

# Hidden Stories: Topic Modeling in Hydrology Literature

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## Key Points:

- Topic Modeling is a form of unsupervised machine learning for Natural Language Processing (NLP)
- Topic Modeling can provide a high-level overview of topics and trends in hydrology literature
- This is a first step toward building a tool to help researchers navigate and synthesize a growing body of literature

## Keywords:

- Hydrology Literature
- Science Communication
- Machine Learning
- Unsupervised Learning
- Natural Language Processing
- Topic Modeling

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## Abstract

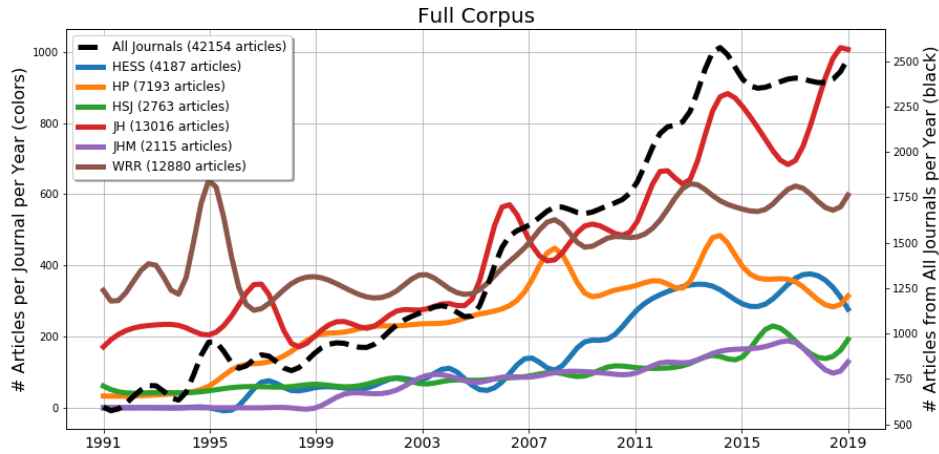
Hydrologic research generates large volumes of peer-reviewed literature across a number of evolving sub-topics. It's becoming increasingly difficult for scientists and practitioners to synthesize this full body of literature. This study explores topic modeling with Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) as a form of unsupervised learning applied to 42,154 article-abstracts from six high-impact (Impact Factor > 0.9) journals (Water Resources Research *WRR*, Hydrology and Earth System Sciences *HESS*, Journal of Hydrology *JH*, Hydrological Processes *HP*, Hydrological Sciences Journal *HSJ*, Journal of Hydrometeorology *JHM*) to provide a high-level contextual analyses of hydrologic science literature since 1991. We used a hybrid quantitative/qualitative approach to label a number of broad topics in this body of literature, and used these labeled topics to analyze topic trends, inter-topic relationships, and journal diversity. As an example of what we can learn from this type of analysis, results showed that data-driven research topics are gaining in popularity while some subsurface related topics lose popularity within our journal set and time period. While no journal in our sample was completely homogeneous, *JHM* and *WRR* exhibited the most notable preferences for certain topics over others. The methods and outcomes of this paper are potentially beneficial to scientists and researchers who aim to gain a contextual understanding of the existing state of hydrologic science literature. In the long term, we see topic modeling as a tool to help increase the efficiency of literature reviews, science communication, and science-informed policy and decision making.

## 1 Introduction

Hydrologic research generates large volumes of peer-reviewed literature (Figure 1) across a plethora of evolving topics and sub-topics. An increasing amount of effort is required for researchers and practitioners to synthesize this literature, and to track the state-of-the science in any particular topic area within the discipline. The dynamic nature of hydrology and the society (Montanari et al., 2013) means that the hydrologic community is increasingly required to advocate and advise sustainable development through water resources awareness and management (Rahaman & Varis, 2005). As a result of challenges like these, science communication is evolving rapidly, and there is a growing need for more sophisticated “scientific” ways to synthesize and communicate research findings (Nisbet & Scheufele, 2009).

Recent advances in computational linguistics, machine learning, and a variety of application-ready toolboxes for Natural Language Processing (NLP) can help facilitate analyses of vast electronic corpuses for a variety of objectives (Cambria & White, 2014). Information retrieval, text categorization, and other text mining techniques based on machine learning have been gaining popularity since the 1990s (Sebastiani, 2002). The ability to quickly synthesize large volumes of electronic text can help offer windows into trending topics and help scientists identify related efforts and research developments in a body of literature.

Topic modeling is one popular NLP technique that uses statistical algorithms to extract semantic information from a collection of texts in the form of thematic classes (Jiang, Qiang, & Lin, 2016). Topic models can be applied to massive collections of documents (Blei, 2012) and have been used to recommend scientific articles based on both content and user ratings (C. Wang & Blei, 2011). Topic modeling has also been used to cluster scientific documents (Yau, Porter, Newman, & Suominen, 2014), improve bibliographic search (Jardine & Teufel, 2014; Paul & Girju, 2009; Pham, Do, & Ta, 2018; Shu, Long, & Meng, 2009; Tang, Jin, & Zhang, 2008), and for a variety of other applications such as statistical modeling of the biomedical corpora (Blei, Franks, Jordan, & Mian, 2006), bibliometric exploration of hydropower research (Jiang et al., 2016), analyzing research trends in personal information privacy (Choi, Lee, & Sohn, 2017), meta-



**Figure 1.** Number of articles published per year between 1991 and 2019 in six major hydrology journals (Source: Web of Science, Scimago Journal and Country Rank)

72 reviewing cloud computing literature (Upreti, Asatiani, & Malo, 2016), literature review  
 73 of social science (Li & Liu, 2018), the technology-acceptance model (Mortenson & Vid-  
 74 gen, 2016), discovering themes and trends in transportation research (S. Sun, Luo, & Chen,  
 75 2017), Knowledge Management literature (Jussila et al., 2017), exploring the history of  
 76 cognition (Priva & Austerweil, 2015) and exploring topic divergence and similarities in  
 77 scientific conferences (Hall, Jurafsky, & Manning, 2008). Topic modeling algorithms allow  
 78 for exploration of a broad range of data including non-English corpuses (Riddell, 2014),  
 79 software engineering data (X. Sun et al., 2016), and even historical newspapers (Yang,  
 80 Torget, & Mihalcea, 2011). Given the incremental popularity of topic models and its ver-  
 81 satile applicability in a wide range of applications, we wish to explore the potential for  
 82 topic modeling to aid bibliometric exploration of peer-reviewed hydrologic science lit-  
 83 erature.

84 Peer-reviewed abstracts offer snapshots of the historical and current trends and de-  
 85 velopments in both theoretical and applied research. Article abstracts are perceived as  
 86 concise representations of full-texts and are used for bibliometric analyses (Gatti, Brooks,  
 87 & Nurre, 2015; Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004). Although techniques such as *scientometrics*  
 88 (Mingers & Leydesdorff, 2015) have been traditionally used for ranking articles and au-  
 89 thors based on citation data, topic modeling allows for contextual understanding of par-  
 90 ticular scientific domains and disciplines. Hydrologic research articles encompass a wide  
 91 range of research topics including flood prediction, climate change etc., all of which are  
 92 consequential to global socioeconomic well-being. Water managers and policy makers,  
 93 who ideally make decisions about water resources based on state of the knowledge of hy-  
 94 drologic science, depend on data, tools and predictions provided by scientists and prac-  
 95 titioners in this field. It is therefore imperative for at least many stakeholders of hydro-  
 96 logic research to understand topics and trends in this discipline without having to read  
 97 thousands of research articles.

98 In this study we applied topic modeling using unsupervised learning with Latent  
 99 Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) on 42,154 article-abstracts from six high-impact (Impact Fac-  
 100 tor > 0.9) journals in hydrology (Water Resources Research *WRR*, Hydrology and Earth  
 101 System Sciences *HESS*, Journal of Hydrology *JH*, Hydrological Processes *HP*, Hydro-  
 102 logical Sciences Journal *HSJ*, Journal of Hydrometeorology *JHM*). LDA identifies groups

103 of words commonly found together, and produces relationships between these word clusters  
104 (topics) and individual documents. Using these topic-word distributions, we then  
105 relied on a hybrid quantitative/qualitative approach to label a number of broad topics.  
106 We analyzed how these topics relate to each other and change over time and between  
107 journals.

