

# Discrete Cosine Transform

# What is Transform Coding?

- Transform coding constitutes an integral component of contemporary image/video processing applications.
- **Transform coding relies** on the premise that pixels in an image exhibit a certain level of correlation with **their neighboring pixels**
- Similarly in a video transmission system, **adjacent pixels in consecutive frames show very high correlation.** Consequently, these correlations can be exploited to **predict the value of a pixel** from its respective neighbors.
- **Transformation is a lossless operation**, therefore, the inverse transformation renders a perfect reconstruction of the original image.

# Why Transform Coding?

- Better image processing
  - Take into account **long-range correlations** in space
  - Conceptual insights in spatial-frequency information. → what it means to be “smooth, moderate change, fast change, ...”
- Fast computation
- Alternative representation and sensing
  - **Efficient storage and transmission**
  - **Energy compaction**
  - Pick a few “**representatives**” (basis)
  - Just store/send the “**contribution**” from each basis



# The Discrete Cosine Transform

- ♠ Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) has emerged as the image transformation in most visual systems. DCT has been widely deployed by modern video coding standards, for example, **MPEG, JVT etc.**
- ♠ It is the same family as the Fourier Transform
  - | **Converts data to frequency domain**
- ♠ Represents data **via summation of variable frequency cosine waves.**
- ♠ Captures only **real components** of the function.
  - | Discrete Sine Transform (DST) captures odd (imaginary) components → not as useful.
  - | Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) captures both odd and even components → computationally intense.

# Discrete Fourier Transform

- due to its computational efficiency the DFT is very popular
- however, it has strong disadvantages for some applications
  - it is complex
  - it has poor energy compaction

- What is energy compaction?
  - is the ability to pack the energy of the spatial sequence into as few frequency coefficients as possible
  - this is very important for image compression
  - if compaction is high, we only have to transmit a few coefficients instead of the whole set of pixels

# Comparison to DFT:

- As compared to DFT, application of DCT results in less blocking artifacts due to the even symmetric extension properties of DCT.
- **D C T uses real computations**, unlike the complex computations used in DFT.
- D F T is a complex transform and therefore stipulates that both image magnitude and phase information be encoded.
- D C T hardware simpler, as compared to that of DFT.
- D C T provides better energy compaction than DFT for most natural images.
- T h e implicit periodicity of DFT gives rise to boundary discontinuities that result in significant high-frequency content. After quantization, *Gibbs Phenomenon* causes the boundary points to take on erroneous values .

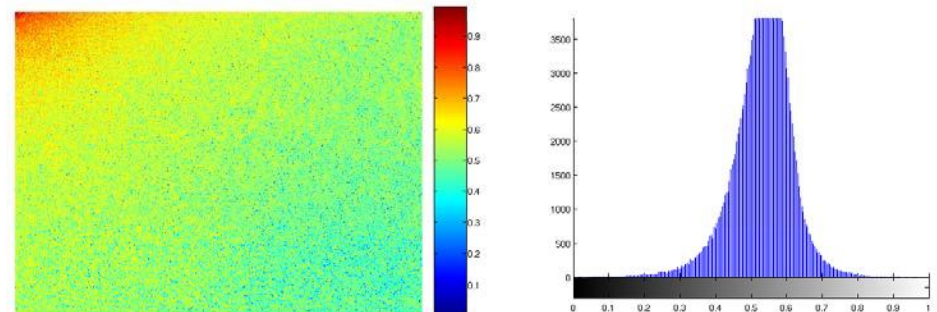


# Discrete Cosine Transform

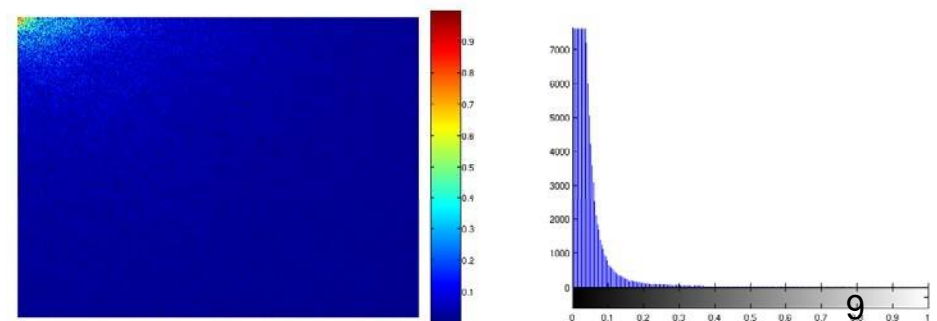
- in this example we see the amplitude spectra of the image above under the DFT and DCT
- note the much more concentrated histogram obtained with the DCT
- why is energy compaction important?
  - the main reason is image compression
  - turns out to be beneficial in other applications



**DFT**



**DCT**





# Mathematical Basis

♠ 1D DCT:

$$C(u) = \alpha(u) \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) \cos \left[ \frac{\pi(2x+1)u}{2N} \right]$$

Where:

1D DCT is  $O(n^2)$

$$\alpha(u) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}} & \text{for } u = 0 \\ \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} & \text{for } u \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

♣

♠ 2D DCT:

