Using Deep Learning to Find the Next Unicorn: A Practical Synthesis on Optimization Target, Feature Selection, Data Split and Evaluation Strategy

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Abstract

Startups represent newly established business models associated with disruptive innovation and high scalability, hence strongly propel the economic and social development. Meanwhile, startups are heavily constrained by many factors such as limited financial funding and human resources. Therefore, the chance for a startup to succeed is rare like "finding a unicorn in the wild". Venture Capital strives to identify and invest in unicorn startups as early as possible, hoping to gain a high return. This work is traditionally manual and empirical, making it inherently biased and hard to scale. Recently, the rapid growth of data volume and variety is quickly ushering in deep learning (DL) as a potentially superior approach in this domain. In this work, we carry out a literature review and synthesis on DL-based approaches, emphasizing four key aspects: optimization target, feature selection, data split, and evaluation strategy. For each aspect, we summarize our in-depth understanding and practical learning.

1 Introduction

Startup is a dynamic, flexible, high risk, and newly created company that typically represents a reproducible and scalable business model. It provides innovative products and/or services, and has limited financial funds and human resources (Santisteban et al., 2021; Skawińska and Zalewski, 2020; Blank, 2013). Since startups stimulate growth, generate jobs and tax revenues, and promote many other socioeconomically beneficial factors (Acs and Szerb, 2007), they are commonly regarded as powerful engines for economic and social development. As the startups continue to develop, they often increasingly rely on external funds (as opposed to internal funds from founders and co-founders), from either domestic or foreign capital markets, to unlock a high rate of growth (Marmer et al., 2011). Up till this date, the dominating external fund source has been Venture Capital (VC).

Startup
(input data)
$$\longrightarrow$$
 DL Model
x $f(\mathbf{x})$ $y = \{0 - bad, 1 - good\}$

Figure 1: High-level overview of DL (deep learning) based startup sourcing: the model is trained to approximate a function $f(\cdot)$ so that the input x describing a startup is mapped to an output y indicating the recommended investment propensity that can be either discrete (good vs. bad) or continuous (success probability).

As an industry, VC seeks opportunities to invest in startups with great potential (in the sense of financial returns) to grow and successfully exit. The risk-return trade-off tells us that the potential return rises with a corresponding increase in risk¹. As a consequence, VC firms strive to mitigate this risk by improving their 1) deal sourcing and 2) valueadd process (Teten et al., 2013). In this survey, we will focus on the published work around the former approach, i.e., finding the startup unicorn² as accurately as possible. However, this task is a complex one with great uncertainty because of many factors such as vague/immature business ideas, forcing VC firms to make investment decisions based on insufficient information. Therefore a VC's deal sourcing process traditionally turns out to be manual and empirical, leaving estimations of the ROI (return on investment) heavily dependent on the human investors' decisions, which are inherently biased and hard to scale (Cumming and Dai, 2010).

With the rapid growth of data size and diversity (origin and modality), DL (deep learning) methods caught the eyes of increasing number of researchers hunting for unicorns. DL, by definition, represents a subset of ML (machine learning) methods, and is implemented (entirely or partly) with

¹Statistics revealing the high risk of startups: on average, only about 60% of the startups survive for over 3 years since founded (Hyytinen et al., 2015); top 2% of VCs receive 95% of the returns in the entire industry (Bai and Zhao, 2021); VC has only 10% rate of achieving an ROI (return on investment) of 100% or more (Shane, 2012; Ünal and Ceasu, 2019).

²Unicorn startups are private, VC-backed firms with a valuation of at least \$500 million (Chernenko et al., 2021).



Figure 2: The the adoption percentage of DL models.

ANNs (artificial neural networks) that utilize at least two hidden layers of neurons. As shown in Figure 1, DL-based approaches require practitioners to define the input data x and label y (indicating good or bad investment according to some criteria) before training a model $f(\cdot)$ that maps x to y, i.e., y=f(x). As a well-known international investment firm practicing data-driven approaches to find startup unicorns, we strive to 1) obtain a thorough and in-depth understanding of the methodologies for startup evaluation using DL, and 2) distil important and actionable learning for practitioners.