108 As an example of what can be learned from this type of analysis, results show that  
109 data-driven research topics have been gaining in popularity in recent years, while some  
110 subsurface related topics are declining in popularity within our journal sample set (al-  
111 though this may be due to the introduction of new groundwater journals during our study's  
112 time period). Significant statistical relationships were observed between topics - for ex-  
113 ample, research on anthropogenic interventions and effects is significantly correlated with  
114 research on climate change, hydromorphology, flooding, water quality, and extreme events.

115 We further analyzed topic distributions in individual journals to help understand  
116 the diversity of topics within journals and uniqueness of topics between journals. While  
117 no journal in our sample is completely homogeneous in terms of the topics of papers pub-  
118 lished, JHM and WRR exhibited the most notable preference for certain topics. A ma-  
119 jority of the journals in our corpus appear to be broadening their scope over time.

120 The methods and outcomes of this type of literature analysis are potentially ben-  
121 efiticial to scientists and researchers who aim to gain a high-level or contextual understand-  
122 ing of the existing state of hydrologic science. In the long term, we see NLP, and topic  
123 modeling in particular, as potentially useful for helping scientists navigate growing bod-  
124 ies of peer-review literature, and to help increase the efficiency of science communica-  
125 tion and science-informed policy and decision making outside of the academic discipline  
126 itself.

## 127 **2 Methods**

128 Table 1 lists all notations used throughout this paper, including variables and in-  
129 dices related to the model and corpus.

### 130 **2.1 Data acquisition and preprocessing**

#### 131 ***2.1.1 Repository of article-abstracts***

132 We chose journals for this analysis based on Impact Factors coupled with our sub-  
133 jective perception of the journal's role within the hydrologic science community. Our cor-  
134 pus consists of the abstracts of all peer-reviewed articles published in six hydrologic jour-  
135 nals with an Impact Factor (IF) of greater than 0.9, between 1991 and 2019 according  
136 to SciMago's Web of Science. The list of journals, journal abbreviations that we will use  
137 throughout the rest of this article, corresponding IF, years of available data, and total  
138 number of abstracts are listed in Table 2. Article-abstracts were acquired from SciMago's  
139 Web of Science in the form of bib files.

140 The corpus was restricted to the six journals listed in Table 2 because we previ-  
141 ously performed the entire analysis reported in this paper on all journals with an Im-  
142 pact Factor greater than 0.9 in Scimago's 'Water Science and Technology' classification,  
143 but the results were too diverse for a meaningful analysis. We report here an analysis  
144 only using a sub-selection of journals, and specifically focus on multi-disciplinary hydrology  
145 journals (i.e., we did not include journals focused primarily on groundwater, regional  
146 studies, marine science, desalinization, cryosphere, etc.).

**Table 1.** List of notations for indices, parameters and variables

Notation	Meaning
<b>Corpus Parameters</b>	
$M$	Number of documents
$N_d$	Number of words in document $d$
$t_d$	Year of publication of document $d$
<b>LDA Model Components</b>	
$K$	Number of topics
$K_{opt}$	Optimal number of topics
$\alpha$	Parameters of a Dirichlet prior on the per-document topic distribution
$\beta$	Parameters of a Dirichlet prior on the per-topic word distribution
$\mu_d$	Distribution of topics over document $d$
$z$	list of $K$ topics
$\mathbf{z}_d$	Per-word topic vector for document $d$
$\mathbf{w}_d$	Word collection in document $d$
<b>Derived Distributions</b>	
$\mu_{kj}$	Weight of a particular topic $k$ over all documents in journal $j$
$\mu_{kt}$	Average weight for topic $k$ over all documents at time $t$
$\hat{\mu}_k$	Mean weight of topic $k$ over all documents
$\mu_{kj}^t$	Weight of topic $k$ in journal $j$ at time $t$
$\mu_m$	Topic distribution over entire corpus of $M$ documents
<b>Derived Metrics &amp; Functions</b>	
$p$	LDA perplexity score
$c$	LDA coherence score
$JSD$	Jensen-Shannon Divergence
$KLD$	Kullback-Leibler Divergence
$I$	Indicator function
$R_{k,j}$	Correlation coefficient between topics $k$ and $j$
$H_j$	Topic entropy (diversity) of journal $j$
$d_{js}(j, i)$	Jensen-Shannon distance between journals $j$ and $i$
$d_{js}^d(j)$	Jensen-Shannon distance of journal $j$ from entire corpus
$d_{js}^t(j)$	Jensen-Shannon distance between journals $j$ and $i$

**Table 2.** Repository of article-abstracts

<b>Journal Name</b>	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>IF</b>	<b>Years Available</b>	<b>Total Abstracts</b>
Journal of Hydrometeorology	JHM	2.410	2000-2019	2115
Water Resources Research	WRR	2.135	1991-2019	12880
Hydrology and Earth System Sciences	HESS	2.134	1997-2019	4187
Journal of Hydrology	JH	1.830	1991-2019	13016
Hydrological Processes	HP	1.417	1991-2019	7193
Hydrological Sciences Journal	HSJ	0.910	1991-2019	2736

### 147 2.1.2 Preprocessing the corpus

148 Performance of topic modeling is influenced by the quality of input training data.  
 149 Data preprocessing in text mining involves converting acquired data into canonical for-  
 150 mat for efficacious feature extraction (Feldman, Sanger, et al., 2007). In addition, a por-  
 151 tion of the raw data from any corpus is extraneous and may not add value to the anal-  
 152 ysis - as such, training data requires appropriate preprocessing, as described presently.

153 We used separate temporally-segregated dataframes for abstracts from each jour-  
 154 nal. All sets of data were processed through identical multi-layered cleaning routines.  
 155 We initiated the process by first creating a dataframe of all article-abstracts and their  
 156 corresponding metadata. We then filtered nonsensical elements such as stopwords, punc-  
 157 tuation, and symbols, in addition to subjective manual identification and removal of un-  
 158 wanted elements.

159 In the next step, we formed bi-grams and tri-grams, and then segmented the texts  
 160 by tokenizing with whitespaces as word boundaries, followed by lemmatization to nor-  
 161 malize into a canonical format. The resultant output was converted into a term frequen-  
 162 cy-inverse document frequency (TF-IDF) format for ingesting by the LDA model implemented  
 163 in *Gensim* - a Python library for NLP (Řehřek & Sojka, 2011).

### 164 2.2 Latent Dirichlet Allocation

165 LDA builds on more traditional Latent Semantic Analysis (Landauer, Foltz, & La-  
 166 ham, 1998), and captures the intuition that text documents exhibit multiple topics in  
 167 different proportions. Documents are represented as mixtures of topics (per-document  
 168 topic distributions) and each topic is characterized by a distribution over words (per-  
 169 topic word distributions).

170 We can build an intuition of this model as follows. It is assumed that the per-document  
 171 topic distributions of all documents in a corpus share a common Dirichlet prior param-  
 172 eterized by  $\alpha$ , and that the per-topic word distributions also share a (different) common  
 173 Dirichlet prior parameterized by  $\beta$ . The distribution over a particular word  $w$  in a doc-  
 174 ument  $d$  with topic distribution  $\mu_d$  can be understood as (Blei, Ng, & Jordan, 2003):

$$175 \quad p(w|\mu_d, \beta) = \sum_{k=1}^K p(z_k|\mu_d)p(w|z_k, \beta), \quad (1)$$

176 where  $z_k$  is a particular topic from  $K$  total topics. Treating the per-document topic dis-  
 177 tribution as latent and integrating over all  $N_d$  words in each document  $d$  and over all  
 178  $M$  documents in corpus  $D$  gives:

$$179 \quad p(D|\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{d=1}^M \int_{\mu_d} p(\mu_d|\alpha) \left( \prod_{n=1}^{N_d} p(w_{dn}|\mu_d, \beta) \right) d\mu_d \quad (2)$$

180 The above is an intuition only. In actuality, LDA assumes a generating model (i.e.,  
 181 a model of how the corpus was produced) that samples each  $\mu_d$  once for each word in  
 182 a corpus, which means that each document contains a mixture of topics, which is why  
 183 each document has its own per-document topic distribution. This means that each doc-  
 184 ument  $d$  can be associated with an  $N_d$  vector of topics,  $\mathbf{z}_d$ , - one topic assignment (out  
 185 of  $K$  total topics) for each word in the document. This generating model is described  
 186 in more detail by Blei et al. (2003) and others.

