



Chemistry: Idea to Market

Introduction to Marketing

Developed by Carol Beanland on behalf of the University of Leeds

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1. What is Marketing?

People generally think that marketing is advertising and promotion of a product or service. But there is much more to marketing than this. Marketing is about what customers want to buy and the long term profit of the organisation. To make long term profit, the organisation needs the loyalty of its customers and employees.

Dibb et al.,¹ define marketing as 'individual and organisational activities that facilitate and expedite satisfying exchange relationships in a dynamic environment through the creation, distribution, promotion and pricing of goods, services and ideas'.

Kotler² believes that marketing is responsible for six core processes; analysing the market, designing the market strategies, developing new products, developing and managing brand equity, securing sales and retaining customers.

The Chartered Institute of Marketing states that 'marketing is the management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying consumers' requirements profitably'.

2. Marketing Concept

Dibb et al.,¹ define the marketing concept as 'a managerial philosophy that an organisation should try to satisfy customers' needs through a co-ordinated set of activities that at the same time allows the organisation to achieve its goals'.

It is important for organisations to find out exactly what customers want before leaping in and making what the organisation thinks customers want. There is also a need to keep up to date on customers' likes and dislikes. This includes a long-term plan with all the organisation's departments working together to meet customers short term and long term needs (and organisational goals). Keeping up to date with customers' likes and dislikes can be addressed using customer care. (See section on customer care).

3. Marketing Plan

The marketing plan is the written document for the controlling and implementation of the organisation's marketing activities, the course of action decided upon and the implementation of the marketing decisions. It should also include the information from the management analysis of the competitive environment. Effective marketing plans include reviewing customer buying behaviour, and product markets.

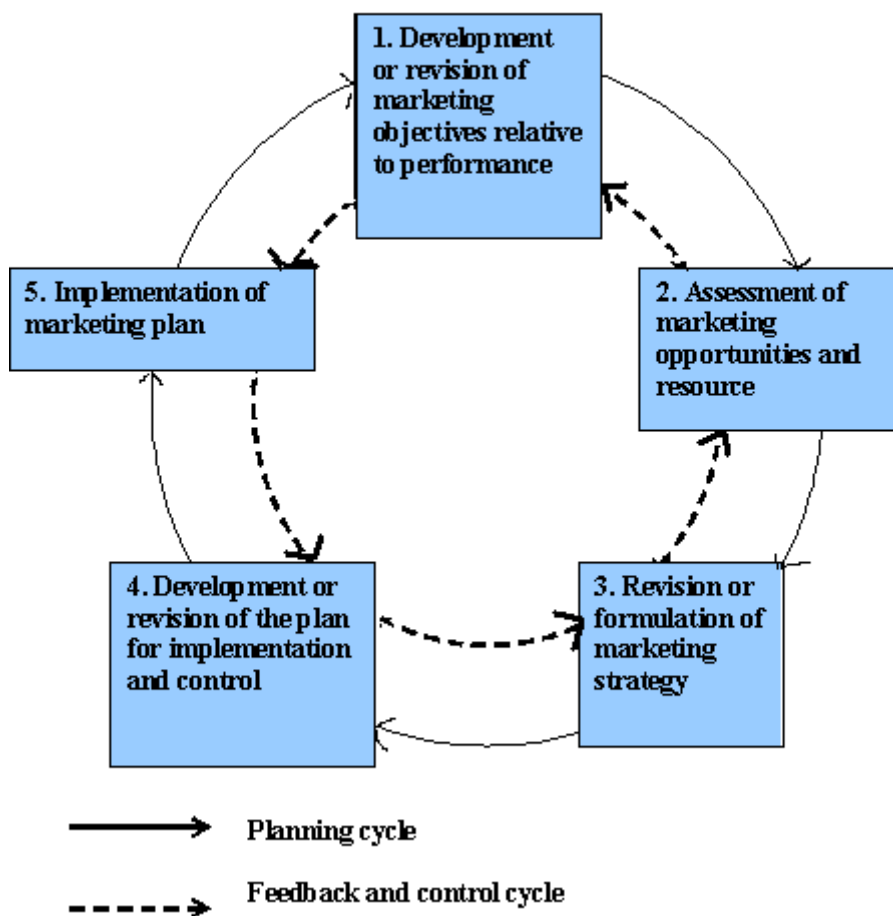


Figure 1 The Marketing Planning Cycle (Dib et al.¹)