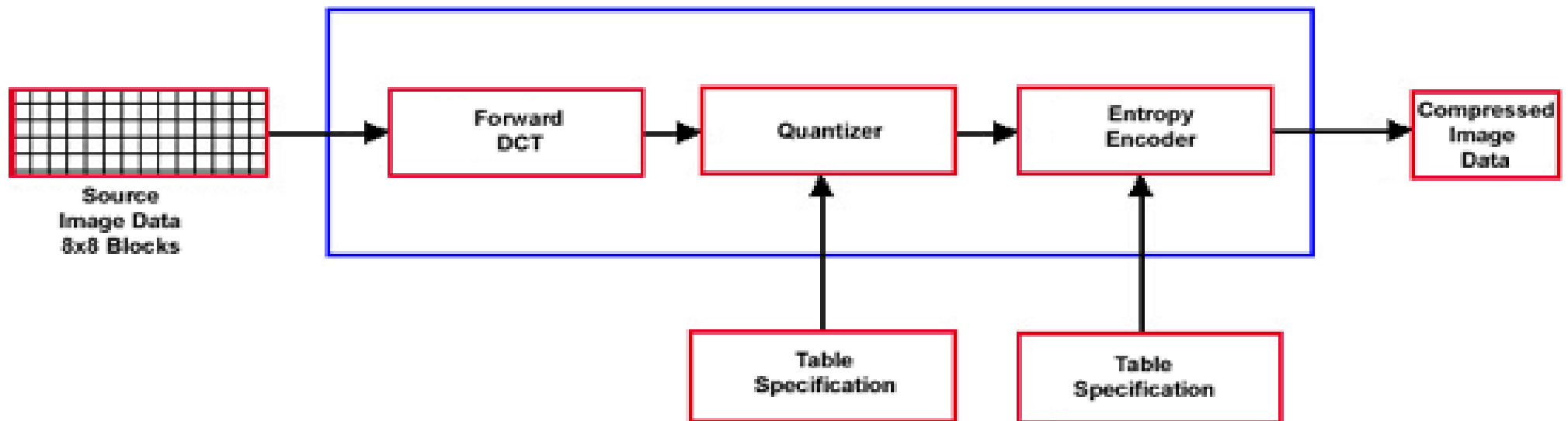
$$C(u, v) = \alpha(u) \alpha(v) \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y) \cos \left[ \frac{\pi(2x+1)u}{2N} \right] \cos \left[ \frac{\pi(2y+1)v}{2N} \right]$$

♠ Where  $\alpha(u)$  and  $\alpha(v)$  are defined as shown in the 1D case.

♠ 2D DCT is  $O(n^3)$

# Image compression

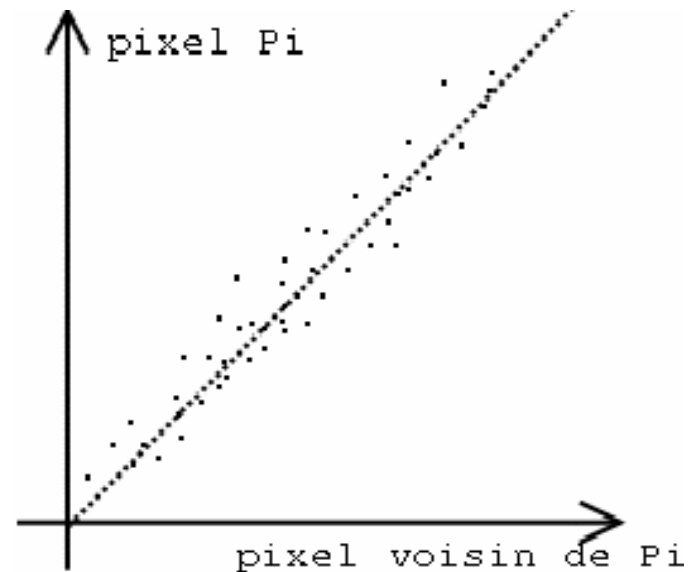
- an image compression system has three main blocks



- a transform (usually DCT on 8x8 blocks)
- a quantizer
- a lossless (entropy) coder
- each tries to throw away information which is not essential to understand the image, but consume bits

# Image compression

- the transform throws away correlations
  - if you make a plot of the value of a pixel as a function of one of its neighbors



- you will see that the pixels are highly correlated (i.e. most of the time they are very similar)
- this is just a consequence of the fact that surfaces are smooth



# Image compression

- the transform eliminates these correlations
  - this is best seen by considering the 2-pt transform
  - note that the first coefficient is always the DC-value

$$X[0] = x[0] + x[1]$$

- an orthogonal transform can be written in matrix form as

$$X = Tx, \quad T^T T = I$$

- i.e.  $T$  has orthogonal columns
- this means that

$$X[1] = x[0] - x[1]$$

- note that if  $x[0]$  similar to  $x[1]$ , then

$$\begin{cases} X[0] = x[0] + x[1] \approx 2x[0] \\ X[1] = x[0] - x[1] \approx 0 \end{cases}$$

# Image compression

- in the transform domain we only have to transmit one number without any significant cost in image quality
- by "decorrelating" the signal we reduced the bit rate to  $\frac{1}{2}$
- note that an orthogonal matrix

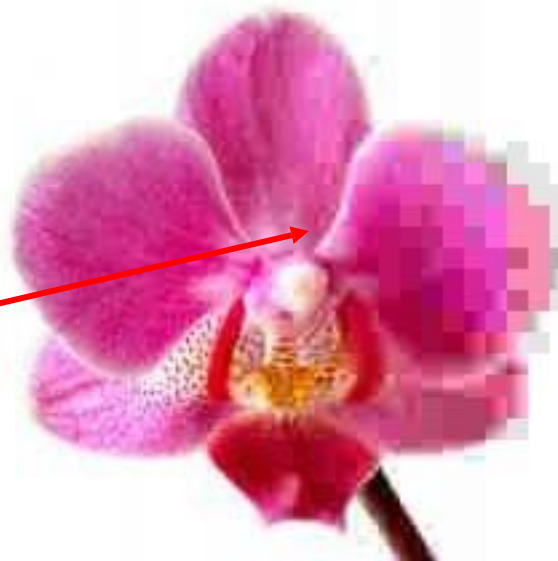
$$T^T T = I$$

applies a rotation to the pixel space

- this aligns the data with the canonical axes

# Image compression

- a second advantage of working in the frequency domain
  - is that our visual system is less sensitive to distortion around edges
  - the transition associated with the edge masks our ability to perceive the noise
  - e.g. if you blow up a compressed picture, it is likely to look like this
  - in general, the compression errors are more annoying in the smooth image regions





# Image compression

- three JPEG examples



36KB



5.7KB



1.7KB

– note that the blockiness is more visible more to compression

# Image compression

- the transform
  - does not save any bits
  - does not introduce any distortion
- But is possible when we throw away information
- this is called “lossy compression” and implemented by the quantizer

