

# AN EFFECTIVE COLOR QUANTIZATION METHOD USING COLOR IMPORTANCE-BASED SELF-ORGANIZING MAPS

Hyun Jun Park, Kwang Baek Kim, Eui Young Cha\*

**Abstract:** Color quantization is an important process for image processing and various applications. Up to now, many color quantization methods have been proposed. The self-organizing maps (SOM) method is one of the most effective color quantization methods, which gives excellent color quantization results. However, it is slow, so it is not suitable for real-time applications. In this paper, we present a color importance–based SOM color quantization method. The proposed method dynamically adjusts the learning rate and the radius of the neighborhood using color importance. This makes the proposed method faster than the conventional SOM-based color quantization methods. We compare the proposed method to 10 well-known color quantization methods to evaluate performance. The methods are compared by measuring mean absolute error (MAE), mean square error (MSE), and processing time. The experimental results show that the proposed method is effective and excellent for color quantization. Not only does the proposed method provide the best results compared to the other methods, but it uses only 67.18% of the processing time of the conventional SOM method.

Key words: SOM, color quantization, image processing

Received: August 21, 2013 Revised and accepted: March 30, 2015 **DOI:** 10.14311/NNW.2015.25.006

# 1. Introduction

The purpose of color quantization is to represent the many colors in the original image with a reduced number of distinct colors and with minimal distortion. True-color images contain thousands of colors and can contain up to 16,777,216 colors. More colors representing an image can make a better output to look at.

However, more colors can be a problem for most image-processing applications. For example, colors can be used for object detection, object extraction, and to compare features. In image-processing, a single object represented with one color is an ideal case, but unfortunately, even if it is a single object, it is represented with many colors, which becomes a serious problem.

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Therefore, image-processing applications such as text detection [36], compression [43], segmentation [13], content-based searches [14], watermarks [25], and color-texture analysis [35] perform color quantization as a preprocessing step to reduce the number of colors.

Color quantization consists of palette design and pixel-mapping phases. The palette design phase is the selection of colors that represent the original colors, but with minimal distortion. The pixel-mapping phase is the assignment of each pixel in the original image to one of the colors in the designed palette. Color quantization methods perform a clustering process to design the palette by using one of the clustering algorithms, and perform pixel-mapping with the designed palette. Therefore, the degree of distortion is determined by the clustering algorithm that is used for palette design.

A self-organizing maps (SOM)-based color quantization method is one of the most effective methods. It shows natural output with little distortion. However, SOM is composed of two layers (the input layer and the competitive layer), fully connected. Due to the structure and many colors in an image used for SOM learning, many repetitive computations occur, and it takes too much computation time.

Recently, MFD-SOM method was proposed [10]. It uses a dynamic learning rate and neighborhood radius. User-defined constant values tune the learning rate and neighborhood radius to determine a winner. Also, a new way to update weight vectors is proposed. However MFD-SOM still needs a lot of time for color quantization.

Therefore, we propose a new color quantization method using SOM, which we call color importance–based SOM. The proposed method maintains the results of the conventional SOM-based color quantization method but is faster.

The proposed method uses sampled data for SOM learning, because the SOM learning result can be changed by the sequence of training data, and to minimize repeated learning with similar colors. Also, the proposed method defines the color importance, and uses it for learning. The color importance dynamically adjusts the learning rate and neighborhood radius. For example, if the color importance is high then the learning rate and neighborhood radius are increased. These mechanisms make SOM learning faster than conventional SOM learning.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the existing color quantization methods. Section 3 describes the color quantization method using color importance–based SOM. Section 4 evaluates the performance of the proposed method using publicly available images and compares the proposed method to other wellknown methods. Finally, Section 5 presents the conclusions.

## 2. Related works

Color quantization methods are classified by whether the distribution of colors in the image is used or not. Image-independent methods generate a palette that is unconcerned with color distribution [2]. Therefore, these are fast but give poor results.

By contrast, image-dependent methods generate a palette using color distribution. These are slower than image-independent methods but give better results.

