Utilizing Variability of Time and Term Content, within and across Users in Session Detection

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Abstract

In this paper, we describe a SVM classification framework of session detection task on both Chinese and English query logs. With eight features on the aspects of temporal and content information extracted from pairs of successive queries, the classification models achieve significantly superior performance than the state-of-the-art method. Additionally, we find through ROC analysis that there exists great discrimination power variability among different features and within the same feature across different users. To fully utilize this variability, we build local models for individual users and combine their predictions with those from the global model. Experiments show that the local models do make significant improvements to the global model, although the amount is small.

1 Introduction

To provide users better experiences of search engines, inspecting users’ activities and inferring users’ interests are indispensable. Query logs recorded by search engines serves well for these purposes. Query log conveys the user interest information in the form of slices of the query stream. Thus the task of session detection consists in distinguishing slice that corresponds to a user interest from other ones, and thus this paper, we adopt the definition of a session following (Jansen et al., 2007):

\textit{(A session is) a series of interactions by the user toward addressing a single information need.}

This definition is equivalent to that of the “search goal” proposed by Jones and Klinkner (2008), which corresponds to an \textit{atomic} information need, resulting in one or more queries.

This paper adopts a classification point of view to the task of session detection (Jones and Klinkner, 2008). Given a pair of successive queries in a query log, we examine it in various viewpoints (i.e. features) such as time proximity and similarity of the content of the two queries to determine whether these two queries cross a border of a search session. In other words, we classify the gap between the two queries into two classes: session shift and session continuation. In practice, search goals in a search mission and different search missions could be intermingled, and increase the difficulty of correctly identifying them. In this paper, we do not take this issue into account and simply treat all boundaries between intermingled search goals as session shifts. The chief advantage in this choice is that we will have the opportunity to make classification model working online without caching user’s queries that are pending to be assigned to a session.

Various studies built accurate models in predicting session boundaries and in distinguishing intermingled sessions, and they are summarized in Section 2. However, none of these works analyzed the contribution of individual features from a user-oriented viewpoint, or evaluated a feature’s discrimination power in a general scenario independent of its usage, as this paper does by conducting ROC analyses. During these analyses, we found that the discrimination power of features varies dramatically, and for different users, the discrimination power of a particular feature also does not remain constant.

Thus, it is appealing to build local models for users with have sufficient size of training examples, and combine the local models’ predictions with those made by the global model trained by the whole training data. However, few of previ-
ous works build user-specific models for the sake of characterizing the variability in user’s search activities, except that of Murray et al. (2006). To fully make use of these two aspects of variability, inspired by Murray et al., we build users’ local models based on a much broader range of evidences, and show that different local models vary to a great extent, and experiments show that the local models do make significant improvements to the global model, although the amount is small.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 summarizes the related work of the session detection task. In Section 3, we first describe our classification framework as well as the features utilized. Then we conduct various evaluations on both English and Chinese query logs. Section 4 introduces the approaches to building local models based on an analysis of the variability of the discrimination power of features, and combine predictions of local models with those of the global model. Section 5 discusses the experimental results and concludes this paper.

2 Related Work

The simplest method in session detection is defining a timeout threshold and marking any time gaps of successive queries that exceed the threshold as session shifts. The thresholds adopted in different studies were significantly different, ranging from 5 minutes to 30 minutes (Silverstein et al., 1999; He and Göker, 2000; Radlinski and Joachims, 2005; Downey et al., 2007). Other study suggested adopting a dynamic timeout threshold. Murray et al. (2006) proposed a user-centered hierarchical agglomerative clustering algorithm to determine timeout threshold for each user dynamically, other than setting a fixed threshold. However, Jones and Klinkner (2008) pointed out that single timeout criterion is always of limited utility, whatever its length is, and incorporating timeout features with other various features achieved satisfactory classification accuracy.

An effective approach to combining the timeout features with various evidences for session detection is machine learning. He et al. (2002) collected statistical information from human annotated query logs to predict the probability a “New” pattern indicates a session shift according to the time gap between successive queries. Özmutlu and colleagues re-examined He et al.’s work, and explored other machine learning techniques such as neural networks, multiple linear regression, Monte Carlo simulation, conditional probabilities (Gayo-Avello, 2009), and HMMs (Özmutlu, 2009).

