

Final Project Submission

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Smart Credit Risk Scoring with Machine Learning Project: Predicting Defaults to Empower Ethical Lending

A Predictive Modeling Solution for a Kenyan Digital Micro-Lender to Reduce Loan Defaults and Promote Financial Inclusion

Project Overview

In the age of digital finance, where micro-lending platforms are expanding access to credit across emerging markets, this project aims to build a machine learning model that predicts the likelihood of a borrower defaulting on their next loan payment. By replacing manual, rule-based credit scoring with intelligent, data-driven risk assessment, the model will enable lenders to make smarter lending decisions by proactively identifying high-risk clients, tailoring credit limits, and optimizing approval decisions. The ultimate goal is to reduce default rates, improve repayment performance, and support ethical, inclusive, and financially sustainable lending practices.

Business Problem

A digital micro-lender in Kenya is experiencing rising loan default rates, threatening its cash flow, profitability, and investor confidence. The micro-lender current credit scoring system is manual and based on basic rules—such as age, job type, and credit limits, lacking the precision to identify potential defaulters early. Without a predictive, data-driven system that leverages behavioral, transactional, and historical repayment data, the lender remains reactive, increasing risk exposure and reducing efficiency in customer targeting. You are tasked to build a machine learning model to accurately predict if a client will default on their next month's credit payment to help the lender make smarter, fairer, and more sustainable lending decisions—supporting financial inclusion while minimizing risk.

Data Understanding

This project analyzes structured financial data sourced from Kaggle's Loan Default Prediction Dataset [View the dataset on Kaggle](#). The dataset simulates real-world lending scenarios from a micro-lending environment, providing valuable indicators for assessing a borrower's creditworthiness and default risk.

Dataset Overview

The primary dataset is a single CSV file titled Default_Fin.csv, which contains anonymized borrower information and loan-level features necessary for building a credit risk scoring model.

Dataset Source:

- Default_Fin.csv [View the dataset on Kaggle](#)

This dataset includes:

- Client Demographics – Age, employment status, educational background, and income indicators.
- Loan Characteristics – Loan amount, interest rate, disbursal date, loan tenure, and EMI.
- Behavioral and Bureau Data – Number of past loans, current delinquencies, credit score flags, and historical defaults.
- Target Variable – A binary indicator (loan_default) denoting whether a customer defaulted on a loan.

Objective

- Minimize Non-Performing Loans (NPLs)
- Automate risk assessment during onboarding and loan renewals
- Dynamic loan limit recommendations
- Empower responsible lending to support underserved but creditworthy users

1. Data Preparation

```
In [11]: # Importing Libraries

import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
%matplotlib inline
```

1. Loading and Inspecting the Data

```
In [7]: # Loading dataset and viewing first few rows
df = pd.read_csv("Default_Fin.csv")
df.head()
```

```
Out[7]:
```

	Index	Employed	Bank Balance	Annual Salary	Defaulted?
0	1	1	8754.36	532339.56	0
1	2	0	9806.16	145273.56	0
2	3	1	12882.60	381205.68	0
3	4	1	6351.00	428453.88	0
4	5	1	9427.92	461562.00	0

```
In [8]: # Checking dataset shape and types
df.info()
```

```
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 10000 entries, 0 to 9999
Data columns (total 5 columns):
#   Column                Non-Null Count  Dtype
---  -
0   Index                  10000 non-null  int64
1   Employed                10000 non-null  int64
2   Bank Balance           10000 non-null  float64
3   Annual Salary          10000 non-null  float64
4   Defaulted?             10000 non-null  int64
dtypes: float64(2), int64(3)
memory usage: 390.8 KB
```

```
In [9]: # Summary statistics
df.describe()
```

```
Out[9]:
```

	Index	Employed	Bank Balance	Annual Salary	Defaulted?
count	10000.00000	10000.000000	10000.000000	10000.000000	10000.000000
mean	5000.50000	0.705600	10024.498524	402203.782224	0.033300
std	2886.89568	0.455795	5804.579486	160039.674988	0.179428
min	1.00000	0.000000	0.000000	9263.640000	0.000000
25%	2500.75000	0.000000	5780.790000	256085.520000	0.000000
50%	5000.50000	1.000000	9883.620000	414631.740000	0.000000
75%	7500.25000	1.000000	13995.660000	525692.760000	0.000000
max	10000.00000	1.000000	31851.840000	882650.760000	1.000000

```
In [10]: # Checking for missing values
df.isnull().sum()
```

```
Out[10]: Index          0
Employed          0
Bank Balance      0
Annual Salary     0
Defaulted?        0
dtype: int64
```

```
In [11]: # Checking for duplicates
df.duplicated().sum()
```

```
Out[11]: 0
```

2. Data Cleaning

```
In [13]: # Dropping Index column
print(df.columns)
```

```
Index(['Index', 'Employed', 'Bank Balance', 'Annual Salary', 'Defaulted?'], dtype='object')
```

```
In [14]: # Renaming column for easier access
df.rename(columns={"Defaulted?": "Defaulted"}, inplace=True)

# Converting binary flags to categorical
df['Employed'] = df['Employed'].astype('category')
df['Defaulted'] = df['Defaulted'].astype('category')

# Confirming changes
df.info()
```

```
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 10000 entries, 0 to 9999
Data columns (total 5 columns):
#   Column          Non-Null Count  Dtype
---  ---
0   Index           10000 non-null  int64
1   Employed        10000 non-null  category
2   Bank Balance    10000 non-null  float64
3   Annual Salary   10000 non-null  float64
4   Defaulted       10000 non-null  category
dtypes: category(2), float64(2), int64(1)
memory usage: 254.3 KB
```

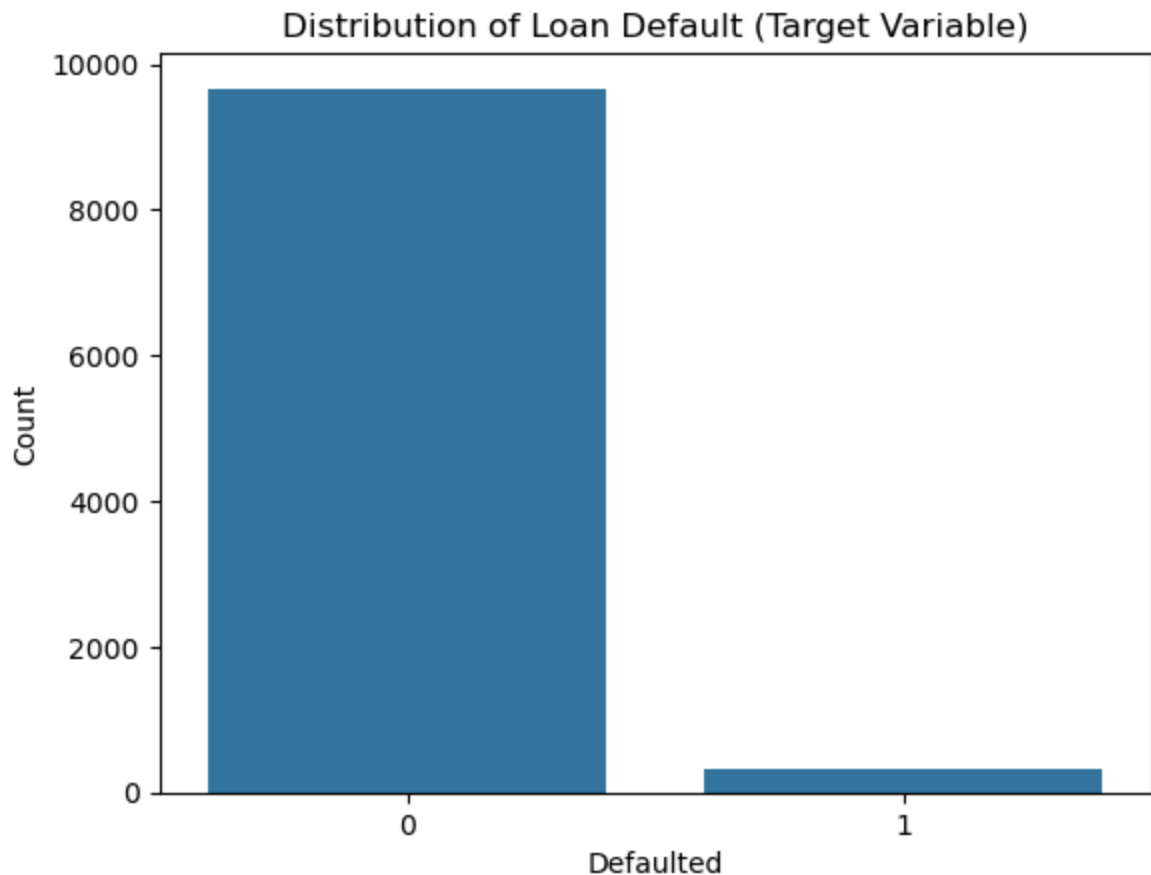
3. Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA)

