

Boosting Algorithms to Analyse Firm's Performance Based on Return on Equity: An Explanatory Study

Elsayed A. H. Elamir

Management & Marketing Department, College of Business, University of Bahrain,

P.O. Box 32038, Kingdom of Bahrain

Email: shabib@uob.edu.bh

Abstract

This study aims to use the boosting techniques especially gradient boosting and its extension extreme gradient boosting in predicting firm performance in terms of return on equity that may be considered as a measure of profitability. The models are evaluated using R-squared, root mean square error, and mean absolute error. The global interpretations in terms of partial dependent plot and local interpretations in terms of local interpretable model-agnostic explanations are performed to interpret the prediction for any individual or group of cases. The results show that the extreme gradient boosting is improving the model by about 39% for training set and about 4% for testing set in terms of R-squared. Interesting results are given by the partial dependent and local model-agnostic explanation plots where they are suggesting that the total assets, the total liability and the board size have the most effect on the predicting and interpreting return on equity.

Keywords: Business analytics, financial management, global model, gradient boosting, machine learning, R-squared.

1 Introduction

In recent years, there are a lot of concerns to have accurate and reliable predict to earnings, growth and firm performance especially with the huge advancements in machine learning algorithms and the availability of large data. These predictions not only measure financial performance of a firm but also helping financial and operation managers with investment, production and financing decision making and outside investors to understand the performance of the firm; see, Delen and Uyar (2013), Bochkay and Levine (2017), Onder and Altintas (2017), Mousa and Elamir (2018).

Return on equity (ROE) is calculated as a net profit after tax over the total shareholder's equity. This ratio measures the shareholders rate of return on their investment in the firm. In other words, it can be considered as a profitability ratio which is used to evaluate the effectiveness of the firm in creating profits that are the rights of capital owners. With this respect, the banks must hold capital to prohibit bank failure and to deal with the capital requirements put by the regulatory authorities. On the other hand, the banks do not need to keep too much capital because this will reduce the returns on equity holders; see, Muehlhauser (1995), Correia et al. (2003), Monteiro (2006), Kabajeh, et al. (2012).

Multiple linear regression (MLR) is the most known model where it uses one equation to build model over the complete data space. When the assumptions of multiple linear model do not satisfy such as nonlinearity and many interactions, the estimates and predictions are under severe limitations; see, Hastie et al. (2008) and Kuhn and Johnson (2013).

Friedman (2001) developed gradient boosting machine method (Gboost) that included both regression and classification problems. The basic principles are that if a loss function (such as squared error) and a weak learner (such as regression trees) are given, the method looks for an

additive model that minimize the loss function. The method is guessing the best value for the response (such as the average). The gradient (residual) is computed, then the model is fit to the gradients to minimize loss function. The present model is summed to old one, and the steps continue till a specified criterion (number of iterations); see Kuhn and Johson (2013) and Natekin and Knoll (2013). Extreme gradient boosting method (Xgboost) is an advanced application of Gboost to overcome overfitting in Gboost and introducing more accuracy and scalability over simple algorithms. Xgboost supports several types of objective functions including regression; see, Chang et al. (2018).

The aims of this study are twofold. The main one is to predict return on equity (“ROE”) which depends on the logarithm of total assets (“logTOTA”), liability (“LIAB”), ratio of market to book value (“BOKV”), Beta coefficient (“SVOL”), firm’s age (“AGEB”), cash availability (“NCSH”) and board size (“BSZ”) using the multiple linear regression, the gradient boosting and extreme gradient boosting methods. The root mean square error (RMSE) and R-squared are used to compare the model performance among all methods. The second aim is to use the partial dependent plot and local interpretable model-agnostic explanation techniques to explain the model and prediction in interpretable and faithful ways where the users need to be confident that the model will perform well on real datasets. According to Ribeiro et al. (2016, p. 1) “Understanding the reasons behind predictions is, however, quite important in assessing trust, which is fundamental if one plans to take action based on a prediction, or when choosing whether to deploy a new model. Such understanding also provides insights into the model, which can be used to transform an untrustworthy model or prediction into a trustworthy one”. To satisfy these two aims, sixty-three banks are selected from the bourse in 8 Middle East and North Africa (MENA) countries for the period 2009 to 2018 that has 630 observations. The train data from 2009 to 2017 is used to build the training model. This training model is used to predict and interpret data in year 2018.

This study is organized as follows. The literature review is illustrated in Section 2. In section 3 the methodology is outlined. The results and discussion are presented in Section 4. The conclusion is given in Section 5.

2 Literature review

Return on equity and return on assets are the most profitability measures vastly used as overall measures of corporate financial performance; see, Rappaport (1986). Monteiro (2006) mentioned that ROE could be consider as the most ratio an investor should take it into account. In fact, ROE clarifies the result of “structured financial ratio analysis (Du Pont analysis)”; see, Stowe et al. (2002), Correia (2003) and Firer et al. (2004).

Al khalayleh (2001) discussed the link between the performance indicators of market and accounting indicators using 40 public firms from Jordan using years 1984 to 1996. The results indicated that a significant positive relation between return on equity and the market price per share. Kabajeh et al. (2012) examined the relation between ROE, ROA (return on assets) and ROI (return on investment) with Jordanian insurance public firms’ share prices’ from 2002 to 2007. They found that a positive relationship between ROE, ROA and ROI together with’ share prices’ while the results illustrated no relations between the ROE separately with market’ share prices’ for Jordanian insurance public firms. Zieba et al. (2016) developed a predictive model using extreme gradient boosting to predict a bankruptcy with several economic measures and permits to expect a financial condition of a company. They applied extreme gradient boosting to Polish firms from 2007 to 2013 (bankrupt) and from 2000 to 2012 (operating) and concluded that the extreme gradient boosting produced significant increase in the prediction quality.

