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A Comparative Study of Topic Identification on Newspaper and E-mail

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Abstract

This paper presents several statistical methods for topic identification on two kinds of textual data: newspaper articles and e-mails. Five methods are tested on these two corpora: topic unigrams, cache model, TFIDF classifier, topic perplexity, and weighted model. Our work aims to study these methods by confronting them to very different data. This study is very fruitful for our research. Statistical topic identification methods depend not only on a corpus, but also on its type. One of the methods achieves a topic identification of 80% on a general newspaper corpus but does not exceed 30% on e-mail corpus. Another method gives the best result on e-mails, but has not the same behavior on a newspaper corpus. We also show in this paper that almost all our methods achieve good results in retrieving the first two manually annotated labels.

1 Introduction

With the amount of available textual data increasing exponentially, automatically processing these data has become of central importance. This automatic treatment can be realized using topic identification (TID), which is our aim in this paper. The main objective of TID is to assign one or several topic labels to a flow of textual data. Labels are chosen from a set of topics fixed a priori. Several approaches have already been proposed in the literature [5, 8] which are generally based on a specific metric. This paper deals with the evaluation problem of TID algorithms on two kinds of textual corpora: newspaper and e-mails. A comparison study of several TID methods is presented. In the literature, another comparison has been performed by Yang and Liu[9]. However, this study treats classical text categorization methods. In this article, methods studied are mainly issued from statistical language modeling in speech recognition domain, thus different from text categorization methods.

TID has various applications: documents categorization, speech recognition systems, selecting documents for WEB engines, etc. Another promising direct application of TID is e-mail routing. This application consists of dispatching e-mail messages in accordance with their content. For example, a hot-line which receives a large number of e-mails per day would like to dispatch them automatically to several boxes. Each box corresponds to a specific problem to be solved, which can be considered as a topic.

2 E-mail topic identification

Routing e-mail messages is a direct application of TID. It amounts to identify an e-mail topic and send it to the appropriate operator. An e-mail has specific features which make it different from a newspaper article. In opposition to newspapers, it is not easy to find special e-mail corpora, for obvious confidentiality reasons. E-mails are often noisy and it is difficult to process them automatically. Several questions arise for e-mail TID. Which part of information should be kept? Should all the headings which constitute the structure of an e-mail be removed? Some of them could be very useful for detecting the topic as: subject, date, sender. In addition, e-mails are often ungrammatical, punctuation is usually missed, abbreviations are widely used, foreign words, images, web pages may be present, etc. In order to compute statistics, and since corpora are not large enough, we have to take into account word mistakes by correcting errors.

3 Evaluated models

This section introduces the five statistical methods involved in the TID experiments detailed in the forthcoming sections. Only some of them share the same vocabulary. In what follows, a sequence \( W^N = w_1, \ldots, w_N \) to be classified is made up of the first \( N \) words of a document. Each document is associated with one single label among \( J \) predefined topics.
3.1 Topic unigram language model

The topic unigram language model [5, 8] is one of the most classical and standard ones. It is based on a counting of the number of occurrences of each word for each topic and involves all words of each topic vocabulary. The posterior probability \( P(T_j \mid W^N) \) is expressed as:

\[
P(T_j \mid W^N) = \frac{P(T_j)P(W_1^N \mid T_j)}{\sum_{k=1}^{J} P(T_k)P(W_1^N \mid T_k)} \tag{1}
\]

where \( P(T_j) \) is the a priori probability of topic \( T_j \), and \( P(W_1^N \mid T_j) = \prod_{t=1}^{N} P(w_t \mid T_j) \) is the likelihood of sequence \( W_1^N \) given a topic \( T_j \). When a word \( w_t \) is not encountered in the training corpus of \( T_j \), the model assigns an \( \varepsilon \)-probability. With this model, words not related to any topic have the same importance than those which are specific to a topic (keywords).

3.2 Cache model

The Cache model [1] is based on a set of keywords automatically selected for each topic. These words, called topic keywords, have a statistical distribution obtained from the training corpora. This static distribution is continuously compared with the time-varying distribution of the content \( C \) of a cache memory by introducing the symmetric Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence \( d_j(K, C) \) which varies in time when new words are considered. A special type of back-off scheme [4] is introduced in this divergence. The resulting definition of cache probability is:

\[
P_c(w) = \begin{cases} 
\beta \frac{N(w)}{N_c} & \text{if } w \in C \\
\alpha P_g(w) & \text{if } w \notin C 
\end{cases} \tag{2}
\]

where \( N(w) \) is the number of occurrences of word \( w \) in the cache \( C \), \( N_c \) the total number of words in the cache, \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) normalization coefficients and \( P_g(w) \) a probability associated with all words not in the cache. The topic word probability, to which the content of the cache is compared, is given by:

\[
P_j(w) = \begin{cases} 
\gamma_j \frac{P(w \mid T_j)}{P_g(w)} & \text{if } w \in V(T_j) \\
\alpha P_g(w) & \text{if } w \notin V(T_j) 
\end{cases} \tag{3}
\]

where \( V(T_j) \) is the \( T_j \) topic keywords vocabulary, \( P(w \mid T_j) \) the unigram probability of \( w \) in \( T_j \), \( \gamma_j \) a coefficient of normalization depending on \( T_j \) and \( P_g(w) \) the same probability as in equation 2, associated with non-keywords of \( T_j \). At each time \( t \), and for topic \( T_j \), the symmetric KL divergence \( d_j(t) \) is computed between the two precedent probability distributions (2) and (3):

\[
d_j(t) = \sum_{w \in V} (P_c(w_t) - P_j(w_t)) \log \left( \frac{P_c(w_t)}{P_j(w_t)} \right) \tag{4}
\]

where \( V = \{w \mid w \in (T_j \cup C)\} \). This distance is normalized by its value on an empty cache:

\[
d_j^*(t) = \frac{d_j(t)}{d_j(0)} \tag{5}
\]

The decision for assigning one or two labels is made by taking the one or two lowest distances (eq. 5).

3.3 The TFIDF Classifier

The TFIDF classifier [7] represents topics as vectors. Each one is characterized by a set of distinct words \( D_j = (w_{j1}, w_{j2}, \ldots, w_{jn}) \) where \( n \) is the number of words of the topic \( j \) and \( w_{jk} \) the weight of word \( k \). \( w_{jk} \) is defined as \( w_{jk} = n_{f_{jk}} \cdot idf_k \), where \( n_{f_{jk}} \) is the term frequency, i.e. the number of times the word \( w_k \) occurs in the topic \( j \). Let \( DF_k \) be the number of documents in which word \( w \) appears and \( |D| \) the total number of documents. \( idf_k \), the inverse document frequency, is given by:

\[
idf_k = \log \left( \frac{|D|}{DF_k} \right) .
\]

This weighting function assigns high values to topic-specific words, i.e. words which appear frequently in one topic and in a limited number of topics. Conversely, it will assign low weights to words appearing in many topics or rare. The similarity between a topic \( j \) and a document represented by a vector \( D_i \) is measured by the following cosine:

\[
sim(D_j, D_i) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_{jk} w_{ik}}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{n} (w_{jk})^2 \sum_{k=1}^{n} (w_{ik})^2}}
\]

The selected topic is the one of highest similarity.

3.4 The perplexity-based model

The perplexity is a measure issued from information theory [4] which is widely used in speech recognition [6], but rarely in TID. Perplexity reflects the ability of a language model in modeling a text. It is computed as the inverse geometric mean of the likelihood of a text:

\[
PP(W^N) = \left( P(w_1) \prod_{k=2}^{N} P(w_k \mid w_{k-1}, \ldots, w_{k-n+1}) \right)^{-\frac{1}{n}}
\]

where \( W_1^N \) corresponds to the text on which perplexity is evaluated, \( N \) is the size of this text and \( n \) is the order of the language model (\( n \)-gram language model). In our experiment \( n \) has been set to 2 (bigram model). A good language model assigns a low perplexity to actual texts. In a TID framework, a language model is built for each topic. Then, perplexity corresponding to each topic is evaluated on the text to classify. The topic corresponding to the lowest perplexity is the one assigned to the text.
3.5 The weighted model

This model results from an adaptation of the one introduced in [2], it is specifically conceived to handle noisy and sparse data. As the Cache model, it computes distances between the text and the topics. Each topic is represented by a unigram and word weights. A topic-weight is assigned to a word according to a function inversely proportional to the number of topic-vocabularies in which this word is present. For instance, a word \( w_i \) appearing in five topic-vocabularies will have a topic-weight of \( \frac{1}{5} \). The topic weight of an unknown word will be the inverse of the number of topics (i.e. \( \frac{1}{T} \)). The probability of unseen events is estimated with respect to each topic. Probabilities are computed for words for which the number of occurrences of which exceeds a predefined threshold. Words belonging to all vocabularies and function words are removed. In this model, a score is computed for a text \( W_i^N \) and for each topic \( j \):

\[
T_j(W_i^N) = \beta_j \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N LP(w_k | T_j) \eta(w_k)}{N}
\]

(6)

where \( w_k \) denotes the \( k \)th word of \( W_i^N \), \( LP(w_k | T_j) \) the log probability of \( w_k \) in topic \( j \), and \( \eta(w_k) \) the weight assigned to \( w_k \). \( \beta_j \) is the weight assigned to topic \( j \):

\[
\beta_j = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_j}{\sum_{k=1}^T \alpha_k}} \quad \alpha_j = \sum_{k=1}^{N(V_j)} \eta(w_k)
\]

(7)

\( N(V_j) \) represents the number of words of the \( j \)th topic-vocabulary. The resulting topic is the one corresponding to the highest value of \( T_j(W_i^N) \).

