### CS3245

# **Information Retrieval**

Lecture 6: Index Compression





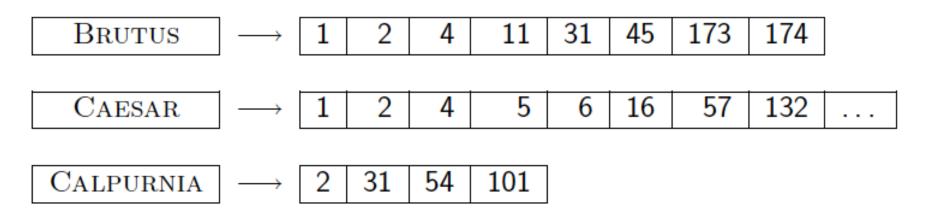
### Last Time: index construction

- Sort-based indexing
  - Blocked Sort-Based Indexing
    - Merge sort is effective for disk-based sorting (avoid seeks!)
  - Single-Pass In-Memory Indexing
    - No global dictionary Generate separate dictionary for each block
    - Don't sort postings Accumulate postings as they occur
- Distributed indexing using MapReduce
- Dynamic indexing: Multiple indices, logarithmic merge





# Today: Cmprssn



- Collection statistics in more detail (with RCV1)
  - How big will the dictionary and postings be?
- Dictionary compression
- Postings compression

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# Why compression (in general)?

- Use less disk space
  - Saves a little money
- Keep more data in memory
  - Increases speed
- Increase speed of data transfer from disk to memory
  - [read compressed data | decompress] is faster than [read uncompressed data]
  - Premise: Decompression algorithms are fast
    - True of the decompression algorithms we use



# Lossless vs. lossy compression

- Lossless compression: All information is preserved
  - What we mostly do in IR.
- Lossy compression: Discard some information
- Several of the preprocessing steps can be viewed as lossy compression: case folding, stop words, stemming, number elimination
- Later: Prune postings entries that are unlikely to turn up in the top k list for any query
  - Almost no loss quality for top k list

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# Vocabulary vs. collection size

- Heaps' law:  $M = kT^b$
- M is the size of the vocabulary, T is the number of tokens in the collection
- Typical values:  $30 \le k \le 100$  and  $b \approx 0.5$
- In a log-log plot of vocabulary size M vs. T, Heaps' law predicts a line with slope about ½
  - It is the simplest possible relationship between the two in log-log space
  - An empirical finding ("empirical law")





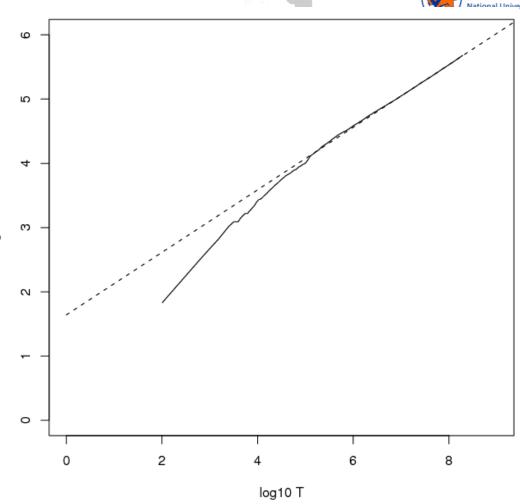
# Heaps' Law

For RCV1, the dashed line

 $\log_{10} M = 0.49 \log_{10} T + 1.64$  is the best least squares fit. Thus,  $M = 10^{1.64} T^{0.49}$  so  $k = 10^{1.64} \approx 44$  and b = 0.49.

Good empirical fit for Reuters RCV1!

