

STATISTICS

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**An observational study of ECCO
Finishing's selling channels**

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Abstract

This paper focuses on a strategic decision of a Swedish company. The company is ECCO Finishing and it sells its products in many countries. It assembles and installs painting guns and sells them through two main channels: one is via its own subsidiaries based on the targeted countries and the other is via distributors. And for the distributors, some sell exclusively ECCO products and some sell many other products as well. All of these channels have advantages and disadvantages and which one should be used in a particular country is of great interest to the management. In this paper an advanced causal inference method named propensity score on three/two level treatments is applied for discussing this question. Based on the results of the Generalized Linear Mixed models as well as a simple linear model, conclusions have been drawn about which country should be treated in which channel.

Key words: observational study; casual inference; potential outcome;
propensity score; generalized linear mixed model; matching

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background information

ECCO Finishing is a former subsidiary to Atlas Copco. It is manufacturing, marketing and selling equipments for paint distribution systems, both manually and automatically (equipment sitting on robots). It purchases the equipments' parts, apply its particular techniques to assemble the parts and sell the finished goods to all over the world. The company is located in Skara of Sweden and it has a long history and worldwide reputation for its good quality and its ability to satisfy customers' special requirements. Though there are only eight workers doing all the assembling work, the company gets a big total return as well as big profit every year because of its top level technique and high quality after selling service.

ECCO Finishing sells its products through distributors or subsidiaries in different countries. Distributor refers to the company ECCO cooperates with and subsidiary refers to the selling office owned by ECCO. The fundamental difference of the two is whether it is owned by ECCO or not.

An overlook of the whole company's business is presented in Figure 1. As one can see, ECCO works through exclusive distributors in Germany, Spain and Italy which sell exclusively its products. In Britain, Poland, Portugal and Bulgaria it has general distributors, which sell many other products as well. It began to cooperate with a general distributor in China in October 2005. The distributors then sell its products to the end customers in each country.

It has its subsidiaries in Belgium and France. While in Holland it closed the subsidiary in March 2007 and began to work through a general distributor by January 2007.

It sells products directly to the end customers in Sweden. Because the selling office in Sweden is wholly owned by ECCO, Sweden will in this thesis be considered as a subsidiary country for the mother company.

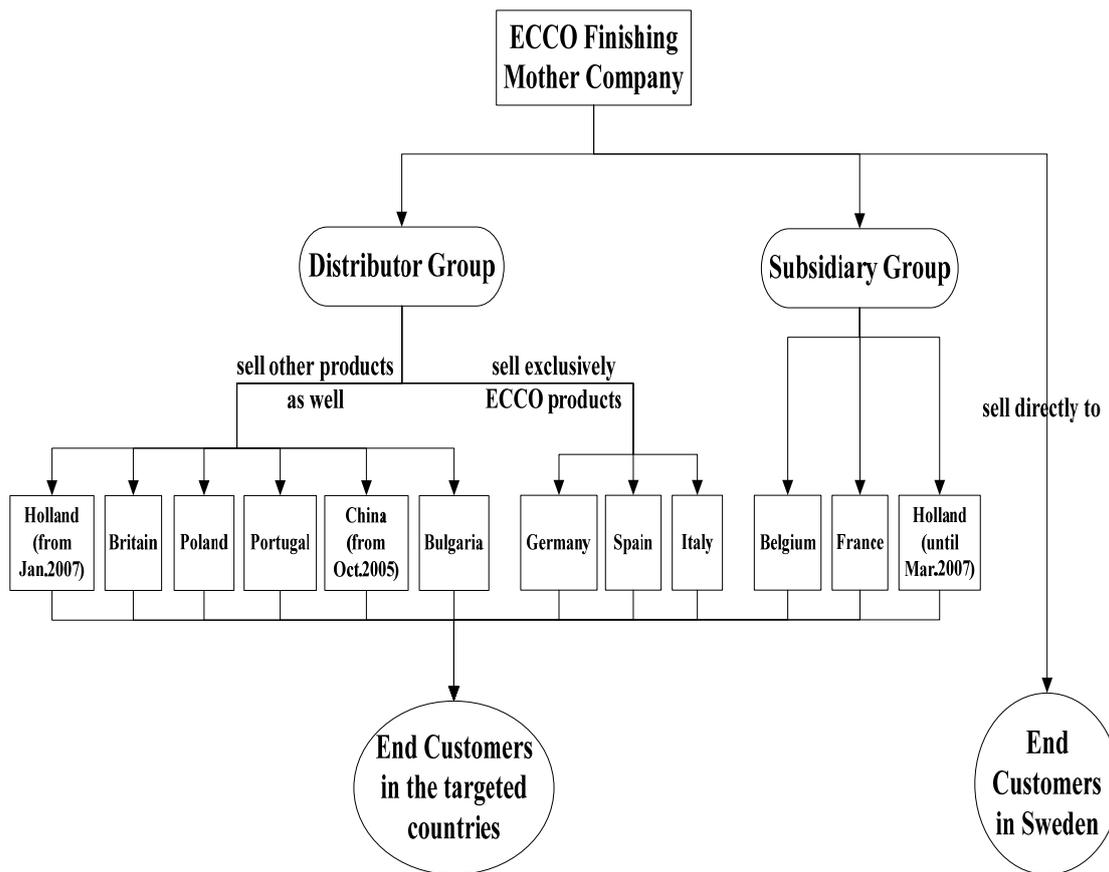


Figure1. The relationship between the mother company and its selling agencies in the twelve countries

1.2 The problems

ECCO Finishing is growing steadily and the managers are facing the issue of what kind of selling channel they should use in the countries where they do not do business today. The managers are also interested in whether their present selling channels in the twelve countries are the most profitable ones.

