

Do unbalanced data have a negative effect on LDA?

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Abstract

For two-class discrimination, Xie and Qiu [The effect of imbalanced data sets on LDA: a theoretical and empirical analysis, Pattern Recognition 40 (2) (2007) 557–562] claimed that, when covariance matrices of the two classes were unequal, a (class) unbalanced data set had a negative effect on the performance of linear discriminant analysis (LDA). Through re-balancing 10 real-world data sets, Xie and Qiu [The effect of imbalanced data sets on LDA: a theoretical and empirical analysis, Pattern Recognition 40 (2) (2007) 557–562] provided empirical evidence to support the claim using AUC (Area Under the receiver operating characteristic Curve) as the performance metric. We suggest that such a claim is vague if not misleading, there is no solid theoretical analysis presented in Xie and Qiu [The effect of imbalanced data sets on LDA: a theoretical and empirical analysis, Pattern Recognition 40 (2) (2007) 557–562], and AUC can lead to a quite different conclusion from that led to by misclassification error rate (ER) on the discrimination performance of LDA for unbalanced data sets. Our empirical and simulation studies suggest that, for LDA, the increase of the median of AUC (and thus the improvement of performance of LDA) from re-balancing is relatively small, while, in contrast, the increase of the median of ER (and thus the decline in performance of LDA) from re-balancing is relatively large. Therefore, from our study, there is no reliable empirical evidence to support the claim that a (class) unbalanced data set has a negative effect on the performance of LDA. In addition, re-balancing affects the performance of LDA for data sets with either equal or unequal covariance matrices, indicating that having unequal covariance matrices is not a key reason for the difference in performance between original and re-balanced data.

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1. Introduction

For two-class discrimination, Xie and Qiu [1] claims that, when covariance matrices of the two classes are unequal, a (class) unbalanced data set has a negative effect on the performance of linear discriminant analysis (LDA). We suggest that such a claim is vague if not misleading and we could find no solid theoretical analysis presented in Ref. [1]. However, their results from empirical experiments are interesting in finding that the performance of LDA on balanced data sets is superior to that of LDA on unbalanced data sets.

In the notation used by Xie and Qiu [1], there are $n = n_1 + n_2$ observations with d features in the training set, where $\{\mathbf{x}_1\}_{i=1}^{n_1}$ arise from class ω_1 and $\{\mathbf{x}_2\}_{i=1}^{n_2}$ arise from class ω_2 .

Gaussian-based discrimination assumes two normal distributions: $(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$ such that, for $j = 1, 2$,

$$g_j(\mathbf{x}) = \log(p(\mathbf{x}, \omega_j)) = -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu_j)^T \Sigma_j^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mu_j) - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_j| - \frac{d}{2} \log 2\pi + \log p(\omega_j),$$

where $p(\omega_j)$ is the prior probability of class ω_j ; $g(\mathbf{x})$ is a quadratic function of \mathbf{x} . When we assume further a common covariance matrix such that $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \Sigma$, although $g_j(\mathbf{x})$ is still quadratic in \mathbf{x} (not linear as stated in Ref. [1]), a discriminant function $g^L(\mathbf{x}) = g_1(\mathbf{x}) - g_2(\mathbf{x})$ becomes linear in \mathbf{x} . Consequently, Gaussian-based LDA is derived: $g^L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0$, where $\mathbf{w} = \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$, and

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= \log \frac{p(\omega_1)}{p(\omega_2)} - \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_1 - \mu_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_2) \\ &= \log \frac{p(\omega_1)}{p(\omega_2)} - \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 + \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2). \end{aligned}$$

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Therefore, the optimal or Bayes discriminant rule of Gaussian-based LDA is to classify \mathbf{x} into ω_1 if $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 \geq 0$, and into ω_2 otherwise.

In practice, plug-in sample Gaussian-based LDA is commonly adopted by using relative frequencies of samples $\hat{p}(\omega_j) = n_j / (n_1 + n_2)$ to estimate $p(\omega_j)$, using sample means $\hat{\mu}_j$ to estimate μ_j , using sample within-class covariance matrices S_j to estimate Σ_j and using the pooled sample covariance matrix S to estimate Σ , where

$$S = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (\mathbf{x}_{1i} - \hat{\mu}_1)(\mathbf{x}_{1i} - \hat{\mu}_1)^T + \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} (\mathbf{x}_{2i} - \hat{\mu}_2)(\mathbf{x}_{2i} - \hat{\mu}_2)^T \right) = \frac{1}{n-2} \{ (n_1 - 1)S_1 + (n_2 - 1)S_2 \}.$$

Fisher’s linear discriminant rule is to classify \mathbf{x} into ω_1 if $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \geq c$, where $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of \mathbf{x} and the coefficients \mathbf{w}^T maximise the ratio $(\mathbf{w}^T \hat{\mu}_1 - \mathbf{w}^T \hat{\mu}_2)^2 / (\mathbf{w}^T S \mathbf{w})$; the ratio is of the separation of the sample means of $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$ to the pooled sample variance of $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$. Maximisation of this ratio with respect to \mathbf{w} results in $\mathbf{w} = \alpha S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)$, where α is an arbitrary scalar (not necessarily $n - 2$ as in Ref. [1]). Traditionally α is set to be 1 with the threshold c being adapted accordingly.

Fisher’s linear discriminant rule does not assume Gaussian distributions for $\mathbf{x}|\omega_1$ and $\mathbf{x}|\omega_2$. However, in theory, it is equivalent to plug-in sample Gaussian-based LDA if the data satisfy the assumptions underlying the latter; in practice, it can be equivalent to the latter with $c = -w_0$. However, when the assumptions underlying Gaussian-based LDA do not hold, for instance if $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$, the optimal threshold c for a minimum classification error rate (ER) is not equal to $-w_0$ [2], and hence Fisher’s linear discriminant rule differs from Gaussian-based LDA.

With the above formulae for Gaussian-based LDA, Ref. [1] claims that “if the two sample covariance matrices are different, the huge imbalance in class distribution is very problematic for LDA because the prior probability of majority class overshadows the differences in the sample covariance matrix terms. That is, the imbalanced data sets may hinder the performance of LDA”. Such a claim is supported by their experimental results using re-balanced data obtained from original unbalanced data from four sampling methods [1].

2. Comments on the claim

We suggest that the above-mentioned claim and the empirical study to support it are vague if not misleading, even under an “ideal” condition such that $\hat{\mu}_j$ and S_j perfectly estimate μ_j and Σ_j , respectively. Let us explain it in the context of three issues.

First, if the true prior probabilities are approximately balanced such that $p(\omega_1) \approx p(\omega_2) \approx 0.5$ but the training set is unbalanced such that $n_1 \gg n_2$, then plug-in estimates $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ are poor estimates of $p(\omega_j)$ because $\hat{p}(\omega_1) \gg \hat{p}(\omega_2)$, even

though when the two sample covariance matrices are identical S will be a good estimate of Σ . Consequently, being based on $\hat{p}(\omega_1)/\hat{p}(\omega_2)$, w_0 is wrongly estimated so that LDA performs poorly. In this case, the use of re-balanced data, as in Ref. [1], will no doubt adjust $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ such that $\hat{p}(\omega_j) \approx 0.5$ and thus improve the performance of LDA. However, in practice, the training set is always given while the true priori probabilities are neither known nor necessarily balanced, and therefore the preprocessing of re-balancing data cannot guarantee a better performance of LDA.

Second, if the true prior probabilities are unbalanced such that $p(\omega_1) \gg p(\omega_2)$ and the training set demonstrates the imbalance such that $n_1 \gg n_2$, then plug-in estimates $\hat{p}(\omega_j) \approx p(\omega_j)$ are good estimates of $p(\omega_j)$ and thus $S = \hat{p}(\omega_1)S_1 + \hat{p}(\omega_2)S_2$ approaches the pooled population (within-class) covariance matrix $\Sigma = p(\omega_1)\Sigma_1 + p(\omega_2)\Sigma_2$. When the two sample covariance matrices are different, such that $S_1 \neq S_2$, the weights $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ truly reflect the contribution of Σ_j to Σ . In contrast, if the training set is re-balanced by sampling as in Ref. [1], then $\hat{p}(\omega_j) = \frac{1}{2}$ are poor estimates of $p(\omega_j)$ and $S = \frac{1}{2}(S_1 + S_2)$. There is no reason to suggest that an LDA that uses $S = \frac{1}{2}(S_1 + S_2)$ and a wrongly estimated w_0 (with the term $\log \hat{p}(\omega_1)/\hat{p}(\omega_2) = 0$) will perform better than LDA that uses $S = \hat{p}(\omega_1)S_1 + \hat{p}(\omega_2)S_2$ where $\hat{p}(\omega_j) \approx p(\omega_j)$. Even if we assume that Ref. [1] uses accurate estimates of the prior probabilities $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ from the original data such that $\hat{p}(\omega_j) \approx p(\omega_j)$ and uses the re-balanced data to estimate the pooled covariance matrix such that $S = \frac{1}{2}(S_1 + S_2)$ for Gaussian-based LDA, there is still no justification that such a linear classifier will approach the performance of the best “admissible” linear procedure under the condition that $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$ [3], which is similar to Fisher’s linear discriminant but with $\mathbf{w} = (t_1 \Sigma_1 + t_2 \Sigma_2)^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$ (or in practice using sample statistics such that $\mathbf{w} = (t_1 S_1 + t_2 S_2)^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)$), where desired values of the scalars t_1 and t_2 have no closed-form solution so that systematic trials or computing algorithms have to be adopted [3–5].