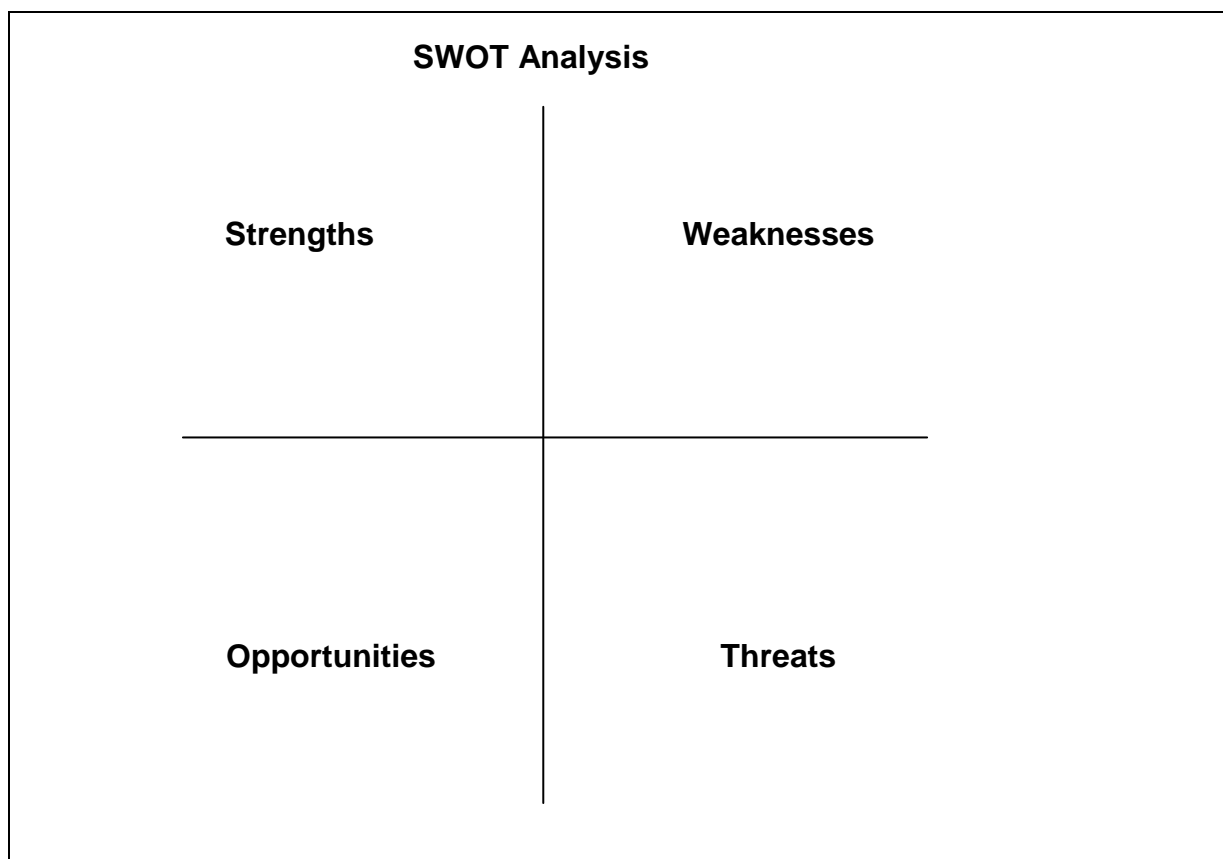
4. Marketing Strategy

4.1. SWOT Analysis

An organisation should develop a robust marketing strategy. The marketing strategy should help achieve the organisation's marketing objectives. This should commence with collecting and analysing information on the business, the markets in which the organisation operates, and the products offered.

The first step in developing a marketing strategy is often the development of a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis. This helps put the organisation into context and identify potential opportunities. The strengths and weaknesses section should include information on the organisational and product positions in relation to organisational resources customers, other organisations, and environmental trends. The opportunities and threats should be outlined and should help in the development of a marketing strategy. The completion of a SWOT analysis should lead to a comprehensive understanding of where the organisation is in its markets, and where it is in relation to its competitors and this will allow

the organisation to focus activities into areas where the organisation is strong and where the greatest opportunities lie. SWOT analysis is sometimes known as situational analysis.



4.2. PEST / PESTLE Analysis

(Sometimes known as STEP) PEST analysis is concerned with the environmental influences on the organisation and can be used by organisations to help form the marketing strategy. The Macro-environment are the external influences that effect the company's planning and performance but are beyond the organisation's control. PEST analysis should also be used in other areas of the organisation where planning is involved.

The factors involved in PEST analysis focus on the organisation's macro-environment – which include:

- Political forces (political environment, government policy, EU policy etc.)
- Economic forces (interest rates, inflation, state of the industry sector, international markets, GDP etc.)
- Social forces (population, , age profile, consumer tastes, religion, leisure time, gender roles within society, longevity of population)
- Technological forces (technology, new technology, new product development)
- Legal forces (local, national, EU and international legislation that affect the organisation)

- Environmental forces (local, national and international environmental issues that affect the organisation).

5. Marketing Objectives

The next stage of a marketing strategy is to set marketing objectives for the organisation. The marketing objective should outline what should be achieved by the organisation's marketing activities, and should include expected results. These objectives should comply with SMART - specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time bound. There is also a need to make sure that the marketing objectives compliment the organisational objectives and mission statement.

Finally, there is a need to focus more closely on the actual products and services, and look at the marketing mix, including the 4Ps (see the section on 4ps). This cycle should be continuous with the outcomes from the 4ps being used to update the marketing objectives, which should be regularly evaluated and reviewed.

6. Differential Advantages

The organisation should be aware of its differential advantages. Why and how is the organisation different from its competitors? Does this help to keep customers? (10:1 ratio, if an organisation loses a customer, it costs 10 times as much to get a new one). Where does the organisation look different from competitors in a way that the customers will appreciate? It can take the organisation a long time to work out its differential advantages. An organisation needs more than 1 differential advantage to keep ahead of its competitors because competitors can copy a differential advantage within a few months.

7. Unique Selling Proposition

The organisation should be aware of its USP (Unique Selling Proposition) which should let customers know why they should deal with your organisation instead of your competitors. The advantages of the USP include identifying to customers what is better about your organisation than your competitors and also it can help the organisation's employees to focus on and deliver the USP, leading to improved organisational performance.

The product is the most important element in a marketing strategy, with price being the second most important. However, price is the most directly controllable element in marketing strategy. Product and price determine 90% of the perception of value for money for the customer. Price is the only element of the marketing mix that directly generates revenue, (the other elements are costs). Organisations often use fully absorbed operating costs to determine product line profitability and hence price levels, which can be misleading.

Common pricing mistakes include:

- Being too cost orientated, with no analysis of market responses
- Pricing being treated as independent from the rest of the marketing mix
- An imbalance between the price of different products in the same product line

8. The Marketing Mix

The marketing mix is made of the different marketing inputs that affect the organisation's customer motivation and behaviour. These inputs consist of four controllable variables (sometimes extended to seven controllable variables).

