

# **Credit Card Fraud Detection using Data mining and Statistical Methods**

S. Beigi<sup>1,2</sup> and M.-R Amin-Naseri<sup>1\*</sup>

Faculty of Industrial and Systems Engineering, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran.
 Industrial Engineering Department, Faculty of basic science and Engineering, Kosar university of Bojnord, Bojnord, Iran.

Received 10 October 2018; Revised 03 September 2019; Accepted 23 November 2019 \*Corresponding author: amin\_nas@modares.ac.ir (MR. Amin-Naseri).

### Abstract

Due to the today's advancement in technology and businesses, fraud detection has become a critical component of financial transactions. Considering vast amounts of data in large datasets, it becomes more difficult to detect fraud transactions manually. In this work, we propose a combined method using both data mining and statistical tasks, utilizing feature selection, resampling, and cost-sensitive learning for credit card fraud detection. In the first step, useful features are identified using the genetic algorithm. Next, the optimal resampling strategy is determined based on the design of experiments and response surface methodologies. Finally, the cost-sensitive C4.5 algorithm is used as the base learner in the Adaboost algorithm. Using a real-time dataset, the results obtained show that applying the proposed method significantly reduces the misclassification cost by at least 14% compared with decision tree, naïve bayes, bayesian network, neural network, and artificial immune system.

Keywords: Fraud Detection, Credit Cards, Feature Selection, Resampling, Cost-sensitive Learning.

# 1. Introduction

Due to the rapid advancement in technology, using credit cards for financial activities has dramatically increased [1]. Unfortunately, the fraudulent use of credit cards has also become an attractive source of revenue for criminals. The occurrence of credit card fraud is increasing dramatically due to the weak security of the traditional credit card processing systems, which results in the loss of millions of dollars worldwide annually. Sophisticated techniques are being used in credit card activities, which necessitates effective technologies to detect fraud in order to secure the payment systems. Statistics and machine learning provide effective techniques for fraud detection, and have been applied successfully to detect activities such as money laundering, e-commerce credit card fraud, telecommunications fraud, and computer intrusion [1]. In the recent years, it has been shown that data mining techniques have a powerful performance to extract the hidden knowledge of databases. It discovers information within the data that queries and reports cannot effectively reveal. In this work, we use both data mining and statistical methods for credit card fraud detection.

The rest of this paper is organized as what follows. Section 2 reviews the previous literature on the techniques for credit card fraud detection. Section 3 reviews some of the related data mining and statistical methods. The proposed method is then described in Section 4. In Section 5, a real dataset provided by a commercial bank is applied as a case study to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method. Finally, the concluding remarks are presented in Section 6.

# 2. Related works

The knowledge discovery in databases (KDD) is interactive and iterative, involving numerous steps with many decisions made by the user. One of these basic steps is matching the goals of the KDD process that is identified in the first step- to a particular data mining method: e.g., summarization, classification, and clustering, etc [2]. Similarly, the goal of fraud detection should be matched to a data mining method. Generally speaking, data mining techniques can be divided into two types in terms of whether the fraudulent event is identified in the past data: supervised and unsupervised [3]. Ngai et al. [4] have shown that classification as a supervised method is the most frequently used data mining application in financial fraud detection. In any case, a classifier should classify each customer into one of the two classes of normal or fraudulent customers.

With a comprehensive view, we find that we are faced with a particular type of classification problem. Considering a bank database with millions of transactions in a day, only some few transactions may be suspicious in a month. In other words, we are faced with an extreme imbalanced database. The problem with an imbalance data set is the skewed distribution of the data that makes the learning algorithms ineffective, especially in predicting the minority classes. In this section, we review the literature in which problems with imbalanced data classification and credit card fraud detection techniques are. Although the lack of publicly available databases has limited the publications on financial fraud detection, in this section we will review some of the available ones.

# 2.1. Imbalanced data classification

A wide number of approaches have been proposed to the imbalanced learning problem that falls largely into two major categories. The first one is data resampling in which the training instances are modified to produce a balanced data distribution that allows classifiers to perform similarly to standard classification [5]. The second one is through algorithmic modification to make base learning methods more attuned to class imbalance issues [5]. Lopez et al. [5] have shown that both methods are good and equivalent approaches to address the imbalance problem while the hybridization techniques are competitive with the standard methodologies only in some cases.

Undersampling and oversampling are two commonly adopted resampling methods. When an undersampling approach is adopted, few instances are drawn from the majority class as the training data. For the oversampling approach, instances are duplicated one or more times the amount of the original data in the minority class [6]. Some approaches that employ an oversampling strategy, introduces artificial objects into the data space [7]. The best-known technique here is Synthetic Minority Over-sampling TEchnique (SMOTE) [8]. It oversamples a minority class by taking each positive instance and generating synthetic instances along a line segment joining their knearest neighbors in the minority class. This causes the selection of a random instance along the line segment between two specific features. The synthetic instances cause a classifier to create larger and less specific decision regions, rather than

smaller and more specific regions. However, SMOTE encounters the overgeneralization problem. It blindly generalizes the region of a minority class without considering a majority class. This strategy is particularly problematic in the case of highly skewed class distributions since, in such cases, a minority class is very sparse concerning a majority class, thus resulting in a greater chance of class mixture [9].

Han et al. [10] have designed the improvement of SMOTE, namely Borderline-SMOTE. The authors divided positive instances into three regions; noise, borderline, and safe, by considering the number of negative instances on the k nearest neighbors. Borderline-SMOTE uses the same oversampling technique as SMOTE but it oversamples only the borderline instances of a minority class instead of oversampling all instances of the class like SMOTE does.

Based on SMOTE, Safe-Level-SMOTE, Safe-Level-Synthetic Minority Oversampling TEchnique, assigns each positive instance its safe level before generating synthetic instances. Each synthetic instance is positioned closer to the largest safe level so all synthetic instances are generated only in safe regions [9]. Some other SMOTE related methods have been proposed in [11] and [12].

