

Web Search

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Summary

Web Search

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Jeremy Nicholson and Justin Zobel and Karin Verspoor, CIS

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Search



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Summary

Web search involves four main technological components.

- **Crawling:** the data to be searched needs to be gathered from the web.
- **Parsing:** the data then needs to be translated into a canonical form.
-

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Practical search also involves an increase in technologies such as:

- Snippet generation.
- As-you-type querying.
- Query correction.
- Answer consolidation. (cf. Product price lists)
- Info boxes. (cf. Google Knowledge Graph)

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Summary

Before a document can be queried, the search engine must know that it exists. On the web, this is achieved by *crawling*.

(Web crawlers are also known as spiders, robots, and bots.)

Crawlers attempt to visit every page of interest and retrieve them for

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- Some websites return the same content
- Some pages never return status 200
- Some websites are not intended to be crawled
- Much web content is generated on-the-fly from databases, which can be costly for the content provider, so excessive numbers of visits to a site are unwelcome.
- Some content has a short lifespan.
- Some regions and content providers have low bandwidth.

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Summary

The observation that allows effective harvesting of the web is that it is a highly linked graph.

Assumption: If a web page is of interest, there will be a link to it from another page.

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- 1 Create a prioritised list L of URL
have been visited and when

- 2 Repeat forever:

- 1 Choose a URL u from L and fe
- 2 Parse and index $p(u)$, and extract URLs $\{u'\}$ from $p(u)$.
- 3 Add u to V and remove it from L . Add $\{u'\} - V$ to L .
- 4 Process V to move expired or 'old' URLs to L .

In practice, page processing is much faster than URL resolution, so numerous streams of pages should be processed simultaneously.

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Summary

The list of URLs L must be prioritised to ensure that

- Every page is visited eventually.
- Synonym URLs are disregarded.
- Significant or dynamic pages are visited sufficiently frequently.
-

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on a calendar can potentially be followed until

The Robots Exclusion Standard defines a protocol supposed to observe. It allows website maintainers to block crawlers while allowing web browsing.

Simple crawlers are now part of programming languages, for example Perl's `LibWWW`, and good crawlers are available as part of systems such as Nutch.

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Summary

Once a document has been fetched, it must be *parsed*.

That is, the words in the document are extracted, then added to a data structure that records which documents contain which words.

At the same time, information such as links and anchors can be

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The most basic element is the character enc captured in the page's metadata.

- For the first decade or so of the web, most (Want to travel in time? Try the **Wa**

waybackmachine.org/19970501000000*/http://cs.mu.oz.au)

- HTML markup was used to provide an extended character set.
- ISO-8859 and ISO-8859-* now provide extended Latin character sets (Cyrillic, Thai, Greek, ...)
- UTF-8 is the dominant character set covering the large-alphabet languages, with codes from 8 to 32 bits. The first 128 of the 8-bit codes are ASCII.

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Summary

Web pages are supposed to be in HTML or XML (or sometimes in other formats, hence `ftp://` and so on).

The format separates user-visible content from metadata.

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Many, many websites are not in conformance
be accidental, or can be a deliberate attempt to
known behaviour of particular browsers.

Parsers therefore need to be robust and flexible.

Some applications also make use of *scraping*, where only some components of the page are retained. For example, the advertisements and comments on a blog website might be ignored, with only blog content retained for indexing.

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Summary

```
<head>
<META NAME="keywords" CONTENT="science humor, science humour, science,
humor, humour, ig-nobel, ig nobel, gnobel, hotair, hot-air, hot air,
improbable research">
<META HTTP-EQUIV="expires" CONTENT="0">
<title>HotAIR - Rare and well-done tidbits from the Annals of
Improbable Research</title>
</head>
```

```
<hr>
```

```

```

```
<tr>
<td colspan="2" align="center">
<b><br><b>NOTE THIS: JoAnn O'Linger-Luscusk and Alasdair
Skelton have <a href="/projects/hair/hair-club-top.html#newest">joined</a>
the Hair Club</b>
</td> </tr>
```

hotair rare and well done tidbits from the annals of improbable research
note this joann o linger luscusk and alasdair skelton have joined the hair
club

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Summary

The aim of parsing is to reduce a web page, or a query, to a sequence of *tokens*.

