

COMP2610 / 6261 - Information Theory

Lecture 14: Source Coding Theorem for Symbol Codes

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Last time

Variable-length codes

Uniquely decodable and prefix codes

- Prefix codes as trees

Kraft's inequality:

Lengths $\{\ell_i\}_{i=1}^I$ can form a prefix code $\iff \sum_{i=1}^I 2^{-\ell_i} \leq 1$

How to **generate** prefix codes?

Prefix Codes (Recap)

A simple property of codes **guarantees** unique decodeability

Prefix property

A codeword $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^+$ is said to be a **prefix** of another codeword $\mathbf{c}' \in \{0, 1\}^+$ if there exists a string $\mathbf{t} \in \{0, 1\}^+$ such that $\mathbf{c}' = \mathbf{c}\mathbf{t}$.

Can you create \mathbf{c}' by gluing something to the end of \mathbf{c} ?

- **Example:** 01101 has prefixes 0, 01, 011, 0110.

Prefix Codes

A code $C = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_l\}$ is a **prefix code** if for every codeword $\mathbf{c}_i \in C$ there is no prefix of \mathbf{c}_i in C .

In a stream, no confusing one codeword with another

Prefix Codes as Trees (Recap)

$$C_2 = \{0, 10, 110, 111\}$$

0	00	000	0000
			0001
		001	0010
			0011
	01	010	0100
			0101
		011	0110
			0111
1	10	100	1000
			1001
		101	1010
			1011
	11	110	1100
			1101
		111	1110
			1111

This time

Bound on expected length for a prefix code

Shannon codes

Huffman coding

- 1 Expected Code Length
 - Minimising Expected Code Length
 - Shannon Coding
- 2 The Source Coding Theorem for Symbol Codes
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 - Algorithm and Examples
 - Advantages and Disadvantages

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Expected Code Length

With uniform codes, the length of a message of N outcomes is trivial to compute

With variable-length codes, the length of a message of N outcomes will depend on the outcomes we observe

Outcomes we observe have some uncertainty

- On **average**, what length of message can we expect?

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Expected Code Length

The **expected length** for a code C for ensemble X with $\mathcal{A}_X = \{a_1, \dots, a_I\}$ and $\mathcal{P}_X = \{p_1, \dots, p_I\}$ is

$$L(C, X) = \mathbb{E}[\ell(x)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}_X} p(x) \ell(x) = \sum_{i=1}^I p_i \ell_i$$

Expected Code Length: Examples

Example: X has $\mathcal{A}_X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}\}$

➊ The code $C_1 = \{0001, 0010, 0100, 1000\}$ has

$$L(C_1, X) = \sum_{i=1}^4 p_i \ell_i = 4$$

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- 1 The code $C_1 = \{0001, 0010, 0100, 1000\}$ has

$$L(C_1, X) = \sum_{i=1}^4 p_i \ell_i = 4$$

- 2 The code $C_2 = \{0, 10, 110, 111\}$ has

$$L(C_2, X) = \sum_{i=1}^4 p_i \ell_i = \frac{1}{2} \times 1 + \frac{1}{4} \times 2 + \frac{1}{8} \times 3 + \frac{1}{8} \times 3 = 2.25$$

Code Lengths and Probabilities

The *Kraft inequality* says that $\{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_I\}$ are prefix code lengths **iff**

$$\sum_{i=1}^I 2^{-\ell_i} \leq 1$$

If it were true that

$$\sum_{i=1}^I 2^{-\ell_i} = 1$$

then we could interpret

$$\mathbf{q} = (2^{-\ell_1}, \dots, 2^{-\ell_I})$$

as a **probability vector** over I outcomes

General lengths ℓ ?

Code Lengths and Probabilities

Probabilities from Code Lengths

Given code lengths $\ell = \{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_I\}$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^I 2^{-\ell_i} \leq 1$, we define $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, \dots, q_I\}$, the **probabilities** for ℓ , by

$$q_i = \frac{2^{-\ell_i}}{z}$$

where

$$z = \sum_i 2^{-\ell_i}$$

ensure that q_i satisfy $\sum_i q_i = 1$.

