Chapter VI The Methodology of Search Log Analysis

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ABSTRACT

Exploiting the data stored in search logs of Web search engines, Intranets, and Websites can provide important insights into understanding the information searching tactics of online searchers. This understanding can inform information system design, interface development, and information architecture construction for content collections. This article presents a review of and foundation for conducting Web search transaction log analysis. A search log analysis methodology is outlined consisting of three stages (i.e., collection, preparation, and analysis). The three stages of the methodology are presented in detail with discussions of the goals, metrics, and processes at each stage. The critical terms in transaction log analysis for Web searching are defined. Suggestions are provided on ways to leverage the strengths and addressing the limitations of transaction log analysis for Web searching research.

INTRODUCTION

Information searching researchers have employed search logs for analyzing a variety of Web information systems (Croft, Cook, & Wilder, 1995; Jansen, Spink, & Saracevic, 2000; Jones, Cunningham, & McNab, 1998; Wang, Berry, & Yang, 2003). Web search engine companies use search logs (also referred to as transaction logs) to investigate searching trends and effects of system improvements (c.f., Google at http://www.google.

com/press/zeitgeist.html or Yahoo! at http://buzz. yahoo.com/buzz_log/?fr=fp-buzz-morebuzz). Search logs are an unobtrusive method of collecting significant amounts of searching data on a sizable number of system users. There are several researchers who have employed the search log analysis methodology to study Web searching; however, not as many as one might expect.

One possible reason is that there are limited published works concerning how to employ search logs to support the study of Web searching, the use

of Web search engines, Intranet searching, or other Web searching applications. None of the published works provide a comprehensive explanation of the methodology. This chapter addresses the use of search log analysis (also referred to as transaction log analysis) for the study of Web searching and Web search engines in order to facilitate its use as a research methodology. A three-stage process composed of data *collection*, *preparation*, *and analysis* is presented for transaction log analysis. Each stage is addressed in detail and a stepwise methodology to conduct transaction log analysis for the study of Web searching is described. The strengths and shortcomings of search log analysis are discussed.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

What is a Search Log?

Not surprisingly, a search log is a file (i.e., log) of the communications (i.e., transactions) between a system and the users of that system. Rice and Borgman (1983) present transaction logs as a data collection method that automatically captures the type, content, or time of transactions made by a person from a terminal with that system. Peters (1993) views transaction logs as electronically recorded interactions between on-line information retrieval systems and the persons who search for the information found in those systems.

For Web searching, a search log is an electronic record of interactions that have occurred during a searching episode between a Web search engine and users searching for information on that Web search engine. A Web search engine may be a general-purpose search engine, a niche search engine, a searching application on a single Web site, or variations on these broad classifications. The users may be humans or computer programs acting on behalf of humans. Interactions are the communication exchanges that occur between

users and the system. Either the user or the system may initiate elements of these exchanges.

How are These Interactions Collected?

The process of recording the data in the search log is relatively straightforward. Web servers record and store the interactions between searchers (i.e., actually Web browsers on a particular computer) and search engines in a log file (i.e., the transaction log) on the server using a software application. Thus, most search logs are server-side recordings of interactions. Major Web search engines execute millions of these interactions per day. The server software application can record various types of data and interactions depending on the file format that the server software supports.

Typical transaction log formats are access log, referrer log, or extended log. The W3C (http://www.w3.org/TR/WD-logfile.html) is one organizational body that defines transaction log formats. However, search logs are a special type of transaction log file. This search log format has most in common with the extended file format, which contains data such as the client computer's Internet Protocol (IP) address, user query, search engine access time, and referrer site, among other fields

Why Collect This Data?

Once the server collects and records the data in a file, one must analyze this data in order to obtain beneficial information. The process of conducting this examination is referred to as *transaction log analysis* (TLA). TLA can focus on many interaction issues and research questions (Drott, 1998), but it typically addresses either issues of system performance, information structure, or user interactions.

In other views, Peters (1993) describes TLA as the study of electronically recorded interactions between on-line information retrieval systems and

the persons who search for information found in those systems. Blecic and colleagues (1998) define TLA as the detailed and systematic examination of each search command or query by a user and the following database result or output. Phippen, Shepherd, and Furnell (2004) and Spink and Jansen (2004) also provide comparable definitions of TLA.

For Web searching research, we focus on a sub-set of TLA, namely search log analysis (SLA). One can use TLA to analyze the browsing or navigation patterns within a Website, while SLA is concerned exclusively with searching behaviors. SLA is defined as the use of data collected in a search log to investigate particular research questions concerning interactions among Web users, the Web search engine, or the Web content during searching episodes. Within this interaction context, SLA could use the data in search logs to discern attributes of the search process, such as the searcher's actions on the system, the system responses, or the evaluation of results by the searcher.

The goal of SLA is to gain a clearer understanding of the interactions among searcher, content and system or the interactions between two of these structural elements, based on whatever research questions are the drivers for the study. From this understanding, one achieves some stated objective, such as improved system design, advanced searching assistance, or better understanding of some user information searching behavior.

What is the Theoretical Basis of TLA (and SLA)?

TLA and its sub-component, SLA, lend themselves to a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This approach emphasizes a systematic discovery of theory from data using methods of comparison and sampling. The resulting theories or models are grounded in observations of the "real world," rather than being abstractly generated. Therefore, grounded theory

is an inductive approach to theory or model development, rather than the deductive alternative (Chamberlain, 1995).

Using SLA as a methodology in information searching, one examines the characteristics of searching episodes in order to isolate trends and identify typical interactions between searchers and the system. Interaction has several meanings in information searching, addressing a variety of transactions including query submission, query modification, results list viewing, and use of information objects (e.g., Web page, pdf file, video). Efthimiadis and Robertson (1989) categorize interaction at various stages in the information retrieval process by drawing from informationseeking research. SLA deals with the tangible interaction between user and system in each of these stages. SLA addresses levels one and two (move and tactic) of Bates' (1990) four levels of interaction, which are move, tactic, stratagem, and strategy. Belkin and fellow researchers (1995) have extensively explored user interaction based on user needs, from which they developed a multi-level view of searcher interactions. SLA focuses on the specific expressions of these user needs. Saracevic (1997) views interaction as the exchange of information between users and system. Increases in interaction result from increases in communication content. SLA is concerned with the exchanges and manner of these exchanges. Hancock-Beaulieu (2000) identifies three aspects of interaction, which are interaction within and across tasks, interaction as task sharing, and interaction as a discourse. One can use SLA to analyze the interactions within, across, and sharing.