There are some advantages of setting up a subsidiary. i) The mother company can control the business directly. ii) It can come to its customers quickly and solve the problems more efficiently and thereby raising ECCO's reputation among its customers. iv) The employees in the subsidiaries are members of the mother firm and are consequently highly motivated to sell the products whereas the distributors ECCO cooperates with will only focus on how much money they can make by selling Ecco products. iv) ECCO can train its subsidiaries' staff to be more competent in selling its products to many different industries whereas the ability and acknowledges of the distributors' employees are uncontrollable.

However there are a lot of disadvantages of running a subsidiary. i) The cost of selling the products will rise dramatically. It has to run the office by itself and take

care of the expenses of running the office. ii) There will be some monetary flow risk as well as some operating risk. iv) It needs time to build up its own reputation and get enough loyal customers. iv) It will be costly and difficult to work through its subsidiaries to cover the whole market in the targeted country.

In order to obtain the target of maximum profit, the managers have to make the correct decision on whether they should set up new subsidiary in the targeted countries. This is exactly what this paper focuses on. The twelve countries will be divided into two/three groups and endowed with two/three levels of treatments according to different purposes of analysis. The definition of the levels of treatments and explanations will be presented in detail in the following sections.

I take the “contribution margin” as the response variable and try to quantify all the influencing factors by asking the main manager to give the scores of them. At the same time I collect the data on the national basis for all the twelve countries, like GNP, the average consumer prices and so on. I firstly apply a recently developed method named propensity score to group the data and then using the refined dataset to construct generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs). I also use the propensity score to do the matching and analyse the differences of the outcome of the matched pairs against the score.

The conclusion is that most of the twelve countries have been treated as they should be treated, in a way which they can provide the maximum profit to the mother company whereas in France and Germany exclusive distributors should be found for them. Another conclusion is that theoretically speaking the higher the matching scores the better the mother company should have a subsidiary in that country.

This paper is divided into four sections. In the next section the process of smoothing the original financial data: the turnover and the contribution margin and the data collected as the pre-treatment variables will be described. The third part is the section describing the methods going to be used for this case. And in the very last some strategic suggestions will be given based on the empirical findings.

2. Data

In this section I firstly describe how I process the financial records into a smooth one in order to facilitate the following analysis. Then I choose the response variable and

present a general description of it. Lastly I collect the influencing variables and present explanations of them.

2.1 Processing of the financial records

The original financial file contains two groups of data: turnover and contribution margin from January 2004 to March 2008 on monthly basis. It is natural to have a positive turnover and contribution margin on the book after one month hard working. Whereas in the original data files sometimes the turnover is positive and the contribution margin is negative followed with a negative margin ratio, and sometimes the turnover is zero and a contribution margin is negative followed with a nonexistent margin ratio.

After examination of another more detailed file which is on the daily basis, I figure out the causes of the abnormal values. As the Table 1 show there are five kinds of data records besides the daily transaction, which may have some impacts on the turnover and contribution margin.

- KR = returned sales credit invoice (Both the turnover and contribution margin are negative but they are not same.)
- KF = sales allowance credit invoice (Both the turnover and contribution margin are negative and same.)
- FF = free text invoice (Used for example on advanced payments. Both the turnover and contribution margin are positive.)
- Zero Sum invoices (Turnover equals to zero and contribution margin is negative. This can be for example warranty, products fairs, tests etc)
- Discount selling (Turnover is positive whereas contribution margin is negative. This can be for example get rid of old style products etc, and they sell products at the price lower than the production cost)

These invoices are responsible for the negative month profit when the total regular business's profit in that month is less than the expenses. The invoices like KF, FF and Zero Sum invoices should not be taken into account as that month's expenses, instead they should be considered as an expense throughout the whole year. So I decide to add all the daily data back into monthly data and having the total of three types of invoices spread out over the twelve months. I consider the KR as the regular transaction with just the opposite direction. The "discount selling" has been left alone,

unless it is really big and liable for causing the negative profit. In that case I have to spread the discount selling over the year.

Table 1: An example of the original file concerning turnover and contribution margin

Cust.ID	Cust. Name	Inv. date	Inv. no	Turnover	Contr. Marg.	percentage	Category
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2004-03-03	1003373	39,929	12,889	32.28%	Regular
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2004-03-10	1003447	15,306	7,168	46.83%	Regular
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2004-03-11	KR000117	-1,214	-322	26.49%	KR
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2004-05-12	KF000128	-270	-270	100.00%	KF
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2004-12-07	1006351	1,146	-191	-16.70%	Discount selling
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2006-11-20	FF0040	1,700	1,700	100.00%	FF
100272	ECCOFIL S.R.L.	2006-12-13	1014754	0	-17,705	-	Zero Sum invoices

2.2 A look at the response variables

I decide to take contribution margin as the response variable because we are primarily interested in the profit. Another reason is that the change of turnover and contribution margin have similar trend.