Some undersampling methods such as Tomek links [13] and Wilson's Edited Nearest Neighbor Rule [14] are also considered as a data cleaning method. The main motivation behind these methods is not only to balance the training data but also to remove noisy examples lying on the wrong side of the decision border. The removal of noisy examples might aid in finding better-defined class clusters, therefore, allowing the creation of simpler models with better generalization capabilities [15]. Some combinational methods have been proposed in [15]. Two of the Batista et al.'s proposed methods [15], Smote + Tomek and Smote + ENN, have presented very good results for datasets with a small number of positive examples. Also they have shown that random oversampling, a very simple oversampling method, is very competitive to more complex oversampling methods.

The method proposed in [16] combines synthetic boundary data generation and boosting procedures to improve the prediction accuracies of both the minority and majority classes. This method uses only synthetic boundary data for training that differs from those prior works.

Despite the numerous attempts made to determine the appropriate resampling proportion in each class by using a trial-and-error method in order to construct a classification model with imbalanced data, the optimal strategy for each class may be infeasible when using such a method. Tong et al. have proposed a novel analytical procedure to determine the optimal resampling strategy based on the design of experiments (DOE) and response surface methodologies (RSM) [6].

It should be noted that due to space limitation, the technical and mathematical details of the papers are not presented here, and the interested readers are referred to the mentioned references. Some more resampling methods can be found in [17], [18], [11], [16], and [19].

# 2.2. Credit card fraud detection

Some researchers have proposed methods to detect financial frauds such as credit card frauds, money laundering, and insurance frauds. The reported studies on the use of data mining approaches for credit card fraud detection are relatively few, possibly due to the lack of available data for research. In this section, we will review some of the available papers.

Paasch [20] has proposed a detection engine based on the artificial neural networks (ANNs). ANNs are tuned in three aspects by the Genetic Algorithms (GAs), namely in the determination of the optimum set of input factors to ANN, determination of the optimum topology of ANN, and determination of the optimum weights connecting the ANN neurons. Bhattacharyya et al. [21] have also used the data of the Paasch's research work [20]. They have evaluated two advanced data mining approaches, support vector machines, and random forests, together with the well-known logistic regression, as part of an attempt to better detect credit card fraud. All techniques showed adequate ability to model fraud in the considered data but random forests showed a much higher performance at the upper file depths.

Lin Tau et al. [22] have proposed a radial basis function neural network model based on the APC-III clustering algorithm and the recursive least square algorithm for anti-money laundering (AML). APC-III clustering algorithm is used for determining the parameters of radial basis function in the hidden layer, and the recursive least square (RLS) algorithm is adopted to update weights of connections between the hidden layer and output layer. The proposed method was compared against support vector machine (SVM) and outlier detection methods, which showed that the proposed method had the highest detection rate and the lowest false positive rate.

Xuan and Pengzhu [23] have proposed a suspicious activity recognition method basing on scan statistics. They found that their proposed algorithm can highly reduce the type I error, while they still need to further increase the sensitivity of their detection algorithm. They used a real dataset from a commercial bank in Shanghai; which consisted of 640 accounts and their entire transactions within six years, with a total of 120,986 transaction records.

Zhang et al. [24] have proposed a new methodology for Link Discovery based on Correlation Analysis (LDCA). A prototype of their method had been implemented, and preliminary testing and evaluations based on a real MLC (Money Laundering Crimes) case data had been reported. The preliminary testing and evaluations demonstrated the promise of their proposed method in automatically generating MLC group models, as well as validating the LDCA methodology.

Larik and Haider [25] have presented a hybrid anomaly detection approach for identifying money laundering activities. A clustering algorithm, namely TEART, and an anomaly index metric, named AICAF, were proposed as part of the presented approach. The approach learns the past behavior of similar types of customers and uses this information to mark a transaction as suspicious if the transaction characteristics vary significantly from the learned behavior.

A set of unusual behavior detection algorithms has been presented based on support vector machine (SVM) in order to take the place of traditional predefined-rule suspicious transaction data filtering system in [26]. A real financial transaction record database acquired from Wuhan Branch of Agriculture Bank in south-central China has been adopted in this experiment. It comprises 5000 accounts, 1.2 million records over 7 months. The experimental results obtained indicated that SVM was efficient for AML data reporting system reconstruction. The algorithm could get a fast speed and high accuracy using RBF kernel.

Sanchez et al. [27] have extracted a set of fuzzy association rules from a data set containing genuine and fraudulent transactions made with credit cards, and compared these results with the criteria that the risk analysts applied in their fraud analysis processes. The proposed methodology was applied on a dataset about credit card fraud in some of the most important retail companies in Chile.

Quah and Sriganesh [28] have focused on real-time fraud detection and presented a new and innovative approach in understanding spending patterns to detect potential fraud cases. It made use of selforganization map to decipher, filter, and analyze customer behavior for detection of fraud.

Kirkos et al. [29] have investigated the usefulness of Decision Trees, Neural Networks, and Bayesian Belief Networks in the identification of fraudulent financial statements. In terms of performance, the Bayesian Belief Network model achieved the best performance, managing to correctly classify 90.3% of the validation sample in a 10-fold cross validation procedure. The accuracy rates of the Neural Network model and the Decision Tree model were 80% and 73.6%, respectively.

The objective of the Duman and Ozcelik's work [30] was taken differently than the typical classification problems in that they had a variable misclassification cost. As the standard data mining algorithms did not fit well with imbalanced datasets, they decided to use meta-heuristic algorithms. For this purpose, two well-known methods, the genetic algorithm, and the scatter search were combined. At the end of the study, the proposed method had improved the performance of the current solution in a bank by about 200%.

Somasundaram and Reddy have presented a costsensitive Risk Induced Bayesian Inference Bagging model (RIBIB) for credit card fraud detection. RIBIB proposed a novel bagging architecture, incorporating a constrained bag creation method, a Risk Induced Bayesian Inference method as a base learner, and a costsensitive weighted voting combiner [31].

Zhang et al. have developed a fraud detection system that employs a deep learning architecture together with an advanced feature engineering process based on the homogeneity-oriented behavior analysis (HOBA). They showed that their proposed method could identify relatively more fraudulent transactions than the benchmark methods under an acceptable false-positive rate [32].

The authors in [33] have presented a hybrid technique that combines supervised and unsupervised techniques to improve the fraud detection accuracy. Unsupervised outlier scores, computed at different levels of granularity, were compared and tested on a real credit card fraud detection dataset. The experimental results obtained showed that the combination was efficient and did indeed improve the accuracy of the detection.