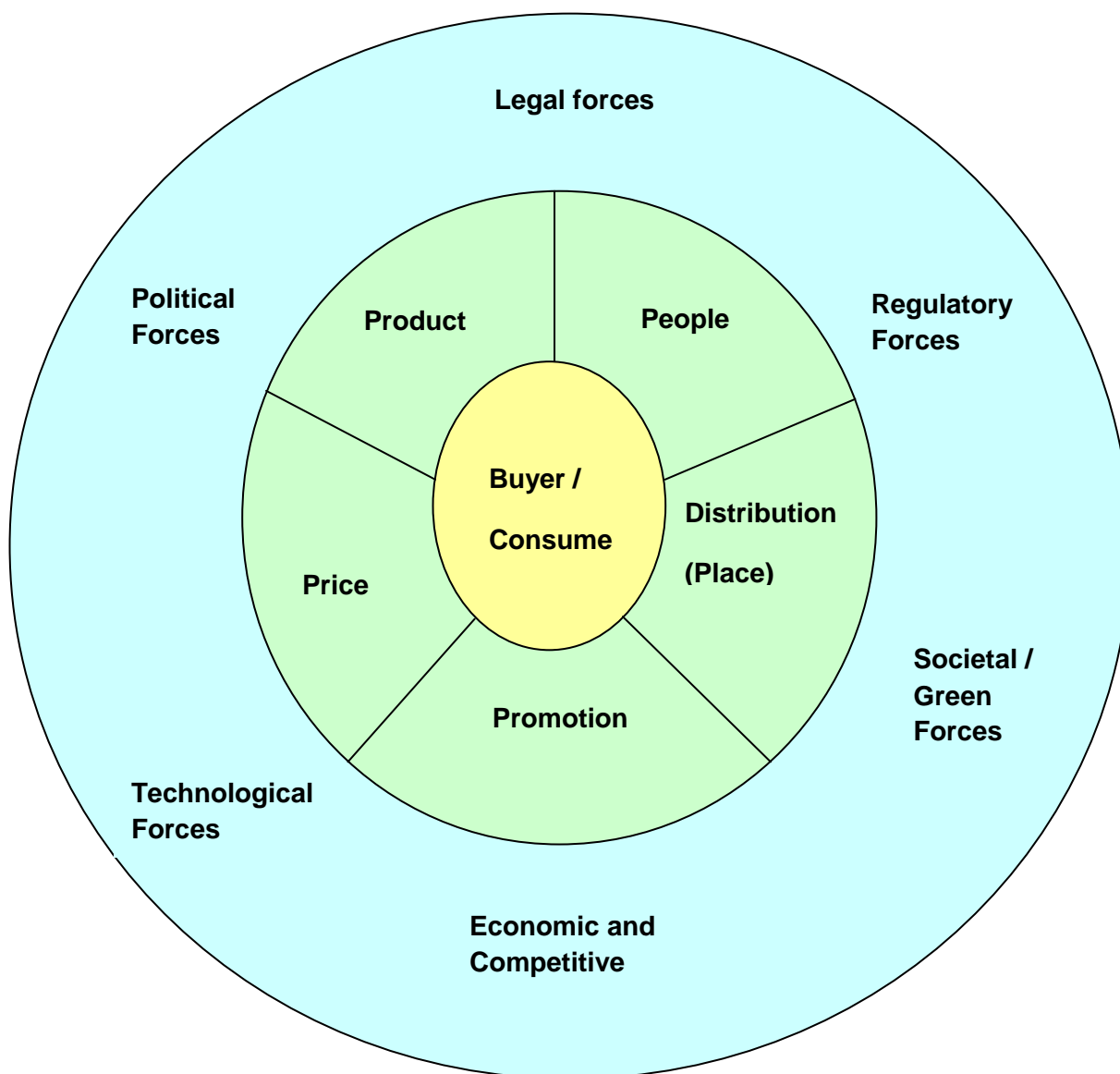


Figure 2 Components of the Marketing Mix and Marketing Environment (from Dibb et al.¹)

8.1. The 4 Ps (product, place, price, promotion) and 7Ps (product, place, price, promotion, process, people, physical evidence)

8.1.1. Product

Relates to the organisation's product(s) and service(s). This is often seen as the most important of the 4Ps. The organisation should know at what stage in the product lifecycle the product(s) are at and the product(s) needs to be viable. (See section on product lifecycle).

8.1.2. Distribution (Place)

Is where products are made available at the right time and place for customer. Additionally, the product should be available in the right quantities. Transportation and storage costs should be kept to a minimum.

8.1.3. Promotion

Promotion is the how to let potential customers know about the organisation and products. Once the SWOT and PEST(LE) analysis are complete, the objectives for advertising and promotion should be written, with promotional problems and opportunities identified. Promotional objectives should communicate the organisation's message; create an awareness of the organisation's product(s) or service(s); motivate customers to buy (and increase sales); or other specific targets. Generally, the promotional area is focused on advertising because advertising is often the lead element in the promotional mix, with other promotional mix elements including sales promotion, direct marketing, and publicity being used to add support to the advertising program.

8.1.4. Price

Pricing involves the establishment of pricing policies. How much should the product be sold for? The pricing process includes looking at the costs involved with the product; looking at what price competitors charge for the same product; understanding the marketing objectives; understanding price elasticity of demand (see economics chapters later in the module handbook); selecting an appropriate pricing method and structure. There is a need to design and apply different pricing strategies at the different stages of the product lifecycle. Usually, prices are highest for a new product but prices start to drop with the arrival of competition.

Drucker⁴ states that 'cost-driven pricing is a deadly sin, the only thing that works is price-driven costing'. Most American and practically all European firms arrive at their prices by adding up costs and then putting a profit margin on top, to the argument that 'we have to recover our costs and make a profit'. This is true but irrelevant: customers do not see it as their job to ensure manufacturers make a profit. The only sound way is to start with what the market is willing to pay, and thus we can assume what the competition will charge, and design to that price specification'.

Alternative Methods of Pricing

Alternative methods of pricing include competitive pricing; where the organisation will try work out the 'going rate' relationship of price quality, and hence, the premium price, parity

(standard) price and low price tactics. The major drawback of this method being that competitors will often try to undercut the price.

The other method is demand oriented pricing; where the organisation decision makers predict volume forecasts for different price levels and then calculate production and marketing costs at different levels to cover overheads, however, this can be difficult to research. This method can succeed in global competition.

