

# MODERN INFORMATION RETRIEVAL

## LINK ANALYSIS<sup>1</sup>

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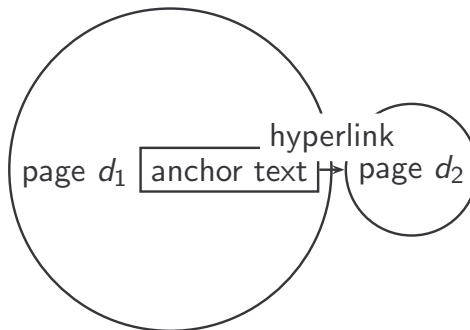
<sup>1</sup>Some slides have been adapted from slides of Manning, Yannakoudakis, and Schütze.



1. Anchor text
2. Citation analysis
3. PageRank
4. HITS: Hubs & Authorities
5. References

ANCHOR TEXT

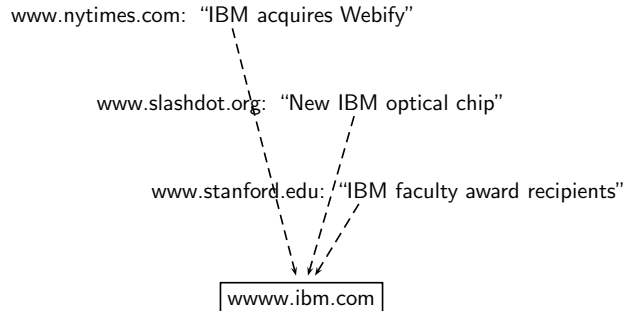
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1. Assumption 1: A hyperlink is a quality signal.
  - ▶ The hyperlink  $d_1 \rightarrow d_2$  indicates that  $d_1$ 's author sees  $d_2$  high-quality and relevant.
2. Assumption 2: The anchor text describes the content of  $d_2$ .
  - ▶ We use anchor text somewhat loosely here for the text surrounding the hyperlink.
  - ▶ Example: You can find cheap cars `<a href=http://...>here</a>.`
  - ▶ Anchor text: You can find cheap cars here.



1. Searching on [text of  $d_2$ ] + [anchor text  $\rightarrow d_2$ ] is often more effective than searching on [text of  $d_2$ ] only.
2. Example: Query *IBM*
  - ▶ Matches IBM's copyright page
  - ▶ Matches many spam pages
  - ▶ Matches IBM wikipedia article
  - ▶ May not match IBM home page! if IBM home page is mostly graphics
3. Searching on [anchor text  $\rightarrow d_2$ ] is better for the query *IBM*.
  - ▶ In this representation, the page with the most occurrences of *IBM* is [www.ibm.com](http://www.ibm.com).



1. Anchor text is often a better description of a page's content than the page itself.
2. Anchor text can be weighted more highly than document text. (based on Assumptions 1&2)



1. Assumption 1: A link on the web is a quality signal –the author of the link thinks that the linked-to page is high-quality.
2. Assumption 2: The anchor text describes the content of the linked-to page.
3. Is assumption 1 true in general?
4. Is assumption 2 true in general?

## CITATION ANALYSIS

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1. Citation analysis: analysis of citations in the scientific literature
2. Example citation: “Miller (2001) has shown that physical activity alters the metabolism of estrogens.”
3. We can view “Miller (2001)” as a hyperlink linking two articles.
4. An application: Citation frequency can be used to measure the **impact** of a scientific article.
  - ▶ Simplest measure: Each citation gets one vote.
  - ▶ On the web: citation frequency = **inlink count**
5. However: A high inlink count does not necessarily mean high quality **mainly because of link spam**.
6. Better measure: **weighted** citation frequency or citation rank