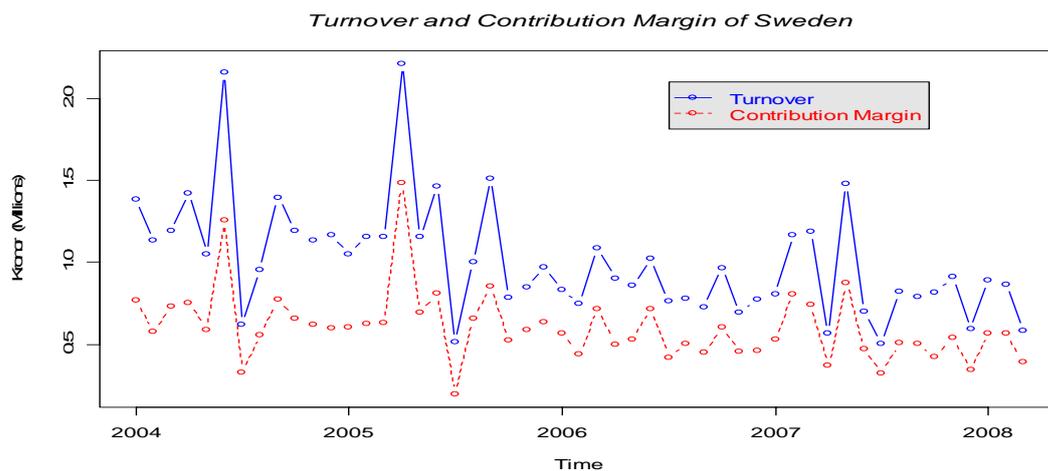


Figure 2: The time series plot of turnover and contribution margin of Sweden (scale: Millions).

Figure 2 is an example of Sweden illustrating this. The plots of turnover and contribution margin of Sweden behave similarly throughout the observation years. So I just drop the variable turnover and focus on contribution margin.

Figure 3 shows the yearly data of contribution margin for all the twelve countries. After comparing the contribution margin of all these twelve countries, we can have a rough understanding of ECCO business condition.

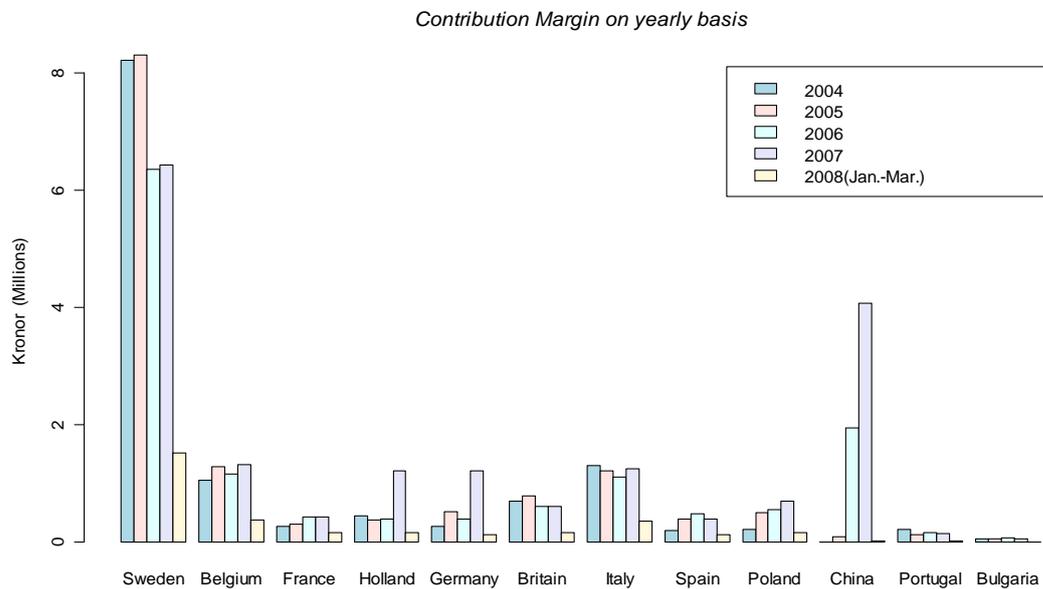


Figure 3: The histogram of the contribution margin on yearly basis for all the twelve countries (scale: Millions)

According to Figure 3 Sweden is definitely its main market, the contribution margin is at least four times bigger than in any other country. And there is a quite small amount of selling in Bulgaria and Portugal. China is an interesting market for ECCO. Though it has been explored recently, the market presents a promising market share for ECCO. Germany and Holland have a big sale increase in 2007. The other six countries seem to be more or less stable.

2.3 Collecting the influencing variables

I gather some objective data, like the numbers of employees in each selling agency, the distances from the countries of the selling agencies to Sweden. I calculate the ratio of turnover and contribution margin, which is regarded as the selling price level. In order to get more background information into the promising models, I ask the chief manager to give the subjective scores of the background factors on the company level, like the reputation of ECCO etc. The reasons of taking these factors into account are trying to reflect the advantages and disadvantages of having a subsidiary as stated in the previous section, and these factors may probably get involved in the process when the managers decide whether they would set up a subsidiary in a particular country. In

other words, these factors might largely affect the decision making process. By asking the arbitrary scores, all the qualitative variables are quantified. At the same time some variables of the twelve countries on the national level are found on the homepage of the International Monetary Fund. They are annual data. All of these variables will be considered as pre-treatment variables.¹

