Informative Advertising: Additional Learning and Implications

by

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Abstract

Observers argue that evidence for the persuasive role of advertising comes from competitive categories where increases in advertising lead to higher average prices. Conversely, others claim that advertising serves a purely informational role. Here, higher levels of advertising lead to better-informed consumers and this should increase competition and stimulate lower prices. The objective of this study is to neither confirm nor refute either of these perspectives. It is rather to show that increases in informative advertising alone can lead to both higher or lower prices. I further show that the direction of this relationship depends on the level of differentiation between competing firms. Similar to Grossman and Shapiro (1984), I examine conditions where the differences between competing products are small. But I also examine conditions where the differences are significant. Advertising’s role is to inform consumers about individual products and higher advertising for a product means that more of the potential market knows about it. Higher advertising increases the relative importance in the market of fully informed consumers compared to partially informed consumers. This dynamic is the basis for explaining why informative advertising can either push prices up or down in a uniformly distributed spatial market.

Key Words: advertising/price competition, persuasive advertising, spatial competition, differentiation.
1 Introduction

A primary role of advertising is to generate awareness of products and to make consumers aware of how competing products are different. In many markets, differences between products mean that some products are better for some consumers than for others. This is often called horizontal differentiation. The relationship between horizontal differentiation and pricing has been examined in detail but less attention has been devoted to understanding how differentiation interacts with both advertising and pricing. One exception is the model of Grossman and Shapiro (1984) where competing firms make decisions about advertising and pricing in a market of horizontally differentiated firms. However, Grossman and Shapiro (G&S) restrict their analysis to conditions where the differences between products are relatively small.1

The objective of this note is to deepen our understanding of how horizontal differentiation interacts with advertising and pricing by extending the analysis of G&S to situations where the differences between products are stronger. The major insight is that when the level of differentiation between products is high, increases in advertising tend to drive up prices. This is the opposite of the relationship observed when the level of differentiation between products is low (as in G&S). These findings are explained first, by considering what informative advertising does in a market and second, by considering how higher overall levels of advertising affect the marketing landscape. In its simplest form, informative advertising creates awareness of products (and their attributes) so that a consumer can identify the product (if any) which best meets her needs. Higher advertising for an individual product means that a greater fraction of the potential market knows about it. But higher advertising also increases the relative importance in the market of consumers with full information compared to consumers with partial information. This dynamic provides a basis to explain the variable relationship that is observed between advertising and prices. Before presenting the analysis, I provide a brief review of the literature that examines the relationship between advertising and prices.

1Attention is restricted to situations where the benefit of consuming is greater than the price plus the maximum transportation costs that can be incurred by a consumer.
2 Literature Review

In many models, advertising is an instrument which increases either the intensity of demand (at all price levels) or the amount consumers are willing to pay for a product. Given this representation of advertising, many models predict a positive relationship between advertising and prices. First, there are models based on the idea that consumers lack information on product quality (Nelson 1974). These models predict that high quality products will have higher prices and higher levels of advertising. The idea is that the quantity of advertising (not its content) signals information to consumers about quality (Nelson 1974, Schmalensee 1978, Klein and Leffler 1981, Milgrom and Roberts 1986, Bagwell and Ramey 1994). A second set of models also predicts a positive relationship between advertising based on advertising reducing the cost of consuming a good (Ehrlich and Fisher 1982) or increasing its marginal value of consumption (Becker and Murphy 1993). In contrast to the first set of models, the content of advertising creates the positive correlation. A third set of models based on psychological theory also supports the existence of a positive relationship between advertising and prices. Experiments have shown that advertising can lead to higher brand evaluations because of familiarity and “mere exposure” (Anand, Holbrook and Stephens 1988, Heath 1990). Another argument to explain why consumers pay more for advertised products is enhancing product value by creating pleasurable associations with consuming the product (Cafferata and Tybout 1989).

The fact that consumers will pay more for products because of “familiarity” or “pleasurable associations” due to advertising is perhaps the basis for the “adverse view” of advertising. It contends that advertising persuades consumers into perceiving significant differences between products that are physically similar (Bain 1956, Galbraith 1967, Solow 1967). Comanor and Wilson (1974) argue that advertising leads consumers to pay premiums for products that are physically identical.

This view of advertising is countered by the “partial view” which asserts that advertising provides factual information to consumers about product attributes including price (Telser 1964). The “partial view” implies that advertising tends to reduce product differentiation (perhaps created by a lack of information) and leads to lower prices. Studies in a number of industries show that prices were significantly higher in states where advertising was prohibited

2 The same effect is generated in Lynch and Ariely (2000) with products that are different but without advertising, are perceived to be identical.
(Benham 1972, Cady 1976 and Steiner 1973, Milyo and Waldfogel 1999). Analytical models also show that there is an inverse relationship between advertising levels and prices when advertising provides uninformed consumers with price information (Robert and Stahl 1993 and Bester and Petrakis 1995). Grossman and Shapiro (1984) also find that when advertising makes consumers aware of products and their characteristics (including price) in a horizontally differentiated market, higher levels of advertising lead to lower prices (advertising increases the elasticity of demand and hence leads to lower prices).

