Abstract

With so much information available on the web, looking for relevant documents on the Internet has become a tough task. In this paper we present as approach which is a match between a query-based Google and a category-based Yahoo. WISE is a web page hierarchical clustering system, language and topic independent, supported by a graph based overlapping algorithm that groups web relevant pages into a hierarchy of properly labeled overlapping clusters. We consider phrases instead of single words, web content mining techniques to represent the documents, and an hierarchical soft clustering approach as opposed to a flat clustering one. Together, this will improve the organization of the results, enhancing the experience of looking for relevant and hide documents and helping on solving the synonym and ambiguity problem.

Key Words: search engines; hierarchical web page clustering; web information search and retrieval; web mining; web intelligence;

1. Introduction

Current search engines return lists of ranked urls with their title and their snippet (a short description of the document), but still fail to find relevant contents and to present them in an organized way. In this process, the user is required to go through the extensive list of the retrieved results, before concluding that the relevance defined by the search engines, does not satisfy its needs.

Whilst traditional search engines continue to present data in a linear fashion, some commercial approaches, like Vivisimo (www.vivisimo.com), iBoogie (www.iboogie.com), Clusty (clusty.com) and Grokker (www.grokker.com), began to present it in a partitioning hierarchical one, an innovative approach in information retrieval, that helps users in the process of seeking for relevant web pages, otherwise undiscovered due to their location in the ranking list. Known as post-retrieval document browsing or ephemeral clustering, this process doesn’t even require the use of pre-defined categories, like in classification methods [1], what makes it to be a bottom-up process with the categories being part of the output rather than part of the input [2].

In this paper, we present a meta-search engine called WISE that builds soft hierarchical clusters on the fly, without pre-defined groups or pre-built knowledge bases, by applying an overlapping clustering algorithm called PoBOC (see [6]), which is graph based and allows a document to be in multiple clusters (overlap), reflecting the fact that a web page may contain different meanings of the query terms. To represent the contents of the web documents, we use web content mining techniques, introduced in the context of the Webspy software (see [3]), and statistical methodologies for phrase detection, with the use of SENTA software (see [4], [5]).

The system, instead using web snippets, fully analyzes web pages in its entirety, increasing its recall. Web page clustering is a challenging variant of web snippet clustering, but as [7] refer, there is a closer relationship between the analysis of the overall web page and the quality of the final results, increasing the likelihood of retrieving relevant phrases and quality hierarchical clusters, as more information is considered in the analysis. By doing this, we also keep independent of the quality of the web snippets retrieved, regardless the particularities of each search engine.

Overall, we think our solution is innovative, as the system shows interesting ability to find, analyze and understand the content of the web pages, disambiguate the query and organize all the information retrieved by any search engine in response to a query language and topic independent. A good illustrative example is the following: suppose we perform the query Benfica in the system. So, instead of presenting a list of results, it will present two main clusters: one related with the well-known Portuguese football team, and the other one related to the neighborhood of Lisbon named Benfica. We will see this in detail in the case study result.

Following, we provide a survey of the current literature and the state-of-the-art in the field. Then we explain our main contributions defining the architecture and its implementation, to finally show some case study results, detail conclusions and propose some ideas for future work.

2. Related Work

In this section, we provide a survey of all different approaches proposed so far. Table 1 summarizes all these works.

<table>
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<th>Table 1. Different approaches to web snippet clustering.</th>
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The first step of any of these systems is to select a set of keywords (also known as keys or topic concepts) to summarize and describe each document. [7], [8], [9] rely on choosing the k most significant words of the document based on term frequency and inverse document frequency (also called TF.IDF [10]), whilst [1], [11], [12], [13], [14], use shared n-grams between the web snippets. [15] use concept lattice to return as relevant terms the neighbors of
the focus concept by taking advantage of word proximity. [16] adopt a hybrid solution by considering the vector space model and shared n-grams representation. [17] use topicality and predictive properties to find relevant terms. [2] consider key topics as pairs of words linked by lexical affinity and finally, [18] select as document features, noun phrases and single words that are single nouns or adjectives. The different approaches also distinguish themselves, as shown in Table 1, by the match of the following two items:

1. Single words or phrases and
2. Flat or hierarchical clustering

The simplest case is the match between flat clustering (only one-level partitioning of the data) and single words, whilst the general case is the match between hierarchical clustering and phrases. In the simplest case using a k-means algorithm is Scatter/Gather [19], one of the firsts to appear, although it has never been tested on web environment. Another one is Retriever [14], which clusters the results returned from a search engine based on a relational fuzzy clustering algorithm (RFCMdd) and the identification of k-medoids. Mooter (www.mooter.com), a commercial search engine, also belongs to this category.

