

Directorate of Distance Education

**UNIVERSITY OF JAMMU
JAMMU**



**SELF LEARNING MATERIAL
OF
MARKETING MANAGEMENT
For the examination to be held in 2020 onwards**

**M.Com - II Semester
Course No. : M.Com-E 216**

**Unit : I - IV
Lesson No. 1-20**

Course Co-ordinator
Prof. Sandeep Kour Tandon
*Room No. 111, First Floor,
Directorate of Distance Education,
University of Jammu, Jammu.*

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MARKETING MANAGEMENT

Lesson Writers :

Dr. Komal Nagar

Asst. Professor, The Business School,
University of Jammu

Dr. Jyoti Sharma

Asst. Professor, Kathua Campus,
University of Jammu

Edited by :

Dr. Rupa Mahajan

Teacher Incharge M.Com.
Room No. 205, IInd Floor, DDE,
University of Jammu

Written & Review by :

Dr. Harleen Kour

Asst. Professor,
Deptt. of Commerce,
University of Jammu
(L. No. : 4, 5, 7, 8, 12, 15, 16, 20)

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**SYLLABUS
MARKETING MANAGEMENT**

Course: M. Com-E 216

Max Marks : 100 Marks

Time Allowed: 3 hours

External Marks : 80 Marks

OBJECTIVE:

Internal Marks : 20 Marks

To acquaint the students with the basics of marketing and equip them with marketing skills for decision in making in an organization.

Page No.

UNIT- I : MARKETING & MARKETING ENVIRONMENT 5-114

Introduction of marketing - Concept, scope and importance of marketing; Key customer markets; Concepts/ Philosophies of marketing; Marketing tasks; Marketing mix; Marketing environment; Techniques of environmental scanning; Marketing information systems; Marketing strategy and organizations for Indian markets; Connecting with customer - Creating customer value, satisfaction and loyalty.

UNIT-II : CONSUMERS, MARKETS & MARKET POSITIONING 115-272

Analyzing markets - Factors influencing consumer behaviour: Buying decision process; Post - purchase behaviour; Analyzing Business Markets - Organizational buying, buying situations, systems buying & selling, participants in the business buying process; Purchasing / procurement process stage in the buying process; Market segmentation- Levels of market segmentation,

segmenting consumer markets, segmenting business markets;
Michael Porter's Five Force Model: Analyzing competitors:
Strategies for Market leaders; Targeting and positioning.

UNIT- III: PRODUCT & PRICE - MIX DECISIONS**273-433**

Product decisions - Product characteristics, classification, differentiation, packaging & labeling; Product Life Cycle: New Product development - Market testing, commercialization, challenges in new product development; Pricing strategies- Understanding pricing, setting the price, initiating and responding to price changes, reactions and responding to competitor's price changes; Contemporary topics :- Green marketing; Blue marketing; Event marketing; Network marketing; Direct marketing.

UNIT- IV: PLACE & PROMOTION MIX DECISIONS**434-544**

Marketing channels - Channel development, value network, types of marketing channels, role of marketing channels, identifying major channel alternatives, channel decisions; Retailing - Types of retailers, trends in retailing; Wholesaling- The growth and types of wholesaling. Wholesaler marketing decision, trends in wholesaling; Marketing communication - The role of marketing communications, communications mix; Advertising: Sales promotion; Public Relations and Publicity; Events and Experiences; Personal selling; contemporary topics - Global marketing; Niche marketing; Social marketing; viral marketing.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. P. Kotler and K. J. Keller, Marketing Management: A South Asian perspective, Prentice Hall India.
2. V.S. Ramaswamy, & S. Namakumar; Marketing Management, Planning Implementation and Control, Macmillan.
3. Britt and Boyd (ed), Marketing Management and Administrative Action, Tata McGraw Hill.
4. T. K. Panda, Marketing Management : Text and cases, Excel Books.
5. P. Kotler and Armstrong, Principles of Marketing, Prentice Hall India.
6. Douglas, K Hoffman, et al., Marketing, Best Practices, Thoms South-Western.
7. R. Saxena, Marketing Management, Tata McGraw Hill.

NOTE FOR PAPER SETTING

The paper consist of two sections. Each section will cover the whole of the syllabus without repeating the questions in the entire paper.

Section A: It will consist of eight short answer questions, selecting, two from each unit. A candidate has to attempt any six questions. Answer to each question shall be within 200 words. Each question carries four marks and total weightage to this section shall be 24 marks.

Section B : It will consist of six essay type questions will answer to each question within 800 words. One questions atleast shall be set from each unit and the candidate has to attempt any four. Each question will carry 14 marks and total weightage shall be 56 marks.

**MODEL TEST PAPER
MARKETING MANAGEMENT**

Time: 3 hrs

M. Marks 80

SECTION - A

Attempt any 6 questions. Each question carries 4 marks. Answer to each question should be within 200 words.

1. Explain the relevance of event marketing in today 's competitive world.
2. Discuss the role of consumerism in context to Indian setting.
3. What are the major sources of data collection?
4. Discuss Michael Porter's five forces model.
5. What do you understand by packaging and labelling?
6. What are the various pricing strategies?
7. Discuss the role of marketing channels in serving the market.
8. What is meant by direct and interactive marketing?

SECTION - B

Attempt any 4 questions. Each question carries 14 marks. Answer to each question should be within 800 words.

1. Discuss in detail any four philosophies of marketing.
2. What are the steps to be followed in the marketing?
3. Define the terms-segmentation, targeting and positioning.
4. Explain product life cycle in detail.
5. Discuss the importance of communications-mix in the context of globalised world.
6. What are the major channel alternatives and types of intermediaries?

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 1

MARKETING AND MARKETING ENVIRONMENT

Unit - I

INTRODUCTION TO MARKETING

STRUCTURE

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Objectives

1.3 Introduction of Marketing

1.3.1 Marketing Definitions

1.3.2 Concept of Marketing

1.4 Characteristics of Marketing

1.5 Scope of Marketing

1.6 Nature of Marketing

1.7 Importance of Marketing

1.8 Core Concepts of Marketing

1.9 Marketing and Marketing Management

1.10 Summary

1.11 Glossary

1.12 Self Assessment Questions

1.13 Lesson End Exercise

1.14 Suggested Readings

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Most of the people define marketing as selling or advertising. It is true that these are parts of the marketing. But marketing is much more than advertising and selling. In fact marketing comprises of a number of activities which are interlinked and the decision in one area affects the decision in other areas.

To illustrate the number of activities that are included in marketing, think about all the bicycles being peddled with varying degree of energy by bicycle riders in India. Most bicycles are intended to do the same thing, get the rider from one place to another. But a bicyclist can choose from a wide assortment of models. They are designed in different sizes, with different frames for men and women and with or without gears. Trekking cycles have large knobby tyres, and the tyres of racing cycles are narrow. Kids want more wheels to make balancing easier; clowns want only one wheel, to make balancing more interesting.

In order to understand the concept of marketing, firstly you must understand-what is .market.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- **understand** the concept of marketing
- **analyze** the importance of marketing
- **understand** scope and nature of markets

1.3 INTRODUCTION OF MARKETING

1.3.1 Marketing definitions

Numerous definitions were offered for marketing by different authors. Some of the definitions are as follows

1. “Marketing is the process that seeks to influence voluntary exchange transactions between a customer and a marketer”.

William G. Zikmund and Michael d.Amico

2. “Marketing is the process of discovering and translating consumer needs and wants into products and services, creating demand for these products and services and then in turn expanding this demand”.

H.L. Hansen.

3. “Marketing is the business process by which products are matched with markets and through which transfer of ownership are affected”.

Edward W. Cundiff

4. “Marketing consists of the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producers or suppliers to consumers or end-users”.

American Marketing Association

5. “Marketing is a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering and freely exchanging products and services of value with others”.

Philip Kotler

6. “Marketing is the performance of activities that seek to accomplish an organizations objectives by anticipating customer or client needs and directing the flow of need satisfying goods and services from producer to customer or client”.

William D. Perreault and E. Jerome McCarthy

1.3.2 Concept of Marketing

The concept of marketing is essentially of customer orientation. For a long time it has been preached by all, including Mahatma Gandhi, that the *customer is king*. What this implies is that product / services are bought not merely because of their quality, packaging or brand name, but because to satisfy a specific need of a customer. It also implies that organization have to provide services to their customer and that too without any obligation. In other words, marketing means understanding and responding to customer needs, a prerequisite for any organization’s success. And this certainly cannot be ignored by any organization in today’s competitive environment.

However, to be successful, any organization has to be competition-oriented too. It has to continuously determine its competitive advantage and take steps to further

augment it. Thus, the marketing concept involves.

(a) customer orientation

(b) competition orientation

(c) ability to respond to environmental changes (changes in consumer needs, competition, government policy, technology, etc) before competition does. Examples are Sony and Microsoft who have consistently invested in futuristic technologies and products.

Marketing Orientation and How can it be Employed in Organization's?

A look at successful marketing organisations in India and abroad leads us to conclude that marketing orientation involves a six-dimensional approach.

a) **Consumer Orientation** - Successful marketing companies continuously monitor customer needs, want and preferences, Unfulfilled consumer drive their new product development efforts as shown in the example of Asian Paints.

b) **Integrated Approach to Exploiting Market Opportunities** - Successful marketing companies integrate all elements of the marketing mix, not merely advertising and selling, into a sound business plan that could help them to effectively fight competition. Take, for example, the launch of and subsequent rage for Maggi noodles all over India. The company (Food Specialities Limited.) understood customer needs and also effectively serviced it by adopting an integrated marketing mix. Lipton also launched (almost at the same time) macaroni and noodles with an intensive promotion campaign, but failed. Besides, marketing orientation involves a very high degree of preoccupation with the quality of the product. Companies like Hindustan Lever, Proctor and Gamble (P&G), Godrej, Johnson and Johnson, Asian Paints, have one thing in common-their passion for premium quality products. Their marketing mix emphasizes product quality as an important element of their marketing plan.

(c) **Futuristic Approach** - The above companies look at money spent on marketing not as an expenditure but as an investment. In other words, they do not take a short route to success. as there is none. Rather, they look at the market from a three- to five-year perspective and hence look at maximizing their returns from advertising

campaigns or tactical price reductions over these years rather than in just one year. This aspect seems to be ignored by many companies. They are still not prepared to invest in market share development activities and perceive any advertising campaign or price reduction as a marketing expenditure.

(d) **Highly Developed Marketing Systems** - Successful marketing companies have highly developed marketing systems that act as market barometers. All major marketing decisions are based on the basis of market information emerging from these systems. Test marketing is used effectively for making any change in the marketing mix. Some of the more commonly used systems in these organizations relate to complaint management, customer feedback, customer relationship management (CRM) and today, even e-CRM. These systems provide, on an ongoing basis, market feedback, which organizations can use for enhancing their overall effectiveness, new product development and marketing strategies.

(e) **Marketing Culture** - Companies on the track of success have an important characteristic, that is, in these organizations everybody, from the chief executive to the lowest level, is market oriented. The customer is given key importance and, accordingly, his interests override organizational interests.

The entrepreneurial spirit soars high and people are encouraged to try new ideas. These service standards governed Windsor Manor's products and quality of service. To ensure compliance to these standards, Windsor Manor even communicated the penalty it would pay to the customer in the event of standards not being met. This was the first organization in the hospitality industry to set up and communicate service standards to the customer. Soon after, these service standards became the norm in the service industry.

(f) **Speed** - Another important aspect of customer orientation is the speed at which customer's problems are resolved. Increasingly, this fact determines the competitive advantage of organizations. Given today's interactive technologies, including toll-free phones and call centres, companies now realize that their competitive advantage is determined by their speed of response. Institutions like Standard Chartered Bank, HDFC Bank and ICICI Bank see their survival hinging on this particular aspect.

Marketing Orientation vis-a-vis Selling Orientation

The selling approach is more transaction-based and aims at maximization in the short term. As opposed to this, the marketing approach emphasizes customer management, customized approach to winning and retaining the customer, and hence, focuses on building profits over a long term. The selling approach, generally, undermines research. It is more intuitive. It works well in markets that are less complex, in the sense that competition is low and customers have very little choice, it works on the mass marketing approach wherein customer needs are aggregated. This is opposed to the marketing approach which is based on the basic premise that each customer is different and hence needs to be approached differently. Also, given the exorbitant cost of reaching each customer, it is possible to group them on common measurable and definable parameters and hence create segments. *Thus, the customer is the focal point of the marketing orientation.*

Marketing orientation is different from selling orientation, which tends to dominate many Indian companies. The classic example is that of the Indian automobile industry. Until Maruti was launched in 1984, the two giants-Hindustan Motors, (manufacturers of Ambassador cars) and Premier Automobiles (manufacturers of Premier Padmini brand of cars)-hardly cared for the customer. They kept rolling out obsolete cars at exorbitant prices and did very little either to improve the fuel efficiency or even provide better service. Since the Indian consumer had very little choice, he had to take whatever was given to him. But in 1984, when Maruti was launched and the Government of India allowed other foreign collaborations in this sector, both these manufacturers realized that the “golden” era was now over. Despite their new foreign collaborations, their products did not sell. Each of them were saddled with large stocks of unsold cars and running at a loss. The dealers walked out of their agreements as the inventory increased in their showrooms. This made Premier Automobiles offer price discounts on the Premier car and also deliver of the customer at any place where he perceived the maximum price advantage. Yet, the condition remained far from satisfactory. The same is true of fertilizer, steel tube manufacturers and companies making power generators. As is evident, the focus of all these companies, hitherto, had been either on their own products or on technology. Marketing orientation, as spelt out earlier, is

different from any or all of them. Marketing orientation (as opposed to selling orientation) focuses on customer needs, values and attitudes, and in order to satisfy them, it uses an integrated marketing plan. The ultimate aim is to maximize profits through increased customer satisfaction. In brief, this difference may be understood from Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Marketing and Selling Orientations

<i>Orientation/ Focus</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Ends</i>
Selling	Product	Aggressive selling and sales promotion with emphasis on prices variations to close the sale. “I Must somehow hook the customer”
Marketing	Customer	Integrated marketing plan encompassing product, price, promotion and distribution backed up by adequate environmental, scanning, consumer research and opportunity analysis with emphasis on service, “ <i>What can we do that will make us, in the customer’s eyes, better than and superior to our competitors</i> ”.

Relationship Marketing

The decade of the 90s saw the “rebirth” of relationship marketing. Once again the issue of trust between customer and marketer was emphasized. Trust, as has been observed, has an asymmetrical quality. It is built slowly over several transactions but disappears in a flash. As can be made out, the relationship marketing approach emphasizes on both the “hard” and the “soft” aspects of marketing processes, which help create reliability. The hard aspects relate to product reliability, use of interactive technologies both at the front and back ends (i.e., integrating customers with organizational functions) retail stores, and so on. The soft aspects concern human interactions and, thereby, work on dependability issues among salespersons, service personnel, intermediaries, and so forth. The underpinning strength of relationship marketing is customer loyalty. A successful relationship marketing firm leverages its knowledge of customer needs and values which helps to determine resource allocation

across different customer groups. As one can infer from Figure 1.1 given on next page, profitability of customers vary across different groups. A Price Water house Coopers (PWC) study shows an inverse relationship between the size of the customer groups and profits. It showed that 36 percent of customers accounted for 85 percent of profits in a telephone company. This is also true of Mahanagar Telephone Nigam Limited (MTNL) and Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited (BSNL); or, for that matter, in any other product group.

Today, the need for customers-centric organizations is increasingly being appreciated. For that, the organizational pyramid needs to be inverted and the customer placed on top of the pyramid. The logic behind it is that, in any organization, communication flows from top to bottom and generally, the behaviour of an average employee is to look up not only for guidance and help but also for recognition. The importance of recognition from the customer is far more valuable than that from the CEO of the company. This process of inverting the pyramid is commonly seen in organizations like Scandinavian Airlines, Jet Airways, Domino's Pizzas and HDFC Bank.

The relationship marketing process emphasizes on continuous interactions between the firm and the customer. These interactions lead to firms acquiring accurate, timely, and relevant information from the customer, which helps in creating a differentiated or customized offer for each customer which, in turn, leads to higher customer loyalty. A relationship marketer understands a customer's lifetime value (LTV) which gets enhanced over a period of time.

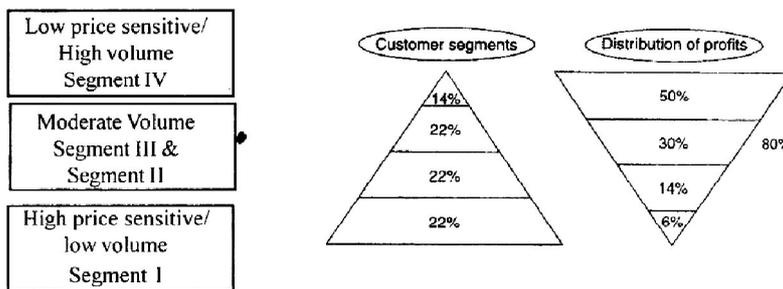


Fig. 1.1 : A Small Percentage of Customers Account for a Large Percentage of Profits

Relationship between Customers and Corporate Profitability

Source: Adapted from Stanley A, Brown, Customer Relationship Management, 2000

John Wiley & Sons, Canada Ltd., Ontario

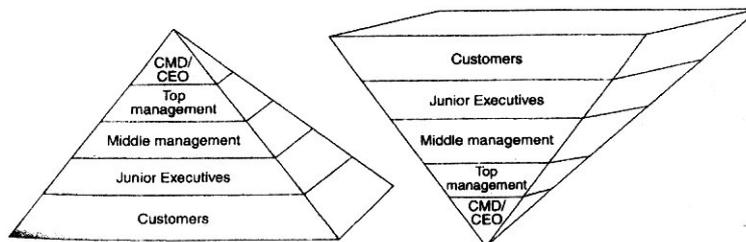


Fig. 1.2 : Inverting Organizational Pyramid for Customer retention

Source: Adapted from Stanley A, Brown, Customer Relationship Management, 2000

John Wiley & Sons, Canada Ltd., Ontario

1.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF MARKETING:

- 1. Applies to profit and non-profit organisations.** This definition applies to both profit and non-profit organizations. Profit is the objective for most business firms. But other type of organisations may seek more members or donations or acceptance of an idea. Consumer or clients may be individual consumers, business firms, non-profit

organizations, government agencies or even foreign nations. While most customers and clients pay for goods and services they receive, others may receive them free of charge or at a reduced price through private or government support.

2 More than just persuading customers. Marketing is not just selling and advertising, as most of the people thinks. In fact, the aim of marketing is to identify customers needs and meet those needs so well that the product almost sell itself. This is true whether the product is a physical good, a service or even an idea. If the whole marketing job has been done well, customers do not need much persuading. They will be ready to buy. And after consuming the product if they are satisfied then they will come back for more.

3 Begins with customer needs. Marketing should begin with potential customer need not with production process. Marketing should try to anticipate needs and then it should determine what goods and services are to be developed, including decisions about product design and packaging; prices or fees; credit and collection policies; use of middlemen; transporting and storing facilities; advertising and sales policies and after the sale, installation, customer service, warranty and perhaps even disposal policies.

4 Does not do it alone. It means that marketing by interpreting customers needs should provide direction for production activities accounting and financial activities and research and development activities and try to coordinate them. Marketing by itself can never be able to satisfy the needs and wants of the customers. It cannot exist in vacuum. In fact, marketing needs the cooperation of other functional areas to be successful.

5 Builds a relationship with the customer. Marketing tries to identify and satisfy customer needs and wants. Its activities does not end with the single sale but rather it tries to develop a relationship with the customer. So that in the future, when the customer has the same need again or some other need that the firm can meet other sales will follow. The long lasting relationship is beneficial to both the firm and the customer.

1.5 SCOPE OF MARKETING

Marketing is typically seen as the task of creating, promoting and delivering goods

and services to consumers and businesses. In fact, marketing people are involved in marketing 10 types of entities: goods, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information and ideas. Marketing concepts can be used effectively to market these entities.

1. **Goods:** Goods are defined as something tangible that can be offered to market to satisfy a need or want. Physical goods constitute the bulk of most countries production and marketing effort. In a developing country like India fast moving consumer goods (shampoo, bread, ketchup, cigarettes, newspapers etc.) and consumer durables (television, gas appliances, fans etc.) are produced and consumed in large quantities every year.

2. **Services:** A service can be defined as any performance that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product. Services include the work of hotels, airlines, banks, insurance companies, transportation corporations etc. as well as professionals like lawyers, doctors, teachers etc. Many market offerings consist of a variable mix of goods and services. At the pure service end would be a psychiatrist listening to a patient or watching a movie in a cinema hall; at another level would be a landline or mobile phone call that is supported by a huge investment in plant and equipment; and at a more tangible level would be a fast food establishment where the consumer consumes both a good and a service.

3. **Experiences :** By mixing several services and goods, one can create, stage and market experiences. For example water parks, zoos, museums etc. provide the experiences which are not the part of routine life. There is a market for different experiences such as climbing Mount Everest or Kanchanjunga, travelling in Palace on Wheels, river rafting, a trip to Moon, travelling in Trans Siberian Railways across five time zones etc.

4. **Events:** Marketers promote time based, theme-based or special events such as Olympics, company anniversaries, sports events (Samsung Cup, India Pakistan Cricket Series), artistic performances (Lata Mangeshkar live concert, Jagjit Singh live concert), trade shows (International Book Fair at Pragati Maidan, Automobile fair), award ceremonies (Filmfare awards, Screen awards), beauty contests (Miss World, Miss Universe, Miss India, Miss Chandigarh), model hunts (Gladrags Mega Model). There is a whole profession

of event planners who work out the details of an event and stage it. In India event management companies are growing and in case of organising Miss World at Bangalore and World Cricket Cup (Hero Cup) they won the acclaim from all over the world. Our Election Commission Organises biggest event in the world. Elections for upper house in the largest democracy in the world. Other notable example is organising of Ardh Kumbh and Maha Kumbh at Hardwar, Ujjain, Nasik etc. during different years .

5. **Persons:** Celebrity marketing has become a major business. Years ago, someone seeking fame would hire a press agent to plant stories in newspapers and magazines. Today most of cricket players like Sachin Tendulkar, Saurav Ganguly, Rahul Dravid etc. are drawing help from celebrity marketers to get the maximum benefit. Even Star Plus TV channel focussed more on Amitabh Bachhan to promote their programme Kaun Banega Crorepati and this programme turned around fortunes of both Star Plus and Amitabh Bachhan. Even in the 14th Lok Sabha election BJP election strategy revolves around Mr. Atal Bihari Vajpayee, that's power of personality. Mr Shiv Khera is busy in building his business empire and is busy telling others how to achieve this or that through books and lectures.

6. **Places :** Places cities, states, regions and whole nations compete actively to attract tourists, factories, company headquarters and new residents. India and China are competing actively to attract foreign companies to make their production hub. Cities like Bangalore, Hyderabad and Gurgaon are promoted as centre for development of software. Bangalore is regarded as software capital of India and Hyderabad is emerging as the hub of biotechnology industry. Gurgaon and Noida are competing for call centres to open their offices. Kerala, Himachal Pradesh. Himachal Pradesh and Rajasthan and aggressively promoting themselves to attract local as well as foreign tourists Due to its cost effectiveness and competitive ability of Indian doctors coupled with ancient therapies. India is fast emerging as country that can provide excellent medical treatment at minimum costs. If developed properly, Bihar has strong potential to emerge as ultimate destination for Buddhists.

7. **Properties:** Properties are intangible rights of ownership of either real property (real estate) or financial property (share add debt, instruments). Properties are bought and sold, and this requires marketing effort. Property dealers in India work for property owners

or seekers to sell or buy plots, residential or commercial real estate. In India some builders like Ansal, Sahara Group, both build and market their residential and commercial real estates. Brokers and sub-brokers buy and sell securities on behalf of individual and institutional buyers.

8. **Organizations:** Organizations actively work to build a strong, favourable image in the mind of their publics. We see ads of Reliance Info comm, which is trying to provide communication at lower rates, Dhirubhai Ambani Entrepreneur programme to promote entrepreneurship among the Indians. Companies can gain immensely by associating themselves with the social causes. Universities and colleges are trying to boost their image to compete successfully for attracting the students by mentioning their NAAC grades in the advertisements and information brochures.

9. **Information :** Information can be produced and marketed as a product. This is essentially what schools, colleges and universities produce and distribute at a price to parents, students and communities. Encyclopedias and most non-fiction books market information. Magazines such as Fitness and Muscle provide information about staying healthy, Business India, Business Today and Business World provide information about business activities that are taking place in various organizations.

Outlook Traveler provides information about various national and international tourist destinations. There are number of magazines which are focused an automobiles, architecture and interior designing, computers, audio system, television programmes etc. which cater to the information needs of the customers. We buy CDs and visit internet sites to obtain information. In fact, production, packaging and distribution of information is one of the society major industry. More and more companies are using professional research agencies to obtained information they need.

10. **Ideas:** Film makers, marketing executives and advertising continuously look for a creative spark or an idea that can immortalize them and their work. Idea here means the social cause or an issue that can change the life of many. Narmada Bachao Andolan was triggered to bring the plight of displaced people and to get them justice. Endorsement by Amitabh Bachhan to Pulse Polio Immunization drive and pledge by Aishwarya Rai to donate her eyes after her death gave immense boost to these. Various government and

non-government organizations are trying to promote a cause or issue which can directly and indirectly alter the life of many. For example Traffic police urges to not to mix drinks and drive, central and state government urging not to use polyethylene as carrying bag for groceries.

1.6 NATURE OF MARKETING

1. Marketing is both consumer oriented and competitor oriented.
 - (a) Self centred companies does not give any concern to the consumers and competitors. This type of company can exist in the situation of monopoly. In the competitive economy, these companies cannot remain in the business for long.
 - (b) Competitor oriented companies mainly focus on competitors' activities, what the competitors are doing and what they are likely to do in the near future are the major areas of concern. The companies can be either reactive or proactive. The reactive company will follow the moves of competitors. For example, if the competitor reduce price of its product or service then the reactive competitor oriented company will also reduce its prices. Whereas the proactive competitor oriented company will try to identify what its major competitor is going to do.
 - (c) Customer oriented companies believes in satisfying the customers at any cost. These companies obtain inputs from the customers and then develop their product or service as per customers requirements and then earn profit through-customer satisfaction. The biggest problem is that they donot consider what their competitors are doing and in the long run it might prove counter-productive.
 - (d) Market driven companies are concerned about customers as well as competitors. These companies regularly interact with the customers to know about their satisfaction levels and their future requirements and then try to develop the product or service which is better than their competitors. In the era of cut throat competition, these companies one more likely to be successful than the other companies.

2. Marketing is a dynamic activity because a number of variables keep changing. for example marketing environment, customers requirements, competitor's actions etc. keep changing thereby necessitating the changes in the company's offer. The companies may have to modify product, price, place or promotion due to changes in any of the numerous variables. For example, Indian manufacturers either have to improve the quality or reduce the cost to meet the competition from foreign companies.
3. Long term objective of marketing is profit maximization through customer satisfaction. This is so because a satisfied customer will come back again for the same or different need to the company. Apart from this, the satisfied customer is the company's best advertisement because word of mouth communication by the customer has more credibility than any other form of marketing communication and he will recommend the company's products/services to his friends and relatives.
4. Marketing is an integrated function and all the marketing decisions are linked with each other. One decision will automatically lead to another decision. For example if a company has decided to launch a product for limited number of customers then its price will be high and that product will be available through exclusive distribution system and the promotion strategy will depend on the media preferred by the target market. So, if a company decides the first step then decisions regarding the remaining steps will follow automatically.
5. Marketing is the core functional area of modern day organisations and is the driving force behind every organisation. Marketing provides the vital input for corporate planning which in turn dictates the plans for other functional areas.
6. Marketing is interlinked with other functional areas of the organisation. Marketing people collects the information regarding (customers' requirements and pass it to) the research and development and engineering people who will turn the customer requirements into the product or service features. The finance and accounts people, help in obtaining the money for the development of new product and also helps in arriving at the final price decision. The human resource

department provides the necessary manpower for carrying out various activities not only in the marketing area but also in the other functional areas.

1.7 IMPORTANCE OF MARKETING

(A) To the Society

1. It is instrumental in improving the living standards. Marketing continuously identifies the needs and wants satisfying products or services which can propel the people to do an extra to earn money which can be exchanged for the desired products or services. The people are likely to spend the additional income over and above the disposable income on the products or services which helps in minimizing the physical efforts. Thus marketing by indirectly increasing the earning ability will help in improving the standard of living of the customers.

2. Marketing generates gainful employment opportunities both directly and indirectly. Directly, marketing provides employment to the people in various areas like in advertising agency, in the company sales force, in the distributors' sales force, in public relation firms etc. Indirectly, marketing is responsible for selling the offerings of the organisation. If the organisations' products or services are able to satisfy the customers, then customers will demand organizations products or services again and again, thereby sustaining the production activities. Thus marketing indirectly provides employment in other functional areas like finance, production, research and development, human resource management etc.

3. Marketing helps in stabilizing economic condition in the sense that marketing helps in selling the products or services, which keeps the various organizations functioning and gainful employment is available to the people. With the earnings from the employment, the people will purchase the products and/or services, thus sustaining the demand. This will happen in all the industries, then gainful employment will be available throughout the time period and economy will remain stable, healthy and vibrant.

(B) To the firms/companies

1. Marketing sustains the company by bringing in profits. Marketing is the only activity that brings revenue to the firm, whereas other activities incur expenditure. If the company's

products or services satisfy the customers requirements, then the satisfied customers will keep the company in business by repeat orders and recommending other profitable customers. Thus marketing is the driving force behind a successful company.

2. Marketing is the source of new ideas. New product ideas usually come from the research laboratories, employees or from marketplace. It is the marketing people who are in continuous touch with the consumers and marketing intermediaries. Interaction with them helps in identifying strong and weak points of company's product or services as well as competitor's products or services. This interaction can also help in identifying unmet needs or wants of the consumers and the features consumers are looking into the products or services which can satisfy those unmet needs or wants. Thus marketing can help immensely in identifying new product or service ideas which can help in sustaining the firm's operations. Successful companies are those which identify customers' requirements early and provide the solution earlier than the competitors.

3. Marketing provides direction for the future course. The marketing oriented company continuously brings out new product and service ideas which provide the direction for corporate strategic planning for longer time horizon.

(C) To the Consumers

1. Meeting the unmet needs or wants. Marketing identifies those needs or wants which were not satisfied and helps in developing the product or service which can satisfy those unmet needs or wants of the people. For example a number of drugs were invented to treat various physical problems of the people. Again the low cost formulations were developed to treat the people who are unable to afford the expensive drugs.

2. Reducing the price of products or services. Marketing helps in popularising the product or service which attracts the customers as well as competitors towards that product or service categories. Due to increase in demand, the manufacturing capacity increase which brings down per unit fixed costs of the product or service. Furthermore increase in competition led to decrease in the prices charged by the firm. Thus the growing demand and increasing competition both help in bringing down the price of the product or service. For example price of both mobile phone handset and mobile phone service are showing a

continuous downward trend thereby making the mobile phone service affordable to more and more people.

1.8 CORE CONCEPTS OF MARKETING

Marketing can be further understood by defining several of its core concepts.

1. Needs, Wants and Demands

The marketer must try to understand the target markets needs, wants, and demands. Needs describe basic human requirements. People need food, air, water, clothing and shelter to survive. People also have strong needs for recreation, education, and entertainment. These needs become wants when they are directed to specific object that might satisfy the need. An Indian *needs* food but *wants* a rice, chhapati's vegetable and dal. A person in Mauritius *needs* food hut *wants* a mango, rice, lentils and beans.

Wants are shaped by one's society

Demands are wants for specific products backed by an ability to pay. Many people want a big & beautiful house; only a few are able and willing to buy one. Companies must measure not only how many people want their product but also how many would actually be *willing and able* to buy it.

These distinctions shed light on the frequent criticism that, marketers create needs. Or marketers get people to buy things they donot want. Marketers do not create needs: Needs pre exist marketers. Marketers, along with other societal influences, influence wants. Marketers might promote the idea that a Mercedes would satisfy a person's need for social status. They do not, however, create the need for social status.

2. Product or Offering

People satisfy their needs and wants with products. A *product* is any offering that can satisfy a need or want. We mentioned earlier the major types of basic offerings: goods, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information and ideas.

A brand is an offering from a known source. A brand name such as McDonald's carries

many associations in the minds of people: hamburgers, fun, children, fast food, Golden Arches. These associations make up the brand image. All companies strive to build brand strength that is, a strong, favourable brand image.

3. Value and Satisfaction

The product or offering will be successful if it delivers value and satisfaction to the target buyer. The buyer chooses between different offerings on the basis of which is perceived to deliver the most value. We define value as a ratio between what the customer *gets* and what he *gives*. The customer *gets benefits* and assumes *costs*.

The benefits include functional benefits and emotional benefits. The costs include monetary costs, time costs, energy costs, and psychic costs. Thus value is given by :

Value =Benefits/Costs

The marketer can increase the value of the customer offering in several ways:

- i. Raise benefits
- ii. Reduce costs
- iii. Raise benefits and reduce costs
- iv. Raise benefits by more than the raise in costs
- v. Lower benefits by less than the reduction in costs

The customer who is choosing between two value offerings, V 1 and V2, will examine the ratio V 1/V2. She will favour V 1 if the ratio is larger than one; she will favour V2 if ratio is smaller than one; she will be indifferent if the ratio equals one.

4. Exchange and Transactions

Exchange is only one of four ways in which a person can obtain a product. The person can self-produce the product or service, as when a person hunts, fishes, or gathers fruit. The person can use force to get a product, as in a hold up or burglary. The person can beg, as happens when a homeless person asks for food. Or the person can offer a product, a service, or money in exchange for something he or she desires.

Exchange, which is the core concept of marketing, involves obtaining a desired product from someone by offering something in return. For exchange potential to exist five conditions must be satisfied:

- i. There are at least two parties.
- ii. Each party has something that might be of value to the other party.
- iii. Each party is capable of communication and delivery.
- iv. Each party is free to accept or reject the exchange offer.
- v. Each party believes it is appropriate or desirable to deal with the other party.

Whether exchange actually takes place depends upon whether the two parties can agree on terms that will leave them both better off (or at least not worse off) than before. Exchange is a value-creating process because it normally leaves both parties better off .

Exchange is a process rather than an event. Two parties are engaged in exchange if they are *negotiating trying* to arrive at mutually agreeable terms. When an agreement is reached, we say that a transaction takes place. A *transaction* is a trade of values between two or more parties: A gives X to B and receives Y in return. Ramesh sells Arun a television set and Arun pays Rs 4000/- to Ramesh. This is a classic *monetary transaction*. But transactions do not require money as one of the traded values. A *barter transaction* involves trading goods or services for other goods or service, as when lawyer Vijay writes a will for physician Satish in return for a medical examination.

1.9 MARKETING AND MARKETING MANAGEMENT

Marketing is a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering and freely exchanging products and *services* of value with others.

For a managerial definition, marketing has often been described as the art of selling products. But people are surprised when they hear that the most important part of marketing is not selling! Selling is only the tip of the marketing iceberg. Peter Drucker, a leading management theorist, puts it this way:

There will always, one can assume, be need for some selling. But the aim of marketing is to make selling superfluous. The aim of marketing is to know and understand the customer so well that the product or service fits him and sells itself. Ideally, marketing should result in a customer who is ready to buy.

All that should be needed then is to make the product or service available.

When Sony designed its Walkman, when Nintendo designed a superior video game, and when Toyota introduced its Lexus automobile, these manufacturers were swamped with orders because they had designed the right, product based on careful marketing homework.

The American Marketing Association (AMA) offers the following definition:

Marketing (management) is the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods, services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organizational goals. Coping with exchange processes calls for a considerable amount of work and skill.

Marketing management takes place when at least one party to a potential exchange thinks about the means of achieving desired responses from other parties. We see marketing management as the art and science of choosing target markets and getting, keeping and growing customers through creating, delivering, and communicating superior customer value.

1.10 SUMMARY

Financial success of any organization depends upon marketing ability of that organization. There should be sufficient demand for products & services so the company can make profit. Therefore, many companies created Chief Marketing Officer (CMO) position to put marketing on a more equal footing with other E-level executives.

Marketing is tricky & large well known business such as Levi's, Kodak, Xerox etc. had to rethink their business models. Even Microsoft, Wal-Mart, Nike who are market leaders cannot relax.

Thus, we can say that making the right decision is not easy & marketing managers must take major decisions about the features of the product prices & design of the product,

where to sell products & expenditure on sales & advertising. Good marketing is no accident but a result of careful planning & execution. Marketing practices are continuously being refined to increase the chances of success. But marketing excellence is rare & difficult to achieve & is a never ending task. Eg. NIRMA - The brand icon of the young girl has adorned the package of Nirma washing powder, The jingle has become one of the enduring times in Indian advertising .

A market is a physical place where buyers and sellers gathered to buy and sell goods. Economists describe a market as a collection of buyers and sellers who transact over a particular product or product class (e.g. the housing market or grain market). Modern economics abound in such markets. Manufacturers go to resource market (raw material markets, labor markets, money markets), buy resources and turn them into goods and services, and then sell finished products to intermediaries, who sell them to consumers. Consumers sell their labor and receive money with which they pay for goods and services. The government collects tax revenues to buy goods from resources, manufacturer and intermediary markets and uses these goods and services to provide public services. Each national economy and the global economy consist of complex interacting sets of markets linked through exchange processes.

On the other hand, marketers often use the term market to cover various grouping of customers. They view the sellers as constituting the industry and the buyers as constituting the market. They talk about need markets, product markets, demographic markets and geographic markets or they extend the concept to cover other markets, such as voter marketers, labor markets, and donor markets. Sellers and buyers are connected by four flows. The sellers send goods, services and communication (ads, direct mail) to the market; in return they receive money and information (attitudes, sales data). The inner loop shows an exchange of money for goods and services: the outer loop shows an exchange of information.

1.11 GLOSSARY

Marketing :- Marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large.

Market :- A market is a physical place, where buyers and sellers gathered to buy and sell goods.

1.12 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q 1 What are the core concepts of marketing?

Q.2. Discuss the relevance of marketing?

1.13 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1 Explain the concept of marketing in detail. Also explain the importance of marketing.

Q2 Compare and contrast between marketing and marketing management.

1.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Kotler, Philip, Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, New Delhi.
2. Stanton, Etzel, Walker, Fundamentals of Marketing, Tata-McGraw Hill, New Delhi.
3. Saxena, Rajan, Marketing Management, Tata-McGraw Hill, New Delhi.
4. McCarthy, E.J., Basic Marketing: A managerial approach, Irwin, New York.

M.Com II Semester**Lesson No. 2****MARKETING AND MARKETING ENVIRONMENT****Unit - I**

KEY CUSTOMER MARKETS AND EVOLUTION OF MARKETING**STRUCTURE**

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Key Customer Markets
- 2.4 Evolution of Marketing Concept
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 Glossary
- 2.7 Self Assessment Questions
- 2.8 Lesson End Exercise
- 2.9 Suggested Readings

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, companies owned and controlled most of the resources that entered their businesses :-

- labor power material
- machine

- information
- energy

But many today outsource less-critical resources if they can obtain better quality or lower cost. The key, then, is to own and nurture the resources and competencies that make up the essence of the business. Many textile, chemical, and computer/electronic product firms do not manufacture their own products because offshore manufacturers are more competent in this task. Instead, they focus on product design and development and marketing, their core competencies. “Core competencies are the combination of pooled knowledge and technical capacities that allow a business to be competitive in the marketplace. Theoretically, a core competency should allow a company to expand into new end markets as well as provide a significant benefit to customers.”

A core competency has three characteristics:

- (1) It is a source of competitive advantage and makes a significant contribution to perceived customer benefits.
- (2) It has applications in a wide variety of markets.
- (3) It is difficult for competitors to imitate.

Competitive advantage also accrues to companies that possess distinctive capabilities or excellence in broader business processes. Wharton’s George Day sees **market-driven organizations** as excelling in three distinctive capabilities:

- market sensing
- customer linking, and
- channel bonding

In terms of market sensing, he believes tremendous opportunities and threats often begin as “weak signals” from the “periphery” of a business. He offers a systematic process for developing peripheral vision, and practical tools and strategies for building “vigilant organizations” attuned to changes in the environment, by asking three questions each related to learning from the past, evaluating the present, and envisioning the

future. Competitive advantage ultimately derives from how well the company has fitted its core competencies and distinctive capabilities into tightly interlocking “activity systems.” Competitors find it hard to imitate Southwest Airlines, Walmart, and IKEA because they are unable to copy their activity systems.

2.2 Objectives

After reading this chapter, you will be able to understand:

- the concept of markets
- the various types of customer markets
- the evolution of concepts of marketing

2.3 Key Customer Markets

A Marketer is someone who seeks a response (attention, a purchase, a vote, a donation) from another party, called the **Prospect**. If two parties are seeking to sell something to each other, we call them both marketers. Marketers are skilled in stimulating demand for a company’s products, but this is too limited a view of the tasks they perform. Just as production and logistics professionals are responsible for supply management, marketers are responsible for demand management. Marketing managers seek to influence the level, timing, and composition of demand to meet the organizational objectives. Eight demand phases can be possibly listed out as below:

1. **Negative demand** - Consumers dislike the product and may even pay a price to avoid it.
2. **Nonexistent demand** - Consumer may be unaware or uninterested in the product.
3. **Latent demand** - Consumers may share a strong need that cannot be satisfied by an existing product.
4. **Declining demand** - Consumers begin to buy the product less frequently or not at all.
5. **Irregular demand** - Consumer purchases vary on a seasonal, monthly, weekly, daily, or even hourly basis.

6. **Full demand** - Consumers are adequately buying all products put into the marketplace.
7. **Overfull demand** - More consumers would like to buy the product that can be satisfied.
8. **Unwholesome demand** - Consumers may be attracted to products that have undesirable social consequences.

MARKETS

A market is a physical place where buyers and sellers gathered to buy and sell goods. Economists describe a market as a collection of buyers and sellers who transact over a particular product or product class (e.g. the housing market or grain market). Modern economies abound in such markets. Manufacturers go to resource market (raw material markets, labor markets, money markets), buy resources and turn them into goods and services, and then sell finished products to intermediaries, who sell them to consumers. Consumers sell their labor and receive money with which they pay for goods and services. The government collects tax revenues to buy goods from resources, manufacturer, and intermediary markets and uses these goods and services to provide public services. Each national economy and the global economy consist of complex interacting sets of markets linked through exchange processes.

On the other hand, marketers often use the term market to cover various grouping of customers. They view the sellers as constituting the industry and the buyers as constituting the market. They talk about need markets, product markets, demographic markets and geographic markets or they extend the concept to cover other markets, such as voter marketers, labor markets, and donor markets. Sellers and buyers are connected by four flows. The sellers send goods, services and communication (ads, direct mail) to the market; in return they receive money and information (attitudes, sales data). The inner loop shows an exchange of money for goods and services; the outer loop shows an exchange of information. The types of market you are in determine the type of business strategy you need to have. Strategies for consumer markets are completely different from that of industrial markets. Industrial markets deal in bulk product selling whereas consumer products generally involve breaking the bulk. Costing

and marketing is a critical function for both types of markets. Furthermore, with the rise of globalization, companies have themselves gone global and thus their marketing strategies have adapted accordingly. There are several factors which are added to normal business strategies when you are considering going global. And last but not the least, the Government, and Institutional business which are the real revenue generators because of their huge orders. Let’s discuss each of these types of markets one by one.

Markets traditionally, a “market” was a physical place where buyers and sellers gathered to buy and sell goods. Economists describe a market as a collection of buyers and sellers who transact over a particular product or product class (such as the housing market or the grain market). Manufacturers go to resource markets (raw material markets, labor markets, money markets), buy resources and turn them into goods and services, and sell finished products to intermediaries, who sell them to consumers. Consumers sell their labor and receive money with which they pay for goods and services. The government collects tax revenues to buy goods from resource manufacturer, and intermediary markets and uses these goods and services to provide public services. Each nation’s economy, and the global economy, consists of interacting sets of markets linked through exchange processes.



Fig. 2.1

Marketers view sellers as the industry and use the term market to describe customer groups. They talk about need markets (the diet-seeking market), product markets

(the shoe market), demographic markets (the “millennium” youth market), geographic markets (the Chinese market), or voter markets, labor markets, and donor markets. The Following shows how sellers and buyers are connected by four flows. Sellers send goods and services and communications such as ads and direct mail to the market; in return they receive money and information such as customer attitudes and sales data.



Fig. 2.2 : Seller & Buyer Connction

The inner loop shows an exchange of money for goods and services; the outer loop shows an exchange of information. Key Customer Markets consider the following key customer markets: consumer, business, global, and nonprofit.

Consumer Markets: Companies selling mass consumer goods and services such as juices, cosmetics, athletic shoes, and air travel establish a strong brand image by developing a superior product or service, ensuring its availability, and backing it with engaging communications and reliable performance. As the name suggests, the consumer market involves marketing of consumer goods such as Television, Refrigerator, Air conditioners etc. As awareness and knowledge of consumers rises, marketing of consumer goods gets tougher. Today a lot of focus has shifted to consumer goods marketing because a consumer has a lot of choices. The brand loyalty is at its lowest and the worst fear a brand can face now is a high rate of brand defection. Along with the branding part, the costing part too needs to be considered in the consumer market. The cost of operations is too high with various departments and specialties coming together to form a consumer goods companies. There is inventory management, logistics, manufacturing, promotions, strategies, and whatnot. The presence of a tangible product increases the importance of proper planning without

which a consumer goods company is sure to fail. Consumer durable market is characterized by the presence of high competition, penetration pricing, dynamics of channel management and finally a high expense on manufacturing and distribution

Business Markets: Companies selling business goods and services often face well-informed professional buyers skilled at evaluating competitive offerings. Advertising and Web sites can play a role, but the sales force, the price, and the seller's reputation may play a greater one. Similar to consumer markets, nowadays even the organizational buyer has numerous options in his kitty. Just at the number of software and hardware services providers in the Market. For software there's IBM, Accenture, Oracle and several other top brands. For hardware there's Microsoft, Dell, and others. The competition is increasing. Furthermore, the organizational buyer will think 4 to 5 times before purchasing a product because of the cost involved. An order for computers for a multinational company's office will probably go in crores. Because of the cost involved, Organizational buyers make it a point to be much more knowledgeable than any average customer. Organizational buyers have a group of dedicated people who form the "Purchase department." These people are responsible for buying at the lowest possible price they can. The other characteristic of business markets is the time taken to close the deal. Business markets involve selling of projects too. Projects take time to be analysed and to fix up a price as they consider the cost of inflation while the project is in progress. Thus they need proper planning else the cost of the project would take a hit on the profits for the company. Finally, In case of business markets, the sales force, the price and the product have a much upper value than the promotions. This is absolutely opposite to consumer markets where promotions makes a huge difference to the consumer buying process. Some services such as Accenture and Intel hardly advertise their products nowadays. They just advertise their presence in the market. The rest is done by the quality of products they have. Same goes for Microsoft. Of the 4 P's of the marketing mix, promotions is the most ignored in case of business markets.

Global Markets: Companies in the global marketplace navigate cultural, language, legal, and political differences while deciding which countries to enter, how to enter each (as exporter, licensor, joint venture partner, contract manufacturer, or solo

manufacturer), how to adapt product and service features to each country, how to set prices, and how to communicate in different cultures. The changes in the cost of transportation, government policies and the overall need for expansion have given an impetus to globalization. The strategies of global market companies may differ from each other but the core concept is the same. Most global marketing companies work on one fundamental. “Think local, act global”. The company which comes at the top of my mind is McDonalds and Coca Cola. Both known for their global presence as well as for the way they customize their message based on the country they are in.

Companies may be global on the basis of both – business to business as well as business to consumers. The challenges faced by global companies are much more than those faced by local companies. Firstly let’s look at the options they have for modes of entry. How do they enter a country? Do they partner with some local company? Do they export their product? Or they shift a part of their operations in the country to directly establish their presence? Multiply these questions with the cost of operations involved as well as the amount of information which needs to be accessed. Now you know the difficulties!! Nonetheless, Global expansion is an excellent option for any company provided it has deep pockets to sustain the initial expenditure required to establish yourself in another country.

Nonprofit and Governmental Markets: Companies selling to nonprofit organizations with limited purchasing power such as churches, universities, charitable organizations, and government agencies need to price carefully. Much government purchasing requires bids; buyers often focus on practical solutions and favor the lowest bid, other things equal. The government market mainly involves Government offices, ordnance factories, army, navy and other government departments. The non profits on the other hand may involve groups based on different beliefs some of which really have an excellent brand name and are recognised by several companies. Both of these entities have a limited purchasing budget and hence the price of products is important. Accordingly the purchase process is organized.

Most government and nonprofit organizations involve the issuance of tenders and bids. The one to bid the lowest is known as L1 and the one to bid the highest is known

as H1. Naturally, L1 wins the bid. There are several companies which have modified their products specifically for the government markets to come L1 in these tenders and bids. The products may be a bit inferior, nonetheless they do meet the government's requirement, and that is what matters in the end. Each of these markets can be tapped separately by companies. In fact, some consumer durable companies have different departments for corporate sales and government sales. Tapping each of these markets provides an avenue for the company to expand their market share and overall revenue generated by the company.

Types of Consumer Markets

Business markets are defined by the buyers within them. In addition to targeting specific types of consumers or segments of a particular marketplace, businesses can tailor their products and services to different types of macro marketplaces. You can sell the same product or service differently in various markets by modifying what you offer, your pricing, promotional strategies and distribution channels.

1. Business to Business (B2B)

B2B- as the name suggests is a Business To Business model which facilitates business transactions from one company to the other. Like an engineering equipment manufacturing company which provides equipment to the Construction Company. When you sell to other businesses, you are participating in the business-to-business market. The B2B marketplace requires a greater emphasis on customer education and proof of benefit than on desirability, status or other emotional sales pitches. Business-to-business selling often consists of garnering larger orders from fewer customers, with more personal interaction, rather than advertising and promotions, necessary. Within the B2B market are subsets of the marketplace focusing on the sale of industrial products, consulting services and financial services.

Industrial

The industrial market consists largely of companies transacting business in hard goods such as machinery, materials, chemicals, vehicles and office furniture and supplies. The buyers are often manufacturers; the sellers are known as suppliers. Suppliers

must be experts in their product or service and the market overall. They often use a consultative selling approach to partner with customers, helping them solve problems or meet specific business goals.

Professional Services

Another subset of B2B is professional services, which consists of providing consulting or delivery of business needs such as marketing, information technology, human resources, benefits planning, management consulting and payroll. Some commercial services, especially those involving information technology systems, include the sale of hard goods such as computers and software. Many solo entrepreneurs offer professional services as consultants, while firms might group a variety of services — such as advertising, public relations, promotions and media buying — under one roof.

Financial Services

One area of the commercial services market deals with selling of financial services. This can include banking, insurance, commercial credit and lending, tax planning, investments and asset management and consulting publicly traded companies. Financial services professionals are often highly trained, certified, licensed or bonded. Financial services providers often must follow specific government rules and regulations.

2. Business-to-government (B2G)

Business-to-government (B2G) is a derivative of B2B marketing and often referred to as a market definition of “public sector marketing” which encompasses marketing products and services to various government levels - including federal, state and local through integrated marketing communications techniques such as strategic public relations, branding, marcom, advertising, and web-based communications. B2G networks provide a platform for businesses to bid on government opportunities which are presented as solicitations in the form of RFPs in a reverse auction fashion. Public sector organizations (PSOs) post tenders in the form of RFPs, RFIs, RFQs, Sources Sought, etc. and suppliers respond to them. Government agencies typically have pre-negotiated standing contracts vetting the vendors/suppliers and their products and services for set prices. These can be state, local or federal contracts and some may

be grandfathered in by other entities (i.e. California's MAS Multiple Award Schedule will recognize the federal government contract holder's prices on a General Services Administration Schedule). There are multiple social platforms dedicated to this vertical market and they have risen in popularity with the onset of the ARRA/Stimulus Program and increased government funds available to commercial entities for both grants and contracts. Working with governments provides a variety of opportunities and challenges. A contract with a municipal, state or federal agency means having a solid client that will honor its obligations and pay you on time. Getting these contracts usually requires filling out lengthy bids, showing proof of your corporate status and agreeing to follow other business practices government agencies require. In some locales, bidders for government contracts must meet requirements that include at least partial ownership of the company by a minority. Even a landscaping or janitorial contract for a local city hall or school can take months to secure.

3. Business to consumer market (B2C)

B2C- A Business to consumer model, usual one where the online retailers sell directly to the consumers. The Retail Market comprises of the Supermarkets, Departmental Stores, Food Chain Outlets, Specialty Stores and Franchise Sores. This type of Consumer Market is discovering new business opportunities with each passing day because of the rapidly changing lifestyle and spending pattern of the people. Even in the suburban areas and in small towns, Departmental Stores are coming up from the big retail chain houses as westernized lifestyle and western culture is making their presence felt all over the world. This type of market generates low profit margins but has high growth potential. To utilize this growth potential, companies need to modify their business activities in accordance with the changing lifestyle and changing consumption trends of the customers. If the customers receive enough value for money, only then they will be loyal to the brands and will make repeated purchase.

Consumer Products Market

Durable Goods:

This market comprises of the markets for different consumer products. This includes market for consumer durables, FMCG (Fast Moving Consumer Goods), consumer electronic goods, domestic electrical appliances, cosmetics, jewellery, furniture, air conditioners, bicycles, and apparels. In Consumer Products Market aggressive marketing is required because the customers of consumer product market lack in loyalty and tend to shift from one brand to another very quickly. The consumer products market is characterized by high level of competition among the sellers. The companies are continuously engaged in modification of business models and business activities to match up with the changing consumer needs. Moreover, the norms of WTO (World Trade Organization) are resulting in various mergers, alliances, and tie-ups among the companies. The companies are being compelled to go for these alliances to remain competitive and to exist in the market because, losing the competitive edge will ensure complete market exit.

Food and Beverages Market

This market consists of the sub-markets like markets for dairy products, bakery products, packaged food products, Beverages, Confectionary, Beer, Alcohol, meat and poultry products. This type of Consumer Market is full of growth opportunities because of changing lifestyle of present era. Consumer Awareness and Brand Loyalty of customers help this market to grow to a different high.

Transportation Service Market

This type of Consumer Market consists of Postal Services, Courier Services and Logistic Services. Transportation Service Market is generally dominated by a large number of medium and small enterprises and a few number of large enterprises. Companies in this type of market essentially require brand name and strong distribution network and significant amount of capital investment. With emergence of technology based advanced facilities like e-commerce and with the increasing use of internet, new horizons are opening for this type of market. The companies can utilize the advantages of reduced costing, improved customer relationship and accelerated movement of materials and can go for strategic tie ups with international business houses. This way, they can make proper use of the new business opportunities which

has been generated by the rising level of Foreign Direct Investment and Economic Growth around the world.

4. Consumer to Consumer (C2C) :

Customer to customer (C2C) is a business model that facilitates an environment, usually online, where customers can trade with each other. Two implementations of C2C markets are auctions and classifieds. C2C marketing has soared in popularity with the arrival of the internet, as companies such as eBay and Craigslist have fostered greater interaction between customers. At its most basic level, C2C represents a market environment where one customer purchases goods from another customer using a third-party business or platform to help facilitate the deal. C2C businesses are a new type of model that has arisen with ecommerce technology and the sharing economy. The C2C marketplace has increased over time as more companies have entered the space to facilitate C2C transactions. Many companies target niche markets to list specific products and attract unique consumers. The C2C market is projected to grow in the future because of its cost-effectiveness. The cost of using third parties is declining and the amount of products for sale by consumers is steadily rising. Retailers see it as a very important business model, given consumers' growing use of social media and other online channels. These channels showcase specific products already owned by consumers and increase demand, which drives increased online traffic to C2C platforms. However, C2C has some issues, such as lack of quality control or payment guarantees. There's also the occasional difficulty in making credit card payments. The rise of PayPal and other payment systems over the years has helped eliminate the latter problem.

C2C is a category of e-commerce which allows consumers to interact with each other. This model of e-commerce facilitates transactions of products or services between consumers. In business to consumer model, a consumer approaches a business to purchase goods or services. In C2C model, the business provides a platform where consumers can sell products or services to each other. The main goal of C2C is to help buyers find sellers. This benefits both the parties. A buyer finds a product or a service which would have otherwise been hard to find and a seller benefits by selling the product or a service. The platforms for such transactions are usually provided by

third parties, which act as intermediaries between the sellers and buyers. For instance, online portals such as E-bay facilitate sellers to post their goods or services online that is available for consumers to purchase. In such transactions, the third party may charge a transaction fee or commission. Products sold on these websites can be new or second hand. The proliferation of Internet services across the world and the significant increase in the use of smart phones can be attributed as major factors to facilitate the C2C ecommerce market growth. Users can sign-up on online portals providing C2C services and begin to buy or sell desired products or services. The reduction in the costs of these products and services, due to the absence of middlemen, wholesalers and retailers involved in the transaction has further aided to the growth of global C2C ecommerce market. Moreover, sellers are no longer restricted to local regions and can reach national and international audiences. Furthermore, the need of capital investment on outlet stores is eliminated and the inventory costs are reduced. This enables the sellers to sell their products at higher prices and at the same time buyers can purchase them at comparatively cheaper prices. Also, the convenience associated with this model with regards to ample choices available to buyers is an advantage for the subscribers of such portals. The advent and increasing popularity of online payment systems is expected to fuel the growth of C2C e-commerce, globally. However, Internet frauds and identity threats, absence of payment guarantees are the hurdles in adoption of these services. C2C websites have no control over the quality of goods being sold on them as they only act as intermediaries. The possibility of illegal or pirated products sold through such websites is a threat to the C2C market. On the basis of source of revenue, the C2C e-commerce market can be broadly segmented into classifieds and auctions. Classifieds can be further segmented into products and services. In terms of geography, C2C e-commerce market is segmented into North America, Europe, Asia Pacific, Middle East and Africa (MEA) and Latin America. North America is one of the leading regions in the global market because of high penetration of Internet and a large number of Smartphone users. Asia Pacific is expected to witness rapid growth in the coming years due to the rise in Internet and Smartphone users, mainly in China and India. The key players in the C2C e-commerce market include eBay Inc, Amazon.com, Inc., Craigslist, Inc, Taobao.com, OLX, Inc, Quikr India Private Limited , uBid.com, Auctions.com and Airbnb, Inc.

5. Consumer to business C2B:-

Consumer-to-business (C2B) is a business model in which consumers (individuals) create value and businesses consume that value. For example, when a consumer writes reviews or when a consumer gives a useful idea for new product development then that consumer is creating value for the business if the business adopts the input. Excepted concepts are crowd sourcing and co-creation. C2B model, also called a reverse auction or demand collection model, enables buyers to name or demand their own price, which is often binding, for a specific good or service. The website collects the demand bids then offers the bids to participating sellers. Another form of C2B is the electronic commerce business model in which consumers can offer products and services to companies, and the companies pay the consumers. This business model is a complete reversal of the traditional business model in which companies offer goods and services to consumers (business-to-consumer = B2C). We can see the C2B model at work in blogs or internet forums in which the author offers a link back to an online business thereby facilitating the purchase of a product (like a book on Amazon.com), for which the author might receive affiliate revenues from a successful sale. Elance was the first C2B model e-commerce site. C2B is a kind of economic relationship that is qualified as an inverted business type. The advent of the C2B scheme is due to:

- The internet connecting large groups of people to a bidirectional network; the large traditional media outlets are one-directional relationships whereas the internet is bidirectional.
- Decreasing costs of technology; individuals now have access to technologies that were once only available to large companies (digital printing and acquisition technology, high performance computers, and powerful software).
- Consumer to business, something as simple as selling used goods to a company which will improvise it and sell it at a better price.

C2B business models include reverse auctions, in which customers name the price for a product or service they wish to buy. Another form of C2B occurs when a consumer provides a business with a fee-based opportunity to market the business's products

on the consumer's blog. For example, food companies may ask food bloggers to include a new product in a recipe, and review it for readers of their blogs. YouTube reviews may be incentivized by free products or direct payment. This could also include paid advertisement space on the consumer website. Google Ad words/Ad sense has enabled this kind of relationship by simplifying the process in which bloggers can be paid for ads. Services such as Amazon Affiliates allow website owners to earn money by linking to a product for sale on Amazon.

2.4 EVOLUTION OF MARKETING CONCEPT

A correct understanding of marketing concept is fundamental to the study of modern marketing and marketing management. In any walk of life, thinking precedes doing; the way of thinking that determines the very course of action. A 'concept' is a philosophy, an attitude, a course of thinking, an idea or a notion relating to any aspect of divine and human creations. The philosophy of an organisation in the dynamic realm of marketing is referred to as a 'marketing concept.' A concept is an orientation or a philosophy;

Thus, marketing concept is the way of life in which all the resources of an organisation are mobilized to create, stimulate, and satisfy the consumer at a profit. It represents a distinct philosophy of business and considers marketing more than a physical process. Wherever this concept prevails, that marketing organisation is future oriented, customer oriented, value oriented, profit oriented and applies modern management practices to all sales, distribution and other marketing functions. It is a managerial philosophy and organizational structure that centers on the desires of the consumers. It calls on the company, in essence, to make only "what it can sell. It, therefore, reserves the right of reversing the logic of the past that the task of marketing is to sell what the firm makes.

Evolution of Marketing Concept:

This marketing philosophy has undergone a thorough and gradual change since the great Industrial Revolution that took place during the latter-half of the 18th and first-half of the 19th centuries. This gradual change can be traced under four periods and captions namely, production orientation period, sales-orientation period, customer-orientation period, and social orientation period.

Following is the brief explanation of each philosophy and corresponding period:

1. Production Orientation Philosophy:

Till 1930s, there prevailed a strong feeling that whenever a firm has a good product, it results in automatic consumer response and that needed little or no promotional efforts. This production-oriented marketing concept was built on “Good wine needs no push.” That is, if the product is really good and the price is reasonable, there is no need for special marketing efforts.

The assumptions of this concept are:

- (i) Anything that can be produced can be sold,
- (ii) The most important task of management is to keep the cost of production down.
- (iii) A firm should produce only certain basic products.

Under this concept, production is the starting point. The product acceptability occurs after the product is produced.

2. Sales Orientation Philosophy:

The failures of the production orientation philosophy of 1930s paved the way for change in the outlook that was possible during 1940s. This reshaped philosophy was sales-orientation that holds good to a certain extent even today. It states that mere making available the best product is not enough; it is futile unless the firm resorts to aggressive salesmanship. Effective sales-promotion, advertising and public- relations are of top importance. High pressure salesmanship and heavy doses of advertising are a must to move the products of the firm.

The essence of sales orientation philosophy is “Goods are not bought but sold.” The maker of product must say that his product is best and he fails if he keeps mum. The assumptions of this philosophy are:

- (i) Producing the best possible product.

- (ii) Finding the buyer for the product,
- (iii) The management's main task is to convince the buyers through high pressure tactics, if necessary.

The philosophy has been prevailing since 1940. It is more prevalent in selling all kinds of insurance policies, consumer non-durables and consumer durable products, particularly the status-symbols.

3. Customer Orientation Philosophy:

This philosophy was brought into play during 1950s and points out that the fundamental task of business undertaking is to study and understand the needs, wants, desires and values of potential consumers and produce the goods in the light of these findings so that consumer specifications are met totally. Here, the starting point is the customer rather than the product. The enterprise is to commence with the consumer and end with the requisite product. It emphasizes the role of marketing research well before the product is made available in the market place.

The assumptions are:

1. The firm should produce only that product as desired by the consumer.
2. The management is to integrate all its activities in order to develop programmes to satisfy the consumer wants.
3. The management is to be guided by 'long-range profit goals' rather than 'quick sales.'

This means a radical change in the philosophy. It meant two basic changes namely:

- (i) Move from production to market-orientation,
- (ii) Gradual shift from age old "Caveat emptor" to "Caveat vendor".

Since 1950, this philosophy is in vogue and will continue so long as consumer is the King of the market.

4. Social Orientation Philosophy:

There has been a further refinement in the marketing concept particularly during 1970s and 1980s. Accordingly, the new concept goes beyond understanding the consumer needs and matching the products accordingly. This philosophy cares for not only consumer satisfaction but for consumer welfare or social welfare. Such social welfare speaks of pollution-free environment and quality of human life.

Thus, a firm manufacturing a pack of cigarettes for consumer must not only produce the best cigarettes but pollution-free cigarettes; an automobile not only fuel efficient but less pollutant one. In other words, the firm is to discharge its social responsibilities. Thus, social welfare becomes the added dimension.

The assumptions of social-orientation philosophy are:

- (i) The firm is to produce only those products as are wanted by the consumers,
- (ii) The firm is to be guided by long-term profit goals rather than quick sales.
- (iii) The firm should discharge its social responsibilities,
- (iv) The management is to integrate the firm's resources and activities to develop programme to meet these individual consumer and social needs.

This social oriented philosophy is the latest and is considered as an integrated concept. This philosophy, as it covers earlier long-standing concepts, is bound to rule the marketing world for pretty long time. However, we are to wait and see as to what changes are likely in the coming years and decades that will shape the new marketing concept.

2.5 SUMMARY

Each time you buy a product or service, you are participating in the consumer market. Whether you're picking up groceries for the week or paying to get your car washed, you're part of this larger system.

A consumer market is the very system that allows us to purchase products, goods, and services. These items can be used for personal use or shared with others. In a

consumer market, you make your own decisions about how you will spend money and use the products you purchase. The more people who go out and actively purchase products, the more active the consumer market.

The marketing concept and philosophy is one of the simplest ideas in marketing, and at the same time, it is also one of the most important marketing philosophies. At its very core are the customer and his or her satisfaction. The marketing concept and philosophy states that the organization should strive to satisfy its customers' wants and needs while meeting the organization's goals. In simple terms, "the customer is king". The implication of the marketing concept is very important for management. It is not something that the marketing department administers, nor is it the sole domain of the marketing department. Rather, it is adopted by the entire organization. From top management to the lowest levels and across all departments of the organization, it is a philosophy or way of doing business. The customers' needs, wants, and satisfaction should always be foremost in every manager and employees' mind. Wal-Mart's motto of "satisfaction guaranteed" is an example of the marketing concept. Whether the Wal-Mart employee is an accountant or a cashier, the customer is always first.

2.6 GLOSSARY

- **Consumer Markets:** Companies selling mass consumer goods and services such as juices, cosmetics, athletic shoes, and air travel spend a great deal of time establishing a strong brand image by developing a superior product and packaging, ensuring its availability, and backing it with engaging communications and reliable service.
- **Business Markets:** Companies selling business goods and services often face well-informed professional buyers skilled at evaluating competitive offerings. Business buyers buy goods to make or resell a product to others at a profit. Business marketers must demonstrate how their products will help achieve higher revenue or lower costs. Advertising can play a role, but the sales force, the price, and the company's reputation may play a greater one. Another Version of Business Market: Marketplaces where organizations purchase raw materials, natural resources and components of other products for their resale or for use in manufacturing another product. Business markets

are generally made up of businesses which buy products and raw materials for their own operation.

- **Global Markets:** Companies in the global marketplace must decide which countries to enter; how to enter each (as an exporter, licensor, joint venture partner, contract manufacturer, or solo manufacturer); how to adapt product and service features to each country; how to price products in different countries; and how to design communications for different cultures. They face different requirements for buying and disposing of property; cultural, language, legal and political differences; and currency fluctuations. Yet, the payoff can be huge.
- **Nonprofit and Governmental Markets:** Companies selling to nonprofit organizations with limited purchasing power such as churches, universities, charitable organizations, and government agencies need to price carefully. Lower selling prices affect the features and quality the seller can build into the offering. Much government purchasing calls for bids, and buyers often focus on practical solutions and favor the lowest bid in the absence of extenuating factors

2.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What are government markets meant for?

- 2) Why are business markets important in our economy?

2.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Discuss the evolution of marketing concepts and also highlight their significance
- 2) Distinguish between B2B, B2C and C2C markets using appropriate examples.

2.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester**Lesson No. 3****MARKETING AND MARKETING ENVIRONMENT****Unit - I**

CONCEPTS / PHILOSOPHIES OF MARKETING**STRUCTURE**

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Concepts / Philosophies of Marketing
 - 3.3.1 The Five Marketing Philosophies
- 3.4 Summary
- 3.5 Glossary
- 3.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 3.7 Lesson End Exercises
- 3.8 Suggested Readings

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The marketing concept relies upon marketing research to define market segments, their size, and their needs. The marketing department makes the appropriate decisions to satisfy those needs. The marketing concept and philosophy is one of the simplest ideas in marketing. and at the same time, it is also one of the most important marketing philosophies. At its very core are the customer and his or her satisfaction. The marketing concept and philosophy states that the organization should strive to satisfy its

customers' wants and needs while meeting the organization's goals. In simple terms, "the customer is king".

3.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- understand the philosophies of marketing

3.3 CONCEPTS/ PHILOSOPHIES OF MARKETING

The implication of the marketing concept is very important for management. It is not something that the marketing department administers, or is it the sole domain of the marketing department. Rather, it is adopted by the entire organization. From top management to the lowest levels and across all departments of the organization. Marketing concept is a philosophy or way of doing business. The customers' needs, wants, and satisfaction should always be foremost in every manager and employees' mind. Wal-Mart's motto of "satisfaction guaranteed" is an example of the marketing concept. Whether the Wal-Mart employee is an accountant or a cashier, the customer is always first.

As simple as the philosophy sounds, the concept is not very old in the evolution of marketing thought. However, it is at the end of a succession of business philosophies that cover centuries. To gain a better understanding of the thought leading to the marketing concept, the history and evolution of the marketing concept and philosophy are examined first. Next the marketing concept and philosophy and some misconceptions about it are discussed.

3.3.1 The Five Marketing Philosophies

The five Marketing Philosophies help in determining the management of marketing. Companies approach and conduct business in different ways in order to achieve their organizational goals. The five competing concepts by which companies are guided in their marketing efforts are:

1. **Production concept**, which is based on the fact that consumers favor products that are available and affordable. Concentration on production efficiency and effective

distribution networks outweigh the customer's actual needs and wants. This is used primarily when demand exceeds supply and the focus is on finding production methods that can bring the price down to attract more customers.

2. **Product concept**, which is based on ways to improve the quality, performance, and features to attract buyers. This philosophy tends to spend too much time adding features to their products, rather than thinking about what people actually need and want.

3. **Selling concept**, which places the focus on sales rather than what people actually need or want. Most of the time the product is misrepresented which results in high customer dissatisfaction.

4. **Marketing concept**, which focuses on what people need and want more than the needs of the seller. This concept is about the importance of satisfying the customer's needs to achieve company success. Products are developed around those needs and wants.

5. **Societal marketing concept**, which not only uses the same philosophy as the marketing concept, but also focuses around the products benefit to the betterment of society as a whole. Greater emphasis is put on environmental impacts, population growth, resource shortages, and social services.

The marketing concept and philosophy evolved as the last of three major philosophies of marketing. These three philosophies are the product, selling, and marketing philosophies. Even though each philosophy has a particular time when it was dominant, a philosophy did not die with the end of its era of dominance. In fact, all three philosophies are being used today.

- **Production Concept**

The Idea of production concept is - "Consumers will favor products that are available and highly affordable". This concept is one of the oldest Marketing management orientations that guide sellers.

Companies adopting this orientation run a major risk of focusing too narrowly on their own operations and losing sight of the real objective.

Most of the times; the production concept can lead to marketing myopia. Management focuses on improving production and distribution efficiency.

Although: in some situations; the production concept is still a useful philosophy.

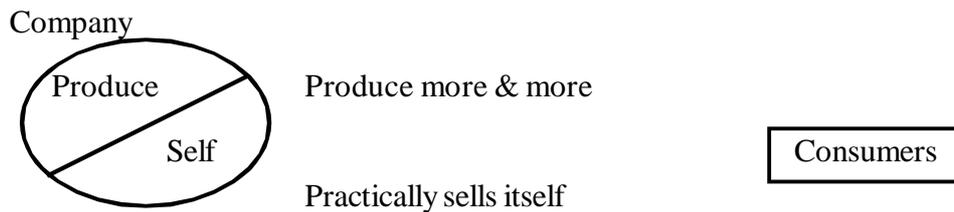


Fig. 3.1 : Production Concept

- **Product Concept**

The product concept holds that the consumers will favor products that offer the most in quality, performance and innovative features.

Here; under this concept.

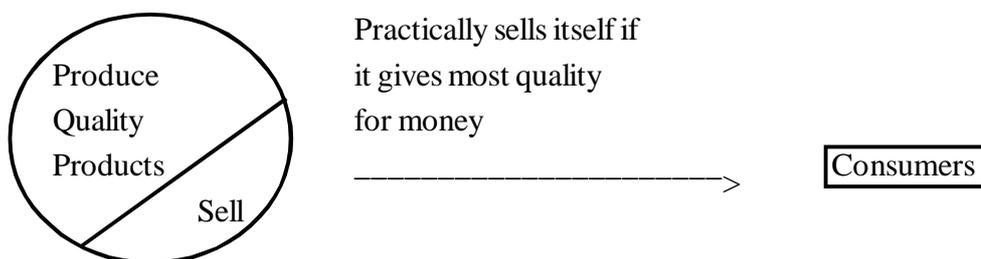
Marketing strategies are focused on making continuous product improvements.

Product quality and improvement are important parts of marketing strategies sometimes the only part. Targeting: only on the company's products could also lead to marketing myopia.

For example: Suppose a company makes the best quality Floppy disk. But a customer does really need a floppy disk?

She or he needs something that can be used to store the data. It can be achieved by a USB Flash drive, SD Memory cards, portable hard disks and etc.

So that company should not look to make the best floppy disk. They should focus to meet the customer's data storage needs.



Buyers admire well made products and can appraise product quality and performance.

Fig 3.2 : The Product Concept

• **Selling Concept**

The selling concept holds the idea- “consumers will not buy enough of the firm’s products unless it undertakes a large-scale selling and promotion effort”.

Here the management focuses on creating sales transactions rather than on building long- term, profitable customer relationship.

In other words:

The aim is to sell what the company makes rather than making what the market wants. Such aggressive selling program carries very high risks.

In selling concept the marketer assumes that customers will be coaxed into buying the product will like it. If they don’t like it, they will possibly forget their disappointment and buy it again later. This is usually very poor and costly assumption.

Typically the selling concepts is practiced with sought goods. Unsought goods are that buyers do not normally think of buying, such as insurance or blood donations.

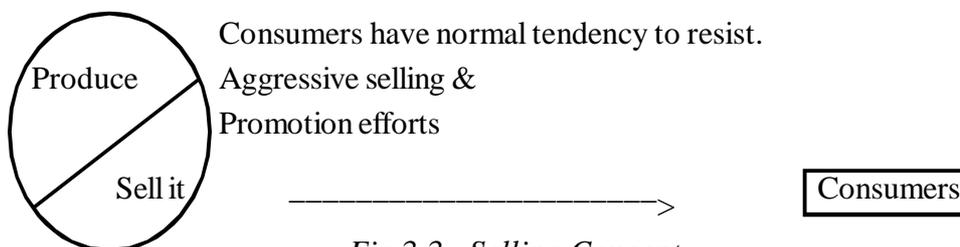


Fig 3.3 : Selling Concept

Making sale becomes primary function and consumer satisfaction secondary

- **Marketing Concept**

The marketing concept holds “achieving organizational goals depends on knowing the needs and wants of target markets and delivering the desired satisfactions better than competitors do”.

Here marketing management takes a “customer first” approach.

Under the marketing concept, customer focus and value are the routes to achieve sales and profits.

The marketing concept is a customer-centered “sense and responds” philosophy .

The job is not to find the right customers for your product but to find the right products for your customers.

The marketing concept and the selling concepts are two extreme concepts and totally different from each other.

Difference between Selling Concept and Marketing Concept

<i>No.</i>	<i>The Selling Concept</i>	<i>The Marketing Concept</i>
1.	undertakes a large-scale selling and promotion effort	undertakes activities such as : market research.
2.	The Selling Concept is suitable with unsought goods - those that buyers do not normally think of buying, such as insurance or blood donations.	The Marketing Concept is suitable for almost any type of product and market.
3.	Focus of the selling concept starts at the production level.	Focus of the marketing concept starts at understanding the market.
4.	Any company following selling concept undertakes a high-risk	Companies that are following the marketing concept requires to bare less risk and uncertainty.

5.	The Selling Concept assumes “customers who are coaxed into buying the product will like it. Or if they don’t like it, they will possibly forget their disappointment and buy it again later.”	Instead of making an assumption, The marketing concept finds out what really the consumer requires and acts accordingly to them.
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6.	The Selling Concept makes poor poor assumptions.	Marketing concept works on facts gathered by its “market and customer first” approach.
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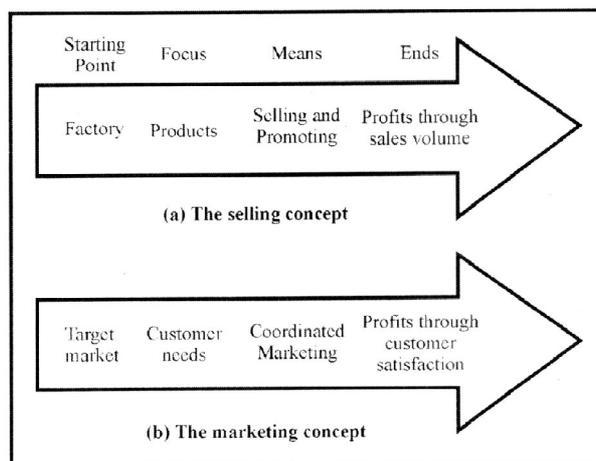


Fig: 3.4: The Selling and Marketing Concepts

- **Societal Marketing Concept**

Societal marketing concept questions whether the pure marketing concept overlooks possible conflicts between consumer short-run wants and consumer long-run welfare.

The societal marketing concept hold “marketing strategy should deliver value to customers in a way that maintains or improves both the consumer’s and society’s well-being”.

It calls for sustainable marketing, socially and environmentally responsible marketing that meets the present needs of consumers and businesses while also preserving or enhancing the ability of future generations to meet their needs .

The Societal Marketing concept puts the human welfare on top before profit and satisfying the wants.

The global warming panic button is pushed and a revelation is required in the way we use our resources. So companies are slowly either fully or partially trying to implement the societal marketing concept.

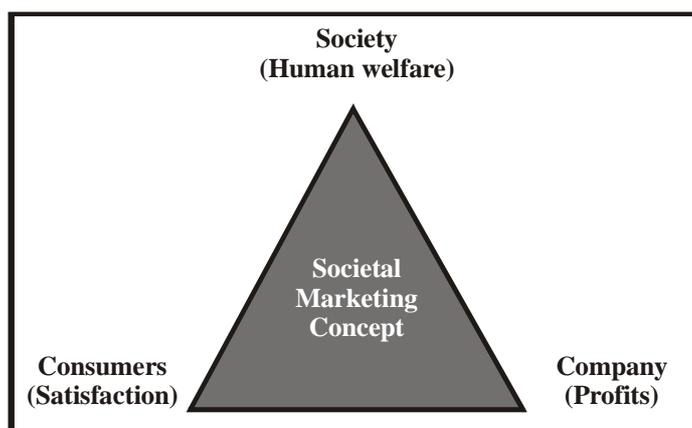


Fig. 3.5

- **Product Philosophy**

The product philosophy was the dominant marketing philosophy prior to the Industrial Revolution and continued to the 1920s. The product philosophy holds that the organization knows its product better than anyone or any organization. The company knows what will work in designing and producing the product and what will not work. For example, the company may decide to emphasize the low cost or high quality of their products. This confidence in their ability is not a radical concept, but the confidence leads to the consumer being overlooked. Since the organization has the great knowledge and skill in making the product, the organization also assumes it knows what is best for the consumer.

This philosophy of only relying on the organization's skill and desires for the product did not lead to poor sales. In much of the product philosophy era, organizations were able to sell all of the products that they made. The success of the product philosophy era is due mostly to the time and level of technology in which it was dominant. The product era spanned both the pre-Industrial Revolution era and much of the time after the Industrial Revolution.

The period before the Industrial Revolution was the time when most goods were made by hand. The production was very slow and few goods could be produced. However, there was also a demand for those goods, and the slow production could not fill the demand in many cases. The importance for management of this shortage was that very little marketing was needed.

An example illustrates the effects of the shortages. Today, the gunsmith shop in Williamsburg, Virginia, still operates using the product philosophy. The gunsmiths produce single-shot rifles using the technology available during the 1700s. They are only able to produce about four or five rifles every year, and they charge from \$15,000 to \$20,000 for each rifle. However, the high price does not deter the demand for the guns their uniqueness commands a waiting list of three to four years. Today's Williamsburg Gunsmith Shop situation was typical for organizations operating before the Industrial Revolution. Most goods were in such short supply that companies could sell all that they made. Consequently, organizations did not need to consult with consumers about designing and producing their products.

When mass production techniques created the Industrial Revolution, the volume of output was greatly increased. Yet the increased production of goods did not immediately eliminate the shortages from the pre-industrial era. The new mass production techniques provided economies of scale allowing for lower costs of production and corresponding lower prices for goods. Lower prices greatly expanded the market for the goods, and the new production techniques were struggling to keep up with the demand. This situation meant that the product philosophy would work just as well in the new industrial environment. Consumers still did not need to be consulted for the organization to sell its products.

One of the many stories about Henry Ford illustrates the classic example of the product philosophy in use after the Industrial Revolution. Henry Ford pioneered mass production techniques in the automobile industry. With the techniques, he offered cars at affordable prices to the general public. Before this time, cars were handmade, and only the very wealthy could afford them. The public enthusiastically purchased all the Model T Fords that the company could produce. The evidence that the product philosophy was alive and well in Ford Motor Company came in Henry Ford's famous reaction to consumer requests for more color options. He was said to have responded that "you can have any color car you want as long as it is black." Realizing that different colors would increase the cost of production and price of the Model T's, Henry Ford, using the product philosophy, decided that lower prices were best for the public.

- **Selling Philosophy**

The selling era has the shortest period of dominance of the three philosophies. It began to be dominant around 1930 and stayed in widespread use until about 1950. The selling philosophy holds that an organization can sell any product it produces with the use of marketing techniques, such as advertising and personal selling. Organizations could create marketing departments that would be concerned with selling the goods, and the rest of the organization could be left to concentrate on producing the goods.

The reason for the emergence of the selling philosophy was the ever-rising number of goods available after the Industrial Revolution. Organizations became progressively more efficient in production, which increased the volume of goods. With the increased supply, competition also entered production. These two events eventually led to the end of product shortages and the creation of surpluses. It was because of the surpluses that organizations turned to the use of advertising and personal selling to reduce their inventories and sell their goods. The selling philosophy also enabled part of the organization to keep focusing on the product, via the product philosophy. In addition, the selling philosophy held that a sales or marketing department could sell whatever the company produced.

The Ford Motor Company is also a good example of the selling philosophy and why this philosophy does not work in many instances. Ford produced and sold the Model

T for many years. During its production, the automobile market attracted more competition. Not only did the competition begin to offer cars in other colors, the styling of the competition was viewed as modern and the Model T became considered as old-fashioned. Henry Ford's sons were aware of the changes in the automobile market and tried to convince their father to adapt. However, Henry Ford was sure that his standardized low-price automobile was what the public needed. Consequently, Ford turned to marketing techniques to sell the Model T. It continued to sell, but its market share began to drop. Eventually, even Henry Ford had to recognize consumer desires and introduce a new model.

The selling philosophy assumes that a well-trained and motivated sales force can sell any product. However, more companies began to realize that it is easier to sell a product that the customer wants, than to sell a product the customer does not want. When many companies began to realize this fact, the selling era gave way to the marketing era of the marketing concept and philosophy.

- **Marketing Philosophy**

The marketing era started to dominate around 1950, and it continues to the present. The marketing concept recognizes that the company's knowledge and skill in designing products may not always be meeting the needs of customers. It also recognizes that even a good sales department cannot sell every product that does not meet consumers' needs. When customers have many choices, they will choose the one that best meets their needs.

- **Meeting Customer Needs While Meeting Organizational Goals**

Sometimes in the zeal to satisfy a customer's wants and needs, the marketing concept is construed to mean that the customer is always right. However, the marketing concept also states that it is important to meet organizational goals as well as satisfy customer wants and needs. Satisfying customer needs and organizational goals may involve conflicts that sometimes cannot be resolved. The organization that adopts the marketing concept will do everything in its power to meet the needs of its customers, but it must also make a profit. Sometimes the wants of the customers may include a low price or features that are not attainable for the organization if it is to make a profit. Consequently,

the organization must hope for a compromise between what the consumer wants and what is practical for the business to provide.

Criticism of The Marketing Concept

Interpreted literally, the marketing concept only advocates discovering consumers' wants and needs and satisfying them. Critics assert that consumers may not be aware of all of their wants and needs. In the 1950s, were consumers aware of a need to cook their food by sending microwaves through their food? In the 1960s, were consumers aware of a need to have personal computers in their homes? Critics argue that the marketing concept's concentration on consumers' wants and needs stifles innovation. Organizations will no longer concentrate on research and development in hopes that one product in ten might meet with consumer acceptance, and will less likely come up with innovative products such as microwaves and personal computers.

Supporters of the marketing concept have contended that it does not stifle innovation and that it does recognize that consumers cannot conceive of every product that they may want or need. However, need is defined in a very broad sense. In the microwave and personal computer examples, the need was not for the specific product, but there was a need to cook food faster and a need for writing and calculating. The microwave and personal computer satisfied those needs though the consumer never imagined these products. The marketing concept does not stifle creativity and innovation. It seeks to encourage creativity to satisfy customer needs.

3.4 SUMMARY

The marketing concept is a relative newcomer as a philosophy of doing business. However, its evolution started before the Industrial Revolution. As time progressed, customer and business needs also evolved. The product and selling philosophies eventually evolved into the marketing concept and philosophy. Today, the marketing concept and philosophy stands as a formula for doing business and many believe it is a prescription for success. It aims to satisfy customers by

guiding the organization to meet the customers’ needs and wants while meeting the organization’s goals.

3.5 GLOSSARY

- **Production concept:** Production concept states that consumers favor products that are available and affordable
- **Product concept:-** Product concept is based on ways to improve the quality, performance, and features to attract buyers.
- **Selling concept:-** Selling concept places the focus on sales rather than what people actually need or want.
- **Marketing concept:-** Marketing concept focuses on what people need and want more than the needs of the seller.

3.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q 1 What are the different philosophies of marketing?

Q2 Which concepts of Marketing do you think is the best for FMCG sector?

3.7 LESSON END EXERCISE

Fill in the blanks

- 1) _____ concept not only uses the same philosophy as the marketing concept, but also focuses around the products benefit to the betterment of society as a whole.

3.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Kotler, P., Keller, K., Koshy, A. and Jha, M. 13th Edition (2009), *Marketing Management ; A South Asian Perspective*. Pearson Education, Inc.
- Roa, K. 2nd Edition (2011), *Service Marketing*, New Delhi : Dorling Kindersley (India) Pvt. Ltd.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 4

MARKETING AND MARKETING ENVIRONMENT

Unit - I

**HOLISTIC MARKETING CONCEPTS, MARKETING TASKS,
MARKETING MIX AND MARKETING ENVIRONMENT**

STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Holistic Marketing Concept
- 4.4 Marketing Task
 - 4.4.1 Formulation of marketing strategies
 - 4.4.2 Marketing Planning and Implementation
 - 4.4.3 Strengthening Customer Relationships
 - 4.4.4 Building Strong Brands
 - 4.4.5 Communicating Value to Customers
 - 4.4.6 Delivering Value for Money (VFM) to customers
- 4.5 Marketing Mix
 - 4.5.1 Product
 - 4.5.2 Price
 - 4.5.3 Promotion
 - 4.5.4 Place
 - 4.5.5 Extension of Marketing Mix Ps
- 4.6 Marketing Environment
 - 4.6.1 Economic Forces

- 4.6.2 Technological Factors:
- 4.6.3 Social-cultural Factors
- 4.6.4 Demographic Factors
- 4.6.5 Political-Legal Environment
- 4.7 Summary
- 4.8 Glossary
- 4.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 4.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 4.11 Suggested Readings

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Over the period of time consumer has become more aware and demanding. To address the never ending demands of consumer it's very important to ensure that marketing concept at its core has the capacity to serve the needs of consumers. Moreover the pursuit of satisfying the needs of customer shall also include a well thought over marketing task and marketing mix. Marketer should give due consideration to the analyzing their respective environments. The marketing concept is the belief that companies must assess the needs of their consumers first and foremost. Based on those needs, companies can make decisions in order to satisfy their consumers' needs, better than their competition. Companies that hold this philosophy believe that their consumers are the driving forces of their business. Nowadays, most companies have incorporated the marketing concept. So if you were a new company, how would you know what a customer would need and want?

First of all, let us define needs and wants. Needs are basic requirements for an individual to survive. Some examples are water, food, shelter, etc. Obviously, the needs of consumers are wide-ranging. Wants are the desire for something that an individual cannot live without. Some examples are a bigger home, a brand new car, an iPad, and the like. Even though consumers' needs are broad, wants can be very particular.

Consumers decide to buy based on both their needs and wants. Case in point, if they were hungry, they would need food. If you base it simply on that, then any kind of food will do. Yet, the consumer would have particular food in mind. Even though they can get a burger from Burger King, what they might truly want is a half-pound grilled burger from a bar in their local neighborhood. It is at this point that marketers would come in. Marketers acknowledge the needs of consumers and use the consumers' desire for what they want to steer them towards specific products and services.

The marketing concept underscores:

- identifying the market or targeting consumers;
- understanding the needs and wants of the consumers in the target market;
- creating products or services based on the consumers' needs and wants
- satisfying the needs of consumers better than competitors; and
- accomplishing all of these while earning a profit.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

- To explain the concept of Holistic Marketing
- To explain the concept of Marketing Task
- To study the concept of Marketing Mix
- To understand the relevance of Marketing Environment

4.3 HOLISTIC MARKETING CONCEPT

The Difference between Marketing and Marketing Concepts.

Sometimes people blur the lines between marketing and marketing concepts. Marketing is promoting the products and services of a company for a particular target market. As a whole, marketing brings attention the offerings of a company. These may be goods for sale or services on offer. Typical examples of marketing on the ground are billboards on the road, television commercials, and magazine advertisements. However, not all companies have the same approach towards marketing their goods and services.

Actually, there are a couple of strategies on making marketing successful for any company. The approaches talked about are these marketing concepts. These approaches of a company peg what kind of marketing tools they can and will use in a business. Marketing concepts are formed through a clear objective that incorporates cost efficiency, effectiveness, and social responsibilities in a target market.

