INTRODUCTION

Currently predictive models and especially credit scoring models are very popular in the management of banking processes (Huang, 2007). It is generally the case that risk scorecards are used in credit acceptance processes to optimize and control any risk. Various forms of behavioral scorecards are also used for the management of repeat business (cross-up sell) and also for PD (probability of default) models in Basel RWA (Risk Weighted Assets) calculation (BIS-Basel, 2005). It is often sufficient to obtain a list of about 10 account or client characteristics which, when combined, can predict their future behavior, their style of payments and their delinquency.

One may add that trivial fact scorecards are still of use and their methodology is well known, but on the other hand credit scoring can be still developed further and new techniques should always be tested. The main problem today is that there is no defined general testing ideology for new methods and techniques; there is no proven method to gauge their correctness. Many good articles are prepared based on one particular case study, on one example of real data coming from either one or more than one bank (Malik and Thomas, 2009), (Huang and Scott, 2007) and (Majer, 2010). From a theoretical point of view, even if good results are reached and sound arguments put forward to suggest choosing one method instead of another, these results are usually reached using that particular data which indicate the difference, but other data will often suggest a different conclusion, nobody can guarantee correctness for all cases.

Other important reasons remain for why real banking data are not available globally and why they cannot be accessed by every analyst, namely reasons such as legal constraints or new products with too short a data history. These two factors lead us to search for a quite new approach for predictive modeling testing in banking usage. It seems a sensible idea to start developing two parallel ways: real data and random-simulated data approaches. Even if the latter cannot replace real data, it can be very useful to understand better the relations among various factors in data; to imagine the complexity of the process and it can be an attempt to create a more general class of semi-real data.

Let us consider some of the advantages of random data:

1) Today many analysts are trying to understand and to analyze the most recent crisis (Mays, 2009), among other things they are developing methods of indicating risk stability in sub-portfolios that remain stable over time. This is not an easy topic and it cannot be solved by typical predictive models based on target variables as in the case of a default risk. The notion of stability cannot be defined for every particular account or client. It is difficult to state that an account is stable, only the set of accounts can be tested, so this technique should be developed by a quite different method than a typical predictive modeling with a target variable. It can be formulated by the simple conclusion: the more accounts, the more robust the stability testing. Various scenarios based on the random data generator can be tested to see and to understand the problem better.

2) Scoring Challenges or Scoring Games. From time to time different competitions are organized by various institutions banks, universities, consultancy companies or associations; to find good modellers, or to test new techniques. Sometimes, data are used that have too many ”real cases”. Here ”too real” is understood as meaning that some real processes are unpredictable, because they are influenced by many immersurable factors. Even if scoring models are used in practice in these cases, it is not a good idea to use that data for competition. The best solution and the best choice is to use a random data generator directly predictable process.

3) Reject inference area (Huang and Scott, 2007). This topic requires further development. Random data can also be generated in practice for testing rejected cases, so it can be used for a better estimation of risk on a missed area and in order to gain experience.

4) Today there are two or more techniques of scorecard building (Siddiqi, 2005). We need to make some comparisons and carry out an analysis to define recommendations: it must be clear when to use one method rather than another. The same situation can be applied for different variable selection methods.

5) Data extending. Sometimes collected data are too small, have too few defaults, or too brief length of history. Some properties can be studied and discovered but typical credit scoring techniques cannot be applied. In that case real data can be improved by adding some random rows gaining the possibility of making a deeply scoring analysis. Even though the new sample does not represent only real cases, its results can be of use as they can be used to produce variable confidence limits. To guarantee better prediction more than one scenario of random generator can also be considered.

6) Product profitability, bad debts and cut-offs. For random data all these notions can be tested and analysts’ experience can be broadened.

7) Random data can also be a very important factor in the topic of data standardization or the idea of auditing. Let us imagine that the software tools for MIS (Management Information Systems) and KPI (Key Performance Indicators), reporting on the generic data structure, which has firstly been uploaded by random data, are already running. Then the auditing of any other data will be minimized only by the upload data process.

Simulation data are used in many areas, for example it is of use in the research of a telecommunication network by a system like OPNET. Some simulated data in the banking area by (Sapramaniam and Shammagam, 2009) and (Watson, 1981) are also developed.

