Analysis of Imbalance Strategies Recommendation using a Meta-Learning Approach

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Abstract

Class imbalance is known to degrade the performance of classifiers. To address this issue, imbalance strategies, such as oversampling or undersampling, are often employed to balance the class distribution of datasets. However, although several strategies have been proposed throughout the years, there is no one-fits-all solution for imbalanced datasets. In this context, meta-learning arises a way to recommend proper strategies to handle class imbalance, based on data characteristics. Nonetheless, in related work, recommendationbased systems do not focus on how the recommendation process is conducted, thus lacking interpretable knowledge. In this paper, several meta-characteristics are identified in order to provide interpretable knowledge to guide the selection of imbalance strategies, using Exceptional Preferences Mining. The experimental setup considers 163 real-world imbalanced datasets, preprocessed with 9 well-known resampling algorithms. Our findings elaborate on the identification of meta-characteristics that demonstrate when using preprocessing algorithms is advantageous for the problem and when maintaining the original dataset benefits classification performance.

1. Introduction

Class imbalance is known to severely affect the data quality. Concerning imbalanced binary datasets, they comprise a majority (more represented) and a minority (underrepresented) class. The classifiers trained on asymmetrical distributions are often biased towards the majority class since the minority one is under-represented (López et al., 2013). Hence, the classifier is not able to generalise, leading to an increase of the misclassification rate of the minority class (López et al., 2013). Regarding this matter, several strategies, usually involving preprocessing algorithms, have been proposed in the literature to overcome this issue. In particular, data-level strategies are the most commonly used, due to its simplicity, efficiency and classifier-independence (Santos et al., 2018). These resampling techniques are characterised by altering the distribution of the training set, generating new synthetic instances of the minority class (oversampling) or removing samples from the majority class (undersampling). The oversampling strategies benefit from not discarding points from the majority class when compared with undersampling algorithms, which can lead to neglecting important concepts of the dataset (Santos et al., 2015). Therefore, we consider only over-

sampling algorithms, including the ones extended with data-cleansing techniques, such as Tomek-Links (TL) or Edited Nearest Neighbours (ENN). However, it has been reported that no imbalance strategy is suitable for all problems (Zhang et al., 2019). Instead of employing "brute-force" approaches (experimenting with all techniques) (De Morais et al., 2017), the recommendation of imbalanced strategies, based on the meta-characteristics of the dataset, is a research topic that aims for the automatic selection of preprocessing algorithms, using meta-learning approaches (Zhang et al., 2019; De Morais et al., 2017). However, these recommendations do not allow understanding the behaviour of such techniques, since the meta-learner only outputs the recommended imbalance strategy, without providing meaningful information concerning the meta-characteristics of the dataset. Accordingly, as recent literature has come to acknowledge, extracting knowledge from the produced recommendations becomes a fundamental aspect to fully understand the relationship between data characteristics and the success of preprocessing techniques (Lovola-González et al., 2016). Hence, the goal of this paper is to elaborate on a methodology to extract knowledge regarding the behaviour of oversampling algorithms. We investigate the relation between the classification performance of each resampling strategy and the characteristics of datasets, identifying scenarios where some strategies are more advantageous or where dismissing any preprocessing can be beneficial. To this end, two research questions were formulated: 1) What are the scenarios where not dealing with the imbalance of classes is beneficial? and 2) Which relations exist between dataset characteristics and the optimal preprocessing algorithm?.

To answer these questions, Exceptional Preferences Mining (EPM) (de Sá et al., 2016) was employed to extract interpretable rules. EPM is a data mining framework that aims at finding interesting rules from subgroups of the dataset, where the "interest" is concerned with a target attribute. A subgroup is deemed "exceptional" if the label ranking of the subgroup is significantly different than the label ranking of the dataset (de Sá et al., 2018).

2. Related Work

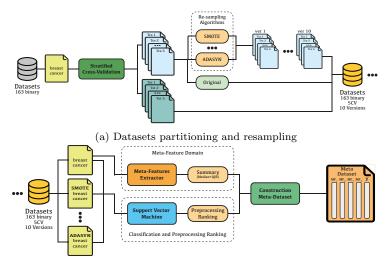
In this section, an overview of related research on the topic of the recommendation of imbalance strategies is provided. Loyola-González et al. (2016) studied the effect of resampling strategies associated with different classifiers, on 95 real-world datasets, using Contrast Pattern Miners (CPM). In short, a *contrast pattern* is a descriptive expression, for instance, [SepalWidth ≤ 3.7], that appears frequently in a class and rarely in the remaining classes of the dataset (Loyola-González et al., 2016). The preprocessing strategies employed were both oversampling and undersampling algorithms. Backed by their findings, they proposed an empirical recommendation of resampling algorithms, based on 6-bins discretization of the Imbalance Ratio (IR). They concluded that SMOTE, Tomek Links and SMOTE-TL are the top performing approaches. Furthermore, the authors refer that a knowledge-seeking meta-analysis could bring new insights about the resampling algorithms' behaviour and it would be beneficial to aid researchers when selecting a resampling strategy, based on the meta-characteristics of the dataset.

