

# Color & Compression

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# Outline

## Color

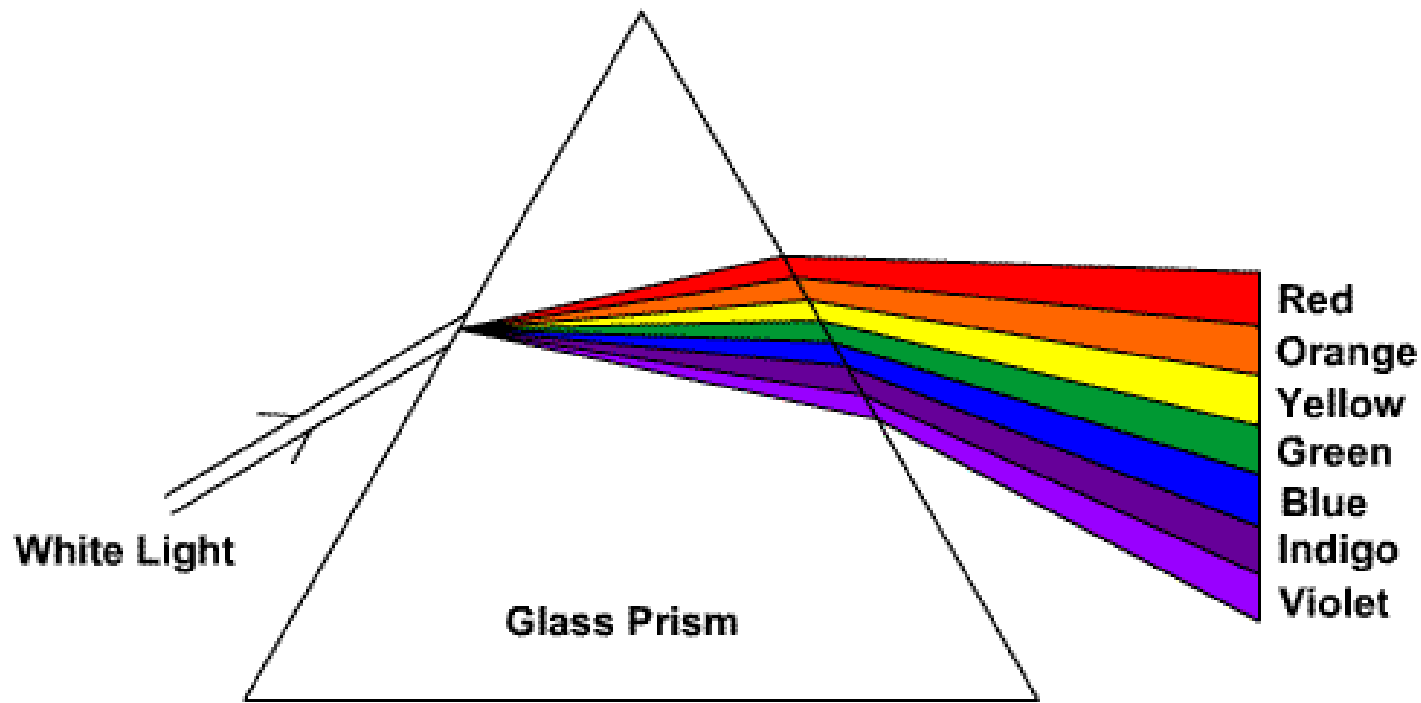
- Color spaces
- Multispectral images
- Pseudocoloring
- Color image processing

## Coding/Compression

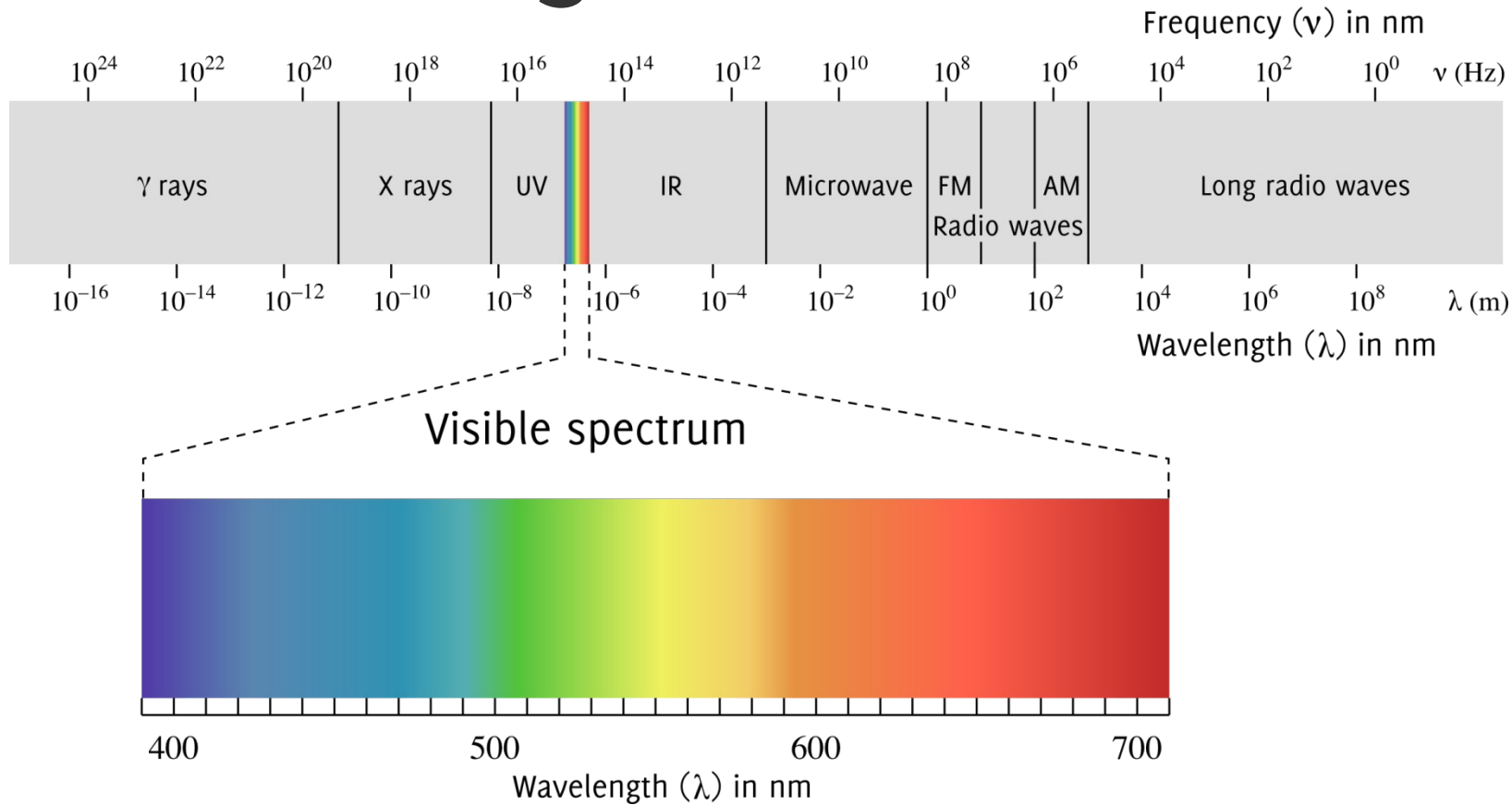
- Information and Data
- Redundancy
- Coding
- Compression
- File formats

# Color fundamentals

- White light consists of seven visible colors:  
*red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo and violet*



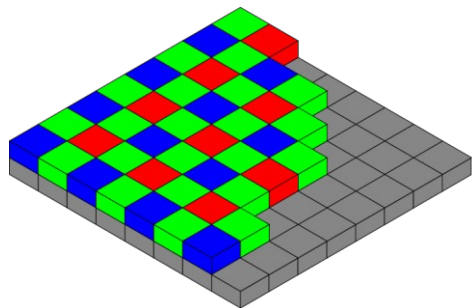
# Electromagnetic Radiation



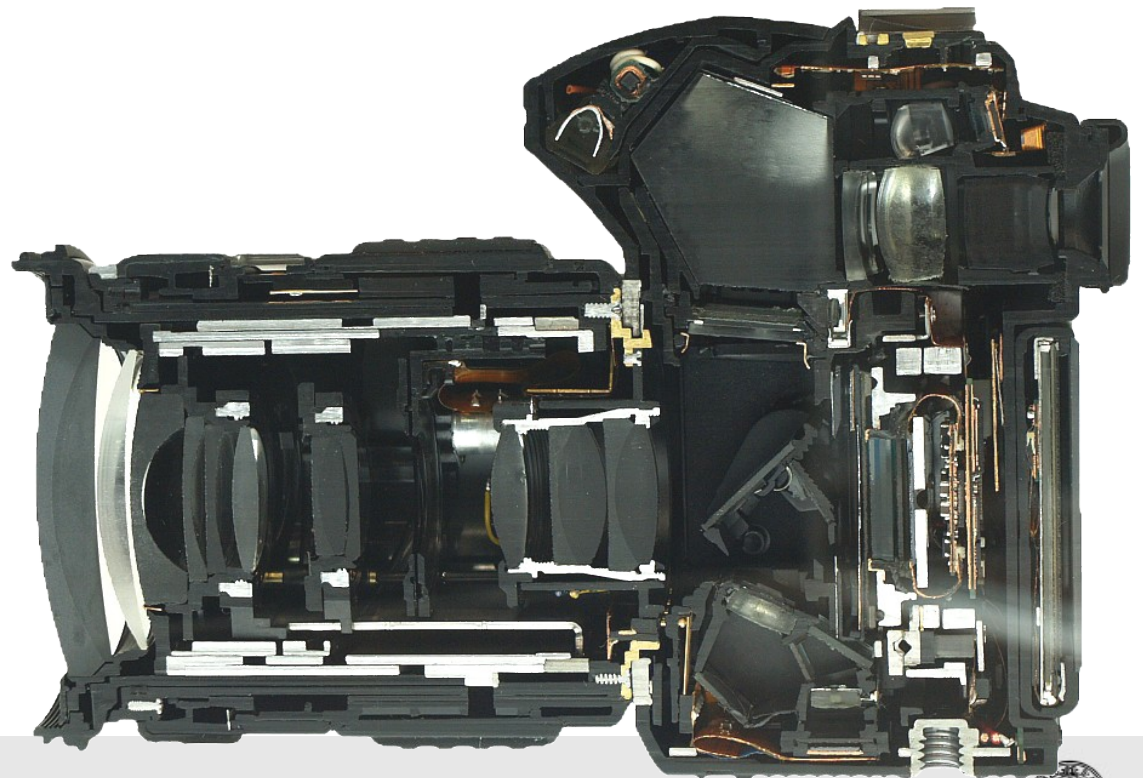
- Imaging systems typically selects one or several spectral windows.
- For grayscale image we have a single window.

# Digital Camera as Detector

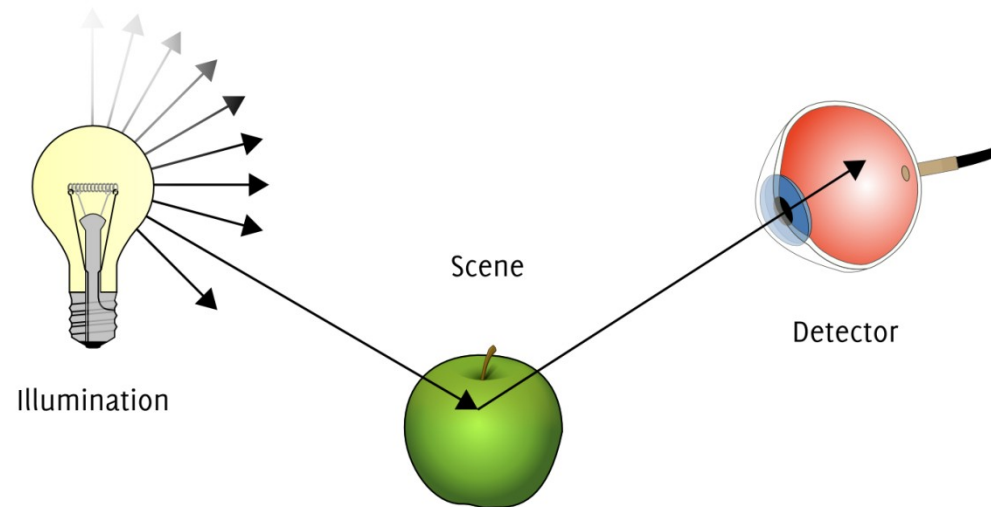
- Much like the human eye a digital camera has sensors sensitive to three colors. In a CCD chip they are differentiated by a Bayer filter pattern.
- Values are then interpolated to a full RGB image.



Bayer mosaic



# Image Formation



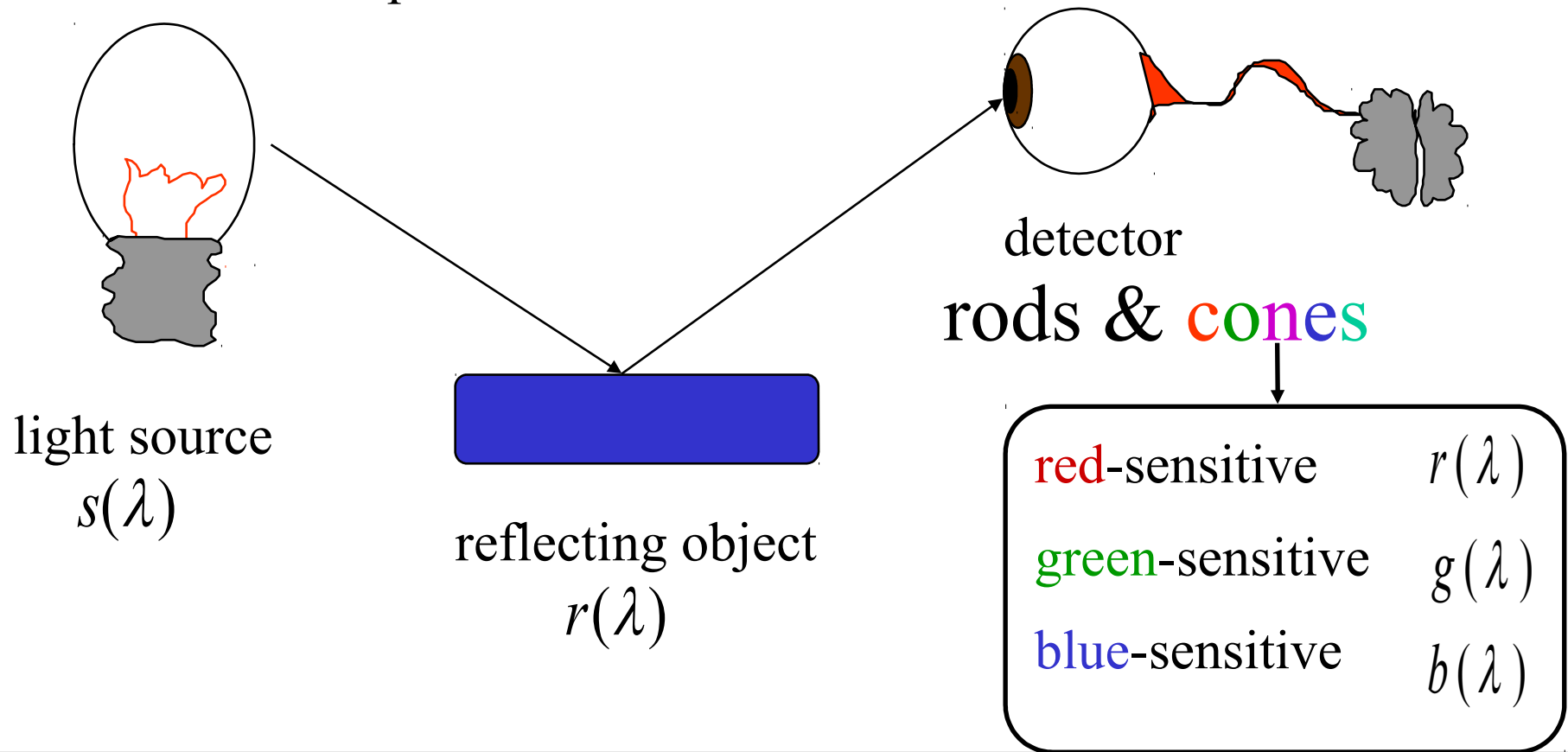
The acquired image depends on the spectral properties of:

- The illumination - light from, e.g., the sun or a lamp
- The object or scene - light can be reflected, absorbed or transmitted
- The detector - can be, e.g., a camera or the human eye

# Color perception

Color = The eye's and the brain's impression of electromagnetic radiation in the visual spectrum

How is color perceived?



