

Number Bases: Non-Integral:

Say we want to use b. bases  $\pi$ . T. ~~name~~ representation will be a string of integers  $< \pi$ ,  $\geq 0$ ; i.e. 1, 2, 3.

"3 2 1 0 3" means  $3 + 0\pi^1 + 1\pi^2 + 2\pi^3 + 3\pi^4$ .

"3.2103" means  $3 + 2\pi^{-1} + 1\pi^{-2} + 0\pi^{-3} + 3\pi^{-4}$

To convert a no.  $N$ :

.08 Find largest power of  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^n \leq N$ . If it is =,  $N = 1 \cdot \pi^n$ .

If  $\leftarrow$  ~~find~~ find the largest  $a_{n+1}$  integer  $\rightarrow$  ~~N~~  $N > a_{n+1} \pi^{n+1}$ ,  $a_{n+1}$  is the first digit (used)

Take the remainder  $N - a_{n+1} \pi^{n+1}$  and get the next msd via .08. Loop until remainder

.11 is zero or is small enough to satisfy the approx. needed.

~~usually find first base exp~~

Using the algm. .08, the conversion is, I think, always unique, if the base is not an integer. I'm not sure ~~under~~ under what conds. (if any), one is assured of a finite conversion time. e.g. it may take an infinite amt. of time to decide if, say  $\pi^3$  is  $>$  or  $<$  or  $=$  to  $N$ , if  $N$  is a farby precision. This will happen infrequently, hvr.

The system is inefficient, hvr. To represent an integer  $N$ , ~~always~~ usually needs more digits to base  $\pi$  than to base 4 (the m b.o.R. cases, only the digits 0, 1, 2, 3 are used).

Integers are <sup>usually</sup> ~~always~~ represented as non-terminating expansions

- but not always. ~~the example~~ e.g. consider ~~the equation~~  $3x^2 = 2$

e.g.  $3x^2 = \text{integer}$  has a soln. for  $x$  that is a non-integer  $> 3$ .

$3 \cdot 3^2 = 27$ ,  $3 \cdot 4^2 = 48$  so  $3 \cdot x^2 = N$  has a soln. betw. 3 & 4 if  $N$  is betw. 27 & 48.

or even  $3x = \text{integer}$  can have non-int solns for  $x > 3$ .

One thing I was thinking of using these non-integer bases for was CBI. By using the shortest decm. length  $N$  as priority index ~~for~~ for strings, we get  $2^n$  for priority if base 2 is used.

Using other bases is o.k. for number radices, but how do we use non-integral bases for decms of strings?

e.g. using  $1.1_{10}$  as a base, 5 has 5 probab. values 10% apart.

Negative bases are of some interest. - to use base  $-3$ ;

~~2~~  $2 \cdot (-3)^0 + 1 \cdot (-3)^1 + 0 \cdot (-3)^2 + 2 \cdot (-3)^3 =$

$2 = 3 + 0 + 54 = -55$

I don't know if it's more or less efficient than other bases. Using a positive base with a ~~negative~~ sign symbol looks like a mixed base. It may be simpler w. a neg. base - (say -2). I think there were some recent papers in Computer, ACM or IEEE comp. kens on neg. bases.

D579

Number Bases : Negative.

2

One apparent advantage of neg bases: ~~For addition~~ when adding  $\geq$  nos.,

the carries do not propagate. This is because a carry is always a borrow from the next higher digit: woops! if one borrows from zero, this can propagate!

Anyway: This type of arithmetic may have advantages.

~~Next steps~~

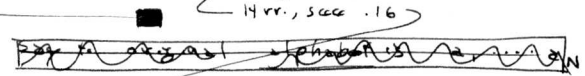
coding w. binary defns! This is a more rigorous, exact method of doing what was derbd in

**I : c II :**

I will derb. a method of assigning probs to sequences.  
 T. coding details, I will not go into, but refer to v. inverse Kraft theorem.

~~A priori~~ info. gn: ① No. of symbols in t. original (raw) corpus.  $\equiv N$

② A priori,  $\delta$ , of a ~~special~~ punctuation symbol indicating a defn. is to be made. (This is to be chosen by the "coder": I think it's not a critical choice.)



.16

Actually: .10 is probly unnecy: as we shall see: First, to code t. Binary seq. of  $N$  symbol alphabet: ( $N$  known a pri).