187 Training the LDA model involves estimating the per-document topic distributions,  
 188  $\mu_d$ , and the per-document topic vectors,  $\mathbf{z}_d$ , given the words in a document,  $\mathbf{w}_d$ , and the  
 189 Dirichlet priori parameters:  $p(\mu_d, \mathbf{z}_d|\mathbf{w}_d, \alpha, \beta)$ . This can be done using a variety of meth-  
 190 ods, including Gibbs Sampling (Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004), variational expectation-maximization

191 (VEM) (Blei et al., 2003), and others. Model overfitting is generally not a major issue  
 192 for unsupervised learning with LDA, which is a Bayesian model.

193 Here, we used an LDA implementation in the Python *Gensim* package with VEM.  
 194 We trained our models with the number of passes set to 3000 and chunksize (number  
 195 of documents in a batch) set to 100. We used a parallel implementation of LDA in *Gensim*  
 196 to train individual models with topic sizes ranging from  $K = 2$  to  $K = 40$ ; each model  
 197 trained using 40 shared-memory cores on a single node of a high performance cluster.  
 198 Using these settings it took on the order of a few hours to train a single model: between  
 199 3-15 hours per model on our particular machine, depending on  $K$ .

## 200 2.3 Choosing an optimal number of topics

201 Ideally we want to maximize the number of topics to increase their variety and “depth”  
 202 in terms of how the model partitions the article-abstracts. In practice, however, a num-  
 203 ber of topics,  $K$ , above some (unknown) optimal number of topics,  $K_{opt}$ , increases the  
 204 occurrence of common words among different topics, resulting in compromised quality  
 205 of topics (Lu, Mei, & Zhai, 2011). We therefore adopted a hybrid quantitative/qualitative  
 206 approach for deciding the optimal number of topics,  $K_{opt}$ .

### 207 2.3.1 Data-driven approach to choose optimal number of topics

208 We used a combination of perplexity  $p$  and coherence  $c$  scores as metrics to eval-  
 209 uate model performance over a range of numbers of topics. Perplexity is a popular met-  
 210 ric for evaluating language models (Chen, Beeferman, & Rosenfeld, 1998). Perplexity is  
 211 an information theory metric that measures something like how surprised the model might  
 212 be on the introduction of new data (Zhao et al., 2015). Formally defined by Blei et al.  
 213 (2003), perplexity for a collection of  $M$  documents is:

$$214 \quad p = exp \left\{ - \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \log p(w_d)}{\sum_{d=1}^M N_d} \right\} \quad (3)$$

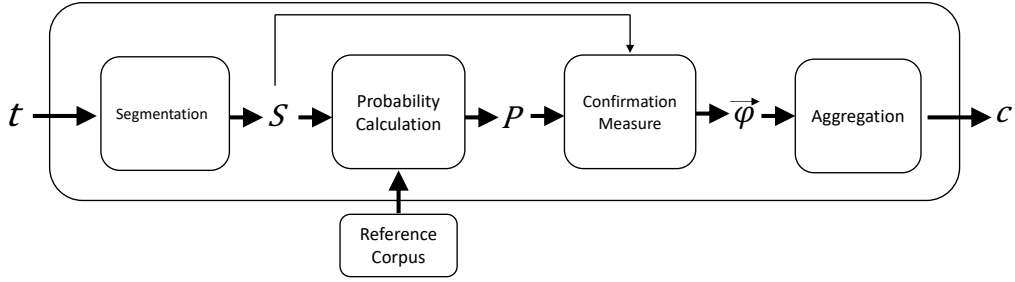
215 Perplexity is a decreasing function of the probability assigned to each per-document word  
 216 distribution. Lower perplexity indicates a better model.

217 Topic coherence  $c$  is a measure of similarity in semantics between the high prob-  
 218 ability words in a certain topic. We use *Gensim*'s built-in topic coherence model, which  
 219 is an implementation of the method described by (Röder, Both, & Hinneburg, 2015). Cal-  
 220 culating topic coherence is a four-stage process involving segmentation of word subsets,  
 221 probability calculation, confirmation measure, and aggregation.

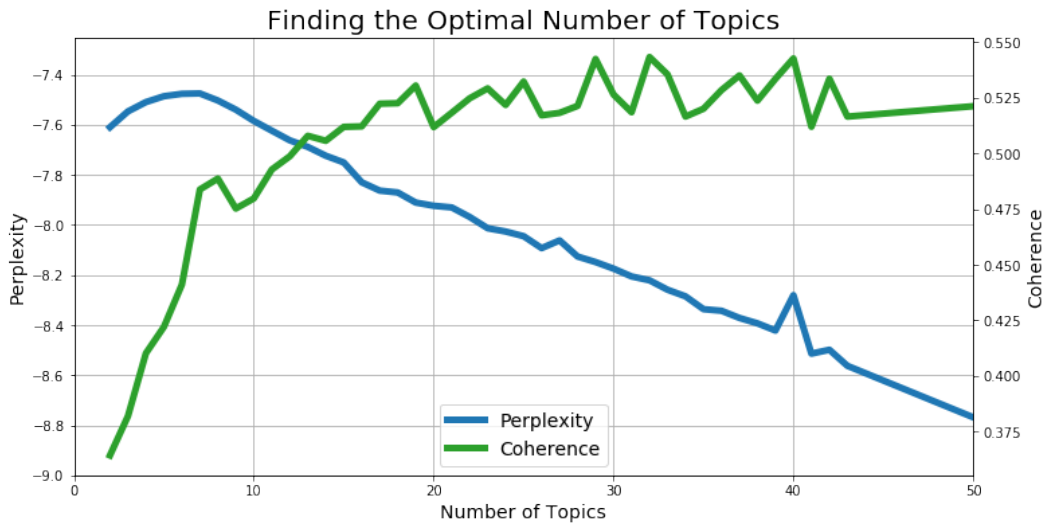
222 Figure 2 (adapted from Röder et al., 2015) illustrates these four steps.  $t$  represents  
 223 an input collection of words, and the first stage creates a set of different kinds of seg-  
 224 mentation of words  $S$  from  $t$ , since coherence measures the fitting together of words or  
 225 a set of words. Secondly, probabilities of occurrence of words  $P$  are calculated based on  
 226 reference corpus. Confirmation measure ingests both  $P$  and  $S$  to yield the agreements  
 227  $\varphi$  of pairs of  $S$ . In the final step, the aforementioned scores are aggregated to compute  
 228 coherence  $c$ .

229 We trained LDA models using identical hyperparameters for a range of topics num-  
 230 bers from  $K = 2$  to  $K = 40$ , logging the coherence  $c$  and perplexity  $p$  scores for each  
 231  $K$ . The resulting scores are plotted in Figure 3. To determine  $K_{opt}$ , we considered a range  
 232 of number of topics  $K$  for which coherence  $c$  peaks, accompanied by a decreasing trend  
 233 for perplexity  $p$  plot - i.e.,  $K = 20$  to  $K = 32$ .





**Figure 2.** Illustration of the four stages of the unified topic coherence framework. In stage 1, input words  $t$  are segmented into smaller sets  $S$ . Probabilities of occurrence  $P$  of words are calculated based on the reference corpus in the second stage. In the third stage,  $P$  and  $S$  are ingested to measure  $\varphi$  between pairs of words  $S$ . Coherence  $c$  is calculated in the final step.



**Figure 3.** Variation of topic coherence  $c$  and perplexity  $p$  based on LDA models trained for a range of topic numbers ( $K = 2$  to  $K = 40$ ). Lower perplexity and higher coherence indicate a better model. These values guide our subjective analysis for choosing  $K_{opt}$ .

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### 2.3.2 Qualitative approach to choosing optimal number of topics

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Qualitative perception of topics allows for data-driven evaluation metrics to be supported by manual validation. We subjectively assessed the quality of topics for various  $K$ , looking for increasing or decreasing occurrence of similar words within certain topics and backtracking into the dataframe to observe the titles of documents associated with each topic. We drew on our prior education and experience in hydrology to make these assessments, and also solicited input from several other professional hydrologists. Based on this and the aforementioned objective indicators, we chose  $K_{opt} = 25$ . This is where the coherence score had an inflection point (i.e., started to level off around its maximum value), and subjectively the topics at  $K_{opt} = 25$  did not contain a significant amount of redundancy.

