

# Topic Modeling for Scientific Documents

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## Abstract

Topic modeling is a statistical modeling technique used to discover abstract topics that occur in a collection of documents. Topic modeling can be applied to scientific documents for data discovery and navigation, among others. In this paper, we discuss the predominant technique for topic modeling, the Latent Dirichlet Allocation, and its extensions. We show how to train these models, by providing a walk-through with a dataset of scientific documents. We discuss the differences between the topic models, and elaborate on their strengths and shortcomings.

## 1 Introduction

In this information age, the availability of knowledge is insufficiently met with the tools to navigate it. Archives such as Arxiv see an exponential growth in the number of documents being hosted. Developing new tools for browsing, and searching these documents is a technological challenge that calls for research in statistical modeling.

Rather than relying on keyword matching, tools like Semantic Scholar use machine learning to process scientific documents and discover meaningful structure, empowering researchers to discover papers more relevant to their work. One such statistical modeling technique is topic modeling.

Topic modeling attempts to discover abstract topics within documents. Topic models capture the intuition that if a document is of a particular topic, then words from the topic should appear more frequently.

A topic model trained on a corpora of scientific documents could learn topics such as “Neural Networks”, “Biology” and “Medicine”. Topics attribute a high probability to words that relate to the topic. For example, a “Neural Networks” topic would give attribute a high probability to “classifiers”, and a low probability to “bacteria”. The quotations around the topics are to make explicit that the labels are human interpretations of what these topics may be. Topic modeling is an unsupervised problem, and is often trained on unlabeled data. Automatic labeling of these topics is an active area of research [18, 16].

We can also view these abstract topics as a form of clustering. Researchers are better able to navigate the large corpora of scientific knowledge, by looking at documents that have similar topic proportions<sup>1</sup>.

### Document

In computer aided decision (CAD) systems, computer algorithms are used to help a **physician** in **diagnosing** a patient. One of the most common tasks performed by a CAD system is the **classification** task where a label is assigned to a query case (i.e., a **patient**) based on a certain number of features (i.e. **clinical findings**). The label determines the query's membership in one of predefined classes representing possible **diagnoses**. CAD systems have been investigated and applied for the **diagnosis** of various **diseases**, especially for **cancer**. Some comprehensive reviews on the topic can be found in (Kawamoto et al., 2005; Sampat et al., 2005; Lisboa and Taktak, 2006). CAD systems rely on a wide range of **classifiers**, such as traditional **statistical** and **Bayesian classifiers** (Duda et al., 2000), case-base reasoning **classifiers** (Aha et al., 1991), decision trees (Mitchell, 1997), and **neural networks** (Zhang, 2000). In particular, **neural network classifiers** are a very popular choice for **medical** decision making and they have shown to be very effective in the **clinical** domain (Lisboa, 2002; Lisboa and Taktak, 2006).

Mazumski, M. A., Habes, P. A., Zúñiga, J. M., Lo, J. Y., Baker, J. A., & Tourassis, G. D. (2008). Training Neural Network Classifiers for Medical Decision Making: The Effects of Imbalanced Datasets on Classification Performance. *Neural Networks - The Official Journal of the International Neural Network Society*, 21(2-3), 427–436. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neunet.2007.12.031>

### Topics

medical: 0.0132  
physician: 0.0083  
diagnosis: 0.0074  
...

networks: 0.014  
classifiers: 0.0086  
neural: 0.0084  
...



Figure 1: According to the trained topic model, topics like “Medicine” and “Neural Networks” generate the colored words of the document

Suppose we train a topic model on a corpora of scientific documents. The trained model would discover that the document in Figure 1 relates to “Medicine” and “Neural Networks”, because of the frequent appearance of highly probable words in these topics.

The earliest known technique for topic modeling is Latent Semantic Indexing (LSI) [8]. LSI uses Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) to determine relationships between words in unstructured text. The first probabilistic approach, Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis (pLSA), was proposed in 1999 [14]. It was only in 2003 when Blei et al. introduced Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), which remains the predominant technique for topic modeling to date.

Most of the state-of-the-art topic models are generative models. In generative models, latent variables govern the generative process of a document. A document

<sup>1</sup>A browsable 100-topic model estimated from the Journal *Science* can be explored at <http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~lemur/science/topics.html>

is produced from a distribution of topics, and the topics are distributions over the vocabulary of the corpora.

In this paper, we survey the landscape of probabilistic topic models. LDA and two of its variants are discussed in detail. We train these models on a dataset of scientific documents, and present our results.

