

INFORMATION RETRIEVAL IN CONTEXT: A STATE OF THE ART

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Abstract :The results provided by the general purpose search engines in response to user queries are often too general and do not satisfy the information needs of the user. This is in part due to the inability of the average user to form an accurate query that reflects his information need. Such queries are often short. If the context in which the user is carrying out his search can be somehow captured, it will help to narrow down the search results thereby enhancing the user experience. Several researchers have strived to improve the user search experience by incorporating the notion of context in information retrieval. Apparently, context can denote different things. This paper is an attempt to summarize the efforts of different researchers and present a state of the art with regards to using context in information retrieval to improve user experience.

Keywords:- context, information retrieval, query intent, personal interest, document quality, search evaluation

1. Introduction

Context can be viewed broadly in two ways. In the first perspective, context can be defined as the circumstances that form the setting for an event, statement, or idea, and in terms of which it can be fully understood and assessed. Although such a point of view is rooted in strategically important disciplines like user behavior, cognition or human interaction, it cannot fully help see how to proceed with what should be observed and computed for implementing context within an IR system. At the other extreme, context can be viewed as the parts that immediately precede and follow a word or passage and clarify its meaning. The definition of context as a text window around a word is easier to implement and is strictly related to the nature of text and is part of common sense.

Search context can be captured from different aspects such as **content, geographical, interaction, and social**. Content variables refer to features observed from text, image, video, audio, link anchors etc. Examples of geographical variables are names added to documents or queries, digital photographs tagged with geographical coordinates and the latitude and longitude of the location associated to a user. Interaction variables refer to the interaction between users and IR systems. Click-through data, data about queries or search sessions and user behavior data (e.g., document retention, display time, eye or mouse movements) are some of the examples. Social variables are observed from social media such as tweets and friendships).

If the items of a context are gathered together, a sort of relation is obtained. Saracevic [153, p. 1918] suggested an understanding of relevance as a relation. According to this understanding, relevance is a relation over information objects and contexts which include information needs, tasks, and other elements. In Saracevic's view, context is an element of relevance ("Relevance has a context") and it is viewed as a complex, dynamic "interaction between a number of external and internal aspects, from a physical situation to cognitive and affective states, to motivations and beliefs, to situations, and back to feedback and resolution." Context is "ambiguous, even amorphous" and at most "context is a plural." In the review of relevance authored by Mizzaro [63], context "includes everything not pertaining to topic and task, but however affecting the way the search takes place and the evaluation of results."

Azzopardi [8] gives a thorough study that starts from theoretical issues, investigates whether and how language models can be an efficient and effective theoretical framework for contextual search, and ends with experiments. Bai et al. [9, 10] are examples of text window-based context with co-occurrence analysis. Bartholomew et al. [11] provide a perspective of the factorial models that are relevant to the notion of computational framework presented in this survey. Bian et al. [13] are worth reading as for the Expectation-Maximization algorithm. Blei et al. [14]'s is the original publication on latent Dirichlet allocations. The notion of geographical variable is discussed by Cai [18]. The remarks made by Chakrabarti et al. [22] on how to build an effective model and avoid bias, overfitting, etc. are useful to a newcomer to machine learning because they explain basic issues in a realistic scenario. Croft and Lafferty [25] survey language models for IR. The study by Efthimiadis [30] describes query expansion.

Inmon [34, 39] introduced the notion of time-variancy and viewed click-through datasets as an instance of data warehouses. Jones and Purves [46] provide a useful reference on the issues of geographical variables. Implicit relevance feedback is explored by Kelly and Belkin [95, 96], Kelly and Fu [97], Kelly et al. [98] and Kelly [48, 49, 50]. The survey by Lalmas and Ruthven [107] provides a precise, recent and exhaustive account of relevance feedback.

Lau et al. [52] address context at difference abstraction levels, from the conceptual, to the logical up to the statistical level. Lau et al. [53] present an interesting application of

their theoretical framework and show that the vector space model is still a good baseline for search in context. The notion of geographical variable is also discussed by Reichenbacher [65] and Reichenbacher and De Sabbata [66].

2. Query Intent

Computing statistical distributions of click-through data was studied by Lee et al. [54] who were among the early researchers who postulated a relationship between query intent and click-through data. A relationship was found between query intent and query frequency. In particular, Downey et al. [29] found that users behave according to query frequency or to URL frequency — for example, search session length increases when the query is rare. There is not only a relationship between query intent and search session length; query intent evolves over time, as reported by Kulkarni et al. [105]. The fact that click-through data are not always good predictors especially when queries are rare has been confirmed within contextual advertising by Ashkan et al. [6].

