

Corso di Biblioteche Digitali

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- "Ricevimento" at the end of the lessons or by appointment
- Final assessment
	- 70% oral examination
	- 30% project (development of a small digital library))
- Reference material:
	- Ian Witten, David Bainbridge, David Nichols, How to build a Digital Library, Morgan Kaufmann, 2010, ISBN 978-0-12-374857-7 (Second edition)
	- Material provided by the teacher
- **http://cloudone.isti.cnr.it/casarosa/BDG/**

- Computer Fundamentals and Networking
- A conceptual model for Digital Libraries
- Bibliographic records and metadata
- **Information Retrieval and Search Engines**
- Knowledge representation
- Digital Libraries and the Web
- Hands-on laboratory: the Greenstone system

Refresher on Computer Fundamentals and **Networking**

- **History of computers**
- Architecture of a computer
- Computer networks and the Internet
- Data representation within a computer

lossless compression: the uncompressed information is identical (bit by bit) to the original information

lossy compression: the uncompressed information contains less "information" than the original information

Lossless data compression

- The idea of text compression, or more generally data compression, is that when the data is not needed for processing (e.g. when in transit over a network or when stored on secondary storage), then it can be represented in a more compact form (with less bits), provided that it can be brought back to the original format when needed, i.e. we want to make a "lossless compression".
- Given a string of symbols of a given alphabet (e.g. a string of characters out of the 26 letters of the English alphabet, or a string of numbers out of the 10 digits), which is represented in the computer by N bits, the compression process takes this string and represents it in a different way so that after compression the string takes n bits, with n<N
- Compression is not usually noticed (which means that it is well done) but it is used in a number of applications, such as transmission of fax, downloading of web pages, transmission of data over a network, storage of data onto secondary storage, zip files, tar files, etc.

- There are two main classes of lossless data compression methods
	- Symbol-wise encoding
	- Dictionary encoding
- Symbolwise encoding (entropy encoding)
	- The basic idea is that the most frequent symbols can be coded with less bits (short codewords) than the less frequent symbols (long codewords)
	- Symbol coders work by taking one symbol at the time from the input string, and coding it with a codeword whose length depends on the frequency (probability) of the symbol in the given alphabet
	- One of the most common symbol encoders is the Huffman coding
- Dictionary coding
	- The basic idea is to replace a sequence of symbols in the input string with an "index" in a dictionary (list) of "phrases", i.e. substrings of the input string
	- ZIP (Lempel-Ziv-Welch)

"Symbolwise" Morse code (about 1840)

- 1. A dash is equal to three dots.
- 2. The space between parts of the same letter is equal to one dot.
- 3. The space between two letters is equal to three dots.
- 4. The space between two words is equal to seven dots.

Α В C D Е F G Η I

J К

L М N O Ρ Q \mathbb{R} S т U v W X Υ z

Frequency distribution of the English letters

Huffman encoder

Alphabet with seven symbol and their probabilities (frequency)

Huffman encoding and decoding

fbgced 11000011110011001

To encode, search the input symbol among the leafs; climb the tree up to the root; the sequence of bits encountered, in reverse order, is the code word.

To decode, take one bit at a time from the string to be decoded; go down the tree according to the value of the bit; when a leaf is reached, that is the value of the symbol.

The probability distribution of the symbols in the alphabet is given; Take the two lowest probabilities and create a new node, with a value equal to the sum of the probabilities

Building the Huffman tree (2)

Building the Huffman tree (3)

alphabet is given; Take the two lowest probablities and create a new node, with a value equal to the sum of the probabilites

Building the Huffman tree (4)

The probability distribution of the symbols in the alphabet is given; Take the two lowest probablities and create a new node, with a value equal to the sum of the probabilites

Building the Huffman tree (5)

The probability distribution of the symbols in the alphabet is given; Take the two lowest probablities and create a new node, with a value equal to the sum of the probabilites

Building the Huffman tree (6)

The probability distribution of the symbols in the alphabet is given; Take the two lowest probablities and create a new node, with a value equal to the sum of the probabilites

Probability distribution in Huffman coding

The last question is: how do we know (build) the probability distribution ?

- Pre-defined, usually based on the context
	- The language (e.g. English, Italian, etc)
	- The type of application (e.g accounting)
	- Main disadvantage: the coder may not perform well in a different context;
- Built ad hoc for each file, with a preliminary scan of the text to be encoded, and a counting the frquency of the symbols of the alphabet
	- Main disadvantages: more processing; need to send the Huffman tree to the decoder

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Dictionary coding

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- ZIP (Lempel-Ziv-Welch)

- The encoder looks in the current dictionary for an entry (a string) matching the initial symbols of the string to be coded
- When found, the codeword for the whole group of symbols is the phrase number in the dictionary (the index)
- A new phrase is added to the dictionary, by concatenating the entry just found with the next input symbol
- \bullet Initially, the codewords may be longer than the input symbols (due to few phrases in the dictionary), but as the coding proceeds (new phrases are added to the dictionary), the codewords are representing longer and longer sequences of symbols
- What is needed is an "initial dictionary"
- The dictionary is initialized with all the symbols of the "alphabet"

