some search engine.

There is nothing that cannot be found through

The best place to hide a dead body is page 2 of Google search results. -- anonymous

An engineer is someone who can do for a dime what any fool can do for a dollar. -- anonymous

Chapter 11: Text Indexing and Matching

There were 5 Exabytes of information created between the dawn of civilization through 2003, but that much information -- Eric Schmidt is now created every 2 days.





-- Eric Schmidt

Outline

11.1 Search Engine Architecture
11.2 Dictionary and Inverted Lists
11.3 Index Compression
11.4 Similarity Search



mostly following Büttcher/Clarke/Cormack Chapters 2,3,4,6 (alternatively: Manning/Raghavan/Schütze Chapters 3,4,5,6)

11.2 mostly BCC Ch.4, 11.3 mostly BCC Ch.6, 11.4 mostly MRS Ch.3

11.1 Search Engine Architecture



server farm with 100 000's of computers, distributed/replicated data in high-performance file system, massive parallelism for query processing

Content Gathering and Indexing



Crawling

- **Traverse Web:** fetch page by http, parse retrieved html content for href links
- Crawl frontier: maintain priority queue
- **Crawl strategy:** breadth-first for broad coverage, depth-first for site capturing, clever prioritization
- Link extraction: handle dynamic pages (Javascript ...)

Deep Web Crawling: generate form-filling queries

Focused Crawling: interleave with classifier

Deep Web Crawling

realestate.com.au

Find agents

Home ideas

News

Commercial

Sign in

Deep Web (aka. Hidden Web): DB/CMS content items without URLs

New homes

→ generate (valid) values for query form fields in order to bring items to surface

Retire



Source: http://deepwebtechblog.com/wringing-science-from-google

Showing 1 - 20 of 86 total results Address, suburbs, postcodes, or regions Sort by: Most Relevant 1 2 3 4 Next Kununurra, WA 6743 Search Results for properties for sale in Kununurra, WA 6743 EAST KIMBERLEY REALESTATE Property type Min. Beds Max. Beds Min. Price Max. Price FOL All 1 3 200,000 Any 22a Bull Run Road, Kununurra, WA 6743 ka 3 🗑 2 🛞 2 ঐ Save Details ≻ New or Established Bathrooms Search only Premiere properties EAST KIMBERLEY REAL ESTATE Any. Any \$430,000 REDUCED! Exclude properties under offer/contract Indoor features Car spaces 13 Bauhinia Street, Kununurra, WA 6743 Include surrounding suburbs km 3 🗰 1 🛲 2 Any. Any ঠ Save Details≻ Min. Land Outdoor features Update search first nation m^2 Any \$374,000 Keywords Eco Friendly 19 Casuarina Way, Kununurra, WA 6743 Þa 3 🖛 1 Any. -ਨੇ Save -6Details>

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Buy

Rent

Invest

Sold

Share





Vector Space Model for Content Relevance Ranking



Features are **terms** (words and other tokens) or term-zone pairs (term in title/heading/caption/...) can be stemmed/lemmatized (e.g. to unify singular and plural) _{IRDM WS 2015} can also be multi-word phrases (e.g. bigrams) ¹¹⁻⁹

tf*idf model

Vector Space Model: tf*idf Scores

tf (d_i, t_j) = term frequency of term t_j in doc d_i df (t_j) = document frequency of t_j = #docs with t_j idf (t_j) = N / df (t_j) with corpus size (total #docs) N dl (d_i) = doc length of d_i (avgdl: avg. doc length over all N docs)



sparse scalar product

(Many) tf*idf Variants: Pivoted tf*idf Scores

tf $(d_i, t_j) =$ term frequency of term t_j in doc d_i df $(t_j) =$ document frequency of $t_j =$ #docs with t_j idf $(t_j) = N / df(t_j)$ with corpus size (total #docs) N dl $(d_i) =$ doc length of d_i (avgdl: avg. doc length over all N docs)

