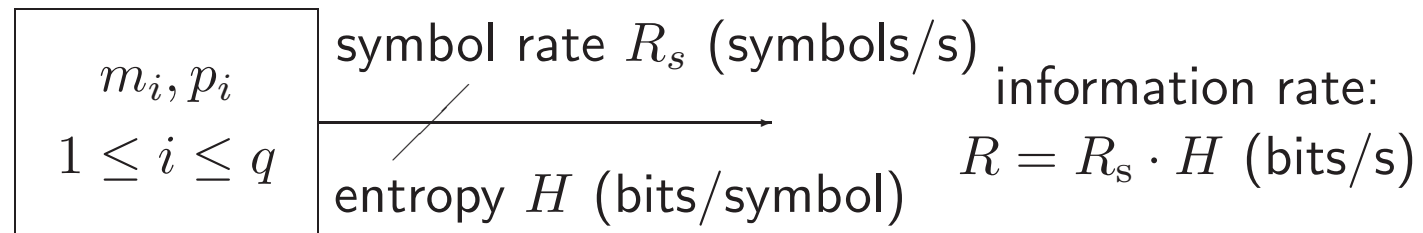


## Revision of Lecture 2

### Memoryless source with independent symbols



- Code each symbol by  $\log_2 q$  bits (BCD), then data rate  $R_s \cdot \log_2 q > R$ , unless source is equal probable  $p_i = 1/q, 1 \leq i \leq q$
- How to code symbols in an *efficient* way so that data rate as close as possible to  $R$
- Two equivalent efficient encoding methods, achieving efficiency approximating 100%, by **assigning codeword length (bits) according to symbol's information content**

**Remove memoryless assumption** → this lecture

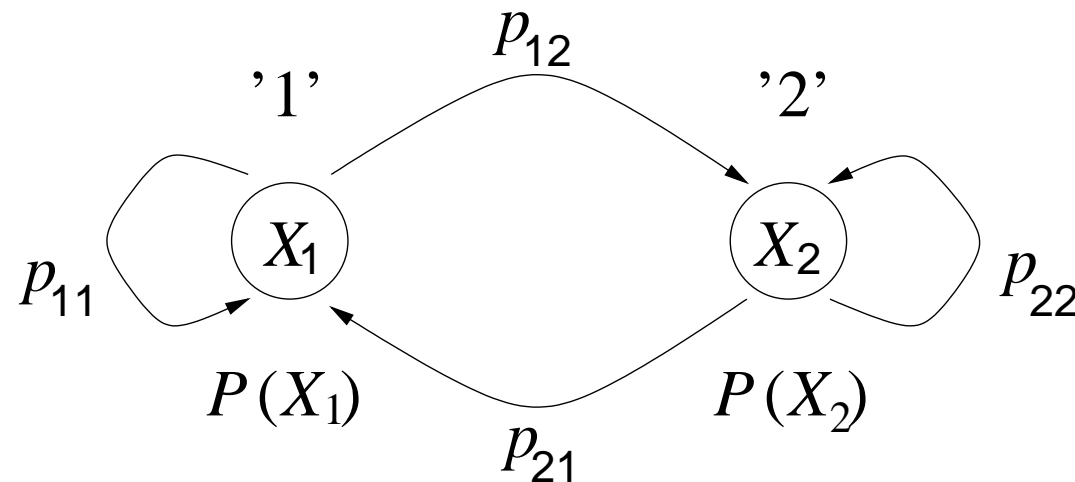


## Information of Sources with Memory

- Most real world sources exhibit **memory**, resulting in *correlated source signals*; this property is retained during sampling and quantisation
  - This implies that the signal exhibits some form of *redundancy*, which should be exploited when the signal is coded
  - For example, samples of speech waveform are correlated; redundancy in samples is first removed, as it can be predicted; the resulting residuals, almost memoryless or uncorrelated, can then be coded with far fewer bits
- Here memory can be modelled by a **Markov process**
  - Consider source with memory that emits a sequence of symbols  $\{S(k)\}$  with “time” index  $k$
  - First order Markov process: the current symbol depends only on the previous symbol,  $p(S(k)|S(k-1))$
  - $N$ -th order Markov process: the current symbol depends on  $N$  previous symbols,  $p(S(k)|S(k-1), S(k-2), \dots, S(k-N))$

