

---

# Undersampling is a Minimax Optimal Robustness Intervention in Nonparametric Classification

---

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

## Abstract

1 While a broad range of techniques have been proposed to tackle distribution shift,  
2 the simple baseline of training on an *undersampled* dataset often achieves close  
3 to state-of-the-art-accuracy across several popular benchmarks. This is rather  
4 surprising, since undersampling algorithms discard excess majority group data. To  
5 understand this phenomenon, we ask if learning is fundamentally constrained by a  
6 lack of minority group samples. We prove that this is indeed the case in the setting  
7 of nonparametric binary classification. Our results show that in the worst case,  
8 an algorithm cannot outperform undersampling unless there is a high degree of  
9 overlap between the train and test distributions (which is unlikely to be the case  
10 in real-world datasets), or if the algorithm leverages additional structure about  
11 the distribution shift. In particular, in the case of label shift we show that there is  
12 always an undersampling algorithm that is minimax optimal. While in the case  
13 of group-covariate shift we show that there is an undersampling algorithm that is  
14 minimax optimal when the overlap between the group distributions is small. We  
15 also perform an experimental case study on a label shift dataset and find that in line  
16 with our theory the test accuracy of robust neural network classifiers is constrained  
17 by the number of minority samples.

## 18 1 Introduction

19 A key challenge facing the machine learning community is to design models that are robust to  
20 distribution shift. When there is a mismatch between the train and test distributions, current models  
21 are often brittle and perform poorly on rare examples [11, 2, 20, 10, 1]. In this paper, our focus is on  
22 group-structured distribution shifts. In the training set, we have many samples from a *majority* group  
23 and relatively few samples from the *minority* group, while during test time we are equally likely to  
24 get a sample from either group.

25 To tackle such distribution shifts, a naïve algorithm is one that first *undersamples* the training data by  
26 discarding excess majority group samples [14, 23] and then trains a model on this resulting dataset (see  
27 Figure 1 for an illustration of this algorithm). The samples that remain in this undersampled dataset  
28 constitute i.i.d. draws from the test distribution. Therefore, while a classifier trained on this pruned  
29 dataset cannot suffer biases due to distribution shift, this algorithm is clearly wasteful, as it discards  
30 training samples.

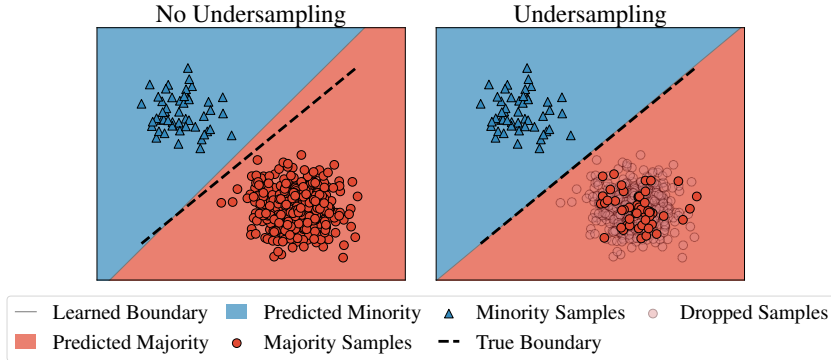


Figure 1: Example with linear models and linearly separable data. On the left we have the maximum margin classifier over the entire dataset, while on the right we have the maximum margin classifier over the undersampled dataset. The undersampled classifier is less biased and aligns more closely with the true boundary.

31 This perceived inefficiency of undersampling has led to the design of several algorithms to combat  
 32 such distribution shift [6, 15, 18, 5, 17, 29, 13, 24]. In spite of this algorithmic progress, the simple  
 33 baseline of training models on an undersampled dataset remains competitive. In the case of label  
 34 shift, where one class label is overrepresented in the training data, this has been observed by Cui et al.  
 35 [7], Cao et al. [5], and Yang and Xu [28]. While in the case of group-covariate shift, a study by Idrissi  
 36 et al. [12] showed that the empirical effectiveness of these more complicated algorithms is limited.

37 For example, Idrissi et al. [12] showed that on the group-covariate shift CelebA dataset the worst-  
 38 group accuracy of a ResNet-50 model on the undersampled CelebA dataset which *discards* 97% of the  
 39 available training data is as good as methods that use all of available data such as importance-weighted  
 40 ERM [19], Group-DRO [18] and Just-Train-Twice [16]. In Table 1, we report the performance of  
 41 the undersampled classifier compared to the state-of-the-art-methods in the literature across several  
 42 label shift and group-covariate shift datasets. We find that, although undersampling isn’t always  
 43 the optimal robustness algorithm, it is typically a very competitive baseline and within 1–4% the  
 44 performance of the best method.

Table 1: Performance of undersampled classifier compared to the best classifier across several popular label shift and group-covariate shift datasets. When reporting worst-group accuracy we denote it by a \*. When available, we report the 95% confidence interval. We find that the undersampled classifier is always within 1–4% of the best performing robustness algorithm, except on the MultiNLI dataset.