Booms and Bitner⁵ extended the 4Ps to include process, people and physical evidence:

8.1.5. People

This relates to the organisation's personnel and can include training, commitment, appearance, behaviour attitudes and beliefs, customer contact.

From a service point of view, the participants aspect is the inseparability of the employee delivering the service and the service/product itself. In the manufacture of a newspaper, the customer in the newspaper shop doesn't come into contact with the employees who manufactured the newspaper. The customer is totally separated from the production of the newspaper, and the customer's point of contact is the newspaper shop and the employee in that shop. To the customer, the product/service mix does not include those employees who were involved in the manufacture of the product.

8.1.6. Physical Evidence

Relates to the tangible aspects including the organisation's environment; hygiene on the premises; the uniforms of the employees; noise; and the decor. Physical evidence can influence the customers' perception of the image or reputation of the organisation.

8.1.7. Process

Relates to the policies and procedures of the organisation, and the manner in which the service is provided to the customer.

8.2. 4 Cs

A number of organisations now use Brunner's (1989) reformulated market mix of the 4Cs (in place of the 4ps). This consists of a concept mix (similar to product mix mentioned above - 4ps), cost mix, (monetary costs, costs incurred by customers obtaining product, e.g. transport costs) channel mix (similar to the /distribution / place mentioned above – 4Ps) and communication mix (promotional aspects, information gathering, market research).

9. Strategic Marketing

Strategic marketing is an organisational wide, proactive, medium to long term method of marketing, usually carried out by the major organisations who operate in high growth dynamic markets. Strategic marketing is analysis-oriented, which should be done on a strategic basis. Strategic marketing should help an organisation identify attractive economic opportunities globally that help the organisation achieve growth and profitability. Organisations that are in different markets should normally use different strategic plans for each market. Questions that should be asked include:

- Who are our major competitors?
- Do we want competitors to join with us?
- Which part of the world is there more business in?
- Which are the up and coming segments trends which will allow the organisation to get market share?

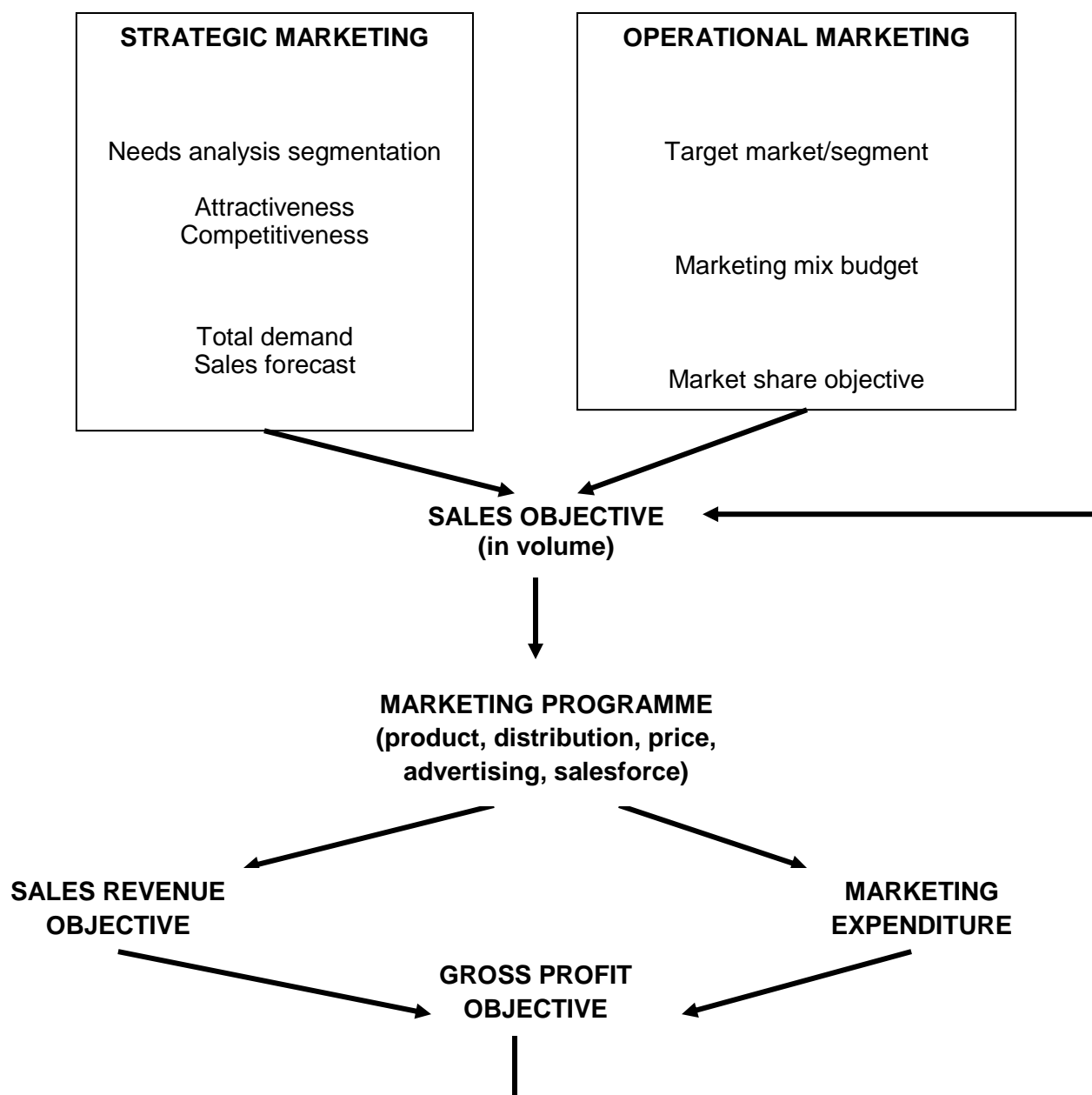


Figure 3 The Integrated Marketing Process (Source Lambin²)

10. Market Segmentation

Many organisations are moving away from using a total market approach, which is a single (mass) marketing mix for all customers (needs and wants) i.e. using a single product / service, similar prices, one distribution method aimed at all customers, towards market segmentation.

