# Deep Learning Project - Predicting Loan Default

August 21, 2020

## 1 Deep Learning Project - Predicting Loan Default

### The Data:

For this project I will be using a subset of the LendingClub DataSet obtained from Kaggle: https://www.kaggle.com/wordsforthewise/lending-club. The data from this source has already been preprocessed for the use of this project.

### **Project Goal:**

Given historical data on loans given out with information on whether or not the borrower defaulted, I will build a model that can predict wether or nor a borrower will pay back their loan. This way in the future when we get a new potential customer we can assess whether or not they are likely to pay back the loan. For this classification task I am going to use **keras** library and create a deep learning predictive model.

The "loan\_status" column contains our label.

### 1.1 Importing Libraries and Loading Data

### 1.2 ## Exploratory Data Analysis

```
[38]: df.info()
```

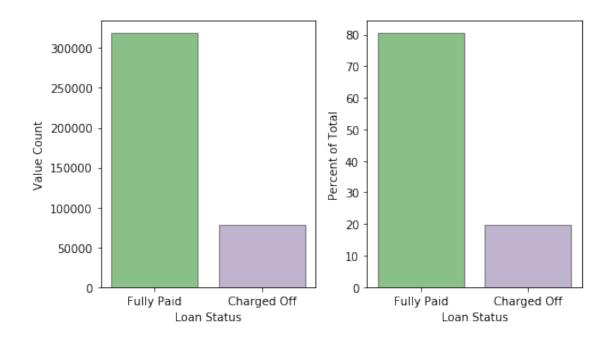
```
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 396030 entries, 0 to 396029
Data columns (total 27 columns):
loan amnt
                        396030 non-null float64
term
                        396030 non-null object
                        396030 non-null float64
int rate
installment
                        396030 non-null float64
grade
                        396030 non-null object
                        396030 non-null object
sub_grade
                        373103 non-null object
emp_title
                        377729 non-null object
emp_length
                        396030 non-null object
home_ownership
annual_inc
                        396030 non-null float64
                        396030 non-null object
verification_status
issue_d
                        396030 non-null object
                        396030 non-null object
loan_status
purpose
                        396030 non-null object
title
                        394275 non-null object
dti
                        396030 non-null float64
earliest cr line
                        396030 non-null object
                        396030 non-null float64
open_acc
                        396030 non-null float64
pub rec
revol_bal
                        396030 non-null float64
                        395754 non-null float64
revol_util
total_acc
                        396030 non-null float64
initial_list_status
                        396030 non-null object
                        396030 non-null object
application_type
mort_acc
                        358235 non-null float64
                        395495 non-null float64
pub_rec_bankruptcies
address
                        396030 non-null object
dtypes: float64(12), object(15)
memory usage: 81.6+ MB
```

We have a good number of both numeric and text columns. We can begin with visualizing some numeric columns to get a better understanding of our data.

First, let's take a look at the distribution of our target column **loan\_status**.

```
[32]: fig, (ax1, ax2) = plt.subplots(ncols=2, figsize = (7,4))
sns.countplot(data=df, x = 'loan_status', palette = 'Accent', edgecolor = 'gray', ax = ax1)
sns.barplot(data=df, x='loan_status', y='loan_amnt', palette = 'Accent', output = 'ac
```

[32]: [Text(252.4295454545454, 0.5, 'Percent of Total'), Text(0.5, 15.0, 'Loan Status')]

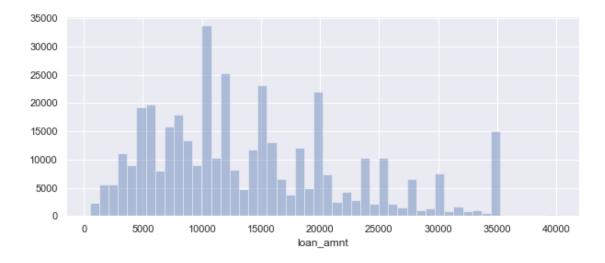


We can see that our target variable is significantly unbalanced, with around 80% of all values being 'Fully Paid'. It means that out future predictive model will be very accurate by default, because if we simply predict every loan to be Fully Paid we get 80% of accuracy. **Therefore, 80% accuracy is the lower limit of model performance.** 

Next, we plot the distribution of Loan Ammount data column.

```
[34]: plt.figure(figsize = (10,4))
sns.distplot(df['loan_amnt'], kde = False)
```