Note: this implies $\ell_i = \log_2 \frac{1}{zq_i}$

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Examples:

- Lengths $\{1, 2, 2\}$ give $z = 1$ so $q_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $q_2 = \frac{1}{4}$, and $q_3 = \frac{1}{4}$

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Examples:

- 1 Lengths $\{1, 2, 2\}$ give $z = 1$ so $q_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $q_2 = \frac{1}{4}$, and $q_3 = \frac{1}{4}$
- 2 Lengths $\{2, 2, 3\}$ give $z = \frac{5}{8}$ so $q_1 = \frac{5}{8}$, $q_2 = \frac{2}{5}$, and $q_3 = \frac{1}{5}$

Minimising Expected Code Length

The probability view of lengths will be useful in answering:

Goal of compression

Given an ensemble X with probabilities $\mathcal{P}_X = \mathbf{p} = \{p_1, \dots, p_I\}$ how can we **minimise** the expected code length?

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Limits of compression

Given an ensemble X with probabilities \mathbf{p} , and prefix code C with codeword length probabilities \mathbf{q} and normalisation z ,

$$\begin{aligned} L(C, X) &= H(X) + D_{\text{KL}}(\mathbf{p} \parallel \mathbf{q}) + \log_2 \frac{1}{z} \\ &\geq H(X), \end{aligned}$$

with equality only when $\ell_i = \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}$.

Minimising Expected Code Length

Suppose we use code C with lengths $\ell = \{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_I\}$ and corresponding probabilities $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, \dots, q_I\}$ with $q_i = \frac{1}{Z}2^{-\ell_i}$. Then,

$$L(C, X) = \sum_i p_i \ell_i$$

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Minimising Expected Code Length

So if $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, \dots, q_I\}$ are the probabilities for the code lengths of C then under ensemble X with probabilities $\mathbf{p} = \{p_1, \dots, p_I\}$

$$L(C, X) = H(X) + D_{\text{KL}}(p \| q) + \log_2 \frac{1}{Z}$$

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Thus, $L(C, X)$ is minimal (and equal to the entropy $H(X)$) if we can choose code lengths so that $D_{\text{KL}}(\mathbf{p} \| \mathbf{q}) = 0$ and $\log_2 \frac{1}{Z} = 0$

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But the *relative entropy* $D_{\text{KL}}(\mathbf{p} \parallel \mathbf{q}) \geq 0$ with $D_{\text{KL}}(\mathbf{p} \parallel \mathbf{q}) = 0$ iff $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{p}$ (Gibb's inequality)

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For $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{p}$, we have $z \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_i q_i = \sum_i p_i = 1$ and so $\log_2 \frac{1}{z} = 0$

Entropy as a Lower Bound on Expected Length

We have shown that for a code C with lengths corresponding to \mathbf{q} ,

$$L(C, X) \geq H(X)$$

with equality only when C has code lengths $\ell_i = \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}$

Once again, the entropy determines a lower bound on how much compression is possible

- $L(C, X)$ refers to *average* compression
- Individual message length could be bigger than the entropy

Shannon Codes

If we pick lengths $\ell_i = \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}$, we get optimal expected code lengths

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Shannon Code

Given an ensemble X with $\mathcal{P}_X = \{p_1, \dots, p_I\}$ define codelengths $\ell = \{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_I\}$ by

$$\ell_i = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil \geq \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}.$$

A code C is called a **Shannon code** if it has codelengths ℓ .

Here $\lceil x \rceil$ is “smallest integer not smaller than x ”. e.g., $\lceil 2.1 \rceil = 3$, $\lceil 5 \rceil = 5$.

This gives us code lengths that are “closest” to $\log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}$

Shannon Codes: Examples

Examples:

- 1 If $\mathcal{P}_X = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\}$ then $\ell = \{1, 2, 2\}$ so $C = \{0, 10, 11\}$ is a Shannon code (in fact, this code has *optimal* length)

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- 2 If $\mathcal{P}_X = \{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\}$ then $\ell = \{2, 2, 2\}$ with Shannon code $C = \{00, 10, 11\}$ (or $C = \{01, 10, 11\} \dots$)

Source Coding Theorem for Symbol Codes

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For any ensemble X , there exists a prefix code C such that

$$H(X) \leq L(C, X) < H(X) + 1.$$

In particular, **Shannon codes** C — those with lengths $\ell_i = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil$ — have *expected code length within 1 bit of the entropy*.