Designing the palette in image-dependent methods is equivalent to the clustering of colors in an image. Therefore image-dependent methods can be classified into two categories: hierarchical clustering and partitional clustering [2].

Hierarchical clustering methods perform color quantization based on a statistical analysis of the color distribution. There are two approaches to hierarchical clustering. One is the divisive (top-down) approach, which repeatedly subdivides the initial cluster until K clusters are obtained. The other is the agglomerative (bottom-up) approach. It starts with N clusters and repeatedly merges the clusters until K clusters are obtained [2].

Partitional clustering methods typically know the expected number of clusters. They calculate all the clusters at each iteration, and repeatedly update the clusters to reduce the differences in the original image.

In other words, hierarchical clustering methods calculate the palette once, but partitional clustering methods calculate the palette and repeatedly update it to minimize distortion of the original image. Therefore, partitional clustering methods give higher quality results, but they need much more computation time.

Tab. I shows various color quantization methods mentioned above.

Image-independen	t methods	<ul><li>Unconcerned with color dis- tribution</li><li>Fast, but poor results</li></ul>						
Image-dependent methods	Hierarchical clustering: median-cut [18], octree [16], greedy orthogonal bipartioning [40], variance-based method [38], binary splitting [27], center cut [26], RWM cut [44]	<ul> <li>Divide (or merge) initial clusters until K clusters are obtained</li> <li>Faster than partitional clustering methods</li> </ul>						
	Partitional clustering k-means [19–22], weighted sort-means [7], fuzzy C-means [3,23,28,33,39], self-organizing maps [9, 11, 12, 29, 30, 42], maxmin [17, 41], k-harmonic means [15], competitive learning [4,6,8,34, 37], rough C-means [31], BIRCH [1]	<ul> <li>Update K clusters repeatedly</li> <li>Good results, but slower than hierarchical clustering meth- ods</li> </ul>						

Tab. I Various color quantization methods.

**Popularity (POP)** [18] POP is one of the simplest methods. First, build a  $16 \times 16 \times 16$  color histogram using four bits per channel uniform quantization. The palette color comprises the K most-frequent colors in the color histogram. This method is fast, but gives poor results.

**Octree (OCT)** [16] Octree is a tree structure with up to eight nodes as children. Because the colors are represented with 8 bits, the octree can represent all colors in an image within an eight-level tree. At first, color distribution in the image is represented using octree, which then prunes the nodes until K nodes remain. The palette colors are chosen from the remaining K nodes. This method is fast and gives good results.

**MedianCut (MC)** [18] MC starts by building a  $32 \times 32 \times 32$  color histogram using five bits per channel uniform quantization. It makes cubes that include all of the histogram and then repeatedly splits the cubes that have the greatest number of colors until K cubes are obtained. The palette colors are chosen from the centroids of the K cubes.

**Greedy Orthogonal Bipartitioning (GOB)** [40] This method is similar to MC but uses the greatest sum of squared error to minimize the sum of the variances on both sides. The palette colors are again chosen from the centroids.

Adaptive Distributing Unit (ADU) [4] ADU quantizes the colors using Uchiyama and Arbib's clustering algorithm. It starts with a cluster, which is assigned as the centroid to the mean of all input data. Each cluster is split when the amount of data with a minimum distance is above a certain threshold. It continues splitting until K clusters are obtained. The palette is chosen from the centroids of the final clusters.

**k-means (KM)** [19–22] k-means clustering is a well-known clustering method. It starts with K random clusters. In each iteration, all of the input data are assigned to the cluster that has the minimum distance within the data. The centroid of the cluster is calculated as the average of the assigned data, and it is repeated until the centroid of the cluster does not change. The palette colors are chosen from the centroids of the final clusters. In this paper, the k-means algorithm described by Hu and Lee [19] is used.

Weighted Sort-Means (WSM) [7] WSM is an adaptation of the conventional k-means clustering algorithm for color quantization. This method performs the data sampling step and sample weighting step, and uses the sort-means algorithm to reduce computation time.