## 2 LDA

Latent Dirichlet Allocation is widely considered to be the simplest topic model. LDA models each document as a mixture of  $K$  topics, where a topic  $\beta_k$  is a probability distribution over a fixed vocabulary of terms. LDA is a directed graphical model, and can be represented in plate notation like in Figure 4.

At the risk of being pedantic, we explain the components of the graphical model.  $\eta$  is the topic hyperparameter, which produces a topic distribution  $\beta_k$  of the Dirichlet family. There are a total of  $K$  topics.  $\alpha$  is a hyperparameter that produces the per-document topic proportions  $\theta_d$ . These Dirichlet distributions are of dimension  $K - 1$ , because there are a total of  $K$  topics. There are  $D$  such topic proportions, where  $D$  is the total number of documents.  $Z_{d,n}$  is the per-word topic assignment, drawn from the particular  $\theta_d$ . Finally,  $W_{d,n}$  is the  $n$ th word in the  $d$ th document, an observed variable. It is simple to see that  $P(W_{d,n}|Z_{d,n}, \beta_k) = \beta_{z_{d,n}, w_{d,n}}$ .

A high  $\alpha$  value encodes the belief that documents contain a mixture of many topics, rather than being largely represented by a few topics. Similarly, a high  $\eta$  value encodes the belief that topics has high probability for a large number of words in the vocabulary.

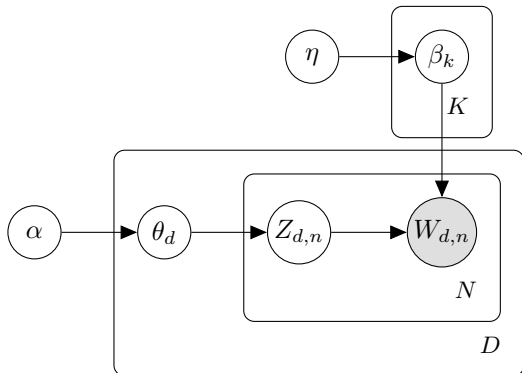


Figure 2: Plate notation for LDA.

The model is fully specified by its joint distribution  $\mathcal{J}$  of all the latent and observed variables.

$$\mathcal{J} = \left( \sum_{k=1}^K P(\beta_k|\eta) \right) \left( \sum_{d=1}^D P(\theta_d|\alpha) \right) \left( \sum_{n=1}^N \theta_{d,Z_{d,n}} \beta_{Z_{d,n}, W_{d,n}} \right) \quad (1)$$

The generative process of a document is as follows:

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### Algorithm 1 Generative Process of LDA

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- 1: **for** each document  $d$  in  $D$  **do**
  - 2:     Draw topic distribution  $\theta_d \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha)$
  - 3:     **for** each word  $n_d$  in  $N_d$  **do**
  - 4:         Sample topic  $z_{d,n} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\theta)$
  - 5:         Sample word  $w_{d,n} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\beta_{z_{d,n}})$
- 

If we fix the topic distributions  $\beta_{1:K}$ , we can compute the per-document posterior  $\theta$  given the document.

$$P(\theta|w_{1:n}, \alpha, \beta_{1:K}) = \frac{P(\theta|\alpha) \prod_{n=1}^N P(z_n|\theta) P(w_n|z_n, \beta_{1:K})}{\int_{\theta} P(\theta|\alpha) \prod_{n=1}^N \sum_{z=1}^K P(z_n|\theta) P(w_n|z_n, \beta_{1:K})} \quad (2)$$

The denominator is intractable to compute, due to the coupling between  $\theta$  and  $\beta$  under the multinomial assumption. [4]. Hence, we rely on techniques for approximate inference of the posterior. We discuss these techniques in section 6.

Why does LDA work? The Dirichlet distribution encourages sparsity, encoding the belief that the document-topic distribution has few topics per document, and the topic-word distribution has few words per topic. These two beliefs work against each other, and LDA discovers this sparsity balance, which gives rise to the structure of the textual data.

### 2.1 Statistical Assumptions

In Bayesian statistics, we cannot make inference without statistical assumptions. LDA makes several statistical assumptions, which we discuss below.

First, LDA models documents as “bag-of-words”. In a “bag-of-words” model, words within the document are exchangeable [4]. I think this is a reasonable assumption to make, if the task is to discover themes within the document.

Second, LDA assumes that the order of documents does not matter. Exchangeability of both words and documents allows LDA to model the joint distribution as a mixture model. I believe this assumption to be invalid in the domain of scientific documents. The meaning of keyphrases used in scientific literature change over time. For example, the landscape of research neural networks is vastly different now, as compared to the 1990s, and LDA will fail to capture these differences. This is the motivation of the Dynamic Topic Model (DTM), discussed in section 4.