[34]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1bef13f4048>



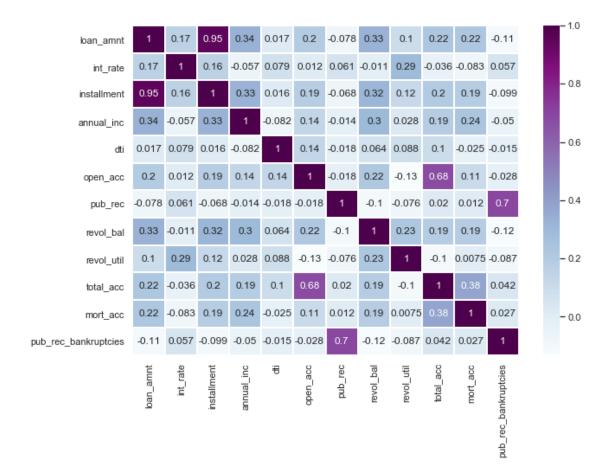
We see that there are popular, more frequent amounts of loans, such as, 5k, 10k, 15k, 20k, 25k and 35k. This makes sense, because more often people get a round amount of money.

Now let's explore correlation between the continuous feature variables. A better way to look at it is using a seaborn heatmap.

```
[45]: plt.figure(figsize = (10,7))
sns.heatmap(df.corr(), linecolor = 'white', linewidth = 1, cmap = 'BuPu', annot

→= df.corr())
```

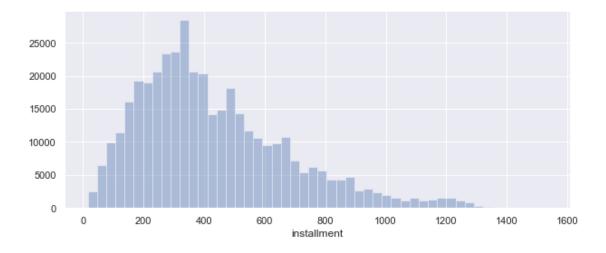
[45]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1bef2638908>



We can see an almost perfect correlation between the "installment" and "loan\_amnt" features. Let's explore these features further.

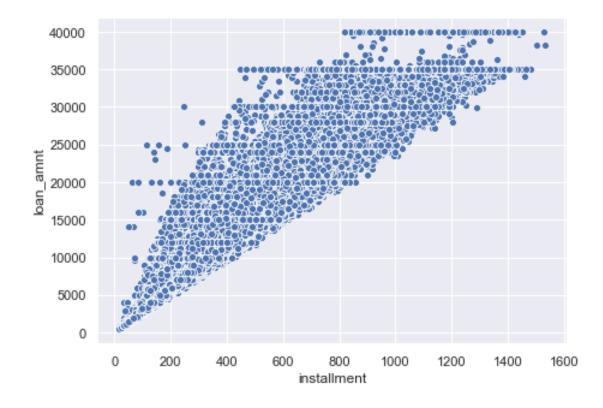
```
[48]: plt.figure(figsize=(10,4))
sns.distplot(df['installment'], kde = False)
```

[48]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1bef27c72b0>



```
[49]: plt.figure(figsize=(7,5))
sns.scatterplot(data=df,x='installment',y='loan_amnt')
```

[49]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1bef2af4908>



The above scatterplot show the direct linear relationship between the two features. It makes sense that he installment amount is calculated as a function of the loan amount.

Let's take a look at the summary statistics for the loan amount, grouped by the loan\_status.

```
[50]: df.groupby('loan_status').describe().loc[:,'loan_amnt']
[50]:
                     count
                                    mean
                                                  std
                                                           min
                                                                   25%
                                                                            50% \
    loan_status
    Charged Off
                   77673.0 15126.300967 8505.090557
                                                        1000.0
                                                                8525.0
                                                                        14000.0
    Fully Paid
                  318357.0 13866.878771 8302.319699
                                                        500.0
                                                               7500.0
                                                                        12000.0
                      75%
                               max
     loan_status
     Charged Off
                  20000.0
                           40000.0
    Fully Paid
                  19225.0
                           40000.0
```

The average loan amount for defaulted cases is lower, which makes sense - the larget loan is more difficult to pay back.

