ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Expert Systems With Applications

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/eswa



Bankruptcy prediction using imaged financial ratios and convolutional neural networks



Tadaaki Hosaka

Tokyo University of Science, 1-11-2 Fujimi, Chiyoda City, Tokyo, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 16 May 2018
Revised 20 July 2018
Accepted 17 September 2018
Available online 18 September 2018

Keywords: Deep learning Business failure Financial statement Imaging

ABSTRACT

Convolutional neural networks are being applied to identification problems in a variety of fields, and in some areas are showing higher discrimination accuracies than conventional methods. However, applications of convolutional neural networks to financial analyses have only been reported in a small number of studies on the prediction of stock price movements. The reason for this seems to be that convolutional neural networks are more suitable for application to images and less suitable for general numerical data including financial statements. Hence, in this research, an attempt is made to apply a convolutional neural network to the prediction of corporate bankruptcy, which in most cases is treated as a two-class classification problem. We use the financial statements (balance sheets and profit-and-loss statements) of 102 companies that have been delisted from the Japanese stock market due to de facto bankruptcy as well as the financial statements of 2062 currently listed companies over four financial periods. In our proposed method, a set of financial ratios are derived from the financial statements and represented as a grayscale image. The image generated by this process is utilized for training and testing a convolutional neural network. Moreover, the size of the dataset is increased using the weighted averages to create synthetic data points. A total of 7520 images for the bankrupt and continuing enterprises classes are used for training the convolutional neural network based on GoogLeNet, Bankruptcy predictions through the trained network are shown to have a higher performance compared to methods using decision trees, linear discriminant analysis, support vector machines, multi-layer perceptron, AdaBoost, or Altman's Z"-score.

© 2018 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

An accurate prediction of the future performance of an enterprise is important for investors to generate profits in securities trading. One typical example of such a prediction is the probability of a company going bankrupt. When companies fall into bankruptcy, there is a high possibility that they will be delisted, which has a major impact on investors. Hence, in stock exchanges, companies that are at high risk of being delisted are designated as supervised stocks. It is thus extremely beneficial for investors to recognize the signs of bankruptcy at an early stage.

1.1. Previous research on bankruptcy prediction using machine learning

Much research on bankruptcy prediction has been performed using pattern recognition or machine learning. In 1968, Altman (1968) investigated the performance of linear discriminant analysis for 22 financial ratios that he selected based on his knowl-

edge of accounting and constructed a prediction model using five of the financial ratios. Since then, non-linear prediction models using logistic regression (Ohlson, 1980), neural networks (Brédart, 2014; Odom & Sharda, 1990), support vector machines (SVM) (Li & Sun, 2009; Shin, Lee, & Kim, 2005), and AdaBoost (Alfalo, García, Gámez, & Elizondo, 2008; Ramakrishnan, Mirzaei, & Bekri, 2015) have been proposed. Besides the genetic algorithm (Back, Laitinen, & Sere, 1996; Gordini, 2014) which is usually utilized in optimization problem, and case-based reasoning (Bryant, 1998; Sartori, Mazzucchelli, & Gregorio, 2016) have been applied to acquiring the decision rule for bankruptcy. The existing research on bankruptcy prediction manually defines several (in most cases, around three to five) financial indicators which are useful for constructing prediction models. One potential problem with existing methods is that financial indicators which are potentially suitable for identification may be incorrectly passed over, as they have a complex non-linear relationship with the probability of bankruptcy.

Shirata (1998) has applied statistical methods to the selection of financial indicators to avoid this problem. She used the Classification and Regression Tree (CART) algorithm to select four financial indicators which are effective for bankruptcy prediction, out of

E-mail address: hosaka-t@rs.tus.ac.jp

the 61 financial indicators deemed appropriate from an accounting viewpoint, and derived linear discriminant functions using these four variables. However, the selection of the financial indicators and the construction of the prediction model via machine learning are separate processes; hence, there remains the problem that the optimality of the prediction accuracy for the method as a whole cannot be guaranteed.

To overcome this problem, Takata, Hosaka, and Ohnuma (2015, 2017) utilized AdaBoost and an advanced version, RealAdaBoost (Hosaka & Takata, 2016) to execute both processes within a single framework, in which their algorithms determine the effective financial ratios from a large number of candidates and construct a prediction model by weighted majority voting with the selected indicators. Other approaches have also been considered which do not use financial information at all; for example, Shirata and Sakagami (2008) predicted corporate bankruptcy by applying text mining techniques to financial statements or corporate investor relations (IR) documents.

1.2. Previous research using deep learning for financial analysis

Deep learning is gathering great attention in the field of machine learning and artificial intelligence, and has achieved great success, especially for image recognition (e.g. Krizhevsky, Sutskever, & Hinton, 2012; Lin, Chen, & Yan, 2013; Szegedy et al., 2015), voice recognition (e.g. Dahl, Yu, Deng, & Acero, 2012; Graves, Mohamed, & Hinton, 2013; Mohamed, Dahl, & Hinton, 2012), and natural language processing (e.g. Irsoy & Cardie, 2014; Kiros, Salakhutdinov, & Zemel, 2014; Yao, Zweig, Hwang, Shi, & Yu, 2013). However, the number of applications of deep learning to financial analysis is extremely limited except for several reports on the prediction of stock price fluctuations (Aggarwal & Aggarwal, 2016; Bao, Yue, & Rao, 2017; Chong, Han, & Park, 2017; Persio & Honchar, 2017; Yoshihara, Fujikawa, Seki, & Uehara, 2014), where recurrent neural networks are often utilized for time series analysis.

An example of using deep learning in financial analysis other than for forecasting stock price fluctuations is provided by Yeh, Wang, and Tsai (2015), who predicted the probability of bankruptcy via a deep belief network (DBN) with five layers, where changes in stock price volatility are represented as a line graph (a binary image) and each pixel value (1 or 0) corresponds to a visible variable. They reported that the discrimination performance for identifying bankrupt and continuing companies is superior to the conventional SVM algorithm. Lee, Jang, and Park (2017) also estimated the gross sales amount, operating income, and net income by using a DBN. They focused on not only financial indicators from the preceding fiscal year but also the number of patent applications and the patent shares within the industry three years prior. These features are utilized as the visible variables for the learning of a DBN with six layers.

Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have been producing drastic improvements in the performance of image recognition algorithms (Krizhevsky et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013; Szegedy et al., 2015). However, there are only a few examples of CNNs being applied to financial analyses. The reason for this seems to be that CNNs are more suitable for application to images and less suitable for general numerical data including financial statements.

As an example of one of the few applications of a CNN to financial data, Ding, Zhang, Liu, and Duan (2015) used a CNN to predict whether a share price would rise or fall. They used texts describing finance-related events from the news over the previous month and vectorized them to use as input for their CNN. Convolutional operations on data for consecutive days were performed for feature extraction, and the subsequent maximum pooling layer leaves only the most influential variable. It was reported that there was an improvement in the estimation accuracy using a network containing

four layers. Siripurapu (2015) also proposed expressing fluctuations between high and low prices of the S&P500 over a period of 30 minutes with images (typically line graphs) and utilizing them as input for a CNN to predict the price in the subsequent five minutes. However, a significant improvement in the prediction accuracy was not observed.

Based on the above background, the present research aims to propose an effective method for applying CNNs to bankruptcy prediction. Since CNNs are particularly effective for image analysis, financial numerical data need to first be converted before constructing a CNN. Hence, we propose a transformation for converting a set of financial ratios generated from a balance sheet and a profitand-loss statement into an image. More specifically, each financial ratio corresponds to a particular pixel, and the brightness of the pixel is determined by the value of the corresponding financial ratio. Images created in this way represent a single enterprise for a particular fiscal year and serve as training data for the CNN. Also, the amount of data is increased through weighted averaging of financial statements spanning multiple fiscal years. Our CNNs based on GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al., 2015) are trained for the two-class identification problem of whether the target company belongs to the bankrupt enterprises class or the continuing enterprises class. Application of our method to real-world data shows that our prediction performance is superior to that of conventional methods.

