UNIVERSITÄT DORTMUND
FACHBEREICH INFORMATIK

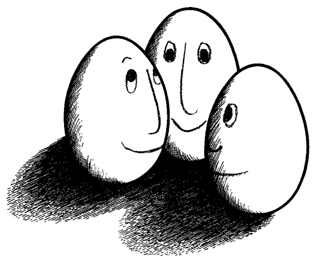
LEHRSTUHL VIII
KÜNSTLICHE INTELLIGENZ

Text Categorization with Support Vector Machines: Learning with Many Relevant Features

LS–8 Report 23

Thorsten Joachims

Dortmund, 27. November, 1997
Revised: 19. April, 1998



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Abstract

This paper explores the use of Support Vector Machines (SVMs) for learning text classifiers from examples. It analyzes the particular properties of learning with text data and identifies, why SVMs are appropriate for this task. Empirical results support the theoretical findings. SVMs achieve substantial improvements over the currently best performing methods and they behave robustly over a variety of different learning tasks. Furthermore, they are fully automatic, eliminating the need for manual parameter tuning.

1 Introduction

With the rapid growth of online information, text categorization has become one of the key techniques for handling and organizing text data. Text categorization is used to classify news stories [Hayes and Weinstein, 1990] [Masand et al., 1992], to find interesting information on the WWW [Lang, 1995] [Balabanovic and Shoham, 1995], and to guide a users search through hypertext [Joachims et al., 1997]. Since building text classifiers by hand is difficult and time consuming, it is desirable to learn classifiers from examples.

In this paper I will explore and identify the benefits of *Support Vector Machines (SVMs)* for text categorization. SVMs are a new learning method introduced by V. Vapnik [Vapnik, 1995] [Cortes and Vapnik, 1995] [Boser et al., 1992]. They are well founded in terms of computational learning theory and very open to theoretical understanding and analysis.

After reviewing the standard feature vector representation of text (section 2.1), I will identify the particular properties of text in this representation in section 2.3. I will argue that support vector machines are very well suited for learning in this setting. The empirical results in section 5 will support this claim. Compared to state-of-the-art methods, SVMs show substantial performance gains. Moreover, in contrast to conventional text classification methods SVMs will prove to be very robust, eliminating the need for expensive parameter tuning.

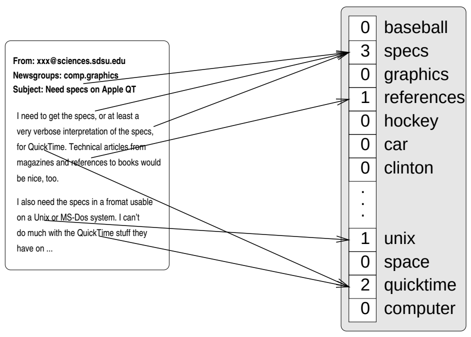
2 Text Classification

The goal of text categorization is the classification of documents into a fixed number of predefined categories. Each document d can be in multiple, exactly one, or no category at all. Using machine learning, the objective is to learn classifiers from examples which do the category assignments automatically. This is a supervised learning problem. To facilitate effective and efficient learning, each category is treated as a separate binary classification problem. Each such problem answers the question, whether a document should be assigned to a particular category or not.

2.1 Representing Text

The representation of a problem has a strong impact on the generalization accuracy of a learning system. Documents, which typically are strings of characters, have to be transformed into a representation suitable for the learning algorithm and the classification task. IR research suggests that word stems work well as representation units and that their ordering in a document is of minor importance for many tasks. The word stem is derived from the occurrence form of a word by removing case and flection information [Porter, 1980]. For example "computes", "computing", and "computer" are all mapped to the same stem "comput". The terms "word" and "word stem" will be used synonymously in the following.

This leads to an attribute-value representation of text. Each distinct word w_i corresponds to a feature with $TF(w_i, d)$, the number of times word w_i occurs in the document d, as its value. Figure 1 shows an example feature vector for a particular document. To



From: xxx@sciences.sdsu.edu
Newsgroups: comp.graphics
Subject: Need specs on Apple QT

I need to get the specs, or at least a very verbose interpretation of the specs, for QuickTime. Technical articles from magazines and references to books would be nice, too.

