

Beyond Accuracy Metrics: Advanced Machine Learning Techniques for Effective Insurance Fraud Classification

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Abstract

Insurance fraud occurs when an insured individual, claimant, or company intentionally makes a false or misleading claim to gain financial benefit. Insurance applicants, policy holders, third-party claimants, or professionals from insurance companies or agencies can perpetrate insurance fraud at various stages of the insurance life-cycle. This study examines the efficiency and validity of popular machine learning algorithms for fraud prediction. In recent years, product recommendation, medical diagnosis, and image detection, among other fields, have greatly benefited from current machine learning algorithms, which have contributed to advancements in medicine and public safety. In this paper, we perform an analysis using five different algorithms: Random Forest (RF), Decision Tree (DT), Adaboost, K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN), and XGBoost to detect insurance fraud. Our findings indicate that DT provides the highest accuracy (79%) compared to the other techniques. The results of this study can assist risk analysts and professionals in evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of each model and in developing empirically effective decision rules to assess future insurance policies.

Date of Submission: 14-03-2025

Date of Acceptance: 27-03-2025

I. Introduction

Due to the substantial amount of information available in the current era, many people are beginning to invest in various insurance policies. With increasing participation

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in insurance policies comes a rise in insurance fraud. Insurance fraud is an intentional deception conducted against or on behalf of an insurance business or agent to obtain financial gain. Over the years, a significant amount of money has moved across the insurance industry as it is quite profitable. Insurance fraud also accounts for a substantial portion of costs incurred by insurance companies because it reduces their earnings and has a long-term impact on their pricing policies. Several million dollars are misappropriated each year through insurance fraud. For example, in 2017, the Australian Insurance Fraud Bureau identified false claims worth 280 million. Insurance Fraud Bureau of Australia (2021). Additionally, 44,814 fraud claims totaling EUR 214 million were discovered in France in 2013, with the amount increasing to EUR 500 million in 2018. French Agency for the Fight against Insurance Fraud (2021). Statistics from the United States Coalition Against Insurance Fraud show that insurance fraud represents 17% of the total compensation paid out by insurance companies, with an estimated annual value of 80 billion S.Jordon. (2016). According to the Insurance Bureau of Canada (IBC), car insurance fraud totaled more than 542 million Canadian dollars in 2007. Chinese insurance officials reported that an average of RMB 35 billion was lost annually to insurance fraud in 2011, accounting for approximately 20% of all insurance company payments. Finally, it is estimated that insurance fraud costs developing nations 600 million annually. Therefore, insurance fraud is an international problem that harms nations and communities.