For the purposes of SLA, interactions can be considered *the physical expressions of communication exchanges between the searcher and the system*. For example, a searcher may submit a query (i.e., an interaction). The system may respond with a results page (i.e., an interaction). The searcher may click on a uniform resource locator (URL) in the results listing (i.e., an inter-

action). Therefore, for SLA, interaction is a more mechanical expression of underlying information needs or motivations.

How is SLA Used?

Researchers and practitioners have used SLA (usually referred to as TLA in these studies) to evaluate library systems, traditional information retrieval (IR) systems, and more recently Web systems. Transaction logs have been used for many types of analysis; in this review, we focus on those studies that centered on or about searching. Peters (1993) provides a review of TLA in library and experimental IR systems. Some progress has been made in TLA methods since Peters' summary (1993) in terms of collection and ability to analyze data. Jansen and Pooch (2001) report on a variety of studies employing TLA for the study of Web search engines and searching on Web sites. Jansen and Spink (2005) provide a comprehensive review of Web searching TLA studies. Other review articles include Kinsella and Bryant (1987) and Fourie (2002).

Employing TLA in research projects, Meister and Sullivan (1967) may be the first to have conducted and documented TLA results, and Penniman (1975) appears to have published one of the first research articles using TLA. There have been a variety of TLA studies since (c.f., Baeza-Yates & Castillo, 2001; Chau, Fang, & Sheng, 2006; Fourie & van den Berg, 2003; Millsap & Ferl, 1993; Moukdad & Large, 2001; Park, Bae, & Lee, 2005).

Several papers have discussed the use of TLA as a methodological approach. Sandore and Kaske (1993) review methods of applying the results of TLA. Borgman, Hirsch, and Hiller (1996) comprehensively review past literature to identify the methodologies that these studies employed, including the goals of the studies. Several researchers have viewed TLA as a high-level designed process, including Copper (1998). Other researchers, such as Hancock-Beaulieu, Robertson, and

Nielsen (1990), Griffiths, Hartley, and Willson (2002), Bains (1997), Hargittai (2002), and Yuan and Meadows (1999), have advocated using TLA in conjunction with other research methodologies or data collection. Alternatives for other data collection include questionnaires, interviews, video analysis, and verbal protocol analysis.

How is SLA Critiqued?

Almost from its first use, researchers have critiqued TLA as a research methodology (Blecic et al., 1998; Hancock-Beaulieu et al., 1990; Phippen et al., 2004). These critiques report that transaction logs do not record the users' perceptions of the search, cannot measure the underlying information need of the searchers, and cannot gauge the searchers' satisfaction with search results. In this vein, Kurth (1993) reports that transaction logs can only deal with the actions that the user takes, not their perceptions, emotions, or background skills.

Kurth (1993) further identifies three methodological issues with TLA, which are: *execution*, *conception*, and *communication*. Kurth (1993) states that TLA can be difficult to execute due to collection, storage, and analysis issues associated with the hefty volume and complexity of the dataset (i.e., significant number of variables). With complex datasets, it is sometimes difficult to develop a conceptual methodology for analyzing the dependent variables. Communication problems occur when researchers do not define terms and metrics in sufficient detail to allow other researchers to interpret and verify their results.

Certainly, any researcher who has used TLA would agree with these critiques. However, upon reflection, these are issues with many, if not all, empirical methodologies (McGrath, 1994). Further, although Kurth's critique (1993) is still generally valid, advances in transaction logging software, standardized transaction log formats, and improved data analysis software and methods have addressed many of these shortcomings.

Certainly, the issue with terms and metrics still apply (Jansen & Pooch, 2001).

As an additional limitation, transaction logs are primarily a server-side data collection method; therefore, some interaction events (Hilbert & Redmiles, 2001) are masked from these logging mechanisms, such as when the user clicks on the back or print button on the browser software, or cuts or pastes information from one window to another on a client computer. Transaction logs also, as stated previously, do not record the underlying situational, cognitive, or affective elements of the searching process, although the collection of such data can inform system design (Hilbert & Redmiles, 1998).

What are the Tools to Support SLA?

In an effort to address these issues, Hancock-Beaulieu, Robertson, and Nielsen (1990) developed a transaction logging software package that included online questionnaires to enhance TLA of browsing behaviors. This application was able to gather searcher responses via the questionnaires, but it also took away the unobtrusiveness (one of the strengths of the method) of the transaction log approach. Some software has been developed for unobtrusively logging client-side types of events, for example, the *Tracker* research package (Choo, Betlor, & Turnbull, 1998; Choo & Turnbull, 2000), the Wrapper (Jansen, Ramadoss, Zhang, & Zang, 2006), and commercial spyware software systems.

In other tools for examining transaction log data, Wu, Yu, and Ballman (1998) present Speed-Tracer, which is a tool for data mining Web server logs. However, given that transaction log data is usually stored in ASCII text files, relational databases or text-processing scripts work extremely well for TLA. Wang, Berry, and Yang (2003) used a relational database, as did Jansen, Spink, and Saracevic (2000) and Jansen, Spink, and Pederson (2005). Silverstein, Henzinger, Marais, and Moricz (1999) used text processing scripts. All

approaches have advantages and disadvantages. With text processing scripts, the analysis can be done in one pass. However, if additional analysis needs to be done, the whole dataset must be reanalyzed. With the relational database approach, the analysis is done in incremental portions; and one can easily add additional analysis steps, building from what has already been done.

