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Image Compression Using Chain Coding for Electronic Shelf Labels (ESL) Systems

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ABSTRACT One of the most important and recurring tasks in managing a store is to provide accurate, up-to-date price information to customers on the shelves. Manual updating of price tags has been a timeconsuming, error-prone task with high labor costs. An Electronic shelf labels (ESL) system is becoming an attractive alternative for this task because of the dynamic-price-updating and customer's productevaluation-display features. A common ESL system configuration in a retail store includes thousands of battery-powered ESL tags that are mostly connected wirelessly in a dense indoor environment. Raising the success ratio of wireless communication is essential for the system's viability due to its limited battery life. Most of the ESL traffic is the image data of goods that appear on the tags, and reducing the amount of the data is one of the most effective ways to enhance communication performance and reduce retransmission. This paper proposes an ESL image compression mechanism based on chain coding that utilizes ESL images' characteristics. The performance results show that the proposed mechanism could compress the ESL images smaller and decompress faster.

INDEX TERMS Electronic shelf label, chain code, image compression.

I. INTRODUCTION

The e-commerce market has grown rapidly due to improved Internet technology. Many online shopping sites have emerged, and product evaluation services such as reviews and star ratings are found on most of them. From the evaluation services, customers get much clearer information about the product they are considering buying, and it might lead to lower return rates. Also, the manufacturer could get feedback on the product and get an opportunity to improve it [2]. Providing evaluation data of products to customers at offline stores has been possible with Electronic Shelf Labels (ESL) systems.

ESL system could enhance the marketing competitiveness of the stores. It reduces price marking errors and the management-labor costs, especially for changing the price of goods on the way. The ability to change prices in real-time

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could allow retailers to adopt price strategies, such as changing prices based on the algorithms that consider competitor prices, supply and demand, and other external factors in the market. Because of these features, interests in ESL have been gradually increased around the world [3], [11].

A typical ESL system configuration in a retail store includes thousands of battery-powered ESL tags that are mostly connected wirelessly in a dense indoor environment. Raising the success ratio of wireless communication is essential for the system's viability due to its limited battery life [1]. Most of the ESL traffic is the image data of goods that appear on the tags, and reducing the amount of the data is one of the most effective ways to enhance communication performance and reduce retransmission. However, there are few studies on how to compress images used in ESL systems. The images are often compressed with typical compression algorithms such as Run-Length Encoding and deflate in the fields.

In this paper, we propose a new compression mechanism for compressing ESL images using chain coding. The

mechanism is called ECO; ESL Image Compression. It is specialized in compressing images consisting of simple figures and texts. The performance results show that our proposed compression algorithm could enhance the compression ratio and the decompression time than other algorithms. Increasing the compression ratio contributes to the reduction of traffic in wireless networks. A shorter decompression time means fewer computational loads on ESL devices, thereby prolonging ESL battery life.

The remainder of this paper consists as follows: We first describe the background knowledge required for the proposed mechanism in Section [III.](#page-1-0) Next, describe the ECO image compression and decompression process in detail in Section [IV.](#page-2-0) In Section [V,](#page-8-0) we measure the performance of ECO and other compression algorithms for ESL images. Then, we present the evaluation results. Finally, we conclude the paper in Section [VI.](#page-14-0)

II. RELATED WORKS

Lossless image compression algorithms can be classified as follows [5], [7]:

Run-Length Encoding (RLE) is an elementary form of lossless data compression that runs on sequences having the same value occurring many consecutive times, and it encodes the sequence to store only a single data value and its count. RLE can effectively compress data containing consecutive symbols, but results can be larger than the original data. An example of generalized RLE schemes is PackBits.

Arithmetic coding is a form of entropy encoding used in lossless data compression, in which the frequently seen symbols are encoded with fewer bits than lesser-seen symbols. JBIG2 is a monochrome image compression algorithm developed by JBIG(Joint Bi-level Image Experts Group) [24], and it is based on a form of arithmetic coding called the MQ coder, which is an adaptive binary arithmetic coder characterized by a multiplication-free approximation and a renormalization-driven update of the probability estimator [7]. JBIG2 supports both lossy and lossless compression modes, and the lossless mode can generally compress $3 - 5$ times more than G4 [26].

