Week 07 Lectures

Signature–based Selection

Indexing with Signatures

Signature–based indexing:

- designed for *pmr* queries   (conjunction of equalities)
- does not try to achieve better than *O(n)* performance
- attempts to provide an "efficient" linear scan
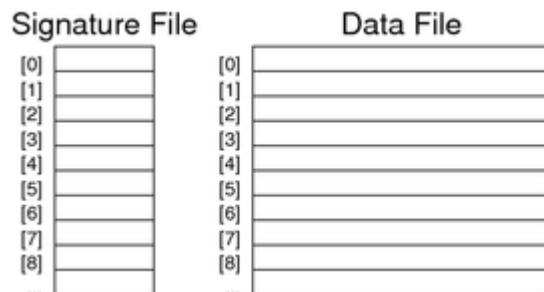
Each tuple is associated with a *signature*

- a compact (lossy) descriptor for the tuple
- formed by combining information from multiple attributes
- stored in a signature file, parallel to data file

Instead of scanning/testing tuples, do pre–filtering via signatures.

... Indexing with Signatures

File organisation for signature indexing (two files)

One signature slot per tuple slot; unused signature slots are zeroed.

Signatures do not determine record placement ⇒ can use with other indexing.

Signatures

A *signature* "summarises" the data from one tuple

A tuple consists of n attribute values $A_1 .. A_n$

A *codeword cw(A$_i$)* is

- a bit–string, m bits long, where k bits are set to 1 ($k \ll m$)
- derived from the value of a single attribute A_i

A *tuple descriptor* (signature) is built by combining *cw(A$_i$), i=1..n*

- combine by *overlaying* codewords   (bitwise–OR)
- aim to have roughly half of the bits set to 1

Generating Codewords

Generating a k–in–m codeword for attribute A_i

```
bits codeword(char *attr_value, int m, int k)
{
    int  nbits = 0;   // count of set bits
    bits cword = 0;   // assuming m <= 32 bits
    srandom(hash(attr_value));
    while (nbits < k) {
        int i = random() % m;
        if (((1 << i) & cword) == 0) {
            cword |= (1 << i);
            nbits++;
        }
    }
    return cword;  // m-bits with k 1-bits and m-k 0-bits
}
```

Superimposed Codewords (SIMC)

In a superimposed codewords (simc) indexing scheme

- a tuple descriptor is formed by overlaying attribute codewords

A tuple descriptor *desc(r)* is

- a bit–string, m bits long, where $j \leq nk$ bits are set to 1
- *desc(r) = cw(A$_1$)* OR *cw(A$_2$)* OR ... OR *cw(A$_n$)*

Method (assuming all n attributes are used in descriptor):

```
bits desc = 0
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    bits cw = codeword(A[i])
    desc = desc | cw
}
```

SIMC Example

Consider the following tuple (from bank deposit database)

Branch	AcctNo	Name	Amount
Perryridge	102	Hayes	400

It has the following codewords/descriptor (for $m = 12,\quad k = 2$)

A_i	$cw(A_i)$
Perryridge	010000000001
102	000000000011
Hayes	000001000100
400	000010000100
desc(r)	010011000111

SIMC Queries

To answer query q in SIMC

- first generate a *query descriptor desc(q)*
- then use the query descriptor to search the signature file

desc(q) is formed by OR of codewords for known attributes.

E.g. consider the query (Perryridge, ?, ?, ?).

A_i	$cw(A_i)$
Perryridge	010000000001
?	000000000000
?	000000000000
?	000000000000
desc(q)	010000000001

... SIMC Queries

Once we have a query descriptor, we search the signature file:

```
pagesToCheck = {}
for each descriptor D[i] in signature file {
    if (matches(D[i],desc(q))) {
        pid = pageOf(tupleID(i))
        pagesToCheck = pagesToCheck ∪ pid
    }
}
for each pid in pagesToCheck {
    Buf = getPage(dataFile,pid)
    check tuples in Buf for answers
}
// where ...
#define matches(rdesc,qdesc)
                ((rdesc & qdesc) == qdesc)
```

Example SIMC Query

Consider the query and the example database:

Signature	Deposit Record
010000000001	(Perryridge,?,?,?)
100101001001	(Brighton,217,Green,750)
010011000111	(Perryridge,102,Hayes,400)
101001001001	(Downtown,101,Johnshon,512)
101100000011	(Mianus,215,Smith,700)
010101010101	(Clearview,117,Throggs,295)
100101010011	(Redwood,222,Lindsay,695)

Gives two matches: one true match, one *false match*.

SIMC Parameters

False match probablity p_F = likelihood of a false match

How to reduce likelihood of false matches?

