

TREC-8 Experiments at Maryland: CLIR, QA and Routing

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Abstract

The University of Maryland team participated in four aspects of TREC-8: the ad hoc retrieval task, the main task in the cross-language retrieval (CLIR) track, the question answering track, and the routing task in the filtering track. The CLIR method was based on Pirkola’s method for Dictionary-based Query Translation, using freely available dictionaries. Broad-coverage parsing and rule-based matching was used for question answering. Routing was performed using Latent Semantic Indexing in profile space.

1 Introduction

The Eighth Text REtrieval Conference (TREC-8) offered many more attractive evaluation opportunities than our team could have pursued, so we chose to participate in four aspects of the work that are aligned particularly closely with our ongoing work. In Cross-Language Information Retrieval track (CLIR), we focused on rapid retargetability, seeking to learn how well we could do with freely available resources that have more limited vocabulary coverage than those we have used in the past. We also tried out the Inquiry synonym operator as a device for selecting the correct translation, an approach introduced by Pirkola [7] but not previously tested at TREC. In the new Question Answering track, we explored the potential for combining broad-coverage parsing with rule-based matching. Our effort for the Routing task of the Filtering track explored the use of Latent Semantic Indexing on a space formed from profiles that aggregate several documents, in an effort to understand whether common aspects of the topic space could be automatically identified and exploited. Our participation in the Ad Hoc task was limited to a single run with an off-the-shelf retrieval system—as in past years, we used the Ad Hoc task as a learning opportunity for some of the new members of our team while producing results that might help to enrich the assessment pool.

Our team for the first time included significant participation by visitors from other institutions. Dekang Lin from the University of Manitoba worked on Question Answering while on sabbatical at Maryland. Ian Soboroff from the University of Maryland, Baltimore County worked on the Routing task. Our experience suggests that collaborations of this sort can serve the community well, combining fresh ideas with experience that gives a leg up on climbing the learning curve.

2 Cross-Language Information Retrieval

We participated in the main task of the CLIR track, using an English query to create a single merged ranked list of English, French, German and Italian news stories for each of the 28 topics. We sought to answer three questions: (1) what is the best that can be done using freely available resources; (2) how well does Pirkola’s method for accommodating multiple candidate translations work on the TREC CLIR collection; and (3) would building a single index be more effective than building separate indices for each language?

A purist approach to the first question would have required that we use a freely available retrieval system such as PRISE, SMART or MG. The second question led us to instead choose Inquiry, which is inexpensively (but not quite freely) available for research use. We downloaded three bilingual “dictionaries,” all of which were actually simply lists of English terms that were paired with some equivalent terms in another language.

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Pair	Source	English Terms	Foreign Terms	Avg Translations
E-G	http://www.quickdic.de	99,357	131,273	1.7
E-F	http://www.freedict.com	20,100	35,008	1.3
E-I	http://www.freedict.com	13,400	17,313	1.3

Table 1: Sources and summary statistics for bilingual dictionaries.

Here we take “terms” to include both single words and multiword expressions—multiword expressions were common in some of the dictionaries. Table 1 shows the source and summary statistics for each dictionary.

Each of the dictionaries was downloaded in a native machine-readable format that was designed for the originally intended use (typically, interactive access using an associated program). No documentation regarding storage formats was provided with any of the dictionaries, but conversion to our standard format turned out to be quite straightforward in every case. We preserved the order of the original dictionary where possible, and an examination of the results indicates that the known translations for each term are stored in lexicographic order. In other work we have reordered the translations by their (unconditioned) frequency in the Brown Corpus (for terms that are present in that corpus) [5], but that was not done in this case.

2.1 Pirkola’s Technique and Multilingual Indexing

Once we had a dictionary in a suitable format, we used it with our existing Dictionary-based Query Translation (DQT) routines to translate the query from English into the language of one of the four language-specific CLIR subcollections (no translation was needed for the English subcollection). In DQT, each query term for which at least one translation is known was replaced with one or more of the known translations. When no translation is known, the English term is retained unchanged in the translated query. Since query terms may have more than one translation, some selection heuristic is needed. In the past we have tried retaining Every Translation (DQT-ET) or just the First Translation (DQT-FT), finding that sometimes one approach yields better average precision and sometimes the other does. We thus elected to try both and to select the best of the two as our baseline for evaluating Pirkola’s technique.

Pirkola used structured queries to attack the problem of translation ambiguity [7]. Specific terms, which are quite useful for searching, typically have relatively few translations. But with DQT-ET, the more translations a query term has, the more weight it will get because every possible translation will appear in the query. With Pirkola’s structured queries, translations of the same term are treated as instances of a single term. In this way, important query terms get relatively more weight. In our experiment, we implemented Pirkola’s technique by grouping all translations for each query term using the Inquiry synonym operator `#syn()`. All of the groups were then combined using Inquiry’s sum operator `#sum()`.¹ Pirkola found that this approach yielded substantial improvements in average precision when compared with an approach similar to DQT-ET.

