



Application of new deep genetic cascade ensemble of SVM classifiers to predict the Australian credit scoring

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ABSTRACT

In the recent decades, credit scoring has become a very important analytical resource for researchers and financial institutions around the world. It helps to boost both profitability and risk control since bank credits plays a significant role in the banking industry.

In this study, a novel approach based on deep genetic cascade ensemble of different support vector machine (SVM) classifiers (called Deep Genetic Cascade Ensembles of Classifiers (DGCEC)) is applied to the Statlog Australian data. The proposed approach is a hybrid model which merges the benefits of: (a) evolutionary computation, (b) ensemble learning, and (c) deep learning. The proposed approach comprises of a novel 16-layer genetic cascade ensemble of classifiers, having: two types of SVM classifiers, normalization techniques, feature extraction methods, three types of kernel functions, parameter optimizations, and stratified 10-fold cross-validation method. The general architecture of the proposed approach consists of ensemble learning, deep learning, layered learning, supervised training, feature (attributes) selection using genetic algorithm, optimization of parameters for all classifiers by using genetic algorithm, and a new genetic layered training technique (for selection of classifiers).

Our developed model achieved the highest prediction accuracy of 97.39%. Hence, our proposed approach can be employed in the banking system to evaluate the bank credits of the applicants and aid the bank managers in making correct decisions.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Credit scoring

Credit scoring is a method of assessing the credibility of the entity (person or company) applying for a bank credit. The result of a credit score is usually presented in a point form – usually the more points, the greater the creditworthiness of the potential borrower. Higher assessment scores will receive the borrower whose profile will be as close as possible to the profile of borrowers who timely repay their credits in the past. The evaluation shall take into account attributes such as: (1) profession, (2) education, (3) housing status, (3) district of residence, (4) monthly income, (5) age and marital status, (6) number of dependents, (7) bank accounts, (8) life insurance, (9) period of employment at the current position, etc. Bank on the basis of the above-mentioned attributes, establishes a cut-off threshold that, decides to grant or refuse the credit.

Tasks of credit scoring can be divided into two distinct types [1–3]: (1) Application scoring – the first type, whose task is to classify credit applicants to two risk groups: “good” and “bad”. In this case, the data used for modeling usually consist of demographic and financial information about the credit applicant; (2) Behavioral scoring – in addition to financial and demographic information, data on customer payment history are also available for the current customers [4]. In this paper, we execute the first task – application scoring.

Analysis of credit risk is an important subject in the field of financial risk management and has recently become the primary objective of the banking and financial sector [5]. Nowadays, it is very common to apply the credit risk analysis for bank credits either private or business purposes. From the perspective of the banking sector, the proper assessment of applicants for bank credits plays a major role. Even small mistakes (1%) in credit score accuracy may prove to be very painful for the banks and may cause huge losses due to the insolvency of the borrowers. On the other hand, excessive criteria may deter potential customers and, consequently may reduce the turnover of banks. This problem intensified particularly after the financial crisis in 2007. As a

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result, banks started looking for new solutions to minimize their risks and maximize their profits. This led to development of research in credit scoring, and emergence of many new tools to assist financial experts in assessing the borrowers.

The following attention need to be paid to the following key issues while assessing the creditworthiness:

- Feature (attributes) extraction [4,6,7] and feature (attributes) selection [8–10].
- Selection of appropriate classifiers or their combination [11, 12].
- Optimization of classifiers parameters [13].
- Training of classifiers using appropriate cross-validation (CV) technique to obtain and reliable results [14].

The problem of credit scoring is difficult to solve in a classic manner, due to the uncertain nature of analyzed data (financial and demographic information). The analyzed data does not determine unambiguously the credibility of the borrowers. Usually scoring is calculated by using statistical methods (e.g. discriminant analysis, linear regression) [7,15], but however, these methods have many drawbacks like assumption of linear relationship between the variables, [7,16]. Therefore, we can also find other methods in the scientific literature to calculate credit scoring such as machine learning algorithms which are popular in recent years [17–19]. Methods of data mining, in particular pattern recognition, based on real historical data, are of great importance in building the predictive models [4]. To obtain accurate results using machine learning algorithms we can include: fuzzy systems (FS) [20], neural networks (NN) [21–23], support vector machine (SVM) [13], k-nearest neighbors algorithm (kNN) [24], genetic programming (GP) [25], decision trees (DT) [26,27], and genetic algorithms (GA) [8]. In scientific literature, for most of the scoring problems, machine learning algorithms have performed better than statistical methods [7,13,28]. However, these methods suffer from following drawbacks: (1) large number of parameters to optimize, (2) tendency to fall in a local minimum, (3) likely to over-fit, and (4) high computational complexity required to learn systems [16].

Accuracy of credit assessment is crucial for the profitability of financial institutions. The motivation for doing research in this area is to increase the accuracy of credit scoring, e.g. by minimizing the percentage of bad credits classified as good credits. Increasing the accuracy of even a fraction of a percentage is considered as significant and extremely important achievement for economic reasons because it can mean huge savings for the bank.

These approaches described in the scientific literature [29–33] do not guarantee high accuracy (Table 6). Hence, it is desirable to design dedicated automated system to support the bankers to more accurately predict the credit scoring. To address this issue, we have presented a new model to achieve better performance than the existing models.

1.2. Machine learning techniques

Nowadays, different ensemble techniques are very popular approaches to combine various machine learning algorithms [34–38], which can be used to enhance the obtained outcomes. By using this approach the performance of the entire ensemble can be increased compared to individual component algorithms. In order to find out the efficiency of ensemble learning techniques, there are a variety of ensemble techniques in the literature [34, 39–44]. However, some of the most ensembles of classifiers are more popular which are listed as follows: (a) Bagging (Bootstrap aggregation) [45,46], (b) Boosting (AdaBoost) [47,48], (c) Random

Forest (RF) [45], (d) Stacking (Stacked Generalization) [49] as well as (e) Mixtures of Experts [50].

There are three important basic assumptions that should be mentioned here as follows: (a) quality, (b) statistical independence (diversity) and (c) efficiency (speed). It is very important to meet all of these assumptions at the same time. According to the practice requirements, taking attention to the statistical independence is the most priority in ensemble learning techniques followed by the quality [51]. This means that attention to the statistical independence and quality is very essential; however, the impact of efficiency (speed) should not be missed.