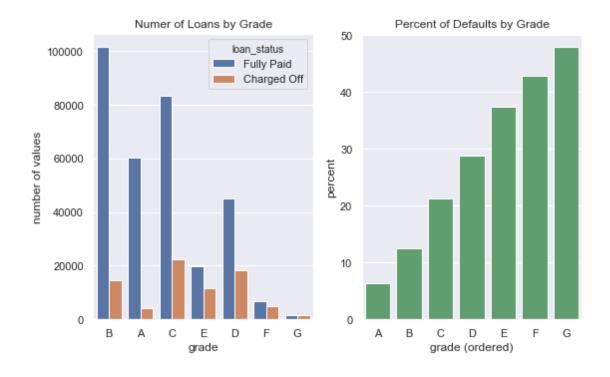
Now let's explore the Grade and SubGrade columns that LendingClub attributes to the loans. We create a list of ordered grades to apply to our visuals and make them more meaningful.

```
We create a list of ordered grades to apply to our visuals and make them more meaningful.
[52]: grade_reordered = sorted(df['grade'].unique())
      print(grade_reordered)
     ['A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F', 'G']
[53]: sub_grade_reordered = sorted(df['sub_grade'].unique())
      print(sub_grade_reordered)
     ['A1', 'A2', 'A3', 'A4', 'A5', 'B1', 'B2', 'B3', 'B4', 'B5', 'C1', 'C2', 'C3',
     'C4', 'C5', 'D1', 'D2', 'D3', 'D4', 'D5', 'E1', 'E2', 'E3', 'E4', 'E5', 'F1',
     'F2', 'F3', 'F4', 'F5', 'G1', 'G2', 'G3', 'G4', 'G5']
[657]: grade_reordered = ['A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F', 'G']
[54]: grades_paid = df[df['loan_status'] == 'Fully Paid']['loan_status'].

¬groupby(df['grade']).count()
      grades_notpaid = df[df['loan_status'] == 'Charged Off']['loan_status'].
       →groupby(df['grade']).count()
      grades_perc = grades_notpaid / (grades_notpaid + grades_paid) * 100
[66]: # CODE HERE
      fig, (ax1, ax2) = plt.subplots(ncols=2, figsize = (8,5))
      sns.countplot(data=df, x='grade', hue='loan_status', edgecolor = 'white', ax =__
       →ax1)
      sns.barplot(x=grades_perc.index, y=grades_perc.values, edgecolor = 'white', ax_
      \Rightarrow= ax2, color = 'g')
      ax2.set(title='Percent of Defaults by Grade', ylabel = 'percent', xlabel = __

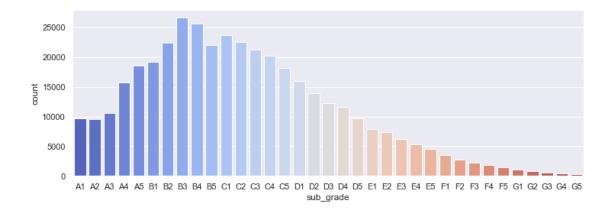
¬'grade (ordered)')
      ax1.set(title='Numer of Loans by Grade', ylabel='number of values')
```

### plt.tight\_layout()

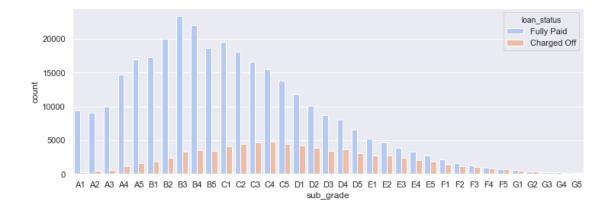


We see a very clear relationship - as the loan grade goes down from A to G, the chance of default for this loan is increasing.

[70]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1be86738358>

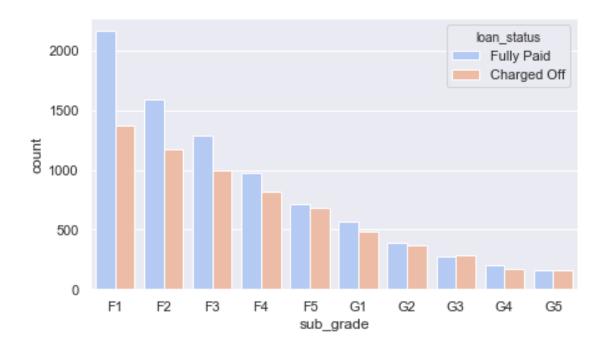


[72]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1be86d397f0>



It looks like F and G subgrades don't get paid back that often. Let's isolate those and recreate the countplot just for those subgrades.