Therefore, we carry out a literature survey³ on using DL to evaluate startups. According to Figure 2, over 40% of the surveyed papers adopt an ANN/DNN/MLP⁴ due to its wide applicability to many data types. LSTM/GRU⁵ almost dominates the cases when time-series are used. Deep attention (Vaswani et al., 2017) and graph based models (GNN/GCN/GAT)⁶ have a rising trend of adoption due to increasing introduction of text and graph input. Lastly, images and videos are relatively least used (Figure 4), leading to only around 10% adoption rate for CNN (convolutional NN). We discover that the innovation mostly lies in how an existing DL model is applied, rather than in the model itself. Particularly, we present our literature synthesis and practical learnings from four key aspects: optimization target, feature selection, data split, and evaluation strategy. To the best of our knowledge so far, our work is the first of this kind.

2 Optimization Target

Identifying potential unicorns relies on accurate prediction of startup success. So far there is no uni-

versally agreed definition of "true success"; most of the existing definitions commonly focus on "growth" which can be measured from different perspectives like revenue, employees, and valuation, to name a few. We summarize the definitions adopted by the reviewed literature, showing each criterion's popularity among researchers. All *success criteria* are quantities in relation to a predefined duration since the time point of evaluation.

- Fulfill the preset fundraising goal (Lee et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2019; Yeh and Chen, 2020; Shi et al., 2021; Kaminski and Hopp, 2020; Wu et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2022): the goal (the expected amount of money) of the fund-raise campaign or plan is reached or surpassed, which is common among crowdfunding projects. The readers should be cautious not to confuse with the fund-raise goal of investors.
- 2. **Future funding** (Chen et al., 2021; Ross et al., 2021; Stahl, 2021; Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2022): any future funding raised above a low-bar amount.
- 3. Acquired (Ang et al., 2022; Ferrati et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020; Lyu et al., 2021): one company purchases and takes over the operations and assets of the startup.
- 4. **IPO** (initial public offering) (Ang et al., 2022; Ferrati et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021): it offers shares to the public in a new stock issuance for the first time; IPO allows the company to raise equity capital from public investors.
- 5. Series A (Zhang et al., 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021): the startup receives the first VC funding round after the seed and angel rounds.
- 6. *N*-year survival (Ghassemi et al., 2020; Ross et al., 2021): the firm still operates after *N* years.
- 7. **Experts view** (Bai and Zhao, 2021; Kinne and Lenz, 2021): the quantified review from human experts.
- 8. **Upround** (Ang et al., 2022): the valuation after a future funding round becomes higher than the current valuation.
- 9. VC-backed (Garkavenko et al., 2021): the startup is funded by one or more VC firms.
- 10. **Total raised funding** (Kim and Park, 2017): the accumulated amount of funding received (the higher the better), which is often used as a regression target.

³There are 29 English papers/theses sourced (with no restriction of year, type or geo-location) from 1) investment professionals and researchers, 2) keywords searching in Google, Google Scholar, IEEE, ACM, Scopus, Wiley, Springer and Web of Science, and 3) cross reference among papers/theses.

⁴In this paper, ANN, DNN (deep NN) and MLP (multilayer perceptron) refer to a NN with at least two hidden layers. ⁵LSTM: long short term mem.; GRU:gated recurrent unit.

⁶GNN (graph NN), GCN (graph convolution net) and GAT (graph attention net) are three graph based DL models.



Figure 3: Distribution of the adopted startup success criteria (i.e., optimization objective); the upper-right panel shows the percentage of combining different number of criteria together.

- 11. **Competition nomination** (Ghassemi et al., 2020): the startup's business idea wins (or nominated by the committee of) a entrepreneurial competition.
- 12. Team growth (Horn, 2021): whether the team size has experienced a fast growth or not, such as " $\geq x\%$ increase from at least 10 initial employees".
- 13. **3rd-party score** (Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022): some data sources provide certain firm evaluation scores⁷.

