Text Segmentation Using Exponential Models*

Doug Beeferman **Adam Berger** **John Lafferty**

School of Computer Science
Carnegie Mellon University

Abstract

This paper introduces a new statistical approach to partitioning text automatically into coherent segments. Our approach enlists both short-range and long-range language models to help it sniff out likely sites of topic changes in text. To aid its search, the system consults a set of simple lexical hints it has learned to associate with the presence of boundaries through inspection of a large corpus of annotated data. We also propose a new probabilistically motivated error metric for use by the natural language processing and information retrieval communities, intended to supersede precision and recall for appraising segmentation algorithms. Qualitative assessment of our algorithm as well as evaluation using this new metric demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in two very different domains, *Wall Street Journal* articles and the TDT Corpus, a collection of newswire articles and broadcast news transcripts.

1 Introduction

The task we address in this paper might seem on the face of it rather elementary: identify where one region of text ends and another begins. This work was motivated by the observations that such a seemingly simple problem can actually prove quite difficult to automate, and that a tool for partitioning a stream of undifferentiated text (or multimedia) into coherent regions would be of great benefit to a number of existing applications.

The task itself is ill-defined: what exactly is meant by a "region" of text? We confront this issue by adopting an empirical definition of segment. At our disposal is a collection of online data (38 million words of Wall Street Journal archives and another 150 million words from selected news broadcasts) annotated with the boundaries between regions—articles or news reports, respectively. Given this input, the task of constructing a segmenter may be cast as a problem in machine learning: glean from the data a set of hints about where boundaries occur, and use these hints to inform a decision on where to place breaks in unsegmented data.

A general-purpose tool for partitioning expository text or multimedia data into coherent regions would have a number of immediate practical uses. In fact, this research was inspired by a problem in information retrieval: given a large unpartitioned collection of expository text and a user's query, return a collection of coherent segments matching the query. Lacking a segmenting tool, an IR application may be able to locate positions in its database which are strong matches with the user's query, but be unable to determine how much of the surrounding data to provide to the user. This can manifest itself in quite unfortunate ways. For example, a video-on-demand application (such as the one described in (Christel et al., 1995)) responding to a query about a recent news event may provide the user with a news clip related to the event, followed or preceded by part of an unrelated story or even a commercial.

Document summarization is another fertile area for an automatic segmenter. Summarization tools often work by breaking the input into "topics" and then summarizing each topic independently. A segmentation tool has obvious applications to the first of these tasks.

The output of a segmenter could also serve as input to various language-modeling tools. For instance, one could envision segmenting a corpus, classifying the segments by topic, and then constructing topic-dependent language models from the generated classes.

The paper will proceed as follows. In Section 2 we

*Research supported in part by NSF grant IRI-9314969, DARPA AASERT award DAAH04-95-1-0475, and the ATR Interpreting Telecommunications Research Laboratories.

very briefly review some previous approaches to the text segmentation problem. In Section 3 we describe our model, including the type of linguistic clues it looks for in deciding when placing a partition is appropriate. In Section 4 we describe a feature induction algorithm that automatically constructs a set of the most informative clues. Section 5 shows examples of the feature induction algorithm in action. In Section 6 we introduce a new, probabilistically motivated way to evaluate a text segmenter. Finally, in Section 7 we demonstrate our model's effectiveness on two distinct domains.

2 Some Previous Work

In this section we very briefly discuss some previous approaches to the text segmentation problem.

2.1 Text tiling

The *TextTiling* algorithm, introduced by Hearst (Hearst, 1994), segments expository texts into multiple paragraphs of coherent discourse units. A cosine measure is used to gauge the similarity between constant-size blocks of morphologically analyzed tokens. First-order rates of change of this measure are then calculated to decide the placement of boundaries between blocks, which are then adjusted to coincide with the paragraph segmentation, provided as input to the algorithm. This approach leverages the observation that text segments are dense with repeated content words. Relying on this fact, however, may limit precision because the repetition of concepts within a document is more subtle than can be recognized by only a "bag of words" tokenizer and morphological filter.

Word pairs other than "self-triggers," for example, can be discovered automatically from training data using the techniques of mutual information employed by our language model. Furthermore, Hearst's approach segments at the paragraph level, which may be too coarse for applications like information retrieval on transcribed or automatically recognized spoken documents, in which paragraph boundaries are not known.

2.2 Lexical cohesion

(Kozima, 1993) employs a "lexical cohesion profile" to keep track of the semantic cohesiveness of words in a text within a fixed-length window. In contrast to Hearst's focus on strict repetition, Kozima uses a semantic network to provide knowledge about related word pairs. Lexical cohesiveness between two words is calculated in the network by "activating" the node for one word and observing the "activity value" at the other word after some number of iterations of "spreading activation" between nodes. The network is trained automatically using a language-specific knowledge source (a dictionary of definitions). Kozima generalizes lexical cohesiveness to apply to a window of text, and plots the cohesiveness of successive text windows in a document, identifying the valleys in the measure as segment boundaries.

A graphically motivated segmentation technique called *dotplotting* is offered in (Reynar, 1994). This technique uses a simplified notion of lexical cohesion, depending exclusively on word repetition to find tight regions of topic similarity.

2.3 Decision trees

(Litman and Passonneau, 1995) presents an algorithm that uses decision trees to combine multiple linguistic features extracted from corpora of spoken text, including prosodic and lexical cues. The decision tree algorithm, like ours, chooses from a space of candidate features, some of which are similar to our vocabulary questions. The set of candidate questions in Litman and Passonneu's approach, however, is lacking in features related to "lexical cohesion." In our work we incorporate such features by using a pair of language models, as described below.

3 A Feature-Based Approach

Our attack on the segmentation problem is based on a statistical framework that we call *feature induction* for random fields and exponential models (Berger, Della Pietra, and Della Pietra, 1996; Della Pietra, Della Pietra, and Lafferty, 1997). The idea is to construct a model which assigns to each position in the data stream a probability that a boundary belongs at that position. This probability distribution arises by incrementally building a log-linear model that weighs different "features" of the data. For simplicity, we assume that the features are binary questions.

To illustrate (and to show that our approach is in no way restricted to text), consider the task of partitioning a stream of multimedia data containing audio, text and video. In this setting, the features might include questions such as:

- *Does the phrase* COMING UP *appear in the last utterance of the decoded speech?*
- *Is there a sharp change in the video stream in the last* 20 *frames?*
- *Does the language model degrade in performance in the next two utterances?*
- *Is there a "match" between the spectrum of the current image and an image near the last segment boundary?*
- *Are there blank video frames nearby?*
- *Is there a sharp change in the audio stream in the next utterance?*

The idea of using features is a natural one, and indeed other recent work on segmentation, such as (Litman and Passonneau, 1995), adopts this approach. We take a unique approach to incorporating the information inherent in various features, using the statistical framework of exponential models to choose the best features and combine them in a principled manner.

