

**CS60092: Information Retrieval**

# **Index Compression**

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# Last lecture – index construction

## Sort-based indexing

- Naïve in-memory inversion

- Blocked Sort-Based Indexing (BSBI)

- Merge sort is effective for hard disk–based sorting (avoid seeks!)

## Single-Pass In-Memory Indexing (SPIMI)

- No global dictionary

- Generate separate dictionary for each block

- Don't sort postings

- Accumulate postings in postings lists as they occur

## Distributed indexing using MapReduce

## Dynamic indexing: Multiple indices, logarithmic merge

# Today

|           |   |   |    |    |     |    |    |     |     |
|-----------|---|---|----|----|-----|----|----|-----|-----|
| BRUTUS    | → | 1 | 2  | 4  | 11  | 31 | 45 | 173 | 174 |
| CAESAR    | → | 1 | 2  | 4  | 5   | 6  | 16 | 57  | 132 |
| CALPURNIA | → | 2 | 31 | 54 | 101 |    |    |     |     |

Collection statistics in more detail (with RCV1)

How big will the dictionary and postings be?

Dictionary compression

Postings compression

# Why compression (in general)?

Use less disk space

Save a little money; give users more space

Keep more stuff 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

# Why compression for inverted indexes?

## Dictionary

- Make it small enough to keep in main memory

- Make it so small that you can keep some postings lists in main memory too

## Postings file(s)

- Reduce disk space needed

- Decrease time needed to read postings lists from disk

- Large search engines keep a significant part of the postings in memory.

- Compression lets you keep more in memory

We will devise various IR-specific compression schemes

# Recall Reuters RCV1

| <b>symbol</b> | <b>statistic</b>                                  |             |
|---------------|---|-------------|
|               | <b>value</b>                                      |             |
| N             | documents   |             |
|               | 800,000   |             |
| L             | avg. # tokens per doc                             | 200         |
| M             | terms (= word types)                              | ~400,000    |
|               | avg. # bytes per token<br>(incl. spaces/punct.)   | 6           |
|               | avg. # bytes per token<br>(without spaces/punct.) | 4.5         |
|               | avg. # bytes per term                             | 7.5         |
|               | non-positional postings                           | 100,000,000 |

# Index parameters vs. what we index

(details *IIR* Table 5.1, p.80)

| size of       | word types (terms) |     |         | non-positional postings |     |         | positional postings |     |         |
|---------------|--------------------|-----|---------|-------------------------|-----|---------|---------------------|-----|---------|
|               | dictionary         |     |         | non-positional index    |     |         | positional index    |     |         |
|               | Size (K)           | Δ%  | cumul % | Size (K)                | Δ % | cumul % | Size (K)            | Δ % | cumul % |
| Unfiltered    | 484                |     |         | 109,971                 |     |         | 197,879             |     |         |
| No numbers    | 474                | -2  | -2      | 100,680                 | -8  | -8      | 179,158             | -9  | -9      |
| Case folding  | 392                | -17 | -19     | 96,969                  | -3  | -12     | 179,158             | 0   | -9      |
| 30 stopwords  | 391                | -0  | -19     | 83,390                  | -14 | -24     | 121,858             | -31 | -38     |
| 150 stopwords | 391                | -0  | -19     | 67,002                  | -30 | -39     | 94,517              | -47 | -52     |
| stemming      | 322                | -17 | -33     | 63,812                  | -4  | -42     | 94,517              | 0   | -52     |

Exercise: give intuitions for all the ‘0’ entries. Why do some zero entries correspond to big deltas in other columns?

# 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.

Chapter 7: Prune postings entries that are unlikely to turn up in the top  $k$  list for any query.

Almost no loss of quality in top  $k$  list.

# Vocabulary size vs. collection size

How big is the term vocabulary?

That is, how many distinct words are there?

Can we assume an upper bound?

Not really: At least  $70^{20} = 10^{37}$  different words of length 20

In practice, the vocabulary will keep growing with the collection size

Especially with Unicode ☺

# Vocabulary size 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:  $30 \leq k \leq 100$  and  $b \approx 0.5$

In a log-log plot of vocabulary size  $M$  vs.  $T$ , Heaps' law predicts a line with slope about  $\frac{1}{2}$

It is the simplest possible (linear) relationship between the two in log-log space

$$\log M = \log k + b \log T$$

An empirical finding ("empirical law")

