

What does Google recommend when you want to compare insurance offerings?

A study investigating source distribution in Google's top search results

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to describe a new method to improve the analysis of search engine results by considering the provider level as well as the domain level. This approach is tested by conducting a study using queries on the topic of insurance comparisons.

Design/methodology/approach – The authors conducted an empirical study that analyses the results of search queries aimed at comparing insurance companies. The authors used a self-developed software system that automatically queries commercial search engines and automatically extracts the content of the returned result pages for further data analysis. The data analysis was carried out using the KNIME Analytics Platform.

Findings – Google's top search results are served by only a few providers that frequently appear in these results. The authors show that some providers operate several domains on the same topic and that these domains appear for the same queries in the result lists.

Research limitations/implications – The authors demonstrate the feasibility of this approach and draw conclusions for further investigations from the empirical study. However, the study is a limited use case based on a limited number of search queries.

Originality/value – The proposed method allows large-scale analysis of the composition of the top results from commercial search engines. It allows using valid empirical data to determine what users actually see on the search engine result pages.

Keywords Search engines, Google, Search engine results pages, Results ranking, Search results concentration, Web scraping

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

On a theoretical level, search engines can be seen as intermediaries between users and the information objects scattered on the web. The task of search engines is the collection (crawling), preparation (indexing), evaluation (ranking) and provision (user interface) of these information objects. In this sense, search engines are usually regarded as neutral intermediaries (Halavais, 2018; Lewandowski, 2017), which rank search results in a way that can be regarded as objective in the sense that each information object in the index is treated according to the same criteria and thus has at least potentially the same chance of being displayed for a query on a particular position. However, search engine optimization (SEO) methods, in particular, have a considerable influence on the ranking of commercial search engines, and SEO can have both positive and negative effects.

The importance of the question about the influence on search results of commercial search engines results from the importance of search engines themselves, and the importance of Google as the dominant search engine, which reaches a market share of more than 90 percent

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in most European countries (<http://gs.statcounter.com/search-engine-market-share/all/europe/>). The importance of commercial search engines like Google results from several factors: search engines are a vital service of the internet without which users would not be able to find their way on the web (Tavani, 2012; Varian, 2006). This is also reflected in the massive use of search engines: Google alone now serves more than 2 trillion search queries per year (Sullivan, D. 2016). Besides, search engines and Google, in particular, enjoy a high level of trust among users. This was shown in studies on the credibility of search results (Purcell *et al.*, 2012), on assuming the actual accuracy of search results (Purcell *et al.*, 2012), on trust in the “correct” result ranking (Pan *et al.*, 2007) and on the use of search engine rankings as a criterion for the quality of content (Westerwick, 2013).

While classical information retrieval research asks about the relevance of search results for users, little is known about the composition of search result sets by commercial search engines. Although a search engine bias (usually in the sense of unwanted top results for specific search queries) is often complained about, a large part of the empirical findings on that topic is based on rather small amounts of data or is even only anecdotal. This raises the question of whether these are only isolated cases or whether systematic biases actually exist.

We define search engine bias as “the tendency of a search engine to prefer certain results through the assumptions inherent in its algorithms” (Lewandowski, 2017). This means that every search engine is biased, and that:

[...] search engine bias does not mean that search results are deliberately manipulated by the search engine vendor but simply that results are ordered in a certain way that is determined by assumptions of what constitutes a good or relevant result in response to queries. It is even at the core of every idea of ranking, based on certain technically mediated assumptions, that certain items are preferred over others. (Lewandowski, 2017, pp. 66-67)

With our research, we address a particular type of queries, defined by that they have high commercial potential and are considered as informational on the side of the user. So, on the one hand, the user is looking for (unbiased) information on the topic. On the other hand, commercial sites are presenting interest-led information and investing in marketing and SEO, respectively, to gain visibility. This may result in a situation where a user seemingly finds relevant information to her query while in fact, that information is highly biased toward the interests of website owners who use SEO techniques. This is especially of interest when a user searches for things like medical treatment, loans, insurances and the like. These are highly commercialized areas where companies heavily fight for the best positions in Google. This is because there is a high query volume for such queries and that there is much money to make from selling products or closing a contract.

In this paper, we present a method for collecting and analyzing search engine data. Based on a list of search queries, search engines are automatically queried, and the displayed results are collected and stored. In the analysis, the results are grouped by position and domain; furthermore, the service providers are determined from automatically extracted imprint data. With this method, the distribution of search results within a search engine on a specific topic can be determined automatically. This method goes beyond previous approaches in that not only simple domain comparisons but also real provider comparisons can be carried out. The method is particularly attractive for the analysis of topics that are discussed controversially or topics where there is a high interest in influencing the search results using SEO. We show the feasibility of the method by a first study on the subject of insurance comparisons.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: first, we review the literature on user behavior on search engine results pages (SERPs), and on search engine bias on a theoretical as well as on an empirical basis. Then, we present the three research questions guiding our study. After giving details on the methods used, we present the results and discuss them. In conclusion, we summarize and give recommendations for future research.