3.1 A short-range model of language

Central to our approach to segmenting is a pair of tools: a short- and long-range model of language. Monitoring the relative behavior of these two models goes a long way towards helping our segmenter sniff out natural breaks in the text. In this section and the next, we describe these language models and explain their utility in identifying segments.

The trigram models $p_{\text{tri}}(w \mid w_{-2}, w_{-1})$ we employ use the Katz backoff scheme (Katz, 1987) for smoothing. We trained trigram models on two different corpora. The Wall Street Journal corpus (**WSJ**) is a 38-million word corpus of articles from the newspaper. The model was constructed using a set $\mathcal{W}$ of the approximately $20,000$ most frequently occurring words in the corpus. Another model was constructed on the Broadcast News corpus (**BN**), made up of approximately 150 million words (four and a half years) of transcripts of various news broadcasts, including CNN news, political roundtables, NPR broadcasts, and interviews.

By restricting the conditioning information to the previous two words, the trigram model is making the simplifying assumption—clearly false—that the use of language one finds in television, radio, and newspaper can be modeled by a second-order Markov process. Although words prior to w_{-2} certainly bear on the identity of w, higher-order models are impractical: the number of parameters in an n-gram model is $O(\mid \mathcal{W} \mid^n)$, and finding the resources to compute and store all these parameters becomes a hopeless task for $n > 3$. Usually the lexical myopia of the trigram model is a hindrance; however, we will see how a segmenter can in fact make positive use of this shortsightedness.

3.2 A long-range model of language

One of the fundamental characteristics of language, viewed as a stochastic process, is that it is highly *nonstationary*. Throughout a written document and during the course of spoken conversation, the topic evolves, affecting local statistics on word occurrences. A model which could adapt to its recent context would seem to offer much over a stationary model such as the trigram model. For example, an adaptive model might, for some period of time after seeing a word like HOMERUN, boost the probabilities of the words {HOMERUN, PITCHER, FIELDER, ERROR, BATTER, TRIPLE, OUT}. For an empirically-driven example, we provide an excerpt from the **BN** corpus. Emphasized words mark where a long-range language model might reasonably be expected to outperform (assign higher probabilities than) a short-range model:

> Some doctors are more **skilled** at doing the **procedure** than others so it's **recommended** that **patients** ask **doctors** about their track record. People at high **risk** of **stroke** include those over age 55 with a family **history** or high **blood pressure**, **diabetes** and **smokers**. We urge them to be evaluated by their family **physicians** and this can be done by a very simple **procedure** simply by having them **test** with a **stethoscope** for **symptoms** of blockage.

One means of injecting long-range awareness into a language model is by retaining a cache of the most recently seen n-grams which is smoothed together (typically by linear interpolation) with the static model; see for example (Jelinek et al., 1991; Kuhn and de Mori, 1990). Another approach, using maximum entropy methods, introduces a parameter for *trigger pairs* of mutually informative words, so that the occurrence of certain words in recent context boosts the probability of the words that they trigger (Lau, Rosenfeld, and Roukos, 1993).

The method we use here, described in (Beeferman, Berger, and Lafferty, 1997), employs a static trigram model as a "prior," or default distribution, and adds certain features to a family of conditional exponential models to capture some of the nonstationary features of text. The features are simple trigger pairs of words chosen on the basis of mutual information. Figure 1 provides a small sample of the (s, t) trigger pairs used in most of the experiments we will describe.

To incorporate triggers into a long-range language model, we begin by constructing a standard, static backoff trigram model $p_{\text{tri}}(w \mid w_{-2}, w_{-1})$ as described in 3.1. We then build a family of conditional exponential models of the general form

$$p_{\text{exp}}(w \mid H) = \frac{1}{Z(H)} \exp\left(\sum_i \lambda_i f_i(H, w)\right) p_{\text{tri}}(w \mid w_{-2}, w_{-1})$$

where $H \equiv w_{-N}, w_{-N+1}, \ldots, w_{-1}$ is the word *history* (the N words preceding w in the text), and $Z(H)$ is the normalization constant

$$Z(H) = \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}} \exp\left(\sum_i \lambda_i f_i(H, w)\right) p_{\text{tri}}(w \mid w_{-2}, w_{-1}).$$

(s,t)	e^{λ}
RESIDUES, CARCINOGENS	2.3
CHARLESTON, SHIPYARDS	4.0
MICROSCOPIC, CUTICLE	4.1
DEFENSE, DEFENSE	8.4
TAX, TAX	10.5
KURDS, ANKARA	14.8
VLADIMIR, GENNADY	19.6
STEVE, STEVE	20.7
EDUCATION, EDUCATION	22.2
MUSIC, MUSIC	22.4
INSURANCE, INSURANCE	23.0
PULITZER, PRIZEWINNING	23.6
YELTSIN, YELTSIN	23.7
RUSSIAN, RUSSIAN	26.1
SAUCE, TEASPOON	27.1
FLOWER, PETALS	32.3
CASINOS, HARRAH'S	42.8
DRUG, DRUG	47.7
CLAIRE, CLAIRE	80.9
PICKET, SCAB	103.1

Table 1: A sample of the 84,694 word pairs from the **BN** domain. Roughly speaking, after seeing an "s" word, the empirical probability of witnessing the corresponding "t" in the next N words is boosted by the factor in the third column. In the experiments described herein, $N = 500$. A separate set of (s,t) pairs were extracted from the **WSJ** corpus.

The functions f_i, which depend both on the word history H and the word being predicted, are the features; each f_i is assigned a weight λ_i. In the models that we built, feature f_i is an indicator function, testing for the occurrence of a trigger pair (s_i, t_i):

$$f_i(H,w) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s_i \in H \text{ and } w = t_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The above equations reveal that the probability of a word t involves a sum over all words s such that $s \in H$ (s appeared in the past 500 words) and (s,t) is a trigger pair. One propitious manner of viewing this model is to imagine that, when assigning probability to a word w following a history of words H, the model "consults" a cache of words which appeared in H and which are the left half of some (s,t) trigger pair. In general, the cache consists of content words s which promote the probability of their mate t, and correspondingly demote the probability of other words. As described in (Beeferman, Berger, and Lafferty, 1997), for each (s,t) trigger pair there corresponds a real-valued parameter λ; the probability of t is boosted by a factor of e^{λ} for W words following the occurrence of s_i.

