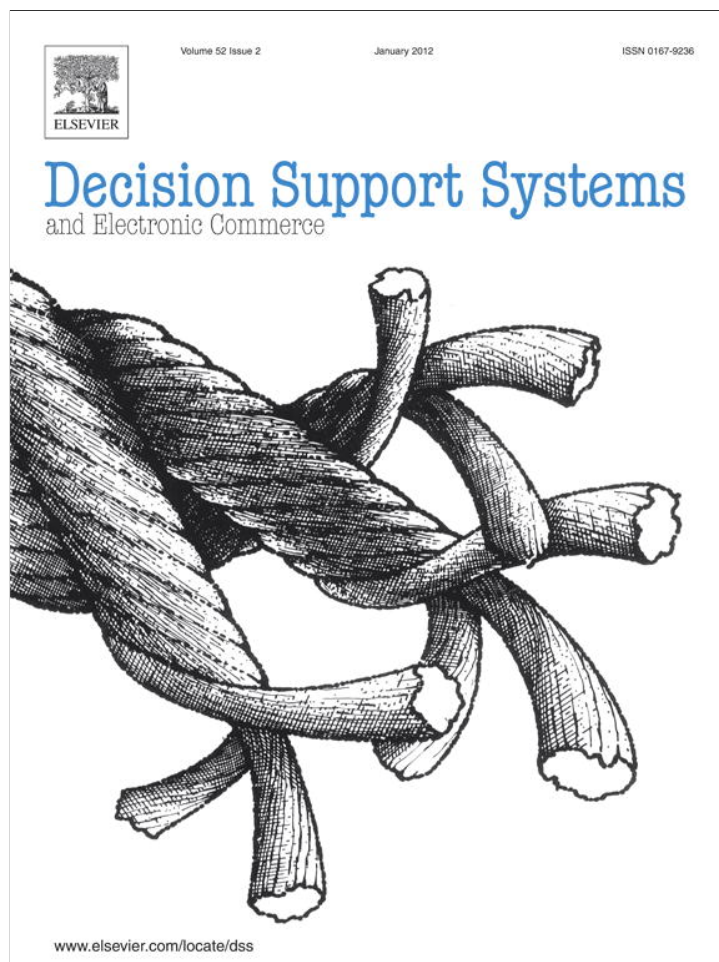


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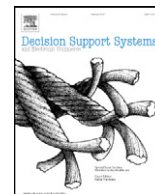
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Comparative analysis of data mining methods for bankruptcy prediction

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ABSTRACT

A great deal of research has been devoted to prediction of bankruptcy, to include application of data mining. Neural networks, support vector machines, and other algorithms often fit data well, but because of lack of comprehensibility, they are considered black box technologies. Conversely, decision trees are more comprehensible by human users. However, sometimes far too many rules result in another form of incomprehensibility. The number of rules obtained from decision tree algorithms can be controlled to some degree through setting different minimum support levels. This study applies a variety of data mining tools to bankruptcy data, with the purpose of comparing accuracy and number of rules. For this data, decision trees were found to be relatively more accurate compared to neural networks and support vector machines, but there were more rule nodes than desired. Adjustment of minimum support yielded more tractable rule sets.

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1. Introduction

Bankruptcy prediction has been a focus of study in business analytics because of the importance of accurate and timely strategic business decisions. Even though the accuracy of the prediction model is a very important criterion, understandability and transportability of the model are also important. The accurate prediction of bankruptcy has been a critical issue to shareholders, creditors, policy makers, and business managers.

There is a wealth of research that has been applied to this field [6,9,30,33,38,42], both in finance and in other fields [38]. Among the thousands of refereed journal articles, many recent studies have applied neural networks (NNs) [1,3,18,19,23,24,27,33,34,43,44,46,48]. Another popular approach is decision trees (DTs) [10,37,42,50]. Support vector machines (SVMs) have been proposed for smaller datasets with highly nonlinear relationships [12,15,21,35,40].

The vast majority of studies in this domain have focused on NNs, and how good they are compared to their statistical counterpart (i.e., logistic regression) at fitting data (fidelity [22]). However, neural network models are black boxes [4,51], lacking transparency (seeing what the model is doing, or comprehensibility) and transportability (being able to easily deploy the model into a decision support system for new cases). We argue that decision trees (DTs) can be as accurate, and provide transparency and transportability that NNs are often criticized for.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews previous research on bankruptcy prediction based on data mining methods. Section 3 describes data mining methodologies. Section 4 discusses the data collected and Section 5 presents data analysis and prediction model building methods as well as the results obtained from different data mining techniques. Section 6 gives our conclusions.

2. Data mining model transparency

Model transparency relates to human ability to understand what the model consists of, leading ideally to the ability to apply it to new observations (which we might term transportability). If a model is transparent, it can be transported. Some models have consistently proven to be strong in their ability to fit data, such as neural network models, but to have low transparency or transportability. Neural networks by their nature involve highly complex sets of node connections and weights that can be obtained from software, but at a high cost in terms of transparency and transportability because there are so many nodes and weights. Conversely, logistic regression (or logit regression) have a form that can be understood and transported quite easily. Beta weights can be used to multiply times observation measures, yielding a score that can be used to classify new observations with relative ease. Support vector machines share the characteristics of transparency and transportability with neural network models. Decision tree models are highly transparent, yielding IF–THEN rules that are easier to comprehend and apply than even regression models.

