Data Compression

Basics + Huffman coding

How much can we compress?

Assuming all input messages are valid, if even one string is (lossless) compressed, some other must expand.

Take all messages of length n.

Is it possible to compress ALL OF THEM in less bits?

NO, they are 2ⁿ but we have less compressed msg...

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n - 2$$

We need to talk about stochastic sources

Entropy (Shannon, 1948)

For a set of symbols S with probability p(s), the **self information** of s is:

$$i(s) = \log_2 \frac{1}{p(s)} = -\log_2 p(s) \quad \text{bits}$$

Lower probability → higher information

Entropy is the weighted average of *i(s)*

$$H(S) = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) * \log_2 \frac{1}{p(s)}$$

Statistical Coding

How do we use probability p(s) to encode s?

- Prefix codes and relationship to Entropy
- Huffman codes
- Arithmetic codes

Uniquely Decodable Codes

A <u>variable length code</u> assigns a bit string (codeword) of variable length to every symbol

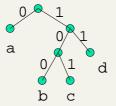
$$e.g. a = 1, b = 01, c = 101, d = 011$$

What if you get the sequence 1011?

A <u>uniquely decodable code</u> can always be uniquely decomposed into their codewords.

Prefix Codes

A <u>prefix code</u> is a variable length code in which no codeword is a prefix of another one



Average Length

For a code *C* with codeword length L[s], the <u>average length</u> is defined as

$$L_a(C) = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) * L[s]$$

We say that a prefix code C is **optimal** if for all prefix codes C', $L_a(C) \le L_a(C')$

A property of optimal codes

<u>Theorem</u> (Kraft-McMillan). For any optimal uniquely decodable code, it does exist a prefix code with the same symbol lengths and thus same average optimal length. And vice versa...

<u>Theorem</u> (golden rule). If C is an optimal prefix code for a source with probabilities $\{p_1, ..., p_n\}$ then $p_i < p_i \Rightarrow L[s_i] \ge L[s_i]$

Relationship to Entropy

Theorem (lower bound, Shannon). For any probability distribution and any uniquely decodable code C, we have

$$H(S) \leq L_a(C)$$

Theorem (upper bound, Shannon). For any probability distribution, there exists a prefix code C such that

$$L_a(C) < H(S) + 1$$

Shannon code takes log 1/p bits

Huffman Codes

Invented by Huffman as a class assignment in '50.

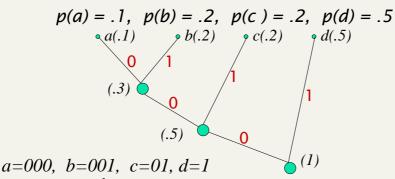
Used in most compression algorithms

gzip, bzip, jpeg (as option), fax compression,...

Properties:

- Generates optimal prefix codes
- Cheap to encode and decode
- $L_a(Huff) = H$ if probabilities are powers of 2
 - Otherwise, at most 1 bit more per symbol!!!

Running Example



There are 2^{n-1} "equivalent" Huffman trees

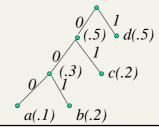
What about ties (and thus, tree depth)?

Encoding and Decoding

Encoding: Emit the root-to-leaf path leading to the symbol to be encoded.

Decoding: Start at root and take branch for each bit received. When at leaf, output its symbol and return to root.

abc... →00000101 101001... → dcb



A property on tree contraction

Lemma 2.16 The relation between a tree T and his reduced tree R, according to the average length, is $L_T = L_R + (p_x + p_y)$.

Proof:



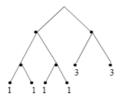


Something like substituting symbols x,y with one new symbol x+y

...by induction, optimality follows...
$$L_H = L_{R_H} + (p_n + p_{n-1}) \stackrel{hyp}{=} L_{opt}[p_n + p_{n-1}, p_1, \ldots, p_{n-2}] + (p_n + p_{n-1})$$

$$\leq L_R + (p_n + p_{n-1}) = L_T \Rightarrow L_H \leq L_T$$

Optimum vs. Huffman



no Huffman

Huffman

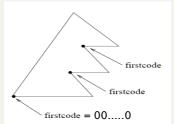
Optimum not obtained by Huffman algorithm

Figure 2.17: Example of a optimum code not obtained by Huffman coding

Model size may be large

Huffman codes can be made *succinct* in the representation of the codeword tree, and *fast* in (de)coding.