## Two-State **First Order** Markov Process

- Source  $S(k)$  can only generate two symbols,  $X_1 = 1$  and  $X_2 = 2$ ; their probability explicitly depends on the previous state (i.e.  $p(S(k)|S(k-1))$ )



- Probabilities of occurrence (**prior probabilities**) for states  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ :  $P_1 = P(X_1)$  and  $P_2 = P(X_2)$  (i.e.  $p(S(0) = 1) = P(X_1)$  and  $p(S(0) = 2) = P(X_2)$ )
- Transition probabilities: transition probabilities from state  $X_1$  are given by the **conditional probabilities**  $p_{12} = P(X_2|X_1)$  and  $p_{11} = P(X_1|X_1) = 1 - P(X_2|X_1)$ , etc. (i.e.  $p(S(k) = j|S(k-1) = i) = p_{ij}$ )

## Entropy for 2-State 1st Order Markov Source

- Entropy  $H_i$  for state  $X_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ :

$$H_i = - \sum_{j=1}^2 p_{ij} \cdot \log_2 p_{ij} = -p_{i1} \cdot \log_2 p_{i1} - p_{i2} \cdot \log_2 p_{i2} \quad (\text{bits/symbol})$$

This describes the average information carried by the symbols emitted in state  $X_i$

- The overall entropy  $H$  includes the probabilities  $P_1, P_2$  of the states  $X_1, X_2$ :

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^2 P_i H_i = - \sum_{i=1}^2 P_i \sum_{j=1}^2 p_{ij} \cdot \log_2 p_{ij} \quad (\text{bits/symbol})$$

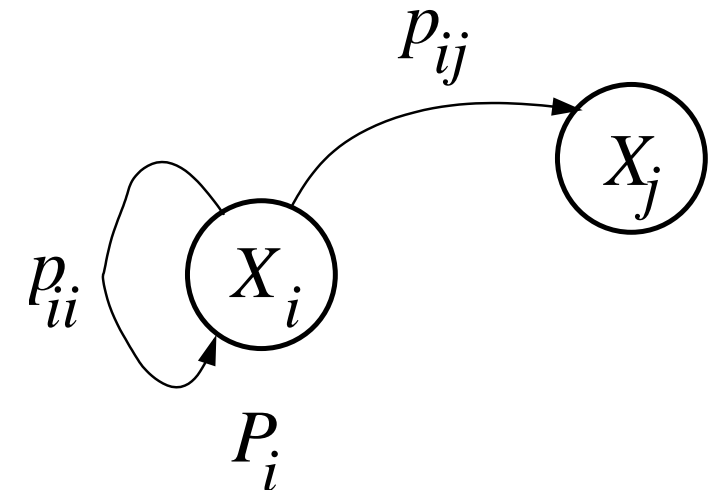
- For a highly correlated source, it is likely to remain in a state rather than to change, and *entropy is decreasing with correlation*

## Entropy for N-State 1st Order Markov Source

- A  $N$ -state (not  $N$ -th order) 1st-order Markov source can generate  $N$  symbols  $X_i = i, 1 \leq i \leq N$ , and the symbol entropy  $H_i$  for state  $X_i$ :

$$H_i = - \sum_{j=1}^N p_{ij} \cdot \log_2 p_{ij} \quad (\text{bits/symbol})$$

where  $p_{ij}$  is **transition probability** from  $X_i$  to  $X_j$



- The averaged, weighted symbol entropies give the source entropy

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i H_i = - \sum_{i=1}^N P_i \sum_{j=1}^N p_{ij} \cdot \log_2 p_{ij} \quad (\text{bits/symbol})$$