[75]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1be87120860>

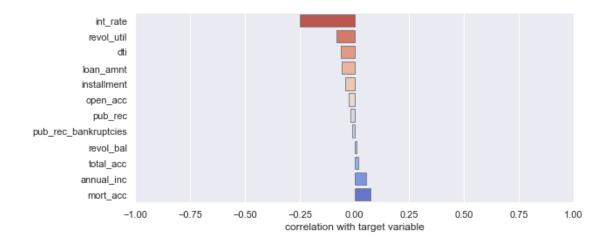


Now let's create a new column called 'loan\_repaid' which will contain a 1 if the loan status was "Fully Paid" and a 0 if it was "Charged Off".

```
[98]: #most efficient way to do it
      df['loan_repaid'] = df['loan_status'].map({'Fully Paid':1, 'Charged Off':0})
[101]: df.loc[:,['loan_repaid','loan_status']].head()
[101]:
         loan_repaid loan_status
                       Fully Paid
      0
                   1
                       Fully Paid
      1
                   1
                       Fully Paid
      2
                   1
      3
                       Fully Paid
                      Charged Off
```

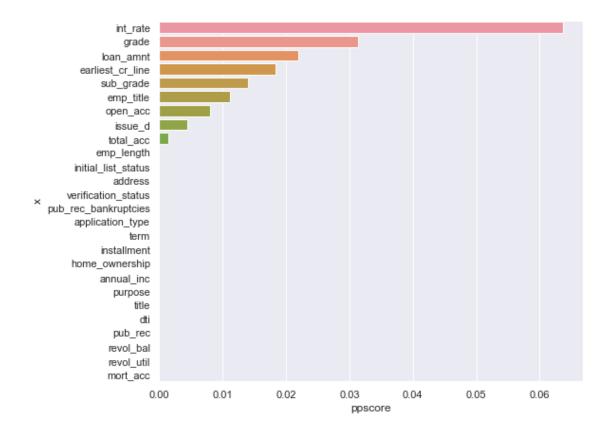
Now we can check the correlation of numeric features with a newly created "loan\_repaid" variable.

[106]: Text(0.5, 0, 'correlation with target variable')



We can notice that our numeric variables have very week correlation with the target variable. The only only feature that has a mild correlation with "loan status" is "interest rate".

Let's use **Predictive Power Score** to understand how effective our features at predicting the loan statu.



As we can see, most features have PPS of zero, which means they can't predict the target better than naive model. Those few variables that have nonzero PPS are still very weak. **None of the features stand out as a good predictor judging by Predictive Power Score.** 

### 1.3 Data PreProcessing

During this part of the project we are going to: 1. Remove or fill any missing data. 2. Remove unnecessary or repetitive features. 3. Convert categorical string features to dummy variables.

```
[103]: # 1. Remove or fill any missing data
      # what percent of my data is missing per column ?
      round(df.isna().sum()[df.isna().sum() > 0] / len(df) * 100,1)
[103]: emp_title
                               5.8
      emp_length
                               4.6
      title
                               0.4
      revol_util
                               0.1
                               9.5
     mort_acc
      pub_rec_bankruptcies
                              0.1
      dtype: float64
[104]: # how much of the data do I lose if I just drop all rows with missing data
      round((1 - len(df.dropna())/len(df)) * 100,1)
```

### [104]: 15.2

If we just drop all missing values we will lose 15% of the data. That is too much data to be lost. We need to come up with a better way to deal with missing values.

### 1.3.1 Missing Data

Let's explore our missing data columns. We use a variety of factors to decide whether or not they would be useful, to see if we should keep, discard, or fill in the missing data.

First let's examine emp\_title and emp\_length to see whether it will be okay to drop them. Let's see how many unique values are there.

Realistically there are too many unique job titles to try to convert this to a dummy variable feature. Let's remove that emp\_title column.

```
[135]: del df['emp_title']
```

Now let's examine the employment length feature - "emp\_length".

```
[138]: df['emp_length'].unique()
```

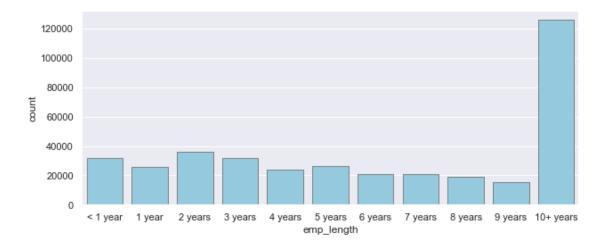
It would be better to order these values, thus we can visualize it better.

```
[139]: order_list = ['< 1 year', '1 year', '2 years', '3 years', '4 years', '5 years', '6 years', '7 years', '8 years', '9 years', '10+ years']

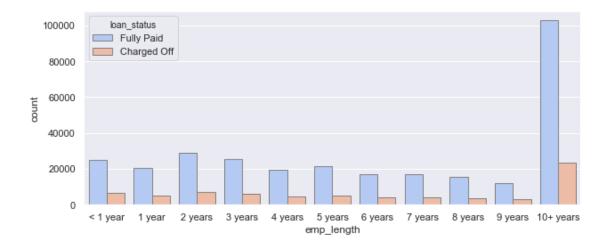
[141]: plt.figure(figsize=(10,4))
sns.countplot(data=df, x = 'emp_length', order = order_list, color = 'skyblue', u

dedgecolor = 'gray')
```

[141]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1be8d624b00>



[143]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1be8d748dd8>



This still doesn't really inform us if there is a strong relationship between employment length and being charged off, what we want is the percentage of charge offs per category. Essentially informing us what percent of people per employment category didn't pay back their loan.