While the first 12 criteria are intuitively sound, we question the effectiveness of the last criterion of taking the 3rd-party (algorithmic) scores as ground truth to train the DL model, because it is guaranteed to obtain a model inferior to the 3rd-party method. Additionally, there is no financial based success criteria⁸ adopted in the DL-based work, which is a consequence of missing rich operating data (Gompers et al., 2020) before exiting the startup phase and entering the growth phase (Skawińska and Zalewski, 2020). Although the definition of a successful startup has many versions, for investors, it is relatively straightforward: a profitable exit, often in the form of acquisition or IPO, which incur high ROI (Ang et al., 2022). Practically, short-term events like funding rounds have a higher adoption rate than longer-term acquisition/IPO; the reason is twofold: 1) acquisition/IPO is extremely scarce as very few startups achieve these milestones; and 2) it occurs very late in startup's trajectory, hence potentially weakening the correlation between early data and late success (Stahl, 2021). In most cases,



Figure 4: The distribution of data category sorted by the their occurrences; the upper-right panel shows a snapshot (to the date when this paper is written) of the utilized data modalities: numerical, categorical, text, graph, time-series, image, video and audio.

different success criteria do not conflict with each other, implying the possibility to combine multiple criteria; but this kind of *criteria mixture* is still under-investigated as illustrated in the upper-right panel of Figure 3. Generally speaking, one can combine multiple criteria with logical operators (i.e., OR and AND) (Yin et al., 2021; Ang et al., 2022), or use each criterion separately in a multitask training setup (Shi et al., 2021).

3 Feature Selection

DL models need data input to make predictions. Before we start gathering input data for model, we might be able to benefit from understanding what input(s) humans use to make decisions. When investment professionals (i.e., humans) try to forecast the success of early stage startups, they make use of two cognitive modes: intuitive and analytical. The *intuitive mode* is characterized by processing "soft" signals (e.g., innovativeness and personality of entrepreneur) that are mostly qualitative; and humans are still the "golden standard" for this mode (Baer and McKool, 2014). The analytical mode, on the other hand, deals with "hard" facts (e.g., industry and team size) that are often quantitative (Dellermann et al., 2021). The majority of the work we reviewed incorporate both modes into the model input, but they have to quantify the "soft" information via either approximation or questionnaire. Data is often fed into DL models in the form of features. Feature (a.k.a. "factor" in the scope of financial research) is an individual measurable property or characteristic of a phenomenon, which is sometimes aggregated from raw data. When we try to map out the large number of features used the literature, we found that features tend to cluster into

⁷For example, Crunchbase (www.crunchbase.com) provides a so called "trend score" score.

⁸Only a few ML-based (instead of DL-based) work (Lussier and Pfeifer, 2001; Lussier and Halabi, 2010) have investigated using financial based success criteria.



(a) Entity connections.
(b) An example graph.
Figure 5: Illustration of the connection feature category, from which a graph can be built: (a) the graph comprises many nodes (denoting company, person or investor) and edges (representing investing/employment/founding relations between nodes); (b) an example company-person-investor graph using (a) as a legend.

different categories, describing different aspects of the startup in scope. We identified 15 feature categories detailed below and visualize their adoption percentage in Figure 4. Refer to Table 1 for the concrete features adopted in each category.

- **Funding**: historical fund received by the startup is direct recognition from other investors, thus it is the most popular category in the literature.
- **Product/Service**: the core value that early startups have to offer is reflected in the product and/or service they aim to create, which makes this category widely adopted.
- Meta Information: the general attributes of startups, which seldomly change since creation.
- Founder/Owner: the attributes of founding teams and the individuals that comprise them contribute to both the short-term success and longer-term survival (Ghassemi et al., 2020) of the startup; this category is available from many data sources and entrepreneurial competitions.
- **Team**: complementary to the founder/owner feature, the team features capture the statistics of the employees.
- **Investor**: the statistics of investors that have funded the startup can be informative about its early attractiveness.
- Web: any feature extracted from web pages.
- **Context**: besides *intrinsic*⁹ features, more and more researchers have realized the importance of *extrinsic* factors that may be (but not limited to) competition, environmental, cultural, economical and tax-based.
- **Connection** features, as illustrated in Figure 5, are usually extracted from a graph that encodes

connections between different entities: startup, person and investor.

- **Operation/Planning** concerns operational matters such as sales, localization, marketing, supply chain, digitization, advisory, company culture and legal regulation.
- **IP and R&D**: IP (intellectual property) and R&D (research and development) can approximate the startups' originality and innovativeness.
- The **customer**, **financial** and **M&A**¹⁰ features are, most of the time, unavailable publicly, which resonates with their scarcity in Figure 4.

3.1 Noticeable Trends

The surveyed literature reflects several trends, summarized below, concerning selecting the input features for DL models.