Shift Type	Dataset/Paper	Test Accuracy/Worst-Group Accuracy*	
		Best	Undersampled
Label	Imb. CIFAR10 (step 10) [5]	87.81	84.59
	Imb. CIFAR100 (step 10) [5]	58.71	55.06
Group-Covariate	CelebA [12]	$86.9 \pm 1.1^*$	$85.6 \pm 2.3^*$
	Waterbirds [12]	$87.6 \pm 1.6^*$	$89.1 \pm 1.1^*$
	MultiNLI [12]	$78.0 \pm 0.7^*$	$68.9 \pm 0.8^*$
	CivilComments [12]	$72.0 \pm 1.9^*$	$71.8 \pm 1.4^*$

45 Inspired by the strong performance of undersampling in these experiments, we ask:

46 *Is the performance of a model under distribution shift fundamentally*  
 47 *constrained by the lack of minority group samples?*

48 To answer this question we analyze the *minimax excess risk*. We lower bound the minimax excess risk  
 49 to prove that the performance of *any* algorithm is lower bounded only as a function of the minority

50 samples ( $n_{\min}$ ). This shows that even if a robust algorithm optimally trades off between the bias and  
51 the variance, it is fundamentally constrained by the variance on the minority group which decreases  
52 only with  $n_{\min}$ .

53 For our study, we consider the well-studied setting of nonparametric binary classification [21]. By  
54 operating in this nonparametric regime we are able to study the properties of undersampling in rich  
55 data distributions, but are able to circumvent the complications that arise due to the optimization  
56 and implicit bias of parametric models. We explore two distribution shift scenarios: label shift and  
57 group-covariate shift. Under label shift, one of the labels is overrepresented in the training data,  
58  $P_{\text{train}}(y = 1) \geq P_{\text{train}}(y = -1)$ , whereas the test samples are equally likely to come from either  
59 class. Here the class-conditional distribution  $P(x | y)$  is Lipschitz in  $x$ . Under group-covariate shift,  
60 we have two groups  $\{a, b\}$  and in the training data we have more samples from the distribution  $P_a(x)$   
61 than from  $P_b(x)$ . Whereas during test time, it is equiprobable to receive samples from either group.  
62 In this case, the distribution  $P(y | x)$  is Lipschitz in  $x$ .

63 **Our Contributions.** We show that in the label shift setting there is a fundamental constraint, and  
64 that the minimax excess risk of *any robust learning method* is lower bounded by  $1/n_{\min}^{1/3}$ . That is,  
65 minority group samples fundamentally constrain performance under distribution shift. Furthermore,  
66 by leveraging previous results about nonparametric density estimation [9] we show a matching upper  
67 bound on the excess risk of a standard binning estimator trained on an undersampled dataset to  
68 demonstrate that undersampling is optimal.

69 In the case of group-covariate shift, we show that when the overlap (defined in terms of total variation  
70 distance) between the group distribution  $P_a$  and  $P_b$  is small, a similar result holds and the minimax  
71 excess risk of any robust learning algorithm is lower bounded by  $1/n_{\min}^{1/3}$ . We show that this lower  
72 bound is tight, by proving an upper bound on the excess risk of the binning estimator acting on the  
73 undersampled dataset.

74 Finally, we experimentally show in a label shift dataset (Imbalanced Binary CIFAR10) that the  
75 accuracy of popular classifiers generally follow the trends predicted by our theory. When the minority  
76 samples are increased, the accuracy of these classifiers increases drastically, whereas when the number  
77 of majority samples are increased the gains in the accuracy are marginal at best.

78 Taken together, our results underline the need to move beyond designing “general-purpose” robustness  
79 algorithms (like importance-weighting [5, 17, 13, 24], g-DRO [18], JTT [16], SMOTE [6], etc.)  
80 that are agnostic to the structure in the distribution shift. Our worst case analysis highlights that to  
81 successfully beat undersampling, an algorithm must leverage additional structure in the distribution  
82 shift.

## 83 2 Related Work

84 On several group-covariate shift benchmarks (CelebA, CivilComments, Waterbirds), Idrissi et al. [12]  
85 showed that training ResNet classifiers on an undersampled dataset either outperforms or performs  
86 as well as other popular reweighting methods like Group-DRO [18], reweighted ERM, and Just-  
87 Train-Twice [16]. They find Group-DRO performs comparably to undersampling, while both tend to  
88 outperform methods that don’t utilize group information.

89 One classic method to tackle distribution shift is importance weighting [19], which reweights the loss  
90 of the minority group samples to yield an unbiased estimate of the loss. However, recent work [3, 27]  
91 has demonstrated the ineffectiveness of such methods when applied to overparameterized neural  
92 networks. Many followup papers [5, 29, 17, 13, 24] have introduced methods that modify the loss  
93 function in various ways to address this. However, despite this progress undersampling remains a  
94 competitive alternative to these importance weighted classifiers.

95 Our theory draws from the rich literature on non-parametric classification [21]. Apart from borrowing  
96 this setting of nonparametric classification, we also utilize upper bounds on the estimation error of  
97 the simple histogram estimator [9, 8] to prove our upper bounds in the label shift case. Finally, we  
98 note that to prove our minimax lower bounds we proceed by using the general recipe of reducing  
99 from estimation to testing [22, Chapter 15]. One difference from this standard framework is that our  
100 training samples shall be drawn from a different distribution than the test samples used to define the  
101 risk.