The Difference between Marketing Concept versus Market Concept.

As previously described, the marketing concept is a business philosophy that keeps in mind that long run profitability is best accomplished through concentrating company activities towards satisfying the needs of a specific target market. The market concept, on the other hand, creates suitable market intelligence as connected to present and future consumer needs, as well as the relative capabilities of the competition to satisfy those needs. This concept is the incorporation and distribution of market intelligence throughout departments and coordinated creation and implementation of a company's response to opportunities in the market.

According to kotler "Holistic Marketing concept is based on development, designing, and implementation of marketing program, process, and activities that recognize their breadth and inter-dependencies."

The concept of holistic marketing encompasses following

- Relationships and Networks: Transaction marketing is a part of a larger idea called relationship marketing. Relationship marketing has the aim of building mutually satisfying long term relations with key parties-customers, suppliers, distributors-in order to earn and retain their business. Marketer accomplishes this by delivering high-quality products and services at affair prices to the other parties over time. Relationship marketing builds strong social, economical, and technical ties among parties. The ultimate outcome of relationship marketing is a building of unique company asset called a marketing network.

- Integrated Marketing: When all the company's department works together to serve the customer's interest, the result is integrated marketing. Unfortunately not all the workers of company are trained and motivated to work for the customer. An

engineer once complained that the salesperson are always protecting the customer and are not considering company's interest. This example highlights the issue of coordination problem in serving the interest of customer.

- **Societal perspective:** There has been concern across the globe whether the marketing concept is an appropriate philosophy in an age of environmental deterioration, resource shortages, explosive population growth, world hunger and poverty, and neglected social service. For example- The fast food industry offers tasty but unhealthy food. The hamburgers have high fat content and the restaurant promotes fries and pies, products high in starch and fat. The products are wrapped in convenient packaging, which leads to much waste. In satisfying consumer needs, these restaurants in one or the other way are hurting the health of consumer and causing environmental problems. The societal marketing calls upon marketers to build social and ethical considerations into their marketing practices. They must balance and juggle the often conflicting criteria of company's profits, consumer want satisfaction and public interest. Yet numbers of companies like Body Shop, Ben & jerry and Patagonia- have achieved notable sales and profit gains by adopting and practicing the societal marketing concept.

Case Study

Patagonia- Patagonia world class climber Yvon chouinard founded Patagonia in 1966 by selling rock climbing hardware from the trunk of his car. By the time company changes its focus to selling soft goods and apparel in mid- 1970s, Patagonia was committed to two main goals: providing the high quality gear for outdoor enthusiasts and implementing the solutions to the environment crisis. The gave an earth tax of one percent of sales or ten percent of pre tax profits whichever is greatest to the activist who take radical and strategic steps to protect habitat, wilderness and biodiversity. However, as Patagonia expanded many aspects of its operations contributed to the environmental pollution the company worked so hard to counter. After an internal study in the early 1990s, the company sought to use materials and fabrics that would minimize its impact on environment, such as Synchron fleece made from recycled plastic bottles and the 100 percent organic cotton used in every cotton product. The corporate culture avidly support activism, as evidenced by a company program through which

employees receive pay to work up to two months in an environmental organization. Patagonia sent 70 of its 900 employees abroad on such trips in 1999.

Patagonia is practicing a form of the societal marketing concept called cause-related marketing. Pringle and Thompson define this as activity by which a company with an image, product or service to market builds a relationship or partnership with a cause or a number of causes for mutual benefits.

Nowadays companies view cause related marketing as an opportunity to enhance their reputation, increase customer loyalty, build sales and raise brand awareness. They believe that customers will increasingly look for signs of good corporate citizenship that go beyond supplying rational and emotional benefits. We can say with some amount of confidence that marketplace is not what it used to be earlier. It is changing radically as a result of major societal forces such as technological advances, deregulation and the globalization. The major forces which have created new behaviors and challenges consist of customer's increasing expectation in terms of quality, service and customization. Further brand manufacturers facing intense competition from domestic and foreign brands, resulting in rising promotion cost and shrinking profit margin has a severe impact on marketplace.

Example of Holistic marketing concept

An organization will have different departments like sales and marketing, accounting and finance, R&D and product development and finally HR and operations. Thus, if you want to implement a holistic marketing concept in your organization, you need to ensure that R&D and product development take the feedback from marketing and sales to launch the product which is most likely to attract customers. On the other hand they need to work closely with accounting and finance to find out the exact budget for the project. Sales and marketing need to communicate to the HR the right kind of people that they need, and finally, admin and operations need to devise a plan to retain these people. Thus, in the above manner, you get the right product at a right price with the right profits. Along with this you get the right people who will market your product in the right manner.

If you do all these things, you are sure to get the right customer to your doorstep. This is the complete essence of holistic marketing concept. By doing the right things together as an organization, your product and brand stands a far better chance in being successful than compared to these elements working individually without any holistic vision.

Today, customer mindset is changing. Wealth is becoming lesser and debt is high. Thus customer purchases are being made after lots of thinking. Customers search offline as well as online for the right product and have good knowledge of the product before they purchase. It is likely that the customer has already made a purchase decision even before he enters the showroom. Thus holistic marketing concept is needed at this hour to ensure that the customer chooses your product over everyone else.

A key driver of Holistic marketing is marketing communications. The job of marketing communications is to send the right message to the target group. By approaching various customer contact points, a uniform message can be sent to the customer. This consistency is likely to raise confidence in the customer for your company thereby raising the brand image. Samsung is an example of Holistic marketing where the products are developed keeping the customer in mind, the showrooms are branded in the proper manner, the customer service is polite, and the service is fast. Thus, Samsung is an excellent example of Holistic marketing.

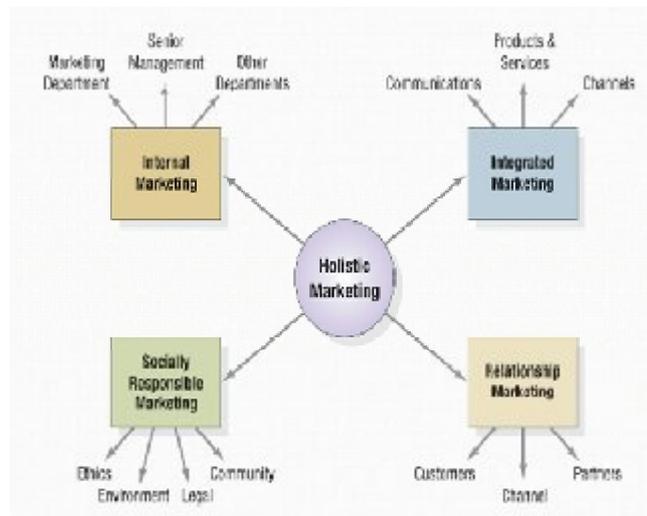


Fig. 4.1

Holistic Marketing Framework

This process is a framework to create, renew and maintain customer value through interaction between pertinent marketing players such as customers, company and collaborators and value based activities such as **value exploration, value creation and value delivery**.

- **Value exploration:** Value exploration means how organizations can identify new value opportunities. This requires an understanding of customer's cognitive space, existing and latent needs and dimensions such as need for participation, stability, freedom and change.

- **Value creation:** In holistic marketing, company must develop value-creation skills to exploit a value opportunity. Marketers must make efforts to recognize the new customer benefits from the customer's perspective, use key competencies from its business field and choose and manage business collaborators from its combined networks. Marketers must recognize the thinking of customer thinks. Marketers must also monitor who the customer admires, who they interact with and who influences them.

Business change is needed to exploit core competencies. It engages three steps:

- Defining the business concept
- Determining the business scope
- Positioning the company's brand identity
- **Value delivery:** Delivery value denotes extensive investment in infrastructure and capabilities. The company must become capable at customer relationship management, internal resources management, and business partnership management. Customer relationship management enables the company to determine who its customers are, how they behave, and what they need or want. It also facilitates the company to respond properly, logically, and promptly to different customer opportunities. To respond effectively, the company requires internal resources management to incorporate major business processes like order processing, general ledger, payroll, and production within a single family. At last, business partnership management enables the company to manage complex relationships with all its business contacts.

Holistic marketing framework.

Working of holistic marketing: Process of holistic marketing is as follows:

First, company or individual want a business profile which includes such things as what current image of company is within industry and position in customers' minds.

After that, organization needs to understand the customers to gain success.

Next, management team must have clarity in internal processes and how they impact both customers and prospects.

Once team has understood the business and their customers, they need a plan that will guide towards the vision and help to accomplish both short-and long-term goals.

To summarize, holistic marketing is a straightforward process of explaining communication of any company. It means a business needs to consider everything

from the behalf of company to the homepage of their web site as well as the type of message that needs to be sent across to the clients. Holistic marketing is amalgamation of selling with honesty, using mind, intuition, and experience to support business. Holistic marketing requires the company to stop and think about how existing and potential customers view its brand, identity, staff, presentation, stationery, products, packaging, and support? Successful companies make sure that the overall image is faultless, to strengthen the brand and attract purchasers.

4.4 MARKETING TASK

Considering the changes that take place in markets, customers and organizations, large numbers of marketers prefer the implementation of holistic marketing. The task of marketing given below, therefore, relate to the requirements of holistic marketing approach.

4.4.1 Formulation of marketing strategies

Strategies to be formulated should aim at: short, medium and long term new product development and introductions, customer segments, positioning, offering differentiation, product mixes, volumes of sales, market shares, prices, margins, revenue and profit earnings.

4.4.2 Marketing Planning and Implementation

- Within the framework of marketing strategies, the organization plan its marketing activities which are basically outcome of market mix tools of McCarthy's four p's of marketing.
- These four P's are price, place, promotion and product.
- Having worked out the detailed plans of such activities (i.e. Decisions related to four P's of marketing) , the proper implementation of them is very important.
- Marketing department will need to be organized according to the plan and its implementation requirements.

4.4.3 Strengthening Customer Relationships

- It has emerged as an important marketing management task.
- It is about knowing your customer, understanding their requirements, providing them the best value, getting closer to them and developing long term relationships with them.

4.4.4 Building Strong Brands

- Brand is a name, term, design, logo/symbol or any other feature that distinguish products and services from those of competitors.
- It creates certain images in the mind of the customer.
- With the favorable and strong image of the product, the customers are motivated to buy that particular product.
- Marketing task is to create such favorable and strong image associated with the brand.

4.4.5 Communicating Value to Customers

- It is the value of the product and services that customers want and ultimately feel satisfied with.
- Therefore, marketing management should communicate as to what kind of value proposition they are offering to the customers via their product and services.
- For this purpose organization must devise an integrated marketing communication program.
- The marketing communication process will be mass as well as personal communication by using judicious mix of advertising in various types of media, product promotion, events, exhibitions, fliers, direct mailers, internet/emails, interactive marketing

4.4.6 Delivering Value for Money (VFM) to customers

- This marketing task aims at deciding and implementing the ways and means of delivering the value of their products and services to the customer.
- It includes channels management.
- The agencies through which the value will be delivered will include organizations own internal logistics resources and external distributors, wholesalers, dealers, retailers etc.
- Market task will be to maximize value delivery to the customer using all of these resources.

4.5 MARKETING MIX

Marketing Mix is a particular combination of the product, its price, the methods to promote it and the ways to make the product available to the customer. Based upon its understanding of customers, a company develops its marketing mix of product, place, price and promotion. The elements of the marketing mix are intricately and sensitively related to each other. The marketing mix is good or bad as a whole. All the elements have to reinforce each other to enhance the experience of the customer. When a change is proposed to be made in one of the elements, it has to be checked if the changed element still fits with and reinforces other elements, or has it started contradicting other elements, making the marketing mix less effective in serving customer. Managers must manage the marketing mix in away that surely has the potential to address the customer needs better than competition.

Emergence and Growth: The growth of four P's can be trace to the late 1940s. The first known mention of a mix has been attributed to a professor of marketing at Harvard University, Prof James Culliton. In 1948, Culliton published an article entitled, The Management of Marketing Cost. Although the idea of marketers as mixers of ingredients caught on, marketers could not reach any consensus about the elements of mix until the 1960s. The first mention of four P's in its modern form was first proposed by E. Jerome McCarthy in 1960, who presented them within a managerial approach that covered analysis, consumer behavior, market research, market segmentation and

planning. Philip Kotler popularized this approach and helped spreading the four P's model. McCarthy 4 Ps has been widely adopted by both marketing academics and practitioners.



Fig. : 4.2

4.5.1 Product

A Product refers to an item that satisfies the consumer's needs or wants. Typical marketing decision regarding product involves deciding what goods or services should be offered to customers. The product provides the primary value to the customer. The customer got interested in the company primarily because of the product or service it was producing or proposed to produce. All other elements should be reinforcing the value proposition of the product.

An important element of product strategy is new product development. As technologies and tastes change, Products become out-of-date and inferior to competition. So the companies must be capable of replacing them with new designs and features that customer value. The most challenging task is to include the latest available technologies and solutions to the latest needs of the customer in a company's product. The decisions regarding product can be related to brand names, warranties, packaging and services which should accompany product offering.

4.5.2 Price

Price refers to the amount the customer pays for a product. It can also be referred to as the sacrifice which consumers are ready to make to acquire a product. Moreover, it is the only component in the marketing mix which has implications for revenue. The marketer needs to be very clear and careful about pricing objectives, methods to arrive at a price and the factors which influence the setting of price. The company must also take into consideration the necessity to give discounts and allowances in some transactions. These requirements can impact the level of list price chosen.

In comparison to other elements of the marketing mix, price can be changed easily. But any mistake in pricing decision can certainly change the customer's perspective about the value of the marketing mix. In the absence of any objective knowledge about the quality of the product, the customer generally builds a strong association between price and quality. In such a scenario, if the price is reduced all of a sudden, customers may start considering it as an inferior quality product, but there are equal chances of a customer considering the price too high for the value that they are getting from the product.

4.5.3 Promotion

Promotion refers to marketing communications which may comprise elements such as advertising, public relations, direct marketing, sales promotion, exhibition and sponsorship. The promotion decision pertains to the selection of the most appropriate mix of the aforementioned tools of promotion. By these means, the target audience is made aware of the existence of the product and the benefits that it confers to customers.

The type of promotional tool used has to gel with other elements of the marketing mix. An expensive product with a limited number of customers should be promoted through personal contacts between buyers and sales persons. Advertising in the mass media would be wasteful as the numbers of customers are far too small and it would be ineffective as the customer will not make a decision to buy an expensive product based on little information provided in an advertisement. Promotion shapes the expectations of customers about the product, when used in a right manner it can

certainly raise expectation of customer and drive sales. However company should avoid making false promises in the name of promotion.

4.5.4 Place

Place involves decisions concerning distribution channels to be used, the location of outlets, methods of transportation and inventory levels to be held. Product should be available in right quantity, at right time and place. Distribution channels consist of independent intermediaries such as retailers, wholesalers and distributors through which goods pass on their way to customers. These intermediaries provide cost-effective access to the marketplace. It will be extremely expensive and cumbersome if the manufacture had to set up the entire infrastructure needed to manage the transfer of goods to the customer. Three distinct functions are performed by distribution channels. They transfer products from the manufacturer to the customers, they pass information from manufacturer to customers and they retrieve payments from the customers to the manufacturer. The three functions are important but it is not essential that all three functions need to be performed by any one channel. There can be three separate channels which can perform each function individually, depending on the efficiency and effectiveness of each channel in carrying out the functions.

4.5.5 Extension of Marketing Mix Ps

Marketing Mix oversimplifies the realities of market. In services, 4Ps do not take into account people who provide the service, processes and physical evidence. In services people are often the service itself. The process or the service is delivered to the customer is a key part of the service. The physical evidence, like the checklist in the car service or a surgeon's uniform, give signals to customers about the quality and reliability of the service.

Marketing is a continually evolving discipline and as such can be one that companies find themselves left very much behind the competition if they stand still for too long. One example of this evolution has been the fundamental changes to the basic Marketing mix. Where once there were 4 Ps to explain the mix, nowadays it is more commonly accepted that a more developed 7 Ps adds a much needed additional layer of depth to the Marketing Mix with some theorists going even going further.

Before we get carried away though what is the Marketing Mix and what is the original 4 Ps principle?

Simply put the Marketing Mix is a tool used by businesses and Marketers to help determine a product or brands offering. The 4 Ps have been associated with the Marketing Mix since their creation by *E. Jerome McCarthy* in 1960 .

The Marketing Mix 4 Ps:

- **Product** - The Product should fit the task consumers want it for, it should work and it should be what the consumers are expecting to get.
- **Place** - The product should be available from where your target consumer finds it easiest to shop. This may be High Street, Mail Order or the more current option via e-commerce or an online shop.
- **Price** - The Product should always be seen as representing good value for money. This does not necessarily mean it should be the cheapest available; one of the main tenets of the marketing concept is that customers are usually happy to pay a little more for something that works really well for them.
- **Promotion** - Advertising, PR, Sales Promotion, Personal Selling and, in more recent times, Social Media are all key communication tools for an organization. These tools should be used to put across the organization's message to the correct audiences in the manner they would most like to hear, whether it be informative or appealing to their emotions.

In the late 70's it was widely acknowledged by Marketers that the Marketing Mix should be updated. This led to the creation of the Extended Marketing Mix in 1981 by Booms & Bitner which added 3 new elements to the 4 Ps Principle. This now allowed the extended Marketing Mix to include products that are services and not just physical things.

**The extended 7 Ps:**

- **People** - All companies are reliant on the people who run them from front line Sales staff to the Managing Director. Having the right people is essential because they are as much a part of your business offering as the products/ services you are offering.
- **Processes** The delivery of your service is usually done with the customer present so how the service is delivered is once again part of what the consumer is paying for.
- **Physical Evidence** - Almost all services include some physical elements even if the bulk of what the consumer is paying for is intangible. For example a hair salon would provide their client with a completed hairdo and an insurance company would give their customers some form of printed material. Even if the material is not physically printed (in the case of PDFs) they are still receiving a “physical product” by this definition.

Though in place since the 1980's the 7 Ps are still widely taught due to their fundamental logic being sound in the marketing environment and marketers abilities to adapt the Marketing Mix to include changes in communications such as social media, updates in the places which you can sell a product/service or customers expectations in a constantly changing commercial environment.

Is there an 8th P?

In some spheres of thinking, there are 8 Ps in the Marketing Mix. The final P is Productivity and Quality. This came from the old Services Marketing Mix and is folded in to the Extended Marketing Mix by some marketers so what does it mean?

The 8th P of the Marketing Mix:

- **Productivity & Quality** - This P asks “is what you’re offering your customer a good deal?” This is less about you as a business improving your own productivity for cost management, and more about how your company passes this onto its customers.

Even after 31 years (or 54 in the case of the original P’s) the Marketing Mix is still very much applicable to a marketer’s day to day work. A good marketer will learn to adapt the theory to fit with not only modern times but their individual business model.

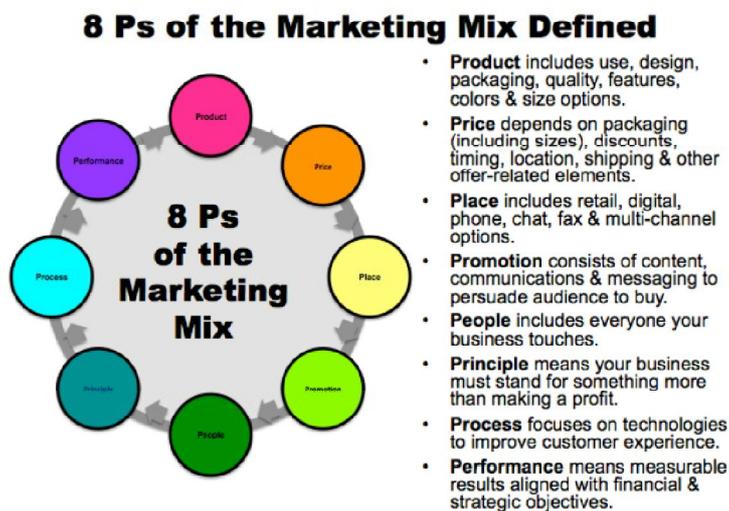


Fig 4.3 : Source : <https://heidicohen.com/four-ps-of-marketing-mix>

4.6 MARKETING ENVIRONMENT

A market oriented company looks outside its premises to take advantage of the emerging opportunities and to monitor and minimize the potential threats faced by it in its business. The environments consist of various forces that affect the company's ability to deliver products and services to its customers. The micro environment of the company comprise of various forces in its immediate environment that effect its ability to operate effectively in its chosen markets. This includes company's suppliers, distributors, customers, and competitors. The macro environment consists of broader forces that not only affect the company and the industry, but also other actors in the micro environment. These shape the characteristics of the opportunities and threats facing a company. These factors are largely uncontrollable by the company. Marketing Environment is the combination of external and internal factors and forces which affect the company's ability to establish a relationship and serve its customers.

The marketing environment of a business consists of an internal and an external environment. The internal environment is company-specific and includes owners, workers, machines, materials etc. The external environment is further divided into two components: micro & macro. The micro or the task environment is also specific to the business but external. It consists of factors engaged in producing, distributing, and promoting the offering. The macro or the broad environment includes larger societal forces which affect society as a whole. The broad environment is made up of six components: demographic, economic, physical, technological, political-legal, and social-cultural environment.

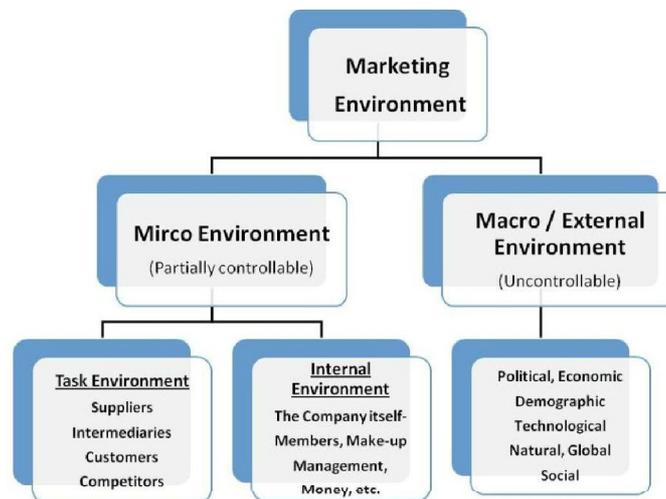


Fig. 4.4

4.6.1 Economic Forces: The economic environment can have a major impact on businesses by affecting patterns of demand and supply. Companies need to keep a track of relevant economic indicators and monitor them over time.

- **Income:** Income of the customer is the most important factor in the economic environment. This indicates their ability to spend on the products sold by the marketer. The marketer not only needs to estimate the income of customer, but also he has to decipher the products on which the customer would be willing to spend his money.
- **Inflation:** It is an important economic indicator of an economy. Inflation refers to increase in price without a corresponding rise in wages, resulting in lower purchasing power of consumer. An economy should try to achieve low rate of inflation.
- **Recession:** The period of economic activity when income, production and employment tend to fall is referred to as recession. Demand of product and services are reduced. Specific activities cause recession. The slow down in high tech sector, rising fuel prices, excessive consumer credit and terror attacks resulted in recession in America in 2001.

- **Interest Rate:** If the interest rate of an economy is high, businesses will borrow capital at higher rate and they will set up new businesses only when they are convinced that they can earn at a rate they are paying on the capital. Therefore if the interest rates are high, new businesses will not come. Even in existing businesses operating cost would go up as their working capital requirement will attract higher interest rates.

4.6.2 Technological Factors

New technologies can be used very effectively to counter inflation and recession. New machines can reduce production costs. The increasing computing and processing capabilities of personal computers is increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of businesses. Advances in information Technologies has made it possible to plan truly global supply chains, in which manufacturing and warehousing is disbursed through out the world depending upon where these activities can be performed at best. Companies will be able to make better products at lesser cost and will be able to make better products at lesser cost and will be able to distribute them economically when supply chains become global.

4.6.3 Social-cultural Factors

Customers live in societies. A large part of being a individual is dependent on the society he reside in. Social factors include attitudes, values and lifestyles of people. Social factors influence the products people buy, the prices they are willing to pay for the product, the effectiveness of specific promotions and how, where and when people expect to purchase products. But societies are hardly ever static. They change gradually and some changes will be imperceptible if not watched closely. Social change is the most difficult variable for marketing managers to forecast, influence and integrate into marketing plans. But it is important that marketers take into account social changes happening in societies in which their customer live when they are framing their marketing strategies. Societies can change in manners which can make companies current products and services totally redundant.

- **Value-** A value is a strongly held and enduring belief. The majority of people

living in a society uphold the values of the society. A person's values are key determinants of what is important and not important to him, how he reacts in a particular situation and how he behaves in social situations.

- **Multiple Lifestyles-** Life style is a mode of living, i.e. it is the way people decide to live their lives. Today people lead multiple lifestyles. They are choosing products and services that meet diverse needs and interest rather than conforming to traditional stereotypes.
- **The Changing Structures of Families-** Multiple lifestyles have evolved because people can choose from a growing number of product and services and most have the money to exercise more options. The growth of dual-income families has resulted in increased purchasing power. More women are working outside homes and this number is only going to increase. The phenomenon of working women has greater impact on marketing strategies and initiatives of companies than any other social change.

4.6.4 Demographic Factors

Demography is the study of people in terms of their age, gender, race, ethnicity and location. Demographics are significant because people constitute markets. Demographics characteristics strongly impacts buyer behavior. Fast growth of population accompanied with rising income means expanding markets. The longer life span means a growing market for products and services targeted to the elderly.

4.6.5 Political-Legal Environment

Political-Legal environment provides the legal framework within which the marketing department has to function. The political-legal environment of the country is influenced by political structures and organizations, political stability, government's intervention in the business, constitutional provisions affecting businesses, government attitude towards business, foreign policy etc. The viability of the businesses depend upon their ability to understand the laws of the land and to abide by them, while not becoming less innovative in their marketing endeavors due to fear of their infringing some laws. Stability of government is a very important factor in a company's decision to locate its

businesses in a country or a state. Businesses prefer to operate in countries where there is a political stability and where the rule of law prevails.

4.7 SUMMARY

In order to succeed in its marketing Endeavour it is indeed very important for the companies to embrace a holistic approach of marketing. This certainly impacts the reputation of company in long run. In addition to this for attaining a strong position in market it is very important to design marketing mix according to the demands of dynamic marketing environment.

4.8 GLOSSARY

Holistic Marketing: - Holistic marketing is a marketing concept under which focus is to have a multi-stakeholder approach while designing marketing strategies.

Marketing Task: - Various activities and initiatives undertaken to attain the goal of customer satisfaction.

Task Environment: - The immediate actors involved in producing, distributing and promoting the offering forms the task environment. The main actors are the company, suppliers, distributors, dealers and the target customer.

4.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1 Write a short note on following:-

- a) Holistic Marketing
- b) Relationship marketing
- c) Product mix
- d) Price

4.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

Fill in the blanks

- 1) Four Ps of marketing were given by_____
- 2) Marketing mix extension consist of_____
- 3) Promotion can be in the form of_____

4.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 5

MARKETING AND MARKETING ENVIRONMENT

Unit - I

TECHNIQUES OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING

STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Techniques of Environmental Scanning
 - 5.3.1 Types of Environmental Scanning
 - 5.3.2 Process of Environmental Scanning
 - 5.3.3 Determine the Approach of Environmental Scanning
 - 5.3.4 Techniques/Methods of Environmental Scanning
 - 5.3.5 Importance of Environmental Scanning
 - 5.3.6 Process of Environmental Analysis
- 5.4 Marketing Information System (MIS)
 - 5.4.1 Components of MIS
 - 5.4.2 Types of Information Systems
 - 5.4.3 History of Management Information Systems
 - 5.4.4 Categories of Management Information Systems
- 5.5 Marketing Strategy and Organisation for Indian Markets
 - 5.5.1 India: An Attractive Destination for Businesses
- 5.6 Connecting with Customers
- 5.7 Creating Customer Value, Satisfaction and Loyalty

- 5.8 Summary
- 5.9 Glossary
- 5.10 Self Assessment Questions
- 5.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 5.12 Suggested Readings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of environmental factors is important. But what is more important is the ability of the marketer to forecast changes in these factors. Forecasting skills, therefore, also become important. Verbal and written information are other techniques of environmental scanning. Sources of verbal information include:

- Radio and television reports
- Firm's employees like peers, subordinates and supervisors
- Customers
- Financial institutions
- Consultants

Written information is often available through trade and industry journals. Business magazines and financial newspapers, government publications as also those of international agencies like World Bank, IMF and leading consulting firms like Mckinsey, Forrester & Gartner are also a good source of environmental information.

Another technique for environmental scanning is to design an appropriate marketing information system, (MIS) and also to periodically conduct market research. Further, techniques like Delhi, extrapolation, and regression analysis can also be used for forecasting environmental changes.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the behaviour of key environmental forces that have an impact on marketing decisions.
- Grasp the techniques available for environmental scanning
- Having insights of MIS
- Be updated about marketing strategy and organisation for Indian markets

5.3 TECHNIQUES OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING

Environment scanning helps the signals of potential changes in the environment. It also detects the changes that are already under way. It normally reveals ambiguous, incomplete, or unconnected data and information. It involves a detailed and micro study of the environment. Hence, it is also called the X-ray of the environment. The environment uncertainty, complexity, and dynamism are studies to assess the trend of environment. It is the base of environment analysis. It is normally done when there is high level of uncertainty in the environment. It is a continuous process.

It also helps to evaluate the long term strategic plan that will be aligned with future business conditions. The scanning system should be aligned with the organizational context. Hence, a scanning system designed for a volatile environment may be inappropriate for a stable environment. Many organizations even use special software and internet for environment scanning.

From the above discussion, it may be concluded that environmental scanning is a continuous process of study and analysis of environment to detect the emerging trend in the environment.

5.3.1 Types of Environmental Scanning

Environmental scanning is a process of obtaining information from the environment. It helps prepare an organization to exploit the business opportunity by developing a sound resource base. Further, it also assists in preparing scenarios and to adjust with

changes. Environmental scanning may be done in two ways as mentioned below:

Centralized Scanning

If some specific environmental components are only analyzed, it is called centralized scanning. Under this, the important components which are likely to exert considerable impact to the business are only analyzed. For example, if economic conditions are only studied, it is termed as centralized scanning. Since specific components are only scanned, this is economical. Likewise, it helps to save time as well. However, it is not a comprehensive method due to the study of specific components only.

Comprehensive Scanning

“If all the components of environment are analyzed in a detailed and micro way, it is called comprehensive environmental scanning.”

5.3.2 Process of Environmental Scanning

Environmental scanning is a useful managerial tool for assessing the environmental trend. The following process is adopted for environmental scanning.

Study the forces and Nature of the Environment:

In the first step of environmental scanning, the forces of the environment that have got significant bearing in the growth and development of the business should be identified. They may be political, economic, sociology-cultural, technological, legal, physical environment and global components. After this, the nature of the environmental components is studied. The nature of environment may be simple or complex. It may also be stable or volatile. The nature of the environment affects a firm's ability to predict the future. Some business may be operating in simple environment and others in complex. When there is a high level of uncertainty and complexity in the environment, environmental scanning becomes more critical.

Determine the sources of Information:

After studying the process and nature of the environment, the sources of collecting information from the environment should be determined. There are different sources

through which information on business environment may be collected. They are as follows:

Secondary sources:

Newspapers, book, research articles, industrial and trade publications, government publication, and annual report of the competitors.

Mass media:

Radio, TV and Internet.

Internal sources:

Internal reports, management information system, data network, and employee.

External agencies:

Consumers, marketing intermediaries and suppliers.

Formal studies:

Formal research and study by employee, research agencies, and educational institutions.

5.3.3 Determine the Approach of Environmental Scanning

After determining the sources of information the approach of environmental analysis should be determined. There are mainly three approaches to environmental scanning. They are:

Systematic approach:

Under this approach, a systematic method is adopted for environmental scanning. The information regarding market and customer, government policy, economic and social aspects are continuously collected. In other words, the environment is monitored in a regular way. The timeliness and relevance of such information enhances the decision making capacity of the management.

Ad-hoc Approach:

Under this, specific environmental components are only analyzed through survey and

study. Ad-hoc approach is useful for collecting information for specific project, evaluating the strategic alternative or formulating new strategies. It is not a continuous process.

Processed form approach:

Under this, the information collected from internal and external sources are used after processing them. Normally, the information obtained from secondary sources are processed and used as per the requirements of the business.

Scan and Assess the Trend:

This is the final step of environmental scanning process. It involves a detailed and micro study of the environment to identify the early signals of potential changes in the environment. It also detects changes that are already under way and shows the trend of the environment. The trend should be assessed in terms of opportunities and threats.

5.3.4 Techniques/Methods of Environmental Scanning

Environmental scanning is a technique of detail study of the environment. It is done to assess the trend of the environment and prepare the organization accordingly. There are different techniques/methods of environmental scanning. They are discussed below:

Executive opinion method:

It is also called executive judgement method. Under this environment is forecasted on the basis of opinion and views of top executives. A panel is formed consisting of these executives.

Expert opinion method:

Under this environment forecasting is based an opinion of outside experts or specialist. The experts have better knowledge about market conditions and customer taste and preferences. This method is similar to executive opinion method. However, it uses external experts.

Delphi method:

This method is extension of expert opinion method. It involves forming a panel of

experts and questioning each member of the panel about the future environmental trend. Later, the responses are summarized and returned to the members for assessment. This process continues till the acceptable consensus is achieved.

Extrapolating method:

Under this method, the past information is used to predict the future. Different methods used to extrapolate the future are time series, trend analysis and regression analysis.

Historical analogy:

Under this, the environmental trends are analyzed with the help of other trends which are parallel to historical trend.

Intuitive reasoning:

Under this, rational and unbiased intuition is used for environmental scanning. Environmental dynamics are guessed individual judgement. Reliability of this method is questionable.

Scenario building:

Scenarios are the pictures of possible future. They are built on the basis of time ordered sequence of events that have logical cause and effect relationship with each other. Scenarios are built to address future contingencies.

Cross-impact matrix:

Under this, environmental forecasts through various methods are combined to form and integrated and consistent description of future. Cross impact matrix is used to assess the internal consistency of the forecasts.

5.3.5 Importance of Environmental Scanning

Signals threats: It provides an early signal of threats, which can be defused or minimized if recognized well in advance.

Customer needs: It signals an organization to the changing needs and requirements of the customers.

Capitalize opportunities: It helps an organization capitalize opportunities earlier than the competitors.

Qualitative information: It provides a base of objective qualitative information about the environment that can be utilized for strategic management.

Intellectual simulation: It provides intellectual stimulation to managers in their decision making.

Image: It improves the image of the organization as being sensitive and responsive to its environment.

5.3.6 Process of Environmental Analysis

Scanning:

Environmental scanning involves the study of the general environment. It helps to identify the early signals of potential changes in the environment. It also detects changes that are already under way. It normally reveals ambiguous, incomplete, or unconnected data and information. The scanning system should be aligned with the organizational context. Hence, a scanning system designed for a volatile environment may be inappropriate for a stable environment. Many organizations even use special software and internet for environmental scanning.

Monitoring:

Monitoring involves observation of environmental changes to see the trend. It detects meaning in different environmental events and trends. Scanning and monitoring are particularly important when a firm competes in a highly volatile environment. They help gather knowledge about markets and other components.

Forecasting:

Scanning and monitoring are concerned with events and trends in the general environment at a point in time. Forecasting involves developing feasible projections of what might happen and how quickly. It is done on the basis of changes and trends. Forecasting is a challenging work.

Assessing:

Assessing determines the timing and significance of the effects of environmental changes and trends that have been identified. It specifies the implications of that understanding. Assessing connects the data and information with competitive relevance. Equally important is interpreting the data and information to determine the trend as opportunity or threat for the organization.

5.4 MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM (MIS)

MIS is the use of information technology, people, and business processes to record, store and process data to produce information that decision makers can use to make day to day decisions. MIS is the acronym for Management Information Systems. In a nutshell, MIS is a collection of systems, hardware, procedures and people that all work together to process, store, and produce information that is useful to the organization. The following are some of the justifications for having an MIS system

- Decision makers need information to make effective decisions. Management Information Systems (MIS) make this possible.
- MIS systems facilitate communication within and outside the organization as employees within the organization are able to easily access the required information for the day to day operations. Facilitates such as Short Message Service (SMS) & Email make it possible to communicate with customers and suppliers from within the MIS system that an organization is using.
- Record keeping – management information systems record all business transactions of an organization and provide a reference point for the transactions.

5.4.1 Components of MIS

The major components of a typical management information system are;

- **People** – people who use the information system
- **Data** – the data that the information system records

- **Business Procedures** – procedures put in place on how to record, store and analyze data
- **Hardware** – these include servers, workstations, networking equipment, printers, etc.
- **Software** – these are programs used to handle the data. These include programs such as spreadsheet programs, database software, etc.

5.4.2 Types of Information Systems

The type of information system that a user uses depends on their level in an organization. The following diagram shows the three major levels of users in an organization and the type of information system that they use.

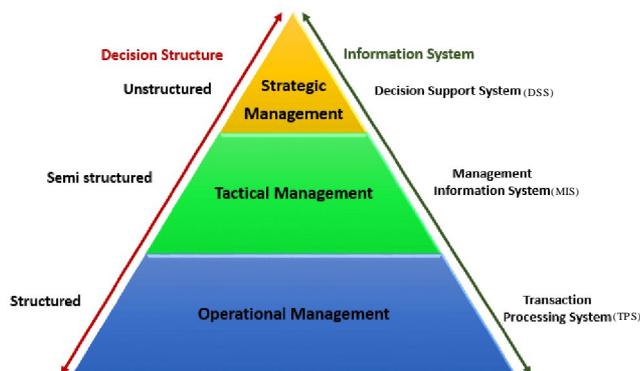


Fig. 5.1

Transaction Processing Systems (TPS)

This type of information system is used to record the day to day transactions of a business. An example of a Transaction Processing System is a Point of Sale (POS) system. A POS system is used to record the daily sales.

Management Information Systems (MIS)

Management Information Systems are used to guide tactic managers to make semi-structured decisions. The output from the transaction processing system is used as input to the MIS system.

Decision Support Systems (DSS)

Decision support systems are used by top level managers to make semi-structured decisions. The output from the Management Information System is used as input to the decision support system. DSS systems also get data input from external sources such as current market forces, competition, etc.

5.4.3 History of Management Information Systems

The technology and tools used in MIS have evolved over time. Kenneth and Aldrich Estel, who are widely cited on the topic, have identified six eras in the field

The Six Eras of MIS	
Era	Key Points
Mainframes	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mainframe and dependent systems performed operations.• Operators received requests to run queries that were processed in a batch with other requests (often via punch cards), and returned the information at a later time.
Minicomputers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Smaller than a mainframe.• Requests to retrieve information were inputted via terminals. The process still required operators, and it didn't provide real-time results.
Personal Computers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Users had computers on their desk, but they often weren't connected to one another.
Client/Server Networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Computers (aka clients) access data on servers via local networks.• The client (often a PC) and the server often split processing.• Users could submit requests themselves and receive information in near-real time.• A client often connected to a single server.
Enterprise Computing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Clients could reach data on servers anywhere in the business's network.
Cloud Computing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Data is stored via distributed hardware that can be accessed via the internet.• A provider owns cloud servers and businesses rent space on them to store their data.

Fig. 5.2

5.4.4 Categories of Management Information Systems

Management information system is a broad term that incorporates many specialized systems. The major types of systems include the following:

- **Executive Information System (EIS):** Senior management uses an EIS to make decisions that affect the entire organization. Executives need high-level data with the ability to drill down as necessary.
- **Marketing Information System (MkIS):** Marketing teams use MkIS to report on the effectiveness of past and current campaigns and use the lessons learned to plan future campaigns.
- **Business Intelligence System (BIS):** Operations use BIS to make business decisions based on the collection, integration, and analysis of the collected data and information. This system is similar to EIS, but both lower level managers and executives use it.
- **Customer Relationship Management System (CRM):** A CRM system stores key information about customers, including previous sales, contact information, and sales opportunities. Marketing, customer service, sales, and business development teams often use CRM.
- **Sales Force Automation System (SFA):** A specialized component of a CRM system that automates many tasks that a sales team performs. It can include contact management, lead tracking, and generation, and order management.
- **Transaction Processing System (TPS):** An MIS that completes a sale and manages related details. On a basic level, a TPS could be a point of sale (POS) system, or a system that allows a traveller to search for a hotel and include room options, such as price range, the type and number of beds, or a swimming pool, and then select and book it. Employees can use the data created to report on usage trends and track sales over time.
- **Knowledge Management System (KMS):** Customer service can use a KM system to answer questions and troubleshoot problems.

- **Financial Accounting System (FAS):** This MIS is specific to departments dealing with finances and accounting, such as accounts payable (AP) and accounts receivable (AR).
- **Human Resource Management System (HRMS):** This system tracks employee performance records and payroll data.
- **Supply Chain Management System (SCM):** Manufacturing companies use SCM to track the flow of resources, materials, and services from purchase until final products are shipped.

5.5 MARKETING STRATEGY AND ORGANISATION FOR INDIAN MARKETS

Many entrepreneurs of the newly started business or even a small businessman for that matter are clueless when posed with the questions of who do they think will be their consumers or who do they think will buy their product? Most smart and savvy businessmen start their business with the assumption that everyone will buy their product. But presumptions like this mostly results in faulty decision making, incorrect pricing, confusing marketing strategies and eventually failure of business.

Defining target market and concentrating efforts on it

A shrewd businessman on the contrary will always start a business with the presumption that only a limited segment of people will end up buying his product or service. Such an analysis helps to define the target and concentrate all the efforts of marketing strategies and money towards the same.

Identifying the benefits or needs which the product satisfies

There is no point in selling all the things to all the people. The game lies in becoming a specialist of a particular product or service and identifying the reasons for which people may buy your product.

To satisfy the inherent basic needs of customers

If in any way your products helps to solve the consumer's problems

In making the customers feel good

The identification of the above possibilities helps determine the category under which your product falls and adopt essential marketing strategies to market the same.

Defining marketing methods

Defining proper marketing methods enables a company to decide the type of customers it will be targeting. Say for example, whether to adopt an internet marketing strategy or direct marketing strategy or through public relations are some of the questions which a company needs to define clearly when it comes to marketing methods. Similarly, when adopting internet marketing strategies, whether to adopt Facebook, Twitter, emailing or blogs are questions which need to be thought over and decided accordingly.

Setting a time frame for evaluation of marketing efforts

The success of the marketing efforts undertaken needs to be reviewed periodically by setting a specific time frame. Allotting specific time for the marketing strategies to succeed and reviewing the same periodically helps to understand whether the marketing strategy adopted is working.

Adopting a mixed strategy to boost sales

Advertising without proper marketing strategy alone won't help to achieve marketing results as it is just like a strand in a rope and not strong enough like the rope. Coordinating advertising along with the marketing plan is the perfect way to boost sales. Expecting results overnight would not be logical, but will require dedicated and consistent efforts. Adopting a wait and watch policy by working consistently is the right way to increase sales and achieve growth for the business.

Strategizing for marketing requires sensitivity to the external market environment, what the organization 'can do' and the obtainment of sustainable competitive advantages in the market place. The development of marketing strategies further involves the appreciation of the linkages between marketing strategy formulation and its implementation, as well as recognizing the role of customer satisfaction and public image. Basic analytic skills to comprehend, analyze markets and competition aid in

improving the effectiveness of marketing strategy formulation.

Early market entry to India has many advantages including:

- Ability to lock-up access to key resources and create higher entry barriers for later entrants
- Ability to set the pattern of buyer preference in both consumer and industrial markets
- Ability to avail of government concessions and incentives
- Ability to observe and learn market attributes for a longer time period

One might think that global markets are accessible only to large companies with the deepest pockets. In order to succeed in market entry to India, companies must carefully plan and execute their go-to-market strategy since India is such a complex and challenging country. India has various groups of consumers; their attitude, requirements, expectations, and desires differ by region. Problems can arise from a lack of market understanding and insufficient planning. Decisions made in the early stage—including organizational structure, partnerships, staffing, and market risks—will dramatically affect your success in the long run.

The fast moving markets serving India's urban population are quickly moving towards Internet-to-Home concept. Working professionals, usually, do not have time to shop groceries after office. Most products have standard size and quality which makes buying for the internet trustworthy. You may want to go the mall once in a while to buy some jeans, but would always want to go out miles to get that bag of flour and a tin of oil or a book that you are already convinced you want to buy? Hence, we are witnessing a new phase of retailing in India with the e-comm becoming an intrinsic part of average home: Online retailing.

There is no other better example for the Indian market than flipkart.com (occasionally deemed as Indian Amazon.com). The site started as a simple online bookstore, which has now diversified into all consumer product segments.

5.5.1 India: An Attractive Destination for Businesses

According to Ernst & Young (EY) firm, India is the most attractive destination for businesses in the world. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) forecasts on the growth rate of India are 3.4% for 2013-14, 5.1% in FY 2014–15, 5.7% in FY 2015–16 and 7.2% in 2016-2017.

India’s nominal GDP stands at \$1.53 trillion, making it 10th largest economy in the world and with purchasing power parity (PPP) at \$4.06 trillion, India’s economy is 4th largest in the world, According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

India is among the top three strategic growth markets that companies turn to when looking to expanding their global footprint and increase business success. The increasing demand due to its population makes the country a good market. Sectors expected to do well in the coming years include automotive, technology, life sciences, and consumer products. India is today ranked as one of the most attractive investment destinations across the globe because of favorable demographics, huge workforce & outsourcing support, Geographical advantages and continuously improving Infrastructure support.

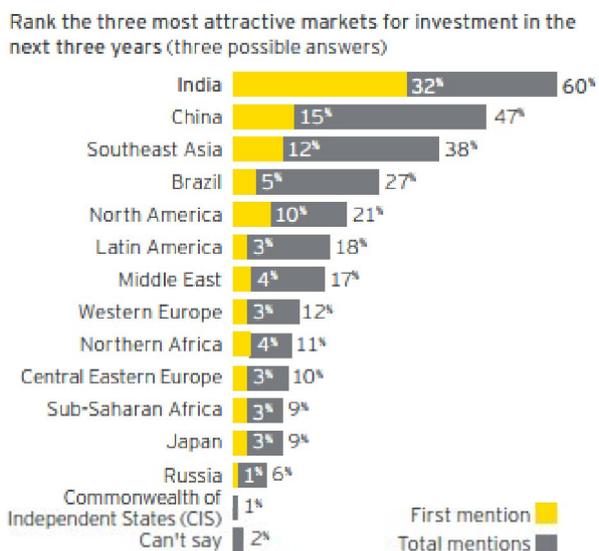


Fig. 5.3

Market changes, huge invasions in foreign direct investment, increasing foreign exchange capitals, booms in IT and Real Estate and booming capital markets spur the country's continued growth

5.6 CONNECTING WITH CUSTOMERS

Your customers drive your business, which is why it's so important to note how they interact with your brand. Don't just reach out to them when you want their business find ways to continuously show them you care.

Jessica Alba, founder and CEO of the Honest Company, believes brands can learn a lot by staying connected and listening to their customers.

"I think it's important for brands, especially brands [that] are really consumer-centric, to stay connected," Alba shared at the American Express OPEN Success Makers Summit for Business Platinum Card Members. "Customers tell you so much from their behavior and how they shop with you."

Here are six effective ways to connect with your customers and build lasting relationships that will keep them loyal to your brand.

1. **Don't use a one-size-fits-all approach.**

You want your customers to feel special, and you can achieve this by approaching each one as an individual rather than just another customer. Grouping all your consumers together will only express inauthenticity.

"In our messaging, we will treat a heavy user of our app differently than a light user," said Jon Ziglar, CEO of Park Mobile. "We treat a new user differently than a veteran user. We try to make the messages as relevant as possible to that specific person."

2. **Respond to concerns.**

Don't just be available when business is doing well or customers are satisfied. If you want your customers to trust and respect you, you need to earn it by proving your dedication to making them happy.

For example, Park Mobile received a one-star review from a man who complained

that the app was inconvenient and took time away from his date. Instead of ignoring the comment or making excuses, Ziglar said, they contacted the reviewer directly to express their remorse and offered a gift card to the exact restaurant where he had been that day.

“He really appreciated the gesture, and we turned a ‘hater’ into a huge ParkMobile advocate,” said Ziglar. “He even let us feature his story in a social media campaign. Sometimes, you have to go above and beyond to build raving fans of your business”.

3. Keep it personal, not transactional.

Peelu Shivaraju, the owner and operator of a Money Mailer franchise in Michigan, says being more personal with customers creates and strengthens your bonds with them. Rather than being aggressive when selling, try to be more consultative and conversational so clients understand your intentions are pure, Shivaraju recommended. “Nobody likes a salesperson,” he said. “Don’t go in talking about your product go in and ask them questions about their business.”

4. Focus on face-to-face interactions.

It’s common to experience miscommunications when using technology as a main source of contact. While emails and telephone calls are convenient, nothing beats face-to-face contact. You can understand your customers better in person than over the phone or through a screen. Shivaraju makes it a point to drop in on clients to introduce himself and establish both a professional and personal relationship with them.

“I like to get to know my clients, what their businesses are all about,” he said. “I do a lot of research about their business and ask them lots of questions to genuinely show interest. I want to learn everything I possibly can so that I know how best to help their business.”

It’s easier to learn about a client by talking to them in person. However, some people feel more comfortable speaking to you from a distance. Shivaraju advised

asking your clients what their preferred method of communication is and sticking with that.

5. Grow with your current clients in mind.

If your customers are happy, your business will continue to develop. Shivaraju said not to get too caught up in quick growth, especially if it means giving less attention to clients and jeopardizing your customer service.

“I understand that business owners are always busy, so I always try to work around their schedules,” he said. “All new clients get a follow-up visit after the first mailing goes out, as well as another in a few months to see how it’s going. As long as [clients] give me a reasonable window of time, I’ll always make myself available at a time and place of their choosing. My clients always come first.”

6. Show your appreciation.

Just as you would with supportive friends and family, make sure your customers know you recognize their importance.

Shivaraju shows his appreciation to two important groups of people: “The first is to my clients. They pay me money, so it’s my responsibility to create the best possible ad I can for their business and get them high-quality new leads. The second is to the consumers of my product. I need to have my envelopes filled with quality hyper local content, filled with businesses that me and my family are comfortable doing business with so that they get opened and used.”

Shivaraju mails out envelopes to his consumers, thanking them for purchasing local goods and services. He also recommended sending holiday cards and discounts to show gratitude.

5.7 CREATING CUSTOMER VALUE, SATISFACTION, AND LOYALTY

Customer perceived Value (CPV) is the difference between the prospective customer’s evaluation of all the benefits and all the costs of an offering and the perceived alternatives.

Total customer value is the perceived monetary value of the bundle of economic,

functional, and psychological benefits customers expect from a given market offering because of the products, services, personnel, and image involved.

Total customer cost is the perceived bundle of costs that customers expect to incur in evaluating, obtaining, using, and disposing of the given market offering, including monetary, time, energy, and psychic costs.

Total Customer Satisfaction sees whether the buyer is satisfied after a purchase. This depends on the offer's performance in relationship to the buyer's expectations and whether the buyer interprets any deviations between the two.

Satisfaction is the contentment or displeasure that a customer feels that result from comparing a product's perceived performance (or outcome) to expectations. If the performance falls short of expectations, the customer is dissatisfied. If performance matches expectations, the customer is satisfied; if it exceeds expectations, the customer is highly satisfied or delighted. Customer assessments of product performance depend on many factors, especially the type of loyalty relationship the customer has with the brand.

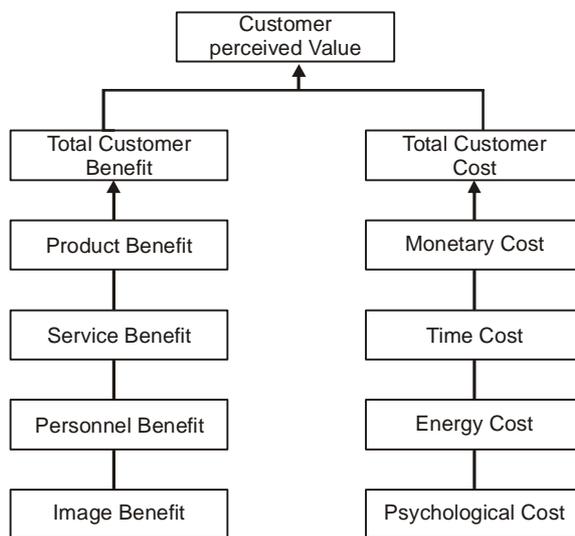


Fig. 5.4

Building Customer Value, Satisfaction and Loyalty

Creating loyal customers is at the heart of every successful business. Managers who believe the customer is the company's only true profit center consider the person serving the customer as the most important person in the organization. The rest of only support staff to him. Some companies have been founded with the customer-on-top business world, and customer advocacy has been their strategy-and competitive advantage. Why does a user become a loyal customer? Why does he make the first buy from a company? Customers tend to be value maximizers or perceived value maximizers, within the bounds of search costs and limited knowledge, mobility and income. Customers evaluate various offers available to satisfy a need and estimate the perceived value of each offer. Customer-perceived value (CPV) is the difference between the prospective customer's evaluation of all the benefits and all the costs of an offering. Total customer benefit is the perceived monetary value of the bundle of economic, functional, and psychological benefits customers expect from a given market offering because of the products, accompanying services and image involved. Total customer cost is the perceived bundle of costs customers expect to incur in evaluating, obtaining, using, and disposing of the given market offering, including monetary, time, energy, and psychological costs.

If customers are perceived value maximizers, firms also have to try to increase that value. The marketers can try to increase the benefit bundle but improving the product, accompanying services and improving the image related feature of the product and their organization. They can also try to reduce the cost incurred by the customers by reducing the price (by emphasizing rational cost reduction of products and services), improving their marketing communication so that customer spend less on search and evaluation and improving their sales process so that customer spend less on purchase activity. Companies often conduct value analysis to compare their products with competitor's products to identify areas that can be taken up for improvement.

Maximizing Customer Life Time Value

The amount of goods a customer is likely to buy from the company and thereby contribute to its profits can be estimated from the past buying behavior and 'anticipated trends. This

gives an estimate of customer life time value. Customer acquisition cost has to be less than it and also if a customer leaves the company it is a value loss and this can be also be calculated. These calculations give the idea that company have to take actions to retain customers. Relationship marketing emerged from this finding. Companies have to take actions to retain customers.

Cultivating Customer Relationships

Customer relationship management emerged as an important marketing area once relationship marketing concept was created. One aspect of CRM is maintenance and use of detailed information about individual customers and their touch points with the company.

Customer Databases and Database Marketing

A customer database is an organized collection of comprehensive information about individual customers or prospects that is current, accessible, and actionable for marketing purposes - lead generation, lead qualification, sale of a product or service, or maintenance of customer relationships. Database marketing is the process of building, maintaining, and using customer databases and other databases to contact, transact, and build customer relationships.

Benefits of Database Marketing

1. Prospects can be identified.
2. Decisions regarding which customers should receive a particular offer can be taken.
3. Customer loyalty can be increased by sending information of particular interest to a customer.
4. Customer purchases can be reactivated by sending a timely reminder.
5. Properly maintained and used database will help in preventing some marketing mistakes or errors.

Problems in Using Databases

1. There is a significant cost involved in developing and maintaining a database.

2. Employees have to be trained in using databases and taking marketing decisions.
3. Some customers may not like the database marketing initiatives.
4. The assumptions behind CRM may not always hold true.

5.8 SUMMARY

India presents lucrative business opportunities, but both foreign and domestic enterprises face difficult challenges in guiding their businesses here.

- India is a complex market due to regional diversity, large rural-urban divide, dominant unorganized markets and multiple legal and administrative systems.
- A complex bureaucracy and lack of proper infrastructure facilities amplify these challenges.
- The biggest challenge that most multinational companies face is the Indian governance framework, which is tangled between the Central and State structures.
- Also, duties and levies undergo frequent revisions during the Annual Central and State budget exercise.

Over the past 20 years, multinational companies have made considerable inroads into the Indian market. But many have failed to realize their potential: some have succeeded only in niches and not achieved large-scale market leadership, while others haven't maximized economies of scale or tapped into the country's breadth of talent. The experience of a leading multinational consumer goods company illustrates the challenge: its revenue in India has grown by 7 percent compounded annually in the past seven years—almost twice the rate of the parent company in the same period. Nevertheless, the company's growth rate in India is only about half that of the sector.

For multinationals, the key to reaching the next level will be learning to do business the Indian way, rather than simply imposing global business models and practices on the local market. It's a lesson many companies have already learned in China, which more multinationals are treating as a second home

market. In India, this trend has been slower to pick up steam, although best-practice examples are emerging:

- A leading beverage company entered India with a typical global business model i.e. sole ownership of distribution, an approach that raised costs and dampened market penetration. The company's managers quickly identified two other big challenges: India's fragmented market demanded multiple-channel handoffs, and labor laws made organized distribution operations very expensive. In response, the company contracted out distribution to entrepreneurs, cutting costs and raising market penetration.
- A big global automobile company has become the one of the largest manufacturers in India, growing at a rate of more than 40 percent a year over the last decade, by building a local plant, setting up an R&D facility to help itself better understand what appeals to Indian customers, and hiring a well-known Indian figure as its brand ambassador.

To realize India's potential, multinationals must show a strong and visible commitment to the country, empower their local operations, and invest in local talent. They must pay closer attention to the needs of Indian consumers by offering the customization the local market requires. And multinational executives must think hard about the best way to enter the market more and more. That will mean moving beyond the joint-venture approach and learning to go alone.

5.9 GLOSSARY

- **Dynamic Content:** A way to display different messaging on your website based on the information you already know about the visitor. For example, you could use Smart CTAs so that first-time visitors will see a personalized CTA (perhaps with a top-of-the-funnel offer) and those already in your database see a different CTA (maybe for content that offers a little more information about your product or service).

- **Global environment:** All semi or uncontrollable factors which a marketer has to account for in carrying out global operations.
- **Information system:** A system for gathering, analyzing, and reporting data aimed at reducing uncertainty in business decision making.

5.10 SHORT ANSWER QUESTIONS

1) What is environmental scanning?

2) What do you understand by Information system?

3) Name top five Indian Companies with good marketing strategies.

5.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Discuss the factors that have led to increasing importance of MIS in India?
- 2) Compare and contrast Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System
- 3) If you were to design a TV targeted towards the rich in India, what strategies would you consider for developing and marketing it?
- 4) Given the pace at which technology is changing today, what structural changes would you like to make in the distribution plan of an FMCG company like Colgate Palmolive?

5.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller.
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 6

CONSUMERS, MARKETS & MARKET POSITIONING Unit - II

INTRODUCTION TO MARKETING

STRUCTURE

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Objectives
- 6.3 Analyzing Market
 - 6.3.1 Analyzing Market Opportunities
- 6.4 Factors Influencing Consumer Behaviour
 - 6.4.1 Tools to Study Buyer Behaviour
- 6.5 What does the Customer Buy?
 - 6.5.1 Buying Situations
 - 6.5.2 Role of Consumer Decision Making
 - 6.5.3 Buying Decision Process
- 6.6 Post Purchase Behavior
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Glossary
- 6.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 6.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 6.11 Suggested Readings

6.1 INTRODUCTION

BUYER - AN ENIGMA

Although it is important for the firm to understand the buyer and accordingly evolve its marketing strategy, the buyer or consumer continues to be an enigma-sometimes responding the way the marketer wants and on other occasions just refusing to buy the product from the same marketer. For this reason, the buyers' mind has been termed as a black box. The marketer provides stimuli but he uncertain of the buyer's response. This stimulus is a combination of product, brand name, colour, style packaging, intangible services, merchandizing, shelf display, advertising, distribution, publicity, and so forth. Nothing better illustrates this enigmatic buyer than the failure of a herbal anti-cold balm launched by Warner Hindustan some time back. Though the balm market has grown significantly and Vicks Vaporub had been dominating the anti-cold rub segment for more than two decades now, Warner failed. Was it the brand name? Did the customer see no significant difference between Vicks and Warner'? This has remained an enigma. Thus schematically, this enigma or black box phenomenon may be best understood by figure 6.1

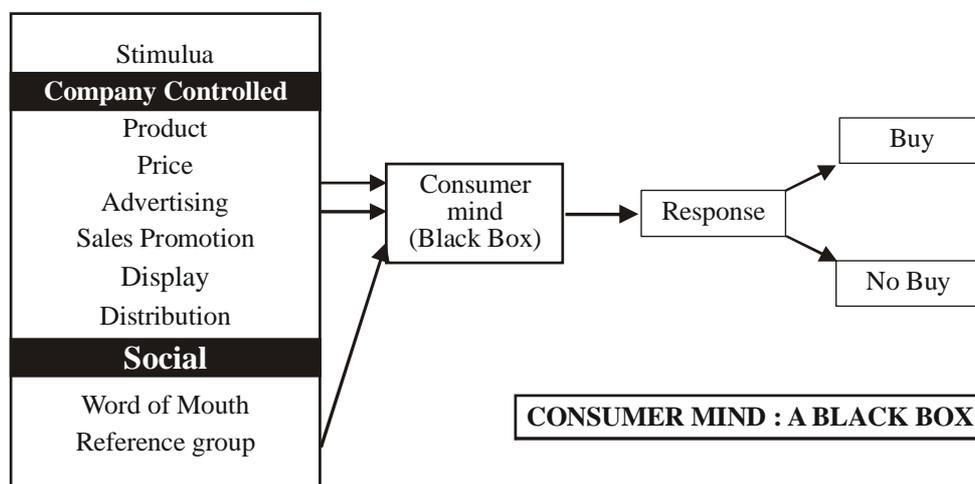


Fig. 6.1

Further, today's customer is being greatly influenced by the media especially electronic. Technological developments in the field of information, biotechnology and genetics, and intensive competition in all products and services are also impacting consumer choices. Consider, for example, the case of consumers who shop on the Internet for books from US-based Amazon.com, music from Sony, banking from HDFC Bank in India, airline services from Jet Airways, or order roses from India to be delivered to loved ones in the US on Valentine's day through 1-800- flowers.com. Clearly the Internet today impacted the customer learning and shopping behaviour. Multiple television channels are shaping the customer's values. The customer is aware, more than ever before, of the rights and choices available to him/her. Today the Indian customer is at a crossroad-should he/she enjoy the sure (arising out of such an act) of buying a consumer durable, service, a holiday or an automobile, refer the experience? Today the customer is demanding more value for the price that he/she pays. structures like family, role models, and peer groups are under pressure largely because of the change created by media, technology, and competition. As shown in Figure 6.1, these change drivers today impacting the customer's awareness, values, social structures, and even individual customer personality.

6.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand Market analysis.
- Understand the factors influencing consumers behaviour
- Buying Division Process
- Explain post purchase behaviours

6.3 ANALYZING MARKETS

Market analysis is part of the industry analysis and this in turn of the global environmental analysis. Through all of these analyses the opportunities, strengths, weaknesses and threats of a company can be identified. Finally, with the help of a SWOT analysis, adequate business strategies of a company will be defined. The market analysis is

also known as a documented investigation of a market that is used to inform a firm's planning activities, particularly around decisions of inventory, purchase, work force expansion/contraction, facility expansion, purchases of capital equipment, promotional activities, and many other aspects of a company.

6.3.1 Analyzing Market Opportunities

Businesses need to critically examine the environment in which they operate. Marketers need to understand the marketing environment and modify their marketing plans so as to maximise opportunities and minimise threats. Businesses are constantly being influenced by their external and internal environments.

- **External Influences**

The factors within the external marketing environment are fairly broad in nature and are usually beyond the control of the business. These factors include:

- **General Economic Conditions**

Economies do not experience constant growth. In fact, the level of economic activity fluctuates from boom to contraction to recession to expansion and then back to boom conditions. These activities have an enormous impact on both business and customers. They influence a business's capacity to compete and customers' willingness (and ability) to buy.

Boom

A boom is a period of low unemployment and rising incomes. Businesses and customers are optimistic about the future. It is during this time that business will increase their production lines, invest in plant and equipment and try to increase their market share. Customers are willing to spend because they feel secure about their jobs and source of income. This phase is often referred to as 'the good times'. The marketing potential during this phase is large, with sales responding to all forms of promotion.

Contraction

A contraction is a period of slowly rising unemployment with incomes stabilizing. During this phase, both businesses and consumers become more cautious. If this phase lasts

a long time, businesses and consumers become pessimistic, resulting in reduced consumer spending which in turn forces businesses to reduce the level of investment. It is during this phase that business closures become more common. Consumers become more price conscious when they look for value and products that are more functional and long lasting.

During this phase, marketers need to modify their marketing plans to reflect the changes in consumer spending. Marketing plans should stress the value and usefulness of a product.

Recession

A recession is where unemployment reaches high levels and incomes fall dramatically. Both businesses and consumers lack confidence in the economy and a mood of deep pessimism persists. Spending is reduced. The marketing plan during this phase should concentrate on maintaining existing market share. Survival becomes the main objective.

Expansion

In the expansion phase, unemployment levels slowly start to fall and incomes once again begin to rise. This is the 'recovery stage'. Business and consumers begin to regain their lost confidence. Marketing plans need to take advantage of this rise in 'prosperity'. Increasing market share should once again become an important objective.

- **Government Policy and Regulations**

Depending on the prevailing economic conditions, the government will put in place policies that expand or contract the level of economic activity. These policies directly or indirectly influence business activity and consumer spending, and therefore, will have an impact on the marketing plan.

Government regulations can have a more direct and immediate impact on the marketing plans of a business. Regulations are made up of laws and regulatory bodies that can influence business behaviour.

Marketplace Laws

Fair trading laws are based on the principles of equity, fairness and honesty. They aim

to create a fair and informed marketplace. They also recognise that traders, as well as consumers, can suffer loss through the actions of unfair or unscrupulous operators.

Misleading or deceptive conduct

The fair trading laws say that misleading or deceptive conduct is unacceptable, regardless of whether your business supplies consumer goods or deals commercially with other businesses. Conduct is considered misleading if it creates a misleading overall impression.

Acting without Conscience

This means acting in an unscrupulous or unprincipled manner. It is prohibited in relation to goods and services which are supplied to personal or domestic use. This is when conduct has the effect of placing one party at a serious disadvantage, such as where the stronger party has greater bargaining power and uses this to take advantage of the weaker party.

The Commonwealth Trade Practices Act

This act was designed to promote competition by prohibiting certain practices that are harmful to competition. It is also concerned with the protection of consumers and deals with product safety and information, conditions and warranties in consumer transactions and actions against manufacturers and importers of goods. Conduct prohibited by the Trade Practices Act includes misleading or deceptive conduct, and making false representations about products. The penalties for breaches of the Act include fines, injunctions and criminal proceedings.

- **Overseas Influences**

Businesses, in relatively small economies have argued for government protection against larger, more economically powerful overseas businesses which are able to manufacture and sell their products more cheaply. Some government protection has usually come in the form of either a tariff, a tax on an imported product, or a subsidy, a payment from the government to the business to help lower the price.

Due to these protective measures, many business do not fully experience the full impact

of competition and in some ways, become complacent and inward-looking rather than export-oriented. Businesses, in today's marketplace, need to become more internationally competitive and export-oriented. With the rapid expansion of globalisation, marketers need to alter their focus from domestic to global.

- **Demographic Patterns**

Demographic factors are population characteristics that affect customer spending and include:

- (a) Age – in many countries, the average age is steadily increasing.
- (b) Family size – families are having fewer children and there has also been an increase in single-parent households.
- (c) Ethnicity – Since the mid-1970s there has been an increase in the number of people migrating from all different countries. As a result, the population is very multicultural and diverse. This will alter consumers' tastes and preferences.
- (d) Income - Over the last decade there has been a steady increase in the number of households with two incomes as more and more women enter the workforce. As a result there has been an increase in household incomes which in turn has lead to increased demand for holidays, leisure products, childcare facilities, second cars, etc.

Another significant trend regarding income and consumer spending power is the increase in teenagers' personal incomes. According to research, teenagers are a lucrative market and exert considerable influence over household spending.

- (e) Gender
- (f) Marital status

- **Technological Change**

Revolutions in technology i.e. computers, internet, satellites, robotics – all are changing not slowing its impact not only how business are organised, but also how products are

marketed. Developments in technology can influence the marketing plan in the following six ways.

1. ***New products*** – Research and development in forever leading to a range of new products. Businesses are constantly looking for ways to improve existing product lines or develop new ones.
2. ***Cheaper products*** – Technology influences the types of products that businesses can offer. More efficient manufacturing has resulted in less expensive products.
3. ***New marketing methods*** – Technology has changed the way in which businesses promote their products. Product launches and advertising on the Internet are among the more common techniques.
4. ***Speedier delivery*** - Technological changes in transportation has allowed businesses to distribute their products faster and further a field.
5. ***Product obsolescence*** – As new products are developed, existing products soon become obsolete and ‘out of fashion’.
6. ***Competitive advantage*** – A business that is quick to apply new technology is able to develop new products which will give the business an advantage over its competitors.

- ***Changing Customer Attitudes and Values***

Societal changes can have an enormous influence over the marketing plans of a business as they can influence the types of products consumers want. Societal changes are changes to the lifestyle, social values, beliefs and customs of society. Unfortunately, these changes are very difficult to accurately measure or predict. The main societal changes that influence marketing are:

1. ***Concern for the physical environment:*** People are becoming more concerned with ‘quality of life’ issues, especially the physical environment. Businesses that adopt a ‘green’ philosophy and produce environmentally friendly products may encourage consumers to choose their products over businesses that ‘create’ pollution. Recycling,

waste management and environmental protection are all sensitive issues, and consumer needs and feelings should be taken into account within the marketing activities.

2. **Health conscious consumers:** People are becoming more health conscious in regard to what they eat. 'less fat', 'no added sugar', 'no preservatives or colouring', 'natural', are all ways of promoting products.

3. **Convenience :** The increase in two income households has resulted in greater emphasis on time-saving and convenience. This has lead to the influx of ready-to use products, easy payment plans, and products packaged in a variety of sizes.

- **Activities of Competitors**

Marketers need to be aware of the different types and amounts of competition that exists in the market place. Occasionally, a business may be unaware of the competition until it starts to lose market share or market penetration to rival producers and then it may be too late to recover.

The action of competitors who are in the process of implementing their own marketing plans can have a big impact on other businesses. Businesses need to monitor the marketing activities of competitors and ascertain what effects these activities are having in the market place. These include changes in prices, packaging, warranties, service, advertising, even distribution methods.

- **Alternative Marketing Methods**

Businesses are always looking for new and different ways to promote and distribute their products. The purchasing of products from a store or a supplier is the oldest and most common form of distribution. Non-store retailing is retailing activity conducted away from the traditional store. Methods such as door-to-door selling, mail-order catalogues, party plan and vending machines are all non-store retailing and have been used for a number of years.

However, with rapid changes in electronic communication and the development of the 'super-highway', marketers are now exploiting electronic marketing. Two of the most rapidly developing methods are telemarketing and internet marketing.

Telemarketing : This is the use of the telephone to make a sale. The usual line is: ‘but wait, if you ring this number in the next 30 minutes we’ll throw in a set of steak knives absolutely free’. This type of marketing seems to target those consumers who are home during the day – the bored housewife/hubby, the young unemployed – where the offer for something free, entices/seduces the consumer to purchase that item

Interactive Technology and Internet Marketing : Current research suggests that businesses are moving away from the telephone and onto the internet for product communication. Businesses today are increasingly using the World Wide Web (WWW) as a promotional tool.

It is relatively easy and inexpensive for any business to obtain a domain name and a Web Site and begin marketing its products via the internet. On-line shopping, whilst still in its early stages of development, holds a number of interesting marketing alternatives. It is just a matter of consumers accessing shopping catalogues via the internet, selecting a product, punching in their details and having the item delivered the next day.

INTERNAL INFLUENCES

Businesses do have some degree of influence over internal forces. Each factor needs to be analysed to ensure the success of the marketing plan.

- **Analysis of Business Resources**

Staff - the statement that ‘people are our most important resource’ is very accurate for all areas of business and especially within the marketing plan. Despite the importance of advertising and sales promotion, ‘personal contact’ can be instrumental in making a sale.

It is important that the right people are recruited, and for this reason, human resource strategy of a business should always complement the marketing strategy.

Assets – It is no use developing a set of marketing objectives that are unrealistic and cannot be achieved. Marketing plans need to work within the set limits of the business’s existing asset base. Businesses may be required to purchase new equipment and/or

buildings. This may involve some form of debt or equity finance. Over the long term, the physical assets of a business can be built up to achieve a larger market share, deeper market penetration or geographical expansion.

- ***Analysis of Market Share***

Market share analysis helps to identify whether changes in sales were due to uncontrollable external influences or to some internal weakness in the marketing strategy. If the business's market share is decreasing and there is no discernible external cause, then the marketing strategy needs to be modified.

- ***Analysis of Product Characteristics***

Analysing a product's characteristics can give us an understanding of the product and its potential. Often products can have other uses as well as those for which it was originally designed. The product can also be analysed in relation to its competitors' products. This allows for a direct comparison to be made and weaknesses or strengths to be identified. One effective method used to analyse the product is to have the consumer complete a market research survey, providing information from the consumers' perspective.

- ***Analysis of Advertising***

Advertising is a promotional activity, and like any marketing strategy, the effectiveness of the advertising needs to be analysed. A cost-benefit analysis should be carried out, where the cost of the advertising needs to be weighed against the expected benefit of increased sales.

- ***Analysis of Price***

The pricing of the product can be crucial to the success of the business, and needs to be looked at constantly. The pricing strategy is the price set for a business's products in relation to the prices of competing products. A business needs to analyse its pricing strategy carefully, for it may be that a business has priced its product incorrectly and will need to readjust the price as sales figures are evaluated. When determining the price of the product, you need to look at the gross profit margin, especially the extra sales that are needed to maintain current profit levels.

- **Financial Capacity**

The financial capacity of the business needs to be taken into account when developing marketing objectives. It is totally useless to plan a \$60 000 product promotion when the business financial capacity can only afford \$6 000. Research and development of new products is an area that can put a lot of strain on the financial capacity of a business. Sometimes, businesses can get assistance from government agencies.

6.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Buyer decisions are strongly, influenced by variables like cultural and social factors, personal factors like demographics, self concept, lifestyles, and personality (the last two are also called psychographic variables.)

Cultural Influences

Culture refers to a set of values, traditions, or beliefs which guide the individual's behaviour, In a way, culture is normative as it prescribes norms of acceptable human behaviour. Put in other words, culture refers to values, ideas, attitudes, and other meaningful symbols created by people to shape human behaviour and the artefacts of that behaviour transmitted from one generation to another. It has both the abstract and material dimensions. The abstract dimensions affect consumer preferences. Abstract elements of culture include values, attitudes, ideas, personality types, and summary constructs like religion. Material components, on the other hand, can be described as cultural artefacts or the material manifestation of culture. For example, beef is not very readily accepted in Hindu society and likewise pork in Muslim society. It is important to understand that culture influences human attitudes and behaviour. Some of the attitudes and behaviour influenced by culture are:

- sense of self and space
- communication and language
- dress and appearance
- food and feeding habits
- time and time consciousness
- relationships (family, organizations, government, and so on)

- values and norms
- beliefs and attitudes
- mental processes and learning
- work habits and practices

Values are shared beliefs or group norms internalized by individuals, perhaps with some modifications. These lay down the behaviour rules for individual member of the group. Values, in any culture, are developed through the process of socialization and acculturation. Refusing beef, onions, or garlic by a Hindu buyer is a value developed through socialization. The use of a fork or knife to eat food by an Indian family is a value acquired through acculturation.

As may be observed from Figure 6.2, values are transmitted through social institutions like family, religious institutions, and schools, and also through the early lifetime experiences. Values and culture are not static concepts. They are dynamic. Today, values are changing in Indian society largely due to the influence of electronic media. Generational change is today occurring because the younger consumers are acquiring new values and information through the Internet and foreign television channels. On the other hand, as individuals grow old, their values too change. For example, from a risk taker to risk aversion is a very common change that takes place as individuals grow old. In any cultural there are subcultures that also exist. These are different nationalities, religious, and geographic groups. For example, in the Indian culture, we have Hindus, Muslims, Christians, Jews, and Sikhs, existing religious sub-cultures. Likewise, behaviour patterns of Hindus living in the North and the South different. A marketer needs to be aware of these cultural and sub-cultural influences on consumer preferences. These will affect his brand, packaging, advertising, sales promotion and even distribution decisions.

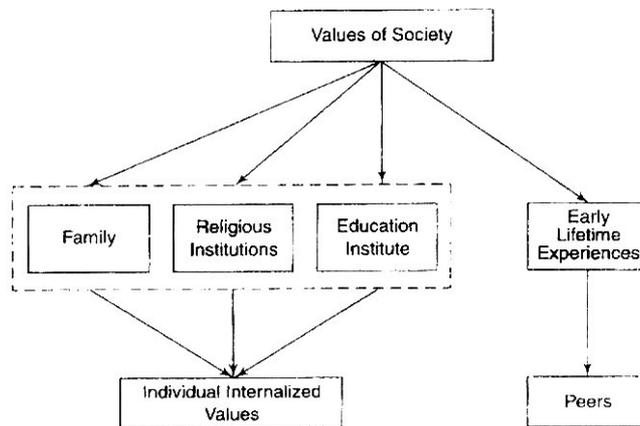


Fig. 6.2

According to Sheth, Lewman, and Gross, following are the five consumption values that customer look for in any product or service:

- functional value
- conditional value
- social value
- emotional value
- knowledge value

These multiple values are considered to be independent of each other and influence consumer choices as well as brands and other elements of consumer choice.

Social Influences

Man is a social creature. Hence his or her behaviour is greatly influenced by social facts like reference group pressures. Reference group here refers to peers, relatives, neighbour and friends. Often a product succeeds or fails in a market because of these influences, example, a strong positive word of mouth publicity will invariably lead a brand to high market shares. As we shall see in the chapter on Product Policy, a new product's chances success are substantially improved when it has the support of buyers who are perceived as opinion leaders by the target market. Diffusion of an innovation or a new product idea in a society is essentially a trickle down phenomena- from

opinion leaders to others who may be perceived as opinion leaders by the next group of customers.

Opinion leadership

Opinion leadership is the process through which a person or group, called the opinion leader, influences the actions, views, and attitudes of others. This influence may be oral and of an informal nature, and is often supported by actions that imitate those of the opinion leader. The informal flow of consumer related influence between two people is called word of mouth communication. Word of mouth implies personal, face to face, or telephonic communication. Opinion leaders are often considered sources of highly, credible and valid information, as they are supposed to be neutral about product information. Therefore, the information that they transfer is considered valuable.

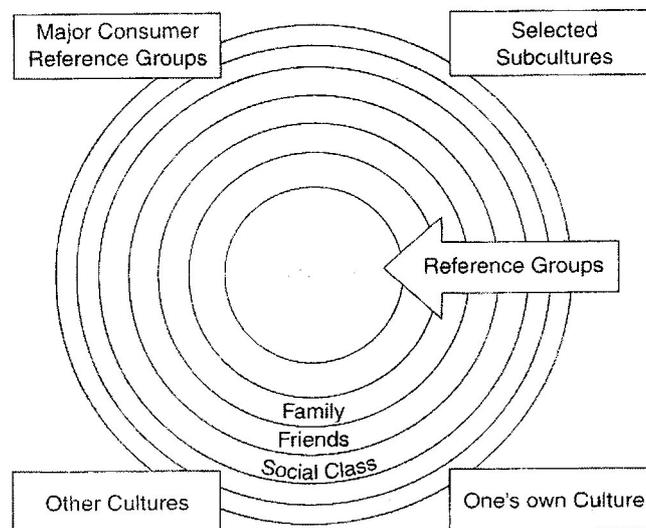


Fig. 6.3

Opinion leaders in any society could be any or all of the following.

- celebrities - film, sports, social, corporate

- experts - professionals
- comman man
- executive / employee
- spokesperson/salesman
- dealer

Opinion leaders fulfil a number of needs for opinion receivers:

- they provide new product or new usage information
- they reduce the risk of opinion seekers by providing first-hand information about a specific product or brand
- they reduce the search time entailed in the identification of a needed product/service

Today companies have identified celebrities as their brand ambassadors. The purpose of doing so is to communicate brand values through individuals who are perceived by society as personally possessing them.

Demographic Influences

An individual customer's age, sex, marital status, income, occupation, and geographic location also affect his or her consumption pattern. It is from this point of view that we have a child market, youth market, teenage market, adult market, and senior (old people) market. We also have low income, middle income, higher middle income, and higher income markets. In fact, demography has traditionally helped the marketer evolve positioning strategies. The assumption here is that people having common demographic characteristics behave in an identical manner and will have the same preferences. Demographic characteristics have also served as the basis of segmenting the market.

Self Concept

Each of us has a self image. This self image is based on the personals whom we see as

our role models. We then act and behave like these role models, believing that we are them. This affects our dress, hair styles, and almost every other thing including our table manners. This concept of self image has been termed as self concept.

The self image could be an individual's own perceived image (this may even be termed as ideal self image) and actual image based on how others perceive the individual. There could, at times, be a conflict between the two. All individuals try to bring about a congruence between these two sets of their images.

Recent researches in consumer behaviour have concluded that a large number of products like credit card, automobiles, readymade garments, designerware, cosmetics, and perfumes are bought because of this variable. Often a demographic variable like income is not important in purchase decisions for these products.

These researches suggest that a marketer needs to study the self concept of his target buyers and accordingly design products, packaging, and advertising strategies that will help reinforce this self concept. Once again take a look at the Citibank credit card advertising campaign. Also take a look at the campaigns of Shoppers Stop. Dinesh Suitings with Sunil Gavaskar's Raymond's with well known celebrity endorsements. All these campaigns are aimed at customers who have a specific self concept of themselves.

Psychographic Variables

Besides self concept, today psychographic factors also play an important role in the buyer's decisions. These factors refer to lifestyle or personality. Psychologists tell us that an individual's behaviour is a function of these two factors.

Lifestyle Lifestyle refers to the beliefs, attitudes, interests, and opinions that an individual has about himself, his family, and the world. Put in other words, it's the individual's way of living in the world as reflected by his attitudes, interests and opinions. Contemporary researches show that even though two customers may share common demographic characteristics, the two may differ significantly in terms of their lifestyle. Hence, a product a brand positioned for customers like them may be bought by one of the customers because he or she may not perceive the brand or product as suiting

his or her lifestyle. Lifestyle portrays the whole person interacting with his or her external environment. It is sure than just the social class.

Marketers direct their products and brands to the affiliation, esteem, and inner directed needs. Consider for example, the positioning of Gwalior suitings using the Nawab of Pataudi, Sharmila Tagore and their son, Or consider the Raymond's suitings advertisement showing their Managing Director, Mr. Vijayapat Singhania, wearing one of their products, after a successful solo flight. Once again, the bank credit card advertisement positioning the card at emulators and achievers, illustrates the use lifestyle in contemporary marketing.

Personality The next psychographic variable is personality. This refers to traits that we exhibit in relationship with others. It also refers to psychological characteristics of individuals that lead them to relatively consistent and enduring responses to their environment. Based on these explanations, people are described as warm, loving, caring, outgoing, extroverts, introverts, aggressive, non responsive, confident and so forth. Personality, again provides a useful understanding of consumer behaviour and products and can be designed to suit different personality profiles. In personal selling, the salesperson has to adapt his or her selling style to the customer's personality.

Thus, in contemporary marketing, psychographic factors play a more important role than just the demographic variable. In fact, tomorrow's marketing in India is increasingly becoming lifestyle today marketing.

6.4.1 Tools to Study Buyer Behaviour

It is important for the marketer to regularly study buyer behaviour. The different tools available to him or her are:

Surveys

This is the most common technique used in studying buyer behaviour. It involves the use of questionnaires. Different scaling techniques like Likert and Thurstone are used to measure consumer attitudes. These have been discussed in the last chapter on marketing research. The problem with survey methodology is that it gives to the marketer

only conscious responses of the customer. Often these responses are guarded and may even be prejudiced.

Projective Techniques

To throw the customer off his or her conscious level and to get to know sub-conscious-level responses, projective techniques like word association, picture association, and thematic appreciation tests (TAT) have been used. Increasingly, the marketer is turning to these qualitative techniques as they provide valuable information on his or her product or brand, as perceived by the target customer group, and also about the customer's lifestyle and self concept.

Focus Group Discussions

This is another qualitative technique used to assess how customers perceive the product and use situations. It also provides the marketer with valuable information on the target market.

6.5 WHAT DOES THE CUSTOMER BUY?

The most of us, there appears to be an obvious answer to this question-product/service. But this is not a comprehensive description. For, when one examines the different products or services bought by a customer, one can categorize them into two groups, namely:

- a) high involvement products
- b) low involvement products

As the term implies, the differentiation between products and services is created on the basis of the customer the involvement level in product selection. This is based on the extent to which the customer perceives the product as representing his or her personality and lifestyle. For example, selection of a car is a high involvement decision as a car represents the customer's personality. On the other hand, selection of a soap product is a low involvement product. To be able to better understand the difference between the various product groups, let us examine the characteristics of each of them.

High Involvement Products These have the following characteristics:

High Price Generally, these products are priced high in a particular product group. For example, a colour TV is a high involvement product within the entertainment electronics segment, but, perhaps, pocket transistors are not.

Complex Features High involvement products have complex features, requiring the customer to spend more time on familiarizing and internalizing them. It is no wonder colour TVs, VCRs, DVD Players, cars, motorcycles, computers, washing machines, or refrigerators come with an easy-to-read product manual describing the features in simple terms.

Large Differences between Alternatives If the customers perceive significant differences between alternatives, then the product is a high involvement one. For example, if the customer perceives major differences between Indian, Japanese, or American cars, then the car purchase decision is a high involvement one. This is because these perceived differences enhance the need to learn about them and evaluate each of the given alternatives against a decision criteria.

High Perceived Risks If the customer perceives a high risk in using the product, then he or she may spend considerable time in (i) evaluating what constitutes risk, (ii) how to minimize it, and (iii) how to avoid it. Besides, the customer may even evaluate whether the risk is worth taking. Cosmetics, hair dyes, flying an airplane for the first time, and the like, are all perceived high risk situations. Hence, these are high involvement product use situations.

Reflect Self-concept of Buyer This is the single most important factor in making a product a high involvement one. Each of us has a self image and we behave in a manner that will help us reinforce this image on others. We buy products and services that reflect this self-concept. Choice of cars, houses, clothes, restaurants, perfumes, cosmetics, and jewellery all reflect a customer's self-concept. Often customers spend considerable time in selecting a brand in these product groups.

Low Involvement Products The characteristics of such products are noted below:

Does Not Reflect Buyer's Self-concept In the first place, these products are more

personal to the buyer and they do not reflect his or her self-concept. Toilet soaps and other toiletries are examples of products that are perceived by customer as not expressing his or her image.

Alternatives within the Same Product Class are Similar The customer does not perceive much difference between different brands in the same product class.

Frequent Brand Switching Behaviour Due to the perceived lack of difference between brands, brand loyalty in these products is low.

6.5.1 Buying Situations

It is not only that products differ. Even the buying situation differs. Each time the buyer is to take a purchase decision, it may or may not be the same as the previous one. The differentiation between the two buying situations may be caused by the absence of any or all of the following factors.

- (a) awareness about competing brands in a product group
- (b) customer has a decision criteria
- (c) customer is able to evaluate and decide on his choice.

Viewed against these parameters, one may observe that it is not the product that differentiates one buying situation from another; rather it is the time that the buyer spends in learning and evaluating the alternatives or finally selecting one of them. Howard and Sheth have described these buying situations as being:

(a) Routinized Response Behaviour

(b) Limited Problem-Solving

(c) Extensive Problem-Solving

Routinized Response Behaviour or Straight Rebuy This buying situation is characterized by the presence of all the above three criteria. In other words, here the customer is aware of his or her choices and, knows what he is looking for as the decision is based on personal experience of either self or others. Generally, the customer spends little or no time in choosing an alternative. Brand loyalty is relatively higher here. Moreover,

this is a buying situation where a customer perceives low risk in buying the product and/or the brand. Consider the typical shopping behaviour of a housewife-she goes to the grocer or a supermarket and spends much less time in selecting her toiletries, beverages like tea or coffee and other food products because every time she generally buys the same brands.

Limited Problem Solving or Modified Rebuy This is a buying situation with a difference. This could be, for example, introduction of a new brand or product often requiring a change in the customer's decision criteria. Continuing the example of the housewife, assume that in her next shopping cycle, she sees a new liquid toilet soap which promises to keep her skin soft and moisturized. The brand also promises to give her skin vitamin E, which the manufacturer claims is required in temperate conditions.

The new liquid toilet soap is available in four fragrances. The pack can be refilled when empty. Now this new brand is likely to change her decision and may be the choice criteria. If she spends some time in evaluating the liquid toilet soap against the normal bar soap and then decides to try it, we conclude that for her it was a limited problem-solving situation. As can be seen, this buying situation will often lead to a trial purchase. The customer may even decide to continue with her current product selection. Generally it has been observed that brand extension strategy helps the customer to reduce the element of newness in the purchase decision. Like, for example, Unilever deciding to introduce a liquid toilet soap under its most popular brand name Lux. It may be remembered that the customer perceives moderate risk in this situation.

Extensive Problem Solving or New Task This is a buying situation perceived to be high on risk. This situation requires extensive learning on the part of the customer. The reason for this is that here the customer is not aware of available alternatives, has no decision criteria, and hence is unable to evaluate different brands. This could be caused by relocation of the customer to a new and unknown environment, or by the introduction of a technologically superior product. Take, for example, the introduction of Word Perfect 5.1 replacing Word Star as the computer language for word processing functions in early 1990s. This was a new buying situation, as it involved both intensive and extensive learning by the buyer. Similarly, introduction of the camcorder (video camera) and cameras in cell phone in the film and photography category represented a new task or extensive problem

solving situation for a camera and cell phone buyer.

Thus, it is important to understand that not all buying situations are the same even though a customer may stay with his or her current brand or product. It is also important to note that just because a customer has bought the same brand over and over again, the buying situation does not become routinized or a straight rebuy. What is important is to study how much time a customer spends on evaluating different brands in the same product category, and this will differ between market segments.

