



# Report

# Credit Risk Modeling Group 11

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# 1. Credit Risk Modeling Abstract

Credit risk modeling is an important component of finance that plays a relevant role in assessing and managing the possible risks connected with lending and financial transactions. It evaluates the likelihood of a borrower defaulting on a loan or failing to meet their financial obligations using statistical approaches, mathematical models, and data analysis. Credit risk modeling entails collecting and analyzing a large amount of data, such as the borrower's credit history, financial records, economic indicators, and other relevant information. This information is then utilized to create predictive models that evaluate the creditworthiness of individuals, businesses, and other entities. The models aim to identify patterns, correlations, and risk indicators that can be used to assess the likelihood of default and the severity of losses. Furthermore, credit risk modeling is a key discipline that enables financial institutions to make sound lending decisions, efficiently manage risk, and sustain the financial ecosystem's stability. As technology progresses and financial markets evolve, the field's approaches and models are refined to address the difficulties of an ever-changing landscape.

#### 2. Credit Risk Introduction

Credit scoring can be described as a variety of statistical analyses that can provide its users with a reasonable estimate of the probability that a loan applicant or any counterparty will default or become delinquent (World Bank, 2019). For this academic curricular unit Predictive Analytics in Finance, we were proposed to carry out a project related to credit Risk Modeling. Often, risk scoring involves the usage of predictive models that provide statistical probabilities that any given applicant will be good or bad in terms of grades (Siddiqi, 2005). To meet the requirements of the curricular unit of Predictive Analytics in Finance, taught by Professor Afshin Ashofteh, we were proposed to carry out a project where we would process data based on the material taught in class and, subsequently, take conclusions about this same data, strengthening our problem formulation and solving skills, research, cooperation, and communication. Firstly, our team explored a set of data provided, analyzing clients' characteristics, whether clients are eligible to receive a loan, and associated risks. We observed the training and the predictive datasets, to understand which values needed to be handled (evaluate their structure, and the datatypes of each variable and recognize the missing values and outliers of each variable). Secondly, we start by preprocessing the raw data in each dataset (treating missing values and outliers, transforming categorical data into numerical and into dummies, we also created new variables, evaluating, and checking data coherence, applying correlation, ANOVA test, and comparing the importance of models as a way of performing feature selection, and scaling variables), and finally, we prepared both the validation dataset and the test dataset in the same way as we did the training. Thirdly, we implemented different models in our project, such as Logistic Regression, Decision Tree, Random Forest, Gradient Boosting, and Naïve Bayes all regarding classification problems, this found out which model was more competent for predicting the target. After these classifier models, we made a final analysis of the Deep Model where we used the library (TensorFlow) neural network model in which the objective is to find patterns in the complex data and monitor their respective performance.

# 3. Primary Statistical Analysis

After importing the respective packages and the respective datasets in Python, we started with Exploration Criteria, we aimed to explore which values we had and which attributes we would concern from the training dataset and the predictive dataset (the first look at the datasets). We understand that when we applied the code to get the shape of the table, we had 20,600 clients and 27 attributes in the predictive dataset, and we had 310,704 clients and 29 attributes in train validation to work with (- Datatypes of our variables). After realizing the structure of our dataset, our team decided to read the types of each attribute, noticing some categorical data that would need to be treated to use some of the models to understand data accuracy. Next, we compared the frequency of missing values from each training data set (- Percentage of Missing Values each Variable). In general terms, we identified 179 duplicate rows only in the predictive dataset, which represented 0.87% of the overall data set, and regarding the train validation we did not have any duplicates. Then, we want to evaluate the clients from their loan grade, employment length, home ownership, income source verification, loan's purpose, address state, and the capability of paying the loan. So, for that firstly, we had to **define our target** variable so we could understand when we have a good loan (non-default loan), or a bad loan (default loan) according to the respective evaluation, in both datasets. In train validation we just had to replace the values Charged Off', 'Default',' Does not meet the credit policy. Status: Charged Off', and 'Late (31-120 days)' for default and the others by non-default, and in the predictive dataset we had to create a new variable customer default status where the good loans were when their verification status was verified of the respective loan and the other's will be non-defaults because the loans were not verified.

To address outliers, we first carried out box-plot graphs, so we could identify which exact variables were presented. After recognizing their presence in the main variables that we consider critical for our analysis, we treat them by changing the outliers by their median when the variables have less than 1% of outliers according to all datasets in predictive and train validation datasets, and we used another method called Winsorization to treat the outliers when the variables have more than 3% of outliers; this method replaces that specific outlier from the values that are closest to the quartile one or quartile three according to the significance level that we select. We used these two approaches because we didn't want to lose information from our dataset if we removed the rows, and we also didn't want to have different scales in the respective variables if we transformed the data. Finally, we didn't want to use the mean to replace the outliers because the value of the mean was already influenced by the outliers. After understanding our dataset better, we did an individual analysis of each consumer loan data. We may conclude from Loan Grade that customers classified as default are mostly from class B, C, and A, and now according to the non-default most clients are classified as grade C, with 33% of these grades being non-default, indicating that they are strong possibilities for a loan. It also has a lot