Grouper, developed by [13], is the first to do flat clustering with phrases. They propose an algorithm named Suffix Tree Clustering, where each node of the tree is a phrase and a base cluster (documents sharing a phrase). [1] extract phrases as candidate cluster names based on a regression model over five different features and the clusters are generated by merging the documents that share the same phrases with a given threshold. Lingo, developed by [9], uses Single Value Decomposition (SVD) over the document distribution of words and phrases to perform the same task.

FIHC, developed by [8], provides hierarchical clustering but with single words. The clustering process is based on the idea of frequent itemsets which are a set of words that co-occur in some minimum fraction of documents in a given cluster. CREDO (credo.fub.it), developed by [15], uses single words and the concept of lattice to produce hierarchical clustering.

The match between hierarchical clustering and phrases seems to be the best approach as [7] show improved results compared to others. SnakeT, developed by [7], uses a snippet analyzer extracting phrases such as named entities by applying part of speech tagging and using a simple threshold to evaluate if a phrase appears in other documents. The hierarchy construction process consists, like many other works described here, in the following: documents sharing the same sentence belong to the same cluster. DisCover, developed by [18], tries to discover the maximum number of documents that can be described or covered by a set of features which are generally noun phrases and single words that are single nouns or adjectives. SHOC, developed by [12], uses an algorithm based on suffix arrays for key phrase discovery and uses SVD to reduce data sparseness before applying hierarchical clustering. Tumba, developed by [11], considers phrases as groups of two words co-occurring and uses the STC clustering algorithm (developed by [13]) and the subsumption algorithm (developed by [20]) to produce the hierarchy of concepts. MSEEC, developed by [16], discovers phrases by using a clustering algorithm based on the LZW compression method and produces hierarchical clusters with the modified theme detection method which is basically a hybrid solution as it considers a theme candidate to be a cluster based on the frequency of its concurrence and if it is contained in more than one document. The system called CIIRarchies, developed by [17], uses a probabilistic technique to find phrases combined with a threshold and a pre-computed language model which combines the use of two properties (topicality and predictiveness) to find topical terms in a document and builds a hierarchy using a recursive algorithm. LAH (Lexical Affinities Hierarchical clustering) developed by [2], considers key topics as pairs of words linked by a lexical affinity where LA stands for a correlation of their common appearance combined with an optimal agglomerative complete-link hierarchical clustering algorithm. We can also find in this category the following commercial search engines although their technology is not public available: Vivisimo, iBoogie, Clusty and Grokker.

It is important to notice that all these methods share the use of titles, stop words and stemming algorithms. If in one hand their solution becomes faster, on the other hand, it becomes language-dependent, hindering their adaptation to real-world environment. The systems use web snippets and only two works try to raise their knowledge by adding more information: [7], the most up-to-date system in the field, enriches web snippets by adding two existing knowledge bases previously compiled and thus static, whilst [1] considers the use of several features to extract key concepts from snippets, something similar to our approach, but only based on flat clustering.

Overall, the works published, have ignored the potential of using web content mining techniques to semantically analyze web pages, hindering the full understanding of web documents. As a consequence, the ambiguity problem (a query term may have more than one meaning) and the synonymy problem (web documents may only have just synonyms of the query term), which are central issues in the context of modern IR that tend to get worse when the user is not familiar with the topic he is looking for, still remain unsolved. In addition, the systems are language dependent once they use stop words and stemming algorithms, and most part of the clustering algorithms used, require the user to specify the number of clusters as an input parameter, and use thresholds to evaluate if a document belongs to a cluster or not.
To deal with these drawbacks, we propose a hierarchical soft clustering phrases approach. For that purpose we use web content mining techniques to extract key concepts from documents, combined with a statistical phrase extractor named SENTA and soft clustering algorithm called PoBOC, both parameter free. In the following section we fully detail its architecture.