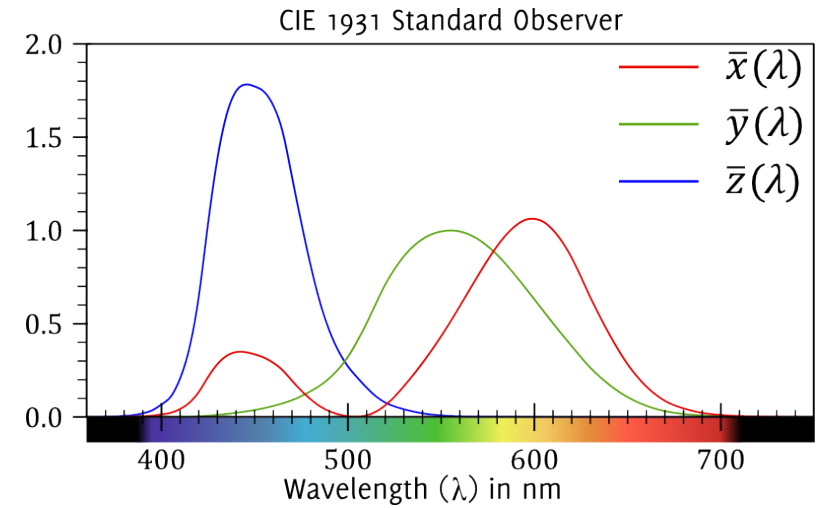
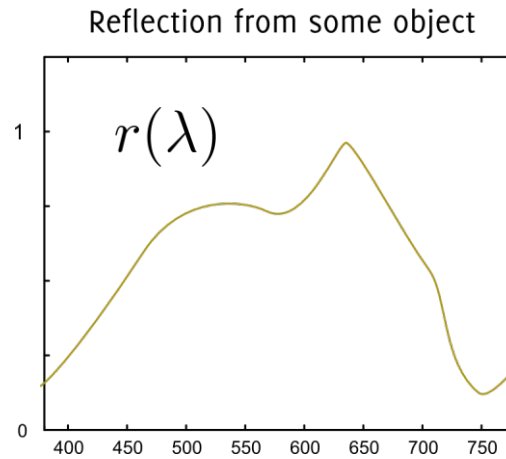
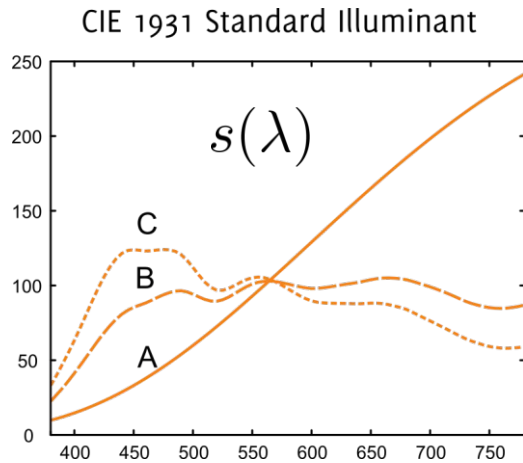
# Light Properties

- Illumination
  - **Achromatic light** - *White* or uncolored light that contains all visual wavelengths in a *complete mix*.
  - **Chromatic light** - Colored light.
  - **Monochromatic light** – Light with a single wavelength, e.g., a laser.
- Reflection
  - Colors we see are typically a mix of wavelengths.
  - The dominant wavelength reflected by an object decides the “color tone” or hue.
  - If many wavelengths are reflected in equal amounts, an object appears to be grey.



# Illumination - Reflection - Detection

The spectral measurement process



A-average incandecent light,  
B-direct daylight, C-sunlight

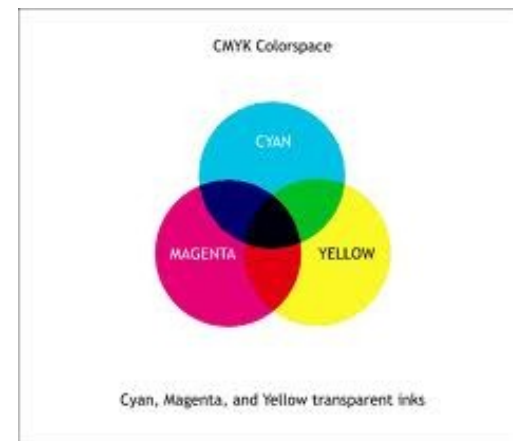
# Color space representations

Color information can be described in a 'color space'

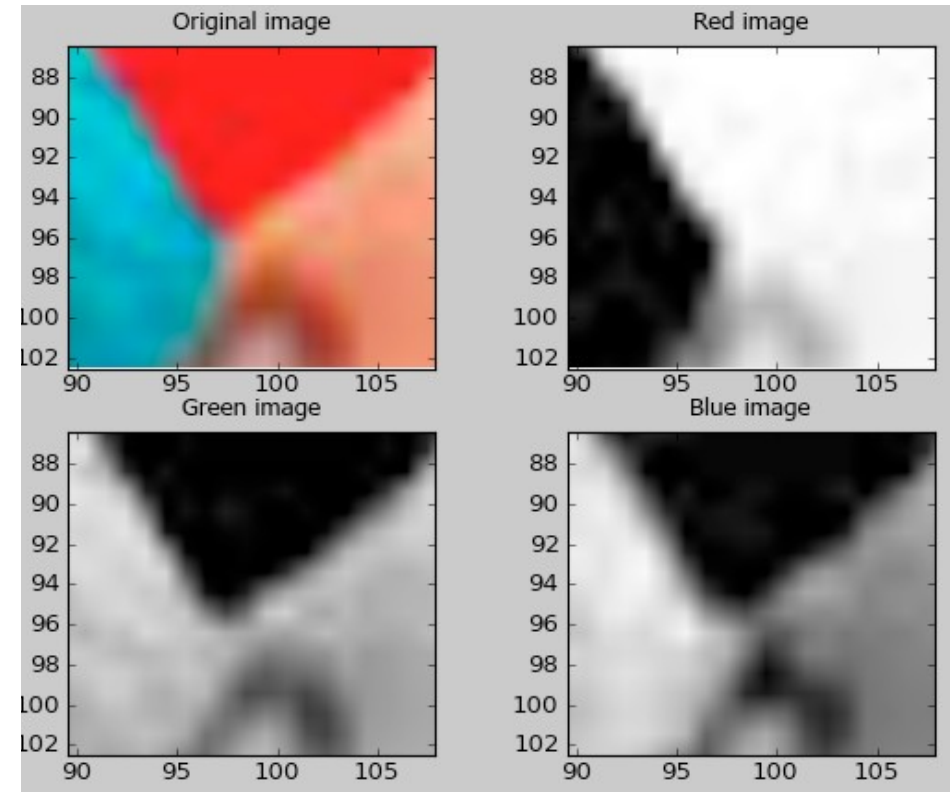
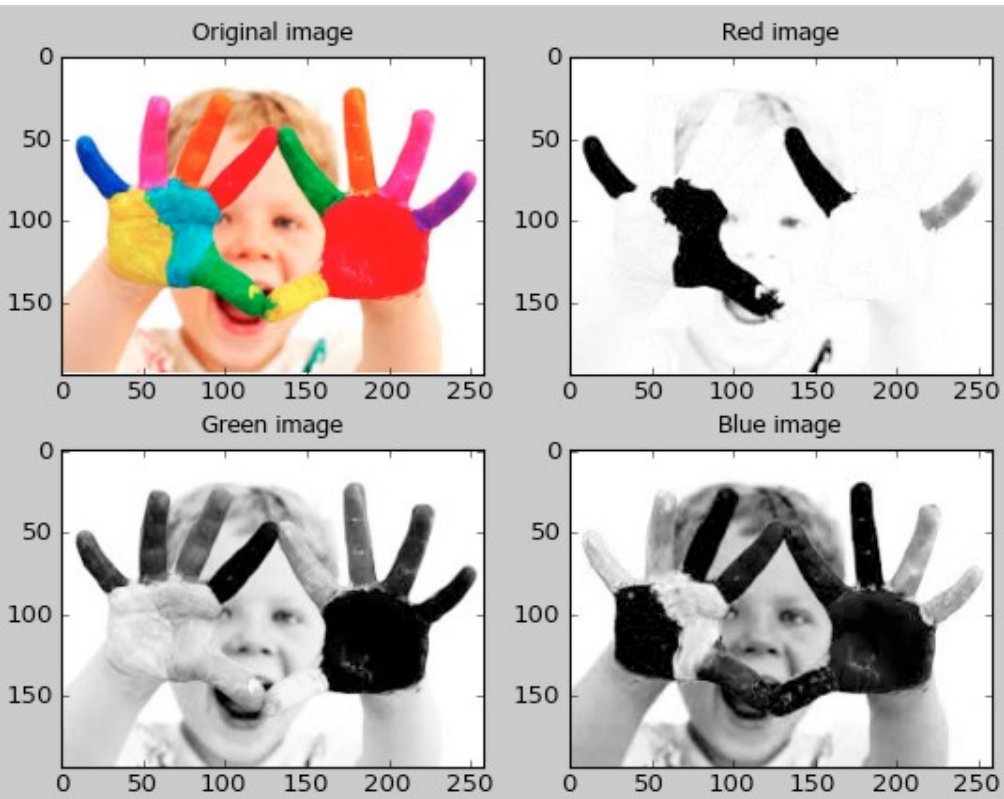
In the RGB (Red Green Blue) color space, each pixel is described by how much red, green and blue intensity it contains. The color of a pixel is defined by its position in the RGB cube (a 3D scatter plot) where origin  $(0,0,0)$  is black and the  $(1,1,1)$  is white.



In the CMYK (Cyan Magenta Yellow Black) color space, each pixel describes how much pigment (color) of each of the primary colors that should be added at printing. It is, in some sense, the inverse of the RGB color space.



# RGB color images



Mixing *light* means that the more colors you add, the lighter (and whiter) the resulting image.

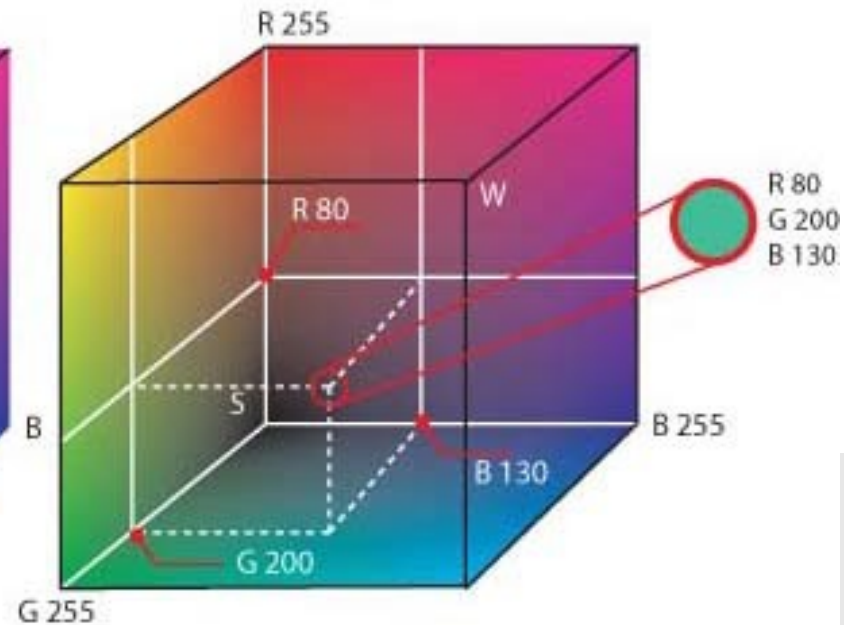
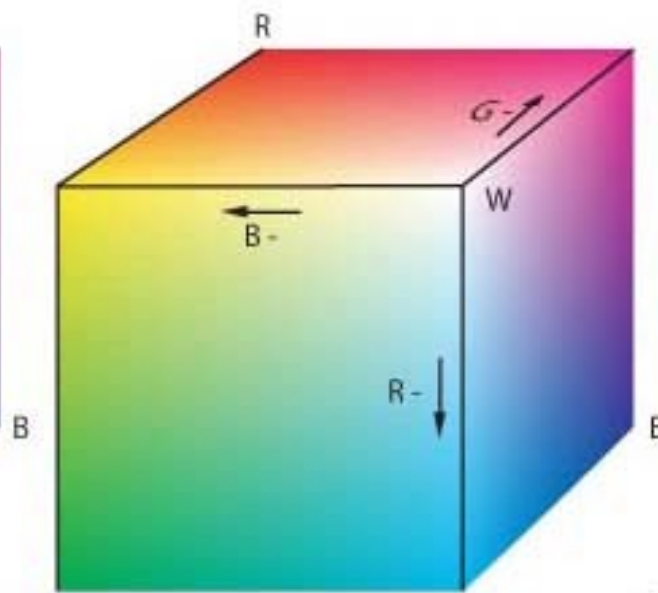
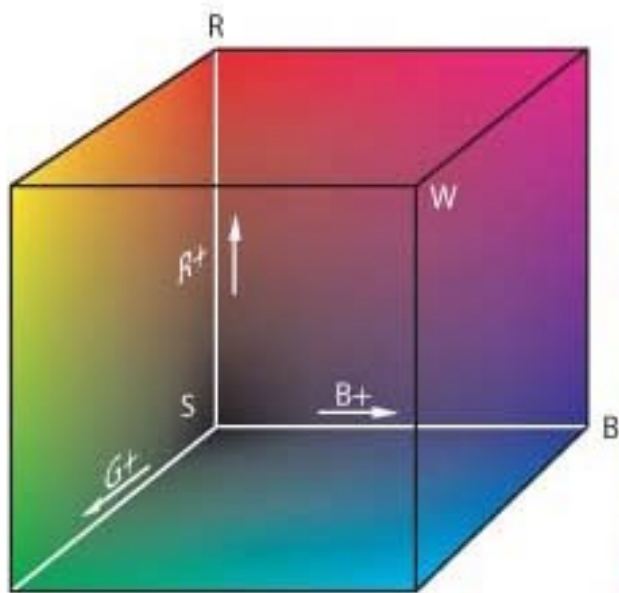
$$R+G=Y$$

