An Information Stock Model of Customer Behavior in Multichannel Customer Support Services

Abstract

In this paper, we develop a novel information stock-based model to capture patterns in customers’ observed behavior in a multichannel customer support setting (e.g., web and phone) using data of a US-based health insurance firm. In case of a query regarding health insurance coverage or claims, customers can either call the firm's call center to get the desired information from a call center representative, or visit the web portal and get the desired information themselves. We model a customer's observed behavior, in terms of her query frequency and channel choice for queries, as a stochastic function of her latent information stock. Specifically, we assume that each customer has a latent “information stock” which is a function of customers' “information needs” (which arise when customers file health insurance claims) and “information gains” (which customers obtain when they contact the firm's support channels to resolve their queries), and other factors such as seasonal effects (for instance, queries that arise at the time of annual contract renewal). We estimate our model on individual-customer-level data from the firm. Based on the estimates, we find that the average information gain for a customer from a telephone call is twice as much as that from visiting the web portal. In addition, customers prefer the telephone channel for health event-related information needs but, interestingly, prefer the web portal for seasonal information needs that are typically more structured. We also find that customers are very heterogeneous in terms of their propensity to use the web channel, and can be broadly classified into “web avoiders” and “web seekers.” Our model is general enough to be applicable in other similar multichannel contexts and it can be used to aid in call center management and staffing decisions as it provides very good out-of-sample predictions for future query volumes on different channels at the aggregate and individual levels, and it can even help to accurately identify customers who are expected to have high telephone call volumes in the near future.

Keywords: multichannel customer behavior, customer service, call center, empirical OM, probability modeling.
1 Introduction

Investment into after-sales customer support is crucial for customer satisfaction and, therefore, for customer retention and loyalty. The most visible example of this is a modern-day call center which, on average, accounts for approximately 70% of business-to-consumer interactions at a firm (Mandelbaum 2006). Historically, customer service representatives at call centers responded to customers’ queries over telephone. However, present day call centers offer a number of advanced technology-enabled support channels to respond to customers' queries. These support channels fall into two distinct categories: assisted channels where the firm's representatives assist customers via telephone, email, short message service (SMS) and web chat, and self-service channels where customers can find desired information via web-based self-service portals and interactive voice response (IVR) units.

Our main objective in this paper is to build a statistical model that can capture patterns in customers' observed behavior in a multichannel customer support setting. Subsequently, the estimated model can be used as a decision support tool to predict future customer activity at the aggregate as well as individual levels, to evaluate the relative efficacy of the different customer support channels, and to gain various other insights into customers' usage of assisted and self-service support channels.

Firms deploy a variety of statistical models to predict and manage call center traffic (see Gans et al. (2003) for a review). However, most of the predictive models assume query arrival as an exogenous process and then model the service time to allocate resources optimally. These models typically do not consider customer channel choice and the interactions among different channels. In this paper, we develop a novel information need-based framework to model channel choice in a multichannel customer support setting. The key idea behind the model we propose is that customers use support channels when they want to resolve queries that arise while using the product. In other words, a customer's observed channel usage behavior is driven by her latent, i.e., unobservable information need. Note that we use the term "information need" to refer to anything that induces the customer to contact the firm. For instance, in one case, a customer might want to understand the process to file a claim for a certain type of medical service that she has availed for the first time; this would classify as a query to gather information regarding a process she is unfamiliar with. In another case, a customer might observe that the reimbursement she received after she filed a claim differed from her expectation, and she might call the firm to resolve this issue; this would classify as a query for clarification. In both situations, the customer is calling the firm because, at some level, she needs information about some details of her health insurance plan. Our model allows us to assess the customer-perceived values of different support channels from transactional data.
Our model is general enough to be applicable in a wide variety of scenarios. In this paper, we implement the model on data from the call center of a large US-based health insurance firm that offers web- and telephone-based support to its customers. As mentioned earlier, we assume that, for a customer, product usage leads to an "information need" and support channel usage leads to an "information gain" which (possibly only partially) satisfies the information need. We model the latent "transactional information stock" for a customer at a given time as the composite of her information needs (which, in our context, arise when customers file health insurance claims) and information gains (which customers obtain when they contact the firm's support channels to resolve their queries) up to that time. We assume that a customer's observed channel usage behavior is a realization of a two-stage stochastic process—a query arrival process followed by a channel choice process—with the rates of the stochastic processes in both stages dependent on the current information stock of the customer. Besides the "transactional information stock" described above, we also account for a "seasonal information stock" to allow for queries that occur due to a time event, such as renewing the insurance contract or changes in contract terms. We estimate the information stock model on individual-customer-level data on claims and channel usage.

We note that information stock is a theoretical construct that is useful for capturing key aspects of consumer behavior. In other words, we do not postulate that consumers actually have such a stock; rather, we argue that invoking the notion of an information stock is a good way to model observable consumer behavior because it is plausible and intuitive and, as we show empirically, the model's performance in terms of in-sample fit and out-of-sample predictions for total queries, telephone queries, and web queries, is very good. The model's strong empirical performance provides support for our information stock-based modeling approach. Our model is also able to identify, with high precision, individual customers who are expected to have high probabilities of making telephone calls to the firm in the near future. This information can be valuable for the firm. For instance, the firm can proactively attempt to resolve the queries of such identified customers (say, by making calls to them in lean traffic periods). This can help the firm to increase customer satisfaction, as well as reduce some of its peak time call volume, hence reducing the customer service representative costs.

Furthermore, the parameter estimates from our model suggest that, in our setting, the telephone channel provides three times more information than the web channel. Consequently, customers tend to prefer the telephone channel over the web portal as their information need increases. We also account for heterogeneity across customers—we find a high degree of heterogeneity in query propensities, and find a bipolar distribution of web choice probability indicating the existence of two distinct customer segments: "web avoiders" and "web seekers." In
terms of generation of information needs, we find that health event-related information needs are, on average, higher than seasonal information needs.

Our research makes several contributions to the literature. First and foremost, to the best of our knowledge, ours is the first attempt to take a multichannel customer support setting and model the customer query arrival and channel choice processes by modeling individual customers’ information needs and gains. This model provides highly accurate predictions of future query behavior both at the aggregate as well as individual levels. Second, our proposed framework utilizes information as a common denominator to understand determinants of customers' channel usage, with different sources contributing to this latent construct. This approach allows call center managers to provide a quantitative evaluation of the customers’ information demand and firms' information supply through different channels. Third, we provide a practical framework that allows a company, using limited transactional data on customer product and channel usage (usually captured in today's business environment), to improve quality of service through better estimation of the query arrival process.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we discuss the related literature. In Section 3, we describe our research setting and our data, and conduct a preliminary analysis which supports our modeling approach. In Section 4, we develop our models, and in Section 5 we present our results. In Section 6, we conclude with managerial implications of our research and outline future research directions.

## 2 Related Literature

Our work is primarily related to three streams of literature: customer behavior in a service support environment, policies for call center optimization, and multichannel customer behavior.

It is of great importance for firms to understand customer behavior in support services (Sousa and Voss 2006), which has motivated several papers on this topic. Bobbitt and Dabholkar (2001) and Meuter et al. (2005) explored the determinants of adoption and customer satisfaction for self-service technology (SST) channels using questionnaires and survey tools to elicit customers' preferences regarding SSTs. However, they did not consider how adoption of SSTs affects demand for other available alternative channels. Xue et al. (2007) show that the adoption and usage of various service channels (tellers, ATM and online banking) offered by a large retail bank depends on demographic characteristics of customers. Campbell et al. (2010) conduct a field study on the impact of online banking channel adoption on local branches, IVR, ATMs and call centers. They show that the users who adopted the online banking channel reduced their dependence on the IVR and the ATM (substitution) but increased their consumption of the firm's call center and local branches.
Kumar and Telang (2012) conducted a controlled experiment to develop an explanatory model of how customers' web portal usage affects their telephone usage. Their main findings are that for structured queries, web channel could substitute the demand for telephone channel, while when the customer searches for unstructured information at the web portal, it leads to more telephone calls (aggravation effect). In contrast, our primary purpose in the present study is to build a predictive model of customer multichannel behavior that can accurately predict the demand for different support channels offered by the firm, at both the aggregate and individual levels. Aksin et al. (2013), focuses on customers' call abandonment decisions as influenced by their wait times, rather than on which customer service portal to use. In the present work, we address the question of customer channel usage by developing a probability model to estimate the relative efficacy of multiple support channels. Besides providing highly accurate predictions of future activity of customers, our model also provides insights on customers' multichannel behavior.

