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**DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABILITY IN U.S. CONSUMER
RESPONSIVENESS TO CARBONATED SOFT-DRINK
MARKETING PRACTICES**

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2010

Selected Paper

prepared for presentation at the 1st Joint EAAE/AAEA Seminar

“The Economics of Food, Food Choice and Health”

Freising, Germany, September 15 – 17, 2010

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Abstract

Using three years of Nielsen Homescan and advertising data from 16 major metropolitan areas across the U.S. to construct a panel data set that follows weekly consumer purchasing behavior, this paper investigates the impact of marketing activities on a representative cross-section of U.S. consumers. Because many consumers do not participate in the market week-in and week-out, I apply Heckman's econometric selection model to recover the impact of pricing, advertising, and promotion on a wide range of consumer segments. Reduced-form estimates of consumer responsiveness to these marketing activities reveal different effects across consumer segments, which have numerous implications for marketing policy.

Keywords: carbonated soft drink, marketing-mix models, demographic segmentation, econometric selection models, Nielsen panel data, food marketing policy

JEL codes: D12, L66, M38

1. Introduction

The obesity epidemic in the United States has penetrated an increasing number of regions and demographic groups over the last two decades, and seems to be going global (Popkin: 2004; Yach, et al.: 2006). Diabetes rates are following. Nations that have enjoyed abundance now are peopled by citizens who corporeally manifest superabundance to their own poor health outcomes. Policy makers are taking increasing notice.

No one food group can plausibly be assigned causality, but we do know that sweetened carbonated soft drinks (**sCSDs**) in the U.S. serve as pure vectors into the body of simple sugar calories without fiber protein or any natural vitamin or mineral content to favor them nutritionally. We further know that rising consumption of sCSDs in the U.S. has not only paralleled the rise in obesity, but is highest among young adults (Binkley and Golub: 2007; Bray, et. al.: 2004; Nielsen and Popkin: 2003). Who exactly is buying all of this colored high-fructose-corn-syrup water, and are they that different from *us*? Does “Coke add life” for them? Are they “Doing the Dew?” Are they motivated by multi-million dollar advertising campaigns, name brand recognition going back generations, some of the cheapest calories in the supermarket, or something else (Harris, et. al.: 2009)?

Recent academic access to an extremely rich marketing data set that spans the U.S. allows the parsing of demographic correlations with sCSD purchase. I ask this data which demographic groups have the largest marginal responses to changes in sCSD marketing variables: price, discounting, and advertising (here called **marketing mix variables**).

Myriad sub-questions are enabled by the effort. Among them: What is the marginal effect of an increase in household size on consumer response to discounting? Does purchase fall as the formal education level of the head of household rises in comparative level? Do racial groups with lower income profiles respond more in purchase to television advertising campaigns for sCSDs than do racial groups who are characterized by higher mean household incomes?

The scope and characteristics of the data along with the focus of the question motivate exploration of econometric modeling issues from within the modeling set for censored and truncated data.

For my purposes here, let me define *poor food choice* to mean “unhealthful choice/a choice that if regimented in individual consumption patterns is likely to lead to health problems for an average individual.” Allow that the term “poor food choice” says nothing about poverty (not “the poor”), or about the economically efficient or rational balance of expenditures of an

individual's limited food budget (not "poor choice" in terms of utility maximization given a budget constraint). Let me also define the term *effective nutrition education* to mean the level of application of responsible nutritional choices in realized individual food/drink purchasing and consumption patterns – e.g., a person who actually buys and consumes more carrots than candy is demonstrating (a higher level of) effective nutrition education, i.e., more than someone who buys and consumes more candy than carrots.

2. Literature Review

Relevant academic consideration of the use of demographic variables to determine brand choice or market segment come from the Marketing literature. Chiang (1991), Kamakura and Russell (1989), Gupta and Chintagunta (1994), and Kalyanam and Putler (1997) all develop insights into the use of demographic variables as determinants of consumer choice. Fennell, Allenby, Yang, & Edwards (2003) specifically study how demographic and psychographic variables can be used to explain consumption rates and product use. They examine 52 product categories, "providing evidence that these variables predict product use and unconditional brand use, but do not predict brand choice conditional on product category use" (: 241). The fact that I choose not to estimate demand (for reasons explained in section 4, see "RFM"), that my current proposed estimation structure aggregates individual choice to the category (not brand) level, and the fact that I will be using actual advertising exposure, separates this work from that of predecessors I have so far identified, and suggests numerous points of potential separation or extension from the existing literature.

Asking the data what correlations exist rather than building a structural model of demand from economic theory is a methodological response motivated in part to findings from behavioral economics focused on food consumption. These researchers discover consumer behavior inconsistent with stated goals, inconsistent with stated perceptions, and divergent from immediate memory of recent eating (Wansink: 2006). Rational maximization of utility may be a process more rigorous than consuming a sCSD warrants (Just: 2010). Pesendorfer (:2006) describes in his review of *Advances in Behavioral Economics* models of failures of expected utility theory or hyperbolic discounting that may find appeal in application to marginal junk-food consumption. Marginal junk-food consumption is likely to have a very attenuated negative impact on health. Rational thinking about health impacts can easily be offset by rational thinking about current utility maximization ("I'm hungry, and it's here and cheap.") Given this potential

conflict, it is inappropriate to presume that modes of consumer economic decision making about junk-food purchases will be uniform.

Knowledge of proper nutrition in the U.S. is not extensive or impressive (Variyam and Golan: 2002; Zamora and Popkin: 2007; Duffey and Popkin: 2006), so rational ignorance (Downs: 1957) may also play into day-to-day consumption choices and habit formation. The word “addiction” as applied to carbohydrate-intensive foods is beginning to be used in the literature (Richards, et. al.: 2007). There may be real cumulative costs to habitual drinking of sCSDs, but structural modeling tends to assume orderly preferences for even such attenuated dangers, and that risks are unambiguously known and properly discounted by the individual. In reality there are changing priorities and levels of awareness and responsibility playing out dynamically in individual economic choices (Pesendorfer: 2006).

3. Data – Summarizing sCSD Consumer Markets

Data are from AC Nielsen, weekly HomeScan, for three years from February 2006 through to December 2008 (152 weekly “Process Periods”), for 16 Designated Marketing Areas (**DMAs**): Atlanta, Boston, Baltimore, Chicago, Detroit, Hartford & New Haven, Houston, Kansas City, Los Angeles, Miami – Ft. Lauderdale, New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco – Oakland – San Jose, Seattle – Tacoma, Springfield – Holyoke, and Washington D.C. DMAs are defined by the range of metropolitan commercial television broadcast markets. This data set combines specific purchase information, recorded after purchase by household members, with the demographic information of the participating household.

Also from Nielsen are (television) advertising data corresponding to Nielsen areas. These are measured in population exposure to advertising within a broadcast market. This exposure is measured in advertising-industry-standard units known as “gross rating points” (GRPs). Nielsen categorizes the DMA-level GRPs to a certain level of demographic granularity (the entire data set includes GRPs for specific-aged children, for example). After data management procedures, 13,356 households presented a balanced panel, for 358,518 purchase observations.

The research question of interest here is to examine the extent to which different demographically identified groups respond to price, promotions/discounting, and advertising (“marketing-mix”) variables. A dataset consisting of only purchase observations cannot directly represent a choice not to purchase as a response to a price promotion or increased advertising. So regressing on only positive observations with no other modeling correction would be a

misspecification for addressing this question. It is therefore necessary to balance the panel with demographic information fully listed for “observations” in the weeks without purchase. The integrity of the Nielsen data-gathering process ensures that these filled-in zeros are actual purchase observations for the household for the week. This expands the ability of the existing dataset to characterize real-world behavior. With every house exiting in the Nielsen panel during a year now having an observation – zero or positive purchase – every week, the number of observations rises to 2,003,644. With the filled-in zeros, non-purchase observations represent 81.2% of all observations.

Table 1 is a key the reader will find useful in explaining variable names, symbols, and representational terms used in tables throughout the paper.