Thus the issue of transparency primarily applies to neural network models. Öñsei et al. [25] used neural network models to generate weights of 178 criteria which were then used in a model to classify country

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competitiveness. It has been recognized in the engineering field that neural network models need greater transparency [20]. There have been a number of applications [17,27,37] proposing a neurofuzzy framework to take advantage of neural network learning ability and rule-based transparency. Risser et al. [31] used neural networks to fit data, and jack-knife, bootstrap, and their own validation samples to obtain transparent models for evaluation of driver's license suspension. Yuan et al. [47] proposed a fuzzy neural network controller in the electronics field as a means to combine semantic transparency of rule-based fuzzy systems with the ability of neural networks to fit data. Chan et al. [8] used a similar approach to support vector regression models.

3. Data mining methodology

In a comparative analysis of multiple prediction models, it is a common practice to split the complete data set into training and testing sub sets, and compare and contrast the prediction models based on their accuracy on the test data set. In splitting the data into training and testing dataset one can choose to make a single split (e.g., half of the data for training and other half of the data for testing) or multiple splits, which is commonly referred to as *k*-fold cross validation. The idea behind *k*-fold cross validation is to minimize the bias associated with the random sampling of the training and holdout data samples. Specifically, in *k*-fold cross validation the complete data set is randomly split into *k* mutually exclusive subsets of approximately equal size. Each prediction model is trained and tested *k* times using exactly the same *k* data sets (i.e., folds). Each time, the model is

trained on all but one folds and tested on the remaining single fold. The cross validation estimate of the overall accuracy of a model is calculated by averaging the *k* individual accuracy measures as shown in the following equation

$$OA = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k A_i$$

where OA stands for overall cross validation accuracy, *k* is the number of folds used, and *A* is the accuracy measure of each folds.

Since the cross-validation accuracy would depend on the random assignment of the individual cases into *k* distinct folds, a common practice is to stratify the folds themselves. In stratified *k*-fold cross validation, the folds are created in a way that they contain approximately the same proportion of predictor labels as the original dataset. Empirical studies showed that stratified cross validation tend to generate comparison results with lower bias and lower variance when compared to regular cross-validation [16]. In this study, to estimate the performance of predictors a stratified 10-fold cross validation approach is used. Empirical studies showed that 10 seem to be an “optimal” number of folds (that balances the time it takes to complete the test and the bias and variance associated with the validation process) [7,16]. The methodology followed in the study is depicted in Fig. 1.

3.1. Prediction methods

In this study, several popular classification methods (e.g., artificial neural networks, decision trees, support vector machines and logistic

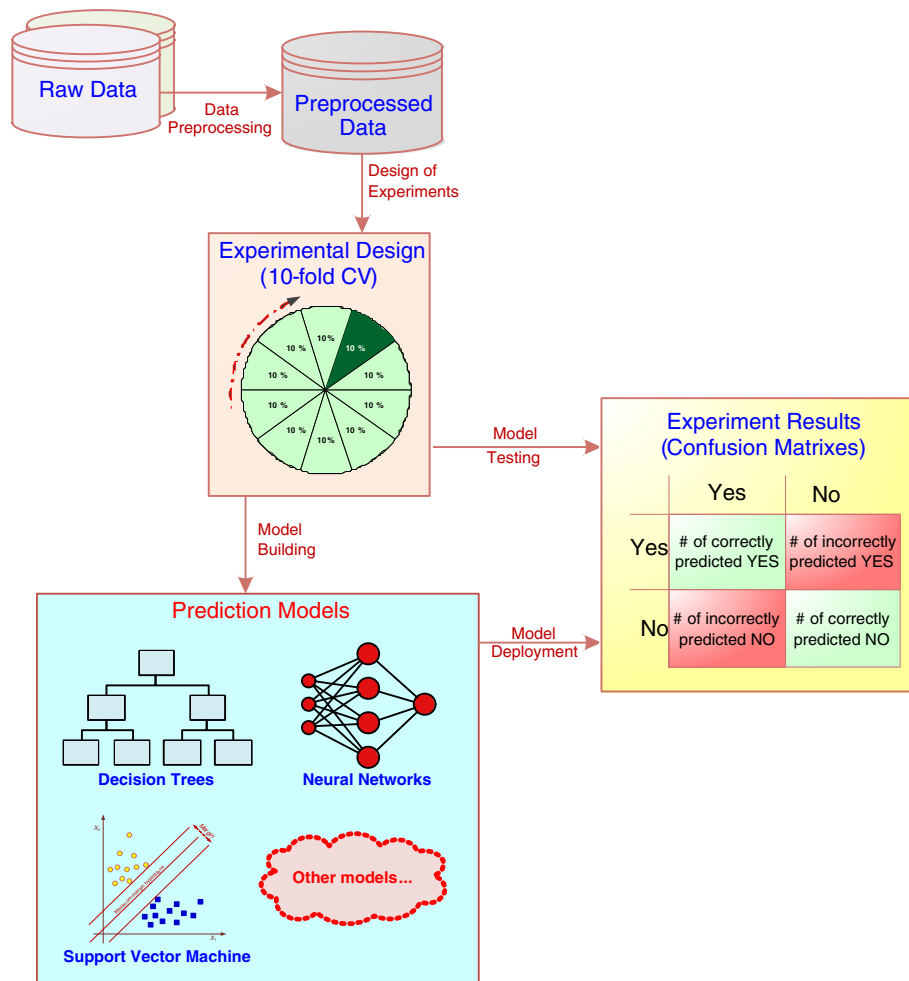


Fig. 1. A graphical depiction of the methodology followed in this study.

