

# COMP90038

# Algorithms and Complexity

Lecture 21: Huffman Encoding for Data Compression  
(with thanks to Harald Søndergaard & Michael Kirley)

Andres Munoz-Acosta

[munoz.m@unimelb.edu.au](mailto:munoz.m@unimelb.edu.au)

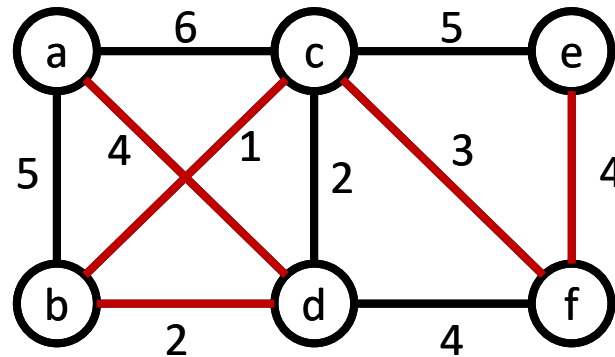
Peter Hall Building G.83

# Recap

- We discussed **greedy algorithms**:
  - A problem solving strategy that takes the **locally best** choice among all feasible ones. Such choice is **irrevocable**.
  - Usually, **locally best** choices do not yield **global best** results.
  - In some exceptions a greedy algorithm is **correct and fast**.
  - Also, a greedy algorithm can provide good **approximations**.
- We applied this idea to two graph problems :
  - Prim's algorithm for finding **minimum spanning trees**
  - Dijkstra's algorithm for **single-source shortest path**

# What is a Minimum Spanning Tree?

- A **minimum spanning tree** of a weighted graph  $\langle V, E \rangle$  is a tree  $\langle V, E' \rangle$  where  $E'$  is a subset of  $E$ , such that the connections have the lowest cost
- We use Prim's algorithm to find the minimum spanning tree.
  - It constructs a sequence of subtrees  $T$ , by **adding to the latest tree the closest node not currently on it**.



# Prim's Algorithm

- We examined the complete algorithm, that uses priority queues:

```
function PRIM( $\langle V, E \rangle$ )
```

```
  for each  $v \in V$  do
```

```
     $cost[v] \leftarrow \infty$ 
```

```
     $prev[v] \leftarrow nil$ 
```

```
  pick initial node  $v_0$ 
```

```
   $cost[v_0] \leftarrow 0$ 
```

```
   $Q \leftarrow \text{INITPRIORITYQUEUE}(V)$ 
```

▷ priorities are cost values

```
  while  $Q$  is non-empty do
```

```
     $u \leftarrow \text{EJECTMIN}(Q)$ 
```

```
    for each  $(u, w) \in E$  do
```

```
      if  $weight(u, w) < cost[w]$  then
```

```
         $cost[w] \leftarrow weight(u, w)$ 
```

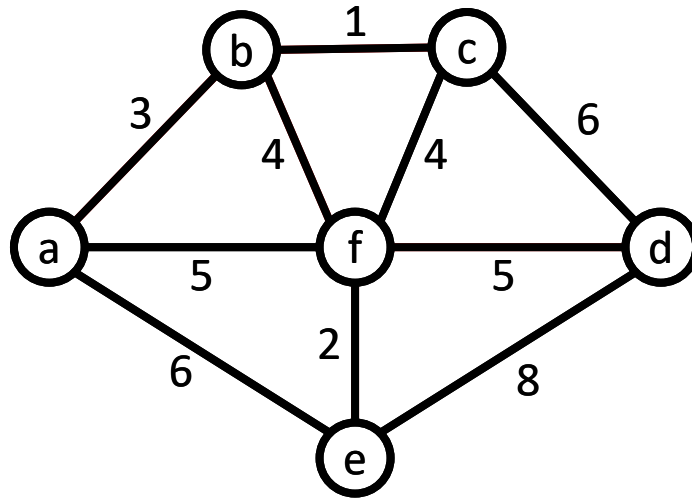
```
         $prev[w] \leftarrow u$ 
```

```
         $\text{UPDATE}(Q, w, cost[w])$ 
```

▷ rearranges priority queue

# Another example

- Let's work with the following graph:



a,b,c,f,e,d

Tree T		a	b	c	d	e	f
	cost	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
	prev	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil
	cost	0					
	prev	nil					
	cost		3			6	5
	prev		a			a	a
	cost			1		6	4
	prev			b		a	b
	cost				6	6	4
	prev				c	a	b
	cost				5	2	
	prev				f	f	
	cost				5		
	prev				f		
	cost						
	prev						

