Anticipating Corporate’s Distresses

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Abstract
Corporate Financial Distress (FD) can be identified as an issue not only for the company itself but for all shareholders, including creditors. If FD events could be predicted, the losses would be avoided, which might lead to lower costs for borrowers. Encouraging by enhancements in the credit market, this study aimed to present an FD forecasting model from the perspective of
machine learning techniques (MLT). The growing development and application of MLT-based model promises to increase the quality of credit analysis, which allows contributions in many ways. We apply XGBoost and Random Forest by using financial indicators as inputs to seek better forecasts of FD firms one year before the distress of Latin American companies in the period 2000–2017 and compared with a Logistic Regression model. Our findings showed MLT outperform logit model, achieving an overall accuracy of 96% (XGboost). Additionally, five indicators were relevant to its success. The study allows for the expansion of knowledge and expands the discussion of the topic by focusing on predictive power in comparing models, highlighting the benefits of using machine learning algorithms applied to financial research. It assists in risk management, contributing to the prevention of losses, allowing greater balance and health for the financial system, which are essential conditions for the economic, social and sustainable development of a society.

Keywords: Credit Risk. Financially Distressed Company. Artificial Intelligence. Extreme Gradient Boosting. Variable Importance.

Antecipando Dificuldades Financeiras nas Organizações

Resumo
A dificuldade financeira (DF) pode ser entendida como um problema não apenas para a própria empresa, mas para todos interessados em seu desempenho, incluindo credores. Se os eventos de DF pudessem ser observados com antecedência, as perdas seriam evitadas, o que poderia levar a custos mais baixos para os envolvidos. Incentivando as melhorias no mercado de crédito, este estudo teve como objetivo apresentar um modelo de previsão de DF a partir da perspectiva das técnicas de aprendizado de máquina (TAMs). O crescente desenvolvimento e aplicação de TAMs promete aumentar a qualidade da análise de crédito, o que permite contribuições de várias formas. Aplicamos XGBoost e Random Forest usando indicadores financeiros como insumos para buscar melhores previsões das DFs um ano antes do evento em empresas latino-americanas no período de 2000 a 2017 e comparamos com um modelo de regressão logística. Nossos resultados mostraram que as TAMs superam o modelo de logit, atingindo uma precisão geral de 96% (XGboost). Além disso, cinco indicadores foram relevantes para o seu sucesso. O estudo permite a ampliação do conhecimento e expande a discussão do tópico ao enfocar o poder preditivo na comparação dos modelos, destacando os benefícios do uso de algoritmos de aprendizado de máquina aplicados à pesquisa financeira. Auxilia na gestão de riscos, contribuindo para a prevenção de perdas, permitindo maior equilíbrio e saúde para o sistema financeiro’, que são condições essenciais para o desenvolvimento econômico, social e sustentável de uma sociedade.

Palavras-chave: Risco de Crédito. Dificuldade Financeira Corporativa. Inteligência Artificial. Extreme Gradient Boosting. Importância de Variáveis.

1 Introduction
The prediction of financial distress (FD) is widely studied in corporate finance because of its impact on the very survival and development of the company, as well as on the decision of external investors and creditors, as it is an effective way of managing risks (Tang, Li, Tan & Shi, 2020). In turn, when companies are unable to pay their obligations due to financial distress, the
chances of banks not receiving their money back increase and this would cause problems for the entire financial system (Sun, Fujita, Chen & Li, 2017).

Sun et al. (2017) state that in situations like these it is necessary to develop efficient FD forecasting models, which can help both companies to improve risk management, and banks to make more accurate and assertively credit decisions. The development of models that are capable of predicting default and or FD are crucial for both (creditors and debtors) to be able to take both preventive and corrective actions (Wang, Wang & Lai, 2005; Lai, Yu, Wang & Zhou, 2006).

In a large study by Jones, Johnstone & Wilson (2015) compared the performance of traditional models (Logistic Regression and Discriminant Analysis) to machine learning models, such as Neural Networks, Support Vector Machine (SVM) and more recent techniques such as generalized boosting, AdaBoost and Random Forest. In this article, the authors demonstrated that the latter outperformed all other methods.

In addition to its efficiency in data analysis, machine learning has aspects that should be researched with more focus to encourage its adoption in companies. Wang & Ma (2011) pointed out that the models must combine precision and usability. Chen, Yang, Wang, Liu, Xu, Wang & Liu (2011) suggested improving the interpretability of ensembles as an important research direction, due to the lack of satisfactory conclusions. Bae (2012) recommended exploring and building models with different data sets, as this is a delicate problem, even the banking market may offer restrictions on the disclosure of its customers’ information.

Scientific studies are contributing in different ways. In particular, Guo, Zhou, Luo, Liu & Xiong (2016) asserted that the models are based only on numerical and financial variables. Then, they recommended the use of non-financial variables as factors related to corporate governance (for example, management capacity, reputation, type of ownership, plans, etc.), macroeconomic conditions of corporate and consumer performance, and even social media data. Tang et al. (2020) used non-financial characteristics to predict financial distress for Chinese companies while also incorporating management and performance factors in different periods. As a consequence, the authors realized that management and non-financial factors can complement the data in the forecasting statements and that the factors collected four years before the reference year allowed a more accurate assessment of the forecast.

