

In Pursuit of Enhanced Customer Retention Management: Review, Key Issues, and Future Directions¹

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ABSTRACT

In today's turbulent business environment, customer retention presents a significant challenge for many service companies. Academics have generated a large body of research that addresses part of that challenge – with a particular focus on predicting customer churn. However, several other equally important aspects of managing retention have not received similar level of attention. This suggests a managerial problem not completely solved, and a program of academic research not completely aligned with managerial needs. Therefore, our goal is to draw on previous research and current practice to provide insights on managing retention and identify areas for future research. This examination leads us to advocate a broad perspective on customer retention. We propose a definition that extends the concept beyond the traditional binary retain/not retain view of retention. We discuss a variety of metrics to measure and monitor retention. We present an integrated framework for managing retention that leverages emerging opportunities offered by new data sources and new methodologies such as machine learning. We highlight the importance of distinguishing between which customers are *at risk* and which *should be targeted* – as they aren't necessarily the same customers. We identify tradeoffs between reactive and proactive retention programs, between short-term and long-term remedies, and between discrete campaigns and continuous processes for managing retention. We identify several areas of research where further investigation will significantly enhance retention management.

In Pursuit of Enhanced Customer Retention Management

“The central purpose of managing customer relationships is for the enterprise to focus on increasing the overall value of its customer base – and customer retention is critical to its success.”

(Peppers and Rogers 2004, p. 15)

Customer relationship management (CRM) managers and academics have long recognized the centrality and, in fact, the imperative of retaining customers. Customer retention is a cornerstone of broader CRM concepts such as customer equity (Blattberg, Getz and Thomas 2001; Rust et al. 2015) and is arguably the most important component of the customer lifetime value (CLV) framework (Gupta, Lehmann and Stuart 2004).

Yet, there are indications that companies have problems managing customer retention. From the customer point of view, 85% of customers report that companies could do more to retain them (Handley 2013). From the firm’s point of view, while the vast majority of top executives report that customer retention is a priority within their organization, 49% of them admit to being unhappy with their ability to support their retention goals (Forbes Insights 2014). Furthermore, there is growing evidence that retention campaigns can be futile or even harmful (Berson, Smith and Thearling 2000; Ascarza, Iyengar and Schleicher 2016; Ascarza 2016).

Retention is especially important in the digital environment. For example, MusicWatch reported that only 48% of those who tried Apple Music, a music streaming service, still were using the service two months after was launched (Seitz 2015; Webb 2016). Similarly, for mobile apps it is reported that across all categories, 75% of all app users churn within 90 days (Perro 2016).

Many researchers have studied customer retention (e.g., Verhoef 2003; Reinartz, Thomas and Kumar 2005; van Baal and Dach 2005; Leone et al. 2006). Our review of the literature suggests an inordinate amount of effort has been devoted to predicting customer churn.

Predicting churn is important. However, academics have afforded less attention to elements of

campaign design such as whom to target, when to target, and with what incentives, as well the broader issues of managing multiple campaigns and integrating retention programs with the firm's marketing activities and strategy.

We therefore see managers struggling with how to manage retention appropriately, and an academic community not focused on all the important issues. Therein motivates the purpose of this paper, to draw on previous research and current practice to distill insights and key issues regarding customer retention and to propose avenues for future research. In particular, we propose:

- *Insights on how to measure retention.* These range from 0/1 measures to recency/frequency calculations to metrics imputed from models designed to measure unobserved churn.
- *An integrated framework for retention management.* The framework takes a holistic view of customer retention, starting with a foundation of data and methods, and continuing with single campaign design and management, coordination across multiple campaigns, and integration with marketing strategy. The heart of this framework is the development of individual retention campaigns. We expand upon current practice in several ways, for example recognizing that the customers at highest risk of not being retained do not necessarily overlap 100% with those who should be targeted. We also highlight new data sources and emerging tools such as machine learning.
- *A set of key directions for future research:* Using the above framework, we identify opportunities for future research to enhance retention management.

A central theme of our work is that researchers and managers need to take a *broad view of retention management*. This starts with a flexible definition of retention and a leveraging variety of data and methodologies such as machine learning to measure and manage retention. It

continues with a view of individual campaigns that goes beyond the measurement of customer churn, and concludes with an integration of individual campaigns and consideration of their place in the firm's overall marketing strategy. We close each section with key issues to consider, and build on these at the conclusion of the paper with a summary of the research opportunities.

Defining and Measuring Customer Retention

A Definition of Customer Retention

Our proposed definition is designed to capture the following concepts. First, the central idea that customer retention is *continuity* – the customer continues to interact with the firm. Second, that customer retention is a form of customer behavior – a behavior that firms intend to manage. Accordingly, we propose that “*Customer retention is the customer continuing to transact with the firm.*”

A few things are worth noting in this simple definition. It emphasizes retention as something the *customer does* (which possibly could be affected by the firm). We use the word “transact” because the interactions between customers and firms can take multiple forms. For some businesses, the transaction is monetary — e.g., continuing to pay a subscription fee, make a purchase on a website. For other services, often in digital settings, transaction may not involve monetary exchange (e.g., using an e-mail account or using the free part of a freemium service).

The proposed definition encompasses both contractual and non-contractual relationships. Following Schmittlein, Morrison and Colombo (1987), customer-firm relationships can be categorized into *contractual* settings, in which firms directly observe when a customer terminates the relationship (e.g., a newspaper subscription), and *non-contractual* settings, where a customer makes no formal declaration of the termination of such a relationship (e.g., an online retailer). Even in contractual settings, where retention has been commonly defined by the

customer decision to renew, the focus on transaction in our definition goes beyond the renewal transaction and includes situations in which the customer ceases to transact and leaves the company long before she actually informs the firm. That is, the customer may be “walking dead” for a while (Ascarza and Hardie 2013). Moreover, there are an increasing number of “hybrid” settings, in which customers can formally or informally cease their relationship with the firm (Ascarza, Netzer and Hardie 2016). This is the case for many online services where customers can either formally cancel the account or simply ignore the firm. Examples include daily deal sites (e.g., Groupon), social networks (e.g., LinkedIn), web retailers (e.g., eBay), web/email services (e.g., Gmail), or travel services (e.g., Travelocity). The proposed definition encompasses those settings as well.

Furthermore, for firms with multiple products or services, ceasing to transact with one product or service may not mean that the individual stops transacting with the firm. For example, an online game player who got bored with Game A but continues to play Game B (provided by the same company) has stopped playing Game A but still retained her\his relationship with the firm.

Lastly, “churn” is the counterpart of retention. If the customer has decided to stop transacting with the firm, the customer has churned. In that sense churn is inferred by the cessation the customers’ transactions with the firm.

In summary, our definition of retention centers on continued transactions and applies to a wider range of businesses, regardless of the existence of a customer/firm contract or the type of transactions. These issues play out in the measurement of retention, which we discuss next.

Measurement

Measuring retention is important for several reasons. First, predicting how long someone will remain a customer lies at the heart of any attempt to calculate lifetime value (CLV) (Berger and Nasr 1998; Venkatesan and Kumar 2002; Gupta et al. 2004; Fader and Hardie 2012) and customer equity (CE) (Blattberg et al. 2001; Rust et al. 2001; Fader 2012). Second, retention drives firm profitability and value. Across the firms analyzed by Gupta et al. (2004), average retention elasticity is 4.9. That is, a 1% increase in retention rate produces nearly a 5% increase in CE. Third, measuring retention rates over time can provide a key metric of the firm's health. Fourth, as attributed to Peter Drucker, "If you can't measure it, you can't manage it."

There are several dimensions to consider when measuring retention. The main ones are articulated in Table 1 by considering the 2×2 table formed by contractual vs. non-contractual settings and individual customer- vs. aggregate-level measures.