Single-modal \rightarrow multi-modal: although the *tabular* (aggregated numerical/categorical data) form still dominates, we see other emerging data modalities: *text*, graph, time-series, image, video and audio. The relative adoption of different modalities is shown in Figure 4. Especially, a few recent work (e.g., (Shi et al., 2021; Cheng et al., 2019)) has looked into combining multiple input modalities (i.e., multimodal).

Structured(aggregated) \rightarrow unstructured(raw): the modalities excluding "tabular" in Figure 4 are unstructured, which become increasingly important as a complement to the structured data (Lyu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019), or as a standalone input to the model (Zhang et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2022). Since raw, unstructured data often has a large scale and contains intact-yet-noisy signal, it may bring forward superior performance as long as a proper DL approach is applied (Garkavenko et al., 2022).

Proprietary \rightarrow **paid** \rightarrow **free**: all data sources utilized in DL-based methods are sorted in Figure 6 according to their occurrences. The traditional proprietary sources are not favored any more due to the limitation of scale and shareability. Paid data sources (e.g., Crunchbase and Pitchbook) are still very popular, because they are mostly quite affordable and well organized. However, neither paid or proprietary data is up-to-date or fine-grained, leading to the increasing adoption of free sources like web page scraping (Garkavenko et al., 2022).

⁹While intrinsic features act from within a company, extrinsic ones wield their influence from the outside. The former often can be controlled by the startup, but the latter can not.

¹⁰M&A (merger and acquisition) refers to a business transaction in which the ownership of companies (or their operating units) are transferred to or consolidated with another company.