# Heaps' Law

Fig 5.1 p81

For RCV1, the dashed line

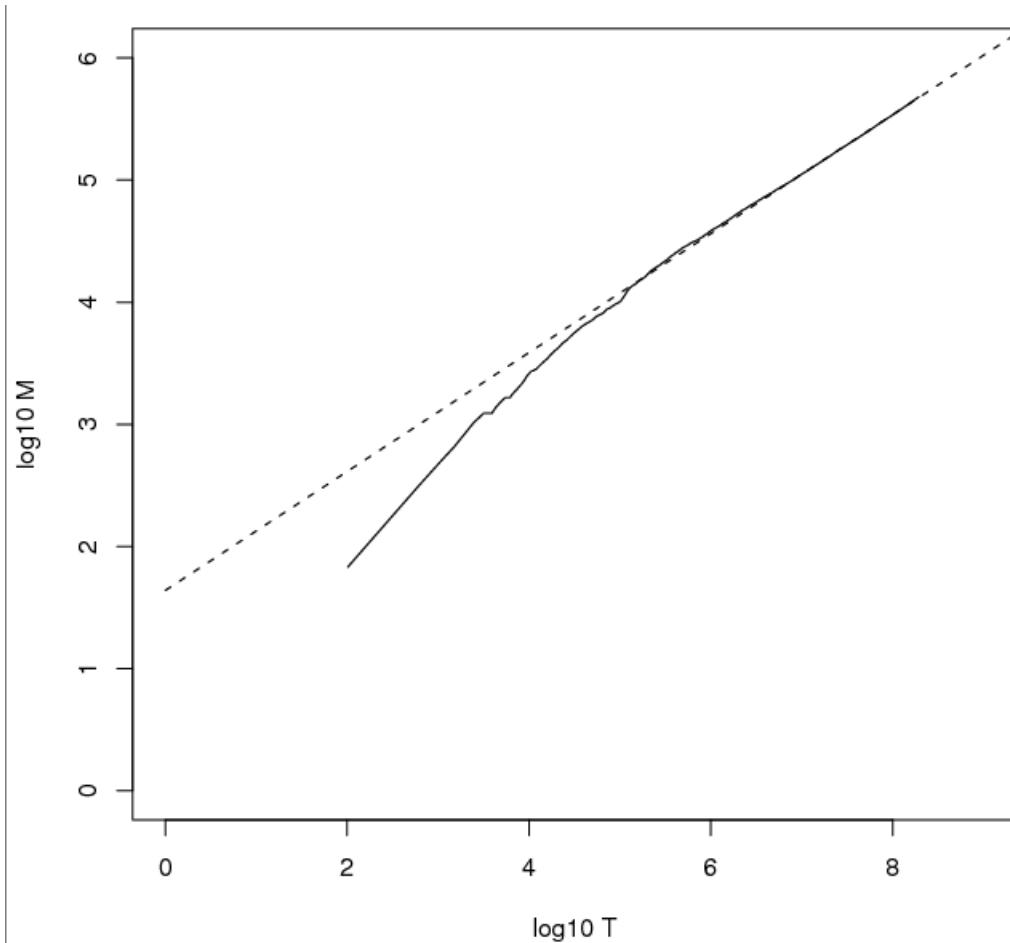
$$\log_{10} M = 0.49 \log_{10} T + 1.64$$

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



# Exercises

What is the effect of including spelling errors, vs. automatically correcting spelling errors on Heaps' law?

Compute the vocabulary size  $M$  for this scenario:

Looking at a collection of web pages, you find that there are 3000 different terms in the first 10,000 tokens and 30,000 different terms in the first 1,000,000 tokens.

Assume a search engine indexes a total of 20,000,000,000 ( $2 \times 10^{10}$ ) pages, containing 200 tokens on average

What is the size of the vocabulary of the indexed collection as predicted by Heaps' law?

# Zipf's law

Heaps' law gives the vocabulary size in collections.

We also study 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  $i^{\text{th}}$  most frequent term has frequency proportional to  $1/i$ .

$cf_i \propto 1/i = K/i$  where  $K$  is a normalizing constant

$cf_i$  is collection frequency: the number of occurrences of the term  $t_i$  in the collection.

# Zipf consequences

If the most frequent term (*the*) occurs  $cf_1$  times

then the second most frequent term (*of*) occurs  $cf_1/2$  times

the third most frequent term (*and*) occurs  $cf_1/3$  times ...