- use different hash function for each attribute (h_i for A_i)
- increase descriptor size (m)
- choose k so that $\cong$ half of bits are set

Larger m means reading more descriptor data.

Having k too high $\Rightarrow$ increased overlapping.
Having k too low $\Rightarrow$ increased hash collisions.

How to determine "optimal" m and k?

1. start by choosing acceptable p_F

     (e.g. $p_F \leq 10^{-5}$ i.e. one false match in 10,000)
2. then choose m and k to achieve no more than this p_F.

Formulae to derive m and k given p_F and n:

$$k = 1/\log_e 2 \,.\, \log_e (1/p_F)$$

$$m = (1/\log_e 2)^2 \,.\, n \,.\, \log_e (1/p_F)$$

Query Cost for SIMC

Cost to answer *pmr* query: $Cost_{pmr} = b_D + b_q$

- read r descriptors on b_D descriptor pages
- then read b_q data pages and check for matches

b_D = ceil(r/c_D) and c_D = floor(B/ceil(m/8))

E.g. m=64, B=8192, r=10^4 $\Rightarrow$ c_D = 1024, b_D=10

b_q includes pages with r_q matching tuples and r_F false matches

Expected false matches = $r_F = (r - r_q).p_F \cong r.p_F$ if $r_q \ll r$

E.g. Worst $b_q = r_q + r_F$, Best $b_q = 1$, Avg b_q = ceil(b(r_q+r_F)/r)

Exercise 1: SIMC Query Cost

Consider a SIMC–indexed database with the following properties

- all pages are B = 8192 bytes

- tuple descriptors have $m = 64$ bits (= 8 bytes)
- total records $r = 102{,}400$,   records/page $c = 100$
- false match probability $p_F = 1/1000$
- answer set has 1000 tuples from 100 pages
- 90% of false matches occur on data pages with true match
- 10% of false matches are distributed 1 per page

Calculate the total number of pages read in answering the query.

Page–level SIMC
15/65

SIMC has one descriptor per tuple ... potentially inefficient.

Alternative approach: one descriptor for each data page.

Every attribute of every tuple in page contributes to descriptor.

Size of page descriptor (PD) (clearly larger than tuple descriptor):

- use above formulae but with $c.n$ "attributes"

E.g. $n = 4$, $c = 64$, $p_F = 10^{-3}$ $\Rightarrow$ $m \cong 3680bits \cong 460bytes$
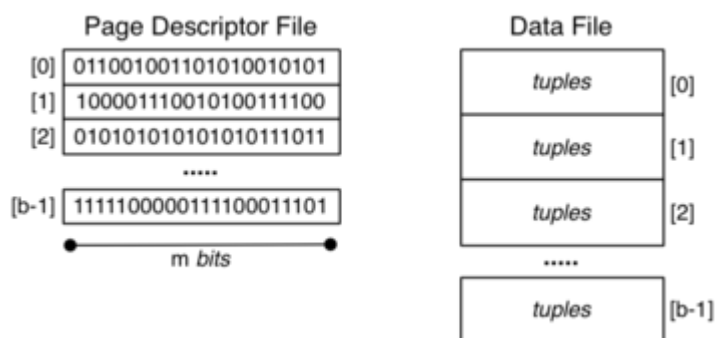
Typically, pages are 1..8KB $\Rightarrow$ 8..64 PD/page (c_{PD}).

E.g. $m \cong 460$, $B = 8192$, $c_{PD} \cong 17$

... Page–level SIMC
16/65

File organisation for page–level superimposed codeword index

... Page–level SIMC
17/65

Algorithm for evaluating *pmr* query using page descriptors

```
pagesToCheck = {}
for each descriptor D[i] in signature file {
    if (matches(D[i],desc(q))) {
        pid = i
        pagesToCheck = pagesToCheck ∪ pid
    }
}
for each pid in pagesToCheck {
    Buf = getPage(dataFile,pid)
    check tuples in Buf for answers
}
```
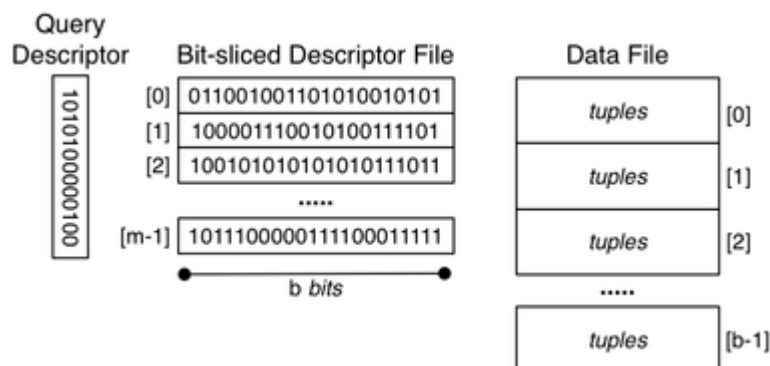
Exercise 2: Page-level SIMC Query Cost

Consider a SIMC-indexed database with the following properties

- all pages are $B = 8192$ bytes
- page descriptors have $m = 4096$ bits (= 512 bytes)
- total records $r = 102{,}400$,   records/page $c = 100$
- false match probability $p_F = 1/1000$
- answer set has 1000 tuples from 100 pages
- 90% of false matches occur on data pages with true match
- 10% of false matches are distributed 1 per page

Calculate the total number of pages read in answering the query.

