BILLBOARD AND CINEMA ADVERTISING:

MISSED OPPORTUNITY OR SPOILED ARMS?

Steffi Frison^{a,*}

Peter De Maeyer^{b,i}

Marnik G. Dekimpe^{c,a,ii}

Christophe Croux^{a,iii}

^a KU Leuven – University of Leuven, Naamsestraat 69, 3000 Leuven, Belgium

^b Mahidol University, 69 Vipawadee Rangsit Road, Bangkok, Thailand 10400

^c Tilburg University, PO Box 90153, 5000 LE Tilburg, The Netherlands

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +32 16 323 230; fax: +32 16 326 624.

Email addresses: steffi.frison@kuleuven.be (S. Frison), peterdemaeyer@yahoo.com (P. De Maeyer), m.g.dekimpe@uvt.nl (M.G. Dekimpe), christophe.croux@kuleuven.be (C. Croux).

ⁱ Tel.: +662 206 2000; fax: +662 206 2090.

[&]quot; Tel.: +31 13 466 3423; fax: +31 13 466 8354.

ⁱⁱⁱ Tel.: +32 16 326 958; fax: +32 16 326 732.

Part of the paper was written while the third author was the Tommy Goh Visiting Professor in Entrepreneurship and Business at Singapore Management University. The authors thank GfK Belgium and the Belgian Centre for Information about Media for making the data available, and are indebted to Anirban Mukherjee, Kapil Tuli, Linda Van de Gucht and Harald van Heerde for useful comments on an earlier version of the paper.

ABSTRACT

Advertising remains one of the most popular marketing instruments, and many studies have studied its sales effectiveness. However, prior research has either looked at the total spending of a brand/firm, or has focused on the most popular media, especially TV advertising. Even though huge amounts are also spent on "smaller" media such as billboards and cinema, little is known on their effectiveness.

While many brands never use them (which could be a missed opportunity), others allocate a substantial part of their advertising budget to these media (which could represent spoiled arms in case of insufficient effectiveness). In this study, we conduct a large-scale empirical investigation, using close to seven years of monthly data on over 250 brands of consumer packaged goods, to quantify the sales elasticity of these often-neglected media.

Even though a significant long-run elasticity is found for a number of brands, we obtain a substantially lower proportion of significant effects for billboard and cinema advertising than for the more popular TV medium. Also meta-analytically, and after correcting for the brands' self-selection of media on which to spend their advertising budget, no evidence of a significant short-or long-run sales elasticity is found for these two media, while significant effects are obtained for both TV and magazine advertising. In addition, little evidence of a systematic synergy effect with the TV medium is found. Hence, from a sales response point of view, investments in billboard and cinema advertising appear to act as spoiled arms for most mature CPG brands.

Keywords: Media usage; Advertising elasticity; Billboard; Cinema advertising.

2

1. INTRODUCTION

Advertising remains one of the most important marketing-mix instruments. Total global adspend in 2012 has been estimated at nearly US\$ 500 billion, or 0.7% of the world's global GDP (Barnard 2012). At the company level, advertising represents a substantial investment as well. A recent compilation across more than 5,000 companies from 300+ industries reports an average advertising-to-sales ratio of 3.1% (AdAge 2012). Within the consumer packaged goods (CPG) sector, ratios close to 10% (food products: 9.2%) or higher (e.g., soaps and detergents: 12.1%; cosmetics: 20%) are not uncommon. In an effort to justify these expenditures, a large literature has emerged that quantifies the effectiveness of advertising in terms of its sales elasticity. Recent reviews include, among others, Allenby and Hanssens (2005) and Sethuraman, Tellis and Briesch (2011). The latter compiled a meta-analytic data set of 751 (402) short-run (long-run) advertising elasticities from 56 (38) publications, and report an average elasticity of 0.12 (0.24). Within a CPG setting, van Heerde et al. (2013) studied advertising's sales effectiveness across 150 brands in the U.K., and report average short- and long-run elasticities of 0.002 and 0.013. Srinivasan, Vanhuele and Pauwels (2010), looking at 74 brands across four categories in France, obtained values of 0.020 and 0.036, respectively.

The aforementioned numbers do not recognize, however, that different media (television, radio, magazines, newspapers, ...) can differ widely in their short- and/or long-run effectiveness. Still, that information is critical when deciding on brands' budget allocation across different media (Fisher et al. 2011). To that extent, Sethuraman et al. (2011) distinguished in their meta-analysis between studies reporting, respectively, elasticities for (i) television, (ii) print media, and (iii) an aggregation across multiple media. After accounting for a variety of other factors, they found a significantly higher long-run elasticity for print advertising than for television advertising. For

the short-run elasticity, this order was reversed. Other media were not considered separately, given the more limited number of studies that report their elasticities.