3. The Architecture of Wise

WISE is a web search system. Unlike all the methodologies proposed so far in the literature, our full text based analysis system, doesn’t considers the use of stopwords, stemming algorithms nor thresholds, being completely language and topic independent. Its architecture is modular, and each part of it, can easily be used individually by other researchers.

In response to a query (the user can choose which search engine will run it), the system returns a page with a set of clusters and their associated key concepts which are keywords representing the web documents, within which is a list of urls that can belong to more than one cluster, so that the user can easily choose the web page he wants to see. Our algorithm is composed of five steps:

1. Search results gathering;
2. Selection of relevant web pages;
3. Document parsing for phrase extraction;
4. Document parsing for key concept extraction;
5. Hierarchical clustering and labeling.

As a result, we propose a structured catalogue of retrieved urls instead of an ordered list of relevant documents. The overall architecture is formalized below, based on the five steps mentioned above.

The first step is formalized in Equation 1 where $q$ is the query, $d_i$ a document, $r_i$ a function of a search engine $s$, which computes the probability of relevance between $q$ and $d_i$ so that $R$ is the set of the retrieved $n$ documents by the search engine for the query.

$$ R = r_i(d_i | q), \forall i, i = 1, \ldots, n. \quad (1) $$

The set of the retrieved documents, are nonetheless treated as if they had equal relevance, disregarding the fact that the estimated relevance of a document decreases as more results are gathered with many of the urls returned having little or no connection with the query [14], probably decreasing the quality of the final cluster results. For that reason, we developed a new extraction method of relevant web pages that ignores some of the retrieved documents and adds some others.

3.1. Selection of Relevant Web Pages

So in the second step, we apply a selection function over $R$ as defined in Equation 2:

$$ R' = select(R). \quad (2) $$

where $select$ is the algorithm that selects the most relevant documents over the set of web pages search results, by selecting:

1. any absolute url retrieved (i.e. the web domain) and
2. any relative url which number of occurrences (i.e. the number of times that for each retrieved url, its web domain appears in the list of the results) exceeds the $average\_relevance$ value, defined in Equation 3, where “$\# \text{ different absolute urls}$” is the number of distinct absolute retrieved urls (i.e. web domains).

$$ average\_relevance = \frac{R}{\# \text{ different absolute urls}} \quad (3) $$

In order to better understand our procedure, consider Figure 1, where the average relevance takes the value 4/3 (the equivalent to 1.33333). So our system will select, regardless its number of occurrences, all the absolute URLs retrieved (in this case, www.vodafone.com and www.manutd.com) and disregard all the relative URLs whose number of occurrences is below the calculated average relevance (in this case the website http://geocities/mobiles/test.html).

![Figure 1: Selection of Relevant WebPages.](image)

Additionally, considering that some web pages are not properly indexed and consequently not captured, although probably related to the query, the algorithm extends the list of web pages previously selected (see Figure 2). For that purpose, for each absolute url retrieved, we rerun again the search engine over the same query, in order to catch its $n$ best pages (being $n$ a fixed value).

![Figure 2: Catch the $n$ best pages of each absolute URL.](image)

Next we parse the documents for phrase extraction. This would benefit the work of search engines in the process of classification, by returning more intuitive key concepts and cluster titles. Nevertheless, disregarding the use of phrases is a loss of valuable information [13], most traditional search engines keep treating each document as a bag of single words ignoring important contextual information that would increment the knowledge obtained from the documents as it is shown in [21], [22], [23], [24], [25], [26] and [27].