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Entropy also gives a guideline upper bound of compression

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Therefore, if we create a Shannon code C for $\mathbf{p} = \{p_1, \dots, p_I\}$ with $\ell_i = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil < \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} + 1$ it will satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} L(C, X) &= \sum_i p_i \ell_i < \sum_i p_i \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} + 1 = \sum_i p_i \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} + \sum_i p_i \\ &= H(X) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

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Furthermore, since $\ell_i \geq -\log_2 p_i$ we have $2^{-\ell_i} \leq 2^{\log_2 p_i} = p_i$, so $\sum_i 2^{-\ell_i} \leq \sum_i p_i = 1$. By Kraft there is a *prefix code* with lengths ℓ_i

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Examples:

④ If $\mathcal{P}_X = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\}$ then $\ell = \{1, 2, 2\}$ and $H(X) = \frac{3}{2} = L(C, X)$

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- ② If $\mathcal{P}_X = \{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\}$ then $\ell = \{2, 2, 2\}$ and $H(X) = \log_2 3 \approx 1.58 \leq L(C, X) = 2 \leq 2.58 \approx H(X) + 1$

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The Source Coding Theorem for Symbol Codes

The previous arguments have established:

Source Coding Theorem for Symbol Codes

For any ensemble X there exists a *prefix code* C such that

$$H(X) \leq L(C, X) < H(X) + 1.$$

In particular, **Shannon codes** C — those with lengths $\ell_i = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil$ — have *expected code length within 1 bit of the entropy*.

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This is good, but is it **optimal**?

Shannon codes are suboptimal

Example: Consider $p_1 = 0.0001$ and $p_2 = 0.9999$. (Note $H(X) \approx 0.0013$)

- The Shannon code C has lengths $\ell_1 = \lceil \log_2 10000 \rceil = 14$ and $\ell_2 = \lceil \log_2 \frac{10000}{9999} \rceil = 1$
- The expected length is $L(C, X) = 14 \times 0.0001 + 1 \times 0.9999 = 1.0013$
- But clearly $C' = \{0, 1\}$ is a prefix code and $L(C', X) = 1$

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- The expected length is $L(C, X) = 14 \times 0.0001 + 1 \times 0.9999 = 1.0013$
- But clearly $C' = \{0, 1\}$ is a prefix code and $L(C', X) = 1$

Shannon codes do not necessarily have **smallest** expected length

This is perhaps disappointing, as these codes were constructed very naturally from the theorem

- Fortunately, there is another simple code that **is** provably optimal

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Constructing a Huffman Code

Huffman Coding is a procedure for making **provably optimal** prefix codes

It assigns the longest codewords to least probable symbols

Basic algorithm:

- Take the two least probable symbols in the alphabet
- Prepend bits 0 and 1 to current codewords of symbols
- Combine these two symbols into a single “meta-symbol”
- Repeat

Huffman Coding: Example 1

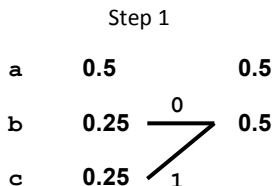
Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\}$

Step 1

a	0.5
b	0.25
c	0.25

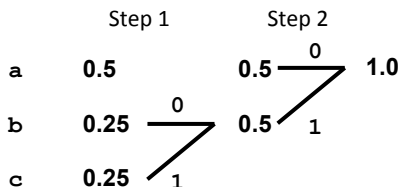
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Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\}$



Now we read off the labelling implied by path from the last meta-symbol to each of the original symbols: $C = \{0, 10, 11\}$

Huffman Coding: Example 2

$$\mathcal{A}_X = \{a, b, c, d, e\} \text{ and } \mathcal{P}_X = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$$

x	step 1	step 2	step 3	step 4	
a	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.55	1.0
b	0.25	0.25	0.45	0.45	
c	0.2	0.2	0.3		
d	0.15	0.3	0.3		
e	0.15				

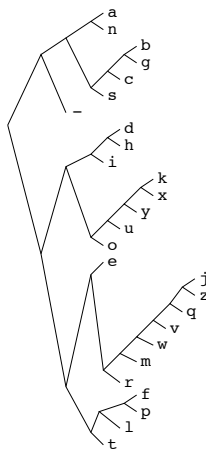
From Example 5.15 of MacKay

$$C = \{00, 10, 11, 010, 011\}$$

Huffman Coding: Example 3

English letters – Monogram statistics

a_i	p_i	$\log_2 \frac{1}{p_i}$	l_i	$c(a_i)$
a	0.0575	4.1	4	0000
b	0.0128	6.3	6	001000
c	0.0263	5.2	5	00101
d	0.0285	5.1	5	10000
e	0.0913	3.5	4	1100
f	0.0173	5.9	6	111000
g	0.0133	6.2	6	001001
h	0.0313	5.0	5	10001
i	0.0599	4.1	4	1001
j	0.0006	10.7	10	1101000000
k	0.0084	6.9	7	1010000
l	0.0335	4.9	5	11101
m	0.0235	5.4	6	110101
n	0.0596	4.1	4	0001
o	0.0689	3.9	4	1011
p	0.0192	5.7	6	111001
q	0.0008	10.3	9	110100001
r	0.0508	4.3	5	11011
s	0.0567	4.1	4	0011
t	0.0706	3.8	4	1111
u	0.0334	4.9	5	10101
v	0.0069	7.2	8	11010001
w	0.0119	6.4	7	1101001
x	0.0073	7.1	7	1010001
y	0.0164	5.9	6	101001
z	0.0007	10.4	10	1101000001
-	0.1928	2.4	2	01