Literature review

User behavior on the search engine results pages

The following properties can characterize the selection behavior on the SERPs:

- (1) Position effect: users prefer to look at the results listed first; an overwhelming number of clicks are made on these results. This effect has been demonstrated in numerous studies (e.g. Bar-Ilan *et al.*, 2009; Craswell *et al.*, 2008; Joachims *et al.*, 2005; Keane *et al.*, 2008; Schultheiß *et al.*, 2018; Yue *et al.*, 2010).
- (2) Focus on the visible area: users prefer to focus on the immediately visible area of the search results page, i.e., the area that is visible without scrolling (Höchstötter and Lewandowski, 2009). The results are preferably selected from this area (Kelly and Azzopardi, 2015).
- (3) Design of the search results snippets: results that take up more space on the search results page are more likely to be perceived (Liu *et al.*, 2015) and selected. Results that are graphically more attractive are perceived more strongly and clicked accordingly more often (attraction bias; Liu *et al.*, 2015).

The selection behavior on the SERPs can be characterized as strongly oriented to the given order and representation. Users behave in their selection with little information literacy (in the sense of making optimal decisions). The most important overarching explanatory models for user behavior on the search results pages are the principle of least effort (Zipf, 1949) and satisficing (Simon, 1955). Pan *et al.* (2007) further determine a trust bias in Google.

The relatively limited number of results from which users preferentially choose raises the question of precisely what is displayed within the area from which they choose and how this affects the diversity of the selected results. A study from Yahoo Research (Goel *et al.*, 2010), for which 2.6bn search queries were evaluated, gives a first impression. It was shown that in web search, about 80 percent of all clicked results are accounted for by only 10,000 websites (p. 203). This underlines not only the importance of the result position but also the somewhat limited choice of sources in these positions. However, this study did not report the sources and the frequency with which users selected them. Furthermore, the analysis is based on domains and not on providers. This does not consider that a provider can operate several domains that may appear more than once in the same result list.

Methods and influence of search engine optimization

SEO is alongside the booking of keyword ads “AdWords” the second way to gain visibility in search engines (Moran and Hunt, 2015, p. 10). While booking search ads involves direct costs (pay per click), the clicks on the organic results, whose position can be improved utilizing SEO techniques, are not associated with direct costs for the content provider. However, this optimization often requires considerable effort, which increases with the number of competing offers on a topic or more precisely: for a search query. The extent to which search queries have become highly competitive can also be seen from the already mentioned substantial investments in SEO.

Optimization for products and services has become standard; even small companies have recognized the importance of visibility in search engines and are investing accordingly. However, the optimization of informative content, including news and public relations materials, is also becoming increasingly important. This raises new questions about search engines as information intermediaries.

The influence of SEO can have a considerable positive influence on the findability and accessibility of content. First of all, information objects are created or improved so that they can be easily found and indexed by search engines. Measures include optimizing HTML code, optimizing navigational structures and adding sitemaps. Another, but indirect, positive effect

of SEO is the improvement of the usability and accessibility of (collections of) information objects. It was demonstrated that SEO methods have a positive effect on the usability (Thurrow and Musica, 2009) as well as on the accessibility of websites (Moreno and Martinez, 2013).

However, it is unclear whether SEO also has a positive effect on the relevance (in terms of content quality) of search results. On the one hand, SEO can be viewed positively here if content is prepared in a way that allows the user to find potentially relevant information objects easily (Thurrow, 2015). Since current ranking algorithms of search engines are aimed at optimizing user satisfaction (Diaz, 2016), it is fundamentally assumed here that optimization for search engines also helps the users.

On the other hand, SEO can be regarded as the manipulation of irrelevant or less relevant information objects in a way that they pretend to the search engine ranking algorithms that they are particularly relevant results. In this sense, SEO can be considered as the intentional creation of a bias in the search results (Jürgens *et al.*, 2014). This is particularly important in the case of informative content, as search engines are also frequently used by their users to check their own views: "In a way, Google becomes a tool to reflect on (one's own and others') biases, a tool for conscious confirmation bias" (Sundin *et al.*, 2017).

This raises the question of what content users see, especially regarding controversially discussed topics.

Search engine bias

Tavani (2012) summarizes the literature on search engine bias, identifying three distinct areas of concern: "(1) search-engine technology is not neutral, but instead has embedded features in its design that favor some values over others; (2) major search engines systematically favor some sites (and some kind of sites) over others in the lists of results they return in response to user search queries; and (3) search algorithms do not use objective criteria in generating their lists of results for search queries."