For first 1,000,020 tokens, law predicts 38,323 terms; actually, 38,365 terms



Zipf's law





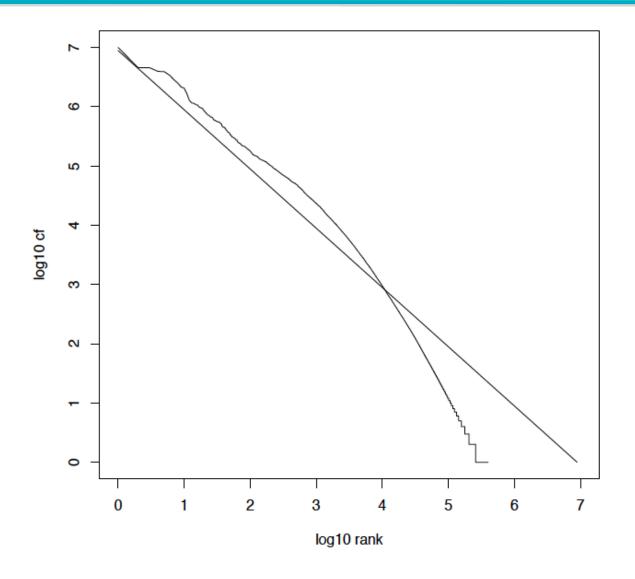
- How about the relative frequencies of terms?
- In natural language, there are a few very frequent terms and very many very rare terms.
- Zipf's law: The ith most frequent term has frequency proportional to 1/i.
- $cf_i \propto 1/i = K/i$  where K is a normalizing constant
- cf<sub>i</sub> is <u>collection frequency</u> (not document frequency): the number of occurrences of the term t<sub>i</sub> in the collection.



## Zipf consequences

- If the most frequent term (the) occurs cf<sub>1</sub> times
  - then the second most frequent term (of) occurs cf<sub>1</sub>/2 times
  - the third most frequent term (and) occurs  $cf_1/3$  times ...
- Equivalent: cf<sub>i</sub> = K/i where K is a normalizing factor, so log cf<sub>i</sub> = log K - log i
  - Linear relationship between log cf<sub>i</sub> and log i
- Another power law relationship

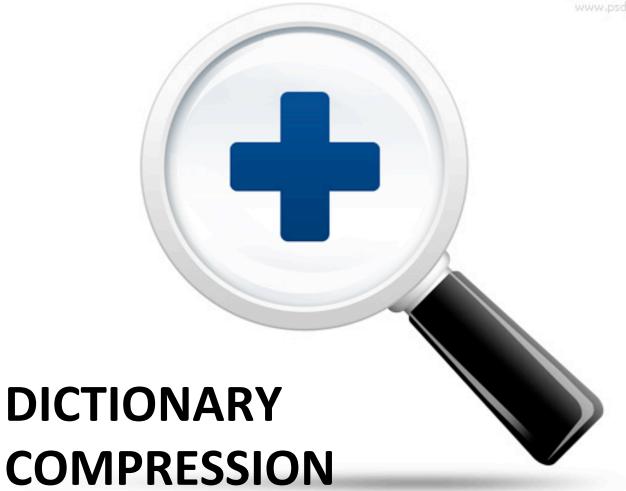
# Zipf's law for Reuters RCV1











# Why compress the dictionary?



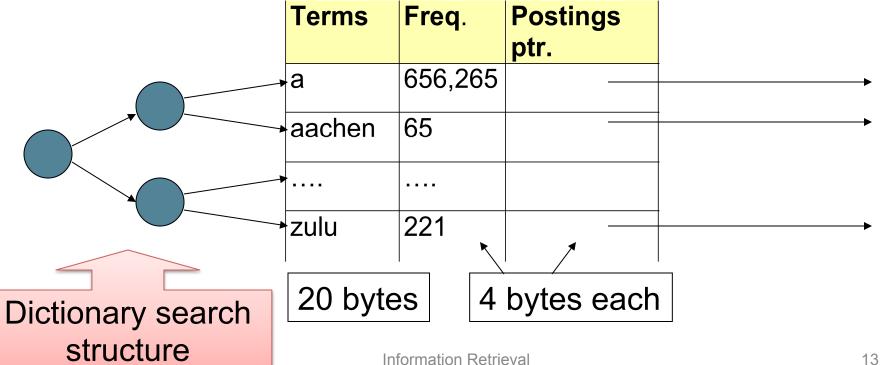
- Search begins with the dictionary
- We want to keep it in memory
- Memory footprint competition with other applications
- Embedded/mobile devices may have very little memory
- Even if the dictionary isn't in memory, we want it to be small for a fast search startup time

