## Singapore Management University

# [Institutional Knowledge at Singapore Management University](https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/)

[Research Collection Lee Kong Chian School Of](https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/lkcsb_research) 

Lee Kong Chian School of [Business](https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/lkcsb_research)

10-2021

# Impact of different types of in-store displays on consumer purchase behavior

Yoonju HAN Lehigh University

Sandeep R. CHANDUKALA Singapore Management University, sandeepc@smu.edu.sg

Shibo LI Indiana University - Bloomington

Follow this and additional works at: [https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/lkcsb\\_research](https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/lkcsb_research?utm_source=ink.library.smu.edu.sg%2Flkcsb_research%2F6915&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) 

 $\bullet$  Part of the [Marketing Commons](https://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/638?utm_source=ink.library.smu.edu.sg%2Flkcsb_research%2F6915&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages), and the Sales and Merchandising Commons

### **Citation**

HAN, Yoonju; CHANDUKALA, Sandeep R.; and LI, Shibo. Impact of different types of in-store displays on consumer purchase behavior. (2021). Journal of Retailing. 98, (3), 432-452. Available at: https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/lkcsb\_research/6915

This Journal Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Lee Kong Chian School of Business at Institutional Knowledge at Singapore Management University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Research Collection Lee Kong Chian School Of Business by an authorized administrator of Institutional Knowledge at Singapore Management University. For more information, please email [cherylds@smu.edu.sg.](mailto:cherylds@smu.edu.sg)

# **Impact of Different Types of In-Store Displays on Consumer Purchase**

# **Behavior**

Yoonju Han Assistant Professor of Marketing College of Business and Economics Lehigh University [yjhan@lehigh.edu](mailto:yjhan@lehigh.edu)

Sandeep R. Chandukala Associate Professor of Marketing Lee Kong Chian School of Business Singapore Management University [sandeepc@smu.edu.sg](mailto:sandeepc@smu.edu.sg)

Shibo Li John R. Gibbs Professor of Marketing Kelley School of Business Indiana University 1309 East 10<sup>th</sup> Street Bloomington, IN 47405 Tel: 812-8559015 [shili@indiana.edu](mailto:shili@indiana.edu)

(Forthcoming at *Journal of Retailing*)

DOI: 10.1016/j.jretai.2021.10.002

### **Impact of Different Types of In-Store Displays on Consumer Purchase Behavior**

### **Abstract**

Research on consumer in-store shopping behavior does not account for the existence of different types of display locations (e.g. storefront, store rear, secondary, front end cap, rear end cap, and shelf displays). This article focuses on accounting for and understanding the impact of various displays on consumer purchase behavior based on the Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) theory. Specifically, we study how displays closer to and farther from the main location of the focal category influence consumer purchase behavior. Furthermore, within the different types of displays we investigate the impact of specific types of displays on consumer's category purchase and brand choice and the moderating role of price and discounts. A hierarchical Bayesian model is estimated using scanner panel data for a large U.S. grocery chain that contains unique information on the number of product facings at multiple display locations within a store. We find that displays closer to the focal category have a larger impact, with front end cap displays having the largest impact on category purchase and shelf displays having the largest impact on brand choice. We also demonstrate the synergistic impact of price and discounts in enhancing the impact of displays on consumer purchase behavior and brand choice. Equipped with these findings we propose a display allocation optimization that results in an average increase in revenue of about 11.15% and a strategy to distribute displays across all locations in the store rather than letting one location dominate.

*Keywords:* displays, Bayesian hierarchical models, optimization

#### **Introduction**

In-store displays are commonplace in retail stores and represent a competitive promotional tool to boost sales. Marketers spend about \$60 billion annually in the U.S. on instore merchandising and shopper marketing with an increase of 8% to 10% every year since 2008 (Tadena 2015). In-store displays draw consumer attention to specific products (Dhar, Hoch, and Kumar 2001) and are often more effective than other standard promotional activities, such as price cuts (Neff 2008). Moreover, with their various locations in a given store (e.g., store front, store rear, shelf, secondary location), different variations of in-store displays exist. These variations influence consumers in different ways. For example, store front displays might encourage impulse buying, while secondary location displays might serve as a reminder or attract attention to a promoted product.

According to a study by Point-of-Purchase Advertising International (2012), more than one in six in-store brand purchases are made when the brand is displayed. Moreover, half the consumers recalled seeing at least one display during their shopping trip, and this recall was not the same across all displays, with floor stands and endcap displays dominating consumers' recall (86% in total). However, retail managers still face a number of challenges in managing in-store displays to improve shopper experience and store performance (Kennedy 2004; Wirespring.com 2016). First, even though it is important, it is difficult to attract consumers' attention and interest to the displayed products in a store as a consumer typically spends 3-7 seconds on the product, termed as the first moment of truth in the industry (Kennedy 2004). Second, store managers lack clarity on the impact of different types of displays and hence are unsure about how to optimally allocate them to increase revenues<sup>1</sup>. This study aims to shed light on the latter issue.

l

<sup>1</sup> https://www.display.be/POP-14-effective-types-retail-displays.html

Extant research on in-store promotions (Allenby and Ginter 1995; Inman, Winer, and Ferraro 2009; Zhang and Krishnamurthi 2004) has typically combined different types of displays and assessed their overall impact. The practice of combining various types of displays is problematic because of differing levels of visibility (how visible are the displays to shoppers) and exclusivity (the level of devotion or restriction to a particular brand) of displays resulting in differential impact on consumer purchase behavior. For example, Kennedy (1970) shows that display location affects the sales of cigarettes differently, with the highest impact for end-of-aisle displays. While, Breugelmans and Campo (2011) find in an online setting, that store entrance (first screen) and aisle displays outperform shelf tag displays in terms of impact on brand sales. However, the few studies accounting for different displays distinguish only among three broad categories of displays: store entrance, end-of-aisle, and shelf displays. In practice, brick-andmortar stores have more in-store display types, including store front, store rear, secondary location, front endcap, rear endcap, and shelf. Additionally, there is a lack of understanding on the effectiveness of various displays on consumer purchase behavior and how to optimally allocate these displays across the store.

Based on the Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) theory (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Mehrabian and Russell 1974), our proposed empirical approach involves addressing the following research questions: i) What is the impact of different types of displays, across different locations of the store, on category purchase and brand choice?, ii) Do price and discounts moderate the impact of displays on category purchase and brand choice? and iii) How can the retailer and category captain optimize the number of displays to maximize their revenues? We address the above research questions by accounting for heterogeneity among consumers and

endogeneity of various displays, prices, and discounts using a hierarchical Bayes random-effects specification.

We apply our model to a scanner panel data in the soft drinks category from a large U.S. grocery chain. A unique aspect of our data set is the availability of information on six different types of display locations in a store for a one-year period. The six different types of displays in the store include: store front, store rear, secondary location, front end cap, rear end cap, and shelf. When the product is located at a different place from its usual location, such as the display of soft drinks right next to the deli station, the display is coded as secondary location. Front end cap and rear end cap displays are located at either end of a category with the rear end cap being closer to the rear of the store. Displays in in-aisle, mid and side aisle, and in-shelf are treated as shelf displays. We have two pieces of information for each display type in our data: (i) whether a given display type was present in a certain week, and (ii) for each display type the total number of product facings during that week.

Our study provides a number of novel findings. First, we show that at each shopping trip, various displays have differential impacts on consumers' purchase incidence and brand choice behavior. Specifically, all displays have a significant positive impact with displays closer to the main location (aisle) of the focal category having a larger positive impact than displays farther away from the focal category. We find that front end cap displays have the largest and secondary displays have the smallest impact on consumer category purchase incidence. While, shelf displays have the largest impact on consumer brand choice decisions. Second, we demonstrate the synergistic role of price and discounts in enhancing the impact of displays on category purchase incidence and brand choice. The moderating role of price and price discounts is the strongest for the impact of front end cap and shelf displays on category purchase and brand

choice, respectively. Next, using elasticity calculations we demonstrate the relative impacts of each of the displays on purchase incidence and brand choice probabilities. The usefulness of our approach to retailers is further explored using an optimization exercise, wherein we propose the optimum number of product facings for displays that will help the retailer and category captain increase their revenues. We find that the strategy of the largest market share brand having the largest number of product facings in displays turns out to be detrimental in terms of the revenue to the retailer. In addition, contrary to the current practice, we find that a good strategy is to distribute the displays across all the locations of the store resulting in an average increase of 11.15% in retailer revenue. Finally, we also discuss optimal strategies for a category captain to increase their revenues through display allocation across the store.

This research contributes to retailing literature in significant ways. The differential impacts of the number of product facings at various in-store display locations are captured by the size and signs of main and interaction effects between displays and between displays and other marketing variables. Furthermore, we find some display locations are detrimental for brand choice, as they signal the product category displayed but the initiated purchase can lead to consumers buying other brands. Equipped with these findings, we provide new insights into the effectiveness of various display locations in a store to help retail managers make optimal display decisions in a product category to increase revenue. One critical issue retail managers grapple with is the effectiveness of each display type. Our results aim to provide managers with success metrics on historically displayed promotions that can aid in future decision making.

#### **Background literature**

In-store displays are marketing activities in which the product receives special placement at a retailer, in addition to or instead of its usual store location (Nielsen 2013). The main aim of

in-store displays is to attract shoppers' attention. The role of displays, in driving impulse buying and brand switching, becomes even more prominent in fast-moving consumer packaged goods wherein a significant amount of purchases is unplanned (Drèze, Hoch, and Purk 1995; Inman, Winer, and Ferraro 2009). A study conducted by Ogilvy Action found that almost 60% of the shoppers made their purchase decisions in the store, and 24% of these purchases were influenced by in-store displays (Neff 2008). Moreover, this study showed that displays had a significant impact even without providing a price discount. Given the substantial importance of in-store displays, however, research investigating the impact and effectiveness of various types of displays is rare (Bemmaor and Mouchoux 1991).

One important issue retailers grapple with is the effectiveness of different types of displays. Traditionally, store location is used as a way to characterize different types of displays (Tellis 1998). Therefore, in this study, we classify displays into six major types: store front, store rear, secondary location, front endcap, rear endcap, and shelf. As we discuss in the conceptual framework section, these various displays should influence consumers in different ways. Prior research, however, does not take different types of displays into consideration and combines them into one display variable (Allenby and Ginter 1995; Anderson and Simester 1998, 2001). In addition, research on choice models incorporates displays as dummy variables (Bemmaor and Mouchoux 1991; Lee, Kim, and Allenby 2013; Villas-Boas and Winer 1999) or treats them as control variables resulting in relatively less attention toward the effects (Bell, Corsten, and Knox 2011; Gupta 1988; Yang, Chen, and Allenby 2003). This is problematic because if various display locations have differential impacts on consumer purchase decisions, combining them into a dummy variable would provide an inaccurate and biased view of their effectiveness (Breugelmans and Campo 2011; Tellis 1998). Chandon et al. (2009) investigate the differential

impact of displays in an experimental setting, but the location is only on a shelf rather than the entire store. Similarly, Breugelmans and Campo (2011) compare the effects of multiple types of displays only in a virtual environment and not in a physical store (where a consumer's physical effort for shopping and the size and location exclusivity of displays matter). We empirically and comprehensively examine the role of a broad range of displays (i.e., store front, store rear, front endcap, rear endcap, shelf, and secondary location) in a physical retail store setting. In doing so, we aim to extend the retailing literature by investigating the impact of different types of displays on consumer purchase decisions using secondary data. Table 1 provides a summary of the relevant literature and highlights our contributions.