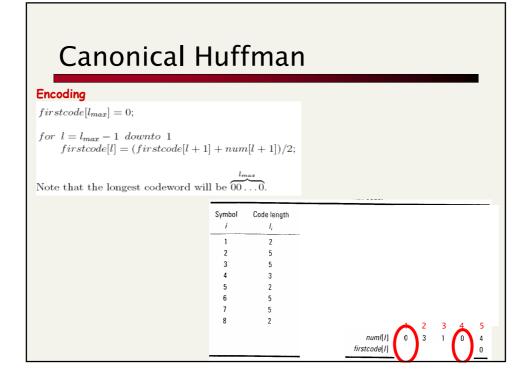
Canonical Huffman tree

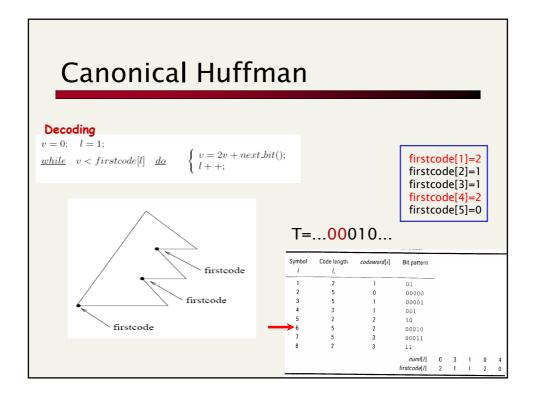


We store for any level L:

- firstcode[L]
- Symbol[L,i], for each i in level L

This is $\leq h^2 + |\Sigma| \log |\Sigma|$ bits





Problem with Huffman Coding

Consider a symbol with probability .999. The self information is

$$-\log(.999) = .00144$$

If we were to send 1000 such symbols we might hope to use 1000*.0014 = 1.44 bits.

Using Huffman, we take at least 1 bit per symbol, so we would require 1000 bits.

What can we do?

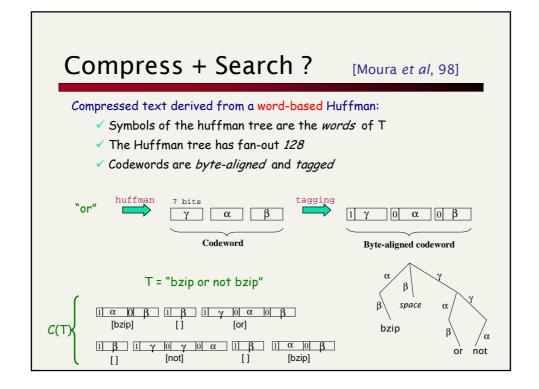
Macro-symbol = block of k symbols

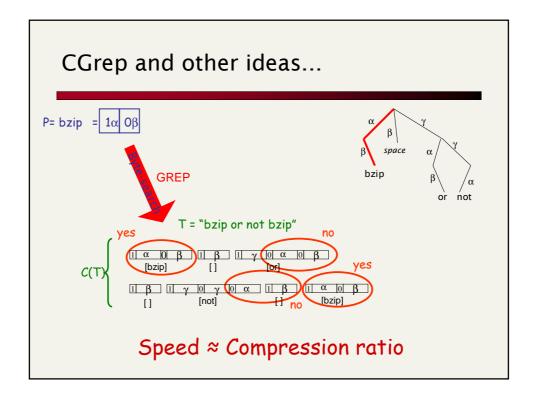
- © 1 extra bit per macro-symbol = 1/k extra-bits per symbol
- 3 Larger model to be transmitted

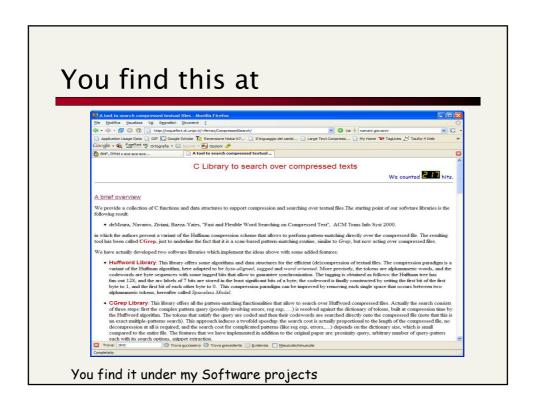
Shannon took infinite sequences, and $k \rightarrow \infty !!$

