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# Deep Learning, Feature Selection and Model Bias with Home Mortgage Loan Classification

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**Keywords:** Deep Learning, Feature Selection, Home Mortgage Disclosure Act, Loan Classification, Financial Technology.

**Abstract:** Analysis of home mortgage applications is critical for financial decision-making for commercial and government lending organisations. The Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) requires financial organisations to provide data on loan applications. Accordingly, the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (CFPB) provides loan application data by year. This loan application data can be used to design regression and classification models. However, the amount of data is too large to train for modest computational resources. To address this, we used reservoir sampling to take suitable subsets for processing. A second issue is that the number of features are limited to the original 78 features in the HMDA records. There are a large number of other data source and associated features that may improve model accuracy. We augment the HMDA data with ten economic indicator features from an external data source. We found that the additional economic features do not improve the model's accuracy. We designed and compared several classical and recent classification approaches to predict the loan approval decision. We show that the Decision Tree, XG Boost, Random Forest, and Support Vector Machine classifiers achieve between 82-85% accuracy while Naive Bayes results in the lowest accuracy of 79%. We found that a Deep Neural Network classifier had the best classification performance with almost 89% f1 accuracy on the HMDA data. We performed feature selection to determine what features are the most important loan classification. We found that the more obvious loan amount and applicant income were important. Interestingly we found that when we left race and gender in the feature set, unfortunately, they were selected as an important feature by the machine learning methods. This highlights the need for diligence in financial systems to make sure the machine is not biased.

## 1 INTRODUCTION


We used the Home Disclosure Mortgage Act Data (Bureau, 2017) covering the years 2007-2017 (McCoy, 2007). We augmented the model by adding economic indicator data from Trading Economics (Economics, 2023).


The Home Disclosure Mortgage Act (HMDA) is used to make sure financial institutions are maintaining, reporting, and disclosing loans properly. HMDA can be used furthermore to find discriminatory patterns. We then proposed the question. If a loan was approved why was it approved? If a loan was rejected why was it rejected? This can be used to find discrim-


inatory patterns, issues in our economy, and even future problems. We even combined exogenous data to help with our findings. We started looking at the data in August and figuring out how we wanted to process it. The data was from 2007-2017 and contained over 165 million records. The data needed to be slimmed down. We used reservoir sampling to get about ten thousand samples from each year.

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To address the data size issue, we propose stratified (by year) reservoir sampling for taking representative samples to train machine learning classification models. We then perform feature extraction on the sample. We use 37 of the original 78 loan applica-

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tion features. These are then one-hot-encoded and standardised to create 230 total features. Finally, we convert the loan actions (seven categories) into a binary classification of  $\{approve, deny\}$ . To address the interpretability, we design, show, and analyse a decision tree model for loan applications. The decision tree more naturally provides transparent/explainable decisions. We compare the decision tree against other traditional classifiers (Naive Bayes, Support Vector Machine, RandomForest), as well as, more recent approaches including a custom deep neural network and a boosted ensemble tree method (XGBoost). We found that the Deep Neural Network (DNN) classifier produced the highest accuracy of nearly 89%, followed by RandomForest and the more recent XG-Boost classifier around 84%.

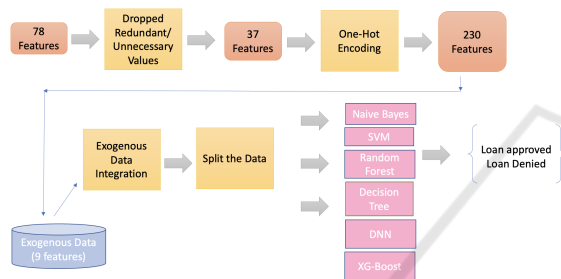


Figure 1: Overview.

The contributions of this paper are as follows:

- Approach to address computational issues with large amount of loan data.
- Explainable AI: Develop/analyse using decision trees for loan applications.
- Feature Selection: Determine the most important loan application features for approving loans.

We also provide evidence that specific economic (exogenous) data was ineffective at improving loan classification accuracy.