-- Insert Table 1 here --

#### **Conceptual Framework**

We first discuss the physical and theoretical differences across the different types of retail displays. Then we adopt the SOR theory (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Mehrabian and Russell 1974) to examine how various displays in different locations influence consumers' category purchase incidence and brand choices, and propose a number of hypotheses.

## **Characteristics of Different Displays**

The six in-store displays are classified based on their different locations in the store. We can broadly classify these displays based on their proximity to the main location (aisle) of the focal product category in the store: displays farther from the focal category (store front, store rear, and secondary) and displays closer to the focal category (front cap, rear cap, and shelf), consistent with prior research (e.g., Breugelmans and Campo 2011; Hui et al. 2013). We first discuss displays farther from the focal category. Storefront displays are placed in the front area of a store to attract consumers' attention and interest in the displayed product category or brand, or to induce impulse purchase. Compared to store front, store rear area is more focused on instore navigation from one aisle to another, so it is more likely to be packed with shoppers. In addition, in most cases, store rear is occupied with products on sale from multiple categories that could create a clutter. Thus, store rear displays might not be easily noticeable. Secondary displays are usually placed next to a related product category such as soft drinks displayed at a deli corner or checkout counter.

For displays closer to the focal category, when consumers navigate an aisle of products where shelf displays are located, they are likely to make a purchase as they can easily evaluate different attributes of multiple brands. Front and rear endcap displays are interesting locations as they can be considered as the starting or ending point of an aisle and the products displayed at these locations could potentially influence shoppers' brand purchase intentions.

To understand the similarities and differences across different displays, we summarize the various (physical, content, and theoretical) characteristics of the six store displays in Table 2. The six displays differ in terms of location, proximity to the focal category, size of displayed area, focus on a brand or category, and contents such as size of fixtures, shape, color, material, information content, and price promotion. Specifically, due to the different locations, store front displays typically have a large size with many product facings and detailed information on the products, and a focus on promoting the product category or brand purchase (potentially impulse purchases) with price promotion for a particular brand or a number of brands in the same category. As a result, the color of such displays matches that of the product category or brand, their shapes are usually in bins, cases or windows, and materials used tend to be cardboard, wood, metal or plastics. Store rear displays and secondary displays are located in the rear or other open areas in the store, respectively. They are large- or medium-sized with detailed

information on displayed products. Their focus tends to be either category or brand related with associated price discounts. As a result, the color, shape and material are varied. In contrast, front endcap and rear endcap displays are located at the front or rear end of a category aisle, respectively. Their spaces at the ends of an aisle are relatively constrained with limited product facings and the use of wood or metal materials, resulting in a medium-sized display with a medium level of information on displayed products. Endcap displays usually focus on promoting a particular brand in a category with a brand-specific price promotion. Hence, their colors usually match the color of the displayed brand. Lastly, shelf displays are usually large gondolas spanning several shelves with many product facings, and provide extensive information on the promoted brand or product in order to signal a deal or make the brand stand out among multiple competing brands in the shelf. As a result, it usually focuses on highlighting a specific brand with a brand-level price promotion. Its color matches the promoted brand. Shelf displays are typically large in size and made of metal, wood, cardboard or plastics.

#### -- Insert Table 2 here --

The differences in the physical characteristics of the six displays lead to interesting differences in the theoretical characteristics of these displays. Specifically, displays farther from the focal category like store front displays are usually aimed at increasing category or brand purchase with brand- or product category-oriented price discounts. Store rear and secondary displays focus on either category or brand purchases with category- or brand-oriented deals. While, displays closer to the focal category, endcap (both front and rear) and shelf displays tend to highlight brand purchases with price discounts focused on a specific brand. As a result, based on how a display is exclusively devoted to a brand, shelf displays have the highest exclusivity (the level of devotion or restriction to a particular brand), followed by endcap (front and rear)

displays, then secondary and store rear displays, and finally the storefront displays have the lowest exclusivity. Given the locational differences, storefront displays are ranked the highest in terms of accessibility (how accessible it is to consumers) and visibility (how visible to consumers) to consumers, followed by secondary and front endcap displays, then by store rear and rear endcap displays. Shelf displays have the lowest accessibility and visibility due to their locations in a shelf inside a category-specific aisle. Due to their informational content differences, the informativeness (the amount of information) of the displays also varies, with storefront, store rear and secondary displays with larger sizes tending to be highly informative, followed by endcap displays, and then by shelf displays.

#### **Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses**

We develop our conceptual framework, shown in Figure 1, by adopting the SOR theory and examining the impact of in-store displays on category purchase incidence and brand choices. SOR theory suggests that an environmental stimulus S influences consumers' internal cognitive or affective states O, which then affect their response behavior R (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). This theory has been widely used in marketing to study the influence of offline retail atmospheric cues on consumer responses (Mattila and Wirtz 2001; Parsons 2011) and the impact of online stores' atmospheric stimuli on consumer browsing and purchase behaviors (Ding, Li and Chatterjee 2015; Eroglu, Machleit and Davis 2001).

### -- Insert Figure 1 here --

We assert that retail environmental stimuli affect the consumers' cognitive states (attention and information processing), prompting approach and avoidance behaviors (e.g., Baker et al. 1992; Bitner 1992; Spangenberg, Crowley and Henderson 1996). Approach behaviors entail positive actions, such as intentions to stay or explore, directed toward a particular setting;

avoidance behaviors are the opposite (Sherman and Smith 1987). Specifically, via the effects of various displays on the unobserved customer cognitive states (Organism), we examine which displays (Stimulus) in a store are more effective at attracting consumers to make product category and brand purchases (Response). Given the large number of displays, we first discuss the impact of displays that are farther versus closer to the focal category. We subsequently hypothesize the impact of various displays within each of these two groups. Finally, we discuss the moderating role of product price and discount on the impact of displays on purchase incidence and brand choice.

As shown in Figure 1, for the stimulus, we focus on the six types of store displays, broadly classified into two groups based on their proximity to the main location of the focal category, in a retail store. We are interested in how various displays in different locations, acting as stimuli, influence customer category and brand purchase behavior. As discussed in previous research (East, Eftichiadou, and Williamson 2003; Larson, Bradlow, and Fader 2005, Breugelmans and Campo 2011), different areas in a store may trigger different mindsets or cognitive states for consumers. Thus, for the organism part of the theory, we consider customers' cognitive (attention and information processing) states because it has been shown to be an important mechanism for the impact of retail atmospheric cues on consumer attitudes and purchase behaviors in a store (Bitner 1992; Spangenberg, Crowley and Henderson 1996). In addition, impact of displays in mature consumer packaged goods categories, where consumers shop using mental or shopping lists, is more likely driven by cognitive and information processing<sup>2</sup> (attention to displays) rather than emotional or affective responses. Specifically, research has demonstrated how spacious appearances create better image and cognitive

l

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> We would like to thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing this out.

impressions and therefore increase cognitive satisfaction (Lam et al. 2011). Therefore, for the organism part in the conceptual framework, we focus on customers' cognitive (attention and information processing) states. Thus, in-store displays with their strategic placements, exclusivity, and creativities like layout and size play a critical role in grabbing consumer attention by highlighting various aspects that are important in information assimilation and processing external cues like prices and promotions. Finally, for the response component, we examine a two-stage model of consumer shopping process including category purchase incidence and brand choices. As a result, we allow various displays and other stimuli variables to have a differential impact on consumer category incidence and brand purchase.

*Proximity to the focal category*: The main role of in-store displays is to capture consumers' attention and induce category or brand purchases with or without other marketing activities such as price discounts. Previous research on promotions and in-store shopping behavior has demonstrated a positive effect of displays in brick-and-mortar and online stores (e.g., Breugelmans and Campo 2011) while also enhancing shoppers' approach behavior toward the product (Fiore, Yah, and Yoh 2000). Thus, we expect a positive influence of in-store displays on product category incidence across all locations. However, as shown in Table 2, different displays have differing levels of accessibility, visibility, informativeness, and proximity to the focal category, and hence we expect differences in its impact on category purchase incidence and brand choice. We believe that proximity of displays to the focal category should have a significant difference in terms of how consumers assimilate information in their cognitive states. This is because the placement of displays across different locations has been demonstrated to offer goal-oriented shoppers several advantages (Bezawada et al. 2009) like reduced information search complexity, reduced acquisition efforts, and cueing of underlying needs (Ratneshwar,

Pechmann, and Shocker 1996), resulting in greater information assimilation and cognitive processing, similar to information processing from external cues such as brand advertisements (MacInnis et al. 1991). Research on information processing (Chandy et al. 2001; MacInnis and Jaworski 1989) suggests the existence of multiple stages of information processing and the differential impact of each state on consumers' responses and attitudes toward advertisements and brands. Using consumer involvement theory (Greenwald and Leavitt 1984), consumers' information states for in-store displays can be broadly classified into two categories—attention and pre-attention (seeing but not paying attention to displays). The presence of different displays at various locations in a store would elicit different levels of attention that could in turn result in the differential impact of displays on purchase behavior.

Thus, displays closer to the focal product category (front cap, rear cap, and shelf) should have a larger impact, due to greater attention and processing in consumers' cognitive states, for shoppers interested in the focal category compared to displays farther away (storefront, store rear, and secondary location). Displays closer to the focal product category would provide shoppers more brand options as they can venture into the category aisle due to its proximity. However, for displays farther away from the focal category the number of options available would be limited, leading to lower attention in consumers' cognitive states, and hence lower responses or lower purchase incidence and brand choice probability. Furthermore, displays closer to the focal product category have much higher exclusivity than displays farther away from the focal product category leading to a higher probability of being noticed. Therefore, we have

*H1: Displays closer to the focal category have a greater positive impact on purchase incidence and brand choice than displays farther from the focal category.*

*Impact of Specific Displays on Category Purchase Incidence*: As shown in Table 2, among the displays closer to the focal category, front end cap has the highest accessibility, visibility and exclusivity, closely followed by shelf displays and finally by rear end cap displays. Furthermore, front end cap and shelf displays are larger in size than rear end cap, as they usually occupy an entire shelf at the entrance and within the category aisle, respectively, as opposed to rear end cap displays which are usually much smaller with fewer product facings and limited space allocated. In addition, the focus of the end caps (front and rear end cap) is different from shelf displays with the latter predominantly emphasizing a specific brand. Thus, end cap displays should have a greater impact on consumer attention in attracting and highlighting specific categories in a cluttered retail store, resulting in a greater positive effect on consumer category purchase decisions compared to shelf displays. This is especially true since shelf displays require consumers to be already in the focal category to be noticed. In addition, given the higher accessibility and exclusivity of front end cap compared to rear end cap, we, expect front end cap to have a larger impact on category purchase than rear end cap. The effects of front end caps on category incidence are followed by rear end cap, and shelf displays due to their decreasing visibility, informativeness and accessibility to consumers, and hence lower attention and information processing in consumers' cognitive states.