## PAGERANK

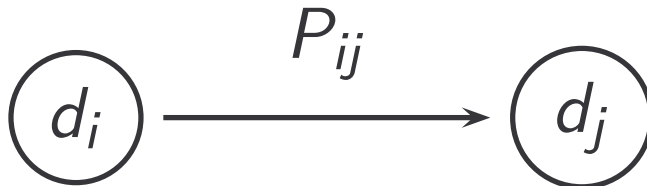
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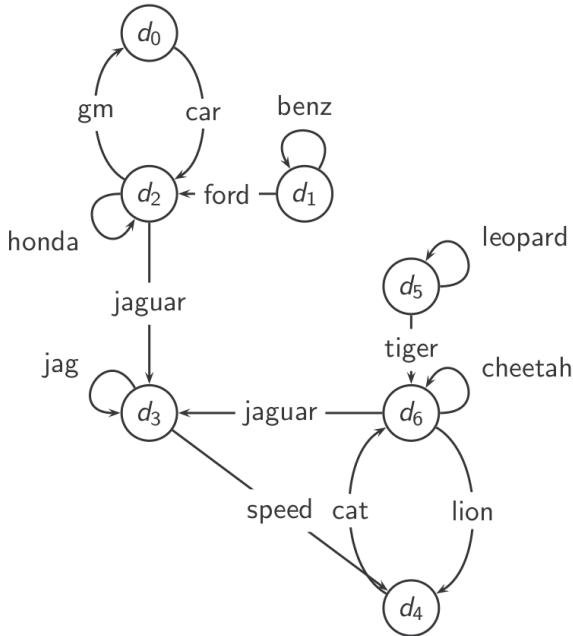


1. Imagine a web surfer doing a random walk on the web
  - ▶ Start at a random page
  - ▶ At each step, go out of the current page along one of the links on that page, equiprobably
2. In the steady state, each page has a **long-term visit rate**.
3. This long-term visit rate is the page's **PageRank**.
4. **PageRank = long-term visit rate = steady state probability**



1. A Markov chain consists of  $N$  states, plus an  $N \times N$  transition probability matrix  $P$ .
2. state = page
3. At each step, we are on exactly one of the pages.
4. For  $1 \leq i, j \leq N$ , the matrix entry  $P_{ij}$  tells us the probability of  $j$  being the next page, given we are currently on page  $i$ .
5. Clearly, for all  $i$ ,  $\sum_{j=1}^N P_{ij} = 1$





	PageRank
$d_0$	0.05
$d_1$	0.04
$d_2$	0.11
$d_3$	0.25
$d_4$	0.21
$d_5$	0.04
$d_6$	0.31

PageRank( $d_2$ ) < PageRank( $d_6$ )

why?



	$d_0$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$	$d_4$	$d_5$	$d_6$
$d_0$	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
$d_1$	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
$d_2$	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
$d_3$	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
$d_4$	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$d_5$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
$d_6$	0	0	0	1	1	0	1

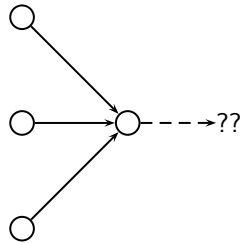


	$d_0$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$	$d_4$	$d_5$	$d_6$
$d_0$	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
$d_1$	0.00	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
$d_2$	0.33	0.00	0.33	0.33	0.00	0.00	0.00
$d_3$	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.00
$d_4$	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
$d_5$	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.50
$d_6$	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.33	0.33	0.00	0.33



1. Recall: PageRank = long-term visit rate
2. Long-term visit rate of page  $d$  is the probability that a web surfer is at page  $d$  at a given point in time.
3. Next: what properties must hold of the web graph for the long-term visit rate to be well defined?
4. The web graph must correspond to an **ergodic** Markov chain.
5. First a special case: The web graph must not contain **dead ends**.





1. The web is full of dead ends.
2. Random walk can get stuck in dead ends.
3. If there are dead ends, long-term visit rates are not well-defined.



1. At a **dead end**, jump to a random web page with prob.  $1/N$ .
2. At a **non-dead end**, with probability 10%, jump to a random web page (to each with a probability of  $0.1/N$ ).
3. With remaining probability (90%), go out on a random hyperlink.
  - ▶ For example, if the page has 4 outgoing links: randomly choose one with probability  $(1-0.10)/4=0.225$
4. 10% is a parameter, the **teleportation rate**.
5. Note: “jumping” from dead end is independent of teleportation rate.



1. With teleporting, we cannot get stuck in a dead end.
2. But even without dead ends, a graph may not have well-defined long-term visit rates.
3. More generally, we require that the Markov chain be [ergodic](#).



