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5 Compression

27 October 2023

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Learning Outcomes

1. Understand the necessity for encodings and know *ASCII* and *UTF-8 character encodings*.
2. Understand (qualitatively) the *limits of compressibility*.
3. Know and understand the algorithms (encoding and decoding) for *Huffman codes*, *RLE*, *Elias codes*, *LZW*, *MTF*, and *BWT*, including their *properties* like running time complexity.
4. Select and *adapt* (slightly) a *compression pipeline* for specific type of data.

Unit 5: *Compression*



Outline

5 Compression

- 5.1 Context
- 5.2 Character Encodings
- 5.3 Huffman Codes
- 5.4 Entropy
- 5.5 Run-Length Encoding
- 5.6 Lempel-Ziv-Welch
- 5.7 Lempel-Ziv-Welch Decoding
- 5.8 Move-to-Front Transformation
- 5.9 Burrows-Wheeler Transform
- 5.10 Inverse BWT

5.1 Context

Overview

- ▶ Unit 4 & 8: How to *work* with strings
 - ▶ finding substrings
 - ▶ finding approximate matches ~ Unit 8
 - ▶ finding repeated parts ~ Unit 8
 - ▶ ...
 - ▶ assumed character array (random access)!
- ▶ Unit 5 & 6: How to *store/transmit* strings
 - ▶ computer memory: must be binary
 - ▶ how to compress strings (save space)
 - ▶ how to robustly transmit over noisy channels ~ Unit 6

Clicker Question



What compression methods do you know?



→ *sli.do/comp526*

Terminology

- ▶ **source text:** string $S \in \Sigma_S^*$ to be stored / transmitted
 Σ_S is some alphabet
- ▶ **coded text:** encoded data $C \in \Sigma_C^*$ that is actually stored / transmitted
usually use $\Sigma_C = \{0, 1\}$
- ▶ **encoding:** algorithm mapping source texts to coded texts $S \mapsto C$
- ▶ **decoding:** algorithm mapping coded texts back to original source text $C \mapsto S$

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- ▶ **Lossy vs. Lossless**

- ▶ **lossy compression** can only decode **approximately**;
the exact source text S is lost
 - ▶ **lossless compression** always decodes S exactly
- $S \rightarrow C \rightarrow S'$ S, S' 'similar'
- ▶ For media files, lossy, logical compression is useful (e. g. JPEG, MPEG)
 - ▶ We will concentrate on *lossless* compression algorithms.
These techniques can be used for any application.

What is a good encoding scheme?

- ▶ Depending on the application, goals can be
 - ▶ efficiency of encoding/decoding
 - ▶ resilience to errors/noise in transmission
 - ▶ security (encryption)
 - ▶ integrity (detect modifications made by third parties)
 - ▶ size

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size of a string?

$$S \in \Sigma^n \rightarrow n?$$

$$\Sigma_C = \Sigma^n \quad C = S$$

- ▶ Focus in this unit: **size** of coded text

Encoding schemes that (try to) minimize the size of coded texts perform *data compression*.

- ▶ We will measure the compression ratio:
$$\frac{|C| \cdot \lg |\Sigma_C|}{|S| \cdot \lg |\Sigma_S|} \stackrel{\Sigma_C = \{0,1\}}{=} \frac{|C|}{|S| \cdot \lg |\Sigma_S|}$$
 - < 1 means successful compression
 - = 1 means no compression
 - > 1 means “compression” made it bigger!? (yes, that happens ...)

Clicker Question



Do you know what uncomputable problems (halting problem, Post's correspondence problem, ...) are?

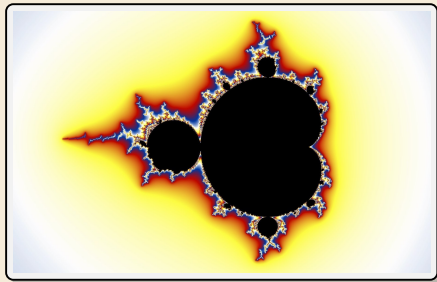
- ☐ **A** Sure, I could explain what it is.
- ☐ **B** Heard that in a lecture, but don't quite remember
- ☐ **C** No, never heard of it



→ *sli.do/comp526*

Limits of algorithmic compression

Is this image compressible?