Third, the use of the Dirichlet distribution also encodes statistical assumptions about the correlation between topics. Under the Dirichlet, components of  $\theta_d$  are nearly independent. This leads to the modeling assumption that the presence of one topic is not correlated with the presence of another [2]. As explained by Blei and Lafferty, this assumption is strong and unrealistic in the domain of scientific documents. An article about genetics is also highly likely to be about health and

disease, and unlikely to be about astronomy. This is the motivation of the Correlated Topic Model (CTM), which we discuss next.

### 3 Correlated Topic Modeling

The Correlated Topic Model (CTM) addresses the model assumption that topic proportions are not correlated.

Instead of drawing from a Dirichlet distribution, the CTM uses a logistic normal distribution. CTM draws a real valued random vector from a multivariate Gaussian, and maps it to the simplex to obtain a multinomial parameter [2]. The  $K \times K$  covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  models correlations between the topics. This tweak is evident in the generative process shown in Algorithm 2, contrasting it with Algorithm 1.

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#### Algorithm 2 Generative Process of CTM

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- 1: **for** each document  $d$  in  $D$  **do**
  - 2:   Draw topic distribution  $\beta_d \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$
  - 3:   **for** each word  $n_d$  in  $N_d$  **do**
  - 4:     Sample topic  $z_{d,n} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\pi(\beta_d))$
  - 5:     Sample word  $w_{d,n} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\beta_{z_{d,n}})$
- 

$\pi$  maps the multinomial parameters to the mean parameters,  $\pi(x) = \frac{e^x}{\sum_i e^{x_i}}$

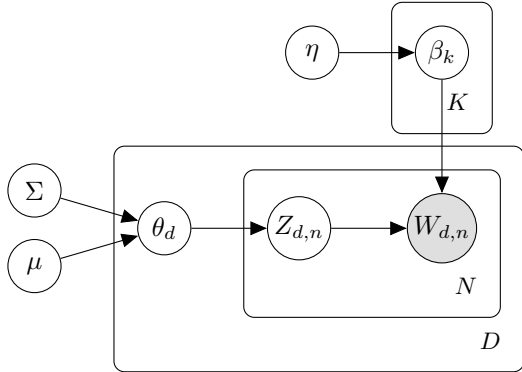


Figure 3: Plate notation for CTM.

The Multinomial and Gaussian distributions are not conjugate distributions. This causes difficulty in inference via Gibbs sampling, and variational inference is used instead.

### 4 Dynamic Topic Modeling

Dynamic Topic Modeling (DTM) was proposed to remove the assumption that documents are *exchangeable*. [3]

The order of documents is important for scientific documents, since both the content, and the meaning of words evolve over time.

In DTM, data is divided by discrete time slices. The topics associated with time slice  $t$  evolve from the time

slice  $t - 1$ . Because the Dirichlet distribution is not amenable to sequential modeling, we use the Gaussian distribution to model the sequence of random variables.

The generative process for time slice  $t$  is as follows:

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#### Algorithm 3 Generative Process of DTM

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- 1: Draw topic distribution  $\beta_t | \beta_{t-1} \sim N(\beta_{t-1}, \sigma^2 I)$
  - 2: Draw  $\alpha_t | \alpha_{t-1} \sim N(\alpha_{t-1}, \delta^2 I)$
  - 3: **for** each document  $w$  **do**
  - 4:   Draw  $\eta_{w,t} \sim N(\alpha_t, a^2 I)$
  - 5:   **for** each word at position  $n$  **do**
  - 6:     Sample topic  $z_{t,n} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\pi(\eta_{w,t}))$
  - 7:     Sample word  $w_{t,d,n} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\beta_{t,z,n})$
- 

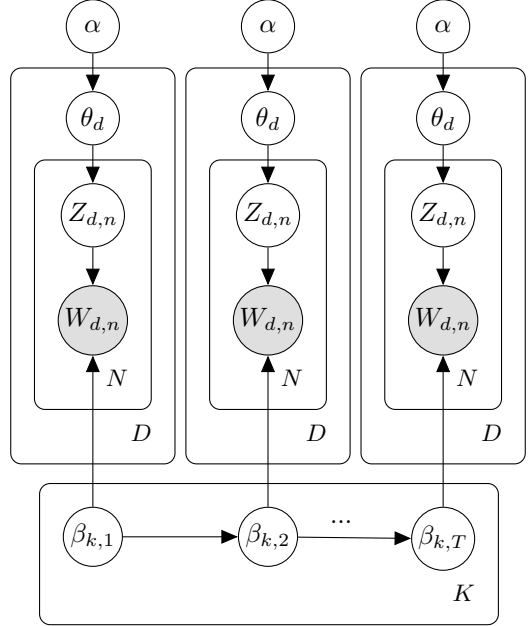


Figure 4: Plate notation for DTM.