Table 1. Key to Variable Names, Symbols, and Their Meanings, Used in Later Tables

Variable Name	Variable Meaning	Notes
<i>Demographic variables</i>		
HalfPov4Inc	0 to ½ x Pov4Inc	Pov4Inc ≈ poverty-level income for U.S. family of 4 (U.S. average)
x1Pov4Inc	½ to 1 x Pov4Inc	
x2Pov4Inc	1 to 2 x Pov4Inc	
x3Pov4Inc	2 to 3 x Pov4Inc	
x4Pov4Inc	3 to 4 x Pov4Inc	
HHsiz2	Household Size = 2 members	HH = Household
HHsiz3	Household Size = 3 members	
HHsiz4	Household Size = 4 members	
HHsiz5plus	Household Size = 5 or more members	
AfrAm	African American	62.5% identified Hispanic separate from Race binaries
Asian	Asian	
OtherRace	Other Race	
Hispnc	Hispanic	
FemLessHSEdu	Female best Educ level < high school	ALL references to ‘Male’, ‘Mn’, or ‘M’ are for Male head of household, with ‘Fem’, ‘Fm’, or ‘F’ for Female head of household;
FemHSEdu	Female best Educ level = high school	
FemSomCollgEdu	Female best Educ level = some college	
FemCollgEdu	Female best Educ level = full college	
FemPostCollgEdu	Female best Educ level = graduate work	
MaleLessHSEdu	Male best Educ level < high school	head of household must be M or F, but can be both
MaleHSEdu	Male best Educ level = high school	
MaleSomCollgEdu	Male best Educ level = some college	
MaleCollgEdu	Male best Educ level = full college	
MalePostColgEdu	Male best Educ level = graduate work	
MaleAgeL30	Male Age in years in category up to 29	“L” in any variable name means “less than”
MaleAge30L40	Male Age in years between 30 & 39	
MaleAge40L50	Male Age in years between 40 & 49	
MaleAge50L65	Male Age in years between 50 & 64	
MaleAge65plus	Male Age in years 65 and older	

FemAgeL30	Female Age in years in category up to 29	
FemAge30L40	Female Age in years between 30 & 39	
FemAge40L50	Female Age in years between 40 & 49	
FemAge50L65	Female Age in years between 50 & 64	
FemAge65plus	Female Age in years 65 and older	
FemUnderEmp	Female Under-Employment	<35 hrs/wk & Unemployed
ManNoEmp	Male unemployed	
ManNotFullEmp	Male working <35 hrs/wk	
<i>Other Variables</i>		
Ssn2	Summer (Apr-Jun)	
Ssn3	Autumn (Jul-Sep)	
Ssn4	Winter (Oct-Dec)	
<i>Marketing & Interaction</i>		
P, Sale, Adv	Price index, Discount (Sale), Advertising	
(e.g.) PxHHsiz	price index interacted with HHsize	'x' anywhere after first character depicts interaction, no number on HHsiz depicts category, not level
HHTotOzByPP	HH total oz purchased in a week	the dependent variable

Table 2 shows summary statistics for marketing and purchase variables used in regression. The dependent variable is a household's weekly total ounces of sCSDs purchased. Note that the standard deviation is over three times the mean in ounces. A price index of all soft drinks purchased in a DMA shows an average price across the dataspan of 2.28 cents per ounce, with standard deviation just over 10% of that value. Households typically buy a total of at least 67 oz. (2 liters or more) in a week an average of 8 times per year, but the standard deviation is also just over 10% larger than the mean.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics – Marketing and Purchase Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	observations = 2,003,644 Notes
Wkly HH Purchase Total (oz.)	49.396	165.984	0	12235.6	<i>dependent variable</i>
Avg Price in \$ in a DMA / wk	0.02280	0.00279	0.0108	0.0346	<i>indexed for all sCSDs</i>
HH's Purchase of ≥ 67 ozs.	8.021	9.251	0	52	<i># of Wks / Yr.</i>
Discount - Sale	0.060	0.237	0	1	
Discount - Coupon	0.011	0.105	0	1	
HH Avg. Advert Exposure	171.977	126.209	2.752	748.196	<i>DMA-level</i>

Only six percent of purchases are bought “on sale” as logged by Nielsen participants, but the standard deviation is four times this. “Coupon” is an extant method of price promotion, making it a marketing mix variable, but it was dropped from the interaction set as a potentially interesting driver of sub-sample behavior, as only 1% bought with couponing. Household advertising exposure, in GRPs, has a standard deviation roughly 75% of its mean value.

Table 3 (set). Descriptive Statistics – Demographic Binary Variable

Income Category Levels		% pop.	Household Size Category Levels		% pop.
0 to ½ x Pov4Inc	(HalfPov4Inc)	0.036	HHsiz1 (HH = 1 member)		0.264
½ to 1 x Pov4Inc	(x1Pov4Inc)	0.093	Hhsiz2		0.394
1 to 2 x Pov4Inc	(x2Pov4Inc)	0.221	Hhsiz3		0.148
2 to 3 x Pov4Inc	(x3Pov4Inc)	0.252	Hhsiz4		0.122
3 to 4 x Pov4Inc	(x4Pov4Inc)	0.209	Hhsiz5plus		0.072
4 or more x Pov4Inc		0.189			
Race Category Levels & Hispanic		% pop.	Female Age Categories		% pop.
White		0.681	FemAgeL30		0.014
African American (AfrAm)		0.139	FemAge30L40		0.107
Asian		0.047	FemAge40L50		0.225
OtherRace		0.058	FemAge50L65		0.363
Hispanic (crosses categories)		0.075	FemAge65plus		0.176
Female Education Levels		% pop.	Male Age Categories		% pop.
FemLessHSEdu		0.025	MaleAgeL30		0.008
FemHSEdu		0.207	MaleAge30L40		0.081
FemSomCollgEdu		0.274	MaleAge40L50		0.181
FemCollgEdu		0.263	MaleAge50L65		0.305
FemPostCollgEdu		0.117	MaleAge65plus		0.153
Male Education Levels		% pop.	Seasons		% pop.
MaleLessHSEdu		0.032	Summer		0.270
MaleHSEdu		0.153	Autumn		0.257
MaleSomCollgEdu		0.209	Winter		0.257
MaleCollgEdu		0.225	Spring		0.216
MalePostCollgEdu		0.110			
Under- and Unemployment		% pop.			
FemNoEmp (to FemUnderEmp)		0.338			
FemNotFullEmp (to FemUnderEmp)		0.154			
FemUnderEmp		0.492			
ManNoEmp		0.203			
ManNotFullEmp		0.055			

Table 3 (a set of smaller tables), presents demographic variables at chosen levels, each parsed from categoric variables. For example, income is presented as a single variable in the raw dataset, with 27 possible incremental values, from which five levels are presented here (using a fifth, the highest, as a control). The size of the data enables this foray into granularity, risking insignificant standard errors in the estimation process. The percentages presented for each demographic category level represent that category level’s percentage representation of the entire category.

The Race category, presents an exception, as “Hispanic” is a self-defined category that overlaps the four groups included in the Race category. While Hispanic crossovers to the White, African-American, and Asian categories can be clearly identified, the only way to self-identify as Hispanic only is to choose “Other Race” and the Hispanic identification dummy. Checking data not presented here, one finds 62.5% of those selecting “Other Race” identify as Hispanic. Thus roughly 40% of the 7.5% of the sample identified as Hispanic in Table 1 are spread over the White, African-American, and Asian “levels.” Table 4 in part demonstrates how this ambiguity manifests.

Returning to Table 3, for the income, and male and female age and education levels, the lowest value is not represented by more than 3.6% of the sample. With relatively few relatively time-invariant observations for certain levels, there may be constraints on statistical significance in the analysis.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics – Do Hispanics drink more or less than other Racial groups?

mean HHTotOzByPP, over(Hispanic Race)

Mean estimation	Number of obs = 2003644			
Over: Hispanic				
Race	Hisp: 1 = Yes, 2 = No			
_subpop_1: 1 1	Race: 1 = White			
_subpop_2: 1 2	2 = Afr Am			
_subpop_3: 1 3	3 = Asian			
_subpop_4: 1 4	4 = Other Race			
_subpop_5: 2 1	White only			
_subpop_6: 2 2	Afr Am only			
_subpop_7: 2 3	Asian only			
_subpop_8: 2 4	Other only			
Over	Mean	Std. Err.	[95% Conf.	Interval]
HHTotOzByPP				
_subpop_1	50.037	0.589	48.883	51.192

_subpop_2	70.350	2.192	66.054	74.647
_subpop_3	42.782	1.983	38.895	46.669
_subpop_4	57.042	0.644	55.780	58.305
_subpop_5	50.147	0.141	49.871	50.422
_subpop_6	46.834	0.292	46.261	47.407
_subpop_7	37.550	0.544	36.484	38.616
_subpop_8	47.752	0.731	46.318	49.185

Table 5 presents mean values for demographic binary variables in terms of the dependent variable. These are offered to enhance understanding of the baseline magnitudes, relative to the (slope and magnitude) partial effects presented in the Results section.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics – Mean Value of Dependent Variable for Each Demographic Dummy = 1
(includes positive purchase only, as OLS-form regressions in Results)

