickly. This is implemented as follows:

Along with each domain, a counter named timesUsed is also maintained, which indicates how many times that particular domain was already selected as the best-match. During the creation of the domain pool, all timesUsed counters of all domains are initialized to zero. Later, when searching the domain-list of a Level-II class for the best-match, if a domain gets selected as the best-match, its timesUsed counter value is incremented.

On subsequent searches in the same Level-II class, domains are selected for comparison in the decreasing order of their timesUsed value. Searching gets over as soon as a domain is found whose RMS distance from the range is less than a predefined threshold. Once again the timesUsed value of this best-match domain is incremented.

The domain-lists of each Level-II class are implemented as max-heaps which support $O(\log n)$ time inserts and O(1) lookups (Cormen et al., 2009).

4.3 Elementary Analysis

4.3.1 FISHER24

Let total number of domains in domain-pool = D

Number of classes = 24

 \therefore Average number of domains per class = $\frac{D}{24}$

Let total number of ranges = R

: Number of domain-range comparisons =

$$\frac{D}{24} \cdot R \tag{6}$$

4.3.2 P-I

Let total number of domains in domain-pool = D

Number of Level-I classes = 24

Number of Level-II classes = 24^4

 \therefore Total number of classes = $24 \cdot 24^4 = 24^5$

 \therefore Average number of domains per class = $\frac{D}{24^5}$

Let total number of ranges = R

... Number of domain-range comparisons =



4.3.3 P-II

Let total number of domains in domain-pool = D

Number of Level-I classes = 24

Number of Level-II classes = 24^4

 \therefore Total number of classes = $24 \cdot 24^4 = 24^5$

 \therefore Average number of domains per class = $\frac{D}{24^5}$

Let total number of ranges = R

... Number of domain-range comparisons

$$\leq \frac{D}{24^5} \cdot R \tag{8}$$

In Equation (8), the less-than condition occurs because searching is over as soon as a domain is found whose RMS distance from the range is less than the predefined threshold. Equality occurs in the worstcase, when only the last domain of a class is selected every time.

It is evident from the above analysis that since

$$\frac{D}{24^5} \cdot R \ll \frac{D}{24} \tag{9}$$

the proposed classification schemes reduce the domain search space exponentially, when compared to FISHER24. This is bound to speed up the compression algorithm, and is corroborated by the experimental results in section 5.



Figure 2: Graphical comparison of compression time.



Figure 3: Histogram of "Lenna" showing the number of domains in each of the 24 classes of FISHER24 classification scheme (summed across all the domain sizes).



Figure 4: Histogram of "Lenna" showing the number of domains in each of the 24⁵ classes of the proposed classification scheme (summed across all the domain sizes).

5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Tools

Five standard $512 \times 512 \times 8$ images have been used to test the proposed techniques P-I (section 4.1) and P-II (section 4.2) and also for comparison with FISHER24 classification scheme (section 3). The algorithm was implemented in Java, running on a PC with Intel Core i7 2630QM 2.0 GHz Processor, 8 GB DDR3 RAM, and running Windows 8 x64.

5.2 Research Results

The comparison of compression time (in seconds), PSNRs (in dB) and space savings (in percentage) for the five image files have been made in Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3 respectively. The pictorial representations of compression times, PSNRs and space savings are illustrated in Figures 2, 5 and 6 respectively. Figures 7, 8, 9 and 10 show the close up of Lenna original, decoded after using FISHER24, decoded after using proposed P-I technique and decoded after using proposed P-II technique respectively. Figure 11 shows the result of the techniques on the other test images.

Table 1: Comparison of compression time (seconds).

Image	FISHER24	P-I	P-II
Baboon	147.441	1.737	1.137
Boat	160.214	1.161	1.133
Bridge	175.924	2.035	1.995
Lenna	193.066	1.371	1.374
Peppers	150.112	1.082	1.102

Table 2: Comparison of PSNR (in dB).

Image	FISHER24	P-I	P-II
Baboon	22.22	22.22	22.22
Boat	28.44	28.44	28.44
Bridge	25.55	25.55	25.56
Lenna	30.60	30.60	30.60
Peppers	28.01	28.01	28.02

Image	FISHER24	P-I	P-II
Baboon	89.26	89.26	89.26
Boat	89.39	89.39	89.39
Bridge	86.88	86.88	86.88
Lenna	89.58	89.58	89.58
Peppers	89.43	89.43	89.43

The proposed two techniques exponentially reduce the compression time compared to FISHER24. It is because the total number of domain-range comparisons is reduced, as shown by Equation (9).