For displays farther from the focal category, storefront displays with the highest accessibility, visibility and informativeness are more likely to be aimed at increasing consumer category incidence compared to store rear and secondary displays. As a result of in-store stimuli to consumers, storefront displays may have a higher probability of attracting consumer attention and engagement potentially leading to higher probability of category purchase incidence (Baker 1986; Bitner 1992) compared to store rear and secondary displays. The effects of storefront

displays on category incidence are followed by secondary, and store rear displays due to their decreasing visibility, exclusivity and accessibility to consumers, and hence lower attention and information processing in consumers' cognitive states. Therefore, we have

*H2 (a): Front end caps have stronger positive impact on category purchase incidence followed by rear end cap and shelf displays.*

*H2 (b): Store front displays have stronger positive impact on category purchase incidence than store rear or secondary displays.*

*Impact of Specific Displays on Brand choice*: For consumer brand choices, however, we expect the impact of displays to be different than for category purchase incidence. For displays closer to the focal product category, shelf displays have the highest exclusivity to a particular brand, usually with brand-oriented price promotion, so we expect shelf displays as store stimuli to have the strongest positive impact on brand choice. Shelf displays attract customer attention to a branded product (Chandon et al. 2009), when the customers are already in the category, with an intention to purchase, resulting in higher attention in their cognitive states and an approach behavior with the largest probability of brand purchase. The larger impact of shelf display is followed by endcap (front and rear) due to their exclusivity and proximity to the focal category.

For displays farther from the focal category, secondary displays are aimed at focusing on specific brands and inducing impulse purchase of specific brands arising mainly due to information regarding favorable prices (Bell, Corsten, and Knox 2011). This is followed by storefront and store rear displays as they are mainly aimed towards the category with a low probability of focusing on specific brands. Storefront and store rear displays have decreasing exclusivity and brand focus, and hence declining attention levels of consumers with lower brand choice probabilities. Therefore, we have hypothesized

*H3 (a): Shelf displays have stronger positive impact on consumer brand choice compared to front or rear end cap displays.* 

*H3 (b): Secondary displays have stronger positive impact on consumer brand choice than store front or store rear displays.*

*Moderating role of price and promotion*: Since in-store displays usually include information on product price and/or promotion in order to encourage product category or brand purchase (Zhang 2006), it is important to disentangle these two effects (the display effect vs. price/price promotion effect). Therefore, in addition to controlling for the impact of price and price promotion, we further investigate how product price and price promotion moderate the influence of various in-store displays. Given the positive main effect of displays on category incidence and brand choice, a lower product price or a deeper price promotion in a display is more likely to attract consumer attention and increase their information processing, leading to a positive moderating impact of price or price promotion on consumer category incidence and brand choices (e.g., Bucklin and Lattin 1991; Papatla and Krishnamurthi 1996). Further, such a moderating effect of price and price promotion on category incidence will be the strongest for products in end cap displays due to their proximity to the focal category along with higher visibility, exclusivity and accessibility which contribute to grabbing consumers' attention in their cognitive states. Additionally, front end cap displays have greater accessibility and visibility compared to rear end cap. Thus, we expect the strongest positive moderating role of price and promotion on the impact of front end cap on category purchase incidence. In contrast, due to the very high exclusivity to a particular brand for shelf displays as in-store stimuli, compared to all other displays, we expect the strongest positive moderating role of price and price promotion on the impact of shelf displays on brand choice. Therefore, we hypothesize

*H4: Price and price promotion positively moderate the impact of displays, with the largest impact for front end caps, on product category incidence.*

*H5: Price and price promotion positively moderate the impact of displays, with the largest impact for shelf display, on brand choice.* 

### **Model Development**

### **The Purchase Incidence: Binary Nested Logit**

 $\overline{a}$ 

We assume a consumer's decisions of purchase incidence and brand choice are dependent through a nested logit structure. First, the probability  $P_{it}(inc)$  that household *i* purchases in a product category at shopping trip *t* is specified as:

$$
(1) \ \ P_{ii}(inc) = \frac{\exp(\beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}X_{1t} + \beta_{2i}X_{2it} + \beta_{3i}X_{3t} + \beta_{4i}IV_{it} + \xi_{t})}{1 + \exp(\beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}X_{1t} + \beta_{2i}X_{2it} + \beta_{3i}X_{3t} + \beta_{4i}IV_{it} + \xi_{t})}.
$$

The elements of  $X_t$  are the key marketing variables such as the number of product facings at different display locations<sup>3</sup>, price promotion, and price, and the two-way interactions between various displays and between displays and price promotion/price.  $X_{2it}$  consists of consumers' purchase behavior related variables such as recency, past purchase frequency, a dummy for the category purchase at the last shopping trip, and purchase quantity during the initialization period.  $X_{3t}$  is a vector of control variables such as seasonality of category purchase or specific events. The nested logit structure is incorporated by having the inclusive value,  $IV_{ii}$ , and is given by,

$$
(2) \tIV_{it} = \ln \sum_{j} \exp(V_{ijt})
$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Our data has information about various display locations (i.e. store front, store rear etc.) but not for other characteristics (like informativeness, accessibility or visibility). With access to appropriate data these additional characteristics can be easily incorporated in our model and we leave this as an avenue for future research.

where  $V_{ij}$  is the deterministic utility of the brand choice probability (Ben-Akiva and Lerman 1985). Lastly,  $\xi$  is an unobserved demand shock that leads to potential endogeneity of displays, price, and price discounts.

## **The Brand Choice: Binary Logit**

The brand choice probability,  $P_{ii}(j | inc)$  that household *i* purchases a brand *j* at shopping trip *t* given a decision to purchase in the product category, is expressed by a binary logit model as described below.

$$
(3) \ \ P_{ii}(j | \text{inc}) = \frac{\exp(\gamma_{0ij} + \gamma_{1i}W_{1jt} + \gamma_{2i}W_{2jt} + \gamma_{3i}W_{3t} + \xi_{jt})}{1 + \exp(\gamma_{0ij} + \gamma_{1i}W_{1jt} + \gamma_{2i}W_{2jt} + \gamma_{3i}W_{3t} + \xi_{jt})}
$$

 $W_{1it}$  consists of marketing activities such as the number of product facings in different displays, price promotion, and price, and the two-way interactions of the marketing variables. Elements of  $W_{2ji}$  include a dummy for brand loyalty and variables capturing competition from multiple brands that could be displayed at the same or different locations during a given shopping trip. The last vector,  $W_{3t}$ , is for control variables similar to the purchase incidence model.  $\xi_{jt}$  is an unobserved demand shock related to the endogeneity specification that is discussed later.

### **Individual Heterogeneity**

We incorporate individual heterogeneity in parameters in both purchase incidence and brand choice models. The vector of individual parameters  $\theta_i$  is specified as:

(4) 
$$
\theta_i = {\beta_{0i}, \beta_{1i}, \beta_{2i}, \beta_{3i}, \beta_{4i}, \gamma_{0ij}, \gamma_{1i}, \gamma_{2i}, \gamma_{3i}}
$$

Heterogeneity across individuals is captured by a hierarchical Bayes random-effects model (Allenby and Ginter 1995), given by,

(5)  $\theta_i = \Delta Z_i + \zeta_i$ 

where  $Z_i$  is the vector of demographic covariates (age, income, and household size) that account for observed heterogeneity and  $\zeta_i$  is the unobserved heterogeneity among individuals and is assumed to be multivariate normal  $(0, \Sigma_{\zeta})$ .

### **Endogeneity of Marketing Variables**

Displays and other marketing activities, such as prices and discounts, may be determined by factors (e.g., competition from other stores) unobserved by researchers but observed by retailers, and may be correlated with the demand shock in the purchase incidence utility ( $\xi$  in Equation 1) and the brand choice utility ( $\xi$ <sup>*j*t</sup> in Equation 3). As a result, retailers may set prices, discounts and determine display locations endogenously. Therefore, we assume that the number of product facings in displays, the mean price and discount in a focal product category are endogenous and use an instrumental variable specification to account for it (e.g., Villas-Boas and Winer 1999). Since marketing variables like price are not customized at the individual consumer level and its endogeneity is likely caused by unobserved competitive and environmental factors, its lagged term has been shown to be a good instrument in retail settings to account for their potential endogeneity (Villas-Boas and Winer 1999; Yang et al. 2003).

Specifically, for the instruments for the number of product facings in displays, we use the lag of the number of product facings in displays in a given product category at each location at time *t-1*. The number of displays from the previous period might influence the number of displays in the current period due to inertia of making drastic changes in a store from week to week. However, the number of product facings in displays from the previous period, is less likely to directly influence the consumer's purchase utility in the current period. Similarly, we use average sticker price per ounce and average discount per ounce in the previous period as the

instruments for price and discount in the current period. We specify display, average price per ounce and discount at time *t* as follows:

(6) 
$$
DISP_{djt} = \eta_{0dj} + \eta_{1dj} DISP_{dj,t-1} + \kappa_{djt}
$$
  
(7) 
$$
DISC_{jt} = \lambda_{0j} + \lambda_{1j} DISC_{j,t-1} + \mu_{jt}
$$
  
(8) 
$$
PRICE_{jt} = v_{0j} + v_{1j} PRICE_{j,t-1} + \pi_{jt}
$$

where the coefficients  $\eta_{0,jd}$  and  $\eta_{1jd}$  are display-specific<sup>4</sup>. The error terms of display ( $\kappa_{di}$ ,  $d=1$ , ..., D, where D is the number of different types of display and  $j = 1, ..., J$ ), price discount ( $\mu_{it}$ , *j*  $= 1, ..., J$ ), and price ( $\pi_{it}$ ,  $j = 1, ..., J$ ) equations indicate possible shocks from the supply side and the vector of common demand shocks of purchase incidence ( $\xi$  in Equation 1) and brand choice probability ( $\xi$ <sup>*i*</sup> in Equation 3) models. The error terms follow a multivariate normal distribution with mean zero and the variance-covariance matrix Σ. The off-diagonal terms of the variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  associated with purchase incidence and brand choice models indicate the interdependence structure across purchase incidence and brand choice and the multivariate nature of brand choice probabilities.

The proposed model is estimated with Bayesian MCMC method and the estimation algorithm is provided in Web Appendix A. Model comparison and robustness checks, and estimation results for endogeneity are presented in Web Appendices B and C, respectively.

#### **Data Description and Model Free Evidence**

The scanner panel data for our empirical approach comes from a large U.S. grocery chain. The data contain transaction history of membership card holders for 42 weeks ( $t = 1, ...,$ 42), from August 2012 to August 2013. We use the first six weeks of data to initialize some of

l

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> In order to avoid duplication, we used DISP in Equation 6 instead of the specific names of multiple displays.

the variables like recency, frequency and monetary value. Household-specific information for each transaction includes purchase quantity, brands purchased, and marketing activities such as price, price discount, feature advertisements, and displays. The six different types of displays in the store include: store front, store rear, secondary location, front end cap, rear end cap, and shelf. For each display type in our data, we have information about its presence in a certain week and the total number of product facings for the display type during that week.

We chose the soft drink category because it has a large number of different types of displays. Furthermore, there were only four large brands: Coke, Pepsi, Dr. Pepper, and private brand that accounted for 98.5% of the total transactions (26,243) in a given store and 99.9% of the total number of displays for soft drinks in the store. The market share of each brand among the four is respectively 33.8% (Coke), 30.6% (Pepsi), 17.8% (Dr. Pepper), and 17.8% (Private brand). We used 500 randomly selected households for parameter estimation and 200 different households as the holdout sample<sup>5</sup>. Tables 3 and 4 provide the variable specification and summary statistics for the variables in our data set, respectively.