Compressing the dictionary is important





- Array of fixed-width entries
  - ~400,000 terms; 28 bytes/term = 11.2 MB.





### Fixed-width terms are wasteful

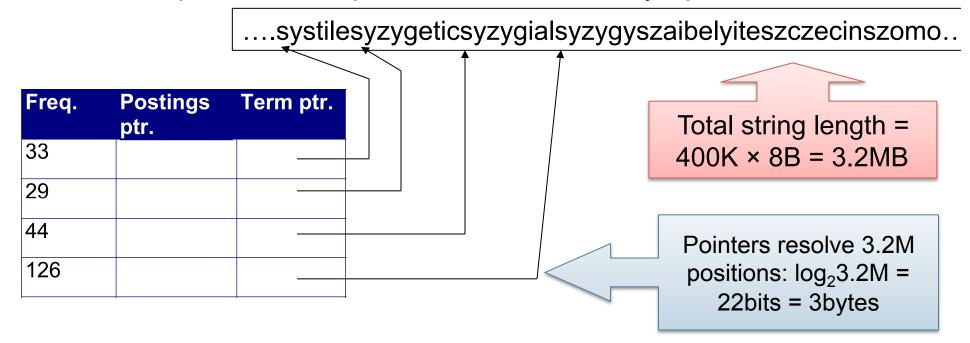
- Most of the bytes in the **Term** column are wasted we allot 20 bytes for 1 letter terms.
  - And we still can't handle supercalifragilisticexpialidocious or hydrochlorofluorocarbons.
- Written English averages ~4.5 characters/word.
- Average dictionary word in English: ~8 characters
  - How do we use ~8 characters per dictionary term?
- Short words dominate token counts but not type average.

# Compressing the term list: Dictionary-as-a-String





- Store dictionary as a (long) string of characters:
  - Pointer to next word shows end of current word
  - Hope to save up to 60% of dictionary space.





# Space for dictionary as a string

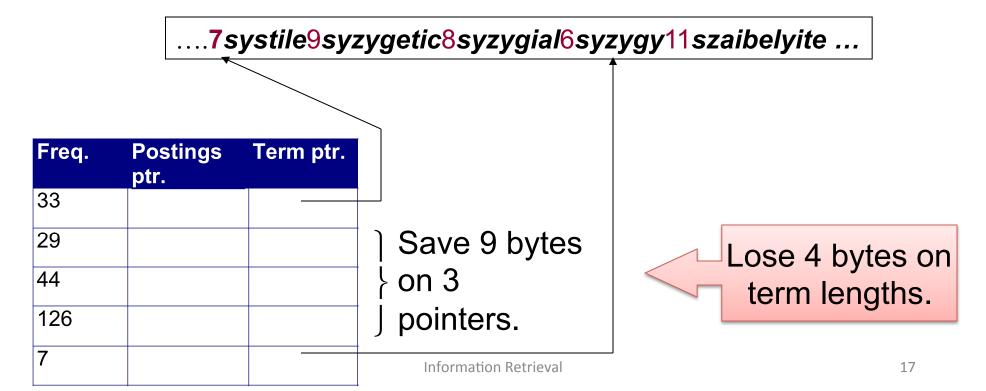
- 4 bytes per term for frequency
- 4 bytes per term for pointer to postings
- 3 bytes per term pointer
- Avg. 8 bytes per term in term string
- 400K terms × 19 ⇒ 7.6 MB (against 11.2MB for fixed width)

Now avg. 11 bytes/term, not 20.