As in TREC-7, we built a separate index for the documents in each language (English, French, German, and Italian), produced separate ranked lists for each language for each topic using queries translated into only that language, and then applied a uniform merging strategy in which we took n documents from the top of the English list for every 1 document that we took from each other list [6]. In preliminary experiments with TREC-7 data, we found $n = 2$ to be optimal for DQT with these dictionaries. That contrasts markedly with our conclusion at TREC-7 that $n = 10$ was best when queries were translated using a commercial machine translation system. We have not yet investigated this effect in detail, but in the results reported below we use a uniform 2:1:1:1 merge in which each block of 5 documents in the merged list contains 2 English documents, 1 French document, 1 German document, and 1 Italian document.

¹Pirkola also used Inquiry’s `#uw2` operator to group terms in a phrase together. We omitted that from our implementation, so each word in the phrase is treated separately in our runs.

Run ID	Official	Queries	Translation	Index	Merged	English	French	German	Italian
umd99b1	Yes	Long	Pirkola	Monolingual	0.162	0.345	0.113	0.114	0.078
umd99b2	Yes	Long	DQT-FT	Monolingual	0.156	0.345	0.097	0.089	0.062
umd99b3	Yes	Long	DQT-ET	Monolingual	0.134	0.345	0.045	0.071	0.062
umd99c1	Yes	Title	Pirkola	Monolingual	0.100	0.252	0.095	0.066	0.070
umd99c2	Yes	Title	Pirkola	Multilingual	0.103				
umd99c3	No	Title	DQT-ET	Monolingual	0.114	0.252	0.093	0.064	0.068
umd99c4	No	Title	DQT-ET	Multilingual	0.094				
umd99c5	No	Title	DQT-FT	Monolingual	0.097	0.252	0.110	0.059	0.066
umd99c6	No	Title	DQT-FT	Multilingual	0.098				

Table 2: Official and unofficial CLIR runs, overall and by-language average precision.

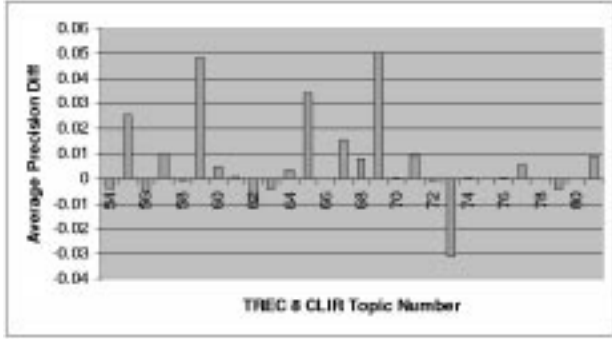
Good results have also been reported with a unified multilingual index [3], so we also tried that approach. In that case, all documents were indexed together regardless of language, and the translated queries in each language (including the untranslated English queries) were combined on a topic-by-topic basis. The approach results in a single ranked list, so no merging strategy is required. We enabled English stemming for all runs and did not use any stopword lists.

2.2 Results

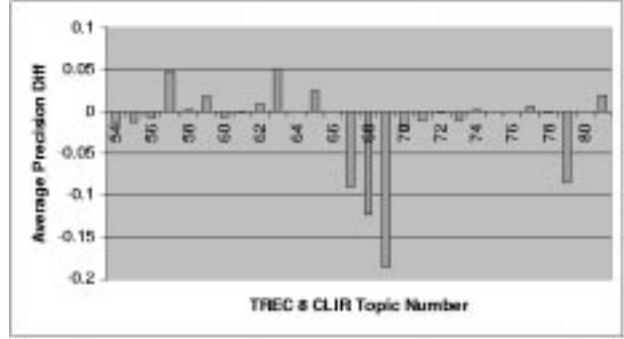
We submitted five official CLIR runs and scored an additional four unofficial runs locally, as shown in Table 2. Only the “umd99b1” and “umd99c1” runs contributed to the relevance assessment pools. All runs were in the automatic category. Title queries were formed automatically using the words in the title field of each topic description. Long queries were formed using all words in the topic except SGML markup and field titles. Pirkola’s technique clearly outperformed the best DQT technique (DQT-FT) on long queries in every language, achieving a 28% relative improvement in German, 25% in Italian and 16% in French. The differences in German and Italian were found to be statistically significant (at $p < 0.05$ using a two-tailed paired t -test), the difference in French was not ($t = 1.06, p = 0.30$). The difference is less impressive in the merged results, however, achieving only a 4% relative improvement that was not statistically significant ($t = 1.92, p = 0.065$). Figure 1(a) compares the two techniques on a per-query basis, showing that topics for which Pirkola’s technique is better are considerably more common. Pirkola’s technique is quite slow, however, requiring about 8 minutes per long French query on a SPARC 20 (compared with about 1 minute per long French query for either DQT-FT or DQT-ET). We note with some concern that this slowdown occurred with a dictionary in which multiple translations were relatively rare (averaging only 1.3 translations per term).

With title queries, the observed effect is more variable, with Pirkola’s technique performing 12% better relative to DQT-FT in German and 6% better in Italian, but 14% worse in French. With a merged ranked list, Pirkola’s method comes out 3% better than DQT-FT. This is roughly comparable to the 5% better performance of Pirkola’s technique (compared to DQT-FT) when a multilingual index is used. DQT-ET might be the better basis for comparison in this case, since it outperforms DQT-FT on German and Italian (but is again notably worse on French). When the resulting ranked lists were merged, however, DQT-ET produced a dramatic (and as-yet unexplained) improvement. As Figure 1(b) illustrates, the 14% relative improvement over Pirkola’s technique (which is not statistically significant: $t = -1.47, p = 0.15$) is attributable to topics 67, 68, 69, and 79. We examined these topics and the ranked lists, but no obvious explanation was apparent.