Some of the other related papers can be found in [34], [35], [36], [37], and [38].

# 3. Datamining and statistical techniques

In this section, an overview of the applied tools and techniques is presented.

# 3.1. Feature selection

Generally, the number of variables describing financial datasets is quite large. Analysis with a

large number of variables generally requires a high memory and computation power. Therefore, a need arises to determine a relatively small number of variables, distinctive for each one of the two classes of patterns. These variables are called the 'input features' forming the components of a feature vector Z. The feature selection is, therefore, a process of dimensionality reduction, wherein an optimal subset of features is selected from a large size pattern vector [39].

The objective of feature selection is three-fold: improving the prediction performance of the predictors, providing faster and more cost-effective predictors, and providing a better understanding of the underlying process that generate the data [40]. Description of the two feature selection algorithms that are used in this work are as what follows.

# **3.1.1 CHI** ( $\chi^2$ ) statistic

This method measures the lack of independence between a term and the category. Chi-Squared is a common statistical test that measures divergence from the distribution expected if one assumes that the feature occurrence is actually independent from the class value. In statistics, the  $\chi^2$  test is applied to test the independence of two events, where two events A and B are defined to be independent if  $P(AB) = P(A) \times P(B)$ equivalently, or, P(A | B) = P(A) and P(B | A) = P(B). In feature selection, the two events are the occurrence of the term and occurrence of the class. The null hypothesis is that there is no correlation; each value is as likely to have instances in any one class like any other class. Given the null hypothesis, the  $\chi^2$ statistic measures how far away the actual value is from the expected value (see (1)):

$$\chi^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{c} \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^{2}}{E_{ij}}$$
(1)

In Equation (1), r is the number of different values for the feature in question, c is the number of classes in question (in this work, c = 2),  $O_{ij}$  is the number of instances with value i that are in class j, and  $E_{ij}$  is the expected number of instances with value i and class j based on (2). The larger this chi-squared statistic, the more unlikely it is that the distribution of values and classes are independent, i.e. they are related, and the feature in question is relevant to the class [41].

$$E_{ij} = \frac{(\sum_{n_c=1}^{c} O_{in_c}) \times (\sum_{n_r=1}^{r} O_{n_r j})}{N}$$
(2)

# **3.1.2.** Genetic algorithm

The Genetic Algorithm (GA) is an efficient method for function optimization in which a solution (i.e. a point in the search space) is called a "chromosome" or string. A GA approach requires a population of chromosomes (strings) representing a combination of features from the solution set and requires a cost function (called an evaluation or fitness function). This function calculates the fitness of each chromosome. The algorithm manipulates a finite set of chromosomes. In each generation, chromosomes are subjected to certain operators such as cross-over and mutation, which are analogous to processes that occur in natural reproduction. Cross-over of two chromosomes produces a pair of offspring chromosomes, which are synthesis of the traits of their parents. Mutation of a chromosome produces a nearly identical chromosome with only local alternations of some regions of the chromosome [42].

The optimization process is performed in cycles called generations. During each generation, a set of new chromosomes is created using cross-over, mutation, and other operators. Since the population size is fixed, only the best chromosomes are allowed to survive to the next cycle of reproduction. The cycle repeats until the population "converges", i.e. all the solutions are reasonably the same and further exploration seems fruitless, or until the answer is "good enough" [42]. In the feature selection context, the prediction error or classification cost of the model built upon a set of features is optimized.

#### 3.2. Response Surface Methodology (RSM)

RSM comprises statistical and mathematical approaches that use DOE to explore how several explanatory variables and one or more response variables are related. RSM largely focuses on obtaining an optimal response based on a set of designed experiments. While RSM models polynomial functions for the functional relationship between a response and independent variables, a response surface visualizes the surface shape [43].

Importantly, RSM can reduce the number of trials when considering many factors and interactions between factors. Moreover, the continuous search feature RSM is useful in determining how continuous factors and responses are related [6].

### 4. Research methodology

As it was mentioned earlier, the problem of credit card fraud detection is an imbalanced classification one. The approaches used to deal with the problem of imbalanced datasets fall into two major categories: data sampling and algorithmic modification. Our proposed method has incorporated both the data and algorithmic level approaches, and has three phases. The first phase is to select the relevant features using two different methods,  $\chi^2$  and genetic algorithm. After that, the optimal resampling strategy is determined using a DOE-based algorithm. In the final phase, a costsensitive classification model is built. In the following section, each part will be discussed in detail.

### 4.1. Feature selection phase

In this phase, two different methods are applied to do feature selection, the chi statistic and GA. In statistics, the  $\chi^2$  test is applied to test the independence of two events. In feature selection, the two events are the occurrence of the term and occurrence of the class. A high value of  $\chi^2$ indicates that the hypothesis of independence, which implies that the expected and observed counts are similar, is incorrect. If the two events are dependent, then the occurrence of the term makes the occurrence of the class more likely, so it should be helpful as a feature [44]. The degree of freedom in the  $\chi^2$  test is equal to (number of columns minus one) \* (number of rows minus one). Based on the critical values of the  $\chi^2$  distribution, we can reject the hypothesis that feature and class are independent with only a determined chance of being wrong.

The next algorithm used in this phase is GA. The accuracy of the cost sensitive Classification And Regression Tree (CART) is considered as the fitness function in GA. An example of the chromosome representation is shown in figure 1. This figure shows that first, 4<sup>th</sup>, ...and the last features are used to build a cost-sensitive CART tree.

$\mathbf{F}_1$	$F_2$	$F_3$	$\mathbf{F}_4$	$F_{n-1}$	$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{n}}$
1	0	0	1	 0	1

#### Figure 1. Chromosome encoding.

# 4.2. Determination of optimal resampling strategy

The proposed procedure to do resampling attempts to determine the optimal proportion of a two-class

imbalanced data by using D-optimal design, DOE and RSM to develop an effective classification model. This article considered the Tong et al. (2011)'s proposed method as a cost-sensitive problem [6].