In practice, we have:

- Model takes $|\Sigma|^k$ (k * log $|\Sigma|$) + h^2 (where h might be $|\Sigma|$)
- It is $H_0(S_L) \le L * H_k(S) + O(k * log |\Sigma|)$, for each $k \le L$

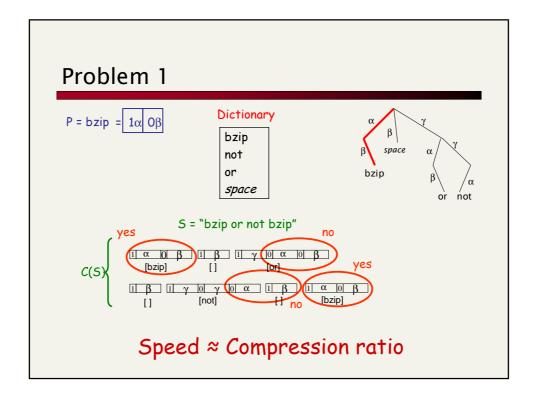






Data Compression

Basic search algorithms:
Single and Multiple-patterns
Mismatches and Edits



Pattern Matching Problem

Exact match problem: we want to find all the occurrences of the pattern P[1,m] in the text T[1,n].



- P A B
- ✓ Naïve solution
 - For any position i of T, check if T[i,i+m-1]=P[1,m]
 - © Complexity: O(nm) time
- √ (Classical) Optimal solutions based on comparisons
 - Knuth-Morris-Pratt
 - Boyer-Moore
 - © Complexity: O(n + m) time

Semi-numerical pattern matching

- We show methods in which Arithmetic and Bitoperations replace comparisons
- We will survey two examples of such methods
 - The Random Fingerprint method due to Karp and Rahin
 - The Shift-And method due to Baeza-Yates and Gonnet

Rabin-Karp Fingerprint

- We will use a class of functions from strings to integers in order to obtain:
 - An efficient randomized algorithm that makes an error with small probability.
 - A randomized algorithm that never errors whose running time is efficient with high probability.
- We will consider a binary alphabet. (i.e., T={0,1}ⁿ)

Arithmetic replaces Comparisons

- Strings are also numbers, H: strings → numbers.
- Let s be a string of length m

$$H(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} 2^{m-i} s[i]$$

- $P = 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$ $H(P) = 2^30 + 2^21 + 2^10 + 2^01 = 5$
- s=s' if and only if H(s)=H(s')
- Definition:

let T_r denote the m length substring of T starting at position r (i.e., $T_r = T[r,r+m-1]$).

Arithmetic replaces Comparisons

- Strings are also numbers, H: strings → numbers
 - Exact match = Scan T and compare H(T_i) and H(P)
 - There is an occurrence of P starting at position r of T if and only if H(P) = H(T_r)

Arithmetic replaces Comparisons

• We can compute $H(T_r)$ from $H(T_{r-1})$

$$H(T_r) = 2H(T_{r-1}) - 2^m T(r-1) + T(r+n-1)$$

$$T = 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$$

$$T_1 = 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1$$

$$T_2 = 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0$$

$$H(T_1) = H(1011) = 11$$

 $H(T_2) = H(0110) = 2 \cdot 11 - 2^4 \cdot 1 + 0 = 22 - 16 = 6 = H(0110)$

Arithmetic replaces Comparisons

- A simple efficient algorithm:
- Compute H(P) and H(T₁)
- Run over T
 - Compute H(T_r) from H(T_{r-1}) in constant time, and make the comparisons (i.e., H(P)=H(T_r)).
- Total running time O(n+m)?
 - NO! why?
 - The problem is that when m is large, it is unreasonable to assume that each arithmetic operation can be done in O(1) time.
 - Values of H() are m-bits long numbers. In general, they are too BIG to fit in a machine's word.
- IDEA! Let's use modular arithmetic:

For some prime q, the *Karp-Rabin fingerprint* of a string s is defined by $H_q(s) = H(s) \pmod{q}$

An example

$$P = 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1$$

 $q = 7$

$$H(P) = 47$$

 $H_a(P) = 47 \pmod{7} = 5$

 $H_{\alpha}(P)$ can be computed incrementally!

$$1 \cdot 2 \pmod{7} + 0 = 2$$

$$2 \cdot 2 \pmod{7} + 1 = 5$$

$$5 \cdot 2 \pmod{7} + 1 = 4$$

$$4 \cdot 2 \pmod{7} + 1 = 2$$

$$2 \cdot 2 \pmod{7} + 1 = 5$$

$$5 \pmod{7} = 5 = H_a(P)$$

We can still compute $H_q(T_r)$ from $H_q(T_{r-1})$.