### --- Insert Tables 3 and 4 here ---

To show the potential differential impact of different displays on purchase behavior, we plot the numbers of weekly category purchases and the six types of displays over time in Figure 2. Figure 2A provides the number of weekly purchases while Figures 2B and 2C provide information on the number of product facings across the six displays - store front, store rear, secondary location, front cap displays, rear cap, and shelf. According to these figures, different displays exhibit very different dynamic patterns over time. There is a great deal of temporal variation in the number of weekly purchases of soft drinks that is largely correlated with the

 $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> In addition to the cross sectional holdout sample, we also did within-household split and hold out for the last five weeks for each household. We obtained similar model comparison results.

dynamics of storefront, front endcap, secondary location and shelf displays. Further, we divide the one-year data into four quarters and compute the correlations between the number of category purchases and the numbers of product facings in the six different types of displays. Table 5 shows the results. It is clear that the correlations between various displays and category purchases are very different with front endcap and store front displays for soft drinks having the highest overall correlations. Therefore, it is important to examine the differential impact of different displays on shoppers' transactions. In addition, this evidence does highlight the need for an empirical model that captures multiple components such as cross-sectional consumer heterogeneity, impacts of other covariates and brand-level effects of displays.

--- Insert Table 5 and Figure 2 here ---

#### **Variable Description**

The utility in the purchase incidence model (Equation 1) is dependent on a vector of marketing activities  $(X_{1t})$ , consumers' purchase behavior  $(X_{2it})$ , and control variables  $(X_{3t})$ . The vector  $X_{1t}$  includes the total number of facings of soft drink products displayed in the store front  $(STFR<sub>t</sub>$ ,), store rear  $(STRR<sub>t</sub>)$ , secondary locations  $(SCDR<sub>t</sub>)$ , front endcap  $(FCAP<sub>t</sub>)$ , rear endcap  $(RCAP<sub>t</sub>)$ , and shelf  $(SHELF<sub>t</sub>)$ . Other marketing variables like average price discount  $(DISC<sub>t</sub>)$  and sticker price per ounce  $(PRICE_t)$  and two-way interactions between marketing activity variables are also a part of  $X_1$ .

For consumers' purchase behavior-related variables in  $X_{2t}$ , we measure recency (Cat\_RECi), frequency (Cat\_FREQi), and monetary value (Cat\_MNTRi) for consumer *i* in the given product category. It also includes the number of feature advertisements ( $NFEAT_{t-1}$ ), a dummy (LPit) that equals 1 if the category is purchased in the last shopping trip of household *i* to capture state dependence, and a mean-centered purchase quantity  $(LQ_{it})$  from all past purchases for a given household (Zhang and Krishnamurthi 2004).

The vector  $X_{3t}$  consists of a possible competition in displays and two control variables. Since multiple product categories are likely to be displayed at the same location such as store front, the possible cross-category competition is captured by three variables: the number of product facings in secondary displays (SCDROT<sub>t</sub>), store front displays (STFROT<sub>t</sub>), and store rear displays (STFROT<sub>t</sub>) of other product categories. Next,  $X_{3t}$  includes an event dummy (EVENT) that equals 1 if the transaction occurs in the week of the Super Bowl, NCAA tournament games, and Independence Day to control for seasonality in sales of soft drinks. The last variable in  $X_{3t}$  is a first-week dummy (FWEEK) that equals 1 if the transaction occurs in the first week of February and June, to control for missing transactions in January and May.

Similarly, the vector of the key marketing activity variables in the brand choice probability ( $W_{1}$ <sub>it</sub> in equation 6) includes: six variables for the number of facings of soft drink products for various displays (STFR<sub>it</sub>, STRR<sub>it</sub>, SCDR<sub>it</sub>, FCAP<sub>it</sub>, RCAP<sub>it</sub>, SHELF<sub>it</sub>), the sticker price (PRICE<sub>jt</sub>) and price discount (DISC<sub>jt</sub>) per ounce of brand *j*. The first variable in  $W_{2jt}$  is a dummy for the last brand purchased accounting for a consumer's brand loyalty  $(LB_{ijt})$ . Next, to account for possible competition across brands for a limited space, the number of competitors of brand *j* that have displays in the same location (COMPS<sub>it</sub>) and different locations (COMPD<sub>it</sub>) from brand *j* are included in  $W_{2jt}$ . Lastly, EVENT and FWEEK dummy are the elements of  $W_{3t}$ included as control variables.

For the covariates in vector *Z<sub>i</sub>* (Equation 5), which models individual heterogeneity, we use income level, age, and number of household members for consumer *i*. As discussed

previously, we use the lagged number for the six displays, price discount, and price as instruments to account for endogeneity in Equations 6-8.

# **Estimation Results**

## *Parameter Estimates for Purchase Incidence*

Table 6 provides the estimation results for the purchase incidence model. First, for the main effect of various displays, we find full support for H1, H2(a), and H2(b). Specifically, end cap displays show the strongest influence on purchase incidence (0.434 for front end cap; 0.353 for rear end cap), followed by shelf displays (0.346) and store front displays (0.179). Secondary displays and store rear displays do not affect purchase incidence significantly. The stronger effect size of displays closer to the focal category (end cap and shelf displays) than displays farther from the focal category (store front, store rear, and secondary) is consistent with H1. Among displays closer to the focal category, front end cap displays have a stronger effect than rear end cap and shelf displays, as hypothesized in H2(a). Also, H2(b) is confirmed due to the positive effect of store front displays and insignificant effects of store rear and secondary displays. Along with displays, other marketing variables, price promotion (0.59) and price (- 0.293), significantly influence purchase incidence.

The interactions between price and display locations and between price promotion and display locations support H4. When price and price discounts are offered, the positive effects of in-store displays are enhanced and the magnitude of the effects is different across display locations. Furthermore, the moderating effect of price and price discounts turn out to be the strongest for front end cap displays (interaction effects with price and price discount are 0.527 and 0.65, respectively), followed by rear end cap displays (price: 0.516; price discount: 0.547),

shelf displays (price: 0.414; price discount: 0.503) and store front displays (price: 0.123; price discount: 0.271).

We also find significant interactions between various displays, which could guide the most effective way of displaying merchandise at multiple locations. Among the 15 two-way interactions, end cap displays enhance the effect of other display locations (0.24~1.841). When merchandise is displayed at front end cap and shelf locations (1.841) and rear end cap and shelf locations (1.574), the effects turn out to be the strongest, followed by front end cap and rear end cap displays (1.179) and store front and front end cap displays (0.918). As consumers navigate near the focal category, front end cap displays can increase the visibility and accessibility of the category and the effect becomes more pronounced when the category is also displayed at another highly visible and a must-visit location, the store front. This is also true when shoppers step inside a highly exclusive location, the shelf, with an increased willingness to buy.

Consumers' previous purchase behavior, recency (-0.379), frequency (-0.46), monetary value spent on the product category (-0.225), and the purchase quantity during the previous shopping trip (0.281) show significant influence as well as positive loyalty toward the product category (0.295) as expected. Finally, we find significant competition across product categories, in that the number of other categories displayed at non-exclusive locations like storefront (- 0.313) and store rear (-0.412) have negative impact on purchase incidence of the focal category.

## -- Insert Table 6 here --

#### *Parameter Estimates for Brand Choice*

Table 7 shows the parameters for the brand choice model. Out of the six displays, the three strongest effects on brand choice probability come from shelf displays (1.195), front end cap (0.811), and rear end cap (0.775). The magnitude and order of the effects confirm H1 and

H3(a). However, H3(b) is not supported as storefront displays turn out to have a stronger effect (0.434) than store rear displays (-0.195) and the effect from secondary displays is not significant. The former may be due to the occasional brand-oriented promotions and focus on storefront displays used by the retailer. Overall, frequently visited and visible area inside the store and the most exclusive area for the product category strongly influence consumers' brand choice, whereas areas that are accessible but also used for other purposes (e.g., grabbing a cart and sanitizing hands) are less effective. The insignificant effect of secondary displays could be because the location is often hard to be associated with the focal category and due to the relatively small size of such displays than storefront. Moreover, store rear displays have a negative effect on the brand choice, showing that the low exclusivity and the relatively low accessibility of the location hurts the displayed brand.

Similar to the purchase incidence, the effect of product displays become stronger when combined with price or price discount. The moderation effect is positive and is the largest for shelf displays (interactions with price: 0.974; price discount: 0.563), followed by end cap displays (interactions with price: 0.962 for front end cap and 0.703 for rear end cap; price discount: 0.46 for front end cap and 0.451 for rear end cap). The result strongly supports H5. In addition, the positive moderation effect is also observed for displays farther from the focal category, where storefront displays are influenced more (interactions with price: 0.276; price discount: 0.269) than secondary displays (interactions with price: 0.178; price discount: 0.227) and store rear (interactions with price: 0.125; price discount: n.s.).

The two-way interactions between displays at different locations show the possible effective ways of merchandising a product category across various areas in the store. When multiple locations of displays involve displays closer to the focal category, the impact is positive

on the brand choice in most cases (0.199~1.001). The highest effect is observed when end caps and shelf displays are combined  $(0.701 \sim 1.001)$ . The convenience and accessibility of end caps and exclusivity of shelf displays possibly leads to the synergistic effects.

Lastly, we also find a positive effect of brand-specific loyalty (0.333), and a negative impact of competition across brands that are displayed at the same location (-0.363), and a significant effect of big sports events and holidays (0.555).

-- Insert Table 7 here --

#### **Investigating Display Effectiveness and Optimal Allocation**

We conduct two simulations that can aid retail managers and deepen our understanding of display effectiveness across locations and brands. First, we calculate the impact of 1% increase in price, discounts, and the number of product facings in each display across locations (i.e., elasticity) on purchase incidence of the category and brand choice probabilities for the four brands. This helps us investigate the effectiveness of each marketing activity for each brand. Second, given the geographic constraints in a retail store, we propose and find the optimal number of product facings in displays that can be allocated for each display type while maximizing retailer or category captain's revenues.

### **Elasticities of Marketing Variables**

We compute own and cross elasticities of price, discounts, and displays across six locations for purchase incidence and for brand choice. The elasticity  $e^s$  for purchase incidence and the elasticity  $e_j^s$  for brand *j*, are obtained as:

(9) 
$$
e^s = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^{*MKT} (inc) - \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^{MKT} (inc)
$$
  
\n $e_j^s = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^{*MKT_k} (j | inc) - \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^{MKT_k} (j | inc)$ 

where  $P_i^{MKT}$  (inc) = purchase incidence probability.

 $P_i^{*MKT}$  (inc) = purchase incidence probability for a 1% increase in a marketing variable for brand  $k, k = \{1, \ldots, J\}$ , and if  $k = j$ , we obtain own elasticity, otherwise we have cross elasticity.  $P_i^{MKT_k}$  (*j* | *inc*) =Brand choice probability for brand *j*.

 $P_i^{*<sub>MKT<sub>k</sub></sub>}$  *( j | inc*) =Brand choice probability for a 1% increase in a marketing variable for brand *k*.

Table 8 provides calculated own and cross elasticities and the second to fifth columns represent the brands whose price, discount, and the number of product facings in the displays were increased by 1%. First, we find that a 1% change of one brand's marketing activity influences consumers' purchase incidence probability but the influence is different across activities. Among different display locations, increasing the number of product facings in end cap displays enhances purchase incidence the most (front end cap: from 0.019 to 0.348 across brands, 0.207 on average; rear end cap: from 0.056 to 0.371 across brands, 0.206 on average), followed by shelf (from 0.041 to 0.296, 0.165 on average), while increasing product facings in store rear displays has the smallest impact (from 0.005 to 0.016, 0.010 on average). Offering a higher discount also elevates purchase incidence (from 0.050 to 0.273, 0.167 on average). Overall, the result is consistent with the size of posterior estimates in Table 5 in that end caps and shelf displays and discount show the largest effect sizes. In addition, purchase incidence elasticities in Table 8 is discrepant across brands. Specifically, Coke's change of marketing activities influences purchase incidence the most, whereas the other two manufacturer brands, Pepsi and Dr. Pepper, show lower effects than the private brand for some display locations like endcaps and shelf, indicating that smaller brands can increase the purchase incidence when displayed at highly accessible locations.