The above controversy has not been resolved yet a negative correlation between advertising and pricing is common in models where price is a key element of advertising. Conversely, models of advertising that predict a positive correlation between advertising levels and pricing, generally involve messages that enhance the value of the product for consumers (by signalling higher quality for example).

My objective is not to disprove either of these views. In fact, a significant number of researchers propose dichotomous models of advertising in which both mechanisms of advertising are represented (enhancing the willingness to pay and providing better information). My objective is to show that informative advertising can lead to positive correlations between advertising and price even when the ads themselves contain pricing information. This was first demonstrated by Meurer and Stahl (1994) using discrete or non-uniform distributions of consumers. The contribution of this paper is to show that the same result can be obtained using a standard model of spatial differentiation where consumers are distributed uniformly. In addition, the model identifies the precise conditions where the relationship is reversed and a negative correlation between advertising and prices (typical of models of informative advertising) is recovered.

The analysis highlights the danger of backward induction where positive correlations between advertising and price are observed. One cannot assume that advertising enhances a consumer’s willingness to pay for a product simply because a positive relationship between advertising levels and prices is observed.

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3 The model of Boyer (1974) incorporates informative advertising (which generates awareness) and goodwill advertising which leads to increases in the “valuation” of products (see also Kotowitz and Mathewson 1979, Farris and Albion 1980, Krisnamurhti and Raj 1985).
3 The Model

The model consists of two firms that compete in a circular market with a circumference of 2. Following Salop (1979), consumers are uniformly distributed around the market. The distribution of consumers implies that consumers have a range of tastes along a single attribute: each consumer is identified by an ideal point on the attribute that corresponds to her preferred brand. To simplify the analysis, I assume that the total mass of consumers is 1.

The two firms are maximally differentiated (Firm 1 is located at the top of the market and Firm 2 is located at the bottom of the market) and each firm produces a single product at a constant marginal cost of production, $c$. The game consists of two stages. In the first stage, firms choose advertising reach ($\phi_i$) and price ($p_i$) simultaneously. Advertising reach is the fraction of the market that is exposed to Firm $i$’s advertising. In the second stage, consumers who have been exposed to advertising make purchase decisions.

An informed consumer buys at most one unit of product and places a value $v$ on her ideal product. In general, a consumer cannot obtain her ideal product. A consumer located a distance $x$ from Firm $i$ ($i = 1, 2$) obtains a surplus $v - tx - p_i$ by consuming Firm $i$’s product, where $t$ is the “preference” cost per unit distance and $p_i$ is the price charged by Firm $i$. The parameter $t$ measures the sensitivity of consumers to the attribute and thus represents the degree of differentiation in the market. Advertising is assumed to be informative and thus, has no effect on $v$ (the consumer’s willingness to pay) or $t$ (the preference cost in the market).

The only way a consumer becomes informed about a firm’s product is through its advertising. In other words, consumers do not search for or experiment with products for which they have not seen advertising. If a consumer knows about more than one product offering positive surplus, she will buy the product offering the greatest surplus. These assumptions do not preclude consumers knowing the structure of the market a priori i.e. that products are located at either end of the linear market. But information in the advertising message is needed to identify the firm that sells the product of a given specification (advertising is assumed to provide truthful information about the attributes of a particular product). The model builds on the idea that awareness (created by advertising) is a key determinant of demand for typical consumer products. Empirical work by Kwoka (1993) shows that the impact of advertising tends to be short-lived. This underlines the importance of on-going advertising
to create awareness. There is also behavioral literature which demonstrates the role of consideration sets in a consumer’s decision-making process. A key message is that awareness is critical for a product to be included in a consumer’s consideration set (Nedungadi 1990, Mitra and Lynch 1995). Moreover, Dickson and Sawyer (1990) find that the average consumer spends less than 30 seconds making most grocery shopping choices. In these situations, the awareness of brands and their key attributes is an excellent predictor of brand choice.

The cost of advertising is assumed to be $\alpha \phi_i^2$ for both firms. The convexity of the cost function reflects the fact that some consumers are harder to reach than others i.e., when a firm wishes to increase advertising reach, more of the consumers who are difficult to reach need to see the advertising so the marginal cost of advertising increases. The $\alpha$ parameter represents the relative cost of media in the market. I restrict $\alpha$ to values such that the advertising levels for both firms are less than 1.

An implication of this representation of advertising is that it creates a second dimension of consumer heterogeneity based on the information consumers have about products (the first is location around the circle). In fact, when the firms have conducted advertising at levels $\phi_1$ and $\phi_2$ respectively, there are 4 distinct groups of consumers uniformly distributed along the linear market. First, there are consumers who have seen advertising from both firms (a fraction $\phi_1 \phi_2$ of the market). Second, there are consumers who have not seen any advertising (a fraction $(1 - \phi_1)(1 - \phi_2)$ of the market). Finally, there are two groups of consumers who have seen advertising from only one of the two competing firms (given by $\phi_1(1 - \phi_2)$ and $\phi_2(1 - \phi_1)$ respectively).