Variable	mean Wkly HH Buy in oz.	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]		Number of Obs.
HalfPov4Inc	251.456	2.435	246.683	256.229	13,290
x1Pov4Inc	267.534	1.732	264.139	270.930	34,575
x2Pov4Inc	267.205	1.007	265.231	269.179	82,389
x3Pov4Inc	282.253	0.990	280.311	284.194	94,401
x4Pov4Inc	289.188	1.179	286.876	291.499	74,733
HHsiz2	268.090	0.808	266.507	269.673	133,206
HHsiz3	294.914	1.218	292.527	297.301	64,460
HHsiz4	307.322	1.325	304.725	309.919	57,443
HHsiz5plus	336.908	1.853	333.275	340.540	36,849
AfrAm	244.699	1.161	242.422	246.975	53,814
Asian	287.179	3.156	280.992	293.366	12,300
OtherRace	267.100	1.856	263.463	270.737	23,158
Hispcnc	265.004	1.568	261.930	268.078	30,845
FemLessHSEdu	316.463	2.986	310.611	322.316	12,287
FemHSEdu	303.102	1.097	300.951	305.252	86,614
FemSomCollgEdu	277.918	0.901	276.152	279.684	102,159
FemCollgEdu	265.200	0.996	263.247	267.153	88,156
FemPostCollgEdu	247.076	1.592	243.956	250.196	32,178
MaleLessHSEdu	293.776	2.460	288.954	298.598	14,571
MaleHSEdu	314.075	1.318	311.492	316.657	68,960
MaleSomCollgEdu	291.140	1.022	289.136	293.143	85,771
MaleCollgEdu	268.168	1.067	266.076	270.260	79,748
MalePostColgEdu	262.419	1.583	259.315	265.522	32,223
MaleAgeL30	264.448	4.798	255.041	273.856	3,484
MaleAge30L40	276.340	1.597	273.209	279.471	33,276
MaleAge40L50	299.502	1.149	297.250	301.755	80,108
MaleAge50L65	291.894	0.930	290.072	293.716	118,731
MaleAge65plus	262.427	1.271	259.937	264.918	45,674

FemAgeL30	246.688	3.266	240.284	253.091	5,981
FemAge30L40	275.858	1.403	273.109	278.607	43,142
FemAge40L50	293.668	1.068	291.574	295.762	96,712
FemAge50L65	282.036	0.822	280.424	283.648	96,712
FemAge65plus	252.329	1.237	249.904	254.753	48,112
FemUnderEmp	283.251	0.720	281.840	284.661	181,130
ManNoEmp	281.034	1.099	278.880	283.189	71,203
ManNotFullEmp	263.584	1.928	259.805	267.363	19,857
Ssn2 / Summer	290.854	1.043	288.810	292.898	99,582
Ssn 3 / Autumn	278.248	1.029	276.232	280.263	90,535
Ssn 4 / Winter	269.579	0.942	267.733	271.425	91,224

Abbreviations explained in Table 1 and its notes.

Without regression, the high level of resolution in Table 5 tells. Male-headed households purchase more than female headed households stratified by every age group and education level, except for lowest education level. Females with less-than-high-school education and households with 5 or more members possess the highest weekly means in the table. Households over five members is a 10% increase over the mean for households with four members. This may suggest a large influence with the presence of children, a factor not analyzed here. Aside from male high school level, both gender-education sets present strictly decreasing purchase means as education rises. Purchase does not strictly increase or decrease in age for either gender. It does peak then decrease from the 40-to-50 category for both genders, also perhaps suggestive of the role of children in the household. Higher, not lower, incomes are associated with higher average means compared to other income levels. Means for the under- and un-employed are not noticeably different from the inter-level mean (of means) for any group. Seasonal results suggest that people buy more sCSDs as mean U.S. monthly temperature rises.

Descriptive statistics tables for interacted variables, both demographic-to-demographic, and marketing-variable-to-demographic, are available upon request.

Nielsen sampling is top-heavy with older, “whiter,” wealthier homes, making data thin at lower income levels, and for example in the “Other Race” category. Attempts to parse these for interaction effects, even with over 300,000 total purchase observations across over 13,500 households asks more of the data than can be answered to a high degree of significance.

With the goal of refining the information empirically derived from purchase observations to discover what variables drive patterns and deviations in demand for a food product, there is great analytical advantage in moving from data for a whole market (at the national or city level) to data at the supermarket level, and again to data at the household level. The dataset here

employed is resolute to the household level, but is still not individual-level data. It is not possible to identify who in a household or how many in a household are drinking the sCSDs we observe to be purchased. If one member in a larger household dominates demand for sCSDs, demand is averaged, despite the individual demand being the true driver, and at consumption levels above the household average. There is similarly no information about the health, body mass index, or nutrition education of household members, any of which could prove helpful in pursuing the question of interest undertaken here.

4. Methodology

In the introduction, I summarized reasons that the regular consumption of sCSDs may not reflect rational economic behavior from which a utility-based model of demand may be unambiguously derived. Reduced-form modeling (RFM) offers the implicit advantage of “letting the data speak for themselves,” without being encumbered by layers of assumptions about economic behavior and discrete, orderly, quantifiable optimization. RFM also allows for multiple specifications without violating structural theory or econometric assumptions that can bind structural models. Multiple specifications may then be employed to explore sequential questions and to establish proofs of robustness for interpretation of results. This is characteristic of econometric issues associated with RFM (Gentzkow and Shapiro: 2008; DellaVigna, et. al.: 2009; Dahl and DellaVigna: 2009; Basker: 2005; Chen and Shapiro: 2006).

The large number of zero observations for the dependent variable – total ounces purchased by a household in one week – highlights that there is a limited dependent variable (non-negative distribution). The nexus of the research question and the available data defines the interaction between the dependent variable, the explanatory variables, and the error term being modeled.

In distinguishing between the extant regression models appropriate for a limited dependent variable that is continuous and non-negative, one must determine if the data is censored or truncated. Panel data with continuous information on household purchasers ensures that there are observations for many explanatory variables even if the dependent variable is not observed. This defines a censored dependent variable versus a truncated one, truncation occurring when both dependent and explanatory variables are unobserved above or below a threshold for a latent explanatory variable. With a censored dependent variable, one must assess whether the data and research question match existing models, and if so, whether the limitations

associated with any one model are tolerable given the data, research question, and alternative models.

Given that there is no censoring of negative observations on quantity purchased, is a linear OLS an acceptable model, once corrected for heteroskedasticity in the error term? Only if there are no other specification errors that are better addressed by the set of continuous limited dependent variable models, and indeed OLS results are presented here for baseline comparison.

In his 1979 *Econometrica* article, James Heckman proposed a model to correct for bias in the selection of a data sample. There is a sample selection bias problem here, but it is subtle. For there to be sample selection bias in the selection of households, Nielsen must be contracting households that do not cumulatively define a representative cross-section of U.S. households. This conclusion is not supported by the literature (Einav and Leibtag:).

The research here attempts to distinguish different demographic groups' responses to marketing mix variables for sCSDs. A response to marketing variables is involvement in the specific market in which a decision to purchase or not is made. "Being in" or "selecting into" the market means at some level a household member actively considers purchase – "the market" being a solution to an equation consisting not only of sellers, their marketing mix variables, and buyers, but a venue (the local DMA) that exists distinctly in each period of observation for both buyers and potential sellers, here one processing period is a week. Thus each observation period (each week) is counted as a new market in which potential buyers may transact with sellers if both choose, with the local DMA being the physical space in which transactions may occur.

Modeling household market participation, I code purchase occasion as a 1, and non-purchase as a 0. The bias of selection into the observation set – the selection bias problem that modeling must attempt to resolve – becomes clearer as one realizes that a coded non-purchase "0" represents a household in a metropolitan area in a week, a household that may *or may not be* participating in the market. One type of 0 occurs for market participants, who by the definition of market participant, consider buying, but choose not to buy (e.g., find no lemon-lime flavor, so buy nothing, or find no discounts this week, so buy nothing). But there is a second type of 0 which occurs for those who never consider buying sCSDs in the observed week: non-participants in the market. This group's "0s" reflect their lack of economic presence/being/existence in the market transaction set of agents-forum-time. Because the 0s are of two types – market participants with true-zero responses to the current marketing mix, and non-market participants who are not reacting to the marketing mix in their observed behavior – there is in examining only

the observable 0s, a failure to identify the market participants who choose a no-purchase response to this period's marketing mix of variables. Market participation, even for non-purchase should be coded "1", when the data presents only a "0." This is the crux of the sample selection bias problem – we see only "0s" when we do not see purchase, without knowing whether the zeros are responses to marketing mix variables by participants in the market, or zeros characterizing lack of participation in the market.

Econometrically, with y_i^* as the latent variable for market participation, x_i the explanatory variable set, β a vector of coefficients, and an additive error term u_i , the attempt is to model:

$$y_i^* = x_i' \beta + u_i .$$

To approximate this, we use actual observations y_i , and:

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &= 1 \text{ when } y_i^* = 1 , \\ \text{and } y_i &= 0 \text{ when } y_i^* = 0. \end{aligned}$$

But we *never* observe:

$$y_i = 0 \text{ when } y_i^* = 1.$$

Observing this would fully identify consideration and rejection of marketing variables, as opposed to disengagement from the market in a given week. But there is not and will not be data to comprehensively identify who among our Nielsen households *considered* purchasing sCSDs in a sampled week. In other words, the true number of non-purchases that reflect consideration and rejection of the week's marketing variables as observable to a potential consumer cannot be unambiguously distinguished from non-purchases resulting from a household's complete inattention to the potentially observable marketing variables for the week.