Carmona et al. (2019) applied extreme gradient boosting to predict default of bank in banking sector in U.S. They used annual chains of 30 financial ratios for 156 commercial banks from years 2001 to 2015. The results indicated that the chance of bank financial distress is increased by pretax return on assets, lower values for kept gains to mean equity and total risk-based capital ratio. Climent et al. (2019) applied extreme gradient boosting to characterize a group of main indicators that could assist in forecasting and prohibiting failure of banks in the Eurozone. They used 25 annual ratio series from commercial banks of 2006-2016 period. They built classification model to decide about the key variables that causes bank defaults. The results indicated that the bank managers should follow the most important variables in the study, such as net loan to total asset and equity to liability and taking early action rather than waiting for government action.

Chen et al. (2019) offered a reference to investors and creditors for taking investment decision by making financial prediction of operating revenue, earning per share, cash flow and net working capital using multivariate adaptive regression spline and queen genetic algorithm-support vector machine to make. Hunt et al. (2019) examined the ability of machine learning algorithms to improve the prediction of the sign of earnings changes and its usefulness for return forecasting. They concluded that there were 62.3 percent prediction accuracy using stepwise logit regression and 76.8 percent out of sample accuracy using random forest method while elastic net method performed similarly to stepwise logit method.

Alaminos et al (2019) applied extreme gradient boosting method to forecast systemic banking crises. The results showed that the extreme gradient boosting outperformed the existing methods in terms of the predictive power. They considered "being the demand for deposits", "the level of domestic credit" and "banking assets" are the most important variables to explain the causes that produce systemic bank crises. Dhieb et al (2019) studied the automatically detect fraudulent claims and group them into several fraud types. The results showed that a high-performance gain obtained by Xgboost in revealing and grouping fraudulent claims compared to other machine learning algorithms.

This study extends the previous studies to MENA countries where it makes the following contributions. This study could be considered the first in the MENA area that apply the gradient boosting approaches to predict banks' performance based on return on equity. Second, characterizes four main variables, namely, the total assets, the total liability to total assets and the stock volatility and the board size that may help the bank manager to anticipate and increase financial stability for the bank. Third, fill the gap between the prediction and the interpretations or knowing reasons behind this prediction on the global and local levels.

3 Methodology

3.1 Study variables

Since the banks have the most appreciated and credited capitalisation in stock trades, the banks section is chosen. The data is chosen from 8 MENA nations, namely, "Egypt", "Jordan", "Qatar", "Oman", "Saudi Arabia", "Kuwait", "Bahrain" and "United Arab Emirates" from "2009 to 2018" across 63 banks in all countries that gives a total of 630 observations. Since there is homogeneity between these nations in terms of cultures and assets, they are chosen in the sample. The internet sites of the enrolled banks in the stock market are utilized to assemble the financial information. To satisfy study aim, eight variables are chosen. Return on equity ("ROE") as response variable and seven predictor variables, logarithm of total assets ("logTOTA"), liability ("total liabilities to total assets- LIAB"), ratio of market to book ("bank book value to its market value - BOKV"), Beta coefficient ("stock volatility with respect to the

market - SVOL”), bank’s age (“AGEB”), cash availability (“net cash of the bank - NCSH”) and board size (“BSZ”).

3.2 Analysis methods

The multiple linear regression, gradient boosting and extreme gradient boosting are explained briefly.

3.2.1 Multiple linear regression

The minimization of sum squares errors between original values, y_i , and estimated values, \hat{y}_i is considered as the objective of multiple linear regression

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Where

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

β_i are the parameters, y_i the response, x_i the predictors and ε_i are the errors; see, for example, Kuhn and Johnson (2013).

3.2.2 Gradient boosting

The gradient boosting methods are proposed by Friedman (2001). Following the procedures in Natekin and Knoll (2013), Mustapha and Saeed (2016), Alaminos et al. (2019) and Zeiba et al. (2019), for a given training data $D\{x_i, y_i, i = 1, \dots, N\}$ the gradient boosting is an ensemble of K classification and regression tree (CART), the model trained by the minimization of the objective function

$$Obj(\theta) = L(\theta) + \Omega(\theta) = \sum_i l(y_i, \hat{y}_i) + \sum_{k=1}^K \Omega(f_k)$$

Where θ are the parameters, Ω is a regularization term and L is the loss function, K is the numbers of decision trees, $\hat{y}_i = \sum_k f_k(x_i)$, $f_k \in F$ are K decision trees and $f_k(x) = w_{q(x)}$ where $q(x)$ is the function that gives the independent path in the structure of the tree. The regularization term can be expressed as

$$\Omega(f) = \gamma T + 0.5\lambda \sum_{t=1}^T w_t^2$$

Where λ and γ are the parameters of the regularization part and T is the number of leaves. In regression task a classic loss function is the squared error loss (L_2) as

$$L(y, f) = 0.5(y - f)^2$$

The derivative is the error $y - f$ that imply that the gradient is just the residuals.

According to Mustapha and Saeed (2016), the training algorithms using Xgboost can be summed up as follows.

1. For every predictor: order the values and obtain the best dividing value (min. RMSE).
2. Select the predictor with the best dividing value that optimizes the training target.
3. Continue dividing until obtain the specified maximum depth of the tree.
4. Specify the prediction value to the leave and prune it.
5. Iterate these procedures in a collective way until the fixed number of trees is obtained.

Therefore, the prediction y at step t is

$$\hat{y}_i^{(t)} = \sum_{k=1}^K f_k(x_i) = \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)} + f_t(x_i)$$

The simplified objective function can be written as

$$Obj(\theta)^{(t)} = \sum_{j=1}^T \left[\left(\sum_{i \in I_j} g_i \right) w_j + 0.5 \left(\sum_{i \in I_j} h_i + \lambda \right) w_j^2 \right] + \gamma T$$

Where $g_i = \partial_{\hat{y}_i^{(t-1)}} l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)})$ and $h_i = \partial_{\hat{y}_i^{(t-1)}}^2 l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)})$ are the first and second derivative for loss function and $I_j = \{i | q(x_i) = j\}$ is the type set of leaf j , w_j the optimal leaf weight for a known structure $q(x)$. For more details, see, Mustapha and Saeed (2016). For most practical tasks, there is an empirical evidence that “the simple additive models corresponding to the first term of the analysis of variance decomposition provide good results” (Schapire, 2002; Wenxin, 2002).