(2) Addresses search engine vendors directly manipulating search results, mainly to favor their own offerings, and (3) addresses the question of whether all documents in the index are treated the same. We will focus on (1) where the central question is not only whether it is at all possible to design "bias-free" search engines (see Grimmelmann, 2010; Lewandowski, 2017) but what effect algorithmic biases in search engines produce. Results from such investigations will inform users and search engine vendors alike.

Apart from the reasons of why commercial search engines favor some websites over others, empirical evidence shows that search engines by far favor a relatively small subset of sites from the web (see the study from Goel *et al.*, 2010, p. 203) mentioned above.

Research focusing on the contents current commercial search engines show found biases in regards to race (Noble, 2018) and gender (Noble, 2018; Otterbacher *et al.*, 2017), search engines preferably showing confirmatory information to queries regarding conspiracy theories (Ballatore, 2015), search engines promoting hate speech (Bar-Ilan, 2006), and biased health information (White and Horvitz, 2009).

The question, though, remains whether these content biases are a result of search engine algorithms merely reproducing biases inherent in the processed content (i.e. in the underlying database) or whether the algorithms introduce new biases. To our knowledge, the only study addressing this question empirically is the "Cyberchondria" study by White and Horvitz (2009). The authors found that for queries related to medical symptoms, the results produced by the commercial search engine highly over-represent dramatic interpretations, as compared to the content distribution in a web crawl.

To our knowledge, the role of SEO techniques in producing biases in search results has not yet been considered. While it is difficult to isolate single factors that lead to biases on the SERPs, we can assume a vast effect of SEO on search results, as SEO is now a multi-billion dollar industry (Sullivan, L. 2016). When investigating search engine bias, the focus has been

on internal (algorithmic) reasons from the search engines. However, search results are generated from an interplay between search engine providers, website providers and users (Röhle, 2010). Therefore, we need to widen our view of search engine bias, taking the possible influences of all these actors into account.

Research questions

The search for comparison offers for insurances of all kinds is a popular use case in the area of web search. Many online platforms allow users to compare every possible type of insurance concerning the providers and the associated conditions and costs. This results in a highly competitive market and competition for customers, which is also reflected in the fact that a lot of SEO is carried out to bring one's own offerings to the top positions in the search engine rankings. However, online platform providers often do not offer complete comparisons without self-interest. In practice, therefore, search results may not only contain "neutral" comparison sites like the German Stiftung Warentest (n.d. a, b), a not-for-profit foundation whose aim is "helping consumers by providing impartial and objective information based on the results of comparative investigations of goods and services." Rather, free comparison sites may take commissions from vendors, may not consider all vendors in their comparisons or base their comparisons on outdated prices (see Stiftung Warentest, n.d. a, b). With our research, we aim to map the distribution of different types of sites within the results sets on the chosen topic.

With our research, we aim to investigate whether there is a bias among the top positions in the use case of insurance comparisons. We examined how the domains and providers (i.e. the companies that possibly run more than one domain) are distributed among the top positions for 121 search queries.

In the context of this research, a domain is defined as a top-level domain while a provider is defined as a company owning one or more domains.

For our study, we formulated three research questions that we examined using explorative data analysis:

RQ1. How many different domains can be found in the top positions?

RQ2. How many different providers can be found in the top positions?

RQ3. How often do providers with more than one result appear in the top 10 for the various search queries?

Methods

Our study was carried out in six steps (see Figure 1) which show a mix of automatic and manual processes to generate the data sets to address the research questions and for our explorative data analysis. We show that time consuming tasks like collecting search results to a high number of queries, the extraction of contact data of the providers and data transformation processes can be processed automatically with our developed software and the use of the free tool KNIME. However, not all processes can be conducted by such software tools. It is still necessary to do manual data cleansing and also the explorative data analysis needs to be carried out manually.

In the first step, thematically relevant search queries were extracted from a German commercial search engine log file consisting of more than 640,000 different search queries (see Lewandowski, 2015). From the log, we extracted a variety of query formulations for the same topic, i.e., queries containing the same word or phrase. The selection was based on pre-defined keywords in the context of insurance comparisons. The queries from the log file were automatically selected by combining the terms "insurance" and "comparison" (including left as well as right truncation). Examples of resulting queries are "Autoversicherung Vergleich" (car insurance comparison), "Berufsunfähigkeitsversicherung Vergleich" (occupational disability