De Morais et al. (2017) and Zhang et al. (2019) propose recommendation systems based on a meta-learning approach, to provide the user with a preprocessing algorithm, along with its optimal hyperparameters. The recommendation is inferred from a meta-database, composed by the training datasets' meta-features and the performance associated with imbalance strategies. For each new test dataset, the recommended algorithm is the one assigned to the closest training instance (each instance represents a dataset). The recommendation for this test instance is computed based on the similarity between the meta-characteristics of the test and training instances, using the k-Nearest Neighbours (k-NN) algorithm. The former work utilises meta-features from Simple and Statistical groups (Rivolli et al., 2018) and 7 under-sampling techniques, on 29 real-world datasets, whereas the latter uses metafeatures from the Simple, Statistical, Complexity, Landmarking and Model-based groups and a more complete set of imbalance strategies, including algorithms from both data-level and algorithmic-level domains (Stefanowski, 2015), on 80 real-world datasets. In the end, the authors agree that there is no preprocessing algorithm that suits all scenarios.

Overall, it is observable that related research handles the recommendation of imbalance strategies with meta-learning approaches, based on the meta-characteristics of the datasets. However, they do not provide any general knowledge about the scenarios of application of preprocessing algorithms, nor how the behaviour of imbalance strategies can be related to meta-characteristics. An analogy can be established with black-box models, due to the impossibility of understanding how the recommendation process is conducted. From the authors' knowledge, there are no other works that address these important questions.

3. Experimental Setup

In this work, a collection of 163 real-world binary datasets was retrieved from the UCI, Kaggle, OpenML and KEEL repositories, containing numerical and categorical attributes, where the latter was integer encoded from 0 to m - 1, where m stands for the number of unique discrete values within each feature. The experimental setup can be divided into three phases: -1) Partitioning and resampling (Figure 1a); -2) Meta-features extraction and performance evaluation (Figure 1b) and -3) Exceptional Preferences Mining.



(b) Performance evaluation and meta-feature extraction.

Figure 1: Experimental setup.

Concerning the first phase, the datasets were partitioned in 5 folds (stratified CV). The selected state-of-the-art oversampling techniques are: ROS, SMOTE, SafeLevel-SMOTE, Borderline-SMOTE, ADASYN, AHC, ADOMS, SMOTE-TL and SMOTE-ENN (Santos et al., 2018), which are implemented in the KEEL framework (Alcalá-Fdez et al., 2009). The resampling procedures were run 10 times (for each dataset), due to the stochastic processes associated with resampling techniques.

Regarding the second phase, the performance (F1-measure) of the Support Vectors Machine (SVM) classifier was evaluated on the 10 versions of each imbalance strategy, and the original dataset, considering the hyperparameters tuned for the original (non-resampled) dataset. Next, the performance on the 10 versions of each resampling algorithm was summarized using the median and interquartile range. The median F1-measure respecting each label (9 preprocessing algorithms and original dataset) was ranked, originating a groundtruth preference ranking of preprocessing algorithms (including the original dataset). For instance, the preference relation can be represented as (de Sá et al., 2016): SMOTE \succ ADASYN $\succ \dots \succ$ ORIGINAL.

Concerning meta-feature extraction (also included on the second phase), the open-source python $pymfe^1$ (Rivolli et al., 2018) library was chosen and the extraction took place only on the original (not resampled) datasets. All meta-features available on the library were extracted, plus the custom-implemented typology of minority instances (Napierala and Stefanowski, 2016). Afterwards, the meta-dataset is constructed from the mean meta-features of the 10 versions and the ground-truth rankings. An analogy can be established with conventional datasets, where the features are represented by the meta-features, the target attribute is a ranking of preprocessing algorithms and the patterns are the 163 datasets. To illustrate, $\mathbf{x}_{meta} = (MF_1, MF_2, \dots, MF_Q, y)$, represents a meta-dataset pattern, where the attributes are the extracted meta-features, Q is the number of meta-features and y stands for the ranking of preprocessing algorithms, or a preference relation.