II. Literature Review

Since the development of artificial intelligence theory, machine learning techniques have been widely used for fraud detection. Itri, Mohamed, Mohammed, and Omar (2019) developed a novel strategy to increase fraud prediction accuracy. Ten machine learning fraud prediction algorithms were evaluated for effectiveness and confirmability using auto insurance claim data. The study showed that Random Forest outperformed all other algorithms in predicting fraud. Machine learning approaches are based on an analytical paradigm known as inductive reasoning, which derives conclusions from data patterns without making assumptions about functional forms such as probability distributions or linearity. Peng (2020) discuss how this flexibility necessitates extra caution to control the models' balance between generalization ability and complexity, as different models or even minor changes to their hyperparameters can have significant effects on predictive performance when applied to the same dataset. Fraud detection is one of the main applications of machine learning in business administration and finance. From a decision-maker's perspective, this topic is extremely relevant because decision support systems that assist risk analysts in predicting fraudulent behavior directly affect a company's financial performance. This topic has been investigated by numerous researchers in recent years, as discussed in papers by Awoyemi, Adetunmbi, and Oluwadare (2017), Ngai, Hu, Wong, Chen, and Sun (2011), Raghavan and El Gayar (2019), and Waghade and Karandikar (2018). Sheshasaayee and Thomas (2018) discuss the benefits of using machine learning methods to perform such tasks, especially concerning the most salient features of fraudsters, while illustrating the main challenges faced by risk and fraud analysts in developing fraud identification mechanisms and decision rules, given that the presence of fraud entails significant profit losses for the insurance sector. Similarly, Dal Pozzolo, Caelen, Le Borgne, Waterschoot, and Bontempi (2014) discussed the complexity involved in developing a data-driven fraud detection algorithm, highlighting typical issues such as highly unbalanced class distributions, non-stationary distribution of data, lack of readily accessible micro-data due to confidentiality concerns, and on-going massive flows of new transactions. To address these issues, the authors assessed the predictive performance of three machine learning models (Random Forest, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network) using a dataset derived from actual credit card transactions. They also examined the overall effects of update periodicity, the use of balancing techniques, and the retention of older observations in the training dataset. For all training approaches, the results showed that the Random Forest model consistently outperformed Support Vector Machines and Neural Networks. Additionally, models that were updated with fresh data more frequently performed better, suggesting that fraud distributions can quickly change over time. Regarding the problem of imbalanced classes, balancing methods were applied to improve performance over the "static" non-balanced dataset, in which Random Forest produced the worst performance. Finally, compared to keeping the dataset balanced, the method of removing earlier observations showed marginally less benefit. Wang and Xu (2018) used Support Vector Machine (SVM), Random Forest, and Deep Neural Networks to analyze descriptions of auto accidents to forecast frauds for auto insurance claims. All three models achieved an F1 Score greater than 75. Conversely, Eshghi and Kargari (2019) argued that unsupervised methods like clustering and outlier detection may not be sufficient for complex fraud detection tasks and suggested a framework with Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis and intuitionistic fuzzy sets to account for behavioral uncertainties when modeling the likelihood of fraudulent banking transactions. Similarly, Carcillo et al. (2021) advocated for combining supervised and unsupervised learning techniques for credit card fraud detection to more effectively adapt to changes in consumer behavior and fraudsters' ability to create novel fraud patterns. Based on clustering analysis, the authors developed outlier scores for various granularities, applied them to a real-world dataset, and reported improved detection effectiveness. In a recent study, Kim, Baik, and Cho (2016) proposed a multi-class algorithm to detect fraud intention in financial misstatements using MetaCost Domingos1999 to incorporate asymmetric misclassification costs and control for class imbalance; and Varmedja, Karanovic, Sladojevic, Arsenovic, and Anderla (2019) used SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique) to balance training data along with Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Naive Bayes, and Neural Network as machine learning classifiers. Xu, Wang, Zhang, and Yang (2011) suggested a random rough subspace neural network ensemble-based method for detecting insurance fraud. This method begins with a crude set reduction to create a set of reductions that maintain stable data information. Next, a subset of reductions is assembled by selecting reductions randomly. Then, a neural network classifier is trained using each of the chosen reductions on the insurance data. The trained neural network classifiers are subsequently combined using ensemble techniques. The effectiveness and efficiency of the proposed strategy were examined using a real-world vehicle insurance scenario. The findings demonstrate that a random rough subspace-dependent neural network ensemble technique can detect fraudulent insurance claims more quickly and accurately, making it a viable tool for detecting insurance fraud. Therefore, it is important to examine which machine learn-

ing models can more effectively identify fraud trends and precisely anticipate future offenses using real-world data and machine learning techniques. Given the wide range of fraud types that can occur, each with its own characteristics and method of operation Gottschalk (2010), in this paper we focus on frauds where the consumer is the perpetrator, specifically in policy claims of automobile insurance. The fact that the data for this study were obtained from a significant insurance provider enhances our understanding of the relative importance of the database elements, which is crucial for evaluating insurance policies in real-world contexts.

III. PROPOSED MODEL (Data Collection, Exploration Pre- Processing)

Data overview, pre-processing, model application, and performance evaluation are the primary steps of our proposed model. Each phase is crucial and enhances its effectiveness. The proposed model for detecting insurance fraud in this work is shown in Figure 1.