102 **3 Setting**

103 In this section, we shall introduce our problem setup and define the types of distribution shift that we  
104 consider.

105 **3.1 Problem Setup**

106 The setting for our study is nonparametric binary classification with Lipschitz data distributions.  
107 We are given  $n$  training datapoints  $\mathcal{S} := \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\} \in ([0, 1] \times \{-1, 1\})^n$  that are all  
108 drawn from a *train* distribution  $P_{\text{train}}$ . During test time, the data shall be drawn from a *different*  
109 distribution  $P_{\text{test}}$ . To present a clean analysis, we study the case where the features  $x$  are bounded  
110 scalars, however, it is easy to extend our results to the high-dimensional setting.

111 Given a classifier  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ , we shall be interested in the test error (risk) of this classifier  
112 under the test distribution  $P_{\text{test}}$ :

$$R(f; P_{\text{test}}) := \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim P_{\text{test}}} [\mathbf{1}(f(x) \neq y)].$$

113 **3.2 Types of Distribution Shift**

114 We assume that  $P_{\text{train}}$  consists of a mixture of two groups of unequal size, and  $P_{\text{test}}$  contains equal  
115 numbers of samples from both groups. Given a majority group distribution  $P_{\text{maj}}$  and a minority group  
116 distribution  $P_{\text{min}}$ , the learner has access to  $n_{\text{maj}}$  majority group samples and  $n_{\text{min}}$  minority group  
117 samples:

$$\mathcal{S}_{\text{maj}} \sim P_{\text{maj}}^{n_{\text{maj}}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{S}_{\text{min}} \sim P_{\text{min}}^{n_{\text{min}}}.$$

118 Here  $n_{\text{maj}} > n/2$  and  $n_{\text{min}} < n/2$  with  $n_{\text{maj}} + n_{\text{min}} = n$ . The full training dataset is  $\mathcal{S} =$   
119  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{maj}} \cup \mathcal{S}_{\text{min}} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ . We assume that the learner has access to the knowledge  
120 whether a particular sample  $(x_i, y_i)$  comes from the majority or minority group.

121 The test samples will be drawn from  $P_{\text{test}} = \frac{1}{2}P_{\text{maj}} + \frac{1}{2}P_{\text{min}}$ , a uniform mixture over  $P_{\text{maj}}$  and  $P_{\text{min}}$ .  
122 Thus, the training dataset is an imbalanced draw from the distributions  $P_{\text{maj}}$  and  $P_{\text{min}}$ , whereas the  
123 test samples are balanced draws. We let  $\rho := n_{\text{maj}}/n_{\text{min}} > 1$  denote the imbalance ratio in the  
124 training data.

125 We focus on two-types of distribution shifts: label shift and group-covariate shift that we describe  
126 below.

127 **3.2.1 Label Shift**

In this setting, the imbalance in the training data comes from there being more samples from one  
class over another. Without loss of generality, we shall assume that the class  $y = 1$  is the majority  
class. Then, we define the majority and the minority class distributions as

$$P_{\text{maj}}(x, y) = P_1(x)\mathbf{1}(y = 1) \quad \text{and} \quad P_{\text{min}} = P_{-1}(x)\mathbf{1}(y = -1),$$

128 where  $P_1, P_{-1}$  are class-conditional distributions over the interval  $[0, 1]$ . We assume that class-  
129 conditional distributions  $P_i$  have densities on  $[0, 1]$  and that they are 1-Lipschitz: for any  $x, x' \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$|P_i(x) - P_i(x')| \leq |x - x'|.$$

130 We denote the class of pairs of distributions  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})$  that satisfy these conditions by  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{LS}}$ .

131 **3.2.2 Group-Covariate Shift**

In this setting, we have two groups  $\{a, b\}$ , and corresponding to each of these groups is a distribution  
(with densities) over the features  $P_a(x)$  and  $P_b(x)$ . We let  $a$  correspond to the majority group and  $b$   
correspond to the minority group. Then, we define

$$P_{\text{maj}}(x, y) = P_a(x)P(y | x) \quad \text{and} \quad P_{\text{min}}(x, y) = P_b(x)P(y | x).$$

132 We assume that for  $y \in \{-1, 1\}$ , for all  $x, x' \in [0, 1]$ :

$$|P(y | x) - P(y | x')| \leq |x - x'|,$$

133 that is, the distribution of the label given the feature is 1-Lipschitz, and it varies slowly over the  
 134 domain.

135 To quantify the shift between the train and test distribution, we define a notion of overlap between the  
 136 group distributions  $P_a$  and  $P_b$  as follows:

$$\text{Overlap}(P_a, P_b) := 1 - \text{TV}(P_a, P_b).$$

137 Notice that when  $P_a$  and  $P_b$  have disjoint supports,  $\text{TV}(P_a, P_b) = 1$  and therefore  $\text{Overlap}(P_a, P_b) =$   
 138  $0$ . On the other hand when  $P_a = P_b$ ,  $\text{TV}(P_a, P_b) = 0$  and  $\text{Overlap}(P_a, P_b) = 1$ . When the overlap  
 139 is 1, the majority and minority distributions are identical and hence we have no shift between train  
 140 and test. Observe that  $\text{Overlap}(P_a, P_b) = \text{Overlap}(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})$  since  $P(y | x)$  is shared across  $P_{\text{maj}}$   
 141 and  $P_{\text{min}}$ .