In recent studies, Jones and Klinkner (2008) built logistic regression models to identify search goals and missions, and tackled the intermingled search goal/mission issue by examining arbitrary pairs of queries in the query log. Another contribution of Jones and Klinkner is that they made a thorough analysis of contributions of individual features. However, they explored the features’ contributions from a feature selection point of view rather than from a user-oriented one, and thus failed to characterize the variability of the discrimination power of the features when applied to different users.

3 Learning to Detect Session Shifts

3.1 Feature Extraction

We adopt eight features covering both the temporal and the content aspect of pairs of successive queries. Most these features are commonly used by previous studies (He and Göker, 2000; Özmutlu, 2006; Jones and Klinkner, 2008). However, in this paper, we will analyze their contributions to the resulted model in a quite different way from that in previous works.

Let $Q = (q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_n)$ denote a query log. The features are extracted from every successive pair of queries $(q_i, q_{i+1})$. Table 1 summarizes the features we adopt. The normalization described in Table 1 is done according to the type of the feature. Features describing characters are normalized by the average length of the two queries, while those describing character-n-grams are normalized by the average size of the n-gram sets of the two queries. Character-n-grams (e.g. bi-grams “ca” and “at” in “cat”) are robust to different representations of the same topic (e.g. “IR” as Information Retrieval) and typos (e.g. “speling” as “spelling”), and serve as a simple stemming method. In practice, character-n-grams are accumulative, which means they consist of all m-grams with $m \leq n$.

The feature “avg_ngram_distance”, a variant of the “lexical distance” in (Gayo-Avello, 2009), is more complicated than to be described briefly.
Here we first define $n$-gram distance ($ND$) from $q_i$ to $q_j$, which is formalized as follows:

$$ND(q_i \rightarrow q_j) = \frac{\text{# of char.-} n \text{-} \text{gram in } q_i \text{ occur in } q_j}{\text{# of char.-} n \text{-} \text{gram in } q_i}$$

Note that character-$n$-grams are accumulative and there could be multiple occurrences of a character-$n$-gram in a query, so the number of a character-$n$-gram is the sum of that of all $m$-grams with $m \leq n$, and multiple occurrences are all considered. At last, the average of character-$n$-gram distance ($ACD$) of the pair $(q_i, q_{i+1})$ is:

$$ACD(q_i, q_{i+1}) = \frac{ND(q_i \rightarrow q_{i+1}) + ND(q_{i+1} \rightarrow q_i)}{2}$$

There are seven features describing the content aspect of a query pair, and they are more or less overlapped (e.g. edit_distance vs. common_char). However, we show in the next subsection that all these features are beneficial to the final performance.

| Feature               | Description                                      |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| time_interval         | time interval between successive queries         |
| avg_ngram_distance    | avg. of character-$n$-gram distances             |
| edit_distance         | normalized Levenshtein edit distance             |
| common_prefix         | normalized length of prefix shared               |
| common_suffix         | normalized length of suffix shared               |
| common_char           | normalized number of characters shared           |
| common_ngram          | normalized number of character-$n$-grams shared  |
| Jaccard_ngram         | Jaccard distance between character-$n$-gram sets |

Table 1. Features used in classification models

3.2 Data Preparation

The query logs we explored include an English search log tracked by AOL from Mar 1, 2006 to May, 31 2006 (Pass et al., 2006), and a Chinese search log tracked by Sogou.com, which is one of the major Chinese Search Engines, from Mar 1, 2007 to Mar 31, 2007. We applied systematic sampling over the user space on the two logs, which yielded 223 users and 2809 users, corresponding to 6407 and 6917 query instances respectively. Sampling over the user space instead of over the query space avoids the bias to the most active users who submit much more queries than average users.

For each sampled dataset, we invited annotators who are familiar with IR and search process to determine each pair of successive queries of interest is across the border of a session. We made trivial pre-split process under two rules:

Queries from different users are not in the same session.

Queries from different days are not in the same session.