[Table 1 Goes Here]

Most of the retention metrics relevant for contractual firms are also relevant for non-contractual firms. A simple 0/1 indicator of transaction, and a measure of recency – how long it has been since the customer last transacted – are appropriate for both types of firms. However, recency on its own might not be a good indicator of customer retention. For example, Customers A and B last purchased 6 months ago. On the one hand, Customer A typically purchases once a year (i.e., her inter-purchase time is 12 months), thus a recency of 6 months should not be taken as an indication of churn because it is well within the customer's purchase cycle. On the other hand, Customer B usually purchases every month, in which case a recency of 6 months should be worrisome for the firm. We thus recommend calculating a recency/inter-purchase-time ratio, where a ratio larger than one is an indication of a retention problem. Regarding the examples above, Customer A's recency/inter-purchase-time is $6/12 = 0.5$, whereas Customer B's ratio is $6/1 = 6$.

A few limitations are worth noting with respect to the recency/inter-purchase-time ratio. First, it requires observing a reasonable number of transactions to reliably calculate the average inter-purchase time. Second, even for those customers for whom one observes a sufficient number of transactions, the inter-purchase time measure might be biased due to the right censoring nature of the data – the time between the last purchase and the last observation is ignored. To address these issues, statistical models have been developed to infer whether the customer is no longer retained, i.e., whether there has been “latent attrition” (Schmittlein et al. 1987; Fader, Hardie and Lee 2005; Fader, Hardie and Shang 2010; Ascarza, Netzer and Hardie 2016). Furthermore, because our definition of retention goes beyond the renewal transaction, we encourage firms in contractual settings to also collect transaction measures such as recency and frequency of transactions. Furthermore, we encourage firms to define, and accordingly measure, transactions in a broad sense beyond monetary transactions.

Any measure calculated at the individual level can be aggregated across customers. The distribution and summary statistics of these aggregates are important, and particularly useful when monitoring retention over time (Lemmens and Croux 2006; Ascarza and Hardie 2013).

However, caution needs to be taken when calculating aggregate retention rates because customer heterogeneity in individual retention rates can cause “survivor bias” (Fader and Hardie 2010). Table 2a illustrates Fader and Hardie’s insight. We have two types of customers, “good” and “bad”, with retention rates of 70% and 20%, respectively. We begin with 500 customers of each type. The 500 good customers experience a 70% retention rate hence they go from 500 to $0.70 \times 500 = 350$ in the next year, etc. The 500 bad customers, with their 20% retention rate, go from 500 to $0.20 \times 500 = 100$ customers, etc. This produces a “survivor bias” with the good customers dominating the aggregate retention rate over time as they are more likely to stay

within the customer base. The aggregate retention rate goes from 45% to 70% over five years, even though the underlying retention rate for each customer has not changed. The company might be misled into thinking it is doing a wonderful job on customer retention, although in fact no single customer has increased her retention propensity; only the customer mix has changed. The situation is more complicated if we incorporate newly acquired customers and retention rates differ across customers (see Table 2b).

[Table 2 Goes Here]

In order to overcome this aggregation problem, we suggest that firms report retention rates by acquisition cohort and/or by other observable characteristics that are thought to be related to retention rate. For example, if retention rate varies systematically by acquisition channel or customer gender, the measures/metrics should be reported by cohort, acquisition channel, or gender. An aggregate retention rate can then be calculated by weighting each retention rate by the percentage of customers in each group.

Of particular challenge is measuring retention for non-contractual services where transaction frequency is inherently small. For example, many repair services (for kitchen appliances for example) are purchased say every eight years. Such a long purchase cycle does not allow managers to reliably measure latent attrition or the recency/inter-purchase-time ratio. One suggestion for such cases is to obtain attitudinal measures within the purchase cycle.

Another issue is the time period for calculating retention. Churn rates in the telecom industry are often reported at a monthly level (Statista 2016), which might be misleading because some customers can churn, technically, at any time, whereas others are locked in longer contracts that are not due to renew on a monthly basis. A possible solution is to calculate the percentage who renewed from among those whose contract ran out this month.

A final factor is whether lack of retention is due to switching to a competitor or “dis-adopting” the product category (Libai, Muller and Peres 2009). Hulu’s retention rate may decrease because customers are switching to Netflix or because customers decide not to stream programming and instead to stay with their cable TV supplier. It is difficult to obtain this information, but new data sources may enable the calculation of firm- and industry-retention.

- *Key issues:* Which retention measure(s) should a manager monitor? Which ones are more diagnostic for her particular context? How to calculate aggregate retention measures? Does retention for one of the firm’s products relate to retention for the firm’s other products?

Managing Customer Retention

Figure 1 proposes a framework for managing customer retention. It starts with a retention infrastructure – data and methods – and proceeds to the design of individual campaigns, coordinating multiple campaigns, and integrating retention efforts with marketing strategy. A key distinction is between *reactive* campaigns, where the firm waits for the customer to churn and then tries to “win back” the customer, typically with a financial incentive, and *proactive* campaigns, where the firm takes actions to solve in advance the problem that generates churn. Both of these programs create their own challenges. Firms typically implement multiple campaigns. For example, an insurance company may implement five discrete proactive campaigns during the year, with a reactive program constantly in effect throughout the year. The reactive and proactive programs need to be coordinated. Finally, all these efforts need to be integrated with the firm’s marketing strategy. For example, the target group for a Hulu retention campaign might be customers with no existing cable subscription, because they are more likely to respond positively

to the campaign. However, this may be inconsistent with Hulu's overall segmentation and targeting strategy, which is to attract cable users to switch to streaming services.

[Figure 1 Goes Here]

Designing Single Retention Campaigns

Figure 1 proposes a process to develop and evaluate a single retention campaign: First, identify customers who are at risk of not being retained. Second, diagnose why each customer is at risk. Third, decide which customers to target with the campaign. Next, decide when to target these customers, and with what incentive and/or action. Finally, implement the campaign and evaluate it.

These steps are applicable to both proactive and reactive campaigns. Reactive campaigns are simpler because the firm doesn't need to identify who is at risk — the customer who calls to cancel self-identifies. "Rescue rates" can readily be calculated to evaluate the program, and subsequent behavior can be monitored. The incentive offered to win back the customer is typically high value, because the firm is certain the customer will churn (Springer et al. 2014). Reactive campaigns, on the other hand, tend to be more challenging because not all customers can be rescued, and customers learn that informing the firm about their intention to churn can be copiously rewarded by the firm, endangering the long-run sustainability of reactive churn management (Lewis 2005).

Proactive campaigns are more challenging starting from the basic task of identifying who is at risk. State-of-the-art analytics are required to balance the costs of false positives (targeting a customer who had no intention to leave) and false negatives (failing to identify a customer who was truly at risk) (Blattberg et al. 2008, Chapter 27). Additionally, such campaigns must consider the probability of being able to retain those customers identified as would-be churners (Lemmens

and Gupta 2013; Provost and Fawcett 2013; Ascarza 2016). Our discussion of developing individual retention campaigns will thus largely focus on proactive campaigns.

Who is at risk? This entails using a predictive model to identify customers at risk of not being retained, or in general of generating lower retention metrics. The dependent variable could be 0/1 churn or any measure of retention. Table 3 summarizes variables that have been found to predict churn in contractual settings. These include well-researched predictors like customer satisfaction, usage behavior, switching costs, customer characteristics, and marketing efforts, as well as more recently explored factors such as social connectivity. We discuss the findings with respect to the relationship between social connectivity and churn below.