**Fuzzy** *C*-means (FCM) [3,23,28,33,39] FCM starts with *K* clusters. In fuzzy clustering, each datum has a degree of belonging (membership) to the clusters. FCM calculates the centroid of the clusters using the degree of belonging and repeats the calculations until the algorithm has converged. If the image has a large amount of data, calculating the degrees of belonging takes a lot of time. Therefore, this method is very slow. In this paper, the FCM algorithm described by Kim et al. [23] is used.

Adaptive Resonance Theory 2 (ART2) [24] This method is an unsupervised learning model and starts with a cluster. ART2 creates new clusters based on a vigilance test. If the result of the vigilance test is larger than the vigilance parameter, then ART2 creates a new cluster or assigns the data to a cluster. The centroid of the clusters is defined as the average of the assigned data, and ART2 continues testing until the centroid of the clusters converge. The palette colors are chosen from the centroids of the K most-frequent clusters.

Self-Organizing Maps (SOM) [9, 11, 12, 29, 30, 42] SOM is also an unsupervised learning model and uses a one-dimensional self-organizing map with K neurons. It designates the minimum distance node as the winner node, and then updates the weights of the winner node and neighbor nodes. It repeats the process until the sum of the weight change is less than a certain threshold. The palette color is chosen from the final weights. In this paper, the SOM algorithm described by Dekker [12] is used.



Fig. 1 Lenna output images. (K = 32).

# 3. Color quantization using color importance-based SOM

We need to consider the features of color distribution in natural images for efficient color quantization. Initially, one region in an image has similar colors. In other words, adjacent pixels in an image have similar colors. This means that SOM's learning of sequential pixels is equivalent to the same operation being repeated. Therefore, more efficient color quantization can be performed by reducing these repetitive operations. Second, high-frequency colors in an image should be assigned to many of the colors in the palette in order to reduce distortion of the original image. This gives a more natural quantization result.

We present an efficient color quantization method using color importance-based SOM by using the above two features. The proposed method is faster but maintains the performance of conventional SOM color quantization.

### 3.1 Training data sampling

SOM learning using all the pixels in an image requires a lot of processing time. As mentioned above, SOM learning using sequential pixels means similar pixels are learned repeatedly. Therefore, the proposed method for SOM uses a subset of the pixels in the image. The proposed method collects the pixels at regular intervals as training data from one-dimensional image data vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . It guarantees a variety of colors are selected and eliminates the repetition. The vector of training data for *t*-th iteration,  $\mathbf{d}_t$ , is constructed as

$$\mathbf{d}_t = (x_t, x_{t+\Delta}, x_{t+2\Delta}, \dots),$$

where  $\Delta$  is the collection interval length. In this paper, the interval is set to 100, which means that 1% of all the pixels are used in each iteration. The interval length also sets an upper bound on the number of algorithm iterations, as after  $\Delta$  iterations the training data starts to repeat itself, but it usually does not need that much iterations.

## 3.2 Color importance

When conventional SOM learns the sampled training data, similar colors tend to determine the same neuron as a winner, and it updates the weights using the same learning rate and neighborhood. This raises an issue. Because every color has the same color importance, the colors are assigned to the palette regardless of the actual frequency of the colors in the original image. The learning rate and neighborhood radius should be changed by color importance.

The proposed method defines color importance based on color frequency to solve this problem. The SOM learning rate and the radius of the neighborhood are adjusted by color importance. This adjustment speeds up the results of SOM learning. At first, the proposed method builds the color distribution to define color importance. It uses a  $32 \times 32 \times 32$  color histogram using 5 bits per channel uniform quantization. Color importance is defined by the frequency of the colors in the color histogram.

### 3.3 The color importance-based SOM learning algorithm

The learning algorithm for color importance-based SOM is similar to conventional SOM with two exceptions: how to set the learning rate  $\alpha$ , and the radius of the neighborhood  $\gamma$  [9]. The learning algorithm is described below.