BUYER MOTIVATIONS

Economic Factors The well-known economist, Adam Smith, provided the earliest understanding of the rationale of buyer behaviour. According to him, *a human being is a rational individual. He or she evaluates various alternatives and will buy or select alternatives where the marginal utility is more than the marginal price he or she paid for it.* Consider the case of Priti, a housewife. After spending a few hours on her shopping she is tired and walks over to a nearby restaurant. She has the choice of either buying a fruit juice, a soft drink, a tea, or coffee. A glass of fresh fruit juice costs her Rs 7.50, a soft drink also costs her Rs 7.50, and tea or coffee costs Rs 3.50. Now, if she decides to buy the soft drink, then the utility of this soft drink is more than the marginal price she is paying to get it. In this case she is paying almost Rs 4.00 more than for a cup of tea or coffee. The utility of the soft drink, to her, at this time is more than that of tea or coffee or fruit juice. The assumption in the economic version of buyer behaviors is that the lowest priced product will sell as its marginal utility will always be higher than others. Price therefore is the critical factor in determining customer choice. Another assumption is that all products are alike and no differentiation is possible between them. The final factor is that the customer is aware of the alternatives available to him or her and is in a position to make choices.

The *economic model* can explain human behaviour to a limited extent only, because humans are not always rational beings. We all indulge in acts which are not necessarily rational. For example, a young man who loves his wife very dearly and works in a different town away from his wife and family may make a long distance call almost everyday not caring for the cost. But the economist would like us to believe that this young man will consider the

marginal cost and utility of making a long distance call and writing a letter (buying postage and stationery).

Besides, rarely or never is the information on alternatives complete. Branding is common in the manufactured consumer goods segment with each brand communicating a different image through technology, features, packaging, and intangibles like guarantee or warranty. However, there are limits to product differentiation. In today's world of technology standardization, there is hardly any differentiation between two brands of the same product on a feature-to- feature comparison. Price then becomes important, yet not the crucial factor. Hence the economic model does provide limited, but useful, insight into buyer behaviour.

Psychological Factors To get a better understanding of consumer behaviour, we need to examine three major psychological factors. These are:

- (a) motivation
- (b) learning
- (c) perception

A. Motivation The earliest explanation of human motivation was provided by the well-known psychoanalyst, Sigmund Freud. According to him, man learns from his environment. Taking the cue from a child, Freud said that a child is uninhibited in his behaviour until the time he or she is taught the worldly ways by his or her parents. Gradually as the child grows he starts behaving in a manner which is socially acceptable. This obviously means that his basic urges and instincts get suppressed and what we see is the socially approved behaviour pattern. Freud also believed that the most basic instinct that gets suppressed is sex and he traces much of human behaviour to this motive. But not all human behaviour is sex-motivated. Often, the need to influence or need for power is an important need guiding human behaviour. Some products tend to give this power to individuals. Credit cards, for example, give the individual the ability to influence others as in most cases it gives to him/her a higher social status.

Hierarchy of Needs Theory - Another understanding, and more comprehensive, view

was provided by Abraham Maslow. According to him, all individuals have needs which are placed in a hierarchy, as show in Fig. 6.4.

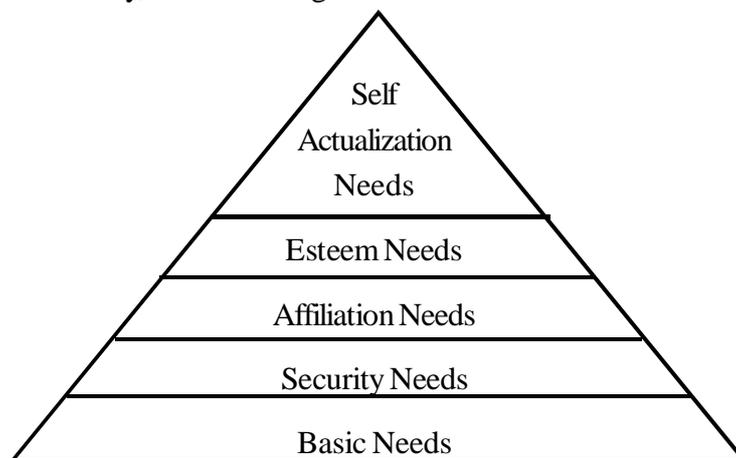


Fig. : 6.4

According to Maslow, human beings first satisfy their lower order needs, or basic and security needs before moving up the hierarchy to satisfy esteem and self-actualization. Applying Maslow's needs, we find that we can have different groups of customers with different needs. Consider for simple, the case of a toilet soap. An individual, motivated by basic need, may buy just any soap so as it serves his core need, cleaning. At this point, price may be important to him, but an individual who is high on affiliation or esteem may look for a premium priced soap. He or she would look for different element like shape, packaging, brand name, and the like, before selecting the brand. The new do-it-yourself kits, or learn-by-yourself are some of the products that satisfy esteem and self actualization needs. It may be recalled that esteem is a learned psychological need and security is a learned physiological need. Marketers often tend to invoke the esteem in the customer.

The contribution of Maslow's theory is that it helps the marketer segment his market and develop marketing strategies accordingly.

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory Another behavioural scientist, Frederick Herzberg, propounded the 'Two Factor Theory' of human motivation. According to him, there are satisfier and dissatisfies in any work situation. Calling them as motivators or

hygiene factors respectively, Herzberg said that it is the motivator who propels individuals towards excellence. Extending the theory to marketing, one finds that hygiene factors are product quality, packaging product warranty, and so forth. These are the given factors and all customers expect these features in all product groups. But the motivators will be factors like customer focused sales team, good customer service, or may be of the fact that the usage of a product helps the customer create a separate identity for himself or herself. What is therefore important is that the marketer should identify these satisfies in each customer group.

McClelland's Theory of Achievement Motivation Harvard's Professor David McClelland has provided a new insight into human motivation. According to him, there are three motives that drive human beings to higher performance. These are the need for belonging (**affiliation need**), need for power (**need to influence**), and the **need for achievement**. It is the latter need which makes individuals and societies excel and be creative. Extending the theory to marketing, some products are seen to represent achievement, while others are seen as power symbols and yet others as products meant for satisfying the need for belonging. Marketers have used these motives in evolving their communication programme. Consider for example, the advertising campaigns of credit card companies which appealed to people high on achievement and of late emphasise affiliation where Master Card claims only thing it can't buy is emotions.

Thus, McClelland's theory does help a firm to evolve its strategies for people motivated by different needs. An important observation in human motivation is that as societies develop, primary motives, or physiological needs like sex and hunger become less important and secondary motives like achievement and power gain a higher degree of importance. The marketer needs to be aware of this process, because for different communities and groups the need mix may be different, thus requiring different marketing tasks.

B. Learning Theory One of the important dimensions of human behaviour is that it is learnt. One learns at the pain of punishment and the lure of rewards. This learning could be conditioned or could be the result of trial and error, or even just an insight. More often than not, it is conditioned learning where an individual comes to associate

an act with some event. Proponents of the learning theory say that a person's learning is a result of an interplay of factors like drives, stimuli, cues, responses, and reinforcement.

Drives refer to energized needs. It is said that when an individual has an energized need, he or she will not rest until it is satisfied.

Case Study

Consider the example of a family buying a holiday plan at Goa. We'll call this family, the Mathurs. Both Mr and Mrs Mathur work for a foreign bank in Mumbai and they have a five year old daughter. One day, Mrs Mathur's friend Geeta, who also works for the same bank, returned after an extended weekend and excitedly told Mrs Mathur about her holiday in Goa, showing her the photographs. On returning home that day, Mrs Mathur told her husband about Geeta's trip to Goa and insisted that they too plan a similar holiday. Her desire for a holiday becomes a motive and will drive her to the stimulus (object)-Goa. Next day, she sees an 'advertisement of the Goa Penta Hotel which offers a free one-way air ticket, Goa-Mumbai or Mumbai-Goa, to tourists visiting Goa and staying with them for three nights and four days any time till Sept 30th, Mrs. Mathur calls up the sales office of one of the five star resorts and speaks to a sales person who tell her about the facilities they have at the resort, the games, restaurants, pool bar, seaside bar-be-que, and a private beach. He also offers to organize their entire trip, all that she had to give were the dates. Here, the advertisement of the resort, the sales person, and facilities offered by it constitute the cue. When the Mathurs give the dates on which they wish to travel, we have a response. Based on their experience at the resort and Goa, they either feel gratified or regret their decision, if they feel gratified their behaviour gets reinforced and may be in future when they take a short holiday again, they may like to in over to Goa and stay at the same resort. Also based on their experience they may generalize that Goa is a great place for a holiday.

A variant of generalization is discrimination. On a future holiday, the Mathurs go to Goa but may stay at another five star deluxe resort hotel. They find it a more luxurious and pleasurable resort with better incilities and service, better layout, and more variety

of food and drinks. They conclude that it is superior to the earlier resort. Now Mathurs have learnt the different between the two resorts and are able to generalize.

The learning theory offers a tremendous challenge to a marketer-that of guiding and sometimes even directing human behaviour. This is done by developing stimuli and cues which will bring to fore the latent need in the customer. Attractive advertising, shelf displays, packaging, how to use instructions, store layout, availability, and sales persons are all examples of cues that a marketer develops to drive customers to the product or service. An excellent customer care programme by the marketer can help a customer have positive feelings about his or her experience. The marketer may also develop cues to differentiate his or her product from that of the competition.

Theory of Cognitive Dissonance In the above example, if the Mathurs had other alternatives, each one of them being equally attractive as the Goa's Resort and if after the selection they had lingering doubts of whether they have taken the right decision, then we say they suffered from '*cognitive dissonance*, or simply mental disturbance. Leon Festinger proposed this theory to marketers of post-purchase consumer behaviour. He called this the theory of cognitive dissonance. To better appreciate this theory we need to understand that all of us, for most part of our lives: live in a state of mental equilibrium this gets affected when a certain event does not happen the way we expect it to be. For example, we buy a car from a well-known leading car dealer. We expect that this dealer will have an excellent sales service and a good customer service cell. But when we take the car for the first service and register our problems and find that nobody listens to us or is interested in us, we often suffer from post-purchase dissonance like, "Did I do the right thing to buy my car from this dealer? Should I not have give to another? Or should I not have bought another car from another dealer?" Festinger says that this dissonance gets heightened in the following situations.

- a) when customer has plenty of choices or alternatives to choose from
- b) each alternative is equally attractive
- c) the buying situation is a high priced-high risk situation
- d) the customer sees the product as reflecting his or her self-concept

e) one of us would like to live for long in this state of disequilibrium as it is painful.

Therefore, in to overcome this state we either:

- do away with the product causing us mental anxiety or dissonance.
- collect more material on the product in support of our decision to buy the product
- we should rationalise our decision by looking around and seeing how many customers had bought the product.

The marketer has to have an interest in all the above three response behaviours. For he needs the customer to reject his competitor's product or brand and rationalize his choice in favour of his product. Testimonial advertising, for example, is one form of reducing post-purchase cognitive dissonance. Thus, it may be observed that cognitive dissonance is generally a feature of high involvement buying situation. The higher the involvement, the higher the dissonance.

C. Perceptions We live today in an over-communicated society. There are companies, individuals, social organizations, and government and its agencies demanding our attention. Whether it's the morning newspaper, radio, television, hoardings, kiosks, or roadside shops, there is an advertising blaze. But none of us see or hear everything that is being communicated to us by the advertiser. Behavioural scientists tell us that human beings see or hear only what they want or anticipate. This is then called perception. There are three different dimensions that affect human being's perceptions.

These are:

- (a) selective attention
- (b) selective distortion
- (c) selective retention

Selective Attention As was mentioned earlier, none of us pay attention to all the stimuli directed to us by the advertiser. Just look around and see what is typically done when ad commercials are beamed on TV during prime time. Most adults go out to complete their work or do something else during the commercial break. Fast-forwarding a video or an audio cassette during a commercial break is yet another way

by which we as consumers avoid the advertiser's stimulus. Therefore, behavioural experts say that all human beings pay selective attention to different stimuli. This selective attention is based on the following factors.

(a) Expectation If we expect to see or hear something, then we pay attention to only such stimuli.

(b) Rewarding or Beneficial If we believe that by listening to someone, reading, or seeing something will help us, then we pay attention to such stimulus. For example, every household in urban cities get flyers on weekends. Most of these are just thrown away in the dustbin. But suppose there is one full page ad announcing the opening of a new departmental store in the town and informing that the first 1000 customers who visit the store in the first week with the flyer in the newspaper will get a return air ticket to Kulu- Manali, then some of us are likely to pay attention to this ad and the flyers. Likewise, a leading cosmetic firm carried a campaign on the art of make up in most up-market magazines in 1981. This was a three-page advertisement. The front page had an extremely ugly- looking face of a girl. Research showed readers just skipped this page as they hated to see this face. But the moment they turned over they saw the same face, but this time more beautiful. Most men and women had noticed this advertisement. Most women not only saw the advertisement but even recalled its contents. Therefore, a stimulus that promises to be rewarding is more likely to be seen or heard.

Selective Distortion People do not just selectively pay attention to different stimuli, they also selectively distort them. This selective distortion happens because people add their own values and beliefs to the message. Also, since people remember only positive experiences and stimulus, they just filter out everything else. We add to or delete from the original message.

Selective Retention Even after distorting the message it is not that individuals are able to recall it. Research shows that most often human beings recall only 5 percent of the original verbal message. The percentage of people recalling stimulus increases as the stimulus becomes more visual and is the maximum when it is an audio-visual message.

Perception theory challenges a marketer's creativity, for the challenge is how the firm makes its brand and advertisements such that they are seen and remembered. The challenge is also one of placing the brand at the top of the customer's mind. Marketers have used several strategies to make their stimuli stand out. Full page advertisements (size), coloured advertisements in black and white magazines (contrast), floats or other mobile stimuli (movement), easy to understand words (familiarity), and making a customer guess the objects or messages to come (e.g. a teaser campaign like "Look out for this space tomorrow if you want to fly Singapore FREE") in other words, creating anticipation. are some of the most commonly used strategies to make a stimulus perceived by the customer. Repetition (like the repetition of Limca three times in Limca radio jingles and TV commercials) is also a very common strategy.

6.5.2 Role in Consumer Decision Making

Often we find that in a consumer decision process several individuals get involved. Each of them plays an influencing role. At times more than one role may be played by one individual. These roles are:

- a) **Initiator:** This is a person who sows the seed in a customer's mind to buy a product. This person may be a part of the customer's family like a child, spouse, or parents. Alternatively, the person may be a friend, a relative, a colleague, or even the sales person. In the earlier example of the Mathur family buying a holiday package to Goa, Mrs Mathur's friend, Geeta, was the initiator.
- b) **Influencer:** This is a person within or outside the immediate family of the customer who influence the decision process. The individual perceived as an influencer is also perceived as an expert. In consumer durables sale, the dealer plays an influencing role.
- c) **Decider:** This is the person who actually takes the decision. In a joint family, often it is the head of the family or the elders in the family who take a decision. But in nuclear and single families and with the increase in the literacy among women and number of working couples, one finds that more often than not, decisions are joint. Husband, wife, and even the entire family taking the decision, particularly a major

purchases, is quite common in urban and metro areas. The decider/s consider both economic and non-economic parameters before selecting a brand.

d) Buyer: This is the person who actually buys the product. This could be the decider himself or itself, or the initiator.

e) User: This is the personals who actually consumes the product. This could be the entire family or at one person within the customer's family.

It is important to note that the people who play these roles seek different values in the product or price. The perception of the value is to a large extent influenced by their prior experience or that of a experience of others, media reports, and the marketing cues created by the firm. These values, may also be referred to as market value, are the potential of a product or service to satisfy the needs and wants.

6.5.3 Buying Decision Process

Let's now turn to the decision-making process itself. This process will vary depending on customer's level of involvement in the product. Here the assumption is that customer has the right to information.

High Involvement Product We mentioned earlier that high involvement products often demand more customer time. Hence, the decision process here can be schematically understood as shown in Figure 6.7.

Problem Identification Need Recognition The starting point is when the customer perceives the need for a product. This could be based on the individual's experiences or may be the difficulties that he or she faces in a given situation. Let's consider the case of Anil Sharma, a company executive. Anil lives in a suburb of Mumbai and has to travel about 25 km to work. Near his workplace there is no suburban train station. Anil has to either travel by the company's bus or take a BEST bus. While going to his office Anil has no problem because he takes the company's bus. He has a problem returning. That's because he doesn't have a fixed time for returning. Besides, he has to often go out in the city for work. Mobility for him, therefore, is important. Also for him freedom from fixed bus schedules and rude or Indifferent taxi drivers is also important. Anil's wife is a medical doctor and they have two children. Anil has often

felt the need for a personal vehicle whenever they have either gone out shopping or for a late night movie or party.

Another way by which a need may become overt is through peer pressure. Anil belongs to an executive group and all his colleagues have their own vehicles. Often the neighbour's wife asks Anil's wife why they don't have a vehicle. Anil's children's friends too have vehicles in their family. So here peer influence, neighbour's and friend's pressures make Anil seriously think of buying a vehicle.

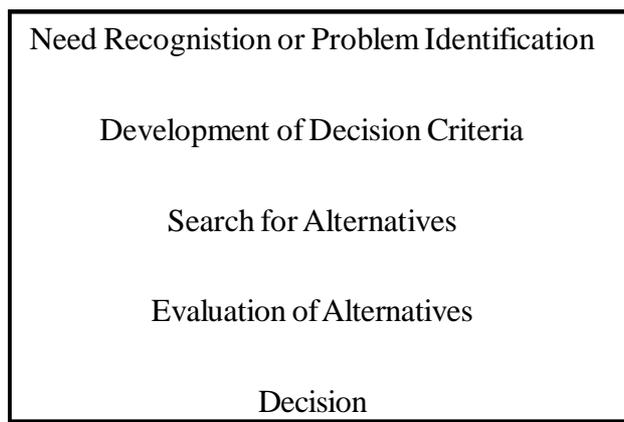


Fig. 6.5

Which vehicle should Anil buy? A car, a motorcycle, or a scooter? Anil and his family feel they should buy a car. Should they buy a used or a new car? Anil thinks that a used car will lower his status and therefore decides to buy a new car.

Thus, problem identification is important. As long as a customer does not perceive a problem, his or her need is not overt, no purchase proposition can ever be made. Marketers create stimulus to make this need overt. Consider the example of the MRF advertisement shown just before the onset of monsoons. The company is making the need to change tyres before monsoon obvious, by reminding customers that a bad tyre could cause trouble. Or, the Eno salt advertisement, which shows the person having stomach trouble due to over-eating or the Close-up advertisement, which shows a loss of friendship or association on account of bad breath. While the marketer has no influence on the social factor he or she can create stimulus, which will make a customer feel the need for the product.

Development of Decision Criteria Anil is a new customer for a car. He doesn't know what look for and how to evaluate different brands or models available in the country. He turns to his friend Arun Joshi, who has been a car owner for over ten years, his brother-in-law, and a neighbour works for a car dealership, for advice. They tell him to look for fuel efficiency, space for pasenger and luggage, safety features, after sales service of the dealer or the manufacturer, manoeuvrability small areas and parking lots, driving comfort, availability of roadside repair and maintenance facility and finally, the financing options. All advised him that fuel efficiency should be the most critical factor in his choice. After reading some articles on automobiles and having talked to some more friends, prioritized these factors in the following way.

Table: 6.1 Decision Criteria for Buying a Car

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Weights</i>
(a) Safety	7
(b) Fuel efficiency	6
(c) After sales service	5
(d) Driving comfort	4
(e) Manoeuvrability	3
(f) Financing options	2
(g) Availability of roasslde repair and maintenance cost	1

In the development of decision criteria, a customer consults his or her friends, relatives, and others whom he or she perceives to be experts in the product. In a way, the customer considers them as opinion leaders. The customer may even read specialized printed material like journals or magazines on a particular product.

Search for Alternatives Having developed a decision criteria. Anil now looks for alternative brands, models, and dealers. He looks for advertisements in the newspaper and magazines, hoardings or billboards. news articles, and also consults the yellow pages. His wife and children also talk to their friends. And all come to the following conclusions.

- (a) The oldest brand or model on road are the Hindustan Motors' 'Ambassador'

and the Premier Automobiles' 'Premier Padrnini.

- (b) Premier Automobiles does not produce cars anymore.
- (c) Hindustan Motors has revamped the Ambassador, but is no more being bought by individual/ families. It has a tie up with General Motors, who have introduced Opel in two variants-Astra for the high-end market and Corsa for the middle-level market. Ford has two models, Escort and Ikon. Honda, Hyundai, Telco, Toyota, Fiat, and Maruti Udyog are other car manufacturers.
- (d) The largest number of models are from Maruti Udyog
- (e) Each of these car manufacturers have multiple dealers located in different parts of the city.
- (f) There are used car dealers also, some of whom market new vehicles also. They were sub-dealers of main dealers. Unlike the latter who have exclusive arrangements with car manufacturers, these sub-dealers are multi-brand outlets and hence offer a wide choice to the customer.
- (g) Financing is available at all dealer outlets. Various plans are being offered from instalment plans to hire purchase or leasing.

In this case we see that the customer is actively engaged in a search for alternatives and has used the media or other social channels to collect all the relevant information.

Evaluation of Alternatives Now Anil evaluates all the above alternatives on the decision criteria he has evolved, and gives weightage to each brand and model on the parameters selected by him. Here Anil also considers another factor like the resale value of the car after three years. He also keeps in mind his tax obligation and the monthly expenditure that he will have to incur to maintain the car. At this juncture, Anil and his family also look for a specific colour and showroom delivery as they do not want to wait.

Decision After weighing all the parameters Anil comes to the conclusion that a dark grey Esteem VX is the car for him and his family.

This decision may change at the time of purchase either because of non-availability of specific model and colour, change in the interest rate, or any other change in the cultural environment. Howard and Sheth have given another dimension to this decision: They call it the Theory of Evoked Set. An evoked set consists of the alternatives a customer is aware of and considers in selecting a brand. In any product group there are number brands that are competing with each other. This is the total set. It is not necessary (in never dots happen) that the customer is aware of all of them. Generally, the human can take in only three names. This is then the *awareness* set. It is not necessary that all the brand the customer is aware of will be considered for buying. All those brands that are considered are part of the *consideration* set and the brand decided is the decision set. Normally the purchase should this brand only. But it may change because of competition activity at purchase outlets or due non-availability of the selected brand at the purchase outlet. Figure 6.6 shows this theory diagram gramatically.

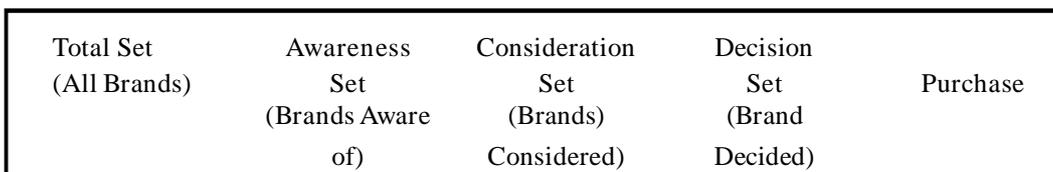


Fig. 6.6

Low Involvement Products By their very nature, low involvement products are once customer spends least time in searching for alternatives or for that matter in evolving decision. The decision process here is as shown in Fig. 6.7

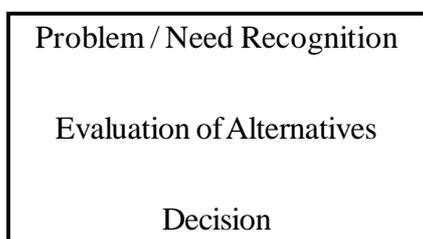


Fig 6.7

Since the products are low on cost and risk and do not reflect a customer’s personality, the customer spends little time in evaluating the brands. Moreover, since there are

little or no major differences perceived among the alternatives, often the basis for evaluation are price, taste, size, and packaging. Consider the example of buying toothpaste or tomato ketchup. The only time that we spend in buying it is picking it up from the shelf .

Thus consumer decision making processes differ across product groups.

6.6 POST PURCHASE BEHAVIOR

After the purchase, the consumer might experience dissonance from noticing certain disquieting features or hearing favorable things about other brands and will be alert to information that supports his or her decision. Marketing communications should supply beliefs and evaluations that reinforce the consumer's choice and help him or her feel good about the brand. The marketer's job therefore doesn't end with the purchase. Marketers must monitor post purchase satisfaction, post purchase actions, and postpurchase product uses and disposal.

POST PURCHASE SATISFACTION Satisfaction is a function of the closeness between expectations and the product's perceived performance. If performance falls short of expectations, the consumer is *disappointed*; if it meets expectations, the consumer is satisfied; if it exceeds expectations, the consumer is *delighted*. These feelings make a difference in whether the customer buys the product again and talks favorably or unfavorably about it to others.

The larger the gap between expectations and performance, the greater the dissatisfaction. Here the consumer's coping style comes into play. Some consumers magnify the gap when the product isn't perfect and are highly dissatisfied; others minimize it and are less dissatisfied.

POST PURCHASE ACTIONS A satisfied consumer is more likely to purchase the product again and will also tend to say good things about the brand to others. Dissatisfied consumers may abandon or return the product. They may seek information that confirms its high value. They may take public action by complaining to the company, going to a lawyer, or complaining directly to other groups (such as business, private,

or government agencies) or to many others online. Private actions include deciding to stop buying the product (*exit option*) or warning friends (*voice option*).

Postpurchase communications to buyers have been shown to result in fewer product returns and order cancellations. Computer companies, for example, can send a letter to new owners congratulating them on having selected a fine new tablet computer. They can place ads showing satisfied brand owners. They can solicit customer suggestions for improvements and list the location of available services. They can write intelligible instruction booklets. They can send owners e-mail updates describing new tablet applications. In addition, they can provide good channels for speedy redress of customer grievances.

POST PURCHASE USES AND DISPOSAL Marketers should also monitor how buyers use and dispose of the product (Figure 6.7). A key driver of sales frequency is product consumption rate - the more quickly buyers consume a products, the sooner they may be back in the market to repurchase it.

6.7 SUMMARY

In sum therefore, the consumer, the most critical component in marketing strategy of an enterprise, needs to be studied in depth. Even though consumer behaviour cannot be precisely quantified and marketing decisions have to be based on probabilities, It is much better to know this behaviour and then take decisions rather than taking them without any study. An excellently engineered product may fail just because the customer does not identify himself or herself with it. Hence a company must understand how the buyer decides in favour of one brand or product, what motivates him or her to select an alternative, and who influences him or her to buy the brand or product. It is important to study how much time a customer spends on evaluating different brands and prices in the same product category.

For a better understanding of consumer behaviour, three major psychological factors need to be examined. These are motivation, learning and perception. Buyer decisions are also strongly influenced by variable like cultrual and social factors, personal factors like demographics, self concept, lifestyle and personality (the last two are called psychographic variables). The various tools to study buyer behaviours are surveys,

projective techniques and focus group discussions.

6.8 GLOSSARY

- **Market Research:** The systematic gathering, recording, analyzing, and use of data relating to the transfer and sale of goods and services from producer to consumer.
- **Motivation Research:** Research used to investigate the psychological reasons that individuals buy specific types of merchandise or why they respond to specific advertising. This research helps you determine the base of brand choices and product preferences.
- **Potential market:** A set of consumers who profess some level of interest in a designed market offer.
- **Primary research:** Research that's conducted directly from your own consumers or potential consumers.
- **Secondary research:** Research that a company collects indirectly from various outside sources.

6.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q 1. What do you understand by Market analysis?

Q2. Write a detailed note on Post Purchase Behavior

6.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. Illustrates the buying Decision process in details. What are the factors influencing consumers behaviour?

6.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 7

CONSUMERS, MARKETS & MARKET POSITIONING Unit - II

ANALYZING BUSINESS MARKETS

STRUCTURE

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Organisational Buying
- 7.4 Organisational Buying Behaviour
- 7.5 Buying Situations
 - 7.5.1 Buy Grid Frame Work
- 7.6 Factors Affecting Organisational Buying
- 7.7 Systems Buying and Selling
 - 7.7.1 Selling to the System
- 7.8 Summary
- 7.9 Glossary
- 7.10 Self Assessment Questions
- 7.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 7.12 Suggested Readings

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Those who supply goods and services to consumer markets are themselves in need of goods and services to run their business. These organizations-producers, resellers, and government-make up vast marketing organizations that buy a large variety of products, including equipment, raw material, and labor and other services. Some organizations sell exclusively to other organizations and never come into contact with consumer buyers. Despite the importance of organizational markets, far less research has been conducted on factors that influence their behavior than on factors that influence consumers. However, we can identify characteristics that distinguish organizational buying from consumer buying and typical steps in the organizational buying process.

Organizational behavior refers to the buying behavior of organizations that buy products for business use, resell or to make other products. Organizations consist of business, industries, retailers, government, and non-government organizations. Business and industries buy products for business use or to produce other products. Resellers buy products to resell at a profit. Government buys products for use in offices and development projects or to provide service to people. Non-government organizations buy products to provide service to their clients. They can be hospitals, educational institutions, political parties, religious and social organizations.

7.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to understand:

- the importance of decision making units (DMU) and the roles played by them in buying decision process
- the buy phases or decision making process in organizational purchases
- the role value-analysis plays in organisational purchases and what a marketer should do
- how the internet influences buyer behaviour today

7.3 ORGANISATIONAL BUYING

Organisation buying is the decision-making process by which formal organizations establish the need for purchased products and services and identify, evaluate and choose among alternative brands and suppliers. Organisations buy in furtherance of organizational objectives, such as to manufacture and deliver goods and services to members, customers or the community. Organizational buying is heavily influenced by derived demand, that is, demand for an end product or for a product or service sold by the buyer's customers. The demand for components by a manufacturer will be dependent on demand coming from their customers, the retailers and wholesalers, who in turn are reacting to demand from their customers, the consumers. Overall consumer demand may in turn be impacted by economic, social, political, and technological factors in the environment.

The organizational buying process is entirely different from the consumer buying process. While buying decisions are made relatively easily and quickly by individual customers, organizational buying involves thorough and deep analysis. Organizations purchase products ranging from highly complex machinery to small components. In an organization, the purchase decisions are influenced by several individuals and are not made in isolation by an individual. Organizational buyers are more concerned about the price and quality of the product along with the service being provided by the vendor.

Price plays a major role, since the price of the raw materials is the investment from which profits are generated. Thus, price is a major factor which affects the profitability of the firm. Service also plays an important role, because no organization would like to buy goods from a vendor who cannot provide timely and efficient service. Organisations adopt certain methods for buying products such as checking a sample before the actual purchase. Most organizational purchases involve purchase of products in large lots. So it is not feasible to individually inspect each and every item in the lot.

In such situations, a sample is checked assuming that this sample represents the entire lot. Like the consumer markets, organizational markets also possess certain demand

characteristics. The organizational demand for products or services may be inelastic, derived, joint, or fluctuating in nature.

Organizational markets normally purchase the goods or services for producing other goods and services, using these as raw materials. There are also resellers, who purchase the products to sell directly to other customers without any modifications. Apart from producers and resellers, there are also government and institutional customers who buy the goods. Government buys goods for public utility or for use in their departments or for production purposes.

The buying decisions of organizations are influenced by environmental factors, organizational factors, social factors and personal factors. Participants in the organizational buying process play as many as seven different roles, namely those of initiator, influencer, user, decider, approver, buyer, and gatekeeper.

Although organizations differ significantly from each other in their purchasing process, the various stages of industrial buying comprise problem recognition, general need recognition, product specification, value analysis, vendor analysis, order routine specification, multiple sourcing and performance review.

Marketers need relevant information about the characteristics of the industries for marketing their goods and services effectively. To search for such information, the prime sources are government and industrial publications. The Standard Industrial Classification is a process where such characteristics of manufacturing, financial, and service sectors are depicted in a coded format.

7.4 ORGANISATIONAL BUYING BEHAVIOUR

Organizational buying behavior is the sum total of an organization's attitudes, preferences, intentions and decisions regarding the buying behavior in the marketplace when purchasing goods for manufacturing or reselling. The main characteristics of organizational buying behavior can be described as follows:

1. Derived Demand : Organizational buying is based on derived demand. Demand made by the ultimate consumers creates demand for industrial goods or services. For instance, demand of electricity generator is determined according to the demand made

by the consumers. Demand of organizational buyer changes with the changes in consumers' demand.

2. Geographical Concentration : Organizational buyers remain concentrated in certain geographical area whereas consumers' market remains scattered all around. Producers want to establish industry nearby supply source. Mostly, industrial market is determined considering transport facilities and cost. Along with this, raw materials, labor supply, climate condition etc. are also considered.

3. Few Buyers and Large Volume : The number of organizational buyers remains small but volume of sale is large. So, organizational marketers focus on their efforts on very small number of main buyers who buy goods or services in large volume paying big amount of price.

4. More Direct Channel of Distribution : High quantity of consumer goods or services is sold out through complex structure of wholesalers and retailers. This structure keeps producers and consumers separate or it works as the bridge between them. But in organizational selling, direct contact is established between buyers and sellers. The organization, which buys in large volume, buys necessary goods directly from producers.

5. Rational Buying : Organizational buyers use rational in buying goods or services compared to the ultimate consumers. They want to take more information about the features, quality, technical use, utility etc of products. Organizational buyers become aware of quality, services, delivery, price etc. of any products.

6. Professional buying : Compared to consumer buyer, organizational buyers become systematic, rational, and professional. Buying agents become skilled professional. They should take frequent trainings on buying process, contract, material management, and legal aspects of buying. Professional buyers develop formal methods of buying.

7. Complexity : Complexity is another characteristic of organizational buying. Under organizational buying process, different persons participate in buying decision. So it becomes difficult to take buying decision. While taking decision on buying, it becomes

necessary to know the role of users, motivator, decision maker, and buyer whose effect goes on buying process.

7.5 BUYING SITUATIONS

A buying situation relates to the circumstances surrounding a purchase that can be defined by the quality of information and experience that the buyer has concerning the products and vendors available, as well as the effort it will take to make the purchase decision.

Straight re-buy is the situation under which the buyers are engaging in the routine purchase of standard products from a familiar supplier where you don't make any modifications from the most recent order. A perfect example is ordering some boxes of copier paper, pens, and pencils from your office supplier. It doesn't take much effort except to confirm the sales order has been satisfied.

Modified re-buy is the situation where the purchaser is going to buy a similar product but there is a significant difference in the purchase from the previous purchase. The difference may include a change in the product specifications or a new supplier. An example may be switching to a different type of software provided by a different vendor. This buying situation involves more effort because you are going to have to research product specifications and evaluate vendors, as well as possibly negotiate new contracts.

7.5.1 Buy Grid Frame Work

In 1967, the Canadian, American, and Israeli marketing researchers, Robinson, Farris and Wind, introduced the buy grid framework as a generic conceptual model for buying processes of organisations. They saw industrial buying not as single events, but as organizational decision- making processes where multiple individuals decide on a purchase. Their framework consists of a matrix of buy classes and buy phases.

The buy classes are:

- 1. New Tasks:** The first-time buyer seeks a wide variety of information to explore alternative purchasing solutions to his organizational problem. The greater the cost or

perceived risks related to the purchase, the greater the need for information and the larger the number of participants in the buying centre.

2. Modified Re-buy: The buyer wants to replace a product the organisation uses. The decision making may involve plans to modify the product specifications, prices, terms, or suppliers as when managers of the company believe that such a change will enhance quality or reduce cost. In such circumstances, the buying centre proved to require fewer participants and allow for a quicker decision process than in a new task buy class.

3. Straight Re-buy: The buyer routinely reorders a product with no modifications. The buyer retains the supplier as long as the level of satisfaction with the delivery, quality, and price is maintained. New suppliers are considered only when these conditions change. The challenge for the new supplier is to offer better conditions or draw the buyer's attention to greater benefits than in the current offering.

The buy phases are:

Based on field research, Robinson, Farris and Wind divided the buyer purchase process into eight sequential, distinct, but interrelated buy phases:

- (i) Recognition of the organizational problem or need.
- (ii) Determination of the characteristics of the item and the quantity needed.
- (iii) Description of the characteristics of the item and the quantity needed.
- (iv) Search for and qualification of potential sources.
- (v) Acquisition and analysis of proposals.
- (vi) Evaluation of the proposals and selection of suppliers.
- (vii) Selection of an order routine.
- (viii) Performance feedback and evaluation.

The most complex buying situations occur in the upper left quadrant of the buy grid matrix where the largest number of decision makers and buying influences are involved.

A new task that occurs in the problem recognition phase (1) is generally the most difficult for management. The buying process can vary from highly formalized to an approximation depending on the nature of the buying organisation, the size of the deal and the buying situation. The relationship between the buyer and seller is initiated in phases 1 and 2. Assessing the buyer's needs and determining gaps between the current and desired situation is important. Buyers need assistance in forming realistic perceptions of both the current and the desired situation.

A sales person must be aware that a buyer not only has functional needs, but psychological, social, knowledge and situational needs as well. These components should be addressed in meetings in order to obtain commitment. The purchase can be a one-time transaction or a repetitive nature. When there are multiple deliveries, the supplier and buyer must agree on an order routine. As buy phases are completed, the process of 'creeping commitment' occurs and reduces the likelihood of new suppliers gaining access to the buying situation.

During the performance feedback and evaluation phase, the relationship between the seller and buyer can develop into a longer term engagement. Buyer loyalty and customer satisfaction are primarily determined by the sales activities during this last phase.

7.6 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL BUYING

The factors influencing buyer's purchase decisions can be conveniently divided into following categories:

1. External Environment: Environmental factors constitute an important determinant of organizational purchasing. This includes economic situation, government policy, competitive development in the industry, technological development and their introduction. For example, if the organizational buyer feels that the government is going to increase tax on industrial buying is likely to increase in the near future, his buying of material will increase as buying will become costly in future due to tax burden. An organization buyer may update his technology if machinery is available at fair rates and interest charges are low. Purchases will be made at lower level, if the recession trends are clearly visible in the economy. An industrial purchaser will be

cautions and careful in his buying decisions so that decision will prove appropriate and will not bring loss to the organization. An industrial purchaser will collect information about economic situation in the country and will take appropriate decisions after analyzing such economic information. He has to give special attention to economic environment while taking purchase decision.

- **Economic factors:** Economic factors affect organizational buying behavior. This includes level of demand and economic health. The level of demand includes capacity and desire for buying goods. This is affected by income distribution and price of product. Prosperity, recession, and recovery are included in economic health. The prosperity condition is economically good condition. Recession is economically bad condition.
- **Technological factors:** Technological factors also affect organizational behavior. This includes level of technology, pace of technology, technology transfer etc. E-commerce as well as information technology has got revolutionary change. It has directly affected organizational buying behavior.
- **Political and legal factors:** Political and legal factors also affect organizational buying process directly. Political factors include political system, political situation, and political thought, government policies etc. whereas constitution, laws, rules and regulations etc. are included in legal factors.
- **Social responsibility:** A business organization should consider social responsibility while buying any goods or services. Indigenous goods should be given preference in buying and interest of society should be protected. Interest of different pressure group of the society also should be considered while buying goods or services.
- **Competition:** Competition also affects buying behavior. This competition includes pure competition, monopolistic competition and oligopoly competition.

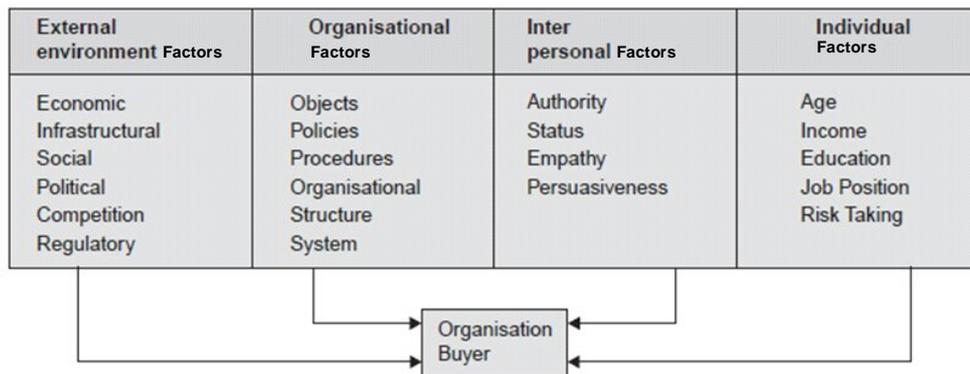


Fig. 7.1

2. Organizational Factors: Organizational factors are internal factor affecting buying decision. Every purchasing organization has certain objectives and goals, well accepted producer and system for purchasing, and an appropriate organizational structure. These factors directly and indirectly influence its purchase decision. These characteristic provide clues for determining buying decision. The objectives of an organization influence the types of products it needs and the criteria by which it evaluates supplies. Companies frame their procedures/policies for making purchase decision. Government organization normally uses bidding while making a purchase. Products specifications are well established and suppliers have to submit bids as per the general notice. In the case of other industrial purchasers may have different procedures for purchasing. Suppliers have to note the procedural differences among the organizations as regards purchases procedures and adjust their quotations; according structure assigns authority and responsibilities for decision making to job positions across a company. Some companies assign authority for purchase decisions to purchase managers while others do not. Informal relations among people (with the organization) in different positions in a purchase organization can affect buying decisions. In many small family owned firms, centralized structures are used. Purchase decisions require the family’s consent. This delays the purchase decisions. In decentralized structure, quick decisions are possible at the departmental level. Policies like inventory holding and procedures such as payments or bidding also influence purchase decisions of organizational buyers.

- **Objectives:** Buying objective is determined according to organizational goal. Goods should be purchased according to organizational objective. As goods or services need to be purchased according to organizational goal, buying is affected by objective.
 - **Policies:** Purchasing or buying policy also effects organizational buying behavior. Goods should be purchased according to buying policy of the organization. If the organization has the policy of buying indigenous goods, the buyer cannot buy foreign goods. If the purchasing policy is silent in this matter, whichever goods, foreign or indigenous, can be purchased as desired.
 - **Procedures:** The methods and process adopted by an organization to buy goods or services is called procedure. Goods or services can be purchased directly through agreement, or through tender, demanding catalogue etc. Any of the method can be adopted to buy goods or services. Whichever procedure the organization has adopted, the buyer should follow it.
 - **Organizational structure:** Organizational structure defines authority and relations which directly affects buying behavior. In some organizations, goods or services are purchased by direct order of chief executive while in some other organizations, goods or services are bought through purchase department. So, buying behavior is affected by organizational structure.
 - **System:** Purchasing system also directly affects buying behavior. An organization can adopt any one or more such as centralized system, decentralized system, huge quantity purchase system and others.
- 3. Inter-personal factors:** Industrial buying decisions are normally collective and also as per the procedures decided. The buying center involves several individuals with different formal authority, status, and persuasiveness. Buying center consists of individuals of the organization concerned with purchase decision process. They share the risk arising out of it. They also have a common goal. There is interaction among the members of a buying center as regards purchases to be made. There is also a possibility of conflict among the members (of a buying centre) in marketing buying decision. The suppliers need to know about such conflicts in order to resolve them so

that the marketing/purchasing program can be adjusted accordingly. Conflicts among buying center participants need to be solved promptly so that buying will be done promptly i.e. as per the production schedule prepared. Knowledge of group dynamics helps the marketer to settle conflicts and early release of purchase order.

- **Authority:** The personnel whom the organizational structure gives authority to order for purchase, no goods can be purchased without his order. Buying decision of such authority plays an important role in buying.
- **Status:** The persons to purchase goods or services and to give order for purchase may be different in an organization. As much the behavior of the person issuing purchase order affects behavior of the buyer. If the status or level of the buyer is high, his buying decision becomes rational and quick. His/her behavior becomes mature.
- **Interest:** Users, influencers, buyers, decider, and gate keeper are involved in organizational buying process. Their interest affects organizational buying process. As their interest becomes different, buying process may be complicated.

4. Individual buyers' characteristics/individual factors: In the final analysis, individual factors play an important role in buying decision. The other factors (environmental, organizational, etc.) are important but individuals concerned with purchase decision are equally important. A supplier needs to have complete details of all individuals involved in the purchase decision process. Personal factors/ characteristics include age, education, job position, maturity, etc. as these factors affect individual perception, preference and motivation. Final decisions are based on such factors even when their importance is limited in the decision-making. In the final analysis, individual/officer is responsible for taking buying decision for the organization. The make-up of these individual is a major factor influencing buying decision. The supplier has to consider this factor and adjust his sales personnel's accordingly. The industrial buyer may be assertive or may have co-operative attitude. The supplier's representative has to adjust with all types/ categories of industrial buyers in order to finalize purchase deal.

- **Age:** Age of person also affects selection and priority. Younger persons make buying decision and supplier selection quicker than older aged persons. Similarly, the younger persons try to find new suppliers whereas older persons try to give continuation to the same who is supplying. So this also affects buying process.
- **Education:** Education makes person able to analyze good or bad. So, an educated person takes buying decision rationally whereas uneducated person makes buying decision at hit and miss/ or hunch. Educated person selects goods or services carefully. So, buyer's education also affects organizational buying behavior.
- **Job position:** Job position also shows a person's status. Buyer's position or status also affects his buying behavior. Buyer's status may be low or high.
- **Personality:** Personality of person working in an organization may be different. Personality affects selection of quality, brand, price etc. So, buyer's personality also affects organizational buying behavior.
- **Risk attitude:** Risk bearing capacity of men becomes different. Some can bear more risk and others like to take less risk. Similarly, some like to avoid risk and some others like to face. The capacity and attitude to bear risk also affect buying behavior. The buyers having the capacity to take high risk become aggressive. But those having less risk bearing capacity and having no risk bearing capacity do not do so.

7.7 SYSTEMS BUYING AND SELLING

Many business buyers prefer to buy a total solution to a problem from one seller. Called systems buying, this practice originated with government purchases of major weapons and communications systems. The government would solicit bids from prime contractors, who assembled the package or system. The contractor who was awarded the contract would be responsible for bidding out and assembling the system subcomponents from second-tier contractors. The prime contractor would thus provide

a turnkey solution, so-called because the buyer simply had to turn one key to get the job done.

Ford has transformed itself from being mainly a car manufacturer to being mainly a car assembler. Ford relies primarily on a few major systems suppliers to provide seating systems, braking systems, door systems, and other major assemblies. In designing a new automobile, Ford works closely with its seat manufacturer and creates a black box specification of the basic seat dimensions and performance that it needs, and then waits for the seat supplier to propose the most cost-effective design. When they agree, the seat supplier subcontracts parts to suppliers to produce and deliver the needed components.

During the contract period, the supplier manages the customer inventory. For example, Shell Oil manages the Oil inventory of the many of its business customers and knows when it is due for replenishment. The customer benefits from reduced procurement and management costs and from price protection over the term of the contract. The seller benefits from lower operating costs because of a steady demand and reduced paper work.

System selling is a key industrial marketing strategy in bidding to build large-scale industrial projects, such as dams, steel factories, irrigation systems, sanitation system, pipelines utilities, and even new towns.

Project engineering firms must compete on price, quality, reliability, and even new towns. Project engineering firms must compete on price quality, reliability, and other attributes to win contracts. Consider the following example

Examples: JAPAN AND INDONESIA

The Indonesian government requested bids to build a cement factory near Jakarta. An Australian firm made a proposal that included choosing the site, designing the cement factory, hiring the construction crews, assembling the materials and equipment and turning over the finished factory to the Indonesian government. A Japanese firm, in outlining its proposal, included all of these services, plus hiring and training the workers to run the factory, exporting the cement through its trading companies, and using the

cement to build roads and new office buildings in Jakarta. Although the Japanese proposal involved more money, it won the contract. Clearly, the Japanese viewed the problem not just as one of building a cement factory (the narrow view of systems selling) but as one of contributing to Indonesia economic development. They took the broadest view of the customer needs. This is true systems selling.

To sum up Sellers have increasingly recognized that buyers like to purchase in this way and many have adopted systems selling as a marketing tool. One variant of systems selling is systems contracting where a single supplier provides the buyer with his or her entire requirement of MRO (maintenance, repair, operating) supplies.

7.7.1 Selling to the System

The company system

When you sell something to a company, you are not just selling it to the buyer: you are selling to the whole company, which is often made up of quasi-autonomous units, any of which may have different goals and problems and make conflicting demands on you. It is easy, for example, to get caught up in company politics where what is being proposed is nothing to do with real benefit for the greater company, its employees, customers, or shareholders.

This happens also in the ‘simple’ retail sale, for example when selling a cooker. Here, the issues of who does the cooking, who likes what food, who pays and so on can quickly make this a complex sale.

Selling to the company

When selling to the company, the first task is thus to figure out the system. Thus you might:

- Identify all stakeholders with a potential interest.
- Understand the internal culture and political system.
- Build relationships and alliances with key people.
- Meet over a period of time to find the right solution and nudge the sale

forward.

- Agree a staged delivery and installation schedule.
- After the sale, continue to meet ensure they gain value and to watch for future opportunities.

Selling the system

A solution system

When you sell, you do not sell a product. You do not even simply solve a simple problem. What is to be delivered may well be a complex

For example, the solution may include:

- A range of different pieces of computer hardware and software, all of which must work together seamlessly (as well as with the buyer's existing system).
- A finance package to allow for easy payment.
- Installation of the solution.
- Training of users in how to use the solution (both front-end and back-end technical people).
- Ongoing telephone support and call-out of engineers.

Building the solution system

Producing this system is no mean feat, which is why sales teams often have their own engineers and specialists who can understand the detail of customer needs and build custom solutions to match.

It is also not uncommon for custom solutions to be built offsite to be tested before they are repackaged and sent to the customer for final installation and test.

7.8 SUMMARY

Buyers' behavior can be divided into two types as consumer buyer behavior and organizational buyer behavior. The ultimate consumers buy goods or services for

consumption and different organizations buy goods or services for different purposes. Organizational buying means the activity of buying goods or services by organizations.

An organization may be any industry, which buys raw materials necessary for production of finished goods, machines, machine parts, other supplies etc. Similarly government organizations such as ministry, departments, divisions etc. buy goods or services for their use. Hospitals, schools, campuses, financial institutions etc need to buy necessary materials, fuel, various supplies, construction materials and other goods or services. Wholesalers, retailers, distributors, resellers etc. buy goods or services to produce finished goods, resale, ultimate use etc., this called organizational buying, and the buying behavior of organization is called organizational buying behavior. Organization buying is the decision-making process by which formal organizations establish the need for purchased products and services and identify, evaluate and choose among alternative brands and suppliers.

7.9 GLOSSARY

- **Direct Purchasing:** The purchase of material to be used in manufacturing or for resale as opposed to indirect purchasing.
- **Threshold level:** the level at which the need fulfillment is at the most basic level, before the marketer is considered as a probable supplier.
- **Desired values:** it reflects the customer's desire for the supplier to augment his offer.
- **Unanticipated Values:** it implies the values which even the customers are not consciously aware of.

7.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What is organizational buying?

2) What do you understand by organizational behaviour?

3) How do personal factors affect the organizational buying?

4) What is systems buying and selling?

7.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) How do buying influences public sector firm and a private sector firm? Quote examples.
- 2) What kind of buying situations do business buyers face?
- 3) In what ways companies build strong loyalty relationships with business customers?
- 4) How do institutional buyers and government agencies do their buying?

7.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tata Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.

- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 8

CONSUMERS, MARKETS & MARKET POSITIONING Unit - II

BUSINESS BUYING PROCESS

STRUCTURE

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Objectives
- 8.3 Participants in the Business Buying Process / Buying Centre
- 8.4 Purchasing/Procurement process
- 8.5 Stages in Buying Process
 - 8.5.1 Risks
- 8.6 Measuring Vendor Performance
- 8.7 Business Ethics in B2B
 - 8.7.1 Ethics in Market Research
 - 8.7.2 Ethics in Market Audience
- 8.8 Customer Service as a Supplement to Products
- 8.9 Summary
- 8.10 Glossary
- 8.11 Self Assessment Questions
- 8.12 Lesson End Exercise
- 8.13 Suggested Readings

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In the business-to-business (B2B) context (as opposed to B2C), buying decisions are made in groups. The group responsible for making the buying decision in companies is referred to as the decision making unit (DMU).

Within organizations, major purchases typically require input from various parts of the organization, including finance, accounting, purchasing, information technology management, and senior management. Highly technical purchases, such as information technology systems or production equipment, require the expertise of technical specialists. In some cases, the buying center acts as an informal ad hoc group. In other cases, the buying center is a formally sanctioned group with specific mandates, criteria, and procedures.

For example, in the hi-tech sector, the decision making unit generally comprises the following roles:

The economic buyer – This individual is responsible for buying products that enable the company to achieve a business advantage. The economic buyer justifies the purchase by linking it to profit. The economic buyer's position within the organization can range from the business unit manager level to as high as the CEO.

The infrastructure buyer – This role influences the buying decision at the execution level. If a product poses challenges at the installation phase, then the infrastructure buyer and/or DMU steps in to decide whether the return on investment (ROI) is worth the time and money required to set up the infrastructure. The infrastructure buyer is typically someone in the IT department.

The user buyer – This position influences the buying decision at the user level and decides whether the organization will achieve its financial objectives through the purchase. For instance, if end users provide negative feedback about the product, or demonstrate that the product is hard to use, then the economic buyer will determine whether the purchase will prevent the company from reaching its economic goals.

8.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to understand:

- the buying centre
- the differences between individual buyer and organizational buyer
- the purchasing and procurement process
- the stages in business buying process

8.3 PARTICIPANTS IN THE BUSINESS BUYING PROCESS / BUYING CENTRE

A buying center is a group of employees, family members, or members of any type of organization responsible for finalizing major purchase decisions. In a business setting, major purchases typically require input from various parts of the organization, such as finance, accounting, purchasing, information technology management, and senior management. Highly technical purchases, such as information systems or production equipment, also require the expertise of technical specialists. In some cases the buying center is an informal ad hoc group, but in other cases, it is a formally sanctioned group with specific mandates, criteria, and procedures. The employees that constitute the buying center will vary depending on the item being purchased.

In a generic sense, there are typically six roles within buying centers. These roles include:

- Initiators who suggest purchasing a product or service
- Influencers who try to affect the outcome decision with their opinions
- Deciders who have the final decision
- Buyers who are responsible for the contract
- End users of the item being purchased
- Gatekeepers who control the flow of information

Because of the specialized nature of computer and software purchases, many

corporations use buying centers that are specialized for information technology acquisition. These specialized buying centers typically receive information about the technology from commercial sources, peers, publications, and experience. In this process, top management, the IT director, IT professionals, and other users collaborate to find a solution.

A better buying center for marketing might include:

- **Users** – The users will be the ones to use the product, initiate the purchase process, generate purchase specs, and evaluate product performance after the purchase.
- **Influencers** – The influencers are the tech personnel who help develop specs and evaluate alternate products. They are important when products involve new and advanced technology.
- **Deciders** – Deciders choose the products.
- **Buyers** – Buyers select suppliers and negotiate the terms of purchase.
- **Gatekeepers** – Gatekeepers are typically secretaries and tech personnel. They control the flow of information to and among others within the buying center. Buyers who deal directly with a vendor are gatekeepers.

What Do B2B Customers Want To Know?

If your customer is asking:	What's my problem?	How do I fix my problem?	Are you right for me?
They want:	Education & Thought Leadership	Solutions & Product Suitability	Credentials & Decision Support
What to share with them:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trends • Benchmarks • Analyst coverage • 101 Education • How to guides • How other people are solving this? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the solution & how does it work? • Solution comparisons • Pitfall analysis • Readiness & suitability assessments • How do I choose a vendor? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pricing • Bench strength demonstration • Case studies • ROI/TCO • How to buy • Working with us

Fig. 8.1

Understanding and talking about the Buying Center can help B2B Marketers and

Supply Chain Managers for innovation. The Buying Center is a 40 year old concept attributed to Webster and Wind and can be hugely useful to both B2B Marketers and Supply Chain /Procurement managers today. The Buying Center is a part of the informal organization and involves a bunch of people who have varying influence on the B2B buy decision. The individuals in the Buying Center can have one or more of the following roles:

Initiator: This is ideally the person who will actually use the product or service and feels the need. So a machine operator might initiate the requirement for a particular tool or a salesperson might show interest in getting some leads from website visitors. Frequently however, the user may have no knowledge at all that a requirement has been initiated! The latter can happen when say a consultant suggests a purchase.

Decision maker: in the above examples would be the Production manager who must request Procurement/Supply Chain and Sales Manager who might ask the website team/IT and not even contact the Supply Chain folks.

Controller/Finance: Should be able to confirm that there is money in the budget for the purchase.

Purchasing Agent: This could be a Commodity Manager/Supply Manager in the Supply Chain function who for higher value items develops an RFP, seeks bids, negotiates, and places orders. In other cases, where if the item or service is specialized the order is placed based on the decision maker's inputs.

Influencers: are hard to identify even by the supply manager as they could be users, departments like fire and safety who may weigh in or the hard to believe example of the Chairman's wife who likes a particular Ad pitch among several Ad agency pitches.

Gatekeepers: could be the secretary who does not transfer calls or an engineer who does well meaning edits to whatever suppliers propose. The edits can harm the proposal but the engineer is a trainee who is helping the Supply Manager co-ordinate and this fact is unknown to the bidders.

Since the buying center is a concept from the informal organization, it appears as an elephant in the room among groups of B2B marketers, groups of Supply Chain managers

and even mixed groups of Buying/Selling managers. Everybody knows about the Buying Center but there is really no document that lists the members (being informal) . Thus the discussion rarely achieves focus and output about what the Buying/Selling managers can do to address the mostly legitimate concerns of the members of the Buying Center.

Given that Buying Centers are alive and well despite globalization, the Internet and the 21st Century it probably is a good time for B2B Marketers to ask and Supply Managers to tell about who the buying center members are. Also since stuff is mostly shared by email both the buying and selling organizations should encourage digital documentation that can be shared by the Buying Center members.

Innovation in the buying organization can happen if the supplier get a chance to perform. By recognizing the Buying Center and its concerns both Supply Managers and B2B Marketers can help innovation.

8.4 PURCHASING/PROCUREMENT PROCESS

Paper-driven procurement has a cascading effect on an organization's bottom line. A routine purchase generates bundles of paperwork, and needs too many back-and-forth emails to set things straight. Procurement inefficiencies cost organizations a huge chunk of cash in delayed purchases, missed discounts, and transaction disputes. Attempting to speed up the procurement process with outdated tools like spreadsheets and emails is like trying to start a microwave with steel and flint.

To take advantage of early purchase and payment discounts, organizations need to toss stone-age procurement practices out the window and embrace technological solutions. Modern procurement tools can transform a painfully slow procurement strategy to world class overnight.

What Is a Procurement Process?

It's the series of processes that are essential to get products or services from requisition to purchase order and invoice approval. Although we use procurement' and purchasing' interchangeably, they slightly differ from each other.

While purchasing is the overarching process of obtaining necessary goods and services on behalf of an organization, procurement describes the activities involved in obtaining

them. The procurement process in an organization is unique to its context and operations.

Regardless of the uniqueness, every procurement management process consists of 3 Ps', namely Process, People, and Paperwork.

1. Process : The list of rules that need to be followed while reviewing, ordering, obtaining, and paying for goods/services. Checkpoints/steps increase with the complexity of the purchase.

2. People : These are stakeholders and their specific responsibility in the procurement cycle. They take care of initiating or authorizing every stage of the process. The number of stakeholders involved is directly proportional to the risk and value of the purchase.

3. Paper : This refers to the paperwork and documentation involved in every stage of the procurement process flow, all of which are collected and stored for reference and auditing reasons.

What Is the Procurement Process Flow?

To keep the procurement management process fair, transparent, and efficient, a good understanding of the procurement process flow is key. Although the procurement process of organizations differs from each other, the flowchart below sums up the important steps in a procurement process.

Steps involved in a Procurement Process

Every procurement management process involves several elements, including requirements determination, supplier research, value analysis, raising a purchase request, revival phase, conversion to purchase order, contract administration, monitoring/evaluation of received order, three-way matching, payment fulfillment, and record keeping. These are the important stages in the procurement process flow:

Procurement Process Steps

Step 1: Needs Recognition

The preliminary step in a procurement process is recognizing the need for a product.

Be it a brand new order or a recurring purchase, needs are analyzed and the availability is double-checked before creating a request for purchase.

Step 2: Purchase Requisition

Typically, a procurement process starts with a purchase requisition. The requester sends a request for procurement (paper form, electronic, or phone) to the purchasing department.

Step 3: Review of Request

The purchase request is then reviewed by the procurement/finance team. Approved requests become POs, while rejected requests are sent back to the requester with the reason for rejection. All these can be handled with a simple purchase order app

Step 4: Budget Approval

In enterprises, once the procurement team raises a PO, it is forwarded to the accounting department to receive budget approval.

Step 5: Quotation Requests

Once the budget is approved, the procurement team forwards several requests for quotation (RFQ) to vendors with the intention to receive and compare bids to shortlist the perfect vendor.

Step 6: Negotiation & Contract

Once a vendor is selected, the contract negotiation and signing are completed, and the purchase order is then forwarded to the vendor. A legally binding contract activates right after a vendor accepts a PO and acknowledges it.

Step 7: Receive Goods/Services

The vendor delivers the promised goods/services within the stipulated timeline. After receiving them, the purchaser examines the order and notifies the vendor of any issues with the received items.

Step 8: Three-Way Matching

At this step, three documents purchase orders, packaging slips (that arrive with the order), and vendor invoices are lined up and reconciled to pinpoint discrepancies and ensure that the transaction is accurate. Discrepancies should be addressed once they are discovered.

Step 9: Invoice Approval Payment

Once three-way matching is complete, the invoice is approved and forwarded to payment processing depending on organizational norms.

Step 10: Record Keeping

After the payment process, buyers make a record of it for bookkeeping and auditing. All appropriate documents right from purchase requests to approved invoices are stored in a centralized location.

Why Should You Automate Your Procurement Management Process?

A solid procurement automation software can streamline the cluttered procurement process and keep it transparent. No information is lost and stakeholders can raise, approve, or reject items on time. A streamlined procurement process offers better control over every stage of the procurement lifecycle.

- Furthermore, an efficient procurement automation software:
- Minimizes the chaos made by paperwork
- Shortens the procurement lifecycle
- Reduces human dependency intervention and errors
- Lessens the workload of all stakeholders
- Keeps the process accurate and consistent
- Injects transparency into the process flow
- Sticks to the predefined procurement cycle

Choosing automated procurement management software rather than depending on emails and excel sheets will speed up the procurement process, ensure accuracy, enhance efficiency, and save time and resources.

Must-Have Features in a Procurement Management System

While most procurement management systems promise the same list of benefits, their inbuilt features set them apart from each other. So, double-check whether they have vital features to ensure a hassle-free procurement.

Here are essential features organizations need to look for in a procurement management software:

- Procurement Software Features
- Spend Control (with custom rules and approval workflows)
- On-the-go approval (centralized cloud storage)
- Risk mitigation (with audit trails, role-based access, and conditional visibility)
- Easy integration (API integration with other procurement apps)
- Insightful reports (get actionable insights from real-time reports)
- Simple customization (drag-and-drop, visual form builders)
- Pre-built templates (to shorten the implementation cycle)
- Interactive dashboards (to know the status of any request at a glance)

8.5 STAGES IN BUYING PROCESS

The main difference between B2B and B2C is who the buyer of a product or service is. The purchasing process is different in both cases and the following is a list of the stages involved in B2B buying:

Step 1: Recognize the Problem

- Machine malfunction, firm introduces or modifies a product, etc.

Step 2: Develop product specifications to solve the problem

- Buying center participants assess problem and need to determine what is necessary to resolve/satisfy it

Step 3: Search for and evaluate possible products and suppliers

- look in company files and trade directories, contact suppliers for information, solicit proposals from known vendors, examine websites, catalogs, and trade publications
- conduct a value analysis – an evaluation of each component of a potential purchase; examine quality, design, materials, item reduction/deletion to save costs, etc.
- conduct vendor analysis – a formal and systematic evaluation of current and potential vendors; focuses on price, quality, delivery service, availability and overall reliability

Step 4: Select product and supplier and order product

- This step uses the results from Step 3
- An organization can decide to use several suppliers, called multiple sourcing. Multiple sourcing reduces the possibility of a shortage by strike or bankruptcy.
- An organization can decide to use one supplier, called sole sourcing. This is often discouraged unless only one supplier exists for the product; however it is fairly common because of the improved communication and stability between buyer and supplier.

Step 5: Evaluate Product and supplier performance

- Compare products with specs
- Results become feedback for other stages in future business purchasing decisions

This 5 step process is mainly used with new-task purchases and several stages are used for modified re-buy and straight re-buy.

Understanding the stages of business buying and the nature of customers' buying behavior is important to a marketing firm if it is to market its product properly. In order to entice and persuade a consumer to buy a product, marketers try to determine the behavioral process of how a given product is purchased.

The business buying decision process involves five distinct stages. At each stage, different decision makers may be involved, depending on the cost and strategic importance of the purchase. To navigate the buying decision process successfully, you need to provide the right type of information and ensure that your sales representatives are contacting the right decision makers. You can also strengthen your position by offering customers advice and guidance at each stage – a process known as consultative selling.

Awareness and Recognition

The process begins when a company identifies a need for a purchase. It may want to replace an existing item, replenish stocks, or buy a new product that is just available on the market. You can also stimulate a need that the company may not be aware of by advising them of issues and challenges that other companies in their industry face.

The buying team next works with the requesting department to firm up on the requirement. Your sales team can provide advice and guidance at this stage by offering discussion papers or inviting decision makers to workshops or seminars on the topic.

Specification and Research

When the buying team has agreed requirements, it prepares a detailed specification that sets out quantities, performance, and technical requirements for a product. Your sales team can support this stage by advising the buying team on best practice or collaborating with the buying team to develop the specification. Buying teams then use the specification to search for potential suppliers. They may search the internet to find products or companies that provide a match to their specification, so it is important that your website features keywords that match your customers' product or service needs.

Request for Proposals

When the buying team has identified potential suppliers, it asks for detailed proposals from the suppliers. The team may issue a formal document known as a request for proposal, or it may outline requirements and invite potential suppliers to make a presentation or submit a quotation. If the product or service has a precise specification, the buying team may simply ask for price quotations. If the product is more complex, it may ask for proposals on how a supplier would meet the need.

Evaluation of Proposals

The buying team evaluates suppliers' proposals against criteria such as price, performance, and value for money. As well as evaluating the product, they assess the supplier on factors such as corporate reputation, financial stability, technical reputation, and reliability. You can influence decisions at this stage by providing company information, case studies, and independent reports that review your company and products.

Order and Review Process

Before the buying team places an order with the chosen supplier, they negotiate price, discount, finance arrangements and payment terms, as well as confirming delivery dates and any other contractual matters. When the order is complete and delivered, the buying team may add a further stage by reviewing the performance of the product and the supplier. This stage may include imposition of penalty charges if the product fails to meet the agreed specification.

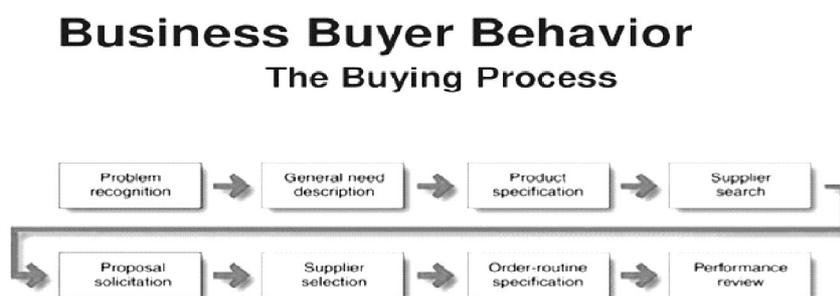


Fig. 8.2

8.5.1 Risks

Buying one can of soft drink involves little money, and thus little risk. If the decision for a particular brand of soft drink was not right, there are minimal implications. The worst that could happen is that the consumer does not like the taste and discards the drink immediately. Buying B2B products is much riskier. Usually, the investment sums are much higher. Purchasing the wrong product or service, the wrong quantity, the wrong quality or agreeing to unfavorable payment terms may put an entire business at risk. Additionally, the purchasing office / manager may have to justify a purchasing decision. If the decision proves to be harmful to the organization, disciplinary measures may be taken or the person may even face termination of employment.

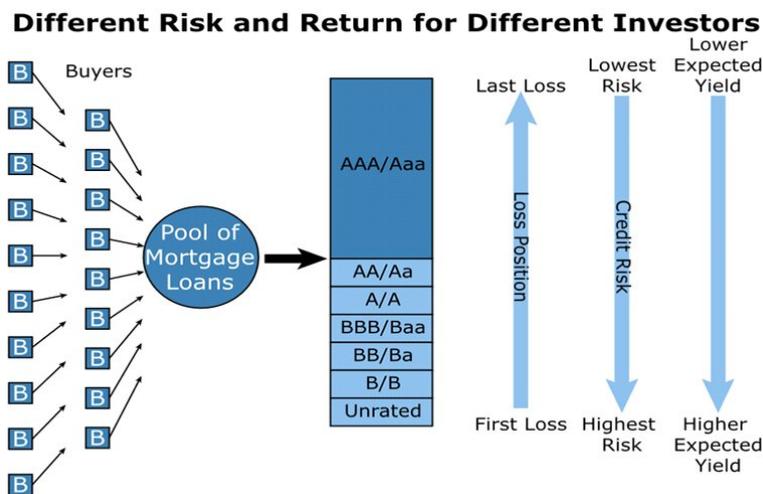


Fig. 8.3

Risk and Return: Less risky investments yield less returns. The riskier the investment, the higher the yield.

8.6 MEASURING VENDOR PERFORMANCE

Decision makers complete five steps when making a business buying decision:

1. Recognize the problem
2. Develop product specifications to solve the problem

3. Search for and evaluate possible products and suppliers
4. Select product and supplier and order product
5. Evaluate product and supplier performance

Vendor performance measurement plays a role in Steps 3 and 5.

Step 3: Search for and Evaluate Possible Products and Suppliers

Step 4 : Requires searching for and evaluating possible products and suppliers. This can be done in several ways:

- Looking in company files and trade directories, contacting suppliers for information, soliciting proposals from known vendors, and examining websites, catalogs and trade publications.
- Performing a value analysis (an evaluation of each component of a potential purchase). This examines the quality, design, and materials, with the intention of finding cost savings opportunities.
- Performing a vendor analysis (a formal, systematic evaluation of current and potential vendors). This focuses on price, quality, service, availability, and overall reliability.

Step 5: Evaluate Product and Supplier Performance

This Step of the business buying decision process involves evaluating product and supplier performance.

Firms need to compare products with specifications. The results become feedback for other stages in future business purchasing decisions. If a firm has any negative issues with a vendor, it is likely they will look for another one.



Fig. 8.4

Business Feedback Loop: Firms need to compare products with specifications. The results become feedback for other stages in future business purchasing decisions.

Supplier performance evaluation teams are used to monitor activity and performance data, and to rate vendors. But supplier performance evaluation teams are just one of the many teams companies deploy to address tactical issues.

Supplier certification teams help selected suppliers reach desired levels of quality, reduce costs, and improve service. Specification teams select and write functional, technical, and process requirements for goods and services to be acquired.

Supply managers evaluate suppliers utilizing the tools of value assessment and the fundamental value equation. They estimate the benefits and total costs paid to each vendor. Consistent with supply management orientation, these evaluations can be complemented with the firm's customer feedback. In this way, supply managers can better focus or redirect the efforts of the entire supply network toward the delivery of superior value to end-users.

8.7 BUSINESS ETHICS IN B2B

Ethics refers to the moral principles that guide decision-making and strategy. Business ethics are, therefore, encompassed in the actions of people and organizations that are

considered to be morally correct. Ethical objectives may include increased recycling of waste materials or offering staff sufficient rest breaks during their work shift. Businesses that adopt an ethical stance gain from numerous advantages, including:

- Improved corporate image
- Increased customer loyalty
- Cost cutting
- Improved staff motivation
- Improved staff morale

In a B2B environment, the client is another business rather than the customer, which means more attention needs to be given to maintaining a two-way relationship between the two entities. Since business clients have more meticulous and specification-driven buying processes, and the company must ensure that needs are met at all times without taking actions that would be considered unethical.

8.7.1 Ethics in Market Research

Ethical danger points in market research include invasion of privacy and stereotyping. Stereotyping occurs because any analysis of real populations needs to make approximations and place individuals into groups. However, if conducted irresponsibly, stereotyping can lead to a variety of ethically undesirable results..

Conduct market research

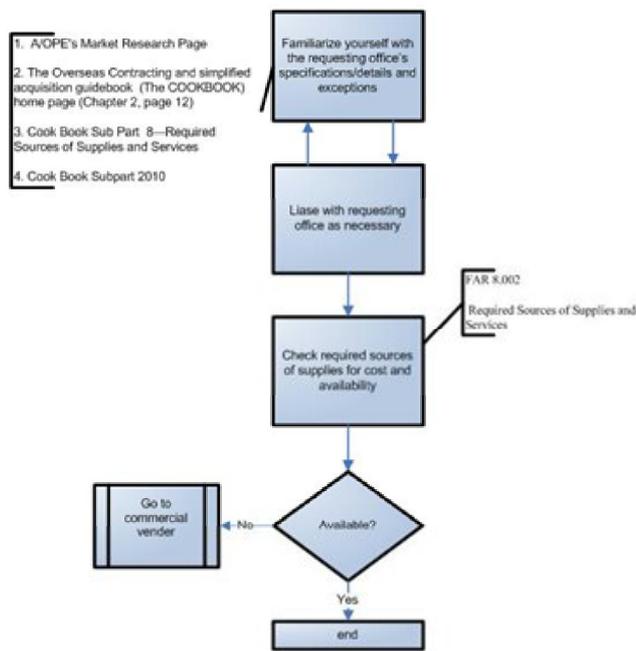


Fig. 8.5

Ethics in Market Research: Firms need to be careful not to use irresponsible stereotyping in the market research process.

8.7.2 Ethics in Market Audience

Ethical danger points in market audience include (1) excluding potential customers from the market; selective marketing is used to discourage demand from undesirable market sectors or disenfranchise them altogether; (2) targeting the vulnerable, such as children and the elderly. Examples of unethical market exclusion or selective marketing are past industry attitudes to the gay, ethnic minority and obese (“plus-size”) markets. Contrary to the popular myth that ethics and profits do not mix, the tapping of these markets has proved highly profitable. For example, 20% of US clothing sales is now plus-size. Another example is the selective marketing of health care, so that unprofitable sectors, such as the elderly, will not attempt to take benefits to which they are entitled.

A further example of market exclusion is the pharmaceutical industry's exclusion of developing countries from AIDS drugs.

Marketing ethics is the area of applied ethics that deals with the moral principles behind the operation and regulation of marketing. Ethics provides distinctions between right and wrong; businesses are confronted with ethical decision making every day, and whether or not employees decide to use ethics as a guiding force when conducting business is something that business leaders, such as managers, need to review and enforce. Marketers are ethically responsible for what is marketed, and for the image that a product portrays. With that said, marketers need to understand what constitutes good ethics and how to incorporate such practices into various marketing campaigns to better reach a targeted audience and gain trust from customers. When companies create high ethical standards upon which to approach marketing they are participating in ethical marketing. Ethical behavior should be enforced throughout company culture and through company practices.

8.8 CUSTOMER SERVICE AS A SUPPLEMENT TO PRODUCTS

Customer service is the provision of service to customers before, during and after a purchase. Customer support refers to a range of services including assisting clients to make cost effective product choices and getting the most from their purchases. The process includes assistance in planning, installation, training, trouble shooting, maintenance, upgrading, and disposal of a product. In the technology industry, where people buy mobile phones, televisions, computers, software products or other electronic or mechanical goods, customer service is called technical support.

Customer service is regarded as a supplement to the product, and not a replacement for any part of the product. For instance, if a product is faulty in one way, having good, responsive customer service may ameliorate to some degree the customer's dissatisfaction, but will not make up for the deficiency in product quality. If a person buys a product that they are happy with, however, then good customer service can supplement this satisfaction. The importance of customer service varies by product, industry and customer. Retail stores, for example, often have a desk or counter devoted to dealing with returns, exchanges and complaints, or will perform related functions at the point of sale; the perceived success of such interactions are dependent on employees

who can adjust themselves to the personality of the guest. From the point of view of an overall sales process engineering effort, customer service plays an important role in an organization's ability to generate income and revenue. From that perspective, customer service should be included as part of an overall approach to systematic improvement; the customer service experience can change the entire perception a customer has of the organization.

8.9 SUMMARY

Buyers' behavior can be divided into two types as consumer buyer behavior and organizational buyer behavior. The ultimate consumers buy goods or services for consumption and different organizations buy goods or services for different purposes. Organizational buying means the activity of buying goods or services by organizations.

An organization may be any industry, which buys raw materials necessary for production of finished goods, machines, machine parts, other supplies etc. Similarly government organizations such as ministry, departments, divisions etc. buy goods or services for their use. Hospitals, schools, campuses, financial institutions etc need to buy necessary materials, fuel, various supplies, construction materials and other goods or services. Wholesalers, retailers, distributors, resellers etc. buy goods or services to produce finished goods, resale, ultimate use etc., this called organizational buying, and the buying behavior of organization is called organizational buying behavior. Organization buying is the decision-making process by which formal organizations establish the need for purchased products and services and identify, evaluate and choose among alternative brands and suppliers.

8.10 GLOSSARY

- **B2B:** Business-to-business (B2B) describes commerce transactions between businesses, such as between a manufacturer and a wholesaler, or between a wholesaler and a retailer.
- **Decision Making Unit:** In the business-to-business (B2B) context (as opposed to B2C), buying decisions are made in groups. The group responsible for making the buying decision in companies is referred to as the decision making unit (DMU).

- **B2C:** The sale of goods and services from individuals or businesses to the end-user.

8.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1) What is a Decision Making Unit?

2) What do you understand by purchase/procurement process?

3) Enumerate various kinds of risks in organizational buying?

4) Distinguish between purchase and procurement.

8.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Enumerate the stages in organizational buying?
- 2) What do you mean by buying centre? Discuss the role of various participants in organisational buying.
- 3) Explain using appropriate examples the ethics in organisational buying.

8.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller

- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 9

CONSUMERS, MARKETS & MARKET POSITIONING Unit - II

MARKET SEGMENTATION

STRUCTURE

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Objectives
- 9.3 Market Segmentation
 - 9.3.1 Criteria for effective segmenting
- 9.4 Levels of market segmentation
 - 9.4.1 Using segmentation in customer retention
- 9.5 Segmenting consumer markets
- 9.6 Segmenting business markets
- 9.7 Summary
- 9.8 Glossary
- 9.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 9.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 9.11 Suggested Readings

9.1 INTRODUCTION

A market refers to a set up where two or more parties are involved in transaction of goods and services in exchange of money. The two parties here are known as sellers and buyers.

It is the responsibility of the marketers to create awareness of their products amongst the consumers. It is essential for the individuals to be aware of the brand's existence. The USPs of the brands must be communicated well to the end-users.

An organization can't afford to have similar strategies for product promotion amongst all individuals. Not every individual has the same requirement and demand.

The marketers thus came with the concept of STP.

STP stands for:

S - Segmentation

T - Targeting

P - Positioning

The first step in the process of product promotion is Segmentation

The division of a broad market into small segments comprising of individuals who think on the same lines and show inclination towards similar products and brands is called Market Segmentation.

Market Segmentation refers to the process of creation of small groups (segments) within a large market to bring together consumers who have similar requirements, needs and interests.

The individuals in a particular segment respond to similar market fluctuations and require identical products.

In simpler words market segmentation can also be called as Grouping.

Kids form one segment; males can be part of a similar segment while females form another segment. Students belong to a particular segment whereas professionals and office goers can be kept in one segment.

It is not possible for a marketer to have similar strategies for product promotion amongst all individuals. Kids do not get attracted towards products meant for adults and vice versa. Every segment has a different need, interest and perception. No two segments can have the same ideologies or require a similar product.

9.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the concept of Market Segmentation
- List Levels of market segmentation
- Explain the Bases of Segmenting consumer markets and business markets

9.3 MARKET SEGMENTATION

Market research is an important activity for companies hoping to better understand their customers and market so that they can improve their products and services to better meet market needs. An important element of effective market research is market segmentation, the process of dividing or segmenting the larger population into smaller units that better reflect target audiences. Market segmentation is a marketing strategy that involves dividing a broad target market into subsets of consumers who have common needs, and then be designed and implemented to target these specific customer segments, addressing needs or desires that are believed to be common in this segment, using media that is used by the market segment.

9.3.1 Criteria for effective segmenting

An ideal market segment meets all of the following criteria:

- It is possible to measure.
- It must be large enough to earn profit.
- It must be stable enough that it does not vanish after some time.
- It is possible to reach potential customers via the organization's promotion and distribution channel.

- It is internally homogeneous (potential customers in the same segment prefer the same product qualities).
- It is externally heterogeneous, that is, potential customers from different segments have different quality preferences.
- It responds consistently to a given market stimulus.
- It can be reached by market intervention in a cost-effective manner.
- It is useful in deciding on the marketing mix.

Following the development of market segments by the firm, they then need to be evaluated against a set criterion. Essentially, this review is a checkpoint in the overall market segmentation, targeting and positioning process (known as the STP model/process). This analytical ensures that the resultant market segments are valid and usable for the firm's purposes.

The main goal of this stage of the STP process is to ensure that the market segments that have been constructed by the firm meet with basic requirements and guidelines, which will make them usable segments and potential target markets. The best way to think about this step of the STP model is to think about it a review checkpoint.

The following table outlines the main requirements/criteria for a market segment.

<i>EVALUATION CRITERIA</i>	<i>WHAT IS IT?</i>	<i>WHY IS IT IMPORTANT?</i>
Homogeneous	This means that the consumers allocated to each segment should be similar in some relevant way	This is the basis of market segmentation - that the consumers in each segment are similar in terms of needs and/or characteristics
Heterogeneous	Each segment of consumers should be relatively unique, as compared to the other segments that have been constructed	This demonstrates that the consumers in the overall market have been effectively divided into sets of differing needs

Measurable	Some form of data should be available to measure the size of the market segment	Measurements are very important to be able to evaluate the overall attractiveness of each segment
Substantial	The market segment should be large enough, in terms of sales and profitability, to warrant the firm's possible attention	Each firm will have minimum requirements for the financial return from their investment in a market, so it is necessary to only consider segments that are substantial enough to be of interest
Accessible	The market segment should be reachable, particularly in terms of distribution and communication	Each segment needs to be able to be reached and communicated with on an efficient basis.
Actionable/practical	The firm needs to be able to implement a distinctive marketing mix for each market segment	The range of segments identified generally need to be defined for the capabilities and resources of the organization, so very specialized segments may not be appropriate
Responsive	Each market segment should respond better to a distinct marketing mix, rather than a generic offering	The key outcome of the STP process is to develop a unique marketing mix for a specified target market, if the segment will not be more responsive to a distinct offering, then the segment can probably be combined with another similar segment

Fig. 9.1

9.4 LEVELS OF MARKET SEGMENTATION

A market segment consists of a large identifiable group within a market. A company that practices segment marketing recognizes that buyers differ in their wants, purchasing power, geographical locations, buying attitudes, and buying habits. At the same time, though, the company is not willing to customize its offer/communication bundle to each individual customer. Market segmentation is the process of dividing the total market for a good or service into several smaller, internally homogeneous groups. Members of each group are similar with respect to the factors that influence demand. Therefore, to stay focused rather than scattering their marketing resources, more marketers are using market segmentation. The company instead tries to isolate some broad segments that make up a market. In this approach, which falls midway between mass marketing and individual marketing, each segment's buyers are assumed to be quite similar in wants and needs, yet no two buyers are really alike. To use this technique, a company must understand both the levels and the patterns of market segmentation.

1. Segment Marketing: A market segment consists of a large identifiable group within a market, with similar wants, purchasing power, geographical location, buying attitudes, or buying habits. For example, an automaker may identify four broad segments in the car market: buyers who are primarily seeking (1) basic transportation, (2) high performance, (3) luxury, or (4) safety.

Because the needs, preferences, and behavior of segment members are similar but not identical, Anderson and Narus urge marketers to present flexible market offerings instead of one standard offering to all members of a segment. A flexible market offering consists of the product and service elements that all segment members value, plus options (for an additional charge) that some segment members value. For example, Delta Airlines offers all economy passengers a seat, food, and soft drinks, but it charges extra for alcoholic beverages and earphones.

Segment marketing allows a firm to create a more fine-tuned product or service offering and price it appropriately for the target audience. The choice of distribution channels and communications channels becomes much easier, and the firm may find it faces fewer competitors in certain segments.

2. **Niche Marketing:** A niche is a more narrowly defined group, (typically a small market whose needs are not being well served). Marketers usually identify niches by dividing a segment into sub-segments or by defining a group seeking a distinctive mix of benefits. For example, a tobacco company might identify two sub-segments of heavy smokers: those who are trying to stop smoking, and those who don't care.

In an attractive niche, customers have a distinct set of needs; they will pay a premium to the firm that best satisfies their needs; the niche is not likely to attract other competitors; the niche gains certain economies through specialization; and the niche has size, profit, and growth potential. Whereas segments are fairly large and normally attract several competitors, niches are fairly small and may attract only one or two rivals. Still, giants such as IBM can and do lose pieces of their market to niches: Dalgic labeled this confrontation "guerrillas against gorillas."

Now the low cost of marketing on the Internet is making it more profitable for firms including small businesses to serve even seemingly minuscule niches. In fact, 15 percent of all commercial Web sites with fewer than 10 employees take in more than \$100,000, and 2 percent ring up more than \$1 million.

3. **Local Marketing:** Target marketing is leading to some marketing programs that are tailored to the needs and wants of local customer groups (trading areas, neighborhoods, even individual stores). Citibank, for instance, adjusts its banking services in each branch depending on neighborhood demographics; Kraft helps supermarket chains identify the cheese assortment and shelf positioning that will optimize cheese sales in low-income, middle-income, and high-income stores and in different ethnic neighborhoods.

Those favoring local marketing see national advertising as wasteful because it fails to address local needs. On the other hand, opponents argue that local marketing drives up manufacturing and marketing costs by reducing economies of scale. Moreover, logistical problems become magnified when companies try to meet varying local requirements. and a brand's overall image might be diluted if the product and message differ in different localities.

4. Individual Marketing: The ultimate level of segmentation leads to “segments of one,” “customized marketing,” or “one-to-one marketing”. For centuries, consumers were served as individuals: The tailor made the suit and the cobbler designed shoes for the individual. Much business-to-business marketing today is customized, in that a manufacturer will customize the offer, logistics, communications, and financial terms for each major account.

9.4.1 Using segmentation in customer retention

The basic approach to retention-based segmentation is that a company tags each of its active customers with three values:

Is this customer at high risk of cancelling the company’s service?

One of the most common indicators of high-risk customers is a drop off in usage of the company’s service. For example, in the credit card industry this could be signaled through a customer’s decline in spending on his or her card.

Is this customer worth retaining?

This determination boils down to whether the post-retention profit generated from the customer is predicted to be greater than the cost incurred to retain the customer.

What retention tactics should be used to retain this customer?

For customers who are deemed worthy of saving, it is essential for the company to know which save tactics are most likely to be successful. Tactics commonly used range from providing special customer discounts to sending customers communications that reinforce the value proposition of the given service.

9.5 SEGMENTING CONSUMER MARKETS

Geographic segmentation

The market is segmented according to geographic criteria—nations, states, regions, countries, cities, neighbourhoods, or zip codes. Geo-cluster approach combines demographic data with geographic data to create a more accurate profile of specific. With respect to region, in rainy regions one can sell things like raincoats, umbrellas

and gumboots. In hot regions you can sell summer wear. In cold regions you can sell warm clothes. A small business commodity store may target only customers from the local neighbourhood, while a larger department store can target it's marketing towards several neighbourhoods in a larger city or area.

Psychographic segmentation

Psychographics is the science of using psychology and demographics to better understand consumers. Psychographic segmentation: consumers are divided according to their lifestyle, personality, values and social class. Consumers within the same demographic group can exhibit very different psychographic profiles.

Positive market segmentation

Market segmenting is dividing the market into groups of individual markets with similar wants or needs that a company divides into distinct groups which have distinct needs, wants, behavior or which might want different products and services. Broadly, markets can be divided according to a number of general criteria, such as by industry or public versus private. Although industrial market segmentation is quite different from consumer market segmentation, both have similar objectives. All of these methods of segmentation are merely proxies for true segments, which don't always fit into convenient demographic boundaries.

This part of the segmentation process consists of drawing up a perceptual map, which highlights rival goods within one's industry according to perceived quality and price. After the perceptual map has been devised, a firm would consider the marketing communications.

Behavioural segmentation

In behavioural segmentation, consumers are divided into groups according to their knowledge of, attitude towards, use of or response to a product. It is actually based on the behaviour of the consumer called behavioural segmentation.

Occasions

Segmentation according to occasions is based on the arising of special need and

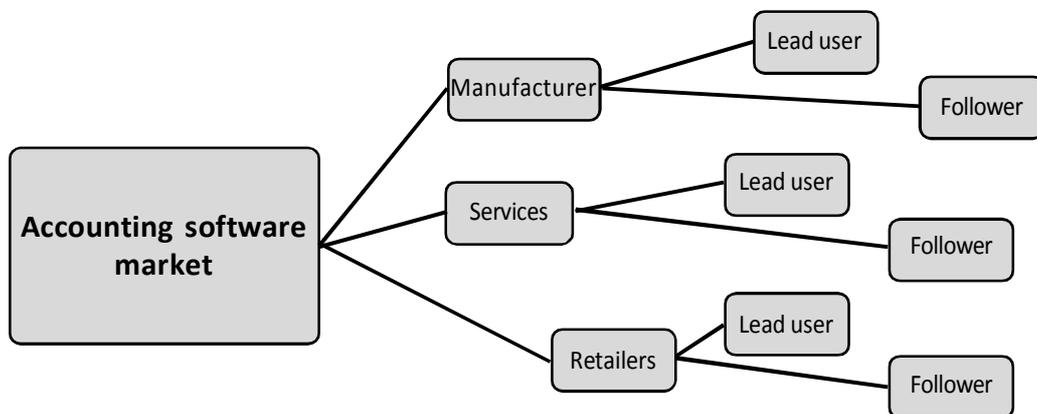
desires in consumers at various occasions. For example, for products that will be used in relation with a certain holiday. Products such as Christmas decorations or Diwali lamps are marketed almost exclusively in the time leading up to the related event, and will not generally be available all year round. Another type of occasional market segments are people preparing for their wedding or a funeral, occasions that only occurs a few times in a persons lifetime but happens so often in a large population that it can be considered a market segment.

Benefits

Segmentation takes place according to benefits sought by the consumer or which the product/service can provide.

Market segmentation examples

Segmenting business markets is essentially the same as segmenting consumer markets. (Also review examples for segmenting consumer markets.) The key difference is that you need to consider more business-oriented segmentation bases. To help explain this concept further, let's look at a couple of examples of business market segmentation. The first is for an IT firm that produces accounting software for businesses. The following diagram outlines a possible segmentation tree for them.



