

Core Algorithms in the CLEVER System

RAVI KUMAR and PRABHAKAR RAGHAVAN

Yahoo! Research

SRIDHAR RAJAGOPALAN

IBM Almaden Research Center

and

ANDREW TOMKINS

Yahoo! Research

This article describes the CLEVER search system developed at the IBM Almaden Research Center. We present a detailed and unified exposition of the various algorithmic components that make up the system, and then present results from two user studies.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: H.3.3 [**Information Storage and Retrieval**]: Information Search and Retrieval—*Search process*

General Terms: Algorithms, Experimentation, Measurement

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Anchortext, hyperlinks, linear algebra, link analysis, Web search

1. INTRODUCTION

The subject of this article is the CLEVER search system developed at the IBM Almaden Research Center. Our principal focus is a detailed and unified exposition of the various algorithmic components that make up the system. Many of these have hitherto appeared in a number of articles and reports; some have appeared in incomplete form; and others have never been disclosed. In addition, we summarize the results of two user studies performed during the project.

The Web has proven to be a fertile test bed for combining ideas from human behavior and social network analysis together with traditional information retrieval. The latter discipline has focused on relatively focused corpora that are small, with uniform and high-quality documents. The networking revolution made it possible for hundreds of millions of individuals to create, share, and

This work was done while the authors were at the IBM Almaden Research Center.

Authors' addresses: R. Kumar, P. Raghavan, and A. Tomkins: Yahoo! Research, 701 First Avenue, Sunnyvale, CA 94089; email: {ravikumar,pragh,atomkins}@yahoo-inc.com; S. Rajagopalan: IBM Almaden Research Center, 650 Harry Road, San Jose, CA 95120; email: sridhar@almaden.ibm.com. Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or direct commercial advantage and that copies show this notice on the first page or initial screen of a display along with the full citation. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers, to redistribute to lists, or to use any component of this work in other works requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Permissions may be requested from Publications Dept., ACM, Inc., 1515 Broadway, New York, NY 10036 USA, fax: +1 (212) 869-0481, or permissions@acm.org.

© 2006 ACM 1533-5399/06/0500-0131 \$5.00

consume content on a truly global scale, demanding new techniques for information management and searching. One particularly fruitful direction has emerged here: exploiting the link structure of the Web to deliver better search, classification, and mining. The idea is to tap into the annotation implicit in the actions of content creators: for instance when a page-creator incorporates hyperlinks to the home pages of several football teams, it suggests that the page-creator is a football fan.

But the large body of work leveraging this link structure has developed a unifying theme which we echo here: hyperlinking provides a powerful and effective tool, but only in conjunction with other content-based techniques. The Google search engine (www.google.com), for instance, makes heavy use of link analysis in the form of PageRank values [Brin and Page 1998]; however, the ranking algorithm has roughly 100 additional heuristics that make the approach truly effective. Similarly, the CLEVER search system began with purely link-based techniques, and over time incorporated a variety of content-based additions, many in response to specific conditions prevailing on the Web.

Historically, many of these ideas first came into existence in the CLEVER (CLient-side EigenVector Enhanced Retrieval) project with the development of Kleinberg's HITS (Hypertext Induced Topic Search) algorithm [Kleinberg 1999] at IBM, during 1997, and its subsequent enhancements in Chakrabarti et al. [1998b]. The framework of HITS was both elegant and extensible, leaving open a number of avenues for further exploration and refinement. Many research groups seized on (and continue to explore) these possibilities (see Section 5 for more details); the CLEVER project at IBM was perhaps the earliest of these. From 1997 to 1999, the project focused largely on search, before shifting to a focus on measurement and mining. Our goal here is to provide a unified and complete view of the salient technical results derived from the project in the search domain.

The remainder of the article proceeds as follows. In Section 2 we present some background in the area of link analysis. However, in order to keep the presentation focused, we assume that the reader has some familiarity with the domain. Section 3 describes the CLEVER search system in detail. Section 4 then presents some experimental results, and Section 5 contains a brief description of link-analysis-based ranking methods. In Section 6 we summarize our conclusions.

2. BACKGROUND

Link analysis [Kleinberg 1999; Brin and Page 1998], particularly in conjunction with text-based methods [Bharat and Henzinger 1998; Chakrabarti et al. 1998a; Kumar et al. 2001], is generally believed to enable significant improvements in ranking quality. However, implementing link-based ranking methods for the World Wide Web is challenging, primarily due to the highly variable nature of Web pages.

The basis for the CLEVER system is the HITS [Kleinberg 1999] algorithm. We describe it now for completeness. The interested reader is referred to the original article for greater detail. Given a collection of pages, the HITS algorithm computes two scores corresponding to each page in the collection. The

first is the *hub* score: this measures the value of the page as a collection of resources. The second is the *authority* score: which measures public opinion of the quality of any page. The two scores are expressed as vectors (\vec{h} and \vec{a}) with as many dimensions as the number of pages in the collection, and with each dimension corresponding to a page.

Kleinberg [1999] posited that hub pages and authority pages of good quality share a mutually reinforcing relationship, namely, good hub pages point to many good authorities, and good authority pages are pointed to by many high-quality hub pages. Letting A be the citation matrix, that is, $A_{ij} = 1$ if and only if page i points to page j , we can mathematically state this relationship using the formulae

$$\vec{a} \propto A^T \vec{h} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{h} \propto A \vec{a},$$

and furthermore, since both \vec{h} and \vec{a} are scoring functions, we have $\vec{h}, \vec{a} \geq 0$. Here A^T is the transpose of matrix A . Under fairly general conditions on A (see Golub and Loan [1989] for details), the simultaneous equations above have a unique nonnegative, nonzero, solution. The hub vector \vec{h} is the principal eigenvector of AA^T , and the authority vector \vec{a} is likewise the principal eigenvector of $A^T A$. Both vectors can be computed approximately by iterative methods, or exactly by Gaussian elimination.

CLEVER represents a set of two classes of extensions within the HITS framework. The first class consists of modifications that preserve the overall structure of the HITS iterations, but allows the matrix to contain real values rather than simply 0 or 1 values. Thus, CLEVER uses edge weights to reflect how relevant each link is to the subject of the query. The principle here (sometimes known as *lexical affinities* [Maarek and Smadja 1989]) is that, if relevant text occurs in the proximity of the link, the link is more likely to be significant. The exact computation of the weight matrix is somewhat more complex and is described in Section 3.4.

The second class of modifications comprises extensions to the HITS framework itself; these modifications often fall into the category of heuristics, and are discussed throughout Section 3.

We digress at this time to a recent observation of Ng et al. [2001]. The “random jump” with probability λ gives the PageRank iteration a greater stability, in that page ranks tend not to change dramatically with the deletion of a few edges. HITS and related schemes are conversely less stable. If HITS (and variants) were to be “relaxed” using a similar linear combination, then this effect could be mostly mitigated. We refer the interested reader to Ng et al. [2001].

Similarly, the question of stability raises the Web question of resilience to *link spamming*, or creation of pages whose out-links are chosen to increase the score of some target in a link-based ranking scheme. PageRank requires that important pages be cited by important pages, and therefore incorporates natural resistance to link spam. However, systems exist to spam both HITS and PageRank, and any well-engineered system will require safeguards against such behavior.