### Blocking

- Store pointers to every kth term string.
  - Example below: k=4.
- Need to store term lengths (1 extra byte)





### Net Result

- Example for block size k = 4
- Where we used 3 bytes/pointer without blocking
  - 3 x 4 = 12 bytes,

now we use 3 + 4 = 7 bytes.

Shaved another  $\sim$ 0.5MB. This reduces the size of the dictionary from 7.6 MB to 7.1 MB. We can save more with larger k.

Why not go with larger *k*?

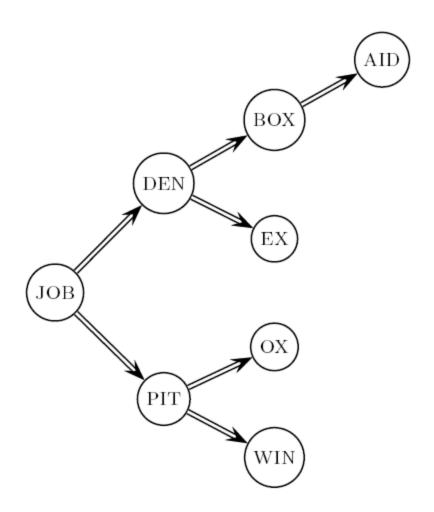




### Dictionary search without blocking

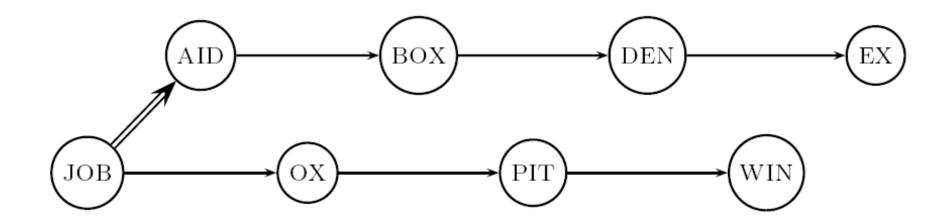
 Assuming each dictionary term equally likely in query (not true in practice!), average number of comparisons

$$= (1+(2\cdot2)+(4\cdot3)+4)/8$$
$$= ^22.6$$





# Dictionary search with blocking



- Binary search down to 4-term block;
  - Then linear search through terms in block.
- Blocks of 4 (binary tree), average =  $(1+(2\cdot2)+(2\cdot3)+(2\cdot4)+5)/8 = 3$  compares

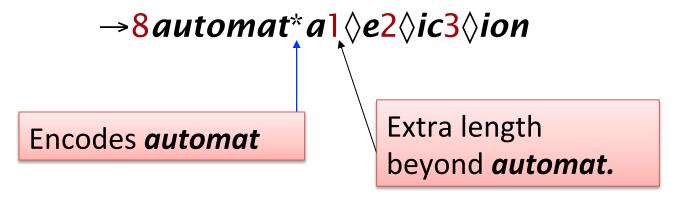




### Front coding

- Sorted words commonly have long common prefix store differences only
  - Used in the (for last k-1 in a block of k)

8automata8automate9automatic10automation



Begins to resemble general string compression

# RCV1 dictionary compression summary

Technique	Size in MB
Fixed width	11.2
Dictionary-as-String with pointers to every term	7.6
Also, blocking $k = 4$	7.1
Also, Blocking + front coding	5.9









### Postings compression

- The postings file is much larger than the dictionary, factor of at least 10.
- Key desideratum: store each posting compactly.
- A posting for our purposes is a doclD.
- For Reuters (800,000 documents), we would use 32 bits per docID when using 4-byte integers.
- Alternatively, we can use log<sub>2</sub> 800,000 ≈ 20 bits per docID.
- Our goal: use a lot less than 20 bits per docID.



