

8. Text Processing



Objectives

- Abundance of Digitized Text
- The problem of String Matching
- Brute-Force algorithm
- Knunth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm
- Data Compression
- Condition for Data Compression
- Huffman Coding Algorithm
- LZW Algorithm
- Run-length Encoding



Abundance of Digitized Text

Despite the wealth of multimedia information, text processing remains one of the dominant functions of computers. Computers are used to edit, store, and display documents, and to transport files over the Internet. Furthermore, digital systems are used to archive a wide range of textual information, and new data is being generated at a rapidly increasing pace. Common examples of digital collections that include textual information are:

- Snapshots of the World Wide Web, as Internet document formats HTML and XML are primarily text formats, with added tags for multimedia content.
- All documents stored locally on a users computer
- Email archives
- Compilations of status updates on social networking sites such as Facebook
- Feeds from microblogging sites such as Twitter and Tumblr

These collections include written text from hundreds of international languages. Furthermore, there are large data sets (such as DNA) that can be viewed computationally as "strings" even though they are not language. In this lesson, we explore some of the fundamental algorithms that can be used to efficiently analyze and process large textual data sets.



The problem of String Matching

Given a string S, the problem of string matching deals with finding whether a pattern p occurs in S and if p does occur then returning position in S where p occurs.



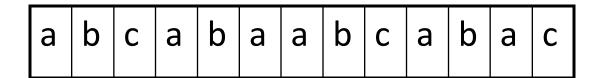
Brute-Force algorithm

One of the most obvious approach towards the string matching problem would be to compare the first element of the pattern to be searched p, with the first element of the string S in which to locate p. If the first element of p matches the first element of S, compare the second element of p with second element of S. If match found proceed likewise until entire p is found. If a mismatch is found at any position, shift p one position to the right and repeat comparison beginning from first element of p. This algorithm is called Brute-Force. Its' complexity (worst case) is O(nm).



Below is an illustration of how the previously described O(mn) approach works.

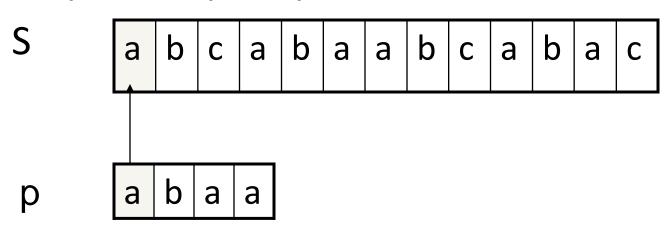
String S



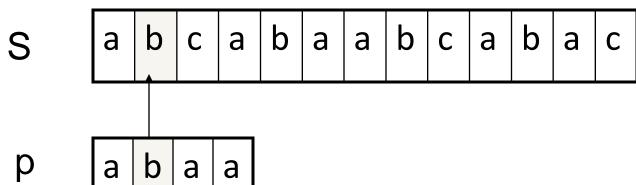
Pattern p



Step 1:compare p[1] with S[1]

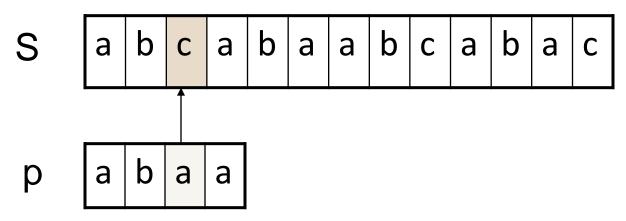


Step 2: compare p[2] with S[2]





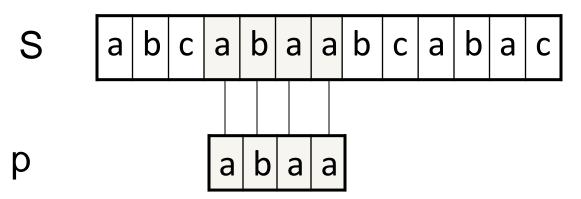
Step 3: compare p[3] with S[3]



Mismatch occurs here...

Since mismatch is detected, shift p one position to the left and perform steps analogous to those from step 1 to step 3. At position where mismatch is detected, shift p one position to the right and repeat matching procedure.





Finally, a match would be found after shifting p three times to the right side.

