Relevance in Technicolor

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Abstract. In this article we propose the concept of relevance criteria
profiles, which provide a global view of user behaviour in judging the rel-
evance of retrieved information. We further propose a plotting technique
which provides a session based overview of the relevance judgement pro-
cesses interlaced with interactions that allow the researcher to visualise
and quickly detect emerging patterns in both interactions and relevance
criteria usage. We discuss by example, using data from a user study con-
ducted between the months of January and August of 2008, how these
tools support the better understanding of task based user valuation of
documents that is likely to lead to recommendations for improving end-
user services in digital libraries.

1 Introduction

Faced with the decision of whether or not to retain a piece of information in
their personal collection, individuals engage in gauging the value of a document.
This is distinct from a binary judgement regarding whether the document is
relevant or not relevant. The situation is akin to the valuation process used
by an antique dealer in assessing the value of a artefact: several criteria are
employed to determine the object value, e.g. in terms of date, rarity, popularity,
and condition of the object. Likewise, the qualitative or pragmatic value of a
document is determined by a number of criteria, e.g. currency, novelty, validity
and clarity. The consideration of these criteria results in an overall estimate of the
document's usefulness within the context of user tasks. The criteria employed,
although clearly related to metadata elements employed within libraries (e.g.
Dublin Core Metadata Elements `http://dublincore.org/documents/dces/`),
as well as the topicality of the document, do not map directly onto either of
these. By studying the way in which information searchers and seekers utilise
and weight these criteria, we hope to bridge the gap between human information
valuation behaviour, and implementations of information retrieval (IR) engines
and library end-user services.

To be able to study these criteria one must observe them first, and do so
in a realistic scenario. The guidelines for evaluating IR systems proposed by
Borlund [4] allows the researcher to gather both performance as well as cog-
nitive data; data which includes these relevance criteria observations. Realism
is achieved as the framework involves potential end-users as test persons and

the use of simulated work task situations; descriptions of a situation in which needs for information are triggered on users. This gathered data allows the experimenter to analyse not only final results such as number of relevant objects retrieved but also the processes that led to judgements of relevance. The analysis of the performance data gathered is usually done through the examination of the relevant metrics such as Precision and/or Recall [5], however analysing cognitive data such as the thought processes that led to the user-valuations of the documentation retrieved – *relevance processes* as we call them – may not be as straightforward.

In this article we propose a custom plotting technique which provides a novel approach to analysing both the relevance and interaction information gathered using Borlund's method. This approach involves customised visualisation techniques as well as the usage of protocol analysis. Qualitative data such as verbal reports are transformed into quantitative data using protocol analysis techniques which include transcriptions, segmentation and tagging of the segmented transcriptions. Once tagged, the segments can be analysed using standard quantitative measures. A quick overview of the potentially emerging patterns is obtained using a custom plotting of the data. This plotting includes information about the dimensions of relevance, the sequence of relevance judgement processes and the interactions observed during the search sessions.

The remainder of the article is structured as follows. In Section 2 we introduce Barry and Schamber's relevance criteria classes[2]. Section 3 describes think-aloud protocols and their processing. The main contribution of this work, namely relevance criteria profiles and session visualisations, are introduced and discussed in Section 4. In Section 6 we explore the data obtained from a user study conducted during the first half of 2008 using the techniques described in the previous section. We conclude with some final remarks and recommendations for future work in Section 7.

2   Relevance Criteria

Relevance judgements are often reduced to being binary judgements, or graded assessment, of relevance at best (cf. dicussions in [3]) providing no explanation to why the value was assigned. It could be that while a user considers one document to be relevant based on the length and depth of the information provided, s/he considers another document relevant based on it providing factual data and it being well written. In this paper, we focus on some of the reasons that might motivate relevance judgements.

Robertson and Hancock-Beaulieu[10] refer to these cognitive and behavioural aspects and describe three revolutions: the cognitive revolution, the relevance revolution and the interaction revolution. Briefly, the cognitive revolution posits the need of realism in investigating the formation of information needs. The relevance revolution also requires realism but in assessing relevance. The interactive revolution is about interactivity and IR not being a single-query process but more of a query-read-refine one. These three revolutions were acknowledged by

Borlund in the method of evaluation for Interactive IR (IIR) systems presented in [4].