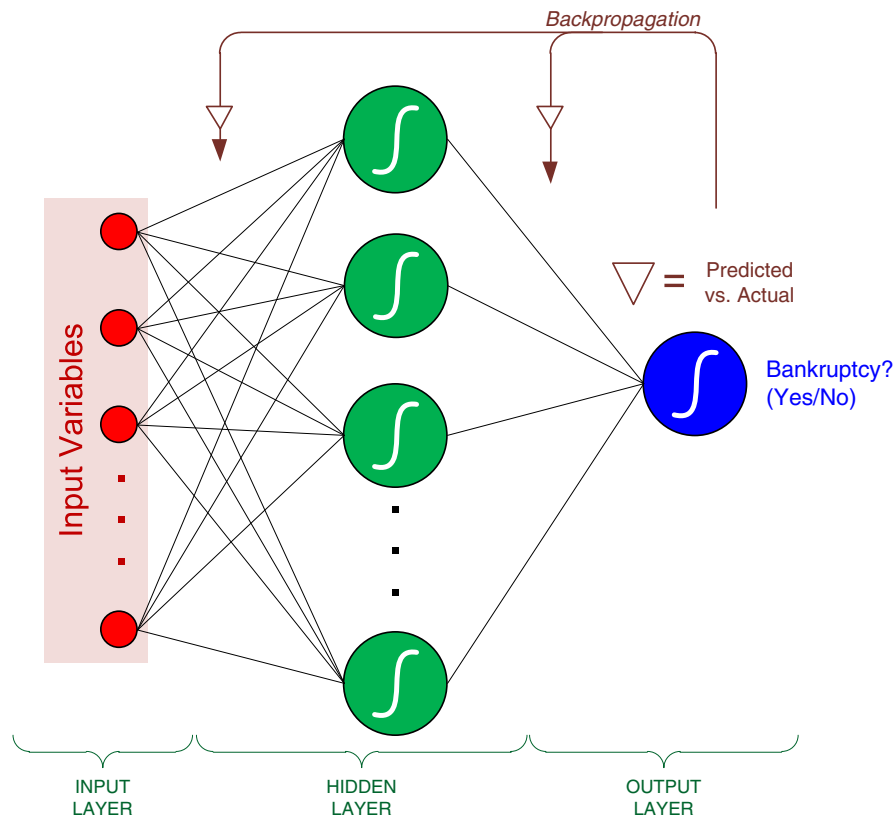


Fig. 2. The MLP architecture used in this study.

regression) are applied and compared to each other using predictive accuracy on the test data samples. What follows are brief descriptions of the prediction models used in this study:

Artificial neural networks (ANN) are biologically inspired analytical techniques, capable of modeling extremely complex non-linear functions [13]. In this study we used two popular neural network architectures, multi-layer perceptron (MLP) with a back-propagation and radial basis function (RBF). These two supervised learning algorithms are strong function approximators for prediction as well as classification type prediction problems. These two are arguably the most commonly used and well-studied ANN architectures. Even though they are comparable to each other in term of their prediction

ability, Hornik et al. [14] empirically showed that given the right size and structure, MLP is capable of learning arbitrarily complex nonlinear functions to an arbitrary accuracy level. A pictorial representation of the ANN architecture used in this study is shown in Fig. 2.

Decision trees are powerful classification algorithms that are becoming increasingly more popular due to their intuitive explainability characteristics. Popular decision tree algorithms include Quinlan's [28,29] ID3, C4.5, C5, and Breiman et al.'s [5] CART (Classification and Regression Trees), Best First Decision Tree and AD Decision Tree. In this study we used all of these decision tree algorithms.

Logistic regression is a generalization of linear regression. It is used primarily for predicting binary or multi-class dependent variables. Because the response variable is discrete, it cannot be modeled directly by linear regression. Therefore, rather than predicting a point estimate of the event itself, it builds the model to predict the odds of its occurrence. While logistic regression has been a common statistical tool for classification problems, its restrictive assumptions on normality and independence led to an increased use and popularity of machine learning techniques for real-world prediction problems.

Support Vector Machines (SVMs) belong to a family of generalized linear models which achieves a classification or regression decision based on the value of the linear combination of features. The mapping function in SVMs can be either a classification function (used to categorize the data, as is the case in this study) or a regression function (used to estimate the numerical value of the desired output). For classification, nonlinear kernel functions are often used to transform the input data (inherently representing highly complex nonlinear relationships) to a high dimensional feature space in which the input data becomes more separable (i.e., linearly separable) compared to the original input space. Then, the maximum-margin hyperplanes are constructed to optimally separate the classes in the training data. Two parallel hyperplanes are constructed on each side of the hyperplane that separates the data by maximizing the distance between

Table 1
Attributes in bankruptcy data.