Finally, the EPM implementation of the Cortana Subgroup Discovery Tool² was utilised, with on-the-fly 8 bins discretization and a beam-search strategy (de Sá et al., 2016). The subgroups shown have a depth of 1 and undergone a Distribution of False Discoveries (DFD) validation (Duivesteijn and Knobbe, 2011), at a significance level $\alpha = 1\%$. The exceptional subgroups are deemed "exceptional" based on the *labelwise LWNorm* quality measure, which measures exceptional changes in the label ranking, from the perspective of individual labels (de Sá et al., 2018).

4. Results

Concerning the results of the first research question experiment (Section 4.1) the subgroups were extracted with the ranking of 10 labels (including the original dataset), whereas for second experiment results (Section 4.2) only the labels of the 9 preprocessing algorithms were utilised. The most relevant subgroups are shown on appendix Tables 1 and 3. Note that the complete set of exceptional subgroups is not shown due to its extent. We included only the most relevant ones for the descriptive analysis of the results.

^{1.} pymfe library repository: https://github.com/ealcobaca/pymfe

^{2.} Cortana website: http://datamining.liacs.nl/cortana.html

4.1 What are the scenarios where not dealing with the imbalance of classes is beneficial?

The motivation of this topic is to infer, in an imbalanced context, the meta-characteristics that indicate that it may not be necessary to preprocess such dataset. It is shown that **simpler classification tasks may not require preprocessing**, which is illustrated by the solid performance of landmarkers (simple and fast learning algorithms that characterise the dataset (Rivolli et al., 2018). In these cases, it was evident that the original imbalanced dataset scored the first rank. Furthermore, when the overall **complexity of the dataset is reduced** (complexity of the decision surface or dimensionality) using the original dataset is also the best option. The complexity meta-features (Lorena et al., 2019), scored low values for L2 (error rate of a linear classifier), N1 (fraction of borderline points), N4 (non-linearity of NN classifier) and T3 (average number of PCA dimensions per points).

Regarding the statistical meta-features, there is evidence that not performing resampling benefits classification performance, if the **data distribution has low variance**. This is corroborated by the low variance, covariance and first eigenvalue of the covariance matrix. Still concerning statistical properties, leptokurtic (positive kurtosis) and positive skewness are other distribution characteristics that favour maintaining the dataset imbalanced.

There are also some findings worth highlighting, concerning the typology of minority class instances. There is evidence that when a **high proportion of safe instances and a small amount of borderline instances** is present, it is also favourable to maintain the dataset imbalanced.

Conversely, there are some situations where the exceptional subgroups favoured the cases where resampling was employed. For instance, preprocessing is beneficial if the dataset is of **high dimensionality**, which is captured by the increase of T2 (average number of features per dimension) and T3 complexity measures. Also, it is observable that when the **number of borderline instances is elevated**, preprocessing needs to be performed, otherwise strong performance degradation is observable. These findings are summarized on Table 2.

4.2 Which relations exist between dataset characteristics and the optimal preprocessing algorithm?

The goal of this research question is to highlight the behaviour of the meta-features that evidence the use of a determined imbalance strategy. It is worth noting that some algorithms do not appear in any interesting subgroups if the ranking does not shift significantly from the average ranking or the subgroup's coverage (the number of patterns included on the subgroup) is reduced (de Sá et al., 2018).

AHC There is evidence that this algorithm is more suitable when presented with less complex problems with reduced dimensionality. Since one limitation of Hierarchical Clustering algorithms is that the performance is severely degraded in high dimensional feature spaces, it is expected that this algorithm would only be suitable for datasets with low dimensionality. This is corroborated by the values inferior than 0.1 of complexity measures T3, L2, N1 and N4 (except for N1 which indicates a value smaller than 0.1603), which depicts that both lower dimensionality of the problem and simpler decision boundaries favour this algorithm. Moreover, this strategy is also suitable when there is over 28% of rare points and/or over 73% of safe points. On the other hand, a low percentage (smaller

than 8.5%) of borderline instances has to be guaranteed otherwise, loss of performance is expectable.

SMOTE-TL It is the most suitable algorithm for harder classification tasks and high dimensional datasets. This is demonstrated by the fact that this algorithm scored the highest ranks when the landmarker meta-features scored low accuracies and higher T2. Furthermore, it is also applicable when there is a high amount of borderline instances (over 62%). This agrees with the Tomek Links cleaning procedure since it aims at removing the borderline samples, which are classified as Tomek Links, thus reducing the complexity of the decision surface, at the borderline regions (Batista et al., 2004).