2. Data

In this research, enterprises delisted due to business failures in one of the Japanese stock markets (Tokyo Stock Exchange, Osaka Securities Exchange, former Nasdaq Japan Standard, former Hercules Standard, former Hercules Growth, or the former Jasdaq) between January 2002 and June 2016 are considered to be bankrupt companies. The reasons for delisting, which can be viewed as de facto bankruptcy, are 1) bankruptcy/rehabilitation/reorganization procedures, 2) excessive debt, 3) suspension of bank transactions, and 4) termination of business activities (excluding mergers). A total of 153 companies falling under these criteria are used in this research. The continuing companies in this research are 2450 firms listed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange First Section or Second Section as of June 2016.

Two types of financial statements, the consolidated balance sheets and profit-and-loss statements, of these companies are obtained from the Nikkei NEEDS Financial QUEST database for four periods preceding their delisting (bankrupt companies) or before June 2016 (continuing companies). There are 175 items included in a balance sheet and 88 items in a profit-and-loss statement. By handling the data for each year separately, four entries can be obtained from a single company. Assuming that listed companies rarely go bankrupt within a year or two of a deterioration in management, the four financial data from a bankrupt company are all treated as belonging to the "bankrupt enterprises class".

There are missing values in the financial statements. This is because 1) the Japanese accounting standards for the net assets section changed in 2006, 2) the notation for accounting items can differ depending on the industry, even if they have similar meanings, and 3) items that have zero value are missing. Hence, some missing values are supplemented when other related accounting items are available to aid the estimation. After this operation, enterprises that still have missing values for the following variables are excluded from this research.

Requisite accounting variables:

- 1. Current assets
- 2. Fixed assets
- 3. Current liabilities
- 4. Fixed liabilities

- 5. Net assets
- 6. Shareholders' equity
- 7. Retained earnings
- 8. Sales volume
- 9. Cost of sales
- 10. Gross profit
- 11. Operating profit
- 12. Ordinary profit
- 13. Net profit before taxes
- 14. Net profit

Missing values other than for the above variables are left unaltered. Financial institutions such as banks are also excluded from the scope of our analysis. There are a total of 102 companies in the bankrupt enterprises class and 2062 companies in the continuing enterprises class.

3. Proposed method

In this research, we generate as many financial ratios as possible from the financial statements of each company in each fiscal year and express the set of ratios as a single grayscale image. To achieve this, each financial ratio is made to correspond to a specific pixel position (*x*, *y*-coordinates) and the brightness value of that pixel is set based on the value of the corresponding financial ratio. The images generated with this process are then used as input to train the CNN based on GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al., 2015) (a representative CNN proposed by Google). Details of the proposed method are described below.

3.1. Correspondence between financial ratios and pixels

CNNs perform particularly well in image recognition (Krizhevsky et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013; Szegedy et al., 2015). Hence, this research proposes that all the financial ratios generated from the balance sheet and profit-and-loss statement (per company) be represented in a single image. For this, each financial ratio needs to be made to correspond to a specific pixel. The following two methods are considered:

Random: Randomly determine the correspondence between the financial ratios and pixel positions,

Correlated: Determine the correspondence between financial ratios and pixel positions so that highly correlated financial ratios are placed as close as possible to one another.

The idea behind the 'Correlated' method is that natural images for object recognition generally have extremely large correlations between neighboring pixels. On the other hand, even the 'Random' method can take into account the relationship between distant pixels by making the CNN multi-layered. The evaluation experiment will compare the results between the two methods.

The details of our procedure are now described. Carrying out the following procedure up to step (4a) corresponds to the 'Random' method, whereas completion of all the steps corresponds to the 'Correlated' method. Note that although expressions such as 'image coordinates' or 'pixel positions' are more appropriate, they are simply referred to as 'pixels' in this paper unless there is a risk of confusion.

In the 'Correlated' method, we utilize the financial ratios generated from 2062 continuing companies' data within one year of June 2012 (the oldest data in the four periods; referred to hereinafter as the 'reference dataset') to find as typical correlation values as possible for sound Japanese companies. Thus, companies in the bankrupt enterprises class are not involved in the correlation calculation because the financial situation tends to drastically

change over a few years prior to bankruptcy, which cannot be regarded as typical.

Procedures:

- (1) For each of the financial items, if the fraction of companies having missing values out of all the 2062 companies in the reference dataset is greater than $p(0 \le p \le 1)$, then that financial item is excluded.
- (2) The remaining financial items are used to obtain financial ratios for each of the companies included in the reference dataset. Any two items are chosen from the balance sheet and profit-and-loss statement (including the case of selecting one item from both financial statements) and their ratio is computed. Since there is no fundamental difference in switching the numerator and the denominator, either one is considered. In this research, the financial item with the smaller average value in the reference dataset is set as the denominator. When the numerator or the denominator is a missing value, the corresponding financial ratio is also treated as a missing value. Besides the financial ratio whose denominator is zero in any company is excluded from explanatory variables.
- (3) The correlation coefficients are calculated for all the combinations of generated financial ratios. Enterprises with missing values for the financial ratios considered are not included in the computation. Therefore, when there are no common nonmissing enterprises in the related two financial ratios, it is not possible to obtain the correlation coefficient. In such a case, those financial ratios are excluded. Also, for financial ratios whose standard deviations are approximately zero, the correlation coefficient with other financial ratios cannot be obtained, and hence the financial ratio is excluded.
- (4) For the total number of financial ratios, N, an image of $\lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil \times \lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil$ size is considered, and the correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels is determined through the following Monte Carlo simulation. Here, $\lceil a \rceil$ denotes the smallest integer greater than a.
 - a) For the initial setting, each financial ratio is set to correspond to a pixel at random with no overlap. The energy (objective function) related to the correspondence between financial ratios and pixels is defined as

$$E = \sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{P}} |c[\mathcal{R}(i),\mathcal{R}(j)]| \ d(i,j), \tag{1}$$

$$d(i, j) = \{x(i) - x(j)\}^2 + \{y(i) - y(j)\}^2,$$
(2)

where i,j are the indices for pixels, and x(i), y(i) represent the x and y coordinates of pixel i, respectively. $\mathcal P$ represents the set of all combinations of pixels. $\mathcal R(i)$ represents the financial ratio that corresponds to pixel i and $c[\mathcal R_1,\mathcal R_2]$ represents the correlation coefficient between financial ratios $\mathcal R_1$ and $\mathcal R_2$.

- b) If the energy (1) can be reduced by switching the financial ratios which correspond to two randomly selected pixels, the interchange is implemented. When Eq. (1) does not decrease, nothing is done.
- c) Repeat step b). However, when there is no switching of financial ratios 3N times in a row, the simulation is terminated.

Applying this method to the reference dataset, the correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels can be obtained. Hereinafter, the notation $\mathcal{R}(i)$ is used to represent the financial ratios corresponding to a pixel i in the obtained correspondence.

3.2. Increasing the number of data points via weighted averages

CNN learning generally requires a large amount of training data. In this research, the number of entries belonging to the bankrupt enterprises class is small, at only 408 (102 companies, 4 periods). Hence the amount of data available for both classes is increased using the weighted averages approach as in the interpolation and extrapolation. The purpose of this synthetic data generation is similar to processing in image recognition where the sample sizes are increased by geometric transformation such as horizontal/vertical inversion and translation.

The specifics of the weighted average method are described below. A weighted average over two arbitrarily selected periods for each company and each financial item is computed via the equation:

$$wz_1 + (1-w)z_2,$$
 (3)

where z_1 and z_2 represent the values of the financial item for the two selected years and w is a weighting factor. A total of 15 values for the coefficient w,

are empirically defined. We do not use values w<-0.6 and w>1.6 because the accuracy of extrapolation generally becomes worse as the generated synthetic point goes farther away from the actual data point. When either z_1 or z_2 is missing, the weighted average is also regarded as a missing values. There are six ways of selecting two arbitrary periods; hence, this operation generates 6×15 synthetic data for one enterprise. Consequently, we have 94 data in total from one enterprise including the original values for the four year period.