of clients classified as B, with a percentage of 28% Non-Default, and D, with a percentage of 16% non-default regarding the predictive dataset. Now in the train validation dataset, we conclude from Loan Grade that customers classified as default are mostly from class B, C, and A, and now according to the non-default most clients are classified as grade B, with 30% of these grades. It also has a lot of clients classified as C, with a percentage of 29% Non-Default, and A, with a percentage of 17%. This Client's Loan Grade chart refers to the credit quality assigned to a borrower's loan based on various factors such as credit history, financial stability, the quality of the guarantee, the probability of repayment, and other relevant indicators. Lenders use loan grades to assess the risk associated with lending money to a particular individual or business. The classification consists of assigning a grade depending on your default risk. Thus, on the x-axis, we can visualize the number of people (clients) whose loan was classified with a grade, that is, the grades represented on the y-axis. The Client Employment Length graph shows us the time taken by clients to eventually grant credit. On the y-axis, we have the years of work and on the x-axis, we have the number of people who have worked for n years. According to the predictive dataset, we realized that the higher number of individuals who non-default is 4,408 individuals and they have been working for more than 10 years while the lower of nondefaults loans was 465 clients who have been working for 7 years for the loan be approved. For last, we can note as well, that we have more non-defaults than defaults in all years. Now regarding the train validation dataset, we have more defaults than non-defaults in all years, the higher number of clients of non-defaults is 32.528 individuals and they have been working for more than 10 years while the lower is 3.773 individuals and have been working for 9 years. In the Homeownership Status provided by the borrower during registration and the status of the loan quality, that is, if they were non-default or default. Based on the predictive dataset, we can infer that the majority of borrowers disclosed their mortgage status; there are 6,262 individuals who are in non-default and around 3,716 clients who are in default. In-home ownership status rent we had 5960 individuals' non-defaults and 2,099 defaults, in home ownership status own we had 1,587 non-defaults and 794 defaults, and for last, we had any 2 non-defaults and 0 defaults. Attending to the train validation dataset, we have more defaults than non-defaults in all homeownership statuses, we have in mortgage 47,749 nondefaults and 106,580 defaults, in rent, we have 37,872 non-defaults and 82,666 defaults, and in own we have 10,733 non-defaults and 24,849 defaults, for last, in any we have 1 non-default and 254 defaults. In the predictive dataset, the Client's Income Source Verification graph shows us the status of procedures related to verifying the source of income of which client. We can conclude that the main part of clients had their source of income verified, 13,811 loans were verified and 6,609 were not verified. Concerning the train validation dataset, we have more loans verified than not verified, 203,660 verified loans and 107,044 loans not verified. In the predictive dataset and train validation dataset the Client's Purpose Loan, although there are a number of reasons for obtaining credit, the client's purpose for the loan is shown in the predictive dataset and the train validation dataset. This graph allows us to draw the conclusion that the majority of clients seek loans for credit card debt consolidation and debt consolidation; the only areas where we have fewer loans are for weddings and renewable energy. In the predictive dataset the Client's Address state, we observe that most clients are in the state of California, with 3,015 clients, followed by the states of New York 1,889 clients, Texas 1,802 clients, and Florida 1,573 clients. In contrast, the states that have the fewest clients are Idaho 24 clients, Maine with 33 clients, Vermont 34 clients, and, lastly, Alaska with 36 clients. In the train validation dataset, most clients are in the state of California with 43,550 clients, followed by Texas with 26,531 clients, then New York with 24,608 clients, and Florida with 23,290 clients. And the lower value of clients asking for loans is in Vermont with only 622 clients. We saw the Client's Loan Amounts and were able to establish that the middle 50% of customers have between 8,275 and 20,800 dollars, where the minimum and maximum amount of loan obtained by a client is 1,000 and 40,000 dollars, respectively. We can conclude that depending on the Amount of Credit, the minimum and maximum total payments are 0 and 59,808.26 respectively, and with an average that varies from 5,783.21 and 18,592.57 dollars. Overall, we can see a highly skewed observation to the right. We can see each Client's Loan Payment history on the final graph. Then, we can see that 67.7% of the loans in the prediction dataset were paid back, and around 32.3% were not; meanwhile, 58.4% of the loans in the train validation dataset were paid back, and approximately 41.6% were not.