$$R+G+B= \text{white}$$

# Color Spaces - RGB/CMY

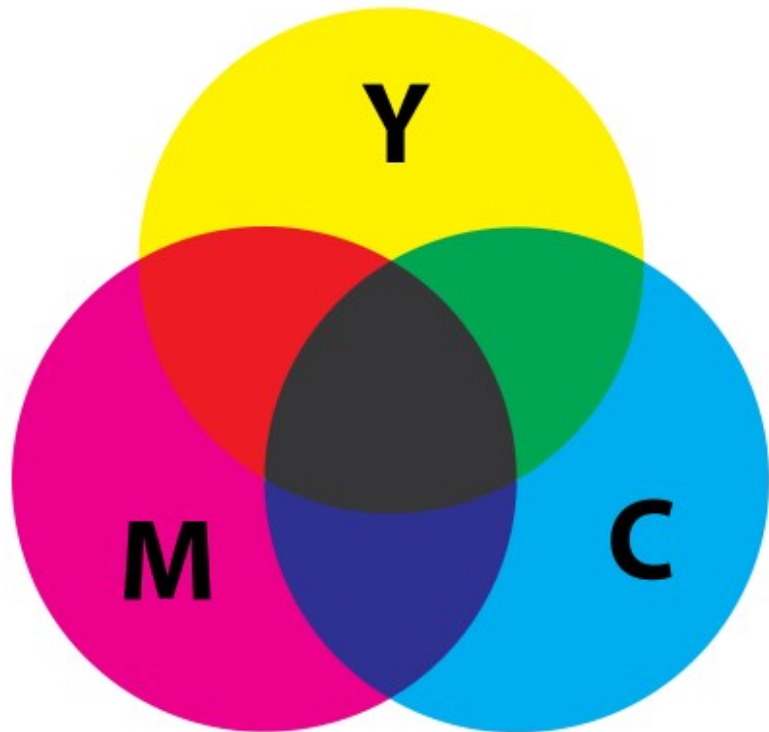
Red Green Blue / Cyan Magenta Yellow

- Hardware oriented
- RGB is closer to the physiological side of our vision (the three cone types) rather than the psychological.
- $[C\ M\ Y] = [1\ 1\ 1] - [R\ G\ B]$



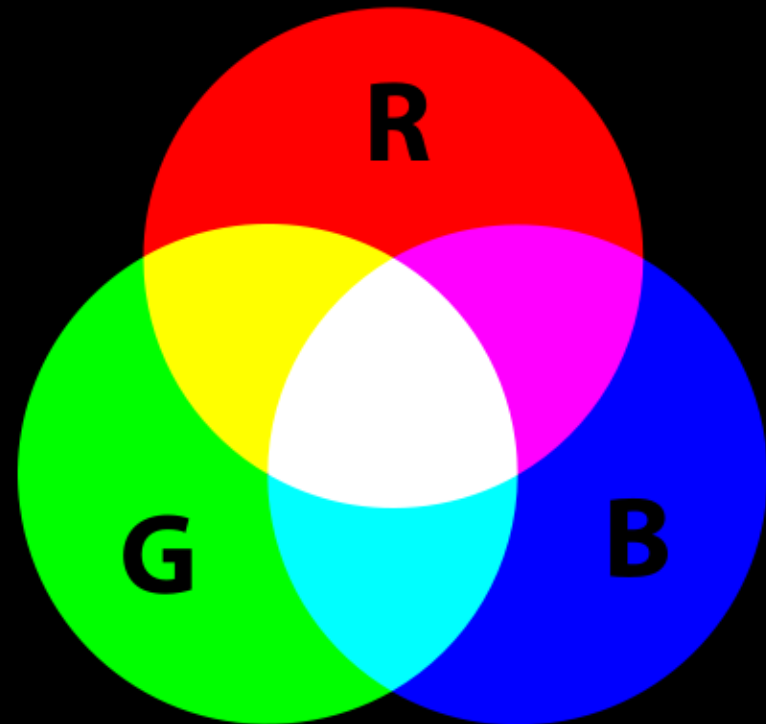
# Subtractive Color Mixing

Primary colors of pigments



**C + M + Y**

Reflected light (object)

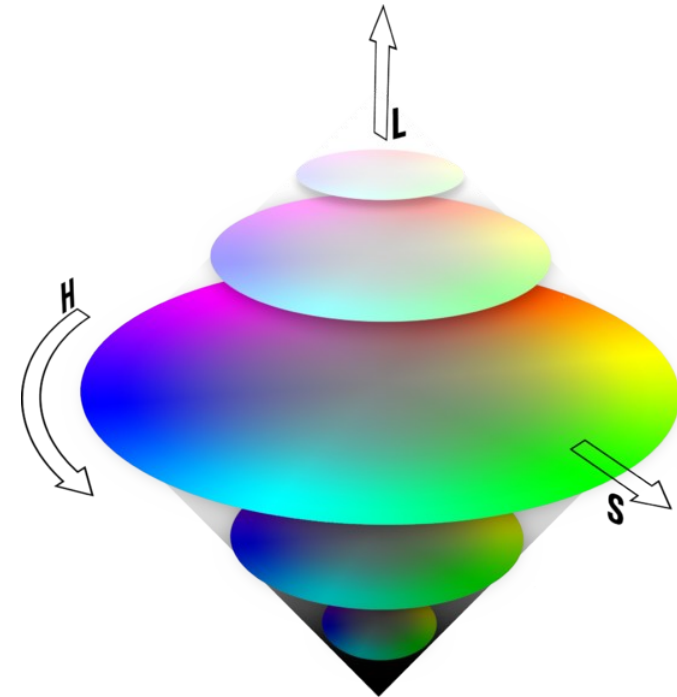


# Color Spaces -HSL

Hue Saturation Lightness

- User oriented
- The HSL color space has intensity decoupled from color information.

Hue, angle	(Färgton)
Saturation, radius	(Mättnad)
Value, Lightness, height	(Ljushet)

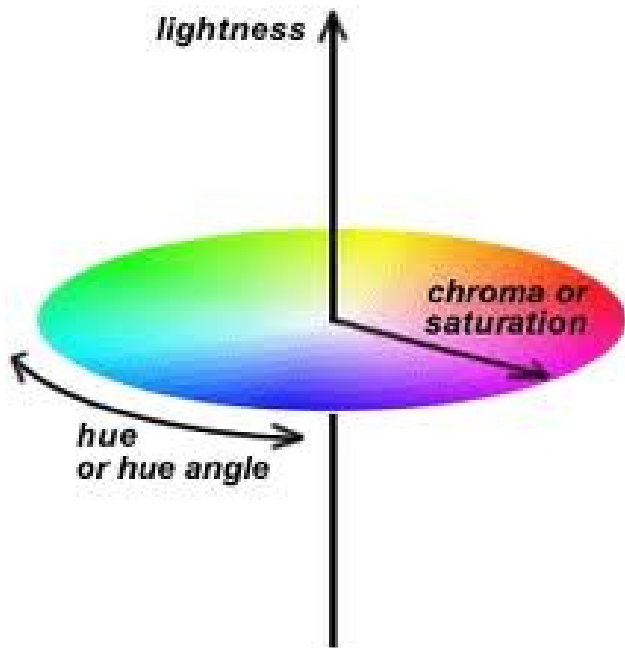




# Color Spaces -HSL

Hue Saturation Lightness

Makes it easier to compare objects with similar hue but varying lighting conditions.



saturation



lightness



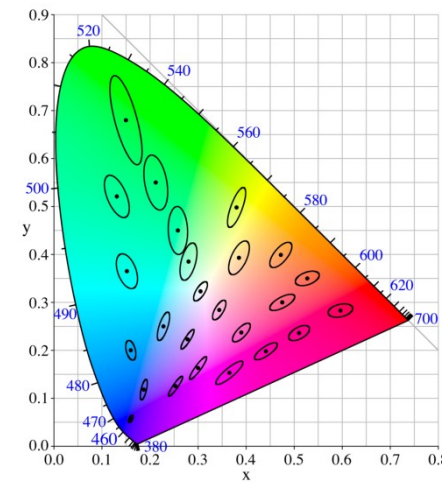
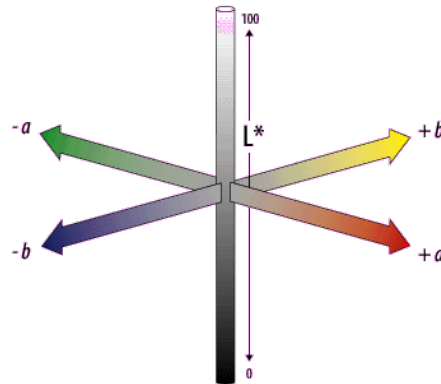
hue

Note that the hue is a continuous angular scale of Hue where 0 and 360 degrees meet at red, so that red (360 degrees) has maximum hue while orange has minimum.

# Color Spaces CIE L\*a\*b\* or CIELAB

The most complete color space specified by the International Commission on Illumination, CIE in 1976

- Created to:
  - Represent all colors visible to human eye
  - Serve as a device independent model to be used as a reference
  - Be perceptually uniform - equal distance should have equal perceptual difference.





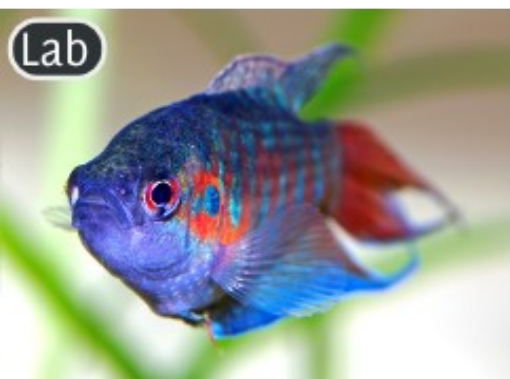
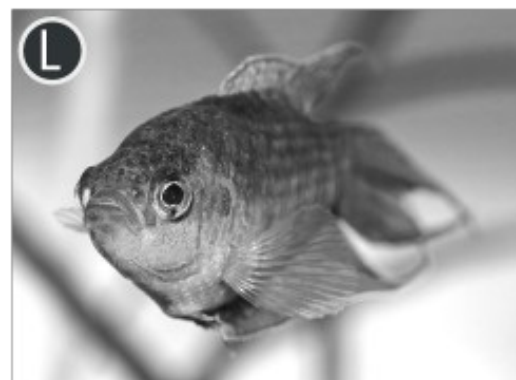
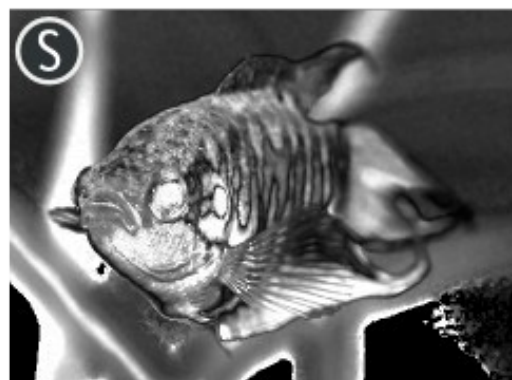
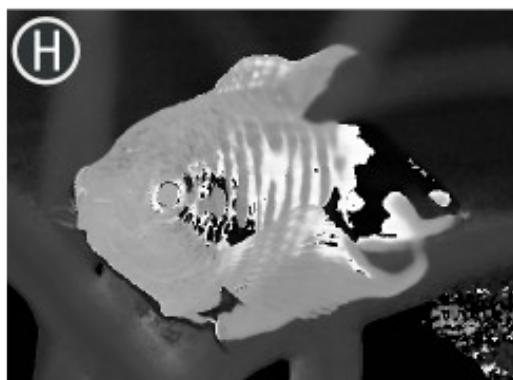
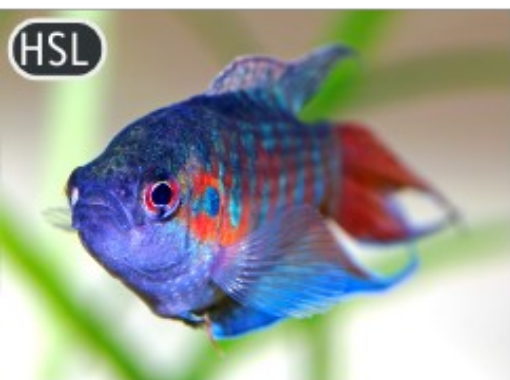
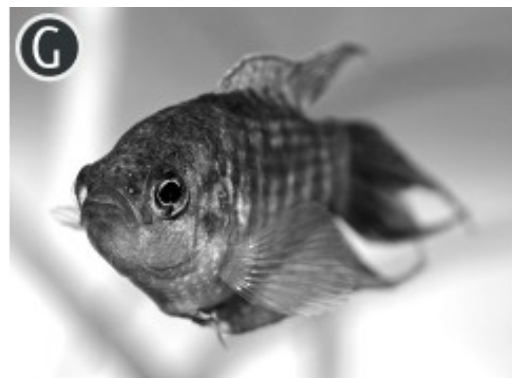
# Color Spaces

## Even more color spaces

- **YCbCr** - similar to CIE  $L^*a^*b^*$ 
  - Used in the JPEG file format.
  - Uses the fact that the human eye is more sensitive to variation in lightness than in hue and saturation.
- **YUV** is similar to YCbCr, used for analogue TV
- **CMYK** is the CMY color space with a black component added, used for printing where a black pigment is used along with Cyan, Magenta and Yellow.

The list goes on ...