<u>Drawbacks of this approach:</u> if m is the length of pattern p and n the length of string S, the matching time is of the order O(mn). This is a certainly a very slow running algorithm.

What makes this approach so slow is the fact that elements of S with which comparisons had been performed earlier are involved again and again in comparisons in some future iterations. For example: when mismatch is detected for the first time in comparison of p[3] with S[3], pattern p would be moved one position to the right and matching procedure would resume from here. Here the first comparison that would take place would be between p[0]=a and S[1]=b. It should be noted here that S[1]=b had been previously involved in a comparison in step 2. this is a repetitive use of S[1] in another comparison.

It is these repetitive comparisons that lead to the runtime of O(mn).

Data Structures and Algorithms in Java



The Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm

Knuth, Morris and Pratt proposed a linear time algorithm for the string matching problem.

A matching time of O(n+m) is achieved by avoiding comparisons with elements of S that have previously been involved in comparison with some element of the pattern p to be matched. i.e., backtracking on the string S never occurs



Components of KMP algorithm

The prefix function, Π

The prefix function, Π for a pattern encapsulates knowledge about how the pattern matches against shifts of itself. This information can be used to avoid useless shifts of the pattern p. In other words, this enables avoiding backtracking on the string S.

The KMP Matcher

With string S, pattern p and prefix function Π as inputs, finds the occurrence of p in S and returns the number of shifts of p after which occurrence is found.



The prefix function, Π

Following pseudocode computes the prefix fucnction, Π :

```
Compute-Prefix-Function (p)
1 \text{ m} \leftarrow \text{length[p]}
                                //p pattern to be matched
2 \Pi[1] \leftarrow 0
3 k \leftarrow 0
        for q \leftarrow 2 to m
              do while k > 0 and p[k+1] != p[q]
                  do k \leftarrow \Pi[k]
6
                  If p(k+1) = p(q)
8
                    then k \leftarrow k+1
9
                  \Pi[q] \leftarrow k
10
       return □
```



DREAM O'EXAMPLE: compute Π for the pattern p below:

p

а	b	a	b	a	С	a
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Initially: m = length[p] = 7

$$\Pi[1] = 0$$
 $k = 0$

Step 1:
$$q = 2, k=0$$

 $\Pi[2] = 0$

Step 2:
$$q = 3, k = 0,$$

 $\Pi[3] = 1$

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
р	a	b	a	b	a	С	a
П	0	0	1				

Step 3:
$$q = 4$$
, $k = 1$
 $\Pi[4] = 2$

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
р	a	b	a	b	a	С	Α
	0 orithma	0	1	2			

Data Structures and Algerithms in Java



Step 4:
$$q = 5$$
, $k = 2$
 $\Pi[5] = 3$

Step 5:
$$q = 6, k = 3$$

 $\Pi[6] = 1$

Step 6:
$$q = 7, k = 1$$

 $\Pi[7] = 1$

After iterating 6 times, the prefix function computation is complete:

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
р	а	b	а	b	а	С	а
П	0	0	1	2	3		

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
р	а	b	а	b	а	С	а
П	0	0	1	2	3	1	

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p	а	b	а	b	а	С	a
П	0	0	1	2	3	1	1

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
р	а	b	А	b	а	С	а
П	0	0	1	2	3	1	1



The KMP Matcher

The KMP Matcher, with pattern p, string S and prefix function Π as input, finds a match of p in S.

Following pseudocode computes the matching component of KMP algorithm:

KMP-Matcher(S,p)

```
1 n \leftarrow length[S]
2 \text{ m} \leftarrow \text{length[p]}
3 \Pi \leftarrow Compute-Prefix-Function(p)
4q \leftarrow 0
                                                 //number of characters matched
5 for i \leftarrow 1 to n
                                                  //scan S from left to right
     do while q > 0 and p[q+1] != S[i]
6
             do q \leftarrow \Pi[q]
                                                  //next character does not match
8
          if p[q+1] = S[i]
9
            then q \leftarrow q + 1
                                                 //next character matches
10
          if q = m
                                                //is all of p matched?
11
            then print "Pattern occurs with shift" i — m
12
                 q \leftarrow \Pi[q]
                                                 // look for the next match
```

Note: KMP finds every occurrence of a p in S. That is why KMP does not terminate in step 12, rather it searches remainder of S for any more occurrences of p.