Segmentation Tree example - Software Source: www.marketingstudyguide.com

Fig. 9.1

In this business market segmentation example, the firm has used two segmentation variables

to construct six market segments. The first variable used is a basic business description, splitting the market into the broad categories of manufacturing, services, and retailing. Then the firm has applied a cultural variable and considered whether the potential customers tend to adopt new products (in this case, major accounting software) early or late.

Let’s look at one more business segmentation example, this time we will use a manufacturer of tomato paste that is suitable for use as a pizza topping. Here is a possible segmentation approach for this firm:

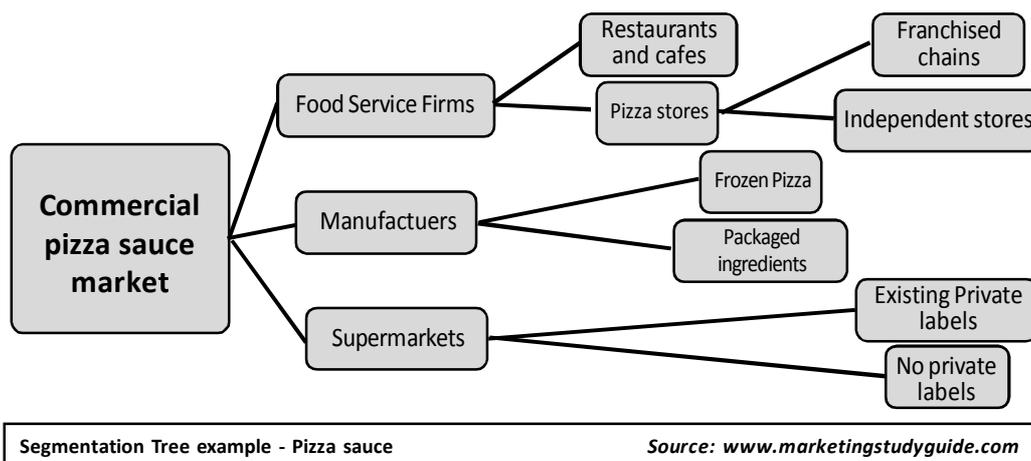


Fig. 9.2

In this example, a variety of segmentation variables have been used in order to construct an interesting definition of market segments. The first variable considered is a business description, which broadly splits the potential market into food service, manufacturing, and supermarkets. Then, for each broad group, a different variable has been injected. For instance, food service was then further split by business description (restaurant/café or pizza outlet) and then by operating practice (whether or not they are a franchised operation).

Manufacturers are further defined by whether they use pizza sauce as a key ingredient (say for frozen pizza) or may use this style of sauce in other products (frozen or microwavable pasta for example). And finally supermarkets were further defined by whether or not they already sell a private label pizza sauce through their stores.

9.6 SEGMENTING BUSINESS MARKETS

Many firms will have business target markets in addition to consumer target markets. For example, consider a bank or an airline. As well as targeting individual consumers, a key part of their marketing efforts (and their profitability) will be obtained from business markets. There are some organizations that only pursue business markets (such as consulting firms), but generally most firms will at least consider targeting both individual consumers and businesses.

The approach to business market segmentation is conceptually similar to the approach for consumer markets. As we know, while business markets have less potential customers (as opposed to consumer markets), B2B firms still need to be selective when determining their strategic approach to the market. This is because it is common for a B2B firm to have substantial investment costs and will often need to implement labor-intensive promotional strategies.

Why do firms need to segment business markets?

This is a good question, particularly as business markets have a much smaller number of potential customers, as opposed to some very large consumer numbers. However, firms that market to other businesses will typically have a smaller number of customers. These customers are, as a result, more important to them on an individual basis, so careful customer selection becomes more critical.

In addition, the effectiveness of promotional methods often differs in B2B markets. For instance, the expensive and time-consuming process of personal selling is commonly used in business markets. Some complex or expensive products may have a sales lead-time of several years, which means a team of sales people may easily invest 100s of hours in gaining a sale. Therefore, getting the target market right at the start of the process is also important.

9.7 SUMMARY

While there may be theoretically 'ideal' market segments, in reality every organization engaged in a market will develop different ways of imagining market segments, and create product differentiation strategies to exploit these segments.

Successful market segmentation and corresponding product differentiation strategy can give a firm a commercial advantage, due to the more effective match between target customer and product.

9.8 GLOSSARY

- **Market segmentation:** The division of a market using a strategy that's directed at gaining a major portion of sales within a subgroup in a category rather than gaining a more limited share of purchases by all category users.
- **Market share:** The percentage of a product category's sales in relation to the entire market in terms of dollars or units that's obtained by a brand, line, or company.

Target audience: A specified audience or demographic group for which an advertising message is designed.

9.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. Discuss the concept of Market segmentation. When is it done and why?

Q2. What are the benefit of Acgmenting Consumers and Business Markets?

9.10 LESSON END EXERCISES

Fill in the Blanks

1. STP stands for _____
2. The basis for market segmentation are _____

9.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

Strategic Marketing (McGraw-Hill/Irwin Series in Marketing) by David Cravins

Strategic Management and Business Policy by Azhar Kazmi

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 10

CONSUMERS, MARKETS & MARKETS POSITIONING Unit - II

ANALYSING THE COMPETITORS, TARGETING AND POSITIONING

STRUCTURE

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Objectives
- 10.3 Analyzing Competitors
- 10.4 Competitive Strategies
- 10.5 Strategies for Market Leaders
- 10.6 Michael Porter's Five Forces model
 - 10.6.1 Usage
 - 10.6.2 Criticisms
- 10.7 Targeting
 - 10.7.1 Target market Selections
 - 10.7.2 Evaluating Target Markets
 - 10.7.3 Main Evaluation Criteria for target markets
- 10.8 Positioning
 - 10.8.1 Process of Positioning
 - 10.8.2 Steps of product Positioning

10.8.3 Positioning Categories

10.9 Summary

10.10 Glossary

10.11 Self Assessment Questions

10.12 Lesson End Exercise

10.13 Suggested Readings

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Competitor analysis in marketing and strategic management is an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of current and potential competitors. This analysis provides both an offensive and defensive strategic context to identify opportunities and threats. Profiling coalesces all of the relevant sources of competitor analysis into one framework in the support of efficient and effective strategy formulation, implementation, monitoring and adjustment.

10.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand Competitor analysis.
- Understand the Competitor Strategies.
- Analyse the Strategies for Market Leaders.
- Explain Michael Porter’s Five Forces Model.

10.3 ANALYZING COMPETITORS

Competitor analysis is an essential component of corporate strategy. It is argued that most firms do not conduct this type of analysis systematically enough. Instead, many enterprises operate on what is called “informal impressions, conjectures, and intuition gained through the titbits of information about competitors every manager continually

receives.” As a result, traditional environmental scanning places many firms at risk of dangerous competitive blind spots due to a lack of robust competitor analysis. Organizations must operate within a competitive industry environment. They do not exist in vacuum. Analyzing organization’s competitors helps an organization to discover its weaknesses, to identify opportunities for and threats to the organization from the industrial environment. While formulating an organization’s strategy, managers must consider the strategies of organization’s competitors. Competitor analysis is a driver of an organization’s strategy and effects on how firms act or react in their sectors. The organization does a competitor analysis to measure / assess its standing amongst the competitors.

Competitor analysis begins with identifying present as well as potential competitors. It portrays an essential appendage to conduct an industry analysis. An industry analysis gives information regarding probable sources of competition (including all the possible strategic actions and reactions and effects on profitability for all the organizations competing in the industry). However, a well-thought competitor analysis permits an organization to concentrate on those organizations with which it will be in direct competition, and it is especially important when an organization faces a few potential competitors.

Michael Porter in Porter’s Five Forces Model has assumed that the competitive environment within an industry depends on five forces- Threat of new potential entrants, Threat of substitute product/services, bargaining power of suppliers, bargaining power of buyers, Rivalry among current competitors. These five forces should be used as a conceptual background for identifying an organization’s competitive strengths and weaknesses and threats to and opportunities for the organization from its competitive environment.

The main objectives of doing competitor analysis can be summarized as follows:

To study the market;

To predict and forecast organization’s demand and supply

To formulate strategy;

To increase the market share;

To study the market trend and pattern;

To develop strategy for organizational growth;

When the organization is planning for the diversification and expansion plan;

To study forthcoming trends in the industry;

Understanding the current strategy strengths and weaknesses of a competitor can suggest opportunities and threats that will merit a response;

Insight into future competitor strategies may help in predicting upcoming threats and opportunities.

Competitors should be analyzed along various dimensions such as their size, growth and profitability, reputation, objectives, culture, cost structure, strengths and weaknesses, business strategies, exit barriers, etc.

The Advantages of Competitive Analysis in Strategic Planning:

Strategic planners consider external factors, such as the competitive environment, in addition to internal factors when crafting strategic plans. Competitive analysis involves taking stock of the number and nature of competitors presenting a direct or indirect threat to a business. Competitive analysis can provide aspiring entrepreneurs with a clearer understanding of the marketplace conditions in an industry they are considering breaking into, or help established businesses refine their strategic directions. Understanding the advantages of competitive analysis in strategic planning can take your strategic plans to the next level.

Market Gaps

Competitive analysis allows strategic planners to develop matrixes for spotting unserved or underserved gaps in the market. A competitor map is a strategic planning tool that lays out competitors in terms of their unique service models for identifying where they fit on a matrix with extremes ranging from high price to low price, high quality to low quality and high customization to low customization. A competitor map may reveal,

for example, that most competitors in the local area charge premium prices for higher quality products, while the bargain segment of the market remains underserved. Geographic competitor maps can be helpful when looking for market gaps for businesses like restaurants, retail stores or other brick-and-mortar establishments. A geographic map of restaurant competitors, for example, may reveal that several square miles of the city do not have local casual dining establishments but are well-stocked with fast-food outlets.

Product Development

Direct competitors in rapidly developing industries, especially technology, engage in a continual race to develop new blockbuster products. In these highly competitive industries, companies can gain a tremendous advantage by learning what their competitors are developing or improving for future product releases. Knowing the directions competitors plan to take for their product lines can help a company develop products that trump competitors in terms of price, functionality or quality. Be careful not to cross legal boundaries into the world of industrial espionage; there are legal and safe ways to stay alerted to competitors' new product developments without prying into private information.

Market Trends

Competitive analysis can reveal broad trends in the marketplace, again providing the advantage of being able to spot opportunities for differentiating your products and services. Sometimes going against the grain in an industry can attract a small but highly loyal counter-culture market segment. A small record label, for example, may discover that every single one of its competitors has switched to exclusively releasing music digitally and on CDs, which could open up a small unserved market for vinyl LPs.

Marketing

Marketers in the 21st century focus on selling “benefits and value” rather than “products and services.” Because of this, staying on top of competitors' marketing strategies can provide the same advantages as analyzing their product development initiatives. What consumers think they are buying can be more important than what they are

actually buying, and it is advantageous to know what consumers think about your competitors' brands. Consider the case of a software developer. A software developer may know what products his competitors are selling, but it would be useful for him to know that one competitor is marketing products touted as the "easiest to use" in the market. The developer could counter this marketing tactic by revamping his own software's user interfaces and giving out free trials to prove his products are actually more user-friendly.

10.3.1 Competitor Analysis

Competition refers to rivalry among various firms operating in a particular market that satisfy the same customer needs. The industry structure affects long run profitability. Therefore, competitors should be understood and monitored. Their actions can spoil an otherwise attractive industry, their weaknesses can be a target for exploitation and their response to a firm's marketing initiatives can have impact on its success. Competitive information can be obtained from marketing research surveys, recruiting competitors' employees (sometimes interviewing them is sufficient), secondary sources (trade magazines, distributors, stripping down competitors products and gathering competitors' sales literature).

A company needs to answer five key questions

Who are the competitors?

Competitive myopia prevails which is reflected in a narrow definition of competition resulting in too restricted a view of which companies are in competition. Only those companies who are producing technically similar products are considered to be the competition (paint companies). This ignores customers' purchasing substitute products that perform similar functions (polyurethane varnish firms), and those that solve the same problem or eliminate it in a dissimilar manner (PYC double glazing company). The actions of all these types of competitors can affect the performance of the firm and therefore need to be monitored. Their responses also need to be assessed as they will determine the outcome of any competitive move that the firm may wish to make.

The environment needs to be scanned for potential entrants into the industry. These

can take two forms: Entrants with technically similar products and those invading the market with substitutes. Companies with similar core competencies to present incumbents may pose a threat of entering with technically similar products. The source of companies entering with substitute products may be difficult to locate. A technological breakthrough may transform the industry by rendering the old product obsolete. In such instances it is difficult to locate the source of the substitute product in advance.

What are their strengths and weaknesses?

A precise understanding of competitor strengths and weaknesses is an important prerequisite of developing competitor strategy. In particular, it locates areas of competitive vulnerability. Success is achieved when strengths of the firm are concentrated against the competitors' weakness. Internal, market and Customer information should be gathered. Financial data concerning profitability, profit margins, sales and investment levels, market data relating to price levels, market share and distribution channels used, and customer data concerning awareness of brand names and perceptions of brand and company image, product and service quality and selling ability may be relevant. Management needs to decide the extent to which each element of information is worth pursuing. The process of data gathering needs to be managed so that information is available to compare our company with its chief competitors on the key factors for Success in the industry.

This is three stage process:

- **Identify key factors for Success in the industry.** This should be restricted to six to eight factors, otherwise analysis becomes too diffuses. There is some managerial judgment in their identification. The key success factors may be functional (financial strength or flexible production), Or generic (ability to respond quickly to Customer needs, capability to provide after sales service). Since these factors are critical for success, they should be used to compare the company with its competitors.
- **Rate one's company and competitors on each key success factor using a rating scale.** For instance, out of 5, how many points would accrue to one's

own company and competitors on parameters such as innovativeness, financial strength, product quality etc.

- **Consumer implications for competitive strategy:** It is important to judge the implications of each of the key Succus factors on customer perceptions. For instance, how can the financial strength of a Company be translated into better value delivery for customers? Would it translate into lower prices, hiring more competent personnel or improving technology to serve customers better, or improving product quality or introduce innovations?

What are the strategic objectives and thrusts of competitors?

Companies may decide to build, hold or harvest products and SBUs. A build objective is concerned with increasing sales and market share, a hold objective suggests maintaining sales and market share, and harve objective is followed when emphasis is on maximizing short-term cash flow through slashing expenditure and raising prices whenever possible. It is useful to know what strategic objectives are being pursued by competitors because their response pattern depends on objectives. If the firm is considering building market share of the product by cutting price, a competitor who is also building is almost certain to follow the price cut. The competitor who is content to hold market share is also likely to respond, but a company following a harvest objective is much less likely to reduce price because it is more concerned with profit margins than unit sales.

If the firm is considering a price rise, a competitor pursuing a build objective is not likely to follow. The price of a product subject to hold objective is now likely to rise in line with the increase, while a company using harvest objective will certainly take the opportunity to raise its products' price, may be more than the firm that initiated the price increase.

Knowing competitor's strategic objectives is useful in predicting their likely strategies. A build objective is likely to be accompanied with aggressive price and promotional moves, a hold objective with competitive stability and a harvest objective with cost oriented rather than marketing oriented strategies.

Strategic thrust refers to the future areas of expansion that a company might contemplate. A company can expand by penetrating existing markets more effectively with current products, launching new products in existing markets or be growing in new markets with existing or new products. Knowing the strategic thrust of competitors can help the company's strategic decision-making. For instance, knowing that the company's competitors are considering expansion in America but not Europe, may make expansion into Europe more attractive strategic option for the company.

What are their strengths?

Competitor analysis will decide positioning strategy. This involves assessing the competitor's target markets (for various products) and differential advantage. The marketing mix strategies (price levels, media used for promotion and distribution channel) may indicate target markets. Marketing research into customer perceptions can be used to assess relative differential advantage.

Companies and products need to be continuously monitored for changes in positioning strategy.

Strategies can also be defined in terms of competitive scope. Are competitors attempting to service the whole market, a few segments or a particular niche? If the competitor is a niche player, it is likely that it will be content to stay in that segment or use it as a precursor to move into other segments in the future. Japanese companies use small niches as spring boards for market segment expansion. Competitors may be playing the cost leadership game, focusing on cost reducing measures rather than expensive product development and promotion. If competitors are following this strategy it is more likely that they will be focusing R&D on process, rather than product development in a bid to reduce manufacturing

What are their response patterns?

A major objective of competitor analysis is to be able to predict competitor response to market and competitive changes. Their past behaviour is a guide as to what they might do. Market leaders try to control competitor response by retaliatory action. If the leader makes a price move and a competitor undercuts it, then he should be

shown that this action had been noticed and will be punished. By punishing competitor moves, market leaders can condition competitors to behave in predicted ways, for instance, by not taking advantage of a price rise by the leader.

The history, traditions and managerial personalities of competitors also have an influence on competitive response. Some markets are characterized by years of competitive stability with little serious strategic challenges to any of the incumbents. This can breed complacency with predictably slow reactions to new challenges. For instance, innovation that offers superior customer value may be dismissed as fad, not worthy of serious attention.

Another situation where competitors are unlikely to respond is where their previous strategies have restricted their scope for retaliation. An example of such a hemmed-in competitor was a major manufacturer of car number plates. A new entrant focused on one geographical base, supplying the same quality product but with an extra discount. The national supplier could not respond, since to give discount in this region would have meant granting the discount nationwide.

A competitor may respond selectively. Because of tradition or beliefs about relative effectiveness of marketing instruments, a competitor may respond to some competitive moves but not others. Extra sales promotion expenditures may be matched but advertising increase may be ignored. Another reason for selective response is varying degree of visibility of marketing actions, Giving extra price discounts may be highly visible but providing distributors with extra support (training, sales literature, loans) may be less discernible.

HLLAND TATA TEA OPPORTUNITIES AND THREATS IN AN INDUSTRY:

A CASE STUDY

Most commodities have been enjoying a good growth rate since 1903, but the sale of tea had not really increased. However, the tea business has picked up now. Tea stocks have been doing well on the SSE. The volume of sales at auctions held near tea-growing areas like Kolkata and Guwahati by registered brokerages have been increasing. The auctions account for 60 per cent of tea sales in the

country. It is where registered buyers purchase tea from the wholesale market and set benchmark prices for the secondary market. The average auction price too has been rising. Indian Tea Association (ITA) claims that consumption of tea is rising. Another important indicator is surplus tea. Typically, substantial amounts of tea remain unsold, which are added to the quantity available for sale the following year. From a peak surplus quantity of 116 million kg (mkg) in 1902, it came down to 27 mkg in 1905. There has also been a rise in exports.

However, the Indian tea industry is grappling with the Issue of high cost of production. In Kenya, a major exporter of tea, the cost of production ranges between Rs 60 - 65 per kg, whereas the cost of production is usually above Rs 70 in India. And this is where plantation owners find themselves in a conundrum. They are neither able to enter the profitable branded tea segment, nor are they able to Plough back money to improve margins. Low export earnings in previous years stifled the efforts of plantation owners to invest in branded tea. And though the prospects of margins and returns are higher in branded tea, the sizeable investments required to market and distribute branded tea makes it difficult for plantation companies to brand their offering. Branded tea has a growth rate of 5 per cent as compared to 3 per cent in the case of loose tea. The successful branded side of a tea business usually subsidizes a company's loss-making plantation business. This has been true of HLL, the leader in the branded tea segment with 70,000 tonnes per year, and Tata Tea, the No.2 player with 55,000 tonnes per year. In both cases, the companies took a strategic decision to exit the high-cost plantation business. The initial thought was that an integrated approach would shave costs, but with the fall in realizations and difficulties in managing plantations, companies felt it prudent to focus on the branded aspect. HLL and Tata tea have sold most of their tea estates. Plantation companies need to get their costs right by combining tea with other agri-businesses. They need to think that they are in agri-business, with a focus on tea.

Meanwhile, Tata Tea and the Apeejay Group have taken the next step forward by buying tea brands in overseas markets. Tata Tea bought the UK brand Tetley and the US-based Good Earth. Apeejay bought the British brand Typhoo. Tea

companies feel the need to move up the value chain and expand globally. Globally, the top three branded players in tea are Unilever, UK-based ABF Twinings and Tata Tea. Yet, together they account for less than 25 per cent of the market. The rest is broken up among small companies across the globe, Posing huge opportunities for consolidation in the branded business.

There is also a steady worldwide shift from black tea to specialty and ready-to-drink (RTO) teas. Companies like Tata Tea are looking at this segment. The global tea market is much larger than the Indian market. Tata Tea is focusing on North America, a strong green tea market.

With the Indian tea industry being the oldest in the world, most of its bushes are over 100 years old. The best tea comes from bushes that are 5-50 years old. Nearly 40 per cent of tea bushes in India have crossed the age limit. But replanting them is expensive. The average size of plantations is about 600 acres. Even If a planter wants to replant 3 per cent of this, it would cost him Rs 17 lakh a year. Nonetheless, the going looks good for players whose plantations are better managed. The ones in Assam, whose tea is part of most blends worldwide, are in an advantageous position. Oarjeeling tea is very niche and caters largely to the export market. Steps taken by the Tea Board and the Union ministry of commerce promise a lot - a government-managed Tea Fund for ailing plantations. A new tea promotion campaign has been launched that is funded by the Tea Board to help change the profile of tea to a younger and healthier option.

A competitor may also be completely unpredictable in its response pattern, Sometimes there is a response, sometimes there is not, No factors explain these differences, They appear to be at the whims of management.

10.3.2 Competitive Advantage

The key to superior performance is to gain and hold competitive advantage. Firms can gain a competitive advantage through differentiation of their product offerings which provides superior customer value, or by managing for lowest delivery cost. In most cases, an industry's 'return on investment' leader opts for one of the strategies, while the second placed firm pursues the other.

Competitive Strategies

The two means of competitive advantage of low cost of delivery and differentiation when combined with competitive scope of activities of broad versus narrow, result in four generic strategies:

- Differentiation
- Cost leadership
- Differentiation focus
- Cost focus

The differentiation and cost leadership strategies seek competitive advantage in a broad range of market whereas differentiation focus and cost focus strategies are confined to a narrow segment.

Differentiation

Differentiation strategy involves the selection of one or more choice criteria that are used by many buyers in an industry. The firm then uniquely positions itself to meet these criteria. Differentiation strategies are usually associated with a premium price and higher than average costs of industry, since extra value to customers (for instance, higher performance) often raises costs. The aim is to differentiate in a way that leads to a price premium in excess of cost of differentiating. Differentiation gives customers a reason to prefer one product over another and thus is central to market skimming.

Cost Leadership

Cost Leadership Cost leadership involves the achievement of lowest cost position in an industry. Firms market standard products, that are believed to be acceptable to customers, at reasonable prices which gives them above average profits. Some cost leaders discount prices in order to achieve higher sales levels.

Differentiation Focus

A firm aims to differentiate within one or a small number of target market segments. The special needs of the segment means that there is an opportunity to differentiate its

product offering from competitors who may be targeting a broader group of customers. When a firm adopts differentiation focus, it must be clear that the needs of the target group differ from the broader market, and that existing competitors are under performing in the target segment.

Cost Focus

A firm seeks a cost advantage with one or a small number of target market segments. Services/features may be provided to all segments but in some segments those services/features may not be needed. For these segments, the company is over performing. By providing a basic product offering, a cost advantage will be gained that may exceed the price discount necessary to sell it.

10.3.3 Creating A Differential Advantage

Although skills and resources are the sources of competitive advantage, they are translated into a differential advantage only when the customer perceives that the firm is providing value above that of competition.

The creation of differential advantage, then, comes with the marrying of skills and resources with key attributes (choice criteria) that customers are looking for in a product offering.

However it should be recognized that the distinguishing competing attributes (attributes on the basis of which differentiation can be made) in the market are not always the most important ones. For example, if customers were asked to rank safety, punctuality and on-board service in importance when flying, safety would be ranked on top. But when choosing an airline, safety would rank low because most airlines are assumed to be safe. Therefore, airlines look to less important ways of differentiating their offering (on board services). A differential advantage can be created with any aspect of the marketing mix. The key to deciding whether improving an aspect of marketing is worthwhile, is to know if the potential benefit provides value to the customer.

Product

Product performance can be enhanced by such devices as raising speed, comfort,

safety levels, capacity and ease of use or improving taste or smell. Durability, reliability, styling, capacity to upgrade, provision of guarantee, giving technical assistance, helping in installation etc. can help in differentiating a product from that of the competitor's.

Distribution

Wide distribution coverage and careful selection of distributor locations can provide convenient purchasing points for customers. Quick and reliable delivery, providing distribution with support in the form of training and financial help, computerized recording helps in differentiating a company's offerings from those of competitors. Building exclusive channel partnerships and entering into long term contracts with these partners can also prove to be beneficial to the company in getting better customer feedback.

Promotion

A differential advantage can be achieved by the creative use of advertising. Advertising can aid differentiation by creating a stronger brand personality than competitive brands. Using more creative sales promotional methods or simply spending more on sales incentives can give direct added value to customers. By engaging in cooperative promotion with distributors, producers can lower their costs and raise their goodwill. When products are similar, a well-trained sales force can provide superior problem solving skills for their customers. Dual selling whereby a producer provides sales force assistance to distributors can lower latter's cost and increase sales. Fast, accurate quotes can lower customers' costs by making transactions more efficient. Free demonstrations and free trial arrangements can reduce the risk of purchase for customers. Superior complaint handling procedures can lower customer costs by speeding up the process and reduce inconvenience that can accompany it.

Price

Using low price to gain differential advantage can fail unless the firm enjoys cost advantage and has resources to fight a price war. Credit facilities and low interest loans are indirectly low prices. A high price can be used to do premium positioning. Where a brand has distinct product, promotional and distribution advantage, a premium

price provides consistency with the marketing mix.

10.3.4 Creating Cost Leadership

Some of the major cost drivers that determine the behaviour of costs in the value chain are :-

Economies of Scale

Scale economies can arise from the use of more efficient methods of production at higher volumes. Scale economies also arise from the less than proportional increase in overhead cost as production volume increases. Another scale economy results from the capacity to spread the cost of R&D and promotion to over a greater sales volume. But scale economies do not proceed indefinitely. At some point, diseconomies of scales are likely to arise as size gives rise to complexity and personnel difficulties.

Learning

Costs can fall through effects of learning. People learn how to assemble more quickly, pack more efficiently. The combined effect of economies of scale and learning as cumulative output increases has been termed the 'experience curve'. This suggests that firms with greater market share will have a cost advantage through the experience curve effect assuming all companies are operating on the same curve. But a move towards a new technology can lower the experience curve effect for companies that adopt such new technologies, allowing them to leap-frog more traditional firms and thereby gain a cost advantage even though their cumulative output may be lower.

Capacity Utilization

Since fixed costs must be paid whether a plant is manufacturing at full or zero capacity, underutilization incurs costs. The effect of underutilized capacity is to push up the cost per unit for production. Therefore, greater capacity utilization ensures lower per unit cost of production.

Linkages

These describe how costs of some activities are affected by the way other activities are performed. For instance, improving quality assurance activities can reduce after

sales service costs. Activities of suppliers and distributors are also linked to the activities of a firm and affect costs of a firm. For instance, introduction of JIT delivery system by a supplier reduces inventory costs of the firm. Distributors can influence a firm's physical distribution costs through warehouse location decision. To exploit such linkages, the firm may need considerable bargaining power.

Interrelationships

Sharing costs with other business units is a potential cost driver. Sharing the costs of R&D, transportation, marketing and purchasing lowers costs.

Integration

Both integration and de-integration can affect costs. Owning the means of physical distribution rather than using outside contracts could lower costs. Ownership may allow a producer to avoid suppliers or customers with sizeable bargaining power. Ownership also increases control, which may allow greater efficiency of distribution. De-integration can lower costs and raise flexibility. By using many small suppliers, a company can be in a powerful position to keep costs low and also maintain a high degree of production flexibility.

Timing

Both first movers and late entrants have opportunities for lowering costs. For first movers, it is usually cheaper to establish a brand name in the minds of customers if there is no competition. They also have prime access to cheap or high quality raw materials and locations. Late entrants to a market have the opportunity to buy the latest technology and avoid high market development costs. They can also avoid costly mistakes made by the pioneer in building a market for the product.

Policy Decisions

Firms have a wide range of discretionary policy decisions that affect costs. Product width, levels of service, extent of diversification, channel decisions etc. have direct impact on costs. Care must be taken not to reduce costs on activities that have a major bearing on customer value.

Locations

The location of plant and warehouses affect costs through different wage, physical distribution and energy costs. Location near customers lowers outbound distributional costs, and location near suppliers reduces inbound distributional costs.

Institutional Factors

These include government regulations, tariffs and local content rules. These are uncontrollable factors for a business, but changes can affect costs. A firm can anticipate such changes by conducting regular checks and follow-ups of various activities in their environment. The firm cannot avoid these event, though they can be better prepared. A well equipped firm is likely to be affected less adversely in an industry as compared to competitors.

NEWS CHANNELS

Cost structure of an industry witnessing proliferation of new entrants

The past few years have witnessed phenomenal growth in the number of news channels in India. From 11 in 1992, there are 36 news channels today, and many more are in the pipeline.

The chaotic, argumentative nature of Indian democracy is the ideal breeding ground for news channels. In India, there are sub-genres such as crime, Bollywood and night life that have boosted the viewer ship of news channels. It is a pattern followed by news channels in large democracies like the US. But in India, this stretching of news to create genres and sub-genres has been multiplied into dozens of languages and regions. As a result, India is one of the few countries in the world with so many news channels. More important, it is one of the few markets where most of them make money.

However, it may not remain so for long. Advertisers will not support news channels in every conceivable language. The boom may not be sustained, and the bubble may burst soon. The signals of impending trouble have been getting stronger. The share of ad revenue from news channels has been static at 10-11 per cent of the total over the last 4-5 years. But the total revenue is expanding. Of the total

TV ad revenues, news channels account for around ten per cent. The problem is that news channels have to depend on advertising only for their revenues. With the total ad spending expected to grow at about 12-14 per cent a year; news channels should get around double the amount of revenues by the year 1908.

Starting a channel costs Rs 50-60 crore. On an average, a channel takes 3-4 years to break even. The post-launch operating expenses are rising exponentially due to marketing and distribution costs, which form 10-19 per cent of revenues. This includes the substantial carriage fee. The Indian cable pipe, currently the main mode of distribution, can support only 106 channels, while the actual number is much more. So, both small and large players are finding the carriage fees to multi-system operators and placement fee to cable operators tough to keep up with. Thus, NDTV's profits dipped sharply last year, largely due to carriage fees. The bottomline is that cost-revenue equation of news channels is getting out of hand.

The big question that investors will soon start asking is how they would make up for the initial investment and the operating costs. When the second boom in news channels occurred in 1903, the answer came from the very heterogeneity that networks are now banking on. The first push came with Hindi news channels such as NDTV India and Sahara Samay. Hindi still rules in both reach and advertising. Aaj Tak still reaches five times the number of viewers that its English channel Headlines Today does every week. Then came business channels such as NDTV Profit and CNBC Awaaz, which showed the maximum growth in viewership figures. It is up more than five times in the past four years. This was followed by English and regional channels which went up four times in the same period.

The ad money may not chase all sub-genres with equal fervor. English news channels get a premium while Hindi news channels get volumes, Although a 10-second spot during peak prime time on Aaj Tak costs Rs 22,000 with bonus spots on non-prime time, English news has a premium over Hindi and regional ones. As a result, ad-spend on business channels, most of them English, doubled in 1905 as compared to 1904.

There is only so much slicing by languages and sub-genres possible now. So, how will this latest launch of news channels be supported? The solution is consolidation and diversification. Consolidation is inevitable for sustained growth. As a network of channels is more important and economical than stand-alone channels, consolidation is bound to happen. Global Broadcast News's recent acquisition of 50 per cent stake in Channel 7 shows the way. But the nature and scale of consolidation is debatable. Consolidations and mergers are more likely at a national level than at regional levels. It is not just consolidation between different channels that is going to happen. It will also be consolidation of electronic media, print media and the Internet.

The second solution to the growth problem will be diversification. Even big players will have to find ways to beef up their portfolio and get at other parts of the ad pie within TV. Zee network has launched Zee Business, and plans to provide region-specific news with a Kannada and a Bangia variant. India TV too is looking at a Gujarati news channel. NDTV has also launched a general entertainment and lifestyle channel. Star News launched Star Ananda in Bangia. Others are looking beyond television, to cell phones and the Internet, by offering news alerts to mobile companies or syndicating content to websites. Almost every major news broadcaster has a short code. Several are looking at acquisitions. TV 18, which already owns online platforms such as moneycontrol.com, commoditiescontrol.com and poweryourtrade.com, recently bought a 50 per cent stake in jobstreet.com. Though/revenues from such activities are still pretty insignificant, around 2-3 per cent, most are betting on it for the future. The 120 million mobile plus Internet audience is already one-third of the cable and satellite audience. In 1905, mobile data services raked in some Rs 2,300 crore in revenues for operators and media companies. So, it makes sense for news broadcasters to eye a larger share of this revenue. Times Now, for instance, was first launched on the Reliance mobile service giving it instant access to 17 million subscribers. DTH or any other pay TV system could be helpful for news broadcasters, allowing them to launch more specialized news services, like a stock market channel, but will charge a viewership fee. But whether Indians will pay for their new is another matter.

10.3.5 Choosing A Competitive Strategy

Success is achieved by choosing a generic strategy and following it. Below average performance is associated with failure to achieve any of these generic strategies. The result is no competitive advantage, a stuck-in-the-middle position that results in lower performance.

Firms need to understand the generic basis of their success and resist temptations to blur their strategies by making inconsistent moves. No frills cost leader should be wary of the pitfalls of moving to a higher cost base. A focus strategy involves limiting sales volume (since the target market is limited). Once domination of a particular target segment has been achieved by the company that has adopted the focus strategy, there may be temptation to move into other segments in order to achieve growth with the same competitive advantage. This can be a mistake if the new segments do not value the firm's competitive advantage in the same way.

In most situations strategies of differentiation and cost leadership are incompatible because resources have to be expended for differentiating a company's offerings. But there are circumstances when both can be achieved simultaneously. A differentiation strategy may lead to market share domination which lowers cost through economies of scale and learning effects. Or a highly differentiated firm can pioneer a major process innovation that significantly reduces manufacturing costs leading a cost leadership position. When differentiation and cost leadership coincide, performance is exceptional, since a premium price can be charged for a low cost product.

10.3.6 Sources of Competitive Advantage

A company has several source of competitive advantage such as R&D, scale of operations, technological superiority, more qualified personnel etc. Companies in the same industry usually have different sources of competitive advantage, which must provide superior customer value than competition.

- **Superior skills** are distinctive capabilities of key personnel that set them apart from personnel of competing firms. For instance, superior selling skills may result in closer relationships with customers than what competing firms can

achieve. Superior quality assurance skills can result in higher and more consistent product quality.

- **Superior resources** are tangible requirements that enable a firm to exercise its skills. Superior resources may be number of sales people, expenditure on advertising and sales promotion, number of retailers who stock the product (distribution coverage), expenditure on R&D, scale and type of production facilities and financial resources, brand equity etc.
- **Core competencies:** The distinctive nature of these skills and resources sum to a company's core competencies.
- **Value chain** is a useful method for locating superior skills and resources. All firms consist of a set of activities that are conducted to design, manufacture, market, distribute and service its products. The value chain categorizes these into primary and support activities. This enables the sources of costs and differentiation to be understood and located. Primary activities include in-bound physical distribution (warehousing, inventory control), operational (manufacturing), outbound physical distribution (delivery, order processing); marketing and services (installation, repair). Support activities are found within all these primary functions and consist of purchasing, technology, human resource management and the firm's infrastructure. They are not defined within a given primary activity because they can be found in all of them. By examining each value creating activity, the management can look for skills and resources that may form the basis for low cost or differentiated strategy. Linkage between value creating activities should also be examined. For instance, greater coordination between operations and in-bound physical distribution may give reduced costs through lower inventory levels. Value chain analysis can extend to the value chains of suppliers and customers. For instance, IIT can lower inventory costs. By looking at the linkages between a firm's value chain and those of the suppliers and customers, improvement in performance can result that can lower costs or contribute to creation of differential position.

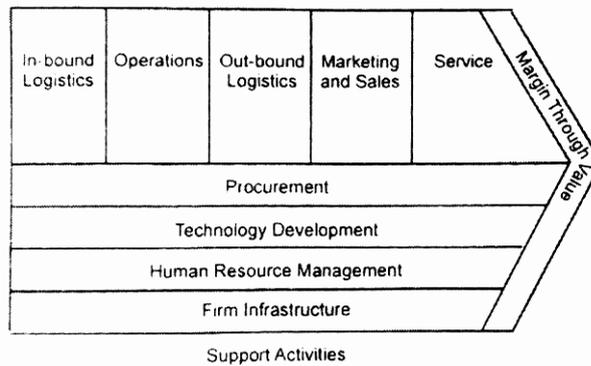


Fig 10.1 The Value Chain

Value chain provides an understanding of the nature and location of skills and resources that provide the basis for competitive advantage. Cost analysis can also be done. Operating costs and assets are assigned to value activities and improvements can be made and cost advantage defended. If a firm discovers that its cost advantage is based on superior production facilities, it should be vigilant in upgrading those facilities to maintain its position against competitors. If differentiation is based upon skills in product design, superiority in this function should be maintained. The identification of specific sources of advantage can lead to their exploitation in new markets where customers place a similar high value on these resultant outcomes.

For a differential advantage to be realized, the firm not only needs to provide customer value, but the value should also be superior to that of competition. Besides an effective marketing mix, companies need to create fast reaction times to changes in marketing trends. Using advanced telecommunications, companies receive sales information from around the world 24 hours a day, every day of the year and react promptly to them.

10.3.7 Sustaining a Competitive Advantage

When searching for ways to achieving a differential advantage, the management must pay close attention to factors that cannot be copied easily by competition. The aim is to achieve a sustainable differential advantage. Competing on low prices can often be copied by competition, implying that any advantage is short-lived, unless the firm has a clear cost leadership. Means of achieving longer term advantage could be patent - protected products, strong brand personality, close relationship with customers, high

service levels achieved by well trained personnel, innovative product upgrading, creating high entry barriers (R&D or promotional expenditure).

10.3.8 Erosion of Competitive Advantage

Three mechanisms are at work which can erode a competitive advantage:

- Technological and environmental changes that create opportunities for competitors by eroding the protective barriers.
- Competition learns how to imitate sources of competitive advantage.
- Complacency leads to lack of protection the competitive advantage.

10.3.9 Competitive Behaviour

In many markets, competition is the driving force of change. Without competition, companies satisfies. They provide satisfactory levels of service but fail to excel. Where there is a conflict between improving customer satisfaction and costs, the latter often takes priority since companies feel that such cost cuts do not affect customer services, and it also produces tangible results faster. Competition, then, is good for the customer as it means that companies have to try harder to satisfy customers or lose their customer base.

When developing marketing strategy, companies need to be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses, customer needs and the competition. To be successful it is no longer sufficient to be good at satisfying consumer's needs - companies need to be better than competition in doing so.

Competitive behaviour can take five forms :-

Conflict

Conflict is characterized by aggressive competitors where the objective is to drive out competitors from the market place, say by price cutting.

An industry is likely to face a conflict situation if a player/s have extremely high stakes to dominate the industry. Players that have large market shares (dominant players), companies are not diversified (businesses confined to one industry), those that have

invested a disproportionate amount of assets in building their business in this industry, are likely to be extremely aggressive. This situation can be aggravated by a threat of strong imminent competition, or a declining market growth.

Some industries are very sensitive to volumes. If a company in such a industry is able to build high market share by grabbing market share of competitors, the cost of production goes down significantly, thus raising the company's profitability. But for most industries, it is not a good idea to drive out competitors. This is specially true for the lead players of the industry. Competitors play a very important role in raising the 'noise levels' (for instance, through advertising) and thus, help in expansion of the category/industry. Since the lead players have more market share than the fringe players, they get more share of the expansion in the category. And good competitors are always a great help in improving the functioning of a company.

Competition

The objective is not to eliminate competitors but to perform better than them. This may take the form of trying to achieve faster sales, profit growth, larger size or higher market share. Competitive behaviour recognizes limits of aggression. Competitor reaction will be an important consideration when setting strategy. Players will avoid spoiling the underlying industry structure which has an important bearing on overall profitability. For example price wars will be avoided if competitors believe that their long term effect will be to reduce industry profitability .

Coexistence

Coexistence may occur due to several reasons. It may arise because firms do not recognize their competitors, owing to difficulties in defining market boundaries. For instance, a manufacturer of fountain pens may ignore competition from jewelry companies since its definition may be product based than market centered (gift market). Firms may not recognize other companies which they believe are operating in a separate market segment. Third, firms may choose to acknowledge

the territories of their competitors (geography, market segment, product technology) in order to avoid harmful head to head competition.

Cooperation

This involves the pooling of skills and resources of two or more firms to overcome problems and take advantage of new opportunities. A growing trend is towards strategic alliances where firms join together through a joint venture, licensing agreements or joint R&D contracts to build a long term competitive advantage. In today's global markets where size is the key source of advantage, cooperation is a major type of competitive behaviour.

Collusion

Firms come to some arrangement that inhibits competition in a market. Prices are fixed in order to discourage customers from shopping around to find the cheapest deal. Collusion is likely when there are a small number of suppliers in each market, price of product is a small proportion of buyer costs, where cross national trade is restricted by tariff barriers or prohibitive transportation cost and where buyers can pass on high prices to their customers.

10.3.10 Competitive Marketing Strategies

There is need to develop strategies that are more than customer based. The strategy should also focus on attacking and defending against competitors. A company can follow any of the following strategies of build, hold, harvest or divest depending on the competitive conditions prevailing in the market, and its own objectives.

Build objective

Build objective involves increasing the company's market share. Such a strategy makes sense when the market is growing, and the company has a competitive advantage that it can capitalize on.

Attractive Conditions

A build objective is suitable in growth markets. Because overall market sales are growing, all players can achieve higher sales. But in a mature market (no growth),

increase in sales of one player has to be at the expense of competition (zero sum game).

In growth markets, market growth will help fill capacity without recourse to aggressive retaliatory action whereas in mature markets capacity utilization will improve only at the expense of competition.

A build objective makes sense in growth markets because new users are being attracted to the product. Since these new users do not have an established brand or supplier loyalty, it is logical to invest resources into attracting them to the company's product offering. Provided the product meets their expectations, trial during growth phase can lead to the building of goodwill and loyalty as market matures.

The build objective is also attractive in mature (no growth) markets where there are exploitable competitive weaknesses. A competitor may not be providing adequate service. Exploitable competitive weakness allow the creation of a differential advantage.

A build objective is also attractive when the company has exploitable corporate strengths. When taking on a market leader, a necessary condition is adequate corporate resources, because the leader will retaliate forcefully.

Finally, the build objective is attractive when experiences curve effects are believed to be strong. By building sales faster than competition, a company can achieve position of cost leader.

Strategic Focus

A build objective can be achieved by market expansion, winning market share from competition, by mergers or acquisitions, and by forming strategic alliances.

- ***Market expansion:*** This is brought about by creating new users, or new uses, or by increasing frequency of purchase. New users may be found by expanding internationally or by moving to a larger target market. New uses can be promoted. Increasing the frequency of use may rely upon persuasive communication. For example, a shampoo manufacturer can persuade consumers to use more per occasion or encourage more frequent usage of the product.

- **Winning market share:** This indicates gaining market share at the expense of competition. Principles of offensive warfare apply in this case. These are to consider the strengths of the leader's position, to find a weakness in the leader's strength and attack at that point.

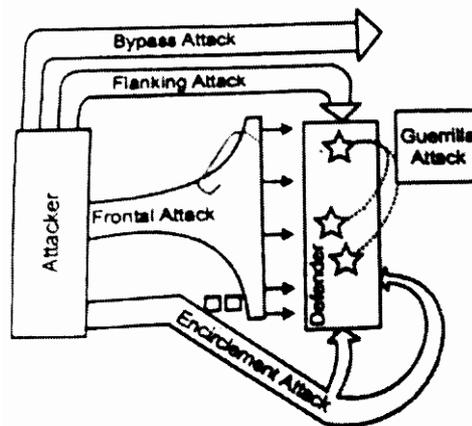


Fig 10.2 : Attack Strategies

(i) **Frontal attack:** This involves the challenger taking on the defender head on. The challenger attacks the main market of the market leader by launching a product with a similar or superior marketing mix. The market leader gets most of its revenues and profits from this market segment, If the defender is a market leader, the success of challenger depends on a clear and sustainable competitive advantage. If the advantage is based on cost leadership, this will support a low price strategy to fight the market leader. A distinct differential advantage possessed by the challenger provides basis for superior customer value by which customers can be enticed. Second, the challenger should match the leader in other activities. Third, success is more likely if there is some restriction on the leader's ability to retaliate. Restrictions include patent protection, pride, technological lead times and costs of retaliation. Where a differential advantage or cost leadership is supported by patent protection, imitation by market leader will be difficult. Pride may hamper retaliation. The market leader refuses to imitate because to do so would admit that the challenger has outsmarted the leader. Where the challenge is based upon a technological innovation, it may take time to put in place the new technology. Retaliation may also be difficult because of the prohibitive

costs involved. The risks of damaging brand image and lowering profit margins may also deter the market leader from responding to price challenges.

Finally, the challenger needs adequate resources to withstand the battle that will take place should the leader retaliate. Sustainability is necessary to stretch the leader's capability to respond. The challenger should understand that the entrenched player will fight hard and long. The challenger should have the will and resources to engage the market leader in long battle for market supremacy.

(ii) **Flanking attack:** Flanking attack involves attacking unguarded or weakly guarded grounds. It means attacking geographical areas or market segments where the defender is poorly represented. The market does not consider the segment lucrative and allows the initial incursion. The attack by Japanese companies in the US car market was a flanking attack. The Japanese attacked the small car segment, from which they expanded into other segments. Mars attacked Unilever's Wall's ice cream by launching a range of premium brands. Unilever's response was to launch a range of premium brands themselves and to defend their shop vigorously. Unilever entered into exclusivity deals with retailers which prevented competitors from selling their products in shops which sold Wall's ice creams, and freezer exclusivity prevented competition from placing their ice cream in Unilever supplied freezer cabinets.

The advantage of a flanking attack is that it does not provoke the same kind of response as a head on confrontation. Since defender is not challenged in its main market segment, there is chance that it will ignore the challenger's initial success. If the defender dallies too long, the flank segment can be used as a beach head from which to attack the defender in its major markets.

(iii) **Encirclement attack:** Encirclement attack involves attacking the defender from all sides. Every market segment is hit with every combination of product features and prices to completely encircle the defender. An example is Seiko which produces over 1900 designs of watches for market worldwide. They cover everything the customer might want in terms of fashion and features. A variant of this approach is to cut off supply to the defender, by acquiring major supply companies.

(iv) **Bypass attack:** This attack involves circumventing the defender's position. The attacker changes the rules of the game, usually through technological leap-frogging. The company can revert to making a simpler product with very low prices or it can incorporate a new technology in its product which enhances the value of the product by a big margin. A bypass attack can also be accomplished through diversification. The attacker can bypass a defender by seeking growth in new markets with new products.

(v) **Guerilla attack:** The attacker hurts the defender by pin-pricks rather than blows. Underdogs can make life uncomfortable for its stronger rivals. Unpredictable price discounts, sales promotions, or heavy advertising in a few segments and regions are some tactics that attackers can use.

Guerilla tactics may be the only feasible option for a small company facing a larger competitor. Such tactics allow the small company to make its presence felt without the dangers of a full frontal attack. By being unpredictable, the guerilla attack is difficult to defend against. But such tactics run the risk of incurring the wrath of the defender who may choose to retaliate with full frontal attack if sufficiently provoked.

- *Mergers or acquisitions:* Build objectives can be achieved by merging with, or acquiring competitors. By joining forces, costly marketing battles can be avoided and synergies may be gained in various departments such as purchasing, production, financial, marketing and R&D. A merger can facilitate scale of operations that may be required by the firm to operate as an international force in the market. Mergers and acquisitions give an immediate sales boost and when the players operate in the same market, an increase in market share.

Mergers are risky especially when they involve parties from different countries. Differences in culture, language, business practices and problems associated with restructuring may cause terminal strains.

- *Forming strategic alliance:* A company can build through strategic alliances. The aim is to create a long term competitive advantage for the partners, often on a global scale. The partners can collaborate by means of a joint venture (a jointly owned company), licensing agreements, long term purchasing and supply

arrangements, or joint R&D programs. Strategic alliances maintain a degree of flexibility not apparent with merger or acquisition. By strategic alliances, partners can share the product development costs and risks.

Through strategic alliances access to new markets and distribution channels can be achieved, time to market reduced, product gaps filled and product lines widened. A strategic, alliance can be the initial stage to a merger or acquisition, allowing each party to assess their abilities to work together effectively.

There should be desire and ability to learn from alliance partners. The risk in any form of strategic alliance is that the alliance can leak technological and core capabilities to the partner, thereby giving away important competitive information. Thus one way transfer of skills should be avoided by building barriers to capability seepage. Core competencies should be protected at all costs. This is easier when a company has few alliances, or when only a limited part of organization is involved in the alliance, or when relationships built up in the alliance are stable.

Hold Objective

Hold objectives involve defending a company's current position against imminent competition. The principles of defensive warfare are relevant, i.e. strong competitive moves should always be blocked.

Attractive Conditions

The classic situation where a hold objective makes strategic sense is for a market leader in a mature or declining market. This is the standard cash cow position. By holding on to market leadership, a product should generate positive cash flows which can be used elsewhere in the company to build other products. Holding on to market leadership makes sense because brand leaders enjoy the marketing benefits of bargaining power with distribution channel members and brand image, as well as enjoying experience curve effects that reduce costs. In a declining market, maintaining market leadership may result in the company becoming a virtual monopolist as weaker competitors withdraw. A second situation where the costs of attempting to build sales

and market share outweigh the benefits are when there are aggressive rivals who would respond strongly if attacked. It may then be prudent to be content with the status quo and avoid actions that are likely to provoke competition.

Strategic Focus

A hold objective may be achieved by monitoring competition or by confronting the competition.

- *Monitoring the competition:* When there is competitive stability, everyone is playing the good competitor's game, content with what they have and no one is willing to destabilize the industry structure. Monitoring is necessary to check that there are no significant changes in competitor behaviour but beyond that no change in strategy is required.
- *Confronting the competition:* Rivalry is more pronounced among existing players since the product is in the maturity or the decline stage. Strategic action may be required to defend sales and market share from aggressive challenges.

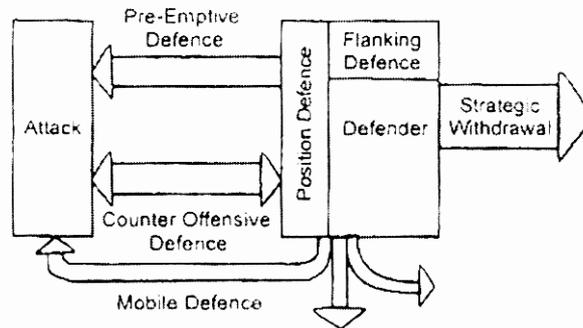


Fig. 10.3 : Defence Strategies

(i) **Position defence:** Position defence involves building fortification around one's existing territory, which translates into building fortification around existing products. The company has a good product which is priced competitively and promoted effectively. This will work if products have differential advantage that are not easily copied, for instance, through patent protection. Brand and reputation may provide strong defence. But this strategy can be dangerous. The customers' needs or the

underlying technologies of the product may have changed but the company may refuse to change track fearing that it will damage its current positioning and reputation.

(ii) **Flanking defence:** Flanking defence is defending a hitherto unprotected market segment, because it will provide a beach head for new entrants to gain experience in the market and attack the main market later. It makes sense for a defender to compete by launching a suitable offering in a segment that is unattractive in the short run, if it helps to avoid or slow down competitive inroads. But if this effort is half hearted, it will not help. Failure to defend an emerging market segment may be dangerous later as competitors will entrench themselves in the unprotected segment.

(iii) **Preemptive defence:** Preemptive defence involves taking proactive steps to project one's they from the imminent attack of a competitor.

Attack first: This involves continuous innovation and new product development. The defender operatively defends its turf by adopting such measures. This may dissuade a would-be attacker.

(iv) **Counter offensive defence:** In head on counterattacks, a defender matches or exceeds what the attacker has done. This may involve heavy price cutting or promotion expenditure. This may be costly but may be justified to deter a persistent attacker. A counterattack may be based on innovation. Hitting the attacker's cash cow strikes at the attacker's resource supply line.

Encircle the attacker: The defender launches brands to compete directly against attacker's brands.

(v) **Mobile defence:** When a company's major market is under threat, a mobile defence makes strategic sense. The two options in a mobile defence are diversification and market broadening. Diversification involves attempts to serve a different market with a different product. The company will have to check if it has the competencies to serve the new market effectively. Market broadening involves broadening the business definition. In the face of declining cinema audiences, film companies redefined their business as entertainment providers rather than film makers and moved into TV, magazines, gambling, theme parks etc.

(vi) **Strategic withdrawal:** The defender defines its strengths and weaknesses, and then hold on to its strengths while divesting its weak businesses. The company therefore concentrates on its core business. A strategic withdrawal allows a company to focus on its core competencies. This is often required when diversification has resulted in too wide a spread of activities away from what it does well.

Niche Objective

The company may pursue a small market or even a segment within a segment. Such a strategy may avoid competition with companies which are serving the major market segments. But if the niche is successful, large competitors are attracted into the segment

Attractive Conditions

Niching may be the only feasible objective for companies with small budgets and where strong competitors are dominating the main segment. But there should be pockets within the market that provide the opportunity for profitable operations, and in which competitive advantage can be created. These conditions apply when major players are underserving a particular group of customers as they attempt to meet the needs of majority of customers, and where market niche is too small to be of interest to them.

Strategic Focus

Strategic Focus A strategic tool for nichers is market segmentation. They should search for underserved segments that may provide profitable opportunities. The choice of the segment will depend upon the attractiveness of the niche and the capability of company to serve it. Focused R&D expenditure gives a small company a chance to make effective use of limited resources. ¹² The emphasis should be on creating and sustaining a differential advantage through intimately understanding the needs of the customer group and focusing attention on satisfying those needs better than competition. Niche operators should be wary of pursuing growth strategies by broadening their customer base. This will lead to the blurring of differential advantage upon which their success has been built. Niche companies trade on exclusivity, and to broaden their market base would run the risk of diluting their differential advantage. Nichers consciously think small, eschewing unsustainable growth in favour of profitability. The emphasis is on high margins not pigh volume.

Harvest strategy

Harvest strategy attempts to improve unit profit margins even if the result is falling sales. Although sales are falling, the aim is to make the company or product extremely profitable in the short term generating large positive cash flows that can be used elsewhere in business.

Attractive Condition

Also-ran products or companies in mature or declining markets are the prime targets for harvest strategies, since they lose money or earn very little and take up valuable management time and resources. Harvesting can move them to a profitable stance, and reduce management attention to minimum. In growth markets harvesting makes sense where the costs of building or holding exceeds the benefits. The problem children or products that have little long term potential can be harvested. Harvesting is attractive if a core of loyal customers exist, which means that sales decline to a stable level. A final attractive condition is where future breadwinners exist in the company and they need resources which will come from harvesting products or businesses within the company. But harvesting a one product company is likely to lead to its demise.

Strategic Focus

Harvesting involves eliminating R&D and marketing expenditure. Only the very essential expenditures are incurred. The only product change that will be contemplated is reformulation that reduces raw materials and manufacturing costs. Rationalization of product line to one or a few top sellers cuts costs by eliminating expensive product variants. Marketing support is reduced by slashing advertising and promotional budgets while every opportunity is taken to increase price.

Continued harvesting will make the business very weak and eventually unviable. The company has to make a decision as to when it should stop harvesting and sell the business.

CADBURY'S STRATEGIES OF A MARKET LEADER: -A CASE STUDY

Being the market leader in chocolates with a 70 per cent share, Cadbury India

has attempted to stretch the boundaries within chocolate confectionery. It has also been adventurous in unleashing a brand new category within chocolate early this year. Introducing the concept of sweet snacking, it launched Cadbury Bytes with the positioning ‘Snacking ke meetn’funda.’ The product is a crunchy wafer pillow with a choco-cream centre.

While the company is sure of its core competencies, there was need for innovation to deliver double-digit growth. It found out that it was under-represented in the area of snacking on the go and that there was a need for a light crunchy snack. While entry into salted snacks was ruled out, sweet snacks were the obvious choice, and Bytes is unique to the chocolate major’s Indian portfolio.

Getting the right product and packaging was a challenge for the company. It has sub-contracted the product to get the volumes. This was the first category anywhere in the world that Cadbury was entering and it did not have the required expertise. So the best way was to test-market the product, and has already bagged five per cent of the chocolate market. The company has no apprehensions about cannibalization of its chocolate brands. It believes that while its chocolates are more of Indulgence products, Bytes is about snacking when one is hungry and can be treated as a snack in between meals. Cadbury Bytes is adjacent to chocolates and in the markets that there has been launched, there has been no cannibalization. In the past when Cadbury tried out a biscuit brand, Chocobix, there was fear about some amount of cannibalization. After all, it was simply a biscuit coated in chocolate, and was perceived to be another chocolate brand in Cadbury’s portfolio.

Another thrust area Cadbury has been re-evaluating is confectionery. While growth rates in this segment are healthier compared to chocolates, it has always been a difficult market to crack. Cadbury’s own experiences have led it to withdraw certain brands. In April 1903, Cadbury India’s foreign parent acquired Pfizer’s interests in the confectionery business. That included the Warner-Lambert product portfolio, known best for Halls, Clorets and Chiclets. The acquisition is now poised to become a growth area for Cadbury India, whose confectionery

brands include Eclairs and Googly. But instead of selling confectionery through its existing chocolate network, Cadbury has set up an entirely new network. While Halls has been revived with new packaging, there has been no change in the status of its other brands. Chiclets had been discontinued long before it belonged to Cadbury, and Clorets continues to sell with a small franchise. But now Cadbury is looking closely at Warner Lambert's gums portfolio, which is one of the world's largest gum manufacturers, and is considering its viability for the Indian market. Sugarless gum brands such as Dentyne Ice and Trident White have been known for their functional benefits worldwide, but steep pricing may be a deterrent to their entry into India. The gum market has not done well in India. But gum has functional properties and is not merely a breath freshener. The company is now evaluating whether there is a market for them in India.

The confectionery market may be huge in volumes but making money on it remains a tough task with its low margins. Governed by price points, one can sell at only at a Re 1 or 50 paise unit price. The issue is not of garnering volumes but making money out of those volumes. The offer should be one which can get the company both revenues and profits. Having shifted focus from Google, Cadbury has been successful with its age-old Edus which continue to bag almost 50 per cent of the market, and is growing. At the same time the sugar confectionery market is highly competitive and it is all about finding the right consumer proposition and a business model that can deliver both revenues and profit growth.

In spite of the new categories being explored by Cadbury, its star brand remains Cadbury Dairy Milk which continues to corner almost 30 per cent of the chocolate market. It is followed by brands such as 5-star, Perk and Gems. Each of these has been revamped over the years to generate excitement for the category. For instance, recently Perk was rejuvenated as a crunchier wafer while Cadbury Dairy Milk came up as a 'white-and-brown' variant in the market. The chocolates category thrives on excitement. The consumer has to be given choice and taste which they enjoy. For instance, in beverages, in spite of its malted food brand Bournvita, Cadbury decided to introduce a milk additive brand such as Delite,

just to give its consumers the real taste of chocolate. Delite has added flavors such as strawberry and mango, and is not expected to encroach upon Bournvita's shares. There is still a large section of people who do not add anything to milk. The brands are targeted at children for whom milk is a problem and having an additive will make it a pleasurable experience.

Making changes In its distribution network, Cadbury split Its sales and marketing team between its mass (confectionery) and core brands. Chocolates needed to get retailed at larger and better outlets while all the products below Rs 3 needed a different distribution network. Today Cadbury's distribution network reaches out to six lakh outlets eachfor its confectionery and chocolate brands.

With the worms episode behind it, there are other issues bothering the company, especially that of the rising input costs of cocoa, sugar and milk. Although Cadbury has been able to maintain prices, it is still grappling with the upward trend in prices for its basic raw materials. But its challenge remains that of growing the chocolate market in spite of the odds.

It is never a good idea to persist harvesting for such a long time that no buyer finds anything worthwhile left in the business.

Divest Objectives

A company may decide to divest itself from a SBU or a product. It stems the flow of cash to poorly performing area of its business. Divestment is a decision that is often considered to be the last option by a company. However, the decision to divest must be made carefully, while not only assessing the particular business, but also analyzing its impact on other businesses of the company, and its portfolio.

Attractive Conditions

Divestment is associated with loss making products or businesses that are a drain on both financial and managerial resources, or it is judged that costs of turnaround exceed benefits. Also-tans in the growth phase may be divested sometimes after harvesting has run its full course. But care must be taken to examine interrelationships within corporate portfolios. For instance, if a product is making a loss, it would still be

worthwhile supporting, if its removal would adversely affect sales of other products in the company as the less profitable product complements the more profitable product. In some industrial markets, customers expect a supplier to provide a full range of products. Therefore, even though some products may not be profitable, sales of the whole range may be affected if the loss making products are dropped.

Strategic Focus

Because of a drain on profits and cash flows, focus should be to get out quickly so as to minimize costs. If a buyer can be found then some return may be realized. If not, the product will be withdrawn.

A company may continue to harvest one of its businesses and sap all vitality from it. Such a business will not be attractive to buyers and will not fetch a good price. A company

10.4 COMPETITIVE STRATEGIES

Competitive strategies are the method by which one can achieve a competitive advantage in the market. There are typically three types of competitive strategies that can be implemented. They are cost leadership, differentiation and a focus strategy. A mixture of two or more of these strategies is also possible depending on your business' objectives and current market position.

Cost leadership

The aim of this strategy is to be a low-cost producer relative to your competitors and is particularly useful in markets where price is a deciding factor. Cost leadership is often achieved by carefully selecting suppliers and production techniques to minimise production, distribution and marketing costs. However you need to be aware of any serious loss in quality that may render low cost ineffective.

Differentiation

A differentiation strategy seeks to develop a competitive advantage through supplying and marketing a product that is in some way different to what the

competition is doing. If developed successfully, this strategy can potentially reduce price sensitivity and improve brand loyalty from customers.

Focus strategy

This strategy recognises that marketing to a homogenous customer group may not be that effective a strategy for the product the business is selling. Instead the business focuses its marketing efforts on a different selected market segments. That is, identify the needs, wants and interests of the particular market segments and customise marketing techniques to reflect those characteristics.

10.5 STRATEGIES FOR MARKET LEADERS

In today's world, there is a rise in both, the number of products and the number of competitors in the market. Naturally everyone wants to be ahead of the competition. But is everyone successful? Definitely not. Any market will have one single market leader and not several market leaders. So what is it that market leaders do correctly to ward off their competitors? We look at some strategies which are common for every market leader

1) Covering the market globally and locally – Look at companies like Coca Cola, Microsoft, LG and others which are market leaders in their respective categories. You will find that each one of these companies have products which are widespread and are known across the world. However, the marketing strategy of each one of these products is customized according to the market that they are serving.

Thus if you have a business which has numerous competitors, it is important that you look at market expansion along with localization. Don't stay back from the global market, but more importantly, while serving the global market, do not forget your home ground. The simple supporting statistic for this statement is that each and every developing country, after exploring the global markets, is now looking at their own rural markets which will provide the maximum growth opportunities.

2) Expand Smartly – Expanding just for the sake of growth can become disastrous. All strategists know that keeping an eye on the cash flow of the business is the most important thing for the growth of the organization. If your working capital is being

used for expansion, this will affect even the business units which are actually showing growth thereby causing you to cut back on essential plans.

Expansion is necessary for good business but it should not come on the cost of a skewed working capital or cash flow as both can affect your survival.

3) Control costs – Look closely at the accounts of any good company and you will find ways being implemented to manage costs. There is one basic equation for profits. Income less Expenses is equal to profit, $\text{Income} - \text{expenses} = \text{profit}$. Thus, if you cut down your costs, your expenses automatically come down thereby increasing the overall profit. The important thing here is to know what are the major components in your costing. For example in a product based company, Transportation, Rentals, Labour, distribution margins, etc are some expenses which are costlier even than the raw materials which will be used in making a product. Hence knowing each and every component of costing is crucial.

A perfect example of the importance of cost control can be seen during an economic downturn. Whenever a company faces a tough economic environment, it needs to know where it can control the costs thereby curtailing expenditure. It can be done by basic changes in raw materials, tying up with low cost transporters, transporting in bulk quantity, cutting down on labor and finally cutting down on skilled manpower. These are some methods used by companies to control costs during bad times. However, if proper methods are implemented during good times, the company will have more margins and deeper pockets to phase off the bad times instead of taking drastic measures.

4) Implement good marketing plans – The crux of beating your competitors is to have your own unique position in the mind of the consumers. This position should be highly attractive and profitable. Only then you will gain advantages over time. There needs to be a proper implementation of marketing plans. What should be the message of the company? How to change the message over time to bring more and more customers to your brand? How to alter the marketing so as to expand and gain more market share? What should be the vehicles of marketing communications? How and in which order does the plan need to be implemented? These are some questions

which your marketing plan should answer thoroughly.

At this point of time it is very important to take the competitors as a frame of reference and to have a marketing plan which is better than the competitors and helps you in achieving the numbers that you are targeting. The best way to implement a good marketing plan is to do a proper competitive analysis and see where you stand in the current market. You may not challenge the top competitor in the start. But you can definitely get rid of each competitor one by one by implementing a strong marketing plan and sticking to this strategy. In this case, proper implementation of the marketing plan is the key to marketing success.

5) Get the right people and retain them – In the services industry, you are as good as the talent you have on board. Many software companies keep a part of their margin aside so that they don't have to lose software engineers when one project is complete. These engineers are transferred to another project when the work is complete. A customer service manager would never like to lose their best employee. A CEO will never like to lose his best performing managers. Any company would not like to let go of efficient employees. Your employees and stakeholders are your assets.

There needs to be regular action taken to keep your employees and stakeholders motivated and loyal. Take any company which has a low attrition rate and you will see a company which spends a lot in training and development of its employees. This is because when employees leave a company, they take along a part of the knowledge and experience which they have gained in that company. This knowledge and experience needs to be inculcated in the other employee over time. Thus a lot of time is wasted in training and developing new employees. This is why, the smart companies save time by retaining and motivating their best employees. And this is why they stay ahead of the competition

6) Focus on your customers – Several companies, while making profits, forget that the prime reason they are still working is because the customers like their products. The day a company forgets this principal, it is bound to fail. And hence, you need to be the best in this area. Know your customers in and out. Do regular market studies and consumer buying behavior analysis to determine the mindset of the customer. A

new technology which was being underestimated by you, but has been implemented by a competitor, can attract your customers attention and take away even your most loyal customers.

Take an example of Facebook and Google (orkut). Google did not even catch up when facebook rapidly expanded to be such a large social network. And by the time google had implemented its own product (google plus), it was too late. The audience was no longer there to notice it. The product too was poor in its implementation. Thus at all times, know what your customers want and also know how the environment is changing and where you are losing your customers. Do not fear to experiment with your product portfolio. You are bound to fail with some products. But as long as you implement strategies with your customers in mind, you will be ahead of the competition.

7) Be Informed – One of the basics of selling against competition is to know your competitors. Consider the consumer durables segment. There would be 10 different competitors in television and refrigerators segment. Furthermore, each of the competitors will have ten different product lines. They would have high end refrigerators and televisions for the Sec A customers and low end and lesser priced models for the price conscious segment. You need to know your competitors and their product lines to launch product variants of your own. On the other hand, you need to know all the products of all your competitors to launch a product which is unique in the market and has the first mover advantage. Thus information is important.

Let's take the consumer durables example even further. Consumer durables works on a channel sales basis. Thus your channel too needs to be informed of the features of your product. There needs to be regular training to keep the channel in loop of the latest strategy being implemented by the company. Imagine if you were to launch a new product and you are advertising that product through ATL and BTL activities. And if your channel dealers do not have information of the product and they do not have the machine available for immediate delivery. This will cause a huge loss of sales along with expenses incurred due to absence of information and proper communications.

Thus in essence, when customers visit your channel showrooms, your marketing activities are not in sync. Even though you are advertising the products, the products

are not available in the market or your channel partners are not capable of selling it. Thus you lose out on sales and the initial rush. On the other hand, your competitor might be smarter and might have implemented a completely new product with altogether different features. Now your product completely fails in the market. This is why information and its dissemination is crucial to beat your competitors.

All the above strategies will be present in top companies across the world. But even if the company is new, and it is planning on expanding your product, these seven factors need to be taken as a reference point to form a successful company.

10.6 MICHAEL PORTER'S FIVE FORCES MODEL

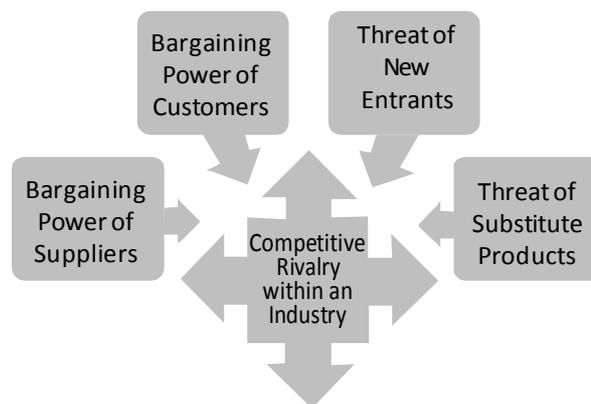


Figure 10.4: A graphical representation of Michael Porter's Five Forces

Michael Porter's five forces analysis is a framework for industry analysis and business strategy development. It draws upon industrial organization (IO) economics to derive five forces that determine the competitive intensity and therefore attractiveness of a market. Attractiveness in this context refers to the overall industry profitability. An "unattractive" industry is one in which the combination of these five forces acts to drive down overall profitability. A very unattractive industry would be one approaching "pure competition", in which available profits for all firms are driven to normal profit. Three of Porter's five forces refer to competition from external sources. The rest two forces are internal threats.

Michael Porter's five forces include - three forces from 'horizontal' competition: the threat of substitute products or services, the threat of established rivals, and the threat

of new entrants and two forces from 'vertical' competition: the bargaining power of suppliers and the bargaining power of customers.

This five forces analysis, is just one part of the complete Porter strategic models. The other elements are the value chain and the generic strategies.

Michael Porter developed his Five Forces analysis in reaction to the then-popular SWOT analysis. Michael Porter's five forces model is based on the Structure-Conduct-Performance paradigm in industrial organizational economics. It has been applied to a diverse range of problems, from helping businesses become more profitable to helping governments stabilize industries.

Michael Porter's famous Five Forces of Competitive Position model provides a simple perspective for assessing and analysing the competitive strength and position of a corporation or business organization. Michael Porter's Five Forces model can be used to good analytical effect alongside other models such as the SWOT and PEST analysis tools.

Michael Porter's Five Forces model provides suggested points under each main heading, by which you can develop a broad and sophisticated analysis of competitive position, as might be used then creating strategy, plans, or making investment decisions about a business or organization.

Michael Porter's five forces

1. Existing competitive rivalry between suppliers
2. Threat of new market entrants
3. Bargaining power of buyers
4. Power of suppliers
5. Threat of substitute products (including technology change)

Intensity of competitive rivalry

For most industries, the intensity of competitive rivalry is the major determinant of the competitiveness of the industry.

- Sustainable competitive advantage through innovation
- Competition between online and offline companies
- Level of advertising expense
- Powerful competitive strategy
- Firm concentration ratio

Threat of new entrants

Profitable markets that yield high returns will attract new firms. This results in many new entrants, which eventually will decrease profitability for all firms in the industry. Unless the entry of new firms can be blocked by incumbents, the abnormal profit rate will trend towards zero (perfect competition).

- The existence of barriers to entry (patents, rights, etc.) The most attractive segment is one in which entry barriers are high and exit barriers are low. Few new firms can enter and non-performing firms can exit easily.
- Economies of product differences
- Brand equity
- Switching costs or sunk costs
- Capital requirements
- Access to distribution
- Customer loyalty to established brands
- Absolute cost
- Industry profitability; the more profitable the industry the more attractive it will be to new competitors.

Threat of substitute products or services

The existence of products outside of the realm of the common product boundaries increases the propensity of customers to switch to alternatives. For example, tap water

might be considered a substitute for Coke, whereas Pepsi is a competitor's similar product. Increased marketing for drinking tap water might "shrink the pie" for both Coke and Pepsi, whereas increased Pepsi advertising would likely "grow the pie" (increase consumption of all soft drinks), albeit while giving Pepsi a larger slice at Coke's expense. Another example is the substitute of traditional phone with VoIP phone.

- Buyer propensity to substitute
- Relative price performance of substitute
- Buyer switching costs
- Perceived level of product differentiation
- Number of substitute products available in the market
- Ease of substitution. Information-based products are more prone to substitution, as online product can easily replace material product.
- Substandard product
- Quality depreciation

Bargaining power of customers (buyers)

The bargaining power of customers is also described as the market of outputs: the ability of customers to put the firm under pressure, which also affects the customer's sensitivity to price changes.

- Buyer concentration to firm concentration ratio
- Degree of dependency upon existing channels of distribution
- Bargaining leverage, particularly in industries with high fixed costs
- Buyer switching costs relative to firm switching costs
- Buyer information availability
- Availability of existing substitute products
- Buyer price sensitivity
- Differential advantage (uniqueness) of industry products

- RFM Analysis

Bargaining power of suppliers

The bargaining power of suppliers is also described as the market of inputs. Suppliers of raw materials, components, labor, and services (such as expertise) to the firm can be a source of power over the firm, when there are few substitutes. Suppliers may refuse to work with the firm, or, e.g., charge excessively high prices for unique resources.

- Supplier switching costs relative to firm switching costs
- Degree of differentiation of inputs
- Impact of inputs on cost or differentiation
- Presence of substitute inputs
- Strength of distribution channel
- Supplier concentration to firm concentration ratio
- Employee solidarity (e.g. labor unions)
- Supplier competition - ability to forward vertically integrate and cut out the BUYER

Ex.: If you are making biscuits and there is only one person who sells flour, you have no alternative but to buy it from him.

10.6.1 Usage

Strategy consultants occasionally use Michael Porter's five forces framework when making a qualitative evaluation of a firm's strategic position. However, for most consultants, the framework is only a starting point or "checklist." They might use "Value Chain" afterward. Like all general frameworks, an analysis that uses it to the exclusion of specifics about a particular situation is considered naive.

According to Michael Porter, the five forces model should be used at the line-of-business industry level; it is not designed to be used at the industry group or industry sector level. An industry is defined at a lower, more basic level: a market in which similar or closely related products and/or services are sold to buyers. A firm that competes in a single industry should develop, at a minimum, one five forces analysis

for its industry. Porter makes clear that for diversified companies, the first fundamental issue in corporate strategy is the selection of industries (lines of business) in which the company should compete; and each line of business should develop its own, industry-specific, five forces analysis. The average Global 1,000 company competes in approximately 52 industries (lines of business).

Michael Porter is also known for his simple identification of five generic descriptions of industries:

1. Fragmented (eg, shoe repairs, gift shops)
2. Emerging (eg, space travel)
3. Mature (eg, automotive)
4. Declining (eg, solid fuels)
5. Global (eg, micro-processors)

And Porter is also particularly recognised for his competitive ‘diamond’ model, used for assessing relative competitive strength of nations, and by implication their industries:

1. Factor Conditions: production factors required for a given industry, eg., skilled labour, logistics and infrastructure.
2. Demand Conditions: extent and nature of demand within the nation concerned for the product or service.
3. Related Industries: the existence, extent and international competitive strength of other industries in the nation concerned that support or assist the industry in question.
4. Corporate Strategy, Structure and Rivalry: the conditions in the home market that affect how corporations are created, managed and grown; the idea being that firms that have to fight hard in their home market are more likely to be able to succeed in international markets.

10.6.2 Criticisms

Michael Porter’s framework has been challenged by other academics and strategists such

as Stewart Neill. Similarly, the likes of ABC, Kevin P. Coyne and Somu Subramaniam have stated that three dubious assumptions underlie the five forces:

- That buyers, competitors, and suppliers are unrelated and do not interact and collude.
- That the source of value is structural advantage (creating barriers to entry).
- That uncertainty is low, allowing participants in a market to plan for and respond to competitive behavior.

Porter indirectly rebutted the assertions of other forces, by referring to innovation, government, and complementary products and services as “factors” that affect the five forces Michael Porter’s five forces model.

10.7 TARGETING

Targeting refers to a concept in marketing which helps the marketers to divide the market into small units comprising of like minded people. Such segmentation helps the marketers to design specific strategies and techniques to promote a product amongst its target market. A target market refers to a group of individuals who are inclined towards similar products and respond to similar marketing techniques and promotional schemes. Kellogg’s K Special mainly targets individuals who want to cut down on their calorie intake. The target market in such a case would be individuals who are obese. The strategies designed to promote K Special would not be the same in case of any other brand say Complian or Boost which majorly cater to teenagers and kids to help them in their overall development. The target market for Kellogg’s K Special would absolutely be different from Boost or Complian. The target market for Zodiac Clothing Company Limited or Louis Philippe would be the office goers whereas the target market for Levi’s would be the school and college kids. The target market for Cat moss or Giny and Jony would be kids. In simpler words, target market consists of like-minded individuals for whom an organization can afford to have similar strategies, promotional schemes and advertisements to entice them and prompt them to purchase the product. Once a company decides on its target audience, it implements various promotional strategies to make a brand popular amongst them.

Basis of Target Marketing

- Age
- Gender
- Interests
- Geographic location
- Need
- Occupation

Need of Target Marketing

- Organizations can use similar kind of strategies to promote their products within a target market.
- They can adopt a more focussed approach in case of target marketing. They know their customers well and thus can reach out to their target audience in the most effective way.

How to create Target Market

- The organization must first decide who all individuals would fit into a particular segment. A male and a female can't be kept in the same segment. The first and the foremost step is to decide on the target market.
- The next step is to identify need and preference of the target market. It is essential to find out what the target market expects from the product.
- Once the target market is decided, organizations can decide on the various strategies helpful to promote their product.

10.7.1 Target Market Selection

Target market represents a group of individuals who have similar needs, perceptions and interests. They show inclination towards similar brands and respond equally to market fluctuations. Individuals who think on the same lines and have similar preferences form the target audience. Target market includes individuals who have almost similar expectations from the organizations or marketers. Obese individuals all across the globe look forward to cutting down their calorie intake. Marketers understood their

need and came up with Kellogg's K Special which promises to reduce weight in just two weeks. The target market for Kellogg's K Special diet would include obese individuals. Individuals who sweat more would be more interested in buying perfumes and deodorants with a strong and lasting fragrance.

How to select the Target Market?

Marketers must understand the needs and expectations of the individuals to create its target market. The target audience must have similar needs, interests and expectations. Similar products and brands should entice the individuals comprising the target market. Same agencies and advertisements attract the attention of the target audience and prompt them to buy.

To select a target market, it is essential for the organizations to study the following factors:

- Understand the lifestyle of the consumers
- Age group of the individuals
- Income of the consumers
- Spending capacity of the consumers
- Education and Profession of the people
- Gender
- Mentality and thought process of the consumers
- Social Status
- Kind of environment individuals are exposed to

10.7.2 Evaluating Target Markets

The selection of target markets involves the examination of various aspects and measures of a market segment in comparison to the firm's goals and resources. Typically the firm assesses whether this particular target market logically fits with the firm's strategic direction, whether it is the best use of its resources (opportunity cost), and to what degree with a firm be able to successfully compete in the segment.

Target market selection is a very important decision for an organization as it is an integral part of their marketing strategy. As consequence, firms will typically adopt a

fairly analytical approach to target market selection and will usually use to set criteria to evaluate and assess each market.

Target market selection process

As can be seen in the following model of the full STP (segmentation, targeting and positioning) process, the selection of target markets occurs after a number of important steps. Firstly the organization defines the product/market that they are interested in, they then group consumers into different market segments using a variety of segmentation bases/variables. After the segments have been validated, segment profiles are developed. Then, using the information in the segment profile the target potential target markets are evaluated and selected, most likely by using an established model or other set of minimum requirements.

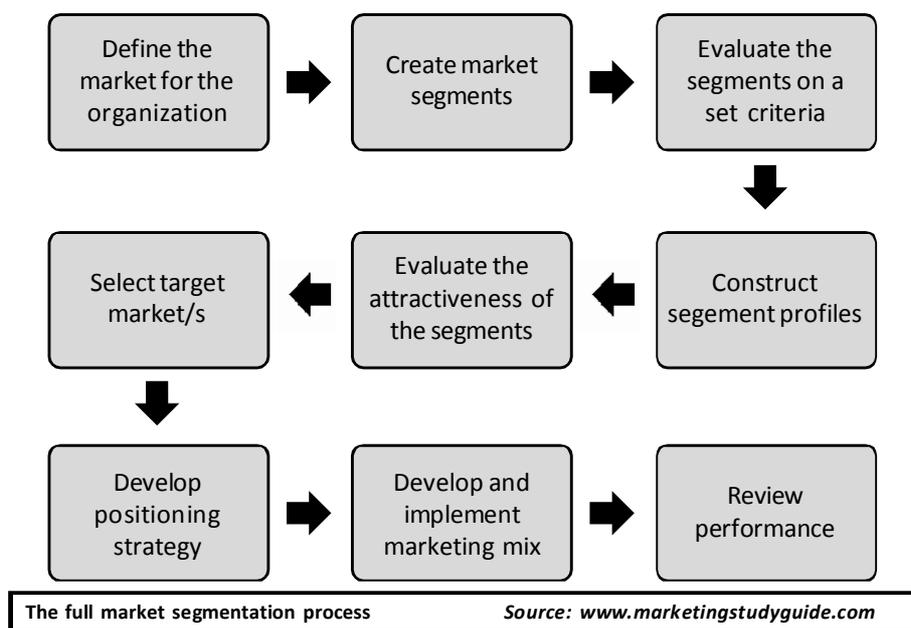


Fig. 10.5

9.5.3 Main evaluation criteria for target markets

The following table outlines the main factors that are considered when evaluating potential target markets. It is likely that many organizations will have slight variations to these factors, but the table provides a good generic guide to the key issues.

Assessment	What to consider?	What the firm is seeking
Factor		
Segment size	What is the size of the segment (mainly in terms of unit and revenue sales)? And is this substantial enough for the firm to consider entering?	Each firm is likely to have minimum size requirements for a market segment to be considered financially viable. Obviously larger firms have higher requirements.
Segment growth rate	At what rate is the segment growing (or perhaps declining)? What is its future outlook?	Segments with strong growth rates are more attractive as firms can gain market share from primary demand (as opposed to needing to win business from established competitors).
Profit margins	Is this a high profit margin segment or one that is price competitive?	Pursuing new target markets typically requires significant marketing investment, so target markets with higher profit margins are always more attractive.
Structural Attractiveness		
Competitors	How dominant are the established competitors? What degree of competitive rivalry exists? Are there significant indirect competitors (or close substitute products)?	Generally firms do not want to compete in markets where there are dominant market leaders, as they tend to be quite aggressive to new competitors. Therefore, target markets with a fragmented competition position are often preferred. Obviously the lower the level of competitive rivalry the better with limited in direct

		competition. Note: Porter's five forces model could be used to assist this style of analysis.
Distribution channels	How easy would it be to gain access to the appropriate distribution channels? What level of new investment would be required in this regard?	Strong relationships between the current firms in the distribution channel would be of concern. The ability to establish suitable channel relationships needs to be evident.
Strategic Direction		
Strategy	How well does the proposed target market fit with the firm's strategic direction and growth goals?	As part of the firm's mission and strategy statement, a clear direction of the future of the organization is generally understood and planned out. Therefore, the target market needs to contribute to the firm's strategic future.
Goals	What does the firm have high or low growth expectations	The firms with higher growth goals are more likely to adopt a multiple target market strategy and will, therefore, be more willing to enter new markets.
Marketing Expertise		
Resources	Does the firm have the financial position and staff resources to successfully enter in this segment?	Firms seek target markets where they can enter with a comfortable level of investment, in terms of: financial investment, staff time, and the potential disruption to the balance of their business.

Capability	Does the firm have the capability to develop appropriate products in a supportive marketing mix	Firms will naturally seek target markets where they can leverage their existing skills, capabilities, and technologies. Target markets that require the firm to develop new expertise are generally best avoided.
Role of brand	Would the firm be required to create a new brand, or could an existing brand be leveraged into the new target market, or is brand relatively unimportant?	Establishing a new brand requires time and money, so that requirement reduces the attractiveness of a segment. As does the risk to a brand of leveraging in into a lower status segment, such as when targeting budget conscious consumers.
Opportunity Cost		
G r o w t h options	What is a range of other opportunities available for growth to the firm	Market development (new target markets) is simply one growth. An organization could also consider market penetration, product development, and even diversification or acquisition. Therefore, given the growth choices available, is the new target market the best option at this time?

Table 10.1

10.8 POSITIONING

Positioning is the final main phase of the overall STP process (which stands for segmentation, targeting and positioning). Positioning is typically more important in cluttered and competitive markets, particularly for low-involvement purchase decisions.

10.8.1 Process of Positioning

The process of creating an image of a product in the minds of the consumers is called as positioning. Positioning helps to create first impression of brands in the minds of target audience. In simpler words positioning helps in creating a perception of a product or service amongst the consumers.

Example

The brand “Bisleri” stands for purity.

The brand “Ceat Tyre” stands for better grip.

10.8.2 Steps of product Positioning

Marketers with the positioning process try to create a unique identity of a product amongst the customers.

1. Know your target audience well

It is essential for the marketers to first identify the target audience and then understand their needs and preferences. Every individual has varied interests, needs and preferences. No two individuals can think on the same lines. The products must fulfil the demands of the individual.

2. Identify the product features

The marketers themselves must be well aware of the features and benefits of the products. It is rightly said you can't sell something unless and until you yourself are convinced of it. A marketer selling Nokia phones should himself also use a Nokia handset for the customers to believe him.

3. Unique selling Propositions

Every product should have USPs; at least some features which are unique. The organizations must create USPs of their brands and effectively communicate the same

to the target audience. The marketers must themselves know what best their product can do. Find out how the products can be useful to the end-users ?

Why do people use “Anti Dandruff Shampoo?”

Anti Dandruff Shampoos are meant to get rid of dandruff. This is how the product is positioned in the minds of the individuals.

Individuals purchase “Dabur Chyawanprash “to strengthen their body’s internal defense mechanism and fight against germs, infections and stress. That’s the image of Dabur Chyawanprash in the minds of consumers.

USP of a Nokia Handset - Better battery backup.

USP of Horlicks Foodies - Healthy snack

Communicate the USPs to the target audience through effective ways of advertising. Use banners, slogans, inserts and hoardings. Let individuals know what the brand offers for them to decide what is best for them.

4. Know your competitors

- A marketer must be aware of the competitor’s offerings. Let the individuals know how your product is better than the competitors?
- Never underestimate your competitors.
- Let the target audience know how your product is better than others.
- The marketers must always strive hard to have an edge over their competitors.

5. Ways to promote brands

- Choose the right theme for the advertisement.
- Use catchy taglines.
- The advertisement must not confuse people.
- The marketer must highlight the benefits of the products.

6. Maintain the position of the brand

- For an effective positioning it is essential for the marketers to continue to live up to the expectations of the end - users.

- Never compromise on quality.
- Don't drastically reduce the price of your products.
- A Mercedes car would not be the same if its price is reduced below a certain level.
- A Rado watch would lose its charm if its price is equal to a Sonata or a Maxima Watch.

10.8.3 Positioning Categories

Brands/products can be positioned in many different ways in the marketplace. However, there are several major categories of positioning approaches, which will help us understand the range of positioning options available. The major positioning categories include:

- positioning by product attribute (product feature and/or benefit),
- positioning by user,
- positioning by product class,
- positioning versus competition,
- positioning by use/application, and
- positioning by quality or value.

Main Categories of positioning

<i>POSITIONING CATEGORY</i>	<i>DESCRIPTION</i>
By product attribute	A product attribute is a specific feature or benefit of the product. Positioning in this way focuses on one or two of the product's best features/benefits, relative to the competitive offerings.
By user	This positioning approach highlights the user (the ideal or representative target consumer) and suggests that the product is the ideal solution for that type of person and may even contribute to their social self-identity.

By product class	This positioning strategy tends to take a leadership position in the overall market. Statements with the general message of "we are the best in our field" are common.
Against competition	With this approach the firm would directly compare (or sometimes just imply), a comparison against certain well-known competitors (but not generally not the whole product class as above).
By use/application	With this approach, the product/brand is positioned in terms of how it is used in the market by consumers, indicating that the product is the best solution for that particular task/use.
By quality or value	Some firms will position products based on relative high quality, or based on the claim that they represent significant value.
By using a combination of the above options	Some products/brands are positioned using a combination of the above positioning options. However, care needs to be taken not to clutter and confuse the message by trying to connect with too many competitive advantages.

Table 10.2

Which positioning approach to use?

One of the key goals of positioning is to be able to enter an existing competitive market, by highlighting some unique features, benefits, and advantages to the end-consumer, with the goal of winning market share (often from selective demand). With this task in mind, the following table of questions can act as a guide to the selection of an appropriate positioning statement.

<i>Area to Consider</i>	<i>Questions to Ask</i>
Market gaps	Where are their gaps in the target market? Why does the gap exist? Can we fill the gap?
Substance/support	Do we have the capability to deliver on this positioning promise? Can we really produce high quality products or

	compete on price? How we will compare to our competition when we get to market?
Market need	Would this positioning space appeal to the target market? Which features/benefits are of most interest to target market?
Competitive barrier	Will this be a long-term positioning? How easily could this position be duplicated by our competitors?
Profitable	What level of sales/profits is likely to flow from this positioning? Can we develop a supportive marketing mix on a cost-effective basis?
Communication	Is the positioning statement easy to communicate via media? Will it be simply understood by the target market?

Table. 10.3

10.9 SUMMARY

Competitive marketing strategies are strongest either when they position a firm’s strengths against competitors’ weaknesses or choose positions that pose no threat to competitors. As such, they require that the strategist be as knowledgeable about competitors’ strengths and weaknesses as about customers’ needs or the firm’s own capabilities. This chapter is designed to assist the strategist understand how to gather and analyze information about competitors that is useful in the strategy development process. It discusses the objectives of competitor analysis and proceeds through the processes involved in identifying important competitors and information needs, gathering necessary information, and interpreting this information.