Table 2: All the pre-treatment variables and their explanations

Variable	Explanation	Data Property
National level variable		
<i>Gross domestic product</i>	Annual percent change of the GDP	Ratio data
<i>Average consumer prices</i>	The annual percent change of the average consumer prices	Ratio data
<i>Current account balance</i>	The percentage of current account balance against GDP	Ratio data
Company level variable		
<i>Market share</i>	How large of the market ECCO products have already occupied	Subjective score data Percentage data
<i>Reputation</i>	The end customers' knowledge about ECCO products	Subjective score data From 1 to 7
<i>English level</i>	The wide spread rate of speaking English in the targeted country	Subjective score data From 1 to 7
<i>Market knowledge</i>	How well the mother company is familiar with the targeted market	Subjective score data From 1 to 7
<i>Selling person</i>	The ability and motivation of the employees in the selling agency	Subjective score data From 1 to 7
<i>Competition degree</i>	How fierce competition the mother company can sense from its competitors	Subjective score data From 1 to 7
<i>After selling service</i>	How good after selling service the agency can provide when necessary	Subjective score data From 1 to 7
<i>Ratio</i>	The ratio of turnover against contribution margin	Ratio data
<i>Distance</i>	The number of hours man travels by plane from mother company to the selling agency	Counts data
<i>Employee number</i>	The number of employees in the selling agency	Counts data

¹ "Pre-treatment variables" are a particular group of variables in casual inference analysis framework which tell the background information before observed units receive different treatments.

3. Method and model specification

In this section I will first introduce the analysis framework of the casual inference including its main concept “potential outcomes”, its potential problems “lack of overlap”, “lack of balance” and the solving methods “propensity score”, “matching”. Then I will apply this framework to my analysis and construct models for this particular “selling channels” issue.

3.1 The overall analysis framework

3.1.1 The potential outcomes

This paper is interested in finding out which treatments: having their own subsidiaries or working through distributors in some particular countries will bring more profit to the mother company in Skara. This is an observational study for casual effects. The first idea of the model to fit these data is to use generalized linear mixed model (GLMM). But for the observational study we have to do the analysis with caution when we are making causal inference. The problem is that in the observational study there may be some kind of non-randomly intervention in the treatment assignment process. In that case it is possible that for some units they will be more likely to receive the treatment and for some other units they will be more likely to receive the control treatment. Thus, if one just applies GLMM based on the original dataset to fit these data the estimate will always be biased one. This is because failing to get more concerned variables involved into the model. However, if manages to do that, one probably can not get a significant estimate of the “treatment” against the “outcome” which is the most important concern of this thesis.

Actually this is a typical potential outcome analysis framework which is introduced by Rubin (1974). Let me take the two selling channels: subsidiary and distributor for a two-level-treatment case as an example². I state “having their own subsidiaries” as the treated group with value “1” and the other “working through distributors” as the control group with value “0”. The variable “contribution margin” is what the thesis is concerned about and it is naturally taken as the outcome of the treatment. We are eager to see how the treatment influences the outcome, or whether it makes some differences for the outcome, which can be presented in the following way.

$$\tau_i = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0) \quad (1)$$

Where $Y_i(b)$ means the i th unit receives the b level treatment, $b=1,0$.

² The three-level-treatment analysis can be extended in the similar way.

More specifically, the average treatment effect on all the units (ATE) is defined as

$$ATE = E(\tau_i) = E(Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)) \quad (2)$$

And the average treatment effect on treated or control can be stated as ATT and ATC respectively:

$$ATT = E(\tau_i | T_i = 1) = E(Y_i(1) | T_i = 1) - E(Y_i(0) | T_i = 1) \quad (3)$$

$$ATC = E(\tau_i | T_i = 0) = E(Y_i(1) | T_i = 0) - E(Y_i(0) | T_i = 0) \quad (4)$$

And this is the statistic for the estimates of (2)-(4):

$$\bar{Y}(1) - \bar{Y}(0) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{Y_i(1) - Y_i(0)}{N} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N_j \quad (5)$$

Where $\bar{Y}(b)$ means the average outcome which receives the b level treatment, b=1, 0. N_j is the number of the j units when j= “all”, “control” or “treated”.

The difficulty in this framework is that we will never know for sure what the outcomes of control units are if they instead received the treatment and what the outcomes of treated units are if they instead received the control treatment. In equation (3) the estimate of expected non-treatment outcomes for the treated $E(Y_i(0) | T_i = 1)$ is unknown and either is $E(Y_i(1) | T_i = 0)$ in equation (4). The key issue is to find out a method to value these potential outcomes. It can be considered as a missing value problem and that is why this framework is called potential outcomes framework.

3.1.2 Matching method

Some talented people have figured out a feasible way to solve this systematic problem by matching the similar units coming from different treatment groups. By saying “similar” I mean the background information of each unit. In this paper it should refer to the influencing variables I collect from ECCO Finishing as well as on the Internet.

In order to do the matching and make reliable casual inference we have to make an assumption in the beginning called ignorability.

Ignorability means when conditioned on confounding covariates in the analysis, X, the potential outcomes are independent with the treatment variable. This concept is always presented in the following formula:

$$Y(0), Y(1) \perp T | X. \quad (6)$$

This assumption means the distribution of $Y(0)$ under $T = 1$ is same with the distribution of $Y(0)$ under $T = 0$. And so is the case for $Y(1)$.