Because the true rejections of the marketing variables are not observed and entered into the probit estimation of probability of participation in the market – and if they were this would expand the number of identified market participation incidents – the probability of participation is to some unknown amount estimated too low. If we expect that most people who consider buying a sCSD in fact do, than this deviation may be expected to be low. Regardless of our expectation, the undercounting of market participation translates into the secondary OLS estimation and calculation of marginal effects. Those explanatory variables that correlate more strongly with non-purchase will have slightly deflated coefficients, as a portion of the non-purchase observations (zeros) correctly belong to a market response set, rather than to the non-

participation set in which they are counted (too many zeros are factored in). Similarly, explanatory variables that correlate more strongly with purchase will have slightly inflated coefficients, as some of the non-purchase observations (zeros) correctly belonging to a market response set, rather than to the non-participation set in which they are counted, will not be factored in. The magnitude of these effects will be proportional to the extent that the “true-zero participation responses” exist and are not observed.

The implicit misspecification in modeling the response to the marketing mix defines the need to discriminate market participants from non-market participants. The Heckman two-step model establishes two equations, one assessing probability that a household selects into the market in a given observation period, and the second gauging the outcome of participation. The dependent variable in the selection equation is a probit probability variable, 1 if purchase occurred and 0 otherwise. Purchase is equated with market participation, so the dependent variable does not fully reveal the latent variable of probability of market participation (as distinct from non-participation, which also generates a 0 observation). “Exclusion restrictions” are variables that exist only on the probit side of the model, intended to explain selection into the market without necessarily explaining quantity purchase once committing to purchase.

It is easy to imagine that a highly shelf-stable product like canned or bottled sCSDs may be stocked in the homes of consumers, and that stock levels may affect likelihood to purchase. Attempting to construct a household-stock-level variable from recent purchase behavior would create an autocorrelation problem in OLS regression. As most of my variables of interest are time-invariant, the standard solutions to this problem (differencing between time periods) is not appealing. But with the two-equation framework, stocking levels can be entered on the probit side, and then are regressed only on probability, not on current quantity. As the variable does not present in both equations, it is not factored into the inverse Mills ratio, which channels information between the two equations.

Heckman two-step estimation treats the sample selection bias problem as an omitted variable problem. Because the selection equation is a probit model, it is possible to recover a standard normal distribution function evaluated at a specific observational value of the explanatory variable-coefficient matrix, and divide each respective value by the standard error of the particular normal distribution. This is the denominator of the inverse Mills ratio (IMR), with numerator being the density of the standard normal distribution function, also evaluated at a specific observational value of the explanatory variable-coefficient matrix. The IMR is then a

vector with a value for each observation. The IMR is recognized as the $\frac{\phi(g)}{\Phi(g)}$ in the equation below, where “g” represents a particular value of an explanatory variable and its parameter for an individual observation. Bringing the IMR into the OLS regression as an “omitted” regressor carries within it any effects from explanatory variables that are used in both the probit and OLS equations. Therefore the coefficients from the OLS estimation should not be used directly for inference. Because the derivative of the expected value of the dependent variable in the OLS equation among the selected sample with respect to x_i includes components from the OLS coefficients and the inserted IMR variable, marginal effects need to be calculated that include the effects from the IMR.

Marginal effects for explanatory variables shared through the OLS and probit equations are calculated as follows. In the following formula, β_k is the OLS coefficient, from which the related effects in the probit model must be subtracted. The α_k is the probit coefficient for the k^{th} explanatory variable, and the σ_u is the covariance between the error vectors from the probit and OLS equations (reported as “sigma” in Table 6). “ ρ ” is also reported in Table 6, and represents the correlation coefficient between the errors in the probit and OLS halves of the model. If ρ were 0, the Two-Part model would fully describe the data, and a Heckman model would be superfluous. With a non-zero ρ , the Two-Part model is misspecified. In the IMR, the denominator $\Phi(g)$ represents the standard normal distribution function evaluated at “g”, a particular value of an explanatory variable and its parameter for an individual observation. $\phi(g)$ represents the corresponding standard normal density function evaluated at the same point (Breen: 16). Thus $\phi(g)$ is the density corresponding to the probability $\Phi(g)$:

$$\frac{\partial E(y | z = 1)}{\partial x_i} = \beta_k - \alpha_k \rho \sigma_u \left[g \frac{\phi(g)}{\Phi(g)} - \left(\frac{\phi(g)}{\Phi(g)} \right)^2 \right].$$

Heckman’s sample selection model has been demonstrated here to be more appropriate than OLS regression, given the nature of the research question and the data. However, Heckman’s sample selection model does not solve the problem of sample selection bias discussed here. It merely represents the best way to model an existing problem of this type. To the extent that the exclusionary restrictions included in the probit equation identify a likelihood of “being in the market for sCSDs,” the model approximates a solution to the sample selection

problem, where the OLS, Tobit, or Two-Part models necessarily fail to, and each of these alternative models would yield biased and inconsistent results to some degree (Breen: 40).

Price promotion/discounting may motivate the decision to purchase, just as it may motivate quantity of purchase. In the current form, observational data at the household level only include the existence of a discounted price in a process period only if a purchase was made. As there is no direct record of discounted price existing when no purchase was made, discounting variables regressed in the probit equation on selection into the market are perfectly collinear with purchases, and cannot be included. At a later stage of this research, the existence of discounted price may be recovered from other household's purchases within the DMA for that process period.

5. Results

All coefficients (except those interacted with the advertising mix and the exclusionary restrictions in the probit equation) may be interpreted as the rate of change in household-total-ounces-purchased-in-a-week (the dependent variable "HHTotOzByPP"), due to a one-unit change in value of the explanatory variable. For all of the demographic variables, season variables, and the marketing variable "Sale," this is for a binary-value change from 0 to 1. For the price index, this unit change is in dollars per ounce. Coefficients on advertising mix and the exclusionary restrictions in the probit equation may be interpreted only to sign and significance, not magnitude in any meaningful unit.

Table 6 shows that relevant coefficients (i.e., on all un-interacted variables) are of the expected sign and significant to p-values of zero to at least the fourth decimal place. Seasons (Spring is control) are of expected relative magnitudes, largest in Summer, followed by Fall, with Winter last (but still greater than Spring). The exclusion restriction variables that are intended to define market participation are of expected sign (interpretation of magnitudes or in ounces does not apply), meaning that higher estimated household stocks of sCSDs in a given week do diminish likelihood of purchase in that week; and the more often in a year that households buy at least two liters of sCSDs during any week, the higher is their general probability of market participation as measured in the Heckman model applied here. The non-zero correlation coefficient between the Probit and OLS sides of the Heckman ($\rho=-0.3$) rules out the Two-Part model specification.

Table 6. Heckman Model Results, Variables Not Interacted

Variable / Parameter	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P > z	[95% Conf. Int.]	
Ssn2	3.750	0.197	19.050	0.000	3.364	4.136
Ssn3	2.861	0.201	14.240	0.000	2.467	3.254
Ssn4	1.713	0.211	8.100	0.000	1.299	2.128
WksHHTot>67	3.996	0.025	158.300	0.000	3.946	4.045
MovgAvgHHStock6	-0.009	0.000	-36.300	0.000	-0.010	-0.009
OLS_constant	359.086	29.510	12.170	0.000	301.248	416.924
Probit-OLS equation Heckman-generated parameters						
mills lambda	-89.748	0.958	-93.660	0.000	-91.626	-87.870
rho	-0.300					
sigma	298.852					

