

◆ Data Encoding

◆ Fixed-Length Binary Code

a: 00 b: 01 c: 11.) fixed
code

ababcbbbc → 000100011101010111

◆ Variable-Length Binary Code

a: 10 b: 0 c: 11) variable
length
code

ababcbbbc → 1001001100011

◆ Data Compression

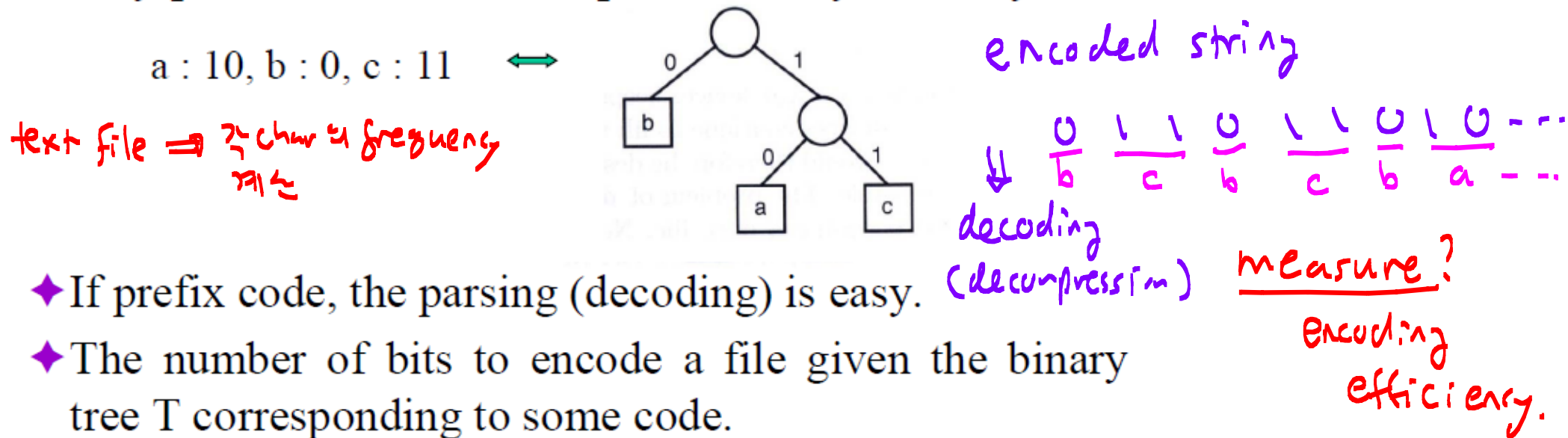
- ◆ Problem of finding an efficient method for encoding a data file.

◆ Optimal Binary Code Problem

- ◆ Problem of finding a binary character code for the characters in the given file such that the file is represented by a least number of bits.

◆ Prefix Code

- ◆ A code that no codeword for one character constitutes the beginning of the codeword for another character.
- ◆ Any prefix code can be represented by a binary tree.



$$bits(T) = \sum_{i=1}^n frequency(v_i) depth(v_i),$$

where $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ is the set of characters in the file, $frequency(v_i)$ is the number of times v_i occurs in the file, and $depth(v_i)$ is the depth of v_i in T .

◆ Huffman Tree

◆ A prefix code tree T such that $\text{bits}(T)$ is minimum.

◆ Example

Character	Frequency	C1(Fixed-Length)	C2	C3 (Huffman)
<i>a</i>	16	000	10	00
<i>b</i>	5	001	11110	1110
<i>c</i>	12	010	1110	110
<i>d</i>	17	011	110	01
<i>e</i>	10	100	11111	1111
<i>f</i>	25	101	0	10

255 bits

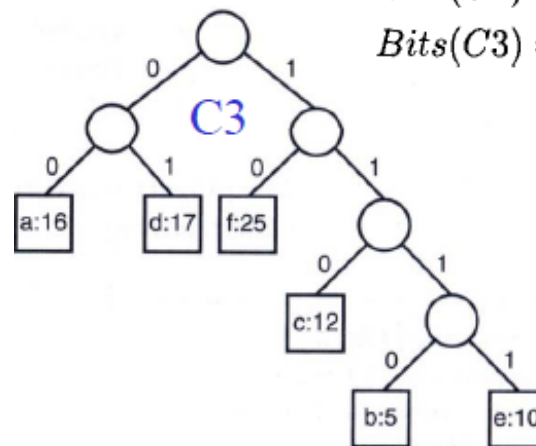
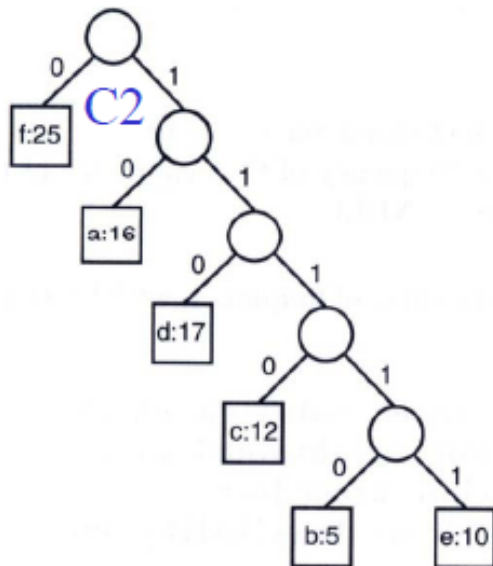
231 bits

212 bits

$$\text{Bits}(C1) = 16(3) + 5(3) + 12(3) + 17(3) + 10(3) + 25(3) = 255$$

$$\text{Bits}(C2) = 16(2) + 5(5) + 12(4) + 17(3) + 10(5) + 25(1) = 231$$

$$\text{Bits}(C3) = 16(2) + 5(4) + 12(3) + 17(2) + 10(4) + 25(2) = 212$$



→ Huffman tree

◆ Huffman's Algorithm

◆ The algorithm actually construct the Huffman tree.