I also need the specs in a fromat usable on a Unix or MS-Dos system. I can't do much with the QuickTime stuff they have on ...

0	baseball
3	specs
0	graphics
1	references
0	hockey
0	car
0	clinton
⋮	
1	unix
0	space
2	quicktime
0	computer

Figure 1: Representing text as a feature vector.

avoid unnecessarily large feature vectors words are considered as features only if they occur in the training data at least 3 times and if they are not "stop-words" (like "and", "or", etc.).

Based on this basic representation it is known that scaling the dimensions of the feature vector with their *inverse document frequency* $IDF(w_i)$ [Salton and Buckley, 1988] leads to an improved performance. $IDF(w_i)$ can be calculated from the document frequency $DF(w_i)$, which is the number of documents the word w_i occurs in.

$$IDF(w_i) = log\left(\frac{n}{DF(w_i)}\right) \tag{1}$$

Here, n is the total number of training documents. Intuitively, the inverse document frequency of a word is low if it occurs in many documents and is highest if the word occurs in only one. To abstract from different document lengths, each document feature vector $\vec{d_i}$ is normalized to unit length.

2.2 Feature Selection

In text categorization one is usually confronted with feature spaces containing 10000 dimensions and more, often exceeding the number of available training examples. Many have noted the need for feature selection to make the use of conventional learning methods possible, to improve generalization accuracy, and to avoid "overfitting" (e.g. [Yang and Pedersen, 1997][Moulinier et al., 1996]).

The most popular approach to feature selection is to select a subset of the available features using methods like *DF-thresholding* [Yang and Pedersen, 1997], the χ^2-*test* [Schütze et al., 1995], or the *term strength* criterion [Yang and Wilbur, 1996]. The most commonly used and often most effective [Yang and Pedersen, 1997] method for selecting features is the *information gain* criterion. It will be used in this paper following the setup in [Yang and Pedersen, 1997]. All words are ranked according to their information gain. To select a subset of f features, the f words with the highest mutual information are chosen. All other words will be ignored.

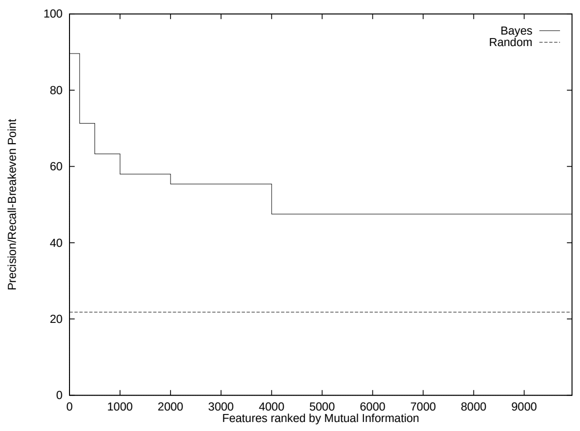


Figure 2: Learning without using the "best" features.

2.3 Why Should SVMs Work Well for Text Categorization?

To find out what methods are promising for learning text classifiers, we should find out more about the properties of text.

High dimensional input space: When learning text classifiers on has to deal with very many (more than 10000) features. Since SVMs use overfitting protection which does not necessarily depend on the number of features, they have the potential to handle these large feature spaces.

Few irrelevant features: One way to avoid these high dimensional input spaces is to assume that most of the features are irrelevant. Feature selection tries to determine those. Unfortunately, in text categorization there are only very few irrelevant features. Figure 2 shows the results of an experiment on the Reuters "acq" category (see section 5.1). All features are ranked according to their (binary) mutual information. Then a naive Bayes classifier (see 4.1) is trained using only those features ranked 1-200, 201-500, 501-1000, 1001-2000, 2001-4000, 4001-9947. The results in figure 2 show that even features ranked lowest still contain considerable information and are somewhat relevant. A classifier using only those "worst" features has a performance much better than random. Since it seems unlikely that all those features are completely redundant, this leads to the conjecture that a good classifier should combine many features (learn a "dense" concept) and that feature selection is likely to hurt performance due to a loss of information.

