Performance Confidence Estimation for Automatic Summarization

Annie Louis
University of Pennsylvania
lannie@seas.upenn.edu

Ani Nenkova
University of Pennsylvania
nenkova@seas.upenn.edu

Abstract

We address the task of automatically predicting if summarization system performance will be good or bad based on features derived directly from either single- or multi-document inputs. Our labelled corpus for the task is composed of data from large scale evaluations completed over the span of several years. The variation of data between years allows for a comprehensive analysis of the robustness of features, but poses a challenge for building a combined corpus which can be used for training and testing. Still, we find that the problem can be mitigated by appropriately normalizing for differences within each year. We examine different formulations of the classification task which considerably influence performance. The best results are 84% prediction accuracy for single- and 74% for multi-document summarization.

1 Introduction

The input to a summarization system significantly affects the quality of the summary that can be produced for it, by either a person or an automatic method. Some inputs are difficult and summaries produced by any approach will tend to be poor, while other inputs are easy and systems will exhibit good performance. User satisfaction with the summaries can be improved, for example by automatically flagging summaries for which a system expects to perform poorly. In such cases the user can ignore the summary and avoid the frustration of reading poor quality text.

(Brandow et al., 1995) describes an intelligent summarizer system that could identify documents which would be difficult to summarize based on structural properties. Documents containing question-answer sessions, speeches, tables and embedded lists were identified based on patterns and these features were used to determine whether an acceptable summary can be produced. If not, the inputs were flagged as unsuitable for automatic summarization. In our work, we provide deeper insight into how other characteristics of the text itself and properties of document clusters can be used to identify difficult inputs.

The task of predicting the confidence in system performance for a given input is in fact relevant not only for summarization, but in general for all applications aimed at facilitating information access. In question answering for example, a system may be configured not to answer questions for which the confidence of producing a correct answer is low, and in this way increase the overall accuracy of the system whenever it does produce an answer (Brill et al., 2002; Dredze and Czuba, 2007).

Similarly in machine translation, some sentences might contain difficult to translate phrases, that is, portions of the input are likely to lead to garbled output if automatic translation is attempted. Automatically identifying such phrases has the potential of improving MT as shown by an oracle study (Mohit and Hwa, 2007). More recent work (Birch et al., 2008) has shown that properties of reordering, source and target language complexity and relatedness can be used to predict translation quality. In information retrieval, the problem of predicting system performance has generated considerable interest and has led to notably good results (Cronen-Townsend et al., 2002; Yom-Tov et al., 2005; Carmel et al., 2006).
2 Task definition

In summarization, researchers have recognized that some inputs might be more successfully handled by a particular subsystem (McKeown et al., 2001), but little work has been done to qualify the general characteristics of inputs that lead to suboptimal performance of systems. Only recently the issue has drawn attention: (Nenkova and Louis, 2008) present an initial analysis of the factors that influence system performance in content selection. This study was based on results from the Document Understanding Conference (DUC) evaluations (Over et al., 2007) of multi-document summarization of news. They showed that input, system identity and length of the target summary were all significant factors affecting summary quality. Longer summaries were consistently better than shorter ones for the same input, so improvements can be easy in applications where varying target size is possible. Indeed, varying summary size is desirable in many situations (Kaisser et al., 2008).

The most predictive factor of summary quality was input identity, prompting a closer investigation of input properties that are indicative of deterioration in performance. For example, summaries of articles describing different opinions about an issue or of articles describing multiple distinct events of the same type were of overall poor quality, while summaries of more focused inputs, dealing with descriptions of a single event, subject or person (biographical), were on average better.

A number of features were defined, capturing aspects of how focused on a single topic a given input is. Analysis of the predictive power of the features was done using only one year of DUC evaluations. Data from later evaluations was used to train and test a logistic regression classifier for prediction of expected system performance. The task could be performed with accuracy of 61.45%, significantly above chance levels.

The results also indicated that special care needs to be taken when pooling data from different evaluations into a single dataset. Feature selection performed on data from one year was not useful for prediction on data from other years, and actually led to worse performance than using all features. Moreover, directly indicating which evaluation the data came from was the most predictive feature when testing on data from more than one year.