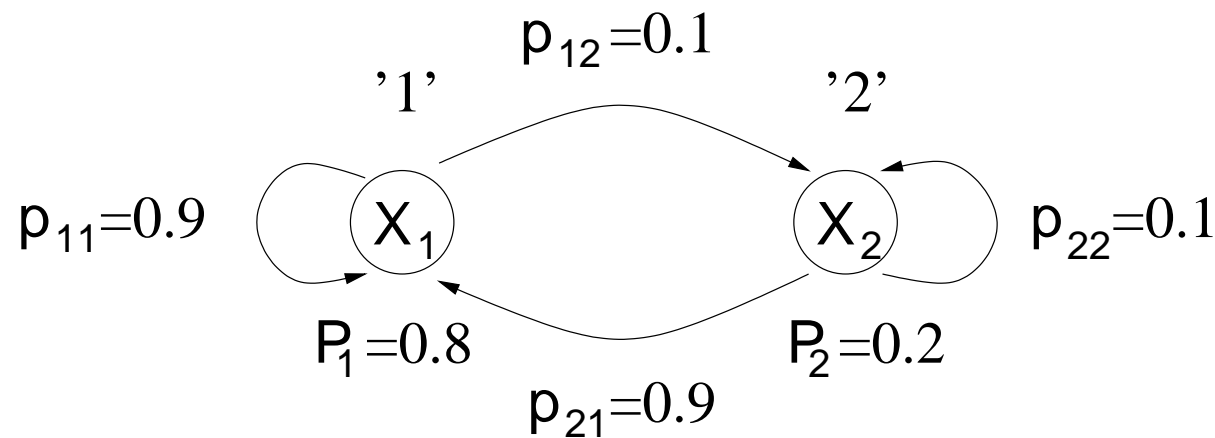
where  $P_i$  is the probability of occurrence (**prior probability**) of the state  $X_i$

- With a symbol rate  $R_s$  symbols/second, the average source information rate  $R$  is

$$R = R_s \cdot H \quad (\text{bits/second})$$

## A 2-State 1st Order Markov Source – Problem

- Consider the following state diagram with associated probabilities:



- Q1:** What is the source entropy?
- Q2:** What is the average information content in message sequences of length 1, 2, and 3 symbols, respectively, constructed from a sequence of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ ?

## A 2-State 1st Order Markov Source – Solution

- **A1:** The source entropy is given by  $H = -0.8 \cdot (0.9 \log_2 0.9 + 0.1 \log_2 0.1) - 0.2 \cdot (0.9 \log_2 0.9 + 0.1 \log_2 0.1) = 0.4690$  (bits/symbol)
- **A2** Average information for
  - 1-symbol sequence:  $H^{(1)} = -0.8 \log_2 0.8 - 0.2 \log_2 0.2 = 0.7219$  (bits/symbol)
  - 2-symbols sequence:  $P('11') = P_1 \cdot p_{11} = 0.72$ ;  $P('12') = P_1 \cdot p_{12} = 0.08$ ;  $P('21') = P_2 \cdot p_{21} = 0.18$ ;  $P('22') = P_2 \cdot p_{22} = 0.02 \longrightarrow$  average 1.190924 bits for 2-symbol sequence, hence  $H^{(2)} = 1.190924/2 = 0.5955$  (bits/symbol)
  - 3-symbols sequence:  $P('111') = P('11') \cdot p_{11} = 0.648$ ;  $P('112') = P('11') \cdot p_{12} = 0.072$ ; etc.  $\longrightarrow H^{(3)} = 0.5533$  (bits/symbol)
- Consider sequence length of more symbols, which exhibits more memory dependency of the source, and therefore the average information or entropy *decreases*; e.g.  $H^{(20)} = 0.4816$  bits/symbol
- In the limit:  $H^{(k)} \longrightarrow H$  for message sequence length  $k \longrightarrow \infty$

## A2 Solution Explained

- One-symbol sequences: either “1” or “2” with  $P(“1”) = 0.8$  and  $P(“2”) = 0.2$

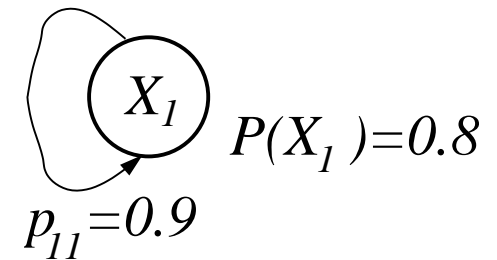
Hence average information content (bits or bits/symbol as it is just one symbol)

$$\begin{aligned} & -P(“1”) \log_2 P(“1”) - P(“2”) \log_2 P(“2”) \\ & = -0.8 \log_2 0.8 - 0.2 \log_2 0.2 = 0.7219 \text{ (bits/symbol)} \end{aligned}$$

