The proof of the pudding is in the eating Data fusion: An application in marketing

Received (in revised form): 18th November, 2008

Pascal van Hattum

studied Business Mathematics and Computer Science at the Free University Amsterdam. After his study (2000) he started as a statistical consultant at The SmartAgent Company, where he is currently responsible for all the statistical processes and research & development. In 2004 he started a PhD project in the Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences of Utrecht University under the supervision of Professor Herbert Hoijtink. In 2009 he hopes to finalise his thesis, 'Market Segmentation Using Bayesian Model Based Clustering'. The knowledge of his PhD project is successfully used in the day-to-day business of The SmartAgent Company.

Herbert Hoijtink

is Professor of Applied Bayesian Statistics at the Department of Methodology and Statistics in the Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences of Utrecht University. Besides Bayesian Statistics, his areas of expertise are, among others, model-based clustering for large data sets, regression, (repeated) measures, analysis of variance, multiple hypotheses testing and structural equation modelling.

Keywords data fusion, differentiated marketing, nearest neighbour, logistic regression, model-based clustering, internal validation, external validation

Abstract Data fusion, or combining multiple data sets into one data set, is not a new concept. Because of increasing desire for differentiated direct marketing strategies, however, it is getting more popular in marketing. This paper shows how marketing information can be fused to a company's customer database. Using a real marketing application, two traditional data fusion methods, polytomeous logistic regression and nearest neighbour algorithms, are compared with two model-based clustering approaches. Finally, the results are evaluated using internal and external criteria. *Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management* (2008) **15**, 267–284. doi:10.1057/dbm.2008.24

INTRODUCTION

In this paper, the following problem is addressed: a marketeer has knowledge and information about a small group of customers. Because the marketeer would like to have one-to-one communication with his customers, he would like to get the same knowledge and information for all the customers in his database. For several reasons, like time, money, nonresponse, etc, ^{1–3} obtaining the required knowledge and information using a single source questionnaire is not an option. An

attractive and practical solution, however, is data fusion.

In this paper, data fusion is used in a marketing application. In the application, a Dutch energy supplier wants to send differentiated questionnaires to all the customers in the database. For only a fraction of the customers, however, it is known what kind of differentiated questionnaire is preferred. Using data fusion techniques, information about the preferred differentiated questionnaire becomes known for all the customers in the database.

Pascal van Hattum

Department of Methodology and Statistics
Faculty of Social Sciences,
Utrecht University
PO Box 80140
NL-3508 TC
Utrecht
The Netherlands
Tel: +31 30 2537983;
Fax: +31 30 2535797;
e-mail: p.vanhattum@uu.nl



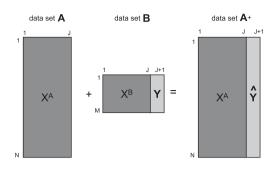


Figure 1: Schematic representation of data fusion in marketing (derived and adjusted from Van der Putten et al.⁵)

The general problem of data fusion can best be illustrated using the schematic representation in Figure 1. In this representation, data set **A** is the customer database and contains knowledge and information (represented by *I* items) from all customers. Data set B contains knowledge and information (represented by I+1 items) from a small group of customers. The first amount of knowledge and information (represented by the first I items) for a single customer is the same in each data set. From the small group of customers in data set B, however, there is some additional knowledge and information, that is, item I+1. The goal of this paper is to fuse the extra knowledge and information in data set **B**, that is, item I+1, to data set A. As a result of this data fusion, the knowledge and information about item *I*+1 becomes 'known' for all customers in the database, data set A.

Throughout the world, different terminologies are used for the above-described fusion or integration of two (or more) data sets, for example, multi-source imputation, data attribution, data fusion, statistical record linkage, statistical matching, microdata set merging, etc.^{3,5,6} Since the 1980s a discussion has been going on about a clear and unambiguous terminology.⁶ As in European marketing literature and practice, data fusion is the most commonly used term today,^{6–8} and the terminology of data fusion will be used in this paper.

Not only is there some discussion about the terminology of integrating multiple data sets, but also there is *terminological confusion*³ about the different (statistical) procedures of data set integration. The focus of this paper is on integrating (or fusing) one single categorical item into another data set, whereas other papers^{2,3,5,6} focus on integrating (or fusing) multiple (categorical) items.

The structure of this paper is as follows. Section 'Data fusion' describes the concept of data fusion and how data fusion can be used in the context of marketing. This section also describes two more traditional algorithms, nearest neighbour methods^{8–11} and polytomeous logistic regression methods, 12 versus two newly made data fusion algorithms (methods based on model-based clustering), 13 which are used in this paper. Finally, this section shows how the four data fusion methods can be evaluated using internal and external validation criteria. This section also explains why we choose to work with real data sets, rather than simulated data sets, in order to validate the four data fusion algorithms. Section 'Data fusion' illustrates data fusion, using the marketing application of the Dutch energy supplier. For the application, we describe the marketing goals, how data fusion is used to obtain the marketing goals and the results of applying the proposed data fusion algorithms. This paper concludes with a discussion in section 'Discussion'.

DATA FUSION

Introduction

The concept of data fusion is not new. Although there has always been resistance to do data fusion,^{6,14,15} there has been a great diversity in data fusion applications since the 1960s (see Rässler⁶ and D'Orazio *et al.*³ for an overview of applications in Europe and the United States). Since the 1980s, data fusion has also been used for marketing purposes.^{2,3,8} The most

www.manaraa.com



commonly used data fusion method in these applications is based on nearest neighbour methods.

Section 'Data fusion in marketing' shows how data fusion can be used for differentiated marketing purposes. Section 'Methods and algorithms used' describes the two existing and the two new data fusion methods that will be evaluated in this paper. Section 'Data sets: real or simulated' explains why we prefer to use real data sets and cross-validation over simulated data sets in order to evaluate the performance of the fusion methods under consideration in this paper. Finally, section 'validation' shows how data fusion procedures can be evaluated using two validation criteria.

Data fusion in marketing

Differentiated marketing builds greater loyalty and repeat purchasing by considering customer needs and wants. Differentiated marketing creates more total sales with a concentrated marketing effort in selected areas. Concentrated or target marketing gains market position with specialised market segments. Target marketing of products or services reduces the cost of production, distribution and promotion. 16 It is because of these benefits that differentiated marketing is getting more popular. 5,17-19 Instead of targeting customers with the same marketing strategy, companies want to target customers as individually as possible. Or, in other words, the company may be trying to sell exactly the same product or service, but it will change, for example, its promotional methods for (a group of) individuals.

In order to target (groups of) customers individually, it is important to know how they react to different marketing mix strategies. How do customers want their products or services to be packed? Where do they shop? Do they read advertisements? How do they react to discounts? In other words, all the interesting facts that companies need to know about their customers in order to set up good direct marketing strategies.