Bit-sliced SIMC

Improvement: store b m-bit page descriptors as m b-bit "bit-slices"

... Bit-sliced SIMC

Algorithm for evaluating *pmr* query using bit-sliced descriptors

```
matches = ~0  //all ones
for each bit i set to 1 in desc(q) {
   slice = fetch bit-slice i
   matches = matches & slice
}
for each bit i set to 1 in matches {
   fetch page i
   scan page for matching records
}
```

Effective because *desc(q)* typically has less than half bits set to 1

Exercise 3: Bit-sliced SIMC Query Cost

Consider a SIMC-indexed database with the following properties

- all pages are $B = 8192$ bytes
- $r = 102{,}400$, $c = 100$, $b = 1024$
- page descriptors have $m = 4096$ bits (= 512 bytes)
- bit-slices have $b = 1024$ bits (= 128 bytes)
- false match probability $p_F = 1/1000$
- query descriptor has $k = 10$ bits set to 1

- answer set has 1000 tuples from 100 pages
- 90% of false matches occur on data pages with true match
- 10% of false matches are distributed 1 per page

Calculate the total number of pages read in answering the query.

Assignment 2

Assignment 2

Aim: implement all variants of SIMC indexing

Implement individual relations and commands to work on them.

Each relation `R` consists of multiple files:

- **`R.info`** ... relation meta–data (e.g. # tuples)
- **`R.data`** ... data file containing pages of tuples
- **`R.tsig`** ... file containing tuple signatures
- **`R.psig`** ... file containing page–level signatures
- **`R.bsig`** ... file containing bit–sliced signatures

File structures for SIMC info + data files

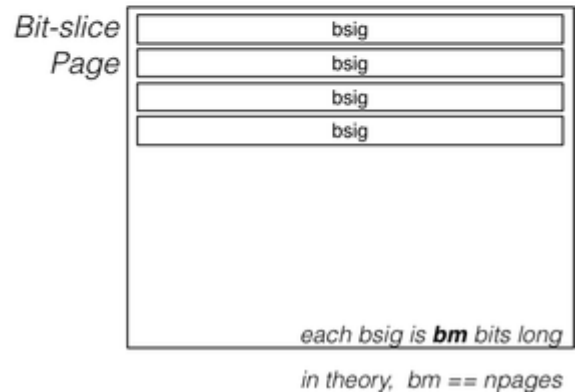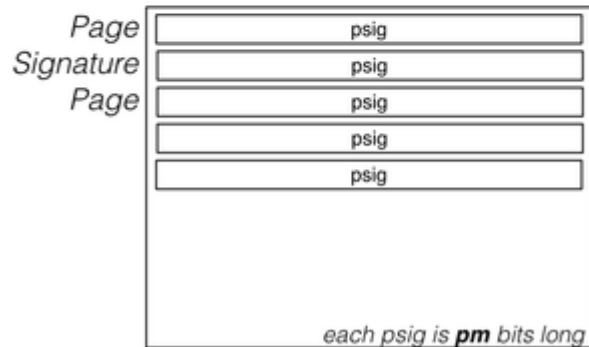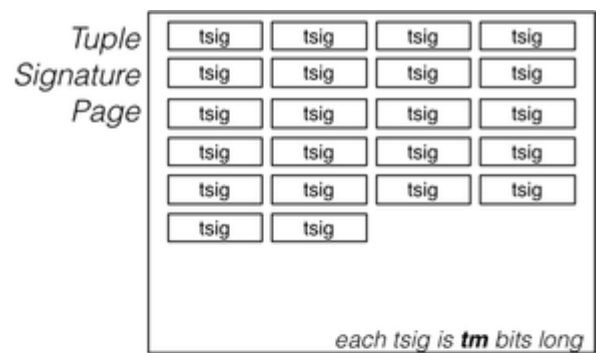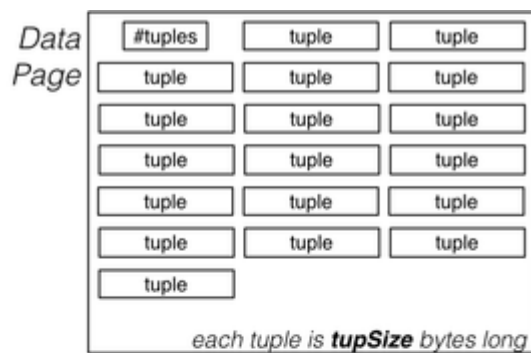[Diagram:Pics/assignments/file–structs–small.png]