The simplest retail consumer finance portfolio is the fixed installment loan portfolios. Here the process can be simplified by the following assumptions:

1) for all accounts one due date in the middle of the month is defined (every 15th),
2) every client has only one loan,
3) a client can pay the whole installment, a few instalments or pay nothing. These can be categorized as either payment or non-payment,
4) there are measured delinquencies on states at the end of the month by indicating the number of due instalments,
5) all customer and account properties are randomly generated by defined proper random distributions,
6) if the number of due instalments reaches 7 (180 past due days) the process is stopped and an account is given a bad account status; any further collection steps are omitted,
7) if the number of paid instalments reaches the total number of all instalments then the process is stopped and an account is given a closed account status,
8) payments or missing payments are determined by three factors: the score calculated on account characteristics, migration matrix and adjustment of that matrix by one macro-economic variable time cycle,
9) a score is calculated separately for every due instalments group. In more general cases a different score for every status can be defined for due instalments 0, 1, ... and 6.

It is worth noticing that risk management today has very effective tools for risk control. Even though the
present crisis was not predicted in time, it could at least have been indicated promptly. It seems that the best tool of risk control is migration matrix reporting.

The goal of this paper can also be formulated in the following way: to create random data with the aim of obtaining the same results as those observed in reality using typical reporting like migration matrix, flow-rates or roll-rates and vintage or default rates.

**Detailed description of a data generator**

**The main options**

All data are generated from the starting date \( T_0 \) to ending \( T_n \). The migration matrix \( M_{ij} \) (transition matrix) is defined as a percent of one month transition from due installments \( i \) to due installments \( j \).

There is only one macro-economic variable dependent on the time described by the formula: \( E(m) \) where \( m \) is the number of months from \( T_0 \). It should fulfill the following simple condition: \( 0.01 < E(m) < 0.9 \), because it is used as an adjustment of the migration matrix, so it has an influence on the risk; in some months it produces a slightly greater risk and in some months a lower one.

**Production dataset**

The first dataset contains all applications with all available customer characteristics and credit properties. Customer characteristics (application data): 1) Birthday - \( \text{Birth} \) - with the distribution \( D_{\text{Birth}} \); 2) Income - \( \text{Income} \) - with \( D_{\text{Income}} \); 3) Spending - \( \text{Spending} \) - with \( D_{\text{Spending}} \); 4) Four nominal characteristics - \( \text{Nom}1, \text{Nom}2, \text{Nom}3, \text{Nom}4 \) and \( D_{\text{Nom1}}, D_{\text{Nom2}}, D_{\text{Nom3}}, D_{\text{Nom4}} \), in practice they can represent variables such as: job category, marital status, home status, education level, or others. 5) Four interval characteristics - \( \text{Int1}, \text{Int2}, \text{Int3}, \text{Int4} \), \( D_{\text{Int1}}, D_{\text{Int2}}, D_{\text{Int3}}, D_{\text{Int4}} \), represent variables such as: job seniority, personal account seniority, number of households, household spending or others.

**Credit properties (loan data):**

1) Installment amount - \( x_{\text{Inst}} \) - with the distribution \( D_{\text{Inst}} \); 2) Number of installments - \( x_{\text{Inst}} + D_{\text{Inst}} \); 3) Loan amount - \( x_{\text{Loan}} = x_{\text{Inst}} + x_{\text{Nom}}, x_{\text{Spending}}, x_{\text{Income}} \); 4) Date of application (year, month) - \( T_{\text{app}} \); 5) Id of application.

The number of rows per month is generated based on the distribution \( D_{\text{Application}} \).

**Transaction dataset**

Every row contains the following information (transaction data): 1) Id of application. 2) Date of application (year, month) - \( T_{\text{app}} \). 3) Current month - \( T_{\text{cur}} \). 4) Number of due installments (number of missing payments) - \( x_{\text{Inst}} \); 5) Number of paid installments - \( x_{\text{Inst}} \); 6) Status - \( x_{\text{Status}}, \text{Active} \) (A) - remains unpaid, Closed (C) - is paid, or Bad (B) - when \( x_{\text{Inst}} = 0 \); 7) Pay days - \( x_{\text{Inst}} \) number of days from the interval \([-01,11]\) before or after due date in a current month when payment was made, if there is a missing payment, then pay days equal to missing value.

