

Fundamentals of Information Theory

Data Compression

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Outline

- Three key questions about data compression
- What is source coding?
- Get to know some codes
- What do we want from a source code?
- Kraft inequality—constraints on prefix codes
- How to find the optimal code?
- Shannon's first theorem—Zero-error source coding theorem
- From Theory to Applications: source coding algorithms

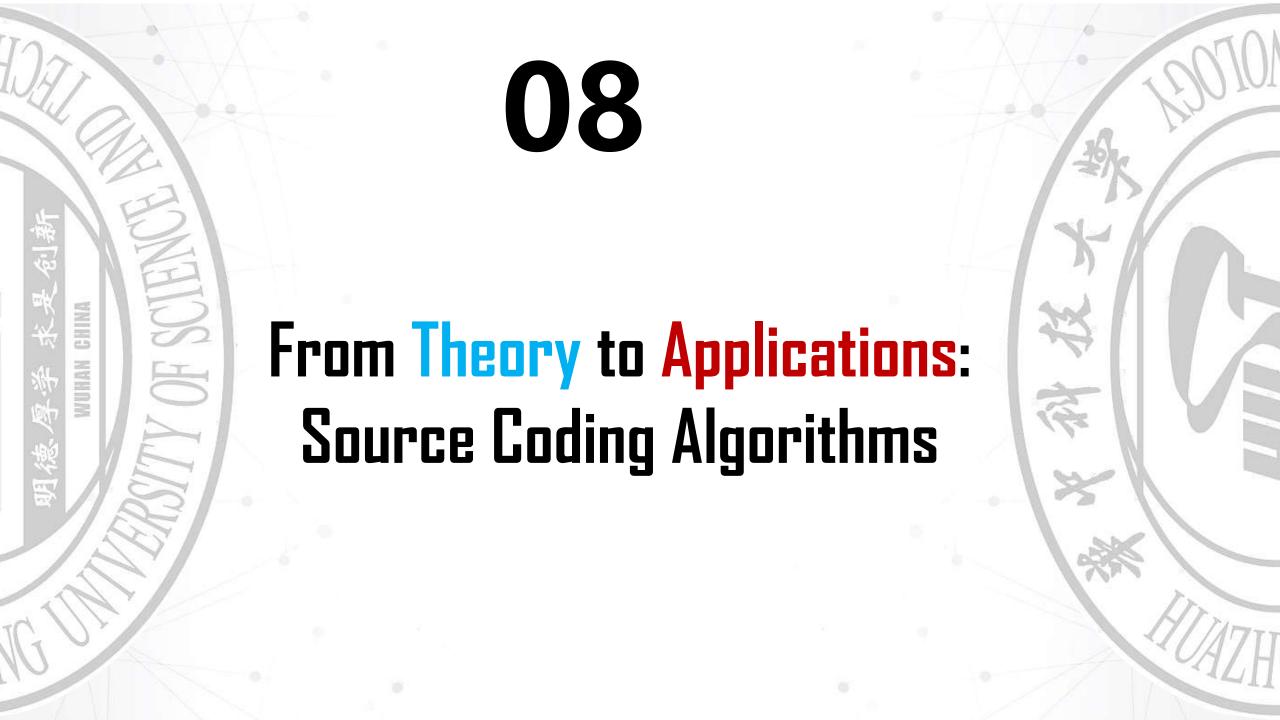
本节学习目标



- 1. 写出Shannon code的算法流程
- 2. 能够编写Shannon code
- 3. 说出为什么Shannon code不是compact code
- 4. 写出Huffman code的算法流程
- 5. 能够编写Huffman code
- 6. 说出Huffman code的≥3个特点
- 7. 证明Huffman code的最优性
- 8. 能够编写Q-ary Huffman code
- 9. 说出Huffman code的2个局限性

重难点:

- > Shannon code
- > Huffman code







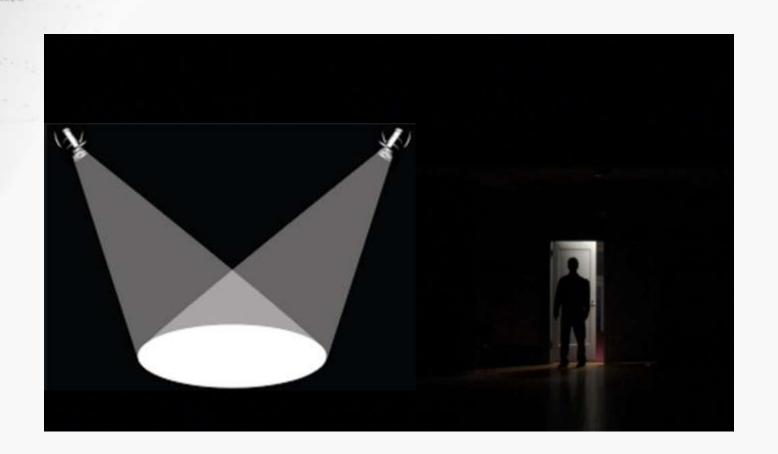
- Source coding theorem
 - For a binary information source S and arbitrary ε , there exists a binary instantaneous code for which the average code length L per coding symbol satisfies

$$H(S) \leq L_n^* < H(S) + \varepsilon.$$

- Provide the theoretical limit to achieve the ideal coding
- Prove the existence of the ideal source code.

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Zero-Error Source Coding: From Theory to Applications





Question: How to design the optimal source codes?





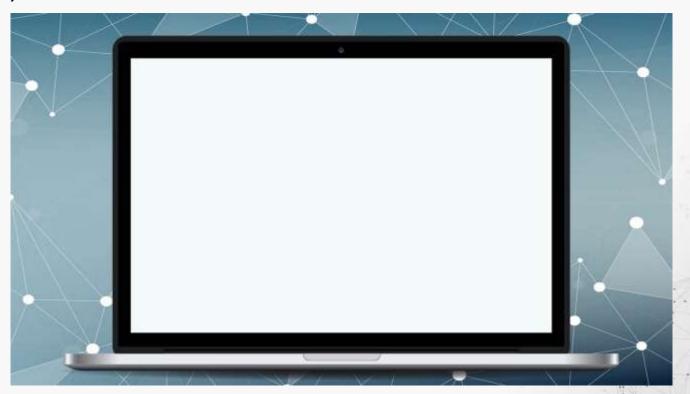
- A large amount of source coding algorithms have been proposed after Shannon's first theorem, aiming to approach the data compression limit.
 - Shannon code (1948)
 - Shannon-Fano code (1949)
 - Huffman code (1952)
 - Run-length code (1966)
 - Universal coding (1975)
 - Arithmetic coding (1976)
 - Lempel-Ziv coding (1977)

• ...



Applications: How to design the optimal source codes?

- A large amount of source coding algorithms have been proposed after Shannon's first theorem, aiming to approach the data compression limit.
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 - Shannon-Fano codes (1949)
 - Huffman codes (1952)
 - Universal coding
 - Arithmetic coding
 - Lempel-Ziv coding
 - ...





Shannon codes



Shannon codes: Overview

Idea: deducted from Shannon's first theorem

- Method
- Choose each codeword li satisfying

$$I_i = \left\lceil \log \frac{1}{p(x_i)} \right\rceil$$

Since the code lengths follow the Kraft inequality, the uniquely decodable code exists.

② Construct an instantaneous code with those $\{I_i\}$ using the code tree.

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Shannon codes: Algorithm

Given a discrete memoryless source

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ p(x) \end{bmatrix} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} x_1, & x_2, & \dots & x_n \\ p(x_1), & p(x_2), & \dots & p(x_n) \end{array} \right\}, \sum_i p(x_i) = 1.$$

For simplicity, $p(x_1) \ge p(x_2) \ge \cdots \ge p(x_n)$.

- $p(x_0) = 0.$
- 2 Define the cumulative distribution function

$$p_a(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} p(x_j), i = 1, 2, ..., n.$$

3 $l_i = \left\lceil \log \frac{1}{p(x_i)} \right\rceil$ is the code length of *i*-th code word.