Tuples are all `tupSize` bytes long (based on # attributes)

Signatures are *m* bits long, rounded to *ceil(m/8) bytes*

More detailed file structures for SIMC data + signature files

Data Page #tuples | tuple | tuple
tuple | tuple | tuple
tuple | tuple | tuple
tuple | tuple | tuple
tuple | tuple | tuple
tuple | tuple | tuple
tuple

*each tuple is **tupSize** bytes long*

Tuple Signature Page tsig | tsig | tsig | tsig
tsig | tsig | tsig | tsig
tsig | tsig | tsig | tsig
tsig | tsig | tsig | tsig
tsig | tsig | tsig | tsig
tsig | tsig

*each tsig is **tm** bits long*

Page Signature Page
psig
psig
psig
psig
psig

*each psig is **pm** bits long*

Bit-slice Page
bsig
bsig
bsig
bsig

*each bsig is **bm** bits long*

in theory, bm == npages

We supply:

- *complete command programs to build and query relations*
- *partially–complete ADTs for operations needed by commands*

You complete the ADTs so that the commands work properly

- ***create**, **insert**, **select** ... build/query commands*
- ***gendata**, **stats**, **dump** ... utility commands*
- *x1, x2, x3 ... commands for debugging ADTs*

./create RelName #tuples #attrs 1/pF

- *creates a new relation with prefix `RelName`*
- *uses `#attrs` to determine tuple size*
- *uses `#tuples` to determine b ⇒ length of bit–slices*
  (`#tuples` suggests maximum number of tuples to be stored)
- *uses `pF` to determine m and k for signatures*
- *creates files `RelName.info`, `RelName.data`, etc. etc.*
- *as supplied, data and signature files are empty after `create`*
- *when complete, `RelName.bsig` should contain all–zero bit–slices*

./gendata #tuples #attributes [startID] [seed]

- *generates `#tuples` tuples in a standard format, e.g.*

  `1234567,iuwhfkajewhkfjkwefbx,a3-101,a4-256,a5-013,...`

- *first attribute is unique id*
- *second attribute is 20-char random string (most likely unique)*
- *rest are `aN-DDD` up to `#attributes`*
- *attributes `a3-DDD` to `aN-DDD` are not unique*
- *if no `startID` given, use `1000000`;   if no `seed` given, use `0`*

./insert [-v] RelName

- *insert tuples read from stdin into `Relname`*
- *updates all files: info, data, signature files*
- *tuples look like those generated from `gendata`*
- *typical usage*

   ```
   ./gendata #tuples #attrs | ./insert RelName
   ```

- *`-v` displays each tuple and PID of page where inserted*

./select RelName 'Query'

- *finds all matches for pmr query in relation `RelName`*
- *queries are expressed using `?` for unknown attributes, e.g.*

   ```
   ?,?,?,?,?           # matches all tuples
   1234567,?,?,?,?     # matches single tuple with this ID
   ?,?,a3-101,?,?      # matches tuples with a3-101 as 3rd attr
   ?,?,a3-101,a4-200,a5-013
   ```

- *should enclose `Query` in single quotes   (to avoid problems with zsh)*
- *prints one tuple per line   (note: order of tuples is not important)*
- *prints page read statistics at end of output*

What to do now?

- *review the notes on superimposed codewords*
- *read the spec carefully*
- *read the code for the commands   (to see how they use the ADTs)*
- *read the ADT `*.h` files;   read the ADT `*.c` files*
- *write and test your code   (suggest: tsig, then psig, then bsig)*

Testing script available next week.

Don't wait. It's easy to devise your own tests.

N-d Tree Indexes

Multi-dimensional Tree Indexes

Over the last 20 years, from a range of problem areas

- *different multi-d tree index schemes have been proposed*
- *varying primarily in how they partition tuple-space*

Consider three popular schemes: kd-trees, Quad-trees, R-trees.