1. A Markov chain is ergodic iff it is irreducible and aperiodic.
2. **Irreducibility**. Roughly: there is a path from any page to any other page.
3. **Aperiodicity**. Roughly: The pages cannot be partitioned such that the random walker visits the partitions sequentially.



### Theorem (Ergodic Markov chains)

*For any ergodic Markov chain, there is a unique long-term visit rate for each state.*

1. This is the **steady-state probability distribution**.
2. Over a long time period, we visit each state in proportion to this rate.
3. It doesn't matter where we start.
4. **Teleporting makes the web graph ergodic.**
5.  $\Rightarrow$  **Web-graph+teleporting has a steady-state probability distribution.**
6.  $\Rightarrow$  **Each page in the web-graph+teleporting has a PageRank.**



1. A probability (row) vector  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$  tells us where the random walk is at any point.

2. Example: 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & i & \dots & N-2 & N-1 & N \end{pmatrix}$$

3. More generally: the random walk is on page  $i$  with probability  $x_i$ .

4. Example: 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.05 & 0.01 & 0.0 & \dots & 0.2 & \dots & 0.01 & 0.05 & 0.03 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & i & \dots & N-2 & N-1 & N \end{pmatrix}$$

5.  $\sum x_i = 1$



1. If the probability vector is  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$  at this step, what is it at the next step?
2. Recall that row  $i$  of the transition probability matrix  $P$  tells us where we go next from state  $i$ .
3. So from  $\vec{x}$ , our next state is distributed as  $\vec{x}P$ .

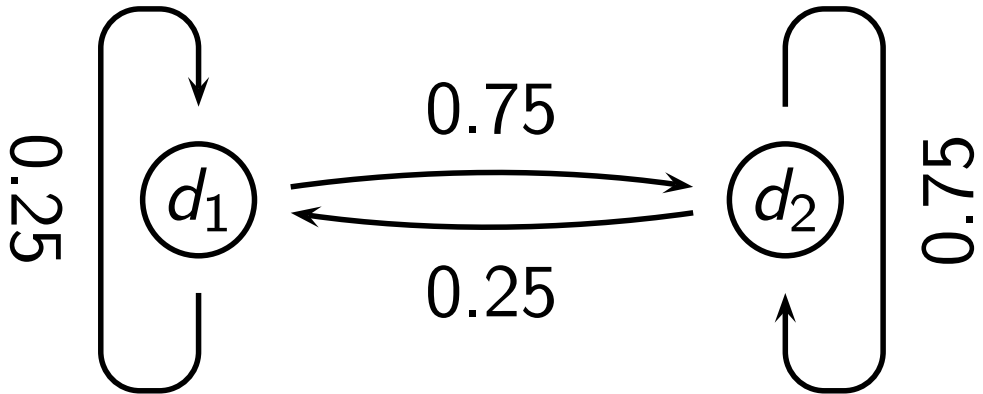


1. The steady state in vector notation is simply a vector  $\vec{\pi} = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_N)$  of probabilities.
2. (We use  $\vec{\pi}$  to distinguish it from the notation for the probability vector  $\vec{x}$ .)
3.  $\pi_i$  is the long-term visit rate (or PageRank) of page  $i$ .
4. So we can think of PageRank as a very long vector – one entry per page.





- ▶ What is the PageRank / steady state in this example?





	$x_1$	$x_2$	
	$P_t(d_1)$	$P_t(d_2)$	
			$P_{11} = 0.25 \quad P_{12} = 0.75$
			$P_{21} = 0.25 \quad P_{22} = 0.75$
$t_0$	0.25	0.75	0.25      0.75
$t_1$	0.25	0.75	(convergence)

PageRank vector =  $\vec{\pi} = (\pi_1, \pi_2) = (0.25, 0.75)$   $P_t(d_1) = P_{t-1}(d_1) * P_{11} + P_{t-1}(d_2) * P_{21}$