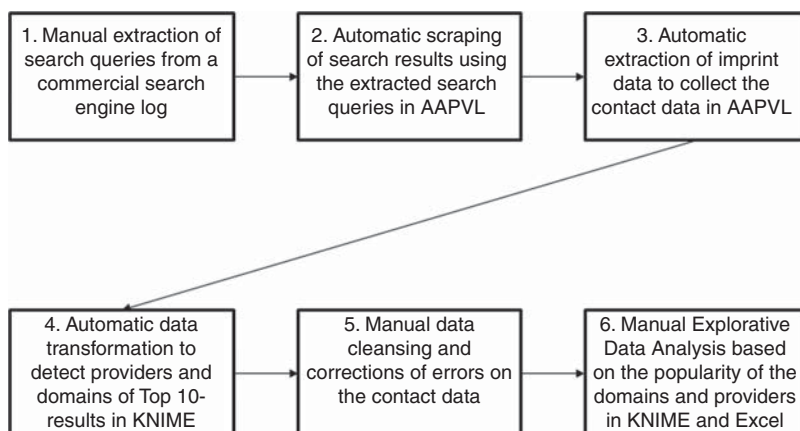


Figure 1.
Data collection and
analysis workflow

insurance comparison), “Haftpflichtversicherung im Vergleich” (liability insurance in comparison). This procedure identified a total of 121 different search queries. All queries were in German and are here translated for illustrative purposes only.

Next, we sent the queries to Google using the relevance assessment tool’s (RAT; Lewandowski and Sünkler, 2013) screen scraping component (Step 2). Scraping took place between May 8 and 9, 2018, and a total of 22,138 webpages were saved. A copy of each website was also captured, and the contact details of the website provider were retrieved using the imprint crawler. This is necessary because it can be assumed that a provider may have a number of websites on the same subject. The result of the scraping is a CSV file that contains the top 10 search results for each search query (see the data set available, Lewandowski and Sünkler, 2019).

In the third step, the search results were processed using software developed within the AAPVL project (Krewinkel *et al.*, 2016), namely, modules for crawling websites found through RAT and for extracting information from webpages. This allowed us to identify the imprint page from each website found and extracting company information including addresses. This information about the owners of the websites allows us not only to analyze the frequency by which certain websites (domains) appear in the search results, but also to identify the purpose of the vendor (e.g. commercial vs not-for-profit), and to find networks of sites that belong to the same (commercial) entity.

In the fourth step, the collected data (Figure 1) were processed in KNIME to transform and aggregate data for identifying the distributions of domains and providers within the top 10 results. We used KNIME mainly for grouping the data for further processing, e.g., aggregating webpages to domains and providers.

In the next step, the domains with the corresponding contact data were extracted from the file and corrections were made to the assignment of the contact data to the domains in a manual data cleansing process. This enabled us to determine how many providers operate more than one domain.

In the last step, an exploratory data analysis was carried out using methods from descriptive statistics based on the popularity of the domains, as well as the popularity of the providers. The data were limited to the top 10 positions. The popularity of the domains and the providers were derived from the data set itself, depending on the frequency of the occurrence of the domains and the providers in the top 10 results for the search queries. No external factors like popularity of domains, e.g., measured by the Alexa Rank (www.alexa.com/topsites/), or popularity of companies by their sales have been considered. The evaluation was based on the three or five most popular domains and providers, respectively.

Results

Description of the data set

The data set consists of 22,138 search results, allocated over 121 queries. It consisted of 3,278 different domains. On average, 182.96 results were collected per query, with the highest number of search results for a query being 298. While the scraper was set to capture the maximum number of search results for each query, search engines like Google actually return only a comparatively small amount of search results, contrary to the estimates given on the SERPs “Results 1-10 of XXX.” A manual inspection of the data from the imprint crawler showed that it reaches an accuracy of 82.5 percent. This value is based on street, ZIP and city. In some cases, variants of the company name had to be conflated manually.

Domain level analysis

Distribution of the domains on the top 10 positions. Looking at the distribution of the domains, 116 of the 3,278 different domains can be found in the top 10 positions. When only considering the first rank, we can only find results from ten different domains. When we increase the number of ranks considered to three, we can find results from 37 different domains, and the first five positions have results from 57 different domains (see Figure 2).

Distribution of the five most popular domains in the data set. The popularity of the domains was determined by counting the occurrence of all domains in the top 10 or top 5 results, respectively. Table I shows the ranking of the top domains based on their share in the top 10 and top 5 search results.

A comparison of the five most popular domains in the top 5 in relation to all other domains shows that 65.6 percent of all results in the ranking up to position five are covered by search results from the five most popular domains. Considering the first ten position in the ranking shows that 42.9 percent are still covered by search results that can be assigned to the five most popular domains.