<u>Illustration:</u> given a String S and pattern p as follows:

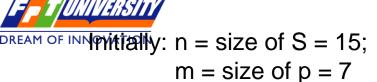
S bacbababaca

p a b a b a c a

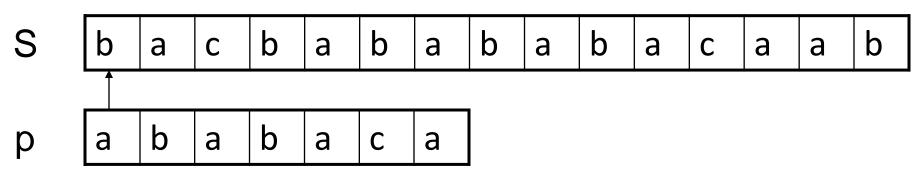
Let us execute the KMP algorithm to find whether p occurs in S.

For p the prefix function, Π was computed previously and is as follows:

q	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
р	а	b	А	b	а	С	а
П	0	0	1	2	3	1	1

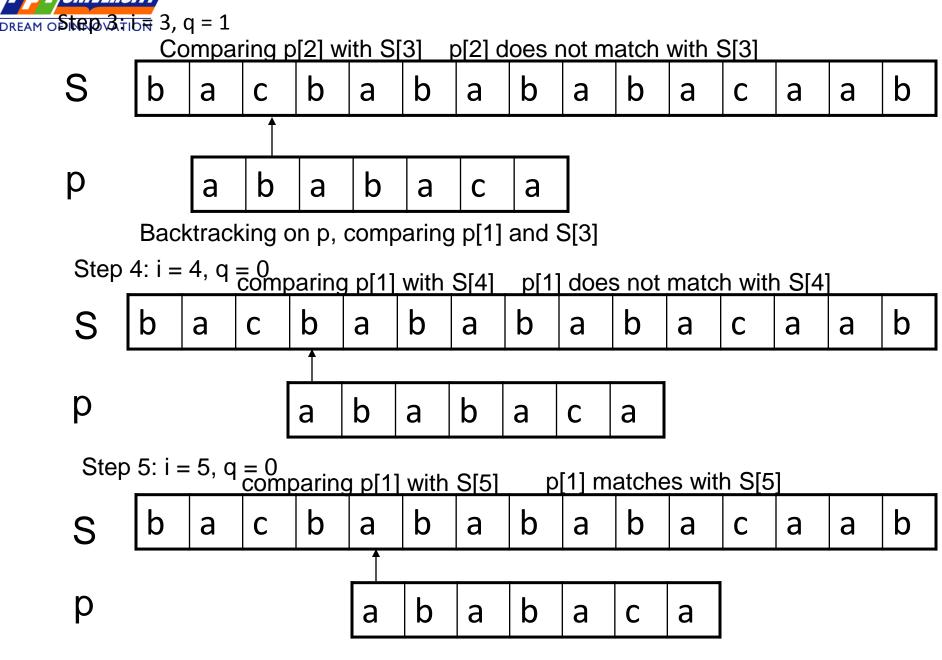


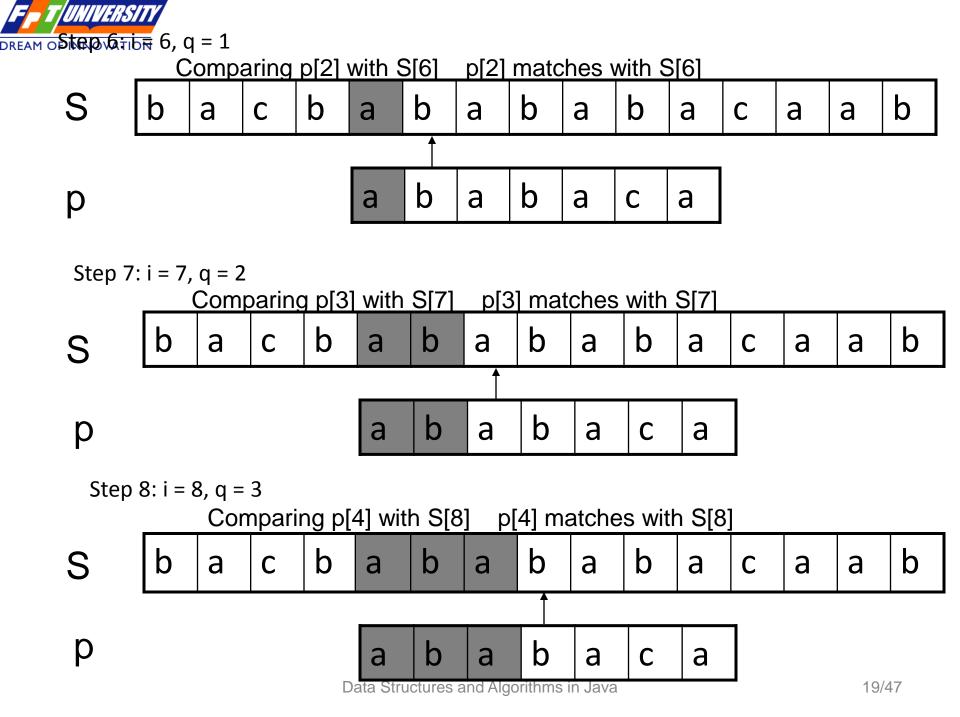
Step 1:
$$i = 1$$
, $q = 0$
comparing p[1] with S[1]

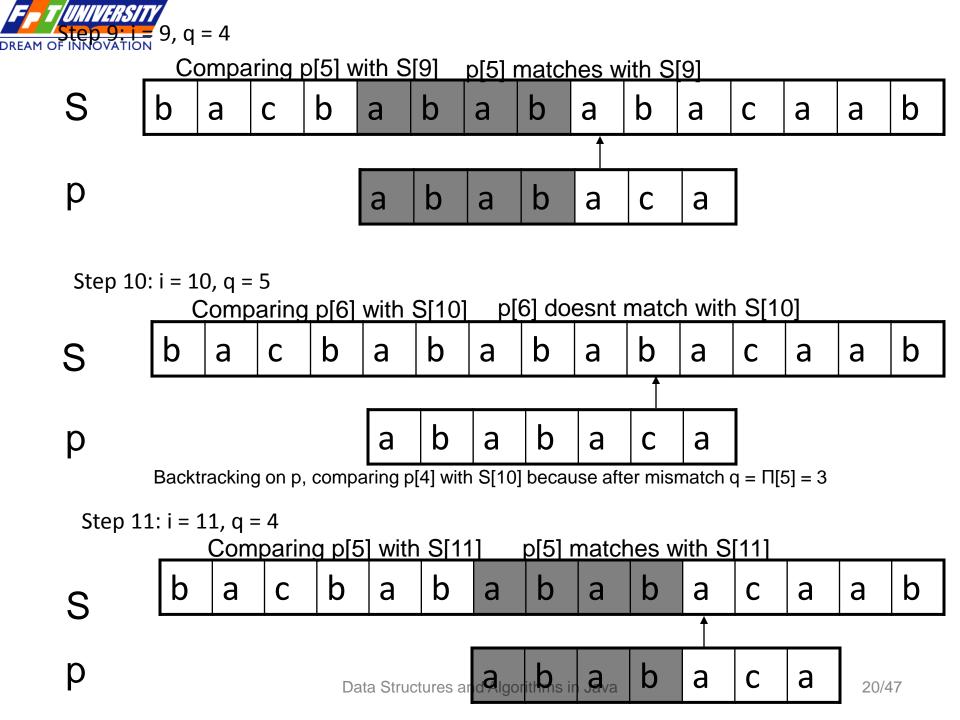


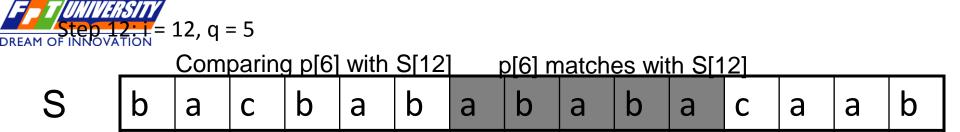
P[1] does not match with S[1]. p will be shifted one position to the right.