3.3. Determination of pixel brightness from corresponding financial ratios

The correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels derived in Section 3.1 is used to describe the real data for the four periods, as well as the synthetic data obtained in Section 3.2, as a grayscale image. Firstly, the financial ratios are computed for each data using the same method as in step (2) in Section 3.1. Then, the brightness of pixel i is determined by

$$\frac{v[\mathcal{R}(i)] - m[\mathcal{R}(i)]}{\sigma[\mathcal{R}(i)]} \times 100 + 128,\tag{4}$$

where $v[\mathcal{R}(i)]$ represents the value of the financial ratio $\mathcal{R}(i)$ of the data concerned. In the above equation, $m[\mathcal{R}(i)]$ and $\sigma[\mathcal{R}(i)]$ represent the average and standard deviation, respectively, of the financial ratios $\mathcal{R}(i)$ of all 2062 data included in the reference dataset. However, companies which have missing values for particular financial ratios are not included in the calculation of averages or standard deviations for those ratios. When the value of Eq. (4) is greater than the upper limit for the brightness of 255 or less than the lower limit of 0, it is taken to be 255 or 0, respectively. If a financial ratio is greater than the average of the reference dataset, then the corresponding pixel is assigned a color closer to white, and if it is less than the average of the reference dataset, then it is assigned a color closer to black. When $v[\mathcal{R}(i)]$ is a missing value or the denominator of the ratio is zero, the brightness value of pixel i is set to 128.

3.4. Training dataset and test dataset

The way of assigning the obtained grayscale images to training and test datasets is described below. Although our basic approach follows the five-fold cross-validation, there are two points

to be noted. Firstly, since the number of bankrupt companies is much less than that of continuing companies, as in many conventional methods, we determine the size of learning data based on bankrupt enterprises class. As a result, most of the continuing enterprises are not used for learning and are included only in test datasets. Secondly, since the artificial data are considered unsuitable for evaluation in our case, images generated from the synthetic financial data are used only for learning.

The detailed procedures are as follows:

- From the 102 companies belonging to the bankrupt enterprises class, 20 companies are randomly selected. This process is repeated to generate a total of five subsets, with no company belonging to more than one subset. These subsets are referred to as groups A-E. The remaining two companies do not belong to any of the groups.
- From the 2062 companies belonging to the continuing enterprises class, 20 companies are randomly selected. This process is repeated to generate a total of five subsets, with no company belonging to more than one subset. The generated subsets are added to one of the above-mentioned groups A-E. The remaining 1962 companies do not belong to any of the groups.
- For both the bankrupt and continuing companies belonging to each group, images generated from the real data over the four periods and from the synthetic data obtained in Section 3.2 are used to form datasets A-E.
- Four of datasets A-E are selected as the training datasets. The test dataset consists of the images generated from the real financial data of the enterprises in the remaining dataset (20 companies in both classes) and from the enterprises not belonging to any of the groups (two bankrupt companies and 1962 continuing companies). Therefore, it should be noted that although images generated from the synthetic financial data are included in the training dataset, they are not included in the test dataset. There are five ways to select four of datasets A-E; hence, five pairs of training and test datasets are obtained in total

For both classes, 7520 images (80 companies \times (4 periods + 90 synthetic values)) are contained in one training dataset generated via the above process. On the other hand, each test dataset contains 88 images (22 companies \times 4 periods) for the bankrupt enterprises and 7928 images (1982 companies \times 4 periods) for the continuing enterprises. Note that the two bankrupt companies and 1962 continuing companies not belonging to any of the groups A-E are included in all test datasets.

3.5. Learning and evaluation based on GoogLeNet

The learning of the CNN parameters is performed by using the training datasets generated in the aforementioned way. The CNN in this research is based on GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al., 2015) which was awarded first place in the 2014 ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Competition (ILSVRC). Although CNNs had already been used before the current enthusiasm of deep learning in, for example, LeNet (Lecun, Bottou, Bengio, & Haffner, 1998), its effectiveness became widely known by the Krizhevsky et al. (2012) comprising five convolutional layers and three full-connected layers. Although Alexnet presented high recognition performance, its learning process is highly inefficient because the number of parameters is very large (about 60 million) due to the successive full-connected layers. GoogLeNet whose name was attached in honor of LeNet, comprises 27 layers from the input to the output layers, and this network configuration was proposed to save computational time while further improving the identification accuracy. Although the number of layers

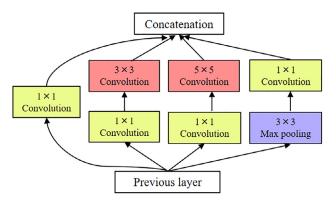


Fig. 1. Inception module. Inputs coming from the previous layer are copied and passed through the four paths. An output from each route is finally concatenated to proceed to the next layer.

was greatly increased, the number of parameters was fewer than Alexnet (about seven million).

The factors that made GoogLeNet successful were a convolution of the 1×1 -sized filter proposed by Lin et al. (2013) and the inception module. Assuming that the number of input channels from the previous layer is K, the 1×1 convolutional operation corresponds to a linear combination of K pixel values having the identical coordinates, and dimension reduction can be achieved by setting the number of output channels smaller than K. GoogLeNet greatly reduces the number of parameters by frequently using the 1×1 convolutional operation.

As shown in Fig. 1, the inception module copies the input coming from the previous layer, passes them through the four paths, concatenates the four consequent outputs, and finally send them to the next layer. For each path, the size of the filter is fixed, and convolution of multiple filters having different coefficient values is performed in parallel. Those outputs are represented as a multichannel image. Thus, the number of parameters is expressed as filter size \times the number of input channels \times the number of output channels. Although the equivalent task could be conducted without branching the path by using as many 5×5 -sized filters as the sum of the output channels for the four paths, the reduction of the number of parameters are achieved by preparing multiple routes and setting smaller-sized filters. The leftmost route of the inception module consisting of only 1×1 convolution, directly transfers the information from the previous layer to the next layer, which can be regarded as the connection bypassing the distant layers. The effectiveness of the by-path in CNNs then attracted the attention of researchers (He, Zhang, Ren, & Sun, 2016). While stacking the inception modules, GoogLeNet has only one full-connected layer as the output layer after the image size is sufficiently reduced, which significantly reduces computational cost.

Table 1 shows five kinds of network structures in this research. The network with 27 layers is the original GoogLeNet except that the number of output channels for each layer is roughly divided into quarters of the original configuration to reduce the computational load. Furthermore, we also evaluate the performance of smaller networks with 23, 17, 11, and 6 layers by deleting some constituents of the original network. The number of learning epochs and the mini-batch size are empirically set as 100 and 32, respectively.

The trained network is used to evaluate the identification rate of the test data. By repeating the experiments for five pairs of training and test datasets, the effectiveness of the proposed method is verified based on the average identification performance.

Table 1

Network configurations. The layer types in the table are ordered from the input layer on the uppermost row (Convolution) to the output layer on the bottom (Full connection). The terms in parentheses after 'Inception' are identifiers of the inception modules used in the original paper (Szegedy et al., 2015). In this research, we attempt to evaluate several types of configurations by removing some layers from the original GoogLeNet. Here, • indicates that the layer was not included in the CNN.

	(The total number of layers)										
Layer type	The number of outputs/Patch size/Stride										
	(27)	(23)	(17)	(11)	(6)						
Convolution	16/7/3	16/7/3	16/7/3	16/7/3	16/7/3						
Max pooling	16/3/2	16/3/2	16/3/2	16/3/2	16/3/2						
Convolution	16/1/1	16/1/1	16/1/1	16/1/1	16/1/1						
Convolution	48/3/1	48/3/1	48/3/1	48/3/1	48/3/1						
Max pooling	48/3/2	48/3/2	48/3/2	48/3/2	•						
Inception (3a)	64/*/*	64/*/*	•	64/*/*	•						
Inception (3b)	120/*/*	120/*/*	•	120/*/*	•						
Max pooling	120/3/2	120/3/2	•	•	•						
Inception (4a)	128/*/*	128/*/*	128/*/*	•	•						
Inception (4b)	128/*/*	•	128/*/*	•	•						
Inception (4c)	128/*/*	•	128/*/*	•	•						
Inception (4d)	132/*/*	132/*/*	132/*/*	•	•						
Inception (4e)	208/*/*	208/*/*	208/*/*	•	•						
Max pooling	208/3/2	208/3/2	•	•	•						
Inception (5a)	208/*/*	208/*/*	•	•	•						
Inception (5b)	256/*/*	256/*/*	•	•	•						
Average pooling	256/5/1	256/5/1	208/21/1	120/21/1	48/43/1						
Full connection (40% dropout)	2/-/-	2/-/-	2/-/-	2/-/-	2/-/-						

§ The activation function in each convolution layer is a rectified linear function and the activation functions in the fully connected output layers are softmax functions. *) In the inception module, the input goes to all of the four paths – 1) 1×1 convolution, 2) 1×1 convolution and 3×3 convolution, 3) 1×1 convolution and 5×5 convolution, 4) 3×3 max pooling and 1×1 convolution – and outputs from these paths are concatenated as a multi-channel image after the operation. The values of the stride are 1 for all inception modules. Note that the inception module is counted as two layers.