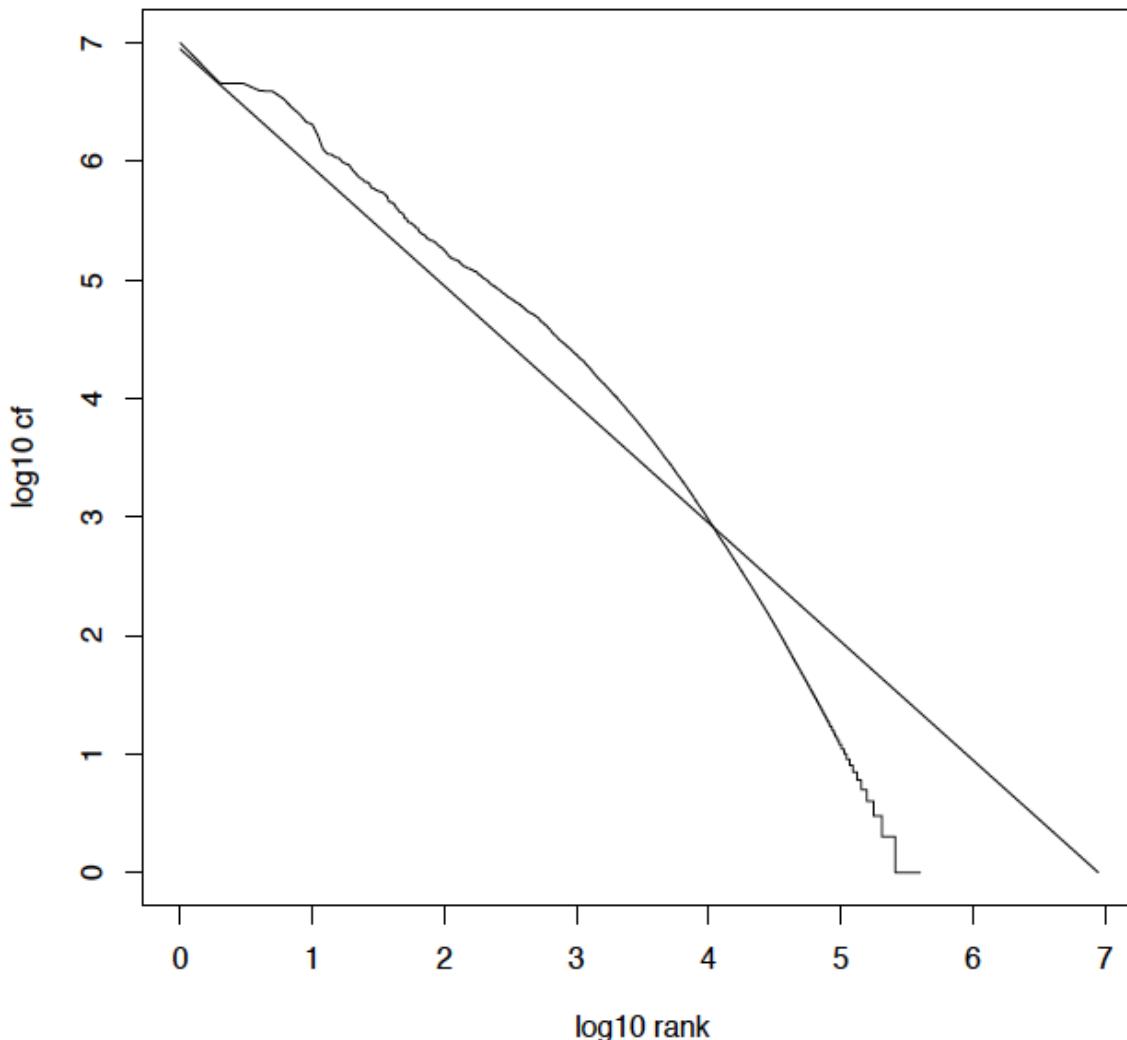
Equivalent:  $cf_i = K/i$  where  $K$  is a normalizing factor, so

$$\log cf_i = \log K - \log i$$

Linear relationship between  $\log cf_i$  and  $\log i$

Another power law relationship

# Zipf's law for Reuters RCV1



# Compression

Now, we will consider compressing the space for the dictionary and postings. We'll do:

- Basic Boolean index only

- No study of positional indexes, etc.