Algorithm 1 Learning algorithm of color importance-based SOM

**Require:** image  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$  as a vector of N pixels, interval  $\Delta$ , number of neurons K**Ensure:** weight  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_K)$ Build a  $32 \times 32 \times 32$  color histogram using 5 bits per channel uniform quantization  $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_L)$ , where L is the number of colors in the histogram  $\mathbf{i} \leftarrow (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_L)$ , such that  $i_j = \sqrt{\text{frequency of } c_j/\text{maximum frequency}}$  $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow K$  random values  $t \leftarrow 1$ repeat {process all training pixels in sequence}  $\mathbf{d}_t \leftarrow (x_t, x_{t+\Delta}, x_{t+2\Delta}, \dots)$  {generate subset of training pixels}  $N' \leftarrow \|\mathbf{d}_t\|$  {number of training data} for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to N' do winner  $\leftarrow \underset{k=1,...,K}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|d_{t,j} - w_k\|^2 \{ \text{determine the winner (nearest) neurons} \}$  $\gamma \leftarrow \frac{K}{2} \sqrt{i_{\text{winner}}} \text{ {calculate the update radius}}$  $\alpha \leftarrow e^{-0.25t} \sqrt{i_{\text{winner}} + 0.25} \text{ {calculate the learning rate}}$ {update the winner's weight and its neighbor's} for  $k = \text{winner} - \gamma$  to winner  $+ \gamma$  do  $w_k \leftarrow w_k + \frac{\alpha'(d_{t,j} - w_k)}{1 + \|k - \text{winner}\|^2}$ end for Reduce the importance of  $i_{\text{winner}}$ end for  $t \leftarrow t + 1$ until weights converged

At first, the proposed method initializes the weights with random values. The weights are updated until they converge. We assumed the weights are converged when an average of weight variation is less than 0.01.

To update the weights, the proposed method finds the winner node with minimum distance, and then the weights are updated using the input values and the learning rate.

The learning rate  $\alpha$  is defined by color importance of the winner,  $i_{\text{winner}}$ , and can be computed as

$$\alpha = \mathrm{e}^{-0.25t} \sqrt{i_{\mathrm{winner}} + 0.25}.$$

It results in the weights converging faster by increasing the high-importance color's learning rate. The color importance is defined experimentally. The constants in the definition are set to 0.25. It adjusts the reduced rate for the learning rate and 0.25 shows good to color quantization.

The weights are updated by following formula.

$$w_k = w_k + \frac{\alpha (d_{t,j} - w_k)}{1 + ||k - \text{winner}||^2}.$$

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(c) Proposed Method

Fig. 2 Mandrill output images.

where k denotes a target node and  $d_{t,j}$  is a *j*-th element in training data  $d_t$ . It updates the weights depend on the learning rate  $\alpha$  and distance between winner and target node. The distance and updating value are inversely related.

When the weights of the winner are updated, the weights of the winner's neighbors are also updated. The neighboring nodes are located within the radius of neighborhood  $\gamma$ , which is given as

$$\gamma = \frac{K}{2}\sqrt{i_{\text{winner}}}.$$

This results in the high-importance colors being assigned to the palette by increasing the high-importance color's neighborhood radius.

Algorithm 1 shows the pseudo code of the learning algorithm of the color importance-based SOM.

Image	Source	Resolution	Colors
Airplane	USC-SIPI Image Database	$512 \times 512$	77,041
Lenna	USC-SIPI Image Database	$512 \times 512$	$148,\!279$
Mandrill	USC-SIPI Image Database	$512 \times 512$	$230,\!427$
Peppers	USC-SIPI Image Database	$512 \times 512$	$183,\!525$
Girl	Kodak Lossless True Color Image Suite	$768 \times 512$	$44,\!576$
Hats	Kodak Lossless True Color Image Suite	$768 \times 512$	$34,\!871$
Motocross	Kodak Lossless True Color Image Suite	$768 \times 512$	$63,\!558$
Parrots	Kodak Lossless True Color Image Suite	$768 \times 512$	72,079

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Tab. II Information of the test images.