Michael Porter referred to these forces as the micro environment, to contrast it with the more general term macro environment. They consist of those forces close to a company that affect its ability to serve its customers and make a profit. A change in any of the forces normally requires a business unit to re-assess the marketplace given the overall change in industry information. The overall industry attractiveness does

not imply that every firm in the industry will return the same profitability. Firms are able to apply their core competencies, business model or network to achieve a profit above the industry average. A clear example of this is the airline industry. As an industry, profitability is low and yet individual companies, by applying unique business models, have been able to make a return in excess of the industry average.

10.10 GLOSSARY

Brand: A kind or variety of something distinguished by some distinctive characteristic; a mark made to identify a kind or variety of something distinguished by some distinctive characteristic

Brand equity: It refers to the marketing effects or outcomes that increase a product with its brand name compared with those that would accrue if the same product did not have the brand name

Brand loyalty: A consumer's commitment to repurchase the brand and can be demonstrated by repeated buying of a product or service or other positive behaviors such as word of mouth

Branding: The sum total of a company's value, including products, services, people, advertising, positioning, and culture

SWOT analysis: A strategic planning method used to evaluate the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats involved in a project or business.

Marketing Strategy: The set of objectives which an organisation allocates to its marketing function in order to support the overall corporate strategy, together with the broad methods chosen to achieve these objectives.

Strategic marketing: The process of pleasing customers by discovering what they want and making sure you meet their needs.

Target market: A group of individuals whom collectively are intended recipients of an advertiser's message. It is the particular segment of a total population on which the retailer focuses its merchandising expertise to satisfy that sub market in order to accomplish its profit objectives.

Target market identification: The process of using income, demographic, and life style characteristics of a market and census information for small areas to identify the most favorable locations.

Technology: The purposeful application of scientific knowledge; an environmental force that consists of inventions and innovations from applied scientific and engineering research

Target market identification: The process of using income, demographic, and life style characteristics of a market and census information for small areas to identify the most favorable locations to market a product or service.

Unique selling proposition: The unique product benefit that a competitor’s product or service can’t claim when offered to the prospective customer in an exchange transaction.

Positioning: The creation of an image for a product or service in the minds of customers, both specifically to that item and in relation to competitive offerings.

Potential market: Set of users who profess some level of interest in a designed market offer.

10.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. What do you understand by Competitor analysis? How is it done?

Q2. What are the several methods of Market Entry?

10.12 LESSON END EXERCISES

Fill in the Blanks:

1. The five Force model is given by _____
2. The full form of SWOT is _____

10.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Strategic Marketing (McGraw-Hill/Irwin Series in Marketing) by David Cravins
- Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors by Michael Porter
- Strategic Management and Business Policy. by Azhar Kazmi

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 11

PRODUCT & PRICE - MIX DECISIONS

Unit - III

PRODUCT DECISIONS, DIFFERENTIATIONS, PACKAGING AND LABELLING

STRUCTURE

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Objectives
- 11.3 What is Product?
- 11.4 Product design
- 11.5 Production decisions
- 11.6 Product strategies
- 11.7 CASE: Thailand Tuna
- 11.8 Product Characteristic
- 11.9 Product Attributes
- 11.10 Level of Product and Services
- 11.11 Product Classification
 - 11.11.1 Consumer Products
 - 11.11.2 Industrial Products
 - 11.11.3 Organizations, Persons, Place and Ideas

- 11.12 Product Involvement and Product Classification
- 11.13 Consumer Involvement and Product Classification
- 11.14 Differentiation
- 11.15 Packaging
- 11.16 Labelling
- 11.17 Importance of Packaging and Labelling
- 11.18 Packaging Types
- 11.19 Symbols and on Packages and Labels
- 11.20 Package Development Considerations
- 11.21 Summary
- 11.22 Glossary
- 11.23 Self Assessment Questions
- 11.24 Lesson End Exercise
- 11.25 Suggested Readings

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Decisions regarding the product, price, promotion and distribution channels are decisions on the elements of the “marketing mix”. It can be argued that product decisions are probably the most crucial as the product is the very epitome of marketing planning. Errors in product decisions are legion. These can include the imposition of a global standardised product where it is inapplicable, for example large horsepower tractors may be totally unsuitable for areas where small scale farming exists and where incomes are low; devolving decisions to affiliated countries which may let quality slip; and the attempt to sell products into a country without cognisance of cultural adaptation needs. The decision whether to sell globally standardised or adapted products is too

simplistic for today's market place. Many product decisions lie between these two extremes. Cognisance has also to be taken of the stage in the international life cycle, the organisation's own product portfolio, its strengths and weaknesses and its global objectives. Unfortunately, most developing countries are in no position to compete on the world stage with many manufactured value-added products. Quality, or lack of it, is often the major letdown. As indicated earlier, most developing countries are likely to be exporting raw materials or basic and high value agricultural produce for some time to come.

11.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- **examine** the basic concepts of “the product” and the importance of this concept in marketing
- **give an understanding** of the features of product design and the factors which shape the “standardization” versus “adaptation” decisions
- **describe** the production process and how value can be added in the process
- **describe** the major product strategies.

11.3 WHAT IS PRODUCT?

A product can be defined as a collection of physical, service and symbolic attributes which yield satisfaction or benefits to a user or buyer. A product is a combination of physical attributes say, size and shape and subjective attributes say image or “quality”. A customer purchases on both dimensions. As cited earlier, an avocado pear is similar the world over in terms of physical characteristics, but once the label CARMEL, for example, is put on it, the product's physical properties are enhanced by the image CARMEL creates. In “post modernisation” it is increasingly important that the product fulfills the image which the producer is wishing to project. This may involve organisations producing symbolic offerings represented by meaning laden products that chase stimulation-loving consumers who seek experience - producing situations. So, for example, selling mineral water may not be enough. It may have to be “Antarctic” in source, and flavoured. This opens up a wealth of new marketing opportunities for

producers.

A product's physical properties are characterised the same the world over. They can be convenience or shopping goods or durables and nondurables; however, one can classify products according to their degree of potential for global marketing:

- i) **Local products** - seen as only suitable in one single market.
- ii) **International products** - seen as having extension potential into other markets.
- iii) **Multinational products** - products adapted to the perceived unique characteristics of national markets.
- iv) **Global products** - products designed to meet global segments.

Quality, method of operation or use and maintenance (if necessary) are catchwords in international marketing. A failure to maintain these will lead to consumer dissatisfaction. This is typified by agricultural machinery where the lack of spares and/or foreign exchange can lead to lengthy downtimes. It is becoming increasingly important to maintain quality products based on the ISO 9000 standard, as a prerequisite to export marketing.

Consumer beliefs or perceptions also affect the "world brand" concept. World brands are based on the same strategic principles, same positioning and same marketing mix but there may be changes in message or other image. World brands in agriculture are legion. In fertilizers, brands like Norsk Hydro are universal; in tractors, Massey Ferguson; in soups, Heinz; in tobacco, BAT; in chemicals, Bayer. These world brand names have been built up over the years with great investments in marketing and production. Few world brands, however, have originated from developing countries. This is hardly surprising given the lack of resources. In some markets product saturation has been reached, yet surprisingly the same product may not have reached saturation in other similar markets. Whilst France has long been saturated by avocados, the UK market is not yet, hence raising the opportunity to enter deeper into this market.

11.4 PRODUCT DESIGN

Changes in design are largely dictated by whether they would improve the

prospects of greater sales, and this, over the accompanying costs. Changes in design are also subject to cultural pressures. The more culture-bound the product is, for example food, the more adaptation is necessary. Most products fall in between the spectrum of “standardisation” to “adaptation” extremes. The application the product is put to also affect the design. In the UK, railway engines were designed from the outset to be sophisticated because of the degree of competition, but in the US this was not the case. In order to burn the abundant wood and move the prairie debris, large smoke stacks and cowcatchers were necessary. In agricultural implements a mechanised cultivator may be a convenience item in a UK garden, but in India and Africa it may be essential equipment. As stated earlier “perceptions” of the product’s benefits may also dictate the design. A refrigerator in Africa is a very necessary and functional item, kept in the kitchen or the bar. In Mexico, the same item is a status symbol and, therefore, kept in the living room.

- Factors encouraging standardisation are:
 - i) economies of scale in production and marketing
 - ii) consumer mobility - the more consumers travel the more is the demand
 - iii) technology
 - iv) Image, for example “Japanese”, “made in”.

The latter can be a factor both to aid or to hinder global marketing development. Nagashima (1877) found the “made in USA” image has lost ground to the “made in Japan” image. In some cases “foreign made” gives advantage over domestic products. In Zimbabwe one sees many advertisements for “imported”, which gives the product advertised a perceived advantage over domestic products. Often a price premium is charged to reinforce the “imported means quality” image. If the foreign source is negative in effect, attempts are made to disguise or hide the fact through, say, packaging or labelling. Mexicans are loathe to take products from Brazil. By putting a “made in elsewhere” label on the product this can be overcome, provided the products are manufactured elsewhere even though its company maybe Brazilian.

- Factors encouraging adaptation are:

- i) Differing usage conditions - These may be due to climate, skills, level of literacy, culture or physical conditions. Maize, for example, would never sell in Europe rolled and milled as in Africa. It is only eaten whole, on or off the cob. In Zimbabwe, kapenta fish can be used as a relish, but wilt always be eaten as a “starter” to a meal in the developed countries.
- ii) General market factors - incomes, tastes etc. Canned asparagus may be very affordable in the developed world, but may not sell well in the developing world.
- iii) Government - taxation, import quotas, non tariff barriers, labelling, health requirements. Non tariff barriers are an attempt, despite their supposed impartiality, at restricting or eliminating competition. A good example of this is the Florida tomato growers, cited earlier, who successfully got the US Department of Agriculture to issue regulations establishing a minimum size of tomatoes marketed in the United States. The effect of this was to eliminate the Mexican tomato industry which grew a tomato that fell under the minimum size specified. Some non-tariff barriers may be legitimate attempts to protect the consumer, for example the ever stricter restrictions on horticultural produce insecticides and pesticides use may cause African growers a headache, but they are deemed to be for the public good.
- iv) History - Sometimes, as a result of colonialism, production facilities have been established overseas. Eastern and Southern Africa is littered with examples. In Kenya, the tea industry is a colonial legacy, as is the sugar industry of Zimbabwe and the coffee industry of Malawi. These facilities have long been adapted to local conditions.
- v) Financial considerations - In order to maximise sales or profits the organisation may have no choice but to adapt its products to local conditions.
- vi) Pressure. Sometimes, as in the case of the EU, suppliers are forced to adapt to the rules and regulations imposed on them if they wish to enter into the market.

11.5 PRODUCTION DECISIONS

In decisions on producing or providing products and services in the international market it is essential that the production of the product or service is well planned and coordinated, both within and with other functional area of the firm, particularly marketing. For example,

in horticulture, it is essential that any supplier or any of his “out grower” (sub-contractor) can supply what he says he can. This is especially vital when contracts for supply are finalised, as failure to supply could incur large penalties. The main elements to consider are the production process itself, specifications, culture, the physical product, packaging, labelling, branding, warranty and service.

The key question is, can we ensure continuity of supply? In manufactured products this may include decisions on the type of manufacturing process - artisanal, job, batch, flow line or group technology. However in many agricultural commodities factors like seasonality, perishability and supply and demand have to be taken into consideration. Table 11.1 gives a checklist of questions on product requirements for horticultural products as an example

Table 1 Checklist of questions on product requirements by market

Existing sources of supply	Recommendations for new suppliers, or increased supply
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current important suppliers? • Seasonality of supply, start of season, peak season and end of season? • Packaging specifications, weight of produce per packaging unit, type of packaging? • Grading and quality standards? • Prices obtained and net profit returned to farmer, average price, maximum and minimum prices, effect of different quality standards on price? • Problems with existing suppliers and produce? • Volumes sold daily, monthly, annually? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Best period of supply? • Type and size of packaging material? • Grading and quality standards: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *acceptable size ranges? *whether different sized produce should be packed separately or jumble-packed? *state of ripeness and should produce of the same ripeness be packed together? *acceptable level of blemishes? *important appearance characteristics such as colour, variety, shape, presence of stalks, bunch size?

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Popularity trend? • Types of buyers and consumers? • Use of crop? • Factors affecting sales, e.g. weather, special festivals, day of arrival in market? • Is the crop stored; if so where and by whom? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Budget gross and net prices? • Volumes required? • Frequency of shipment, best day and arrival time on market? • Transport arrangements, e.g. whose responsibility is it to arrange transport? • Storage arrangements, if any? Potential and techniques for developing sales?
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Table 11.1

Quantity and quality of horticultural crops are affected by a number of things. These include input supplies (or lack of them), finance and credit availability, variety (choice), sowing dates, product range and investment advice. Many of these items will be catered for in the contract of supply.

- **Specification :** Specification is very important in agricultural products. Some markets will not take produce unless it is within their specification. Specifications are often set by the customer, but agents, standard authorities (like the EU or ITC Geneva) and trade associations can be useful sources. Quality requirements often vary considerably. In the Middle East, red apples are preferred over green apples. In one example French red apples, well boxed, are sold at 55 dinars per box, whilst not so attractive Iranian greens are sold for 28 dinars per box. In export the quality standards are set by the importer. In Africa, Maritim (1891)², found, generally, that there are no consistent standards for product quality and grading, making it difficult to do international trade regionally.

- **Culture :** Product packaging, labeling, physical characteristics and marketing have to adapt to the cultural requirements when necessary. Religion, values, aesthetics,

language and material culture all affect production decisions. Effects of culture on production decisions have been dealt with already in chapter three.

- Physical product : The physical product is made up of a variety of elements. These elements include the physical product and the subjective image of the product. Consumers are looking for benefits and these must be conveyed in the total product package. Physical characteristics include range, shape, size, color, quality, quantity and compatibility. Subjective attributes are determined by advertising, self image, labelling and packaging. In manufacturing or selling produce, cognisance has to be taken of cost and country legal requirements.

Again a number of these characteristics is governed by the customer or agent. For example, in beef products sold to the EU there are very strict quality requirements to be observed. In fish products, the Japanese demand more “exotic” types than, say, would be sold in the UK. None of the dried fish products produced by the Zambians on Lake Kariba, and sold into the Lusaka market, would ever pass the hygiene laws if sold internationally. In sophisticated markets like seeds, the variety and range is so large that constant watch has to be kept on the new strains and varieties in order to be competitive.

11.6 PRODUCT STRATEGIES

A product strategy is the ultimate vision of the product, as it states where the product will end up. By setting a product strategy, you can determine the direction of your product efforts.

Similar to making effective use of a map, you first need a destination, and then you can plan your route. Just as a business has a strategic vision of what it wants to be when it grows up, the product has its own strategy and destination.

- Why is a product strategy important?

The product strategy forms the basis for executing a product roadmap and subsequent product releases. The product strategy enables the company to focus on a specific target market and feature set, instead of trying to be everything to everyone.

- Elements of a product strategy

When defining your product strategy be sure to answer the following questions. Each question below links to an article that further develops the topic, so make sure to review the linked articles as you create your strategy.

Who are you selling to? Define your target customer or market. Identify whom you are selling to, and what that market looks like.

- What are you selling? Describe how potential customers will perceive your product compared to competitive products. Understand what makes your product unique in the market .
- What value do you provide your customers? Determine what problems your product solves for customers. You cannot be everything to everyone within a particular market, but you can help to solve specific problems. Create a value proposition to position the value you provide and the benefits that customers will receive with your solution.
- How will you price your product? State how you will price the product. Include its perceived value and a pricing model.
- How will you distribute your product? Describe how you will sell your product, and how your target market will acquire your product.
- Creating your product strategy

To create your product strategy, start with identifying the market problems you would like to solve. This includes interviewing your target market, understanding the competitive landscape and identifying how you will differentiate yourself.

The product strategy of an organisation will change over time as it learn more about the market, and as (if) it decide to enter different markets. Listening to the market and developing a product strategy is a circular process; as an organisation learn more, it will evolve its product strategy and the problems can be solved easily.

Example—product strategy

The following is a brief example of a product strategy. Your product strategy will vary, and will probably be longer, but should follow the theme of the five questions above.

- We build quality kitchen hardware for residential kitchen customers.
- Our customers are young North American families who want kitchen hardware that can stand the wear and tear of young children. They are interested in materials that are safe for children and eco-friendly.
- We sell our products through a retail channel.
- Our products are priced per unit, and are considered “high-end” hardware solutions.

The power of a product strategy comes from what you define as well as what you exclude. By identifying a particular target market in your product strategy, you are also excluding other markets. This helps your company to understand which projects fall outside the product strategy and distract from strategic goals.

11.7 CASE - THAILAND TUNA

The case of Thai Tuna is a good example of the fifth product strategy alternative. In 1880 world canned tuna imports stood at some 110,000 tons, world consumption was stagnant, prices depressed and rising operating costs were leading to the closure of the tuna processing facilities in the US, Japan and Europe. However, up to 1890, world tuna imports quadrupled to 437,000 tons with large scale canning operations shifting to several lower cost developing countries.

No country experienced the dramatic development more than Thailand. In 1880 it did not export one single can. In 1890, Thailand exported 225,000 tons (51% of world market share) with a gross value in 1889 of US\$ 537 million. The Thai industry development was rapid and interesting because it was based on imported raw materials. Tuna landings by Thai vessels rarely exceeded 30,000 tons, whilst its imports of foreign tuna (mostly skipjack) have increased past the 250,000 ton mark. The reason for this was the shift in fishing patterns. Historically the eastern Atlantic and Pacific were the

most important areas but in the 1870s, US vessels began to exploit the tuna shoals of the Western Pacific and European vessels the Indian Ocean. The result was the increase of landings from 1,7 million tons in 1880 to 2,5 million tons in 1888, but a significant drop in prices accompanied this increase. Thailand was in a position to capitalise on these new low cost suppliers and in the early to mid 1880s several fruit and vegetable canners and other entrepreneurs invested in large modern processing facilities especially for fish. Their operating costs were kept low by efficient management, low cost labour, backward integration into production and the efficient use of by products from processing. This was basically an “invention” product strategy. In order to gain access to and capitalise on the expanding markets in the US and Europe (except France which favoured Francophone African suppliers) Thai canners entered into packaging arrangements with American and European firms. Latter, Thailand’s largest processor look over the third largest tuna canner in the US, enabling it to take advantage of the latter’s exclusive distribution network and well-established brand names.

As well as the above, organisations have also to consider the international product life cycle (described in section one) and the “fit” of the strategy into the company’s portfolio, strengths and weaknesses. In launching new products into international markets, the international product life cycle concept is crucial. Comparative analysis is a very useful technique also for new product introduction. The idea behind this concept is that if underlying conditions existing in one country are similar to those in another then there is a likelihood of a product being successfully introduced. On the other hand, again as indicated in chapter one, the international life cycle can work against domestic producers. The introduction of a second country product into a first country which has had a “closed economy” can sometimes kill off local production if that local producer cannot respond to the imported product’s competitiveness. The case of Sunsplash Zimbabwe is an example.

Product decisions epitomise marketing planning and are the manifestation of marketing strategy. These decisions are not to be taken lightly. The end consumer and channel considerations have to be taken into account and the product extended or adapted accordingly.

11.8 PRODUCT CHARACTERISTIC

Product characteristics are characterized differently in different literature. Product characteristics vary with the change in the domain of concern under study. Product quality is swiftly becoming a major competitive issue these days and emerging as a prime consideration in terms of evaluating product characteristics. The greater reliability of Japanese products has triggered considerable introspection among American counterparts (Abernathy W. I., Clark K. B., and Kantrow A. M., 1983). In recent studies, managers classified “producing to high quality standards” as a prime concern (O. Miller, 1983).

Despite that, the academic literature on the quality of products has not been reviewed widely. Scholars scattered into four disciplines - economics, marketing, philosophy, and operations management — considered this phenomenon, but each cluster has viewed it from an antithetic point. Like Philosophy has focused on definitional issues; whereas economics looked upon profit maximization and economic equilibrium; besides that marketing has taken care of the factors of consumer behavior and consumer satisfaction; and operations management looked after engineering and manufacturing practices. The results have been a performer of competing perspectives, where each discipline based on a different analytical framework and employing its own terminology.

- Approaches to Define Quality

Five key approaches to the description of product quality can be identified in academic literature: (1) the user-based approach of economics; (2) the product-based approach of economics; (3) the transcendent approach of philosophy; (4) value-based approaches marketing and (5) the manufacturing-based approach of operations management (Garvin, D.A. 1984).

11.9 PRODUCT ATTRIBUTES

The basic elements of product attributes and quality are as follows:

- Performance
- Features
- Reliability
- Conformance

Durability

• Performance

• **Performance:** Garvin, D. A. (1884) puts performance at the top of the list of product attributes in terms of quality. He refers performance to the core operating characteristics of a product or service. For automobiles, this would be characterized like acceleration, handling, cruising speed, and ease; whereas, for a television set, it would include sound and picture lucidity, color and ability to catch distant stations. This facet of product quality integrates the elements of both the product-based and user-based approaches. Quantifiable product attributes are caught up and brands can be classified objectively on, at least, one dimension of performance. The correlation between performance and quality, yet, is more unclear. Whether performance difference is supposed as superiority difference depends upon individual preferences. Users, in a typical manner, have an extensive range of interests and needs; each is apt to equate quality with high performance in one's area of immediate interest. The association between performance and quality is also influenced by semantics; among the words that express product performance are terms that are frequently linked with quality and terms that fail to carry the connection. For instance, a 100-watt light bulb gives advanced candle power than a 60-watt bulb; however, a few consumers will regard this difference as a dimension to measure quality. The products mostly belong to different performance ranks. The smoothness and comfort of an automobile's ride, however, is characteristically viewed as a direct manifestation of its quality. Comfort is, therefore, a performance dimension that simply translates into quality, whereas candlepower is not. These differences come out to reveal the rule of English language to the extent that they do personal preferences.

Besides that, there is a clear comparison to Lancaster's theory of buyers demand. This theory is based upon two propositions: All goods hold intended characteristics relevant to the choices which consumers make among different herd of goods. This association between a good and the characteristics, which it possesses, is fundamentally a technical relationship, depending upon the objective characteristics of the product.

Individuals differ in their reaction towards different characteristics of products, rather than in their assessments of these characteristics of products. It is those characteristics

in which consumers are fascinated the various characteristics can be seen as each endeavoring to satisfy some kind of “want. “ Consequently, in these terms, the performance would match to its objective characteristics, while the link between performance and quality would reflect individual reactions.

- **Features:** Product features is the second dimension of product quality. The former approach can be applied to product features. Features, principally, are the “bells and whistles” of a good, these secondary characteristics that harmonize the product’s basic functioning instances include free drinks on an airplane flight, automatic tuners on a color television set and permanent press as well as cotton cycles on a washing machine. In many instances, the line differentiating primary product characteristics (performance) and secondary characteristics (features) is complex to draw. Features, as product doing something successfully and delivering value to customer, involve objective and measurable attributes; its conversion into quality differences is likewise affected by individual preferences. The distinction between these two characteristics is, primarily, important to the users.

- **Reliability:** Reliability is another dimension that articulates quality of a product. Among the most widespread measures of reliability are the average time to first failure, the average time between failures, and the failure rate per unit. As these measures call for a product to be used for some period, these are more pertinent to durable goods than to products consumed right away. Japanese manufacturers, in general, pay immense notice to this dimension, and have used it to attain a competitive edge in the consumer electronics, automotive, semiconductor, and copying machine industries etc.

- **Conformance:** Conformance is another related dimension of product quality. It is defined as the point to which a product and/or service’s designs and operating characteristics offset pre-established standards. Both internal and external fundamentals are involved. For instance, within the factory, conformance is usually measured up by the incidence of defects: the amount of all units that fail to meet specifications, and require rework or repair. In the field, data on conformance are often difficult to gain, and proxies are often used. Two common measures are the incidence of service

summons a product and the frequency of repairs under guarantee. These measures, while evocative, disregard other deviations from standard, which do not lead to service or repair. A supplementary comprehensive measure of conformance is requisite if these items are to be counted.

Both reliability and conformance are closely connected to the manufacturing-based approach to quality. Improvements in both measures are in general viewed as translating directly into quality gains since defects and field failures are regarded as unwanted by virtually all consumers. They are, therefore, comparatively objective measures of quality, and are less likely to mirror individual preferences than are rankings based upon performance or features.

- **Durability:** Durability, a scale dimension that gauge of product life, has both economic and technical scope. Technically, durability can be viewed as the amount of use one gets from a product before it physically weakens. A light bulb produces the perfect example at this point in time: after so many hours of utilization, the filament burns up and the bulb must be substituted but repair is next to impossible. Economists call such products “one-hoss shays.” and have used them extensively in modeling production and consumption of capital goods.

Durability becomes more difficult to elucidate when repair is doable. Then the concepts deal with an additional dimension. Durability turns into the sum of use one gets from a product or service before it collapses and replacement is treated as preferable to continued repair. Plus, consumers are faced with a set of choices each time a product fails: they must weigh the cost of future repairs along with the investments and operating expenses of a newer and more steadfast model. In these instances, a product's life is influenced by repair costs, personal evaluations of convenience and time, losses caused by downtime, relative prices, and additional economic variables. This approach has two important implications. First, it implies that durability and reliability are closely allied. A product that fails commonly is likely to be replaced earlier than one which is more reliable; repair costs will be, in the same way, higher, and the purchase of a new model will come out much more desirable. Second, this advocates that durability figures should be inferred with concern. A shift in product life may not be attributable to technical improvements or to the utilization of longer-lived materials; the principal

economic environment may simply have misrepresented, such as, the expected life of automobiles has risen progressively over the last decade, and now have a average of fourteen years. Older automobiles are held for longer ages and have become a greater percentage of all cars in use. Among these factors that are thought to be responsible for changes growing gasoline prices and a weak economy have abridged the average number of miles driven per year, and federal regulations governing gas mileage. These have resulted in a drop of the size of new models and an augment in the attractiveness to many customers of retaining older cars. In this instance, environmental changes have been to blame for much of the increase in durability.

11.10 LEVELS OF PRODUCT AND SERVICES

1). **The core product** is the core, problem solving benefits that consumers are really buying when they obtain a product or service. It answers the question what is the buyer really buying?

2). **The actual product** may have as many as five characteristics that combine to deliver core product benefits. They are:

- a) Quality level.
- b) Features.
- c) Design.
- d) Brand name.
- e) Packaging.

3) **The augmented product** includes any additional consumer services and benefits built around the core and actual products. Therefore, a product is more than a simple set of tangible features. Consumers tend to see products as complex bundles of benefits that satisfy their needs. When developing products, marketers must: identify the core consumer needs that the product will satisfy; design the actual product and finally; find ways to augment the product in order to create the bundle of benefits that will best satisfy consumer's desires for an experience. The product, for example, a Sony camcorder is an actual product. Its name, parts, styling, features, packaging, and other attributes have all been combined carefully to deliver the core benefit-a convenient, high-quality way to capture important moments. Sony must offer more

than just a camcorder. It must provide consumers with a complete solution to their picture-taking problems. Thus, when consumers buy a Sony camcorder, Sony and its dealers also might give buyers a warranty on parts and workmanship, instructions on how to use the camcorder, quick repair services when needed, and a toll-free telephone number to call if they have problems or questions (augmented level). Therefore, a product is more than a simple set of tangible features. Consumers tend to see products as complex bundles of benefits that satisfy their needs. When developing products, marketers first must identify the core consumer needs the product will satisfy. They must then design the actual product and find ways to augment it in order to create the bundle of benefits that will best satisfy consumers.

11.11 PRODUCT CLASSIFICATION

There are three basic types of product classifications. **Durable products** are used to over an extended period of time. **Nondurable products** are more quickly consumed, usually in a single use or a few usage occasions. ‘Pure’ Services are activities or benefits offered for sale which are intangible, inseparable from the consumer, perishable in that they are experiential and do not result in ownership of anything. Either consumer or industrial customers can buy each of these products. **Consumer products** are sold to the final end-user for personal consumption.

Individuals and other organizations to use in their administrative or processing operations buy business-to-business products. Industrial products are the most widely used of these products and consist of consumables such as paper clips or raw materials that are converted to finished products. Let us discuss these classifications in detail:

11.11.1 Consumer Products

Consumer products are those bought by final consumers for personal consumption. Marketers usually classify these goods further based on how consumers go about buying them. Consumer products include **convenience products, shopping products, specialty products, and unsought products**. These products differ in the ways consumers buy them and therefore in how they are marketed

- **Convenience products** are consumer products and services that the customer

usually buys frequently, immediately, and with a minimum of comparison and buying effort. Examples include soap, candy, newspapers, and fast food. Convenience products are usually low priced, and marketers place them in many locations to make them readily available when customers need them.

- **Shopping products** are less frequently purchased consumer products and services that customers compare carefully on suitability, quality, price, and style. When buying shopping products and services, consumers spend much time and effort in gathering information and making comparisons. Examples include furniture, clothing, used cars, major appliances, and hotel and motel services.
- **Shopping products** marketers usually distribute their products through fewer outlets but provide deeper sales support to help customers in their comparison efforts.
- **Specialty products** are consumer products and services with unique characteristics or brand identification for which a significant group of buyers is willing to make a special purchase effort. Examples include specific brands and types of cars, high priced photographic equipment, designer clothes, and the services of medical or legal specialists. A Lamborghini automobile, for example, is a specialty product because buyers are usually willing to travel great distances to buy one. Buyers normally do not compare specialty products. They invest only the time needed to reach dealers carrying the wanted products.
- **Unsought products** are consumer products that the consumer either does not know about or knows about but does not normally think of buying. Most major new innovations are unsought until the consumer becomes aware of them through advertising. Classic examples of known but unsought products and services are life insurance and blood donations to the Red Cross. By their very nature, unsought products require a lot of advertising, personal selling, and other marketing efforts.

11.11.2 Industrial Products

Industrial products are those purchased for further processing or for use in conducting a business. Thus, the distinction between a consumer product and an industrial product is based on the purpose for which the product is bought. If a

consumer buys a lawn mower for use around home, the lawn mower is a consumer product. If the same consumer buys the same lawn mower for use in a landscaping business, the lawn mower is an industrial product. The three groups of industrial products and services include materials and parts, capital items, and supplies and services. **Materials and parts** include raw materials and manufactured materials and parts. Raw materials consist of farm products (wheat, cotton, livestock, fruits, vegetables) and natural products (fish, lumber, crude petroleum, iron ore). Manufactured materials and parts consist of component materials (iron, yarn, cement, wires) and component parts (small motors, tires, castings). Most manufactured materials and parts are sold directly to industrial users. Price and service are the major marketing factors; branding and advertising tend to be less important. The demand for industrial products is derived from the demand for consumer products. This is known as “derived demand.” **Capital items** are industrial products that aid in the buyer’s production or operations, including installations and accessory equipment. Installations consist of major purchases such as buildings (factories, offices) and fixed equipment (generators, drill presses, large computer systems, elevators). Accessory equipment includes portable factory equipment and tools (hand tools, lift trucks) and office equipment (fax machines, desks). They have a shorter life than installations and simply aid in the production process.

The final group of business products is **supplies and services**. Supplies include operating supplies (lubricants, coal, paper, pencils) and repair and maintenance items (paint, nails, brooms). Supplies are the convenience products of the industrial field because they are usually purchased with a minimum of effort or comparison. Business services include maintenance and repair services (window cleaning, computer repair) and business advisory services (legal, management consulting, advertising). Such services are usually supplied under contract.

11.11.3 Organizations, Persons, Places and Ideas

In addition to tangible products and services, in recent years marketers have broadened the concept of a product to include other “marketable entities” namely, organizations, persons, places, and ideas. Organizations often carry out activities to “sell” the

organization itself Organization marketing consists of activities undertaken to create, maintain, or change the attitudes and behavior of target consumers towards an organization. Both profit and nonprofit organizations practice organizational marketing. People can also be thought of as products. Person marketing consists of activities undertaken to create, maintain, or change attitudes or behavior toward particular people. All kinds of people and organizations practice person marketing. Ideas can also be marketed. In one sense, all marketing is the marketing of an idea, whether it is the general idea of brushing your teeth or the specific idea that Crest provides the most effective decay prevention.

11.12 PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT AND PRODUCT CLASSIFICATION

Several studies of consumer behavior have examined product involvement, which pertains to feelings of inherent needs, values, enthusiasm and interest toward product categories. These stances are evidenced in consumer tendencies to affix more importance to specific products and knowledge of attributes and brands. Empirical research has established that product involvement is positively associated with brand perception and preference. Involvement with a product is hence an important factor in amplification why a consumer chooses a specific brand. When a product is professed as high involvement, consumers will hold in a more active information search and consider a larger variety of alternatives in their buying decision-making process. In contrast, when a product is perceived as low involvement, consumers perceive relatively less differentiation between alternatives. For the low-involvement products, consumers demonstrate little preference for a particular brand and, instead, consider low price to be a significant product attribute.

Price is, accordingly, important in low-involvement product purchases. Because utilitarian value is the largest part appealing factor of private brand products, it is generally assumed that private brands are more appealing in low-involvement product categories. On the other hand, the general belief has been empirically examined by only a few studies. Baltas (1897) calculated the “importance of getting the right brand” as a pointer of involvement, and found that a negative connection between involvement and store brand proneness. Miquel et al. (1902) contradicted conservative belief

concerning product involvement and private brand proneness and stated that an increase in product involvement took on to the purchase of a store brand rather than a national brand.

11.13 CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT AND PRODUCT CLASSIFICATION

The degree of consumer involvement in a product category has widely been recognised as a major variable relevant to strategy. Thus, to know the level of consumer involvement is very important to a manager. However, how can a manager know whether a group of consumers has high or low involvement in a product category? Many researchers have proposed measurement scales to divide consumers into various levels of involvement with product categories and explored their behaviour. Some literature has suggested that a person could be involved with products. Involvement with products has been hypothesised to lead to a greater perception of attribute differences, greater product importance, and greater commitment to brand choice. Hupfer and Gardner (1871) rated products using an eight-point concentric scale relating the product importance in the subject's life. Other researchers measured the importance of a particular brand or product to the level of involvement. Zaichkowsky (1885) developed the systematic relative conception and methods and then proposed the PH scale (Personal Involvement Inventory) which has been successfully used by many researchers to measure the level of consumer involvement since it effectively meets the standards for internal reliability, reliability over time, content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. Many researchers measured the level of consumer involvement for product categories and divided the products by the various involvement groups.

Peterson et al., (1897), propose another classification system. In this system the products and services are categorized along three dimensions: **cost and frequency of purchase, value proposition and degree of differentiation**. Goods in the first dimension range from low cost, frequently purchased goods to high cost infrequently purchased goods. The usefulness of this dimension lies in that it highlights the differences in transaction and distribution costs. For example, if a frequently purchased, low cost good, such as milk, requires physical delivery, there is less likely to be benefit in using

the technology like internet. The value proposition dimension classifies goods according to their tangibility. Products are classified as tangible and physical or intangible and service related. The third dimension, differentiation, deals with how well the seller has been able to create a sustainable competitive advantage through differentiation.

11.14 DIFFERENTIATION

Today, many companies offer the same products and services. It may seem pointless to try to compete in an environment in which numerous other companies are already offering the same product or service you wish to sell. However, new companies often do come into the market place and successfully sell products and services that already existed in that market place. They are able to compete because they use product differentiation.

Product differentiation is a specific kind of business and marketing strategy. It focuses on a target market in which competitors already offer similar products or services. A company that uses product differentiation tries to create the perception among certain target customers that the company's version of this product or service is some how different and thus has added value that is not available from competitors.

Product differentiation is extremely important to running any kind of business. This is due to economic principals that have been demonstrated time and time again in nearly every market place. If the public perceives no difference between two competing products, then the only possible means of competition is through pricing.

In a situation such as this, products are viewed by customers as very easy substitutes for one another. If one product is more expensive than the other, the customer will simply purchase the cheaper product. She does this because she views no difference between them.

To compete, the company with the higher price will lower its price to the same level as the competition. Eventually, another company may ignore the standard price in the market and offer the same product at an even lower price. The other competitors have no choice but to lower their prices as well. They have to or they will lose their business. Eventually, this leads to a situation in which the prices are lowered to the point where no business in the market can make a profit off of that product.

Situations such as these present themselves in markets where products are relatively similar. For example, people generally don't consider one brand of peas inherently superior to another. Due to this fact, they are likely to just purchase the cheapest brand. Entering into a business such of this doesn't seem like a lucrative proposition. Gaining market share and producing a sizable profit will be very difficult.

The answer to this problem based on economic principals is to make your product seem different [rom the competition. If the customers do perceive a difference, one product is less likely to be a perfect substitute for another.

The ways a product can be differentiated from the competition are numerous. However, actual physical alteration of the product is not always necessary. For example, with the previous pea example, there seems to be little space for altering the actual product. A pea will generally be the same no matter where or how it's harvested.

However, today, many consumers are highly conscious of the environment. They may, for example, be against the use of chemical pesticides and fertilizers in farming due to the effect that those chemicals can have on animals, plants, and human beings. These consumers tend to prefer purchasing what is known as organic vegetables that are harvested without the use of these synthetic chemicals.

If a grocer offers peas that are labeled as having been organically grown, product differentiation from peas that do not carry this label has been achieved. One may be hard pressed to find a difference by simply comparing the appearance of an organic pea to a non-organic grown pea. However, since the consumer perceives a difference between the peas due to this organic label, the non-organically grown peas cannot be a substitute. In this situation, the shopper who must have organically grown vegetables is much more likely to pay a premium for those organic peas.

Thus, through this product differentiation, the businesses that grow and sell these peas have escaped a situation in which they would only be competing in the market on the basis of price alone. Making a sizable profit in a crowded market place is once again possible.

Products can be differentiated through many different ways. This differentiation may for example take the form of different packaging. For example, certain beer drinkers may be receptive to a different can design with a wider mouth. It can also take the form of marketing. For example, a cell phone company may offer the same services to all age groups. However, it may target certain kinds of cell phones to teenagers and others to senior citizens.

The possibilities are nearly limitless. As long as a business can come up with a creative way to differentiate its product or service, gaining a competitive advantage is possible.

As a product is made up of three levels: the core product, the actual product and the augmented product. Product differentiation deals with making changes in the marketing mix of a product so as to differentiate it from whatever the competition is offering OR to offer a product which stands out in the market.

To make it simple, compare two products of completely unrelated categories. Coca Cola and Apple. Coca cola has had numerous competitors, direct or indirect, in the cola market over years (Pepsi being strongest amongst them). But the reason it is still the top brand is because of the value it provides, its brand equity along with its distribution network. This becomes an example of a product which wants to differentiate itself from its competition. On the other hand we have a company like Apple. Apple too has direct and indirect competition. But apple is known to make innovative products such that it has a completely unique selling proposition. Apple's product are differentiated directly at the core level. This is the reason why Apple receives so much respect in the technology market and so much love from its users.

Thus you can differentiate a product on any level. Core, actual or augmented. With the markets evolving, each sector is slowly showing saturation in the number of products it has, be it consumer durables, IT, FMCG or any other. Thus to come out of this saturation level, companies generally opt for product differentiation. There are several ways to achieve product differentiation.

Form - A product can be differentiated based on the form of the product. The physical structure, size and shape of the product can be used to differentiate it from others. Take an example of any medicine. A medicine can be differentiated from that of its

competition by the means of its potency, its usability, the way it can be taken (intravenous or oral) so on and so forth. Thus the way the product is made can be a type of product differentiation.

Features - Any additional features being offered on top of the product becomes a plus point for the customer. The best example for differentiation based on features is Mobile phones, handsets or any technology product. They are differentiated mainly by the number of customizations or the additional features that they offer. Thus features can be a form of Product differentiation.

Performance quality - Why is a BMW costlier than other cars? Because it has superior performance. Why is a formula 1 racing car costlier than a BMW? Because an F1 car has an even higher performance as compared to a BMW. Thus performance increases price. Similarly, your competition can present a product which does not perform as well but is available at half the price. Naturally, some of your customers might shift to the competition. This is not true for all customers. Some customers will be looking out for the superior quality products only. Thus you can do product differentiation on the basis of the performance of your product.

Durability - In the tough and competitive laptop market, there are some laptops which stand out. These are the ones made for mountaineers and harsh environment researcher. Their cost is very high as compared to normal laptops. But by producing such a product, they have completely differentiated themselves from the market. Kitchen equipment's, vehicles, sometimes even the shoes you wear, people want things which are durable and can be used for a long term.

Reliability - Do you know why a Volvo sells in the market? The name of Volvo is almost synonymous with safety. Volvo manufactures the most safe and reliable vehicles in the world. That is why their buses are so famous. Therefore it is not surprising that Volvo also sells at a premium. This is because, here the product differentiation is on the basis of Reliability, one of the most valued assets a brand can have.

Style - Harley Davidson. Gucci, Tommy hilfiger, Lamborghini, Ferrari, Longines, Omega. Each brand has a style of its own and that is why each brand has a differentiation of its own. You will never find a Harley davidson guy wearing a tommy

hilfiger. Its not that they aren't rich. Its just that the two brands don't go together in style. This is where these brands are able to achieve product differentiation.

Service - In all the above examples i have been talking of tangible products. But what about the intangible ones. Well even the services need to be differentiated. This is mainly done by the use of People, physical evidence and the processes used in a service organization. For more knowledge on these, read my article on service marketing mix. The bottom line is this have the right people with the right ambiance and the right kind of service and you are sure to do well and differentiate yourself from the crowd.

Significance

Offered under different brands by competing firms, products fulfilling the same need typically do not have identical features. The differentiation of goods along key features and minor details is an important strategy for firms to defend their price from levelling down to the bottom part of the price spectrum and prevent other firms from supplying the same good to the same consumers.

Within firms, product differentiation is the way multi-product firms build their own supplied products' range.

At market level, differentiation is the way through which the quality of goods is improved over time thanks to innovation. Launching new goods with entirely new performances is a radical change, often leading to changes in market shares and industry structures.

In an evolutionary sense, differentiation is a strategy to adapt to a moving environment and its social groups.

Vertical differentiation

Vertical differentiation occurs in a market where the several goods that are present can be ordered according to their objective quality from the highest to the lowest. It's possible to say in this case that one good is "better" than another.

Vertical differentiation can be obtained:

1. along one decisive feature;

- 2. along a few features, each of which has a wide possible range of (continuous or discrete) values;
- 3. across a large number of features, each of which has only a presence/ absence “flag”.

In the second and third cases, it is possible to find out a product that is better than another one according to one criteria but worse than it in respect to another feature. This generates tensions and trade-offs, with competing firms trying to highlight the importance of the feature their goods are stronger in. For instance, green products have a lower (or zero) negative impact on the environment, whereas they may be turn out to be inferior to conventional products under other axes of differentiation.

Vertical differentiation is a property of the supplied goods but, as it is maybe needless to say, the perceived difference in quality by different consumer will play a crucial role in the purchase decisions.

In particular, potential consumers can have a biased perception of the features of the good (say because of advertising or social pressure and cultural conditioning).

Vertical product differentiation examples include products with ranked ingredients (e.g. in descending order: olive oil, mais oil, palm oil, mixed oils) or dyctomous materials (e.g. fake vs. original assembled parts).

When evaluating a real market, a good starting point is a top-down grid of interpretation, we shall present first in 3 segments.

Class	Price	Crucial feature
Low	<i>Low</i>	The price is low, the product simply works
Middle	<i>Middle</i>	Use of the good is comfortable. Most people use it. Mass market brand
High	<i>High</i>	Quality, exclusivity, durability (= low life-long price)

To this basic classification, one should add two intermediate classes:

Class	Price	Crucial feature
Middle-low	<i>Low</i>	The cheapest nation-wide brand
Middle-high	<i>Middle</i>	The cheapest product of high quality

Two extreme classes should finally be added:

Class	Price	Crucial feature
Extremely low	<i>Very Low</i>	It usually does not work, it does not last, and it has important defects
Extremely High	<i>Very high</i>	Exclusivity, non practical, status symbol

In this way, you can vertically position different brands and product versions, also using clues from advertising campaigns.

If you compare widely different goods fulfilling the same (highly-relevant) need, you may distinguish at the extreme of your spectrum necessity goods and at the other luxury goods. In other cases, what makes this difference is, instead, the nature of the need fulfilled and the number of needs fulfilled.

As a general rule, better products have a higher price, both because of higher production costs (more noble materials, longer production, more selective tests for throughput) and bigger expected advantages for clients, partly reflected in higher margins.

Thus, the quality-price relationship is typically upwards sloped. This means that consumers without their own opinion nor the capability of directly judging quality may rely on the price to infer quality. They will prefer to pay a higher price because they expect quality to be better.

This important flaw in knowledge and information processing capability an instance

of bounded rationality can be purposefully exploited by the seller, with the result that not all highly priced products are of good quality.

Through this mechanism, the demand curve - that in the neoclassical model is always downward sloped, can instead turn out to be in the opposite direction, with higher sales for versions having higher prices.

Horizontal differentiation

When products are different according to features that can't be ordered in an objective way, a horizontal differentiation emerges in the market.

Horizontal differentiation can be linked to differentiation in colours (different colour versions for the same good), in styles (e.g. modern / antique), in shapes, in flavours, in tastes, in well-known category-idiosyncratic axes as well as elaborated proprietary marketing categories.

A typical example is the ice-cream offered in different tastes. Chocolate is not "better" than lemon.

This does not prevent specific consumers to have a stable preference for one or the other version, since you should always distinguish what belongs to the supply structure and what is due to consumers' subjectivity. Some consumers would prefer lemon to chocolate, others the opposite, but this relates to them, not to the product line structure.

It is quite common that, in horizontal differentiation, the supplier of many versions decide a unique price for all of them. Chocolate ice-creams cost as much as lemon ones. Similarly, several variants of tastes or flavour are often offered at the same price. In restaurants, all desserts might be all priced at the same level. Some would say that in such cases the consumer is really free to express its preferences, as all alternatives cost the same.

Another example of horizontal differentiation is represented by films: each film is different from the others, while the price of entry to cinema is always the same. This example shows that the internal organization of the differentiation space can be structured around

“genres” and several similarity measures can be taken (e.g. two films having in common the film-maker, an actor, etc.), without being linear and continuous (nor too precise!).

When consumers don't have strong stable preferences, a rule of behaviour can be to change often the chosen good, looking for variety itself. An example is when you go to a fast food and ask for what you haven't eaten the previous time.

Fashion waves often emerge in horizontally-differentiated markets with imitation behaviours among consumers and specific styles going “in” and “out”.

Other examples of horizontal differentiations are politically-oriented newspapers and political parties.

In certain conditions, several versions of horizontally differentiated products can be “located” along one or more axes of differentiation and some “distance” measure can be computed. Consumers can then be interpreted to have an “ideal” location and to rank all versions according to that distance (with preferred version being nearer). This distance can be symmetric or asymmetric, i.e. with one direction being preferred to the other. For instance, chocolate bars can contain different percentages of cocoa (11%, 45%, 60%, 70%, 85%, 99%,), with each consumer expressing a “perfect” percentage and rules about deviations from it (e.g. reject versions with percentage higher than 10%). This is similar but not identical to what happens to vertical differentiation. In the latter, the higher the better, irrespective of consumer ideal position.

However, more in general, horizontal differentiated versions may not be ordered along axes, but merely juxtaposed.

Mixed differentiation

Certain complex markets are characterised both by horizontal and vertical differentiation. For instance, apparel, garments and shoes have an amazingly rich combination of shapes, colours, materials, complementarities to each other and to the cumulative bundle already in the consumer's house, seasonal and territorial specificities, appropriateness to social events, relative distance to ideals promoted by media, stylists and the showbusiness. The quality of the materials can often be seen as a vertical

differentiation but some other elements are clearly horizontal, like shapes. Similarly, differentiation in the car market is mixed.

In such an environment, consumers can develop fairly different styles of comparison, with some spending large amount of time getting exposed and evaluating versions, talking with others and sharing judgments, while others drastically reducing the difficulty of the comparison through repurchase of very classical items.

Some consumer explore many alternatives, others try to reduce the number of the options to the the lowest possible. Some would analyse many features of every option, others would concentrate on the highest ranked features. Some would highlight many different levels for each axis of comparison, others would dichotomize in presence / absence of a certain characteristics. Some would keep into account several variables and “compensate” across weaknesses and strenghts, others would set minimal requirements independently for each variable, without comparison across axes. Those who follows the first of each abovementioned statements might be called as “highly sophisticated” consumers, those who follows all the second ones as “simplifiers”, but many mixed cases can be constructed (in agent-based models) and observed (in the real world). Empirical surveys could try to see whether men and women are mainly “sophisticated” or “simplifiers” or better whether “sophisticated” and “simplifiers” are disproportionately present in gender-sensitive categories, possibly including age. For a wider discussion on consumer rules of this kind see [here](#).

In services, e.g. hair-cutting, the personal skills, attitudes and behaviours of the people personally performing the service to the customer can lead to a widely mixed differentiation, resulting from the interaction with the customer and his latent and outspoken tastes and requests. Earlier, the same personal selling activity leading to the purchase can differentiate the service in one place from what is supplied somewhere else.

Determinants

How a product rates according to different measures of quality or taste depends on both its physical and immaterial characteristics.

The raw material from which it has been built, the share of high/low quality ingredients/components, its engineered design, its production process are typical determinants of product specificity, whose complexity might be reduced by consumers looking at its brand.

Contrary to the neoclassical approach of technique choice along isoquants, every change in proportion of productive inputs (entering in the final product) results in product differentiation.

More broadly, product differentiation can be:

1. the indirect effect of different endowments in raw materials, know-how, style preference of different firms ignoring each others;
2. the conscious choice, out of firm strategies, to position each product against competitors;
3. the costly, uncertain, and difficult outcome of innovation efforts.

In perspective 2, how to achieve product differentiation? The steps are the following:

- a. to map all competitors' products and compare them couplewise or in groups
- b. to identify explicit and implicit axes of differentiation, qualitative or quantitative;
- c. to identify the accumulation points where most competitors are focused;
- d. to highlight "empty spaces" where combination of features are absent
- e. to brainstorm around which consumer segment could be interested in such (unusual / counterintuitive) combination of features;
- f. to preliminarily estimate the size of the segment;
- g. to explore if the firm has the capability of offering such product and at which cost (fixed and variable);
- h. to transform the segment into a viable niche by offering a price, an advertising

strategy and a distribution channel (as other selling costs) such that the supply of the product is profitable over a reasonable time

- i. to defend the niche against “invaders”.

In short, product differentiation can be a driver for new product development and product innovation. In this vein, patents on differentiated products can defend the innovator from imitation.

In another perspective, product differentiation in industrial goods can be achieved by these key ways e.g.:

1. by processing the same raw material (e.g. wood) or key intermediate good (e.g. paper) towards several alternative products, matching totally different needs (e.g. newspapers, toilet paper and paper towels);
2. by adding different chemical or non-chemical additives so as to change its properties (e.g. flavours into a cosmetics);
3. by competing services with goods (e.g. cars vs. car renting);
4. by substituting key components and introduce necessitated further coherent changes;
5. other manipulation, modification and substitution of sub-components and ingredients.

In certain cases, the conscious effort of seller is to increase the buyers’ difficulty to compare prices across products that are largely similar in their basic features, so differentiation reverts to non-standard sizes and packages, non-standard price expressions, and totally extrinsic added features (e.g. merchandising of a new animation film copied on the package of a product for kids).

The distribution of tastes and evaluation routines across final consumers is extremely relevant for the success of differentiating the product. Indeed, if all consumers would have the same preferences, they would largely converge on one or few versions. It’s because consumers have unstable, heterogeneous and context-dependent preferences that product differentiation can systematically characterise a market.

Producers can play it safe when offering features that are commonly evaluated as positive (and shared by many other goods) while risk more by offering strange and extreme features that some love and others hate. In the first case, the product will be somehow “normal” and mainstream, possibly requiring large advertising to be seen as the “barycentre” of the market, whereas in the second case, the product will address a niche of connoisseurs.

The presence of a wide product differentiation, however, is not a guarantee that every possible combination of features will be offered, thus some consumers might find disappointed as for their ideal version. This lack of versions is the results of three overlapping phenomena:

1. to offer a version can entail fixed costs (e.g. in research or in capital equipment), so no firms will offer a combination that is expected to attract an insufficient number of consumers, whose purchase generate total margins higher than the fixed costs;
2. much of the product differentiation is provided in terms of “deviation” from a standard model (a “market barycentre”) along one axis per product (e.g. from a central drink you could generate versions that are, respectively, sweeter, a less-calories, more acid, etc.). Geometrically, the market is like a star (the central product) and its rays (versions). But two rays do not cross each other (e.g. there is no version that is at the same time more acid and low-calory);
3. firms might be wary of cannibalising their existing product sales, if they introduce versions that substitute them while providing lower margins.

Producers can deliberately choose to share certain “standards” (i.e. not to differentiate along those features) in order to offer a critical mass of users for complementary devices as well as to pool consumer experience, reducing the difficulty of use the product. The lawmakers can encourage or mandate such behaviours, also in the interest of competition along other axes (e.g. price).

An important selective role of the width of the product differentiation available to final consumers is played by retailers (and distribution channels in general). If inventory

and storage costs are high, retailers might try to limit this range, that instead grows exponentially in the case of particularly low inventory and storage costs (as it happens with many e-commerce sites). More in general, the width of offer (number of varieties on sales) depend on the strategies of category management at retailers (embedded in “formats” but with some degree of freedom inside). For instance, by sharing selling costs to different products and variants of products, retailers can provide superior services to customers or cheaper final prices.

Product differentiation and price differentiation

At first sight, product differentiation seems to be a pre-condition and a justification for differentiation of prices: different products can easily have different prices. However, price differentiation occurs even without it:

- a. products can be physically identical and be priced widely differently just because of “brand” (which means they differ just because of the producer or the group of producers under the same label, maybe a private label of a retailer);
- b. exactly the same branded product can be priced differently depending on the distribution channel (e.g. supermarkets vs. small family-run shops) or within the same channel (e.g. in different supermarkets);
- c. even in the same Point of Sale the price can be different over time (e.g. with reversible temporary promotions);
- d. a perfectly identical product in the same shop can have two (or more) prices at the same time (e.g. to fidelity card owners vs. non-owners).

Conversely, horizontally differentiated goods can well share the same price, as it happens with vertically differentiated one, e.g. during promotion periods in which the superior good is temporarily priced down or across different points of sales.

These dynamics influence consumer behaviours, purchase postponements and switches over time and points of sales.

Please note that price differentiation is not price discrimination: it’s a broader concept where prices across both the same and other producers (and brands) are different

from each other, whereas price discrimination refers to products of the same producer.

For a model of price differentiation, implicitly assuming product differentiation and heterogeneous cost structures, see this model of ours.

11.15 PACKAGING

Packaging serves many purposes. It protects the product from damage which could be incurred in handling and transportation and also has a promotional aspect. It can be very expensive. Size, unit type, weight and volume are very important in packaging. For aircraft cargo the package needs to be light but strong, for sea cargo containers are often the best form. The customer may also decide the best form of packaging. In horticultural produce, the developed countries often demand blister packs for mangetouts, beans, strawberries and so on, whilst for products like pineapples a sea container may suffice. Costs of packaging have always to be weighed against the advantage gained by it.

Increasingly, environmental aspects are coming into play. Packaging which is non-degradable - plastic, for example - is less in demanded. Bio-degradable, recyclable, reusable packaging is now the order of the day. This can be both expensive and demanding for many developing countries.

11.16 LABELLING

Labelling not only serves to express the contents of the product, but may be promotional (symbols for example Cashel Valley Zimbabwe; HJ Heinz, Africafe, Tanzania). The EU is now putting very stringent regulations in force on labelling, even to the degree that the pesticides and insecticides used on horticultural produce have to be listed. This could be very demanding for producers, especially small scale, ones where production techniques may not be standardised. Government labelling regulations vary from country to country. Bar codes are not widespread in Africa, but do assist in stock control. Labels may have to be multilingual, especially if the product is a world brand. Translation could be a problem with many words being translated with difficulty. Again labelling is expensive, and in promotion terms non-standard labels are more expensive than standard ones.

11.17 IMPORTANCE OF PACKAGING AND LABELLING

Packaging and package labeling have several objectives:

Physical Protection—The objects enclosed in the package may require protection from, among other things, shock, vibration, compression, temperature, etc. Marketers know certain types of packages better protect their products from temperature, vibration, compression and extended shelf life. Therefore, they must work with research and development in producing the right types of containers. Additionally, marketers can protect consumers by using expiration dates on products like yogurt, eggs and cheese. Additionally, companies are becoming more aware of allergens in certain foods. Therefore, consumers may get warnings about common product allergens like wheat, milk, yeast and soy. Also, marketers must make sure they adhere to certain labeling laws for certain products. Besides food, there are labeling laws for electronics and textiles.

Barrier Protection—A barrier from oxygen, water vapor, dust, etc., is often required. Package permeability is a critical factor in design. Some packages contain desiccants, or oxygen absorbers, to help extend shelf life. Modified atmospheres or controlled atmospheres are also maintained in some food packages. Keeping the contents clean, fresh, and safe for the intended shelf life is a primary function.

Containment or Agglomeration—Small objects are typically grouped together in one package for reasons of efficiency. For example, a single box of 1,000 pencils requires less physical handling than 1,000 single pencils. Liquids, powders, and flowables need containment. Product packaging helps contain the products. Many products could not be displayed without packaging. For example, packages help contain products like milk and pudding. Packaging also helps contain multiple items like donuts, pencils, bacon and pizza rolls. Similarly, product labels tell consumers the weight of certain items as well as the number of items contained in a package. Choosing the right container is important in marketing. Consumers must have convenient sizes they can lift and store in their homes. Women would have trouble lifting and transporting an extremely large laundry detergent box, for example. Labels more easily help consumers make decisions on quantities they need. For example, large families may

need two packages of pizza rolls for the week, based on the quantities mentioned on the labels.

Information transmission—Packages and labels communicate how to use, transport, recycle, or dispose of the package or product. With pharmaceutical, food, medical, and chemical products, some types of information are required by governments.

Marketing—The packaging and labels can be used by marketers to encourage potential buyers to purchase the product. Package design has been an important and constantly evolving phenomenon for dozens of years. Marketing communications and graphic design are applied to the surface of the package and (in many cases) the point of sale display.

Security—Packaging can play an important role in reducing the security risks of shipment. Packages can be made with improved tamper resistance to deter tampering and also can have tamper-evident features to help indicate tampering. Packages can be engineered to help reduce the risks of package pilferage: Some package constructions are more resistant to pilferage and some have pilfer-indicating seals. Packages may include authentication seals to help indicate that the package and contents are not counterfeit. Packages also can include anti-theft devices, such as dye-packs, RFID tags, or electronic article surveillance tags which can be activated or detected by devices at exit points and require specialized tools to deactivate. Using packaging in this way is a means of loss prevention.

Convenience—Packages can have features that add convenience in distribution, handling, display, sale, opening, re-closing, use, and reuse.

Portion Control—Single-serving or single-dosage packaging has a precise amount of contents to control usage. Bulk commodities (such as salt) can be divided into packages that are a more suitable size for individual households. It also aids the control of inventory: Selling sealed one-liter bottles of milk, rather than having people bring their own bottles to fill themselves.

Visibility- Marketing professionals know that elements such as color and design are important in attracting customers. Consumer products companies may even do focus

groups to test product designs before their products are introduced. A company's product must stand out on the shelf. Competition is stiff within all product groups. A company's sales and profits are contingent upon how well their packaging and labeling appeal to consumers. Companies with multiple product sizes and brands can use similar color schemes or labels on all products for customers to better recognize their products.

Product Positioning- Packaging and labeling can be used as a product positioning tool in marketing. For example, marketers may use gold packaging and fancy labeling for higher-priced products or premium brands. Consumers who want premium brands begin to recognize them more from the packages and labels. For example, cheese manufacturers may use fancier packaging for specialty cheeses. Beverage products often do the same. A premium liquor company may use metal tags on the necks of their bottles as part of their packaging. Premium packaging can represent prestige for consumers, who may buy the products to impress friends at parties.

11.18 PACKAGING TYPES

Packaging consists of several different types. For example, a transport package or distribution package is the package form used to ship, store, and handle the product or inner packages. Some identify a consumer package as one that is directed toward a consumer or household. It is sometimes convenient to categorize packages by layer or function: "Primary," "secondary," etc.

- **Primary packaging** is the material that first envelops the product and holds it. This usually is the smallest unit of distribution or use and is the package that is in direct contact with the contents.
- **Secondary packaging** is outside the primary packaging—perhaps used to group primary packages together.
- **Tertiary packaging** is used for bulk handling and shipping.

Using these three types as a general guide, examples of packaging materials and structures might typically be listed as follows:

Primary packaging

- Aerosol spray can
- Bags-In-Boxes
- Beverage can
- Wine box
- Bottle
- Blister pack
- Carton
- Cushioning
- Envelope
- Plastic bag
- Plastic bottle
- Skin pack
- Tin can
- Wrapper

Secondary packaging

- Carton
- Shrink wrap

Tertiary packaging

- Bale
- Barrel
- Crate
- Container
- Edge protector
- Flexible intermediate bulk container, Big bag, “Bulk Bag,” or “Super Sack”
- Intermediate bulk container
- Pallet
- Slip sheet
- Stretch wrap

These broad categories can be somewhat arbitrary. For example, depending on the use, a shrink wrap can be primary packaging when applied directly to the product, secondary packaging when combining smaller packages, and tertiary packaging on some distribution packs.

11.19 SYMBOLS USED ON PACKAGES AND LABELS

Many types of symbols for package labeling are nationally and internationally standardized. For consumer packaging, symbols exist for product certifications, trademarks, proof of purchase, etc. Some requirements and symbols exist to communicate aspects of consumer use and safety.

Recycling directions, resin identification code (below), and package environmental claims have special codes and symbols.



Bar codes (below), universal product codes, and RFID labels are common to allow automated information management.



Shipments of hazardous materials or dangerous goods have special information and symbols as required by the UN, the country, and specific carriers. Two examples are below:



With transport packages, standardized symbols are also used to aid in handling. Some common ones are shown below while others are listed in ASTM D5445 “Standard Practice for Pictorial Markings for Handling of Goods” and ISO 780 “Pictorial marking for handling of goods.”



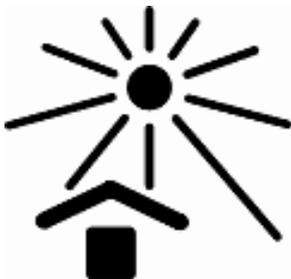
Fragile



Use no hand hooks



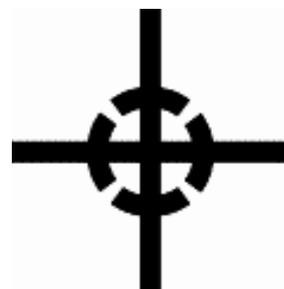
This way up



Keep away from sunlight



Keep away from water



Centre of gravity



Clamp as indicated



Do not clamp as indicated

11.20 PACKAGE DEVELOPMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Package design and development are often thought of as an integral part of the new product development process. Alternatively, development of a package (or component) can be a separate process, but must be linked closely with the product to be packaged. Package design starts with the identification of all the requirements: Structural design, marketing, shelf life, quality assurance, logistics, legal, regulatory, graphic design, end-use, environmental, etc. The design criteria, time targets, resources, and cost constraints need to be established and agreed upon.

Transport packaging needs to be matched to its logistics system. Packages designed for controlled shipments of uniform pallet loads may not be suited to mixed shipments with express carriers.

An example of how package design is affected by other factors is its relationship to logistics. When the distribution system includes individual shipments by a small parcel carrier, the sorting, handling, and mixed stacking make severe demands on the strength and protective ability of the transport package. If the logistics system is for uniform pallet loads that are unitized, the structural design of the package can be designed to those specific needs: Vertical stacking, perhaps for a longer time frame. A package designed for one mode of shipment may not be suited for another.

Sometimes the objectives of package development seem contradictory. For example, packaging for an over-the-counter drug might require tamper resistance and child-resistant features. These intentionally make the package difficult to open. The intended consumer, however, might be handicapped or elderly and be unable to readily open the package.

Package design may take place within a company or with various degrees of external packaging engineering: Contract engineers, consultants, vendor evaluations, independent laboratories, contract packagers, total outsourcing, etc. Some sort of formal project planning and project management methodology is required for all but the simplest package design and development programs.

Package development involves considerations for sustainability, environmental responsibility, and applicable environmental and recycling regulations. It may involve a life-cycle assessment, which considers the material and energy inputs and outputs to the package, the packaged product (contents), the packaging process, the logistics system, waste management, etc. It is necessary to know the relevant regulatory requirements for point of manufacture, sale, and use.

The traditional “three R’s” of reduce, reuse, and recycle are part of a waste hierarchy which may be considered in product and package development.

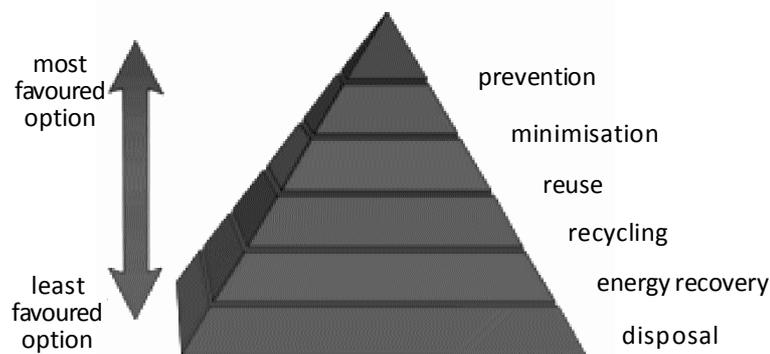


Fig. 11.1

The waste hierarchy:

- Prevention—Waste prevention is a primary goal. Packaging should be used only where needed. Proper packaging can also help prevent waste. Packaging plays an important part in preventing loss or damage to the packaged product (contents). Usually, the energy content and material usage of the product being

packaged are much greater than that of the package. A vital function of the package is to protect the product for its intended use: If the product is damaged or degraded, its entire energy and material content may be lost.

- **Minimization** (also “source reduction”)—The mass and volume of packaging (per unit of contents) can be measured and used as one of the criteria for minimization during the package design process. Usually “reduced” packaging also helps minimize costs. Packaging engineers continue to work toward reduced packaging.
- **Reuse**—The reuse of a package or component for other purposes is encouraged. Returnable packaging has long been useful (and economically viable) for closed-loop logistics systems. Inspection, cleaning, repair, and recoupage are often needed.
- **Recycling**—Recycling is the reprocessing of materials (pre- and post-consumer) into new products. Emphasis is focused on recycling the largest primary components of a package: Steel, aluminum, papers, plastics, etc. Small components can be chosen which are not difficult to separate and do not contaminate recycling operations.
- **Energy recovery**—Waste-to-energy and refuse-derived fuel in approved facilities are able to make use of the heat available from the packaging components.
- **Disposal**—Incineration, and placement in a sanitary landfill are needed for some materials. Material content should be checked for potential hazards to emissions and ash from incineration and leachate from landfill. Packages should not become litter.

11.21 SUMMARY

The marketing mix, which is the means by which an organisation reaches its target market, is made up of product, pricing, distribution, promotion and people decisions. These are usually shortened to the acronym “5P’s”. Product decisions revolve around

decisions regarding the physical product (size, style, specification, etc.) and product line management.

Product decisions are based on how much the organisation has to adjust the product on the standardisation - adaptation continuum to differing market conditions. This results in the evolution of five basic strategic alternatives - extension; extension, adaptation; adaptation, extension; adaptation and invention. Extension is the nearest to a standardised product, communications strategy and Invention at the other end of the continuum, that is, an adaptation strategy. The more adaptive the policy the more costly it will be for the organisation.

Product classification, as stated above, is already in a very advanced stage. Manufacturers can now work with what has been classified. The first product files based on product classification (the Installation Classification Structure) are already available. This clears the way for a completely transparent communication between all parties within the logistics chain.” Product classification offers great advantages for all parties concerned.

Knowing your product classification will help you:

- Identify foreign markets where similar products are currently being exported
- Gather relevant demographic and economic information about potential markets
- Obtain valuable information about shipments of similar products such as
 - Where Products Are Being Imported From
 - Where Products Are Being Exported To
 - How Much Product Is Being Shipped
 - Product Trade History
- Look up tariff rates
- Obtain an export license if required

If you still have doubts about introducing it into your own organisation, within a few

years you might be surprised by a rapidly changing world of standardised product information and electronic data exchange. Product classification is certainly no longer a just theory: it made the leap from drawing board to practice a long time ago!

Also, Salespeople can differentiate their products in three different ways: quality, service or price. Most companies will choose to focus on one or two of the three product aspects, as it's impossible to provide all three and stay solvent. Emphasizing quality and service means spending more money on parts and employees, making it impossible to beat your competitors' prices. Unless you are in a position to dictate company policy, your options will be somewhat restricted by the company's decision as to which areas to emphasize. However, most salespeople will find that they do have some leeway. For example, many sales managers allow salespeople to offer a discounted rate to a promising prospect, which allows the salesperson to differentiate on price.

11.22 GLOSSARY

Product – all things a buyer receives in an exchange, good and bad, intended and unintended

Adaptation - To change/make suitable for; is making fit for a specific use or situation.

Consumer decision - making the approach that a consumer employs in arriving at a purchase decision

Marketing - The conceptualization and delivery of customer satisfaction

Marketing Management - the process allocating the resources of the organization toward marketing activities

Marketing Mix - The marketing mix is a business tool used in marketing and by marketing professionals. The marketing mix is often crucial when determining a product or brand's offering, and is often synonymous with the four Ps: price, product, promotion, and place.

Convenience products are consumer products and services that the customer usually buys frequently, immediately, and with a minimum of comparison and buying effort.

Examples include soap, candy, newspapers, and fast food. Convenience products are usually low priced, and marketers place them in many locations to make them readily available when customers need them.

Shopping products are less frequently purchased consumer products and services that customers compare carefully on suitability, quality, price, and style.

Shopping products marketers usually distribute their products through fewer outlets but provide deeper sales support to help customers in their comparison efforts.

Specialty products are consumer products and services with unique characteristics or brand identification for which a significant group of buyers is willing to make a special purchase effort.

Adaptation - To change/make suitable for; is making fit for a specific use or situation.

Behaviourist (or intended use) dimension –used for market segmentation, this dimension relates to benefits sought and expected use by the customer

Buying center – the group of individuals who play a role in the process of acquisition of goods and services for the organization

11.23 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by a Product? Explain the role of its design in product's success in the market.

2. What are the various product related decisions, a production manager has to deal with?

3. Explain and differentiate between various product and production related decisions.

4. Discuss in detail the various product strategies with the help of a real case example.

5. What are the various dimensions explained under the characteristics of a product?

6. What are the levels at which various products can be classified?

7. Differentiate between various types of product categories

8. What do you understand by packaging and labelling?

9. How does the role of packaging and labelling impact the important product related decisions?

10. Explain the various types of packaging.

11. Explain the various labelling symbols used in the real market.

12. What are the various package development considerations for a manager before letting the product out in the market?

11.24 LESSON END EXERCISES

Fill in the blanks

1. Marketing mix is a _____ tool used in marketing.
2. Products designed to meet global segments are called _____ products.
3. Products can be classified into two distinctive types _____ versus _____ on the basis of related attributes or benefits.
4. _____ are industrial products that aid in the buyer's production or operations, including installations and accessory equipment
5. _____ is the reprocessing of materials (pre- and post-consumer) into new products.

True or False

1. Primary packaging is the material that first envelops the product and holds it. This usually is the smallest unit of distribution or use and is the package that is in direct contact with the contents **(True/False)**

11.25 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Strategic Marketing (McGraw-Hill/Irwin Series in Marketing) by David Cravins
- Strategic Management and Business Policy. by Azhar Kazmi

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 12

PRODUCT & PRICE - MIX DECISIONS

Unit - III

PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE

STRUCTURE

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Objectives
- 12.3 Product Life Cycle (PLC)
- 12.4 Marketing Strategies for introduction Stage / Introduction Phase
- 12.5 Marketing Strategies for Growth Stage
- 12.6 Marketing Strategies for Maturity Stage
- 12.7 Marketing Strategies for Decline Stage
- 12.8 Occurrence of Changes in the Product Life Cycle
- 12.9 Uses of Product Life Cycle
- 12.10 Product Life Cycle- A Critical Assessment
- 12.11 New Product Development
 - 12.11.1 Market Testing
 - 12.11.2 Commercialization
 - 12.11.3 Challenges in New Product Development
- 12.12 Summary

12.13 Glossary

12.14 Self Assessment Questions

12.15 Lesson End Exercise

12.16 Suggested Readings

12.1 INTRODUCTION

The market environment is dynamic in nature, in this world of dynamism the product introduced in market witness different stages. The duration during which product remain in a particular stage varies across the different lines of product. However, in order to fully attain the benefit of each stage, marketer has to be aware enough to design the strategies in such a manner that will address the requirements of the different phases in product life cycle (i.e. Introduction phase, Growth phase, Maturity phase and Decline phase). For attaining the success in pursuit of marketing, no company can ever win the game by sole reliance on single strategy for all the aforementioned phases of product life cycle.

12.2 OBJECTIVES

To study the concept of Product Life Cycle (PLC).

To understand the different phases of PLC.

To have a deeper insight about the role of different marketing strategies during the entire product life cycle.

12.3 PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE (PLC)

Product Life Cycle basically refers to the different stages through which a product passes during its entire lifetime. Each product goes through a life cycle. It shows introduction, growth, maturity and decline during its period of existence. The product life cycle reflects sales and profit of a product over a period of time. Generally, most products follow an S-shaped path or when their sales are plotted against time, one gets an S-shaped curve.

However, there are exceptions when a product may not follow this path. There are products which show either sharp growth and then a sharp decline, or remain in the maturity phase for a long time period and in some cases, they never face a decline. While fads and fashions can be grouped in the first category, products in closed and sheltered market or in monopolistic market represent the second type.

One may also have the commodities like steel, cement and food products, where the demand remains inelastic, relative to other manufactured products. In India, Premier and Ambassador cars, refrigerators and many other product sales did not experience a decline until the competition set in, following the policy initiative of liberalization and the opening of the economy in 1980s and more specifically after 1991.

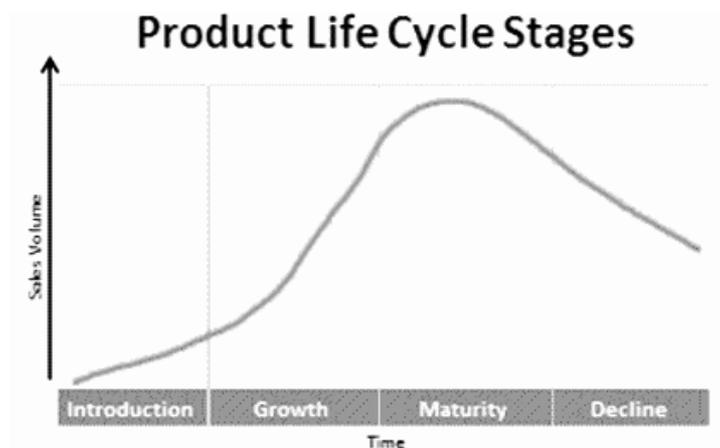


Fig. 12.1

As consumers, we buy millions of products every year. And just like us, these products have a life cycle. Older, long-established products eventually become less popular, while in contrast, the demand for new, more modern goods usually increases quite rapidly after they are launched.

In a similar way to how our economy goes through the stages of recession, followed by recovery and ultimately back to prosperity (the Economic Life Cycle (ELC)), products also have their own unique life cycle. This concept is known as the **Product Life Cycle (PLC) concept**.

Product life Cycle

The *product life cycle (PLC) theory* considers a number of stages during the evolution of a product – over a period of time – typically from development through to possible abandonment. The five stages in the PLC concept generally include:

1. Development;
2. Introduction;
3. Growth;
4. Maturity;
5. Decline.

Small businesses must understand that the product life cycle curve is not generic. Simply by analysing a product's position on the curve, marketing mix tactics can be devised and implemented that can reinvigorate the product. These changes to the marketing mix can bring product back into the growth phase, thus extending its existence.

Here's what the curve may look like, with a brief description of each, following the image, below.

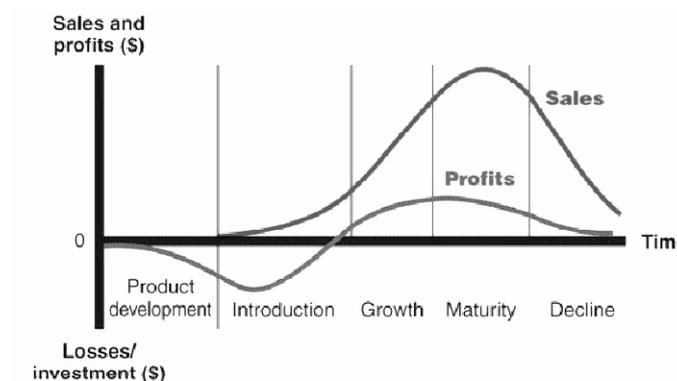


Fig. 12.2

Because most companies understand the different product life cycle stages, and that the products they sell all have a limited lifespan, the majority of them will invest heavily in new product development in order to make sure that their businesses continue to grow.

Profits Peak Before Sales: Analyzing the reason

A fact that intrigues marketers is that sales maximization does not mean profit maximization. One of the reasons for profits maturing even before sales is the competition or the intensity of inter firm rivalry in a product market situation. Most competition in the industry follows the imitation route and tends to draw away the customers from the pioneer firm with features like low price, better service, better distribution network or aggressive promotion. To fight back competition and retain market share, the pioneer firm (i.e. the firm that launched the product first time in a market) has to spend more money on media, distribution channels and sales force. The irony is that the firm has to either retain its current price level or it to remain competitive in the market place. In either case, the sales revenue generated is not enough to meet all the marketing cost. Hence profits start eroding. Another is shifting consumer preference and loyalty. As competition intensifies, better and more efficient products are made available to the market by the rival firms, using the state-of-the art technology, thereby changing the customer preferences.

For example, the watch industry-with the introduction of quartz technology in the watch industry, mechanical watches faced a decline. Once a firm like Titan entered the Indian market, the leader HMT(Hindustan Machine Tools) lost out as it had focused primarily on mechanical watches. For the long time, even after Titan had been launched, senior HMT executives believed that an average Indian consumer cannot afford a quartz watch price up-wards of rupees 350. But with Swatch and the later introduction of Timex quartz watches by Titan at price levels lower than rupees 350, the market scenario changed dramatically. Mechanical watches become outdated and the HMT lost in market share and profits. Thus, customer preferences change and there is no loyalty in the market which cannot be bought with better technology marketed at affordable price.

It is for the above reasons of competition and changing customer preferences that a firm has to evolve strategies to reduce their break-even time and the introduction phase. The firm has to start early in product modification and adapting to new technology, if it has to maintain a steady flow of profits and growth rate. Most progressive and market driven firm follows this route.

Modifications can be in the packaging or in the product form like from solid to liquid (for example, antacids which were originally available in liquid form now available in tablet form), adding features or changing the distribution. The sales and profit of Pan Parag, the leader in the pan masala segment, grew by more than 25 percent when the firm started using sachets of different sizes to pack the product. The sales and profit further jumped as it introduced a new flavor for tobacco addicts called Pan Parag Zarda. Likewise, Rasna, a leader in soft drink concentrates found its sales and profits grow meteorically as it increased the number of flavors available to the customers and extended its usage to the other situations too. Thus, a market driven firm anticipates competition and evolves strategy to preempt any competitive moves. In order to have a better understanding go through the next section that discuss about the conditions prevailing in each of the four phases and the strategies available to firm.

12.4 MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR INTRODUCTION STAGE INTRODUCTION PHASE

Introduction phase marks the launch of product in the market. Organizationally, this phase is characterized by high operational cost arising out of inefficient production levels or bottlenecks, high learning time, unwillingness of the trade to deal in the product, demand of higher margin or extended credit terms and advertising. During this phase, firm's requirement for cash is very high as all expenses have to be met. Generally, the suppliers, media and others are not willing to give credit. Hence all payments have to be made in cash.

The environment of firm is characterized by customer who lack in or have low awareness of the product. Even those who are aware and are willing to try the product, do so in small quantities, called trial purchase. The trial demand is limited both in the quantity of the new product bought and number of customers buying it. Competition either doesn't exist or is limited to few firms who also may not be operating at efficient levels. Much of the competition is indirect, or from substitutes.

The marketing task for a pioneer firm is to stimulate demand for the new product and also to reduce the break-even time. For this reason, at initial stage company offers just one or limited product version. It offers tangible benefits and reason for the customer

to switch over from existing products to new product. Invariably firm adopts a strategy of a high price and high promotion. But this is not the only strategy available to the firm. Depending on its objectives, the firm may choose its introduction strategy from any of the following:

Rapid Skimming: - This strategy of high price and high promotion works effectively only when the customer awareness for the product is not very high, or for those who are aware, willingness to pay any price to possess or buy it is high. This strategy also works when the market size for the product is large and the threats from the competition is imminent. Most consumer electronics and the non-durables could be classified in this group. This is the reason why most consumer electronics like T.V, VCR, music system, video games and so forth are initially priced high and then gradually reduced to maintain market share. Since the threat from the competition is real, the pioneer firm always try to rapidly skim the cream off the market as it will help to reduce the firm break even time and hence more profits. This strategy also works in the situation where the firm's objective is profit maximization in the short term or where the firm's basic strategy is to fight guerrilla war. It is sufficient to say that a guerilla always vacates before the going gets tough for him or her.

A large number of dye manufacturers, specifically H-acid used in textiles and leather garments, adopted this strategy when the dyes were included on the export priority list, following chemical firms vacating this sector in developed countries. Most of these firms went out of the business in five years as their plants got totally corroded and more efficient and low-cost firms came in the business. They also exited as more environmentally friendly substitutes were developed.

Slow Skimming: - This strategy is basically based on the assumption that the firm has sufficient time to recover its pre-launch expenses. This happens when the technology being used by the firm is highly sophisticated and competition will have to invest substantial resources to get this technology. Further, since most competitors may not have the required quantum of resources, competition may be limited to just one or two large companies. Another environmental characteristic supporting this strategy is that the market size for the product is limited and those who are aware are

willing to pay any price to buy it. Many of the industrial product, more specifically renewable energy resources, laser technology or petrochemicals may fall in this category. In consumer products, this strategy may work in a closed and protected market, such as India had been until recently.

Rapid Penetration Strategy: - The strategy of rapid penetration is based on the same assumptions and environmental conditions as the ones mentioned under the rapid skimming strategy. The only difference between rapid skimming and penetration is the firm's long-term objectives. If the objective is market share and profit maximization in the long run and the market is characterized by intensive competition or other entry barriers, a firm choose to enter the market with this strategy. Japanese firm adopted this strategy to launch their products in North America and Europe. Later in 1880s South Korean, Taiwanese and Hong Kong based firms used the same strategy to uproot Japanese and other local competitor firms from these markets. The same strategy is now being used by these firms from South East Asia to penetrate the Indian market. The leading examples of Indian firms having adopted this strategy are Nirma and T-series. Both these firms have successfully used high promotion and low-price strategy to grow in the price sensitive Indian market.

Slow Penetration Strategy: - The strategy of slow penetration delivers results when the threat from competitions minimal, market size is large, market is predominantly price sensitive and the majority of market is familiar with the product. The firm's objective is to maximize sales or profits in the long run.

Thus, some of the considerations at the introduction stage revolve around pricing and promotion levels. as mentioned earlier, a firm offers only a limited version of the product at his stage. Consider the example of Maruti. Initially the firm, Maruti Udyog, offered only one version of the Suzuki 800 car which not priced at the common man's level but coasted on tangible benefits of fuel efficiency and safety over existing products. In the unprecedented success which followed, the firm's initial production levels could not meet demand generated in the market.

Distribution strategy: - Distribution can be patchy as some dealers will be wary of stocking the new products as they may not be sure of its acceptability by customers

but it is very important to ensure adequate distribution of the product. Company's promotional programs builds up awareness, curiosity and the desire for the product the company, but when the customer doesn't find the product on the shelves, they tune out the product from their minds for a very long time. In fact, before the company starts its promotional blitz, it should ensure that the products are available on the shelves. They may have to provide extra benefits to wholesalers and retailers to stock the new product. Most new products fail due to lack of their availability rather than due to customers not wanting to buy the product.

12.5 MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR GROWTH STAGE

Growth Phase

Once the product crosses the introduction phase, it enters the growth phase. Introduction stage is crucial tenure during the product life cycle because more than 95 percent products fail at this phase. However, the 5 percent of lucky products that enter the growth phase meet with more strengthened and increased competition. This competition now offers a greater choice to the customer, in the form of different product types packaging and prices. The market base expands as more customer come in to buy the product.

At this stage customer become more aware of the product and are convinced that it serves their needs. Customers understand the generic benefits of the product and the company now build sales and market share by building brand preference. The product is redesigned to create differentiation and promotion lays stress on the benefits of differentiated product. Focus is on ensuring repeat purchases. The company tries to achieve this purpose by focusing its efforts on building a strong brand. A strong brand at this stage helps the company to fight competition as they emerge in hordes at this stage. There is a pressure on prices due to entry of large number of competitors.

During this phase of growth, different segments start emerging and the company has to make decision as to which of the segments it will attempt to serve. Some pioneers try to serve the whole market with one or a few standard products even when segments have clearly emerged. This is somehow a mistake. Focused competitors will emerge, which will target specific segments and take away market share from each of the

segments. Most of the pioneers lose their first mover advantage by their attempt to indiscriminately serve all the segments as they did in the introduction stage. The pioneer should select a few lucrative segments and target those segments with separate offerings for each of them.

Distribution strategy: - Distribution will be widened to serve the new segments but channel intermediaries will now be interested in carrying the product. The product may have to be made available in different retail formats because customers of different segments buy differently. Therefore, product may have to be made available in company owned retail store, departmental store and a discount store simultaneously.

12.6 MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR MATURITY STAGE

Maturity Phase

Most products that survive the heat of competition and even customer approval enter the maturity phase. This phase is characterized by slowing of growth rates of sales and profits. In fact, a decline in profit seems to appear now. This phase is also marked by cut throat competition, which often tends to narrow down to a price and promotion war. As mentioned earlier, it is an irony that when the firm has established its product and generated customer preference for its brand, competition gets intensified and the firm has no other alternative but to invest resources in service augmentation and also simultaneously undertake the task of cost reduction and hence price reduction. Maturity phase also sees a boom in the market demand as more and more customers are now willing to accept the product.

Since the market does not grow in this stage, the company should hold on to profit and market share rather than embark on costly competitive challenges. In this phase company can gain sales only at the expense of competition, strong challenges are resisted by competitors and can lead to costly promotional price war. Brand objective now focuses on maintaining brand loyalty and stimulating repeat purchases. For all but the brand leader, competition may erode prices and profit margins.

In this stage companies are tempted to engage in costly promotional price wars to wean away market share from competitors. But such victories are ephemeral. Most

companies are not able to affect permanent shifts in market shares with promotional pricing. Therefore, instead of trying to match promotional pricing schemes of competitors, the company should focus on strengthening its brand by differentiating its offerings. In the maturity stage companies should realize that they cannot grow at the rate at which they did in the growth stage. Companies target unrealistically high growth rates, which is largely a hangover from their growth stage times. Such targets set the companies on the pernicious path of promotional pricing.

The marketing task is one of adopting a segmental approach. In fact, carving a niche even within a specific market segment, service augmentation, image marketing and creating a new value image are critical tools to retain the competitive edge. Strengthening the brand through repositioning or making changes in the channel of distribution (e.g. moving from indirect to direct or shortening the length of the channel) now become imperative for while the firm has to fight competition and take its product nearer to the customer, it has to also make adequate profits to remain in the business. Companies in the growth stage should realize that the maturity stage will last for a long time and should put in place a low-cost manufacturing and marketing infrastructure so that they are able to earn a descent return in the long maturity period. The company should target small, incremental growth rates which they should achieve by shifting customer preferences to their brands permanently by differentiating and strengthening their brands.

12.7 MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR DECLINE STAGE

Decline Phase

A company should anticipate the impending decline in sales. The biggest hurdle in adoption of suitable strategies for the decline stage is marketer's false belief that it is not coming or at least will not come so soon.

The company should analyze changing customer requirements and acceptability of emerging substitute solutions to gauge the speed at which its product will become redundant. Sometimes the customers requirements may have changed dramatically or the emerging solution may be very effective, so the company will have to make plans

to exit the market immediately. Companies which make this assessment early will get a better value for the business when it tries to sell it, as the market may not be yet be aware of the impending decline. At times the customer requirement may be changing gradually and the emerging solution may have bugs and may also be slow to be accepted, therefore a company can plan a more gradual withdrawal.

In general terms, failing sales may induce companies to raise prices and slash marketing expenditure. Brand loyalty will be exploited to create profits. Product development will be halted, product line depth will be reduced and the promotional expenditure will be reduced. Only the most profitable distribution outlets will be retained.

12.8 OCCURRENCE OF CHANGES IN THE PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE

Changing Customer Needs

The most fundamental of all the environmental factors is the customers needs that shape the product's life cycle over a period of time. These needs change as customers become more aware and have disposable income leading to change in their lifestyle and aspirations. Today, we noticing this change occurring all over the country, largely because of the wider reach of television – a single source of mass media that has revolutionized markets and products. Satellite communication, dish antenna, cable tv and other tele communications products are changing customer's needs and expectations all over the India and consequently many of the products that saw their sales stagnating now find spurt in their sales, largely coming from hitherto unexplored markets. While, customers in the metros are looking for more sophisticated products, the urban and other rural customer are seeking basic product versions.

The firms which are sensitive to this changing customer needs will be able to incorporate them in product strategies. The most interesting example in this regard is given by Sony's chairman Akio Morita in his book "Made in Japan". Giving the example of Walkman's development, Morita says that he got a product idea from his younger daughter for whom music was more important than being with him and his wife. He had seen has seen a large number of people in New York hang large portable music system on their back with music blaring from them. The same sight was visible in all world capitals and major towns. So, Sony decided to develop a personal portable

music system-now known generically to the world as Walkman. Further, needs get developed over a period of time as the customer uses the product and finds that there are situations too in which he or she can use it.

Better and More Efficient Product

Today technology offers phenomenal opportunities to firms to develop more user friendly, low priced and attractive looking products. A case in point is Parle Bottling which used development in packaging to successfully launch their mango frooti drink. The tetra pack did wonders for frooti, making it convenient, easy to use and carry and also more attractive than other mango drinks in bottles. The product caught customer fancy and was successful. Likewise, computers and user-friendly packages in retail banking made HongKong's bank's any time money successful in major cities in India. Likewise, we find that success of other products, be it agricultural like nitrogen-based fertilizer or more urban products like credit cards, can be explained by technology that has been used to serve customer more efficiently.