 $2^{m} \pmod{q} = 2(2^{m-1} \pmod{q}) \pmod{q}$

Intermediate values are also small! (< 2q)

Karp-Rabin Fingerprint

How about the comparisons?

Arithmetic:

There is an occurrence of P starting at position r of T if and only if $H(P) = H(T_r)$

Modular arithmetic:

If there is an occurrence of P starting at position r of T then $H_{\alpha}(P) = H_{\alpha}(T_r)$

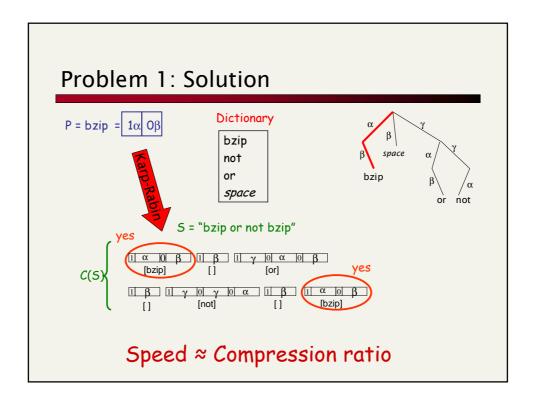
False match! There are values of q for which the converse is not true (i.e., $P \neq T_r$ AND $H_q(P) = H_q(T_r)$)!

- Our goal will be to choose a modulus q such that
 - $\,$ $\,$ q is small enough to keep computations efficient. (i.e., $\,H_q()s$ fit in a machine word)
 - q is large enough so that the probability of a false match is kept small

Karp-Rabin fingerprint algorithm

- Choose a positive integer I
- Pick a random prime q less than or equal to I, and compute P's fingerprint – H_q(P).
- For each position r in T, compute $H_q(T_r)$ and test to see if it equals $H_q(P)$. If the numbers are equal either
 - declare a probable match (randomized algorithm).
 - or check and declare a definite match (deterministic algorithm)
- Running time: excluding verification O(n+m).
- Randomized algorithm is correct w.h.p
- Deterministic algorithm whose expected running time is O(n+m)

Proof on the board

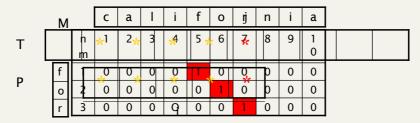


The Shift-And method

• Define M to be a binary m by n matrix such that:

M(i,j) = 1 iff the first *i* characters of P exactly match the *i* characters of T ending at character *j*.

- i.e., M(i,j) = 1 iff P[1 ... i] = T[j-i+1...j]
- Example: T = california and P = for



How does M solve the exact match problem?

How to construct M

- We want to exploit the bit-parallelism to compute the j-th column of M from the j-1-th one
 - Machines can perform bit and arithmetic operations between two words in constant time.
 - Examples:
 - And(A,B) is bit-wise and between A and B.
 - BitShift(A) is the value derived by shifting the A's bits down by one and setting the first bit to 1.

$$BitShift\begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\1\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let w be the word size. (e.g., 32 or 64 bits). We'll assume m=w. NOTICE: any column of M fits in a memory word.