We also were not able to find a statistically significant difference between the use of a single multilingual index and our uniform 2:1:1:1 merging strategy for results obtained using separately constructed monolingual indices. We used the multilingual index only with title queries in our experiments. Neither the 3% relative improvement that resulted from multilingual indexing with Pirkola’s technique nor the 2% relative improvement that resulted from monolingual indexing with DQT-FT showed any sign of significance



(a) Long queries



(b) Title queries

Figure 1: Comparative results by query, merged monolingual. (a) Pirkola’s method better above zero, DQT-FT better below. (b) Pirkola’s method better above zero, DQT-ET better below.

($t = -0.24, p = 0.81$ and $t = -0.10, p = 0.92$ respectively). The previously unexplained performance of DQT-ET with merged ranked lists produced a 22% relative advantage over multilingual indices, but that difference is also not statistically significant ($t = 1.09, p = 0.28$). Figure 2 shows that again it is topics 67, 69 and 79 that are responsible for the majority of this effect.

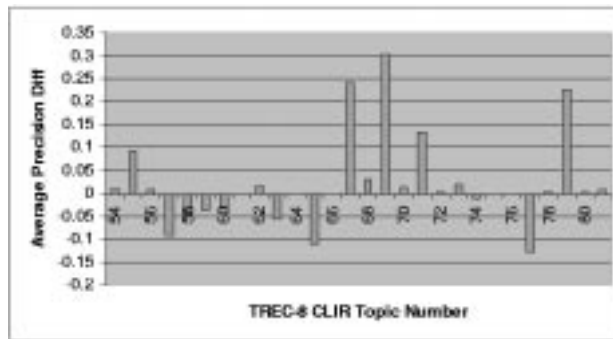


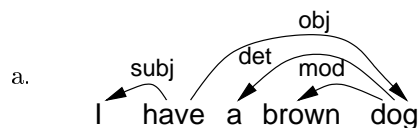
Figure 2: Comparative results by query for DQT-ET on title queries, merging monolingual ranked lists better above zero, single multilingual index better below.

3 Question Answering

Many natural language systems are organized as a stream of processing modules. A parser is usually one of the upstream modules. The resulting parse trees are typically used to guide the processing in downstream modules. For example, a semantic interpreter may rely on the parse trees to identify the atomic components that are semantically interpretable and then combine them according to the parse tree structure to obtain the interpretation for larger chunk of text. We call such processing syntax-guided. A problem with syntax-guided processing is the heavy reliance of the downstream modules on the parse trees. Without the parse trees, a syntax-guided module is usually unable to produce any output. SyncMatcher adopts a syntax-constrained approach where parse trees are used as a source of constraints for downstream modules. Without the constraints, the downstream modules are still functional. The difference is that they will be faced with more ambiguous inputs, which increase the likelihood of error in the output.

The parser used in SyncMatcher is MINIPAR, a principle-based broad-coverage parser. Although MINIPAR uses a constituency grammar internally, its outputs are dependency structures. For each word in the sentence, a dependency structure specifies the governor of the word. For example, (1a) is a dependency structure of a sentence. The root of the dependency tree is “have” and there are 4 dependency relationships in the tree as shown in (1b).

(1)



- b.
- (have subj I)
 - (have obj dog)
 - (dog mod brown)
 - (dog det a)

Given a query and a stream of documents, SyncMatcher matches sentences in the documents against the query using the dependency trees as constraints. Each match is assigned a score, which is used to rank the answers extracted from the documents. The outputs for each query are the top-5 distinct answers.

To find the best match between a query and a sentence in the documents, SyncMatcher first establishes the set of potential correspondence between the words in the query and the words in the documents according to the following rules:

- a word may match another word with identical root form.
- two words match if the result of stemming them with the Porter stemmer is the same.
- A wh-word matches proper nouns that have the same semantic tag as the wh-word. For example, “who” matches named entity that is classified as PERSON.

After collecting the set of potential matching pairs of words, SyncMatcher tries to find a subtrees of the dependency trees of the query and an input sentence that satisfies the following constraints:

(2)

- a. If a node B is on the (undirected) path between two nodes A and C in the dependency tree of the query and A', B' and C' are nodes in the dependency trees of an input sentence that corresponds to A, B and C respectively, then B' must be on the (undirected) path between A' and C' in the dependency tree.
- b. If A' and C' are nodes in the dependency tree of an input sentence and A' and C' corresponds to A and C in the query respectively, there must not exist another node on the path between A' and C' that may also correspond to A or C.