The profit of each firm is a function of a) expenditures on advertising, b) the price that it charges and, c) the demand that it realizes from each of the two segments that it serves (consumers who are only informed about the focal firm $x_i$ and consumers who informed about the products of both firms $y_i$).

\[
\pi_1 = (p_1 - c)(\phi_1(1 - \phi_2)x_1 + \phi_1\phi_2y_1) - \alpha_1 \phi_1^2
\]
\[
\pi_2 = (p_2 - c)(\phi_2(1 - \phi_1)x_2 + \phi_1\phi_2y_2) - \alpha_2 \phi_2^2
\]

In the group of consumers who have only seen Firm $i$'s advertising (and not the competitor’s), demand is determined by individual rationality i.e. all consumers in the segment who obtain positive surplus from Firm $i$’s product will buy from Firm $i$. This implies that demand from this segment is $x_i = \frac{v - p_i}{t}$ except if $v - p_i > t$ in which case $x_i = 1$. The derivation of demand
from consumers who have seen advertising from both firms depends on the location of the indifferent consumer given prices $p_1$ and $p_2$. It is straightforward to show that $y_1 = \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2}$ and $y_2 = \frac{p_1 - p_2 + t}{2}$. These expressions hold except when $p_2 - p_1 > t$ or $p_1 - p_2 > t$. In these cases, Firm 1 or Firm 2 respectively captures the entire group of fully informed consumers.

Because firms make simultaneous decisions to choose advertising reach and price, the game is one of complete but imperfect information. My objective is to compare the symmetric Nash equilibria in two situations. First, I consider situations where the level of differentiation in the market ($t$) is low relative to the available surplus ($v$), i.e. $t < \frac{v-c}{2}$. This is analogous to the conditions examined by G&S where every product has the potential to provide a consumer in the market with positive surplus. I then consider the outcome when the level of differentiation in the market is stronger, i.e. where $t > \frac{v-c}{2}$. These situations are mutually exclusive and exhibit different relationships between advertising and prices.

4 The Relationship between Advertising and Prices when Differentiation is Low: $t < \frac{v-c}{2}$

The optimal price for firms is compromise between the prices that would be optimal for each of the segments created by advertising (partially and fully informed consumers). Assuming that the first order conditions for prices and advertising are satisfied, the relationship between advertising and price can be derived assuming that $v$ and $t$ are fixed. When there is an incentive to reduce price from $v - t$ (to increase demand from the group of consumers that are informed about both firms), prices less than $v - t$ are observed. Unless two conditions are satisfied (in particular a very low transportation cost $t$ and a low advertising cost parameter $\alpha$), the equilibrium is in pure advertising and price strategies. When the equilibrium entails mixed pricing strategies, the cumulative distribution function for the mixed pricing strategy is

\[ \phi \in (0, 1) \]

When $t < \frac{v-c}{2}$, it is not possible to prove uniqueness due to discontinuities in the profit functions.

When advertising levels are low ($\alpha$ is high), the equilibrium involves pure price and advertising strategies. However, the optimal price is a corner solution corresponding to the reservation price for the most distant partially informed consumer $v - t$. In this situation, the potential increase in demand from fully informed consumers is not sufficient to create an incentive for firms to reduce price from $v - t$. At higher levels of advertising, the first order conditions are satisfied at a price less than $v - t$. Generally, this leads to an internal equilibrium in pure price and advertising strategies.

6 When $\alpha > \frac{1}{8} \frac{3t^2 - 4st - s + 1}{4t} \left( \frac{5t^2 - 6st + s^2}{s^2 + t} \right) + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{5t^2 - 6st + s^2}{s^2 + t} \right) (s$ is the surplus $v - c$ created by the consumption of an ideal product), the equilibrium involves pure pricing strategies.
\[ F(p) = \frac{1}{\phi} p^{v + v\phi + t - t\phi - c\phi + p}. \] Similar to the pure price strategy equilibrium (when advertising is more expensive), the average price is strictly decreasing in the advertising reach, \( \phi \). This finding is summarized in Proposition 1. The derivations of all results are provided in the appendix.

**Proposition 1** When \( \alpha < \frac{1}{4} \), the average prices charged by firms are strictly decreasing in the level of advertising.

Proposition 1 demonstrates that a consistent negative relationship between advertising levels and price is observed when differentiation is low. This relationship is independent of whether the equilibrium pricing strategy of the firms is pure or mixed. The negative relationship between advertising levels and price is analogous to the results from the oligopolistic models of Grossman and Shapiro (1984) and Tirole (1988). As noted earlier, G&S restrict their analysis to conditions where the differentiation between firms is low.

