# **Diversity Measurement for the Email Content of Information Workers**

**by**

Petch Manoharn

Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Engineering in Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology

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# *ABSTRACT*

Since the introduction of computers and the Internet, information processing has evolved to be a major part of many businesses, but factors that contribute to the productivity of information workers are still understudied. Some social network studies claim that diverse information that passes through workers in the positions with diverse sources of information drives performance. However, such claims are rarely verified **by** empirical data. This study develops a measurement methodology for the diversity of the email content processed **by** information workers. The diversity values will be used for future productivity studies along with the results from social network analysis.

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### **1. Introduction**

Since the introduction of computers and internet, information processing has become a significant part of everyday life. Many successful companies have devoted their resources to information gathering and classification. Some companies even base their entire business around the various applications of information. Despite the significance of information the study of productivity in information-related sectors is still underdeveloped. In the manufacturing sector, economists have proposed many established models for production functions and productivity measurements, but one can hardly find a measurement for productivity of information workers such as lawyers, teachers, and so on.

Some recent studies have been conducted on the social network structure of information workers in order to understand the flow of information between people. The social network studies have found a correlation between social network structure and the productivity of information workers (Aral et al., **2006).** Several theoretical arguments claim that access to diverse information that flows through and is exposed to workers in diverse structural positions drives the productivity of the workers. However, the claim is rarely verified **by** empirical data. An area that requires additional attention is the content analysis of the information flowing through social networks. While the content represents the actual information that is being communicated, the interpretation of the content is usually subjective and is hard to examine. The study of social networks concentrates on the flow of information, but the relationship between the flow of information and the content of information remains understudied.

The objective of our study is to provide a systematic method for measuring the diversity of the content of information exposed to information workers. Specifically, the information is represented **by** the emails circulated among the information workers as email represents a large portion of the information passed through most companies. The applications of the diversity measurement are not restricted to use in emails or for information workers. They can also be applied toward any set of text documents that require measurement of the amount of information contained in some subsets of the documents.

Since the diversity of information is a subjective concept, this study will not aim toward finding a universal measurement for diversity. Diversity metrics will be derived from many aspects or interpretations of diversity, and the results of the diversity metrics will be compared and are likely to be applied toward different occasions. Ideally, our diversity metrics should provide the results that behave similarly in diversity rankings. The diversity measurements will then be examined along with the results from social network study and the productivity data in order to determine the relevance of content diversity for the productivity of the information workers.

### **2. Theory and Literature**

#### **2.1 Data Representation and Similarity Coefficients**

The most common way of modeling the content of text documents is the Vector Space Model (Salton, Wong, **&** Yang, *1975).* The content of a document is represented **by** a multidimensional feature vector whose elements are commonly related to the term frequencies of the words in the document. The decision for the construction of the feature vectors is called term weighting. Term weight consists of three elements based on single term statistics: term frequency factor, collection frequency factor, and length normalization factor. The term frequency factor is usually based on the term frequencies in the document. The collection frequency factor is based on the frequencies of the term across documents in the collection of documents. The collection frequency factor provides a way to prioritize rare words or terms that do not appear often in all documents. The length normalization factor involves the length of the document in order to compensate for the fact that more words or terms are likely to appear in long documents.

**A** common weighting scheme is to use the term frequencies as described **by** Luhn **(1958).** The term frequency is usually referred to as content description for documents and is generally used as the basis of a weighted document vector. It is possible to use a binary document vector to represent the content of a document **by** associating the value one with the presence of a term in the document and the value of zero with the absence of the term. However, the results from using binary document vectors are not as good as results from vectors of term frequencies in the vector space model (Salton **&** Buckley, **1996).** Many termweighting schemes have been evaluated for the indexing of documents for search purpose.

Specifically, the TF-IDF weighting scheme (term frequency **-** inverse document frequency) is shown to provide an improvement in precision and recall (Salton **&** Buckley, **1996).** The main concept of the TF-IDF weighting scheme is to provide high weights to terms that appear frequently in the document and infrequently across the documents in the collection. **A** similar concept is used by Amazon.com's Statistically Improbable Phrases (SIPs)<sup>1</sup> that automatically identify important phrases in each book in order to distinguish the book from other books with similar content. In this study, we will use the common weighting scheme based on the term frequencies because the effectiveness of the other weighting schemes is still unproven for our application. Future improvements will include the evaluation of other weighting schemes.

Based on the vector space model, many previous studies have been conducted on document similarity. The most common similarity coefficient is the cosine similarity (Rasmussen, **1992),** which represents the similarity of two documents **by** the cosine of the angle between their feature vectors. There are other similarity coefficients that can be used as alternatives to cosine similarity such as Jaccard and Dice coefficients (Salton, **1988).** Our study adapts these similarity coefficients to use as distance measurements for feature vectors to derive diversity measurements.

In addition to similarity coefficients for the vector space model, similarity coefficients have also been developed for concepts in taxonomy. Most of these coefficients are based on the information theoretic concept of 'information content' and the relationship between information content and similarity coefficients. The information content or self-information of a concept is usually defined **by** the amount of information the concepts added to someone's knowledge, and is normally expressed in the unit of information **-** a bit. It is defined as the negative of logarithm of the probability of the concept. Resnik **(1995)** proposes a measurement based on information content for documents in taxonomy, and Lin **(1998)** provides a generalized measurement of similarity, which is normalized to values between zero to one.

<sup>1</sup>The definition of the Statistically Improbably Phrases provided **by** Amazon.com is at http://www.amazon.com/gp/search-inside/sipshelp.html.

Zipf (1949) found that in any comprehensive text there is a hyperbolic relationship between the word frequency and rank of a word. The rank is determined in the order of high frequency to low frequency. For example, the most frequent word is of rank **1** and the second most frequent word is of rank 2 and so on. His observation implies that the product of the rank and the frequency is approximately constant for all words. This empirical finding is now known as Zipf's law. In general English text, the most frequent word is "THE", followed **by** "OF', and **"AND".** Zipf's law implies that the frequency of "THE" is approximately twice the frequency of "OF' or three times of the frequency of **"AND".** We see similar findings in our data set as presented and discussed in Appendix **C.**

### **2.2 Complexity Measurement**

**A** closely related problem to diversity measurement is complexity measurement. One could argue, for example, that the complex email content implies greater content diversity. However, the veracity of this claim is empirical **by** nature. One measurement of complexity is the Kolmogorov complexity, also known as descriptive complexity (Li **&** Vitinyi, **1997).** It states that the complexity of an object is a measure of the resources needed to specify that object. For example, the number **"1,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000"** can be described as **"10^30"** which is less complex than a number like *"1,492,568,437,509,452,545,761,347,489"* which is not easily described **by** any short description. With this logic, a good descriptive representation of email contents can be used as diversity measurement. However, we currently lack the model for the representation, so we will not apply Komogorov complexity in this study.

#### **2.3 Data Clustering**

One way to categorize information into manageable categories is to apply data clustering to the information. In the vector space model, the contents of documents are represented as feature vectors, and thus can be clustered into groups or categories. **A** common and efficient method of data clustering is called iterative clustering. This method produces clusters **by** optimizing an objective function defined either locally or globally **by** iteratively improving the result of the objective function. The most common objective function is the mean squared distance function. One of the most commonly known iterative clustering algorithms is the k-means clustering algorithm. The k-means algorithm is based on the relocation of documents between **k** clusters in order to locally optimize the mean squared distance function. The main concept of the k-means algorithm is as follows:

- **1.** Divide documents into **k** clusters **by** a random initialization, and compute the centers of all clusters.
- 2. Reassign each document to the cluster whose center is the closest to the document.
- **3.** Re-compute the cluster centers using the current assignment of documents.
- 4. **If** the stopping criterion is not met, go to step 2.

The typical stopping criteria are that there is no change in the assignment of documents to clusters or that the value of the objective functions falls below a pre-defined threshold. Once there is no document re-assignment, the algorithm has reached a local optimum of the objective function. The performance of the clustering is not easy to evaluate because the **k**means algorithm is very sensitive to the initialization. **If** the initial assignment has not been properly chosen, the resulting clusters will converge toward a suboptimal local optimum (Duda **&** Hart, **1973).**

This study utilizes output from a clustering algorithm called eClassifer, which was used in a previous stage of our study to classify topics in our email corpus. eClassifier is developed **by** IBM Almaden Research Center to be a semi-automatic tool for clustering unstructured documents such as problem ticket logs from a computer helpdesk. It uses the vector space model **by** constructing feature vectors from the documents **by** analyzing term frequencies with the use of a stop-word list, include-word list, synonym list, and stock-phrase list. The resulting terms are then examined **by** the user, and any modification can be made in order to guarantee the quality of the keywords. Once the feature vectors are constructed, the software applies a k-means clustering algorithm to cluster the documents. In order to solve the weakness of the k-means algorithm converging to local optimum, the user can reassign documents from the resulting assignment. The user can also merge clusters together or split a cluster into many smaller clusters. The k-means algorithm can then be applied in order to achieve a better assignment. eClassifier depends on some user interventions along every small step to overcome the weakness of the common automated algorithms used in clustering.

### **3. Background and Data**

#### **3.1 Background**

The data used in this study is collected from a medium-sized executive recruiting firm over five years (Aral et al., **2006).** The firm is headquartered in a large mid-western city and has thirteen regional offices in the United States. It consists of employees occupying one of the three basic positions **-** partner, consultant, and researcher. While the projects of the firm vary in details and complexities, they have a similar goal **-** to find and deliver suitable candidates with specific qualifications for upper-level executive positions requested **by** clients. The process of selection follows a standard guideline. **A** partner secures a contract with a client and assembles a team to work on the project. The team size ranges from one to five employees with the average team size of two, and the assignments are based on the availabilities of the employees. The project team identifies potential candidates based on the requested positions and specifications, and ranks them **by** their match with the **job** description. Based on the initial research, the team conducts internal interviews with potential candidates. After detailed evaluations, the team presents the final list of approximately six qualified candidates to the client along with detail background information. The client can then interview the candidates and make offers to one or more candidates if satisfied. In each project, the client has specific requirements about the skills and abilities of the candidates. In order to complete a contract, the search team must be able to present candidates who meet the minimum requirements of the client, and the candidate quality should satisfy the client.