Market segmentation is the grouping of similar customers into smaller groups or homogeneous segments. Market segmentation should be the organisation's first strategic decision, i.e. to define the target markets from the overall total market and choose which potential customers to serve and which (if any) markets to enter.

Advantages of market segmentation include that organisations can: often react faster to changes in the environment; understand customer's characteristics, including needs and wants. The target markets should then be split into groups (market segments). It is important for organisation's to know how to effectively segment a market. Segmentation enables an organisation to define the business that the organisation should be in and guide the strategy development.

10.1. Customer Analysis

Organisations should segment their markets because it makes it easier to develop and be more effective at a customer level and leads to better understanding of customers and their requirements. By segmenting their markets an organisation can also identify gaps in the market and future opportunities.

The organisation can then decide how the organisation wants to be perceived in the minds of potential customers, this is known as market positioning. Different market segments can be more price sensitive than other segments, depending on the products/services offered and those of the competition.

10.2. Competitor Analysis

Organisations should know: who are its competitors? what are their products? and to which segments are these products targeted? This can help an organisation avoid head-to-head competition with competitor organisations that have a more superior product and/or more experience and resources. The organisation can then decide which are the best segments to target resources.

10.3. Effective Resource Allocation

Segmenting its markets allows the organisation to focus its resources more effectively on the most appropriate markets.

10.4. How Can An Organisation Achieve Growth?

There are 4 main growth strategies sometimes plotted as an Ansoff Matrix. These include:

Market penetration, where the organisation stays within its current markets using current products trying to gain market share from its competitors and is low risk;

Product development, which involves offering new or improved products and developing them further by expanding product the range, offering the products to the same markets, this involves medium risk;

Market development / extension which develops existing products in new markets (by using new applications or finding new customer groups), which also involves medium risk; and finally,

Market diversification which involves new products in new markets and is high risk.

10.4.1. Buyer Behaviour

An organisation needs to be aware of its customers' buying behaviour to enable the organisation to select the appropriate distribution channel, to make the products available to the customer where and when the customer wants to purchase them. This also relates to the sections on market research and customer care, as it is important for the organisation to know the customers' preferences and purchasing patterns.

Buying decisions consist of 5 roles (each person can take more than one role). These roles are:

- Initiator who suggests buying a certain product
- Influencer who's views are considered in the final buying decision
- Decider who decides if to buy, what to buy, when and where
- Buyer makes the purchase
- User person who uses the product / service bought.

11. Product Mix

The product mix is the composition the organisation's products. The product mix depth is the number of different products in each product line that an organisation has. The product mix width is measured by the number of different product lines. The organisation's product mix should evolve and change over time in line with customer preferences and changing fashions. By using product modification (i.e. changing the product in one or more ways) can give an organisation a competitive advantage and is often less risky and costly than introducing a new product. This is often used in the maturity stage of the product lifecycle (see following section).

12. Branding

Lambin defines brand awareness as 'The ability of a potential buyer to identify (recall or recognise) the brand with sufficient detail to propose, recommend, choose or use the brand to meet the need of a certain product category. Organisations find out about brand awareness by questioning potential customers'. Lambin also outlines the three types of brand awareness as being:

Brand recognition – where the brand recognition precedes and leads to the need. (I recognise this brand and need to buy this product). This is a minimal level of awareness but important at the point of sale when choosing a brand.

Brand recall – where the need for a product category precedes and leads to the brand. (I need this product and need to buy this brand).

Top of the mind awareness – is the first named brand given by a potential customer during a brand recall test. When you think of a newspaper, which is the title that springs to mind?

Winkler (1999) identified 6 common myths relating to branding (in italics) and outlined the new thinking:

- A brand is built over a long time (a brand can be built up at warp speed e.g. Amazon.com)
- A brand is precisely crafted for a tightly defined target (a brand is expansive)
- Advertising is the major creator of a brand (advertising is only one arrow in the quiver)
- Brand the product (brand is a bigger idea)
- The brand needs a manager due to brands being more complex than in the past, with different stakeholders, and constant ambiguity in the brand-building process, the brand needs a shepherd to)
- The brand is a marketing concept (the brand is a financial concept).

Hence, Winkler believes that the brand in the new digital age has:

- A short establishment period;
- A large target base;
- A promotion mix of advertising, world wide web, public relations, consumer service and many more contact points;
- A definition that not only covers the product, but the core idea and the company;
- A changed role of the brand manager;
- A financial approach.

13. Product Lifecycle

Many products are developed but never commercially launched due to production costs, technical difficulties and lack of successful marketing expertise. Products, when introduced to the market place, go through four stages: introduction, growth, maturity and decline. The length of each of these stages depends upon the product and the market. The marketing (promotion, distribution, pricing and market information) should be geared towards each stage of the product lifecycle. Certain marketing techniques can be used to try to prolong a stage of the product lifecycle. The product lifecycle also relates to what sort of customer will buy the product and at what stage in the product lifecycle.