But these ideas can be extended

We will consider compression schemes

# DICTIONARY COMPRESSION

# 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

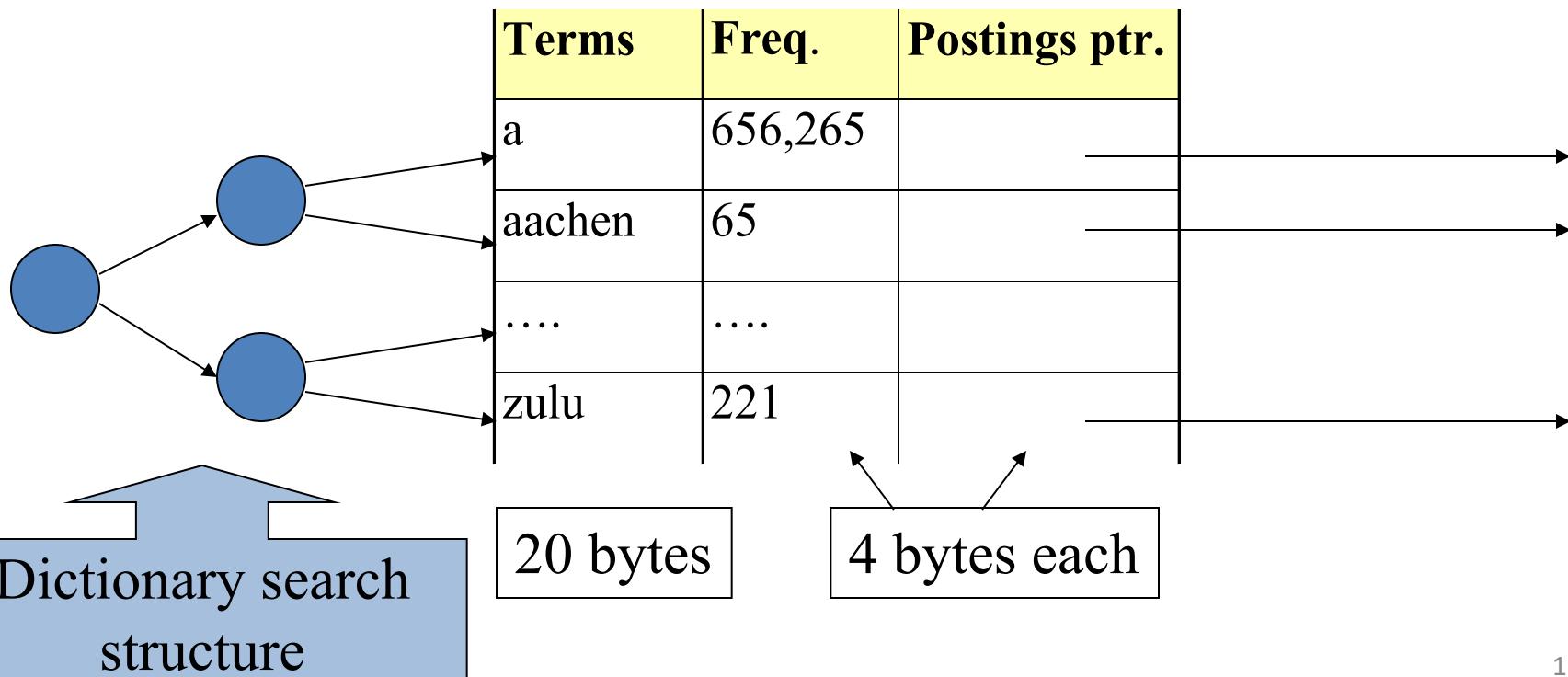
Even if the dictionary isn't in memory, we want it to be small for a fast search startup time

So, compressing the dictionary is important

# Dictionary storage – naïve version

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.

Exercise: Why is/isn't this the number to use for estimating the dictionary size?

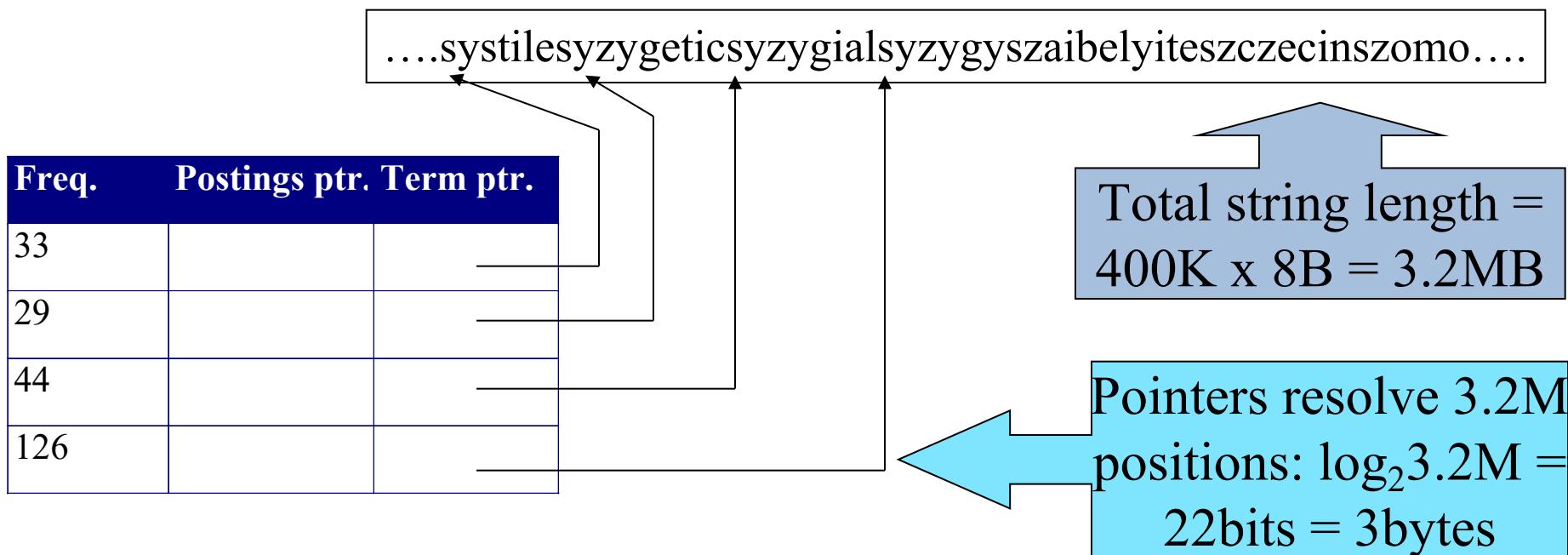
Ave. dictionary word in English: ~8 characters

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 Freq.