[Table 3 Goes Here]

Social connectivity factors can predict churn. In the context of telecommunications, it has been shown that high “social embeddedness,” the extent to which the customer is connected to other customers within the network, is negatively correlated with churn (Benedek, Lublóy and Vastag 2014). Furthermore, the behavior of a customer’s connections also affects her own retention. For example, a customer is more likely to churn from a service/company if her contacts or friends within the company churn (Nitzan and Libai 2013, Verbeke, Martens and Baensens 2014). Relatedly, customers are less likely to churn if their contacts increase their use of the service (Ascarza, Ebbes, Netzer and Danielson 2016). Due to network externalities, the service becomes less valuable to the customer if her friends are not using it. These social-related factors are more likely to predict churn for network oriented services such as multi-player gaming, communications, shared services, since customers exert an externality by using the service. If one goes beyond the predictive power of social connections and towards understanding the social effect, it is imperative to consider the similarity among connected customers (homophily),

correlated random shocks among connected customers (e.g., a marketing campaign that is geographically targeted and hence affects connected customers), and true social contagious effects.

As noted above, Table 3 highlights predictors of churn in contractual settings, the dominant domain for churn prediction research. Much less work has been devoted to predicting attrition in non-contractual settings, where the probability of continuing engagement or the lack thereof — e.g., measured by the recency/inter-purchase-time ratio or $P(\text{Alive})$ if using a probability model — can serve to identify customers who are at risk. More work is needed to evaluate the accuracy of this measure and its predictors (e.g., Schweidel and Knox 2013).

An important question is whether churn prediction can be improved using ultra-fine-grained “big data.” These are actions consumers take such as visiting a web page, visiting a specific location, “Liking” something on Facebook, etc. These data often have very high dimensionality (millions to billions of potential actions) and extreme sparsity, as individuals only have so much “behavioral capital” to spend (Junqué de Fortuny et al. 2013). To the best of our knowledge there is no direct evidence of this sort of data improving retention prediction. However, it has been shown to improve prediction of customer acquisition (Provost et al. 2009; Perlich et al. 2014) and cross-selling (Martens et al. 2016). Thus, we might postulate that ultra-fine-grained data should be considered for churn prediction as well.

Regarding methodology, a large body of research has focused on finding the best methods for predicting churn. These range from simple RFM models (Chen, Hu and Hsieh 2015) to ensemble machine learning methods such as random forests (Tamaddoni, Stakhovych and Ewing 2016). While to the best of our knowledge a formal meta-analysis has not been undertaken, studies often find that machine learning methods outperform traditional statistical methods (Lemmens and Croux 2006).

Despite the plethora of work devoted to predicting churn, by no means is prediction perfect. Neslin et al. (2006) report of a churn prediction tournament, the average top decile lift was about 2.1 to 1, meaning customers in the top decile were twice as likely to churn compared to average. However, churn rate was about 2%, which means that customers in the top decile had roughly a 4% chance of churning, so 96% were non-churners. These low accuracy rates endanger the profitability of proactive retention. At the same time, they can be less costly for firms that it appears. Lemmens and Gupta (2013) show that a profit-based loss function can reduce the risk of mis-prediction for the customers that matter the most and lead to profitable campaigns.

- *Key issues:* Are there yet-to-be-tested variables (e.g., ultra-fine-grade data) that could significantly enhance churn prediction? Is predictive accuracy high enough to be managerially useful? How can we predict retention in a non-contractual setting (where lack of activity is the proxy for retention)?

Why at risk? The goal of a retention program is to *prevent* churn, hence understanding the causes of such behavior is necessary to design effective retention programs. There is a difference between determining the best predictors of churn and understanding *why* the customer is at risk of churning. For example, demographic variables might predict churn, but these variables rarely cause customers to leave the company. This distinction becomes less clear when we consider factors like past consumption or related behaviors. Are heavy users more likely to be retained *because* they consume more or is it that satisfaction with the service is driving both behaviors? More work is needed to isolate causality in churn behavior.

Furthermore, identifying specific causes for an individual customer is quite different from identifying general causes in a population. For instance, in the context of telecommunication, a logistic churn prediction model may find that overage charges are an important predictor of

churn. But a customer at risk may not have incurred any overage charges. Hence overage is not the cause of risk for *that* particular customer. To identify the potential causes of churn for an individual customer, the researcher needs to find variables or combinations of variables that are both viable causes and for which the customer exhibits a risky behavior. One could use a competing risk hazard model (Putter, Fiocco and Geskus 2007), to predict which of the possible reasons of churn are most likely to cause churn at any point in time.

Once causes of churn are identified, one needs to isolate those that are controllable by the firm from those that are not (Braun and Schweidel 2011). For example, if a customer cancels her gym membership because she is moving to a different country, this is uncontrollable because there is nothing the gym can do about it. Analyzing a telecommunications service, Braun and Schweidel find that accounting for uncontrollable factors can produce more profitable targeting of retention campaigns.

- *Key issues:* We need to identify not only *correlates* of low retention but also *causes* of it. This requires deeper theory and possibly “soft” measures such as customer satisfaction. How can we incorporate these causes into retention campaign design?

Whom do we target? At first blush, it seems we should target customers who are at highest risk of not being retained. However, this may not be the best approach. The highest risk customers may not be receptive to retention efforts (Ascarza 2016). They might be so turned off by the company that nothing can retain them. Instead, we propose that the best targets are customers who are at the risk of leaving *and* are likely to change their minds and stay if targeted (Provost and Fawcett 2013).

Research on customer *response* to retention programs is scarce. A notable exception is recent work by Ascarza (2016) who advocates the use of “uplift” models. Uplift models attempt

to model directly the *incremental* impact of a campaign on *individual* customers. In the jargon of customer-level decision models, uplift modeling recognizes customer *heterogeneity* with respect to the incremental impact of the test. There are many ways to model incremental impact, ranging from interactions models to machine learning methods (Guelman, Guillén and Perez-Marín 2015; Ascarza 2016; Athey and Imbens 2016). More research is needed to determine which methods work best under which circumstances.

Customers who are likely churners and are likely to respond to a retention effort still may not be worth rescuing. Such customer may have lower lifetime values. Therefore, firms should also consider the profit that a retention action can generate, which depends on the likelihood of churning, the incremental likelihood of responding, the customer's CLV, and the incentive cost (Lemmens and Gupta 2013; Provost and Fawcett 2013; Ascarza 2016).

Due to the lack of perfect predictive accuracy, some customers (in fact, often *most*) targeted in a proactive campaign will be those whom the company would have retained anyway. The targeting decision needs to take this into account (Blattberg et al. 2008, Chapter 27). Two examples highlight why targeting non-churners may be risky. Berson et al. (2000, pp. 282-298) found that customers targeted by a retention campaign who did not accept the retention offer ended up with a higher churn rate than average. One possibility is that the offer triggered these customers to examine whether they wanted to stay with the company, and the answer turned out to be "no." This study is provocative but the data do not permit rejection of the alternative explanation that the retention offer bifurcated non-churners (satisfied customers who therefore accepted the offer) and churners (dissatisfied customer who therefore churned without accepting the offer).

Ascarza, Iyengar and Schleicher (2016) demonstrated that some *would-be non-churners* can be provoked by the retention effort to churn. Non-churners may be continuing to transact

with the firm partly out of habit or inertia. Consumer habits have been found to keep consumers mindlessly locked in to a relationship, but only insofar as they are not triggered to deliberate and actively weigh the pros and cons of switching (Wood and Neal 2009; Labrecque et al. 2016). Thus, when directed to “habitual non-churners,” retention efforts may inadvertently disrupt renewal habits, make people realize they are not happy with the status quo, and paradoxically cause churn. Of course, the impact could also go the other way – habitual non-churners may be so “delighted” by the retention offer that they like the company even more, their habits may be further strengthened, and their retention rates may increase. To date the field has yet to systematically unpack these dynamics, although the findings of Ascarza, Iyengar and Schleicher (2016) suggest that habits play a significant, under-studied, role in determining consumer response to retention efforts (see also Ali and Aritürk 2014).