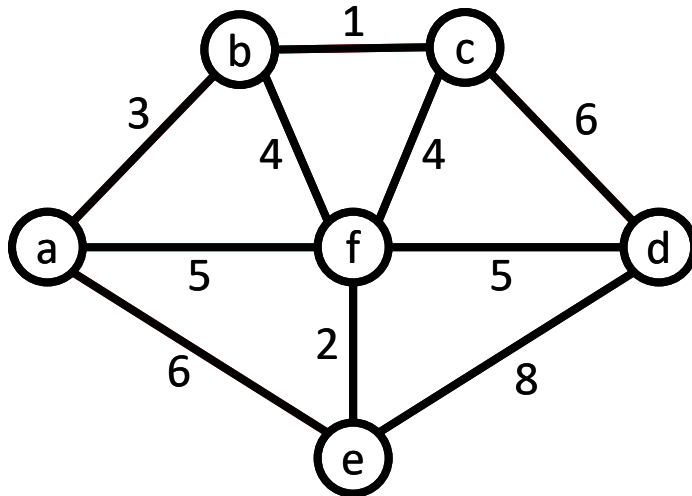
# Dijkstra's Algorithm

- **Dijkstra's algorithm** finds all shortest paths **from a fixed start node**. Its complexity is the same as that of Prim's algorithm.

```
function DIJKSTRA( $\langle V, E \rangle, v_0$ )  
  for each  $v \in V$  do  
     $dist[v] \leftarrow \infty$   
     $prev[v] \leftarrow nil$   
   $dist[v_0] \leftarrow 0$   
   $Q \leftarrow \text{INITPRIORITYQUEUE}(V)$  ▷ priorities are distances  
  while  $Q$  is non-empty do  
     $u \leftarrow \text{EJECTMIN}(Q)$   
    for each  $(u, w) \in E$  do  
      if  $dist[u] + weight(u, w) < dist[w]$  then  
         $dist[w] \leftarrow dist[u] + weight(u, w)$   
         $prev[w] \leftarrow u$   
         $\text{UPDATE}(Q, w, dist[w])$  ▷ rearranges priority queue
```

# Another example

- Let's work with this graph again:



a,b,c,f,  
e,d

Tree T		a	b	c	d	e	f
	cost	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
	prev	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil
		0					
			3			6	5
		a				a	a
				4		6	5
			b			a	a
					10	6	5
					c	a	a
					10	6	
					10	6	

# Data compression

- From an information-theoretic point of view, most computer files contain much redundancy.
- Compression is used to store files in less space.
  - For text files, savings up to 50 are common.
  - For binary files, savings up to 90 are common.
- Savings in space mean savings in time for file transmission.



# Run-Length Encoding

- For a text with long runs of **repeated characters**, we could compress by counting the runs. For example:

**AAAABBBAAABBBBBCCCCCCCCDABCBAAABBBBCCCD**

- can then be encoded as:

**4A3BAA5B8CDABCB3A4B3CD**

- This is not useful for normal text. However, for **binary files** it can be very effective.

# Run-Length Encoding

[illegible]

# Variable-Length Encoding

- Fixed-length encoding uses a static number of symbols (bits) to represent a character.
  - For example, the ASCII code uses 8 bits per character.
- Variable-Length encoding assigns shorter codes to common characters.
  - In English, the most common character is **E**, hence, we could assign **0** to it.
  - However, no other character code can start with **0**.
- That is, no character's code should be a prefix of some other character's code (unless we somehow put separators between characters, which would take up space).