[147]: Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Percent of Repaid Loans across Employment Length Groups')



Charge off rates are extremely similar across all employment lengths, so it's not a good predictor. We can drop the emp\_length column.

```
[148]: del df['emp_length']
```

Let's see what feature columns still have missing data.

```
[149]: df.isna().sum()[df.isna().sum() > 0]
```

[149]: title 1755
revol\_util 276
mort\_acc 37795
pub\_rec\_bankruptcies 535
dtype: int64

If we take a closer look at "purpose" and "title" features we can see that they have the same information.

```
[150]: df.loc[:,['purpose','title']].head()
```

[150]: purpose title
0 vacation Vacation
1 debt\_consolidation Debt consolidation

```
credit_card Credit card refinancing
credit_card Credit card refinancing
credit_card Credit Card Refinance
```

The title column is simply a string subcategory/description of the purpose column, so we can drop the "title" column.

```
[151]: df = df.drop('title', axis = 1)
```

Now let's explore the "mort\_acc" feature.

```
[156]: df['mort_acc'].value_counts().head(5)
[156]: 0.0     139779
     1.0     60416
     2.0     49949
     3.0     38049
     4.0     27887
     Name: mort_acc, dtype: int64
```

Let's review the other column to see which most highly correlates to mort\_acc.

```
[153]: mort_corr = df.corr().loc[:,'mort_acc'].sort_values(ascending=True)
mort_corr[:-1]
```

```
[153]: int_rate
                              -0.082583
                              -0.025439
      dti
      revol_util
                               0.007514
      pub_rec
                               0.011552
      pub_rec_bankruptcies
                               0.027239
      loan_repaid
                               0.073111
                               0.109205
      open_acc
      installment
                               0.193694
      revol_bal
                               0.194925
      loan_amnt
                               0.222315
      annual_inc
                               0.236320
      total acc
                               0.381072
      Name: mort_acc, dtype: float64
```

Looks like the total\_acc feature correlates with the mort\_acc! Let's try the fillna() approach. We will group the dataframe by the total\_acc and calculate the mean value for the mort\_acc per total\_acc entry.

```
[154]: amg = df['mort_acc'].groupby(df['total_acc']).mean()
```

Let's fill in the missing mort\_acc values based on their total\_acc value. If the mort\_acc is missing, then we will fill in that missing value with the mean value corresponding to its total\_acc value from the Series we created above. This involves using an .apply() method with two columns.

```
axis=1)
```

Only rwo columns with missing values are left:

revol\_util and the pub\_rec\_bankruptcies have missing data points, but they account for less than 0.5% of the total data. We can remove the rows that are missing those values with dropna().

```
[161]: df = df.dropna(subset = ['revol_util', 'pub_rec_bankruptcies'], axis = 0)
```

### 1.3.2 Categorical Variables and Dummy Variables

We're done working with the missing data! Now we just need to deal with the string values due to the categorical columns. Let's list all the columns that are currently non-numeric.

#### 2. grade feature

Grade is part of sub\_grade, so let's just drop the grade feature.

```
[167]: df = df.drop('grade', axis = 1)
```

As for the subgrade feature, we can convert it into dummy variables, then concatenate these new columns to the original dataframe.

```
'application_type', 'address'],
dtype='object')
```

### 3. verification\_status, application\_type,initial\_list\_status,purpose

Again, we convert these columns: ['verification\_status', 'application\_type','initial\_list\_status','purpose'] into dummy variables and concatenate them with the original dataframe.

```
[169]: # 1. verification status
      col_name = 'verification_status'
      my dummies = pd.get dummies(df[col name], drop first = True)
      df = pd.concat([df, my_dummies], axis = 1)
      df = df.drop(col_name, axis=1)
[170]: # 2. application_type
      col_name = 'application_type'
      my_dummies = pd.get_dummies(df[col_name], drop_first = True)
      df = pd.concat([df, my_dummies], axis = 1)
      df = df.drop(col_name, axis=1)
[171]: # 3. initial_list_status
      col_name = 'initial_list_status'
      my_dummies = pd.get_dummies(df[col_name], drop_first = True)
      df = pd.concat([df, my_dummies], axis = 1)
      df = df.drop(col name, axis=1)
[172]: # 4. purpose
      col_name = 'purpose'
      my_dummies = pd.get_dummies(df[col_name], drop_first = True)
      df = pd.concat([df, my_dummies], axis = 1)
      df = df.drop(col_name, axis=1)
[174]: df.select_dtypes(include=['object']).columns
[174]: Index(['home_ownership', 'issue_d', 'loan_status', 'earliest_cr_line',
             'address'],
            dtype='object')
```