The proposed procedure contains the following three steps:

# **4.2.1. Design an experiment**

An experiment is designed to obtain an appropriate resampling strategy for the majority and minority class in a two-class imbalanced data, while the number of instances drawn from the majority class and the number of instances duplicated from the minority class are designed using undersampling and oversampling, respectively. The experiment considers two factors. Factor A and factor B represent a/b and d/b, respectively, where a denotes the total number of the re-sampling instances in the majority class; b denotes the total number of instances in the minority class of the training data, and d denotes the number of instances duplicated in the minority class. Both factors are continuous, ranging from 0 to r, where r represents  $N_L / N_S$ ,  $r \ge 1$ ;  $N_L$  represents the total number of instances in the majority class, and  $N_{\rm s}$  is the total number of instances in the minority class.

This work adopts the D-optimal design with a quadratic model. The D-optimal design is generated using the Design-Expert 8.0.7.1 computer software, in which a 20-run design is generated, including five replications at the center. The experimental error is estimated using replications, and the adequacy of a fitted model is confirmed. The misclassification cost of CART is considered as the response variable.

# 4.2.2. Conducting experiment

This step consists of four processes:

(a) Randomly split the data into the training data ( $D_1$ ) and testing data ( $D_2$ ). Do (b) and (c) for each fold.

(b) Sample and duplicate  $D_1$  based on each generated combination in 4-2-1 to obtain a new data composition  $(D_3)$ .

(c) Utilize cost-sensitive CART algorithm to construct a classification model using  $D_3$ ; use the classification model to classify  $D_2$ .

(d) Calculate the misclassification cost as the response variable.

# **4.2.3.** Fit a model and obtain optimal resampling strategy

The response surface model is obtained to demonstrate the relation between factor A, factor B, and the response variable, i.e. misclassification cost. The fitted model adequacies are confirmed by the lack-of-fit test, coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), and adjusted coefficient of determination  $R^2$  ( $Adj - R^2$ ). Finally, the optimal resampling strategy for the majority class and minority class is obtained.

# 4.3. Cost-sensitive classification

One of the basic steps in the KDD process is to select method(s) to do searching for patterns in the data. This includes deciding which models may be appropriate, and matching a particular data mining method with the overall criteria of the KDD process. The end-user may be more interested in understanding the model than its predictive capabilities [2]. In the fraud detection concept, both goals (predicting and describing) are important. Thus we will use those algorithms that are easy to understand. In this work, the cost-sensitive C4.5 decision tree is used as the base learner of Adaboost (adaptive boosting). The AdaBoost algorithm has been proposed in 1997 by Yoav Freund and Robert Shapire as a general method for generating a strong classifier out of a set of weak classifiers [45].

# 5. Case study

In this section, we run our methodology with a real data from a CB bank<sup>1</sup>. This data was obtained from a large Brazilian bank and used in [46] and [47]. This dataset includes registers within four months' time window. One applies the following rule for classifying an authorization: a transaction is considered fraudulent if, in the next 2 months after the date of the transaction, which is called the performance period, either the client queried the transaction, or the bank distrusts it as a legitimate transaction and confirms it does not belong to the client; otherwise, the transaction is tagged as legitimate. When an authorization is tagged as fraudulents, the bank has almost 100% of certainty about this claim, but when the transaction is tagged legitimate, but it can only be sure that the transaction was still not identified as fraudulent in the performance window. However, according to the bank, at least 80% of the occurred frauds are identified as fraudulent in a 2-month period [47].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Detailed information is discarded due to privacy reasons.

### 5.1. Dataset

The sampling of transactions is done in two steps: first, one randomly samples card numbers to be analyzed in this period; secondly, there is a weighted random sampling of the classes where 10% of legitimate transactions and all fraudulent transactions are used. At the end, the database that has been received from the bank contains 41647 registers, from which 3.74% are fraudulent.

Next, statistical analysis has been applied to remove the variables that are considered unimportant for the modeling (ex: card number). From 33 variables in the beginning, 17 independent variables and one dependent variable (flag fraud) have been selected after this phase. Finally, all variables but Merchant Category Code (MCC) are categorized in at most 10 groups (see Table 1).

Table 1. Number	of categories for each variable.

name	# of categ.	Att. type
Мсс	33	Nominal
mcc_previous	33	nominal
zip_code	10	nominal
zip_code_previous	10	nominal
value_trans	10	ordinal
value_trans_previous	10	Ordinal
pos_entry_mode	10	nominal
credit_limit	10	ordinal
brand	6	nominal
variant	6	nominal
Score	10	Ordinal
type_person	2	nominal
type_of_trans	2	nominal
# of statements	4	ordinal
speed	8	ordinal
diff_score	6	Ordinal
credit_line	9	ordinal
flag_fraud (class)	2	nominal

At the next step, 10 splits are generated from the databases. Each split contains a pair of datasets: 70% of transactions for development (training set), and 30% of transactions for testing. Table 2 shows that these splits have about the same number of frauds and legitimate transactions. We use these splits because the results of this paper can be comparable with the previous ones [46-47].

If we denote fp and fn as the number of false positives (false frauds) and false negatives, the misclassification cost of a classifier is defined by (3).

Misclassification cost = 
$$\frac{(10 \times fn) + fp}{N}$$
 (3)

# 5.2. Feature selection

Using the first split of table 2, two different methods are applied to do feature selection; the chi statistic and GA. In the  $\chi^2$  method, the chi-square test provides a method for testing the association between the row and column variables in a two-way table.

Culita	Testing	set	Training	g set	
Splits	Legitimates	Frauds	Legitimates	Frauds	
1	12184	475	27904	1084	
2	12184	475	27904	1084	
3	12076	467	28012	1092	
4	12027	471	28061	1088	
5	11943	484	28145	1075	
6	12043	478	28045	1081	
7	12115	443	27973	1116	
8	11975	460	28113	1099	
9	12204	453	27884	1106	
10	11960	459	28188	1100	

The null hypothesis  $H_0$  assumes that there is no association between the variables (in other words, one variable does not vary according to the other variable), while the alternative hypothesis  $H_a$ claims that some association does exist. The alternative hypothesis does not specify the type of association, so a close attention to the data is required to interpret the information provided by the test. A high value of  $\chi^2$  indicates that the hypothesis of independence, which implies that expected and observed counts are similar, is incorrect. In this work, three unimportant features are selected after using the chi-square test at a 95% confidence level, features 12, 13, and 17.