3.1 Semantic Tagging of Wh-words

SyncMatcher answers queries by extracting named entities from the documents. Therefore, we must first determine the type of named entity that the answer belongs to. If the wh-word in the query is “who”, “when”, “where”, “how many” or “how much”, the answer is usually a PERSON, a TIME/DATE, a LOCATION, a NUMBER or an AMOUNT, respectively. When the wh-word in the query is “which”, “what” or “how”, the semantic category of the wh-word is determined by their governor in the dependency tree. For each type of named entity, we constructed a list of common nouns that typically refer to them. For example, the list of common nouns for LOCATION include

country, nation, city, region, republic, island, province, state, town, area, community, territory, capital, world, South, neighborhood, village, land, colony, camp, ...

A wh-word in a query is tagged as type X if its governor belongs to the list of common nouns of the type X. For example, in the query “Which country is Australia’s largest export market?”, the governor of “which” is “country”. Therefore, “which” is tagged as LOCATION. In the query “Which former Ku Klux Klan member won an elected office in the U.S.?”, the governor of “which” is “member”. Since “member” belongs to a list of words that are very similar to “person”, “man”, etc., the word “which” is tagged as PERSON.

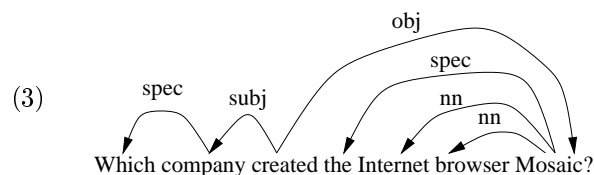
The dependency trees generated by MINIPAR also encodes the following types of coreference relationships: (1) traces and zero pronouns and their antecedents; (2) personal pronouns and their antecedents; and (3) item proper names and their antecedents. The first type coreference relationships are identified during parsing. The other two types are identified by the coreference recognizer borrowed from a University of Manitoba’s MUC system.

3.2 A Walkthrough Example

Consider the following query:

Q.108 Which company created the Internet browser Mosaic?

The dependency tree for the query is as follows:

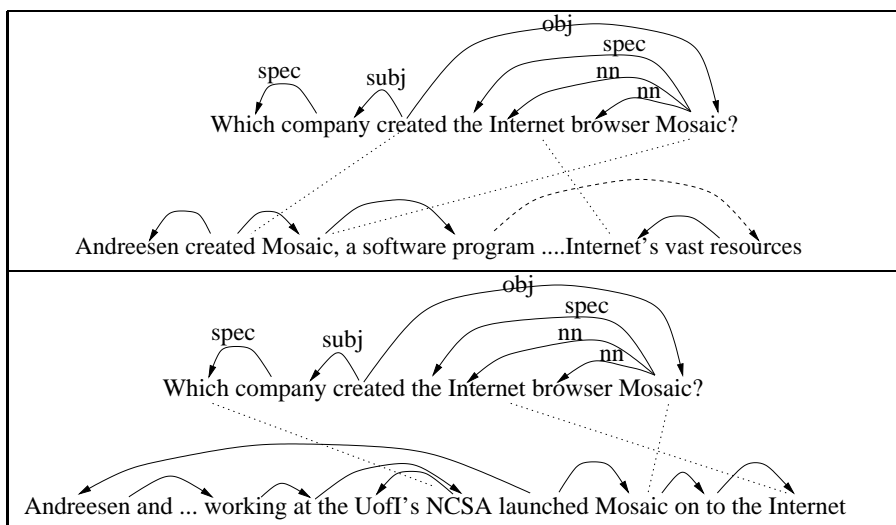


Consider the following fragments from one of the documents:

.... Then he met Marc Andreessen. A 23-year-old cyber-star computer science graduate, Andreessen created Mosaic, a software program that enables even computer novices to explore the Internet’s vast resources. Since Andreessen and a group of fellow students working at the University of Illinois’ National Center for Supercomputing Applications launched Mosaic on to the Internet last year, it has been used by an estimated 2m people.

The word “Andreessen” is not found in the lexicon in SyncMatcher. However, there is the coreference relationship between “Andreessen” and “Marc Andreessen” earlier in the document. Since “Marc” is a known first name in the lexicon, “Marc Andreessen” is recognized as a person. Therefore, “Andreessen” is tagged as a PERSON. Since the governor of “which” in the query is “company”, “which” is tagged as an ORGANIZATION. It can only correspond to words in documents that are also tagged as organizations, such as “University of Illinois” and “National Center for Supercomputing Applications”.

SyncMatcher identified the following two matches from the above paragraph.



Both matches involve three words in the query. The second match involves the wh-word in the query and is consequently scored higher. SyncMatcher then returns the matching element for the wh-word, “National Center for Supercomputing Applications” as the answer. The phrase “University of Illinois” also matches “which” in Q.108. However, because “NCSA” is on the path between “University of Illinois” and other matching words, such as “Mosaic”, the constraint (2b) rules it out.

3.3 Experimental Results

We used the documents collected by AT&T Labs using a search engine, which contains 200 documents per query. The total size of the document collection is about 200MB (32M words). The document are ordered according to the relevance score obtained from the search engine. However, this information is currently ignored. SyncMatcher parsed all the sentences in the documents except those in the headers or footers. The total processing time is about 40 hours on a 233MHz Pentium II with 160MB memory and 6GB disk, running Linux. This is roughly equivalent to 222 words per second.