# Image compression

- what is a quantizer?
  - think of the `round()` function, that rounds to the nearest integer
  - $\text{round}(1) = 1$ ;  $\text{round}(0.55543) = 1$ ;  $\text{round}(0.0000005) = 0$
  - instead of an infinite range between 0 and 1 (infinite number of bits to transmit)
  - the output is zero or one (1 bit)
  - we threw away all the stuff in between, but saved a lot of bits
  - a quantizer does this less drastically

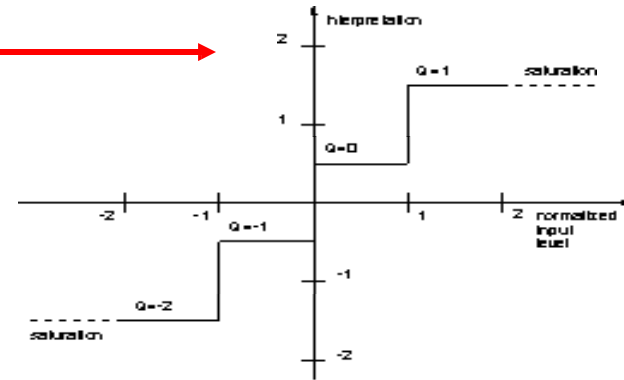


# Quantizer

- it is a function of this type
  - inputs in a given range are mapped to the same output
- to implement this, we
  - 1) define a quantizer step size  $Q$
  - 2) apply a rounding function

$$x_q = \text{round}(x/Q)$$

- the larger the  $Q$ , the less reconstruction levels
- more compression at the cost of larger distortion
- e.g. for  $x$  in  $[0, 255]$ , we need 8 bits and have 256 color values
- with  $Q = 64$ , we only have 4 levels and only need 2 bits
- with  $Q = 32$ ; how many bits required?



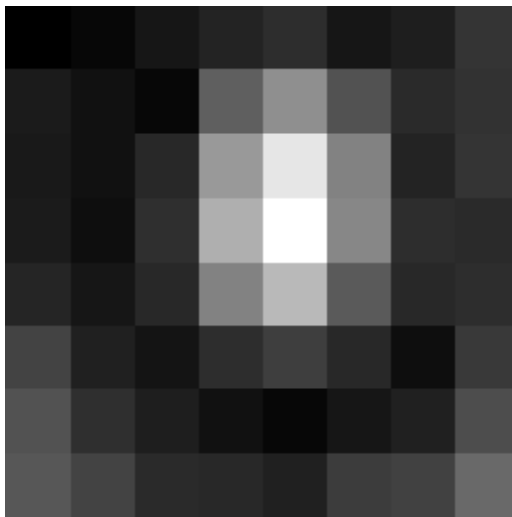
# Quantizer

- e.g. for  $x$  in  $[0,255]$ , we need 8 bits and have 256 color values
- with  $Q = 64$ , we only have 4 levels and only need 2 bits
- with  $Q = 32$ , we only have 8 levels and only need 3 bits hence compression ratio is  $8/3 = (2.67):1$

—

# Quantizer

- note that we can quantize some frequency coefficients more heavily than others by simply increasing  $Q$
- this leads to the idea of a quantization matrix
- we start with an image block (e.g. 8x8 pixels)