4 bytes per term for pointer to Postings.

3 bytes per term pointer

Avg. 8 bytes per term in term string

400K terms x 19  $\Rightarrow$  7.6 MB (against 11.2MB for fixed width)

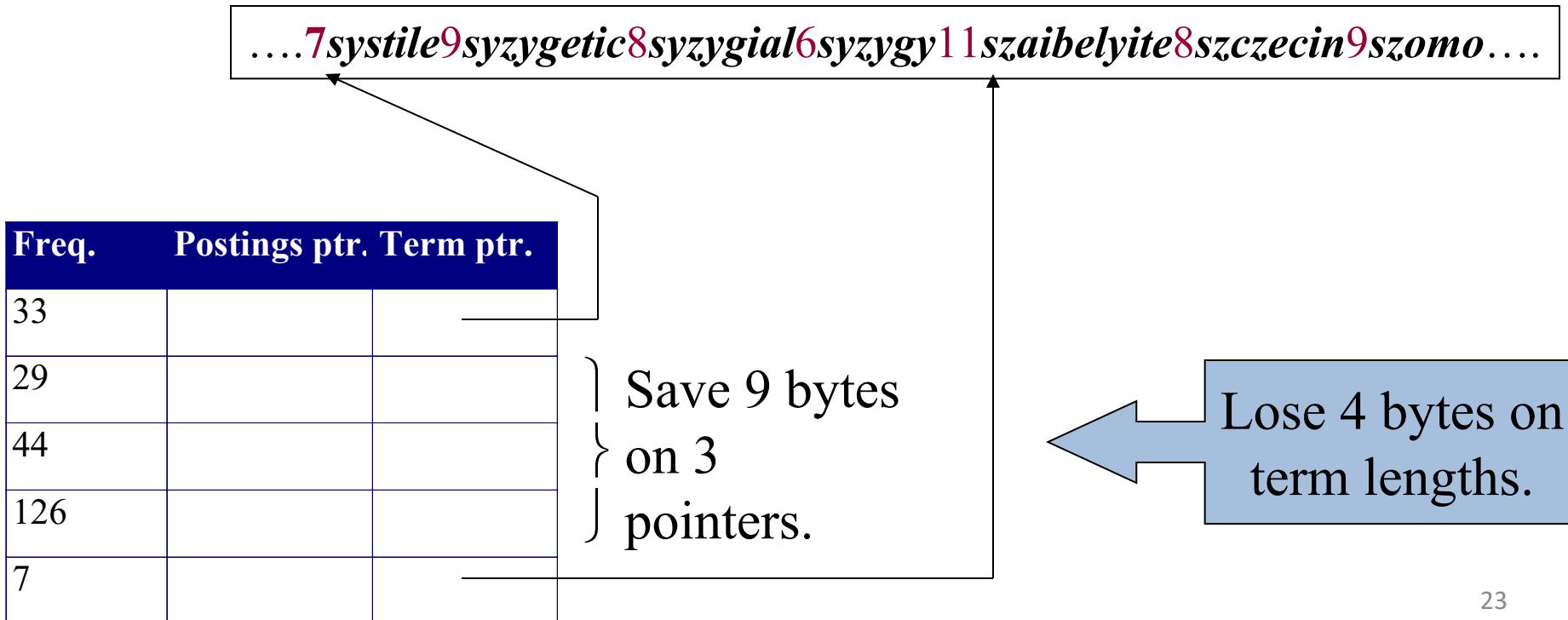
} Now avg. 11  
bytes/term,  
not 20.

# Blocking

Store pointers to every  $k$ th term string.

Example below:  $k=4$ .

Need to store term lengths (1 extra byte)



# Blocking Net Gains

Example for block size  $k = 4$

Where we used 3 bytes/pointer without blocking

$3 \times 4 = 12$  bytes,

now we use  $3 + 4 = 7$  bytes.