12.9 USES OF PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE

PLC emphasizes the need for product planning. There is a need to replace the old product with new ones. There is a need to analyze the balance of product. A company with all of its product in the mature stage may be generating profit today but as the product enter the decline stage, profits may fall.

A nice balanced product array would see the company marketing some products in mature stage, a number of them in the growth stage and there should be reasonable prospect of new product launches in near future. Product should be viewed as interrelated set of profit bearing assets that needs to be managed as a group.

A company that introduces a new product in the world may be in very powerful position early in the PLC. It may charge a very high price during this period of monopoly supply. But unless the product is patented, competition will enter during the growth phase and make it difficult for the pioneer to charge high price. Customers gets angry when they find pioneers reducing the high prices due to competitive pressures. They feel that company has charged them with the high price when they could afford not to.

A company that understand the concept of PLC will realize and estimate the eventual entry of competitors and will take that into account when they shape their early strategies of market entry. In fact, smart pioneers will price the product low so the potential competitors don't find the market attractive enough to enter it.

If pioneer decide to be content with low margins, they can keep off the competitors, at least those who pursue market purely for profits and do not have strategy and preference for entering new markets. Genuinely interested competitors will still enter the market but they will be there for the long haul and their strategies and moves will be more predictable and manageable.

Companies have to face the fact that products need to be terminated and new products developed to replaced them. Without this sequence company may find itself with a group of products all in the decline stage of PLC. PLC reminds managers that growth will end and suggests the need for caution when planning investment in new production facilities.

12.10 PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE- A CRITICAL ASSESSMENT

Product Life Cycle (PLC) is an important marketing tool. However, in their article "Forget the Product Life Cycle", Dhalla and Yuspeh argued that the concept was essentially descriptive and if the management used it as perceptive tool, it would be making a grievous mistake. Some of the blunders committed due to dependence on PLC are:

Too much of emphasis on new product development as against continuing the revitalization process of existing brands. As we mentioned earlier also, that around 95 percent new product fails. Hence, pursuing the path of new product development at the cost of building current brands can be a costly and a risky affair. Besides, all new products are going to have shorter lives as competitors catch and imitate the pioneer firm. Existing brand and products may still have several unexplored uses and user groups. Firms that blindly follows the concept of PLC may find themselves in strategic trap.

An obsession with PLC, may lead firm to kill its product or brand in the belief that

it has reached the decline phase. Stagnation in sales or negative growth rate in sales may lead management to believe so. What is important is to look at the background or backdrop of the product, or the market and explore new uses and users for the product. But most firms ignore this aspect and get trapped into their own self-fulfilling prophecies.

But Levitt believes that PLC is a planning tool and not just a descriptive tool. To view the concept of PLC as a fixed pattern for all product type or brand is an error in marketing thinking. It should be seen as a trend of sales over a period of time, that suggests different opportunities during different phases of a product's existence. The goal of the marketer should be to alter the shape and duration of the life cycle curve by:

- a) Promoting more frequent usage of product among existing customers
- b) Developing more uses or varied usage of the product among current users
- c) Creating new users for the product by expanding the market
- d) Finding new uses for the product

Defending the strategy of new product development or extension strategy, Levitt believes that planning for the extension should begin at the prelaunch stage itself. Because such planning can be useful in three ways:

- a) It generates a proactive rather than a reactive product policy
- b) It lays out a long-term plan designed to infuse new life into product at the right time, with the right degree of care and with right amount of effort
- c) Extending or market stretching can help a firm take a wider view of the nature of product it is dealing with and in turn help fight myopia

Thus, PLC is indeed an important planning tool and firm need to use it. As we mentioned, PLC should be seen as providing opportunities to a firm. To do so, it is important for the marketer to examine his or her brand's fit with the industry's product life cycle, as it is not necessary that the brand be in the same phase of its life cycle as the industry's product.

12.11 NEW PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT

New product development (NPD) is the process of bringing a new product to the marketplace. Your business may need to engage in this process due to changes in consumer preferences, increasing competition and advances in technology or to capitalise on a new opportunity. Innovative businesses thrive by understanding what their market wants, making smart product improvements, and developing new products that meet and exceed their customers' expectations.

'New products' can be:

- products that your business has never made or sold before but have been taken to market by others
- product innovations created and brought to the market for the first time. They may be completely original products, or existing products that you have modified and improved.

NPD is not limited to existing businesses. New businesses, sole traders or even freelancers can forge a place in the market by researching, developing and introducing new or even one-off products. Similarly, you don't need to be an inventor to master NPD. You can also consider purchasing new products through licensing or copyright acquisition.

New product development strategy

With a well-considered new product development (NPD) strategy, you can avoid wasting time, money and business resources. An NPD strategy will help you organise your product planning and research, capture your customers' views and expectations, and accurately plan and resource your NPD project. Your strategy will also help you avoid:

- overestimating and misreading your target market
- launching a poorly designed product, or a product that doesn't meet the needs of our target customers

- incorrectly pricing products
- spending resources you don't have on higher-than-anticipated development costs
- exposing your business to risks and threats from unexpected competition.

There are several important steps you will need to plan into your NPD strategy.

Define your product

An accurate description of the product you are planning will help keep you and your team focused and avoid NPD pitfalls such as developing too many products at once, or running out of resources to develop the product.

Identify market needs

Successful NPD requires a thorough knowledge of your target market and its needs and wants. A targeted, strategic and purposeful approach to PD will ensure your products fit your market. Ask yourself:

- What is the target market for the product I am proposing?
- What does that market need?
- What is the benefit of my proposed new product?
- What are the market's frustrations of existing products of its type?
- How will the product fit into the current market?
- What sets this product apart from its competition?

Draw on your existing market research. You may need to undertake additional research to test your new product proposal with your customers. For example, you could set up focus groups or a customer survey.

Find out more about customer research.

Establish time frames

You need to allow adequate time to develop and implement your new products. Your

objectives for developing new products will inform your time frames and your deadlines for implementation. Be thoughtful and realistic. Some objectives might overlap but others will be mutually exclusive.

- Your objective to race against your competition will require efficiency from your team.
- Your aim to achieve a specific launch date will be influenced by demand for seasonal products and calendar events.
- Your aim to be responsive to your customers' needs and demands will require time for research to ensure you develop the right products at the right time.
- Your objective to stick to business as usual and maintain other schedules will affect the resources you make available for PD.

Identify key issues and approaches

There are many tasks involved in developing a product that is appropriate for your customers. The nature of your business and your idea will determine how many of these steps you need to take. You may be able to skip or duplicate certain stages, or start some of them simultaneously. Key tasks include:

- generating and screening ideas
- developing and screening concepts
- testing concepts
- analysing market and business strategy
- developing and market testing products
- implementing and commercialising products.

Generating and screening ideas for new products

Successful new product development (NPD) starts with identifying good product ideas and using reliable criteria to decide which ideas to pursue.

You should take the following steps before you allocate funds to new product development.

Idea generation

Write a customer needs list based on the information you gather from the sources identified below. You should try to identify existing weaknesses in your products, gaps in your product range and areas for product improvement.

Brainstorm product issues

Work with your existing team members to brainstorm product issues. Your sales and service staff speak to your customers daily, hearing feedback about your products and the customers' needs. Capture the feedback, product observations and ideas from your team. Make sure you recognise their ideas and promote a shared culture of innovation.

Use your research and development (R&D) processes

Use your business's existing R&D processes. Identify modifications you could make to existing products, or adaptations for new products, consistent with feedback from your market and customers.

Review your quality assurance (QA) processes

Note any issues in your products and identify potential ideas for addressing gaps in quality.

Review your customer complaint records

Identify common weaknesses in your existing product range, and look for areas where improvement is most needed. Learn about managing customer complaints.

Review your research

Review your customer research and market research, and plan further market and customer surveys if you identify research gaps. What are your customers telling you they're looking for? What do they find frustrating or limiting about your products? How do they use your products most?

Talk to your suppliers and other business partners

Talk to manufacturers, retailers and sales reps to capture their knowledge of your products and thoughts for improving them.

Research and understand your competition

Try to understand your competition. Review your competitors' product range and consider how the market is responding to them. Do any of their products seem to be meeting needs that yours aren't?

Study catalogues and product information

Make sure you have a comprehensive understanding of existing products available in your market.

Idea screening

With your list of potential new product ideas, you now need to decide which ideas to pursue and which to discard. Consider your competition, your existing products, their shortcomings, and the needs of your market. Draw on the customer needs list you have developed, and the areas for product improvement you have identified.

Develop a set of criteria to evaluate your ideas against. Your criteria might include:

- most prominently identified customer needs
- product improvements most needed
- the benefits to your target market
- the technical feasibility of the idea
- the level and scope of research and development required the profitability of the idea. What is its potential appeal to the market? How would you price it? What are the costs in bringing it to market - overall and per unit?
- where the product fits in the market. Is there a gap? How close is it to competitor products?

- the resources it will require in development
- the marketing potential of the idea
- the fit with your business profile and business objectives.

SWOT analysis

A SWOT analysis can help you to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each idea.

Innovation support

Your innovative approach and your steps to foster innovation in your team will help you realise your new product goals.

New product concept development and screening

Carefully plan the steps involved in testing your new product development (NPD) ideas. For every 7 new product ideas developed, 1 becomes successful. Defining your new product concept and testing it with your market will help you determine whether your new product idea will be a success.

The concept development and testing stage of NPD can be time-intensive, but it will help you avoid unnecessary costs later by ensuring you pursue the best new product concept in your market.

Create a product concept

A product concept is a detailed description of an idea, which you describe from the perspective of your customer. Taking your customers' viewpoint when describing your product concept will help you test and evaluate how responsive your market will be to your product.

Do your sums carefully

Make sure your idea can be designed, manufactured and delivered within your financial, resource and time constraints.

Talk to the people who will buy it

Take your idea to your target audience to determine what they think and where any gaps

might lie. Market researchers can help you run focus groups and surveys to determine how customers will respond to your product.

Refine your target market

Detail your customer targets as accurately as you can. Your focus groups or conversations with your target audiences will help you determine whether you're targeting the right market segments.

Examine intellectual property (IP) issues

Find out whether another business or individual has already patented your idea by searching for a patent.

If your idea was the combined result of several members of your team, consider how you will recognise their contributions to the intellectual property when you protect your idea.

Identify the features

Based on the information you have gathered to date, list the features and benefits of your proposed product from highest market importance to least.

Take your time

Define your product concept clearly, test it with your audience and don't make any assumptions. Many NPD ventures fail because businesses rush through concept development and testing.

12.11.1 Market Testing

Determining whether a product will be successful can employ a range of methods. Regardless of the technique chosen, the target remains the same: gain feedback and understand the performance of a product. However, apart from a common objective, when it comes to the development of a successful product, both product and market testing take their own approach to gaining feedback at different phases of a product's life.

Product Testing: Gaining Feedback from Consumers

Product testing, something research professionals are more familiar with, entails looking at the performance of a product by gaining feedback from consumers. There are a variety of methodologies that aid in product testing efforts. Often more specific to software or technology companies, **beta testing is one such method for product testing that allows product development teams to test a *prefinalized* product version with a sample of their target audience.** Beta testing can be used by more than just the technology industry as it seeks to

- Identify problems or threats to product usability outside the product development process
- Refine and improve a product before the final product delivery
- Gain consumer feedback that can be used to support initial marketing communications

Another method to product testing that is used across a wider set of industries, and is similar to beta testing, is an in-home usage test (IHUT). **IHUTs allow product teams to share a prototype or *e finalized* product with consumers.** Consumers are meant to use the product in their own homes over a period of time while providing feedback on their actual usage of the product-as we know consumers can approach a product and its usage much more creatively than its intended use.

IHUTs are instrumental to product testing by helping to

- Assess customer impressions, appeal, and purchase intent of a product
- Provide real-life customer reactions to not only a product but its packaging, instructions, or components to a product

Often IHUTs are left out of a product development process due to the lengthy, complicated, and expensive act of getting products into consumers' hands. However, we employ an agile structure when it comes to executing IHUTs so that product teams can quickly conduct product testing and ensure they have the feedback they need, especially if developing a completely new or disruptive product.

Market Testing: Soft-Launching a Product

While product testing should always be utilized in some form or another before launching a product, market testing (or test marketing) isn't always incorporated into the process due to the fact that it can be costly and time-consuming. As a result, **market testing is an evaluation saved for only those products whose performance would be difficult to predict or those products that have seen inconsistent or on-the-fence feedback.**

Like product testing, test marketing is still used to identify potential problems with a product that exists outside of the development process, but in a real-life buying and usage situation. So unlike product testing, market testing occurs in the market (hence the name market testing). Additionally, **a large distinction should be made: market testing does not involve communication with consumers like** product testing does. For example, before a consumer participates in a beta test or IHUT, they have been informed of the study parameters and requirements for feedback. Market testing simply soft-launches a product in a chosen market for a period of time before evaluating the success of the product based on key performance indicators established before the test. Ultimately, market testing is meant to

- Understand actual consumer demand and appeal of a product-particularly on-shelf next to competitor products and under influence of external market factors
- Improve the success of a full product launch and mitigate the risk of a failed one

Market testing can be a complicated process of determining where, when, and how long to have a product in the market. While product testing gathers information on how to improve the product and can help you understand the relative satisfaction, test marketing provides metrics on the actual in-market performance of the product. Further, most market testing is primarily meant to provide feedback on how to improve the marketing strategy, not just the product. By using product and market testing together, a strong product and go-to-market strategy are likely to result.

12.11.2 Commercialization

Commercialization is broken into phases, from the initial introduction of the product through its mass production and adoption. Considerations should be made for production methods and volumes, what distributions channels will be used, what marketing techniques will be implemented, as well as reviewing the sales and customer support requirements.

It is not a case of just launching a product and hoping for the best. There has to be a structured plan - a strategy that has been clearly thought out and can be implemented in a controlled environment.

Commercialization strategy

1. What's the offering? (What are you trying to provide or create?)

Provide a holistic overview statement which clearly states what your product is and what it does and the benefits of using the product from a consumer/customer point of view. You should also state what the pricing strategy is going to be for both distribution channels and the end-user.

2. How does the product align with your core business?

Understanding how closely the product being launched aligns to the business core can determine some of the strategic directions required for the commercialization plan. The closer to the core, the fewer new strategies are required as a lot of the infrastructure would be re-usable. The more diverse from your core the more work is involved in setting up the new infrastructure.

Chris Zook in 'Beyond the Core' addresses several things when looking at a product opportunity with respect to the commercialization plan:

- A. **Core** - Known business strengths and competencies
- B. **Adjacency** - Relationship to the Core ranked from 0 (identical to the core) to Diversification (a completely new area).
- C. **Shared Economics** - There are five dimensions that when evaluated and measure

the distance from the core and can be used to determine the degree of relationship to the core: -

1. **Customers** - Are they the same as, or different from, customers currently served?
2. **Competitors** - Are they the same as, or different from, competitors currently encountered?
3. **Cost Structure** - Is the cost structure (infrastructure) the same or different? \
4. **Channels of distribution** - Are these the same or different?
5. **Singular capability / technology** - If there is a singular capability (brand, asset, technology) that gives the core business its uniqueness, then is this relevant in the new opportunity?

3. Identifying the target market/customers

From the test marketing carried out in the previous phase, you should have an initial target market and customer profile already identified within the strategic plan. Now it is time to scale up operations and start to capitalize on all the hard work and dedication that has been got the new product this far.

4. Business plan and forecast

Part of the business and commercialization plan is forecasting - generally looking ahead three years. The forecast generally includes most of the following elements:

- Sales quantities
- Gross Margin and Gross Margin as a percentage of Sales
- Operating Income and Operating Income as a percentage of Sales
- CAPEX - Capital Expenditure
- RONA- Return On Net Assets

5. Commercialization risks & issues

As with any risk analysis, you need to identify all the risks and potential issues that

could affect the commercialization of your product. Once the risks have been written down; rate them from high to low and ensure you have risk mitigation actions in place to overcome the risks.

One method of generating a risk analysis plan is to follow the steps below (this is pretty close to an FMEA):

- Risk Description.- Detailed description of the risk
- Rank the Likelihood of the risk occurring: - How likely is the risk to occur?
- Rank the impact of the risk occurring: - What will the impact be if the risk did occur?
- Calculate risk value:- multiply the two values to get a risk value
- Assess risk values:- Assess the risk values. A good way of doing this is with a Pareto chart
- Generate action plan for all critical risks- Actions need to be generated that mitigate the risks as best can be
- Re-evaluate risks after actions are in-place: - Re-evaluation will allow you to review and assess how successful the actions will be when implemented.

6. Don't use a "Ready, Fire, Aim" commercialization strategy

To maximize your chances for success, you need to be thoughtful in developing the strategies behind your new products. Innovations can happen in the commercialization of a product as easily as in the product itself. Think about all the ways you can build upon and leverage your commercialization strategy and you might find your sales teams more engaged in the product launch, your customers understanding what's in it for them, and ultimately your new product goals being achieved.

12.11.3 Challenges in New Product Development

Historically, a company creates a product to fill a need or want in its immediate marketing area. As the company grows, it expands the marketing area until the product is marketed nationally. After a product reaches national distribution, the company

typically decides to either expand internationally or develop other products and remain a national distributor. With the growth of the global economy in recent years, even start-ups now build eventual international distribution into their initial business plans. Companies now need to consider the challenges of international distribution in the initial product development process.

Social Challenges

Products are developed to meet a specific need or want. Just because we have a need or want in the U. S., doesn't mean that need or want is universal. Different countries are at different stages of economic development, and the need or want we have might not have developed in enough other countries to create a viable target market. Other countries have different cultures and different food preferences, grooming habits, living quarters, recreational opportunities, lifestyles and clothes. English speakers might be few. Brand names may not translate appropriately. Countries may have no interest in a particular good or service that is selling well in America.

Technical Challenges

American companies have done a good job of standardizing technology, but so have other countries, and those standards don't always match. Standard electrical voltage differs from country to country, so products must be designed to run on different voltages, and they need different plugs to fit different receptacles. Local water pressure might be different. Lettering on dials, knobs, levers or buttons, might need to be in different languages. Some use Fahrenheit systems to measure temperature while others use Celsius. Some use metric measurements, while some use other measurement systems. Raw materials readily available in America might not be available in other countries. Phone, radio, television and ISP signals might be totally different from country to country.

Legal and Regulatory Challenges

Some countries prohibit the importation of certain items to protect domestic industries. Others might require government approval to operate or require you work with local partners. Trademark, copyright and patent protection laws might be nonexistent.

Different environmental regulations might have to be observed. Certain products might be banned for political or religious reasons. Permits or licenses might be needed to perform basic activities. You may not be able to overcome some of these challenges, so it is important to understand them before you invest resources.

Distribution Challenges

In America, if you can get Wal-Mart and Target to carry your product, you have instant national distribution. Most other countries don't have that type of national distribution available to them. You have to work with dozens of regional chains, distributors and independent stores. Many countries, such as India, have large outlying areas that are served by thousands of small mom-and-pop stores or retail trucks. It can be a real challenge to get your product from the import docks to a place where a customer can buy it.

Promotional Challenges

In America, we have a variety of effective methods to promote a product and communicate with our customers. We can use television, radio, direct mail, magazines, social media, billboards, telemarketing and product placement in movies. Many other countries just don't have these promotional methods, certainly not to the extent we have here. You may have to use a grass roots approach, which is much harder. In addition, there may be cultural limitations. Our promotion tend to have a sexual orientation. The beautiful model as spokesperson, shot in revealing swim wear or with plunging neckline might be taboo in many companies. You may find you have to use methods with which you have no experience. You might have to completely redo packaging or promotional materials at considerable expense.

Product development refers to the entire process of conceptualizing ideas, designing, developing and eventually introducing a new product or service in the market so that it not only outshines competitors but also earn huge revenues for the organization. Launch of a new product definitely raises the expectations of end- users who look forward to something which fulfils their needs and also does not bum a hole in pocket.

Coming out with a new product is not that easy as it seems to be and requires focus, vision, able guidance and working out even the minutest details. There are many

challenges involved in new product development and it is essential for the organization and employees associated with it to overcome the same before taking the final plunge.

Some Other Challenges

The first and foremost challenge is to bring skilled people on board who can contribute effectively towards the development of a new product. Launching a new product requires thorough market research, surveys, meeting clients to understand their buying behaviour and preferences. Organizations need to do their homework carefully in the beginning itself for long term success. Not many people are quite comfortable moving out in the field, talking to end-users to find out what type of product would be an instant hit among them. If such people are entrusted the responsibility of developing new product, it would be extremely difficult for the brand to find acceptance among target audience. Data collection, surveys, studying market trends are extremely crucial in new product development and wrong people doing the same would lead to wastage of company resources. **Identifying the right individual who has the passion to think out of the box and doing things differently is a big challenge in new product development.** Employees who work just for salary would not be able to do justice in such a role.

Paper work, sorting out legal matters, necessary permissions from external (government agencies), copyright issues requires undivided attention and pose to be a major threat in new product development. Organizations need to ensure they have individuals who are excellent in tie ups, liasoning and eventually getting things done. Make sure you have someone who can arrange for permits, product licences so that you do not land up in soup.

Before investing, it is essential for the organization to have the right technology, machines, and infrastructure which support the manufacturing of new product. If you do not have the right kind of machinery, delivering new product within the stipulated time frame can be a major challenge. It is essential for the organization to have experts who can operate high- end machines and also know their jobs well. Believe me, it is foolish to think about developing a new product unless and until an organization has individuals who are not only technically sound but also can design product specifications

and work on specific parameters.

Most of the times, problems crop up due to financial constraints. Organizations need to allocate budgets carefully so that they do not fall short of money towards the end. Remember, it is crucial for organizations to work on financial challenges before even thinking of launching a new product in the market. Do not forget that advertisements, brochures, pamphlets, promotional campaigns also involve a certain cost.

Promoting a product can' also be a challenge sometimes. You need to carefully design your promotional material so that it does not hurt the sentiments of any particular group or religion. Organizations need to be prepared to face criticism or negative feedbacks from customers after the launch of their new product. In cases, where the new product could not create a market for itself, you need to rethink and prelaunch the same. Be prepared for the worst and learn to face tough times with a smile.

12.12 SUMMARY

Every single product in the market has definite period of existence, during this period of existence product underwent different stages like introduction stage, growth stage, maturity and finally the decline stage. During each stage product has to survive different issues and challenges. In order to make the product a huge success in the market, it is very important to design the separate marketing strategies for every stage or phase of product life cycle. Realistically, one could classify the stage of possible abandonment as the sixth stage in the product life cycle concept. Nothing lasts forever. There will come a point where a product's sales volume and profit will decline. At this stage, small business managers must consider if the effort and resources required to keep the product 'alive' are justified. The key question to consider: "Is the product still financially viable?" Or, in other words, management must decide whether to continue investing in the product or divest.

12.13 GLOSSARY

Product Life Cycle: Different phases through which product passes during its entire lifetime.

Decline Phase: the last stage of product life cycle when the sales of the company decline due to change in preference of consumer.

Slow Skimming: A strategy under which low prices are being charged at introductory phase.

Rapid Skimming: A strategy under which high prices are being charged at introductory phase.

Rapid Penetration Strategy: A strategy under which the objective of firm is to gain market share and profit maximization.

12.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1 Write a short note on: -

- a) Product Life Cycle
- b) Maturity Phase
- c) Rapid Penetration Strategy
- d) Slow skimming

12.15 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q1 Elaborate the different stages of product life cycle.
- Q2 Explain the concept of Product Life Cycle with the help of an example.
- Q3 What are the different marketing strategies for growth stage?
- Q4 What are the short comings of the concept Product Life Cycle?
- Q5 What are the benefits of using the product life cycle as a tool in pursuits of marketing?

Q6 Examine the relevance of introduction phase for determining the success of product in marketplace.

12.16 SUGGESTED READING

Kotler,P. Marketing Management. Eleventh Edition. Pearson Education.

Saxena, R. Marketing Management. Third Edition. McGraw Hill companies.

Kumar, A and Meenakshi, N. Marketing Management. Vikas Publishing House Pvt Ltd.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 13

PRODUCT & PRICE - MIX DECISIONS

Unit - III

**PRICING STRATEGIES: UNDERSTANDING PRICING AND SETTING
OF THE PRICE**

STRUCTURE

13.1 Introduction

13.2 Objectives

13.3 Understanding Pricing

13.3.1 Internal Factors Affecting Pricing Decision

13.3.2 External Factors Affecting Pricing Decisions

13.4 Price Adjustment Strategies

13.5 Setting Pricing Policy

13.6 General Pricing Approaches

13.7 Summary

13.8 Glossary

13.9 Self Assessment Questions

13.10 Lesson End Exercises

13.11 Suggested Readings

13.1 INTRODUCTION

Price goes by many names in our economy. In the narrowest sense, price is the amount of money charged for a product or service. Price is the only element in the marketing mix that produces revenue; all other elements represent costs. Price is also one of the most flexible elements of the marketing mix. Unlike product features and channel commitments, price can be changed quickly. At the same time, pricing and price competition is the number-one problem facing many marketing executives.

Yet, many companies do not handle pricing well. The most common mistakes are pricing that is too cost oriented rather than customer-value oriented; prices that are not revised often enough to reflect market changes; pricing that does not take the rest of the marketing mix into account; and prices that are not varied enough for different products, market segments, and purchase occasions. Price the 2nd P of Marketing Mix.

13.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- **Differentiate** between different pricing strategies
- **Give an understanding** company's reactions to change in competitor's pricing
- **Identify** the pricing methods used by companies

13.3 UNDERSTANDING PRICING : SETTING PRICES- FACTORS UNDER CONSIDERATION

A company's pricing decisions are affected by both internal company factors and external environmental factors:

13.3.1 Internal Factors Affecting Pricing Decision

Internal factors affecting pricing include the company's marketing objectives, marketing mix strategy, costs, and organizational considerations.

I. Marketing Objectives : Before setting price, the company must decide on its strategy for the product. If the company has selected its target market and positioning carefully, then its marketing mix strategy, including price, will be fairly straightforward. Pricing strategy is largely determined by decisions on market positioning. At the same time, the company may seek additional objectives. The clearer a firm is about its objectives, the easier it is to set price. Examples of common objectives are survival, current profit maximization, market share leadership, and product quality leadership. Companies set survival as their major objective if they are troubled by too much capacity, heavy competition, or changing customers' wants. To keep a plant going, a company may set a low price, hoping to increase demand. In this case, profits are less important than survival. As long as their prices cover variable costs and some fixed costs, they can stay in business. However, survival is only a short-term objective. In the long run, the firm must learn how to add value that consumers will pay for or face extinction.

Many companies use current profit maximization as their pricing goal. They estimate what demand and costs will be at different prices and choose the price that will produce the maximum current profit, cash flow, or return on investment. In all cases, the company wants current financial results rather than long-run performance. Other companies want to obtain market share leadership. They believe that the company with the largest market share will enjoy the lowest costs and highest long-run profit. To become the market share leader, these firms set prices as low as possible.

A company might decide that it wants to achieve product quality leadership. This normally calls for charging a high price to cover higher performance quality and the high cost of R & D. A company might also use price to attain other, more specific objectives. It can set prices low to prevent competition from entering the market or set prices at competitors' levels to stabilize the market. Prices can be set to keep the loyalty and support of resellers or to avoid government intervention. Prices can be reduced temporarily to create excitement for a product or to draw more customers into a retail store. One product may be priced to help the sales of other products in the company's line. Thus, pricing may play an important role in helping to accomplish the company's objectives at many levels.

Nonprofit and public organizations may adopt a number of other pricing objectives. A university aims for partial cost recovery, knowing that it must rely on private gifts and public grants to cover the remaining costs. A nonprofit hospital may aim for full cost recovery in its pricing.

Marketing Mix Strategy: Price is only one of the marketing mix tools that a company uses to achieve its marketing objectives. Price decisions must be coordinated with product design, distribution, and promotion decisions to form a consistent and effective marketing program. Decisions made for other marketing mix variables may affect pricing decisions. For example, producers using many resellers who are expected to support and promote their products may have to build larger reseller margins into their prices. The decision to position the product on high-performance quality will mean that the seller must charge a higher price to cover higher costs.

Companies often position their products on price and then base other marketing mix decisions on the prices they want to charge. Here, price is a crucial product-positioning factor that defines the product's market, competition, and design. Many firms support such price-positioning strategies with a technique called target costing, a potent strategic weapon. Target costing reverses the usual process of first designing a new product, determining its cost, and then asking, "Can we sell it for that?" Instead, it starts with an ideal selling price based on customer considerations, and then targets costs that will ensure that the price is met.

Other companies de emphasize price and use other marketing mix tools to create non price positions. Often, the best strategy is not to charge the lowest price, but rather to differentiate the marketing offer to make it worth a higher price. Thus, the marketer must consider the total marketing mix when setting prices. If the product is positioned on nonprice factors, then decisions about quality, promotion, and distribution will strongly affect price. If price is a crucial positioning factor, then price will strongly affect decisions made about the other marketing mix elements. However, even when featuring price, marketers need to remember that customers rarely buy on price alone. Instead, they seek products that give them the best value in terms of benefits received

for the price paid. Thus, in most cases, the company will consider price along with all the other marketing-mix elements when developing the marketing program.

II. Costs

Costs set the floor for the price that the company can charge for its product. The company wants to charge a price that both covers all its costs for producing, distributing, and selling the product and delivers a fair rate of return for its effort and risk. A company's costs may be an important element in its pricing strategy. Companies with lower costs can set lower prices that result in greater sales and profits.

III. Organizational Considerations

Management must decide who within the organization should set prices. Companies handle pricing in a variety of ways. In small companies, prices are often set by top management rather than by the marketing or sales departments. In large companies, pricing is typically handled by divisional or product line managers. In industrial markets, salespeople may be allowed to negotiate with customers within certain price ranges. Even so, top management sets the pricing objectives and policies, and it often approves the prices proposed by lower-level management or salespeople. In industries in which pricing is a key factor (aerospace, railroads, oil companies), companies often have a pricing department to set the best prices or help others in setting them. This department reports to the marketing department or top management. Others who have an influence on pricing include sales managers, production managers, finance managers, and accountants.

13.3.2 External Factors Affecting Pricing Decisions

External factors that affect pricing decisions include the nature of the market and demand, competition, and other environmental elements.

I. The Market and Demand

Whereas costs set the lower limit of prices, the market and demand set the upper limit. Both consumer and industrial buyers balance the price of a product or service against the benefits of owning it. Thus, before setting prices, the marketer must

understand the relationship between price and demand for its product. In this section, we explain how the price–demand relationship varies for different types of markets and how buyer perceptions of price affect the pricing decision. We then discuss methods for measuring the price–demand relationship.

- **Pricing in Different Types of Markets**

The seller’s pricing freedom varies with different types of markets. Economists recognize four types of markets, each presenting a different pricing challenge. Under pure competition, the market consists of many buyers and sellers trading in a uniform commodity such as wheat, copper. No single buyer or seller has much effect on the going market price. A seller cannot charge more than the going price because buyers can obtain as much as they not always charge the full price for a number of reasons: a desire to not attract competition, a desire to penetrate the market faster with a low price, or a fear of government regulation.

- **Consumer Perceptions of Price and Value**

In the end, the consumer will decide whether a product’s price is right. Pricing decisions, like other marketing mix decisions, must be buyer oriented. When consumers buy a product, they exchange something of value (the price) to get something of value (the benefits of having or using the product). Effective, buyer-oriented pricing involves understanding how much value consumers place on the benefits they receive from the product and setting a price that fits this value. A company often finds it hard to measure the values customers will attach to its product. For example, calculating the cost of ingredients in a meal at a fancy restaurant is relatively easy. But assigning a value to other satisfactions such as taste, environment, relaxation, conversation, and status is very hard. These values will vary both for different consumers and different situations. Still, consumers will use these values to evaluate a product’s price. If customers perceive that the price is greater than the product’s value, they will not buy the product. If consumers perceive that the price is below the product’s value, they will buy it, but the seller loses profit opportunities.

II. Competitors' Costs, Prices, and Offers

Another external factor affecting the company's pricing decisions is competitors' costs and prices and possible competitor reactions to the company's own pricing moves. When setting prices, the company also must consider other factors in its external environment. Economic conditions can have a strong impact on the firm's pricing strategies. Economic factors such as boom or recession, inflation, and interest rates affect pricing decisions because they affect both the costs of producing a product and consumer perceptions of the product's price and value. The company must also consider what impact its prices will have on other parties in its environment. How will resellers react to various prices? The company should set prices that give resellers a fair profit, encourage their support, and help them to sell the product effectively. The government is another important external influence on pricing decisions. Finally, social concerns may have to be taken into account.

In setting prices, a company's short-term sales, market share, and profit goals may have to be tempered by broader societal considerations.

13.4 PRICE ADJUSTMENT STRATEGIES

We have already discussed the different factors affecting pricing decisions and approaches that can be used to price the product/services, today we will discuss price-adjustment strategies. Price adjustment strategies account for customer differences and start changing situations, and strategies for initiating and responding to price changes.

Companies usually adjust their basic prices to account for various customer differences and changing situations. Fig summarizes six price-adjustment strategies: discount and allowance pricing, segmented pricing, psychological pricing, promotional pricing, geographical pricing, and international pricing.

a. Discount and Allowance Pricing : Most companies adjust their basic price to reward customers for certain responses, such as early payment of bills, volume purchases, and off-season buying. These price adjustments—called discounts and allowances—can take many forms. A **cash discount** is a price reduction to buyers who pay their bills promptly. A typical example is “2/10, net 30,” which means that although payment is due within 30 days, the buyer can deduct 2 percent if the bill is paid within 10 days. The discount must

be granted to all buyers meeting these terms. Such discounts are customary in many industries and help to improve the sellers' cash situation and reduce bad debts and credit collection costs.

A **quantity discount** is a price reduction to buyers who buy large volumes. A typical example might be Rs10 per unit for less than 100 units, Rs 9 per unit for 100 or more units." By law, quantity discounts must be offered equally to all customers and must not exceed the seller's cost savings associated with selling large quantities. These savings include lower selling, inventory, and transportation expenses. Discounts provide an incentive to the customer to buy more from one given seller, rather than from many different sources.

A **functional discount** (also called a trade discount) is offered by the seller to trade channelmembers who perform certain functions, such as selling, storing, and record keeping. Manufacturers may offer different functional discounts to different trade channels because of the varying services they perform, but manufacturers must offer the same functional discounts within each trade channel.

A **seasonal discount** is a price reduction to buyers who buy merchandise or services out of season. For example, lawn and garden equipment manufacturers offer seasonal discounts to retailers during the fall and winter months to encourage early ordering in anticipation of the heavy spring and summer selling seasons. Hotels, motels, and airlines will offer seasonal discounts in their slower selling periods. Seasonal discounts allow the seller to keep production steady during an entire year.

Allowances are another type of reduction from the list price. For example, trade-in allowances are price reductions given for turning in an old item when buying a new one. Trade-in allowances are most common in the automobile industry but are also given for other durable goods. Promotional allowances are payments or price reductions to reward dealers for participating in advertising and sales support programs.

b. Segmented Pricing : Companies will often adjust their basic prices to allow for differences in customers, products, and locations. In segmented pricing, the company sells a product or service at two or more prices, even though the difference in prices is not based on differences in costs. Segmented pricing takes several forms. Under customer-segment pricing, different customers pay different prices for the same product or service.

Museums, for example, will charge a lower admission for students and senior citizens. Under product-form pricing, different versions of the product are priced differently but not according to differences in their costs. Using location pricing, a company charges different prices for different locations, even though the cost of offering at each location is the same. For instance, theaters vary their seat prices because of audience preferences for certain locations. Finally, using time pricing, a firm varies its price by the season, the month, the day, and even the hour. Public utilities vary their prices to commercial users by time of day and weekend versus weekday. The telephone company offers lower off-peak charges, and resorts give seasonal discounts.

For segmented pricing to be an effective strategy, certain conditions must exist. The market must be segmentable, and the segments must show different degrees of demand. Members of the segment paying the lower price should not be able to turn around and resell the product to the segment paying the higher price. Competitors should not be able to undersell the firm in the segment being charged the higher price. Nor should the costs of segmenting and watching the market exceed the extra revenue obtained from the price difference. Of course, the segmented pricing must also be legal. Most importantly, segmented prices should reflect real differences in customers' perceived value. Otherwise, in the long run, the practice will lead to customer resentment and ill will.

c. Psychological Pricing : Price says something about the product. For example, many consumers use price to judge quality. An Rs1 000 bottle of perfume may contain only Rs300 worth of scent, but some people are willing to pay the Rs 1000 because this price indicates something special. In using psychological pricing, sellers consider the psychology of prices and not simply the economics. For example, one study of the relationship between price and quality perceptions of cars found that consumers perceive higher-priced cars as having higher quality. By the same token, higher-quality cars are perceived to be even higher priced than they actually are. When consumers can judge the quality of a product by examining it or by calling on past experience with it, they use price less to judge quality. When consumers cannot judge quality because they lack the information or skill, price becomes an important quality signal: Another aspect of psychological pricing is reference pricing—prices that buyers carry

in their minds and refer to when looking at a given product. The reference price might be formed by noting current prices, remembering past prices, or assessing the buying situation. Sellers can influence or use these consumers' reference prices when setting price. For example, a company could display its product next to more expensive ones in order to imply that it belongs in the same class. Department stores often sell women's clothing in separate departments differentiated by price: Clothing found in the more expensive department is assumed to be of better quality.

Companies can also influence consumers' reference prices by stating high manufacturer's suggested prices, by indicating that the product was originally priced much higher, or by pointing to a competitor's higher price.

d. Promotional pricing : Companies will temporarily price their products below list price and sometimes even below cost. Promotional pricing takes several forms. Supermarkets and department stores will price a few products as loss leaders to attract customers to the store in the hope that they will buy other items at normal markups. Sellers will also use special-event pricing in certain seasons to draw more customers. Manufacturers will sometimes offer cash rebates to consumers who buy the product from dealers within a specified time; the manufacturer sends the rebate directly to the customer. Rebates have been popular with automakers and producers of durable goods and small appliances, but they are also used with consumer-packaged goods. Some manufacturers offer low-interest financing, longer warranties, or free maintenance to reduce the consumer's "price." This practice has recently become a favorite of the auto industry. Or, the seller may simply offer discounts from normal prices to increase sales and reduce inventories. Promotional pricing, however, can have adverse effects. Used too frequently and copied by competitors, price promotions can create "deal-prone" customers who wait until brands go on sale before buying them. Or, constantly reduced prices can erode a brand's value in the eyes of customers.

Marketers sometimes use price promotions as a quick fix instead of sweating through the difficult process of developing effective longer-term strategies for building their brands. In fact, one observer notes that price promotions can be downright addicting to both the company and the customer. The point is that promotional pricing can be an effective means of generating sales in certain circumstances but can be damaging if taken as a steady diet.

e. Geographical Pricing : A company also must decide how to price its products for customers located in different parts of the country or world. Should the company take risk of losing the business of more distant customers by charging them higher prices to cover the higher shipping costs? Or should the company charge all customers the same prices regardless of location? Because each customer picks up its own cost, supporters of FOB pricing feel that this is the fairest way to assess freight charges. The disadvantage, however, is that Peerless will be a high-cost firm to distant customers? Uniform-delivered pricing is the opposite of FOB pricing. Here, the company charges the same price plus freight to all customers, regardless of their location. The freight charge is set at the average freight cost. Other advantages of uniform-delivered pricing are that it is fairly easy to administer and it lets the firm advertise its price nationally. Zone pricing falls between FOB-origin pricing and uniform-delivered pricing. The company sets up two or more zones. All customers within a given zone pay a single total price; the more distant the zone, the higher the price. Using base point pricing, the seller selects a given city as a “basing point” and charges all customers the freight cost from that city to the customer location, regardless of the city from which the goods are actually shipped. If all sellers used the same basing-point city, delivered prices would be the same for all customers and price competition would be eliminated.

Industries such as sugar, cement, steel, and automobiles used basing-point pricing for years, but this method has become less popular today. Some companies set up multiple basing points to create more flexibility: They quote freight charges from the basing-point city nearest to the customer.

Finally, the seller who is anxious to do business with a certain customer or geographical area might use freight-absorption pricing. Using this strategy, the seller absorbs all or part of the actual freight charges in order to get the desired business. The seller might reason that if it can get more business, its average costs will fall and more than compensate for its extra freight cost. Freight absorption pricing is used for market penetration and to hold on to increasingly competitive markets.

f. International Pricing : Companies that market their products internationally must decide what prices to charge in the different countries in which they operate. In some

cases, a company can set a uniform worldwide price. The price that a company should charge in a specific country depends on many factors, including economic conditions, competitive situations, laws and regulations, and development of the wholesaling and retailing system. Consumer perceptions and preferences also may vary from country to country, calling for different prices. Or the company may have different marketing objectives in various world markets, which require changes in pricing strategy. Costs play an important role in setting international prices. Travelers abroad are often surprised to find that goods that are relatively inexpensive at home may carry outrageously higher price tags in other countries. In some cases, such price escalation may result from differences in selling strategies or market conditions. In most instances, however, it is simply a result of the higher costs of selling in foreign markets—the additional costs of modifying the product, higher shipping and insurance costs, import tariffs and taxes, costs associated with exchange-rate fluctuations, and higher channel and physical distribution costs.

13.5 SETTING THE PRICE

Pricing policy setting starts with setting the pricing objective that can be: Profit Oriented (concerned with increase in profit), Sales Oriented (basically concerned with increase in sales) and Status Quo Oriented. Whereas costs set the lower limit of prices, the market and demand set the upper limit. Both consumer and industrial buyers balance the price of a product or service against the benefits of owning it. Thus, before setting prices, the marketer must understand the relationship between price and demand for its product. In this section, we explain how the price–demand relationship varies for different types of markets and how buyer perceptions of price affect the pricing decision. Costs set the floor for the price that the company can charge for its product.

The company wants to charge a price that both covers all its costs for producing, distributing, and selling the product and delivers a fair rate of return for its effort and risk. A company's costs may be an important element in its pricing strategy. Companies with lower costs can set lower prices that result in greater sales and profits.

Company's pricing decisions are also affected by competitors' costs and prices and

possible competitor reactions to the company's own pricing moves therefore while setting the prices these facts should also kept in mind. Final step is setting the final price by using different methods.

13.6 GENERAL PRICING APPROACHES

The price the company charges will be somewhere between one that is too low to produce a profit and one that is too high to produce any demand. Figure summarizes the major considerations in setting price. Product costs set a floor to the price; consumer perceptions of the product's value set the ceiling. The company must consider competitors' prices and other external and internal factors to find the best price between these two extremes. Companies set prices by selecting a general pricing approach that includes one or more of three sets of factors. We examine these approaches: the *cost-based approach* (cost-plus pricing, break-even analysis, and target profit pricing) the *buyer based approach* (value-based pricing) and the *competition-based approach* (going-rate and sealed-bid pricing).

- **Cost-Plus Pricing** : The simplest pricing method is cost-plus pricing—adding a standard markup to the cost of the product. Construction companies, for example, submit job bids by estimating the total project cost and adding a standard markup for profit. Lawyers, accountants, and other professionals typically price by adding a standard markup to their costs. Some sellers tell their customers they will charge cost plus a specified markup; for example, aerospace companies price this way to the government.

Do using standard markups to set prices make sense? Generally, no. Any pricing method that ignores demand and competitor prices is not likely to lead to the best price. Markup pricing works only if that price actually brings in the expected level of sales. Still, markup pricing remains popular for many reasons. First, sellers are more certain about costs than about demand. By tying the price to cost, sellers simplify pricing—they do not have to make frequent adjustments as demand changes. Second, when all firms in the industry use this pricing method, prices tend to be similar and price competition is thus minimized. Third, many people feel that cost-plus pricing is fairer to both buyers and sellers. Sellers earn a fair return on their investment but do not take advantage of buyers when buyers' demand becomes great.

- **Break-even Analysis and Target Profit Pricing** : Another cost-oriented pricing approach is break-even pricing (or a variation called target profit pricing the firm tries to determine the price at which it will break even or make the target profit it is seeking. This pricing method is also used by public utilities, which are constrained to make a fair return on their investment. Target pricing uses the concept of a *break-even chart*, which shows the total cost and total revenue expected at different sales volume levels.

Fixed costs are same regardless of sales volume. Variable costs are added to fixed costs to form total costs, which rise with volume. The total revenue curve starts at zero and rises with each unit sold. The manufacturer should consider different prices and estimate break-even volumes, probable demand, and profits for each.

- **Value-Based Pricing** : An increasing number of companies are basing their prices on the product's perceived value. Value-based pricing uses buyers' perceptions of value, not the seller's cost, as the key to pricing. Value-based pricing means that the marketer cannot design a product and marketing program and then set the price. Price is considered along with the other marketing mix variables *before* the marketing program is set.

Cost-based pricing is product driven. The company designs what it considers to be a good product, totals the costs of making the product, and sets a price that covers costs plus a target profit. Marketing must then convince buyers that the product's value at that price justifies its purchase. If the price turns out to be too high, the company must settle for lower markups or lower sales, both resulting in disappointing profits.

- **Cost-based versus value-based pricing** : Value-based pricing reverses this process. The company sets its target price based on customer perceptions of the product value. The targeted value and price then drive decisions about product design and what costs can be incurred. As a result, pricing begins with analyzing consumer needs and value perceptions, and price is set to match consumers' perceived value. A company using value-based pricing must find out what value buyers assign to different competitive offers. However, measuring perceived value could be difficult. Sometimes,

consumers are asked how much they would pay for a basic product and for each benefit added to the offer. Or a company might conduct experiments to test the perceived value of different product offers. If the seller charges more than the buyers' perceived value, the company's sales will suffer. Many companies overprice their products, and their products sell poorly. Other companies under price. Under priced products sell very well, but they produce less revenue than they would have if price were raised to the perceived-value level.

During the past decade, marketers have noted a fundamental shift in consumer attitudes toward price and quality. Many companies have changed their pricing approaches to bring them into line with changing economic conditions and consumer price perceptions. The best way to hold your customers is to constantly figure out how to give them more for less. Thus, more and more, marketers have adopted value pricing strategies i.e. offering just the right combination of quality and good service at a fair price. In many cases, this have involved the introduction of less expensive versions of established, brand-name products. In many business to business marketing situations, the pricing challenge is to find ways to maintain the company's *pricing power* i.e. its power to maintain or even raise prices without losing market share. To retain pricing power to escape price competition and to justify higher prices and margins a firm must retain or build the value of its marketing offer. This is especially true for suppliers of commodity products, which are characterized by little differentiation and intense price competition. In such cases, many companies adopt *value-added* strategies. Rather than cutting prices to match competitors, they attach value-added services to differentiate their offers and thus support higher margins.

- **Competition-Based Pricing:** Consumers will base their judgments of a product's value on the prices that competitors charge for similar products. One form of competition-based pricing is *going-rate pricing*, in which a firm bases its price largely on competitors' prices, with less attention paid to its own costs or to demand. The firm might charge the same, more, or less than its major competitors. In oligopolistic industries that sell a commodity such as steel, paper, or fertilizer, firms normally charge the same price. The smaller firms follow the leader: They change their prices when the market leader's prices change, rather than when their own demand or costs change.

Some firms may charge a bit more or less, but they hold the amount of difference constant.

Thus, minor gasoline retailers usually charge a few cents less than the major oil companies, without letting the difference increase or decrease. Going-rate pricing is quite popular. When demand elasticity is hard to measure, firms feel that the going price represents the collective wisdom of the industry concerning the price that will yield a fair return. They also feel that holding to the going price will prevent harmful price wars.

Competition-based pricing is also used when firms *bid* for jobs. Using *sealed-bid pricing*, a firm bases its price on how it thinks competitors will price rather than on its own costs or on the demand. The firm wants to win a contract, and winning the contract requires pricing less than other firms. Yet the firm cannot set its price below a certain level. It cannot price below cost without harming its position. In contrast, the higher the company sets its price above its costs, the lower its chance of getting the contract.

Pricing decisions are subject to an incredibly complex array of environmental and competitive forces. A company sets not a single price, but rather a *pricing structure* that covers different items in its line. This pricing structure changes over time as products move through their life cycles. The company adjusts product prices to reflect changes in costs and demand and to account for variations in buyers and situations. As the competitive environment changes, the company considers when to initiate price changes and when to respond to them.

- **New-Product Pricing Strategies :** Pricing strategies usually change as the product passes through its life cycle. The introductory stage is especially challenging. Companies bringing out a new product face the challenge of setting prices for the first time. They can choose between two broad strategies: *market-skimming pricing* and *market penetration pricing*.

- **Market-Skimming Pricing :** Many companies that invent new products initially set high prices to “skim” revenues layer by layer from the market. Intel is a prime user of this strategy, called market-skimming pricing. Market skimming makes sense only

under certain conditions. First, the product's quality and image must support its higher price, and enough buyers must want the product at that price. Second, the costs of producing a smaller volume cannot be so high that they cancel the advantage of charging more. Finally, competitors should not be able to enter the market easily and undercut the high price.

- **Market-Penetration Pricing :** Rather than setting a high initial price to *skim* off small but profitable market segments, some companies use market-penetration pricing. They set a low initial price in order to *penetrate* the market quickly and deeply to attract a large number of buyers quickly and win a large market share. The high sales volume results in falling costs, allowing the company to cut its price even further. Several conditions must be met for this low-price strategy to work. First, the market must be highly price sensitive so that a low price produces more market growth. Second, production and distribution costs must fall as sales volume increases. Finally, the low price must help keep out the competition, and the price of the service is broken into a *fixed fee* plus a *variable usage rate*. Thus, a telephone company charges a monthly rate, the fixed fee plus charges for calls beyond some minimum number at the variable usage rate. Amusement parks charge admission plus fees for food, midway attractions, and rides over a minimum. The service firm must decide how much to charge for the basic service and how much for the variable usage. The fixed amount should be low enough to induce usage of the service; profit can be made on the variable fees.

- **By-Product Pricing :** In producing processed meats, petroleum products, chemicals, and other products, there are often by-products. If the by-products have no value and if getting rid of them is costly, this will affect the pricing of the main product. Using by-product pricing, the manufacturer will seek a market for these by-products and should accept any price that covers more than the cost of storing and delivering them. This practice allows the seller to reduce the main product's price to make it more competitive. By-products can even turn out to be profitable. For example, many lumber mills have begun to sell bark chips and sawdust profitably as decorative mulch for home and commercial landscaping. Sometimes, companies don't realize how valuable their by-products are.

- **Product Bundle Pricing :** Using product bundle pricing, sellers often combine several of their products and offer the bundle at a reduced price. Thus, theaters and sports

teams sell season tickets at less than the cost of single tickets; hotels sell specially priced packages that include room, meals, and entertainment; computer makers include attractive software packages with their personal computers. Price bundling can promote the sales of products consumers might not otherwise buy, but the combined price must be low enough to get them to buy the bundle.

13.7 SUMMARY

All profit and nonprofit organizations must set prices on their products and services. Price goes by many names (rent, tuition, fee, fare, rate, interest, toll, premium, et cetera). Price is the amount of money charged for a product or service or the sum of the values that consumers exchange for the benefits of having or using the product or service. Historically, price has been the major factor affecting buyer choice. Recently, however, non price factors have become increasingly important in buyer-choice behavior. Throughout history, prices were set by negotiation between buyers and sellers. Fixed price policies means setting one price for all buyers which is a relatively modern idea that arose with the development of large-scale retailing at the end of the nineteenth century.

Today, we may be returning to dynamic pricing i.e. charging different prices depending on the individual customers and situations. The Internet is helping to tailor products and prices. It should be remembered that price is the only element in the marketing mix that produces revenue; all other elements represent costs. Price is also one of the most flexible of elements of the marketing mix. It has been stated that pricing and price competition is the number-one problem facing many marketing executives.

Many companies do not handle pricing well. Common mistakes that they make are:

- Pricing is too cost-oriented.
- Prices are not revised often enough to reflect market changes.
- Prices do not take into account the other elements of the marketing mix.
- Prices are not varied for different products, market segments, and purchase occasions.

All profit organizations and many nonprofit organizations must set prices on their products

or services. Price goes by many names Price is all around us. You pay rent for your apartment, tuition for your education, and a fee to your physician or dentist. The airline, railway, taxi, and bus companies charge you a fare; the local utilities call their price a rate; and the local bank charges you interest for the money you borrow. In the narrowest sense, price is the amount of money charged for a product or service. More broadly, price is the sum of all the values that consumers exchange for the benefits of having or using the product or service. Historically, price has been the major factor affecting buyer choice. This is still true in poorer nations, among poorer groups, and with commodity products. However, non-price factors have become more important in buyer-choice behavior in recent decades.

Throughout most of history, prices were set by negotiation between buyers and sellers. Fixed price policies- setting one price for all buyers - is a relatively modern idea that arose with the development of large-scale retailing at the end of the nineteenth century. Now, some one hundred years later, the Internet promises to reverse the fixed pricing trend and take us back to an era of dynamic pricing - charging different prices depending on individual customers and situations. The Internet, corporate networks, and wireless setups are connecting sellers and buyers as never before. New technologies allow sellers to collect detailed data about customers' buying habits, preferences - even spending limits-so they can tailor their products and prices.

13.8 GLOSSARY

Normative price – A price that is considered 'fair' by an individual or group

Positive price – The present cost or marked price of a product

Prestige pricing – The process of setting a price based on the perceived exclusivity or reputation of the company name or brand name of the product or service

Price elasticity of demand – The relative change in demand that occurs in response to a relative change in price

13.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the various factors that affect the price setting decisions? How can a manager forecast such factors?

2. How various types of competitors in the market affect the price decisions of a manager?

3. Explain in detail the various price adjustment strategies.

4. Differentiate among and explain the importance of various pricing strategies adopted by the managers in a perfect competition.

13.10 LESSON END EXERCISES

Fill in the blanks

1. When sellers combine several of their products and offer the bundle at a reduced price, its is called _____
2. Full form of FOB is _____

13.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Strategic Marketing (McGraw-Hill/Irwin Series in Marketing) by David Cravins
- Strategic Management and Business Policy. by Azhar Kazmi

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 14

PRODUCT & PRICE - MIX DECISIONS

Unit - III

**INITIATING AND RESPONDING TO PRICE CHANGES AND
REACTION AND RESPONDING TO COMPETITORS PRICE
CHANGES**

STRUCTURE

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Objectives
- 14.3 Consumption and Pricing
- 14.4 Price Sensitivity
 - 14.4.1 Case Study
- 14.5 Initiating and responding to price changes
 - 14.5.1 Circumstances under which price can be raised
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 - 14.5.3 Proactive Price Cut
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 - 14.5.5 Estimating Competition Reaction
- 14.6 Reaction and Responding to Competitors price changes
- 14.7 Tactics of Reaction
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14.9 Summary

14.10 Glossary

14.11 Self Assessment Questions

14.12 Lesson End Exercise

14.13 Suggested Readings

14.1 INTRODUCTION

Internal or external forces often lead an organization to change its prices. Price changes are often initiated by the organization. The organization also has to design its strategy to deal with price changes initiated by competitors.

Initiating price changes

An organization may initiate price changes to deal within new forces arising within the organization or the market. The price change may occur at both directions: increasing price or lowering prices.

Increasing price

Increasing price of a product is an attractive proposition for every business organization. since a small increase in the price results in huge increase in the revenue and profits. If an organization feels that the sales volume will not be affected by a small price increase, it may always be tempted to increase the price.

Most price rise are the results of inflation that causes the organization's costs to increase. Costs often increase when the government introduces new taxes or raises the current tax rates. Increase in the price of any factors of production, wage levels, raw materials prices and interest rates may cause the price to increase. Often organizations anticipate such increases and may raise the price of its products in advance.

Sometimes, an organization may increase the price in order to reduce the demand for the product. When an organization cannot increase the supply of its over demanded

product, it may raise the price level to manage the demand at the current supply point.

Lowering price

Several situations lead an organization to reduce the price of its products. Organizations with excess capacity try for extra sales in order to achieve higher capacity utilization rates. In such a situation, it may find lowering price the most easy method of achieving higher sales volume.

Some organizations often lower the price to achieve higher sales volume, and thereby capture larger market share. These organizations believe that once they are to dominate the market and hold to a large market share, the resulting sales volume may allow it to achieve economies of scale.

Lowering price is a very risky strategy. It usually invites sharp reactions from competitors and often results into a price war. Careless price cuts may lead an organization into the following traps:

Low quality trap

An organization initiating price cuts may fall in a low quality trap when consumers associate the new low prices to a poorer quality product.

Fragile market trap

It may fall into a fragile market trap when price sensitive consumers wait for further price cuts or search for cheaper products.

Shallow pocket trap

It may fall into the shallow pocket trap if financially strong organizations react by huge price cuts to counter the price cuts initiated by a weak organization.

Responding to price changes

An organization faces a strategic decision situation when competitors initiate price changes. Responding to the price change, particularly in the case of price cuts is a difficult question. The organization has to consider the objective and time frame of the price change. The following clues are important in responding to price changes:

- If the price cut has been initiated in order to use excess capacity or to cover rising costs, it does not warrant any response.
- If the price change is temporary or short term, initiated to clear old stocks, there is no need for response.
- If the objective is to dominate the market and the price change is long term. the organization has to respond quickly and effectively.
- The organization should also evaluate the consequences of non response to the price change.
- If the price change does not seriously affect it current sales and market share, there is no need for response.
- Before showing any response, it should carefully watch how other competitors react to the price change.

Responding to a competitor's price change is also influenced by the status of the organization in the market. Small follower firms are forced to follow the price changes initiated by a large organization that forced to follow the price changes initiated by a large organization that performs the role of the price leader. The price leader normally establishes the market price that is adopted by several price follower firms.

Sometimes, the price leader is also troubled by smaller firms through severe price cuts. In such a situation, the price leader has the options or response or non response. The leader organization may not respond if it does not expect to lose any significant portion of its market share.

If the price cut is expected to seriously hurt the market share and profit situation the leader organization may take one or more of the strategic options:

Option 1: Increase customers perceived value of the product by increasing promotional level.

Option 2: Increase the price complemented by an improvement in quality and features of the product. This requires a re-positioning strategy to establish the brand at a higher price position.

Option 3: Add a new lower price brand to the current product line and position it directly with the attacker's brand. This trading down strategy helps the organization to maintain high quality image for the old brand.

Option 4: As a last option reduce the price to offset the negative effects of the price attack.

14.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter you will be able to understand:

- Initiating to price changes
- Responding to price changes
- Reactions and responding to competitor's price changes

14.3 CONSUMPTION AND PRICING

Consumption of the offering is important to retain customers and to generate positive word of mouth about satisfaction. Pricing methods must be adjusted accordingly.

If a customer pays regularly for the service he is using, he is steadily reminded of the cost he is incurring and is more likely to use the service regularly. When a customer uses a service regularly, he is more likely to discover its benefits and continue using the service. In comparison, if a customer makes an one-time payment, he is enthusiastic in using the service in the beginning, but the interest may wane gradually. And since the customer does not receive the full benefits of the service, he is likely to discontinue using the service. For example if a customer pays membership fees for a health-club monthly, he is reminded of the cost of his membership every month. He will feel the need to get his money's worth throughout the year and will workout more regularly. Since he is benefitina from the membership, he is likely to renew the membership.

Companies have not paid attention to the relationship between consumption and pricing policies. Companies believe that if customers do not feel the pain of making payments they will be more liberal in buying the product or the service. Therefore, they mask the cost to the customers by such methods as automatic payroll deductions, bundling specific costs into a single, all-inclusive fees, season tickets etc. But these practices

reduce the likelihood of the customer using the product, and a customer who does not use the product is not likely to buy it again.

Following guidelines would be helpful.

- **To build a long-term relationship with customers, it is important that they consume the product that they have bought.** The extent to which customers use paid-for products determines whether they will buy the product again or not. This phenomenon is more pronounced in businesses that sell subscription or membership. Health club members who workout four times a week are more likely to renew their memberships than those who work out just once a week. In software business, once customers start using an application, they are more likely to buy its upgrade. In businesses like movie theatres, sports arenas and concert halls, a big part of the revenue comes from customer spending on parking, food and drinks. So if ticket holders do not attend these events, these high margin secondary sales are lost. Finally, consumption is important to any business that relies on satisfaction to generate repeat sales and positive word-of-mouth. For products as diverse as wine, books and electronic gadgets, customers will not purchase again or spread positive word-of-mouth if they do not use the products.
- **Customers feel compelled to use products that they have paid for to avoid feeling that they have wasted their money.** Most customers would use a less effective service or product more when they have paid a higher price, than use a more effective product or service that they have bought for a lower price.
- **Consumption is driven by perceived cost rather than the actual cost.** A \$10 cash transaction feels of different magnitude than a \$100 cash transaction. But a \$10 credit transaction feels similar to one for \$100. Customers remember the cost of products better if they pay for them with cash than if they pay with credit cards. They also feel more pressure to consume products if they paid with cash than if they paid with credit card. Season tickets, advance purchases and subscriptions also reduce the pressure to consume.

- **Payments that occur at or near the time of consumption increases attention to a product's cost**, increasing the likelihood of its consumption. But payments made either long before or long after the actual purchase reduce the attention to a product's cost and decreases the likelihood of its being used. Immediacy of payment is critical for the consumption of a paid- for product. Services where customers have an option of paying annually, semiannually, quarterly and monthly, reveal this phenomenon remarkably. It is found that members who make a single annual payment use the service most frequently in the months immediately following payments. But the frequency of usage goes down subsequently, and in the last few months they treat their membership as if it were for free. Similarly for semiannual and quarterly payments, use of service is highest each time payment is made only to decline steadily until the next payment. For monthly payments the use is more uniform as they are reminded of the cost more frequently.
- **Companies bundle prices to hide the cost of individual components.** Price bundling influences consumption. It is easier to identify and account for the cost of an individual product in an unbundled transaction than within a bundled transaction. The one-to-one relationship between price and benefits in an unbundled transaction makes the cost of that item obvious which makes the customer feel guilty if he does not use the product. In case of season tickets the customer pays one bundled sum for a collection of individual events, making it difficult to allocate costs to any individual performance or game. This reduces the likelihood of its usage. As the number of events or days included in a bundle increases, the chances of attendance in individual events goes down. Managers can run operations more efficiently by anticipating actual demand by looking at the mix of bundled and unbundled purchases or the ratio of current to advance purchases. A manager should expect more no-show rates when there are more bundled or advance purchases.

14.4 PRICE SENSITIVITY

Companies can reduce price sensitivity of customers and have more scope for maneuvering their pricing strategies.

Price sensitivity of customers will determine the latitude that a company will have in increasing its price. A company should know the price sensitivity of its customers and the factors affecting it. In certain situations a company may be able to explore opportunities to reduce price sensitivity of its customers if it develops a keen understanding of his motivations in making the purchase, the purpose for which he uses the product and the very nature of the product.

A customer is price sensitive if he is bearing the cost as opposed to a third party. The customer is also less price sensitive if he does not have to make the payments upfront. Allowing customers to pay later may make the customer less fixated on the price. Arranging a loan for the customer will allay the concern of high price. The customer does not mind paying a slightly higher installment but he might not be willing or able to pay the high initial price. If the payment for some services are being made by insurance companies or come as perks, the customers will not worry about price and seek the best service. Service providers should seek such businesses and offer premium quality of services. Pharmaceutical companies will have a greater pricing latitude if neither the prescriber nor the patient paid the cost of the medicines, but the price was paid by an insurer.

A customer is also price sensitive if the cost of the item represents a substantial percentage of a customer's total expenditure. The choice of the target market becomes very important. In generic terms, a wealthier segment would be less price sensitive and should be targeted. Industrial marketers can target such customers for whom their product will be minor purchase in comparison to the other purchases that they make.

If the buyer is not the end user and he sells his end product in a competitive market, price pressure from further down a distribution channel ripples back up through the chain. For instance, one steel producer was able to obtain good margins by selling a component to buyers who then produced specialty items for end users. Buyers of the specialty item were less price sensitive. Selling that same component to buyers who made products for commodity-like markets meant lower realized prices as the end users were more price sensitive. Therefore the company will have to evaluate

the price sensitivity of its customer's customers and target such customers whose own customers are less price sensitive.

The customer is more likely to be price sensitive if he is able to judge quality without using price as an Indicator. A customer's price sensitivity will be more also if the product is one for which it is easy to make comparisons. For instance, it is easier to compare cameras than it is to compare computers. A customer will be more price-sensitive if there is limited difference between the performance of products in the category. A company will have to make it difficult for customers to evaluate quality and make comparison. A company should desist from using purely functional attributes as competitive parameters. In most categories, with some ingenuity, products can be imbued with some sense of style, fashion, colour, sensuality and grandeur. Customers will be unable to put a monetary value to these attributes. In hard-to-judge categories such as perfumes, price has little impact because the customers assume that high price and high quality go together.

A customer will be price sensitive if he can easily shop around and assess the relative performance and price of alternatives. Advances in information technology will enable customers to increase their awareness of prices and access to alternative options. Price sensitivity of customers is going to increase in a wide range of products and services. It will be dangerous to deny access to one's product, or information about it, as the customer may just refuse to buy unless he has made the required comparisons. The only solution will be to imbue the product with elements of style, fashion and sensuality which will make comparisons difficult.

A customer will be price sensitive if he can take the time he needs to locate and assess alternatives. For instance, in an emergency, the speed of delivery will be crucial. Price will not be the primary factor determining the purchase. A sense of urgency has to be created in the buying situation. Products may have to be phased out more regularly and threats of impending stock-outs should sound real.

A customer will be price sensitive if he can switch from one supplier to another without incurring additional costs. A customer will also be price sensitive if the long-term relationship with the company and its reputation are not important and the

customer's focus is on minimizing the cost of the particular transaction. Easing process of procurement for the customer by taking responsibility of maintaining enough inventory with the customer and ensuring automatic replenishment will bind the customer to the seller. He will not be sure if the next supplier will do so much. The seller will have to prompt the customer to invest in the relationship. Joint efforts and exercises to increase quality and productivity will keep the customer interested in the relationship. The customer should be made to feel that he is getting more than the product or the service that he is buying from the seller. The seller has to create a web of services and interactions around the product sold and shift the customer's attention from the product.

Sadly most companies take the level of their customer's price sensitivity as something they cannot do anything about and shudder to increase prices even for very legitimate reasons. But companies can take steps to reduce the price sensitivity of their customers and thus be able to charge higher price.

14.4.1 Case Study

SpiceJet Maruti, Tata The '9' price point

SpiceJet launched its low-cost Delhi-Bangalore flights at Rs 4.999. When Maruti rolled out its volume-buster financing scheme for the MBaa, the EMI was fixed at Rs 2.599. When Acer debuted its cheap and cheerful 2.5 Ghz Celeron-based notebook, the MRP was kept at Rs 49.999.

From phone cards to clothes, from jewelers to movie tickets, the 99 price point is the most ubiquitous price positioning in the market. Marketers call it 'Bata Pricing', because the company invented it and refined it to a fine art. A simple psychological tool, it has managed to redefine pricing and completely rewrite the rules of retail. Introduced nearly three decades ago when Shoe-major Bata priced its shelf-star 'Hawai' chappals at Rs 39.99, the 99 price point is still the rule in retail pricing.

At the heart of Bata Pricing is the art of sneaking in a tag just short of the 'oops' barrier. In the process, it repositions a planned purchase as an impulse buy, thus boosting sales. Most customers have a mental price band for any product. Positioning just below that level generates a degree of comfort with the purchase decision. This kind of psychological price positioning is very useful, especially in a price-sensitive

market like India where the purchase desire is high but there is shortage of funds. So if a company sneaks in a product just below the psychological price barrier, the price looks less intimidating

.99 price points also look good on ads and publicity communication and the price tag looks better in showrooms.

But there are doubts if the consumer can be fooled. .99 price point may actually be driven by marketer psychology rather than the consumer mind block. Such skepticisms may have a ring of truth to it. .99 price point has now become so all-pervasive, there isn't much of a 'wow' element left in it. Legacy issue could have kept Bata Pricing alive and kicking for three decades in India. It might be precedence rather than utility that may have kept this positioning so strong for so long. The tactic may work better in higher value items. It is known to be used more in planned purchases rather than impulse buys. So typically products like shoes, cars or durables see this kind of pricing more often but it is not common in FMCG or low-value products or daily consumption items. And where it is used, the attempt is to turn an impulse buy into a planned purchase, exactly the opposite of the intended Bata effect.

Some marketers feel the .99 price point is relevant for most product categories though the responsiveness may vary. Some categories may see rapid rise in sales when the price point goes below the psychological barrier. Others may grow slowly.

14.5 INITIATING AND RESPONDING TO PRICE CHANGES

Marketers need to be aware of the need to change even long-standing prices. Price is a strategic tool with which competitors have to be overwhelmed, and higher profits earned. No price, however diligently set, is sacrosanct. Managers need to know when and how to raise or lower prices and whether or not to react to competitors' price moves. Sometimes external factors may force such moves and at other times price changes are deliberate moves to gain competitive advantages. Price is essentially dynamic.

14.5.1 Circumstances under which price can be raised

Marketing research may reveal that customers place a higher value on products than

is reflected in its price. A price increase is not likely to turn away customers as they will still find the company's offer attractive. But if competitors hold on to the old price levels and the offerings are similar, customers are likely to defect. In most industries, the offerings of major competitors have become similar, and it may be suicidal for a company to raise prices if competitors do not follow suit. In most industries customers are getting good value and the industries can become more profitable if the companies raise prices. But because of unpredictable competitor reactions, no company takes the initiative to raise prices. One alternative is to raise prices and introduce some differentiation in the offering simultaneously so that the customer feels that he is paying the extra amount for some added value. The customer essentially does not mind paying the high price because he is getting commensurate value, but is perturbed that other companies are offering the same value at lesser price. The slightly differentiated offering will put him at ease.

Costs of doing business may have gone up. If the escalating costs are affecting all competitors, most of them are likely to follow suit when a company takes the initiative to raise prices. But if only a particular company has been affected, it cannot raise prices as competitors will hold on to their prices and lure away the company's customers.

There is excess demand. If a company raises price and competitors do not follow suit, the company may still get enough customer from the increased pool of customers to end up with higher profits. But most competitors are likely to raise their prices to enhance their profitability. If a few competitors hold on to the old prices, it may actually work to their disadvantage. Customers will take the price charged by the largest company or the majority of companies as reasonable and will attribute the low prices of the few companies to inadequate quality.

A company's objective may have become to harvest the business i.e. to increase margins at the cost of survival. It does not mind losing some customers but charges higher prices to whoever is willing to buy its products. Competitors should not raise their prices in response to such a company's raising its prices. But if competitors are oblivious of the company's intentions and raise their prices, the company will be able to retain its customers and really earn a windfall.

14.5.2 Circumstances under which prices may be cut

Marketing research discovers that the price is higher compared to value customers place on the product. If the company does not reduce its price, the customers would stop buying. If the scenario is true for the whole industry, all the competitors will follow the initiator, and market shares will stabilize somewhere close to where it was before the price cut.

Costs of doing business may have come down. The company wants to pass on some of the benefits of the reduced costs to customers to earn their goodwill. It will help the company immensely if such a move is well-publicized. Competitors may follow suit but the company which does it first is likely to register maximum goodwill among customers.

The company has excess capacity and reduces its price to increase volumes so that its per unit cost goes down. Therefore the low price is compensated to some extent by falling costs if sales increase in response to the low price. If a company operating at full capacity cuts its price in response, the cut will come straight from profits as it does not get any reduction in cost. Such a company will be reluctant to cut price and will lose customers to the company with larger capacity. Companies with larger capacities can get advantage over smaller companies by reducing their prices systematically. But if there is industry overcapacity i.e. every company has excess capacity, competitors are likely to follow suit if a company initiates a price cut. Sales do not increase for any company, but profits fall further for every company.

The company wants to increase its market share. It cuts price and if it is lucky not to have its competitors matching the cut, it may be able to increase its market share. But this method to increase market share is fraught with danger. It may lead to spiraling price cuts in the industry with reduced profits for every company.

14.5.3 Proactive Price Cut

A company cuts price to preempt competitive entry into a market. It incurs short term profit sacrifices but immediately reduces the attractiveness of the market to the potential entrant. The competitors do not consider the market attractive enough to commit

resources in it. The move reduces the risk of customer annoyance if prices are reduced only after competition entry.

14.5.4 Tactics of price change

(i) The company increases or decreases price by the full amount in one go. When a company raises prices substantially at one instance, it avoids prolonging the pain of a price increase over a long period but raises the visibility of price rise to customers. Some customers may find the price hike too steep and decide not to buy. And once they move to a competitor's offering they may never return.

(ii) When a company reduces prices in one go, the decline in price is noticed by customers and they may now find the new price level attractive and may purchase almost immediately. In fact price reduction below certain threshold level is not noticed by customers and is a wasted move with regard to attracting customers. A big price reduction stirs the market, customers take notice and sales increase. Such price reductions should be heavily promoted. But such a move causes an immediate impact on margins. There is also the fear that such a steep reduction might not have been needed and that a lesser reduction in price would have resulted in the same customer response. The company takes a avoidable hit in its revenues if it unwittingly reduces prices more than that was required to create a stir in the market.

(iii) A company increases its price by small amounts in stages. Customers do not notice and continue to buy. Customers do expect prices to go up incrementally, so a small price hike does not alarm them. But a company which resorts to price hikes very frequently runs the risk of being charged with always rising its prices. This image may be harmful in the long run.

(iv) Staged price reductions is done when the amount necessary to stimulate sales is unclear, Small cuts are made till desired effect on sales is achieved. The company is able to avoid unnecessary reductions in price. But some customers may not take notice and continue to assume that the company is still charging its original price and will not switch over from their current suppliers. Smaller price reductions also cannot be effectively advertised. And when the company continues the process for too long, customers may postpone their purchases and wait for the next cut in price.

(v) An escalator clause in a contract (for instance, construction) allows the supplier to stipulate price increase in line with a specified index, like increase in material cost. Customers are normally wary of such clauses and fear that the supplier will increase prices on the flimsiest of grounds. Suppliers should ensure customers that the price hike would take place only under strictly specified and verifiable circumstances.

(vi) Price unbundling allows each element in the offering to be separately priced and sold in such a way that total price is raised. Customers can avoid buying the full product if they require only a few elements of it. It helps customers as they can select different suppliers for different elements. They do not feel dependent totally on one supplier.

(vii) The company maintains the list price but offers required discounts to customers. When the list price is lowered, customers who otherwise would have been willing to pay higher prices also pay the decreased price. But under this method, the company offers discounts to some customers to get their business but charges full price to others. There is fear of customers' reprisal if the customers become aware of the discriminatory pricing of the company especially if the differences between what customers have paid are big. A company can lower or completely withdraw cash and quantity discounts when the demand is heavy. But when such discounts are offered indiscriminately and for all customers and for all periods, customers lose faith in the price list of the company. Customers distrust such companies as prices become the function of how hard a customer can bargain. A company should not allow the sanctity of its list price to be withered away under the pretext of having to do business under very competitive conditions. It will be better to reduce the list price if discount will be ultimately given to every customer.

(viii) A company can decrease price without a direct fall in price. Price bundling can lower prices. For instance, a company sells television with repair warranty. The drawback is that while the company incurs real costs in fulfillment of additional responsibilities or services, the customers may not value them or may not even want them. And over a period of time customers begin to expect these extra services as normal part of the offering and do not acknowledge any favors being hinted to them. A possible solution is to offer customer an option of taking the bundled product or a

small discount. The discount should be lower than the monetary value of the service being bundled. This option will act as a reminder to customers that the company is providing enhanced value to them. And it can be a genuine option for customers who do not want the added service.

(ix) Discount terms can be made more attractive by increasing the percentage or lowering qualifying levels. ‘The first move makes a serious dent in the profits and the second results in the virtual reduction of list price.

(x) Introduce a low price fighter brand to counter a cut price competitor while keeping the price premiumness of the main brand intact. This is normally a good strategy to avoid lowering the prices of a company’s premium brands. Brand equity developed over decades and centuries can get eroded if premium brands are pressed to engage in battles with low price brands. The premium brands win by cutting prices as customers lap up such a premium brand at such affordable prices. But the brand is dead for ever. It becomes the mediocre brand it vanquished. Though creating a low price fighter brand will cost the company, it will be worth protecting its premium brands.

14.5.5 Estimating Competitor Reaction

Price changes by a company rarely go unanswered by competitors. Reactions may be strong and aggressive (for instance reducing prices further when price cuts have been initiated by a competitor company) if the competitor is the market leader, or an aggressive challenger. Competitors may follow the lead in reducing prices, thus nullifying the advantage of the initiator, or may choose not to follow the price increase, thus putting the initiator at a disadvantage.

- **A price rise that no competitor follows may turn customers away to competitors’ offerings.** A price cut that is met by the competition will not result in increase in sales of the initiator but may reduce industry profitability. A company that initiates price changes will achieve its purpose if its price hike is matched by competitors but its price reduction is not matched by competitors.

- **A company's reaction to another company's price moves is dependent on its strategic objectives.** It is likely to follow price increase if its strategic objective is to hold or harvest. If it is intent on building market share, it will resist following price increase. Conversely it will follow price cuts if it is building or holding and will ignore price cuts if it is harvesting. Companies should try to gauge their competitors' strategic objectives for their product. By observing pricing, and promotional behaviour, talking to distributors and even hiring their employees estimates of whether competitor products are being built, held or harvested can be made.
- If price is raised in response to rise in inflation, competition is likely to follow than if price is raised because of harvest objective of a firm.
- If competition has excess capacity, a price cut will be matched.
- A price rise is likely to be followed if competition is faced with excess demand. Competitor reaction can also be judged by looking at their price reactions to previous price changes.

14.6 REACTIONS AND RESPONDING TO COMPETITORS PRICE CHANGES

Companies have several options when price changes are initiated by competitors. It is important for the company to understand the circumstances under which it should react to price changes by competitors.

When to Follow a Competitor's Price Moves

Competitive price increases are more likely to be followed when they are due to general rising cost levels or industry wide excess demand, or when customers are relatively price insensitive, which means that followers will not gain much by not increasing the price. When a brand image is consistent with high prices a company will follow a competitor's price rise as to do so would be consistent with the brand's positioning strategy. A price rise is more likely to be followed if a company is pursuing hold or harvest objective because company's aim is, profit margin rather than sales/market share gain.

Price cuts are likely to be followed when they are stimulated by general falling costs or excess supply. Falling costs allow all companies to cut prices while maintaining margins and excess supply means that a company is unlikely to allow a rival to make sales gain at their expense. Price cuts will also be followed in price sensitive markets since allowing one company to cut price without retaliation would mean large sales gains for price cutter. Some companies position themselves as low price manufacturers or retail outlets. They would be less likely to allow a price reduction by a competitors to get unchallenged, for to do so would be incompatible with their brand image. Price cuts are likely to be followed when the company has build or hold objective. An aggressive price move by a competitor would be followed to prevent sales/market share loss. In build objective price fall may exceed initial competitive moves.

When to Ignore a Competitor's Price Move

Price rise are likely to be ignored when costs are stable or falling, as there are no cost pressures. In situations of excess supply, a price rise will make the initiator less competitive, especially if customers are price sensitive and price rise can go unchallenged. Companies occupying low price position will find increasing price due to a competitor's increasing, price incompatible with their brand image. Companies pursuing build objectives with an objective of a competitor's price rise will go unmatched in order to gain sales and markets.

THE B+ CAR SEGMENT IN INDIA*Emergence of a new segment with premium value offering*

In response to consumers' demand for something bigger than B segment cars, yet smaller than those in the C segment, car manufacturers are lining up a new range of variants in this segment. The Swift from Maruti is one such car. It will go head-on with Hyundai Getz, the Opel Corsa Sail, Tata Indica and the Fiat Palio in creating a new niche segment, car companies call the B+ segment. More entrants are there, including the Chevrolet Aveo, the Nissan Micra, and Honda's Jazz.

There has not been much in terms of sales in the segment, therefore it is debatable whether the new cars, with a premium pricing strategy, will bring in the requisite volumes

to manufacturers. Suzuki and Hyundai are betting that a large number of Indian customers will want to shell out something extra to get a car in a new segment. The cars promise to provide more passenger space than many mid-size cars, will be easier to drive and have trouble-free ownership.

Fiat claims that they opened up a whole new segment with the introduction of the Palio. Although sales have tapered over the years, the Palio remains a good car to buy.

The B+ segment is where the real action is. It is essentially a growing segment. Those already in the B segment want a bigger car, but a much bigger car could pose parking problems. So the B+ segment is ideal. The premium B+ could snatch volumes away from sedans (priced at above Rs 5,00,000). Today, all those who are driving A segment or even B segment cars are looking for an upgrade and the B+ segment makes perfect sense as it is one step higher than B, yet does not go into C.

It is a proven fact that the small car is intrinsically unsafe compared to a bigger car. But today, small cars are coming loaded with ABS and airbags in addition to leather upholstery, CD players etc. In terms of features and specifications, they are equivalent to other bigger cars. As people want to shift to superior cars, but not give up functionality, the B+ segment cars are an attractive option. The segment is getting more populated with new offerings and the value proposition of each product is going up. All this means that the B+ segment is one which will see a lot of action in years to come. However, it remains to be seen as to how much is lapped up by the discerning Indian consumer. The crossover car trend was introduced in India by GMIL, with its hatchback Corsa Sail. nearly two years ago But the model did not generate much excitement among consumers.

Price cuts are likely to be ignored in conditions of rising costs, excess demand, and when servicing price insensitive customers. Premium price positions may be reluctant to follow competitor's price cuts, as it would be incompatible with brand image. Price cuts may be resisted by companies using harvest objective.

14.7 TACTICS OF REACTION

Price change can take place slowly or quickly. A quick price increase is likely then

there is an urgent need to improve profit margins. Slow reaction is desirable when an image of being the customer's friend is being sought. Some companies never initiate price increase and follow competitor's increase slowly.' The key to this tactic is timing the response. The optimum period is found by experience, but in the meantime, sales people should tell the customers that the company is doing everything to hold prices.

There should be a quick reaction to competitor's price decrease if there is an erosion of market share. Reaction is slow when a company has loyal customer base willing to accept higher prices for a period so long as they can rely on price parity over the longer run.

14.8 PRICE WARS

A company can fight a price war without eroding its brand equity and profits. Besides retaliatory price cutting, there are other ways of reacting to price cuts initiated by a competitor. Of all the variables of a company's marketing strategy, it takes the least time for executives to make changes in their pricing strategy. However, such changes also trigger several unexpected and mostly unwanted repercussions from competitors, customers and also within the organization. Change in pricing strategy usually means initiating a price cut. Such a price cut invariably triggers a chain reaction in the industry, with competitors usually trying to outdo each other in cutting prices, leading to a decline in the overall profits of every player in the industry. Price then becomes the main competitive tool which eventually undermines the investment that the company may have undertaken to develop any differential advantage, for instance, superior quality, better delivery systems or superior technology. It also makes customers expect and want more price reductions, affecting the industry's competitiveness irreparably.

Companies in such situations must decide their response strategies. When faced with a competitor who has reduced prices, most companies choose to retaliate with price cuts. It is however important to explore other possibilities before succumbing to the inevitable price war.

The company should first analyze the situation. It should evaluate customer issues such as price sensitivity of the target segment, competitor issues such as their cost structures, intentions, competencies, and company related issues, i.e. its own cost

structures, competencies, vision before initiating any action whatsoever. It should also analyze the impact of the present price cut on suppliers, government etc. Waiting for some time to test the real time effect of the price cut initiation (instead of merely analyzing the situation) may also be a sensible idea for some companies. Thereafter, the company has several options other than merely decreasing its price levels in retaliation.

- **The company may choose to reveal its strategic intentions to its competitors without responding to the price cut in any other manner.** For instance, it may reveal its low cost structure to competitors that could allow it to sustain the price war longer, if required. It may also let it be known to competitors that it does not intend to compete on the basis of price in this market. Maybe the firm could alert the regulators indirectly against such predatory moves of the competitor. The basic intention of this move is to scare the competitor, or to let it know that it would eventually lose out in the race.
- **The company may choose to compete strictly on non-price based measures.** If a competitor has reduced prices, and perhaps others are also willing to do so, the company may either decide to persist with existing price levels or even increase prices. The main purpose is to prevent damage to the brand image in the market (especially if the brand carries a premium image among the target audience). The company would also have to emphasize high quality or value-added features in its communications or provide more value or denigrate the attempt of competitors to shift the focus of customers away from quality to price. Perhaps they could also try to convince customers of the dangers of buying lower priced products, or warn them against future competitive moves (such as the dangers of monopolistic tendencies if other competitors were driven out of the market because of predatory pricing).
- **It is important to remember that there is life after price wars for brands.** The brand should strengthen itself by providing more features and benefits and advertising more stridently. A stronger brand is the ultimate deterrence against price slashing competitors. But if brands reduce prices indiscriminately

during the price war as a retaliatory measure, it damages the brand image for good.

- **The company may selectively respond to such price cuts to avoid an all out war.** For instance, the company may give quantity discounts. It may engage in value pricing, i.e. charge a higher price from customers who want more features, and lesser price from those who want a stripped down version of the product. It may offer peak services at usual prices, and cut down prices at non-peak hours to stimulate demand. This method allows responding to the price cut in a manner that prevents damage to the brand's reputation. It also allows adequate time to the company to plan further moves and sense the impact of the competitor's price cuts with less risks.

14.8.1 The Motorcycle Market in India

Price wars and commoditization due to lack of differentiation

The top motorcycle companies are rolling out more models in the 100-125cc range. The price segments are getting more crowded than ever before. Earlier, the entry-level segment spanned 100-110cc, and the price ranged from Rs 35,000 to well over Rs 40,000. But the situation is different now. Currently the entry-level segment is strictly 100cc where the price range spans Rs 30,000 to Rs 36,000. While both CT100 and CD Dawn are in the Rs 31,000-32,000 range, the Bajaj Platina is priced steeper at Rs 34,000-36,000. Hero Honda's best selling Splendor range is slightly more expensive at Rs 39,000-41,000, while the TVS Star range hovers around Rs 33,000.

The earlier 110-119cc category has now been carved off into a separate segment where the likes of Boss 115, Freedom 110 and the lower displacement variants of the Discover and Victor rule the market. The price range here is Rs 38,000-40,000. However, with the 125cc segment witnessing many new launches and increasing price aggression, this segment is beginning to fade out. The 125cc executive segment has also seen price tags jostle. While the accepted positioning in this segment was around the Rs 45,000-mark, Discover's aggression with its base models broke that psychological barrier. Currently, the lower Rs 40k range boasts several models including

the low-end Discover and Super Splendor. While Hero Honda's launch, the 125 cc Glamour, is pricier at Rs 45,000, other debutantes have been more aggressively tagged. Suzuki's maiden launch Heat (125cc) is priced at Rs 38,000 although HMSI's Shine costs more at Rs 45,000-47,000.

There is logic behind the pricing clutter. Motorcycle companies want to straddle two segments with their products and the attempt is to either straddle the segment below or the segment above with the price positioning. That's why the Platina costs just a tad more than the normal 100cc entry level range, but is considerably less than the 110cc price range. Same is the case with heat, which straddles the 110cc and 125cc price ranges with its in-between positioning. HMSI's Shine does the same with the range above Rs 45-47K and its pricing helps it straddle the middle ground between the 125cc and the 150cc.

The entry-level bike today is more of a commodity than anything else. Companies look at it as the commoditization of bikes that belong to the less than 150cc segment. With little differential in the feature parameters, cutting retail prices is the only thing bike makers can do to woo customers. Motorcycle technology has become fairly standardized in the volume segments. Besides alloy wheels and flashy metallic finishes, most models do not have anything that the competition does not pack in as well. The cost elbow room is so small in the executive and economy segments that the pricing strategy becomes crucial to gain market share.

Honda and Suzuki first broke the price barrier relevant to each segment and started the two-segment strategy that is now prevalent in the bike business. A majority of the price cuts have been from new entrants like HMSI or Suzuki, who as a strategy have reduced prices to enter the market. Bajaj had cut prices of its CT-100 because it wanted to make room for its new model, the Platina. A lot of the current price clutter in the market is due to model proliferation. Motorcycle companies believe that it is the only way to get incremental growth. It is the customer penetration game that has really driven the price cuts.

Hero Honda, however feels that bikes have not become a commodity. It feels that like other consumer durable items, the automotive segment too has seen its price

reductions. It is to drive demand that a company maintains the price points and adds emotional and technology features at the same levels. Hero Honda too has played the price game aggressively. Hero Honda feels that the market is waiting for the transition to higher displacement performance segments. But that is not likely to happen soon. Bike manufacturers have been waiting for the upgrade from 100 to 125cc. So far the bulk of sales remains at the bottom. The current pricing trends can Change all that. But at the moment, customers can have a field day taking their pick from a whole host of models, both old and new, that straddle features and prices of more than one segment. The car market saw similar trends in pricing a few years ago.

TVS Motors believes that the clutter is more in a segment where prices make the most difference. It does not agree that it is just a customer-wooing strategy that has led to price cuts. The company feels that it has a big opportunity for market penetration and it does not need to cut prices to woo customers. The consumer at the bottom end of the bike pyramid is price sensitive which had led to the price cuts.

- **The last option for the company is to fight the price war.** The- company has to resort to this option if its stakes in the industry are high i.e. the business is strategically important for the company. However, the ability to fight out the war depends on the financial strength of the company. However, the intensity and the time for which the war would be waged would depend on other players in the industry. Stronger players with larger stakes would stretch the war for a longer time. Therefore, the industry dynamics should be weighed carefully before the company goes whole hog,
- If the company cannot fight the price war, and it is foreseen that the war would be fought by other stronger players in the industry, the company should start planning exit strategies. There is no point fighting a battle which one can never expect to win.

14.9 SUMMARY

- Initial prices for any product must be established after analyzing the cost structure of the company, gauging the cost's of the competitors, and understanding the value propositions desired by the customer in the intended

market. These initial prices undergo changes with changes in any of the aforementioned factors. Thus, price points are rarely permanent. Pricing policies of companies are flexible, and reflect changes in the business environment.