In another naturalistic study, Kelly (2004) used WinWhatWhere Investigator, which is a spy software package that covertly "monitors" a person's computer activities. Spy software has some inherent disadvantages for use in user studies and evaluation including granularity of data capture and privacy concerns. Toms, Freund, and Li (2004) developed the WiIRE system for conducting large scale evaluations. This system facilities the evaluation of dispersed study participants; however, it is a server-side application focusing on the participant's interactions with the Web server. As such, the entire "study" must occur within the WiIRE framework.

There are commercial applications for general purpose (i.e., not specifically IR) user studies. An example is Morae 1.1 (http://www.techsmith. com/products/morae/default.asp) offered by TechSmith. Morae provides extremely detailed tracking of user actions, including video capture over a network. However, Morae is not specifically tailored for information searching studies and captures so much information at such a fine granularity that it significantly complicates the data analysis process.

How to Conduct TLA for Web Searching Research?

Despite the abundant literature on TLA, there are few published manuscripts on how actually to conduct it, especially with respect to SLA for Web searching. Some works do provide fairly comprehensive descriptions of the methods employed including Cooper (1998), Nicholas, Hunteytenn, and Lievestey (1999), Wang, Berry,

and Yang (2003), and Spink and Jansen (2004). However, none of these articles presents a process or procedure for actually conducting TLA in sufficient detail to replicate the method. This chapter attempts to address this shortcoming building on work presented in (Jansen, 2006).

SLA PROCESS

Naturally, research questions need to be articulated to determine what data needs to be collected. However, search logs are typically of standard formats due to previously developed software applications. Given the interactions between users and Web browsers, which are the interfaces to Web search engines, the type of data that one can collect is standard. Therefore, the SLA methodology provided in this chapter is applicable to a wide range of studies.

SLA involves the following three major stages, which are:

- Data Collection: The process of collecting the interaction data for a given period in a transaction log;
- Preparation: The process of cleaning and preparing the transaction log data for analysis; and
- **Analysis:** The process of analyzing the prepared data.

Data Collection

The research questions define what information one must collect in a search log. Transaction logs provide a good balance between collecting a robust set of data and unobtrusively collecting that data (McGrath, 1994). Collecting data from real users pursuing needed information while interacting with real systems on the Web affects the type of data that one can realistically assemble. If one is conducting a naturalistic study (i.e., outside of the laboratory) on a real system (i.e., a system used by

actual searchers), the method of data monitoring and collecting should not interfere with the information searching process. In addition to the loss of potential customers, a data collection method that interferes with the information searching process may unintentionally alter that process.

Fields in a Standard Search Log

Table 1 provides a sample of a standard search log format collected by a Web search engine.

The fields are common in standard Web search engine logs, although some systems may log additional fields. A common additional field is a cookie identification code that facilitates identifying individual searchers using a common computer. A cookie is a text message given by a Web server to a Web browser. The cookie is stored on the client machine.

In order to facilitate valid comparisons and contrasts with other analysis, a standard terminology and set of metrics (Jansen & Pooch, 2001) is advocated. This standardization will help address one of Kurth's critiques (1993) concerning the communication of SLA results across studies. Others have also noted terminology as an issue in Web research (Pitkow, 1997). The standard field labels and descriptors are presented below.

A *searching episode* is a series of searching interactions within a given temporal span by a single searcher. Each record, shown as a row in Table 1, is a *searching interaction*. The format of each *searching interaction* is:

- *User Identification*: The IP address of the client's computer. This is sometimes also an anonymous user code address assigned by the search engine server, which is our example in Table 1.
- *Date:* The date of the interaction as recorded by the search engine server.
- *The Time*: The time of the interaction as recorded by the search engine server.

Table 1. Snippet from a Web Search Engine Search Log

user identification	date	thetime	search_url
ce00160c04c4158087704275d69fbecd	25/Apr/2004	04:08:50	Sphagnum Moss Harvesting + New Jersey + Raking
38f04d74e651137587e9ba3f4f1af315	25/Apr/2004	04:08:50	emailanywhere
fabc953fe31996a0877732a1a970250a	25/Apr/2004	04:08:54	Tailpiece
5010dbbd750256bf4a2c3c77fb7f95c4	25/Apr/2004	04:08:54	1'personalities AND gender AND education'1
25/Apr/2004	04:08:54	dmr panasonic	
89bf2acc4b64e4570b89190f7694b301	25/Apr/2004	04:08:55	bawdy poems"
	"Mark Twain""	25/Apr/2004	
397e056655f01380cf181835dfc39426		04:08:56	gay porn
a9560248d1d8d7975ffc455fc921cdf6	25/Apr/2004	04:08:58	skin diagnostic
81347ea595323a15b18c08ba5167fbe3	25/Apr/2004	04:08:59	Pink Floyd cd label cover scans
3c5c399d3d7097d3d01aeea064305484	25/Apr/2004	04:09:00	freie stellen dangaard
9dafd20894b6d5f156846b56cd574f8d	25/Apr/2004	04:09:00	Moto.it
415154843dfe18f978ab6c63551f7c86	25/Apr/2004	04:09:00	Capablity Maturity Model VS.
c03488704a64d981e263e3e8cf1211ef	25/Apr/2004	04:09:01	ana cleonides paulo fontoura

Note: Bolded items are intentional errors

• Search URL: The query terms as entered by the user.

Web search engine server software normally always records these fields. Other common fields include *Results Page* (a code representing a set of result abstracts and URLs returned by the search engine in response to a query), *Language* (the user preferred language of the retrieved Web pages), *Source* (the federated content collection searched, also known as *Vertical*), and *Page Viewed* (the URL that the searcher visited after entering the query and viewing the results page, which is also known as *click-thru or click-through*).

Data Preparation

Once the data is collected, one moves to the data preparation stage of the SLA process. For data preparation, the focus is on importing the search log data into a relational database (or

other analysis software), assigning each record a primary key, cleaning the data (i.e., checking each field for bad data), and calculating standard interaction metrics that will serve as the basis for further analysis.

Figure 1 shows the Entity – Relation (ER) diagram for the relational database that will be used to store and analyze the data from our search log.