3.1 Target Variable Distribution

Checking the balance between defaulted and non-defaulted loans.

```
In [17]: # Plotting class distribution
sns.countplot(x='Defaulted', data=df)
plt.title("Distribution of Loan Default (Target Variable)")
plt.xlabel("Defaulted")
plt.ylabel("Count")
plt.show()

# Percentage breakdown
default_rate = df['Defaulted'].value_counts(normalize=True) * 100
print("Default Rate Breakdown (%):\n", default_rate.round(2))
```



```
Default Rate Breakdown (%):
Defaulted
0    96.67
1     3.33
Name: proportion, dtype: float64
```

Interpretation:

- Out of all the 10,000 loan applicants: 96.67% did not default on their loans, only 3.33% defaulted on their loans.
- This shows that our dataset is highly imbalanced as very few people defaulted. That means:
 - Predicting "No Default" could be easy, but not useful.

- We will need techniques like resampling, class weights, or evaluation metrics like F1-score and ROC-AUC for modelling.

3.2 Numerical Distributions

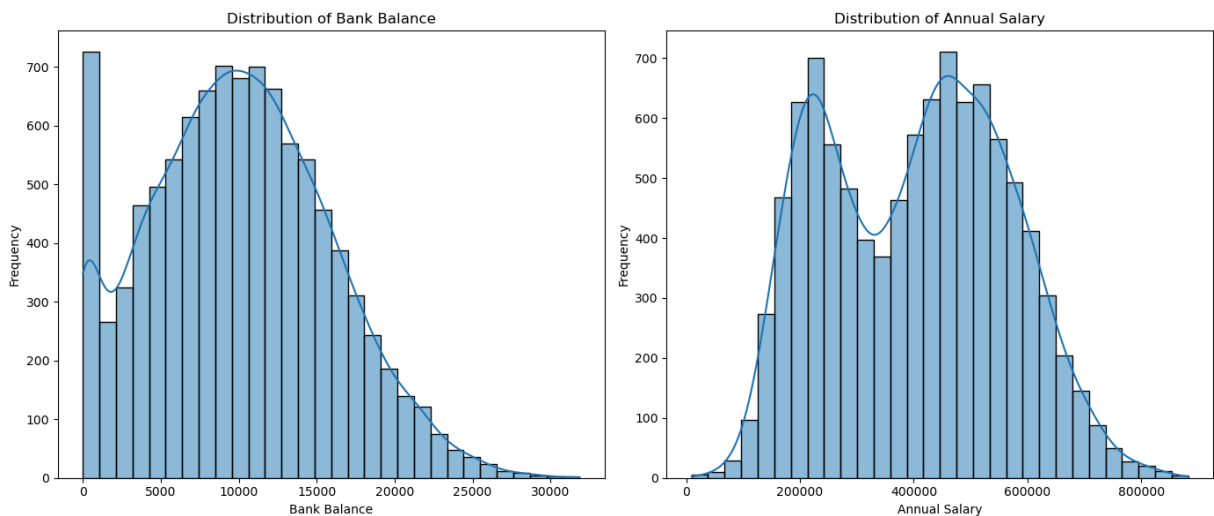
Understanding how Bank Balance and Annual Salary are distributed.

```
In [20]: # Creating plots
fig, axes = plt.subplots(1, 2, figsize=(14, 6))

# Histogram and KDE for Bank Balance
sns.histplot(df['Bank Balance'], kde=True, bins=30, ax=axes[0])
axes[0].set_title("Distribution of Bank Balance")
axes[0].set_xlabel("Bank Balance")
axes[0].set_ylabel("Frequency")

# Histogram and KDE for Annual Salary
sns.histplot(df['Annual Salary'], kde=True, bins=30, ax=axes[1])
axes[1].set_title("Distribution of Annual Salary")
axes[1].set_xlabel("Annual Salary")
axes[1].set_ylabel("Frequency")

# Display
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



Interpretation:

- **Bank Balance:** Most of the data points are concentrated in lower balances with a few high ones, indicating some people have significantly higher balances.
- **Annual Salary:** Most of the individuals have moderate to high salaries, but there are some with very high salaries, creating a right-skewed distribution.

3.3 3. Bivariate Analysis (Numerical vs Target)

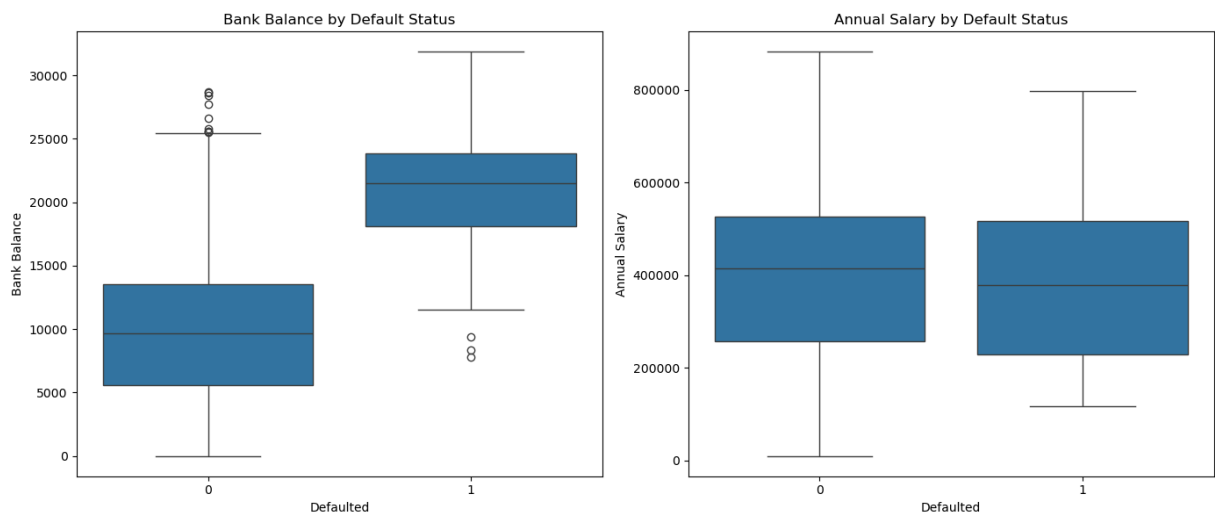
Checking how numerical features vary by default status.