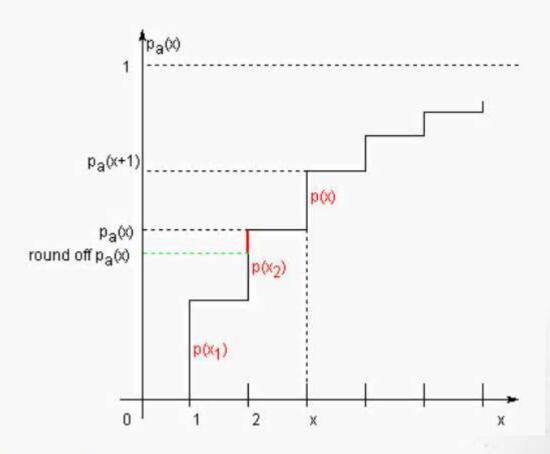
$$\log_2 \frac{1}{p(x_i)} \leq I_i < \log_2 \frac{1}{p(x_i)} + 1$$

Och $p_a(x_i)$ using binary, and take l_i digits after the dot as the code for x_i .

Shannon codes: Reflection



- $p(x_0) = 0$
- $p(x_1) \geq p(x_2) \geq \cdots \geq p(x_n)$
- $p_a(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} p(x_j)$ (i = 1, 2, ..., n)
- Round-off the cumulative distribution function to l_i bits: $|p_a(x_i)|_{l_i}$
- Use the first l_i bits as a code for x_i.



- x_i and p_a(x_i) is one-to-one mapping, such that coding for p_a(x_i) can be seen as coding for x_i.
- $p_a(x_i) \lfloor p_a(x_i) \rfloor_{l_i} \leq \frac{1}{2^{l_i}} \leq p(x_i)$, such that the round-off CDF $\lfloor p_a(x_i) \rfloor_{l_i}$ lies in the corresponding interval of x_i .



Shannon codes: Example

Assume

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ p(x) \end{bmatrix} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccccc} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 \\ 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.2 & 0.15 & 0.1 & 0.05 \end{array} \right\}, \sum_i p(x_i) = 1.$$

• Please design a Shannon code for this source.



Shannon codes: Example

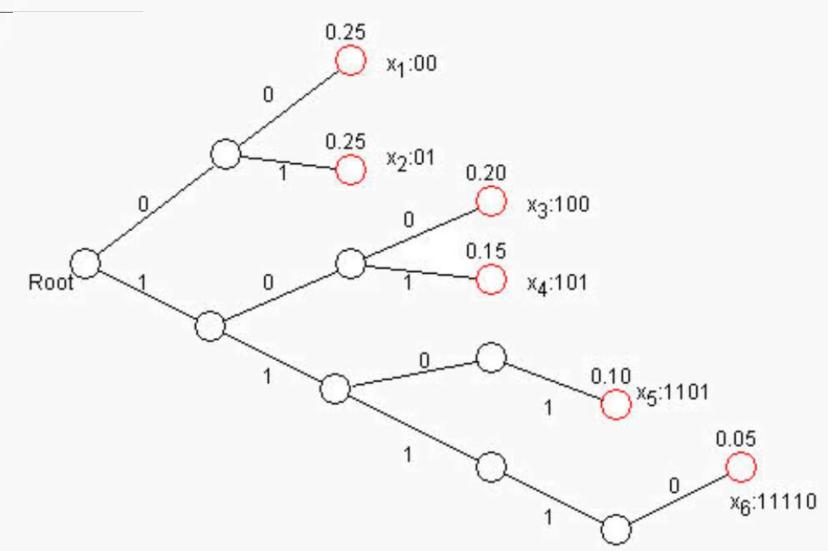
Assume

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ p(x) \end{bmatrix} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccccc} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 \\ 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.2 & 0.15 & 0.1 & 0.05 \end{array} \right\}, \sum_i p(x_i) = 1.$$

| Xi | $p(x_i)$ | i | $p_a(x_i)$ | $p_a(x_i)$ binary | li | codeword |
|-----------------------|----------|---|------------|-------------------|----|----------|
| <i>x</i> ₁ | 0.25 | 1 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 2 | 00 |
| <i>x</i> ₂ | 0.25 | 2 | 0.25 | 0.01 | 2 | 01 |
| <i>X</i> 3 | 0.20 | 3 | 0.50 | 0.100 | 3 | 100 |
| <i>X</i> ₄ | 0.15 | 4 | 0.70 | 0.101*** | 3 | 101 |
| <i>X</i> 5 | 0.10 | 5 | 0.85 | 0.1101** | 4 | 1101 |
| <i>x</i> ₆ | 0.05 | 6 | 0.95 | 0.11110* | 5 | 11110 |