This assumption gives us a theoretical support to find valid substitutes of $E(Y_i(0) | T_i = 1)$ as $E(Y_i(0) | T_i = 0)$ and $E(Y_i(1) | T_i = 0)$ as $E(Y_i(1) | T_i = 1)$ which is an efficient approach to solve the systematic problem of the potential outcome framework. Besides when the ignorability holds we are assured to model the data with the pre-treatment variables and need not to bother ourselves about the treatment assignment process. This is exactly what we can do in the complete randomized experiments.

However in the observational experiment, it is always not as simple as that. “In general, one can never prove that the treatment assignment process in an observational study is ignorable—it is always possible that the choice of treatment depends on relevant information that has not been recorded.”³ For the sake of simplicity an assumption is made in this paper that this case satisfies the ignorability. I ask the managers as many background variables as possible in order to assure most of “the relevant information” has been recorded.

The assumption needs to be fulfilled to make the casual inference valid in using the matching approach. Nonetheless, there are some other practical problems which matching method is good at solving. The background variables are, more often than not, more than one for each unit and thus they may have different characteristics across the two groups. The typical phenomena for these differences are imbalance and lack of complete overlap.

Imbalance means the distributions of the confounding covariates are not same across groups. Lack of complete overlap refers to the condition when the ranges of the data from different groups are not same. Figure 4 and 5 illustrate these concepts fully.⁴

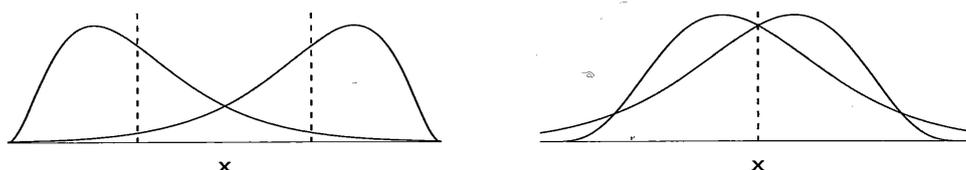


Figure 4: Two cases of imbalance of confounding covariates. The left case has different averages and thus different distributions. The right one has same average but still different distributions.

³ Quoted sentence refer to the book *Data Analysis Using Regression and Multilevel/ Hierarchical Model* Page 184

⁴ Graphs refer to the book *Data Analysis Using Regression and Multilevel/ Hierarchical Model* Page 200-201

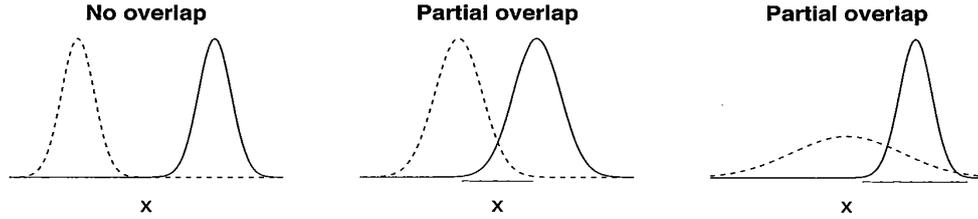


Figure 5: Three cases of lack of overlap. When in the partial overlap cases, one can only make inference in the overlap ranges.

The presentation of these two situations will yield biased estimates of the causal inference. Thus we have to appeal to matching or grouping in which process we get similar units together in order to adjust for the pre-treatment differences across groups.

In order to realize the matching or grouping, we have to appeal to another concept: propensity score. Propensity score is the probability of being treated for each unit.

$$\Pr(T = 1 | X) = E(T | X); \quad 0 < \Pr(T = 1 | X) < 1 \quad (7)$$

The calculation of the propensity score in practice can use the GLMM models taking “treatment” as the response variable and the pre-treatment variables as the covariates. And the link function can be the logit. In this paper, because of the three level treatments, the multinomial model is used.

The propensity score sums up all the information of the pre-treatment variables to a single number. We can match and group the observations according to this number assuming that we will get matched pairs and groups having the similar backgrounds.

3.2 Empirical analysis

3.2.1 Three level treatment analysis

I decide to consider the twelve countries receiving treatments at three levels when I explore the fact of the treatment effects, by dividing the distributor group into another two subgroups. This is because it is natural to believe that different levels of concentration in selling ECCO products may influence the profit the mother company can earn. In addition from the variable “Employee number” I get to know that the exclusive distributors are all small ones with no more than three employees whereas the general distributors tend to be big ones.

I define “T2” as the treatment level the subsidiary group receive which contains countries: Sweden, Belgium, France and Holland (until 2007). “T1” is defined as another treatment level group for the exclusive distributors which contains Italy, Germany and Spain. And “C” is defined as the control group for the general

distributors which contains Holland (after 2007), Britain, China, Portugal, Bulgaria and Poland.

First the multinomial model is used for calculating the propensity score which has the treatments as the response variable and the pre-treatment variables as explanatory variables. Thus each observation unit should have three probabilities of receiving three levels treatments and their sum should be equal to one. I define the probability of receiving treatment level “T2”, “T1” and “C” as “P2”, “P1” and “P0” respectively. It is perfect if all the pre-treatment variables can be imposed into the model but due to the high correlation among them I finally choose seven which are “English Level”, “Distance”, “Employee number”, “log (Average Consumer Prices)”, “Ratio”, “After Selling Service” and “Market Share”.

A graph of the estimated probabilities having P0 on the horizontal axis and P2 on the vertical axis is drawn, as the left graph of Figure 4 shows.

