## NOTE

# OPTIMAL KEY FOR TAXONS ORDERED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THEIR FREQUENCIES 

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Received 20 July 1979
Revised 14 April 1980


#### Abstract

Assume nothing is known about the probabilities of taxons except that the first taxon is more probable than the second one, the second is more probable than the third, and so on. Then to construct the optimal key, one can regard the $i$ th taxon as having probability proportional to $(i-1)^{i-1} / i^{i}$.


## 1. Introduction

Dichotomous keys are widely used in biology, mineralogy, pattern recognition, and other areas. Such a key is labelled c mplete binary tree. The label of a leaf is the name of a taxon and the label of any ther node is an attribute. One goes to the right son of a node if the taxon has the corresponding attribute, otherwise one goes to the left son. Fig. 1 shows a key of dragonflies of the sub-family Libellulinae [1]. The key is based on analysis of the wings of a dragonfly. The first attribute $\alpha_{1}$ is equal to 0 if the last antenodal vein of the wing is complete, 1 if it is incomplete. The attribute $\alpha_{2}$ is equal to 0 if the sectors of the arculus (an element of the wing) are divided from the very base, and equal to 1 if there is a stem at the top of the sectors. etc.

There are many ways to construct a key, and we want an efficient one. If one wants to reduce the volume of a key to the minimum, one can use the results in [2]. Our goal here is to construct keys with the minimum expected time of identification.

Suppose that we are given $n$ taxons, $n>0$, and let $P_{i}$ be the probability of occurrence of the $i$ th taxon, such that $P_{1}+P_{2}+\cdots+P_{n}=1$. If the length of a path from the root of a determining tree $T$ up to a leaf corresponding to the $i$ th taxon is $l_{i}(T)$, then the expected nuber of attributes needed for identification (expected time) is

$$
S(T, P)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{i} l_{i}(T)
$$



Fig. 1. The key for dragonfly's genera of the subfamily Libellulinae from [1].

In the example of Fig. $1, l_{i}(T)=1, l_{2}(T)=2, \ldots, l_{6}(T)=5$. The minimum value of $S(T, P)$ is equal to the entropy

$$
H(P)=-\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{i} \log _{2} P_{i}
$$

The redundancy of a key $\boldsymbol{T}$ on a vector $\boldsymbol{P}$ is

$$
R(T, P)=S(T, P)-H(P) .
$$

The function $R(T, P)$ is convex. If the probabilities $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}$ are known, then finding the optimal key is equivalent to constructing the optimum decipherable code. The solution is the Huffman code [3], and the Shannon code [4,5] is close (within 1) of being optimum.

One can scarcely hope to know the exact probabilities. They change from one region to another and from one season to another. Also, it is rather difficult to evaluate the probabilities of a taxon if one has only one or two specimens of it. But it is usually known which taxons occur more frequently than others. We consider the relation $i \leqslant j$ ( $i$ occurs less often than $j$ ) to be defined for all pairs of taxons and our set of taxons to be linearly ordered with respect to this relation. In the example of Fig. 1, the genus Sympetrum ( $t_{6}$ ) is the most numerous (in Siberia), and the genera Leucorrhinia ( $t_{1}$ ), Libellula ( $t_{2}$ ), Orthetrum ( $t_{4}$ ), Pantala ( $t_{3}$ ), Neurotemis ( $t_{5}$ ) follow in order $(6 \geqslant 1 \geqslant 2 \geqslant 4 \geqslant 3 \geqslant 5)$. For a tree $T$ with $n$ leaves we define by $R_{n}(T)$ the maximum of $R(T, P)$ taken over all the vectors $P$ compatible with a linear order on the set of leaves of $T$ (taxons). We explain in this paper how to make a tree $T$ with $n$ leaves which has the minimum possible value of $\boldsymbol{R}_{\mathbf{n}}(T)$. Our method diminishes $S(T, P)$ by a factor of 1.5 to 2 for most of the keys in [1].

It is possible to generalize the method to the case of an arbitrary, not necessarily linear, order on the set of taxons. Such a generalization is discussed in [6]. The question is reduced there to finding the capacity of a communication channel.

## 2. Definitions and auriliary results

Let a linear order be defined on the set of $n$ taxons, $n>1: 1 \geqslant 2 \geqslant \cdots \geqslant n$. Let $\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ be the set of probability vectors compatible with this order, i.e., $\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ is the set of vectors $P=\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right)$ such $P_{1} \geqslant P_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant P_{n} \geqslant 0$ and $P_{1}+P_{2}+\cdots+P_{n}=1$. We denote by $q^{i}$ the $n$-dimensional vector, the first $i$ coordinates of which are equal to $1 / i$ and the last $n-i$ equal to $0,1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$. Let $Q_{n}=\left\{q^{1}, \ldots, q^{n}\right\}$.

Lemma 1. The set $P_{n}$ is the convex hull of the set $Q_{n}$.
Proof. Let $P=\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right) \in P_{n}, \varphi_{i}=i\left(P_{i}-P_{i+1}\right), i=1, \ldots, n$. Let $P_{n+1}=0$. Obviously, $\varphi_{i} \geqslant 0, i=1, \ldots, n, \sum_{i=1}^{i} \varphi_{i} q^{i}=P$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi=1$.