The finding is based on how advertising affects demand for each firm’s product. Increases in advertising have a first order effect on the potential demand for each firm. The more consumers who have seen a firm’s advertising, the higher the potential demand for that firm. But advertising affects the composition as well as the extent of demand. When advertising levels are low, the vast majority of demand comes from partially informed consumers. That is, consumers who have seen one firm’s advertising are unlikely to have seen advertising from the other. Each firm is a de facto monopolist for the majority of consumers informed about its product. Thus, the optimal pricing strategy is close to the pricing strategy that would be chosen by a monopolist located in a circular market. As advertising levels increase however, a greater fraction of demand comes from consumers who are fully informed. At high advertising levels, the majority of consumers will have seen advertising from both firms. In contrast to partially informed consumers, fully informed consumers compare the attractiveness of each product (that is a function of each product’s location and price) and make decisions. As a result, the optimal price for this group of consumers is different than the optimal price for consumers who are partially informed. A key effect of increases in advertising is to make fully informed consumers relatively more important than partially informed consumers in each

\(^7\)At high levels of advertising, many consumers are fully informed and this leads to low prices. When the differentiation between firms is sufficiently low (i.e. \( t < \frac{v}{2} \)), these low prices can create an incentive for firms to defect from a pure price strategy to the reservation price for partially informed consumers. Following Shilony (1977) and Narasimhan (1988), this situation leads to mixed pricing strategies. Full details of the reasoning are provided in the appendix.
firm’s demand function. This implies that as advertising levels increase, the average price in the market shifts from being close to theoretical monopoly price towards the competitive price.

When differentiation is low, demand from partially informed consumers is completely inelastic (prices are less than the reservation price for the most distant partially informed consumer, so all partially informed consumers buy). In contrast, demand from fully informed consumers depends on price. Price affects the relative attractiveness of the two products for a fully informed consumer so demand is responsive to price changes. Because increases in advertising make demand from fully informed consumers relatively more important, advertising increases shift demand from an inelastic segment to an elastic segment. As result, each firm’s demand becomes more elastic as advertising levels increase and this leads to reductions in the average price. This reasoning applies independent of whether the pricing equilibrium is in mixed or pure strategies. We now turn to the case of high differentiation.

5 The Relationship between Advertising and Prices when Differentiation is High: \( t \in \left( \frac{v-c}{2}, \frac{2(v-c)}{3} \right) \)

In this section, I analyze conditions where the level of differentiation is higher (i.e. \( t > \frac{v-c}{2} \)).\(^8\) Because my interest is the relationship of advertising to price in competitive conditions, I restrict attention to conditions where under full information, all consumers in the market would choose to buy (i.e. \( t < \frac{2(v-c)}{3} \)). This condition is based on the requirement that a consumer located half way between the firms would buy when \( p = t + c \) (the full information competitive price).\(^9\)

To obtain the objective functions for each firm, I substitute the appropriate demand expressions into equations 1 and 2. In these conditions, \( x_i = \frac{v-p_i}{t} \) because \( v - p_i < t \). The first order conditions for price and symmetry lead to Proposition 2.

**Proposition 2** When differentiation is high, the equilibrium price is \( \frac{2(v-c) + \phi c - 2(v-2c)}{3v-4} \). Thus, prices increase in the level of advertising from a minimum of \( \frac{v+c}{2} \) to a maximum of \( t \) when

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\(^8\)These conditions pertain to categories where a consumer would buy if she were informed about the “right” product. A consumer may know of brands in the UHT milk category but until she learns about a UHT brand that tastes like regular milk, she may be unwilling to buy. Similarly, a consumer who primarily owns furniture that is stained (versus being varnished), she may not buy furniture polish until she learns about a brand of polish that is suitable for stained furniture.

\(^9\)When \( t > \frac{2(v-c)}{3} \), the firms are local monopolies under full information and do not compete with each other.
advertising equals 1.

Proposition 2 demonstrates that the relationship between advertising levels and prices is positive when differentiation is high, the inverse of the relationship observed when differentiation is low.

To explain this finding, we consider how increases in advertising affect the composition of demand. Similar to the case of low differentiation, higher advertising makes fully informed consumers relatively more important in each firm’s demand function. However, when differentiation is high, demand from both groups of consumers is sensitive to changes in price.

In this situation, demand from partially informed consumers depends on price because of individual rationality: there are partially informed consumers in the market who find the product they know about too expensive. Of course, similar to the case of low differentiation, demand from fully informed consumers also depends on prices (because fully informed consumers compare prices from both firms). Here however, demand from partially informed consumers is more sensitive to pricing than demand from fully informed consumers. In particular, the sensitivity of demand to price for partially informed consumers $\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial p_i}$ equals $\frac{1}{T}$. This is twice the sensitivity of demand from fully informed consumers $\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial p_i}$ which equals $\frac{1}{2T}$. Since demand from partially informed consumers is more sensitive to price than demand from fully informed consumers, the optimal price for partially informed consumers is lower than the optimal price for fully informed consumers. As a result, because higher advertising increases the relative importance of fully informed consumers (as a fraction of total demand), higher advertising leads to higher prices.