An ER diagram models the concepts and perceptions of the data and displays the conceptual schema for the database using standard ER notation. Table 2 presents the legend for the schema constructs names.

Since search logs are in ASCII format, one can easily import the data into most relational databases. A key thing is to import the data in the same coding schema in which it was recorded (e.g., UTF-8, US-ASCII). Once imported, each record is assigned a unique identifier or primary key. Most modern databases can assign this au-

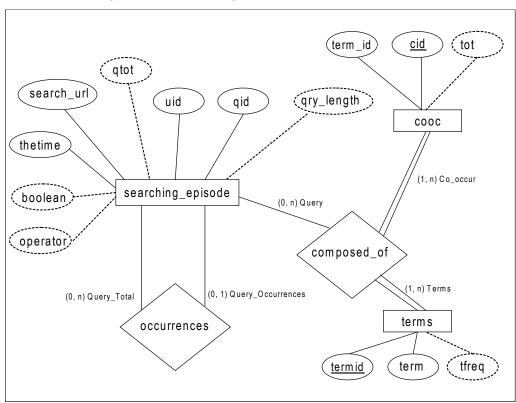


Figure 1. ER Scheme Diagram Web Search Log

Table 2. Legend for ER Schema Constructs for Search Log.

Entity Name	Construct		
Searching_Episodes	a table containing the searching interactions		
boolean	denotes if the query contains Boolean operators		
operators	denotes if the query contains advanced query operators		
q_length	query length in terms		
qid	primary key for each record		
qtot	number of results pages viewed		
searcher_url	query terms as entered by the searcher		
thetime	time of day as measured by the server		
uid	user identification based on IP		
Terms	table with terms and frequency		
term_ID	term identification		
term	term from the query set		
tfreq	number of occurrences of term in the query set		
Cooc	table term pairs and the number of occurrences of those pairs		
term_ID	term identification		
cid	the combined term identification for a pair of terms		
tot	number of occurrences of the pair in the query set		

tomatically on importation, or one can assign it later using scripts.

Cleaning the Data

Once the search log data is in a suitable analysis software package, the focus shifts to cleaning the data. Records in search logs can contain corrupted data. These corrupted records can be as a result of multiple reasons; but they are mostly related to errors when logging the data. In the example shown in Table 1, one can easily spot these records (additionally these records are bolded), but many times a search log will number millions if not billions of records. Therefore, a visual inspection is not practical for error identification. From experience, one method of rapidly identifying most errors is to sort each field in sequence. Since the erroneous data will not fit the pattern of the other data in the field, these errors will usually appear at the top of, bottom of, or grouped together in each sorted field. Standard database functions to sum and group key fields such as time and IP address will usually identify any further errors. One must remove all records with corrupted data from the transaction log database. Typically, the percentage of corrupted data is small relative to the overall database.

Parsing the Data

Using the three fields of *The Time*, *User Identification*, and *Search URL*, common to all Web search logs, the chronological series of actions in a searching episode is recreated. The Web query search logs usually contain queries from both human users and agents. Depending on the research objective, one may be interested in only individual human interactions, those from common user terminals, or those from agents. For the running example used in this chapter, we will consider the case of only having an interest in human searching episodes. To do this, all sessions

with less than 101 queries are separated into an individual search log for this example.

Given that there is no way to accurately identify human from non-human searchers (Silverstein et al., 1999; Sullivan, 2001), most researchers using Web search log either ignore it (Cacheda & Viña, 2001) or assume some temporal or interaction cutoff (Montgomery & Faloutsos, 2001; Silverstein et al., 1999). Using a cut-off of 101 queries, the subset of the search log is weighted to queries submitted primarily by human searchers in a non-common user terminal, but 101 queries is high enough not to introduce bias by too low of a cut-off threshold. The selection of 101 is arbitrary, and other researchers have used a wide variety of cut-offs.

There are several methods to remove these large sessions. One can code a program to count the session lengths and then delete all sessions that have lengths over 100. For smaller log files (a few million or so records), it is just as easy to do with SQL queries. To do this, one must first remove records that do not contain queries. From experience, search logs may contain many such records (usually on the order of 35 to 40 percent of all records) as users go to Web sites for purposes other than searching.

Normalizing Searching Episodes

When a searcher submits a query, then views a document, and returns to the search engine, the Web server typically logs this second visit with the identical user identification and query, but with a new time (i.e., the time of the second visit). This is beneficial information in determining how many of the retrieved *results pages* the searcher visited from the search engine, but unfortunately, it also skews the results in analyzing how the query level of analysis. In order to normalize the searching episodes, one must first separate these result page requests from query submissions for each searching episode. An example of how to do this can be found in the SQL query #00 (Appendix A).

From a *tbl_main*, this will create a new table *tbl_searching_episodes* which contains a count of multiple submissions (i.e., *qtot*) from each searcher within each record as shown in Figure 2. This collapses the search log by combining all identical queries submitted by the same user to give the unique queries in order to analyze sessions, queries and terms, and pages of results (i.e., *tbl_searching_episodes*). Use the complete un-collapsed sessions (i.e., *tbl_main*) in order to obtain an accurate measure of the temporal length of sessions. The *tbl_searching_episodes* will now be used for the remainder of our TLA. Use SQL query #01, Appendix A to identify the sessions

with more than 100 records. Then, one can delete these records from *tbl_searching_episodes* using the SQL delete query #02, Appendix A.

In SLA, many times one is interested in terms and term usage, which can be an entire study in itself. In these cases, it is often cleaner to generate separate tables that contain each term and their frequency of occurrence. A term co-occurrence table that contains each term and its co-occurrence with other terms is also valuable for understanding the data. If using a relational database, one can generate these tables using scripts. If using text-parsing languages, one can parse these terms and associated data out during initial processing.