Finally, we should note that the implementation of PageRank in the Google system is query-independent; the PageRank scores provide a static ranking of

all Web pages, and this ranking is used with many other factors to produce the final output for a particular query. The CLEVER system, on the other hand, incorporates the query directly into the matrix at run-time. Therefore, implementing the run-time is a greater challenge. In particular, we cannot consider computing the CLEVER rank for every page on the Web given a query.

Instead, we implement CLEVER as a three stage process. The first stage is a naive indexing step in which we simply choose a small number of pages (the root set) which contain the query terms. In the second stage, we do a small focused crawl starting from the root set to identify a larger collection of pages to process (the base set). Finally, we rank all the pages in the base set using the algorithms defined in Section 3. This brings us to a fine distinction in the implementation described in this article and those which are more common in web scale search engines. Our algorithms are best viewed as refinement algorithms, those which given a small- (or medium-) sized collection of pages, refines the search within this set. In our context, two pages may be ranked in different orders given different queries.

Several other systems and algorithms have been proposed as extensions to the basic HITS framework. We review some of them in Section 5.

3. THE CLEVER SYSTEM

The HITS algorithm represents a clean and mathematically grounded framework. However, as discussed earlier, there are a number of issues that arise in building an actual system to implement this algorithm, and in modifying the algorithm to deal with the vicissitudes of Web data. Addressing these issues resulted in the CLEVER system. In this section we describe the system and give some motivation for the particular extensions we found necessary.

The scope of this article does not allow us to provide a “User Manual” of the system—instead, we seek to provide a sense of the implementation, and enough algorithmic details that the reader could reproduce the the functionality.

We begin in Section 3.1 with a description of some of the concepts behind extensions to the HITS framework. Next, Section 3.2 describes some system issues such as the hardware for which the system has been developed, and the parameters and control files that influence the functioning of the system. Then Section 3.3 describes the data gathering, or crawling, phase of the algorithm. Section 3.4 describes the process of constructing a weighted graph based on the crawled data. Section 3.5 then describes the actual iterative procedure applied to the graph. Finally, Section 3.6 describes the final creation of the output.

3.1 Extensions to the HITS Framework

In this section we list a number of components of CLEVER search which represent extensions to (or in some cases departures from) the traditional HITS framework. We also seek to give some motivation for the extensions, based on real-world examples of structures that might lead a naive link-based algorithm astray.

—*Controlling the engine.* Execution of the CLEVER system depends on the values of a number of parameters (currently 57). These parameters are specified

in a set of SGML-style configuration files, and can in many cases be set or modified using an advanced Web search front-end.

- The query language.* The system allows users to specify five different sets of keywords. The first set is sent to the search engines in order to seed the search, but is not used to weight links between pages. The second set is used for link weighting, but does not influence the queries sent to search engines. The third set, which is used by default for keywords entered from a search front-end, influences both the search engine query and the link weighting algorithm. The fourth set contains terms that a page must include in order to be part of the final output. And the fifth and final set contains terms that a page may not include in order to be part of the final output. Typical users arriving through the Web front-end use only the third set; more sophisticated users may use all five.

All of these sets are specified using keyword search semantics based on Altavista's "Advanced Search" language. Query terms may be single words or double-quoted phrases. Terms may be preceded by a + or −, to imply emphasis or deemphasis of the term. These modifiers impact crawling because they are sent directly to the search engines used to generate the initial set of pages. They also impact the graph generation stage because keyword modifiers have significant influence on the weights assigned to links, based on keywords that are roughly proximate to the anchor.

- Incorporation of textual content into edge weights.* There are a number of factors used to determine the weight of a particular edge (see Section 3.4 for details), but the most important is the textual content surrounding the location of the anchor. If the anchortext contains the query term, the edge should be treated as highly relevant. While the anchortext itself is critical, we also allow text appearing within some window of the anchor to influence the weighting, with a diminishing contribution depending on distance from the anchor. We refer to the graph showing contribution as a function of word location as the *tower bridge function*: flat along the anchortext itself, then falling off linearly on either side.

More formally, let a_{ij} be zero if there is no link from page i to page j , and be positive if a link exists. The value of the textual contribution to that edge weight has a contribution from each query term. The contribution of a query term appearing at distance i within a window W of terms from the hyperlink is proportional to $W - i$. Query terms within quotes are treated as atomic units, so the word *car* generates no contribution for the query *vintage car*.

- Nepotistic links.* A *nepotistic link* has both source and destination on the same Web site. Such links represent a form of *self-promotion*, in that a Web site confers authority upon itself. Thus, we seek to discard these links. It therefore becomes important to determine when two pages are on the same site. To make this determination, we use information about the URL and IP address of the two pages. See Section 3.4 for details.
- Covering heuristic.* The value of a hub page is by definition in its links rather than its contents. If all the destinations accessible from a particular hub are also accessible from better hubs, we do not need to output this hub.

More generally, we seek to return a set of hub pages that together contain as many unique, high-quality links as possible. We therefore apply a well-known greedy set-cover heuristic as follows. Once the iteration step has converged, we repeat the following process until we have generated the correct number of hubs: return the best hub, zero the authority values of all pages pointed to by the hub, and recompute hub values. See Section 3.6 for details.

- Authority packing heuristic.* Despite the removal of nepotistic links, it is possible, for instance, for an organization's homepage, and several children of that page, to accumulate authority. However, in the final output we wish to provide the user with as much authoritative substance as possible in a small number of pages. To achieve this, after each step of the iteration we “repack” the authority of any site, as follows: if multiple documents within a logical site (as defined above) have nonzero authority, the authorities of all but the page with the largest authority are set to zero. See Section 3.5 for details.
- Hub functions.* Many resource compilations (e.g., bookmark files) contain pages pertinent to a number of disjoint topics. This causes such compilations to become good hubs, which in turn causes irrelevant links from the same page to become good authorities. To address this problem we note that pointers to pages on the same topic tend to be clustered together in resource compilations. We allow each link in a Web page to have its own hub value, so the hub value of a page is now a function of the particular link rather than a constant. When computing authority values, the authority of the destination is incremented by the hub value of the link. When recomputing hub values, the authority value of the destination is used to increment the hub value of the source link, and according to a spreading function, the hub values of neighboring links. Thus, useful regions of a large hub page can be identified. The final hub value of a page is the integral of the hub values of its links. See Section 3.5 for details.
- Page relevance.* A set of irrelevant but highly-linked pages might accidentally creep into the crawled set of pages, and become highly ranked hubs and authorities due to their mutual reinforcement. Or more likely, some pages might be clearly “on-topic,” while others might be of limited or zero relevance. The algorithm makes strong use of text near links in order to determine relevance of a link, but nonetheless, we would prefer not to conflate pages that are entirely irrelevant with pages that are relevant but happen not to have a keyword appearing near a link.
Thus, we use a traditional ranking function to determine the overall relevance of the page to the query. Based on the relevance of the source and destination pages, we increase or decrease the weight of links between them. See Section 3.4 for details.
- Exemplary pages.* The user may identify certain URLs as *exemplary hubs, authorities, or sites*. Exemplary hubs are high-quality collections of links to topical pages. Exemplary authorities are high-quality pages about the topic. Exemplary sites are both. Additionally, the user may identify *stopsites*: URLs that should not be crawled under any circumstances. See Sections 3.3 and 3.4 for a full description.