**Inserting the Production dataset into the Transaction dataset**

Every month of the Production dataset updates the Transaction dataset with the following formulas:

\( T_{\text{cur}} = T_{\text{app}}, \quad x_{\text{Inst}} = 0, \quad x_{\text{nom}} = 0, \quad T_{\text{default}} = 0. \)

This is the process of inserting the starting points of new accounts.

**Analytical Base Table - ABT dataset**

The history of payments for every account is a fixed value. The actual states are calculated for that date by the formulas (actual data):

\[
\begin{align*}
x_{\text{due}}^{\text{act}} & = x_{\text{due}}^{\text{act}}(T_{\text{cur}} - m), \\
x_{\text{due}}^{\text{act}}(m) & = x_{\text{due}}^{\text{act}}(T_{\text{cur}} - m),
\end{align*}
\]

where \( m = 0,1, ..., 11 \). The characteristics indicated by the evaluation over the time period can be calculated by the formulas:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Score}_{\text{date}} & = \sum \beta_i x_i^{\text{act}} + \sum \beta_i x_i^{\text{act}} + \sum \beta_i x_i^{\text{act}} \text{ for } i \in \{3,6,9,12\}, \\
\text{Score}_{\text{date}} & = \sum \beta_i x_i^{\text{act}} + \sum \beta_i x_i^{\text{act}} + \sum \beta_i x_i^{\text{act}} \text{ for } i \in \{3,6,9,12\}.
\end{align*}
\]

The migration matrix \( M_{ij} \) adjusts macro-economic variable \( E(m) \) influences the migration matrix by the formula:

\[
M_{ij}^m = \begin{cases} 
M_0, & \text{for } j \leq i, \\
M_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} E(m) M_{ij}, & \text{for } j > i + 1.
\end{cases}
\]

**Iteration step**

This step is run to generate the next month of transactions, from \( T_{\text{cur}} \) to \( T_{\text{cur}} + 1 \). For new accounts the Transaction dataset is only updated by the ideas described in a subsection (Inserting the Production dataset into the Transaction dataset). Other accounts, which are not new, change the status by the formula:

\[
\begin{align*}
x_{\text{status}} & = C \text{ when } x_{\text{Inst}}^{\text{act}} = x_{\text{Inst}}^{\text{act}}, \\
& = B \text{ when } x_{\text{Inst}}^{\text{act}} = 0, \\
& = T_{\text{cur}} \text{ when } x_{\text{Inst}}^{\text{act}} = 0.
\end{align*}
\]

and these accounts are not continued in the succeeding months. For active accounts in the following month there are two events which may be generated: payment or missing payment. This is based on two scorings:
where \( t = 3, 6, 9, 12 \).
\[
\alpha = \text{Income, Spending, Nom}, \ldots, \text{Nom}, \text{Int}, \ldots, \text{Int}, \\
\gamma = \text{Inst, Net, Loan, Amount}, \\
\delta = \text{days, n, n}_{\text{adj, due}}, \\
ge, \text{capacity, dueinc, loaninc, seniority}, \\
\varepsilon \text{ and } \phi \text{ are taken from the standardized normal distribution } N.
\]

Let us consider the following migration matrix:
\[
M^g_T = \begin{cases} 
M^a_T & \text{when } \text{Score}_{\text{Client}} \leq \text{Cutoff}, \\
M^b_T & \text{when } \text{Score}_{\text{Client}} > \text{Cutoff},
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \text{Cutoff} \) is another parameter like all \( \beta \) s and \( \phi \).

For fixed \( T \), and fixed \( x_{\text{score}} = 1 \) all active accounts can be segmented by \( \text{Score}_{\text{Client}} \) to satisfy the same proportions such as the appropriate elements of migration matrix \( M^g_T \): the first group \( g = 0 \) by the highest scores having share equals to \( M^a_T \), the second \( g = 1 \) having share \( M^b_T \), \ldots, and the last group \( g = 7 \) share \( M^g_T \).

