

# Supplementary Material for "LC-FDNet: Learned Lossless Image Compression with Frequency Decomposition Network"

Hochang Rhee<sup>1</sup>, Yeong Il Jang<sup>1</sup>, Seyun Kim<sup>2</sup>, Nam Ik Cho<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of ECE, INMC, Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea

<sup>2</sup>Gauss Labs Inc.

hochang, jyicu@ispl.snu.ac.kr, seyun.kim@gausslabs.ai, nicho@snu.ac.kr

## 1. Experiments on Low-Resolution Dataset

Here, we compare our method with other compression algorithms on low-resolution dataset in Table 6. We validate on three benchmark dataset, ImageNet32 [3], ImageNet64 [3] and CIFAR10 [6]. We do not retrain our network on the low-resolution dataset and rather use the network trained on Flickr2K.

Compared to the non-learning methods, our method shows superior performance for all three datasets, even though our network is trained on high-resolution dataset. For the learning-based methods, it can be observed that PixelCNN [8] achieves the best performance on all three datasets, followed by MS-PixelCNN [10]. However, as can be seen in Table 7, these methods require impractical inference time prohibiting them from practical use. In addition, although Zhang *et al.* [13] and IDF [4] show competitive performance to ours, they require at least 1.7 times more computation time.

## 2. Network Architectures

In this Section, we present the architecture detail of LFC and HFC in Fig. 6.

**LFC:** Given input  $x_{in}$ , the LFC generates four outputs: 1) subimage prediction  $\hat{y}_L$ , 2) error variance map  $\sigma_y$ , 3) error variance threshold  $\tau_y$ , and 4) probability distribution  $p_L$ . Note that the dimension of  $x_{in}$  differs depending on the subimage. We initially pass the input through one ConvBlock and three ResBlocks and generate an intermediate feature.

For the prediction of a subimage, we pass the intermediate feature through one convolutional layer. We adopt a residual scheme for the subimage prediction. That is, instead of directly estimating the pixel value of the subimage  $y$ , the network estimates  $x_{L,res}$ , which is the difference between  $y$  and a reference image  $x_{ref}$  (set as  $x_{c,a}$ ). For instance, in the case of compressing  $y = x_{Y,d}$ , the network sets  $x_{Y,a}$  as offset and estimates the residual between  $x_{Y,a}$  and  $x_{Y,d}$ . The final output  $\hat{y}_L$  is derived as  $x_{L,res} + x_{Y,a}$ .

Table 6. Comparison of our method with other non-learning and learning-based codecs on low-resolution benchmark dataset. We measure the performances in bits per pixel (bpp). Best performance is highlighted in bold.

Method	ImageNet32	ImageNet64	CIFAR10
PNG [2]	19.17	17.22	17.67
JPEG2000 [9]	19.05	13.52	15.60
WebP [12]	15.84	13.92	15.42
LCIC [5]	15.27	14.18	15.90
FLIF [11]	13.56	13.62	12.57
JPEG-XL [1]	19.17	16.18	17.67
PixelCNN [8]	<b>11.49</b>	<b>10.71</b>	<b>9.42</b>
MS-PixelCNN [10]	11.85	11.10	-
Zhang <i>et al.</i> [13]	-	11.89	10.45
IDF [4]	12.54	11.70	10.02
L3C [7]	14.28	13.26	-
Ours	13.19	12.85	11.32

Table 7. Encoding time in seconds required for 512×512 images.