Huffman coding [6] is a lossless data compression algorithm. In this algorithm, a variable-length code is assigned to input different characters. The code length is related to how frequently characters are used. The most frequent character matches the shortest code. The less frequent the character, the longer the code. Deflate is a lossless data compression algorithm that uses the LZSS [23] algorithm and Huffman coding. It is designed by Phil Katz and specified in RFC1951 [22]. The data format compressed by this algorithm consists of a series of blocks, which correspond to a series of blocks of input data. Each block is compressed using the LZSS algorithm and Huffman coding. CCITT Group 3 (G3) [25] 2-Dimensional (2D) and Group 4 (G4) [26] are also based on the Huffman coding. These are compression algorithms developed by CCITT (Consultative Committee on International Telegraphy and Telephony), a standard

FIGURE 1. The structure of the ESL system network.

organization that has developed protocols for transmitting monochrome images to telephone lines and data networks. The encoding and decoding of G3 algorithms are fast and maintains a good compression ratio for various document data. Besides, encoded data includes data that G3 decoder can detect and correct errors. The G4 compresses monochrome images more efficiently. Data compressed into G4 is about half the size of data compressed into one-dimensional G3. The G4 is quite challenging to implement efficiently, but it encodes at least as fast as the G3, sometimes decoding faster than the G3. The G4 does not contain the synchronization code used to detect errors. These algorithms are non-adaptive and do not adjust the encoding algorithm to encode each bitmap with optimum efficiency.

Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW) is a widely known lossless data compression algorithm created by Abraham Lempel, Jacob Ziv, and Terry Welch [21]. The algorithm was published in 1984 as an improved version of the LZ78 algorithm published by Lempel and Ziv in 1978, and it is simple to implement and can achieve very high throughput when implemented with hardware. The main operating principle is to register a recurring bit sequence in the dictionary and replace the repeated pattern with the dictionary's index code. The generated dictionary does not need to be sent to the decoder, and it is reconstructed during the decoding process.

III. BACKGROUND

In the background section, we firstly describe the overall ESL system architecture on which the proposed algorithm targets. Then, we describe the three image processing schemes employed in the proposed algorithm in the next section.

A. ESL SYSTEM

The ESL system consists of servers, gateways and tags as shown in [Figure 1](#page-1-1) [10]– [12]. The server manages all ESL system information, such as the product information displayed on each tag and a list of tags that communicate with each gateway. The gateway forms the wireless network and manages the tags that have joined the network. It also acts as an intermediary between the server and tags, supporting

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FIGURE 2. Example of ESL tags.

FIGURE 3. A example of MTFT.

communication between them. The tag receives the image from the gateway and displays it on the screen. It works in synchronization with the gateway. When the tag has no more work to do, it goes into sleep mode to minimize power consumption.

The image displayed on the tag is designed to communicate the product information to customers effectively. In general, the image consists of a small number of colors. Usually, two colors (black, white) or three colors (black, white, red, or yellow) are used as shown in [Figure 2,](#page-2-1) and most areas of the image are text. Product information such as product name, price, and reviews of customers is displayed clearly. Different text colors or background colors might emphasize the information. The greater the number of colors that an e-paper module can express, the higher its price and power consumption.

B. MOVE-TO-FRONT TRANSFORM

Move-to-front Transform (MTFT) is a method to reduce the entropy of data and compress it efficiently [14], [15]. This algorithm replaces the input data with the index, and the recently used symbol is moved to the beginning of the stack. For example, if "ABBBCBBBBBB" is entered in the MTFT, it is processed as shown in [Figure 3,](#page-2-2) resulting in conversion to ''01011021000''. Meanwhile, MTFT is used in conjunction with Burrows-Wheller Transform (BWT) to reduce the entropy more efficiently [17], [18].