Information about customers can be found everywhere. An example is a company's customer database. Also, market research is a powerful tool for obtaining information about customers. In the past years, these sources of customer data have grown exponentially.⁵ It seems that collecting all the desired customer information in one single-source market research questionnaire⁴ is the best solution. But as time and money^{2,3} are limited in most marketing companies, this goal is often not realised. An attractive and practical solution is data fusion, or, in other words, integrating different data sets.

Data fusion is used in the following marketing application. A Dutch energy supplier wants to know their customer's interests in energy products and services, such as what is their interest in information about energy savings, solar panels, custommade advice, government grants for energy, etc. The energy supplier wants to send a questionnaire to all their 1,133,405 customers in the customer database (data set **A** in Figure 1) in order to obtain the desired knowledge about their customers.

To get the highest response, the energy supplier decides to send differentiated written questionnaires. From past experiences, the supplier knows what the responses are for regular (or undifferentiated) written questionnaires. Using the differentiated questionnaires, the supplier hopes to trigger the interest of the customers and, consequently, to improve the response. Furthermore, from past experiences, the energy supplier knows, on average, the number of energy products and services in which their customers are interested. Using the differentiated approach, the supplier hopes that the interests in energy products and services will increase. 20,21

The energy supplier knows that each individual has a different attitude towards energy and issues related to energy. Because of this, a motivational research study, called

米

Brand Strategy Research (BSR),^{22–25} is conducted among 1,751 customers (data set **B** in Figure 1). The 1,751 customers are a fraction of the supplier's customer database (using the whole customer database is too expensive). From the motivational study it is known that there are actually five groups (or clusters) of customers who have more or less the same attitude towards energy and issues related to energy. Short descriptions (see www.smartagent.nl for detailed descriptions) of these five motivational clusters are as follows:

- Cluster 1: energy stands for creating
 a cozy and warm atmosphere.
 Customers in this cluster try to find
 a balance between their own comfort
 and the comfort for persons in their
 neighbourhood. The usage of energy is a
 well-considered choice;
- Cluster 2: for customers in this cluster, energy is self-evident; the goal of the energy supplier must be to deliver as much energy as needed. Customers in this cluster are followers; the usage of customers from this cluster is mainly oriented on their peer group and the rules and values of this group;
- Cluster 3: customers in this cluster use as much energy as needed for their own well-being and their own comfort; they do not conform to rules and values in society. Energy is an uncomplicated and single product. As such, the energy supplier must deliver energy with a price as low as possible, and with the least amount of contact as possible;
- Cluster 4: customers in this cluster feel guilty towards nature when using energy.
 The usage of energy is a well-considered choice. Customers from this cluster are looking for an energy supplier that is active in the field of energy saving technique;
- Cluster 5: customers in this cluster think they are smarter than their energy supplier. They live according to their own

 Table 1: Frequency respondents in motivational research study energy

Cluster	Frequency respondents	Percentage respondents (%)
Cluster 1	537	30.7 (31.7)
Cluster 2	337	19.2 (19.9)
Cluster 3	265	15.1 (15.6)
Cluster 4	305	17.4 (18.0)
Cluster 5	251	14.3 (14.8)
No cluster	56	3.2
Total	1,751	100.0

Between parentheses are the percentages based on the total number of respondents classified to one of five motivational clusters

(superior) rules and values. Customers in this cluster are looking for an energy supplier that acknowledges the customer's expertise in the field of energy. The usage of energy is a smart and well-considered choice. This results in all kinds of energy saving products and services.

These five motivational clusters provide a basis for developing a company's vision and/or marketing strategies on the strategic, tactical and operational levels, aligning the total marketing mix around the consumers' needs in the domain energy. Table 1 displays the frequencies of the resulting motivational clustering.

Using the descriptions of the five motivational clusters, for each cluster a separate questionnaire is made by a specialised communication agency. The content of the questionnaires, that is, the questions about the customers' interests in energy products and services, is the same for each questionnaire. Only the lay-out (colours and pictures used in the questionnaire) and the tone of voice of the invitation letters are different for the cluster-specific questionnaires.

Because the energy supplier wants to send a differentiated written questionnaire to all their customers, data fusion is used. Using the fraction of the supplier's customer database (data set **B** in Figure 1), for which



the motivational clusters are known, data fusion methods are used to fuse the motivational clusters to the rest of the supplier's customer database. In order to do this, ten items (data set A in Figure 1), gender, age, education, position in household, type of work, occupation, number of persons in household, household stage, social economic status and income, which are known for all the 1.133.405 customers, are used.

Methods and algorithms used

In literature, data fusion problems have been solved by several, more traditional methods, for example, regression techniques, discriminant analysis, nearest neighbour algorithms, network approaches, etc. More recently, Kamakura and Wedel² proposed a mixture model-based methodology for data fusion, each method with its own advantages and disadvantages.

But despite of all these advantages and disadvantages, not all the above-mentioned methods are appropriate for data fusion as described in section 'Data fusion in marketing'. In the following subsections, two of above-mentioned traditional methods for data fusion, nearest neighbour algorithms and regression techniques, are adjusted and described for the purpose of this paper. Furthermore, two new methods, based on model-based clustering, are introduced and described.

In order to describe the data fusion methods, a schematic representation of data fusion in Figure 1 is used with the following notation: data set A is a customer database and contains information from i=1,...,N customers about j=1,...,J items (**X**), where $\mathbf{X} = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{il})$, for all customers i. Data set **B** comes from a market research study and contains information from M customers about I+1 items. The description of the first I items is equal for both data sets. The goal of this paper is to fuse the extra information in data set B, that is, item J+1 (**Y**), to data set **A**, where **Y** = γ_i for all

customers i. As a result of this data fusion. the information about item I+1 becomes 'known' for the N customers in data set A, that is, $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ in data set \mathbf{A}^+ .

Nearest neighbour method

In practice, the most commonly used algorithms for data fusion are based on nearest neighbour methods.^{8–11} In other words, values that are missing in one data set, usually called the recipient data set, are duplicated from another data set, usually called the donor data set. The choice of the duplication record from the donor data set is based on a certain (distance) measure, calculated on the common items in both data sets.