4. Evaluation experiments and discussion

4.1. Imaging of financial ratios

The results of expressing the financial ratios as grayscale images are now described. Setting values of the parameter p between 0 to 1 in increments of 0.1, we selected p = 0.8, which retained the greatest number of financial ratios, N = 534, in step (4) of Section 3.1. Table 2 shows the 133 financial items in balance sheets and profit-and-loss statements which remained after step (1) of Section 3.1. Hence, an image of size 24×24 pixels is generated. The energy for a random initial placement in step (4a) of Section 3.1 was $E = 2.02 \times 10^6$ and the quasi-minimal energy after step (4c) was $E = 6.82 \times 10^5$. Fig. 2 shows the obtained correspondence between financial ratios and pixels under the 'Correlated' method, in which the digits represent the numbers attached to financial items in Table 2 and the upper and lower rows in each cell represent the numerator and the denominator of financial ratios, respectively. The reason why the number of generated financial ratios is significantly small relative to the number of financial items is mainly because ratios whose denominators are zero for a certain company are excluded in step (2) of Section 3.1.

Fig. 3 shows examples of the generated images which are enlarged to a size of 256×256 pixels by using the nearest neighbor method so that they are suitable as inputs for GoogLeNet. Each subregion of 10×10 pixels corresponds to a specific financial ratio. When a financial ratio has the same value as the average over the 2062 companies in the reference dataset, the brightness value of its corresponding region is 128. Regions whose brightness values are close to white indicate that the value of the corresponding

Table 2 Financial items in our study under the parameter p = 0.8 . Of the total of 263 financial items, those with a missing rate of p = 0.8 or more have been excluded, leaving 133 items in this list.

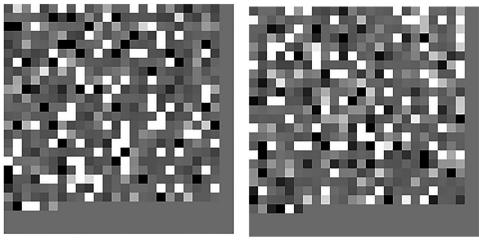
	Balance si	heet (ass	ets section)
1	Current assets	24	Mechanical equipment and vehicles
2	Cash and cash equivalents	25	Tools, instruments and fixtures
	Notes and accounts receivable	26	Other depreciable tangible fixed assets
	Notes receivable	27	Construction in progress
	Accounts receivable	28	Land and other non-depreciable tangible fixed assets
	Securities	29	Intangible assets
	Inventory	30	Software
3	Products	31	Goodwill
) 10	Real estate for sale	32 33	Other intangible assets Investment and other fixed assets
11	Semi-finished products or work in process Work in process	33 34	Investment securities, Affiliate stock, Affiliate investments
12	Raw materials	35	Investment securities
13	Prepaid expenses	36	Affiliate stock
14	Other accounts receivable	30 37	Affiliate investments
15	Short-term loans receivable	38	Long-term loan receivable
16	Short-term loans not for employees	39	Bankruptcy claim, rehabilitation claim
17	Deferred tax asset in current assets	40	Long-term prepaid expenses
18	Other current assets	41	Assets related to retirement benefits
9	Allowance for doubtful accounts in current assets	42	Guarantee deposit
20	Fixed assets	43	Deferred tax assets in fixed assets
21	Tangible fixed assets	44	Other fixed assets
22	Depreciable tangible fixed assets	45	Allowance for doubtful accounts in fixed assets
23	Buildings and structures	46	Total assets
			ility section)
			· ,
17	Current liabilities	66	Other short-term allowance
48	Notes and accounts payable	67	Other current liabilities
49 50	Notes payable Accounts payable	68	Fixed liability
50 51	1 3	69 70	Long-term debt, corporate bonds, convertible bonds
51 52	Short-term loan and bond payable Total debt repayment within one year	70 71	Corporate bonds
53	Short-term borrowings	71 72	Corporate bonds Convertible bonds
54	Commercial Paper	73	Long-term debt
55	Long-term debt repayment within one year	73 74	Long-term accrued accounts
56	Bond debt, convertible bonds within one year	7 4 75	Total allowance
50 57	Bond debt within one year	76	Liabilities related to retirement benefits
58	Accrued accounts and expenses	77	Reserve for retirement benefits for officers
59	Accrued accounts	78	Other long-term allowance
60	Accrued expenses	79	Deferred tax liabilities in fixed liabilities
61	Accrued income tax	80	Deferred tax liability on revaluation
62	Accrued consumption tax	81	Asset retirement obligation
63	Advance payments received	82	Other fixed liabilities
64	Deposit received	83	Total liabilities
65	Accrued bonuses		
	Balance sl	heet (equ	ity section)
34	Shareholders' equity	90	Valuation difference on available-for-sale securities
35	Capital stock	91	Land valuation difference
86	Capital surplus	92	Foreign currency translation adjustment account
87	Retained earnings	93	Non-controlling shareholders' equity
88	Treasury stock	94	Capital attributable to parent company shareholders
89	Valuation, translation adjustments and others	95	Net assets
	Profit-a	nd-Loss s	statement
96	Sales volume	115	Assets disposal gains
97	Cost of sales	116	Gain on disposal of tangible fixed assets
98	Operating expenses	117	Gain on disposal of real estate
99	Gross profit	118	Other extraordinary income
100	Selling and general administrative expenses	119	Extraordinary expenses
101	Operating profit	120	Reorganization related loss
102	Non-operating income	121	Impairment loss
	Interest income and dividends	122	Loss on valuation of securities
	Interest income	123	Assets disposal loss
		124	Loss on disposal of tangible fixed assets
104	Dividend income		Loss on disposal of real estate
104 105		125	2000 oil disposal of real estate
104 105 106	Dividend income	125 126	Other extraordinary loss
104 105 106 107	Dividend income Exchange gain		
104 105 106 107 108	Dividend income Exchange gain Equity method investment profit	126	Other extraordinary loss
104 105 106 107 108 109	Dividend income Exchange gain Equity method investment profit Other non-operating income	126 127	Other extraordinary loss Net profit before taxes
104 105 106 107 108 109	Dividend income Exchange gain Equity method investment profit Other non-operating income Non-operating expenses	126 127 128	Other extraordinary loss Net profit before taxes Income taxes etc.
104 105 106 107 108 109 110	Dividend income Exchange gain Equity method investment profit Other non-operating income Non-operating expenses Interest expense	126 127 128 129	Other extraordinary loss Net profit before taxes Income taxes etc. Income tax, inhabitant tax, total business tax
103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113	Dividend income Exchange gain Equity method investment profit Other non-operating income Non-operating expenses Interest expense Other non-operating expenses	126 127 128 129 130	Other extraordinary loss Net profit before taxes Income taxes etc. Income tax, inhabitant tax, total business tax Income tax adjustments