Table 2 shows some basic statistics of the annotated data set. During the annotation process, the annotators were guided to identify the user’s information need at the finest granularity ever possible, because we focus on the atomic information needs as described in Section 1. Consequently, the average numbers of queries in a session in both query logs are lower than previous studies.

|                        | AOL log | Sogou log |
|------------------------|---------|-----------|
| Queries                | 6407    | 6917      |
| Sessions               | 4571    | 5726      |
| Queries per session    | 1.40    | 1.21      |
| Longest session        | 21      | 12        |

Table 2. Summary of the annotation results in both query logs

3.3 Learning Framework

In this section we seek to build accurate global classification model based on the whole training data obtained in the previous sub-subsection for both the query logs. We built the models within SVM framework. The implementation of SVM we used is libSVM (Chang and Lin, 2001). For the sake of evaluations and of model integration in the next section, we set the prediction of SVM to be probability estimation of the test example being positive. All features were pre-scaled into $[0, 1]$ interval. We adopted the polynomial kernel, and for both datasets, we exhaustively tried each of the subset of the eight features using 5-fold cross validation. We found that using all the eight features yielded the best classification accuracy. Thus in the experiments in rest of this

1 http://www.sogou.com/labs/resources.html

2 The sampling schema and sample size was determined following (Gayo-Avello, 2009).
section and the next section, we adopt the entire feature set to build global classification models.

There is one parameter to be determined for feature extraction: the length of character-n-grams. The proper lengths on AOL log and Sogou log are different. We tried the length from 1 to 9, and according to cross validation accuracy, we found the best lengths for the two logs as 6 and 3 respectively.

3.4 Experimental Results

3.4.1 Baseline Methods

We provide two baseline methods for comparisons. The first method is the commonly used timeout methods. We tried different timeout thresholds from 5 minutes to 30 minutes with a step of 5 minutes, and found that for both query logs the 5 minutes’ threshold yield the best overall performance.

The second method achieved the best performance on the AOL log (Gayo-Avello, 2009), which addresses the session detection problem using a geometric interpolation method, in comparison to previous studies on this query log. We re-implemented this method and evaluated it on both the datasets. Similarly, the best parameters for the two query logs are different, such as the length of a character-n-gram. We only report the performance with the best parameter settings.

3.4.2 Analyzing the Performance

We analyze the performance of the SVM models according to precision, recall, $F_1$-mean and $F_{1.5}$-mean of predictions on session shift and continuation against human annotation data.

The $F_\beta$-mean is defined as:

$$F_\beta\text{-mean} = \frac{(1+\beta^2)PR}{\beta^2P + R}$$

where $P$ denotes precision and $R$ denotes recall. He et al. (2002) regards recall more important than precision, and set the value of $\beta$ in $F_\beta$-mean to 1.5. We also report performance under this measure.

In addition to traditional precision / recall based measures, we also perform ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) analysis to determine the discrimination power of different methods. The best merit of ROC analysis is that given a reference set, which is usually the human annotation results, it evaluates a set of indicator’s discrimination power for arbitrary binary classification problem independent of the critical value with which the class predictions are made.

Specifically, in the context session detection, regardless of the critical value that splits the classifier outputs into positive ones and negative ones (e.g. the 5-minutes’ timeout threshold and 50% probability in SVM’s output), the ROC analysis provides the overall discrimination power evaluation of the output set of a certain method (by trying to set each output value as the critical value). For the baseline method by Gayo-Avello, the core of the decision heuristics also had a critical value to be determined. For details, readers could refer to (Gayo-Avello, 2009).

3.4.3 Precision, Recall, and F-means

Before we examine the discrimination power of each session detection method’s output independent of the threshold value selected. In this subsection, we begin with a more traditional evaluation schema: setting a proper threshold to produce binary predictions. It is straightforward to set the threshold for SVM method to 50%, and as described in sub-subsection 3.1.1, the threshold for timeout method is 5 minutes. The threshold of Gayo-Avello’s method is implied in its heuristics.

Table 3 and Table 4 show the experimental results on AOL log and Sogou log respectively. For each dataset, we performed 1000-times bootstrap resampling, generating 1000 bootstrapped datasets with the same size as the original dataset. To test the statistical significance of performance differences, we adopted Wilcoxon signed-rank test on the performance measures computed from the 1000 bootstrapped dataset, and found comparisons between each pair of methods were all significant at 95% level.