$P_t(d_2) = P_{t-1}(d_1) * P_{12} + P_{t-1}(d_2) * P_{22}$



- ▶ In other words: how do we compute PageRank?
- ▶ Recall:  $\vec{\pi} = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_N)$  is the PageRank vector.
- ▶ If the distribution in this step is  $\vec{x}$ , then the distribution in the next step is  $\vec{x}P$ .
- ▶ But  $\vec{\pi}$  is the steady state!
- ▶ So:  $\vec{\pi} = \vec{\pi}P$
- ▶ Solving this matrix equation gives us  $\vec{\pi}$ .
- ▶  $\vec{\pi}$  is the principal left eigenvector for  $P$ , that is,  $\vec{\pi}$  is the left eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue.

$$\lambda \vec{\pi} = \vec{\pi}P$$

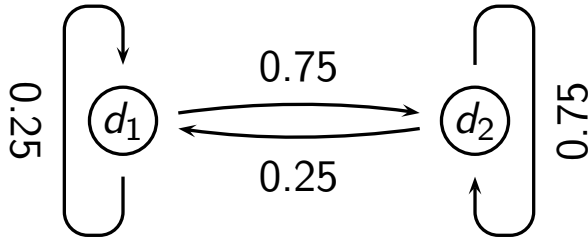
- ▶ All transition probability matrices have largest eigenvalue 1.



- ▶ Start with any distribution  $\vec{x}$ , e.g., uniform distribution
- ▶ After one step, we're at  $\vec{x}P$ .
- ▶ After two steps, we're at  $\vec{x}P^2$ .
- ▶ After  $k$  steps, we're at  $\vec{x}P^k$ .
- ▶ Algorithm: multiply  $\vec{x}$  by increasing powers of  $P$  until convergence.
- ▶ This is called the **power method**.
- ▶ Recall: regardless of where we start, we eventually reach the steady state  $\vec{\pi}$ .
- ▶ Thus: we will eventually (in asymptotia) reach the steady state.



- ▶ What is the PageRank / steady state in this example?



- ▶ The steady state distribution (= the PageRanks) in this example are 0.25 for  $d_1$  and 0.75 for  $d_2$ .

## HITS: HUBS & AUTHORITIES

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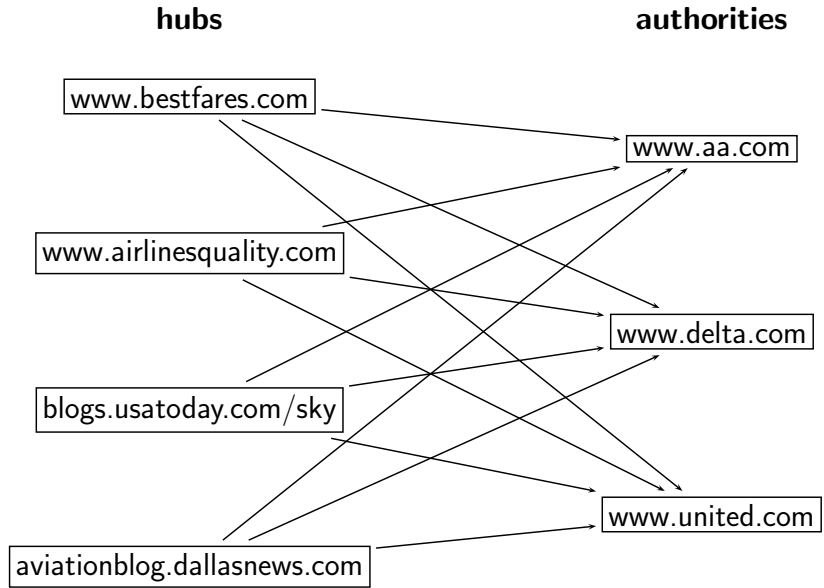


- ▶ Premise: there are two different types of relevance on the web.
- ▶ Relevance type 1: [Hubs](#). A hub page is a good list of [links to pages answering the information need].
- ▶ Relevance type 2: [Authorities](#). An authority page is a direct answer to the information need.
- ▶ Most approaches to search (including PageRank ranking) don't make the distinction between these two very different types of relevance.