In the field of credit scoring prediction, ensemble learning methods are also popular and widely used with success: [8,11, 26,28,31,32,52–56].

In the last decade, deep learning as one of the machine learning techniques [57–61] has attracted numerous attention from researchers worldwide which has a hierarchical architecture including several layers in which the subsequent steps of information processing take place. To perform the analysis and classification of patterns from raw data using the output layers, the input layers should be used in order to extract features. In other words, there are many hidden layers in deep learning architecture that the input of one layer is given by the output of previous layer expect first input layer. The input of first layer comes from the data.

Based on training methods, deep learning methods can be categorized as follows: (a) Deep discriminatory models such as: Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) [60], Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) [62] as well as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) [61]; (b) Unsupervised (generative models) such as: Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs) [63], Deep Belief Networks (DBNs) [64], Deep Boltzmann Machines (DBMs) [65] as well as Regularized Autoencoders [66].

Recently deep learning [66] has become a quite hot topic in computational intelligence research [67,68]. By using a deep structure which includes multiple layers of non-linear operations allow to learn high-level abstraction needed to solve challenging vision, language, and other AI-level tasks. Ensemble of deep learners can boost the performance of traditional methods [69].

In this article, we have applied deep learning technique in credit scoring field. Despite the tremendous potential, the current deep learning methods have disadvantages: (1) computationally complex training, (2) long and inefficient training, and (3) the effect of over fitting, which hinders their effective use in practice. The proposed solution provides fast and effective training approach and thus achieved the highest accuracy.

Nature and universe include a variety of mechanisms and patterns which can be inspired in the machine learning area to solve complex tasks, optimize and also help for training from raw data. The evolutionary computation (EC) [70] is an imitation of nature which represents how its mechanism deals with natural selection, inheritance and functioning. Generally, the EC is trained using on species, but not from an individuals, which allows going through the life of the next generations of people. Therefore, the best generation of solutions can be generated which progressively confront the conditions of the task that they have better adaptation to the nature.

The evolutionary algorithms (EAs) [71] are member of EC which some of well-known algorithms are: (a) evolutionary programming (EP) [72], (b) evolution strategy (ES) [73], (c) genetic programming (GP) [74], (d) genetic algorithm (GA) [75], (e) differential evolution (DE) [76], and (f) learning classifier system (LCS) [77,78] etc. Related techniques, also belonging to EC, are: (g) self-organization (e.g. self-organizing maps [79]), (h) swarm intelligence (SI) [80], (i) artificial immune systems (AIS) [81], (j) particle swarm optimization (PSO) [82], (k) ant colony optimization (ACO) [83], and (l) artificial bee colony algorithm (ABC) [84].

In recent years, GA shows a very good performance for optimizing a variety of tasks. In other words, GA is a popular and effective approach to optimize different ensemble learning of classifiers [75,85,86]. The EC methods are used with success in the field of credit scoring prediction: GA [8,87,88], and GP [13,25,89].

1.3. Goals

Goal 1: Develop new ensemble of classifiers based on fusion of evolutionary computation technique and ensemble learning and deep learning.

Goal 2: Develop a new, fast, efficient and effective training approach for classifiers ensemble of deep multilayer structure.

Goal 3: Verification of proposed solution based on the credit scoring prediction.

1.4. Novelty

Deep genetic cascade ensembles of classifiers (DGCEC) – designed a 16-layer ensemble of SVM classifiers, based on fusion of stratified 10-fold CV method, ensemble learning, deep learning, layered learning, supervised training, feature selection using genetic algorithm (attributes), optimization of classifiers parameters by using genetic algorithm, and also a new genetic layered training technique (for selection of classifiers).

Based on the literature review [29–34,57], the novel features of the study includes the following items:

Genetic layered training – applied new training to optimize the structure of the DGCEC system by combining the classifiers in ensemble (2nd–15th layer). The GA is used to classifiers selection, consisting in the elimination of “bad experts” (reject classifiers with incorrect responses from the 1st–14th layer).

Boost diversity – designed 72 types of classifier models including: 2 types of SVMs, 2 types of normalizations, 2 types of feature selections/extractions, 3 types of kernel functions, and 3 types of parameter optimizations based on 3 types of error calculations.

Cascade structure – proposed new, multilayer, cascade type, structure of deep ensemble, in which the nodes are classifiers and which provides appropriate information flow and fusion and mimicking mechanism of tutoring (Fig. 4).

Deep learning – pioneering use of the DGCEC method based on deep learning to credit scoring prediction.

The motivation to undertake this work is as follows: (a) existing methods obtained accuracies, (b) creating a novel method by combining 3 machine learning techniques (evolutionary computation, ensemble learning and deep learning), and (c) imitate the working of human brain (fusion and flow of information).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Main assumptions

A1 Conducted an experiment using one of most popular data set: Australian, in order to objectively compare the proposed method to the current results.

A2 Applied only one type of classifier – SVM.

A3 By using the Winner-Takes-All (WTA) rule, the classification of data was carried out.

2.2. Data set

For research purposes, one of most popular data set was used. The data were obtained from the [UCI Machine Learning Repository](#) [90]. The real data sets with information about borrowers are described below.

• Statlog Australian Credit Approval

- The data includes an information about 690 borrowers/instances.
- The data contains 2 classes: accepted/good (307 instances) or rejected/bad (383 instances) credit application.
- The data instances contains 14 attributes: 8 categorical and 6 numerical (inputs), and 1 class attribute (output: accepted or rejected). To protect the confidentiality of data, the attributes, names and values have been changed to meaningless symbolic data [4].

A comparison between both classes in the data set and description of division of data into training and testing sets for stratified 10-fold cross-validation technique is given in [Table 1](#), and the description of decision attributes is given in [Table 2](#).

2.3. Methods

In this stage of the study, we have applied different algorithms that were used subsequent steps of the processing and analysis of the borrowers' data. Because of to limitation of space, we do not explain them in detail. [Fig. 1](#) represents the most effective combination of methods (framework) which is chosen based on the obtained outcomes for applied algorithms. The major criteria for selection of the best techniques are: (a) evaluation of the sum of errors relevant to all classification methods, and (b) the accuracy coefficient (ACC) 2.5. As a result, the best algorithms were chosen which the best outcomes were obtained by using them.