Relevance criteria are preferences expressed by users when evaluating whether to obtain and use information, i.e. when they are evaluating the relevance of said information. Barry and Schamber suggest that there is *"evidence that a finite range of [relevance] criteria exists and that these criteria are applied consistently across types of information users, problem situations, and source environments"*[2]. The starting point they suggest for examining relevance criteria consists the overlap of taxonomies resulting from two studies[1, 11] on user relevance criteria. Both studies are similar in the methodologies used however the types of users, information sources and formats are quite different. In our work, we extend this overlap with some of the criteria appearing in Barry's original taxonomy[1]. The extension includes three forms of information novelty, users's background knowledge and their ability to understand the information. Some of the relevance criteria codes used are listed below:

- Depth/Scope/Specificity: whether the information is in depth or focused, has enough detail or is specific to the user's needs. Also whether it provides a summary or overview or a sufficient variety or volume.
- Tangibility: whether the information relates to tangible issues, hard data/facts are included or information provided was proven.
- Affectiveness: whether the user shows an affective or emotional response when presented the information.
- Ability to Understand: user's judgement that he/she will be able to understand information presented
- Document novelty: the extent to which the document itself is novel to the user

Here, we focus on profiling users and sessions with respect to their use of such relevance criteria in judging document relevance within the context of a task. We studied 21 subjects. These subjects were characterised by three types of affiliation (10 subjects from computing, 8 from information management, and 3 from pharmacy). Subjects were also grouped according to their levels of research experience (10 Ph.D. students, 7 researchers, and 4 senior researchers) and were assigned a task according to this level: writing a literature review for a thesis, framing the impact of a grant proposal, and preparing a keynote speech at a conference respectively.

By understanding relevance criteria usage (e.g. the frequency or distribution of selected criteria), and eventually understanding their relation to user interaction and their effect on relevance judgment, we might be able to determine which criteria to make explicit for what types of users within end-user services, and move towards a more comprehensive evaluation of retrieval system performance that takes the user's cognitive process, interaction and tasks into consideration.

3 Talk-aloud Protocols

Talk aloud protocols are based on the idea that talking aloud while solving a task provides a view of the thoughts as the task solving process is ongoing[6]. In an IR context using talk aloud protocols would provide a researcher with a raw view of the relevance judgement processes that users go through when searching for literature. By observing these processes, a researcher can examine them and in turn observe the relevance criteria within those processes.

After the verbal reports have been collected, they are transcribed and have to be segmented in utterance which are then to be encoded. The granularity of encoding performed on the utterances, if any, will depend on the researchers' needs. In our work we initially encoded utterances using one or more labels from the following encoding:

- Interaction: any utterance that indicates the participant is performing an operation on/with the system or interacting with it, e.g. reading a document, clicking on a document surrogate, going back a page, etc.
- Intent: any mention of the participant's intentions regarding the obtained information or regarding their actions, e.g. using a retrieved document to impress their supervisor or initiating a search in the hopes of finding a particular type of information.
- Relevance Criteria: any mention of factors that may affect the participant's choices regarding whether they are to keep or not a document, e.g. if the user picks the document because it is a survey.

Utterances encoded as *interaction* were further encoded according to the following listing:

- Navigation: user interacts with the system by navigating, e.g. closing a document window, going back a page, etc.
- Reads out loud: user interacts with the system by reading a portion of text out loud

and utterances tagged as *relevance criteria* were encoded using the taxonomy of relevance criteria described in Section 2.

4 Relevance Criteria Profiles

Relevance criteria profiles are constructed by aggregating and counting occurrences of relevance criteria as observed during a search session. As such they provide a global view of the occurrence of relevance criteria during the session. The visualisation technique rests on the "relevance criteria piles" metaphor. These piles represent relevance judgement processes. A relevance judgement process is then defined as the sequential use of relevance criteria as delimited by interactions. Visualising data using our method can help uncover potentially emerging patterns in the users's interaction behaviours, relevance criteria usage and even

potentially anomalous search sessions. Other studies related to relevance criteria have mostly concentrated on qualitative investigations (e.g. [1, 11]) or simple statistics presented in tables (e.g. [12]). Our method, in contrast, aims to provide a more comprehensive view of citeria usage that will highlight patterns with respect to users and sessions.

