Combining Lightly-Supervised Text Classification Models for Accurate Contextual Advertising

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Abstract

In this paper we propose a lightly-supervised framework to rapidly build text classifiers for contextual advertising. In contextual advertising, advertisers often want to target to a specific class of webpages most relevant to their product, which may not be covered by a pre-trained classifier. Moreover, the advertisers are only interested in the target class. Therefore, it is more suitable to model as a one-class classification problem, in contrast to traditional classification problems where disjoint classes are defined a priori.

We first apply two state-of-the-art lightly-supervised classification models, generalized expectation (GE) criteria (Druck et al., 2008) and multinomial naïve Bayes (MNB) with priors (Settles, 2011) to one-class classification where the user only provides a small list of labeled words for the target class. We fuse the two models together by using MNB to automatically enrich the constraints for GE training. We also explore ensemble method to further improve the accuracy. On a corpus of real-time bidding requests, the proposed model achieves the highest average $F_1$ of 0.69 and closes half of the gap between previous state-of-the-art lightly-supervised models to a fully-supervised MaxEnt model.

1 Introduction

Contextual advertising (or contextual targeting) is a technique to maximize the relevance of online advertisements by performing page analysis of the webpages. Contextual advertising is closely related to text classification problem, which is well-known to the NLP community. Underlying, the system classifies webpages into predefined Ads verticals (categories). Based on the classification result, the real-time bidding (RTB) system will decide whether to bid for a particular page to display their Ads. Successful contextual advertising leads to lower advertising cost and higher click-through and conversion rate (Chatterjee et al., 2003; Broder et al., 2007).

Contextual targeting differs from traditional text classification in three ways. Firstly, with thousands of vastly different products coming to market every day, there are large number of categories (usually thousands of categories). Secondly, the advertisers often want to customize an existing category or create new categories to target a set of more relevant webpages. I.e. the classes are not static but evolving. It is therefore unrealistic to ask the advertisers to provide labeled webpages for each new or modified category they want to target. Lastly, while the advertisers can provide prior knowledge for the class they want to target, they cannot accurately specify the irrelevant (or negative) category because it likely covers broad topics in the wild. However, to train a classifier, usually labeled instances for each class are required. Because of these constraints, prominent service providers such as Peer39 1 and Grapeshot 2 build their contextual targeting systems mainly using hand-crafted keywords instead of learning based approaches.

In this work, we model contextual targeting as lightly-supervised one-class classification problem. The algorithm takes unlabelled documents $DOC_U$ and the user provided keywords $S_c$ for the

1 https://www.sizmek.com/peer39/
2 https://www.grapeshot.com/
3 We classify only based on the text in the webpages. Henceforth we use “document” to refer to “webpage”, conforming to the terminology commonly used in NLP.
target class $c$ as input and returns a classifier $M_c$ that can classify documents belonging to class $c$. It is lightly-supervised because we do not use any document labels, but labeled keywords instead. It is one-class classification because the users need to provide labeled keywords only for the class they want to target, not the negative class.

We apply two state-of-the-art lightly-supervised classification models, generalized expectation (GE) criteria (Druck et al., 2008) and multinomial naïve Bayes (MNB) with priors (Settles, 2011) in the one-class classification setting. Inspired by the relative strength and weakness of the two models, we propose a novel approach to fuse them together where MNB is trained first. The salient words are read off from the posterior class-word distributions and automatically added to form additional constraints for GE. We also employ ensemble method to produce a final classifier that closed more than half of the gap between previous state-of-the-art lightly-supervised models to a fully-supervised MaxEnt model.

