# Information Retrieval

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The slides are adapted from those provided by Prof. Hinrich Schütze at University of Munich (http://www.cis.lmu.de/~hs/teach/14s/ir/).

## Chapter 5 Index compression

- 5.1 Statistical properties of terms in information retrieval
- 5.2 Dictionary compression
- 5.3 Postings file compression
- 5.4 References and further reading

## **Outline**

- 5.1 Statistical properties of terms in information retrieval
- 5.2 Dictionary compression
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# 5.1 Statistical properties of terms in information retrieval

- Reuters RCV1 statistics
  - documents: N=800,000
  - tokens per document: L=200
  - terms: M=400,000
  - bytes per token (including spaces/punctuations): 6
  - bytes per token (without spaces/ punctuations): 4.5
  - bytes per term: 7.5
  - non-positional postings: T=100,000,000

# 5.1 Statistical properties of terms in information retrieval

#### Heaps' law

- How many distinct words are there? Can we assume there is an upper bound? The vocabulary will keep growing with the collection size.
- Heaps' law: M = kT^b
  - M is the vocabulary size, T is the number of tokens in the collection.
  - Typical values for the parameters k and b are:  $30 \le k \le 100$  and b ≈ 0.5.
  - It is the simplest possible relationship between the collection size T and the vocabulary size M in the log-log space. It is an empirical law.
- **Question**: Can you verify the Heaps' law using the RCV1 data? (Plot the statistics in a <a href="log10 M log10 T">log10 T</a> space)

# 5.1 Statistical properties of terms in information retrieval

#### Zipf's law

- How many frequent vs. infrequent terms we should expect in a collection?
- **Zipf's law**: cf\_i is the collection frequency of the i-th most frequent term t\_i, i.e., the number of occurrences of the term t\_i in the collection.
  - cf\_i is proportional to 1/i
- Question: Can you verify Zipf's law using the RCV1 data?

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- The dictionary is small compared with the postings file (i.e., postings lists).
- But we want to keep it in memory.
- Also: competition with other applications, cell phones, onboard computers, fast startup time. Hence, compressing the dictionary is important.

#### Dictionary as an array of fixed-width entries (1/2)

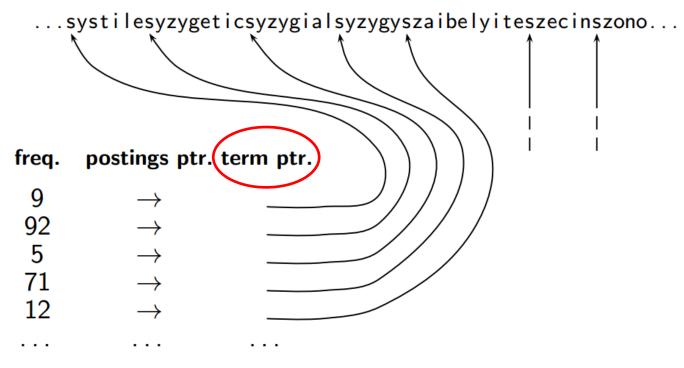
	term	document	pointer to
		frequency	postings list
	а	656,265	$\longrightarrow$
	aachen	65	$\longrightarrow$
	zulu	221	$\longrightarrow$
space needed:	20 bytes	4 bytes	4 bytes

Space for RCV1 data: (20+4+4)\*400,000 = 11.2 MB

#### Dictionary as an array of fixed-width entries (2/2)

- Most of the bytes in the term column are wasted. We allot (分配) 20 bytes for terms of length 1.
- But, we still can not handle <u>hydrochlorofluorocarbons</u> and <u>supercalifragilisticexpialidocious</u>.
- Average length of a term in English: 8 characters (or a little bit less)
- How can we use "on average 8 characters per term"?