Coded utterances are grouped at the session level and counted; all mentions of a particular relevance criterion within the search session contribute to a single count for that criterion. For any one participant there is what we define a "relevance criteria profile". A relevance criteria profile is the grouping of the mentions of the relevance criteria during the search session. A typical relevance criteria profile, visualised as a chart, looks like Figure 2. These profiles provide a global view of the number of times that each criterion has occurred during the search session for each participant. To make the numbers comparable across profiles, we normalise the counts within each profile by dividing by the sum of all criteria mentions: i.e.

$$rc'_i = \frac{rc_i}{\sum_{j=0}^{N} rc_j} \tag{1}$$

where rc'_i is the new, normalised, count for relevance criterion i, rc_i is the count for relevance criterion i and N is the total number of relevance criteria (in this article $N = 15$).

Aggregating profiles, for instance by participant's affiliation or research experience does not require any special processing. Criterion counts are added by restricting the sums and counts to the group for which the profile is being created.

Profiles can be further compared by using the Jensen-Shannon (JS) divergence measure [9] for comparing profiles as it is based on the Kullback-Liebler[8] divergence but is symmetric. The JS divergence considers the KL divergence between p and q under the assumption that if they are similar to each other they should both be "close" to their average. As the JS divergence is based on the KL divergence, the smaller the divergence the more similar the two profiles are. Normalised relevance criteria profiles satisfy the properties of discrete probability functions so they can be compared using this divergence measure.

5 Session Visualisation

As a complement to global relevance profiles we designed a technique for visualising search sessions. Graphs resulting from applying our technique include information on the order of occurrence of the relevance criteria observed during a search session and the recorded interactions (if there were any).

Sequence is denoted by a time line. The time line only denotes an order in time and not any measure of it; equal spacing on the line does not mean equal time spans in the session. Relevance criteria ordering and grouping are represented as piles of coloured blocks. Each block represents the observation of a particular relevance criterion. Different criteria are assigned different colours.

With relevance criteria piles we model relevance judgement processes. As long as relevance criteria are observed together one after the other with no other utterances of a different type in between, e.g. interactions, we consider them to be part of the same relevance judgement process. Interactions are plotted in between relevance criteria piles.

To plot a search session first we group the tagged utterances in relevance criteria groups. For each group, we plot the first relevance criterion in the sequence at the bottom of the pile, the second on top of it one unit to the right and so on. Blocks are made as long as need be so that the final shape of the pile resembles a staircase. An example graph can be seen in Figure 1. In this graph there are two interactions to the left and one to the right of the relevance pile which are plotted as N to denote a *navigation* interaction.

Fig. 1. An example with three relevance criteria and interactions plotted.

There are assumptions behind the piles metaphor. First of all there is the assumption of aggregation. When a relevance criterion has been observed we assume that this criterion will apply all the way until the user has made a final judgement. The application of criteria is done sequentially until the user is able to make a judgement about the relevance of the information. The length of each block in the graph symbolises this assumption. One of the consequences, should this assumption hold true, is that the sequence in which criteria are used matters and that there might be a degree of relationship between relevance criteria. Users might follow a pattern when using relevance criteria. By using piles we can start analysing whether a user's relevance judgement process exhibits these dependencies between relevance criteria. We also assume that each criterion contributes, either negatively or positively, to a final judgement. Negative contribution are represented as a minus sign next to the block in the graph.

A second assumption is that we can isolate or delimit relevance judgement processes by the appearance of interactions. We observed that relevance judgements usually end with the user navigating away from the document. This interaction can be preceded by the explicit verbalisation of the relevance judgement, e.g. the user utters "I don't like this document". A pile is then defined as occurrences of utterances that are not interactions. There are, however, some shortcomings attached to these assumptions. First of all, depending on what the researcher considers to be an interaction, piles will (or will not) correspond to documents and their judgement processes as interactions are not necessarily all navigation interactions. Further encoding of interactions might alleviate this

to a certain extent since the dynamics of the session might become more visible. Gathering click-through data and using it to better delimit the relevance judgement processes might also alleviate this situation.