Derb. t. CPM forest in prefix code: This is simply a list of the probs of  $t. N$  symbols, to adequate accuracy, (actually, ~~all~~ accuracy level ~~can~~ should be used, ~~and all conceivable sets of pc's sort alphabet symbols~~ Please give various CPM decns  $\rightarrow$  t. final pc. of t. corpus is t. sum of  $\langle$  pc's of each CPM times pc of corpus wrt that CPM  $\rangle$ .

[SN] t. coding of t. pure binary seq. is unclear! What pc. is to be assigned to t. various probs?

$\rightarrow$  To Code t. Binary Seq. in which  $N$ , t. ~~total~~ alphabet size, is known.

$N-1$  ~~prob~~ probs params,  $p_i$  are needed. ( $i=0, N-1$ ) ( $p_N = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p_i$ )  
 To express these, we use  $R=1000$  bit accuracy (T. result is indep of  $R$  for  $R \gg 1$ ).

If t. sequence is  $K$  bits long, t. accuracy needed in t.  $p_i$ 's is  $\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}}$ .

As a result, of  $R \approx 2^{1000}$  parallel codes for each possl  $p_i$  value.

.25

$\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}}$  of  $R$  are about rite  $\rightarrow$  So t. pc of each  $p_i$  is  $\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}}$

The pc of t.  $N-1$  params is  $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{K}})^{N-1}$ , and the pc of t. seq. itself wrt. this CPM decn is  $\prod_{i=1}^N p_i^{K p_i} = \left( \prod_{i=1}^N p_i^{p_i} \right)^K$

.29

I. entire pc. is  $\approx \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \right)^{N-1} \cdot \left( \prod_{i=1}^N p_i^{p_i} \right)^K \rightarrow$  3.30 for exact expressn.

.30

" $\approx$ " is because t. pc. of each  $p_i$  gn. is probly not exactly  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{K}}$  but has to be figured out ... it is t. equivl pc., obtained by using all  $2^R$  codes for each  $p_i$ : so  $(2^R)^{N-1}$  diffrnt codes.

$R$  pc. is obtained by some kind of integration (rather than a summation) of codes (assuming uniform a priori density in  $\vec{p}$  space ...  $R$  "Laplace's Rule" assumption).

$\rightarrow$  which is equivl. to.

.36

The way the coding is done:  $N$  and  $R$  are given a priori. The first  $R(N-1)$  sequences of  $R$  bits each, give t.  $N-1$   $p_i$  values. The following seq. is t. code of t. corpus wrt t. ~~C~~ CPM just derbd, we sum over all  $2^{(N-1)R}$  CPMs, and we sum over all decns of t.

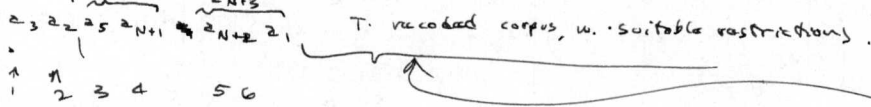
2.19.80

CODE

corpus w.r.t. each CPM (There will be an  $\infty$  of codes for corpus wrt each CPM, ordinarily ... unless the  $P_i$ 's are terminating binary fractions  $\frac{p}{2^k}$  (Rmk!))

For coding using Binary definitions: If we are initially given  $N$ , t. no. of Alphabet symbols  $\{a_1, \dots, a_N\}$  &  $D$ , t. no. of Binary digits used,

we code t. corpus by writing a.g. ( $D=3$  in this example)



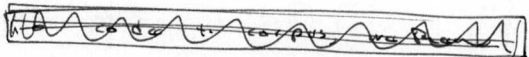
In positions 1 & 2, only  $a_1$  thru  $a_N$  are legal.

In positions 3 & 4,  $a_1$  thru  $a_{N+1}$  are legal

" " 5, 6;  $a_1$  thru  $a_{N+2}$  are legal

In all positions after In most positions after  $a_1$  thru  $a_{N+3}$  are legal.

— except for restrictions: after  $a_{N+1}$  has been defined,  $a_2$  can't follow  $a_3$   
 "  $a_{N+2}$  " " "  $a_{N+1}$  " "  $a_5$   
 "  $a_{N+3}$  " " "  $a_1$  " "  $a_{N+2}$



we then rewrite t. corpus using t. digits. i write this preliminary coded corpus here

Then we code t. string of 0,1 as a Bern seq. w.  $N+D$  sized alphabet with the restrictions mentioned.