**Table 7. Results – Demographic-Demographic Binary Interactions
(coefficients in ounces/wk)**

Interactions	Variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95% C.I.]	
	HfPvIncFmL~d	7.673	3.856	1.99	0.047	0.116	15.230
Inc	x1PvIncFmL~d	-0.177	2.658	-0.07	0.947	-5.386	5.031
x	x2PvIncFmL~d	6.704	2.650	2.53	0.011	1.510	11.897
F Educ	x3PvIncFmL~d	8.792	2.710	3.24	0.001	3.480	14.103
(L High School)	x4PvIncFmL~d	9.573	3.011	3.18	0.001	3.672	15.473
Income Level	Hf~mHSEd*	0.463	3.235	0.14	0.886	-5.877	6.803
x	x1~mHSEd*	-7.821	1.660	-4.71	0	-11.074	-4.569
Fem Educ Level	x2~mHSEd*	-5.161	1.730	-2.98	0.003	-8.552	-1.770
(High School)	x3~mHSEd*	0.700	1.755	0.4	0.69	-2.739	4.140
	x4~mHSEd*	4.366	2.024	2.16	0.031	0.399	8.332
Income Level	HfPvIncFmS~d	-2.011	3.178	-0.63	0.527	-8.239	4.217
x	x1PvIncFmS~d	-8.314	1.623	-5.12	0	-11.495	-5.134
Fem Educ Level	x2PvIncFmS~d	-2.948	1.659	-1.78	0.076	-6.201	0.304
(Some College)	x3PvIncFmS~d	2.436	1.691	1.44	0.15	-0.878	5.750
	x4PvIncFmS~d	2.663	1.967	1.35	0.176	-1.193	6.519
Income Level	HfPvIncFmC~d	0.611	3.236	0.19	0.85	-5.731	6.953
x	x1PvIncFmC~d	2.262	1.661	1.36	0.173	-0.992	5.517
Fem Educ Level	x2PvIncFmC~d	1.394	1.663	0.84	0.402	-1.866	4.655
(College)	x3PvIncFmC~d	5.408	1.674	3.23	0.001	2.128	8.689
	x4PvIncFmC~d	7.689	1.939	3.97	0	3.890	11.489
Income Level	HfPvIncFmP~d	14.207	3.755	3.78	0	6.847	21.568
x	x2PvIncFmP~d	-1.639	1.790	-0.92	0.36	-5.148	1.870
Fem Educ Level	x3PvIncFmP~d	7.760	1.743	4.45	0	4.344	11.176
(Post College)	x4PvIncFmP~d	6.610	1.975	3.35	0.001	2.739	10.480
Income Level	HfPvIncMLH~d	22.613	6.340	3.57	0	10.187	35.039
x	x1PvIncMLH~d	15.207	3.210	4.74	0	8.915	21.499
Male Educ Level	x2PvIncMLH~d	3.813	1.954	1.95	0.051	-0.018	7.643
(L High School)	x4PvIncMLH~d	4.463	2.823	1.58	0.114	-1.069	9.996

Income Level	HfPvIncMHSEd	19.876	6.002	3.31	0.001	8.112	31.639
x	x1PvIncMHSEd	11.812	2.762	4.28	0	6.398	17.225
Male Educ Level	x2PvIncMHSEd	-1.558	1.155	-1.35	0.177	-3.821	0.705
(High School)	x3PvIncMHSEd	-0.211	1.819	-0.12	0.908	-3.776	3.355
	x4PvIncMHSEd	0.917	2.174	0.42	0.673	-3.343	5.178
Income Level	HfPvIncMSo~d	23.946	5.885	4.07	0	12.412	35.480
x	x1PvIncMSo~d	3.042	2.778	1.09	0.274	-2.403	8.486
Male Educ Level	x2PvIncMSo~d	-3.657	1.075	-3.4	0.001	-5.764	-1.551
(Some College)	x3PvIncMSo~d	-0.260	1.779	-0.15	0.884	-3.747	3.226
	x4PvIncMSo~d	1.515	2.137	0.71	0.478	-2.673	5.703
Income Level	HfPvIncMCo~d	23.842	5.997	3.98	0	12.087	35.597
x	x1PvIncMCo~d	1.684	2.754	0.61	0.541	-3.713	7.082
Male Educ Level	x2PvIncMCo~d	-0.256	1.068	-0.24	0.81	-2.349	1.836
(College)	x3PvIncMCo~d	0.827	1.778	0.47	0.642	-2.658	4.313
	x4PvIncMCo~d	4.427	2.110	2.1	0.036	0.290	8.563
Income Level	HfPvIncMPo~d	29.452	6.404	4.6	0	16.900	42.004
x	x1PvIncMPo~d	1.228	3.109	0.39	0.693	-4.866	7.323
Male Educ Level	x3PvIncMPo~d	4.147	1.862	2.23	0.026	0.498	7.796
(Post College)	x4PvIncMPo~d	4.341	2.170	2	0.045	0.088	8.594
Income Level	HfPvIncAfrAm	3.935	1.144	3.44	0.001	1.692	6.177
x	x1PvIncAfrAm	-3.601	0.903	-3.99	0	-5.371	-1.831
Race	x2PvIncAfrAm	0.000	0.769	0	1	-1.508	1.507
(African Amer.)	x3PvIncAfrAm	-2.659	0.703	-3.78	0	-4.037	-1.281
	x4PvIncAfrAm	-3.509	0.714	-4.92	0	-4.908	-2.110
Income Level	HfPvIncAsian	-21.024	4.412	-4.77	0	-29.672	-12.377
x	x1PvIncAsian	-26.014	2.218	-11.73	0	-30.361	-21.667
Race	x2PvIncAsian	-11.489	1.297	-8.86	0	-14.032	-8.946
(Asian)	x3PvIncAsian	-1.605	1.120	-1.43	0.152	-3.801	0.590
	x4PvIncAsian	-0.849	1.057	-0.8	0.422	-2.921	1.223
Income Level	HfPvIncOth~e	-3.542	1.745	-2.03	0.042	-6.962	-0.121
x	x1PvIncOth~e	-0.851	1.388	-0.61	0.54	-3.573	1.870
Race	x2PvIncOth~e	-3.626	1.008	-3.6	0	-5.601	-1.650
(Other Race)	x3PvIncOth~e	-0.333	0.939	-0.36	0.723	-2.174	1.508
	x4PvIncOth~e	-3.238	0.928	-3.49	0	-5.056	-1.419
Income Level	HfPvIncHspnc	-4.121	2.092	-1.97	0.049	-8.221	-0.020
x	x1PvIncHspnc	-6.345	1.498	-4.24	0	-9.282	-3.409
Race	x2PvIncHspnc	-0.404	1.157	-0.35	0.727	-2.672	1.864
(Hispanic)	x3PvIncHspnc	-0.506	1.096	-0.46	0.644	-2.655	1.643
	x4PvIncHspnc	1.131	1.126	1	0.315	-1.076	3.338
Income Level	HfPvIncHHs~2	-6.605	1.582	-4.17	0	-9.706	-3.503
x	x1PvIncHHs~2	-3.512	1.298	-2.71	0.007	-6.055	-0.969
HH size	x2PvIncHHs~2	-1.385	1.177	-1.18	0.239	-3.693	0.922
(2)	x3PvIncHHs~2	-1.479	1.185	-1.25	0.212	-3.802	0.843

	x4PvIncHHs~2	-5.390	1.284	-4.2	0	-7.907	-2.872
Income Level	HfPvIncHHs~3	-4.193	1.950	-2.15	0.032	-8.014	-0.371
x	x1PvIncHHs~3	-1.485	1.420	-1.05	0.296	-4.269	1.299
HH size	x2PvIncHHs~3	-4.057	1.269	-3.2	0.001	-6.545	-1.568
(3)	x3PvIncHHs~3	-5.364	1.260	-4.26	0	-7.833	-2.894
	x4PvIncHHs~3	-4.401	1.346	-3.27	0.001	-7.039	-1.763
Income Level	HfPvIncHHs~4	-5.499	2.174	-2.53	0.011	-9.760	-1.237
x	x1PvIncHHs~4	-4.675	1.614	-2.9	0.004	-7.839	-1.511
HH size	x2PvIncHHs~4	0.328	1.342	0.24	0.807	-2.302	2.958
(4)	x3PvIncHHs~4	-5.373	1.303	-4.12	0	-7.927	-2.819
	x4PvIncHHs~4	-3.332	1.382	-2.41	0.016	-6.040	-0.624
Income Level	HfPvIncHHs~s	-5.113	2.458	-2.08	0.037	-9.930	-0.296
x	x1PvIncHHs~s	1.257	1.727	0.73	0.467	-2.127	4.641
HH size	x2PvIncHHs~s	1.714	1.407	1.22	0.223	-1.043	4.471
(5 or more)	x3PvIncHHs~s	1.786	1.362	1.31	0.19	-0.884	4.456
	x4PvIncHHs~s	3.238	1.436	2.25	0.024	0.423	6.054
Income Level	x2PvIncMA~30	8.439	1.998	4.22	0	4.523	12.355
x Male Age <30	x3PvIncMA~30	0.969	2.570	0.38	0.706	-4.068	6.006
Income Level	HfPvIncMA~40	-30.832	6.077	-5.07	0	-42.743	-18.922
x	x1PvIncMA~40	-1.920	2.523	-0.76	0.447	-6.864	3.024
Male Age	x2PvIncMA~40	3.694	1.481	2.5	0.013	0.792	6.596
(30-40)	x3PvIncMA~40	4.857	2.072	2.34	0.019	0.796	8.919
	x4PvIncMA~40	-3.980	1.722	-2.31	0.021	-7.356	-0.605
Income Level	HfPvIncMA~50	-19.465	5.830	-3.34	0.001	-30.891	-8.039
x	x1PvIncMA~50	-1.241	2.555	-0.49	0.627	-6.249	3.767
Male Age	x2PvIncMA~50	5.243	1.361	3.85	0	2.575	7.911
(40-50)	x3PvIncMA~50	2.181	1.998	1.09	0.275	-1.734	6.097
	x4PvIncMA~50	-1.601	1.796	-0.89	0.373	-5.121	1.919
Income Level	HfPvIncMA~65	-29.136	5.798	-5.03	0	-40.499	-17.773
x	x1PvIncMA~65	-6.417	2.594	-2.47	0.013	-11.500	-1.334
Male Age	x2PvIncMA~65	2.944	1.332	2.21	0.027	0.332	5.555
(50-65)	x3PvIncMA~65	0.970	1.973	0.49	0.623	-2.897	4.836
	x4PvIncMA~65	0.660	1.873	0.35	0.725	-3.012	4.332
Income Level	HfPvIncMAg~s	-24.698	5.914	-4.18	0	-36.290	-13.106
x	x1PvIncMAg~s	-13.313	2.666	-4.99	0	-18.538	-8.088
Male Age	x2PvIncMAg~s	2.127	1.369	1.55	0.12	-0.557	4.811
(65+)	x3PvIncMAg~s	1.238	2.007	0.62	0.537	-2.695	5.170
	x4PvIncMAg~s	-5.714	2.002	-2.85	0.004	-9.638	-1.790
Income Level	x1PvIncFm~30	0.517	2.709	0.19	0.849	-4.792	5.826
x Fem Age <30							
Income Level	HfPvIncFm~40	2.568	2.843	0.9	0.366	-3.004	8.140
x	x1PvIncFm~40	-4.821	2.139	-2.25	0.024	-9.014	-0.629