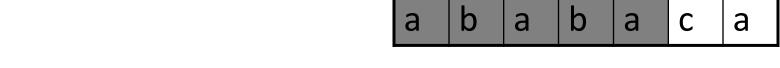
P[1] matches S[2]. Since there is a match, p is not shifted.











a

b

b

a

C

a

Pattern p has been found to completely occur in string S. The total number of shifts that took place for the match to be found are: i - m = 13 - 7 = 6 shifts.



Running - time analysis

```
Compute-Prefix-Function (Π)
1 m \leftarrow length[p]
                                  //p pattern to be
          matched
2 \Pi[1] \leftarrow 0
3 k \leftarrow 0
          for q \leftarrow 2 to m
                do while k > 0 and p[k+1] != p[q]
5
                   do k \leftarrow \prod[k]
6
                    If p(k+1) = p(q)
8
                      then k \leftarrow k+1
9
                    \Pi[\mathfrak{q}] \leftarrow k
10
          return □
```

In the above pseudocode for computing the prefix function, the for loop from step 4 to step 10 runs m times. Step 1 to step 3 take constant time. Hence the running time of compute prefix function is Θ(m).

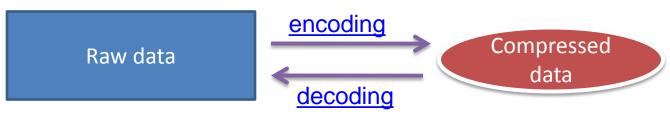
```
KMP Matcher
1 n \leftarrow length[S]
2 \text{ m} \leftarrow \text{length[p]}
3 \Pi \leftarrow Compute-Prefix-Function(p)
4 a \leftarrow 0
5 for i \leftarrow 1 to n
     do while q > 0 and p[q+1] != S[i]
             do q \leftarrow \Pi[q]
       if p(q+1) = S(i)
8
           then q \leftarrow q + 1
       if q = m
10
         then print "Pattern occurs with shift" i –
11
     m
12
                  a \leftarrow \Pi[a]
```

The for loop beginning in step 5 runs n times, i.e., as long as the length of the string S. Since step 1 to step 4 take constant time, the running time is dominated by this for loop. Thus running time of matching function is $\Theta(n)$.



Data Compression - 1

- "In computer science and information theory, data compression or source coding is the process of encoding information using fewer bits (or other information-bearing units) than an unencoded representation would use through use of specific encoding schemes." (Wikipedia)
- Compression reduces the consumption of storage (disks) or bandwidth.
- However, it needs processing time to restore or view the compressed code.





Data Compression - 2

- Types of compression
 - Lossy: MP3, JPG
 - Lossless: ZIP, GZ
- Compression Algorithm:
 - Huffman Encoding
 - Lempel-Ziv
 - RLE: Run Length Encoding
- Performance of compression depends on file types.



Compress data by decoding symbols contained in it (lossless compression)

• The information content of the set M, called the **entropy** of the source $X = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$, is defined by:

$$L_{\text{ave}} = H = P(\mathbf{x}_1)L(\mathbf{x}_1) + \cdots + P(\mathbf{x}_n)L(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

Where $L(x_i) = -\log_2 P(x_i)$, which is the minimum length of a codeword for symbol x_i (Claude E.Shannon, 1948). Shannons entropy represents an absolute limit on the best possible lossless compression of any communication.

 To compare the efficiency of different data compression methods when applied to the same data, the same measure is used; this measure is the compression rate

> <u>length(input) – length (output)</u> <u>length(input)</u>

Codeword: sequence of bits of a code corresponding to a symbol.



Uniquely Decodable Codes

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

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

What if you get the sequence of bits 1011?

Is it aba, ca, or, ad?

A <u>uniquely decodable code</u> is a variable length code in which bit strings can always be uniquely decomposed into its codewords.

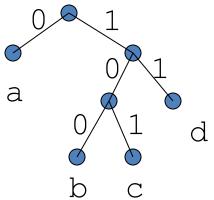


Prefix Codes

A **prefix code** is a variable length code in which no codeword is a prefix of another codeword

e.g
$$a = 0$$
, $b = 110$, $c = 111$, $d = 10$

Can be viewed as a binary tree with message values at the leaves and 0 or 1s on the edges.