Microsoft Access - [tbl_searching_episodes : Table _ | P | X : File Edit View Insert Format Records Tools Window Help - - 5 > | 数 数 | 多 **酒** 图 date thetime qtot qry_length search_url operator 1 ce00160c04c4158087704275d69fbecd 25/Apr/2004 04:08:50 Sphagnum Moss Harvesting + New Jersey + Raking 25/Apr/2004 04:08:50 25/Apr/2004 04:08:54 2 38fD4d74e651137587e9ba3f4f1af315 3 fabc953fe31996a0877732a1a970250a emailanywhere Tailpiece 4 5010dbhd750256bf4a2c3c77fb7f95c4 25/Apr/2004 04:08:54 25/Apr/2004 04:08:54 1'personalities AND gender AND education'1 5 daade90d883432ddf6cf3fb509e3bf41 dmr panasonio bawdy poems' "Mark Twain" 6 89bf2acc4b64e4570b89190f7694b301 25/Apr/2004 04:08:55 7 9f6fa2a8d5b12a1f8380ed4ea1483b2b 8 397e056655f01380cf181835dfc39426 25/Apr/2004 04:08:56 04:08:56 25/Apr/2004 gay porn 9 a9560248d1d8d7975ffc455fc921cdf6 10 81347ea595323a15b18c08ba5167fbe3 skin diagnostic Pink Floyd cd label cover scans 25/Apr/2004 04:08:58 25/Apr/2004 04:08:59 freie stellen dangaard 11 3c5c399d3d7097d3d01aeea064305484 25/Apr/2004 ∩4:n9:nn 12 9dafd20894b6d5f156846b56cd574f8d 25/Apr/2004 04:09:00 13 415154843dfe18f978ab6c63551f7c86 04:09:00 Capablity Maturity Model VS 25/Apr/2004 ana cleonides paulo fontoura 14 c03488704a644981e263e3e8cf1211ef 25/Apr/2004 04:09:01 15 7ab6a96ee504b5f54773f8cff3999354 25/Apr/2004 04:09:01 quetschrippen konstruktion kunststoff 16 01305f695166f2fc135bf26ee52d2a3b 25/Apr/2004 04:09:02 lovette password 17 eedec6d2ecc3519ea7747db9982abf57 25/Apr/2004 04:09:04 free porn 18 3438f445fa250f7377befde4f188a09b 04:09:04 25/Apr/2004 centro 25/Apr/2004 04:09:07 25/Apr/2004 04:03:18 19 ef8871c24d88b96ee8813cb361445040 sex toys news "blue oak" "Quercus douglas 20 cbf06662b4977b1b3161f1f3ea7e4ae4 25/Apr/2004 04:09:09 international investment on nanotechnology 21 9a44e9c5502a6b9ba9af1f0e443245b9 22 e40dab084acb6776a3aa57e8cea5b82t 23 fabc953fe31996a0877732a1a970250a 04:09:10 04:09:12 mosquito keychain 25/Apr/2004 25/Apr/2004 Valve Tailpiece 24 74574c974f7301ea4ba056fa00fab71b 25 143e559163fbf75e16a52a6d550fb01c 25/Apr/2004 04:09:13 25/Apr/2004 04:02:46 wayne frocklage" Canadian pacific railway matcho central 26 fc66620a68627983d416a8dd1afa0d73 25/Apr/2004 04:02:46 Pascal convert decimal to hex bang bros"king chile CFISCO 27 7bff0819a1cdaf645f27f39842bde4b5 28 59515ed43dfaa2dde796f3bab8045514 25/Apr/2004 04:02:46 25/Apr/2004 04:02:46 29 3fb5e9a52e76fDfc344977c27e914ea8 30 dacca5152e8e0975629cb994fbc0b447 25/Apr/2004 04:02:47 "Stargate" desktop themes 25/Apr/2004 04:02:51 carrieland gallery 31 4167eh02168d2hc169ffa196d7h10fd5 25/Anr/2004 04:02:53 "femdom nicture 32 cd7b9dc409c60de204b94105830176ba 25/Apr/2004 04:02:55 33 6b19f010e49a39d7103eabba4530fb74 25/Apr/2004 04:02:56 efficacy 04:02:58 http://kickme.to/xaliasx 04:03:14 P.M." 34 5a20077ed4f1d8a7b41de52aca6ad756 35 93cde4db94cc12cc852e7c4ad352620d 25/Apr/2004 25/Apr/2004 36 1c1c9d058d8dd3cfadb3ee54851f3624 25/Apr/2004 04:03:01 quattro elementi measurement high temp 37 bae5567110a17a941254661fda3205f0 25/Apr/2004 04:03:02 38 606eb104503f078f5fdf20385e58544a 25/Apr/2004 04:03:02 levicom watercube 39 Ofcec5c427a7a1b9393f538ff5373904 40 082206ccd56dddc56894304522400d4d 25/Apr/2004 04:03:03 notebook mediamarkt 25/Apr/2004 04:03:03 www.dancentury.com www.dancentury.com/cicada/wedding.html 41 5b43061638aef9d59dd351542c98f1fa 25/Apr/2004 04:03:04 mensajes subliminales un la publicidad 42 07ff54fb225084bfe3c746c320222b5b 43 07ff54fb225084bfe3c746c320222b5b 25/Apr/2004 04:03:04 25/Apr/2004 onlinetexting 25/Apr/2004 04:03:12 25/Apr/2004 04:03:14 44 177219518313a13d3469e8ad9d1d5a7c Art Art history 45 177219518313a13d3469e8ad9d1d5a7c 46 cd7b9dc409c60de204b94105830176ba 25/Apr/2004 04:02:57 "Jim Jansen" Record: I◀ ◀

Figure 2. Records of Searching Episodes with Number of Duplicate Queries (qtot) Recorded

We see these as *tbl_terms* and *tbl_cooc* in our database (see Figure 1 and Table 2).

There are already several fields in our database, many of which can provide valuable information (see Figure 1 and Table 2). From these items, one can calculate several metrics, some of which take a long time to compute for large datasets.

DATA ANALYSIS

This stage focuses on three levels of analysis. These levels are discussed and the data analysis stage is stepped through.

Analysis Levels

The three common levels of analysis for examining transaction logs are *term*, *query*, *and session*.