Zięba, Tomczak & Tomczak (2016) used statistical and artificial intelligence-based methods such as SVM, neural networks and Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost), for bankruptcy forecasting with financial data from Poland during 2000–2012. XGBoost’s results were better
than the other reference methods with significant evolution in the quality of the forecast. Chang & Hsu (2018) employed XGBoost to build a credit risk assessment model for financial institutions with Taiwanese loan data about 8 years. In this work, the model’s precision was superior to SVM, Group Method of Data Handling (GHDH) and Logit. Climent, Momparler & Carmona (2019) applied XGBoost to identify the influence of indicators and variables in the forecast of bank failures with Eurozone data for the period 2006–2016 for testing the predictive power of the model, which presented a satisfactory result for the banking sector. Therefore, they examined the XGBoost technique, since it is a recent machine learning method used for supervised learning problems (Chen & Guestrin, 2016), considered an improvement and based on the Friedman model 2001. Yet, this method represents an advance in the use of new techniques to predict bankruptcies, as made by Ziêba et al. (2016) and FD (Huang & Yen, 2019), which are potentially indicative scenarios that your performance is successful in the context of our research, which is to predict financial distress for Latin American companies.

The statistical method based on artificial intelligence Extreme Gradient Boosting (Xgboost) is a recent machine learning method used for supervised learning problems that shows superiority of precision over others. (CHEN; GUESTRIN, 2016). Kim & Kang (2010), Finlay (2011), Brown & Mues (2012), Tsai, Hsu & Yen (2014) and Kim, Kang & Kim (2015) recommended the development of models taking into account the methods of boosting and bagging, which is based on a constructive analysis strategy. Thus, from the gaps pointed out by these studies, these recommendations were observed to continue research on the topic. The choice of this model rests on demonstrated efficiency, speed, precision and practicality of its algorithm (Chang & Hsu, 2018). In addition, its ability to perform various calculations on bases with an extensive volume of data, even on an ordinary computer, makes the choice of this model even more promising. The algorithm is built in such a way that it also has additional resources to perform cross-validation and be able to display the most impacting variables. In addition to data analysis, made some other interesting efforts on the XGBoost algorithm, such as memory optimization, cache optimization and improvement in terms of the model itself, with external memory programming, distributed abstractions, which helps to understand which algorithm it is suitable for which path.

Another gap observed for the development of this study is the scarcity of credit risk surveys in Latin America. Our survey of articles on the topic revealed the main articles with the highest number of citations and, therefore, those of greatest scientific relevance, and we identified that most of the relevant studies on the topic come from China and Taiwan, these studies are
the basis of reference for others carried out in Europe, North America and Oceania. However, the regions of Latin America and Africa have a shortage of relevant works on the topic. Therefore, studies covering information from these regions should produce interesting results. When it comes to models for Latin America, it is necessary to expand the variables and measures to be evaluated, as it deals with a complex market, with economic, political and cultural inequalities, which motivate a greater analysis of the factors that may contribute to the development of that region (Martinez-Villa & Machin-Mastronatteo, 2016).

In this context, considering the relevance of innovation in the management of credit risk in Latin America, the objective of this article is to develop and compare the predictive power of three techniques to predict financial distress and bankruptcies. For this, our sample consisted of companies listed on the stock exchange, as all information is public and available. Given the advantages and disadvantages presented by the literature of some techniques, this study seeks to test the XGBoost classification model to determine the likelihood of Latin American companies reaching the FD stage in the next year. In addition, we also verify which variables should be considered to anticipate the event. Wang & Ma (2011) applied RS-Boosting and obtained better results, mainly in the reduction of type II error, but from their work showed that the interpretability of the results is another important research direction that is still little explored.

The main objective is not only to oppose different methods of machine learning, but also to highlight a recently developed model and, thus, to motivate research uniting areas of finance and computer science. We compared the XGBoost model with a conventional statistical method (logistic regression) and a well-known machine learning algorithm (Random Forest). Complementary to its performance, XGBoost has another important aspect which is the identification and display of the most important variables for the model.

Although there are previous studies in the literature, it is essential to treat other poorly studied regions, such as Latin America, which has different market attributes, so that each country or region has a model for predicting bankruptcies and financial distress, taking into account the structure of the system domestic financial and market peculiarities (Korol, 2013).

We developed our empirical analysis using data from Latin America with more than a thousand companies in the period between 2000 and 2017. The results of our research suggest that the performance and precision of the XGBoost model, when compared to the most used models, such as Regression Logistics and random forest, is superior. XGBoost achieved an accuracy rate of 96.05%, versus 95.10% of the random forest and 65.12% of the logistic
These findings contribute to the literature on predicting credit risk in some ways. First, this becomes an important fact, because the codes of the algorithm are available to the public so that banks and future investors, analysts and managers can avoid the pre-concept “black box” that complex models have in practical applications. Second, this research aims to encourage the alliance between finance and data science in the search for a structured and accurate decision-making process, with a focus on risk mitigation and better quality in the analyzes that precede the two strategic decisions in terms of resources and competitiveness) and operational (short and medium term, in direct contact with the client).

However, this research has interesting implications. Among them, they highlight the possibility of readjusting the risk classifications, bringing more accurate information about the effective quality of the insured’s risk and, thus, adjusting the spreads accordingly. Another relevant implication is the improvement of risk management in companies in different sectors, as they will be able to observe and even argue with creditors their exposure to credit risk using the necessary skill.

In addition to this introduction, this article is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a review of the literature on credit risk and forecasting models. Section 3 presents the research methodology. Section 4 examines the empirical findings regarding the XGBoost model. Finally, section 5 presents the conclusions and suggestions for future research.

2 Related Literature

According to Altman (1968), in order to detect the solvency of a firm, it is essential to analyze financial ratios to predict and measure the payment potential of that company. Beaver (1966) defines FD as a firm’s inability to pay its financial obligations and points out that the usefulness of financial ratios is measured by the underlying predictive capacity of accounting data.

The Basel II Agreement requires companies to disclose risk management practices, which requires more reliable and accurate models to classify and quantify these probabilities (BIS, 2006). For this reason, the adoption of machine learning algorithms, a subtopic of data sciences that refers to the study of pattern recognition theory and computational learning using artificial intelligence.