To write t. rest of t. CPM, we first write  $N+D-1$  strings of  $R$  bits each, ( $R \gg 1$ ) representing the  $R+D-1$  probs involved.

The prob of t. corpus wrt each such argument of probs in  $N+D-1$  space is computed as t. product of t. probs of t. symbols, taking t. restrictions into account.

e.g. if, at a particular position,  $a_3$  occurred,  $a_2$  and  $a_7$  is illegal in that position, t. resultant prob used is

$$P_{23} \frac{1}{(1-P_{27})} : \text{If } a_7 \text{ \& } a_4 \text{ were illegal there, } P_{23} \frac{1}{(1-P_{27}-P_{24})} \text{ would be used.}$$

I don't know how to go about computing t. accuracies of each of t. probs (i.e. t. prob of deriving each is acc its accuracy)

I don't know how I'm not sure about how to get t. peak values of t. probab's themselves.

Nvr., t. discn. of pure Bern coding of 1.30-2.02 is to be applied to obtain the accuracy against t. peak against peak values of the  $P_i$ 's.  $\rightarrow$  see 3.30-.40 & 4.01 ff. for further discn, nvr.

There remains the p.c. of the ~~prefix~~ coding parameter,  $D$ .  
This has to be coded in a prefix code that is inserted before the rest  
of the code as described.

One interesting way to assign a prefix to the integers  $z=1, 2, \dots, \infty$ . ( $z=1$  is 0)  
Use  $P_i = \frac{1}{2^i}$  (!). Consider the fact of non-convergence!

Say  $R$  is the upper limit of nos. we will consider;

Then the normal factor is  $\frac{1}{\ln R + \gamma}$   
 $\gamma$  Euler's const.

Since we are interested in ratios of a priori,  $P_i$ 's / normal factor is irrelevant!  
The ratio of  $D$  values  $D_1$  &  $D_2$  is simply  $\frac{D_1}{D_2}$  (!)

Actually, I can use any a priori  $E$  like for  $D$  - usually w. the  
restriction of convergence: But  $P_i$  is  $\frac{1}{2^i}$  thing really looks neat!

In general, it is not of much importance, hvr. We are interested  
because we want to know how much the p.c. of the corpus is  $\uparrow$  by  
a particular defn. The main thing that tends to  $\downarrow$  the p.c. is  
the factor equal to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{R}}$  (1.25). The factor  $\frac{D}{D+1}$  is  
so close to 1 (even if  $D$  is only 2), that it is usually of  
~~no importance~~ negligible importance wrt.

Hvr, if  $D=2$   $\frac{D}{D+1} = \frac{2}{3}$ ; which does mean that one  
method of coding will be  $\approx 1\frac{1}{2}$  times as much wrt. as another  
-  $P_i$ 's could be of some import. Also, when  $D=1$  (an  
impt. case)  $\frac{D}{D+1} = \frac{1}{2}$ , which is a fair sized factor!

I think that much of the foreg. stuff is relevant to  
the problem of coding w. linear (or non-linear) regression;  
determining how many (or which) regn. coeffs. to use.

30: 1.29: Instead of  $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{R}})^{N-1}$ , all we want is the total (w. in  $N-1$  dim space of  
the  $P_i$  coeffs).

This is exactly  $\int \int \dots \int \prod_{i=1}^{N-1} (P_i^{m_i} dP_i)$   
Here  $m_i$  is the no. of times  $P_i$  occurs;  $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} m_i = N-1$   
 $N$  fold.

I'm not sure this is an  $N$ -fold  $\int$  - it may be only  $N-1$  fold.

anyway the integral ~~structure~~ involve is well known and rather simple structure.

The complicated part involve a  $\delta$  Gamma function - which may be where the  
approx  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{R}}$  comes in.

Maybe not so easy... see 4.17!

Code

For  $t$ -corresponding factor in "coding w. binary defus",

we have to integrate net, e.g.  $\rightarrow p_1^{17} p_2^5 \dots p_9^{21} (1-p_1-p_2 \dots -p_9)^4$

but  $p_1^{17} p_2^5 \dots p_9^{21} (1-p_1-p_2 \dots -p_9)^4 \cdot \left[ (1-p_2)^4 (1-p_5)^3 (1-p_5-p_3)^5 \right]^{-1}$

The new factors occur because of the restrictions in coding at certain positions

Whoops! Error is diffy! This factor causes divergence:  $\int_0^1 \dots \frac{1}{(1-p_2)} dp_2$  diverges.