Next, Table 8 provide brand choice elasticities upon changing marketing activities. Across all brands and marketing activities, own elasticities that are italicized are much larger than cross elasticities, showing that each brand is the main recipient of its own enhanced marketing effect. The magnitude of own brand elasticities is consistent with posterior estimates in Table 7, especially displays, in that front and rear end cap and shelf displays have stronger own elasticities than store front, store rear, and secondary displays. When looking across brands, brands with larger market shares get higher positive elasticities and lower negative elasticities, whereas the pattern is opposite (i.e., lower positive and higher negative elasticities) for the private brand. For instance, Coke has the highest brand choice elasticity due to shelf displays (1.306) and price (-2.781), while the private brand has the lowest, 0.810 for shelf and -3.515 for price, respectively. Cross elasticities also demonstrate discrepancies across brands. The private brand is the most vulnerable for manufacturer brands' increased marketing activities. For example, when Coke increases the number of product facings in front end cap display (shelf display) by 1%, the effect on private brand's choice probability is -0.432 (-0.385), whereas that on Pepsi and Dr. Pepper is -0.206 (-0.210) and -0.151 (-0.159), respectively. Conversely, Coke is affected mostly by an increase of Pepsi's display (from -0.189 to 0.004, -0.111 on average) and has the least impact based on the private brand (from -0.102 to 0.002, -0.053 on average) displays.

In addition, the magnitude of cross brand elasticities is different across display locations. Increasing the number of product facings in one brand's shelf display results in the largest negative cross brand elasticities (-0.207 on average). The location of shelf displays is in the main aisle of a product category where all brands exist, so increasing one brand's number of product facings in displays is likely to harm other brands by depriving shelf space and catching shoppers'

attention. On the contrary, store rear is where cross brand elasticities seem the least effective (0 on average). It is likely that the location is mostly used as a hallway for in-store shoppers and occupied with other multiple categories, which may hurt the accessibility and visibility of items displayed. Also, the small size of cross brand elasticities of secondary displays (-0.02 on average) is consistent with the insignificant parameter estimates of secondary displays on brand choice probability in Table 7.

To sum up, the results from the elasticity calculation demonstrate that consumers' sensitivities to in-store marketing activities are different across various types of marketing activities (i.e., displays, discount and price), locations of displays, and market share of brands. Furthermore, retailers should account for differences in cross elasticities when dealing with multi-brand in-store promotions.

-- Insert Table 8 here --

### **Optimal Allocation of Displays**

In addition to describing consumers' sensitivities through elasticities, we conduct simulations to optimally allocate the displays across brands from both the retailer's and category captain's perspectives for demonstrating enhanced revenues. The detailed optimization procedure is discussed in Web Appendix D.

#### *Retailer's revenue maximization*

Tables 9 shows the results of our optimization approach for randomly chosen four weeks. Consistent with the previous sections, the numbers in the table refer to the number of product facings available at each display location. We find that for each display at the brand level, the optimized numbers are quite different from the observed numbers. The proposed

solution yields higher retailer revenue than observed revenue for all weeks. For each week, revenue increases between 9.61% to 13.37%, resulting in an increase of 11.15% on average.

Results demonstrate that if the goal is to maximize the retailer's revenue, then one possible option is to decrease the number of product facings in specific displays for manufacturer brands and promote displays of its own brand. In particular, the sum of product facings in proposed displays of the private brand across the four weeks is 4,642 while the sum of those in the current observed displays is 748. Our proposed approach goes further in describing the brands that should reduce their number of displays. We find that the largest part of the private brand's increase comes from a decrease in large manufacturer brands' displays. Coke has the largest amount of decrease among the three manufacturer's brands for the two weeks -2,437 (the total number of product facings in proposed displays: 2,521; the total number in observed displays: 4,958), following by Pepsi: -935 (the total number in proposed displays: 1,684; the total number in observed displays: 2,619). Dr. Pepper shows the smallest difference: -522 (the total number in proposed displays: 1,350; the total number in observed displays: 1,872). Hence, the strategy of the largest market share brand having the largest number of displays turns out to be detrimental in terms of the revenue to the retailer.

Furthermore, we find that contrary to the observed numbers it is a good strategy to distribute the displays across all locations of the store. Specifically, based on observed data, the only brand that is displayed at store front was Coke in week 3 and Pepsi in week 23 and 30, respectively. The private brand is only displayed in front cap in week 3, 23, and 30 and not displayed at all in rear cap and secondary display location across all weeks. However, our proposed solution suggests all brands having a certain number of displays at every location to enhance shopper exposure. In addition, the number of proposed displays of the private brand is

comparable with that of Coke at less exclusive and more visible locations, such as storefront and end caps in most weeks. However, when the location is exclusive for the category (i.e., shelf), the proposed solution shows a much higher number for the private brand than other manufacturer brands. Such a difference confirms the discrepant effect of display locations on purchase incidence and brand choice, in that retailers can attract consumers' purchase of the category through manufacturer brands displayed at more visible and frequently visited locations and induce consumers to purchase the private brand with increased displays at shelf. To sum up, retailers can have higher revenue by increasing the displays of the private brand, allowing all brands to be displayed at every location instead of letting one brand dominate a specific type of display, and selectively using locations for boosting purchase incidence and brand choice, if they have full authority of displaying merchandise. However, we caution that our optimization simulation does not incorporate slotting fees from manufacturer brands due to data unavailability, which could be an interesting future research direction.

# -- Insert Table 9 here--

#### *Category captain's revenue maximization*

Some retailers let a large supplier or manufacturer manage the product category to overcome their lack of resources to intensively manage all product categories (Gooner, Morgan, and Perrault Jr 2011) and also allocate different displays to different brands as part of the category management task. To investigate the allocation of displays under this "category captain" concept, we change the objective function for our optimization routine. We use the brand with the largest market share, Coke, as the category captain and maximize its revenue.

Table 10 summarizes the result of our optimization approach to maximizing Coke's revenue for four weeks. The revenue from the proposed solution is higher than the observed

revenue across all weeks, in that it increases by 7.34% to 13.41% (10.29% on average). Furthermore, we find that the retailer's revenue also increases by 4.08% to 7.53% (6.03% on average) and this indicates that letting Coke manage the category contributes to improvement in retailer revenue as well. The results for the reallocation of the displays demonstrate that one possible strategy to maximize Coke's revenue is not simply focusing on increasing the total number of product facings in its own displays. The optimal number of product facings in Coke's displays is 5,347 that is 7.8% increase from the observed number (4,958). This incremental number is much smaller than the solution for maximizing retailer revenue, as discussed in the previous section, proposing that the retailer should increase the display of its own brand by about six times (from 748 to 4,642). In terms of location, the optimal displays for Coke should be allocated across all locations. This is different from current observed displays for Coke as it is not displayed in store front in week 18, front cap in all weeks, and rear cap in week 18. The display re-allocation strategy based on maximizing category captain's revenue also differs from the strategy of maximizing retailer's revenue because the proposed solution does not display other brands at some alternate locations (e.g., no displays for the private brand in store front in week 23 and no displays for Pepsi in rear cap in week 30). Therefore, we find that for a large brand like Coke, increasing the total number of product facings in its own displays is less important. Instead, having Coke displayed in all locations can be a more important criterion for maximizing its revenue.

Another possible option for Coke to maximize revenue is to reduce displays for national brands and increase displays for the private brand. Based on our optimization, the private brand is the one that demonstrates an increase in the number of product facings in displays from 748 (observed) to 2,429 (proposed) whereas the sum of product facings in displays of all national

brands decreases from 9,449 (observed) to 7,768 (proposed). This pattern is similar to that of the solution for maximizing retailer revenue in Table 8, but the amount of change is much smaller than in Table 9, in that the sum of optimal displays of the private brand is 4,642 in Table 9 and 2,429 in Table 10. Promoting displays of the private brand seems to contribute to the improvement of Coke's revenue up to a certain point beyond which it aids the retailer more than Coke. Based on our optimization approach, we find implications for both retailers and the largest brand in the soft drink category. Even though our optimal solution is a conservative estimate as it is based on a limited local optimum due to lack of information on managers' judgments, we still find that the proposed increase in revenue is not negligible, as the proposed solution does not increase the total number of product facings in displays across brands.

### -- Insert Table 10 here--

#### **Discussion, Conclusion and Future Research**

In this research, we investigate a very fundamental issue pertinent to retailers, i.e., capturing the impact of various types of in-store displays. Specifically, we extend past research by investigating the impact of six different types of in-store displays at different locations within the store (e.g., store front, in-aisle, secondary locations). We demonstrate that by accounting for the differential impact across different brands and optimizing various displays across multiple locations and brands in a store, retailers or category captains can indeed increase their revenues.

We make important contributions on multiple fronts. Theoretically, we use the SOR theory with an emphasis on the cognitive processing (attention and information processing) as an overarching framework to discuss the role of different types of in-store displays. We distinguish the differential impact of displays that are closer (front end cap, rear end cap, and shelf) and farther away (storefront, store rear, and secondary displays) from the focal category on purchase

incidence and brand choice. We also delve deeper into specific displays across our broader classification, and demonstrate that front end cap displays are the most effective in driving category purchase incidence, while shelf displays are the most effective in driving brand choice. Similarly, for displays farther from the focal category, we find that storefront displays are the most effective in driving category purchase incidence. These insights about the impact of different types of displays would be invaluable for retailers.

Substantively, we capture the differential impacts of in-store displays. In particular, all the displays have a highly significant impact as they are different in terms of elevating consumers' purchase intention across locations. Not only the main effects but also interactions between displays and between displays and price and discounts are different. Furthermore, we find some displays to be detrimental to brand choice as they are successful in capturing shopper attention towards the product category but lead to the choice of non-displayed brands. In addition, we demonstrate a display allocation optimization that results in a revenue increase of up to 13.37% to the retailer while the proposed approach does not require any increase in the total number of product facings in displays or additional space. The increase is confirmed across multiple weeks and multiple entities in charge of managing displays.

Retail managers face a number of great challenges including the difficulty of attracting consumers' attention and interests to the displayed products and examining the effectiveness of different types of displays to improve shopper experience and maximize overall revenues or profits. Our results aim to provide managers with success metrics on historically displayed discounts that can aid their future decision making. Currently, our proposed methodology and findings assume that customers always see the displays. However, a possible avenue for future research would be to extend our approach to a new type of dataset that track consumers and

measures the actual amount/duration of attention on various displays. Another interesting future research direction is to examine the different theoretical characteristics (e.g., visibility, exclusivity, informativeness) of various displays and the role of cognitive states of customers in understanding the impact of displays on purchases by using lab or field experiments.

