Introduction

Search in speech

- One might also want to search for speech, e.g., to find a particular sentence spoken in an interview one only has a recording (audio file) of.
- This type of searching is generally not readily available with current technology.
- It is, however, already possible to:
  - detect the language of a spoken conversation, e.g., when listening in to a telephone conversation
  - detect a new topic being started in a conversation
- In the following, we focus on searching in text.

Search in text

- A breathtaking number of information resources are available: books, databases, the web, newspapers, . . .
- To locate relevant information, we need to be able to search these resources, which often are written texts:
  - Searching in a library catalogue (e.g., using IUCAT)
  - Searching the web (e.g., using Google)
  - Advanced searching in text corpora (e.g., using regular expressions)

Search in unstructured data

- Structured data: organized & searchable by categories: author, title, subject, and so forth.
  - Useful when the searcher knows the general topic that they are searching through
    - e.g., for duck-billed platypuses, look through zoology and animal topics
  - Problem: someone has to structure it
- Unstructured data: much more available (e.g., the internet)
  - Keyword search can be highly effective
- Semi-structured data: contains some categorization, but lacks much in the way of structure
  - Structure and format are often inconsistent, even for the same type of document (e.g., blogs, web reviews)

Types of data

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Structured data

- Searching in a library catalog
- To find articles, books, and other library holdings, a library generally provides:
  - a database containing information on its holdings, and
  - a database frontends for users to interact with the database
    - e.g., IUCAT, WorldCat
- Users search for the occurrence of literal strings occurring in the author, title, keywords, call number, etc. associated with an item held by the library.

Basic searching with IUCAT

- Literal strings are composed of characters which naturally must be in the same character encoding system (e.g. ASCII, ISO8859-1, UTF-8) as the strings encoded in the database.
- For literal strings, the search engine generally does not distinguish between upper and lower-case letters
- Adjacent words are searched as a phrase.
  - art therapy
  - vitamin C
- For some types of engines, stop words are ignored in searches, unless enclosed in double quotes (a, an, as, at, be, but, by, do, for, if, in, is, it, of, on, the, to)
  - IUCAT gives different results, though, for art of therapy
**Information need**

Searching involves *information need*: the information a searcher is seeking

- Information need gets translated into a query, hoping to capture that information need
- This is an imperfect process

1. Information need: one or more Russian translations of the English word *table*
2. Possible query: *Russian translation table*

Information need is unambiguous; query is ambiguous

- Could be looking for a table/chart of Russian translations (which may not include the word *table*)

**Information need & evaluation**

To evaluate search technology, TREC expresses information needs in natural language

- Evaluation: judge particular documents as to whether they meet information need in such descriptions

More specifically, TREC defines “right answers” as:

*If you were writing a report on the subject of the topic and would use the information contained in the document in the report, then the document is relevant.*

(http://trec.nist.gov/data/rej judge_eng.html)

**Unstructured data**

No explicit categorization of the documents to be retrieved

- Related to doing a keyword search in unstructured data
- Scale of the data is different: e.g., billions of webpages to search through
  - Types of search operators & ways to improve searches can differ from structured data

Some “unstructured” data contains hidden structure

- e.g., webpages with Chinese-English translations

By unstructured, we mean:

- the structure is not predetermined
- it is not uniformly applied or standardized
- queries cannot be formulated on that particular type of structure

**Evaluating search results**

Use of information need can be seen in the evaluations for the Text REtrieval Conference (TREC, http://trec.nist.gov/)

```xml
<mnum>Numer: 393</mnum>
<title>Hubble Telescope Achievements</title>
<desc>Description: Identify positive accomplishments of the Hubble telescope since it was launched in 1991.

<narr>Narrative: Documents are relevant that show the Hubble telescope has produced new data, better quality data than previously available, data that has increased human knowledge of the universe, or data that has led to disproving previously existing theories or hypotheses. Documents limited to the shortcomings of the telescope would be irrelevant. Details of repairs or modifications to the telescope without reference to positive achievements would not be relevant.

</narr></desc>
```

**Searching the web**

A computer user

- wants to find something on “the web”, i.e., on files accessible via the hypertext transfer protocol (http) protocol on the internet
- goes to a *search engine* = program that matches documents to a user’s search requests
- enters a *query* = request for information
- gets a list of websites that might be relevant to the query
- evaluates the results: either picks a website with the information looked for or reformulates the query
The nature of the web