ADOMS This algorithm was preferred when the subgroup elements have low variance and small first principal component of the covariance matrix. It consists of generating a new SMOTE-like instance along the line between the minority instance and the projection of the chosen neighbour, onto the first principal component (Tang and Chen, 2008). Even though the first principal component's direction is chosen, which explains the highest amount of variance of the dataset, it is observable that this algorithm seems to be only favourable when the overall variability of the training data is reduced.

ROS Random oversampling showed to be **more suitable when the attributes entropy is high**. The entropy is a measure of randomness in a variable (Castiello et al., 2005) and can be informative of the attributes capacity for class discrimination. For instance, if the attributes entropy is elevated, it indicates that the discriminatory power is significant (Rivolli et al., 2018). One possible explanation is that since there is higher redundancy on the data, algorithms that lack heuristics might be more suitable. Furthermore, since the discriminatory power is high, the remaining algorithms may degrade the performance since the generation of synthetic instances may diminish the discriminatory power (this is known as the problem of over-generalization for SMOTE-like approaches (Santos et al., 2018)). On the other hand, ROS randomly replicates minority class instances and no further information is added to the training data (Santos et al., 2018), therefore the discriminatory power is maintained.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, several meta-characteristics are identified which are suitable for guiding the selection of imbalance strategies, using the EPM framework. The results agree with related works, that have stated that simpler classification tasks may not require preprocessing, despite the imbalance degree (Jo and Japkowicz, 2004; Prati et al., 2004). Furthermore, it is observable that when preprocessing should be performed, AHC is not robust for complex learning tasks when compared with SMOTE-TL. The ADOMS algorithm works optimally when there is low variance and ROS is the best option when attributes entropy is high. These insights can be useful for the creation or enhancement of recommendation systems. Some directions for future work are integrating more preprocessing algorithms, such as the ones from the algorithmic-level, or provide a deeper understanding of classification differences among ranks. Rankings have the advantage of abstracting from the true values of performance but it may also be important to investigate the scenarios where steep variations on performance are observable and correlate these cases with the exceptional subgroups.

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Appendix A. Exceptional Preferences Mining Results

This appendix contains the exceptional subgroups computed by the EPM framework, using the *labelwise LWNorm* (de Sá et al., 2018) as the quality measure. Additionally, a summary of the cases when preprocessing should or should not be conducted is also provided, concerning the first experiment (Section 4.1). The column *coverage* on Tables 1 and 3 stands for the number of datasets included in the subgroup. The preprocessing algorithms were encoded with the letters a-j as follows:

- a: ADASYN b: ADOMS
- $e: \operatorname{ROS}$

• i: SafeLevel-SMOTE

- *c*: AHC
- f: SMOTE g: SMOTE-ENN
- j: Original

- d: Borderline-SMOTE
- h: SMOTE-TL

Coverage	LWNorm	Ranking	Conditions
	$(\times 10^{-2})$		
No preproc.			
21	3.3992	j>c>d>e>bf>i>a>h>g	$statistical_kurtosis >= 17.9168$
21	2.8934	j>b>d>e>f>c>i>a>g>h	$statistical_cov <= 0.0234$
21	2.7911	$j{>}b{>}d{>}c{>}f{>}e{>}a{>}i{>}g{>}h$	$statistical_eigenvalues <= 0.2581$
21	2.7911	j>b>d>c>f>e>a>i>g>h	$statistical_var <= 0.2581$
42	2.3839	j>c>d>ef>b>i>h>a>g	$general_nr_inst >= 376.0$
21	2.8448	$j{>}c{>}e{>}d{>}f{>}b{>}h{>}i{>}g{>}a$	$complexity_n 1 <= 0.0675$
41	2.8327	$j{>}c{>}e{>}d{>}b{>}f{>}h{>}i{>}g{>}a$	$complexity_{l2} <= 0.0421$
24	2.6046	$j{>}c{>}d{>}e{>}f{>}b{>}i{>}h{>}a{>}g$	$complexity_t 3 <= 0.0031$
41	2.2675	j>c>e>d>b>h>f>gi>a	$complexity_n_4 <= 0.0611$
21	2.4585	$j{>}c{>}d{>}e{>}f{>}b{>}h{>}i{>}g{>}a$	$taxonomy_border <= 0.0858$
41	2.2161	j>c>d>b>e>f>h>i>g>a	$taxonomy_safe >= 0.5334$
41	2.9260	$j{>}c{>}e{>}d{>}b{>}f{>}h{>}i{>}g{>}a$	$landmarking_linear_discr >= 0.9225$
21	2.7286	j>e>c>d>b>f>h>i>g>a	$landmarking_nn >= 0.9750$
41	2.7001	$j{>}c{>}e{>}d{>}b{>}f{>}h{>}i{>}a{>}g$	$landmarking_nn >= 0.9052$
Do preproc.			
21	3.0865	h>c>d>f>ae>i>g>b>j	$statistical_kurtosis <= -1.3063$
21	2.2963	h>a>ci>b>d>f>j>e>g	$statistical_sparsity >= 0.4085$
21	2.7049	h>c>bg>i>d>f>a>e>j	$taxonomy_border >= 0.6555$
21	2.4990	h>a>d>b>c>e>g>fi>j	$complexity_t 3 >= 0.0668$
22	2.2101	h>a>g>c>f>e>d>i>b>j	$complexity_t 2 >= 0.1250$
41	2.1513	$c{>}h{>}f{>}b{>}a{>}d{>}e{>}i{>}j{>}g$	$complexity_f 3 >= 0.9831$
41	2.1513	c>h>f>b>a>d>e>i>j>g	$complexity_f4 >= 0.9831$
21	2.3544	h>c>b>a>f>d>ei>g>j	$landmarking_elite_nn <= 0.5788$
21	2.9550	h>c>a>b>f>dg>i>e>j	$landmarking_best_node <= 0.6557$