## 2 RELATED WORK

To take a uniform random sample from a long, possibly infinite, stream, Vitter (Vitter, 1985) proposes an efficient technique based on using a reservoir. Reservoir sampling ensures that  $k$  items are sampled from  $n$  items uniformly even for extremely large datasets that would exceed the memory of a computer.

Fishbein, et al. (Fishbein and Essene, 2010), explains about the history of HMDA and ways it can be improved. Bhutta, et al. (Bhutta et al., 2017), provide an exploratory data analysis of HMDA but do not develop any inference models. Lai, et al. (Lai et al.,

2023), recently proposed an ordinary least square regression model, with roughly seven features, using the HMDA data and CEO confidence to predict lending results.

Sama Ghoba, Nathan Colaner. (Ghoba and Colaner, 2021) Used a matching-based Algorithm to find discriminatory patterns. Agha, et al. (Agha and Pramathevan, 2023), investigate gender differences in corporate financial decisions using an executive decision dataset. They use more traditional general linear models / hypothesis tests for analysis. Wheeler, et al. (Wheeler and Olson, 2015), used the HMDA data with manually selected features to develop general linear models for detecting racial bias in lending.

To our knowledge, this is the first research that develops machine learning inference models from the HMDA dataset. Furthermore, our work is the first to show that machine learning models may use gender and race for loan decisions, which is illegal for many financial institutions.

## 3 HMDA DATA PREPROCESSING

The original data was downloaded from the CFPB HMDA website (Bureau, 2017) and unzipped into comma-separated (CSV) files. Each year has its own CSV file. We take a uniform sample from each year. Each year will have 78 features, however, many of the features are redundant (code versions, e.g. state=Alabama, state\_code=2).

### 3.1 Reservoir Sampling

We used Stratified Sampling to get a certain amount of records from each year. This was done because there were so many records from each year. With over 26 million records picking a sample randomly was imperative. Therefore using an algorithm from the randomized algorithms family was the answer. The reservoir sampling was what we used and provided excellent results. With  $N$  being as big as it was  $K$  was randomly selected each time.

### 3.2 Remove Redundant Features

We then dropped features that are redundant e.g. State Code and State name (e.g. state=Alabama, state\_code=2). Table 1 shows the 37 features that were removed. These features were removed due to the repetition and or not having any relevance.

Table 1: Removed Features.

Removed Redundant Features		
sequence_number	application_date_indicator	agency_code
agency_name	as_of_year	applicant_ethnicity
loan_purpose	applicant_sex	co_applicant_sex
purchaser_type	hoepa_status, property_type	lien_status
co_applicant_ethnicity	state_code	respondent_id
msamd	msamd_name	preapproval
county_name	county_code	edit_status_name
edit_status	loan_type	

Table 2: Base Features.

Features		
agency_abbr	loan_type_name	property_type_name
loan_purpose_name	owner_occupancy_name	owner_occupancy
loan_amount_000s	preapproval_name	action_taken_name
action_taken	state_abbr	census_tract_number
applicant_ethnicity_name	co_applicant_ethnicity_name	applicant_race_name_1
applicant_race_name_2	applicant_race_name_3	applicant_race_name_4
applicant_race_name_5	co_applicant_race_name_1	co_applicant_race_name_2
co_applicant_race_name_3	co_applicant_race_name_4	co_applicant_race_name_5
applicant_sex_name	co_applicant_sex_name	applicant_income_000s
purchaser_type_name	rate_spread	hoepa_status_name
lien_status_name	population	minority_population
hud_median_family_income	tract_to_msamd_income	number_of_1_to_4_family_units
number_of_owner_occupied_units		

### 3.3 Remove Non-Attainable Features

We then dropped the non-attainable features since that is the answer we are trying to get through regression and classification. e.g. denial reason (and coded version). After this step, there are 37 features. These were added later to the application for further testing.

### 3.4 One Hot Encoding

Table 2 shows the base features. Many of these features are categorical and need to be numerical for the subsequent classifiers (specifically the deep neural network). We used sci-kit-learn one-hot encoding (Pedregosa et al., 2011), however, if a code does not exist in one year but does exist in another year, then we would end up with inconsistent features. Therefore, we developed our own one-hot encoding that takes a list of categories for each feature to be encoded. For example, agency\_abbr\_OTs and agency\_abbr\_OCC each have their own column instead of all the agency\_abbr being together in one column. From the base features, this produces 230 numerical features.