◆ Nodetype

```
struct nodetype {  
    char symbol;    // The value of a character.  
    int frequency;  // The number of times the character  
    nodetype* left; // is in the file.  
    nodetype* right;  
};
```

◆ First construct a priority tree (a heap) PQ

◆ Initially n nodes, where n is the number of distinct characters.

◆ The lower frequency node has higher priority.

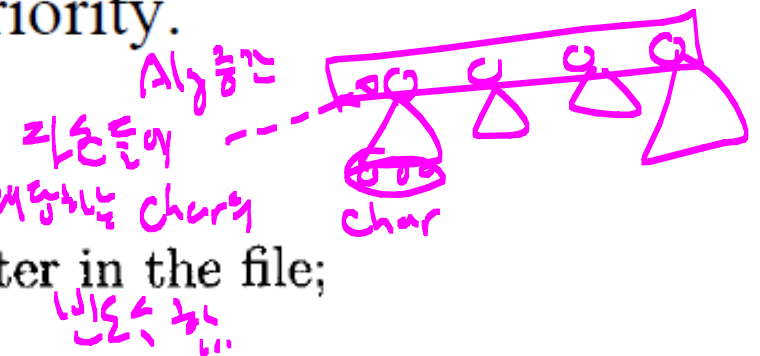
◆ Initial node setting

$p \rightarrow symbol$ = a distinct character in the file;
 $p \rightarrow frequency$ = the frequency of that character in the file;
 $p \rightarrow left = p \rightarrow right = NULL$;

추가 heap → 각 char 빈도.
min heap

빈도 낮은 것들은 2개씩 delete
merge

heap에 insert
until single element in the heap.

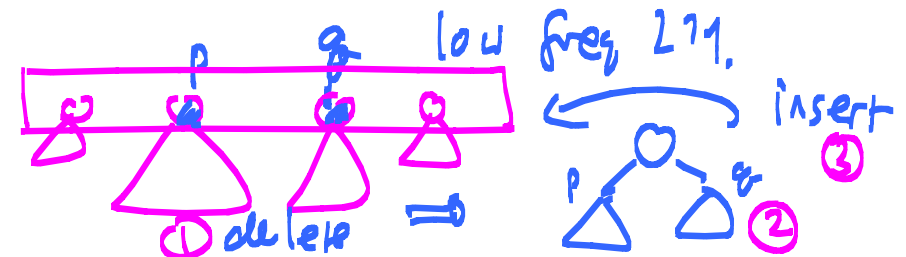


◆ The Algorithm

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} O(\log n) & \text{for } (i=1; i \leq n-1; i++) \{ \\ & \text{remove}(PQ, p); \quad // \text{ There is no solution check; rather,} \\ & \text{remove}(PQ, q); \quad // \text{ solution is obtained when } i = n - 1. \\ & O(1) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r = \text{new node type}; \quad // \text{ There is no feasibility check.} \\ r \rightarrow \text{left} = p; \\ r \rightarrow \text{right} = q; \\ r \rightarrow \text{frequency} = p \rightarrow \text{frequency} + q \rightarrow \text{frequency}; \end{array} \right. \\ & O(\log n) \quad \text{insert}(PQ, r); \end{array} \right. \}$$