# 4. Experimental results

To evaluate performance, the proposed method was tested on a set of eight truecolor images commonly used in color quantization papers. Images are shown in Fig. 3 and information of the test images are described in Tab. II. All of the color quantization methods were tested on an Intel i7-2640M 2.8 GHz, 8GB machine and were implemented in C++.



Fig. 3 Test images.

Fig. 1 shows the color quantized results of the Lenna image which is one of the test images. Compared with other methods, the proposed method generates less aliasing in the face and hat. Also, the area around the feathers of the hat is very similar to the original image.

The performance of the color quantization result was quantified by mean absolute error (MAE) and mean square error (MSE),

$$\operatorname{MAE}\left(X, \hat{X}\right) = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{h=1}^{H} \sum_{w=1}^{W} \left\| \mathbf{X}\left(h, w\right) - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\left(h, w\right) \right\|_{1}$$
$$\operatorname{MSE}\left(X, \hat{X}\right) = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{h=1}^{H} \sum_{w=1}^{W} \left\| \mathbf{X}\left(h, w\right) - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\left(h, w\right) \right\|_{2}^{2}$$

where H and W denote image height and width, respectively,

MAE measures the average magnitude of the errors in the same units as the data. This means that MAE represents the difference between the original image and the quantized image. MSE is a quadratic scoring rule that measures the average magnitude of the error. MSE is more sensitive than MAE to the occasional large error: the squaring process gives disproportionate weight to large errors.

Tabs. III and IV show the average MAE and MSE of five experimental results for other well-known color quantization methods. The top two methods are indicated in bold. Tab. V shows the average processing time of five experimental results. In this paper, for a more accurate comparison, processing time does not include time for the pixel-mapping phase, because pixel mapping is required regardless of the color quantization algorithm. Therefore, processing time is measured as CPU time for the palette generation phase only.

As expected, the hierarchical clustering methods (POP, MC, OCT, GOB) are faster, but generally, color quantization results are poor. POP, the simplest algorithm, is fastest, but quantization results are also the poorest. MC requires similar, or more, processing time than POP, and its results are better. OCT needs from 2.3 to 3.1 times more processing time than POP. Experimental results show GOB is one of the most effective methods. GOB gives the smallest distortion among the hierarchical clustering methods. It takes linear time and is also fast.

On the other hand, the partitional clustering methods (KM, FCM, ADU, ART2, SOM, and PM [the Proposed Method]) are slow, but the results are better. As stated above, the hierarchical clustering methods start with an initial N clusters and repeatedly merge or subdivide until K colors are obtained. By contrast, the partitional clustering methods calculate all the clusters in each iteration, and repeatedly update the clusters. Therefore, they typically take more processing time, but the generated palette tends to contain a greater variety of colors than a palette generated by the hierarchical clustering methods. If there are many similar colors in the palette, it generates the results without a variety of colors and makes them unnatural. Therefore, as shown in Fig. 2, even if MAE and MSE are similar (K = 128, MAE = GOB 17.0; SOM 16.7; PM 16.9, MSE = GOB 153.2; SOM 149.1; PM 149.7), the partitional clustering methods give more natural results than the hierarchical clustering methods. Nevertheless, KM, ADU, FCM, and ART2 require too much processing time, so they are inappropriate for use in applications.

However, not only does the proposed method provide the best results from among the color quantization methods, but it also only needs the processing time that is available in real-time applications. That means the proposed method makes better quality results than the conventional SOM method, and minimizes the distortion between the original image and the quantized image. Plus, it gives more