x	$P(x)$
a	0.0575
b	0.0128
c	0.0263
d	0.0285
e	0.0913
f	0.0173
g	0.0133
h	0.0313
i	0.0599
j	0.0006
k	0.0084
l	0.0335
m	0.0235
n	0.0596
o	0.0689
p	0.0192
q	0.0008
r	0.0508
s	0.0567
t	0.0706
u	0.0334
v	0.0069
w	0.0119
x	0.0073
y	0.0164
z	0.0007
-	0.1928

Huffman Coding: Formally

HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

- 1 If $|\mathcal{A}| = 2$ return $C = \{0, 1\}$; else
- 2 Let $a, a' \in \mathcal{A}$ be *least probable* symbols.
- 3 Let $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A} - \{a, a'\} \cup \{aa'\}$
- 4 Let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} - \{p_a, p_{a'}\} \cup \{p_{aa'}\}$ where $p_{aa'} = p_a + p_{a'}$
- 5 Compute $C' = \text{HUFFMAN}(\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{P}')$
- 6 Define C by
 - ▶ $c(a) = c'(aa')0$
 - ▶ $c(a') = c'(aa')1$
 - ▶ $c(x) = c'(x)$ for $x \in \mathcal{A}'$
- 7 Return C

Huffman Coding: Example 1

Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\}$

- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

- ▶ b and c are least probable with $p_a = p_b = \frac{1}{4}$

Huffman Coding: Example 1

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- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

- ▶ b and c are least probable with $p_a = p_b = \frac{1}{4}$
- ▶ $\mathcal{A}' = \{a, \mathbf{bc}\}$ and $\mathcal{P}' = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\}$

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- ▶ b and c are least probable with $p_a = p_b = \frac{1}{4}$
- ▶ $\mathcal{A}' = \{a, \mathbf{bc}\}$ and $\mathcal{P}' = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\}$
- ▶ Call HUFFMAN($\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{P}'$):
 - $|\mathcal{A}| = |\{a, bc\}| = 2$
 - Return code with $c'(a) = 0$, $c'(\mathbf{bc}) = 1$

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 - Return code with $c'(a) = 0$, $\mathbf{c'(bc) = 1}$
- ▶ Define
 - $c(b) = c'(bc)0 = \mathbf{10}$
 - $c(c) = c'(bc)1 = \mathbf{11}$
 - $c(a) = c'(a) = \mathbf{0}$

Huffman Coding: Example 1

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- ▶ Return $C = \{0, 10, 11\}$

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 - $|\mathcal{A}| = |\{a, bc\}| = 2$
 - Return code with $c'(a) = 0$, $c'(bc) = 1$
- ▶ Define
 - $c(b) = c'(bc)0 = 10$
 - $c(c) = c'(bc)1 = 11$
 - $c(a) = c'(a) = 0$
- ▶ Return $C = \{0, 10, 11\}$

The constructed code has $L(C, X) = \frac{1}{2} \times 1 + \frac{1}{4} \times (2 + 2) = 1.5$.

The entropy is $H(X) = 1.5$.

Huffman Coding: Example 2

Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

Huffman Coding: Example 2

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- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

- ▶ $\mathcal{A}' = \{a, b, c, de\}$ and $\mathcal{P}' = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.3\}$

Huffman Coding: Example 2

Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

- $\text{HUFFMAN}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P})$:

- ▶ $\mathcal{A}' = \{a, b, c, de\}$ and $\mathcal{P}' = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.3\}$

- ▶ Call $\text{HUFFMAN}(\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{P}')$:

Huffman Coding: Example 2

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- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

- ▶ $\mathcal{A}' = \{a, b, c, de\}$ and $\mathcal{P}' = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.3\}$

- ▶ Call HUFFMAN($\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{P}'$):