But why do partially informed consumers change from being completely inelastic (when differentiation is low) to being more elastic than fully informed consumers when differentiation is high? The answer to this question is fundamental to understanding why there is a reversal in the advertising-price relationship.

The reason is that when differentiation is low, all partially informed consumers buy. Thus, reductions in price do not lead to any increase in sales to partially informed consumers. However, when differentiation is high, both firms have partially informed consumers located close to the competitor who find the product too expensive. To increase demand in this segment by lowering price, all a firm needs to do is compensate a non-buying consumer

\footnote{When differentiation is high, simple calculations show that the elasticity of demand for partially informed consumers is strictly higher than the elasticity of demand for fully informed consumers. The calculations are provided in the appendix.}
for increased travel. In contrast, when a firm tries to increase demand from fully informed consumers, it is not only obliged to provide more surplus (through lower prices) to attract more consumers. It must also account for the fact that as the marginal consumer moves away from the focal firm (due to reductions in the focal firm’s price) that same consumer is also located closer to the competitor’s location. This implies that the competitor’s product becomes proportionally more attractive as the marginal consumer moves away from the focal firm. For this reason, demand from fully informed consumers is less responsive to price changes than demand from partially informed consumers.

Similar to the case of low differentiation, equilibrium pricing when differentiation is high is a compromise between the prices that would be optimal for each of the segments created by advertising activity (partially informed consumers and fully informed consumers). However, when differentiation is high, advertising shifts demand from a segment with a low optimal price (partially informed consumers) to a segment with a high optimal price. As a result, prices rise with increases in advertising.

6 Conclusion

The primary message of this analysis is that the relationship between the level of informative advertising and prices can be either negative or positive. Most models that exhibit both positive and negative relationships between advertising and prices assume that advertising has a dichotomous character (advertising informs but also increases a consumer’s willingness to pay for a product). In this model, advertising is purely informative and has no effect on a consumer’s willingness to pay.

As noted earlier there are models of informative advertising that generate both negative and positive relationships between advertising levels and pricing. However, these models depend on either a non-uniform distribution of consumers or a market with discrete segments. The primary contribution of the study is to show that positive and negative relationships can be found in a uniformly distributed market. The model builds on the analysis of G&S and demonstrates that the valence of the relationship depends on the level of differentiation in the market.

Both relationships are found because of how informative advertising affects the composition of firm demand. Independent of whether the level of differentiation between the firms is high or low, the main effect of increased advertising is to increase the importance of fully
informed consumers (who have seen advertising from both alternatives) relative to the im-
portance of partially informed consumers (who have seen advertising from only one firm).

When differentiation is low, demand from partially informed consumers is completely
inelastic. Conversely, demand from fully informed consumers depends on price (which affects
the relative attractiveness of the two products for each consumer.) As advertising increases,
demand is shifted from a completely inelastic segment to an elastic segment so prices fall.

In contrast, when differentiation is high, demand from both groups of consumers depends
on price. Here, demand from partially informed consumers is affected by prices because some
consumers find the product they know about too expensive. In fact, demand from partially
informed consumer is more responsive to changes in price than demand from fully informed
consumers. As a result, the optimal price for partially informed consumers is lower than the
optimal price for fully informed consumers. When advertising increases, demand gradually
shifts from a segment with a lower optimal price to a segment with a higher optimal price so
a positive relationship between advertising levels and prices is observed.
References


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Appendix

Proof of Proposition 1

When \( t < \frac{v-c}{2} \), the objective functions when prices are marginally less than \( v-t \) are:

\[
\pi_1 = (p_1 - c) \left( \phi_1 (1 - \phi_2) + \phi_1 \phi_2 \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} \right) - \alpha \phi_1^2 \tag{i}
\]

\[
\pi_2 = (p_2 - c) \left( \phi_2 (1 - \phi_1) + \phi_1 \phi_2 \frac{p_1 - p_2 + t}{2t} \right) - \alpha \phi_2^2 \tag{ii}
\]

The first order conditions for prices are:

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1} = \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 \left( 2t - \phi_2 p_2 - 2 \phi_2 p_1 + \phi_2 c \right) = 0 \tag{iii}
\]

when \( p_1 = p_2 = v-t \) \( \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1} = \phi_1 \frac{2v - \phi_1 v + \phi_1 c}{t} \). Therefore \( \frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1}, \frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial p_2} > 0 \) for \( \phi \) sufficiently low.