The most common hyperparameters in Gboost are: trees number (optimal number of trees that reduce the loss function using cross validation), trees depth (split numbers in each tree that control the complexity of boosted ensemble), rate of learning (how the tree proceeds down the gradient descent called shrinkage) and subsampling (control use a fraction of the available training observations).

According to Chen and He (2015), Xgboost has regularization unlike Gboost that helps in reducing overfitting where it is known as “regularized boosting” technique. The most known parameters are eta (controls the learning rate), gamma (minimum loss reduction to do more partition on a leaf node of the tree), max depth (tree depth), min child weight (minimum number of values required in each terminal node and subsample (percent of training phase to sample for each tree)).

3.3 Interpretations

There are two types of interpretations: (a) global meaning: assist to recognize the inputs and the whole model relationship with the response variable. The most known ways are variable important measures and partial dependent plot and (b) local meaning: help to understand the predicted values for specified row(s) of data.

Variable importance reflects the overall contribution of each predictor variable to the forecasting of a machine learning model where they compute the value of a variable that has relationship with the dependent as emulated to other variables used in the model; see, Kuhn and Johson (2013). Partial probability plot is introduced by Friedman (2001) to interpret the dependency of several input features to the predictions by plotting the effect of changing a specific input feature over its marginal distribution on the predicted values with holding other variables fixed; see, Hastie et al. (2008).

Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations (LIME) is a graph method that aids in explanations of individual predictions. The idea of LIME it is likely to fit a simple model around a single value that will imitate how the global model pursues at that locality where it assumes that “every complex model is linear on a local scale”. Then, the simple model could be used to interpret the forecasting of the more complex model locally; see Ribeiro et al. (2016).

4 The results

The ROE-model could be written as

$$ROE = f(\log TOTA, LIAB, BOKV, SVOL, AGEB, NCSH, BSZ)$$

In case of linear relationship

$$ROE = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log TOTA + \beta_2 LIAB + \beta_3 BOKV + \beta_4 SVOL + \beta_5 AGEB + \beta_6 NCSH + \beta_7 BSZ + \varepsilon_i$$

Where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6$ and β_7 are the parameters in the model, ε_i are the errors. Data from year 2008 to year 2016 (training set) is used to predict ROE in year 2017 (testing set). The training set is composed of 566 values and the testing set is composed of 64 values. In the case of training and testing sets, root mean square error (RMSE), R-squared and mean absolute error (MAE) are used to assess the overall model. Note that the less values for RMSE and MAE mean better model performance while large value for R-squared means better model performance.

R-software (R core team, 2017), CARET package (Kuhn, 2008; 2020), gbm package (Greenwell et al. 2019), xgboost package (Chen et al. 2019) and lime package (Pedersen, 2019) are used to analyse the data and to obtain all the results in this study.

4.1 Multiple linear regression (MLR)

Table 1 illustrates the results of multiple linear regression analysis. Since “p-value” for “F-statistics” is zero, the regression model is significance at all common levels (0.01, 0.05 and 0.10). From column “p-value” it can note that the variables “logTOTA”, “LIAB”, “SVOL”, “AGEB” and “BSZ” are significance at 0.05 level of significant. The variables “logTOTA”, “LIAB” and “BSZ” have a positive effect on “ROE” while “SVOL” and “AGEB” have a negative effect on ROE. The variables “BOKV” and “NCSH” are not significant.

Table 1. MLR analysis for ROE model

Term	Coefficients	Std. Error	t-statistics	p-value	F-statistics
Intercept	-7.773	3.667	-2.120	0.034*	10.67
logTOTA	3.532	0.656	5.380	0.000***	p-value=0
LIAB	1.025	0.204	5.018	0.000***	$R^2 = 0.118$
BOKV	-2.159	1.395	-1.548	0.122	
SVOL	-1.396	0.679	-2.056	0.040*	
AGEB	-0.104	0.037	-2.803	0.005**	
NCSH	0.0001	0.0001	0.633	0.527	
BSZ	0.6075	0.2278	2.666	0.008**	

Note that “(***)” significance at 0.001, “(**)” significance at 0.01, “(*)” significance at 0.05 and “(.)” significance at 0.10”

Table 2. MLR, Gboost and Xgboost important scores for each variable

MLR		Gboost		Xgboost	
Variable	Score	Variable	Score	Variable	Score
logTOTA	5.38	LIAB	0.379	LIAB	0.466
LIAB	5.02	SVOL	0.252	logTOTA	0.143
AGEB	2.80	logTOTA	0.113	SVOL	0.136
BSZ	2.67	BOKV	0.093	AGEB	0.086
SVOL	2.05	AGEB	0.080	BOKV	0.075
BOKV	1.55	NCSH	0.052	NCSH	0.052
NSCH	0.63	BSZ	0.029	BSZ	0.040

Table 2. MLR, Gboost and Xgboost important scores for each variable

MLR							
Variable	logTOTA	LIAB	AGEB	BSZ	SVOL	BOKV	NCSH
Important score	5.38	5.02	2.80	2.67	2.05	1.55	0.63
Gboost							
Variable	LIAB	SVOL	logTOTA	BOKV	AGEB	NCSH	BSZ
Important score	0.379	0.252	0.113	0.093	0.080	0.052	0.029
Xgboost							
Variable	LIAB	logTOTA	SVOL	AGEB	BOKV	NCSH	BSZ
Important score	0.466	0.143	0.136	0.086	0.075	0.052	0.040

Table 2 shows the variable importance for ROE model for all methods. FOR MLR method logTOTA is at the top of important metric. The score started to decrease with LIAB, AGEB, BSZ, SVOL and NCSH. Consequently, logTOTA and LIAB have the most influence on the prediction of ROE while the less importance variables are BOKV and NCSH.