2.3.1. Phase I – Normalization

Three normalization types were tested which are as follows: (a) lack of normalization, (b) rescaling of data to the specific range [0, 1], and (c) standardization of signal (where 0 stands for mean signal value whereas 1 represents signal standard deviation). The best outcomes were achieved for **rescaling** and **standardization**, which were applied to normalize each of the borrowers' attributes.

2.3.2. Phase II – Feature extraction

Three feature extraction methods were tested: (a) no extraction, (b) principal component analysis (PCA) [91], and (c) self-organizing map (SOM). The best results were obtained for **no extraction** and **PCA** methods. PCA has been applied to strengthen the distinctive features/attributes of the analyzed borrowers' data.

2.3.3. Phase III – Feature selection

In this study, the feature selection approach was used to choose the most important features. To this end, we applied the proposed methodology with and without feature selection. Hence, we applied our methods with: (a) lack of selection, and (b) GA as our feature selection technique. Our outcome showed that **genetic selection** algorithm had the best performance compared to the first step (lack of selection). As mentioned earlier, a genetic algorithm (GA) [70,92] was applied as feature selection approach for selection of attributes of the borrowers' data. In this study, the genes of the population of individuals represented subsequent

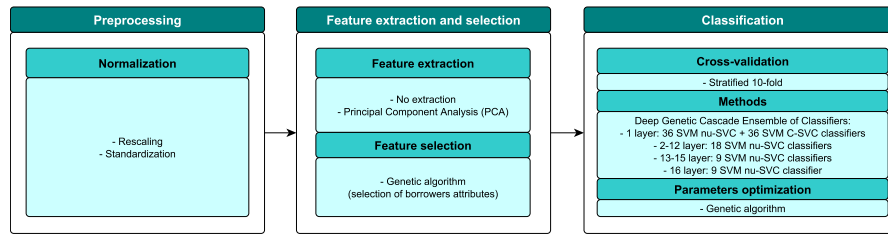


Fig. 1. Illustration of steps involved in the automated analysis of the borrowers' data.

Table 1

A description of division of data into training and testing sets for stratified 10-fold CV.

| Australian Credit Data – 14 attributes | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| | | | stratified 10-fold CV | | | |
| | | | Groups 1–9 | | Group 10 | |
| Class | Description | Instances number | Training set | Testing set | Training set | Testing set |
| C1 | Accepted credit | 307 (45.5%) | 276 | 31 | 279 | 28 |
| C2 | Rejected credit | 383 (55.5%) | 345 | 38 | 342 | 41 |
| Sum | | 690 (100.0%) | 621 (90%) | 69 (10%) | 621 (90%) | 69 (10%) |

Table 2

Decision attributes used to evaluate the credit risk in the Australian credit data set [4,90].

| Attribute | Type | Value |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| Inputs | | |
| A1 | Categorical | 0–1 |
| A2 | Numerical | 13.75–80.25 |
| A3 | Numerical | 0–28 |
| A4 | Categorical | 1–3 |
| A5 | Categorical | 1–14 |
| A6 | Categorical | 1–9 |
| A7 | Numerical | 0–28.5 |
| A8 | Categorical | 0–1 |
| A9 | Categorical | 0–1 |
| A10 | Numerical | 0–67 |
| A11 | Categorical | 0–1 |
| A12 | Categorical | 1–3 |
| A13 | Numerical | 0–2000 |
| A14 | Numerical | 1–100001 |
| Output | | |
| A15 | Categorical | 0–1 |

single attributes/features of borrowers' data given as input for the methods (classifiers). Genes takes the values of 0 to reject feature, or 1 to accept feature. The parameters of GA are indicated in Table 3.

2.3.4. Phase IV – Cross-validation

The **stratified 10-fold CV** [34] is employed. As a result, we created randomly 10 combinations of testing and training data sets. Division of borrowers' data into training and testing sets is illustrated in Table 1.

2.3.5. Phase V – Machine learning methods

Four types of one learner, support vector machine (SVM) [93, 94], were tested including: (a) nu-SVC (classifier), (b) C-SVC (classifier), (c) epsilon-SVR (predictor), and (e) nu-SVR (predictor). This article presents the results of **2 learners: SVM (nu-SVC) classifier, and SVM (C-SVC) classifier** (Table 4), which combination obtained the best result. As part of the research, for each of the 4 learners, four types of kernel functions were also tested: (a) linear, (b) polynomial, (c) radial basis function (RBF), and (d) sigmoid. The best results were obtained for **polynomial, RBF, and sigmoid kernel functions**. Parameters of classifiers: SVM (nu-SVC), and SVM (C-SVC) were presented in Table 3.

2.3.6. Phase VI – Optimization of parameters

One parameter optimization method – **genetic algorithm** (GA) [70,92], was tested. Moreover, **three types of error calculation** were also tested: (1) sum of errors in test data sets, (2) sum of percentage errors in testing and training data sets, and (3) sum of errors in testing and training data sets along with the acceptance features coefficient (Section 2.5). The article presents the results for all types of error calculation. Genetic algorithm parameters were described in Table 3.

2.4. Deep genetic cascade ensemble of classifiers (DGCEC)

Deep Genetic Cascade Ensemble of Classifiers (DGCEC) is a 16-layer system. In the DGCEC method, each classifier from the 1st layer is trained to increase recognition performance of accepted or rejected borrowers based on preprocessed data of borrowers. In the 2nd–16th layers, based on the preprocessed data of borrowers, and responses of classifiers from the first and previous layers, and on the basis of **deep learning** and **genetic feature selection**, process of knowledge extraction take place leading to the final result by the DGCEC method (Fig. 4).

The proposed DGCEC method is a continuation of the research described in papers [95,96].

2.4.1. Philosophy

The motivation to design the DGCEC method was fascination with the processes taking place in the neocortex of the brain. The DGCEC is a hybrid system that comprises the benefits of: (1) evolutionary computation, (2) ensemble learning, and (3) deep learning.

Characteristic features of system:

- **Classifiers (nodes) performing the functions of nerve cells**, combined in the network.
- **Layered learning** – analogously to deep learning, learning process is progressing in stages.
- **Cascade structure** – a new, multi-layered, cascade, structure of ensemble that provides appropriate flow and fusion of information through the mechanism of tutoring.
- **Tutoring** – based on a cascade structure, classifiers (neurons) from subsequent layers can be trained by propagating responses from previous layers and additionally from the first layer.

Table 3

Detailed information about DGCEC system.