	256	11.9	8.3	9.6	7.3	7.5	11.9	10.2	8.5	7.0	7.0		256	13.3	13.1	15.1	9.6	10.1	14.3	13.2	12.2	9.4	9.8	
Lenna	128	12.7	10.1	12.9	9.0	9.8	14.8	13.7	10.3	8.7	8.6	SI	128	16.0	17.0	17.7	12.2	13.5	16.9	15.5	14.5	11.8	12.2	
	64	16.1	13.1	15.5	11.4	12.0	16.9	14.9	12.4	11.3	11.0	Peppe	64	21.4	21.1	22.8	15.5	17.0	20.9	19.3	18.9	15.3	15.5	
	32	22.0	17.4	23.3	14.8	15.5	20.9	19.2	18.5	14.7	14.1		32	35.3	24.8	32.6	20.1	21.8	25.3	24.1	23.1	20.9	19.7	
Hats 32 64 128 256	256	12.3	9.7	9.6	5.9	6.5	10.7	8.3	8.9	5.5	5.7		256	13.6	12.8	12.6	<b>9.0</b>	10.1	13.1	12.9	11.3	8.7	9.3	
	128	14.1	15.2	13.0	8.0	11.8	12.5	11.5	11.0	8.0	7.8	ot 128 16.5	17.8	16.3	11.7	15.4	16.0	16.1	14.2	11.5	11.6	5		
	64	19.6	19.7	16.9	11.2	14.5	16.1	13.7	15.4	11.6	10.9	Parı	64	22.5	25.1	20.3	15.4	19.0	21.0	21.7	18.3	16.0	15.1	
	32	33.6	27.3	28.6	16.4	29.1	23.1	20.5	21.0	18.3	15.9		32	58.8	36.9	28.6	21.1	36.2	25.8	27.2	25.9	22.8	20.4	-
	256	14.5	9.8	12.4	11.9	6.5	6.8	14.3	8.5	6.1	6.9	ross	256	13.2	11.0	13.5	8.5	8.7	13.4	13.9	11.7	8.1	8.4	
ŀ	128	15.7	12.6	14.1	13.5	8.4	10.1	14.8	11.5	8.0	8.6		CLOSS	128	15.9	14.5	16.8	10.8	11.3	16.2	17.6	14.4	10.4	10.6
Gir	64	19.1	15.6	25.3	17.1	11.0	13.1	21.7	14.5	10.9	11.4	Motoc	64	19.3	17.8	23.4	14.1	14.7	19.0	21.9	19.2	13.8	13.9	
	32	23.4	21.1	29.0	22.5	14.7	20.0	21.6	20.9	16.1	14.4		32	33.2	21.9	31.8	18.9	21.3	22.4	22.1	23.7	19.6	18.8	111
	256	12.1	7.4	7.7	5.4	4.8	8.8	8.5	6.2	4.7	5.0		256	15.7	21.6	17.9	13.7	13.7	16.7	16.6	16.3	13.4	13.6	- E
ane	128	12.6	8.9	11.3	6.3	6.6	9.4	7.4	7.5	6.0	6.4	lrill	128	21.1	33.8	22.0	17.0	17.8	19.7	20.3	20.0	16.7	16.9	
Airpl	64	14.9	10.6	14.1	7.8	0.0	12.7	9.5	10.5	7.6	8.3	Manc			27.2	21.3	22.4	23.2	25.9	24.8	20.9	20.7		
	32	19.2	14.3	19.3	<b>0.6</b>	15.3	15.0	14.2	16.1	10.1	10.0		32	40.9	59.0	39.0	26.8	28.5	28.7	30.9	29.2	27.1	28.3	
	Κ	POP	MC	OCT	GOB	ADU	KM	FCM	ART2	SOM	ΡM		Κ	POP	MC	OCT	GOB	ADU	KM	FCM	ART2	SOM	ΡM	