Plotting sessions using our technique allows a researcher to investigate the relative strength, or importance, of a relevance criterion. In Figure 1 we see that one of the three criteria mentioned has a negative sign next to it. This represents situations in which the user expressed a relevance criterion in a negative way, e.g. "this is too old, it's from back in the 60's". In the example the criterion has been mentioned in a negative fashion, yet the judgement process continues. This may suggest that its strength, relative to the overall judgement process, is not as strong as to end it right there and then. The explanations can be varied, however the point is that researchers can direct their attention to further investigate these scenarios.

Choosing a Colour Sequence According to Ware[13] the effectiveness of coding using colours for coding is degraded as more categories are added. Ware recommends 12 colours which are normally used when labelling using colours. The first six colours, which also correspond to the basic colours in the colour opponent theory[7], are: white, black, red, green, yellow and blue. The remaining six colours are: pink, grey, brown, magenta, orange and purple.

Taking the colours as an ordered sequence of recommendations, we use the number of occurrences of relevance criteria, in an aggregated profile, as indices to select an appropriate colour. The most occurring relevance criteria is then assigned the first colour in the sequence, the second most occurring criterion the second colour in the sequence and so on. The rationale behind this procedure is that, since aggregated profiles are obtained by averaging across users, higher relevance criteria counts mean that users have mentioned the criterion, on average, more often hence it is likelier to be observed in any one search session. Choosing the most contrasting colours for the most commonly occurring relevance criteria should make easier the visual detection of the different criteria.

6   Results

In this section we present and discuss data obtained from a user study carried out from January to August of 2008. A total number of 21 people accepted the invitation to participate in the study. All users were research scientists and were affiliated to one of three groups: the School of Computing, the Information Management Group and the School of Pharmacy. The main characteristic of the search task given to users was that it required them to search outside their research field for literature related to their own area of research.

6.1   Comparing Relevance Profiles

The global profile, aggregated from all the individual profiles, is depicted in Figure 2. We can immediately observe that *tangibility* and *depth/scope/specificity*

are the most mentioned criteria. Relevance criteria profiles can be plotted to-
gether however before doing so they have to be normalised as described in Section
4. In Figure 3 the profiles of the three schools are plotted together. By plotting
the profiles together we can quickly see similarities and differences. In the figure
we see that while participants from the School of Computing have a distinguish-
able preference for tangible data, members of the other two schools prefer other
aspects of the information such as its depth, scope and specificity. Furthermore,
we can also observe that members from all three schools share the same interest
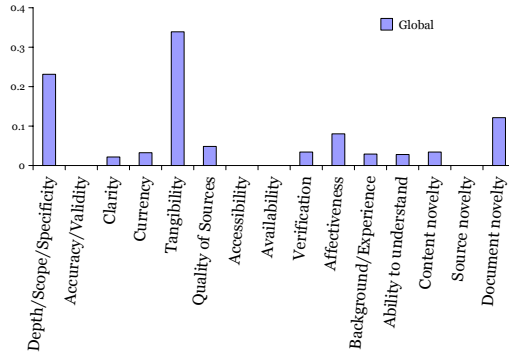(in terms of proportions) for the novelty of the documents found.

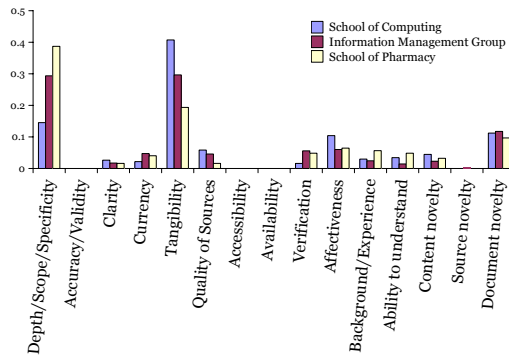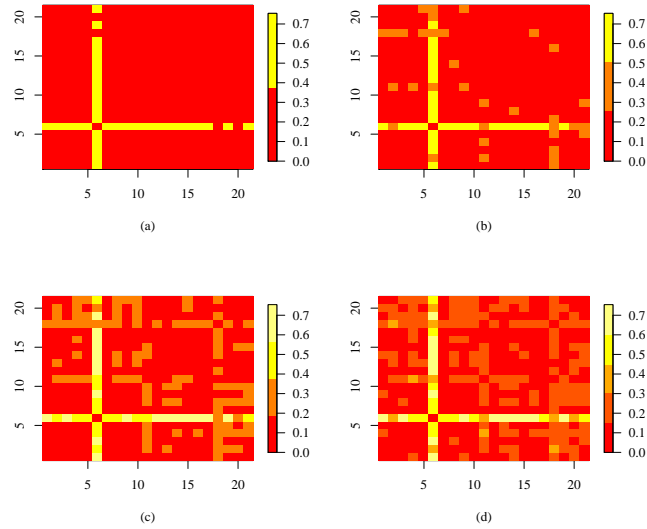**Fig. 2.** Global aggregated relevance profile