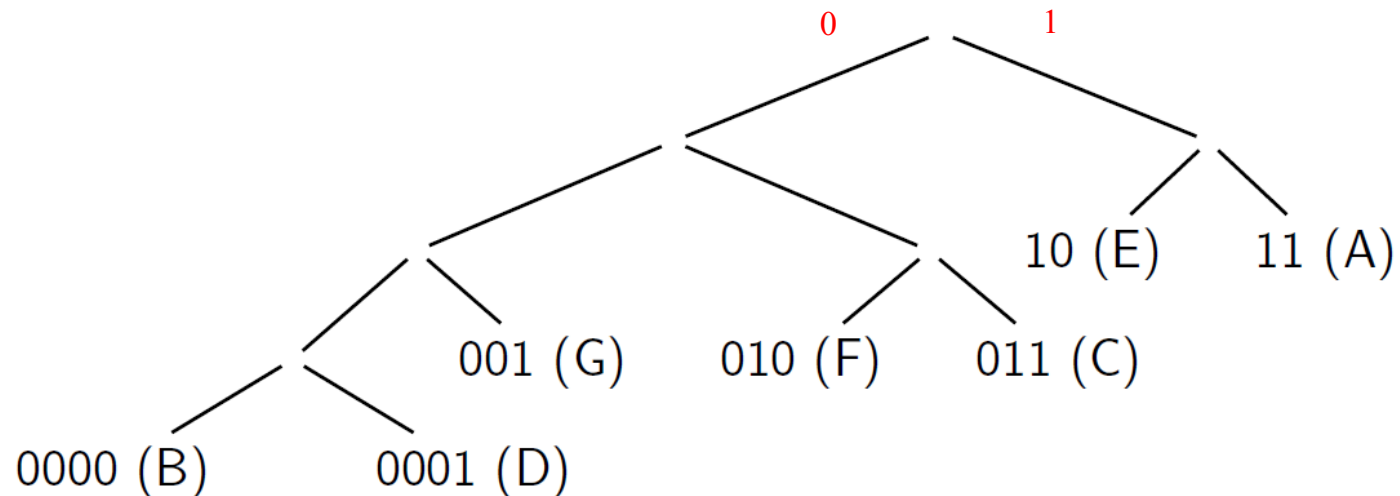
# Variable-Length Encoding

- Suppose our alphabet is {A,B,C,D,E,F,G}
- We analyzed a text and found the following number of occurrences
- The last column shows some sensible codes that we may use for each symbol
  - Symbols with higher occurrence have shorter codes

SYMBOL	OCCURRENCE	CODE
A	28	11
B	4	0000
C	14	011
D	5	0001
E	27	10
F	12	010
G	10	001

# Tries for Variable-Length Encoding

- A **trie** is a binary tree used on search applications
- To search for a key we look at individual **bits** of a key and descend to the **left** whenever a bit is **zero** and to the right whenever it is **one**
- Using a trie to determine codes means that no code will be the prefix of another



# Encoding messages

- To encode a message, we just need to concatenate the codes. For example:

F    A    C    E  
010  11  011  10

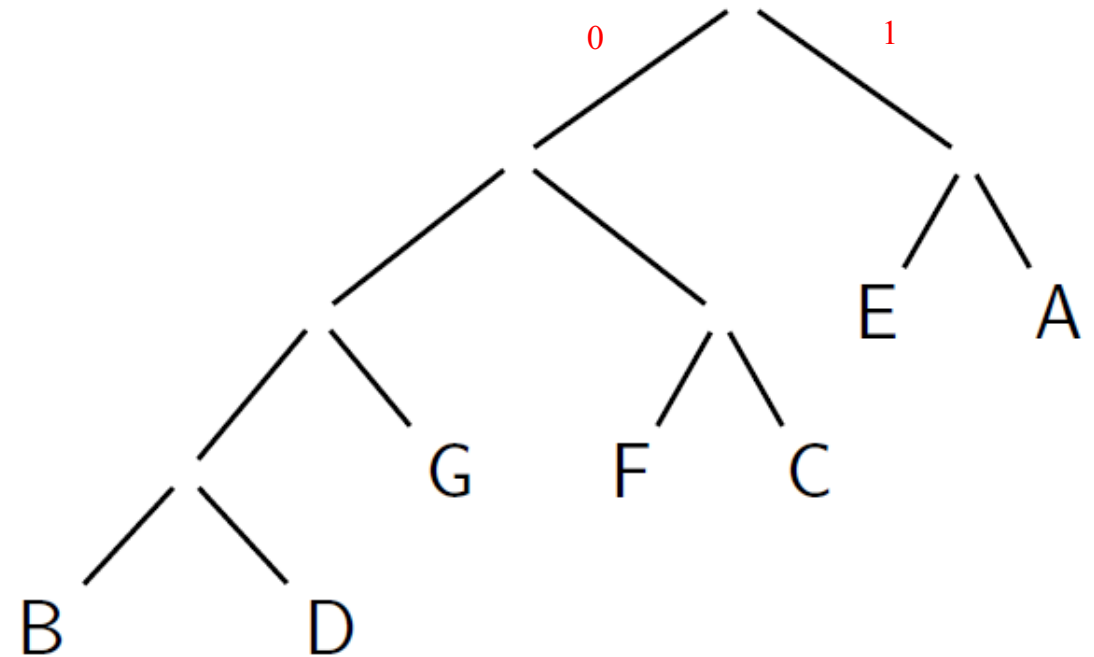
B    A    G    G    E    D  
0000 11  001  001  10  0001