Distribution of the five most popular domains among the top 10 positions. Figure 3 shows the distribution of the three, respectively, five most popular domains on the positions from

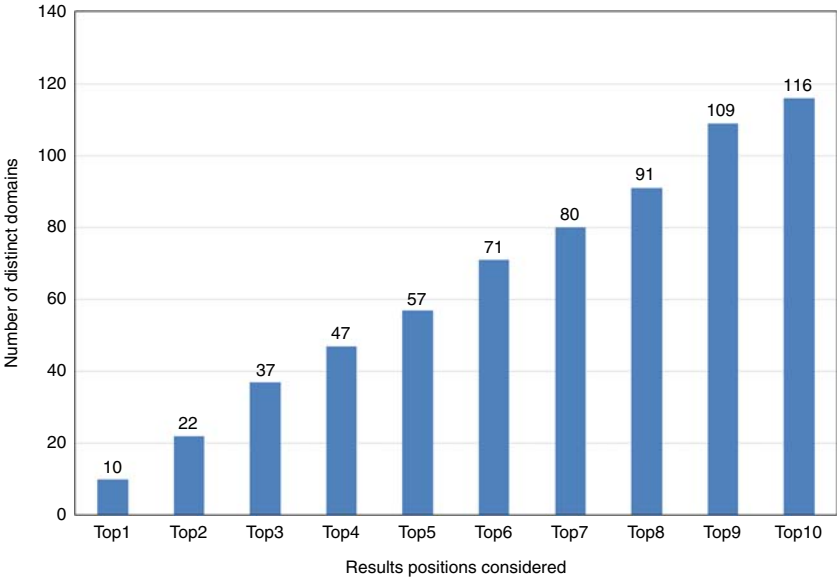


Figure 2.
Distribution of the
domains among the
top ten search results

one to ten within the search results. This shows that 86 percent of the search results in the first position are already covered by search results that belong to one of the three most popular domains. The share of the five most popular domains is 88.4 percent. It becomes clear that with increasing position the share of the most popular domains in the number of search results is steadily decreasing, whereby up to the top 10 ranking 28.1 percent of the search results are still provided by URLs from the three most popular domains. For the five most popular domains this is as much as 42.9 percent (see Figure 3).

Provider level analysis

Distribution of the different providers to the top 10 results. Besides the evaluation of the most popular domains in the data set, the five most popular providers in the top positions were also considered. In contrast to the evaluation of the domains, the providers were determined from the recorded contact data from the imprints of the websites. This enabled us to determine which providers operate several domains. These analyses aim to determine whether the same providers with different domains appear several times in the top rankings of the search engine. Figure 4 shows the distribution of providers in the top 10 rankings. It turns out that across all search queries only ten different providers are displayed in the first position. Looking at the complete top 10, 93 different providers were identified.

Domain	Number of results in the top 5 (<i>n</i> = 605)	Relative share of results in the top 5 (%)	Number of results in the top 10 (<i>n</i> = 1,210)	Relative share of results in the top 10 (%)
www.verivox.de	118	19.5	123	10.2
www.check24.de	118	19.5	120	9.9
www.tarifcheck.de	80	13.2	90	7.4
www.financescout24.de	52	8.6	97	8.0
www.preisvergleich.de	29	4.8	89	7.4