Similar to CTM, the use of the logistic normal distribution causes variational inference to be the preferred approximate inference technique.

Further extensions of this approach include the continuous Dynamic Topic Models (cDTM), which removes the discretization of the time slices [22]. This model has been used to predict the timestamp of documents.

Both DTM and CTM show that the simplicity of LDA makes it promising as a base model that can be adapted to the problem domain. CTM and DTM both relax assumptions that should lead to improvements in the topic distributions generated. The evaluation of topic models is discussed in section 8.

### 5 Bayesian Non-parametric Models

One important component we have yet to discuss is the choice of  $K$ , the number of topics used to model the

corpora. Notice that the value of  $K$  affects model complexity. LDA, CTM and DTM are Bayesian parametric models: documents are modeled as mixtures of  $K$  distributions. The choice of  $K$  is therefore also an important parameter that requires tuning. This is a pitfall of parametric models. A misfit between the complexity of the model and the amount and quality of data available can lead to severe underfitting or overfitting [20].

Bayesian non-parametric models (BNPs) provide an elegant solution to this issue. The non-parametric approach allows the model to grow in complexity as more data is observed. BNP solves the problem of choosing the number of topics by assuming that the number of topics are infinite, but favours the assignment of documents to a small number of topics [9]. We refer you to the tutorial in [9] for a full treatment.

These non-parametric models have also been extended to hierarchies of topics [5]. The granularity of topics can be helpful in some tasks, such as trend detection.

Bayesian non-parametric models has seen some success in recommendation systems [10], a popular modeling technique in production systems because of its ability to adapt with growing data size.

## 6 Inference Methods

Approximating intractable probability densities is a well-studied problem in modern statistics. This problem arises often in Bayesian statistics, where computing posterior probability densities in requires inference over latent variables. The two main families of inference methods are MCMC sampling and Variational Inference.

### 6.1 MCMC Sampling

Historically, Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling has been the dominant technique for approximating posterior densities. MCMC methods shine when attempting to sample from multi-dimensional distributions, where traditional methods like rejection sampling suffer greatly from the curse of dimensionality. In MCMC, we construct an ergodic Markov chain on the latent variable  $z$ , whose stationary distribution is the posterior  $P(z|x)$ . Samples can be treated as drawn from the stationary distribution, and used to approximate the posterior empirically.

The most notable MCMC methods in topic modeling are the Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithms, and Gibbs samplers.

In Gibbs sampling, the space of the Markov Chain is the space of the configurations of the hidden variables. The next state is reached by sequentially sampling all variables from the distribution, conditioned on all the current sampled values. After a “burn-in” period, the samples would be drawn from the posterior distribution.

A full treatment of Gibbs Sampling applied to LDA can be found in [12]. Gibbs sampling is easy to use,

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### Algorithm 4 Gibbs Sampling

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1:  $x^0 \leftarrow q(x)$ 
2: for  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  do
3:   for  $d = 1, 2, 3, \dots, D$  do
4:      $x_d^i \sim P(X_1 = x_1 | X_k = x_k^{i-1} \text{ for } k = \{1..n \setminus d\})$ 

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because it has no parameters. For some topic models, collapsed Gibbs sampling may be applied. Griffiths and Steyvers exploits sparsity to decompose the collapsed sampler: instead of explicitly representing  $\beta$  and  $\theta$  as parameters to be estimated, they are integrated out. The posterior distribution over the assignment of words to topics  $P(z|w)$  is considered instead, and used to estimate  $\beta$  and  $\theta$  [11]. This reduces sampling complexity from  $O(K)$  to  $O(k_d + k_w)$ , where  $k_d$  and  $k_w$  are the number of topics occurring for a particular document and word respectively.

Gibbs sampling suffers from several drawbacks. First, it is possible that samples drawn are very correlated, and it might take a long time to reach its stationary state (long “burn-in” period). Second, the conditional distributions may not have a nice form if the distributions were not conjugates. The Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm is the generalisation of the Gibbs sampler that addresses these issues.

The MH algorithm utilises a function  $\hat{\pi}(x)$  that is proportional to the target probability density  $\pi(x)$ . It then generates samples from a *proposal* or *candidate kernel*  $q(x, y)$  [7].