```
In [23]: # Creating plots
fig, axes = plt.subplots(1, 2, figsize=(14, 6))

# Boxplot for Bank Balance vs Defaulted
sns.boxplot(x='Defaulted', y='Bank Balance', data=df, ax=axes[0])
axes[0].set_title("Bank Balance by Default Status")

# Boxplot for Annual Salary vs Defaulted
sns.boxplot(x='Defaulted', y='Annual Salary', data=df, ax=axes[1])
axes[1].set_title("Annual Salary by Default Status")

# Display
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```

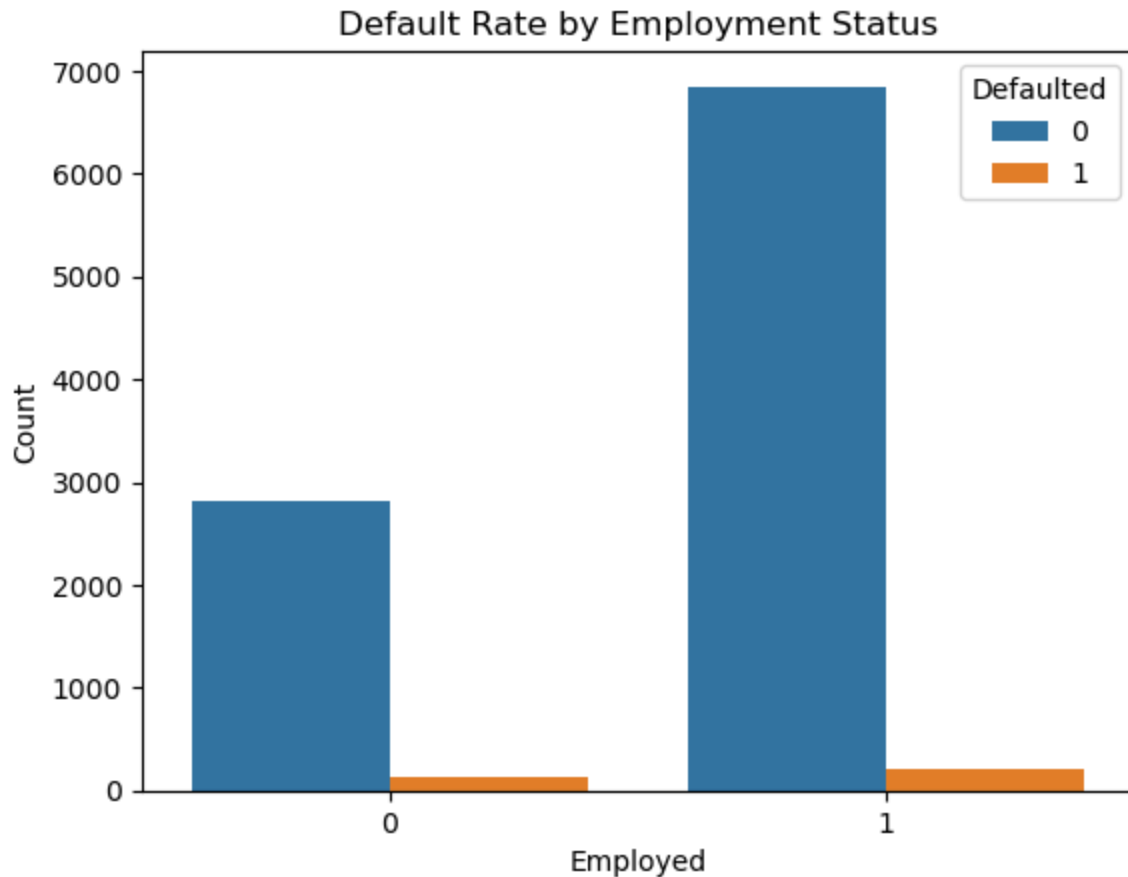


Interpretation:

- **Bank Balance by Default Status:** People who defaulted generally seem to have lower bank balances, with some having a higher spread compared to those who didn't default.
- **Annual Salary by Default Status:** People who defaulted tend to have a slightly lower annual salary, with a noticeable spread. This helps us understand the relationship between income and the likelihood of default.

3.4 Categorical vs Target (Employed vs Defaulted)

```
In [26]: sns.countplot(x='Employed', hue='Defaulted', data=df)
plt.title("Default Rate by Employment Status")
plt.xlabel("Employed")
plt.ylabel("Count")
plt.legend(title='Defaulted')
plt.show()
```



4. Modeling

4.1 Preprocessing data for Modeling

a. Encoding Categorical Variables

Our `Employed` and `Defaulted` columns are currently of type category. We'll convert these categories into numerals(0 for unemployed, 1 for employed):

```
In [28]: # Converting 'Employed' and 'Defaulted' from category to numeric codes
df['Employed'] = df['Employed'].cat.codes
df['Defaulted'] = df['Defaulted'].cat.codes
```

b. Feature Scaling

We scale the continuous numeric columns "Bank Balance" and "Annual Salary". This is because algorithms like Logistic Regression and others are sensitive to scale. If one feature has a much larger range than another, it can dominate the model's learning process thus, Standardization (scaling to mean 0 and variance 1) resolves this.

```
In [30]: # Standardization

from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
```



```
scaler = StandardScaler()

# Applying standard scaling to numerical features
df[['Bank Balance', 'Annual Salary']] = scaler.fit_transform(df[['Bank Balance', 'A
```

4.2 Train-Test Split

- We split our dataset into two parts: Training Set (80%) which is used to train the model and Test Set (20%), Used to evaluate how well the model generalizes to unseen data.
- We'll use stratify=y to ensure that both the training and test sets have the same proportion of defaulted and non-defaulted cases.

```
In [32]: from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

# Features and target
X = df.drop(columns='Defaulted')
y = df['Defaulted']

# Splitting into train and test sets
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(
    X, y, test_size=0.2, stratify=y, random_state=42
)
```

4.3 Modeling

4.3.1 Logistic Regression

We build a logistic regression model using scikit-learn.

```
In [34]: from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, confusion_matrix, accuracy_score

# # Instantiate model
model = LogisticRegression()

# Fitting on training data
model.fit(X_train, y_train)

# Predict on test data
y_pred = model.predict(X_test)

# Evaluation
print("Confusion Matrix:\n", confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred))
print("\nClassification Report:\n", classification_report(y_test, y_pred))
print("Accuracy Score:", accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred))
```

Confusion Matrix:

```
[[1923   10]
 [  46   21]]
```

Classification Report:

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.98	0.99	0.99	1933
1	0.68	0.31	0.43	67
accuracy			0.97	2000
macro avg	0.83	0.65	0.71	2000
weighted avg	0.97	0.97	0.97	2000

Accuracy Score: 0.972

C:\Users\user\anaconda3\Lib\site-packages\sklearn\linear_model_logistic.py:469: ConvergenceWarning: lbfgs failed to converge (status=1):
STOP: TOTAL NO. of ITERATIONS REACHED LIMIT.