The contributions of this paper are:

1. Extended state-of-the-art semi-supervised classifiers for one-class classification problem.
2. Enriched expectation constraints for GE using a MNB model trained using EM algorithm.
3. Successfully employed ensemble method to produce a final classifier that closed more than half of the gap between previous state-of-the-art semi-supervised models to a fully-supervised MaxEnt model.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents previous works in two related fields: semi-supervised classification and one-class classification. We review the two previous state-of-the-art models we depend heavily on, generalized expectation (GE) criteria and multinomial naïve Bayes (MNB) with priors in Section 3 and 4, followed by applying them to one-class classification problem (Section 5). Section 6 describes two distinct approaches to combine these two models together. In section 7, we present our experimental results. Lastly, we present conclusions and suggest future directions.

2 Related Work

2.1 Semi-Supervised Text Classification

Supervised text classification methods were successfully applied to various tasks, such as sentiment analysis (Pang et al., 2002; Wang and Manning, 2012), information extraction (Jin et al., 2013) and stance recognition (Hasan and Ng, 2014). The main problem of supervised classification technique is that it requires sizeable set of labeled training documents for each predefined class.

Various semi-supervised classification methods have been proposed to address the lack of training documents. We are particularly interested in lightly-supervised methods that exploit prior knowledge (usually in the form of labeled words for each class) and eliminate the need of any labeled documents. Two main categories of approaches are often employed to exploit the word labels. The first one is to build an initial weak classifier to obtain soft labels of the documents and then apply expectation maximization (EM) algorithm (Liu et al., 2004; Schapire et al., 2002). More recently, there is growing interest in methods that incorporate labeled word features directly into the classification model, either as constraints in an objective function (Druck et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2016) or as priors on model parameters (Settles, 2011; Lucas and Downey, 2013).

Liu et al. (2004) proposed to label a set of representative words for each class, which is used to extract a set of documents as the initial training set. EM algorithm was then applied to iteratively refine the labels of the documents and to improve the accuracy of the classifier. Schapire et al. (2002) used hand-crafted rules based on keywords to label documents, and modified AdaBoost to fit both the labeled training data and the soft-labeled data.

The methods above convert domain knowledge into labeled documents. An alternative approach is to use the domain knowledge to provide model constraints. Druck et al. (2008; 2011) proposed generalized expectation (GE) criteria, which use labeled words to constrain the model’s predictions on unlabeled data. GE has been successfully applied on different tasks, such as text categorization (Druck et al., 2008), semantic tagging (Druck et al., 2009), information structure analysis of scientific documents (Guo et al., 2015) and language identification in mixed-language documents (King and Abney, 2013). Similarly, Zhao et al. (2016)
made use of word-level statistical constraints to preserve the class distribution on words, so that the classifier will not drift due to the extra (noisy) labels introduced by EM algorithm. Labeled words can also provide priors for generative models. Settles (2011) extended multinomial naïve Bayes model to allow labels for words by increasing their Dirichlet prior. His method consists of three steps: firstly to estimate the initial parameters using only the priors; secondly to apply the induced classifier on unlabeled documents; lastly to re-estimate the model parameters using both labeled and probabilistically-labeled documents. Using an interactive approach to query document and word labels from the user, the system can achieve 90% of state-of-the-art performance after a few minutes of annotation.

Dermouche et al. (2013) also exploited prior knowledge in a multinomial naïve Bayes model. Instead of modifying the priors, their method artificially modifies the occurrences of the terms in the right and wrong class. This method uses the full set of document labels and a large sentiment lexicon consisting of around eight thousand terms, making it less suitable for the lightly-supervised setting for contextual targeting.

2.2 One-Class Classification

Another area related to our work is one-class classification problem (Moya and Hush, 1996), where no labeled negative instance is available. One-class SVM (Schölkopf et al., 2001) learns only from positive examples. The model classifies new instances as similar or different to the training set. Lee at al. (2003) observed that this approach is highly sensitive to the input representation and it did not perform well for text classification.

We highlight that one-class classification problem is not restricted to using only positive labeled instances. When positive and unlabelled data are available, a popular approach is to randomly assign the negative class to unlabelled instances in the beginning and iteratively refine the labels using EM-like algorithms (Yu et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2003; Li et al., 2009).