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	256	64.8	44.3	47.5	30.3	32.4	76.6	69.2	37.8	28.8	27.9		256	127.2	150.6	116.6	52.9	57.0	110.8	122.9	77.4	53.9	54.7
a	128	79.8	68.2	85.4	45.8	54.9	120.9	131.8	56.0	43.7	42.3	IS	128	214.1	243.9	166.3 83.1		100.3	158.6	190.2	113.2	81.7	89.8
Lenn	64	175.1	116.5	126.1	73.1	80.7	154.0	144.0	82.9	70.5	67.1	Peppe	64	354.4	339.8	281.1	135.9	159.1	248.9	240.6	197.9	139.2	139.9
	32	336.1	191.6	273.5	122.9	132.7	230.4	253.5	183.0	118.1	110.2		32	1313.9	443.3	595.9	229.4	310.1	367.2	397.1	291.8	252.9	225.5
	256	75.4	110.5	54.1	24.3	38.4	67.3	69.6	42.8	26.0	24.4		256	104.1	142.9	85.4	<b>48.1</b>	63.2	93.8	121.8	68.0	48.9	49.2
s	128	131.0	392.1	101.8	42.9	155.5	93.6	133.8	67.4	47.6	45.8	ot	128	179.5	274.4	144.7	79.7	144.2	140.3	177.1	105.8	79.1	78.3
Hat	64	447.7	559.6	177.2	82.6	186.7	158.6	180.0	129.3	107.8	87.9	Parr	64	362.6	508.6	244.6	140.4	231.4	244.6	300.4	179.7	147.5	131.3
	32	1301.1	916.5	516.2	175.7	717.3	324.2	392.2	234.7	217.9	175.8		32	4102.2	999.7	469.9	252.2	1225.1	369.0	507.9	353.4	291.9	245.2
	256	109.4	86.3	85.3	80.1	28.0	32.9	191.5	40.3	28.8	29.0		256	97.0	136.0	96.1	44.2	48.9	97.6	162.9	73.0	46.0	43.3
l	128	148.5	164.8	112.0	103.6	46.7	71.1	168.8	74.2	46.4	47.4	Motocross	128	213.7	224.1	159.4	72.7	82.9	138.6	244.4	109.1	70.8	69.6
Gir	64	284.5	233.9	362.2	161.3	80.5	112.3	398.8	116.3	81.9	81.9		64	334.4	304.8	305.4	123.6	148.8	196.1	376.2	197.3	118.9	114.4
	32	428.2	398.6	450.4	272.6	137.5	341.7	372.9	239.0	156.8	130.5		32	1278.7	410.8	614.2	214.8	375.7	267.8	354.6	294.7	219.2	201.3
	256	67.5	52.0	36.3	19.1	22.7	47.2	59.4	23.2	19.9	19.4		256	151.7	347.2	153.7	98.6	100.5	144.3	160.1	135.4	96.7	96.8
ane	128	85.9	125.3	66.7	28.6	41.8	56.4	48.5	35.1	30.2	29.4	rill	128	305.7	801.5	245.6	153.2	171.0	203.5	244.5	206.3	149.1	149.7
Airpl	64	174.1	164.7	120.8	45.1	75.6	90.1	82.8	64.4	48.1	45.2	Mand	64	740.0	1619.9	379.1	237.8	278.9	281.7	411.7	319.6	232.1	224.7
	32	382.2	314.5	228.2	69.4	274.8	126.7	151.9	140.9	94.4	68.6		32	1200.6	2614.9	841.2	378.0	472.8	431.5	581.7	437.0	381.4	418.1
	K	POP	MC	OCT	GOB	ADU	KM	FCM	ART2	SOM	$_{\rm PM}$		Κ	OP	MC	OCT	GOB	ADU	KM	FCM	ART2	SOM	PM