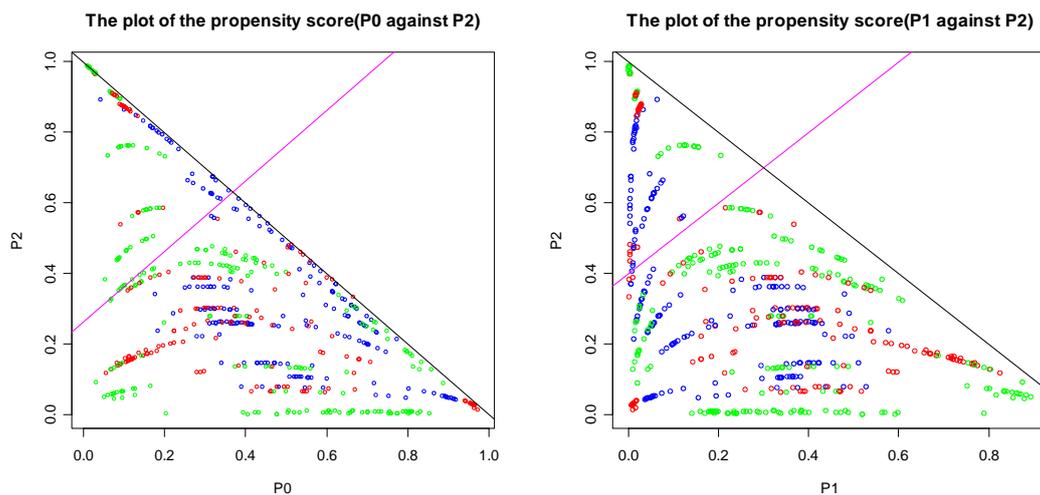


Figure4: The plots of the propensity score. The blue plots are the units coming from the T2 group, the red plots coming from the C group and the green plots coming from T1 group. The positive slope lines indicate the eighth decile borderlines. The units in the top left corners will be dropped due to the departure from the preferable observations.

It is natural to believe that the units on the same lines of unit slope have the similar background information, which is equally to believe the units having the score values of $P1+2*P2$ have the similar background information.⁵ I calculate $P1+2*P2$ and get rid of the units whose scores are larger than the score of the eighth decile which is too far away from the “C” group. In this way I get the refined dataset which exclude the

⁵ That is because the unit line: $P2=P0+a$ can be transformed into $P2=1-P2-P1+a \Rightarrow P1+2*P2=1+a$. (“a” is the intercept term of the unit line.)

units quite different from the common control observations and get its covariates balanced to some degree. I call this refined dataset as “dataset 1”. Then I am assured to fit the data with GLMM which I state as model 1.

The same process can be done with P1 replacing of P0 and I construct another GLMM (model 2) with the refined dataset 2. In this dataset the score $C+2*P2$ should be calculated, and the model is targeted for the T1 group.

The GLMMs have had the variable “treat” and all the seven pre-treatment variables as the explanatory variables and log (contribution margin) as the response variable. The random variable I choose is the country by each year, for example, Sweden2004, Sweden2005 are two groups. The reason is that all the pre-treatment variables stay constant through out the year for each country. Another reason is that during each year the mother company and the selling agencies’ operating condition tend to stay same, for example appointing another CEO or a change of strategy plan happens probably in the end of each year. Thus grouping in this way can also include some main factors which are difficult to detect or quantify but have potential crucial influence on profit. The concise results of these models are presented in Table 3. One can find detailed ones in the appendix.

Table 3: The estimates of the treat effects⁶ in model 1 and model 2

Fixed effects			
	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value
Treatment (model 1):			
Subsidiary (T2)	-1.453	0.487	-2.08
Exclusive distributor (T1)	-1.792	0.562	-2.51
T2:English level	0.379	0.147	2.57
T1:English level	0.618	0.149	4.13
Treatment (model 2):			
Subsidiary (T2)	-1.095	0.474	-2.30
Exclusive distributor (T1)	-1.369	0.533	-2.56
T2: Market share	0.046	0.016	2.83
T1: Market share	0.082	0.021	3.86

From Table 3 we can see the average treatment effects for C and T1 group are all negative which indicate that giving the countries treated treatment will not do things better. However there are intersection terms for the treatment variables with some

⁶ The “control” treatment effect has been included into the intercept term of each model.

other key variables, in this case English level and Market share, the estimates of which are positive. Thus we can conclude that given high enough value of the key pre-treatment variables the treat effect can turn into a positive one for some particular countries. For example, the estimates of “subsidiary (T2)” and “T2: English level” are -1.453 and 0.379. If the value of “English level” of a particular country is 4, the “T2” treatment effect can be positive: $-1.453+0.379*4=0.063>0$. From which we can conclude that the countries with the value of “English level” equal or bigger than 4 can do better given the “T2” treatment.

Though the models are targeted for C and T1 group respectively, after having a look at the number of observations left in the refined datasets in Table 4 one can be at ease to make statistic inference for most of the countries based on the results of model 1 and model 2. For example for the country France which has all the observations contained in the models.