Call center optimization is a highly researched topic in Operations Management. However, most of this work has been done primarily using analytical queuing models (Kleinrock 1975); a comprehensive review of this research is available in Gans et al. (2003). There is a significant body of work on data-driven statistical models for predicting call center traffic to aid with staffing and workforce management decisions (Avramidis et al. 2004, Bassamboo and Zeevi 2009, Brown et al. 2005, Cezik and L'Ecuyer 2008, Mehrotra and Fama 2003, Mehrotra et al. 2010, Shen and Huang 2008, Soyer and Tarimcilar 2008, Taylor 2008, 2012, Weinberg et al. 2007). However, this literature typically models only telephone call arrivals and often assumes exogenous arrival rates for queries. In the present work, we model both query arrival and channel choice (with telephone as only one of the various channels that consumers can use to make queries), and make both of these processes endogenous to the model by making a customer's observed behavior a stochastic function of the customer's latent information stock, which is dependent on her history of health events and queries with the firm. Our approach is related to the recent movement in operations management towards more accurately modeling consumer behavior in operational models (Netessine and Tang 2009). Additionally, there are related empirical studies that estimate parameters of the queuing systems in retail, healthcare and fast food settings (Kim et al. 2013, Lu et al. 2013, Pierson et al. 2011) all of which, again, only have a single stream of customers.

Recent advances in technology have enabled firms and customers to communicate via multiple channels; therefore, multichannel customer management has become one of the key challenges faced by practitioners (Neslin et al. 2006). Management of multichannel support services has become one of the hottest issues as evidenced by industry surveys, trade publications and
discussions with top management; it suffices to visit websites of solutions providers such as Multichannel Merchant and eGain. Sun and Li (2010) study interactions between on-shore and off-shore call centers. Marketing scholars have also studied issues in multichannel customer management, focusing primarily on interactions among different sales channels such as online sales, physical store sales, catalog sales, etc., (Ansari et al. 2008, Danaher et al. 2003, Deleersnyder et al. 2002, Geykens et al. 2002, Inman et al. 2004, Knox 2007, Shankar et al. 2003). In contrast, there is relatively little empirical work on multichannel customer support services. This research is an attempt to start filling this gap.

3 Research Setting, Data Description and Preliminary Analysis

We study customer behavior at a multichannel call center of a major US health insurance firm. The firm has a customer base of over three million. Customers purchase annual health insurance plans from the firm and thereafter utilize the plans to get their medical expenditures reimbursed. During the health plan usage, customers often have queries regarding their plan coverage, status of claims, etc., for which they contact the firm. During the study period, the firm offered support to its customers via telephone (assisted channel) and web portal (self-service channel). For web portal usage, customers have to first register at the web portal. Thereafter, they can visit the web portal at their convenience and obtain information regarding their plan benefits, their claim status, details of participating health providers, general information on diseases, etc. Interacting with a customer via the web portal costs the firm an order of magnitude less as compare to interacting via the telephone channel. This is in line with industry estimates that suggest that, per contact occasion, it costs a typical firm $0.24 on average to interact with a customer via the web portal, whereas it costs $5.50 on average to interact via telephone (Kingstone 2006). Therefore, the firm in question, like many other similar firms, is interested in predicting future load on different channels for more efficient resource allocation by better understanding the determinants of customer channel choice.

We collected data for a random sample of 2462 customers from the web-registered customer population of the firm. Roughly 35% of the firm's three million customers were registered to use the web portal, and these customers account for 64% of the total telephone calls to the firm's call center. From our discussions with the firm's representatives, we learned that customers who are heavier users of the insurance service are more likely to register on the web portal and also make significantly more queries—on average, a non-web registered customer makes 0.53 telephone queries per year, whereas a web-registered customer makes 1.74 telephone queries and 3.13 web visits per year. In other words, the web-registered customers are also among the most active in terms of telephone queries, and the firm is interested in learning the multichannel behavior of these customers. Although the results we
present are valid only for the customers who use both the web and the telephone channels, our modeling framework is generic and it can be applied for customers who have access to only telephone channel.

For the 2462 customers, we constructed an individual-level dataset covering the 30-month time period from July 2005 to December 2007 by extracting relevant information from several disparate databases of the firm. Using the claims processing database of the firm, we collected data on the date of claim filing, the customer out-of-pocket expenses and the provider charges for each claim. We extracted telephone usage information, specifically, the date of a telephone call, from the Automatic Call Distributor (ACD) of the call center. Finally, we extracted web portal usage information from the web informatics database of the firm. Brief summary statistics on claims and queries are reported in Table 1.

The key idea behind our modeling approach is that filing claims leads to information needs for customers, to resolve which they contact support services with queries. This directly implies that, in our data, the queries should be correlated with the number and severity of claims. Before we develop the full model, we test for this relationship in the data through a simple analysis. Using the following fixed-effects model, we regress the total monthly number of queries for customer $i$ on the monthly number of claims she files, controlling for the other relevant variables that may affect the number of queries:

$$Q_{it} = a_i + g_t + b_1 CLM_{it} + b_2 CHRG_{it} + \epsilon_{it}$$

where $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 2462\}$ denotes the customer, $t \in \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 29\}$ denotes the months from July 2005 to December 2007, $Q_{it}$, $CLM_{it}$, and $CHRG_{it}$ denote, respectively, the total number of queries, total number of claims and total claim charges (in thousands of dollars). Customer-level fixed effect ($a_i$) accounts for unobserved differences across customers and month-level fixed-effect ($g_t$) control for seasonal variations in queries. For instance, customers are more likely to call in certain months of the year, such as during the insurance contract renewal month or during allergy seasons.

The estimate of $b_1$ is 0.020 and is statistically significant at the 1% level. This indicates that,
after controlling for other factors that affect queries, and even though we expect certain amounts of noise, randomness and heterogeneity in how consumers respond to the information need generated by claims, the total number of monthly queries is strongly positively correlated with the total number of monthly claims for customers. This result gives confidence in our modeling approach. The estimate of $b_2$ is 0.004 and is statistically significant at the 5% level. This indicates that queries increase for claims with higher charges. After obtaining these preliminary reassuring results, we now proceed to develop our model.

4 Model Development

In this section, we first develop time series and probabilistic benchmark models, and then we develop our information stock based model.

4.1 Model 1: Time Series Benchmark Model

We first model customers' queries with the following linear fixed-effect time series regression specification:

$$Q_{ijt} = \alpha_i + \gamma_j + \beta_1 \sum_{CLM_{it-1}} + \beta_2 \sum_{CHRG_{it-1}} + \beta_3 \sum_{Q_{ijt-1}} + \epsilon_{ijt}$$  (2)

where $i \in \{1,2,\ldots,2462\}$ denotes the customer, $j \in \{telephone, web\}$ denotes the channels of query, and $t \in \{0,1,2,\ldots,23\}$ denotes the months from July 2005 to June 2007. In the left hand side of specification (2), $Q_{ijt}$ denotes the total queries made by customer $i$ on channel $j$ in month $t$. In the right hand side of specification (2), $\sum_{CLM_{it-1}}, \sum_{CHRG_{it-1}},$ and $\sum_{Q_{ijt-1}}$ denote, respectively, the cumulative number of claims, claim charges, and queries of type $j$ till month $(t-1)$ for customer $i$. The parameters $\alpha_i$, and $\gamma_j$, respectively, capture the customer and month fixed-effects. The customer fixed-effects account for customer level scale differences in queries and the month fixed-effects account for the seasonality in queries.