In the work described here, we show how the approach for predicting performance confidence can be improved considerably by paying special attention to the way data from different years is combined, as well as by adopting alternative task formulations (pairwise comparisons of inputs instead of binary class prediction), and utilizing more representative examples for good and bad performance. We also extend the analysis to single document summarization, for which predicting system performance turns out to be much more accurate than for multi-document summarization. We address three key questions.

What features are predictive of performance on a given input? In Section 4, we discuss four classes of features capturing properties of the input, related to input size, information-theoretic properties of the distribution of words in the input, presence of descriptive (topic) words and similarity between the documents in multi-document inputs. Rather than using a single year of evaluations for the analysis, we report correlation with expected system performance for all years and tasks, showing that in fact the power of these features varies considerably across years (Section 5).

How to combine data from different years? The available data spans several years of summarization evaluations. Between years, systems change, as well as number of systems and average input difficulty. All of these changes impact system performance and make data from different years difficult to analyze when taken together. Still, one would want to combine all of the available evaluations in order to have more data for developing machine learning models. In Section 6 we demonstrate that this indeed can be achieved, by normalizing within each year by the highest observed performance and only then combining the data.

How to define input difficulty? There are several possible definitions of “input difficulty” or “good performance”. All the data can be split in two binary classes of “good” and “bad” performance respectively, or only representative examples in which there is a clear difference in performance can be used. In Section 7 we show that these alternatives can dramatically influence prediction accuracy: using representative examples improves accuracy by more than 10%. Formulating the task as ranking of two inputs, predicting which one is more difficult, also turns out to be helpful, offering more data even within the same year of evaluation.
3 Data

We use the data from single- and multi-document evaluations performed as part of the Document Understanding Conferences (Over et al., 2007) from 2001 to 2004. Generic multi-document summarization was evaluated in all of these years, single document summaries were evaluated only in 2001 and 2002. We use the 100-word summaries from both tasks.

In the years 2002-2004, systems were evaluated respectively on 59, 37 and 100 (50 for generic summarization and 50 biographical) multi-document inputs. There were 149 inputs for single document summarization in 2001 and 283 inputs in 2002. Combining the datasets from the different years yields a collection of 432 observations for single-document summarization, and 196 for multi-document summarization.

Input difficulty, or equivalently expected confidence of system performance, was defined empirically, based on actual content selection evaluations of system summaries. More specifically, expected performance for each input was defined as the average coverage score of all participating systems evaluated on that input. In this way, the performance confidence is not specific to any given system, but instead reflects what can be expected from automatic summarizers in general.

The coverage score was manually computed by NIST evaluators. It measures content selection by estimating overlap between a human model and a system summary. The scale for the coverage score was different in 2001 compared to other years: 0 to 4 scale, switching to a 0 to 1 scale later.

4 Features

For our experiments we use the features proposed, motivated and described in detail by (Nenkova and Louis, 2008). Four broad classes of easily computable features were used to capture aspects of the input predictive of system performance.

Input size-related Number of sentences in the input, number of tokens, vocabulary size, percentage of words used only once, type-token ratio.

Information-theoretic measures Entropy of the input word distribution and KL divergence between the input and a large document collection.

Log-likelihood ratio for words in the input Number of topic signature words (Lin and Hovy, 2000; Conroy et al., 2006) and percentage of signature words in the vocabulary.

Document similarity in the input set These features apply to multi-document summarization only. Pairwise similarity of documents within an input were computed using tf.idf weighted vector representations of the documents, either using all words or using only topic signature words. In both settings, minimum, maximum and average cosine similarity was computed, resulting in six similarity features.

Multi-document summaries from DUC 2001 were used for feature selection. The 29 sets for that year were divided according to the average coverage score of the evaluated systems. Sets with coverage below the average were deemed to be the ones that will elicit poor performance and the rest were considered examples of sets for which systems perform well. T-tests were used to select features that were significantly different between the two classes. Six features were selected: vocabulary size, entropy, KL divergence, percentage of topic signatures in the vocabulary, and average cosine and topic signature similarity.

5 Correlations with performance

The Pearson correlations between features of the input and average system performance for each year is shown in Tables 1 and 2 for multi- and single-document summarization respectively. The last two columns show correlations for the combined data from different evaluation years. For the last column in both tables, the scores in each year were first normalized by the highest score that year. Features that were significantly correlated with expected performance at confidence level of 0.95 are marked with (*). Overall, better performance is associated with smaller inputs, lower entropy, higher KL divergence and more signature terms, as well as with higher document similarity for multi-document summarization.

Several important observations can be made from the correlation numbers in the two tables.

Cross-year variation There is a large variation in the strength of correlation between performance and various features. For example, KL divergence is significantly correlated with performance for most years, with correlation of 0.4618 for the generic summaries in 2004, but the correlation was...
Table 1: Correlations between input features and average system performance for multi-document inputs of DUC 2001-2003, 2004G (generic task), 2004B (biographical task), All data (2002-2004) - UNnor-
malized and Normalized coverage scores. P-values smaller than 0.05 are marked by *.

Table 2: Correlations between input features and average system performance for single doc. inputs of DUC’01, ’02, All (’01+’02) N-normalized. P-values smaller than 0.05 are marked by *.

6 Classification experiments
In this section we explore how the alternative task formulations influence success of predicting system performance. Obviously, the two classes of interest for the prediction will be “good performance” and “poor performance”. But separating the real valued coverage scores for inputs into these two classes can be done in different ways. All the data can be used and the definition of “good” or “bad” can be determined in relation to the average performance on all inputs. Or only the best and worst sets can be used as representative examples. We explore the consequences of adopting either of these options.

For the first set of experiments, we divide all inputs based on the mean value of the average system scores as in (Nenkova and Louis, 2008). All multi-document results reported in this paper are based on the use of the six significant features discussed in Section 4. DUC 2002, 2003 and 2004 data was used for 10-fold cross validation. We ex-
permitted with three classifiers available in R—logistic regression (LogR), decision tree (DTre) and support vector machines (SVM). SVM and decision tree classifiers are libraries under CRAN packages e1071 and rpart. Since our development set was very small (only 29 inputs), we did not perform any parameter tuning.

There is nearly equal number of inputs on either side of the average system performance and the random baseline performance in this case would give 50% accuracy.

6.1 Multi-document task

The classification accuracy for the multi-document inputs is reported in Table 3. The partitioning into classes was done based on the average performance (87 easy sets and 109 difficult sets).

As expected, normalization considerably improves results. The absolute largest improvement of 10% is for the logistic regression classifier. For this classifier, prediction accuracy for the non-normalized data is 54% while for the normalized data, it is 64%. Logistic regression gives the best overall classification accuracy on the normalized data compared to SVM classifier that does best on the unnormalized data (56% accuracy). Normalization also improves precision and recall for the SVM and logistic regression classifiers.

The differences in accuracies obtained by the classifiers is also noticeable and we discuss these further in Section 7.

6.2 Single document task

We now turn to the task of predicting summarization performance for single document inputs. As we saw in section 5, the features are stronger predictors for summarization performance in the single-document task. In addition, there is more data from evaluations of single document summarizers. Stronger features and more training data can both help achieve higher prediction accuracies. In this section, we separate out the two factors and demonstrate that indeed the features are much more predictive for single document summarization than for multidocument.

In order to understand the effect of having more training data, we did not divide the single document inputs into a separate development set to use for feature selection. Instead, all the features discussed in Section 4 except the six cosine and topic signature similarity measures are used. The coverage score ranges in DUC 2001 and 2002 are different. They are normalized by the maximum score within the year, then combined and partitioned into two classes with respect to the average coverage score. In this way, the 432 observations are split into almost equal halves, 215 good performance examples and 217 bad performance. Table 4 shows the accuracy, precision and recall of the classifiers on single-document inputs.

From the results in Table 4 it is evident that all three classifiers achieve accuracies higher than those for multi-document summarization. The improvement is largest for decision tree classification, nearly 15%. The SVM classifier has the highest accuracy for single document summarization inputs, (69%), which is 7% absolute improvement over the performance of the SVM classifier for the multi-document task. The smallest improvement of 4% is for the logistic regression classifier which is the one with highest accuracy for the multi-document task.

Improved accuracy could be attributed to the fact that almost double the amount of data is available for the single-document summarization experiments. To test if this was the main reason for improvement, we repeated the single-document experiments using a random sample of 196 inputs, the same amount of data as for the multi-document case. Even with reduced data, single-document inputs are more easily classifiable as difficult or easy compared to multi-document, as shown in Tables 3 and 5. The SVM classifier is still the best for single-document summarization and its accuracy is the same with reduced data as with all data. With less data, the performance of the logistic regression and decision tree classifiers degrades more and is closer to the numbers for multi-document inputs.

| classifier | accuracy | P  | R  | F  |
|------------|----------|----|----|----|
| DTree      | 66.744   | 66.846 | 67.382 | 67.113 |
| LogR       | 67.907   | 67.089 | 69.806 | 68.421 |
| SVM        | 69.069   | 66.277 | 80.317 | 72.625 |

Table 4: Single document input classification Precision (P), Recall (R), and F score (F) for difficult inputs on DUC'01 and '02 (total 432 examples) divided into 2 classes based on the average coverage score (217 difficult and 215 easy inputs).
Table 3: Multi-document input classification results on UNormalized and Normalized data from DUC 2002 to 2004. Both Normalized and UNormalized data contain 109 difficult and 87 easy inputs. Since the split is not balanced, the accuracy of classification as well as the Precision (P), Recall (R) and F score (F) are reported for both classes of easy and difficult inputs.

| Classifier | N/UN | Acc     | Pdiff  | Rdiff  | Peasy  | Reasy  | Fdiff  | Feasy  |
|------------|------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| DTree      | UN   | 51.579  | 56.580 | 56.999 | 46.790 | 45.591 | 55.383 | 44.199 |
|            | N    | 52.105  | 56.474 | 57.786 | 46.909 | 45.440 | 55.709 | 44.298 |
| LogR       | UN   | 54.211  | 56.877 | 71.273 | 50.135 | 34.074 | 62.145 | 39.159 |
|            | N    | 63.684  | 63.974 | 79.536 | 63.714 | 45.980 | 69.815 | 51.652 |
| SVM        | UN   | 55.789  | 57.416 | 73.943 | 50.206 | 32.753 | 63.784 | 38.407 |
|            | N    | 62.632  | 61.905 | 81.714 | 61.286 | 38.829 | 69.873 | 47.063 |

Table 5: Single-document-input classification Precision (P), Recall (R), and F score (F) for difficult inputs on a random sample of 196 observations (99 difficult/97 easy) from DUC’01 and ’02.

| classifier | accuracy | P     | R     | F     |
|------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|
| DTree      | 53.684   | 54.613| 53.662| 51.661|
| LogR       | 61.579   | 63.335| 60.400| 60.155|
| SVM        | 69.474   | 66.339| 85.835| 73.551|

7 Learning with representative examples

In the experiments in the previous section, we used the average coverage score to split inputs into two classes of expected performance. Poor performance was assigned to the inputs for which the average system coverage score was lower than the average for all inputs. Good performance was assigned to those with higher than average coverage score. The best results for this formulation of the prediction task is 64% accuracy for multidocument classification (logistic regression classifier; 196 datapoints) and 69% for single-document (SVM classifier; 432 and 196 datapoints).

However, inputs with coverage scores close to the average may not be representative of either class. Moreover, inputs for which performance was very similar would end up in different classes. We can refine the dataset by using only those observations that are highly representative of the category they belong to, removing inputs for which system performance was close to the average. It is desirable to be able to classify mediocre inputs as a separate category. Further studies are necessary to come up with better categorization of inputs rather than two strict classes of difficult and easy. For now, we examine the strength of our features in distinguishing the extreme types by training and testing only on inputs that are representative of these classes.

We test this hypothesis by starting with 196 multi-document inputs and performing the 10-fold cross validation using only 80%, 60% and 50% of the data, incrementally throwing away observations around the mean. For example, the 80% model was learnt on 156 observations, taking the extreme 78 observations on each side into the difficult and easy categories. For the single document case, we performed the same tests starting with a random sample of 196 observations as 100% data. All classifiers were trained and tested on the same division of folds during cross validation and compared using a paired t-test to determine the significance of differences if any. Results are shown in Table 6. In parentheses after the accuracy of a given classifier, we indicate the classifiers that are significantly better than it.

Classifiers trained and tested using only representative examples perform more reliably. The SVM classifier is the best one for the single-document setting and in most cases significantly outperforms logistic regression and decision tree classifiers on accuracy and recall. In the multi-document setting, SVM provides better overall recall than logistic regression. However, with respect to accuracy, SVM and logistic regression classifiers are indistinguishable. The decision tree classifier performs worse.

For multi-document classification, the F score drops initially when data is reduced to only 80%. But when using only half of the data, accuracy of prediction reaches 74%, amounting to 10% absolute improvement compared to the scenario in which all available data is used. In the single-document case, accuracy for the SVM classifier increases consistently, reaching accuracy of 84%.

8 Pairwise ranking approach

The task we addressed in previous sections was to classify inputs into ones for which we expect good

---

3 We use the same amount of data as is available for multi-document so that the results can be directly comparable.
performance and ones for which poor system performance is expected. In this section, we evaluate a different approach to input difficulty classification. Given a pair of inputs, can we identify the one on which systems will perform better? This ranking task is easier than requiring a strict decision on whether performance will be good or not.

Ranking approaches are widely used in text planning and sentence ordering (Walker et al., 2001; Karamanis, 2003) to select the text with best structure among a set of possible candidates. Under the summarization framework, (Barzilay and Lapata, 2008) ranked different summaries for the same input according to their coherence. Similarly, ranking alternative document clusters on the same topic to choose the best input will prove an advantage to summarizer systems. When summarization is used as part of an information access interface, the clustering of related documents that form the input to a system is done automatically. Currently, the clustering of documents is completely independent of the need for subsequent summarization of the resulting clusters. Techniques for predicting summarizer performance can be used to inform clustering so that the clusters most suitable for summarization can be chosen. Also, when sample inputs for which summaries were deemed to be good are available, these can be used as a standard with which new inputs can be compared.

For the pairwise comparison task, the features are the difference in feature values between the two inputs A and B that form a pair. The difference in average system scores of inputs A and B in the pair is used to determine the input for which performance was better. Every pair could give two training examples, one positive and one negative depending on the direction in which the differences are computed. We choose one example from every pair, maintaining an equal number of positive and negative instances.

The idea of using representative examples can be applied for the pairwise formulation of the task as well—the larger the difference in system performance is, the better example the pair represents. Very small score differences are not as indicative of performance on one input being better than the other. Hence the experiments were duplicated on 80%, 60% and 40% of the data where the retained examples were the ones with biggest difference between the system performance on the two sets (as indicated by the average coverage score). The range of score differences in each year are indicated in the Table 7.

All scores are normalized by the maximum score within the year. Therefore the smallest and largest possible differences are 0 and 1 respectively. The entries corresponding to the years 2002, 2003 and 2004 show the SVM classification accuracies on a random sample of these examples equal in size to the number of datapoints in the 2004 examples.

Using only representative examples leads to

| Data         | CL | Acc  | P     | R     | F     | Acc  | P     | R     | F     |
|--------------|----|------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Single document classification |      | DTree | 53.684 (S) | 54.613 | 53.662 (S) | 51.661 | 52.105 (S,L) | 56.474 | 57.186 (S,L) | 55.709 |
|              |    | LogR | 61.579 (S) | 63.335 | 60.400 (S) | 60.155 | 63.684 | 63.974 | 79.536 | 69.815 |
|              |    | SVM  | 69.474 | 66.339 | 85.835 | 73.551 | 62.632 | 61.905 | 81.714 | 69.873 |
| 100%         |    | DTree | 62.000 (S) | 62.917 (S) | 67.089 (S) | 62.969 | 53.333 | 57.517 | 55.004 (S) | 51.817 |
|              |    | LogR | 68.000 | 68.829 | 69.324 (S) | 67.686 | 58.667 | 60.401 | 59.298 (S) | 57.988 |
|              |    | SVM  | 71.333 | 70.009 | 86.551 | 75.577 | 62.000 | 61.492 | 71.075 | 63.905 |
| 80%          |    | DTree | 66.182 (S) | 72.750 | 60.000 (S) | 64.923 | 57.273 (S) | 63.000 | 58.206 (S) | 54.882 |
|              |    | LogR | 70.909 | 73.381 | 69.250 | 69.861 | 67.273 | 68.357 | 70.167 | 65.973 |
|              |    | SVM  | 76.364 | 73.365 | 82.857 | 76.959 | 66.364 | 68.619 | 75.738 | 67.726 |
| 60%          |    | DTree | 70.000 (S) | 69.238 | 67.905 (S) | 66.299 | 65.000 | 60.381 (L) | 70.809 | 64.479 |
|              |    | LogR | 76.000 (S) | 76.083 | 72.500 (S) | 72.919 | 74.000 | 72.905 | 70.381 (S) | 70.965 |
|              |    | SVM  | 84.000 | 83.476 | 89.000 | 84.379 | 72.000 | 67.667 | 79.143 | 71.963 |