Example data for multi-d trees is based on the following relation:

```
create table Rel (
    X char(1) check (X between 'a' and 'z'),
```

```
    Y integer check (Y between 0 and 9)
);
```
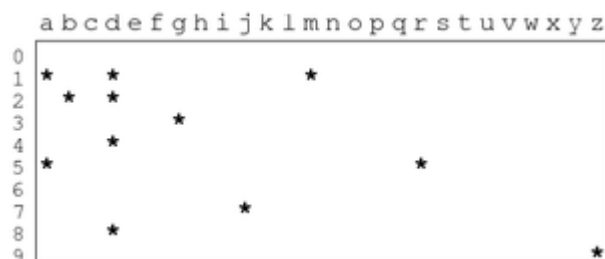
Example tuples:

```
Rel('a',1)  Rel('a',5)  Rel('b',2)  Rel('d',1)
Rel('d',2)  Rel('d',4)  Rel('d',8)  Rel('g',3)
Rel('j',7)  Rel('m',1)  Rel('r',5)  Rel('z',9)
```

The tuple–space for the above tuples:

Exercise 4: Query Types and Tuple Space

Which part of the tuple–space does each query represent?

```
Q1: select * from Rel where X = 'd' and Y = 4
Q2: select * from Rel where 'j' < X ≤ 'r'
Q3: select * from Rel where X > 'm' and Y > 4
Q4: select * from Rel where 'k' ≤ X ≤ 'p' and 3 ≤ Y ≤ 6
```
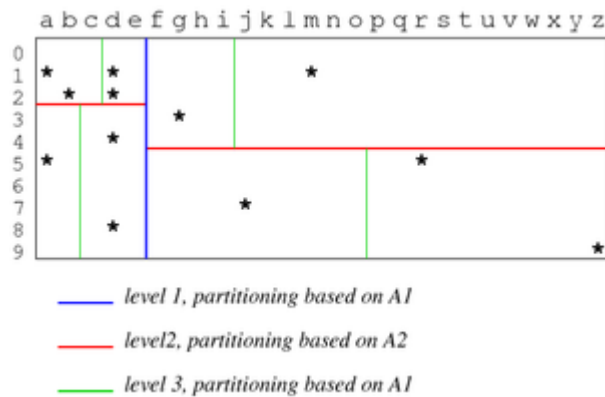

kd–Trees

kd–trees are multi–way search trees where

- *each level of the tree partitions on a different attribute*
- *each node contains n–1 key values, pointers to n subtrees*
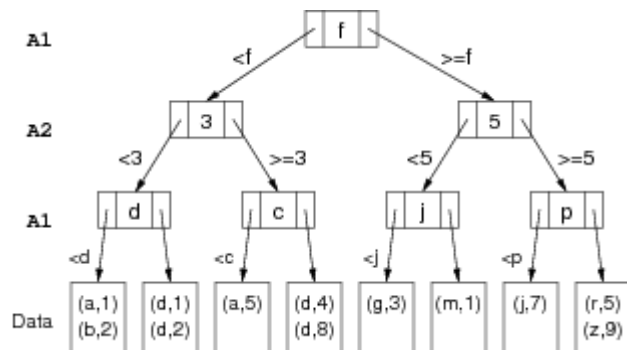
How this tree partitions the tuple space:

|	level 1, partitioning based on A1
	level2, partitioning based on A2
	level 3, partitioning based on A1

Searching in kd–Trees

```
// Started by Search(Q, R, 0, kdTreeRoot)
Search(Query Q, Relation R, Level L, Node N)
{
   if (isDataPage(N)) {
      Buf = getPage(fileOf(R),idOf(N))
      check Buf for matching tuples
   } else {
      a = attrLev[L]
      if (!hasValue(Q,a))
         nextNodes = all children of N
      else {
         val = getAttr(Q,a)
         nextNodes = find(N,Q,a,val)
      }
      for each C in nextNodes
         Search(Q, R, L+1, C)
} }
```

Exercise 5: Searching in kd–Trees

Using the following kd–tree index
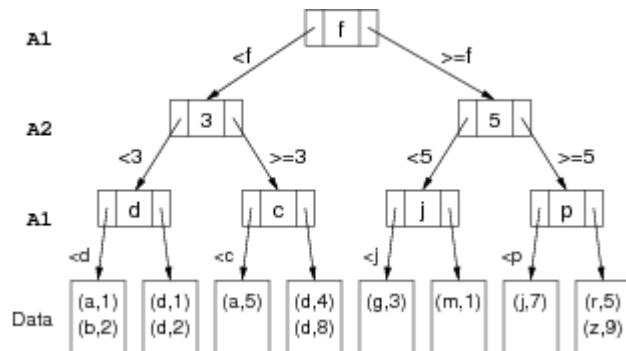
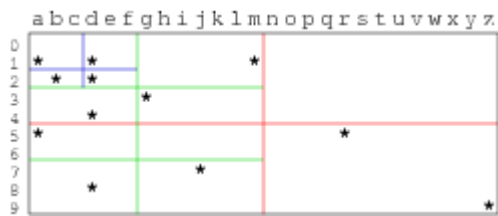Answer the queries `(m,1)`, `(a,?)`, `(?,1)`, `(?,?)`

Quad Trees

Quad trees use regular, disjoint partitioning of tuple space.