Another factor to consider in deciding whom to target is the position of the customer in the firm’s social network. Historically, marketing applications of social network analysis have entailed customer acquisition (e.g., Hill, Provost and Volinsky 2006), yet an emerging body of research is considering the effect of social connectivity on retention (Nitzan and Libai 2011; Ascarza, Ebbes et al. 2016). Taking a social perspective, a customer with many contacts, or highly connected with customers who themselves are highly connected, can be very valuable because her/his defection could cause others to churn. The extent to which this applies may depend on the connectivity among network members (Haenlein 2013). Individuals who are central in a network may have lower risk of churning due to high social cost of leaving (Giudicati, Riccaboni and Romiti 2013). Because of the tendency of individuals to be in social networks with others like them, high profitability customers may have a strong effect on each other, which further increases the value of targeting high CLV customers (Haenlein and Libai 2013). The socially related monetary loss due

to customer churn would be much higher early in the product life cycle, when social influence is critical in driving product growth (Hogan, Lemon and Libai 2003).

- *Key issues:* Targeting high-risk customer is not always optimal; firms need to quantify the incremental effect of their retention actions. How can firms employ uplift modeling? How to incorporate social connectivity into retention targeting?

With what incentive? One approach is to build on why customers churn to develop and target appropriate retention efforts to each customer. For example, in the telecom industry, age of the customer's smart phone and overage costs may be important predictors and drivers of churn. Consider two customers both in the high-risk pool. Customer A might have a 2-year-old phone but no overage charges, while Customer B might have a 3-month-old phone but substantial overage charges. We would target Customer A with an incentive for a new phone, but Customer B would be targeted with a phone call aiming to put the customer on a more economical plan.

Other considerations need to be evaluated in selecting the best action to take to prevent churn. For example, a key one is whether to use price or non-price incentives. Price incentives perhaps are effective in the short run, but are easily copied by competition (cf. today's telecom industry) and imbue the customer with a "cherry-picking" mindset (Bell, Ho and Tang 1998). Thus, non-price incentives, such as product improvements (e.g., a gaming company adds additional levels in a game) may work better in the long term. This is one of the reasons for the success of smart phone subsidization in the telecom industry. It focused the customer on the service rather than on price, which is better for long-term attitudes toward the company (cf. Dodson, Tybout and Sternthal 1978).

An alternative approach is to let customers choose the incentive among a set of options. Research has shown that including in that set the option of no-choice (i.e., do nothing) increases

persistence among customers, which likely results in higher retention (Schrift and Parker 2014). The firm can also design the retention effort in a way that it will mainly affect customer at high risk of churn and/or in a way that all customers, targeted or not, would appreciate it (e.g., product or service improvement). Another factor is the element of surprise. This is rooted in the concept of customer delight prevalent in services marketing (Rust and Oliver 2000). Research has shown that surprising positive events attach the customer to the company (Oliver, Rust and Varki 1997). This is especially important because, as discussed earlier, the retention campaign will probably target many non-would-be churners. Ideally these customers will be delighted that they were offered a new phone (telecom) or exercise equipment/clothing (gym) and this will enhance retention in the long run even among those who were not going to churn at the time of the retention campaign. This is in line with claims of a *service recovery paradox* by which delighting complaining customers can lead to higher engagement and lower churn (De Matos, Henrique and Rossi 2007). Empirical evidence on the paradox is inconclusive (Knox and van Oest 2014), and is likely to depend on the sequence of failures and delights (Sivakumar, Li and Dong 2014).

- *Key issues:* What is the best way to personalize retention efforts? How can we use information on *why* customers churn to prescribe retention efforts? What is the value of monetary incentives for different types of retention campaigns? What efforts are most likely to delight the customer?

When do we target? There is a tradeoff between targeting a retention campaign to a customer too late versus too early. In the extreme, a too-late proactive campaign becomes a reactive campaign – the customer is already out the door – and may either not retain the customer or cost too much to do so. However, a too-early campaign runs the risk of at best being irrelevant to the customer, at worst of starting to get the customer thinking about churning.

One way to balance the too-late versus too-early dilemma is to utilize data from previous campaigns to estimate models for churn and rescue probability as a function of time t from some fixed date, e.g., the current period. Figure 2 shows how this could identify the right time to target a customer. In this example, starting from the current period, churn probability increases over time while rescue probability decreases. This yields period 4 as the optimal time to target because it balances the two trends and maximizes the probability of rescuing a would-be cherner.

[Figure 2 Goes Here]

More broadly, a way to conceptualize when-to-target is to consider the different type of marketing campaign throughout the customer's lifecycle: acquisition => pre-emptive => proactive => reactive => win-back => post win-back (Figure 3). It should not be necessary to target immediately after the customer has been acquired. However, even right after acquisition the firm should be thinking about retention. For example, a telecom company could make sure the customer is on the right data plan from the very beginning. Pre-emptive timing would be to target the customer before the customer shows any sign of diminished retention. For example, a gaming company would offer incentives for the customer to start a new game, *before* the usage rate of the current game starts to diminish. Proactive timing, would be to launch a campaign targeted at customers who are identified as a retention risk based on predictive modeling. Reactive timing is when the firm tries to prevent the customer from churning, while that customer literally is in the act of churning. Win-back is when the customer has churned and the company attempts to re-acquire or the customer. Post win-back actions refer to contacts initiated after the customer has rejected a win-back offer. These are frequent in industries where the customer must return some device to the company after defecting (e.g., a cable box).

[Figure 3 Goes Here]

There has been some research on win-back strategies that could serve as a start to managing the continuum in Figure 3. Stauss and Friedge (1999) provide a conceptual foundation for win-back strategies. They propose an in-depth dialogue with the customer to determine the reasons for churn and design customized incentives. Most empirical studies have used attitudinal data (Stauss and Friege 1999; Homburg, Hoyer and Stock 2007; Tokman, Davis, and Lemon 2007; Bogomolova 2010; Pick, Thomas, Tillmanns, and Krafft 2016). Exceptions include Thomas, Blattberg and Fox (2004) and Kumar, Bhagwat and Zhang (2015).

- *Key issues:* How should firms design and time their retention efforts along the continuum from acquisition to win back (Figure 3)? When should a firm “upgrade” a customer from one product to another to enhance firm retention?

So what? Campaigns need to be evaluated, if possible using a control group randomly selected not to be targeted. This allows top-line results to be compiled easily without formal causal modeling. Metrics to be calculated include overall profitability and various retention measures. For example, Blattberg et al. (2008, p. 632) suggest how to calculate the “rescue-rate” of a campaign, i.e., what percentage of would-be churners were rescued. The company should calculate the rescue rate for all its campaigns. Then the company can undertake a meta-analysis across multiple campaigns to understand which factors influence rescue rate (incentive characteristics, characteristics of customers targeted, the match between these two, etc.).

Another part of evaluation is to determine the long-term impact of the campaign. Yes, the customer might have been retained this time, but what impact did that have on the customer’s future profitability? What happened to the customer’s retention rate after the campaign? Did it increase because the customer was more satisfied, or decrease because now the customer expected if not demanded incentives?

- *Key issues:* What are the characteristics of successful retention campaigns? Which part of the campaign design process (Figure 1) is most important for enhancing success?

Multiple Campaign Management

The steps we advocate for single campaigns are also relevant for managing multiple campaigns, except now the questions of (1) who is at risk, (2) why at risk, (3) whom to target, (4) when to target, (5) with what efforts, and (6) what did we gain, will be asked in a dynamic setting across several campaigns. Blattberg et al. (2008, Chapter 28) discuss two key issues in multiple CRM campaign management: wear-in and wear-out. A campaign may take time before it reaches its maximal impact (wear-in), and then decline at some rate afterwards (wear-out). These concepts have important implications for the spacing of retention campaigns.

At the customer level, multiple campaign management is challenging because the current campaign can influence what “state” the customer is in for the next campaign. For example, the customer targeted with Campaign #1 may be at a lower level of risk for Campaign #2 if there is a delight effect. The customer who received a free squash racket in Campaign #1 may not be very responsive to Campaign #2 that offers squash balls. This set-up suggests the application of dynamic optimization. See Neslin (2013) for discussion of dynamically managed customer-level CRM campaigns.