Translated to the application of the Dutch energy supplier, data set A, the total customer database, is the recipient data set and data set B, the fraction of the customer database containing data set Y, is the donor data set. As illustrated (for simplification, only the first three items are used) in Figure 2, the motivational clusters in the recipient data set (column 'bsr'; bsr represents the resulting motivational clusters as described in section 'Data fusion in marketing') are missing and need to be fused using the records from the donor data set. As can be seen from this figure, customer record 5 in the recipient data set is exactly the same as customer record 2 in the donor data set. Consequently, the value of the motivational cluster in customer record 2 (bsr = 1) in the donor data set is duplicated (or fused) to customer record 5 in the recipient data set. Likewise, the value of the motivational cluster in customer record 4 (bsr = 2) in the donor data set is duplicated (or fused) to customer record 6 in the recipient data set.

An important aspect of nearest neighbour algorithms is the choice of the (distance) measure, calculated on the common items in both data sets. Different measures have been used for data fusion, for example, Euclidean distance, City-block distance,

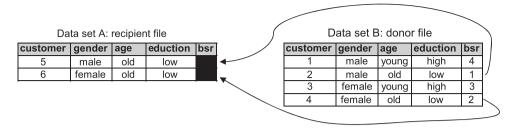


Figure 2: Nearest neighbour method

Mahalanobis distance, etc (see D'Orazio et al.³ for the calculation of several distances). Besides selecting the appropriate distance measure, the duplication of records can also be restricted by all kinds of constraints, for example, girls less than 12 years old cannot be pregnant, etc (see D'Orazio et al.³ and Rässler⁶ for an overview of different (un)constrained measures that can be used in nearest neighbour algorithms).

Despite the popularity of nearest neighbour methods in data fusion practice, the major disadvantage of these algorithms is the heuristic rule from which the duplication of data from the donor data is based. Kamakura and Wedel² state that the choice of the type of distance measure is subjective and can critically affect the quality of the data fusion. Also D'Orazio *et al.*³ warn about these disadvantages when using nearest neighbour methods.

In practice, however, nearest neighbour methods are still the most commonly used in data fusion problems.^{5,7} In Germany, it is common practice to use Euclidean or City-Block distances,⁶ whereas D'Orazio *et al.*³ state that the Mahalanobis distance is the most popular distance in data fusion practice. This paper uses a nearest neighbour method with a Euclidean distance measure.

Polytomeous logistic regression

Regression methods have become an important aspect of any data analysis. These methods are used to describe the relationship between an outcome item and

some explanatory items. When the outcome item is categorical, logistic regression has become the standard method of analysis. ¹² The best-known usage of logistic regression is the case in which the categorical outcome item has only two categories. In literature, this is often called binary logistic regression. For an overview of binary logistic regression, see Hosmer and Lemeshow. ¹² According to Ratner, ²⁶ when the categorical outcome item has three or more levels, this is called polytomeous logistic regression. For an overview of polytomeous logistic regression, see Hosmer and Lemeshow. ¹² and Ratner. ²⁶

The above description of logistic regression can also be used in data fusion. ^{27–30} This application of logistic regression techniques in data fusion problems is in fact a single imputation in a missing data problem, ^{30,31} that is, using the estimates of the logistic regression model and fitting them onto the complete data set, the missing value, in this case the fusion value, is imputed for the incomplete data set.

In order to translate the application for the Dutch energy supplier, a polytomeous logistic regression model is fitted so as to describe the relationship between the motivational clusters in data set **Y** and the ten socio-economical items in data set **X** (in data set **B**). Using the fitted regression coefficients, for each customer i = 1,...,N in data set **A**, it is now possible to calculate the probabilities $P(y_i = 1 | x_{i1},...,x_{i10}),...,P(y_i = 5 | x_{i1},...,x_{i10})$, where customer i is



classified to the motivational cluster value with the highest probability.

For all the technical details of fitting a logistic model, the reader is referred to Hosmer and Lemeshow.¹² This paper uses the statistical software program SPSS 15.0 to fit the polytomeous logistic model.

Fusion value-specific probabilities model

This new method is based on latent class analysis, where the role of the latent classes is taken by the fusion values and the explanatory variables are the items. This is illustrated in two steps, using a simple example (for simplification, only the first three items are used) in the context of the application of the Dutch energy supplier. As can be seen from Table 2, the items x_1 (gender), x_2 (age) and x_3 (education) in data set $\bf B$ are used to fit a fusion value-specific probabilities model in order to predict (or fuse) item γ (motivational cluster) to data set $\bf A$.

Step 1: Using data set **B**, the fusion value sizes (displayed in the row ' ω_{γ} ' in Table 2) and the fusion value-specific probabilities (displayed in columns '1', '2', '3', '4' and '5' in Table 2) are estimated. For example, there are 263 customers classified to motivational cluster 1 (= fusion value 1), that is, 0.30 of

the total number of customers in the data set. From these 263 customers classified to motivational cluster 1, there are 105 customers for which $x_1 = 1$ and 158 customers for which $x_1 = 2$. This corresponds to 0.40 and 0.60, respectively. Likewise, the other model parameters are calculated and displayed in Table 2).

Step 2: Using the classification rule of latent class analysis, 32 the model parameters in Table 2 are used for fusing the motivational clusters to the customers in data set A. This is done in the following way: suppose a customer in data set A has the following answer pattern: $x_1 = 1$ (gender = male), $x_2 = 2$ (age = old) and $x_3 = 2$ (education = high). Using the estimated fusion value-specific probabilities (columns '1', '2', '3', '4' and '5') and the estimated fusion value sizes (row ' ω_{ν} '), the probabilities of fusing the motivational clusters to this customer, with answer pattern $x_1 = 1$ (gender = male), $x_2 = 2$ (age = old) and $x_3 = 2$ (education = high), are calculated as follows: $P(y=1 | x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2,$ $x_3 = 2$) = 0.17, $P(y = 2 | x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2,$ $x_3 = 2$) = 0.05, $P(y = 3 | x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2,$ $x_3 = 2$) = 0.16, $P(y = 4 | x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2,$ $x_3 = 2$) = 0.13 and $P(y = 5 | x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2,$ $x_3 = 2$) = 0.49. Because the probability of

Table 2: Model parameters for the fusion value-specific probabilities approach

	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>			
У		1	2	3	4	5	Total
ω_{y}		0.30 (263)	0.20 (173)	0.16 (139)	0.18 (155)	0.17 (145)	1.00 (875)
<i>X</i> ₁	1 2	0.40 (105) 0.60 (158)	0.20 (34) 0.80 (139)	0.44 (61) 0.56 (78)	0.52 (80) 0.48 (75)	0.52 (75) 0.48 (70)	0.42 (365) 0.58 (510)
<i>X</i> ₂	1 2	0.43 (114) 0.57 (149)	0.80 (139) 0.20 (34)	0.46 (64) 0.54 (75)	0.74 (115) 0.26 (40)	0.32 (46) 0.68 (99)	0.46 (399) 0.54 (476)
<i>x</i> ₃	1 2	0.73 (193) 0.27 (70)	0.28 (48) 0.72 (125)	0.56 (78) 0.44 (61)	0.45 (69) 0.55 (86)	0.13 (19) 0.87 (126)	0.42 (365) 0.58 (510)

Note: these counts and probabilities are fictive figures



fusing motivational cluster 5 is the highest of the five probabilities, motivational cluster 5 is fused to this customer in data set **A**, with this particular answer pattern.