The training algorithm we use for estimating the λ values is the *Improved Iterative Scaling* algorithm of (Della Pietra, Della Pietra, and Lafferty, 1997), which is a scheme for solving the maximum likelihood problem that is "dual" to a corresponding maximum entropy problem. Assuming robust estimates for the λ parameters, the resulting model is essentially guaranteed to be superior to the trigram model.

For a concrete example, if s_i =VLADIMIR and t_i =GENNADY, then $f_i = 1$ if and only if VLADIMIR appeared in the past N words and the current word w is GENNADY. Consulting Table 1, we see that in the **BN** corpus, the presence of VLADIMIR will boost the probability of GENNADY by a factor of 19.6 for the next $N = 500$ words.

3.3 Language model "relevance" features

A long-range language model such as that described in Section 3.2 uses selected words from the past ten, twenty or more sentences to inform its decision on the possible identity of the next word. This is likely to help if all of these sentences are in the same document as the current word, for in that case the model has presumably begun to adapt to the idiosyncracies of the current document. In the case of the trigger model described above, the cache will be filled with "relevant" words. In this setting, one would expect a long-range model to outperform a trigram (or other short-range) model, which doesn't avail itself of long-range information.

On the other hand, if the present document has just recently begun, the long-range model is wrongly conditioning its decision on information from a different—and presumably unrelated—document. A soap commercial, for instance, doesn't benefit a long-range model in assigning probabilities to the words in the news segment following the commercial. Often a long-range model will actually be misled by such irrelevant context; in this case, the myopia of the trigram model is actually helpful.

By monitoring the long- and short-range models, one might be more inclined towards a partition when the long-range model suddenly shows a dip in performance—a lower assigned probability to the observed words—compared to the short-range model. Conversely, when the long-range model is consistently assigning higher probabilities to the observed words, a partition is less likely.

This motivates a quantitative measure of "relevance," which we define as the logarithm of the ratio of the probability the exponential model assigns to the next word (or sentence) to that assigned by the short-range trigram model:

$$R(H,w) \equiv \log\left(\frac{p_{\text{exp}}(w \mid H)}{p_{\text{tri}}(w \mid w_{-2}w_{-1})}\right).$$

When the exponential model outperforms the trigram model, $R > 0$.

If we observe the behavior of R as a function of the position of the word within a segment, we find that on average R slowly increases from below zero to well above zero. Figure 1 gives a striking graphical illustration of this phenomenon. The figure plots the average value of R as a function of relative position in the segment, with position zero indicating the beginning of a segment. This plot shows that when a segment boundary is crossed the predictions of the adaptive model undergo a dramatic and sudden degradation, and then steadily become more accurate as relevant content words for the new segment are encountered and added to the cache. (The few very high points to the left of a segment boundary are primarily a consequence of the word CNN—which is a trigger word and often appears at the beginning and end of a broadcast news segment.)

This observed behavior is consistent with our earlier intuition: the cache of the long-range model is destructive early in a document, when the new content words bear little in common with the content words from the previous article. Gradually, as the cache fills with words drawn from the current article, the long-range model gains steam and R improves. While Figure 1 shows that this behavior is very pronounced as a "law of large numbers," our feature induction results indicate that relevance is also a very good predictor of boundaries for individual events.

In the experiments we report in this paper, we assume that sentence boundaries are provided in the annotation, and so the questions we ask are actually about the relevance score assigned to entire sentences normalized by sentence length, a geometric mean of language model ratios.

3.4 Vocabulary features

In addition to the estimate of "topicality" that relevance features provide, we included features pertaining to the identity of words before and after potential segment boundaries as candidates in our exponential model. The set of candidate word-based features we use are simple questions of the form

- *Does the word appear up to 1 sentence in the future? 2 sentences? 3? 5?*
- *Does the word appear up to 1 sentence in the past? 2 sentences ? 3? 5?*
- *Does the word appear up to 5 sentences in the past but not 5 sentences in the future?*
- *Does the word appear up to 5 sentences in the future but not 5 sentences in the past?*
- *Does the word appear up to 1 word in the future? 5 words?*
- *Does the word appear up to 1 word in the past? 5 words?*
- *Does the word begin the preceding sentence?*

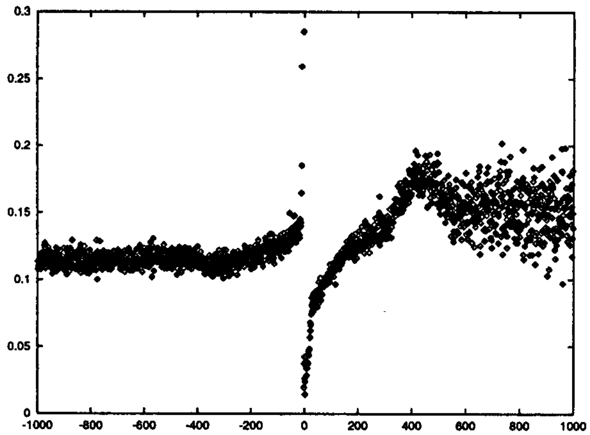

Figure 1: Near the beginning of a segment, an adaptive, long-range language model is on average less accurate than a static trigram model. The figure plots the average value of the logarithm of the ratio of the adaptive language model to the static trigram model as a function of relative position in the segment, with position zero indicating the beginning of a segment. The statistics were collected over the roughly seven million words of mixed broadcast news and Reuters data comprising the **TDT** corpus (see Section 5).

4 Feature Induction

To cast the problem of determining segment boundaries in statistical terms, we set as our goal the construction of a probability distribution $q(b\,|\,\omega)$, where $b \in \{\text{YES}, \text{NO}\}$ is a random variable describing the presence of a segment boundary in context ω. We consider distributions in the *linear exponential family* $\mathcal{Q}(f, q_0)$ given by

$$\mathcal{Q}(f, q_0) = \left\{ q(b\,|\,\omega) = \frac{1}{Z_\lambda(\omega)} e^{\lambda \cdot f(\omega)}\, q_0(b\,|\,\omega) \right\}$$

where $q_0(b\,|\,\omega)$ is a prior or *default* distribution on the presence of a boundary, and $\lambda \cdot f(\omega)$ is a linear combination of binary features $f_i(\omega) \in \{0, 1\}$ with real-valued *feature parameters* λ_i:

$$\lambda \cdot f(\omega) = \lambda_1 f_1(\omega) + \lambda_2 f_2(\omega) + \cdots \lambda_n f_n(\omega)\,.$$

The normalization constants

$$Z_\lambda(\omega) = 1 + e^{\lambda \cdot f(\omega)}$$

insure that this is indeed a family of conditional probability distributions. (This family of models is closely related to the class of sigmoidal belief networks (Neal, 1992).)

