A proof challenge: multiple alignment and information compression

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Abstract
These notes pose a “proof challenge”: a proof, or disproof, of the proposition that For any given body of information, $I$, expressed as a one-dimensional sequence of atomic symbols, a multiple alignment concept, described in the document, provides a means of encoding all the redundancy that may exist in $I$. Aspects of the challenge are described.

1 Introduction
For several years, I have been developing the SP theory of intelligence, designed to simplify and integrate concepts across artificial intelligence, mainstream computing, and human perception and cognition, with information compression as a unifying theme [3, 2].

A central idea in the SP theory is a concept of multiple alignment, to be described, which achieves the effect of compressing information.

In this connection, it would be good to have a formal proof, or disproof, of the following proposition:

For any given body of information, $I$, expressed as a one-dimensional sequence of atomic symbols, the multiple alignment concept provides a means of encoding all the redundancy that may exist in $I$.

The following sections describe relevant concepts and aspects of this “proof challenge”.

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2 The matching and unification of patterns

To cut through some of the complexities in this area, I have found it useful to focus on a rather simple idea: that we may identify repetition or ‘redundancy’ in information by searching for patterns that match each other, and that we may reduce that redundancy and thus compress information by merging or ‘unifying’ two or more copies to make one. As just described, the principle loses information about the positions of all but one of the original patterns, but this can be remedied with any of three variants of the idea:

- **Chunking-with-codes.** Here, the unified pattern is given a relatively short name, identifier, or ‘code’ which is used as a shorthand for the pattern or ‘chunk’. If, for example, the words “Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union” appear in several different places in a document, we may save space by writing the expression once, giving it a short name such as “TFEU”, and then using that name as a shorthand for the expression wherever it occurs.

- **Schema-plus-correction.** This is like chunking-with-codes but the unified chunk of information may have variations or ‘corrections’ on different occasions. For example, a six-course menu in a restaurant may have the general form ‘Menu1: Appetiser (S) sorbet (M) (P) coffee-and-mints’, with choices at the points marked ‘S’ (starter), ‘M’ (main course), and ‘P’ (pudding). Then a particular meal may be encoded economically as something like ‘Menu1: (3)(5)(1)’, where the digits determine the choices of starter, main course, and pudding.

- **Run-length coding.** This may be used where there is a sequence two or more copies of a pattern, each one except the first following immediately after its predecessor. In this case, the multiple copies may be reduced to one, as before, with something to say how many copies there are, or when the sequence begins and ends, or, more vaguely, that the pattern is repeated. For example, a sports coach might specify exercises as something like “touch toes (×15), push-ups (×10), skipping (×30), ...” or “Start running on the spot when I say ‘start’ and keep going until I say ‘stop’”.

The multiple alignment concept, described in the next section, combines these three techniques and also provides for the encoding of discontinuous dependencies in data, as described in Section 6.4.
3 SP patterns and the multiple alignment concept

In the SP system, all kinds of knowledge are represented with SP patterns: arrays of atomic symbols in one or two dimensions. Here, a ‘symbol’ is some kind of mark that can be compared with any other symbol to decide whether it is the ‘same’ or ‘different’. No other result is permitted.

So far, the main focus has been on 1D patterns but it is envisaged that, at some stage, the system will be generalised to work with 2D patterns.

In the SP system, all kinds of processing are done via the building of multiple alignments like the one shown in Figure 1. This and other examples in this document are created by the SP computer model, based on the SP theory.

```
| 0 | the | apples | are | sweet | 0 |
|---|-----|--------|-----|-------|---|
| 1 |     |        |     |       |   |
| 2 |     |        |     |       |   |
| 3 | D 17 | the | are | sweet | 3 |
| 4 | NP | D | #D | #NP | #V | #A | #S |
| 5 | | | | | | | |
| 6 | S Num | ; | NP | #NP | V | A | #A | #S |
| 7 | | | | | | | |
| 8 | Num PL | ; | Sp | Vp |
```

Figure 1: A multiple alignment created by the SP computer model that achieves the effect of parsing a sentence (‘the apples are sweet’).

In the figure, each row contains one SP pattern. By convention, row 0 contains a New pattern representing incoming information, while the remaining rows contain Old patterns representing already-stored information.