$$\text{iterations } n \quad \text{remove}(PQ, r);$$

$$\text{return } r; \text{ Total } O(n \log n) \text{ time}$$



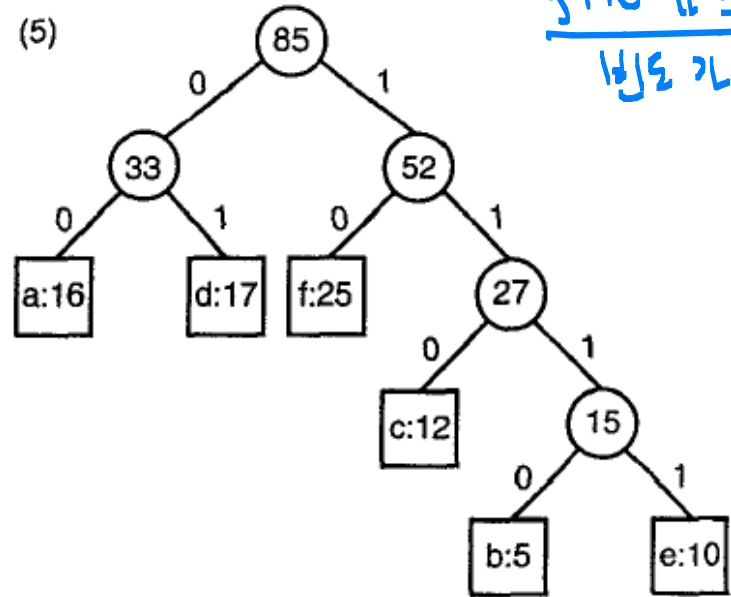
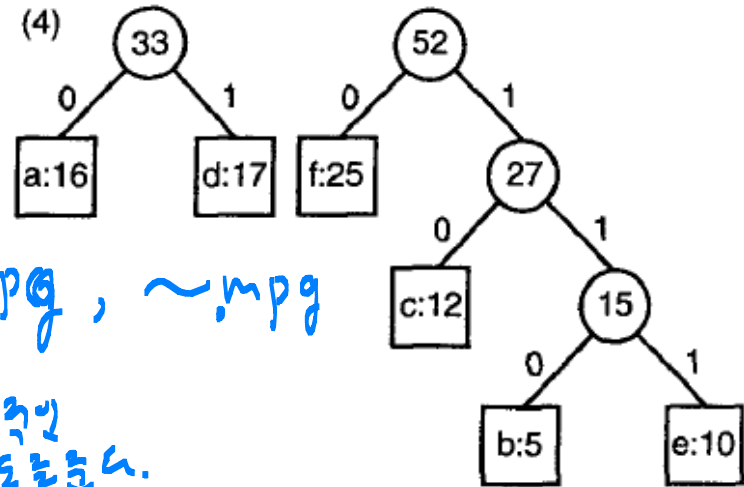
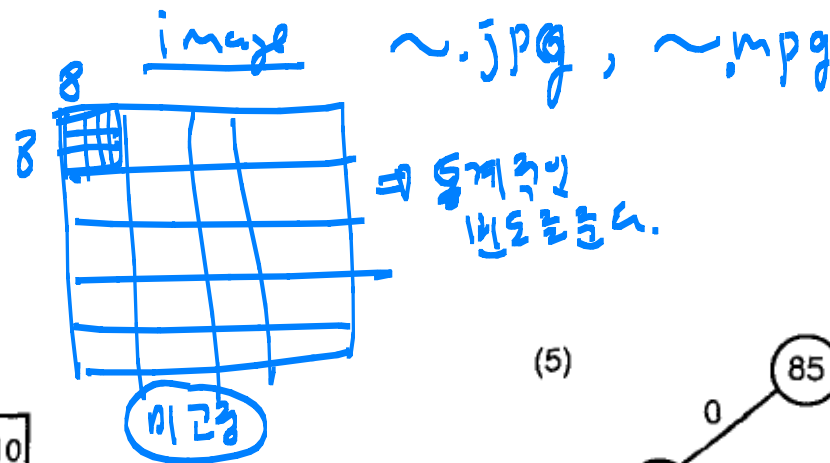
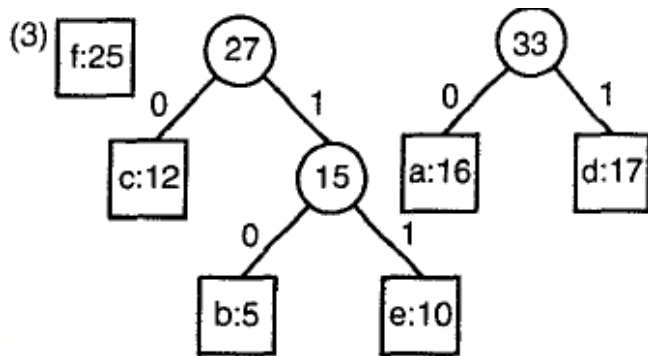
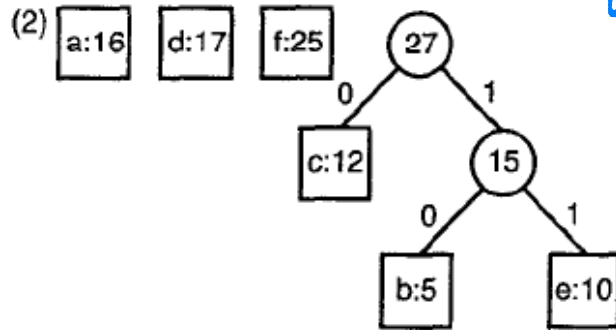
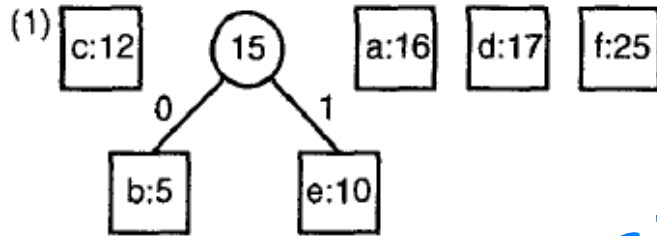
◆ Optimality Proof

▲ Lemma 4.4 The binary tree corresponding to an optimal binary prefix code is full. That is, every nonleaf has two children.

► Theorem 4.5 Huffman's algorithm produces an optimal binary code.

◆ Example

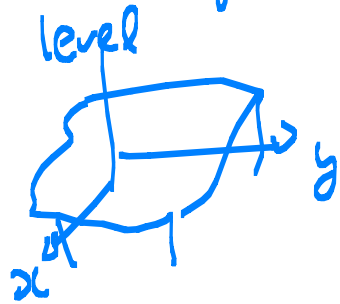
(0) b:5 e:10 c:12 a:16 d:17 f:25



file 인출
 빈도 기 과정: 최적화
 사항.