These types of pages impact the algorithm in two ways. First, they influence the set of pages crawled by the system. Second, they influence the edge weights connecting hyperlinked pages. The following describes these issues in more detail:

- Each exemplary hub is added to the graph along with its out-neighbors, and all pages connected (through in-links or out-links) to the hub or its out-neighbors.
- Each exemplary authority is added to the graph along with all pages that point to at least two exemplary authorities, and all pages connected (through in-links or out-links) to the authority such as an in-neighbor.
- Each exemplary site is added to the graph with its in- and out-neighbors, and all pages connected (through in-links or out-links) to the page or its neighbors.
- Each stopsite is eliminated before being crawled.

The intuition behind these rules is the following. We believe the pages pointed-to by an exemplary hub to be high-quality candidate authorities. Therefore, pages that point to these pages have a better than average chance of being good hubs. So we add these candidate to the graph. Similarly for exemplary authorities: pages that point to two or more exemplary authorities are high-quality candidate hubs, so we place them in the initial set so any candidate authorities they point to will be added to the root set. The asymmetry in treatment of exemplary hubs and exemplary authorities arises because the user who specifies an exemplary hub knows all the out-links of the page, while the user who specifies an exemplary authority may not know all the in-links of the page.

Exemplary sites also influence edge weighting. Intuitively, the edges that point to example authorities or edges originating at example hubs should weigh more. Additionally, if a page is cited in the *lexical neighborhood* of example authorities, then that link should weigh more. Let $w(x, y)$ denote the weight of the edge from x to y in the graph. The following four heuristics are in addition to the basic edge-weighting schemes stated in Chakrabarti et al. [1998a, 1998b]: (1) if x is an example hub and x points to y , then $w(x, y)$ is increased; (2) if y is an example authority and x points to y , then $w(x, y)$ is increased; (3) if y is an example authority and x points to both y and y' in the same lexical neighborhood, then $w(x, y')$ is increased; and (4) if y and z are example authorities, and x points to y' in the same lexical neighborhood with both y and z and the reference to y' is between the references to y and z , then $w(x, y')$ is increased.

Consider searching for long-distance phone companies. If Sprint and AT&T are example authorities for this node, and both occur in a single list of links, we have strong evidence that the other elements of the list may be relevant to the topic. However, if the list contains only AT&T, then we have only weak evidence that the list is about long-distance phone companies. The increase in weight of an edge is a superlinear function of the number of links to example authorities occurring the edge, and of the proximity of the edge to these links.

3.2 System Issues

The code for CLEVER is written in C and C++, and runs under Linux (RedHat 6.2) and AIX. It represents approximately 10K lines of code. The system is invoked from the command line, and leaves its results in various support files. It is also invoked through a set of cgi scripts which we do not describe. The entire system resides on a single machine, and does not support distributed operation. It executes as a single process and fetches data using multiple threads.

Various parameters (currently 57, as noted earlier) control the operation of the system. In the initial phases of the algorithm, these parameters are loaded from a global default SGML-style config file, a similar user-specified config file, and the command line. If the query has been run recently and the result is cached, then the system returns the cached result and exits. The setup phase then checks for various consistency conditions such as the presence of data directories, and exits with an error if any of these tests fail.

In the following sections, various numerical parameters control the behavior of the algorithm. For concreteness, we often specify default values for these parameters. The defaults typically result from some exploration of the parameter space, but typically have not been subjected to a rigorous sensitivity analysis.

3.3 Crawling

The CLEVER system performs five phases of crawling, after which the system has resident a set of Web pages relevant to the query upon which link and text analysis can be performed. Each of the five phases uses the same crawling infrastructure. We begin with an overview of that infrastructure, and then describe the five phases in turn.

3.3.1 Operation of the Crawling Module. The crawling module operates as follows. First, a Crawl object is created to control the fetching threads. This object reads all URLs into memory, and creates job records for them. It guarantees that no stopsites are fetched, and that no page is fetched more than once at any point during processing. The Crawl object then creates a number of fetcher threads, based on a system parameter. As the fetcher threads retrieve pages, the Crawl object monitors the total number of pages successfully fetched. Based on a profile depending on the fraction of pages retrieved, the fetch is aborted if a certain amount of time passes from completion of the most recent fetch.

Each fetching thread regularly checks a shutdown flag to determine whether it should terminate. If not, it retrieves the next job from a shared data structure, and spawns a fetch. The fetch takes a timeout parameter which is passed down to all socket operations. The fetcher then operates as follows. First, it checks to see that the maximum number of redirects has not yet been reached for this URL. Next, it verifies the hostname and port. It opens a connection either to the server, or to a SOCKS server if necessary, sends the http request, and waits for data with a timeout. As data arrives, it reads it into a buffer with a maximum allowable data size. If the result is a redirection, it changes the target URL and iterates.

At the conclusion of a fetch operation, the crawling module returns the status of the fetch.

We found that following redirects is essential to gathering a sufficiently high-quality dataset. Further, we found that a realistic approach to timeouts if crawling is being performed in response to a user query, is also essential. Fetching a few hundred or thousand pages could take a few seconds to a few minutes, with reasonable timeout procedures, but the last 10% of the pages might take substantially longer and might never be successfully retrieved.

Similarly, like many before us, we found that DNS code is not well suited for rapid crawling in a single process, and that the reentrant versions are either buggy, or lock a process-global mutex, or both. We modified the DNS fetch code in order to allow multi-threaded operation.

3.3.2 Phases of Crawling. These are as follows:

3.3.2.1 Phase 1: Search Engine Queries. The crawling is seeded by querying 200 pages from internet search engines. The formats of six search engines are known to the system, and a control parameter specifies the subset to be used. The 200 pages are split evenly between all search engines specified in the control parameter.

The search engine query is built by gathering all relevant keywords (see the Query Language discussion in Section 3.1), possibly including new keywords generated by an aliasing mechanism that allows a user to specify a “concept” which has been associated with a full subquery. This query is then sent to engine-specific generators which create URLs for the fetches. To this resulting set of query URLs, the system also adds the URLs for all exemplary sites and exemplary hubs, and adds URLs that will fetch from a search engine the in-links to all exemplary sites and exemplary authorities. As a result, the rootset will contain exemplary hubs and their out-links, and exemplary authorities and their in-links. After expansion of the rootset, as described in Section 3.1, the final graph will contain pages that link to the sorts of pages linked-to by exemplary hubs, and also pages that are pointed-to by the kinds of pages that point to exemplary authorities.

These query URLs are then sent to the crawling module. The resulting pages are parsed and their out-links are gathered into a set called the `rootset_urlfiles`. All exemplary pages (including exemplary hubs, authorities and sites) are then added to the `rootset_urlfiles`. Finally, additional URLs may be specified via a parameter to be added directly into `rootset_urlfiles`.

Next, each URL in `rootset_urlfiles` is passed to an in-link query generator that creates a URL to be sent to a search engine that will extract in-links to the page. These in-link query URLs are all written to a set called `rootfile_inlink_queries` to be fetched during the third phase of crawling.