The executive search process requires a significant amount of researching, and it is likely to involve a lot of information about the specific position and the qualifications of the potential candidates. Team members acquire information about potential candidates from various sources such as the firm's internal proprietary database of resumes, external proprietary databases, other employees in the firm, and other public sources of information. The team relies on the gathered information in order to make decisions during the process. The information exchanges within the firm also pay a significant role in helping search teams locate potential candidates that match the client's need.

### **3.2 Data**

#### **3.2.1 Email Data Set**

We have acquired four data sets related to the operation of the firm **-** three data sets from the firm and one from outside the firm. The first data set is detailed internal accounting records regarding revenues, costs, contracts, project duration and composition, positions of the employees, etc. This data was collected during over five years of operation and included more than **1,300** projects. The second data set is the survey responses about information seeking behaviors such as experience, education, and time allocation. Due to the incentive for completing the survey, participation exceeded **85%.** This information helps us establish the backgrounds of the employees. The third data set is a complete email history captured from the corporate mail server during the period from August 2002 to February 2004. The fourth data set is various independent controls for placement cities. This information allows normalization for the differences in the natures of different projects.

The data set that we are interested in for this thesis is the captured emails. The email data set consists of **603,871** emails that are sent and received **by** the participating employees of the firm. The contents of the emails are hashed to allow further studies of the email contents while preserving the privacy of the firm and the employees. Prior to the content hashing, a study has been conducted to perform data clustering on the contents of the emails into multiple groups that we will call "buckets" **by** using eClassifier. Since the clustering is performed on the original emails while the real contents can be verified, the bucket information is evaluated **by** human observers of the classification process and is therefore likely to be quite accurate. Due to time limitations clustering was performed on a large subset of the data, and therefore **118,185** of the **603,871** total emails contain bucket information. The further detail of the email data set is described in Appendix B, and the full description of the whole data set is discussed **by** Aral et al. **(2006).**

#### **3.2.2 Wikipedia.org Data Set**

In order to conduct a sensible evaluation of our diversity measurements, we need to establish a systematic test that is amenable to verification. However, due to privacy protection, the contents of the emails in the email data set are encrypted. Since we do not have access to the readable contents, we are unable to directly evaluate the accuracy of the diversity

measurements on readable content in the email data set itself. Therefore we validate our diversity measurement methodology **by** acquiring and testing our approach on another data set with readable contents **-** a collection of **291** articles from Wikipedia.org. Conveniently, the articles have been categorized in a hierarchical tree-like category structure with three major categories and **25** subcategories. As with most encyclopedic corpuses, this type of structure groups documents or entries in successively more detailed sub-categorizations. For example, a given Meta topic may catalogue documents on "Computers," subcategorized into topics such as "Computer Hardware," "Computer Software, and "Computer Peripherals" etc. This hierarchical structure enables us to compile groups of documents selected ex ante to contain either relatively similar topics or relatively dissimilar topics from diverse fields. For example, one grouping may contain articles from computing, biology, painting, and sports while another grouping contains the same number of articles from computing alone. We can then apply our diversity measurement methodology to the data and see whether our measures reliably characterize the relative diversity of the information contained in groups of documents that have been chosen ex ante as either 'diverse' or 'focused.' The detail of the Wikipedia.org data set appears in Appendix **A.**

#### **3.2.3 Results from eClassifier**

The setting for eClassifier output used in this study is to apply semi-automated clustering several times on the same set of emails using different numbers of resulting clusters. Specifically, the clustering is applied **11** times with the following numbers of clusters: 2, **3,** 4, **5, 8, 16,** 20, 21, **50, 100,** and 200. Figure **1** demonstrates the results of the clustering. The results form a hierarchy-like structure as we may expect from a manual division of the emails based on content into categories and subcategories. However, all clustering is performed on the whole set of emails, not on individual clusters from the previous clustering, so the emails in a cluster are not derived solely from a single cluster in the previous clustering. Therefore, we are unable to assume that the clusters form a perfectly hierarchical tree structure.



Figure **1: A** hierarchical structure of the clustering results

# **4. Methods**

### **4.1 Data Processing**

The Email data set contains over six hundred thousand emails. However, there exist some duplicated emails with the same sender, recipients, timestamp, and content. The duplicated emails sometimes possess different unique identification numbers, so they are identified as being different in the data set. We eliminated the duplicated emails **by** removing emails with duplicated sender, recipients, and timestamp. Additionally, there are duplicated emails that are not entirely the same. One email may have fewer recipients than another email, but the sender, timestamp, and the content are the same as shown in Figure 2. Only one copy of these duplicated emails is included in the analysis. In order to achieve this objective, emails with same sender and timestamp as other emails and with the list of the recipients that is a subset of the list of the recipients of the other emails are removed. This method allows us to include only one copy of the duplicated email, which we choose as the copy which includes all the recipients. Out of **603,871** emails, there are *521,316* non-duplicated emails using this method of removing duplicates. Out of **118,185** emails with bucket information, there are **110,979** non-duplicated emails.





Figure 2: Duplicated emails in the email data set. Recipient initials have been changed to protect privacy.

The entire email data set includes both internal and external emails. **A** good number of external emails include mass emails sent **by** newsgroups or other sources, which may not be relevant to our analysis. However, the information from external sources may be important to the workers. Therefore, we would like to study the effect of including or excluding external emails in our analysis. For simplicity, we define internal emails to be emails sent **by** a person in the firm and the recipients of the emails include at least one person in the firm. Out of the **521,316** non-duplicated emails, there are 59,294 internal emails, and, out of the **110,979** non-duplicated emails with bucket information, there are **20,252** internal emails.

The emails in the email data set have been captured from the firm email server during the period between August 2002 and February 2004. However, a failure in the data capture procedure during a particular time period created some months during which statistically significantly fewer emails were captured than the periods of "normal" traffic. We suspect that the period with low numbers of emails is caused **by** a failure of the firm's email server which was reported to us during data collection. In order to reduce the effect of this problem, the emails during the period are excluded from the analysis. We therefore use emails collected during the period between 1 October 2002 and **3** March **2003** and between **1** October **2003** and **10** February 2004. During that period, there are 452,500 non-duplicated emails and 45,217 non-duplicated internal emails. Figure **3** shows the number of emails **by** month during our study period.



(a) Non-duplicated emails



**(b)** Non-duplicated internal emails

Figure **3:** The number of emails **by** months

### **4.2 Topic Model and Feature Vector Creation**

In this study, we represent the contents of documents using a Vector Space Model. Each document is represented **by** a multi-dimensional vector whose elements are the frequencies of the words in the document. We will call such a vector the "feature vector" of a given email or document. The number of dimensions is based on the number of keywords that we decide to select for representing the content of the email corpus. The common linguistic method for selecting keywords is to create a list of "stop-words," which are the words that are not to be included as keywords. The stop-word list usually contains common words such as **"IS", "AM",** "ARE", "THE", **"AND",** and so on. The construction of the stop-word list is likely time-consuming, and the performance is still unknown for each data set. Moreover, it is not applicable to our email data set because the data set only contains hashed words. Without the original words, the construction of the stop-word list is impossible. Therefore, we need a systematic approach for selecting keywords, which will be described in the next section. Once we construct feature vectors, the contents of the documents can be compared **by** using document similarity metrics such as cosine similarity and information theoretic measures such as entropy and information content.

As the contents of documents are modeled **by** the directions of feature vectors in ndimensional space, topics can be modeled as probability distributions of the frequencies of the words that appear in documents in the topics. For example, one can sensibly mention that there is 20 percent chance that a word **A** appears with the frequency between **0.001** and 0.002 in a random document in topic B. The probability distributions of the frequency of a word in different topics are demonstrated in Figure 4. The probability distributions of all words in a topic are used to represent the content of that topic. We assume that the probability distribution of the frequency of a word has a unique mean for each topic. For example, in documents on the general topic of "Artificial Intelligence," the word **"DOG"** may have a mean frequency of **0.0001,** which means that in an average document about artificial intelligence, there is likely to be one use of the word **"DOG"** out of **10,000** words. **By** using this topic model, we will develop a method to select keywords in the next section.



Figure 4: Modeled probability distribution of the frequency of a word in documents pertaining to different topics.

### **4.3 Keyword Selection**

In order to construct feature vectors for each data set, we need to identify a set of keywords. The frequencies of the keywords in a document are then used as the elements of the feature

vector, which becomes a representation of the content of that document. Later, we will use the feature vectors to measure the diversity of the content of the associated documents.

One way to select keywords is to pick random words. However, **by** doing so, we may select mostly words that rarely occur in any documents that we are interested in. The elements of the resulting feature vectors would be mostly zero. In the extreme case, the keywords may not appear in any documents. The feature vectors would be all zero, and they would no longer be able to represent the content of the documents. In order to prevent this outcome, we require that the keywords that we select have at least moderate number of occurrences.

On the other hand, there are words that occur regularly but do not contribute to the content of the documents. For example, the word "THE" usually occurs several times in any document. **If** such words are used as keywords, the directions of the feature vectors will be biased toward the dimensions associated with the common words due to their usually high frequencies. Thus the inclusion of common words could hinder the ability of the feature vectors to represent the content of the documents. Therefore, common words should not be included as keywords.

Similar to common words, there may be words that happen to occur with relatively uniform frequencies across all documents in the data set. These words effectively cause the same problem as common words, and should be excluded from the set of keywords.