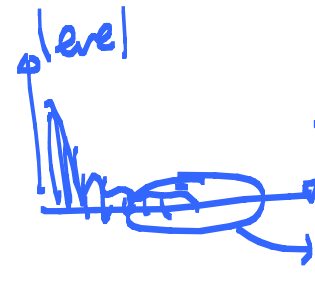
table
 a 00
 b 1110
 !
 table lookup

Digital Cosine Transform(DCT)



1 bit gray level

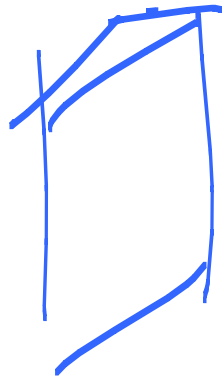
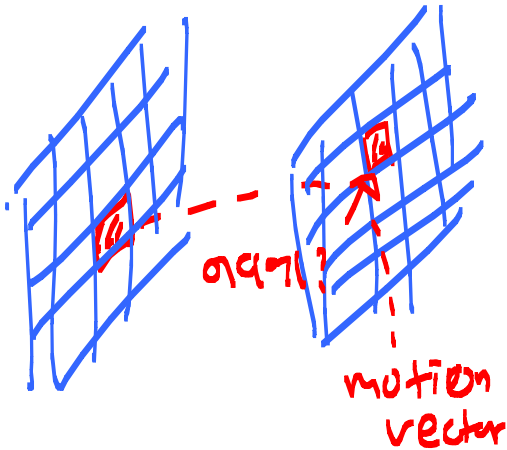
DCT



⇒ Huffman code

0 = 3

Moving Image



신호의 4스텝

Dijkstra Alg : Fibonacci Heap \Rightarrow complexity $\approx O(\log n)$ by a.

◆ Amortization

◆ An analysis method to get more accurate time complexity.

◆ Example

◆ Suppose that insert and deletion operations are done as follows in some data structure:

time spent
(# of operations) \rightarrow

I1	I2	D1	I3	I4	I5	I6	D2	I7	
1	1	8	1	1	1	1	10	1	= 25

Handwritten note: 가산작업 (calculable work) with arrows pointing to the 1s and 8.

◆ The operations for deletion may be very large and/or irregular which prevents from estimating the accurate execution time.

◆ We may be able to distribute some of operations for deletion to the operations for insertion.

I1	I2	D1	I3	I4	I5	I6	D2	I7	
2	2	6	2	2	2	2	6	1	= 25

◆ Then, we may say that the number of operations is $2i+6d$ by amortization if the above distribution is possible.

complexity \approx
amortization
alg.

◆ Aggregate Analysis

- ◆ Calculate the total operations $T(n)$ to perform all the n tasks.
- ◆ The amortized cost per task = $T(n)/n$.

◆ Example : Stack Operations

```
push(S, x);      // add x to the stack S
pop(S);          // remove an element from S
multipop(S, k);  // remove k element from S
```

- ◆ Time for `push()`, `pop()` : $O(1)$
- ◆ Time for `multipop()` : $O(\min(S, k))$
- ◆ Assume that n operations of `push`, `pop` and `multipop` are done for an initially empty stack S .
 - In the worst case, the time for `multipop()` is $O(n)$.
 - Therefore, we may say that the time for each operation is $O(n)$, which implies that the total time is $O(n^2)$ (too much!)

pu pu pu ... m pu ... pu ...
|
 $O(n)$

- ◆ Suppose that n times of push, pop and multipop operations are executed.
 - ◆ Since an element pushed into S is popped exactly once, the number pop operations are the same as that of the push operations (this is true even if multipop operations exist).
 - ◆ Therefore, the total time for these operations are $O(n)$
 - ◆ The amortized cost for each operation = $O(n)/n = O(1)$.
- ◆ Other Methods for Amortized Complexity
 - ◆ Accounting method
 - ◆ Potential method

Backtracking

◆ Depth First Tree Searching

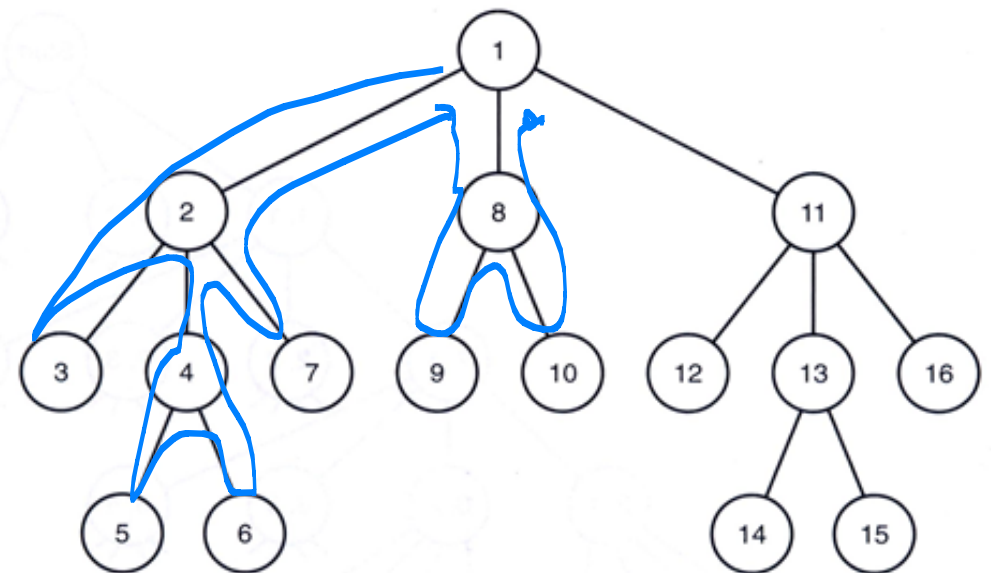
◆ The same as the preorder tree traversal.