Model-based clustering approach

In recent years, model-based clustering has become a popular technique. Also in marketing, model-based clustering has become an established tool. ^{2,7,33} An important difference between traditional clustering ³⁴ and model-based clustering ^{2,32,33,35–39} is that in the latter it is assumed that the data is generated by a certain mixture of underlying probability distributions. Kamakura and Wedel, ² Vermunt and Magidson ³² and Moustaki and Papageorgiou ⁴⁰ describe some advantages of a probabilistic clustering approach.

A model-based clustering approach has been developed that can be used for data fusion in the context of this paper. The goal of this model-based clustering approach is to 'unmix' the mixture of underlying probability distributions. Translated to this paper, the goal of the proposed model-based clustering approach is to 'unmix' the fusion value-specific probabilities from the previous subsection. As a result of the model-based clustering approach, there will be a fusion value-specific probabilities model for each latent cluster found. Translated to the application of the energy supplier, the number of latent clusters found is 16; for each of the 16 latent clusters a fusion valuespecific probabilities model is estimated.

This paper does not go into detail about the model-based clustering approach. The interested reader is referred to Hoijtink and Notenboom¹³ for all the technical details about the proposed model-based clustering approach.

Data sets: Real or simulated?

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the data fusion methods introduced in the previous section. One of the most important evaluation criteria in comparing

the four methods is the quality, or reconstruction, of the individual (missing) values.

In order to show the number of mismatches for each fusion method, we need two things. First, we need a training data set to which each of the four fusion models can be fitted. Secondly, we need a test data set with the true individual fusion values known, for which the predicted values are obtained using the fitted models. Comparing the true fusion values with the predicted values for each of the four fusion methods gives us insight into the performances of the fusion methods. In reality the problem, however, is the lack of test data sets with known fusion values.

A solution to the above problem is to simulate the training and the test data set. A major disadvantage of simulating data sets is that it is possible to choose the simulation model (eg nearest neighbour, regression, model-based clustering, etc) and the simulation parameters (eg regression parameters, number of clusters, within cluster parameters, etc) such that they favour one of the four data fusion methods. Another disadvantage of simulating data sets is that it is almost impossible to choose the simulation model and the simulation parameters such that the simulated data set is a good representation of reality. And more important, with simulated data sets it is impossible to validate the results of the data fusion externally (this is further described in the next subsection).

A good alternative for simulating data sets, without the disadvantages of simulation, is cross-validation. ^{41,42} In cross-validation, the data set used for fitting the data fusion models and for determining where the true individual values are known, is randomly split into a training data set and test data set. The training data set is used for training (or calibrating) the data fusion models and, because the true individual values are known, the test data set is used for evaluating the fusion models. The use of

www.manaraa.com



cross-validation in the validation of the fusion models is further described in the next subsection.

In this paper, cross-validation on a real data set is used in both marketing applications. Not favouring simulation models or simulation parameters in simulated data sets, the experiments described in this paper are performed in their most realistic context.

Validation

After fusing two data sets, the big question is how good (or bad) is the data fusion. In her book, Rässler⁶ describes four levels of data fusion validation. Rässler⁶ states that the first level of validation, that is, the preservation of individual values or the reconstruction of the individual values, is the most challenging level of the data fusion validation. Furthermore, Rässler⁶ states that this first level is very difficult to achieve and in many cases not practical. This is, however, not the case in the context of this paper.

In this paper, the goal is to fuse a data set, containing an item with information about a customer's reaction on a certain marketing mix strategy, to another data set. Taking this goal into consideration, it is undesirable that the reconstruction of the customer's individual values is ill performed. Or, translated to the application of the Dutch energy supplier, it is undesirable that a customer belonging to motivational cluster 1 be fused to motivational cluster 2. In order to show the realistic number of such mismatches, this paper concentrates on Rässler's first level of data fusion validation. More specifically, this paper concentrates on both a validation step within the data set and a validation step in the actual market, after a real marketing strategy has taken place. In this paper, the first validation step is called the internal validation and is described in section 'Internal validation'. As described in the previous subsection, the internal validation step uses cross-validation for validation of the results. The second

validation is called the external validation and is described in section 'External validation'.

Internal validation

One of the most important goals of this paper is to minimise the number of mismatches, or to maximise the number of correct matches, in the reconstruction of a customer's individual values. Because the customer's true fusion values are not known, Rässler⁶ only validates by means of simulation studies. This paper, however, makes use of real data sets, and, in order to get an idea of the number of correct matches, data set B is randomly split according to a 2:1:1 proportion. This means that roughly 2/4th of data set B, or data set $\mathbf{B}_{\text{train}}$, is used for training (or calibrating) the data fusion model, roughly 1/4th of data set \mathbf{B} , or data set \mathbf{B}_{test}^1 , is used for the first validation of the data fusion model and roughly 1/4th of data set B, or data set ${\bf B}_{\rm test}^2$, is used for the second validation of the data fusion model. In the case of the application of the Dutch energy supplier, the number of customers in $\mathbf{B}_{train} = 875$, in $\mathbf{B}_{\text{test}}^1 = 411$ and in $\mathbf{B}_{\text{test}}^2 = 409$. Because the customer's true fusion values are known in the test data sets, the number of correct matches can easily be determined.⁴¹

The advantage of splitting data set B into a training data set and test data sets is the prevention against model overfitting. Overfitting refers to the phenomenon in which a data fusion model may well describe the relationship between explanatory items and an outcome item in the data set used to develop the model, but which may subsequently fail to provide valid predictions, when cross-validating a new data set. The model shows an adequate fit in the data set under study but does not cross-validate, that is, it does not provide accurate predictions for observations from a new data set. In the remainder of this subsection, some examples of model overfitting are shown. This paper, however,



Table 3: Classification table

		Predicted					
		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Total
	Cluster 1	167 (50.9%)	43	18	21	14	263 (30.1%)
	Cluster 2	61	90 (47.9%)	8	12	19	173 (19.8%)
Actual	Cluster 3	27	20	61 (48.4%)	12	19	139 (15.9%)
	Cluster 4	35	25	14	59 (50.4%)	22	155 (17.7%)
	Cluster 5	38	10	25	13	59 (50.9%)	145 (16.6%)
	Total	328 (37.5%)	188 (21.5%)	126 (14.4%)	117 (13.4%)	116 (13.3%)	875 (100.0%)

does not go into detail about this topic. The interested reader is referred to Verstraeten⁴² for more details of model overfitting. Two test data sets are used because of the dependency of the validation results of one particular split of the data set used.⁴²