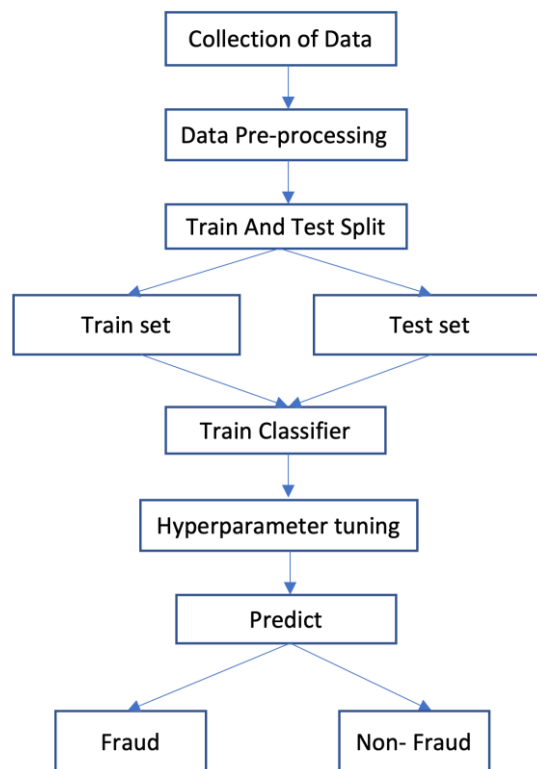


Figure 1: Proposed Model for Insurance Fraud Detection.

3.0.1 Data Overview

The dataset used in this study was obtained from Kaggle ([https://www.kaggle.com/code/niteshyadav3103/insurance-fraud-detection-using-12-models/data?select=insurance claims.csv](https://www.kaggle.com/code/niteshyadav3103/insurance-fraud-detection-using-12-models/data?select=insurance%20claims.csv)).

The dataset consists of 1,000 auto incidents and auto insurance claims from Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana from January 1, 2015, to March 1, 2015. The dataset consists of 39 variables, each explained in Table 1 (the table content was not provided in the original document).

3.0.2 Data Pre-processing

Data pre-processing is one of the most important processes in Machine Learning. This is the transformation of data from its raw form into a format that machine learning models can understand. Errors and missing values are almost inevitable in datasets, and managing these issues is the focus of this phase Peng (2020). For instance, outliers in the dataset were detected as depicted in Figure 2, and we correctly categorized numeric and categorical data (Figure 3) before utilizing the Machine Learning models to analyze our processed dataset. These steps are briefly illustrated below:

IV. MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHMS

The different machine learning algorithms used in this paper are Random Forest (RF), Decision Tree Classifiers (DTC), AdaBoost, K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN), and XGBoost (XG), which we will briefly review in detail below.

4.1 Decision Tree Classifiers

One of the most important features of DTCs is their capability to break down a complex decision-making process into a collection of simpler decisions, thus providing a solution that is often easier to interpret. Decision Tree Classifiers (DTCs) are successfully used in many diverse areas such as radar signal classification, character recognition, remote sensing, medical diagnosis, expert systems, and speech recognition, to name only a few. The decision tree classifier is one approach to multistage decision making. The basic idea involved in any multistage approach is to break up a complex decision into a union of several simpler decisions, with the expectation that the final solution obtained this way would resemble the intended desired solution. This is illustrated in Figure ??.

4.2 Random Forest

One of the most commonly used supervised from previous segments. More specifically, Random Forests are collections of decision trees that produce better forecast accuracy. It is essentially a group of decision trees, which is why it is termed a "forest." The basic idea is to create distinct decision trees based on independent subsets of the dataset. The optimal split on n factors is determined at each node by randomly selecting one from the list of features. An illustration of the Random Forest algorithm is presented in Figure 5.

4.3 AdaBoost Algorithm

AdaBoost, also called Adaptive Boosting, is a technique in Machine Learning used as an Ensemble Method. The most common algorithm used with AdaBoost is decision trees with one level, also known as Decision Stumps. This algorithm creates a model while assigning each data piece an equal weight. Then, it gives points that were incorrectly categorized larger weights. The next model gives more weight to all points with higher weights. If no lower error is received, it will continue to train the models. An illustration is shown in Figure 6.