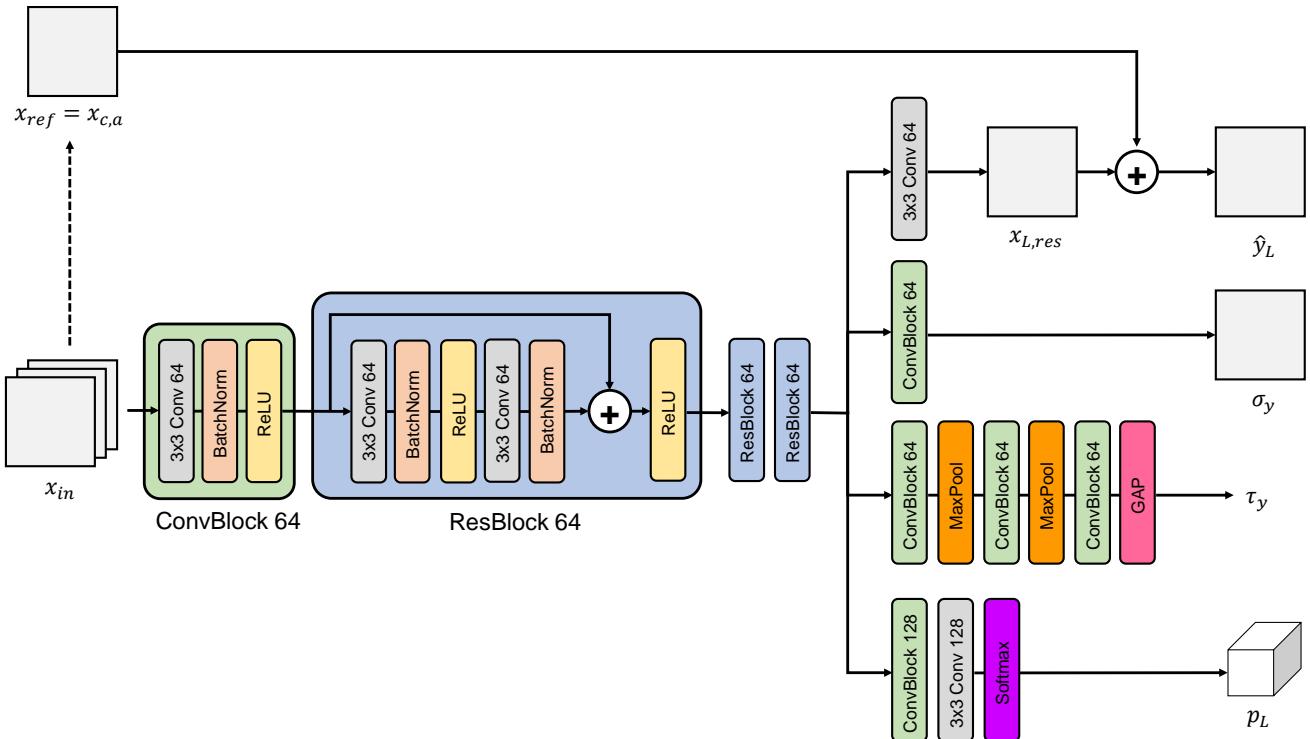
PixelCNN	MS-PixelCNN	Zhang <i>et al.</i>	IDF	L3C	Ours
30600	300	1.47	20.40	0.37	0.84

In other words, the network estimates the residual in respect to  $x_{ref}$ . This leads to stable training and performance enhancement.

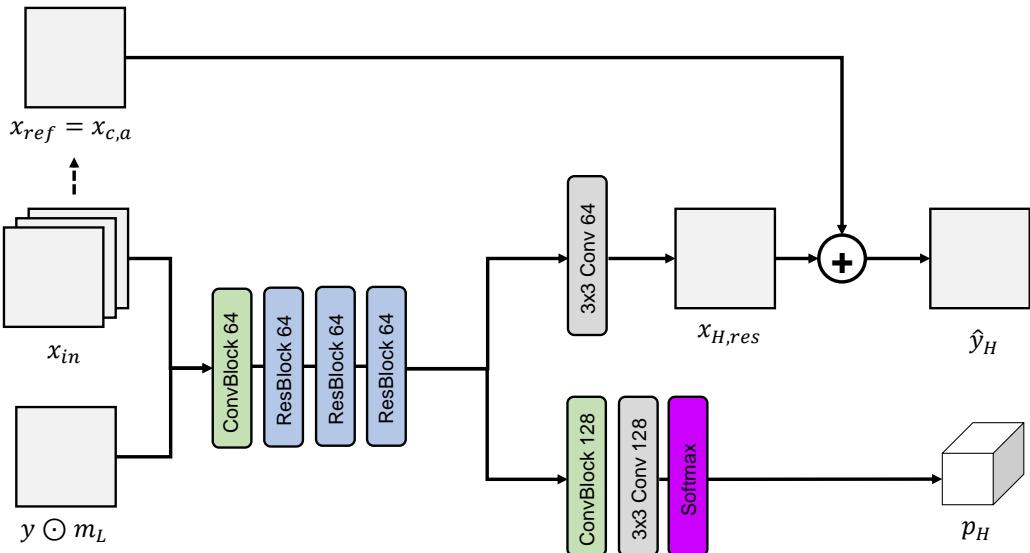
To obtain the error variance map  $\sigma_y$ , we pass the intermediate feature through one ConvBlock. For the error variance threshold  $\tau_y$ , the intermediate feature goes through a sequence of ConvBlock and MaxPooling. At the end, global average pooling (GAP) is applied to derive  $\tau_y$ , which is a scalar value.

**HFC:** The architecture of the HFC is similar to the LFC. The difference is that the low-frequency components are given as additional input, and the HFC generates only two outputs: 1) subimage prediction  $\hat{y}_H$  and 2) probability distribution  $p_H$ . Other factors are the same as the LFC.

Finally, the probability distribution  $p_L$  is derived by



### (a) Low Frequency Compressor Network Architecture



### (b) High Frequency Compressor Network Architecture

Figure 6. Architecture details of LFC and HFC.