Table 4: The number of the observations for each country in different datasets

country	Original dataset	Refined dataset 1	Refined dataset 2	Refined dataset 3
Sweden	51	3	0	3
Belgium	51	35	18	17
France	51	51	51	50
Holland	51	26	51	17
Germany	51	51	51	3
Italy	51	51	51	14
Spain	51	51	51	4
Britain	51	39	39	12
Poland	51	39	39	3
Portugal	38	38	38	6
China	20	20	15	4
Bulgaria	48	48	48	0

Finally I construct the third model having $P0+2*C$ as the group score which is targeted for the T2 group. The estimates of T2 and T1 are positive which indicate the average treated effect for those which have already being treated by T2 is good. Due to the limited inference which can be drawn from this model, I am not going to introduce more about it.

Table 5 shows after referring to the original values of key pre-treatment variables, based on the results of the above-mentioned models I come to the conclusion that in

France and Germany they should cooperate with the distributor which does not sell exclusively ECCO products. In the countries like Italy and Britain, it does not matter which treatment would be given to them due to their good natural conditions. And in Holland and Poland it does not matter as long as they were given the “distributor” treatment. All the other country are in their optimized conditions. Considering the risk of adopting new strategy to a targeted country and uncertain variation of the pre-treatment variables I believe it is better for Italy and Britain to stay in the condition what they are now. And the mother company at present should consider doing something about France and Germany.

Table 5: The strategy table for all the twelve countries based on the model outcome

		Optimized condition		
		Subsidiary (T2)	Exclusive distributor (T1)	General distributor (C)
Present condition	T2	Sweden; Belgium	-	France
	T1	(Italy)	Spain; Italy	Germany (Italy)
	C	(Britain)	(Holland; Poland) (Britain)	Portugal; China; Bulgaria; Holland; Poland; Britain

3.2.2 Two level treatment analysis

The models 1 to 3 focus on the mother company’s present condition in which it has regular selling process in twelve countries. What about if the mother company wants to open new markets in more countries, and which selling channel is suitable is another concern of the management.

For solving this problem I decide to refer to the two level treatments, because as I stated earlier from the mother company's perspective, there are always two different selling channels. The mother company at present can not require its distributors to sell exclusively its products. In other words, it has no possibility to select the exclusive distributor or a general distributor. Thus I put the T1 and C group together and consider them as one level treatment in the following analysis. Notice that I still use the same propensity score from the previous calculation for each unit.

Because the model which is going to be constructed is for the analysis of some potential counties excluding the twelve countries, I need more precise matched pairs, instead of just grouping the similar units within one dataset as in the previous analysis.

In other words, for the sake of universality I need matched pairs having the similar background in a much more refined dataset. I first get rid of extreme observations by drawing an inscribed circle of the triangle in the left score plot of figure 4. The units within the circle have been preserved. 272 units out of 565 units have been dropped in this stage. Then I use the score $T1+2*T2$ as the matching score and do the matching with replacement. In this matching process the two observations coming from different levels of treatments will be put into a match according to the value of $T1+2*T2$, the R program will find the nearest unit for each treated unit. “Matching with replacement” means same control units can be matched to different treated units more than once. I set the caliper equalled to 0.25 which means that if the difference of the scores of the treated unit with its nearest matched control unit is more than 0.25, the treated unit will be dropped. Now the dataset has only 133 observations with 82 matched pairs.

The Table 6 shows how well the confounding covariates have been balanced after the data refining process.

Table 6: The balancing result of the pre-treatment variables

	Original dataset	Refined dataset3
Log(Average consumer prices)		
mean treatment	0.530	0.678
mean control	0.978	0.732
Standard mean difference	-146.90	-32.78
Employee number		
mean treatment	8.682	3.231
mean control	3.244	3.731
Standard mean difference	54.62	-11.64
Ratio		
mean treatment	0.468	0.418
mean control	0.397	0.416
Standard mean difference	49.36	2.63
Market share		
mean treatment	31.429	21.463
mean control	23.112	27.012
Standard mean difference	58.25	-36.20
English level		
mean treatment	5.269	4.061
mean control	3.611	4.622
Standard mean difference	107.75	-40.33
Distance		
mean treatment	1.730	2.536
mean control	2.675	2.878
Standard mean difference	-83.45	-49.59
After selling service		
mean treatment	5.095	4.500
mean control	4.159	4.304
Standard mean difference	63.18	15.03

As one can see the standard mean differences have been reduced greatly and the means of the variables coming from treatment and control groups tend to come closer to each other.

I calculate the differences between each pairs and fit a simple linear regression model against the matching scores of units which come from the subsidiary group. There are significant estimates for the intercept and the explanatory variable.⁷ In the Figure 6 one can see an upward regression line having an intersection point near point (1, 0).