Our judgment of the merit of a model $q \in \mathcal{Q}(f, q_0)$ relative to a reference distribution $p \notin \mathcal{Q}(f, q_0)$ during training is made in terms of the Kullback-Leibler divergence

$$D(p\,\|\,q) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega) \sum_{b \in \{\text{YES},\text{NO}\}} p(b\,|\,\omega) \log \frac{p(b\,|\,\omega)}{q(b\,|\,\omega)}\,.$$

Thus, when p is chosen to be the empirical distribution of a sample of training events $\{(\omega, b)\}$, we are using the maximum likelihood criterion for model selection. Under certain mild regularity conditions, the maximum likelihood solution

$$q^{\star} = \arg\min_{q \in \mathcal{Q}(f, q_0)} D(p \,\|\, q)$$

exists and is unique. To find this solution, we use the iterative scaling algorithm presented in (Della Pietra, Della Pietra, and Lafferty, 1997).

This explains how a model is chosen once we know the features $f_1, \ldots, f_n$, but how are these features to be found? The procedure that we follow is a greedy algorithm akin to growing a decision tree. Given an initial distribution q and a set of candidate features $\mathcal{C}$, we consider the one-parameter family of distributions $\{q_{\alpha,g}\}_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}} = \mathcal{Q}(g, q)$ for each $g \in \mathcal{C}$. The *gain* of the candidate feature g is defined to be

$$G_q(g) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\alpha} \left(D(\tilde{p} \,\|\, q) - D(\tilde{p} \,\|\, q_{\alpha,f}) \right) .$$

This is the improvement to the model that would result from adding the feature g and adjusting its weight to the best value. After calculating the gain of each candidate feature, the one with the largest gain is chosen to be added to the model, and all of the model's parameters are then adjusted using iterative scaling. In this manner, an exponential model is incrementally built up using the most informative features.

Having concluded our discussion of our overall approach, we present in Figure 2 a schematic view of the steps involved in building a segmenter using this approach.

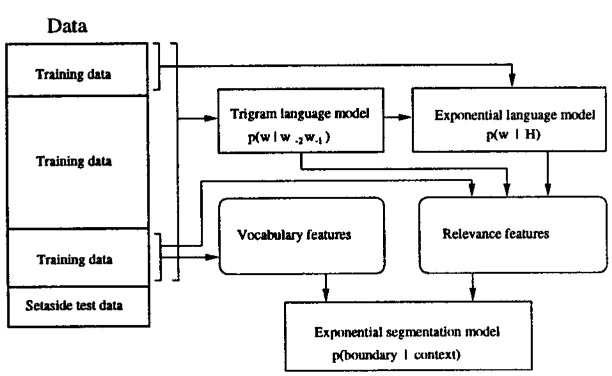

Figure 2: Data flow in training the exponential segmentation model

5 Feature Induction in Action

This section provides a peek at the construction of segmenters for two different domains. Inspecting the sequence of features selected by the induction algorithm reveals much about feature induction in general, and how it applies to the segmenting task in particular. We emphasize that the process of feature selection is completely automatic once the set of candidate features has been selected.

The first segmenter was built on the **WSJ** corpus. The second was built on the Topic Detection and Tracking Corpus (Allan, to appear). The **TDT** corpus is a mixed collection of newswire articles and broadcast news transcripts adapted from text corpora previously released by the Linguistic Data Consortium; in particular, portions of data were extracted from the 1995 and 1996 Language Model text collections published by the LDC in support of the DARPA Continuous Speech Recognition project. The extracts used for **TDT** include material from the Reuters newswire service, and from the Primary Source Media CD-ROM publications of transcripts for news programs that appeared on the ABC, CNN, NPR and PBS broadcast networks; the size of the corpus is roughly 7.5 million words. The **TDT** corpus was constructed as part of a DARPA-sponsored project intended to study methods for detecting new topics or events and tracking their reappearance and evolution over time.

5.1 WSJ features

For the **WSJ** experiments, which we describe first, a total of 300,000 candidate features were available to the induction program. Though the trigram prior was trained on 38 million words, the trigger parameters were only trained on a one million word subset of this data.

Figure 3 shows the first several features that were selected by the feature induction algorithm. This shows the word or relevance score for each feature together with the value of e^{λ} for the feature after iterative scaling is complete for the final model. The $\mapsto\!\!\!\;$ $\rightarrow\!\!|$ figures indicate features that are active over a range of sentences. Thus, the symbol $|\!\leftarrow \overset{\text{MR.}}{0.07} \xrightarrow{+1}\!|$ represents the feature "Does the word MR. appear in the next sentence?" which, if true, contributes a factor of $e^{\lambda} = 0.07$ to the exponential model. Similarly, the $\bullet\!\!-$ $-\!\!\bullet$ figures represent features that are active over a range of words. For example, the figure $\bullet\!\!\longleftarrow \overset{\text{HE}}{0.08} \xrightarrow{+5}\!\!\bullet$ represents the question "Does the word HE appear in the next five words?" which is assigned a weight of 0.08. The symbol $\overset{-5}{|\!\leftarrow}$ SAID $\rightarrow\!|\!\leftarrow \neg \overset{\text{SAID}}{2.7} \xrightarrow{+5}\!|$ stands for a feature which asks "Does the word SAID appear in the previous five sentences but *not* in the next five sentences?" and contributes a factor of 2.7 if the answer is "yes."