Term Level Analysis

The term level of analysis naturally uses the *term* as the basis for analysis. A term is a string of characters separated by some delimiter such as a space or some other separator. At this level of analysis, one focuses on measures such as term occurrence, which is the frequency that a particular term occurs in the transaction log. Total terms is the number of terms in the dataset. *Unique terms* are the terms that appear in the data regardless of the number of times they occur. High Usage Terms are those terms that occur most frequently in the dataset. Term co-occurrence measures the occurrence of term pairs within queries in the entire search log. One can also calculate degrees of association of term pairs using various statistical measures (c.f., Ross & Wolfram, 2000; Silverstein et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2003).

The mutual information formula measures term association and does not assume mutual independence of the terms within the pair. We calculate the mutual information statistic for all term pairs within the data set. Many times, a relatively low frequency term pair may be strongly associated (i.e., if the two terms always occur together). The mutual information statistic identifies the strength of this association. The mutual information formula used in this research is:

$$I(w_1, w_2) = \ln \frac{P(w_1, w_2)}{P(w_1)P(w_2)}$$

where $P(w_p)$, $P(w_2)$ are probabilities estimated by relative frequencies of the two words and $P(w_p, w_2)$ is the relative frequency of the word pair and order is not considered. Relative frequencies are observed frequencies (F) normalized by the number of the queries:

$$P(w_1) = \frac{F_1}{Q'}; P(w_1) = \frac{F_2}{Q'}; P(w_1, w_2) = \frac{F_{12}}{Q'}$$

Both the frequency of term occurrence and the frequency of term pairs are the occurrence of the term or term pair within the set of queries. However, since a one term query cannot have a term pair, the set of queries for the frequency base differs. The number of queries for the terms is the number of non-duplicate queries in the data set. The number of queries for term pairs is defined as:

$$Q' = \sum_{n=0}^{m} (2n-3)Q_n$$

where Q_n is the number of queries with n words (n > 1), and m is the maximum query length. So, queries of length one have no pairs. Queries of length two have one pair. Queries of length three have three possible pairs. Queries of length four have five possible pairs. This continues up to the queries of maximum length in the data set. The formula for queries of term pairs (Q') account for this term pairing.

Query Level Analysis

The query level of analysis uses the query as the base metric. A *query* is defined as a string list of one or more terms submitted to a search engine. This is a mechanical definition as opposed to an information searching definition (Korfhage, 1997). The first query by a particular searcher is the *initial query*. A subsequent query by the same searcher that is different than any of the searcher's other queries is a *modified query*. There can be several occurrences of different modified queries by a particular searcher. A subsequent query by the same searcher that is identical to one or more of the searcher's previous queries is an *identical query*.

In many Web search engine logs, when the searcher traverses to a new results page, this interaction is also logged as an *identical query*. In other logging systems, the application records the page rank. A results page is the list of results, either sponsored or organic (i.e., non-sponsored), returned by a Web search engine in response to a query. Using either *identical queries* or some results page field, one can analyze the result page viewing patterns of Web searchers.

One can examine other measures at the query level of analysis. A *unique query* refers to a query that is different from all other queries in the transaction log, regardless of the searcher. A *repeat query* is a query that appears more than once within the dataset by two or more searchers.

Query complexity examines the query syntax, including the use of advanced searching techniques such as Boolean and other query operators. Failure rate is a measure of the deviation of queries from the published rules of the search engine. The use of query syntax that the particular IR system does not support, but may be common on other IR systems, is carry over.

Session Level Analysis

At the session level of analysis, one primarily examines the within-session interactions (Han-

cock-Beaulieu, 2000). However, if the search log spanned more than one day or assigns some temporal limit to interactions from a particular user, one could examine between-sessions interactions. A session interaction is any specific exchange between the searcher and the system (i.e., submitting a query, clicking a hyperlink, etc.). A searching episode is defined as a series of interactions within a limited duration to address one or more information needs. This session duration is typically short, with Web researchers using between five and 120 minutes as a cutoff (c.f., He, Göker, & Harper, 2002; Jansen & Spink, 2003; Montgomery & Faloutsos, 2001; Silverstein et al., 1999). Each choice of time has an impact on the results, of course. The searcher may be multitasking (Miwa, 2001; Spink, 2004) within a searching episode, or the episode may be an instance of the searcher engaged in successive searching (Lin, 2002; Özmutlu, Özmutlu, & Spink, 2003; Spink, Wilson, Ellis, & Ford, 1998). This session definition is similar to the definition of a unique visitor used by commercial search engines and organizations to measure Web site traffic. The number of queries per searcher is the session length.

Session duration is the total time the user spent interacting with the search engine, including the time spent viewing the first and subsequent Web documents, except the final document. Session duration can therefore be measured from the time the user submits the first query until the user departs the search engine for the last time (i.e., does not return). This viewing time of the final Web document is not available since the Web search engine server does not record the time stamp. Naturally, the time between visits from the Web document to the search engine may not have been entirely spent viewing the Web document, which is a limitation of the measure.

A *Web document* is the Web page referenced by the URL on the search engine's results page. A Web document may be text or multimedia and, if viewed hierarchically, may contain a nearly

unlimited number of sub-Web documents. A Web document may also contain URLs linking to other Web documents. From the results page, a searcher may click on a URL, (i.e., visit) one or more results from the listings on the result page. This is *click through analysis* and measures the page viewing behavior of Web searchers. One measures document viewing duration as the time from when a searcher clicks on a URL on a results page to the time that searcher returns to the search engine. Some researchers and practitioners refer to this type of analysis as page view analysis. Click through analysis is possible if the transaction log contains the appropriate data.

Conducting the Data Analysis

The key to successful SLA is conducting the analysis with an organized approach. One method is to sequentially number and label the queries (or coded modules) to correspond to the order of execution and to their function, since many of these gueries must be executed in a certain order to obtain valid results. Many relational database management systems provide mechanisms to add descriptive properties to the queries. These can provide further explanations of the query function or relate these queries directly to research questions. Figure 3 illustrates the application of such an approach.