Recently, some studies have started to look at a wider variety of media. Naik and Peters (2009), for example, analyzed an advertising campaign for cars involving six media (television, magazines, newspapers, radio, internet banners and sponsored search). They found radio advertising to be most cost effective, followed by newspapers, TV and magazines. Danaher and Dagger (2013), in turn, report the short-run elasticities for ten media in the context of a blitz (one-month) media campaign by an up-market Australian department store. However, given (i) the limited number of such studies, and (ii) their rather unique character (e.g., the blitz-advertising setting in the latter study acted more like a sales-promotion tool, making potential carry-over or long-run effects less relevant), no empirical generalizations on those other media are available yet.

This is especially the case for some of the so-called "smaller" media, such as outdoor (billboard) and cinema advertising, which are typically excluded from consideration. Deleersnyder et al. (2009), for example, report across 37 countries the proportion of total advertising spent on four "key media" (p. 628), television, radio, magazines and newspapers, for which they analyze the cyclical sensitivity. However, as most other studies, they exclude (see their Table 2, footnote b) the amounts spent on cinema and outdoor media. As their share tends to be smaller, very few studies have explicitly considered the effectiveness of billboard and/or cinema advertising. Two notable exceptions are Berkowitz, Allaway and D'Souza (2001) and Naik, Peters and Raman (2008). The former analyzed one year of weekly sales, radio advertising and billboard advertising for three stores of a single regional retailer, and concluded (without reporting specific elasticities) that "radio advertising is anywhere from three to seven times (depending on

4

the store) more effective than billboard advertising" (p. 64). Naik, Peters and Raman (2008) considered a multimedia campaign for soft drinks, and reported a greater impact of TV advertising (elasticity of 0.32) relative to print (0.02), outdoor (0.06) and cinema (0.06). Again, it is hard to interpret this lower effectiveness of billboard and/or cinema advertising as an empirical regularity on the basis of just two studies, especially since the reported elasticity of TV advertising in the Naik et al. (2008) application appears to be much higher than the average value reported in the aforementioned meta-analyses, which could be attributed to their less conventional dependent variable (i.e., medium-specific advertising awareness levels rather than sales).

Against this background, our study offers new substantive and managerial insights. *Substantively*, we contribute novel empirical generalizations on the effectiveness of advertising in two media that have been largely ignored in prior research by systematically analyzing the short- and long-run advertising effectiveness of both billboard spending and cinema advertising for a wide variety of CPG brands (40+ for cinema advertising; 100+ for billboard advertising). While the proportion spent worldwide on those media (estimated at 6.6% for outdoor and 0.6% for cinema in 2012; Barnard 2012) may be smaller than for the more often studied television (40.2%) and print (27.7% for newspapers and magazines combined) media, the absolute spending levels remain very large (32.3 US\$ billion and 2.7 US\$ billion, respectively), and warrant more research attention. For the more traditional media, this paper is the first to provide empirical generalizations on sales elasticities that have been corrected for the brands' selfselection in media usage. *Managerially*, a better understanding of their relative effectiveness will help managers make better media-allocation decisions, not only managers who currently abstain from using those media, but also those who already allocate a substantial portion of their media budget to them.

2. DATA

Through GfK Benelux (monthly revenue) and the Belgian Centre for Information about Media (advertising expenditures across media), we obtained monthly sales and advertising spending information on 261 leading brands in the consumer packaged goods (CPG) market. The brands cover a wide variety of 96 categories, involving food, beverage, household-care, personal-care and pet-food products (a summary is provided in Table 1). All brands advertised at least two times during the observation period (January 2004 – August 2010) in at least one of the following six advertising media: television, radio, newspapers, magazines, billboards and cinema.¹ Sales revenues and advertising expenditures were deflated based on the relative Consumer Price Index (CPI).

--- Table 1 about here ---

As shown in Tables 2 and 3, there is considerable variability in media usage. Table 2 illustrates how the different media differ in both (i) their number of users² and (ii) their share of the total advertising budget (adspend share). In line with previous research (see, e.g., Deleersnyder et al. 2009; Sethuraman et al. 2011), TV advertising is by far the most popular medium: 231 out of the 261 brands use TV advertising, resulting in a combined spending share of 82.9%. All other media are considerably less popular. Billboard (cinema) advertising, for example, has an adspend share of only 7.2 (1.8)%, and is used by only 117 (43) brands. Among those users, the

¹ No internet spending was considered. The data collection on this medium was started two years after that on the other media, which would have reduced considerably the length of the time series.

 $^{^{2}}$ A brand is considered a user of a certain advertising medium if it uses the medium at least two times during the observation period (a similar decision rule was recently used in van Heerde et al. 2013).

corresponding adspend shares are considerably higher, however (column 4 of Table 2), and even exceed (with a share of 11.9 and 6.9%) the proportion spent on more traditional media such as radio (5.7%), newspapers (3.1%) and magazines (4.4%). Interestingly, brands differ considerably in the number of media they use, as summarized in Table 3. While 52 (20%) brands use only a single medium, other brands (18) use all six media.

