Searching

- 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)

Types of data

1. **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
2. **Unstructured data**: much more available (e.g., the internet)
   - Keyword search can be highly effective
3. **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)

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
Special characters and operators

In addition to querying literal strings, the query language also supports the use of

- special **boolean expression** operations for combining two query strings
  - Use AND or OR to specify multiple words in any field, any order.
    - art OR therapy
    - Some engines offer XOR: e.g., art XOR therapy excludes “art therapy”
  - In principle: use parentheses to group words together when using more than one operator.
    - art therapy NOT ((music OR dance) therapy)
- Some engines offer special characters, like wildcards or truncation operators (IUCAT no longer does)
- IUCAT automatically checks variant stems

See https://kb.iu.edu/d/agya

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) a. Information need: one or more Russian translations of the English word *table*
   b. 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/reljudge_eng.html)

Unstructured data

No explicit categorization of the documents to be retrieved

- Related to doing a keyword search in structured 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/)

<top>

<title> Hubble Telescope Achievements</title>

<desc> Description: Identify positive accomplishments of the Hubble telescope since it was launched in 1991. </desc>

<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>

</top>

Searching the web

A computer user

- wants to find something on “the web”, i.e., in 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 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Affair at Styles</th>
<th>Secret Adversary</th>
<th>Sherlock Holmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poirot</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sherlock</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adventure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exceedingly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strychnine</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsided</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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?

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 (grouped into similar results)

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 | 3, 11, 25, ... |
  | strychnine | 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

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
**Weblinking**

**Example of how pages link**

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

![Diagram of links between pages X, Y, Z, and B]

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

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

**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.

![Diagram showing outgoing links from page A to pages X, Y, and Z]

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**

**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.

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**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.
- It’s like each site that links to A gets to vote for A, but they get so many votes based on how popular each one of them is.

  - e.g., X casts 15 votes for A, Y casts 10, and Z casts 20:

  ![Diagram showing links and votes]

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

**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

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

**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 February 25, 2015):

- Nancy Cartwright (l), but Yeardley Smith (no (l))
- Bio pages list salaries, but only for some works
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.

Semi-structured example

IMDB

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.

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.

The syntax of regular expressions (I)

Regular expressions consist of

- strings of literal characters: £, dude2, 30 years!,
- natural language
- disjunction:
  - ordinary disjunction: devoured|ate, family|ties
  - character classes: [Tt]he, be[c,o]me
  - ranges: [A-Z] (any capital letter)
- negation:
  - [^a] (any symbol but a)
  - [^A-Z0-9] (not an uppercase letter or number)
**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, http://www.interlog.com/~tcharonn/grep.html or http://www.wingrep.com/).
- The version of grep that supports the full set of operators mentioned above is generally called egrep (extended grep).
- disjunction (|): `egrep 'couch|sofa' f.txt` matches couch or sofa
- grouping with parentheses: `egrep 'un(interest|exciting)' f.txt` matches uninteresting or unexciting.
- Any character (?): `egrep 'o.e' f.txt` matches ore, one, ole

**The version of grep that supports the full set of operators mentioned above is generally called egrep (for extended grep).**

**Escaped characters:** to specify a character with a special meaning (\*, +, ?, (, ), |, [ , ] ) it is preceded by a backslash (\)
- e.g., a period is expressed as \.
- Operator precedence, from highest to lowest:
  - parentheses ()
  - optionality (?)
  - disjunction ( | )
  - Kleene star (*)
  - One or more (+)
- Character classes:
  - \[0-9\]+ dollars
- Strings of literal characters:
  - egrep 'why?' f.txt

**Grep: Examples for using regular expressions**

In the following, we assume a text file `f.txt` containing, among others, the strings that we mention as matching.

- Strings of literal characters:
  - `egrep 'and' f.txt` matches and, Ayn, Rand, Candy and so on
- Character classes:
  - `egrep 'the year [0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9]' f.txt` matches the year 1776, the year 1812, the year 2001, and so on
  - `egrep 'why[?\]' f.txt` matches why?, whereas
  - `egrep 'why?' f.txt` matches why and wh

**Kleene star (\*)**:
- `egrep 'a*rgh' f.txt` matches argh, aargh, aaargh
- `egrep 'sha(la)*' f.txt` matches sha, shala, shalala, or shalalalalalalalala

**One or more (+)**:
- `egrep 'john+y' f.txt` matches johny, johnny, . . . , but not john

**Optionality (\?)**:
- `egrep 'joh?n' f.txt` matches jon and john
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

- Good (non-RE) search interface: http://corpus.byu.edu