Fig. 3. The school profiles plotted together.

By plotting the divergence scores between all participants's profiles and each
other we can spot outliers but also see if there are any naturally emerging groups.

The JS divergences between each individual profile and the other profiles are depicted as a matrix in Figure 4.

Fig. 4. Jensen-Shannon divergence measure between all individual profiles and the global profile.

In each matrix, the value in cell (i, j) corresponds to the JS-divergence value between the profiles of participants i and j. Rows and columns are ordered by date in which the participant took part of the study. This leads to the participants being ordered by school, i.e. index values from 1 to 10 represent the School of Computing, from 11 to 18 the Information Management Group and from 19 to 21 the School of Pharmacy. The matrices in each map are all equal and the only difference between maps is the number of colours used as palette for the JS-divergence values; the redder the colour of the cells the less divergent the two profiles are. In all matrices, the profile in row/column 6 has a high divergence with almost all the other profiles. This suggests that the participant represented by the profile in row 6 is an outlier. In the last heat map, Figure 4 (d), we can observe that the profile in row 18 diverges with practically every other profile but with two. One of these two profiles is that in row 11 which also seems to diverge with most other profiles. In the figure we can also observe that the profiles of the participants of the School of Computing remain fairly convergent and that they diverge more with the profiles of the members of the School of Pharmacy than with those of the Information Management Group. The profile in row 17 seems to be very similar to almost every other profile with the exception of two: profiles in rows 18 and 4. There seems to be a group of profiles that are convergent,

to a certain extent, with almost every other profile. These profiles are those in rows 1,2,3,7 (members of the School of Computing) and 12 and 17 (members of the Information Management Group). That these profiles are convergent with most other profiles could be due to that the participants represented by these profiles follow a globally shared behaviour in using relevance criteria to judge the relevance of the information presented, however before confirming/rejecting this suggestion, a closer inspection to the search sessions should be conducted.

6.2 Plotting Sessions in Practice

A much quicker approach to confirming the anomalous behaviour of the diverging profile found in Figure 4 would have been to look at the visual representation of the participant's search session. This visualisation is presented in Figure 5. At first sight it can be seen that the participant not only did not mention relevance criteria very often but also that the participant spent almost all of the session reading out loud. This could reflect a misunderstanding in the instructions for the study or simply that the participant did not find any documents that were even remotely interesting.
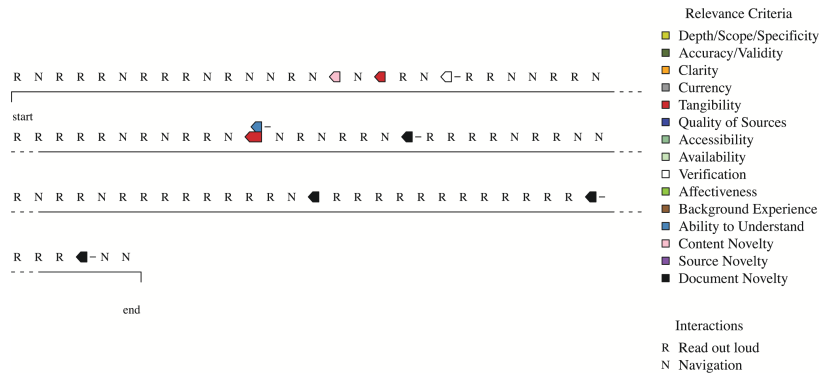

Fig. 5. The anatomy of an anomalous search session.