FIGURE 4. Diagram showing how to convert 16,729 from decimal to base-128 representation.

C. CHAIN CODING

Chain coding encodes the direction of connection between pixels that form the boundary of an image object. Encoded chain code is typically compressed using algorithms such as RLE or Huffman Coding. Freeman's 8-directive chain code (FCCE), which first appeared, represents the eight adjacent directions of the pixels in each symbol [16]. Since the higher the number of symbols, the greater the number of bits required to encode each symbol, then the chain code algorithms with fewer symbols appear. As one of them, Vertex Chain Code (VCC) [19], which uses three symbols, encodes the number of adjacent boundary pixels at the vertex. In another algorithm, Three OrThogonal symbol chain code (3OT) [20] determines the symbol according to the direction of the previous encoding direction. The ECO uses three symbols, and details are covered in Section [IV-B2.](#page-4-0)

D. VARIABLE-LENGTH INTEGER ENCODING

Variable-length integers encoding (VarInt) is an algorithm to compress fixed-length integers into variable-length integers to save space. Base-128 is a kind of these algorithms. [Figure 4](#page-2-3) shows how to convert 16,729 from decimal to base-128 representation.

IV. PROPOSED MECHANISM

The main target of the mechanism is the images used in ESL system. The images consist of text, barcodes, and simple figures. Text usually accounts for a large portion of the images. Also, there are two or three colors used in the images.

In this section, the data structure, the compression, and decompression of ECO are described in detail, and [Figure 5](#page-3-0) is used to help explain these processes.

A. DATA STRUCTURE

The compressed file format of ECO is shown in [Figure 6.](#page-3-1) α is the length of data bits in the variable-length integer encoding described in Section [III-D.](#page-2-4) It consists of 2 bits and represents a value in the range of 1 to 4, as shown in [Table 1.](#page-3-2) The width and height of the image are expressed in VarInt format. There are three types of chain code table items, and depending on

FIGURE 5. A image for testing the proposed mechanism (26 \times 24px).

FIGURE 7. Variable-length Integer structure.

TABLE 1. Bit representation of α.

Bit Representation				
w				
DТ				
$\left($				

TABLE 2. Bit representation of type code.

which type is the most, *Type Code* is represented in 1 or 2 bits, as shown in [Table 2.](#page-3-3) The description of the types is covered in Section [IV-B3.](#page-4-1)

Color palette is the color range of an image. White is the default color, and it is not counted in the size of the color

TABLE 3. Color palettes for image type.

TABLE 4. Examples of VarInt encoding.

palette. For example, the color palette size in [Figure 5](#page-3-0) is 2. The color palettes of the images used in this paper are shown in [Table 3.](#page-3-4) The color palette size of an image is expressed in VarInt format.

Table Sizes is a VarInt array that stores the number of chain code table items by color. Because the number of table items can be 0, the value plus one is stored.

Many fields in [Figure 6](#page-3-1) are encoded in the VarInt format. The form of VarInt used in this paper consists of a series of chunks comprising a sign bit and data bits, as shown in [Figure 7.](#page-3-5) If not the last chunk, its sign bit is 0; otherwise, it is 1. The α -length data bit can represent an integer of 2^α , and the range of integers a single chunk can express is [Equation 1.](#page-3-6) The integer used in ECO is always greater than 0, the minimum value of I_i is 1. An integer encoded in VarInt can be decoded using [Equation 2.](#page-3-6) [Table 4](#page-3-7) is an example of a VarInt representation of decimal values.

$$
1 \le I_i \le 2^{\alpha} \quad (0 \le i < n) \tag{1}
$$

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} I_i \cdot 2^{\alpha i} \tag{2}
$$

B. COMPRESSION

The compression process is carried out in four stages, as shown in [Figure 8.](#page-4-2) The number of outputs for each stage is *N*, the size of an image's color palette.