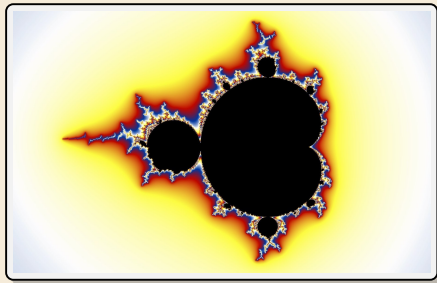


Limits of algorithmic compression

Is this image compressible?

visualization of Mandelbrot set

- ▶ Clearly a complex shape!
 - ▶ Will not compress (too) well using, say, PNG.
 - ▶ but:
 - ▶ completely defined by mathematical formula
- ~> can be generated by a very small program!

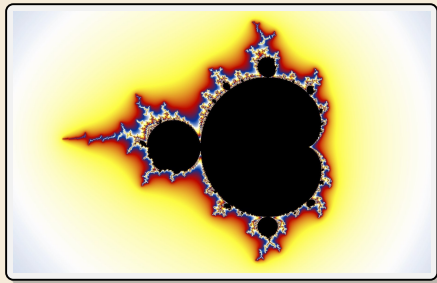


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~> *Kolmogorov complexity*

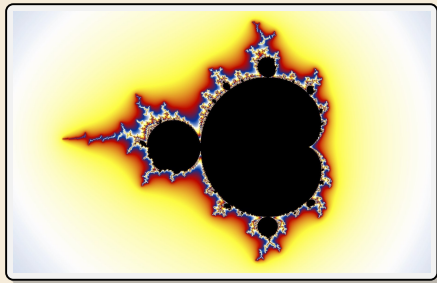
- ▶ $C =$ any program that outputs S
- self-extracting archives!
- ▶ Kolmogorov complexity = length of smallest such program

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~> *Kolmogorov complexity*

- ▶ $C =$ any program that outputs S
 - self-extracting archives!
- ▶ Kolmogorov complexity = length of smallest such program
- ▶ **Problem:** finding smallest such program is *uncomputable*.

~> No optimal encoding algorithm is possible!

~> must be inventive to get efficient methods

What makes data compressible?

- ▶ Lossless compression methods mainly exploit two types of redundancies in source texts:

- 1. uneven character frequencies**

some characters occur more often than others → Part I

- 2. repetitive texts**

different parts in the text are (almost) identical → Part II

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There is no such thing as a free lunch!

Not *everything* is compressible (→ tutorials)

~> focus on versatile methods that often work

Part I

Exploiting character frequencies

5.2 Character Encodings

Character encodings

- ▶ Simplest form of encoding: Encode each source character individually

↪ encoding function $E : \Sigma_S \rightarrow \Sigma_C^*$

- ▶ typically, $|\Sigma_S| \gg |\Sigma_C|$, so need several bits per character
- ▶ for $c \in \Sigma_S$, we call $E(c)$ the codeword of c
- ▶ **fixed-length code:** $|E(c)|$ is the same for all $c \in \Sigma_C$
- ▶ **variable-length code:** not all codewords of same length

Fixed-length codes

- ▶ fixed-length codes are the simplest type of character encodings
- ▶ Example: **ASCII** (American Standard Code for Information Interchange, 1963)