Category	Description of Common Features	The Reference[ref] of Example Work	#r
	Total number of funding rounds and amount raised Funding type (e.g., angel and series A/B/C)	(Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022; Yin et al., 2021; Horn, 2021; Stahl, 2021) (Dellermann et al., 2021; Stahl, 2021; Yeh and Chen, 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	1
	Elapsed time since latest funding	(Garkavenko et al., 2022; Ang et al., 2022; Gastaud et al., 2019)	6
	Size and type of the latest funding	(Ang et al., 2022; Garkavenko et al., 2022; Ross et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019)	4
Funding	Size and type of seed funding	(Dellermann et al., 2021; Bai and Zhao, 2021; Lyu et al., 2021)	3
	Average per-round statistics	(Garkavenko et al., 2022; Ang et al., 2022; Garkavenko et al., 2021)	3
	Average time between consecutive rounds	(Ross et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	3
	The raw time-series of funding rounds	(Chen et al., 2021; Stahl, 2021; Horn, 2021)	3
	Accumulated amount for different funding types	(Ross et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Dellermann et al., 2021; Ross et al., 2021)	2
	Total amount raised from VC Post-money valuation of rounds	(Garkavenko et al., 2021)	
	Industry/sector/sub-sector	(Ang et al., 2022; Ghassemi et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018)	1
	Textual product description	(Chen et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018)	9
	Project specification on crowdfunding platforms	(Yeh and Chen, 2020; Cheng et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2018; Kim and Park, 2017)	17
	Image, video or audio of the product/service	(Tang et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2021; Kaminski and Hopp, 2020; Cheng et al., 2019)	1 5
Product/	Time to market, novelty and differentiation	(Bai and Zhao, 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	3
Service	Technology maturity, novelty and differentiation	(Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022; Dellermann et al., 2021; Bai and Zhao, 2021)	3
	Customer focus (e.g., B2B/B2C/B2B2C)*	(Stahl, 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021)	12
	Quality, market penetration and traction	(Bai and Zhao, 2021)	
	Business models [†] and scalability	(Dellermann et al., 2021) (Shorebilay at al., 2018)	1
	The number of product varieties Textual product review and comment	(Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Lee et al., 2018)	
	Founded date and geographical location	(Chen et al., 2013) (Chen et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018)	1
	Has Facebook/Linkedin/Twitter account	(Shi et al., 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021; Ross et al., 2021; Kim and Park, 2017)	
Mata	Domain name or homepage URL	(Ross et al., 2021; Srinivasan et al., 2020; Kim and Park, 2017)	
Meta Info.	Company legal name and aliases	(Ross et al., 2021; Srinivasan et al., 2020)	
mio.	Office count and age	(Garkavenko et al., 2022; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
	Registered address, email and phone number	(Ross et al., 2021)	
	Incubator or accelerator support	(Dellermann et al., 2021)	
	Founding team size (number of co-founders)	(Garkavenko et al., 2021; Ross et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019)	1
	Founders' (successful) founding/industry experience	(Bai and Zhao, 2021; Shi et al., 2021; Yeh and Chen, 2020; Srinivasan et al., 2020)	1
Formedon	Gender, ethnicity or education (uni., major and year)	(Lyu et al., 2021; Ross et al., 2021; Kaiser and Kuhn, 2020; Corea, 2019)	
Founder Owner	Founder ID and score from 3rd-party data sources	(Shi et al., 2021; Yeh and Chen, 2020; Srinivasan et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Bai and Zhao, 2021; Chassenii et al., 2020; Basevet et al., 2020; Basto, 2018)	
Owner	Skill (e.g., leadership, sales, law, finance, marketing)	(Bai and Zhao, 2021; Ghassemi et al., 2020; Pasayat et al., 2020; Bento, 2018)	
	Social capital [‡] Founders' biography (text) and photo	(Shi et al., 2021; Srinivasan et al., 2020) (Srinivasan et al., 2020; Kim and Park, 2017)	
	Founders' entrepreneurial vision and dedication	(Bai and Zhao, 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021)	
	Team size of all or different functions	(Ang et al., 2022; Garkavenko et al., 2022; Ross et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020)	(
	Completeness and capability of managers and board	(Garkavenko et al., 2022; Garkavenko et al., 2022; Ross et al., 2021; Khirl et al., 2020) (Garkavenko et al., 2021; Bai and Zhao, 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
	The time-series of team size	(Stahl, 2021; Horn, 2021)	
	Statistics of new hire or leavers	(Garkavenko et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
Team	Team composition (e.g., diversity and gender)	(Ross et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
	Educational degrees, vocational skill and experience	(Garkavenko et al., 2021; Ross et al., 2021)	
	3rd-party team score and person ID	(Ghassemi et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
	Employees from renowned organizations	(Chen et al., 2021)	
	1 1 1	(Yeh and Chen, 2020)	
	The number of total/distinct investors	(Ferrati et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
Investor		(Stahl, 2021; Yin et al., 2021; Ferrati et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
	VC syndicate (e.g., advantage, diversity and centrality) Share and involvement time of each investor	(Gastaud et al., 2019; Shin, 2019; Hochberg et al., 2007; Nahata, 2008) (Shorphiley et al., 2018)	
	Share and involvement time of each investor	(Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
	Rank/count/duration/bounce rate of website visit	(Garkavenko et al. 2022: Dellermann et al. 2021: Stabl. 2021)	
	Rank/count/duration/bounce rate of website visit The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news	(Garkavenko et al., 2022; Dellermann et al., 2021; Stahl, 2021) (Yin et al., 2021: Garkavenko et al., 2021: Gastaud et al., 2019: Sharchiley et al., 2018)	T
Web	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles	(Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
Web	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles	(Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
Web	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles	(Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018)	
Web	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles Twitter statistics (e.g., followers, tweets and sentiment) Count of web pages and domain names The number of direct competitors	(Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022, 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021)	
	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles Twitter statistics (e.g., followers, tweets and sentiment) Count of web pages and domain names The number of direct competitors Funding raised by competitors	(Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Xim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022, 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Dellermann et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022; Pasayat and Bhowmick, 2021; Xiang et al., 2012) (Stahl, 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019)	
	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles Twitter statistics (e.g., followers, tweets and sentiment) Count of web pages and domain names The number of direct competitors Funding raised by competitors Per-industry prosperity of the hosting geo-location	 (Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022, 2021; Dellermann et al., 2021) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Dellermann et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022; Pasayat and Bhowmick, 2021; Xiang et al., 2012) (Stahl, 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019) (Yin et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019) 	
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	The count (aggregated or timeseries) of published news Topic or sentiment of news/articles Twitter statistics (e.g., followers, tweets and sentiment) Count of web pages and domain names The number of direct competitors Funding raised by competitors Per-industry prosperity of the hosting geo-location Country/state/sector economy and financing env. Market/industry size and growth rate	(Yin et al., 2021; Garkavenko et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Dellermann et al., 2021) (Garkavenko et al., 2022; Dellermann et al., 2021; Sharchilev et al., 2018) (Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022; Pasayat and Bhowmick, 2021; Xiang et al., 2012) (Stahl, 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019) (Yin et al., 2021; Gastaud et al., 2019) (Ross et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021) (Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022)	
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* Common types of customer focus: B2B: business-to-business. B2C: business-to-business-to-business-to-consumer, where businesses access customers via a 3rd-party. † Business models include many, such as subscription centric, freemium, cross selling, hidden revenue, no frills, and layer player. ‡ Social capital is a positive product of human interactions, which comprises two aspects: bonding (intra group) and bridging (inter groups). Nowadays, it is increasingly represented by activities on social media and applications (Shi et al., 2021).