A challenging question is whether the firm should even use discrete retention campaigns, or target customers as warranted on a continuing basis. Many firms in fact use a more continuous approach. For example, a telecommunication company may on an ongoing basis offer discounts to customers whose contract is nearing expiration. Firms need to separate their business-as-usual retention efforts from their specially designed campaigns.

- *Key issues:* Firms need to coordinate proactive and ongoing retention programs. How can dynamic optimization be used to plan multiple campaigns?

Strategy Integration

Two important strategic integration tasks are: (1) Coordinating acquisition and retention, and (2) Coordinating retention spending with the firm's marketing strategy and its segmentation, targeting and positioning (STP) approach.

A simple example shows why acquisition and retention must be coordinated: Company A may go all-out in acquiring customers. As a result, Company A acquires highly risky customers who are not likely to be retained. This makes the task of designing retention campaigns more difficult. Company B may selectively acquire customers it knows to be high value (via a predictive model). This makes retention campaign design easier. Which approach is better is an empirical question, but there is no question that acquisition and retention campaigns must be coordinated.

Some work has been done in this area. Probably the earliest example is Blattberg and Deighton (1996). They used decision calculus (Little 1970) to judgmentally calibrate equations to represent customer acquisition and retention in order to maximize profits. Reinartz et al. (2005) develop models for customer acquisition, lifetime (a proxy for retention), and profits. They show how the models can be used to allocate acquisition and retention funds to maximize total customer profitability. They find that suboptimal allocation of retention expenditures will have a greater impact on long-term customer profitability than will suboptimal acquisition expenditure. Several studies have examined how factors such as competitive intensity (Voss and Voss 2008), responsiveness to CRM efforts (Musalem and Joshi 2009) or supply limitations (Ovchinnikov, Boulu-Reshef and Pfeifer 2014) affect the acquisition/retention tradeoff (See Ascarza, Fader and Hardie 2016 for discussion of this topic).

Retention efforts must also be coordinated with the firm's STP and its marketing strategy because the two can easily fall out of sync. For example, the STP of a financial services company may be to segment the market by customer value and target high-value customers with premium products and services. A retention campaign that emphasizes promotional discounts would be "off strategy." Stahl, Heitmann, Lehmann and Neslin (2012) find for example that advertising can increase product differentiation, but product differentiation decreases acquisition and retention rates. As a result, the customer management group may be trying to enhance acquisition and retention using targeting email, banner ads, etc., while the brand management group is undermining these efforts with its advertising.

- *Key issues:* How does one optimally manage both acquisition and retention? Are there conflicting goals between the two? Firms should coordinate retention activities with other elements of the marketing mix to ensure the STP approach of the firm is coherent.

Data and Methodology

Table 4 displays the data and methods useful for retention planning and where they are used in the planning process. We highlight the less commonly used data/methods for discussion.

[Table 4 Goes Here]

We believe that data on emotions, unstructured customer/firm interactions, customer traits (Kosinski, Stillwell and Graepel (2013), and social connections will garner more attention. Emotions and social connections as discussed earlier, have already proved their mettle with regards to identifying who is at risk. But we believe the most important use of these data will be in understanding *why* the customer is at risk and *whom to target*. Social connections data could be particularly important for targeting key "influencers", i.e., customers that provide network value to other customers (Ascarza, Ebbes et al. 2016).

Emotional and other indicators gleaned from text data should provide key insights on why customers churn. Textual analysis approaches such as Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) and topic modeling may be used to extract measures of emotions and other useful insights from consumer data and leverage these for churn prediction and management.

Engagement metrics have potential to identify what retention actions to take. For example, measures of how a customer plays a computer game may provide a hint of what incentive (monetary or not) the customer needs to keep playing. Finally, knowledge management will be necessary to ensure the firm's entire experience base in retention management is codified and accessible to planners. This is especially important for planning multiple campaigns and integrating strategy, since these tasks require a broad understanding of the firm's experiences.

Turning now to methods for building models, tried and true regression-based predictive modeling is useful for constructing (1) predictive models for identifying who is at risk and who will respond to targeting, (2) meta analyses of field data that provide the insight needed for multiple campaign planning, and (3) marketing mix models that can drive strategy integration.

The field of machine learning has focused on more advanced approaches using ultra-fine-grained "big data" modeling discussed earlier. These developments could play key roles in developing predictive models for who is at risk, why, who will respond, and when to target. Deep learning, for example, is a machine learning approach based on neural networks that combines supervised and unsupervised aspects. Deep learning has been used to learn about customer probability to defect (Castanedo et al. 2014), and may also be helpful in modeling response to retention offers. Similarly, boosted varying-coefficient regression models have been studied for dynamic predictions and optimization in real time (Wang and Hastie 2014) and have been shown to offer a major improvement over the classic stochastic gradient boosting algorithm

already used for churn prediction (Lemmens and Croux 2006; Lemmens and Gupta 2013). These methods provide a promising direction for retention management.

Dimensionality reduction and variable selection techniques form another major development in the machine learning field, and may be useful for retention research and practice, which face an overflow of potential defection predictors. When building models to determine *who is at risk*, *whom to target* and *when to target*, modelers should include in their toolkits modern regularization techniques such as the Lasso (Tibshirani 1996), elastic net (Zou and Zhang 2009), and adaptive regularization (Crammer, Kulesza, and Dredze 2009). In particular, churn modelers should consider elastic net Cox proportional hazard models (Zou and Hastie 2005; Simon, Jerome, Hastie and Tibshirani 2011, available in the R package ‘glmnet’). State-of-the-art regularization methods, which systematically control for overfitting and thus allow modeling with larger feature sets, also offer the potential to expand the set of predictors to include interactions between churn predictors. Of particular interest to estimating the effects of churn incentives is to include interactions between the treatment variable (i.e., being targeted with a retention action) and customer or campaign design covariates (Lim and Hastie 2015).

Feature-selecting regularization such as the Lasso need to be applied with care as interpreting the coefficients of these approaches may suffer from “selective inference” (Taylor and Tibshirani 2015). That is, searching for the best predictors from a set of 100s of potential predictors “cherry-picks” the best ones and can overstate their statistical significance. This is particularly relevant when trying to better understand *why customers are at risk*. Taylor and Tibshirani (2015) discuss some potential solutions to the problem of selective inference.

Dynamic optimization will be necessary for multiple campaign planning, especially if companies morph the classic discrete retention campaign into continuous-time retention

management (e.g., Nobibon, Leus and Spieksma 2011; Delanote, Leus and Nobibon 2013).

Finally, decision support systems can also be used for individual and multiple campaign design as well as strategy integration. Decision support systems employ multiple models (e.g., for retention, acquisition, CLV), some of which are estimated using actual data while others are estimated judgmentally (Blattberg and Deighton 1996; Little 1970; Lewis 2005).

- *Key issues:* How to leverage text data (from emails, recommendations, etc.) for managing retention? What is the best way to identify a limited but valid set of predictors for retention models? Which machine learning methods are most valuable for retention management? What methods will prove scalable and implementable in real time, and what are the potential benefits of such methods?

Future Research Directions

The objective of this article has been to draw on previous research and current practice to generate insights on retention management and identify key areas for future research. The main theme emerging from this analysis is an advocacy to *take a broad perspective* on retention management. We encourage researchers and practitioners to define retention in terms of customer transaction activity as well as the traditional either/or view. Retention should be measured and evaluated using a variety of metrics at both customer and firm levels, and consider whether the business is contractual or non-contractual. We caution against the use of unweighted aggregate metrics of retention observed over time, which can be misleading due to survivor bias (Table 2). We encourage thinking of churn prediction as just one of several inter-related elements that comprise retention campaign management (Figure 1). Both academics and practitioners need to move beyond predicting which customers are at risk, and work on understanding *why* they are at risk, *whether they are retainable*, and *what incentive* will increase

retention. Retention campaigns should be planned with a view toward future retention campaigns, and integrated with customer acquisition as well as the firm's fundamental STP marketing strategy. All these lessons require a broad, expanded view of retention, while still recognizing that retention management is about keeping customers transacting with the firm.