-	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
0	64	31	130	72	62	114	123	37	126	60	115	116	13	56	16	60	25	78	75	76	16	15	31	93
	125	102	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	109	117	117	117	117	117	117	125	125	129	128
1	64	41	107	24	124	111	119	92	113	91	121	38	30	56	15	79	93	29	28	44	108	42	48	27
	117	125 78	125	125 76	125 79	125	125 12	125	125	125 10	125 80	125 118	125	117 117	90	117	117 33	117 128	117 23	117 99	117	7	50 8	128 9
2	54 117	125	45 125	125	125	65 125	125	43 125	27 125	125	125	125	57 117	125	117	127 117	33 117	117	23 117	99 117	100 117	117	117	102
	39	36	77	109	75	23	86	128	29	11	89	106	42	58	35	101	112	20	98	65	96	103	51	89
3	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
	120	63	132	22	21	17	85	105	108	7	32	31	66	82	61	131	129	17	46	102	21	18	53	66
4	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
5	19	71	44	93	110	28	101	94	95	102	8	88	81	34	87	133	43	1	22	83	97	67	52	38
5	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
6	82	25	68	90	20	129	127	96	84	99	100	104	14	31	4	5	84	95	47	68	69	73	55	92
O	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
7	74	70	55	133	131	5	112	3	97	98	103	4	117	30	49	2	94	3	119	85	111	27	70	26
•	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	116	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
8	26	56	52	69	46	1	61	34	48	87	49	58	6	63	105	50	32	48	11	110	86	109	121	70
	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	127
9	24	54	51	83	73	2	47 1.25	33	50	70	122	96	59	59	80	88	36	24	12	10	71	113	70	71
	102 27	125 54	125 57	125 53	125 71	125 46	125 18	125 35	125 67	109 96	125 98	97 57	125	70	70	117 117	91	117 69	70	117 71	7	99	101 36	127 8
10	102	130	125	125	109	20	125	125	125	47	97	109	5 5	133	131	117	117	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
	79	8	74	51	69	52	73	98	98	96	6	6	71	9	71	9	69	73	33	20	100	48	3	8
11	102	102	117	2	2	85	2	1	47	98	125	129	131	109	133	117	127	112	112	112	112	112	112	101
	87	1	100	28	83	83	97	96	97	95	96	1	46	69	71	73	28	68	97	22	98	34	5	87
12	2	2	2	2	2	20	1	1	47	47	83	47	83	101	101	127	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
10	96	5	99	46	21	68	96	54	98	97	94	84	68	14	73	52	83	21	96	46	94	95	50	35
13	2	2	2	2	2	2	20	108	83	83	47	47	33	125	101	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
14	95	94	3	7	97	22	23	34	83	21	83	46	9	67	51	51	47	23	7	24	85	84	86	2
14	2	2	2	2	20	2	2	85	47	47	1	47	125	112	131	112	112	112	131	112	112	112	112	112
15	48	98	97	47	20	87	51	33	20	20	69	46	28	40	53	51	53	23	6	76	50	1	85	101
	2	2	2	2	2	85	85	85	1	47	33	97	102	125	133	133	112	131	131	131	131	112	131	131
16	36	5	3	23	84	95	49	98	46	46	22	46	6	53	52	52	47	21	22	1	5	2	94	86
	129	85	85	85	85	85	108	20	1	96	100	98	128	131	131	133	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131
17	84 2	100 85	99 85	22 85	47 85	20 85	54	97 95	21 99	96 05	69	82	71	67	69	55 133	83	28	12	75 121	35	3	34	84
	33	7	1	83	21	94	103 22	20	99	95 1	129	129 73	129 20	131 95	133 69	18	131 68	131 20	131 97	131 46	131 48	131 87	131 95	131 58
18	2	85	85	85	85	85	99	99	94	94	95	129	95	84	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	133
	34	68	46	48	28	46	83	98	98	96	46	27	21	20	73	73	8	24	96	98	33	58	24	48
19	2	85	85	85	85	99	99	95	94	94	94	129		87			131		131				101	101
0.0	2	98	96	1	84	95	68	47	83	83	46	1	94	91	95	94	55	47	112	99	100	127	98	36
20	85	85	85	99	99	94	99	99	94	95	95	84	84	108	87	87	131	87	131	131	131	131	87	101
0.1	36	97	73	69	95	80	87	70	97	20	96	20	98	46	83	84	83	1	46	96	29	36	50	97
21	102	85	85	85	99	108	99	129	84	94	84	84	84	84	84	87	87	87	87	87		131	101	87
22	86	98	97	96	93	94																		
22	85	99	99	99	129	99																		
23																								
20																								

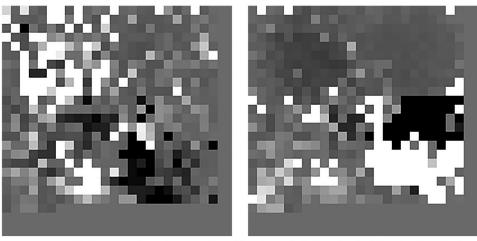
Fig. 2. Correspondence between financial ratios and pixels under the 'Correlated' method. The digits represent the numbers attached to financial items in Table 2, and the upper and lower rows in each cell represent the numerator and the denominator of financial ratios, respectively. The ones shown in red correspond to representative profitability indicators such as (x, y) = (19, 18) :ROA, (23,17):ROE, (18,19):Sales-profit ratio, (9,16):Total asset turnover, (3,22):Gross profit ratio, and representative safety indicators such as (11,12):Current ratio, (11,21):Fixed ratio, (10,20):Capital-to-asset ratio, although the numerator and denominator are reversed from the original definition

financial ratio is greater than the average, and conversely darker regions indicate that the value of the corresponding financial ratio is less than the average. Fig. 3(a) shows the case when the correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels is determined at random and Fig. 3(b) shows the case when financial ratios with

large absolute correlation coefficients are placed closer together. The two images in the left column are of the same company belonging to the bankrupt enterprises class. Similarly, the two images in the right column are of a company belonging to the continuing



(a) Correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels under the 'Random' method



(b) Correspondence between financial ratios and pixels under the 'Correlated' method

Fig. 3. Examples of expressing financial ratios as an image: The left and right columns are for a single bankrupt enterprise and a single continuing enterprise, respectively. The image size has been enlarged to 256×256 pixels and each financial ratio corresponds to a subregion of 10×10 pixels. The size of the input images in GoogLeNet is fixed at 256×256 pixels, and on the bottom and right-hand edges of the images there are regions with a brightness value of 128 not corresponding to any specific financial ratios.

enterprises class. Comparing these images, we can see results of arranging correlated financial ratios closer together.

4.2. Identification performance

Table 3 shows the identification rates defined as correct estimation rates for each test dataset in the five patterns described in Section 3.4. Table 3(a) shows the case when the correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels is determined at random and Table 3(b) shows the case when the correlated financial ratios are placed closer together. The identification rates are shown separately depending on the true classes.

It can be seen that the identification results are in most cases biased toward the continuing enterprises class. This is thought to be because the continuing companies are diverse in their financial conditions and so occupy a large portion of the feature space. It is also thought that some of the continuing companies are close to bankruptcy, which might lead to the identification boundaries moving to reduce the volume of the bankrupt enterprises class in the feature space.

To assess the identification performance with a single criterion, *F*-measures are derived by taking the bankrupt enterprises as positive instances and continuing enterprises as negative instances.

This reflects the fact that the aim of this research can be regarded as detecting bankrupt companies from other enterprises. The results are depicted in Fig. 4. The reason for the low F-measures is that most of the data in the test set belong to the continuing enterprises class and thus the precision tends to be low. The result suggests that allocating neighboring pixel positions to highly correlated financial ratios improves the identification performance. However, even a random correspondence can take into account the relationships between distant pixels by making the CNN multilayered. As a result, it seems that the performance difference between the two methods could be reduced to around 10% when the number of layers is 11 or more. Also, as in many problems such as image recognition, we can see that the performance improves as the number of layers increases.

We investigate the identification performance for each reason of delisting that can be deemed bankruptcy. Breakdown of the delisting reasons for our 102 bankrupt companies is 1) 72.55% of bankruptcy/rehabilitation/reorganization procedures, 2) 1.96% of excessive debt, 3) 1.96% of suspension of bank transactions, and 4) 23.53% of termination of business activities. On the other hand, the proportion of each delisting reason for 62 misidentified cases over the five test datasets with the 23 layers and 'Correlated' method is 1) 62.9% of bankruptcy/rehabilitation/reorganization procedures,

Table 3 Identification rates (correct estimation rates) for each class with respect to the number of layers in the network configurations. The overall trend is that 1) the identification rate for the continuing enterprises class is higher, and 2) the identification rate improves as the number of layers is increased.