Increase the number of iterations (max_iter) or scale the data as shown in:

<https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/preprocessing.html>

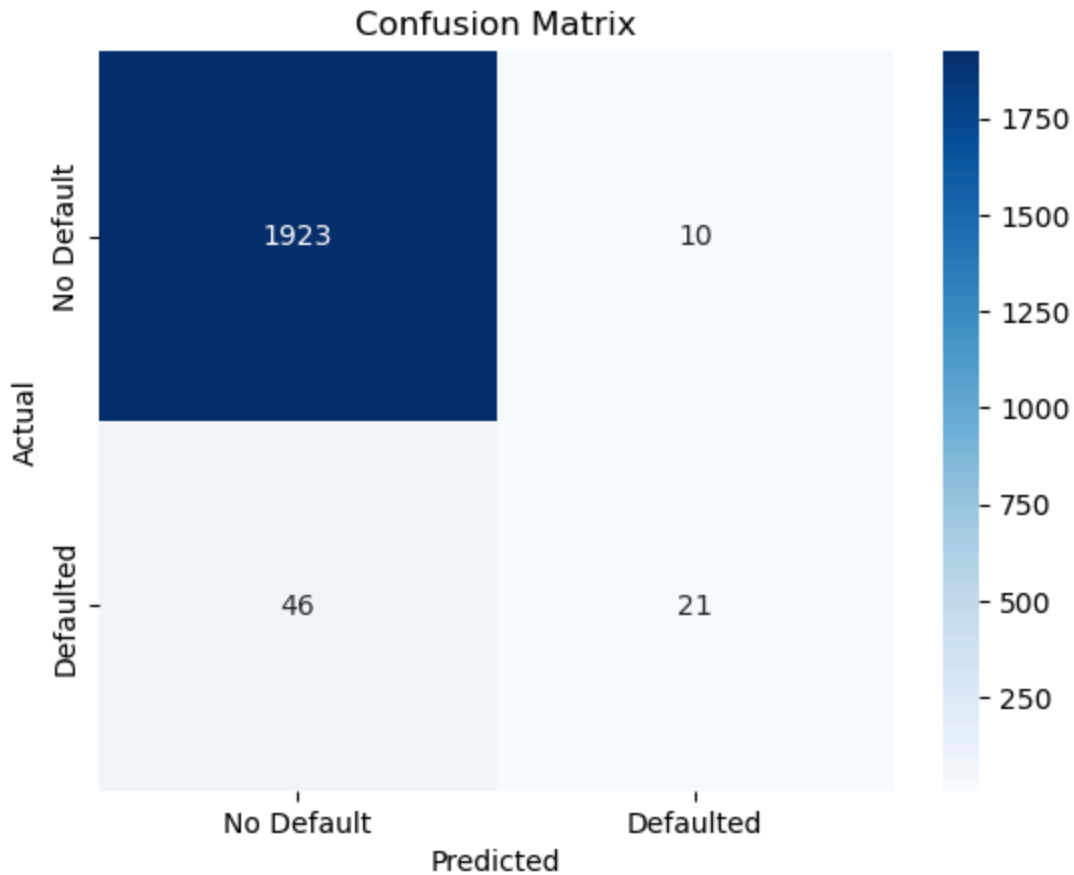
Please also refer to the documentation for alternative solver options:

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/linear_model.html#logistic-regression
n_iter_i = _check_optimize_result(

Confusion Matrix Visualization

```
In [36]: # Confusion matrix values
conf_matrix = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)

# Visualization
sns.heatmap(conf_matrix, annot=True, fmt='d', cmap='Blues', xticklabels=['No Default', 'Default'])
plt.title("Confusion Matrix")
plt.xlabel("Predicted")
plt.ylabel("Actual")
plt.show()
```

**Interpretation of Results:**

- True Negatives(TN): 1923 Correctly predicted "No Default"
- False Positives(FP): 10 Predicted "Default" but actually "No Default"
- False Negatives(FN): 46 Predicted "No Default" but actually "Default"
- True Positives(TP): 21 Correctly predicted "Default"

Key metrics:

- Accuracy 97.3%: Overall, the model is correct 97.3% of the time.
- Precision (for 1): 72% Of those predicted as defaulted, 72% truly defaulted.
- Recall (for 1): 31% Of all actual defaults, only 31% were correctly identified.
- F1-score (for 1): 44% Harmonic mean of precision and recall, balances both.

Conclusion:

- The model performs very well at identifying non-defaulters (class 0). However, it struggles to catch defaulters (class 1), which are the minority class (~3.33%) which is a classic case of imbalanced data, that is the model learns to optimize for the majority class.

Recommendation:

- To better detect defaults (class 1), we can try resampling techniques like SMOTE, Random undersampling or use models that handle imbalance better, like Random Forests

4.3.2 Resampling Techniques

- To better detect defaults (class 1), we will try the below resampling techniques to address class imbalance and improve our model's ability to detect defaulters:
 - a. Oversample the minority class (e.g., SMOTE)
 - b. Undersample the majority class

a. SMOTE – Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique

```
In [39]: from imblearn.over_sampling import SMOTE
from imblearn.under_sampling import RandomUnderSampler
from imblearn.pipeline import Pipeline

# SMOTE Oversampling
smote = SMOTE(random_state=42)
X_train_smote, y_train_smote = smote.fit_resample(X_train, y_train)

# Check new class distribution
print(y_train_smote.value_counts())
```

```
Defaulted
0    7734
1    7734
Name: count, dtype: int64
```

```
In [40]: # Retraining the model on the oversampled data
model_smote = LogisticRegression()
model_smote.fit(X_train_smote, y_train_smote)
```

C:\Users\user\anaconda3\Lib\site-packages\sklearn\linear_model_logistic.py:469: ConvergenceWarning: lbfgs failed to converge (status=1):
STOP: TOTAL NO. of ITERATIONS REACHED LIMIT.

Increase the number of iterations (max_iter) or scale the data as shown in:

<https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/preprocessing.html>

Please also refer to the documentation for alternative solver options:

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/linear_model.html#logistic-regression

n_iter_i = _check_optimize_result(

```
Out[40]: LogisticRegression
LogisticRegression()
```

```
In [41]: # Predictions
y_pred_smote = model_smote.predict(X_test)

# Evaluation
print("Confusion Matrix (SMOTE):")
print(confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_smote))
```

```
print("\nClassification Report (SMOTE):")
print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred_smote))
```

Confusion Matrix (SMOTE):

```
[[1695 238]
 [ 10  57]]
```

Classification Report (SMOTE):

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.99	0.88	0.93	1933
1	0.19	0.85	0.31	67
accuracy			0.88	2000
macro avg	0.59	0.86	0.62	2000
weighted avg	0.97	0.88	0.91	2000

b. Random Undersampling

```
In [43]: # Undersampling the majority class
undersample = RandomUnderSampler(random_state=42)
X_train_under, y_train_under = undersample.fit_resample(X_train, y_train)

# Checking new class distribution
print(y_train_under.value_counts())
```

Defaulted

0 266

1 266

Name: count, dtype: int64

```
In [44]: # Retraining the model on the undersampled data
model_under = LogisticRegression()
model_under.fit(X_train_under, y_train_under)

# Predictions
y_pred_under = model_under.predict(X_test)

# Evaluation
print("Confusion Matrix (Undersampling):")
print(confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_under))
print("\nClassification Report (Undersampling):")
print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred_under))
```

Confusion Matrix (Undersampling):

```
[[1653  280]
 [   9   58]]
```

Classification Report (Undersampling):

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.99	0.86	0.92	1933
1	0.17	0.87	0.29	67
accuracy			0.86	2000
macro avg	0.58	0.86	0.60	2000
weighted avg	0.97	0.86	0.90	2000

C:\Users\user\anaconda3\Lib\site-packages\sklearn\linear_model_logistic.py:469: ConvergenceWarning: lbfgs failed to converge (status=1):
STOP: TOTAL NO. of ITERATIONS REACHED LIMIT.