In order to draw conclusions about the quality of the data fusion, Ratner²⁶ introduces the statistics model lift and total correct classification rate (TCCR). These statistics are explained and described using the application for the Dutch energy supplier. Table 3 displays the classification table after the data fusion method of 'logistic regression' is applied on $\mathbf{B}_{\text{train}}$. As described in section 'Data fusion in marketing', the fusing item is the motivational cluster about the domain energy. Customers are classified into either motivational cluster 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5. The row totals of Table 3 show the actual counts in data set \mathbf{B}_{train} . The column totals show how the predicted classification counts are after applying the data fusion method of 'logistic regression' on data set ${f B}_{
m train}$. The percentages under the total counts (between brackets) are with respect to the total number of customers in data set \mathbf{B}_{train} . For example, in data set \mathbf{B}_{train} , the actual percentage of customers classified into motivational cluster 2 is 19.8 per cent. The predicted percentage, however, is 21.5 per cent.

The diagonal in Table 3 displays the numbers of correct matches for each motivational cluster. For example, 90 customers, which is 47.9 per cent (=90/188), are correctly classified into motivational cluster 2. In this paper this is called the TCCR for motivational cluster 2 (TCCR(2)), which is derived from Ratner's TCCR for the overall model (TCCR(model)). Using the actual percentages, however, one would expect to find 19.8 per cent of the customers to be classified into motivational cluster 2, or, in other words, based on a random chance model one would expect to find 19.8 per cent of the customers to be classified into motivational cluster 2. In this paper this is called the TCCR for motivational cluster 2 that can be obtained by a random chance model (TCCR_{chance}(2)). Using these TCCR's, the model lift for motivational cluster 2 is $TCCR(2)/TCCR_{chance}(2) = 242$, which means that the data fusion method of 'logistic regression' provides 142 per cent more correct matches for motivational cluster 2 than can be obtained by chance.

These statistics can also be calculated in order to draw conclusions about the overall quality of the data fusion. From Table 3 it is clear that 436 (= 167 + 90 + 61 + 59 + 59) customers are correctly classified into one of the five motivational clusters. This results in a TCCR for the overall model



Method		Data set	#Records	Cluster 1 (%)	Cluster 2 (%)	Cluster 3 (%)	Cluster 4 (%)	Cluster 5 (%)
	Actual	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	30.1 33.8 33.0	19.8 20.7 19.3	15.9 15.6 15.2	17.7 16.5 20.0	16.6 13.4 12.5
Nearest neighbour	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	31.9 32.2	19.7 20.8	16.1 17.4	18.0 16.1	14.4 13.4
Logistic regression	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	37.5 39.4 39.9	21.5 20.7 17.1	14.4 15.6 17.6	13.4 12.2 16.4	13.3 12.2 9.0
Fusion value-specific approach	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	32.8 39.2 35.2	22.7 23.4 22.7	13.0 13.4 13.0	12.3 9.7 14.2	19.1 14.4 14.9
Model-based clustering approach	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	33.1 38.7 35.5	25.1 25.5 21.5	13.3 13.1 12.7	15.5 11.4 17.6	12.9 11.2 12.7

 Table 4: Frequencies after applying data fusion methods for domain energy

(TCCR(total)) of 49.8 per cent (=436/875). To calculate the model lift for the overall model, the TCCR(total) is compared with the TCCR_{chance}(total), that is the TCCR for the overall model that can be obtained by a random chance model. The TCCR_{chance}(total) is defined as the sum of the square of actual value percentages. For Table 3 the TCCR_{chance}(total) is 21.4 per cent $(=30.1\%^2 + 19.8\%^2 + 15.9\%^2)$ $+17.7\%^2 + 16.6\%^2$). Using these TCCR's, the overall model lift is TCCR(total)/ $TCCR_{chance}(total) = 233$, which means that the data fusion model provides 133 per cent more correct matches for all the motivational clusters than can be obtained by chance.

The above-described classification table is made for each data fusion method, applied to one of the three data sets. The figures that are the most important from these tables, however, are the actual and predicted frequencies and the information necessary to calculate the statistics TCCRs and model lifts. Tables 4–6 summarise this important information. Table 4 displays the actual and predicted frequencies, after applying the data fusion methods to the training and two data sets. This table also shows how many

customers are in each data set. Table 5 displays the TCCRs for each motivational cluster and for the total model. This table also shows what the percentage of correct matches would be, in each data set, when obtained by chance. Table 6 displays the model lifts for each motivational cluster and for the total model. Note that in all three tables, the figures in the nearest neighbour method for the training data set are missing. This is because the training data set is defined as the donor data set (see section 'Nearest neighbour method'), and the motivational clusters are duplicated from this data set for the two test data sets (the recipients' files).

To determine which data fusion method performs the best, several considerations need to be made. First, for each data fusion method the predicted frequencies of the motivational clusters are compared with the actual frequencies. Table 4 shows that, for each data fusion method, the predicted frequencies for motivational clusters 2, 3 and 5 are closer to the actual frequencies. The predicted frequencies for motivational clusters 1 and 4 are more different.

Secondly, the TCCRs and the model lifts are examined for each data fusion method.

Table 5: Total correct classification rates after applying data fusion methods for domain energy

Method		Data set	#Records	Cluster 1 (%)	Cluster 2 (%)	Cluster 3 (%)	Cluster 4 (%)	Cluster 5 (%)	Total (%)	Chance (%)
Nearest neighbour	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	40.5 37.9	34.6 25.9	24.2 31.0	20.3 25.8	22.0 18.2	30.4 29.6	21.4 22.7 22.5
Logistic regression	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	50.9 48.4 46.6	47.9 40.0 40.0	48.4 32.8 33.3	50.4 24.0 43.3	50.9 26.0 32.4	49.8 38.7 41.3	21.4 22.7 22.5
Fusion value- specific approach	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	47.7 51.6 54.2	42.7 44.8 43.0	46.5 43.6 49.1	46.3 37.5 41.4	43.1 25.4 34.4	45.4 43.8 46.2	21.4 22.7 22.5
Model- based clustering approach	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	56.2 45.9 44.8	51.0 42.9 37.5	56.0 38.9 32.7	50.7 23.4 29.2	54.9 23.9 17.3	54.1 39.2 35.5	21.4 22.7 22.5

Table 6: Model lifts after applying data fusion methods for domain energy

Method		Data set	#Records	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Total
Nearest neighbour	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	120 115	167 134	156 204	123 128	165 146	134 131
Logistic regression	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	169 144 141	242 193 207	305 211 220	285 145 216	307 194 260	233 171 184
Fusion value- specific approach	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	159 152 164	216 217 223	293 280 324	261 227 206	260 190 276	213 193 205
Model- based clustering approach	Predicted	Train Test1 Test2	875 411 409	187 136 136	262 207 194	353 250 216	286 141 146	331 179 139	253 173 158

Corresponding with this second consideration, a third consideration, the degree of model overfitting, plays a part in the determination of the best-performing data fusion method. From Tables 5 and 6 it is clear that both the TCCRs and the model lifts are the lowest for the data fusion method of 'nearest neighbour'. From these two tables it is also clear that the data fusion method of 'model-based clustering approach', applied to the training data set, has the highest TCCRs and model lifts.