3.2. Document Parsing for Phrase Extraction

So in this third step we use SENTA [4], [28], a statistical methodology that uses three basic concepts:
position n-grams (ordered vector of words), the association measure Mutual Expectation (ME) [28] and the GenLocalMaxs algorithm [29]. SENTA is based on a well-founded mathematical model and has been implemented using suffix arrays and the Multikey Quicksort algorithm [5] to be used in real-world applications. The ME is based on the concept of Normalized Expectation (NE), whose basic idea is to evaluate the cost, in terms of cohesion, of losing a word in a positional n-gram. Thus, the more a set of words is joined, the less it accepts the loss of any of its components and higher its NE value should be. Also, knowing that one of the most relevant criterions to identify phrases is their frequency [30], [31], the ME of any positional n-gram is defined as the product of its NE and its relative frequency. Then, the GenLocalMaxs algorithm searches for positional n-grams which ME value is a local maxima and define them as phrases. These multiword units then replace the single words in the set of relevant web pages.

This step is defined in Equation 4, where each document within $R'$ is parsed by SENTA to extract phrases, which subsequently replace the relevant sequences of single words, giving rise to a new set of documents known as $S$:

$$S = \text{sent}(d_j), \forall d_j \in R', j=1,...,#R'. \quad (4)$$

Each phrase (from now on we indistinctively refer to phrases, as terms in the documents i.e. single words or multiword) of the document is represented by a set of eight properties calculated during the next step.

3.3. Document Parsing for Key Concept Extraction

As [15] refer, search engines suffer from a lack of a concise representation of the retrieved documents. [17] consider that the main challenge in creating hierarchical clusters is to select terms that will accurately describe the documents. Instead of using vector space model, shared n-grams, etc., our system uses web content mining techniques to extract web knowledge (possibly hidden) by analyzing the content of the documents [32], relying on the definition of eight features (below introduced), divided into two categories: the first six characterizing the importance of the phrase in the document and the following two evaluating the relationship between the phrase and the query in the document collection.

In the following we present the eight properties, representing the current phrase as $x$, the documents $d_j$, $j=1,...,n$, as being all the documents where $x$ occurs, $#d_j$ as being the total number of phrases in the document $d_j$, and the query as $q$. All the features that depend on the number of documents are normalized to give a value between [0;1].

Inverse Document Frequency

This feature was proposed by [10] and represents the dispersion of a given $x$ in the set of documents where $x$ appears i.e. $d_j, j=1,...,n$. Equation 5 gives the non normalized equation.

$$IDF(x) = \log_2 \frac{#R'}{n} \quad (5)$$

The IDF measure retrieves a value between $[0;+\infty]$. However, to be size-independent, we need to normalize this measure, so that it returns a value between $[0;1]$. This is done by introducing Equation 6.

$$IDF(x) = \frac{IDF(x)}{\log_2 #R'} \quad (6)$$

Normalized Text Frequency

This feature, given by Equation 7, is the average frequency of each word in the set of documents where $numOcur(x|d_j)$ is the number of occurrences of $x$ in the document $d_j$.

$$TF(x) = \frac{n \sum_{j=1}^{#d_j} numOcur(x|d_j)}{n} \quad (7)$$

Normalized Density

The normalized density is based on the same idea as the rank analysis used in automatic global analysis [33]. It is given by Equation 8 and 9, and is the average of a feature named AD (Average Distance), calculated over all the documents where $x$ appears. Generally, we define AD as the normalized distance between all the occurrences of $x$ in the document $d_j$ as follows where $dist$ is a function that calculates the distance between consecutive occurrences of $x$. If $x$ appears just one time in the document $d_j$, then $AD(x,d_j) = 0$.

$$AD(x,d_j) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{numOcur(x|d_j)} \frac{1}{dist(x_{j+1},x_j)}}{#d_j}, j=1,...,n. \quad (8)$$

Consider Figure 3 where $AD(x,d_j) = \frac{\frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{5}}{2}$.

**Figure 3:** Distance between all the occurrences of $x$ in doc $d_1$.

The normalized density $ND$ is then defined as follows in Equation 9.

$$ND(x) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{#d_j} AD(x,d_j)}{n} \quad (9)$$

Normalized First Position

As in [34], we use the normalized first position feature (terms at the beginning of the document tend to be more important), given by Equation 10 where $fp(x|d_j)$ is a
function that counts the number of phrases behind the first occurrence of \( x \) in the document \( d_j \), i.e., if \( x \) occurs in a document, the system considers its first occurrence, counting the number of terms behind it and calculating its average over all the documents considered.

\[
FP = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} fp(x \mid d_j)}{\#d_j \over n} \quad (10)
\]

**Size in Characters**

The feature size is simply the count of characters of \( x \) and retrieves a value between \([0; size(x)]\).