Average Length

For a code C with associated probabilities p(c)
 the <u>average length</u> is defined as

$$l_a(C) = \sum_{c \in C} p(c)l(c)$$

- We say that a prefix code C is <u>optimal</u> if for all prefix codes C, $I_a(C) \leq I_a(C)$
- The Huffman code is known to be provably optimal under certain well-defined conditions for data compression.



Huffman Coding algorithm

Main idea: Encode high probability symbols with fewer bits

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



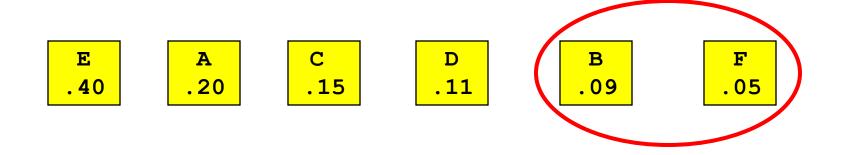
Character (or symbol) frequencies

```
A : 20% (.20) e.g., A occurs 20 times in a 100 character document, 1000 5000 character document, etc.
B : 9% (.09)
C : 15% (.15)
D : 11% (.11)
E : 40% (.40)
F : 5% (.05)
```

- Also works if you use character counts
- Must know frequency of every character in the document

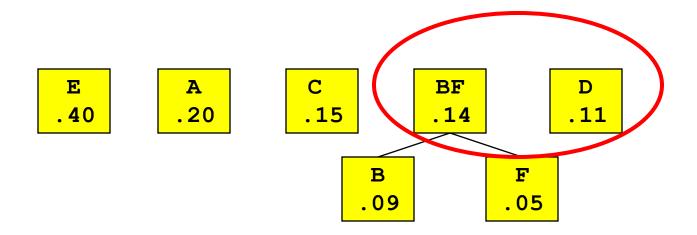


- Symbols and their associated frequencies.
- Now we combine the two least common symbols (those with the smallest frequencies) to make a new symbol string and corresponding frequency.



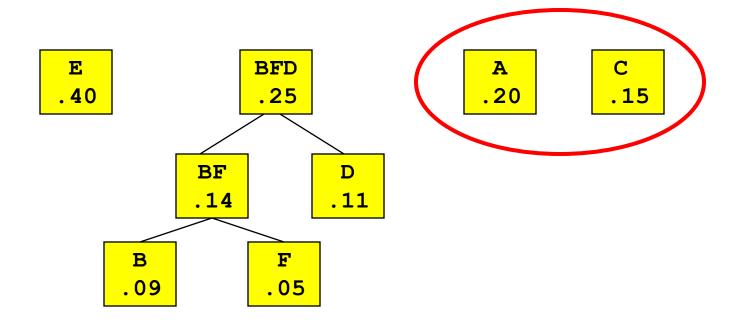


- Heres the result of combining symbols once.
- Now repeat until youve combined all the symbols into a single string.



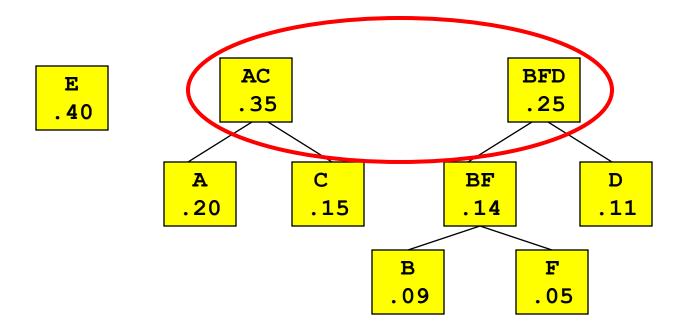


- Heres the result of combining symbols once.
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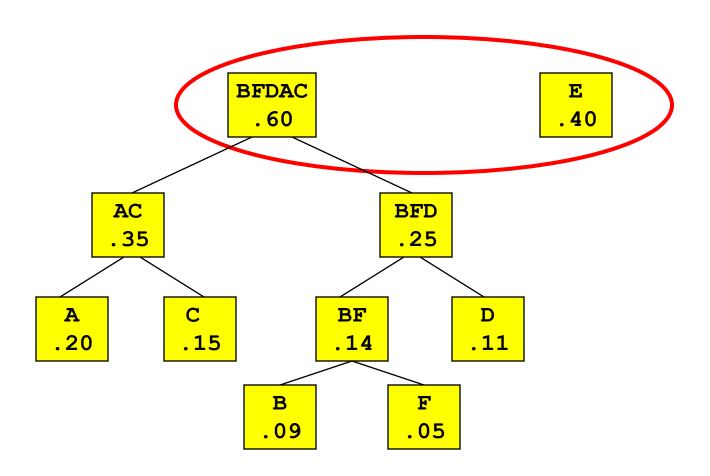