### 4. home\_ownership

```
Name: home_ownership, dtype: int64
```

One more time we convert these to dummy variables, but replace NONE and ANY with OTHER, so that we end up with just 4 categories, MORTGAGE, RENT, OWN, OTHER. Then we concatenate them with the original dataframe.

#### 5. address

First, let's explore some values from address column.

Let's feature engineer a zip code column from the address in the data set. I will create a column called 'zip\_code' that extracts the zip code from the address column.

```
[183]: df['zip_code'] = df['address'].apply(lambda x: x[-5:])
df['zip_code'].nunique()
[183]: 10
```

The next step is to make this zip\_code column into dummy variables using pandas. Concatenate the result and drop the original zip\_code column along with dropping the address column.

```
[184]: col_name = 'zip_code'
  my_dummies = pd.get_dummies(df[col_name], drop_first = True)
  df = pd.concat([df, my_dummies], axis = 1)
  df = df.drop(col_name, axis=1)

[185]: df = df.drop('address', axis = 1)

[186]: df.select_dtypes(include=['object']).columns

[186]: Index(['issue_d', 'loan_status', 'earliest_cr_line'], dtype='object')
```

### 6. issue\_d

This column is the date when the loan was issued. This would be data leakage, we wouldn't know beforehand whether or not a loan would be issued when using our model, so in theory we wouldn't have an issue\_date, let's drop this feature.

```
[189]: del df['issue_d']
```

### 7. earliest\_cr\_line

This appears to be a historical time stamp feature. Let's extract the year from this feature using a .apply function, then convert it to a numeric feature. Finally, we drop the earliest\_cr\_line feature.

### 1.4 Train Test Split and Data Scaling

TASK: Import train\_test\_split from sklearn.

```
[193]: from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
```

Let's drop the load\_status column, since its a duplicate of the loan\_repaid column. We'll use the loan\_repaid column since its already in 0s and 1s.

```
[194]: del df['loan_status']
```

We set X and y variables to the .values of the features and label.

```
[244]: X = df.drop('loan_repaid', axis = 1)
y = df['loan_repaid']
```

Then we perform a train/test split with test\_size=0.2.

```
[245]: X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2, u →random_state=101)
```

We need to normalize the feature data X\_train and X\_test to use in deep learning algorythms. For this task we will use a MinMaxScaler.

```
[247]: from sklearn.preprocessing import MinMaxScaler

[248]: scaler = MinMaxScaler()
```

```
[249]: X_train = scaler.fit_transform(X_train)
[250]: X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
```

### 1.5 Predictive Modelling

Let's import the necessary Keras functions.

```
[251]: import tensorflow as tf
from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential
from tensorflow.keras.layers import Dense, Dropout
from tensorflow.keras.callbacks import EarlyStopping, TensorBoard
```

We will build a Sequential Model and train it on our data.

When you create a deep learning model and decide on the number of neurons for the first layer, a good rule of thumb is to look at the number of features and use the same amount of neurons.

For each next layer we will decrease the number of neurons by half. In total we will have 4 layers.

We are also using Dropout Layers to randomly exclude some layers from the model during training and avoid overfitting.

```
[261]: pwd
[261]: 'C:\\Users\\iliai'
[262]: log_directory = 'logs\\fit'
[263]: board = TensorBoard(log_dir=log_directory, histogram_freq=1,
          write_graph=True,
          write images=True,
          update_freq='epoch',
          profile_batch=2,
          embeddings_freq=1)
[264]: model = Sequential()
      # Choose whatever number of layers/neurons you want.
      model.add(Dense(78, activation = 'relu'))
      model.add(Dropout(0.3)) #to prevent overfitting
     model.add(Dense(39, activation = 'relu'))
      model.add(Dropout(0.3))
      model.add(Dense(19, activation = 'relu'))
      model.add(Dropout(0.3))
      model.add(Dense(1, activation = 'sigmoid'))
      model.compile(loss = 'binary_crossentropy', optimizer = 'adam')
```