Most of the features in Figure 3 make a good deal

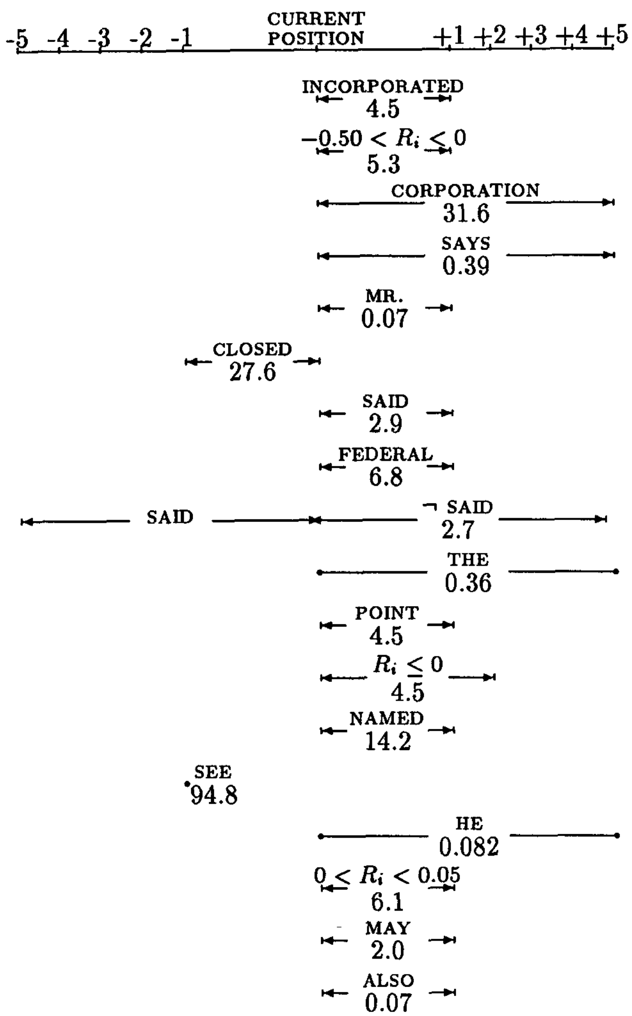

Figure 3: First several features induced for the **WSJ** corpus, presented in order of selection, with e^{λ} factors underneath. The length of the bars indicate active range of the feature, in words or sentences, relative to the current word.

of sense. The first selected feature, for instance, is a strong hint that an article may have just begun; articles in the **WSJ** corpus often concern companies, and typically the full name of the company (ACME INCORPORATED, for instance) only appears once at the beginning of the article, and subsequently in abbreviated form (ACME). Thus the appearance of INCORPORATED is a strong indication that a new article may have recently begun.

The second feature uses the relevance statistic[1]. If the trigger model performs poorly relative to the trigram model in the following sentence, this feature (roughly speaking) boosts the probability of a segment at this location by a factor of 5.3.

The fifth feature concerns the presence of the word MR. In hindsight, we can explain this feature by noting that in **WSJ** data the style is to introduce a person in the beginning of an article by writing, for example, WILE E. COYOTE, PRESIDENT OF ACME INCORPORATED... and then later in the article using a shortened form of the name: MR. COYOTE CITED A LACK OF EXPLOSIVES... Thus, the presence of MR. in the following sentence *discounts* the probability of an article boundary by 0.07, a factor of roughly 14.

The sixth feature—which boosts the probability of a segment if the previous sentence contained the word CLOSED—is another artifact of the **WSJ** domain, where articles often end with a statement of a company's performance on the stock market during the day of the story of interest. Similarly, the end of an article is often made with an invitation to visit a related story; hence a sentence beginning with SEE boosts the probability of a segment boundary by a large factor of 94.8. Since a personal pronoun typically requires an antecedent, the presence of HE among the first words is a sign that the current position is *not* near an article boundary, and this feature therefore has a discounting factor of 0.082.

5.2 TDT features

For the **TDT** experiments, a larger vocabulary and roughly 800,000 candidate features were available to the induction program. Though the trigram prior was trained on approximately 150 million words, the trigger parameters were trained on a 10 million word subset of the **BN** corpus.

Figure 4 reveals the first several features chosen by the induction algorithm. The letter C. appears among several of the first features. This is because of the fact that the data is tokenized for speech processing (whence C. N. N. rather than CNN), and the network identification information is often given at the end and beginning of news segments (C. N. N.'S RICHARD BLYSTONE IS HERE TO TELL US...). The first feature asks if the letter C. appears in the previous five words; if so, the probability of a segment boundary is boosted by a factor of 9.0. The personal pronoun I appears as the second feature; if this word appears in the following three sentences then the probability of a segment boundary is discounted.

The language model relevance statistic appears for the first time in the sixth feature. The word

[1]For the **WSJ** experiments, we modified the language model relevance statistic by adding a weight to each word position depending only on its trigram history w_{-2}, w_{-1}. Although our results require further analysis, we do not believe that this makes a significant difference in the features chosen by the algorithm, or the quantitative performance of the resulting segmenter.

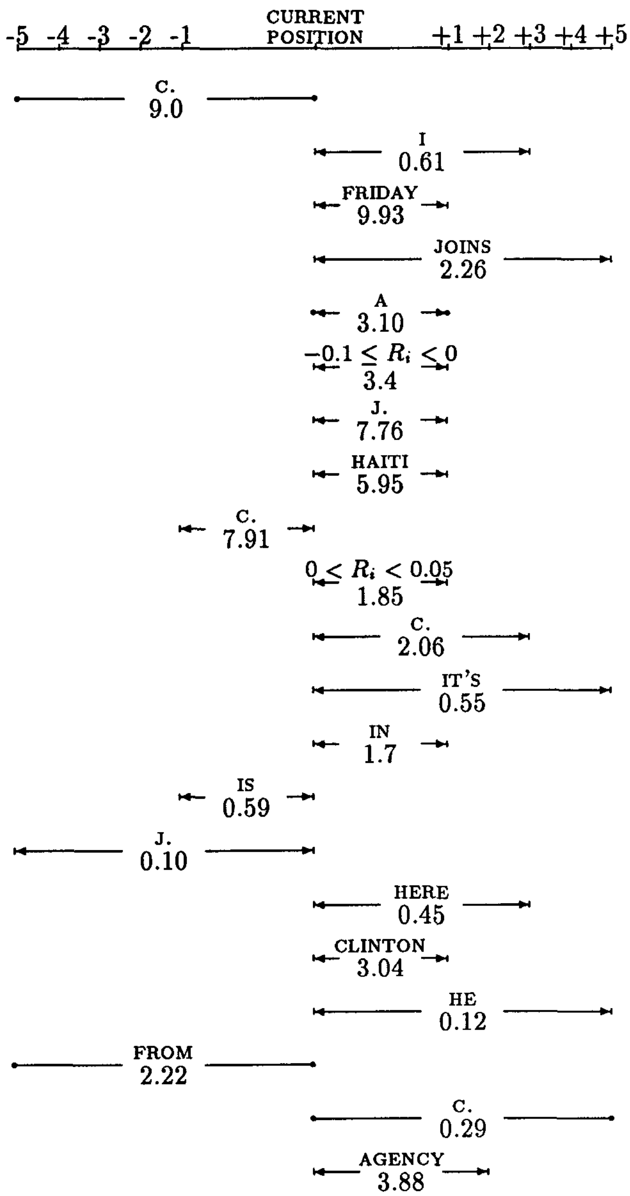

Figure 4: First several features induced for the TDT corpus, presented in order of selection, with e^λ factors underneath.