Document vectors are sparse: For each document d_i, the corresponding document vector $\vec{d_i}$ contains only few entries which are not zero. Kivinen et al. [Kivinen et al., 1995] give both theoretical and empirical evidence for the mistake bound model that "additive" algorithms, which have a similar inductive bias like SVMs, are well suited for problems with dense concepts and sparse instances.

Most text categorization problems are linearly separable: All Ohsumed categories are linearly separable and so are many of the Reuters (see section 5.1) tasks. Inseparability on some Reuters categories is often due to dubious documents (containing just the words "blah blah blah" in the body) or obvious misclassifications of the human indexers. The idea of SVMs is to find such linear (or polynomial, RBF, etc.) separators.

These arguments give evidence that SVMs should perform well for text categorization.

3 Support Vector Machines

Support vector machines are based on the *Structural Risk Minimization* principle [Vapnik, 1995] from computational learning theory. The idea of structural risk minimization is to find a hypothesis h for which we can guarantee the lowest true error. The true error of h is the probability that h will make an error on an unseen and randomly selected test example. The following upper bound connects the true error of a hypothesis h with the error of h on the training set and the complexity of h [Vapnik, 1995].

$$P(error(h)) \leq train\_error(h) + 2\sqrt{\frac{d(ln\frac{2n}{d}+1) - ln\frac{\eta}{4}}{n}} \tag{2}$$

The bound holds with probability at least $1-\eta$. n denotes the number of training examples and d is the *VC-Dimension (VCdim)* [Vapnik, 1995], which is a property of the hypothesis space and indicates its expressiveness. Equation (2) reflects the well known trade-off between the complexity of the hypothesis space and the training error. A simple hypothesis space (small VCdim) will probably not contain good approximating functions and will lead to a high training (and true) error. On the other hand a too rich hypothesis space (high VCdim) will lead to a small training error, but the second term in the right hand side of (2) will be large. This situation is commonly called "overfitting". We can conclude that it is crucial to pick the hypothesis space with the "right" complexity.

In Structural Risk Minimization this is done by defining a structure of hypothesis spaces H_i, so that their respective VC-Dimension d_i increases.

$$H_1 \subset H_2 \subset H_3 \subset ... \subset H_i \subset ... \qquad \text{and} \qquad \forall i : d_i \leq d_{i+1} \tag{3}$$

The goal is to find the index i^* for which (2) is minimum.

How can we build this structure of increasing VCdim? In the following we will learn linear threshold functions of the type:

$$h(\vec{d}) = sign\{\vec{w}\cdot\vec{d}+b\} = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } \vec{w}\cdot\vec{d}+b > 0 \\ -1, & \text{else} \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

Instead of building the structure based on the number of features using a feature selection strategy[1], Support vector machines uses a refined structure which acknowledges the fact that most features in text categorization are relevant.

[1]Remember that linear threshold functions with n features have a VCdim of $n+1$.

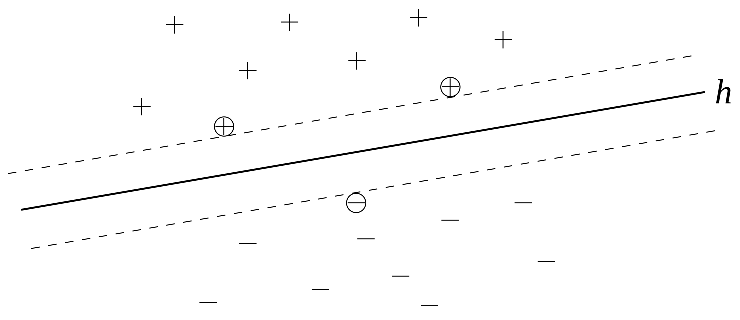


Figure 3: Support vector machines find the hyperplane h, which separates the positive and negative training examples with maximum margin. The examples closest to the hyperplane are called *Support Vectors* (marked with circles).