- *for 2d, partition space into quadrants (NW, NE, SW, SE)*
- *each quadrant can be further subdivided into four, etc.*

Example:

Basis for the partitioning:

- *a quadrant that has no sub–partitions is a leaf quadrant*
- *each leaf quadrant maps to a single data page*
- *subdivide until points in each quadrant fit into one data page*
- *ideal: same number of points in each leaf quadrant (balanced)*
- *point density varies over space*
  ⇒ different regions require different levels of partitioning
- *this means that the tree is not necessarily balanced*

Note: effective for d≤5, ok for 6≤d≤10, ineffective for d>10

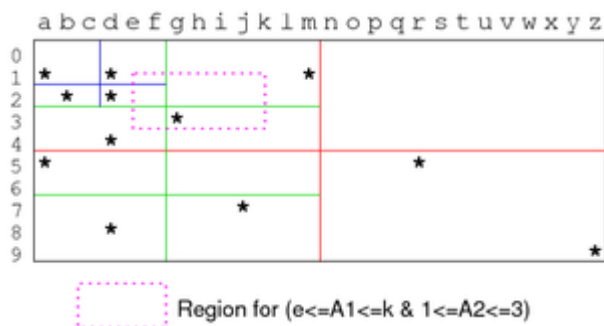*The previous partitioning gives this tree structure, e.g.*
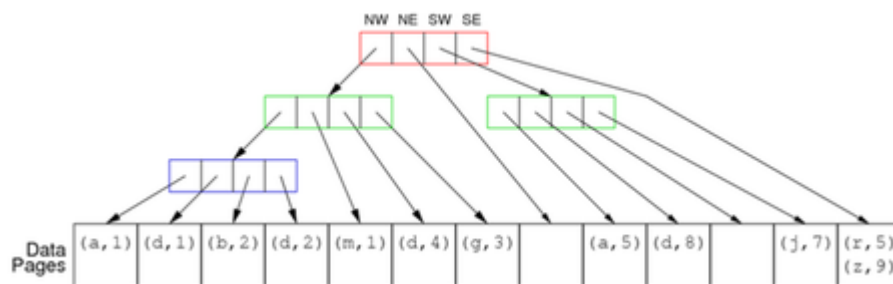
In this and following examples, we give coords of top–left,bottom–right of a region

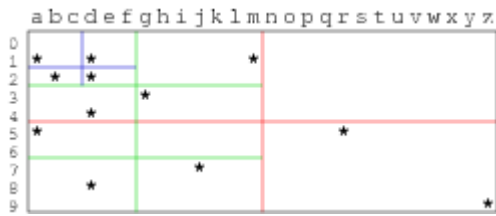# Searching in Quad–tree

Space query example:

Need to traverse: red(NW), green(NW,NE,SW,SE), blue(NE,SE).

Exercise 6: Searching in Quad–trees

Using the following quad–tree index

Answer the queries `(m,1), (a,?), (?,1), (?,?)`

R–Trees

R–trees use a flexible, overlapping partitioning of tuple space.

- *each node in the tree represents a kd hypercube*
- *its children represent (possibly overlapping) subregions*
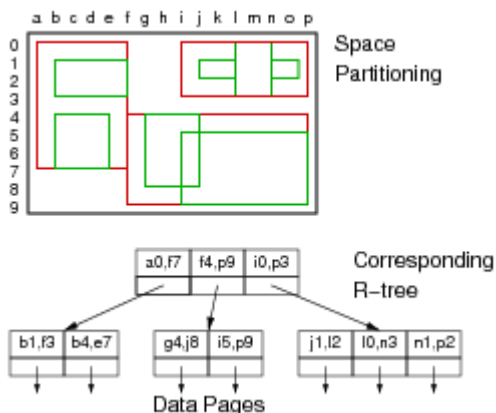- *the child regions do not need to cover the entire parent region*

Overlap and partial cover means:

- *can optimize space partitioning wrt data distribution*
- *so that there are similar numbers of points in each region*

Aim: height–balanced, partly–full index pages   (cf. B–tree)

... R–Trees

Insertion into R–tree

Insertion of an object R occurs as follows:

- *start at root, look for children that completely contain R*
- *if no child completely contains R, choose one of the children and expand its boundaries so that it does contain R*
- *if several children contain R, choose one and proceed to child*
- *repeat above containment search in children of current node*
- *once we reach data page, insert R if there is room*
- *if no room in data page, replace by two data pages*
- *partition existing objects between two data pages*
- *update node pointing to data pages*
  (may cause B–tree–like propagation of node changes up into tree)

Note that R may be a point or a polygon.