--- Tables 2 and 3 about here ---

Besides sales revenues³, GfK provided information on the brands' penetration level and market share. These variables will be used to address potential sample-selection issues (we refer to the Methodology Section for details).

3. METHODOLOGY

Our modeling approach consists of two steps: (i) an analysis at the brand level to estimate the advertising elasticities for the different media used by each individual brand, and (ii) a metaanalysis to combine these results into empirical generalizations. In our first step, i.e. the brandspecific analysis, we closely follow van Heerde et al. (2013), and use an error-correction model to estimate each medium's short- and long-run advertising elasticity, while we correct for endogeneity (and allow for correlated error terms within a given product category) through a 3SLS estimation procedure. However, unlike van Heerde et al. (2013), where *all* brands made use of the (aggregated across media) advertising instrument, we are confronted with an intrinsic

³ No price information was available. However, cross-sectional differences in average price level across brands in a given category are captured through our brand-specific intercepts, as explained in the Methodology Section. Moreover, Sethuraman et al. (2011, Table 2) show in their meta-analysis on brand-level advertising elasticities that the absence of a price variable in the model has no significant impact on the resulting advertising effectiveness estimates, neither in the short run nor in the long run.

selection problem. Indeed, many brands make no use of certain advertising channels (as documented in Table 3). We explicitly account for this selection issue in our second-stage meta-analysis.

3.1 Brand-specific analysis

An error-correction model is used to estimate both the short- and long-run advertising elasticities of each medium used by each individual brand. If *i* represents the brand (i.e., $i = 1,...,B_c$) and *c* the category the brand belongs to (c = 1,...,96), the error-correction model is written as:

$$\Delta \ln \text{Revenue}_{t}^{\text{ic}} = \alpha^{\text{ic}} + \sum_{j=1}^{J^{\text{ic}}} \beta_{j}^{\text{ic}} \Delta \ln \text{Advertising}_{t}^{\text{icj}} + \beta_{J^{\text{ic}}+1}^{\text{ic}} \Delta \ln \text{Other}_{t}^{\text{ic}}$$
$$+ \phi^{\text{ic}} \left[\ln \text{Revenue}_{t-1}^{\text{ic}} - \sum_{j=1}^{J^{\text{ic}}} \gamma_{j}^{\text{ic}} \ln \text{Advertising}_{t-1}^{\text{icj}} - \gamma_{J^{\text{ic}}+1}^{\text{ic}} \ln \text{Other}_{t-1}^{\text{ic}} - \delta^{\text{ic}} \text{trend} \right] + \varepsilon_{t}^{\text{ic}}, \quad (1)$$

where J^{ic} denotes the number of media for which brand *i* from category *c* had (in line with the decision rule of van Heerde et al. 2013) at least two non-zero spending levels. The β_j^{ic} coefficients represent the short-run (same period) advertising-to-sales elasticities of TV, radio, newspaper, magazine, billboard or cinema, as $\Delta \ln Advertising_t^{icj}$ gives the first difference of the log-transformed advertising expenditures. The γ_j^{ic} parameters represent their long-run counterparts, and reflect the cumulative effect (same period + future periods) of a one-period shock to the medium at hand.⁴ $\beta_{J^{ic}+1}^{ic}$ and $\gamma_{J^{ic}+1}^{ic}$ capture the combined short-run and long-run advertising elasticity across media that were used only once in the observation period. The

⁴ This error-correction interpretation presumes stationarity of the (log) sales series, which was confirmed through the Levin, Lin and Chu (2002) panel unit-root test. A similar conclusion was obtained on the basis of brand-specific Phillips-Perron (1988) tests (detailed results are available from the first author upon request).

 φ^{ic} parameter reflects the speed of adjustment towards the underlying long-run equilibrium, and the trend variable serves as a proxy for all other variables that have gradually changed over the sample period (cf. Dekimpe and Hanssens 1995). This trend variable ranges from -1 to +1 in order to interpret the elasticities mid-observation period. An in-depth discussion of the errorcorrecting specification is provided in Fok et al. (2006). Its use is well-established in the marketing literature (see, e.g., Horváth and Fok 2013; van Heerde et al. 2007, 2013 for other applications), and is particularly suited for our research setting, as it provides direct estimates of the different media's short- and long-run elasticities, without the need to impose a common carry-over coefficient (as is often done in Koyck-type and partial-adjustment-type models involving multiple media; see Naert and Leeflang 1978, pp. 94-97). 3SLS estimation is used to account for the possible endogeneity of the $\Delta \ln \text{Advertising}_{t}^{\text{icj}}$ variables.⁵ The averaged values of the lagged log advertising expenditures from the other product classes, disaggregated across the six advertising media, serve as instruments (see van Heerde et al. 2013 or Lamey et al. 2012 for a similar practice). As we have 24 instruments (six media across four non-focal product classes) for a maximum of six endogenous variables, the model is overidentified. The model is estimated jointly across the B_c brands within a given category, allowing their error terms to be correlated.