J. that the seventh and fifteenth features ask about can be attributed to the large number of news stories in the data having to do with the O.J. Simpson trial. The nineteenth feature asks if the term FROM appears among the previous five words, and if the answer is "yes" raises the probability of a segment boundary by more than a factor of two. This feature makes sense in light of the "sign-off" conventions that news reporters and anchors follow (THIS IS WOLF BLITZER REPORTING LIVE FROM THE WHITE HOUSE). Similar explanations of many of the remaining features are easy to guess from a perusal of Figure 4.

6 A Probabilistic Error Metric

Precision and recall statistics are commonly used in natural language processing and information retrieval to assess the quality of algorithms. For the segmentation task they might be used to gauge how frequently boundaries actually occur when they are hypothesized and vice versa. Although they have snuck into the literature in this disguise, we believe they are unwelcome guests.

A useful error metric should somehow correlate with the utility of the instrumented procedure in a real application. In almost any conceivable application, a segmenting tool that consistently comes close—off by a sentence, say—is preferable to one that places boundaries willy-nilly. Yet an algorithm that places a boundary a sentence away from the actual boundary every time actually receives *worse* precision and recall scores than an algorithm that hypothesizes a boundary at every position. It is natural to expect that in a segmenter, close should count for something.

A useful metric should also be robust with respect to the scale (words, sentences, paragraphs, for instance) at which boundaries are determined. However, precision and recall are scale-dependent quantities. (Reynar, 1994) uses an error window that redefines "correct" to mean hypothesized within some constant window of units away from a reference boundary, but this approach still suffers from overdiscretizing error, drawing all-or-nothing lines insensitive to gradations of correctness.

Finally, for many purposes it is useful to have a metric that is a single number. A commonly cited flaw of the precision/recall figures is their complementary nature: hypothesizing more boundaries raises precision at the expense of recall, allowing an algorithm designer to tweak parameters to trade precision for recall. One proposed work-around is to employ dynamic time warping to come up with an explicit alignment between the segments proposed by the algorithm and the reference segments, and then to combine insertion, deletion, and substitution errors into an overall penalty. This error metric, in common use in speech recognition, can be achieved by a similar Viterbi search. A string edit distance such as this is useful and reasonable for applications like speech or spelling correction partly because it measures how much work a user would have to do to correct the output of the machine. For many of the applications we envision for segmentation, however, the user will not correct the output but will rather browse the returned text to extract information.

Our proposed metric satisfies the listed desiderata. It formalizes in a probabilistic manner the effect of document co-occurrence on goodness, in which it is deemed desirable for related units of information to appear in the same document and unrelated units to appear in separate documents.

6.1 The new metric

Segmentation, whether at the word or sentence level, is about identifying boundaries between successive units of information in a text corpus. Two such units are either related or unrelated by the intent of the document author. A natural way to reason about developing a segmentation algorithm is therefore to optimize the likelihood that two such units are correctly labeled as being related or being unrelated. Our error metric P_μ is simply the *probability that two sentences drawn randomly from the corpus are correctly identified as belonging to the same document or not belonging to the same document.* More formally, given two segmentations **ref** and **hyp** for a corpus n sentences long,

$$P_\mu(\texttt{ref}, \texttt{hyp}) = \sum_{1 \le i \le j \le n} D_\mu(i,j)\, \delta_{\texttt{ref}}(i,j) \overline{\oplus}\, \delta_{\texttt{hyp}}(i,j)$$

Here $\delta_{\texttt{ref}}$ is an indicator function which is 1 if the two corpus indices specified by its parameters belong in the same document, and 0 otherwise; similarly, $\delta_{\texttt{hyp}}$ is 1 if the two indices are hypothesized to belong in the same document, and 0 otherwise. The $\overline{\oplus}$ operator is the XNOR function ("both or neither") on its two operands. The function D_μ is a *distance probability distribution* over the set of possible distances between sentences chosen randomly from the corpus, and will in general depend on certain parameters μ such as the average spacing between sentences. If D_μ is uniform over the length of the text, then the metric represents the probability that any two sentences drawn from the corpus are correctly identified as being in the same document or not.

Consider the implications of this for information retrieval. Suppose there is precisely one sentence in a target corpus that satisfies our information demands. For some applications it may be sufficient for the system to return only that sentence, but in general we desire that it return as many sentences directly related to the target sentence as possible, without returning too many unrelated sentences. If we assume "related" to mean "contained in the same document", then our error metric judges algorithms based on how often this happens.

In practice letting D_μ be the uniform distribution is unreasonable, since for large corpora most randomly drawn pairs of sentences are in different documents and are correctly identified as such by even the most naive algorithms. We instead adopt a distribution that focuses on small distances. In particular, we choose D_μ to be an exponential distribution with mean $1/\mu$, a parameter that we fix at the approximate mean document length for the domain:

$$D_\mu(i,j) = \gamma_\mu\, e^{-\mu|i-j|}\,.$$

In the above, γ_μ is a normalization chosen so that D_μ is a probability distribution over the range of distances it can accept.

There are several sanity checks that validate the use of our metric. The measure is a probability and therefore a real number between 0 and 1. We expect 1 to represent perfection; indeed, an algorithm scores 1 with respect to some data if and only if it predicts its segmentation exactly. It captures the notion of nearness in a principled way, gently penalizing algorithms that hypothesize boundaries that aren't quite right, and scaling down with the algorithm's degradation. Furthermore, it is not possible to "cheat" and obtain a high score with this metric: spurious behavior such as never hypothesizing boundaries and hypothesizing nothing but boundaries are penalized. We refer to Section 7 for sample results on how these trivial algorithms score.

One weakness of the metric as we have presented it here is that there is no principled way of specifying the distance distribution D_μ. We plan to give a more detailed analysis of this problem and present a method for choosing the parameters μ in a future paper.

7 Experimental Results

7.1 Quantitative results

After feature induction was carried out (as described in Section 5), a simple decision procedure was used for actually placing boundaries: a segment boundary was placed at each position for which the model probability was above a fixed threshold α, with boundaries required to be separated by a minimum number of sentences ϵ. The threshold and minimum separation were determined on heldout data in order to maximize the probability P_μ, and turned out to be $\alpha = 0.20$ and $\epsilon = 2$ for the **WSJ** model, and $\alpha = 0.14$ and $\epsilon = 5$ for the **TDT** models.