Lemma 1. [Vapnik, 1982] *Consider hyperplanes* $h(\vec{d}) = sign\{\vec{w} \cdot \vec{d} + b\}$ *as hypotheses. If all example vectors* $\vec{d_i}$ *are contained in a ball of radius* R *and it is required that for all examples* $\vec{d_i}$

$$|\vec{w} \cdot \vec{d_i} + b| \geq 1, \text{ with } ||\vec{w}|| = A \tag{5}$$

then this set of hyperplane has a VCdim d *bounded by*

$$d \leq min([R^2A^2], n) + 1 \tag{6}$$

Please note that the VCdim of these hyperplanes does not necessarily depend on the number of features! Instead the VCdim depends on the Euclidean length $||\vec{w}||$ of the weight vector $\vec{w}$. This means that we can generalize well in high dimensional spaces, if our hypothesis has a small weight vector.

In their basic form support vector machines find the hyperplane that separates the training data and which has the shortest weight vector. This hyperplane separates positive and negative training examples with maximum margin. Figure 3 illustrates this. Finding this hyperplane can be translated into the following optimization problem:

$$\text{Minimize:} \quad ||\vec{w}|| \tag{7}$$

$$\text{so that:} \quad \forall i : y_i[\vec{w} \cdot \vec{d_i} + b] \geq 1 \tag{8}$$

y_i equals $+1$ (-1), if document d_i is in class $+$ $(-)$. The constraints (8) require that all training examples are classified correctly. We can use the lemma from above to draw conclusions about the VCdim of the structure element that the separating hyperplane comes from. A bound similar to (2) [Shawe-Taylor et al., 1996] gives us a bound on the true error of this hyperplane on our classification task.

Since the optimization problem from above is difficult to handle numerically, Lagrange multipliers are used to translate the problem into an equivalent quadratic optimization problem [Vapnik, 1995].

$$\text{Minimize:} \quad -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \vec{d_i} \cdot \vec{d_j} \tag{9}$$

$$\text{so that:} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \forall i : \alpha_i \geq 0 \tag{10}$$

For this kind of optimization problem efficient algorithms exist, which are guaranteed to find the global optimum[2]. The result of the optimization process is a set of coefficients α_i^* for which (9) is minimum. These coefficients can be used to construct the hyperplane fulfilling (7) and (8).

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{d} = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^* y_i \vec{d_i}) \cdot \vec{d} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^* y_i (\vec{d_i} \cdot \vec{d}) \quad \text{and} \quad b = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{d_+} + \vec{w} \cdot \vec{d_-}) \tag{11}$$

Equation (11) shows that the resulting weight vector of the hyperplane is constructed as a linear combination of the training examples. Only those examples contribute for which the coefficient α_i is greater than zero. Those vectors are called *Support Vectors.* In figure 3 the support vectors are marked with circles. They are those training examples which have minimum distance to the hyperplane. To calculate b, two arbitrary support vectors $\vec{d_+}$ and $\vec{d_-}$ (one from the class $+$ and one from $-$) can be used.

3.1 Non-linear Hypothesis Spaces

To learn nonlinear hypotheses, SVMs make use of *convolution functions* $K(\vec{d_1}, \vec{d_2})$. Depending on the type of convolution function, SVMs learn polynomial classifiers, radial basis function (RBF) classifiers, or two layer sigmoid neural nets.

$$K_{poly}(\vec{d_1}, \vec{d_2}) = (\vec{d_1} \cdot \vec{d_2} + 1)^d \tag{12}$$

$$K_{rbf}(\vec{d_1}, \vec{d_2}) = exp(\gamma(\vec{d_1} - \vec{d_2})^2) \tag{13}$$

$$K_{sigmoid}(\vec{d_1}, \vec{d_2}) = tanh(s(\vec{d_1} \cdot \vec{d_2}) + c) \tag{14}$$

These convolution functions satisfy Mercer's Theorem (see [Vapnik, 1995]). This means that they compute the inner product of vectors $\vec{d_1}$ and $\vec{d_2}$ after they have been mapped into a new "feature" space by a non-linear mapping Φ:

$$\Phi(\vec{d_1}) \cdot \Phi(\vec{d_2}) = K(\vec{d_1}, \vec{d_2}) \tag{15}$$

To use a convolution function, simply substitute every occurrence of the inner product in equations (9) and (11) with the desired convolution function. The support vector machine then finds the hyperplane in the "non-linear" feature space, which separates the training data with the widest margin.