4.4 K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN)

The KNN regressor is employed when there is no assumption about the frequency distribution of the relationship between predictor variables. This is achieved by averaging certain features in the same area. K-Nearest Neighbor has been found to be an effective classification technique, although this study doesn't fully support that conclusion. The value of K is calculated using the square root of the total amount of data in the training dataset. In the KNN classification problem, the output would be a class to which the data model belongs, predicted by the majority vote of the k nearest neighbors. In the regression problem, the output would be a property estimation, typically a mean estimation of the k nearest neighbors. The Euclidean Distance can be used to determine the nearest neighbor division:

$$ED = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (q_i - p_i)^2}, \quad (1)$$

where ED is Euclidean distance, and p and q are points in n -space. The calculation's ex-



Figure 2: Visualizing outliers

pected accuracy depends heavily on the value of k . Smaller values of k will likely result in lower precision, especially in datasets with significant noise, since each instance in the training set carries a larger weight throughout the decision process. The algorithm's performance decreases as k 's value increases. Additionally, if the value is too high, the model may overfit, weakening the distinction between class boundaries and causing reduced accuracy. As a general approach, it is advised to select k by applying the formula:

$$k = \sqrt{n} \quad (2)$$

The algorithm for K-Nearest Neighbor is illustrated in Figure 7.

4.5 XGBoost

Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) is a distributed, scalable gradient-boosted decision



Figure 3: Encoding Categorical and Numerical data

tree (GBDT) machine learning framework. It is a top machine learning library for regression, classification, and ranking problems, offering parallel tree boosting. Understanding XGBoost requires knowledge of machine learning concepts and techniques, including supervised learning, decision trees, ensemble learning, and gradient boosting. In supervised machine learning, a model is trained using algorithms to discover patterns in a dataset of features and labels, and the model is then used to predict labels for features in a new dataset. XGBoost is a scalable and extremely accurate gradient boosting solution that pushes the limits of computing power for boosted tree algorithms. It was developed primarily to enhance the performance and computational speed of machine learning models. Unlike GBDT's sequential approach, XGBoost constructs trees in parallel. It employs a level-wise approach,

scanning over gradient values and assessing the quality of splits at each potential point in the training set using partial sums. The XGBoost algorithm is illustrated in Figure 8.

4.6 HYPERPARAMETER TUNING

Hyperparameter optimization in machine learning aims to find the hyperparameters of a given machine learning algorithm that deliver the best performance as measured on a validation set. Unlike model parameters, hyperparameters are set by the machine learning engineer before training. For example, the number of trees in a Random Forest is a hyperparameter, while the weights in a neural network are model parameters learned during training. Hyperparameters can be considered as model settings to be tuned so that the model can optimally solve the machine learning problem. We use GridSearchCV for hyperparameter tuning.

V. EVALUATION METHOD

Evaluation methods are crucial for model comparison and best model selection, as they assess the effectiveness of classifiers Hossin (2015). Since bias can sometimes be introduced for a majority class in classification problems due to imbalanced data, accuracy alone is not always reliable Ganganwar (2012), Hanafy and Ming (2021). Car insurance claims exemplify imbalanced data because the majority of policyholders don't engage in fraud. Therefore, if accuracy is the sole criterion, there will be bias against the fraud class. Consequently, several measurement techniques are employed, including F1-score, sensitivity, accuracy, and area under the curve (AUC). AUC might be a better metric when results need to balance sensitivity and specificity, especially with imbalanced class distributions.

$$\text{SENSITIVITY} = \frac{\text{TP}}{(\text{TP} + \text{FN})} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{ACCURACY} = \frac{(\text{TP} + \text{TN})}{(\text{TP} + \text{FP} + \text{TN} + \text{FN})} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{SPECIFICITY} = \frac{\text{TN}}{(\text{FP} + \text{TN})} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{PRECISION} = \frac{\text{TP}}{(\text{TP} + \text{FP})} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{F-MEASURE} = \frac{(2 \times \text{Precision} \times \text{Recall})}{(\text{Precision} + \text{Recall})} \quad (7)$$

In these formulas, TP stands for the number of true positives, FP for false positives, TN for true negatives, and FN for false negatives. A higher Accuracy rating indicates better overall performance of the forecast. Accuracy measures the percentage of predictions that are correct. Sensitivity pertains to the accuracy of fraud claims detection. Specificity refers to the ability to accurately identify legitimate claims. Precision measures the relevance of projected positives. The F1 score is the harmonic mean of precision and sensitivity. AUC is the overall classifier performance metric Wu and Flach (2005) and is used to evaluate the model's overall performance.