In order to avoid overfitting we are also adding an early stop parameter. It will detect the moment when the model error goes up on validation data and stop training. The 'patience' parameter

means that we will continue training model after the stop point due to the noise.

```
[265]: # we are trying to minimize our validation loss
    # and we will wait 10 epochs even after we detected stopping point because of \Box
    \rightarrownoise
    # verbose = 1 gives some report data
    early_stop = EarlyStopping(monitor='val_loss', mode='min',
                       verbose = 1, patience = 25)
     It's time to fit the model.
[266]: model.fit(x=X_train, y=y_train, epochs = 500, batch_size = 256,
           validation_data = (X_test, y_test),
           callbacks = [early_stop,board])
   Epoch 1/500
     2/1236 [...] - ETA: 5:35 - loss:
   0.7417WARNING:tensorflow:Callbacks method `on_train_batch_begin` is slow
   compared to the batch time (batch time: 0.0000s vs `on_train_batch_begin` time:
   0.0080s). Check your callbacks.
   WARNING:tensorflow:Callbacks method `on_train_batch_end` is slow compared to the
   batch time (batch time: 0.0000s vs `on_train_batch_end` time: 0.5354s). Check
   your callbacks.
   val_loss: 0.2656
   Epoch 2/500
   val_loss: 0.2640
   Epoch 3/500
   val loss: 0.2627
   Epoch 4/500
   1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2631 -
   val_loss: 0.2625
   Epoch 5/500
   1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2621 -
   val loss: 0.2621
   Epoch 6/500
   val_loss: 0.2623
   Epoch 7/500
   val_loss: 0.2622
   Epoch 8/500
   val_loss: 0.2619
   Epoch 9/500
   val_loss: 0.2623
```

Epoch 10/500

```
val_loss: 0.2625
Epoch 11/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2601 -
val loss: 0.2616
Epoch 12/500
val_loss: 0.2616
Epoch 13/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2597 -
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 14/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 15/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 16/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2591 -
val loss: 0.2613
Epoch 17/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 18/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2588 -
val_loss: 0.2620
Epoch 19/500
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 20/500
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 21/500
val loss: 0.2612
Epoch 22/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2585 -
val loss: 0.2615
Epoch 23/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2581 -
val_loss: 0.2616
Epoch 24/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2579 -
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 25/500
val_loss: 0.2611
Epoch 26/500
```

```
val_loss: 0.2634
Epoch 27/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2578 -
val loss: 0.2612
Epoch 28/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2579 -
val_loss: 0.2621
Epoch 29/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 30/500
val_loss: 0.2619
Epoch 31/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 32/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2571 -
val loss: 0.2613
Epoch 33/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 34/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 35/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 36/500
val_loss: 0.2611
Epoch 37/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2565 -
val loss: 0.2614
Epoch 38/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2565 -
val loss: 0.2611
Epoch 39/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2567 -
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 40/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 41/500
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 42/500
```

```
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 43/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2560 -
val loss: 0.2620
Epoch 44/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2561 -
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 45/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2560 -
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 46/500
val_loss: 0.2615
Epoch 47/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 48/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2555 -
val loss: 0.2609
Epoch 49/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 50/500
val_loss: 0.2609
Epoch 51/500
val_loss: 0.2609
Epoch 52/500
val_loss: 0.2617
Epoch 53/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2555 -
val loss: 0.2607
Epoch 54/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2553 -
val loss: 0.2609
Epoch 55/500
val_loss: 0.2607
Epoch 56/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 57/500
val_loss: 0.2606
Epoch 58/500
```

```
val_loss: 0.2615
Epoch 59/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2549 -
val loss: 0.2608
Epoch 60/500
val loss: 0.2606
Epoch 61/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2548 -
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 62/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 63/500
val_loss: 0.2608
Epoch 64/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2546 -
val loss: 0.2609
Epoch 65/500
val_loss: 0.2606
Epoch 66/500
val_loss: 0.2611
Epoch 67/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2546 -
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 68/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 69/500
val loss: 0.2608
Epoch 70/500
val loss: 0.2603
Epoch 71/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 3s 3ms/step - loss: 0.2547 -
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 72/500
val_loss: 0.2608
Epoch 73/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 74/500
```

```
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 75/500
val loss: 0.2606
Epoch 76/500
val_loss: 0.2606
Epoch 77/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 78/500
val_loss: 0.2618
Epoch 79/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 80/500
val loss: 0.2602
Epoch 81/500
val_loss: 0.2607
Epoch 82/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 83/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 5s 4ms/step - loss: 0.2537 -
val_loss: 0.2607
Epoch 84/500
val_loss: 0.2616
Epoch 85/500
val loss: 0.2617
Epoch 86/500
1236/1236 [============== ] - 4s 4ms/step - loss: 0.2537 -
val loss: 0.2607
Epoch 87/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 88/500
val_loss: 0.2608
Epoch 89/500
1236/1236 [=============== ] - 6s 4ms/step - loss: 0.2535 -
val_loss: 0.2605
Epoch 90/500
```

```
1236/1236 [============== ] - 5s 4ms/step - loss: 0.2536 -
val_loss: 0.2611
Epoch 91/500
val loss: 0.2617
Epoch 92/500
1236/1236 [============= ] - 5s 4ms/step - loss: 0.2535 -
val_loss: 0.2619
Epoch 93/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 94/500
val_loss: 0.2611
Epoch 95/500
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 96/500
val loss: 0.2615
Epoch 97/500
val_loss: 0.2613
Epoch 98/500
val_loss: 0.2612
Epoch 99/500
val_loss: 0.2617
Epoch 100/500
1236/1236 [=============== ] - 5s 4ms/step - loss: 0.2533 -
val_loss: 0.2611
Epoch 101/500
val loss: 0.2615
Epoch 102/500
val loss: 0.2623
Epoch 103/500
val_loss: 0.2614
Epoch 104/500
val_loss: 0.2610
Epoch 105/500
val_loss: 0.2608
Epoch 00105: early stopping
```

