

Hidden Stories: Topic Modeling in Hydrologic 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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21 Abstract

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

41 1 Introduction

42 Hydrologic research generates large volumes of peer-reviewed literature across a plethora
 43 of evolving topics and sub-topics (Figure 1). Keeping pace with these changes, the hy-
 44 drological sciences community is increasingly required to advocate and advise sustain-
 45 able development through water resources awareness and management (Montanari et al.,
 46 2013). Science communication itself is also evolving rapidly due to the growing volume
 47 and intricacy of research outputs and also to the increased need for science-informed pol-
 48 icy. There is a growing need for more sophisticated “scientific” ways to synthesize and
 49 communicate research findings (Nisbet & Scheufele, 2009).

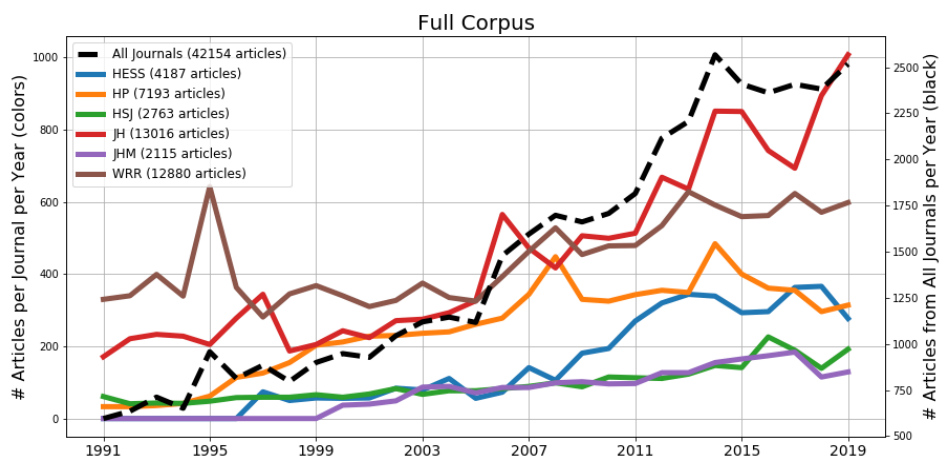


Figure 1. Number of articles published per year between 1991 and 2019 in six major hydrology journals (Source: Web of Science, Scimago Journal and Country Rank)

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

57 Topic modeling is a type of NLP that uses statistical algorithms to extract semantic
58 information from a collection of texts in the form of thematic classes (Jiang, Qiang,
59 & Lin, 2016). Topic models can be applied to massive collections of documents (Blei,
60 2012) and have been used to recommend scientific articles based on both content and
61 user ratings (C. Wang & Blei, 2011). Topic modeling has also been used to cluster sci-
62 entific documents (Yau, Porter, Newman, & Suominen, 2014), improve bibliographic search
63 (Jardine & Teufel, 2014; Paul & Girju, 2009; Pham, Do, & Ta, 2018; Shu, Long, & Meng,
64 2009; Tang, Jin, & Zhang, 2008), and for a variety of other applications such as statis-
65 tical modeling of the biomedical corpora (Blei, Franks, Jordan, & Mian, 2006), biblio-
66 metric exploration of hydropower research (Jiang et al., 2016), analyzing research trends
67 in personal information privacy (Choi, Lee, & Sohn, 2017), meta-reviewing cloud com-
68 puting literature (Upreti, Asatiani, & Malo, 2016), literature review of social science (Li
69 & Liu, 2018), the technology-acceptance model (Mortenson & Vidgen, 2016), discover-
70 ing themes and trends in transportation research (S. Sun, Luo, & Chen, 2017), Knowl-
71 edge Management literature (Jussila et al., 2017), exploring the history of cognition (Priva
72 & Austerweil, 2015) and exploring topic divergence and similarities in scientific confer-
73 ences (Hall, Jurafsky, & Manning, 2008). Topic modeling algorithms allow for exploration
74 of a broad range of data including non-English corpuses (Riddell, 2014), software engi-
75 neering data (X. Sun et al., 2016), and even historical newspapers (Yang, Torget, & Mi-
76 halcea, 2011). Given the incremental popularity of topic models and its versatile appli-
77 cability in a wide range of applications, we wish to explore the potential for topic mod-
78 eling to aid bibliometric exploration of peer-reviewed hydrologic science literature.

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

93 In this study we applied topic modeling using unsupervised learning with Latent
94 Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) on 42,154 article-abstracts from six high-impact (Impact Fac-
95 tor > 0.9) journals in hydrology (Water Resources Research *WRR*, Hydrology and Earth
96 System Sciences *HESS*, Journal of Hydrology *JH*, Hydrological Processes *HP*, Hydro-
97 logical Sciences Journal *HSJ*, Journal of Hydrometeorology *JHM*). LDA identifies groups
98 of words commonly found together, and produces relationships between these word clus-
99 ters (topics) and individual documents. Using these topic-word distributions, we then
100 relied on a hybrid objective-subjective approach to label a number of broad topics. We
101 analyzed how these topics relate to each other and change over time and between jour-
102 nals.

As an example of what can be learned from this type of analysis, results show that data-driven research topics have been gaining in popularity in recent years, while some subsurface related topics appear to be declining in popularity within our journal sample set (although this may be due to the introduction of new groundwater journals during our study’s time period). Significant statistical relationships were observed between topics - for example, research on anthropogenic interventions and effects is significantly correlated with research on climate change, hydromorphology, flooding, water quality, and extreme events. We further analyzed topic distributions in individual journals to help understand the diversity of topics within journals and uniqueness of topics between journals. While no journal in our sample is completely homogeneous, JHM and WRR exhibited the most notable preference for certain topics. A majority of the journals in our corpus appear to be broadening their scope over time.

The methods and outcomes of this type of literature analysis are potentially beneficial to scientists and researchers who aim to gain a high-level or contextual understanding of the existing state of hydrologic science. In the long term, we see NLP, and topic modeling in particular, as potentially useful for helping scientists navigate exponentially-growing bodies of peer-review literature, and to help increase the efficiency of science communication and science-informed policy and decision making outside of the academic discipline itself.