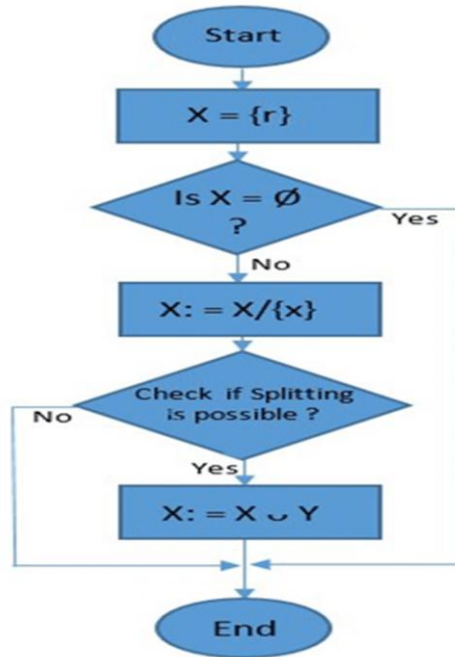


Figure 4: Flowchart of Decision Tree Classifiers

VI. RESULTS

Fraud must be addressed as it is a significant issue in today’s society. To overcome these challenges, we can develop systems that detect fraud in provided data. These systems are created using various machine learning methods, including neural networks, naive Bayes, KNN, and random forests. In this paper, we’ve discussed different machine learning (ML) tech-