4.2 Model 2: Probabilistic Benchmark Model

Invoking queuing theory-based work (Kleinrock 1975) as well as research on call center management (Gans et al. 2003), we assume that query arrival at the call center is governed by a Poisson process. In addition, once the query arrives, customers make a Bernoulli choice between telephone and web channel. Let $\lambda_{i0}$ be the baseline mean query arrival rate and $p_{i0}$ be the baseline web choice probability for customer $i$. We allow for seasonality in both the query arrival rate and the web choice probability. Accordingly, for customer $i$ in month $m$, the mean query arrival rate is $\lambda_{im} = \lambda_{i0} \exp(I_m)$ and the
web choice probability is \( p_{im} = \frac{\exp(\pi g f_m)}{1 - p_{io} + p_{io} \exp(\pi g f_m)} \), where \( I_m \) denotes 24 monthly parameters to be estimated \( m \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., 23\} \) (we use 24 months of data for estimation). Let \( t_{ij} \) be the time of arrival of the \( j^{th} \) query for customer \( i \) falling in month \( m \), where \( j = 1, 2, 3, ..., x_i \) represents the sequence number of queries. The likelihood of the observed \( x_i \) query arrivals for the customer \( i \) if her \( j^{th} \) query comes in month \( m \) is:

\[
L_i = \prod_{j=1}^{x_i} \lambda_{im} e^{-\lambda_{im}(t_{ij} - t_{(j-1)})} p_{im}^{y_{ij}} (1 - p_{im})^{(1-y_{ij})},
\]

where \( y_{ij} = 1 \) if the \( j^{th} \) query for customer \( i \) is a web portal visit and 0 otherwise. For \( i = 1, 2, ..., N \) customers, the likelihood of the observed web and telephone queries for \( N \) customers is:

\[
L = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^{x_i} \lambda_{im} e^{-\lambda_{im}(t_{ij} - t_{(j-1)})} + \lambda_{im} p_{im}^{y_{ij}} (1 - p_{im})^{(1-y_{ij})} \right\}.
\]

In this model, \( \lambda_{io} \) and \( p_{io} \) are the latent propensities governing customer \( i \)'s observed behavior. Furthermore, different customers may have different latent propensities for their query processes. Some customers may inherently have the tendency to ask more queries than others from the firm. Moreover, different customers may have different preferences for the channel to use—for instance, some customers may be very web savvy and therefore prefer the web channel over telephone, while older customers may prefer the telephone channel. We allow for unobserved heterogeneity in customers’ behaviors by allowing the baseline query arrival rates \( \lambda_{io} \) to be distributed across customers as gamma distribution and baseline web choice probability \( p_{io} \) as beta distribution. Specifically, we assume that \( \lambda_{io} \sim \text{gamma} (\gamma, \theta) \) and \( p_{io} \sim \text{beta} (a, b) \), i.e.

\[
f(\lambda_{io}|\gamma, \theta) = \frac{\theta^\gamma \lambda_{io}^{(\gamma-1)} e^{-\theta \lambda_{io}}}{\Gamma(\gamma)} \quad \text{and} \quad f(p_{io}|a, b) = \frac{p_{io}^{a-1} (1-p_{io})^{(b-1)}}{B(a,b)}
\]

Note that we do not observe customer-level characteristics in our data and cannot control for observed heterogeneity. However, controlling for unobserved heterogeneity as explained above implies that we control for customer identities. We also note that the above model is equivalent to the NBD/BB model with covariates (Fader and Hardie 2000, Goodhardt et al. 1984, Jeuland et al. 1980, Schmittlein et al. 1985).

### 4.3 Model 3: Information Stock Model

We wish to carefully model the query arrival and channel choice processes for customers. An effective approach to do this, used widely in the marketing and economics literatures, is by modeling a latent construct that drives observed behavior. For instance, McFadden (1973) introduced the idea
that the latent construct, “utility,” drives the stochastic choice process leading to observed consumer choice. Moe and Fader (2004) examine consumers’ dynamic purchase behavior at an e-commerce website with a latent visit effect that evolves over visits. Netzer et al. (2008) examine alumni gift-giving behavior by using a nonhomogeneous hidden Markov model in which donors transition from one latent relationship state with their university to another.

In a similar vein, we model the observed multichannel behavior of a customer as a stochastic function of a latent propensity of the customer. This latent construct in our model is the information stock. We assume that, at any point in time, each customer has an “information stock” which determines her query frequency and channel choice behaviors. The information stock of a customer, in turn, is determined by the information needs that arise about the insurance contract as she uses the insurance plan (for instance, queries about their medical coverage, claim processing procedures, and operational details of the contract), and the information gain that she obtains upon contacting the firm through the telephone or the web channels. The model we build falls in the class of probability models of customer behavior (see Fader and Hardie (2009) for a review). We note that information stock is a theoretical construct that can be used to model customers’ multichannel query behavior based on an intuitive and plausible “story” that drives the behavior; we do not imply that customers actually have such a stock, or that it is an accurate description of how customers make their decisions. As we show shortly, our modeling approach is a very effective one.

We categorize a customer’s information stock into two broad categories, as appropriate for the setting we model. The first category is transactional information stock, which is determined by the health events faced by a customer. We assume that each insurance claim filed by the customer (or by a doctor’s office on the customer’s behalf) after a health event leads to information need $C$ for the customer. In other words, with each additional claim, the information need of the customer increases by $C$. In order to fulfill her information needs, the customer can approach the firm through its support channels and receive some information gain from contacting the support channels. We assume that each web portal visit provides the customer with an information gain $W$, and each telephone call provides the customer with an information gain $T$. These information needs and gains determine her transactional information stock. It is plausible that the information stock declines with time i.e. a customer is more likely to make a query pertaining to more recent claims. Therefore, we allow for the decay of transactional information stock with time. Note that transactional information stock varies across customers based on the number and timings of claims they file and the queries they make; however, the values of $C$, $W$ and $T$ are assumed to be the same for all claims, web visits, and telephone calls, respectively.
The claims filed and queries made by customers over a period can be organized into a set of sequences, where each sequence contains several claims followed by a query. Consider a customer denoted by $i$ who receives $n_{i0}$ claims (1, 2, …, $n_{i0}$) at time $t_{i01}, t_{i02}, \ldots, t_{i0n_{i0}}$ and then makes the first query at time $t_{i1}$. We denote the net transactional information stock after the first query for customer $i$ by $I_{i1}$, given by:

$$I_{i1} = \sum_{v=1}^{n_{i0}} C \delta F(t_{i0v}, t_{i1}) - (y_{i1} W + (1 - y_{i1}) T),$$

where $y_{i1} = 1$ if the first query for customer $i$ is a web portal visit and 0 otherwise, and $F(x_1, x_2)$ is a function that returns a natural number that denotes the number of months that have passed between calendar time $x_1$ and calendar time $x_2 > x_1$. The parameter $\delta$ captures the rate at which the transactional information stock decays with time. We assume that transactional information stock decays at monthly intervals, i.e., it remains same within a month but decays by a factor of $\delta$ for every calendar month that passes. This decay process for information stock is modeled on the lines of the decay process often used for “ad stock,” i.e., the cumulative lagged effect of advertising, in the advertising literature (Broadbent 1979, Danaher et al. 2008, Dube et al. 2005, Gijsenberg 2011). Assume that this customer makes the $j^{th}$ query at time $t_{ij}$ and then makes $k$ claims after the $j^{th}$ query at time $t_{ijk}, t_{ijk2}, \ldots, t_{ijkk}$. Between two queries, several claims are filed by the customer. Let $n_{ij}$ be the number of claims that are filed between the $j^{th}$ and $(j+1)^{th}$ query by customer $i$. We denote the net transactional information stock after $k$ claims after the $j^{th}$ query for customer $i$ by $I_{ijk}$, given by