3.2 Finding the Best Parameter Values

With the use of convolution functions, parameters are introduced. For the polynomial convolution this is the degree d, for RBFs it is the variance γ, etc. How can we pick appropriate values for these parameters automatically? The following procedure [Vapnik,

[2]For the experiments in this paper a refined version of the algorithm in [Osuna et al., 1997] is used. It can efficiently handle problems with many thousand support vectors, converges fast, and has minimal memory requirements.

1995] can be used, which is again inspired by bound (2). First train the support vector machine for different values of d and/or γ. Then estimate the VCdim of the hypotheses found using (6) and pick the one with the lowest VCdim.

To compute the length of the weight vector one can use the formula

$$||w||^2 = \sum_{i,j \in SupportVectors} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\vec{d_1}, \vec{d_j}) \tag{16}$$

And since all document vectors are normalized to unit length, it is easy to show that the radius R of the ball containing all training examples is tightly bound by

$$\text{Polynomial: } R^2 \leq 2^d - 1 \qquad \text{RBF: } R^2 \leq 2(1 - exp(-\gamma)) \tag{17}$$

Please note that this procedure for selecting the appropriate parameter values is fully automatic, does not look at the test data, and requires no expensive cross-validation.

3.3 Non-Separable Problems

So far it was assumed that the training data is separable without error. What if this is not possible for the chosen hypothesis space? Cortes and Vapnik [Cortes and Vapnik, 1995] suggest the introduction of slack variables. In this paper a simpler approach is taken. During the optimization of (9) the values of the coefficients α_i are monitored. Training examples with high α_i "contribute a lot to the inseparability" of the data. When the value of an α_i exceeds a certain threshold (here $\alpha_i \geq 1000$) the corresponding training example is removed from the training set. The SVM is then trained on the remaining data.

4 Conventional Learning Methods

This paper compares support vector machines to four standard methods, all of which have shown good results on text categorization problems in previous studies. Each method represents a different machine learning approach: density estimation using a naive Bayes classifier, the Rocchio algorithm as the most popular learning method from information retrieval, an instance based k-nearest neighbor classifier, and the C4.5 decision tree/rule learner.

4.1 Naive Bayes Classifier

The idea of the naive Bayes classifier is to use a probabilistic model of text. To make the estimation of the parameters of the model possible, rather strong assumptions are incorporated. In the following, word-based unigram models of text will be used, i.e. words are assumed to occur independently of the other words in the document.

The goal is to estimate $\Pr(+|d')$, the probability that a document d' is in class $+$. With perfect knowledge of $\Pr(+|d')$ the optimum performance is achieved when d' is assigned to class $+$ iff $\Pr(+|d') \geq 0.5$ (Bayes' rule). Using a unigram model of text leads to the following estimate of $\Pr(+|d')$ (see [Joachims, 1997]):

$$\Pr(+|d') = \frac{\Pr(+) \cdot \prod_i \Pr(w_i|+)^{TF(w_i,d')}}{\Pr(+) \cdot \prod_i \Pr(w_i|+)^{TF(w_i,d')} + \Pr(-) \cdot \prod_i \Pr(w_i|-)^{TF(w_i,d')}} \tag{18}$$

The probabilities $P(+)$ and $P(-)$ can be estimated from the fraction of documents in the respective category. For $\Pr(w_i|+)$ and $\Pr(w_i|-)$ the so called Laplace estimator is used [Joachims, 1997].