2 Methods

Table 1 lists all notations used throughout this paper, including variables and indices related to the model and corpus.

2.1 Data acquisition and preprocessing

2.1.1 Repository of article-abstracts

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

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

2.1.2 Preprocessing the corpus

Performance of topic modeling is influenced by the quality of input training data. Data preprocessing in text mining involves converting acquired data into canonical format for efficacious feature extraction (Feldman, Sanger, et al., 2007). LDA ingests training data in a specific format; much different from the format we acquire the data in. A significant portion of the raw data for our corpus is extraneous information that may not add value to the content of our training data and requires appropriate preprocessing.

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

Notation	Meaning
Corpus Parameters	
M	Number of documents
N_d	Number of words in document d
t_d	Year of publication of document d
LDA Model Components	
K	Number of topics
K_{opt}	Optimal number of topics
α	Parameters of a Dirichlet prior on the per-document topic distribution
β	Parameters of a Dirichlet prior on the per-topic word distribution
μ_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
Derived Distributions	
μ_{kj}	Weight of a particular topic k over all documents in journal j
μ_{kt}	Average weight for topic k over all documents at time t
$\hat{\mu}_k$	Mean weight of topic k over all documents
μ_{kj}^t	Weight of topic k in journal j at time t
μ_m	Topic distribution over entire corpus of M documents
Derived Metrics & Functions	
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 (complexity) 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

Journal Name	Abbreviation	IF	Years Available	Total Abstracts
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

We used separate temporally-segregated dataframes for abstracts from each journal. All sets of data were processed through identical multi-layered cleaning routines. We initiated the process by first creating a dataframe of all article-abstracts and their corresponding metadata. We then filtered nonsensical elements such as stopwords, punctuation, and symbols, in addition to subjective manual identification and removal of unwanted elements.

In the next step, we formed bi-grams and tri-grams, and then segmented the texts by tokenizing with whitespaces as word boundaries, followed by lemmatization to normalize into a canonical format. The resultant output was converted into a term frequency-inverse document frequency (TF-IDF) format for ingesting by the LDA model implemented in *Gensim* - a Python library for NLP (Řehřek & Sojka, 2011).

2.2 Latent Dirichlet Allocation

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

We can build an intuition of this model as follows. It is assumed that the per-document topic distributions of all documents in a corpus share a common Dirichlet prior parameterized by α , and that the per-topic word distributions also share a (different) common Dirichlet prior parameterized by β . The distribution over a particular word w in a document d with topic distribution μ_d can be understood as (Blei, Ng, & Jordan, 2003):

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

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

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

The above is an intuition only. In actuality, LDA assumes a generating model (i.e., a model of how the corpus was produced) that samples each μ_d once for each word in a corpus, which means that each document contains a mixture of topics, meaning that each document has its own per-document topic distribution. This means that each document d can be associated with an N_d vector of topics, \mathbf{z}_d , - one topic for each word in the document. This generating model is described in more detail by Blei et al. (2003) and others.

Training the LDA model involves estimating the per-document topic distributions, μ_d , and the per-document topic vectors, \mathbf{z}_d given the words in a document, \mathbf{w}_d and the Dirichlet priori parameters: $p(\mu_d, \mathbf{z}_d|\mathbf{w}_d, \alpha, \beta)$. This can be done using a variety of methods, including Gibbs Sampling (Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004), variational expectation-maximization algorithm (VEM) (Blei et al., 2003), and others. Model overfitting is generally not a major issue for unsupervised learning with LDA, which is a Bayesian model.

Here, we used an LDA implementation in the Python *Gensim* package with VEM. We trained our models with the number of passes set to 3000 and chunksize (number of documents in a batch) set to 100. We used a parallel implementation of LDA in *Gensim* to train individual models with topic sizes ranging from $K = 2$ to $K = 40$; each model trained using 40 shared-memory cores on a single node of a high performance cluster.

194 Using these settings it took on the order of a few hours to train a single model: between
 195 3-15 hours per model on our particular machine, depending on K .

196 2.3 Choosing an optimal number of topics

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

203 2.3.1 Objective approach to choose optimal number of topics

204 We used a combination of perplexity p and coherence c scores as objective metrics
 205 to evaluate model performance over a range of numbers of topics. Perplexity is a pop-
 206 ular metric for evaluating language models (Chen, Beeferman, & Rosenfeld, 1998). Per-
 207 perplexity is an information theory metric that measures something like how surprised the
 208 model might be on the introduction of new data (Zhao et al., 2015). Formally defined
 209 by Blei et al. (2003), perplexity for a collection of M documents is:

$$210 \quad p = \exp \left\{ - \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \log p(w_d)}{\sum_{d=1}^M N_d} \right\} \quad (3)$$

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

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

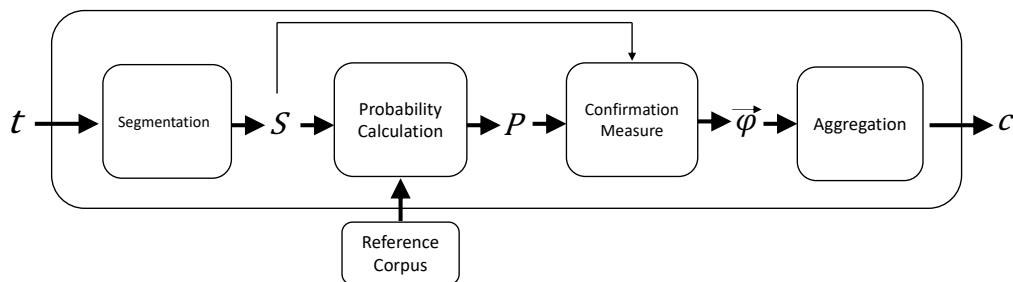


Figure 2. Illustration of the four stages of the unified topic coherence framework. In stage 1, input words t are segmented into smaller sets S . Probabilities of occurrence P of words are calculated based on the reference corpus in the second stage. In the third stage, P and S are ingested to measure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

217

218 Figure 2 (adapted from Röder et al., 2015) illustrates these four steps. t represents
 219 an input collection of words, and the first stage creates a set of different kinds of seg-
 220 mentation of words S from t , since coherence measures the fitting together of words or
 221 a set of words. Secondly, probabilities of occurrence of words P are calculated based on

222 reference corpus. Confirmation measure ingests both P and S to yield the agreements
 223 φ of pairs of S . In the final step, the aforementioned scores are aggregated to compute
 224 coherence c .