### 3.5 Handle Missing Values

We choose to take the average to handle missing values. All values that are missing for a feature are given the average of the available features.

### 3.6 Multi to Binary Classification Conversion

We are trying to classify the action taken given the 230 variables. Here are the eight.

1. Loan originated
2. Application approved but not accepted
3. Application denied by financial institution
4. Application withdrawn by applicant
5. File closed for incompleteness
6. Loan purchased by the institution
7. Preapproval request denied by financial institution
8. Preapproval request approved but not accepted (optional reporting)

After analysis, the point we are making is why or why not someone was approved. We did not need, for instance *Application Withdrawn* or *Loan Purchased by Financial Institution*. Therefore we dropped everything but *Loan originated*, *Application approved* but not accepted (still counts as denied), and then *Application denied by financial institution*. We dropped everything by using simple code with a conditional statement. We needed a clear-cut answer henceforth why went binary.

### 3.7 Merging by Year

We take each year's  $k = 10000$  items for each year and combine them into one CSV file. We added an extra feature that includes the year of the record.

As we were working on this, we found government data ranging (the Exogenous data) from US Bankruptcies to US government Pay Rolls. We decided to add to US Bankruptcies, US Consumer Spending, US Disposable Personal Income, US GDP Growth Rate, US New Home Sales, US Personal Income, and US Personal Savings Rate. All these correlate with one another. For instance, if US New Home sales are up for the year 2013 then we know the number of loans given out will be up for the same year. For the set up we took each year of the Exogenous data got the average and put it with the corresponding year of the HMDA data.

Being able to combine Exogenous data would help us understand the algorithm better and have a better understanding of why some people were approved and others disapproved.

For the Exogenous data, we did *Bankruptcy*, *Consumer Confidence*, *Disposable Income*, *Personal Income*, *Personal Savings*, *Prime Lending Rate*, *New Home Sales*, *GDP Growth Rate*, and *Consumer Spending*. After we put it together our data was 110,000 rows and 88 Columns. We then followed the same process and one hot encoded and the results were (110,000,237)

- Bankruptcies were used to see why some people could be denied loans.
- Consumer Confidence was to show the business conditions that year.
- Disposable Income was added because the more income that can be spent the more loans can be given out.
- Personal Income was added because personal income matters on what type of loans are given out.
- Personal Savings was added because the more savings people have the more they can put the money towards a house.

- Prime Lending Rate was added because it is major on how many loans have been given out.
- New Home Sales was added because people need loans for new home.s
- GDP Growth Rate was added to see how much our economy has grown and to compare it to our results.
- Consumer Spending was added due to it's important of the correlation between it and the GDP Growth Rate.

## 4 CLASSIFICATION ALGORITHM DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

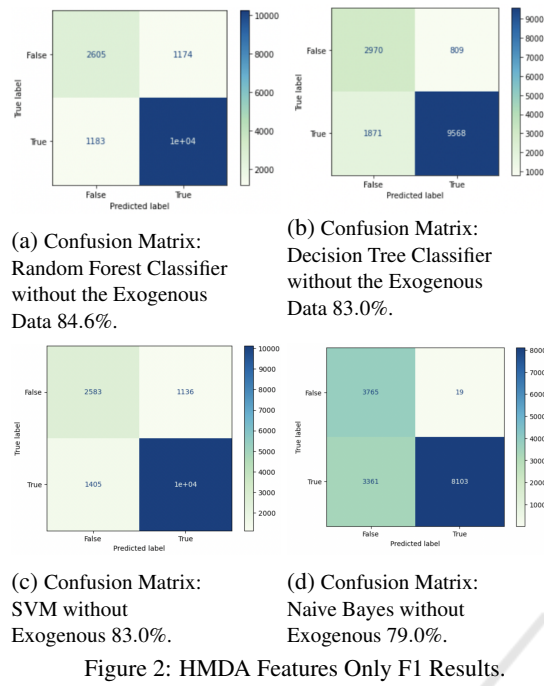
We considered several classical classification algorithms, which include Random Forest, Decision Tree, Support Vector Machine (SVM), and Naive Bayes. These classifiers cover a diverse set of approaches including tree/entropy-based (Random Forest and Decision Tree), probabilistic (Naive Bayes), and maximum-margin hyperplane (SVM). We also consider a more recent Deep Neural Network classifier (DNN).

