The Consortium for Resilient Gulf Communities (CRGC) [1], funded by the Gulf of Mexico Research Initiative (GoMRI)[2], has been established with the purpose of assessing and addressing the public health, social and economic impacts of the 2010 Deepwater Horizon oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico. The consortium focuses on understanding and promoting communities’ resilience to adverse future events. A high priority for the consortium is to develop an effective strategy to match potential users with relevant findings. In this context, the CRGC risk-communication team is pursuing the design of a website capable of presenting content in a personalized way to users of different types. Indeed, the consortium’s findings and products will be of interest to different kinds of users, such as, for example, political decision makers or members of prominent gulf industries like fisheries, tourism and ship building. Content personalization aims at getting the right information to the right people and involves identifying items of significant interest to a given user among the products of the consortium and highlighting them when he or she accesses the website.

This review outlines possible approaches to content personalization, highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of each to show how the consortium decided upon an approach for their website. Our review is summarized below and follows, top-down, the topics as depicted in Figure 1.

**Web personalization.** Artificial Intelligence plays a fundamental role in improving web functionality, in particular in the context of web personalization [26]. Web personalization is becoming a necessity rather than a luxury in several areas including e-business and customer relationship management. Our work is aimed at demonstrating that similar approaches can improve the effectiveness of information not for lucrative purposes but for building community resilience.

Web personalization has three elements: (1) personalized web searches [37, 14], (2) personalized advertising delivery, and (2) personalized content [26]. Most of the literature on personalized web searches is in some way connected to the so-called Semantic Web [32], where semantically-enhanced information is added to Web documents through ontologies, that is structures for knowledge organization capable of storing information about the knowledge itself (meta data). This allows to manage information automatically. An ontology is usually comprised of four components: classes, representing fundamental concepts (e.g. “city” and “state”), instances, representing the ground level of concepts (e.g. “Austin” and “Texas”), relations defined over classes (e.g. “is the capital of” defined between class “city” and class “state” and satisfied by instances “Austin” and “Texas”), and axioms expressing constraints (e.g. “a state can only have one capital”). Artificial intelligence plays a key role by providing techniques which automatically extract ontologies and methods that populate them [26, 12]. Among the
different kind of ontologies, personalized ontologies [27] are a formal conceptualization of user profiles encapsulating the user’s personal model of their information needs. Ontologies and meta data are a necessity for personalized web searches on the World Wide Web scale. However, their sophistication in terms of modeling structures and the computational overhead of the associated algorithmic machinery makes them unsuitable for smaller scale settings such as ours.

**Personalized advertising delivery.** The second element of web personalization, personalized advertising delivery, is the focus of web or digital marketing [8, 3] techniques and behavioral targeting [7]. The aim of these techniques is to provide the user with the most preferred item out of a larger set but they are unsuitable for our consortium’s website. In the marketing domain the driving force is the revenue of the advertiser, which is not relevant to our consortium. In behavioral targeting, the user profile is built almost exclusively by observing his web browsing behavior. Our goal is to present information on resilience in the Gulf coast region, and it seems reasonable to assume that such type of behavioral data is very limited and difficult to obtain. Importantly, while the vast majority of practices in this context advocate for deep personalization mostly based on behavioral data tracked through different kinds of technologies, in [11], the author argues in favor of a “leaner” form of personalization. For instance, user profiles based only on explicit information, as the one collected through registration forms or online questionnaires, combined with manually defined business rules, driving recommendations towards the business needs, can be sufficiently effective in many small to medium size contexts. The leaner approach to personalization is relevant to the consortium be-
cause the specificity of the topic and the size of target audience makes behavioral data impractical to obtain.

**Personalized content and recommender systems.** We now turn our attention to the third and, in our opinion, most relevant element of web personalization for our purposes, that is, personalized content. Content personalization is used in information retrieval systems [23], in database systems [17], in human-computer interaction systems [31] and, most prominently, in so-called recommender systems [28, 13, 36].

To directly address the need to design a consortium website that is relevant specifically to the user [15, 33], we focus on recommender systems [28, 13, 36]. Personalization technologies modify the pages that are viewed by users in order to emphasize content which is judged as more relevant to users’ interests. The literature agrees on the abstract architecture of web and website content personalization [28, 13, 36]. For example, in [33], the authors outline a very general architecture for web personalization which we reproduce graphically in Figure 2 for clarity. The inputs to the system are the Web logs (describing how pages are accessed by users), the Web site’s content, the Web site’s structure and the user profiles. Information coming from all of these components is processed by a Web analysis and pattern discovery module which, then, feeds its output to a recommendation model that interacts directly with the user.

![Diagram of web personalization architecture](image)

**Fig. 2.** Web personalization architecture as described in [33]. We highlight in light orange components which are present in our system.