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There was consistency between individual topics found with different values of  $K$  as  $K$  increased. Figure 4 is a partial illustration of the topic evolution with increasing

247 topic number. All of the topic names shown on this chart were chosen by researchers based  
 248 on looking at the keywords that the model associated with each topic, as well as the 100  
 249 abstract titles that had the strongest association with each topic. With a low number  
 250 of topics,  $K = 2$ , the model partitioned the dataset into categories that were (vaguely)  
 251 related to surface hydrology and terrestrial processes vs. subsurface and hydraulics. With  
 252 further increase in number of topics - e.g.,  $K = 5$  - the surface hydrology topic was par-  
 253 titioned into topics related primarily to climate change, terrestrial processes, and mod-  
 254 eling, while the subsurface topic split into topics defined by keywords related to hydraulics  
 255 and groundwater, with some papers splitting to join the more refined modeling and ter-  
 256 restrial processes topics. The LDA model partitioning became more refined with further  
 257 increases in the number of topics, and the resulting topics became clearer and more well-  
 258 defined. Increased topic refinement caused separation and merger of different closely re-  
 259 lated topics. As an example, at  $K = 10$ , a single modeling related topic split into hy-  
 260 draulic modeling and catchment modeling. Hydraulic modeling split further and com-  
 261 bined with a flow and transport topic to form a topic based on flow and transport mod-  
 262 eling. Simultaneously, catchment modeling split further and merged with specific sub-  
 263 topics such as climate change, water management and statistical hydrology. It's impor-  
 264 tant to understand that especially at small topic numbers, these topics are fairly vague  
 265 and the topic names that we assigned are indicators of broad themes.

### 266 3 Analysis Methods

267 This section describes the methods we used to analyze document-topic and topic-  
 268 word distributions from the LDA model, as well as for computing topic trends, distri-  
 269 butions over time, inter-topic correlations, and distributions of topics within journals.

#### 270 3.1 Temporal distribution of topics

271 There are multiple methods of analyzing temporal trends and distribution of top-  
 272 ics. Griffiths and Steyvers (2004) applied a disjointed time-blind topic model and rear-  
 273 ranged documents according to their publication dates. Blei and Lafferty (2006) devel-  
 274 oped a sequential topic modeling approach that learns time-dynamic parameters for the  
 275 document-topic and topic-word distributions constrained by linear filtering theory. X. Wang  
 276 and McCallum (2006) introduced a non-Markov joint modeling framework where top-  
 277 ics are associated with a continuous distribution over document timestamps. We adopted  
 278 Griffiths and Steyvers's (2004) approach of time-unaware topic modeling and post-hoc  
 279 aggregation of results according to their timestamps. We calculated temporal topic dis-  
 280 tributions for a given year  $\mu_{kt}$  as the proportion of all topic weights over all papers from  
 281 a given year,  $t$ :

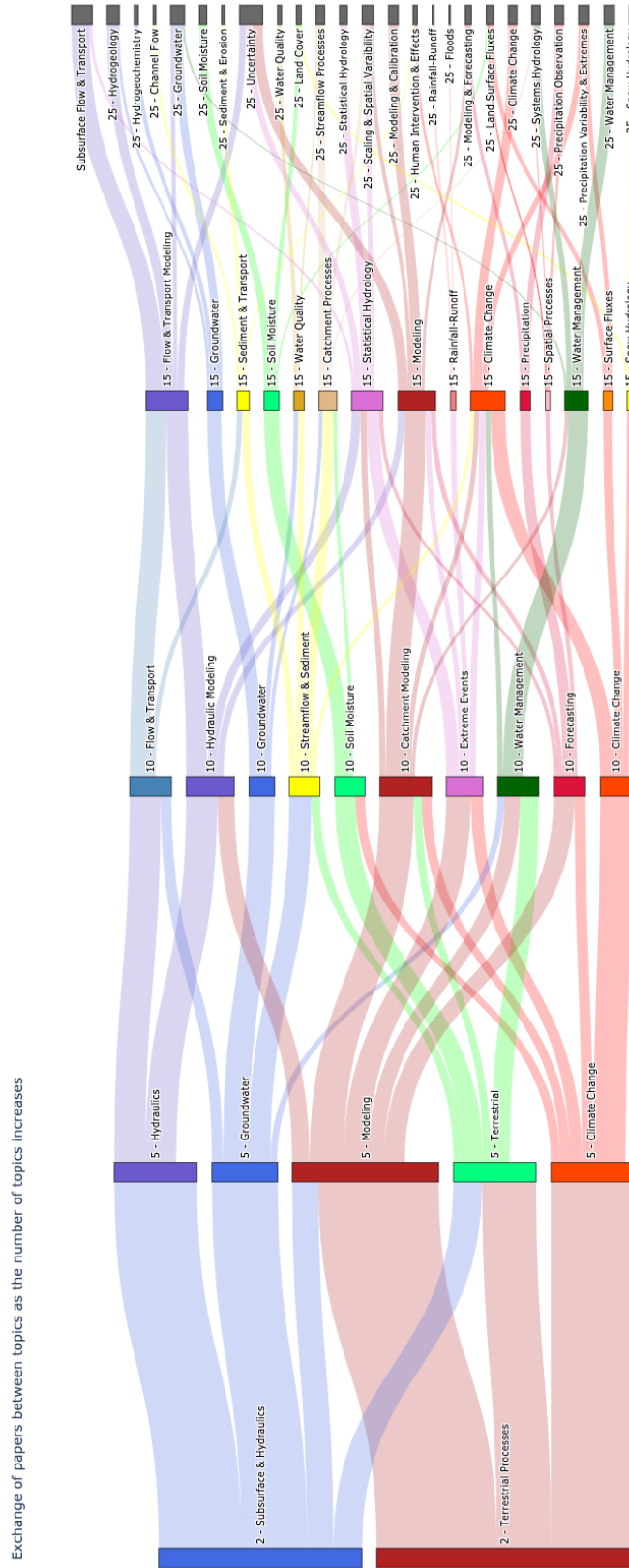
$$282 \mu_{kt} = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dk} \times I(t_d - t)}{\sum_{d=1}^M I(t_d - t)}. \quad (4)$$

283  $\mu_{dk}$  represents the weight for topic  $k$  assigned to document  $d$ ,  $t_d$  is the year in which doc-  
 284 ument  $d$  was published, and  $I$  is an indicator function such that  $I(0) = 1$  and  $I(x) =$   
 285  $0$  for  $x \neq 0$ . Henceforth,  $I$  will carry the same meaning.

#### 286 3.2 Inter-topic correlations

287 We explored relationships between topics by looking at the correlation coefficient  
 288  $R_{k,j}$  between the topic weights over the whole corpus  $M$  for each pair of topics:

$$289 R_{k,j} = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M (\mu_{dk} - \hat{\mu}_k)(\mu_{dj} - \hat{\mu}_j)}{\sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^M (\mu_{dk} - \hat{\mu}_k)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^M (\mu_{dj} - \hat{\mu}_j)^2}}, \quad (5)$$



**Figure 4.** Evolution of topics with increasing number of topics  $K$ . Lines in the Sankey diagram represent papers shared by each topic (at different topic numbers), where each paper is weighted by the relative proportion of inclusion in the sending topic (i.e., the topic at the smaller number of topics).

290 where  $\mu_{dk}$  is the weight for topic  $k$  assigned to document  $d$ , and  $\hat{\mu}_k$  is the mean weight  
 291 for topic  $k$  assigned over all documents in the corpus. All correlations were tested for  
 292 significance at  $\alpha = 0.1$ , and we report only correlations with significance at this level.

### 293 3.3 Journal diversity

294 the K-nomial distribution over topics in a particular journal  $j$ ,  $\mu_j$ , is:

$$295 \mu_{kj} = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dk} \times I(j_d - j)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dl} \times I(j_d - j)}, \quad (6)$$

296 where  $\mu_{kj}$  is the relative popularity of a particular topic in a particular journal as a frac-  
 297 tion of popularity of all topics in the journal.