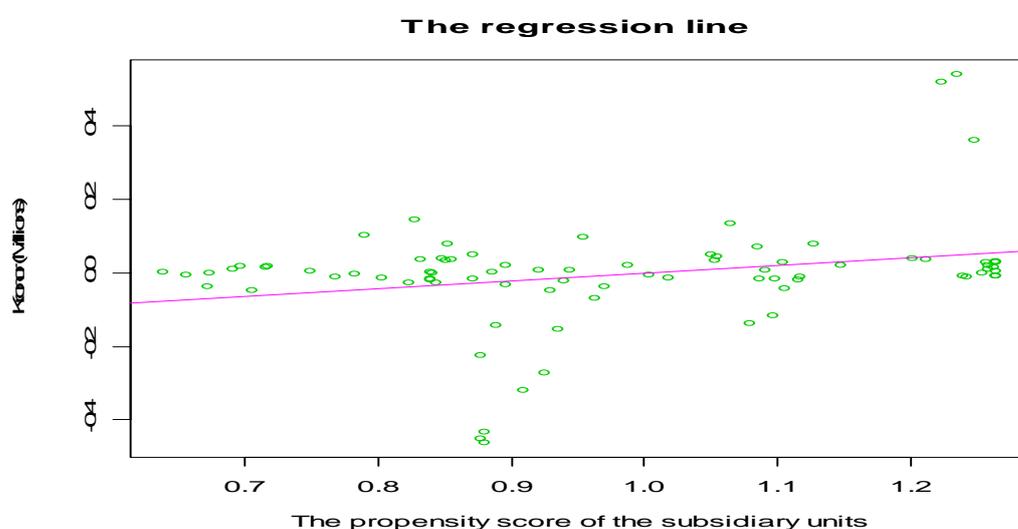


Figure 5: The regression line of difference between the matched pairs against the matching score of the subsidiary units. (Scale: millions)

Given the fact that the matching score has a scale from zero to two, this dataset is a quite precise one. A lot of not quite “neutral” units have been dropped. So it can be guaranteed to assume the regression line can be prolonged through out the whole scale of the matching score by imaging the mother company has enough units coming from varying background. Thinking about the dropped units from Sweden with a huge contribution margin and those from Bulgaria with a tiny contribution margin (refer to the dataset3 in Table4), we can be assured by this assumption again.

This simple line can give us a very important conclusion. The higher the matching score the bigger the difference can be which means the more likely the unit is treated as subsidiary the more profit the mother company can have if it is indeed treated as the subsidiary. Generally speaking, the mother company can get more profit if it has

⁷ The regression model is $\text{Difference} = -0.201 + 0.202 * \text{Matching score}$ with the standard error are 0.082 and 0.083 respectively.

more subsidiaries given a high matching score and has more distributors given a low matching score. From another perspective this model actually is in line with the results I get from GLMMs that most of the countries have been treated in a way which they should be treated.

4. Discussion and further improvement

Because of the characteristics of the data this research rely more on the model specification rather than the data itself. That is why using different models one can come to different conclusions. Comfortingly they all support the common general conclusions which are in the following. Firstly, most countries are being treated in a way which they should be treated. Secondly, France and Germany should switch to general distributors which sell many other products as well. In practice it may be difficult for the mother company to find such distributors in these two countries. However this conclusion at least reminds the management that having subsidiaries in these two countries is not a good idea. Thirdly, the higher the matching score $T1+2*T2$ the better if the countries were treated as subsidiaries which provide the management a auxiliary tool for their decision for some other new targeted markets in the future. But because the present countries are all European countries except China this conclusion should be safely used in the similar countries in the Europe or big country in Asia like India.

Of course in this paper there are still some problems which are difficult to solve. In this case we have access to the book data. However, the problems like the strategic decision sometimes difficult to solve if just using the book data. The unusual events, through they are not common to occur, as long as they occurred they would impose great influence greatly on the result, for example in Germany there is only one person being responsible of selling ECCO products and when he can not work due to some personal reasons, the profit earned in Germany would be influenced. Another example is there is a big customer in Sweden who will have the new production line every four years and for ECCO it can make an extra profit equals to four million. Such random factors are difficult to comprise in a model.

For further improvement, we should improve the quality of the background variables by collecting more reliable data instead of just the subjective score and come to detail about the distributors' operating conditions. It maybe difficult to get

precise data from the distributors due to their confidential concern, but we can record daily tiny activities like the frequency the selling persons in the mother company come to visit the distributors and how many times there have the products fairs in the countries and arrange the data on fixed time intervals. Another improvement in the model may be skipping the assumption of ignorability and considering other method like instrument variable to solve this “selling channels” problem.

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Appendix

Table A

Fixed effects			
Model 1:	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value
Casual variable			
treatT2	-1.453	0.585	-2.122
treatT1	-1.792	0.591	-3.031
treatT2:English level	0.379	0.147	2.570
treatT1:English level	0.618	0.149	4.138
Control variable			
(Intercept)	8.536	0.442	19.271
Ratio	2.240	0.403	5.554
English level	0.054	0.081	0.669
After Selling Service	0.434	0.077	5.590
Market share	-0.033	0.012	-2.712
log(Average consumer prices)	-0.721	0.182	-3.955
Distance	0.001	0.056	0.034
Employee number	0.026	0.014	1.802
Random effects			
Groups	Name	Variance	Std.Dev.
Country by year	(Intercept)	0.096	0.309
Residue		0.706	0.840
Number of observation:452, groups: 51			

Table B

Fixed effects			
Model 2:	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value
Casual variable			
treatT2	-1.095	0.474	-2.307
treatT1	-1.369	0.533	-2.567
treatT2: Market share	0.046	0.016	2.838
treatT1: Market share	0.082	0.021	3.869
Control variable			
(Intercept)	9.055	0.504	17.950
Ratio	2.371	0.412	5.754
English level	0.104	0.078	1.340
After Selling Service	0.389	0.068	5.725
Market share	-0.047	0.015	-3.007
log(Average consumer prices)	-0.882	0.189	-4.661
Distance	0.018	0.060	0.309
Employee number	0.015	0.017	0.925
Random effects			
Groups	Name	Variance	Std.Dev.
Country by year	(Intercept)	0.084	0.290
Residue		0.732	0.855
Number of observation:452, groups: 50			