Selection of features and classifier parameters optimization

The GA combined with the stratified 10-fold CV was applied for selection of features and classifier parameters optimization

| | |
|--|---|
| GENETIC ALGORITHM | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of individuals in population: 500; • Type of gene representation: vectors of floating-point; • Structure of chromosome of individual (for example, for SVM classifier, type: <i>nu</i> – SVC, kernel function type: <i>RBF</i>): vector of floating point as $[g_1, g_2, f_1, \dots, f_{56}]$, where: g_1 – the 1st gene, which defines value of 1st parameter γ, g_2 – the 2nd gene, which defines value of 2nd parameter ν, and f_1, \dots, f_{56} – 56 gene values from range: $[0, 1]$, which define feature selection, rounded to value 1 – accepted features, or 0 – rejected features. For the other classifier type: <i>SMV</i> C-SVC, and other kernel function types: <i>polynomial</i> and <i>sigmoid</i>, the chromosome consists of appropriate number of genes, g, which defines values of optimizing parameters; • Initial population: random and uniform; • Gene values range for initial population: given for each parameter of classifier in the line <i>Optimizing parameters</i> for the local range of gene values, determined experimentally based on a wider (global) range. Range equal to $[0, 1]$ for selection of features; • Target value of fitness function: 0; • Generation maximum number: 30 for 1st layer and 50 for 2nd–16th layer; • Crossover type: intermediate for 1st and 16th layer, and scattered for 2nd–15th layer; Crossover probability equal to 0.7; • Mutation type: uniform; Mutation probability equal to 0.1; • Number of individuals which will survive, unchanged, to the next generation: 5; • Type of fitness function scaling method: ranking; • Type of parent selection: tournament; • Fitness function was computed based on the following equations (error calculations): |
| | Sum of errors in test sets: |
| | $ERR_T = \frac{err_L}{1000} + err_T \quad (1)$ |
| | Sum of percentage errors in testing and training data sets: |
| | $ERR_{\%} = (err_{L\%} + err_{T\%})/2 \quad (2)$ |
| | Sum of errors in testing and training data sets along with the acceptance features coefficient: |
| | $ERR_{sum} = err_L + err_T + \frac{F_a}{F} \quad (3)$ |
| | where: |
| | err_L – number of errors in 10 training data sets; |
| | err_T – number of errors in 10 testing data sets; |
| | $err_{L\%}$ – percentage error in 10 training sets (the ratio of the sum of errors to the number of all elements, in the training sets: $err_{L\%} = \frac{err_{Lsum}}{L_{sum}} \cdot 100\%$); |
| | $err_{T\%}$ – percentage error in the 10 test sets (the ratio of the sum of errors to the number of all elements, in the test sets: $err_{T\%} = \frac{err_{Tsum}}{T_{sum}} \cdot 100\%$); |
| | $\frac{F_a}{F} = C_F$ – acceptance feature coefficient (Eq. (5), Section 2.5); |
| Classifiers | |
| 1ST LAYER | |
| 72 trained, tested and optimized classifiers – <i>experts</i> : | |
| 2 types of classifiers (nu-SVC and C-SVC) · 3 kernel function types · 2 normalization types · 2 feature extraction types · 3 error calculation types | |
| 2ND–12TH LAYER | |
| 18 (9 for nu-SVC responses + 9 for C-SVC responses) trained, tested and optimized classifiers – <i>judges</i> : | |
| 1 type of classifier (nu-SVC) · 3 kernel function types · 3 error calculation types | |
| 13TH–16TH LAYER | |
| 9 trained, tested and optimized classifiers – <i>judges</i> : | |
| 1 classifier type (nu-SVC) · 3 kernel function types · 3 error calculation types | |
| Basic parameters | |
| SVM | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Type: nu-SVC or C-SVC; • Kernel function type: polynomial or RBF (Gaussian type, radial basis function) or sigmoid; • Number of outputs = 1, from the set: $\{1, 2\}$; |
| | Optimizing parameters |
| | Based on wider (global) range, the final ranges of parameters have been experimentally determined. |
| SVM | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only for nu-SVC type: ν ($-n$) parameter defining width of margins, from the range of $[0.005; 0.8]$ for polynomial, RBF, sigmoid, with resolution 10^{-14}, $500 \cdot 30 = 15000$ values for 1st layer and $500 \cdot 50 = 25000$ values for 2nd–16th layer; • Only for C-SVC type: $cost$ ($-c$) parameter defining width of margins, from the range of $[0.1; 10]$ for polynomial, RBF, and $[0.1; 20]$ for sigmoid, with resolution 10^{-14}, $500 \cdot 30 = 15000$ values for 1st layer and $500 \cdot 50 = 25000$ values for 2nd–16th layer; • $degree$ ($-d$) parameter defining spread of kernel function, from the range of $[0.01; 100]$ for polynomial, with resolution 10^{-14}, $500 \cdot 30 = 15000$ values for 1st layer and $500 \cdot 50 = 25000$ values for 2nd–16th layer; • γ ($-g$) parameter defining spread of kernel function, from the range of $[0.001; 0.1]$ for polynomial, $[0.01; 100]$ for RBF, and $[0.001; 1]$ for sigmoid, with resolution 10^{-14}, $500 \cdot 30 = 15000$ values for 1st layer and $500 \cdot 50 = 25000$ values for 2nd–16th layer; • $coef0$ ($-r$) parameter defining spread of kernel function, from the range of $[0.01; 5]$ for polynomial, and $[0.01; 10]$ for sigmoid, with resolution 10^{-14}, $500 \cdot 30 = 15000$ values for 1st layer and $500 \cdot 50 = 25000$ values for 2nd–16th layer; |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

- **Genetic layered training** – optimization of the system structure by eliminating bad experts (incorrect responses of classifiers):

- **Connection optimization** between classifiers (nodes) from adjacent layers (selection of features) realized by a genetic algorithm as an

Table 4

A comparison of the best obtained results, for single classifiers from first layer, for 6 types of SVM.

