



# Clever Codes

*2 December 2024*

Prof. Dr. Sebastian Wild

# Learning Outcomes

## Unit 8: *Clever Codes*

1. Know the principles and performance characteristics of *arithmetic coding*.
2. Judge the use of arithmetic coding in applications.
3. Understand the context of *error-prone communication*.
4. Understand concepts of *error-detecting codes* and *error-correcting codes*.
5. Know and understand *Hamming codes*, in particular (7,4) Hamming code.
6. Reason about the *suitability of a code* for an application.

# Outline

## 8 Clever Codes

- 8.1 Arithmetic Coding
- 8.2 Practical Arithmetic Coding
- 8.3 Error Correcting Codes
- 8.4 Coding Theory
- 8.5 Hamming Codes

## 8.1 Arithmetic Coding

# Stream Codes

- ▶ **Recall:** (binary) character encoding  $E : \Sigma \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$ 
  - ▶ Huffman codes *optimal* for any given character frequencies
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- ▶ Stream codes instead compress entire **sequence** of characters

- ▶ RLE and LZW are examples of stream codes ↪ can sometimes do better

- ▶ Two indicative examples

- 1. “Low entropy bits:”  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , highly skewed:  $p_0 = 0.99$

- ↪ entropy  $\mathcal{H}(\frac{1}{100}, \frac{99}{100}) \approx 0.08$  bits per character,

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- ↪ “optimal” Huffman code gives 12-fold space increase over entropy!

- ▶ Can certainly do better here (RLE!)

2. **“Trits”:**  $\Sigma = \{0, 1, 2\}$ , equally likely

- ↪ entropy  $\mathcal{H}(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}) = \lg(3) \approx 1.58$  bits per character,

- Huffman code uses average of  $\frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 + \frac{2}{3} \cdot 2 = \frac{5}{3} \approx 1.67$

- ▶ Can we do better?



## A Decent Hack: Block Codes

- ▶ Huffman on trits wastes  $\approx 0.0817$  bits per character and over 5 % of space
- ▶ A simple trick can reduce this substantially!
  - ▶ treat 5 trits as one “supercharacter”, e. g., 21101
  - $\rightsquigarrow 3^5 = 243$  possible combinations
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- ▶ We can even use a Huffman code for the supercharacters to handle nonuniformity!
- ▶ For the low-entropy bits, could use 3 bits
  - $\rightsquigarrow$  probabilities:
    - 000 : 0.97
    - 001, 010, 100 : 0.0098
    - 011, 101, 110 : 0.000099
    - 111 : 0.000001
  - $\rightsquigarrow$  with Huffman code, 1.06 bits per superchar of 3 input bits
  - $\rightsquigarrow$  almost factor 3 better; can improve with larger blocks!

## Block Codes – A Panacea?

- Using supercharacters works well in our examples.



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⚡ For general case, need to *communicate* the supercharacter encoding

- ▶ Blocks of  $k$  characters need  $\Omega(\sigma^k)$  space for code
- ▶ Huffman code has to be part of coded message

↪ Can only sensibly use block codes for small  $\sigma$  and  $k$



*There is no such thing as a free lunch . . .*

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## ▶ Arithmetic Coding:

0. Maintain  $[\ell, \ell + p) \subseteq [0, 1)$ ; initially  $\ell = 0, p = 1$

1. Zoom into subinterval for each character

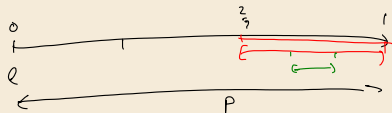
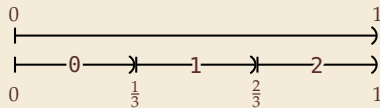
2. Output dyadic encoding of final interval

### ▶ Step 1: "Zoom" for each character (trit) in $S[0..n)$ :

- ▶ Of the current subinterval  $[\ell, \ell + p)$ , take first, second or last third depending whether  $S[i] = 0, 1$ , resp. 2:

$$\ell := \ell + S[i] \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot p$$

$$p := p \cdot \frac{1}{3}$$



$$S[0] = 2$$

$$\text{we } \ell = \frac{2}{3} \quad p = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$S[1] = 1$$

$$\text{we } \ell = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{9} \quad p = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3}$$



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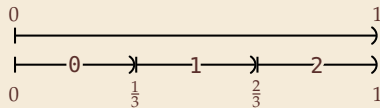
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$[\ell, \ell + p)$  not "nice" to encode

### ▶ *Step 2: Dyadic encoding*

- ▶ Find smallest  $m$  so that  $\exists x \in \mathbb{N}_0$  with  $\left[ \frac{x}{2^m}, \frac{x+1}{2^m} \right) \subseteq [\ell, \ell + p)$
- ▶ Output  $x$  in binary using  $m$  bits.

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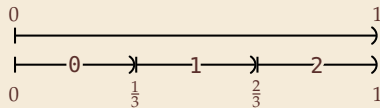
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$\rightsquigarrow$  Encode  $n$  trits in  $n \lg(3) + 2$  bits(!) without cheating

# Arithmetic Coding – Encode Trits Example

►  $S[0..n) = 21101$  ( $n = 5$ )

► **Step 1:** Zoom into subintervals

Iteration	$\ell$	$p$	Interval (rounded)		
0	0	1	$[0.00000, 1.00000)$		
1	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$[0.66667, 1.00000)$		2
2	$\frac{7}{9}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$[0.77778, 0.88889)$		1
3	$\frac{22}{27}$	$\frac{1}{27}$	$[0.81482, 0.85185)$		1
4	$\frac{66}{81}$	$\frac{1}{81}$	$[0.81482, 0.82716)$		0
5	$\frac{199}{243}$	$\frac{1}{243}$	$[0.81893, 0.82305)$		1

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► **Step 2:** Dyadic encoding for interval  $[\ell, \ell + p) = \left[ \frac{199}{243}, \frac{200}{243} \right)$   $2^{-m} \leq p$

► Must have  $m \geq \lg(1/p)$   $> 7$

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►  $m = 8$ : smallest  $x/2^m \geq \frac{199}{243}$  is  $x = 210$ , but  $[210/256, \underline{211/256}) \approx [0.82031, 0.82\underline{422}) \not\subset [\ell, \ell + p)$

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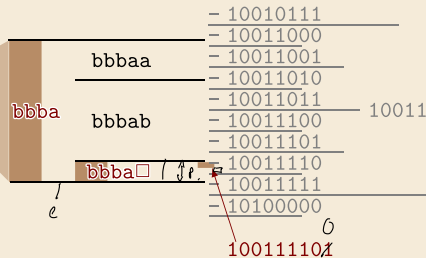
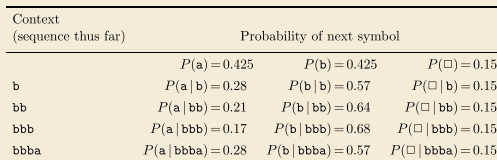
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↪ Output  $x = \underline{420}$  in binary with  $m = 9$  digits: 110100100

b b b a □



adapted from Figure 6.4 of MacKay: *Information Theory, Inference, and Learning Algorithms* 2003



# Arithmetic Coding – General framework

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## General stochastic sequence:

Sequence of random variables  $X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots$  such that

1.  $X_i \in [0..U_i) \cup \{\$ \}$  (We use \$ to signal “end of text”)
2.  $\mathbb{P}[X_i = j] = P_{ij}$
3. both  $U_i$  and  $P_{ij}$  are random variables as they *depend* on  $X_0, \dots, X_{i-1}$ , but conditioned on  $X_0, \dots, X_{i-1}$ , they are fixed and known:  
$$P_{ij} = P_{ij}(X_0, \dots, X_{i-1}) = \mathbb{P}[X_i = j \mid X_0, \dots, X_{i-1}]$$
$$U_i = U_i(X_0, \dots, X_{i-1}) = \max\{j : P_{ij}(X_0, \dots, X_{i-1}) > 0\}$$

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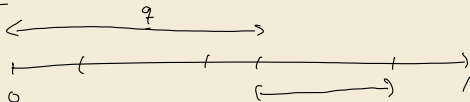
- ▶ Can model arbitrary dependencies on previous outcomes
- ▶ Assume here that random process is known by both encoder and decoder (fixed coding) otherwise extra space needed to encode model!

# Arithmetic Coding – Encoding

```

1  procedure arithmeticEncode( $X_0, \dots, X_n$ ):
2      // Assume model  $U_i$  and  $P_{ij}$  are fixed.
3      // Assume  $X_i \in [0..U_i)$  for  $i < n$  and  $X_n = \$$ 
4      // Step 1: Interval zooming
5       $\ell := 0$ ;  $p := 1$ 
6      for  $i := 0, \dots, n - 1$  do
7           $q := \sum_{j=0}^{X_i-1} P_{ij}$ ;       $q = P_{i,0} + P_{i,1} + \dots + P_{i,X_i-1}$ 
8           $\ell := \ell + q \cdot p$ ;  $p := p \cdot P_{i,X_i}$ 
9      end for
10      $q := 1 - P_{n,\$}$  // encode $ as last character
11      $\ell := \ell + q \cdot p$ ;  $p := p \cdot P_{n,\$}$ 
12     // Step 2: Dyadic encoding
13      $m := \lceil \lg(1/p) \rceil - 1$ 
14     do
15          $m := m + 1$ ;  $x := \lceil \ell \cdot 2^m \rceil$ 
16     while  $(x + 1)/2^m > \ell + p$ 
17     return  $x$  in binary using  $m$  bits

```



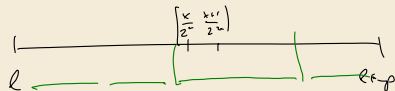
# Arithmetic Coding – Decoding

```

1 procedure arithmeticDecode(C[0..m]):
2   // Assume model  $U_i$  and  $P_{ij}$  are fixed.
3   // C[0..m] bit string produced by arithmeticEncode
4    $x = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} C[i] \cdot 2^{m-1-i}$  // final interval  $[x/2^m, (x+1)/2^m)$ 
5    $\ell := 0; p := 1; i := 0$ 
6   while true
7      $c := 0; q := 0$  // Decode next character c
8     while  $\ell + q \cdot p < x/2^m$  // Iterate through characters until final interval
9       if  $c == U_i + 1$  // reached $
10         $X[i] := \$$ 
11        return X[0..i]
12      else
13         $q := q + P_{i,c}; c := c + 1$ 
14      end while
15       $c := c - 1; q := q - P_{i,c}$  // we overshoot by 1
16       $X[i] := c$ 
17       $\ell := \ell + q \cdot p; p := p \cdot P_{i,c}$ 
18       $i := i + 1$ 
19   end for
  
```

Example, adaptive model  
on  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$

$$P[S[i]=a \mid S[0..i]) \\ = \frac{|S[0..i])_a + 1}{i + 2}$$



## 8.2 Practical Arithmetic Coding

## Arithmetic Coding – Numerics

- ▶ As implemented above,  $p$  usually gets smaller by a constant factor with *each character*

↪  $p$  gets exponentially small in  $n$ !

- ▶  $\ell$  does not get smaller in absolute terms, but we need it to ever higher accuracy

↪ requires  $\Omega(n)$  bit precision and exact arithmetic!







# Arithmetic Coding – Renormalization

*Does this guarantee  $\ell$  and  $p$  stay in a reasonable range?*

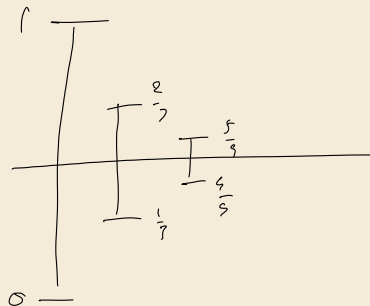
# Arithmetic Coding – Renormalization

Does this guarantee  $\ell$  and  $p$  stay in a reasonable range?

- No! Consider (uniform) trits in  $\{0, 1, 2\}$  again and encode  $1111111111111111\dots$

$$\rightsquigarrow p = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n, \quad \ell = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{27} + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^n 3^{-i} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{3^{-n}}{2}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \ell < \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } \ell + p > \frac{1}{2} \rightsquigarrow \text{next bit unknown as of yet}$$



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$$\rightsquigarrow \ell < \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } \ell + p > \frac{1}{2} \rightsquigarrow \text{next bit unknown as of yet}$$

**But:** If  $[\ell, \ell + p) \subseteq [\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4})$ , next **two** bits are either 01 or 10

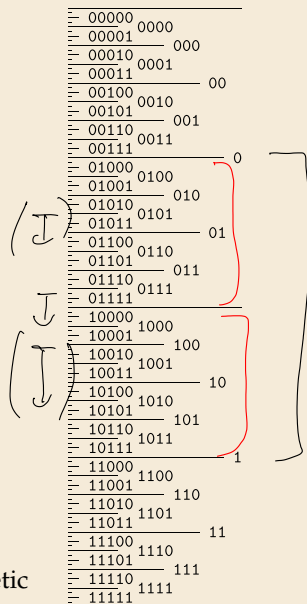
- Remember an “*outstanding opposite bit*” (increment counter)
- Renormalize:

$$\ell := \ell - \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\ell := 2\ell; \quad p := 2p$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \ell \text{ and } p \text{ remain in range of } P_{ij}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \text{round } P_{ij} \text{ to integer multiple of } 2^{-F} \rightsquigarrow \text{fixed-precision arithmetic}$$



# Fixed Precision Arithmetic Encode

Detailed code from Moffat, Neal, Witten, *Arithmetic Coding Revisited*, ACM Trans. Inf. Sys. 1998

Note:  $L$  is our  $\ell$ ,  $R$  is our  $p$ ,  $b \leq w$  is #bits for variables

```
arithmetic_encode( $l, h, t$ )
```

```
/* Arithmetically encode the range  $[l/t, h/t)$  using low-precision arithmetic.  
The state variables  $R$  and  $L$  are modified to reflect the new range, and then  
renormalized to restore the initial and final invariants  $2^{b-2} < R \leq 2^{b-1}$ ,  
 $0 \leq L < 2^b - 2^{b-2}$ , and  $L + R \leq 2^b$  */
```

```
(1) Set  $r \leftarrow R \text{ div } t$ 
```

```
(2) Set  $L \leftarrow L + r$  times  $l$ 
```

```
(3) If  $h < t$  then
```

```
    set  $R \leftarrow r$  times  $(h - l)$ 
```

```
else
```

```
    set  $R \leftarrow R - r$  times  $l$ 
```

```
(4) While  $R \leq 2^{b-2}$  do
```

```
    Use Algorithm ENCODER RENORMALIZATION (Figure 7) to renormalize  $R$ ,  
    adjust  $L$ , and output one bit
```

# Fixed Precision Renormalize

In *arithmetic\_encode()*

*/\* Reestablish the invariant on R, namely that  $2^{b-2} < R \leq 2^{b-1}$ . Each doubling of R corresponds to the output of one bit, either of known value, or of value opposite to the value of the next bit actually output \*/*

(4) While  $R \leq 2^{b-2}$  do

    If  $L + R \leq 2^{b-1}$  then

*bit\_plus\_follow*(0)

    else if  $2^{b-1} \leq L$  then

*bit\_plus\_follow*(1)

        Set  $L \leftarrow L - 2^{b-1}$

    else

        Set *bits\_outstanding*  $\leftarrow$  *bits\_outstanding* + 1 and  $L \leftarrow L - 2^{b-2}$

    Set  $L \leftarrow 2L$  and  $R \leftarrow 2R$

*bit\_plus\_follow(x)*

*/\* Write the bit x (value 0 or 1) to the output bit stream, plus any outstanding following bits, which are known to be of opposite polarity \*/*

(1) *write\_one\_bit(x)*.

(2) While *bits\_outstanding* > 0 do

*write\_one\_bit*(1 - x)

    Set *bits\_outstanding*  $\leftarrow$  *bits\_outstanding* - 1

# Fixed Precision Arithmetic Decode

Functions *decode\_target* and *arithmetic\_decode* to be called alternately.

*decode\_target*(*t*)

*/\* Returns an integer target,  $0 \leq \text{target} < t$  that is guaranteed to lie in the range  $[l, h)$  that was used at the corresponding call to *arithmetic\_encode*() \*/*

- (1) Set  $r \leftarrow R \text{ div } t$
- (2) Return  $(\min\{t - 1, D \text{ div } r\})$

*arithmetic\_decode*(*l, h, t*)







$$\left( \frac{l}{t}, \frac{h}{t} \right)$$

*/\* Adjusts the decoder's state variables  $\underline{R}$  and  $\underline{D}$  to reflect the changes made in the encoder during the corresponding call to *arithmetic\_encode*(). Note that, compared with Algorithm CACM CODER (Figure 6), the transformation  $D = V - L$  is used. It is also assumed that  $r$  has been set by a prior call to *decode\_target*() \*/*

- (1) Set  $D \leftarrow D - r \text{ times } l$
- (2) If  $h < t$  then  
    set  $R \leftarrow r \text{ times } (h - l)$   
    else  
        set  $R \leftarrow R - r \text{ times } l$
- (3) While  $R \leq 2^{b-2}$  do  
    Set  $R \leftarrow 2R$  and  $D \leftarrow 2D + \text{read\_one\_bit}()$



# Arithmetic Coding Discussion

-  Subtle code (↔ libraries!)
-  Typically slower to encode/decode than Huffman codes
-  Encoded bits can be produced/consumed in bursts
-  Extremely versatile w. r. t. random process
-  Almost optimal space usage / compression
-  Widely used (instead of Huffman) in JPEG, zip variants, ...



## 8.3 Error Correcting Codes

# Noisy Communication

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  - ▶ humans: acoustic noise, unclear pronunciation, misunderstanding, foreign languages

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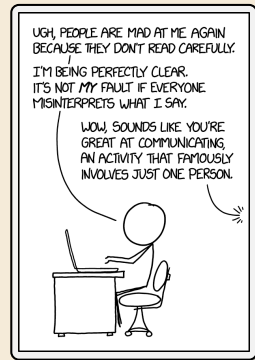


- ▶ But how is it possible (for us) to decode a message in the presence of noise & errors?

*Bcaesue it semes taht ntaurul lanaguge has a lots fo **redundancy** bilt itno it!*

~> We can

1. **detect errors**      “This sentence has aao pi dgsdho gioasghds.”
2. **correct (some) errors**      “Tiny errs ar corrected automaticly.”  
(sometimes too eagerly as in the Chinese Whispers / Telephone)



# Noisy Channels

- ▶ computers: copper cables & electromagnetic interference
  - ▶ transmit a binary string
  - ▶ but occasionally bits can “flip”
- ⇒ want a robust code



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  1. **error detection**      ⇒ can request a re-transmit
  2. **error correction**      ⇒ avoid re-transmit for common types of errors
- ▶ This will require *redundancy*: sending *more* bits than plain message
  - ⇒ **goal**: robust code with lowest redundancy

that's the opposite of compression!



## Clicker Question



What do you think, how many extra bits do we need to detect a **single bit error** in a message of 100 bits?



→ *[sli.do/cs566](https://sli.do/cs566)*

## Clicker Question



What do you think, how many extra bits do we need to correct a **single bit error** in a message of 100 bits?



→ *[sli.do/cs566](https://sli.do/cs566)*