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### 1 List and definitions of all similarity measures

**Equality** 

$$\mathfrak{M}_{ea}(C_1, C_2) = 1 \Leftrightarrow C_1 = C_2 \tag{1}$$

## 2 LZ77: a full example example

Here I give an example of an execution of the LZ77 algorithm (without restriction on the buffer and preview sizes). The algorithm pseudo-code is recalled in algorithm 1.

```
Algorithm 1: LZ77
 Input: Queue of Chords I = (C_1, \dots, C_n).
 Output: Queue of triples L = (a_j, b_j, C_{i_j})_j.
 Begin
     buffer ← empty queue
     While | is not empty do
         \pi \leftarrow \text{longest prefix of } | \text{ in (buffer } \cdot | \text{), beginning in buffer}
         a \leftarrow size(buffer) - (beginning index of <math>\pi (in buffer)) (0 if none)
         b \leftarrow length of \pi (0 if none)
         For i from 1 to b do
             buffer.push(front(I))
             I.pop()
         L.push(a, b, front(I))
         buffer.push(front(I))
        I.pop()
     Return L
```

Let us consider the input data I = ABCABCABD. The letters represent chords with no particular harmonic indication (regular major chords). However they could obviously represent anything else: the LZ77 algorithm is a general algorithm for any stream of symbols.

During the execution, this input will be gradually transferred to the buffer, which is originally empty:

Step		Βι	ıff	er		Input ("preview")										
0						Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D		

We are looking for the longest prefix of ABCABCABD beginning in buffer: buffer is empty and so is the longest prefix. So we add to the result L the triple (0,0,A) (A being the first symbol of I) and we transfer the front of I to the buffer. We obtain:

Step		В	uf	feı	•		Input ("preview")									
0							Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D	
1						A	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D		

Again, the longest prefix of BCABCABD beginning in buffer is empty. We add to the result L the triple (0,0,B) and we transfer the front of I to the buffer. The same happens once again (no prefix of CABCABD beginning in buffer= AB). We obtain:

Step			Βι	ıff	er			Input ("preview")										
0								Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D		
1							Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D			
2						Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D				
3					A	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	D					

Now, we have the prefix ABCAB of ABCABD which begins in the <code>buffer</code>. We can add (3-0,5,D)=(3,5,D) to L. This step could be intriguing because (3,5,D) means "go 3 symbols back and rewrite the 5 next". What will happen is that we will indeed rewrite the 3 last symbols ABC and the first 2 we just added: AB.

I is then empty: the algorithm returns L = (0,0,A), (0,0,B), (0,0,C), (3,5,D).

Considering Chords have the same size as integers, our original sequence had a weight of 9 and the output of  $4 \cdot 3 = 12$ . The compression factor is then  $\frac{9}{12} = 0.75$ , which is bad (it is lower than 1 the "compressed" sequence is in fact heavier than the input); this is completely normal on small instances.

## 3 Diagonal pattern decomposition: all algorithms

#### Listing the patterns

Algorithm 2 shows how the diagonal patterns are selected.

```
Algorithm 2: Pattern listing

Input: Sequence of chords I = (C_1, \dots, C_n).

Output: List of patterns \Pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m).

Begin

For i from 2 to |I| do

\pi \leftarrow \emptyset

For j from 1 to (|I| - I) do

If similar(C_{i+j}, C_j) then

\pi \leftarrow \pi + C_j

Else

\Pi.insert(\pi)

\pi \leftarrow \emptyset

Return \Pi
```

Where insert creates a new pattern in  $\Pi$  if  $\pi$  has not been seen yet, or adds an occurrence to it if it is already in  $\Pi$ . With a hash table, this is performed in  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ . In my implementation, I did not use a hash table so an exhaustive search for the pattern has to be done. Comparing the possibly new pattern  $\pi$  with a pattern already in  $\Pi$  is  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  if they have different lengths and  $\mathcal{O}(|\pi|)$  if they have the same length. There can be at most  $\mathcal{O}(|I|^2)$  patterns in  $\Pi$ , among them at most |I| of size  $|\pi|$ , and  $|\pi|$  is at most |I|. Hence this step has a cost of  $\mathcal{O}(|I|^2 + |I| \cdot |I|) = \mathcal{O}(|I|^2)$ .

Overall complexity is then  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^2\right)$  with a hash table and  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^4\right)$  in my current implementation.

#### Set cover

Algorithms 3 and 4 describe the two heuristics I use for the set cover problem.

For algorithm 3, computing gain can be  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^2\right)$  (in the –extreme– worst case of a pattern of length |I|/2 occurring |I|/2, for instance). There can be  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^2\right)$  in  $\Pi$  and at most  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|\right)$  steps are necessary. Overall worst-case complexity is then be  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^5\right)$ . Yet, the actual running time is

```
Algorithm 3: Set cover \Pi
Input: List of patterns \Pi.

Output: Cover \Pi' (initially empty).

Begin

While true do

forall the \pi \in \Pi do

gain[\pi] \leftarrow (\#\{uncovered elements covered by <math>\pi\} - |\pi|)

\pi^* \leftarrow pattern of maximal gain

\Pi' \leftarrow \Pi' \cup \{\pi^*\} \; ; \; \Pi \leftarrow \Pi - \{\pi^*\}

If \Pi' covers the whole piece then

Return \; \Pi'
```

very reasonable, and lower than algorithm 2; a more precise analysis could be carried to have a better idea of the complexity.

```
Algorithm 4: Set cover 2

Input: List of patterns Π.

Output: Cover Π' (initially equal to Π).

Begin

sort Π' by decreasing length

For i from 1 to |Π'| do

Remove every useless occurrence of Π'[i]

Return Π'
```

For algorithm 4, there can be  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^2\right)$  patterns and browsing the occurrences of a pattern to determine if they can be removed or not may take  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^2\right)$ . Sorting costing only  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|\cdot\log(|I|)\right)$ , overall worst-case complexity is  $\mathcal{O}\left(|I|^4\right)$ ; but as for algorithm 3 the actual running time is short.

# Maximizing the recovery factor

- 4 PLOTS???
- 5 Implementation details
- 6 Bibliography