How to construct M

- We want to exploit the bit-parallelism to compute the j-th column of M from the j-th one
- We define the m-length binary vector U(x) for each character x in the alphabet. U(x) is set to 1 for the positions in P where character x appears.
- Example:

P = abaac

$$\boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{a}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{b}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{c}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

How to construct M

- Initialize column 0 of M to all zeros
- For j > 0, j-th column is obtained by

$$M(j) = BitShift(M(j-1)) \& U(T[j])$$

- For i > 1, Entry M(i,j) = 1 iff
 (1) The first i-1 characters of P match the i-1 characters of T ending at character j-1
 ⇔ M(i-1,j-1) = 1
 - (2) $P[i] = T[j] \Leftrightarrow \text{ the i-th bit of } U(T[j]) = 1$
- BitShift moves bit M(i-1,j-1) in i-th position
- AND this with i-th bit of U(T[j]) to estabilish if both are true

An example j=1

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 T = x a b x a b a a c a 1 2 3 4 5

_					
P =	a	h	a	a	
	и	U	u	u	_

n m	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1 0
1	0									
2	0									
3	0									
4	0									
5	0									

$$\boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$BitShift(M(0)) \& U(T[1]) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \& \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

An example j=2

12345678910

T = x a b x a b a a c a12345

P = a b a a c

n m	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1 0
1	0	1								
2	0	0								
3	0	0								
4	0	0								
5	0	0								

$$\boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{a}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\1\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$BitShift(M(1)) \& U(T[2]) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{cases} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

An example j=3

12345678910

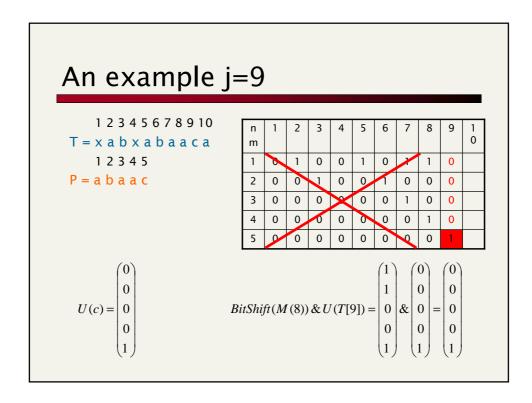
T = x a b x a b a a c a12345

P = a b a a c

n m	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1
1	0	1	0							
2	0	0	1							
3	0	0	0							
4	0	0	0							
5	0	0	0							

$$\boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{b}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$BitShift(M(2)) \& U(T[3]) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \& \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Shift-And method: Complexity

- If m<=w, any column and vector U() fit in a memory word.
 - Any step requires O(1) time.
- If m>w, any column and vector U() can be divided in m/w memory words.
 - Any step requires O(m/w) time.
- Overall O(n(1+m/w)+m) time.
- Thus, it is very fast when pattern length is close to the word size.
 - Very often in practice. Recall that w=64 bits in modern architectures.

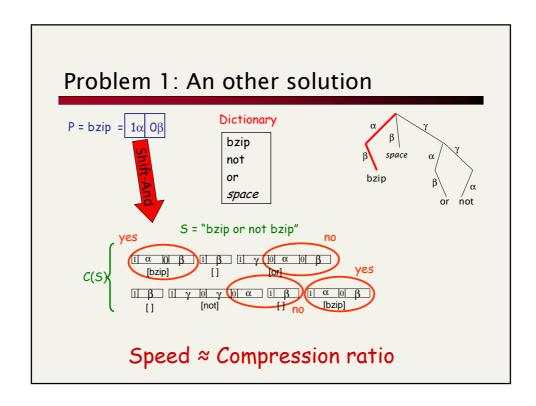
Some simple extensions

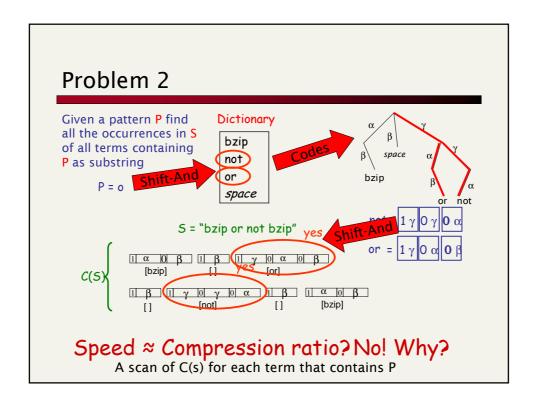
 We want to allow the pattern to contain special symbols, like [a-f] classes of chars

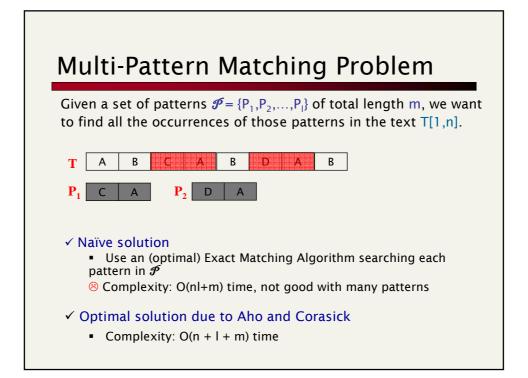
P = [a-b]baac

$$\boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{U}(b) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{c}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

What about '?', '[^...]' (not).