4.2 Rocchio Algorithm

This type of classifier is based on the relevance feedback algorithm originally proposed by Rocchio [Rocchio, 1971] for the vector space retrieval model [Salton, 1991]. It has been extensively used for text classification.

First, both the normalized document vectors of the positive examples as well as those of the negative examples are summed up. The linear component of the decision rule is then computed as

$$\vec{w} = \frac{1}{|+|} \sum_{i \in +} \vec{d_i} - \beta \frac{1}{|-|} \sum_{j \in -} \vec{d_j} \tag{19}$$

Rocchio requires that negative elements of the vector w are set to 0. β is a parameter that adjusts the relative impact of positive and negative training examples. The performance of the resulting classifier strongly depends on a "good" choice of β.

To classify a new document d', the cosine between $\vec{w}$ and $\vec{d'}$ is computed. Using an appropriate threshold on the cosine leads to a binary classification rule.

4.3 k-Nearest Neighbors

k-nearest neighbor (k-NN) classifiers were found to show very good performance on text categorization tasks [Yang, 1997] [Masand et al., 1992]. This paper follows the setup in [Yang, 1997]. The cosine is used as a similarity metric. $knn(d')$ denotes the indexes of the k documents which have the highest cosine with the document to classify d'.

$$H_{knn}(d') = sign\left(\frac{\sum_{i \in knn(d')} y_i \cos(d', d_i)}{\sum_{i \in knn(d')} \cos(d', d_i)}\right) \tag{20}$$

Further details can be found in [Mitchell, 1997].

4.4 Decision Tree Classifier

The C4.5 [Quinlan, 1993] decision tree algorithm is used for the experiments in this paper. It is the most popular decision tree algorithm and has shown good results on a variety of problem. It is used with the default parameter settings and with rule post-pruning turned on. C4.5 outputs a confidence value when classifying new examples. This value is used to compute precision/recall tables (see section 5.2). Previous results with decision tree or rule learning algorithms are reported in [Lewis and Ringuette, 1994] [Moulinier et al., 1996].

5 Experiments

The following experiments compare the performance of SVMs using polynomial and RBF convolution operators with the four conventional learning methods.

5.1 Test Collections

The empirical evaluation is done on two test collection. The first one is the Reuters-21578 dataset (http://www.research.att.com/ lewis/reuters21578.html) compiled by David Lewis and originally collected by the Carnegie group from the Reuters newswire in 1987. The "ModApte" split is used leading to a corpus of 9603 training documents and 3299 test documents. Of the 135 potential topic categories only those 90 are used for which there is at least one training and one test example. After stemming and stop-word removal, the training corpus contains 9947 distinct terms which occur in at least three documents. The Reuters-21578 collection is know for a rather direct correspondence between words and categories. For the category "wheat" for example, the occurrence of the word "wheat" in a document is an very good predictor.

The second test collection is taken from the Ohsumed corpus (ftp://medir.ohsu.edu /pub/ohsumed) compiled by William Hersh. Here the connection between words and categories is less direct. From the 50216 documents in 1991 which have abstracts, the first 10000 are used for training and the second 10000 are used for testing. The classification task considered here is to assign the documents to one or multiple categories of the 23 MeSH "diseases" categories. A document belongs to a category if it is indexed with at least one indexing term from that category. After stemming and stop-word removal, the training corpus contains 15561 distinct terms which occur in at least three documents.

5.2 Performance Measures

Despite theoretical problems and a certain arbitrariness, the *Precision/Recall-Breakeven Point* is used as a measure of performance to stay (at least to some extend) compatible with previously published results. The precision/recall-breakeven point is based on the two well know statistics *recall* and *precision* widely used in information retrieval. Both apply to binary classification problems. Precision is the probability that a document predicted to be in class "+" truly belongs to this class. Recall is the probability that a document belonging to class "+" is classified into this class.

Between high recall and high precision exists a trade-off. All methods examined in this paper make category assignments by thresholding a "confidence value". By adjusting this threshold we can achieve different levels of recall and precision. The PRR method [Raghavan et al., 1989] is used for interpolation.