298 Entropy is a measure of the uncertainty in a probability distribution (Shannon, 1948).  
 299 We calculated the total entropy of each  $\mu_j$ ,  $H_j$ , as a measure of the diversity of the per-  
 300 journal topic distributions:

$$301 H_j = - \sum_{k=1}^K (\mu_{kj} \log(\mu_{kj})), \quad (7)$$

302 The popularity of a particular topic in a particular journal for a particular year,  
 303  $\mu_{kj}^t$  is a fraction of the popularity of all topics in a journal for a particular year:

$$304 \mu_{kj}^t = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dk} \times I(|j_d - j| + |t_d - t|)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dl} \times I(|j_d - j| + |t_d - t|)}, \quad (8)$$

305 A timeseries of topic popularity in each journal,  $\mu_{kj}^t$ , allows us to quantify the evolving  
 306 relationship between topic distributions in different journals over time. To do this, we  
 307 consider journal ‘‘uniqueness’’ as a measure of distance of a the topic distribution in a  
 308 particular journal from the topic distribution over the entire corpus of all journals. This  
 309 distance is quantifiable by Jensen Shannon distance  $d_{js}$  (Endres & Schindelin, 2003), a  
 310 close relative of Jensen-Shannon divergence  $JSD$  (Osterreicher & Vajda, 2003). Jensen-  
 311 Shannon divergence is a class of information-theoretic divergence based on Shannon en-  
 312 tropy (Lin, 1991). It measures similarity between two probability distributions, where  
 313  $JSD=0$  represents identical distributions.  $JSD$  is also a symmetrized and smoothed ver-  
 314 sion of Kullback-Leibler divergence  $KLD$ .

315 For journal  $j$ ,  $\mu_j$  is the overall topic distribution across all articles in the journal.  
 316 Considering the topic distributions from two journals,  $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$ , the  $JSD$  is:

$$317 JSD(\mu_a, \mu_b) = \frac{1}{2}KLD(\mu_a, \mu^*) + \frac{1}{2}KLD(\mu^*, \mu_b), \quad (9)$$

318 where

$$319 KLD(\mu, \mu^*) = \sum_{k=1}^k \mu_k \log \frac{\mu_k}{\mu_k^*} \quad (10)$$

320 is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between the topic distributions  $\mu$  and  $\mu^*$ , and  $\mu^* =$   
 321  $\frac{1}{2}(\mu_a + \mu_b)$ .

322 Hall et al. (2008) and X. Sun et al. (2016) explored the space of similarity and dif-  
 323 ferences between journals with hierarchical clustering. However, X. Sun et al. (2016) used  
 324 Jensen-Shannon distance  $d_{js}$  instead of  $JSD$  for this purpose. We also used Jensen-Shannon  
 325 distance  $d_{js}$  as the metric for understanding the relationship dynamics between the dif-  
 326 ferent journals and demonstrate their divergence according to their corresponding pop-  
 327 ularity of topics:

$$328 d_{js}(i, j) = \sqrt{JSD(\mu_i, \mu_j)} \quad (11)$$

We estimated journal “Uniqueness” as the Jensen-Shannon distance  $d_{js}$  of each journal from the entire corpus:

$$d_{js}^d(j) = \sqrt{JSD(\mu_j, \mu_m)}, \quad (12)$$

where  $\mu_m$  is the topic distribution over entire corpus of  $M$  abstracts. Temporal variation of this uniqueness was estimated by calculating the Jensen-Shannon distance on a per-year basis for each journal,  $d_{js}^t$ .

## 4 Results and Analysis

### 4.1 Naming the topics

The LDA model outputs a certain number of words in each topic and assigns weights to each of those words based on their likelihood of appearance within a particular topic. The topics from our  $K = 25$  LDA model correspond strongly with research areas within hydrology. We identified and named the  $K = 25$  topics by first looking at the topic-word distributions (the set of words most likely to appear within a particular topic), and the per-document topic distributions (from the titles of articles most closely associated with each topic). Here again, we draw on our prior training and education in hydrology. We reinforced our choices of names for these topics with an informal survey sent to four reputable hydrologists outside of our research group.

Figure 5 illustrates the topic-word distributions in the form of wordclouds. Again, the topic labels in this figure were assigned by the researchers using the procedure described above.

### 4.2 Temporal distribution of topics

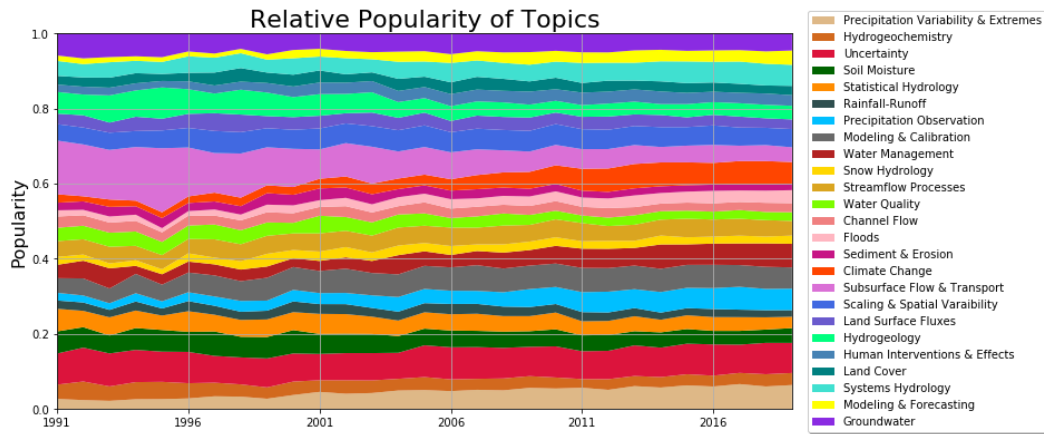
The popularity of each identified topic changes with time, and these trends are also shown in Figure 5. Some topics, such as “Precipitation Variability Extremes”, “Precipitation Observation”, “Water Management”, “Floods”, “Climate Change”, “Systems Hydrology” and “Modeling Forecasting” demonstrate a clear rising trend in popularity. These rising trends might be attributed to researchers increasingly leveraging the availability and accessibility of hydrology related data, both in terms of breadth and depth. Topics such as “Hydrogeochemistry”, “Soil Moisture”, “Statistical Hydrology”, “Rainfall-Runoff”, “Water Quality”, “Channel Flow”, “Sediment Erosion”, “Subsurface Flow Transport”, “Scaling Spatial Variability”, “Land Surface Fluxes”, “Hydrogeology”, “Land Cover” and “Groundwater” have demonstrated explicit decreasing temporal trends. Such behaviors might be attributed to a multitude of intrinsic and extrinsic reasons, including an inflation of specialized journals and authors’ preferences for such journals. The remainder of topics do not demonstrate any discernible increasing or decreasing trend.

We further coupled the individual temporal distributions of topics with a relative popularity of topics plot (Figure 6). Unlike Figure 5, this plot shows topic trends on the same scale. Although “Subsurface Flow Transport” was the most popular topic in the 1990s, it steadily lost popularity within our corpus since then. However, “Uncertainty” rose from the second most popular topic in 1991 to become the current most popular topic. The other most popular topics currently are “Water Management”, “Precipitation Variability”, “Climate Change”, “Modeling Calibration”, and “Precipitation Observation”.

### 4.3 Inter-topic correlations

An intuitive way to depict inter-topic correlations  $R_{k,j}$  are chord-diagrams. Correlation coefficients measure correlations between per-paper topic weights, meaning that a higher  $R_{k,j}$  indicates that papers that contain word groups that indicate a high degree of inclusion in topic  $k$  also tend to contain word groups that indicate a degree of inclusion in topic  $j$ . Positive correlation coefficient between pairs of topics indicate some





**Figure 6.** Temporal variation of topic popularity relative to each other.

376 degree of information exchange between these topics, and vice-versa. Positive and neg-  
 377 ative inter-topic correlations are shown in Figure 7, where the width of each chord rep-  
 378 represents the overall correlation between a pair of topics. For ease of viewing, positive cor-  
 379 relations are only plotted for  $R_{k,j} > 0.05$  and negative correlations  $R_{k,j} < -0.05$ .