Markov chains are an alternative, yet similar approach to contextual advertising as suggested by Li et al. [55]. The basic idea of Li et al. is that the greater the number of users who clicked an advertisement from a page is, the higher the relevance between the advertisement and the page. A similar yet independently conceived approach based on click-through data and session data is illustrated by Cao et al. [21]. A session is the sequence of queries issued by the same user immediately before the current query; this is a simple instance of context used for detecting the underlying intent.

Attenberg et al. [7] observe the users' trails starting from links displayed in a search engine result page until the (inferred) end of the trail. These detailed data about the users' trails highlight some facts about the relationship between click-through data and query intent.

The effectiveness of click-through data depends on the amount of historical data which are available for estimation and prediction. This is observed by Shen et al. [156] where it is reported that the performance improvement is more substantial for precision at the top 20 documents than for precision at the top 10 documents. An approach to query intent detection using eye-tracking is described by Guo and Agichtein [66].

It is possible to predict query intent by looking at the user's past search behavior according to Teevan et al. [72]. To this end, the authors automatically identified a set of navigational queries from the query logs followed by the same result — this identification is based on click entropy. Teevan et al., however, had to make quite a strong yet acceptable assumption, that is, low click entropy is a good approximation of similar intents.

Query intent detection that is based on search engine result page has been studied within a contextual advertising perspective by Ashkan and Clarke [5]. Query intent detection that is based on classification has been investigated by Broder et al. [17]. Their approach seems promising since the classification accuracy can be maximized by an appropriate quantity of documents given as input. This accuracy rises as the number of documents in a search engine result page increases, and drops when using too few documents due to too little external knowledge, or when using too many results due to extra noise.

Broder et al. [17] have used search engine result pages to obtain additional information for query intent detection. To this end, the authors employ pseudo relevance feedback and assume the top search results to be relevant to the query. As not many results are equally relevant, the given query is dispatched to a general WWW search engine, the top-ranked documents are selected and the WWW pages indicated by these top-ranked documents are retrieved. Then, the document classifier classifies the search results into the same taxonomy into which queries are to be classified. The classifier was trained by human editors who populated the taxonomy nodes with labeled examples.

Ganti et al. [33] use the corpus of advertising bids used in sponsored search. In sponsored search, each advertiser lists the queries against which an ad should be shown — as this is actually a bid, these queries are called bid-phrases. An immediate application of query intent prediction is to suggest queries to the user. The aim is to predict users' tasks based on implicit relevance feedback data (e.g., user behavior). This problem is addressed by Cheng et al. [24] where the authors propose to mine the latent search intent by using their own framework (i.e., SearchTrigger, that is, a query is triggered by the content of the browsed page) to suggest queries to users when they are browsing.

An analysis in workplace is also performed by Campbell et al. [19]. Their approach is centered on a document usage-based similarity matrix which thus defines the contextual relationships between documents. It is worth noting that the idea of context as document network was introduced early by Belkin et al. [12]. Further studies were performed by researchers in automatic hypertext construction who found that the effectiveness provided by automatic document link detection quickly decreases as the user clicks on documents after issuing a query as reported by Melucci [61].

In the current literature, the taxonomy introduced by Broder [26] has become quite well accepted because it allows researchers to simplify the methods for classifying intents. Broder suggests classifying the queries issued to a search

engine as informational, navigational, and transactional. According to Dai et al. [26], the classification of queries into navigational and informational is not the only one possible. In electronic commerce, further understanding of commercial intents is crucial.

The idea that there is a significant correlation between a geographical location and an event has been tested and implemented by Abrol an Khan [1] who have proposed a geographical contextual search called TWinner. Geographical names are necessary yet not sufficient to detect geographical intent, thus requiring other query features. An application of this evidence has been reported by Yi et al. [74] and consists of tagging query words using a sort of part-of-speech tagger.

3. Personal Interest

Personalization is not the only term encountered in the literature of contextual search for denoting the adaptation of a contextual search system to the user. Pitkow et al.[64]were among those researchers who distinguished between contextualization and individualization as the two extremes of a wide range of contextual search methods.

The issues raised by the appropriateness of personalization are addressed by Luxenburger et al. [122] who aim to select the queries that are expected to benefit from the user's history. To this end, the authors introduce different granularity levels of a user profile and propose language models for modeling the user's tasks.

Attenberg et al. [11] pay a great deal of attention on the user activity performed on the sponsored search advertisements displayed by search engines next to conventional search engine result pages. Melucci and White [62] present a formal framework based on vector spaces that captures multiple aspects of user interaction and allows a new mathematical model of implicit relevance feedback to be developed. The model uses display time, document retention, and interaction events to build a multi-faceted user interest profile.

Query expansion is perhaps the most widespread method for extracting evidence about personal interest and in general from context. The paper written by Pitkow et al. [137] was one of the earliest on contextual search and in particular on using query expansion for meeting personal interests. To our knowledge, they were the first to mention the idea of comparing the current query with something else for deciding whether personalization is worth performing.