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

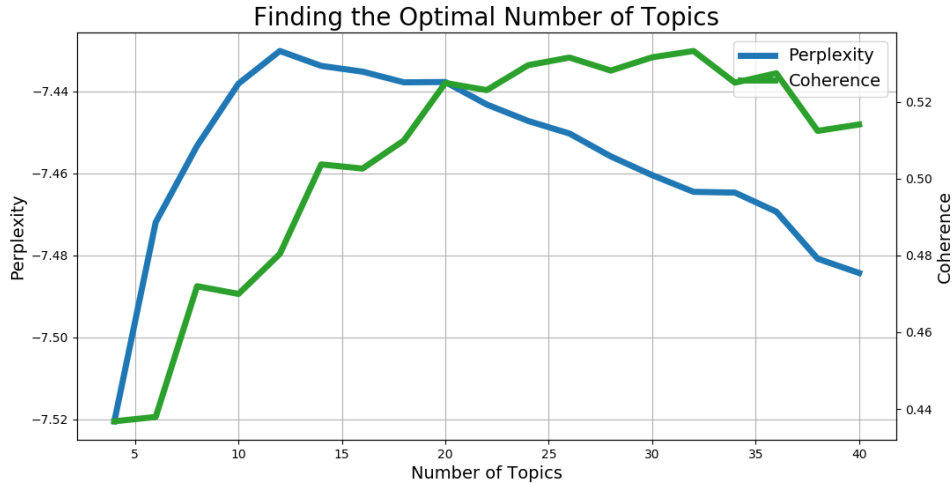


Figure 3. Variation of topic coherence c and perplexity p based on LDA models trained for a range of topic numbers ($K = 2$ to $K = 40$). Lower perplexity and higher coherence indicate a better model. These values guide our subjective analysis for choosing K_{opt}

230 **2.3.2 Subjective approach to choosing optimal number of topics**

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

241 There was consistency between individual topics found with different values of K
 242 as K increased. Figure 4 is a partial illustration of the topic evolution with increasing
 243 topic number. All of the topic names shown on this chart were chosen by researchers based
 244 on looking at the keywords that the model associated with each topic, as well as the 100
 245 abstract titles that had the strongest association with each topic. With a low number
 246 of topics, $K = 2$, the model partitioned the dataset into categories that were (vaguely)
 247 related to surface hydrology and terrestrial processes vs. subsurface and hydraulics. With
 248 further increase in number of topics - e.g., $K = 5$ - the surface hydrology topic was par-
 249 tioned into topics related primarily to climate change, terrestrial processes, and mod-

250 eling, while the subsurface topic split into topics defined by keywords related to hydraulics
 251 and groundwater, with some papers splitting to join the more refined modeling and ter-
 252 restrial processes topics. The LDA model partitioning became more refined with further
 253 increases in the number of topics, and the resulting topics became clearer and more well-
 254 defined. Increased topic refinement caused separation and merger of different closely re-
 255 lated topics. As an example, at $K = 10$, a single modeling related topic split into hy-
 256 draulic modeling and catchment modeling. Hydraulic modeling split further and com-
 257 bined with a flow and transport topic to form a topic based on flow and transport mod-
 258 eling. Simultaneously, catchment modeling split further and merged with specific sub-
 259 topics such as climate change, water management and statistical hydrology. It's impor-
 260 tant to understand that especially at small topic numbers, these topics are fairly vague
 261 and the topic names that we assigned are indicators of broad themes.

262 3 Analysis Methods

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

266 3.0.1 Temporal distribution of topics

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

$$278 \mu_{kt} = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dk} \times I(t_d - t)}{\sum_{d=1}^M I(t_d - t)}. \quad (4)$$

279 μ_{dk} represents the weight for topic k assigned to document d , t_d is the year in which doc-
 280 ument d was published, and I is an indicator function such that $I(0) = 1$ and $I(x) =$
 281 0 for $x \neq 0$. Henceforth, I will carry the same meaning.

282 3.0.2 Inter-topic correlations

283 We explored relationships between topics by looking at the correlation coefficient
 284 $R_{k,j}$ between the topic weights over the whole corpus M for each pair of topics:

$$285 R_{k,j} = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M (\mu_{dk} - \hat{\mu}_k)(\mu_{dj} - \hat{\mu}_j)}{\sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^M (\mu_{dk} - \hat{\mu}_k)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^M (\mu_{dj} - \hat{\mu}_j)^2}}, \quad (5)$$

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

289 3.0.3 Journal complexity

290 the K-nomial distribution over topics in a particular journal j , μ_j , is:

$$291 \mu_{kj} = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dk} \times I(j_d - j)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dl} \times I(j_d - j)}, \quad (6)$$