For a particular account assigned to the group \( g \) the payment is done in month \( T \) or \( x_{\text{score}} = 1 \), in other cases payment is considered missing. For any missing payment the Transaction dataset is updated by the following information:
\[
x_{\text{paid, act}}^g = x_{\text{act, act}}^g, \\
x_{\text{due, act}}^g = g, \\
x_{\text{due, def}}^g = \text{Missing}.
\]

For existing payment by formulas:
\[
x_{\text{paid, act}}^g = \min(x_{\text{act, act}}^g + x_{\text{act, def}}^g - g + 1, x_{\text{act, act}}^g), \\
x_{\text{due, act}}^g = g, \\
x_{\text{due, def}}^g = \text{generated from the distribution } D_{\text{def, act}}.
\]

The steps described are repeated for all months between \( T \) and \( T \).

**Default definition**

A Default is a typical credit scoring and Basel II notion. Every account from the observation point \( T_{\text{act}} \) which is tested during the outcome period equals 3, 6, 9 and 12 months. During this time the maximal number of due installments is analyzed, namely:
\[
\text{MAX} = \text{MAX}_{v_{\text{act}}}^{v_{\text{act}}} \left( x_{\text{act, act}}^g, T_{\text{act}} + m \right),
\]
where \( t = 3, 6, 9, 12 \). Dependent on the value of \( \text{MAX} \) there are defined three values of default statuses \( \text{Default}_v \).

**Good:** When \( \text{MAX} \leq 1 \) or during the outcome period was \( x_{\text{due, act}}^g = C \).

**Bad:** When \( \text{MAX} > 3 \) or during the outcome period \( x_{\text{due, act}}^g = B \). In the case \( t = 3 \) when \( \text{MAX} > 2 \).

Indeterminate: for all other cases. The existence of Indeterminate status can at times be questionable. In some analysis only two statuses are preferable, for example in Basel II. This may be a good topic for further research but can be solved by using the data generator described in this paper.

**Portfolio segmentation and risk measures**

Typically credit scoring is used for the control of the following sub-portfolios or processes:

**Acceptance process - APP portfolio**: This is a set of all starting points of credits, where it is decided which ones are accepted or rejected. Acceptance sub-portfolio is defined as the set of rows of the Transaction dataset with the condition: \( T_{\text{act}} = T_{\text{app}} \). Every account belongs to that set only once.

**Cross-up sell process - BEH portfolio**: This is a set of all accounts with a history longer than 2 months and in a good condition (without delinquency). Cross-up sell or Behavioral sub-portfolio is defined as the set of rows of the Transaction dataset with the condition:
\[
x_{\text{act, act}}^g > 2 \text{ and } x_{\text{due, def}}^g = 0.
\]

Every account can belong to that set more than once for different observation points \( T_{\text{act}} \).

**Collection process - COI portfolio**: This is a set of all accounts with a delinquency, but at the beginning of the collection process. Collection sub-portfolio is defined as the set of rows of the Transaction dataset with the condition:
\[
x_{\text{act, def}}^g = 1.
\]

Every account can belong to that set more than once.

For every sub-portfolio mentioned one can calculate and test risk measurements called bad rates, defined as the share of \( \text{Bad} \) statuses for every observation point and outcome period.

Definitions of the above-mentioned sub-portfolios can, in reality, be more complex. Reference to simpler versions of the cases studies presented in the section (Two case studies) are suggested for further analysis.

**Detailed description of a data generator**

**The main assumption and definition**

**Definition. The layout**

\[(T, T, M_1, E(m), T_{\text{act}}, \beta, \beta', \beta''', \beta^{\text{beh}} (t), \beta_1, \beta_2, \\
\phi, \phi', \psi, \psi', \psi''', \psi^{\text{beh}} (t), \phi_1, \phi_2, \ldots, D_{\text{def, act}}, D_{\text{def, def}}, D_{\text{def, beh}}, \text{Cutoff}(t) \]

with all the rules and symbols, relations and processes described in the section (Detailed description of a data generator) is called The Retail Consumer Finance Data Generator in the case of fixed installment loans with the abbreviation RCFDG.