Figures 3 and 4 show the distribution of domains across all classes for FISHER24 and the proposed classification scheme respectively, for the Lenna image. Figure 3 shows that each class contains at least 5000 domains. So each range is compared to a minimum of 5000 domains. However, Figure 4 shows that in the proposed scheme, most classes contain less than 100 domains, while the maximum number domains in a class is less than 600. So the total number of domain-range comparisons is greatly reduced in the proposed schemes. Between the two proposed techniques, P-II takes less time for 3 out of 5 test-images.



Figure 5: Graphical comparison of PSNR.



Figure 6: Graphical comparison of Space Savings (%).

Regarding decoded image quality, Table 2 and Figure 5 shows that the proposed techniques offer the same quality as FISHER24, for all the test-images. The PSNR values are identical for all the reconstructed images, even for P-II, where the search is being terminated as soon as a domain with domainrange RMS distance less than a predefined threshold is found. This means that the best domains are being used maximum number of times.

Space Savings is the reduction in size relative to uncompressed size, and is given as

Space Savings =
$$1 - \frac{\text{Compressed Size}}{\text{Uncompressed Size}}$$
 (10)

The proposed two techniques offer almost the same percentage of space-savings as FISHER24.



Figure 7: Lenna - original.



Figure 8: Lenna - using FISHER24 classification.



Figure 9: Lenna - after using proposed technique P-I.



Figure 10: Lenna - after using proposed technique P-II.

6 CONCLUSION

The proposed techniques of Fractal Image Compression by using hierarchical classification of domain/range viz. P-I and P-II improve the compression time of images significantly, when compared to existing FISHER24 classification. PSNRs of decoded images using both techniques are identical to FISHER24, which means that image quality is not degraded by the proposed techniques. The compression ratios (denoted by space savings in this paper) for both P-I and P-II are also equal to FISHER24. Between the two proposed techniques, P-II is marginally faster than P-I in 3 out of 5 test-images. In terms of PSNR and space savings, they give identical results.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The first author acknowledges the support of the *AICTE-INAE Travel Grant Scheme for Engineering Students, Govt. of India*, which enabled him to attend the conference.

The first-author also thanks the *German Missions in India* for offering a free Schengen VISA to attend the conference.



- Barnsley, M. F. (1988). *Fractals Everywhere*. Academic Press, New York.
- Cormen, T. H., Leiserson, C. E., Rivest, R. L., and Stein, C. (2009). *Introduction to Algorithms*. MIT press, Cambridge, MA, U.S.A.
- Duh, D.-J., Jeng, J., and Chen, S.-Y. (2005). Dct based simple classification scheme for fractal image compression. *Image and vision computing*, 23(13):1115–1121.
- Edgar, G. (2007). *Measure, topology, and fractal geometry*. Springer.
- Falconer, K. (2013). Fractal geometry: mathematical foundations and applications. John Wiley & Sons.
- Fisher, Y., editor (1994). Fractal Image Compression: Theory and Application. Springer-Verlag, New York.
- Han, J. (2008). Fast fractal image compression using fuzzy classification. In *Fuzzy Systems and Knowledge Discovery, 2008. FSKD'08. Fifth International Conference on*, volume 3, pages 272–276. IEEE.
- Jacquin, A. E. (1992). Image coding based on a fractal theory of iterated contractive image transformations. *Image Processing, IEEE Transactions on*, 1(1):18–30.
- Jayamohan, M. and Revathy, K. (2012). An improved domain classification scheme based on local fractal dimension. *Indian Journal of Computer Science and Engineering (IJCSE)*, 3(1):138–145.
- Tong, C. S. and Pi, M. (2001). Fast fractal image encoding based on adaptive search. *Image Processing, IEEE Transactions on*, 10(9):1269–1277.
- Tseng, C.-C., Hsieh, J.-G., and Jeng, J.-H. (2008). Fractal image compression using visual-based particle swarm optimization. *Image and Vision Computing*, 26(8):1154–1162.
- Wang, J. and Zheng, N. (2013). A novel fractal image compression scheme with block classification and sorting based on pearson's correlation coefficient.
- Wang, Z., Zhang, D., and Yu, Y. (2000). Hybrid image coding based on partial fractal mapping. *Signal Processing: Image Communication*, 15(9):767–779.



Figure 11: Test images and results - Baboon, Boat, Bridge and Peppers. (a) Original image (b) Result of using FISHER24 classification (c) Result of using proposed P-I technique (d) Result of using proposed P-II technique.

- Wu, X., Jackson, D. J., and Chen, H.-C. (2005). A fast fractal image encoding method based on intelligent search of standard deviation. *Computers & Electrical Engineering*, 31(6):402–421.
- Xing, C., Ren, Y., and Li, X. (2008). A hierarchical classification matching scheme for fractal image compression. In *Image and Signal Processing*, 2008. CISP'08. Congress on, volume 1, pages 283–286. IEEE.