142 Given a level of overlap  $\tau \in [0, 1]$  we denote the class of pairs of distributions  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})$  with  
 143 overlap at least  $\tau$  by  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(\tau)$ . It is easy to check that,  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(\tau) \subseteq \mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(0)$  at any overlap level  $\tau \in [0, 1]$ .

## 144 4 Lower Bounds on the Minimax Excess Risk

145 In this section, we shall prove our lower bounds that show that the performance of any algorithm is  
 146 constrained by the number of minority samples  $n_{\text{min}}$ . Before we state our lower bounds, we need to  
 147 introduce the notion of excess risk and minimax excess risk.

148 **Excess Risk and Minimax Excess Risk.** We measure the performance of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  through  
 149 its excess risk defined in the following way. Given an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  that takes as input a dataset  $\mathcal{S}$   
 150 and returns a classifier  $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{S}}$ , and a pair of distributions  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})$  with  $P_{\text{test}} = \frac{1}{2}P_{\text{maj}} + \frac{1}{2}P_{\text{min}}$ , the  
 151 *expected excess risk* is given by

$$\text{Excess Risk}[\mathcal{A}; (P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})] := \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S} \sim P_{\text{maj}}^{n_{\text{maj}}} \times P_{\text{min}}^{n_{\text{min}}}} [R(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{S}}; P_{\text{test}}) - R(f^*(P_{\text{test}}); P_{\text{test}})], \quad (1)$$

152 where  $f^*(P_{\text{test}})$  is the Bayes classifier that minimizes the risk  $R(\cdot; P_{\text{test}})$ . The first term corresponds  
 153 to the expected risk for the algorithm when given  $n_{\text{maj}}$  samples from  $P_{\text{maj}}$  and  $n_{\text{min}}$  samples from  
 154  $P_{\text{min}}$ , whereas the second term corresponds to the Bayes error for the problem.

155 Excess risk does not let us characterize the inherent difficulty of a problem, since for any particular  
 156 data distribution  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})$  the best possible algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  to minimize the excess risk would be the  
 157 trivial mapping  $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{S}} = f^*(P_{\text{test}})$ . Therefore, to prove meaningful lower bounds on the performance  
 158 of algorithms we need to define the notion of minimax excess risk [see 22, Chapter 15]. Given a class  
 159 of pairs of distributions  $\mathcal{P}$  define

$$\text{Minimax Excess Risk}(\mathcal{P}) := \inf_{\mathcal{A}} \sup_{(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}}) \in \mathcal{P}} \text{Excess Risk}[\mathcal{A}; (P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})], \quad (2)$$

160 where the infimum is over all measurable estimators  $\mathcal{A}$ . The minimax excess risk is the excess risk of  
 161 the “best” algorithm in the worst case over the class of problems defined by  $\mathcal{P}$ .

### 162 4.1 Label Shift Lower Bounds

163 We demonstrate the hardness of the label shift problem in general by establishing a lower bound  
 164 on the minimax excess risk. Below we let  $c > 0$  be an absolute constant independent of problem  
 165 parameters like  $n_{\text{maj}}$  and  $n_{\text{min}}$ .

166 **Theorem 4.1.** *Consider the label shift setting described in Section 3.2.1. Recall that  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{LS}}$  is the class*  
 167 *of pairs of distributions  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})$  that satisfy the assumptions in that section. The minimax excess*  
 168 *risk over this class is lower bounded as follows:*

$$\text{Minimax Excess Risk}(\mathcal{P}_{\text{LS}}) = \inf_{\mathcal{A}} \sup_{(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}}) \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{LS}}} \text{Excess Risk}[\mathcal{A}; (P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})] \geq \frac{c}{n_{\text{min}}^{1/3}}. \quad (3)$$

169 We establish this result in Appendix B.

170 We show that rather surprisingly, the lower bound on the minimax excess risk scales only with the  
 171 number of minority class samples  $n_{\text{min}}^{1/3}$ , and does not depend on  $n_{\text{maj}}$ . Intuitively, this is because

172 any learner must predict which class-conditional distribution ( $P(x | 1)$  or  $P(x | -1)$ ) assigns higher  
 173 likelihood at that  $x$ . To interpret this result, consider the extreme scenario where  $n_{\text{maj}} \rightarrow \infty$  but  $n_{\text{min}}$   
 174 is finite. In this case, the learner has full information about the majority class distribution. However,  
 175 the learning task continues to be challenging since any learner would be uncertain about whether  
 176 the minority class distribution assigns higher or lower likelihood at any given  $x$ . This uncertainty  
 177 underlies the reason why the minimax rate of classification is constrained by the number of minority  
 178 samples  $n_{\text{min}}$ .

179 We also note that the theorem can be trivially extended to higher dimensions. In this case the  
 180 exponents degrade to  $1/3d$  rather than  $1/3$  as is to be expected in nonparametric classification.