(a) Correspondence between fir	nancial ratios a	nd pixels	for the 'F	Random' r	nethod					
Dataset not used for learning	True class	Total number of layers								
		6	11	17	23	27				
Dataset A	Bankrupt	0.830	0.852	0.852	0.830	0.773				
	Continuing	0.807	0.885	0.914	0.925	0.92				
Dataset B	Bankrupt	0.784	0.920	0.898	0.920	0.90				
	Continuing	0.862	0.837	0.891	0.899	0.88				
Dataset C	Bankrupt	0.727	0.909	0.920	0.830	0.87				
	Continuing	0.839	0.872	0.897	0.905	0.90				
Dataset D	Bankrupt	0.682	0.852	0.909	0.830	0.87				
	Continuing	0.834	0.919	0.875	0.907	0.89				
Dataset E	Bankrupt	0.830	0.920	0.909	0.898	0.89				
	Continuing	0.838	0.897	0.868	0.909	0.89				
Average	Bankrupt	0.770	0.891	0.898	0.861	0.86				
	Continuing	0.836	0.882	0.889	0.909	0.90				
(b) Correspondence between fi	nancial ratios a	nd pixels	for the '0	Correlated	' method					
Dataset not used for learning	True class	Total nu	Total number of layers							
		6	11	17	23	27				
Dataset A	Bankrupt	0.727	0.818	0.795	0.830	0.79				
	Continuing	0.922	0.921	0.927	0.929	0.95				
Dataset B	Bankrupt	0.830	0.864	0.886	0.932	0.90				
	Continuing	0.882	0.879	0.900	0.884	0.90				
Dataset C	Bankrupt	0.761	0.727	0.727	0.761	0.86				

Continuing

Continuing

Continuing

Continuing

Bankrupt

Bankrupt

Bankrupt

0.899

0.716

0.897

0.818

0.916

0.770

0.903

0.917

0.886

0.923

0.864

0.868

0.832

0.902

0.906

0.898

0.930

0.886

0.894

0.839

0.911

0.925

0.875

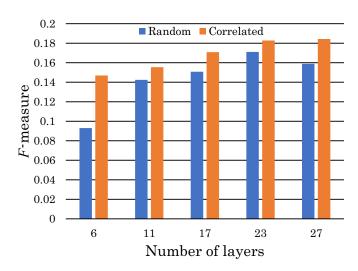
0.949

0.898

0.895

0.859

0.916



Dataset D

Dataset E

Average

Fig. 4. F-measures with respect to the number of layers. For all cases, the correspondences between financial ratios and pixel positions generated by the 'Correlated' method give us more favorable results than those by the 'Random' method.

2) 1.61% of excessive debt, 3) 3.23% of suspension of bank transactions, and 4) 32.26% of termination of business activities. The second and third reasons are excluded from consideration because their corresponding data are relatively uncommon. For the remaining two reasons, statistical hypothesis testing has been conducted by setting the null hypothesis that the ratio of the delisting reasons to the total number of misclassified test data is the same as the population ratio. The obtained *p*-values are 0.0444

for bankruptcy/rehabilitation/reorganization procedures and 0.0526 for termination of business activities, which implies that our obtained model can be slightly affected by considering the different four delisting reasons as bankruptcy, and there is a possibility of improving identification performance by eliminating companies that were delisted due to termination of business activities from datasets.

0.930

0.875

0.925

0.909

0.868

0.870

0.916

4.3. Influence of the number of training data points

As mentioned above, there are some differences between the identification rates for bankrupt and continuing enterprises. In order to reduce this imbalance, we attempt to reduce the size of the training dataset for the continuing enterprises class. From this section onward, only the 'Correlated' method for determining the correspondence between financial ratios and pixels is considered, along with a network consisting of 23 layers.

The number of continuing companies included in groups A-E is reduced to 15 or 10. Thus, the size of the continuing enterprises class in each training dataset becomes 15 companies \times 4 sets \times (4 periods + 90 synthetic values) or 10 companies \times 4 sets \times (4 periods + 90 synthetic values). Companies removed from the training dataset are added to the test dataset. The results with these new datasets are shown in Table 4. As the number of continuing companies is reduced, the identification performance of bankrupt enterprises rises, as expected, and that for continuing enterprises decreases. The differences between the average identification rates are smallest when 15 continuing companies are included in groups A-E.

The *F*-measures are obtained in the same way as before, and are 0.138 for the 15-company case and 0.096 for the 10-company

Table 4Identification rates when the continuing enterprises included in groups A-E are reduced to 15 and 10 companies. These results are obtained under the 'Correlated' method for determining the correspondence between the financial ratios and pixels, and using 23 layers for the network configuration. The number of training data points for bankrupt enterprises class remains at 7520 but that of continuing enterprises class decreases to 5640 and 3760 for 15 and 10 continuing companies in each group, respectively.

Dataset not used for learning	True class	Number of training data points for the continuing class						
		5640	3760					
Dataset A	Bankrupt	0.784	0.886					
	Continuing	0.915	0.837					
Dataset B	Bankrupt	0.920	0.955					
	Continuing	0.853	0.789					
Dataset C	Bankrupt	0.875	0.898					
	Continuing	0.870	0.817					
Dataset D	Bankrupt	0.852	0.943					
	Continuing	0.909	0.801					
Dataset E	Bankrupt	0.920	0.909					
	Continuing	0.863	0.822					
Average	Bankrupt	0.870	0.918					
	Continuing	0.882	0.813					

Table 5 Identification rates when each training dataset contains only real data in regard to the continuing enterprises class. These results are obtained under the 'Correlated' method for determining the correspondence between financial ratios and pixels and using the 23 layers for the network configuration. The number of training data points for the bankrupt enterprises class remains at 7520 (including both real and synthetic data) but that of the continuing enterprises class is only 600 (only real data).

Dataset not used for learning	True class	Number of training data points for the continuing class							
		600							
Dataset A	Bankrupt	0.841							
	Continuing	0.932							
Dataset B	Bankrupt	0.943							
	Continuing	0.879							
Dataset C	Bankrupt	0.920							
	Continuing	0.918							
Dataset D	Bankrupt	0.841							
	Continuing	0.929							
Dataset E	Bankrupt	0.898							
	Continuing	0.910							
Average	Bankrupt	0.889							
-	Continuing	0.914							

case. This indicates that the highest performance with the maximum *F*-measure is achieved when the numbers of data points in the two classes are equal. However, from a practical point of view, it may be preferable to ensure the identification rate for the bankrupt enterprises class (i.e., recall when detecting companies that will become bankrupt) is above a certain level. There is no general method for determining the optimal size of the training dataset and it is thought that analysts should adaptively determine the size according to the problem setting and the required performance level.

4.4. Influence of synthetic financial data generated by the weighted average

It is possible to use other approaches to reduce the size of the training dataset for the continuing enterprises class. The reason for limiting the number of continuing companies in each of groups A-E to 20 was to make the number equal to the number of bankrupt companies. However, much data on continuing companies are available and thus the real data can be used without having to rely on the weighted average operation to increase the number of training data points.

Therefore, 150 continuing companies are randomly selected for each of groups A-E, and only four periods' real data from these companies are incorporated in the datasets A-E, whereby the data of bankrupt companies are unaltered (including both real and synthetic data). Note that the training data belonging to the contin-

uing enterprises class do not include the synthetic data. The test datasets are also changed so that the continuing companies to be learned are not included.

Table 5 shows the results of experiments based on these modified datasets. The identification rates for continuing companies are approximately the same as in Table 3 but those for bankrupt companies are significantly improved. The *F*-measure is also improved at 0.189. Compared to the 7520 training data points for the bankrupt enterprises class, only 600 training data points are utilized for the continuing enterprises class, which implies that the simple weighted average operation does not generate inherently different data and it does not have the same effect as increasing the number of real data points.

4.5. Comparison of the identification performance with other methods

The proposed method is compared with other representative machine learning methods. Here, comparisons are made with the algorithms for 1) classification and regression trees (CART), 2) linear discriminant analysis (LDA), 3) support vector machine (SVM), 4) multi-layer perceptrons (MLP), and 5) AdaBoost, using our financial ratios as feature vectors for our five training and test datasets. However, due to computational impossibility for missing values, financial ratios with missing values are excluded in advance. An overview of the use of these algorithms for bankruptcy prediction is given below.