It may be cancelled out by the  $(1-p_1-p_2 \dots -p_9)^4$  term

Also, since we do have a constraint  $\sum_{i=1}^9 p_i = 1$ , if  $p_2$  here got close to 1, then all of the other  $p_i$ 's would have to be close to zero!

So: This integral ~~is not so simple to do~~, perhaps is not so simple to do!

.17 Note also that this integral is more diff than I thought, since

~~we can't~~  $\sum_{i=1}^9 p_i = 1$  must hold over the region of integration! ~~so~~

We can't just integrate each variable indy. — This modifies  $t$ .

ught. of 3.30 - .40 as well!

Code:

Linear (i Non-linear) Regn:

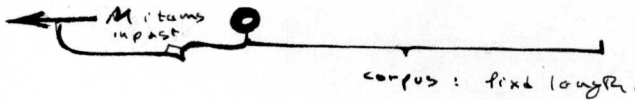
One ~~part~~ part that was rather messy, was coding to first ~~M~~  $M$  ~~use~~ items of  $t$ . Corpus ( $M$  is  $t$ . no. of coils to be used).

.03 I had previously considered coding each of them optimally in terms of ~~to previous~~ <sup>known</sup> items — "known" being "coded thus far".

A much easier way, would be to consider  $t$ . first  $M$  items as "given free": then code  $t$ . rest of  $t$ . seq. w.r.t. that info. We use something like

Complexity ( $X/Y$ )  $\equiv$  complexity of  $X$  given  $Y$ .

For larger  $M$ , we have to consider items further into  $t$ . past — if we keep  $t$ . corpus itself of constant length.



As we  $\uparrow$   $M$ , we keep corpus constant, but  $M$  extends further into  $t$ . past.

§583! See more recent Notes on P115: esp. Notes for Harvard table

w 3/83! Trouble is each of these  $m$  <sup>data pts</sup> ~~represent~~ represents a character seq. of "info". Giving  $m$  rather than  $m$  coils is prob ratio of prob of  $1$  ~~which~~ which ~~are~~ very much.

Actually .03 isn't bad. we start w. (1 or 2 or 3) ~~data pts~~ <sup>data pts</sup> known whether it's 1, 2 or 3 ~~only~~ will only affect whether we decide to terminate search w. 1, 2 or 3 coils (I think) — so it probably does not affect  $t$ . final assign — but check on P115  $\rightarrow$  Rep to is!

PSG-dirty stochastic

On discovery of ~~the~~ Models Using H.C. Entropy estimates as hill ht.

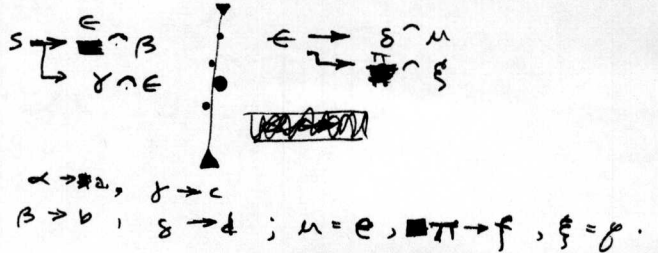
Mainly on how large a SSZ is needed to "identify" PSG's  
or what ~~accuracy~~ predn. accuracy is obtainable w. what SSZ.

Also on efficiency of using simpler grammar models for SSZ, (or even SSZ), then modifying t. simpler grammars into PSG's (i.e. introducing loops or rules giving potentially infinite langs.)

I'm thinking of 3 levels of Grammars: PSG.

1) Grammar for a finite lang:

i.e. no loops, but otherwise a PSG:  
stochastic choices.



2) finite state lang., w. stochastic choices.....

3) stochastic PSG w. loops being legal.



in 1) if one has a large enuf SSZ, one could get t. proby of each c in t. lang.

then try various grammars to reduce t. no. of /params. derivng. t. lang. continuous

Adv. perhaps t. usual case is that t. lang. is ~~to~~ has too many members for this to be practical, so the loopless PSG ~~to~~ gives a very large ↓ in t. amt. of info in t. grammar.