Fem Age (30-40)	x2PvIncFm~40	4.269	1.161	3.68	0	1.993	6.545
	x3PvIncFm~40	-0.620	1.216	-0.51	0.61	-3.003	1.762
	x4PvIncFm~40	3.312	1.476	2.24	0.025	0.420	6.205
Income Level x Fem Age (40-50)	HfPvIncFm~50	5.870	2.706	2.17	0.03	0.567	11.173
	x1PvIncFm~50	-1.083	2.039	-0.53	0.595	-5.079	2.912
	x2PvIncFm~50	2.751	1.219	2.26	0.024	0.362	5.140
	x3PvIncFm~50	2.590	1.277	2.03	0.043	0.087	5.092
	x4PvIncFm~50	1.910	1.557	1.23	0.22	-1.142	4.961
Income Level x Fem Age (50-65)	HfPvIncFm~65	6.331	2.748	2.3	0.021	0.945	11.717
	x1PvIncFm~65	0.006	1.972	0	0.997	-3.859	3.872
	x2PvIncFm~65	5.970	1.318	4.53	0	3.387	8.554
	x3PvIncFm~65	1.902	1.369	1.39	0.164	-0.780	4.585
	x4PvIncFm~65	-0.054	1.638	-0.03	0.974	-3.264	3.156
Income Level x Fem Age (65+)	HfPvIncFmA~s	1.596	2.892	0.55	0.581	-4.072	7.263
	x1PvIncFmA~s	-0.305	1.999	-0.15	0.879	-4.222	3.613
	x2PvIncFmA~s	2.799	1.438	1.95	0.052	-0.019	5.617
	x3PvIncFmA~s	2.282	1.516	1.51	0.132	-0.690	5.255
	x4PvIncFmA~s	3.444	1.805	1.91	0.056	-0.095	6.983
Fem Educ Level x HH size (2)	FmLHSEdHHs~2	-4.900	2.237	-2.19	0.028	-9.284	-0.515
	FmHSEdHHsiz2	-6.377	2.571	-2.48	0.013	-11.416	-1.338
	FmSmColgEd~2	-3.104	2.565	-1.21	0.226	-8.131	1.923
	FmColgEdHH~2	0.038	2.585	0.01	0.988	-5.028	5.104
	FmPostColg~2	-1.875	2.649	-0.71	0.479	-7.068	3.318
Fem Educ Level x HH size (3)	FmLHSEdHHs~3	-8.226	2.461	-3.34	0.001	-13.049	-3.404
	FmHSEdHHsiz3	-4.627	2.684	-1.72	0.085	-9.887	0.633
	FmSmColgEd~3	-3.442	2.675	-1.29	0.198	-8.686	1.802
	FmColgEdHH~3	-2.983	2.695	-1.11	0.268	-8.265	2.300
	FmPostColg~3	-4.311	2.778	-1.55	0.121	-9.755	1.133
Fem Educ Level x HH size (4)	FmHSEdHHsiz4	2.585	1.798	1.44	0.15	-0.939	6.109
	FmSmColgEd~4	1.213	1.778	0.68	0.495	-2.273	4.699
	FmColgEdHH~4	5.118	1.806	2.83	0.005	1.578	8.657
	FmPostColg~4	1.773	1.942	0.91	0.361	-2.033	5.579
Fem Educ Level x HH size (5 or more)	FmLHSEdHHs~s	-8.305	3.286	-2.53	0.012	-14.746	-1.864
	FmHSEdHHsi~s	-18.581	3.441	-5.4	0	-25.325	-11.837
	FmSmColgEd~s	-15.296	3.427	-4.46	0	-22.012	-8.580
	FmColgEdHH~s	-10.995	3.440	-3.2	0.001	-17.736	-4.253
	FmPostColg~s	-13.980	3.562	-3.92	0	-20.962	-6.998
Male Educ Level x HH size (2)	MLHSEdHHsiz2	-0.207	3.230	-0.06	0.949	-6.538	6.124
	MHSEdHHsiz2	-3.921	2.623	-1.5	0.135	-9.061	1.219
	MSmColgEdH~2	-1.136	2.574	-0.44	0.659	-6.180	3.908
	MColgEdHHs~2	-0.134	2.563	-0.05	0.958	-5.158	4.889
	MPostColgE~2	0.720	2.651	0.27	0.786	-4.477	5.916

Male Educ Level x HH size (3)	MLHSEdHHsiz3	-3.329	3.325	-1	0.317	-9.847	3.189
	MHSEdHHsiz3	-6.132	2.653	-2.31	0.021	-11.332	-0.932
	MSmColgEdH~3	-3.956	2.604	-1.52	0.129	-9.061	1.148
	MColgEdHHs~3	-0.337	2.599	-0.13	0.897	-5.430	4.757
	MPostColgE~3	0.122	2.702	0.05	0.964	-5.173	5.417
Male Educ Level x HH size (4)	MLHSEdHHsiz4	2.820	3.417	0.83	0.409	-3.877	9.517
	MHSEdHHsiz4	-7.740	2.690	-2.88	0.004	-13.012	-2.468
	MSmColgEdH~4	-3.251	2.633	-1.23	0.217	-8.412	1.910
	MColgEdHHs~4	-2.031	2.615	-0.78	0.437	-7.157	3.095
	MPostColgE~4	0.811	2.731	0.3	0.766	-4.541	6.163
Male Educ Level x HH size (5 or more)	MLHSEdHHsi~s	-8.606	3.440	-2.5	0.012	-15.349	-1.863
	MHSEdHHsiz~s	-2.963	2.752	-1.08	0.282	-8.358	2.432
	MSmColgEdH~s	-4.237	2.704	-1.57	0.117	-9.536	1.062
	MColgEdHHs~s	-2.026	2.690	-0.75	0.451	-7.299	3.247
	MPostColgE~s	3.572	2.838	1.26	0.208	-1.991	9.135
Male Educ Level x Race (African Amer.)	MLHSEdAfrAm	-2.900	1.123	-2.58	0.01	-5.102	-0.698
	MHSEdAfrAm	-5.334	0.667	-8	0	-6.641	-4.026
	MSmColgEdA~m	-4.331	0.588	-7.36	0	-5.484	-3.178
	MColgEdAfrAm	-0.728	0.652	-1.12	0.264	-2.005	0.549
	MPostColgE~m	0.450	0.931	0.48	0.629	-1.374	2.274
Male Educ Level x Race (Asian)	MLHSEdAsian	3.726	4.251	0.88	0.381	-4.606	12.058
	MHSEdAsian	5.897	1.789	3.3	0.001	2.392	9.403
	MSmColgEdA~n	-4.121	1.479	-2.79	0.005	-7.019	-1.222
	MColgEdAsian	-7.647	1.383	-5.53	0	-10.358	-4.935
	MPostColgE~n	-3.972	1.564	-2.54	0.011	-7.038	-0.906
Male Educ Level x Race (Other Race)	MLHSEdOthR~e	4.962	1.758	2.82	0.005	1.517	8.407
	MHSEdOthRace	0.796	1.163	0.68	0.494	-1.484	3.076
	MSmColgEdO~e	0.673	1.109	0.61	0.544	-1.500	2.846
	MColgEdOth~e	0.630	1.176	0.54	0.592	-1.676	2.936
	MPostColgE~e	-1.348	1.508	-0.89	0.372	-4.304	1.609
Male Educ Level x Race (Hispanic)	MLHSEdHspnc	-2.450	1.545	-1.59	0.113	-5.478	0.578
	MHSEdHspnc	-3.267	1.079	-3.03	0.002	-5.382	-1.152
	MSmColgEdH~c	-3.095	1.042	-2.97	0.003	-5.138	-1.053
	MColgEdHspnc	-3.647	1.071	-3.41	0.001	-5.746	-1.549
	MPostColgE~c	-3.917	1.322	-2.96	0.003	-6.507	-1.327
Fem Educ Level x Race (African Amer.)	FmLHSEdAfrAm	-7.738	1.401	-5.52	0	-10.484	-4.993
	FmHSEdAfrAm	2.174	0.840	2.59	0.01	0.528	3.820
	FmSomColgE~m	1.244	0.768	1.62	0.105	-0.261	2.749
	FmColgEdAf~m	2.453	0.802	3.06	0.002	0.880	4.026
	FmPostColg~m	2.770	0.952	2.91	0.004	0.905	4.636
Fem Educ Level x Race	FmLHSEdAsian	-11.924	2.712	-4.4	0	-17.240	-6.609
	FmHSEdAsian	-22.329	1.797	-12.42	0	-25.852	-18.807
	FmSomColgE~n	-13.360	1.655	-8.07	0	-16.604	-10.116