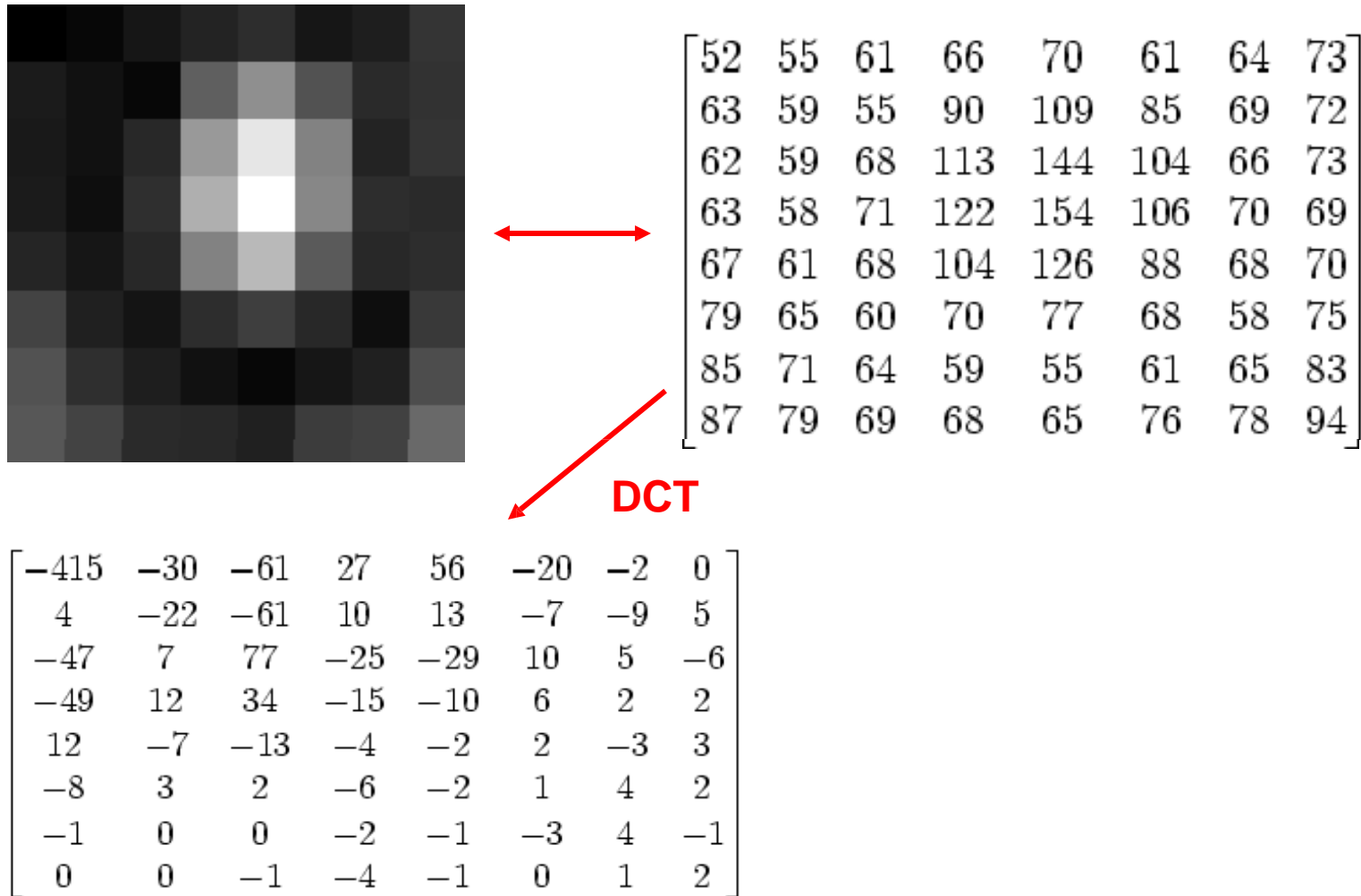


52	55	61	66	70	61	64	73
63	59	55	90	109	85	69	72
62	59	68	113	144	104	66	73
63	58	71	122	154	106	70	69
67	61	68	104	126	88	68	70
79	65	60	70	77	68	58	75
85	71	64	59	55	61	65	83
87	79	69	68	65	76	78	94



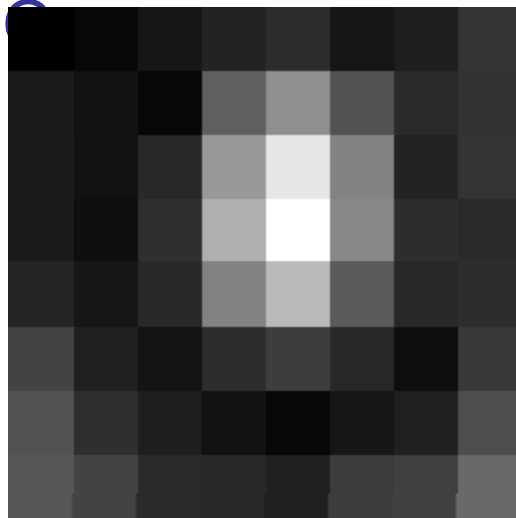
# Quantizer

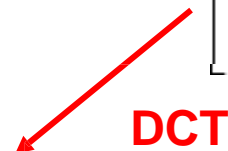
- next we apply a transform (e.g. 8x8 DCT)



# Quantizer

- and quantize with a varying



$$\begin{bmatrix} 52 & 55 & 61 & 66 & 70 & 61 & 64 & 73 \\ 63 & 59 & 55 & 90 & 109 & 85 & 69 & 72 \\ 62 & 59 & 68 & 113 & 144 & 104 & 66 & 73 \\ 63 & 58 & 71 & 122 & 154 & 106 & 70 & 69 \\ 67 & 61 & 68 & 104 & 126 & 88 & 68 & 70 \\ 79 & 65 & 60 & 70 & 77 & 68 & 58 & 75 \\ 85 & 71 & 64 & 59 & 55 & 61 & 65 & 83 \\ 87 & 79 & 69 & 68 & 65 & 76 & 78 & 94 \end{bmatrix}$$


**DCT**

$$\begin{bmatrix} -415 & -30 & -61 & 27 & 56 & -20 & -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -22 & -61 & 10 & 13 & -7 & -9 & 5 \\ -47 & 7 & 77 & -25 & -29 & 10 & 5 & -6 \\ -49 & 12 & 34 & -15 & -10 & 6 & 2 & 2 \\ 12 & -7 & -13 & -4 & -2 & 2 & -3 & 3 \\ -8 & 3 & 2 & -6 & -2 & 1 & 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & -2 & -1 & -3 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Q mtx**



$$\begin{bmatrix} 16 & 11 & 10 & 16 & 24 & 40 & 51 & 61 \\ 12 & 12 & 14 & 19 & 26 & 58 & 60 & 55 \\ 14 & 13 & 16 & 24 & 40 & 57 & 69 & 56 \\ 14 & 17 & 22 & 29 & 51 & 87 & 80 & 62 \\ 18 & 22 & 37 & 56 & 68 & 109 & 103 & 77 \\ 24 & 35 & 55 & 64 & 81 & 104 & 113 & 92 \\ 49 & 64 & 78 & 87 & 103 & 121 & 120 & 101 \\ 72 & 92 & 95 & 98 & 112 & 100 & 103 & 99 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Quantizer

- note that higher frequencies are quantized more heavily

Q mtx

16	11	10	16	24	40	51	61
12	12	14	1	40	57	69	56
14	13	16	24	51	87	80	62
14	17	22	29	68	109	103	77
18	22	37	56	81	104	113	92
24	35	55	64	103	121	120	101
49	64	78	87	112	100	103	99
72	92	95	98				

increasing frequency

- in result, many high frequency coefficients are simply wiped out

DCT

-415	-30	-61	27	56	-20	-2	0
4	-22	-61	10	13	-7	-9	5
-47	7	77	-25	-29	10	5	-6
-49	12	34	-15	-10	6	2	2
12	-7	-13	-4	-2	2	-3	3
-8	3	2	-6	-2	1	4	2
-1	0	0	-2	-1	-3	4	-1
0	0	-1	-4	-1	0	1	2



quantized DCT

-26	-3	-6	2	2	-1	0	0
0	-2	-4	1	1	0	0	0
-3	1	5	-1	-1	0	0	0
-4	1	2	-1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

# Quantizer

- this saves a lot of bits, but we no longer have an exact replica of original image block

DCT

$$\begin{bmatrix} -415 & -30 & -61 & 27 & 56 & -20 & -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -22 & -61 & 10 & 13 & -7 & -9 & 5 \\ -47 & 7 & 77 & -25 & -29 & 10 & 5 & -6 \\ -49 & 12 & 34 & -15 & -10 & 6 & 2 & 2 \\ 12 & -7 & -13 & -4 & -2 & 2 & -3 & 3 \\ -8 & 3 & 2 & -6 & -2 & 1 & 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & -2 & -1 & -3 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

quantized DCT

$$\begin{bmatrix} -26 & -3 & -6 & 2 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -4 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 5 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

inverse DCT

$$\begin{bmatrix} 60 & 63 & 55 & 58 & 70 & 61 & 58 & 80 \\ 58 & 56 & 56 & 83 & 108 & 88 & 63 & 71 \\ 60 & 52 & 62 & 113 & 150 & 116 & 70 & 67 \\ 66 & 56 & 68 & 122 & 156 & 116 & 69 & 72 \\ 69 & 62 & 65 & 100 & 120 & 86 & 59 & 76 \\ 68 & 68 & 61 & 68 & 78 & 60 & 53 & 78 \\ 74 & 82 & 67 & 54 & 63 & 64 & 65 & 83 \\ 83 & 96 & 77 & 56 & 70 & 83 & 83 & 89 \end{bmatrix}$$

original pixels

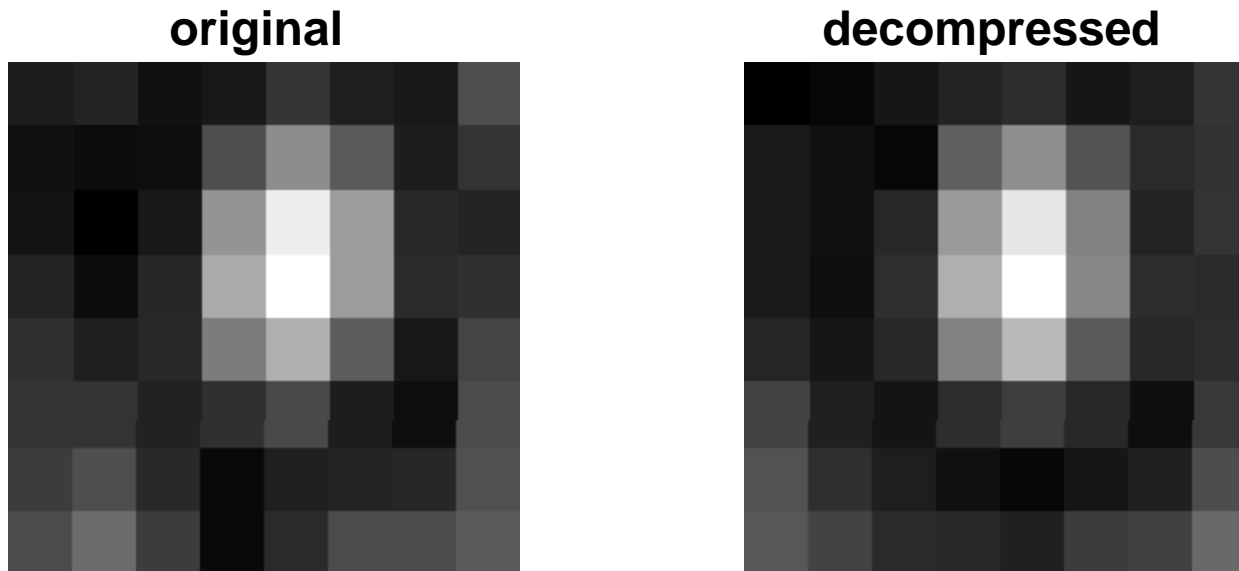
$$\begin{bmatrix} 52 & 55 & 61 & 66 & 70 & 61 & 64 & 73 \\ 63 & 59 & 55 & 90 & 109 & 85 & 69 & 72 \\ 62 & 59 & 68 & 113 & 144 & 104 & 66 & 73 \\ 63 & 58 & 71 & 122 & 154 & 106 & 70 & 69 \\ 67 & 61 & 68 & 104 & 126 & 88 & 68 & 70 \\ 79 & 65 & 60 & 70 & 77 & 68 & 58 & 75 \\ 85 & 71 & 64 & 59 & 55 & 61 & 65 & 83 \\ 87 & 79 & 69 & 68 & 65 & 76 & 78 & 94 \end{bmatrix}$$

≠



# Quantizer

- note, however, that visually the blocks are not very different



- we have saved lots of bits without much “perceptual” loss
- this is the reason why JPEG and MPEG work

# Image compression

- three JPEG examples



36KB



5.7KB



1.7KB



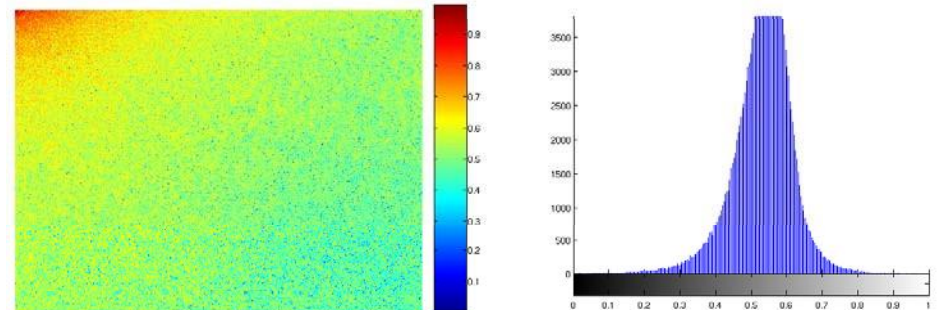
- note that the two images on the left look identical
- JPEG requires 6x less bits

# Discrete Cosine Transform

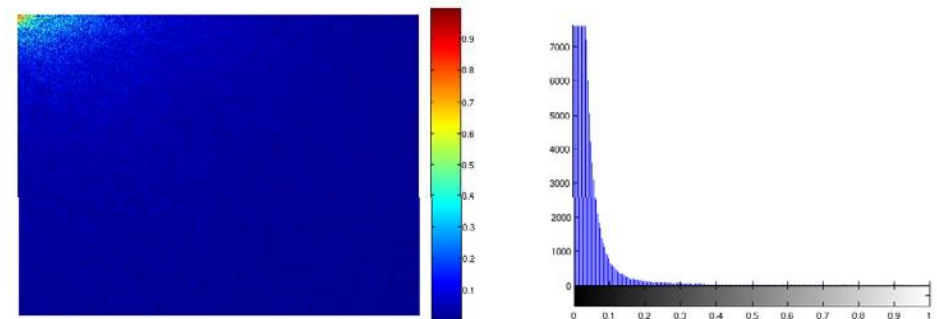
- note that
  - the better the energy compaction
  - the larger the number of coefficients that get wiped out
  - the greater the bit savings for the same loss
- this is why the DCT is important
- we will do mostly the 1D-DCT
  - the formulae are simpler the insights the same
  - as always, extension to 2D is trivial