Third, the misclassification error rate can be written as

$$ER = p(\omega_1)P(\omega_2|\omega_1) + p(\omega_2)P(\omega_1|\omega_2),$$

where $P(\omega_j|\omega_k)$ is the probability of misclassifying an observation, who arises from class ω_k , into class ω_j . For plug-in sample Gaussian-based LDA, when $(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$, it follows that

$$P(\omega_2|\omega_1) = P(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 < 0 | \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)),$$

$$P(\omega_1|\omega_2) = P(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 \geq 0 | \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)).$$

Similarly to Ref. [4], the estimated probabilities of misclassification can be rewritten as

$$P(\omega_2|\omega_1) = \Phi \left(\frac{-\log \frac{\hat{p}(\omega_1)}{\hat{p}(\omega_2)} - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)^T S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)}{[(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)^T S^{-1} \Sigma_1 S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)]^{1/2}} \right) = \Phi \left(-\frac{\mathbf{w}^T \hat{\mu}_1 + w_0}{\sqrt{\mathbf{w}^T \Sigma_1 \mathbf{w}}} \right),$$

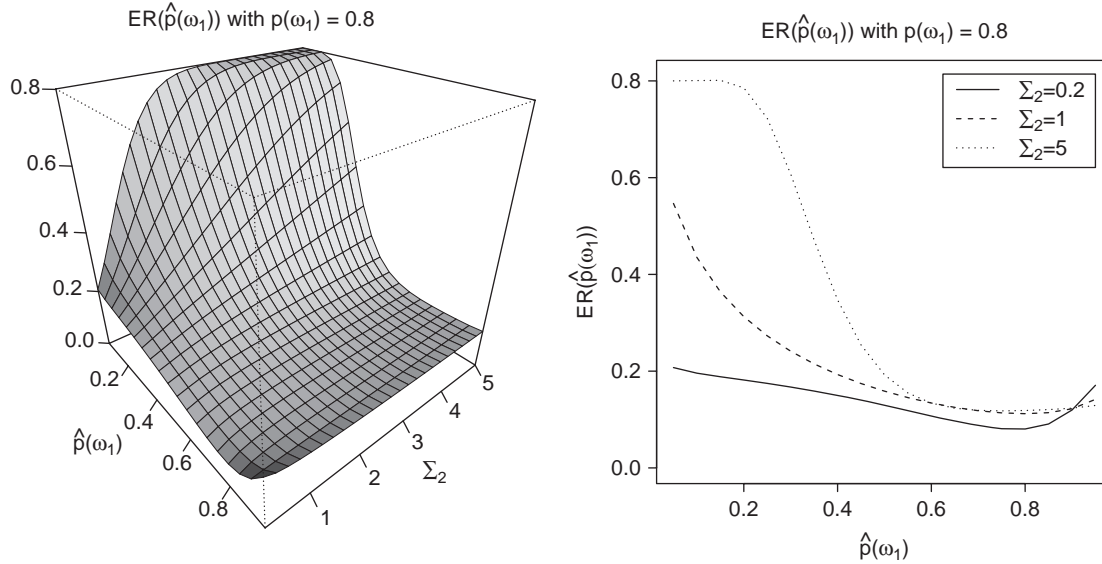


Fig. 1. The misclassification error rates $ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1))$.

$$P(\omega_1|\omega_2) = \Phi \left(\frac{\log \frac{\hat{p}(\omega_1)}{\hat{p}(\omega_2)} - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)^T S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)}{[(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)^T S^{-1} \Sigma_2 S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)]^{1/2}} \right)$$

$$= \Phi \left(\frac{\mathbf{w}^T \hat{\mu}_2 + w_0}{\sqrt{\mathbf{w}^T \Sigma_2 \mathbf{w}}} \right),$$

where Φ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the standard normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. Therefore, in the formula for ER, $p(\omega_j)$ and Σ_j are population parameters, or sample parameters from a sufficiently large original data set, while $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$, $\hat{\mu}_j$ and S are sample statistics obtained from a training set.

In the experiments performed by Xie and Qiu [1], the test set includes $n_1/4$ observations arising from ω_1 and $n_2/4$ from ω_2 such that it conforms to the original relative frequencies; the remaining 75% of observations are then re-sampled into a training set with approximately equal number of observations from each class. Without explicit indication in Ref. [1] of how they obtain the sample relative frequencies $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ (from the re-balanced training set or from the original data set) and the weights in calculating the pooled sample covariance matrix in those experiments, we assume that all the parameters of the linear discriminant function are estimated from the re-balanced training set such that $\hat{p}(\omega_j) \approx \frac{1}{2}$ and $S \approx \hat{p}(\omega_1)S_1 + \hat{p}(\omega_2)S_2 = \frac{1}{2}(S_1 + S_2)$. In this context, a claim that using the re-balanced data can reduce ER can be translated into the following equality:

$$\frac{1}{2} = \arg \min_{\hat{p}(\omega_1)} \{p(\omega_1)P(\omega_2|\omega_1; \hat{p}(\omega_1))$$

$$+ p(\omega_2)P(\omega_1|\omega_2; \hat{p}(\omega_1))\}.$$

In order to verify this equality, we first perform some numerical evaluations on two specific scenarios: one is with $\Sigma_1 =$

Σ_2 , the other is with $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$. In each scenario, we assume the original data set is unbalanced with $p(\omega_1) = 0.8$, and there are large numbers of observations in both the test set and the training set such that $\hat{\mu}_j$ and S_j perfectly estimate μ_j and Σ_j , respectively, whether the data in the training set are unbalanced or balanced. With the population parameters $p(\omega_j)$, μ_j and Σ_j known, ER becomes a function of $\hat{p}(\omega_1)$ alone:

$$ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1)) = p(\omega_1)P(\omega_2|\omega_1; \hat{p}(\omega_1))$$

$$+ p(\omega_2)P(\omega_1|\omega_2; \hat{p}(\omega_1)),$$

where

$$P(\omega_2|\omega_1; \hat{p}(\omega_1))$$

$$= \Phi \left(\frac{-\log \frac{\hat{p}(\omega_1)}{1 - \hat{p}(\omega_1)} - \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{[(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} \Sigma_1 \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)]^{1/2}} \right),$$

$$P(\omega_1|\omega_2; \hat{p}(\omega_1))$$

$$= \Phi \left(\frac{\log \frac{\hat{p}(\omega_1)}{1 - \hat{p}(\omega_1)} - \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{[(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} \Sigma_2 \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)]^{1/2}} \right),$$

in which $\Sigma = \hat{p}(\omega_1)\Sigma_1 + (1 - \hat{p}(\omega_1))\Sigma_2$.

Here we consider a simple case in which each observation only has one feature (i.e., $d = 1$). The population parameters are known to be $p(\omega_1) = 0.8$, $\mu_1 = 1$, $\mu_2 = -1$, $\Sigma_1 = 1$ and $\Sigma_2 \in [0.2, 5.0]$. The relationship between $ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1))$ and $\hat{p}(\omega_1)$ is drawn in the three-dimensional plot as a function of $\hat{p}(\omega_1)$ and Σ_2 in the left panel of Fig. 1. The surface of $ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1))$ does not have a minimum point at $\hat{p}(\omega_1) = 0.5$.

In the right panel of Fig. 1, we draw the curves of $ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1))$ for $\Sigma_2 = 0.2, 1, \text{ and } 5$, respectively. We observe the following.