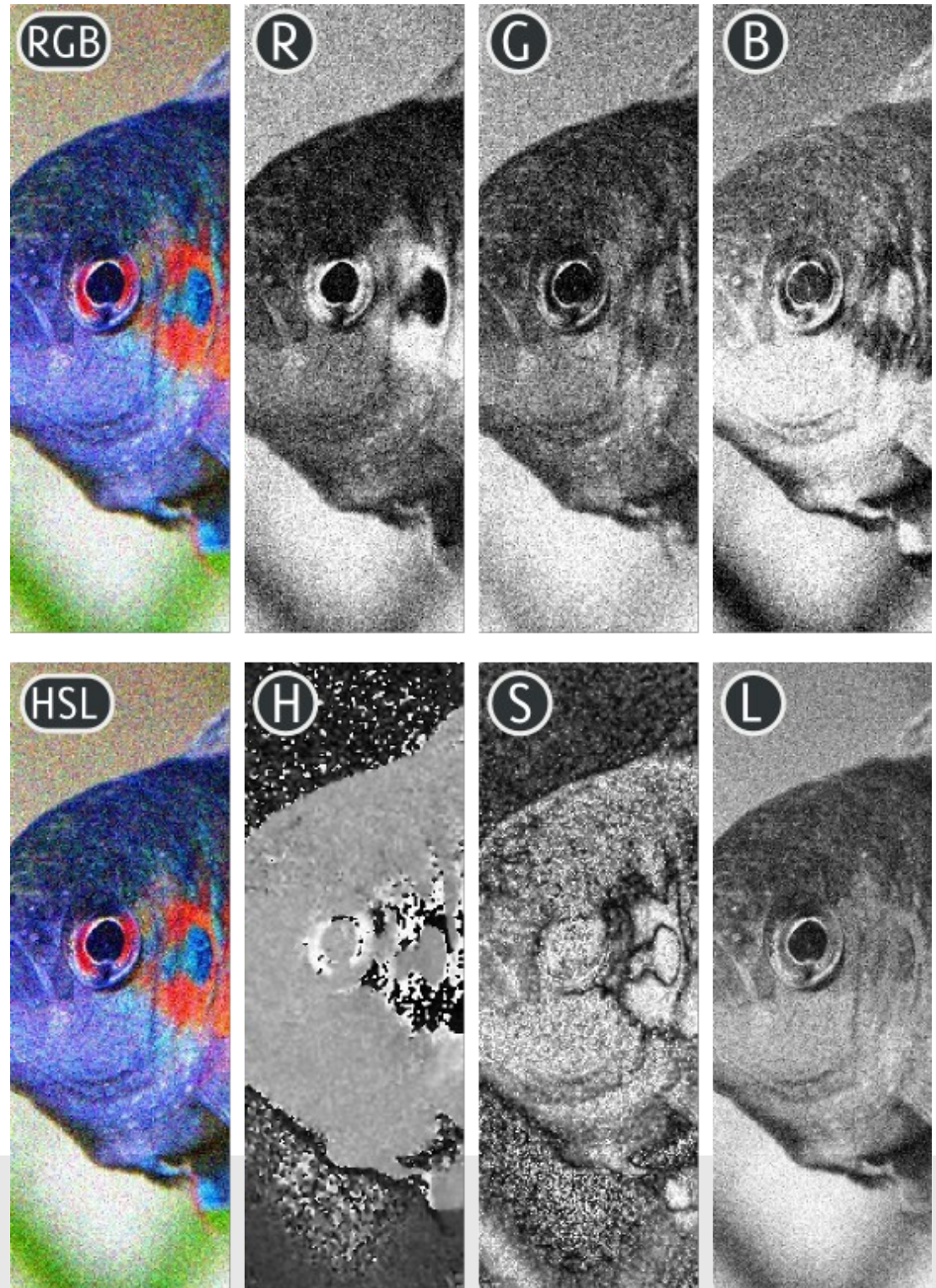






# Noise in color images

- Gaussian noise in all color channels
- In a HSL representation the noise is most apparent in the H and S channel.



# Gray level methods on color images

- In general all image processing methods used for grey level images can be used for color images.
- They can be carried out on each of the color channels or for example on the intensity only.
- There is no right or wrong, but the results differ.
- Be careful when using HSL.



# The H-channel in HSL

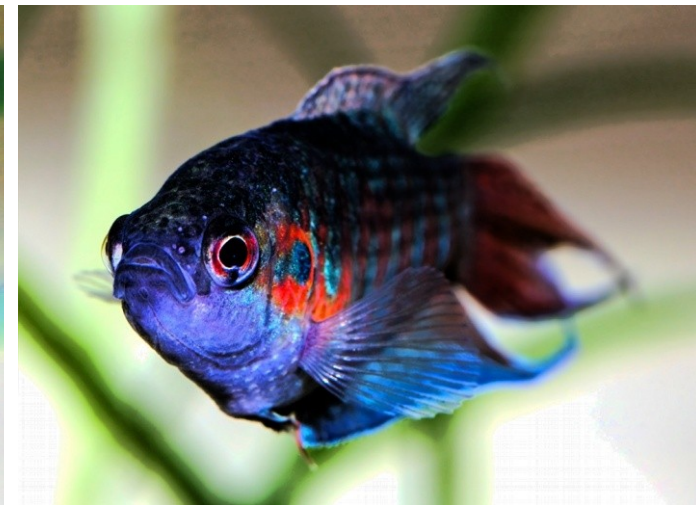
- You might end up with color artifacts if the H-channel is filtered.
- Remember that the Hue channel is in degrees 0 to 360.



Gaussian filtered hue channel

# More grey level methods on color images

- Histogram equalization on all channels in HSL can make things strange. Only used on the L channel the expected result is acquired.



Original

Histogram equalization in all channels

Histogram equalization in L channel



# Segmentation Based on Hue

- Using an intensity decoupled color space segmentation based on color can be relative intuitive.
- Setting an interval for the hue around the hue value for red in HSL space the red part of the fish is segmented.



Segmented part of hue shown on the L channel.

# Choosing Color Space

- A color space can be close to the hardware or close to the application. RGB is close to the output from a CCD, etc.
- Decoupled intensity can be very useful in image processing making it possible to use many grey-scale methods intuitively.
- Some spaces like HSL has a difficult transformation from, e.g., RGB. Singularities may exist.
- Regardless of which color space is used RGB is often the color space for the displaying device.



# Spectrometer

Ideally we measure the intensity for each wavelength of light over the entire range of interest. This can be done point by point by a spectrometer. Can easily provide thousands of measurement per pixel.



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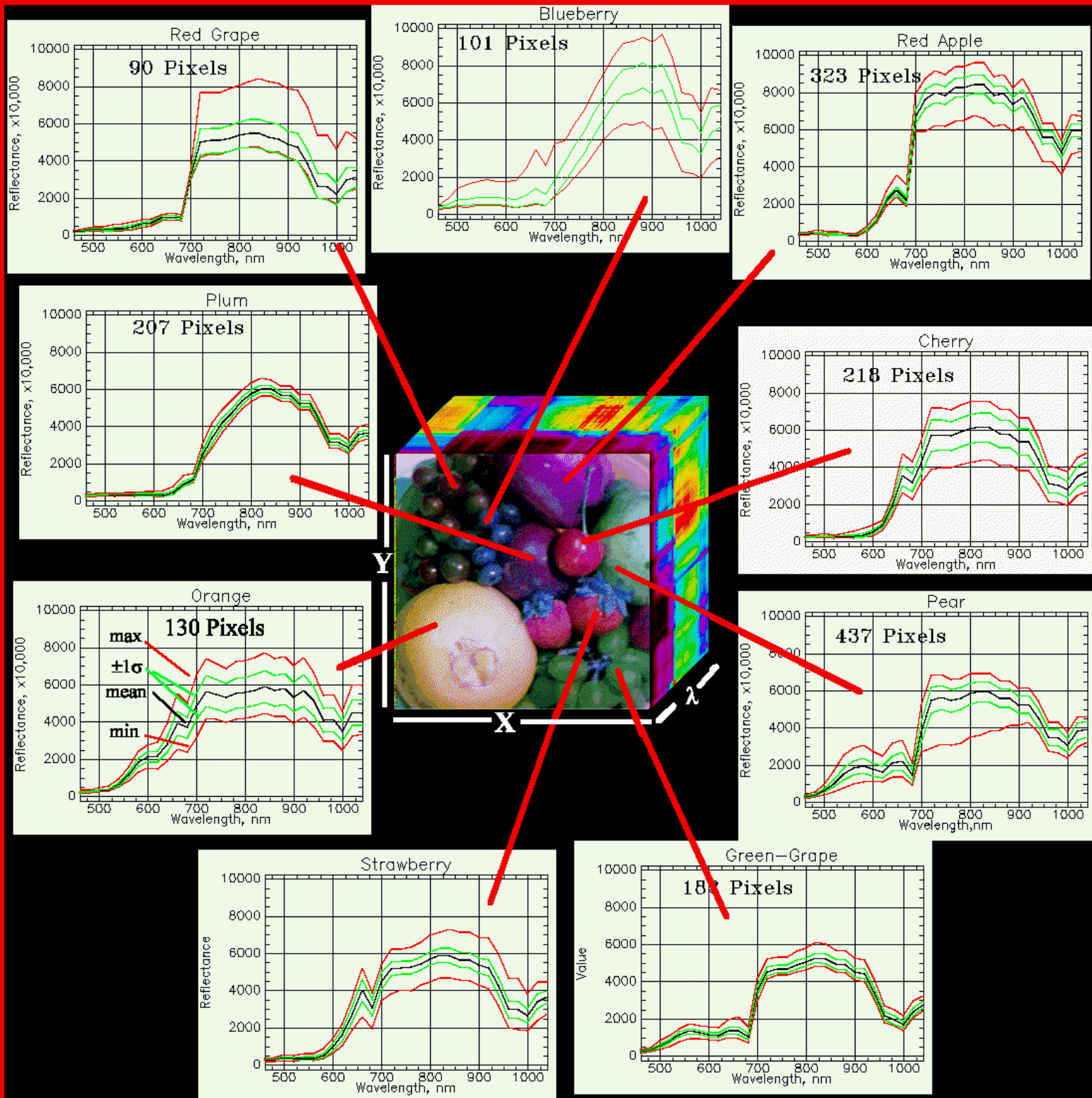


UPPSALA  
UNIVERSITET

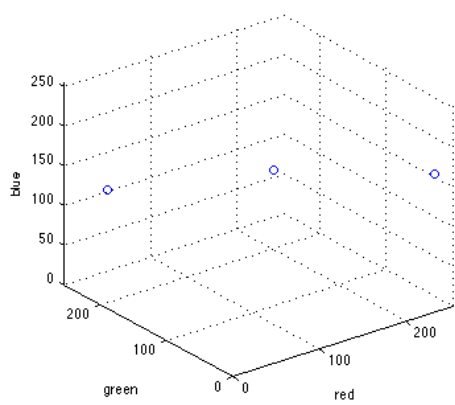


SLU

Each object in the image has its own spectrum



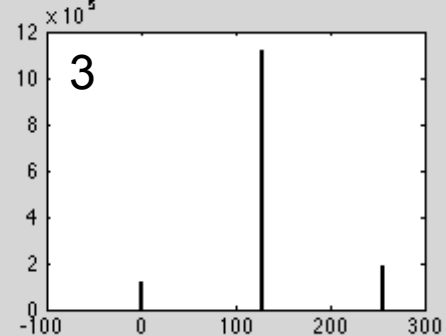
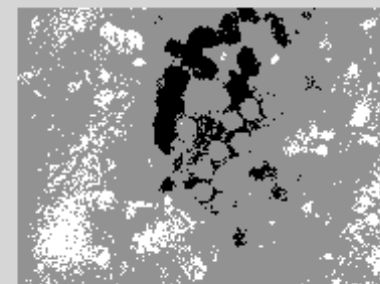
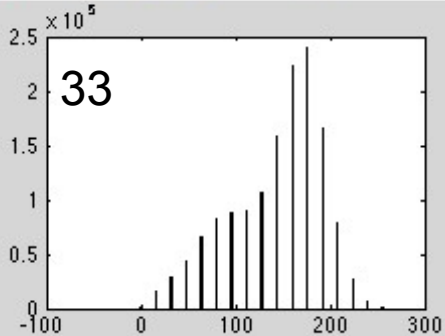
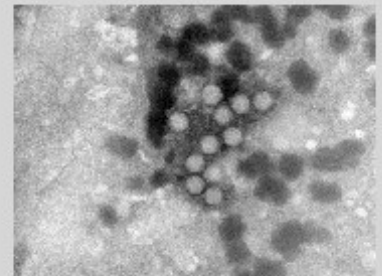
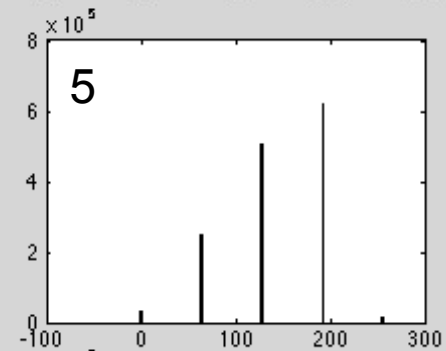
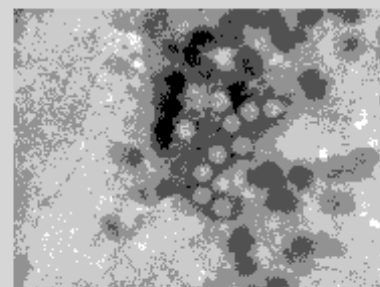
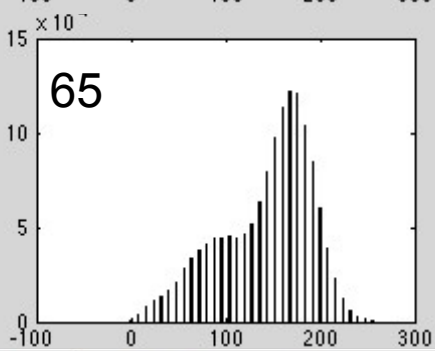
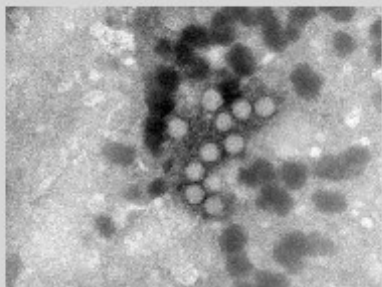
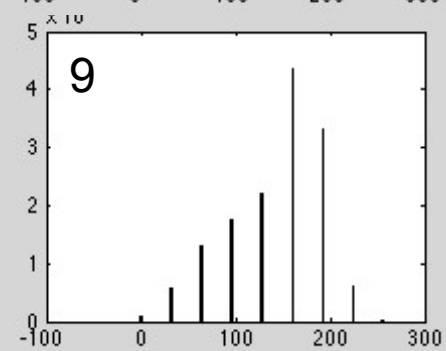
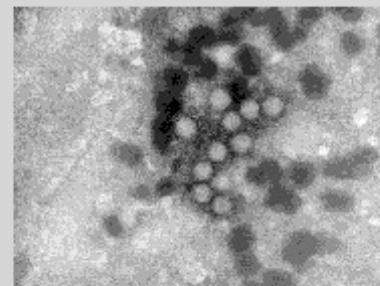
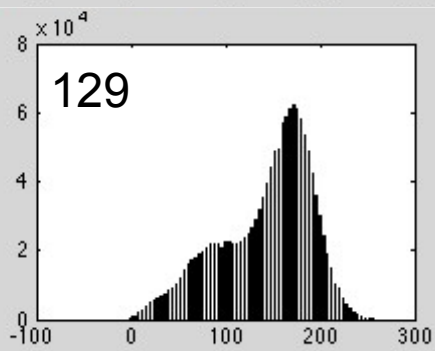
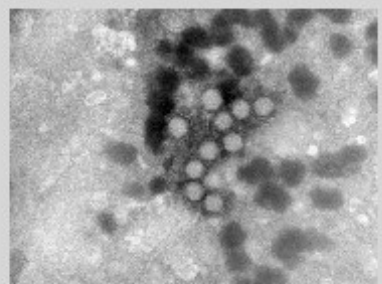
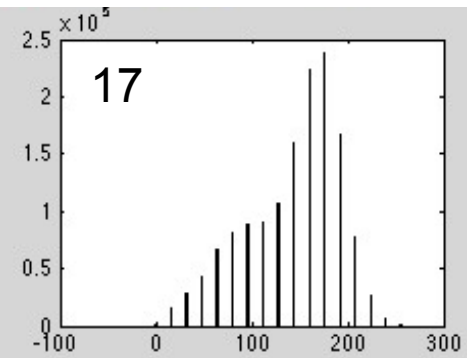
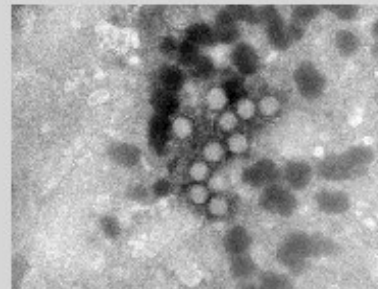
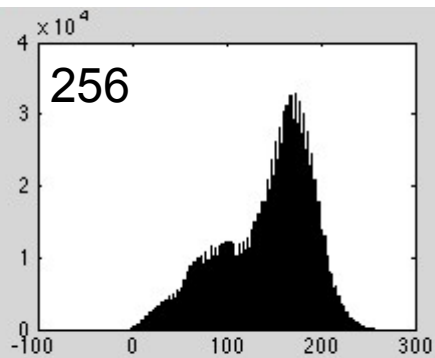
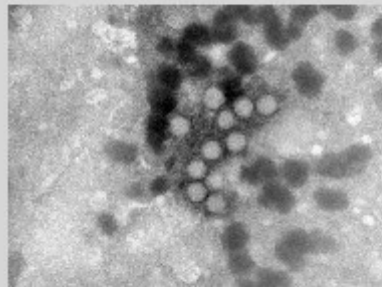
# Why quantitative measurements of colors?