#### Dictionary as a string (1/2)

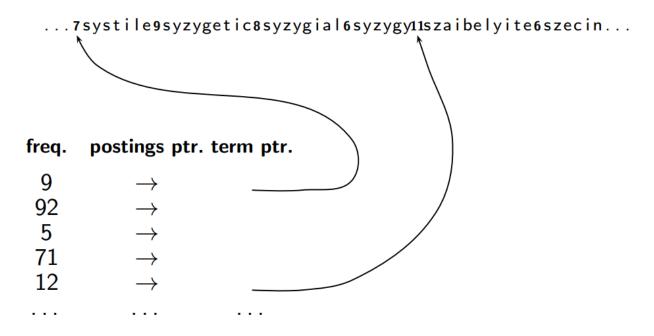


4 bytes 4 bytes 3 bytes

### Dictionary as a string (2/2)

- 4 bytes per term for document frequency
- 4 bytes per term for pointer to postings list
- 8 bytes (on average) for term in string
- 3 bytes per pointer into string (needs log2(8 \* 400000) = 21.6 < 24 bits to resolve 8 \* 400000 positions)</li>
- Space: 400000 \* (4 + 4 + 8 + 3) = 7.6MB (compared to 11.2 MB for fixed-width array)

### Dictionary as a string with blocking (1/2)



#### Dictionary as a string with blocking (2/2)

- Example: block size k = 4
  - we use 4\*3 bytes for term pointers without blocking ...
  - we now use 3 bytes for one pointer plus 4 bytes for indicating the length of each term.
  - We save 12 (3 + 4) = 5 bytes per block.
  - Total savings: 400000/4 \* 5 = 0.5 MB
- This reduces the size of the dictionary from 7.6 MB to 7.1 MB.

#### **Front coding**

```
One block in blocked compression (k=4)\dots 8 a u t o m a t a 8 a u t o m a t e 9 a u t o m a t i c 10 a u t o m a t i o n \downarrow \downarrow ... further compressed with front coding. 8 a u t o m a t * a 1 \diamond e 2 \diamond i c 3 \diamond i o n
```

## Dictionary compression for the RCV1 data: Summary

data structure	size in MB
dictionary, fixed-width	11.2
dictionary, term pointers into string	7.6
$\sim$ , with blocking, $k=4$	7.1
$\sim$ , with blocking & front coding	5.9

## **Outline**

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- The postings file (i.e., postings list) is much larger than the dictionary: factor of at least 10.
- A posting for our purpose is a docID.
- For the RCV1 data (800000 documents), we would use 32 bits per docID when using 4-byte integers.
- Alternatively, we can use log2 800000 ≈ 19.6 < 20 bits per docID.</li>
- Our goal: use a lot less than 20 bits per docID.

**Key idea: Store gaps instead of docIDs** 

- Each postings list is ordered in increasing order of docID.
  - Example postings list: computer: 283154, 283159, 283202, ...
- It suffices to store gaps: 283159-283154=5, 283202-283159=43
- Example postings list using gaps: computer: 283154, 5, 43, ...
- Gaps for frequent terms are small.
- Thus: We can encode small gaps with fewer than 20 bits.

## **Gap** encoding

	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 and other rare terms, we will use about 20 bits per gap.
  - For THE and other very frequent terms, we will use only a few bits per gap.
- In order to implement this, we need to devise some form of variable length encoding
  - Variable length encoding uses few bits for small gaps and many bits for large gaps.

#### Variable byte (VB) code

- Used by many commercial/research systems
- Dedicate one bit (high bit) to be a continuation bit c.
  - If the gap G fits within 7 bits, binary-encode it in the 7 available bits and set c = 1.
  - Else: encode lower-order 7 bits and then use one or more 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 of the other bytes to 0 (c = 0).