For 80 out of the 198 questions in the Q&A Track, SyncMatcher returned the correct answer as one of its top 5 answers. The distribution of the answers is shown in the following table.

1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	not found
47	14	7	7	5	118

4 Routing

We have been exploring a filtering technique which combines content-based and collaborative aspects [11], and TREC-8 is its first exposure with a large collection. We expected this technique to give some advantage to related families of topics, while not harming performance on other topics.

Since our work has focused on the basic technique and not on adaptation, we only submitted results for routing. While adaptation and profile construction are probably not orthogonal, we hoped that this would help show if our technique works aside from any benefits gained from adaptive filtering.

4.1 Collaborative LSI

We first construct our routing queries using a sophisticated relevance feedback approach. All queries are then collected together, and a latent semantic index (LSI) of the query collection is computed. Test documents are routed in the reduced-dimension LSI space, which should highlight common interests among the queries, and diminish noise. Latent semantic indexing [1] has been used before by Dumais in the TREC Routing task [2]. The key difference in our approach is that we compute the latent semantic index from a collection of queries, rather than a collection of individual documents. Specifically, we collect our routing queries for topics 351-400 into a single term-query matrix, and compute an SVD of this matrix. This should give two advantages over a straightforward application of LSI. First, the LSI space is oriented towards features of the queries, rather than the documents, making it better suited to a routing environment with few saved documents and persistent queries. Second, the LSI space highlights commonalities among queries, so that if queries are similar they can benefit from each other.

In Dumais’ approach, the LSI transformation highlights common features among documents, giving dimensions where groups of documents share co-occurrence patterns of certain weighted terms. This is simply too general, and not related to our problem, which is not to choose among documents but to choose among queries. Hull [4] described a “local LSI” technique, which rather than computing the LSI from the entire collection, computed it from the top n documents in an initial retrieval on the query. This is closer to a query-centric LSI than Dumais, but does not allow for collaboration among queries.

It’s not clear that any collaboration takes place in TREC filtering, since the topics are not necessarily designed to overlap, either in information interest or in actual relevant document sets. However, just from a reading of the topic descriptions, several topics this year seem closely related, as can be seen in figure 3. These groups might have documents in common, for example, in the case of the first and fifth groups; or they might indeed be “false friends”, containing common terms but not common relevant documents, probably the case in the other three groups. In fact, because of the strict definitions of relevance in TREC topics,

- Medicine:
 - postmenopausal estrogen Britain (356)
 - in vitro fertilization (368)
 - anorexia nervosa bulimia (369)
 - health insurance holistic (371)
 - obesity medical treatment (380)
 - alternative medicine (381)
 - mercy killing (393)
- Alternative fuels:
 - hydrogen energy (375)
 - hydrogen fuel automobiles (382)
 - hybrid fuel cars (385)
- Exploited labor:
 - clothing sweatshops (361)
 - human smuggling (362)
- Pharmaceuticals:
 - food/drug laws (370)
 - mental illness drugs (383)
 - orphan drugs (390)
 - R&D drug prices (391)
- Education:
 - mainstreaming (379)
 - teaching disabled children (386)
 - home schooling (394)

Figure 3: A sampling of topics used in the TREC-8 Filtering track, grouped manually into families of related interest.

and that they explicitly seek to limit how far relevance carries to related documents, collaborative filtering techniques might actually harm performance.

4.2 Profile Construction

To build our profiles, we use a technique similar to that used by the AT&T group in TREC-6 [8] and TREC-7 [10]. First, a training collection is constructed from the Financial Times documents from 1992, and all TREC documents from the Foreign Broadcast Information Service, and Los Angeles Times. We gather collection statistics here for all future IDF weights. The training document vectors are weighted log-tfidf, and normalized using the pivoted unique-term document normalization [9].

Pivoted document length normalization is an improvement over the commonly-used cosine normalization. Vector normalization is done in general because longer documents, having more terms, will dominate the similarity calculation otherwise. The cosine normalization does a fairly good job of ensuring that probability of relevance does not increase with length, but still manages to favor long documents. Pivoted normalization repairs this by more “severely” normalizing longer documents.

We then build a routing query using Rocchio’s formula for relevance feedback:

$$Q' = \alpha Q + \beta \left(\frac{1}{|rel|} \sum_{r \in rel} D_r \right) + \gamma \left(\frac{1}{|nrel|} \sum_{n \in nrel} D_n \right)$$

An initial query Q is made from the short topic description, and using it the top 1000 documents are retrieved from the training collection. The results are used to build a feedback query, using:

- Q , the initial short-description query (weighted $\alpha = 3$)
- D_r , all documents known to be relevant to the query in the training collection (weighted $\beta = 2$)
- D_n , retrieved documents 501-1000, assumed to be irrelevant (weighted $\gamma = -2$)