If the tokenisation is successful, the tokens in a query will match those of the web page, allowing query evaluation to proceed without any form of approximate matching.

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- one word or two? 'Re-initialize'? 'Under-standing'?

- Compounding. Is 'football' one word

- Possessives. Is 'Zadek's' meant to be about 'Smiths'?

Sometimes it is possible to disambiguate word senses, for example to separate 'listen to the wind' from 'wind up the clock', but in practice the error rate obviates any possible gains.

In any case, such corrections are typically difficult or impossible in queries.

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Summary

Any indexing process that relies on fact extraction may need information in a canonical form.

- Dates: Consider 5/4/2011, 4/5/2011, April 5 2011, first Tuesday in April 2001.



under Google?)

- Variant punctuation: 'e.g.' versus 'e

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Historically, search engines discarded b
terms such as the, or, and so on), but they now generally appear to be indexed.

They also discarded terms that linguistic rules suggested were not reasonable query strings, but anecdotally it is reported that they index *all* tokens of up to 64 characters.

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Summary

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The most significant form of canonicalisation (for English) is arguably stemming.

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Inflectional morphology: how a word is derived from a stem,
for example *in+expense+ive* → *inex*

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Stemming is the process of stripping away a

It can be challenging, because every word has a different set of legal suffixes.

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Summary

Different stemmers have different strengths, but the Porter stemmer (<http://www.tartarus.org/martin/PorterStemmer> has several implementations) is the most popular.

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■ ational → ate

■ tional → tion

■ tion →

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Some versions of the stemmer constrain it so that the final result, or the stem produced at each step, must be a known word (either in a dictionary, or in the corpus being indexes).

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Summary

glasses → glass

posies → posi

Other alternatives like **lemmatisation**
dictionary entry, and constrain intermedi

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Summary

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Web documents can usually be segmented into discrete zones such as title, anchor text, headings, and so on.

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and compute similarities for documents by the fly.

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Hence the observed behaviour of web search that have the query terms in titles.

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Summary

Fast query evaluation makes use of an *index*, a data structure that maps terms to the documents that contain them. For example, the index of a book maps a few key terms to page numbers.

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The only practical index structure for text queries is the *inverted index*: a collection of lists, one per term, recording documents containing that term.

inverted

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An inverted index can be seen as the transposition of document-term frequency matrix accessed by (d, t) pairs into one accessed by (t, d) pairs.

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Summary

Search structure

For each distinct word t , the search structure contains:

- A pointer to the start of the corresponding inverted list.
-

Inverted lists

For each distinct word t , the inverted list

- The identifiers d of documents containing t , as ordinal numbers.
- The associated frequency $f_{d,t}$ of t in d . (We could instead store $w_{d,t}$ or $w_{d,t}/W_d$.)

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Summary

Together with an array of W_d values (stored separately), the search structure and inverted index provide all the information required for Boolean and ranked query evaluation.

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For example:

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$\langle , , , , , y, \dots \rangle$

$\langle 0, 0, \dots, 1, \dots, 1 \rangle$

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Inverted index (one document):

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happy	→	1(1)
of	→	1(1)
we	→	1/3

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Inverted index (multiple documents):

...
band ... $(d, f_{d,\text{band}})$...

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...
happy $\rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (d, f_{d,\text{happy}})$

...
of $\rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (d, f_{d,\text{of}})$

...
we $\rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (d, f_{d,\text{we}})$ $\rightarrow \dots$

...

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Summary

An inverted index allows for fast querying because:

(1) the terms in the query correspond to the search structure

(2) the index only indicates documents where the term is present

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Summary

In a simple representation, for (say) a gigabyte of newswire data

- 12 MB (say) for 400,000 words, pointers, counts.
- 280 MB for 70,000,000 document identifiers (4 bytes each).
-

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For 100 GB of web data, the total size is about 21
of the original text. (Many web pages contain I
unindexed data such as markup.