These statistics, however, drop when

applying the same data fusion model on the two test sets. This is the model-overfitting phenomenon, as described above. This model overfitting can be seen in all the data fusion methods used. It is, however, least seen for the data fusion method of 'fusion value specific probability approach'. For the method of 'fusion value specific probabilities approach', both the TCCRs and the model lifts are among the highest, and the difference between the training data set and the test data sets is not as large as that for the other fusion methods.



Taking into account the three considerations, the fusion value-specific probabilities approach turns out to be the best-performing data fusion method. Consequently, this method is used to fuse the motivational clusters to the company's customer database. As a result of this data fusion, the motivational clusters become 'known' for all the customers in the database. This is the starting point for differentiated marketing strategies, as described in the next subsection.

External validation

Despite the internal validation described in the previous subsection, the final validation is in the real world. Before a data fusion method is proposed, the marketing company has a certain goal to achieve. This goal can be, for example, improving the response on a certain questionnaire, increasing sales, etc. External validation is done in order to draw conclusions about how this goal is achieved. It is clear that each marketing company has a different goal to achieve with data fusion, and that is why there are no unified statistics for external validation. For each external validation, tailormade criteria need to be made.

Unfortunately, external validation is not common practice for most marketing companies. ⁴³ It is expensive and time-consuming. These types of cross-validation experiments, however, are highly recommended. In the end, it is not important what the statistics are in the internal validation step, but what the effect is of the differentiated marketing strategy in the real world. This is best described by the proverb *the proof of the pudding is in the eating*.

Keeping this proverb in consideration, the following external validation is performed for the application of the Dutch energy supplier.

In the case of the supplier, the initial goal was to improve the response on the written questionnaire. From past research

experiences, the supplier knows that the response percentage on regular questionnaires is 19.9 per cent. The first goal with the differentiated questionnaire approach is to improve this response percentage.

The second goal is to improve the number of sales leads. The energy supplier defines sales leads as the number of products or services in which the customers are interested. In the questionnaire, customers are asked about their interests in ten energy products and services. From past experiences, the supplier knows that the average number of sales leads is 2.25 per customer. The second goal with the differentiated questionnaire approach is to increase the average number of sales leads per customer.

As a result of the data fusion, the total customer database, with 1,133,405 customers, is classified. The columns 'Frequency customers' and 'Percentage customers' in Table 7 show the resulting motivational cluster frequencies of the fused data set ŷ. For 120,843 (=10.7 per cent) customers, there are no or an insufficient amount of common items available in order to classify them into one of the five motivational clusters.

Using the descriptions of the five motivational clusters, for each cluster a separate questionnaire is made by a specialised communication agency. For the group of customers with no motivational cluster, the regular questionnaire is used.

Table 7: Frequency clusters in customer database for application energy

Tor application	97	
Cluster	Frequency customers	Percentage customers (%)
Cluster 1 Cluster 2 Cluster 3 Cluster 4 Cluster 5 No cluster	334,083 204,774 165,416 176,319 131,970 120,843	29.5 (33.0) 18.1 (20.2) 14.6 (16.3) 15.6 (17.4) 11.6 (13.0) 10.7
Total	1,133,405	100.0



Table 8: Responses per batch

Batch	Date sent	Questionnaires sent (#)	Response (#)	Response (%)
1 2 3 4	October 2002 October 2002 November 2002 November 2002	549,818 (48.6%) 260,151 (23.0%) 217,928 (19.3%) 103,508 (9.1%)	109,754 (38.5%) 85,118 (29.8%) 48,145 (16.9%) 42,260 (14.8%)	20.0 32.7 22.1 40.8
Total		1,133,405 (100.0%)	285,453 (100.0%)	25.2

Table 9: Responses per motivational cluster

Cluster	Questionnaires sent (#)	Response (#)	Response (%)
Cluster 1	334,083 (29.5%)	99,961 (35.0%)	29.9
Cluster 2	204,774 (18.1%)	55,064 (19.3%)	26.9
Cluster 3	165,416 (14.6%)	30,638 (10.7%)	18.5
Cluster 4	176,319 (15.6%)	34,264 (12.8%)	19.4
Cluster 5	131,970 (11.6%)	41,210 (14.4%)	31.2
No cluster	120,843 (10.7%)	24,316 (8.5%)	20.1
Total	1,133,405 (100.0%)	285,453 (100.0%)	25.2

The content of the questionnaires, that is, the questions about the customer's interests in energy products and services, is the same for each questionnaire. Only the lay-out (colours and pictures used in the questionnaire) and the tone of voice of the invitation letters are different for the cluster-specific questionnaires. The focus of the questionnaire for motivational cluster 1 is the balance between comfort and nature. The questionnaire for motivational cluster 2 emphasises that the interests, wishes, desires, complaints, etc, from society are taken seriously. For motivational cluster 3, the focus of the questionnaire is the supplier's differentiated approach in order to increase the customer's comfort and decrease energy prices. The focus of the questionnaire for motivational cluster 4 is conservation, or, the more the customer saves energy, the better it is for nature. And, finally, the focus of the questionnaire for motivational cluster 5 is the question, 'Would you like to help us to improve our service for you?'

Eventually, in four batches, 1,133,405 (un)differentiated questionnaires were sent to all the customers. Table 8 shows when and how many questionnaires were sent to the customers in each batch. This table

also shows how many customers responded to the questionnaires. Table 9 further splits these responses into the motivational clusters. From this table it is also clear that the first goal is attained. The total response percentage is 25.2 per cent, which is higher than the target percentage of 19.9 per cent. The difference in response percentage equals almost 60,000 extra customers, which is of course, valuable for the supplier.

Although the total response percentage in Table 9 displays 25.2 per cent, it is interesting to see what the response behaviour is for each motivational cluster. From Table 9 it can be seen that the response percentages for the customers classified to motivational clusters 3 and 4 are relatively low. From past experiences with the motivational clusters, it is known that customers classified to motivational clusters 3 and 4 are, in general, less willing to fill out questionnaires.