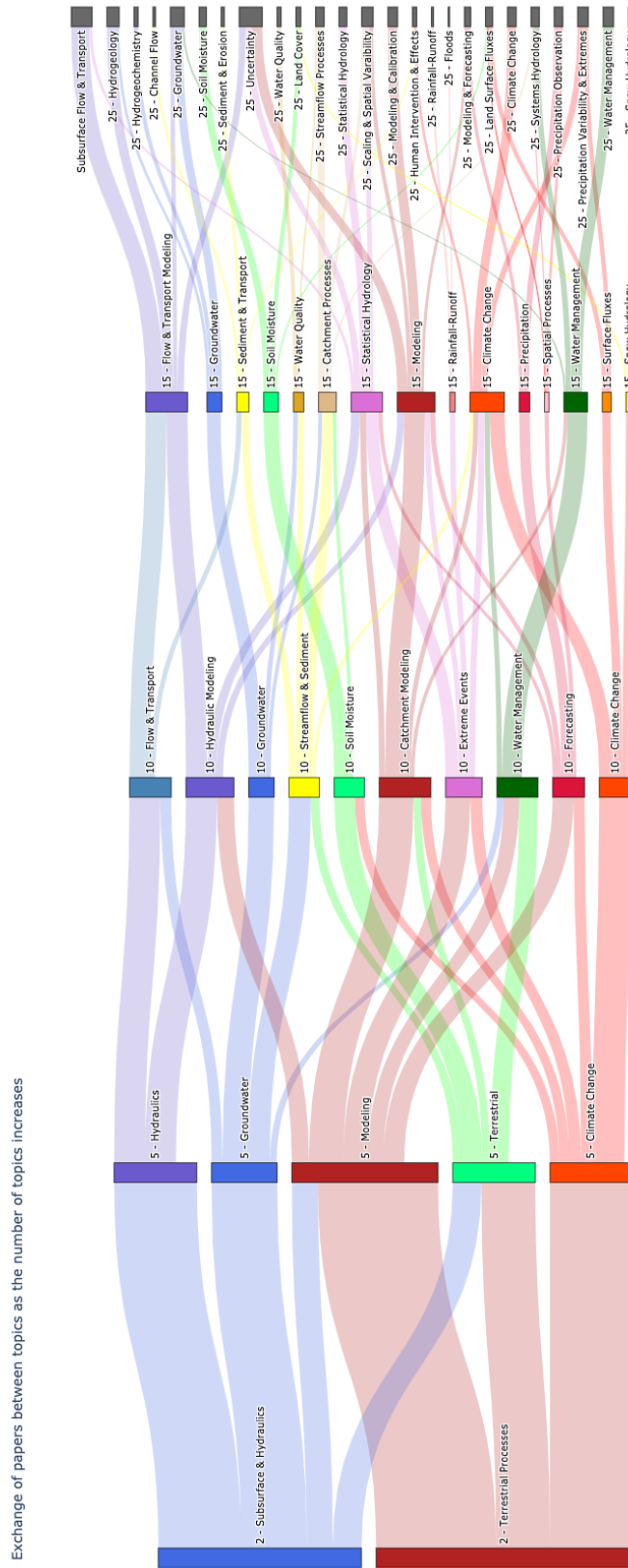


Figure 4. Evolution of topics with increasing number of topics K . Lines in the Sankey diagram represent papers shared by each topic (at different topic numbers), where each paper is weighted by the relative proportion of inclusion in the sending topic (i.e., the topic at the smaller number of topics).

292 where μ_{kj} is the relative popularity of a particular topic in a particular journal as a frac-
 293 tion of popularity of all topics in the journal.

294 Entropy is a measure of the uncertainty in a probability distribution (Shannon, 1948).
 295 We calculated the total entropy of each μ_j , H_j , as a measure of the complexity of the
 296 per-journal topic distributions:

$$297 \quad H_j = - \sum_{k=1}^K (\mu_{kj} \log(\mu_{kj})), \quad (7)$$

298 Finally the popularity of a particular topic in a particular journal for a particular
 299 year, μ_{kj}^t is a fraction of the popularity of all topics in a journal for a particular year:

$$300 \quad \mu_{kj}^t = \frac{\sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dk} \times I(|j_d - j| + |t_d - t|)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^M \mu_{dl} \times I(|j_d - j| + |t_d - t|)}, \quad (8)$$

301 **3.0.4 Uniqueness and divergence of journals**

302 We consider ‘‘Uniqueness’’ as the measure of distance of a particular journal from
 303 the entire corpus of all journals. This distance is quantifiable by Jensen Shannon Dis-
 304 tance d_{js} (Endres & Schindelin, 2003), a close relative of Jensen-Shannon divergence JSD
 305 (Osterreicher & Vajda, 2003). Jensen-Shannon divergence is a class of information-theoretic
 306 divergence based on Shannon entropy (Lin, 1991). It measures similarity between two
 307 probability distributions, where $JSD=0$ represents identical distributions. JSD is also
 308 a symmetrized and smoothed version of Kullback-Leibler divergence KLD .

309 For journal j , μ_j is the overall topic distribution across all articles in the journal.
 310 Considering the topic distributions from two journals, μ_a and μ_b , the JSD is:

$$311 \quad JSD(\mu_a, \mu_b) = \frac{1}{2} KLD(\mu_a, \mu^*) + \frac{1}{2} KLD(\mu^*, \mu_b), \quad (9)$$

312 where

$$313 \quad KLD(\mu, \mu^*) = \sum_{k=1}^k \mu_k \log \frac{\mu_k}{\mu_k^*} \quad (10)$$

314 is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between the topic distributions μ and μ^* , and $\mu^* =$
 315 $\frac{1}{2}(\mu_a + \mu_b)$.

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

$$322 \quad d_{js}(i, j) = \sqrt{JSD(\mu_i, \mu_j)} \quad (11)$$

323 We estimated journal ‘‘Uniqueness’’ as the Jensen-Shannon distance d_{js} of each jour-
 324 nal from the entire corpus:

$$325 \quad d_{js}^d(j) = \sqrt{JSD(\mu_j, \mu_m)}, \quad (12)$$

326 where μ_m is the topic distribution over entire corpus of M abstracts. Temporal varia-
 327 tion of this uniqueness was estimated by calculating the Jensen-Shannon distance on a
 328 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 degree of information exchange between these topics, and vice-versa. Positive and negative inter-topic correlations are shown in Figure 7, where the width of each chord represents the overall correlation between a pair of topics. For ease of viewing, positive correlations are only plotted for $R_{k,j} > 0.05$ and negative correlations $R_{k,j} < -0.05$.