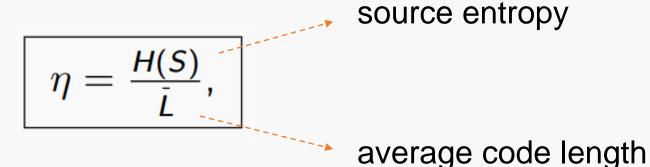


Any problem?

Shannon codes: analysis

 To evaluate the degree of one source coding algorithm close to the Shannon's data compression limit.

Definition



- Comments
 - For zero-error codes, $\eta \leq 1$. A larger η indicates higher coding efficiency.

Shannon codes: analysis

Average length

$$\bar{L} = 0.25 \times 2 \times 2 + (0.2 + 0.15) \times 3 + 0.1 \times 4 + 0.05 \times 5$$

= 2.7 bits/symbol

Source entropy:

$$H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{6} p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i) = 2.42 \text{ bits/symbol}$$

Code efficiency

$$\eta = \frac{H(X)}{\bar{I}} = 89.63\%$$

 Comments: the efficiency of Shannon codes is not very high, we need to search for more efficient coding methods.

$$\bar{L} = \sum_{x} p(x)I(x) = \sum_{x} p(x) \left(\left\lceil \log \frac{1}{p(x)} \right\rceil \right) < H(X) + 1$$



Shannon codes: summary

 The upper bound of optimal code lengths doesn't necessarily result in a good code.

Shannon codes:
$$I_i = \left\lceil \log \frac{1}{p(x_i)} \right\rceil$$
, $H(X) \leq \bar{L} < H(X) + 1$.

- Consider two symbols with probability 0.9999 and 0.0001. What are their codeword lengths for the Shannon code?
- Limitations: The codeword for infrequent symbol is usually longer in the Shannon code.
- In general, Shannon codes are not compact codes.
 - It can achieve the minimum average code length only when the source symbols are uniformly distributed.

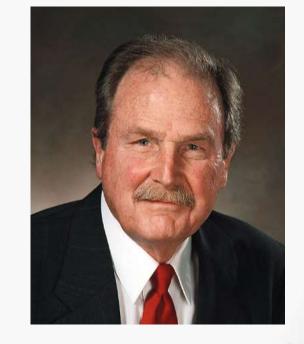


Huffman Codes





- A compact code construction algorithm invented by David A. Huffman in 1952.
- Basic idea: Constructed using a code tree, but starting at the leaves.
 - Do not know what is the code length at the beginning.
- Optimal in average code length, Widely used in data compression.



David Huffman







D. A. Huffman, "A method for the construction of minimum redundancy codes," in IRE, vol. 40, pp. 1098-1101, 1952.





- 1. Make a leaf node for each code symbol.
 - Add the generation probability of each symbol to the leaf node in a descending order.
- 2. Take the two leaf nodes with the smallest probability and connect them into a new node.
 - The probability of the new node is the sum of the probabilities of the two connecting nodes.
 - Add 1 or 0 to each of the two branches.
- 3. If there is only one node left, the code construction is completed. If not, go back to Step 2.
- 4. The codeword of each symbol is the binary sequence from the root to the leaf node.

Huffman codes: Example #1

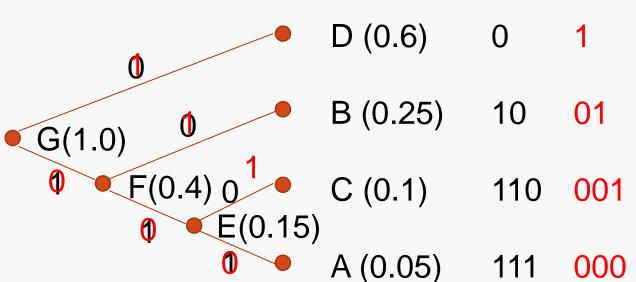


Construct a binary Huffman code for the following source.