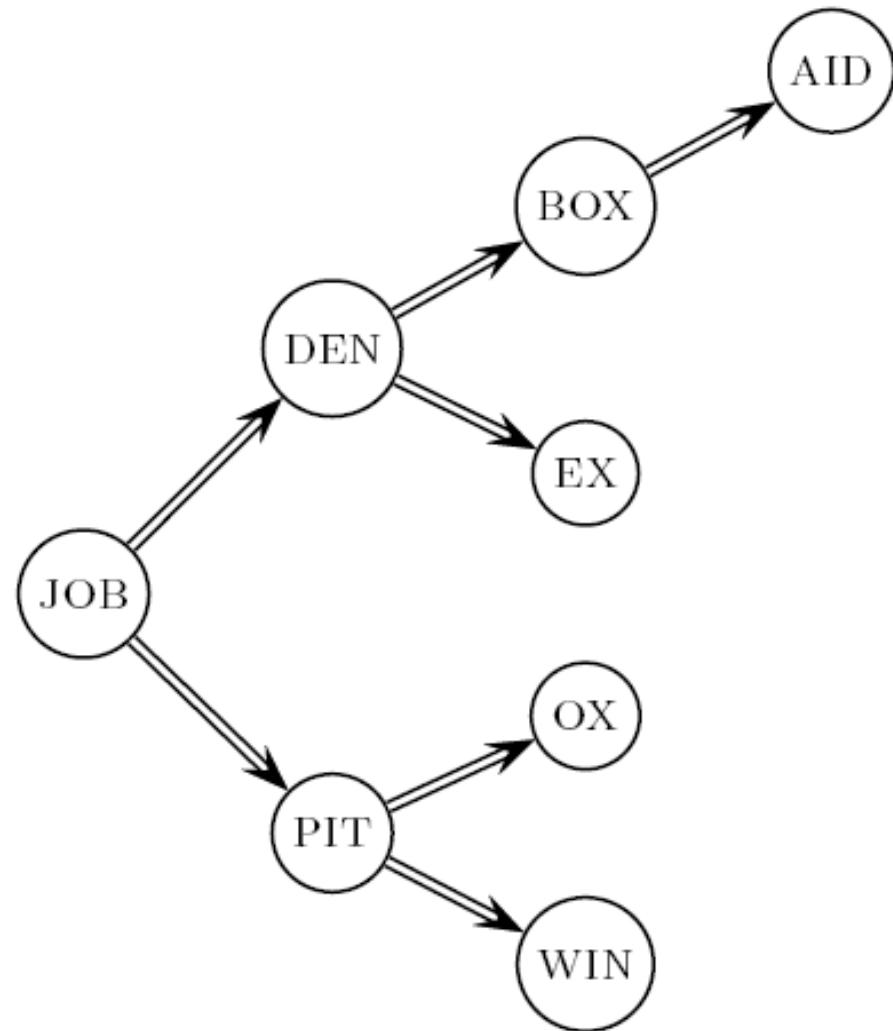
Shaved another ~0.5MB. This reduces the size of the dictionary from 7.6 MB to 7.1 MB.  
Question: Why not go with larger  $k$ ?

We can save more with larger  $k$ .

# Dictionary search without blocking

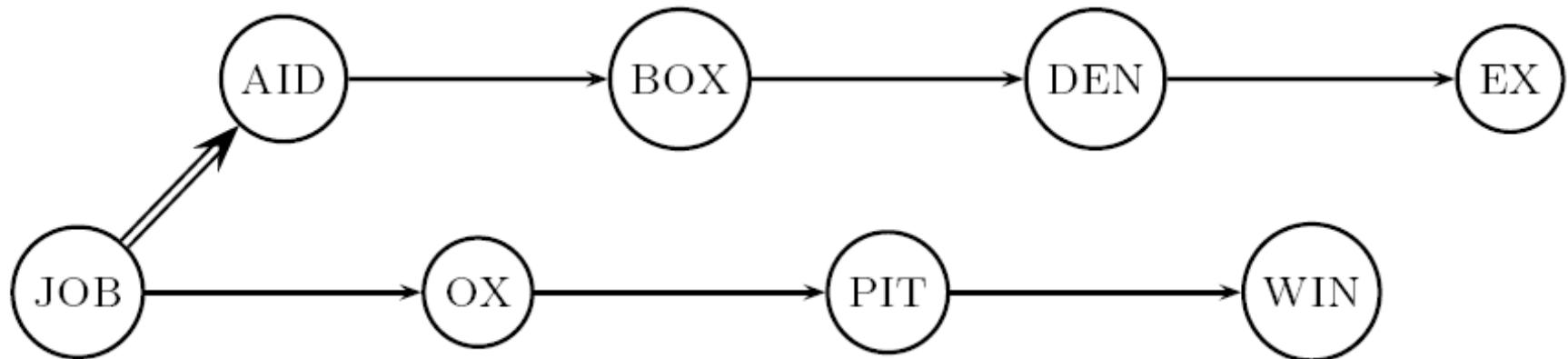
Assuming each dictionary term equally likely in query (not really so in practice!), average number of comparisons =  
 $(1+2\cdot2+4\cdot3+4)/8 \sim 2.6$

Exercise: what if the frequencies of query terms were non-uniform but known, how would you structure the dictionary search tree?



# Dictionary search with blocking

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Binary search down to 4-term block;

Then linear search through terms in block.