**Theorem - assumption.** Every consumer finance portfolio with fixed installment loans can be estimated using RCFDG.

The theorem can be always applied successfully due to the parts: \( \beta, \phi \) and \( \phi' \) in formulas (2) and (3). From an empirical point of view credit scoring is always used in portfolio control, so the above-mentioned theorem can be considered correct, but the problem is with the goodness of fit. For the time being it is too early to define a good measure of fit. However, it is a proper starting point in the next development of the general theory of consumer finance portfolios.

Similar ideas and researches are presented in (Malki and Thomas, 2009).

**Open questions**

The next steps probably will concentrate on:

1) Finding the correct goodness of fit statistics to measure the distance between the real consumer finance portfolio and RCFDG. The properties of these statistics should also be tested.
2) Analyzing the additional constraints to satisfy properties such as the predictive power, measured for example by Gini (BIS-WP14, 2005), of characteristic \( \text{Score}_{\text{Client}} \) on \( \text{Default}_v \) should be equal to \( 40\% \).
3) Creating a more general case for all collection processes, more than one loan per customer, more than one macro-economic factor and other detailed issues.
4) Analyzing various existing real consumer finance portfolios and finding the set of parameters describing each of them. Only then can the theory of principal component analysis (PCA) for all consumer finance portfolios in a particular country or in the world be developed.
5) Defining the notion of a consumer finance portfolio which contains almost all the properties of real portfolios (generalization of the notion).
6) Using this notion in researches on the development of scoring models in order to use the notion as a general idea of method proving. For example, the theorem: Scoring models build on \( \text{Default}_v \) and on \( \text{Default}_v^{\text{beh}} \) produce the same results can be solved by the additional condition: betas for \( t = 3 \) and for \( t = 12 \) should be similar. It is very probable that any future researches will discover many properties and relations among betas, as well as the coefficients of the migration matrix and their consequences.

**Two case studies**

During the last crisis many analysts, studying their portfolios, noticed the strange behavior of some segments or sub-portfolios. Namely, the risk value was dramatically increasing in some segments. In the remainder the risk was less stable, but in every case something altered. From the analyst’s point of view, or in other words, by observing only one instance of data in a particular bank, especially in the Consumer Finance sector, research of the crisis can focus solely upon discovering the rules to identify more or less stable segments, in order to indicate the main factors when customer behavior becomes riskier than in normal times. The two cases presented in the paper are the result of this experience and they are a trial to formulate the nature of crisis in a general way.

**Common parameters**

All random numbers are based on two typical random generators: uniform \( U \) and standardized normal \( N \) distributions, in detail: the distribution \( U \) returns a number from the interval \((0,1)\) with equal probability.
All common coefficients present as follows: \( T_i = 1970.01 \) (January 1970), \( T_i = 1976.12 \) (December 1976),

\[
\begin{align*}
&j = 0 \quad j = 1 \quad j = 2 \quad j = 3 \quad j = 4 \quad j = 5 \quad j = 6 \quad j = 7 \\
i = 0 & \quad 0.850 \quad 0.150 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \\
i = 1 & \quad 0.250 \quad 0.450 \quad 0.300 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \\
i = 2 & \quad 0.040 \quad 0.240 \quad 0.190 \quad 0.530 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \\
M_{ij} = i & \quad 0.005 \quad 0.025 \quad 0.080 \quad 0.100 \quad 0.790 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \\
i = 4 & \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.010 \quad 0.080 \quad 0.090 \quad 0.820 \quad 0.000 \\
i = 5 & \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.020 \quad 0.030 \quad 0.950 \\
i = 6 & \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.000 \quad 0.010 \quad 0.980
\end{align*}
\]

To avoid a scale or unit problem for every individual variable it is suggested to make a simple standardization step for any ABT table for every \( T_i \) before score calculation. This idea is quite realistic, because even some customers who are reliable may experience more problems during a time of crisis, the general condition of the current month can influence all customers. On the other hand, in order to present two interesting cases it has been decided to standardize the variables by the following global parameters.

Scoring formula for \( \text{Score}_{\text{Main}} \) is calculated basing on the table \( 1 \), namely:

\[
\text{Score}_{\text{Main}} = \sum_{i=1}^{28} \beta(x - \mu) / \sigma.
\]

All beta coefficients can be recalculated without the standardization step, but in that case it would be more difficult to interpret them. By a simple study of table 1 it can be indicated that the most significant variables have an absolute value equal to 6.