CART This is a representative algorithm for decision trees. The financial ratio that minimizes the Gini coefficient is selected for determining each new partition. The maximum depth of a tree is set to 30. However, once there is only data belonging to a single class in a node, no further divisions can be made from there.

LDA Financial ratios that contribute more to the decrease in the Gini coefficient for the aforementioned CART algorithm are sequentially added to the feature vectors. Discriminant functions are repeatedly derived as financial ratios are sequentially added. A method of carrying out discriminant analysis using variables selected based on a decision tree was proposed by Shirata (1998) in the context of bankruptcy prediction. However, Shirata also used her knowledge of accounting and finance as well as knowledge gained from preceding research.

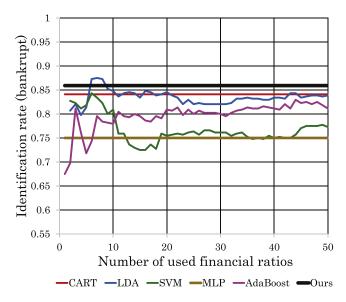
SVM As with LDA, the financial ratios with the greatest contribution to the decrease in the Gini coefficient are sequentially applied in the discrimination with the Gaussian kernel. Parameters for adjusting the balance between the soft margin and the margin maximization and parameters for the variance in the Gaussian kernel are optimized via a grid search so that the maximum average identification rate for the test datasets can be obtained.

MLP Unlike CNNs, MLPs consist of only fully connected layers. The optimal parameters for the number of hidden layers (between 2 to 6), the mini-batch size, and the learning coefficients are searched for so that the maximum average identification rate for the test datasets can be obtained. Our method outperforming the MLP approach would show the validity of the utilization of the CNN.

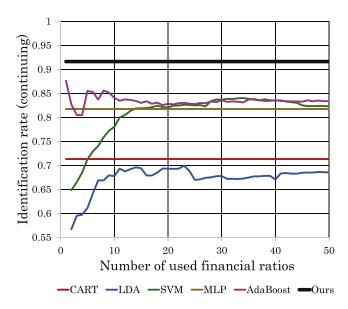
AdaBoost Regarding each of the financial ratios as a weak classifier with a simple threshold, the best weak classifier and the optimal value of its threshold are obtained at each boosting step. This is equivalent to setting a decision tree of depth 1, i.e., a decision stump, as the base-classifier of AdaBoost. The weights of the training data misidentified by the extracted weak classifier are increased at the next step. The weighted majority voting of the sequentially selected weak classifiers becomes the final (strong) classifier to carry out the identification. This method was proposed by Takata et al. (2015) and was then extended to the utilization of the RealAdaBoost (Hosaka & Takata, 2016) and to early bankruptcy predictions (Takata, Hosaka, & Ohnuma, 2017).

Average identification rates obtained via the methods described above and with our proposed method (in the case of the 'Correlated' method and using 23 layers) are shown in Fig. 5. All methods use the same dataset as described earlier. The colors of the lines represent the different methods, and Fig. 5(a) and (b) exhibit the average identification rate over the five test datasets for bankrupt enterprises and for continuing enterprises, respectively. The horizontal axis represents the number of financial ratios incorporated into the discriminant function through the sequential feature selection. However, CART, MLP and our proposed method do not involve feature selections and so a constant value is presented regardless of the value on the horizontal axis. Although the horizontal axis is shown up to a value of 50, there are no large fluctuations in the identification rate beyond this.

The proposed method shows a notably higher identification performance for continuing enterprises compared to the other methods. The identification rates of the LDA method are higher than that of our proposed method for bankrupt enterprises in some regions but this is because the identification by LDA is greatly biased toward the bankrupt enterprises class. To compare two kinds of identification rates simultaneously, an ROC (Receiver



(a) Identification rate for the bankrupt enterprises class with respect to the number of financial ratios incorporated in the discriminant function.



(b) Identification rate for the continuing enterprises class with respect to the number of financial ratios incorporated in the discriminant function.

Fig. 5. Comparison experiments. Average identification rates ((a): for bankrupt enterprises, (b): for continuing enterprises) by CART, LDA, SVM, MLP, and AdaBoost as well as by our proposed method are illustrated. The horizontal axis represents the number of financial ratios incorporated into the discriminant function and the vertical axis represents the average identification rate over the five test datasets. It can be observed that our proposed method outperforms the other machine learning algorithms.

Operating Characteristic) curve is obtained by varying the threshold for the predictive probability or the discriminant function finally derived with these methods. The ROC curves, when the number of used financial ratios is set to 50, are depicted in Fig. 6, including the curve of Altman's Z''-score (Altman, Danovi, & Falini, 2013; Altman & Hotchkiss, 2006) which will be described immediately below. The black circle on the curve of the proposed method corresponds to the result shown in Table 3(b), which corresponds to the simplest case of classifying a target company to the class with the higher predictive probability. Considering that the curve

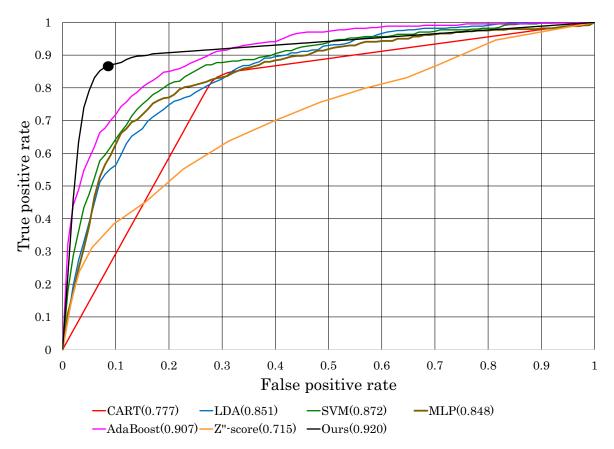


Fig. 6. ROC curve for comparison with traditional methods. Regarding the bankruptcy as a positive instance, true positive rates are illustrated with respect to the false positive rates. These evaluations can be conducted by changing the threshold for predicted bankrupt probabilities (LDA, MLP, and ours) or for discriminant functions (SVM, AdaBoost, and the Z'-score). Note that since it is generally difficult to generate an ROC curve for CART, two trivial points located in both corners are connected with the point actually realized in the experiment. The numbers in the brackets in the legend represent the values of AUC (Area Under Curve). It can be easily confirmed that our proposed method outperforms the other conventional methods.

passing through the upper left (a region of high true positive rate and low false positive rate) is desirable, the superiority of the proposed method to conventional ones is obvious although there are some relatively inferior areas in the upper right region.

Regarding the performance of AdaBoost, it can be said that the identification rates for both classes are reasonably high and well balanced particularly after about 10 iterations. This implies that favorable performance can be obtained simply by setting the number of iterations at more than a certain value. Considering the fact that this AdaBoost operation does not have other parameters to tune, thanks to using a highly simple decision stump as base weak classifiers, this method is extremely easy to implement in practical situations.

It is also significant to compare our results with the traditional financial indicator of bankruptcy prediction. Here, we consider Altman's Z''-score (Altman et al., 2013; Altman & Hotchkiss, 2006) which is described as

$$Z'' = 6.56X_1 + 3.26X_2 + 6.72X_3 + 1.05X_4$$

 X_1 : Working capital / Total assets,

 X_2 : Retained earnings / Total assets,

 X_3 : Earnings before interest and tax / Total assets,

 X_4 : Book value equity / Total liabilities. (5)

When the obtained score is less than the threshold which should be determined according to the target sectors or countries, the firm is recognized as the default situation. For our 102 bankrupt enterprises and 2062 continuing enterprises (four years data per company), we set various values of the threshold to generate the ROC curve, which is also depicted in Fig. 6 with other conventional methods. We can see that the Z''-score is inferior not only to our proposed method but also to other methods, which implies that the four indicators used in Z''-score are not necessarily effective for Japanese bankruptcy prediction. This inference is also supported by the fact that LDA in our experiments using financial ratios adaptively chosen by the CART-based variable selection actually improves the performance.

5. Conclusions

We have proposed a method for applying a CNN to bankruptcy prediction. In our method, a set of financial ratios are represented as a grayscale image where each financial ratio corresponds to a fixed pixel position, and the generated images are used as training data for a CNN based on GoogLeNet. A numerical evaluation revealed that allocating neighboring pixel positions to highly correlated financial ratios is more appropriate for our purpose than placing them at random. Our analysis also indicated that the proposed method outperforms representative conventional methods using CART, LDA, SVM, MLP, AdaBoost and Altman's Z''-score. Furthermore, the proposed method of conversion from financial ratios to an image has the potential to be applied to general numerical data in a variety of contexts other than bankruptcy prediction.

However, unlike some conventional methods, it is hard to know from the proposed method which of the financial ratios has a stronger impact on bankruptcy prediction. Therefore, we have to admit that the proposed method is not suitable for the purpose of investigating the causes of bankruptcy.

There are some remaining unresolved issues. For example, as mentioned in Section 4.3, the impact of using different proportions of real and synthetic data for each class should be investigated in more detail. The network structure used in this research was based on GoogLeNet but this was not selected through in-depth theoretical consideration. It is necessary to verify whether other network configurations are more effective for the problem of bankruptcy prediction. Regarding the imaging of financial ratios, there is also a need to verify whether the identification performance could be improved by criteria other than the correlation coefficient used in this study.

Acknowledgement

This research was supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science KAKENHI grant number 15K21395.

References

- Aggarwal, S., & Aggarwal, S. (2016). Deep investment in financial markets using deep learning models. *International Journal of Computer Applications*, 162, 403–413.
- Alfalo, E., García, N., Gámez, M., & Elizondo, D. (2008). Bankruptcy forecasting: An empirical comparison of adaboost and neural networks. *Decision Support Systems*, 45(1), 110–122.
- Altman, E. I. (1968). Financial ratios, discriminant analysis and the prediction of corporate bankruptcy. *The Journal of Finance*, 23(4), 589–609.
- Altman, E. I., Danovi, A., & Falini, A. (2013). Z-score models' application to Italian companies subject to extraordinary administration. *Journal of Applied Finance*, 23(1), 1–10.
- Altman, E. I., & Hotchkiss, E. (2006). Corporate financial distress and bankruptcy (3rd). Wiley.
- Back, B., Laitinen, T., & Sere, K. (1996). Neural networks and genetic algorithms for bankruptcy predictions. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 11(4), 407–413.
- Bao, W., Yue, J., & Rao, Y. (2017). A deep learning framework for financial time series using stacked autoencoders and long-short term memory. *PLoS One*, 12(7).
- Brédart, X. (2014). Bankruptcy prediction model using neural networks. Accounting and Finance Research, 3(2), 124–128.
- Bryant, S. M. (1998). A case-based reasoning approach to bankruptcy prediction modeling. *Intelligent Systems in Accounting, Finance and Management*, 6(3), 195–214.
- Chong, E., Han, C., & Park, F. C. (2017). Deep learning networks for stock market analysis and prediction: Methodology, data representations, and case studies. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 83, 187–205.
- Dahl, G. E., Yu, D., Deng, L., & Acero, A. (2012). Context-dependent pre-trained deep neural networks for large-vocabulary speech recognition. *IEEE Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 20(1), 30–42.
- Ding, X., Zhang, Y., Liu, T., & Duan, J. (2015). Deep learning for event-driven stock prediction. In *Proceedings of the 24th international joint conference on artificial intelligence* (pp. 2327–2333).
- Gordini, N. (2014). A genetic algorithm approach for smes bankruptcy prediction: Empirical evidence from italy. Expert Systems with Applications, 41(14), 6433–6445.
- Graves, A., Mohamed, A., & Hinton, G. (2013). Speech recognition with deep recurrent neural networks. In *Proceedings of IEEE international conference on acoustics, speech and signal processing (ICASSP)* (pp. 6645–6649).
- He, K., Zhang, X., Ren, S., & Sun, J. (2016). Deep residual learning for image recognition. In IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition (pp. 770–778).

- Hosaka, T., & Takata, Y. (2016). Corporate bankruptcy forecast using realadaboost. *Information -An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, 19(6(B)), 2285–2298.
- Irsoy, O., & Cardie, C. (2014). Deep recursive neural networks for compositionality in language. In *Proceedings of the international conference on neural information* processing systems (pp. 2096–2104).
- Kiros, R., Salakhutdinov, R., & Zemel, R. (2014). Multimodal neural language models. Proceedings of the 31st International Conference on Machine Learning, 32(2), 595–603.
- Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I., & Hinton, G. E. (2012). Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *Proceedings of neural information processing* systems.
- Lecun, Y., Bottou, L., Bengio, Y., & Haffner, P. (1998). Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. Proceedings of the IEEE, 86(11), 2278–2324.
- Lee, J., Jang, D., & Park, S. (2017). Deep learning-based corporate performance prediction model considering technical capability. Sustainability, 9(6). 899(article number)
- Li, H., & Sun, J. (2009). Predicting business failure using multiple case-based reasoning combined with support vector machine. Expert Systems with Applications, 36(6), 10085–10096.
- Lin, M., Chen, Q., & Yan, S. (2013). Network in network. arXiv:1312.4400.
- Mohamed, A., Dahl, G. E., & Hinton, G. (2012). Acoustic modeling using deep belief networks. IEEE Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing, 20(1), 14–22.
- Odom, M. D., & Sharda, R. (1990). A neural network model for bankruptcy prediction. In *Proceedings of international joint conference on neural networks* (pp. 163–168).
- Ohlson, J. A. (1980). Financial ratios and the probabilistic prediction of bankruptcy. *Journal of Accounting Research*, 18(1), 109–131.
- Persio, L. D., & Honchar, O. (2017). Artificial neural networks architectures for stock price prediction: Comparisons and applications. *International Journal of Circuits*, Systems and Signal Processing, 10(2), 40–43.
- Ramakrishnan, S., Mirzaei, M., & Bekri, M. (2015). Corporate default prediction with adaboost and bagging classifiers. *Journal Teknologi (Sciences & Engineering)*, 73(2), 45–50.
- Sartori, F., Mazzucchelli, A., & Gregorio, A. D. (2016). Bankruptcy forecasting using case-based reasoning: The creperie approach. Expert Systems with Applications, 64(C), 400-411.
- Shin, K., Lee, T. S., & Kim, H. (2005). An application of support vector machines in bankruptcy prediction model. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 28(1), 127–135.
- Shirata, C. Y. (1998). Financial ratios as predictors of bankruptcy in Japan: An empirical research. In Proceedings of the second Asian pacific interdisciplinary research in accounting conference (pp. 437–445).
- Shirata, C. Y., & Sakagami, M. (2008). An analysis of the going concern assumption: Text mining from japanese financial reports. *Journal of Emerging Technologies in Accounting*, 5(1), 1–16.
- Siripurapu, A. (2015). Convolutional networks for stock trading. Course Project Reports. Stanford University Department of Computer Science.
- Szegedy, C., Liu, W., Jia, Y., Sermanet, P., Reed, S., Anguelov, D., et al. (2015). Going deeper with convolutions. In Proceedings of IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition.
- Takata, Y., Hosaka, T., & Ohnuma, H. (2015). Financial ratios extraction using adaboost for delisting prediction. In Proceedings of the seventh international conference on information (pp. 158–161).
- Takata, Y., Hosaka, T., & Ohnuma, H. (2017). Boosting approach to early bankruptcy prediction from multiple-year financial statements. Asia Pacific Journal of Advanced Business and Social Studies, 3(2), 66-76.
- Yao, K., Zweig, G., Hwang, M., Shi, Y., & Yu, D. (2013). Recurrent neural networks for language understanding. *Interspeech 2013*.
- Yeh, S., Wang, C., & Tsai, M. (2015). Deep belief networks for predicting corporate defaults. In Proceedings of the 24th wireless and optical communication conference (pp. 159–163).
- Yoshihara, A., Fujikawa, K., Seki, K., & Uehara, K. (2014). Predicting stock market trends by recurrent deep neural networks. In Proceedings of pacific rim international conference on artificial intelligence (PRICAI) (pp. 759-769).