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ P \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B & C & D \\ 0.05 & 0.25 & 0.1 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log [p(x)]$

Codeword



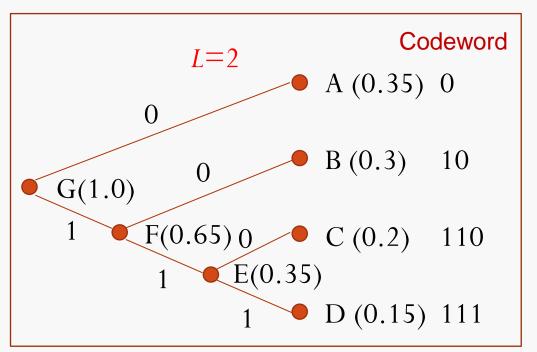
$$L(C) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x)I(x)$$

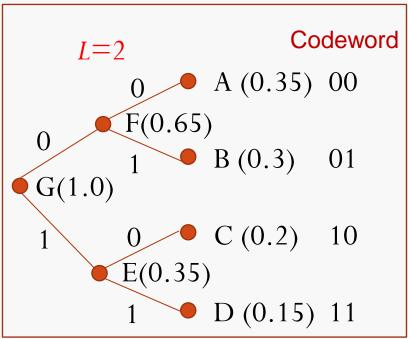
Can you find another Huffman code for this source?





Construct a binary Huffman code for the following source.





- *H*=1.93 bits.
- Which code is better in average code length?

Huffman codes: Example #3



- Symbols A, B, C, D, E, F are being produced by the information source with probabilities 0.3, 0.4, 0.06, 0.1, 0.1 and 0.04, respectively.
- What is the binary Huffman code?

•
$$A = 00$$
, $B = 1$, $C = 0110$, $D = 0100$, $E = 0101$, $F = 0111$

•
$$A = 00$$
, $B = 1$, $C = 01000$, $D = 011$, $E = 0101$, $F = 01001$

•
$$A = 11$$
, $B = 0$, $C = 10111$, $D = 100$, $E = 1010$, $F = 10110$

Revisiting: Shannon codes



Assume

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ p(x) \end{bmatrix} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccccc} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 \\ 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.2 & 0.15 & 0.1 & 0.05 \end{array} \right\}, \sum_i p(x_i) = 1.$$

Then

| Xi | $p(x_i)$ | i | $p_a(x_i)$ | $p_a(x_i)$ binary | I_i | codeword |
|-----------------------|----------|---|------------|-------------------|-------|----------|
| <i>x</i> ₁ | 0.25 | 1 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 2 | 00 |
| <i>x</i> ₂ | 0.25 | 2 | 0.25 | 0.01 | 2 | 01 |
| <i>X</i> 3 | 0.20 | 3 | 0.50 | 0.100 | 3 | 100 |
| X4 | 0.15 | 4 | 0.70 | 0.101*** | 3 | 101 |
| <i>X</i> ₅ | 0.10 | 5 | 0.85 | 0.1101** | 4 | 1101 |
| <i>x</i> ₆ | 0.05 | 6 | 0.95 | 0.11110* | 5 | 11110 |

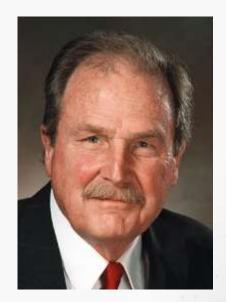
- Source entropy: H(X) = 2.42 bits/symbol.
- Shannon codes: Average code length L=2.7 bits/symbol. Code efficiency $\eta=H(X)/L=89.63\%$.
- What about Huffman codes?



- There are no unique Huffman codes.
 - If there are nodes with the same probability, it doesn't matter how they are connected.
 - Assigning 0 and 1 to the branches is arbitrary.
- Every Huffman code has the same average code length!



Why are Huffman codes optimal in average code length?