### Table 1: Scoring formula for \( \text{Score}_{\text{Main}} \)

| Index | \( x \) - variable | \( \times \) | \( \sigma \) | \( \beta \) |
|-------|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 3.5     | 3       | 1       |
| 2     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 3.5     | 3       | 2       |
| 3     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 3.5     | 3       | 1       |
| 4     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 3.5     | 3       | 3       |
| 5     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 5       | 2.89    | 1       |
| 6     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 5       | 2.89    | -4      |
| 7     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 5       | 2.89    | 1       |
| 8     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 5       | 2.89    | -2      |
| 9     | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 13      | 2.42    | -5      |
| 10    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 0.36    | 0.28    | 4       |
| 11    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 0.12    | 0.2     | -6      |
| 12    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 1.3     | 2       | -2      |
| 13    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 53      | 9.9     | 4       |
| 14    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 0.4     | 0.21    | -2      |
| 15    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 0.3     | 0.6     | -1      |
| 16    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 2.4     | 2.1     | -2      |
| 17    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 2395    | 1431    | 2       |
| 18    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 5741    | 6804    | -1      |
| 19    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) | 12.3    | 4.63    | -4      |
| 20    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (3) | 1.4     | 1.6     | -4      |
| 21    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (3) | 14.15   | 1.4     | 6       |
| 22    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (6) | 1.6     | 1.13    | -5      |
| 23    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (6) | 14.57   | 1.02    | -6      |
| 24    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (9) | 1.78    | 0.75    | -5      |
| 25    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (9) | 14.78   | 0.72    | -6      |
| 26    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (12) | 1.89    | 0.48    | -5      |
| 27    | \( x_{\text{Loan}} \) (12) | 14.91   | 0.49    | -6      |
| 28    | \( \varepsilon \) | 0       | 0.02916 | 1       |

Source: Own estimations

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The first case study - unstable application characteristic - APP
In this case it is assumed that only customers with low incomes will be influenced by a crisis. Application characteristic income in the data generator is a stable variable during this time, and the migration matrix is adjusted by the macro-economic \( E(m) \) only for cases: 
\[ x_{\text{score}}^\text{app} < 1800. \]
The relation presented can easily be transformed into a general form (3). The second case study - unstable behavioral characteristic - BEH
Here, the condition for migration matrix adjustment is as follows:
\[ x_{\text{beh}}^\text{act} (6) > 0 \text{ and } x_{\text{score}}^\text{beh} > 6, \]
the rule for the sensitivity variable is added to the unadjusted accounts with the missing imputation based on (1). This case presents a situation when a crisis has an impact on customers who have experienced a delinquency during the previous 6 months.

Stability problem
Let us consider the typical scoring models building process, for example on the behavioral sub-portfolio. Because both cases are based on two variables: one application and one behavioral, let only the set of these two variables be considered. To indicate the extreme instability of the models they are being analyzed with the target variable Defaults.
Every variable is segmented or binned for the attributes described in tables 2 and 3. In the case of an unstable application variable (APP) studying figure 6 confirms, what may be expected, that attribute 2 is very stable during this time and accounts from that group are not oversensitive to crisis changes, contrary to attribute 1, which is extremely unstable. The same groups, in the case of unstable behavioral variable (BEH), are both unstable, see figure 7. The same group accounts from attribute 2, which are presented in figure 5, allow both cases to indicate in a better way that the APP case can consistently choose accounts that are insensitive to a crisis. Even a data generator is a simplification of the real data, a conclusion that is extremely useful. Some application data can be profitable in risk management to indicate sub-segments with a stable risk over time.