- Web pages are generally less structured than a record in a library database (with title, author, subject, and other fields).
- One generally searches for words found anywhere in the document.
- It is, however, possible to include meta data in a web page.
- Meta data is additional, structured information that is not shown in the web page itself.
  - e.g., the language a web page is in, its character encoding, author, keywords, etc.
  - Example for a meta tag: `<META name="keywords" lang="en-us" content="vacation, Greece">`

Search engines

- Search engines (e.g., Google)
  - store a copy of all web pages
  - create an index to provide efficient access to this large number of pages (e.g., Google currently searches over 1 trillion pages)
  - compute a rank for each web page to be able to rank the query results
- Some ways in which search engines can differ:
  - Treatment of word tokens:
    - stemming: treat bird and birds as the same or not
    - capitalization: treat Trip and Trip the same or not
  - Options for searching: use of operators or special interface for advanced searching
- how search results are ranked and potentially clustered (group similar results)

Search engine indexing

Manning et al (2008)

As a search engine crawls the web, it builds a term-by-document matrix

- shows which terms (i.e., words) appear in which documents
- e.g., for some mystery novels:

| Affair Styles Secret Adversary Sherlock Holmes |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
|     Poirot     |   1   |   0   |   0   |
|     Sherlock   |   0   |   0   |   1   |
|     adventure  |   1   |   1   |   1   |
| exceedingly    |   1   |   0   |   1   |
| strychnine     |   1   |   0   |   0   |
| subsided       |   1   |   0   |   1   |

1 denotes that the word appears in that document, and a 0 denotes that it does not

Inverted indexing

Matrix-building is done offline, i.e., before a search engine is queried

- We derive a representation which is faster for page look-up, namely an inverted index
- e.g., assuming every document has a unique ID:

| Poirot → 1, 4, 13, 15, 45, ... |
| Sherlock → 3, 111, ... |
| adventure → 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 15, ... |
| exceedingly → 1, 3, 11, 25, ... |
| strychnine → 1, 15, 60, ... |
| subsided → 1, 3, 12, 13, 25, ... |

Each term now points to a list of documents that it appears in

To search for, e.g., strychnine, we have an immediate list of documents that it appears in

Ranking of results

- Ideally, the webpages matching a query are returned as an ordered list based on a page’s relevance.
- How can a search engine, which does not understand language, determine the relevance of a particular page?

Information used to rank results

- counting the number of links to and from a page, to determine how popular a page is.
  - As a result, unpopular or new pages require a more specific query to be found.
- bonuses/penalties for known sites of high/low quality
- looking for keywords in metadata
- counting how often a web result was clicked on by a user (click-through measurement)
- various secret ingredients
Since users add much of the content, the way it is
heard: Smith’s Nancy Cartwright (I)

It’s like each site that links to A gets to vote for A, but
Links going out
We divide by the pages
But if we compare the number with website B, which
On its own, the number means nothing.
X casts 15 votes for A, Y casts 10, and Z casts 20:
A
5
X : 15
5
B
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Languages and
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Unstructured data

Weblinking

Example of how pages link
In this example, pages X, Y, and Z all link to page A.

A
X
Z
Y

Are these links better or worse than the links to page B?

B
X
V
W

That depends on how popular, or authoritative, the links are.

Weblinking

Figuring popularity

In order to compare how popular website A is as
compared to how popular website B is, we can add up
how popular each incoming site is.

In this example, pages X, Y, and Z all link to page A.

A
X : 15
5
B

Z : 20
Y : 10

But now A has 45 votes. That’s too many!

Weblinking

Factoring out outgoing links

The solution Google uses (called PageRank) is to spread
out each page’s votes through all the pages it links to.

A
5
X : 15
5
B

So, after spreading votes out among their different
webpages, let’s say A’s final score is: 12.

• On its own, the number means nothing.
• But if we compare the number with website B, which
we’ll say has a score of 10, A is more “authoritative”

Weblinking

Ranking with weblinks

To sum, there are two main things to consider when
calculating a ranking for a website based on its weblinks:

• Links coming in

• Links going out

The formula (for Google) is as follows, where R(A) means
rank of page A; C(X) means number of pages going out of X

\[
R(A) = \frac{R(X)}{C(X)} + \frac{R(Y)}{C(Y)} + \frac{R(Z)}{C(Z)}
\]

Weblinking

Explanation of weblinks ranking formula

1. We add up all the pages coming into page A because to
know how popular A is, we need to know how popular
everyone else thinks it is.

2. We divide by the pages going out of X, Y, and Z
because we’re spreading out its weight among all the
pages they link to.

• If we didn’t divide, page A would have a huge ranking.