tf*idf score for single-term query (**index weight**):

$$d_{ij} = (1 + \ln(1 + \ln(tf(d_i, t_j)))) \cdot \ln \frac{1 + N}{df(t_i)}$$

For
$$tf(d_i, t_i) > 0$$
, 0 else

pivoted tf*idf score:

$$d_{ij} = \frac{1 + \ln(1 + \ln(tf(d_i, t_j)))}{(1 - s) + s\frac{dl(d_i)}{avgdl}} \cdot \ln\frac{1 + N}{df(t_j)}$$

also uses scalar product for score aggregation avoids undue favoring of long docs

tf*idf scoring often works very well,
but it has many ad-hoc tuning issues
→ Chapter 13: more principled ranking models

11.2 Indexing with Inverted Lists

Vector space model suggests term-document matrix,

but data is sparse and queries are even very sparse

 \rightarrow use **inverted index lists** with terms as keys for B+ tree or hashmap



terms can be full words, word stems, word pairs, substrings, N-grams, etc. (whatever ,,dictionary terms" we prefer for the application)

- index-list entries in **DocId order** for fast Boolean operations
- many techniques for excellent **compression** of index lists
- additional **position index** needed for phrases, proximity, etc. (or other precomputed data structures)

Dictionary

- Dictionary maintains information about terms:
 - mapping terms to unique term identifiers (e.g. *crisis* \rightarrow 3141359)
 - location of corresponding posting list on disk or in memory
 - statistics such as document frequency and collection frequency
- Operations supported by the dictionary:
 - Lookups by term
 - range searches for prefix and suffix queries (e.g. net*, *net)
 - substring matching for wildcard queries (e.g. cris*s)
 - Lookups by term identifier
- Typical implementations:
 - B+ trees, hash tables, tries (digital trees), suffix arrays

B⁺ Tree

- Paginated hollow multiway search tree with high fanout (\Rightarrow low depth)
- Node contents: (child pointer, key) pairs as routers in inner nodes key with id list or record data in leaf nodes
- Perfectly balanced: all leaves have identical distance to root
- Search and update efficiency: O(log_k n/C) page accesses (disk I/Os) with n keys, page storage capacity C, and fanout k



Prefix B⁺ Tree for Keys of Type String

Keys in inner nodes are mere **Routers** for search space partitioning. Rather than $x_i = max\{s: s \text{ is a key in subtree } t_i\}$ a shorter router

 y_i with $s_i \le y_i < x_{i+1}$ for all s_i in t_i and all s_{i+1} in t_{i+1} is sufficient, for example, y_i = shortest string with the above property.

 \rightarrow even higher fanout, possibly lower depth of the tree



Posting Lists and Payload

- Inverted index keeps a **posting list** for each term with the following **payload** for each posting:
 - document identifier (e.g. d_{123}, d_{234}, \ldots)
 - **term frequency** (e.g. $tf(crisis, d_{123}) = 2$, $tf(crisis, d_{234}) = 4$)
 - score impact (e.g. $tf(crisis, d_{123}) * idf(crisis) = 3.75$)
 - offsets: positions at which the term occurs in document
- Posting lists can be **sorted by doc id** or **sorted by score impact**
- Posting lists are compressed for space and time efficiency



Query Processing on Inverted Lists



<u>Given:</u> query $q = t_1 t_2 ... t_z$ with z (conjunctive) keywords similarity scoring function score(q,d) for docs $d \in D$, e.g.: $\vec{q} \cdot \vec{d}$ with precomputed scores (index weights) $s_i(d)$ for which $q_i \neq 0$

<u>Find</u>: top k results w.r.t. score(q,d) =aggr{ $s_i(d)$ }(e.g.: $\Sigma_{i \in q} s_i(d)$)

Merge Algorithm:

- merge lists for $t_1 t_2 \dots t_z$
- compute score for each document
- keep top-k results with highest scores (in priority queue or after sort by score)