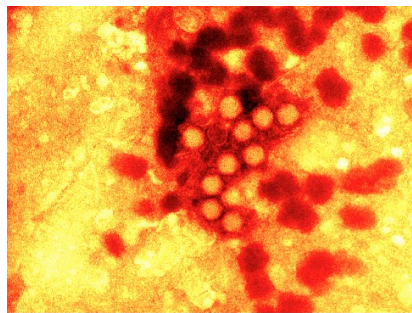
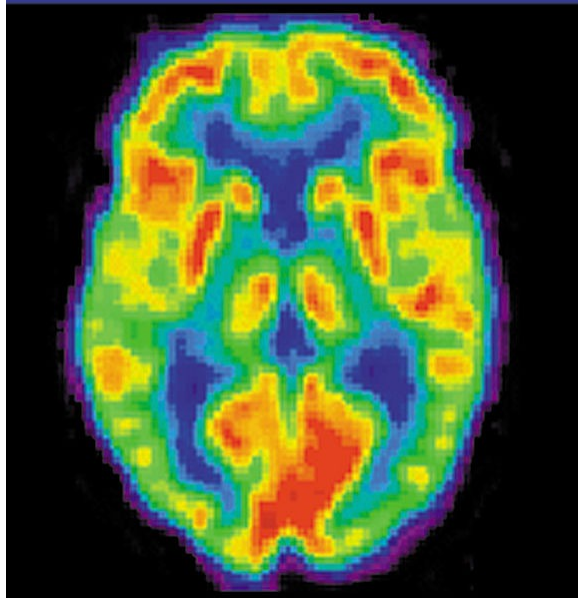
# Intensity and visual information

Microscopy images are often 12 or 16 bit images, meaning 4096 or 65536 different levels of gray, but the human eye can only distinguish approximately 32 gray levels of locally.

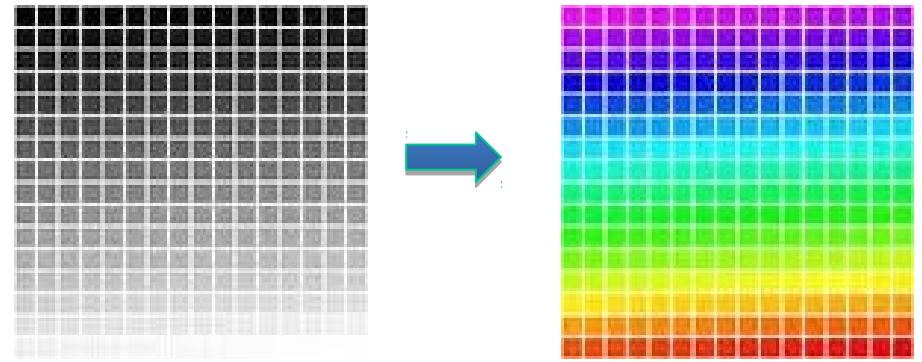


# Pseudo coloring

Example of pseudo-coloring in PET imaging

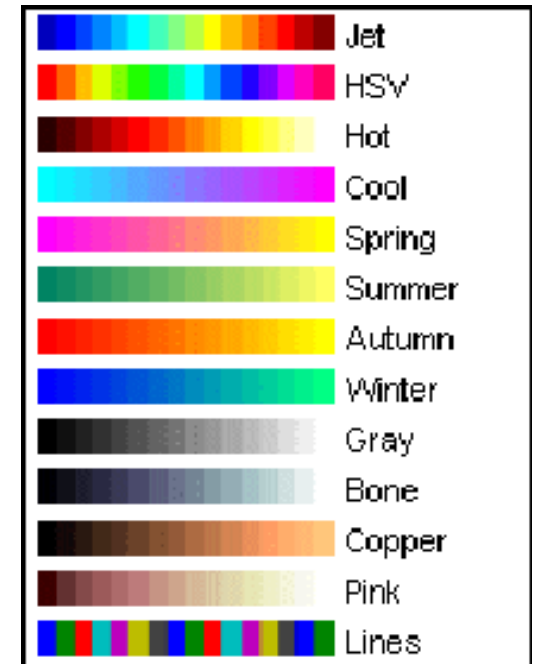


The viruses from the previous image, pseudo-colored using the color map 'Hot'



Each intensity value is mapped to a given color

Some popular color maps (from Matlab):

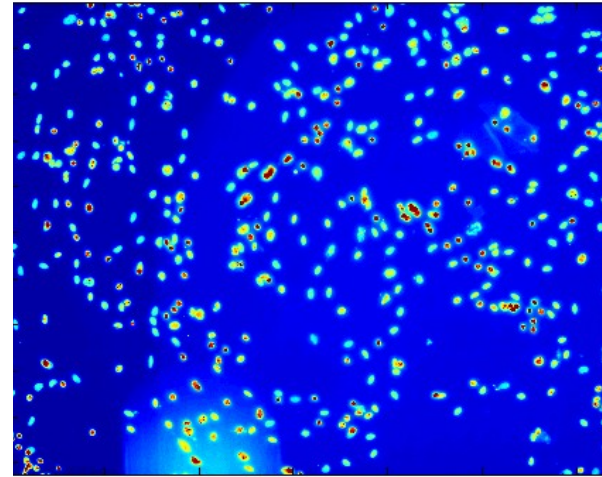
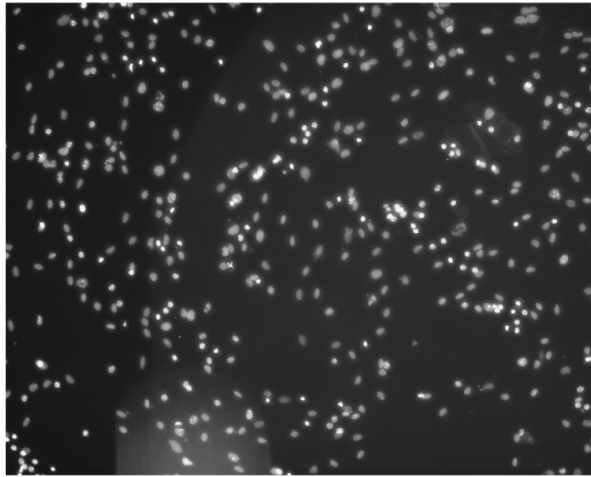


Pseudo-coloring makes small intensity differences more apparent as the human eye is better at seeing differences in color than in intensity

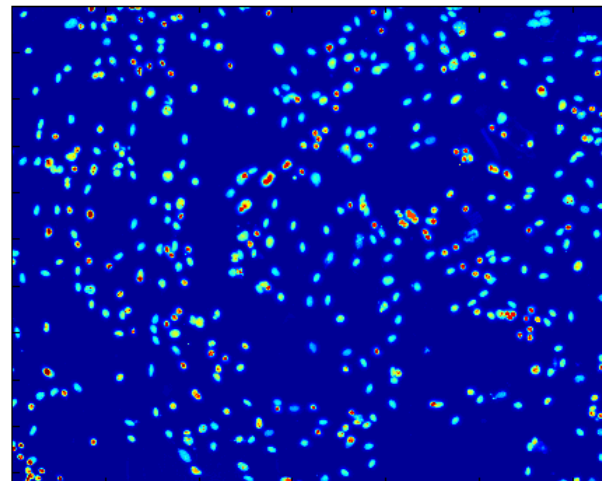
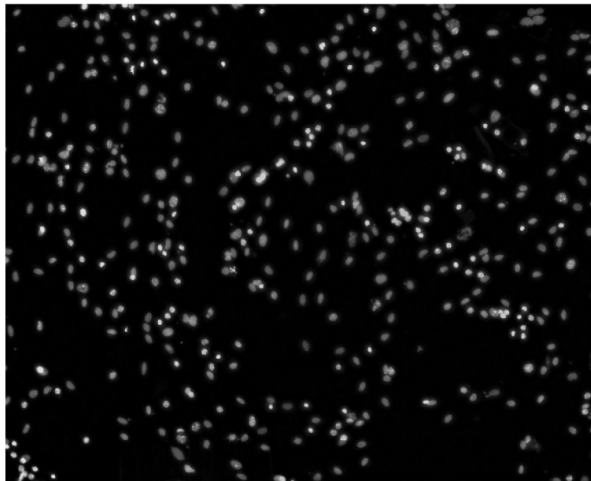
grayscale

pseudo-colored

input image



Background subtracted image



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# **Image coding and compression**





# Redundancy

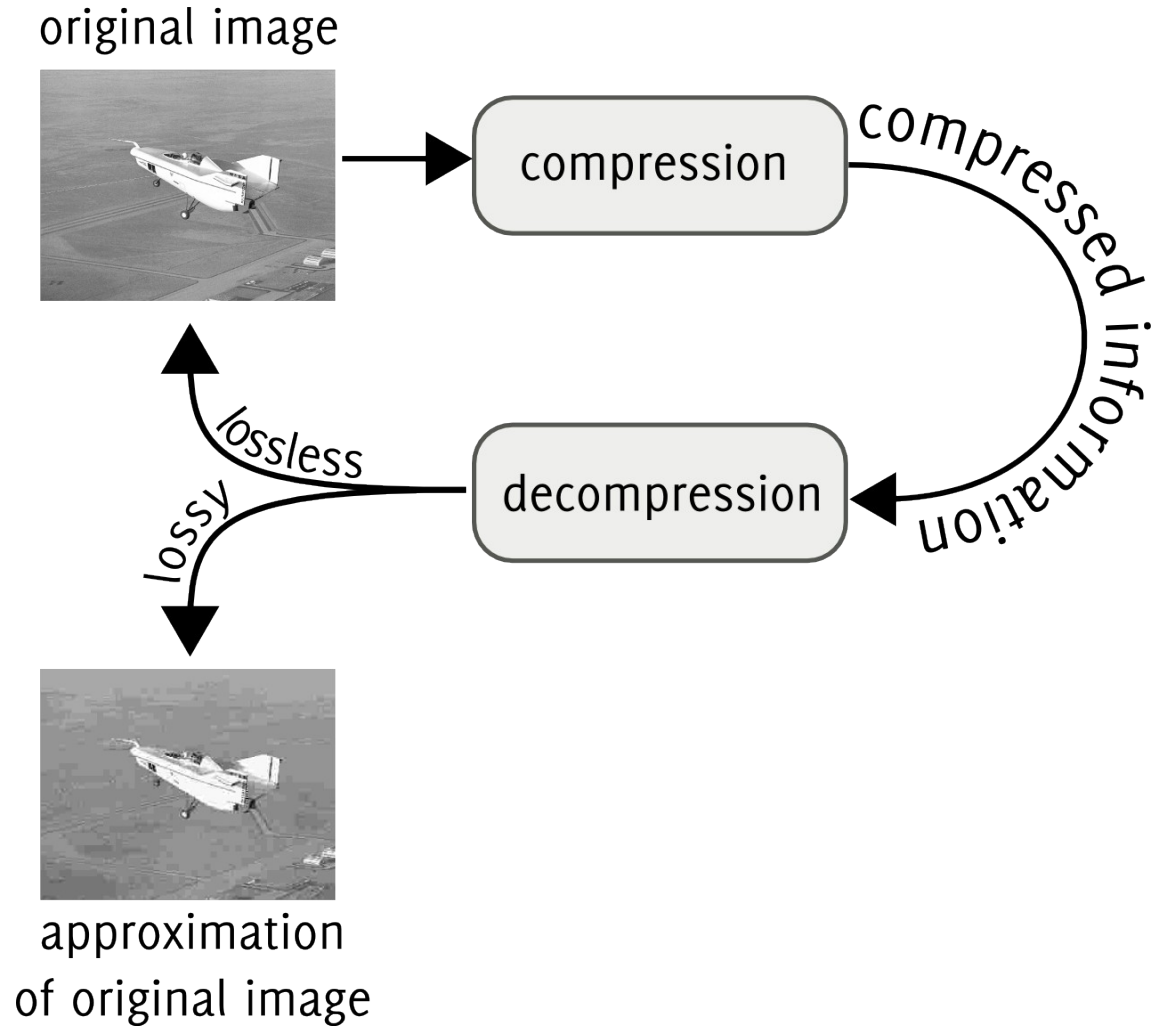
## *information and data*

- *Data* is **not** the same thing as *information*.
- Data is the means with which information is expressed. The amount of data can be much larger than the amount of information.
- Redundant data doesn't provide additional information.
- Image coding or compression aims at reducing the amount of data while keeping the information by reducing the amount of redundancy.