### 4.1 Classical Classification Algorithms

We take the processed data and conduct experiments to evaluate each classifier. We randomly split the combined file of 110000 records into a train and test (70% train set, 30% test set). The classification task is to take the processed features and predict whether a loan is approved or denied (i.e. binary classification). For each experiment, we use a confusion matrix to show our findings. This is a table to show the performance of the algorithm. The bottom of the confusion matrix indicates what the classifier predicted and the left indicates the actual loan approval. True means the loan was approved and False means the loan was denied. The True-True intersection means that it was predicted accurately by the classifier. The False-False intersection means that it was also predicted accurately. Whereas False-True and True-False mean that it was not predicted accurately. Figure 2 shows the confusion matrices for the Random Classifier and Decision Tree classifiers.

The Decision Tree was chosen for simplicity purposes. Each node in the tree splits off into a more specific subtrees and filters down to a leaf node. The data is then captured, understood, and analyzed. The Decision Tree is notable in that it can provide a more ex-





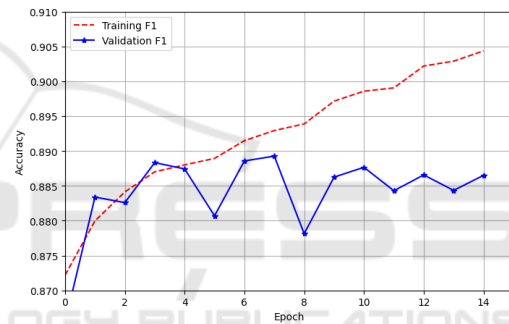
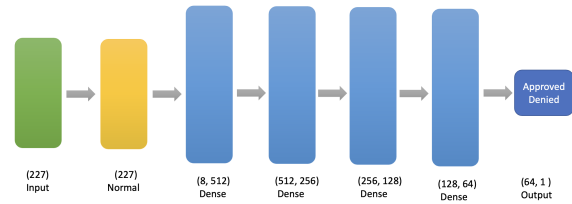
plainable interpretation of the decision-making, critical for financial guidelines. Random Forest is an ensemble of decision trees. These two methods are some of the best for classification. We also use Support Vector Machines (SVMs) which can also be used for classification and regression. The advantages are effective in high-dimensional spaces. Still effective in cases where the number of dimensions is greater than the number of samples. SVM had an accuracy of 83.0%. Finally, we consider the Naive Bayes classifier which is a probabilistic machine learning approach. Below are the F1 accuracy results for each of these classification algorithms.

- The Random Forest accuracy was 84.6%
- The Decision Tree accuracy was 83.0%
- Support Vector Machine accuracy was 83.5%
- The Naive Bayes accuracy was 79.0%

## 4.2 Deep Neural Network

Deep neural networks (DNN) are known to perform well for certain problems. To compare against this more recent method, we designed a deep learning architecture. The multiple layers can allow additional features to be learned using a technique known as *deep learning* (Bengio et al., 2021). Ideally, the early layers would learn basic features and the subsequent layers would use them to learn more complex features. Figure 3 depicts the architecture of five layers with a binary layer at the end. We used the

TensorFlow deep learning framework to implement the architecture. We used the *Adam* optimiser along with the binary cross entropy loss function. To mitigate overfitting, we used the framework's default implementation of early stopping. Figure 4 shows the learning curve for one experiment. As shown, when the difference between the training and validation accuracy becomes significant at epoch 14 the training ceases. The best validation F1 for this experiment was approximately 88.9% in epoch 7.



## 4.3 XG Boost

One classifier we worked with was XG Boost standing for Extreme Gradient Boosting. This classifier combines weaker models and then produces a stronger prediction. It has also been known to work well with large data sets such as ours. XG Boost achieved an average accuracy of 84%.