The different stages of a product lifecycle are:

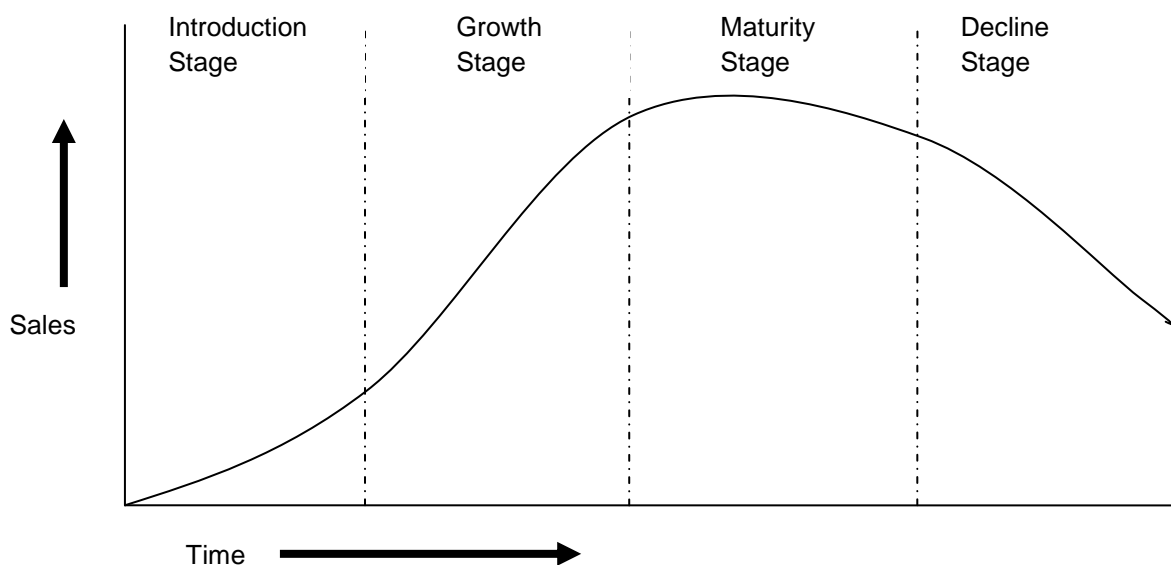


Figure 4 Product Lifecycle showing sales at each stage

Introduction – launching the new product; whilst sales are low and profits are below zero, expenditure can be high due to developmental costs followed by promotion and distribution costs. This can be in the region of many millions of pounds. Dependent upon the industry, the failure rate of new products is high, and can be in the region of 60-80% of new products. The price of the product is often higher in the introduction stage.

Growth – sales rise rapidly with signs of profit. This stage is crucial to the expected life expectancy of the product which is dependent upon competitive reactions to the success of the product. Profit can peak in the growth stage and start to decline towards the end of the growth stage, even though sales are continuing to rise due to more competitors entering the market leading to a decrease in the product price and greater promotional expense to compete.

Maturity – the product is now well established with sales at their peak and beginning to fall with profits still falling. This is the stage where competition is at its strongest, with many brands in the market and weaker competitors being squeezed out of the market. Competitors will highlight the differences and improvements in their product. Organisations will make a two pronged promotional and distribution effort, focussing on both consumers and distributors.

Decline – sales and profits are falling. This stage can also be brought about by changes in fashion and development in technology. The organisation should consider stopping promoting the product and withdrawing the product from the market.

14. Knowing Your Customer

Different people are attracted to buy products at different stages of a product lifecycle (see Figure 4).

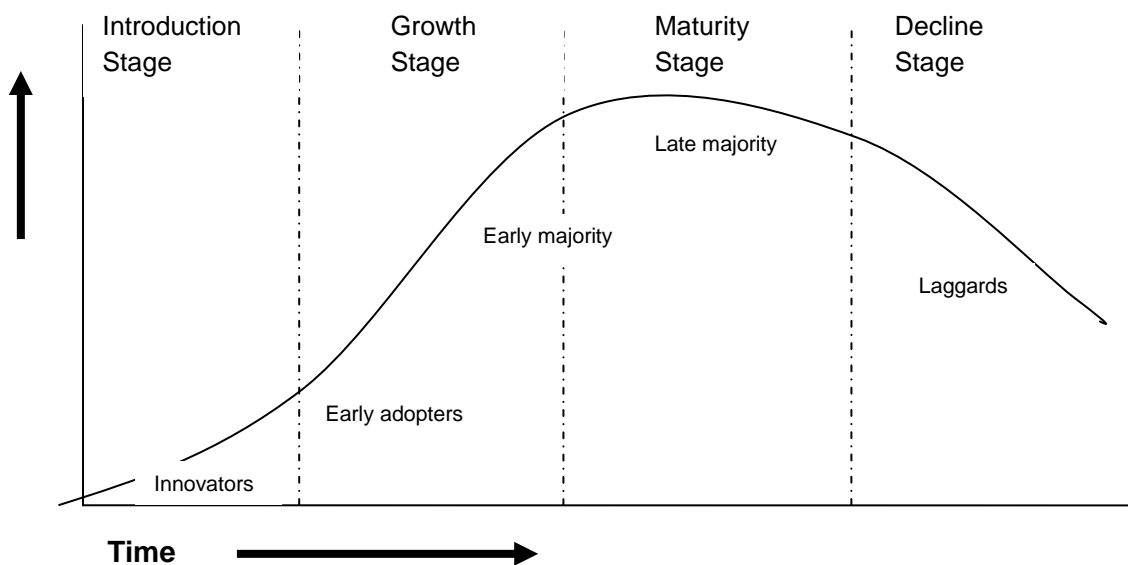


Figure 5 Distribution of product adopter categories

Innovators – are the first people to buy and try a new product and will often try a new product just because it is new. They are willing to pay a premium price. This group make up 2.5% of those who will buy the product.

Early adopters – will buy the product carefully. This group make up 13.5% of those who will buy the product.

Early majority – Will buy the product just before the average person and will often wait until more than one product is available to compare. This group make up 34% of those who will buy the product.

Late majority – although being sceptical about new products, they will eventually buy them. However, they will look to see if the early majority are happy with the product. This group make up 34% of those who will adopt the product.

Laggards – the last group of customers to buy a new product, often when this group buy the product it has been superseded by a newer product and is cheap to buy. This group make up 16% of those who will adopt the product.

15. Market Position

The BCG (Boston Consulting Group) matrix was introduced in 1969 and is often used to categorise where products are in their lifecycles. The matrix will allow an organisation to allocate resources across its product ranges (see Figure 6). Organisations should have products that are cash cows, stars and possibly question marks.