#### 3.1 Preprocessing Credit Analysis

In the Prerocessing Criteria, the objective was to take care of cleaning, transforming, and reducing errors in the raw data of the respective datasets (Data Preparation, Data Cleaning, Feature Engineering, and Scaling Data). We decided to treat the outliers and missing values instead of deleting them as we mentioned before, we changed the data types only in the predictive dataset so we could do extensive analysis with different models that don't allow non-numerical data, we also reviewed the coherence of the data in both datasets, we performed a feature selection, with Univariate Variables for understand if we have any variable that was 0 that was always constant but we did not have any value like that, we did the Pearson and Spearman correlation test for understand the specific relationships of the variables and we found that loan amount and found amount they were high correlated and then the interest rate variable so we must have sure if remove them was a good option so for confirm we also used the ANOVA test for understand what were the variables more important for our target population for could understand better what was their influence in the target variable, and then we used Decision Trees and Random Forest for evaluate the importance of the respective variables again, after understanding that they were giving very similar results and very correlated we decided to remove them, and then lastly, we scaled the data, by adjusting the values of the variables so that they fall within a similar numerical range. So, starting with the preprocessing itself, we made a copy of our initial table of the training dataset, and we dropped columns from the dataset that we believed would not be worthen using, for our analysis: 'id', 'total acc', 'open acc', 'inq last 6mths', 'funded amnt inv', 'out prncp', 'revol util', 'pub rec', 'issue d', 'earliest cr line', 'risk', followed by the creation and transformation of new columns, to understand the Payment Progress of the Client Loans. The next move was to treat missing values, first, we confirmed their position and their percentage. Then, to fill in missing values, from all the columns from 'train f' that are objects, we fill in that respective column with the mode, and all the columns that are integer, will fill in that respective column with their mean. Then we had to check the coherence of our dataset, as noticed before, we had some issues with the variables Verification Status, Employment Length, and Term. In the first one, we had two categories "Verified" and "Source Verified", and after checking the variable this did not make sense, so after some consideration, we decided to get these two categories together. In the second one, we removed the '+' in this variable, replaced the whole string "less than 1 year" with the string "0", and removed the "years" and "year" in 2 categories. For the variable "Term", we removed the months in the categories, leaving just "36" and "60". Despite this, we still changed the decimal class of the numerical variables, rounding to 2 decimal places in Loan Amounts, Annual Income, and total\_pymnt. Now, we have decided to treat the outliers. Firstly, we checked the median of our variables (50%). The method that we will use for treating the outliers is to change by their median and Winsorization because if we remove them, we will lose information. We cannot change by their mean because the value is already affected by the outliers, so we will just replace by their median in the variables that we have low outliers and regarding, where we have more outliers 3%. We believe that replacing the Winsorization is the best course of action because it will replace the specific outliers from the values that are closest to Q3 and Q1, and it won't have an impact on the variable's scale. Using the median is not the best option because it is also impacted by outliers.

# 4. Methodology

For our group to understand whether the client had loans that were good (non-default) or that had loans that were bad (default). Before we could utilize the particular libraries and features on datasets, we had to import the corresponding datasets into Python and the corresponding packages. Following import, we choose to examine the relevant datasets to gain a better grasp of the subject matter by utilizing the dataset's variables, structures, and graph-based data visualization. As a result, following the exploration, we began organizing the relevant datasets, cleaning them, and choosing the best variables for feature selection (Univariate Variables to understand if we have any variable that was 0, we did the Pearson and Spearman correlation test for understand the specific relationships of the variables, we did ANOVA test for understand what were the variables more important for our target population for have an accurate analysis, and we used Decision Trees and Random Forest), and then scaling the respective data for after could apply the respective algorithms for understanding the accuracy of the data, after treating all the data, so finishing the preprocessing, we created the respective train, validation, and the test for we could see the final results by applying the models, how good was our data, their accuracy. After creating the train, validation, and test we started applying the models and then saw their respective results, and how accurate they were, and in the end, we applied neural networks in the Deep Model in a way to see the results of the accuracy.

#### 5. Discussion

#### 5.1 Modeling Assessment

To develop and assess our estimations for a credit scoring model we created a logistic regression model (LRM), and then we carried out confusion matrices so we could understand if the results computed were right. Commonly, a Confusion Matrix (CM) allows us to have a hint of how well-fitted a model can be in comparison with another one. At first, we divided our data set into train and validation, then we created a logistic regression model for both data set types, and ultimately, we calculated the confusion matrices for each model developed. Results suggest that our Training data set was better fitted to the validation data set and therefore achieved more trustworthy results. Our confusion matrices demonstrate that with the Training Logistic regression, we had 35,195 True Positives (TP) and 152,015 True Negatives (TN). Conversely, we had 4,227 TP and just 19,115 TN for the validation logistic regression. Additionally, we plotted a graph to observe the different matrices we could have applied various thresholds to get our proportions of TP and FP (False Positives) rate, which we call Receiver Operator Characteristic Curve, or simply ROC Curve, whereas the Area under the curve (AUC) would give us which model present better predictions, considering the matrices. The same reasoning, we applied for the rest of the models, and we ended up getting five different predictive models with different prediction results to compare one another and finally choosing the one that better fit. In this sense, our training data set produced better prediction results in the Random Forest, Gradient Boosting Classifier (GBC), and Naive Bayes model. Therefore, given the different ROC curves plotted under the models developed, we would have better results if we used the GBM models amongst others because they contain the greater AUC value. Nonetheless, we can also analyze the quality of our predictions using three main tools: Precision, which gives us the total TP estimates we had in a universe of TP and FP, Recall, which gives us an idea of the total number of TP estimates we got correctly among the universe of TP, and finally the F1 that kind of plays the role of an average ratio between these last two mentioned. Hence, for evaluating the quality of our models we will stick to the F1, and for instance, in the case of LRM the train data set had a little higher F1 in predicting False Positive (FP), specifically train data set had 0.53 of F1 score, and the validation had 0.52 of F1 score, however, they scored the same accuracy, roughly 0.75. On the other hand, Naive Bayes Algorithm scored equal results for F1 regarding accuracy, and so on. In general, this study uncovers a high level of True Negatives Rate across the different models. As it is, this measure represents that the bank can trust in the reliability of its model to correctly predict the probability of default in loans. A True Negative rate plays an important part in credit scoring in a way that can give fair predictions about the present and future loan clients for each loan product portfolio. With a fair estimate of the probability of default, loan managers can have more trustworthy estimations for issuing reserves in the balance sheet and complying with different legal requirements of risk management. Overall, our F1 score (right side on the right side in the brackets of the table), indicates a high rate across all the models. On the other hand, AUC, also in Table 1., shows similar performances between Random Forest and GBC models, and slightly below levels for Logistic and Naïve Bayes models. Finally, the Gradient Boosting Classifier achieves the best performance both on the training and validation data set.