## 181 4.2 Group-Covariate Shift Lower Bounds

182 Next, we shall state our lower bound on the minimax excess risk that demonstrates the hardness of the  
 183 group-covariate shift problem. In the theorem below  $c > 0$  shall be an absolute constant independent  
 184 of  $n_{\text{maj}}$ ,  $n_{\text{min}}$  and  $\tau$ .

185 **Theorem 4.2.** *Consider the group shift setting described in Section 3.2.2. Given any overlap*  
 186  *$\tau \in [0, 1]$  recall that  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(\tau)$  is the class of distributions such that  $\text{Overlap}(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}}) \geq \tau$ . The*  
 187 *minimax excess risk in this setting is lower bounded as follows:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Minimax Excess Risk}(\mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(\tau)) &= \inf_{\mathcal{A}} \sup_{(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}}) \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(\tau)} \text{Excess Risk}[\mathcal{A}; (P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\text{min}})] \\ &\geq \frac{c}{(n_{\text{min}} \cdot (2 - \tau) + n_{\text{maj}} \cdot \tau)^{1/3}} \geq \frac{c}{n_{\text{min}}^{1/3}(\rho \cdot \tau + 2)^{1/3}}, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

188 where  $\rho = n_{\text{maj}}/n_{\text{min}} > 1$ .

189 We prove this theorem in Appendix C.

190 We see that in the *low overlap* setting ( $\tau \ll 1/\rho$ ), the minimax excess risk is lower bounded by  
 191  $1/n_{\text{min}}^{1/3}$ , and we are fundamentally constrained by the number of samples in minority group. To  
 192 see why this is the case, consider the extreme example with  $\tau = 0$  where  $P_a$  has support  $[0, 0.5]$   
 193 and  $P_b$  has support  $[0.5, 1]$ . The  $n_{\text{maj}}$  majority group samples from  $P_a$  provide information about  
 194 the correct label predict in the interval  $[0, 0.5]$  (the support of  $P_a$ ). However, since the distribution  
 195  $P(y | x)$  is 1-Lipschitz in the worst case these samples provide very limited information about the  
 196 correct predictions in  $[0.5, 1]$  (the support of  $P_b$ ). Thus, predicting on the support of  $P_b$  requires  
 197 samples from the minority group and this results in the  $n_{\text{min}}$  dependent rate. In fact, in this extreme  
 198 case ( $\tau = 0$ ) even if  $n_{\text{maj}} \rightarrow \infty$ , the minimax excess risk is still bounded away from zero. This  
 199 intuition also carries over to the case when the overlap is small but non-zero and our lower bound  
 200 shows that minority samples are much more valuable than majority samples at reducing the risk.

201 On the other hand, when the overlap is high ( $\tau \gg 1/\rho$ ) the minimax excess risk is lower bounded  
 202 by  $1/(n_{\text{min}}(2 - \tau) + n_{\text{maj}}\tau)^{1/3}$  and the extra majority samples are quite beneficial. This is roughly  
 203 because the supports of  $P_a$  and  $P_b$  have large overlap and hence samples from the majority group  
 204 are useful in helping make predictions even in regions where  $P_b$  is large. In the extreme case when  
 205  $\tau = 1$ , we have that  $P_a = P_b$  and therefore recover the classic i.i.d. setting with no distribution shift.  
 206 Here, the lower bound scales with  $1/n^{1/3}$ , as one might expect.

207 Identical to the label shift case, the theorem can be extended to hold in higher dimensions with the  
 208 exponents being  $1/3d$  rather than  $1/3$ .

## 209 5 Upper Bounds on the Excess Risk for the Undersampled Binning 210 Estimator

211 We will show that an undersampled estimator matches the rates in the previous section showing  
 212 that undersampling is an optimal robustness intervention. We start by defining the undersampling  
 213 procedure and the undersampling binning estimator.

214 **Undersampling Procedure.** Given training data  $\mathcal{S} := \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ , generate a new  
 215 undersampled dataset  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}$  by

- 216 • including all  $n_{\min}$  samples from  $\mathcal{S}_{\min}$  and,
- 217 • including  $n_{\min}$  samples from  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{maj}}$  by sampling uniformly at random without replacement.

218 This procedure ensures that in the undersampled dataset  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}$ , the groups are balanced, and that  
 219  $|\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}| = 2n_{\min}$ .

220 The undersampling binning estimator defined next will first run this undersampling procedure to  
 221 obtain  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}$  and just uses these samples to output a classifier.

222 **Undersampled Binning Estimator** The undersampled binning estimator  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}$  takes as input a  
 223 dataset  $\mathcal{S}$  and a positive integer  $K$  corresponding to the number of bins, and returns a classifier  
 224  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^{S,K} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ . This estimator is defined as follows:

- 225 1. First, we compute the undersampled dataset  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}$ .
- 226 2. Given this dataset  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}$ , let  $n_{1,j}$  be the number of points with label  $+1$  that lie in the interval  
 227  $I_j = [\frac{j-1}{K}, \frac{j}{K}]$ . Also, define  $n_{-1,j}$  analogously. Then set

$$\mathcal{A}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n_{1,j} > n_{-1,j}, \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- 228 3. Define the classifier  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^{S,K}$  such that if  $x \in I_j$  then

$$\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^{S,K}(x) = \mathcal{A}_j. \quad (5)$$

229 Essentially in each bin  $I_j$ , we set the prediction to be the majority label among the samples  
 230 that fall in this bin.