- If we were to assign three bits per character, FACE would use 12 bits instead of 10. For BAGGED there is no space savings

SYMBOL	CODE
A	11
B	0000
C	011
D	0001
E	10
F	010
G	001

# Decoding messages

- Try to decode **00011001111010** DECAF  
and **000011000100110** BADGE using the trie
  - Starting from the root, print each symbol found as a leaf
  - Repeat until the string is completed
- Remember the rules: Left branch is 0, right branch is 1



# Huffman Encoding: Choosing the Codes

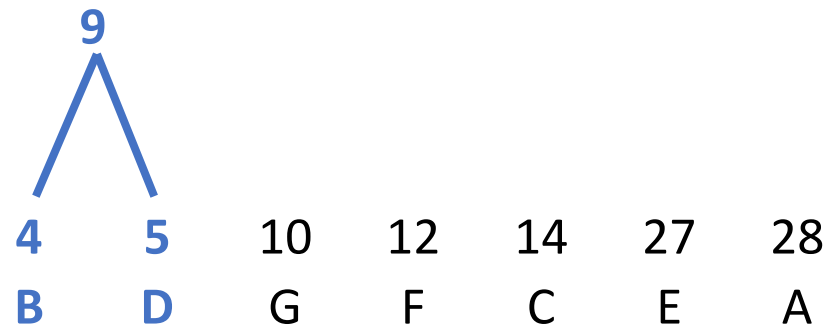
- Sometimes (for example for common English text) we may know the frequencies of letters fairly well.
- If we don't know about frequencies then we can still count all characters in the given text as a first step.
- But how do we assign codes to the characters once we know their frequencies?
  - By repeatedly selecting the two smallest weights and fusing them.
- This is Huffman's algorithm – another example of a greedy method.
  - The resulting tree is a Huffman tree.



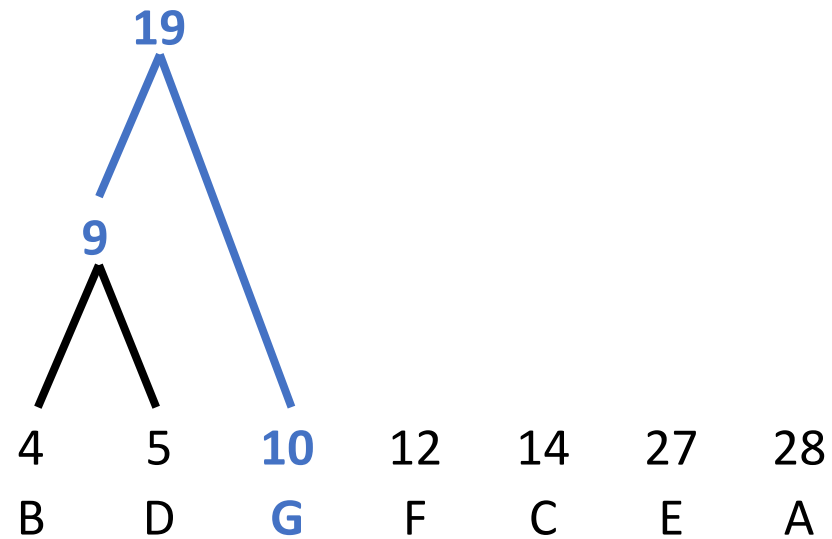
# Huffman Trees (example)