| Coefficients | Classifiers | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | SVM | SVM | SVM | SVM | SVM | SVM |
| Type | C – SVC | nu – SVC | C – SVC | C – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC |
| Normalization | Standardization | Rescaling | Standardization | Standardization | Standardization | Standardization |
| Feature extraction | PCA | None | None | None | None | PCA |
| Errors | err_t | err_t | err_t | err_t | err_t | err_t |
| Kernel function | RBF | RBF | Polynomial | Sigmoid | Polynomial | Sigmoid |
| Results for training sets | | | | | | |
| ERR_{sum} | 562 | 585 | 535 | 751 | 742 | 757 |
| ACC | 90.95% | 90.58% | 91.39% | 87.91% | 88.05% | 87.81% |
| Results for test sets | | | | | | |
| ERR_{sum} | 83 | 82 | 81 | 80 | 80 | 76 |
| ACC | 87.97% | 88.12% | 88.26% | 88.41% | 88.41% | 88.99% |

Table 5

Summary of the best results obtained, for subsequent DGCEC system layers (best classifier from first layer and best meta-classifiers from 2nd–16th layer, see Fig. 4).

| Coefficients | Layer | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|----------|----------|-------------|------------|----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 12 | 13 | 15 | 16 |
| Type | nu – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC | nu – SVC |
| Errors | err_t | err_t | err_{pro} | err_t | err_t | err_{sum} | err_{sum} | err_{sum} |
| Kernel function | Sigmoid | RBF | RBF | Polynomial | RBF | RBF | RBF | Sigmoid |
| Results for training sets | | | | | | | | |
| ERR_{sum} | 757 | 165 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 47 |
| ACC | 87.81% | 97.34% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 99.24% |
| Results for test sets | | | | | | | | |
| ERR_{sum} | 76 | 55 | 47 | 36 | 29 | 25 | 20 | 18 |
| ACC | 88.99% | 92.03% | 93.19% | 94.78% | 95.80% | 96.38% | 97.10% | 97.39% |

analogy of removing connections between nerve cells in the brain. Unconnected classifiers (neurons) are eliminated (selection of classifiers).

- **Feedback** take place during training as GA (genetic optimization) and as cross-validation (training) analogous to back connections between nerve cells in the brain.
- **Diversity** of data pre-processing, classifiers (nodes), feature extraction and connections as an analogy to the different types of signal processing, nerve cells, and irregular connections between nerve cells in the neocortex of brain.
 - Diversity of **component classifiers** (nodes) – 72 models of classifiers in first layer of system (2 types of SVMs, 2 types of normalizations, 2 types of feature extractions, 3 types of kernel functions and 3 types of parameter optimizations based on 3 types of error calculations), and 18 models of classifiers in 2nd–12th layers of system (2 types of SVM, 3 types of kernel functions, 3 types of error calculations), and 9 models of classifiers in 13–16th layer (3 types of kernel function, 3 types of error calculation).
 - Diversity of **data pre-processing and feature extraction** in the 1st layer (2 normalization types and 2 feature extraction types);
 - Diversity of **connections** – between layers do not take place all possible connections between nodes (classifiers);
- **Bipolarity** – values of transferred signals from the set {0; 1} analogous to the values of action potentials of neurons;

networks consisting of more than 2 layers are considered as deep. This is similar to the structure of the brain, which consists of 7 layers.

- **Deep multilayered structure (deep learning)** – based on the definition of deep learning, networks consisting of more than 2 layers are considered as deep. This is similar to 7-layer structure of the neocortex of brain.
- **Abstract learning** – internal feature extraction, in the DGCEC system, information flows to successive layers of the structure creating more and more complex features (abstract concepts analogous to brain function).

Name – **deep** – because the DGCEC system topology is deep as it consists of 16 layers, **genetic** – because GA has in the study a key role, **cascade** – because the structure of the system looks like a cascade, and **ensemble of classifiers** – because the developed method comprise of many classifiers.

Layered learning – at the beginning, supervised training applied for 72 classifiers from the 1st layer. Then, supervised genetic training of 18 classifiers from the 2nd layer were performed based on the responses achieved from 72 classifier models from the 1st layer of system. And then, analogously, this training goes through all layers up to 16.

Cross-validation – 10-fold CV was combined with GA, which means that each individual (vector of features) from whole population was tested on all 10 training and test data sets. The effect of overfitting is reduced due to this approach.

1st and 16th layer

- **Genetic selection of features** – was used in the first and 16th layer for **selection** of features (borrower's attributes) and classifiers parameters **optimization** of 72 classifiers.
- **Optimization** – was carried out applying GA (Table 3), which simultaneously optimizing classifiers parameters and choosing input features.

2nd-15th layers

- **Genetic layered training** – was used to optimizing structure for 2nd–15th layer of DGCEC system, based on reference responses and selected features (*experts or judges votes*) from 1st to 14th layer. Genetic algorithm was used to discard the wrong responses (*votes*) of classifiers from 1st to 14th layer, based on the errors in all training and test data sets, and accept only reliable responses/*votes* (Fig. 5).
- **Votes** – each classifier (*expert*) has 1 output with two values (classes) which are “1” or “2”.

2.4.2. First layer

The first layer of DGCEC comprises 72 classifiers (*experts*): 36 SVM nu-SVC (2 types of normalization, 2 types of feature extraction, 3 types of kernel function and 3 types of error calculation) + 36 SVM C-SVC optimized to minimize errors in recognition of good or bad borrower's. At the inputs of each of the 72 classifiers, are given selected attributes of borrowers, comprise the most characteristic features – selected by the genetic algorithm. For each of the 72 SVM classifiers, the following parameters have been optimized: gamma in kernel function (γ , -g), nu of nu-SVC (ν , -n) or cost of C-SVC (C, -c) [94].

2.4.3. 2nd–12th layers

The 2nd–12th layers of the system consist of 18 classifiers *judges*: 9 SVM nu-SVC + 9 SVM nu-SVC (3 types of kernel functions and 3 types of error calculations, Fig. 4). These 18 meta-classifiers were developed to assessment *votes of experts* from the 1st layer and prior layers. *Judges* were assigned to the two groups of classifiers from first layer, the first 9 *judges* evaluated the responses/*votes* from 36–45 SVM nu-SVC classifiers, next 9 *judges* evaluated the responses/*votes* from 36–45 SVM C-SVC classifiers.

2.4.4. 13th–15th layers

The 13th–15th layer of the system consists of 9 classifiers *judges*: 9 SVM nu-SVC (3 types of kernel functions and 3 types of error calculations, Fig. 4). These 9 meta-classifiers were developed to assessment *votes of experts* from the 1st layer and previous layers. 9 *judges* evaluated the responses/*votes* from 90–99 SVM nu-SVC classifiers.