Our analysis has yielded several areas for future research. These include:

- *The design of reactive campaigns:* Research is needed to determine whether reactive campaigns can be profitable, and which incentives are most effective. Do reactive campaigns undermine the customers' baseline retention rate in the same way that over-use of price-discount promotions can undermine repeat rates for consumer packaged goods (Gedenk and Neslin 1999)? Do reactive campaigns train a cadre of customers to be in chronic need of a special treat from the firm's customer care department? How can we best design reactive campaigns to complement proactive retention campaigns?
- *Who is at risk:* This area has received a good deal of research. It is time for a meta-analysis of churn prediction to identify which methods are best, and which variables better predict such behavior. Despite all the attention, predictions of retention risk are far from perfect. Is there in fact a ceiling in predicting churn, i.e., perhaps top decile lift for a 2% base rate simply can't be higher than say 5 to 1? Are there overlooked powerful churn predictors (e.g., ultra-fine-grained data, the value of textual or voice data, customers' emotions, social connectivity)? Can attribution modeling be applied to churn prediction, i.e., what *sequence* of experiences makes a customer likely not to be retained? Churn-prediction models work well for well-defined retention measures such as 0/1 churn. The analogous metric for non-contractual businesses is the probability of continuous transactions - P(Alive). Further

research is needed that shows the factors that predict $P(\text{Alive})$ (Schweidel and Knox 2013).

Finally, how should we measure retention for low-frequency products, particularly durables?

- *Why at risk:* Progress has been made in uncovering deeper reasons why customers churn, particularly the role of social influence. However, the why-at-risk area needs further research. We need to separate *predictors* from *causes* (e.g., customer satisfaction and habit are likely to be causes; demographics are just predictors). Furthermore, can we build on Braun and Schweidel (2011) in isolating controllable causes so that managers can utilize the insights, not just the predictions, from retention models? Another important why-at-risk question relates to acquisition channel. Previous work has shown that acquisition channel matters, but is there a deeper theory that could guide the manager considering whether to utilize a particular channel for acquisition? Are different retention rates for different channels due to self-selection or due to the process of acquisition?
- *Whom do we target?* Traditional approaches rank order customers in terms of their risk of churning and “draw the line” somewhere down the list (e.g., Bult and Wansbeek 1995). An improved approach is to focus on incremental response to retention efforts, i.e., “uplift.” Can retention risk, incentive response, and customer profitability be integrated to guide the who-to-target decision? How effective are various methods of modeling uplift directly? Not only do we need to understand better whom to target, but whom *not* to target. Due to the typical low base rate of churn, retention campaigns are more likely to commit a Type I error (target a customer who does not need to be retained) than a Type II error (not target a customer who needs to be retained). Can we better measure these errors and balance them appropriately in deciding whom to target? What factors identify the campaign design factors that create delight rather than a churn-creating negative reaction among would-be non-churners?

- *With what incentive:* When are monetary incentives advisable in contrast to non-monetary efforts? How important are one-to-one personalized retention actions vs. one incentive for all at-risk customers or for each of a manageable number of segments? Which retention efforts not only rescue the customer in the short run, but enhance CLV in the long run? How can we integrate the reasons *why* customers churn into the best action for retaining customers? We need as many studies on appropriate retention efforts as there are on predicting churn.
- *When do we target?* How can we trade off targeting a customer too early vs. too late? From a broader perspective and following Figure 3, how much should a firm invest in retention along the continuum ranging from acquisition to win-back? When is it time for the firm to upsell the customer to a new product to forestall churn?
- *So what?* First, there is some evidence that many campaigns are futile in terms of preventing churn (e.g., Berson et al. 2000; Ascarza 2016). Can we document campaigns that show success? What are the key factors that determine success? What impact do retention campaigns have on long-term retention rate as well as customer profit contribution given the customer is retained? What are typical rescue rates, and what influences them? Finally, how does long-term success vary by industry and program design?
- *Data and Methods:* What are the best ways to leverage text data, unstructured data, ultra-fine-grained behavior data, and social connectedness data to enhance retention management? How can we develop and use attitudinal and other measures of retention in low-transaction frequency industries? Where and how can machine learning be applied to managing retention. How can we extend Lemmens and Gupta's (2013) notion that models should be estimated using campaign profitability as an objective, not mere maximization of a "neutral"

likelihood function? Finally, do competing risk models used in biostatistics to predict death provide better tool to model *why* customers churn as opposed to merely *who* is at risk?

- *Multiple campaign management:* To our knowledge this area has received virtually no attention in academic research. Research is needed that helps managers plan how many retention campaigns to run and at what timing, e.g., via dynamic programming optimization. Another dimension that needs research is how to coordinate proactive and reactive campaigns. Finally, how can we coordinate discrete retention campaigns with ongoing, continuous efforts to manage retention at the customer level?
- *Strategic integration:* How does one optimally allocate acquisition and retention funds over time? How does one balance the sometimes-conflicting goals of high acquisition rates and high retention rates? A wide-open area is the coordination of retention activities with other elements of the marketing mix. For example, how should firms allocate funds between discrete retention campaigns and brand-building activities such as advertising and product development? How do we ensure that retention campaigns and marketing strategy work in sync?

In summary, while we have learned a lot about customer retention, management attention and academic research efforts need to be broadened beyond identifying customers who are most likely to churn. More work can be done in this crucial area, but there are several other areas very fertile for future work. It is clear that the customer retention problem is not going away. Researchers need to guide managers on how to deal with this issue successfully. Managers need to think about retention more broadly than simply a matter of 0/1 subscription renewals. We hope this paper serves as a useful starting point for both researchers and managers.

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Figure 1: Managing Customer Retention