This architecture is applicable in our case with the exception of Web logs and a one-way interaction between the recommendation model and the user. A very similar architecture is described in [19], with the exception that user profiles are the output of an additional component called the profile learner, which takes as input both the feedback
Building users profiles. As mentioned above, user profiles are an essential and crucial component of any website content personalization architecture. For this reason, we briefly summarize the main state-of-the-art methods for acquiring the information on the user and organizing it into structures called profiles. To personalize a web site [9, 15], information about the users must be gathered and stored. To accomplish this, many web sites create individual visitor or group profiles. In general, the user profiling process consists of two main phases: first, raw information is gathered about the user and then a profile construction phase follows. The next step is to use the profile for recommendation purposes. The most common profiling techniques used are:

- active profiling: the user volunteers information on his interests;
- collaborative filtering [30, 34, 24]: some initial information is obtained (e.g. via active profiling) on some users. Then, users are mapped into types corresponding to “like-minded” users;
- behavior based profiling: as defined above in the context of behavioral targeting, users are observed in terms of their browsing activities and patterns;
- short term interests monitoring: a leaner version of behavior-based profiling, mostly based on analyzing the words a user types into search engines.

In [33] these profiling approaches are distinguished into: interviewing, that is, relying on manually acquired data (e.g. active profiling); semi-interviewing, where acquired information is on categories and groups of items rather than on single items; and non-interviewing, data on users in acquired by observation and without the user’s direct involvement or knowledge (e.g. collaborative filtering and short-term profiling).

In our case, the goal is to distinguish users belonging to different categories in terms of their interests on the impact of the oil spill, community resilience and community action planning. Given the level of detail of these topics, tracking data from which to passively extract users’ interests is unavailable and impractical to obtain. Thus, the technique which appears to be more suited for us is active profiling, as other consortium members will be carrying out in-depth interviews with community members which will inform, together with the information acquired at registration time, the user profiles.

In active profiling, users are asked to complete online registration forms that request basic personal information and details about special interests. This approach is limited when users provide incorrect information or refuse to provide any information [9, 15]. Nonetheless, they are at the base of popular Web portal personalization tools such as MyYahoo! (my.yahoo.com). Categories of features which have been identified as useful in the context of active profiling are:

1. Geographic
2. Cultural and ethnic
3. Economic conditions and income
4. Level of decision making and title
5. Size of company
6. Age
7. Values, attitudes and beliefs
8. Knowledge and awareness
9. Lifestyle
10. Buying patterns
11. Media used

We predict only a subset of these categories will be relevant given the content and target of our website. Another issue user profiling must deal with is user identification. Common methods of identification include software agents, logins, enhanced proxy servers, cookies, and session ids [9]. Given that in our case we will not track the user, logins seem to be the optimal choice.

The second phase of user profiling can be broken down into choosing a user profile representation and then populating its instances. The most widely used profile representations are weighted keywords, semantic networks, weighted concepts and association rules [9]. Sets of keywords can be generated both by active or passive profiling data extraction techniques. Weights, that is numbers reflecting the user’s interest in a topic can be added to enhance the model. Weighted keywords were one of the first approaches to be investigated [22] and have been used in several systems ranging from personalized online newspapers [16] to browsing assistants [18]. Semantic network profiles go one step further and represent users with a set of weighted keywords structured in a network [10, 20]. More precisely, each user is associated with a network where nodes represent concepts, modeled as weighted keywords, and links between nodes represent associations between concepts. In this approach, both concepts and links between concepts are used to describe the user and his preferences. Concept-based profiles are similar to semantic networks where nodes are now populated by abstract topics of interest to the user rather than keywords or sets of keywords. The concepts can be organized hierarchically [4], and in a static [35] or dynamic [6] fashion. All approaches except the weighted keywords approach, rely heavily on machine learning techniques for profile construction from data [9] and are thus outside of our scope. We adopt a form of weighted keywords and rely on manual construction and refinement of user type profiles.

Matching content to profiles. The other fundamental component of a recommender system is the recommender engine, which matches the users’ profiles to items to be recommended. Algorithmically, recommender paradigms can be classified into three main categories: rule-based systems, content-based filtering systems and collaborative filtering systems [21]. Content-based filtering algorithms base their recommendations on what the user has liked in the past [25, 19], while collaborative filtering algorithms recommend items chosen by “like-minded” users [30, 34, 24]. Since we do not have information on what users have liked in the past, neither of the latter methods are applicable. A more traditional, rule-based approach system [21] better fits our needs. Such systems rely on manually or automatically generated decision rules which match users to recommended content. Such a paradigm, allows system designers to specify rules based on the user profiles. The rules affect the content which is presented to users when their profile satisfies the rule’s conditions. Note that a key role is played by the knowledge engineering used to define rules in accordance to the specific characteristics of
the domain. This is particularly appealing to us, since such type of knowledge will be
gathered through in-depth interviews with community members. Among the possibil-
ities for defining such rules we focus on Brafman’s approach of relational rules for
control [5]. This approach is well suited to our case due to the presence of rule-based
preference specification language which extends several AI-based preference definition
models and, thus, allows the use of state of the art and finely tuned preference reasoning
engines [29].

Conclusions. Summarizing, we have presented a survey of the state-of-the-art in web
content personalization, in light of the design of a website aimed at providing content
recommendation to users where the content is mostly of scientific nature and with a nar-
row scope. Much of the literature relies on data obtained by tracking online behavior of
users. The unavailability of this type of data in our setting makes these approaches im-
practical from our point of view and limits our options to active profiling and rule-based
recommendation. On the other hand, the size of the problem we tackle in terms of num-
ber of different types of users and number of available items is limited. Furthermore,
we can leverage an unusually large amount of data obtained via in depth surveys and in-
terviews carried out by other teams of the consortium. We foresee this will significantly
mitigate the well-known drawbacks of the approaches which we will pursue.

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