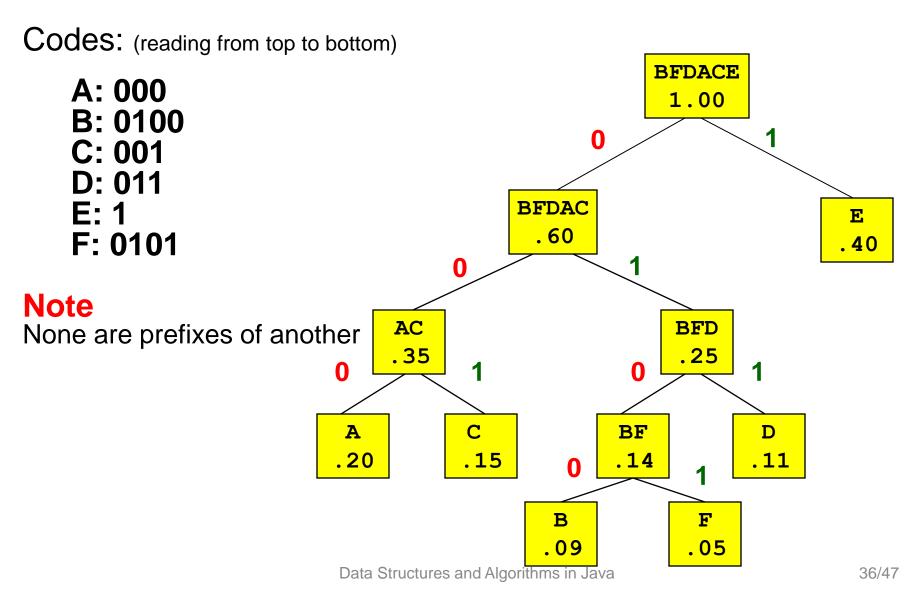
- Heres the result of combining symbols once.
- Now repeat until youve combined all the symbols into a single string.













Character	Code	Length	Probability
Α	000	3	.20
В	0100	4	.09
С	001	3	.15
D	011	3	.11
E	1	1	.40
F	0101	4	.05

Average Code Length:

$$(3 \times 0.20) + (4 \times 0.09) + (3 \times 0.15) + (3 \times 0.11) + (1 \times 0.40) + (4 \times 0.05)$$

= 1.89 digits



Huffman Coding notes

- There is no unique Huffman code
 - Assigning 0 and 1 to the branches is arbitrary
 - If there are more nodes with the same probability, it doesn't matter how they are connected.
 - However, if the probability in each node is unique and the left nodes probability is always larger than the rights one, then the code is unique.
- Every Huffman code has the same average code length!



Some important statements in Huffman Encoding program

```
static final int R = 256;
// tabulate frequency counts
int[] freq = new int[R]; = new int[R];
for (int i = 0; i < input.length; i++) freq[input[i]]++;
// build Huffman tree
Node root = buildTree(freq);
// build code table
String [] st = new String[R]; buildCode(st, root, "");
// make a codewords table from symbols and their encodings
void buildCode(String[] st, Node x, String s)
 { if (!x.isLeaf())
    {buildCode(st, x.left, s + 0); buildCode(st, x.right, s + 1); }
    else
      \{st[x.ch] = s; \}
```



Lempel-Ziv Compression

- Encode sequences of symbols with location of sequence in a dictionary => dictionary coder
- Originated by <u>Abraham Lempel</u> and Jacob Ziv, improved by Tery Welch in 1984 (that is why it gets name LZW)
- This coding method is lossless coding
- Algorithms versions: LZ77, LZ78 and LZW



LZW Encoding Algorithm

- 1. At the start, the dictionary contains all possible roots, and \mathbf{P} is empty;
- 2. $\mathbf{C} := \text{next character in the charstream}$;
- 3. Is the string P+C present in the dictionary?
 - a. if it is, P := P + C (extend P with C);
 - b. if not,
 - output the code word which denotes P to the codestream;
 - ii. add the string P+C to the dictionary;
 - iii. P := C (P now contains only the character C);
 - c. are there more characters in the charstream?
 - if yes, go back to step 2;
 - if not:
 - i. output the code word which denotes ${f P}$ to the codestream;
 - ii. END.