Multiple alignments like the one shown in the figure are built in a stepwise manner, much as in bioinformatics programs that create multiple alignments from DNA sequences or amino-acid sequences. At each stage, each partially-built multiple alignment is given a score in terms of its effectiveness in compressing the New pattern; and, at each stage, the best multiple alignments are selected for further processing. The overall aim is to create one or more multiple alignments that score well in compressing the New pattern.
4 Unsupervised learning

In the example just shown, the Old patterns were created manually but it is envisaged that, when the system is more mature, most Old patterns would be created by the system itself, as described in [3] Section 5] and [2] Chapter 9].

Unsupervised learning in the SP system means compressing a given body of information \((I)\) to create a grammar \((G)\), and an encoding \((E)\) of \(I\) in terms of \(G\). In accordance with the principle of minimum length encoding [1], the system aims to minimise the overall size of \(G\) and \(E\).

For present purposes, many of the details of how learning is achieved are not important. But a brief summary may be useful:

- When an incoming (‘New’) pattern is received, the system looks for good full or partial matches with pre-stored (‘Old’) patterns, if any.

- If there is a match between the New pattern, or part of it, with all the ‘contents’ symbols (see below) in any Old pattern, the frequency value of the Old pattern is increased by 1.

- Whenever any New or Old pattern is not fully matched, the system creates Old patterns from the part or parts that match and also from the part or parts that do not match. If the New pattern is not matched at all, it is simply stored as an Old pattern.

- Each newly-created Old pattern is given system-generated ‘identification’ symbols (‘ID-symbols’) like ‘A’, ‘21’, and ‘#A’ in the pattern ‘A 21 s w e e t #A’ in Figure 1. All other symbols in the pattern are ‘contents’ symbols (‘C-symbols’).

- Any newly-created Old pattern that is derived from patterns that match each other is assigned a frequency value of 2, while each newly-created Old pattern that is derived from an unmatched pattern is assigned a frequency value of 1.

- At all stages, there is a process of selecting patterns that help to minimise the overall size of \(G\) and \(E\), and discarding the rest.
5 How a New pattern may be encoded economically via Old patterns in a multiple alignment

This section describes in outline how an encoding, \( E \), may be derived from New and Old patterns in a multiple alignment.

Consider the multiple alignment shown in Figure 1. From this multiple alignment, one can derive a code pattern in the following way:

1. Scan the multiple alignment from left to right looking for columns that contain an ID-symbol by itself, not aligned with any other symbol.

2. Copy these symbols into a code pattern in the same order that they appear in the multiple alignment.

The result in this case is the code pattern ‘S PL 0a 17 6 11 21 #S’. This is, in effect, a compressed representation of the sentence ‘the apple is sweet’. As a crude measure of compression, 17 symbols in the sentence have been reduced to 8 symbols in the encoding. If we take account of the number of bits used to represent each symbol, 160 bits in the sentence have been reduced to 54 bits in the encoding.

6 Kinds of redundancy in sequential information

This section considers some kinds of redundancy that may be found in a 1D sequence of atomic symbols, \( I \), and how they may be encoded in the multiple alignment framework. The first three correspond to the three coding techniques outlined in Section 2: chunking-with-codes, schema-plus-correction, and run-length coding.

As a rough generalisation, any symbol or sequence of symbols that occurs 2 or more times in \( I \) may seen to represent redundancy in \( I \). More precisely, a symbol or sequence of symbols represents redundancy if it occurs more often in \( I \) than one would expect by chance. Here, a “sequence of symbols” may include any subsequence of \( I \) that is discontinuous within \( I \).

6.1 Chunks

Any symbol or coherent sequence of symbols that appears repeatedly in \( I \) may be seen as a ‘chunk’ of information.
Assuming that the Old patterns in rows 1 to 8 of Figure 1 were derived, via unsupervised learning, from a relatively large body of natural language text, then sequences of symbols like ‘t h e’ in ‘D 17 t h e #D’, ‘a p p l e’ in ‘N Nr 6 a p p l e #N’, and ‘s w e e t’ in ‘A 21 s w e e t #A’, may be regarded as chunks of information, each one with associated ID-symbols or ‘codes’ like ‘D’, ‘17’, and ‘#D’, in ‘D 17 t h e #D’, in accordance with the chunking-with-codes technique for information compression.

6.2 Schemata

Any sequence of symbols containing one or more slots into which alternative subsequences may be inserted may be seen as a ‘schema’. Examples include patterns like ‘S Num ; NP #NP V #V A #A #S’ and ‘NP 0a D #D N #N #NP’ in Figure 1. In the first case, the slots are ‘NP #NP’, ‘V #V’, and ‘A #A’; while in the second case, the slots are ‘D #D’, and ‘N #N’.