Table I.
The five most popular domains in the top ten search results

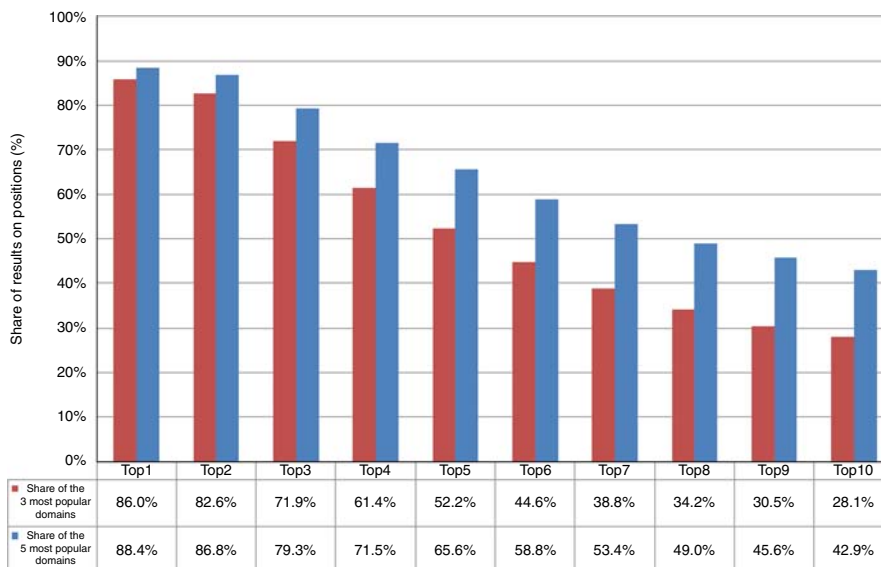
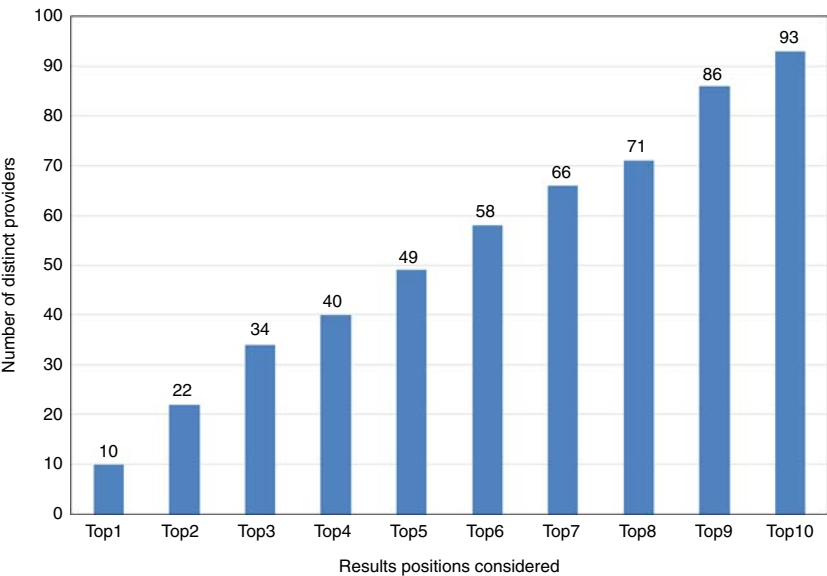


Figure 3.
Relative distribution of the domains on the positions one to ten

Figure 4.
Distribution of
different providers in
the result positions



Distribution of the five most popular providers in the data set. The definition of the most popular providers in the search results was similar to the definition for the domains. It was determined how often a provider appeared in the top 10 overall searches. Table II shows the five most popular providers with their respective shares of the five and ten first positions in the ranking.

The distribution of the five most popular providers in the overall search results up to position five shows that these providers cover 67.6 percent of these results (see Figure 5). Looking at the top 10, 46.5 percent of search results are still covered by these five providers.

Distribution of the five most popular providers within the top 10 positions. The next step is to measure the share of the three, respectively, the five most popular providers in the top positions of the SERPs. The analysis of the individual positions shows that there are no differences in the top position in the ranking. In total, 86 percent of the search results are provided by the three, respectively, five most popular providers. In terms of distribution, the share of the most popular providers decreases and ends with a share of 31.4 percent among the top 10 search results for the three most popular providers and 46.8 percent for the five most popular providers (see Figure 4).

Table II.
The five most popular
providers in the top
ten search results

Provider	Absolute share of results in the top 5 (<i>n</i> = 605)	Relative share of results in the top 5 (%)	Absolute share of results in the top 10 (<i>n</i> = 1,210)	Relative share of results in the top 10 (%)
Verivox GmbH	118	19.5	127	10.1
CHECK24 GmbH	118	19.5	120	9.9
TARIFCHECK24 GmbH	80	13.2	90	7.4
Scout24 Holding GmbH	52	8.6	97	8
finanzen.de Vermittlungsgesellschaft für Verbraucherverträge AG	41	6.8	133	11

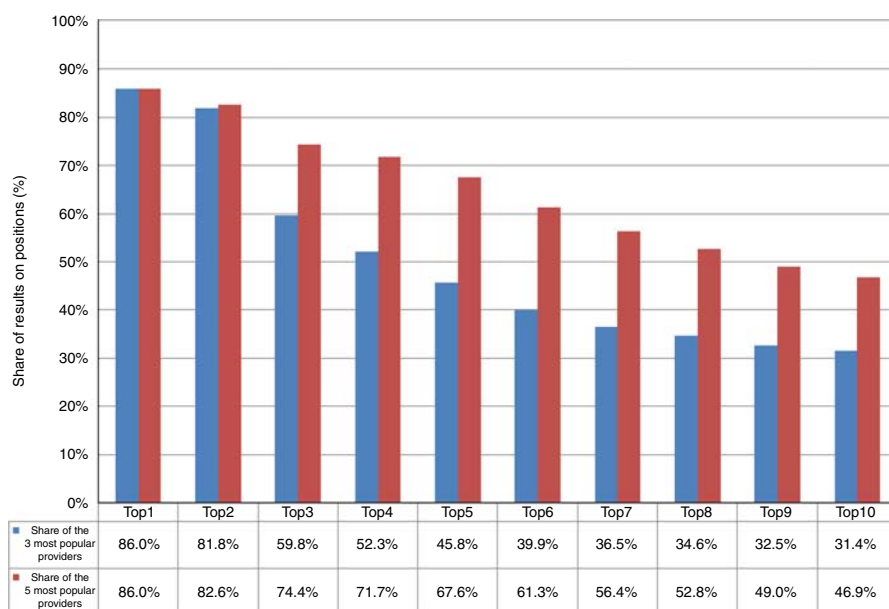


Figure 5.
Relative distribution
of the most popular
providers on the
result positions
from one to ten