Starting dictionary (the alphabet) The ASCII table

 $phrase$ 0 = NUL phrase 1 = SOH phrase $2 = STX$ phrase $3 = ETX$ phrase $4 = EOT$ phrase $5 = ENQ$ phrase $6 = ACK$ phrase $7 = BEL$ phrase $8 = BS$ phrase $9 = HT$ phrase $10 = LF$ phrase $11 = VT$ phrase $12 = FF$ phrase $13 = CR$ **.**

```
. . . . . .
     phrase 97= a
     phrase 98 = bphrase 99 = cphrase 100 = dphrase 101 = ephrase 102 = f. . . . . .
     phrase 123 = \{phrase 124 =|
     phrase 125 = \}phrase 126 = -phrase 127 = DEL
                 a b a ab ab ba aba abaa
                         new phrases added as the 
                         string is being encoded
 input string
output string
```


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. phrase $128 = ab$ phrase 129 = ba phrase $130 = aa$

new phrases added as the string is being encoded

input string output string

ab ab ba aba abaa 97 98 97 128

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- **.** phrase $128 = ab$ phrase 129 = ba phrase $130 = aa$ phrase $131 = aba$
- phrase $132 = abb$

new phrases added as the string is being encoded

input string output string

ba aba abaa 97 98 97 128 128 129

phrase $0 = NULL$ phrase 1 = SOH phrase $2 = STX$ phrase $3 = ETX$ phrase $4 = EOT$ phrase $5 = ENQ$ phrase $6 = ACK$ phrase $7 = BEL$ phrase $8 = BS$ phrase $9 = HT$ phrase 10 = LF phrase $11 = VT$ phrase $12 = FF$ phrase $13 = CR$ **.**

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new phrases added as the string is being encoded

Lempel – Ziv – Welch algorithm

- A number of compressors are available, and many of them are based on the compressors just seen, or their variations
	- compress
	- deflate
	- gzip
	- ...
- Variation mainly introduced to improve the efficiency of coding and decoding (trade-offs between speed and compression rate) and memory occupation (and to overcome problems with patents)
- Common testbeds to compare them

Table 2.7 The Canterbury corpus of text used to evaluate compression methods.

Comparison of compression methods

Comparison of compression methods (bits per char)

lossless compression: the uncompressed information is identical (bit by bit) to the original information

lossy compression: the uncompressed information contains less "information" than the original information

JPEG

- For grayscale and color images, lossless compression still results in "too many bits"
- Lossy compression methods take advantage from the fact that the human eye is less sensitive to small greyscale or color variation in an image
- JPEG Joint Photographic Experts Group and Joint Binary Image Group, part of CCITT and ISO
- JPEG can compress down to about one bit per pixel (starting with 8- 48 bits per pixel) still having excellent image quality
	- Not very good for fax-like images
	- Not very good for sharp edges and sharp changes in color
- The encoding and decoding process is done on an 8x8 block of pixels (separately for each color component)

JPEG encoding and decoding

Discrete Cosine Transform

pixel values **DCT** coefficients

Discrete Cosine Transform

DCT coefficients normalized at |225|

JPEG quantization matrix

The "lossy step"

Quantization and coding

DCT coefficients after quantization Q50 The DCT coefficients have been divided by the quantization matrix and then rounded to nearest integer

JPEG dequantization

DCT coefficients after quantization Q50

In between there is the Huffman coding and decoding

DCT coefficients dequantized

Inverse DCT

Inverse of Discrete Cosine Transform

Comparison with original values

154 123 123 123 123 123 123 136 136 154 154 154 136 192 180 110 198 154 154 180 154 254 -123 123 239 180 136 180 180 166 123 - 123 180 154 136 167 166 149 136 -136 154 180 123 128 136 136 198 -154 123 105 110 149 136 136 180 166 123 123 110 136 123 136 154 136

pixel values after Inverse Cosine Transform

original pixel values

original pixel values and the control of the DCT coefficients

DCT coefficients after quantization

linearization and compression (Huffman coding)

JPEG – Final comments

- Arithmetic coding instead of Huffman coding (10% improvement in compression)
- JPEG-2000 Use of wavelets instead of DCT (20% improvement in compression, better quality for images with sharp edges)
- JPEG-LS lossless compression
	- For each pixel, what is coded is the difference between the actual pixel value and a prediction of pixel value based on the pixel context
- Compression rates
	- 0.25–0.5 bit/pixel: moderate to good quality, sufficient for some applications
	- 0.5–0.75 bit/pixel: good to very good quality, sufficient for many applications
	- 0.75–1.5 bit/pixel: excellent quality, sufficient for most applications
	- 1.5–2 bits/pixel: usually indistinguishable from the original, sufficient for the most demanding applications