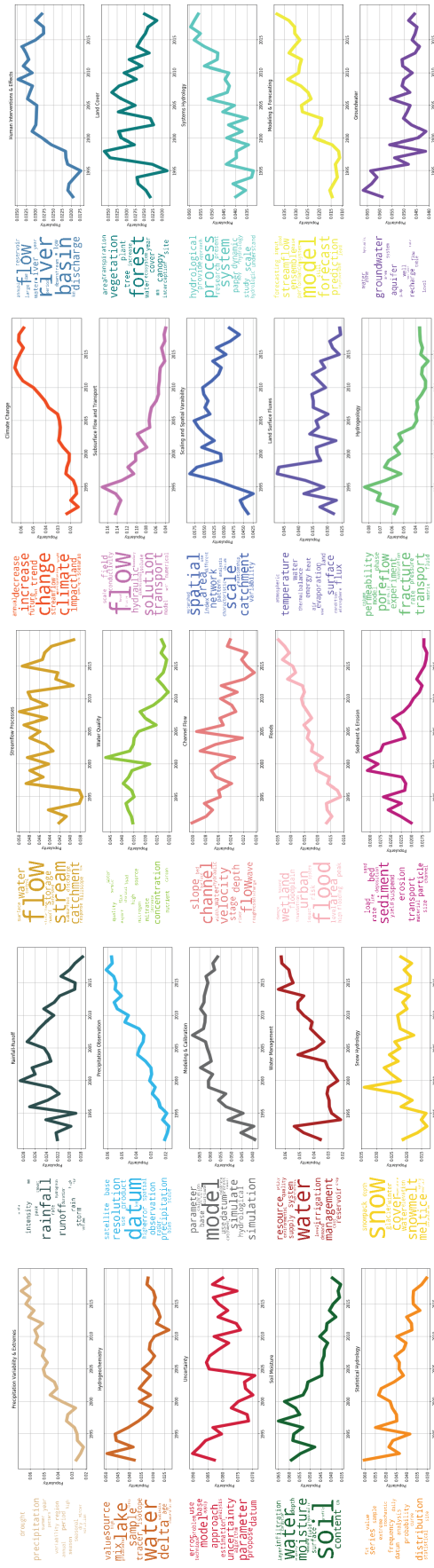


Figure 5. Wordclouds show the words most strongly associated with each topic, and the sizes of words within the wordclouds are proportional to their likelihood of appearance within individual topics. Topic trends are independent and not depicted relative to each other (see Figure 6). Colors representing each particular topic will be followed throughout the rest of this manuscript.

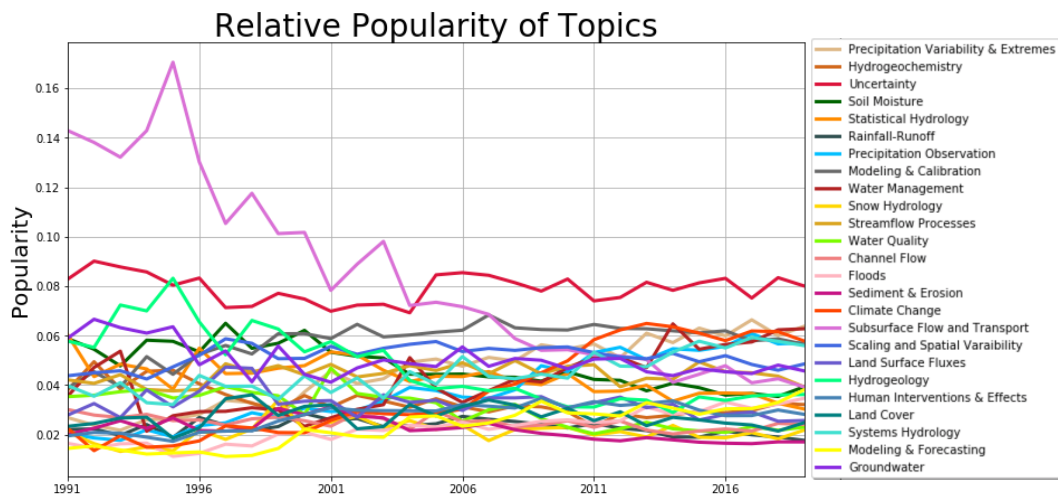


Figure 6. Temporal variation of topic popularity relative to each other.

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4.3.1 Positive inter-topic correlations

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Both modeling related topics - “Modeling Calibration” and “Modeling Forecasting” are (predictably) positively correlated with “Uncertainty” indicating uncertainty quantification research is a commonality in hydrological modeling communities. A distinctly significant correlation can be observed between “Scaling Spatial Variability” and “Rainfall-Runoff” topics, pertaining to the scale dependencies of rainfall-runoff models and studies (e.g., Chiew et al., 2010; Faurès, Goodrich, Woolhiser, & Sorooshian, 1995; Koren et al., 1999). “Systems Hydrology” demonstrates strong correlations with “Water Management” and “Floods”. “Human Interventions Effects” is a topic about the impacts of anthropogenic interventions on natural hydrosystems. Research communities working within this domain clearly (and plausibly) exchange information with a number of other topics, including “Climate Change”, “Sediment Erosion”, “Floods”, “Water Quality” and “Precipitation Variability Extremes”. Multiple studies focus on the impacts of human interventions and climate change on natural hydrosystems (e.g., Gornitz, Rosenzweig, & Hillel, 1997; Haddeland et al., 2014; Mittal, Bhave, Mishra, & Singh, 2016). Studies also relate anthropogenic interventions with changing water quality and erosion (e.g. Nicholls et al., 2018; Rahman, Hassan, Islam, & Shamsad, 2000; Romanescu, 2013). Subsurface and related research communities - e.g., “Groundwater”, “Hydrogeochemistry”, “Water Quality”, “Hydrogeology” - also demonstrate significant relationships. We again observe such patterns between precipitation related topics, i.e. “Snow Hydrology” and “Precipitation Observation”; “Rainfall-Runoff”, “Precipitation Observation” and “Precipitation Variability Extremes”. Again, as might be expected, “Land Cover” research demonstrates clear exchange with the “Soil Moisture” and “Land Surface Flux” topics.