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### Algorithm 5 Metropolis-Hastings Sampling

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1: Given  $X^{(t)=x^{(t)}}$ 
2: Generate  $Y_t \sim q(y|x^{(t)})$ 
3: Take:

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$$X^{(t)} = \begin{cases} Y_t & \text{with probability } \rho(x^{(t)}, Y_t) \\ x^{(t)} & \text{with probability } 1 - \rho(x^{(t)}, Y_t) \end{cases}$$

Where:

$$\rho(x, y) = \min \left\{ \frac{\pi(x) q(x|y)}{\hat{\pi}(x) q(y|x)}, 1 \right\}$$


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The generic nature of the MH algorithm allows it to be applied to many different topic models, including Bayesian non-parametric models. Li et al. observed that model parameters changed slowly during sampling, and exploits this to produce an efficient MH sampling algorithm that could be applied to many topic models [17].

### 6.2 Variational Inference

In variational inference, the posterior distribution over a set of unobserved variables  $p(Z|H)$  is approximated by a distribution  $q(Z)$ , selected to be in a family that

can approximately model the true posterior. Inference is performed by minimizing the distance between  $p(Z|H)$  and  $q(Z)$ . One common metric used is the KL-divergence. Here, we discuss variational inference for LDA.

Mean field variational inference (MFVI) breaks the coupling between  $\theta$  and  $z$  by introducing free variational parameters  $\gamma$  over  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  over  $z$  and dropping the edges between them. This results in an approximate posterior  $q(\theta, z|\gamma, \phi) = q_\gamma(\theta) \prod_n q_\phi(z_n)$ . This is illustrated in the graphical model in Figure 5.

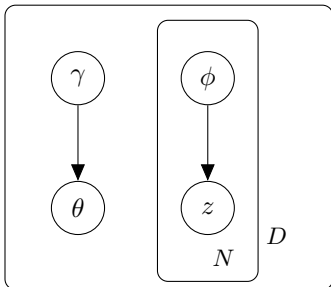


Figure 5: Graphical model for the approximate posterior for variational inference.

To best approximate the true posterior, we frame it as an optimization problem, minimizing  $L$  where:

$$L(\gamma, \phi|\alpha, \beta) = D_{KL} [q(\theta, z|\gamma, \phi)||p(\theta, z|\alpha, \beta)] - \log p(w|\alpha, \beta) \quad (3)$$

This optimization has closed form coordinate descent equations for LDA, because the Dirichlet is conjugate to the Multinomial distribution. This computational convenience comes at the expense of robustness, making it difficult to apply to other more complicated topic models [4].

### 6.3 Choosing an Inference Method

How do we know which technique to use to approximate the posterior density? MCMC methods are computationally more intensive, but provide samples that are approximately exact from the target posterior density. In contrast, VI methods view the problem as an optimization problem, which allows it to utilize efficient learning algorithms such as stochastic optimization. This is much quicker to compute, and is suited for larger datasets.

There are many different MCMC sampling methods. Gibbs sampling requires conjugacy of the prior and posterior distributions. When this is not possible (in DTM for example), VI methods can perform better than other sampling methods in the MCMC family.

However, a closer look at the different inference approximation algorithms also shows that the performance differences can be explained away by setting certain smoothing hyperparameters [1].

## 7 Example Topic Model Training

To see topic modeling in action, we train them on a dataset of scientific papers. This dataset was obtained from Kaggle, and contains all papers from the Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS) conference from 1987 to 2016, along with the paper meta-data<sup>2</sup>. Jupyter notebooks for data exploration and model training can be found here<sup>3</sup>.

We trained LDA and DTM, using implementations readily available within Gensim, a popular topic modeling library.

To clean the raw text, we lemmatize, remove stop words, and keep only noun phrases. After removing tokens that rarely occur, or occur too often to be meaningful, the corpus of 7241 documents produced a dictionary of 54254 unique tokens. We set  $K = 30$  topics.

We trained LDA for 200 passes, which took 44 minutes, and the full results are shown in the appendix (Figure 8).

1	mixture, covariance, likelihood, component, density, estimation
2	policy, action, reward, game, agent, regret
3	theorem, bound, cluster, lemma, complexity, proof

Figure 6: Short selection of LDA topic results.

Figure 6 shows a selection of the topics generated by LDA. Each row is a learned abstract topic, and the words are presented in order of decreasing probability. We see that LDA is able to learn several meaningful topics: topic 1 is likely to be of high proportion in documents about topic modeling, and similarly topic 2 in documents about reinforcement learning, and topic 3 in documents about algorithmic complexity.