An example of the schema-plus-correction technique for information compression is the way the sequence ‘t h e a p p l e s a r e s w e e t’ may be encoded economically as ‘S PL 0a 17 6 11 21 #S’ (Section 5). Here, ‘S ... #S’ is the schema and the symbols ‘PL 0a 17 6 11 21’ are ‘corrections’ to the schema at more than one level of abstraction.

6.3 Runs

Any sequence of two or more chunks, with each one except the first following immediately after its predecessor, may be described as a ‘run’.

Figure 2: A multiple alignment produced by the SP model with the New pattern ‘a b c a b c a b c a b c $’ and multiple appearances of the Old pattern, ‘X 1 a b c X 1 #X #X’.

In the multiple alignment framework, a sequence like ‘a b c a b c a b c a b c a b c $’, containing repeated instances of the chunk ‘a b c’, may be
encoded via recursion, as shown in Figure 2. This may be seen as an example of run-length coding.

6.4 Discontinuous dependencies

A well-known feature of natural languages is that there may be grammatical ‘agreements’ or ‘dependencies’ between one part of a sentence and another. For example, if the subject of the sentence is singular, then the main verb must also be singular, and if the subject is plural, the main verb must be plural.

Within one sentence, there may be dependencies that are quite independent of each other as, for example, number dependency and gender dependency in the French sentence Les plumes sont vertes (“The feathers are green”):

|     |     |     |     |     |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| P   | P   | P   | P   |     | Number dependencies
| Les plumes sont vertes | F   | F   |     | Gender dependencies

These kinds of agreement or dependency are often described as ‘discontinuous’ because they may jump over arbitrarily large amounts of intervening structure. For example, there is a number agreement (plural) between the subject and the verb in the sentence The winds from the West are strong, even though the subject and the verb are separated by the phrase from the West. That phrase may be replaced by one or more subordinate clauses which may be arbitrarily complex.

Dependencies like these may be encoded via the multiple alignment framework as shown in Figure 1. Here, the plural dependency between the subject and the verb is marked in row 8 with the pattern ‘\texttt{Num PL ; Np Vp}’. The symbol ‘\texttt{Np}’ is aligned with the matching symbol in row 2, while the symbol ‘\texttt{Vp}’ is aligned with its twin in row 5.

The multiple alignment framework also accommodates dependencies within one sentence that are independent of each other as shown in Figure 5.8 in [2, Section 5.4.1], with the sentence Les plumes sont vertes.

6.5 Mirror images

The last form of redundancy to be considered in this section is when one sequence is a mirror image of another. For example, the sequence ‘information’ matches the sequence ‘noitamrofni’, provided that the process of matching reverses the order of the symbols in either of the
sequences relative to the other, and provided that the symbols are treated as atomic, with no internal structure or left-to-right asymmetry.

As it stands now, the SP computer model does not do that kind of reverse matching but it could be generalised to do so. Alongside any such generalisation would be reform of the way SP patterns are represented, to facilitate the building of multiple alignments in which any one sequence may appear in its left-to-right or right-to-left ordering. For this to be possible, it would be necessary to ensure symmetry between the ID-symbols at each end. For example, the sequence ‘information’ would have end markers something like this: ‘NinformationN’.

7 Towards a proof

The proof challenge, posed in the Introduction, is to prove, or disprove, the proposition that:

For any given body of information, I, expressed as a one-dimensional sequence of atomic symbols, the multiple alignment concept provides a means of encoding all the redundancy that may exist in I.

It appears that the proposition may be proved or disproved by answering the following questions:

• Do the kinds of redundancy described in Section 6 exhaust the possibilities? Are there any other kinds of redundancy that may be found in I?

• For each of the kinds of redundancy described in Section 6 can the multiple alignment framework encode all such redundancies, if any, that may exist in I?

Another possible way to approach the problem is via the following statements (from Section 6):

A symbol or sequence of symbols represents redundancy if it occurs more often in I than one would expect by chance. Here, a “sequence of symbols” may include any subsequence of I that is discontinuous within I.

The target proposition may be proved (or disproved) by showing that the multiple alignment concept can (or cannot) encode all such redundancies in I.
References

[1] R. J. Solomonoff. A formal theory of inductive inference. Parts I and II. *Information and Control*, 7:1–22 and 224–254, 1964.

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[3] J. G. Wolff. The SP theory of intelligence: an overview. *Information*, 4(3):283–341, 2013. See bit.ly/19MmbLd.