The results show that SVM method clearly outperforms the baseline methods, and timeout method performs poorly. It may be argued that the poor performance of timeout method is due to the improper threshold value chosen. In this case, the ROC analysis, which assesses the discrimination power of a method’s output set independent of the threshold value chosen, is more suitable for performance evaluation.

Gayo-Avello method significantly outperforms the timeout method. But due to its heuristic nature, it is less likely to do better than the supervised-learning methods, although it avoids the over fitting issue. The Gayo-Avello method’s unstable performance in predicting session con-
3.4.4 ROC Analysis

By setting certain threshold value, we analyzed the three method’s performance using precision / recall based measures. In this sub-subsection, we try to set each value in an output set as the threshold value, and evaluate the discrimination power of methods by the area under the ROC curve.

Figure 1 shows the ROC curves of the SVM method and the two baseline methods: timeout and Gayo-Avello, for predicting session shifts. ROC curves for predicting session continuations are symmetric with respect to the reference line, so we omit them in the rest of this paper for the sake of space limit.

The results show that SVM method clearly outperforms the baseline methods in the prospective of discrimination power, with ROC area 0.9562 on AOL dataset and 0.9154 on Sogou dataset. The curves of the two baseline methods are clearly under that of SVM method. This means baseline methods can never achieve accuracy as high as SVM method w.r.t. a fixed false alarm (classification error) rate, nor false alarm rate as low as SVM method w.r.t. a fixed accuracy rate. Again, Gayo-Avello method significantly outperforms timeout method, while underperforms the SVM method. For the question in the previous sub-subsection, coinciding with previous studies (Murray et al., 2006; Jones and Klinkner, 2008), applying single timeout threshold always yields limited discrimination power, wherever the operating point on ROC curve (i.e. threshold value) is set.

4 Making Use of the Variability of Discrimination Power

In this section, we first analyze the amount of contribution that each feature makes and show that the contribution, i.e. the discrimination power of each feature varies dramatically across different users. Then, we propose an approach to making use of this variability. Finally through experimental results, we show that the proposed approach makes small, yet significant improvements to the SVM method in Section 3.

4.1 Variability of Discrimination Power

The ROC analysis of individual feature provides adequate characterizations of the discrimination power of the feature. Another advantage of adopting ROC analysis is that the results are independent not only of the critical value, but also of the scale of the feature values.

Figure 2 shows the ROC curves of all the eight features in both datasets. Note that some features are with a higher value indicating session continuation rather than session shift, so their ROC curves are below the reference line. The feature “time_interval” behaves exactly the same as the timeout method in Figure 1. For the rest of the features, “avg_ngram_distance”, “common_ngram” and “Jaccard_ngram” achieve the best discrimination powers, showing the character-n-gram representation is effective. The feature “common_char” performs significantly better in Sogou dataset than in AOL dataset, because Chinese characters convey much more information than English characters do. “common_suffix” performing worse than “common_prefix” reflects the custom of users. Users tend to add terms at the end of the query in a searching iteration, thus predicting session continuations by examining the common suffixes is problematic.
Figure 1. ROC analysis of SVM method and two baseline methods for predicting session shifts on both AOL and Sogou dataset. All comparisons between ROC areas within the same dataset are at least 95% statistically significant, because the corresponding confidence intervals do not overlap.

Figure 2. ROC analysis of individual features for predicting session shifts on both AOL and Sogou dataset. Note that some curves with similar ROC area values overlap each other.

In spite of the discrimination power a feature has, its behavior on different users is worthwhile to be examined. For selecting users that have sufficient data to draw stable conclusions, we consider only users who issued more than 50 queries in the datasets. Unfortunately, there are too few users (6 users) qualified in Sogou dataset, so we show only the statistics of ROC area values of each of the features in Table 5 based on 37 users in AOL dataset.