(Asian)	FmColgEdAs~n	-13.117	1.519	-8.63	0	-16.094	-10.139
	FmPostColg~n	-11.112	1.745	-6.37	0	-14.531	-7.692
Fem Educ Level	FmLHSEdOth~e	6.149	1.787	3.44	0.001	2.647	9.651
x	FmHSEdOthR~e	-0.832	1.326	-0.63	0.53	-3.430	1.766
Race	FmSomColgE~e	-2.385	1.238	-1.93	0.054	-4.811	0.041
(Other Race)	FmColgEdOt~e	-5.478	1.263	-4.34	0	-7.955	-3.002
	FmPostColg~e	-0.209	1.687	-0.12	0.901	-3.514	3.097
Fem Educ Level	FmLHSEdHspnc	-7.033	1.671	-4.21	0	-10.308	-3.759
x	FmHSEdHspnc	0.252	1.295	0.19	0.846	-2.287	2.790
Race	FmSomColgE~c	0.308	1.258	0.24	0.807	-2.157	2.773
(Hispanic)	FmColgEdHs~c	4.135	1.294	3.2	0.001	1.599	6.672
	FmPostColg~c	-3.837	1.612	-2.38	0.017	-6.995	-0.678

Table 8. Results – Marketing-Variable-Demographic Binary Interactions
(coefficients in ounces/wk)

Interactions	Variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95% C.I.]	
	PxHalfPov	320.324	164.160	1.95	0.051	-1.416	642.064
Price-index	Px1Pov	190.513	118.140	1.61	0.107	-41.031	422.057
x	Px2Pov	-107.711	92.750	-1.16	0.246	-289.498	74.076
Income level	Px3Pov	-118.019	85.723	-1.38	0.169	-286.033	49.996
	Px4Pov	-148.223	85.273	-1.74	0.082	-315.354	18.908
P-index x HHsiz	PxHHsiz	70.759	22.183	3.19	0.001	27.282	114.236
Price-index	PxMaleLess~u	-529.433	213.030	-2.49	0.013	-946.957	-111.909
x	PxMaleHSEdu	-611.677	173.870	-3.52	0	-952.463	-270.890
Male Educ level	PxMaleSomC~u	-654.077	172.110	-3.8	0	-991.411	-316.743
	PxMaleColl~u	-798.425	175.300	-4.55	0	-1142.000	-454.851
	PxMalePost~u	-714.122	193.900	-3.68	0	-1094.160	-334.084
Price-index	PxFmUndrEmp	-128.935	59.770	-2.16	0.031	-246.081	-11.789
x	PxMnNotFEmp	609.992	112.850	5.41	0	388.806	831.178
Employment M/F	PxMnNoEmp	-359.677	78.234	-4.6	0	-513.012	-206.341
P-index x Hspnc	PxHspnc	765.674	96.552	7.93	0	576.435	954.912
P-index x M Age	PxMnAge	110.514	20.765	5.32	0	69.815	151.212
P-index x F Age	PxFmAge	-31.055	12.444	-2.5	0.013	-55.445	-6.665
Sale	SalexHalfPov	0.054	0.942	0.06	0.954	-1.791	1.900
x	Salex1Pov	-2.272	0.684	-3.32	0.001	-3.614	-0.931
Income level	Salex2Pov	0.981	0.522	1.88	0.06	-0.042	2.005
	Salex3fPov	-0.088	0.478	-0.18	0.854	-1.024	0.848
	Salex4Pov	0.592	0.481	1.23	0.219	-0.352	1.535
Sale x HHsiz	SalexHHsize	-0.935	0.128	-7.3	0	-1.186	-0.684
Sale	SalexFemLe~u	2.916	1.246	2.34	0.019	0.475	5.358

x	SalexFemHS~u	5.545	0.983	5.64	0	3.619	7.472
Fem Educ level	SalexFemSo~u	5.182	0.964	5.38	0	3.293	7.071
	SalexFemCo~u	2.752	0.955	2.88	0.004	0.880	4.624
	SalexFemPCo~u	3.793	1.044	3.63	0	1.747	5.839
Sale	SalexFmUnd~p	-0.263	0.334	-0.79	0.431	-0.918	0.392
x	SalexMnNot~p	-2.674	0.670	-3.99	0	-3.988	-1.360
Employment M/F	SalexMnNoEmp	-0.430	0.454	-0.95	0.344	-1.320	0.461
Sale	SalexAfrAm	2.801	0.428	6.55	0	1.962	3.640
x	SalexAsian	6.167	0.794	7.77	0	4.611	7.723
Race	SalexOthrRac	1.451	0.730	1.99	0.047	0.020	2.883
	SalexHspnc	-2.590	0.645	-4.02	0	-3.853	-1.326
Sale x Age (M)	SalexMnAge	0.244	0.062	3.94	0	0.123	0.366
Sale x Age (F)	SalexFmAge	0.283	0.101	2.8	0.005	0.085	0.481
Advertsg x HHsiz	AdvxHH~z	0.002	0.000	5.54	0	0.001	0.003
<i>advertising interactions not in ounces</i>							
Advertsg	AdvxAf~m	0.003	0.002	1.88	0.06	0.000	0.006
x	AdvxAs~n	0.005	0.003	1.77	0.077	-0.001	0.011
Race	AdvxOt~c	0.004	0.003	1.75	0.081	-0.001	0.009
	AdvxHs~c	-0.007	0.002	-3.39	0.001	-0.012	-0.003

The P-index-by-income-level interaction term strongly indicates that consumers of greater means secure better prices when they buy. Explanations that poorer shoppers have more transportation constraints and therefore less access to large supermarkets (relative to convenience stores) or price clubs would be consistent with this result.

Interactions of Hispanic ethnic identification first with the P-index, are of large relative magnitude and highly significant (p-val=0), meaning they buy more at higher prices. Interactions of Hispanic ethnic identification with the Sale dummy are negative and highly significant (p-val=0), meaning they do not buy more when buying at an advertised discount. Household size interacted with Price and with Sale interaction show similar results, although the magnitude of purchase in increasing price is smaller.

Both of these results may indicate purchase behaviors constrained by consistent “habitual” purchases that are relatively inflexible to short-term price increases or discounts. The unexpected negative response to advertising (at better than 1% significance) for Hispanics, when all other non-White groups have a positive response, may further support the hypothesis of purchase so habituated that directly appreciable response to marketing variables is no longer evident. As table 5 shows, self-identified Hispanics do drink much more than all other similarly-paired groups, except whites-to-Hispanic-whites, where they are just short of equal.

The interaction of P-index-by-Male-Head-of-Household-Education-level shows a strong negative quantity response to a rising price. This response strengthens as education level rises, but peaks at college education. These effects are all significant at 1.5% or better, and are consistent with the belief that men respond directly to price as a marketing variable. An inference that the need to respond to price incentives may taper off with the extra income afforded by post-graduate education would be consistent with these results. P-index-by-Female-Head-of-Household-Education-level were mixed and poor performers by statistical significance in previous specifications, and were dropped from this model (as were the interactions of Male Education levels with the Sale dummy). In contrast, the Sale-by-Female-Head-of-Household-Education-level interactions demonstrate that women at all education levels respond positively to price promotions (all at better than a 2% significance level) – discounting being female’s marketing variable of choice, versus the male’s price variable.