The second goal is increasing the number of sales leads. Table 10 shows the average number of sales leads per motivational cluster. From this table it is clear that the second goal is also attained; the average number of sales leads is 2.63, whereas an average of 2.25 sales leads was the target.



Table 10: Sales leads per motivational cluster

Cluster	Response (#)	Sales leads
Cluster 1	99,961 (35.0%)	2.69
Cluster 2	55,064 (19.3%)	2.26
Cluster 3	30,638 (10.7%)	2.75
Cluster 4	34,264 (12.8%)	2.22
Cluster 5	41,210 (14.4%)	3.14
No cluster	24,316 (8.5%)	2.73
Total	285,453 (100.0%)	2.63

Also from Table 10 it is interesting to see what the average number of sales leads is for each of the motivational clusters. The results in the table are completely consistent with the description of these five motivational clusters. Cluster 1 has a higher interest in energy products and services, in order to get a good balance between one's own comfort and nature. Cluster 3 has a higher interest in energy products and services, in order to get a differentiated approach for more comfort and lower prices. Cluster 5 has a higher interest in energy products, in order to stay in control with one's own thoughts about energy. And clusters 2 and 4 have a lower interest in energy products and services because they totally rely on the expertise of the energy supplier. There is no logical explanation, however, for the fact that the customers not classified into one of the five motivational clusters have a relatively high average number of sales leads.

Although the responses and sales leads can be determined before and after the marketing strategy, it is impossible to conclude that the increase (or decrease) in responses and sales leads can be fully dedicated to the differentiated marketing strategy. 43,44 When sending the questionnaires it was impossible to control for all kinds of side effects that may be associated with response behaviour and interests. For this application, however, both goals are attained: almost 60,000 more customers responded to the differentiated questionnaires and, on average, the total responding customers were more interested in energy products and services. Furthermore, instead of conducting a motivational research study among all 1,133,405 customers, only a small, representative number of these customers (1,751) were used, which is, in terms of dollars, a huge saving in marketing research

DISCUSSION

In this paper, data sets were fused (or integrated) to each other. In order to be as realistic as possible, this paper used only real data sets. No simulated data sets were used, in which inevitably, one could favour a simulation model and simulation parameters. The experiments described in this paper were performed in their most realistic context.

In the marketing application, the customer database of an energy supplier was fused to a motivational research study about energy. One of the most important goals was the reconstruction of a customer's individual fusion values. Or, translated to the marketing application, it was undesirable that a customer belonging to motivational cluster 1 be fused to motivational cluster 2. In order to show the realistic number of such mismatches, this paper concentrated on two very important validation steps, the internal validation step and the external validation step.

Internal validation

The most important thing in the internal validation step was the prevention against model overfitting. The application showed that model overfitting was a serious problem. For example, in the case of the model-based clustering approach, the method showed the best statistics on the training data set but subsequently failed to preserve these good statistics on the test data sets.

In order to prevent against model overfitting, this paper used a training data set and two test data sets. The latter was



done because of the dependency of the validation results of one particular split of the data set used. The training data set was used for training (or calibrating) the data fusion models, and the two test data sets were used for validating the data fusion models.

The lesson that can be learnt from this is that one should never trust a data fusion company that uses only one data set to train and test data fusion models because model overfitting has to be taken into account, as we have shown using the training and test data sets.

In order to draw conclusions about the quality of the data fusion, this paper used the statistics model lift and TCCR. The latter was calculated for both the random chance model and the data fusion model under study. In the application, the fusion value-specific probabilities approach was found to be the 'best' method. This is the case not only for the application described in this paper, but also for past marketing applications in domains like care, insurance, gardening, financial services, etc (see track record on www.smartagent.nl). The problems and the goals of these marketing applications were similar to the application described in this paper. In these past marketing applications, the data fusion methods, as described in section 'Methods and algorithms used', were also used and compared. In each application, the fusion value-specific probabilities approach turned out to be (one of) the best methods in the internal validation, which makes this data fusion method a method with stable results.

For the marketing application in this paper, the TCCR for the overall model was around 40 per cent, whereas the TCCR with a random chance mode was around 20 per cent. The model lift was around the 200 per cent, which means that the fusion value-specific probabilities approach provided around 100 per cent more correct matches than would be obtained by chance. Of course, the goal of the data fusion was

to get a TCCR that was as close to 100 per cent as possible, but when analysing the TCCRs we had to take into account the type of the fusion item and the type of the explanatory items. The fusion items in the application were motivational clusters that came from a motivational research study. The explanatory items were sociodemographical and socio-economical items. When it was possible to predict (almost) perfectly the motivational clusters with these explanatory items, the initial motivational research study would lose its uniqueness.

External validation

As a result of the data fusion, the motivational clusters were estimated for all the customers in the database. In the real world application, this was the starting point for differentiated marketing strategies. In the application for the energy supplier, differentiated written questionnaires were made.

As the proof of the pudding is in the eating, the external validation step was even more important than the internal validation step. In the end, the external validation step determined whether the data fusion was profitable or not.

Using a cross-validation experiment, different marketing goals were tested and attained. In the case of the energy supplier, almost 60,000 more customers responded to the differentiated questionnaires. Also, the average number of sales leads per customer increased.

Given the large number of customers involved in the application, the increases in responses and sales leads gave the company a tremendous amount of extra information and sales opportunities. Furthermore, by using only a small proportion of the customers for a domain study, a lot of dollars were saved on marketing research costs. In the application, the data fusion project was profitable and, consequently, was successful.