#### **VB** code encoding algorithm

```
VBENCODENUMBER(n)VBENCODE(numb)1 bytes \leftarrow \langle \rangle1 bytestream \leftarrow2 while true2 for each n \in3 do PREPEND(bytes, n \mod 128)3 do bytes \leftarrow V4 if n < 1284 bytestream5 then BREAK5 return bytestre6 n \leftarrow n \text{ div } 1285 return bytestre7 bytes[LENGTH(bytes)] += 1288 return bytes
```

```
VBENCODE(numbers)

1 bytestream ← ⟨⟩

2 for each n ∈ numbers

3 do bytes ← VBENCODENUMBER(n)

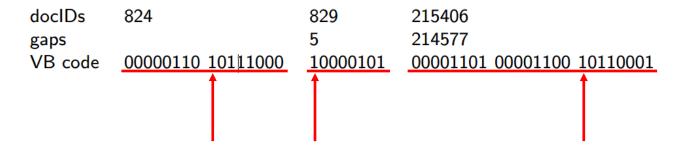
4 bytestream ← EXTEND(bytestream, bytes)

5 return bytestream
```

- PREPEND: adds an element to the beginning of a list, e.g., PREPEND(< 1,2 >,3) =  $< \frac{3}{1}$ ,1,2 >.
- bytes[LENGTH(bytes)] += 128: continuation bit (c=1)
- EXTEND: extends a list, e.g., EXTEND(<1,2>, <3,4>) =<1,2,3,4>.

#### **VB** code decoding algorithm

### **Example**



#### Other variable codes

- Instead of bytes, we can also use a different "unit of alignment": 32 bits (words), 16 bits, 4 bits (nibbles), etc
- Variable byte alignment wastes space if you have many small gaps nibbles do better on those.

#### Gamma codes for gap encoding

- You can get even more compression with another type of variable length encoding: bit level code.
- Gamma code is the best known of these.
- First, we need unary code to be able to introduce gamma code.
- Unary code
  - Represent n as n 1s with a final 0
  - Unary code for 3 is 1110

#### Gamma code

- Represent a gap G as a pair of length and offset.
  - Offset is the gap in binary, with the leading bit chopped off,
     e.g., 13->1101->101 = offset.
  - Length is the length of offset, e.g, for 13 (the offset is 101), this is 3.
     Encode length in unary code: <u>1110</u>.
  - Gamma code of 13 is the concatenation of length and offset: <u>1110</u>101.

## **Gamma code examples**

number	unary code	length	offset	$\gamma$ code
0	0			
1	10	0		0
2	110	10	0	10,0
3	1110	10	1	10,1
4	11110	110	00	110,00
9	1111111110	1110	001	1110,001
13		1110	101	1110,101
24		11110	1000	11110,1000
511		111111110	11111111	111111110,11111111
1025		11111111110	000000001	11111111110,0000000001

#### Length of gamma code

- The length of offset is [log2 G] bits.
- The length of length is [log2 G] + 1 bits,
- So the length of the entire code is 2 \* [log2 G] + 1 bits.
- Gamma codes are always of odd length.
- Gamma codes are within a factor of 2 of the optimal encoding length log2
   G.

#### **Gamma code: Properties**

- Gamma code (like variable byte code) is prefix-free: a valid code word is not a prefix of any other valid code.
- Gamma code is parameter-free.
- More theoretical analysis on the compression rate can be found in the textbook.

#### **Gamma codes: Alignment**

- Machines have word boundaries, e.g., 8, 16, 32 bits.
- Compressing and manipulating at granularity of bits can be slow.
- Variable byte encoding is aligned and thus potentially more efficient.
- Regardless of efficiency, variable byte is conceptually simpler at little additional space cost.

## **Compression of the RCV1 data**

data structure	size in MB
dictionary, fixed-width	11.2
dictionary, term pointers into string	7.6
$\sim$ , with blocking, $k=4$	7.1
$\sim$ , with blocking & front coding	5.9
collection (text, xml markup etc)	3600.0
collection (text)	960.0
T/D incidence matrix	40,000.0
postings, uncompressed (32-bit words)	400.0
postings, uncompressed (20 bits)	250.0
postings, variable byte encoded	116.0
postings, $\gamma$ encoded	101.0

#### **Summary**

- We can now create an index for highly efficient Boolean retrieval that is very space efficient.
- Only 10-15% of the total size of the text in the collection.
- However, we've ignored positional and frequency information.
- For this reason, space savings are less in reality.

## Summary

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