Studies have compared the performance of different methods. Alfaro, García, Gámez & Elizondo (2008) confirmed that AdaBoost outperforms Neural Networks and that their error test
was 8.898% against 12.712% of neural networks. Heo & Yang (2014) compared several success rates of the machine learning algorithm and tested it against Altman’s famous Z-Score Altman (1968): AdaBoost (78.5%), ANN: (77.1%) SVM (73.3%), DT (73.1%) and Altman’s Z-Score (51.3%).

Sung, Chang & Lee (1999) developed bankruptcy prediction models (discriminant analysis, neural networks, decision trees and genetic algorithms) with data from Korea adapting the models to normal and crisis economic conditions, providing a possible interpretation of the causes bankruptcy without losing the perceived predictive ability of each model.

Korol (2013) investigated and compared statistical methods (discriminant analysis and decision trees) and computational methods (neural networks) for Latin and Central America and European companies. The author used data from 185 companies listed on the Warsaw bold list and 60 companies listed in Mexico, Argentina, Peru, Brazil and Chile. The results were highly effective in forecasting, demonstrating that it is possible to efficiently predict bankruptcy in companies in dynamic and unstable markets such as those in Latin America. In addition, the results of the decision tree models were more promising than the most popular methods of discriminant analysis and artificial neural networks.

Barboza, Kimura & Altman (2017) tested machine learning models (vector machines, bagging, reinforcement and random forest) to predict bankruptcy and bought using models of discriminant analysis, logistic regression and neural networks. The authors used data from 1985 to 2013 in North American companies, integrating data from Salomon Center and Compustat. The authors concluded that bagging, boosting, and random forests outperformed techniques such as Logit, Discriminant Analysis, and Support Vector Machine.

Huang & Yen (2019) made a comparison between six machine learning models in the context of forecasting financial distress, using data from financial statements of Taiwanese companies from 2010 to 2016. The authors demonstrated that among the supervised algorithms, the XGBoost provided the most accurate forecast. Carmona, Climent & Momparler (2019) used XGBoost to predict bankruptcies in the US banking sector and also presented an interpretation of the model’s outputs, providing information on the variables used. The result of the model was that predictive power is greater than most conventional methods. In Table 1, it can be seen that researchers around the world have struggled with different algorithms. Such studies highlight the capacity of the models, but also point out their disadvantages, such as their obscure nature, greater computational burden, the propensity to overfitting and empirical nature of the construction.
Although almost all methods can be used to assess credit risk, recently - due to the increasing complexity and size of databases - researchers have experimented with different classifiers and techniques, which integrate two or more classification methods. These approaches have shown greater precision in predictability than individual methods and have attracted a great deal of attention in credit risk assessment. Some of these examples are the Neural Discriminating Technique (Lee, Chiu, Lu & Chen, 2002), neuro-fuzzy (Piramuthu, 1999; Malhotra & Malhotra, 2002) and fuzzy-SVM (Wang et al., 2005).

In a database with financial information from customers, there is a scenario in which the number of observations associated with one class is much greater than those belonging to the other class. For this reason, there is an issue of information disproportion, which Brown & Mues (2012) examined in their study investigating various types of algorithms, the results of which demonstrated that Random Forest - an algorithm based on decision trees - and Gradient Boosting performed moderately well on unbalanced data sets.

In finance, the application of this technique is relatively new. He, Zhang & Zhang (2018) compared XGBoost’s performance with other credit scoring models and obtained the best ranking results in four of the six databases used, indicating that it has a consistent potential for better performance compared to other techniques. Carmona et al. (2019) tested the model to predict bankruptcies in the US banking sector and concluded that XGBoost has greater predictive power than the Logistic Regression and Random Forest methods. Xia, Liu, Da & Xie (2018) highlights the model’s superiority as a meta-classifier, that is, a high-level learning algorithm. Xia, Liu, Li & Liu (2017) highlighted comparisons with different base models and showed the superiority of the model based on XGBoost in terms of predictive performance.

In contrast to algorithms that use the bagging method, which builds models in parallel, the boosting approach is to build models sequentially. The XGBoost uses a certain number of classifiers to approach the final model and minimize the given cost function. The gradient

### Table 1 - Machine Learning Methods used in credit risk.

| Technique       | References of Application                                                                 |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Boosting        | Sun et al. (2011); Wang & Ma (2011); Wang, Ma & Yang (2014); Kim & Upneja (2014); Heo &  |
|                 | Yang (2014); Kim et al. (2015); Sun et al. (2017); Zięba et al. (2016); Chang & Hsu (2018); |
|                 | Carmona et al. (2019); Climent et al. (2019); Huang & Yen (2019); Tang et al. (2020).    |
| Neural Networks | Tsai & Wu (2008); Kim & Kang (2010); Chuang & Huang (2011); Jeong, Min & Kim (2012);     |
|                 | Blanco, Pino-Mejías, Lara & Rayo (2013); Korol (2013); Iturriaga & Sanz (2015); Zhao et  |
|                 | al. (2015); Yu, Yang & Tang (2016).                                                      |
| SVM             | Li & Sun (2012); Wang & Ma (2011); Hens & Tiwari (2012); Hsieh, Hsiao & Yeh (2012); Harris |
|                 | (2015); Danenas & Garsva (2015); Sun et al. (2017).                                     |
| Decision Trees  | Li et al. (2010b); Cho, Hong & Ha (2010); Zhang, Zhou, Leung & Zheng (2010); Gepp, Kumar & |
|                 | Bhattacharya (2010); Wang & Ma (2011); Kim & Upneja (2014).                             |

**Source:** the authors.
descent method calculates the partial derivative and tries to optimize the cost function by looking for the (local) minimum by adjusting different coefficient values to iteratively minimize the error. This cost function measures how well the model fits current data and the boosting process continues until the reduction of the cost function becomes limited (Chen & Guestrin, 2016).