$$I_{ijk} = \sum_{z=1}^{j} I_{ijz} - \sum_{z=1}^{j} \left[ y_{iz} W + (1 - y_{iz}) T \right] \delta F(t_{iz}, t_{ijk}) + \sum_{v=1}^{k} C \delta F(t_{ijkv}, t_{ijkk})$$

where $y_{iz} = 1$ if the $z^{th}$ query for customer $i$ is a web portal visit and 0 otherwise. (For clarity, note that $I_{ij}$ is the net stock of information need for customer $i$ after her $j^{th}$ query. The customer receives several claims between her two queries. $I_{ijk}$ denotes the net stock of information need for customer $i$ after $k$ claims after her $j^{th}$ query, i.e., between her $j^{th}$ and $(j+1)^{th}$ query.) We note that our nomenclature implies that when a customer experiences an information gain, her transactional information stock reduces, and when she experiences an information need, her transactional information stock increases.

The dynamics in the transactional information stock are shown in Figure 1 using an example sequence of events for a customer. For this example, at the beginning of Month 1, the transactional information stock has the value 0. A claim arrives in the middle of the month at time $t_{i0}$ and the transactional information stock value becomes $C$. The value remains the same until time $t_{i0}$ when another claim arrives and the transactional information stock value becomes $2C$. This value remains until time $t_{i1}$ when customer makes a telephone query and the value becomes $2C-T$. When the second month starts, the transactional information stock decays by $\delta$ to take the value $\delta^*(2C-T)$. The value remains at this level until time $t_{i11}$, when another claim arrives and the transactional information stock
value becomes $\delta^*(2C-T) + C$. The process continues in this fashion, as shown in the figure.

Figure 1: Illustration of the Dynamics in a Customer’s Transactional Information Stock

The second category of information stock is *seasonal* information stock, which is determined by needs and gains that arise due to insurance plan-related events in time. For instance, around the time of insurance contract renewal, customers make more queries regarding their ID card, renewal of their web portal login and password, insurance forms to be used in the upcoming year, etc. Similarly, the firm sends seasonal information bulletins to consumers, in allergy seasons, for instance, leading to information gains. These seasonal information needs are variable with time but applicable to all customers at a given point in time. We model seasonal information needs at the monthly level. We use 24 months of data for estimation. We use parameters $I_m$ to denote the seasonal information stock, equally applicable to all customers, in month $m$, where $m \in \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 23\}$.

The *total* stock of information need for customer $i$ after the $k^{th}$ claim after the $j^{th}$ query, and when the month is $m$, is given by $I_{ijk} + I_m$, and is the sum of the transactional and seasonal information stocks. We assume that customer query arrival and channel choice for the query are driven by the total information stock that the customer has at a given time.

We model the query arrival process as a Poisson process. The rate for this process, for customer $i$ after the $k^{th}$ claim after the $j^{th}$ query, and when the month is $m$, is given by:

$$\lambda_{ijkm} = \lambda_{i0} \exp(I_{ijk} + I_m),$$

where $\lambda_{i0}$ is the baseline mean query arrival rate for customer $i$. Therefore, the mean query arrival
rate, $\lambda_{ijkm}$, will change for a customer with arrival of claims or queries or with a change in month, i.e., query arrival for a customer is modeled as a non-homogeneous Poisson process with the mean rate of arrival changing with the customer’s information stock. Note that a higher information stock denotes a higher information need, which corresponds to a larger query arrival rate.

We assume that, after the customer has decided to make a query, she makes a Bernoulli choice between using the web and making a telephone call to resolve her query, with a web choice probability $p$. Since telephone calls are answered by trained representatives of the firm, it is likely that when the information need is high, customers prefer making a telephone call. Likewise, it may be possible that customers prefer the web portal for structured information needs such as seeking insurance contract-related information, such as applying for a new insurance card. We allow for these possibilities by modeling the web choice probability, $p_{ijm}$, as a function of the two types of information stocks. We define the web choice probability for the $j^{th}$ query for customer $i$, where the $j^{th}$ query for the customer arrives in month $m$, as:

$$
\pi_{ijm} = \pi_{i0} \exp(\pi_T I_i + \pi_S S_m) \left[1 - \pi_{i0} + \pi_{i0} \exp(\pi_T I_i + \pi_S S_m)\right],
$$

where, $\pi_{i0}$ indicates customer $i$’s baseline web choice probability independent of information need. The parameters $\pi_T$ and $\pi_S$ are included to make the model flexible by allowing the impacts of the transactional and seasonal information stocks, respectively, to be different on the channel choice probability than on the query arrival rate. The values that these parameters take inform us on the sensitivity of the channel choice probability to the two kinds of information stocks. Note that the Bernoulli web choice probability $p_{ijm}$ for a customer changes with the arrival of claims and queries as well as with the change of month. (Note that we need channel choice probability only at the time of a query, and not after every claim, which is why the index $k$, which denotes claims arriving between queries in $\lambda_{ijkm}$, does not appear in the channel choice probability in (6).)

We now develop the likelihood function for the observed data for customer $i$. For notational simplicity, we suppress the subscript $m$ for month in the following derivation, i.e., we ignore the impact of the seasonal information stock and focus on the impact of the transactional information stock. Incorporating the seasonal information stock via month is straightforward since we only have to modify the query arrival rate and channel choice probability based on the month at a specific time.

The customer receives $n_{i0}$ claims (1, 2, …, $n_{i0}$) at time $t_{i01}$, $t_{i02}$, …, $t_{i0n_{i0}}$ and then the first query arrives at time $t_{i1}$. The processes up to the first query of the customer are: No query up to $t_{i01}$ at rate $\lambda_{i00}$; no query between $t_{i01}$ and $t_{i02}$ at rate $\lambda_{i01}$; …; no query between $t_{i0(n_{i0}-1)}$ and $t_{i0n_{i0}}$ at rate $\lambda_{i0(n_{i0}-1)}$;
query arrival at $t_{i0}$ with rate $\lambda_{i0n0}$ between $t_{i0n0}$ and $t_{i1}$; channel choice by customer for first query with web choice probability $p_{i1}$. Therefore, the likelihood function for customer $i$ up to the first query is:

$$L_{i1} = e^{-\lambda_{i0n0}\sum_{u=0}^{n1-1}(t_{i(u+1)}-t_{iu0})} \times \lambda_{i0n0}e^{-\lambda_{i0n0}(t_{i1}-t_{i0n0})} \times p_{i1}^{y_{i1}} (1 - p_{i1})^{(1-y_{i1})},$$

where $y_{i1} = 1$ if the first query for customer $i$ is a web portal visit and 0 otherwise.

The customer receives a total of $x_i$ queries with $n_{iz}$ claims between $z^{th}$ and $(z+1)^{th}$ query, where $z=0, 1, 2, \ldots, (x_i-1)$. The customer $i$ receives $g_i$ claims after the $x_i^{th}$ query till the end of our period of observation ($t_{end}$), which is the same for all customers. The total likelihood function for customer $i$ is:

$$L_i = \prod_{z=0}^{x_i-1} \left[ e^{-\left(\sum_{u=0}^{n_{iz}-1}\lambda_{izu}(t_{iz(u+1)}-t_{izu})\right)} \times \lambda_{izn_{iz}}e^{-\lambda_{izn_{iz}}(t_{i(z+1)}-t_{izn_{iz}})} \times p_{i(z+1)}^{y_{i(z+1)}} (1 - p_{i(z+1)})^{(1-y_{i(z+1)})} \right] \times e^{\sum_{u=0}^{g_i-1} -\lambda_{ix(u+1)}(t_{ix(u+1)}-t_{ixu})},$$

where $t_{ix(g_i+1)} = t_{end}$.