In addition, our proposed optimization technique adheres to a more conservative approach and we believe that alternative approaches that relax some of our assumptions could lead to a further increase in retailer revenues. Our investigation of displays is specific to one large retailer and one category within the retailer. Future research can look into the crosscategory impact of displays and impacts across different stores and layouts, as well as the joint negotiation process between retailers and manufacturers. In addition, current research does not include information about retailer's slotting fees for different brands. Future research should extend our optimization findings by incorporating slotting allowances which we currently assume to be the same across different brands. Moreover, the optimization results of store front and store rear could have both category and brand oriented effects<sup>6</sup>. Finally, information about competing stores would be an interesting addition for future research to pursue as this could broaden the scope of investigating the role of in-store displays further.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Allenby, Greg M. and James L. Ginter (1995), "Using Extremes to Design Products and Segment Markets," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 32 (4), 392–403.
- Anderson, Eric T. and Duncan I. Simester (1998), "The Role of Sale Signs," *Marketing Science*, 17 (2), 139–55.
- ---------- (2001), "Are Sale Signs Less Effective When More Products Have Them?" *Marketing science*, 20(2), 121-142.
- Baker, Julie, Dhruv Grewal and Michael Levy (1992), "An Experimental Approach to Making Retail Store Environmental Decisions," *Journal of Retailing*, 68 (4), 445-60.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> We would like to thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing this out.

- Bell, David R., Daniel Corsten, and George Knox (2011), "From Point of Purchase to Path to Purchase: How Preshopping Factors Drive Unplanned Buying," *Journal of Marketing*, 75 (1), 31-45.
- Bemmaor, Albert C. and Dominique Mouchoux (1991), "Measuring the Short-Term Effect of In-Store Promotion and Retail Advertising on Brand Sales: A Factorial Experiment," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28 (2), 202-214.
- Ben-Akiva, Moshe E. and Steve R. Lerman (1985), "Discrete Analysis: Theory and Application to Travel Demand," Cambridge, MA.
- Bezawada, Ram, Subramanian Balachander, Pallassana K. Kannan, and Venkatesh Shankar (2009), "Cross-Category Effects of Aisle and Display Placements: A Spatial Modeling Approach and Insights," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (3), 99-117.
- Bitner, M.J. (1992), "Servicescapes: The Impact of Physical Surroundings on Customers and Employees," *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (2), 57–71.
- Breugelmans, Els and Katia Campo (2011), "Effectiveness of In-Store Displays in a Virtual Store Environment," *Journal of Retailing*, 87 (1), 75-89.
- Bucklin, Randolph E., and James M. Lattin (1991), "A Two-State Model of Purchase Incidence and Brand Choice," *Marketing Science*, 10 (1), 24-39.
- Chandon, Pierre, J. Wesley Hutchinson, Eric T. Bradlow, and Scott Young (2009), "Does In-Store Marketing Work? Effects of the Number and Position of Shelf Facings on Brand Attention and Evaluation at the Point of Purchase," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (6), 1-17.
- Chandy, Rajesh K., Gerard J. Tellis, Deborah J. MacInnis, and Pattana Thaivanich (2001), "What to Say when: Advertising appeals in evolving markets," *Journal of marketing Research*, 38 (4), 399-414.
- Dhar, Sanjay K., Stephen J. Hoch, and Nanda Kumar (2001), "Effective Category Management Depends on the Role of the Category," *Journal of Retailing*, 77 (2), 165-84.
- Ding, Amy Wenxuan, Shibo Li, and Patrali Chatterjee (2015), "Learning User Real-Time Intent for Optimal Dynamic Web Page Transformation," *Information Systems Research*, 26 (2), 339-359.
- Donovan, Robert J., and John R. Rossiter (1982), "Store Atmosphere: An Environmental Psychology Approach," *Journal of Retailing*, 58 (1), 34-57.
- Drèze, Xavier, Stephen J. Hoch, and Mary E. Purk (1995), "Shelf Management and Space Elasticity," *Journal of Retailing*, 70 (4), 301-326.
- East, Robert, Vicki Eftichiadou, and Michael Williamson (2003), "Research note: Point-ofpurchase display and brand sales," *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 13 (1), 77-98.
- Eroglu, Sevgin A., Karen A. Machleit, and Lenita M. Davis (2001), "Atmospheric Qualities of Online Retailing: A Conceptual Model and Implications," *Journal of Business Research*, 54 (2), 177–184.
- Fiore, Ann Marie, Xinlu Yah, and Eunah Yoh (2000), "Effects of A Product Display and Environmental Fragrancing on Approach Responses and Pleasurable Experiences," *Psychology & Marketing*, 17 (1), 27-54.
- Gooner, Richard A., Neil A. Morgan, and William D. Perreault Jr (2011), "Is Retail Category Management Worth the Effort (and Does a Category Captain Help or Hinder)?" *Journal of Marketing*, 75 (5), 18-33.
- Greenwald, Anthony G., and Clark Leavitt (1984), "Audience Involvement in Advertising: Four Levels," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11 (1), 581-592.
- Gupta, Sunil (1988), "Impact of Sales Promotions on When, What, and How Much to Buy," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25 (4), 342-55.
- Hui, Sam K., Yanliu Huang, Jacob Suher, and J. Jeffrey Inman (2013), "Deconstructing the "First Moment of Truth": Understanding Unplanned Consideration and Purchase Conversion Using In-Store Video Tracking," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 50 (4), 445-462.
- Inman, J. Jeffrey, Russell S. Winer, and Rosellina Ferraro (2009), "The Interplay Among Category Characteristics, Customer Characteristics, and Customer Activities on In-Store Decision Making," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (5), 19–29.
- Kennedy, Debi Ward. (2004), "Attractive In-Store Displays will Help Drive Sales," August 15, 2004. Web link: http://www.bizjournals.com/seattle/stories/2004/08/16/smallb3.html
- Kennedy, John R. (1970), "The Effect of Display Location on the Sales and Pilferage of Cigarettes," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 7 (May), 210-15.
- Lam, Long W., Ka Wai Chan, Davis Fong, and Freda Lo (2011), "Does the Look Matter? The Impact of Casino Service Scape on Gaming Customer Satisfaction, Intention to Revisit, and Desire to Stay," *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 30 (3), 558-567.
- Larson, Jeffrey S., Eric T. Bradlow, and Peter S. Fader (2005), "An Exploratory Look at Supermarket Shopping Paths," *International Journal of research in Marketing*, 22 (4), 395- 414.
- Lee, Sanghak, Jaehwan Kim, and Greg M. Allenby (2013), "A Direct Utility Model for Asymmetric Complements," *Marketing Science*, 32 (3), 454-70.
- MacInnis, Deborah J., and Bernard J. Jaworski (1989), "Information Processing from Advertisements: Toward an Integrative Framework," *Journal of Marketing*, 53 (4), 1-23.
- ----------, Christine Moorman, and ---------- (1991), "Enhancing and Measuring Consumers' Motivation, Opportunity, and Ability to Process Brand Information from Ads," *Journal of Marketing*, 55 (4), 32-53.
- Mattila, Anna S. and Jochen Wirtz (2001), "Congruency of Scent and Music as A Driver of Instore Evaluations and Behavior," *Journal of Retailing*, 77 (2), 273–289.
- Mehrabian Albert, and James A. Russell (1974), An Approach to Environmental Psychology. Cambridge, MA: the MIT Press.
- Neff, Jack (2008), "In-Store Displays Are More Effective Than Price Cuts," Advertising Age, (November 24), [available at http://adage.com/article/news/store-displays-effective-pricecuts/132767/].
- Papatla, Purushottam and Lakshman Krishnamurthi (1996), "Measuring the Dynamic Effects of Promotions on Brand Choice," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 33(1), 20–35.
- Parsons, A.G. (2011), "Atmosphere in Fashion Stores: Do You Need to Change?" *Journal of Fashion Marketing Management*, 15(4), 428–445.
- Point-of-Purchase Advertising International (2012), "2012 Shopper Engagement Study: Media Topline Report," [available at http://www.popai.fr/textes/Shopper\_Engagement\_Study.pdf].
- Ratneshwar, Srinivasan, Cornelia Pechmann, and Allan D. Shocker (1996), "Goal-derived Categories and the Antecedents of Across-category Consideration," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 23 (3), 240-250.
- Sherman, E. and R.B. Smith (1987), "Mood States of Shoppers and Store Image: Promising Interactions and Possible Behavioral Effects," Anderson P, ed. Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 14 (Association for Consumer Research, Provo, UT), 251–254.
- Spangenberg, Eric R., Ayn E. Crowley, and Pamela W. Henderson (1996), "Improving the Store Environment; Do Olfactory Cues Affect Evaluations and Behavior?" *Journal of Marketing*, 60 (2), 67–80.
- Spiegelhalter, David J., Nicola G. Best, Bradley P. Carlin, and Angelika van der Linde (2002), "Bayesian Measures of Model Complexity and Fit," *Journal of Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Statistical Methodology)*, 64 (4), 583-689.
- Sun, Baohong (2005), "Promotion Effect on Endogenous Consumption," *Marketing Science*, 27 (2), 185-204.
- Tadena, Nathalie. (2015), "A Super-Bowl Ad is just Half the Battle," Wall Street Journal, January 30, 2015.
- Tellis, Gerard J. (1998), Advertising and Sales Promotion Strategy. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Villas-Boas, J. Miguel and Russell S. Winer (1999), "Endogeneity in Brand Choice Models," *Management Science*, 45 (10), 1324-38.
- Wirespring.com. (2016), "The Digital Signage Insider: Using In-Store Advertising to Win the First Moment of Truth," web link:

https://www.wirespring.com/dynamic\_digital\_signage\_and\_interactive\_kiosks\_journal/articl es/Using in store advertising to win the First Moment of Truth FMOT -247.html

- Yang, Sha, Yuxin Chen, and Greg M. Allenby (2003), "Bayesian Analysis of Simultaneous Demand and Supply," *Quantitative Marketing and Economics*, 1 (3), 251-75.
- Zhang, Jie and Lakshman Krishnamurthi (2004), "Customizing Promotions in Online Stores," *Marketing Science*, 23 (4), 561-78.
- ---------- (2006), "An Integrated Choice Model Incorporating Alternative Mechanisms for Consumers' Reactions to In-Store Display and Feature Advertising," *Marketing Science*, 25 (3), 278-290.