Cash Cow - products that have a large market share in a mature, slow growing industry. Cash cows will often fund their own growth and help fund future research and development. Organisation should make sure that the cash cow product doesn't go into decline, and the

organisation should apply an appropriate marketing mix to try and prevent this from happening

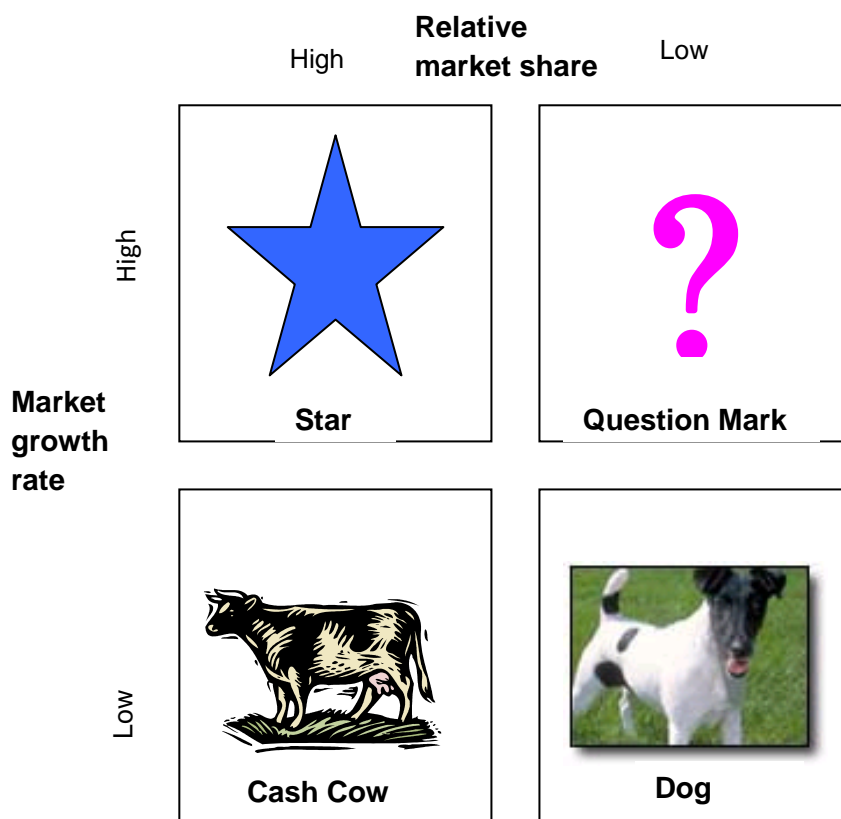


Figure 6 BCG 'Boston' Product Market Position Matrix

Star – product with a large market share in a mature, slow growing industry. Although stars may generate cash, they often need resources to keep their lead. A star can become a cash cow, if successful.

Question Mark (or Problem Child) – product with a small market share in a high-growth market. Question marks need resources to be able to grow. Organisations often put a lot of resources in to these products hoping that they will become stars.

Dog – small market share in a mature market. If the performance of this product doesn't improve, the product should be discontinued.

16. Marketing Communications

Marketing communications includes well-formed strategy; studying the target audiences; communication to all internal and external constituents using clear, concise messaging. Market communication planning combines the understanding of the organisation's business process with creativity.

Integrated marketing communication involves the co-ordination of an organisation's message between different media and the consistency of the message throughout. It should also form part of the organisation's marketing plan to capture and uses the customer information gathered to help set and track the marketing strategy. It is also a factor in the brand administration. Integrated marketing communication uses business and management practices including management by objectives, TQM (total quality management), relationship marketing, target marketing, direct response marketing, mission marketing and database marketing.

17. The Promotional Mix

There organisation can use a number of different promotional methods to communicate with its customers / potential customers. These methods can be used either individually or in conjunction with others. The most common methods include: advertising, personal selling, public relations, sales promotion, sponsorship and direct mail.

17.1. Advertising

Advertising is a means of non-personal communication using mass mediums including television, radios, newspapers and magazines, display poster boards, public transport and direct mail. Advertising allows consumers to learn about the distinctive characteristics of a particular product or service. Advantages include that it can be cost effective in reaching lots of people for a low cost per person. (although this in turn can be a disadvantage as whilst the cost per person is low, the cost overall can be high, for example, prime time television advertising).

17.2. Personal Selling

Personal selling is a more specific communication aimed at individuals. Whilst personal selling has often got higher individual costs than advertising, personal selling often has a higher impact on individuals and provides instant feedback. Telemarketing is a popular form of personal selling as is meeting customers one to one, where the salesperson is often trained to read the customer's body language.

17.3. Public Relations

The publicity part of public relations often refers to the press releases that an organisation releases to the media (at no cost to the organisation), in the hope that the media will publish the article. In the printing and allied industries the publicity is often done through print and ink related journals. There are costs incurred in preparing the material, which can either be done in house or outsourced to a specialist PR agency.

17.4. Sales Promotion

Is where an organisation offers added value or an incentive for the product direct to consumers, to resellers or sales people. This includes money off coupons, bonuses, competitions and tokens (to collect). This technique is used intermittently i.e. as and when, rather than continuously. Sales promotions are gaining popularity.

17.5. Sponsorship

Dib et al define sponsorship as 'The financial or material support of an event, activity, person, organisation or product by an unrelated organisation or donor. Funds are made available to the recipient of the sponsorship in return for the prominent exposure.'

17.6. Direct Marketing

This includes direct mail, telephone selling, direct response media, coupons, freephone numbers, Internet, hotlines. Direct marketing is very good for niching. Direct marketing is often used to protect and maintain the market share.

17.7. Direct Mail

The concept of direct mail has existed for several decades. Many printing companies are now involved in direct mail. Direct mail can be aimed at consumers and businesses.

17.8. Customer Portfolio Management

Organisations can look at which customers are most valuable and profitable to the business by working out the costs of all customers, (see figure 1.10). This can be difficult to do but very worthwhile. The organisation can then allocate appropriate time and resources to the best customers.