## 4.4 Feature Selection

To better understand the features and to select a more parsimonious model, we perform feature selection using the scikit-learn library (Pedregosa et al., 2011). We use the select  $k$  best features (those with the highest score) using two common methods:  $\chi^2$  method and mutual information method. For convenience, we chose to use the seven ( $k = 7$ ) most important features as determined by both methods. Table 3 shows the features chosen by both approaches in order

Table 3: Comparison of Feature Selection Methods (k=7).

Index	$\chi^2$	Mutual Information
1	property_type_name_Manufactured housing	loan_amount_000s
2	loan_purpose_name_Home purchase	applicant_income_000s
3	loan_purpose_name_Home improvement	rate_spread
4	preapproval_name_Preapproval was not requested	tract_to_msamd_income
5	applicant_race_name_1_Black or African American	loan_purpose_name_Home purchase
6	co_applicant_sex_name_Female	loan_purpose_name_Home improvement
7	lien_status_name_Not secured by a lien	co_applicant_race_name_5_nan

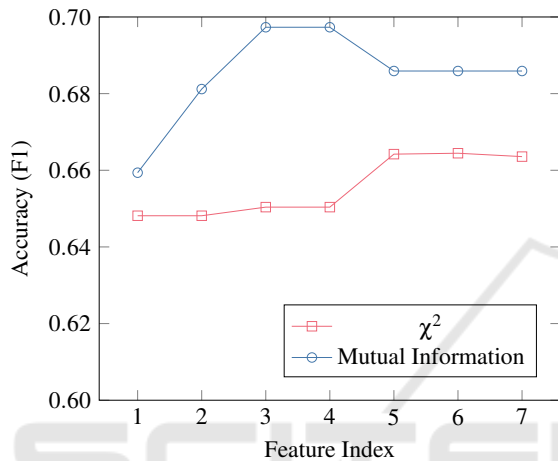


Figure 5: Accuracy Comparison for Feature Selection Methods.

(where index 1 is more important than index 2). We can see that the Mutual Information method selects more intuitive features, specifically the loan amount, applicant's income, and the rate spread (which conveys the interest rate). The  $\chi^2$  method selects less intuitive features, though they could be correlated with the features chosen by Mutual Information (e.g. `loan_amount_000s`  $\sim$  `loan_purpose_name_Home improvement`). Worryingly, race and gender features are selected by both methods. For ethical reasons, these should be removed from any model design, however, this research reinforces the need for careful feature selection because models may be used for determining loan decisions.

To compare the two feature selection methods, we train a decision tree classifier using the first most important feature for each method, then the second, etc., and evaluate the accuracy for each model. Figure 5 shows the results for both methods. Clearly, the Mutual Information method chooses better features than the  $\chi^2$  method. With only three features, the Mutual Information method achieves near 70% accuracy whereas the entire feature set of 230 achieves 83% (from Figure 2b).

## 4.5 Exogenous Effects

After running through the data with the exogenous features the results were insignificant. The Random Forest accuracy did increase by .01 and was 84.7%. The Decision Tree accuracy also increased by .01. The accuracy of that was 83.1%. The accuracy was essentially the same between models with and without the exogenous data. The results were similar and stable. This can be attributed to how the exogenous data is aligned with the loan data. The exogenous economic data either has monthly or quarterly time periods whereas the loan data was yearly. We believe that averaging the economic data loses too much information to be useful for classifying loan actions.

## 4.6 Explainable Decision Tree Model

Though the decision tree does not perform as well regarding accuracy, its decisions are more easily understood by humans (assuming the depth of the tree is reasonably small, e.g. less than 7). Figure 6 shows the resulting decision tree trained on the data. The top node starts at `applicant_income` which is an important consideration when a bank is approving loan applications. To demonstrate potential bias issues, we can see that the model uses race and gender to classify the application (intermediate nodes `co_applicant_sex_name` and `applicant_race_name`). This further motivates careful data processing of loan applications to remove gender and race information prior to model training.

## 5 CLASSIFICATION ALGORITHM COMPARISON

As before, for each experiment, we randomly split the data into a train and test set (70% train, 30% test). We then train the classifier on the training set. Finally, we evaluate the model on the test set to determine the F1 score. For each classifier, we repeat the experiment ten times to determine the 99% confidence intervals.