No	Short name	Long name
1	fyear	Data year – fiscal
2	cik	CIK number
3	at	Assets – total
4	bkvlps	Book value per share
5	invt	Inventories – total
6	Lt	Liabilities – total
7	rectr	Receivables – trade
8	cogs	Cost of goods sold
9	dvt	Dividends – total
10	ebit	Earnings before interest and taxes
11	gp	Gross profit (loss)
12	ni	Net income (loss)
13	oiadp	Operating income after depreciation
14	revt	Revenue – total
15	sale	Sales-turnover (net)
16	dvpsx_f	Dividends per share – ex-date – fiscal
17	mkvalt	Market value – total – fiscal
18	prch_f	Price high – annual – fiscal
19	bankruptcy	Bankruptcy (output variable)

Table 2
C5 decision tree from IBM's SPSS data mining tool.

								Bankrupt {Pr}
IF revt ≤ 76.592	IF Lt ≤ 13.910	IF dvt ≤ 0	IF rectr ≤ 5.010	IF prch_f ≤ 1.400	IF bkvtps ≤ 0.255	IF gp ≤ 1.363	IF revt ≤ 2.888	Bankrupt {Pr}
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	IF revt > 2.888	No {0.913}
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	IF at ≤ 1.516	Yes {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	IF at > 1.516	No {0.833}
"	"	"	"	"	IF bkvtps > 0.255	IF gp > 1.363		No {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF bkvtps ≤ 0.498		Yes {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF bkvtps > 0.498		No {0.857}
"	"	"	"	IF prch_f > 1.400				No {0.986}
"	"	"	IF rectr > 5.010	IF Lt ≤ 7.767				Yes {0.875}
"	"	"		IF Lt > 7.767				No {0.778}
"	"	IF dvt > 0						No {1.0}
"	IF Lt > 13.910	IF cogs ≤ 0.117						Yes {0.909}
"	"	IF cogs > 0.117	IF ebit ≤ -2.515	IF ni ≤ 3.951	IF rectr ≤ 4.714			No {0.833}
"	"	"	"	"				Yes {0.692}
"	"	"	"	IF ni > -3.951	IF rectr > 4.714			Yes {1.0}
"	"	"	IF ebit > -2.515					No {0.888}
IF revt > 76.592	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 0.210	IF Lt ≤ 251.123	IF invt ≤ 20.691					Yes {0.967}
"	"	"	IF invt > 20.691	IF dvt ≤ 0.047	IF Lt ≤ 197.286	IF prch_f ≤ 6.251		Yes {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF prch_f > 6.251	IF invt ≤ 54.143	No {0.750}
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	IF cogs ≤ 112.392	No {0.750}
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	IF cogs > 112.392	No {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF prch_f > 19.140	IF invt > 54.143	No {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	IF Lt > 197.286			Yes {0.923}
"	"	"	"	IF dvt > 0.047	IF dvt ≤ 1.125			Yes {1.0}
"	"	"	"	"	IF dvt > 1.125			No {0.900}
"	"	IF Lt > 251.123						Yes {0.750}
"	IF dvpsx_f 0.210	IF rect4r ≤ 237.496	IF at ≤ 1815.05	IF invt ≤ 16.117				Yes {0.978}
"	"	"	"	IF invt > 16.117	IF at ≤ 1042.87	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 2.250		Yes {0.909}
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF dvpsx_f > 2.250		No {0.933}
"	"	"	"	"	IF at > 1042.87			Yes {0.833}
"	"	"	IF at > 1815.05					Yes {0.917}
"	"	IF rectr > 237.496						No {1.0}
								Yes {1.0}

the two parallel hyperplanes. An assumption is made that the larger the margin or distance between these parallel hyperplanes the lower the generalization error of the classifier will be [11].

3.2. Data description

Altman [2] was one of the first researches to predict the corporate bankruptcy. Altman used the classical multivariate discriminate analysis (MDA) technique, which was based on applying the Bayes

classification procedure, under the assumption that the two classes have Normal distributions with equal covariance matrices. Altman used the following financial ratios as inputs: working capital/total assets; retained earnings/total assets; earnings before interest and taxes/total assets (ROA); market capitalization/total debt; and sales/total assets (asset turnover). Both the MDA model and the logistic regression model (hereafter LR) have been widely used in practice and in many academic studies. They have been standard benchmarks for the loan default prediction problem. Whereas research studies on

Table 3
CART decision tree from IBM's SPSS data mining tool.

					Bankrupt {Prob}
IF revt ≤ 70.447	IF Lt ≤ 13.914				No {0.917}
	IF Lt > 13.914	IF ebit ≤ 0.137	IF ni ≤ -3.882	IF rectr ≤ 4.798	No {0.821}
			IF ni > -3.882	IF rectr > 4.798	Yes {0.643}
		IF ebit > 0.137			Yes {0.692}
IF revt > 70.447	IF Lt ≤ 200.252	IF invt ≤ 29.001			No {0.897}
		IF invt > 29.001	IF bkvtps ≤ 9.228	IF cogs ≤ 189.341	Yes {0.862}
				IF cogs > 189.341	No {0.696}
			IF bkvtps > 9.228		Yes {0.864}
	IF Lt > 200.252				No {0.809}
					Yes {0.927}

Table 4
Comparative correct fits.