Since precision and recall are defined only for binary classification tasks, the results of multiple binary tasks need to be averaged to get to a single performance value for multiple class problems. This will be done using *microaveraging* [Yang, 1997]. In our setting this results in the following procedure. The classification threshold Θ is lowered simultaneously over all binary tasks[3]. At each value of Θ the microaveraged precision and recall are computed based on the merged contingency table. To arrive at this merged table, the contingency tables of all binary tasks at Θ are added componentwise.

The precision/recall breakeven point is now defined as that value for which precision and recall are equal. Note that there may be multiple breakeven points or none at all. In the case of multiple breakeven points, the lowest one is selected. In case of no breakeven

[3]Since cosine similarities are not comparable across classes, the method of *proportional assignment* [Wiener et al., 1995] is used for the Rocchio algorithm to come up with improved confidence values.

					SVM (poly) $d =$					SVM (rbf) $\gamma =$			
	Bayes	Rocchio	C4.5	k-NN	1	2	3	4	5	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2
earn	95.9	96.1	96.1	97.3	98.2	98.4	**98.5**	98.4	98.3	**98.5**	98.5	98.4	98.3
acq	91.5	92.1	85.3	92.0	92.6	94.6	**95.2**	95.2	95.3	95.0	95.3	95.3	**95.4**
money-fx	62.9	67.6	69.4	78.2	66.9	72.5	75.4	74.9	**76.2**	74.0	75.4	**76.3**	75.9
grain	72.5	79.5	89.1	82.2	91.3	93.1	**92.4**	91.3	89.9	**93.1**	91.9	91.9	90.6
crude	81.0	81.5	75.5	85.7	86.0	87.3	88.6	**88.9**	87.8	**88.9**	89.0	88.9	88.2
trade	50.0	77.4	59.2	77.4	69.2	75.5	76.6	77.3	**77.1**	76.9	78.0	**77.8**	76.8
interest	58.0	72.5	49.1	74.0	69.8	63.3	67.9	73.1	**76.2**	74.4	75.0	**76.2**	76.1
ship	78.7	83.1	80.9	79.2	82.0	85.4	86.0	**86.5**	86.0	**85.4**	86.5	87.6	87.1
wheat	60.6	79.4	85.5	76.6	83.1	84.5	85.2	**85.9**	83.8	**85.2**	85.9	85.9	85.9
corn	47.3	62.2	87.7	77.9	86.0	86.5	85.3	**85.7**	83.9	**85.1**	85.7	85.7	84.5
microavg.	**72.0**	**79.9**	**79.4**	**82.3**	84.2	85.1	85.9	86.2	85.9	86.4	86.5	86.3	86.2
					combined: **86.0**					combined: **86.4**			

Figure 4: Precision/recall-breakeven point on the ten most frequent Reuters categories and microaveraged performance over all Reuters categories. k-NN, Rocchio, and C4.5 achieve highest performance at 1000 features (with $k = 30$ for k-NN and $\beta = 1.0$ for Rocchio). Naive Bayes performs best using all features.

point it is defined to be zero.

5.3 Results

Figures 4 and 5 show the results on the Reuters[4] and the Ohsumed corpus. To make sure that the results for the conventional methods are not biased by an inappropriate choice of parameters, extensive experimentation was done. All four methods were run after selecting the 500 best, 1000 best, 2000 best, 5000 best, (10000 best,) or all features (see section **??**). At each number of features the values $\beta \in \{0, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 1.0\}$ for the Rocchio algorithm and $k \in \{1, 15, 30, 45, 60\}$ for the k-NN classifier were tried. The results for the parameters with the best performance on the test set are reported.