Table 6: Performance of multiple classifiers on extreme observations from single and multi-document data (100% data = 196 data points in both cases divided into 2 classes on the basis of average coverage score). Reported precision (P), recall (R) and F score (F) are for difficult inputs. Experiments on extremes use equal number of examples from each class - baseline performance is 50%. Systems whose performance is significantly better than the specified numbers are shown in brackets (S-SVM, D-Decision Tree, L-Logistic Regression).
consistently better results than using all the data. The best classification accuracy is 76%, 87% and 79% for comparisons within the same year and 74% for comparisons across years. It is important to observe that when inputs are compared without any regard to the year, the classifier performance is worse than when both inputs in the pair are taken from the same evaluation year, presenting additional evidence of the cross-year variation discussed in Section 5. A possible explanation is that system improvements in later years might cause better scores to be obtained on inputs which were difficult previously.

### 9 Conclusions

We presented a study of predicting expected summarization performance on a given input. We demonstrated that prediction of summarization system performance can be done with high accuracy. Normalization and use of representative examples of difficult and easy inputs both prove beneficial for the task. We also find that performance predictions for single-document summarization can be done more accurately than for multi-document summarization. The best classifier for single-document classification are SVMs, and the best for multi-document—logistic regression and SVM. We also record good prediction performance on pairwise comparisons which can prove useful in a variety of situations.

### References

R. Barzilay and M. Lapata. 2008. Modeling local coherence: An entity-based approach. *CL*, 34(1):1–34.

A. Birch, M. Osborne, and P. Koehn. 2008. Predicting success in machine translation. In *Proceedings of EMNLP*, pages 745–754.

R. Brandow, K. Mitze, and L. F. Rau. 1995. Automatic condensation of electronic publications by sentence selection. Inf. Process. Manage., 31(5):675–685.

E. Brill, S. Dumais, and M. Banko. 2002. An analysis of the askmsr question-answering system. In *Proceedings of EMNLP*.

D. Carmel, E. Yom-Tov, A. Darlow, and D. Pelleg. 2006. What makes a query difficult? In *Proceedings of SIGIR*, pages 390–397.

J. Conroy, J. Schlesinger, and D. O’Leary. 2006. Topic-focused multi-document summarization using an approximate oracle score. In *Proceedings of ACL*.

S. Cronen-Townsend, Y. Zhou, and W. B. Croft. 2002. Learning to admit you’re wrong: Statistical tools for evaluating web qa. In *NIPS Workshop on Machine Learning for Web Search*.

M. Kaisser, M. A. Hearst, and J. B. Lowe. 2008. Improving search results quality by customizing summary lengths. In *Proceedings of ACL: HLT*, pages 701–709.

N. Karamanis. 2003. *Entity Coherence for Descriptive Text Structuring*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Edinburgh.

C. Lin and E. Hovy. 2000. The automated acquisition of topic signatures for text summarization. In *Proceedings of COLING*, pages 495–501.

K. McKeown, R. Barzilay, D. Evans, V. Hatzivassiloglou, B. Schiffman, and S. Teufel. 2001. Columbia multi-document summarization: Approach and evaluation. In *Proceedings of DUC*.

B. Mohit and R. Hwa. 2007. Localization of difficult-to-translate phrases. In *Proceedings of ACL Workshop on Statistical Machine Translations*.

A. Nenkova and A. Louis. 2008. Can you summarize this? identifying correlates of input difficulty for multi-document summarization. In *Proceedings of ACL: HLT*, pages 825–833.

P. Over, H. Dang, and D. Harman. 2007. Duc in context. Inf. Process. Manage., 43(6):1506–1520.

M. Walker, O. Rambow, and M. Rogati. 2001. Spot: a trainable sentence planner. In *Proceedings of NAACL*, pages 1–8.

E. Yom-Tov, S. Fine, D. Carmel, and A. Darlow. 2005. Learning to estimate query difficulty: including applications to missing content detection and distributed information retrieval. In *Proceedings of SIGIR*, pages 512–519.