◆ The Procedure

```
void depth_first_tree_search (node v){  
    node u;  
    visit v;  
    for (each child u of v)  
        depth_first_tree_search(u);  
}
```

◆ An Example

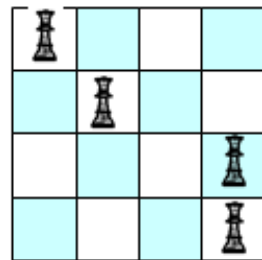
brute force (모든 feasible solution을 본다.
↳ best를 고른다.
가능한 모든 경우를 살펴본다.
search 하는 방법 2가지
① DFS style backtracking ② BFS style branch & bound



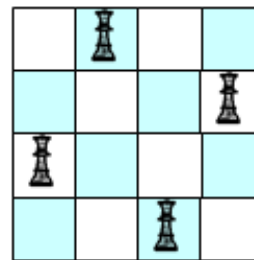
◆ n-Queens Problem

- ◆ We have $n \times n$ chess board and n queens.
- ◆ The goal is to position n queens on the chessboard so that no two queens are in the same row, column or diagonal.

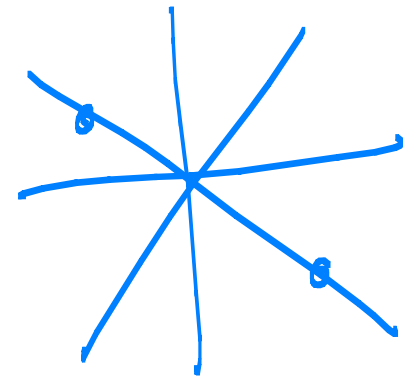
◆ Example:



not a solution



a solution



◆ Observation

- ◆ No two queens can be in the same row.
- ◆ Assign each queen a different row and check which column combinations yields solutions.
- ◆ We have $4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 4 = 256$ candidate solutions for $n=4$.

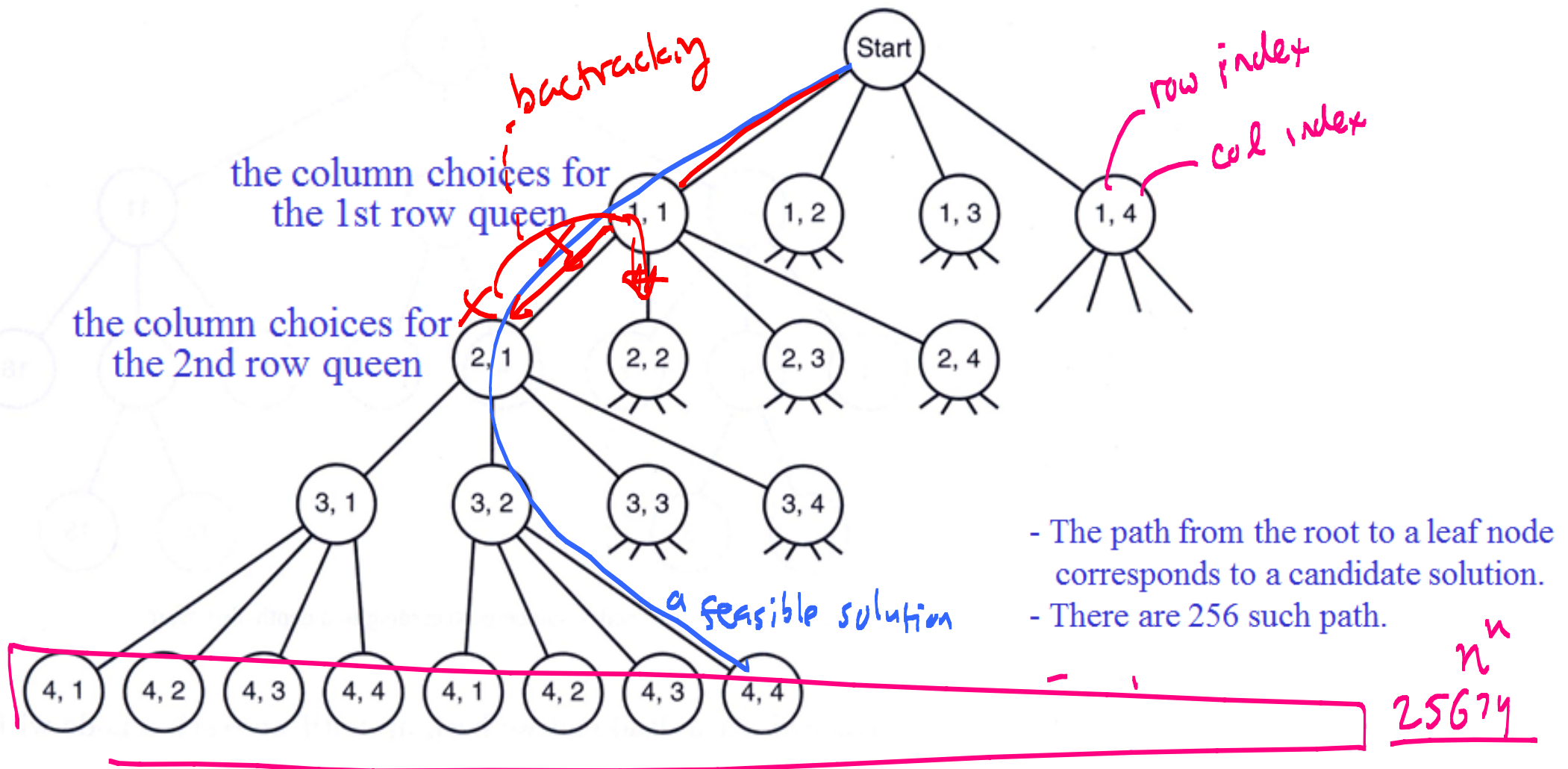
row n과 1까지
queen의 위치를
n-problem의
feasible sol의
개수 = n^n