The quantiative results for the **WSJ** and **TDT** models are collected in Tables 5 and 6 respectively. For the **WSJ** model, the probabilistic metric P_μ was 0.83 when evaluated on 325K words of test data, and the precision and recall for *exact* matches of boundaries were 56% and 54%, for an F-measure of 55. As a simple baseline we compared this performance to that obtained by four simple default methods for assigning boundaries: choosing boundaries randomly, assigning every possible boundary,

model	*reference segments*	*hypoth. segments*	P_μ	*precision*	*recall*	*F-measure*
feature induction	757	792	83%	56%	54%	55
random	757	757	67%	17%	16%	17
all	757	13540	53%	5%	100%	10
none	757	0	52%	0%	0%	—
even	757	753	68%	17%	17%	17

Table 5: Quantitative results for **WSJ** segmentation. The **WSJ** model was trained on 325K words of data, and tested on a similarly sized portion of unseen text. The top 70 features were selected. The mean segment length in the training and test data was $1/\mu = 18$ sentences. As a basis of comparison, the figures for several baseline models are given. The figures in the **random** row were calculated by randomly generating a number of segments equal to the number appearing in the test data. The **all** and **none** rows include the figures for models which hypothesize all possible segment boundaries and no boundaries, respectively. The **even** row shows the results of simply hypothesizing a segment boundary every 18 sentences.

model	*reference segments*	*hypoth. segments*	P_μ	*precision*	*recall*	*F-measure*
feature induction (Model B)	9984	9543	88%	60%	57%	58
feature induction (Model A)	9984	9449	82%	47%	45%	46
random	9984	9984	68%	12%	12%	12
all	9984	219,099	59%	5%	100%	9
none	9984	0	43%	0%	0%	—
even	9984	9980	74%	14%	12%	13

Table 6: Quantitative results for **TDT** segmentation. The **TDT** models were trained on 2M words and tested on 4.3M words of previously unseen **TDT** data. Model A was trained on 2M words of broadcast news data from 1992–1993, not included in **TDT** corpus, and the top 100 features were selected. Model B was trained on the first 2M words of TDT corpus which is made up of a mix of CNN transcripts and Reuters newswire, and again the top 100 features were selected. The mean document length was $1/\mu = 25$ sentences.

assigning no boundaries, and deterministically placing a segment boundary every $1/\mu$ sentences. It is instructive to compare the values of P_μ with precision and recall for these default algorithms in order to obtain some intuition for the new error metric.

Two separate models were built to segment the **TDT** corpus. The first, which we shall refer to simply as Model A, was trained using two million words from the **BN** corpus from the 1992-1993 time period. This data contains CNN transcripts, but no Reuters newswire data. Model B was trained on the first two million words of the **TDT** corpus. Both models were tested on the last 4.3 million words of the **TDT** corpus. We expect Model A to be inferior to Model B for two reasons: the lack of Reuters data in it's training set and the difference of between one and two years in the dates of the stories in the training and test sets. The difference is quantifiied in Table 6, which shows that $P_\mu = 0.82$ for Model A while $P_\mu = 0.88$ for Model B.

7.2 Qualitative results

We now present graphical examples of the segmentation algorithm at work on previously unseen test data. Figure 7 shows the performance of the **WSJ** segmenter on a typical collection of test data, in blocks of 300 contiguous sentences. In these figures the reference segmentation is shown *below* the horizontal line as a vertical line at the position between sentences where the article boundary occurred. The decision made by the automatic segmenter is shown as a verticle line *above* the horzontal line at the appropriate position. The fluctuating curve is the probability assigned by the exponential model con-

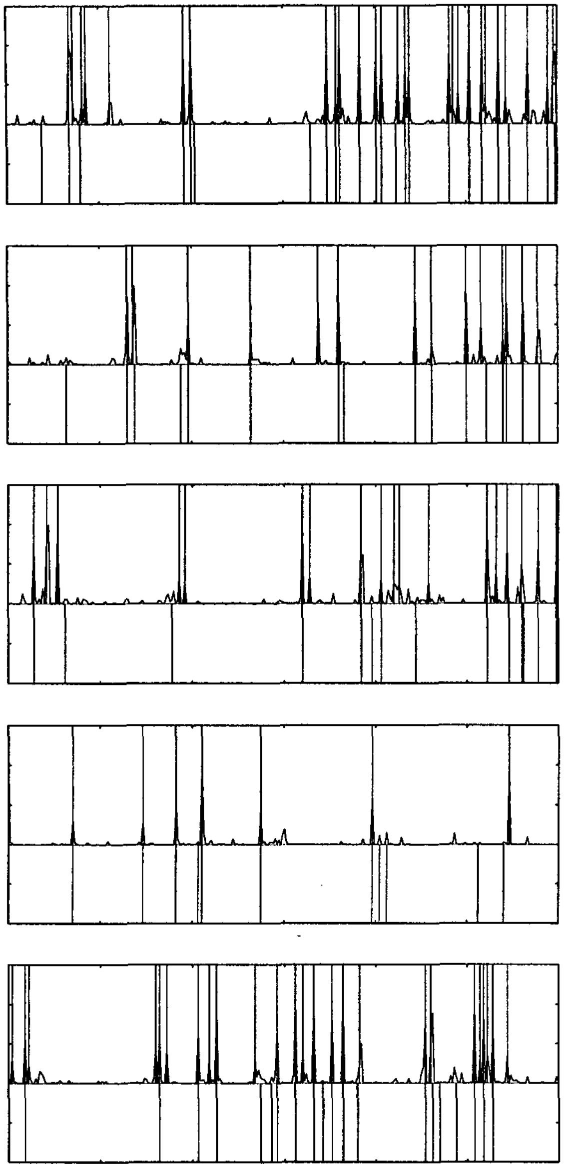

Figure 7: Typical segmentations of **WSJ** test data. The lower verticle lines indicate reference segmentations ("truth"). The upper verticle lines are boundaries placed by the algorithm. The fluctuating curve is the probability of a segment boundary according to the exponential model after 70 features were induced.