3.2 Meta-analysis

In the second step of our analysis, we meta-analytically combine the brand-specific parameter estimates, and derive empirical generalizations on the relative effectiveness of the different

⁵ ln Advertising^{icj}_{t-1} and ln Other^{ic}_{t-1} are predetermined variables, and are thus not endogenous. We treat $\Delta \ln Other^{ic}_t$ as exogenous, as too few non-zero observations might prevent a reliable auxiliary regression estimation (Steenkamp et al. 2005).

media. Unlike van Heerde et al. (2013), however, we cannot rely on Rosenthal's method of added Zs (Rosenthal 1991). As we estimate the elasticities at a more disaggregate level (i.e. at the level of the individual medium, rather than summed across all media --- in which case all included brands are a user), and given that not all media are used by every brand, there is a potential issue of sample selection. As brands self-select which media to use, only those brands for which a medium is likely to be (more) effective may do so, and their estimates may not generalize to the other brands. As such, we have to test (and correct) for this potential self-selection bias. In addition, we need to account for the fact that (i) the elasticities are estimated quantities, and (ii) that estimates from brands within the same category may not be independent of one another.

Two meta-regressions are constructed for, respectively, the stacked short-run elasticity estimates (2a) and the stacked long-run estimates (2b) from the brand-specific analyses:

$$\beta_{m}^{ic} = \sum_{k=1}^{6} \beta_{k} D_{k}^{ic}(m) + \sum_{k=1}^{6} \rho_{k}^{SR} \lambda_{k}^{ic} D_{k}^{ic}(m) + u_{m}^{ic},$$
(2a)

$$\gamma_{m}^{ic} = \sum_{k=1}^{6} \gamma_{k} D_{k}^{ic}(m) + \sum_{k=1}^{6} \rho_{k}^{LR} \lambda_{k}^{ic} D_{k}^{ic}(m) + v_{m}^{ic}.$$
(2b)

The index *m* denotes the medium at hand (TV, radio, newspapers, magazines, billboards or cinema), with each brand contributing J^{ic} estimates. $D_k^{ic}(m)$ is an indicator variable, taking on the value 1 when k = m. As such, β_k and γ_k provide the expected (short- and long-run) effectiveness of the media.

However, their estimates may not represent the expected short- and long-run advertising elasticities for a randomly-selected CPG brand because of the aforementioned self-selection into the sample. In fact, they would only pertain to those brands that actually use the medium. To correct our meta-analytic results for this potential selection bias, we include the λ_k^{ic} variables resulting from Heckman's two-stage method (Greene 2000). For each of the six media, a probit model is estimated to quantify the probability that the medium is used by brands with certain characteristics:

$$\Pr(s_{m}^{ic} = 1 \mid z_{m}^{ic}) = \Phi(z_{m}^{ic} \xi_{m}).$$
(3)

The dummy variable s_m^{ic} is a selection indicator, which takes on the value 1 when brand *i* from CPG category *c* is a user of medium *m*. z_m^{ic} is a 1 x 12 vector of variables that might have explanatory power over the decision whether or not a brand is a user of a given medium. This vector includes (i) an intercept, (ii) four product-class dummies indicating whether or not the brand is a beverage, food, personal-care or household-care brand (with pet food as reference category), (iii) the average values of the log advertising expenditures for each of the five other media, (iv) the average market share of the brand during the observation period, and (v) its average penetration level.⁶ Using the fitted values of this probit model, the corresponding inverse Mills ratio is derived as:

$$\widehat{\lambda}_{m}^{ic} = \frac{\phi(z_{m}^{ic}\widehat{s}_{m})}{\Phi(z_{m}^{ic}\widehat{s}_{m})}, \tag{4}$$

which is added to the meta-regression (2) as an additional explanatory variable.

When estimating (2), one needs to account for the fact that the dependent variables β_m^{ic} and γ_m^{ic} are estimated quantities, as are the inverse Mills ratios. Moreover, the error terms corresponding to brands from the same category may not be independent of one another. To

⁶ All six probit models resulted in a high hit rate (ranging between 71 and 89%), which was substantially higher than the number expected by chance (Morrison 1969). Detailed results on this step are available from the first author upon request.

accommodate the first issue (estimated dependent variables), we use weighted least squares (WLS) to obtain parameter estimates in the meta-regressions. The weights are set to equal the inverse of the standard errors of the β_j^{ic} and γ_j^{ic} estimates from the 3SLS estimation (see Saxonhouse, 1976 for a formal motivation, or Nijs, Srinivasan and Pauwels 2007 for another marketing application). To address the two other issues (estimated explanatory variables and correlated error terms), the standard errors for the meta-analytic parameters are derived by means of a bootstrap procedure, where we also account for clustered error terms between brands of the same product category (Field and Welsh 2007).