3 Sample and Methodology
3.1 The Database
The research sample is composed of all Latin American companies with available data in the Economatica database, covering the period 2000–2017. These data include canceled stocks (e.g., delisted) to mitigate survival bias, otherwise the sample would be much smaller if only active companies were considered at the end of 2017 (Iquipaza, Lamounier & Amaral, 2008). Companies in the financial sector were excluded from the sample due to the specific accounting and sector characteristics, in accordance with Campos & Nakamura (2015). The number of companies in the final sample: active companies: 702; (+) companies canceled: 353; (=) final sample: 1,055 companies.

The variable of interest represents a label according to Pindado, Rodrigues & De La Torre (2008), which measures the company’s ability to manage its debt. Thus, this study uses a financial criterion to determine this variable, considering a definition of financial distress (FD) based on the company’s failure to meet its obligations is consistent with an ex-ante approach (Sanz & Ayca, 2006).

We classify a company as FD when both of the following conditions are satisfied: 1) earnings before interest and taxes, depreciation and amortization (EBITDA) are lower than its financial expenses for two consecutive years, leading the company to a situation in which it cannot generate sufficient funds from its operating activities to meet its financial obligations; 2) a fall in its market value for two consecutive periods (Manzaneque, Priego & Merino, 2016).

Therefore, this research considers a company with FD in the year that immediately follows the occurrence of these two events. This condition is represented by a binary dependent variable that has a value of 1 (one) for companies with FD and 0 otherwise.

Regarding the independent variables, we identified potential variables in the literature to predict DF. Table 2 summarizes the information relevant to the independent variables used in the study.
Table 2 - Definition of independent variables.

| Variable   | Description                                                                 |
|------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| CATA       | Current assets / Total assets                                               |
| COMENDIV   | Debt Breakdown: Current Liabilities / (Current Liabilities + Long-term liabilities) |
| ENDV       | Current Liabilities + Non-Current Liabilities / Total Assets               |
| FATA       | Permanent assets / Total assets                                             |
| GR/Sales   | Gross Revenue / Sales                                                       |
| GRWTA      | Total active growth rate                                                    |
| LIQCOR     | Current Assets / Current Liabilities                                        |
| LIQ.IMED   | Available / Current Liabilities                                             |
| LPA        | Earnings per share                                                          |
| MARGL      | Net Margin (%)                                                              |
| Net.P/CAS  | Net Income / Total Current Assets                                           |
| Net.P/EQTY | Net Income / book equity                                                    |
| Net.P/FIXA | Net Income / Permanent Assets                                               |
| Net.P/TOTA | Net Income / Total Assets                                                   |
| PAS/PATL   | Liabilities / book equity                                                   |
| PATL/ATNCIR| book equity/ non-current assets                                             |
| PMREC      | Average Receipt Term (days)                                                 |

**Source:** Sung et al. (1999); Beaver, McNichols & Rhie (2005); Sun, Jia & Li (2011); Li, Sun & Sun (2009); Li, Sun & Wu (2010b); Li & Sun (2010); Li, Huang, Sun & Lin (2010a); Li, Lee, Zhou & Sun (2011); Li & Sun (2011); Sun et al. (2011); Li & Sun (2012); Sun et al. (2017); Wang, Veugelers & Stephan (2017).

Gujarati & Porter (2011) highlight that in data analysis, one must understand the statistical dependence between variables, avoiding non-functional or deterministic relationships. The XGBoost algorithm is an algorithm based on decision trees that uses the gradient method to build them for improving their weights. The core of the algorithm is to optimize the value of the objective function (Chen & Guestrin, 2016).

Unlike the use of coefficients to calculate the forecasting capacity that each variable has, the descending gradient method builds sequential trees to obtain the scores effectively, indicating the importance of each characteristic for the training model. The more a variable is used in the creation of the trees, the greater its weight. The algorithm considers the importance by gain, frequency and coverage (Friedman, Hastie & Tibshirani, 2001). The gain is the main reference factor for the importance of a variable in the branches of the formed trees.

3.2 *SMOTE for balancing the data*

The performances of machine learning algorithms are typically assessed using precision metrics. However, these may be inappropriate when the data is out of balance (Chawla, Bowyer, Hall & Kegelmeyer, 2002). The literature on the subject addresses the issue of class disproportion in two ways. One is to attribute different costs to the training sample (Pazzani, Merz, Murphy, Ali, Hume & Brunk, 1994; Domingos, 1999). The other is to produce a sample from the original data set, either by oversampling or undersampling of the majority class (Japkowicz, 2000).
In the final sample of companies analyzed over the entire period, the results show that 92% of the firm-years can be considered as solvent cases and the remainder data were defined as FD. Thus, the final sample was balanced using the method proposed by Chawla et al. (2002), in which new synthetic observations are created based on existing minority observations. We reached a balanced data after applying SMOTE, resulting in a balanced database with 52% of observations classified as non-FD and 48% of the data labelled as FD.

3.3 Techniques
Random Forest is a method based on randomly selected decision trees that employs bagging to group and obtain diverse subsets of the entire training data set and to build individual trees. The algorithm is a classification technique that consists of a selection of classifiers structured on trees $h(x, \Theta_k), k = 1, \ldots, K$, where $\Theta_k$ are independent distributed random vectors and each tree casts a unit vote for the other classes of variables $x$. This algorithm adds extra randomness to the model, because, instead of looking for the best characteristic of the data when partitioning the nodes, it searches for the best characteristic in a random subset of the characteristics (Breiman, 1996).