Index List Processing by Merge Join Keep L(i) in **ascending order of doc ids** Compress L(i) by actually storing the gaps between successive doc ids (or using some more sophisticated prefix-free code)

QP may start with those L(i) lists that are short and have high idf Candidate results need to be looked up in other lists L(j) To avoid having to uncompress the entire list L(j), L(j) is encoded into groups of entries with a skip pointer at the start of each group → sqrt(n) evenly spaced skip pointers for list of length n



Different Query Types

conjunctive queries: all words in $q = q1 \dots qk$ required

disjunctive (,,andish") queries: subset of q words qualifies, more of q yields higher score

mixed-mode queries and **negations**: q = q1 q2 q3 + q4 + q5 - q6

phrase queries and **proximity** queries: q = "q1 q2 q3" q4 q5 ...

fuzzy queries: **similarity search** e.g. with tolerance to spelling variants **Keyword queries**: all by list processing on inverted indexes

incl. variant:

- scan & merge only subset of qi lists
- lookup long or negated qi lists

- see 11.4

Forward Index

Forward index maintains information about documents

compact representation of content:
 sequence of term identifiers and document length

Forward index can be used for various tasks incl.:

- **result-snippet generation** (i.e., show context of query terms)
- computation of proximity scores for advanced ranking
 (e.g. width of smallest window that contains all query terms)

*d*_{123:} *the giants played a fantastic season. it is not clear* ... *d*₁₂₃ **d**₁₂₃ **d**₁₂₄ **content**:< 1, 222, 127, 3, 897, 233, 0, 12, 6, 7, ... >

Index Construction and Updates

Index construction:

- extract (docId, termId, score) triples from docs
 - can be partitioned & parallelized
 - scores need idf (estimates)
- sort triples by termId (primary) and docId (secondary)
 - disk-based merge sort (build runs, write to temp, merge runs)
 - can be partitioned & parallelized
- load index from sorted file(s), using large batches for disk I/O

Index updating:

- collect batches of updates in separate files
- sort these files and merge them with index lists

Disk-Based Merge-Sort

- 1) Form runs of records, i.e., sorted subsets of the input data:
 - load M consecutive blocks into memory
 - sort them (using Quicksort or Heapsort)
 - write them to temporary disk space repeat these steps for all blocks of data
- 2) *Merge runs* (into longer runs):
 - load M blocks from M different runs into memory
 - merge the records from these blocks in sort order
 - write output blocks to temporary disk space and load more blocks from runs as needed
- 3) *Iterate* merge phase until only one output run remains

Map-Reduce Parallelism for Web-Scale Data



[J. Dean et al. 2004, Hadoop, etc.]

Automated Scalable 2-Phase Parallelism (bulk synchronous)

- map function: (hash-) partition inputs onto m compute nodes local computation, emit (key,value) tuples
- **implicit shuffle**: re-group (key,value) data
- reduce function: aggregate (key,value) sets



Example: counting items

(words, phrases, URLs, IP addresses, IP paths, etc.) in Web corpus or traffic/usage log

Map-Reduce Parallelism



Programming paradigm and infrastructure for scalable, highly parallel data analytics

- can run on 1000's of computers
- with built-in load balancing & fault-tolerance (automatic scheduling & restart of worker processes)

```
easy programming with key-value pairs:

Map function: K \times V \rightarrow (L \times W)^*

(k1, v1) \mid \rightarrow (l1,w1), (l2,w2), ...

Reduce function: L \times W^* \rightarrow W^*

l1, (x1, x2, ...) \mid \rightarrow y1, y2, ...
```

Examples:

- index building: K=docIds, V= contents, L=termIds, W=docIds
- click log analysis: K=logs, V=clicks, L=URLs, W=counts
- web graph reversal: K=docIds, V=(s,t) outlinks, L=t, W=(t,s) inlinks