During the parsing of the query URLs and the pages of the rootset, a number of limits are imposed on the number of links a single page can generate, and the number of links the entire set can generate. Once a per-page limit is reached, processing of the page is aborted. Once a per-set limit is reached, processing is aborted for the entire set.

3.3.2.2 Phase 2: The Rootfiles. Next the `rootset_urlfiles` are sent to the crawling module. The resulting pages are parsed, and the extracted URLs

are written to a set called `rootfile_out_links`. These are fetched during phase 4.

3.3.2.3 Phase 3: Querying In-Links to Rootfiles. Next the `rootfile_inlink_queries` are crawled. These URLs contain queries to search engines, built to extract pages that link to rootfile URLs. The resulting search engine pages are parsed, and links are extracted into a set called `rootfile_in_links`. These are fetched during phase 5.

3.3.2.4 Phase 4: Rootfile Out-Links. Next, the `rootfile_out_links` set is sent to the crawling module, which results in all the pages linked-to by pages in the rootset.

3.3.2.5 Phase 5: Rootfile In-Links. Finally, the `rootfile_in_links` set is crawled, resulting in pages that link to pages in the rootset.

3.4 Graph Generation

Now that crawling is complete, all further processing is local to the machine. This section describes the creation of a weighted graph representing a combination of link and text information. The following section then describes the iterative algorithm to process that graph in order to generate final hubs and authorities.

Initially, the system gathers together all query terms to be used in edge weighting, and breaks them into positive (terms with a + modifier), negative (terms with a – modifier), and unsigned (all other terms). Query term matching for edge weighting is case-insensitive, so all terms are converted to lower case. All pages are then scanned for occurrences of query terms. The following naive ranking function is used to determine the relevance of a page to the set of query terms, for use in the page relevance heuristic described in Section 3.1. For each page, the number of positive, negative, and unsigned query terms is computed. Pages are then split into three class, based on relevance: strong, normal, and weak. Any page containing a negative query term, or containing no query terms, is automatically weak. Otherwise, let p be the number of positive terms in the query. Then a page is strong if it contains at least two distinct query terms, and also contains at least $\min(2, p)$ distinct positive terms. Otherwise, a page is normal.

3.4.1 Filter Terms. As described in the Query Language overview of Section 3.1, there are two sets of parameter keywords that contain terms which must, or must not, be contained on any page that becomes part of the final output of the system. These keyword sets are referred to as *postfilters*. Postfilters do not affect the execution of the algorithm, but pages that fail some postfilter are not output. The *include postfilter* consists of a set of terms, any of which may have a “+” modifier. To pass the filter, a page must contain every “+” term, and at least one of the other terms in the filter, if any. The *exclude postfilter* consists of a set of unmodified terms. To pass this filter, the page must not contain any term in the set. The results of this filtering set are used during output.

Table I.

Address Class	Match Requirements
Class A and B addresses	Two top octets
Class C addresses	Three top octets
Class D addresses	All octets

3.4.2 Graph Vertex Construction. A “shingle” value is computed for each page along the lines of the computation defined by Broder et al. [1997], and duplicates are removed. Within a class of duplicates, one page at random is chosen as the representative of that class and kept. All edges whose destination is a duplicate page are modified to point instead to the primary representative of their shingle class. In addition, the following pages are removed:

- pages whose URL is a search engine,
- pages that are too small (10 bytes or fewer),
- stopsites (different rules for intranet and Internet).

Next, titles are generated for each page, to be used during output. Also, the URL of each page is canonicalized, and IP addresses are gathered for all pages (this information was computed during the crawling phase). The canonical form of the URL and the IP address are used below to determine whether two pages are deemed to be from the same site.

3.4.3 Graph Edge Construction. Each page is now parsed, and all hyperlinks are extracted. If the destination is not in the graph, the edge is removed from consideration. Further, a parameter gives a hard limit on the total number of out-links from a page. Additionally, relative URLs are not added to the graph (except in processing intranet data). Finally, “nepotistic edges” within a site are not considered.

3.4.3.1 The Same Site Algorithm. Two pages are deemed to be from the same site if they meet either of the two following conditions:

- (1) They have similar IP addresses, determined according to Table I.
- (2) They have similar URLs, based on the following three rules:
 - (a) URLs of the form “.../~joe” or “.../[Uu]sers/joe” are treated as being from site “...joe.”
 - (b) URLs that match a set of templates (i.e., `http://www.geocities.com/Colosseum/Arena/5400/`, or `http://members.tripod.com/username`) are matched according to special rules.
 - (c) Otherwise, sites are extracted per RFC 2396.

3.4.4 Edge Weight Computation. Each page is divided into regions using the regular expression “`{h[1–6]r}`” as the region separator.

The weight of an edge is then determined according to a variety of local and global factors.

3.4.4.1 Local Edge Weighting Factors. These are as follows:

- (1) Each edge begins with some constant weight, by default 3.

- (2) Fix a particular edge. A query term appearing within i terms of the anchor for that edge is given weight 10^{-i} as described in Section 3.1. That weight is doubled for positive query terms, and negated for negative query terms. These contributions are summed over each query term occurring within 10 terms of the anchor in either direction.
- (3) Edges from exemplary hubs are scaled by some factor (default 1.1) and edges to an exemplary authority are scaled by some factor (also default 1.1)
- (4) Page relevance weighting (strong, normal, weak) is incorporated as follows. Let e denote the page relevance ranking parameter, from 0 to 100. Let s and w be the number of strong and weak pages in the set $\{\text{src}, \text{dest}\}$. Then the resulting edge weight is multiplied by the page relevance multiplier $m = 1.4^{(s-w)e/100}$
- (5) For each region of size <25 , the weight of each edge in the region is increased by 1.1 (respectively 1.5) if there is one (respectively more than one) exemplary authority linked-to from this region.

3.4.4.2 Global Edge Weighting Factors. Following Bharat and Henzinger [1998], for each link between sites A and B , if there are a total of n links between A and B , the weight of each edge between the two sites is multiplied by $(1/n)^{(f/100)}$ where f is the “intersite linking factor,” from $[0, \dots, 100]$.

3.5 Iteration

Now that the graph has been computed, the iterative algorithm proceeds as follows. First, an authority score is attached to each vertex, and as described in the hub functions section above, a hub score is attached to each edge. The iteration then proceeds by repeatedly computing hub scores and authority scores, and then renormalizing. We now describe these three steps, beginning with the recomputation of authority scores as it is most straightforward. Let $h(e)$ be the hub score associated with edge e , $w(e)$ be the weight of edge e , and $a(p)$ be the authority score of page p .

—`recompute_auth_scores` Let $I(P)$ be the set of in-links to page P . Set $a(P) = \sum_{e \in I(P)} h(e) \cdot w(e)$.

—`recompute_hub_scores`. This function implements hub functions as described earlier. The algorithm processes each edge e from page P to page Q as follows. Consider the location of e within P . Define $N(e)$ to be the set of all edges that are both within the region of e within P , and within eight edges of e in that region. During processing of e , the hub score of each edge $e' \in N(e)$ will be updated.