David Huffman

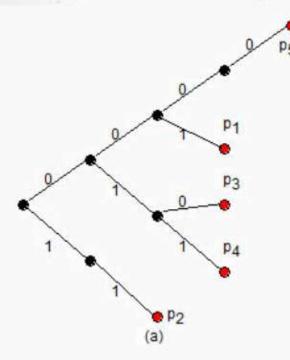


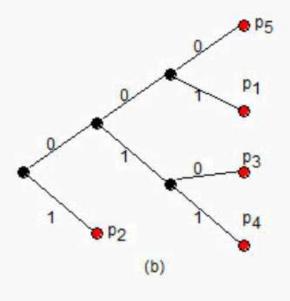
 Lemma: for any distribution, there exists an optimal instantaneous code (with the minimum expected length) that satisfies the following properties:

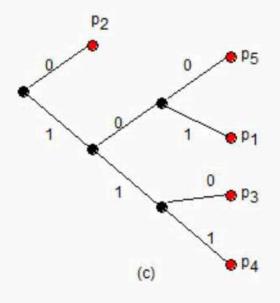
- The two longest codewords have the same length.
- The two longest codewords differ only in the last bit, and correspond to the two least likely symbols.
- By this lemma, swap, trim, and rearrange the code tree.

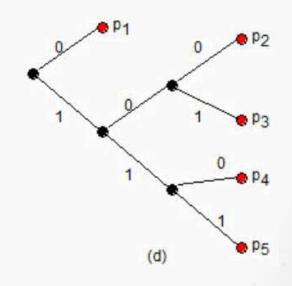


Assume $p_1 \ge p_2 \ge p_3 \ge p_4 \ge p_5$.









- The two longest codewords have the same length.
- The two longest codewords differ only in the last bit, and correspond to the two least likely symbols.



Lemma: There are at least two leaf nodes at the end of the longest path of a code tree of a compact instantaneous code, and the probabilities of the source symbols α and β connected to these two leaf nodes have the two minimal probabilities among all source symbols.

Proof:

- The probabilities of α and β are p_{α} and p_{β} with $p_{\alpha} \leq p_{\beta}$.
- From each node N at the end of the longest path, there are at least two branches.
 - If not, this single branch can be removed without breaking the instantaneous requirement.
- If there is a source symbol γ with $p_{\gamma} < p_{\beta}$, then β and γ can be exchanged, resulting in a smaller average code length. This contradicts the compactness requirement.



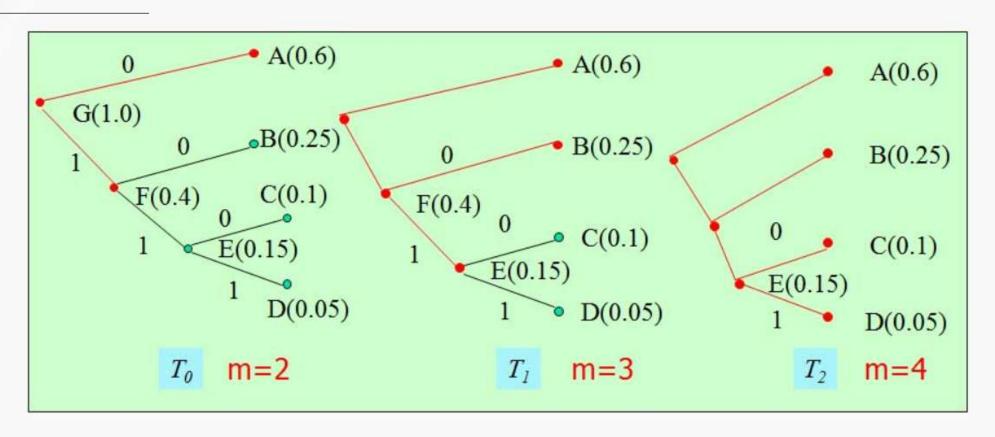
Theorem: All Huffman codes are compact codes.