Software	Model	Correct classification
IBM SPSS	Logistic regression	0.798
WEKA	"	0.813
IBM SPSS	Neural network (RBF)	0.798
WEKA	"	0.609
IBM SPSS	C5 decision tree	0.937
IBM SPSS	CART decision tree	0.898
WEKA	"	0.932
IBM SPSS	SVM	0.661
WEKA	Best First decision tree	0.929
WEKA	All dimensions decision tree	0.903
WEKA	J48 decision tree	0.948

using artificial neural network (hence ANN) for bankruptcy prediction started in 1990, and are still active now.

Sample data contained 100 US firms that underwent bankruptcy firms. There were multiple records from different years for the same firm. We first obtained about 400 bankrupt company names using google.com in 2010, and next identified the Ticker name of each company using the Compustat database. We separately obtained data on companies bankrupted during January 2006 and December 2009, since we also wanted to analyze the effects of the economic crisis. After getting the company Ticker code list, obtained financial ratios for the period January 2005 to December 2009 for these firms from the Compustat database. Those financial data and ratios are factors that we can use to predict company bankruptcy. The factors we collected are based on the literature, which contain total asset, book value per share, inventories, liabilities, receivables, cost of goods sold, total dividends, earnings before interest and taxes, gross profit

Table 5
WEKA decision tree accuracy versus minimum support.

Model	Minimum support	Leaves	Branches	% Correct
Best First	2	46	91	0.899
	3	39	77	0.893
	4	34	67	0.891
	5	26	51	0.889
	6	20	39	0.886
	7	18	35	0.877
	8	16	31	0.874
	9	14	27	0.874
	10	12	23	0.870
	15	4	7	0.869
J48 DT	2	52	103	0.914
	3	47	93	0.914
	4	45	89	0.902
	5	43	85	0.899
	6	38	75	0.900
	7	36	71	0.899
	8	35	69	0.899
	9	32	63	0.905
	10	32	63	0.896
	15	24	47	0.876
CART	2	44	87	0.890
	3	41	81	0.886
	4	32	63	0.888
	5	33	65	0.886
	6	31	61	0.889
	7	16	31	0.880
	8	4	7	0.875
	9	4	7	0.874
	10	12	23	0.877
	15	6	11	0.865
20	5	9	0.869	
25	5	9	0.871	

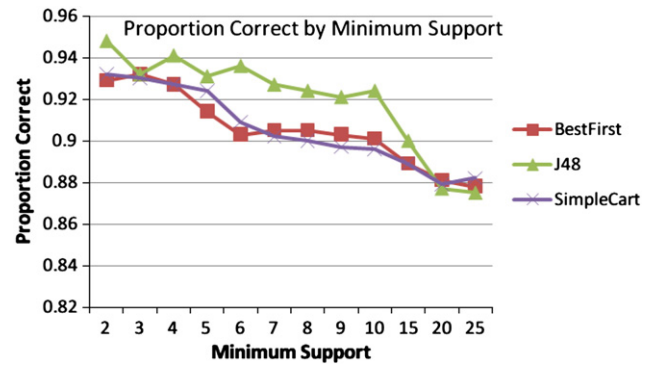


Fig. 3. Relative WEKA decision tree accuracies by minimum support.

(loss), net income (loss), operating income after depreciation, total revenue, sales, dividends per share, and total market value. In order to compare, we collected the same financial ratios for a roughly equal number of non-failed companies during the same periods. First we used the LexisNexis database to find the company SEC filing after June 2010, which means that companies were still active at the time of this research, and then we selected 100 companies from the results and identified the company CIK code list. Finally we submitted the CIK code list to the Compustat database and got the financial data and ratios during January 2005 to December 2009, which is the same period with that of the failed companies. The reason was to have equal number of samples for bankrupt and non-bankrupt companies.

After all of the data collection and organization, the final data set used in this study consisted of 1321 records with full data over 19 attributes as shown in Table 1. The outcome attribute was bankruptcy, which has a value of 1 if the firm went bankrupt by 2011 (697 cases), and a value of 0 if it did not (624 cases).

4. Results

The data was modeled using IBM SPSS Modeler (for logistic regression, radial-basis function neural network, C5 and CART decision tree, and support vector machine (SVM) models). WEKA software was used for comparison when models were available, with expanded decision tree tools [45]. WEKA had more decision tree options.

It is obvious that different models had different accuracies, as is to be expected. For this particular set of data, logistic regression was less accurate than decision trees, but more accurate than the radial basis functions run in WEKA. Support vector machines worked less well on this data than any of the other models. Decision tree models were usually better fits for this particular set of data, although neural network model parameters can be set to better fit any particular set of data (at some cost of analyst time).

Results from IBM's SPSS data mining tool indicate that for this specific set of data, the best fit was obtained with the C5 decision tree model (0.937 correct classification). The second best fit was obtained with the CART model (also a decision tree). The support vector machine model had a relatively low correct classification fit of 0.661.

Table 6
WEKA J48 decision tree model results.

Confidence	Minimum support	Leaves	Branches	% Correct	Attributes used
0.10	2	48	95	0.912	15
0.25	"	52	103	0.914	15
0.50	"	52	103	0.914	15
0.10	10	23	45	0.891	12
0.25	"	32	63	0.896	14
0.50	"	32	63	0.896	14
0.10	20	11	21	0.873	6
0.25	"	15	29	0.866	7
0.50	"	15	29	0.868	8

Table 8
CART decision tree from WEKA with minimum support of 9.