Map-Reduce Parallelism for Index Building 🗞



Distributed Indexing: Term Partitioning



index maintenance non-trivial

Distributed Indexing: Doc Partitioning





index-list entries are hashed onto nodes by Docld

each complete query is run on each node; results are merged

→ perfect load balance, embarrasingly scalable, easy maintenance

Dynamic Indexing

News, tweets, social media require the index to be always fresh

- New postings are **incrementally inserted** into inverted lists
 - avoid insertion in middle of long list:

partition long lists, insert in / append to partition, merge partitions lazily

- Index updates in parallel to queries
- Light-weight locking needed to ensure consistent reads (and consistency of index with parallel updates)
 More detail see e.g. Google Percolator (Peng/Dabek: OSDI 2010)

Index Caching



Caching Strategies

What is cached?

- index lists for individual terms
- entire query results
- postings for multi-term intersections
- Where is an item cached?
 - in RAM of responsible server-farm node
 - in front-end accelerators or proxy servers
 - as replicas in RAM of all (or many) servers

When are cached items dropped?

- estimate for each item: temperature = access-rate / size
- when space is needed, drop item with lowest temperature Landlord algorithm [Cao/Irani 1997, Young 1998], generalizes LRU-k [O'Neil 1993]
- prefetch item if its predicted temperature is higher than the temperature of the corresponding replacement victims

11.3 Index Compression

Heap's law (empirically observed and postulated): size of the vocabulary (distinct terms) in a corpus

E[distinct terms in corpus] $\approx \alpha \cdot n^{\beta}$

with total number of term occurrences *n*, and constants α , β ($\beta < 1$), classically $\alpha \approx 20$, $\beta \approx 0.5$

Zipf's law (empirically observed and postulated): relative frequencies of terms in the corpus

P[kth most popular term has rel.freq. x] ~ $\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)^{\circ}$

with parameter θ , classically set to 1

The two laws strongly suggest opportunities for compression

Compression: Why?

- reduced space consumption on disk or in memory (and SSD and L3/L2 CPU caches)
- more cache hits, since more postings fit in cache
- 10x to 20x faster query processing, since decompressing may often be done as fast as sequential scan

Basics from Information Theory

Let f(x) be the probability (or relative frequency) of the x-th symbol in some text d. The **entropy** of the text (or the underlying prob. distribution f) is: $H(d) = \sum_{x} f(x) \log_2 \frac{1}{f(x)}$ H(d) is a lower bound for the bits per symbol needed with optimal coding.

For two prob. distributions f(x) and g(x) the **relative entropy (Kullback-Leibler divergence)** of f to g is

$$D(f \| g) := \sum_{x} f(x) \log_2 \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

relative entropy measures (dis-)similarity of probability or frequency distributions

D is the average number of additional bits for coding events of f when using optimal code for g

Jensen-Shannon divergence of f(x) and g(x): $\frac{1}{2}D(f||g) + \frac{1}{2}D(g||f)$

Cross entropy of f(x) to g(x): $H(f,g) := H(f) + D(f || g) = -\sum f(x) log g(x)$

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Compression

- Text is sequence of symbols (with specific frequencies)
- Symbols can be
 - letters or other characters from some alphabet Σ
 - strings of fixed length (e.g. trigrams)
 - or words, bits, syllables, phrases, etc.

Limits of compression:

Let p_i be the probability (or relative frequency)

of the i-th symbol in text d

Then the (empirical) *entropy* of the text: $H(d) = \sum p_i \log_2 \frac{1}{d}$

is a *lower bound* for the average number of bits per symbol in any compression (e.g. Huffman codes)

Note:

compression schemes such as *Ziv-Lempel* (used in zip) are better because they consider context beyond single symbols; with appropriately generalized notions of entropy the lower-bound theorem does still hold

Basic Compression: Huffman Coding

Text in alphabet $\Sigma = \{A, B, C, D\}$ P[A] = 1/2, P[B] = 1/4, P[C] = 1/8, P[D] = 1/8

```
H(\Sigma) = 1/2*1 + 1/4*2 + 1/8*3 + 1/8*3 = 7/4
```