Table 1: The feature categories and the commonly adopted features within each categy. Due to limited space, we can not list all publications that adopt the corresponding feature, but the right-most "#ref" column indicates the total number of occurrences for each feature. Most of the features are structured numerical/categorical input, and we use **boldface** to emphasize the unstructured features.



Figure 6: The occurrences of common data sources: **paid** sources are Crunchbase, Pitchbook, Tianyancha, Linkedin, Mattermark, Dealroom; **free** sources are Kickstarter/Indiegogo/scraping, Twitter API, search engines (e.g., Google), USPTO (United States Patent and Trademark Office, Facebook (the pages about startups); **proprietary** data are usually only accessible from investment firms (in "Other" category), governmental/administrative departments or survey/questionnaire.

About dataset size: to understand how many samples (the number of companies) researchers use for training their DL models, we plot the distribution/histogram of dataset size in Figure 8. It shows a median and average size of 35,621 and 107,694 respectively, which is expected to continue to grow.

Intrinsic(independent) \rightarrow extrinsic(contextual): classically, most factors driving investors' decisions would be only *independent and intrinsic*⁹ to the startup, most notably at the expense of *extrinsic and contextualized*⁹ features (Gastaud et al., 2019). The community has started steering towards using more context and connection features.

4 Data Split

Splitting the dataset is a mandatory step before training any ML/DL model, yet it is often discussed very lightly (sometimes even neglected) in the literature on startup success prediction. It is generally recommended to divide the dataset into non-overlapping *training* (\mathbf{x}_{train}), *evaluation* (\mathbf{x}_{eval}) and *test* (\mathbf{x}_{test}) subsets. The model will be trained solely on \mathbf{x}_{train} . Hyper-parameters are searched using \mathbf{x}_{eval} . In the simplest form, the training will be run for N times with different hyper-parameters, resulting in N trained models, each of which is evaluated on \mathbf{x}_{eval} . The best performing model on \mathbf{x}_{eval} should be tested on \mathbf{x}_{test} before deployment.

4.1 Company-Centric vs. Investor-Centric

To predict the success of startups, the appropriate way to split the dataset is not as straightforward as it appears in ML/DL researches for other domains. We visualize a minimal example in Figure 7 to facilitate our discussion; there are three startups (A, B and C) founded at different dates over the timeline. According to some success criteria (Section 2), A and B are labeled as positive (i.e., promising investing targets: $y^{(A)} = y^{(B)} = 1$) some time after they are founded. The majority become unfavourable (e.g., the label of C is $y^{(C)} = 0$) to VC, if no sign of success some years after their founding dates.

With a company-centric view, one can choose some event types (e.g., seed and pre-A rounds), the dates of which are *feature snapshot dates*. We can then compute one sample using data before each snapshot date. As shown in Figure 7, there are three snapshot dates on the timeline of startup A, leading to three samples (i.e., $\mathbf{x}_1^{(A)}$, $\mathbf{x}_2^{(A)}$ and $\mathbf{x}_3^{(A)}$) that are all labeled positive (i.e., $y_1^{(A)} = y_2^{(A)} = y_3^{(A)} = 1$). In a sense, startup A is augmented by generating three $\langle \text{sample, label} \rangle$ pairs: $\langle \mathbf{x}_1^{(A)}, y_1^{(A)} \rangle$, $\langle \mathbf{x}_2^{(A)}, y_2^{(A)} \rangle$ and $\langle \mathbf{x}_{3}^{(A)}, y_{3}^{(A)} \rangle$. Similarly, B and C create another four pairs: $\langle \mathbf{x}_1^{(B)} y_1^{(B)} \rangle$, $\langle \mathbf{x}_2^{(B)} y_2^{(B)} \rangle$, $\langle \mathbf{x}_1^{(C)} y_1^{(C)} \rangle$ and $\langle \mathbf{x}_2^{(C)} y_2^{(C)} \rangle$. The company-centric split will randomly allocate these pairs into one of the sets (training, evaluation or test), as in work such as (Ang et al., 2022; Yeh and Chen, 2020).