In the case of XGBoost, the idea of your learning is to determine a script, where $y$ is the expected prediction and $x$ are the characteristic vectors (Xia et al., 2017). To build the map, the proposed model requires multiple parameters that must be predefined and the control of the appropriate combination of parameters is essential to optimize and improve the model. Below, present the parameters required in this technique (Carmona et al., 2019):

- Rounds or maximum number of iterations: the number of rounds or trees required in the model;
- Depth or maximum size of a tree: it is the number of divisions in each tree. It is used to control overfitting, as a greater depth allows the model to learn from patterns that are characteristic of a specific sample;
- Learning rate: initially introduced by Friedman (2002), it consists of a positive number (ranging from 0 to 1) that determines how quickly the algorithm adapts or the contribution of each tree to the model. A low value means that the model is more robust to overfitting;
- Gamma: minimum loss reduction required to make the next split into a node in each tree. The higher its value, the more conservative the algorithm is;
- Observation column and sample: deals with the proportion of the sub sample of variables and observations when building each tree. The observation column and sample denotes...
the fraction of variables and observations, which must be randomly sampled for each tree. Its value ranges from 0 to 1, avoids overfitting and speeds up the algorithm’s calculations;

- Minimum child weight: indicates the minimum sum of the necessary instance weight in a node. If the tree separation step results in a leaf node whose sum of previous weight is less than the value assigned to that parameter, the construction process will interrupt further subdivisions.

Regularization term or penalty on weights: the regularization term controls the complexity of the model that helps to avoid over-adjustment.

Logistic regression is one of the most accepted and used techniques in theoretical terms, since two distinct classes (good or bad) are defined (Kim, 2011; Li et al., 2011; Li & Sun, 2011). Given a set of N training records \( D = (x_i, y_i) \ i = 1, ..., N \), with the independent variables \( x_i \in R \) and dependent matching binary variables \( y_i \in 0, 1 \), the logistic regression estimates the probability of FD, or \( P(y=1|x) \), as follows:

\[
P(y = 1|x) = \frac{\exp((\beta_i^T x_i))}{1 + \exp((\beta_i^T x_i))}
\]

where \( \beta_i \) are the regression coefficients estimated by maximum likelihood.

In terms of techniques, we compare each performance with one another, aiming to find the best one considering some measures of prediction power. We define these measures in the following section.

### 3.4 Performance Measures

We evaluate five traditional assessment metrics, which are overall accuracy (ACC), type I and type II errors (T1E and T2E), the area under the ROC curve (AUC) and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (KS) to assess the performance of models. The main assessment metric is AUC (Area under the curve), which is an alternative measure of discrimination capacity based on the ROC curve. The ROC curve shows true positive rate (TPR) values versus false positive rate (FPR) values in various limit settings. The true positive rate is also known as sensitivity and the false positive rate is known as specificity and can be calculated as follows (1 – specificity).

In other words, the AUC score measures how well the model discriminates between the two classes (Wang et al., 2017; Zhang, Priestley & Ni, 2018).

Regarding the XGBoost calibration, after adjusting the parameters according to Carmona et al. (2019, we achieved the best model based on the following values: number of iterations: 1,000; maximum depth: 5; learning rate: 0.1; range: 0; observation sample: 0.8; minimum child
weight: 1; regularization: 0. The intention of calibrating and controlling the parameters is to avoid overfitting the model to the data and ensuring its generalization.

The performance of each model is evaluated on a different set of data than the one used to train it. Thus, we split the dataset into 70% for training and 30% for testing the models. In the larger fragment of data, each model was trained and adjusted, while the smaller fragment, used to test the model, following (Li, Tian, Li, Zhou & Yang, 2017; Xia et al., 2018). The confusion matrix contains four basic elements: true positives (TP) indicating that the default forecast is consistent with its real value; false negatives (FN) means that the result of the sample forecast is classified as non-performing, but its actual label indicates non-performing. Likewise, false positives (FP) are those samples of FD firms classified as FD and those within samples of FD correctly predicted to be FD are labeled as true negatives (TN). All these values are inputs for evaluating the ACC, the errors.

The ACC, given by Equation 2, is the model’s precision measure compared to the general data. It is the ratio between the units correctly classified and the total number of forecasts made by the classifiers. ACC is calculated as follows:

\[
\text{ACC} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}
\]  

(2)

The Under the ROC Curve (AUC) measures the ability of a binary model, in other words, a way to represent the ROC curve in single value, adding all ROC thresholds calculating the "area under the curve". The limit for two classes is 0.5 and the closer to the value 1, the better the algorithm is able to distinguish between classes.

Use the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) statistic (Equation 3) to measure the adequacy of the model, where TPR stands for the rate of true positives and FPR is the rate of false positives. KS is one of the most useful and widespread non-parametric methods for comparing FD and non-FD firms correctly predicted (Zhang et al., 2018).

\[
KS = \max_t (|TPR(t) - FPR(t)|)
\]  

(3)

Finally, we use type I and type II error rates as indicators to further explore the model’s ability to classify customers as non-performing or non-performing, respectively. In this experiment, the Type I error rate (T1E) denotes the proportion of misclassified non-FD firms, and the Type II error rate (T2E) refers to the proportion of misclassified FD instances. Their values are calculated according to Equations 4 and 5:

\[
T1E = \frac{TN}{FP + TN}
\]  

(4)
\[ T^2E = \frac{TP}{FN + TP} \] (5)

4 Results and Discussions

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the study, showing information relevant to the number of observations. It is possible to observe that the average LPA in the period is negative, therefore, it can be inferred that the companies were operating with low margins, accumulating losses, in some way. The most widely dispersed variable is NETPEQTY, which deals with the company's ability to add value from its own resources and from investors, which suggests that there are companies that are losing more value in each investment made and others that add more. The least dispersed variable is COMENDIV, which deals with the composition of indebtedness, which shows that companies have, on average, short-term debt, mainly because long-term financing and lower costs are less accessible.

### Table 3 - Descriptive statistics of the raw data (i.e., before SMOTE), these data came from 17,282 instances (firm-year).

| Variable      | Mean  | SD    | Minimum | Maximum |
|---------------|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| PMREC         | 229.290 | 2.998.601 | -8.423.438 | 326.606.000 |
| ENDV          | 1.114 | 7.402 | 0.000 | 487.224 |
| LIQMED        | 0.829 | 3.319 | -1.000 | 159.257 |
| CATA          | 0.373 | 0.204 | 0.000 | 1.000 |
| COMENDIV      | 0.728 | 0.274 | 0.000 | 1.000 |
| LIQCOR        | 1.831 | 3.345 | 0.000 | 160.257 |
| LPA           | -5.539 | 84.377 | -2.364.538 | 2.661.399 |
| PASPATL       | 1.447 | 24.590 | -901.545 | 1.148.586 |
| PATLATNCIR*   | 130bi | 8.9bi | -753.173 | 860bi |
| FATA          | 0.548 | 0.275 | 0.000 | 1.000 |
| GSRALES       | 5.377.712 | 706.899.700 | -3.948 | 9.29E+07 |
| GRWTA         | 7.204 | 848.929 | -0.964 | 111.083.200 |
| NETPCAS       | -1.331 | 29.306 | -1.207.017 | 618.788 |
| NETPEQTY      | -0.004 | 8.458 | -1.066.615 | 109.000 |
| NETPFIXA*     | 18.7mi | 1.61bi | -25.6bi | 188bi |
| NETPTOTA      | -0.047 | 0.689 | -46.334 | 11.889 |
| MARGL         | -1.445.015 | 33.932.040 | -1.899.698.000 | 132.037.500 |
| MARKVAL*      | 1.65bi | 7.11bi | 0.000 | 243bi |

**Source:** the authors. Note: SD means Standard Deviation; *bi = billions and mi = millions.

Since correlated variables can hinder the model’s performance, we observed the final dataset for checking multicollinearity problems (Carmona et al., 2019). Table 4 shows the correlation matrix of all variables tested in our work. Before carrying out the analyzes, no correlated variable was found. In particular, the biggest association involving the dependent variable (FINDISTR) occurred with FATA (the ratio of fixed assets to total assets, that is, how much capital is invested in assets that helps to increase revenue).
better results than Logistic Regression. The XGBoost had a slightly better result than the Latin American market, using machine learning models as the basis for this research. The XGBoost model is particularly useful for solving classification problems, as it minimizes errors in previous tree iterations. For the Latin American market, using machine learning models as the basis for this study, it obtained better results than Logistic Regression. The XGBoost had a slightly better result than the RF either, about 0.0134 percentage points higher AUC. Following the same direction as the studies by Barboza et al. (2017), where the Boosting (0.9297) and RF (0.9292) techniques were highly accurate, but as in our studies, these models had little variation between their results. Our results are still in line with the results presented by Chang & Hsu (2018), who despite evaluating a

Table 4 - Pearson’s correlation matrix.

| Variable             | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] | [6] | [7] | [8] | [9] | [10] | [11] | [12] | [13] | [14] | [15] | [16] | [17] | [18] |
|----------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| PMREC                | -   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| ENDV                 | 0.00|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| LIQIMED              | -0.01 | -0.03 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| CATA                 | 0.06 | -0.05016 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| LIQCOR               | -0.01 | -0.03095 | 0.15 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| COMENDIV             | 0.00 | -0.008 | -0.02010 | -0.02 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| LPA                  | 0.00 | -0.01030 | 0.030 | 0.03 | 0.01 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| PASPLATL             | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.03000 | -0.03 | 0.04 | 0.01 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| LATNLATNICIR         | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.000 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| FATA                 | -0.03004 | -0.12057 | -0.13 | -0.270 | 0.020 | 0.02 | -0.03 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| GRSALES              | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | -0.0100 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| GRWTA                | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.0100 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| NETPCAS              | 0.00 | -0.16002 | 0.04 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.00 | -0.0400 | 0.00 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| NETPEQTY             | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.4200 | -0.0200 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.02 |     |     |     |
| NETPFIXA             | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.96 | -0.0200 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |     |
| NETPTOTA             | 0.00 | -0.79003 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.06 | 0.05 | -0.0100 | -0.0300 | 0.00 | 0.18 | 0.04 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.39 |     |     |
| MARGL                | 0.00 | -0.340305 | -0.03060 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.2000 | 0.23 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |     |
| MARKVAL              | -0.01 | -0.02010 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.06002 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.07 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.01 | 0.01 |     |
| FINDISTR             | 0.03 | 0.06 | -0.060406 | 0.0607 | -0.0703 | 0.01017 | -0.0101 | -0.0401 | -0.01 | 0.01 | 0.08 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.08 | 0.01 | 0.01 |     |

Source: the authors

Table 5 shows the performance measures of the models tested in this research, comparing them with the results of Carmona et al. (2019) who tested the same models, although applied to the banking sector. Our results followed the same trend of AUC of the models presented by the authors, where the XGBoost was what got the best result, followed by RF and finally the logistic regression.

Table 5 - Performance measures for the models developed in this work (our results), comparing to Carmona et al. (2019) (Benchmark).

| Model            | Benchmark* | ACC | AUC | ACC | AUC | KS | T1E | T2E |
|------------------|------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|
| XGBoost          |            | 0.9474 | 0.98 | 0.9605 | 0.9636 | 0.3964 | 0.0471 | 0.0312 |
| Random Forest    |            | 0.9211 | 0.93 | 0.9510 | 0.9502 | 0.3905 | 0.0411 | 0.0571 |
| Logistic Regression |          | 0.8421 | 0.84 | 0.6512 | 0.6751 | 0.1439 | 0.3108 | 0.3782 |

Source: the authors. * Retrieved from Carmona et al. (2019). ACC, AUC, KS, T1E and T2E are overall accuracy, area under ROC curve, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistic, Type I and Type II errors, respectively.

The XGBoost model is particularly useful for solving classification problems, as it minimizes general errors when generating models based on errors in previous tree iterations. For the Latin American market, using machine learning models as the basis for this study, it obtained better results than Logistic Regression. The XGBoost had a slightly better result than the RF either, about 0.0134 percentage points higher AUC. Following the same direction as the studies by Barboza et al. (2017), where the Boosting (0.9297) and RF (0.9292) techniques were highly accurate, but as in our studies, these models had little variation between their results. Our results are still in line with the results presented by Chang & Hsu (2018), who despite evaluating a
market different from the banking sector, the XGBoost model (0.94) stood out in comparison with the LR models (0.77), SVM (0.87) and Neural Networks (0.82). Yet, our outcomes are close to Zieba et al. (2016) in which the XGBoost get the best result in the first year of forecasts (0.959).

Sun et al. (2017) used the AdaBoost support vector machine model in their study, an algorithm that relies on errors from previous classifications to make the next classification also sequentially, such as XGBoost. In this study, the authors applied the model to predict situations of FD for Chinese companies and achieved an accuracy of 93.88%. In a similar study, Kim et al. (2015) use GMboost (Geometric Mean based Boosting) to predict bankruptcy in Korean companies and the model reaches an accuracy of 82%.

Korol (2013) also investigated and compared statistical methods with computational models in Latin American companies, the author argues that the structure of the models that predict bankruptcy in these companies is much more complicated and complex than the models that predict failure in European companies. The author states that although there is a consensus in the literature on the most popular credit forecasting systems, each country or region must develop its own, due to the different accounting systems and different attributes of economies between countries, each country or region in the world. It must have its own bankruptcy forecasting model, which takes into account the structure of the domestic financial system. In line with the author and also with the works of Barboza et al. (2017), our research contributes to the discussion of the techniques based on traditional statistics and the computational methods, where they obtained better results.

Thus, we could infer that the AUC result of 0.9636 presented in our model is satisfactory given the complexity of this emerging market, which is Latin America and yet the variation in relation to the results of the machine learning models presented in particular by Carmona et al. (2019), demonstrating the consistency of the XGBoost and RF models. On the contrary, the Logistic Regression had a much lower result, around 16.49%. In this case, a suggestion would be to include other variables that could better adhere to the model.

As for the value of the KS statistic, the XGBoost model presented a slightly better result, 39.64%, thus proving its promising ability to discriminate between two types of customer types. Type I error is related to the non-forecasting of a FD company, which leads to recovery costs, financial losses, opportunity costs, sunk interest, being more costly than the type II error, which is related to a company that does not present this picture, however it is labeled as such (West, 2000; Abdou, 2009). Evaluating the model presented in this research, can see that the
XGBoost model obtained the best error rates, compared with the other models, in together with RF, which reinforces model consistency and machine learning. In the study conducted by Barboza et al. (2017) the errors were greater when compared to our studies, with Boosting (TIE = 18.8% and T2E = 13.3%) and RF (T1E = 16.5% and T2E = 12.9%), which suggests assertiveness in the selection of variables used for the Latin American market.

The area under the ROC curve (AUC) is an important indicator, as it provides us with an independent measure of overall accuracy. The value of the area below the diagonal (0.5 or 50%) is not valid, as they are considered as random. However, a value that approaches 1.0 (or 100%) shows best ability of the model for making correct predictions. It also shows in an illustrative way the capacity for discernment between classes. Figure 1 shows the comparison of the three models. The XGBoost model reveals a satisfactory performance but, when compared to the Random Forest model the difference is slightly inferior to the proposed model. In general, the machine learning models had better accuracy than the Logistic Regression model, which demonstrates the complexity of predicting FD in Latin American firms.

**Fig. 1.** ROC curve for each model tested.

![ROC curve](image)

**Source:** the authors.

Another interesting aspect of XGBoost is that its results expose the variables with the greatest influence on the prediction of the dependent variable, thus corroborating with Abdou (2009).
In his study, the researcher suggests future investigations about which variables may indicate possible financial distress in advance. This becomes an important issue because companies can track and monitor specific characteristics of their operations in order to avoid financial inconvenience.

In Figure 2, the most relevant variables with the greatest relative influence on the response variable are listed: LPA, COMENDIV, FATA and MARKVAL. We can observe that the variables LPA and COMENDIV provided the highest discriminatory values. From this result, it is possible to imply an alert that companies already in FD would be committed to retaining funds for the payment of interest and debt amortization, which would trigger the correlation between indebtedness and non-payment of dividends.

Thus, can be highlighted that profitability is one of the main sources of business financing, that is, the company remains liquid at the disposal of its own operation. Although the maintenance of shareholders with the payment of dividends is relevant to the business, maintaining the operation of the firm and its financial liquidity brings better long-term results. Thus, dividend payment policies should be prioritized in view of market and commercial
conditions that the company is experiencing (Sun et al., 2011; Barboza et al., 2017; Carmona et al., 2019). Zieba et al. (2016) also found relevance in profitability and leverage for predicting bankruptcies.

The composition of indebtedness was also relevant in forecasting FD as deals with the fundraising policy within organizations, and reveals the strategy of the companies in relation to their short-term obligations. Sun et al. (2011) and Huang & Yen (2019) also included this variable in their models for forecasting bankruptcy and FD.

Investment projects and payment of dividends compete for the same sources of funds, so the variable FATA – which is also known as asset turnover – reflects the efficiency with which the company uses its assets, that is, it specifically measures a company’s ability to generate sales from investment in fixed assets. In general, a balanced asset turnover rate indicates that a company has efficiently used investment in fixed assets in its operation to generate revenue. Sung et al. (1999) also found relevance for this variable, and characterized this variable as a key to evaluate companies in FD. The authors claim that this proportion refers to the company’s reliability or security in fixed asset financing, if this index is too high, the company is suffering from a shortage of current assets and will not be able to pay short-term loans, but if this proportion is very low, the company is not using its capital efficiently, as there is an excess of investments in fixed assets.

The most valued companies in the capital market (MARKVAL) are less likely to get into financial distress and this variable was relevant to the XGBoost model, as well as in the studies by Barboza et al. (2017). Beaver et al. (2005) argue that the market value variable absorbs much of the predictive power of the indicators in the financial statements and provides additional explanatory power not reflected in the financial indexes.

Our results were different in relation to the relevance of the variables in the studies by Carmona et al. (2019) that used the same models, but in a different market. The variables that highlighted the greatest weight in the model presented by the authors were: the return before taxes on assets, the total capital ratio based on risk, the accumulated profits on average equity and the return on profitable assets. However, our results reveal interesting ability of predicting FD.

In view of the results presented, we argue that the predictive precision of machine learning models is considerably better, to deal with more complex markets, as in Latin America, multiple variables, extensive, non-linear and misadjusted databases and it is still easy to apply, when compared with traditional statistical models (Korol, 2013; Barboza et al., 2017).
Considering the XGBoost technique, the regularization of the gradient increase for weight control and selection of variables, considerably improved the predictive precision in relation to the other models, in this way, we can deduce that the XGBoost also contributes to the reduction of overfitting, but it is necessary to moderation of the appropriate combination of parameters to maximize the model, and consequently improve accuracy (Carmona et al. (2019).

5 Concluding Remarks
The main objective of this research was to predict the probability of a company going into a financial distress situation by using three different techniques: Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost), Random Forest, both as machine learning instances, and Logistic Regression, as a benchmark, widely used in the literature. XGboost is an evolution of other methods - such as AdaBoost and Random Forest - and has been applied in recent studies in order to predict bank failures and credit scores.

As research contributions allow the expansion of knowledge through the application of a financial distress prediction model from the perspective of machine learning techniques in publicly traded companies in Latin America, its application in this database is unprecedented. The study further expands the discussion of the topic by focusing on the predictive power of model comparison, highlighting the benefits of using machine learning algorithms applied to financial research.

As a practical contribution of this research, it is believed that through analysis, companies can develop preventive systems that alert their managers about indicators that may affect their financial health. In addition, financial institutions could avoid default by taking appropriate precautionary measures, instead of waiting until financial constraint occurs. The forecast of financial distresses also serves as an aid in the decision of external investors and creditors, being an effective form of risk management.

As a social contribution it allows us to glimpse that when companies are unable to pay their obligations due to financial distress, the chances of banks not receiving their money back increase and this would cause problems for the entire financial system. So efficient forecasting models allow both companies to improve their risk management and banks to make more assertive credit decisions, which is crucial for a healthy financial system in a society.

The study showed that XGBoost has greater predictive power when compared to the others,
considering the parameters used here. Furthermore, this method has an important feature, which corroborates with Chen et al. (2011), Wang & Ma (2011), Tsai et al. (2014), Zhao, Xu, Kang, Kabir, Liu & Wasinger (2015), where they suggest that models and results should focus on explaining the reasons why companies faced financial distress; factors that are important for both corporations and financial institutions. As there is no concrete answer on the most representative characteristics (independent variables), the proposed method demonstrated that the reduction in the distribution of dividends classifies a company with a high probability of facing a future financial tightening and its investments also contribute to this.

The predictive ability of the model tested in this study should encourage further research to join forces with computer scientists and add dynamics to the econometric models commonly adopted in finance studies. In addition, in an attempt to extend the current limits of performance and interpretability, XGBoost tracks variables that can add extra predictive weight to the model and bring operational agility to the entire process.

As a limitation of the research, we stand out that parameters should be further explored and other techniques, such as Neural Networks, could counter our results. However, even in the face of the limitation arising from possible endogeneity of the model, the study moves forward by reinforcing and stimulating the automation of the processes and models in this context. On the one hand, a large volume of different data can be extremely beneficial for machine learning; on the other hand, it is necessary to think about celerity in the decision-making process and this will be achieved with the greatest number of relevant information about customers, developments of low-cost algorithms and that maximize the operational capacity of the machines.

In view of the results, it is believed that companies can develop preventive systems that would alert their managers about indicators that may affect their financial health. In addition, institutions could avoid default by taking appropriate precautionary measures, rather than waiting until the financial constraint takes place.

In view of the facts and results found in this research, we suggest that future studies of this article are undoubtedly of interest in improving the model, observing some aspects, among which this necessary article is related:

• Encourage the construction and expansion of databases with different variables, however, relevant to credit research that could improve the robustness of the model;
• Researchers should structure databases that contain diverse and relevant variables in the area - both financial information and qualitative aspects - and encourage their adoption in financial institutions to improve, thus, both the process and the forecasts of new models;
• Assess the ideal division of a database for training and testing the model;
• Experiment with different parameters on different data, such as corporate variables or information from companies in emerging markets;
• Include qualitative variables (for example, social, macroeconomic information, quality of management, among others).

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