In summary, we require that keywords have the following properties in order to prevent us from selecting words that make it difficult for the feature vectors created to represent the content of the documents in the data set:

- **- A** keyword should occur at least moderately often in the data set.
- **- A** keyword should not be a common word. For example, the word "THE" should not be a keyword.
- **- A** keyword should not occur similarly often in all topics or documents. The differences in the frequencies of keywords enable us to distinguish the contents of the documents.

Since the email data set contains hashed contents, we are unable to select keywords based on human appraisal. We therefore utilize the classification data that we have obtained from

eClassifier in order to select keywords that possess the properties that we desire. Similarly, in the Wikipedia.org data set, we use the category information to select the keywords.

From our topic model, a topic is represented **by** a probability distribution of words. In order to determine whether a word is suitable to be a keyword, we consider the word's distribution across all the topics that we are interested in. In a topic that the word appears often, the probability distribution of the word is modeled as shown in Figure *5(a),* as opposed to a probability distribution of the word in a topic that it appears less often as shown in Figure *5(b).* Without any context, we model that an article has a fixed probability, *Pr[topic],* to be of a certain topic. **By** using Bayes's rule:

 $f(x) = Pr[topicA] \cdot f(x | topicA) + Pr[topicB] \cdot f(x | topicB) + ...,$  the probability distribution of the word across multiple topics  $f(x)$  is a linear combination of the probability distributions of the word in the topics  $f(x | topic)$ . The combined probability distribution is shown in Figure *5(c).*



Figure *5:* **A** model of probability distribution of a word in multiple topics

In order to construct feature vectors that successfully represent the content of the documents, keywords should have distinguishable probability distributions across topics as shown in Figure 6(a), as opposed to common words that are likely to appear in all topics with similar frequencies as shown in Figure **6(b).** Figure 6(a) shows a probability distribution of a word across multiple topics, which is a linear combination of the separated probability distributions of the word in those topics. Many peaks at various frequencies imply that the word is likely to occur with different frequencies across different topics. On the other hand, the peaks of the distribution in Figure **6(b)** are at similar frequencies, implying that the word is likely to occur with similar frequency across different topics. Therefore, the word in Figure 6(a) is more suitable to be a keyword because it enables us to *distinguish* the content **of** topics.



Figure **6:** Probability distributions of keywords and non-keywords

In reality, we do not know the actual probability distributions of words. To approximate the probability distribution of a word, we evaluate the frequencies of the word in all buckets and use the values of the frequencies to estimate the mean frequencies of the word in the buckets or topics. We expect the dispersion of the mean frequencies across topics to be high in

keywords. In our study, we find the coefficient of variation (the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean) of the mean frequencies across topics to be a good indicator of this dispersion. **A** desirable property of the coefficient of variation is that it compensates for the effect of the mean value on the dispersion. Because of this property of scale-invariance, many studies have used the coefficient of variation to provide measures of dispersion that are comparable across multiple data sets with heterogeneous mean values (Allison, **1978,** Pfeffer **&** O'Reilly, **1987,** Ancona **&** Caldwell, **1992).** In Appendix **C,** we will see that variance does not have this property and is not suitable for measuring the dispersion for keyword selection. We define this inter-topic frequency deviation to be the value of variance over mean squared (which is the square of the coefficient of variation) as follows:

$$
\text{Dinter} = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{b \in buckets} (m_b - M)^2
$$

The main reason for using the squared value is to reduce unnecessary computation. We are only interested in the ranking of words based on the coefficient of variation, which is the same as the ranking based on Dinter due to the fact that the square function is monotonic. More detailed information about the threshold and the keyword selection process can be found in Appendix **C.**

The downside of the coefficient of variation is that its value can be unreasonably high when the mean frequency is low, which is likely the case for most of the words in our study. For example, the coefficient of variation of a word that occurs only once in a topic and nowhere else is going to be as high as the coefficient of variation of another word that occurs a hundred times uniformly in a topic and never occurs in other topics. We do not wish to select the words with extremely low frequencies because such words are not likely to successfully represent the content of any entire topics. Unfortunately, words with low frequencies are likely to have high coefficient of variation because of the division **by** the square of the frequencies. In order to solve this problem, instead of selecting words based only on high coefficient of variation, we eliminate words with low coefficient of variation, and then select words with high frequencies in equal numbers from all topics.

Additionally, we need to confirm that the words, which possess varying frequencies across topics, actually distinguish the topics **by** having uniform frequencies across documents within topics. For example, a word like **"GOAL"** is likely to have uniform frequencies in topic

**"SOCCER"** because it is likely to appear in a relatively large number of documents about soccer. However, there are words that are unique to documents. Even though they seem to appear frequently in a topic, they only appear often in a few specific documents in the topic. For example, a name of a person may appear regularly in his biography, but it may not appear in any other documents of the same topic. These words are not suitable for representing the content of topics. Therefore, we define an intra-topic frequency deviation for each word as follows:

Dintra = 
$$
\frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{b \in buckets} \sum_{d \in b} (f_d - m_b)^2
$$

In order to be a keyword, a word needs to have high inter-topic frequency deviation and low intra-topic frequency deviation. We decide to select keywords using inter-topic deviations and frequencies as mentioned before, and we eliminate the remaining words with high intratopic deviations as described in details in Appendix **C.** We find that the keywords selected **by** this method represent and distinguish all the topics well. We present evidence of the ability of this method to represent and distinguish all topics or categories in the Wikipedia.org Data Set in Section **5.1.**

To evaluate whether a set of keywords represents the data set and whether it is able to distinguish the contents of topics, we define:

$$
CosDist(A, B) = 1 - CosSim(A, B) = 1 - cos(angle_b, B) = 1 - cos(angle_b, B)
$$
  
Adhesion of a bucket B = min<sub>bebuckets-B</sub> {CosDist(m<sub>b</sub>, m<sub>B</sub>)}

Inverse Cohesion (InvCohesion) of a bucket  $B = average\{CosDist(v_d, m_B)$ 



Figure **7:** Adhesion and inverse cohesion

#### Adhesion:

Adhesion measures the distance from a specific bucket to its closest bucket based on the cosine distances between the means of the buckets' feature vectors. High adhesion indicates that the bucket is different (distinguishable) from other buckets, which is a desirable property for a good set of keywords chosen to distinguish topics.

#### Cohesion:

Cohesion **(1 -** InvCohesion) is the average of cosine similarities between every feature vector in the bucket and the mean of the bucket. It measures the similarity of the contents of the documents in bucket as represented **by** the feature vectors. High cohesion indicates that the documents have similar contents and shows that the mean of the feature vectors in the bucket is a good representative of the collective content of the bucket. On the other hand, inverse cohesion is the average of cosine distances from each vector to the mean of the bucket. It can be used interchangeably with cohesion as the indicator for the similarity of the contents of the documents within a bucket or a topic. The difference is that low inverse cohesion is desirable. We decide to use inverse cohesion instead of cohesion because both adhesion and inverse cohesion are measurements of distances separating content, so they are more comparable than adhesion and cohesion.

In summary, high average adhesion of buckets indicates that the set of keywords produces feature vectors that are able to distinguish buckets or topics. However, to be certain of the property, low average inverse cohesion of buckets is needed to confirm the uniformity of the contents within buckets.

### **4.4 Diversity Metrics**

#### **4.4.1 Feature-vector-based Diversity Metrics**

When properly constructed, feature vectors provide accurate representations of the contents of documents. Many well-known metrics, for example, cosine similarity and Dice's coefficient, measure the similarity of documents based on their feature vectors. These pairwise similarity metrics can be used to derive diversity metrics for document sets.

#### **Cosine Deviation from Mean**

The main idea of this metric is to derive **a** measure of diversity **by** aggregating cosine distances. In order to measure the deviation of the feature vectors, we explore the concept of variance, which is a well-known measurement for deviation in a data set. As the first diversity metric, we use the variance of feature vectors based on cosine distances to represent diversity. The mean vector is the average of all feature vectors, and the variance is computed **by** averaging the square distances from every feature vector in the document set to the mean vector.

 $MeanDistCos(d) = CosDist(d, M)$ 

$$
VarCos = \frac{1}{number\_of\_ documents} \sum_{d \in documents} (MeanDistCos(d))^2
$$

Figure **8** demonstrates the distances from the feature vectors to the mean vector. The VarCos value is the average of the square of the distances.



Figure **8:** Variance of Cosine Distances

#### **Dice's Coefficient Deviation from Mean**

Dice's coefficient is another metric for measuring similarity between two feature vectors. Similar to cosine distance, the variance of feature vectors based on Dice's coefficient distances represents the diversity of the document set.

$$
MeanDistDice(d) = DiceDist(d, M) = 1 - DiceCoeff(d, M)
$$

$$
VarDice = \frac{1}{number\_of\_ documents} \sum_{d \in documents} (MeanDistDice(d))^2
$$

The results from vector-based diversity metrics will be compared to evaluate the relative performance of different distance metrics for our purposes. Additionally, the results will be compared against the results from the bucket-information-based diversity metrics defined below in order to evaluate how the results based on different concepts perform. The goal is to derive a set of metrics that measures the diversity of content in employees email.

#### **4.4.2 Bucket-information-based Diversity Metrics**

Feature vectors are not the only method **by** which we can derive diversity metrics. The information available in the eClassifier data enables additional methods for capturing content diversity. **By** using multiple methods for measuring diversity, we can establish the robustness of our measurement **by** comparing diversity measures produced **by** various measures. The feature vectors generated **by** keywords are used to construct distance based

diversity metrics and they also provide additional information regarding the contents of individual documents. However it could be that feature vector based diversity metrics may also introduce additional errors. In order to test and address this issue, the feature-vectorbased diversity metrics will be compared against diversity metrics derived entirely or mostly based on eClassifier bucket information.