- Two-symbol sequences: “11”, “12”, “21” or “22”

– Consider “11”:  $P(“11”) = 0.8 \times 0.9 = 0.72$

– Average information contents (bits) for 2-symbol sequence:



$$\begin{aligned} & -P(“11”) \log_2 P(“11”) - P(“12”) \log_2 P(“12”) - P(“21”) \log_2 P(“21”) - P(“22”) \log_2 P(“22”) \\ & = -0.72 \log_2 0.72 - 0.08 \log_2 0.08 - 0.18 \log_2 0.18 - 0.02 \log_2 0.02 \\ & = 0.3412304 + 0.2915084 + 0.4453076 + 0.1128771 = 1.1909235 \text{ (bits)} \end{aligned}$$

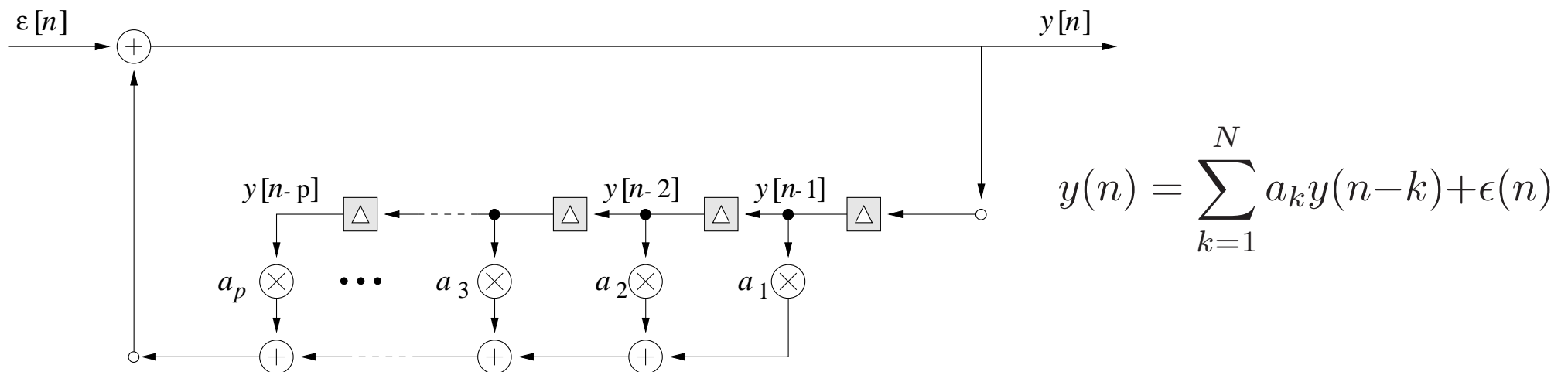


## A Few Comments on Markov Source Model

- Markov process is a most complete model to describe sources with memory; it is a *probabilistic* model
- Most widely used Markov process is **1st order Markov process**, where
  - $P_i = P(X_i)$  is probability of occurrence of state  $X_i$ ; image starting an experiment with time index  $t$ , at the beginning or  $t = 0$ , you can find that the process  $S(0)$  starts from state  $X_i$  with probability  $P_i$ ; hence  $P_i$  is *a priori* probability
  - Transition probability  $p_{ij}$  describes the probability of the process changing from state  $X_i$  to  $X_j$ , hence is *conditional* probability  $p(S(t) = X_j | S(t-1) = X_i) = p_{ij}$
- To describe source with memory longer than 1, higher order Markov process is needed, but this is much more difficult to use
  - In practice, simplified parametric model is often used to describe source with higher-order memory, i.e.
  - Use **conditional mean**  $E[s(t) | s(t-1), s(t-2), \dots, s(t-N)]$  of **realisation** (observation)  $s(t)$  to “replace” probabilities of stochastic process  $S(t)$