Table 3. Performance metrics for ROE model using MLR, Gboost and Xgboost methods

	Data	
	Training	Testing
MLR		
RMSE	11.087	7.736
R-square	0.118	0.217
MAE	6.735	5.666
Gboost		
RMSE	8.001	7.477
R-square	0.585	0.304
MAE	4.768	5.150
Xgboost		
RMSE	1.782	7.033
R-square	0.979	0.381
MAE	1.287	5.027

Table 3. Performance metrics for ROE model using MLR, Gboost and Xgboost

	MLR			Gboost			Xgboost		
Data	RMSE	R-sq.	MAE	RMSE	R-sq.	MAE	RMSE	R-sq.	MAE
Training	11.087	0.118	6.735	8.001	0.585	4.768	1.782	0.979	1.287
Testing	7.736	0.217	5.666	7.477	0.304	5.150	7.033	0.381	5.027

Table 3 shows the performance results for multiple linear regression. The RMSE is 11.087 for training set and it is 7.736 for testing set. With respect to R-squared, it is 11.8% for training set and increases to 21.7% for testing set. For MAE, it is 6.735 for training set and decreases to 5.666 for testing set.

4.2 Gradient boost (Gboost)

Figure 1 displays the results over the tuning parameters for 566 cases and 7 features. The best model parameters are selected based on the minimum value for RMSE. The last values that utilized for the ROE model are the number of trees is 100, the interaction depth is 3, the shrinkage is 0.01 and the minimum observation in node is 10.

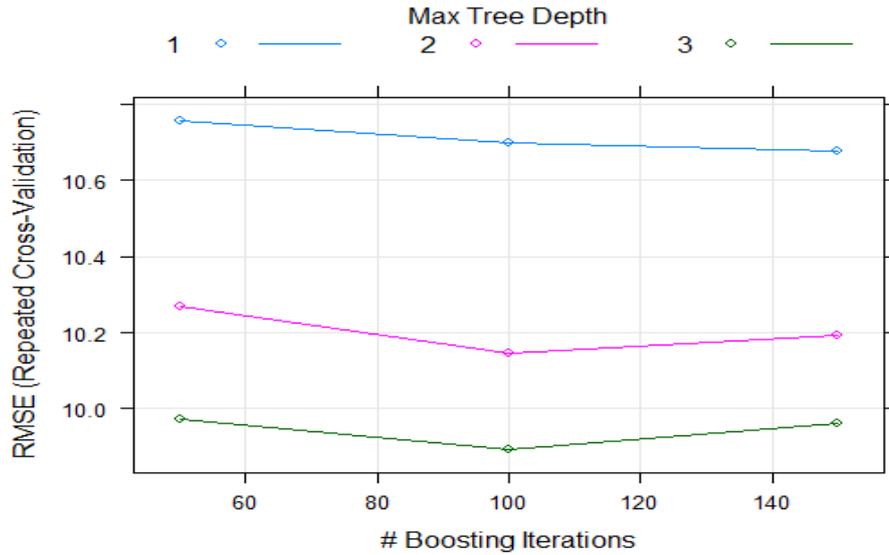


Figure 1. Tune length for ROE model using Gboost method

Table 2 shows the variable importance for ROE model using Gboost method. LIAB, logTOTA and SVOL are the most variables affecting the prediction of ROE. The importance scores start decreasing with AGEB, BOKV, NCSH and BSZ.

The performance results for Gboost are shown in Table 3. The RMSE is 8.001 for training set while it decreases to 7.477 for testing set. R-squared is 58.5% for training set and decreases to 30.4% for testing set. MAE is 4.768 for training set and increases to 5.150 for testing set.

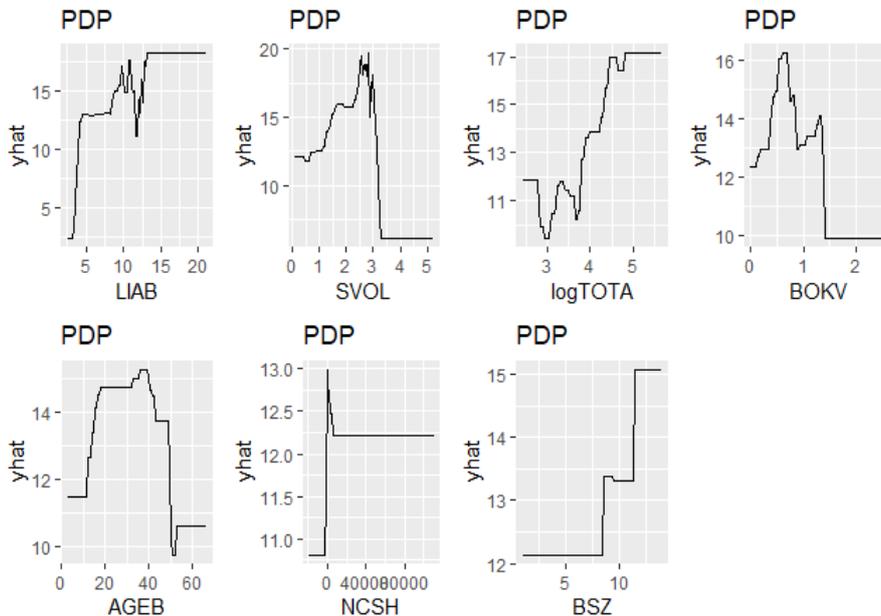


Figure 2. Partial dependent plot (PDP) for ROE model using Gboost method

Figure 2 displays the partial dependent plot for ROE model using Gboost method. This plot shows the changes in the average predicted value of ROE with a given feature while holding other variables constant. The advantage of this plot is that it reflects the changes in the predicted value across the whole range of the independent variables. For example, it can divide range of

AGEB variable to two intervals, from 0 to about 40 where there is trend up in the average of the predicted value while for more than 40 there is trend down in the average of predicted value. On average, it can see that the variables logTOTA, LIAB, NCSH and BSZ will increase the average of the predicted value. In addition, on average the variables SVOL, AGEB and BOKV will decrease the average of the predicted value.