Query with R–trees

Designed to handle space queries and "where–am–I" queries.

"Where–am–I" query: find all regions containing a given point P:

- *start at root, select all children whose subregions contain P*
- *if there are zero such regions, search finishes with P not found*
- *otherwise, recursively search within node for each subregion*
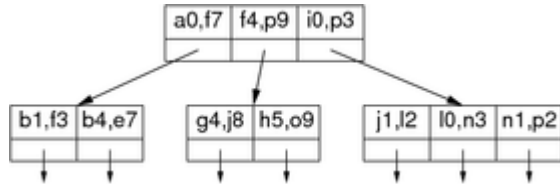- *once we reach a leaf, we know that region contains P*

Space (region) queries are handled in a similar way

- *we traverse down any path that intersects the query region*

Exercise 7: Query with R−trees

Using the following R−tree:

Show how the following queries would be answered:

```
Q1: select * from Rel where X='a' and Y=4
Q2: select * from Rel where X='i' and Y=6
Q3: select * from Rel where 'c'≤X≤'j' and Y=5
Q4: select * from Rel where X='c'
```

Note: can view unknown value X=? as range min(x) ⩽ X ⩽ max(x)

Multi−d Trees in PostgreSQL

Up to version 8.2, PostgreSQL had R−tree implementation

Superseded by GiST = Generalized Search Trees

GiST indexes parameterise: data type, searching, splitting

- *via seven user−defined functions (e.g. `picksplit()`)*

GiST trees have the following structural constraints:

- *every node is at least fraction f full (e.g. 0.5)*
- *the root node has at least two children (unless also a leaf)*
- *all leaves appear at the same level*

Details: src/backend/access/gist

Costs of Search in Multi−d Trees

Difficult to determine cost precisely.

Best case: pmr query where all attributes have known values

- *in kd−trees and quad−trees, follow single tree path*
- *cost is equal to depth D of tree*
- *in R−trees, may follow several paths (overlapping partitions)*

Typical case: some attributes are unknown or defined by range

- *need to visit multiple sub−trees*
- *how many depends on: range, choice−points in tree nodes*

Similarity−based Selection

Similarity–based Selection

Selection in SQL ...

- *is precise on structured objects*
- *objects are tuples, under a schema*
- *query finds tuples satisfying logical properties*
- *satisfaction determined by evaluating a boolean expression*
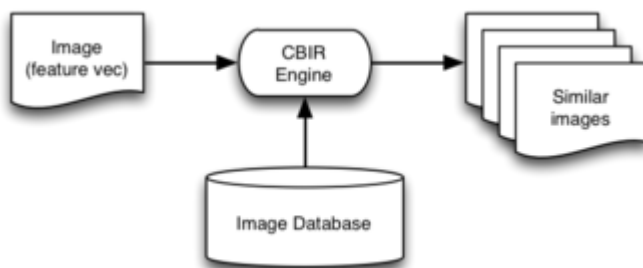
Similarity–based selection ...

- *is approximate on unstructured objects*
- *objects are typically media objects (e.g. text, images, audio, ...)*
- *query finds objects that are similar to a query object*
- *similarity determined by measuring distance between objects*

Example: Content–based Image Retrieval

User supplies a description or sample of desired image.

System returns a ranked list of similar images from database.

... Example: Content–based Image Retrieval

At the SQL level, this might appear as ...

```
// relational matching
create view Sunset as
select image from MyPhotos
where  title = 'Pittwater Sunset'
       and taken = '2012-01-01';
// similarity matching with threshold
create view SimilarSunsets as
select title, image
from   MyPhotos
where  (image ~~ (select * from Sunset)) < 0.05
order  by (image ~~ (select * from Sunset));
```

where (imaginary) ~~ operator measures how "alike" images are

Similarity–based Retrieval

Database contains media objects, but also tuples, e.g.