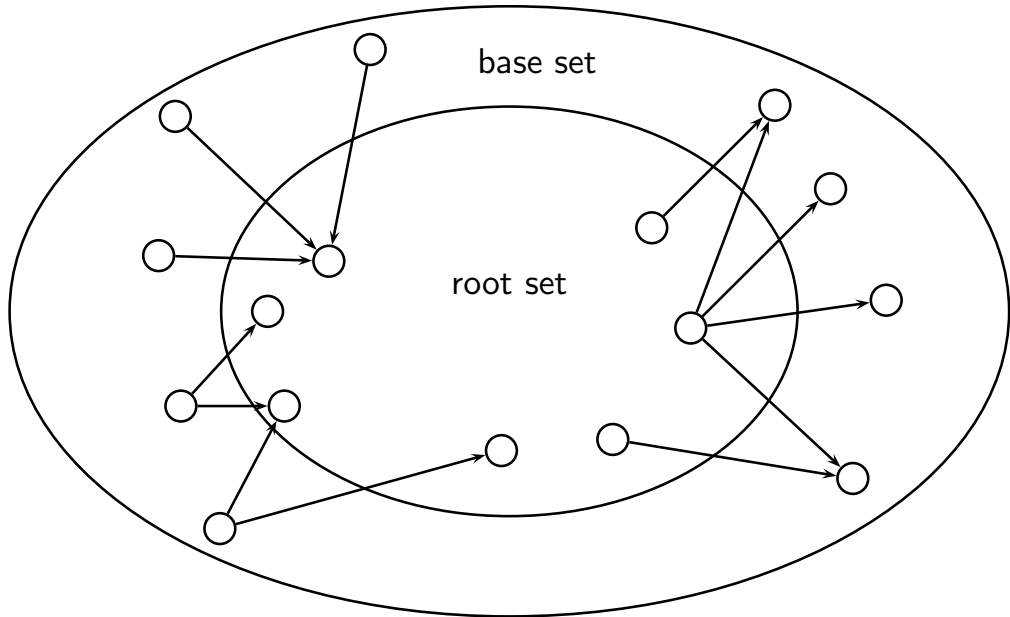
1. A good hub page for a topic **links to** many authority pages for that topic.
2. A good authority page for a topic **is linked** by many hub pages for that topic.
3. Circular definition – we will turn this into an iterative computation.







1. Do a regular web search first
2. Call the search result the [root set](#)
3. Find all pages that are linked to or link to pages in the root set
4. Call this larger set the [base set](#)
5. Finally, compute hubs and authorities for the base set (which we'll view as a small web graph)





1. Root set typically has 200–1000 nodes.
2. Base set may have up to 5000 nodes.
3. Computation of base set, as shown on previous slide:
  - ▶ Follow outlinks by parsing the pages in the root set
  - ▶ Find  $d$ 's inlinks by searching for all pages containing a link to  $d$



1. Compute for each page  $d$  in the base set a **hub score**  $h(d)$  and an **authority score**  $a(d)$
2. Initialization: for all  $d$ :  $h(d) = 1, a(d) = 1$
3. Iteratively update all  $h(d), a(d)$
4. After convergence:
  - ▶ Output pages with highest  $h$  scores as top hubs
  - ▶ Output pages with highest  $a$  scores as top authorities
  - ▶ So we output **two** ranked lists



1. For all  $d$ :  $h(d) = \sum_{d \rightarrow y} a(y)$
2. For all  $d$ :  $a(d) = \sum_{y \rightarrow d} h(y)$
3. Iterate these two steps until convergence
4. Scaling
  - ▶ To prevent the  $a()$  and  $h()$  values from getting too big, can scale down after each iteration
  - ▶ Scaling factor doesn't really matter.
  - ▶ We care about the **relative** (as opposed to absolute) values of the scores.
5. In most cases, the algorithm converges after a few iterations.

## REFERENCES

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1. Chapter 21 of [Introduction to Information Retrieval](#)<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Christopher D. Manning, Prabhakar Raghavan, and Hinrich Schütze (2008). *Introduction to Information Retrieval*. New York, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press.





-  Manning, Christopher D., Prabhakar Raghavan, and Hinrich Schütze (2008). *Introduction to Information Retrieval*. New York, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press.