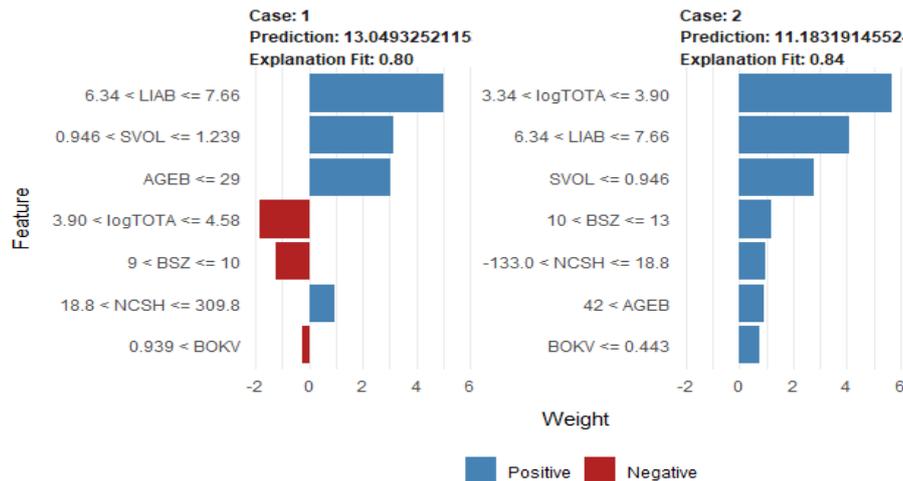


Figure 3. LIME plot for ROE model using Gboost method

Figure 3 displays the LIME plot for cases 1 and 2 (first two years) using Gboost method. This figure shows an individual plot for the first two cases from testing data and provide the predicted value for each case based on the 7 features that interpret the linear model in the local region for this observation and whether the feature brings an increase (positive) or decrease (negative) in average predicted value for ROE. It also gives the model fit for each case to show how well the model illustrates the local region. Therefore, it can be inferred that case 1 has a good explanation fit about 80% with a positive support for $6.34 < LIAB \leq 7.66$, $SVOL > 0.946$, $AGEB \leq 29$ and $18.8 < NCSH \leq 309.8$ and negative support from $3.9 < \log TOTA \leq 4.58$ and $9 < BSZ \leq 10$. For case 2, it has high explanation fit about 84% with positive support from all features especially $3.34 < \log TOTA \leq 3.9$, $6.34 < LIAB \leq 7.66$, $SVOL \leq 0.946$, $10 < BSZ \leq 13$, $-133 < NCSH \leq 18.8$, $AGEB > 42$ and $BOKV \leq 0.433$.

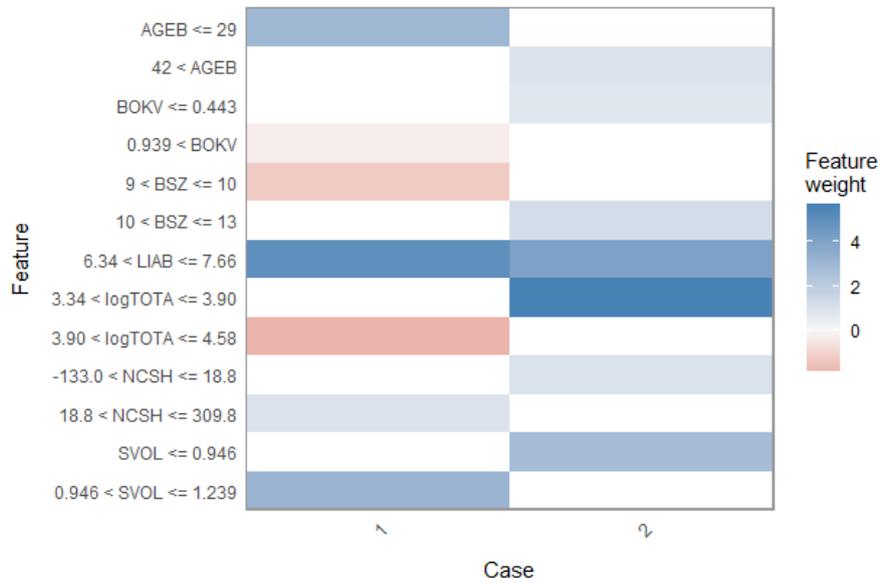


Figure 4. Heatmap for ROE model using Gboost method

Figure 4 displays the heatmap for ROE model using Gboost method. This plot is showing the selection of different variables across all the observations that influence each case. In other words, it is very useful plot to find out common features which affect all observations. For example, in case 1, AGE <= 29 and 0.946 < SVOL <= 1.239 has the same positive effect on the average predicted value. Similarly, 9 < BSZ <= 10 and 3.90 < logTOTA <= 4.58 has the same negative effect on the average predicted value.

4.3 Extreme gradient boosting (Xgboost)

Figure 5 displays the results over the tuning parameters for 566 cases and 7 features. The best model parameters are selected based on the less value for RMSE. The last values are the number of rounds=150, the maximum depth=3, eta=0.3, gamma=0, the column sample by tree = 0.8, the minimum child weight=1 and sub-sample=1.