The next feature selection method that is used in this phase is GA. The misclassification cost of a cost-sensitive CART is considered as the fitness of each chromosome. A generation of 50 chromosomes is repeated 30 times and the  $6^{th}$  feature is selected as the unimportant one.

At the next step, 50 random datasets are generated from the first dataset of table 1. The results of these two methods are applied to these datasets and the average misclassification cost has been obtained 2234 and 2158, respectively, for chi-square and GA. Thus, the result of the GA algorithm will be applied to other datasets (Section 5-3), since this method has a minor misclassification cost.

#### **5.3.** Different pre-processing strategies

In [48], the authors have added three new features to the dataset based on the clustering results, and

have shown that adding newly constructed features can improve the performance of DT and SVM significantly.

In this step, four pre-processing scenarios are constructed:

Strategy 1: the original dataset is used for the modeling  $(S_1)$ .

Strategy 2: the result of k-means clustering method is added to the original dataset  $(S_2)$ .

Strategy 3: the result of the feature selection phase is applied to the original dataset (the  $6^{th}$  feature will be removed) ( $S_3$ ).

Strategy 4: the results of both the k-means and the feature selection phase are applied to the original dataset  $(S_4)$ .

At the next step, different datasets are built from the original datasets of table 2 using upper different strategies, and the average of all strategies is compared pair-wisely.

### 5.4. Optimal resampling strategy

This work adopts the D-optimal design with a quadratic model to design an experiment that is used to obtain an appropriate resampling strategy. The D-optimal design is generated using the Design-Expert 8.0.7.1 computer software, in which a 20 run design is generated, including five replications at the center. The response variable is the misclassification cost of a cost-sensitive CART.

Using the first dataset of table 2, the factors of interest range from 1 to 26 (r = [27904/1084]). A D-optimal design with 20 combinations is generated using Design-Expert 8.0.7.1, as shown in table 3.

Next, the misclassification costs are calculated, as shown in the last column of table 3.

Table 4 summarizes the results of the lack-of-fit test of the fitted models with  $R^2$  and  $Adj - R^2$ . In table 4, boldface represents the results of the selected quadratic model. The values of  $R^2$  and  $Adj - R^2$  for the quadratic model are 81.6% and 75.07%, respectively.

By utilizing the response surface model (as shown in Figure 2), the optimal factor-level combination of factor *A* and factor *B* is determined as (A, B) =(23.15, 19.72). Notably, the number of sampling instances is (the level of factor) \* (the total number of the minority class in dataset).

#### 5.5. Cost sensitive modeling

In this research, we have used of cost sensitive C4.5 decision tree as the base learner of Adaboost for the

modeling. The robust parameters of [47] have used as the input parameters of all models. In this paper, we have used two different cost matrices, one for the training phase and the other for the testing phase. The cost matrix that is used for the testing phase is equal to *C*, where  $C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 10 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  (as we explained in Section 5.1). The cost matrix that is used for the training phase considers more costs for false-negative predictions, and is considered as  $C' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 17.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  after examining different costvalues. At the following step, the cost sensitive C.45 tree is used as the base learner of Adaboost algorithm with 10 replications using the *weka 3.7.10* computer software.

Table 3 Experiments and results for the dataset

Run	Factor (1)	Factor (2)	Misclassification cost
1	13/5	13/5	1827
2	13/5	1	3961
3	1	26	2223
4	1	26	2536
5	26	26	1509
6	26	26	1800
7	26	1	3347
8	26	1	3054
9	13/5	26	2008
10	13/5	26	1686
11	7/25	19/75	1733
12	19/75	19/75	2143
13	1	9/33	2644
14	26	9/33	2246
15	1	1	3269
16	1	1	3984
17	1	17/67	2242
18	26	17/67	1869
19	7/25	7/25	1821
20	19/75	7/25	2011

Table 4. lack of fit tests and model summary statistics.

Source	df	p-value Prob > F	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj-R <sup>2</sup>	Predicted R <sup>2</sup>
Linear	12	0/085	0/6035	0/5568	0/4698
2FI	11	0/074	0/6066	0/5328	0/4103
Quadratic	9	0/249	0/8163	0/7507	0/6368
Cubic	5	0/3144	0/8926	0/7960	0/3904

The results of applying the four strategies of Section 5.3 to the 9 data splits of table 1, with and without the resampling method (Section 5.4) are shown in table 5.

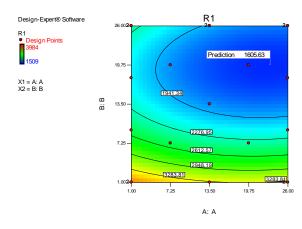


Figure 2. Response surface of dataset.

 Table 5. Results of proposed methodology (cost-sensitive learning).

	Without	resampling	With resampling		
Strategy	Average cost	Standard deviation	Average cost	Standard deviation	
$S_1$	2029	0.89	1825	1.60	
$S_2$	2029	1.60	1839	1.44	
$S_3$	2005	0.96	1743	0.86	
$S_4$	1949	1.12	1767	1.28	
average	2003	1.15	1794	1.29	

Table 5 shows that using the resampling method clearly reduces the average cost of each strategy. If we use simple c4.5 tree as the base learner of Adaboost algorithm, the result will be as table 6.

 Table 6. Results of proposed methodology (without cost sensitive learning).

	Without	resampling	With resampling		
Strategy	Average cost	Standard deviation	Average cost	Standard deviation	
$S_1$	2179	0.91	1992	1.36	
$S_2$	2179	1.25	1955	1.09	
$S_3$	2150	1.37	1974	0.92	
$S_4$	2137	1.11	1966	1.02	
average	2161	1.16	1972	1.10	

The average sensitivity and accuracy rate of all different strategies are shown in tables 7 and 8.

 Table 7. Results of proposed methodology (cost-sensitive

	Without	resampling	With resampling		
Strategy	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Accuracy	Sensitivity	
$\mathbf{S}_1$	0.974	0.577	0.963	0.639	
$S_2$	0.976	0.596	0.963	0.641	
$S_3$	0.975	0.589	0.965	0.675	
$S_4$	0.975	0.594	0.961	0.678	
average	0.975	0.589	0.962	0.656	

 Table 8. Results of proposed methodology (without cost sensitive learning).