4. RESULTS

4.1 Brand-specific findings

Table 4 summarizes the individual-level elasticity estimates. For seven brands, preliminary single-equation estimations of the sales equation resulted in a variance inflation factor (VIF) in excess of 10, indicating serious multicollinearity issues (Hair et al. 1995). We omit these brands when reporting the proportion of significant effects (and from our subsequent meta-analysis).⁷ Focusing on the long-run parameter estimates for the remaining 254 brands, we find that 141 (18.7%) of the 755 estimated advertising elasticities are positive and significant (p < 0.10, one-sided). This proportion is comparable to the one obtained in other CPG-based studies (see, e.g., van Heerde et al. 2013 for the U.K., and Steenkamp et al. 2005 for the Netherlands). Interestingly, the proportion of significant estimates for TV (28%) is significantly higher (p < 0.05) than for the other media, offering a first justification for its more frequent use. Still, even for that medium, no significant effect is found for a substantial number of brands, in line with

⁷ We do so because the resulting inflation of the standard errors would render the estimation results too imprecise.

earlier findings (see, e.g., Lodish et al. 1995; Allenby and Hanssens 2005) that advertising for mature products often fails to induce significant sales increases. Moreover, a large number of brands (143 or 56.3%) does not obtain a significant effect with any medium, and only 26 brands (out of the 202 that use at least two media) have a significant long-run elasticity for more than one (with a maximum of three) medium. This again suggests that, at least from a sales-response perspective, advertising spending can often be perceived, in the terminology of Leeflang and Wittink (1996) and Steenkamp et al. (2005), as spoiled arms.

--- Table 4 about here ---

Considering our two focal media, billboards (12.9%) and cinema (15.0%), their proportion of significant effects is not significantly lower (p > 0.10) than for the more traditional radio (18.4%), newspaper (12.8%) and magazine (15.5%) media. These numbers exceed (albeit only marginally) the percentage that would be expected by chance (10%), but are (as indicated before), significantly smaller than the proportion obtained for TV advertising.

Only 26 of the 202 brands that actively use more than one medium obtain a significant long-run elasticity for multiple media. This raises serious concerns about the optimality of the allocation rules used by many brands. Indeed, almost all brands allocate resources to one or more non-effective (from a sales response point of view) media. For only 11 of these 26 brands, one of the significant long-run elasticities involved billboard (8) and/or cinema advertising (4). Comparing the relative share allocated to these media (e.g. spending on billboard relative to the spending on other "effective" media) with the (near-optimal) allocation heuristic developed in Fisher et al. $(2011)^8$, we note (i) that among the eight billboard users, five brands are "on target". They

⁸ According to this heuristic, this proportion should be equal to the ratio between that medium's own long-run elasticity and the sum of all the significant long-run elasticities.

allocate a relative adspend share to billboard advertising (relative referring to the shares allocated to the other significant media) that lies within the 90% confidence interval for the near-optimum. The other brands significantly under-spend on this type of advertising, with an average deficit in relative budget share of 39.6 percentage points. For cinema advertising, the results on adspend share allocation are not as conclusive (one brand is on target, while one (two) brand significantly overspends (underspend) on cinema advertising).

4.2 Meta-analytic findings

One could argue that the rather bleak picture on advertising's effectiveness may be attributed to the low power of the statistical tests, as "only" 80 observations are available for each brand. To increase the power of our inference, we meta-analytically combine the evidence across all brands that use a particular medium (see, e.g., Deleersnyder et al. 2004, 2009; Lamey et al. 2012; van Heerde et al. 2013 for a similar reasoning). In both the short- (television, radio and newspapers) and the long-run (television, newspapers, billboards) equation, several of the ρ estimates are significant (p < 0.10, one sided), indicating the need to control for self-selection. This was also confirmed when looking at the combined evidence across the six ρ parameters by means of the Strube (1985) test (see Deleersnyder et al. 2004 for a marketing application), which was highly significant in both instances (one-sided p = 0.005 and 0.013 for Equations (2a) and (2b), respectively).

The resulting elasticity estimates are summarized in Table 5. In both the short and long run, the overall advertising elasticity is only significant for TV and magazines. In other words, for a random CPG brand, TV and magazines are the only media that are able to significantly affect the brands' sales revenues, with television the most effective (p < 0.001) of the two. For the other

14

media, including billboards and cinema, no meta-analytical evidence of their effectiveness is found (short-run *p*-values of 0.152 (billboards) and 0.317 (cinema); long-run *p*-values of 0.451 and 0.148, respectively).

Comparing the meta-analytic results *with* and *without* correction for self-selection, we find that in the latter case, the estimate for the long-run TV elasticity is biased upwards (0.0070 versus 0.0043). Moreover, for the other media, a significant long-run effectiveness is also found for radio advertising and billboard advertising (in terms of short-run effectiveness, three additional effects become significant, i.e. radio, newspapers and billboards). Hence, not accounting for the fact that the observed set of users of a given medium may not be fully random leads one to seriously over-estimate its effectiveness.