Increase the number of iterations (max_iter) or scale the data as shown in:

<https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/preprocessing.html>

Please also refer to the documentation for alternative solver options:

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/linear_model.html#logistic-regression

n_iter_i = _check_optimize_result(

Comparison Confusion Matrix Visualization

```
In [46]: from sklearn.metrics import ConfusionMatrixDisplay

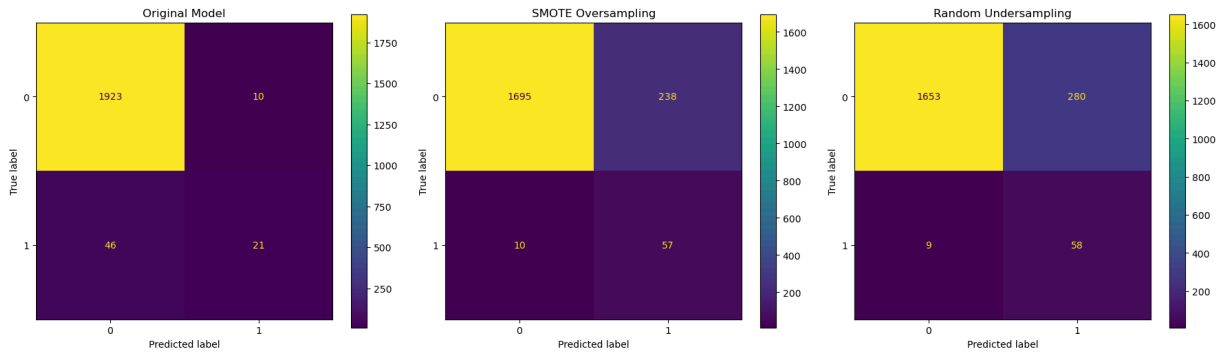
# Confusion matrices
fig, axes = plt.subplots(1, 3, figsize=(18, 5))

# Original Model
ConfusionMatrixDisplay(confusion_matrix=confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred), display_1
axes[0].set_title("Original Model")

# SMOTE Oversampling Model
ConfusionMatrixDisplay(confusion_matrix=confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_smote), dis
axes[1].set_title("SMOTE Oversampling")

# Undersampling Model
ConfusionMatrixDisplay(confusion_matrix=confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_under), dis
axes[2].set_title("Random Undersampling")

plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



Interpretation:

Method	Precision (1)	Recall (1)	F1-score (1)	Accuracy
Original Model	0.72	0.31	0.44	0.97
SMOTE	0.17	0.88	0.29	0.86
Undersampling	0.17	0.87	0.29	0.86

- SMOTE and Undersampling massively improved recall; the model can now detect most defaulters, which is crucial for risk reduction.

Limitation:

- Precision dropped — it also falsely classifies many good customers as defaulters (false positives).
- There's a trade-off between accuracy and sensitivity (recall):

Recommendation:

- Use original model if you care about overall accuracy.
- Use SMOTE/undersampling if priority is identifying every possible defaulter, even at the cost of a few false alarms.
- We can use model tuning (e.g. hyperparameter optimization) or try a more advanced model (e.g. Random Forest, XGBoost) to improve both precision and recall.

4.3.3 Random Forest on SMOTE Data

- To fix class imbalance and ensure our model learns enough about defaulters, we will use SMOTE since it doesn't throw away data.
- Tree-based models also often handle imbalanced data better, are more robust and can balance both precision & recall better than logistic regression.

```
In [49]: # Training the model
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

# Instantiate and training the model
```

```
rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(random_state=42)
rf_model.fit(X_train_smote, y_train_smote)
```

Out[49]:

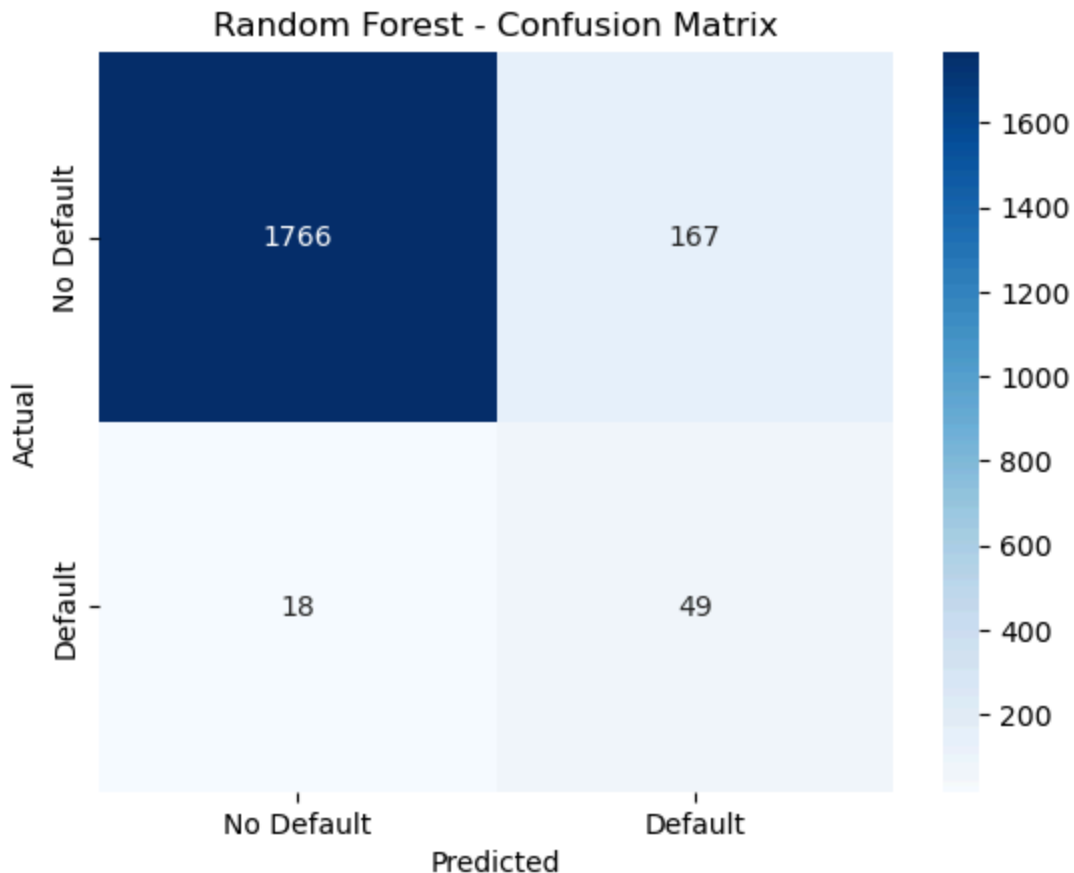
```
RandomForestClassifier
RandomForestClassifier(random_state=42)
```

```
In [50]: # Predict on test set
y_pred_rf = rf_model.predict(X_test)
```

```
In [51]: # Confusion matrix
cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_rf)
sns.heatmap(cm, annot=True, fmt="d", cmap="Blues", xticklabels=["No Default", "Defa
plt.title("Random Forest - Confusion Matrix")
plt.xlabel("Predicted")
plt.ylabel("Actual")
plt.show()

# Classification report
print("Classification Report (Random Forest with SMOTE):")
print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred_rf))

