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# Credit

## risk modeling
## using Excel
## and VBA

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Mundus est is qui constat ex caelo, et terra et mare cunctisque sideribus.
*Isidoro de Sevilla*

# Contents

# Preface

This book is an introduction to modern credit risk methodology as well a cookbook for putting credit risk models to work. We hope that the two purposes go together well. From our own experience, analytical methods are best understood by implementing them.

Credit risk literature broadly falls into two separate camps: risk measurement and pricing. We belong to the risk measurement camp. Chapters on default probability estimation and credit portfolio risk dominate chapters on pricing and credit derivatives. Our coverage of risk measurement issues is also somewhat selective. We thought it better to be selective than to include more topics with less detail, hoping that the presented material serves as a good preparation for tackling other problems not covered in the book.

We have chosen Excel as our primary tool because it is a universal and very flexible tool that offers elegant solutions to many problems. Even Excel freaks may admit that it is not their first choice for some problems. But even then, it is nonetheless great for demonstrating how to put models at work, given that implementation strategies are mostly transferable to other programming environments. While we tried to provide efficient and general solutions, this was not our single overriding goal. With the dual purpose of our book in mind, we sometimes favored a solution that appeared more simple to grasp.

Readers surely benefit from some prior Excel literacy, e.g. knowing how to use a simple function such as AVERAGE(), being aware of the difference between SUM(A1:A10) SUM($A1:$A10) and so forth. For less experienced readers, there is an *Excel for beginners* video on the DVD, and an introduction to VBA in the appendix; the other videos supplied on the DVD should also be very useful as they provide a step-by-step guide more detailed than the explanations in the main text.

We also assume that the reader is somehow familiar with concepts from elementary statistics (e.g. probability distributions) and financial economics (e.g. discounting, options). Nevertheless, we explain basic concepts when we think that at least some readers might benefit from it. For example, we include appendices on maximum likelihood estimation or regressions.

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Any errors and unintentional deviations from best practice remain our own responsibility. We welcome your comments and suggestions: just send an email to comment@loeffler-posch.com or visit our homepage at www.loeffler-posch.com.

We owe a lot to our families. Before struggling to find the right words to express our gratitude we rather stop and give our families what they missed most, our time.

# Some Hints for Troubleshooting

We hope that you do not encounter problems when working with the spreadsheets, macros and functions developed in this book. If you do, you may want to consider the following possible reasons for trouble:

- We repeatedly use the Excel Solver. This may cause problems if the Solver add-in is not activated in Excel and VBA. How this can be done is described in Appendix A2. Apparently, differences in Excel versions can also lead to situations in which a macro calling the Solver does not run even though the reference to the Solver is set.
- In Chapter 10, we use functions from the *AnalysisToolpak* add-in. Again, this has to be activated. See Chapter 9 for details.
- Some Excel 2003 functions (e.g. BINOMDIST or CRITBINOM) have been changed relative to earlier Excel versions. We've tested our programs on Excel 2003. If you're using an older Excel version, these functions might return error values in some cases.
- All functions have been tested for the demonstrated purpose only. We have not strived to make them so general that they work for most purposes one can think of. For example,

  - some functions assume that the data is sorted in some way, or arranged in columns rather than in rows;
  - some functions assume that the argument is a range, not an array. See the Appendix A1 for detailed instructions on troubleshooting this issue.

A comprehensive list of all functions (Excel's and user-defined) together with full syntax and a short description can be found at the end of Appendix A5.

# 1
# Estimating Credit Scores with Logit

Typically, several factors can affect a borrower's default probability. In the retail segment, one would consider salary, occupation, age and other characteristics of the loan applicant; when dealing with corporate clients, one would examine the firm's leverage, profitability or cash flows, to name but a few. A scoring model specifies how to combine the different pieces of information in order to get an accurate assessment of default probability, thus serving to automate and standardize the evaluation of default risk within a financial institution.