**Capital Letters**

The feature represents the number of capital letters of \( x \) which is between \([0; capital(x)]\).

**Equivalence Index**

The Equivalence Index [35] is a co-occurrence measure which evaluates the strength existing between \( x \) and \( q \). This measure is defined in Equation 11 where \( f(x,q) \) is the absolute frequency of \( x \) and \( q \) occur simultaneously in a window of \( n \) characters and \( f(x) \) and \( f(q) \) are respectively the absolute frequencies of \( x \) and \( q \).

\[
EI(x, q) = \frac{f(x,q)}{f(x) f(q)} \quad (11)
\]

Considerer the following example, where \( d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4 \) and \( d_5 \) are five documents retrieved by the search engine, \( x \) the term and \( q \) the query. According to Figure 4 \( f(x,q)=5 \), \( f(x)=6 \), \( f(q)=7 \), being \( EI(x, q) = \frac{5^2}{6\times7} \).

![Figure 4: Strength existent between x and q.](image)

**Normalized Distance to the Query**

This feature, given by Equation 12 and 13, is the average of a feature named SD (Shorter Distance), calculated over all the documents where \( x \) appears. Generally, we define SD as the shortest normalized distance between \( x \) and \( q \) in the document \( d_j \) as follows where \( fdist \) is a function that calculates the shortest distance between the occurrences of \( x \) and \( q \) in the document \( d_j \).

\[
SD(x, q, d_j) = \frac{fdist(x, q, d_j)}{\#d_j}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, n \quad (12)
\]

According to Figure 5, \( SD(x,q,d1) \) would be 7.

![Figure 5: Shortest distance between x and q in document d1.](image)

The normalized distance to the query is then defined as follows in Equation 13.

\[
DQ(x, q) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} SD(x, q, d_j)}{n} \quad (13)
\]

To combine these eight properties into a single score, we apply, for each phrase of a document, a decision tree model (C5.0 class). It is clear, as many authors have shown [34], that decision trees apply particularly well to textual data. As [1] refer, although a supervised learning method requires additional training data, it makes the performance of search result grouping significantly improved (particular tests were made with linear regression and neural networks, leading to inferior results). The decision tree was built over 5 pruned decision trees previously trained using a 5-fold cross validation and applying over-sampling to avoid data sparseness. The model was trained over a set of newspapers article gathering three distinct domains (sports, politics and society) in order to assure its generality, domain and topic independence, obtaining 82.49% of average precision over the five test data to classify positive and negative examples, and 60.72% average precision over the same five test data to classify only positive examples.

As a result of the webspy decision tree, each document \( d_j \) of \( S \), is therefore represented as a vector of key concepts \( k_c \) as formalized in Equation 14

\[
k_c = webspy(d_j \mid q), \quad d_j \in S. \quad (14)
\]

The higher the score retrieved by the decision tree (see Figure 6), the more relevant the key concept will be for the given url/document and the query. The representation of any document is then given by a vector of key concepts containing its most relevant scored phrases (see Figure 7).

![Figure 6: WebSpy selects, among many others, the word phone as a relevant key concept with 87%.](image)

**Figure 7: Documents represented by a vector of key concepts.**

Each element of the key concept vector, also known as key concept \( k_c \), is a flat cluster with a list of related urls (see Figure 8).

![Figure 8: Related Terms](image)
Each key concept \(kc_h, h = 1, \ldots, u\), can then be defined as a cluster \(C_h\), so that it contains all the documents \(d_j\), where \(d_j\) is relevant through Webspy to both \(q\) and \(kc_h\), as given by Equation 15 where \(dt\) is the decision tree model that is implemented in Webspy and defines if a key concept is relevant to any document. Following, we define the list of flat clusters such as 
\[
\{\{j_h\} \mid d \in \{\{j_h\}\}\}
\]

\[
C_h = \{d_j \mid d_j \in S \text{ and } dt(d_j, kc_h)\}.
\]

Although being an important step in the organization of the results, flat clustering still doesn’t solve the ambiguity problem as the set of results are displayed in an unorganized partitioning way, sharing different concepts of the query (see Figure 8).