Microsoft Access - [transaction_log_example : Database (Access 2000 file format)] File Edit View Insert Tools Window Help □ 65 및 51 | 45 区, 47 | 16 压 15 - 1 및 - 1 局 - 1 包 ∞ 1 67 1 4 2 - 1 ② . ini Open Louisign Tal New | X | 3 ± 15 ± 11 mm Objects Description Create query in Design view Tables Create query by using wizard Queries this guery remove all duplicates from the main table

Figure 3. Sequentially numbered and descriptively labeled queries for SLA.

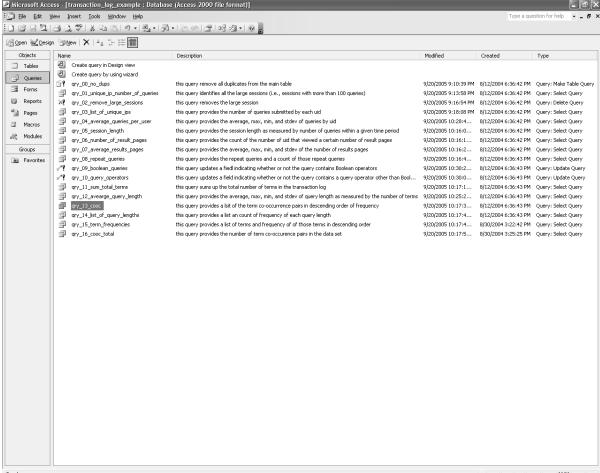


Figure 3 shows each query in sequence and provides a descriptive tag describing that query's function. To aid in reading, a list of queries is also provided in Appendix A.

One approaches SLA by conducting a series of standard analyses that are common to a wide variety of Web searching studies. Some of these analyses may directly address certain research questions. Others may be the basis for more indepth research analysis.

One typical question is "How many searchers have visited the search engine during this period?" One can determine this by using SQL query 4, (Appendix A). This query will provide a list of unique searchers and the number of queries they have submitted during the period. One can modify this and determine "How many searchers have visited the search engine on each day during this period?" with the SQL query 5, Appendix A. Naturally, a variety of statistical results can be determined using the previous queries. For example, one can determine the standard deviation of number of queries per day using the SQL query #6, Appendix A.

One may want to know each of the session lengths (i.e., the number of queries within a session) for each searcher, which SQL query #7 will provide. Similarly, one may desire the number of searchers who viewed a certain number of results pages, addressed by query #8, Appendix A.

One can calculate various statistical results on results page viewing, such as the maximum number of result pages viewed using SQL query #10, Appendix A. SQL query #11, Appendix A will present the number of queries per day. An important aspect for system designers is results caching, because one needs to know the number of repeat queries submitted by the entire set of searchers during the period. The SQL query #12, Appendix A will tell us this information.

In order to understand how searchers are interacting with a search engine, the use of Boolean operators is an important feature. The SQL query #13, Appendix A makes a table of interactions

with Boolean operators within the queries. Since most search engines offer other query syntax than just Boolean operators, the SQL query #14, Appendix A makes a table of queries containing other query syntax.

The SQL query #15, Appendix A provides a count of the number of terms within the transaction log. One certainly wants to know about query length; SQL query #16, Appendix A provides various statistics on query length: SQL query #17 provides the frequency of terms pairs within the transaction log, SQL query #18 provides a count of the various query lengths, SQL query #19 provides a count of the various term frequencies, and SQL query #20 provides a count of the term pairs within the transaction log.

The results from this series of queries both provides us a wealth of information about our data (e.g., occurrences of session lengths, occurrences of query length, occurrences of repeat queries, most used terms, most used term pairs) and serves as the basis for further investigations (e.g., session complexity, query structure, query modifications, term relationships).

DISCUSSION

It is certainly important to understand both the strengths and limitations of SLA for Web searching. First concerning the strengths, SLA provides a method of collecting data from a great number of users. Given the current nature of the Web, search logs appears to be a reasonable and non-intrusive means of collecting user - system interaction data during the Web information searching process from a large number of searchers. One can easily collect data on hundreds of thousands to millions of interactions, depending on the traffic of the Web site.

Second, one can collect this data inexpensively. The costs are the software and storage. Third, the data collection is unobtrusive, so the interactions

represent the unaltered behavior of searchers, assuming the data is from an operational searching site. Finally, search logs are, at present, the only method for obtaining significant amounts of search data within the complex environment that is the Web (Dumais, 2002). Of course, researchers can also be doing SLA from research sites or capture client-side data across multiple sites using a custom Web browser (for the purpose of data collection) that does not completely mimic the searcher's natural environment.

There are limitations of SLA, as with any methodology. First, there may be certain types of data not in the transaction log, individuals' identities being the most common example. An IP address typically represents the "user" in a search log. Since more than one person may use a computer, an IP address is an imprecise representation of the user. Search engines are overcoming this limitation somewhat by the use of cookies.

Second, there is no way to collect demographic data when using search logs in a naturalistic setting. This constraint is true of many non-intrusive naturalistic studies. However, there are several sources for demographic data on the Web population based on observational and survey data. From these data sources, one may get reasonable estimations of needed demographic data. However, this still not attributable specific search data to specific sub-populations.

Third, a search log does not record the reasons for the search, the searcher motivations, or other qualitative aspects of use. This is certainly a limitation. In the instances where one needs this data, one should use transaction log analysis in conjunction with other data collection methods. However, this invasiveness then lessens the unobtrusiveness, which is an inherent advantage of search logs as a data collection method.

Fourth, the logged data may not be complete due to caching of server data on the client machine or proxy servers. This is an often mentioned limitation. In reality, this is a relatively minor concern for Web search engine research due to the method with which most search engines dynamically produce their results pages. For example, a user accesses the page of results from a search engine using the *Back* button of a browser. This navigation accesses the results page via the cache on the client machine. The Web server will not record this action. However, if the user clicks on any URL on that results page, functions coded on the results page redirects the click first to the Web server, from which the Web server records the visit to the Web site.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, following the literature review, we presented a three-step methodology for conducting SLA, namely collecting, preparing, and analyzing. We then reviewed each step in detail, providing observations, guides, and lessons learned. We discussed the organization of the database at the ER-level, and we discussed the table design for standard search engine transaction logs. Furthermore, we provided 16 queries (Appendix B) one can use to conduct analysis. This presentation of the methodology at a detailed level of granularity will serve as an excellent basis for novice or experienced search log researchers.