--- Table 5 about here ---

4.3 How about synergy effects?

Even in the absence of significant "own" effects, allocating a portion of one's advertising budget to a certain medium may be justified when it enhances the effectiveness of another medium (Naik and Raman 2003; Naik 2007, p. 44). To this end, we investigate to what extent billboard and cinema advertising have a synergistic effect with television, the most frequently used (Table 2) and most effective (Tables 4 and 5) medium.

Specifically, we augmented Equation (1) with an interaction term between both media, both in the short-run (i.e. between the first difference terms) and the long-run (i.e. between the lagged level terms) part. 70 brands were a joint user of both TV and billboard (i.e. had at least two joint spending occurrences), of which 41 had a VIF value smaller than 10 after the inclusion of the relevant interaction terms. Of these 41 brands, 3 (6) experienced a significantly positive (p <

0.10, one-sided) short-run (long-run) synergy effect from this joint spending (to correct for potential self-selection, we estimated, in a similar spirit as before, a probit model on an indicator variable taking the value of 1 if the brand was a user of both media, and zero otherwise, to derive the corresponding inverse Mills ratio), a proportion not exceeding what could be expected by chance. Also meta-analytically, no significant synergy effect was found in the short nor long run (p > 0.10). As for cinema advertising, only 16 brands passed both criteria (at least two joint occurrences, and no evidence of serious multicollinearity). In this case, only 2 (0) brands experience a significant long-run (short-run) synergy effect. Across the 16 brands, no significant meta-analytical effect was found (p > 0.10). Hence, little evidence is found in support of the synergy claim that is often raised (see, e.g., Bhargava and Donthu 1999, p. 8; Ewing, du Plessis and Foster 2001, p. 78) to motivate a more extensive use of these smaller media.

5. CONCLUSION

Even though numerous studies have quantified the sales effectiveness of advertising spending, most have either focused on *aggregated* spending (i.e. summed across media), or on the most popular (*television*) medium (e.g., Sethuraman et al. 2011). In this study, we provide some new empirical generalizations on the relative effectiveness of less-frequently used, and definitely much less studied, media such as billboard and cinema advertising. Importantly, we show the need to correct for self-selection when making inferences, not only on the effectiveness of these smaller media, but also on the more traditional media.

Using a rich data set on over 250 popular CPG brands, we find very little evidence in support of their sales effectiveness: (i) a significant short- and/or long-run elasticity is found for only a small fraction (16.4 and 12.9% for billboards; 7.5 and 15.0% for cinema advertising) of brands,

16

and (ii) also meta-analytically, no significant positive effect (p > 0.10) was obtained. Moreover, no evidence of synergy effects with the most popular and most effective medium (TV) was found --- precluding another justification for their use.

These results may sound discouraging. Indeed, both managers and academics prefer significant results with large effect sizes. However, as emphasized in Hubbard and Armstrong (1992) and Sawyer and Peter (1993), there is clear value in the identification of a null result, especially when this result is confirmed meta-analytically across multiple replications. Moreover, it is important to realize that our results (both in terms of the proportion of significant effects and in terms of the average effect size) are in line with many of the earlier findings on advertising's limited sales effectiveness in mature CPG categories (e.g., van Heerde et al. 2013; Srinivasan et al. 2010). While this could be interpreted as evidence that advertising spending in general, and in the smaller billboard and cinema media in particular, reflects spoiled arms in those markets, sales response is just one consideration in managers' allocation decisions. Advertising (also in those smaller media) may well have other benefits, such as a reduced vulnerability to competitive actions (van Heerde et al. 2007), a lower sensitivity to cyclical fluctuations (Deleersnyder et al. 2009), a lower private-label growth (Lamey et al. 2012), or an enhanced visibility to financial stakeholders (Joshi and Hanssens 2010), to name just a few (see also Allenby and Hanssens 2005 or Dekimpe and Hanssens 2011 for a similar reasoning). More research is needed to quantify the differential effectiveness of different media on those alternative response metrics.

Also within the sales-responsiveness domain, multiple avenues for future research remain. Foremost, and in spite of their lower overall effectiveness, significant billboard or cinema effects are obtained for certain brands. Indeed, 20.7% (17.5%) of the users obtained either a significant short- or long-run response from their investments in billboard (cinema) advertising. In several instances, this effect was even larger than for any of the other media used by the brand. Hence, more research is warranted not only to identify for what brands, categories and/or market conditions the occurrence of such positive effects becomes more likely, but also to identify what creative (more qualitative) aspects of the campaign make a significant main and/or synergy effect for a particular medium more pronounced. Second, we focused on established brands in mature CPG categories. More research is needed whether stronger effects for billboard and/or cinema advertising are found for newer brands, or with non-CPG categories.

REFERENCES

AdAge (2012). Advertising to sales ratios by industry. Posted June 28, 2012. Available at http://adage.com/article/datacenter-advertising-spending/advertising-sales-ratios-industry/ 106575/.

Allenby, Greg, & Hanssens, Dominique M. (2005). Advertising response. *Marketing Science Institute, Special Report*, (05-200), 8.