Actually, I usually think of / <sup>finding a</sup> type 1) model ~~many~~ than going to a type 3) model. ~~using~~ I haven't really considered that a type 2) model... being able to model an infinite lang., might be closer to 3) than 1) is! (Except that the idea of t. "a new method .... 1960" paper was that PSG's are very ~ to PSG's. & this text might be used to implement PSG dirty).

Any type 3) grammar can be written as a (potentially infinite) type 1) grammar!  
e.g.  
type 3)  $S \rightarrow a \alpha$   
 $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha a$   
 $\quad \quad \quad \downarrow$   
 $\quad \quad \quad b$   
so all a's are:  $ba^n$ .

W  
M  
/



PSG-discy

An infinite type 1 ~~PSG~~ PSG for  $\mathbb{N}$ 's:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 S \rightarrow \alpha \\
 \alpha_0 \rightarrow \alpha_{1,2} \\
 \quad \rightarrow b
 \end{array}
 \left(
 \begin{array}{l}
 \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_{2,2} \\
 \quad \rightarrow b
 \end{array}
 \right)
 \begin{array}{l}
 \alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_{3,2} \\
 \quad \rightarrow b \dots \dots
 \end{array}$$

It's not clear whether this grammar would have less info than the original corpus.

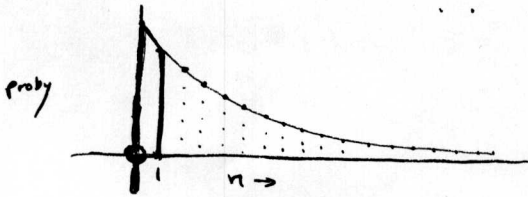
for any finite corpus, only a finite no. of grammar rules would be needed.

Also, if we allow repetition of  $\alpha$ 's in the given corpus, the corpus would ordinarily, have much more info than the grammar.

e.g. say the prob of  $\alpha_i \rightarrow \alpha_{i+1,2}$  was  $p$ ;  $\alpha_i \rightarrow b$  was  $1-p \approx q$ .

So, if  $p$  is close to 1, we will have a mean string length of

$$\sim \frac{1}{q} \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{a string of length 1 has prob } q \cdot p^0 \\ \dots \dots \dots 2 \text{ " " } q \cdot p^1 = q \cdot p^{2-1} \\ \dots \dots \dots n \text{ " " } q \cdot p^{n-1} = \frac{q}{p} \cdot p^n \end{array} \right)$$



If the SSZ is such that we have a string of length  $n=n_0$ , then we have  $\sim \frac{1}{p^i}$  strings of length  $n-1$ ,  $\frac{1}{p^2}$  " " "  $n-2$ , etc.

so, total string length =  $\frac{n}{p^0} + \frac{n-1}{p^1} + \frac{n-2}{p^2} \dots \dots \frac{1}{p^{n-1}} + \frac{n-n}{p^n}$

$$= p^{-n} (p + 2p^2 + 3p^3 \dots \dots np^{n-1})$$

$$= p^{-n} \sum_{i=0}^n i p^i = p^{1-n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i p^{i-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{d p} \frac{1-p^{n+1}}{1-p} = \frac{p d(1-p^{n+1}) - (1-p^{n+1}) d p}{(1-p)^2} = \frac{p(-n+1)p^n - (1-p^{n+1})(-1)}{(1-p)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1-p^n(1+(1-p)n)}{(1-p)^2}$$

so  $\sim \frac{1}{(1-p)^2}$

prob of string of length  $n$  is  $q p^{n-1}$

so  $\Sigma = \frac{1-p^n(1+(1-p)n)}{p^{n-1}(1-p)^2}$

01580 PSG discy

The idea here, is that if the longest example string is of length  $n$ , ( $n \geq 21$ ), then the no. of ~~choices~~ in the row corpus would be very large: for  $p = .9$  &  $n = 20$ , the no. of choices made is  $\sim 470$  (from 2.40).

On the other hand, the no. of choices to create a non-loop PSG would be  $\sim 3n$  (see 2.03) which would be  $\ll$  the no. of choices in the row corpus.

Hvr. this is not the point! Even using a good grammar, the no. of choices needed to create the corpus, would be about the same as the no. of symbols in it: i.e. (2.40)

So the argt. would have to be very detailed to tell if a loopless PSG did, indeed, achieve a compression  $>$  say a simple Bernoulli code!