As [17] refer, a user may look at several pages of results from a ranked list before finally concluding that there is nothing relevant. So beyond solving ambiguity and synonym problem, the introduction of hierarchy will help the user to determine in a glance what is relevant and what is not. So we propose in the following section a soft clustering hierarchical structure.

### 3.4. Hierarchical Soft Clustering and Labelling

In order to prepare the clustering step, the WebSpy software, considers each flat cluster \(kc_h\) as a query, running it, over all webpages belonging to the flat cluster.

![Figure 9: List of Flat Clusters.](image)

![Figure 10: Similarity Matrix.](image)

In result, each flat cluster is also represented by a set of related phrases with a given relevance probability (see Figure 9)

To formalize, we represent each document \(d_v, v=1, \ldots, #C_h\) of each flat cluster \(C_h\), as a vector of key concepts \(kc_v = (kc_{v1}, kc_{v2}, \ldots, kc_{vt})\) where \(t\) is the number of key concepts for \(d_v\) retrieved by Webspy taking into consideration the query \(kc_h\).

\[
kc_v = \text{webspy}(d_v \mid kc_h), d_v \in C_h.
\]

Then, we apply the PoBOC algorithm, to obtain the hierarchy of flat clusters \(C_h\).

\[
HC = \text{poboc}(|\{\text{sim}(kc_v, kc_{v'}), v \neq v' \land v', v = 1, \ldots, #C_h\}|).
\]

using the cosine similarity measure,

\[
\cos(kc_v, kc_{v'}) = \frac{kc_v \cdot kc_{v'}}{|kc_v| \cdot |kc_{v'}|}.
\]

defined in Equation 17 as the \text{sim} function, in order to build the similarity matrix, by applying it to all flat clusters

By applying the PoBOC algorithm to the flat clusters, we propose a disambiguation methodology, as key concepts with different meanings should be gathered in different clusters. By doing so, the possible different meanings of the query should be evidenced. In fact, like [1] and [7] refers, the organization of the results into clusters eases the user’s navigation when compared to the navigation through an extensive list of results. Some clustering algorithms, however, are not prepared for web clustering as they do not satisfy the requirements for clustering documents defined by [8]: high volume of data, easy for browsing and meaningful cluster labels (a comparison between clustering algorithms can be found in [1], [8], [36], [37], [38]).

PoBOC, in its turn, and unlike the k-means or the EM (just to cite those), can be used on the fly as it does not depend on any input parameter (e.g. \(k\) clusters and/or thresholds). Moreover it is based on graph theory and has shown encouraging results [6] compared to other clustering algorithms when applied to textual data, building a hierarchy of concepts, based on the following four main steps:

1. construction of the similarity matrix, based on the similarity matrix and local maxima of similarity values.
2. the search of poles in the similarity graph i.e. sub-graphs that are clique graphs (finding a clique graph is a NP Problem. As a consequence, [6] proposed a heuristics that allows to approximate maximum-size clique-graphs in order to run the algorithm in reasonable time. The heuristics selects a number of vertices and a notion of neighborhood to calculate the clique-graphs).
3. the evaluation of membership of
each flat cluster key concept to all the poles, (4) the assignment of the flat cluster key concept to one or several poles.

With this clustering step (see Figure 11), we aim at disambiguating the sense of the query term, helping the user in his search:

\[ HC' = \text{label}(HC). \]  \hspace{1cm} (19)

4. Implementation of WISE

Often, web servers are slow or not responsive, mainly due to the significant latency of the network but also to the processing time. In the case of a meta-search engine this gain even more importance, as the computation of measures cannot start before all texts are downloaded from the Internet. Additionally, whilst a normal snippet is about 200-300 characters, in our architecture we do not consider texts smaller than 1000 characters (on average the processed texts are 10KB of size), which turns it, even more computationally intensive.