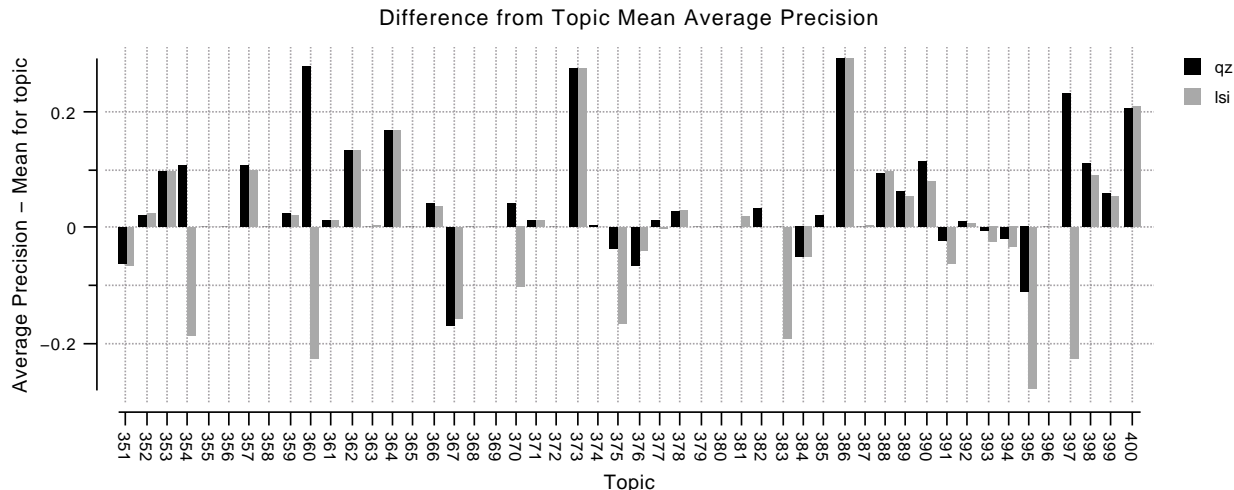


Figure 4: Difference in average precision from mean average precision for each topic. Note that there is very little difference in performance from using LSI.

The set of documents retrieved with the initial query Q is called the “query zone”, and this blind feedback is a kind of unsupervised learning technique. One can also use the top documents from the query zone as unsupervised positive examples, but we found this did not perform as well against the training set. Also, we looked at using the known irrelevant judgments as supervised negatives, but these did not give as good performance on retrieving the training set.

4.3 Results

Our system for routing is based on SMART, with routines added by us for pivoted document length normalization weights, construction of the LSI vector space, and the similarity computations needed to build a ranked list. The LSI code is based on software written at the University of Maryland,² and on SVDPACKC from the NETLIB archive.³ Our experiments were run on a Intel Pentium II-based system running Linux 2.2 with 512MB of RAM and 36 GB of local SCSI-II disk storage.

Two runs were submitted. The first, “umrqz,” used only the routing queries as described above. The second, “umrlsi,” computed an LSI from the collection of these routing queries, and routed the test documents in the resulting LSI space. For LSI to give any benefit, the dimensionality must be reduced below the maximum (in this case, 50 dimensions). We are not aware of any proven principled method for choosing this dimensionality besides trying several levels and seeing what gives the best performance. We thus ran our LSI queries against the training collection at several dimensions, and found that no dimensionality choice seemed to show any benefit for LSI. For the official submission, we arbitrarily chose a 45 dimensions. Overall, both runs performed quite well, with umrqz above the median for 27 queries, and umrlsi for 23. For five queries, we produced the best performance, and for four of those, the LSI gave the maximum score. For the majority of queries, however, there was only a very small difference in performance if any between the two runs. We take this to indicate that good overall performance is mostly due to the routing query construction, which uses a combination of approaches shown to work well in previous TRECs. Figure 4 shows the difference in average precision from the mean score for each topic, illustrating the similarity of the results.

We expected that LSI might not perform much better, because since the topics are mostly different, with little opportunity for overlap, the LSI should have been unable to help most queries. However, for the

²The LSI code is available at <http://www.glue.umd.edu/~oard>

³SVDPACKC is available from <http://www.netlib.org>

example candidate topic “clusters” described above, the difference in average precision from using LSI was negligible. For 18 queries where the difference in average precision between the non-LSI and LSI routing was more than 0.009, in 11 cases the difference was quite small relative to the whole span of scores. In the other seven, the difference was more marked, and in all but one (381) against LSI. For one query (360), LSI gave the minimum performance and the nonrotated query gave the maximum. Furthermore, in the twenty topics where average precision in the umrlsi run was high (> 0.5), precision without LSI was either the same or slightly higher. In eight topics, the LSI average precision was less than 60% of that achieved without LSI. These topics have a fair range of relevant document set sizes and in only one of these topics was performance across all systems poor. One topic in this group was 375, “hydrogen energy”, and three were drug-related (drug legalization, food/drug laws, mental illness drugs). It may be that the drug-related topics contained a lot of shared terms, but this caused LSI to bring out a lot of false friends.

4.4 Discussion

The results indicate that, for the topics and documents here, LSI overall gives no benefit over nontransformed profiles, and if anything may degrade performance among manually-identified clusters of interest. A more in-depth analysis is needed to understand these results. An obvious point for failure might be that the topics have no overlap in relevant documents. If the topics were truly orthogonal, so that there was no overlap among highly-weighted terms among profiles, then we would expect the LSI to give results that are identical to the nontransformed queries, or nearly so. This does seem to match the results as shown in figure 4; however, we know that there are groups of topics which seem to be related. What may in fact be happening here is that collaborating queries are sharing documents which relate to the general interest of the profile, but these documents are not actually *specifically relevant* to the topic as determined by the TREC evaluation.