For $i=1, 2, \ldots, N$ customers, the likelihood of observed web and telephone queries is:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^{N} L_i \tag{8}$$

As the subscript $m$ for month was suppressed in (7), the Poisson mean query arrival rate $\lambda_{ijk}$ and the Bernoulli web choice probability $p_{ij}$ utilized in (7) and (8) are actually $\lambda_{ijkm}$ and $p_{ijm}$ computed with appropriate transactional and seasonal information stock components as per Equations (5) and (6), respectively.

So far we have assumed that all claims for a customer give her the same information need $C$. However, claims with different characteristics may lead to different information needs. For instance, customers are more likely to make queries for claims where they have to pay out-of-pocket charges or for claims of higher value. Therefore, we allow for different information needs for claims based on whether the customer has to pay out of her pocket. For customer $i$’s claim associated with health event $h$, we assume that:

$$C_{ih} = C_0 \exp(\alpha_{LIAB} \cdot D_{LIAB,ih}),$$

where, $D_{LIAB,ih}$ is a dummy variable which is equal to 1 if the claim has positive customer out-of-pocket expenses and 0 otherwise, $\alpha_{LIAB}$ is the impact of a claim with positive customer liability on the information need created by the claim, and $C_0$ is the baseline information need from a claim which is constant across all claims and across all customers. Note that we are able to only consider how the
above characteristics of health events influence information needs. Clearly, however, our specification in (9) can be extended easily to incorporate other characteristics of health events.

We account for unobserved heterogeneity across customers in their propensities to make queries and to use the web portal when they are making a query. Across customers, we assume gamma-distributed heterogeneity in the baseline query arrival rate, \( \lambda_{i0} \sim \text{gamma}(\gamma, \theta) \), and beta-distributed heterogeneity in the baseline web-choice probability, \( p_{i0} \sim \text{beta}(a, b) \), i.e.,

\[
 f(\lambda_{i0}|\gamma, \theta) = \frac{\gamma \lambda_{i0}^{(\gamma-1)} e^{-\lambda_{i0}\theta}}{\Gamma(\gamma)} \quad \text{and} \quad f(p_{i0}|a, b) = \frac{p_{i0}^{a}(1-p_{i0})^{b}}{B(a, b)}.
\]

We note that we have claim and query activity of the consumers recorded at the daily level. Therefore, we build and estimate the information stock model (and for the probabilistic benchmark model) at the daily level. However, it is important to note that our probability models are duration models, i.e., the actual time elapsed between events is appropriately accounted for. We also note that, in information stock model, there are two components that we have operationalized at the monthly level: (1) the change in information stock due to seasonality, and (2) the decay in transactional information stock. This is done primarily to reduce the complexity and computational burden in estimating the likelihood function.

We do not have data on demographic information for the customers, the content of any telephone calls made by a customer, or the web pages visited by a customer during a web visit. Our data are primarily on the “transactions” of the customer with the firm; the main reason for using these data is that such data are easy to collect and have no related privacy issues, unlike customer demographic information. Since most firms have ready access to such data, we expect our model to be useful for a typical firm’s customer support center. Moreover, even with the limited data that we use, our model demonstrates limited predictive power, as we show shortly.

Without the information stock component, our model reduces to the Probabilistic Benchmark Model, which is the widely-used NBD/BB model. Looked at another way, our model is the NBD/BB model augmented with the information stock component, the conceptualization and development of the latter being our key contribution. We also note that our model is quite general and can be applied to other similar situations as well. For instance, if there are more than two support channels, our model can easily be extended to a NBD/Dirichlet model (Goodhardt et al. 1984) with straightforward adjustments to the expressions for information stocks. Similarly, our model can be easily estimated for non-web registered customers who have access to only one channel, i.e., the telephone channel. Necessary tweaks can also be made to the query-arrival process if needed to capture patterns in the
data at hand; for instance, instead of the Poisson arrival process, the more flexible Erlang-2 arrival process can be used for query arrival (Jeuland et al. 1980). In our specific case, the Poisson arrival process is sufficient.

5 Estimation and Results

5.1 Estimation Procedure

We estimated the parameters of Model 1 using the fixed effect OLS regression routine in STATA. For estimating the parameters of Models 2 and 3, we use a hierarchical Bayes framework (Gelman et al. 2009). For the information-stock model (Model 3), we group parameters into two sets: (1) information stock-related parameters ($C_0, W, T, \delta, \alpha_{LAB}, I_m, \pi_T, \pi_S$), and (2) parameters that determine heterogeneity in baselines rates across customers ($\gamma, \theta, a, b$). For our probabilistic benchmark model (Model 2) we have only the heterogeneity parameters ($\gamma_T, \theta_T, \gamma_W, \theta_W$). We use the following Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains (details are provided in the Online Appendix):

- Draw ($\lambda_{i0}, p_{i0} | C_0, W, T, \delta, I_m, \pi_T, \pi_S, \alpha_{LAB}, \gamma, \theta, a, b, \text{data}$) using the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm;
- Draw ($C_0, W, T, \delta, I_m, \pi_T, \pi_S, \alpha_{LAB} | \gamma, \theta, a, b, \lambda_{i0}, p_{i0} \text{ data}$) using the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm;
- Draw ($\gamma, \theta, a, b| C_0, W, T, \delta, I_m, \pi_T, \pi_S, \alpha_{LAB}, \lambda_{i0}, p_{i0}$) using the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm.

We ran 40,000 iterations of the MCMC steps; the first 30,000 iterations were used as initial burn-in to reach convergence, which we checked visually, and the last 10,000 iterations were used to infer the posterior distributions of the parameters. We used multiple starting values for the MCMC chains and confirmed that the parameters converged to the same values.

Identification and Parameter Recovery. We now briefly discuss how the parameters in the proposed model are identified given the variation in our data. The parameters $\gamma$ and $\theta$, which determine the heterogeneity distribution in the baseline query propensities across customers, are identified by the differences in overall mean query arrival rates across customers. Similarly, the parameters $a$ and $b$, which determine the heterogeneity distribution in the baseline web-choice propensities across customers, are identified by the differences in overall web-choice rates across customers. In addition, the parametric forms that we assume for these heterogeneity distributions also help in identification. (Note, however, that we use flexible distributions that can take various shapes.) The set of parameters $I_m$, which determine seasonal information stock in different months, are identified by the common
variation in query rates and web-choice rates across calendar months for all customers. The transactional information stock parameters \( C_0, W \) and \( T \) are identified by the variation in the query rates at different channels for different periods with respect to the average overall claim arrival and query rates for customers in that period, after controlling for the baseline query rates for the customers and common monthly variations in query rates across customers. The decay parameter \( \delta \) is identified by the differences in customers’ actions in periods immediately after a sequence of claims versus actions several periods after. The parameter \( \alpha_{LIAB} \), which determines the impact on information need generated by claims for which customers have out-of-pocket expenses, is identified by the variation in the presence of out-of-pocket expenses across different claims. The parameters \( \pi_T \) and \( \pi_S \), which determine how channel choice is influenced by the transactional and seasonal information stocks, respectively, are identified by the variation in web-choice probabilities with the changes in the two categories of information stocks, after controlling for overall channel choice probabilities.

To further check whether the parameters of the proposed model are well identified from the variations in our data, we conducted a simulation study. In this study, we simulated data from the model using sets of pre-determined parameter values to cover a variety of cases with respect to the relative values of the different support channels and the heterogeneity in latent propensities across customers. Then, using the procedure described above, we estimated the model on the simulated data to check: (i) whether the recovered parameter values match the actual parameter values used for data generation, and (ii) whether the estimated parameter values can accurately recover aggregate query volumes in the data. We find that, in all the cases that we considered, recovery of parameters as well as of aggregate statistics in the data is very good. This analysis provides confidence in our estimated parameters. More details are available in the Online Appendix.