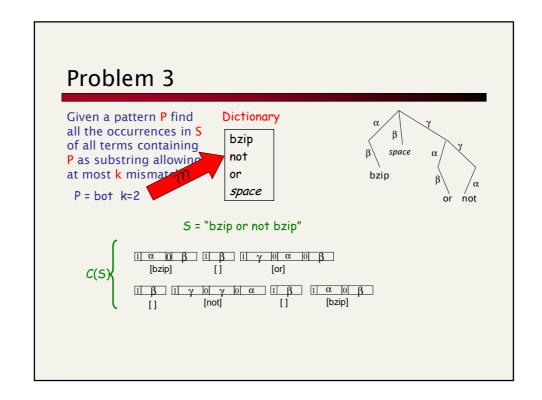






A simple extention of Shift-And

- S is the concatenation of the patterns in \mathcal{F}
- R is a bitmap of lenght m.
 - R[i] = 1 iff S[i] is the first symbol of a pattern
- Use a variant of Shift-And method searching for S
 - For any symbol c, U'(c) = U(c) and R
 - U'(c)[i] = 1 iff S[i]=c and is the first symbol of a pattern
 - For any step j,
 - compute M(j)
 - then M(j) OR U'(T[j]). Why?
 - Set to 1 the first bit of each pattern that start with T[j]
 - Check if there are occurrences ending in j. How?



Agrep: Shift-And method with errors

- We extend the *Shift-And* method for finding inexact occurrences of a pattern in a text.
- Example:

```
T = aatatccacaa
P = atcgaa
```

P appears in T with 2 mismatches starting at position 4, it also occurs with 4 mismatches starting at position 2.

```
aatatccacaa aatatccacaa
atcgaa atcgaa
```

Agrep

- Our current goal given k find all the occurrences of P in T with up to k mismatches
- We define the matrix M^I to be an m by n binary matrix, such that:

M'(i,j) = 1 iff

There are no more than I mismatches between the first i characters of P match the i characters up through character j of T.

- What is M⁰?
- How does M^k solve the k-mismatch problem?

Computing M^k

- We compute M¹ for all *I=0, ... ,k.*
- For each j compute M(j), $M^{1}(j)$, ..., $M^{k}(j)$
- For all / initialize M/(0) to the zero vector.
- In order to compute M^I(j), we observe that there is a match iff

Computing M^I: case 1

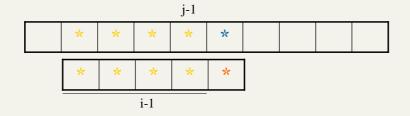
■ The first *i-1* characters of P match a substring of T ending at *j-1*, with at most *l* mismatches, and the next pair of characters in P and T are equal.



 $BitShift(M^{l}(j-1)) \wedge U(T[j])$

Computing M^I: case 2

■ The first *i-1* characters of P match a substring of T ending at *j-1*, with at most *l-1* mismatches.



 $BitShift(M^{l-1}(j-1))$

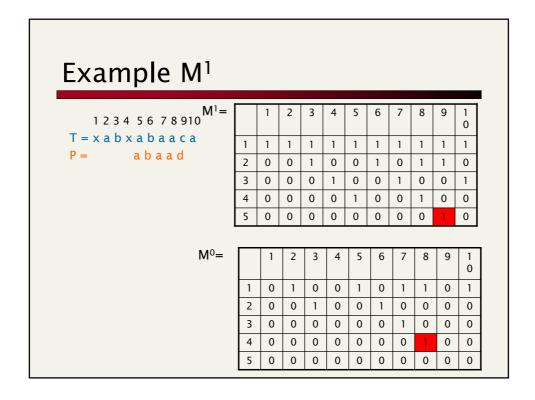
Computing M^I

- We compute M^{I} for all I=0, ..., k.
- For each j compute M(j), $M^{1}(j)$, ..., $M^{k}(j)$
- For all / initialize M/(0) to the zero vector.
- In order to compute M^I(j), we observe that there is a match iff