- However, pricing is rarely considered to be a strategic tool. Most companies do not have a formal organizational structure, like a department, in place whose prime responsibility is to manage pricing policies in the company. Prices can be set by a lower level functionary in an accounts department as well as by the chief executive. The rigor needed to arrive at the right price is missing, which may either result in leaving a lot of money on the table or charging a price which customers do not find acceptable. Prices are only considered to be means to earn revenues, though in reality prices are instrumental in shaping perceptions about the company, its strategic direction and changes in policy.
- Price points of various offerings of an organization convey the positioning intent. They convey who the product is meant for i.e. target audience. Prices also convey additional associations related to the offering, for instance, whether the product is a high class lifestyle product. But knee jerk reactions to competitor's changes in pricing policies are very common in most markets and across most product categories. Such reactions very often destroy established images which take years to build.
- Every marketing activity shapes the pricing strategy of a firm. For instance, technological advancement of a product or packaging, promotional expenditure, distribution coverage etc. impact the final prices at which products are sold to customers. So, logically pricing policies should be formulated in consultation with other functional areas, and the implementation process should also be continually monitored as discounts are given at various stages of the selling process. Somebody in the organization should be responsible for the price that is actually realized and be accountable for the difference between the set price and the realized price, which means that this authority should have the power to decide the discounts that can be given by various functionaries handling the sales process. But this rarely happens. In most companies pricing is an ad-hoc decision whereas the price of the product should emanate from the strategic goals of the company.

14.10 GLOSSARY

- **Low-Quality Trap:** Consumers will assume that quality is low.
- **Fragile-market share trap:** A low price buys market share but not market loyalty. The same customers will shift to any lower-priced firm that comes along.
- **Shallow-pockets trap:** The higher priced competitors may cut their prices and may have longer staying power because of deeper cash resources.

14.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What do you mean by price changes?
- 2) How do organizations initiate price changes'!

14.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Write a detailed note on responding to competitor's price changes
- 2) Write a detailed note on initiating and responding to rprice changes by an organisation.

14.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill. By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall. By: Bagozz i
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books. By: Bhasin. M.L.
- Marketing In India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 15

PRODUCT & PRICE - MIX DECISIONS

Unit - III

CONTEMPORARY AREAS OF MARKETING

STRUCTURE

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Objectives
- 15.3 Traditional Marketing and Contemporary Marketing
 - 15.3.1 Contemporary Marketing
- 15.4 Green Marketing
 - 15.4.1 Green Marketing and Sustainable Development
 - 15.4.2 Examples of Green Marketing
 - 15.4.3 Objectives of Green Marketing
 - 15.4.4 Importance of Green Marketing
 - 15.4.5 Green Marketing Strategies
- 15.5 Blue Marketing
- 15.6 Event Marketing
 - 15.6.1 Why are Companies Using Event Marketing?
 - 15.6.2 What kinds of Marketing Events are There?

15.7 Network Marketing

15.7.1 Characteristics of Network Marketing

15.7.2 Benefits to the Participants

15.7.3 Pyramid Structure vs. Network Marketing

15.8 Direct Marketing

15.8.1 Benefits of Direct Marketing

15.8.2 Examples of Direct Marketing

15.8.3 Types of Direct Marketing

15.9 Summary

15.10 Glossary

15.11 Self Assessment Questions

15.12 Lesson End Exercise

15.13 Suggested Readings

15.1 INTRODUCTION

With growing synchronization of IT and revolutionising of marketing tactics what do you think are the most lucrative marketing domains for the future marketers and marketing researchers? Marketing has most definitely evolved over the past 5 decades, with new ideas and theories developing yearly from a variety of different academic scholars and strategists alike. For this reason identifying which tools are best suited for your marketing message are crucial. This chapter seeks to explain which traditional marketing theories exist and which contemporary marketing theories you should consider in the future.

15.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Compare and contrast the traditional marketing and contemporary marketing
- Grasp the essentials of Green Marketing
- Having insights of Blue Marketing
- Be updated about Event marketing
- Understand the basics of Network marketing
- Comprehend the importance of Direct Marketing

15.3 TRADITIONAL MARKETING AND CONTEMPORARY MARKETING

Traditional marketing is an umbrella term that covers the wide array of advertising channels we see daily. These may include print media, billboard, and TV advertising, flyer and poster campaigns and radio broadcast advertising. These traditional marketing messages are not necessarily outdated, however, research has shown those companies that have abandoned simply using these channels, and adopted contemporary marketing channels proposed in this article, have remained prosperous, and in fact seen an increase in leads, sales, and traffic to web content.

Ansoff's Matrix Theory

Traditional marketing theories include Ansoff's Matrix, a theory that proposes products/services fall into one of four categories depending on the market and the product released. New Product- New Market is considered as diversification. This theory recommends that businesses should try to diversify their product portfolio so as to spread risk amongst their product range. An example of this would be when Apple created the first iPhone released in 1907. This product was new and introduced into a new market. Apple soon reaped the benefits of introducing this hugely popular phone. Their product range grew from accommodating for designers on the Apple Mac, to mobile devices, tablet devices, watches and beyond.

The Marketing Mix

Another marketing theory that's considered to be traditional is the marketing mix. Made up of the 7 P's. These include product, place, promotion, price, packaging and

positioning. All these components, when combined, create a solid marketing proposal. However this theory as well as Ansoff's can be drastically improved with the use of contemporary marketing strategies. Traditional Marketing seeks to pull customers to a product, whatever the cost. It is, for this reason, considered to be fairly outdated as it does not consider the customer they are selling to, more the market that the company operates within. There are however channels that have developed from traditional marketing, including digital, that aim for the same goal, however, use more subtle and approachable mediums so as to capture their target audience. This may include Pay-Per-Click campaigns, social media posts, search engine optimization and email marketing.

15.3.1 Contemporary Marketing

Contemporary Marketing refers to theories that stress the importance of customer orientation versus the traditional market orientation. They are strategies that, when implemented, offer greater support for their client base with a product ranges that varies depending on what the target market desires. Rather than what the company wants them to have. Products including the vast array of kitchen appliances with built in failure components attracting their customer base back to them for further purchases are an example of product orientation. Traditional marketing theories are said to favor this ideology. Though somewhat devious, it is most definitely effective. Attracting customers to their product range has become more difficult because consumers have become more literate in technology and, therefore, can research items before purchase. This allows them to make a conscious and informed decision to avoid companies with this ethos.

Co-Creation

Contemporary marketing theories include Co-Creation. This theory suggests creating a bridge between customer and business through gamification. A practical example would be attracting customers through social media content relevant to their needs or writing article blog posts that have useful information. Research conducted by Harvard business school and the London School for Business found that businesses that utilised the contemporary marketing strategy, incorporating both co-creative and shared value

ideas, over the long run prospered far more than those companies who hadn't chosen this avenue.

Shared Value

Another popular contemporary marketing theory is shared value. This theory considers the market that the company is wanting to penetrate and seeks to offer perks in said market. A successful example of this would be Tesla. They have invested millions of dollars building charging stations for electric cars across North America, Europe, and Asia. The stations can be used by many different branded electric cars. They have actively tried to improve the market whilst simultaneously attract more customers to them. For B2B companies, this may include creating events where companies in the same industry can be invited and discuss amongst themselves offers they can give each other.

15.4 GREEN MARKETING

Green marketing refers to the process of selling products and/or services based on their environmental benefits. Such a product or service may be environmentally friendly in itself or produced in an environmentally friendly way, such as:

- Being manufactured in a sustainable fashion
- Not containing toxic materials or ozone-depleting substances
- Able to be recycled and/or is produced from recycled materials
- Being made from renewable materials (such as bamboo, etc.)
- Not making use of excessive packaging
- Being designed to be repairable and not “throwaway”

15.4.1 Green Marketing and Sustainable Development

Green marketing is typically practiced by companies that are committed to sustainable development and corporate social responsibility. More organizations are making an effort to implement sustainable business practices as they recognize that in

doing so they can make their products more attractive to consumers and also reduce expenses, including packaging, transportation, energy/water usage, etc. Businesses are increasingly discovering that demonstrating a high level of social responsibility can increase brand loyalty among socially conscious consumers; green marketing can help them do that. The key barrier to sustainable business practices such as green procurement is short versus long term cost the cost of “greenness” often doesn’t fit into short-term budgets that don’t internalize long-term total costs. Public Works and Government Services Canada has information on green procurement principles and resources for businesses. Ethical sourcing has become important to companies and consumers alike.

The obvious assumption of green marketing is that potential consumers will view a product or service’s “greenness” as a benefit and base their buying decision accordingly. The not-so-obvious assumption is that consumers will be willing to pay more for green products than they would for a less-green comparable alternative product. The 1914 Nielsen Global Survey on Corporate Social Responsibility polled 30,000 consumers from 60 countries to determine statistics on consumer preferences for sustainable purchasing, and found that:

55% of consumers were willing to pay extra for products and services from companies committed to positive social and environmental impact (up from 45% in 1911). 52% made at least one purchase in the past six months from at least one socially responsible company. 52% check product packaging to ensure sustainable impact. Interestingly, consumers in the Asia-Pacific region, Latin America, and the Middle East/Africa showed a higher preference (64%, 63%, 63%) to pay extra, whereas the preference in North America and Europe was lower (42% and 40%).

The Nielsen survey also looked at retail purchase statistics, and according to sales data, brands that advertised sustainability on packaging had 2% year-over-year increases in sales from 1911 to 1914, as compared with 1% for those that did not.

15.4.2 Examples of Green Marketing

Grocers that advertise organic produce. The organic food industry has grown in

leaps and bounds as consumers express an increased preference for non genetically modified foods that are free of pesticides.

Restaurants that promote “locally sourced” meats, vegetables, fish, wines, etc. Local sourcing is attractive to consumers as it projects an image of sustainability and willingness to invest in the community.

Toyota’s marketing of the Prius hybrid. (The Prius outsells all other hybrid vehicles, mostly because its unique styling reflects the typical owner’s passion for sustainability.)

Volkswagen/Mercedes-Benz’ marketing of its vehicles as “clean diesel” “Earth Friendly” vehicles. As truthinadvertising.org pointed out in its roundup of companies accused of green washing on Earth Day 1916, “there’s nothing clean about diesel engines that spew pollutants at levels way over the legal limit.”

Making claims that are not as impressive as they look. Some companies try to look green by making environmentally friendly claims that are essentially meaningless. For instance, World watch shows an example of a Coppertone sunscreen with a “no CFCs” label. Being a chlorofluorocarbon-free product sounds great (you can help save the ozone layer), until you realize that CFC production in the United States has been banned since 1895.

Green marketing can be a very powerful marketing strategy though when it’s done right.

Corporations That Are Embracing Sustainable Development

PepsiCo is one of the world’s largest food and beverage producers with annual revenues of more than \$65 billion and a product line that includes brands such as Quaker, Gatorade, Pepsi-Cola, and Frito-Lay. Over the past decade PepsiCo has become a leader among corporations in water conservation and energy usage. In 1912 PepsiCo received the Stockholm Industry Water Award in recognition of its efforts to reduce water and energy usage across all of its business operations, from supply chains to factories.

PepsiCo sustainability efforts include:

Working with farmers to monitor water usage and carbon emissions and maximize crop yields. Retrofitting factories and corporate offices to improve energy efficiency. For example, the 350 employee Casa Grande Frito Lay facility in Arizona generates half the plant's electricity requirements with solar power, water is recycled to drinking standards, and waste is recycled wherever possible. The facility is one of over 19 other PepsiCo sites certified to LEED sustainability standards.

15.4. 3 Objectives of Green Marketing

Green marketing touches every aspect of a business, from production and packaging to advertising and public relations. It focuses on directing every marketing strategy towards a single objective – profit through sustainable development. Contrary to popular beliefs, green marketing not only focuses on protecting the environment by promoting green products but also focuses on how to sell these green products to earn the most profits.

15.4. 4 Importance of Green Marketing

Green marketing is not just beneficial for the environment it's beneficial for the company in the long run as well.

- **Access to new markets:** There's a completely new market consisting of green consumers who prefer green products over non-green products if they are given a choice.
- **Competitive advantage:** Going green adds up more customers to your existing customer base, which in turn gives you a competitive advantage over your competitors.
- **Brand Loyalty & Increased Brand Equity:** Brands that continuously show their commitment towards protecting the environment and going green tend to earn greater loyalty from customers.
- **Positive Public Image:** Going green makes the customers feel that the company has a responsible outlook and is aware of the current scenario. All this results in a good image of the brand in the eyes of existing and prospective customers.

15.4.5 Green Marketing Strategies

Companies which are genuinely committed to saving the environment and giving back to the community usually earn a lot of respect and loyalty from the customers. If you want to run one such company, you can follow any of these or all of these 5 green marketing strategies.

Green Design

Green design is the most effective green marketing strategy where the product or service is designed green, to begin with. One such example of a green product is a solar water heater which can potentially decrease energy consumption by 70% just because of its design.

Green Positioning

Green positioning is a brand positioning strategy where the company boasts its sustainability values and tries to position itself as a company that cares. Such a company focuses on getting the certifications and partnering with green organisations to open its doors to the market of green consumers. The perfect example of green positioning is Body Shop which never uses its products on animals and also sources its resources responsibly. The company also uses advertisements which don't use images that are demeaning to women and also raises funds to promote global awareness of issues like HIV and domestic violence.

Green Pricing

Green pricing is another green marketing strategy used by the brands to make their offering more appealing. The main focus of this strategy is to highlight how the green offering can help the customers save money or other resources. One example of green pricing could be a company which sells CNG cars by highlighting how economical it would be to own a CNG car when compared to petrol cars.

Green Logistics

Green logistics includes measures taken by the company to minimize the ecological impact of all logistics activities between the point of origin and the point of consumption.

This is an effective green marketing strategy if you run an e-Commerce store or a green products store which delivers its products to the customers. Amazon uses such green logistics strategy called Frustration-Free packaging. The Frustration-Free packaging is an easy-to-open recyclable packaging which uses less packaging materials with zero wire ties, plastic bindings, or plastic clamshell casings.

Green Disposal

For businesses which generate a lot of waste material, green disposal could be the perfect green marketing strategy where they can boast about the sustainable disposal practices they use to reduce the impact on both the environment and human life.

Green Marketing vs. Green washing

Just merely adding the prefix green to the company's or the offering's brand name doesn't mean that it's offering is green. Green washing, also known as green sheen, is one such practice of promoting the deceptive perception that the product is green even when it is not.

For example, asking the customers to buy a product on a pretext that it'll save the environment, even when it won't, is green washing. Using confusing language or imagery in the communication messages which gives a hint to environmental friendliness could be green washing too.

15.5 BLUE MARKETING

If you ask 100 people what their favorite color is, what do you think they would say? A study done by YouGov concluded that blue is the most universally favored color of them all! It is a unique and versatile color in that its shades can mean a variety of things. According to Color Psychology, "Light blue is the color most linked to creativity. Sky blue is the most calming shade of blue that helps a person relax and is also a color that inspires safety and serenity. Dark blue is the shade that is associated with intelligence and lack of emotion."

In terms of logo design and branding, it is found in an abundance of different industries:



Fig. 15.1

Since it relates to trust and dependability, it helps with customer loyalty. Due to this, many financial institutions feature it in their logo, including well-known banks such as US Bank, Bank of America, and Chase, to name a few. Additionally, it is often linked with innovation and corporate business because it is “productive and non-intrusive” according to Fast Company. Whether it be empires like Microsoft, Expedia, Boeing, Intel, Facebook, Twitter and way too many others to list, these companies all incorporate shades into their logos and branding.

Unlike red, it slows the pulse rate, reduces appetite, and is overall a calming color. It adds a sense of strength, but is a relaxing color. In fact, Pantone recently released “Natural Optimism,” a color that is designed to make people feel good just by looking at it! In using blue in business, you need to understand the traits, qualities, and mood of the color along with the psychological meaning. Blue is the most universally favored color of all and therefore the safest to use. It relates to trust, honesty, and dependability, therefore helping to build customer loyalty. Blue indicates confidence, reliability, and responsibility. It relates to one-to-one communication rather than mass communication. It inspires wisdom and higher ideals but is also conservative and predictable. Physiologically, blue is calming, reducing tension and fear. It slows the pulse rate and reduces appetite. Being a cool color it creates a sensation of space. Blue adds strength and unity, and is therapeutic to the mind and body. It brings harmony to the spoken

word. Blue works well for the corporate world and is often used for more conservative types of businesses such as accountants, insurance companies, banks and other financial companies where trust and reliability are important.

Younger people see blue in general as a color relating to maturity and the adult market, unless it is a bright electric blue of course. Too much blue can encourage boredom, manipulation or a rigid outlook.

Keywords for Blue**Positive Color Meanings in Business:**

- loyalty, trust and integrity
- tactful, caring and concerned
- reliability and responsibility
- conservatism and perseverance
- idealistic and orderly
- authority, devotion and contemplation
- peace and calm

Negative Color Meanings in Business:

- rigid, deceitful and spiteful
- self-righteous, superstitious and emotionally unstable
- too conservative, predictable and weak
- unforgiving and frigid
- manipulation, unfaithfulness and distrust

15.6 EVENT MARKETING

Event marketing is a strategy marketers use to promote their brand, product, or service with an in-person or real-time engagement. These events can be online or offline, and

companies can participate as hosts, participants or sponsors. Marketers use both inbound and outbound event marketing strategies for promotional purposes. The US Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts that the event industry will grow by 44% from 1910 to 1919, exceeding most growth predictions for other industries. So why is the event industry growing so quickly and why has it become such an integral part of successful marketing strategies?

- Event marketing is one of the best ways to:
- Build brand awareness
- Increase customer engagement
- Generate leads
- Educate prospects and customers
- Upsell customers

An event marketing plan can help your company stand out in a crowded marketplace. By combining event marketing with your digital campaigns, you create a more meaningful and longer lasting relationship with your buyers. Whether it's an exclusive appreciation dinner, an informational webinar, or you're a sponsor at a trade show, events offer a unique chance to interact with your customers on a more personal level. Having a direct interaction is invaluable to fostering a long and prosperous relationship.

Events, if done right, can be one of your most impactful marketing channels. Dunkin' Donuts used Facebook Live video on Valentine's Day to create an event that showed viewers how they create new products and ended with the creation of a gigantic donut-themed wedding cake. The Facebook Live event had a total of 43,000 viewers, that's 43,000 people engaged in watching donuts being made.

15.6.1 Why are Companies Using Event Marketing?

Branding and Awareness

74% of event attendees say that they have a more positive opinion about the company, brand, or service being promoted after the event. One of the biggest reasons

companies participate in, or host, an event is to establish and build their brand name and identity. With the increasingly fierce competition in almost every industry, being able to differentiate yourself is crucial.

You may choose to participate in specific marketing events to associate with the host's name and ecosystem, to gain access to a highly targeted audience, or show off your brand's personality. Let's take a look at some different events and why a brand would choose to participate:

Dream force: you want to penetrate the Salesforce ecosystem. You're trying to sell to their target market and customers.

The Super Bowl: you want your brand name to reach a broad audience and associate with some of the biggest names in advertising.

Fashion Week: you're a lifestyle brand that wants to establish yourself in the luxury category.

When selecting which event you want to participate in, or the type of event you'd like to host, first think about whom your customer is and what kind of event they're likely to attend. That's where you'll want to focus your resources. By creating a memorable experience at events with your target buyers in attendance, they're more likely to think of your brand first when they're looking to purchase and more likely to buy from you in the future. Another way company's build brand awareness at events is by connecting with reporters who will be there. If done right, they can establish relationships with influential journalists or bloggers in their industry, get press coverage on their product, and position themselves as thought leaders.

Customer Engagement

In-person events help humanize your company and create a more authentic connection with consumers. By immersing your customers in a unique and memorable experience, they're more likely to have an emotional tie to your brand and will be more inclined to share their experience with friends, and maybe even other businesses. Word-of-mouth is the most effective means of generating new customers. And happy, engaged customers are more likely to talk about your product or service and refer others.

Engaged customers also buy 90% more frequently, spend 60% more per transaction, and are five times more likely to buy from the same brand in the future, according to research conducted by Rosetta Consulting. By creating a meaningful interaction between your brand and your customers, you have a higher likelihood of increasing client retention and creating brand loyalists in the process.

Lead Generation

79% of US marketers generate sales using event marketing. Conferences and events are a powerful way to engage with your target audience, gain a more in-depth understanding of their pain points, and facilitate their decision-making process. When people attend an event, they've already shown an interest in the product or service you're offering, and many times they're ready to make a purchasing decision. To facilitate the purchasing process, you'll need a plan in place to capture qualified leads' information to follow up after the event. Ways to engage with prospects and collect their information include:

- Demo stations
- Speaking sessions
- Social Media
- Hosting a sponsored party at, or nearby, the event

Where you collect lead information will dictate how you later communicate with that prospect. Each touch point shows different levels of engagement and intent to buy, so you'll need to nurture the leads accordingly.

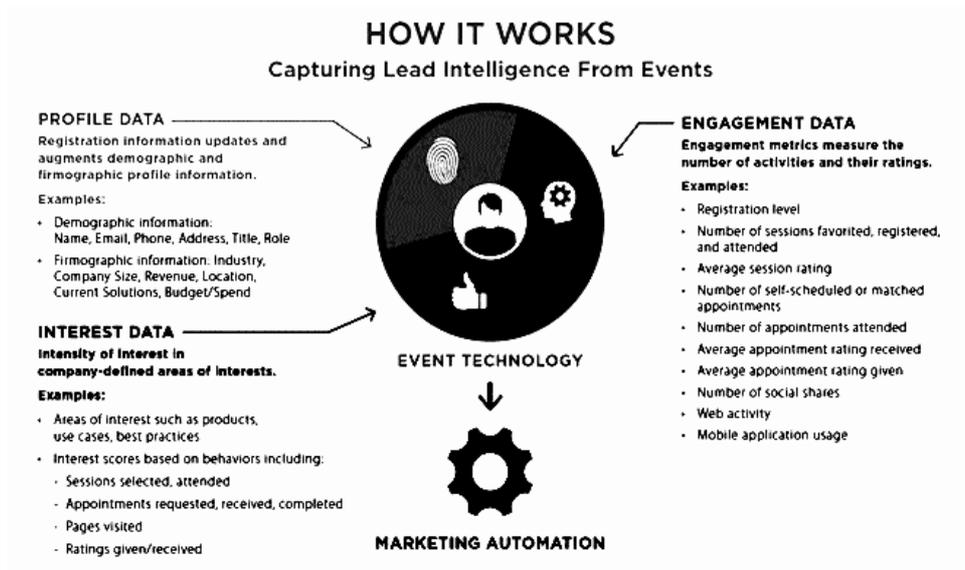


Fig. 15.2

Before an event, you should set up a lead scoring model. Your lead scoring should incorporate information collected from scanning a participant's badge (like company size, industry, and title) as well as how many, and which, touch points they engaged with during the event and their previous level of engagement with your company.

Education

65% of consumers said live events helped them have a better understanding of a product or service, vastly surpassing digital efforts and TV advertising as methods of recognizing and learning about a brand. One of the main reasons people attend business conferences, seminars, and trade shows is to learn about new strategies, technologies, and use cases for a product or service.

- If you're sponsoring an event and have a booth, have well-trained staff who can give demos that address people's pain points and can answer prospects' questions with confidence. Make sure you collect prospects' information so that you can send them relevant information and resources after your interaction.

This outreach will continue the relationship and keep your company top-of-mind when they're making a purchasing decision.

- If you're speaking at an event, make sure your speech is both informative and entertaining. Think about presenting a unique use-case, hands-on training, or discussing a new perspective on how to use a technology or service. Try to engage with the audience by asking questions during or after your session.
- If you're hosting an event, select keynote and session speakers, who can provide a unique viewpoint or can educate users on how to get more value out of your product or service. If you can secure a big name in the industry, it will help attract a more substantial crowd and lend your event more credibility. You can also use online events to educate current and prospective customers.

Upselling Customers

Many times, upselling is a natural extension of educating your customers. Use demos or webinars as a soft-sell for new product offerings.

If your event staff listens to a customer's pain points and then give a demonstration of how specific features address their needs, it's likely that they'll present new features that require a customer to upgrade or purchase an additional product offering. By demonstrating that your company understands your customers' needs and taking the time to address how your product or service can fix specific pain points, whether in-person or via a live webinar, it creates more trust.

15.6.2 What Kind of Marketing Events are There?

Online Marketing Events

Digital marketing events offer companies a less expensive alternative to hosting or participating in physical events. They also allow businesses to reach a global audience more effortlessly and to create events that address timely topics that physical events, which require more lead time, can't do.

Webinars

Live webinars help facilitate engagement with prospects and customers. Webinars

revolve around product demos, presentations, and discussions, and are usually 30-60 minutes long. If you host a live webinar, make it interactive by allowing participants to ask questions and taking polls. This increases customer engagement and makes viewers feel like they received real value for taking the time to watch your webinar. Polling also gives you valuable data that you can then share with your marketing, product, and sales teams. Get creative with your webinar format and topics to keep participants interested. Think beyond just presenting a slide deck and droning on for an hour without stop.

Live Streaming Events

Live streaming allows people who are unable to attend in person to see presentations and interact with your brand via social media. It can also be a fun way to offer viewers a ‘behind-the-scenes’ look at your event, creating more transparency and giving your company a human face. Starbucks used live streaming to broadcast their event showcasing the importance of voting. The chairman and CEO of Starbucks Howard Schultz and rapper Common talked about the importance of voting and urged viewers to send in questions which they would later answer in order to increase engagement for the event.

In-Person Events

There’s nothing quite like being able to meet customers and prospects face-to-face. In-person events are a powerful way to move beyond a digital presence, which can seem impersonal to some, and connect with consumers on a more intimate level. A study by Eventbrite found that 69% of millennials believe attending live events and experiences make them more connected to other people, the community, and the world. By creating a space for people to interact directly with your brand and other customers, you can build a loyal following and create more brand awareness.

There are several formats your live event can take, but the most common are trade shows, conferences, and meetups or customer appreciation events.

Trade shows

Trade shows bring together individuals and companies in a particular industry or

profession and are often used for lead generation and building brand awareness. Because there are many businesses present at trade shows, it's important to think about how to make your brand stand out. If you're a sponsor with a booth, it's important to think about the layout and location of your booth. Xibit Solutions has an interesting info graphic on things to consider when designing your booth.

Conferences

Conferences are company-specific events, generally put on by enterprises that have a sizeable and engaged customer base, to deliver information about new product offerings or for educational purposes. The most common example is a user summit. Conferences typically have multiple sessions and speakers geared towards different interests, roles within an organization, and skill levels. Sponsoring a conference will increase your brand recognition at the event. With your logo on marketing materials and a presence on the floor with your booth, attendees who are looking for new solutions can easily find you. Event organizers have already spent the time and money marketing to your target audience and bringing them all to one place. As a sponsor, capitalize on this fact by gearing your entire presence towards this audience. Make sure you have a cohesive, targeted message at your booth, in your marketing materials, and in any presentations you may be giving.

Meetups

Brands can sponsor a local meetups geared towards their target audience to build brand awareness and engagement. These smaller, more intimate events offer brands a chance to network and build relationships with locals. If you have a local business, meetups is a great place to offer specials or promotions to generate new customers as well.

Appreciation Events

Showing your appreciation to your best customers by throwing an event can increase customer satisfaction, retention, referrals, testimonials, and even sales. Many times companies do this by hosting a breakfast, lunch, or dinner around a conference that many of their customers will be attending.

15.7 NETWORK MARKETING

Network marketing, also known as multi-level marketing, is a business model which involves a pyramid structured network of people who sell a company's products. The participants in this network are usually remunerated on a commission basis. That is, people in this network get commission every time they perform the specified task, like : Make a sale of a product.

Their recruits make a sale of the product.

In simple words, this model involves a pyramid structure of non-salaried participants who get paid whenever they or a person below them in the pyramid makes a sale. In this system, consumers are the participants, their family, friends, and acquaintances are their customers, and this cycle goes on.



Fig. 15.3 : Network Marketing

15.7.1 Characteristics of Network Marketing

Direct Sales

Network marketing organizations market and sell their product directly and don't make use of any well-defined channel of distribution. The responsibility to sell the products is transferred to the non-employed individuals (the participants) who get the commission every time they make a sale.

Independent Business Owners (IBO)

The participants are called IBO as they work as if they are promoting their own business.

Selling Philosophy

This model involves participants to use the selling philosophy of marketing. The main focus is on recruiting and selling as much as you can to earn more commission. No relationships are built.

System of Hierarchy

Suppose a person 'A' has a person 'B' under him. Now A will get the commission whenever he makes a sale and also a part of B's commission when B makes a sale. Now, to earn more money, B will also try to recruit a person C under him and so on. This makes the system a big hierarchy.

Less or No Advertising

Dependency on direct sales helps the organization to rely less on advertising as personalized contact have more convincing power than advertisements.

No Fixed Salaries

This is a commission based network where participants (not employees) are paid commissions to perform the specific task.

Accountability

Everyone is accountable only to himself. The more he sells, the more he earns.

15.7.2 Benefits to the Participants

Participants are also the consumers of the network. Hence, they also get discounts and other attractive offers to when they join the network.

Examples of Network Marketing

Amway – been in business for around 57 years now, this company is one of the

biggest examples of a successful MLM/network marketing company. Other companies that use network marketing model include – Tupperware, Nu skin, Juice Plus, etc.

15.7.3 Pyramid Structure vs. Network Marketing

Pyramid structure is said to exist when you get paid to get a new recruit and there is no involvement of any product. It's an ill-practice which makes a person earn money by taking advantage of his friends and family. Companies having a pyramid structure model tend to deceive people while making them believe that they'll earn in future (which they do by deceiving more people). For example, a person will be asked to pay \$100 to be a part of the company with a promise that he'll get 25% of every new recruit's admission fees who he refers. This is a money-making strategy of the company where the participants are at a loss.

15.8 DIRECT MARKETING

Direct marketing is a type of advertising campaign that seeks to bring an action in a selected group of consumers (such as an order, visit the store or the website of the mark or a request for information) in response a communication by the marketer. This communication can take many different formats, such as postal mail, telemarketing, and point of sale. One of the most interesting is the direct email marketing. An essential aspect of direct marketing is that the consumer response is measurable: for example, if you offer a discount for an online store, you should include some kind of cookie or pixel to let you know if the user has made use of the code.

15.8.1 Benefits of Direct Marketing

Direct marketing allows you to promote your product or service directly to your target people most in need and measure results quickly, but there is more. These are some of the benefits the digital direct marketing can bring to your brand:

Take the segmentation and targeting. One of the great advantages of this type of marketing is that you can reach your specific audience segments with personalized messages. If you want to succeed, you should invest time in research to identify consumers most likely to convert and thus direct your efforts to actions that really work.

Optimize your marketing budget. Addressing online direct marketing to a specific audience allows you to set realistic goals and improve your sales on a tight budget. If you optimize and properly direct your campaign, you will achieve results with only a small percentage of the cost of traditional advertising.

Increase your sales with current and former clients. Digital direct marketing lets you communicate with your current customers to keep alive the relationship bringing value, but also back in touch with old customers and generate new sales opportunities.

Upgrade your loyalty strategies. Direct contact with your customers allows you to customize your promotions, emails and offers to create an instant bond. To maximize results, you can combine your direct marketing methods your loyalty program.

Create new business opportunities. Direct marketing allows you to adapt to market demands at all times and respond more effectively.

Tests and analyzes the results. Direct response campaigns give you the opportunity to directly measure your results. Take the opportunity to squeeze the most of your tests and make decisions in real time.

15.8.2 Examples of Direct Marketing

The most powerful and innovative direct marketing strategies want to elicit a reaction in the target audience thanks to a content delivered directly to the consumer, both physically and through the email marketing. A very striking graphic design (email), a product that is not surprising (direct mail) or a call that touches the heartstrings of the listener (telemarketing), can elicit a response as a call to action on the content. As already explained above in the Numerical blog is what direct marketing is and its benefits, today you'll discover three great examples of direct marketing.

Toyota Corolla

This type of marketing is a great opportunity for businesses if used in the right way, but it is also a way to show off for the direct marketing agencies and advertising, because if they put all their creativity to the strategy really shocking advertising may arise and will be long remembered by the public (and attract potential customers).

The first example of direct marketing that I put is on the car brand Toyota Corolla Watch this video!

Touch Branding

This is a branding agency that maximizes the potential of the brands that hire them. They are in Prague and have over 15 years of experience in global campaigns. They devised a plan for direct marketing with an impactful copy “We’ll give our blood for good branding” and a graphic design that really was up to the message. This really is one of the great examples of direct marketing that has impacted us more! For direct mail they attached with letters a blood bag simulating to be real (though of course it was fake), the design of email they sent was in the same line and the cover of the web was a picture with two doctors who carried the blood bag with copy above. Actually, they matched all season long in Touch Branding and it was a way to “hook” potential companies to be customers.

Canva

The beauty of Canva emails is in its simplicity. When they create a new design concept, they advertise to all subscribers by sending them an email for them to know and be able to start applying the new template in their presentations and info graphics. In Cyber click we are great lovers of this online marketing tool as it is useful and intuitively lets you create great info graphic designs that perfectly complement the content and believe that their emails are great examples of direct marketing.

15.8.3 Types of Direct Marketing**Direct mail**

Direct mail is posted mail that advertises your business and its products and services. There are several different types of direct mail (e.g. catalogues, postcards, envelope mailers). Direct mail campaigns are usually sent to all postal customers in an area or to all customers on a marketing list. Learn more about direct mail.

Telemarketing

Telemarketing involves contacting potential customers over the phone to sell products

or services. It is capable of generating new customer prospects in large volumes and is also a useful tool for following up on direct marketing campaigns. However, a successful telemarketing involves planning and using accurate and well-researched customer data to match customer profiles to product profiles. Find out about telemarketing.

Email marketing

Email marketing is a simple, cost-effective, and measurable way of reaching your customers. It can include e-newsletters, promotional emails to generate new leads or offers for existing customers, or ads that can appear in other business's emails. Learn more about email marketing.

Text (SMS) marketing

Text messaging allows businesses to reach individual customers and send messages to large groups of people at a low cost. You could use short message service (SMS) messaging to send customers sales alerts, links to website updates, appointment or delivery reminders, or personalized messaging. Find out about text (SMS) marketing.

Leaflet marketing using letterbox drops and handouts

Distributing well-designed leaflets or flyers through letterbox drops and handouts can work well for a local business whose products or services appeal to a broad audience. It is a simple, inexpensive and effective way of reaching customers, although it is a less targeted form of direct marketing. Learn more about leaflet marketing using letterbox drops and handouts.

Social media marketing

Social media can be used effectively as a marketing tool for business as it gives you the opportunity to interact directly with your customers and regularly share relevant product or service information. Social media platforms also make it very easy for your customers to share your content with their entire network, increasing your reach exponentially. Consider developing a profile for your business that allows you to promote your products and services while also encouraging customers to provide feedback by leaving comments. Find out about social media marketing.

Direct selling

Direct selling is an effective way to grow a flexible, low-cost business. Direct selling involves an independent salesperson selling products or services directly to customers, often at a customer's home or workplace. Traditional direct selling methods include door-to-door sales, party plans and network marketing. Learn more about direct selling.

15.9 SUMMARY

Green marketing (also known as eco-marketing or sustainable marketing) is the practice of marketing the offering based on its environmental benefits. It is a practice of marketing the products that are environmentally friendly in themselves and have green benefits, or the eco-friendly business practices that are used for its production. These eco-friendly business practices include:

- Sustainable manufacturing
- Reduced or zero carbon footprint
- Reduced or zero water pollution
- Recycled ingredients/materials
- Recyclable product
- Renewable ingredients/materials
- Eco-friendly packaging
- Reduced or zero plastic footprint

Blue ocean strategy is the simultaneous pursuit of differentiation and low cost to open up a new market space and create new demand. It is about creating and capturing uncontested market space, thereby making the competition irrelevant. It is based on the view that market boundaries and industry structure are not a given and can be reconstructed by the actions and beliefs of industry players.

Event marketing is entering a guerrilla era where the physical and the virtual cross

paths, offering new options for marketing professionals who create buzz over a service or product. Consider one of McDonalds' most popular event marketing campaigns – McDonalds Monopoly. According to the company, the promotion increases the chain's revenue upwards of 5% month-over-month, even though consumers have been participating since 1887. While the game pieces themselves have always represented a chance at winning a variety of prizes, recent years have unveiled a new dimension to the game – interactive Monopoly, where consumers can win even more prizes by registering their game pieces online.

Network marketing is a business model that depends on person-to-person sales by independent representatives, often working from home. There are many reputable network marketing operations, but some have been denounced as pyramid schemes. The latter may focus less on sales to consumers than on recruitment of salespeople who may be required to pay upfront for expensive starter kits.

Direct marketing occurs when businesses address customers through a multitude of channels, including mail, e-mail, phone, and in person. Direct marketing messages involve a specific “call to action,” such as “Call this toll-free-number” or “Click this link to subscribe.” The results of such campaigns are immediately measurable, as a business can track how many customers have responded through a message's call to action.

15.10 GLOSSARY

- **Green Marketing:** While different agencies and organizations offer various definitions of green marketing (sometimes called environmental marketing, or eco-marketing), they generally agree that it is the marketing of products and companies that promote the environment in some substantial way. Some definitions look for environmentally “safe” or “sustainable” production, while others seek to reduce a company's “carbon footprint”
- **Colour Psychology:** “Color psychology is the study of how color affects our emotions and behaviors. Depending on your upbringing, cultural background, and personal preference, certain colors can make you feel a certain way.”

- **Event Marketing:** The activity of designing or developing a themed activity, occasion, display, or exhibit (such as a sporting event, music festival, fair, or concert) to promote a product, cause, or organization. Also called event creation.
- **Multi-Level Marketing (MLM):** Network marketing, also known as Multi-Level Marketing (MLM), is a business model where independent contractors buy into a company and earn a commission on the products they sell. The profession appeals to many people because they can be their own boss, set their own hours, and work towards their own success. It is a big commitment, but network marketing can be a very lucrative career.
- **Direct Marketing:** Direct marketing is a very popular and widely used method of informing people about products and services. It's a method of contacting customers and potential customers personally, rather than having an indirect medium between the company and the consumer, such as magazine ads or billboards that are seen by the general public. Direct marketing can take many forms, including mail, telephone calls, emails, brochures, and coupons. The information is usually very broad and meant for a general audience. Direct marketing works best for products that have a wide appeal.

15.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1) What is green marketing?

2) What do you understand by blue marketing?

3) Enumerate the advantages of event marketing

- 4) What is direct marketing?

15.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Why are organisations moving from traditional marketing practices to contemporary marketing practices?
- 2) Compare and contrast traditional marketing with contemporary marketing practices.
- 3) Distinguish between green marketing and blue marketing
- 4) Given the pace at which technology is changing today, what problems are the organisations facing in adopting network marketing and direct marketing

15.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 16

PLACE & PROMTION MIX DECISIONS

Unit - III

MARKETING CHANNELS

STRUCTURE

- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Objectives
- 16.3 Channel development
 - 16.3.1 Phases of Channel Development
- 16.4 Value Networks
- 16.5 Types of Marketing Channels
- 16.6 Role of Marketing Channels
- 16.7 Identifying Major Channel Alternatives
- 16.8 Channel Decisions
- 16.9 Summary
- 16.10 Glossary
- 16.11 Self Assessment Questions
- 16.12 Lesson End Exercise
- 16.13 Suggested Readings

16.1 INTRODUCTION

Although the principles remain the same, the practice of distribution has changed dramatically in the past 100 years and even more so since the advent of the ‘Internet of Things’. A seismic shift has been the introduction of affiliate partners and programs in the strategy of distribution channel marketing and channel sales management. When life was a lot simpler, trades-folk would bring their goods to a central market where the local villagers would come to either buy the goods or trade them for their own wares. The tradesmen would then return home with the revenue generated. The cycle would then repeat itself. As long as people had something of value, they could ‘get into the market’ to have their needs met. Although Marketing Channels and Distribution Channels are terms that are often used interchangeably, for the purposes of this chapter, they will be distinguished as follows:

Marketing Channels refer to the entire ecosystem required for getting products (tangible goods and intangible services) from the point of production to the point of consumption; this includes people, organizations, and all the required activities. Channel Management is defined as the process where the company develops various marketing techniques and sales strategies to reach its customer base.

The Distribution Channel is a more focused term that refers to the chain of intermediaries through which the product passes until it reaches the end consumer.

16.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the Marketing channels and its need
- Hold the concept of channel development
- Having insights of value networks
- Be well verse with different types of marketing channels
- Understand the role of marketing channels
- Identify the major channel alternatives
- Grasp the various channel decisions

16.3 CHANNEL DEVELOPMENT

The marketing channel that a company chooses affects many aspects of the way a product is sold. A product's price point will depend largely on the type of environment it is sold in. Training and advertising efforts will have to be tailored to meet the needs of the seller. Ultimately, the entire perception of a product will be influenced by the way channel partners present it.

The first step in creating a channel marketing plan is to identify potential channel partners. This involves a careful analysis of the product sold, the products of competitors, and the markets where they apply. The analysis must be thorough, technical, and compare hard market data to find the right partner. Once a partner has been identified, they must be convinced that a channel partnership would benefit both parties. Producers must market their products to the needs of retailers in the same way that a company tries to make a pitch to consumers. After an agreement is reached, both parties will draft and sign a binding contract. It is important that every contingency is accounted for. The only way for a channel partnership to work is for all of the most pertinent details to be agreed upon in a contract before the partnership begins.

Functions of a Channel

The primary purpose of any channel of distribution is to bridge the gap between the producer of a product and the user of it, whether the parties are located in the same community or in different countries thousands of miles apart. The channel of distribution is defined as the most efficient and effective manner in which to place a product into the hands of the customer. The channel is composed of different institutions that facilitate the transaction and the physical exchange.

Institutions in channels fall into three categories:

- **The producer of the product:** a craftsman, manufacturer, farmer, or other extractive industry producer
- **The user of the product:** an individual, household, business buyer, institution, or government
- Certain middlemen at the wholesale and/or retail level

A channel performs three important functions. Not all channel members perform the same function. The functions are:

- **Transactional functions:** buying, selling, and risk assumption
- **Logistical functions:** assembly, storage, sorting, and transportation
- **Facilitating functions:** post-purchase service and maintenance, financing, information dissemination, and channel coordination or leadership

These functions are necessary for the effective flow of product and title to the customer and payment back to the producer.

Characteristics of a Channel

Certain characteristics are implied in every channel.

First, although you can eliminate or substitute channel institutions, the functions that these institutions perform cannot be eliminated. Typically, if a wholesaler or a retailer is removed from the channel, its function will either shift forward to a retailer or the consumer, or shift backward to a wholesaler or the manufacturer.

For example, a producer of custom hunting knives might decide to sell through direct mail instead of retail outlets. The producer absorbs the sorting, storage, and risk functions; the post office absorbs the transportation function; and the consumer assumes more risk in not being able to touch or try the product before purchase.

Second, all channel institutional members are part of many channel transactions at any given point in time. As a result, the complexity of all transactions may be quite overwhelming. Consider how many different products you purchase in a single year and the vast number of channel mechanisms you use.

Third, the fact that you are able to complete all these transactions to your satisfaction, as well as to the satisfaction of the other channel members, is due to the routinization benefits provided through the channel.

Routinization means that the right products are most always found in places where the consumer expects to find them (such as catalogues or stores), comparisons among products are possible, prices are marked, and methods of payment are available. Routinization aids the producer as well as the consumer, because it tells the producer what to make, when to make it, and how many units to make.

Fourth, there are instances when the best channel arrangement is direct, from the producer to the ultimate user. This is particularly true when available middlemen are incompetent or unavailable, or the producer feels he or she can perform the tasks better. Similarly, it may be important for the producer to maintain direct contact with customers so quick and accurate adjustments can be made.

Direct-to-user channels are common in industrial settings, as are door-to-door selling and catalogue sales. Indirect channels are more typical and result, for the most part, because producers are not able to perform the tasks provided by middlemen.



ATM Machines: ATM machines are one of the ways banks responded to channel issues.

Finally, although the notion of a channel of distribution may sound unlikely for a service product (such as health care or air travel), service marketers also face the problem of delivering their product in the form and at the place and time demanded by the customer.

Banks have responded by developing bank-by-mail, Automatic Teller Machines

(ATMs), and other distribution systems. The medical community provides emergency medical vehicles, outpatient clinics, 24-hour clinics, and home-care providers. Even performing arts employ distribution channels. In all three cases, the industries attempt to meet the special needs of their target markets while differentiating their product from that of their competition. A channel strategy is evident. With the contract in place, the two parties can begin exchanging goods and services. For the duration of the contract it will be necessary for managers from both sides to smooth out issues and address concerns as they arise. Even the most thorough contracts cannot address every possible issue, so both parties must maintain a productive business relationship. At the completion of the contract, the terms can be renegotiated or the partnership can be severed.

Generating more and more revenue is one of the biggest challenges for salespeople and companies do their best to make most out of working hours of their salespeople. However, it is impossible to make use of 100% of the working hours of a salesperson, because of the other job responsibilities. Therefore, companies invest to develop sales channel such as a company gives the responsibility for their sales to a third party such as affiliate partners, resellers, value-added providers, distributors, and independent retailers etc. These people don't directly work for your organization.

16.3.1 Phases of Channel Development

1. Emerging Growth : This phase refers to times when a company is building a new sales channel, which includes various activities such as to recruit and involve these partners successfully. In the emerging phase, companies are usually engaged in making proper plans and procedures to make sure that everything is in place. In addition to this, it also includes establishing a profile for the ideal partner.

Different elements included in the emerging phase.

- Signing up a contract or deal with first partners and preparing them to sell.
- Designing and creating material related to the market which can help partners to generate leads.

- Specifying and writing guidelines for partners and detailing the role of each party.
- Organizing the training materials (Online or in person training).
- Selection of channel manager.
- Purchasing and installation of software support system. Investing in efficient software in the beginning phase will help you in the future.
- Designing and implementing strategies for outreach sales partner prospects..
- Planning for further expansion of business such as which markets to venture and in what order.

Emerging phase is very important for every business. the more planning you in this phase the more benefits you will get. Hence, it is advisable for you to plan a lot so that your future phases will be smooth.

2) Scaling : When the basic channel management process is established and sales are maintainable. At this point, the company wants to upsurge its revenue. This phase of the channel management process is called scaling. The scaling phase of sales channel development process will include followings.

- Channel management group to recruit more staff to handle recruitments and on boarding facets are expanded.
- The more use of technology, for example, use of automation in day-to-day work and taking the training online rather than in-person training. You can make use of PRM.
- Establishing centralized content storage and enhancing media libraries for partners' use.
- Creating and implementing survey and feedback forms for partners to address problems faced by them efficiently.
- Initialize market development funds to increase the availability of resources for partners.

- Working to minimizing the channel conflicts such as restructuring the sales process and clearing the overlapping area.
- Structuring plans to recruit global sales partners.
- Structuring guidelines for eliminating underperforming partners.

3) Continuous Improvement : The scaling process is a never-ending process unless a company doesn't want to progress. To keep on the scaling process requires major investments or expansions after when a company has reached a plateau point. At this time, the focus of the company becomes to keep the sales sustainable and using optimizations to enhance revenue to increase sales beyond the total capacity. The continuous improvement process phase of sales channel development includes followings.

- Focusing on the new products rollout and enhancement in the existing products.
- Software system should be fully centralized, in case, it has not been done already.
- Working on improving the after-sales support, post-sale upgrade initiatives, and other similar long-termed profit generation methods.
- Providing helping hand to partners to heighten their workflow.
- Increasing promotion as well as awareness about the business such as by making trade show presentations.

A continuous process is a sub-part of scaling phase and it never ceases. A company can always become better and find more and more avenue to be walked. Moreover, the market never remains the same all the time, the change in the market make it inevitable for a company to change or improve its working style. However, there is one more phase that every successful company would want to avoid. The fourth phase is called "Sub-optimization" and any company can slip into it if things don't go well.

4) Sub-Optimized : Sub-optimized is the only phase that prevents a company from generating revenue and increasing outreach. Followings are the "signs" that a company should be aware of all the time.

- Difficulties of partners because of working with so many software solutions.
- Management issue with partners. Failure in identifying the underperforming salespeople and dealing with them.
- Vague and fallacious lines of communication.
- Customers' unsatisfaction and recurrent complain related to service or product.
- Customers' complain about the lack of support from the recruited partner.
- Issues within the organization such as the lack of communication between the marketing manager and other departments (such as R&D or Marketing).
- Frequent expansion of business without the expansion of technical and personnel resources.

To avoid this phase, a company should spend a great amount of time to evaluate business plans and don't rush to enhance business further without making sure the stabilization of current business.

16.4 VALUE NETWORKS

We know, almost instinctively, that networks hold value. Human beings are by nature social creatures and our own social networks (not just those online) provide a framework for our behaviors and structure to our lives. Yet, the value of networks in business is often overlooked. Designers looking to drive adoption and appropriation of products, in particular, will want to examine their own value networks and ask critical questions regarding those networks for both the product design and the design and execution of marketing for the product.

What is a Value Network?

A value network is a system that organizations, departments, operating units or people use to do work, buy or sell products, or create plans that benefit the entire organization.

How it works/Example:

Research and development units, for example, are key components of many companies'

value networks. By working with government agencies for grant funding or approvals, third-party vendors for supplies and talent, and internal marketing or development teams, the R&D department creates new goods and services that make more money for the company, help cure diseases or other social problems, and foster the growth of the third-party vendors. This is a value network.

Why it matters:

A value network is like an ecosystem, and many analysts even map them out for presentation. Value networks contain many symbiotic relationships in which the participants all benefit in some way from their participation in the network. Similarly, if one part of the value network is weak, the rest of the network may suffer. There are many different types of value network but broadly speaking they may be placed into two categories: internal value networks and external value networks.

An external value network consists of those people and other interactions which lay outside of the business in question; these can include customers, users, business intermediaries, business partners, stakeholders, suppliers, etc.

Whereas an internal value network lies within the business in question; it is the combination of processes and relationships inside the business.

The value in these networks is generally considered to be created through the creation of effective relationships between those conducting roles within businesses. In fact, internal value networks aren't limited to business – they exist wherever two or more people work together to create anything (education, civil service, the army, etc.)

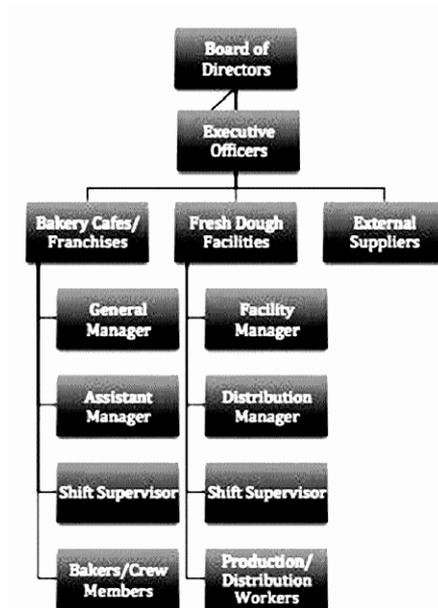


Fig. 16.1

How are Value Networks Described?

In general value networks are described by nodes (which are representations of the actors or actions within the network) and the relationships between those nodes. The relationships are seen in terms of either tangible or intangible benefits between the nodes.

Tangible benefits are those which involved the exchange of goods, services or revenues. They also include anything directly related to this such as: contracts for provision of services and goods, invoices and receipts, confirmations of payment, etc. Intangible benefits are those that include knowledge and/or favors. So for example, a thought leader who shares information with their Facebook friends is providing an intangible benefit to those friends. An innovator who agrees to help test your product in exchange for early access is both giving and receiving an intangible benefit. There are also four common types of value network: Clayton Christensen's networks, Fjeldstad and Stabells networks, Normann and Ramirez' constellations and Verna Allee's networks. Each of these is a slightly different way of looking at value created in a network.

Clayton Christensen’s Networks

In his book “The Investor’s Dilemma,” Christensen the analyst says” The collection of upstream suppliers, downstream channels to market, and ancillary providers that support a common business model within an industry. When would-be disruptors enter into existing value networks, they must adapt their business models to conform to the value network and therefore fail that disruption because they become co-opted.”

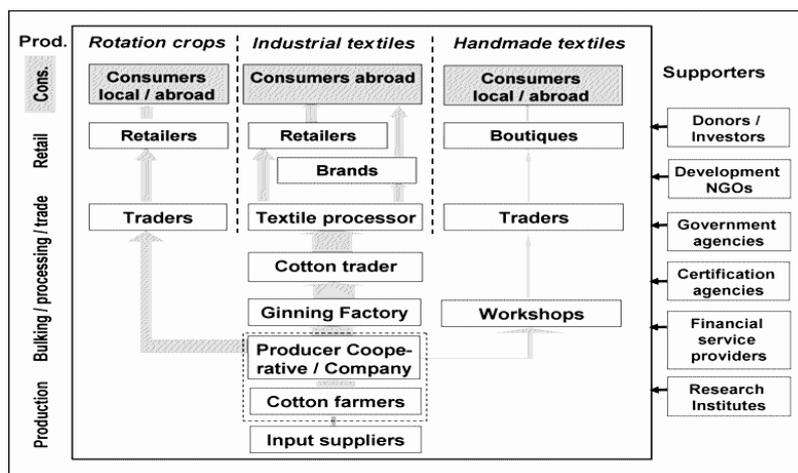


Fig. 16.2

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Which is a fancy way of saying; a network consists of everything outside a business that supports that business and that it’s hard to break in to such networks and make big changes because of the expectation that you will conform to that network model. This is useful to designers who are looking to develop revolutionary products. They must understand that if the current product model lays within a well-developed network; there will be large amounts of inertia to overcome in order to have their products adopted. Christensen also provides some additional sage advice “The job, not the customer, is the fundamental unit of analysis for a marketer who hopes to develop products that customers will buy.”

Fjeldstad and Stabell's Networks

Writing for the Strategic Management Journal in their article “Configuring value for competitive advantage: On chains, shops and network” Stabell and Fjeldstad offer up the idea of value configurations. Their value networks are based on the concept that value networks include certain components:

- **Customers**
- **Services** – which are used by all the customers and which allow for interaction (though not always direct interaction) between those customers
- **A service provider**
- **Contracts or agreements which allow access to services**

This is a different approach from Christensen. In Christensen's networks value exists independently of customers whereas in Fjeldstad and Stabell's model – customers are a key component of the value network.

An obvious Fjeldstad and Stabell network would be Facebook. Facebook provides the service, they provide a contract (a user agreement) to access those services, and the customers sign up for those services and they may interact directly with each other through the value network that Facebook provides.

A slightly less obvious example would be insurance companies. The insurance company provides the service, insurance, and the contracts to use that service. The customers sign up to their policies contractually. While they do not necessarily interact directly with each other their premiums are pooled to cover “shared risk” and as such they indirectly interact with each other with the value network facilitating this interaction. Designers can map these value networks to ensure they have all the building blocks for value creation in place.

Normann and Ramirez Value Constellations

This approach was proposed in the Harvard Business Review in 1993 by Normann and Ramirez. Instead of fixed value models such as those mentioned previously; Normann and Ramirez see value models as dynamic, fluid systems. In which the

objective is to continuously improve relationships and roles within the model to create as much value as possible.

This offers an interesting approach to designers as they iterate their products and work; it requires that they ask where can value best be created and how can it be achieved? This could be approached by mapping the nodes and relationships between nodes and asking the question of each relationship – it is also important to ask “which relationships are missing which could create further value?”

Verna Allee’s Networks

Verna Allee, in their book “The Future of Knowledge” offers a more generalist approach to value networks arguing that a value network is simply a web of relationships that will generate either or both of tangible and intangible value. She also developed a system for analyzing the value within networks, which will not be covered here but is referred to in the references below, which has become highly valued for reporting non-financial value within businesses. Allee recommends that every business become involved in value network analysis because of the powerful ability to transform thinking on problems when every problem is expressed in terms of value creation.

16.5 TYPES OF MARKETING CHANNELS

There are basically four types of marketing channels:

- Direct selling;
- Selling through intermediaries;
- Dual distribution; and
- Reverse channels.

Essentially, a channel might be a retail store, a web site, a mail order catalogue, or direct personal communications by a letter, email, or text message. Here’s a bit of information about each one.

Direct Selling

Direct selling is the marketing and selling of products directly to consumers away

from a fixed retail location. Peddling is the oldest form of direct selling.

Modern direct selling includes sales made through the party plan, one-on-one demonstrations, and personal contact arrangements as well as internet sales.

A textbook definition is: “The direct personal presentation, demonstration, and sale of products and services to consumers, usually in their homes or at their jobs. “

Industry representative, the World Federation of Direct Selling Associations (WFDSA), reports that its 59 regional member associations accounted for more than US\$114 Billion in retail sales in 1907, through the activities of more than 62 million independent sales representatives.

According to the WFDSA, consumers benefit from direct selling because of the convenience and service benefits it provides, including personal demonstration and explanation of products, home delivery, and generous satisfaction guarantees. In contrast to franchising, the cost for an individual to start an independent direct selling business is typically very low, with little or no required inventory or cash commitments to begin. Direct selling is different from direct marketing in that it is about individual sales agents reaching and dealing directly with clients while direct marketing is about business organizations seeking a relationship with their customers without going through an agent/consultant or retail outlet.

Direct selling often, but not always, uses multi-level marketing (a salesperson is paid for selling and for sales made by people they recruit or sponsor) rather than single-level marketing (salesperson is paid only for the sales they make themselves).

Selling Through Intermediaries

A marketing channel where intermediaries such as wholesalers and retailers are utilized to make a product available to the customer is called an indirect channel.

The most indirect channel you can use (Producer/manufacturer → agent → wholesaler → retailer → consumer) is used when there are many small manufacturers and many small retailers and an agent is used to help coordinate a large supply of the product.

Dual Distribution

Dual distribution describes a wide variety of marketing arrangements by which the manufacturer or wholesalers uses more than one channel simultaneously to reach the end user. They may sell directly to the end users as well as sell to other companies for resale. Using two or more channels to attract the same target market can sometimes lead to channel conflict.

An example of dual distribution is business format franchising, where the franchisors, license the operation of some of its units to franchisees while simultaneously owning and operating some units themselves.

Reverse Channels

Recycling Containers: Recycling is an example of a reverse marketing channel.

If you've read about the other three channels, you would have noticed that they have one thing in common — the flow. Each one flows from producer to intermediary (if there is one) to consumer.

Technology, however, has made another flow possible. This one goes in the reverse direction and may go — from consumer to intermediary to beneficiary. Think of making money from the resale of a product or recycling.

There is another distinction between reverse channels and the more traditional ones — the introduction of a beneficiary. In a reverse flow, you won't find a producer. You'll only find a User or a Beneficiary.

The other different types of marketing channels or channels of distribution have been identified based on the number of intermediaries or the levels the goods or services passes through to reach the customers. These marketing channels are bifurcated into the following two categories:

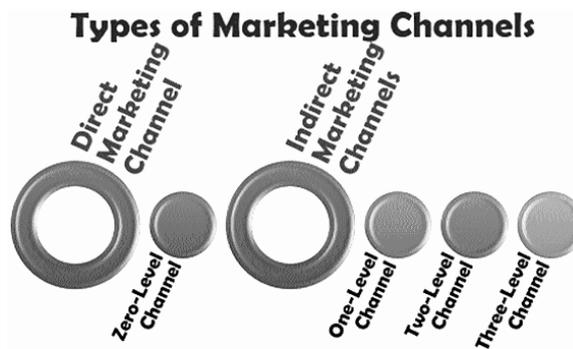
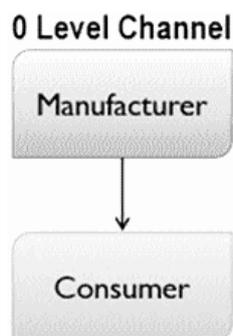


Fig. 16.3

Types of Marketing Channels

- **Direct Marketing Channel** : Direct selling is that medium of distribution in which there is no middle person involved, and the goods or services are directly sold by the manufacturer to the customer. It is also termed as ‘zero-level channel’.

Zero Level Channels: This type of channel is popular among the services industry. Most of the services like travel, catering, salons fall under the direct marketing channel.



Even when the products are complicated to use like the industrial machinery require

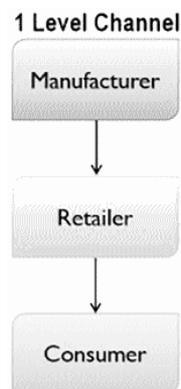
direct selling and support from the manufacturer. The small manufacturer of general goods finds this channel more profitable and cost-efficient since they cannot afford giving margin to the intermediaries. For Example; In restaurants, the food is prepared as well as served to the consumers.

- **Indirect Marketing Channels :** In this channel of distribution, the goods produced by manufacturing units passes through different intermediaries to reach its final consumer. The indirect channels can be further classified into the following types, each of which is supported by an example:

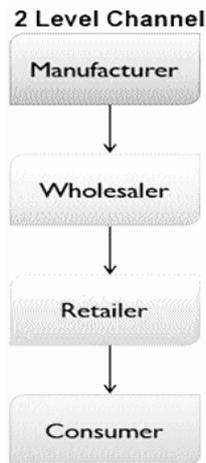
One-Level Channel

The single-level channel involves only one middle person, i.e. the retailer who purchases the goods from the manufacturer and sells them to the customers.

The shopping malls and marts use this channel for acquiring goods at a low price and selling them to customers at a reasonable price. Also, the manufacturers of some specialize goods like furniture; clothing, footwear, etc. preferably go for the one-level marketing channel.



For Example; Big Bazaar is a retail mart which buys the products directly from the manufacturer and makes it available to the consumers.

Two-Level Channel

The wholesaler buys the goods in large quantity from the manufacturers and supplies it to the various retailers in small quantities. These goods are then sold by the retailers to the customers. This channel is preferred by the manufacturers who want to sell their products to obtain market share. It eliminates the expenses which the manufacturer incurs on the sales force, warehousing of goods and other retail selling practices. It also facilitates mass production and a high volume of sales by increasing the scalability of the manufacturers.

For Example; Rice yield by farmers is purchased and stored in bulk quantity by the wholesalers. The retailers then buy the rice in small quantity from the wholesaler and sell it to the customers.

Three-Level Channel

The manufacturer appoints agents or gives the goods to agencies who further distribute the goods to selective wholesalers in large quantity. The wholesalers then sell the rice to the retailers in smaller quantity who finally sell it to the customers. This is one of the most commonly used channels of distribution for confectionery products. It is used by the manufacturers who look forward to capturing a market for reaching the consumers scattered over a vast geographical area. Even the perishable goods manufactured in large quantity need to be distributed through this medium since the manufacturers can't acquire customers more quickly through any other channel.

For Example; Tata Tea manufactured by the company is sold to the agencies in different regions, these agencies sell it to the wholesalers of their respective areas. The wholesaler further sells it to the retailers from where it reaches the customer

16.6 ROLE OF MARKETING CHANNELS

A marketing channel is a set of interdependent organisations involved in the process of placing products and services with consumers.

The introduction of intermediaries between the manufacturers and the final consumer is adopted by many organisations to facilitate the distribution of their products,

especially where a wide distribution will provide maximum exposure of their products. Manufacturers of snack foods, pies, cigarettes and many similar products require mass distribution in often small quantities. This distribution makes the demand management process by one company difficult to achieve cost effective distribution.

In situations where many deliveries are made to retail outlets, the intermediaries can reduce a large portion logistics costs, and distributors endeavor to act as middle-men for many manufacturers. This increases their profitability and can lead them to offering lower distribution costs.

One disadvantage in using marketing channels is that the manufacturer relinquishes a level of control over the products, as well as increasing their distance from the end consumer.

The parties involved in the marketing channel render various key functions which increase the effectiveness of placement through the channel. The functions are:

- Information gathering and distribution
- Product promotion
- Arranging contacts and matching products to meet buyers needs
- Negotiation of prices and financing the costs of the activities in the channel
- Physical distribution of products through the channel.

Channel marketing focuses on the distribution of products from the manufacturer to the consumer. It is part of the distribution (or “place”) component in the four P’s of the “marketing mix” – product, pricing, promotion, and place. Since most manufacturers and producers don’t sell directly to their end user, they use a marketing channel to distribute their products, whether it’s a vending machine, department store, or a trade show. While channel marketing is usually applied to products, it can also be used to market ideas and services. Marketing channels help organizations expand their reach and their revenue. However, each marketing channel will offer a different combination of coverage and performance, and so they may be used in combination. Marketing channels may include traditional distribution models — which include producers,

wholesalers and retailers — or variants that cut out one or two components. For examples, companies like Dell and Avon avoid wholesalers and retailers by using their own warehouses and salespeople to sell to consumers. Examples of marketing channels include:

- Wholesalers
- Direct-to-distributors
- Internet direct
- Catalogue direct
- Sales team
- Value-added reseller
- Consultant
- Retail sales agent
- Manufacturer's representative

In practice, companies often use a mix of marketing channels, such as internet sales and an on-the-ground team.

Every marketing channel includes at least one person or organization who serves as an intermediary. Each of these intermediaries performs a function, provides a value, and expects some kind of economic return. The values provided by these intermediaries include:

- Collecting and sharing marketing information about customers and competitors
- Developing marketing communications
- Negotiating price and other terms of transactions
- Storing and moving products
- Transforming ownership titles from one person or organization to another
- Taking on the financial risk of the channel, such as bad debt

The choice of marketing channel is one of the most critical an organization can make,

and affects all other forms of the marketing mix. Once a company has committed to a distribution model, it may be hard to change. The choice of channel is based on various factors related to the company's product and the way it will be used, including size, perishability, and whether or not the product needs to be demonstrated before purchase. Customer desires and preferences also determine the marketing channel. For instance, companies selling rare or high-value products may be able to limit the number of distribution outlets – producers of inexpensive products – like potato chips – will need many points of distribution to make a profit.

Distribution types include:

- **Intensive distribution** – products are sold at the majority of retail outlets
- **Selective distribution** – the producer relies on a few intermediaries, such as specialist retailers, to carry their product.
- **Exclusive distribution** – the producer relies on very few retailers (common with luxury brands)

Marketers need to help their organization choose the most appropriate marketing channel, train and motivate the intermediaries, and monitor the channel's performance. Over time, they may need to modify some of their channels or choose a new mix. They also need to work to prevent “channel conflict”, which occurs when one intermediary – say, a wholesaler – makes moves that threaten another part of the channel, such as a retailer.

16.7 IDENTIFYING MAJOR CHANNEL ALTERNATIVES

We have mentioned the three distribution alternatives in the preceding sections, namely intensive, selective, and exclusive.

We shall now discuss them in a greater detail here.

- **Intensive Distribution:** This alternative involves all the possible outlets that can be used to distribute the product. This particularly useful in products like soft drinks where distribution is a key success factor. Here, the soft drink firms distribute their brands through multiple outlets to ensure their availability at an arm's length to

the customer. Hence, on the one hand these brands are available through countless soft drink stalls, kiosks, sweet marts, tea shops, etc. Any possible outlet where the customer is expected to visit is also an outlet for the soft drink.

- **Selective Distribution:** This alternative is the middle path approach to distribution. Here, the firm selects some outlets to distribute its products. This alternative helps focus the selling effort of the manufacturing firms on a few outlets rather than dissipating it over countless marginal ones. It also enables the firm to establish good working relationship with the channel members. Selective distribution can help the manufacturer gain optimum market coverage and more control but at a lesser cost than intensive distribution. Both the existing and new firms are known to use this alternative.

- **Exclusive distribution:** When the firm distributes its brand through just one or two major outlets in the market who exclusively deal in it and not competing brands, we say that the firm is using an exclusive distribution strategy. This is a common form of distribution in products and brands that seek high prestigious image. Typical examples are of designer wares, major domestic appliances and even automobiles .By granting exclusive distribution rights, the manufacturer hopes to have control over the intermediaries price, promotion, credit inventory and service policies. The firm also hopes to get the benefit of aggressive selling by such outlets.

Terms and Responsibilities of Intermediaries

The commercial policy of the manufacturer often lays down the terms and conditions for intermediaries and their responsibilities .Generally these include price policies , mode or terms of payment , returns policy , territorial rights, etc.

1. **Price Policy:** This decides the price at which middlemen will get the product from the manufactures and the discount schedule. It also mentions the price at which middlemen may sell the product. Generally, the company is required by law to stipulate the maximum retail price. The middlemen have to ensure that everyone involved gets fair and equitable deal.

2. **Payments Terms:** The manufacturing firm stipulates mode or payment terms.

For example, some firms ask middlemen to put a deposit with them from which the former adjusts the price of the goods sent to the latter. The middlemen has to then replenish the deposit by the required amount immediately , failing which he loses the interest on deposit .Some other firms insist payment to reach them on the day the intermediary takes physical possession of the goods. Others may accept a letter of credit as a payment mode. Credit policy of the manufacturer stipulates the period in which it must get paid.

3. Returns Policy: This indicates the warranty that the manufacturer extends to the intermediary .Some firms offer spot replacement for any of its products returned by the customer .Others take time to settle these claims .A distribution policy should lay down the clauses related to returns and refunds precisely outlining the responsibility of each party-manufacturer and intermediary. Failure to do so can lead to a perpetual conflict between the manufacturer and the intermediary.

4. Territorial Rights: The manufacturer should spell out the territorial jurisdiction of each of the distributor to avoid any territory jumping. This will also help in the distributor's evaluation.

5. Mutual Services and Responsibilities: These should be spelt out clearly, particularly in the case of franchised and exclusive agency channels. For example, Parle (Exports) have laid down the role of each of its quality control, distribution, promotion and selling. Parle gives to these franchises promotional inputs and support, training and other administration support. Such kind of a manual helps in avoiding conflicts.

Evaluating major channel alternatives is the next step after identifying major channel alternatives. In this step, marketing management department evaluates all the available major channel alternatives to choose the best one that suits the company. The marketing management does the evaluation based on three criteria- Economic criteria, control criteria, and adaptive criteria. In this chapter, students will learn about all the three criteria in detail. By evaluating major channel alternatives firms can understand these criteria more easily as our teaching members are from a marketing background and they can explain each criterion with real-time examples of various companies.

Understanding of economic criteria

Each channel alternative results in a various level of costs and sales. Initially, the management has to access the sales levels which would be generated by the sales force of the company and the sales agency and to compare both the sales levels.

In the second step, the management has to work out how much it would cost to sell different volumes via each channel. By referring to these, firms can realize that the fixed costs of using a sales agency are always less in comparison to costs of establishing a company sales office.

However, selling through a sales agency increases abruptly due to the huge sales agent commission which is quite higher compared to company salespeople. There is also a sales level (SB) where both the selling channels have the same costs. Generally, smaller firms and big firms in smaller territories, whose sales volume is extremely less to set up a company sales force, prefer to use sales agents.

Understanding of Control criteria

Control criteria take into account the control issues related to the two channels. Selling products through sales agency results in more control problem. Since a sales agency works as an independent organization, its main interest is profits maximization. The agent may focus on those consumers who purchase the largest volume of products from their overall mix of client firms, instead of those who prefer to buy a company's products.

Another limitation of sales agency is that its sales force may not have technical expertise regarding the company's products. They are also not trained to handle promotion materials efficiently.

Understanding of Adaptive criteria

Long-term commitment and loss of flexibility are associated with every channel. Those who sell their goods through sales agency has to enter into a five-year contract. A company cannot break the contract with the sales agency before the completion of the tenure, even though its own sales force is performing better than the agency.

In terms of the evaluation criterion, a channel with long-term commitment must consider economic criteria or control criteria.

16.8 CHANNEL DECISIONS

A channel of distribution or trade channel is the path or route along which goods move from producers to ultimate consumers or industrial users. It is the distribution network through which a producer puts his products in the hands of actual users. It is the pipeline through which products flow during their journey to the market. A trade or marketing channel consists of the producer, consumers or users and the various middlemen who intervene between the two. The channel serves as a connecting link between the producer and consumers. By bridging the gap between the point of production and the point of consumption, a channel creates time, place, and possession utilities. A channel of distribution represents three types of flows:

- Goods flow downwards from producer to consumers;
- Cash flows upwards from consumers to producer as payment for goods; and
- Marketing information flows in both directions. The downward flow includes information on new products, new uses of existing products, etc. The upward flow of information is the feedback on the wants, suggestions, complaints, etc. of ultimate consumers or users.

Nature and Significance of Channel Decisions

Channel decisions refer to the managerial decisions concerning the selection of the most suitable routes or paths for the distribution of goods from the producer to various consumers or users. Such decisions involve choice of a channel, determination of market coverage (number of middlemen) and the selection of particular middlemen or dealers.

The choice of a suitable channel for the distribution of the firm's products is an important decision area in the field of marketing. It is an important policy decision in marketing management due to the following reasons:

(i) Distribution channel is an important element of the marketing mix of a firm and other elements are closely interrelated with and inter-dependent on the channel of distribution. Therefore, choice of channel influences other marketing decisions like pricing, promotion, and physical distribution. A mistake in the choice of channel may affect adversely the whole marketing mix of the firm.

(ii) The cost involved in the use of a distribution channel enters the price of the product that the ultimate consumer has to pay. Due to a wrong decision regarding channel, distribution cost may be very high and sales might be very limited. On the other hand, a sound channel decision enables the firm to cut down costs and maximize sales revenue. Thus, channel influences sales volume and profits.

(iii) A product or service is really useful to consumers only when it is available at the right time and place. The channel decision determines where and when the product will be available to ultimate consumers or users.

(iv) The choice of a marketing channel involves long-term commitment of the firm. The relations between the manufacturer and the middlemen depend largely upon the choice of appropriate channels of distribution. Changes in the channel are very difficult and costly.

(v) If the choice of channels is proper, fluctuations in production can be reduced due to continuous and effective distribution. The stability of production will help to ensure steady employment and proper budgetary control. The manufacturer can continuously monitor the sales and stock of his middlemen to exercise effective control over distribution network.

Choice of a Channel of Distribution

Choice of a channel of distribution involves the selection of the best possible combination of middlemen or intermediaries. The objective is to secure the largest possible distribution at minimum costs. The channel must be flexible and efficient. It should be consistent with the declared marketing policies and programmes of the firm. Such a channel can be selected by evaluating alternative channels in terms of their costs, sales potential, and suitability. The factors affecting the choice of distribution channels may be classified as follows:

1. Product Considerations: The nature and type of the product have an important bearing on the choice of distribution channels. The main characteristics of the product in this respect are given below:

(a) **Unit value:** Products of low unit value and common use are generally sold through middlemen as they cannot bear the costs of direct selling. Low priced and high turnover articles like cosmetics, hosiery goods, stationery, and small accessory equipment usually flow through a long channel. On the other hand expensive consumer goods and industrial products, e.g. jewellery, machines are sold directly by the producers.

(b) **Perishability:** Perishable products like vegetables, fruits, and bakery items have relatively short channels as they cannot withstand repeated handling. Same is true about articles of seasonal nature. Goods which are subject to frequent changes in fashion and style are generally distributed through short channels as the product has to maintain close and continuous touch with the market. Durable and non-fashion articles are sold through agents and merchants.

(c) **Bulk and weight:** Heavy and bulky products are distributed directly to minimize handling costs. Coal, bricks, stones, etc., are some examples.

(d) **Standardization:** Custom-made and non-standardised products usually pass through short channels due to the need for direct contact between the producer and the consumers. Standardised and branded goods can be distributed through middlemen.

(e) **Technical nature:** Products requiring demonstration, installation and after-sale service are often sold directly. The producer appoints sales engineers to sell and service industrial equipment and other products of technical nature. Consumer products like television, refrigerator, electric mixer-grinder, washing machines, etc., are sold through retailers but the after-sale service is generally provided by the manufacturer.

(f) **Product line:** A firm producing a wide range of products may find it economical to set up its own retail outlets. On the other hand, firms with one or two products find it profitable to distribute through wholesalers and retailers.

(g) **Age of the product:** A new product needs greater promotional effort and few middlemen may like to handle it. As the producer gains acceptance in the market, more middlemen may be employed for its distribution. Channels used for competitive products may also influence the choice of distribution channels.

2. Market Considerations: The nature and type of customers is an important consideration in the choice of a channel of distribution. Following factors relating to the market are particularly significant:

(a) **Consumer or industrial market:** The purpose of buying has an important influence on channel. Goods purchased for industrial or commercial use are usually sold directly or through agents. This is because industrial users buy in a large quantity and the producer can easily establish a direct contact with them. To ultimate consumers, goods are sold normally through middlemen.

(b) **Number and location of buyers:** When the number of prospective buyers is small or the market is geographically located in a limited area, direct selling is easy and economical. In case of large and widely scattered markets, use of wholesalers and retailers becomes necessary.

(c) **Size and frequency of order:** Direct selling is convenient and economical in case of large and infrequent orders. When articles are purchased very frequently and each purchase order is small, middlemen may have to be used. A manufacturer may use different channels for different types of buyers. He may sell directly to departmental and chain stores and may depend upon wholesalers to sell to small retail stores.

(d) **Buying habits:** The amount of time and effort which customers are willing to spend in shopping is an important consideration. Desire for one-stop shopping, need for personal attention, preference for self- service and desire for credit also influence the choice of a trade channel.

3. Company Considerations: The nature, size and objectives of the firm play an important role in channel decisions:

(a) **Market standing:** Well-established companies with good reputation in the

market are in a better position to eliminate middlemen than new and less known firms.

(b) **Financial resources:** A large firm with sufficient funds can establish its own retail shops to sell directly to consumers. But a small or weak enterprise which cannot invest money in distribution has to depend on middlemen for the marketing of its products.

(c) **Management:** The competence and experience of management exercises influence on channel decision. If the management of a firm has sufficient knowledge and experience of distribution, it may prefer direct selling. Firms whose management lacks marketing know-how have to depend on middlemen.

(d) **Volume of production:** A big firm with large output may find it profitable to set up its own retail outlets throughout the country. But a manufacturer producing a small quantity can distribute his output more economically through middlemen.

(e) **Desire for control of channel:** Firms which want to have close control over the distribution of their products use a short channel. Such firms can have more aggressive promotion and a thorough understanding of customers' requirements. A firm not desirous of control over channel can freely employ middlemen.

(f) **Services provided by manufacturers:** A company that sells directly has itself to provide installation, credit, home delivery, after-sale service and other facilities to customers. Firms which do not or cannot provide such services have to depend upon middlemen.

4. Middlemen Considerations: The cost and efficiency of distribution depend largely upon the name and type of middlemen as reflected in the following factors:

(a) **Availability:** When desired type of middlemen is not available, a manufacturer may have to establish his own distribution network. Non-availability of middlemen may arise when they are handling competitive products or they do not like to handle more brands.

(b) **Attitudes:** Middlemen who do not like a firm's marketing policies may refuse

to handle its products. For instance, some wholesalers and retailers demand sole selling rights or a guarantee against fall in prices.

(c) **Services:** Use of those middlemen is profitable who provide financing, storage, promotion and after-sale services.

(d) **Sales potential:** A manufacturer generally prefers a dealer who offers the greatest potential volume of sales.

(e) **Costs:** Choice of a channel should be made after comparing the costs of distribution through alternative channels.

(f) **Customs and competition:** The channels traditionally used for a product are likely to influence the choice. For instance, locks are sold usually through hardware stores and their distribution through general stores may not be preferred. Channels used by competitors are also important.

(g) **Legal constraints:** Government regulations regarding certain products may influence channel decision. For instance, liquor and drugs can be distributed only through licensed shops.

5. Distribution Policy

After selecting the channel of distribution, a manufacturer has to determine the number of middlemen to be used or the intensity of distribution. This depends on the degree of market coverage desired for the product. Market coverage reflects the channel strategy and can be of three types:

(i) **Intensive Distribution:** Under this strategy, a manufacturer tries to sell his product through every possible outlet in order to obtain the maximum exposure. Such a distribution policy is usually employed for the marketing of consumer products of everyday use, e.g., toothpaste, cigarettes, cosmetics, food products, soaps, etc. In the purchase of these convenience goods, consumers prefer the nearest location. Therefore, an attempt is made through intensive selling to go as near to the ultimate consumer as possible. Intensive distribution is sometimes used in case of some industrial goods like spare parts, lubricants and other supplies.

Intensive distribution can be successful when the manufacturer obtains cooperation from all middlemen and advertises his products on a large scale.

(ii) **Selective Distribution:** Selective distribution implies the use of a few selected middlemen in each sales territory. This policy may be employed at both the wholesale and retail levels. This type of distribution is appropriate in case of speciality goods and accessories. In such products, consumers generally have a brand preference so that the use of every outlet is not necessary. Selective distribution is more economical and provides the manufacturer sufficient control over the distribution of his products. As the number of middlemen is limited, each one of them gets sufficient sales volume which is helpful in securing their cooperation. Dealers are likely to take greater interest in the display and promotion of the products.

(iii) **Exclusive Distribution:** Such distribution involves the use of one dealer in each sales territory. The dealer is granted the exclusive right to sell the product in the specified territory through an agreement with the manufacturer. The dealer is prohibited from dealing in the competitive products. Exclusive selling is adopted in case of shopping and speciality goods enjoying brand loyalty. In the purchase of such goods, the consumer spends lot of time and effort. It is also used when the product requires huge investment in stocks and showrooms, e.g., automobiles and household appliances like mixer grinder, cooking range, etc. Exclusive distribution provides full control over distribution and reduces distribution costs. It also increases the prestige of the product. However, this policy is less flexible and does not permit wide distribution of the product.

6. Choice of Middleman

After deciding the number of middlemen, a manufacturer has to select the particular dealers through whom he will distribute his products. While selecting a particular wholesaler or retailer, the following factors should be taken into consideration:

- Location of the dealer's business premises
- Financial position and credit standing of the dealer;

- Knowledge and experience of the dealer;
- Storage and showroom facilities of the dealer;
- Ability of the dealer to secure adequate business and to cover the market;
- Capacity of the dealer to provide after-sale service;
- Willingness of the dealer to handle the manufacturer's products
- The degree of cooperation and promotional service he is willing to provide;
- General reputation of the dealer and his sales force;
- Nature of other products (competitive or complementary), if any, handled by the dealer.

16.9 SUMMARY

There are many ways to consider value networks from a business perspective. What is important is the understanding that networks can create value for anyone selling a product or service. Those networks can either drive adoption or impede adoption depending on how the relationships within them are approached. Designers may find it highly beneficial to map their own value networks and examine where they can create the most value. A marketing channel has to be selected wisely to ensure the proper distribution of goods or services to the customers. Selection of a wrong channel may lead to excessive cost, perishability of goods, loss, etc.

16.10 GLOSSARY

- **Manufacturer:** The Company or industry or the production unit where the goods are produced on a small scale or large scale for selling in the market, is known as a manufacturer.
- **Customer:** The person, who intends to buy a product or service and is capable of doing so, is termed as a customer.
- **Wholesaler:** The one who buys goods directly from the manufacturer in large quantity with the intention to sell it to the retailer, to earn a marginal profit is called a

wholesaler.

- **Retailer:** The person who sells goods in small quantity, directly to the customers at the maximum retail price (MRP) is known as a retailer.
- **Agent:** The one who distributes goods from the manufacturers to the various wholesalers and earns commission over it is called as an agent.

16.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1) What is distribution in marketing?

2) What do you understand by value networks?

3) Enumerate the role of marketing channels in detail

4) How are channel decisions taken in an organisation?

16.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Explain the channel decision strategies of Amazon? How far do you think is Amazon successful because of the channel strategies?
- 2) Compare and contrast the various channels of marketing

- 3) What do you understand by channel development? Illustrate the process.
- 4) How would identify major channel alternatives.

16.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
- Cases in Marketing Management, Excel Books, By: Bhasin, M.L.
- Marketing in India: Cases and Readings, Viva Publications, By: Neelamegham, S.
- Marketing Management: the Millennium Edition, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, AITBS Publications, By: Craven David W.
- Marketing: Real People, Real Choice, Prentice-Hall, By: Soloman, Michael, R.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 17

PLACE & PROMOTION MIX DECISIONS

Unit - IV

RETAILING, WHOLESALING

STRUCTURE

17.1 Introduction

17.2 Objectives

17.3 Types of Retailers

17.3.1 Value Creation for Retailers

17.4 Trends in Retailing

17.5 Functions of Retailing

17.6 Wholesaling

17.6.1 Wholesale Marketing Decisions

17.7 Recent Trends in Wholesaling

17.7.1 Growth in Wholesaling

17.8 Types of Wholesalers

17.9 Summary

17.10 Glossary

17.11 Self Assessment Questions

17.12 Lesson End Exercise

17.13 Suggested Readings

17.1 INTRODUCTION

Retailing refers to all the activities directly related to the sale of products to the ultimate end consumer for personal and non-business use. A retailer or retail store is any business enterprise whose sales volume comes primarily from retailing. Any organisation selling to a wide array of customer service facilities for store customers. It offers several product final consumers - whether it is a manufacturer, wholesaler or retailer is doing retailing. For every successful large retailer like Wal-Mart, Marks and Spencer, Big Bazaar, Vishal Mega Mart, Pantaloon etc. there are thousands of small retailers with all of them having two key features in common, they link producers and end consumers and they perform an invaluable service for both. The purpose of retailer is to provide an access to the product for a consumer. Consumer expects retailers to deliver value along with the product. Convenience is the primary concern for most consumers as they are keen to integrate shopping time with leisure time. Convenience has brought in every innovation in retailer such as supermarket, department stores, shopping malls, self-scanning Kiosks etc. Convenience for a customer implies speed and ease in acquiring a product.

Retailing today occupies a key role in the world economy. In the past, retailers secured customer loyalty by offering convenient locations, special or unique assortments of goods, better services than competitors and store credit cards. However, retailing today is an enjoyable experience for the entire family, though the conventional grocery stores, roadside mini department store, roadside eatery continue to exist. The Indian market space is increasingly being occupied by shopping malls, chain stores, department stores, shopping centers, food courts, fast food outlets etc.

17.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson you will be able

To understand the meaning and types of retailers.

To comprehend the concept of wholesaling.

To study the functions and types of wholesalers.

17.3 TYPES OF RETAILERS

Major types of retailers can be classified according to the marketing strategies employed, taking into consideration three elements; product assortment, price level and customers level. The different types of retailing channels are:

i) Department stores: These are large scale retailing institutions that offer a very broad and deep assortment of products (both hard and soft goods) and provide lines, invariably all that is required by a typical household. These product lines include food, clothing, appliances, home furnishing and other household goods. In a typical department store, each product line is managed independently by specialist, buyers or merchandisers. In India, these stores are at the introduction phase and are mainly located in metros like Delhi, Mumbai and other cities like Hyderabad, Bangalore etc. In US Market, department stores are believed to be in the decline phase of the retail life cycle because of increased competition among themselves and other types of retail stores.

ii) Supermarket: This is a large, low cost, low margin, high volume, self service operation designed to serve the customers need for food, laundry and household maintenance products. They are large scale retailing organizations that offer a wide variety of differing merchandise to a large consumer base. Operating largely on a self service basis with minimum customer service and centralized register and transactional terminals, supermarkets provide the benefits of a wide product assortment in a single location, offering convenience and variety. In India, there are not many supermarkets but they are being introduced now, e.g., Foodland and Garware's in Mumbai. Supermarkets are preferred by the customers due to paucity of time faced by them, increase in demand of product's quality and easy access to a variety of products.

iii) Discount Stores: Discount stores are based on low prices combined with the reduced costs of doing business. They sell standard merchandize at lower prices than

conventional merchants or stores by accepting lower margins but pushing for higher sales volume. It involves a broad but shallow assortment of products, low prices and very few customer services. Discount stores have following characteristics.

- a) It regularly sells its goods at a discounted price.
- b) It carries national or reputed brands to enhance its image.
- c) It keeps its operational costs to minimum with self service and no frills interiors.
- d) Its location tends to be in low rent areas.

The largest discount store in U.S is Walmart. The nearest to this concept were at one time textile stores like Babubhai Bhawani and Babubhai Jagjivanram in Mumbai, etc.

iv) Convenience store: They are conveniently located shops in residential areas offering a range of grocery and household items that cater for convenience and last-minute purchase needs of consumers. They have long hours of operations, seven days a week and carry a limited line of high turnover convenience products. Due to high degree of personalized service and home delivery, these stores play a very important role in Indian retail sector.

v) Specialty Store: Specialty stores carry a narrow product line with a deep assortment within that line and customer service that vary from store to store. The breath of product variety differs across limited line stores and a store may choose to concentrate on several related product lines (e.g. shoes, clothing, accessories,) a single product line (e.g. shoes, ornaments), specific part of one product line (sport shoes). Raymond's showroom that retails only men's clothing and accessories is known as limited line store and stores that deal in designer wear like Louis Phillip, Van Heusen, Lakshita, Mom & Me etc. are known as super specialty stores.

17.3.1 Value Creation For Retailers

The boom in organized retailing has its roots in the changing Indian market kaleidoscope. The Indian consumer having more disposable income is upwardly mobile

and is more informed. He /she is not dogmatic nor a follower of any taboo. Competition offers him/her multiple choices at the doorstep and technology has revolutionized way of shopping. Two related factors explain this dramatic shift that prioritizes value. First, consumers have fundamentally changed their reference points for both price and quality, such that they have been trained to expect significantly lower prices from many retailers. In addition, people's lifestyles have become more casual, consumers have begun to redefine quality from "good" to "just good enough" for particular items and occasions, such as their casual wardrobe. As their definition of quality changes, so does their definition of value. Second, some retailers that used to be known primarily for their low prices have out executed their competition and moved beyond price as their sole point of differentiation, often offering assortment, convenience, and in-store experiences comparable to those of their more upscale competitors. Value retailers continue to improve their "shopability," providing more convenient store layouts and shopping experiences that make the task faster and easier. Value retailers are rapidly expanding, bringing more types of retailers and locations under them. Till date, the majority of regional and national retailers have not yet felt the full force of the value retailers. But the most vulnerable, the smaller, undifferentiated regional chains, have consistently lost out to value retailers when they arrive in the local market. These regional chains are likely to be absorbed by large chains or remain stranded, with limited growth outside their core geographies.

17.4 TRENDS IN RETAILING

The top seven trends in retailing are as follows:

- I. **Shift from Unorganized to Organized Retailing:** Retailing in India is thoroughly unorganized. There is no supply chain management perspective. The key factors that drive the growth of organized retailing in India are higher disposable incomes, rising urbanization, growing consumerism, nuclear family structure, growing number of educated and employed women population.
2. **Store Design:** Irrespective of the format, the biggest challenge for organized retailing is to create an environment that pulls in people and makes them spend more time in shopping and also increases the amount of impulse shopping.

3. **Competition:** Competition is increasing between different types of retailers. Discount stores, departmental stores, supermarkets, etc. all compete for the same customers. The small independent retailers survive by providing personal services to the customers.

4. **New Form of Retailing:** Modern malls made their entry into India in the late 1890s, with the establishment of Crossroads in Mumbai and Ansal Plaza in Delhi. India's first true shopping mall. 'Crossroads' complete with food courts, recreation facilities and large car parking space-was inaugurated as late as 1899 in Mumbai. Malls have given a new dimension to shopping experience.