www.manaraa.com



References

- 1 Craig, C. S. and McCann, J. M. (1978) 'Item nonresponse in mail surveys: Extent and correlates', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 15, No. 2, pp. 285– 289.
- 2 Kamakura, W. A. and Wedel, M. (1997) 'Statistical data fusion for cross-tabulation', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 34, No. 4, pp. 485–498.
- 3 D'Orazio, M., Di Zio, M. and Scanu, M. (2006) 'Statistical matching: Theory and practice', John Wiley & Sons Ltd., Chichester.
- 4 Buck, S. (1989) 'Single source data The theory and the practice', *Journal of the Market Research Society*, Vol. 31, No. 1, pp. 489–500.
- 5 Van der Putten, P., Kok, J. N. and Gupta, A. (2002) 'Data fusion through statistical matching, Paper 185, MIT Sloan School of Management.
- 6 Rässler, S. (2002) 'Statistical matching: A frequentist theory, practical applications, and alternative Bayesian approaches, Lecture Notes in Statistics, 168, Springer, New York.
- 7 Wedel, M. and Kamakura, W. A. (2000) 'Market segmentation: Conceptual and methodological foundations', Kluwer Academic Publishers, Norwell.
- 8 Gilula, Z., McCulloch, R. E. and Rossi, P. E. (2006) 'A direct approach to data fusion', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 73–83.
- 9 Dillon, W. R., Goldstein, M. and Schiffman, L. G. (1978) 'Appropriateness of linear discriminant and multinomial classification analysis in marketing research', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp. 103–112.
- 10 Rogers, W. L. (1984) 'An evaluation of statistical matching', *Journal of Business and Economic Statistics*, Vol. 2, pp. 91–105.
- 11 Wind, J. and Mahajan, V. (1997) 'Editorial: Issues and opportunities in new product development: An introduction to the special issue', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 1–12.
- 12 Hosmer, D. W. and Lemeshow, S. (2000) 'Applied logistic regression', John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken.
- 13 Hoijtink, H. and Notenboom, A. (2004) 'Model based clustering of large data sets: Tracing the development of spelling ability', *Psychometrika*, Vol. 69, pp. 481–498.
- 14 Bronner, A. E. (1988) 'Einde fusie-fobie in Nederland?', Jaarboek van de Nederlandse vereniging van Marktonderzoekers, Vol. 1988, pp. 9–18.
- 15 Baker, K., Harris, P. and O'Brien, J. (1989) 'Data fusion: An appraisal and experimental evaluation', *Journal of the Market Research Society*, Vol. 31, pp. 153– 212.
- 16 Bull, N. H. and Passewitz, G. R. (1994) 'Finding customers: Market segmentation, Publication CDFS-1253-94, Ohio State University.
- 17 Cui, G. and Choudhury, P. (2002) 'Marketplace diversity and cost-effective marketing strategies', *Journal* of Consumer Marketing, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 54–73.
- 18 Cui, G. and Choudhury, P. (2003) 'Consumer interests and the ethical implications of marketing: A contingency framework', *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, Vol. 37, pp. 364–387.

- 19 Buckinx, W. (2005) 'Using predictive modeling for targeted marketing in a non-contractual retail setting, PhD Thesis, Marketing, Gent University, Belgium.
- 20 Lattin, J. M. and Bucklin, R. E. (1989) 'Reference effects of price and promotion on brand choice behavior', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 26, No. 3, pp. 299–310.
- 21 Feinberg, F. F., Krishna, A. and Zhang, J. Z. (2002) 'Do we care what others get? A behaviorist approach to targeted promotions', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 277–291.
- 22 BSR is based on Adler's social-psychology theory²³ and provides a framework for understanding customers at the 'deepest' level. This motivational level gives knowledge of consumer's fears, beliefs and values, thus providing an understanding of the fundamental motivations that drive (future) purchase decisions of customers. The interested reader is referred to www.smartagent.nl for more information about BSR.
- 23 Callebaut, J., Janssens, M., Op de Beeck, D., Lorré, D. and Hendrickx, H. (1999) 'Motivational marketing research revisited', Garant Publishers, Leuven.
- 24 Brethouwer, W., Lamme, A., Rodenburg, J., Du Chatinier, H. and Smit, M. (1995) 'Quality planning toegepast (Dutch)', Janssen Offset, Amsterdam.
- 25 Oppenhuisen, J. (2000) 'Een schaap in de bus? Een onderzoek naar waarden van de Nederlander (Dutch)', Grafische Producties, Amsterdam.
- 26 Ratner, B. (2003) 'Statistical modelling and analysis for database marketing: Effective techniques for mining big data', Chapman & Hall/CRC, Florida.
- 27 Jones, J. M. and Zufryden, F. S. (1980) 'Adding explanatory variables to consumer purchase behavior model: An exploratory study', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 323–334.
- 28 Bucklin, R. E. and Gupta, S. (1992) 'Brand choice, purchase incidence and segmentation: An integrated modelling approach', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 201–215.
- 29 Mela, C. F., Gupta, S. and Lehmann, D. R. (1997) 'The long-term impact of promotion and advertising on consumer brand choice', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 34, No. 2, pp. 248–261.
- 30 Schafer, J. L. (1997) 'Analysis of incomplete multivariate data', Chapman & Hall, London.
- 31 Little, R. J. and Rubin, D. B. (2002) 'Statistical analysis with missing data', John Wiley, New York.
- 32 Vermunt, J. K. and Magidson, J. (2000) 'Latent gold', Statistical Innovations Inc., Belmont.
- 33 Varki, S. and Chintagunta, P. K. (2004) 'The augmented latent class model: Incorporating additional heterogeneity in latent class model for panel data', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 41, No. 2, pp. 226–233.
- 34 Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. and Black, W. C. (1984) 'Multivariate data analysis', Prentice-Hall International, Inc., London.
- 35 Newcomb, S. (1886) 'A generalized theory of the combination of observations so as to obtain the best

米

- result', American Journal of Mathematics, Vol. 8, pp. 343–366.
- 36 Pearson, K. (1894) 'Contributions to the mathematical theory of evolution', *Philosophical Transactions*, Vol. A185, pp. 71–110.
- 37 Banfield, J. D. and Raftery, A. E. (1993) 'Model-based Gaussian and non-Gaussian clustering', *Biometrics*, Vol. 49, pp. 803–821.
- 38 Bensmail, H., Celeux, G., Raftery, A. E. and Robert, C. P. (1997) 'Inference in model based clustering', Statistics and Computing, Vol. 7, pp. 1–10.
- 39 Fraley, C. and Raftery, A. E. (1998) 'How many clusters? Which clustering method? Answers via model-based cluster analysis, Technical Report No. 329, Department of Statistics, University of Washington.
- 40 Moustaki, I. and Papageorgiou, I. (2005) 'Latent class models for mixed variables with applications in

- archaeometry', Computational Statistics and Data Analysis, Vol. 48, pp. 659–675.
- 41 Kamakura, W. A., Wedel, M., De Rosa, F. and Mazzon, J. A. (2003) 'Cross-selling through database marketing: A mixed data factor analyzer for data augmentation and prediction', *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 20, pp. 45–65.
- 42 Verstraeten, G. (2005) 'Issues in predictive modelling of individual customer behavior: Applications in targeted marketing and consumer credit scoring, PhD Thesis, Marketing, Gent University, Belgium.
- 43 Bell, M. L. and Vincze, J. W. (1988) 'Managerial marketing: Strategy and cases', Elsevier Science Publishing Co, New York.
- 44 Kooiker, R. (1997) 'Marktonderzoek (Dutch)', Wolters-Noordhoff by, Groningen.

Reproduced with permission of the copyright owner. Further reproduction prohibited without permission.