$$M^{l}(j) =$$

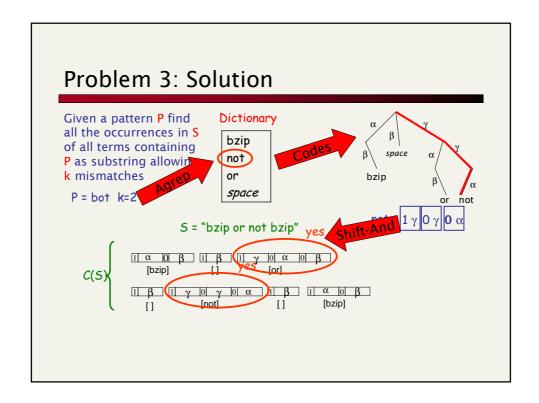
$$[BitShift(M^{l}(j-1)) \wedge U(T(j))] \vee$$

$$BitShift(M^{l-1}(j-1))$$



How much do we pay?

- The running time is O(kn(1+m/w)
- Again, the method is practically efficient for small m.
- Still only a O(k) columns of M are needed at any given time. Hence, the space used by the algorithm is O(k) memory words.



Agrep: more sophisticated operations

- The Shift-And method can solve other ops
 - The edit distance between two strings p and s is d(p,s) = minimum numbers of operations needed to transform p into s via three ops:
 - Insertion: insert a symbol in p
 - Delection: delete a symbol from p
 - Substitution: change a symbol in p with a different one
 - Example: d(ananas,banane) = 3
 - Search by regular expressions
 - Example: (a|b)?(abc|a)

Data Compression

Some thoughts

Variations...

Canonical Huffman still needs to know the codeword lengths, and thus build the tree...

This may be extremely time/space costly when you deal with Gbs of textual data

A simple algorithm

Sort p_i in decreasing order, and encode s_i via the variable-length code for the integer i.

γ –code for integer encoding

0000......0 x in binary

• x > 0 and Length = $\lfloor \log_2 x \rfloor + 1$

e.g., 9 represented as <000,1001>.

- γ -code for x takes $2 \lfloor \log_2 x \rfloor + 1$ bits (ie. factor of 2 from optimal)
- Optimal for $Pr(x) = 1/2x^2$, and i.i.d integers

It is a prefix-free encoding...

• Given the following sequence of γ -coded integers, reconstruct the original sequence:

0001000001100110000011101100111

8 6 3 59

Analysis

Sort p_i in decreasing order, and encode s_i via the variable-length code $\gamma(i)$.

Recall that: $|\gamma(i)| \le 2 * \log i + 1$

How much good is this approach wrt Huffman?

Compression ratio $\leq 2 * H_0(s) + 1$

Key fact:

 $1 \ge \Sigma_{i=1,...,x} p_i \ge x * p_x \rightarrow x \le 1/p_x$

How good is it?

Encode the integers via δ -coding:

$$|\gamma(i)| \le 2 * log i + 1$$

The cost of the encoding is (recall $i \le 1/p_i$):

$$\sum_{i=1,\dots,\Sigma} p_i * | \gamma(i) | \leq \sum_{i=1,\dots,\Sigma} p_i * [2*\log\frac{1}{p_i} + 1]$$

This is: $\leq 2 * H_0(X) + 1$

No much worse than Huffman, and improvable to $H_0(X) + 2 + \dots$

A better encoding

- Byte-aligned and tagged Huffman
 - 128-ary Huffman tree
 - First bit of the first byte is tagged
 - Configurations on 7-bits: just those of Huffman
- End-tagged dense code
 - The rank r is mapped to r-th binary sequence on 7*k bits
 - First bit of the last byte is tagged

A better encoding

Surprising changes

- It is a prefix-code
- Better compression: it uses all 7-bits configurations

Rank	ETDC	THC
1	100	100
2	101	101
3	110	110
4	111	111 000
5	000 100	1 11 0 01
6	000 101	111 010
7	000 110	1 11 0 11 0 00
8	000 111	1 11 0 11 0 01
9	0 01 1 00	1 11 0 11 0 10
10	001 101	111 011 011

Table 1: Comparative example among ETDC and THC, for $b{=}3$.