- $\mathcal{A}'' = \{a, bc, de\}$ and $\mathcal{P}'' = \{0.25, 0.45, 0.3\}$

Huffman Coding: Example 2

Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

- ▶ $\mathcal{A}' = \{a, b, c, de\}$ and $\mathcal{P}' = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.3\}$

- ▶ Call HUFFMAN($\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{P}'$):

- $\mathcal{A}'' = \{a, bc, de\}$ and $\mathcal{P}'' = \{0.25, 0.45, 0.3\}$

- Call HUFFMAN($\mathcal{A}'', \mathcal{P}''$):

- $\mathcal{A}''' = \{ade, bc\}$ and $\mathcal{P}''' = \{0.55, 0.45\}$

- Return $c'''(ade) = 0, c'''(bc) = 1$

Huffman Coding: Example 2

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- Return $c'''(ade) = 0, c'''(bc) = 1$

- Return $c''(a) = 00, c''(bc) = 1, c''(de) = 01$

Huffman Coding: Example 2

Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

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- ▶ Return $c'(a) = 00, c'(b) = 10, c'(c) = 11, c'(de) = 01$

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Start with $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

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- Return $c(a) = 00, c(b) = 10, c(c) = 11, c(d) = 010, c(e) = 011$

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- HUFFMAN(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}):

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- Return $c'''(ade) = 0, c'''(bc) = 1$

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- Return $c(a) = 00, c(b) = 10, c(c) = 11, c(d) = 010, c(e) = 011$

The constructed code is $C = \{00, 10, 11, 010, 011\}$.

It has $L(C, X) = 2 \times (0.25 + 0.25 + 0.2) + 3 \times (0.15 + 0.15) = 2.3$.

Note that $H(X) \approx 2.29$.

Huffman Coding in Python

See full example code with examples at:

<https://gist.github.com/mreid/fdf6353ec39d050e972b>

```
def huffman(p):  
    '''Return a Huffman code for an ensemble with distribution p.'''  
    assert(sum(p.values()) == 1.0) # Ensure probabilities sum to 1  
  
    # Base case of only two symbols, assign 0 or 1 arbitrarily  
    if (len(p) == 2):  
        return dict(zip(p.keys(), ['0', '1']))  
  
    # Create a new distribution by merging lowest prob. pair  
    p_prime = p.copy()  
    a1, a2 = lowest_prob_pair(p)  
    p1, p2 = p_prime.pop(a1), p_prime.pop(a2)  
    p_prime[a1 + a2] = p1 + p2  
  
    # Recurse and construct code on new distribution  
    c = huffman(p_prime)  
    ca1a2 = c.pop(a1 + a2)  
    c[a1], c[a2] = ca1a2 + '0', ca1a2 + '1'  
  
    return c
```


Advantages of Huffman coding

- Produces prefix codes automatically (by design)
- Algorithm is **simple** and **efficient**
- Huffman Codes are **provably optimal** [Exercise 5.16 (MacKay)]

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- Algorithm is **simple** and **efficient**
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If C_{Huff} is a Huffman code, then for any other uniquely decodable code C' ,

$$L(C_{\text{Huff}}, X) \leq L(C', X)$$

It follows that

$$H(X) \leq L(C_{\text{Huff}}, X) < H(X) + 1$$

Disadvantages of Huffman coding

- Assumes a **fixed distribution** of symbols
- The **extra bit** in the SCT
 - ▶ If $H(X)$ is large – not a problem
 - ▶ If $H(X)$ is small (e.g., ~ 1 bit for English) codes are $2\times$ optimal

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- Assumes a **fixed distribution** of symbols
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Huffman codes are the **best possible symbol code**
but symbol coding **is not always the best type of code**

Next Time: Stream Codes!

Summary

Key Concepts:

- 1 The **expected code length** $L(C, X) = \sum_i p_i \ell_i$
- 2 **Probabilities and codelengths** are interchangeable
 $q_i = 2^{-\ell_i} \iff \ell_i = \log_2 \frac{1}{q_i}$
- 3 Relative entropy $D_{\text{KL}}(\mathbf{p} \parallel \mathbf{q})$ **measures excess bits** over the entropy $H(X)$ for using the wrong code \mathbf{q} for probabilities \mathbf{p}
- 4 The **Source Coding Theorem** for symbol codes: There exists prefix (**Shannon**) code C for ensemble X with $\ell_i = \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil$ so that

$$H(X) \leq L(C, X) \leq H(X) + 1$$

- 5 **Huffman codes** are **optimal** symbol codes

Reading:

- §5.3-5.7 of MacKay
- §5.3-5.4, §5.6 & §5.8 of Cover & Thomas