◆ The State Space Tree (가상적인 tree)

- ◆ A tree representing all possible candidate solutions.
- ◆ Example: The 4-queens problem

solution space 는 많기다

모든 search? No.
필요한 부분만 search

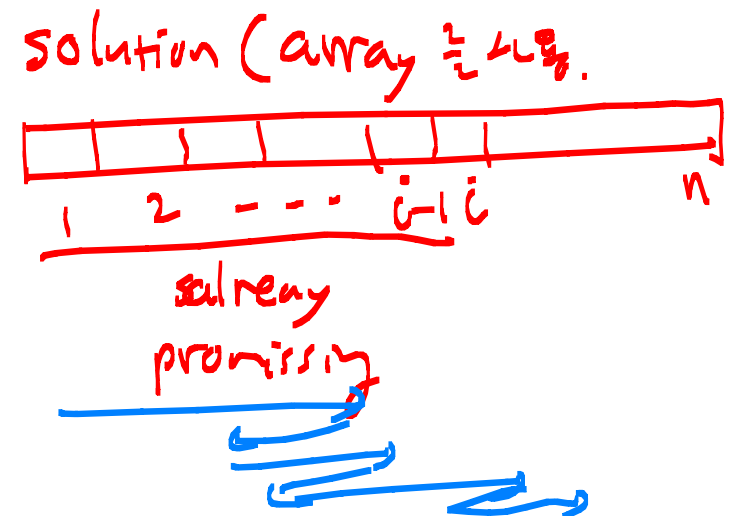
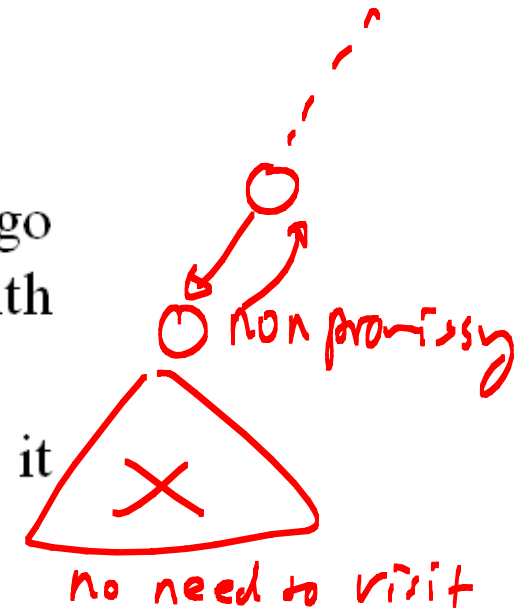