P is a current word, thus at the start, it is empty.



LZW Algorithm - Encoding process demo

Charstream to be encoded:

Pos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Char	A	В	В	A	В	A	В	A	C

- The column Step indicates the number of the encoding step. Each encoding step is completed when the step 3.b. in the encoding algorithm is executed.
- The column Pos indicates the current position in the input data.
- The column **Dictionary** shows the string that has been added to the dictionary and its index number in brackets.
- The column Output shows the code word output in the corresponding encoding step.

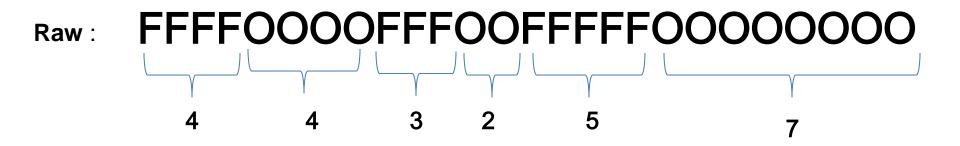
Contents of the dictionary at the beginning of encoding: (1)A (2)B (3)C

Step	Pos	Dictionary	Output
1.	1	(4) A B	(1)
2.	2	(5) B B	(2)
3.	3	(6) B A	(2)
4.	4	(7) A B A	(4)
5.	6	(8) A B A C	(7)
6.			(3)

The compressed output: (1)(2)(2)(4)(7)(3)



Run-Length Encoding



Compressed: 4F4O3F2O5F7O

Compression Rate = (25-12)/25 = 52%



Summary

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- The problem of String Matching
- Brute-Force algorithm
- Knunth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm
- Data Compression
- Condition for Data Compression
- Huffman Coding Algorithm
- LZW Algorithm
- Run-length Encoding



Reading at home

Text book: Data Structures and Algorithms in Java

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- 13.2 Pattern-Matching Algorithms 576
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- 13.2.3 The Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm 582
- 13.4 Text Compression and the Greedy Method 595
- 13.4.1 The Huffman Coding Algorithm 596



LZW Decoding Algorithm

At the start the dictionary contains all possible roots; 2. cW := the first code word in the codestream (it denotes a root); output the string.cW to the charstream; pW = cW cW := next code word in the codestream; 6. Is the string.cW present in the dictionary? if it is, output the string.cW to the charstream; P = string.pW;iii. C := the first character of the string.cW; add the string P+C to the dictionary, 1V. if not, P := string.pW;ii. C := the first character of the string.pW; iii. output the string P+C to the charstream and add it to the dictionary (now it corresponds to the cW); 7. Are there more code words in the codestream? if yes, go back to step 4; if not, END.



LZW Algorithm - Decoding process demo

•Lets analyze the step **4.** The previous code word (2) is stored in pW, and cW is (4). The string.cW is output ("A B"). The string.pW ("B") is extended with the first character of the string.cW ("A") and the result ("B A") is added to the dictionary with the index (6). We come to the step **5.** The content of cW=(4) is copied to pW, and the new value for cW is read: (7). This entry in the dictionary is empty. Thus, the string.pW ("A B") is extended with its own first character ("A") and the result ("A B A") is stored in the dictionary with the index (7). Since cW is (7) as well, this string is also sent to the output.

Contents of the dictionary at the beginning of decoding: (1)A (2)B (3)C

Table 2: The decoding process

Step	Code	Output	Dictionary
1.	(1)	A	
2.	(2)	В	(4) A B
3.	(2)	В	(5) B B
4.	(4)	AΒ	(6) B A
5.	(7)	АВА	(7) ABA
6.	(3)	C	(8) A B A C

The decompressed output: ABBABABA