Optimal (prefix-free) code from **Huffman tree**:



Avg. code length: 0.5*1 + 0.25*2 + 2* 0.125*3 = 1.75 bits

Basic Compression: Huffman Coding

Text in alphabet $\Sigma = \{A, B, C, D\}$ P[A] = 0.6, P[B] = 0.3, P[C] = 0.05, P[D] = 0.05

 $H(\Sigma) = 0.6*\log\frac{10}{6} + 0.3*\log\frac{10}{3} + 0.05*\log 20 + 0.05*\log 20 \approx 1.394$

Optimal (prefix-free) code from Huffman tree:



Avg. code length: 0.6*1 + 0.3*2 + 0.05*3 + 0.05*3 = 1.5 bits

Algorithm for Computing a Huffman Code

```
\begin{split} n &:= |\Sigma| \\ \text{priority queue } Q &:= \Sigma \text{ sorted in ascending order by } p(s) \text{ for } s \in \Sigma \\ \text{for } i &:= 1 \text{ to } n-1 \text{ do} \\ z &:= MakeTreeNode() \\ z.left &:= ExtractMin(Q) \\ z.right &:= ExtractMin(Q) \\ p(z) &:= p(z.left) + p(z.right) \\ \text{Insert } (Q, z) \\ \text{od} \\ \end{split}
```

return ExtractMin(Q)

Theorem: The Huffman code constructed with this algorithm is an optimal prefix-free code.

Remark:

Huffmann codes need to scan a text twice for compression (or need other sources of text-independent symbol statistics)

Example: Huffman Coding

Example: |Σ|=6, Σ={a,b,c,d,e,f}, P[A]=0.45, P[B]=0.13, P[C]=0.12, P[D]=0.16, P[E]=0.09, P[F]=0.05

 $A \rightarrow 0$ $B \rightarrow 101$ $C \rightarrow 100$ $D \rightarrow 111$ $E \rightarrow 1101$ $F \rightarrow 1100$



Arithmetic Coding

Generalizes Huffman coding

Key idea: for alphabet Σ and probabilities P[s] of symbols $s \in \Sigma$

- Map s to an interval of real numbers in [0,1] using the cdf values of the symbols and encode the interval boundaries
- Choose sums of negative powers of 2 as interval boundaries

Example: $\Sigma = \{A, B, C, D\}$ with P[A]=0.4, P[B]=0.3, P[C]=0.2, P[D]=0.1 \rightarrow F(A)=0.4, F(B)=0.7, F(C)=0.9, F(D)=1.0



General Text Compression: Ziv-Lempel

LZ77 (Adaptive Dictionary) and further variants:

- scan text & identify in a *lookahead window* the longest string that occurs repeatedly and is contained in a *backward window*replace this string by a "pointer" to its previous occurrence.
- encode text into list of triples *<back, count, new>* where
- *back* is the backward distance to a prior occurrence of the string that starts at the current position,
- count is the length of this repeated string, and
- *new* is the next symbol that follows the repeated string. triples themselves can be further encoded (with variable length)

better variants use explicit dictionary with statistical analysis (need to scan text twice) and/or clever permutation of input string \rightarrow Burrows-Wheeler transform IRDM WS 2015

Example: Ziv-Lempel Compression

peter_piper_picked_a_peck_of_pickled_peppers

<back, count, new>

♥ ☞ ☞		
<0, 0, p>	for character 1:	р
<0, 0, e>	for character 2:	e
<0, 0, t>	for character 3:	t
<-2, 1, r>	for characters 4-5:	er
<0, 0, _>	for character 6:	_
<-6, 1, i>	for characters 7-8:	pi
<-8, 2, r>	for characters 9-11:	per
<-6, 3, c>	for charaters 12-13:	_pic
<0, 0, k>	for character 16	k
<-7,1,d>	for characters 17-18	ed