The statistics in Table 5 show that for different users. Recall that in sub-subsection 3.3.2, a 0.04 difference of ROC area make the performance of the SVM method significantly better.
than that of the Gayo-Avello’s method. Thus, the discrimination power of a feature is likely to vary significantly, because all the standard deviations are at 0.03 or even higher level. Especially, the minimum and maximum values show that for these users, some of the findings above from the whole dataset do not hold. This implies that it is likely more feasible to build specific local models for these users to make full use of the variability within the same feature.

| Feature            | avg.  | sdev. | min.  | max.  |
|--------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| time_interval      | 0.780 | 0.088 | 0.476 | 0.912 |
| avg_ngram_distance | 0.954 | 0.034 | 0.861 | 1.000 |
| edit_distance      | 0.883 | 0.056 | 0.733 | 0.990 |
| common_prefix      | 0.224 | 0.069 | 0.099 | 0.327 |
| common_suffix      | 0.299 | 0.113 | 0.064 | 0.578 |
| common_char        | 0.143 | 0.082 | 0.037 | 0.493 |
| common_ngram       | 0.051 | 0.037 | 0.000 | 0.187 |
| jaccard_ngram      | 0.049 | 0.036 | 0.000 | 0.173 |

Table 5. Average, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum ROC areas of individual features

### 4.2 Building Local Models

We built individual local models for each user that issued more than 50 queries in AOL dataset. We also performed 5-fold cross validations and set the prediction to be the probability estimation of a test example being positive. The feature selection process showed again that all the eight features are beneficial, and none of them should be excluded.

In each fold of cross validation, we performed 90%-bagging on the training set 10 times to get the variance estimations of the local model. For each example in the test set, we set the final output on it to be the average of the 10 outputs, and recorded the standard deviation of the outputs on this example which is used during the model combination. We also conducted the same process for the global model for the sake of combination process described below.

### 4.3 Combing with the Global Model

Since the predictions of both the local and the global models are probability estimations, it is reasonable to combine them using linear combination. For each example, there are two outputs $O_l$ and $O_g$ coming from local and global models accordingly. For each example $e$ of a user’s sub dataset $U$, we have the outputs $O_l(e)$ and $O_g(e)$ as well as the normalized deviations $D_l(e)$ and $D_g(e)$ (by the largest deviation in $U$ of the corresponding models). The final output $O(e)$ is defined as:

$$O(e) = \frac{D_l(e) \cdot O_l(e) + D_g(e) \cdot O_g(e)}{D_l(e) + D_g(e)}$$

This combination process is similar to (Osl et al., 2008). Note that the more the deviation of a model is, the less feasible the corresponding model is. We compared the performance of three models: global model, local model, and combined model. The results are summarized in Table 6. All comparisons between different models are statistically significant at 95% level, based on the same bootstrapping settings in subsection 3.4.3. The combined model shows slight (may due to the inferior performance of the local model), yet significant improvement to the global model. In spite of the amount of the improvement, the local model did correct some errors of the global model. It may be not acceptable to build such an expensive combined model for a limited improvement. Nevertheless, the results do show that the variability across different users is exploitable.

### 5 Discussion and Conclusion

In this paper, we built a learning framework of detecting sessions which corresponds to user’s interest in a query log. We considered two aspect of a pair of successive queries: temporal aspect and content aspect, and designed eight features based on these two aspects, and the SVM models built with these features achieved satisfactory performance (92.37% $P_{1,5}$-mean on session shift, 90.25% $P_{1,5}$-mean on session continuation), significantly better than the best-ever approach on AOL query log.
The analysis of the features’ discrimination power was conducted not only among different features, but also within the same feature when applied to different users in the query log. By analyzing the statistics of ROC area values of each of the features based on 37 users in AOL dataset, experimental results showed that there is considerable variability in both these aspects. To make full use of this variability, we built local models for individual user and combine the yielded predictions with those yielded by the global model. Experiments showed that the local model did make significant improvements to the global model, although the amount was small (92.45% vs. 92.18% F1-mean on session shift, 89.69% vs. 89.41% F1-mean on session continuation).

In future studies, we will explore other learning frameworks which better integrate the local model and the global model, and will try to acquire more data to build local models. We will also analyze more deeply the characteristics of ROC analysis in the feature selection process.

Acknowledgement

This work is supported by the Key Project of Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No.60736044), and National 863 Project (Grant No.2006AA010108). The authors are grateful for the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments.

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