# 6. Deep Modell learning machine

### 6.1 Accuracy and loss for training and validation data set

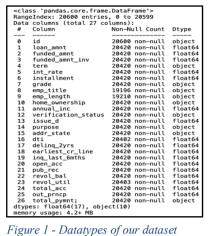
In terms of accuracy of the deep model learning, we applied 100 epoch size for both the train and validation data set, and results generally suggest that as the number of epochs grow across both data sets our losses tend to reduce, and the accuracy goes into the opposite direction. That means as our deep learning machine for credit scoring increases in experience and understanding we are steadily getting better predictions. An interesting fact is that from epoch 27 up to 79 we assist those losses in the validation data set increasing, which might represent a phase where the model encounters challenges or fluctuates in its learning process, then they go down from 80 epoch to the end, suggesting a positive adjustment or improved learning in the latter part of the training process. Overall, the pattern shows that as the number of epochs increases, the deep learning model improves accuracy and decreases losses by improving its comprehension of the credit scoring problem. The validation data exhibits irregularities during specific epochs that may be attributed to several variables, including but not limited to the model design, data properties, or optimization tactics. To achieve the best credit score predictions, the model's performance should be continuously monitored, analyzed, and adjusted as necessary.

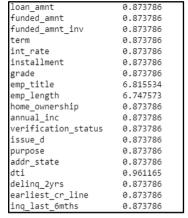
## 7. Conclusion

In conclusion, in the given problem to predict the probability of default depending on their behavior, we observed the dataset and did an exploration of it and we also saw that we had to make some adjustments to have a more precise and correct model. So then, we treated missing values and outliers, checked the coherence of the dataset, created some new variables, did a feature selection, and then did a preparation of both validation and test datasets. After this phase was time to write different algorithms for the different models and adjust them with different parameters to improve them and get better results. While the training dataset exhibits a commendable accuracy of approximately 1, the other one exhibits an accuracy of 0,75, the F1 scores. The results suggest that the Gradient Boosting Classifier, particularly on the training dataset, showcases a robust performance in credit scoring, providing the best valuable insights for decision-making in lending scenarios. With this, we obtained different outcomes so after some analysis and comparison, we evaluated each one of them, and based on the values we decided to get the results of the dataset. So, we believe that the model we implemented into our project will be a good solution to predict whether a client will be chosen to get the loan or not.

#### 8. Annex

#### 8.1 Unseen Dataset





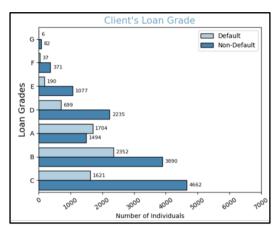


Figure 1.1 - Percentage of Missing Values each Variable

Figure 2 - Client's Loan Grade

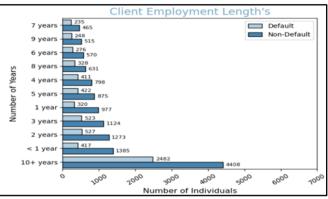


Figure 3 - Client's Employment

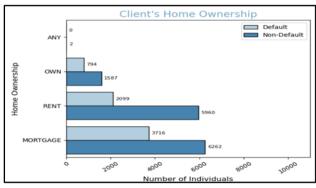
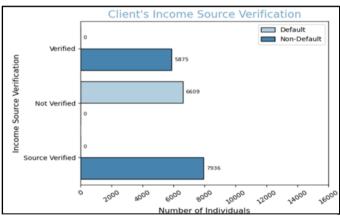


Figure 4 - Client's Home Ownership





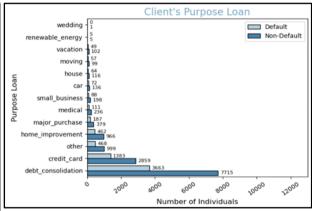


Figure 6 – Client's Purpose Loan



Figure 7 – Client's Address

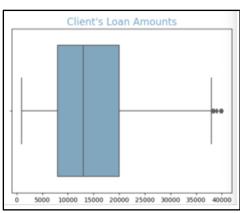


Figure 8 – Client's Loan Amounts Box-plot

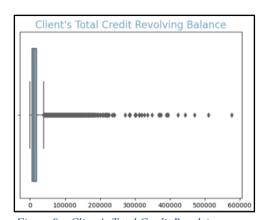


Figure 9 – Client's Total Credit Revolving Balance Box-Plot

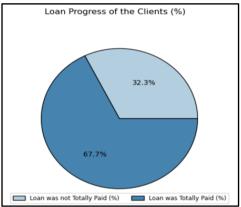


Figure 10 – Loan Progress of Clients

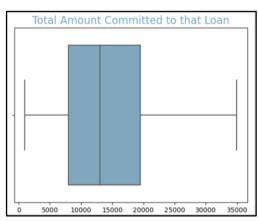
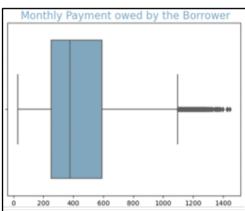