... great for text compression, but not easy to use with index lists

Index Compression

Posting lists with ordered doc ids have small gaps
 → gap coding: represent list by first id and sequence of gaps gaps in long lists are small, gaps in short lists long
 → variable bit length coding

good for doc ids and offets in payload

Other lists may have many identical or consecutive values
 → run-length coding: represent list by first value and frequency of repeated or consecutive values

Gap Compression: Gamma Coding

Encode gaps in inverted lists (successive doc ids), often small integers

Unary coding:

gap of size x encoded by: x times 0 followed by one 1 (x+1 bits)

good for short gaps

Binary coding:

gap of size x encoded by binary representation of number x $(\log_2 x \text{ bits})$

good for long gaps

Elias's \gamma coding: *length*:= floor(log₂ x) in unary, followed by *offset* := x - 2**(floor(log₂ x)) in binary (1 + log₂ x + log₂ x bits)

→ generalization: Golomb code (optimal for geometr. distr. of x) → still need to pack variable-length codes into bytes or words

Example for Gamma Coding

X	length (unary)	offset (binary)
$1 = 2^{0}$	1	1
$4 = 2^2$	001	100
$17 = 2^4 + 2^0$	00001	10001
$24=2^4+2^3$	00001	1000
63=2 ⁵ +	000001	111111
64=2 ⁶	0000001	1000000
		Ť
		leading 1
		can be omitted

Note 1: as there are no gaps of size x=0, one typically encodes x-1 Note 2: a variant called δ coding uses γ encoding for the length IRDM WS 2015

Byte or Word Alignment and Variable Byte Coding

Variable bit codes are typically aligned
to start on byte or word boundaries
→ some bits per byte or word may be unused (extra 0's "padded")

Variable byte coding uses only 7 bits per byte, the first (i.e. most significant) bit is a continuation flag \rightarrow tells which consecutive bytes form one logical unit

Example: var-byte coding of gamma encoded numbers:

1 0000000	1 0100101	0 1000000	0 0011000
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------

Golomb Coding / Rice Coding

Colomb coding generalizes Gamma coding:

for tunable parameter M (modulus), split x into

- quotient q = floor(x/M) stored in unary code with q+1 bits
- remainder $r = x \mod M$ stored in binary code with ceil(log₂r) bits

let $b=ceil(log_2M) \rightarrow remainder needs either b or b-1 bits$ can be further optimized to use b-1 bits for the smaller numbers: If $r < 2^b - M$ then r is stored with b-1 bits If $r \ge 2^b - M$ then $r+2^b-M$ is stored with b bits

Rice coding specializes Golomb coding to choice $M = 2^k$ \rightarrow processing of encoded numbers can exploit bit-level operations

Example for Golomb Coding

Golomb encoding (M=10, b=4): simple variant

x	${oldsymbol{q}}$	bits(q)	r	bits(r)
0	0	1	0	0000
<i>33</i>	3	0001	3	0011
57	5	000001	7	<i>0111</i>
<i>99</i>	9	0000000001	9	1001

Golomb encoding (M=10, b=4) with additional optimization

x	\boldsymbol{q}	bits(q)	r	bits(r)
0	0	1	0	000
33	3	0001	3	<i>011</i>
57	5	000001	7	1101
<i>99</i>	9	000000001	9	1111

Practical Index Compression: Layout of Index Postings



11.4 Similarity Search

Exact Matching:

- given a string s and a longer string d, find (all) occurrences of s in d string can be a word or a multi-word phrase
- algorithms include Knuth-Morris-Pratt, Boyer-Moore, ...
- \rightarrow see Algorithms lecture

Fuzzy Matching:

given a string s and a longer string d, find (all) approximate occurrences of s in d e.g. tolerating missing characters or words, typos, etc.
→ this lecture

Similarity Search with Edit Distance

Idea:

tolerate mis-spellings and other variations of search terms and score matches based on edit distance