The “raw score” $r(e)$ is set to $a(Q) \cdot w(e)$. For each $e' \in N(e)$, let $d(e, e')$ be the number of edges between e and e' in the appropriate region of P ; this is an integer between 0 and 8. We would like to add $r(e)/(1 + d(e, e'))$ to the hub score of e' , but this may allow authority to be propagated down a low-weight edge, then back out a high-weight edge, causing a low authority on a to result in a huge authority score for a' simply because the edge pointing to a has much lower weight. Thus, we define the edge ratio $\sigma(e, e') = w(e')/w(e)$.

Finally, we can state the complete algorithm. First, $\forall e \in E, e \leftarrow 0$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall e \in E, e' \in N(e) : \\ h(e') \leftarrow h(e') + r(e)\sigma(e, e')/(1 + d(e, e')). \end{aligned}$$

—renormalize. Renormalization has two steps. First, and only if the appropriate Boolean parameter is set, the value of each nonmaximal authority on a site is set to 0. Second, the authority and hub score vectors are normalized to have 2-norm 1.

Iteration proceeds for a fixed number of steps, usually 5–10, and then terminates.

3.6 Output

First, as many authorities as necessary are output in order from the list of all pages sorted by final authority score. Pages are output only if they pass the postfilters as described above. Once a sufficient number of authorities has been output, output of hubs proceeds as follows:

- (1) The hub score of each page is set to the sum of the hub scores of all edges on the page.
- (2) The best hub to pass the postfilter is output.
- (3) The authority scores of all authorities pointed-to by this hub are reduced by a constant factor between 0 and 1, given by a parameter, by default 1.
- (4) All hub scores are recomputed according to `recompute_hub_scores()`.
- (5) All hubs are resorted, and the procedure iterates until an appropriate number of hubs have been output

4. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

This section reports on experiments to evaluate the performance of the CLEVER search system as a search tool (Section 4.1) and as a tool for automatically constructing taxonomies (Section 4.2).

Traditional IR systems are evaluated using the measures of precision and recall on a large preevaluated corpus [Salton and Buckley 1990]. Evaluating the performance of a Web search system, however, is a tricky issue for the following reasons:

- The Web is large*. The Web contains more than 2 billion documents. At this magnitude, rating the entire Web (even automatically) is out of question.
- The Web is growing*. Around 10 million new pages are created every day. Even if one were to create a preevaluated Web corpus, this could be used to evaluate actual search engines for only a brief window (probably shorter than the time to gather the relevance judgments) before the corpus became “stale.”
- The Web is dynamic*. The composition of a “typical” Web document in terms of links, text, graphics, etc., is changing. Therefore, labeling today’s Web as a corpus and using it to evaluate/compare search systems can be dangerous as the results for today’s Web may not generalize to the future Web.

—*Search engines are incomplete.* No search engine can index “all” the Web. So the notion of recall is problematic in Web search.

The closest approximations to “relevance judgments” on today’s Web are portals such as Yahoo! and OpenDirectory, which through human involvement collect high-quality pages on a number of topics. While the above reasons imply that these portals cannot index the Web exhaustively, they do provide “soundness” judgments. More precisely, for a fixed topic, if a search engine returns a page that is also indexed by the portal under that topic, then it is a strong indication that the page is of high quality; if, however (as is more likely), the portal does not index the page, we have no information about the quality of the page.

4.1 CLEVER as a Search Engine

We study the performance of CLEVER as a search engine. Since at the time of this study there were no standard benchmarks for evaluating Web search systems,¹ we compared ourselves against the then best-known automatic search engine, Altavista (<http://www.altavista.com>), and the then best-known human-compiled resource site, Yahoo! (<http://www.yahoo.com>). We chose 26 broad-topic queries: +Thailand +tourism, +recycling +cans, “Gulf war”, “affirmative action”, “amusement park”, “classical guitar”, “computer vision”, “field hockey”, “graphic design”, “lyme disease”, “mutual funds”, “parallel architecture”, “rock climbing”, “stamp collecting”, “table tennis”, “vintage car”, HIV, alcoholism, bicycling, blues, cheese, cruises, gardening, shakespeare, sushi, and telecommuting. For these queries, we computed the precision of all three sources on a fixed number of pages according to our user-provided relevance judgments and compare these results. We refer to this technique as *comparative precision*. The details of this experiment appeared in Chakrabarti et al. [1998b].

For each of the 26 queries, we extracted 10 pages from each of our three sources. Altavista and CLEVER were both given the query as it appears in the table (i.e., with quotes, plus-signs, and capitalization intact). The same search was entered manually into Yahoo!’s search engine, and of the resulting leaf nodes, the one best matching the query was picked by hand. If the best match contained too few links, the process was repeated to generate additional links. Using this procedure we took the top 10 pages from Altavista, the top five hubs and five authorities returned by CLEVER, and a random 10 pages from the most relevant node or nodes of Yahoo!² We then interleaved these three sets and sorted the resulting approximately 30 pages alphabetically (there are almost never duplicate pages from the three sources). We asked each user to rank each of these pages “bad,” “fair,” “good,” or “fantastic” based on *how useful the page would be in learning about the query*. We took “good” and “fantastic” pages to be relevant, and then computed precision in the traditional manner. Since our users evaluated only the pages returned from our three sources, but

¹This situation has changed with the development of WebTrack at TREC.

²Yahoo! lists pages alphabetically and performs no ranking; hence the requirement that we take 10 pages at random.

Table II. Precision Ratings, by Search Engine

Measure	Yahoo!	Altavista	CLEVER
Average precision	.38	.18	.48
Fantastic fraction	.13	.04	.15
Linear measure	.42	.27	.50

did not know which source returned which page, we refer to this type of data as *blind post-facto* relevance judgments.

The subjective evaluation of relevance was performed by a set of 37 subjects, yielding 1369 data points. The subject was free to browse the list of pages at leisure, visiting each page as many times as desired, before deciding on a final quality score. We now outline the results of this experiment.

4.1.1 Precision Measures. Table II shows the average comparative precision of each search engine over the set of 26 queries; recall that we took “good” and “fantastic” to be relevant. CLEVER outperformed both Yahoo! and Altavista under this metric. While the favorable comparison to Altavista was expected, the advantage over Yahoo! was surprising. If we consider the fraction of queries on which each search engine performed best, we find that, in 50% of all topics, CLEVER was the best in terms of precision, and in 31% of all topics, it tied for first place with Yahoo! Finally, Yahoo! was better than CLEVER for 19% of the topics.

Table II also gives two alternative measures of overall quality. The first measure, “fantastic fraction,” is the fraction of pages returned that are rated as “fantastic” (rather than either “good” or “fantastic” in our original measure). The second, “linear measure,” weights a “bad” page at 0, a “fair” page at .33, a “good” page at .66, and a “fantastic” page at 1. CLEVER performed better than all other systems under all measures, although Yahoo! found roughly as many “fantastic” pages (which is not surprising).

4.1.2 Precision Versus Rank. We now consider the rank assigned to a page by each engine. Figure 1 plots the average precision of the top i pages for each engine, for $i = 1 \dots 10$. For this purpose, the ranking function that we use for CLEVER interleaves the hubs and authorities starting with the best hub.

One possible concern is that a large Yahoo! node may contain many good pages and some excellent ones. Choosing only 10 pages at random from such a node may penalize Yahoo! for gathering more information on the topic. However, almost all our Yahoo! nodes contained fewer than 30 pages and the correlation of precision to Yahoo! node size was minimal, only -0.09 . This indicates that the concern is not serious.