			<b>e</b> / ·	
	Withou	t resampling	With resampling	
Strategy	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Accuracy	Sensitivity
S <sub>1</sub>	0.976	0.536	0.970	0.599
$S_2$	0.976	0.530	0.971	0.601
$S_3$	0.977	0.552	0.971	0.607
S4	0.976	0.553	0.970	0.608
average	0.976	0.542	0.97	0.604

Using pairwise t-test, all strategies of tables 5 and 6 are examined, whether these differences of averages are statistically significant or not. The following results are obtained after using a 95% confidence level:

1) Using the resampling method significantly reduces the misclassification cost of all strategies (in cost-sensitive and without cost-sensitive learning) ( p-value < 0.002 ).

2) Using cost-sensitive learning reduces the misclassification cost of all strategies, and this reduction is statistically significant ( p-value < 0.007 ).

3) The result of cost-sensitive learning and resampling did not differ significantly.

4) In cost-sensitive learning, applying the result of feature selection phase significantly improves the misclassification cost (p-value < 0.032).

5) Using hybrid method averagely reduces the misclassification cost by 12.69% and 14.27%, comparing with resampling and cost-sensitive learning methods, respectively (p-value = 0.00).

6) Adding the result of k-means clustering to the dataset does not have a significant effect on the misclassification cost.

7) Using of matrix *C*' instead of *C* in the training phase significantly reduces the misclassification cost by averagely 4% (at 94% confidence level, p-value < 0.060).

Considering the third strategy of table 5 as the best result, steps of the proposed method of this work are suggested in figure 3.

In order to compare the results of this work with the previous ones, different algorithms of Gadi et al. (2008a) and Gadi et al. (2008b) are run 10 times by the *weka 3.7.10* software. The results obtained show that applying the proposed method significantly improves the misclassification cost of the compared classifiers (p-value=0.00). Detailed results for C4.5 Decision Tree (DT), Artificial Immune System (AIS), Bayesian Networks (BN), Neural Networks (NN), and Naïve Bayse (NB) algorithms are shown in table 9. All of these methods used the misclassification cost metric of equation 3. The accuracy of the proposed method is equal to 96.59%. accuracies of DT, BN, and NB are respectively, equal to 93%, 94.3%, and 87.6% with sensitivities equal to 67%, 61%, and 67%.

<b>Procedure</b> proposed method (Dataset)
begin
do repeated Hold out k times
/* build train <sub>1</sub> ,, train <sub>k</sub> and test <sub>1</sub> ,, test <sub>k</sub> */
/* keep the ration of classes in each train and test
data set constant */
<b>begin</b> preprocessing phase $(train_1 and test_1)$
(1) do cost sensitive Genetic
based feature selection
(2) determine the optimal
resampling strategy using cost
sensitive S-RSM methodology
end
apply (1) to train <sub>2</sub> ,, train <sub>k</sub> and test <sub>2</sub> ,, test <sub>k</sub>
apply (2) to train <sub>2</sub> ,, train <sub>k</sub>
<b>learn</b> model using train <sub>2</sub> ,, train <sub>k</sub> /* use cost
sensitive C4.5 tree as the base learner of Adaboost
algorithm */.
<b>test</b> the learner model using $test_2,, test_k$ .
return average sensitivity and accuracy
end

Figure 3.	. Pseudocode of proposed n	nethod.
-----------	----------------------------	---------

Table 9. (	Comparison	of the	results.
------------	------------	--------	----------

Strategy	DT	AIS	BN	NN	NB	Proposed method
Default	2042	3080	3057	2576	2820	1743
Optimized	2017	2156	2225	2207	2820	
Roubust	2042	2192	2213	2127	2820	

#### 6. Conclusion

In this work, we made use of data mining and statistical tools in order to solve the problem of credit card fraud detection. The problem with a fraud data set is the skewed distribution of the classes that makes the learning algorithms ineffective, especially in predicting the minority class. Such datasets are called imbalanced datasets. Different algorithms have been proposed to solve the imbalanced learning problem, which falls largely into two major categories. The first one is data sampling and the second one is the algorithmic modification.

In this work, we used a hybrid approach that makes use of both categories. Our proposed process consists of three major phases: feature selection, resampling, and cost sensitive classification. Appropriate tools were employed commensurate to each phase. In the feature selection phase, two different methods were evaluated, chi-square and genetic algorithm. In the second phase, we used design of experiments and response surface analysis to determine the optimal resampling strategy. Finally, cost sensitive C4.5 tree was used as the base learner of Adaboost algorithm.

A large Brazilian banks' data was used as our case study to evaluate the proposed methodology. The performance of all classifiers was evaluated based on the misclassification cost metric. In order to examine the effectiveness of each proposed phase, different strategies were defined. The research findings showed that the proposed process had a high performance, and the resulting outcomes significantly reduced the misclassification cost compared with NN, DT, AIS, NB, and BN, by at least 14.62%. The accuracy and sensitivity of our proposed method were 96.59% and 67.52%, respectively. This shows that our hybrid proposed method has a good performance to detect fraud transactions compared with other data mining algorithms. Our proposed method works well because this method has incorporated both the data and algorithmic level approaches to deal with a high imbalanced dataset. If someone has access to other credit card datasets, it is recommended to compare this method with other proposed methods and report the results.

#### References

[1] Bolton, R. J., & Hand, D. J. (2002). Statistical Fraud Detection: A Review. Statistical Science, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 235-255.

[2] Fayyad, U., Piatetsky-Shapiro, G., & Smyth, P. (1996). Knowledge discovery and data mining: towards a unifying framework. 2nd International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD-96), Portland, OR, 1996.

[3] Kim, Y., & Sohn, S. Y. (2012). Stock fraud detection using peer group analysis. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 39, no. 10, pp. 8986-8992.

[4] Ngai, E. W. T., Hu, Y., Wong, Y. H., Chen, Y., & Sun, X. (2011). The application of data mining techniques in financial fraud detection: A classification framework and an academic review of literature. Decis. Support Syst., vol. 50, no. 3, pp. 559-569.