Alternatively, our profile vectors that we construct may not give a good representation of the topic. Perhaps we are using too many negative example documents, or should be more selective about which terms to retain after the Rocchio expansion. To analyze this, we could look at overlap in terms, training documents, and test documents among the topics. This should give us a better view of where to expect LSI to make gains, but on the other hand this is what the LSI is supposed to do for us. It might be instructive to look at the LSI dimensions and the terms which characterize them, to see what exactly what patterns LSI is finding.

As another possibility, it could be that there are topics which could collaborate, and in fact there is term co-occurrence across their queries which we’d expect the LSI to find, but these patterns aren’t prominent relative to the rest of the collection. This might happen because there aren’t enough terms co-occurring, or the pattern doesn’t span enough queries. In our three example groups, only drug-related topics represent a large segment of the topic collection, and this grouping is vague. An alternative approach might be to augment the matrix used to compute the LSI with more example profiles (perhaps from older TREC topics), or with a sample of documents.

Document Overlap Among Topics. Although Figure 3 implies families of topics that seem to be of related interest, the fact of the matter is that these are separate topics with specific guidelines as to what is and what is not relevant to the topic. Figure 5 gives an illustration of how many topics a document may be relevant to. It shows, for each run and for the relevance judgments, how many (predicted) relevant topics were given for a document. The “qrels” bars show the actual relevance judgments; one can see that the lions share of documents are relevant to only one topic; less than sixty documents are known to be relevant to more than one topic. If a pure collaborative algorithm were used to predict relevance for these topics, and these relevance judgments were sampled for training data, it would fail miserably because the matrix would be too sparse. The probability of any useful quantity of overlap occurring is very small.

The two charts differ in the method for predicting which documents in the umrqz and umrlsi runs are actually relevant. A routing run contains the highest-scored 1000 documents for each topic, but clearly the system does not expect that all 1000 documents are relevant. Thus, we use only predict as relevant some of the documents in each run. The first picks the top 15 ranked documents; 15 is the median number of relevant documents per topic in the actual relevance judgments. The second picks the top 50.

These graphs indicate that our runs tend to spread documents across more topics than are actually relevant. Within the top 15, the qz run distribution is similar to the qrels, and the LSI run gives slightly

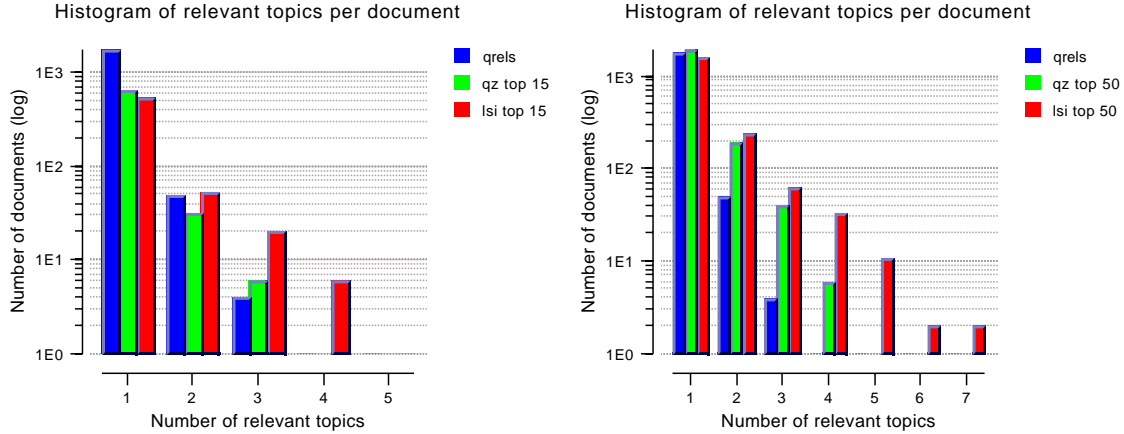


Figure 5: Histograms showing how many topics are relevant to each document, according to TREC-8 relevance judgments, and as predicted by the submitted runs. The horizontal axis is the number of relevant topics; the vertical axis is a log scale of the number of documents which are relevant to only that many topics. The chart on the left uses the top 15 submitted documents in each run; the right uses the top 50.