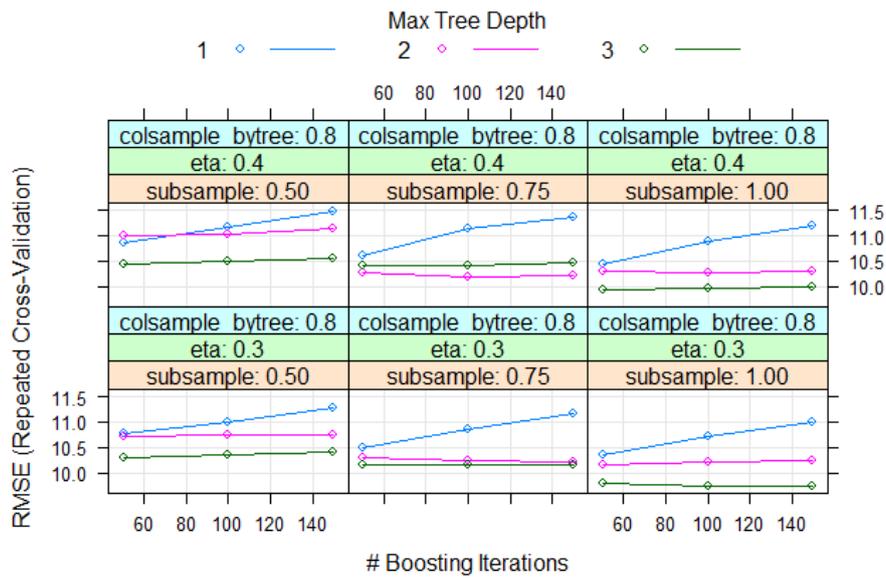


Figure 5. Tune length for Xgboost

Table 2 shows the variable importance for ROE model using Xgboost. The LIAB, logTOTA and SVOL are the most variables affecting the prediction of ROE. The importance scores start to decrease with AGEB, BOKV, NCSH and BSZ.

Table 4 shows the performance results for ROE model using Xgboost. The RMSE is 1.782 for training set and it increases to 7.033 for testing set. R-squared is 97.9% for training set and decreases to 38.1% for testing set. MAE is 1.2877 for training set and increases to 5.027 for testing set.

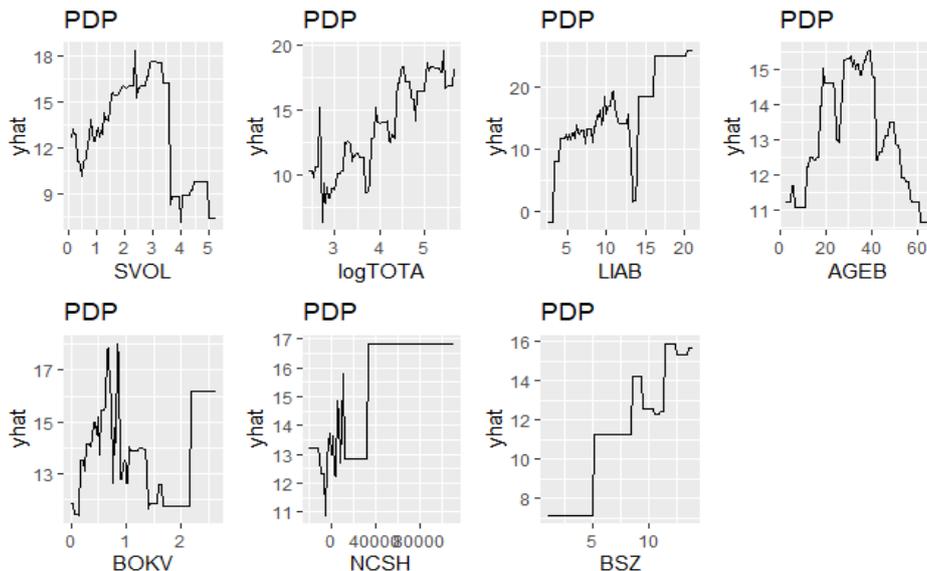


Figure 6. Partial dependent plot (PDP) for ROE model using Xgboost method

Figure 6 displays the partial dependent plot for ROE model. This plot shows the changes in the average predicted value of ROE with a given feature while holding other variables constant.

The advantage of this plot is that it reflects the changes in the predicted value across the whole range of the independent variables. For example, it can divide range of AGEB variable to two intervals, from 0 to about 35, there is trend up in the average of predicted value while for more than 35 there is trend down in the average of predicted value. On average, it can see that the variables logTOTA, LIAB, NCSH and BSZ will increase the average of the response variable. In addition, on average the variables SVOL, AGEB and BOKV will decrease the average of the response variable.

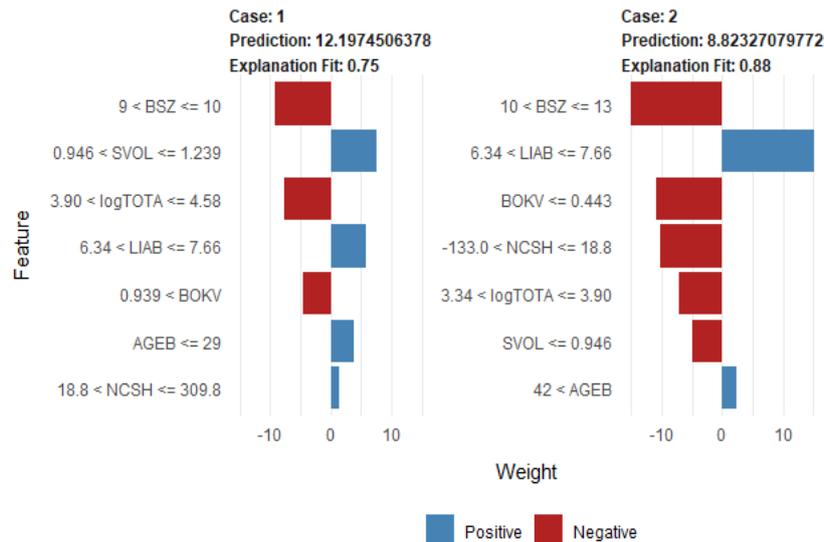


Figure 7. LIME plot for ROE model using Xgboost method

Figure 7 displays the LIME plot for cases 1 and 2 (first two years). This figure shows an individual plot for the first two cases from testing data and provide the predicted value for each case based on the 7 features that clarify the linear model in the local region for this observation and whether the feature brings an increase (positive) or decrease (negative) in average predicted value for ROE. It also gives the model fit for each case to see how well the model interprets the local region. Therefore, it can be inferred that the case 1 has a good explanation fit about 75% with negative support from $9 < BSZ \leq 10$, $3.90 < \log TOTA \leq 4.58$, and $BOKV > 0.939$ and positive support from $0.946 < SVOL \leq 1.239$, $6.34 < LIAB \leq 7.66$, $AGEB \leq 29$ and $18.8 < NCSH \leq 309.8$. Similarly, the case 2 has a high explanation fit about 88% with positive support from $6.34 < LIAB \leq 7.66$, and $AGEB > 42$ and negative support in $10 < BSZ \leq 13$, $BOKV \leq 0.433$, $-133 < NCSH \leq 18.8$, $3.34 < \log TOTA \leq 3.9$ and $SVOL \leq 0.946$.