The objective functions when prices are marginally greater than \( v-t \) are:

\[
\pi_1 = (p_1 - c) \left( \phi_1 (1 - \phi_2) \frac{v - p_1}{t} + \phi_1 \phi_2 \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} \right) - \alpha \phi_1^2 \tag{v}
\]

\[
\pi_2 = (p_2 - c) \left( \phi_2 (1 - \phi_1) \frac{v - p_2}{t} + \phi_1 \phi_2 \frac{p_1 - p_2 + t}{2t} \right) - \alpha \phi_2^2 \tag{vi}
\]

The first order conditions for prices are:

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1} = \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 \frac{2v - 4p_1 - 2 \phi_2 v + 2 \phi_2 p_1 + \phi_2 p_2 + 2 c - \phi_2 c}{t} = 0 \tag{vii}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial p_2} = \frac{1}{2} \phi_2 \frac{2v - 4p_2 - 2 \phi_1 v + 2 \phi_2 p_1 + \phi_2 p_2 + 2 c - \phi_1 c}{t} = 0 \tag{viii}
\]

when \( p_1 = p_2 = v-t \) \( \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1} = -\frac{1}{2} \phi_1 \frac{2v - 4t - \phi_2 v + 2 t \phi_2 - 2 c + \phi_2 c}{t} < 0 \) for all \( t < \frac{v-c}{2} \) i.e., when \( \phi \) is low enough, \( v-t \) is the price equilibrium because \( \frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1} \bigg|_{v-t} < 0 \) and \( \frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial p_2} \bigg|_{v-t} > 0 \). At this price, the objective functions for firms are:

\[
\pi_1 = \phi_1 v - \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 v \phi_2 - \phi_1 t + \frac{1}{2} t \phi_1 \phi_2 - \phi_1 c + \frac{1}{2} c \phi_1 \phi_2 - \alpha \phi_1^2 \tag{ix}
\]

\[
\pi_2 = \phi_2 v - \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 \phi_2 - \phi_2 t + \frac{1}{2} t \phi_1 \phi_2 - \phi_2 c + \frac{1}{2} c \phi_1 \phi_2 - \alpha \phi_2^2 \tag{x}
\]

The first order conditions for advertising are:

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial \phi_1} = v - \frac{1}{2} \phi_2 v - t + \frac{1}{2} t \phi_2 - c + \frac{1}{2} \phi_2 c - 2 \alpha \phi_1 = 0 \tag{xi}
\]
\[
\frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial \phi_2} = v - \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 v - t + \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 t - c + \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 c - 2 \alpha \phi_2 = 0 \quad \text{(xii)}
\]

The solution to these conditions is: \( \phi_1 = \phi_2 = 2\frac{\sqrt{v+t+c}}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \). But \( \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial \phi} = \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 \frac{2t-\phi_1}{t} > 0 \) for a corner solution in prices. Substituting implies that \( \alpha > \frac{1}{4} \frac{v^2 - 2vt - 2tc + c^2}{t} \) for \( \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial \phi} > 0 \). Equations iii and iv are negative at a price marginally less than \( v - t \). Therefore, in a symmetric equilibrium, the prices must be less than \( v - t \). The four first order conditions are equations iii and iv and:

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial \phi_1} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 2p_1 t - p_1 \phi_2 t + p_1 \phi_2 p_2 - \phi_2 p_1^2 - 2ct + c \phi_2 t - c \phi_2 p_2 + c \phi_2 p_1 - 4 \alpha \phi_1 t \right] \quad \text{(xiii)}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial \phi_2} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[ -2p_2 t + p_2 \phi_1 t - p_2 \phi_1 p_1 + \phi_1 p_2^2 + 2ct - c \phi_1 t + c \phi_1 p_1 - c \phi_1 p_2 + 4 \alpha \phi_2 t \right] \quad \text{(xiv)}
\]

Solving symmetrically yields a pure strategy equilibrium of \( p = 2\sqrt{\alpha} t + c, \phi = \frac{2t}{2\sqrt{\alpha} t + c} \), and \( \pi = 4t^2 \frac{\alpha}{(2\sqrt{\alpha} t + c)^2} \). Because \( \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial \phi} = 4 \frac{\left( \frac{t^3}{(2\sqrt{\alpha} t + c)^2} \right)}{\alpha} > 0 \), the lower is \( \alpha \), the lower are profits. Note that \( p = \frac{2t}{\phi} - t + c \) implying that \( \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \phi} = -\frac{2t}{\phi^2} < 0 \) (the main result of Proposition 1 when the equilibrium involves pure pricing strategies).

The pure strategy equilibrium must be stable to defections by either firm to \( v - t \). The profits earned by charging \( v - t \) to partially informed consumers is \( \phi (1 - \phi) (v - t - c) - \alpha \phi^2 \). Therefore, \( 4t^2 \frac{\alpha}{(2\sqrt{\alpha} t + c)^2} \phi (1 - \phi) (v - t - c) - \alpha \phi^2 \) is necessary for a pure strategy in prices. Substituting the equilibrium value for \( \phi \) yields a cubic equation in \( \alpha \). The largest root of the equation is \( \alpha^* = \frac{8}{3} \left( \frac{4t^2 - 4(v-c)t - t\sqrt{(5t^2 - 6(v-c)l + (v-c)^2) + (v-c)^2 + (v-c)\sqrt{5t^2 - 6(v-c)l + (v-c)^2}}}{t} \right) \). When \( \alpha < \alpha^* \), firms have an incentive to defect to \( v - t \). Note that \( \alpha < \alpha^* \) that satisfies second order conditions is only possible when \( t < \frac{v-c}{2} \). When \( \alpha < \alpha^* \), the best response to a price of \( v - t \) is for the competitor to set price at \( v - 2t \) and capture demand from its partially informed consumers and all fully informed consumers. Here, each firm effectively faces demand from two discrete groups of consumers with different reservation prices. Following Shilony (1977) and Narasimhan (1988), the equilibrium is in mixed pricing strategies.