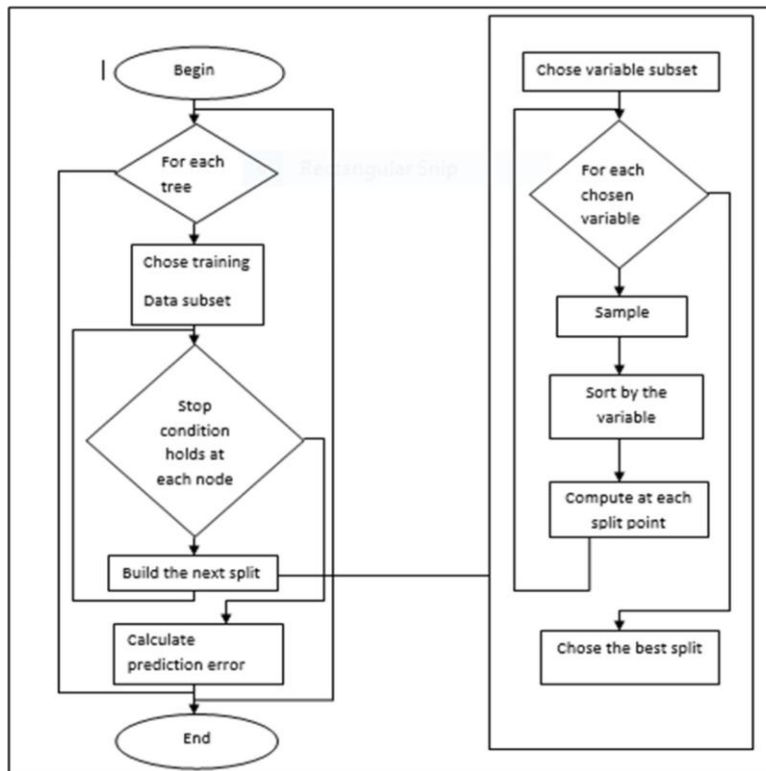


Figure 5: Flowchart of Random Forest Algorithm

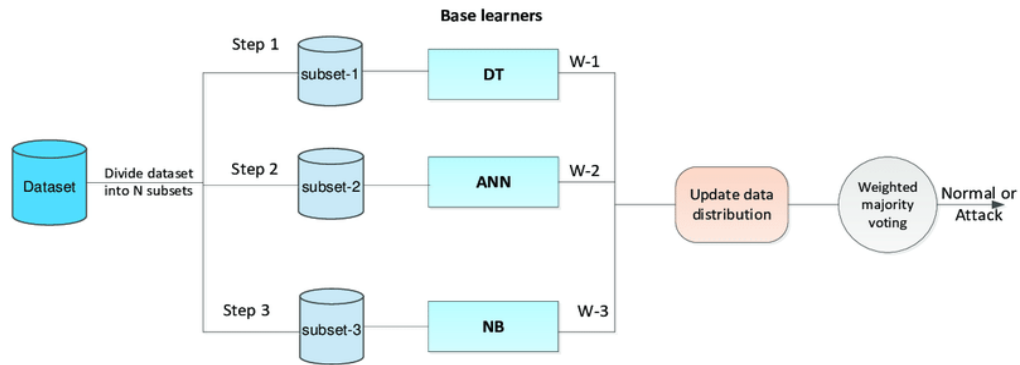


Figure 6: AdaBoost Flowchart

niques, their operation in systems, and their effectiveness in predicting fraud. These methods are then compared using five criteria from various perspectives. To assess the performance of the machine learning algorithms on fraud discrimination, we randomly divide the data, using 80% for training and the remaining 20% for testing. We use the training data to train the algorithms, and the learned model is then used to forecast whether examples in the

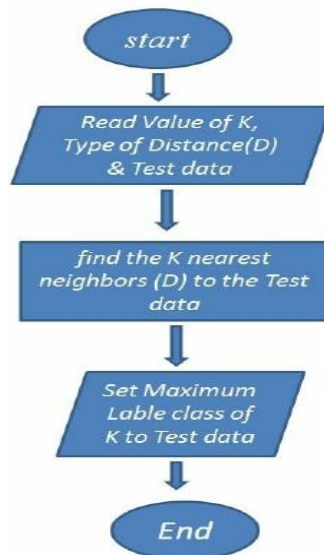


Figure 7: Flowchart of K-Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

test data are fraudulent. Six assessment techniques evaluate the performance of the models on the testing data: accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, AUC, precision, and F1-score. Additionally, we optimize each machine learning model to ensure fair comparisons. It is necessary to point out that the study has a few drawbacks which include limited sample size. This could reduce the performance of the model since larger datasets increase the stability of statistical models and generalize better by including a larger fraction of the actual population.

Table 1: Comprehensive Performance Comparison of Models

Model	Train Acc	Test Acc	N Prec
K-Nearest Neighbors	0.755	0.748	0.75
Decision Tree	0.816	0.696	0.85
Random Forest	0.981	0.784	0.81
AdaBoost	0.816	0.796	0.87
XGBoost	0.932	0.712	0.82
Voting Classifier	0.816	0.796	0.87

VII. Discussion

Our analysis of multiple machine learning algorithms for insurance fraud detection reveals several important patterns with significant implications for practical applications. Figure 10 shows that the dataset exhibits a notable class imbalance (187 non-fraud vs. 63 fraud cases in the test set), reflecting real-world conditions where fraudulent claims represent the minority. This imbalance substantially impacts model performance, as demonstrated by KNN’s (Figure 10 top left) complete failure to detect fraud (0% Y-class recall) despite achieving a respectable overall accuracy of 74.8%. This finding exemplifies the “majority class bias” problem, where algorithms optimize overall accuracy by simply predicting the dominant class, and highlights why accuracy alone is an inadequate metric for fraud detection systems.

Across all models, we observe a clear trade-off between precision and recall. Random Forest achieves high precision for fraud detection (0.64) but low recall (0.33), meaning it rarely misclassifies legitimate claims as fraudulent but fails to identify many actual fraud cases. Conversely, Decision Tree shows lower precision (0.43) but higher recall (0.62), capturing more fraud cases at the expense of more false positives. Furthermore, Figure 9 shows that AdaBoost and Voting Classifier offer the most balanced trade-off (0.59 precision, 0.62 recall), making them potentially more suitable for real-world deployment. This precision-recall trade-off has direct business implications: high precision reduces false accusations of fraud (which can damage customer relationships), while high recall ensures more actual fraud cases are caught (reducing financial losses).