# **TABLE 1. Summary of Previous Literature**



# **TABLE 2. Characteristics of Different Displays**







# **TABLE 4. Descriptive Statistics of Variables**



	<b>Overall</b>	<b>Ouarter</b> 1	<b>Ouarter 2</b>	<b>Ouarter 3</b>	<b>Ouarter</b> 4
<b>STFR</b>	0.548	$-0.370$	0.177	0.518	$-0.904$
<b>STRR</b>	$-0.065$	<b>NA</b>	$-0.067$	<b>NA</b>	NA.
<b>SCDR</b>	0.166	$-0.086$	$-0.076$	0.327	0.856
<b>FCAP</b>	0.714	<b>NA</b>	0.773	0.626	$-0.432$
<b>RCAP</b>	0.100	0.520	0.023	0.378	0.744
<b>SHLF</b>	0.231	0.170	0.595	0.347	0.920

**TABLE 5. Correlations between Product Purchases and Displays (Soft drink)**

**TABLE 6. Posterior Estimates for the Proposed Model (Purchase Incidence)**

<b>Parameters</b>		Mean			SD				
		Intercept	Gender	Income	<b>HHsize</b>	Intercept	Gender	<i>Income</i>	HHsize
Intercept		$-0.023$	$-0.073$	0.026	0.023	0.069	0.056	0.064	0.093
<i>Marketing</i>	STFR <sub>t</sub>	0.179	$-0.125$	$-0.275$	0.579	0.077	0.072	0.108	0.104
activities	$\mathrm{STRR}_{\mathrm{t}}$	0.098	$-0.064$	$-0.377$	0.343	0.093	0.082	0.075	0.169
	$SCDR_t$	0.008	0.283	$-0.717$	0.619	0.095	0.08	0.056	0.075
	$FCAP_t$	0.434	0.128	$-0.017$	$-0.244$	0.09	0.097	0.073	0.08
	RCAP <sub>t</sub>	0.353	0.083	$-0.155$	0.141	0.081	0.052	0.126	0.081
	$SHLF_t$	0.346	$-0.081$	0.262	$-0.167$	0.197	0.053	0.097	0.113
	$DISC_t$	0.59	$-0.184$	$-0.189$	$-0.304$	0.089	0.041	0.074	0.145
	PRICE <sub>ct</sub>	$-0.293$	0.48	$-0.025$	0.209	0.096	0.067	0.07	0.073
	$STFR_t \times STRR_t$	0.08	0.407	0.199	$-0.92$	0.103	0.085	0.054	0.086
	$STFR_t \times SCDR_t$	0.129	$-0.295$	$-0.043$	$-0.259$	0.062	0.055	0.049	0.117
	$STFR_t \times FCAP_t$	0.918	$-0.318$	$-0.256$	$-0.173$	0.158	0.074	0.066	0.067
	$STFR_t \times RCAP_t$	0.585	0.065	0.012	$-0.146$	0.083	0.045	0.063	0.063
	$STFR_t \times SHLF_t$	0.784	0.08	0.327	0.089	0.119	0.066	0.086	0.148
	$\mathrm{STRR}_{t} \times \mathrm{SCDR}_{t}$	0.023	$-0.13$	$-0.07$	0.032	0.124	0.082	0.095	0.074
	$\mathrm{STRR}_{\mathrm{t}} \times \mathrm{FCAP}_{\mathrm{t}}$	0.42	0.063	$-0.346$	$-0.168$	0.075	0.047	0.076	0.105
	$\text{STRR}_{t} \times \text{RCAP}_{t}$	0.24	0.138	$-0.224$	$-0.007$	0.102	0.061	0.094	0.062
	$\text{STRR}_{\text{t}} \times \text{SHLF}_{\text{t}}$	0.351	0.06	$-0.234$	0.013	0.109	0.06	0.06	0.088
	$SCDR_t \times FCAP_t$	0.627	$-0.288$	0.061	$-0.21$	0.092	0.085	0.102	0.087
	$SCDR_t \times RCAP_t$	0.512	0.076	0.307	0.319	0.075	0.042	0.123	0.091
	$SCDR_t \times SHLF_t$	0.492	0.1	$-0.328$	0.442	0.069	0.045	0.063	0.079
	$FCAP_t \times RCAP_t$	1.179	$-0.411$	$-0.377$	$-0.484$	0.164	0.06	0.074	0.072
	$FCAP_t \times SHLF_t$	1.841	0.21	0.12	0.028	0.128	0.07	0.062	0.113
	$RCAP_t \times SHLF_t$	1.574	$-0.27$	$-0.248$	$-0.139$	0.112	0.079	0.069	0.078

	$DISC_t \times STFR_t$	0.271	0.093	$-0.309$	0.168	0.085	0.057	0.064	0.082
	$DISC_t \times STRR_t$	$-0.044$	$-0.394$	0.205	0.124	0.09	0.044	0.064	0.111
	$DISC_t \times SCDR_t$	0.154	$-0.024$	0.157	$-0.105$	0.064	0.056	0.067	0.068
	$DISC_t \times FCAP_t$	0.65	0.362	$-0.148$	0.079	0.085	0.073	0.068	0.125
	$DISC_t \times RCAP_t$	0.547	$-0.234$	0.102	0.335	0.068	0.059	0.108	0.134
	$DISC_t \times SHLF_t$	0.503	0.113	0.041	0.01	0.069	0.057	0.055	0.081
	$PRICE_t \times STFR_t$	0.123	$-0.184$	$-0.281$	0.328	0.07	0.045	0.138	0.092
	$PRICE_t \times STRR_t$	$-0.065$	$-0.285$	0.106	$-0.329$	0.062	0.046	0.055	0.088
	$PRICE_t \times SCDR_t$	$-0.036$	$-0.088$	0.541	$-0.217$	0.081	0.092	0.054	0.135
	$PRICE_t \times FCAP_t$	0.527	$-0.111$	$-0.239$	$-0.213$	0.119	0.047	0.091	0.061
	$PRICE_t \times RCAP_t$	0.516	0.058	$-0.283$	0.048	0.109	0.051	0.057	0.061
	$PRICE_t \times SHLF_t$	0.414	$-0.081$	0.138	0.297	0.13	0.046	0.083	0.089
Customer's	Cat REC <sub>i</sub>	$-0.379$	0.079	0.076	$-0.337$	0.131	0.045	0.068	0.088
past	Cat FREQ <sub>i</sub>	$-0.46$	0.184	$-0.488$	$-0.089$	0.174	0.062	0.162	0.101
purchase	$Cat_MNTR_i$	$-0.225$	0.183	$-0.094$	0.103	0.087	0.042	0.103	0.094
behavior	$NFEAT_{t-1}$	0.003	0.314	0.022	0.255	0.072	0.045	0.078	0.058
	$LP_{it}$	0.295	$-0.279$	$-0.079$	$-0.357$	0.119	0.07	0.083	0.071
	$LQ_{it}$	$-0.281$	$-0.299$	0.41	0.16	0.112	0.047	0.104	0.153
Competitions	STFROT <sub>t</sub>	$-0.313$	$-0.085$	$-0.188$	$-0.094$	0.105	0.079	0.076	0.111
and Control variables	STRROT <sub>t</sub>	$-0.412$	0.121	0.014	0.011	0.097	0.047	0.145	0.08
	SCDROT <sub>t</sub>	0.171	$-0.247$	$-0.134$	0.046	0.143	0.062	0.058	0.069
	<b>EVENT</b>	0.233	$-0.111$	$-0.104$	0.076	0.124	0.067	0.053	0.059
	<b>FWEEK</b>	$-0.064$	0.147	0.223	0.16	0.104	0.049	0.177	0.091
Inclusive value		0.44	$-0.065$	0.171	$-0.247$	0.118	0.048	0.094	0.064

**TABLE 7. Posterior Estimates for the Proposed Model (Brand Choice)**











# **TABLE 9. Display Optimization Result (Objective function: Retailer revenue)**



# **TABLE 10. Display Optimization Result (Objective function: Coke's revenue)**



#### **FIGURE 1: Conceptual Framework**

#### *WEB APPENDIX A: MARKOV CHAIN MONTE CARLO ALGORITHM*

Let *i* denote the index of consumer  $(i=1,...,I)$ , let *t* denote the week  $(i=1,...,T)$ , let *j* denote the brand  $(j=1,...,J)$ , and let *d* denote different types of display  $(d=1,...,D)$ .<sup>7</sup>

1. Generate  $\{\theta_i\}$ 

We obtain each respondent's  $\theta_i$  from equation (4) using the random-walk Metropolis–Hastings algorithm. The algorithm starts with  $\theta_i^d$ . We then draw the candidate vector,  $\theta_i^n$ , using the equation

$$
\theta_i^n = \theta_i^d + \varepsilon_\theta,
$$

where  $\varepsilon_{\theta} \sim \text{Normal}(0, s_{\theta} \cdot \Sigma_{\epsilon})$ ;

 $s_{\theta} = .01$  is an arbitrary number to control the step size of the random walk chain; and

 $\Sigma$ <sub>/ $\epsilon$ </sub> =  $I$ <sub># of parameters</sub>, and *I* indexes identity matrix.

The probability of accepting this candidate vector is given by

$$
P(\text{acceptance}) = \min \left\{ \left[ \frac{\exp{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta_i^n - \Delta Z_i)'\Sigma_{\zeta}^{-1}(\theta_i^n - \Delta Z_i)} \cdot L(\theta_i^n)}{\left[ \exp{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta_i^d - \Delta Z_i)'\Sigma_{\zeta}^{-1}(\theta_i^d - \Delta Z_i)} \right] \cdot L(\theta_i^d)} \right\},
$$

where  $L(\theta_i^n)$  denotes the likelihood function evaluated at  $\theta_i^n$ . The likelihood function is specified as  $L = \prod_i \prod_i \left[ P_{ii} (inc)^{\tau_{ii}} \left[ 1 - P_{ii} (inc) \right]^{1 - \tau_{ii}} \cdot \prod_i \left[ P_{ii} (j | inc)^{\tau_{ij}} \left[ 1 - P_{ii} (j | inc) \right]^{1 - \tau_{ij}} \right] \right]$ , where  $\tau_{ijt} = 1$  if

brand j was bought by household i at time t, and 0 otherwise, and  $\tau_{it} = 1$  if  $\sum_i \tau_{ijt} > 0$  and 0 otherwise.

2. Generate ∆

$$
\Delta \, | \, Z, \{ \theta_i \}, \Sigma_{\zeta} \sim \text{MVN}(\overline{\overline{\Delta}}, \Sigma_{\zeta} \otimes (ZZ + A)^{-1}),
$$

where Prior  $\Delta | \Sigma_{\zeta} \sim \text{Normal}(\overline{\Delta}, \Sigma_{\zeta} \otimes A^{-1})$ 

$$
\overline{\Delta} = (Z'Z + A)^{-1}(Z'Z\Omega + A\overline{\Delta})
$$
  
\n
$$
\Omega = (Z'Z)^{-1}Z'\theta
$$
  
\n
$$
A = 0.01 \times I
$$

3. Generate  $\sum_{\ell}$ 

I 1  $| Z, \{\theta_i\}, \Delta \sim \text{Inverted Wishart}(\varpi + I, V + \sum (\theta_i - \Delta Z_i)(\theta_i - \Delta Z_i)')$ *i*  $\Sigma_{\zeta}$  | Z, { $\theta_i$ },  $\Delta \sim$  Inverted Wishart $(\varpi + I, V + \sum_{i=1} ( \theta_i - \Delta Z_i) (\theta_i - \Delta Z_i)')$ ,

where Prior  $\bar{\omega}$  = the length of  $\theta$ <sub>i</sub> +3;  $V = \bar{\omega} \times I$ .

4. Generate  $\xi_t$ 

We obtain  $\xi_t$ , the demand shock of the deterministic utility of purchase incidence at each week *t*, using the random-walk Metropolis–Hastings algorithm. The candidate value  $\xi_t^n$  is

l

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Here, I=500, T=37, and D=6.

$$
\xi_t^n = \xi_t^d + \varepsilon_\xi,
$$

where  $\varepsilon_{\varepsilon} \sim \text{Normal}(0, s_{\varepsilon} \cdot \Sigma)$ ,

 $s<sub>ξ</sub> = .005$  is an arbitrary number to control the step size of the random walk chain, and  $\Sigma = I_{(2+D)}$ .

The acceptance probability of this vector is defined by

$$
P(\text{acceptance}) = \min \left\{ \frac{\left[\exp-\frac{1}{2}(\xi_t^n, \kappa_t, \mu_t, \pi_t)'\Sigma^{-1}(\xi_t^n, \kappa_t, \mu_t, \pi_t)\right] \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^I L(\xi_t^n)\right)}{\left[\exp-\frac{1}{2}(\xi_t^d, \kappa_t, \mu_t, \pi_t)'\Sigma^{-1}(\xi_t^d, \kappa_t, \mu_t, \pi_t)\right] \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^I L(\xi_t^d)\right)_t, 1\right\}},
$$

where  $\kappa_t$  is a vector of display-related error terms from equation (6),  $\mu_t$  is a vector of display-related error terms from equation (7), and  $\pi$  is a price-related error term from equation (8). We calculate the timespecific likelihood vector with  $\zeta_t^n$  and multiply it across individuals. For each time *t*, we use the *t*<sup>th</sup> element of the time-specific likelihood vector to calculate the acceptance probability.