With an **investor-centric** view, as in work like (Wu et al., 2022; Ferrati et al., 2021), the feature snapshot dates are randomly sampled (before the corresponding label date), therefore they do not represent any event(s). More importantly, the global timeline is fragmented (from earliest startup founding date to now) into three periods, i.e., training, evaluation and test period, as illustrated in Figure 7. For a startup, the period that its label belongs determines the dataset split it should go to. Applying this rule, we can see (cf. Figure 7) that the three $\langle \text{sample, label} \rangle$ pairs from A should go to the training set; the two pairs from B belong to the test set; and lastly, the two pairs from C will head to the evaluation set. (Sharchilev et al., 2018) claims that investor-centric view is preferred, since it better resembles the real-world scenario of how investment professionals predict the success of startups.

4.2 Data Generation Process Matters

When assembling the samples (i.e., $\mathbf{x}_i^{(\cdot)}$ in Figure 7) using data up till the snapshot dates, one should make sure that no future information is leaked into $\mathbf{x}_i^{(\cdot)}$. This requires in-depth understanding of not only the data itself (*know-what*) but also the data generation process (*know-how*), which we found





Figure 7: Visualization of investor-centric split using three example startups.

Figure 8: Dataset size distribution.

is seldomly addressed by the literature. We hereby give a concrete example out of many: a startup in the dataset has an annual revenue data point (from BvD^{11}) with a timestamp 2020-12-31; but this data point should be ignored when predicting on 2021-06-01. The reason is that fiscal reports (the source of revenue data) often have a delay of about 12 months, causing the 2020-12-31 data point unavailable until (earliest) 2021-12-31. Without examining such matters, the model performance in production may fail catastrophically.

5 Evaluation Strategy

The decision of deploying any model is often made by looking at the evaluation results. To achieve that, some *evaluation metrics* are employed to measure the quality of predictions y by comparing to the ground-truth labels \hat{y} . The metric values computed over the evaluation set (i.e., \mathbf{x}_{eval}) are used to determine which model (among many trained using different hyper-parameters) will be deployed for production eventually. This process also fulfills the objective of hyper-parameter search. It has been discussed in Section 4 that the evaluation metrics should also be calculated on the test set \mathbf{x}_{test} as an indication of the model's generalization capability.

The evaluation metrics adopted in the DL literature include (ordered by their occurrences as shown in Figure 9 with an example citation) *precision* (Zhang et al., 2021), *ROC-AUC* (*area under the receiver operating characteristics*) (Ross et al., 2021), *accuracy* (Bai and Zhao, 2021), *FPR* (*false-positive rate*) (Ghassemi et al., 2020), *TPR* (*true-positive rate*) (Garkavenko et al., 2022), *hit rate* (Allu and Padmanabhuni, 2022), *NDCG* (normalized discounted cumulative gain) (Chen et al., 2021), portfolio simulation (Yin et al., 2021), *RMSE* (root mean square deviation) (Wu et al., 2022), AUPR (area under the precision-recall curve) (Zhang et al., 2021), average precision (Lyu et al., 2021), confusion matrix (Ross et al., 2021), *F0.1 score* (Sharchilev et al., 2018), *MAE* (mean absolute error) (Wu et al., 2022), *MCC* (Matthews correlation coefficient) (Dellermann et al., 2021), *PR* (precision-recall) curve (Stahl, 2021), and R^2 (Garkavenko et al., 2021).

Most trained models are expected to serve as a decision-support system for VC deal sourcing. Realistically, human professionals are only able to assess a limited amount of startups. Further, because of fund size limitation, investors can only fund a very small fraction of startups (Stahl, 2021). As a result, the **evaluation metric should aim for high-precision** (corresponding to high-certainty and low-recall)¹² (Sharchilev et al., 2018), which explains the popularity of *precision*, *TPR*, *FPR*, *hit rate* and *F0.1 score* in Figure 9.