#### **Average Common Bucket**

The Average Common Bucket diversity metric is derived from the basic idea that two documents classified into the same eClassifier bucket are likely to be more similar to each other than two documents not classified into the same bucket. This assumption can be incorrect if there exist two buckets that contain documents with similar contents and another bucket that contains documents with comparatively diverse contents. However, in general, the assumption will hold. To control for the potential bias created **by** different levels of diversity within buckets, we also utilize an Average Common Bucket measure of diversity that takes the 'information content' of the buckets into consideration (this metric is described in the next section). For every two documents, the Common Bucket Similarity is defined to be the number of levels that **DI** and **D2** are in the same bucket over the total number of levels.

$$
CommonSim(D_1, D_2) = \frac{number\_of\_levels\_in\_same\_bucket}{total\_number\_of\_bucket\_levels}
$$

On the other hand, the Common Bucket Distance is the number of levels that **DI** and **D2** are in the different buckets over the total number of levels.

$$
CommonDist(D_1, D_2) = 1 - CommonSim(D_1, D_2)
$$

The Average Common Bucket diversity metric is defined to be the average of the Common Bucket Distances between every two documents in the document set.

$$
AvgCommon = average \{CommonDist(d_1, d_2)\}\
$$

This metric represents the average difference in the contents of two documents in the document set based on the Common Bucket Distance.

#### **Average Common Bucket with Information Content**

The Average Common Bucket diversity metric assumes that the amount of information conveyed **by** the fact that two documents reside in the same bucket is the same for all buckets in all levels. However, this assumption is unlikely to hold true. For example, documents related to animals may contain more diverse contents than documents related to dogs. Different levels of diversity across different buckets will bias the results of bucketinformation-based diversity metrics that assume that a pair of documents in a given bucket is as similar (to each other) as another pair of documents in another bucket. In order to correct for this potential bias, we consider the 'information content' of the buckets. The information content, usually represented **by** the log value of the probability of a concept, allows us to evaluate the amount of information conveyed **by** the coexistence of documents in a specific bucket. The idea of the information content can be combined with Common Bucket Similarity **by** defining the Common Bucket Similarity with Information Content to be the normalized sum of the information content of all bucket levels, in which the two documents share the same bucket.

$$
CommonICSim(D_1, D_2) = \frac{1}{\log(\frac{1}{\|all\_documents\|})} \cdot \frac{\sum_{D_1, D_2 in \_same\_bucket} \log(\frac{\|documents\_in\_the\_bucket\|}{\|all\_documents\|})}{total\_number\_of\_bucket\_levels}
$$

We also define:

$$
CommonICDist(D_1, D_2) = 1 - CommonICSim(D_1, D_2)
$$

Similar to the previous metric, the Average Common Bucket diversity metric with Information Content is defined to be the average of the Common Bucket Distance with Information Content between every two documents in the document set.

$$
AvgCommonIC = average \{CommonICDist(d_1, d_2)\}\
$$

$$
d_1, d_2 \in documents
$$

The potential problem with the implementation of this metric is that the information content **[IC** *=* log(p)] is theoretically ranged from **0** to infinity. However, we would like the diversity measurement to range from **0** to **1.** Our attempt to normalize the information content **by** dividing **by** the minimum possible value log(l/#total docs) which is comparatively larger than the information contents for most buckets, resulting in small similarity measurements

and close-to-one diversity measurements. Fortunately, the actual numerical values are not important in our application. The comparisons to other metrics will determine whether this metric performs well in ranking the diversity.

#### **Average Bucket Distance**

The idea of this metric is built upon the idea of the Average Common Bucket metric. The Average Common Bucket assumes that two documents are alike (with the distance of **0)** only when they are in the same bucket. Otherwise, they have the distance of **1** no matter which buckets they reside in. However, more information can be drawn from the fact that the contents of every two buckets or topics are not completely different. The contents in two buckets can be more similar than the contents of other two buckets. In this metric, the level of similarity or dissimilarity between buckets is measured **by** the cosine distance between the mean vectors of the buckets.

$$
BucketDist(B_1, B_2) = CosDist(m_{B_1}, m_{B_2})
$$

In the document level, the average of the bucket distances across all levels of buckets represents the dissimilarity between two documents:

$$
DocBucketDist(D_1, D_2) = \frac{1}{\left\| bucket\_{levels}\right\|} \cdot \sum_{\substack{iebucket\_levels}} (BucketDist(B_{level=i, D_1}, B_{level=i, D_2}))
$$

Similar to other average metric, we average the document distances for every two documents in the document set to measure diversity of the document set:

$$
AvgBucDiff = average \{DocBucDist(d_1, d_2)\}\
$$

This metric provides an alternative extension to the Average Common Bucket metric. Compared to the AvgCommonIC, AvgBucDiff captures the idea that two documents in different buckets are not entirely dissimilar instead of the information content. The results from the three bucket-information-based metrics will be compared in later sections.





Figure **9:** Summary of diversity metrics

### **4.5 Triplet Test on Wikipedia.org Data Set**

We construct the Wikipedia.org data set so that we are able to evaluate the diversity metrics against the pre-classified documents. In order to utilize the structure of the categories, we construct test cases, each of which contains three documents from various combinations of categories. There are ten distinct configurations of categories for three-document test cases as show in Figure **10.**



Figure **10: All** ten distinct category configurations for three-document test cases

The numbers associated with the configurations are called "configuration types" or "types." The configurations are numbered in the order of our estimation of their diversity. **By** selecting documents from the same subcategories of the hierarchy of topics we aim create a cluster of documents with low diversity (Type **0). By** selecting documents from maximally different subcategories, we aim create a cluster of documents with high content diversity (Type **9).** As the topic hierarchy is defined a priori to group like documents, we can use these clusters to test whether our diversity metrics can accurately describe the diversity of clusters

that are created to either be maximally diverse or minimally diverse. The order is loosely defined because in some cases, the order of diversity is not obvious. For example, type-5 and type-6 configurations cannot be trivially ranked. Type-5 configuration contains documents that are in different second-level categories. Even though type-6 configuration contains a document that is in a different first level category, the other two documents are in the same category in all levels. Nevertheless, it is unquestionable that the type-9 configuration is likely to be much more diverse than the type-0 configuration. The order of the configuration types will be used as a reference to evaluate the performance of diversity metrics.

To implement this evaluation, we generate all combinations of three documents as test cases. For each test case of three documents, we compute the diversity scores for the test case. Eventually, we compute the average of the diversity scores of the test cases for each configuration type. We call this test, the triplet test. Upon obtaining the average diversity scores for all configuration types, we use the correlations between diversity scores and configuration types to show the performance of diversity metrics. The correlations of diversity scores across diversity metrics indicate the relationships between diversity metrics. We will show and interpret the results in later sections.

We also explore the effect of the number of emails in test cases. The three-document test cases are restrictive, so we implement a test, which we call the extended triplet test. The extended triplet test mimics the process of the triplet test. The difference is that each configuration branch represents multiple documents instead of one document. For example, if a branch represents two documents, the number of documents in the test case becomes six. This method increases the number of documents, while preserving the configuration types. To implement the extended triplet test, we are unable to compute the average of all combinations of documents because the number of combinations grows exponentially, so we restrict the computation **by** limiting the number of combinations for each configuration.

# **5. Results**

### **5.1 Results from Wikipedia.org Data Set**

### **5.1.1 Keyword Selection on Wikipedia.org Data Set**

Ideally, words with common roots should be grouped together. For example, all tenses of a verb or single and plural forms of a noun should not be considered as separated words. However, to simplify this process, we decide to remove the letter **"S"** at the end of all words to eliminate the common noun single-plural-form indicator with the assumption that the keywords are likely to be nouns that indicate specific objects. Using this method, we list all words and compute the frequencies and deviations of frequencies for every word.

Out of 15,349 distinct words in the **291** Wikipedia articles, we decide to select approximately 400 words to use as keywords. **By** choosing different thresholds of the inter-topic frequency deviations, the resulting cohesion-adhesion measurements are shown in Figure **11.** We notice a significant improvement in adhesion at a very low threshold, and the adhesion improves at a diminishing rate as the threshold increases. Inverse cohesion also increases, but it increases at a lower rate than adhesion. We find that the initial increase in both adhesion and inverse cohesion results from the exclusion of the words "THE" and **"AND",** which are the two most frequent words in the data set. **By** including the two words, the feature vectors are inclined toward the two dimensions represented **by** the two words, and thus cluster more closely than they should.



Figure **11:** Inverse cohesion and adhesion across multiple thresholds in Wikipedia.org data set

Adhesion and inverse cohesion increase at a diminishing rate. We use the threshold where they start to remain unchanged. In order to study the effect of using different thresholds on diversity rankings, we select keywords **by** using three different thresholds, and find the correlations between scores generated from our diversity metrics. The result in Figure 12 shows that different thresholds within a suitable range of thresholds create **highly** correlated diversity results and therefore do not have a significant effect on the diversity rankings.

Correlation - Cutoff	<b>VarCos</b>	<b>VarDice</b>	<b>AvgCommon</b>	<b>AvgCommonIC</b>	<b>AvgBucDiff</b>
14000-13000	0.9960	0.9968	0.9920	0.9974	0.9914
14000-14500	0.9972	0.9976	0.9926	0.9906	0.9879
13000-14500	0.9961	0.9960	0.9914	0.9950	0.9891

Figure 12: Correlations of diversity scores from different set of keywords generated **by** three different thresholds: the numbers of words that pass the thresholds are **13000,** 14000, and 14500 words

Upon examination, the keywords selected **by** this method are words that exemplify different topics. Examples are shown in Figure **13.**



Figure **13:** Examples of keywords from Wikipedia.org data set

The keyword selection for Wikipedia.org data set is described in details in Appendix **C.**

#### **5.1.2 Triplet Test on Wikipedia.org Data Set**

The diversity scores derived from our metrics are computed on many combinations of documents from the Wikipedia.org data set. Since the diversity scores are to be compared with the configuration types, which are directly derived from the category structure, we decide against using category information directly as bucket information for the bucketinformation-based diversity metrics. Instead, the bucket information is generated **by** performing K-Means clustering on the feature vectors. The averages of the diversity scores grouped **by** configuration types are shown in Figure 14.