## Autoregressive Models

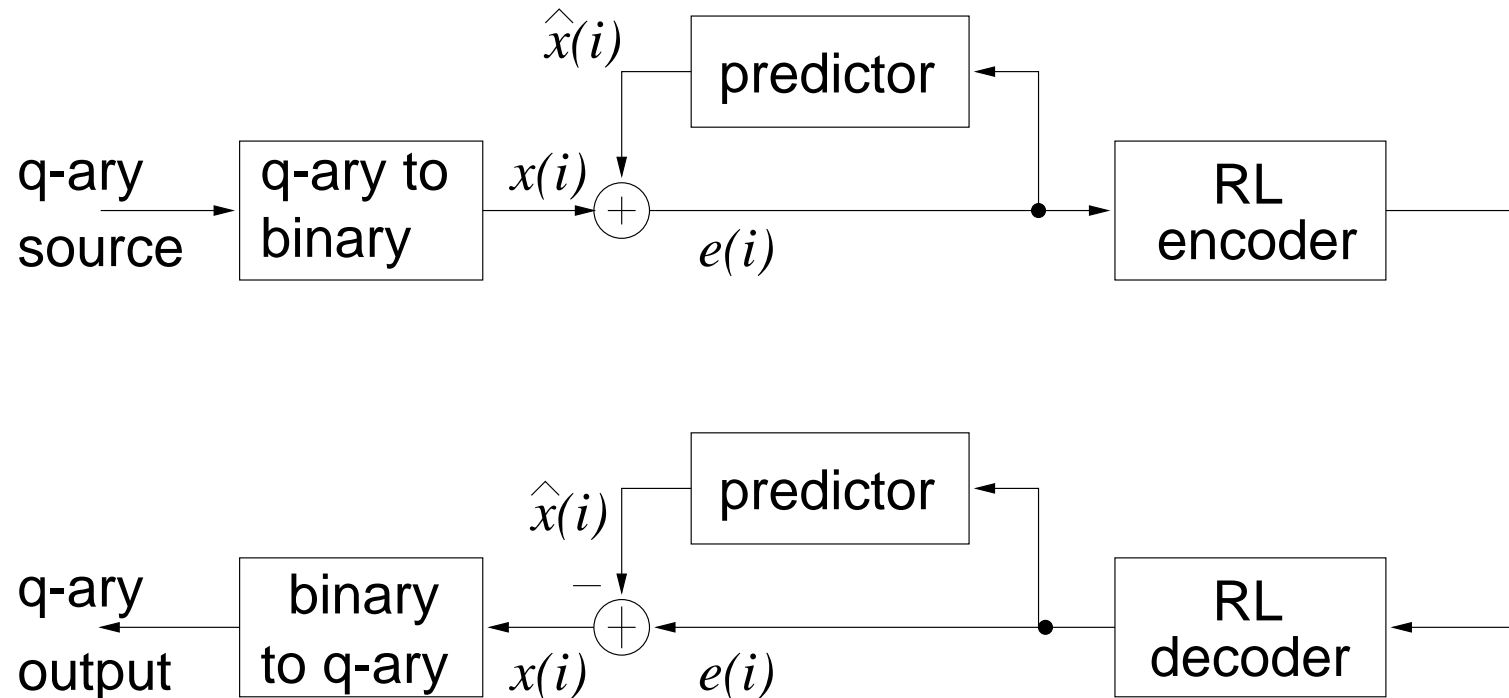
- An  $N$ th order Markov process can be represented (simplified) as an  $N$ th order **autoregressive** (AR) model:



- The input process  $\epsilon(n)$  is uncorrelated, zero-mean; the output process  $y(n)$  is the symbol sequence emitted by the source described by the  $N$ th order Markov process (with appropriate parameters  $a_k$ );  $n$  is a time index for the symbol sequence
- This **parametric** model is widely used, for example, in speech source coding (transmit  $a_k$  and  $\epsilon(n)$  instead of  $y(n)$ ) – **Why doing this?**

## Predictive Run-Length Coding (RLC)

- Since “memory” of the source makes the source signal partially predictable, this can be exploited in the following scheme:



- If **prediction** is successful, the signal  $e(i)$  will mostly contain zeros, and this property is exploited in RLC

## Run Length Coding Table

- Code words with fixed length of  $n$  bits are formed from a bit stream (encoder input pattern) of upto  $l \leq N - 1 = 2^n - 2$  successive zeros followed by a one or zero:

length of 0-run $l$	encoder input pattern (length = $\min\{N, l + 1\}$ )	encoder output codeword (fixed $n$ bits)
0	1	00...000
1	01	00...001
2	001	00...010
3	0001	00...011
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
$N - 2$	0...01	11...101
$N - 1$	00...01	11...110
$N = 2^n - 1$	00...00	11...111

- Assumption is input bit stream contains mostly "0"s, i.e.  $p = P(\text{"0"})$  is very high
- Thus encoder on average reduces the word length



## RLC Efficiency

- Code word length after run length coding:  $n$  bits;
- Average code word length  $d$  before coding with  $N = 2^n - 1$ :

$$d = \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} (l+1) \cdot p^l \cdot (1-p) + N \cdot p^N = 1 + p + p^2 + \dots + p^{N-1} = \frac{1-p^N}{1-p}$$

where  $p$  is the probability of a bit is '0'

- Therefore compression ratio  $C = d/n$
- A numerical example:  $p = 0.95$ ,  $n = 5$  ( $N = 31$ )

$$C = \frac{d}{n} = \frac{1-p^N}{n(1-p)} \approx \frac{15.92}{5} \approx 3.18$$

## RLC Re-exam Again

- **RLC** is widely used in various applications, so let us exam **RLC** more closely

Input patterns have variable lengths,  $2^n - 1$  bits to just 1 bit, depending on length of “0” runs before “1”; while output codewords have fixed length of  $n$  bits

### Input pattern

<b>00...0000</b>	<b>00...0001</b>	<b>00...001</b>	...	<b>01</b>	<b>1</b>
$2^{n-1}+0$ bits	$2^{n-2}+1$ bits	$2^{n-3}+1$ bits		1+1 bits	0+1 bits



RLC

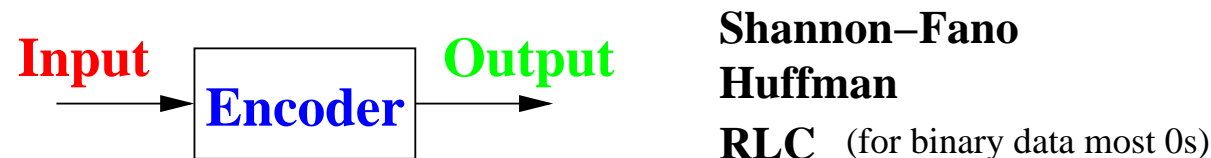
### Output codeword

<b>11...111</b>	<b>11...110</b>	<b>11...101</b>	...	<b>00...001</b>	<b>00...000</b>
$n$ bits	$n$ bits	$n$ bits		$n$ bits	$n$ bits

- **Shannon-Fano** and **Huffman**: inputs have fixed length while outputs variable lengths  
RLC appears very different from Shannon-Fano and Huffman or is it?
- **RLC**, **Shannon-Fano** and **Huffman** encodings are **lossless** or **entropy** encodings

# Lossless Encodings Comparison

- Lossless or entropy encodings



- Same principle:

**rare input pattern/message/symbol coded with large output codeword**  
**large probability coded with small codeword**

- Shannon-Fano and Huffman: input fixed length  $\longrightarrow$  output variable length
- RLC: input variable length  $\longrightarrow$  output fixed length

- It is the ratio

$$\text{ratio} = \frac{\text{output length}}{\text{input length}}$$

**small probability**  $\longrightarrow$  **large ratio**      **large probability**  $\longrightarrow$  **small ratio**

# Summary

- First-order Markov process model for sources with 1st-order memory  
Entropy and information rate of first-order Markov source
- Autoregressive models of  $N$ -th order for sources with  $N$ -th order memory
- The **need** to remove **redundancy** to make it **memoryless**
- Run-length encoding  
Comparison with Shannon-Fano and Huffman lossless or entropy encodings