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4.3.2 Negative inter-topic correlations

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Negative inter-topic correlations, on the other hand, can be understood as a metric for a lack or absence of information transfer between pairs of topics. One distinct narrative from this analysis is the lack of information exchange between surface and subsurface research communities. Both modeling related topics are understandably nega-

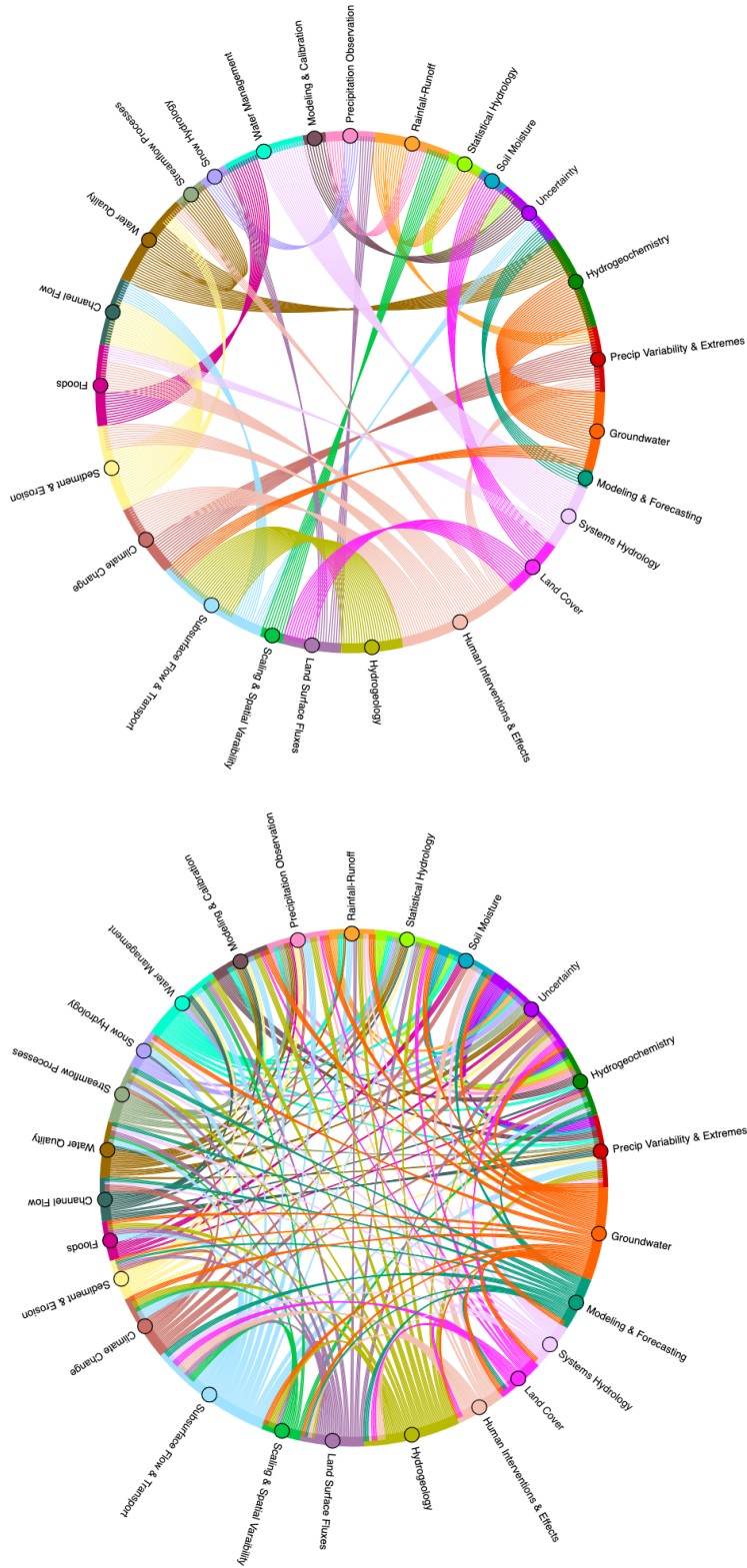


Figure 7. Inter-topic correlations: positive correlations in the upper subplot and negative correlations in the lower subplot. Only correlations with significance at $\alpha = 0.10$ are shown.

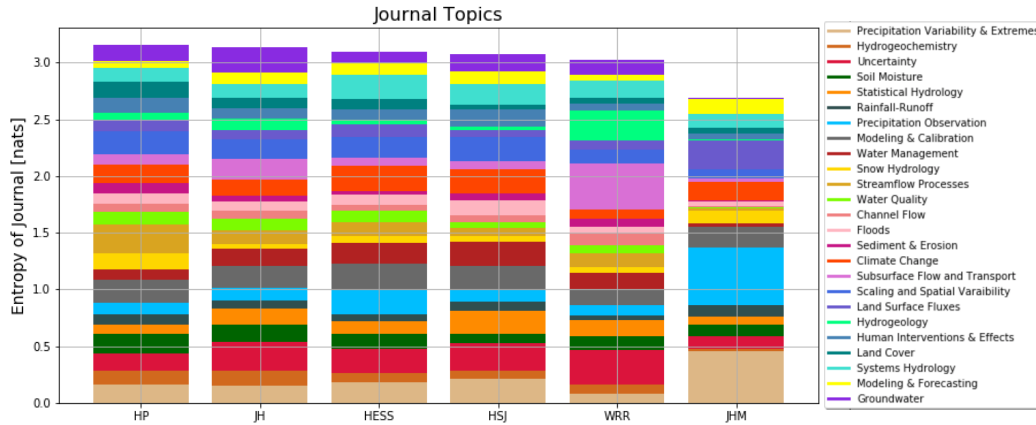


Figure 8. Total bar height represents the overall complexity of topic distributions of each journal for the whole study period. The stacked color bars represent the fraction of papers representing each individual topic in that journal.