4	5	10	12	14	27	28
B	D	G	F	C	E	A

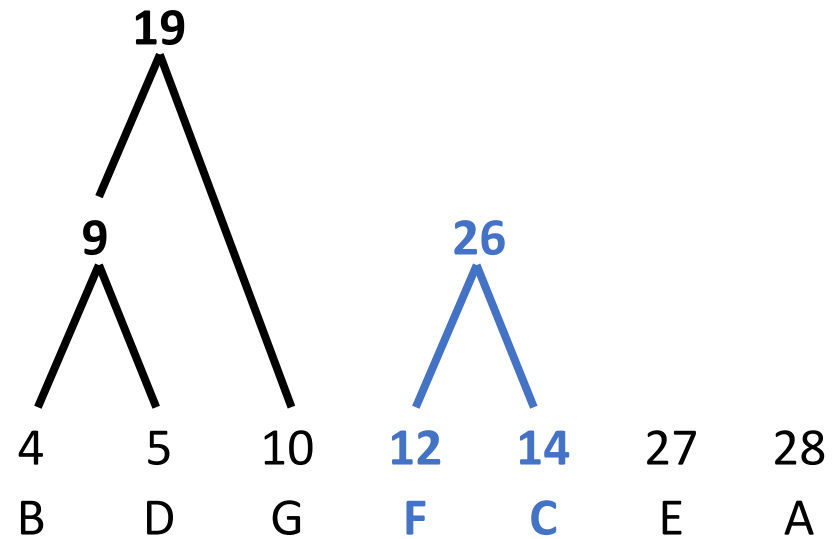
# Huffman Trees (example)



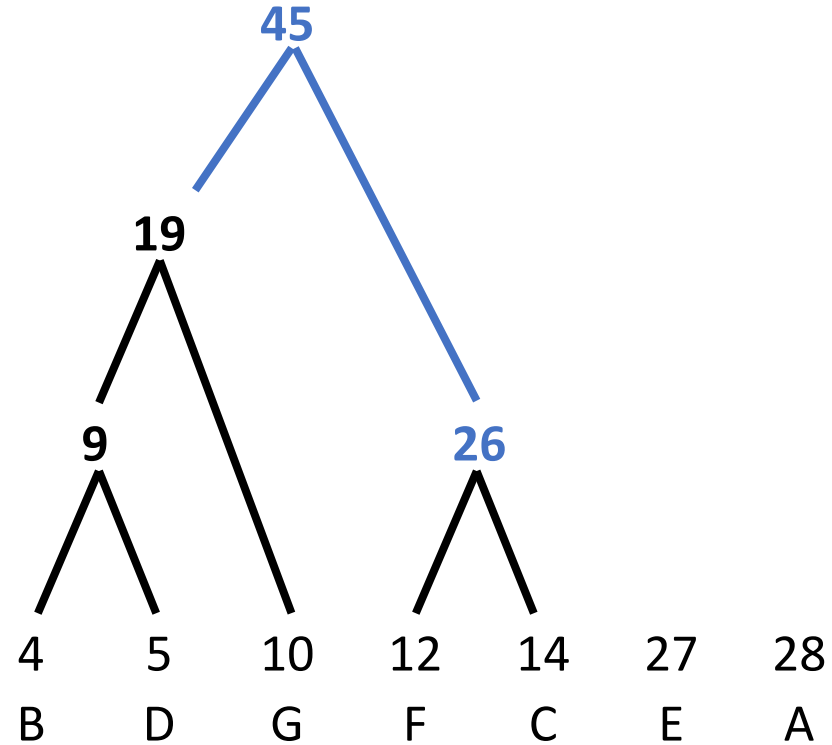
# Huffman Trees (example)



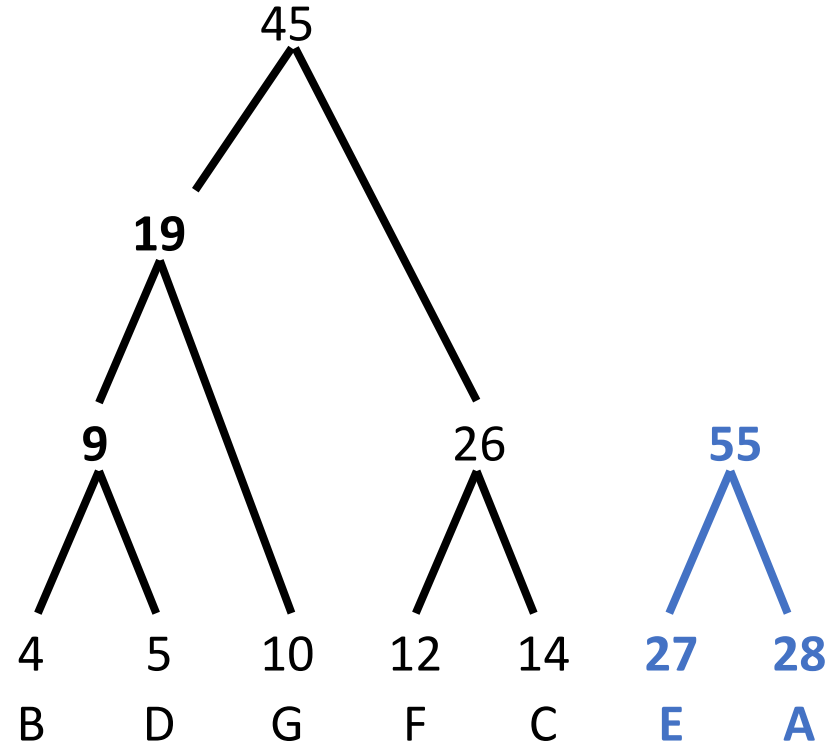
# Huffman Trees (example)