◆ Backtracking

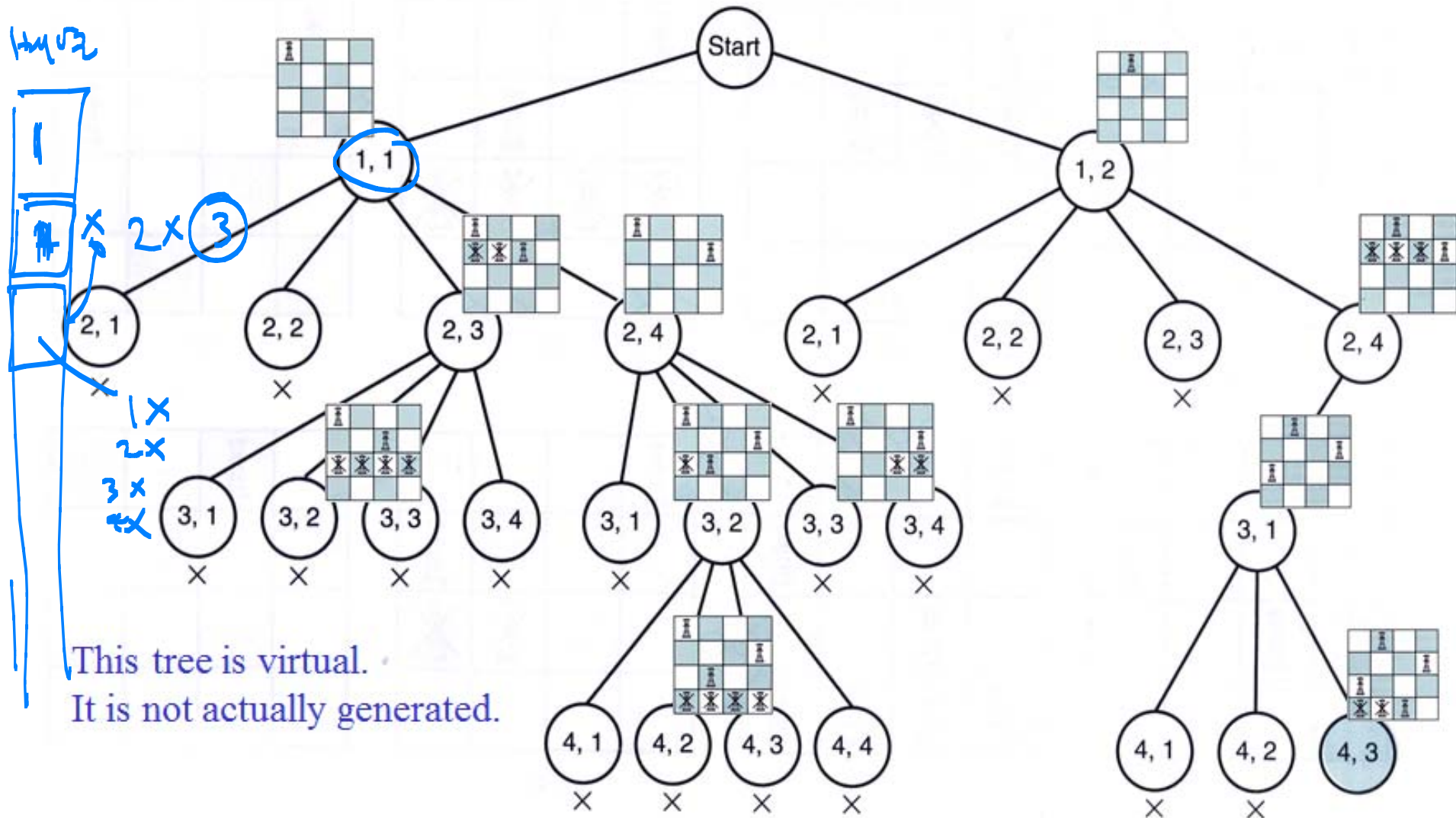
- ◆ A procedure to search the state space tree.
- ◆ If a node can not leads to a solution (**nonpromising**), go back ('**backtrack**') to the node's parent and proceed with the search on the next child. This is called **pruning**.
- ◆ If a node has a possibility to lead a solution, we call it **promising**.
- ◆ A generic procedure :

```
void checknode (node v) {  
    node u;  
    if (promising(v))  
        if (there is a solution at v)  
            write the solution;  
    else  
        for (each child u of v)  
            checknode(u);  
}
```

Promising function :
application dependant



◆ An Example (The 4-queen problem)



Backtracy 이 되는 Alg 생각해

⑥ 즉이런 문제 : NP hard 인거 check → yes 이면
backtracy 4조
가능.

① state space tree 구성. (가능성)

② promising 함수. (가능성)

③ 리프까지 (거의 대부분 사용)

④ program

⑤ test. → 어떤 instance도 빠르게 끝나는가?

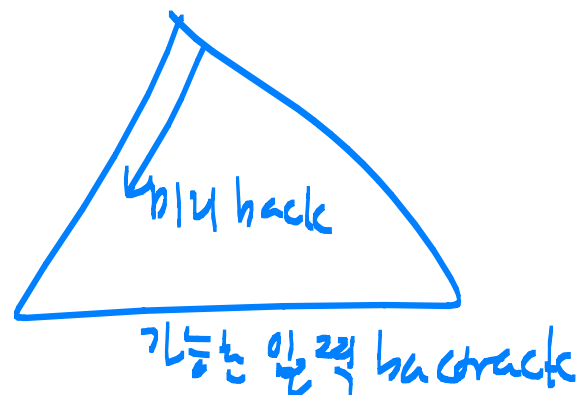
어떤 instance : quickly finished

" : need very very long time.

instance 가 즉이 끝났는데 reasonable 한 시간이 걸릴지 알은거냐?

이거 test. 하는 방법? → 고안에 있음.

Monte Carlo method 사용.



◆ Implementation of the n-queen problem

```
void queens (index i){
```

```
    index j;
```

```
    if (promising(i))
```

```
        if (i == n)
```

```
            cout << col[1] through col [n];
```

```
        else
```