Figure 14: Averages of diversity scores grouped **by** configuration types

The chart in Figure 14 shows that all diversity metrics behave similarly. However, an unexpected result is that the average diversity score of type-5 configuration is approximately as high as type-9 configuration. The type-5 configuration contains three documents which are in the same main category but are all in different second-level categories. The type-9 configuration contains three documents that are all in different main categories. Ideally, we predict that type-9 configuration should possess higher average diversity score than type-5 configuration. However, the result contradicts this prediction. We explain the result **by** assuming that in this Wikipedia.org data set, the main categories contain so **highly** diverse contents that the dissimilarities between documents in the same main category may be close to the dissimilarities of documents across main categories. For example, in the "Technology" main category, documents in Robotics are dissimilar to documents in Video and Movie Technology, while those documents may contain similarities with documents in the Computer Science main category. **If** this assumption is true, the main categories will have little effect toward diversity scores. Therefore, type-3 and type-6 configurations should have similar scores. Type-4 and type-7 configurations should have similar scores, and so should

type-5, type-8 and type-9 configurations. The results demonstrate that these similarities and dissimilarities exist, giving us confidence on our explanation.

Despite the unexpected shape of the chart in Figure 14 caused **by** the diverse contents of the main categories, we notice increasing diversity from type-0 to type-5 and from type-6 to type **8** in the bucket-information-based diversity scores as we expect. The assumption that the main categories contain diverse contents explains the decrease in diversity scores from type-5 to type-6 and the similar scores between type-3 and type-6, between type-4 and type-7, and between type-5, type-8, and type-9 in all diversity metrics. We also find decreases in the feature-vector-based diversity scores from type-2 to type-3. This result can be explained **by** the fact that the comparison of the diversity of type-2 and type-3 configurations is not trivial. The type-3 configuration contains three documents in the same second-level category, but all three documents are in different third-level categories. The type-2 configuration contains two documents in the same third-level category and the other document in a different secondlevel category from the first two documents as shown in Figure **10.** The diversity ranking of type-2 and type-3 depends on the difference of the contents of documents across the thirdlevel categories. **If** the difference is small compared to the difference of contents across the second-level categories, the type-2 configuration is likely to possess a lower diversity score because all three documents are in the same second-level category. **If** the differences are comparable, the fact that two documents in type-3 share the same third-level category causes type-3 to possess a lower diversity score. Therefore, it is not surprising that different diversity metrics rank the diversity of type-2 and type-3 in different orders.

Figure **15** shows high correlations of diversity scores derived from our diversity metrics. They confirm that the diversity metrics behave similarly. Despite the unexpected result above, we still achieve high correlations between diversity scores and the configuration types.

<b>Correlations</b>	<b>VarCos</b>	<b>VarDice</b>	<b>AvgCommon</b>	AvgCommonIC	<b>AvgBucDiff</b>
<b>VarCos</b>	1.0000				
<b>VarDice</b>	0.9999	1.0000			
AvgCommon	0.9855	0.9845	1.0000		
AvgCommonIC	0.9943	0.9937	0.9973	1.0000	
<b>AvgBucDiff</b>	0.9790	0.9778	0.9993	0.9939	1.0000
<b>Type</b>	0.8292	0.8307	0.8539	0.8339	0.8609

Figure **15:** Correlations of diversity scores across multiple metrics

In the extended triplet test, we compute average diversity scores of 6-document document sets and 9-document document sets grouped **by** configuration types. Figure **16** shows high correlations across different sizes of document sets, indicating that the increasing size does not affect the performance of diversity rankings. Figure **17** confirms that the diversity scores behave similarly. The diversity scores increase at a diminishing rate as the number of documents increases. The property is intuitive because the increase in the number of the documents introduces additional dissimilarities to the document set, and the effect is weaker as the number of documents increases.



Figure **16:** Correlations of diversity scores across multiple sizes of document sets



Figure **17:** VarCos scores vs configuration types across multiple sizes of document sets

The chart in Figure **17** indicates a similar trend across multiple sizes of document sets used to compute diversity scores. The overall shape can be explained **by** the **highly** diverse contents of the main categories in our Wikipedia.org data set. We also notice that the VarCos metric indicates that type-2 configuration is more diverse than type-3 configuration in all sizes of the document sets, similar to the previous results from the feature-vector-based diversity metrics.

In summary, our diversity metrics are shown to behave similarly in every situation we have encountered. Despite some unexpected outcome, they still correlate well with our manuallyassigned configuration types. They also demonstrate an expected behavior as the number of documents in the document set increases. The triplet test and the Wikipedia.org data set have shown that our diversity metrics are appropriate measurements for diversity.

### **5.2 Results on Email Data Set**

#### **5.2.1 Keyword Selection on Email Data Set**

While the Wikipedia.org data set contains category information, the email data set contains bucket information from the eClassifier output. The difference is that the email data set does not contain the bucket information for all emails. According to our findings, there are **110,979** non-duplicated emails (BucSetAll) with bucket information, out of which, **20,252** emails are internal emails (BucSetInt). The larger set of emails is likely to be a better set to use for selecting keywords, but it is possible that the inclusion of the external emails may deteriorate the quality of the resulting keywords. Therefore, both sets of emails are used to select different sets of keywords, and the resulting keywords are compared.

For both sets of emails, approximately **1,500** keywords are selected. Unlike in the Wikipedia.org data set, we are no longer able to generate enough keywords so that every document contains at least one keyword. Therefore, while constructing feature vectors, emails with no keywords are ignored. It should be noted however that emails differ from Wikipedia entries in that emails may be one line long and therefore not contain any keywords. Therefore the lack of keywords in emails may be an accurate description of the topic content of these emails. As the threshold increases, the number of emails without keywords increases because the use of variance over frequency squared eliminates words with high frequencies. This issue raises a concern that high thresholds may lead to keywords with very low frequencies, which are not desirable. Therefore, we only use thresholds, whose resulting keywords are able to construct feature vectors for most of the emails. Using a set of keywords, we construct feature vectors **by** using the frequencies of the keywords in the emails. We disregard emails that do not contain any keywords. The percentage of feature vectors generated from emails (the number of generated feature vectors over the total number of emails) is one of the factors that show us whether the set of keywords is sufficient to represent the content of the emails. Figure **18** shows the effect of different thresholds on inverse cohesion, adhesion, and the percentage of feature vectors constructed from emails. Expectedly, the percentage of feature vectors decreases as the threshold increases. Adhesion and inverse cohesion also increase at a diminishing rate. As before, we decide to select the threshold at the point at which adhesion and inverse cohesion start to remain unchanged.





**(b)** Keyword selection on BucSetInt

Figure **18:** Adhesion and InvCohesion during the keyword selection on email data set

In order to study the effect of including external emails for keyword selection, we use two sets of keywords generated from BucSetAll and BucSetlnt to construct feature vectors. The diversity scores of the employees are then computed from their incoming and outgoing internal emails. The correlations between the scores from the different sets of keywords are shown in Figure **19.** The scores are expectedly correlated, but the correlations are only moderate. Therefore, the inclusion of the external emails does affect the keywords selected **by** our method. The keywords selected from BucSetInt are restricted to the content of internal emails, which are more likely to contain work-related content. On the other hand, the keywords selected from BucSetAll are likely to contain some keywords that are related to additional content such as news provided **by** the inclusion of external emails. The effect of the additional content on keywords still remains to be studied.



Figure **19:** Correlations of diversity scores from different sets of keywords generated from BucSetAll and BucSetInt

The keyword selection for email data set is described in details in Appendix **D.**

#### **5.2.2 Diversity Scores on Email Data Set**

The result from Wikipedia.org data set shows that the diversity scores generated **by** our diversity metrics are relevant to the diversity that we aim to measure. Therefore, we will apply the diversity metrics on the email data set in a similar way that we did on the Wikipedia.org data set. However, only some emails have bucket information, but the bucketinformation-based diversity metrics require bucket information for all emails. In order to solve this problem, bucket information is generated for all emails. Emails with original bucket information do not require new assignments. For each bucket, a mean feature vector is computed to represent the main content of the bucket. An email without original bucket information is then assigned to the bucket whose mean vector is the closest to the feature

vector of the email. This method generates missing bucket information based on the modeled contents so that the diversity scores can be computed.

The email data set has been processed and filtered into different sets. The relevant sets are BucSetAll and BucSetInt (as defined in Section **5.2.1)** used in the keyword selection. The diversity scores of the employees are computed based on the feature vectors created from the set of 452,500 non-duplicated emails (EmSetAll), during the period in which we know the data to be robust, and the set of *45,217* non-duplicated internal emails (EmSetInt) during the same period. In order to compute the diversity scores of the employees, the contents of the emails are assigned to employees. There are multiple ways to assign the contents. The content of an email can be linked to the sender (outgoing emails: **OUT),** the recipients (incoming emails: **INC),** or both the sender and the recipients (both incoming and outgoing emails: **10).** The table in Figure 20 summarizes the different sets of emails used in this study.



Figure 20: Different sets of emails used in the computation of diversity scores

The table in Figure 21 shows the correlations of the diversity scores derived from our multiple diversity metrics. The high correlations confirm that our diversity metrics behave similarly on the email data set as we have encountered a similar result on the Wikipedia.org data set.