Index construction and index maintenance
subject. But it is straightforward to build an index for a terabyte of text
data on a current laptop in about a day.

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Summary

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A term-document matrix of binary values is compact to store (1b per term per document), and the bitwise comparisons are fast to perform.

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much larger.

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Also, most of the values in the matrix are 0, which means many, many comparisons for documents to the query.

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Summary

To evaluate a general Boolean query using an inverted index,

- Fetch the inverted list for each query term.



- Ignore within-document frequency

For strictly conjunctive queries, query the shortest list as a set of *candidates*, and do not appear in the other lists, working from second shortest to longest.

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Summary

To produce a document ranking for a typical TF-IDF model, using the cosine as a similarity measure, we need the following information:

- The frequency of each query term in each document (TF)



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$$S(q, d) \quad \text{---}$$

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We then calculate the dot product, and then d

A TDM (32 bits per term per document) is too large to contemplate.

The structure of the inverted index is not designed to compare documents one at a time.

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Summary

To use an inverted index to evaluate a query under the cosine measure

$$t \ A_d \leftarrow 0.$$

$$\text{Set } A_d \leftarrow A_d^{d,t} + w_{q,t} \times w$$

- 3 Read the array of W_q values and

$$\text{Set } A_d \leftarrow A_d / W_d$$

- 4 Identify the r greatest A_d value documents.

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That is, starting with a set of V zero
update the accumulators term by term.

Then use the document lengths to normalize each non-zero
accumulator.

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Summary

With the standard query evaluation algorithm and long queries, most accumulators are non-zero and an array is the most space- and time-efficient structure.

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If only low f_t (that is, rare) terms are allowed, the number of accumulators is greatly reduced.

A simple mechanism is to impose a limit on the number of accumulators. This is another example of a compromise that alters the set of documents returned, and may therefore impact on effectiveness.

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Summary

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1 Create an empty set A of accumulators.

2 For each query term t , ordered by decreasing $w_{q,t}$



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set $A_d \leftarrow A_d + w_{q,t}$

d,t

3 For each accumulator set A_d

4 Identify the r greatest A_d value

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There are many variations on these algorithms.

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Summary

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- 1 Create an empty set A of accumulators, and set a threshold S .
- 2 For each query term t , ordered by decreasing w

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create an accumulator A_d for d .

If d has an accumulator

set $A_d \leftarrow A_d + w_{q,t}$

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- 3 For each accumulator set A_d
- 4 Identify the r greatest A_d value

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Several resources must be considered

Disk space: for the index, at 40% of the size of the data. (With unstemmed terms, the index can be around 80% of the size of the data.)

CPU time: for processing inverted lists and updating accumulators.

Disk traffic: to fetch inverted lists.

By judicious use of compression and careful implementation, disk traffic can be dramatically reduced compared to this first implementation. The gains are so great that it makes no sense to implement without some use of compression.

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Around 7% of the queries in the Exite log have an explicit phrase such as "the great flydini".

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A question for information retrieval research (this lecture) is how best to use phrases in similar

A question for research in efficient query evaluation is how to find the pages in which the words occur as a phrase.

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Summary

The number of distinct phrases grows far more rapidly than the number of distinct terms. A small web crawl could easily contain a billion distinct two-word pairs, let alone longer phrases of interest.

There are three main strategies for phrase query evaluation:

- Process queries as bag-of-words, so that the terms can occur independently

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- Use some form of phrase index or word pairs can be directly identified without using the index

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In this lecture, inverted lists have been described as index entries, each an $\langle d, f_{d,t} \rangle$ pair. It is straightforward to include the $f_{d,t}$ ordinal word positions p at which t occurs in d :

$$\langle d, f_{d,t}, p_1, \dots, p_{f_{d,t}} \rangle$$

Positions are word counts, not byte counts, so that they can be used to determine adjacency.