403 tively correlated with topics such as “Hydrogeology”, “Hydrogeochemistry” and “Wa-
 404 ter Quality”. Some unexpected absences of correlation are between “Groundwater” and
 405 “Systems Hydrology”, “Modeling Forecasting”, “Scaling Spatial Variability”, “Soil Mois-
 406 ture”, “Uncertainty”, “Snow Hydrology” research communities. “Modeling Forecast-
 407 ing” topics lack correlation with “Snow Hydrology”, “Water Quality”, “Sediment Ero-
 408 sion”, “Subsurface Flow Transport”, “Hydrogeochemistry”, and “Soil Moisture”. These
 409 negative correlations indicate potential for expanding avenues of collaborative research.

410 4.4 Journal complexity

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

416 Most of the journals in this study had relatively similar complexity with *HP* be-
 417 ing the most topic-diverse and *JHM* being the least. It could be plausibly argued that
 418 *JHM* is a specialty journal, dealing with only one aspect of hydrological research (hy-
 419 drometeorology); precipitation-related topics dominate that journal. Of the other five
 420 journals, *WRR* is the least diverse, with more papers in the “Water Quality” and “Sub-
 421 surface Flow and Transport” topics. These are both topics that have topic specific jour-
 422 nals, and so it might be the case that if a larger sample of journals was analyzed that
 423 we might find that *WRR* has a more representative mixture of topics than the other jour-
 424 nals analyzed here.

425 Figure 9 shows the temporal variability of topic entropy (complexity) over time.
 426 The overall complexity for our entire corpus rose from the 1990s and peaked around 2009.
 427 Since then, the overall entropy of the corpus has remained steady or slightly decreased.
 428 *HESS* and *JHM* started publishing in 1997 and 2000 respectively, and the complex-

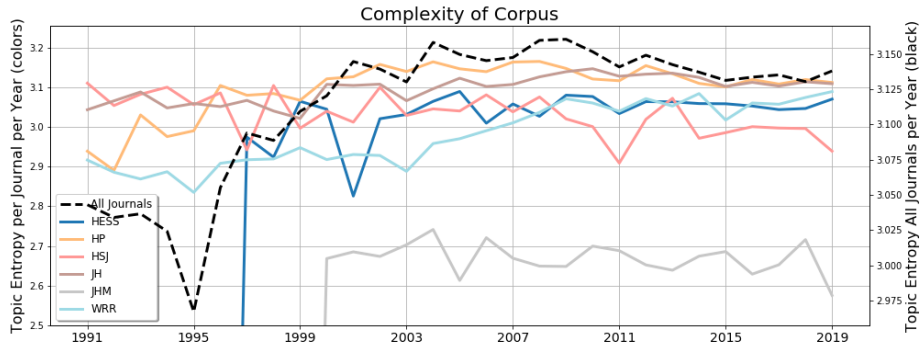


Figure 9. Temporal variation of the complexity of each journal, as measured by the entropy of that journal’s topic distribution in a particular year.

429 ity of this corpus rose steadily around this time. *JHM* again demonstrated lower over-
 430 all complexity compared with the other five, and even a dip in complexity in 2019 that
 431 might be an anomaly. *WRR* rose steadily in topic complexity during this time period.

432 4.4.1 Uniqueness and divergence of journals

433 Differences between journals, as measured by the Jensen-Shannon Distance, d_{js} be-
 434 tween pairs of journals, are shown in Figure 10. Here again, we observe significant dif-
 435 ferences between *JHM* and the rest of the corpus. The highest degrees of topic simi-
 436 larity are between *HESS* vs. *HP* and *HJ*. *WRR* is also similar to *JH*, but less so to
 437 *HESS*.

438 We used the Jensen-Shannon distance from the topic distribution of each journal
 439 to the topic distribution of the full corpus, $d_{js(j,m)}$, to represent journal uniqueness. A
 440 journal is more unique if this distance is greater, and vice-versa. The temporal variation
 441 of these distances for each journal d_{js}^t is demonstrated in Figure 11. This figure shows
 442 that the topic distributions in most of the journals are becoming less unique (i.e., the
 443 journals are generally becoming more similar). The exception to this *HP*, which has in-
 444 creased in uniqueness for the past six years (since 2012).

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

451 5 Conclusion

452 5.1 Summary of findings

453 In this paper, we applied topic modeling using latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) on
 454 the article-abstracts of six high-impact journals in hydrologic science. This yielded a con-
 455 textual understanding of topic trends and diversity in this corpus of hydrologic science
 456 literature using unsupervised learning, without any a priori understanding of or labels
 457 on the dataset. Human understanding was used a posteriori to assign topic names. This
 458 method leverages commonly available computational resources - i.e., a small compute