Marginal effects are often negative when interacting with the lowest income level, but there is a noticeable break from this in the interaction of female education and income level. There is evidence that the rising income effect dominates the offsetting effect of rising education as incomes move into the upper levels. This balances against other results that suggest that formal education level may proxy for a level of nutrition awareness that would eschew sCSD purchase.

Marginal analysis supports with constrained consistency an argument that sCSDs act as a luxury good (whose demand rises with income), but only for income rises moving out of poverty range, and again at higher incomes. In between, however, the quantity of sCSDs drops with rising income.

Previous specifications suggested that there is not enough variability in the DMA-level advertising data used in this specification to ask for higher resolution through interactions. All coefficients failed to be statistically different from zero when the advertising variable was as heavily interacted with demographic levels as Price and Sale are in this specification. This is the reason that advertising interaction was restricted to the HHsize categorical variable and Race groups only. The gains in statistical significance are obvious, with all of these five significant below the 10 % level.

5.1 naïve OLS performance versus the econometric selection model specification

As specified, most interactive variable coefficients are interpretable in ounces per week when they are statistically significant to an acceptable chosen level. Thus the magnitudes of the variables in relation to each other become informative to a degree that is no longer possible when the statistical effect approaches zero, and inference is restricted to just the sign of the variable. The OLS results were rarely significant and will only be partially included here because the argument can be effectively made using less paper. Table 9 demonstrates that the sample selection model strongly outperformed the OLS estimation by a simple count of interacted variables of interest significant at the 10% level or better.

Table 9. Comparison of OLS and Heckman Results – Incidence of Statistical Significance Across Interacted Variable Sets

Interaction Type		OLS	Heckman
Demographic- Demographic	# Out of 220	6	132
Demographic - Demographic	% Out of 220	3%	60%
Marketing- Demographic	# Out of 42	10	35
Marketing- Demographic	%Out of 42	24%	83%

OLS coefficients were routinely an order of magnitude higher than Heckman coefficients (that had been adjusted down using the marginal effects correction necessary for proper inference). The differences between variables, once adjusting for magnitude differences across the two models, seemed to track in roughly similar patterns, but only for certain blocks of interactions. The pattern of statistically insignificant variables across the level groups made statistically meaningful inference from OLS results unreliable at best, and intractable at worst. Table 10 presents the interaction block of level comparisons most statistically significant in the OLS estimation (the only one of its kind), against the same block of results from the Heckman. Both results are for the OLS equation on only positive purchases. Confidence intervals and z scores have been dropped to accommodate page width.

Table 10. Comparison of OLS and Heckman Results, Income x Race

Interaction	Variable	OLS			Heckman/ Sample Selection		
		O dy/dx	L Std. Err.	S P>z	dy/dx	Std. Err.	P>z
Income Level x Race (African Amer.)	HfPvIncAfrAm	30.751	28.020	0.272	3.935	1.144	0.001
	x1PvIncAfrAm	-18.291	22.799	0.422	-3.601	0.903	0.000
	x2PvIncAfrAm	6.513	17.750	0.714	0.000	0.769	1.000
	x3PvIncAfrAm	-16.674	16.790	0.321	-2.659	0.703	0.000
	x4PvIncAfrAm	-23.867	14.779	0.106	-3.509	0.714	0.000
Income Level x Race (Asian)	HfPvIncAsian	-158.269	63.856	0.013	-21.024	4.412	0.000
	x1PvIncAsian	-193.448	57.133	0.001	-26.014	2.218	0.000
	x2PvIncAsian	-94.540	37.680	0.012	-11.489	1.297	0.000
	x3PvIncAsian	-33.395	26.761	0.212	-1.605	1.120	0.152
	x4PvIncAsian	-24.277	25.863	0.348	-0.849	1.057	0.422
Income Level x Race (Other Race)	HfPvIncOth~e	-27.671	35.443	0.435	-3.542	1.745	0.042
	x1PvIncOth~e	-49.871	31.010	0.108	-0.851	1.388	0.540
	x2PvIncOth~e	-10.221	23.975	0.670	-3.626	1.008	0.000
	x3PvIncOth~e	-18.089	22.180	0.415	-0.333	0.939	0.723
	x4PvIncOth~e	-7.159	24.567	0.771	-3.238	0.928	0.000
Income Level x Race (Hispanic)	HfPvIncHspnc	-29.943	33.305	0.369	-4.121	2.092	0.049
	x1PvIncHspnc	-19.678	31.390	0.531	-6.345	1.498	0.000
	x2PvIncHspnc	-29.970	19.847	0.131	-0.404	1.157	0.727
	x3PvIncHspnc	-2.345	18.680	0.900	-0.506	1.096	0.644
	x4PvIncHspnc	-28.293	19.180	0.140	1.131	1.126	0.315

The sharper resolution of the interaction of category levels compared to the categories themselves (e.g., HHsiz2, HHsiz3, HHsiz4, HHzie5plus, vs. the single HHsize categorical variable) in conjunction with the relatively high degree of significance of the coefficients on interacted variables afforded by the Heckman specification – despite the demands on their ability to identify variability when interacted in so many variables – enables the analyst to inform judgment about why certain coefficients are counterintuitive in direction or magnitude, or statistically insignificant. I infer that despite predominantly negative and often statistically significant marginal effects on Asian as an interacted variable, the reason that the mean consumption is high is that Asian households are wealthier and larger than the sample population averages. Coefficients on income as a category (not parsed into levels) would be less likely to be statistically significant despite the influence of income as a determinant of purchasing behavior, because of confounding effects. Marginal effects rise, fall, and rise again, as one traverses inter-level income rises within the categories. Many specific questions about particular consumer behaviors within subgroups can be answered with solid statistical support using this data and methodology.

5.2. policy implications

Comparing OLS with selection model results suggests that proper model specification can be the difference in yielding cogent regression results, even with an asymptotically large data set.

There is evidence that levels of consumption are not exceptionally large for any one race, age group, or income level, but that mean purchase falls as formal education rises. This suggests that blanket policies for either taxation or increased education may prove more beneficial than targeting to one racial group or income level. Given the much higher means and marginal effects for lower levels of female education, and female education interacted with income level, there is nonetheless arguable support for policy focus targeting this sub-group, if a sub-group were to be targeted.

Evidence within certain demographic groups of resistance in purchase behavior to marginal changes in marketing variables is consistent with arguments that sCSD consumption may be strongly habitual for certain consumers. Given arguments from the medical literature and certain economists (see references, including Suhrcke, et. al.: 2006) on the potential risks of consistent sCSD consumption, the strength of this supporting evidence from an econometrically sound market analysis of real purchase data for a large cross-section of the American population may undergird arguments that there is a need for more direct policy approaches to address population-wide effects of poor dietary choice. Raising effective nutrition education levels may prove an effective strategy, if we believe that some of the effects of increasing general education that we see here actually reflect increased critical-thinking ability that is then applied to dietary choice. From this exploration, support for this contention is mixed.

6. Further Work

Further teasing of the existing data set may yield more variability than in the version used for this draft. This variability can then be used to identify more variables to a higher level of resolution. It is possible to recover pricing discounts that existed even when a household did not purchase in a given week. These can be culled using information from other households in the DMA-processing-period (city-week) combination (the market). This would allow the inclusion of a discount variable in the probit half of the Heckman model. The number of people in the household and the number of children 6-18 years of age can be used to more accurately scale the

household's particular exposure to the sCSD industry's television advertising in any week, relative to other households of different composition.

The revised results can be contrasted to similarly derived results for unsweetened CSDs. The future work I propose can be applied to other "junk food" food categories as well. It may also be possible to find in the nearly three years of data, that "natural experiments" were created by the introduction or repeal of taxes or bans on soft drinks at some level in some DMAs and not others.

Because reduced-form modeling does not rely on the structure of economic theory to claim causation or robustness of results, checks of the robustness of the model must be specifically constructed and tested. Dropping DMAs (cities) or classes of observations from the existing data configuration will serve to initiate this process. Running post-estimation prediction tests on the full model, and comparing them to results from subsets of the existing data configuration (say, 90% of the total) may also serve as a robustness check. Applying the same overall methodology to another "junk food" category may also serve as a robustness check.

7. Acknowledgements

I am indebted to the University of Connecticut's Food Marketing Policy Center for providing me access to the fecund data set from which I draw results, and particularly to those young professors and a PhD candidate affiliated with FMPC who have advised me insightfully, carefully, and patiently through this work: Prof. Dr. Joshua Berning, Prof. Dr. Michael Cohen, and Adam Rabinowitz. I am further indebted to my advisor Prof. Dr. Ronald Cotterill for funding and general support, and to the University of Connecticut Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics's fine advanced Ph.D. candidates, particularly Yoon Taeyeon, Deep Mukherjee, and the newly minted Dr. Alex Almeida. All errors are mine.

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