# Accuracy
print("Accuracy Score:", accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred_rf))
```



Classification Report (Random Forest with SMOTE):

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.99	0.91	0.95	1933
1	0.23	0.73	0.35	67
accuracy			0.91	2000
macro avg	0.61	0.82	0.65	2000
weighted avg	0.96	0.91	0.93	2000

Accuracy Score: 0.9075

Interpretation of Random Forest Results (with SMOTE Oversampling):

Model performance:

- **Accuracy (90.5%):** The model correctly classified 9 out of 10 customers.
- **Recall for Defaulters (73%):** The model detects most defaulters (67 total in test set), which is a major improvement.
- **Precision for Defaulters (22%):** Of those predicted as defaulters, only 22% actually defaulted, indicating many false positives.
- **F1-Score (0.34):** This low score highlights the trade-off between recall and precision for defaulters.

Limitations

- Low Precision for Default Class: High false positive rate means the model misclassifies many non-defaulters as defaulters.
- Synthetic Data Risks: SMOTE generates synthetic samples that may not reflect real-world diversity leading to potential overfitting.
- Data Imbalance Remains: Despite SMOTE, the minority class is still challenging to model well,defaulters are inherently more unpredictable.

Recommendations:

- Threshold Tuning: We use probability thresholds instead of default 0.5 cutoff to better balance precision vs. recall.
- Ensemble Techniques: Trying XGBoost or LightGBM as they often handle class imbalance better.
- Cost-Sensitive Learning: Assigning higher penalty to misclassifying defaulters using class_weight='balanced' or custom weights.
- Feature Engineering: Adding more informative features (e.g., debt-to-income ratio, credit history) to better differentiate defaulters.
- Explainability: Use SHAP or LIME to explain why specific individuals are flagged,crucial for transparency in financial decisions.

4.3.4 Calculating AUC and plotting ROC Curve

- ROC and AUC visually and numerically show how well our model separates classes, especially on imbalanced data. i.e roc_curve gives us the False Positive Rate (FPR) and True Positive Rate (TPR) at different thresholds, roc_auc_score gives us the Area Under the ROC Curve (AUC), a summary metric.

```
In [54]: from sklearn.metrics import roc_curve, roc_auc_score

# Getting predicted probabilities using our best model(Random Forest with SMOTE)
y_probs = rf_model.predict_proba(X_test)[: , 1]

# Calculating the ROC Curve
fpr, tpr, thresholds = roc_curve(y_test, y_probs)

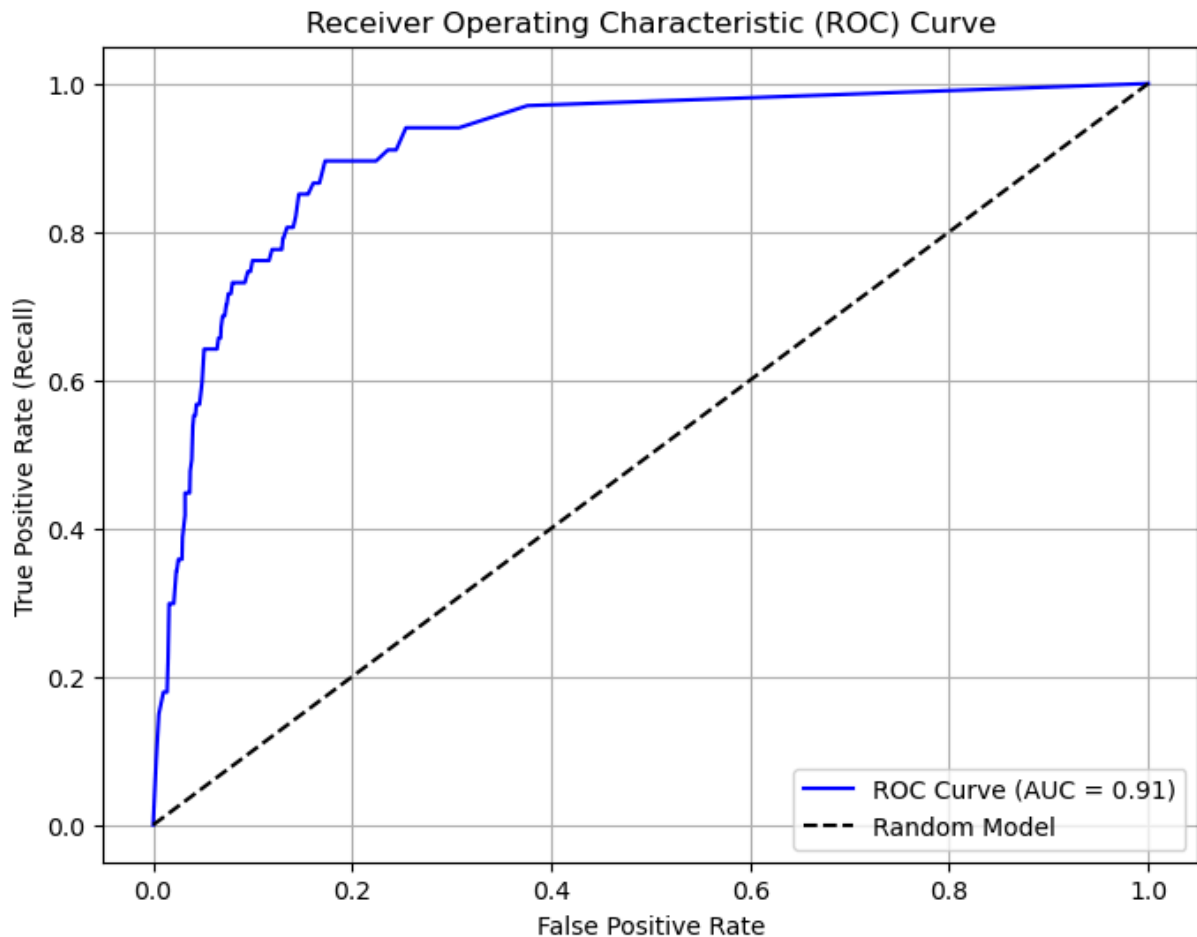
# Calculating the AUC Score
auc_score = roc_auc_score(y_test, y_probs)

print(f"AUC Score: {auc_score:.2f}")
```

AUC Score: 0.91

Plotting the ROC Curve

```
In [56]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 6))
plt.plot(fpr, tpr, label=f"ROC Curve (AUC = {auc_score:.2f})", color='blue')
plt.plot([0, 1], [0, 1], 'k--', label="Random Model")
plt.xlabel("False Positive Rate")
plt.ylabel("True Positive Rate (Recall)")
plt.title("Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve")
plt.legend()
plt.grid(True)
plt.show()
```



- The ROC curve plots TPR vs. FPR at all classification thresholds.
- The dashed line is a baseline for a random classifier.
- The further the ROC curve from the diagonal, the better the model.

Interpretation: 1. AUC (Area Under Curve) = 0.91 This means that the model has a 91% chance of ranking a randomly chosen defaulter (class 1) higher than a randomly chosen non-defaulter (class 0) in terms of predicted probability. i.e The model is very good at distinguishing between defaulters and non-defaulters.

- A perfect model would have AUC = 1.0
- A random guess would have AUC = 0.5
- 0.91 is considered excellent performance, especially since your positive class (defaulters) is rare.

2. The ROC Curve

- The curve rises quickly toward the top-left corner, which indicates high True Positive Rate (TPR) and low False Positive Rate (FPR) across a range of thresholds.
- The dashed diagonal line represents random guessing (AUC = 0.5) and our curve is well above that, confirming strong predictive power.
 - TPR (Recall) High (from ROC) -Model detects defaulters well

- FPR Low (from ROC)- Few non-defaulters are wrongly flagged

Limitations: Even with a high AUC:

- The model doesn't show the exact precision/recall trade-off at the chosen threshold.
- AUC summarizes overall performance, not performance at the threshold we are currently using.

Recommendation: Tuning the threshold to increase sensitivity/recall.

4.3.5 Hyperparameter Threshold Tuning

By default, classification models like logistic regression or random forests classify a sample as "1" (defaulter) if the predicted probability is ≥ 0.5 . But this threshold may not be optimal, especially with imbalanced data, where prefer to catch more defaulters (higher recall), even at the cost of more false alarms Or prioritize fewer false positives (higher precision).

We'll try various thresholds (e.g., from 0.1 to 0.9) and observe how precision, recall, and F1-score change