This tells us how “popular” a site is, which is one factor used
in ranking results

Semi-structured data

Semi-structured data contains some categorization, but is
not fully structured

• e.g., Wikipedia entries, Internet Movie Database
(http://www.imdb.com)

• Since users add much of the content, the way it is
structured and categorized varies from user to user

Compare pages of two actors on IMDB (as of September 25,
2013):

• Nancy Cartwright (I), but Yeardley Smith (no (I))

• Yeardley Smith’s bio page listed Mini Biography, while
Nancy Cartwright’s bio page only listed Trivia.
Semi-structured example

**IMDB**

Some snippets of trivia about Yeardley Smith:

**Spouse**
Daniel Erickson    (18 May 2001 - 8 September 2008) (divorced)
Christopher Grove (1990 - 1992) (divorced)

**Trade Mark**
Best known as the voice of "Lisa Simpson" on the TV show "The Simpsons" (1989)

- To search for dates, they come in different formats with different information: 1989, 8 September 2008
  - Likely also dates listed on IMDB in the format September 8, 2008 or September 8, 2008
  - No field for "best-known-as", yet information is there

How would we do a search for actor "best known as"?

Motivating regular expressions

If one wants to be able to describe more complex patterns of words and text, sometimes boolean expressions aren’t enough:

- In a large document I want to find addresses with a zip code starting with 911 (around Pasadena, CA); but clearly we would not want to report back all occurrences of emergency phone numbers in the document.
- I want to find all Indiana email addresses which occur in a long text.

Anything where you have to match a complex pattern so-called **regular expressions** are useful.

Regular expressions: Tools that use them

- A variety of unix tools (grep, sed, . . . ), editors (emacs, jEdit, . . . ), and programming languages (perl, python, Java, . . . ) incorporate regular expressions.
- Implementations are very efficient so that large text files can be searched quickly; but still becoming efficient enough for web searching
- The various tools and languages differ w.r.t. the exact syntax of the regular expressions they allow.

The syntax of regular expressions (I)

Regular expressions consist of

- strings of literal characters: c, A10®, natural language, 30 years!
- disjunction:
  - ordinary disjunction: devoured|ate, familial|y, vies
  - character classes: [Tt]he|bec[o]me
  - ranges: [A-Z] (any capital letter)
- negation:
  - [^a] (any symbol but a)
  - [^A-Z0-9] (not an uppercase letter or number)

Regular expressions: What they are

- A regular expression is a compact description of a set of strings, i.e., a language (in formal language theory).
- They can be used to search for occurrences of these strings
- Regular expressions can only describe so-called regular languages.
- This means that some patterns cannot be specified using regular expressions, e.g., finding a string containing matching left and right parentheses.
- Note that just like any other formalism, regular expressions as such have no linguistic contents, but they can be used to refer to strings encoding a natural language text.

Consider this snippet of trivia about Nancy Cartwright:

- “Attended Ohio University from 1976-1978 as an interpersonal communication major and ...”
- What if we want to find where actors went to school?
- We have to find patterns like X University, Y College, University of Z, & misspelled variants

Consider Parker Posey’s bio:

- “Parker attended high school at R. H. Watkins High School in Laurel, Mississippi, and college at the prestigious SUNY Purchase.”
- University appears as U within an abbreviation.

⇒ We are describing a search for, not just specific strings, but for patterns in the data
The syntax of regular expressions (II)

- counters
  - optionality: ?
    - colour
  - any number of occurrences: * (Kleene star)
    - \d+ years
  - at least one occurrence: +
    - [\d-9]+ dollars
- wildcard for any character: .
  - beg..n for any character in between beg and n

Grep

- grep is a powerful and efficient program for searching in text files using regular expressions.
- It is standard on Unix, Linux, and Mac OSX, and there are also various ports to Windows (e.g.,
  - http://gnuwin32.sourceforge.net/packages/grep.htm
- The version of grep that supports the full set of operators mentioned above is generally called egrep
  (for extended grep).

The syntax of regular expressions (III)

- Escaped characters: to specify a character with a special meaning \( (\ast, +, ?, (, ), [, ]) \) it is preceded by a backslash \( \backslash \).
  - e.g., a period is expressed as \.\.
- Operator precedence, from highest to lowest:
  - parentheses ()
  - counters * + ?
  - character sequences
  - disjunction |
Corpora

- A corpus is a collection of text.
- Corpora with the works of various writers, newspaper texts, etc. have been collected and electronically encoded.
- Corpora can be quite large
- The British National Corpus is a 100 million word collection representing a wide cross-section of current written and spoken British English.

Corpora sometimes have interfaces allowing for regular expression searching.