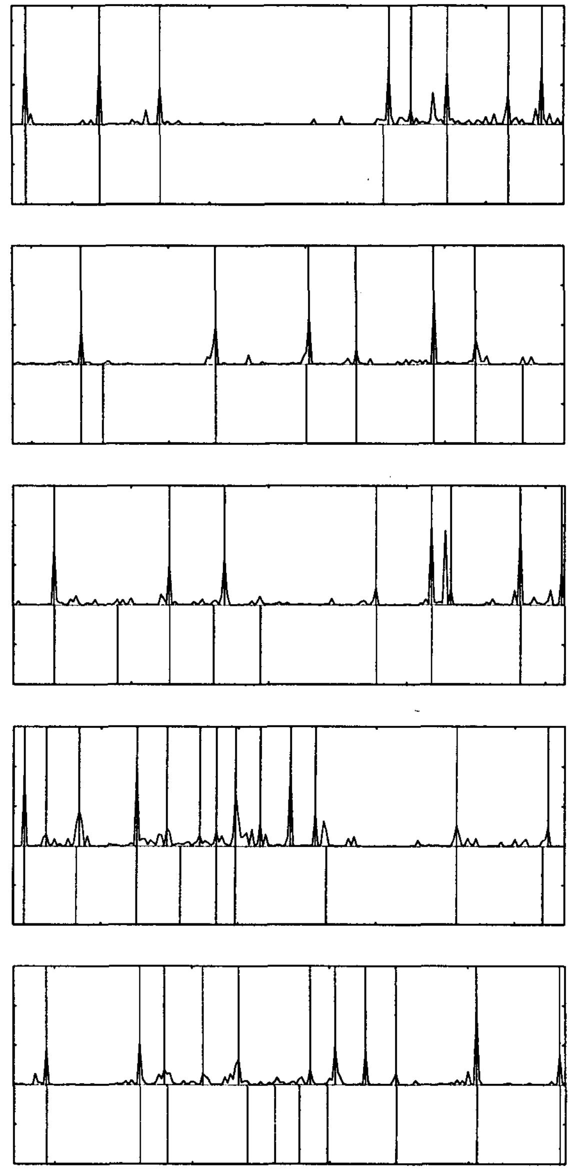

Figure 8: Randomly chosen segmentations of **TDT** test data, in 200 sentence blocks, using Model B.

structed using feature induction. Notice that in this domain many of the segments are quite short, adding special difficulties for the segmentation problem. Figure 8 shows the performance of the **TDT** segmenter (Model B) on five randomly chosen blocks of 200 sentences from the **TDT** test data.

We hasten to add that these results were obtained with no smoothing or pruning of any kind, and with no more than 100 features induced from the candidate set of several hundred thousand. Unlike many other machine learning methods, feature induction for exponential models is quite robust to overfitting since the features act in concert to assign probability to events rather than splitting the event space and assigning probability using relative counts. We expect that significantly better results can be obtained by simply training on much more data, and by allowing a more sophisticated set of features.

8 Conclusions

We have presented and evaluated a new statistical model for segmenting unpartitioned text into coherent fragments. We leverage long- and short-range language models, as well as automatic feature induction techniques, in the design of this model. In this work we rely exclusively on simple lexical features, including a topicality measure called *relevance* and a number of vocabulary features that are induced from a large space of candidate features.

We have proposed a new probabilistically motivated error metric for the assessment of segmentation algorithms. Qualitative assessment as well as the evaluation of our algorithm with this new metric demonstrates its effectiveness in two very different domains, *Wall Street Journal* articles and broadcast news transcripts.

Our immediate application of this model will be to the video-on-demand application called *Informedia* (Christel et al., 1995). We intend to mix simple audio and video features such as statistics from pauses, black frames, and color histograms with our lexical features in order to segment news broadcasts into component stories. Other applications that we have not explored in this paper include automatic inference of subtopic structure for information retrieval, document summarization, and improved language modeling.

Acknowledgements

We thank Michael Witbrock and Alex Hauptmann for discussions on the segmentation problem within the context of the *Informedia* project. We also thank Jaime Carbonell and Yiming Yang for their input, and for encouraging us to build segmentation models on the **TDT** corpus. Participants in the **TDT** pilot study, including James Allan, Rich Schwartz, Jon Yamron, and especially George Doddington, provided invaluable feedback on the probabilistic evaluation metric.

References

Allan, J. To appear. Topic Detection and Tracking Corpus, Linguistic Data Consortium, University of Pennsylvania.

Beeferman, D., A. Berger, and J. Lafferty. 1997. A model of lexical attraction and repulsion. In Proceedings of the 35th Annual Meeting of the ACL, Madrid, Spain.

Berger, A., S. Della Pietra, and V. Della Pietra. 1996. A maximum entropy approach to natural language processing. *Computational Linguistics*, 22(1):39–71.

Christel, M., T. Kanade, M. Mauldin, R. Reddy, M. Sirbu, S. Stevens, and H. Wactlar. 1995. Informedia digital video library. *Communications of the ACM*, 38(4):57–58.

Della Pietra, S., V. Della Pietra, and J. Lafferty. 1997. Inducing features of random fields. *IEEE Trans. on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 19(4):380–393, April.

Hearst, M.A. 1994. Multi-paragraph segmentation of expository text. In Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Meeting of the ACL, Las Cruces, NM.

Jelinek, F., B. Merialdo, S. Roukos, and M. Strauss. 1991. A dynamic language model for speech recognition. In *Proceedings of the DARPA Speech and Natural Language Workshop*, pp. 293–295, February.

Katz, S. 1987. Estimation of probabilities from sparse data for the langauge model component of a speech recognizer. *IEEE Transactions on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing*, ASSP-35(3):400–401, March.

Kozima, H. 1993. Text segmentation based on similarity between words. in Proceedings of the 31st Annual Meeting of the ACL, Columbus, OH, pp. 286–288.

Kozima, H. and T. Furugori. 1994. Segmenting narrative text into coherent scenes. *Literary and Linguistic Computing*, 9:13–19.

Kuhn, R. and R. de Mori. 1990. A cache-based natural language model for speech recognition. *IEEE Trans. on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 12:570–583.

Lau, R., R. Rosenfeld, and S. Roukos. 1993. Adaptive language modeling using the maximum entropy principle. In *Proceedings of the ARPA Human Language Technology Workshop*, pages 108–113. Morgan Kaufman Publishers.

Litman, D. J. and R. J. Passonneau. 1995. Combining multiple knowledge sources for discourse segmentation. In Proceedings of the 33rd Annual Meeting of the ACL, Cambridge, MA.

Neal, R. 1992. Connectionist learning of belief networks. *Artificial Intelligence*, 56:71–113.

Reynar, J. C. 1994. In Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Meeting of the ACL, student session, Las Cruces, NM.

Youmans, G. 1991. A new tool for discourse analysis: The vocabulary-management profile. *Language*, 67:763–789.