Figure 11 – Total Amount Committed to that Loan Figure 12 – Monthly Payment Owed by the



Borrower

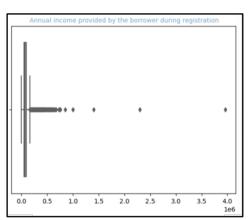


Figure 13 – Annual Income Provided by the Borrower during Registration

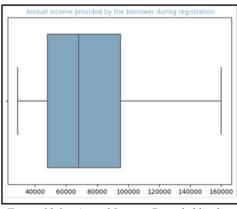


Figure 13.1 – Annual Income Provided by the Borrower during registration

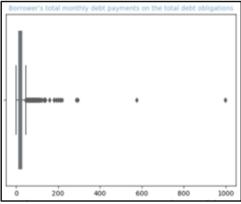
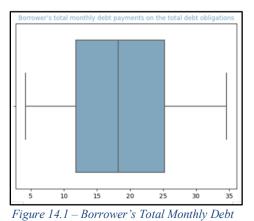


Figure 14 – Borrower's Total Monthly Debt Payments on the Total Debt Obligations



Payments on the Total Debt

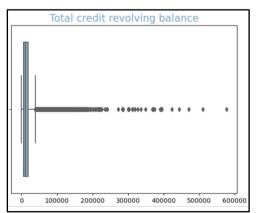


Figure 15 – Total Credit Revolving Balance

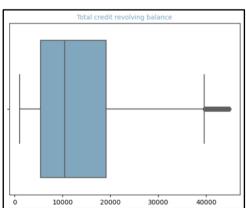
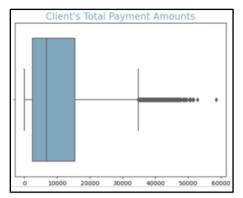


Figure 15.1 – Total Credit Revolving

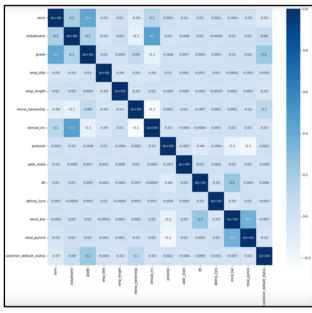


Client's Total Payments

0 5000 10000 15000 20000 25000 30000

Figure 16 – Client's Total Payment

Figure 17 – Client's Total Payments without Outliers



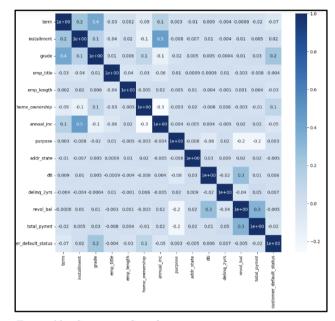
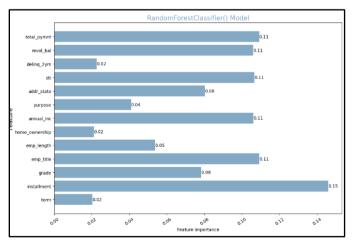


Figure 18 – Pearson Correlation Matrix

Figure 19 – Spearman Correlation



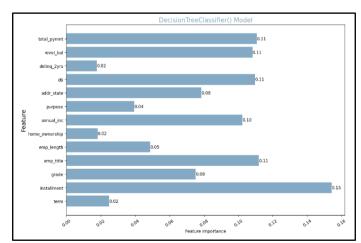
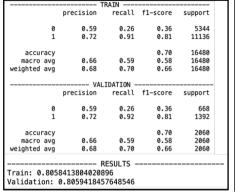


Figure 20 – Random Forest Classifier

Figure 21 – Decision Tree Classifier

term	True
installment	True
grade	True
emp_title	False
emp_length	True
home_ownership	True
annual_inc	False
purpose	False
addr_state	False
dti	False
delinq_2yrs	False
revol_bal	False
total_pymnt	True
dtype: bool	