Observation: The Huffman code construction reduces the number of leaf nodes by taking together the two leaf nodes with the smallest probability (e.g. from $\{A, B, C, D\}$ to $\{A, B, E\}$ to $\{A, F\}$)

- Let's call the final tree T_0 (the complete Huffman tree) and the tree T_i before the *i*-th iteration of T_0 .
- The final tree T_0 is clearly compact, as there are only two branches.
- Proof by induction: Prove that if T_i is compact T_{i+1} is compact.

Optimality of Huffman codes: proof





- The average code lengths L_{i+1} and L_i of T_{i+1} and T_i .
 - Suppose that the leaf nodes in T_{i+1} with the smallest probability have probability p_{α} and p_{β} .
 - Taking these together gives $L_{i+1} = L_i + p_{\alpha} + p_{\beta}$.

Optimality of Huffman codes: proof



- Suppose T_i is a compact tree, but T_{i+1} is not a compact tree.
- There is a code tree T'_{i+1} with the same nodes as T_{i+1} but with an average code length $L'_{i+1} < L_{i+1}$.
- T'_{i+1} has the same nodes as T_{i+1} and according to the lemma the longest path in T'_{i+1} has two leaf nodes with the smallest source symbol probabilities, which were defined as p_{α} and p_{β} .
- Therefore $L'_{i+1} = L'_i + p_\alpha + p_\beta < L_i + p_\alpha + p_\beta = L_{i+1}$.
- Thus, T_i is not compact.
- Contradiction! So T_{i+1} must be a compact tree.



Optimality of Huffman codes: discussions

Huffman codes are optimal in the expected codeword length: for Huffman code C* and any other uniquely decodable code C':

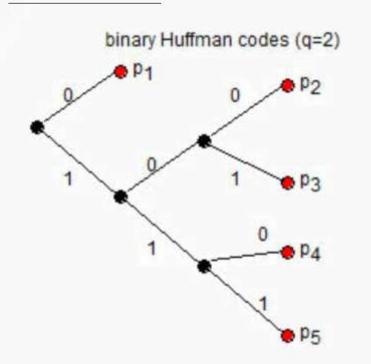
$$L(C^*) \leq L(C')$$
.

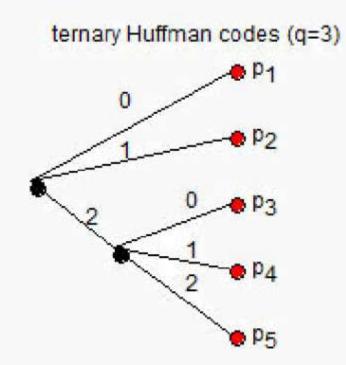
- Does it mean that the codeword lengths for a Huffman code are always less than the Shannon code?
 - Input symbols A, B, C, D with probability 1/3, 1/3, 1/4 and 1/12.

- The above discussions are all based on binary Huffman codes
 - What about Q-ary Huffman codes?









| Q | <i>Q</i> -ary code | |
|----|--------------------|--|
| 2 | Binary | |
| 3 | Ternary | |
| 4 | Quaternary | |
| 5 | Quinary | |
| 8 | Octal | |
| 10 | Decimal | |
| 16 | Hexadecimal | |
| | | |

- Q-ary Huffman codes are constructed in the same way as binary Huffman codes.
- Instead of two leaf nodes, take the q leaf nodes with the smallest probability.



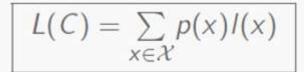


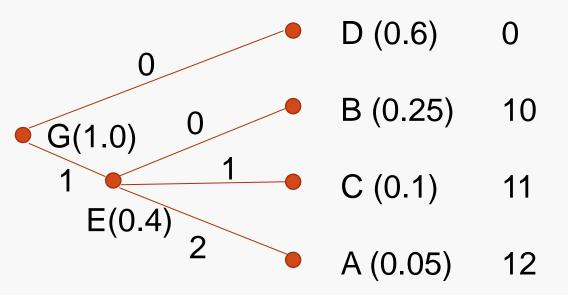
Construct a Ternary Huffman code for the following source.