Examples:

- query: Microsoft fuzzy match: Migrosaft score ~ edit distance 2
- 2) query: Microsoft
 fuzzy match: Microsiphon
 score ~ edit distance 3+5
- 3) query: Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA fuzzy match at token level: MS Corp., Readmond, USA

Similarity Measures on Strings (1)

Hamming distance of strings s1, s2 $\in \Sigma^*$ with |s1|=|s2|: number of different characters (cardinality of $\{i: s1_i \neq s2_i\}$)

Levenshtein distance (edit distance) of strings s1, s2 $\in \Sigma^*$: minimal number of editing operations on s1 (replacement, deletion, insertion of a character) to change s1 into s2

For edit (i, j): Levenshtein distance of s1[1..i] and s2[1..j] it holds: edit (0, 0) = 0, edit (i, 0) = i, edit (0, j) = j edit (i, j) = min { edit (i-1, j) + 1, edit (i, j-1) + 1, edit (i-1, j-1) + diff (i, j) } with diff (i, j) = 1 if $s1_i \neq s2_j$, 0 otherwise \rightarrow efficient computation by **dynamic programming**

Example for Levenshtein edit distance: grate[1..i] → great[1..j]



edit (s[1..i], t[1..j]) = min { ↓ edit (s[1..i-1], t[1..j]) + 1, → edit (s[1..i], t[1..j-1]) + 1, ▲ edit (s[1..i-1], t[1..j-1]) + diff (s[i], t[j] }

Similarity Measures on Strings (2)

Damerau-Levenshtein distance of strings s1, s2 $\in \Sigma^*$: minimal number of replacement, insertion, deletion, or **transposition** operations (exchanging two adjacent characters) for changing s1 into s2

For edit (i, j): Damerau-Levenshtein distance of s1[1..i] and s2[1..j]: edit (0, 0) = 0, edit (i, 0) = i, edit (0, j) = j edit (i, j) = min { edit (i-1, j) + 1, edit (i, j-1) + 1, edit (i-1, j-1) + diff (i, j), edit (i-2, j-2) + diff(i-1, j) + diff(i, j-1) + 1 } with diff (i, j) = 1 if $s1_i \neq s2_i$, 0 otherwise

Similarity based on N-Grams

Determine for string s the set or bag of its N-Grams: G(s) = {substrings of s with length N} (often trigrams are used, i.e. N=3)

```
Distance of strings s1 and s2:
|G(s1)| + |G(s2)| - 2|G(s1) \cap G(s2)|
```

```
Example:

G(rodney) = \{rod, odn, dne, ney\}

G(rhodnee) = \{rho, hod, odn, dne, nee\}

distance (rodney, rhodnee) = 4 + 5 - 2*2 = 5
```

Alternative similarity measures: Jaccard coefficient: $|G(s1) \cap G(s2)| / |G(s1) \cup G(s2)|$ Dice coefficient: $2 |G(s1) \cap G(s2)| / (|G(s1)| + |G(s2)|)$

N-Gram Indexing for Similarity Search

<u>Theorem (Jokinen and Ukkonen 1991):</u> for query string s and a target string t, the Levenshtein edit distance is bounded by the N-Gram bag-overlap:

 $edit(s,t) \le d \Rightarrow |Ngrams(s) \cap Ngrams(t)| \ge |s| - (N-1) - dN$

→ for similarity queries with edit-distance tolerance d, perform query over inverted lists for N-grams, using count for score aggregation

Example for Jokinen/Ukkonen Theorem

edit(s,t) \leq d \Rightarrow overlap(s,t) < |s| - (N-1) - dN \Rightarrow

s = abababababa |s|=11 N=2 \rightarrow Ngrams(s) = {ab(5),ba(5)} N=3 \rightarrow Ngrams(s) = {aba(5), bab(4)} N=4 \rightarrow Ngrams(s) = {abab(4), baba(4)}