In this chapter, we will show how to specify a scoring model using a statistical technique called *logistic regression* or simply *logit*. Essentially, this amounts to coding information into a specific value (e.g. measuring leverage as debt/assets) and then finding the combination of factors that does the best job in explaining historical default behavior.

After clarifying the link between scores and default probability, we show how to estimate and interpret a logit model. We then discuss important issues that arise in practical applications, namely the treatment of outliers and the choice of functional relationship between variables and default.

An important step in building and running a successful scoring model is its validation. Since validation techniques are applied not just to scoring models but also to agency ratings and other measures of default risk, they are described separately in Chapter 7.

## LINKING SCORES, DEFAULT PROBABILITIES AND OBSERVED DEFAULT BEHAVIOR

A score summarizes the information contained in factors that affect default probability. Standard scoring models take the most straightforward approach by linearly combining those factors. Let $x$ denote the factors (their number is $K$) and $b$ the weights (or coefficients) attached to them; we can represent the score that we get in scoring instance $i$ as:

$$\text{Score}_i = b_1 x_{i1} + b_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + b_K x_{iK} \tag{1.1}$$

It is convenient to have a shortcut for this expression. Collecting the $b$'s and the $x$'s in column vectors $\mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{x}$ we can rewrite (1.1) to:

$$\text{Score}_i = b_1 x_{i1} + b_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + b_K x_{iK} = \mathbf{b}' \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \mathbf{x}_i = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{iK} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_K \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.2}$$

If the model is to include a constant $b_1$, we set $x_{i1} = 1$ for each $i$.

Assume, for simplicity, that we have already agreed on the choice of the factors $\mathbf{x}$ – what is then left to determine is the weight vector $\mathbf{b}$. Usually, it is estimated on the basis of the

**Table 1.1**  Factor values and default behavior

| Scoring instance $i$ | Firm | Year | Default indicator for year +1 | Factor values from the end of year | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | $y_i$ | $x_{i1}$ | $x_{i2}$ | | $x_{iK}$ |
| 1 | XAX | 2001 | 0 | 0.12 | 0.35 | . . . | 0.14 |
| 2 | YOX | 2001 | 0 | 0.15 | 0.51 | . . . | 0.04 |
| 3 | TUR | 2001 | 0 | −0.10 | 0.63 | . . . | 0.06 |
| 4 | BOK | 2001 | 1 | 0.16 | 0.21 | . . . | 0.12 |
| . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . |
| 912 | XAX | 2002 | 0 | −0.01 | 0.02 | . . . | 0.09 |
| 913 | YOX | 2002 | 0 | 0.15 | 0.54 | . . . | 0.08 |
| 914 | TUR | 2002 | 1 | 0.08 | 0.64 | . . . | 0.04 |
| . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . | . . . |
| $N$ | VRA | 2005 | 0 | 0.04 | 0.76 | . . . | 0.03 |

observed default behavior.[1] Imagine that we have collected annual data on firms with factor values and default behavior. We show such a data set in Table 1.1.[2]

Note that the same firm can show up more than once if there is information on this firm for several years. Upon defaulting, firms often stay in default for several years; in such cases, we would not use the observations following the year in which default occurred. If a firm moves out of default, we would again include it in the data set.

The default information is stored in the variable $y_i$. It takes the value 1 if the firm defaulted in the year following the one for which we have collected the factor values, and zero otherwise. The overall number of observations is denoted by $N$.

The scoring model should predict a high default probability for those observations that defaulted and a low default probability for those that did not. In order to choose the appropriate weights **b**, we first need to link scores to default probabilities. This can be done by representing default probabilities as a function $F$ of scores:

$$\text{Prob}(\text{Default}_i) = F(\text{Score}_i) \tag{1.3}$$

Like default probabilities, the function $F$ should be constrained to the interval from 0 to 1; it should also yield a default probability for each possible score. The requirements can be fulfilled by a cumulative probability distribution function. A distribution often considered for this purpose is the logistic distribution. The logistic distribution function $\Lambda(z)$ is defined as $\Lambda(z) = \exp(z)/(1 + \exp(z))$. Applied to (1.3) we get:

$$\text{Prob}(\text{Default}_i) = \Lambda(\text{Score}_i) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x}_i)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x}_i)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x}_i)} \tag{1.4}$$

Models that link information to probabilities using the logistic distribution function are called *logit* models.