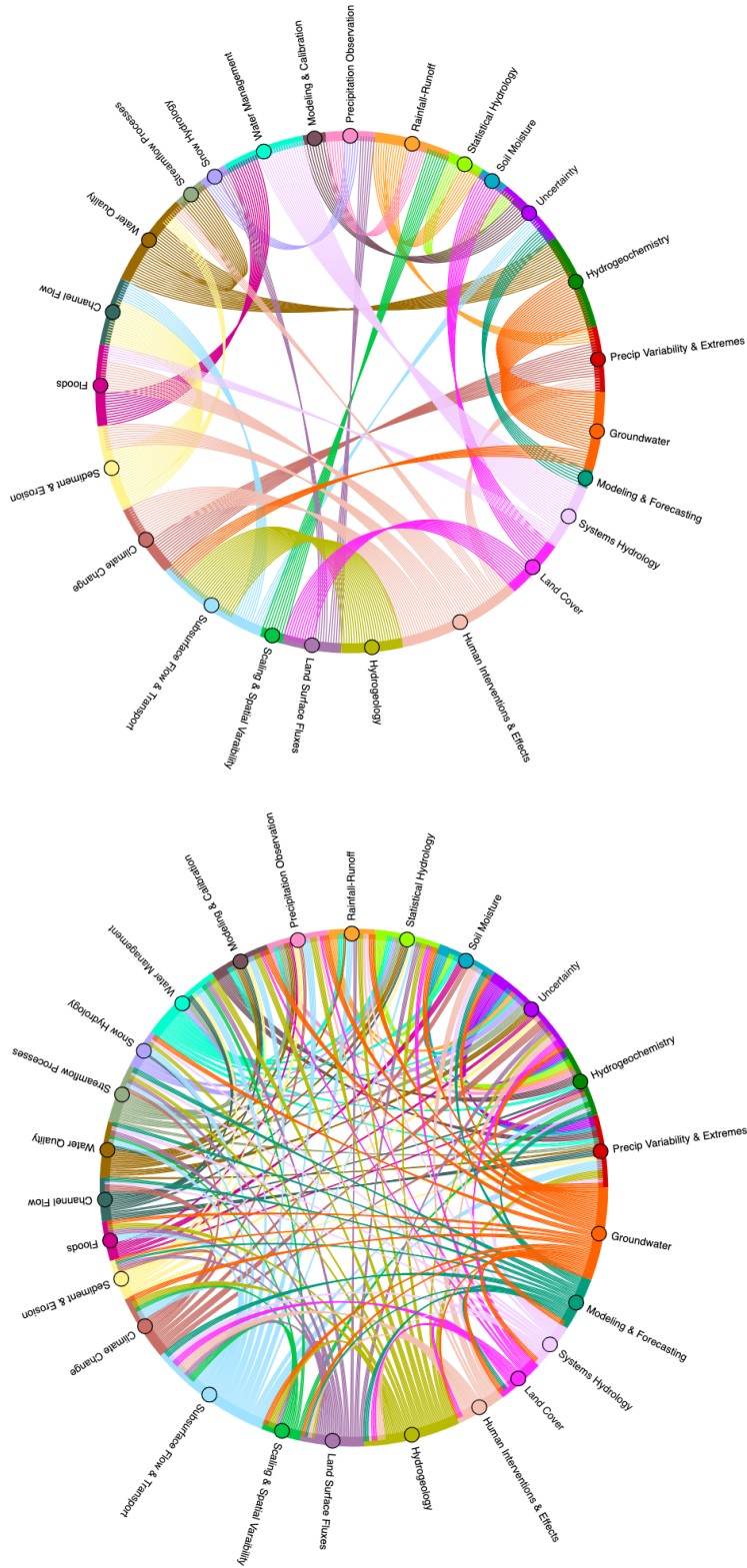
#### 380 **4.3.1 Positive inter-topic correlations**

381 Both modeling related topics - “Modeling Calibration” and “Modeling Forecast-  
 382 ing” are (predictably) positively correlated with “Uncertainty” indicating uncertainty  
 383 quantification research is a commonality in hydrological modeling communities. A dis-  
 384 tinctly significant correlation can be observed between “Scaling Spatial Variability” and  
 385 “Rainfall-Runoff” topics, pertaining to the scale dependencies of rainfall-runoff models  
 386 and studies (e.g., Chiew et al., 2010; Faurès, Goodrich, Woolhiser, & Sorooshian, 1995;  
 387 Koren et al., 1999). “Systems Hydrology” demonstrates strong correlations with “Wate-  
 388 r Management” and “Floods”. “Human Interventions Effects” is a topic about the  
 389 impacts of anthropogenic interventions on natural hydrosystems. Research communities  
 390 working within this domain clearly (and plausibly) exchange information with a num-  
 391 ber of other topics, including “Climate Change”, “Sediment Erosion”, “Floods”, “Wate-  
 392 r Quality” and “Precipitation Variability Extremes”. Multiple studies focus on the  
 393 impacts of human interventions and climate change on natural hydrosystems (e.g., Gor-  
 394 nitz, Rosenzweig, & Hillel, 1997; Haddeland et al., 2014; Mittal, Bhawe, Mishra, & Singh,  
 395 2016). Studies also relate anthropogenic interventions with changing water quality and  
 396 erosion (e.g. Nicholls et al., 2018; Rahman, Hassan, Islam, & Shamsad, 2000; Romanescu,  
 397 2013).

398 Subsurface and related research communities - e.g., “Groundwater”, “Hydrogeo-  
 399 chemistry”, “Water Quality”, “Hydrogeology” - also demonstrate significant relation-  
 400 ships. We again observe such patterns between precipitation related topics, i.e. “Snow  
 401 Hydrology” and “Precipitation Observation”; “Rainfall-Runoff,” “Precipitation Obser-  
 402 vation” and “Precipitation Variability Extremes”. Again, as might be expected, “Land  
 403 Cover” research demonstrates clear exchange with the “Soil Moisture” and “Land Sur-  
 404 face Flux” topics.

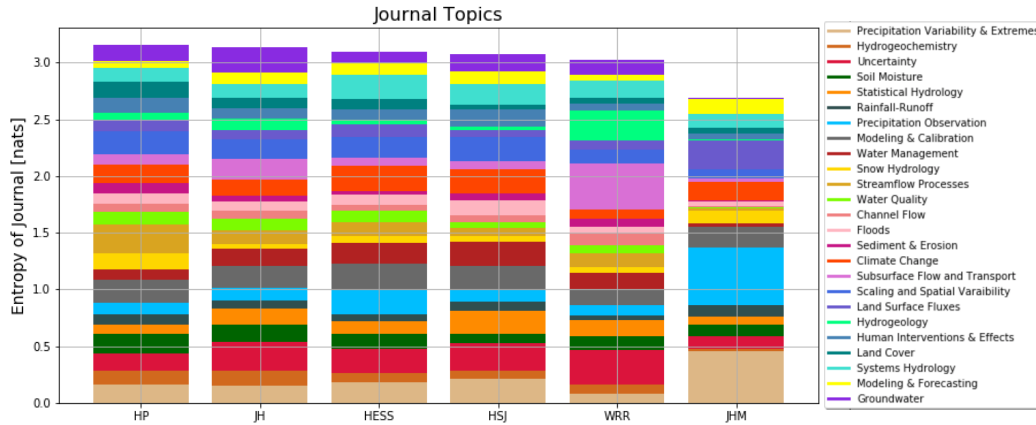
#### 405 **4.3.2 Negative inter-topic correlations**

406 One distinct narrative from the analysis of negative inter-topic correlations is the  
 407 lack of papers associated with both surface and subsurface related topics. Both model-



**Figure 7.** Inter-topic correlations: positive correlations in the upper subplot and negative correlations in the lower subplot. Only correlations with significance at  $\alpha = 0.10$  are shown.





**Figure 8.** Total bar height represents the overall diversity of topic distributions of each journal for the whole study period. The stacked color bars represent the fraction of papers representing each individual topic in that journal.