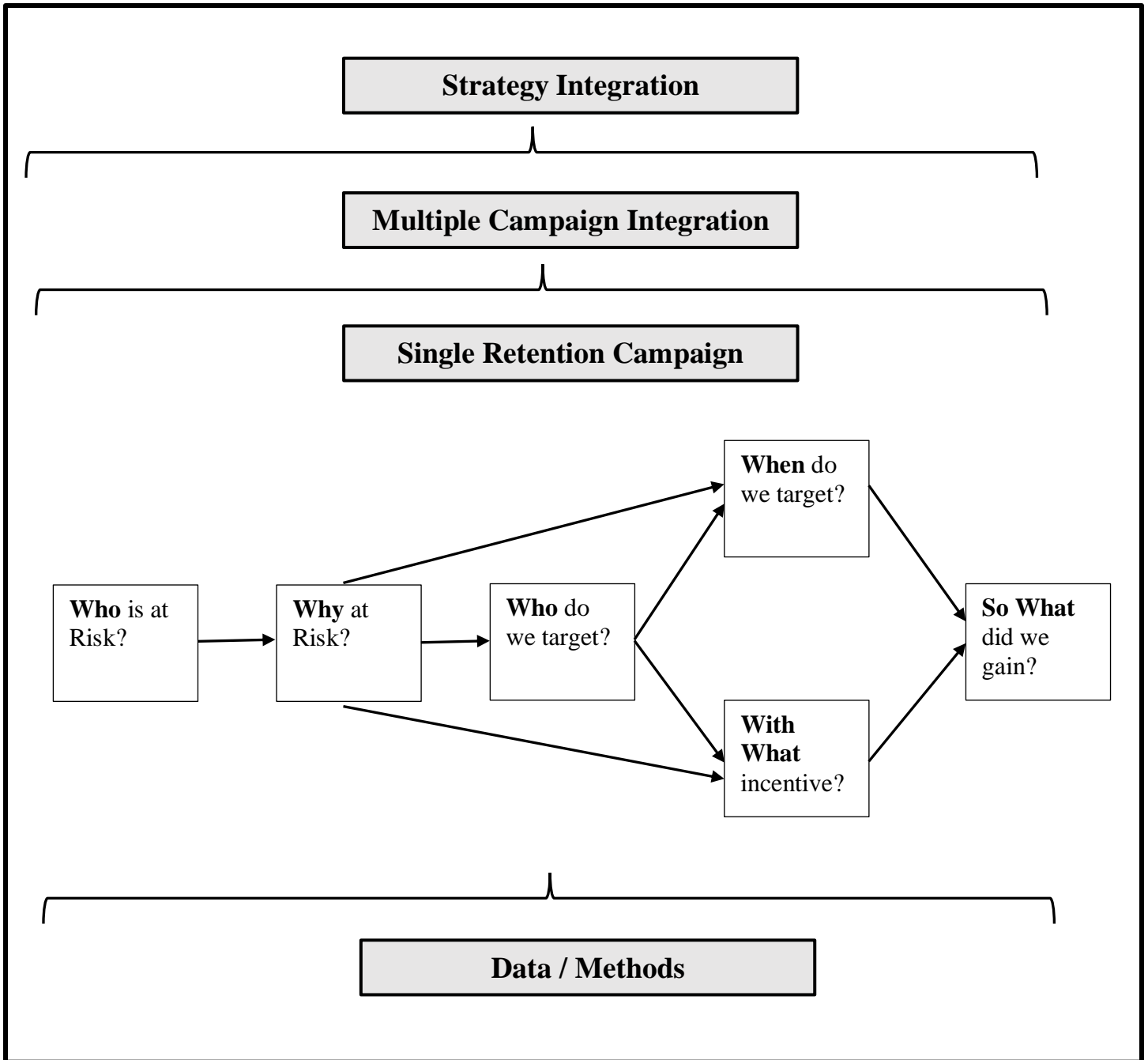
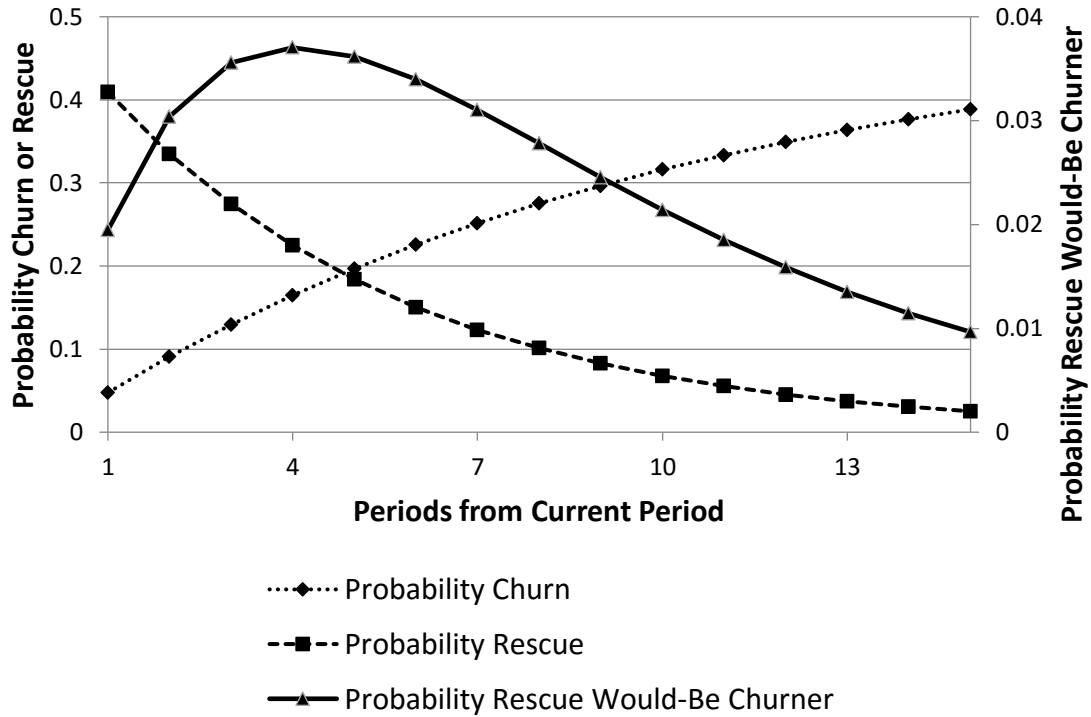


Figure 2: When to Target a Retention Campaign: Trading off Churn Probability vs. Rescue Probability*



* $P(\text{Churn}) = \alpha_c(1 - \exp^{-\beta_c t})$ and $P(\text{Rescue}) = \alpha_r \exp^{-\beta_r t}$ with $\alpha_c = 0.5$; $\beta_c = 0.1$; $\alpha_r = 0.5$; $\beta_r = 0.2$;
 $P(\text{Rescue would-be churner}) = P(\text{Churn}) \times P(\text{Rescue})$.