	Yes	No	Bankrupt {Prob}
IF revt < 77.696	80	522	No {0.867}
IF revt ≥ 77.696	531	42	Yes {0.927}
IF dvpsx_f < 0.215	31	57	No {0.648}
IF dvpsx_f ≥ 0.215	55	3	Yes {0.948}

Replicating the analysis with WEKA tools attain found the best fits for decision tree models (the standard J48 decision tree model yielding the overall highest accuracy). Of course, model fit varies widely across data sets, and fine tuning either decision trees or neural network models can improve classification accuracy. But the primary advantage of decision trees is their transparency.

The IBM SPSS Modeler's C5 model involved a rather complicated set of rules, using 13 of the 18 available variables in 30 branches with 31 decision-concluding nodes. The decision tree is shown in Table 2.

The length of decision trees can be controlled by varying minimum support and pruning, so we are not claiming generalizable differences in the number of rules by method. But we are trying to demonstrate the complexity involved for human application in having too many rules.

Table 9
J48 decision tree from WEKA with minimum support of 15.

								Bankrupt {Pr}
								total/error
IF revt ≤ 76.592	IF Lt ≤ 13.91	IF dvt ≤ 0	IF rectr ≤ 5.01	IF fyear ≤ 2007	IF prch_f ≤ 1.4	IF cogs ≤ 2.089	IF gp ≤ 1.76	No {0.894} 84/10
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF cogs > 2.089	IF gp > 1/76	Yes {0.800} 20/5
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	No {0.889} 24/3
"	"	"	"	"	IF prch_f > 1.4	"	"	No {0.982} 110/2
"	"	"	"	IF fyear > 2.007	"	"	"	No {1.0} 77/0
"	"	"	IF rectr > 5.01	"	"	"	"	Yes {0.680} 17/8
"	"	IF dvt > 0	"	"	"	"	"	No {1.0} 125/0
"	IF Lt > 13.91	IF revt ≤ 8.73	"	"	"	"	"	Yes {0.733} 22/6
"	"	IF revt > 8.73	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 0.01	IF at ≤ 139.611	"	"	"	No {0.871} 61/9
"	"	"	"	IF at > 139.611	"	"	"	Yes {0.714} 25/10
"	"	"	IF dvpsx_f > 0.01	"	"	"	"	No {0.974} 37/1
IF revt > 76/592	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 0.21	IF Lt ≤ 251.123	IF invt ≤ 20.691	IF dvt ≤ 0.047	IF Lt ≤ 197.286	IF prch_f ≤ 6.251	"	Yes {0.968} 61/2
"	"	"	IF invt > 20.691	"	"	IF prch_f > 6.251	IF mkvalt ≤ 86.9214	Yes {1.0} 15/0
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	IF mkvalt > 86/9214	No {0.800} 16/4
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Yes {0.771} 27/8
"	"	"	"	IF dvt > 0.047	IF Lt > 197.286	"	"	Yes {1.0} 22/0
"	"	IF Lt > 251.123	"	"	"	"	"	No {0.720} 18/7
"	IF dvpsx_f > 0.21	IF rectr ≤ 237.496	IF Lt ≤ 1319.934	IF invt ≤ 16.117	"	"	"	Yes {0.979} 414/9
"	"	"	"	IF invt > 16.117	IF invt ≤ 72.857	"	"	Yes {0.917} 22/2
"	"	"	"	"	IF invt > 72.857	IF mkvalt ≤ 465.9829	"	No {1.0} 24/0
"	"	"	"	"	"	IF mkvalt > 465.9829	"	Yes {0.889} 16/2
"	"	"	IF Lt > 1319.934	"	"	"	"	No {0.815} 22/5
"	"	IF rectr > 237.496	"	"	"	"	"	No {1.0} 15/0
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Yes {1.0} 47/0

Table 10
J48 decision tree from WEKA with minimum support of 20.

						Bankrupt {Pr}
						total/error
IF revt ≤ 76.592	IF Lt ≤ 13.91					No {0.921} 457/39
"	IF Lt > 13.91	IF revt ≤ 0.873				Yes {0.786} 22/6
"	"	IF revt > 8.73	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 0.01	IF at ≤ 139.611		No {0.871} 61/9
"	"	"	"	IF at > 139.611		Yes {0.714} 25/10
"	"	"	IF dvpsx_f > 0.01	"		No {0.974} 37/1
IF revt > 76.592	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 0.21	IF Lt ≤ 251.123	IF invt ≤ 20.691	IF ni ≤ - 3.252		Yes {0.968} 61/2
"	"	"	IF invt > 20.691	IF ni > - 3.252	IF Lt ≤ 88.296	Yes {0.889} 32/4
"	"	"	"	"	IF Lt > 88.296	No {0.735} 25/9
"	"	IF Lt > 251.123	"	"	"	Yes {0.788} 41/11
"	IF dvpsx_f > 0.21	IF rectr ≤ 237.496	IF gp ≤ 254.644	IF dvpsx_f ≤ 0.69	IF gp ≤ 86.628	Yes {0.979} 414/9
"	"	"	"	"	IF gp > 86.628	No {0.906} 29/3
"	"	"	"	IF dvpsx_f > 0.69	"	Yes {0.686} 24/11
"	"	"	IF gp > 254.644	"	"	Yes {0.889} 24/3
"	"	"	"	"	"	No {0.917} 22/2
"	"	IF rectr > 237.496	"	"	"	Yes {1.0} 47/0

Table 3 shows the much shorter model obtained from CART for this data.