# Postings: two conflicting forces

- A term like arachnocentric occurs in maybe one doc out of a million – we would like to store this posting using log<sub>2</sub> 1M ~ 20 bits.
- A term like *the* occurs in virtually every doc, so 20 bits/posting is too expensive.
  - Prefer 0/1 bitmap vector in this case



### Postings file entry

- We store the list of docs containing a term in increasing order of docID.
  - *computer*: 33,47,154,159,202 ...
- Consequence: it suffices to store gaps.
  - **33,14,107,5,43** ...
- Hope: most gaps can be encoded/stored with far fewer than 20 bits.





# Three postings entries

	encoding	postings	list								
THE	docIDs			283042		283043		283044		283045	
	gaps				1		1		1		
COMPUTER	docIDs			283047		283154		283159		283202	
	gaps				107		5		43		
ARACHNOCENTRIC	docIDs	252000		500100							
	gaps	252000	248100								



## Variable length encoding

- Aim:
  - For *arachnocentric*, we will use ~20 bits/gap entry.
  - For the, we will use ~1 bit/gap entry.
- If the average gap for a term is G, we want to use  $^{\sim}\log_2G$  bits/gap entry.
- <u>Key challenge</u>: encode every integer (gap) with about as few bits as needed for that integer.
- This requires variable length encoding
- Variable length codes achieve this by using short codes for small numbers



### Variable Byte (VB) codes

- For a gap value G, we want to use close to the fewest bytes needed to hold log<sub>2</sub> G bits
- Begin with one byte to store G and dedicate 1 bit in it to be a continuation bit c
- If  $G \le 127$ , binary-encode it in the 7 available bits and set c = 1
- Else encode G's lower-order 7 bits and then use additional bytes to encode the higher order bits using the same algorithm
- At the end set the continuation bit of the last byte to 1 (c = 1) and for the other bytes c = 0.





### Example

docIDs	824	829		215406
gaps		5		214577
VB code	00000110 10111000	10000101		00001101 00001100 10110001

512+256+32+16+8 = 824

Postings stored as the byte concatenation 00000110 10111000 10000101 00001101 00001100 10110001

Key property: VB-encoded postings are uniquely prefix-decodable.

For a small gap (5), VB uses a whole byte.



### Other variable unit codes

- Instead of bytes, we can also use a different "unit of alignment": 32 bits (words), 16 bits, 4 bits (nibbles).
- Variable byte alignment wastes space if you have many small gaps – nibbles do better in such cases.
- Variable byte codes:
  - Used by many commercial/research systems
  - Good low-tech blend of variable-length coding and sensitivity to computer memory alignment matches (vs. bit-level codes, which we look at next).





# RCV1 compression

Data structure	Size in MB
dictionary, fixed-width	11.2
dictionary, term pointers into string	7.6
with blocking, k = 4	7.1
with blocking & front coding	5.9
collection (text, xml markup etc)	3,600.0
collection (text)	960.0
Term-doc incidence matrix	40.000.0
postings, uncompressed (32-bit words)	400.0
postings, uncompressed (20 bits)	250.0
postings, variable byte encoded	116.0

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# Summary: Index compression

- We can now create an index for highly efficient
  Boolean retrieval that is very space efficient
- Use the sorted nature of the data to compress
  - Variable sized storage
  - Encode common prefixes only once
  - Encode gaps to reduce size of numbers
- However, here we didn't encode positional information
  - But techniques for dealing with postings are similar



# Resources for today's lecture

- IIR 5
- MG 3.3, 3.4.
- F. Scholer, H.E. Williams and J. Zobel. 2002.
  Compression of Inverted Indexes For Fast Query Evaluation. *Proc. ACM-SIGIR 2002*.
  - Variable byte codes
- V. N. Anh and A. Moffat. 2005. Inverted Index Compression Using Word-Aligned Binary Codes. Information Retrieval 8: 151–166.
  - Word aligned codes