Figure 3: Alternative Timing of Retention Campaigns

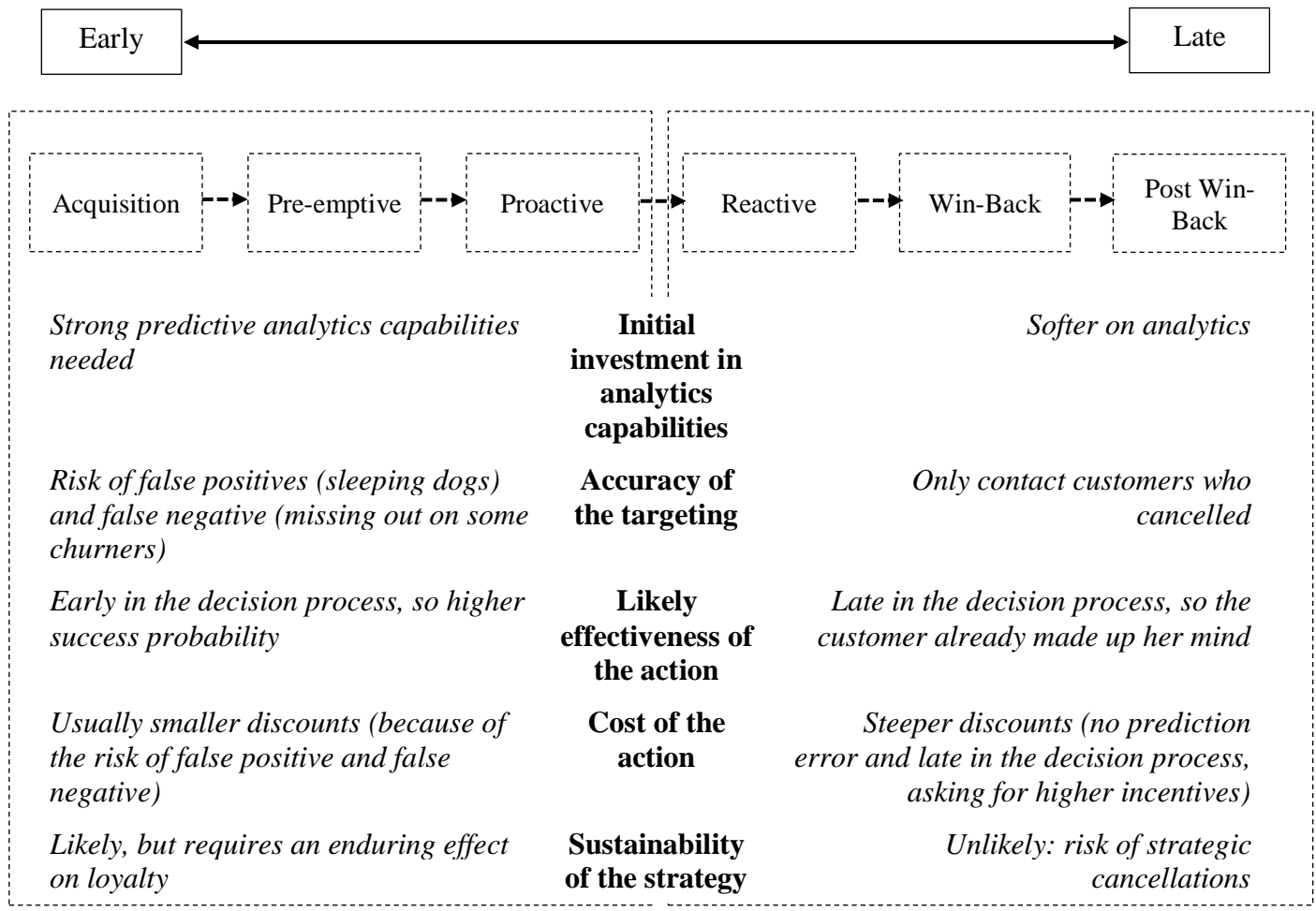


Table 1: Examples of Alternative Retention Metrics

		Type of Business	
		Contractual	Non-Contractual
Level of Aggregation	Individual Customer Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 0/1 indicator of whether customer is still under contract at end of the period. • 0/1 indicator of whether customer transacted this period. • Recency – number of periods since previous transaction. • Recency/Inter-purchase-time ratio. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Latent attrition, i.e., P(Alive) for a specific customer, inferred from a statistical model. • 0/1 indicator of whether customer transacted this period. • Recency – number of periods since previous transaction. • Recency/Inter-purchase-time ratio
	Aggregate Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retention rate — Number of customers who renewed in a particular period divided by the total number of customers who were up for renewal in that same period. • Percentage of customers transacting during period. • Distribution and summary statistics of recency across customers. • Distribution and summary statistics of Recency/ Inter-purchase-time ratio across customers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution and summary statistics of latent attrition, i.e., of P(Alive) by cohort. • Percentage of customers transacting during period. • Distribution and summary statistics of recency across customers. • Distribution and summary statistics of recency across customers • Distribution and summary statistics of Recency/ Inter-purchase-time ratio across customers

Table 2: Survivor Bias in Cohort-Level Retention Rate Calculations

		Retention Rate of Good Customers = 70%			
		Retention Rate of Bad Customers = 20%			
Years After Acquisition	# Customers	# Good	# Bad	Customers Left at End of Year	Retention Rate
0	1000	500	500	450*	45%**
1	450	350	100	265	59%
2	265	245	20	176	66%
3	176	172	4	121	69%
4	121	120	1	84	70%
5	84	84	0	59	70%
6	59	59	0	41	70%
7	41	41	0	29	70%
8	29	29	0	20	70%

* E.g., $450 = 500 \times 70\% + 500 \times 20\%$

** E.g., $45\% = 450 / 1000$

Table 2b: Different Customers Acquired First Two Years

		Year 0 Customer Retention Rate = 70%						
		Year 1 Customer Retention Rate = 20%						
Year	# Custs. Acquired	Year 0 Custs.	Year 1 Custs.	Total Custs. Beg. of Year	Year 0 Custs. End of Year	Year 1 Custs. End of Year	Total Custs. End of Year	Retention Rate
0	1000	1000	0	1000	700	0	700	70%
1	2000	700	2000	2700	490	400	890	33%
2		490	400	890	343	80	423	48%
3		343	80	423	240	16	256	61%
4		240	16	256	168	3	171	67%
5		168	3	171	118	1	118	69%
6		118	1	118	82	0	82	70%
7		82	0	82	58	0	58	70%
8		58	0	58	40	0	40	70%
9		40	0	40	28	0	28	70%

Table 3: Predictors of Churn in Contractual Settings

Factors	Example	Method	References and Industries
Customer Satisfaction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Emotion in emails 2. Customer service calls 3. Usage trends 4. Complaints 5. Previous non-renewal 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Logistic, SVM, Random Forests 2. SVM + ALBA 3. Logistic, NN, SVM, Genetic 4. Logistic, NN, SVM, Genetic 5. Logistic, SVM, Random Forests 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Coussement and Van den Poel 2009 (newspaper) 2. Verbeke et al. 2011 (telecom) 3. Huang, Kechadi, and Buckley 2012 (telecom) 4. Huang, Kechadi, and Buckley 2012 (telecom) 5. Coussement and Van den Poel 2009 (newspaper)
Usage Behavior	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Usage level 2. Usage level 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. SVM with ALBA 2. Logistic, NN, SVM, Genetic 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Verbeke et al. 2011 (telecom) 2. Huang, Kechadi, and Buckley 2012 (telecom)
Switching Costs	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Add-on services 2. Pricing plan 3. Ease of switching 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Logistic, NN, SVM, Genetic 2. Dec Tree, Naïve Bayes, Logistic, NN, SVM 3. Graphical comparison 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Huang, Kechadi, and Buckley 2012 (telecom) 2. Vafeiadis et al 2015 (telecom) 3. Blattberg, Kim, and Neslin 2008 (p. 613) (telecom)
Customer Characteristics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Psychographic Segment 2. Demographics 3. Customer tenure 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Logistic, NN, SVM, Genetic 2. Logistic, NN, SVM, Genetic 3. Logistic, Decision Tree 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Huang, Kechadi, and Buckley 2012 (telecom) 2. Huang, Kechadi, and Buckley 2012 (telecom) 3. Ali and Aritürk 2014 (banking)
Marketing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mail responders 2. Response to direct mail 3. Previous marketing campaigns 4. Acquisition method 5. Acquisition channel 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bagging and Boosting 2. Logistic, SVM, Random Forests 3. Decision rules 4. Probit 5. Logistic 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lemmens and Croux 2006 (telecom) 2. Coussement and Van den Poel 2009 (newspaper) 3. Benedek, Lublóy, and Vastag 2014 (telecom) 4. Datta, Foubert, and van Heerde 2015 (interactive TV) 5. Verhoef and Donkers 2005 (financial services)
Social Connectivity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Neighbor churn 2. Social network connections 3. Social embeddedness 4. Neighbor/connections usage 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Hazard 2. Random Forests, Bayesian Networks 3. Decision rules 4. Logistic 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Nitzan and Libai 2013 (telecom) 2. Verbeke, Martens, and Baesens 2014 (telecom) 3. Benedek, Lublóy, and Vastag 2014 (telecom) 4. Ascarza, Ebbes, and Netzer 2016 (telecom)

Table 4: Data and Methodologies for Retention Management

Data	Description	Example Where Used
“Usual Suspects”	Transactions, demographics	who is at risk; whom to target
Emotions/Attitudes/traits	As inferred from text mining	who is at risk; why at risk
Unstructured data on customer firm interaction	Textual or voice data from call center or chat discussions	why at risk
Social influence/connectivity	Embeddedness, etc.	who is at risk; whom to target
Weekly overall or individually-targeted spend on marketing mix including retention campaigns	Aggregate by region as well as per time period, and/or of individually targeted campaigns	Marketing mix models to address strategy integration
Detailed engagement	Detailed interactions of the customers with the product such as play-by-play	Who is at risk; Why at risk
Methods	Description	Example Where Used
Regression	Classical statistics	Individual campaign design and multiple campaign planning
Machine learning	Machine learning classification and prediction tools such as Decision trees, bagging, boosting and random forest.	Churn models
Text mining	Topic models, bag of words methods	Quantifying emotions, attitudes, and unstructured data.
Dynamic optimization	Dynamic programming	Multiple campaign planning
Decision support systems	Decision calculus and agent-based models; optimization models	Individual and multiple campaign management; strategy integration
Field Experiment	Rescue rate, long-term CLV	Individual and multiple campaigns