To train DTM, we discretized the corpus into time slices that span a year. Unlike LDA, DTM was trained until convergence. This renders any quantitative comparisons ineffective. DTM took 3.9 hours to train. We inferred the topic distributions for three time slices, and they are displayed in the appendix (Figure 9, Figure 10, Figure 11). We also show the evolution of a single topic across 10 time slices in Figure 12.

By comparing the three time slices, we notice that the highly probable words in each topic remain largely unchanged across each time slice in this dataset. Figure 7 shows that in the last time slice, “markov” squeezed into the top 6 words of the abstract topic. Perhaps this is indicative of an increased usage of Markov related techniques in the later years.

<sup>2</sup><https://www.kaggle.com/benhamner/nips-papers>

<sup>3</sup>[https://github.com/jethrokuan/data-science-notebooks/tree/master/04%20-%20Topic%20Modeling%20\(UROP\)/nips-papers](https://github.com/jethrokuan/data-science-notebooks/tree/master/04%20-%20Topic%20Modeling%20(UROP)/nips-papers)

1	energy, field, temperature, transition, boltzmann, spin
2	energy, field, temperature, transition, boltzmann, spin
3	field, energy, temperature, transition, boltzmann, <b>markov</b>

Figure 7: Evolution of topic 27 over time in the trained DTM model. This one indicates “markov” is being mentioned more in this abstract topic, in later years.

## 8 Evaluating Topic Models

While analysing the results of our trained models, we used human judgment to evaluate the quality of the abstract topics generated. In addition, we judged the quality of the topic by how amenable it is to human interpretation, which may not be suitable, depending on the task. This evaluation metric is subjective and not reproducible, and leaves much to be desired.

The unsupervised nature of topic modeling makes model selection difficult: there are no gold labels for topics and document topic proportions. The most common evaluation metric is the probability of held-out documents given a trained model [21], and we refer you to Wallach et al. for a full treatment.

To compare the topic models, We look at evaluations from each of the seminal papers. For LDA, Blei et al. computed the perplexity of held-out documents to evaluate the topic models. Perplexity is a commonly used metric in language modeling, and is equivalent to the inverse of the geometric mean per-word likelihood. Lower perplexity indicates better generalisation performance [4]. In their experiment, Blei et al. used a corpus of scientific abstracts from the C. Elegans community (5,255 documents with 28,414 terms) and a corpus of newswire articles (16,333 documents with 23,075 terms). In both cases, 10% of the documents were held out for test purposes. Comparing LDA with pLSA, LDA achieved lower perplexity scores, and LSI and pLSA suffered from severe overfitting issues. This was attributed to the ability of LDA to assign probability to a new document without additional heuristics [4].

In the seminal paper for CTM, Blei and Lafferty fitted both CTM and LDA to a smaller collection of articles to models of varying number of topics. It was shown that the average held-out probability of documents for CTM was consistently better than LDA, and CTM supported more topics than LDA. This is because CTM is more expressive than LDA: LDA will only predict words based on latent topics suggested by observations, but CTM can also predict words associated with topics correlated with the conditionally probable topics [2].

To evaluate DTM, Blei and Lafferty selected 250 articles from each of the 120 years between 1881 and 1999 from the Journal *Science*. The task of predicting the next year in *Science* given all the articles from the previous years was considered. Three models were compared:

DTM trained on all documents from previous years, LDA trained on all documents from previous years, and LDA trained on documents from a single previous year. DTM was shown to assign a higher likelihood to next year’s articles [3]. It was also noted that the predictive power of each model decreases each year, suggesting that factoring time into the model is important for the task of trend detection in scientific documents.

## 9 Conclusion

In this paper, we have discussed the importance of topic modeling, and the opportunities it presents in the domain of scientific documents. LDA is widely regarded as the simplest topic model, which operates on the intuition that a document has few topics, and a topic has few words. LDA has inspired other topic models, such as CTM and DTM, in no small part due to its simplicity. LDA makes several statistical assumptions, and in the context of scientific documents some of these assumptions are not appropriate. CTM and DTM were introduced in the context of relaxing some of these assumptions.

To demonstrate what topic models are capable of, we trained LDA and DTM on the NIPS dataset, and provided the Jupyter notebooks for reference. We also briefly discussed the difficulties faced in evaluating topic models, that arise from the unsupervised nature of the problem. We then summarised the evaluation results for each topic model from the original papers. We note that the evaluation task differs across each paper, so no combined comparison can be made.

## 10 Future Work

There are many topic models that are not covered in this survey. For example, the topic models we have covered train only on document text. Yet, scientific documents often come with useful metadata. The author-topic model exploits this metadata [19]. We hope to investigate these models in detail in future work.