Our task lies in the intersection of semi-supervised classification and one-class classification, yet it differs from both tasks in principled ways. Aforementioned semi-supervised classification algorithms were applied on corpora with predefined (two or more) classes. When the irrelevant (or negative) class refers to “everything else”, we cannot accurately provide prior knowledge for the irrelevant class using expert domain knowledge. On the other hand, previous one-class classification problems assumed the presence of labeled instances of the positive class, without which neither the similarity-based nor the EM-like algorithms can be applied directly.

3 Generalized Expectation (GE) Criteria

Generalized expectation (GE) criteria (Mann and McCallum, 2008) are constraint terms used to train discriminative linear models. GE provides a flexible framework for encoding prior knowledge to provide training signals for parameter estimation. When applied to text classification, constraint functions $G_k$ are expressed as the reference distribution of the feature labels. For example $puck \rightarrow \{baseball : 0.1, hockey : 0.9\}$ means 90% of documents containing the word “puck” should be labeled the class “hockey”. Each constraint is translated into a term to add to the objective function to encourage parameters that yield predictions conforming to the reference distribution on unlabeled documents. Formally, the combined objective function can be written as:

$$C = -\sum_{k \in K} D(\hat{p}(y|x_k > 0)||\bar{p}(y|x_k > 0)) - \Delta$$

where $\hat{p}(y|x_k > 0)$ is the reference distribution, $\bar{p}(y|x_k > 0)$ is the empirical distribution and $D$ is a distance function. $\Delta$ is shorthand for a zero-mean $\sigma^2$ -variance Gaussian prior on parameters.

GE does not require one-to-one correspondence between constraint functions $G_k$ and model feature functions. The optimization problem for GE is always under-constrained, meaning the number of parameters to be estimated far exceeds the number of constraints the user provides. To make the optimization tractable, the model updates the gradient for an unlabeled feature $j$ based on how often $j$ co-occurs with a labeled feature $k$. Hence Druck et al. (2009) commented that GE can also be interpreted as a bootstrapping method that estimates parameters using limited training signals.

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4 The features consist of word unigrams in both Druck et al. (2008) and in this paper.

5 Please refer to Druck et al. (2008) for the derivation.
4 Multinomial Naïve Bayes (MNB) with Priors

Multinomial Naïve Bayes is a generative classification algorithm making a strong assumption that each word \( w_k \) occurs independent of each other when conditioned on the class label \( c_j \). Hence,

\[
\hat{y} = \arg\max_j \prod_{k=1}^{n_d} P(w_k|c_j)
\]

where \( P(c_j) \) is the probability of class \( c_j \) and \( P(w_k|c_j) \) is the probability of generating word \( w_k \) given class \( c_j \). \( P(w_k|c_j) \) is estimated using:

\[
P(w_k|c_j) = \frac{m_{jk} + \sum_i P(c_j|x^{(i)})f_k(x^{(i)})}{Z(f_k)}
\]

where \( f_k(x^{(i)}) \) is the count of word \( w_k \) in the \( i \)th document in the training set and \( Z(f_k) \) is a normalization constant summing over all words in the vocabulary. Typically, a uniform Laplacian prior is used (all \( m_{jk} \) have the same value 1). To incorporate the word labels, Settles (2011) increased the prior \( m_{jk} \) by \( \alpha \) if word \( w_k \) is labeled with class \( c_j \). To exploit unlabeled documents, Settles (2011) used an initial model estimated with only the priors to probabilistically label the unlabeled documents. The probabilistically labeled documents are combined with the labeled words and documents to estimate the parameters for the final model using a single-iteration EM algorithm.

5 Applying GE and MNB to One-Class Classification

In Druck et al. (2009) and Settles (2011), the authors ran their models using human labeled keywords for each predefined class. Analogous to one-class classification, where the system takes only positive (and unlabelled) documents as input, we now try to train GE and MNB with priors using only user-provided positive keywords and unlabeled documents as input. \(^6\)

GE cannot cope with one-class classification by nature. If we only provide labeled words for the “+” class, the “+” label will be “propagated” to all the word features co-occurring with a labeled word. The trained classifier will predict “+” for all the unseen documents. In contrary, MNB with priors can be trained using only the “+” keywords. When we increase the prior for labeled words in class \( c_+ \), it decreases \( P(w'_k|c_+) \) with respect to \( P(w'_k|c_-) \) for an unlabeled feature \( w'_k \) (the normalization constant \( Z_+ \) is greater that \( Z_- \) due to the increased priors in the “+” class). This is desirable because if a document only contains random unlabeled words, the model will predict “-”.

5.1 Labeling Words for the Target Class

Liu et al. (2004) observed that it is difficult for the user to come up with a set of representative words for each class independently because they usually can only provide a few words, which are insufficient to train an accurate classifier. Therefore, it is critical that the system can assist the user by suggesting a good set of candidate words to label instead of asking them to come up with all the words by themselves. We use a hybrid candidate word suggestion method that asks the user to input a seed keyword (in most cases, it is merely the class name they want to target) and the system will suggest other words that are closely related to it. We make use of word vectors (Mikolov et al., 2013), pointwise mutual information (PMI) (Church and Hanks, 1990) and Wikipedia.

Word vectors have been widely used to measure word similarities (Tang et al., 2014; Levy et al., 2015). We calculate cosine similarity using pre-trained GloVe word vectors \(^7\) (Pennington et al., 2014) to find similar words to the seed word. Word vectors can identify linguistically or semantically related words. E.g. “luxurious” and “lavish” are the nearest neighbours of “luxury”.

We use PMI to mine the words that tend to co-occur with the seed word. For example, “resort”, “BMW”, “Gucci” all receive high PMI scores with “luxury” while none of them are near the word “luxury” in the word vector space.

Lastly, we automatically extract the keywords and keyphrases from the Wikipedia page of the seed word (if the page exists). This method is aimed to cover the technical terms that are confident indicators but are rarely observed in the corpus. E.g. “Somniloquy” is a synonym of “sleep-talking” but it is thirty time less frequent than the latter.

We show the top 50 candidate words suggested by each of the three methods to the user, who will

\[^6\]We use positive/+ to denote the target class and negative/- to denote the irrelevant class.

\(^7\)http://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/
5.2 Special Treatment for GE

As mentioned above, GE also requires labeled words for the “+” class to train. However, it is impractical and time-consuming to ask the users to label a list of words irrelevant to the target class. We form the keyword list for the “+” class by simply performing a multinomial sampling from the vocabulary, where each word is weighted by its log count in the unlabeled corpus. This assumes that a randomly sampled word is unlikely to be a keyword for the target class. Additionally, we use $L_2$-based penalty instead of the default KL divergence because previous work showed that it is more robust to label noises (Druck, 2011).

The labeled words are translated into GE constraints using Schapire-distributions (Schapire et al., 2002). For the user labeled “+” keywords, We assign $P_+ = 0.9$ and $P_- = 0.1$. I.e. if “puck” is a labeled word for the class “hockey”, the corresponding constraint will be puck $\rightarrow$ {hockey : 0.9, others : 0.1}. For the “-” class, we randomly sample 20 times more keywords than the “+” class but use a more even distribution, where we set $P_+ = 0.25$ and $P_- = 0.75$. This is in the same spirit with biased sparsity in Wang et al. (2016), which says the word distribution of the targeted topic only focuses on a small number of representative words and the word distribution of non-targeted topics contain almost all possible words.

We do not use too many negative keywords (constraints) because it significantly increases the computational cost to train GE.

We refer to this system as GE/Random because it uses randomly sampled “-” keywords.

6 Combining GE and MNB

6.1 Using MNB to Enrich GE Constraints

Settles (2011) observed that MNB outperformed GE when the number of labeled words were between five to 20. When the number of labeled keywords increased (with more prior knowledge), GE usually performed better. This inspired us to fuse the two models together, in which MNB’s role is to bootstrap more labeled words to train a more accurate GE classifier.

We first use the user labeled “+” words and unlabeled documents to train an MNB model. Then we obtain a list of salient words for the “+” class which are not already covered in the user labeled words. We use a simple rule that word $w_k$ will be added to the set $S_{MNB}$ if $P(w_k|c+) > P(w_k|c-) > 10$ ($w_k$ appears 10 times more likely given the “+” class than given the “-” class). In this way, we exploit the strength of a generative model (MNB) to discover latent structure and topics from unlabeled data to augment a discriminative model (GE), which usually achieves higher accuracy for classification tasks.

Algorithm 1 summarizes the training procedure for the combined model GE/MNB. Line 2-4 are the procedure to train a MNB with priors model with EM algorithm. We obtain the list of salient words for the target class in line 5. All the words in $S_{user}$, $S_{MNB}$ and $S_{rand}$ are translated into GE constraints to train the final GE/MNB model.

| Algorithm 1: Train GE/MNB Classifier |
|--------------------------------------|
| 1. train classifier ($S_{user}$, DOC$_U$); |
| Input : User labeled features $S_{user}$ and unlabeled corpus DOC$_U$; |
| Output: Trained GE/MNB classifier |
| 2. $M_{MNB}$/Priors = train($S_{user}$); |
| 3. DOC$_{prob}$ = $M_{MNB}$/Priors.classify(DOC$_U$); |
| 4. $M_{MNB}$/Priors+EM$_1$ = train($S_{user}$, DOC$_{prob}$); |
| 5. $S_{MNB}$ = $M_{MNB}$/Priors+EM$_1$.getSalientWords(); |
| 6. $S_{rand}$ = randomlySampleWords(); |
| 7. $M_{GE/MNB}$ = train($S_{user}$, $S_{MNB}$, $S_{rand}$, DOC$_U$); |
| 8. return $M_{GE/MNB}$; |

6.2 Using Ensemble Approach

Another intuitive way to combine GE and MNB is to train the two classifiers independently and use ensemble approach (Dietterich, 2000) to combine the prediction results of the two classifiers. GE and MNB behave quite differently although they make use of the same labeled keywords. The variety they introduce is a critical condition for the success of ensemble approach (Dietterich, 2000).

We first group the aforementioned classifiers into two families based on the algorithm to train their final classifier. The GE family includes GE/Random and GE/MNB. The MNB family includes MNB/Priors and MNB/Priors+EM$_1$. We used a simple ensemble rule: the classifier ensemble outputs “+” if and only if at least one GE and
one MNB classifier output “+”. We denote this classifier ensemble as $GE_1 \land MNB_1$. We used this heuristic rule instead of stacking or other more sophisticated techniques because it does not require any labeled documents to train the ensemble.

7 Evaluation

7.1 Baselines and Datasets

We compared the proposed GE/MNB and $GE_1 \land MNB_1$ with various baselines. For GE, we experimented with GE/Random, which uses user provided keywords for the target class and randomly sampled negative keywords to train. For MNB with priors, we ran two configurations following Settles (2011), MNB/Priors+EM$_1$, the full model using EM algorithm and MNB/Priors, the initial model using only user labeled priors. We also compared with a keyword voting baseline and a fully-supervised MaxEnt model trained using labeled documents. The results of the MaxEnt model is for reference purpose, as our goal is not to beat a supervised model, but to improve from previous lightly-supervised models.

We use the GE implementation in the MALLET toolkit \(^9\) and the implementation of MNB with priors provided by Settles (2011) \(^10\), which also extends from MALLET. All the classifiers share the same standard preprocessing pipeline.

We made use of two datasets for evaluation. The first dataset is sampled from the actual real-time bidding (RTB) requests. The second one is the well-known 20 Newsgroups corpus (Lang, 1995). The results on the first corpus is more relevant and indicative while the results on the 20 Newsgroups allows to benchmark the models beyond the application of RTB.

7.2 Evaluations on RTB Dataset

We created the real-time bidding (RTB) dataset from a database of 30 million historical requests. We used open-source Boilerpipe library (Kohlschütter et al., 2010) to extract the textual content from the webpages and we obtained the category labels for the webpages from a leading Ad Exchange platform (in total 2,200 categories). \(^11\)

Table 1 shows the number of documents for each class and relevant/irrelevant class ratio.

| Class          | Docs | +/- Ratio |
|----------------|------|-----------|
| Cold & Flu     | 1,363| 1:50      |
| Cancer         | 3,234| 1:20      |
| Diabetes       | 1,394| 1:50      |
| Sleep Disorder | 2,592| 1:25      |
| Nutrition      | 22,176| 1:3       |
| Sampled “-” docs | 68,626 |           |

We randomly selected five categories in the “Health” domain to carry out evaluation. For each experiment, the documents labeled with one of the selected categories were assigned to be the “+” class. We uniformly sampled from all other categories to use as the “-” class. We hide the document labels during training for all models except for MaxEnt.

Table 1 shows the number of documents for each class and the rounded +/- ratio. We can see that the +/- classes are very imbalanced, which is to be expected in real-world RTB requests. In practice, we cannot simply perform up- or down-sampling without the labels of the documents. Therefore, we did not try to modify the class ratio to make it more balanced. For each set of experiment, we used the same 9:1 split of training and testing set.

One author of this paper composed the labeled keywords with the assistance of the hybrid keyword suggestion method described in Section 5.1. The keywords for each class were composed independently. He was not allowed to add words not suggested by the system so that we can validate the utility of the keyword suggestion method. Table 2 shows the keywords for each category he composed. The labeling stopped when either he finished reviewing all the suggested words or the time reached 10 minutes.

Table 3 shows the P/R/F$_1$ scores of each classifier for each class. We did not use the accuracy measure because the ratio of +/- classes is strongly imbalanced. We used the same set of user labeled keywords for system 0-5. For GE and MNB with priors, we used the parameter setting proposed in the original papers (GE: Gaussian Prior=1; MNB: $\alpha=50$).

We can make some interesting observations from the result. Firstly, the keyword voting approach lagged behind all of the lightly-supervised models. This shows that learning based approaches improved from a simple rule-based sys-

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\(^9\)http://mallet.cs.umass.edu
\(^10\)https://github.com/burrsettles/dualist
\(^11\)The dataset is available at https://sites.google.com/site/jinyipingnus/research for future works to reproduce our results.
Cold & Flu
cough, flu, throat, nasal, sinus, congestion, respiratory, sneezing, influenza, mucus, runny, stuffy, decongestant, phlegm, pandemic, epidemic, measles, typhoid, diptheria, antihistamines

Cancer
cancer, tumor, chemotherapy, radiation, melanoma, leukemia, lymph, malignant, oncology, chemo, biopsy, oncologist, carcinoma, neoplasm, benign, colonscopy, fever, invasive, luepctomy, nonmelanoma, metatasis, palliative, adjuvant, neoadjuvant, polyph, smear, pathologist, prognois, colposcopy

Diab.
diabetes, insulin, glucose, mellitus, diabetic, ketocidosis, ketoisis, dka, hyperosmolar, hyperglycemic, nonketetic, niddm, polydipsia, polyphagia, polyuria, glucagon, metformin

Sleep Dis.
sleep, asleep, awake, bedtime, sleepy, dream, snoring, snooze, nap, pillow, melatonin, cirdadian, apnoea, somnathy, polysomnography, actigraphy, dyssomnias, parasomnias, apnea, sleepwalking, catatrenia, hypopnea, hypersomnia, narcolepsy, cataplexy, nocturia, enuresis, somniphobia

Nutri.
nutrition, protein, nutrients, livestrong, vitamin, intake, carbohydrates, fiber, myplate, minerals, carb, grain, metabolism, dietary, antioxidants, calcium, nutritional, nutritious, nutritionist

Table 2: Labeled words for each class

is only 3% lower than the fully-supervised MaxEnt model. This is particularly encouraging because the MaxEnt model was trained using many thousands of labeled training documents.

7.3 Evaluations on 20 Newsgroups Corpus

We also applied the systems on the well-known 20 Newsgroups corpus (Lang, 1995) to facilitate future comparisons. The corpus contains 20 different newsgroups having 1,000 documents each. We used the documents with file name ending with “0” for testing (roughly 10% of the corpus) and the rest for training.

Following Druck at al. (2008), we used mutual information of the candidate words with the oracle document labels to mine the keywords for each class. This simulates the scenario where a domain expert can suggest and label relevant keywords. We further removed the keywords that appear in more than two classes. While keywords that appear in many classes can be “balanced out” in multi-class classification setting. We find that including them will usually harm the performance for one-class classification. We used in total 262 keywords (on average 13.1 per class).

We ran 20 experiments using each newsgroup as the target class at a time. We differentiate from Druck at al. (2008) and Settles (2011) mainly in that for each experiment, we only take the keywords for the target class as input, but not the keywords for other classes. We made this decision in order to be consistent with the one-class classification problem. We can think of this experiment as more lightly-supervised than Druck at al. (2008) and Settles (2011). Table 5 shows the performance of various systems.

We were not surprised that GE performed worse than the MNB counterpart given the small list of labeled words. By bootstrapping labeled words using MNB, the GE/MNB model improved recall by 3% at the sacrifice of 2% precision, which is similar to the result on the RTB dataset.

The classifier ensemble GE$_1$ ∧ MNB$_1$ still managed to achieve the highest precision and F$_1$ score (tie with MNB/Priors+EM$_1$), showing its robustness despite the lackluster performance of individual classifiers.

We also experimented with MaxEnt varying the amount of the training data. MaxEnt ($\gamma$=0.1) used 10% of the corpus (2,000 labelled documents) for training. Its average F$_1$ score is similar to the
Table 3: Precision/Recall/$F_1$ scores on RTB dataset. The best score for each measure is bolded. The last line shows the performance of a fully-supervised MaxEnt model for reference purpose.

| System          | Cold Flu | Cancer | Diabetes | Sleep Dis. | Nutrition | Macro Avg. |
|-----------------|----------|--------|----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| 0: keyword voting | .44/.63/52 | .60/.59/60 | .65/.61/63 | .53/.65/58 | .64/.44/.52 | .57/.59/58 |
| 1: GE/Random     | .56/.63/59 | **.78/.56/65** | .71/.56/65 | .72/.65/68 | .78/.45/57 | **.72/.57/64** |
| 2: MNB/Priors+EM1 | .59/.56/57 | .66/.53/59 | .62/.56/59 | .72/.60/66 | .58/.86/.67 | .63/.62/.63 |
| 3: MNB/Priors   | **.37/.81/50** | .51/.76/61 | .56/.84/67 | .33/.79/47 | .62/.70/66 | .48/.78/.59 |
| 4: GE/MNB       | .50/.65/57 | .67/.67/67 | .80/.59/68 | .73/.62/67 | .80/.53/63 | .70/.61/65 |
| 5: GE1 ∧ MNB1   | .54/.72/62 | .71/.66/68 | .73/.71/75 | .74/.64/69 | .84/.55/66 | .71/.67/.69 |
| MaxEnt          | .75/.65/70 | .71/.66/68 | .70/.70/70 | .76/.71/73 | .83/.76/79 | .75/.69/.72 |

Table 4: Top 10 automatically added constraints in GE/MNB for each class

| Cold & Flu          | lisinopril, colds, congestion, neti, vaporub, sinusitis, swine, nostril, throat, runny |
| Cancer             | lymphoma, metastatic, colorectal, humira, cancerous, ovarian, prostate, hpv, metastases, xeloda |
| Diab.              | hypoglycemia, diabetics, prediabetes, lisinopril, glycemic, hyperglycemia, ckd, pancreas, catspyjamas, retinopathy |
| Sleep Dis.         | zaps, ryu, insomnia, cpap, urara, rem, naps, toranosuke, rls, lucid |
| Nutri.             | carbs, ldl, whey, folate, amino, creatine, niacin, potassium, fats, antioxidant |

Table 5: Macro average Precision/Recall/$F_1$ scores for each classifier on 20 Newsgroups corpus.

| System               | Macro Avg. |
|----------------------|------------|
| 0: keyword voting    | .62/.43/50 |
| 1: GE/Random         | .62/.50/55 |
| 2: MNB/Priors+EM1    | .63/.64/.63 |
| 3: MNB/Priors        | .39/.69/.50 |
| 4: GE/MNB            | .60/.53/56 |
| 5: GE1 ∧ MNB1        | .67/.60/.63 |
| MaxEnt ($\gamma = 0.1$) | .86/.42/.57 |
| MaxEnt               | .88/.72/.79 |

Table 3: Precision/Recall/$F_1$ scores on RTB dataset. The best score for each measure is bolded. The last line shows the performance of a fully-supervised MaxEnt model for reference purpose.

8 Conclusions and Future Works

This paper proposed a framework to build lightly-supervised one-class text classifiers by applying generalized expectation (GE) criteria (Druck et al., 2008) and multinomial naïve Bayes (MNB) with priors (Settles, 2011). The classification methods make use of user-labeled words for the target class as the form of supervision and do not require any labeled documents. Motivated by the relative strengths of the two models, we merged them by using MNB to enrich the set of GE constraints.

We further improved the classification accuracy by combining the output of two families of classifiers through ensemble method. This resulted in a classifier ensemble which achieved an

lightly-supervised models. Based on the user experiments in Settles (2011), annotating documents takes 10.8s on average. Therefore the estimated time to annotate the training data for this model is 6 hours, roughly 25 times the time needed to label 262 keywords. The last line shows the result of the MaxEnt model using the full training set. Its average $F_1$ score is 16% higher than GE$_1$ ∧ MNB$_1$.

The larger gap is likely because the keywords used on the 20 Newsgroups Corpus are automatically extracted from the corpus, while the keywords used on the RTB dataset exploited external resources (pre-trained word vectors and Wikipedia) and they are curated by a human annotator. In the real-world scenario, the keywords will be composed by non-technical users, instead of researchers in NLP who are familiar with the algorithm. Therefore, we cannot make assumptions of the quality of the keywords the user composes. However, this further confirms the importance of a good keyword suggestion method to assist the user to compose high-quality keywords.
average of 0.69 $F_1$ score on a dataset of web-pages from real-time bidding requests. It is 5% or 6% higher than previous state-of-the-art lightly-supervised models and 3% lower than a supervised MaxEnt model.

The framework has been deployed into an online advertising platform where advertisers can build customized classifiers to target their Ads to the most relevant webpages.

A direction for future work is to further improve the classification accuracy and to match the performance of not just a MaxEnt model, but a more recent fully-supervised deep neural network models such as Lai et al. (2015). This would likely require a more complex non-linear model and a novel method to train such model in a lightly-supervised manner.

In ongoing research, we are exploring to build multi-modal classifiers by exploiting information in the webpages beyond the textual content, such as URLs and images. We are also exploring transfer learning methods which can use the predictions for existing classes to improve the accuracy for new classes.

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