5. Generate  $\{\eta, \lambda, \nu\}$ 

Following the approach of Yang et al. (2003) the vector of parameters from instrumental variable specification (equation (6), (7), and (8)) has  $(2 \times J)(2+D)$  elements and is defined as

 $\{\eta, \lambda, \nu\}$   $|\xi, LV, \Sigma \sim \text{MVN}(\psi, \Omega)$ 

*LV* is an array with T matrices and

1,1, 1 ,, 1 1, 1 , 1 1, 1 00 00 0 0 00 0 0 0 10 00 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 01 00 0 0 0 0 00 0 00 10 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 00 01 0 0 0 0 0 0 00 00 1 0 0 0 0 *t DJt t t J t DISP DISP DISC LV DISC PRICE* − − − − = 1 , 1 0 0 *t PRICEJ t* − − 

The variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  is specified as

$$
\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix}\n\Sigma_{\xi} & \Sigma_{\xi\kappa\mu\pi} \\
\Sigma_{\xi\kappa\mu\pi} & \Sigma_{\kappa\mu\pi}\n\end{pmatrix}.
$$
\n
$$
\psi = \Omega \left( \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} L V_{t}^{\prime} \Sigma_{\kappa\mu\pi|\xi} (MKT_{t} - f_{t}) \right) + V_{0} \rho_{0} \right)
$$
\n
$$
\Omega = \left( V_{0}^{-1} + \sum_{t=1}^{T} L V_{t}^{\prime} \Sigma_{\kappa\mu\pi|\xi} L V_{t} \right)^{-1}
$$
\n
$$
\Sigma_{\kappa\mu\pi|\xi} = \Sigma_{\kappa\mu\pi} - \Sigma_{\xi\kappa\mu\pi} \Sigma_{\xi}^{-1} \Sigma_{\xi\kappa\mu\pi}
$$
\n
$$
MKT_{t} = \left\{ DISP_{1,1,t}, \cdots, DISP_{D,J,t}, DISC_{1,t}, \cdots, DISC_{J,t}, PRICE_{1,t}, \cdots, PRICE_{J,t} \right\}^{\prime}
$$

$$
f_t = \sum_{\xi \kappa \mu \pi} \sum_{\xi}^{-1} \xi_t
$$
  

$$
\rho_0 = (0, \cdots, 0)
$$
  

$$
V_0 = 10 \times I_{(2 \times J)(2+D)}
$$

6. Generate Σ

$$
\Sigma | LV, \{\eta, \lambda, \nu\}, \xi \sim \text{Inverted Wishart}\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \left(\frac{\xi_t}{MKT_t - LV_t} \{\eta, \lambda, \nu\}\right)' \left(\frac{\xi_t}{MKT_t - LV_t} \{\eta, \lambda, \nu\}\right) + C, T + c\right)
$$

where, Prior c=200;  $C = c \times I_{1+J(3+D)}$ .

#### *WEB APPENDIX B*

#### *Robustness Checks*

In the hypotheses and model development, we fix that the effect of displays on purchase incidence to be positive based on the assumption that every location of product display catch consumers' attention and increase purchase likelihood. However, when it comes to brand choice, the increased purchase intention may lead buying other brands but not the displayed brand. To account for the case, we did not restrict the effect of displays on brand choice probability to be positive. For empirically testing the assumption, we build two alternative models, one with the restrictions on both choices and the other without the restrictions on both choices. Furthermore, we develop another model where the two end cap displays are combined into one for interactions. Model fit is evaluated by deviance information criterion (Spiegelhalter et al. 2002). We also compute the hit rate, which is the posterior mean of the correct prediction for the purchase incidence probabilities for both estimation and holdout samples (the last five weeks, from week 38 to 42). Among the four models, the one with restricted parameters for purchase incidence and non-restricted parameters for brand choice and with separate interactions of end cap displays outperforms the other three, confirming that the proposed model theoretically and empirically supports our assumption.

			Model 1 Model 2 Model 3 Model 4		
Positive parameters of displays on Purchase Incidence					
Brand choice					
Separate interaction parameters of end cap displays					
<b>Estimation</b> sample	DIC	842304.4	800036.5	784326.5	722540.6
	Hit rate	0.761	0.809	0.842	0.85
Holdout sample	DIC.	84412.44	82192.84	77193.81	60723.31
	-Tit rate	በ 75	. 1794		

**TABLE WB1. Model Fit Statistics** 

# *WEB APPENDIX C*



# **TABLE WC1. Posterior Estimates for the Endogeneity Specification**



# **TABLE WC2. Variance–Covariance Matrix for the Endogeneity Specification**

#### *WEB APPENDIX D*

#### *Optimal Allocation Approach*

We now propose one such approach for better allocating the six displays to the four brands compared to the observed pattern in the data. We frame this as a constrained optimization problem. The objective function to be maximized is the revenue and is given as:

$$
(WD1) R = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \bigg[ \sum_{i=1}^{N} P_i^{DISP_{dj}} (inc) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{N} P_i^{DISP_{dj}} (j \mid inc) \cdot \overline{PRICE_j} \cdot \overline{Q_j} \bigg]
$$

where  $P_i^{DISP_{dj}}(inc)$ ,  $P_i^{DISP_{dj}}(j | inc)$ ,  $\overline{PRICE_j}$ , and  $\overline{Q_j}$  for brand *j* and customer *i* are the purchase incidence probability, brand choice probability, mean price per ounce and mean purchase quantity respectively. Since the primary focus is to maximize the retailer's revenue, we compute the sum of the revenues across all *J* brands. Our approach to obtain the optimal number of displays for each display brand combination involves incrementing each display type for each brand and computing the overall revenue. For example, we increment the revenue for brand 1 and display location 1 in unit step sizes and compute the revenue across all brands and all displays based on equation WD1 (subject to constraints described below). The optimal number of displays ( $DISP_{11}^*$ ) for brand 1 and display location 1 is obtained based on the combination that maximizes the overall revenue. Specifically, we solve the following maximization problem:

$$
DISP_{dj}^* = \max_{DISP_{dj}} (R(\{DISP_{dj}, DISP_{-(dj)}\}))
$$
  
\n(WD2)  $s.t. R(\{DISP_{dj}, DISP_{-(dj)}\}) > R(DISP^{observed}),$   
\nand  $0 \le DISP_{dj} \le \sum_{j=1}^{J} DISP_{dj}^{observed} - \sum_{k=1}^{J} DISP_{dk}^* - \sum_{l=j+1}^{J} DISP_{dl}^{observed}$ 

where,  $DISP_{dj}^*$  is the optimal number of displays for display *d* and brand *j*;  $R({\{DISP_{dj}, DISP_{-(dj)}\}})$  is the revenue evaluated for the focal display *d* and brand *j* ( $DISP_{dj}$ ) and all other displays  $DISP_{-(dj)}$ .  $DISP_{-(dj)}$ consists of both the computed optimal number of displays for display *d* for brands that precede brand *j* and the observed number of displays for brands that succeed brand *j* and is given by:

(WD3) 
$$
DISP_{-(dj)} = \{DISP_{11}^*, \cdots, DISP_{d-1,J}^*, DISP_{d1}^*, \cdots, DISP_{d,j-1}^*, DISP_{d,j+1}^{observed}, \cdots, DISP_{DJ}^{observed}\}
$$

Our approach assumes that the total number of displays at a specific location as given or determined by the retailer and does not attempt to change that number. However, our proposed

optimization scheme reallocates the total number for each type of display across different brands with an aim to maximize revenue. Hence,  $\sum_{I}DISP_{di}^{observed} = \sum_{I}DISP_{di}^{*}$  $j=1$  $\sum^J$   $\sum$   $\Gamma$   $\Gamma$   $\Gamma$ *O<code>observed</code>*  $\sum$  $\sum^J$  $dy = \sum$  *Dioi*  $dy$ *j j*  $DISP_{di}^{observed} = \sum_{i} DISP_{di}$  $\sum_{j=1}DISP_{dj}^{observed} = \sum_{j=1}DISP_{dj}^*$ .

Starting from the first brand and first display type, we estimate the parameters using the number of displays given by  $\{DISP_{d_i}, DISP_{-(di)}\}$  along with other variables and use the result to calculate the corresponding choice probabilities and resulting revenue from equation WD1. We then increase  $DISP_{dj}$  in steps of 1 and find the optimal solution,  $DISP_{di}^*$ , which yields the highest revenue. Within a specific type of display *d*, the upper bound for  $DISP_{di}$  is conditional on the observed and optimal number of display *d* for the other brands. Our proposed approach, therefore, provides a conservative estimate for the optimal number of displays and increment in revenue. In other words, instead of a global solution that generates all possible combinations of  $DISP_{di}$  across *j* brands for each display *d* and evaluates them in terms of the revenue, our proposed solution proceeds sequentially optimizing each brand-display combination. This approach is similar to subgame perfect (Sun 2005) and is efficient in that it can reduce the number of combinations and the time it takes $8$  to obtain the optimum values.

After sequentially going over each display-brand combination and solving equation WD2 for every display and brand, we obtain an optimal solution  $DISP^*$  and the revenue  $R^*$  given by:

(WD4) 
$$
DISP^* = \{DISP_{11}^*, \cdots, DISP_{dj}^*, \cdots, DISP_{DJ}^* \}
$$
  
(WD5) 
$$
R^* = R(DISP^*)
$$

#### *Category captain revenue maximization*

 $\overline{a}$ 

The objective function to be maximized is the revenue of brand *j* in charge of managing marketing activities of the category and is given as:

$$
\text{(WD6)} \quad R_j = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^{DISP_{dj}}(inc) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^{DISP_{dj}}(j \mid inc) \cdot \overline{PRICE_j} \cdot \overline{Q_j}
$$

Then the maximization problem can be defined as:

<sup>8</sup> For example, in week 6, there are about 9 million possible combinations for brand and display in increments of 1 to obtain a global optimum and each combination requires at least 30 minutes for parameter estimation and revenue optimization.

$$
DISP_{dj}^* = \max_{DISP_{dj}} (R_j(\{DISP_{dj}, DISP_{-(dj)}\}))
$$
  
\n
$$
(WD7) \qquad s.t. R_j(\{DISP_{dj}, DISP_{-(dj)}\}) > R_j(DISP^{observed}),
$$
  
\n
$$
and \qquad 0 \leq DISP_{dj} \leq \sum_{j=1}^J DISP_{dj}^{observed} - \sum_{k=1}^J DISP_{dk}^* - \sum_{l=j+1}^J DISP_{dl}^{observed}
$$

Similar to optimizing retailer revenue, the optimal solution  $DISP^*$  and the revenue of brand *j*  $(R_j^*)$  are obtained after sequentially going over each display-brand combination and solving equation WD7 for every display and brand. The optimized revenue  $R_j^*$  is given by:

$$
(WD8) \quad R_j^* = R_j (DISP^*)
$$

where the optimal solution  $DISP^*$  has the same notation as equation WD4.

[View publication stats](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/355623317)