Multiple occurrences of a provider in the top 10 results. Besides the analysis of the occurrence of the most popular providers in the top results, the assignment of the domains to the individual pages was used to evaluate whether a provider with more than one domain appeared in the top rankings. The first step was to determine how many domains the provider had in the top ranks and with what frequency. As can be seen from Table III, some providers operate different domains (up to eight) and are able to place them in Google's top 10 results.

In a further evaluation, we investigated whether providers appeared several times with search results for their primary domains. This was done to determine whether providers were represented at least twice with search results from one of their primary domains within a list of results. It was found that Verivox GmbH with the search results "verivox.de/versicherungen" and "verivox.de/kfz-versicherung-vergleich" was ranked second and third in the search query "preisvergleich versicherung." Figure 6 shows which providers were found several times in the top 10, and which share they accumulate.

Discussion

This study shows that a relatively small number of providers often make it to the top positions in Google search. Looking at the overall distribution within the top 10, only 116 different domains (*RQ1*), which are offered by 93 different providers (*RQ2*), can be found in the 1,210 search results analyzed. The total share of the five most popular sources within the top 10 search results is 43 percent. Looking at the provider level, this value increases to 46 percent. For the first five results, the figures are even higher: the five most popular sources have a share of 66 and 67 percent, respectively, when considering the providers. It turns out that some providers offer several domains (*RQ3*), which confirms our approach of considering the provider level in addition to the domain level.

Given the typical selection behavior on SERPs, as we have described it in the literature review, we assume that users mainly click on results from these few sources when searching for insurance comparisons. Few domains/providers dominate the top positions. Other providers

are listed, but they tend to be in the lower positions within the top 10 search results. This may indicate, on the one hand, the high popularity of only a few providers (which, however, may have been caused at least in part by the good positioning in the search engine), on the other hand, it is likely that this positioning was achieved by measures of SEO.

Our study uses a methodology similar to that used in studies measuring domain distribution in search engines' top results (e.g. Höchstötter and Lewandowski, 2009) or the overlap between the top results of different search engines (e.g. Spink *et al.*, 2006). However, we supplement this by reading out imprint information, which enables aggregation at the provider level.

As laid out in the Introduction and Literature Review section, research on search engine bias mostly lacks frameworks for empirical studies, and valid empirical results, as well. Our approach addresses this by making search results concentrated on a pre-defined set of queries measurable. A problem, though, is still a missing baseline for comparing the results of a search engine to a "gold standard," as favored in computer science research. It is questionable whether such a baseline can at all be established, as it is unclear what

Table III.
The five most popular
providers in the top
ten search results with
their primary domains

Provider	Number of domains in the top 10	Number of results in the top 10
finanzen.de Vermittlungsgesellschaft für Verbraucherverträge AG	8	149
Müller & Kollegen UG (haftungsbeschränkt)	5	22
G. Zmuda	4	7
Axel Springer SE	2	53
Verivox GmbH	2	127