In addition, there was no attempt to evaluate the trained topic models, nor was there an attempt to provide a fair comparison between the topic models. Producing benchmarks for all aforementioned models on the same corpus should provide immense value to the research community.

The topic models we have surveyed are directed graphical models. Despite the recent discoveries in deep learning, LDA, which is over a decade old, has not been replaced as the mainstay for topic modeling. There has been promising development in topic modeling with deep generative models [13, 15, 6]. This area of research is still relatively unexplored, and we believe there is much to explore.

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## 11 Appendix

	word0	word1	word2	word3	word4	word5
topic0	optimization	gradient	convergence	iteration	constraint	descent
topic1	policy	action	reward	agent	reinforcement	transition
topic2	target	effect	trial	causal	decision	cue
topic3	distance	tensor	dimension	similarity	transformation	neighbor
topic4	game	player	strategy	expert	equilibrium	action
topic5	rule	question	relation	knowledge	concept	symbol
topic6	neuron	circuit	cell	connection	activity	synapsis
topic7	image	object	recognition	vision	pixel	segmentation
topic8	topic	document	word	dirichlet	lda	latent
topic9	kernel	component	eigenvalue	covariance	basis	operator
topic10	bound	loss	theorem	proof	complexity	log
topic11	layer	architecture	gradient	loss	preprint	unit
topic12	control	trajectory	movement	motor	feedback	hand
topic13	field	motion	cell	filter	location	direction
topic14	sequence	event	transition	gene	interaction	expression
topic15	query	cost	search	code	worker	communication
topic16	response	neuron	spike	stimulus	population	activity
topic17	node	tree	inference	graph	message	factor
topic18	prediction	regression	arxiv	selection	dataset	datasets
topic19	block	path	implementation	chip	processor	operation
topic20	unit	energy	equation	noise	generalization	activation
topic21	memory	pattern	category	capacity	prototype	item
topic22	source	speech	signal	domain	recognition	frequency
topic23	word	language	sentence	context	sequence	translation
topic24	graph	cluster	edge	item	vertex	clustering
topic25	group	region	brain	level	map	module
topic26	rank	sparse	column	norm	sparsity	entry
topic27	regret	arm	bandit	bound	online	round
topic28	classification	label	classifier	margin	instance	decision
topic29	inference	density	log	likelihood	estimate	mixture

Figure 8: Top 6 words of the 30 topic distributions from the LDA model trained on the NIPS papers dataset.



	word0	word1	word2	word3	word4	word5
topic0	node	tree	graph	message	path	link
topic1	operator	rbf	kernel	regression	spline	product
topic2	capacity	bound	complexity	theorem	proof	hypothesis
topic3	image	object	pixel	recognition	surface	vision
topic4	projection	basis	selection	product	pursuit	regression
topic5	map	motor	target	eye	brain	response
topic6	motion	direction	velocity	field	trajectory	robot
topic7	component	density	mixture	dimension	principle	mapping
topic8	transfer	expert	episode	rnn	decoder	translation
topic9	noise	estimate	variance	estimation	likelihood	criterion
topic10	rule	symbol	grammar	string	generalization	population
topic11	curve	expression	eigenvalue	eigenvectors	gene	patient
topic12	classifier	classification	pattern	decision	label	tree
topic13	speech	recognition	signal	word	speaker	phoneme
topic14	region	group	gamma	mixture	event	component
topic15	code	transformation	rotation	translation	digit	invariance
topic16	neuron	memory	circuit	chip	analog	connection
topic17	prediction	risk	loss	predictor	minimization	hypothesis
topic18	cell	neuron	response	activity	pattern	stimulus
topic19	validation	support	plane	margin	hyperplane	cross
topic20	equilibrium	strategy	game	position	move	board
topic21	distance	cluster	center	prototype	neighbor	assignment
topic22	phase	arm	learner	online	strategy	bandit
topic23	equation	convergence	gradient	optimization	constraint	minimum
topic24	unit	layer	pattern	activation	backpropagation	architecture
topic25	sequence	control	controller	chain	protein	plant
topic26	action	reinforcement	control	environment	controller	goal
topic27	energy	field	temperature	transition	boltzmann	spin
topic28	user	query	retrieval	document	word	text
topic29	character	word	letter	role	recognition	language

Figure 9: Top 6 words of the 30 topic distributions in slice 1 of the DTM model trained on the NIPS papers dataset.