Similarly, using categories (e.g., those from the ODP) is useful to improve effectiveness according to Ma et al. [123]. When query expansion selects the number of expansion terms depending on the user and on the the user's query, it

outperforms both the original ranking and the personalization in the case of a fixed number of expansion terms as Dang and Croft [27] and Luxenburger et al. [59] report.

A formalization of the combination of click-through data, content and user profiles has been described by Sontag et al. [69]. Basically, probability distributions were extensively used in that paper for modeling every entity playing a role in a contextual search system. Thus, relevance and contextual variables are modeled as random variables, feedback is modeled as probability update through the Bayes rule, decision is supported by divergence measures. When query expansion is insufficient, it might be integrated by the user's search history as proposed by Liu et al. [121] who propose modeling and gathering the user's search history. Jones et al. [47] described a method for query modification that is based on past users' queries, phrase similarity, and query suggestion ranking. Finally, a combination of social variables and geographical variables is described by Kinsella et al. [51]. This is another example of how language models can be exploited for modeling and integrating diverse contextual variables together.

As natural disasters heavily involve people, the user is likely to be more interested in such an event if he is connected with friends or relative involved by the event. Yom-Tov and Diaz [75] investigate how the users' information need is affected by the number of their acquaintances who may be involved by the event.

4. Contextual Search Evaluation

Once a system for contextual search is developed, it is important to evaluate it to see how it performs. Over the years, several standard data collections have been used by researchers from the information retrieval community to evaluate their work. Some such data collections as used by the researchers are presented in this section.

Agosti [2] reports some guidelines on evaluation within DLs which is a natural area where contextual search may be applied. Almeida and Almeida [3] use a company intranet repository. Anast´acio et al. [4] address semi anonymity when geographical variables are exploited. Bai et al. [14, 15] use TREC collections. Bian et al. [13] use LETOR and TREC collections.

Broder et al. [16] use corpora. Campbell et al. [19] use a company intranet repository. Campbell et al. [19] use corpora produced from company intranets. Cao et al. [20] use the ACM KDD Cup data set. Chapelle et al. [23]'s research work report interleaving as an alternative approach to collecting relevance assessments, since the conventional Cranfield-based approach to evaluation is not free of draw-

backs although it is the most used and well accepted in non-contextual search.

Dai et al. [49] use “live” WWW. Dang and Croft [50] use TREC collections. Dang and Croft [50]’s work is an example of careful design and detailed implementation allow to collect many useful data about user interaction at no cost and preserving the user’s privacy. Diaz [28] uses “live” WWW. Finkelstein et al. [31] use a corpus extracted from a CD-ROM. Freund et al. [32] use corpora produced from company intranets. Guo and Agichtein [34]; Harvey et al. [69] use “live” WWW.

Haveliwala [35] uses a corpus extracted from a WWW site. Hawking and Craswell [36] report on using the WWW track of TREC .gov collection. Hu et al. [75] use logs (around 20 million WWW queries collected from around 650,000 Web users). Hu et al. [76] use a corpus extracted from a WWW site. Ingwersen [37] reports on evaluation from both an information seeking and retrieval and operational point of view. Jansen and Spink [44] use logs (nine major commercial search engine anonymized and well prepared query logs); see also Jansen and Spink [85]; Jansen et al. [41, 62, 43]. Jansen [40]’s paper is a useful side-effect is the public availability of the data set. Joachims [45] uses corpora. Kelly [94] provides a complete account on some approaches to interactive IR evaluation illustrated by Ingwersen. Lau et al. [52, 53] use TREC collections. Li et al. [56, 57] illustrate an interesting approach to automatic training set construction. Liu et al. [58] use a series of small data sets that have been built with user cooperation.

Ma et al. [60] use “live” WWW. Sanderson [67] surveys the most general issues of Cranfield style-based evaluation. Shen et al. [68] use TREC collections. Spink [70] discusses the potential of user behavior and interaction variables. Teevan et al. [71] use “live” WWW. Yue and Joachims [76] use TREC collections. van Rijsbergen [73] and the publications cited in Section 1.4 are worth reading from an evaluation point of view.

5. Conclusions

Modeling and implementing context is not sufficient means for improving IR effectiveness, since additional research areas such as Economics , Cognition should be explored to help the IR researchers to better understand contextual search . If Research is done on the combining of different statistical methods it would be of more effective nature , the method at hand is applied to only text if it is applied for of non-textual sources of evidence and content is a great opportunity for the researcher in contextual search . That there is so much competition in “context” software indicates just how important all the giants of technology think it will

be. Google, of course, has an early head start. (It also already has a close relationship with Everything.Me Contextual-based software still uses search engines to locate and deliver information, but users no longer have to interact with a search engine directly.

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