4.1.3 Hubs Versus Authorities. The precision scores of hubs and authorities show only a mild correlation (.36). For some topics, hubs dominated, and for other topics, authorities dominated, suggesting that users find value in both types of pages. Overall, CLEVER was better at identifying hubs than authorities—in 72% of the queries, the comparative precision of the hubs was at least as high as the authorities.

It remains unclear how to judge the response set of a search engine as a whole, rather than page-by-page. Both the covering and the packing heuristics

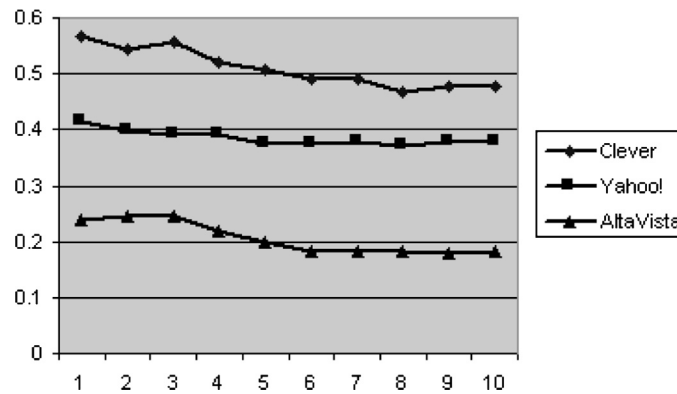


Fig. 1. Precision as a function of the rank of pages.

(Section 3.1) may reject pages that are individually highly rated in favor of pages that contribute to the overall quality of the response set. Hence we believe that the quality of our result set as a collection of pages will be better than the average precision metric indicates.

4.2 CLEVER for Automated Taxonomy Construction

In this section, we evaluate the performance of CLEVER as an automatic taxonomy building tool. This experiment involved a team of four ontologists (the authors of this article). The details of this experiment appeared in Kumar et al. [2001] and we paraphrase this below.

Our experiment involved the construction of four taxonomies. Three were drawn from predefined subtrees of Yahoo!: Government, Recreation & Sports, and Science. The fourth “personal” taxonomy consisted of nodes of personal interest to one of our ontologists. There were between 100 and 150 nodes in each of the first three taxonomies, and 70 in the personal taxonomy, for a total of 455 nodes. We built each node in the taxonomy three times: (1) We used a “naive” query consisting essentially of the topic title, with (occasionally) some simple alternatives. The intent was to simulate a near-automatic process that gives a quick first cut at describing a node. (2) We used an “advanced text” query consist of descriptive terms and example terms. The intent was to simulate a richer text query possibly using some domain knowledge, much as in a commercial rule-based classifier. (3) We used one or more exemplary hubs and authorities (see Section 3.1 for details about exemplary pages). This is the richest form of description in our experiment—a combination of text and example sites.

Our goal in designing these experiments was to benchmark each mode of taxonomy construction, monitoring (1) wall clock time elapsed during the construction of the taxonomy; (2) quality of resources found by each; (3) level of exemplification; (4) investment in looking at results of text searches. Our system was configured to log all the actions of our ontologists—these logs yield, among other things, the wall clock time used in taxonomy construction, the sequence of mouse clicks, the number of result pages viewed, etc.

We collected user statistics evaluating the pages as follows. We enlisted 50 users willing to help in the evaluation of our results, and decided a priori that each user could reasonably be expected to evaluate around 40 URLs. Therefore, we needed to spread these 2000 total URL evaluations carefully across the well over 50,000 URLs contained in our taxonomy. We adopted a random sampling approach as follows. First, we constructed the entire taxonomy in each of the three modes of operation. After all three versions of the taxonomy were constructed, we randomly sampled 200 nodes for evaluation, chosen uniformly from all nodes. Thus each user would evaluate four topic nodes on average; given the 40-URL limit on user patience, this suggests that each user can be expected to view 10 URLs per topic node.

CLEVER returns 25 hubs and 25 authorities for each topic node in each of the three modes of taxonomy creation, for a total of 150 URLs. Since we wished to ask each user to evaluate a total of around 10, we subsampled as follows. For a particular ordered list of URLs, we referred to the “index” of a particular URL to mean its position in the list—the first URL has index one, and so forth. Consider a topic node N . We chose a “high-scoring” index $h(N)$ uniformly from the indices between 1 and 3, and a “low-scoring” index $l(N)$ uniformly from the indices between 4 and 25. We then extracted the two hub (respectively authority) pages at indices $h(N)$ and $l(N)$ in the list of hubs (respectively authorities), from the taxonomy constructed using naive queries. This resulted in four URLs. We performed the same extraction for topic node N in the advanced text and example modes of creation as well, resulting in a total of 12 URLs. These samples contained some overlaps, however; in all the mean number of distinct URLs extracted per node was about 10.2. From classical statistics, the score we compute is an unbiased estimator of the actual scores (cf. Feller [1968]).

We then asked each user to evaluate four topic nodes from our 200, chosen randomly without replacement. Note that, as in Section 4.1, we did not tell our users whether a particular URL was generated as a good hub or as a good authority. The evaluation methodology also followed Section 4.1, with additional ranking options of “unranked” (the initial value), and “unreachable.” Pages ranked “unranked” (presumably because a user simply forgot to rank this page) or “unreachable,” were not considered in the ranking. All other pages were assigned scores as follows: “bad” = 0, “fair” = 1, “good” = 2, “fantastic” = 3. When we refer to scores in the following, we mean these values. As before, when dealing with precision, we define pages ranked “good” or “fantastic” to be relevant.

4.2.1 Results and Analysis. Table III shows the average values over the top 25 results, broken down by mode of creation as well as taxonomy, in both the average score and the precision metrics. The first conclusion, shown via our user study and the timing results of our instrumented taxonomy creation tool, is that an ontologist armed with the paradigm of iterative topic creation using increasingly sophisticated forms of query can create a high-quality taxonomy with a fairly quick turnaround time. The second high-level conclusion is that the well-known benefits of relevance feedback appear to hold in the domain of

Table III. Average Construction Time per Node and Average Score, Precision of top 25 Hubs and Authorities, by Taxonomy

Taxonomy	Advanced	Exemplary	Naive		Advanced		Exemplary	
	secs.	secs.	Avg. Score	Prec.	Avg. Score	Prec.	Avg. Score	Prec.
Science	108.0	119.8	1.61	0.55	1.53	0.52	1.63	0.56
Recreation	192.4	239.6	1.64	0.61	1.68	0.64	1.70	0.63
Personal	157.5	214.0	1.03	0.30	0.91	0.31	1.41	0.48
Government	270.4	222.4	1.45	0.51	1.44	0.50	1.42	0.48

hyperlinked document search. As a tertiary conclusion, we show that, at least in the context of taxonomy creation, the traditional “advanced query” syntax used by search engines does not provide significantly better results than more naive queries. This might provide partial explanation for user dissatisfaction with “advanced search” functions in most search engines.

An examination of the nodes shows that topics in the personal taxonomy tend to be narrower in focus. For instance, some of the nodes are FOCS/STOC, SIGMOD, WWW, Collaborative Filtering, Latent Semantic Indexing, Phrase Extraction, Kerberos, Smartcards. There are far fewer pages about, for instance, the FOCS/STOC (theory) conferences than about the sport of ice hockey. Interestingly, in this focused context we see the largest difference between modes: exemplification improved performance by approximately 33% over the purely textual approaches.