Actually for the lang of 1.37 w.  $S \rightarrow a$ ;  $a \rightarrow \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \rightarrow \\ \downarrow \\ b \end{matrix}$

the Bern sep. is not so bad: for a large corpus,

$P_a \sim .9, P_b \sim .05, P_{\text{end symbol}} \sim .05$

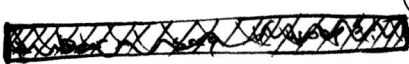


Hvr. the main idea of the present discy is: If one is given a loop PSG corpus, is it useful to first find a good (loopless PSG) for the corpus

... then try closing the loop(s) ... using H.C. &

apparent entropy ( $\equiv$  Prout) as a Goc.

Whether a Bern sep. would give a better Goc is, hvr., not relevant... because



A Bern sep. is not a type 1 Gramm, since it's for

an infinite lang. (Here we use a stop symbol as one of the Bern alphabet, so we get  $> 1$  sentence in the corpus)

Grammar Grammar

(SIN) From a large loopless Gramm of a looped PSG corpus, one can devise a grammar for this (potentially infinite) Grammar, & perhaps from this "Grammar Grammar" find an easy way to close the loop(s).

Hvr. what has always seemed like a v.g. idea, is to find out how to find the Gramm of a <sup>stochastic</sup> finite state lang. From this use the correspondence betw. FSG & PSG to devise a method for PSG discy.

There may be known ways to do this for FSG: see Taylor Booth: papers, reviews, book(s).

First make as good as poss. TREE grammar. This is a loop free CGrammar.  
 For a given corpus size, there will be a bunch of  $\approx$  "Best" Grammars.  
 From one (or more) of these tree grammars, one tries to transform into  
looped grammars. Here, each Tree grammar is regarded as an  
 object ~~operation~~ that one wants to transform into a more "compact"  
 (more pc) object — i.e. a looped grammar. Once we have  
 a tree grammar, we don't go back to the original corpus.

The only (sort of) backtracking method used, is to  
 generate several Tree grammars & try to "loopify" each  
 of them, to see which results in the best "pc" object.

The reason I think this is a good approach: "working backwards"

Say one had <sup>a good</sup> ~~correct~~ loop grammar for the corpus:

Then one could break the loops ~~in~~ in various ways &  
 get tree grammars of <sup>probably</sup> lower pc. Looking at it this way

makes it reasonable that .01 ff would work.

How many different ways can one convert a looped grammar  
 into a tree Grammar? Does one always ↓ pc by doing so?  
 Do the various ~~alternative~~ alternative Tree grammars all have about  
 the same pcs?

consider the loop grammar language  $(aa)^n$ :

Grammar:

$S \rightarrow a$   
 ~~$S \rightarrow a$~~   
 ~~$S \rightarrow a$~~

Some Tree grammars

$S \rightarrow S_1$   
 $S_1 \rightarrow a$   
 $S_2 \rightarrow S_1 S_1$   
 $S_3 \rightarrow S_2 S_2$   
 $S_4 \rightarrow S_3 S_3$

$S \rightarrow S_3 S_3$   
 $S_3 \rightarrow S_2 S_2$   
 $S_2 \rightarrow S_1 S_1$   
 $S_1 \rightarrow a$

How long from  
 $\leftarrow$   $\rightarrow$   $\rightarrow$   $\rightarrow$  ?

or  
 better  
 Tree grammar

$S \rightarrow S_3$   
 $S_1 \rightarrow a$   
 $S_2 \rightarrow S_1 S_1$   
 $S_3 \rightarrow S_2 S_2$

$S_1 = a^1$   
 $S_2 = a^{0,1,2,3}$   
 $S_3 = a^{0,1,2,3,5,6,7}$

N2392 TM P56 Discy

Actually, the grammars of .35 R(0, .35) - .40 in general) are ~~not~~ <sup>not</sup> <sup>exactly</sup> what one gets from  $\sum_{TB}^n (14)$  (coding u. defns.). Z141 gives a ~~form~~ <sup>form</sup> lang. That's

\* Bernoulli seq. + methods of

Hor.,  $\sqrt{Z140}$  can be applied to ~~the~~ ordinary lang. & the derivation of free Grammars for Reg.