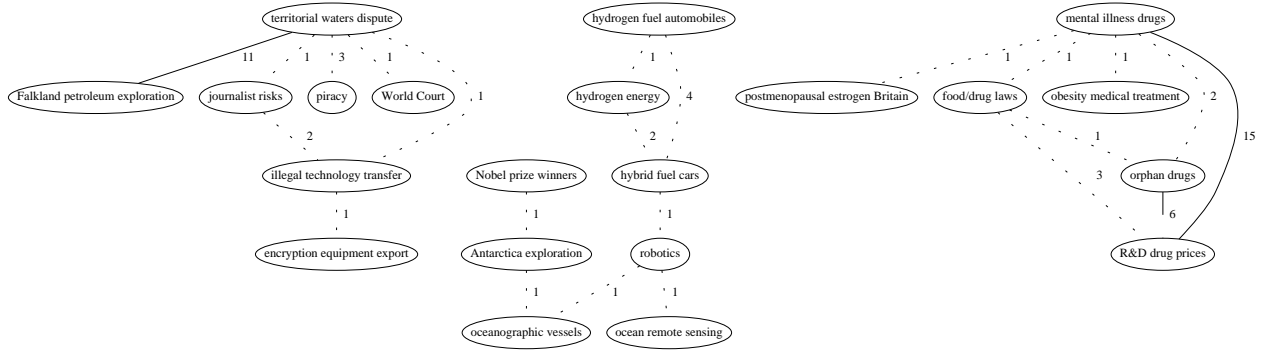


Figure 6: Number of documents shared between topics in the filtering relevance judgments file.

more overlap. At 50 documents per topic the difference is much greater; however, for documents that are shared among only two or three topics, the runs are close to each other in overlap.

Topic Clusters, Revisited. Figure 6 shows how topics share relevant documents, according to the relevance judgments. An edge between two topic nodes indicates a number of documents which are relevant to both topics. The style of line is related to the number of shared documents, as a visual aid; thicker lines indicate more documents. In this diagram, we can see the alternative fuels and pharmaceuticals clusters which we predicted from just reading the topics. These are also loosely linked to other topics, such as “ocean remote sensing”, “robotics” and “obesity medical treatment”. Another strong link exists between “territorial waters dispute” and “Falkland petroleum exploration”, and this group also contains links to “piracy”, “illegal technology transfer”, and “World Court”. Some of these topics are more closely tied together than others, for example, “mental illness drugs” and “R&D drug prices” with 15 documents, while the links between others are more tenuous.

Figure 7 shows the topic relationships as recommended by the query-zone (non-LSI) profiles. The documents represented by these links are in the top 50 for each topic in the submitted run. The graph of the entire recommendation set contains a large number of low-weight links; for clarity, only links of five or more

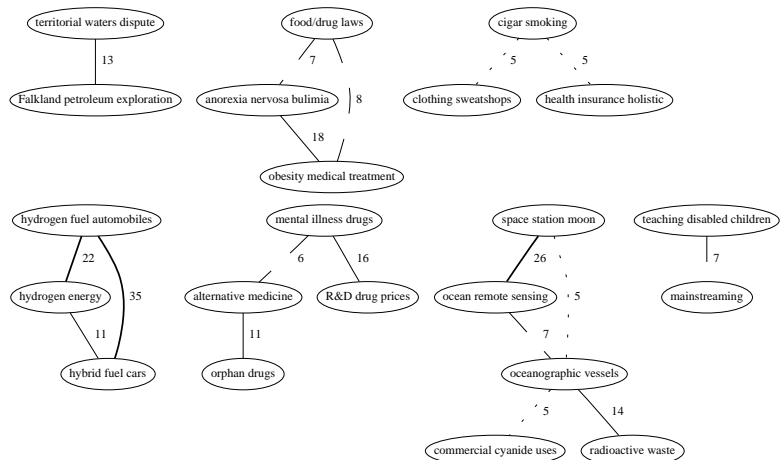


Figure 7: Document sharing among recommendations made by the query-zoned (non-LSI) profiles. Only links of 5 or more documents are shown.

documents are shown, which in Figure 7 is only 18% of the edge set. We can see that many of the links in the relevance judgments graph are predicted here, although with much larger shared documents sets. We have not manually examined the recommended documents to see what proportion of the shared documents are relevant, and if the stronger links have correspondingly higher numbers of relevant documents.

Although not containing any relevant documents, our education cluster appears, with a link between “teaching disabled children” and “mainstreaming”. We think that the documents along this link may be of related interest but are not actually topically relevant. The query-zone profiles also recommend what we suspect are some red-herring links, for example the links among “cigar smoking”, “health insurance holistic” and “clothing sweatshops”. Another red herring (not strong enough to show on this graph) is a predicted link between “transportation tunnel disasters” and “British Chunnel impact”.

Finally, figure 8 shows document sharing in the top 50 recommendations made by the LSI profiles. Again, this graph only shows links of five or more documents (in this case, 36% of the total edges). The LSI makes some links stronger, bringing them up to our attention when they didn’t appear in the graph for the query zone profiles. One example is the set of topics linked to the Falklands group; most of these links were not strong enough to be visible in figure 7. Another example is in the hybrid fuel cars group; automobile recalls wasn’t linked heavily before, but it is now and is a red herring. Also, note that the pharmaceuticals and medicine topics are more closely linked in the LSI recommendations.

The LSI also is lessening the impact of some relationships in the feedback profiles. The links between “hybrid fuel cars” and “hydrogen fuel automobiles” is slightly stronger while the links to both of these from “hydrogen energy” is slightly weaker. This effect is not as strong as we would have hoped, though.

In summary, it seems that the collaborative LSI technique serves to enhance ties among clusters of topics, but that these ties consist of related but essentially irrelevant documents, as can be seen by comparing the graphs of the runs to the relevance judgments graph. It is also likely that our naive term selection in the profile expansion step, especially with respect to negative examples, is calling forth more red herrings than we might find otherwise.

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