5.1 Portfolio Simulation

There are four key questions to answer concerning any model trained to facilitate VC deal sourcing: **Q1** What is the expected success ratio (or ROI) of the portfolio (with different sizes) constructed according to model predictions? **Q2** How will the model-driven portfolio perform in relation to the historical records of renowned investment firms? **Q3** Is the model significantly superior than a random policy? **Q4** How far does the model fall be-

¹¹Bureau van Dijk: www.bvdinfo.com

¹²In the scope of VC deal sourcing, high-precision means the rate of "correct" prediction within the top-N list (i.e., TPR) should be high. According to the typical PR curve, precision tends to be higher for smaller N; yet recall suffers from it.



Figure 9: The distribution of adopted evaluation metrics. The notation "@N" implies the corresponding metric is calculated over a top-N list. Precision, hit rate, and F0.1 score are popular metrics with a focus of high-precision. Portfolio simulation suited particularly well to startup success prediction, while others are general-purpose metrics for evaluating ML/DL models.

hind a theoretical perfect portfolio with 100% success ratio? Answering all questions simultaneously using any single general-purpose ML/DL metric is challenging and sometimes far-fetched. To that end, some recent works (Ross et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021) (though still far from a wide adoption according to Figure 9) have emerged proposing to evaluate via portfolio simulations. Recall that in Section 4, we recommended the investor-centric dataset split demonstrated in Figure 7. With that split, we make the trained models to predict the conditional success probability of each startup in evaluation/test subset, using the end date of training period as the feature snapshot date. Then, we construct an investment portfolio of size k by selecting top-k startups with the highest predicted probabilities. As an indication of portfolio performance, we count the number of startups that eventually obtain a positive label. The portfolio size k should be varied, so that we can plot one performance curve (the four colored curves in Figure 10) for each model. To answer Q1, a steeper curve corresponds to a better model. The performance of a perfect model is a diagonal line, implying all portfolio startups will succeed. To address Q2, one just needs to measure the angular distance to diagonal. The simplest possible model is a random policy, the performance of which is represented by the flattest straight-dashed line in Figure 10; the angular distance between this "random" line to any model's curve answers Q3. Finally, the historical fund performance of investment firms can be easily plotted as individual points, the vertical distances from which to models' curves give insights for Q4. In practice, the investment firms are more constrained than simulation: they can not invest in any startup due to many



Figure 10: Portfolio simulation. The trained DL model is used to form portfolios of size $k \in \{20, 40, ..., 120\}$ (x-axis); the number of eventually successful startups is plotted against the corresponding k, resulting in a performance curve (cf. the colored curves). The perfect/random cases (dashed lines) and performance of investment firms (red dots) can be plotted as well for comparison. It is adapted from (Halvardsson, 2023).

reasons like founders preference, portfolio conflict and investment mandate. This constraint becomes more prominent when investors compete to invest in startups with great success potential.

6 Conclusion

Finding the rare unicorn startups is a challenging task, hence often regarded as the holy grail for early-stage investors like Venture Capital firms. To avoid entirely relying on human domain expertise and intuition, investors usually employ data-driven approaches to forecast the success probability of startups. The rapid growth of data volume and variety makes deep learning (DL) a potentially superior approach to address this task. To the best of our knowledge till this date, there has not been any comprehensive survey on this topic. According to our synthesis of carefully selected literature, the innovation mostly lies in how an off-the-shelf DL model is applied, rather than in the model itself. So we focus on summarizing our understanding and learning concerning four key aspects:

- Optimization target: consider a mixture of criteria, while prioritizing the short-term event.
- Feature selection: scale the dataset with multimodal, unstructured, free and extrinsic features.
- Data split: apply the investor-centric split with the knowledge of data generation process.
- Evaluation strategy: pick the metrics aiming for high-precision and perform portfolio simulation.

Finally, authors' outlook of DL adoption in startup success prediction is three fold: (1) more easy-touse software tools will be developed to promote good practices and lower the barrier to entry; (2) the majority of the available data is unlabeled and small scaled, hence more data/label efficient DL models will be proposed; (3) data privacy and model security will gain more emphasis in the coming years.

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