To be real-world adaptable and decrease the responding time due to our full text based approach, we propose a distributed system to handle all queries. Large scale applications in science rely on larger configurations of parallel computers, often comprising hundreds of processors. There are, however, several problems that an implementation of a program has to solve, or more accurately, balance. As we have already mentioned speed is a major problem. In our case, we are computing metrics over the whole text which takes on average 10 seconds on a celeron-like CPU. With an usual amount of 30-40 texts per query it would take for a single CPU more than 40-50 minutes to answer to the user query. This is obviously unacceptable, so we took advantage of distributed computing network, splitting the program into independent modules that can be hosted on any computer connected to one another via RMI, which is a network transparent mechanism. A diagram with all the different modules and their connections can be seen in Figure 12.

As we can see, there are two types of modules, computing and organizing modules. We explain all of them in the following:

(1) **URL Storage**: This module does all the data connections to the Internet. If another module needs data from the Internet, it connects to this module with request. This approach has one main benefit. Since all data is downloaded by this module, we can check for malicious HTML and we can implement timeouts in a single place.

(2) **SENTA**: This module handles the requests to the software for finding phrases. When a text is retrieved from the Internet and all HTML tags are stripped out, we run SENTA and receive a list of phrases that will replace single words when appropriate.

(3) **Spider Server**: This module handles requests to the spider called Webspy. In WISE, Webspy is the module that computes the measures over the documents to extract their keywords. It connects to the Internet to download files. In particular, we modified the spider to connect to the URL Storage to retrieve the files.

(4) **Job Queue**: This module, which is just the direct output of the program, receives queries from different clients to WISE, makes the computations and returns the results. There are also two modules (peer and server) that are used to organize the process of the computations. They are independently addressable, and if we want to use a Spider Server, we have to create a peer or a server to host it.

(5) **Peer**: This module represents a single computer (or peer) in a network. It is identified by the host name of the computer it is on, and the port it is listening to.

(6) **Server**: This module is the heart of the network. As long as the server is on-line, the network will be working. If one or more peers are removed, the server will detect they are no longer responsive, and will send
the remaining tasks to other computers. If the server is down, all currently working jobs will be lost. In the server there is a class commanding the whole network, which makes the distribution of the tasks, adding new peers and checking whether peers are still connected.

Naturally, some combinations of modules work better than others, but this depends on the network configuration. In the testing process, we found that the best configuration for our network, which had one bi-processor server and several celeron-like PCs with fast access to the Internet, was the one shown in Figure 13.

First, we noticed that the web spider takes up almost all of the processing time. We did not have problems with the Internet connection, so we put the URL Storage only on the server. It is possible to put it on many computers, to speed up download, but that is not needed at this stage.

Second, since the spider uses most of the processing time, we put it on all clients. It is slow for one computer, as we mentioned, but is working well enough with 5 computers when considering 20-30 results from the search engine, which we deem are enough for a good result.

Third, we put the server on the fastest computer, because when the tasks to the spiders are being distributed there is a small amount of processing time that is used by the computer hosting the distributing tasks.

Finally, the last thing to note is that the fastest computer in our network, which has two cores with HyperThreading, is running not only the server, but also four clients. That is done in order to create enough loads for it. To better understand the path of the logic through our system, consider the following steps illustrated in Figure 14:

(1) The query comes from a client on the Internet. For example, the query is something like: I want all results for the query Manchester, while considering 20 results from the Google™ search Engine.

(2) The results from Google™ are downloaded via the URL Storage.

(3) The texts are parsed and then processed through SENTA to retrieve the phrases.

(4) We save the resulting texts in the URL Storage. So later, the web spiders can retrieve the results from there instead of requesting over the network again. This step cannot be missed as we run the spider not on the original texts, but on the texts that have been parsed and passed through SENTA.

(5) Then, we send different texts to different web spider on different peers to retrieve all relevant terms/key concepts for each document. All this is done in parallel with all the peers working on their separate tasks simultaneously.

(6) After all relevant terms are found, the PoBOC algorithm is run to determine the clusters and finally, all clusters are labeled. All this is done by the main server as all results must be gathered to perform the soft clustering.

(9) Finally, the results of the user's query are saved in the Job Queue module, so that the user receives them.