 $overlap(s,t) \ge |s| - (N-1) - dN$ edit(s,t) > d

- t1 = ababababab, |t1|=10
- t2 = abacdefaba, |t2|=10
- t3 = ababaaababa, |t3|=11
- t4 = abababb, |t4|=7
- t5 = ababaaabbbb, |t5|=11

```
N=2:

Ngrams(t1) = \{ab(5), ba(4)\}

Ngrams(t2)

= \{ab(2), ba(2), ac, cd, de, ef, fa\}

Ngrams(t3) =

= \{ab(4), ba(4), aa(2)\}

Ngrams(t4) = \{ab(3), ba(2), bb\}

Ngrams(t5)

= \{ab3\}, ba(2), aa(2)bb(3)\}
```

\rightarrow prune t2, t4, t5 because overlap(s,tj) < 6 for these tj

Similar Document Search



Given a full document d: find similar documents (related pages)

- Construct representation of d: set/bag of terms, set of links, set of query terms that led to clicking d, etc.
- Define similarity measure: overlap, Dice coeff., Jaccard coeff., cosine, etc.
- Efficiently estimate similarity and design index: use approximations based on N-grams (shingles) and statistical estimators
 - → min-wise independent permutations / min-hash method: compute $min(\pi(D))$, $min(\pi(D'))$ for random permutations π of N-gram sets D and D' of docs d and d' and test $min(\pi(D)) = min(\pi(D'))$

Min-Wise Independent Permutations (MIPs)set of idsaka. Min-Hash Method



MIPs are unbiased estimator of resemblance: $P[\min \{h(x) \mid x \in A\} = \min \{h(y) \mid y \in B\}] = |A \cap B| / |A \cup B|$

MIPs can be viewed as repeated sampling of x, y from A, B

IRDM WS 2015

Duplicate Elimination [Broder et al. 1997]

duplicates on the Web may be slightly perturbed crawler & indexing interested in identifying near-duplicates

Approach:

- represent each document d as set (or sequence) of shingles (N-grams over tokens)
- encode shingles by hash fingerprints (e.g., using SHA-1), yielding set of numbers $S(d) \subseteq [1..n]$ with, e.g., $n=2^{64}$
- compare two docs d, d' that are suspected to be duplicates by

• resemblance: $\frac{|S(d) \cap S(d')|}{|S(d) \cup S(d')|}$ Jaccard coefficient

- containment: $\frac{|S(d) \cap S(d')|}{|S(d)|}$
- drop d' if resemblance or containment is above threshold

Efficient Duplicate Detection in Large Corpora [Broder et al. 1997]

avoid comparing all pairs of docs

Solution:

- 1) for each doc compute shingle-set and MIPs
- 2) produce (shingleID, docID) sorted list
- 3) produce (docID1, docID2, shingleCount) table with counters for common shingles
- 4) Identify (docID1, docID2) pairs with shingleCount above threshold and add (docID1, docID2) edge to graph
- 5) Compute connected components of graph (union-find)
 → these are the near-duplicate clusters

Trick for additional speedup of steps 2 and 3:

- compute super-shingles (meta sketches) for shingles of each doc
- docs with many common shingles have common super-shingle w.h.p.

Similarity Search by Random Hyperplanes [Charikar 2002]



similarity measure: cosine

- generate random hyperplanes with normal vector h
- test if *d* and *d'* are on the same side of the hyperplane

P [sign($h^T d$) = sign($h^T d'$)] = 1 - angle(d, d') / ($\pi/2$)

Summary of Chapter 11

- indexing by **inverted lists**:
- posting lists in doc id order (or score impact order)
 - partitioned across server farm for scalability
- major space and time savings by index compression: Huffman codes, variable-bit Gamma and Golomb coding
- **similarity search** based on edit distances and N-gram overlaps
- efficient similarity search by min-hash signatures

Happy Holidays and Merry Christmas!





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