5. RELATED WORK

In this section we review some of the extensions to the basic HITS framework. We also briefly survey PageRank and its derivatives, and other link-based techniques.

In addition to CLEVER and its precursor [Chakrabarti et al. 1998a], there have been several variants to the basic HITS algorithm that focus on inclusion of information drawn from the content of the page. Bharat and Henzinger [1998] presented a number of different extensions to HITS to address the problem of topic drift. The central theme in their work was to incorporate both hyperlink and content information in the HITS matrices. Some of their heuristic improvements included weighting pages based on how similar they are to a given query topic and averaging the contribution of multiple links from any given site to a specific page. Li et al. [2002] combined content analysis and four representative relevance scoring methods to enhance the performance of HITS.

Other modifications to HITS have applied the underlying idea of hubs and authorities to domains other than search. Dean and Henzinger [1999] and Toyoda and Kitsuregawa [2001] HITS-based ideas to find and navigate related pages. Kumar et al. [1999] and Reddy and Kitsuregawa [2001] applied the hub/authority model in the context of community finding.

Several authors have explored applications of HITS in which the underlying graph is modified in some way. Chakrabarti [2001] advocated the Document Object Model (DOM) as a fine-grained model to represent Web pages and modified the HITS algorithm to work with the DOM representation. Farahat et al. [2001] proposed a variant in which the input to HITS is modified to include

long links; this is to improve the performance of HITS on certain tree-like Web structures.

Other work has extended the HITS algorithm in fundamental ways, retaining the basic model but modifying the mathematical formulation in various directions. Ng et al. [2001] proposed an extension of HITS using multiple eigenvectors; their idea was to use multiple singular vectors of the adjacency matrix for defining a subspace in the hub space on which the authority vectors were projected. Recently, Tsaparas [2004] studied the HITS algorithm using nonlinear operators; he showed that the MAX algorithm, previously considered by Gibson et al. [2000] in the context of clustering categorical data, converges for any initial configuration. Cohn and Chang [2000] proposed pHITS, a version of HITS based on probabilistic models where a link is created by latent “topics.” Hofmann [2000] also proposed an algorithm similar to pHITS. Achlioptas et al. [2001] proposed a model for Web search and devised a provably good Web search algorithm in this model based on spectral techniques.

A common form of link analysis is the PageRank algorithm used in the Google search engine. Many extensions to this algorithm also apply to HITS. We present a very brief discussion of the algorithm, in order to cover some related work in this context.

Consider the matrix M where $M_{ij} = 1/d_i$. Here d_i is the outdegree of page i , and specifies the exact number of out-links on it. This matrix is also known as the *Markov matrix* related to the graph defined by A . Unlike the HITS family of algorithms, the PageRank algorithm computes the eigenvector of $\lambda M + (1 - \lambda) \cdot (1/n)$. Here n is the number of pages (nodes) in the entire graph, and $[1/n]$ represents the matrix with each entry $1/n$. The motive for the PageRank algorithm comes from the “random surfer model.” Imagine a random surfer, who follows links out of a page at random with probability λ and once in a while (with probability $1 - \lambda$) jumps to an entirely new random page on the web distributed uniformly among all pages. The principal eigenvector of $\lambda M + (1 - \lambda) \cdot 1$ measures how often such a surfer would visit each page i if he or she were to continue browsing for an infinitely long time. Brin and Page [Brin and Page 1998] posited that this quantity can be used as a static estimate of page quality. As stated before, the implementation of PageRank in the Google system is query-independent; the PageRank scores provide a static ranking of all Web pages, and this ranking is used with many other factors to produce the final output for a particular query.

Page et al. [1998] extended the basic PageRank algorithm by modifying the random jump step to favor pages selected by the user. Haveliwala [2002] used a similar idea to devise a topic-sensitive version of PageRank. For a given set of topics, he computed a topic-specific PageRank value by appropriating choosing the random jump distribution. Then, given a query, the final weight of the document was set to be a weighted combination of topic-specific PageRank values, where the weights were determined by how relevant the query was to each of the topics. A more sophisticated and computationally efficient version of a similar algorithm was proposed by Jeh and Widom [2003]. In the topic-sensitive PageRank variant proposed by Richardson and Domingos [2002], a different jump distribution was used for different topics. Tomlin [2003]

described a method that was a generalization of PageRank to rank Web sites using traffic information. The Web page traffic levels were modeled using entropy maximization principles and the traffic was subject to the conservation constraints. The total flow that arrived at a page gave rise to the TrafficRank of a page.

There are other approaches to link analysis that either combine ideas from HITS and PageRank, or proceed in yet other directions. The SALSA (Stochastic Approach for Link Structure Analysis) system of Lempel and Moran [2000, 2001] combines ideas from both HITS and PageRank. Define two matrices, $W = [w_{ij}]$ where $w_{ij} = a_{ij}/d_i$, where d_i is the outdegree of i , and $W' = [w'_{ij}]$ where $w'_{ij} = a_{ji}/d'_j$, where d'_j is the indegree of j ; here $A = [a_{ij}]$ is the adjacency matrix used in HITS. It is easily verified, that both W and W' are stochastic, and thus represent Markov chains. Consequently, $H = WW'$ and $A = W'W$ too are stochastic. Salsa uses the principal (left) eigenvectors of H and A to rank pages as hubs and authorities, respectively. Lempel and Moran [2000, 2001] argued that SALSA mitigates the problem of topic drift and is less susceptible to spamming than HITS; on the other hand, SALSA is also query-dependent like HITS. Rafei and Mendelzon [2000] considered a hybrid of SALSA and PageRank where at each step, with probability $1 - \delta$, they performed a SALSA step and, with probability δ , they jumped to a page uniformly chosen at random. A similar algorithm, termed *randomized HITS*, was also proposed by Ng et al. [2001].

Ding et al. [2002] proposed several ranking algorithms which were intermediate between HITS and PageRank; HITS and PageRank were two extreme ends in this ranking framework. Comparative studies and evaluation of link-based algorithms were done by many including Borodin et al. [2001, 2006] and Langville and Meyer [2005].

For more detailed surveys of link analysis methods in information retrieval, we refer the reader to Borodin et al. [2001, 2006], the thesis of Tsaparas [2003], a survey by Kleinberg and Tomkins [1999], a survey article by Langville and Meyer [2005], and a useful hub available online at <http://www-users.cs.umn.edu/~desikan/research/linkanalysis/listofpapers.html>.

6. CONCLUSIONS

In this article, we have given a detailed description of the CLEVER search system. The system includes a broad set of extensions to the underlying HITS framework in which it was developed. We motivated and described these extensions in detail, and then provided results from two user studies to show that the resulting system gives high-quality results on real-world Web ranking problems. From these results, we draw two conclusions. First, link-based ranking schemes can provide dramatic improvements over purely content-based techniques for Web data. And second, such link-based schemes are most effective when augmented with textual information.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Soumen Chakrabarti, Byron Dom, David Gibson, and Jon Kleinberg for various discussions during the course of implementing the CLEVER system.