- (1) When $\Sigma_2 = 0.2$ or 5 such that $\Sigma_2 \neq \Sigma_1$, the best performance of LDA is obtained at $\hat{p}(\omega_1) = 0.8$, which is equal to the true prior probability of class ω_1 , rather than from the re-balanced data, which give $\hat{p}(\omega_1) = 0.5$; the procedure of re-balancing data has a negative effect on the performance of LDA if the original unbalanced data conform to the truly unbalanced population.
- (2) When $\Sigma_2 = 1$ such that $\Sigma_2 = \Sigma_1$, the best performance of LDA is also obtained at $\hat{p}(\omega_1) = 0.8$ rather than from the re-balanced data; the procedure of re-balancing data may also have a negative effect.
- (3) In general, data with a compact within-class distribution (in the sense of a small within-class covariance matrix) may result in a better performance of LDA (in the sense of smaller $ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1))$), compared with data with a dispersed within-class distribution.
- (4) In fact, in this case, since $\min(p(\omega_1), p(\omega_2)) = 0.2$, in practice the maximum $ER(\hat{p}(\omega_1))$ can be controlled to be 0.2 , the smaller prior probability, if we always classify observations into the class with higher prior probability.

In summary, under the condition of large numbers of observations, with regard to ER as the measure of performance, there is no evidence from our numerical evaluations to justify the claim that re-balancing original data can improve the performance of Gaussian-based LDA, and the best performance of LDA is always obtained when the estimated priori probabilities conform to the true population prior probabilities.

3. AUC or ER

Unbalanced data sets are quite common in practice. For two-class discrimination, conventionally one of two classes which has higher prior probability is called the majority or negative class, and the other class is called the minority or positive class. In practice, many discrimination techniques are not very successful in identifying the minority class [6].

There are many approaches to dealing with data imbalance (rarity) [7]. The simplest approaches are random over-sampling with replacement and under-sampling, where the former is to increase the number of the minority class and the latter is to reduce the number of the majority class. Such sampling will modify the class distributions of the training data. Random over-sampling cannot gain new information about the minority class; random under-sampling may lose useful information about the majority class. Nevertheless, for practical data sets, such sampling may improve the performance of LDA with regard to certain evaluation metrics, as shown by Xie and Qiu [1].

The ER, also called “accuracy” in Refs. [7–9], is the most widely used evaluation metric for classifiers such as LDA. However, as an average over all the observations that are classified, it inevitably favours the majority class given the assumption that the error in the minority class is of equal importance to that

in the majority class. Therefore, it can be biased by the prior probabilities if errors have in practice different importance between the two classes; it is recommended to use a loss function in this case.

For two-class discrimination of unbalanced data, where the error in the minority class may be more important in practice, the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve and the area under the curve, the so-called AUC, are commonly used [7,9]. The ROC curve is a plot of the true positive rate vs. the false positive rate, and hence a higher AUC generally indicates a better classifier. As pointed out by Hanley and McNeil [10], there is a three-way equivalence between AUC, the Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney statistic and the probability of a correct ranking of a randomly chosen (negative, positive) pair. More precisely, suppose that a discriminant function such as $g^L(\mathbf{x})$ is designed to provide a high score for a positive observation and a low score for a negative one. Then, given a randomly chosen (negative, positive) pair denoted by $(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_P)$, it holds that $AUC = Prob(\mathbf{x}_N < \mathbf{x}_P)$.

Such equivalence to the Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney statistic is also mentioned in Refs. [1,8,11], and hence AUC is concerned more about ranking than about the misclassification error of the predictions [11]. In contrast to ER, AUC is invariant to the prior probabilities [8].

The ROC is obtained by varying the discriminant threshold, while, in practice, ER is obtained for some classifiers such as LDA at a conventionally fixed, discriminant threshold which is optimal under certain assumptions. Therefore, AUC is independent of the discriminant threshold while ER is not.

Concerning the relationship between AUC and ER, Ref. [8] shows that there is good agreement between these two evaluation metrics in ranking 9 classification algorithms including C4.5 (an algorithm based on classification trees) and plug-in sample Gaussian-based quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA). Furthermore, the theoretical analysis in Ref. [11] shows that the mean of AUC is monotonically decreasing as ER increases. Meanwhile, Ref. [11] shows that, the more unbalanced the data, the higher the coefficient of variation of AUC and the lower the mean of AUC. This not only indicates that AUC may suggest a different conclusion from that drawn by ER with regard to classifier performance on unbalanced data, but also suggests that using AUC as the evaluation metric favours balanced data. In fact, using C4.5, Ref. [12] presents a thorough empirical study of 26 real-world data sets; their results show that, in general, ER is better with original data while AUC is better with re-balanced data.

Ref. [1] uses AUC to evaluate the performance of plug-in sample Gaussian LDA (denoted by LDA- Σ hereafter); in our study, we will use both AUC and ER to evaluate the performance of LDA- Σ and one of its special versions which assumes that the common covariance matrix is diagonal (denoted by LDA- A). In our implementation, we first carry out experiments on 15 unbalanced (with the proportion of the majority class $\hat{p}(\omega_2) > 65\%$) data sets. Obtained from the UCI machine learning repository [13], the data sets include all 10 data sets used by Xie and Qiu [1] and five other more unbalanced data sets (with $\hat{p}(\omega_2) > 75\%$); as with [1], these data sets have only

continuous features. Then, we investigate four simulated data sets of normally distributed data and normal mixture data.

4. Replication of experiments on UCI data sets

As with Refs. [1,12], the test set is constructed by including $n_1/4$ observations arising from the minority class ω_1 and $n_2/4$ from the majority class ω_2 such that it maintains the prevalence rate of each class; the remaining 75% of observations in the original, unbalanced training set are then re-sampled into two training sets with equal numbers of observations from each class, respectively, by random over-sampling with replacement and random under-sampling.

We implement such constructions randomly T times; such a validation is not a cross-validation since the training set and test set are not necessarily crossed over. However, it can be expected that such a validation is as effective as T -fold cross-validation, if T is a large number. In our implementation, $T = 200$. As suggested in Ref. [8], we average over the T AUCs to obtain one average AUC, rather than average over the T ROCs to calculate one AUC.

The AUC is obtained through calculating the Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney statistic of the predicting scores for LDA. It is implemented by an R function *wilcox.test* from a standard package *stats* in R to perform the Mann–Whitney test (equivalently the Wilcoxon rank sum test) for two unpaired samples. In order to exercise the test, scores of the discriminant function $g^L(\mathbf{x})$ are used as the varying discriminant threshold and for ranking.

Table 1 presents the description of the 10 UCI data sets being studied by both Xie and Qiu [1] and us (the class prior probabilities different from Table 1 of [1] are highlighted in italics). The experiments on the five other UCI data sets provide similar results which can be found in the appendix of a report on the web page for Technical Reports of the Department of Statistics at the University of Glasgow.

As with Refs. [8,14], the UCI data are rescaled into the range $[0, 1]$. In addition, before carrying out LDA, we perform, for each feature \mathbf{x}_i , the Shapiro–Wilk test for within-class normality and Levene’s test for homogeneity of variance across the two classes at the significance level 0.05. As the maximum number of observations allowed by an R function *shapiro.test*

from the R package *stats* is 5000, we use 5000 randomly sampled observations for the tests when there are more in the data set. If for a particular feature the within-class normality is rejected in either of the two classes, we mark the feature as “Normality rejected”. Results of these two tests, as shown in Table 2, suggest that for all 10 data sets under study the null hypotheses of within-class normality and homoscedasticity across the classes are rejected, including the data set “Pima” which is stated to have nearly equal sample covariance matrices in Ref. [1].

Tables 3–6 list our results, obtained from LDA- Σ and LDA- \mathcal{A} , of medians of AUC and ER for the original and re-balanced data, as well as p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for the pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling). From the tables, we can observe the following.

- (1) Concerning LDA- Σ , AUCs of re-balanced data are significantly (at the level 0.05) better than those of original data, except for the under-sampled data of “Pima”, “New-thyroid” and “Glass”. Although the increase of its median (and thus the improvement of classifier performance) from re-balancing is not very large in amount, in general, it can be said that, for the data sets being studied, AUC favours re-balanced data.
- (2) Concerning LDA- \mathcal{A} : of the 10 data sets, AUCs of re-balanced “Satimage-3” and “Image” are significantly worse than those of the original data for both re-sampling methods, and AUC of re-balanced “Glass” is significantly worse than that of original data for the under-sampling. Meanwhile, no significant difference exists between AUCs of “Vehicle”. This may be because of the different estimates of the covariance matrix between LDA- Σ and LDA- \mathcal{A} ; this indicates that the accuracy of estimation can play a more important role in AUC than the re-balancing does.
- (3) In contrast to AUC, ER is significantly increased by re-balancing except for “New-thyroid” and “Vehicle”. The increase of its median (and thus the decline of classifier performance) from re-balancing is relatively large. In general, it can be said that, for the data sets being studied, ER favours original data.