Blocks of 4 (binary tree), avg. =  $(1+2\cdot2+2\cdot3+2\cdot4+5)/8 = 3$  compares

# Exercises

Estimate the space usage (and savings compared to 7.6 MB) with blocking, for block sizes of  $k = 4, 8$  and  $16$ .

Estimate the impact on search performance (and slowdown compared to  $k=1$ ) with blocking, for block sizes of  $k = 4, 8$  and  $16$ .

# Front coding

## Front-coding:

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

8*automata*8*automate*9*automatic*10*automation*

→ 8*automat*\**a*1◊*e*2◊*ic*3◊*ion*

Encodes prefix *automat*

Extra length  
beyond *automat*.

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        |
| + blocking, $k = 4$                              | 7.1        |
| + blocking + front coding                        | 5.9        |

# POSTINGS COMPRESSION

# Postings compression

The postings file is much larger than the dictionary, factor of at least 10, often over 100 times larger

Key desideratum: store each posting compactly.

A posting for our purposes is a docID.

For Reuters (800,000 documents), we would use 32 bits per docID when using 4-byte integers.

Alternatively, we can use  $\log_2 800,000 \approx 20$  bits per docID.

Our goal: use far fewer 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  $\log_2 1M \approx 20$  bits.

A term like ***the*** occurs in virtually every doc, so 20 bits/posting  $\approx 2\text{MB}$  is too expensive.

Prefer 0/1 bitmap vector in this case ( $\approx 100\text{K}$ )

# Gap encoding of postings file entries

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.

Especially for common words



# 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  $\sim \log_2 G$  bits/gap entry.

Key challenge: encode every integer (gap) with about as few bits as needed for that integer.

This requires a *variable length encoding*

Variable length codes achieve this by using short codes for small numbers

# Unary code

Represent  $n$  as  $n$  1s with a final 0.

**Unary code for 3 is 1110.**

## Unary code for 40 is

Unary code for 80 is:

This doesn't look promising, but....

Optimal if  $P(n) = 2^{-n}$

We can use it as part of our solution

# Gamma codes

We can compress better with bit-level codes

The Gamma code is the best known of these.

Represent a gap  $G$  as a pair *length* and *offset*  
*offset* is  $G$  in binary, with the leading bit cut off

For example  $13 \rightarrow 1101 \rightarrow 101$

*length* is the length of offset

For 13 (offset 101), this is 3.

We encode *length* with *unary code*: 1110.

Gamma code of 13 is the concatenation of *length* and *offset*:  
1110101

# Gamma code examples

| number | length     | offset     | $\gamma$ -code        |
|--------|------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 0      |            |            | none                  |
| 1      | 0          |            | 0                     |
| 2      | 10         | 0          | 10,0                  |
| 3      | 10         | 1          | 10,1                  |
| 4      | 110        | 00         | 110,00                |
| 9      | 1110       | 001        | 1110,001              |
| 13     | 1110       | 101        | 1110,101              |
| 24     | 11110      | 1000       | 11110,1000            |
| 511    | 111111110  | 11111111   | 111111110,11111111    |
| 1025   | 1111111110 | 0000000001 | 1111111110,0000000001 |

# Reminder: bitwise operations

For compression, you need to use bitwise operators

CS107

Schedule

Assignments

Labs

Gradebook

Resources

Getting Help

## Computer Organization & Systems

Week 2

### Lecture 3 (Mon 4/8): Bits and Bitwise Operators

[Lecture 3 Slides](#)  
B&O Ch 2.1

In: assign0  
Out: assign1

Python

& bits

We'll dive further into bits and bytes, and how to manipulate them using bitwise operators.

<< left shift bits, >> right shift; LACKS >>> zero fill right shift

Recipes:

Extract 7 bits: `a & 0x7f00 >> 8` ; if take high-order bit add: `& 0x7f`

Combine 3 5-bit numbers: `a | (b << 5) | (c << 10)`

Lookup tables rather than decoding can be faster, yet still small

# Gamma code properties

$G$  is encoded using  $2 \lfloor \log G \rfloor + 1$  bits

Length of offset is  $\lfloor \log G \rfloor$  bits

Length of length is  $\lfloor \log G \rfloor + 1$  bits

All gamma codes have an odd number of bits

Almost within a factor of 2 of best possible,  $\log_2 G$

Gamma code is uniquely prefix-decodable, like VB

Gamma code can be used for any distribution

Optimal for  $P(n) \approx 1/(2n^2)$

Gamma code is parameter-free

# Gamma seldom used in practice

Machines have word boundaries – 8, 16, 32, 64 bits

Operations that cross word boundaries are slower

Compressing and manipulating at the granularity of bits can be too slow

All modern practice is to use byte or word aligned codes

Variable byte encoding is a faster, conceptually simpler compression scheme, with decent compression

# Variable Byte (VB) codes

For a gap value  $G$ , we want to use close to the fewest bytes needed to hold  $\log_2 G$  bits