REFERENCES

- ACHLIOPTAS, D., FIAT, A., KARLIN, A., AND MCSHERRY, F. 2001. Web search via hub synthesis. In *Proceedings of the 42nd IEEE Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*. IEEE Computer Society Press, Los Alamitos, CA, 500–509.
- BHARAT, K. AND HENZINGER, M. 1998. Improved algorithms for topic distillation in a hyperlinked environment. In *Proceedings of the 21st Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 104–111.
- BORODIN, A., ROBERTS, G., ROSENTHAL, J., AND TSAPARAS, P. 2006. Link analysis ranking: Algorithms, theory, and experiments. *ACM Trans. Internet Tech.* 5, 1, 231–297.
- BORODIN, A., ROBERTS, G. O., ROSENTHAL, J. S., AND TSAPARAS, P. 2001. Finding authorities and hubs from link structures on the World Wide Web. In *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference on World Wide Web*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 415–429.
- BRIN, S. AND PAGE, L. 1998. The anatomy of a large-scale hypertextual Web search engine. *WWW7/Comput. Netw.* 30, 1–7, 107–117.
- BRODER, A., GLASSMAN, S. C., MANASSE, M. S., AND ZWEIG, G. 1997. Syntactic clustering of the Web. *WWW6/Comput. Netw.* 29, 8–13, 1157–1166.
- CHAKRABARTI, S. 2001. Integrating the document object model with hyperlinks for enhanced topic distillation and information extraction. In *Proceedings of the 10th International World Wide Web Conference*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 211–220.
- CHAKRABARTI, S., DOM, B., GIBSON, D., KLEINBERG, J., RAGHAVAN, P., AND RAJAGOPALAN, S. 1998a. Automatic resource compilation by analyzing hyperlink structure and associated text. *WWW7/Comput. Netw.* 30, 1–7, 65–74.
- CHAKRABARTI, S., DOM, B., GIBSON, D., KUMAR, R., RAGHAVAN, P., RAJAGOPALAN, S., AND TOMKINS, A. 1998b. Spectral filtering for resource discovery. In *Proceedings of the ACM SIGIR Workshop on Hypertext Analysis*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 13–21.
- COHN, D. AND CHANG, H. 2000. Learning to probabilistically identify authoritative documents. In *Proceedings of the 17th International Conference on Machine Learning*. Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco, CA, 167–174.
- DEAN, J. AND HENZINGER, M. 1999. Finding related pages in the World Wide Web. *WWW8/Comput. Netw.* 31, 11–16, 1467–1479.
- DING, C., HE, X., HUSBANDS, P., ZHA, H., AND SIMON, H. 2002. Pagerank, hits, and a unified framework for link analysis. In *Proceedings of the 25th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 354–354.
- FARAHAT, A., LOFARO, T., MILLER, J., RAE, G., SCHAEFER, F., AND WARD, L. 2001. Modification of Kleinberg's HITS algorithm using matrix exponentiation and Web log records. In *Proceedings of the 24th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 444–445.
- FELLER, W. 1968. *An Introduction to Probability Theory and its Applications, I & II*. John Wiley, New York, NY.
- GIBSON, D., KLEINBERG, J., AND RAGHAVAN, P. 2000. Clustering categorical data: An approach based on dynamical systems. *VLDB J.* 8, 3–4, 222–236.
- GOLUB, G. AND LOAN, C. V. 1989. *Matrix Computations*. Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, MD.
- HAVELIWALA, T. 2002. Topic sensitive page rank. In *Proceedings of the 11th International World Wide Web Conference*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 517–526.
- HOFMANN, T. 2000. Learning probabilistic models of the web. In *Proceedings of the 23rd Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 369–371.
- JEH, G. AND WIDOM, J. 2003. Scaling personalized Web search. In *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on World Wide Web*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 271–279.
- KLEINBERG, J. 1999. Authoritative sources in a hyperlinked environment. *J. Assoc. Comput. Mach.* 46, 5, 604–632.
- KLEINBERG, J. M. AND TOMKINS, A. 1999. Applications of linear algebra in information retrieval and hypertext analysis. In *Proceedings of the 18th ACM SIGACT-SIGMOD-SIGART Symposium on Principles of Database Systems*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 185–193.

- KUMAR, R., RAGHAVAN, P., RAJAGOPALAN, S., AND TOMKINS, A. 1999. Trawling the Web for emerging cyber-communities. *Comput. Netw.* 31, 11–16, 1481–1493.
- KUMAR, R., RAGHAVAN, P., RAJAGOPALAN, S., AND TOMKINS, A. 2001. On semi-automated Web taxonomy construction. In *Proceedings of the 4th ACM WebDB*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 91–96.
- LANGVILLE, A. AND MEYER, C. D. 2005. A survey of eigenvector methods for Web information retrieval. *SIAM Rev.* 47, 1, 135–161.
- LEMPER, R. AND MORAN, S. 2000. The stochastic approach for link-structure analysis (SALSA) and the TKC effect. *WWW9/Comput. Netw.* 33, 1–6, 387–401.
- LEMPER, R. AND MORAN, S. 2001. SALSA: The stochastic approach for link-structure analysis. *ACM Trans. Informat. Syst.* 19, 2, 131–160.
- LI, L., SHANG, Y., AND ZHANG, W. 2002. Improvement of HITS-based algorithms on Web documents. In *Proceedings of the 11th International World Wide Web Conference*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 527–535.
- MAAREK, Y. AND SMADJA, F. 1989. Full text indexing based on lexical relations. In *Proceedings of the 12th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 198–206.
- NG, A., ZHENG, A., AND JORDAN, M. 2001. Stable algorithms for link analysis. In *Proceedings of the 24th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 258–266.
- PAGE, L., BRIN, S., MOTWANI, R., AND WINOGRAD, T. 1998. The pagerank citation ranking: Bringing order to the Web. Tech. rep. Stanford University, Stanford, CA.
- RAFEI, D. AND MENDELZON, A. 2000. What is this page known for? Computing Web page reputations. *WWW9/Comput. Netw.* 33, 1–6, 823–835.
- REDDY, P. AND KITSUREGAWA, M. 2001. An approach to relate the web communities through bipartite graphs. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Web Information Systems Engineering (WISE '01, Kyoto, Japan, Dec.3–6)*.
- RICHARDSON, M. AND DOMINGOS, P. 2002. The intelligent surfer: Probabilistic combination of link and content information in pagerank. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS)*. Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco, CA, 1441–1448.
- SALTON, G. AND BUCKLEY, C. 1990. Improving retrieval performance for relevance feedback. *J. Amer. Soc. Informat. Sci.* 41, 4, 288–297.
- TOMLIN, J. A. 2003. A new paradigm for ranking pages on the World Wide Web. In *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on World Wide Web*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 350–355.
- TOYODA, M. AND KITSUREGAWA, M. 2001. A Web community chart for navigating related communities. In *Proceedings of the 10th International World Wide Web Conference*. Poster.
- TSAPARAS, P. 2003. Link analysis ranking algorithms. Ph.D. thesis, University of Toronto.
- TSAPARAS, P. 2004. Using non-linear dynamical systems for Web searching and ranking. In *Proceedings of the 23rd ACM Symposium on Principles of Database Systems*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 59–70.

Received December 2003; revised October 2004; accepted November 2004