Participant 2 (Figure 6) is a research student from the School of Computing. At a glance, if we interpret the number of expressions of *affectiveness* as a measure of engagement, we can observe that the participant is engaged from the beginning, and remains so throughout the session. These affective responses, are represented as blocks coloured in light green. Effectively, out of 49 relevance judgement processes (depicted as coloured piles in the graph) 22 (about 45%) contain at least one expression of *affectiveness*. Affective responses seem to be, however, more frequent at the beginning than closer to the end of the session. Additionally, *tangibility*, which includes topicality, seems to play an important role during the participant's search session. Out of the 49 relevance judgement processes, 37 (about 75%) include at least one utterance encoded as *tangibility*.
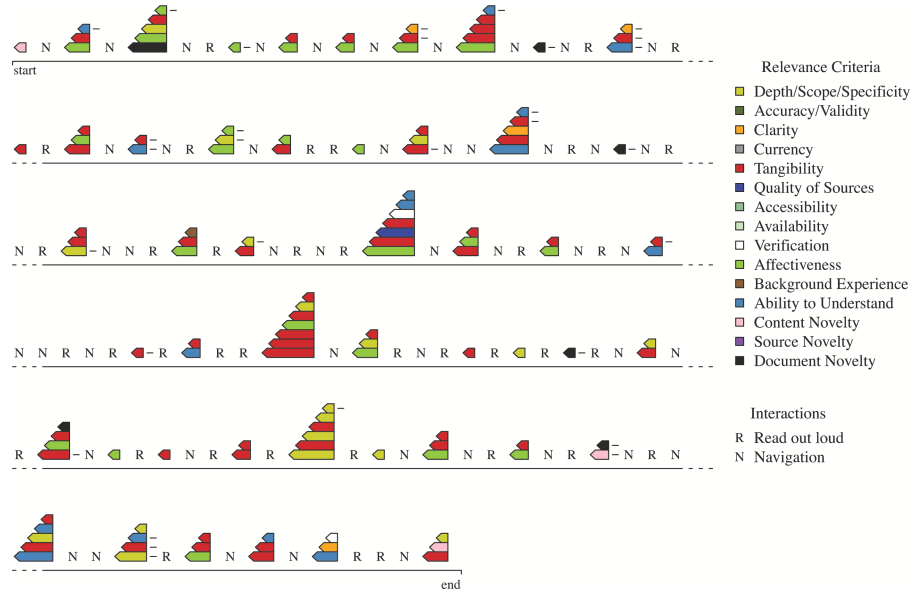
Fig. 6. A typical search session visualised using the piles metaphor.

This complements the global view presented by the relevance criteria profile (see Figure 3) which showed that *tangibility* was a commonly used criterion by participants from the School of Computing. During the participant's session, *tangibility* not only was a commonly used criterion, but also one that was present in most relevance judgement processes. Moreover, the criterion is present in relevance judgement processes of different complexities covering almost the full range.

7 Discussion

In this article we presented the notion of relevance criteria profiles and a novel technique to plot the interactions and relevance criteria mentions observed during search sessions. We demonstrated, by example, how these tools aid the analysis of data. First, we showed how aggregated relevance criteria profiles provide global views of different user groups' preferences. We also showed how plotting relevance criteria profiles together can help uncover both (dis)similarities in relevance criteria usage at a global level. Outlier detection as well as cluster analysis are two of the types of analysis that can be performed when JS divergence scores between pairs of profiles are plotted together. Second, the visualisation technique presented in Section 5 was shown to aid with the analysis of search sessions. Using the data gathered from participant 2 we described some aspects of the search sessions that can be observed. We suggested that the participant, as well as being emotive, pays special attention to tangible data.

Relevance criteria are not theoretical concepts, but rather tangible and operationalising them can potentially impact positively on search services. Operational estimations of the most observed criteria may be embedded in systems in an attempt to increase their performance in returning relevant information. If, and only if, we can measure them. *Tangibility*, may be approximated, for instance, by looking at the number of tables in a document, and *depth/scope/specificity*, by looking at the number of pages in a document (document length has been mentioned frequently as a relevance criteria). Relevance processes, and the intertwined interactions, may be used to model user search behaviours in an attempt to personalise and adapt the system to better accommodate the current information needs of users.

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