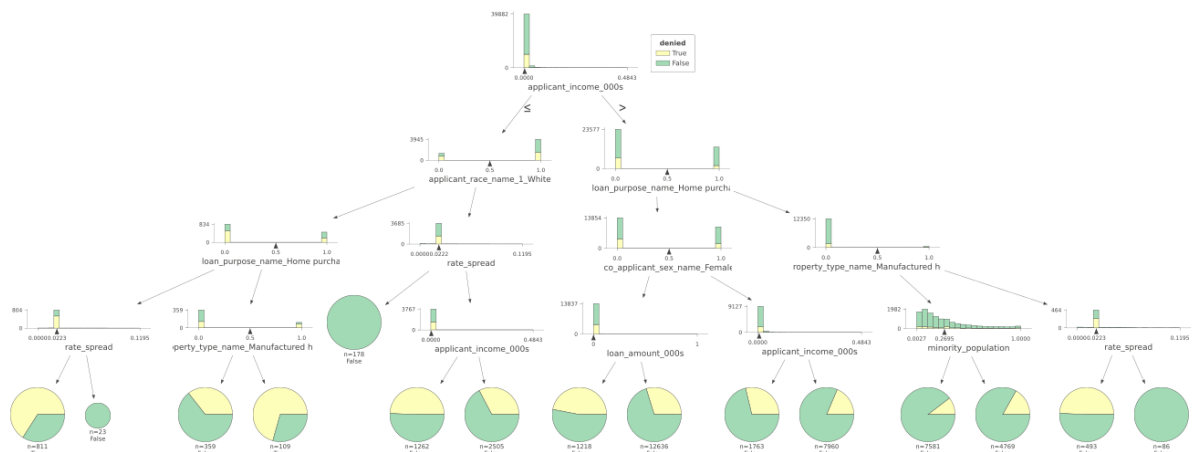


Figure 6: Explainable Model - Decision Tree (depth=4).

Confidence intervals for the DNN are omitted due to time constraints. Figure 7 shows how the F1 scores compare for each of the classifiers. The figure clearly shows that the DNN produces a more accurate model (around 5% better than the Random Forest) achieving 89% accuracy. The Random Forest, SVM, XG Boost, and Decision Tree produce similar results between 82-85% accuracy. Naive Bayes resulted in the lowest accuracy of 79%.

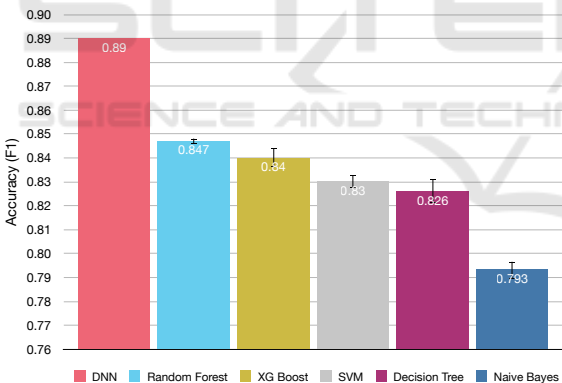


Figure 7: F1 Comparison of Classification Algorithms.

## 6 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we looked at using HMDA loan data and exogenous economic data to build classification models to determine whether a loan was approved or denied. Due to the size of the loan data, we employed reservoir sampling to significantly reduce the amount of data considered. The reduced loan data was preprocessed to produce 230 features from 78 features. We then augmented the 230 features with 10 features extracted from the exogenous economic data. Because the loans only have a year, to augment

the two data sets we had to average the monthly (or quarterly) economic data into years as well. We found that adding the exogenous data did not significantly improve model accuracy. We believe this is because averaging the economic data by year loses too much information. We then considered using only the loan data to compare several classification approaches. We found that the Random Forest, XG Boost, SVM, and Decision Tree classifiers resulted in between 82-85% f1 accuracy and Naive Bayes had the lowest at 79%. We designed a Deep Neural Network that achieved the highest and most impressive accuracy of 89%. Our results show that the HMDA loan data can be used to accurately predict loan approved/denied action of near 90%. Furthermore, our results indicate that more research is necessary to take advantage of economic data with loan application data. Specifically, providing the month that a loan action was taken would allow more sophisticated time series classification approaches such as recurrent neural networks (RNNs).

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