1) COLOR SEPARATION AND BINARY MOVE-TO-FRONT TRANSFORM

In this stage, an image is separated into several mono-color images - one image for each color portion of the image. Subsequently, these mono-color images are converted into binary sequences: each pixel in the image changes to 0 if

FIGURE 8. 4 stages of compression process.

it is white or 1 if it is not. Then, Binary MTFT is applied to the sequences: the MTFT used in this paper is named binary MTFT because it deals only with the sequences consisting of two symbols. [Figure 9](#page-4-3) illustrates the process of change in [Figure 5](#page-3-0) at this stage. A pseudo algorithm of the process is shown in [algorithm 1.](#page-4-4) The algorithm performs color separation and binary MTFT in one cycle. The two bitstreams in [Figure 10](#page-4-5) result from performing the algorithm in [Figure 5.](#page-3-0)

FIGURE 11. Downward directions (Symbol: 0, 1, 2).

2) DOWNWARD DIRECTION CHAIN CODE (DCC)

The bitstreams of the previous stage are encoded using a chain code in this stage. The chain code encodes only three directions, as shown in [Figure 11.](#page-4-6) Because the direction of progress of the encoding is from top-left to bottom-right of an image, only the downward directions are needed for the chain code. After running binary MTFT, the probability of encoding to the pixel's left and right directions is very low. A pseudo algorithm of the encoding process is shown in [algorithm 2.](#page-5-0) [Table 5](#page-5-1) is the chain code table that results from applying the algorithm to the previous stage results.

3) TRANSFORMATION OF CHAIN CODE TABLES

This section covers the preparatory stage for converting the chain code tables of the previous stage into bitstreams.

Initially, each item on the tables is classified according to [Table 6.](#page-5-2) For example, The codes of the 2nd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 13th and 15th items in *CTbk* are empty. Thus, the type of these items is *A*. Similarly, the type of the 2nd and 3rd in *CTrd* is also *A*. The code of the 12th item of CT_{bk} is the same as that of the 11th. So, the type of it is *B*. The type of the others is *C*.

Secondly, the Δi of each item in the chain code tables is calculated using [Equation 3.](#page-4-7) This equation ensures that Δi is always an integer greater than zero.

$$
\Delta i_n = \begin{cases} i_n + 1, & \text{if } n = 1\\ i_n - i_{n-1}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{3}
$$

TABLE 5. Chain code tables of two bitstreams (CT_{bk}, CT_{rd}) .

Lastly, The codes of the *C* type items are combined into one. For example, the concatenated chain codes (*CCbk* , *CCrd*) obtained from *CTbk* and *CTrd* are as follows:

$CC_{bk} = 1010020000010120210100202220110002201$ 00102002000 *CCrd* = 2002000001022000000011

4) BITSTREAM ENCODING AND FILE FORMATTING

This section covers the final stage of the compression process. The transformed chain code tables and the concatenated chain codes are encoded as bitstreams, and the results are formatted as shown as [Figure 6.](#page-3-1) In the example of this stage, the α is 1.

TABLE 6. Item types.

TABLE 7. Transformed chain code tables (TT_{bk}, TT_{rd}) .

a: ENCODING TRANSFORMED CHAIN CODE TABLES AS BITSTREAMS

Each item in the transformed chain code tables is encoded as bitstreams, in order of *Type*, Δi , Δn , or *Length*. Before

TABLE 8. Chain code bit transformation table.

Current Prev				
		0	$\overline{}$	
$\mathfrak n$	$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$	
Other		110		

encoding *Type*, it is necessary to identify which type of item has the most frequent. The most frequent type is encoded as 0. The following type in alphabetical order is encoded as 10, and the other is encoded as 11. Subsequently, Δi , Δn and *Length* are encoded as VarInt. For example, The most frequent type of item on [Table 7](#page-5-3) is *C*, so this type is encoded as 0, *A* type is encoded as 10, and *B* type is encoded as 11. As a consequence, the table is encoded as follows:

$E(TT_{bk}) = 0010101011110100111001011011100001$ 00101001010110100000011001101011100001 011100011100000011100011000011000110 00001000100101011111010000101010001 1000101011011100100000111 $E(TT_{rd}) = 00000000100011101001110001010$

01010110001010111000111

b: ENCODING CONCATENATED CHAIN CODES TO BITSTREAMS

The concatenated chain codes are encoded as bitstreams using [Table 8.](#page-6-0) The encoding result of the current symbol depends on the previous symbol. The series of symbol 0 is abbreviated to symbol *R* if its length is longer than *Rmin*. *Rmin* can be obtained as [Equation 4.](#page-6-1)

$$
R_{min} = \alpha + 3 \tag{4}
$$

The α used in the example is 1, so R_{min} is 4. Therefore, the series of symbol 0 in the length of more than four is abbreviated. Meanwhile, behind the symbol *R* comes the VarInt encoded difference between the length of the symbol 0 series and the R_{min} . There is only one series in CC_{bk} that is over four in length, and its length is five. That is consequently encoded in 1010. CC_{bk} and CC_{rd} are finally encoded as bitstreams as follows:

 $E(CC_{bk}) = 1100100011101000101110111100100011011$ 1111110101100001111101000100110011000 $E(CC_{rd}) = 1110011101000111111000100110$

c: FILE FORMATTING

This step creates a header and associates it with the bitstreams in the previous stage to make a compressed file as [Figure 6.](#page-3-1) For example, the header of [Figure 5](#page-3-0) and the compressed result is as follows. It is 358 bits in size, about 45 bytes.

Header

 $= \alpha + \text{VarInt}(\text{Width}) + \text{VarInt}(\text{Height})$

FIGURE 12. 4 stages of decompression process.

+*TypeCode* + *VarInt*(*ColorPaletteSize*) $+$ *VarInt*(*ThesizeofTT*_{*bk*} + 1) $+$ *VarInt*(*ThesizeofTT_{rd}* + 1) $= 00 + 01000111 + 01000011$ $+11 + 11$ +00000011 $+0110$ $= 0001000111010000111111000000110110$

Comp(*[Figure](#page-3-0)* 5)

- $=$ *Header* + $E(TT_{bk}) + E(TT_{rd}) + E(CC_{bk}) + E(CC_{rd})$
- = 000100011101000011111100000011011000101010111 10100111001010110111000010010100101011010000 00110011010111000010111000111000000111000110 000110001100000100010010101111101000010101000 110001010110111001000001110000000010001110100 111000101001010110001010111000111110010001110 100010111011110010001101111111101011000011111 010001001100110001110011101000111111000100110

C. DECOMPRESSION

The decompression process is carried out in four stages, as shown as [Figure 12.](#page-6-2)

1) HEADER PARSING

At this stage, the header part of the compressed image file is parsed. The headers of the *Comp*(*[Figure](#page-3-0)* 5) are parsed in the following order: (1) Obtain the value of α from the first two bits. These two bits are "00", so α is 1. (2) Parse *Width* and *Height*. These are encoded as VarInt. So, split the data into a chunk unit and read them until the first bit of a chunk is 1. As a result, *Width* is ''01000111'', and *Height* is ''01000011''. Decoding these two values using [Equation 2](#page-3-6) results in 26 and 24. (3) Read two bits to find out the most frequent type of chain code table items. These two bits are

FIGURE 13. Decompression results (O_{bk}, O_{rd}) .

" 11 ", so the most frequent type is *C*. This value is used when decoding chain code tables. (4) Parse the color palette size encoded as VarInt. The encoded value is ''11'', so the color palette size is 2. (5) Read the table-size as many times as the color palette size. In this case, the color palette size

Algorithm 5 Reverse Binary Move-to-Front Transform Using Transition Table

Input : A byte array *B* **Output**: A byte array *B*

1 $T =$ Transition table of two dimensional array format (2) \times 256)

$$
2\,p\leftarrow 0
$$

3 for $i \leftarrow 0$ to *B*.*length* **do**

 $4 \mid B[i], p \leftarrow T(B[i], p)$

⁵ end

FIGURE 14. Images of decompression results (O_{bk}, O_{rd}) .

is 2, so two table-sizes are read. The two read values are ''00000011'' and ''0110'', and these are decoded into 16 and 5. The values reduced by 1 to these are the size of the chain code tables. As a result, the size of the first chain code table is 15, and the size of the second chain code table is 4.

2) DECODING TRANSFORMED CHAIN CODE TABLES

At this stage, the transformed chain code tables are decoded. To get a transformed chain code table, read the transformed chain code table item repeatedly as its table size in the header. For example, since we knew the size of the first and second tables in the previous stage, parse items as much as the table size from the remaining data R_{stage_1} as shown below.

 $R_{stage_1} = 00101010111101001110010101111000010010$

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FIGURE 15. The ESL images for the performance evaluation.

100101011010000001100110101110000101110 001110000001110001100001100011000001000 10010101111101000010101000110001010110 1110010000011100000000100011101001110001 01001010110001010111000111110010001110 100010111011110010001101111111101011000 01111101000100110011000111001110100011 1111000100110

The first item of the first transformed chain code table is decoded as follows. (1) The bit part of *Type* is ''0''. So the most frequent type is *C*. (2) Parse the Δi encoded as VarInt. It is "0101010111". Therefore, the Δi is 62. (3) Because the type of this item is *C*, *Length* should also be parsed. The bit part of *Length* is "10", so the *Length* is 1. The decoding of the first item is complete. After parsing all the items in the same way, [Table 7](#page-5-3) is created and the remaining data R_{stage_2} is as follows.

$R_{stage_2} = 110010001110100010111011110010001101111$ 11110101100001111101000100110011000 1110011101000111111000100110

3) DECODING CONCATENATED CHAIN CODES

After the previous stage, the remaining encoded parts are the concatenated chain codes. In the decoding process of the encoded parts, we first create a bitstream that is the same

size as the image, initialized to zero, and analyze the items in the transformed chain code table one by one to change part of the bitstream to one. Depending on the decoded item's type, the concatenated chain codes are also decoded using [Table 8.](#page-6-0) A pseudo algorithm of the decoding process is shown in [algorithm 3.](#page-7-0) For example, the Δi of the first item in TT_{bk} is 62, so B_{bk} [61] is set to 1. Since the type of this item is C and Length is 1, one code is decoded from R_{stage_2} using [Table 8.](#page-6-0) And the result is 1, so B_{bk} [87] is set to 1. As a result of this stage, B_{bk} and B_{rd} are obtained as shown in Section [IV-B1.](#page-3-8)

4) REVERSE BINARY MTFT

This stage is the final of the decompression process. Reverse Binary MTFT is performed on the bitstream generated from the previous stage. A pseudo algorithm of the transform process is shown in [algorithm 4.](#page-7-1) It could be improved to work faster like [algorithm 5,](#page-7-2) which uses more memory. *Bbk* and B_{rd} are converted to O_{bk} and O_{rd} in this stage as shown in [Figure 13.](#page-7-3)

These represent images, as shown in [Figure 14.](#page-7-4) These bitstreams may be passed on to the e-paper module and used but may require additional conversion processes. This process depends on the manufacturer of the module and is not covered in this paper.

V. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

In this section, we evaluated the performance of the proposed algorithm with six well-known compression algorithms, such as PackBits, LZW, Deflate, G3, G4, and JBIG2.

TABLE 9. The size and color composition information of the images.

ID	Format	File Size	Width	Height	Black Pixels	Red Pix- els	Blue Pix- els	Orange Pixels	Magenta Pixels	Green Pixels	Yellow Pixels	White Pixels
Label01	PBM	23115	152	152	5531	\sim					\blacksquare	17573
Label02	PBM	23115	152	152	8073		$\overline{}$	÷	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$	15031
Label03	PBM	23115	152	152	12494						\sim	10610
Label04	PBM	23115	152	152	14674		\sim	÷.	٠		\sim	8430
Label05	PBM	32779	250	128	6533	\sim	\sim				\sim	25467
Label06	PBM	32779	250	128	13152		\sim	\overline{a}	ä,	٠	\overline{a}	18848
Label07	PBM	32779	250	128	19242	\sim	\sim				\sim	12758
Label08	PBM	32779	250	128	23649		$\ddot{}$	÷,	÷.	÷	\blacksquare	8351
Label09	PBM	120011	400	300	24454							95546
Label10	PBM	120011	400	300	58921	٠	\sim	×.	×.	×,	٠	61079
Label11	PBM	120011	400	300	74136		\sim	\overline{a}	\blacksquare		\sim	45864
Label12	PBM	120011	400	300	87614		÷.	\blacksquare	÷		$\overline{}$	32386
Label13	PPM	69327	152	152	3985	1546	\overline{a}	\sim	\blacksquare	\sim	\sim	17573
Label14	PPM	69327	152	152	3623	4449	÷.	÷.	ä,		×.	15032
Label15	PPM	69327	152	152	2112	10382	α	\sim	۰	۰	\sim	10610
Label16	PPM	69327	152	152	1865	12809	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	8430
Label17	PPM	96015	250	128	4164	2369					\sim	25467
Label18	PPM	96015	250	128	4201	8951	\sim	$\ddot{}$	÷.	ä,	$\overline{}$	18848
Label19	PPM	96015	250	128	2383	16859						12758
Label20	PPM	96015	250	128	1149	22500	\sim	٠	×.	×,	٠	8351
Label21	PPM	360015	400	300	11830	12624	\sim	\sim			\sim	95546
Label22	PPM	360015	400	300	16277	42644	$\ddot{}$				\overline{a}	61079
Label23	PPM	360015	400	300	6579	67557		\blacksquare	\blacksquare		\blacksquare	45864
Label24	PPM	360015	400	300	5525	82089	×.	a.	a.	۰.	×.	32386
Label25	PPM	69327	152	152	1632	1546	1226	4398	520	607	6510	6665
Label26	PPM	69327	152	152	2325	2477	2843	258	169	5275	4753	5004
Label27	PPM	69327	152	152	963	9488	4323	1730	313	1580	1512	3195
Label28	PPM	69327	152	152	1865	4114	5419	544	282	1750	2994	6136
Label29	PPM	96015	250	128	2285	4871	2349	12631	520	1379	5048	2917
Label30	PPM	96015	250	128	3073	3582	1128	5249	3207	2162	7773	5826
Label31	PPM	96015	250	128	1234	1462	13865	1885	2681	1542	5101	4230
Label32	PPM	96015	250	128	850	10100	7740	4660	299	780	1946	5625
Label33	PPM	360015	400	300	10236	1842	12981	47724	18518	8558	10782	9359
Label34	PPM	360015	400	300	16277	18401	19401	2564	4842	18190	27386	12939
Label35	PPM	360015	400	300	6579	30611	10545	13382	7391	16173	15957	19362
Label36	PPM	360015	400	300	4878	1702	4717	32158	12361	14832	21683	27669

Three performance items were measured: compressed file size, compression time, and decompression time.

[Figure 15](#page-8-1) shows thirty-six images used for the evaluation. The images are classified into three categories by the number of colors: monochrome, 3-colors, and 8-colors. Note that due to ESL tags' limited resource constraints, only limited colored tags have been deployed in the markets. The size and color composition information of the images is shown in [Table 9.](#page-9-0)

In the performance evaluation, we converted multi-colored images into multiple monochrome images because G3, G4, and JBIG2 can compress only monochrome images. For PackBits, LZW, and Deflate, we compared two different versions of images: one multi-colored image (A) and multiple converted monochrome images (B). For instance, Pack-Bits (A) refers to the performance result for the original multi-colored image, while PackBits (B) refers to the result for the converted monochrome images.

For the evaluation, we used the source codes of all the compression algorithms except ECO from JBIG2 [27], [28] and LibTiff [29]. The performance of all algorithms was measured in the same environment.^{[1](#page-9-1)} All measurements were repeated 1000 times, and the average value was used for the comparison.

[Table 10](#page-10-0) shows the comparison of compressed image sizes with each algorithm. For the monochrome images, ECO and JBIG2 showed the lowest BPP (bits-per-pixel), indicating the highest compression ratio. However, for the 3-color and 8-color images, ECO showed the highest compression ratio. It can be seen that the larger the color palette's size, the better the ECO's compression efficiency than the other algorithms.

[Table 11](#page-11-0) shows the comparison of the compression time for each algorithm. [Figure 17](#page-11-1) shows the average compression time for each group of the images. For the monochrome images, ECO and JBIG2 showed longer compression time than the other algorithms. However, for the 3-color and 8-color images, ECO showed shorter compression time than JBIG2.

[Table 12](#page-12-0) shows the comparison of the decompression time for each algorithm. [Figure 18](#page-12-1) shows the average decompression time for each group of the images. For the monochrome and 3-color images, ECO showed the shortest decompression time. For the 8-color images, PackBits(A), LZW(A), and Deflate(A) showed shorter decompression times than ECO; Note that they showed relatively lower compression ratio than ECO as shown in [Table 10.](#page-10-0)

¹Hardware: Intel(R) Core(TM) $i7-5650U$ CPU @ 2.20GHz; 2 Cores, 4 logical Processors; 8 GB RAM Software: Xcode version 11.2.1, macOS 10.15 (Catalina)

TABLE 10. Compressed size of the images (in bytes).

FIGURE 16. Average bits-per-pixel comparison for each group.

TABLE 11. Compression time comparison (in milli-seconds).

 $LZW(B)$

 $Define(B)$

G₃

G4

JBIG2

FIGURE 17. Average compression time comparison for each group (in milli-seconds).

PackBits(B)

 $Define(A)$

 $LZW(A)$

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ECO

 \overline{c} $\mathsf{O}\xspace$

PackBits(A)

TABLE 12. Decompression time comparison (in milli-seconds).

FIGURE 18. Average decompression time comparison for each group (in milli-seconds).

FIGURE 19. Performance results of the algorithms for the images with Label12, 24, and 36.

In [Figure 19,](#page-13-0) we compared the algorithms on the images with the same contents but different color-palettes. For instance, Label12, Label24, and Label36 have the same characteristics, such as size, structure, and contents, but different colors. Overall, as the number of colors increases, all of the algorithms showed the lower compression ratio and took more time in compression and decompression. Notice that ECO showed relatively lower performance variations for the color-palette change.

[Table 13](#page-13-1) shows the comparison of the compression ratio *CR* of each algorithm which is defined by [Equation 5.](#page-14-1) It also shows *CR*/*CRECO*, a relative compression ratio to ECO. For instance, if it is greater than 1, it indicates that the algorithm generates smaller compressed image than ECO. Notice that the relative compression ratios are less than 1 in most cases in [Table 13.](#page-13-1)

$$
CR = \frac{uncompressed\ size}{compressed\ size}
$$
 (5)

VI. CONCLUSION

An Electronic shelf labels (ESL) system is becoming an attractive alternative for managing up-to-date price tag information because of the dynamic-price-updating and customer's product-evaluation-display features. A common ESL system configuration in a retail store includes thousands of battery-powered ESL tags that are mostly connected wirelessly in a dense indoor environment. Raising the success ratio of wireless communication is essential for the system's viability due to its limited battery life. In this paper, we presented ECO, a new chain coding based image compression algorithm suitable for the ESL system. We evaluated the performance of ECO against six other well-known algorithms. ECO showed the best results in the compression ratio and the decompression time in most cases. Achieving high compression ratio and short decompression time together is one of the most important factors for prolonging the battery lifetime of ESL tags.

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