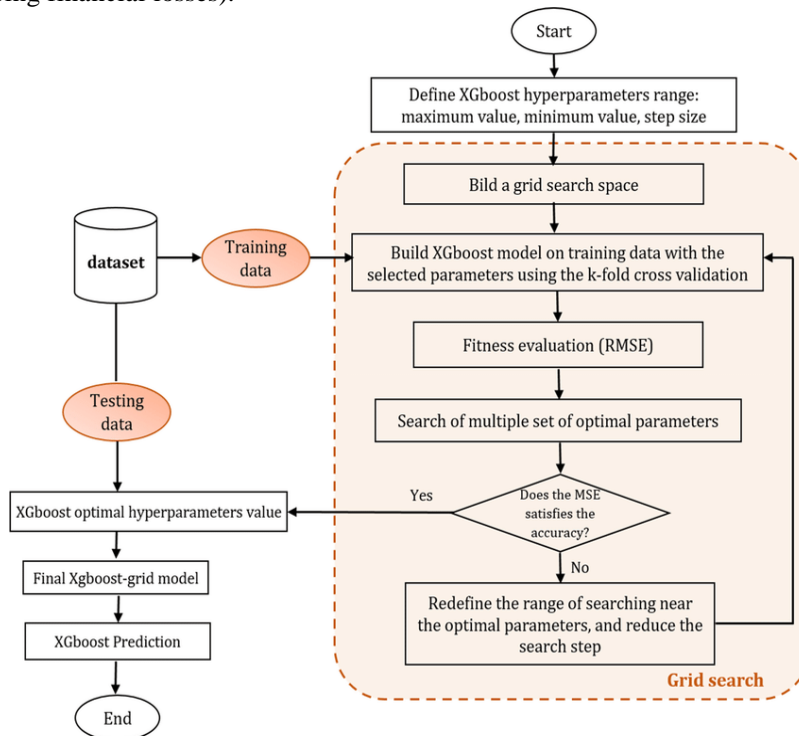


Figure 8: Flowchart of XGBoost.

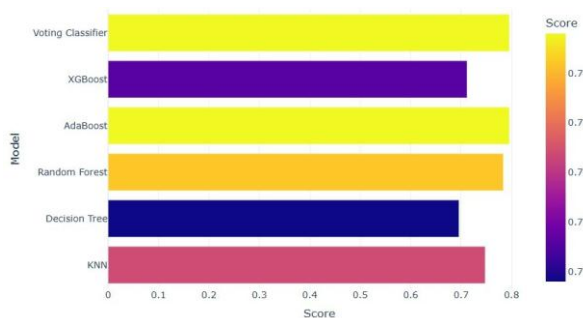


Figure 9: Comparison of model scores

The relationship between model complexity and performance is evident in our results. Simple models like KNN struggle with nuanced classification tasks in imbalanced data, while highly flexible models such as Random Forest and XGBoost show signs of overfitting, as indicated by the

substantial gap between their training and testing accuracy (0.981 vs. 0.784 for Random Forest; 0.932 vs. 0.712 for XGBoost). This suggests these models are memorizing training data rather than learning generalizable patterns, and that regularization techniques might improve their performance on new data. Ensemble methods (AdaBoost, Voting Classifier) provide more robust performance by combining multiple models, resulting in the highest overall test accuracy (79.6%) and the best F1-score for detecting fraudulent claims (0.60).