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ P \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B & C & D \\ 0.05 & 0.25 & 0.1 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log [p(x)]$

Codeword





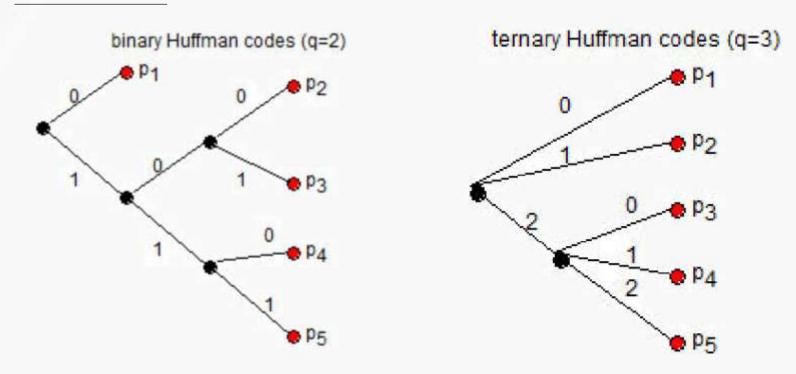
• Average code length *L*=1.4



Can you do better?



Q-ary Huffman codes: algorithm



- We should take advantage of all the shortest codes.
- To take full advantage of the shortest codes, the final tree should have q leaf nodes.
- If there are less than (q 1)m + q source symbols for some positive integer m, "dummy" symbols with probability 0 must be added.



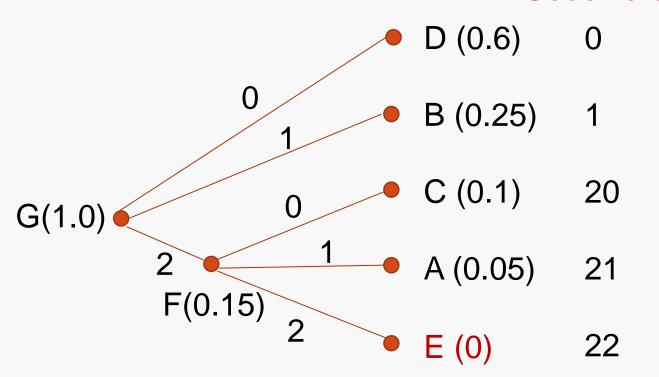
Q-ary Huffman codes: example

Construct a Ternary Huffman code for the following source.

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ P \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B & C & D \\ 0.05 & 0.25 & 0.1 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

We need to have (q - 1)m + q symbols.

Codeword



• Average code length *L*=1.15



Why is dummy symbol necessary?

Q-ary Huffman codes: example



Construct a Quaterary Huffman code for the following source.

- Does it satisfy the Kraft inequality?
- Does it satisfy Shannon's first theorem?
- What is the coding efficiency?





Quantization effect

- Huffman codes have to be an integer of bits long. At most 1 bit overhead.
- For those high probability symbol in common set, or for small set, Huffman coding would use much longer codeword length than that is necessary.

| probability of | optimal number of | Huffman codes | |
|-----------------|--|-----------------|--|
| a symbol | bits per symbol | codeword length | |
| $\frac{1}{256}$ | $-\log_2\left(\frac{1}{256}\right) = 8$ | 8 | |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $-\log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 1$ | 1 | |
| $\frac{1}{3}$ | $-\log_2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1.5849$ | 1 or 2 | |
| 9 10 | $-\log_2(0.9) = 0.1520$ | 1 | |

- Improvements: (see chapter 13.)
 - Arithmetic coding: remove the quantization effect from which Huffman codes suffers with small source alphabets.





- Need to have the knowledge of the statistics of information source.
 - Difficult to obtain in practice

- Improvements: (see chapter 13.)
 - Universal coding: achieve related good length without the knowledge of the source, such as LZ codes..

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重难点:

- > Shannon code
- > Huffman code





Motivation

- Idea: eliminate redundancy to compress data
- Source coding: encoder and decoder
- Optimal codes: the instantaneous code with the minimum expected length
- Theory: Zero-error source coding theorem
 - The theoretical limit: entropy of the source
 - The existence of ideal source codes
- Applications: Practical source coding algorithms
 - Shannon codes
 - Huffman codes

Thank you!

My Homepage



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