Lemma 2. Let $\lambda_{i}>0, \mu_{i}>0, i=1, \ldots, n ; \lambda_{i} \geqslant \lambda_{i+1}, i=1, \ldots, n-1$;

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log \mu_{i}>\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log \lambda_{i}, \quad m=1, \ldots, n . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}>\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $\varepsilon_{i}=\mu_{i} / \lambda_{i}-1$. Obviously $\varepsilon_{i}>-1$. From (1) and the inequality $\ln (1+\varepsilon) \leqslant \varepsilon,(\varepsilon>-1)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{s} \varepsilon_{i}>0, \quad s=1, \ldots, n \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We rewrite (2) in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} \varepsilon_{i}>0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiplying the $i$ ith inequality (3) by the positive $r$ umber $\lambda_{s}-\lambda_{s+1}, s=$ $1, \ldots, n, \lambda_{n+1}=0$, and summing all of them up, we obtain (4).

## 3. The method

Suppose that we are given a linearly ordered set of $n$ taxons. To construct an optimum tree, we first of all supply the $i$ th taxon with the probability $\lambda_{i}=$ $(i-1)^{i-1} / i^{i} \gamma_{n}$, where $\gamma_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(i-1)^{i-1} / i^{i}, i=1, \ldots, n$. It is clear that $\lambda_{i}>\lambda_{i+1}$, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}=1$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{i=1}^{s}-\log \lambda_{i}\right) / s-\log s=\log \gamma_{n}, \quad s=1, \ldots, n \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now construct the Shannon code for the probability vector ( $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ ). The code for the $i$ th taxon is the first $\left\lceil\log 1 / \lambda_{i}\right\rceil$ binary digits of the number $\sum_{j=1}^{i} \lambda_{i}$ $(i=1, \ldots, n)$. These codes define full binary tree $T_{M}$ (the nodes with only one son are omitted). It is known that

$$
\begin{equation*}
l_{i}\left(T_{M}\right) \leqslant \log 1 / \lambda_{i}+1, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $l_{i}\left(T_{M}\right)$ is the number of attributes required to identify the $i$-th taxon in the tree $T_{M}$.

Theorem. The maximum redundancy $\boldsymbol{R}_{\mathbf{n}}(T)$ of any tree with $\boldsymbol{n}$ leaves on the linear ordered set of $n$ taxons is at least $\log _{2} \gamma_{n}$. On the other hand, for the tree constructed above.

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{n}\left(T_{M}\right) \leqslant \log _{2} \gamma_{n}+1 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words, the tree $T_{M}$ is optimum to within the additive constant 1.
Proof. Let $T$ be a tree with $n$ leaves, and let $\mu_{i}=2^{-\underline{l}(T)}, i=1, \ldots, n$. The Kraft inequality is valid:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}=1 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $R_{n}(T)<\log _{2} \gamma_{n}$, then $R\left(T, q^{s}\right)<\log _{2} \gamma_{n}, s=1, \ldots, n$. The last inequality is equivalent to

$$
\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i}^{s}\left(l_{i}, T\right)+\log _{2} q_{i}^{s}\right)<\log _{2} \gamma_{n} .
$$

Hence we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{s} \log _{2} \mu_{i}\right) / s-\log _{2} s<\log _{2} \gamma_{n}, \quad s=1, \ldots, n \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 2, (5), (8) and (9) yield

$$
1=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}>\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}=1
$$

a contradiction. Hence $R_{n}(T) \geqslant \log _{2} \gamma_{n}$. The first statement of the theorem is now proved.

The corvex function $R(T, P)$ attains its minimum on a vector of $Q_{n}$ (Lemma 1). From (6) and (9), we have $R\left(T_{M}, q^{s}\right) \leqslant \log _{2} \gamma_{n}+1, s=1, \ldots, n$ and (7) is proved.

It is possible to use the Fano or Huffman codes instead of the Shannon code. Fig. 2 presents the optimum trees for the oraered sets with not more than 9 taxons.


(e)


(g)

(h)

Fig. 2. The optimal keys.

## 4. An application

We took several sets of taxons from [1] and constructed keys for them by our method. For example, we could find attributes for the family Libellulinae in order to give it the key of Fig. 2(e). To compare the new and the former determining trees, one has to know the probabilities, which we did not know. We decided to count the number of attributes necessary to determine taxons in real samples. For example, B.F. Belyshev, making an inventory of Far East dragonflies, possessed a collection of 226 specimens of Libellulinae [7]. This collection included all the specimens gathered by many researchers for a long time. There are reasons to consider this collection to be a representative sample. 146 of these dragonflies are ciassified as Symnetrum, 69 as Leucorrhinia, 5 as Libellula, 6 as Pantala. To
determine Sympetrum with the determiny tree in 1, Fig. 1, one has to use ; attributes, Leucorrhinia 2, Libellula 3, Pantala 4. The total number of attributes needed to determine all the dragonflies of this collection is

$$
146 \times 5+69 \times 2+5 \times 3+6 \times 4=907
$$

This amount is reduced to

$$
146 \times 1+69 \times 2+5 \times 4+6 \times 4=328
$$

attributes with the help of our determination tree 2 e . We also made calculations of this kind for the data frum [7,8,9]. The results were good: the use of our method often diminished the expected number of attributes by a factor of between 1.5 and 2 .

## Acknowledgement

It is a great pleasure to express our gratitude to Mr. P.L. Hammer for his kind help in preparing this paper.

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