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	256	4	4	11	22	11375	875	291207	2113	270	182		256	4	4	10	23	12307	1548	304416	3582	267	141		
nna	128	4	4	11	21	2052	681	58019	986	176	134	pers	128	4	က	6	22	2104	787	63570	1715	162	121		
Le	64	4	3	10	21	384	381	16105	248	116	102	$Pe_{\rm F}$	64	3	4	x	23	393	412	17227	788	115	95		
	32	3	ŝ	10	21	91	210	4684	118	85	152		32	3	က	6	22	85	229	5268	395	81	84		
Hats 20 64 108 056	256	8	ഹ	17	34	11504	1950	433151	3710	425	180		256	9	4	16	33	11363	2113	400386	3369	423	220		
	128	5	ъ С	15	34	2071	1124	90481	1962	271	163	rrot	128	5	4	13	34	2063	1149	94258	1684	250	195		
	64	5	4	12	34	398	596	22664	1001	164	106	Pa	64	5	S	14	34	391	576	22554	855	164	147		
	32	5	4	11	33	95	314	6826	530	178	98		32	5	4	12	33	92	321	6747	463	127	112		
	256	8	വ	18	33	2208	11413	426836	3730	435	213		256	9	2	18	33	11271	2137	396676	6106	426	202		
irl	128	5	4	13	34	1117	2081	81003	1850	231	129	ocross	ocross	128	5	4	14	33	2042	1087	89159	2844	242	150	
0	64	5	4	14	33	670	395	22668	975	173	152	Mot	64	9	4	14	33	392	587	22207	1402	175	120		
	32	4	4	12	33	420	93	6628	521	123	95		32	4	9	11	33	92	311	6498	667	127	109		
	256	4	с,	6	22	11356	860	296074	1823	293	134		256	5	e C	10	22	11198	1398	298427	5070	238	182		
plane	128	3	ŝ	x	22	2067	727	58961	884	165	88	ndrill	128	4	с С	x	21 22	2029	740	56354	2357	150	134		
Airp	64	3	с С	6	22	381	374	14671	231	119	66	Ma	64	e.	က	10		369	372	14441	1033	103	102		
	32	2	2	x	22	81	200	4528	121	83	61		32	4	က	7	21	84	206	4439	493	22	152		
	K	POP	MC	OCT	GOB	ADU	KM	FCM	ART2	SOM	ΡM		Κ	POP	MC	OCT	GOB	ADU	KM	FCM	ART2	SOM	ΡM		

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 $\mathbf{Tab. V}$  Processing time (ms) comparison of the color quantization methods.

natural results even though it requires only 67.18% of the processing time of the conventional SOM method.

When comparing the proposed method with GOB, which is the most efficient algorithm for the processing time, the proposed method gives better results, but about 3 to 8 times the processing time is required. However, SOM methods do not need to repeat learning when there is new, similar input. They can just update the existing learned results. This process does not require a lot of time. On the other hand, the results from GOB cannot be updated, and it needs to create a new palette for every input. This characteristic of SOM should allow it to obtain faster and better results than GOB in the applications that require repeated color quantization.

In addition, hierarchical methods require a certain amount of time to obtain results. However, SOM methods can adjust the processing time and the quality of the results. This means that depending on system performance and requirements, the proposed method is available in a variety of environments by changing the learning termination condition.

## 5. Conclusions

In this paper, we propose a new color quantization method using color importance–based SOM. It improves on the conventional SOM color quantization method.

The proposed method defines color importance using the frequency of colors, and dynamically adjusts the learning rate and the radius of the neighborhood based on color importance. In other words, the proposed method uses color importance to speed up SOM learning.

To evaluate the performance of the proposed method, we quantified MAE, MSE, and processing time on a set of eight true-color images commonly used in color quantization papers. The lower MAE and MSE values mean there is less distortion of the original image. The proposed method has the lowest MAE and MSE with most of the test images, as shown in Tab. III and Tab. IV. So, we conclude the proposed method minimizes the distortion of the original image. Also, the proposed method is the fastest among the partitional clustering color quantization methods, as shown in Tab. V. It takes only 67.18% of the conventional SOM processing time. Therefore, the experimental results prove that the proposed method is effective for color quantization.

In this paper, the most important thing is color importance. We defined color importance, and used it to improve the conventional SOM color quantization method. Therefore, if there is a more effective method for defining color importance, then it makes for a more effective color importance–based quantization method than the proposed method. Color importance is currently defined by using color frequency, but the distance between pixels, clustering, component analysis, and so on, can also be used. The processing time for color quantization will slightly increase, but it will be able to reduce MAE and MSE by calculating more effective color importance. Therefore, for future work, we will study how to improve the definition of color importance.

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