[266]: <tensorflow.python.keras.callbacks.History at 0x1be98ef31d0>

[267]: from tensorflow.keras.models import load\_model

[268]: model.save('mymodel.h5')

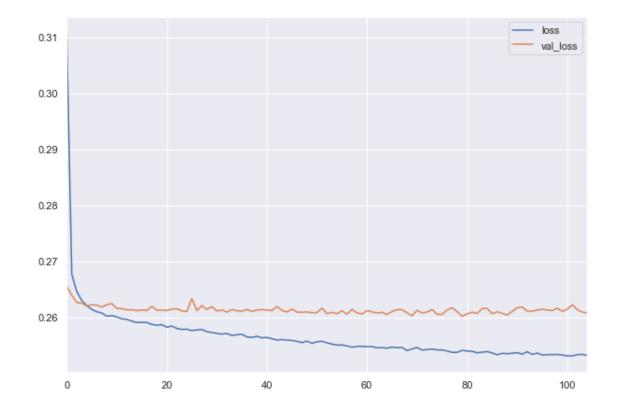
### 1.6 Evaluating Model Performance.

Let's plot out the validation loss versus the training loss.

[269]: losses = pd.DataFrame(model.history.history)

[302]: losses.plot()

[302]: <matplotlib.axes.\_subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x1be96c2fba8>



Now we use our model to reate predictions from the X\_test set.

[271]: pred = model.predict\_classes(X\_test)

To check the model performance we will use classification report and confusion matrix.

[272]: from sklearn.metrics import classification\_report, confusion\_matrix

[273]: print(classification\_report(y\_pred = pred, y\_true = y\_test))

precision recall f1-score support

```
0
                    0.97
                                0.45
                                           0.61
                                                     15658
                     0.88
                                1.00
                                           0.93
                                                     63386
            1
                                           0.89
                                                     79044
    accuracy
   macro avg
                     0.93
                                0.72
                                           0.77
                                                     79044
weighted avg
                     0.90
                                0.89
                                           0.87
                                                     79044
```

### 1.6.1 Reevaluating on the Full Dataset

```
[275]: X_full = df.drop('loan_repaid', axis = 1)
y_full = df['loan_repaid']

[276]: X_full = scaler.transform(X_full)

[277]: pred_full = model.predict_classes(X_full)

[278]: print(classification_report(y_pred = pred_full, y_true = y_full))
```

precision	recall	f1-score	support	
0.98	0.45	0.62	77523	
0.88	1.00	0.94	317696	
		0.89	395219	
0.93	0.72	0.78	395219	
0.90	0.89	0.87	395219	
	0.98 0.88 0.93	0.98 0.45 0.88 1.00 0.93 0.72	0.98 0.45 0.62 0.88 1.00 0.94 0.93 0.72 0.78	0.98 0.45 0.62 77523 0.88 1.00 0.94 317696 0.89 395219 0.93 0.72 0.78 395219

### 1.7 Final Conclusion

In this project we used Keras library and built Deep Learning Neural Network to predict loan default using LendingClub data. Due to significant imbalance of the target feature (80/20) the least accuracy we expected from the model is 80%.

Our final F1 Score is .89, which is good, but considiring the lower limit of 80%, this score is not fantastic.

Our model did a great job predicting 'Paid Off' loans almost perfectly. However, the model is only 45% accurate when it is trying to predict 'Charged Off' loans.