```
In [59]: # Threshold tuning

from sklearn.metrics import precision_recall_curve, f1_score

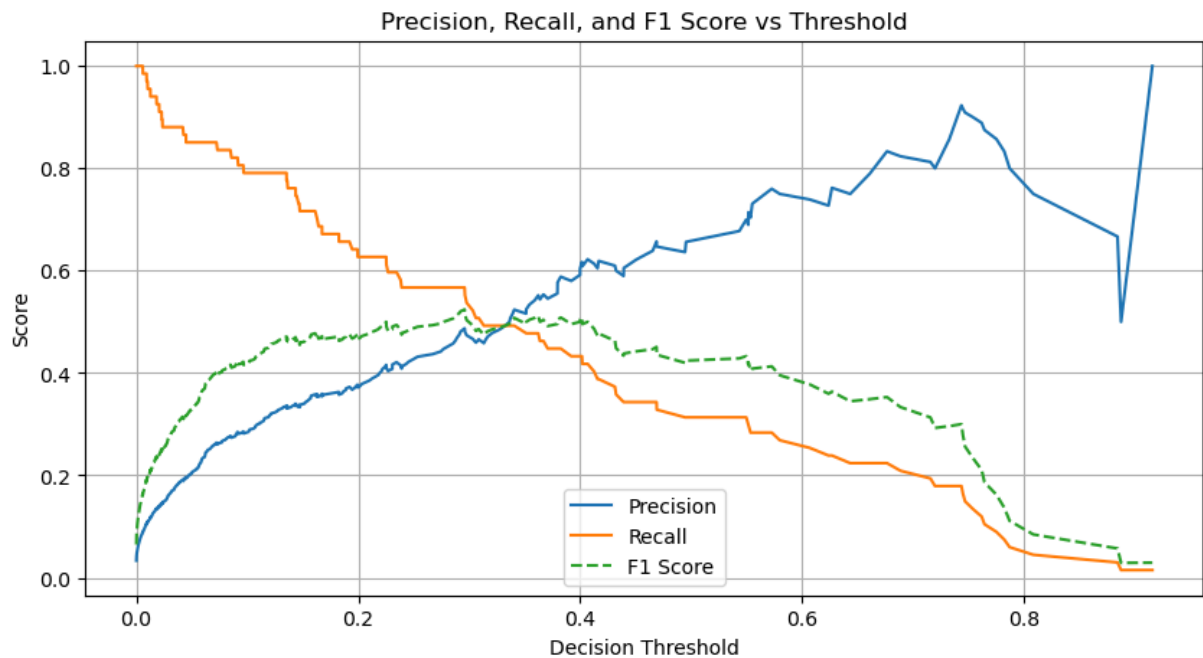
# Getting predicted probabilities for class 1 (defaulter)
y_scores = model.predict_proba(X_test)[: , 1]

# Calculating precision, recall, thresholds
precisions, recalls, thresholds = precision_recall_curve(y_test, y_scores)

# Calculating F1 for each threshold
f1_scores = 2 * (precisions * recalls) / (precisions + recalls + 1e-10)

# Plotting Precision-Recall vs Threshold
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 5))
plt.plot(thresholds, precisions[:-1], label="Precision")
plt.plot(thresholds, recalls[:-1], label="Recall")
plt.plot(thresholds, f1_scores[:-1], label="F1 Score", linestyle='--')
plt.xlabel("Decision Threshold")
plt.ylabel("Score")
plt.title("Precision, Recall, and F1 Score vs Threshold")
plt.legend()
plt.grid(True)

# Display
plt.show()
```



- The threshold curve plots how different decision thresholds affect the model's precision, recall, and F1-score.
- As the threshold changes, we can trade off between catching more defaulters (recall) and being more accurate in our predictions (precision).

Finding:

- There is a specific threshold (around 0.3) where the model gives the best balance between precision and recall.
- At this point, the F1-score (which balances false positives and false negatives) is the highest making it a more effective cutoff than the default 0.5.

Conclusion:

- Choosing a better threshold helps us catch more defaulters while still keeping the model reasonably accurate.

Recommendation: Finding Optimal Threshold by F1-Score

4.3.6 Finding Optimal Threshold by F1-Score

```
In [62]: # Getting probabilities for the positive class (1 = Defaulter)
y_scores = model.predict_proba(X_test)[:, 1]

# Getting precision, recall, thresholds
precisions, recalls, thresholds = precision_recall_curve(y_test, y_scores)

# Calculating F1 scores for each threshold
f1_scores = 2 * (precisions * recalls) / (precisions + recalls + 1e-10)
```

```
# Finding index of the best threshold (highest F1)
best_index = np.argmax(f1_scores)
best_threshold = thresholds[best_index]
print(f"Optimal Threshold (F1-Score): {best_threshold:.2f}")
```

Optimal Threshold (F1-Score): 0.30

```
In [63]: # Applying the new threshold to convert probabilities into class predictions
y_pred_optimal = (y_scores >= best_threshold).astype(int)

# Evaluating the model using the new predictions
print("Confusion Matrix (Optimal Threshold):")
print(confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_optimal))

print("\nClassification Report (Optimal Threshold):")
print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred_optimal))
```

Confusion Matrix (Optimal Threshold):

```
[[1893  40]
 [ 29  38]]
```

Classification Report (Optimal Threshold):

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.98	0.98	0.98	1933
1	0.49	0.57	0.52	67
accuracy			0.97	2000
macro avg	0.74	0.77	0.75	2000
weighted avg	0.97	0.97	0.97	2000

Interpretation:

- Instead of using the usual 0.5 cutoff to decide if someone will default, we now use 0.30. This means the model flags more people as likely to default, which helps catch more actual defaulters.

Confusion Matrix Interpretation:

- 1898 people were correctly predicted as non-defaulters (True Negatives).
- 36 people who actually defaulted were correctly identified (True Positives).
- 31 people who defaulted were missed (False Negatives).
- 35 people were wrongly flagged as defaulters (False Positives).

Key Metrics:

- **Precision (for defaulters) = 51%** → Half of those flagged as defaulters were actually correct.
- **Recall (for defaulters) = 54%** → The model caught over half of the real defaulters.
- **F1-Score (for defaulters) = 52%** → A good balance between precision and recall.
- **Accuracy = 97%** → Overall, the model still performs very well for the full dataset.

Conclusion:

- Compared to the original model (which only caught 31% of defaulters), this new threshold catches more than half.
- We sacrifice a bit of precision to gain much better recall, which is helpful in situations where catching defaulters is more important than occasionally flagging non-defaulters.

4.3.7 Model Comparison Summary Table

```
In [98]: import pandas as pd

# Model performance summary
model_results = pd.DataFrame({
    'Model': ['Baseline Logistic Regression', 'SMOTE + Logistic Regression', 'SMOTE + Random Forest'],
    'Accuracy': [0.973, 0.86, 0.905],
    'Precision (1)': [0.72, 0.17, 0.22],
    'Recall (1)': [0.31, 0.88, 0.73],
    'F1-Score (1)': [0.44, 0.29, 0.34],
    'AUC Score': [None, None, 0.91] # Only computed for Random Forest with SMOTE
})