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[1] In qualitative scoring models, however, experts determine the weights.

[2] Data used for scoring are usually on an annual basis, but one can also choose other frequencies for data collection as well as other horizons for the default horizon.

In Table 1.2, we list the default probabilities associated with some score values and illustrate the relationship with a graph. As can be seen, higher scores correspond to a higher default probability. In many financial institutions, credit scores have the opposite property: they are higher for borrowers with a lower credit risk. In addition, they are often constrained to some set interval, e.g. 0 to 100. Preferences for such characteristics can easily be met. If we use (1.4) to define a scoring system with scores from $-9$ to 1, but want to work with scores from 0 to 100 instead (100 being the best), we could transform the original score to $myscore = -10 \times score + 10$.

**Table 1.2**  Scores and default probabilities in the logit model

| | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Score | Prob(Default) | | | | | | |
| 2 | -8 | 0.03% | =1/(1+EXP(-A2)) | | | | | |
| 3 | -7 | 0.09% | (can be copied into B3:B18) | | | | | |
| 4 | -6 | 0.25% | | | | | | |
| 5 | -5 | 0.67% | | | | | | |
| 6 | -4 | 1.80% | | | | | | |
| 7 | -3 | 4.74% | | | | | | |
| 8 | -2 | 11.92% | | | | | | |
| 9 | -1 | 26.89% | | | | | | |
| 10 | 0 | 50.00% | | | | | | |
| 11 | 1 | 73.11% | | | | | | |
| 12 | 2 | 88.08% | | | | | | |
| 13 | 3 | 95.26% | | | | | | |
| 14 | 4 | 98.20% | | | | | | |
| 15 | 5 | 99.33% | | | | | | |
| 16 | 6 | 99.75% | | | | | | |
| 17 | 7 | 99.91% | | | | | | |
| 18 | 8 | 99.97% | | | | | | |
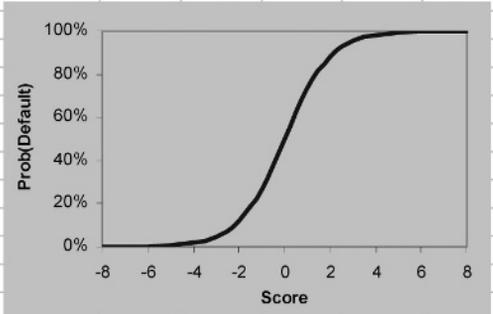
Having collected the factors $\mathbf{x}$ and chosen the distribution function $F$, a natural way of estimating the weights $\mathbf{b}$ is the maximum likelihood method (ML). According to the ML principle, the weights are chosen such that the probability (=likelihood) of observing the given default behavior is maximized. (See Appendix A3 for further details on ML estimation.)

The first step in maximum likelihood estimation is to set up the likelihood function. For a borrower that defaulted ($Y_i = 1$), the likelihood of observing this is

$$\text{Prob(Default}_i) = \Lambda(\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x}_i) \tag{1.5}$$

For a borrower that did not default ($Y_i = 0$), we get the likelihood

$$\text{Prob(No default}_i) = 1 - \Lambda(\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x}_i) \tag{1.6}$$

Using a little trick, we can combine the two formulae into one that automatically gives the correct likelihood, be it a defaulter or not. Since any number raised to the power of 0 evaluates to 1, the likelihood for observation $i$ can be written as:

$$L_i = (\Lambda(\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x_i}))^{y_i} (1 - \Lambda(\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{x_i}))^{1-y_i} \tag{1.7}$$