5. **Technology:** Technology today has become a competitive tool. It is the technology that helps the organized retailer to score over the unorganized players, giving both cost and service advantages. Technology has also made possible the growth of non-store retailing.

6. **Consumer Buying Behavior:** In India, there are no uniform trends with respect to consumer buying behavior. There are visible differences in the shopping pattern of consumers across income segments. Organized retailing has definitely made headway in the upper class. However, even in this segment, items such as milk, fruits, vegetables and a significant portion of 'through-the-month' purchases seem to be done at traditional outlets. Organized retail outlets seem to be associated with branded items/special purchases. Organized retailing does not seem to have made an impact on the lower class, except for 'curiosity' shopping.

7. **Entertainment:** Modern retail formats provide a place for people to assemble, and a means of entertainment by providing facilities such as food courts, mini theatre, children's play spaces and coffee shops. These facilities help the customers enjoy shopping.

17.5 FUNCTIONS OF RETAILING

Like other marketers, retailers perform important functions that increase the value of the products and services they sell to consumers. We now examine these functions, classified into the four Ps.

Product: Providing the right mix of merchandise and services that satisfies the needs of the target market is one of retailer's most fundamental activities. Offering assortments gives customers choice. But to reduce transportation costs and handling, manufactures typically ship cases of merchandise to retailers, such as cartons of butter or boxes of blue shirts. Because customers generally don't want or need to buy more than one of the same, item, retailers break the cases and sell customers the smaller quantities they desire. Manufactures don't like to store inventory because their factories and warehouses are typically not available to customers. Consumers don't want to store more than they need because it takes up too much space. Neither group likes to store inventory that isn't being used because doing so ties up money that could be used for something else. Retailers thus provide value to both manufactures and customers by performing the storage function, though many retailers are beginning to push their suppliers to hold the inventory until they need it. It is difficult for retailers to distinguish themselves from their competitors through the merchandise they carry because competitors can purchase and sell many of the same popular brands. So many retailers have developed **private-label brands**, which are products developed and marketed by a retailer and available only from that retailer.

Price: Price helps define the value of both the merchandise and the service, and the general price range of a particular store helps define its image. Price must always be aligned with the other elements of the retail mix: product, promotion, place, personnel, and presentation.

Promotion: Retailers know that promotion, both within their retail environments and throughout the mass media, can mean the difference between flat sales and a growing consumer base. Advertising in traditional media such as newspapers, magazines, and television continues to be important to get customers into the stores. Once in the store, however, retailers use displays and signs, placed at the point of purchase or in strategic areas such as the end of aisles, to inform customers and stimulate purchases of the featured products. Store credit cards and gift cards are more subtle forms of promotion that also facilitate shopping. Retailers *might* offer pricing promotions such as coupons, rebates, in-store or online discounts, or perhaps buy-one-get-one-free offers to attract consumers and stimulate sales. These promotions play a very important

role in driving traffic to retail locations, increasing the average purchase size, and creating opportunities for repeat purchases. But retail promotions also are valuable to customers; they inform customers about what is new and available and how much it costs.

Also, many retailers are devoting more resources to their overall retail environment as a means to promote and showcase what the store has to offer. Their displays of merchandise, both in the store and in windows, have become an important form of promotion. Retailers try to distinguish themselves with unusual and exciting store atmospherics that add value to the shopping experience of the customer. Personal selling and customer service representatives are also part of the overall promotional package. The knowledge retailers can gain from their store personnel and customer relationship management (CRM) databases is key for developing loyal customers and operating loyalty programs. Traditionally, retailers treated all their customers the same way, but today, the most successful retailers concentrate on providing more value to their best customers.

Place: Retailers already have realized that convenience is a key ingredient to success, and an important aspect of this success is convenient locations. As the old cliché claims, the three most important things in retailing are “location, location, location.” Many customers choose stores on the basis of where they are located, which makes great locations a competitive advantage that few rivals can duplicate. In pursuit of better and better locations, retailers are experimenting with different options to reach their target markets.

17.6 WHOLESALE

Wholesaling includes all the activities involved in selling goods or services to those who buy for resale or business use. It excludes manufacturers and farmers because they are engaged primarily in production and it also excludes retailers. Wholesalers (also called distributors) differ from retailers in a number of ways. First, wholesalers pay less attention to promotion, environment and location because they are dealing with business customers rather than final consumers. Second, wholesale transactions are usually larger than retail transactions and wholesalers usually cover a larger trade

area than retailers. Third the government deals with wholesalers and retailers differently in terms of legal regulations and taxes.

Following are the functions performed by the wholesalers:

- **Selling and promoting:** Wholesalers' sales forces help manufacturers reach many small business customers at a relatively low cost. They have more contacts and buyers often trust them more than they trust a distant manufacturer.
- **Buying and assortment building:** Wholesalers are able to select items and build the assortments as per their customers need, saving them considerable work.
- **Bulk breaking:** Wholesalers achieve savings for their customers by buying large carload lots and breaking the bulk into smaller units.
- **Warehousing:** Wholesalers hold inventories, thereby reducing inventory costs and risks to suppliers and customers.
- **Transportation:** Wholesalers can often provide quicker delivery to buyers because they are closer to the buyer.
- **Financing:** Wholesalers finance customers by granting credit, and also finance suppliers by ordering early and paying bills on time.
- **Risk bearing:** Wholesalers absorb some risk by taking title and bearing the cost of theft, damage, spoilage, and obsolescence.
- **Market information:** Wholesalers supply information to suppliers and customers regarding competitors' activities, new products, price development, and so on.
- **Management services and counseling.** Wholesalers often help retailers improve their operations by training sales clerks, helping with store layouts and displays. and setting up accounting and inventory-control systems. They may help industrial customers by offering training and technical services.

17.6.1 Wholesale Marketing Decisions

Like retailers, wholesalers also face growing competitive pressures, increasingly demanding customers, rapidly changing technologies, and additional competition caused by direct-buying programs on the part of large industrial, institutional, and retail buyers. Under such conditions, wholesalers have to pay more attention to their marketing strategies. Similar to retailers, wholesalers should take into account market segmentation, targeting, differentiation and positioning, and the marketing mix: product and service assortments, price, promotion, and distribution. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012:397)

Segmentation, Targeting, Differentiation, and Positioning Decisions: No wholesalers can serve everyone. They must segment the whole market and then define their target markets, differentiate and position themselves effectively. For example, wholesalers can choose a target group by size of customer, type of customer, the need for service, or other factors, furthermore, within the target group, they can identify the more profitable customers, design strong offers, and build better relationships with target customers. In addition, they can propose automatic

Distribution(location or place)

Distribution(location) is critically important to wholesalers. Wholesalers must choose their physical locations, facilities, and Web locations carefully in order to provide immediate delivery to their customers. “Traditionally, wholesalers were close to the markets they supplied rather than the source from which they got the products, and could gain high profit margins by locating in low-rent, low-tax areas and investing little money in buildings, equipment, and systems. However, as technology zooms forward and the thriving of the Internet and E-procurement, more and more wholesalers have dropped outdated systems and located nearer manufacturing bases in China, Taiwan, and South Asia. These wholesaling companies are mainly drop shippers offering drop shipping services to companies and individuals. (Kotler and Armstrong, 2012:398; Wikipedia:wholesale)

How today's wholesalers response to rising costs?

Now an increasing number of wholesalers have reacted to rising costs by investing heavily in automated warehouses and IT systems. For example, orders are fed from the retailer's IT system directly in the the wholesaler's and the items the retailer ordered are immediately picked up by mechanical devices and automatically taken to a shipping platform where the items are assembled for shipping. large and progressive wholesalers can easily and accurately carry out accounting, billing, inventory control, and forecasting by using technology. Modern wholesaler leaders are searching cost-reducing ways to meet the needs of their target customers, for example, transacting business online, a fastest growing channel for wholesalers.

17.7 RECENT TRENDS IN WHOLESALING

- Wholesaler have been facing mounting pressures in recent years from new sources of competition, rising customer demands, new technologies, and more direct buying programs by large industrial, institutional, and retail buyers. Manufacturer's are not satisfied with the functioning of wholesalers as they feel that they don't aggressively promote the manufacturer's product line and act more like order takers. However, wholesalers do not carry enough inventories and therefore fail to fill customer's orders immediately.

Manufacturer also feel that wholesalers do not provide them with up-to-date market, customer and competitor information and also fail to attract high-caliber managers, bringing down their own cost. Moreover, the cost for their services is high.

- Due to the challenges faced by the wholesalers they have adapted their services to meet their suppliers' and target customers' changing needs. They add value to the channel so as to fight competition.

- Wholesalers try to increase asset productivity by managing inventories and receivables better. They tend to reduce operating costs by investing in more advanced material handling technology, information systems, and the internet. Finally, they improve their strategic decisions about target markets, product assortment and services, price, communications and distribution.

17.7.1 Growth in the Wholesaling

Distribution businesses have become increasingly complex with ample opportunities to serve many different customers globally. In the United States alone, wholesale distributor sales equal approximately \$3.2 trillion, which also accounts for roughly 7% of private industry CJ DP since 1987(I)

The reason for such staggering numbers is partially because distribution spans many large market segments, ranging anywhere from grocery and food-service to furniture and home furnishings. Driving this growth in the wholesale/distribution industry are 3 factors that businesses are finding increasingly important:

(1) **Investment in Technology:** Many distribution business owners are beginning to realize the importance of making data-driven business decisions. Unfortunately, many companies are currently stuck using older software systems which are not providing relevant information in a timely and effective manner. As a result, the focus has shifted to implementing truly integrated software that will tie the different facets of the business. (such as order taking to warehouse management to accounting) together. The result for companies who move in this direction is a system that provides real-time information across departments in a timely manner to facilitate effective decision making. For example, a salesperson on the road will need access to updated pricing, product availability, and customer information among many other pieces of information. This highlights the importance of a system that will provide information to all areas of an organization, be it in the warehouse or on the road at a customer's location.

(2) **A Renewed Focus on the Basics:** The emphasis recently placed on technology investment has allowed business owners to take a holistic approach in assessing their current operations. Investment in an inventory management and accounting ERP system is not a decision that should be made impulsively or quickly, but should instead involve a long and detailed search process before any decision is made. At the beginning of this process, one step many companies take is to assess their organizational strengths and deficiencies and how new software will and should affect this. By taking a well-rounded look at a business, owners are able to ensure they are meeting the basic needs of their clients, prior to investing in technology.

(3) **E-Commerce is Critical- but the Back End is Just as Important:** Customers in many industries want a multi-channel experience that will provide relevant and accessible information throughout the duration of the buying process. As a result, online shopping has become a critical component of many successful business models, as it provides customers with easy access to a wide variety of products. What many distributors have learned is that an impressive online store-front is very important; however, the back end inventory management system is equally critical to ensure customers are satisfied with their shopping experience. A strong back end system has the ability to streamline a company's processes by providing real-time inventory information as well as allocating inventory to specific orders. thus ensuring that a customer receives their shipment without any complications.

A large emphasis has been placed on investing in different types or technologies to improve organizational efficiencies. Whether that technology is in the form of an inventory management system or an e-commerce platform, these have become major considerations of distribution business owners. And use of high-level assessments of the business helps to ensure that distributors are meeting the basic needs of customers.

17.8 TYPES OF WHOLESALERS

There are the various types of wholesalers which are discussed below:

- **Merchant wholesalers:** Merchant wholesalers are independently owned businesses that take title to the merchandise they handle. They are full –service and limited –service jobbers, distributors, mill supply houses.
- **Full-service wholesalers:** Full-service wholesale merchants sell primarily to retailers. They carry stock, maintain sales force, offer credit, make deliveries, and provide management assistance. Some of these wholesalers carry several merchandise lines; while some carry one or two lines and others carry only part of the line. Industrial wholesalers sell to manufacturers and also provide services such as credit and delivery.
- **Limited – service wholesalers:** Limited – service wholesalers provide limited services to the manufacturer. Cash and carry wholesaler sells a limited line of fast-moving goods to small retailers for cash. Truck wholesalers sell and deliver a limited

line of semi perishable goods to supermarkets, grocery stores, hospitals, restaurants, hotels. They assume title and risk from the time an order is accepted till its delivery. Delivery people set up displays, price goods keep inventory records; they retain title of the goods. Producers' cooperatives assemble farm produce to sell in local markets. Mail-order wholesalers send catalogs to retail, industrial, and institutional customers, orders are filled and sent by mail, rail, plane, or truck.

- **Brokers and agents:** Brokers and agents facilitate buying and selling on a certain commission of the selling price. They perform limited functions and generally specialize by product line or customer type. Brokers bring buyers and sellers together and assist in negotiation and are paid by the party hiring them. For eg., food brokers, real estate brokers, insurance brokers. Agents represent buyers or sellers on a more permanent basis. Most manufactures' agents are small businesses with a few skilled salespeople. Selling agents have contractual authority to sell a manufacturers' entire output while purchasing agents make purchases for buyers and often receive, inspect, warehouse, and ship merchandise. Commission merchants take physical possession of products and negotiate sales.

Manufacturers and retailers' branches and offices: This represents wholesaling operations conducted by sellers or buyers themselves rather than through independent wholesalers. Separate branches and offices are dedicated to sales or purchasing. Many retailers set up purchasing offices in major market centers.

Specialized wholesalers: Specialized wholesalers deals in special category products, such as agricultural assemblers (buy the agricultural output of many farms), petroleum bulk plants and terminals (consolidate the output of many wells,) and auction companies (auctions cars, equipment, etc, to dealers and other businesses).

17.9 SUMMARY

Retailing refers to all the activities directly related to the sale of products to the ultimate end consumer for personal and non- business use. Any organisation selling to final consumers (whether it is a manufacturer, wholesaler or retailer) is doing retailing. It does not matter how the goods or services are sold (in person, by mail, telephone, internet) or where it is sold (in store or street or consumers home). Wholesaling includes

all the activities involved in selling goods or services to those who buy for resale or business use.

18.10 GLOSSARY

Convenience products: Convenience products are non-durable goods or services which are often bought with little pre-purchase thought or consideration.

Retail audit: Retail audit is the panel studies undertaken for retailers providing competitor (pricing) and market information.

Electronic Kiosks: Electronic kiosks are being placed in shopping malls to assist the retailing experience. Mediated by hypermedia web-based interfaces, these computer based retailing environments offer consumers increased self – service opportunity, wide product assortments, and large amounts of data and information aiding decision making.

17.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1. Discuss various functions performed by the wholesaler.

Q.2. Differentiate between retailing and wholesaling.

17.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. Discuss the various types of retailing outlets available in India.

Q.2. What are the recent trends in wholesaling?

17.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. V.S Ramaswamy, & S. Namakumar, Marketing Management, Planning Implementation and Control, Macmillan.
2. Britt and Boyd (ed), Marketing Management and Administrative Action, Tata Mc Graw Hill.
3. T.K Panda, Marketing Management: Text and Cases, Excel Books.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 18

PLACE & PROMOTION MIX DECISIONS

Unit - IV

MARKETING COMMUNICATION

STRUCTURE

- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Objectives
- 18.3 Aspects of Marketing Communication
- 18.4 The Marketing Communication Process
- 18.5 The AIDA Model
- 18.6 Marketing Communication Functions
- 18.7 Role of Marketing Communication
- 18.8 Measuring the Effectiveness of Marketing Communication
- 18.9 Communication Mix
- 18.10 Summary
- 18.11 Glossary
- 18.12 Self Assessment Questions
- 18.13 Lesson End Exercise
- 18.14 Suggested Readings

18.1 INTRODUCTION

Marketing communication (originally called promotion) is one of the 4 P's of the marketing mix. It is used to communicate elements of an organizations' offering to a target audience. This offer might refer to a product, a service or the organization itself as it tries to build its reputation. Marketing communications are the means by which firms attempt to inform, persuade and remind consumers – directly or indirectly – about the products and brands they sell. It represents the 'voice' of the company and its brands and is a mean by which it can establish a dialogue and build relationships with consumers. Organisations plan, design, implement and evaluate their marketing communication activities. These activities/ campaigns involve the delivery of messages either to or with target audiences, through various communication tools and media.

Marketing communication is a management process through which an organisation attempts to engage with its various audiences. Organizations seek to develop and present messages for its identified stakeholder groups before evaluating and acting upon the responses. By conveying messages that are of significant value, audiences are encouraged to offer attitudinal and behavioural responses.

18.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson you will be able

To study the meaning, aspects and task of marketing communication.

To understand the role and functions of marketing communication.

To comprehend the process of marketing communication.

18.3 ASPECTS OF MARKETING COMMUNICATION

There are three main aspects of marketing communication:

- a) **Engagement:** Identifying the audiences communication needs and the possible way to engage with them using one-way, two –way or dialogic communication.
- b) **Audiences:** Identifying specific audience(s) to communicate with and their various behaviour and information processing needs.

- c) **Responses:** The desired outcomes of the communication process based on changes in perception, values and beliefs or behavioural changes.

Thus, marketing communication is regarded as audience-centered activity. It performs four important **tasks** i.e.

- a) It differentiates brands and organizations.
- b) It reinforces brand memories and expectations in the mind of the customers.
- c) It informs, educates and creates awareness regarding the product/ service among audiences.
- d) It persuades audiences to do things and to behave in a desired way.

18.4 THE MARKETING COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Marketing communication process influences consumers from making them aware that a product or service exists to motivating them to purchase them. As the number of communication media has increased, the task of reaching target consumers has become far more complex. Communication process describes how communication goes from the firm to the consumer and the factors that affect the way the consumer perceives the message. Let's first define each component and then discuss how they interact.

1. **The Sender:** The message originates from the sender, who must be clearly identified to the intended audience. For instance, an organisation can send a message, using its distinctive logo, that it is having a special summer sale.
2. **The Transmitter:** The sender works with the creative department whether in-house or from a marketing (for advertising) so as to develop marketing Communications. Such an agent or intermediary is the transmitter.
3. **Encoding:** Encoding means converting the sender's ideas into a message, which could be verbal, visual or both. A firm may take out full-page ads in every major newspaper proclaiming: "Summer sale at 40 Percent off." A television commercial showing people shopping at a shop is another way to encode the message that "there are great deals offered." As the old saying goes, a picture can be worth a

thousand words. But the most important facet of encoding is not what is sent but rather what is received.

4. **The Communication Channel:** The communication channel is the medium (print, broadcast, internet) that carries the message. Firms should transmit their message through television, radio, and various print and its should realize that its benefits to its consumers must be appropriate to connect itself (the sender) with its desired recipient.
5. **The Receiver:** The receiver is the person who reads, hears, or sees and processes the information contained in the message and / or advertisement. The sender, hopes that the person receiving it will be one for whom it was originally intended. Decoding refers to the process by which the receiver interprets the sender's message.
6. **Noise:** Noise is any interference that stems from competing message, a lack of clarity in the message or a flaw in the medium, and it poses a problem for all communication channels. Firm may choose to advertise in newspaper that its target market doesn't read, which means the rate at which the message is received by those to whom it is relevant has been slowed considerably. Thus, encoding is what the sender intends to say, and decoding is what the receiver hears. If there is a difference between them, it is probably due to noise.
7. **Feedback Loop:** The feedback loop allows the receiver to communicate with the sender and thereby informs the sender whether the message was received and decoded properly. Feedback can take many forms a customer's purchase of the item, a complaint or compliment, the redemption of a coupon or rebate and so forth. If a firm observes an increase in store traffic and sales, its managers know that their intended audience received the message and understood that there were great after-holiday bargains to be found in the store.
8. **Receiver Decode Message Differently:** Each receiver decodes a message in his or her own way, which is not necessarily the way the sender intended. Different people shown the same message will often take radically different meanings from it.

9. Senders Adjust Message According to the Medium and Receivers' Traits:

Different media communicate in different ways. So marketer make adjustments to their message and media depending of whether they want to communicate with suppliers, shareholder, customers, or the general public. Kellogg's would not, for instance, send the same message to its shareholders in a target e-mail as it would to its consumers on TV. Message through television, radio, and various print and it should realize that the to its consumers on TV.

18.5 THE AIDA MODEL

After being exposed to a marketing communication programme, consumers go through several steps before actually buying or taking some other action. There is not always a direct link between a particular marketing communication and a consumer's purchase.

Generally, marketing communication makes the consumers to move in a stepwise series of mental stages, for which there are several models. The most common model is the AIDA model (A-Awareness; I- Interest; D-Desire; A-Action). The model suggest that Awareness leads to Interests, which leads to Desire, which leads to Action. At each stage, the consumer makes judgments about whether to take the next step in the process. Customers actually have three types of responses, so the AIDA model is also known as the "think, feel, do" model. In making a purchase decision, consumers go through each of the AIDA steps to some degree, but the steps may not always follow the AIDA order. For instance, during an impulse purchase, a consumer may "feel" and "do" before he or she "thinks."

Awareness: Even the best marketing communication can be wasted if the sender doesn't gain the attention of the consumer first. When a firm introduces a redesigned model, its first step should be to make consumers aware of the new design, So the company places television, radio, internet ads and print advertising to reach its desired target audience. This multichannel approach increases the likelihood that the message would be received because even if one of the communication channels is missed or ignored, odds remain good that another would catch the potential customer's attention.

Interest: Once the consumer is aware that the company or product exists, communication must work to increase his or her interest level. It isn't enough to let people know that the product exists; consumers must be persuaded that it is a product worth experimenting. Marketers do so by ensuring that the ad's message includes attributes that are of interest to the target audience. Through these communications, consumers' interest must be aroused enough that they react to the message.

Desire: After the firm has aroused the interest of its target market, the goal of subsequent messages should be to move the consumer from "I like it" to "I want it".

Action: The ultimate goal of any marketing communication is to drive the receiver to action. If the message has caught consumers' attention and made them interested enough to consider the product as a means to satisfy a specific desire of their, they likely will act on that interest by making a purchase.

The Lagged Effect: Sometimes consumers don't act immediately after receiving a marketing communication because of the lagged effect—a delayed response to a marketing communication campaign. It generally takes several exposures to an ad before a consumer fully processes its message. In turn, measuring the effect of a current campaign becomes more difficult because of the possible lagged response to a previous one. Suppose you purchased a Nokia mobile right after hearing a radio ad sponsored by a local dealer. The radio ad may have pushed you to buy, but other communications from Nokia, such as television ads and articles in magazines that you saw weeks earlier, probably also influenced your purchase.

18.6 MARKETING COMMUNICATION FUNCTIONS

Marketing communications perform many **functions** for consumers. These are as follows:

- 1) It informs or shows consumers how and why a product is used, by what kind of person and where and when it can be used.

- 2) Consumers can learn about who makes the product and what the company and brand stands for.
- 3) Consumers can get an incentive or reward for trial or usage.
- 4) Marketing communication allows companies to link their brands to other people, places, events, brands, experiences, feelings and things.
- 5) It contributes to brand equity by establishing and creating a brand image as well as drive sales and effect shareholder value.

18.7 ROLE OF MARKETING COMMUNICATION

For any communication campaign to succeed, the firm must deliver the right message to the right audience through the right media. Reaching the right audience is becoming more difficult however as the media environment grows more complicated. Advances in technology have led to satellite radio, wireless technology, pop up and banner ads on Web sites, brand –sponsored Web sites and text messaging, all of which vie for consumers’ attention. Print media have also grown and become more specialized. This proliferation of media has led many firms to shifts their promotional money from advertising to direct marketing. Web site development, product placement and other forms of promotions in search of the best way to deliver message to their target audience. Media fragmentation has also occurred on television. Networks are dedicated to certain types of sports (ESPN), Children (Neckelodeon, Pogo), news channel (NDTV) etc. Each of these channels allows planners to target their desired audience narrowly .

Fundamentally, marketing communication comprises three elements i.e., set of tools, the media and messages. The common tools are advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, direct marketing and public relations. In addition, there is a range of media associated with communication eg., television, radio, press and the internet, which are used to convey messages to target audiences. These tools have been developed in response to changing market and environmental conditions. For eg., direct marketing is being recognized as an important way of developing closer relationship with buyers while public relations is seen to have both a product and a corporate dimension.

The new and innovative forms of communication being used through sponsorship, floor advertising, video screens in supermarkets, internet and associated technologies, imply that effective communication requires the selection and integration of an increasing variety of communication tools and media. Thus, communication is no longer restricted to promoting and persuading audiences as it is used to reflect an organization's communication activities.

The more contemporary goal is to use communications to make the consumers behave in a particular way i.e., developing positive attitudes towards brands. This is called behavior change and is driven by using messages that provide audiences with a reason to act (ie., call to action).

Thus, communications is used to develop brand feelings on one hand and change or manage the behavior of the target audience on the other hand. These are not mutually exclusive eg., certain television advertisement are referred to as direct response ads because not only do they attempt to create brand values but also carry a website address, telephone numbers or details of a special offer (sales promotion).

18.8 MEASURING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MARKETING COMMUNICATION

The marketer has to know whether the communication has been effective. In order to do so, marketing communication has to be measured on cognitive, conative, and behavioural levels. At the cognitive level, recall, recognition and association tests are conducted to assess the change in the target audiences' awareness of the product or brand. The recall tests are unaided, while recognition tests are aided in nature. The marketer may even want to know where the customer had seen or heard the message. This help in knowing the effectiveness of different channels of communication. The marketer may even further probe customers on whether they tried the product or brand, if so their experience or satisfaction with it and also whether they would recommend it to others. This helps in assessing the change that takes place at the affective and behavioural levels. The marketer may like to compare these results against the communication or pre communication stage, provided he or she has done research at that stage too. The difference

between the pre and the post communication periods can reveal the changes at the cognitive, connative and behavioural levels.

18.9 COMMUNICATION MIX

There are multiple components of a communication mix. The communications mix in marketing comprises of the various way that a company can communicate with the customers. Because marketing communications is of utmost importance in today's day and age, the communications mix and the marketing vehicles used within it are also important to marketing.

As can be seen from the concept of marketing there were initially various different concepts which used when manufacturing first started. They were the production concept the sales concept etc. However, slowly but surely, we moved on to implement the marketing concept and today we generally use the customer concept in the market.

The key principle behind the marketing concept is that we should add value to our products so that the customer will automatically buy our products above that of competition. However how will the customer know that we have value added products. This is the job of the marketing communication department and hence the communications mix is needed. Generally, when a company makes a marketing communications plan, it combines multiple forms of communication channels into the mix. This is done to ensure that the message or the customer recalls the brand because of the brand message being repeated in multiple channels at once.

Variables of the Communication Mix are as Follows.

I . **Advertising** : We are very well with the impact that advertising has on our purchase behavior. Advertising may be in many forms but the two most common forms are ATL advertising which includes television, radio and print and the other type is BTL advertising which majorly includes out of home advertising. Advertising is strongly used by brands who have deep pockets or who have a lot of competitors in the market. Advertising requires that you have a unique advertising message as well. The more unique and impactful the message, the more is the connect between the brand which is advertising and the consumers.

2. **Personal selling:** Personal selling is the second most common method to communicate the benefits of your products to the end customer and convert him from a lead to a prospect and ultimately to your customer. This is the reason that many top companies and even small businesses nowadays are focused on personal selling. If you enter a branded retail outlet, you will many times find that the company promoter is already present in the retail outlet. The reason that the company appoints their own brand promoter is because this ensures that the customer will have better attention from their individual brand. Along with this, the company's salesman will also have more knowledge of product and competition as he has been dedicatedly hired by the brand.

If instead of a brand promoter, there was the retailer's own salesman, he would have promoted any brand on the shelf. At the same time, the retailer's salesman might not be as knowledgeable as the brand salesman because he has so many brands and products to sell. He gets overloaded and ultimately, forgets the features of products he is selling. So, if a company wants to communicate the benefits of its products, convince and convert the customer, then personal selling with handpicked and trained executives is the best option.

3. **Sales promotion:** There are many different ways of running sales promotions and many different tips and tactics present depending on the sector you are in. Where trade discounts and freebies work very well in FMCG, in consumer durables, free services and value addition (free installation) works better than discounts. Sales promotion also involves providing the consumer with an incentive for the purchase of the product. At the same time, it may involve giving incentives to dealers or distributors to get the product selling & moving in the market. The expenses in sales promotion is lower and the investment is very less because it gets the product moving. Sales promotions is increasingly being used as a tool especially after the rising popularity of E-commerce and online sales. Every other day you will see a "Sale" or "Deal" online which will be time bound and which customers will impulsively purchase. Due to those discounts being given for certain amount of time, online retailers can move huge quantities or products across the country or the region they are selling in.

4. **Public relations:** Public relations are the art of spreading the news about your

products or services in the public domain so that some hype is created and people talk to each other about it. One of the most commonly observed public relations exercise is when there is some news related to a Movie or related to a product which is published in the newspapers just before the movie is supposed to be released or the product is supposed businesses, even packaging is considered as an important medium of communicating with your consumers. The packaging of the product is the last point of sales for the company. When the consumer is standing in a retail aisle, he or she has a plethora of products in front of them to choose from. Many a times, the decision is made looking at the overall packaging of the product as well as the informaton written on the product.

If a customer wants an Aloe Vera shampoo, he might look at the packaging and decide against an Anti dandruff shampoo. However, if the packaging is poor, and the distinguishing feature is not mentioned clearly, the consumer might ignore the product altogether.

As a result, because even packaging communicates to the consumer, it is now considered as an element of the communications mix. So overall, the above 6 media vehicles are the ones which are considered as the communications mix. Whenever a brand wants to communicate to their consumers, they will use one of the above methods to do the same.

18.10 SUMMARY

Marketing communications are the means by which firm attempt to inform, persuade and remind consumer- directly or in directly about the products or brands they sell. Marketing communication activities tries to get right message at the right place, at the right time and for the right audience. It supports the marketing strategy and associated plan. It is a systematic process that involves the series of procedure and activities that lead to setting of marketing communication objective and formulation of plan for achieving them.

18.11 GLOSSARY

Brand – Brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design or a combination of them so

as to identify the goods and services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors.

Dyadic- Dyadic essentially means two –way. A commercial relationship which is dyadic is an exchange between two people, typically a buyer and seller.

Sponsorship - Sponsorship is an marketing communication activity where by one party permits another an opportunity to exploit an association with a target audience in return for funds, services, or resources.

18.12 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1. What does marketing communication imply?

Q.2. Discuss the role of Marketing communication.

18.13 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. To what extent firm should use marketing communication just to persuade audience to purchase a product?

Q.2. Discuss the various functions performed by marketing communication

18.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. P. Kotler and Armstrong , Principles of Marketing, Prentice Hall India
2. Douglas, K Hoffman, et al., Marketing Best Practices, Thomas South – Western
3. Rajan Saxena, Marketing Management, Tata McGraw Hill.

M.Com II Semester

Lesson No. 19

PLACE & PROMOTION MIX DECISIONS

Unit - IV

**ADVERTISING, SALES PROMOTION, PUBLIC RELATIONS,
PUBLICITY, EVENTS AND EXPERIENCES, PERSONAL SELLING**

STRUCTURE

- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Objectives
- 19.3 Advertising
 - 19.3.1 Developing an Advertising Programme
- 19.4 Sales Promotion
 - 19.4.1 Objectives of Sales Promotions
 - 19.4.2 Sales Promotion and Product Life Cycle
 - 19.4.3 Sales Promotion Programme
- 19.5 Public Relations
 - 19.5.1 Role of Public Relations
 - 19.5.2 Features of Public Relations
- 19.6 Publicity
 - 19.6.1 Marketing Public Relations Process
- 19.7 Events and Experiences
 - 19.7.1 Relations for Events Sponsorship
 - 19.7.2 Event Decisions

19.7.3 Experiences

19.8 Personal Selling

19.8.1 Process of Personal Selling

19.9 Summary

19.10 Glossary

19.11 Self Assessment Questions

19.12 Lesson End Exercise

19.13 Suggested Readings

19.1 INTRODUCTION

The traditional marketing communication mix consists of a set of five primary tools i.e. advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing, public relations and personal selling. But now a-days, events and experiences and interactive marketing are also undertaken as important tool of marketing communication mix. These tools are used in various combinations and with different degrees of intensity in order to achieve different communication goals with target audiences.

The various tools of marketing communication are discussed in the following sections.

19.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, you will be able

- To comprehend the elements of marketing communication mix.
- To study in detail the functions performed by the various elements of marketing communication mix.

19.3 ADVERTISING

Many people confuse advertising with marketing as they believe it to be same. However, advertising is part of marketing, though a very visible element. Advertising is any paid form of non personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an

identified sponsor. It is an element of marketing mix. It plays significant role in awareness creation and attitude formation. It even generates trial and purchase of product/ service as long as all other elements of the marketing mix play a contributory role.

Advertising is one of several tools used to communicate an organizations marketing offer. It is an effective means of managing demands i.e, it can be used to influence demands for products/ services or can be used to manage perceptions and understanding about the organization as a whole. However, the role of advertising is to engage audiences and generate favourable response.

Advertising has following advantages over other elements of the communication mix.

- i) It offers a fair amount of control over what the marketer has to say to the potential customers.
- ii) Advertising can also reach a large number of customers efficiently.
- iii) It is flexible as different kinds of images and symbols can be presented through a wide variety of media.
- iv) Advertising can also be humorous, serious or emotional, can show the product in action and explicitly compare the product with its competitors.
- v) Though television media is very expensive, but it reaches millions of potential customers at one time.

Advertising suffer from series of drawbacks:

- i) It is difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of advertising as it is generally used to build sales in the long term by achieving other intermediate objectives in the short run (eg. awareness).
- ii) It rarely results in a measurable and observable change in sales.
- iii) Advertising especially TV advertising can be expensive and makes it difficult for a small company to make much of an impact in the market.

- iv) Most of the advertising in mass media (eg. TV) is wasted as it is not the best communication element for targeting a specific audience directly.
- v) Customers are bombarded with ads which make it difficult for marketer's message to be retained through the clutter.

19.3.1 Developing an Advertising Programme:

In developing an advertising programme the marketing managers have to identify the target market and buyers motives. Following are the various decisions which they have to make.

(1) **Advertising objective:** Advertising is a specific communications task and achievement level to be accomplished with a specific audience in a specific period of time. The main aim of advertising is:

- (a) To create brand awareness and knowledge of new product (informative ad).
- (b) To create liking, preference, conviction and purchase of product/ service.
- (c) To stimulate repeat purchase of product / service.
- (d) To convince current purchasers that they made the right choice.

(2) **Advertising Budget:** A company has to set aside a budget for its advertising programme. New products typically merit large advertising budgets to build awareness as compared to established brands which support lower advertising budgets. Also high market share brands usually require less advertising expenditure. Brands in less differentiated product classes (eg. soft drinks, banks and airlines) require heavy advertising to establish a differentiated image.

(3) **Advertising Campaign:** In designing and evaluating an ad campaign, marketers have to develop the message strategy (what the ad attempts to convey about the brand) and its creative strategy (how the ad express the brand claims). The ads impact depends not only on what it says, but also how it says. Thus message generation and its execution are important. Marketers are always seeking different ideas that connect with consumers rationally and emotionally, distinguish the brand from competitors and

is flexible so as to translate to different media, market and time periods. Every advertising medium has advantages and disadvantages.

(4) Media Effectiveness: After designing the message, the next task of marketer is to choose the media to carry it. Media selection is finding the most cost – effective media to deliver the desired number and type of exposures to the target audience. The effect of exposures on audience awareness depends on the exposures reach, frequency and impact. Also, choice of media depends on target audience, media habits, product characteristics message characteristics, cost of media etc.

Profiles of Major Media Types		
Medium	Advantages	Limitations
Newspapers	Flexibility; timeliness; good local market coverage; broad acceptance; high believability	Short life, poor reproduction quality, small “ pass along” audience
Television	Combines sight, sound, and motion; appealing to the senses; high attention; high reach	High absolute cost; high clutter; fleeting exposure; less audience selectivity
Direct mail	Audience selectivity, flexibility; no ad competition with the same medium; personalization	Relatively high cost, “junk mail” image
Radio	Mass use, high geographic and demographic selectivity, low cost	Auto presentation only, lower attention than television; nonstandardised rate structures, fleeting exposure
Magazines	High geographic and demographic selectivity; credibility and prestige; high- quality reproductions , long life good pass – along readership	Long ad purchases lead time; some waste circulation; no guarantee of position
Outdoor	Flexibility; high repeat exposure; low cost; low competition	Limited audience selectivity, creative limitations

Yellow pages	Excellent local coverage; high believability; wide reach; low cost	High competition, long ad purchase lead time, creative limitation, costly
Newsletters	Very high selectivity, full control, interactive opportunities, relative low costs	Cost could exceed
Brochures	Flexibility, full control, can dramatize message	Over production could lead to runaway cost
Telephone	Many users, opportunity to give a personal touch	Relative high cost unless volunteers are used
Internet	High selectivity, interactive possibilities, relatively low cost	Relatively new media with a low number of users in some countries

Table : 19.1

19.4 SALES PROMOTION

Sales promotion comprises of collection of various incentive tools used to promote sales in a given territory and time. They are short term in nature and are designed to stimulate quick sales of particular product / service by consumers. While advertising provides a reason to the target customer to purchase a product, sales promotion provides incentives to the customer to purchase the product or service. Sales promotions are used extensively in consumer markets especially while launching new brands as well as in markets that are mature. They are also used where market growth is limited and where price and sales promotion are the only way of improving performance. Consumer oriented promotions include devices such as coupons, points of purchase savings, sweepstakes, rebate and free samples. Sales promotions are oriented towards the channels of distributions including the sales force. The advantage of sales promotions are following:

- (i) They can generate a measurable short term sales response.
- (ii) Free samples are effective for inducing trials of new product.

- (iii) Promotions such as coupons delivered in magazines can complement an advertising campaign by reinforcing a brand name.
- (iv) Sales promotions are essential in gaining shelf space in retail outlets.
- (v) It provides opportunities to manufacturers to reach out to market segments with differing price sensitivity.
- (vi) It motivates the trade to keep more and push more of those brands that are on promotions.
- (vii) It is cost effective alternative.

The sales promotion programme also has following set backs:

- (i) It is almost always focused on price. As a result, customers can be induced to become more price sensitive and deal loyal (i.e. loyalty towards brand offering some kind of promotion) rather than brand loyal.
- (ii) It delays purchases as customers begin to expect and wait for sales promotion, rebates or special deal being offered.
- (iii) The results of sales promotions are short lived.

19.4.1 Objectives of Sales Promotions

Broad objective of any sales promotion programme is to induce trial and purchase of a product, beside various other objectives which are as under:

- (i) Sales promotion generates consumers' interest which leads to trial purchases. Free samples and coupons have been found useful in stimulating trials of low involvement products because they generate a low cost usage experience that may create favourable attitude faster than advertising e.g. Dove, a premium brand from Hindustan Levers urges consumers to try the 7 day test to convince themselves of the claims made by the company.
- (ii) It generates inquiries from the target customer group. This is done through mails –in coupons, free catalogues and prizes. This method is useful in following situations:

- (a) When the firm has to identify and attract prospective customers.
- (b) When customers stock has to be frequently replenished i.e., institutions whose stationary stock needs to be periodically replenished often receives mail in coupons or special prices or gifts during festivals.
- (c) When a new model or version of product or services has been introduced.
- (iii) Sales promotion builds traffic for a brand at the retail outlet thereby generating additional sales of the product. Various shopping malls or stores e.g., Shoppers Stop, Big Bazaar etc., organises several events and festivals. Such special sales, festivals sales or even entertainment events e.g., FilmFare Awards are designed to build consumers traffic at retail outlets or for brand.
- (iv) It motivates customers to repeat their purchases. Several companies use promotion tool like First Citizen's Club (Shopper's Stop) and cumulative purchase card which promises the customer a free product on redemption of purchases points. Similarly, Visa card, Master Card etc. offer its members redeemable points for every purchase made on the credit card. These tools are aimed at creating brand loyalty.
- (v) Sales promotion increases the rates of purchase of the product. The firm's objective is to increase the rates of purchase so as to retain the customers or generate primary demand. For this, it may offer multipack or a large pack at a lower price than the competitors e.g., Hindustan Liver a multipack offer for Dove, or a recipe for a desert on Milkmaid's label.

19.4.2 Sales Promotion and Product Life Cycle

Sales Promotion plays a different role at each stage in the product life cycle. In the introduction stage, advertising creates awareness and positioning of the brand, the role of sales promotion is to induce trial. Thus, the firm generally uses sampling and couponing to achieve their objectives.

In the growth stage, advertising role is to create competitive differentiation and expand the market whenever possible. The role of sales promotion is to create and reward loyalty. It also aims at enhancing per capita consumption and encourages existing customers to introduce new ones. Hence, redemption points, bonuses, price cuts for

new introductions or bundling of products and services are common tools used at this stage.

The maturity stage results in slowing down of market growth rate and advertising at this stage reminds the customer about the product availability. Consumer oriented promotions like coupons, discounts, premium and bonus packs are often used by firms to maintain customer loyalty, attract new users and also protect against competition. Firms often indulge in trade promotions to get a larger share of retail shelf space.

19.4.3 Sales Promotion Programme

It is necessary that the marketer spends considerable time in planning and adopting a long term planning approach which involves the following points.

- (i) For any sales promotion programme, the marketer needs to review the product market situation. He has to scrutinize consumers' responsiveness to any promotion programmes that is planned to be introduced.
- (ii) The purchase patterns of consumers also need to be examined. The marketer should plan to provide incentive for a longer term so that heavy users get an opportunity to benefit in their normal purchase cycles.
- (iii) Marketer should analyze distribution methods being used in his product category as this will influence the choice of promotion tools.
- (iv) Based on market analyses and trade characteristics, a firm has to identify the opportunities and threats conforming it. It can use promotion tools to exploit opportunities and also convert threats into opportunities.
- (v) Firm has to choose the sales promotion objectives and have to work for its achievement.
- (vi) The firm also has to work on the sales promotion budgets with which it has to undertake sales promotion programme.

19.5 PUBLIC RELATIONS

Public relation (PR) is an important tool within the marketing communication mix because its primary motive is to influence, the way an organisation is perceived by various groups of stakeholders. It is the management function that focuses on the relationship and communication with individuals and groups in order to create mutual goodwill. Not only must the company relate, constructively to customers, suppliers and dealers, it must also relate to a large number of interested publics. A public is any group that has an actual or potential interest in or impact on a company's ability to achieve its objectives. Most companies have a public relations department that monitors the attitudes of the organizations public and distributes information and communication to build goodwill. The PR department advices top management to adopt positive programmes and eliminate questionable practices resulting in no negative publicity. The main advantage of PR is that it comes from a supposedly unbiased source and therefore has more credibility than advertising. Also, it is in expensive except for the cost the PR agency charges. The main disadvantage of PR is that the sponsoring company has little control over it. PR can also have a negative impact on the firms' reputation.

The PR department performs the following five functions:

- (i) *Press relations*: Presenting news and information about the organization in such a way so as to generate goodwill.
- (ii) *Production Publicity*: Sponsoring efforts to publicise specific product.
- (iii) *Corporate Communication*: Promoting understanding of the organization through internal and external communications.
- (iv) *Lobbying*: Dealing with legislators' and government officials to promote or defeat legislation and regulation.
- (v) *Counseling*: Managing the advertisements about public issues and company positions and image during good and bad times.

19.5.1 Role of Public Relations

Public relations play three main roles within an organizations' marketing communication mix. These are:

- (i) **Development and Maintenance of Corporate Goodwill:** It involves the creation of goodwill and interest between the organization and its various key stakeholders. It provides services of cues by which the stakeholders can recognize, understand and position the organization in such a way that the organization builds a strong reputation.
- (ii) **Marketing of Firms Product or Service:** PR supports the marketing of the firm's products and services with a view to integrate the other elements of the communication mix. For e.g., it commences at the time of launching a new product with passing the information on to the editors, news broadcasters and other stakeholders about the launch.
- (iii) **Build Relationships:** PR encourages interaction and dialogue and provides the means through which information exchanges and discussions can occur. This is a complex role as the communication process needs to enable messages to be conveyed, listened to, considered and acted upon.

There are a range of public relation methods available to organizations which they use so as to communicate effectively with their various stakeholders. Some of these methods are, media relations, publicity and events, lobbying, sponsorship, crisis management, public affairs, industry relations etc.

19.5.2 Features of Public Relations

The key characteristics of public relations are that:

- (i) It requires the purchase of airtime or space in media vehicles such as television, magazines etc. The decision about intended public relations message being, transmitted depends upon those in charge of managing the media resource and not the client organization. The people who make these decisions are often journalist and editors who represent opinion formers and through their professional expertise can influence the decisions made by others.

- (ii) The messages received through PR are deemed to be highly credible, and more trustworthy. However, there is low level of control that management can exert on a message as it is the editor who decides whether a message will be conveyed or the context and style of the message may be changed.
- (iii) The absolute cost of PR is minimal, except for those organizations that retain an agency but even then their cost is low as compared with those associated with advertising. The relative cost (i.e., the proportional costs associated with reaching each member of the target audience) is also very low. The main cost associated with PR is the time and opportunity costs associated with the preparation of press releases, associated literature and events.
- (iv) Another characteristics of PR is that it can be used to reach specific audience, in a way that paid media cannot. With increasing customization of markets, PRs activities represent a cost effective way of reaching such market and audiences.
- (v) Digital technology (i.e., internet) has enhanced the development and practice of public relations.

19.6 PUBLICITY

Publicity is often confused with public relations, but publicity is only a type of PR. It is the generation of news about a person, product, or organization that appears in broadcasts or electronic media. It is also known as marketing public relations (MPR) and many companies are turning towards it so as to support corporate or product promotion and image making. Publicity or MPR is the task of securing editorial space as opposed to paid space in the print and broadcast media to promote or “hype a product, service, idea, place, person, or organization.”

Marketers try to get positive publicity so as to get favourable customers responses. For this following aspects need to be considered.

- (i) The information to be passed should be newsworthy and positive. However, negative information gains publicity quickly.
- (ii) There is no cost for publicity by the media but has no obligation to use it also.

(iii) Publicity is cost effective when successful. A major publicity campaign can require an investment of 1 to 2 percent of sales as opposed to 5 to 19 percent for advertising.

Marketing Public Relations goes beyond simple publicity and plays an important role in following areas:

- (a) Launching new products.
- (b) Repositioning a mature product.
- (c) Building interest in a product category.
- (d) Influencing specific target groups.
- (e) Defending product that have encountered public problems.
- (f) Building the corporate image in a way that reflects favourably on its products.

Managers are now turning to MPR to build awareness and brand knowledge for both new and established products. It affects public awareness at a fraction of the cost of advertising. The firm doesn't pay for media space or time but only for a staff to develop and circulate the stories and manage certain events.

19.6.1 Marketing Public Relations Process:

For adopting MPR, management must establish the marketing objectives, selecting the message and vehicles, implementing the plan carefully and evaluate the results.

(1) Establishing Objective: MPR can build

- (a) Awareness by placing stories in media about the product, service, person, organization or idea
- (b) Credibility by communicating the message in an editorial context.
- (c) Boost sales force and dealer enthusiasm with stories about a new product before it is launched.
- (d) Reduced promotion cost as it cost less than other aspects of communication mix.

(2) Selecting Message and Vehicles: It is essential to choose the message / information that needs to be passed to the target audience and the medium of communication.

(3) Implementing the Plan and Evaluating Results:

MPR's contribution is however difficult to measure, as it is used along with other promotional tools. The objective is to reach the target audience. The easiest measure of MPR effectiveness is the number of exposures carried by the media. This however is not satisfying as it contains no indication of how many people actually read, recalled or thought about the message. A better measure is the change in product awareness, comprehension or attitude resulting from MPR campaign.

The main tools of MPR are publication, events, sponsorship news, speeches, public service activities and identity media (i.e., company logos, stationery, signs, brochures, business cards, dress codes, building etc.)

19.7 EVENTS AND EXPERIENCES:

Sponsoring events is becoming a fast aspect of communication mix. Sponsoring events provide companies with opportunities to obtain and in influencing attitudes towards brands. Sponsorship of sports is a big business in India. The Board of Control for Cricket in India (BCCI) enters into contracts (deals) such as kit sponsorship by Nike, Team sponsorship by Sahara, awarding media rights to telecast matches etc., and has become one of the richest sports bodies in the world. By associating with popular events (eg., Olympics, Common-Wealth Games, Miss Universe context, Miss India contest etc), brands gets visibility among the general public. Becoming part of a personally relevant moment in consumers' lives helps in strengthening company's relationship with the target market.

In business to business context also, sponsorship is important to obtain visibility and positive word of mouth. NASSCOM'S annual conference, called the India leadership Forum, provides opportunities to IT and IT enabled companies around the world to broaden their relationship with the relevant target audience. Firms also sponsor local festivals and events which helps them in associating their brands with the festivals spirit of the event .In sponsoring an event, the communicator gets undivided attention for his product, brand or message.

Daily encounters with brands may also affect consumer's brand attitudes and beliefs. Atmospherics refer to "packaged environment" that creates or reinforces the buyers perception of the firm and its products. For e.g., Johnson and Johnson maintains excellent and clear gardens and has a pure white building in Mumbai. The entire atmospherics and environment there reinforces Johnson and Johnson's image of care, tenderness and health.

Companies are quick in adopting this mode of communication mix. For eg., sponsorships of Miss world contest, Femina Ms India and Mr India contests, musical concerts (Coke studio), Film festivals, Youth festivals and Sports events are done by several leading consumer product companies like Parle, the UB group, Reliance, ITC etc.

19.7.1 Reasons for Events Sponsorship

The major objectives of marketers in sponsoring events are:

1. It helps to identify with a particular target market or lifestyle. Customers can be targeted geographically, demographically, psychographically, or behaviorally according to events.
2. It increases awareness of company or products name. Sponsorship often offers sustained exposure to a brand so as to build brand recognition and enhances brand recall.
3. It creates or reinforces perceptions of key brand image association. MRF Tyres participates in car rallies to obtain brand visibility and to develop an image of superior equality and high performances.
4. It enhances the corporate image of the firm. Sponsorships can bring positive perception regarding the company's image.
5. It creates experiences and evokes feelings. The feelings engendered by an exciting or rewarding event may indirectly link to the brand e.g., ITC Hotels, Welcome Group, medical tourism, adventure tourism etc., offers experience beyond expectations .

6. It helps in expressing commitment for a social issue such as cause related marketing, nonprofit marketing and charities e.g ITC contributes Rs.1 to its rural development initiative that supports among other project primary education in village for every four classmates notebooks sold.
7. It provides promotional opportunity for the firm. Many marketers offers contests or sweep stakes, direct response or other marketing activities with an event. Many of the popular television programme are sponsored by well know brands. (for eg., Cadbury Bournvita Quiz contest has helped in building brand recognition).

19.7.2 Event Decisions:

Success of events as an aspect of communication mix depends upon following decisions:

1. Choosing events: The event selected for sponsorship should meet the marketing objection and communication strategy followed by the brand. The audience must match the target market and should be capable of creating desired effect. It should be cost effective and enhance the sponsor's corporate image.
2. Designing sponsorship programme : Generally it is the marketing programme which determines events success. Event creation is an important skill in publicising fund- raising drives for non project organizations. No sooner one type of event is created (eg walkathon) that competitors come with new versions (eg., readathones, bikeathons and jogathons etc).
3. Measuring sponsorship activities: It is difficult to measure the success of events. The supply-side measurement method focuses on potential exposure to the brand by assessing the extent of media coverage and the demand side method focuses on reported exposure from consumers. The supply side methods approximate the amount of time or space devoted to media coverage of an event. It provides quantifiable measures, equating media coverage with advertising exposures ignore the content of the respective communications. The demand –side method identifies the effect sponsorship has on consumers brand knowledge.

19.7.3 Experiences:

Generally marketing is experiential marketing which not only communicates features and benefits but also connects a product or service with unique and interesting experiences. The concept of creating experiences is not only to sell something but to demonstrate how a brand can provide experiences which can enrich a customer's life. In present era, it is important to sell an experience to the customer for using a product or service. Firms are strategically manage a customer's entire experience with a product or company. Providing experience is more engaging than all other forms of communications. Experiential marketing provides more information to the customers and would make them spread a positive word of mouth for the brand.

19.8 PERSONAL SELLING:

Personal selling is interpersonal communication in which one person attempts to secure a purchase from another person. It is a highly potent form of communication because messages can be adapted to meet the requirement of both parties meeting face to face as the communication develops. It represents dyadic communication i.e, two persons are involved in communication process. Sales people can target their messages to customers and the personal interaction helps in overcoming objections, convenience and demonstrations can also be sought. Personal selling messages can be tailored and made much more personal than any other method of the communication mix. It is especially appropriate for very expensive and complex products and services. Sales personnel provide a source of information for buyers so that they can make the right purchase decision. Feedback and evaluation of transmitted messages are more or less instantaneously possible so that personal selling messages can be tailored and made much more customised than any other form.

Personal selling concerns interpersonal communication and its role can encompass the whole spectrum of the attitude construct. It provides information, develops positive feelings and stimulates behavior in a positive way. The main role of personal selling is the development, organization and completion of a sale and representation. It provides vital links between the needs of their own organization and the needs of their customers.

Representation thus refers to face to face encounters between people from different organization.

The major drawback of personal selling is that it is expensive because it involves training and compensating the sales people. Also, it is difficult for the marketing or sales manager to control what happens in the sales encounter.

19.8.1 Process of Personal Selling:

The major steps involved in effective selling are:

- 1) **Prospecting and qualifying:** This step involves identifying and qualifying the prospective customers.
- 2) **Preapproach:** The sales person needs to learn as much as possible about the prospects company and its buyer's characteristics and buying styles.
- 3) **Presentation and Demonstration:** The salesperson tells about the product to the buyer using a features, advantages, benefits and value approach.
- 4) **Overcoming objections:** Sales people are trained to handle the objections so as to gather, positive approach.
- 5) **Closing:** Closing signs from the buyer include physical actions, statement or comments and questions.
- 6) **Follow up and Maintenance:** Follow up and maintenance are necessary to ensure customer satisfaction and repeat business.

19.9 SUMMARY

Marketing communication mix consists of advertising, sales promotions, events experiences, direct marketing, interactive marketing and personal selling. Marketing communication activities must be integrated to deliver a consistent message and achieve the strategic positioning. The starting point of planning marketing communication mix is an audit of all the potential modes of communication that customer in the target market may seek.

19.10 GLOSSARY

Atmospheric: Atmospheric denotes those components of a store which impact upon its atmosphere and which attract consumers to a store, including the merchandising plan, smell, lighting, architecture, product ranges and prices, access to the store and other sensory stimuli.

Sales Promotion: Sales promotion is a communication tool that adds value to product or service with the intention of encouraging people to buy now rather than at some point in future.

Telemarketing: Telemarketing or telesales is a form of non –store retailing where purchase occurs over the telephone.

19.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1. Discuss the difference between publicity and public relation.

Q.2. Explain the various modes of advertising.

19.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. How do events and experience help in communicating about the product.

Q.2. Explain the merits of Direct Marketing.

19.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. T.K Panda, Marketing Management: Text and Cases, Excel Books.
2. P. Kotler and Armstrong, Principles of Marketing, Prentice Hall India.
3. Douglas, K Hoffman, et al., Marketing Best Practices, Thomas South – Western
4. R. Saxena, Marketing Management, Tata McGraw Hill.
5. Rusell S. Winer, Marketing Management, Pearson Education.
6. F. Robert Dwyer and John F. Tanner, Business Marketing, The Mc Graw – Hill Companies.
7. Paul Baines, Chris Fill, Kelly Page, Marketing Oxford University Press.

M.Com II Semester**Lesson No. 20****PLACE & PROMOTION MIX DECISIONS****Unit - IV**

CONTEMPORARY TOPICS**STRUCTURE**

- 20.1 Introduction
- 20.2 Objectives
- 20.3 Global Marketing
- 20.4 Niche Marketing
- 20.5 Social Marketing
- 20.6 Viral Marketing
- 20.7 Summary
- 20.8 Glossary
- 20.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 20.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 20.11 Suggested Readings

20.1 INTRODUCTION

On the basis of strategic thinking and marketing management, a good analysis of the present cycle and the changes that take place are important. In today's marketing environment, significant changes, and developments are intense. A holistic approach can be achieved by integrating these changes and developments to complement each other. There were many studies in literature about current situation of marketing and

changes. These studies include summarizing findings that cover certain periods or express the situation at the end of a particular period. For example, Kumar (2015) studied the evolution of marketing as a discipline and discussed both historical periods of marketing and future of marketing. One of author's comments is valuable

In light of these changes, we must remain cognizant about the dynamics in the marketing environment that is, look out for the questions that need to be answered and the issues that need to be solved to empower ourselves with the knowledge we seek.

In another study, Kumar (2018) mentioned about "transformative" process that marketing world could live in next two decades. According to study, there is a rapidly moving change in business and marketing environment and businesses act in regard to this "fast" phenomena. The description included in that study is

Transformative marketing is the confluence of a firm's marketing activities, concepts, metrics, strategies, and programs that are in response to marketplace changes and future trends to leapfrog customers with superior value offerings over competition in exchange for profits for the firm and benefits to all stakeholders. There are two ideas in that definition that reflect the general situation. First one is in response to section; there is a reciprocal situation between marketing environment externally and businesses internally. There are factors have actions about technology, marketplace and etc. so they cause reactions in business strategies. Second idea includes "competition" reflecting the differentialization and competitive part of today's marketing.

As the side of marketing studies summarizing changes, there are many different studies that summarize the changes when the changes and developments in the world are evaluated in terms of marketing researches. Yadav and Pavlou (2014) examined marketing concept by computer-mediated context. They addressed four interaction types related to computer-mediated environment. **These are consumer-firm interactions, firm-consumer interactions, consumer-consumer interactions and firm-firm interactions.**

From these facts, it is necessary to examine contemporary marketing issues, in a reciprocal and interaction based framework.

20.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Comprehend Global Marketing
- Grasp the essentials of Niche Marketing
- Having insights of Social Marketing
- Be updated about Viral marketing

20.3 GLOBAL MARKETING

Global marketing is defined as the process of adjusting the marketing strategies of your company to adapt to the conditions of other countries. Of course, global marketing is more than selling your product or service globally. It is the full process of planning, creating, positioning, and promoting your products in a global market. Big businesses usually have offices abroad for countries they market to. Currently, with the proliferation of the internet, even small businesses can reach consumers anywhere in the world. If a business chooses not to extend internationally, it can face domestic competition from international companies that are extending their international presence. The presence of this competition almost makes it a requirement for many businesses to have an international presence.

There are many benefits of global marketing, when it is done right.

- First, it can improve the effectiveness of product or service. This is because the more a firm grows, the more it learns, and the faster it learns, it becomes more effective at producing new product or service offerings.
- Second, you are able to have a strong competitive advantage. It is easy enough for companies to be competing in the local market. But there are very few companies who can do so on the worldwide arena. Hence, if you can compete in the worldwide market and your competitors cannot, you have become a strong force in your industry!
- Third, you increase consumer awareness of your brand and product or service.

Through the internet, consumers can keep track of your progress in the world.

- Finally, global marketing can reduce your costs and increase your savings. In focusing on other markets, you can attain economies of scale and range by standardizing your processes – not to mention the savings that you get when you leverage the internet!

Companies evolving towards global marketing are actually quite gradual. The **first stage** has the company concentrating on the domestic side, with its activities focused on their home market. **Stage two** has the company still focusing domestically but has exports. By **stage three**, the company has realized that they need to adapt their marketing geared towards overseas. The concentration moves from multinational. Thus, adaption has become crucial. **The fourth and last stage** has the company creating value when it extends its programs and products to serve worldwide markets. Definitely, there are no definite time periods to this evolution process. After defining global marketing (including its uses and evolution), this article will be discussing the different aspects of global marketing: its strategies, campaign development, issues and mistakes, as well as standout examples.

Global Marketing Strategies

Global marketing strategies are actually important parts of a global strategy. In order to create a good global marketing strategy, you must be able to answer: “What I am trying to achieve in an international market?” “What are my company’s strengths and weaknesses for that market?” “How can I counter challenges in the market?” “What potential will I have in this market?”

Moreover, a good global marketing strategy incorporates all the countries from all regions of the world and coordinates their marketing efforts accordingly. Of course, this strategy does not always cover all the countries but should be applied for particular regions. For example, you can break down regions like North America, Latin America, Europe and the Middle East, Asia and the Pacific, and Africa. Beyond its breakdown per country or region, a global marketing strategy almost always consists of several things: (1) uniform brand names; (2) identical packaging; (3) similar products; (4)

standardized advertising messages (5) synchronized pricing (6) coordinated product launches; and (7) harmonious sales campaigns.

As a whole, these two are the most well known global marketing strategies used by companies expanding internationally:

- Create a consistent and strong brand culture. Creating a strong and consistent brand that always seems familiar to customers is a priority for companies growing internationally. With the ever-more rising and expanding internet, brand structure has become more of a brand culture. To be more specific, it has become more prevalent nowadays that the brand you support reflects your culture. It can be damaging if you compromise your brand culture. For example, Google found out the hard way when it launched a self-censored search engine in China, even though China subjects its new media to government blocks. Google's brand has been known to make the world access information at anytime. How can Google set up something in China against its own culture? As a result, customer backlash versus Google was substantial.
- Market as if there were no borders. Due to the proliferation of digital platforms, brands cannot always adopt different strategies per country. In a way, due to the internet, companies have to adopt a marketing approach that is more or less unified.

Global Marketing Campaign Development

In order to develop your campaign globally, there are a few things you should keep in mind. You have to know the market, you have to create a marketing plan, you should tailor fit your approach to marketing, and you should localize your communications.

- **Know Your Market**

As soon as your company decides to extend your marketing worldwide, you have to understand the context of where you will be working. Every region has various behaviors and norms as it deals with marketing messages; how people would like to be contacted; and what is appropriate for that place, and the like.

You have to make sure that you research how the market will respond to the marketing strategy you have, so you can get much leverage from your new market.

- **Create a Marketing Plan**

Becoming successful worldwide is not merely altering your language. You have to make your global marketing plan consistent with your local efforts. Yet it still needs to be customized, according to your regional knowledge. Once you have an insight of the global environment, draft a marketing plan that details your actions.

First, identify your objectives and goals. As soon as that has been established, draw a map that covers the overall strategy and techniques to attain those objectives.

- **Tailor Fit Your Approach**

Keep in mind that what may have worked for your local audience may not translate as well to your foreign audience. Try to adapt your initiatives to your audience, giving them a tailor fit experience. Definitely, what works for one country may not work for another.

- **Localize Your Communications**

It is not only relevant to know the language and cultural hurdles and adjusting your communications for every market, it is also critical to know all the cultural references and relevant holidays and events. You need to create a more personalized experience.

Global Marketing Issues and Mistakes

Companies, especially their marketing teams, often face the following issues and mistakes when expanding worldwide. These can become hurdles in achieving international success.

- **Non-Specification of Countries**

Many businesspersons usually think of foreign markets vaguely, like they want to shift to Asia or they want to increase their growth by offering their products to Europe. It is problematic to take things too simply. Europe can mean the European Union, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and so on and so forth. Consumers always identify themselves at the local level and marketing teams have to remember that each country

has its own norms, laws, payment types, and particular business practices. By being specific in the start, companies can prioritize the markets they want to get into, generate a staffing plan, and allocate the budget. These are all important for a business to attain its global objectives.

- **No Focus on Internal Information**

You have to conduct specialized and complicated market research when you are going to create a global market entry strategy. You would need to consider the potential opportunity in the market, how easy or hard it would be for your business to work in that market, and how successful you already are in the market.

There are a lot of companies that concentrated on outside data to help their decision-making, as described above. Nonetheless, you can simply use your own internal information to get the data, on whether there is a strong fit between your product or service and the market. Remember that data from third parties do not understand your company or even know your consumer. Only you have the best input on this.

- **Lack of Adaptation of Sales and Marketing Channels**

Most Western companies think that they can go into new markets by doing the same things that brought them success domestically.

As previously mentioned, it is important to have brand consistency, but differing markets would like particular marketing approaches. Moreover, marketers have to consider at which channels it would be best to market, based on market behavior. Case in point, for Brazil, marketing campaigns are more successful through Facebook because of its popularity there. However, in Latin America, you can draw in a bigger audience through Twitter. Hence, you may need to check which channels give you the best results through market research.

- **No Adaptation of Product Offerings**

Business can only attain a fit between their product and the market one at a time. However, more often than not, businesses attempt to launch the same products in varying markets. In essence, they are ignoring that they are interacting with a different set of consumers.

Case in point, if a tech company sells a similar product abroad that it sells domestically and if the new customers do not know the advanced features of the product, the company could be in trouble. Alternatively, the company should begin with the basic version. On the same note, a market that is more advanced might need additional features than what the product already has.

- **Non-Usage of Local Team Leads**

Perhaps one of the usual mistakes companies make in global marketing is failing to consider the input of strong and competent employees in their foreign markets, especially when establishing strategic decisions.

These individuals are significant because they know their country and your company. Since one of the biggest issues businesses face when including local input is communication, the marketing team must have a system that guarantees that local perspectives are gathered and distributed often.

- **Lack of Knowledge on Global Logistics**

Marketers often make use of software that allows them to publish website content, send email, publish updates on social media, and accomplish other marketing-related activities. However, these tools do not always support each market. For example, you have payment solutions only for a couple of countries, but your customer relationship management system has many contacts coming from a hundred countries. Marketers have to guarantee that they could market to customers in the countries they are entering. They should consider how to display the local currency, how to email consumers in particular time zones, and how to support the languages of the consumers.

Global Marketing Examples

If you are searching for inspiration on how to market your company successfully in the international arena, check out these examples from well known companies.

Airbnb

Airbnb is for people who book and list accommodations all over the world. Generally,

it is a community marketplace that has more than a million listings in more than 34,000 cities in the world. Airbnb became very successful globally because of social media. In 2015, Airbnb began a social media campaign using the

This social experiment had Airbnb asking its community to do random acts of hospitality for people they did not know and take a photograph or video with them and share by making use of the hashtag. In only 3 weeks after the campaign was launched, more than 3 million people created content, engaged, or talked about the campaign.

Coca-Cola

Even though Coca-Cola is a big corporation, it also concentrates on programs in small communities and infuses a lot of funds and time in small charities. Case in point, Coca-Cola built 650 clean water installations in Beni, Suez in Egypt and sponsored meals (Ramadan) for children in the Middle East. Moreover, the brand goes with an emotion that everyone knows — happiness.

Domino's

Domino's positioned menu innovation in the forefront to increase its international awareness and interest. They have consistent items for the pizza in all markets like their sauce, bread, and cheese, where it works anywhere.

They just update the toppings for every market. If it is Asia, they have fish and seafood, for example.

Dunkin' Donuts

Did you know that Dunkin' Donuts China has seaweed and dry pork donuts? With thousands of stores in over 30 countries worldwide, Dunkin' Donuts updated its menus to satisfy its international consumers. In Lebanon, they have the Mango Chocolate Donut; in South Korea, they have the Grapefruit Coolatta; and in Russia, they have Dunclairs!

H&M

H&M almost always increases its store openings by 10 to 15 percent each year. One of the secrets of their global expansion is maximizing their online experience.

Innocent Drinks

A leading smoothie company in the United Kingdom, Innocent Drinks can be found in 15 countries all over Europe. Even with its wide reach, they still maintain consistent branding.

Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC)

Kentucky Fried Chicken was able to do something quite interesting. In Japan, they were able to connect their products with Christmas. So every Christmas, Japanese line up at their nearest KFC for some chicken!

McDonald's

Even though McDonald's keeps its branding consistent, McDonald's tries to bring in some local flavor to particular menu items. McDonald's has the McArabia in the Middle East this is a flatbread sandwich. It also introduced France to its macarons and included the McSpaghetti in the Philippines. In Mexico, they have a green chili cheeseburger and in South Korea, they have bulgogi burgers.

20.4 NICHE MARKETING

Niche marketing is defined as channeling all marketing efforts towards one well-defined segment of the population. There is one important thing to understand that 'niche' does not exist, but is created by smart marketing techniques and identifying what the customer wants.

Niche marketing is a marketing tactic deployed to target a specific market segment which is unique. Niche market is often created by identifying what a customer wants and this can be done if the company knows what the customer needs and then tries to deliver a better solution to a problem which was not presented by other firms. A niche market does not mean a small market, but it involves specific target audience with a specialized offering. By doing so, the company becomes a market leader and it becomes possible for other firms to enter that particular segment. For example, there are various cinema halls across India, but there are few which have recliner seats to offer. Not everybody wants to watch a movie by paying 5x-6x times the cost of a normal ticket.

Hence, the target audience is very different and the hall is also only open at places where the company feels that it would be able to tap into target audience especially in posh areas.

There are various advantages of niche marketing. One of the benefits of niche market is that there is no or little competition under that segment. The company is virtually the market leader and enjoys price monopoly. The another benefit is the strong relationship with the customers because of the fact that the company operates in a small segment, the relationship between the company and the brand becomes stronger which is also a key to customer loyalty. Niche businesses are often high margin business. Customers do not mind paying a little extra because, they are only able to get that service in that company or under its brand.

Niche marketing is thus, an advertising strategy that focuses on a unique target market. Instead of marketing to everyone who could benefit from a product or service, this strategy focuses exclusively on one group : a niche market or demographic of potential customers who would most benefit from the offerings.

A niche market could stand apart from others because of:

- Geographic area
- Lifestyle
- Occasion
- Profession
- Style
- Culture
- Activity or habits
- Behavior
- Demographic
- Need
- Feature reduction or addition

The benefit of niche marketing is that it allows brands to differentiate themselves, appear as a unique authority, and resonate more deeply with a distinct set of customers. Rather than blend in with the many other brands that offer the same type of product or service, a brand can use niche marketing to stand out, appear more valuable, reach its growth potential, and build a stronger, longer-lasting connection with its ideal audience.

3 Niche Marketing Examples

Niche markets are often segments of larger industries and verticals. Here are a few brands that found a way to drill down into their industry to market to a niche audience.

- **Divvies Vegan and Nut Free**

There are hundreds of brands that sell sweet treats and snack foods such as cookies, brownies, popcorn, and cupcakes. While most people can choose from dozens of brands to find options that satisfy their cravings, there is a group of people who cannot. Those people have allergies or food restrictions that relate to animal products and nuts. Divvies saw this underserved segment in the sweets industry and created a brand that exclusively targeted this group. Selling cookies and cupcakes is not a unique idea, but selling them as vegan and nut-free options differentiated Divvies in an already saturated market, allowing them to stand out and build a loyal customer base.

- **Lefty's: The Left Hand Store**

Identifying an underserved community in a large market is a smart way to approach niche marketing. Like Divvies, Lefty's: The Left Hand Store found a widely underserved community of people – those who favor their left hand instead of their right hand.

Because 90% of the population uses its right hand, left-handers have widely had to adjust to using products designed for “righties.” Lefties saw this as an opportunity. They created a store that sells products designed exclusively for the other 10% and found success reaching this smaller, often ignored audience.

- **UNTUCKit**

The commercial clothing industry is a vertical that can feel like everything has been done. But UNTUCKit proves there are still creative ways to create a new space in a

long-established market segment. By making even just a small change, you can build a whole new sector in a traditional space. UNTUCKit probably wasn't looking to create a new type of shirt. They were more likely focused on serving a specific community of people: those who didn't like to tuck in their shirts. To give those people what they wanted, UNTUCKit created a new line of products that solved a problem that a lot of people were having, but didn't know how to solve.

How to Find a Niche Market

After seeing a few examples, you will be better equipped for identifying micromarketing opportunities in your own industry. To find and flush out an idea for a niche market in your vertical, go through the following 4-step process.

1. Identify your strengths and interests.

Start by considering what you offer and what you're good at. The best niche marketing strategies play into your brand's unique strengths and perspectives. So reflect on the special and exceptional qualities of your brand, team, and offerings. Also consider the areas that you enjoy working in and the people you like working with. Niche marketing is an opportunity to drill down and focus on the sector of people you most want to connect with, so decide who you are most eager to serve.

- What specific problems do you solve?
- What problems can you solve better than your competitors?
- Where do you especially excel?
- What do you know a lot about?
- Who do you and your team like to serve?

2. Do industry research.

Once you have an idea about the type of niche marketing you want to do, validate that it is a reasonable idea. Do a competitive analysis to see if there are competitors in this space and if there are, what those brands are already doing. Also look to see if any openings in your target market may have been missed and if there is legitimate demand

in the vertical.

3. Get to know your ideal customer.

Another way to gain insight and spark inspiration for niche marketing is to look closely at your target audience and identify what they really want and need. Getting to know your ideal customer can help you offer them a better product, service, or message.

4. Choose, test, adjust, and repeat.

Like most marketing strategies, you can't just set up a niche marketing campaign and assume it will achieve the results you want. You must test your initial idea, review the results, and continue to adjust accordingly.

You may find that your first idea for niche marketing didn't work, but that a simple tweak could hit a sweet spot that draws in audiences and leads to lifelong customers. Perhaps a full boutique shop for yoga enthusiasts didn't catch attention, but you noticed more than half of the shoppers you had bought artwork. You may then want to test and see if artwork for yogis is an idea worth exploring.

20.5 SOCIAL MARKETING

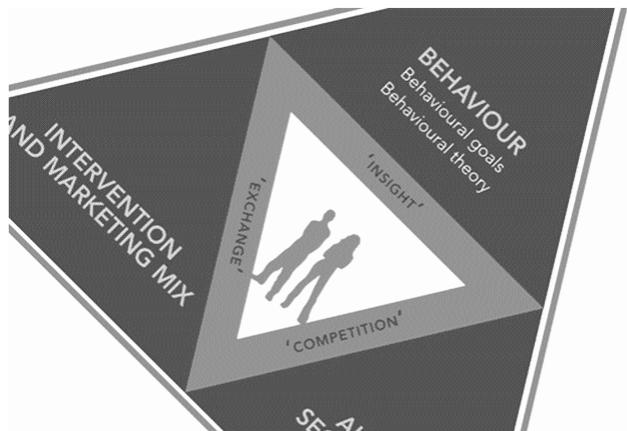


Fig. 20.1

Social marketing is an approach used to develop activities aimed at changing or maintaining people's behaviour for the benefit of individuals and society as a whole. Combining ideas from commercial marketing and the social sciences, social marketing is a proven tool for influencing behaviour in a sustainable and cost-effective way.

It helps you to decide:

- Which people to work with
- What behaviour to influence
- How to go about it
- How to measure it

Social marketing is not the same as social media marketing. Social marketing is the use of commercial marketing principles and techniques to improve the welfare of people and the physical, social, and economic environment in which they live. It is a carefully planned, long-term approach to changing human behavior. Social marketing uses the same collection of tools to “sell” healthy behaviors that are used to sell jeans. There are four basic principles of commercial marketing. They are referred to as the “4 Ps.”

P1 - Product is what you are marketing. In social marketing the product is a behavior change or a shift in attitude. For example, a campaign may be designed to increase condom use or to convince adolescents that spreading rumors is harmful or dangerous.

P2 - Price is the cost. In social marketing, price is the cost of changing behaviors. It is difficult to price the personal costs of using a condom when the individual commits to a new behavior that had been identified as inconvenient, time consuming, and embarrassing. The goal of social marketing is to reframe the recommended behavior change so that the consumer realizes that the benefits of change outweigh the efforts or costs.

P3 - Place is where and how the priority population can be reached. In social marketing, place represents all efforts to make the behavior change as easy as possible to a consumer. It might mean offering free or inexpensive condoms at convenient

locations (i.e. schools, bars, or restrooms) or changing a clinic schedule to accommodate busy students.

P4 - Promotion is the ways used to notify the public about the change messages. Advertising is just one method to achieve this goal. A promotion campaign includes incorporating messages about the recommended behavior change into all existing programs in the community in order to reinforce the message on multiple levels.

Social marketing employs a fifth P that is not included in the commercial campaigns. This special component of social marketing is:

P5 - Policy is the intent to influence policy that will not be punitive but will promote positive behavior change.

Social marketing uses a commercial approach but for different outcomes. Below are some of these differences:

<i>Social Marketing</i>	<i>Commercial Marketing</i>
Meets the needs of the priority population	Creates a need for the priority population
Society and consumer profit	Marketer profits more than consumer
Organizations with similar goals cooperate	Businesses with similar goals compete
Campaigns take longer to change behavior	Shorter time needed to sell a product
Consumer involvement and commitment needed	Shorter term commitment and involvement

Social marketing research is usually more thorough than commercial research because facilitating enduring individual and social behavior change is complex.

Why rely on a social marketing approach?

- impacts a significant portion of the priority population
- facilitates active behavior change over a period of time
- stimulates change with limited resources

- develops creative ideas
- community partnerships become assets that compensate for limited funds
- elevates the voice of the priority population and increases community identification
- influences policy and promotes positive social change

Social marketing is not always a success. If the attitudes and behavior changes you are encouraging are still not perceived as beneficial, acceptable, and attainable by the priority population, it may not be worthwhile to develop a social marketing campaign at this time. In this situation, it is better to introduce a behavior change recommendation by developing connections with community and agreeing on a unified goal before planning a social marketing campaign.

Approach

Social marketing is a systematic and planned process. It follows six steps

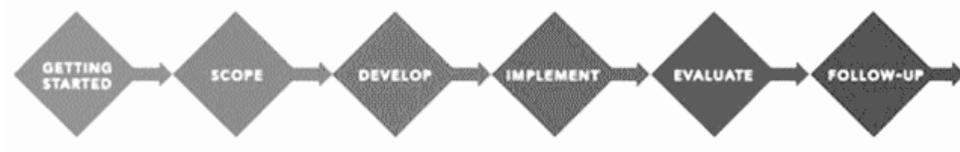


Fig. 20.3

Behaviour

The goal of social marketing is always to change or maintain how people behave – not what they think or how aware they are about an issue. If your goal is only to increase awareness or knowledge, or change attitudes, you are not doing social marketing.

Benefits people and society

This is the value – perceived or actual – as it is defined by the people who are targeted by a social marketing intervention. It is not what is assumed to benefit them by the organisation that is trying to encourage the behaviour change.

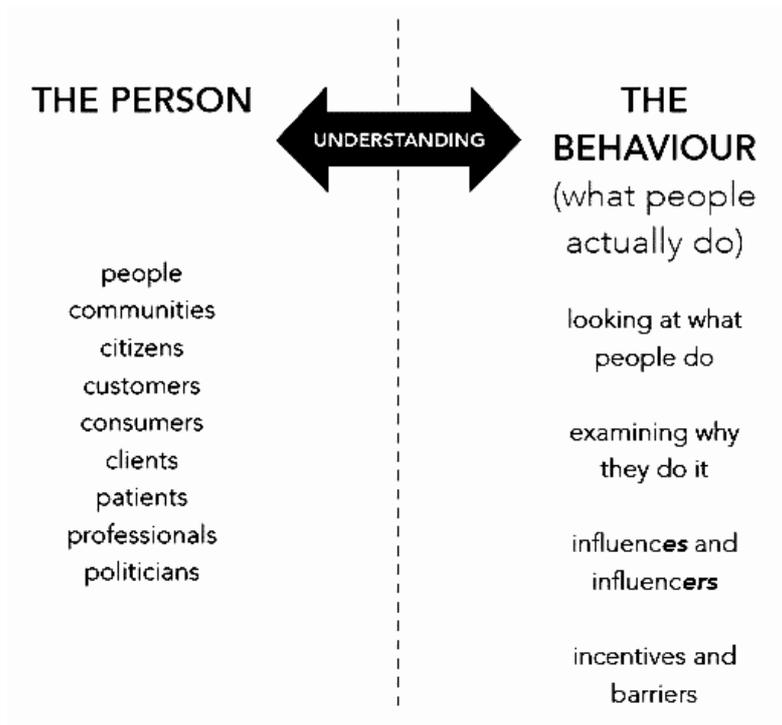


Fig. 20.4

A social marketing approach

Even if you don't take social marketing any further, just considering these four questions will add value to your projects and policies.

1. Do I really understand my target audience and see things from their perspective?
2. Am I clear about what I would like my target audience to do?
3. For my target audience, do the benefits of doing what I would like them to do outweigh the costs or barriers to doing it?
4. Am I using a combination of activities in order to encourage people to achieve the desired action?

How social marketing helps

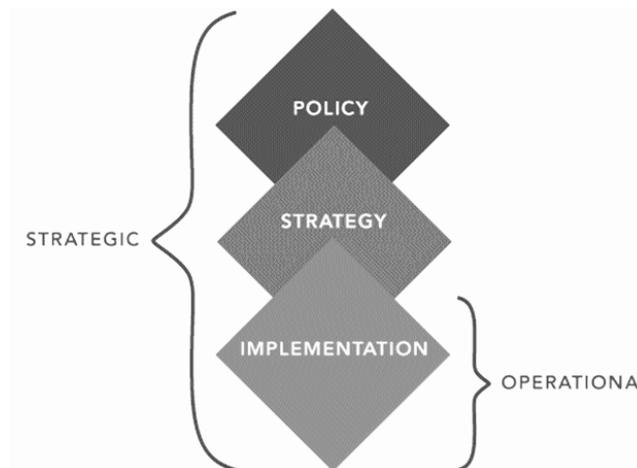


Fig. 20.5

Policy: social marketing helps to ensure policy is based on an understanding of people’s lives, making policy goals realistic and achievable. Policy example: water rationing in Jordan

Strategy: social marketing enables you to target your resources cost-effectively, and select interventions that have the best impact over time. Strategy example: lung disease strategy in England

Implementation and delivery: social marketing enables you to develop products, services, and communications that fit people’s needs and motivations. Delivery example: child car seats in Texas

Applications of Social Marketing

1. Health promotion campaigns in India, especially in Kerala and AIDS awareness programmes are largely using social marketing, and social workers are largely working for it. Most of the social workers are professionally trained for this particular task.
2. Anti-tobacco campaigns.

3. Anti-drug campaigns.
4. Anti-pollution campaigns.
5. Road safety campaigns.
6. Anti-dowry campaigns.
7. Protection of girl child campaign.
8. Campaign against the use of plastic bags.

Social marketing applies a customer-oriented approach, and uses the concepts and tools used by commercial marketers in pursuit of social goals such as anti-smoking campaigns or fund raising for NGOs.

Advantages of Social Marketing:

Social marketing is a new marketing tool that can be a great asset if used properly. The beneficial effects of social marketing for a business can be tremendous, but one must remember that it must be used in the most efficient possible way. Social marketing allows businesses and web sites to gain popularity over the Internet by using different types of social media available, such as blogs, video and photo sharing sites, social networking sites and social bookmarking web sites.

There are six distinct advantages of social marketing that make it a vital tool to any marketing campaign:

- Promotes consumption of socially desirable products.
- Promotes health consciousness in people and helps them adopt a healthier lifestyle.
- It helps in green marketing initiatives.
- It helps to eradicate social evils that affect the society and quality of life.
- Social marketing is one of the cheapest ways of marketing.

- One of the best advantages of social marketing is that anyone can take advantage of it, even from their own home.

20.6 VIRAL MARKETING

Every day we hear all about viral marketing, the Internet's viral videos and content that spreads at the speed of light. But what exactly is it? A viral product or viral advertising, viral campaigns or simply luck that randomly makes something such a big hit. Viral content usually has a well-designed viral strategy behind it, it is, in part, also due to luck, but creativity and preparation are also extremely important. For this reason, to get to know this world a little better, this section will explain what the definition of this concept actually is, how a viral campaign works, the advantages or viral marketing and hints some of the favorite examples.

Viral Marketing is that which is able to generate interest and the potential sale of a brand or product through messages that spread like a virus, in other words, quickly, and from person to person. The idea is for it to be the users themselves that choose to share the content. Due to their speed and ease to share, social networks are the natural habitat of this kind of marketing. The most widespread example in recent times is the creation of moving, surprising, or spectacular videos on YouTube, which are then shared on Facebook, Twitter and other channels.

The reason to make use of virality, the ease in spreading and sharing, is however a double-edged sword. We cannot forget that in this type of campaign, a large part of the control falls into the hands of the users, and we risk the message being misinterpreted or parodied. On the other hand, a successful viral campaign can work miracles for your brand's results.

How a viral Campaign Works

A viral marketing campaign is very simple to carry out: create a video or another type of content which is attractive to the target put it on the internet and plan the first actions to get it moving. From there on, all you can do is wait for the fuse to light and for users to start sharing like crazy. In some cases, virality happens by accident, from

a video uploaded by a private user that all of a sudden becomes popular and begins to circulate all around the Internet.

As for the dispersion strategy of the videos created by brands, we have two focus points: the **shown or the concealed**. In the former, the user is aware from the first moment that they are viewing advertising content, while in the latter the participation of the brand is hidden and is only revealed later. If you apply concealed marketing techniques, it is important to be very careful so the user does not feel tricked, cheated or deceived, as the viral campaign could then turn against you. No matter what strategy we choose, we should never ever become spammers, nor go overboard while sharing the content. Instead of repeating message over and over again, the best strategy is to find the perfect place and time and let the “viral fuse” light itself.

Advantages of Viral Marketing

Low cost. What characterizes viral campaigns is that the users do a significant part of the work for us, which drastically cuts down the costs of dispersion: it becomes unnecessary to buy advertising or space on the media.

Potential of great reach. A viral video on the Internet has the ability to reach a huge international audience without us having to invest money or make any extra effort. Due to this, a small company or even a private individual can go extremely far.

It is not invasive. In viral marketing, the decision to participate and share always comes from the user, and so it never comes across as invasive. Like this, the perception of the brand and the interaction are significantly better, compared to more classical forms of advertising.

It helps build up your brand. If we really hit the bull’s-eye in terms of creativity, we are creating content so incredible that users themselves decide to share it and, hence create a personal connection with your brand. It is without a doubt an extremely powerful tool when it comes to branding and awareness.

Examples of Viral Marketing

Going viral with iPhone X

Apple maintains its viral appeal, with the iPhone X through their launch of the “Selfies on iPhone X” campaign. The secret to this example of viral marketing (which has clocked up over millions views both online and offline) is very simple: a product so great that it turns people into fans of the brand all on its own. People love themselves. If they have the possibility of spreading this love digitally through selfies, it’s almost a guaranteed win. The iPhone X’s brilliant selfie feature spread virally through various media forms before apple repurposed the viral content into one masterpiece, the iPhone X selfies film. As one of the YouTube comments says, “It’s the most beautiful thing I’ve ever seen”... This viral marketing through video has allowed Apple to spread key features such as their Portrait Lighting effects and their True Depth camera.

Viral status: Fidget Spinner

A truly viral product emerged from targeting a truly viral problem in the digital age, known as attention deficit disorder. Allowing people globally to channel their nervousness into an entertaining handheld device has allowed for the viral spread of Fidget Spinners. The products modest beginnings spread virally through school children and later through to adults. We started seeing fidget spinners in social media, memes with fidget spinners, fidget spinners distracting people while crossing the street, and of course, fidget spinners in the impulse purchase section of your local supermarket. This little product achieved a viral marketing status through providing a ‘solution’ to a viral problem and bringing about a world full of fidgety temptation.

Types of Viral Marketing Techniques

There are three criteria for basic viral marketing; the messenger, the message and the environment. All three must be effectively executed in order for a viral message to be successful. Some techniques for effective marketing include targeting the appropriate audience and channels, creating videos, offering a valuable service or product for free, creating an emotional appeal, social outreach and enabling easy sharing and downloading.

Who uses it

Viral marketing can be effective as a stand-alone tool or as part of a larger marketing

campaign. It can be used by both large and small companies, but can be especially attractive to smaller business, as it can be more cost-effective than traditional marketing efforts. Viral marketing has been used by energy drink companies, movies and even political campaigns to generate marketing buzz.

Role of Social Media

The expansion of various social networks, such as Facebook, Instagram, and Snap chat, has contributed to the effectiveness of viral marketing. As users grow, and as the time they spend on social media sites exceeds their time spent emailing, more users are viewing news and forwarding it through their preferred social networks. This requires marketing campaigns to shift focus from more traditional email campaigns to more creative social campaigns.

Advantages and Disadvantages

There are various advantages and disadvantages for viral marketing. The advantages include lower advertising costs, fast growth, mainstream media exposure, and rapid lead generation.

20 .7 SUMMARY

Global marketing is more than simply selling a product internationally. Rather, it includes the whole process of planning, producing, placing, and promoting a company's products in a worldwide market. Large businesses often have offices in the foreign countries they market to; but with the expansion of the Internet, even small companies can reach customers throughout the world.

Concentrating all marketing efforts on a small but specific and well defined segment of the population. Niches do not 'exist' but are 'created' by identifying needs, wants, and requirements that are being addressed poorly or not at all by other firms, and developing and delivering goods or services to satisfy them. As a strategy, niche marketing is aimed at being a big fish in a small pond instead of being a small fish in a big pond. Also called micro-marketing.

Social marketing is the systematic application of marketing along with other concepts and techniques to achieve specific behavioural goals for a social good. For example, this may include asking people not to smoke in public areas, asking them to use seat belts or prompting to make them follow speed limits. The primary aim of social marketing is ‘social good’, whereas in commercial marketing the aim is primarily ‘financial’. This does not mean that commercial marketers cannot contribute to achievement of social good.

Viral marketing is any marketing technique that induces websites or users to pass on a marketing message to other sites or users, creating a potentially exponential growth in the message’s visibility and effect. A popular example of successful viral marketing is Hotmail, a company now owned by Microsoft that promoted its services and its own advertisers’ messages in every user’s email notes.

20.8 GLOSSARY

- **Social media:** The websites which can people interact to each other.
- **Marketing Environment:** It refers to the environment consists of internal and external factors and actors.
- **Consumer:** The people/buyer side of marketing activities which could be defined as the main focus of marketing.
- **Marketing Management:** The management activity of actions related to marketing related activities.

20.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1) What is global marketing?

2) Explain the niche marketing

3) Enumerate the organisations following social marketing.

4) What are the benefits of viral marketing?

20.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) What are the environmental forces that influence the globalization of business? Discuss each of them with examples.
- 2) What are the three objectives of global competitive marketing strategy? How could each of them, be used for Indian Firms?
- 3) Distinguish between social marketing and viral marketing
- 4) What capabilities should the Company possess before adopting Niche strategy?

20.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Marketing Management, Pearson, By: Kotler & Keller
- Marketing Management, Tat Mc-Graw Hill, By: Rajan Saxena
- Marketing Management, Prentice Hall, By: Bagozzi
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MARKETING MANAGEMENT

Lesson Writers :

Dr. Komal Nagar

Asst. Professor, The Business School,
University of Jammu

Dr. Jyoti Sharma

Asst. Professor, Kathua Campus,
University of Jammu

Edited by :

Dr. Rupa Mahajan

Teacher Incharge M.Com.
Room No. 205, IInd Floor, DDE,
University of Jammu

Written & Review by :

Dr. Harleen Kour

Asst. Professor,
Deptt. of Commerce,
University of Jammu
(L. No. : 4, 5, 7, 8, 12, 15, 16, 20)

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