5.2 Model Estimates

We calibrated Model 1, Model 2 and Model 3 on the first 24 months of data (from July 2005 to June 2007), and used the last six months of data (July 2007 to December 2007) as a holdout sample.

In Table 2a, we report the estimates for the time series benchmark model (Model 1). These estimates show that queries (both telephone and web portal) are positively correlated with the lagged cumulative number of claims, and negatively correlated with the lagged cumulative number of queries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficient Estimate (Cluster Corrected Robust Std. Err.)</th>
<th>Telephone Queries</th>
<th>Web Queries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter</td>
<td>Probabilistic Benchmark Model (Model 2)</td>
<td>Information Stock Model (Model 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta_1$  (impact of cumulative lagged claims)</td>
<td>0.002*** (0.000)</td>
<td>0.002*** (0.000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta_2$  (impact of cumulative lagged provider charges)</td>
<td>-0.003 (0.003)</td>
<td>-0.006 (0.005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta_3$  (impact of cumulative lagged queries)</td>
<td>-0.046*** (0.002)</td>
<td>-0.001** (0.000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-square | 0.71 | 0.64 |

*** and ** denote statistically significant coefficient estimates at the 1% and 5% levels, respectively.

Table 2a: Estimation Results for Model 1 (Times Series Benchmark Model)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Probabilistic Benchmark Model (Model 2)</th>
<th>Information Stock Model (Model 3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma$</td>
<td>0.683 [0.638, 0.719]</td>
<td>0.887 [0.835, 0.926]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\theta$</td>
<td>64.691 [58.526, 70.699]</td>
<td>126.16 [112.02, 136.13]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a$</td>
<td>0.490 [0.456, 0.526]</td>
<td>0.492 [0.448, 0.532]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>0.701 [0.651, 0.777]</td>
<td>0.716 [0.653, 0.798]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_0$ (baseline information need from claim)</td>
<td>0.258 [0.209, 0.305]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$W$ (information gain from web visit)</td>
<td>0.835 [0.795, 0.871]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$ (information gain from telephone call)</td>
<td>1.801 [1.679, 1.935]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\delta$ (decay factor)</td>
<td>0.425 [0.406, 0.447]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\pi_T$ (impact of transactional info stock on query channel choice)</td>
<td>-0.039 [-0.158, -0.077]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\pi_S$ (impact of seasonal info stock on query channel choice)</td>
<td>0.302 [0.164, 0.432]</td>
<td>0.303 [0.154, 0.474]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_{LAB}$ (impact on information need for claim with customer liability)</td>
<td>-0.007 [-0.250, 0.214]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2b: Estimation Results for Model 2 and Model 3 (for each parameter, we report the posterior mean followed by the 95% credible interval)

In Table 2b, we report the estimation results for the probabilistic benchmark model (Model 2) and the information stock model (Model 3). We report the values of the 23 seasonal information stock parameters for Model 3 in Table A2 in the Online Appendix. In Table 2b, the higher value of log marginal density for the information stock model and the large value of the log Bayes factor suggest that the information stock model fits the observed data better than the probabilistic benchmark model. Next, we look at model predictions to aid us in determining which model best fits the data.
5.3 Model Predictions

Since a main use of our model is as a predictive tool, we subject it to a rigorous analysis for both aggregate-level and individual-level predictive accuracy.

**Aggregate-Level Predictions.** For Models 1, 2 and 3, we predict total queries, telephone queries and web queries for each customer in our sample for the calibration period (July 2005 to June 2007) as well as the hold-out period (July 2007 to December 2007). To test these predictions from the models, we aggregate them across the full cohort of customers, and also aggregate them across time to the monthly level. We report the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) values for the in-sample and out-of-sample predictions from the three models in Table 3. It is clear from this table that, as compared to the benchmark models, the information stock model makes significantly superior in-sample and out-of-sample predictions for total queries, telephone queries, as well as web queries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>In-Sample Predictions</th>
<th>Out-of-Sample Predictions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Queries</td>
<td>Telephone Queries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times Series BM Model (Model 1)</td>
<td>7.30%</td>
<td>7.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probabilistic BM Model (Model 2)</td>
<td>5.91%</td>
<td>8.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Stock Model (Model 3)</td>
<td>2.40%</td>
<td>5.11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Prediction Errors (MAPE)

Our model could be used by the firm for capacity planning for the telephone and web channels. An aspect that is important in capacity planning is over-predictions and under-predictions by the model. While over-prediction of calls results in excess deployment of customer service representatives (CSRs) and hence extra costs, under-prediction of calls leads to shortage of CSR deployment and consequently higher call blockage/abandonment rates and call waiting leading to a higher customer dissatisfaction. To assess this, for each model, we make monthly out-of-sample predictions (i.e., for the months July 07 to December 07) for telephone queries and web visits and track whether the model over-predicted or under-predicted for a particular month. We then assign different importance weights to the over-predictions and under-predictions and find a consolidated error percentage for the different models, averaged across the six months. In Table 4, we show the error numbers for different sets of weights for over- and under-prediction. The three rows of the table consider different relative costs of over- and under-predictions. The first row of the table assumes that
over-predictions and under-predictions are equally weighted (these error numbers are the same as the corresponding error numbers in Table 3), the second row assumes that over-predictions are twice as costly as under-predictions and the third row assumes that under-predictions are twice as costly as over-predictions. In each case, we find that the information stock model does significantly better than the benchmark models for both telephone and web predictions. We have considered other relative weights of over-prediction and under-prediction errors as well, and this pattern holds consistently. Overall, we can say that for the purposes of capacity planning, our proposed model will perform significantly better than the benchmark models, especially if under-predictions of query numbers is more costly than over-predictions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Over:Under Weight</th>
<th>Time Series BM Model</th>
<th>Probabilistic BM Model</th>
<th>Information Stock Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Telephone Queries</td>
<td>Web Queries</td>
<td>Telephone Queries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>18.10%</td>
<td>26.41%</td>
<td>10.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1</td>
<td>16.58%</td>
<td>30.06%</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>19.07%</td>
<td>22.76%</td>
<td>12.43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Out-of-Sample MAPE with Different Weights for Over- and Under-Prediction

**Individual-Level Predictions.** An additional advantage of the information stock model is that it can predict queries at the individual-customer level based on each customer's calculated information stock. Using these predictions, we can use the model to better identify, as compared to the benchmark models, the customers who are likely to make a telephone call in a particular time period (say, one month). To test how well the model can do this, we compute the calling probability for each customer for each month in the out-of-sample period (July 2007 to December 2007), and then sort customers in descending order of their calling probabilities given by the information stock model. We do the same for the benchmark models as well. We can identify the customers with high calling probability as the “calling customers” and compare them with the actual calling customers to show the predictive power of our model at the individual customer level. In Table 5 below, we show how many actual calling customers are correctly identified by each model for different cumulative quartiles of customers based on their computed calling probabilities. Clearly, the information stock model identifies calling customers quite well, and vastly more accurately as compared to the benchmark models. (Of course, as we take top 100% customers sorted based on the calling probabilities, all calling customers will be identified)
Top percentile of customers based on their calling probabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% Correctly Identified Calling Customers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time Series Benchmark Model (Model 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>40.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td>60.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75%</td>
<td>84.82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Identification of Calling Customers

The analysis above helps to determine the accuracy of the different models in identifying top calling customers. In addition, we conduct alternative rigorous analysis of the model’s predictive ability. Specifically, we sort calling customers by the number of actual queries and then segment the cohort into quartiles by the degree of activity, and then see the performance of the models across these quartiles. This ensures that we compare the predictive accuracy of the three models on the same cohort of calling customers. In Table 6, we provide the correctly predicted calling customers in each quartile from each model in each month of the out-of-sample period. Note that quartile 1 is composed of the highest-calling customers, and quartile 4 is composed of the lowest-calling customers. The averaged numbers in the last row of the table clearly show that the information stock model performs the best (and very well) in terms of identifying calling customers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mon th</th>
<th>Actual no. of calling customers in each quartile</th>
<th>Number of correctly predicted calling customers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information stock model</td>
<td>Probabilistic BM model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st Qrt</td>
<td>2nd Qrt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average % correctly identified</td>
<td>93.6%</td>
<td>90.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Quartile-wise accuracy in identifying calling customers