[5] López, V., Fernández, A., Moreno-Torres, J. G., & Herrera, F. (2012). Analysis of preprocessing vs. costsensitive learning for imbalanced classification. Open problems on intrinsic data characteristics. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 39, no. 7, pp. 6585-6608.

[6] Tong, L.-I., Chang, Y.-C., & Lin, S.-H. (2011). Determining the optimal re-sampling strategy for a classification model with imbalanced data using design of experiments and response surface methodologies.

Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 38, no. 4, pp. 4222-4227.

[7] Krawczyk, B., Woźniak, M., & Schaefer, G. (2014). Cost-sensitive decision tree ensembles for effective imbalanced classification. Applied Soft Computing, vol. 14, Part C, pp. 554-562.

[8] Chawla, N. V., Bowyer, K. W., Hall, L. O., & Kegelmeyer, W. P. (2002). SMOTE: synthetic minority over-sampling technique. J. Artif. Int. Res., vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 321-357.

[9] Bunkhumpornpat, C., Sinapiromsaran, K., & Lursinsap, C. (2009). Safe-Level-SMOTE: Safe-Level-Synthetic Minority Over-Sampling TEchnique for Handling the Class Imbalanced Problem. 13th Pacific-Asia Conference on Advances in Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, Bangkok, Thailand, 2009.

[10] Han, H., Wang, W.-Y., & Mao, B.-H. (2005). Borderline-SMOTE: a new over-sampling method in imbalanced data sets learning. International conference on Advances in Intelligent Computing - Volume Part I, Hefei, China, 2005.

[11] Bunkhumpornpat, C., Sinapiromsaran, K., & Lursinsap, C. (2012). DBSMOTE: Density-Based Synthetic Minority Over-sampling TEchnique. Applied Intelligence, vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 664-684.

[12] Zhang, D., Liu, W., Gong, X., & Jin, H. (2011). A Novel Improved SMOTE Resampling Algorithm Based on Fractal. Journal of Computational Information Systems, vol. 7, no. 6, pp. 2204-2212.

[13] Tomek, I. (1976). Two Modifications of CNN. IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, vol. 6, no. 11, pp. 769-772.

[14] Wilson, D. L. (1972). Asymptotic Properties of Nearest Neighbor Rules Using Edited Data. Systems, Man and Cybernetics, IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, vol. SMC-2, no. 3, pp. 408-421.

[15] Batista, G. E. A. P. A., Prati, R. C., & Monard, M. C. (2004). A study of the behavior of several methods for balancing machine learning training data. SIGKDD Explor. Newsl., vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 20-29.

[16] Thanathamathee, P., & Lursinsap, C. (2013). Handling imbalanced data sets with synthetic boundary data generation using bootstrap re-sampling and AdaBoost techniques. Pattern Recognition Letters, vol. 34, no. 12, pp. 1339-1347.

[17] Laurikkala, J. (2001). Improving Identification of Difficult Small Classes by Balancing Class Distribution. 8th Conference on AI in Medicine. AIME 2001. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 2101. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2001.

[18] Liu, Y., Yu, X., Huang, J. X., & An, A. (2011). Combining integrated sampling with SVM ensembles for learning from imbalanced datasets. Information Processing & Management, vol. 47, no. 4, pp. 617-631. [19] Qian, Y., Liang, Y., Li, M., Feng, G., & Shi, X. (2014). A resampling ensemble algorithm for classification of imbalance problems. Neurocomputing, vol. 143, pp. 57-67.

[20] Paasch, C. (2008). Credit Card Fraud Detection Using Artificial Neural Networks Tuned by Genetic Algorithms. (Doctoral Dissertation), Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (HKUST), Hong Kong.

[21] Bhattacharyya, S., Jha, S., Tharakunnel, K., & Westland, J. C. (2011). Data mining for credit card fraud: A comparative study. Decision Support Systems, vol. 50, no. 3, pp. 602-613.

[22] Lin-Tao, L., Na, J., & Jiu-Long, Z. (2008). A RBF neural network model for anti-money laundering. 6<sup>th</sup> International Conference on wavelet Analysis and Pattern Recognition. ICWAPR '08, Hong Kong, China, 2008.

[23] Xuan, L., & Pengzhu, Z. (2010). A Scan Statistics Based Suspicious Transactions Detection Model for Anti-money Laundering (AML) in Financial Institutions. International Conference on Multimedia Communications. Mediacom, Kraków, Poland, 2010

[24] Zhang, Z., Salerno, J. J., & Yu, P. S. (2003). Applying data mining in investigating money laundering crimes. 9th ACM SIGKDD international conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining, Washington, D.C, 2003.

[25] Larik, A. S., & Haider, S. (2011). Clustering based anomalous transaction reporting. Procedia Computer Science, vol. 3, pp. 606-610.

[26] Jun, T., & Jian, Y. (2005). Developing an intelligent data discriminating system of anti-money laundering based on SVM. 4th International Conference on Machine Learning and Cybernetics, Guangzhou, China, 2005.

[27] Sánchez, D., Vila, M. A., Cerda, L., & Serrano, J. M. (2009). Association rules applied to credit card fraud detection. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 36, no. 2, Part 2, pp. 3630-3640.

[28] Quah, J. T. S., & Sriganesh, M. (2008). Real-time credit card fraud detection using computational intelligence. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 1721-1732.

[29] Kirkos, E., Spathis, C., & Manolopoulos, Y. (2007). Data Mining techniques for the detection of fraudulent financial statements. Expert Syst. Appl., vol. 32, no. 4, pp. 995-1003.

[30] Duman, E., & Ozcelik, M. H. (2011). Detecting credit card fraud by genetic algorithm and scatter search. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 38, no. 10, pp. 13057-13063.

[31] Somasundaram, A., & Reddy, U. S. (2018). Cost Sensitive Risk Induced Bayesian Inference Bagging (RIBIB) for Credit Card Fraud Detection. Journal of Computational Science, vol. 27, pp. 247-254.

[32] Zhang, X., Han, Y., Xu, W., & Wang, Q. (2019). HOBA: A novel feature engineering methodology for credit card fraud detection with a deep learning architecture. Information Sciences, in press.