2.4.5. 16th layer

The 16th layer of DGCEC system consist of 9 classifiers *judges*: 9 SVM nu-SVC (3 types of kernel functions and 3 types of error calculations, Fig. 4). These 9 meta-classifiers were designed to evaluate the *vote of expert* from one previous layer (best response from 1 best SVM nu-SVC classifier from 15th later) and selection of 56 pre-processed attributes of borrower's. In this layer, finally, one best response from 9 meta-classifiers is derived.

Optimal parameter values were selected based on testing many configuration of parameters for the genetic algorithm and the SVM classifier (Table 3).

Figs. 2 and 3 presents the diagram of successive stages of information processing in *deep genetic cascade ensemble of classifiers* (DGCEC). In Fig. 4, diagram of connections between layers, and

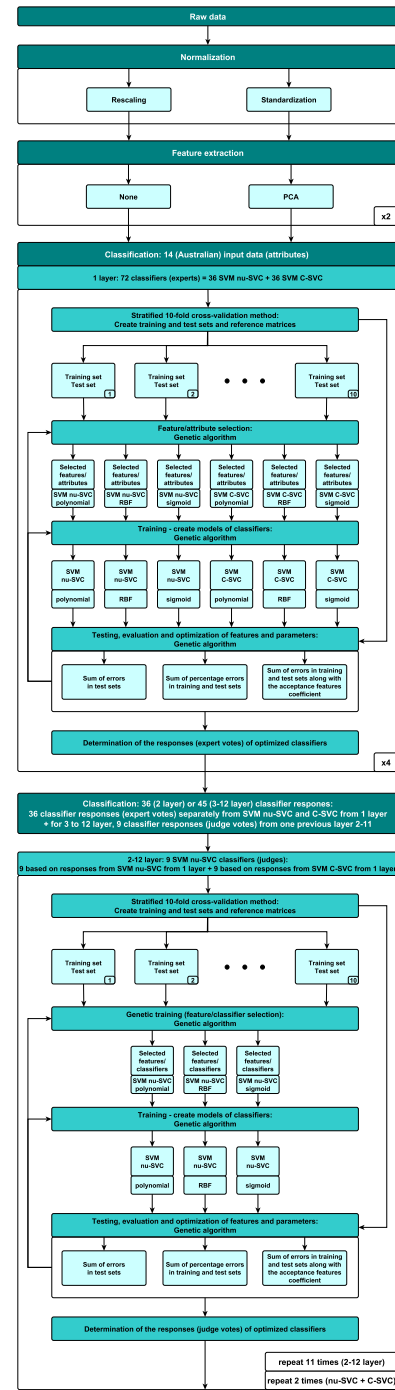


Fig. 2. Part I of DGCEC system indicating the information processing.

information fusion and flow in DGCEC system is shown. In Fig. 5, diagram of genetic layered training (for exemplary chromosomes of individuals and a data from single borrower) is presented.

The proposed method (DGCEC system) can combine several classical classifiers to enhance the performance of prediction. This method showed significant performance as compared to the single methods [95,97–117].

2.5. Evaluation criteria

In order to evaluate the performance of chosen algorithms, the following coefficients were computed [118,119]: (a) sum of

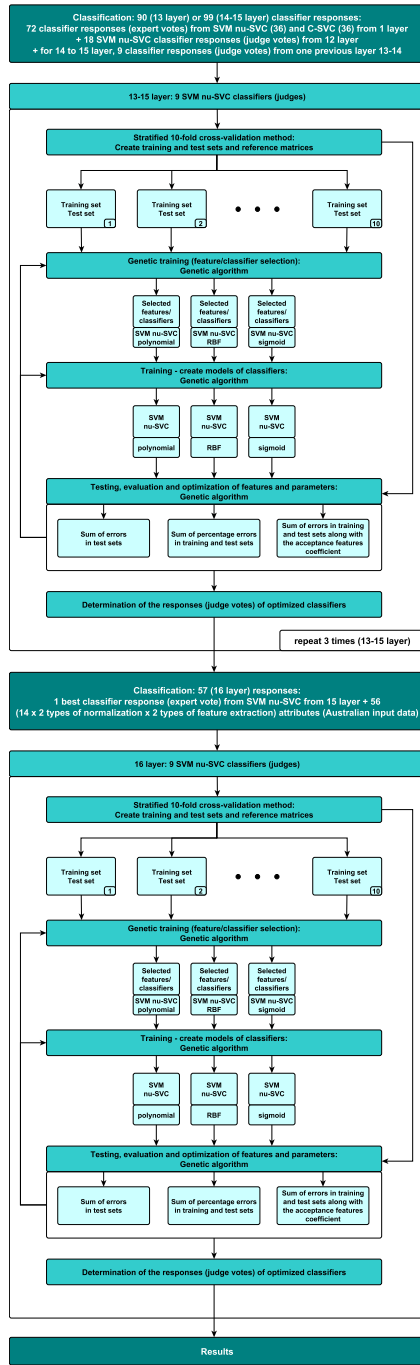


Fig. 3. Part II of DGCEC system illustrating the flow of information.

errors (ERR_{sum}), and (b) accuracy (ACC). These coefficients were evaluated by using the generated confusion matrices. Additionally was calculated (c) acceptance feature coefficient (C_F).

The equations of mentioned coefficients are as follows:

- **Sum of errors** (ERR_{sum}) is equal to the total number of incorrect classifications (for 690 classifications from test sets).
- **Accuracy**

$$ACC = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN} \right) \cdot 100\%/N \quad (4)$$

where:

N equal to 10, is the sets number used in the stratified 10-fold cross-validation,

TP represents the True Positive,
 TN represents the True Negative,
 FP represents the False Positive, and
 FN represents the False Negative.

- **Acceptance feature coefficient** (C_F) – total number of accepted features F_a to total number of all features F (ratio in percent). Measure of the performance of genetic selection of features. C_F is computed using following equation:

$$C_F = \frac{F_a}{F} \cdot 100\% \quad (5)$$

3. Results

The proposed methodology of this study was implemented in the MATLAB R2014b environment and used LIBSVM library [94]. The calculations were carried out on an Intel Core i7-6700K 4.0 GHz computer with 32 GB of RAM (only a single core was used).

Table 4 shows the comparison of the best performances using a single classifiers from first layer (6 types of SVM: 2 types and 3 kernel functions).