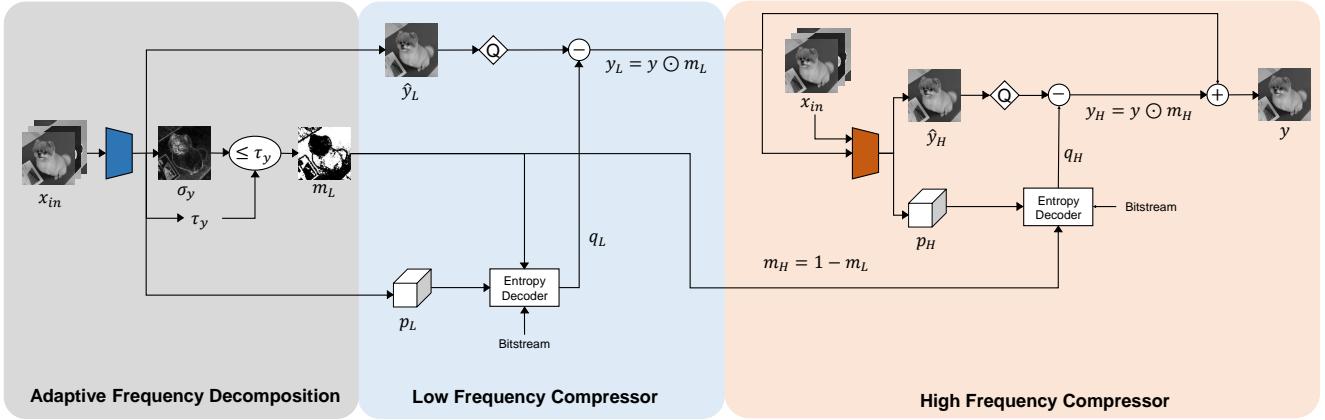


Figure 7. Illustration of the decoding procedure.

passing the intermediate feature through one ConvBlock, one convolutional layer, and a softmax operation at the end. Note that whereas other layers consist of 64 hidden units, we double the number of hidden units for obtaining  $p_L$ .

### 3. Decoding Procedure

In Fig. 7, we explain the procedure of decoding a bitstream into a subimage. When encoding a subimage  $y$ , the network compresses the subimage into bitstreams with the inputs  $x_{in}$  and  $y$ . For the decoding, the inputs are  $x_{in}$  and bitstreams. We first explain the decoding of the low-frequency components in AFD and LFC parts.

Same as in the encoding procedure, four outputs are generated from  $x_{in}$ : 1) subimage prediction  $\hat{y}_L$ , 2) error variance map  $\sigma_y$ , 3) error variance threshold  $\tau_y$ , and 4) probability distribution  $p_L$ . ADF is also equivalent as in the encoding procedure, where the low-frequency mask  $m_L$  is obtained using Eq. 2. Afterward, the entropy decoder receives 3 inputs  $p_L$ ,  $m_L$ , and bitstream, and then generates  $q_L \in \mathcal{R}^{\frac{H}{2} \times \frac{W}{2} \times 1}$ . From the obtained  $q_L$ , we reconstruct  $y_L$ , the low-frequency component of the subimage  $y$ . Specifically,  $y_L = \text{round}(\hat{y}_L) - q_L$ , which is the inverse of the encoding procedure  $q_L = \text{round}(\hat{y}_L - y_L)$ .

Decoding of high-frequency components in the HFC is similar to the LFC. Precisely,  $x_{in}$  and  $y_L = y \odot m_L$  are given as input to produce  $\hat{y}_H$  and  $p_H$ . Again, the entropy decoder receives three inputs  $p_H$ ,  $m_H$ , and bitstream, and generates  $q_H$ . Then, the high-frequency components of the subimage  $y_H$  is reconstructed from  $y_H = \text{round}(\hat{y}_H - q_H)$ . Finally, we reconstruct the subimage  $y$  by the addition of  $y_L$  and  $y_H$ .

### 4. Subimage Order Analysis

In this section, we show how the performance differs depending on the order of subimage compression. Specifi-

Table 8. Comparison of compression performance with different order of subimage compression.

Method	CLIC.m	CLIC.p	DIV2K
$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$	4.72 <small>+1.3%</small>	5.36 <small>+1.5%</small>	5.59 <small>+1.8%</small>
$a \rightarrow d \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$	4.66	5.28	5.49

Table 9. Compression result of each subimage for the DIV2K dataset when compressed in the order of  $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$ .

bpp	$a$	$b$	$c$	$d$
$Y$	-	1.02	0.81	0.77
$U$	-	0.61	0.45	0.45
$V$	-	0.60	0.45	0.43
Total	2.68	2.23	1.71	1.65

cally, we compare the order of  $a \rightarrow d \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$  (ours) against  $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$  (MS-PixelCNN [10]) in Table 8. We observe that our design of subimage order achieves at most 1.8% performance gain. In Table 9, we report the compression result for each subimage when compressed in the order of  $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$ . Compared to Table 2, it can be observed that whereas  $d$  in  $a \rightarrow d \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$  requires 2.13 bpp,  $b$  in  $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$  requires 2.23 bpp. From this, we can conclude that given  $a$ , the estimation of  $d$  is easier than  $b$ .

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