On the Reuters data the k-NN classifier performs best among the conventional methods (see figure 4). This replicates the findings of [Yang, 1997]. Slightly worse perform the decision tree method and the Rocchio algorithm. The naive Bayes classifier shows the worst results. Compared to the conventional methods all SVMs perform better independent of the choice of parameters. Even for complex hypotheses spaces, like polynomials of degree 5, no overfitting occurs despite using all 9947 features. This demonstrates the ability of SVMs to handle large feature spaces without feature selection. The numbers printed in bold in figure 4 mark the parameter setting with the lowest VCdim estimate as described in section 3.2. The results show that this strategy is well suited to pick a good parameter setting automatically. Computing the microaveraged precision/recall-breakeven point over the hypotheses with the lowest VCdim per class leads to a performance of 85.6 for the polynomials and 86.3 for the radial basis functions. This is a substantial improvement over the best performing conventional method at its best parameter setting. The RBF

[4]The results for the Reuters corpus are revised. In the experiments for an earlier version of this report the articles marked with "UNPROC" were parsed in a way that the body was ignored.

					SVM (poly)				SVM (rbf)		
					$d =$				$\gamma =$		
	Bayes	Rocchio	C4.5	k-NN	1	2	3	4	0.6	0.8	1.0
Pathology	52.7	50.8	47.6	53.4	50.3	54.9	57.2	**58.2**	56.7	57.4	**58.1**
Cardiovascular	72.4	70.1	70.5	72.6	71.1	76.2	77.6	**77.3**	**77.2**	77.5	77.6
Immunologic	61.7	58.0	58.8	66.8	69.7	73.2	73.5	**73.2**	**73.3**	73.5	73.5
Neoplasms	63.6	64.1	58.7	67.2	64.1	69.4	70.1	**70.6**	**70.5**	70.6	70.7
Digestive System	65.3	59.9	59.0	67.1	70.3	73.3	**74.5**	73.7	**74.3**	74.1	73.8
microavg.	**57.0**	**56.6**	**50.0**	**59.1**	60.7	64.7	65.9	65.9	65.7	66.0	66.1
					combined: **65.9**				combined: **66.0**		

Figure 5: Precision/recall-breakeven point on the five most frequent Ohsumed categories and microaveraged performance over all Ohsumed categories. k-NN, Rocchio, and Bayes achieve highest performance using all features (with $k = 45$ for k-NN and $\beta = 1.0$ for Rocchio). C4.5 performs best using 500 features.

Support Vector machine is better than k-NN on 62 of the 90 categories (20 ties), which is a significant improvement according to the binomial sign test.

The results for the Ohsumed collection are similar (figure 5). Again k-NN is the best conventional method. C4.5 fails on this task and heavy overfitting is observed when using more than 500 features. Again the SVMs perform substantially better than all other methods. The RBF support vector machine outperforms k-NN on all 23 categories, which is again a significant improvement. On both the Reuters and the Ohsumed collection the RBF convolution performs slightly better than the polynomial convolution.

Comparing training time, SVMs are roughly comparable to C4.5, but they are more expensive than naive Bayes, Rocchio, and k-NN. Nevertheless, current research is likely to improve efficiency of SVM-type quadratic programming problems. SVMs are faster than k-NN at classification time, especially when using the *reduced set* [Burges and Schölkopf, 1997] method.

6 Conclusions

This paper introduces support vector machines for text categorization. It provides both theoretical and empirical evidence that SVMs are very well suited for text categorization. The theoretical analysis concludes that SVMs acknowledge the particular properties of text: (a) high dimensional feature spaces, (b) most of the features are relevant (dense concept vector), and (c) sparse instance vectors.

The experimental results show that SVMs consistently achieve good performance on categorization tasks, outperforming existing methods substantially and significantly. With their ability to generalize well in high dimensional feature spaces, SVMs eliminate the need for feature selection making the application of text categorization considerably easier. Another advantage of SVMs over the conventional methods is their robustness. SVMs show good performance in all experiments avoiding catastrophic failure like observed for the conventional methods on some tasks. Furthermore, SVMs do not require any parameter tuning, since they can find good parameter settings automatically. All this makes SVMs a very promising and easy to use method for learning text classifiers from examples.

7 Acknowledgements

Many thanks to my advisor Prof. Morik, Ralf Klinkenberg, and Marc Craven for comments on this paper. Thanks also to Ken Lang for providing some of the code.

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