Table 1: Exceptional subgroups reporting to the first experiment (Section 4.1).

Keep Dataset Imbalanced	Preprocessing	
 Low complexity of dataset shape Easy classification tasks Significant number of instances Low variance, leptokurtic and positively skewed distributions High ratio of safe instances Low ratio of borderline instances 	 Dimensionality increases Classification difficulty increases Platykurtic distibution High fraction of borderline instances 	

Table 2: Guidelines indicating when the dataset should be kept imbalanced versus employing preprocessing, concerning the first experiment (Section 4.1).

Coverage	LWNorm $(\times 10^{-2})$	Ranking	Conditions
AHC (c)	(×10)		
24	2.7773	c>d>e>f>b>i>h>a>g	$complexity_t 3 \le 0.0031$
41	2.7519	c>e>d>b>f>h>i>g>a	$complexity_{l2} <= 0.0421$
41	2.6012	c>e>d>b>f>h>i>g>a	$complexity_n 1 <= 0.1603$
41	2.3660	c>e>d>b>h>f>gi>a	$complexity_n4 <= 0.0611$
41	2.7980	c>e>d>b>f>h>i>g>a	$landmarking_linear_discr >= 0.9225$
22	2.4826	c>d>e>b>f>h>gi>a	$landmarking_linear_discr >= 0.9634$
21	3.0606	c>de>bf>i>a>h>g	$statistical_kurtosis >= 17.9168$
21	2.6686	c>bf>d>e>i>a>h>g	$statistical_skewness >= 2.2407$
21	2.4160	c>f>e>d>bh>i>g>a	$taxonomy_safe >= 0.7375$
21	2.5195	c>d>e>f>b>h>i>g>a	$taxonomy_border <= 0.0858$
SMOTE-TL (h)			
21	3.2202	h>c>d>f>ae>i>g>b	$statistical_kurtosis <= -1.3063$
21	2.5242	h>c>a>b>f>g>d>i>e	$landmarking_best_node <= 0.6557$
22	2.3170	h>a>g>c>f>e>d>i>b	$complexity_t 2 >= 0.1250$
21	2.3748	h>a>d>b>c>e>g>fi	$complexity_t 3 >= 0.0668$
21	2.2878	$h{>}c{>}g{>}b{>}i{>}d{>}f{>}a{>}e$	$taxonomy_border >= 0.6555$
41	2.2846	$h{>}f{>}c{>}a{>}d{>}i{>}e{>}b{>}g$	$taxonomy_rare >= 0.2062$
ADOMS (b)			
21	3.0807	b>d>e>f>c>i>a>g>h	$statistical_cov <= 0.0234$
21	2.9587	b>d>c>f>e>a>i>g>h	$statistical_eigenvalues <= 0.2581$
21	2.9587	b>d>c>f>e>a>i>g>h	$statistical_var <= 0.2581$
21	2.6592	b>d>c>f>e>a>i>g>h	$statistical_sd <= 0.4629$
21	2.4649	$b{>}c{>}d{>}f{>}a{>}e{>}i{>}h{>}g$	$statistical_mad <= 0.1955$
ROS (e)			
21	2.4550	e>c>d>b>f>i>h>g>a	$info-theory_attr_ent >= 2.5827$
21	2.8046	e>c>d>b>f>h>i>g>a	$landmarking_one_nn >= 0.9000$

Table 3: Exceptional subgroups reporting to the second experiment (Section 4.2).