Begin with one byte to store  $G$  and dedicate 1 bit in it to be a continuation bit  $c$

If  $G \leq 127$ , 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<br>10111000 | 10000101 | 00001101<br>00001100<br>10110001 |

Postings stored as the byte concatenation

000001101011100010000101000011010000110010110001



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

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

# 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      |
| postings, $\gamma$ -encoded           | 101.0      |

# Other variable unit codes

Variable byte codes are used by many real systems

Good low-tech blend of variable-length coding and sensitivity to computer memory alignment matches

Byte alignment wastes space if you have many small gaps – as gap encoding often makes

More modern work mainly uses the ideas:

- Be word aligned (32 or 64 bits; even faster)

- Encode several gaps at the same time

- Often assume a maximum gap size, perhaps with an escape

# Group Variable Integer code

Used by Google around turn of millennium....

Jeff Dean, keynote at WSDM 2009 and presentations at CS276

Encodes 4 integers in blocks of size 5–17 bytes

First byte: four 2-bit binary length fields

$$, L_j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

Then,  4 bytes (between 4–16) hold 4 numbers

Each number can use 8/16/24/32 bits. Max gap length ~4 billion

It was suggested that this was about twice as fast as VB encoding

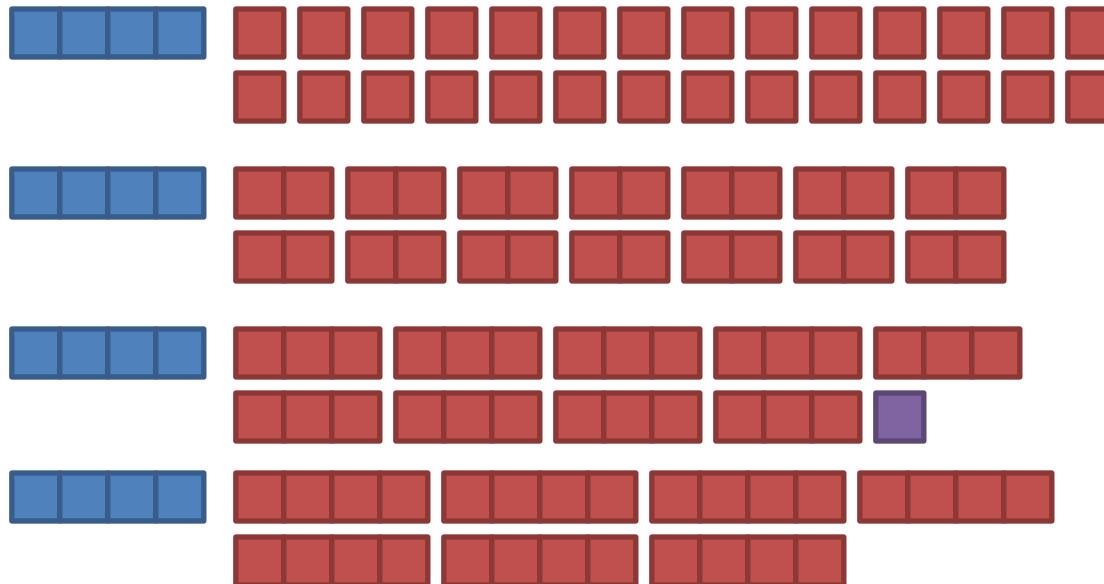
Decoding gaps is much simpler – no bit masking

First byte can be decoded with lookup table or switch

# Simple-9 [Anh & Moffat, 2004]

A word-aligned, multiple number encoding scheme

How can we store several numbers in 32 bits with a format selector?



# Simple9 Encoding Scheme [Anh & Moffat, 2004]

Encoding block: 4 bytes (32 bits)

Most significant nibble (4 bits) describe the layout of the 28 other bits as follows:

- 0: a single 28-bit number
- 1: two 14-bit numbers
- 2: three 9-bit numbers (and one spare bit)
- 3: four 7-bit numbers
- 4: five 5-bit numbers (and three spare bits)
- 5: seven 4-bit numbers
- 6: nine 3-bit numbers (and one spare bit)
- 7: fourteen two-bit numbers
- 8: twenty-eight one-bit numbers

| Layout<br>(4 bits) | n numbers of b bits each<br>$n * b \leq 28$ |
|--------------------|---|
|--------------------|---|

Simple16 is a variant with 5 additional (uneven) configurations  
Efficiently decoded with hand-coded decoder, using bit masks  
Extended Simple Family – idea applies to 64-bit words, etc.

# Index compression summary

We can now create an index for highly efficient Boolean retrieval that is very space efficient

Only 4% of the total size of the collection

Only 10-15% of the total size of the text in the collection

We've ignored positional information

Hence, space savings are less for indexes used in practice

But techniques substantially the same

# 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

End of Slides