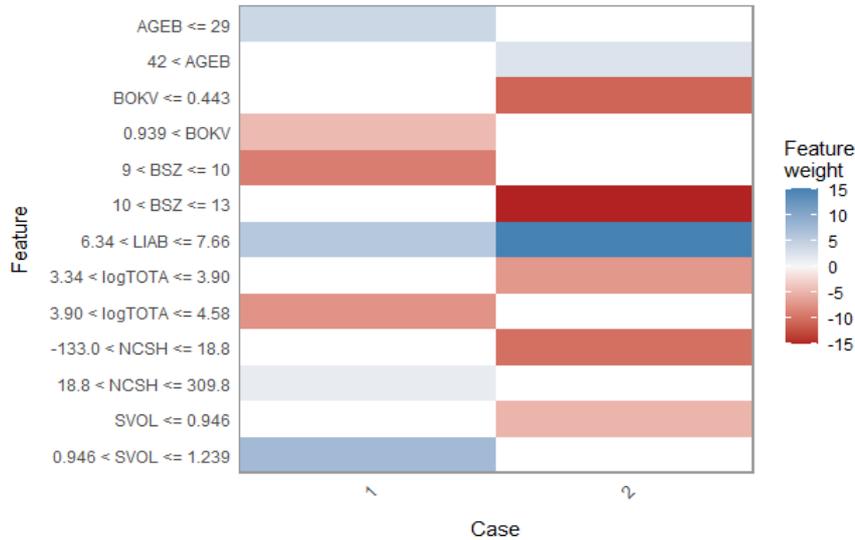


Figure 8. Heatmap for ROE model using Xgboost method

Figure 8 displays the heatmap for ROE model. This plot is showing the selection of different variables across all the values that influence each case. In other words, it is very useful plot to find out common features which affect all observations. For example, in case 1, AGE <= 29, 6.34 < LIAB <= 7.66 and 0.946 < SVOL <= 1.239 has the same positive effect on the average predicted value. Similarly, BOKV <= 0.443 and -1.33 < NCSH <= 18.8 has the same negative effect on the average predicted value.

4.4 Discussion

The performance metric results are collected in Table 3. In terms of RMSE and training set the preferable method is Xgboost 1.782, pursued by Gboost 8.001 and regression 11.087. This means that Xgboost improves the results by at least 6.219 (8.001-1.782). With respect to testing set, the preferable method is Xgboost 7.033, followed by Gboost 7.477 and regression 7.736. This means that Xgboost improves the results by 0.444 (7.0477-7.033).

Regarding R-squared and training set, the preferable method is Xgboost 97.9%, followed by Gboost 58.5% and regression 11.8%. This means that the Xgboost improves the results by at least 39.4% (97.9%-58.5%). With respect to testing data, the best method is Xgboost 35.1%, followed by Gboost 30.4% and regression 21.7%. This means that the Xgboost improves the results by 4.4% (35.1%-30.7%). In the same way, it can rank models with respect to MAE. Prior studies such as De Graph (2017) who used support vector machine and fuzzy fingerprint to predict financial performance of firm using return on equity. The accuracy for the support vector machine and fuzzy fingerprint were 70.8% and 83.3%, respectively, while our results for the gradient boosting and extreme gradient boosting in terms of R-squared were 58.5% and 97.9%, respectively. The Xgboost achieves accuracy superior to other methods. In addition, the results of this study are consisted with the results of Balakrishnan et al. (2010) who considered the total assets and mark to book ratio as important variables in building predictive models.

5 Conclusion

Three methods of machine learning, namely, the multiple linear regression, the gradient boosting and the extreme gradient boosting are investigated to be used in predicting and interpreting firm performance based on return on equity in MENA countries. These methods are utilized data from 8 countries in MENA area. Sample of 63 banks is selected to give a total of 630 cases over 10 years period. To validate the models, the data are divided into the training data that included first 9 years to train the models and the testing data that included the last year to test the models.

The results suggested that the extreme gradient boosting method is outperformed the multiple linear regression and gradient boosting methods. In case of using extreme gradient boosting method, the model performance is improved by at least 6.219 for training data and 0.444 for testing data in terms of RMSE. In terms of R-squared, the extreme gradient boosting showed improving in the model performance by about 39% for training set and about 4% for testing set. In general, the extreme gradient boosting illustrated better performance for training data and slightly better performance for testing data in terms of RMSE, R-squared and MAE over other two methods. The importance scores for the gradient boosting methods illustrated that the most important variables in predicting and interpreting return on equity are the total liabilities to total assets, the total assets and the stock volatility with respect to the market. The partial dependent and local interpretable model-agnostic explanation plots showed that the total assets, the total liabilities to total assets and the board size had the most stability in predicting and interpreting return on equity over the whole range of the data.

Since this study characterized a set of main variables that have the most importance scores, this may benefit the managers of banks in MENA countries by keeping a close watch on these relevant variables to help in increasing the market financial stability for the banks. For example, the total liability to total assets (leverage) reflects how a bank is financially stable. The higher the ratio, the higher the degree of leverage and, therefore, the higher the risk to invest in that bank. This study could be extended to other sectors such as service sector.