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Summary

A phrase in a ranked query can be treated as an ordinary term - a lexical entity that occurs in given documents with given frequencies

Similarity can therefore be computed in the usual way, but it is first

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each document, along with in-document fr

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- Fetch the inverted lists for each term
- Take their intersection to find location

A similar strategy can be used for the more general task of determining whether query terms are proximate in a document.

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Summary

Many phrases include common words. The cost of phrase query processing on an inverted index is dominated by the cost of fetching and decoding lists for these words, which typically occur at the start of or in

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could involve intersecting the lists for `melbourne`,
looking for positions p of `1` and such that
`melbourne` is at $p + 3$.

False matches could be eliminated by post-processing, or could simply be ignored.

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Summary

Alternatively, it is straightforward to build a complete index of two-word phrases (around 50% of the size of the “web” data). Then evaluation of the phrase query.

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Proximity is an a variant, imprecise form of ph

■ Favour documents where the terms are close together
■ Search for “phrases” where the terms are close together
distance of each other.

Proximity search involves intersection of inverted lists with word positions.

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Summary

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In general search, each document is considered independently.

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(This can be spoofed by use of link farms, but with the kinds of analysis used by current engines it is extremely hard to

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The two major link analysis algorithms are H
topic search, not discussed in this subject) a

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Summary

Basic intuition of PageRank: each web document has a fixed number of credits associated with it, a portion of which it redistributes to documents it links to; in turn, it receives credits from pages that point to it.

The final number of credits the page is left with determines its pagerank

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probability $\alpha \in (0, 1)$. In this, we make the following assumptions:

- Each page has the same probability of random walk.
- For both teleports and traversal of out pages have an equal probability of being visited.

Some implementations of PageRank assign a maximum, fixed score to trusted pages, to seed the process.

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Summary

PageRank has a reputation for being critical to the performance of Google, and has attracted a great deal of research interest.

Analyses of Google searches has shown that in most cases the

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- web site.

- The Aerospace home page only cont

- About 95% of the within-RMIT 'aeros' Aerospace home page.

- Most of the links to the home page contain the word 'aerospace'.

Anchor text is treated as a form of zone.

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Summary

Further heuristics.

- Note which pages people actually visit by counting click-throughs.

- Manually alter the behavior of common queries.



index of its documents.

Then have multiple collections of ide

- Have separate servers for crawling a

- Accept feeds from dynamic data prov
newspapers, and microblogging sites.

- Integrate diverse data resources, such as maps and directories.

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Summary

- Search involves crawling, parsing, indexing, and querying; practical search also involves a range of other technologies.
- Crawling is in principle a straightforward application of queuing, but

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each word, rather than the list of words o

- The same structure is used for Boolean
- Approximations can be used to reduce

affect the answer set in unpredictable

- On the web, link and anchor information can be the dominant evidence of relevance.

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Summary

Input: D = document set

Output: Π_T = set of pagerank scores for each document $d_i \in D$

```

1: for all  $d_i \in D$  do
2:    $\pi(d_{(i,0)}) \leftarrow \frac{1}{N}$ 
3: end for
4: for  $t = 1..T$  do

```

▷ Initialise the starting probabilities
▷ N is the total number of documents

▷ Repeat over T iterations
▷ nt probabilities

```

10:   for all  $d_j \in D$  do
11:      $\pi(d_{(j,t)}) \leftarrow \pi(d_{(j,t)}) + \alpha \times$ 
12:   end for
13:   for all  $d_j$  where  $d_i \rightarrow d_j$  do
14:      $\pi(d_{(j,t)}) \leftarrow \pi(d_{(j,t)}) + (1 -$ 
15:   end for
16:   else
17:     for all  $d_j \in D$  do
18:        $\pi(d_{(j,t)}) \leftarrow \pi(d_{(j,t)}) + \pi(d_{(i,t-1)}) \times \frac{1}{N}$ 
19:     end for
20:   end if
21: end for
22: end for
23: end for

```

▷ EITHER teleport randomly

▷ teleport to a random document

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Summary

Assume a set of two documents, d_1 and d_2 , with a link from d_1 to d_2 .

$$0.38 \times 0.2 + 0.32 \times 0.5 = 0.24$$