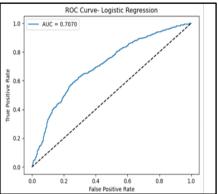


Figure 22 – ANOVA Test

Figure 220 – Logistic Regression

Figure 23.1 – ROC Curve Logistic Regression

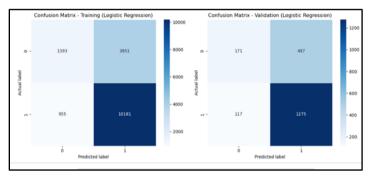


Figure 23.2 – Confusion Matrix Logistic

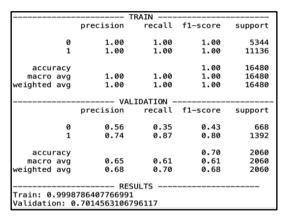


Figure 24 – Random Forest

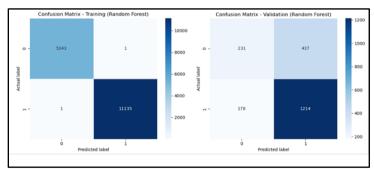


Figure 24.1 – Confusion Matrix Random Forest

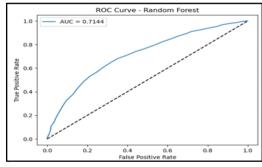


Figure 24.2 – ROC Curve Random

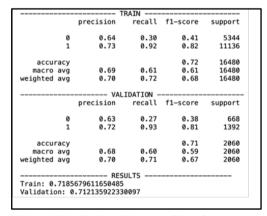


Figure 25 – Gradient Boosting Classifier

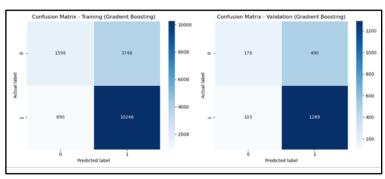
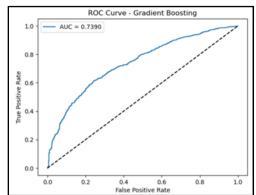
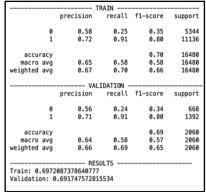


Figure 25.1 – Confusion Matrix





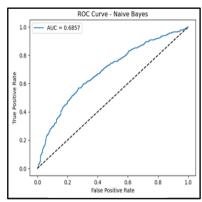


Figure 25.2 – ROC Curve

Figure 26 – Naïve Bayes Algorithm

Figure 26.1 – ROC Curve

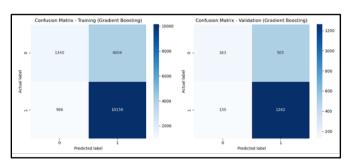


Figure 26.2 – Confusion Matrix



Figure 27 – Datashape & Datatypes of our variables

```
id
                    0
                           id
                                               0.0
loan_amnt
                    0
                           loan_amnt
                                               0.0
funded_amnt
                    0
                           funded amnt
                                               0.0
funded_amnt_inv
                           funded amnt inv
                                               0.0
term
                    0
                           term
                                               0.0
total_acc
                    0
                          total_acc
                                               0.0
out_prncp
                                               0.0
                          out_prncp
total_pymnt
                    a
                          total_pymnt
                                               0.0
loan_status
                           loan_status
                                               0.0
risk
                          risk
                                               0.0
Length: 29, dtype: int64 Length: 29, dtype: float64
```

```
Figure 28 – Missing Values
```

```
Epoch 1/100
165/165 - 1s - loss: 0.5927 - accuracy: 0.6828 - val_loss: 0.5715 - val_accuracy: 0.7015 - 1s/epoch - 8ms/step
Epoch 2/100
165/165 - 0s - loss: 0.5646 - accuracy: 0.7064 - val_loss: 0.5667 - val_accuracy: 0.6990 - 287ms/epoch - 2ms/step
Epoch 3/100
165/165 - 0s - loss: 0.5592 - accuracy: 0.7121 - val_loss: 0.5613 - val_accuracy: 0.7063 - 296ms/epoch - 2ms/step
Epoch 4/100
165/165 - 0s - loss: 0.5548 - accuracy: 0.7154 - val_loss: 0.5659 - val_accuracy: 0.7024 - 301ms/epoch - 2ms/step
Epoch 5/100
165/165 - 0s - loss: 0.5525 - accuracy: 0.7170 - val_loss: 0.5635 - val_accuracy: 0.7029 - 272ms/epoch - 2ms/step
```

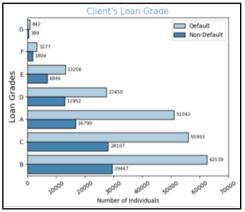
Figure 29- Deep Modelling - Accuracy and loss

```
65/65 [===========] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.5673 - accuracy: 0.7150

Test loss: 0.57. Test accuracy: 71.50%
```