(a) Feature vectors generated from the keywords selected **by** BucSetInt



**(b)** Feature vectors generated from the keywords selected **by** BucSetAll

Figure 21: Correlations of diversity scores across multiple diversity metrics

The diversity scores are computed on the set of all emails (EmSetAll) and on the set of internal emails (EmSetInt). EmSetInt beneficially excludes mass emails and junk emails that usually originate from sources outside the firm. These mass emails are likely to interfere with our analysis because they are sent to many people, but they usually do not contribute important contents to the recipients. On the other hand, one may also argue that EmSetAll contains all information the workers have obtained, including the information from the external sources. Therefore, both sets of emails are used to compute diversity scores, and the scores are compared. The table in Figure 22 shows the correlations of the diversity scores on EmSetAll and EmSetInt. The positive correlations confirm that our diversity rankings still follow the same trend. However, the correlations are only moderate, showing that the inclusion of the external emails does affect the diversity scores as it does in the keyword selection. The inclusion of the external emails brings a large number of additional emails and presumably a large amount of additional content that may or may not be related to the content produced inside the firm. Therefore, it is not surprising that the inclusion of the external emails affect diversity scores of the employees due to the different levels of their exposure to external emails.



Figure 22: Correlations of diversity scores computed from all emails and only internal emails

There are many ways to model the information that the employees process through their emails. Outgoing emails are a good representative of the information that the employees deem to be important enough to pass to other people. However, in reality, an employee does not always need to send important information once he or she receives it. Therefore, the incoming emails usually capture more information arriving to the employee. However, incoming emails also contain more information that can interfere with our analysis such as junk emails and so on. To capture even more information, both incoming and outgoing emails can be used to compute diversity scores. The tables in Figure **23** show the correlations of the diversity scores computed from the above concepts.



(a) Correlations of diversity scores on EmSetInt



**(b)** Correlations of diversity scores on EmSetAll

Figure **23:** Correlations of diversity scores computed from incoming, outgoing, and both incoming and outgoing emails.

Figure 23(a) shows the correlations of scores on the internal emails (EmSetInt). The scores using both incoming and outgoing emails are **highly** correlated with the scores using only incoming emails and only outgoing emails. We believe that this effect is due to the fact that they share many emails. The scores using only incoming emails is moderately correlated with the scores using only outgoing emails. This result shows that there is a difference between the information one receives and sends.

Figure **23(b)** shows the correlations of scores on all emails (EmSetAll). It yields an interesting result that is different from the result in Figure 23(a). The scores using both incoming and outgoing emails continue to be **highly** correlated with the scores using only incoming emails due to the large number of common emails. However, the scores using both incoming and outgoing emails is only moderately correlated with the scores using only outgoing emails. We believe that this effect is due to the inclusion of a large number of external emails that are mostly incoming emails from outside sources. The contents of the additional emails are also not likely to coincide with the original outgoing emails as the scores using only incoming emails show no correlation with the scores using only outgoing emails. When the external emails are included, the decision of using incoming email and/or outgoing emails becomes increasingly influential to the resulting diversity scores.

## **6. Discussion and Conclusion**

The goal of our research is to identify and evaluate techniques for measuring the diversity of content in the email of information workers. The diversity scores derived from the measurement will be used in future productivity studies along with the results from social network analysis. In order to evaluate the diversity scores, many diversity metrics are defined based on different aspects of diversity. The metrics are evaluated against a set of articles from Wikipedia.org based on their manually assigned categories and subcategories. The results from the metrics on the Email data set are also compared. Our finding is that the rankings based on our diversity metrics follow similar trends. Also, the diversity metrics are able to successfully rank the diversity of content in selected Wikipedia.org articles.

Our topic model uses the probability distributions of the frequencies of words to represent topics. In order to represent the content of a document, we construct a feature vector based on the frequencies of keywords. Keywords need to be carefully selected so that the resulting feature vectors are able to represent the content of the associated documents well. Our method for keyword selection is based on the coefficient of variation of the mean frequencies across topics. The high correlations between the diversity scores and the manually-defined type in the triplet test on the Wikipedia.org data set in Figure **15** show that our method for keyword selection enables the automated selection of keywords that are useful in representing the contents of the documents in our data set. The high correlations in Figure **16** in the extended triplet test show that the diversity metrics provide sensible results when applied to several tests using different numbers of documents.

Our diversity metrics derived from different points of view exhibit similar results in diversity rankings as shown **by** the high correlations of the diversity scores across diversity metrics. Moreover, the diversity scores are able to predict the diversity ranking based on the manually assigned configuration types, proving that they can be used to rank diversity. The correlations of diversity scores across diversity metrics in the email data set also confirm the findings in the Wikipedia.org data set. These results satisfy our objective to find a set of diversity metrics that are developed around different aspects of diversity.

An interesting observation arising from the study is the effect of the inclusion of the external emails toward diversity rankings. The resulting diversity scores still show moderate correlations with the diversity scores computed without the external emails. However, the fact that the correlations are not high implies that the inclusion of the external emails does have an effect on both keyword selection and diversity ranking. The effect is likely due to the fact that the external emails contain a large amount of content in addition to the content of the internal emails.

Finally, this study has provided several sets of diversity scores of employees in the firm, derived from multiple diversity metrics on multiple sets of emails. Different sets of diversity scores are positively correlated, confirming the consistency of our results. The diversity scores will be studied further along with the results from social network analysis and the productivity data. The relationship between the results will provide further understanding about the effect of the different sets of emails used to compute diversity scores.

## **7. Limitations and Future Work**

Some improvements can be applied toward the method in this study to improve the quality of the keyword selection and the computation of the diversity scores. Latent Semantic Indexing applies the use of singular value decomposition **(SVD)** on the document-term matrix generated from the term frequencies in the documents in order to algorithmically determine words with similar usages (Berry, Dumais, **&** O'Brien, *1995).* Those words are then grouped together along the same dimension of the feature vectors in order to represent the same concept. Effectively, it reduces the dimensions of the feature vectors or, alternatively, increases the number of useful keywords if the number of dimensions remains the same.

Moreover, instead of using term frequencies as the elements of the feature vectors, many term weighting techniques as mentioned before can be applied. Although the effectiveness of the term weighting schemes in our application is still unknown, they are proven to be effective in document indexing in the way that they significantly increase the recall rate of the important documents (Salton **&** Buckley, **1996).**

# **Appendix A: Wikipedia.org Data Set**

The Wikipedia.org data set consists of **291** articles from Wikipedia. The articles have been categorized into three main categories, nine second-level categories, and **25** third-level categories as show in Figure 24.

Wikipedia's Categories

Figure 24: Categories of documents in Wikipedia.org data set

Articles in the Wikipedia.org data set are captured directly from Wikipedia.org in HTML format. An excerpt from an article, titled "Algorithmic learning theory" under categories: Computer science/Artificial intelligence/Machine learning, is shown in Figure **25.** The syntaxes of HTML and Wikipedia are likely to interfere with our content analysis. Moreover, there are phrases that appear in essentially all articles but do not contribute to the content of the articles; for example, the phrase "From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia" at the beginning of all articles. These issues potentially degrade the performance of our data representation. We rely on our keyword selection described in section 4.3 and Appendix **C** to identify words that are relevant to the contents of the articles, and the ones that are not relevant need to be excluded from the analysis.

Please read Wikipedia founder Jimmy Wales's personal appeal Please read Wikipedia founder Jimmy Wales's personal appeal <http://wikimediafoundation.org/wiki/Personal\_Appeal>. Algorithmic learning theory From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia. Jump to: navigation <#column-one>, search <#searchlnput> \*Algorithmic learning theory\* (or \*inductive inference\*) is a framework for machine learning </wiki/Machine\_learning>. The framework was introduced in **E.** Mark Gold </w/index.php?title=E.\_MarkGold&action=edit>'s seminal paper "Language identification in the limit </wiki/Language\_identification\_in\_the\_limit>". The objective of language identification </w/index.php?title=Language\_identification&action=edit> is for a machine running one program to be capable of developing another program **by** which any given sentence can be tested to determine whether it is "grammatical" or "ungrammatical". The language being learned need not be English </wiki/English\_language> or any other natural language </wiki/Naturallanguage> **-** in fact the definition of "grammatical" can be absolutely anything known to the tester.

Figure **25:** An excerpt from an article in Wikipedia.org data set

## **Appendix B: Email Data Set and Data Processing**

The email data set consists of **603,871** emails that are sent and received **by** the participating employees of the firm. With an aid of a semi-automatic clustering software called eClassifier, a previous study has performed clustering on this data set. Due to the difference between the current data set and the data set used at the time of the study, there is a clustering result for only **118,185** emails. The study was conducted before the contents of the emails are hashed to preserve the privacy of the firm and the employees, so the user intervention in the clustering **by** eClassifier is likely to result in an accurate clustering. This study uses the clustering result of the previous study in order to algorithmically select keywords to construct feature vectors that can well represent the contents of the emails. The emails have been clustered 11 times, each time with a different number of clusters: 2, **3,** 4, **5, 8, 16,** 20, 21, **50, 100,** and 200. The clustering result forms a structure as in Figure **1.**

Figure 2 confirms the existence of duplicated emails in the email data set. However, the duplication can be removed **by** eliminating additional emails with the same sender, recipients, and timestamps. Moreover, we also eliminate emails that share the same sender and timestamps, while their recipient list is a subset of the recipient list of others existing emails. This extra measure eliminates some additional duplicated emails with the special circumstance. The elimination of duplicated emails reduces the number emails in the data set to **521,316** non-duplicated emails, and the number of non-duplicated emails with bucket information is **110,979** emails.

As suggested in section 4.1, we separate internal emails and external emails to study the effect of the inclusion of external emails. Our criterion for an internal email is that it is sent **by** an employee and is received **by** at least one employee. This way the information is circulated within the firm, and the content of the internal email is likely to be related to the work of the firm. In the email data set, there are 59,294 non-duplicated internal emails, out of which, **20,252** emails have bucket information.