**DFT**



**DCT**



# Discrete Cosine Transform (Formal)

- the first thing to note is that there are various versions of the DCT
  - these are usually known as DCT-I to DCT-IV
  - they vary in minor details
  - the most popular is the DCT-II, also known as even symmetric DCT, or as “the DCT”

$$w[k] = \begin{cases} 1/2, & k = 0 \\ 1, & 1 \leq k < N \end{cases}$$

$$C_x[k] = \begin{cases} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} 2x[n] \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2N} k(2n+1)\right), & 0 \leq k < N \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$x[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} w[k] C_x[k] \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2N} k(2n+1)\right) & 0 \leq n < N \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Energy compaction

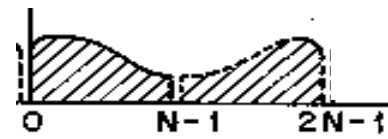
$$\underbrace{x[n]}_{N-pt} \leftrightarrow \underbrace{y[n]}_{2N-pt} \xleftrightarrow{DFT} \underbrace{Y[k]}_{2N-pt} \leftrightarrow \underbrace{C_x[k]}_{N-pt}$$

- To understand the energy compaction property
  - we start by considering the sequence  $y[n] = x[n] + x[2N-1-n]$
  - this just consists of adding a mirrored version of  $x[n]$  to itself

$x[n]$



$y[n]$



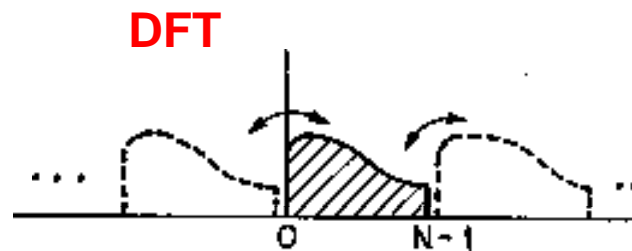
- next we remember that the DFT is identical to the DFS of the periodic extension of the sequence
- let's look at the periodic extensions for the two cases
  - when transform is DFT: we work with extension of  $x[n]$
  - when transform is DCT: we work with extension of  $y[n]$



# Energy compaction

$$\underbrace{x[n]}_{N-pt} \leftrightarrow \underbrace{y[n]}_{2N-pt} \xleftrightarrow{DFT} \underbrace{Y[k]}_{2N-pt} \leftrightarrow \underbrace{C_x[k]}_{N-pt}$$

- the two extensions are



- note that in the DFT case the extension introduces discontinuities
- this does not happen for the DCT, due to the symmetry of  $y[n]$
- the elimination of this artificial discontinuity, which contains a lot of high frequencies,
- is the reason why the DCT is much more efficient

# Fast algorithms

- The interpretation of the DCT as

$$\underbrace{x[n]}_{N-pt} \leftrightarrow \underbrace{y[n]}_{2N-pt} \xleftrightarrow{DFT} \underbrace{Y[k]}_{2N-pt} \leftrightarrow \underbrace{C_x[k]}_{N-pt}$$

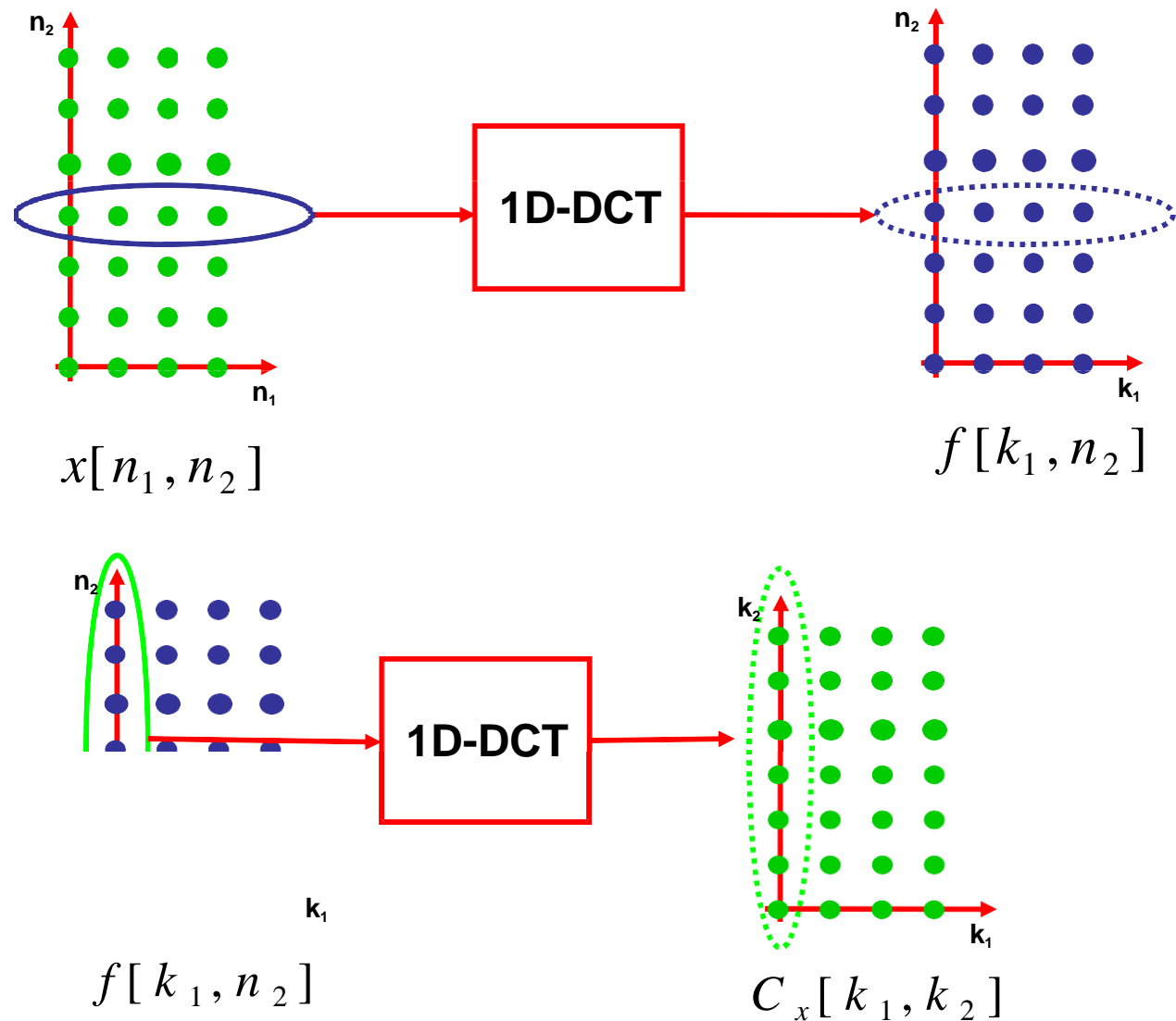
- also gives us a fast algorithm for its computation
- it consists exactly of the three steps
- 1)  $y[n] = x[n] + x[2N-1-n]$
- 2)  $Y[k] = \text{DFT}\{y[n]\}$   
this can be computed with a 2N-pt FFT