The correlation heatmap reveals that claim-related variables (total claim amount, injury claim, property claim, vehicle claim) are highly correlated. This suggests that fraudsters may simultaneously inflate claims across multiple categories, a pattern that could be exploited for improved detection. Addition-

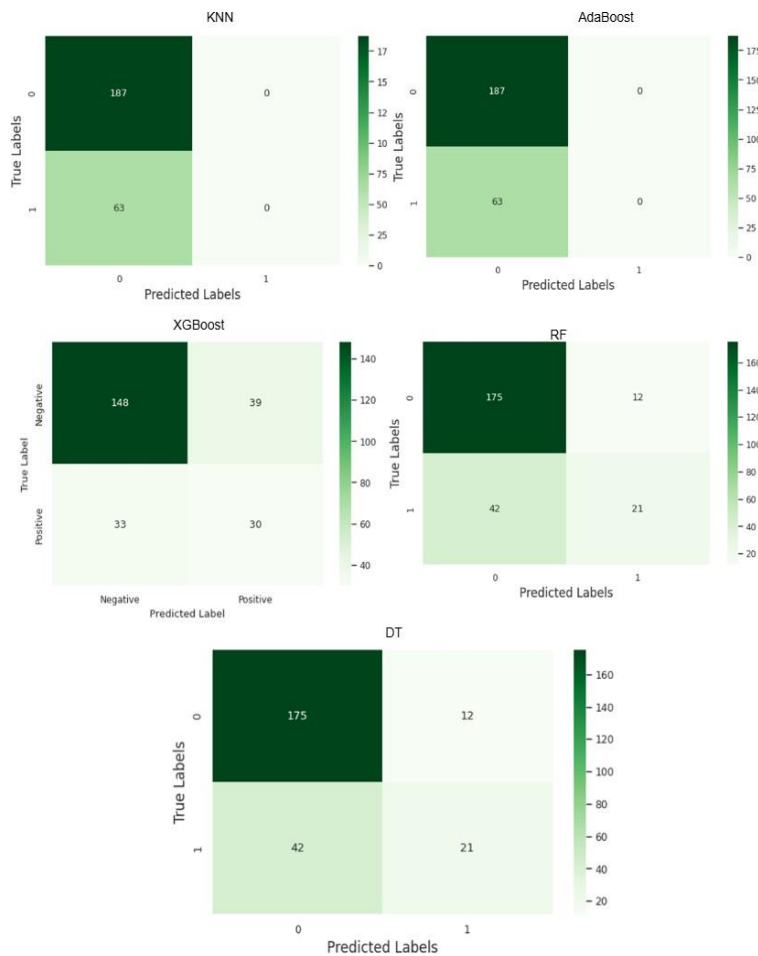


Figure 10: Confusion matrices of various models

ally, the strong correlation (0.92) between age and months as customer indicates that older customers tend to have longer relationships with the insurance company, potentially making them less likely to commit fraud.

VIII. Conclusion

This research demonstrates that effective insurance fraud detection requires models that balance overall accuracy with minority class detection capabilities. Our findings indicate that AdaBoost emerges as the optimal solution for insurance fraud detection, providing the best balance between detecting legitimate and fraudulent claims with a test accuracy of 79.6% and fraud class F1-score of 0.60. Model selection in this domain should prioritize class-specific metrics over aggregate accuracy, particularly given the significant class imbalance inherent in insurance fraud data.

Ensemble methods consistently outperform individual classifiers in our study, likely due to their ability to combine diverse decision boundaries and reduce variance. The correlation between claim-related variables offers a potential avenue for feature engineering in future fraud detection systems. Additionally, our results highlight that proper hyperparameter tuning is essential to mitigate overfitting, particularly for complex models like Random Forest and XGBoost.

Our study has several limitations that suggest directions for future research. The limited sample size (1,000 records) may not capture the full diversity of fraud patterns. Future work should incorporate larger datasets spanning longer periods and more geographic regions. More sophisticated handling of class imbalance through techniques like SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique) could potentially improve model performance. Deep learning approaches were not explored in this study but could offer improved performance, particularly for identifying complex fraud patterns. Time-based validation would better simulate real-world conditions where models must detect fraud in future periods based on historical data. Finally, cost-sensitive evaluation that incorporates the financial impact of false positives versus false negatives would provide a more business-relevant assessment of model performance.

These insights can guide insurance companies in implementing more effective fraud detection systems that better balance the dual objectives of minimizing false accusations while maximizing fraud detection rates. By addressing the limitations identified in our study, future research can build upon our findings to develop even more effective insurance fraud detection systems that help reduce industry losses while treating customers fairly.

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