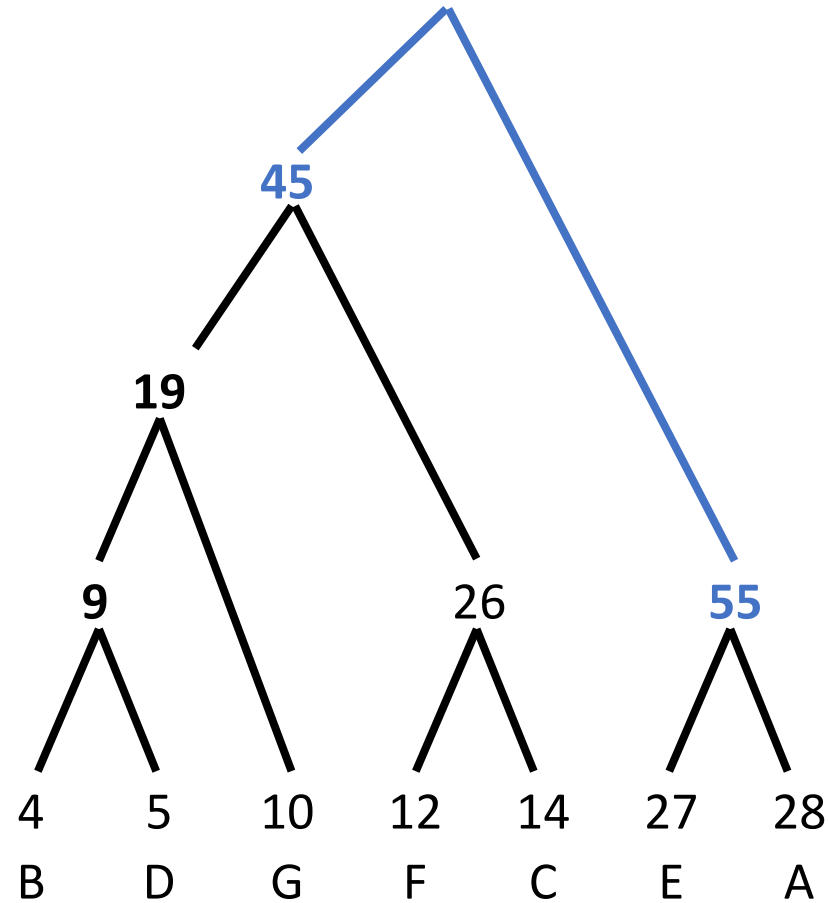
# Huffman Trees (example)



# Huffman Trees (example)



# Huffman Trees (example)



# An exercise

- Construct the Huffman code for data in the table.
- Then, encode **ABACABAD** and decode **100010111001010**

ABACAD\_

SYMBOL	FREQUENCY	CODE
A	0.40	1
B	0.10	000
C	0.20	011
D	0.15	001
_	0.15	010

BD\_CA



# Compressed Transmission

- If the compressed file is being sent from one party to another, the parties must agree about the codes used.
  - For example, the trie can be sent along with the message.
- For long files this extra cost is negligible.
- Modern variants of Huffman encoding, like **Lempel-Ziv compression**, assign codes not to individual symbols but to sequences of symbols.

# Next lecture

- We briefly discuss complexity theory, NP-completeness and approximation algorithms
- On the final week we will devote time to review all the content