References

- Alaminos D., Fernandez-Gamez M., Santos, C. J. and Campos-Soria J. (2019). Predicting systemic banking crises using extreme gradient boosting. *Journal of Scientific & Industrial Research*, Vol. 78, pp. 571-575.
- AL Khalaileh, M. (2001). The Relationship between Accounting Performance Indexes and Market Performance Indexes, An Applied Study on Listed Corporations at Amman Security Exchange. *Administrative Sciences Studies Magazine*, Jordan University, Amman, Vol. 1, pp 1-10.
- Balakrishnan, R. Qui, X. and Srinivasan, P. (2010). On the predictive ability of narrative disclosures in annual reports. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 202, pp. 789-801.
- Bochkay K. and Levine B. (2017). Using MD&A to improve earnings forecasts. *Journal of Accounting, Auditing & Finance*, Vol.15, pp.1-25.
- Chang, Y.C., Chang KH and Wu GJ (2018). Application of extreme gradient boosting trees in the construction of credit risk assessment models for financial institutions. *Applied Soft computing*, Vol. 73, pp. 914-920.
- Chen, Y.J. Lin J., Chen Y. and Wu, J. (2019). Financial forecasting with multivariate adaptive regression splines and queen genetic algorithm-support vector regression. *IEEE Access*, Vol. 7, pp. 112931-112938.

- Chen T. and He, T. (2015). Xgboost: extreme gradient boosting, R package version 0.3.0. technical report.
- Chen T., He T., Benesty M., Khotilovich V., Tang Y., Cho H., Chen K., Mitchell R., Cano I., Zhou T., Li M., Xie J., Lin M., Geng Y. and Li Y. (2019). Xgboost: extreme gradient boosting, R package version 0.90.0.2. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=xgboost>
- Carmona, P., Climent, F. and Momparler, A. (2019). Predicting failure in the U.S. banking sector: An extreme gradient boosting approach. *International Review of Economics and Finance*, 61, pp. 304-323.
- Climent, F., Momparler, A. and Carmona, P. (2019). Anticipating bank distress in the Eurozone: An extreme gradient boosting approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 101, pp. 885-896.
- Correia, C., Flynn, D., Uliana, E. and Wormald, M. (2003). *Financial management*. 5th Edition. Cape Town: Juta.
- De Graaff, R. (2017). Sentiment analysis of annual reports as a financial performance indicator. Master of Science in Business Information Systems, Eindhoven University of Technology, Holland.
- Delen, C. K. and Uyar, A. (2013). Measuring firm performance using financial ratios: A decision tree approach. *Expert System Applications*, Vol. 40. pp. 3970-3983.
- Dhieb N., Ghazzai H., Besbes H. and Massoud Y. (2019). Extreme gradient boosting machine learning algorithm for safe auto insurance operations. IEEE International Conference on Vehicular Electronics and Safety (ICVES), Cairo, Egypt, 2019, pp. 1-5.
- Fire, C., Ross, S.A., Westerfield, R.W. & Jordan, B.D. (2004). *Fundamentals of corporate finance*. 3rd South African edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Friedman J. (2001). Greedy function approximation: A Gradient boosting machine. *Annals of Statistics*, Vol. 29, pp. 1189–1232.
- Greenwell B., Boehmke B., Cunningham J. and GBM Developers (2019). gbm: Generalized Boosted Regression Models. R package version 2.1.5. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gbm>
- Hastie T., Tibshirani R. and Friedman J (2008). *The Elements of statistical learning: Data mining, inference and prediction*. Springer, 2 ed.
- Hunt J., Myers J. and Myers L. (2019). Improving earnings predictions with machine learning. <https://zicklin.baruch.cuny.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/10/2019/12/Improving-Earnings-Predictions-with-Machine-Learning-Hunt-Myers-Myers.pdf>.
- Kabajeh, M. A. M. Al Nu' Aimat S. M. A. & Dahmash F. N. (2012). The relationship between the ROA, ROE and ROI ratios with Jordanian insurance public companies market share prices. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_2_No_11_June_2012/12.pdf. Accessed on April 23rd 2015. pp. 115-120.
- Kuhn, M. (2008). Caret package. *Journal of Statistical Software*, Vol. 28, pp.1-26.
- Kuhn, M., & Johnson K. (2013). *Applied predictive modelling*. New York: Springer.
- Kuhn, M. (2020). caret: Classification and Regression Training. R package version 6.0-86. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=caret>
- Monteiro, A. (2006). A quick guide to financial ratios. *The Citizen*, Money web Business Insert, 6 May:3.
- Mousa, G. and Elamir, E. (2018). Determinants of forward-looking disclosure: evidence from Bahraini capital market. *Afro-Asian Journal of Finance and Accounting*, Vol. 8, pp. 1-19.
- Muehlhauser, G.R. (1995). Putting performance measures to work. *Journal of Applied Corporate Finance*, Vol. 8, pp. 47-54.

- Mustapha, I. B. and Saeed, F. (2016). Bioactive molecule prediction using extreme gradient boosting. *Molecules*, 21, pp. 1-11.
- Natekin A. and Knoll A (2013). Gradient boosting machines, a tutorial. *Frontier in Neurorobotics*, Vol. 7, pp.21-42.
- Onder, E., & Altintas, A. T. (2017). Financial performance evaluation of Turkish construction companies in Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST). *International Journal of Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences*, Vol. 7, pp. 108–113.
- Pedersen T. and Benesty M. (2019). Lime: Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations. R package version 0.5.1. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=lime>.
- Rappaport, A. (1986). *Creating shareholder value*. New York: The Free Press.
- Ribeiro M.T., Singh S., and Guestrin C. (2016). Why Should I Trust You?: Explaining the Predictions of Any Classifier. In Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD '16). ACM, New York, NY, USA, pp. 1135-1144.
- R Core Team (2017). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/>.
- Schapire, R. (2002). The boosting approach to machine learning: an overview. *Nonlinear Estimate Classification Lecture Notes Statistics*, Vol. 171, pp. 49–171.
- Stowe, J.D., Robinson, T.R., Pinto, J.E. & McLeavy, D.W. (2002). *Analysis of equity investments: Valuation*. Baltimore: AIMR.
- Wenxin, J. (2002). On weak base hypotheses and their implications for boosting regression and classification. *Annal Statistics*, Vol. 30, pp. 51–73. Available on line at: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/summary?doi=10.1.1.134.9366>.
- Zieba M., Tomczak K. and Tomczak J. (2016). Ensemble boosted trees with synthetic features generation in application to bankruptcy prediction. *Expert Systems with Applications*, Vol. 58, pp. 93-101.