So far we have compared the model accuracy in correctly identifying calling customers. However, to assess the overall predictive power of our model, we need to compare its accuracy in identifying both calling as well as non-calling customers with that from the benchmark models. Therefore, we computed rates of true positives (TP; correctly predicted calling customers), false
positives (FP; incorrectly predicted calling customers), true negatives (TN; correctly predicted non-calling customers) and false negatives (FN; incorrectly predicted non-calling customers) from the different models. For each month, we predict the calling and non-calling customers from each model and then we can determine the rates of TP, FP, TN and FN. In Table 7, we provide the percentages of TP, TN, FP and FN, averaged over the six months. From Table 7, we find that the information stock model does significantly better in correctly identifying the actual calling customers (86.6%) as compared to the benchmark models (66.2% and 47.7% for the probabilistic benchmark model and the time series benchmark model, respectively). Moreover, the information stock model also makes significantly less error in misidentifying the non-calling customers as calling customers (10.7%) as compared to the benchmark models (27.3% and 40.2% for the probabilistic benchmark model and the time series benchmark model, respectively). This clearly shows the good performance of the information stock model in identifying calling and non-calling individuals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Information Stock Model</th>
<th>Probabilistic BM Model</th>
<th>Time Series BM Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TP</td>
<td>86.6%</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>98.7%</td>
<td>96.8%</td>
<td>95.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FN</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Average TP, FP, TN and FN

Identification of calling customers with high accuracy can be a great advantage to the firm. For instance, once the high-calling-probability customers are identified, to resolve their queries proactively and pre-empt some of their calls, the firm's customer service representatives (CSRs) can make outgoing calls to them in non-peak times of the day when the CSRs are free. In other words, information about calling customers can be utilized to reduce peak-time telephone calls by using interventions of the above nature. As the CSRs are deployed at call centers primarily based on the predicted peak-time call load, making calls to customers in advance may reduce the peak-time call load and thus save CSR-related costs for the company. For instance, according to Table 5, if the top 25% of customers based on calling probability are considered, the information stock model, on average, is able to correctly identify approximately 85.39% of the calling customers in a month. If 30% of the total customers make calls at the peak time, then approximately 85.39*0.3=26% of the total customers making peak time calls would be correctly identified by our model. If we assume that by making outgoing calls to these customers, calls from half of these customers are avoided, i.e., approximately 26/2=13% of total calls are avoided, it would result in significant cost savings for the firm. For instance, the firm we obtained data from has approximately three million customers making on average 440,000 calls per month; in this case, making outgoing calls to the identified customers
may result in a reduction of roughly $440,000 \times 0.13 = 57200$ peak-time calls per month, or $57200/22=2600$ peak time calls per day (assuming 22 working days per month), which can lead to very significant savings.

Note that call centers typically make staff allocation plans at the weekly, daily or, sometimes, even hourly levels. Even though our analysis is conducted at the monthly level, the results obtained can be used to make decisions for shorter time frames. For instance, once a planner is given a list of customers with a high probability of calling in the near future (specifically, in the next one month), he can use this information to make scheduling and staff allocation decisions for time frames shorter than one month, as the need may be. Naturally, if we had more data, we could model information stock not at the monthly but at the weekly or even daily levels, which is expected to improve the predictive power of the model. Since we are limited to a data sample, we model information stock at the monthly level; however, we conducted a weekly analysis as well and obtained insights and predictive performance qualitatively similar to what is presented here.

5.4 **Inferences from the Information-Stock Model**

In this section, we discuss some inferences that can be made using the estimates of the information stock model. The distribution of the mean query arrival rate across customers in our sample is shown in the left plot in Figure 2. This long-tailed plot indicates that there is large heterogeneity in the baseline query arrival rates—a majority of the customers have a low query rate while a few customers have the propensity to make large numbers of queries. The median number of queries is 2.27 per year. The distribution of the web choice probability across customers in our sample is shown in the right plot in Figure 2, and indicates a polarized distribution, i.e., some customers (a relatively larger number) have quite low web-choice probability and can be classified as “web avoiders,” whereas other customers (a relatively smaller number) have quite high web-choice probability and can be classified as “web seekers.” The median web choice probability is 0.36.
The estimated value of the baseline information need from a claim, $C_0$, is 0.258, of the information gain from a web visit, $W$, is 0.835, and of the information gain from a telephone call, $T$, is 1.801. To obtain a more practical sense of how these values compare with each other, it is helpful to analyze their impact on observable metrics. The metric we focus on is the impact on the expected time of the next query by a customer. We conduct this analysis as follows. Assume that there is a representative customer who has zero information stock, i.e., only her baseline propensities are driving her query behavior, and the expected time until her next query is $D$ days. We (artificially) endow her with the information that she would need after $z_C$ claims, i.e., her information stock is $z_CC_0$. Suppose this reduces the expected time of her next query to $D - d_1$ days. We now (again, artificially) endow her with the information gain that she would obtain from one telephone call, $T$, so that her information stock is $z_CC_0 - T$. Suppose this gain increases the expected time of her next query to $D - d_1 + d_2$ days. We solve for the value of $z_C$ for which $D - d_1 + d_2 = D$, i.e., $d_1 = d_2$; given our parameter estimates, this value of $z_C$ is 6.981. To compare the information gain from a web visit and a telephone call, suppose the expected time of the next query of a representative hypothetical customer starting with zero information stock and then endowed with the information gain from one telephone call, $T$, is $D - d_1$ days. We solve for the value of $z_W$ such that the expected time of the next query of a representative customer starting with zero information stock and then endowed with the information gain from $z_W$ web visits, $z_WW$, is also $D - d_1$ days. This value of $z_W$ is 2.15.

In terms of the above metric, we find that, for a representative customer, the information gain from one telephone call is sufficient to meet the information need that arises from approximately seven claims. Similarly, the information gain from one telephone call is roughly equivalent to the information gain from two web portal visits. This analysis leads to the implication that, in our setting, a telephone call, on average, provides a large information gain to the customer in comparison to other channels. This result also shows that, in our setting, web visits are significantly less effective than telephone calls in resolving queries. This, in fact, is very much in line with the expectations of the firm’s managers whom we briefed on the results of this paper.

Next, we examine the impact of the two types of information stocks on the probability that a customer uses the web channel to resolve a query. The negative and significant estimate for $\pi_T (-0.039)$ suggests that the probability of web usage decreases with higher transactional information stock. Since transactional information stock is generated from health events, this implies that customers prefer to use the telephone channel for information needs generated by health events.
In contrast, the positive and significant estimate for $\pi_5$ (0.303) suggests that the probability of web usage increases with higher seasonal information stock. As pointed out earlier, seasonal information needs are typically related to the insurance contract, such as requests for ID cards, password/login updating, etc. This category of information is easy to retrieve on the web portal and thus customers tend to use the web portal for obtaining this type of information. These results are also in line with the results of Kumar and Telang (2012), who also studied a health insurance setting and found the web to be effective in resolving structured queries, but found the telephone to be effective in resolving unstructured and complex queries.

We find a significant estimate for $\delta$ (0.425), which translates into approximately 57.5% decay of transactional information stock in a month. We did not find the estimate of $\alpha_{\text{LAB}}$ to statistically significant in our data.