- *`id` to uniquely identify object   (e.g. PostgreSQL `oid`)*
- *metadata   (e.g. artist, title, genre, date taken, ...)*
- *`value` of object itself   (e.g. PostgreSQL BLOB or `bytea`)*

BLOB = Binary Large OBject

- *BLOB stored in separate file; tuple contains reference (cf. TOAST)*
- *BLOBs are typically MB in size (1MB..2GB)*

... Similarity–based Retrieval

Similarity–based retrieval requires a distance measure

- *dist(x,y) ∈ 0..1,   dist(x,x) = 0,   dist(x,y) = dist(y,x)*

where x and y are two objects (in the database)

Note: distance calculation often requires substantial computational effort

How to restrict solution set to only the "most similar" objects:

- *threshold d_{max} (only objects t such that dist(t,q) ≤ d_{max})*
- *count k   (k closest objects (k nearest neighbours))*

BUT both above methods require knowing distance between query object and all objects in DB

Naive approach to similarity–based retrieval

```
q = ...     // query object
dmax = ... // dmax > 0   =>  using threshold
knn = ...  // knn > 0    =>  using nearest-neighbours
Dists = [] // empty list
foreach tuple t in R {
    d = dist(t.val, q)
    insert (t.oid,d) into Dists  // sorted on d
}
n = 0;  Results = []
foreach (i,d) in Dists {
    if (dmax > 0 && d > dmax) break;
    if (knn > 0 && ++n > knn) break;
    insert (i,d) into Results  // sorted on d
}
return Results;
```

Cost = fetch all r objects + compute distance() for each

For some applications, Cost(dist(x,y)) is comparable to T_r

⇒   *computing* `dist(t.val,q)` *for every tuple* `t` *is infeasible.*

To improve this ...

- *compute feature vector to capture "critical" object properties*
- *store feature vectors "in parallel" with objects   (cf. signatures)*
- *compute distance using feature vectors   (not objects)*

i.e. replace dist(t,q) by dist'(vec(t),vec(q)) in previous algorithm.

Further optimisation: dimension–reduction to make vectors smaller

Feature vectors ...

- *often use multiple features, concatenated into single vector*
- *represent points in a very high–dimensional (vh–dim) space*

Content of feature vectors depends on application ...

- *image ... colour histogram (e.g. 100's of values/dimensions)*
- *music ... loudness/pitch/tone (e.g. 100's of values/dimensions)*
- *text ... term frequencies (e.g. 1000's of values/dimensions)*

Query: feature vector representing one point in vh–dim space

Answer: list of objects "near to" query object in this space

Inputs *to content–based similarity–retrieval:*

- *a database of r objects   (obj$_1$, obj$_2$, ..., obj$_r$)   plus associated ...*
- *r × n–dimensional feature vectors   (v$_{obj_1}$, v$_{obj_2}$, ..., v$_{obj_r}$)*
- *a query image q with associated n–dimensional vector (v$_q$)*
- *a distance measure   D(v$_i$,v$_j$) : [0..1)   (D=0 → v$_i$=v$_j$)*

Outputs *from content–based similarity–retrieval:*

- *a list of the k nearest objects in the database   [a$_1$,   a$_2$,   ...   a$_k$]*
- *ordered by distance   D(v$_{a_1}$,v$_q$) ≤ D(v$_{a_2}$,v$_q$) ≤ ... ≤ D(v$_{a_k}$,v$_q$)*

Approaches to *k*NN Retrieval

Partition–based

- *use auxiliary data structure to identify candidates*
- *space/data–partitioning methods: e.g. k–d–B–tree, R–tree, ...*
- *unfortunately, such methods "fail" when #dims > 10..20*
- *absolute upper bound on d before linear scan is best d = 610*

Approximation–based

- *use approximating data structure to identify candidates*
- *signatures: VA–files*
- *projections: iDistance, LSH, MedRank, CurveIX, Pyramid*

... Approaches to *k*NN Retrieval

Above approaches try to reduce number of objects considered.

- *cf. indexes in relational databases*

Other optimisations to make kNN retrieval faster

- *reduce I/O by reducing size of vectors   (compression, d–reduction)*
- *reduce I/O by placing "similar" records together   (clustering)*
- *reduce I/O by remembering previous pages   (caching)*
- *reduce cpu by making distance computation faster*

Similarity Retrieval in PostgreSQL

PostgreSQL has always supported simple "similarity" on strings

```
-- for most SQL implementations
select * from Students where name like '%oo%';
-- and PostgreSQL-specific
select * from Students where name ~ '[Ss]mit';
```

Also provides support for ranked similarity on `text` *values*

- *using* **tsvector** *data type (stemmed, stopped feature vector for* `text`)
- *using* **tsquery** *data type (stemmed, stopped feature vector for strings)*
- *using* **@@** *similarity operator*

... Similarity Retrieval in PostgreSQL

Example of PostgreSQL text retrieval:

```
create table Docs
    ( id integer, title text, body text );
```

```
// add column to hold document feature vectors
alter table Docs add column features tsvector;
update Docs set features =
    to_tsvector('english', title||' '||body);
// ask query and get results in ranked order
select title, ts_rank(d.features, query) as rank
from   Docs d,
       to_tsquery('potter|(roger&rabbit)') as query
where  query @@ d.features
order  by rank desc
limit  10;
```

For more details, see PostgreSQL documentation, Chapter 12.