(s,c)-dense codes

Distribution of words is skewed: $1/i^{\theta}$, where $1 < \theta < 2$

- A new concept: Continuers vs Stoppers
 - Previously we used: s = c = 128
- The main idea is:
 - s + c = 256 (we are playing with 8 bits)
 - Thus s items are encoded with 1 byte
 - And s*c with 2 bytes, s * c² on 3 bytes, ...



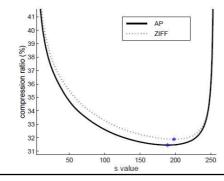
An example

- 5000 distinct words
- ETDC encodes 128 + 128² = 16512 words on 2 bytes
- (230,26)-dense code encodes 230 + 230*26 = 6210 on 2 bytes, hence more on 1 byte and thus if skewed...

Optimal (s,c)-dense codes

Find the optimal s, by assuming c = 128-s.

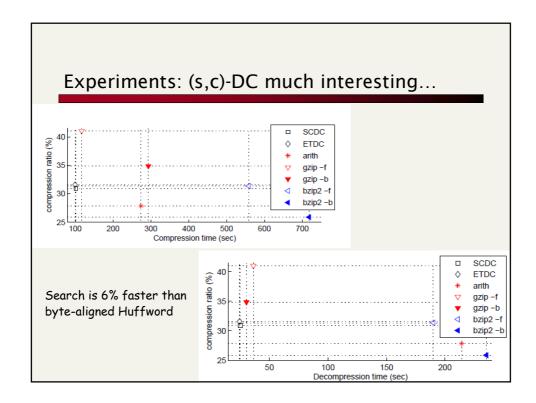
- Brute-force approach
- Binary search:
 - On real distributions, it seems that one unique minimum



$$L(s,c) = \sum_{k=0}^{K^s-1} (1 - F_k^s)$$

 $K^s = \max \text{ codeword length}$

 $\mathbf{F_k^s} = \text{cum. prob. symb. whose } |\text{cw}| <= k$



Streaming compression

Still you need to determine and sort all terms....

Can we do everything in one pass?

- Move-to-Front (MTF):
 - As a freq-sorting approximator
 - As a caching strategy
 - As a compressor
- Run-Length-Encoding (RLE):
 - FAX compression

Move to Front Coding

Transforms a **char** sequence into an **integer** sequence, that can then be *var-length coded*

- Start with the list of symbols L=[a,b,c,d,...]
- For each input symbol s
 - 1) output the position of s in L
 - 2) move s to the front of L

Properties:

There is a memory

- Exploit temporal locality, and it is dynamic
- $X = 1^n 2^n 3^{n...} n^n \rightarrow Huff = O(n^2 \log n), MTF = O(n \log n) + n^2$

No much worse than Huffman ...but it may be far better

MTF: how good is it?

Encode the integers via δ -coding:

$$|\gamma(i)| \le 2 * \log i + 1$$

Put Σ in the front and consider the cost of encoding:

$$O(\Sigma \log \Sigma) + \sum_{x=1}^{\Sigma} \sum_{i=2}^{n_x} \gamma(p_i^x - p_{i-1}^x)$$

By Jensen's: $\leq O(\Sigma \log \Sigma) + \sum_{x=1}^{\Sigma} n_x [2*\log \frac{N}{n_x} + 1]$

$$\leq O(\Sigma \log \Sigma) + N*[2*H_0(X) + 1]$$

$$L_a[mtf] \le 2*H_0(X) + O(1)$$

MTF: higher compression

Alphabet of words

How to keep efficiently the MTF-list:

- Search tree
 - Leaves contain the words, ordered as in the MTF-List
 - Nodes contain the size of their descending subtree
- Hash Table
 - keys are the words (of the MTF-List)
 - data is a pointer to the corresponding tree leaves
- Each ops takes O(log Σ)
- Total cost is $O(n \log \Sigma)$

Run Length Encoding (RLE)

If spatial locality is very high, then

abbbaacccca =>
$$(a,1),(b,3),(a,2),(c,4),(a,1)$$

In case of binary strings \rightarrow just numbers and one bit

Properties:

Exploit spatial locality, and it is a dynamic code

There is a memory $X = 1^n 2^n 3^{n...} n^n \rightarrow$ $Huff(X) = n^2 \log n > Rle(X) = n (1 + \log n)$