$$3) \quad C_x[k] = \begin{cases} e^{-j\frac{\pi}{2N}k} Y[k], & 0 \leq k < N \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- the complexity of the N-pt DCT is that of the 2N-pt DFT

# 2D-DCT

- 1) create intermediate sequence by computing 1D-DCT of rows
- 2) compute 1D-DCT of columns



# Properties of DCT:

- De correlation
- Energy Compaction
- Separability
- Symmetry
- Orthogonality

# De correlation:

- The principle advantage of image transformation is the removal of redundancy between neighboring pixels. **This leads to uncorrelated transform coefficients which can be encoded independently.**
- **The amplitude of the autocorrelation after the DCT operation is very small at all lags.** Hence, it can be inferred that **DCT exhibits excellent de correlation properties.**

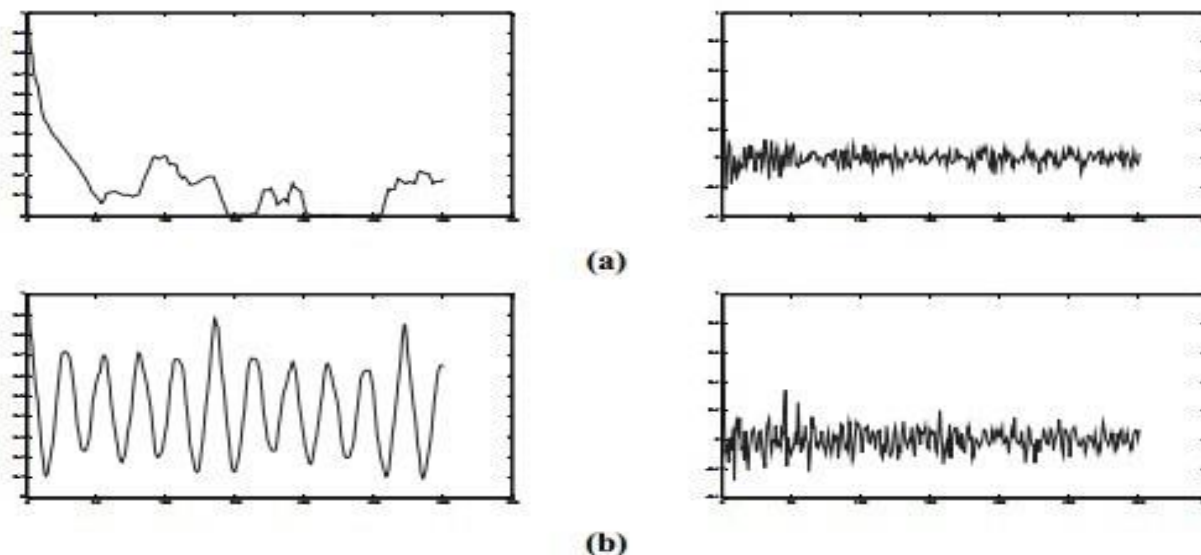
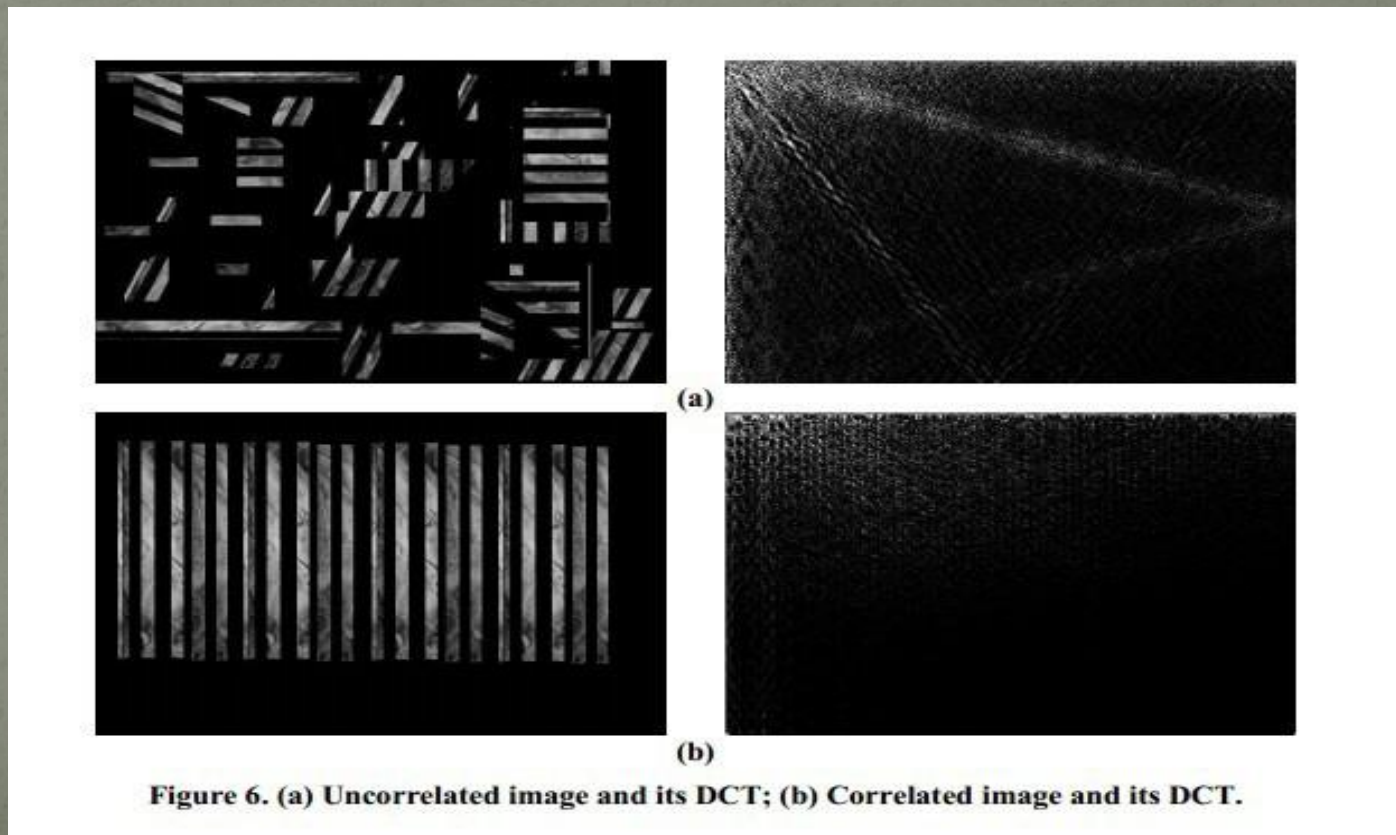