# Image Coding and Compression



# Image Compression

Image compression can be:

- **Reversible** (lossless), with no loss of information.
  - The image after compression and decompression is identical to the original image. Often necessary in image analysis applications.
  - The compression ratio is typically 2 to 10 times.
- **Non reversible** (lossy), with loss of some information.
  - Lossy compression is often used in image communication, compact cameras, video, www, etc.
  - The compression ratio is typically 10 to 30 times.

# Image Coding and Compression

- Image coding
  - How the image data can be represented.
- Image compression
  - Reducing the amount of data required to represent an image.
  - Enabling efficient image storing and transmission.

# Objective Measures of Image Quality

- Error

$$e(x, y) = \hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y)$$

- Total Error

$$e_{tot} = \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} (\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y))$$

- Root-Mean-Square

$$e_{RMS} = \frac{1}{MN} \sqrt{\sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} (\hat{f}(x, y) - f(x, y))^2}$$

# Subjective Measures of Image Quality

- Problem
  - The objective image quality measures previously shown does not always fit with our perception of image quality.
- Solution
  - Let a number of test persons rate the image quality of the images on a scale. This will result in a subjective measure of image quality, or rather fidelity, but it will be based on how we perceive the quality of the images.

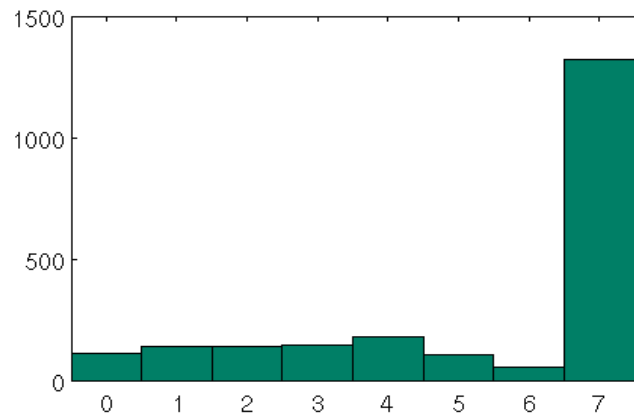
# Measure the amount of data

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

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k)p(r_k),$$

$l(r_k)$  is the number of bits used to represent gray level  
and  $p(r_k)$  is the probability of gray level  $r_k$  in the image.

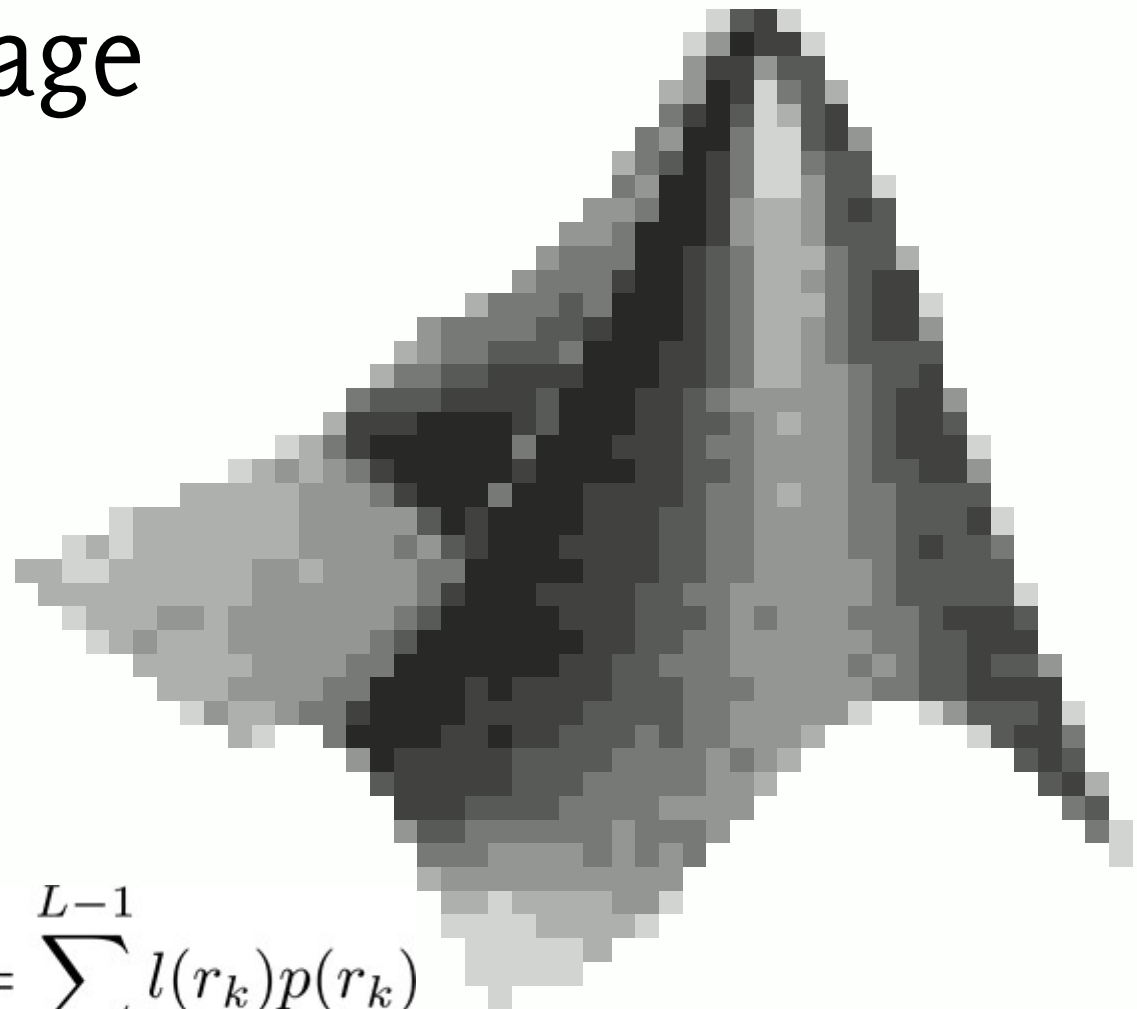
# Example 3-bit image



$r_k$	count	$p(r_k)$	source
0	113	0.051	000
1	139	0.063	001
2	142	0.064	010
3	145	0.066	011
4	181	0.082	100
5	105	0.047	101
6	52	0.023	110
7	1323	0.601	111

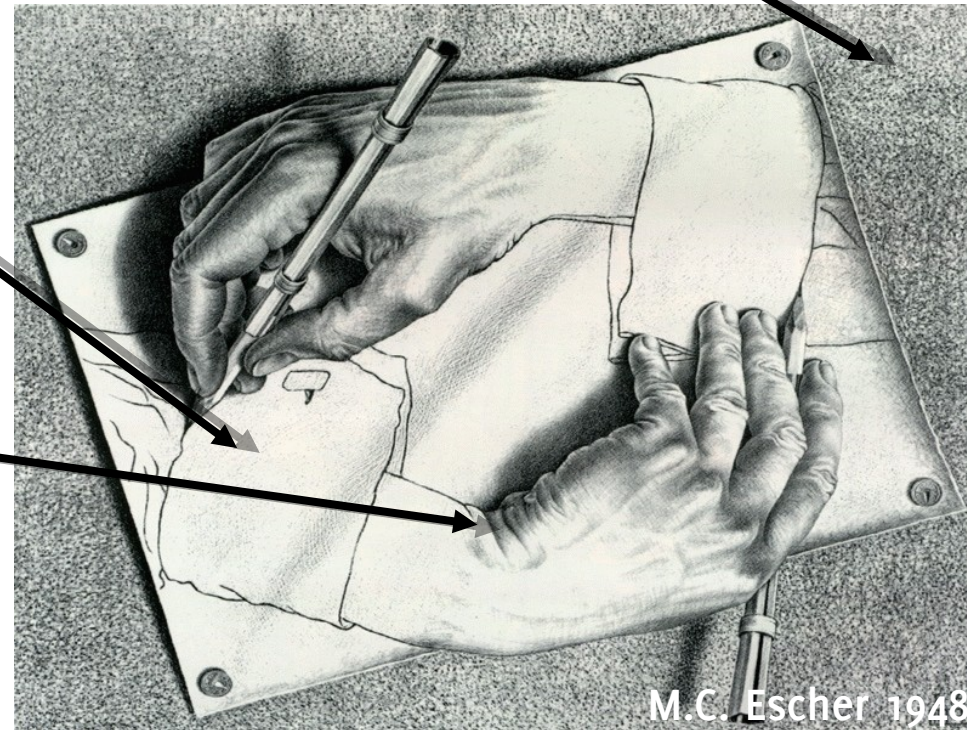
$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k) p(r_k)$$

$$L_{avg} = 3$$



# Different Types of Redundancy

- Coding Redundancy
  - Some gray levels are more common than other.
- Interpixel redundancy
  - The same gray level may cover a large area.
- Psycho-Visual Redundancy
  - The eye can only resolve about 32 gray levels locally.



M.C. Escher 1948



# Coding redundancy

- **Basic idea:** Different gray levels occur with different probability (non uniform histogram). Use shorter code words for the more common gray levels and longer code words for less common gray levels. This is called *Variable Code Length*.

# Huffman Coding

- **First**

1. Sort the gray levels by decreasing probability
2. Sum the two smallest probabilities.
3. Sort the new value into the list.
4. Repeat 1 to 3 until only two probabilities remains.

- **Second**

1. Give the code 0 to the highest probability, and the code 1 to the lowest probability in the summed pair.
2. Go backwards through the tree one node and repeat from 1 until all gray levels have a unique code.

# Example of Huffman coding

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$
7	0.601
4	0.082
3	0.066
2	0.064
1	0.063
0	0.051
5	0.047
6	0.023

# Example of Huffman coding

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1
7	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082
3	0.066	0.070
2	0.064	0.066
1	0.063	0.064
0	0.051	0.063
5	0.047	0.051
6	0.023	

# Example of Huffman coding

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2
7	0.601	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082	0.114
3	0.066	0.070	0.082
2	0.064	0.066	0.070
1	0.063	0.064	0.066
0	0.051	0.063	0.064
5	0.047	0.051	
6	0.023		



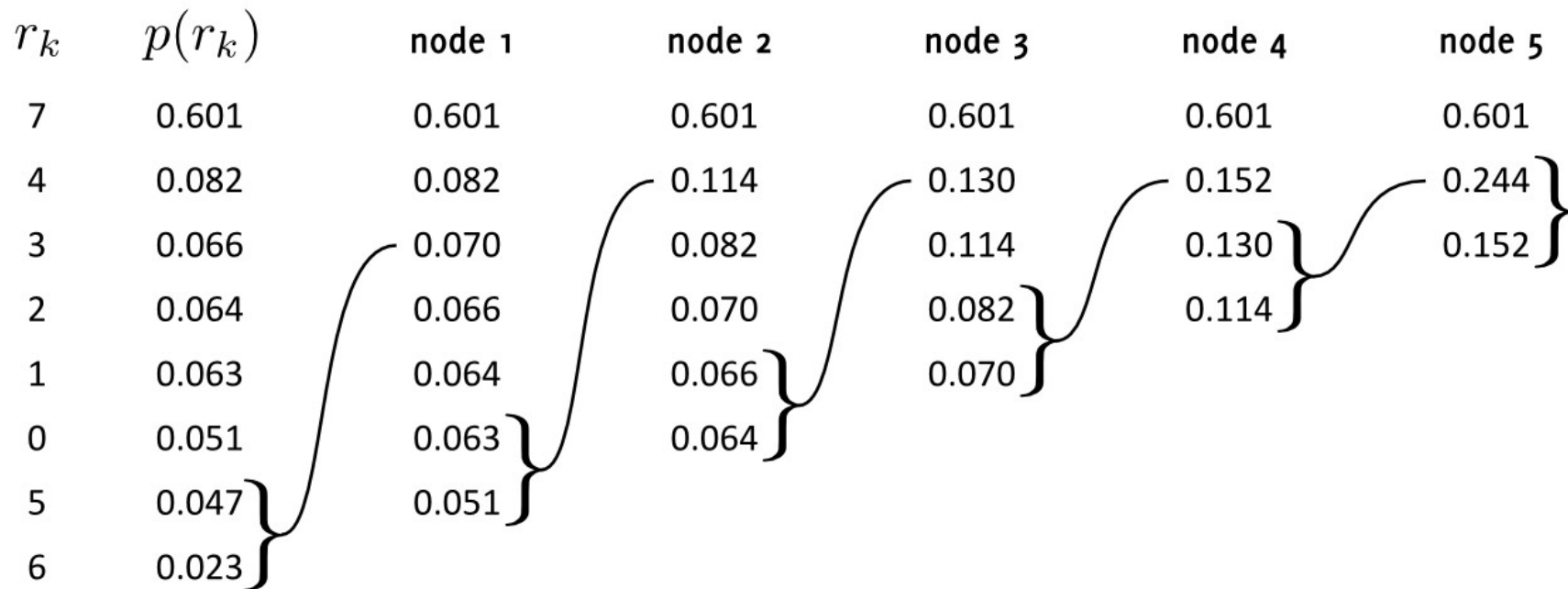
# Example of Huffman coding

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3
7	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082	0.114	0.130
3	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114
2	0.064	0.066	0.070	0.082
1	0.063	0.064	0.066	0.070
0	0.051	0.063	0.064	
5	0.047	0.051		
6	0.023			