0000000 NUL	0010000 DLE	0100000	0110000 0	1000000 @	1010000 P	1100000 ‘	1110000 p
0000001 SOH	0010001 DC1	0100001 !	0110001 1	1000001 A	1010001 Q	1100001 a	1110001 q
0000010 STX	0010010 DC2	0100010 "	0110010 2	1000010 B	1010010 R	1100010 b	1110010 r
0000011 ETX	0010011 DC3	0100011 #	0110011 3	1000011 C	1010011 S	1100011 c	1110011 s
0000100 EOT	0010100 DC4	0100100 \$	0110100 4	1000100 D	1010100 T	1100100 d	1110100 t
0000101 ENQ	0010101 NAK	0100101 %	0110101 5	1000101 E	1010101 U	1100101 e	1110101 u
0000110 ACK	0010110 SYN	0100110 &	0110110 6	1000110 F	1010110 V	1100110 f	1110110 v
0000111 BEL	0010111 ETB	0100111 ’	0110111 7	1000111 G	1010111 W	1100111 g	1110111 w
0001000 BS	0011000 CAN	0101000 (0111000 8	1001000 H	1011000 X	1101000 h	1111000 x
0001001 HT	0011001 EM	0101001)	0111001 9	1001001 I	1011001 Y	1101001 i	1111001 y
0001010 LF	0011010 SUB	0101010 *	0111010 :	1001010 J	1011010 Z	1101010 j	1111010 z
0001011 VT	0011011 ESC	0101011 +	0111011 ;	1001011 K	1011011 [1101011 k	1111011 {
0001100 FF	0011100 FS	0101100 ,	0111100 <	1001100 L	1011100 \	1101100 l	1111100
0001101 CR	0011101 GS	0101101 -	0111101 =	1001101 M	1011101]	1101101 m	1111101 }
0001110 SO	0011110 RS	0101110 .	0111110 >	1001110 N	1011110 ^	1101110 n	1111110 ~
0001111 SI	0011111 US	0101111 /	0111111 ?	1001111 O	1011111 _	1101111 o	1111111 DEL

- ▶ 7 bit per character
- ▶ just enough for English letters and a few symbols (plus control characters)

Fixed-length codes – Discussion



Encoding & Decoding as fast as it gets



Unless all characters equally likely, it wastes a lot of space



inflexible (how to support adding a new character?)

Variable-length codes

- ▶ to gain more flexibility, have to allow different lengths for codewords

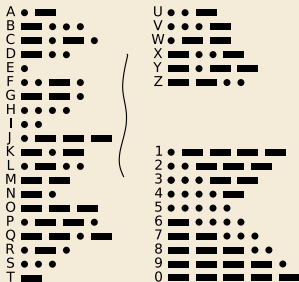
- ▶ actually an old idea: **Morse Code**

$$\Sigma_S = \{A, \dots, Z, 0, \dots, 9\}$$

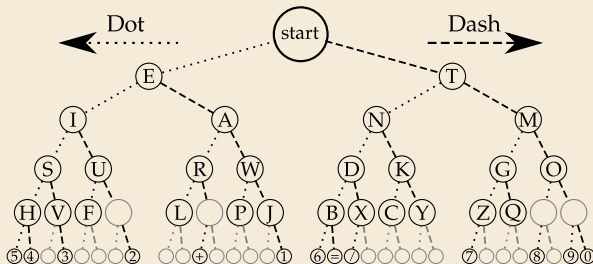
$$\Sigma_C = \{\text{dot}, \text{dash}, \text{pause}\}$$

International Morse Code

1. The length of a dot is one unit.
2. A dash is three units.
3. The space between parts of the same letter is one unit.
4. The space between letters is three units.
5. The space between words is seven units.



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:International_Morse_Code.svg



<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Morse-code-tree.svg>

Clicker Question

How many characters are there in the alphabet of the coded text in Morse Code, i. e., what is $|\Sigma_C|$?



A 1

B 2

C 3

D 4

E 26

F 36

G 256



→ *sl.i.do/comp526*

Clicker Question

How many characters are there in the alphabet of the coded text in Morse Code, i. e., what is $|\Sigma_C|$?



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→ sli.do/comp526

Variable-length codes – UTF-8


- ▶ Modern example: UTF-8 encoding of Unicode:

 default encoding for text-files, XML, HTML since 2009

- ▶ Encodes any Unicode character ¹⁵⁰⁰⁰⁰_(137994 as of May 2019, and counting)
- ▶ uses 1–4 bytes (codeword lengths: 8, 16, 24, or 32 bits)
- ▶ Every ASCII character is encoded in 1 byte with leading bit 0, followed by the 7 bits for ASCII
- ▶ Non-ASCII characters start with 1–4 1s indicating the total number of bytes, followed by a 0 and 3–5 bits.

The remaining bytes each start with 10 followed by 6 bits.