	word0	word1	word2	word3	word4	word5
topic0	node	tree	graph	message	path	edge
topic1	operator	rbf	kernel	regression	spline	product
topic2	capacity	bound	complexity	theorem	proof	concept
topic3	image	object	pixel	recognition	surface	vision
topic4	projection	basis	selection	product	pursuit	regression
topic5	map	target	motor	eye	response	movement
topic6	motion	direction	velocity	field	trajectory	robot
topic7	component	density	mixture	dimension	principle	mapping
topic8	transfer	expert	episode	rnn	decoder	translation
topic9	noise	estimate	variance	estimation	likelihood	criterion
topic10	rule	symbol	grammar	string	generalization	population
topic11	curve	expression	eigenvalue	eigenvectors	gene	patient
topic12	classifier	classification	pattern	decision	label	tree
topic13	speech	recognition	signal	word	speaker	phoneme
topic14	region	group	gamma	mixture	event	component
topic15	code	transformation	rotation	translation	digit	invariance
topic16	neuron	memory	circuit	chip	analog	voltage
topic17	prediction	risk	loss	predictor	minimization	hypothesis
topic18	cell	neuron	response	activity	pattern	stimulus
topic19	validation	support	plane	margin	hyperplane	cross
topic20	equilibrium	strategy	game	position	move	board
topic21	distance	cluster	center	prototype	neighbor	measure
topic22	phase	arm	learner	online	strategy	bandit
topic23	equation	convergence	gradient	optimization	constraint	descent
topic24	unit	layer	pattern	activation	backpropagation	architecture
topic25	sequence	control	controller	chain	protein	plant
topic26	action	reinforcement	control	environment	controller	goal
topic27	energy	field	temperature	transition	boltzmann	spin
topic28	user	query	retrieval	document	word	text
topic29	word	character	letter	recognition	role	language

Figure 10: Top 6 words of the 30 topic distributions in slice 2 of the DTM model trained on the NIPS papers dataset.

	word0	word1	word2	word3	word4	word5
topic0	node	tree	graph	path	message	edge
topic1	operator	rbf	kernel	regression	spline	product
topic2	bound	complexity	capacity	theorem	proof	concept
topic3	image	object	recognition	pixel	vision	surface
topic4	projection	basis	selection	product	pursuit	regression
topic5	map	target	eye	motor	movement	response
topic6	motion	direction	velocity	trajectory	field	robot
topic7	component	density	mixture	dimension	principle	mapping
topic8	expert	transfer	episode	rnn	decoder	translation
topic9	noise	estimate	variance	estimation	likelihood	criterion
topic10	rule	symbol	grammar	string	generalization	knowledge
topic11	curve	expression	eigenvalue	eigenvectors	gene	patient
topic12	classifier	classification	pattern	decision	label	accuracy
topic13	speech	recognition	signal	word	speaker	phoneme
topic14	region	group	gamma	mixture	event	component
topic15	code	transformation	rotation	digit	translation	invariance
topic16	memory	neuron	circuit	chip	analog	voltage
topic17	prediction	risk	loss	predictor	minimization	hypothesis
topic18	cell	neuron	response	activity	pattern	stimulus
topic19	validation	support	plane	margin	hyperplane	cross
topic20	equilibrium	strategy	game	position	move	board
topic21	distance	cluster	center	prototype	neighbor	measure
topic22	phase	arm	learner	online	strategy	bandit
topic23	equation	convergence	gradient	optimization	constraint	descent
topic24	unit	layer	pattern	architecture	backpropagation	activation
topic25	control	sequence	controller	chain	protein	plant
topic26	action	reinforcement	control	environment	controller	goal
topic27	field	energy	temperature	transition	boltzmann	markov
topic28	query	user	retrieval	document	word	text
topic29	word	character	letter	recognition	language	role

Figure 11: Top 6 words of the 30 topic distributions in slice 3 of the DTM model trained on the NIPS papers dataset.

time slice	words
0	node, tree, graph, message, path, link, edge, cycle, branch, parent
1	node, tree, graph, message, path, edge, link, cycle, branch, parent
2	node, tree, graph, path, message, edge, link, cycle, branch, parent
3	node, tree, graph, path, message, edge, link, cycle, parent, branch
4	node, tree, graph, path, edge, message, link, parent, cycle, level
5	node, tree, graph, path, edge, message, link, parent, level, leaf
6	node, tree, graph, path, edge, message, link, parent, leaf, level
7	node, tree, graph, path, edge, message, link, parent, leaf, propagation
8	node, tree, graph, path, edge, message, parent, propagation, belief, link
9	node, tree, graph, path, edge, belief, message, propagation, parent, leaf

Figure 12: Evolution of Topic 1 across 10 time slices in the DTM model trained on the NIPS papers dataset.