Figure 29.1 - Accuracy and Loss test

#### 8.2 Train Validation Dataset





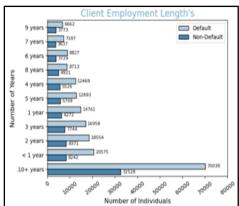


Figure 31 – Client's Employment Length's

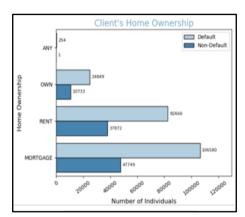


Figure 32 – Client's Home Ownership

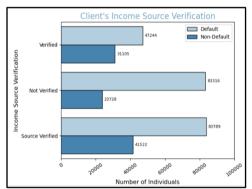


Figure 33 – Client's Income Source

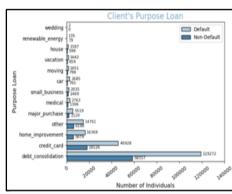


Figure 34 – Client's Purpose Loan

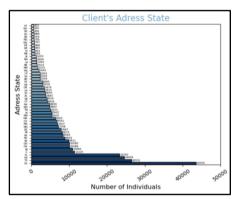


Figure 35 - Client's Address State

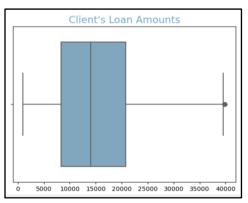


Figure 36 – Client's Loan Amounts

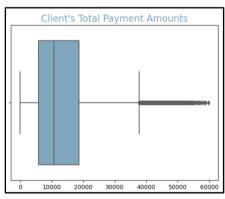


Figure 37 – Client's Total Payment Amounts

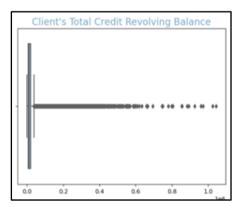


Figure 38 – Client's Total Credit Revolving Balance

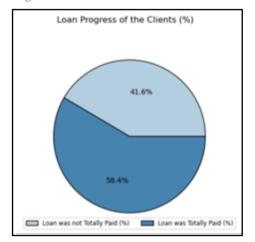


Figure 39 – Loan Progress of the Clients

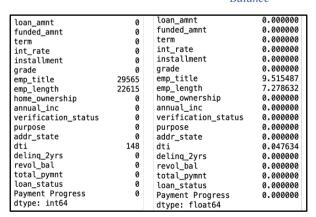


Figure 40 – Data Cleaning to check the Missing Values

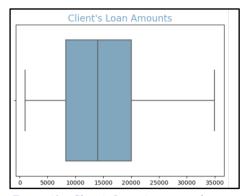


Figure 41 – Client's Loan Amounts without Outliers

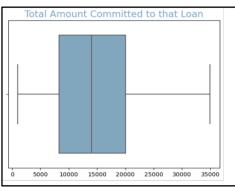


Figure 42 – Total Amount Committed to that Loan

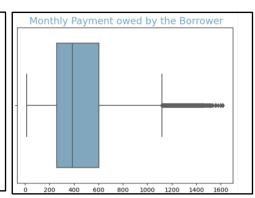


Figure 43 – Monthly Payment Owed by the Borrower

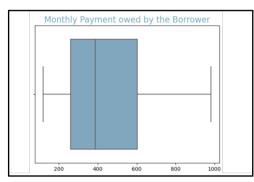


Figure 43.1 – Monthly Payment Owed by the Borrower

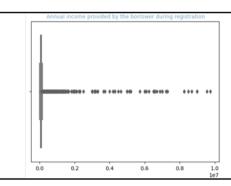


Figure 44 – Annual Income provided by the borrower during registration

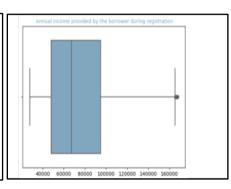


Figure 44.1 – Annual Income provided by the Borrower during Registration

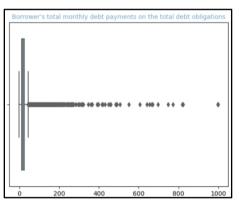


Figure 45 – Borrower's Tot. Monthly Debt Payments on the Tot. Debt Obligations

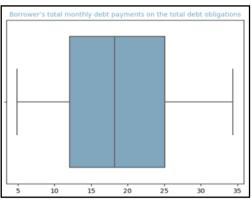


Figure 45.1 – Borrower's Tot. Monthly Debt Payments on the Tot. Debt Obligations

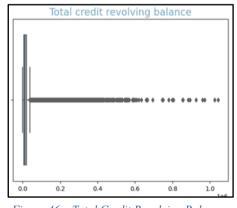


Figure 46 – Total Credit Revolving Balance

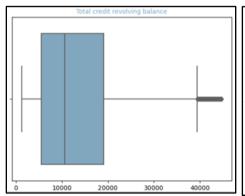


Figure 46.1 – Total Credit Revolving Balance

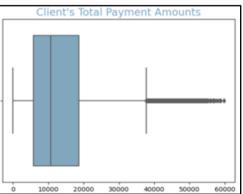


Figure 47 – Client's Total Payment Amounts



Figure 48 – Client's Total Payments without Outliers

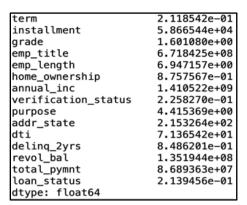


Figure 49 – Univariate Variables

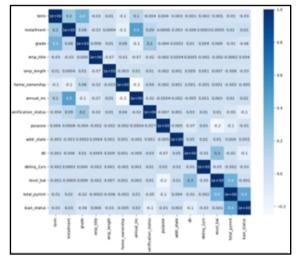


Figure 51 – Spearman Correlation

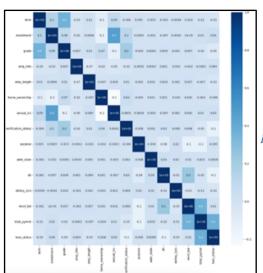


Figure 50 – Pearson & Spearman

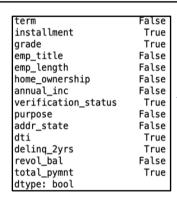