Char. number range (hexadecimal)	UTF-8 octet sequence (binary)
0000 0000 – 0000 007F	0xxxxxxx
0000 0080 – 0000 07FF	<u>11</u> 0xxxxx 10xxxxxx
0000 0800 – 0000 FFFF	<u>111</u> 0xxxx 10xxxxxx 10xxxxxx
0001 0000 – 0010 FFFF	<u>1111</u> 0xxx <u>10</u> xxxxxx 10xxxxxx 10xxxxxx

 For English text, most characters use only 8 bit,
but we can include any Unicode character, as well.

Pitfall in variable-length codes

- Suppose we have the following code:

c	a	n	b	s
$E(c)$	0	10	110	100
- Happily encode text $S = \text{banana}$ with the coded text $C = \underline{1100}\underline{100}\underline{100}$

b
a
n
a
n
a

Pitfall in variable-length codes

- Suppose we have the following code:
- | | | | | |
|--------|---|----|-----|-----|
| c | a | n | b | s |
| $E(c)$ | 0 | 10 | 110 | 100 |
- Happily encode text $S = \text{banana}$ with the coded text $C = \underline{1100}\underline{100}\underline{100}$
- b a n a n a

⚡ $C = 1100100100$ decodes **both** to banana and to bass: $\underline{1100}\underline{100}\underline{100}$

b a s s

↪ not a valid code ... (cannot tolerate ambiguity)

but how should we have known?

Pitfall in variable-length codes

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$E(n) = \underline{10}$ is a (proper) **prefix** of $E(s) = \underline{100}$

Leaves decoder wondering whether to stop after reading 10 or continue!

~> Require a *prefix-free* code: No codeword is a prefix of another.

prefix-free \Rightarrow instantaneously decodable \Rightarrow uniquely decodable

from before
 $n = 10$
 $s = 100$

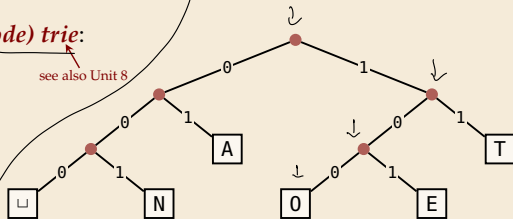
-
- A handwritten diagram illustrating a tree structure. At the top is a root node. It branches into two nodes. The left node branches into two more nodes. One of these nodes has a single child below it. Further down, another node branches into two children.

► **Example:**

c	A	E	N	O	T	□
$E(c)$	01	101	001	100	11	000

Any prefix-free code corresponds to a *(code) trie*:

- ▶ binary tree
- ▶ one **leaf** for each characters of Σ_S
- ▶ path from root to leave = codeword
left child = 0; right child = 1



- Example for using the code trie:

- ▶ Encode AN ANT 01001000010011
- ▶ Decode 111000001010111 T6 EAT

Code tries

- ▶ From now on only consider prefix-free codes E :

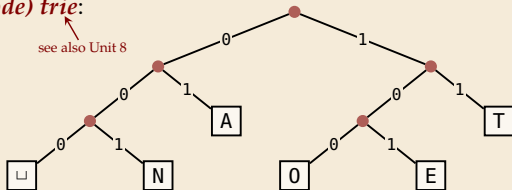
$E(c)$ is not a prefix of $E(c')$ for any $c, c' \in \Sigma_S$.

▶ **Example:**

c	A	E	N	O	T	\sqcup
$E(c)$	01	101	001	100	11	000

Any prefix-free code corresponds to a **(code) trie**:

- ▶ binary tree
- ▶ one **leaf** for each characters of Σ_S
- ▶ path from root to leaf = codeword
left child = 0; right child = 1



- ▶ Example for using the code trie:
 - ▶ Encode $AN_{\sqcup}ANT \rightarrow 010010000100111$
 - ▶ Decode $1110000001010111 \rightarrow T0_{\sqcup}EAT$

Who decodes the decoder?

- ▶ Depending on the application, we have to **store/transmit** the **used code**!
- ▶ We distinguish:
 - ▶ **fixed coding:** code agreed upon in advance, not transmitted (e. g., Morse, UTF-8)
 - ▶ **static coding:** code depends on message, but stays same for entire message;
it must be transmitted (e. g., Huffman codes → next)
 - ▶ **adaptive coding:** code depends on message and changes during encoding;
implicitly stored withing the message (e. g., LZW → below)