4 Experimental Results and Discussion

Two corpora are used in this article: the first corpus is made up of four years (1987-1991) of the French newspaper Le Monde (over 80 M words). This corpus has been divided into 7 topics. The different topics and their vocabulary size are: Foreign News (173 K), History (37 K), Science (66 K), Sport (16 K), Business (Business and Economy) (167 K), Culture (Culture, Art, Books and Media) (274 K), Politic (Politic and Ideas) (133 K). The test data are made up of more than 1500 paragraphs. These paragraphs have been manually labelled. Due to the ambiguity concerning the topic of several paragraphs, one or two labels have been assigned to each paragraph, without assigning a priority to these labels. The second corpus is made up of 5,000 e-mails which have been supplied by the French start-up MIC2. This corpus consists of the users requests of an Internet provider. It has been split manually into ten topics. Training data contain 90% of the corpus and left data are reserved for the test.

Each of the five methods have been evaluated at first on newspaper, and then on the e-mail corpus. Because of the ambiguity of some paragraphs, we carried out two different experiments on newspaper corpus. The first one concerns paragraphs having only one label (noted \( \{t_1 = t_2\} \) and the second one concerns paragraphs having two different labels (noted \( \{t_1, t_2\} \)). Column 1 of Table 1 gives the results on paragraphs having only one label (representing 55% of the total number of paragraphs). The term \( \{x_1\} \) is the label proposed respectively by a model. Results show that, on large corpora, the cache model provides the best results (82% of correct TID). Nevertheless, performance of basic methods like unigram or perplexity (79% and 80% respectively) is comparable to cache model. We think that these results are due to the large size of training corpus which enables a reliable estimation of the probabilities.

Columns 2 and 3 represent respectively the case where the two best labels identified by the methods are the two ones of the paragraph and the case where at least one of the two topics identified by the models belongs to the topics of the paragraph. We remark that unigram, cache and perplexity are still the best methods. We can notice that during the training phase our models have not been optimized to detect the two best topics, but only the best one, therefore results in column 2 are probably underestimated. All methods presented here give good results. In column 3, the identification rate of at least one label shows a performance range between 92% and 97%.

Table 2 presents the identification rates on the e-mail corpus. As expected, results are worse than on the newspaper corpus. The weighted unigram is the only method giving good results, which springs from the fact that this method has been specifically designed for e-mails. The accuracy of the other methods drops on this difficult corpus. This may result from the fact that most of these methods are based on frequency computations which cannot be reliable in the case of e-mail corpora, due to noisy words, etc. To illustrate this phenomenon, suffice it to say that 66% of words in the e-mail corpus have been met only once, against 41% in the newspaper corpus. This rate can reach 74% in the first case, whereas it does not exceed 46% in the second one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models</th>
<th>{x_1} = {t_1 = t_2}</th>
<th>{x_1, x_2} = {t_1, t_2}</th>
<th>(x_1 \lor x_2) \in {t_1, t_2}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic U.</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
<td>96.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cache Model</td>
<td>82.0%</td>
<td>48.8%</td>
<td>96.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFIDF</td>
<td>72.2%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
<td>92.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perplexity</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>97.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weighted U.</td>
<td>74.1%</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>95.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. TID performance on newspaper
Table 2. TID performance on e-mail corpus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic word</th>
<th>DP</th>
<th>Topic word</th>
<th>DP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F. News</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sports Prost</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. News Year</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sports Season</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sports Team</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History Politics</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sports Senna</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics RPR</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Culture Movie</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics PS</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Business Billions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics Mitterand</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Business rate</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Doctors</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Most discriminant words

5 Effects of vocabularies

In this section, a brief analysis of the vocabulary is presented. Considering topic vocabularies made up of the most frequent words of the topic-training corpora, we study the discriminant power \( DP(w) \) of the ten most frequent words of each vocabulary. \( DP(w) \) is evaluated as:

\[
DP(w) = (1 - \frac{j(w)}{J}) \times 100
\]

where \( j(w) \) is the number of topics in which the word \( w \) appears. Table 3 presents the most discriminant words of each topic, among the ten most frequent ones. Some words are discriminant but others, in spite of their relative high discriminant power, are not semantically very representative of a topic. Words as RPR and PS (French political parties) should be more discriminant in identifying French politics. Their weights may be increased in order to make some words more discriminant. One way is to introduce the concept of phrase units into the vocabularies. Future work will also be devoted to improve methods independent of the type of corpus.

References