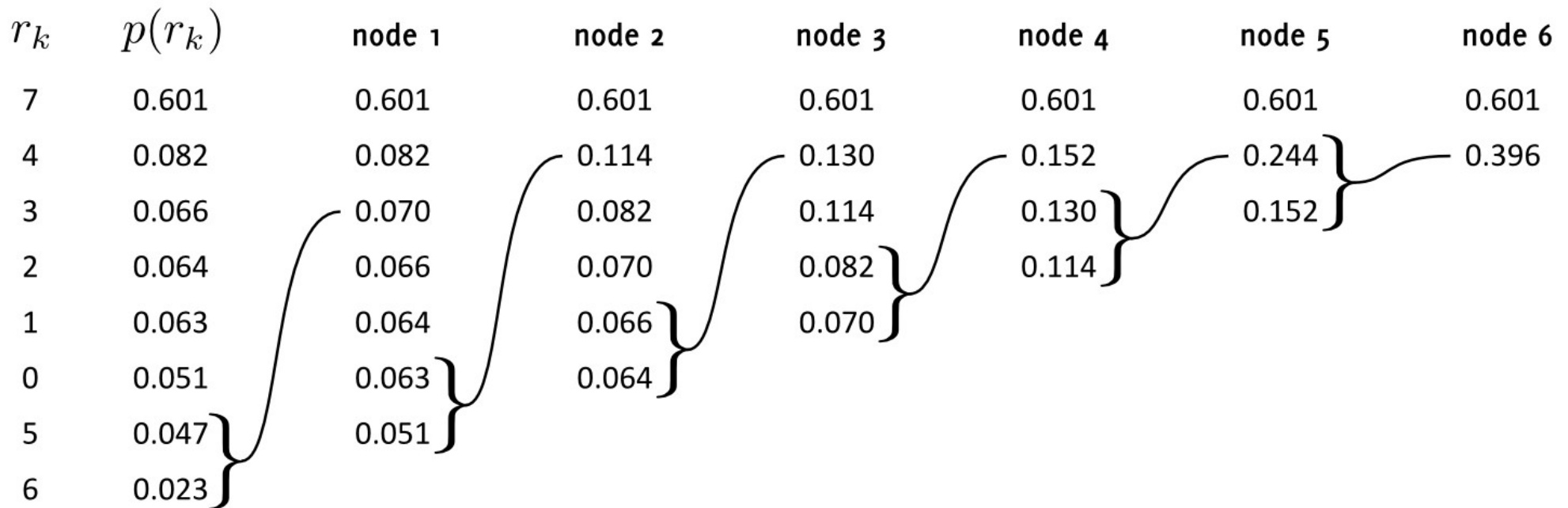
# Example of Huffman coding

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4
7	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152
3	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114	0.130
2	0.064	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114
1	0.063	0.064	0.066	0.070	
0	0.051	0.063	0.064		
5	0.047	0.051			
6	0.023				

# Example of Huffman coding



# Example of Huffman coding



# Huffman Coding

- First
  - 1.Sort the gray levels by decreasing probability
  - 2.Add the two smallest probabilities.
  - 3.Sort the new value into the list.
  - 4.Repeat 1 to 3 until only two probabilities remains.
- Second
  - 1.Give the code 0 to the highest probability, and the code 1 to the lowest probability in the summed pair.
  - 2.Go backwards through the tree one node and repeat from 1 until all gray levels have a unique code.



# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
7	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152	0.244	0.396
3	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152	
2	0.064	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114		
1	0.063	0.064	0.066	0.070			
0	0.051	0.063	0.064				
5	0.047	0.051					
6	0.023						

The table illustrates the merging process of Huffman coding. Brackets and curved lines show the following steps:
 

- Step 1: Symbols 5 and 6 are merged into a node with probability 0.051.
- Step 2: Symbols 0 and 1 are merged into a node with probability 0.063.
- Step 3: Symbols 2 and 3 are merged into a node with probability 0.070.
- Step 4: The node from step 2 and the node from step 3 are merged into a node with probability 0.114.
- Step 5: Symbols 4 and the node from step 4 are merged into a node with probability 0.130.
- Step 6: Symbols 5 and 6 are merged into a node with probability 0.152.
- Step 7: The node from step 5 and the node from step 6 are merged into a node with probability 0.244.
- Step 8: The node from step 4 and the node from step 7 are merged into a node with probability 0.396.
- Step 9: Finally, the node from step 8 and the original symbol 7 are merged into the root node with probability 0.601.

# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
7	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152	0.244	0.396
3	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152	
2	0.064	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114		
1	0.063	0.064	0.066	0.070			
0	0.051	0.063	0.064				
5	0.047	0.051					
6	0.023						

The table illustrates the Huffman coding process. The first column lists symbols  $r_k$  and their probabilities  $p(r_k)$ . The subsequent columns show the nodes in the Huffman tree at each step. Brackets indicate the merging of nodes. The final two nodes in node 5 are labeled with binary codes **10** and **11**. The final node in node 6 is labeled with binary code **0**. The final node in node 6 is labeled with binary code **1**.

# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
7	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601
4	0.082	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152	0.244	0.396
3	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114	0.130	0.152	
2	0.064	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114		
1	0.063	0.064	0.066	0.070			
0	0.051	0.063	0.064				
5	0.047	0.051					
6	0.023						

The table illustrates the Huffman coding process. The first column shows the symbols  $r_k$  and their probabilities  $p(r_k)$ . The subsequent columns show the nodes in the Huffman tree. The tree is built by repeatedly merging the two smallest nodes. The final codes are shown in red: 0, 10, 11, 100, and 101.

# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6				
7	0.601	0.601	0.601	0.601	0	0.601	0	0.601	0		
4	0.082	0.082	0.114	0.130	100	0.152	11	0.244	10	0.396	1
3	0.066	0.070	0.082	0.114	101	0.130	100	0.152	11		
2	0.064	0.066	0.070	0.082	110	0.114	101				
1	0.063	0.064	0.066	0.070	111						
0	0.051	0.063	0.064								
5	0.047	0.051									
6	0.023										

# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
7	0.601	0.601	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0
4	0.082	0.082	0.114 101	0.130 100	0.152 11	0.244 } 10	0.396 1
3	0.066	0.070	0.082 110	0.114 101	0.130 } 100	0.152 } 11	
2	0.064	0.066	0.070 111	0.082 } 110	0.114 } 101		
1	0.063	0.064	0.066 } 1000	0.070 } 111			
0	0.051	0.063 } 1001	0.064 } 1001				
5	0.047	0.051 } 1001					
6	0.023						



# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

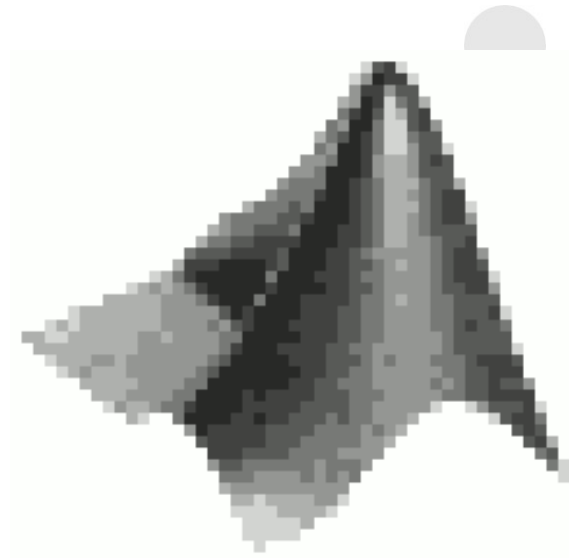
$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
7	0.601	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0	0.601 0
4	0.082	0.082 110	0.114 101	0.130 100	0.152 11	0.244 10	0.396 1
3	0.066	0.070 111	0.082 110	0.114 101	0.130 100	0.152 11	
2	0.064	0.066 1000	0.070 111	0.082 110	0.114 101		
1	0.063	0.064 1001	0.066 1000	0.070 111			
0	0.051	0.063 1010	0.064 1001				
5	0.047	0.051 1011					
6	0.023						

# Example of Huffman coding

## *Assigning codes*

$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	code	node 1	node 2	node 3	node 4	node 5	node 6
7	0.601	0	0.601	0	0.601	0	0.601	0
4	0.082	110	0.082	110	0.114	101	0.130	100
3	0.066	1000	0.070	111	0.082	110	0.114	101
2	0.064	1001	0.066	1000	0.070	111	0.082	110
1	0.063	1010	0.064	1001	0.066	1000	0.070	111
0	0.051	1011	0.063	1010	0.064	1001		
5	0.047	1110	0.051	1011				
6	0.023	1111						

# Example of Huffman coding



$r_k$	$p(r_k)$	code
7	0.601	0
4	0.082	110
3	0.066	1000
2	0.064	1001
1	0.063	1010
0	0.051	1011
5	0.047	1110
6	0.023	1111

$$L_{avg} = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} l(r_k)p(r_k) = 2.10$$

( Before Huffman coding  $L_{avg} = 3$ )

$$C_R = \frac{n_1}{n_2} = \frac{3}{2.10} = 1.43$$

$$R_D = 1 - \frac{1}{C_R} = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1} = \frac{3 - 2.10}{3} = 0.3$$

# Huffman Coding

- The Huffman code is completely reversible, i.e., lossless.
- The table for the translation has to be stored together with the coded image.
- The resulting code is unambiguous.
  - That is, for the previous example, the encoded string **011011101011** can only be parsed into the code words **0**, **110**, **1110**, **1011** and decoded as **7**, **4**, **5**, **0**.
- The Huffman code does not take correlation between adjacent pixels into consideration.

# Interpixel Redundancy

*Also called spatial or geometric redundancy*

- Adjacent pixels are often correlated, i.e., the value of neighboring pixels of an observed pixel can often be predicted from the value of the observed pixel.

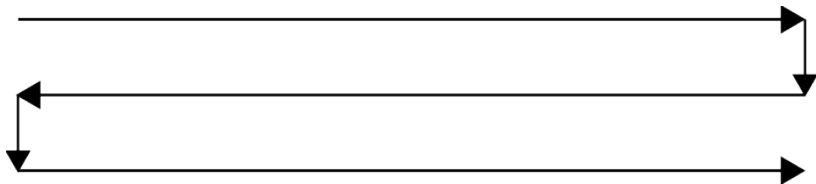


# Run-length coding

- 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”).

- E.g.,  
56 56 56 82 82 82 83 80  
56 56 56 56 56 80 80 80  
creates the run-length code  $(56,3)(82,3)(83,1)(80,4)$   
 $(56,5)$

- The code is calculated row by row.



# Difference Coding

- Keep the first pixel in a row. The rest of the pixels are stored as the difference to the previous pixel

- Example:

original	56	56	56	82	82	82	83	80	80	80	80
code $f(x_i)$	56	0	0	26	0	0	1	-3	0	0	0

- The code is calculated row by row.
- Both run-length and difference coding are reversible and can be combined with, e.g., Huffman coding.

# Example of Combined Difference and Huffman Coding

Original image

9	8	7	7	7	5	5	5
7	7	7	7	4	4	5	5
6	6	6	9	9	9	6	6
6	6	7	7	7	9	9	9
3	7	7	8	8	8	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
10	10	11	7	7	7	6	6
4	4	5	5	5	2	2	6

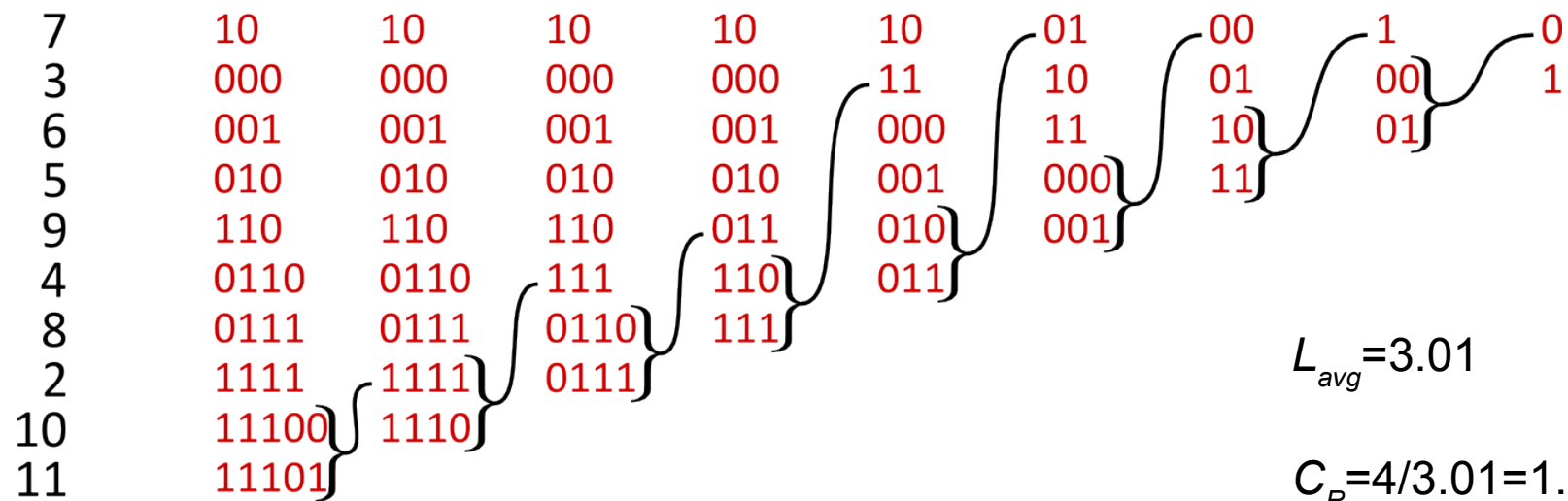
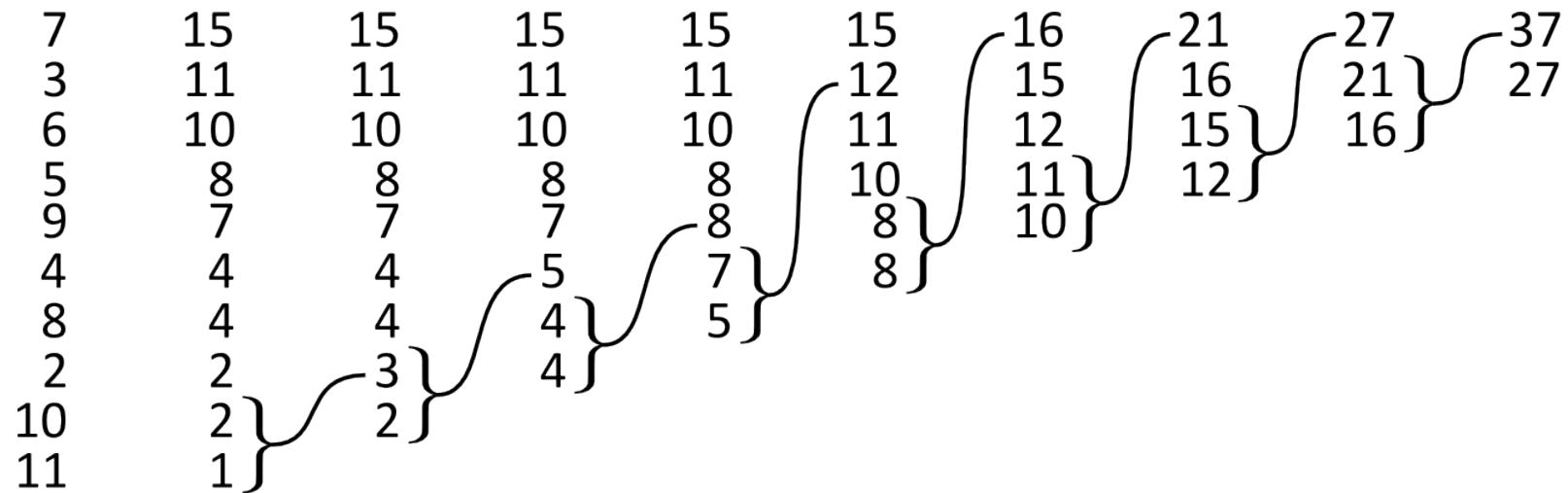
Difference image