231 Whenever the number of bins  $K$  is clear from the context we shall denote  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^{S,K}$  by  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^S$ . Below we  
 232 establish upper bounds on the excess risk of this simple estimator.

### 233 5.1 Label Shift Upper Bounds

234 We now establish an upper bound on the excess risk of  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}$  in the label shift setting (see Sec-  
 235 tion 3.2.1). Below we let  $c, C > 0$  be absolute constants independent of problem parameters like  
 236  $n_{\text{maj}}$  and  $n_{\min}$ .

237 **Theorem 5.1.** *Consider the label shift setting described in Section 3.2.1. For any  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\min}) \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{LS}}$   
 238 the expected excess risk of the Undersampling Binning Estimator (Eq. (5)) with number of bins with  
 239  $K = c \lceil n_{\min}^{1/3} \rceil$  is upper bounded by*

$$\text{Excess Risk}[\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}; (P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\min})] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S} \sim P_{\text{maj}}^{n_{\text{maj}}} \times P_{\min}^{n_{\min}}} [R(\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^S; P_{\text{test}}) - R(f^*; P_{\text{test}})] \leq \frac{C}{n_{\min}^{1/3}}.$$

240 We prove this result in Appendix B. This upper bound combined with the lower bound in Theorem 4.1  
 241 shows that an undersampling approach is minimax optimal up to constants in the presence of label  
 242 shift.

243 We note that our analysis leaves open the possibility of better algorithms when the learner has  
 244 additional information about the structure of the label shift beyond Lipschitz continuity.

### 245 5.2 Group-Covariate Shift Upper Bounds

246 Next, we present our upper bounds on the excess risk of the undersampled binning estimator in the  
 247 group-covariate shift setting (see Section 3.2.2). In the theorem below,  $C > 0$  is an absolute constant  
 248 independent of the problem parameters  $n_{\text{maj}}$ ,  $n_{\min}$  and  $\tau$ .

249 **Theorem 5.2.** *Consider the group shift setting described in Section 3.2.2. For any overlap  $\tau \in [0, 1]$   
 250 and for any  $(P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\min}) \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{GS}}(\tau)$  the expected excess risk of the Undersampling Binning Estimator  
 251 (Eq. (5)) with number of bins with  $K = \lceil n_{\min}^{1/3} \rceil$  is*

$$\text{Excess Risk}[\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}; (P_{\text{maj}}, P_{\min})] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S} \sim P_{\text{maj}}^{n_{\text{maj}}} \times P_{\min}^{n_{\min}}} [R(\mathcal{A}_{\text{USB}}^S; P_{\text{test}}) - R(f^*; P_{\text{test}})] \leq \frac{C}{n_{\min}^{1/3}}.$$

252 We provide a proof for this theorem in Appendix C. Compared to the lower bound established in  
 253 Theorem 4.2 which scales as  $1/((2-\tau)n_{\min} + n_{\text{maj}}\tau)^{1/3}$ , the upper bound for the undersampled  
 254 binning estimator always scales with  $1/n_{\min}^{1/3}$  since it operates on the undersampled dataset ( $\mathcal{S}_{\text{US}}$ ).  
 255 Thus, we have shown that in the absence of overlap ( $\tau \ll 1/\rho = n_{\min}/n_{\text{maj}}$ ) there is an under-  
 256 sampling algorithm that is minimax optimal up to constants. However when there is high overlap  
 257 ( $\tau \gg 1/\rho$ ) there is a non-trivial gap between the upper and lower bounds:

$$\frac{\text{Upper Bound}}{\text{Lower Bound}} = c(\rho \cdot \tau + 2)^{1/3}.$$