Table 1: Simple binning for two variables in the case BEH

| Characteristic | Attribute number | Condition | Bad rate on Defaults | Population percent | Gini on Defaults |
|---------------|------------------|-----------|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| \( x_{\text{seniority}}^\text{beh} \) | 1 | \( x_{\text{score}}^\text{beh} < 1800 \) | 16.77% | 37.09% | 51.34% |
| \( x_{\text{seniority}}^\text{beh} \) | 2 | \( x_{\text{score}}^\text{beh} \geq 1800 \) | 4.72% | 81.68% | 36.29% |
| \( x_{\text{seniority}}^\text{beh} \) | 3 | otherwise | 1.07% | 40.42% | |

Source: Own estimations

Table 2: Simple binning for two variables in the case APP

| Characteristic | Attribute number | Condition | Bad rate on Defaults | Population percent | Gini on Defaults |
|---------------|------------------|-----------|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| \( x_{\text{seniority}}^\text{app} \) | 1 | \( x_{\text{score}}^\text{app} < 6 \) | 16.77% | 37.09% | 51.34% |
| \( x_{\text{seniority}}^\text{app} \) | 2 | \( x_{\text{score}}^\text{app} > 6 \) | 6.48% | 22.49% | |
| \( x_{\text{seniority}}^\text{app} \) | 3 | otherwise | 1.07% | 40.42% | |

Source: Own estimations

and it has an impact on both types of characteristics: behavioral and application, then the risk management can only try to find some sub-segments more stable than others or with a maximum risk not exceeding the expected boundary.
Various types of risk measures

Let us define crisis as a time where risk is the highest. The most popular reporting for risk management is based on bad rates, vintage and flow rates. Figure 1 presents bad rates for three different sub-portfolios: application, behavioral and collection. One flow rate is also presented. There is a simple conclusion to be drawn, that crisis does not occur at the same time. Some curves indicate local maximum risk earlier than others. The difference in time is significant and can be as much as 6 months, so it is crucial to remember the nature of reports that can indicate a crisis as quickly as possible. It should be emphasized that bad rates reports present, in a standard way, the evaluation of risk by observation points and a crisis time can occur between the observation point and the end of the outcome period. It appears that flow rates reports indicate the crisis time in a better way.

Figure 1: Risk measures on Default, comparison on sub-portfolios: APP, BEH and COL and also with one flow rate $M_23$
Figure 4: Risk measures on $\text{Default}_i$ on attributes of a variable $x_{i \text{def}}^1(\theta)$ for the case BEH

Risk measures on attributes of behavioral variable

Source: Own estimations

Figure 5: Risk measures on $\text{Default}_i$ on attribute 2 of a variable $x_{\text{Income}}^1(a)$ for two cases APP and BEH

Risk measures on attribute 2 of application variable

Source: Own estimations

Figure 6: Risk measures on $\text{Default}_i$ on attributes of variable $x_{\text{Income}}^1(a)$ for the case APP

Source: Own estimations

Figure 7: Risk measures on $\text{Default}_i$ on attributes of variable $x_{\text{Income}}^1(a)$ for the case BEH

Source: Own estimations
The banking data generator is a new hope in researches aimed at finding the method of comparisons of various credit scoring techniques. It is probable that in the future many randomly generated data will become a new repository for testing and comparisons. The generated data are very useful for various analyses and researches. There are many rows and many bad default statuses, so an analyst can make many good exercises to improve their experience.

**Conclusions**

Even if data are generated by a random-simulated process, which is not realistic, the conclusions give the possibility to better understand the nature of the crisis. To establish a profitable business it is very important to have a stable process with which to operate. In a Consumer Finance portfolio the main success factor is a correct estimation of credit risk and bad debts. If risk is not stable, a forecast cannot be estimated in the correct way and the business can get into trouble. The last crisis demonstrated that credit risk management was not a straightforward process. The two cases of simulated crisis by random data generators that are presented help explain the complexity of the notion of what makes a crisis and also suggest that only the particular conditions of a crisis can guarantee stable profits for financial companies. That is to say, only when the main factors of a crisis are linked with the application characteristics of a customer such as income, marital status etc. can a stable portfolio that remains profitable in a time of crisis be found. More complex factors will always generate unstable segments and, in these cases, a bank can do little other than accept the fact that it must limit credit production and focus on only the very small and most stable segments, even though this will generate less revenue.

In the first case, of an unstable application variable like income it is possible to split a portfolio into two parts over a period of time: stable and unstable. In the second case, an unstable behavioral characteristic, the task is more complicated and it is not possible to split it in the same way. Some sub-segments may have better stability but they always fluctuate. Moreover, if a crisis is impacted by many factors, both from an application from customer characteristics and from a customer behavioral perspective, it is very difficult to indicate these factors and the crisis is widespread in all reports.