Table 1
Description of data

Data set	Observations	Features	Class (min., maj.)	Prior (min.,(%) maj.(%))
Letter-a	20,000	16	(A, remainder)	(3.94, 96.06)
Satimage-3	6435	36	(3, remainder)	(21.1, 78.9)
Waveform	5000	21	(1, remainder)	(32.94, 67.06)
Image	2310	18	(BRICKFACE, remainder)	(14.29, 85.71)
Vehicle	846	18	(van, remainder)	(23.52, 76.48)
Pima	768	8	(1, 0)	(34.9, 65.1)
New-thyroid	215	5	(hypo, remainder)	(13.95, 86.05)
Glass	214	9	(3, remainder)	(7.94, 92.06)
Wine	178	13	(3, remainder)	(26.97, 73.03)
Iris	150	4	(Iris-virginica, remainder)	(33.33, 66.67)

Table 2
Results of the Shapiro–Wilk test for within-class normality and Levene’s test for homogeneity of variance across the two classes

Data set	Features	Normality rejected	Homoscedasticity rejected
Letter-a	16	16	12
Satimage-3	36	36	36
Waveform	21	15	15
Image	18	18	18
Vehicle	18	18	14
Pima	8	8	5
New-thyroid	5	5	3
Glass	9	9	2
Wine	13	12	10
Iris	4	3	3

Table 3
Results from LDA- Σ : medians of AUC for the original and re-balanced data and p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling)

Data set	Original	Over	Under	p -v. (Ori.-over.)	p -v. (Ori.-under.)
Letter-a	0.977	0.986	0.986	0	0
Satimage-3	0.987	0.988	0.987	0	0
Waveform	0.943	0.945	0.944	0	0
Image	0.994	0.995	0.995	0	0
Vehicle	0.989	0.993	0.991	0	0
Pima	0.835	0.840	0.834	0	0.801
New-thyroid	0.995	1	0.997	0	0.083
Glass	0.827	0.918	0.801	0	0.018
Wine	1	1	1	0.005	0.010
Iris	0.977	0.990	0.987	0	0

Table 4
Results from LDA- Σ : medians of ER for the original and re-balanced data and p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling)

Data set	Original	Over.	Under.	p -v. (Ori.-over.)	p -v. (Ori.-under.)
Letter-a	0.011	0.044	0.045	0	0
Satimage-3	0.051	0.076	0.077	0	0
Waveform	0.126	0.170	0.171	0	0
Image	0.019	0.033	0.036	0	0
Vehicle	0.047	0.047	0.052	0.827	0.002
Pima	0.224	0.234	0.240	0	0
New-thyroid	0.056	0.019	0.037	0	0
Glass	0.075	0.226	0.292	0	0
Wine	0	0.023	0.023	0	0
Iris	0.081	0.108	0.108	0	0

Obtained from LDA- Σ on the 10 data sets, scatter plots of AUC and ER on re-balanced (by over-sampling and under-sampling) vs. original data are shown in Figs. 2 and 3, and box-plots of AUC and ER on original and re-balanced data are shown in Figs. 4 and 5, respectively. Results from LDA- \mathcal{A} are similar and thus are omitted here.

Table 5
Results from LDA- \mathcal{A} : medians of AUC for the original and re-balanced data and p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling)

Data set	Original	Over.	Under.	p -v. (Ori.-over.)	p -v. (Ori.-under.)
Letter-a	0.951	0.952	0.952	0	0
Satimage-3	0.982	0.981	0.981	0	0
Waveform	0.916	0.917	0.917	0	0
Image	0.873	0.864	0.865	0	0
Vehicle	0.783	0.782	0.783	0.204	0.060
Pima	0.818	0.822	0.820	0	0.023
New-thyroid	0.997	1	1	0	0.136
Glass	0.709	0.750	0.653	0	0
Wine	1	1	1	0	0.096
Iris	0.990	0.990	0.990	0	0

Table 6
Results from LDA- \mathcal{A} : medians of ER for the original and re-balanced data and p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling)

Data set	Original	Over.	Under.	p -v. (Ori.-over.)	p -v. (Ori.-under.)
Letter-a	0.023	0.076	0.076	0	0
Satimage-3	0.121	0.136	0.135	0	0
Waveform	0.154	0.163	0.163	0	0
Image	0.218	0.310	0.310	0	0
Vehicle	0.363	0.363	0.358	0.002	0.001
Pima	0.245	0.260	0.260	0	0
New-thyroid	0.037	0.019	0.019	0	0
Glass	0.075	0.509	0.509	0	0
Wine	0.023	0.045	0.045	0	0
Iris	0.135	0.162	0.162	0	0

5. Simulation studies

Although we may observe some patterns from the empirical study using real-world data sets such as those from the UCI machine learning repository, it is not reliable to generalise the patterns into a conclusion beyond the tested data sets. In this sense, a study on simulated data sets can be a good complement to the empirical study.

In Ref. [4], simulation studies by Monte Carlo methods are used to compare the performance of the so-called best linear function [3], the quadratic and Fisher’s linear discriminant function, under the condition that $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$. One of the simulation studies with respect to $p(\omega_j)$ and $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ shows that ER is smaller when $\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ is closer to $p(\omega_j)$.

Fisher’s linear discriminant rule as used in Ref. [4] is in fact a variant of the plug-in sample Gaussian-based LDA with $\mathbf{w} = S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)$, and

$$w_0 = \log \frac{p(\omega_1)}{p(\omega_2)} - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\mu}_1 + \hat{\mu}_2)^T S^{-1}(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2),$$

where population prior probabilities $p(\omega_j)$ are used for the term $\log p(\omega_1)/p(\omega_2)$ in w_0 while sample prior probabilities

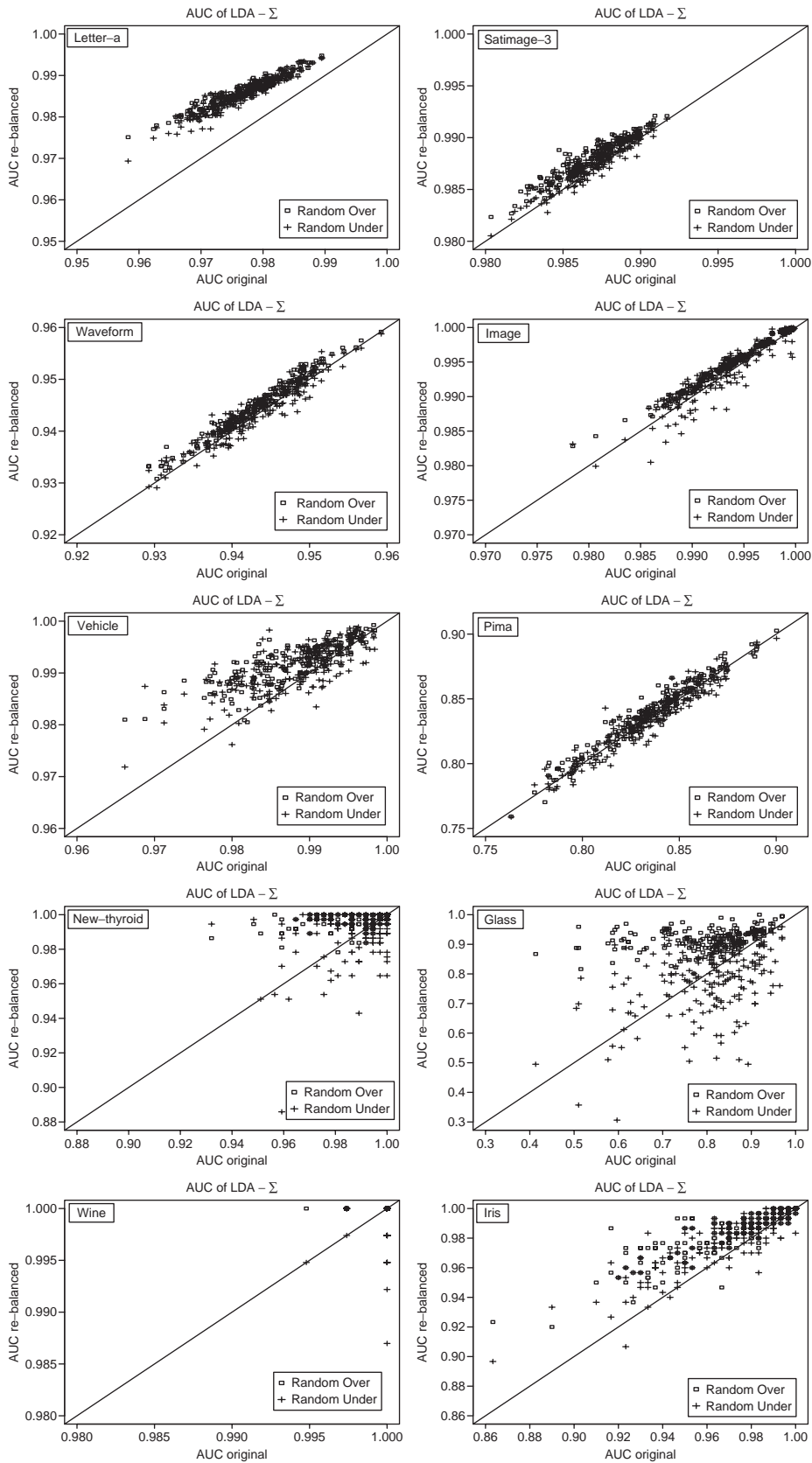


Fig. 2. Scatter plots of AUC on re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling) vs. original data, obtained from LDA-Σ.

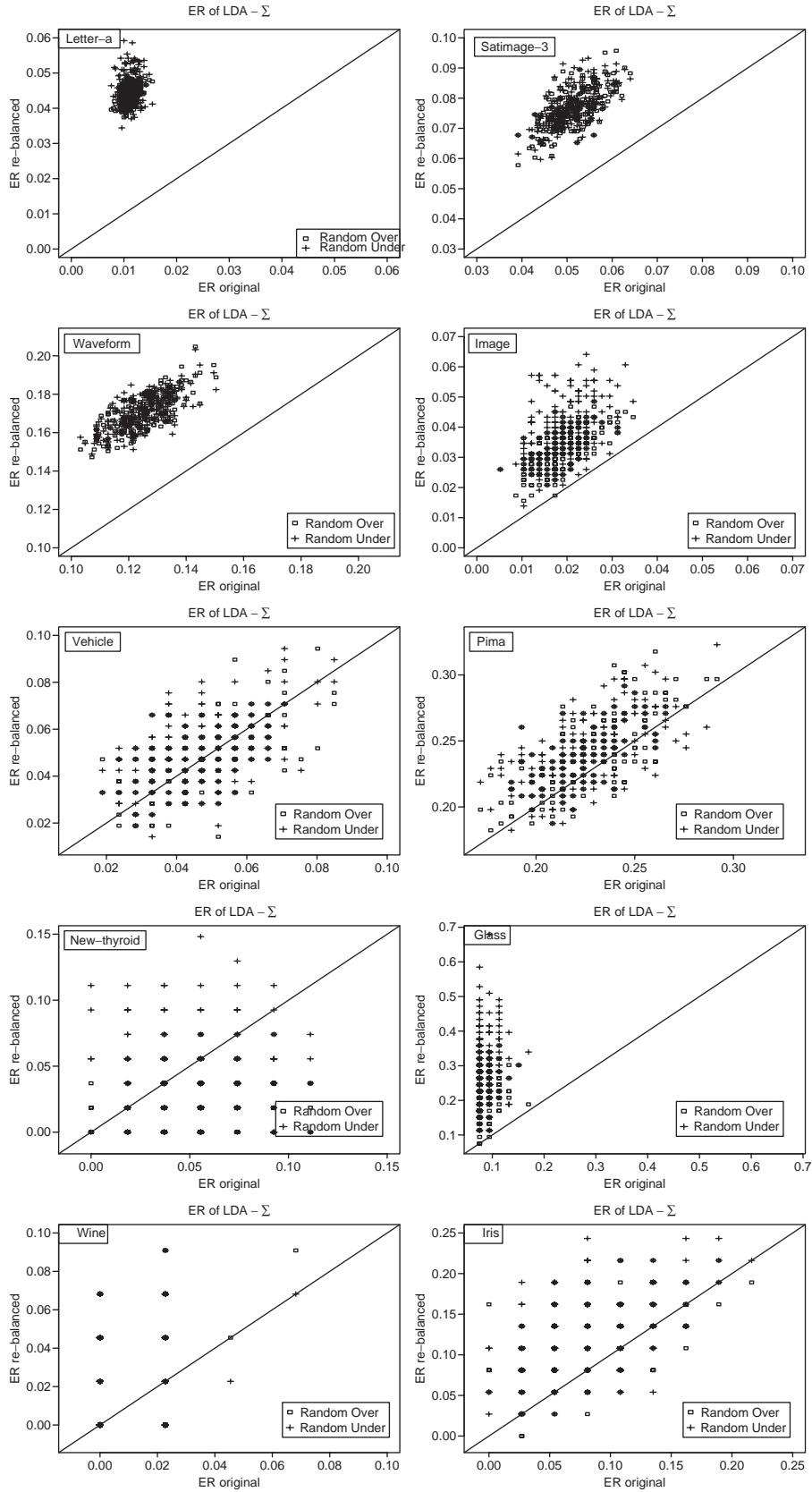


Fig. 3. Scatter plots of ER on re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling) vs. original data, obtained from LDA- Σ .

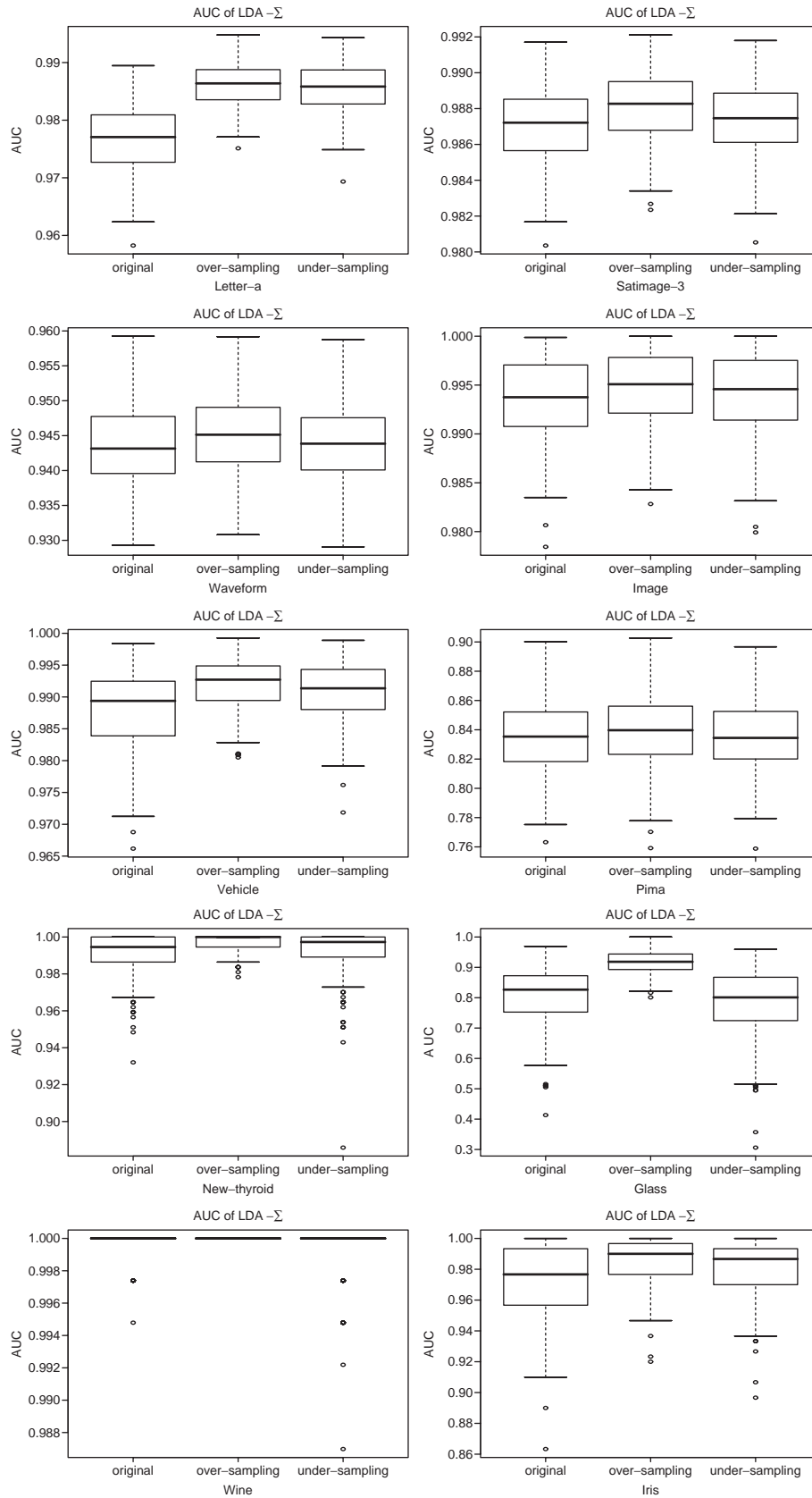


Fig. 4. Box-plots of AUC on original and re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling), obtained from LDA- Σ .

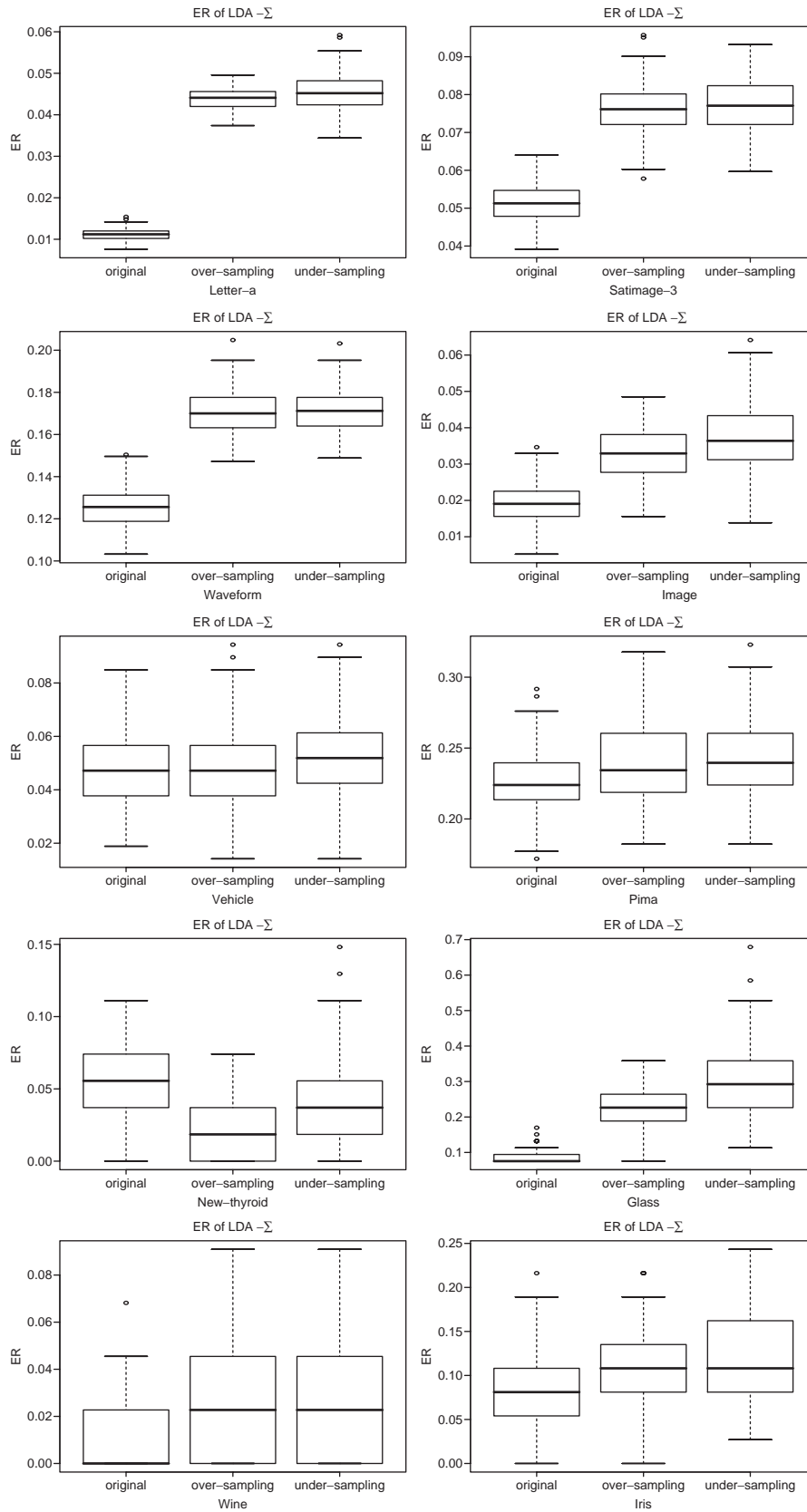


Fig. 5. Box-plots of ER on original and re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling), obtained from LDA-Σ.

$\hat{p}(\omega_j)$ are used in $S = \hat{p}(\omega_1)S_1 + \hat{p}(\omega_2)S_2$. In practice, since the $p(\omega_j)$ are unknown, $\log \hat{p}(\omega_1)/\hat{p}(\omega_2)$ is more widely used in w_0 .

Table 7
Results from LDA- Σ : medians of AUC for the original and re-balanced data and p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling)

Data set	Original	Over.	Under.	p -v. (Ori.-over.)	p -v. (Ori.-under.)
Normal-equi	0.962	0.963	0.962	0	0.012
Normal-unequi	0.943	0.949	0.948	0	0
Mixture-equi	0.981	0.982	0.981	0	0.260
Mixture-unequi	0.992	0.992	0.992	0.151	0.001

Table 8
Results from LDA- Σ : medians of ER for the original and re-balanced data and p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling)

Data set	Original	Over.	Under.	p -v. (Ori.-over.)	p -v. (Ori.-under.)
Normal-equi	0.072	0.108	0.112	0	0
Normal-unequi	0.060	0.096	0.096	0	0
Mixture-equi	0.056	0.068	0.068	0	0
Mixture-unequi	0.032	0.044	0.044	0	0

In this section, we simulate four data sets; each data set consists of 1000 observations and is divided into two classes, ω_1 and ω_2 , with 200 observations from the minority class ω_1 and 800 observations from the majority class ω_2 such that each data set is unbalanced with $\hat{p}(\omega_1) = 0.2$. The first data set is randomly generated from two 4-variate normal distributions, $\mathbf{x}|\omega_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $\mathbf{x}|\omega_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$, with equal covariance matrices such that $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$; the second data set is similar to the first one except that $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$. The third and fourth data sets are randomly generated from two 4-variate normal mixtures; each mixture has two components. The third one has equal covariance matrices across the two classes while the fourth one does not.

For $\mathbf{x}|\omega_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $\mathbf{x}|\omega_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$, as with Refs. [2,4], we can use a linear transformation to reduce Σ_1 to the identity matrix \mathbf{I} and diagonalise Σ_2 . Therefore, without loss of generality, in this section, we use a canonical form with $\mu_1 = \mathbf{0}$, $\Sigma_1 = \mathbf{I}$ and $\mu_2 = (-1.5, -0.75, 0.75, 1.5)^T$, and with Σ_2 a diagonal covariance matrix. For the data set with equal covariance matrices, $\Sigma_2 = \mathbf{I} = \Sigma_1$; for the data set with unequal covariance matrices, Σ_2 is a diagonal matrix with four diagonal elements which are (0.25, 0.75, 1.25, 1.75), so that $\Sigma_2 \neq \Sigma_1$.

Compared with the normal distribution, the mixture of normal distributions is a better approximation to real data in a variety of situations. In this section, two simulated data sets are

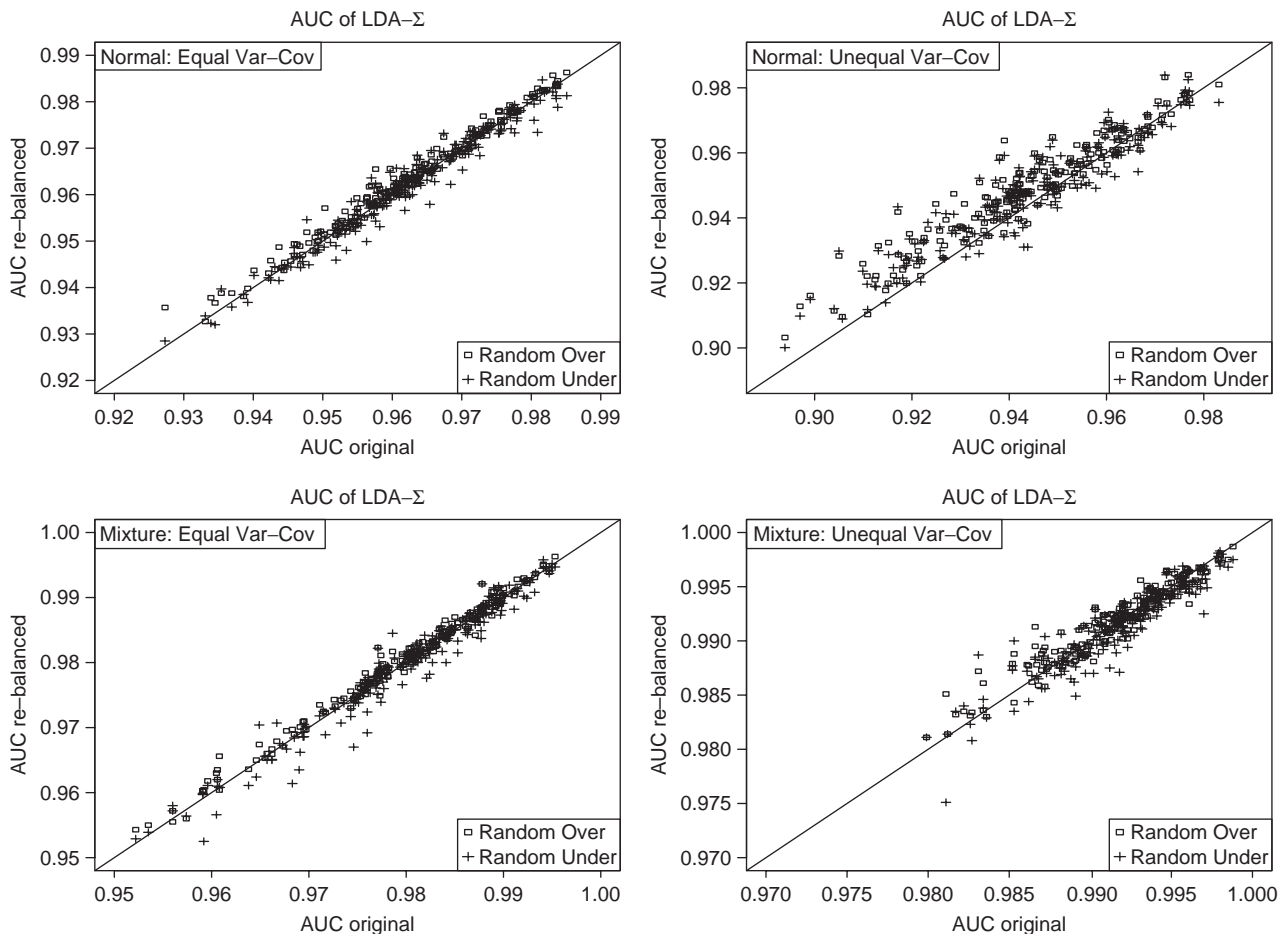


Fig. 6. Scatter plots of AUC on re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling) vs. original data, obtained from LDA- Σ .

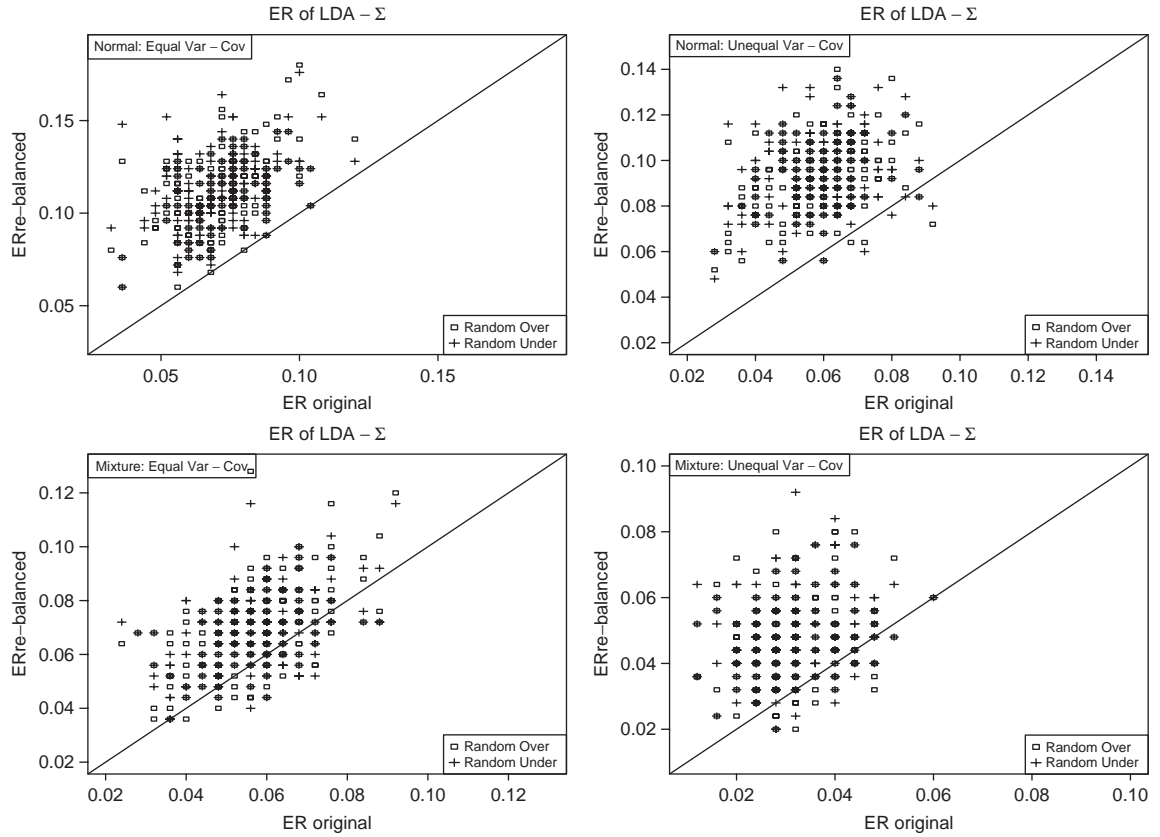


Fig. 7. Scatter plots of ER on re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling) vs. original data, obtained from LDA- Σ .