9	-1	-1	0	0	-2	0	0
0	0	0	3	0	-1	0	0
-1	0	0	3	0	0	-3	0
0	-1	0	0	-2	0	0	3
-3	4	0	1	0	0	-5	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	1	-4	0	0	-1	0
0	-1	0	0	3	0	-4	0

Number of bits used to represent  
the gray scale values: 4

$$L_{avg} = 4$$

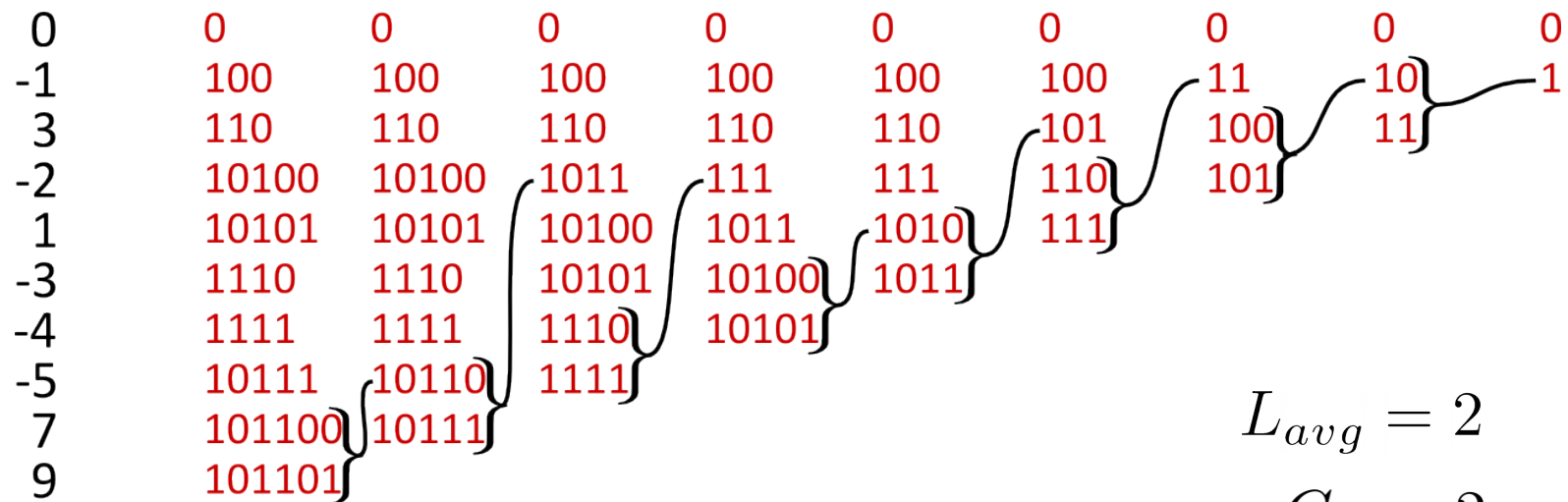
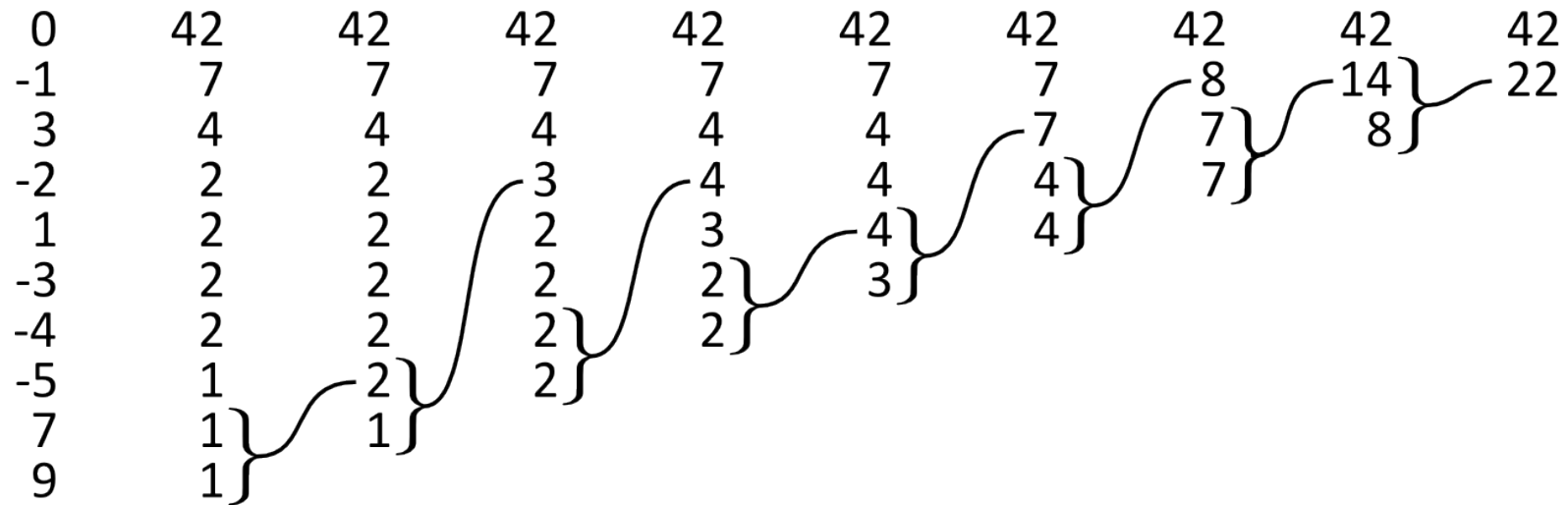
# Huffman Coding



$$L_{avg} = 3.01$$

$$C_R = 4/3.01 = 1.33$$

# Difference Coding and Huffman Coding



$$L_{avg} = 2$$

$$C_R = 2$$

# Coding and Interpixel redundancy methods

- Coding redundancy: Huffman coding
- Coding and interpixel redundancy: LZW, Lempel-Ziv-Welch
- Interpixel redundancy: run-length coding, difference coding



# Psycho-Visual Redundancy

- If the image will only be used for visual observation much of the information is usually psycho-visual redundant. It can be removed without changing the visual quality of the image. This kind of compression is usually lossy.

50 kB (uncompressed TIFF)



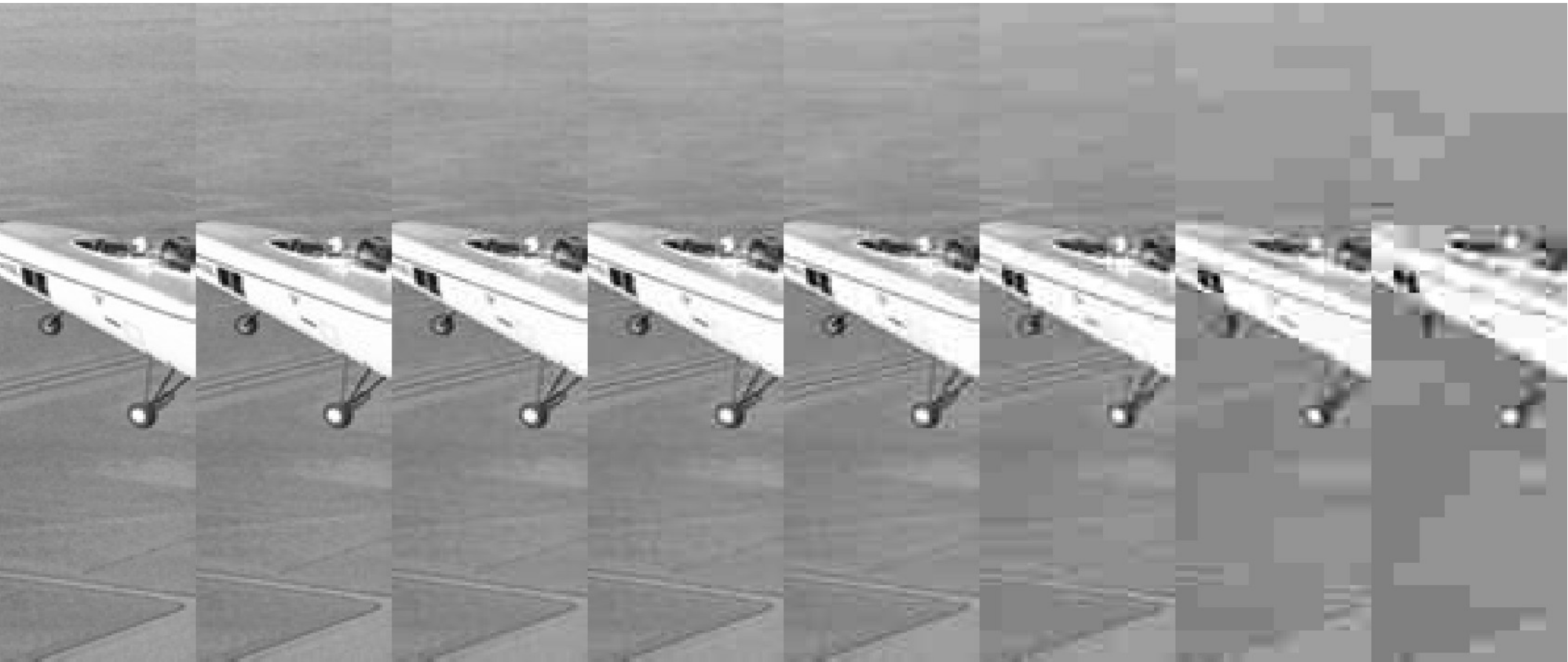
5 kB (JPEG)



# JPEG: example of transform coding

9486	3839	2086	1711	1287	822	533	380	
100 %	90 %	80 %	60 %	40 %	20 %	10 %	5 %	

File size in bytes  
JPEG quality



# File Formats with **Lossy** Compression

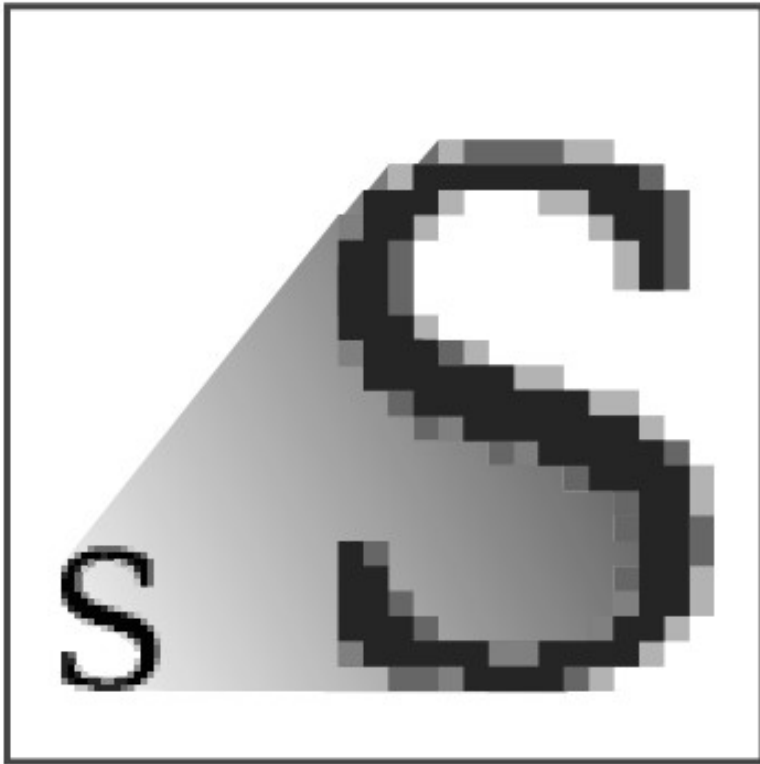
- **JPEG**, Joint **P**hotographic **E**xperts **G**roup, based on a cosine transform on 8x8 pixel blocks and Run-Length coding. Give rise to ringing and block artifacts. (.jpg .jpe .jpeg)
- **JPEG2000**, created by the Joint **P**hotographic **E**xperts **G**roup in **2000**. Based on *wavelet* transform. Give rise only to ringing artifacts and allows flexible decompression (progressive transmission, region of interest, ...) and reading. (.jp2 .jpx)

# File Formats with Lossless Compression

- **TIFF**, Tagged Image File Format, flexible format often supporting up to 16 bits/pixel in 4 channels. Can use several different compression methods, e.g., Huffman, LZW.
- **GIF**, Graphics Interchange Format. Supports 8 bits/pixel in one channel, that is only 256 colors. Uses LZW compression. Supports animations.
- **PNG**, Portable Network Graphics, supports up to 16 bits/pixel in 4 channels (RGB + transparency). Uses Deflate compression (~LZW and Huffman). Good when interpixel redundancy is present.

# Vector based file formats

- Uses predefined shapes



# Vector based file formats

- **PS, PostScript**, is a page description language developed in 1982 for sending text documents to printers.
- **EPS, Encapsulated PostScript**, like PS but can embed raster images internally using the TIFF format.
- **PDF, Portable Document Format**, widely used for documents and are supported by a wide range of platforms. Supports embedding of fonts and raster/bitmap images. Beware of the choice of coding. Both lossy and lossless compressions are supported.
- **SVG, Scalable Vector Graphics**, based on XML supports both static and dynamic content. All major web browsers supports it (Internet Explorer from version 9).



# Choosing image file format

- Image analysis
  - Lossless formats are vital. TIFF supports a wide range of different bit depths and lossless compression methods.
- Images for use on the web
  - JPEG for photos (JPEG2000), PNG for illustrations. GIF for small animations. Vector format: SVG, nowadays supported by web browsers.
- Line art, illustrations, logotypes, etc.
  - Lossless formats such as PNG etc. (or a vector format)

# Lossy, lossless, and vector graphics

JPEG



WIKIMEDIA  
FOUNDATION



PNG



WIKIMEDIA  
FOUNDATION



SVG



WIKIMEDIA  
FOUNDATION



# Summary

## Color

- Color spaces
- Multispectral images
- Pseudocoloring
- Color image processing

## Coding/Compression

- Information and Data
- Redundancy
- Coding
- Compression
- File formats