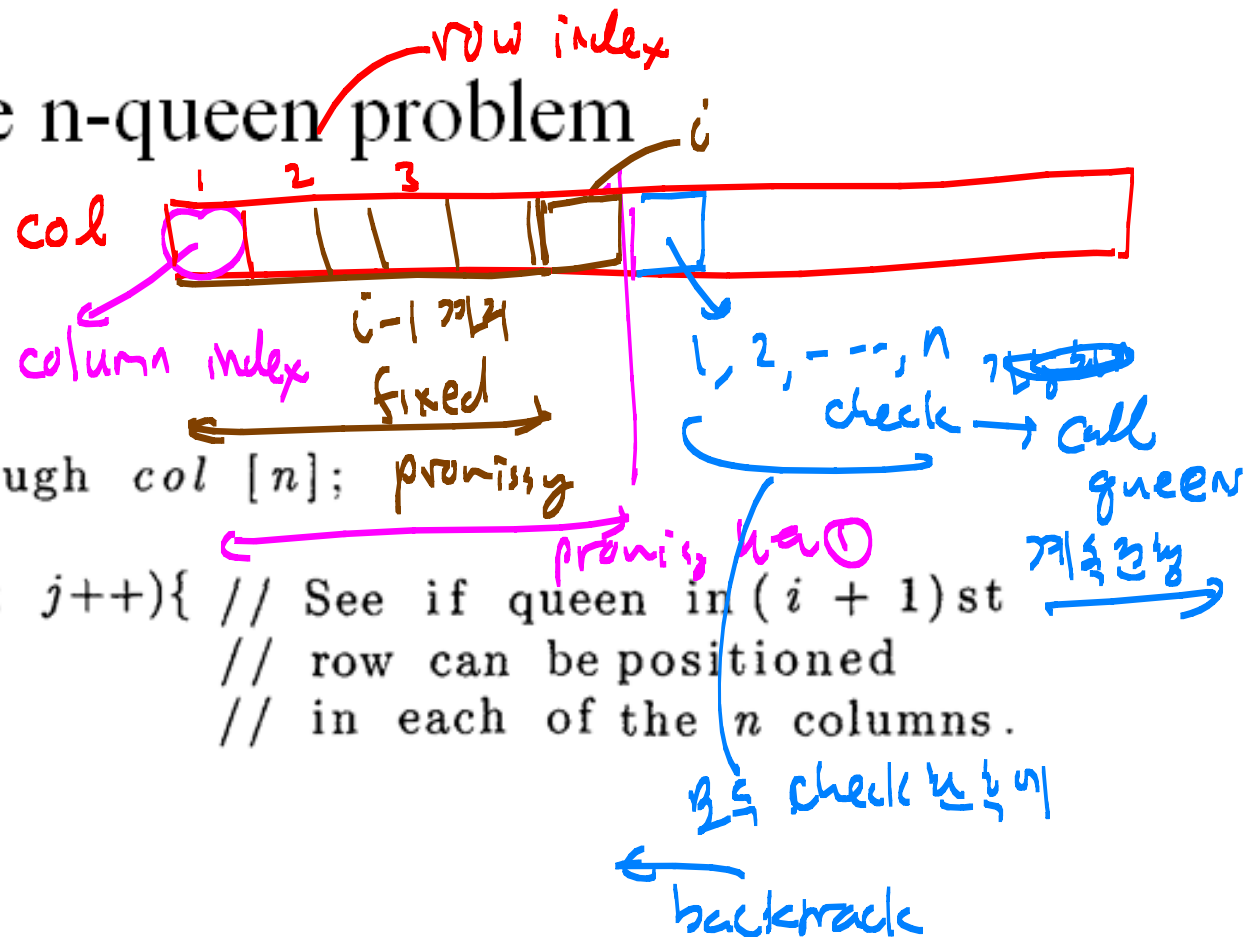
```
            for (j = 1; j <= n; j++){ // See if queen in (i + 1)st
```

```
                col[i + 1] = j; // row can be positioned
```

```
                queens(i + 1); // in each of the n columns.
```

```
            }
```

```
}
```

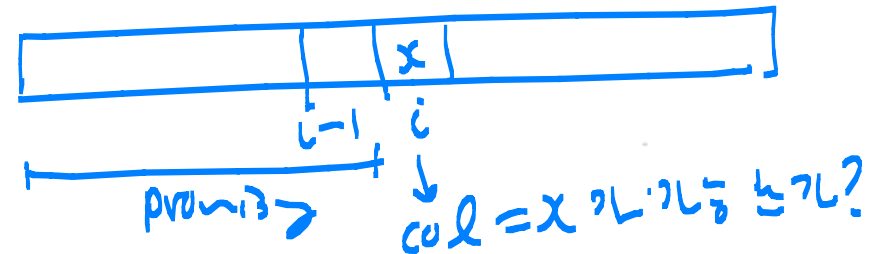


◆ `col[i]` : the column where the queen in the i -th row is located.

◆ `col[1], col[2], ..., col[i-1]` : store the current promising queen's location.

◆ The Function *promising(i)*

```
bool promising (index i) {
    index k; bool switch;
    k = 1;
    switch = true;
    while (k < i && switch) {
        if (col[i] == col[k] || abs(col[i] - col[k]) == i - k)
            switch = false;
        k++;
    }
    return switch;
}
```



이런 call? queens(0)

$i=0$ 이면 true return?

- ◆ $col[i] == col[k]$: checking if the two queens are at the same column.
- ◆ $abs(col[i] - col[k]) == i - k$: checking if diagonally located.

◆ Analysis

- ◆ The total number of nodes in the state space tree

$$1 + n + n^2 + n^3 + \dots + n^n = \frac{n^{n+1} - 1}{n - 1} \quad 19,173,961 \text{ nodes for } n=8$$

- ◆ The promising nodes are at most

$$1 + n + n(n-1) + n(n-1)(n-2) + \dots + n!$$

109,601 nodes for $n=8$

- ◆ Actual number of nodes

n	Number of Nodes Checked by Algorithm 1 [†]	Number of Candidate Solutions Checked by Algorithm 2 [‡]	Number of Nodes Checked by Backtracking	Number of Nodes Found Promising by Backtracking
4	341	24	61	17
8	19,173,961	40,320	15,721	2057
12	9.73×10^{12}	4.79×10^8	1.01×10^7	8.56×10^5
14	1.20×10^{16}	8.72×10^{10}	3.78×10^8	2.74×10^7

↑ Trying $n!$ possible solutions.

↑ DFS without backtracking. The number of nodes in the state space tree.