Figure **26:** The number of non-duplicated internal emails **by** months

Figure **3** and Figure **26** show the number of emails in each month from August 2002 to February 2004. The period between March **2003** and September **2003** contains significantly fewer emails than the other months. Both internal and external emails share the same trend, so it is not likely to be an effect of a decrease in external emails. This inconsistency is assumed to be caused **by** a failure of the capturing software on the corporate email server. In order not to let this inconsistency affect our analysis, the period of low email activities is excluded from the analysis. Specifically, our analysis includes emails during the periods from 1 October 2002 to **3** March **2003** and from 1 October **2003** to **10** February 2004. During the time period, there are 452,500 non-duplicated emails and 45,217 non-duplicated internal emails.

The set of **110,979** non-duplicated emails with bucket information is called BucSetAll, and the set of **20,252** non-duplicated internal emails with bucket information is called BucSetInt. We use these two email sets to generate keywords based on the bucket information. The reason for using both sets arises from the hypothesis that the inclusion of the external emails potentially has negative effect toward keyword selection due to the inclusion of email contents that are not related to the work of the employees. On the other hand, the larger set of emails will provide more contents for keyword selection. Therefore, both results are provided **by** this study and will be used for further analysis in future studies.

Similar to the sets of emails used for keyword selection, there are two sets of emails used to generate feature vectors and to compute diversity scores. During the period from 1 October 2002 to **3** March **2003** and the period from 1 October **2003** to **10** February 2004, the set of 452,500 non-duplicated emails is called EmSetAll, and the set of 45,217 non-duplicated internal emails is called EmSetInt. The reason for using the two sets of emails for computing diversity scores is also the same as the reason for the sets of emails for keyword selection, which is to study the effect of the inclusion of the external emails.

## **Appendix C: Keyword Selection and Results on Wikipedia.org Data Set**

The articles in the Wikipedia.org data set is in the HTML format as described in Appendix **A.** There are unavoidably many fractions of words and words that are used of the syntaxes of HTML on the Wikipedia's website. In order to reduce the number of those words, we exclude the words that are shorter than three characters. Another problem that affects all content representations is the existence of synonyms and different word forms. Synonyms and different word forms cause two or more words to represent the same concept; for example, exclude, excludes, excluded, and exclusion have different spellings but represent the same meaning. Ideally, those words need to be grouped together under the same concept. One way to solve this issue is to create a massive list of synonyms and word forms. However, such method is extremely time-consuming and may not worth the effort in our application. Alternatively, we opt for a simple solution **by** removing a letter "s" from the end of all words. The reason for this method is that we hypothesize that most content-bearing words that we are interested in are in noun forms. **By** removing "s", we eliminate the most common plural indicator for nouns. This method has its flaws, but the resulting keywords in Figure **13** show many nouns that are likely to be affected positively **by** this method.

After implementing the methods mentioned above, we find that there exists *15,349* unique words in the Wikipedia.org data set. Out of these words, we decide to select approximately 400 keywords to represent the contents of the articles. Keywords are commonly selected based on their frequencies in the documents and over the set of all documents. In this study, the Wikipedia.org data set includes category information based on the categorization **by** Wikipedia. Similarly, the email data set contains the bucket information from the clustering results in a previous study. Therefore, we derive a method to algorithmically select keywords based on the category information or the bucket information in order to achieve a set of keywords that can well represent the contents of the documents.

The probability distributions of a keyword and a non-keyword in Figure **6** show the characteristics of the candidates for keywords. Variance is a common measurement of deviation of a set of observed data. The variance of the mean frequencies of the buckets potentially distinguishes keywords from non-keywords based on the observed frequencies from the probability distributions of the word across topics. Therefore, we initially explore the use of the variance of the mean frequencies of the buckets as a threshold for keyword selection. However, the chart in Figure **27** shows that the common words with high frequencies tend to have high variances. In addition, Zipf's law implies that the first few most frequent words have much higher frequencies than the other words. In general English text, the three most frequent words are "THE", "OF", and **"AND".** In our study, we decide not to include words with length less than three, so "OF' is not included in Figure **27,** but it is noticeable that the frequency of **"THE"** is approximately three times of the frequency of **"AND"** as implied **by** Zipf's law. This observation indicates that, in most kinds of texts, there are always a few common words that occur with much higher frequencies than the other words, and the effect of the mean frequencies of the words on their variances is not negligible. In order to reduce this effect, we decide to use the squared value of the coefficient of variation as the threshold instead:

$$
\text{Dinter} = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{b \in \text{buckets}} (m_b - M)^2 = \sum_{b \in \text{buckets}} \left( \frac{m_b}{M} - 1 \right)^2
$$

The coefficient of variation effectively normalizes the mean frequencies of the probability distributions. The squared values of the coefficient of variations of the mean frequencies of the words in the Wikipedia.org data set are shown in the chart in Figure **28.** The values from common words such as "AND" and **"THE"** is expectedly low so that they will be eliminated as non-keywords. Alternatively, we have used the value of variance over frequency as a threshold in order to accomplish the similar effect of reducing the influence of the mean frequencies over the variances. The results from this alternative approach are presented in Appendix **E.**



Figure **27:** Variances and frequencies of the words in the Wikipedia.org data set



Figure **28:** The squared values of the coefficients of variation of the words in Wikipedia.org data set

**A** downside of the coefficient of variation is that its value is very sensitive to words with low frequencies, which are the majority of the words in our data set. **If** we are to select words with high coefficients of variation as keywords, the resulting keywords would consist of many words with very low frequencies, which would affect the data representation negatively, as shown in Figure **29.** Such rare words usually identify very few documents that contain one or a few instances of the words. Thus they are not good representatives of the main content of documents.

Alternatively, we identify keywords **by** excluding words whose coefficients of variation are lower than a certain threshold. In practice, we decide to keep a certain number of words with high Dinter. The number of remaining words is called the "threshold number." Then, out of the remaining words, we select an equal number of words with **high** frequencies from each category to compose the set of keywords. The number of

words per categories is picked so that the number of the resulting keywords reaches a targeted amount: 400 in the Wikipedia.org data set.



Figure **29:** Frequencies and Dinter values of words sorted **by** descending Dinter values in the Wikipedia.org data set

In order to pick an appropriate threshold number, we use many sets of keywords resulted from different threshold numbers to construct feature vectors and compute the Adhesion and InvCohesion of the categories from the feature vectors. The result is shown in Figure **11.** The sharp increase in Adhesion at the low threshold (high threshold number) reflects the exclusion of the two most frequent common words: "THE" and **"AND".** Although InvCohesion also increases, we consider the larger increase in Adhesion to be a positive effect. After the sharp increase, both Adhesion and InvCohesion increase at a diminishing rate. We hypothesize that the selection of thresholds in the rage of threshold with no major changes in Adhesion and InvCohesion would not have a large effect on the diversity ranking. In order to demonstrate this hypothesis, we pick three different threshold numbers: **13000,** 14000, and 14500. The resulting diversity scores in the triplet test are shown in Figure **30.** The correlations of the scores as shown in Figure 12 are high, confirming our hypothesis that, within an appropriated range of thresholds, the threshold does not have a large effect on diversity ranking.



(a) Threshold number **13000**



**(b)** Threshold number 14000





(c) Threshold number 14500

Figure **30:** Results of the triplet test using keywords generated from different thresholds

We have used Dinter to measure the variations of the uses of words across categories in order to select words with high variations to be keywords because they are likely able to distinguish the contents of the documents between categories. Similarly, we define Dintra to represent the variations of the uses of words within the same categories. In order to be able to distinguish between the content of one category from the content of another category, a keyword needs to have not only high variation of frequencies across categories but also low variation of frequencies within categories. We find that most words with high Dintra are words with low frequencies as shown in Figure **31.**



Figure **31:** Frequencies and Dintra values of words sorted **by** descending Dintra values in the Wikipedia.org data set

Hypothetically, it is likely that rare words such as names only appear in a few documents. Although the rare words are good for representing the documents in which they appear, they are not suitable for representing the contents of the categories of the documents. Fortunately, our selection for words with high frequencies eliminates many words with high Dintra at the same time. Figure **32** shows the resulting keywords before the elimination of the words with high Dintra. The word "LFSR" (Linear Feedback Shift Register) possesses a significantly higher Dintra than the other keywords. Since the majority of the words with high Dintra are eliminated **by** the selection for high frequencies, we decide to keep eliminating the keyword with the highest Dintra value as long as the value is higher than the next highest Dintra value **by** more than 20 percents. In the case of Figure **32,** we only eliminate LFSR because the Dintra value of ROBOCUP is higher than the value of **BEAGLE by** less than 20 percents.



Figure **32:** The subset of keywords sorted **by** descending Dintra before the elimination of the words with high Dintra

The extended triplet test is designed to study the effect of the number of documents in the document sets toward the diversity scores of the document sets. We compute the diversity scores for three different sizes of document sets as shown in Figure **33.** Figure **16** shows high correlations between the diversity scores. Figure **17** shows that the diversity scores increase at a diminishing rate as the size of the document set increases as expected.



(a) 3-document test sets



**(b)** 6-document test sets





(c) 9-document test sets

Figure **33:** The diversity scores resulted from the extended triplet test

## **Appendix D: Keyword Selection and Results on Email Data Set**

Unlike the articles in the Wikipedia.org data set, the contents of the emails in the email data set are hashed. Therefore, we are unable to determine the meanings of the words in the emails. It is impossible to address the problem of synonyms and word forms. Moreover, we find that the email data set includes more than a million unique hashed words. The massive number of unique words is unlikely, compared to the limited amount of words that are commonly used in any languages. Fortunately, most of the million words occur only a few times. We hypothesize that the unlikely number of words is caused **by** occasionally mis-spelt words, fractions of words, and non-content-bearing words. During the keyword selection, we exclude the words with low frequencies in order to eliminate these undesirable words and also to reduce the number of words to a manageable amount.