The proportion of "No" results for the population was 624 out of 1321 cases, or a proportion of 0.472. The model had an average correct classification rate (after 10-fold cross validation sampling) of 0.898. Five variables were used in ten rows of rules. The CART model had a slightly inferior fit (0.898 correct classification versus 0.937 for the C5 model), but required only 9 branches with ten decision-concluding nodes based upon 8 variables. While this is less than the 0.937 obtained with the C5 model, it is more concise, and therefore more usable. The C5 model involved 13 variables with 31 rows of rules. The more concise model requires users to find less data, and is expected to involve less uncertainty. Table 4 compares model fits for IBM SPSS and WEKA models, all using 1321 observations:

A WEKA J48 model used 46 rows of rules involving 13 variables. Thus the J48 model was even less concise than the C5 model from IBM's SPSS tool. The J48 model did correctly classify 0.948 of the cases tested. However, this again demonstrates the tradeoff between model accuracy and transparency/transportability.

Our interest is in comparing the decision tree models. WEKA provides the ability to adjust the parameter for minimum support. Larger minimum support requirements yield fewer rules. Table 5 and Fig. 3

Table 11
J48 decision tree from WEKA with minimum support of 25.

					Bankrupt {Pr} total/error
IF revt ≤ 76.592	IF Lt ≤ 13.91				No {0.940} 457/39
"	IF Lt > 13.91	IF ebit ≤ 1.015	IF invt ≤ 1.421	IF ni ≤ -4.884	No {0.694} 25/11
"	"	"	"	IF ni > -4.884	Yes {0.862} 25/4
"	"	"	IF invt > 1.421		No {0.868} 33/5
"	"	IF ebit > 1.015			No {0.939} 62/4
IF revt > 76.592	IF dvpsx_f < 0.21	IF Lt ≤ 251.123	IF invt ≤ 20.691		Yes {0.968} 61/2
"	"	"	IF invt > 20.691	IF ni ≤ -3.252	Yes {0.889} 32/4
"	"	"	"	IF ni > -3.252	No {0.735} 25/9
"	"	"	"		Yes {0.788} 41/11
"	"	IF Lt > 251.123			Yes {0.979} 414/9
"	IF dvpsx_f > 0.21	IF rectr ≤ 237.496	IF gp ≤ 239.833	IF revt ≤ 353.155	No {0.865} 32/5
"	"	"	"	IF revt > 353.155	Yes {0.792} 42/11
"	"	"	IF gp > 239.833		No {0.893} 25/3
"	"	IF rectr > 237.496			Yes {1.0} 47/0

Table 12
BFTree MS = 10.

					Bankrupt {Pr} total/error
IF revt < 77.696					No {0.867} 522/80
IF revt ≥ 77.696	IF dvpsx_f < 0.215	IF Lt < 251.53	IF invt < 60.0275		Yes {0.878} 101/14
"	"	"	IF invt ≥ 60.0275	IF rectr < 10.746	Yes {1.0} 13/0
"	"	"	"	IF rectr ≥ 10.746	No {0.613} 19/12
"	"	IF Lt ≥ 251.53	IF revt < 293.7785	IF fyear < 2006.5	Yes {1.0} 30/0
"	"	"	"	IF fyear ≥ 2006.5	No {0.700} 7/3
"	"	"	IF revt ≥ 293.7785		Yes {0.995} 372/2
"	IF dvpsx_f ≥ 0.215	IF dvt < 32.381	IF invt < 13.513	IF at < 827.2125	Yes {1.0} 14/0
"	"	"	"	IF at ≥ 827.2125	No {0.833} 10/2
"	"	"	IF invt ≥ 13.513	IF at < 1043.2265	No {0.913} 42/4
"	"	"	"	IF at ≥ 1043.2265	Yes {0.687} 11/5
"	"	IF dvt ≥ 32.381			Yes {0.948} 55/3

Table 13
BFTree MS = 15.

					Bankrupt {Pr} total/error
IF revt < 77.696					No {0.867} 522/80
IF revt ≥ 77.696	IF dvpsx_f < 0.215				Yes {0.927} 531/42
"	IF dvpsx_f ≥ 0.215	IF dvt < 32.381	IF invt < 13.513		Yes {0.615} 16/10
"	"	"	IF invt ≥ 13.513	IF at < 1043.2265	No {0.913} 42/4
"	"	"		IF at ≥ 1043.2265	Yes {0.687} 11/5
"	"	IF dvt ≥ 32.381			Yes {0.948} 55/3

Table 14
BFTree MS = 20.

					Bankrupt {Pr} total/error
IF revt < 77.696					No {0.867} 522/80
IF revt ≥ 77.696	IF dvpsx_f < 0.215				Yes {0.927} 531/42
"	IF dvpsx_f ≥ 0.215	IF dvt < 32.381	IF invt < 13.513		Yes {0.615} 16/10
"	"	"	IF invt ≥ 13.513		No {0.758} 47/15
"	"	IF dvt ≥ 32.381			Yes {0.948} 55/3

show the number of rules (decision tree leaves) and accuracy for different WEKA decision tree models.