Let \( F(p) \) and \( f(p) \) be the c.d.f. and p.d.f. respectively of the mixed pricing strategy. The objective functions for each firm are:

\[
\pi_1 = (p_1 - c) \left( \phi_1 (1 - \phi_2) + \phi_1 \phi_2 \left( \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} f(p_2) \right) dp_2 + (1 - F(p_1 + t)) \right) - \alpha \phi_1^2 \quad \text{(xv)}
\]

\[
\pi_2 = (p_2 - c) \left( \phi_2 (1 - \phi_1) + \phi_2 \phi_1 \left( \int_{p_2 - t}^{p_2 + t} \frac{p_1 - p_2 + t}{2t} f(p_1) \right) dp_1 + (1 - F(p_2 + t)) \right) - \alpha \phi_2^2 \quad \text{(xvi)}
\]

For Firm 1, I take the derivative with respect to advertising:

\[
\frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial \phi_1} = (p_1 - c) \left( (1 - \phi_2) + \phi_2 \left( \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} f(p_2) \right) dp_2 + (1 - F(p_1 + t)) \right) - 2\alpha \phi_1 = 0 \quad \text{(xvii)}
\]
\[ \Rightarrow 2\alpha \phi_1 = (p_1 - c) (1 - \phi_2) + \phi_2 \left( \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} \left( \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} f(p_2) \right) dp_2 + (1 - F(p_1 + t)) \right) \]

Substituting into equation xv, I obtain:

\[ \pi_1 = 2\alpha \phi_1^2 - \alpha \phi_1^2 = \alpha \phi_1^2 \quad \text{(xviii)} \]

By the equal profit condition, \( \pi_1 \) is a constant so Firm 1 employs a pure strategy in advertising. The same reasoning applies to Firm 2’s advertising strategy.

Due to symmetry, I focus on the objective function of one firm. In equation xv, demand from consumers who are aware of both firms is \( \phi_1 \phi_2 \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} \left( \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} f(p_2) \right) dp_2 \). This can be rewritten using integration by parts. Let \( du = f(p_2) dp_2 \) and \( dw = \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} \). Then \( u = F(p_2) \) and \( dw = \frac{1}{2t} dp_2 \). Using the rule \( \int_a^b f(x) g'(x) dx = f(x) g(x) \big|_a^b - \int_a^b ft(x) g(x) dx \), I write:

\[ \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} \left( \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} f(p_2) \right) dp_2 = \left[ F(p_2) \frac{p_2 - p_1 + t}{2t} \right]_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} - \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} F(p_2) \frac{1}{2t} dp_2 \quad \text{(xix)} \]

The first term is \( \frac{F(p_1 + t)}{2} \) and the second term \( \int_{p_1 - t}^{p_1 + t} F(p_2) \frac{1}{2t} dp_2 \) can be approximated as \( \frac{1}{2t} \) multiplied by the area of a trapezoid with a base of \( 2t \) and sides of \( F(p_1 + t) \) and \( F(p_1 - t) \) respectively. Substituting I obtain:

\[ F(p_1 + t) - \frac{1}{2t} \left( \frac{2t}{2} F(p_1 + t) + F(p_1 - t) \right) = F(p_1 + t) - \frac{F(p_1 + t)}{2} - \frac{F(p_1 - t)}{2} \quad \text{(xx)} \]

which is \( \frac{F(p_1 + t) - F(p_1 - t)}{2} \), i.e. half of the consumers in that range. This allows me to approximate the objective function for Firm 1 as:

\[ \pi_1 = (p_1 - c) (1 - \phi_2) + \phi_1 \phi_2 (1 - F(p_1)) - \alpha \phi_1^2 \quad \text{(xxi)} \]

The maximum price in the mixed pricing strategy support is \( v - t \) (\( \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial p} < 0 \), when \( p < v - t \)). I assume that when this price is chosen, the firm collects negligible demand from fully informed consumers (i.e. \( F(v - t) = 0 \)). Because \( \phi_1 = \phi_2, \pi_1 = (v - t - c) (\phi - \phi_2^2) - \alpha \phi_2^2 \). Substituting into equation xxi, I obtain \( F(p) = \frac{1}{\phi} \frac{-v + v + \phi - t - \phi - c - p}{p - c} \). Therefore, \( \frac{\partial F(p)}{\partial \phi} = \frac{(v - t - p)}{(p - c) \phi^2} > 0 \). As a result, when \( \phi'' < \phi', F(\phi'') \) first-order stochastically dominates \( F(\phi') \) implying that average price under \( \phi'' \) is strictly greater. In addition, the minimum price in the support for \( F(\phi') \) is strictly less than that of \( F(\phi'') \). Straightforward calculations also imply the following equilibrium decisions for \( \alpha < \alpha^* \): \( \phi = \frac{v - t - c}{v - t - c + 2\alpha} \) and a mixed pricing strategy with c.d.f. \( F(p) = \frac{(p - c)(v - t - c) - 2\alpha(v - t - c)}{(p - c)(v - t - c) + 2\alpha} \) for \( p \in \left( \frac{2\alpha(v - t - c)}{v - t - c + 2\alpha}, v - t \right] \). Q.E.D.