Figure 52 – ANOVA Test

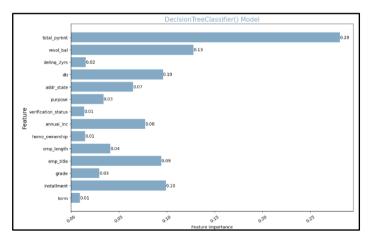


Figure 53 – Decision Tree Classifier Model

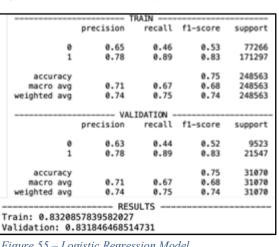


Figure 55 – Logistic Regression Model

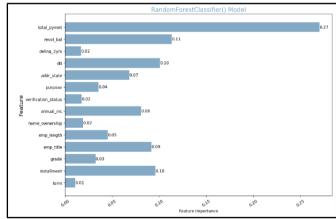


Figure 54 – Random Forest Classifier Model

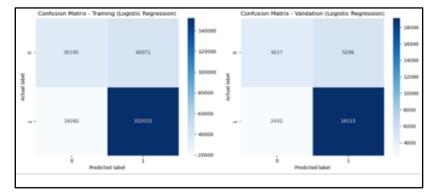
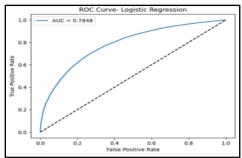
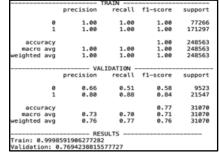


Figure 55.1 – Confusion Matrix LGM





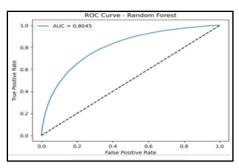
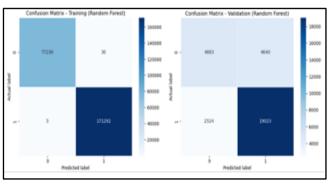
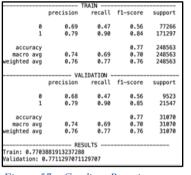


Figure 55.2 – ROC Curve LRM

Figure 56 – Random Forest Model

Figure 56.1- ROC Curve RFM





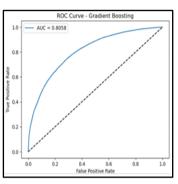
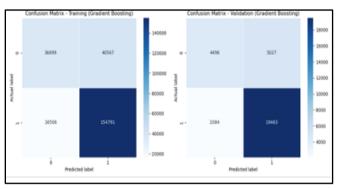
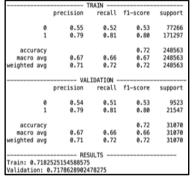


Figure 56.2 – Confusion Matrix RFM

Figure 57 – Gradient Boosting Classifier

Figure 57.1 – ROC Curve GBC





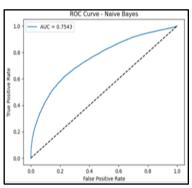


Figure 57.2 – Confusion Matrix GBC

Figure 58 – Naïve Bayes Algorithm

Figure 58.1 – ROC Curve NBA

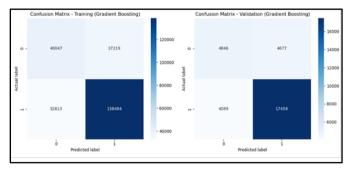


Figure 58.2 – Confusion Matrix GBC

Epoch 1/100
2486/2486 - 7s - loss: 0.4922 - accuracy: 0.7583 - val_loss: 0.485
3 - val_accuracy: 0.7640 - 7s/epoch - 3ms/step
Epoch 2/100
2486/2486 - 4s - loss: 0.4820 - accuracy: 0.7656 - val_loss: 0.481
0 - val_accuracy: 0.7654 - 4s/epoch - 1ms/step
Epoch 3/100
2486/2486 - 3s - loss: 0.4786 - accuracy: 0.7680 - val_loss: 0.479
4 - val_accuracy: 0.7666 - 3s/epoch - 1ms/step
Epoch 4/100
2486/2486 - 4s - loss: 0.4765 - accuracy: 0.7695 - val_loss: 0.478
3 - val_accuracy: 0.7686 - 4s/epoch - 2ms/step
Epoch 5/100
2486/2486 - 4s - loss: 0.4745 - accuracy: 0.7711 - val_loss: 0.476
1 - val_accuracy: 0.7691 - 4s/epoch - 1ms/step

Figure 59 – Deep Modelling – Accuracy and Loss

971/971 [=======] - 1s 1ms/step - loss: 0.470			
4 - accuracy: 0.7726			
Test loss: 0.47. Test accuracy: 77.26%			

Figure 60 – Accuracy and Loss Test

Algorithm	Confusion Matrix Predict	AUC value	F1 score
	Label		
Logistic Regression	[14%,61%] [8%,17%]	0.7848	(0.53; 0.83)
Random Forest	[31%,69] [0%,0%]	0.8045	(1.00; 1.00)
Gradient Boosting Classifier (GBC)	[15%,62%] [7%,16%]	0.8058	(0.56; 0.84)
Naïve Bayes	[16%,56%] [13%,15%]	0.7543	(0.53; 0.80)

Table 1 - Evaluation results of the algorithm credit scoring

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