## 258 6 Minority Sample Dependence in Practice

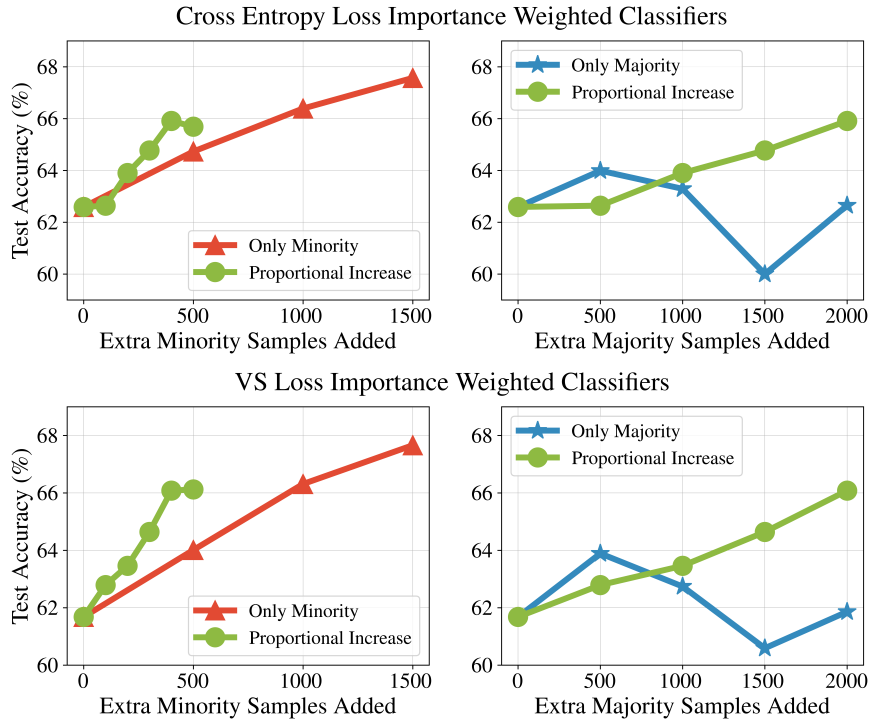


Figure 2: Convolutional neural network classifiers trained on the Imbalanced Binary CIFAR10 dataset with a 5:1 label imbalance. (Top) Models trained using the importance weighted cross entropy loss with early stopping. (Bottom) Models trained using the importance weighted VS loss [13] with early stopping. We report the average test accuracy calculated on a balanced test set over 5 random seeds. We start off with 2500 cat examples and 500 dog examples in the training dataset. We find that in accordance with our theory, for both of the classifiers adding only minority class samples (red) leads to large gain in accuracy ( $\sim 6\%$ ), while adding majority class samples (blue) leads to little or no gain. In fact, adding majority samples sometimes hurts test accuracy due to the added bias. When we add majority and minority samples in a 5:1 ratio (green), the gain is largely due to the addition of minority samples and is only marginally higher ( $< 2\%$ ) than adding only minority samples. The green curves correspond to the same classifiers in both the left and right panels.

259 Inspired by our worst-case theoretical predictions in nonparametric classification, we ask: how does  
 260 the accuracy of neural network classifiers trained using robust algorithms evolve as a function of the  
 261 majority and minority samples?

262 To explore this question, we conduct a small case study using the imbalanced binary CIFAR10  
 263 dataset [3, 24] that is constructed using the “cat” and “dog” classes. The test set consists of all  
 264 of the 1000 cat and 1000 dog test examples. To form our initial train and validation sets, we take  
 265 2500 cat examples but only 500 dog examples from the official train set, corresponding to a 5:1



266 label imbalance. We then use 80% of those examples for training and the rest for validation. In our  
267 experiment, we either (a) add only minority samples; (b) add only majority samples; (c) add both  
268 majority and minority samples in a 5:1 ratio. We consider competitive robust classifiers proposed  
269 in the literature that are convolutional neural networks trained either by using (i) the importance  
270 weighted cross entropy loss, or (ii) the importance weighted VS loss [13]. We early stop using the  
271 importance weighted validation loss in both cases. The additional experimental details are presented  
272 in Appendix D.

273 Our results in Figure 2 are generally consistent with our theoretical predictions. By adding only  
274 minority class samples the test accuracy of both classifiers increases by a great extent (6%), while by  
275 adding only majority class samples the test accuracy remains constant or in some cases even decreases  
276 owing to the added bias of the classifiers. When we add samples to both groups proportionately, the  
277 increase in the test accuracy appears to largely to be due to the increase in the number of minority  
278 class samples and on the left panels, we see that the difference between adding only extra minority  
279 group samples (red) and both minority and majority group samples (green) is small. Thus, we find  
280 that the accuracy for these neural network classifiers is also constrained by the number of minority  
281 class samples.

## 282 7 Discussion

283 We showed that undersampling is an optimal robustness intervention in nonparametric classification  
284 in the absence of significant overlap between group distributions or without additional structure  
285 beyond Lipschitz continuity.

286 At a high level our results highlight the need to reason about the specific structure in the distribution  
287 shift and design algorithms that are tailored to take advantage of this structure. This would require  
288 us to step away from the common practice in robust machine learning where the focus is to design  
289 “universal” robustness interventions that are agnostic to the structure in the shift. Alongside this,  
290 our results also dictate the need for datasets and benchmarks with the propensity for transfer from  
291 training time to test time.

## 292 References

- 293 [1] M. A. Alcorn, Q. Li, Z. Gong, C. Wang, L. Mai, W.-S. Ku, and A. Nguyen. Strike (with) a pose:  
294 Neural networks are easily fooled by strange poses of familiar objects. In *Computer Vision and*  
295 *Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2019.
- 296 [2] S. L. Blodgett, L. Green, and B. T. O’Connor. Demographic dialectal variation in social  
297 media: A case study of african-american english. In *Empirical Methods in Natural Language*  
298 *Processing (EMNLP)*, 2016.
- 299 [3] J. Byrd and Z. Lipton. What is the effect of importance weighting in deep learning? In  
300 *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2019.
- 301 [4] C. L. Canonne. A short note on an inequality between KL and TV. *arXiv preprint*  
302 *arXiv:2202.07198*, 2022.
- 303 [5] K. Cao, C. Wei, A. Gaidon, N. Arechiga, and T. Ma. Learning imbalanced datasets with  
304 label-distribution-aware margin loss. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*  
305 *(NeurIPS)*, 2019.
- 306 [6] N. V. Chawla, K. W. Bowyer, L. O. Hall, and W. P. Kegelmeyer. Smote: Synthetic minority  
307 over-sampling technique. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 2002.
- 308 [7] Y. Cui, M. Jia, T.-Y. Lin, Y. Song, and S. Belongie. Class-balanced loss based on effective  
309 number of samples. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2019.
- 310 [8] L. Devroye and L. Györfi. *Nonparametric density estimation: the  $L_1$  view*. Wiley Series in  
311 Probability and Mathematical Statistics, 1985.
- 312 [9] D. Freedman and P. Diaconis. On the histogram as a density estimator:  $L_2$  theory. *Zeitschrift*  
313 *für Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie und verwandte Gebiete*, 1981.
- 314 [10] T. Hashimoto, M. Srivastava, H. Namkoong, and P. Liang. Fairness without demographics in  
315 repeated loss minimization. In *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2018.