Search logs are powerful tools for collecting data on the interactions between users and systems. Using this data, SLA can provide significant insights into user—system interactions, and it complements other methods of analysis by overcoming the limitations inherent in these methods. With respect to shortcomings, one can combine SLA with other data collection methods or other research results to improve the robustness of the analysis, when possible. Overall, SLA is a powerful tool for Web searching research, and the SLA process outlined here can be helpful in future Web searching research endeavors.

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KEY TERMS

Search Log: An electronic record of interactions that have occurred during a searching episode between a Web search engine and users searching for information on that Web search engine.

Search log Analysis (SLA): The use of data collected in a search log to investigate particular research questions concerning interactions among Web users, the Web search engine, or the Web content during searching episodes.

Interactions: The physical expressions of communication exchanges between the searcher and the system.

Search Log Analysis (SLA) Process: A three stage process of collection, preparation and analysis.

APPENDIX A

```
SQL Query 00:
  qry 00 no dups
  SELECT tbl main.uid, tbl main.date, tbl main.search url, Count(tbl main.search url)
       AS CountOfsearch url, First(tbl main.thetime) AS FirstOfthetime,
       First(tbl main.qid) AS FirstOfqid INTO tbl searching episodes
  FROM tbl main
  GROUP BY tbl main.uid, tbl main.date, tbl main.search url;
SQL Query 01:
  qry_01_unique_ip_number_of_queries
  SELECT tbl searching episodes.uid
  FROM tbl searching episodes
  GROUP BY tbl searching episodes.uid
  HAVING (((Count(tbl searching episodes.uid))>=100));
SQL Query 02:
  qry 02 remove large sessions
  DELETE tbl searching episodes.qid, tbl searching episodes.uid,
  tbl searching episodes.thetime, tbl searching episodes.search url,
  tbl searching episodes.qtot, tbl searching episodes.uid
  FROM tbl searching episodes
   WHERE (((tbl searching episodes.uid)="finset values here]"));
SQL Query 03:
  qry_03_list_of_unique_ips
  SELECT tbl searching episodes.uid, Count(tbl searching episodes.search url) AS
  CountOfsearch url
  FROM tbl searching episodes
  GROUP BY tbl searching episodes.uid
  ORDER BY Count(tbl searching episodes.search url) DESC;
SQL Query 04:
  qry_04_average_queries_per_user
  SELECT Avg(qry 03 list of unique ips.CountOfsearch url) AS
  AvgOfCountOfsearch url
  FROM gry 03 list of unique ips;
```

SQL Query 05: qry_05_session_length SELECT gry 03 list of unique ips.CountOfsearch url, Count(gry 03 list of unique ips.CountOfsearch url) AS CountOfCountOfsearch url FROM gry 03 list of unique ips GROUP BY gry 03 list of unique ips.CountOfsearch url ORDER BY Count(gry 03 list of unique ips.CountOfsearch url) DESC; SQL Query 06: gry 06 number of result pages SELECT tbl_searching_episodes.qtot, Count(tbl_searching_episodes.qtot) AS CountOfqtot FROM tbl searching episodes GROUP BY tbl searching episodes.qtot ORDER BY tbl searching episodes.qtot; SQL Query 07: qry 07 average results pages SELECT Avg(tbl searching episodes.qtot) AS AvgOfqtot FROM tbl searching episodes; SQL Query 08: gry 08 repeat queries SELECT tbl searching episodes.search url, Count(tbl searching episodes.search url) AS CountOfsearch url FROM tbl searching episodes GROUP BY tbl searching episodes.search url ORDER BY Count(tbl searching episodes.search url) DESC; SQL Query 09: gry 09 boolean queries UPDATE tbl searching episodes SET tbl searching episodes.boolean = True WHERE (((tbl searching episodes.search url) Like "* and *" Or

(tbl_searching_episodes.search_url) Like "* or *" Or (tbl_searching_episodes.search_url) Like "* and not *"));

SQL Query 10:

```
qry_10_query_operators
  UPDATE tbl searching episodes SET tbl searching episodes.operator = True
  WHERE (((tbl searching episodes.search url) Like '*" Or
  (tbl searching episodes.search url) Like "*+*" Or (tbl searching episodes.search url)
  Like "*[*]*" Or (tbl_searching_episodes.search_url) Like "*[?]*"));
SQL Query 11:
  qry 11 sum total terms
  SELECT Sum(tblterms.tfreq) AS SumOftfreq
  FROM tblterms;
SQL Query 12:
  qry 12 average query length
  SELECT Avg(tbl searching episodes.qry length) AS AvgOfqry length
  FROM tbl searching episodes;
SQL Query 13:
  qry 13 cooc
  SELECT tblterms.term, tblterms.term, tblcooc.tot
  FROM tblterms INNER JOIN tblcooc ON (tblterms.termid = tblcooc.cid2) AND
  (tblterms.termid = tblcooc.cidl)
  ORDER BY tblcooc.tot DESC;
SQL Query 14:
  qry_14_list_of_query_lengths
  SELECT tbl searching episodes.qry length, Count(tbl searching episodes.qry length)
  AS CountOfqry length
  FROM tbl searching episodes
  GROUP BY tbl searching episodes.qry length
  ORDER BY Count(tbl searching episodes.qry length) DESC;
SQL Query 15:
```

qry_15_term_frequencies

SELECT tblterms.tfreq FROM tblterms GROUP BY tblterms.tfreq ORDER BY tblterms.tfreq;

The Methodology of Search Log Analysis

SQL Query 16:

qry_16_cooc_total
SELECT Sum(tblcooc.tot) AS SumOftot
FROM tblcooc;