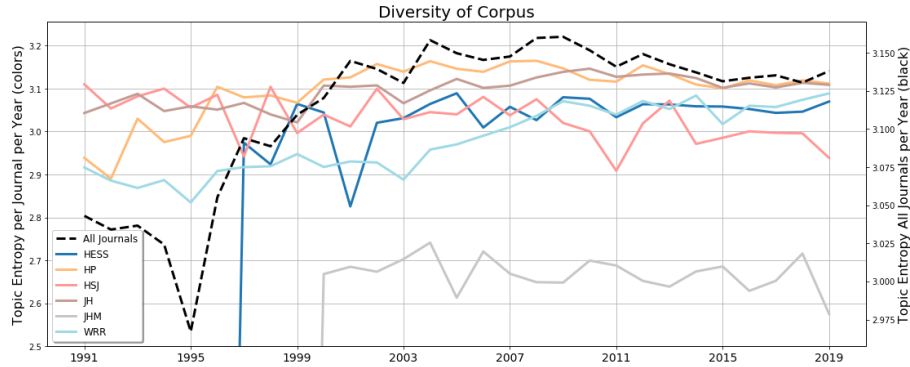
408 ing related topics are negatively correlated with topics such as “Hydrogeology”, “Hydro-  
 409 geochemistry” and “Water Quality”. Some perhaps unexpected absences of correlation  
 410 are between “Groundwater” and “Systems Hydrology”, “Modeling Forecasting”, “Scal-  
 411 ing Spatial Variability”, “Soil Moisture”, “Uncertainty”, “Snow Hydrology” research  
 412 communities. “Modeling Forecasting” topics lack correlation with “Snow Hydrology”,  
 413 “Water Quality”, “Sediment Erosion”, “Subsurface Flow Transport”, “Hydrogeochem-  
 414 istry”, and “Soil Moisture”. These negative correlations indicate potential for expand-  
 415 ing avenues of collaborative research.

#### 416 4.4 Journal diversity

417 We leveraged the unique advantage of topic modeling to provide a contextual un-  
 418 derstanding of the six high-impact journals in hydrology sampled for this study. Total  
 419 entropy,  $H_j$ , is a measure of the diversity of topics in each journal. The stacked bar plots  
 420 in Figure 8 show the relative fraction of topic representation in each journal, with the  
 421 total height of each bar representing the journal’s topic entropy.

422 Most of the journals in this study had relatively similar diversity with *HP* being  
 423 the most topic-diverse and *JHM* being the least. It could be plausibly argued that *JHM*  
 424 is a specialty journal, dealing with only one aspect of hydrological research (hydrome-  
 425 teorology); precipitation-related topics dominate that journal. Of the other five journals,  
 426 *WRR* is the least diverse, with more papers in the “Water Quality” and “Subsurface Flow  
 427 and Transport” topics. These are both topics that have topic specific journals, and so  
 428 it might be the case that if a larger sample of journals was analyzed that we might find  
 429 that *WRR* has a more representative mixture of topics than the other journals analyzed  
 430 here.

431 Figure 9 shows the temporal variability of topic entropy (diversity) over time. The  
 432 overall diversity for our entire corpus rose from the 1990s and peaked around 2009. Since  
 433 then, the overall entropy of the corpus has remained steady or slightly decreased. *HESS*



**Figure 9.** Temporal variation of the diversity of each journal, as measured by the entropy of that journal’s topic distribution in a particular year.

434 and *JHM* started publishing in 1997 and 2000 respectively, and the diversity of this cor-  
 435 pus rose steadily around this time. *JHM* again demonstrated lower overall diversity com-  
 436 pared with the other five, and even a dip in diversity in 2019 that might be an anomaly.  
 437 *WRR* rose steadily in topic diversity during this time period.

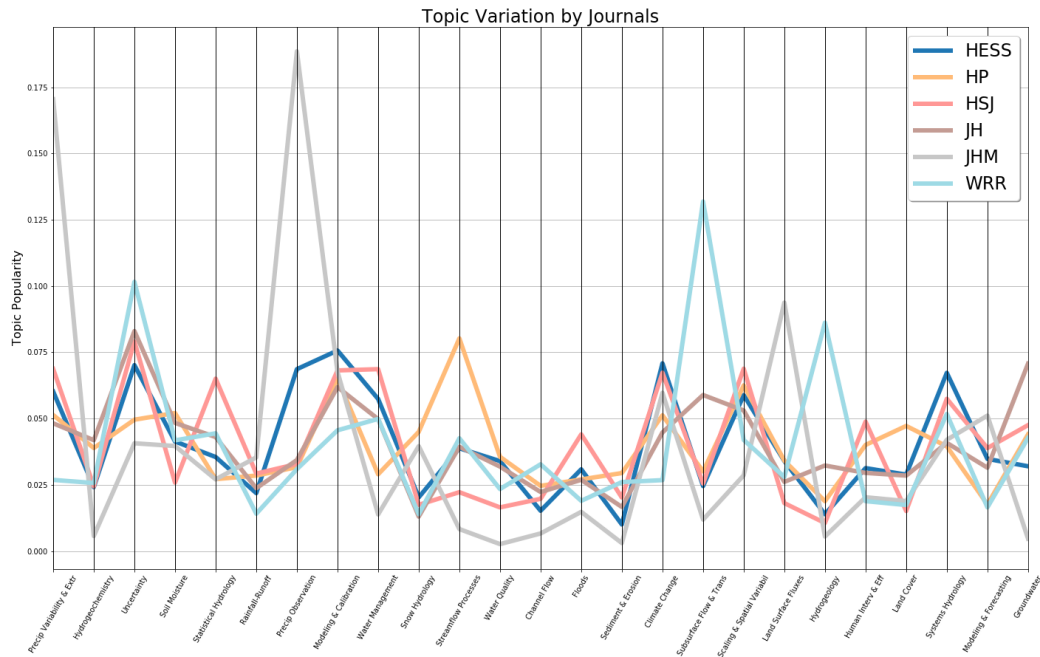
#### 438 4.4.1 Topic Variation by Journals

439 We use Figure 10, a parallel coordinate plot, to depict the journal-wise variation  
 440 of topic popularities  $\mu_{kj}$ . Each topic in the plot is a coordinate and each journal is a line  
 441 in the coordinate. This analysis offers insights into the distribution of topics within the  
 442 six journals. As expected, *JHM* inclines significantly towards precipitation, climatolog-  
 443 ical and forecasting related topics. Conversely, *JHM* steers away from subsurface related  
 444 topics such as “Hydrogeochemistry” and “Groundwater”. *WRR* distinctly publishes most  
 445 “Subsurface Flow Trends” and “Hydrogeology” related papers among the journal set;  
 446 demonstrating a clear preference of researchers in these topics for *WRR*. *HP* leads in pub-  
 447 lishing research in “Streamflow Processes” topics, while *HSJ* leads in “Statistical Hydrol-  
 448 ogy” and “Floods” topics. For most of the other topics, including “Uncertainty”, “Cli-  
 449 mate Change”, “Scaling Spatial Variability”, and “Systems Hydrology”, popularity of  
 450 topics is more homogeneously distributed. *HESS* and *JH* appear to be publishing rel-  
 451 atively indistinctive, and therefore homogeneous mixture of topics.

#### 452 4.4.2 Uniqueness and divergence of journals

453 Differences between journals, as measured by the Jensen-Shannon Distance,  $d_{js}$  be-  
 454 tween pairs of journals, are shown in Figure 11. Here again, we observe significant dif-  
 455 ferences between *JHM* and the rest of the corpus. The highest degrees of topic simi-  
 456 larity are between *HESS* vs. *HP* and *HJ*. *WRR* is also similar to *JH*, but less so to  
 457 *HESS*.

458 We used the Jensen-Shannon distance from the topic distribution of each journal  
 459 to the topic distribution of the full corpus,  $d_{js(j,m)}$ , to represent journal uniqueness. A  
 460 journal is more unique if this distance is greater, and vice-versa. The temporal variation  
 461 of these distances for each journal  $d_{js}^t$  is demonstrated in Figure 12. This figure shows  
 462 that the topic distributions in most of the journals are becoming less unique (i.e., the  
 463 journals are generally becoming more similar). The exception to this *HP*, which has in-  
 464 creased in uniqueness for the past six years (since 2012).