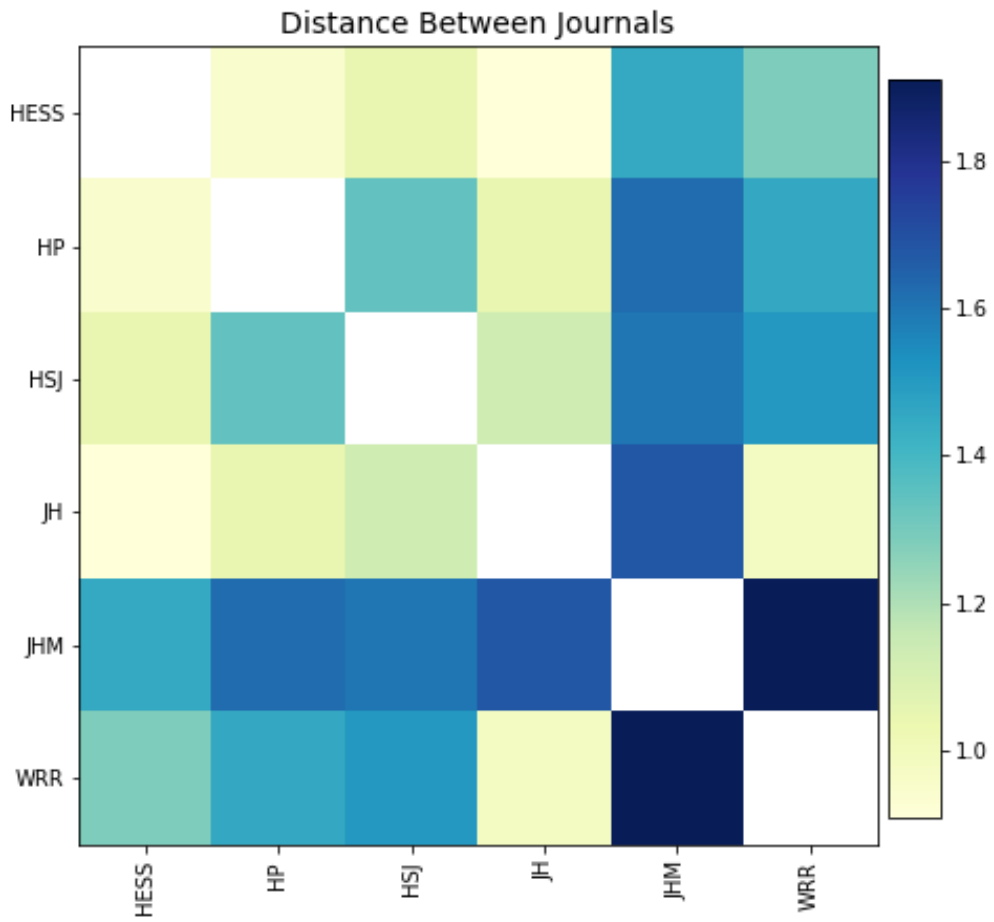


Figure 10. Jensen-Shannon distance between the whole-period topic distributions in each journal. Low distances indicate similar distributions of topics between two journals.

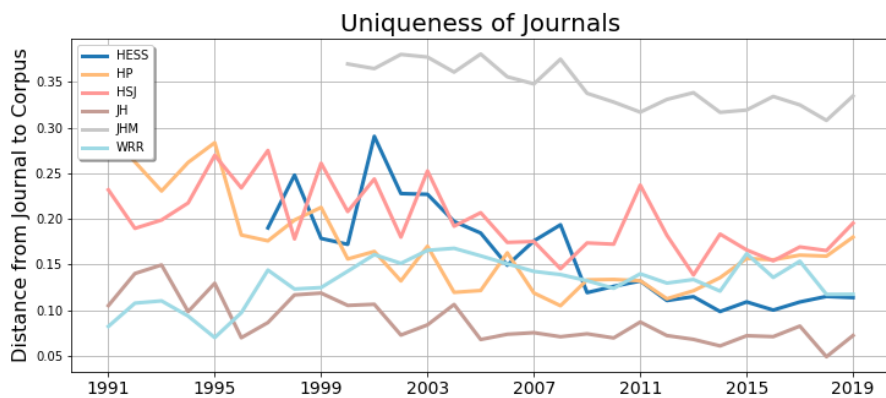


Figure 11. Temporal variation of individual journal uniqueness, measured as the Jensen-Shannon distance of each journal from the entire corpus

459 cluster - to train multiple parallelized LDA models. The resulting topics were carefully
460 identified with the help of veteran hydrologists. Our intent with these experiments is to
461 provide an example of and intuition about LDA to hydrologists, and to help develop a
462 first-order, high-level picture of existing hydrological literature to aid researchers, prac-
463 titioners, and stakeholders to understand broad themes in hydrological research. of this
464 science, the results were further used to analyze the evolution of topics based on LDA's
465 partitioning of abstract-words for different topics with increasing number of topics.

466 Posterior document-topic and topic-word distributions generated from the model
467 were aggregated to analyze temporal trends in topic distributions, relative temporal dis-
468 tribution of topics, and inter-topic correlations. Significant inter-topic relationships were
469 observed for data driven topics related to modeling, forecasting, and uncertainty. Some
470 subsurface topics such as subsurface flow and transport, groundwater and hydrogeology
471 lost significant popularity within the journals in our sample set. Notable relationships
472 could be seen among research topics and communities concentrating on anthropogenic
473 activities and their impacts on hydrosystems, climate and the environment. Such rela-
474 tionships could also be seen between data-driven research communities, indicating a broader
475 exchange of big data and data-driven methods between them.

476 We further utilized topic distributions in specific journals to assess the total com-
477 plexity of topics in individual journals, as well as temporal evolution of journal complex-
478 ities, uniqueness of individual journals, and differences between topic distributions in pairs
479 of journals. Overall, with increasing volume of publications, the journals in our dataset
480 appear to be broadening their scopes and gradually including a more interdisciplinary
481 variety of research topics.

482 **5.2 Future outlook**

483 The volume of scientific research in general is exploding. It is impossible for any-
484 one to keep up, and practitioners are generally familiar with a very small slice of the lit-
485 erature even in their own field. This makes it difficult for researchers to be confident they
486 fully understand the state of the science, and makes it challenging to expand into new
487 research topics. We envision that in the long-term future, ML will be an integral part
488 of the tool set available to help scientists synthesize the existing state-of-the-science. While
489 this paper does not give us a tool for directly aiding literature review, but it is an early
490 step in helping us understand how we might approach problems related to synthesizing
491 diverse bodies of hydrological literature. There have been several bibliometric analy-
492 ses of hydrology literature (e.g., Clark & Hanson, 2017; Koutsoyiannis & Kundzewicz,
493 2007; Rajaram et al., 2015; Zare, Elsawah, Iwanaga, Jakeman, & Pierce, 2017), however
494 ML has the potential to allow for faster, and more contextual analyses of large corpuses.
495 In the future, we envision an interactive website with tools that researchers can use to
496 aid topic-based literature discovery.

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