The WEKA J48 model seemed to provide superior fit (at least for smaller minimum support levels). This model has a confidence parameter that can be set in addition to minimum support. We ran models as shown in Table 6 to see the impact of confidence factor. We chose minimum support levels of 2, 10, and 20 to get diverse settings after seeing the results shown in Table 5.

Table 15
BFTree MS = 25.

					Bankrupt {Pr} total/error
IF revt < 77.696					No {0.847} 522/80
IF revt ≥ 77.696	IF dvpsx_f < 0.215				Yes {0.921} 531/42
"	IF dvpsx_f ≥ 0.215	IF dvt < 32.381			No {0.456} 57/31
"	"	IF dvt ≥ 32.381			Yes {0.945} 55/3

The confidence factor does not seem to have a big impact. For minimum support of 2, confidence settings of 0.25 and 0.50 yielded precisely the same model (although the proportion correct reported varied slightly). Using minimum support of 10 yielded the same model with all three confidence levels. For minimum support of 20, confidence settings of 0.25 and 0.50 models were identical. Thus we used the default confidence setting of 0.25.

4.1. Tradeoff – fidelity and transparency

It can be seen that the number of decision rules (leaves) tends to decrease with higher minimum support, while correct classification also decreases with higher minimum support. The more rules, the more difficult to apply (transport) the model. Thus there is a tradeoff between accuracy and transportability. For instance, the CART model obtained from WEKA with minimum support of 9 yielded the set of rules given in Table 7. The last column shows the rule outcome, and the proportion correct over the training set.

This model involved 22 concluding leaves with 11 attributes. It had an accuracy of 0.924 on average over the 10-fold testing. The CART model with minimum support set at 9 is given in Table 8:

There is a clear advantage for the last set of decision rules obtained with minimum support of 9, with only 12 leaves involving 7 attributes, versus the case where minimum support was 5 (22 leaves involving 11 attributes). The tradeoff in lost accuracy is slight – the model with minimum support of 5 tested at 0.924 accuracy, versus 0.897 for the model with minimum support of 9. Tables 8, 9 and 10 show the resulting decision rules, with greater transportability attained from higher minimum support levels. Tables 9, 10 and 11 give decision tree rules for WEKA J48 decision trees with varying minimum support levels. The last column shows the rule outcome, and the proportion correct over the training set. The total number of cases for each rule is given separated by “/” from the erroneous cases.

The correct classifications for these three decision trees are fairly similar (0.900 for MS = 15, 0.877 for MS = 20, 0.875 for MS = 25). The number of rules dropped from 21 for the MS = 15 model to 16 for the MS = 20 model to 10 for the MS = 25 model. The number of

attributes ranged from 8 for MS = 25, 7 for MS = 20, and 11 for MS = 15. Clearly the MS = 25 model is easier to implement.

The Best First Decision Tree models showed a similar pattern, as shown in Tables 12, 13, 14, and 15:

Again, there is a clear reduction in rule size with higher minimum support. The number of variables included in the decision tree will tend to decline with higher minimum support as well (see Appendix A). There is usually a cost in terms of correct classification, but fewer attributes leave less error potential from having to estimate attribute values in application.

5. Conclusions

Any particular set of data will have different relative fits from different data mining models. That is why it is conventional to apply logistic regression, neural networks, and decision trees to data. Neural network models often provide very good fit with a particular data set, but they are not transparent nor easily transportable. Decision tree models are expressed in easily understood terms. A common problem with decision trees is that models generate too many rules. This can be controlled by increasing the minimum support required for a rule.

Our study demonstrated this point. For this data, the overall best fit (0.948 average accuracy) was obtained with a WEKA J48 decision tree model with minimum support of 2. However, that involved 46 leaves to the decision tree. Even setting the minimum support to 9 yielded 28 leaves to the tree involving 11 attributes (average accuracy dropping to 0.921). While the set of rules is transportable and transparent, it is bulky and complex. A decision tree obtained from a WEKA CART model with minimum support of 9 yielded a model we would argue was preferable, involving 12 leaves to the tree and 7 attributes. There was degradation in average testing accuracy (dropping to 0.897).

The particular choice would depend upon user preferences. Our point is that there is a tradeoff between average accuracy and decision tree size that can be controlled through the minimum support parameter.

Appendix A. J48 model results

	MS2	MS3	MS4	MS5	MS6	MS7	MS8	MS9	MS10	MS15	MS20	MS25
fyear	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			
cik	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
at	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x		
bkvtps	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
invt	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
Lt	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
rectr	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
cogs		x	x	x								
dvt	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	
ebit	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x
gp				x						x		
ni												x
oiadp												
revt	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
sale												
dvpsx_f	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
mkvalt	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			
prch_f												
Bankruptcy												
# attributes	12	13	13	14	12	12	10	10	10	11	7	8
Leaves	46	41	38	34	31	31	29	28	28	21	16	10
Tree size	91	81	75	67	61	61	57	55	55	41	31	19
Correct	0.948	0.943	0.942	0.931	0.936	0.927	0.924	0.921	0.923	0.9	0.877	0.875

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