- 316 [11] D. Hovy and A. Søgaard. Tagging performance correlates with author age. In *Association for*  
317 *Computational Linguistics (ACL)*, 2015.
- 318 [12] B. Y. Idrissi, M. Arjovsky, M. Pezeshki, and D. Lopez-Paz. Simple data balancing achieves  
319 competitive worst-group-accuracy. In *Causal Learning and Reasoning*, 2022.
- 320 [13] G. R. Kini, O. Paraskevas, S. Oymak, and C. Thrampoulidis. Label-imbalanced and group-  
321 sensitive classification under overparameterization. *Advances in Neural Information Processing*  
322 *Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2021.
- 323 [14] M. Kubat, S. Matwin, et al. Addressing the curse of imbalanced training sets: one-sided  
324 selection. In *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 1997.
- 325 [15] Z. Lipton, Y.-X. Wang, and A. Smola. Detecting and correcting for label shift with black box  
326 predictors. In *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2018.
- 327 [16] E. Z. Liu, B. Haghgoo, A. S. Chen, A. Raghunathan, P. W. Koh, S. Sagawa, P. Liang, and  
328 C. Finn. Just train twice: Improving group robustness without training group information. In  
329 *International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2021.
- 330 [17] A. K. Menon, S. Jayasumana, A. S. Rawat, H. Jain, A. Veit, and S. Kumar. Long-tail learning  
331 via logit adjustment. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.
- 332 [18] S. Sagawa, P. W. Koh, T. B. Hashimoto, and P. Liang. Distributionally robust neural networks.  
333 In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.
- 334 [19] H. Shimodaira. Improving predictive inference under covariate shift by weighting the log-  
335 likelihood function. *Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference*, 2000.
- 336 [20] R. Tatman. Gender and dialect bias in youtube’s automatic captions. In *ACL Workshop on*  
337 *Ethics in Natural Language Processing*, 2017.
- 338 [21] A. B. Tsybakov. *Introduction to Nonparametric Estimation*. Springer, 2010.
- 339 [22] M. J. Wainwright. *High-dimensional statistics: A non-asymptotic viewpoint*. Cambridge  
340 University Press, 2019.
- 341 [23] B. C. Wallace, K. Small, C. E. Brodley, and T. A. Trikalinos. Class imbalance, redux. In  
342 *International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM)*, 2011.
- 343 [24] K. A. Wang, N. S. Chatterji, S. Haque, and T. Hashimoto. Is importance weighting incompatible  
344 with interpolating classifiers? In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*,  
345 2022.
- 346 [25] L. Wasserman. Lecture notes in nonparametric classification. URL <https://www.stat.cmu.edu/~larry/=sml/nonparclass.pdf>. [Online; accessed 12-May-2022].
- 347  
348 [26] Wikipedia contributors. Poisson binomial distribution — Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia,  
349 2022. URL [https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Poisson\\_binomial\\_](https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Poisson_binomial_distribution&oldid=1071847908)  
350 [distribution&oldid=1071847908](https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Poisson_binomial_distribution&oldid=1071847908). [Online; accessed 5-May-2022].
- 351 [27] D. Xu, Y. Ye, and C. Ruan. Understanding the role of importance weighting for deep learning.  
352 In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.
- 353 [28] Y. Yang and Z. Xu. Rethinking the value of labels for improving class-imbalanced learning.  
354 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2020.
- 355 [29] H.-J. Ye, H.-Y. Chen, D.-C. Zhan, and W.-L. Chao. Identifying and compensating for feature  
356 deviation in imbalanced deep learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2001.01385*, 2020.

## 357 Checklist

- 358 1. For all authors...
- 359 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s  
360 contributions and scope? [Yes]
- 361 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes]
- 362 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [Yes]
- 363 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to  
364 them? [Yes]

- 365 2. If you are including theoretical results...
- 366 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [Yes]
- 367 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [Yes]
- 368 3. If you ran experiments...
- 369 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-
- 370 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes]
- 371 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they
- 372 were chosen)? [Yes]
- 373 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-
- 374 ments multiple times)? [Yes]
- 375 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type
- 376 of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes]
- 377 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
- 378 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes]
- 379 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [N/A]
- 380 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [N/A]
- 381
- 382 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're
- 383 using/curating? [N/A]
- 384 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable
- 385 information or offensive content? [N/A]
- 386 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
- 387 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if
- 388 applicable? [N/A]
- 389 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review
- 390 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
- 391 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount
- 392 spent on participant compensation? [N/A]