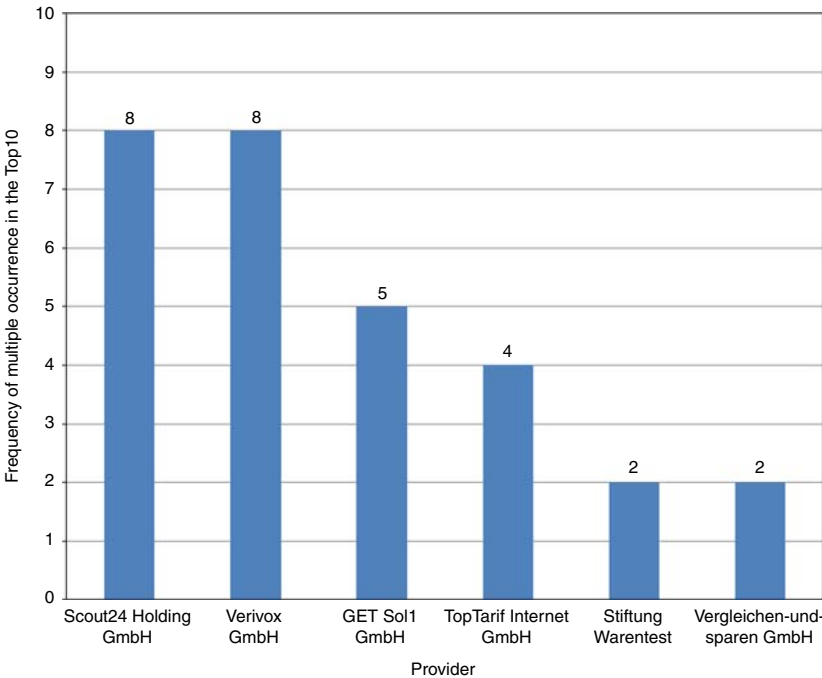


Figure 6.
Frequency of multiple
occurrences of a
provider in the top ten

degree of concentration should be wished for. Put differently, more diversity might not in all cases be desirable.

However, our approach can also be used to compare the results from different search engines. Then, one could measure the bias of a search engine's results in relation to the other individual search engines, or in relation to the average over all search engines considered.

Research on search engines in general, and search engine bias, in particular, would surely benefit from more empirical findings on what search engines display instead of theoretical assumptions often not grounded in empirical data. Our approach to data collection and analysis could benefit this branch of research in that it allows researchers to easily check the results of one or more search engines for a given set of queries.

Of course, this study is not without limitations. First of all, it should be noted that we were only able to analyze a relatively small sample of search queries. This is due to our data source. Although it contains several hundred thousand search queries, these are only search queries that were submitted at least with a certain frequency. There may be many more, but less popular searches on our topic. Furthermore, the search queries originate from an older data set, so that they may not reflect the current query behavior.

We used the German version of Google search for our study. Accordingly, the results in other countries may be different. Also, we have taken advantage of the fact that there is an obligation to provide an imprint in Germany, which makes it easier to find out who is offering each website. However, this may be more problematic in other countries.

Personalization is an issue that has not been addressed in this study. Personalization means that different users may see different (top) results for the same search query. In our study, however, we submitted all search queries from the same computer without adapting the user profile. This may have led to the results being adapted to this computer or the results being influenced by context information (e.g. location of the computer). In future studies, this possible effect of personalization and contextualization should at least be reduced by collecting data on the same search queries several times. Ballatore (2015) has made a proposal that could be implemented quite easily by repeating the data collection at several points in time and then aggregating the results found.

In future studies, larger data sets should be created and analyzed. This will be possible without problems, as any number of search results can be collected with the automatic data collection demonstrated. Larger data sets, on the one hand, would help investigating a particular topic in more depth, i.e., strengthen the validity of the results on that topic. On the other hand, larger data sets spanning several topics could be constructed, i.e., results would be strengthened through cross-validating findings over several topics.

Furthermore, query frequencies could be considered in future studies. This would not only enable us to determine which providers can be found in the top positions for which search query, but also to calculate the effect on the actual clicks of users with a certain probability. Such data could be collected using the Google AdWords API, for instance, which contains a prediction of the assumed search frequency for the queries.

The methodology described in this paper can be readily applied to a variety of topics. First and foremost, controversial issues such as nuclear power or abortion should be considered here. It is important to see whether (and if, to what degree) search engines present biased information when users wish to inform themselves on such topics and expect neutral or unbiased information. Research on search engine bias toward particular positions on particular topics or on the over-representation of certain aspects in the search results (e.g. Noble, 2018) often lack a valid empirical basis. Using the methods described in this paper, research on search engines' results could be put on a solid empirical basis.

Turning to the users' perspective, a key question is how users who expect a search engine to provide neutral information react when they are confronted with results that are above all commercially motivated.

Conclusion

We were able to show that the extension of search result analysis by adding the provider level makes sense and produces fruitful results. Already in our case study, there are differences in the results on domain level vs on provider level. We will investigate this in further studies on other topics and on larger data sets as well.

We are confident that this approach will be fruitful especially for investigating highly competitive queries, where search engine optimizers fight for the best positioning in Google. Our approach could be used for a multitude of topics like health, news and loans to reveal potential biases in search results, as often lamented by researchers (e.g. Diaz, 2008; Introna and Nissenbaum, 2000). We plan to investigate a broad set of topics to show whether search engines' tendencies to prefer certain results or providers over others is a general tendency found in different informational contexts. Especially worthwhile seems investigating health-related queries because a large number of websites are seem-to-be neutral information sources, while in reality, they are financed by large pharmaceuticals.

However, our study cannot answer the question of how precisely to define search engine bias and what an "ideal search result set" should look like. Nonetheless, descriptive studies such as ours can help to understand the presence and, if necessary, the extent of influences on the SERPs and to discuss possible measures of search engine bias on a solid foundation of data.

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