It is important to note that the model allows for stochasticity in customer behavior—larger $\lambda_{ijkm}$ implies that there is a tendency to make queries faster, and larger $p_{ijm}$ implies that there is a larger tendency to choose the web channel. Therefore, as more claims arrive for a customer, information needs increase. The customer could make a query even with a small information need that is generated when a claim arrives, but is more likely to make a query as the information need increases. A larger information need also makes it more likely that the telephone channel will be used.

Taking an overall view, the insights obtained from our parameter estimates lend face validity to our modeling approach. Note that the values above are specific to this setting and depend on many factors, such as the level of training of the customer service representatives who take calls and the helpfulness and ease-of-use of the website of the company. Needless to say, these values may differ in other settings. The model will have to be re-estimated to be informative for those settings, and is flexible enough to capture different patterns in other data sets. Before proceeding further, we clarify an important point, which is that the result that the telephone channel provides more information than the web channel does not necessarily imply that the web channel is a “bad” channel. To see this, note that we have conceptualized information as a one-dimensional construct. One can, however, think of information as a multi-dimensional construct, e.g., one dimension can capture complicated/unstructured information needs and another dimension can capture simpler/structured information needs. It may then be the case that the web channel is effective for simple/structured information needs but for not for complicated/unstructured information needs, while the telephone channel is effective for both. We have an indication of the same from the result that if information needs emanate from the seasonal information stock, then consumers tend to prefer the web channel.
However, to fully develop and estimate a model with multiple dimensions of information, we would need to know more details of the consumers’ interactions with the firm for every query instance (e.g., transcripts for the telephone conversations, and the clickstream data for the web visits). Unfortunately, we do not have data that is rich enough to calibrate such a model. Nevertheless, we note that our current results align with, or at least do not contradict, the conceptualization above. This is because simple information needs should be smaller in “magnitude” as compared to complicated information needs. Since our model shows that the web channel provides less information per interaction than the telephone channel, it indicates that the web channel should be able to resolve simple information needs but not the complicated ones.

5.5 Robustness Checks

We conducted various robustness checks and found that there are no qualitative differences in the parameter values and insights obtained. Some of the variations we considered are the following:

i. We calibrated the model on the first 18 months of data as well as the full 30 months of data (instead of 24 months of data) and obtained similar parameter estimates.

ii. We also estimated a model with 11 variables for \( I_{m} \) to capture seasonal information stock (one for each calendar month across years, i.e., the same parameter for July 2005 and July 2006, for August 2005 and August 2006, and so on), and obtained similar estimates to those reported here for the other parameters.

iii. We used particular features of the data on healthcare provider charges to code health events as repeat health events (e.g., events associated with multiple claims for a chronic disease). The key idea is that information needs are low in case of repeat events because the consumer would already have most of the relevant information from previous experience. We find that though there is an improvement in the in-sample and predictive performance of every model, this improvement is small.

iv. We checked for possible learning by consumers for the web channel by allowing for higher information gains in later web visits by using a multiplicative factor; we did not find this effect and, therefore, dropped this component from the final specification.

v. We estimated our model under the assumption that a telephone call from a customer results in complete resolution of the customer’s questions, i.e., after a telephone call, the customer’s information stock becomes zero. We find that our information stock model fits the data better and leads to superior predictions as compared to this model.
6 Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper, we propose a novel information stock-based framework to endogenously model the query generation and channel choice processes of customers in a multichannel customer support services setting. We postulate that each customer has a latent information stock which determines her behavior. The information stock is determined by information needs which are generated by insurance claims corresponding to customers' health events, and information gains that customers obtain on contacting the firm's support center by the telephone or the web channel. This information stock-based model allows us to use observed customer data—namely the sequence of claims and the query behavior—to estimate the customer-perceived information values of different support channels. We thus contribute to the Operations Management literature on call center management by providing a general methodology which relates the query arrival and support channel choice processes to customer transaction history, rather than treating the query formation process as exogenous, as is typical in queuing literature.

We implement the proposed model on individual-customer-level data obtained from a large US-based health insurance firm. We find that the information stock model can accurately capture patterns in customers' multichannel query behavior. The model provides accurate predictions for aggregate query volumes for the different support channels. Furthermore, it is able to identify with high accuracy the customers who are likely to make queries in the near future. The model therefore can serve as a useful managerial tool. For instance, making advance outgoing calls to customers who have high calling probabilities can help to reduce peak-time calls, which can lead to substantial cost savings for the firm.

We also find that, in our setting, the average information gain from a telephone call is slightly more than double the information gain from visiting the web portal, i.e., the telephone channel, on average, is significantly more effective than the web channel in resolving customers' queries. Regarding channel choice, we find that customers prefer the telephone channel for higher health event-related information needs while they prefer the web portal for more structured seasonal information needs. We also find that there is a large degree of heterogeneity in customers' propensity to use the web portal while making a query—some customers are "web avoiders" while others are "web seekers."

The results we obtain are applicable only in the specific situation that we considered, and are dependent on the intricacies and idiosyncrasies of the particular firm's infrastructure and operation. Our model, however, is general enough that it can be used in other
similar situations with straightforward adjustments, and can inform the managers about the relative efficacies of their customer support channels. For instance, the web portal can provide lesser value than telephone in complex services (such as health insurance) but may provide a higher value in less complex services (such as personal banking). Comparative studies of this kind, where the value of different types of customer service channels is determined for different industries and for different firms in an industry, would be an excellent application of this model and an avenue for future work.

Taking a more strategic perspective, our results have significant managerial implications for new-generation multichannel customer service operations technologies. At a time when web portals are becoming a popular choice as a way to reduce the cost of customer service, our results show that there are more subtle and complex phenomena at play. Our estimates indicate the superior informational value of the traditional telephone channel over the self-service web portal. This suggests that the assisted telephone channel is still a dominant customer support channel at least for complex services such as health insurance. Our estimates also suggest that web portals are effective for simple, unambiguous tasks (such as seasonal information needs, which are more structured and routine information needs). We expect our results to extend to other self-service support channels. Therefore, managers have to make a balanced and careful choice regarding what infrastructure they should set up for customer support services. The design of the web portal, in terms of ease of access of information, can be an important dimension in this decision.

The present model can be extended in many different directions in the future. First, we have conceptualized information as a one-dimensional construct. It may be useful to think of information as a multi-dimensional construct, e.g., one dimension can capture structured information needs and another can capture unstructured information needs. Identification of the parameters of such a model would require richer data than we have used here. Second, details on the nature of health events will allow us to more precisely model the information needs for different types of claims. Our model can provide additional insights with higher granularity data in this area. Third, currently we treat the claim arrival process for customers as exogenous, but this process could be endogenous. For instance, based on how the insurance firm's representatives treat the customer, she may change her claim frequency (e.g., in an extreme response to unsatisfactory query resolution, she may switch the insurance company and her claim frequency will become zero). Future work could explore the endogeneity between claim frequency and query behavior. Fourth, as appropriate for our setting, we have two channels in the model, namely telephone and web. Future work can extend the model to include more customer support channels, as the need may be; this would be a fairly straightforward extension.
Finally, we have timing data on the claims and queries of customers, and some data on claim characteristics. On the one hand, this implies that our model is useful for the typical firm since these data requirements are not heavy while the model still generates accurate predictions and useful insights. On the other hand, these data limitations present an opportunity to further enrich the model by extending it to incorporate more data. Richer data can allow us to add heterogeneity to other model components, such as the information gains from different web visits and telephone calls and the information needs from different claims. This would allow the possibility, for instance, that some web visits lead to an information need rather than a gain (say, because of confusion after obtaining online information), with the implication that a future query is accelerated rather than delayed. Additional data such as the transcripts of calls made by customers and the web pages visited by customers during a web portal visit can also allow us to model dependencies between queries. For instance, from the web pages visited by a customer, we can determine whether the customer was able to obtain the information she was looking for or not; if not, a subsequent query may actually be accelerated and the customer may be more likely to use the telephone channel. We hope future research builds and improves on the information stock framework proposed in this paper.

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