Barnard, Jonathan (2012). ZenithOptimedia forecasts 4.1% growth in global adspend in 2013. Posted December 3, 2012. Available at http://www.zenithoptimedia.com/zenith/zenithoptimedia-forecasts-4-1-growth-in-global-adspend-in-2013/.

Berkowitz, David, Allaway, Arthur, & D'Souza, Giles (2001). The impact of differential lag effects on the allocation of advertising budgets across media. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *41*(2), 27-38.

Bhargava, Mukesh, & Donthu, Naveen (1999). Sales response to outdoor advertising. *Canadian Journal of Marketing Research*, *12*(1), 87-97.

Danaher, Peter J., & Dagger, Tracey S. (2013). Comparing the relative effectiveness of advertising channels: A case study of a multimedia blitz campaign. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *50*(4), 517-534.

Dekimpe, Marnik G., & Hanssens, Dominique M. (1995). Empirical generalizations about market evolution and stationarity. *Marketing Science*, *14*(3), G109-G121.

Dekimpe, Marnik G., & Hanssens, Dominique M. (2011). The hidden powers of advertising investments. *Liber Amicorum of Peter Leeflang*, 209-223.

Deleersnyder, Barbara, Dekimpe, Marnik G., Sarvary, Miklos, & Parker, Philip M. (2004). Weathering tight economic times: The sales evolution of consumer durables over the business cycle. *Quantitative Marketing and Economics*, 2(4), 347-383.

Deleersnyder, Barbara, Dekimpe, Marnik G., Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict E.M., & Leeflang, Peter S.H. (2009). The role of national culture in advertising's sensitivity to business cycles: An investigation across continents. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *46*(5), 623-636.

Ewing, Michael T., du Plessis, Erik, & Foster, Charles (2001). Cinema advertising re-considered. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *41*(1), 78-85.

Field, Chris A., & Welsh, Alan H. (2007). Bootstrapping clustered data. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Statistical Methodology)*, 69(3), 369-390.

Fisher, Marc, Albers, Sönke, Wagner, Niks, & Frie, Monica (2011). Dynamic marketing budget allocation across countries, products, and marketing activities. *Marketing Science*, *30*(4), 568-585.

Fok, Dennis, Horváth, Csilla, Paap, Richard, & Franses, Philip H. (2006). A hierarchical Bayes error-correction model to explain dynamic effects of price changes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *43*(3), 443-462.

Greene, William H. (2000). Econometric analysis, New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Hair, Joseph F. Jr., Anderson, Rolph E., Tatham, Ronald L., & Black, William C. (1995).*Multivariate data analysis*, New York: Macmillan.

Horváth, Csilla, & Fok, Dennis (2013). Moderating factors of immediate, gross, and net crossbrand effects of price promotions. *Marketing Science*, *32*(1), 127-152. Hubbard, Raymond, & Armstrong, Scott (1992). Are null results becoming an endangered species in marketing? *Marketing Letters*, *3*(2), 127-136.

Joshi, Amit, & Hanssens, Dominique M. (2010). The direct and indirect effects of advertising spending on firm value. *Journal of Marketing*, *74*(1), 20-33.

Lamey, Lien, Deleersnyder, Barbara, Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict E.M., & Dekimpe, Marnik G. (2012). The effect of business-cycle fluctuations on private-label share: What has marketing conduct got to do with it? *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(1), 1-19.

Leeflang, Peter S.H., & Wittink, Dick R. (1996). Competitive reaction versus consumer response: Do managers overreact? *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *13*(2), 103-119.

Levin, Andrew, Lin, Chien-Fu, & Chu, Chia-Shang J. (2002). Unit root tests in panel data: Asymptotic and finite-sample properties. *Journal of Econometrics*, *108*(1), 1-24.

Lodish, Leonard M., Abraham, Magid, Kalmenson, Stuart, Livelsberger, Jeanne, Lubetkin, Beth, Richardson, Bruce & Stevens, Mary Ellen (1995). How TV advertising works: A meta-analysis of 389 real world split cable TV advertising experiments. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *32*(2), 125–139.

Morrison, Donald G. (1969). On the interpretation of discriminant analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *6*(2), 156-163.

Naert, Philippe A., & Leeflang, Peter S.H. (1978). *Building implementable marketing models*, New York City: Springer. Naik, Prasad A. (2007). Integrated marketing communications: Provenance, practice and principles. In Gerard J. Tellis, & Tim Ambler (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Advertising* (pp. 35-53). London: Sage Publications.

Naik, Prasad A., & Peters, Kay (2009). A hierarchical marketing communications model of online and offline media synergies. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *23*(4), 288-299.

Naik, Prasad A., Peters, Kay, & Raman, Kaylan (2008). Heterogeneous response functions in advertising. *Arbeitspapiere des Lehrstuhls für Innovation, Neue Medien und Marketing*.