Table 5 shows the comparison of the best performances for subsequent layers of DGCEC system (best classifier from first layer and best meta-classifiers from 2nd to 16th layer).

The Fig. 6 shows the confusion matrix of the proposed DGCEC system for the testing sets.

The summary of outcomes, obtained in predicting accurately the Australian credit scoring using the same database is shown in Table 6. All compared results were obtained using the same database – Statlog Australian Credit Approval. The summary also contains information about the data analysis methods used.

4. Discussion

4.1. Hypothesis

The obtained results proves the hypothesis that, our proposed novel deep genetic cascade ensemble of SVM classifiers (which called DGCEC system) will enable the automatic, effective, and fast prediction of credit scoring based on using Australian borrowers data.

The results, summarized in Table 5 indicates the superiority of developed method. The presented results shows that the binary classification **accuracy** of proposed DGCEC method is **97.39%**. The obtained result out performed all the published works so far (see Table 6). It can be noted from Table 6 that, the best accuracy in the previous studies was 91.97% whereas our proposed methodology achieved better performance of 97.39%. This helps the organizations to have a higher prediction accuracy (approximately 5.42%). The methods described in the discussion (Table 6) are less complex and less specialized to predict creditworthiness. Hence, the results obtained by these methods are lower than the results obtained by our DGCEC system.

4.2. Single machine learning methods

By analyzing only single machine learning methods (Table 4), it can be seen that the following results were achieved using different classifiers. To the best to the worst ACC: SVM (nu-SVC, Sigmoid) = 88.99%, SVM (nu-SVC, Polynomial) = 88.41%, SVM (C-SVC, Sigmoid) = 88.41%, SCM (C-SVC, Polynomial) = 88.26%, SVM (nu-SVC, RBF) = 88.12% and SVM (C-SVC, RBF) = 87.97%.

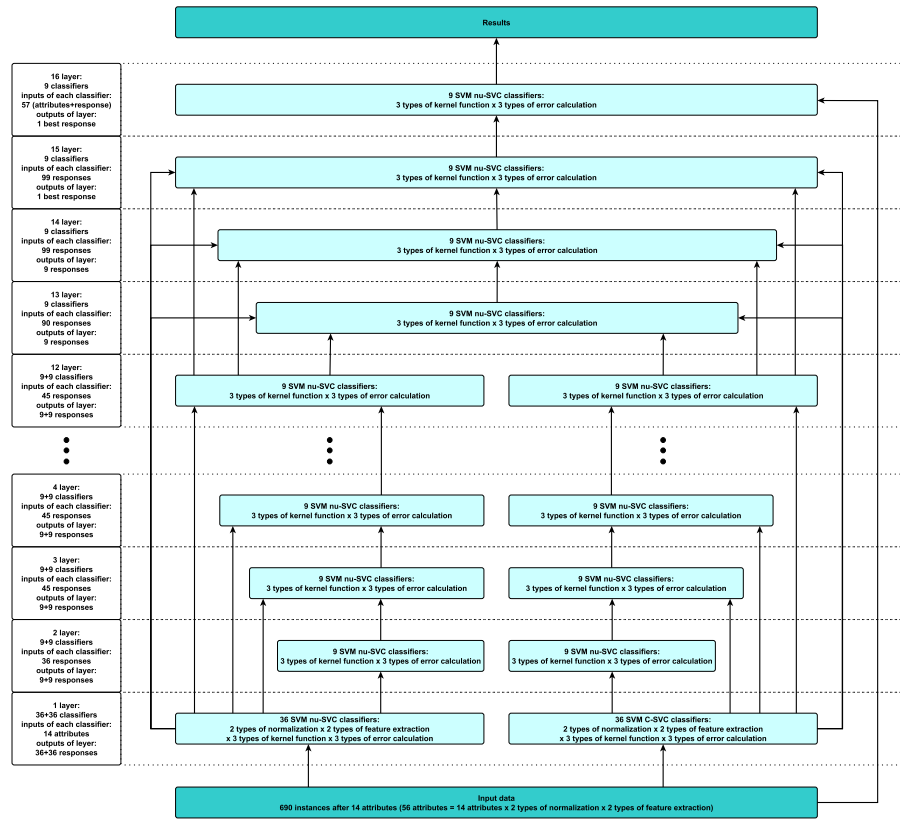


Fig. 4. Diagram of combinations between layers, information fusion and flow in DGCEC method.

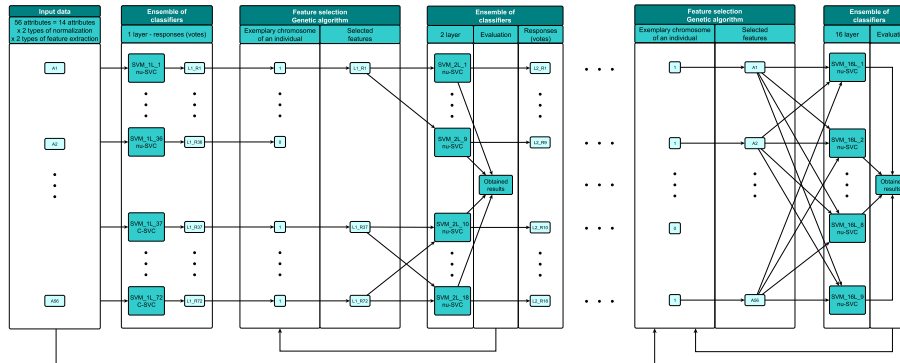


Fig. 5. Scheme of genetic layered training (feature selection by genetic algorithm) used to connecting classifiers of individuals and a single borrower data.

4.3. Deep genetic cascade ensemble of SVM classifiers

As we can see in Table 5, the performance of the innovative DGCEC system increased significantly with subsequent layers. This is due to the tutoring mechanism that occurred within the structure of the system (layers 2nd–15th, Fig. 4). This mechanism is analogous to human memory, resulted in memorizing and transferring the most important information to the next layer of the system.

The tutoring effect was obtained through the diversity of: (a) component classifiers, (b) optimization of component classifiers (various error calculations – fitness functions) and (c) system structure (connections between classifiers/nodes).

We have employed two mechanisms to prevent over-fitting: (a) stratified 10-fold cross-validation, and (b) 3 types of error calculations (GA fitness function, Table 3) with more emphasis on evaluating errors in testing sets than in training sets.