[33] Carcillo, F., Le Borgne, Y.-A., Caelen, O., Kessaci, Y., Oblé, F., & Bontempi, G. (2019). Combining unsupervised and supervised learning in credit card fraud detection. Information Sciences, in press.

[34] Kim, E., Lee, J., Shin, H., Yang, H., Cho, S., Nam, S.-k., et al. (2019). Champion-challenger analysis for credit card fraud detection: Hybrid ensemble and deep learning. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 128, pp. 214-224.

[35] Correa Bahnsen, A., Aouada, D., Stojanovic, A., & Ottersten, B. (2016). Feature engineering strategies for credit card fraud detection. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 51, pp. 134-142.

[36] Carneiro, N., Figueira, G., & Costa, M. (2017). A data mining based system for credit-card fraud detection in e-tail. Decision Support Systems, vol. 95, pp. 91-101.

[37] West, J., & Bhattacharya, M. (2016). Intelligent financial fraud detection: A comprehensive review. Computers & Security, vol. 57, pp. 47-66.

[38] Karimi Zandian, Z., & Keyvanpour, M. R. (2019). MEFUASN: A Helpful Method to Extract Features using Analyzing Social Network for Fraud Detection. Journal of AI and Data Mining, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 213-224.

[39] Kalyani, S., & Swarup, K. S. (2011). Particle swarm optimization based K-means clustering approach for security assessment in power systems. Expert Systems with Applications, vol. 38, no. 9, pp. 10839-10846. [40] Guyon, I., & Elisseeff, A. (2003). An introduction to variable and feature selection. Journal of Machine Learning Research, vol. 3, pp. 1157-1182.

[41] Ladha, L., & Deepa, T. (2011). Feature Selection Methods and Algorithm. International Journal on Computer Science and Engineering (IJCSE), vol. 3, no. 5, pp. 1787-1797.

[42] Pei, M., Goodman, E. D., Punch Iii, W. F. P., & Ding, Y. (1995). Genetic algorithms for classification and feature extraction. Annual Meeting, Classification Society of North America, North America, 1995.

[43] Montgomery, D. C. (2005). Design and analysis of experiment (6 ed.). New York: John Wiley and Sons.

[44] Manning, C. D., & Raghavan, P. (2008). Introduction to Information Retrieval: Cambridge University Press.

[45] Freund, Y., & Schapire, R. E. (1997). A Decision-Theoretic Generalization of On-Line Learning and an Application to Boosting. Journal of Computer and System Sciences, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 119-139.

[46] Gadi, M. F. A., Xidi, W., & do Lago, A. P. (2008). Comparison with Parametric Optimization in Credit Card Fraud Detection.. Seventh International Conference on Machine Learning and Applications. ICMLA '08, San Diego, California, USA, 2008.

[47] Gadi, M., Wang, X., & Lago, A. (2008). Credit Card Fraud Detection with Artificial Immune System. International Conference on Artificial Immune Systems. ICARIS 2008. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 5132. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

[48] Farvaresh, H., & Sepehri, M. M. (2011). A data mining framework for detecting subscription fraud in telecommunication. Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 182-194.

ربه ہوش مصنوعی و دادہ کاوی

# ارائه یک مدل هوشمند برای شناسایی کلاهبرداری در کارت های اعتباری با استفاده از دادهکاوی و روشهای آماری

سکینه بیگی<sup>۲۰۱</sup> و محمدرضا امین ناصری<sup>۰،\*</sup>

۱ دانشکده مهندسی صنایع و سیستمها، دانشگاه تربیت مدرس، تهران، ایران.

<sup>۲</sup> گروه مهندسی صنایع، دانشکده علوم پایه و فنی مهندسی، دانشگاه کوثر بجنورد، بجنورد، ایران.

ارسال ۲۰۱۸/۱۰/۱۰؛ بازنگری ۲۰۱۹/۰۹/۰۳؛ پذیرش ۲۰۱۹/۱۱/۲۳

### چکیدہ:

امروزه، با پیشـرفت تکنولوژی و پیچیدهتر شـدن فرآیندهای کسـبوکار، روشهای انجام و در نتیجه شـناسایی کلاهبرداریها نیز به مراتب پیچیدهتر شدهاند. با توجه به حجم عظیم دادههای موجود در بانکها، ردیابی عملیاتهای مجرمانه حتی با در نظر گرفتن منابع انسانی بسیار به صورت د ستی امکان پذیر نیست و نیاز به ابزارهای جدید در این زمینه دارد. در سالهای گذشته ثابت شده است که ابزارهای داده کاوی نسبت به روشهای آماری از کارایی قابل توجهی به خصوص در حوزه مالی برخوردارند. در این تحقیق، با ارائه روشی شامل ابزارهای مختلف داده کاوی به بررسی شناسایی کلاهبرداری در کارتهای اعتباری پرداخته شـده است. روش پیشـنهادی این تحقیق، شامل سه بخش عمده انتخاب مشخصهای مهم، تعیین اسـتراتژی بهینه نمونهبرداری و مدل سازی حساس به هزینه است. در بخش نخست از روش پیشنهادی، از الگوریتم ژنتیک برای تعیین مشخصههای مهم، تعیین اسـتراتژی بهینه است. در ادامه، با استفاده از روشی مبتنی بر طراحی آزمایشها نسبت بهینه هر یک از دستهها برای انجام بازنمونهبرداری تعیین شده است. در بخش مدل سازی نیز از روش درخت تصمیم 24.5 حساس به هزینه به عنوان دسته بنه هر یک از دسته ها برای انجام بازنمونهبرداری تعیین شده است. در بخش مدل سازی نیز از روش درخت تصمیم 24.5 حساس به هزینه به عنوان دسته بند پایه در الگوریتم آدابوست استفاده شده است. در بخش یک مجموعه داده واقعی نشان داده شده است که روش پیشنهادی تحقیق با دراقل ۲۰ درصد کاهش هزینه دسته برداری تعیین شده است. در بخش بهتری نسبت به روشهای درخت تصمیم بیزی ساده، شبکه بیزی، شبکه عصبی و سیستم ایمنی مصنوعی داشته است.

**کلمات کلیدی:** شناسایی تقلب، کارتهای اعتباری، انتخاب مشخصه، بازنمونهبرداری، یادگیری حساس به هزینه.