Naik, Prasad A., & Raman, Kaylan (2003). Understanding the impact of synergy in multimedia communications. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *40*(4), 375-388.

Nijs, Vincent R., Srinivasan, Shuba, & Pauwels, Koen (2007). Retail-price drivers and retailer profits. *Marketing Science*, *26*(4), 473-487.

Phillips, Peter C.B., & Perron, Pierre (1988). Testing for a unit root in time series regression. *Biometrika*, 75(2), 335-46.

Rosenthal, Robert (1991). *Meta-analytic procedures for social research*, Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Sawyer, Alan G., & Peter, J. Paul (1983). The significance of statistical significance tests in marketing research. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20(2), 122-133.

Saxonhouse, Gary R. (1976). Estimated parameters as dependent variables. *The American Economic Review*, *66*(1), 178-183.

Sethuraman, Raj, Tellis, Gerard J., & Briesch, Richard A. (2011). How well does advertising work? Generalizations from meta-analysis of brand advertising elasticities. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *48*(3), 457-471.

Srinivasan, Shuba, Vanhuele, Marc, & Pauwels, Koen (2010). Mind-set metrics in market response models: An integrative approach. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *47*(4), 672-684.

Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict E.M., Nijs, Vincent R., Hanssens, Dominique M., & Dekimpe, MarnikG. (2005). Competitive reactions to advertising and promotion attacks. *Marketing Science*, 24(1), 35-54.

Strube, Michael J. (1985). Combining and comparing significance levels from nonindependent hypothesis tests. *Psychological Bulletin*, 97(2), 334-341.

Van Heerde, Harald J., Gijsenberg, Maarten J., Dekimpe, Marnik G., & Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict E.M. (2013). Price and advertising effectiveness over the business cycle. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *50*(2), 177-193.

Van Heerde, Harald J., Helsen, Kristiaan, & Dekimpe, Marnik G. (2007). The impact of a product-harm crisis on marketing effectiveness. *Marketing Science*, *26*(2), 230-245.

Product class	Number of	Examples of	Examples of included brands	
Product class	categories / brands	included categories		
Food	55 / 132	Biscuits and cookies	Delacre	
		Canned vegetables	Bonduelle	
		Yoghurt	Danone	
Beverages	16 / 50	Beers	Stella Artois	
		Carbonated soft drinks	Fanta	
		Mineral water	Evian	
Household care	13 / 40	Air refreshing products	Febreze	
		General cleaners	Mr. Propre	
		Fabrics cleaning	Dash	
Personal care	10 / 31	Deodorants	Axe	
		Depilatory & shaving	Gillette	
		Haircare	Head & Shoulders	
Pet food	2 / 8	Dog & cat food	Sheba	
		Other pet food	Vitakraft	
Total	96 / 261			

Table 1: Data Coverage

Table 2: Media Usage

Medium	Adspend share	Number	Adspend share
	sample-wide	of users	among users
TV	82.9%	231	83.6%
Radio	2.6%	81	5.7%
Newspaper	1.9%	123	3.1%
Magazine	3.6%	185	4.4%
Billboard	7.2%	117	11.9%
Cinema	1.8%	43	6.9%

Number of media used	Number of brands		
1	52		
2	57		
3	60		
4	44		
5	30		
6	18		
Total	261		

Table 3: Number of Media Used

		-Specific Findings Share of significant ^(a)	Share of significant ^(a)		
Medium	Number of users	positive short-run	positive long-run		
		elasticities (β_j^{ic})	elasticities (γ_j^{ic})		
TV	225	19.6%	28.0%		
Radio	76	14.5%	18.4%		
Newspaper	117	12.0%	12.8%		
Magazine	181	9.9%	15.5%		
Billboard	116	16.4%	12.9%		
Cinema	40	7.5%	15.0%		

T-hl. A. D. J. C.

(a) One-sided, 10 % level.

		Without self-selection correction			With self-selection correction				
		Short-run elasticity (β_k)		Long-run elasticity (γ_k)		Short-run elasticity (β_k)		Long-run elasticity (γ_k)	
	Number of contributing brands	Estimate ^(a)	One-sided p-value	Estimate ^(a)	One-sided p-value	Estimate ^(a)	One-sided p-value	Estimate ^(a)	One-sided p-value
TV	225	0.0037	0.000	0.0070	0.000	0.0026	0.002	0.0043	0.000
Radio	76	0.0042	0.002	0.0045	0.019	-0.0001	0.513	0.0024	0.249
Newspaper	117	0.0028	0.034	0.0009	0.356	0.0006	0.372	-0.0022	0.759
Magazine	181	0.0033	0.002	0.0042	0.000	0.0024	0.040	0.0041	0.002
Billboard	116	0.0027	0.020	0.0037	0.049	0.0017	0.152	0.0004	0.451
Cinema	40	0.0017	0.269	0.0017	0.245	0.0028	0.317	0.0059	0.148

Table 5: Meta-Analytic Findings

(a) Effects significant at p < 0.10 are put in bold.