**Proof of Proposition 2**

When \( t > \frac{v - c}{2} \), the objective functions for the firms are:

\[ \frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial p_1} = \frac{1}{2} \phi_1 \left( \frac{2v - 4p_1 - 2\phi_2 v + 2\phi_2 p_1 + \phi_2 p_2 + t \phi_2 + 2c - \phi_2 c}{t} \right) = 0 \quad \text{(xxii)} \]
\[
\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial p_2} = \frac{1}{2} \phi_2 \frac{2v - 4p_2 - 2\phi_1 v + 2p_2 \phi_1 + \phi_1 p_1 + \phi_1 t + 2c - \phi_1 c}{t} = 0 \tag{xxiii}
\]

As noted in the text, I assume that \(v - p_i < t\). I later show that the solution satisfies this condition. Solving equations xxii and xxiii, yields the following expressions for prices in terms of advertising levels and the exogenous parameters:

\[
p_1 = \frac{8v + 8c - 6\phi_2 v + 4t \phi_2 - 2\phi_2 c + 2\phi_2 \phi_1 - t \phi_2 \phi_1 + \phi_2 c \phi_1 - 4\phi_1 v - 4\phi_1 c}{16 - 8\phi_1 - 8\phi_2 + 3\phi_2 \phi_1} \tag{xxiv}
\]

\[
p_2 = \frac{8v - 6\phi_1 v + 4\phi_1 t + 8c - 4\phi_2 v - 2\phi_2 \phi_1 - t \phi_2 \phi_1 - 4\phi_2 c + \phi_2 c \phi_1}{16 - 8\phi_1 - 8\phi_2 + 3\phi_2 \phi_1} \tag{xxv}
\]

In the symmetric solution \(\phi_1 = \phi_2\). As a result, equations xxiv and xxv imply that \(p_1 = p_2 = \frac{2v - t \phi + \phi c - 2v - 2c}{3\phi - 4}\). Therefore, \(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \phi} = -2 \frac{v - 2v - c}{(3\phi - 4)^2} \). Because \(t > \frac{v - c}{2}\), \(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \phi} > 0\) (the inverse of the relationship when differentiation is high). Now I show that \(p > v - t\). Assume not. Since the minimum value of \(p\) occurs when \(\phi_1 = \phi_2 = 0\), I substituting to obtain \(p = \frac{v + c}{2}\). This implies that \(\frac{v + c}{2} < v - t \Rightarrow t < \frac{v - c}{2}\) which is outside the allowable zone. Q.E.D.

**Computation and Comparison of Segment Specific Elasticities when Differentiation is High**

The elasticity for segment \(z\) where \(z\) is partially informed consumers or fully informed consumers is: \(\varepsilon_z = \frac{p_i}{q_i} \frac{\partial q_i}{\partial p_i}\). In equilibrium \(p_i = \frac{2\phi v - t \phi + \phi c - 2v - 2c}{3\phi - 4}\). Also because \(q_i\) is defined as \(x_i = \frac{e - p_i}{q_i} \) (for partially informed consumers) and \(y_i = \frac{p_i - e + t}{q_i} \) (for fully informed consumers), \(\frac{\partial q_{\text{partial}}}{\partial p_i} = -\frac{1}{t}\) and \(\frac{\partial q_{\text{full}}}{\partial p_i} = -\frac{1}{t}\). Moreover, \(q_{\text{partial}} = \frac{2\phi v - t \phi + \phi c + 2c}{(3\phi - 4)t}\) and \(q_{\text{full}} = \frac{2\phi v - t \phi + \phi c - 2v - 2c}{(3\phi - 4)t}\). This implies that \(\varepsilon_{\text{partial}} = \frac{2\phi v - t \phi + \phi c - 2v - 2c}{2\phi v - t \phi + \phi c - 2v - 2c}\). This is strictly greater than 1 implying that the elasticity of partially informed consumers is higher than that of fully informed consumers. Assume not. Because both the numerator and denominator are positive \(2(v - c - 2t) > \phi(v - c - 2t)\). Because \(t > \frac{v - c}{2}\) when differentiation is high, \(v - c - 2t < 0\). Therefore \(2(v - c - 2t) > \phi(v - c - 2t) \Rightarrow \phi > 2\) which is impossible. This shows that \(|\varepsilon_{\text{partial}}| > |\varepsilon_{\text{full}}|\) for all \(\phi\).