Based on the structure of the system (Fig. 4) and comparing the obtained results (Table 5), we can conclude that the use of single machine learning method (only the first layer of the system) achieved an accuracy of 88.99%, after adding the second layer to the system (creating ensemble of classifiers), the accuracy increased by more than 3% to 92.03%, finally after applying deep learning by adding 14 subsequent layers, the accuracy increased again by above 5% to ACC = 97.39%.

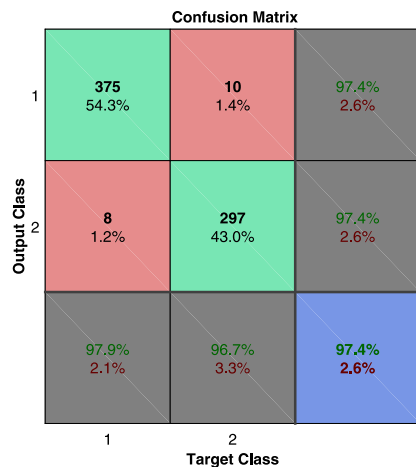
It is worth mentioning that the tutoring mechanism (multi-layer structure of the system, 2nd–15th layer) also influenced in the increase of the classification accuracy of training sets (Table 5), which is similar to the processes occurring in the human brain.

A very important aspect is also the genetic layer training (Fig. 5) that affects the optimization of the DGCEC system structure. Genetic training consists of two aspects: (1) elimination of unnecessary attributes of borrowers in the first and 16th layer of

Table 6

Summary of results obtained in predicting the Australian credit scoring automatically using the same database – Statlog Australian Credit Approval.

| No. | Work | Year | CV | Feature extraction | Classifier | ACC |
|-----|--------------------------------------|-------------|----------------|---|---|---------------|
| 1. | Zhang, Zhou, Leung, Zheng | 2010 | 10-fold | – | Vertical bagging decision trees | 91.97% |
| 2. | Tsai | 2014 | 5-fold | SOM (Self-organizing map) | MLP lub Homo. Classifier (MLP or CART or LR) | 91.61% |
| 3. | Tsai | 2009 | 5-fold | PCA (principle component analysis) | Ensembles (weighted voting) MLP | 89.93% |
| 4. | Xu, Zhou, Wang | 2009 | 10-fold | – | HARA (hub authority ranking applicants) | 89.28% |
| 5. | Beque, Lessman | 2017 | 10-fold | – | Boosting – Ensemble of SVM (linear) | 89.20% |
| 6. | Gorzaczany, Rudziski | 2016 | 10-fold | – | Fuzzy rule-based classifier with multi-objective evolutionary optimization | 89.10% |
| 7. | Zhang, Gao, Shi | 2014 | 10-fold | – | Multi-Criteria Optimization Classifier (MCO) | 88.84% |
| 8. | Chang, Yeh | 2012 | 10-fold | – | Artificial immune classifier based on the artificial immune network (AINE-based classifier) | 88.70% |
| 9. | Vukovic, Delibasic, Uzelac, Suknovic | 2012 | 10-fold | – | Hybrid model: CBRPGA (combination of CBR and | 88.55% |
| 10. | Alaraj, Abbod | 2016 | 5-fold | Multivariate Adaptive Regression Splines (MARS) | Heterogeneous hybrid ensemble with consensus approach combination rule | 88.10% |
| | Proposed method – DGCEC | 2019 | 10-fold | None + PCA | Deep Genetic Cascade Ensemble of SVM Classifiers (16-layer system) | 97.39% |

**Fig. 6.** Confusion matrix for DGCEC system, for test sets.

DGCEC system and (2) selection of nodes (classifiers) in 2nd–15th layer of DGCEC system.

We have obtained the highest performance for proposed DGCEC system with the following salient features: (1) diversity and quality of classifiers (nodes) included in the system, (2) cascade system structure (tutoring mechanism and appropriate genetic layered training), and (3) extraction and selection of features occurring in the subsequent layers of system.

The advantages of the proposed solution are: (1) designed novel machine learning method – deep genetic cascade ensemble of SVM classifiers, (2) novel genetic layered training is applied to the combined classifiers, and (3) obtained highest prediction performance. But, our developed model is a complex structure, requiring long-term training and optimization (similar to deep learning technique).

4.4. Australian data set

The proposed system has been tested on the Australian data set. However, DGCEC system is not limited to this data set only.

DGCEC system with a similar data processing, structure, and training mechanism, after training and optimization on another data sets achieved high performance [95,96].

5. Conclusion

The goal of the study was to design novel deep genetic cascade ensemble of SVM classifiers (16-layer system), based on evolutionary computation, ensemble learning and deep learning techniques, that enables to present the effective binary classification of accepted or rejected borrowers. The research used the Statlog Australian (690 instances) credit approval which can be accessed from public machine learning repository data sets.

The novel method was based on the combination of methods including: 2 types of SVM classifiers, 2 types of normalization, 2 types of feature extraction, 3 types of kernel functions, 3 types of parameter optimization, stratified 10-fold CV, ensemble learning, deep learning, layered learning, supervised training, feature selection using genetic algorithm (attributes), optimization of classifiers parameters by using genetic algorithm, and also a new genetic layered training technique (for selection of classifiers).

Deep genetic cascade ensemble of SVM classifiers (DGCEC) achieved a binary classification accuracy of **97.39% (18 errors per 690 classifications)**. Compared to the current studies, our results are the best to date. The obtained outcomes indicated the efficiency and effectiveness of the proposed methodology for credit scoring prediction which is based on: (1) a genetic layered training which applied to DGCEC system in order to optimize its performance, (2) diversity of component classifiers, and finally (3) cascade structure of DGCEC method.

The proposed method is worth developing because of the very promising outcomes achieved. The future works include: (1) modification of the system structure through the use of various single machine learning methods (classifiers, e.g. kNN, PNN, fuzzy system etc.), (2) testing the performance of DGCEC system using other data sets. Moreover, (3) other types of evolutionary computation techniques such as particle swarm optimization (PSO) can be used instead of GA, and (4) testing the DGCEC system using blind-fold cross validation technique to obtain more generalized model.

Declaration of competing interest

No author associated with this paper has disclosed any potential or pertinent conflicts which may be perceived to have impending conflict with this work. For full disclosure statements refer to <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2019.105740>.

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