We have mentioned in section **5.3** and Appendix B that we decide to use two sets of emails for keyword selection: BucSetAll and BucSetInt, and two sets of emails for feature vector creation and diversity score computation: EmSetAll and EmSetInt as shown in Figure 20. In BucSetAll, we exclude the words that occur fewer than 20 times. There remain **24,759** unique words that occur at least 20 times over the entire BucSetAll. Out of these words, we decide to select approximately **1,500** keywords to represent the contents of all emails. In BucSetInt, which includes fewer emails than BucSetAll, we exclude the words that occur fewer than **5** times. There remain **17,155** words that occur at least **5** times over BucSetInt. Out of these words, we also select approximately **1,500** keywords to represent the contents of all internal emails.

We select keywords on BucSetAll and BucSetlnt using different threshold numbers and plot the values of Adhesion and InvCohesion of the buckets based on the keywords. The charts in Figure **18** show the effect of the threshold on Adhesion and InvCohesion for both sets of emails. Similar to the keyword selection in the Wikipedia.org data set, we select the threshold at the point that Adhesion and InvCohesion change slowly. The charts also show that the number of feature vectors created from the keywords decrease as the threshold increases, confirming our hypothesis that the words with high Dinter are likely to have low frequencies. Selecting words with high Dinter results in keywords with low frequencies,

which are not likely to be able to represent the contents of all emails. This issue reminds us that it is not appropriated to select extremely high thresholds.

We decide to use the threshold number 24,000 for BucSetAll and the threshold number **15,000** for BucSetInt. We compute the diversity scores on EmSetAll and EmSetInt using the two sets of keywords. The results are shown in Figure 34, Figure **35,** and Figure **36.** Figure **19** shows the correlations of diversity scores on EmSetlnt using the two sets of keywords. As suggested in section **5.1.3,** the moderate correlations shows that the inclusion of external emails affect the quality of the keywords. Figure 22 shows the correlations of diversity scores on EmSetAll and EmSetInt using the same set of keywords generated on BucSetAll. Again, the moderate correlations confirm that the inclusion of external emails affects the diversity ranking.

In order to compare the effect of using incoming emails and outgoing emails to compute diversity scores of the employees, we compare the diversity scores based on both incoming and outgoing emails **(10),** only incoming emails **(INC),** and only outgoing emails (OUT). Figure 23(a) shows the correlations of diversity scores on EmSetInt using keywords generated on BucSetAll based on **10, INC,** and **OUT.** The high correlations in **10-INC** and IO-OUT are likely due to the high number of overlapping emails between 10 and **INC,** and between **10** and **OUT.** The moderate correlations between INC and **OUT** indicate that there are differences between incoming emails and outgoing emails as discussed in section **5.3.** Figure **23(b)** shows the correlations of diversity scores on EmSetAll using keywords generated on BucSetAll based on **10, INC,** and **OUT.** The correlations between 10 and **INC** still remain high as most of the external emails are likely to be incoming emails, so the percentage of overlapping emails in **10** and **INC** increases. The correlations between **10** and **OUT** are only moderate due to the reduced percentage of overlapping emails. The most interesting result is that the diversity scores based on incoming emails show no correlation with the diversity scores based on outgoing emails. This result indicates that the inclusion of external emails eliminates the relationship between the contents of incoming emails and outgoing emails, which exists among internal emails.





(a) Diversity scores on EmSetlnt using keywords generated on BucSetlnt





**(b)** Diversity scores on EmSetlnt using keywords generated on BucSetAll







(c) Diversity scores on EmSetAll using keywords generated on BucSetAll

Figure 34: Diversity scores based on both incoming and outgoing emails (IO)





(a) Diversity scores on EmSetlnt using keywords generated on BucSetlnt




 $\sim 10^6$ 



**(b)** Diversity scores on EmSetlnt using keywords generated on BucSetAll





(c) Diversity scores on EmSetAll using keywords generated on BucSetAll

Figure **35:** Diversity scores based only on incoming emails **(INC)**







(a) Diversity scores on EmSetInt using keywords generated on BucSetlnt





**(b)** Diversity scores on EmSetlnt using keywords generated on BucSetAll







(c) Diversity scores on EmSetAll using keywords generated on BucSetAll Figure **36:** Diversity scores based only on outgoing emails **(OUT)**

We are also interested in the effect of the diversity of email contents on the productivity of project teams. For each set of diversity scores shown in Figure 34, Figure **35,** and Figure **36,** we compute team-based diversity scores **by** averaging the diversity scores of the employees working in the project teams based on their contributions to the projects.

In addition to the diversity scores computed **by** using all emails, this study provides the diversity scores based on emails divided into four-week periods. Specifically, there are **9** four-week periods:

- **1. 1** October 2002 **- 28** October 2002
- 2. **29** October 2002 **- 25** November 2002
- **3. 26** November 2002 **- 23** December 2002
- 4. 24 December 2002 **-** 20 January **2003**
- **5.** 21 January **2003 - 17** February **2003**
- **6. 1** October **2003 - 28** October **2003**
- **7. 29** October **2003 - 25** November **2003**
- **8. 26** November **2003 - 23** December **2003**
- **9.** 24 December **2003 -** 20 January 2004

Both diversity scores for employees and team-based diversity scores are computed during the periods for future studies to evaluate the changes in diversity over time.

## **Appendix E: Alternative cutoff: Variance over Frequency**

As mentioned in Appendix **C,** we initially use the variance of the word frequencies across categories or buckets over overall frequency (Var/Freq) as an alternative threshold before we decide to use the coefficient of variation as the final threshold. We define:

$$
Var/Freq = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{bebuckets} (m_b - M)^2
$$

In Appendix **C,** we show that the variance of the word frequencies across categories does not provide an appropriated threshold for keyword selection due to the effect of the overall word frequencies on the variances. The reason that we use Var/Freq and Dintra is to balance the effect of the overall frequencies. In this Appendix, we provide the results of keyword selection and diversity scores based on using Var/Freq as a threshold for keyword selection. The results indicate that Var/Freq is also potentially useful as a threshold for keyword selection.

## **E. 1 Wikipedia. org data set**

Figure **37** shows the Var/Freq of the words in the Wikipedia.org data set. The values of Var/Freq of the frequent common words: "THE" and **"AND",** are expectedly low.



Figure **37:** Var/Freq and frequencies of the words in the Wikipedia.org data set

In order to select the threshold for keyword selection, we select keywords from many thresholds and plot the Adhesion and InvCohesion of the categories based on the resulting feature vectors. The results are shown in Figure **38.**



Figure **38:** Adhesion and InvCohesion across multiple Var/Freq threshold in Wikipedia.org data set

We pick three threshold numbers after the sharp increase in Adhesion and InvCohesion: **1500,** *5000,* and *6500.* The correlations shown in Figure **39** indicate that the Var/Freq threshold does not have a large effect on the diversity ranking, similar to our results from using the Dinter threshold.



Figure **39:** Correlations of diversity scores from different set of keywords generated **by** three threshold numbers: **1500, 5000,** and **6500.**

The chart in Figure 40 shows that our diversity metrics behave similarly, and the result is confirmed **by** the correlations in Figure 41.



Figure 40: Averages of diversity scores grouped **by** configuration types



Figure 41: Correlations of diversity scores across multiple metrics

The results of the extended triplet test in Figure 42 and Figure 43 also show high correlations between the diversity scores from document sets of different sizes. Figure 43 shows that the diversity scores increase as the size of the document set increases. The results are similar to the results from using the Dinter threshold.



Figure 42: Correlations of diversity scores across multiple sizes of document sets



Figure 43: VarCos scores vs configuration types across multiple sizes of document sets

## *E.2* **Email data set**

We select two sets of keywords from BucSetAll and BucSetInt. In order to do so, we generate keywords using many Var/Freq threshold and plot the resulting Adhesion and InvCohesion as shown in Figure 44. We decide to use the threshold number **6000** for BucSetAll and the threshold number **8000** for BucSetlnt. The correlations of the diversity scores on EmSetAll using the two sets of keywords generated from BucSetAll and BucSetnt are shown in Figure 45. The unexpectedly high correlations indicate that the inclusion of external emails does not affect the keyword selection process as much as it does when we use the Dinter threshold.



(a) Keyword selection on BucSetAll



**(b)** Keyword selection on BucSetInt

Figure 44: Adhesion and InvCohesion during the keyword selection on email data set



Figure 45: Correlations of diversity scores from different sets of keywords generated from BucSetAll and BucSetInt

Figure 46 shows the correlations across diversity metrics. The high correlations indicate that the diversity metrics behave similarly.



(a) Feature vectors generated from the keywords selected **by** BucSetInt



**(b)** Feature vectors generated from the keywords selected **by** BucSetAll

Figure 46: Correlations of diversity scores across multiple diversity metrics

Figure 47 shows the correlations of diversity scores on EmSetInt and EmSetAll using the same set of keywords generated from BucSetAll. Again, the moderate correlations indicate that the inclusion of external emails affect diversity ranking.



Figure 47: Correlations of diversity scores on EmSetlnt and EmSetAll

Figure 48 shows the effect of incoming and outgoing emails. Similar to the previous results, incoming and outgoing emails exhibit differences in contents. The differences are clear with the inclusion of external emails as there is no correlation between the diversity scores based on **INC** and the scores based on **OUT.**



(a) Correlations of diversity scores on EmSetInt



**(b)** Correlations of diversity scores on EmSetAll

Figure 48: Correlations of diversity scores computed from incoming, outgoing, and both incoming and outgoing emails.

In summary, the results from using the Var/Freq threshold are similar to the results from using Dinter threshold. Var/Freq can be an alternative measurement for the property of a keyword that distinguishes the contents of categories.

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