Figure 5. (a) Normalized autocorrelation of uncorrelated image before and after DCT; (b) Normalized autocorrelation of correlated image before and after DCT.



# Energy Compaction:

- Efficiency of a transformation scheme can be directly gauged by its **ability to pack input data into as few coefficients as possible**. This **allows the quantizer to discard coefficients with relatively small amplitudes without introducing visual distortion** in the reconstructed image. **DCT exhibits excellent energy compaction for highly correlated images.**



# Separability:

- The principle advantage that  $C(u, v)$  can be computed in **two steps by successive 1-D operations** on rows and columns of an image.

$$C(u, v) = \alpha(u)\alpha(v) \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y) \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2x+1)u}{2N}\right] \cos\left[\frac{\pi(2y+1)v}{2N}\right]$$

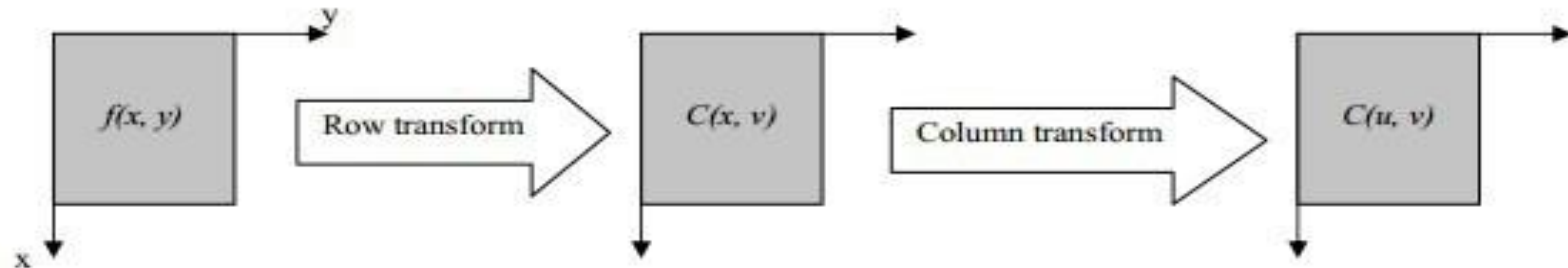


Figure 8. Computation of 2-D DCT using separability property.



# Symmetry:

- A separable and symmetric transform can be expressed in the form

$$T = AfA ,$$

where  $A$  is an  $N \times N$  symmetric transformation matrix with entries  $a(i, j)$  given by,

$$a(i, j) = \alpha(j) \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \cos \left[ \frac{\pi(2j+1)i}{2N} \right],$$

and  $f$  is the  $N \times N$  image matrix.

- This is an extremely useful property since it implies that **the transformation matrix can be pre computed offline** and then applied to the image thereby providing orders of magnitude improvement in computation efficiency.

# Orthogonality:

- The inverse transformation as

$$f = A^{-1} T A^{-1}.$$

DCT basis functions are **orthogonal**. The **inverse transformation matrix of  $A$  is equal to its transpose i.e.**

$$A^{-1} = A^T.$$

Therefore, and in addition to its de correlation characteristics, this property **renders some reduction in the pre-computation complexity**



# Significance/Where is this DCT used?

- Image Processing
  - Compression - Ex.) JPEG
  - Scientific Analysis - Ex.) Radio Telescope Data
- Audio Processing
  - Compression - Ex.) MPEG – Layer 3, aka. MP3
- Scientific Computing /  
High Performance Computing (HPC)
  - Partial Differential Equation Solvers



# Limitation of DCT:

- **Truncation of higher spectral coefficients results in blurring** of the images, especially wherever the details are high.
- **Coarse quantization of some of the low spectral coefficients introduces graininess** in the smooth portions of the images.
- **Serious blocking artifacts are introduced at the boundaries, since each block is independently encoded**, often with a different encoding strategy and the extent of quantization.