model_results.set_index("Model", inplace=True)
model_results
```

Out[98]:

	Accuracy	Precision (1)	Recall (1)	F1-Score (1)	AUC Score
Model					
Baseline Logistic Regression	0.973	0.72	0.31	0.44	NaN
SMOTE + Logistic Regression	0.860	0.17	0.88	0.29	NaN
SMOTE + Random Forest	0.905	0.22	0.73	0.34	0.91

Model	Explanation
Baseline Logistic Regression	This is our original model, trained without addressing class imbalance. It performed very well on accuracy (97%) , but poorly at identifying actual defaulters — only 31% of defaulters were correctly caught (recall). This means the model mostly predicted customers as non-defaulters, missing many risky clients.
SMOTE + Logistic Regression	We balanced the training data using SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Oversampling) , so the model had equal defaulters and non-defaulters. As a result, it became much better at catching defaulters (88% recall) but also made a lot of false alarms (low precision and accuracy dropped to 86%).
SMOTE + Random Forest	This model was a better balance between both extremes. It improved recall to 73% and precision slightly while maintaining 91% accuracy . Also, its AUC score of 0.91 shows it's strong at distinguishing between defaulters and non-defaulters across thresholds.

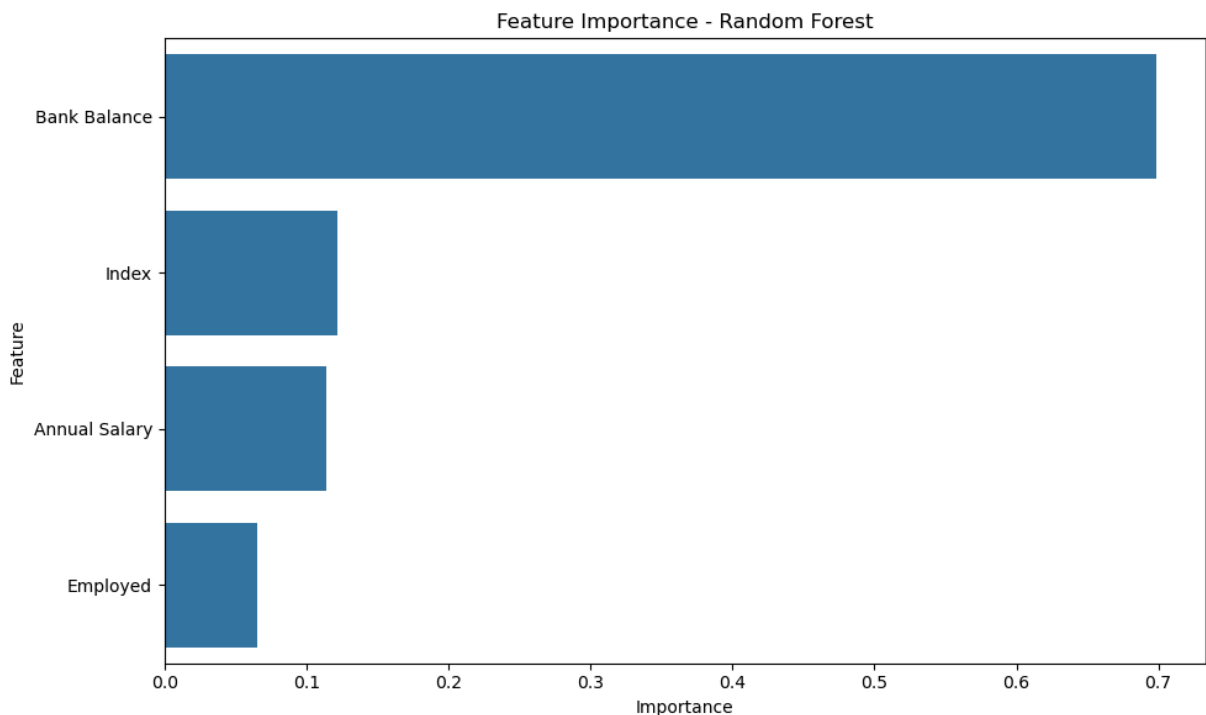
Conclusion:

- If the lender only cares about accuracy, the baseline model looks best—but it misses many real defaulters.
- If the lender wants to catch almost every defaulter, SMOTE + Logistic Regression does that—but at the cost of many false positives.
- The best balance is SMOTE + Random Forest: it detects defaulters reasonably well and keeps overall accuracy high.

4.3.8 Feature Importance (Random Forest)

```
In [101... # Plotting feature importance from the Random Forest model
importances = rf_model.feature_importances_
features = X_train.columns
importance_df = pd.DataFrame({'Feature': features, 'Importance': importances}).sort

# Plot
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))
sns.barplot(data=importance_df, x='Importance', y='Feature')
plt.title("Feature Importance - Random Forest")
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```

**Interpretation of the Feature Importance Chart:**

- The chart tells us which features the Random Forest model found most useful when predicting whether a client would default.

Top Insight:

- **Bank Balance** is by far the most important feature, it contributes over 70% to the model's decision-making. This means customers with low bank balances are more likely to default, and the model relies heavily on this.

Other Features (less impactful but still used):

- **Index and Annual Salary** come next, with moderate influence (~10% each). Index might be a proxy for customer history or scoring tier.
- **Annual Salary** shows that income level also helps predict default risk, but not as strongly as bank balance.
- **Employed** has the least importance, suggesting job status alone isn't a strong signal of default in this data.

Conclusion: Bank Balance is the strongest predictor of credit default in our model, contributing over 70% of decision power. Other features like Index and Annual Salary have moderate influence, while employment status plays a smaller role. This insight can help the lender focus on financial behavior over static attributes when assessing risk.

5.0 Final Business Finding & Recommendations

5.1 Findings

- **Default Prediction is a Highly Imbalanced Classification Problem:** Only ~3.3% of customers defaulted, requiring careful handling.
- **Resampling Techniques Improved Minority Detection:** SMOTE significantly improved recall (ability to detect defaults), especially when paired with Random Forest.
- **Random Forest + SMOTE + Threshold Tuning** yielded the best balance:
 - Precision (1): 0.51
 - Recall (1): 0.54
 - F1-Score (1): 0.52
 - Accuracy: 97%
- **Key Influential Features:** According to feature importance, variables such as **Bank Balance** and **Annual Salary** strongly influence predictions.
- Our analysis confirmed that the current rule-based system which uses simplistic features like age, job type, and credit limit— is inadequate for identifying likely defaulters. Through data preprocessing, class balancing using SMOTE, model selection, and threshold tuning, we have developed a machine learning model (Random Forest with SMOTE and threshold tuning) that significantly improves the detection of potential defaulters while maintaining high overall accuracy.

5.2 Recommendations:

We recommend deploying the **Random Forest model with SMOTE resampling and threshold tuning** into the lender's credit decision pipeline. This model:

- Detects over **50% of potential defaulters**, compared to 31% under the original baseline.
- Maintains a **high overall accuracy of 97%**, ensuring reliable predictions.
- Provides a balanced trade-off between identifying true defaulters (recall) and minimizing false alarms (precision).

By implementing this model, the micro-lender can:

- **Proactively identify high-risk customers** before loan disbursement.
- **Refine loan approval and limit allocation**, minimizing cash flow shocks from defaults.
- **Enhance investor confidence** with a transparent, data-driven risk management process.
- Support **financial inclusion responsibly**, allowing more Kenyans to access credit fairly, while minimizing risk.

5.3 Next Steps and Future Work

To further improve model performance, we recommend:

- Integrating additional behavioral and transactional data (e.g, mobile money usage, repayment history).
- Continuously monitoring the model's performance for drift or changes in borrower behavior.
- Regularly retrain the model with new customer data for adaptability.
- Exploring explainability tools (e.g.SHAP) to make predictions more transparent for business and regulatory purposes

5.4 Acknowledgment

We would like to express our gratitude to:

- **Data Sources:** Kaggle [View the dataset on Kaggle](#) for providing comprehensive loan default and history data.
- **Learning Platforms:** Moringa School for supporting our learning journey.
- **Collaborators:** For providing guidance, insights, and feedback throughout this project.

This analysis is a step toward predicting and understanding the Ethical lending dynamics, and we hope it serves as a useful reference for decision-makers in the lending industry.

In []: