Authorship Attribution and Author Profiling of Lithuanian Literary Texts

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Abstract

In this work we are solving authorship attribution and author profiling tasks (by focusing on the age and gender dimensions) for the Lithuanian language. This paper reports the first results on literary texts, which we compared to the results, previously obtained with different functional styles and language types (i.e., parliamentary transcripts and forum posts).

Using the Naive Bayes Multinomial and Support Vector Machine methods we investigated an impact of various stylistic, character, lexical, morpho-syntactic features, and their combinations; the different author set sizes of 3, 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 candidate authors; and the dataset sizes of 100, 300, 500, 1,000, 2,000, and 5,000 instances in each class. The highest 89.2% accuracy in the authorship attribution task using a maximum number of candidate authors was achieved with the Naive Bayes Multinomial method and document-level character tri-grams. The highest 78.3% accuracy in the author profiling task focusing on the age dimension was achieved with the Support Vector Machine method and token lemmas. An accuracy reached 100% in the author profiling task focusing on the gender dimension with the Naive Bayes Multinomial method and rather small datasets, where various lexical, morpho-syntactic, and character feature types demonstrated a very similar performance.

1 Introduction

With the constant influx of anonymous or pseudonymous electronic text documents (forum posts, Internet comments, tweets, etc.) the authorship analysis is becoming more and more topical. In this respect it is important to consider the anonymity factor, as it allows everyone to express their opinions freely, but on the other hand, opens a gate for different cyber-crimes. Therefore the authorship research—which for a long time in the past was mainly focused on literary questions of unknown or disputed authorship—drifts towards more practical applications in such domains as forensics, security, user targeted services, etc.

Available text corpora, linguistic tools, and sophisticated methods even more accelerate the development of the authorship research field, which is no longer limited to authorship attribution (when identifying who, from a closed-set of candidate authors, is the actual author of a given anonymous text document) only. Other research directions involve the author verification task (when deciding if a given text is written by a certain author or not); the plagiarism detection task (when searching for similarities between two different texts or parts within a single text); the author profiling task (when extracting information about author’s characteristics, typically covering the basic demographic dimensions as the age, gender, native language or psychometric traits); etc. In this paper we focus on authorship attribution (AA) and author profiling (AP) problems covering the age and gender dimensions.

Some researchers claim that in the scenario when an author makes no efforts to modify his/her writing style, authorship identification problems can be tackled due to an existing “stylistic fingerprint” notion—an individual and uncontrolled habit to express thoughts in certain unique ways, which is kept constant in all writings by the same author. Van Halteren (2005) even named this phenomenon a “human stylome” in analogy to a DNA “genome”. However, Juola (2007) argues that strict implications are not absolutely correct, be-
cause the “genome” is stable, but the writing style tends to evolve over time. More stable (e.g., gender) and changing (e.g., age, social status, education, etc.) demographic characteristics affect the writing style, thus making AP a solvable task for these dimensions.

With the breakthrough of the Internet era literary texts in the authorship research were gradually replaced with e-mails (Abbasi and Chen, 2008), (de Vel et al., 2001), web forum messages (Solorio et al., 2011), online chats (Cristani et al., 2012), (Inches et al., 2013), Internet blogs (Koppel et al., 2011) or tweets (Sousa-Silva et al., 2011; Schwartz et al., 2013), which, in turn, contributed to a development of Computational Linguistic methods able to cope effectively with the following problems: short texts, non-normative language texts, many candidate authors, etc. The discovered advanced techniques helped to achieve even higher accuracy in AA and AP tasks on literary texts (under so-called “ideal conditions”). Although the research on literary texts have lost popularity due to the decrease in demand of their practical applications, the results obtained on literary texts can still be interesting from the scientific point of view, as it may perform some kind of a baseline function in the comparative research. In this respect we believe that our present paper, which focuses on literary texts, will deliver valuable results. Besides, the obtained AA and AP results will be compared with the results previously reported on the Lithuanian language covering other functional styles and language types.

2 Related Works

Despite archaic rule-based approaches (attributing texts to authors/characteristics depending on a set of manually constructed rules) and some rare attempts to deal with unlabeled data (Nasir et al., 2014; Qian et al., 2014) automatic AA and AP tasks are tackled with Supervised Machine Learning (SML) or Similarity-Based (SB) techniques (for review see (Stamatatos, 2009)). In the SML paradigm, texts of known author-ship/characteristic (training data) are used to construct a classifier which afterwards attributes anonymous documents. In the SB paradigm, an anonymous text is attributed to the particular author/characteristic whose text is the most similar according to some calculated similarity measure. The comparative experiments prove superiority of the SB methods over the SML techniques, e.g., Memory-Based Learning produced better results compared to Naïve Bayes and Decision Trees (Zhao and Zobel, 2005); the Delta method surpassed performance levels achieved by the popular Support Vector Machine method (Jockers and Witten, 2010). However, the SB approaches are considered to be more suitable for the problems with a big number of classes and limited training data, e.g., the Memory-Based Learning method applied on 145 authors outperformed Support Vector Machines (Luyckx and Daelemans, 2008), applied on 100,000 candidate authors outperformed Naïve Bayes, Support Vector Machine and Regularized Least Squares Classification (Narayanan et al., 2012). In our research we have at most 100 candidate authors, 6 age and 2 gender groups, therefore the SML approaches seem to be the most suitable choice. Besides, many AA and AP tasks are solved using the popular Support Vector Machine method, which in the contemporary computational research is considered as the most accurate, thus the most suitable technique for different text classification problems (e.g., superiority of Support Vector Machine is proved in (Zheng et al., 2006)). However, a selection of classification method itself is not as important as a proper selection of an appropriate feature type.

Starting from Mendenhall (1887) the first stylometric techniques were based on the quantitative features (so-called “style markers”) such as a sentence or word length, number of syllables per word, type-token ratio, vocabulary richness function, lexical repetition, etc. (for review see (Holmes, 1998)). However, these feature types are considered to be suitable only for homogeneous and long texts (e.g., entire books) and for the datasets having only a few candidate authors. The first modern pioneering work of Mosteller and Wallace (1963) –who obtained promising AA results on The Federalist papers with the Bayesian method applied on frequencies of a few dozens function words– triggered many posterior experiments with various feature types. In the contemporary research the most widespread approach is to represent text documents as vectors of frequencies, which elements cover specific layers of linguistic information (lexical, morpho-syntactic, semantic, character, etc.). The best feature types are determined only after an experimental investigation.
Since most AA and AP research works deal with Germanic languages, providing no recommendations that could work with the morphologically rich, highly inflective, derivationally complex languages (such as Lithuanian), having relatively free word order in sentences, our focus is on the research done for the Baltic and Slavic languages, which by their nature and characteristics are the most similar to Lithuanian.

The AA experiments for the Polish language were performed with the literary texts of 2 authors using the feed-forward multilayer Perceptron method (with one or two hidden layers) and the sigmoid activation function trained by the back-propagation algorithm (Stańczyk and Cyran, 2007). The experiments with lexical (function words), syntactic (punctuation marks), and combination of both feature types revealed superiority of syntactic features. Eder (2011) applied the Delta method on the Polish, English, Latin, German datasets each containing 20 prose writers and then compared obtained AA results. A bootstrap-like procedure – testing a large number of randomly chosen permutations of original data with the k-Nearest Neighbor method in each trial and calculating an average accuracy score – helped to avoid fuzziness with unconvincing results. The best results for the Polish language texts were achieved with a mix of word unigrams and bigrams, with word unigrams for English, with a combination of words and character penta-grams for Latin, with character tri-grams for German.

Kukushkina et al. (2001) applied first-order Markov chains on the Russian literary texts written by 82 authors. All matrices containing transition frequency pairs of text elements composed during the training process for each candidate author were later used to compute probabilities of anonymous texts. The researchers investigated word-level (an original word form or its lemma) character bigrams, pairs of coarse-grained or fine-grained part-of-speech tags and obtained the best results with word-level (in the original form) character bigrams. Kanishcheva (2014) presented the implemented software able to solve AA tasks for the Russian language. The offered linguistic model is based on statistical characteristics and can fill the lexical database of the author’s vocabulary. Any attribution decision is taken after calculations of a proximity value between texts.

For the Croatian language the AA task was solved using the Support Vector Machine method with the radial basis (Reicher et al., 2010). The researchers used 4 datasets (newspaper texts of 25 authors, on-line blogs of 22 authors, Croatian literature classics of 20 authors, Internet forum posts of 19 authors). They tested a big variety of features and their combinations: function words, idf weighted function words, frequencies of coarse-grained part-of-speech tags, fine-grained part-of-speech tags with normalized frequencies, part-of-speech tri-grams, part-of-speech tri-grams with function words, other features (including punctuation, frequencies of word lengths, sentence-length frequency values, etc.). The best results were achieved with a combination of function words, punctuation marks, word and sentence length frequency values.

Zečević (2011) investigated byte-level character n-grams on the Serbian newspaper dataset of 3 authors. The researcher explored an influence of the author profile size (varying from 20 up to 5,000 most frequent n-grams) and the n-gram length (up to 7). All n-grams were stored in a structure called a prefix tree; an author attribution decision was taken by the 1-Nearest Neighbor algorithm based on the distance metric combining the dissimilarity measure and the simplified profile intersection. The best results were achieved with the n-grams of $n > 2$ and the profile size larger than 500. In the posterior work (Zečević and Utvić, 2012) researchers added 3 more candidate authors to the dataset and investigated an impact of syllables using the simplified profile intersection similarity measure. However, syllables were not robust enough to outperform byte-level character n-grams.

Other research works (as for the Slovene language in (Zwitter Vitez, 2012)) demonstrate potentials to solve AA or AP tasks. They represent available text corpora, linguistic tools and discuss possible methods, feature types, an importance of AA and AP tasks, etc.

For the Lithuanian language the AA research was done with 100 candidate authors and two datasets of parliamentary transcripts and forum posts (Kapočiūtė-Dzikienė et al., 2015). The researchers explored the Naïve Bayes Multinomial and Support Vector Machine methods with a big variety of feature types: lexical, morpho-syntactic, character, and stylistic. The best results on the parliamentary transcripts dataset were achieved with
the Support Vector Machine method and morphosyntactic features; on the forum posts dataset – with the Support Vector Machine method and character features. The previous AP research on the Lithuanian language was done with parliamentary transcripts focusing on the age, gender, and political attitude dimensions (Kapočiučė-Dzikiene et al., 2014). The best results on the age dimension were achieved with the Support Vector Machine method and a mix of lemma unigrams, bi-grams, and tri-grams; on the gender and political attitude dimensions – with the Support Vector Machine method and a mix of lemma unigrams and bi-grams.

Hence, AA and AP research using classification methods is done on parliamentary transcripts (representing normative language) and forum posts (representing non-normative language) for the Lithuanian language, but there are no reported results on literary texts so far. Since a purpose of this paper is to perform the comparative analysis with the previous research done on parliamentary transcripts and forum posts, AA and AP tasks with literary texts will be solved by keeping all experimental conditions (concerning methods and their parameters, feature types, author set sizes, dataset sizes, etc.) as similar as possible.

3 Methodology

In a straightforward form, both AA and AP problems fit a standard paradigm of a text classification problem (Sebastiani, 2002).

Thus, text documents \( d_i \) belonging to the dataset \( D \) are presented as numerical vectors capturing statistics (absolute counts in our case) of potentially relevant features. Each \( d_i \) can be attributed to one element from a closed-set of candidate authors/characteristics, defined as classes \( C = \{ c_j \} \).

A function \( \varphi \) determines a mapping how each \( d_i \) is attributed to \( c_j \) in a training dataset \( D_T \).

Our goal is to find a method (by combining classification techniques, feature types, and feature sets) which could discover as close approximation of \( \varphi \) as possible.

3.1 Datasets

186 literary works (in particular, novels, novels, essays, publicistic novels, drama) taken from the Contemporary Corpus of the Lithuanian Language (Marcinkevičienė, 2000) cover the period of 37 years from 1972 to 2012. These literary works were split into text snippets containing 2,000 symbols (including white-spaces), thus an average text document length varies from \( \sim 283 \) to \( \sim 290 \) tokens. Although the average text length does not fit the recommendations given by Eder (2010) (2,500 tokens for Latin and 5,000 for English, German, Polish or Hungarian) or Koppel et al. (2007) (500 tokens), these texts are not as extremely short as used in, e.g., in Luyckx (2011) or Micros and Perifanos (2011) AA research works, where reasonable results were achieved with only \( \sim 60 \) tokens per text.

After previously described pre-processing, we composed 3 datasets:

- \( L_{\text{Individual}} \), which was used in our AA task (see Table 1). The experiments with this dataset involved balanced/full versions and the increasing number of candidate authors (3, 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100).

- \( L_{\text{Age}} \) used in our AP task by focusing on the age dimension (see Table 2) contains 6 age groups (\( \leq 29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69, \) and \( \geq 70 \))\(^1\). The age group of any author was determined by calculating a difference between the author’s birth date an the publishing date of his/her literary work. An opposite to the related research works (e.g., (Schler et al., 2006) or (Koppel et al., 2009)) we did not eliminate intermediate age groups, thus we did not simplify our task. The experiments performed with the balanced dataset versions (unless there was not enough text samples in the “main pool”) of 100, 300, 500, 1,000, 2,000, 5,000 text documents in each class.

- \( L_{\text{Gender}} \) used in our AP task focusing on the gender dimension (see Table 2) contains 2 gender groups (\( \text{male} \) and \( \text{female} \)). The experiments performed with the balanced dataset versions of 100, 300, 500, 1,000, 2,000, 5,000 text documents in each class.

A distribution of 100 authors by their age and gender is given in Table 3. The \( L_{\text{Age}} \) and \( L_{\text{Gender}} \) datasets contain randomly selected texts, providing no meta information about their authors.

\(^1\)The chosen grouping is commonly used in the social studies, e.g., in the largest data archive in Europe (http://www.gesis.org), as well as in the Lithuanian Data Archive for Social Science and Humanities (http://www.lidata.eu).
Table 1: Statistics about LIndividual: an upper value in each cell represents the balanced dataset of 150 texts in each class, a lower value—imbalanced (full). The set of authors is the same in both dataset versions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Num. of classes</th>
<th>Numb. of text documents</th>
<th>Numb. of tokens</th>
<th>Numb. of distinct tokens (types)</th>
<th>Numb. of distinct lemmas</th>
<th>Avg. numb of tokens in a doc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>128,622</td>
<td>39,306</td>
<td>20,099</td>
<td>285.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,156</td>
<td>612,030</td>
<td>105,200</td>
<td>42,347</td>
<td>283.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>214,117</td>
<td>58,282</td>
<td>26,864</td>
<td>285.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3,099</td>
<td>877,788</td>
<td>136,798</td>
<td>51,638</td>
<td>283.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>430,849</td>
<td>84,838</td>
<td>35,424</td>
<td>287.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,102</td>
<td>1,456,039</td>
<td>176,146</td>
<td>64,001</td>
<td>285.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>867,657</td>
<td>236,505</td>
<td>64,001</td>
<td>287.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8,661</td>
<td>2,492,637</td>
<td>343,827</td>
<td>84,001</td>
<td>289.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>7,500</td>
<td>2,17,6019</td>
<td>229,726</td>
<td>290.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16,317</td>
<td>4,721,452</td>
<td>124,117</td>
<td>289.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>4,347,165</td>
<td>332,251</td>
<td>120,676</td>
<td>289.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25,564</td>
<td>7,395,147</td>
<td>436,686</td>
<td>159,175</td>
<td>289.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Statistics about the balanced LAge and LGender datasets containing 5,000 text documents in each class. The LGender dataset is not completely balanced due to the lack of texts in the age groups of ≤29 and ≥70.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Numb. of text documents</th>
<th>Numb. of tokens</th>
<th>Numb. of distinct tokens (types)</th>
<th>Numb. of distinct lemmas</th>
<th>Avg. numb of tokens in a doc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LAge</td>
<td>27,264</td>
<td>7,912,886</td>
<td>454,165</td>
<td>165,432</td>
<td>290.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGender</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>2,899,837</td>
<td>271,189</td>
<td>99,242</td>
<td>289.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Distribution of authors by their age and gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>≤29</th>
<th>30-39</th>
<th>40-49</th>
<th>50-59</th>
<th>60-69</th>
<th>≥70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Machine Learning Methods

In order to compare obtained AA and AP results with the previously reported, experimental conditions have to be as similar as possible. Thus, the choice of classification method was restricted to Naïve Bayes Multinomial (NBM) (introduced by Lewis and Gale (1994)) and Support Vector Machine (SVM) (introduced by Cortes and Vapnik (1995)). Both SML techniques are used in the recent AA and AP tasks due to their advantages.

3.3 Features

The choice of features (by which documents are represented) is as important as the choice of classification method. To find out what could work with the Lithuanian literary texts, we tested a big variety of different feature types, covering stylistic, character, lexical and morpho-syntactic levels:

- **sm** – style markers: an average sentence and word length; a standardized type/token ratio.
- **fwd** – function words (topic-neutral): prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, particles, interjections, and onomatopoeias, which were automatically recognized in texts with the Lithuanian morphological analyzer-lemmatizer “Lemuoklis” (Zinkevičius, 2000).
- **chr** – (language-independent) document-level character n-grams with $n \in [2, 7]$.
- **lex** – tokens and a mix of their n-grams up to $n \in [2, 3]$ (e.g., in $n = 3$ case not only trigrams, but bi-grams and unigrams would be used as well).
- **lem** – lemmas and a mix of their n-grams up to $n \in [2, 3]$. The lemmatization was done with “Lemuoklis” which replaced recognized words with their lemmas, transformed generic words into appropriate lowercase letters and all numbers into a special tag.
- **pos** – coarse-grained part-of-speech tags (such as noun, verb, adjective, etc., determined with “Lemuoklis”) and a mix of their n-grams up to $n \in [2, 3]$.
- **lexpos, lempos, lexmorf, lemmorf** – the compound features of lex+pos, lem+pos,
lex+morf, lem+morf, respectively, and a mix of their n-grams up to $n \in \{2, 3\}$. Here morf indicates a fine-grained part-of-speech tag composed of coarse-grained tag with the additional morphological information as case, gender, tense, etc.

4 Experimental Setup and Results

All experiments were carried out with the stratified 10-fold cross-validation and evaluated using the accuracy and f-score metrics.2

For each dataset version (described in Section 3.1) the random $\sum P^2(c_j)$ and majority $\max P(c_j)$ baselines were calculated (where $P(c_j)$ is the probability of class $c_j$) and the higher of these values is presented in the following figures. The statistical significance between different results was evaluated using McNemar’s (1947) test with one degree of freedom.

In all experiments we used WEKA 3.7 machine learning toolkit (Hall et al., 2009); 1,000 the most relevant features (using the types described in Section 3.3), ranked by the calculated $\chi^2$ values; the SVM method with the SMO polynomial kernel (Platt, 1998) (because it gave the highest accuracy in the comparative experiments, done with parliamentary transcripts and forum data (Kapočiūtė-Dzikienė et al., 2015)) and the NBM method (described in Section 3.2). Remaining parameters were set to their default values.

The highest achieved accuracies (in terms of all explored feature types) with both classification techniques for AA and AP tasks are presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively. For the accuracies obtained with different feature types using the most accurate classification method and the datasets presented in Table 1, Table 2 see Table 4.

5 Discussion

All obtained results are reasonable, as they exceed the random and majority baselines.

If we compare the results in Figure 1 with the previously reported results on parliamentary transcripts and forum posts (Kapočiūtė-Dzikienė et al., 2015), SVM is not the best technique in all cases here. Despite it slightly outperforms NBM on the smaller datasets (with <20 candidate authors), but under-performs on the larger ones. We suppose that the simple NBM technique coped effectively with our AA task due to the following reasons: used literary texts are more homogeneous (a literary work/author rate is 1.86), longer (~1.34 and ~6.88 times longer compared to parliamentary transcripts and forum posts, respectively), have more stable vocabulary, and clearer synonymy compared to parliamentary transcripts (covering a period of 23 years) or forum posts (covering a bunch of different topics). Moreover, the writing style of each author in literary works is expressed more clearly, therefore the drop in the accuracy when adding new authors to the dataset was not as steep as with parliamentary transcripts or forum posts. Even with 100 candidate authors the accuracy on literary texts almost reaches the threshold of 90% (see Figure 1) exceeding the results of parliamentary transcripts and forum posts by ~18.6% and ~54.6%, respectively. Besides, the dataset balancing boosted the accuracy on parliamentary transcripts and reduced on forum posts, but gave no noticeable impact on literary texts. Since literary texts written by the same author are very similar in style, new texts added to the dataset could not make any significant impact.

Zooming into the feature types in Table 4 allows us to state that lexical information dominates character on the smaller datasets (having ≤50 candidate authors). However, when the number of candidates is small (≤20) many different features (based on character, lexical, lemma or compound lexical and morpho-syntactic information) perform equally well; with 50 – only unigrams of lemmas (sometimes complemented with part-of-speech tags) are significantly better compared to the rest types; with 100 – only character tri-grams are the best. The most surprising is the fact that the character feature type gave the best results on the largest dataset. Typically when dealing with morphologically rich languages and normative texts, morphological features are the most accurate (e.g., on Greek (Stamatatos et al., 2001) or on Hebrew (Koppel et al., 2006) texts). The Lithuanian language is not an exception, i.e., the experiments with parliamentary transcripts showed that token lemmas (or their n-grams) is the best feature type, whereas on forum posts (where the morphological tools could not be maximally helpful due to the text specifics) character features gave the highest accuracy. On the other hand, a robustness of character n-grams is not very surprising: i.e.,

2F-scores show the same trend as accuracy values in all our experiments, therefore we do not present them in the following figures and tables.
character n-grams can capture lexical preferences without any need of linguistic background knowledge; moreover, we used document-level character n-grams which incorporate information about contiguous words. Besides, literary texts are not too complicated for AA tasks, therefore shorter character n-grams (tri-grams in our case) are enough to capture author’s style differences without mapping too obviously to specific words.

The SVM method outperformed the NBM method on the larger datasets (having more instances in each class) in all AP tasks (see the results on \textit{LAge} and \textit{LGender} presented in Figure 2 and on parliamentary transcripts reported by Kapočiūtė et al. (2014)). The results obtained with literary texts focusing on the age dimension do not contradict the results achieved with parliamentary transcripts: the highest boost in the accuracy is reached on the largest datasets (containing 5,000 instances in each class). The results obtained with literary texts focusing on the gender dimension are absolutely opposite, i.e., the best performance on literary texts was demonstrated with the smaller datasets, on the parliamentary transcripts – with the largest. We suppose that this unexpected situation (when the smaller datasets seem more optimal for capturing the gender characteristics) happened when instances were randomly selected from the “main pool”, i.e., if the first selected instances were the most typical for the writing style of males and females, less characteristic instances added afterwards could only degrade AP performance. However, the precise answer to this question is possible only after a detailed error analysis which is planned in our future research. Nevertheless the dataset of 100, 300 or 500 instances in each class is too small to be recommended for any AP tasks.

Zooming into Table 4 allows us to state that token lemmas is the best feature type on \textit{LAge}. Besides, lemma information (in particular, a mix of lemma tri-grams, bi-grams, and unigrams) gave the best results on parliamentary transcripts as well. Marginally the best feature type dealing with the largest \textit{LGender} dataset is token lemmas complemented with the part-of-speech information; with the smaller \textit{LGender} datasets various lexical, morpho-syntactic, and character feature types demonstrated high and very similar per-

Figure 1: The accuracy (y axis) dependence on a number of candidate authors (x axis). Each column shows the maximum achieved accuracy over all explored feature types. Grey columns represent the NBM method, white – SVM, black parts represent the higher value of random/majority baselines.

Figure 2: The accuracy (y axis) dependence on a number of instances in each class (x axis). For the other notations see the caption of Figure 1.
Table 4: The accuracy values achieved on \textit{Lindividual} with NBM; on \textit{LAge} and \textit{Gender} with SVM and 5,000 instances in each class. In each column the best results are presented in bold, the results that do not significantly differ from the best one are underlined.

6 Conclusions

In this paper we report the first authorship attribution and author profiling results obtained on the Lithuanian literary texts. The results are compared with previously reported on parliamentary transcripts and forum posts.

When solving the authorship attribution task we experimentally investigated the effect of the author set size by gradually increasing the number of candidate authors up to 100. The best results dealing with the maximum author set were achieved with the Naïve Bayes Multinomial method and character tri-grams. The results exceeded the baselines by \sim 88.2\% and reached 89.2\% of the accuracy.

When solving the author profiling task we experimentally investigated the effect of balanced dataset size by gradually increasing the number of instances in each class up to 5,000. The best results for the age dimension were achieved with the maximum dataset, token lemmata, and the Support Vector Machine method; for the gender dimension very good performance was demonstrated already with the small datasets, using lemma unigrams and the Support Vector Machine method. The results focusing on the age and gender dimensions exceeded baselines by \sim 60\% and \sim 50\% reaching 78.3\% and 100\% of the accuracy, respectively.

The comparative analysis show that it is much easier to capture age, gender and individual author differences with literary texts than with parliamentary transcripts or forum posts.

In the future research we are planning to make the detailed error analysis, which could help us to improve the accuracy; to expand the number of authors and profiling dimensions.

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References