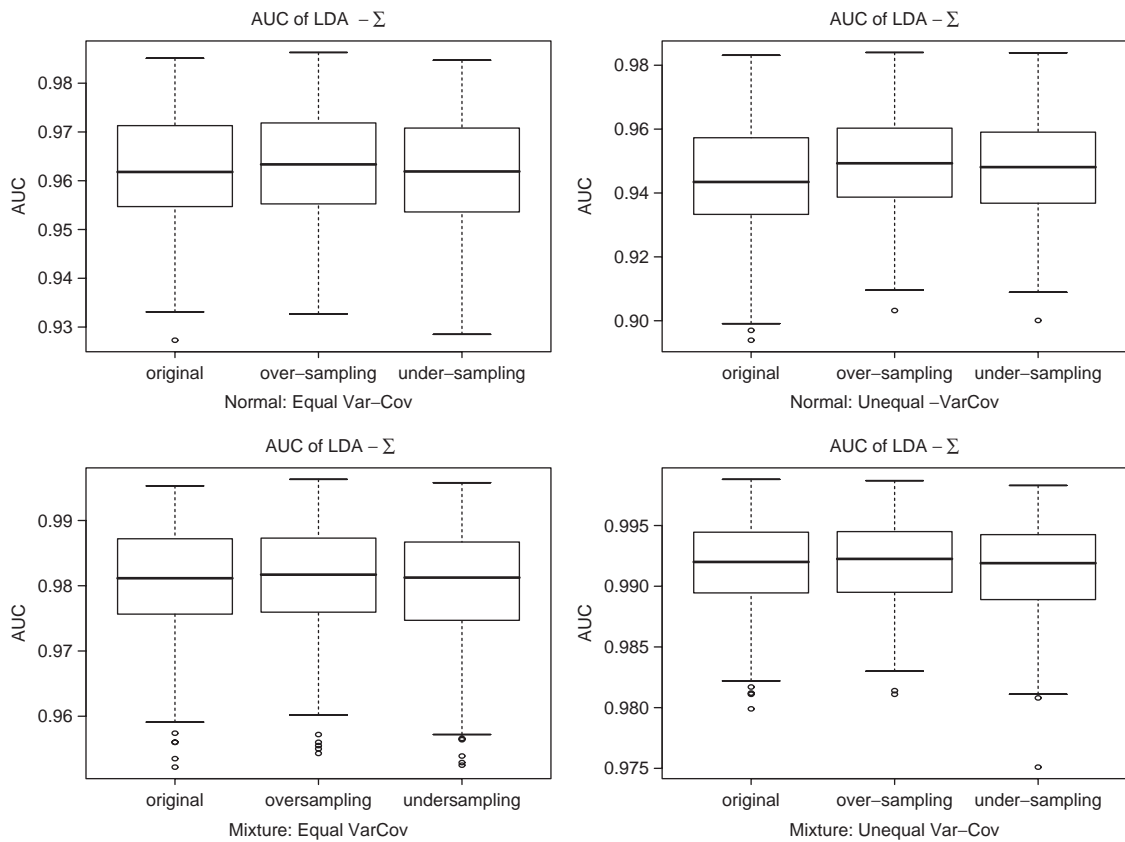


Fig. 8. Box-plots of AUC on original and re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling), obtained from LDA- Σ .

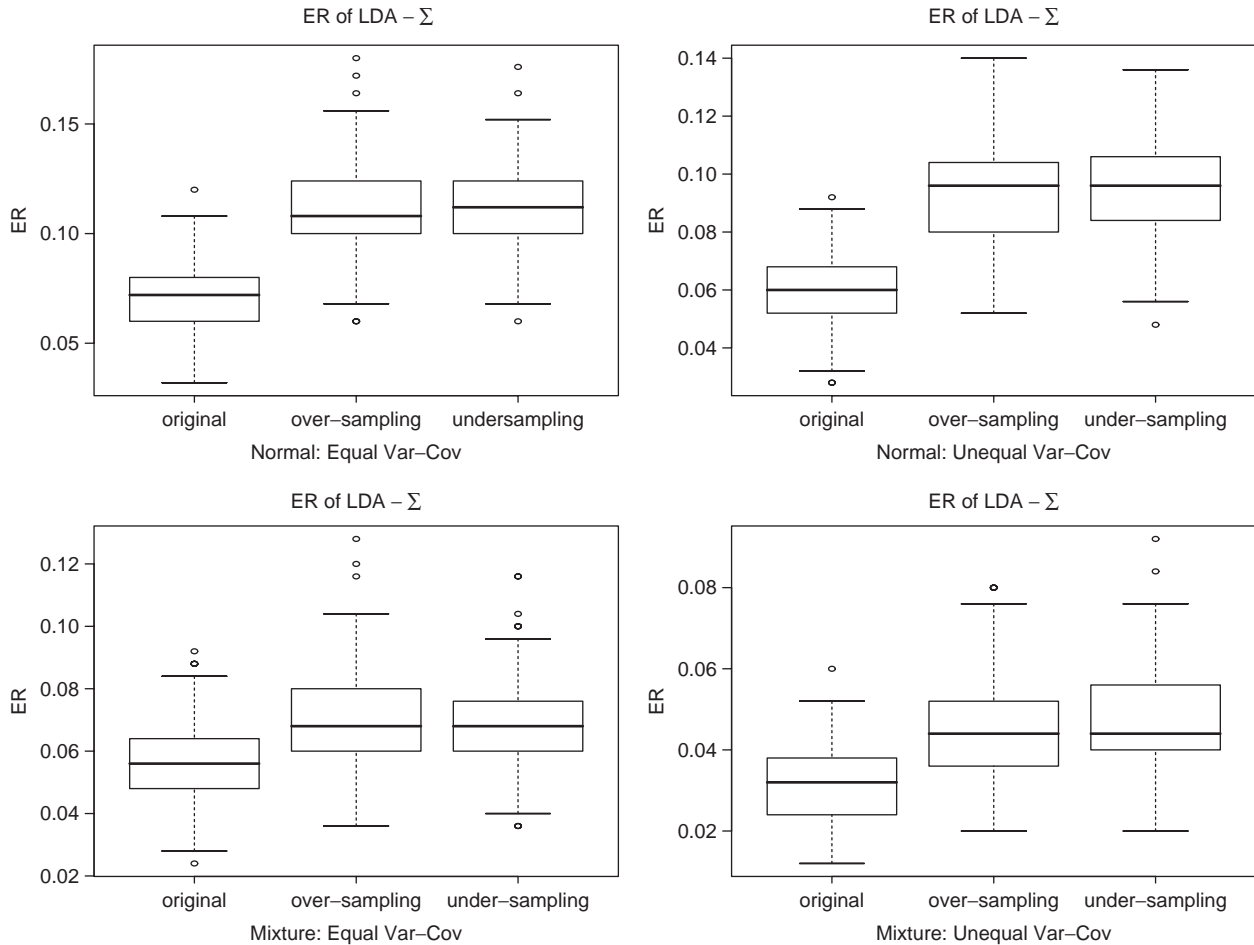


Fig. 9. Box-plots of ER on original and re-balanced data (by over-sampling and under-sampling), obtained from LDA-Σ.

randomly generated from two mixtures, ω_1 and ω_2 , of 4-variate normal distributions.

Each mixture has two components with equal mixing coefficients. The two components, A and B , of the mixture ω_1 are normally distributed with probability density functions $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{1A}, \Sigma_1)$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{1B}, \Sigma_1)$, respectively, where $\mu_{1A} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mu_{1B} = (2, 0, 0, 0)^T$; and the two components, C and D , of the mixture ω_2 are normally distributed with probability density functions $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{2C}, \Sigma_2)$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{2D}, \Sigma_2)$, respectively, where $\mu_{2C} = (-1.5, -0.75, 0.75, 1.5)^T$ and $\mu_{2D} = (-3.5, -0.75, 0.75, 1.5)^T$. In such a way, when Σ_1 and Σ_2 are equal/unequal, the covariance matrices of the two mixtures will become equal/unequal. Meanwhile, we set Σ_1 and Σ_2 in the same way as for the normally distributed data.

In our simulation studies, both Σ_1 and Σ_2 are diagonal; the performance of LDA- \mathcal{A} is similar to that of LDA- Σ , and thus only the results obtained from LDA- Σ are presented in the following.

The simulations from the multivariate normal distributions and normal mixtures are based on an R function *mvrnorm* for simulating, from a contributed R package **MASS**. As with the UCI data sets being studied, the simulated data are rescaled into the range $[0, 1]$.

Table 7 and 8 list our results, obtained from LDA- Σ , of medians of AUC and ER for the original and re-balanced data, as well as p -values for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for the pairs of (original, over-sampling) and of (original, under-sampling). From the tables, we can observe the following.

- (1) Concerning AUC obtained from LDA- Σ , although for the simulated data sets being studied it generally favours re-balanced data, the increase of its median (and thus the improvement of performance of LDA) from re-balancing is relatively small. We observe that, of the two simulated mixture data sets, there is no significant change in AUC between under-sampled and original data for one data set and between over-sampled and original data for the other data set.
- (2) Concerning ER obtained from LDA- Σ , in contrast to AUC, all ERs are significantly increased after the data are re-balanced. ER favours original data and the increase of its median (and thus the decline in performance of LDA) from re-balancing is noticeably large.

Obtained from LDA- Σ on the four simulated data sets, scatter plots of AUC and ER on re-balanced (by over-sampling and

under-sampling) vs. original data are shown in Figs. 6 and 7, and box-plots of AUC and ER on original and re-balanced data are shown in Figs. 8 and 9, respectively.

6. Conclusions

In general, we can draw the following conclusions with regard to the data sets in our study.

- (1) Concerning AUC obtained from LDA, although it generally favours re-balanced data, the increase of its median (and thus the improvement of performance of LDA) from re-balancing is relatively small. In contrast to AUC, ER favours original data and the increase of its median (and thus the decline in performance of LDA) from re-balancing is relatively large. This shows that AUC and ER can lead to quite different conclusions on the discrimination performance of LDA for unbalanced data sets.
- (2) Therefore, from our study, there is no reliable empirical evidence to support the claim that a (class) unbalanced data set has a negative effect on the performance of LDA.
- (3) Re-balancing affects the performance of LDA for both the data sets with equal or unequal covariance matrices. This indicates that having unequal covariance matrices is not a key reason for the difference in performance between original and re-balanced data.

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