Since the modules can be run independently, they are run in parallel whenever the results needed for the next computations are ready. This way the program actually benefits from using distributed processing.

As a result, by using a small network of only 3 computers, WISE is able to compute tasks about 10 times faster than when based on one single server. For instance, a result with 40 relevant results from Google™ is evaluated for 4 minutes, with nice and structured results returned. Although this processing time still seems to be
overwhelming, if more peers are installed, the processing
time will automatically decrease to reasonable time,
however, there is still work to do in web spider
termination in order to increase the overall speed.
Indeed, as all features are independent from each other, it is
easy to compute them in parallel and gather the final results
on a main peer. This task is under development and should
allow to compare WISE with other commercial meta-search
engines which only use snippets in real-time access. This
will be a major advance as we will be able to compare
snippet based techniques to our full text based technique.

5. Results

In this section, we present some case study results
returned from WISE in response to the user’s query
Benfica on May 19th 2008, using the Google™ search
engine. We intend to show some characteristics of our
system such as: phrase and cluster identification, concept
disambiguation and language-independence.

The cluster in Figure 15 refers to the set of urls related to
Michael-Laudrup the ex-former football coach of
Getafe, spoken at that time to be a possible successor of
José-António-Camacho, who in turn was replaced in his
first passage by Benfica for Giovanni-Trapattoni.

We can notice that the label shows some degree of
quality and semantic description of the content of the
cluster due to the identification of relevant phrases such as
the named entity Michael-Laudrup. One other interesting
issue is the capacity of the system to deal with word
mistakes (Giovanni, not Geovanni). This result is due to the
fact that no restriction is made over term frequency and/or
document representation.

In Figure 16, we can see the ability of WISE to deal with
count disambiguation. As we have already seen,
Michael-Laudrup is related to Benfica football club, but the
system also retrieves a cluster labeled PS which refers to
the socialist political party located in the Benfica
neighborhood and another one labeled Universitárioss referring to student life like housing, transports and roads as Benfica is a privileged area for university student housing.

Our last example in Figure 17 shows the language-
independent characteristic of WISE as it gathers urls with
different idioms, in this particular case, Portuguese, English and Hungarian.

6. Conclusion and Future Work

As [1] refer, it is clear that organizing web search results
fastens the user browsing process as the task of searching
for relevant web pages in an unstructured list of results is
time consuming. Although, major search engines have not
yet considered implementing clustering visualization and
only a few commercial search engines are beginning to
appear, Vivisimo being the most famous. This paper
explores web page hierarchical soft clustering as an
alternative method for organizing search results.

With WISE, we attempt to make search results easy to
find through a list of well identified clusters with quality
labels. Moreover, we provide a real-world web architecture as WISE is topic and language-independent, and allows
query disambiguation and document overlapping. WISE
has a strong theoretical basis, but its architecture is simple.
In particular it is based on (1) an algorithm ignoring less
relevant documents and increasing relevant ones; (2)
statistical parameter free phrase extraction to define
concepts and thus enhancing document understanding; (3)
web content mining techniques to represent document
contents; (4) a soft clustering parameter free algorithm to
organize results into a hierarchy of concepts, (5) a classical
labeling process and (6) a distributed implementation.
The architecture and the proposed algorithms try to address one important problem in IR: returning quality results through an organized and disambiguated structure of concepts, but formal evaluation is still needed. We planned to test WISE against all available web snippet clustering search engines existent in Table 1 but none of the works referred in the literature is available online. Despite previous works in this area is very scarce [9], in the future, we plan to execute user feedback surveys, which have been the most favored techniques for estimating the algorithms usefulness [39], although its logistic difficulty and underlying subjectivity. We also plan to evaluate WISE within TREC by using the key concepts existent in each cluster to perform automatic query expansion and evaluate the quality of the retrieved results.

Finally, we are currently improving the performance of the system, to complete an on-line version (http://wise.di.ubi.pt) that will allow users to perform a query using any search engine. In addition, the system which is currently making all the computation on the fly, will integrate in the future a web warehouse to save the key concepts of the documents, incorporating user feedback in the loop, and avoid running the system whenever a query is performed, by providing a self-contained and auto-fed indexing structure.

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