**Figure 10.** Parallel coordinate plot where each topic is a coordinate and each journal is a line in the coordinate

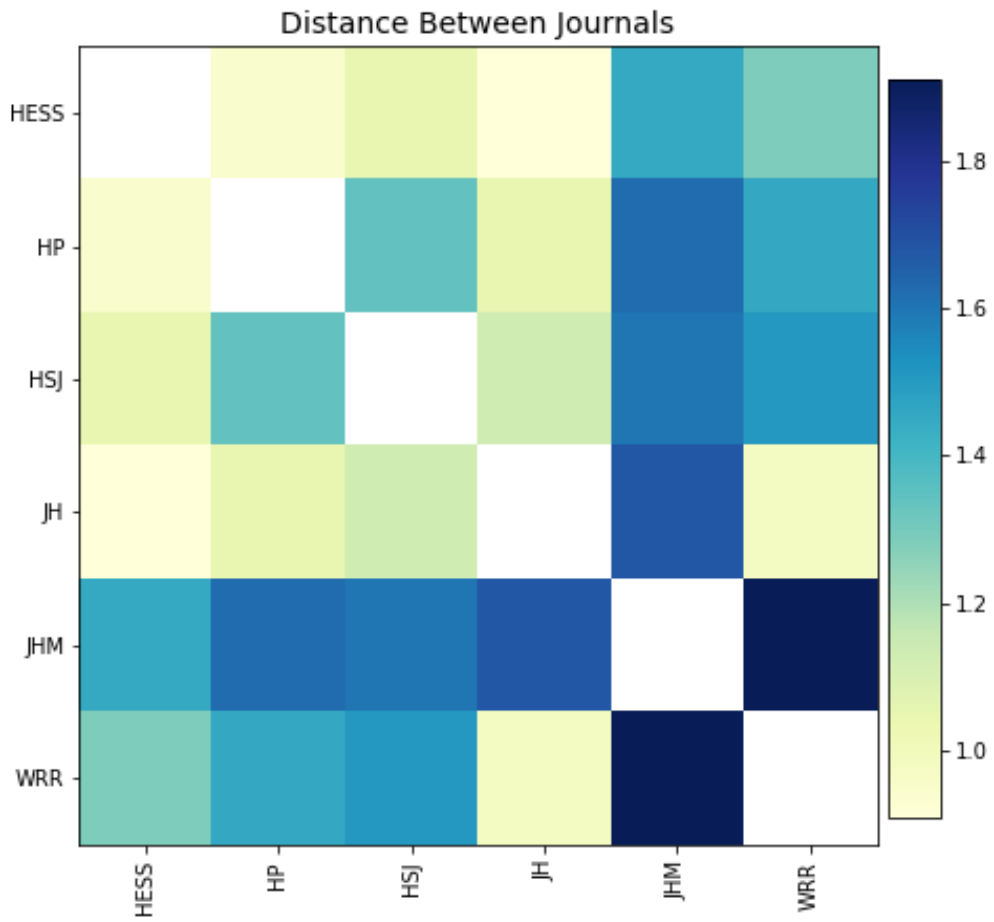
465 *JHM* again demonstrates the highest uniqueness among the six owing to its bias  
 466 towards more meteorology related topics and papers. Although *WRR* had the most ho-  
 467 mogeneous mixture of topics in the early 1990s (Figure 9, and here had the lowest de-  
 468 gree of uniqueness relative to the rest of the corpus during the same time period. While  
 469 both journals increased in topic diversity steadily, *JH* has retained the most represen-  
 470 tative journal in this group.

## 471 5 Conclusion

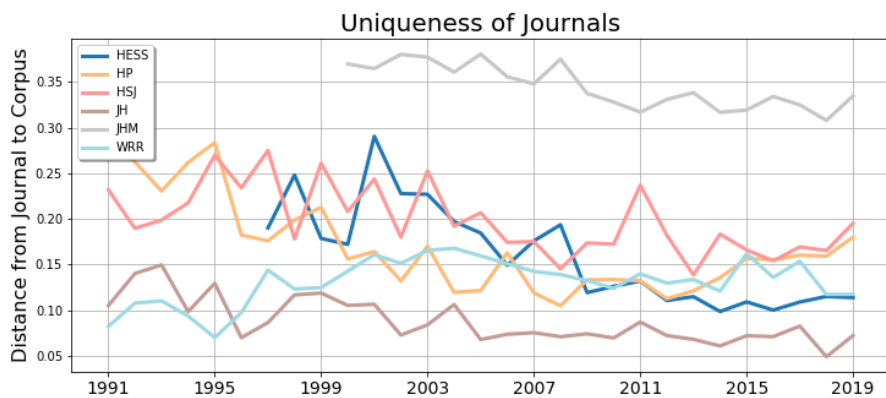
### 472 5.1 Summary of findings

473 In this paper, we applied topic modeling using latent Dirchlet allocation (LDA) on  
 474 the article-abstracts of six high-impact journals in hydrologic science. This yielded a con-  
 475 textual understanding of topic trends and diversity in this corpus of hydrologic science  
 476 literature using unsupervised learning, without any a priori understanding of or labels  
 477 on the dataset. Human understanding was used a posteriori to assign topic names. This  
 478 method leverages commonly available computational resources - i.e., a small compute  
 479 cluster - to train multiple parallelized LDA models. The resulting topics were carefully  
 480 identified with the help of veteran hydrologists. Our intent with these experiments is to  
 481 provide an example of and intuition about LDA to hydrologists, and to help develop a  
 482 first-order, high-level picture of existing hydrological literature to aid researchers, prac-  
 483 titioners, and stakeholders to understand broad themes in hydrological research. of this  
 484 science, the results were further used to analyze the evolution of topics based on LDA's  
 485 partitioning of abstract-words for different topics with increasing number of topics.

486 Posterior document-topic and topic-word distributions generated from the model  
 487 were aggregated to analyze temporal trends in topic distributions, relative temporal dis-  
 488 tribution of topics, and inter-topic correlations. Significant inter-topic relationships were  
 489 observed for data driven topics related to modeling, forecasting, and uncertainty. Some



**Figure 11.** Jensen-Shannon distance between the whole-period topic distributions in each journal. Low distances indicate similar distributions of topics between two journals.



**Figure 12.** Temporal variation of individual journal uniqueness, measured as the Jensen-Shannon distance of each journal from the entire corpus

490 subsurface topics such as subsurface flow and transport, groundwater and hydrogeology  
 491 lost significant popularity within the journals in our sample set. Notable relationships  
 492 could be seen among research topics and communities concentrating on anthropogenic  
 493 activities and their impacts on hydrosystems, climate and the environment. Such rela-  
 494 tionships could also be seen between data-driven research communities, indicating a broader  
 495 exchange of big data and data-driven methods between them.

496 We further utilized topic distributions in specific journals to assess the total diver-  
 497 sity of topics in individual journals, as well as temporal evolution of journal complex-  
 498 ities, uniqueness of individual journals, and differences between topic distributions in pairs  
 499 of journals. Overall, with increasing volume of publications, the journals in our dataset  
 500 appear to be broadening their scopes and gradually including a more interdisciplinary  
 501 variety of research topics.

## 502 **5.2 Future outlook**

503 The volume of scientific research in general is exploding. It is impossible for any-  
 504 one to keep up, and practitioners are generally familiar with a very small slice of the lit-  
 505 erature even in their own field. This makes it difficult for researchers to be confident they  
 506 fully understand the state of the science, and makes it challenging to expand into new  
 507 research topics. We envision that in the long-term future, ML will be an integral part  
 508 of the tool set available to help scientists synthesize the existing state-of-the-science. While  
 509 this paper does not give us a tool for directly aiding literature review, but it is an early  
 510 step in helping us understand how we might approach problems related to synthesizing  
 511 diverse bodies of hydrological literature. There have been several bibliometric analy-  
 512 ses of hydrology literature (e.g., Clark & Hanson, 2017; Koutsoyiannis & Kundzewicz,  
 513 2007; Rajaram et al., 2015; Zare, Elsayah, Iwanaga, Jakeman, & Pierce, 2017), however  
 514 ML has the potential to allow for faster, and more contextual analyses of large corpuses.  
 515 In the future, we envision an interactive website with tools that researchers can use to  
 516 aid topic-based literature discovery.

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 521 [doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3862833](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3862833).

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