Khan states the uses of the 80:20 law 'where 80 per cent of revenue is generated by 20 per cent of customers and costs follow a 90:10 law, where 90 per cent of costs are generated by 10 per cent of "whiny" customers'. She discusses cutting the costs of dealing with customers who do not meet the criteria for extra attention and using these savings on customers who should get more attention, leading to greater profitability for the organisation and retention of the best customers.

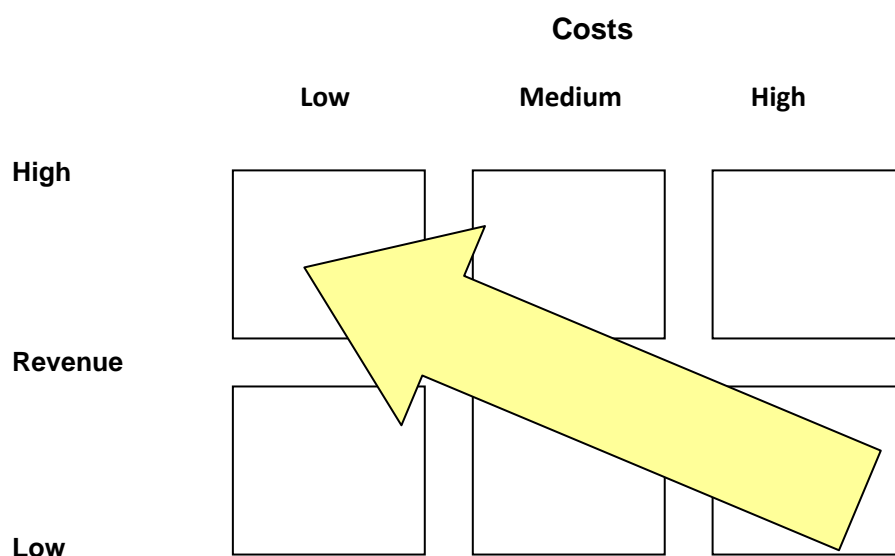


Figure 10 Customer Equity Grid

18. Customer Care

Customer care is a marketing technique that allows the use of CRM (customer relationship marketing) to help achieve customer satisfaction. Organisations can use their customer care procedures to develop and build information on their customers. The organisation can then use this profile to maintain customer satisfaction. It costs an organisation 10 times more to gain new customers as it does to maintain old ones.

In the highly competitive UK printing industry, there is a need for good customer care and customer relationship marketing in all aspects of the day to day interaction with the customer to help differentiate the printing company from its competitors. There is a need to devise a customer care policy and carry out associated training, with all employees who deal with the customer.

19. Customer Relationship Marketing

Customer relationship marketing is achieved by identifying, attracting and retaining the best customers to help sustain the organisation's profitable growth. There is a need for organisations to be more customer-focused, (as opposed to product-focused) to effectively compete. Customer relationship management can assist in the integration of the customer focused approach throughout the organisation.

Khan⁶ believes that 'relationship marketing is grounded in the idea of establishing a learning relationship with customers'. Organisations need to focus on those customers that are perceived to be long-term and profitable customers worth building a relationship with. The organisation should record all contacts with their customers to build up information about their customers, including preferences. Customer preferences can be developed transparently by observing and noting any requests a customer makes and automatically giving the customer the same products next time without being asked. Preferences can also be developed collaboratively with the customer.

Organisations have realised that existing customers are more lucrative, more receptive and less expensive than new customers.

20. Integrated Marketing Communications

Communication is not just about what you tell your audience. It is important to find out what your audience has understood and if they remember what you were trying to tell them over time. Integrated marketing communications uses a combined approach to give brands one voice (i.e. the same brand message) across many different media formats.

Ritson believes that there are 4 steps to integrated marketing:

20.1. Understanding the Consumer

Brand managers need to understand the consumer decision making process and accept that there is no magic formula or model available for how consumers make a purchase. Brand managers need to use quantitative and qualitative research to help understand consumers.

Organisations have realised the importance of the ‘grey market’ with over 50% of disposable income being in the hands of the over 50s.

20.2. Zero Based Budgeting

Ritson cites a move away from the traditional method of calculating a budget of advertising-to-sales ratio (often 5% – 10% of anticipated revenue).

Zero based budgeting is best carried out by the brand manager identifying the activities that need to be carried out and then assessing them. This is followed by a calculation to work out the effects that must happen relating to the consumer from the consumer’s decision-making sequence through to purchase. Ritson states that ‘the secret of this process is not the act of purchase from the other equally essential stages in any consumer’s decision-making. One cannot happen without the other.’ The final budget should consist of a strategically derived breakdown of how the budget should be spent.

20.3. Selecting The Mix

Figure 11 shows the 5 different types of marketing communication. The most appropriate type will depend on the brand and consumers:

	Awareness	Knowledge	Liking	Preference	Purchase	Relationship
Advertising	National advertising campaign			Brand building with cultural associations		
Public Relations	Pre-launch and launch of new products	Third-party reviews and information				
Direct Marketing					Ordering through catalogues and telemarketing	Building relationships with direct mail
Internet						User groups and specialty
Sales promotion				Immediate preference gained from offer	Encourage sale/trial	

Figure 11 Suitable areas for different IMC tools

20.4. Continual Review

There is the need to recognise that markets evolve and hence, strategies should evolve, too. Brand managers need to keep collecting relevant and up to date information about customers.

21. References

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22. Summary Checklist

This chapter has explained a variety of Marketing Concepts and Marketing Tools. Each company or business will at different times need to use a selection of Marketing techniques. Generally however, in devising a Marketing Strategy a business will go through a 4 stage process. • •

	Understand	Need to review
Where are we now?		
This will typically involve, Market Research, a SWOT or PEST Analysis and an examination of the Product Portfolio using tools such as the Boston Matrix or the Product Life Cycle concept.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Where do we want to go?		
Having established the situation a company will then determine its Marketing aims and objectives. The latter will usually be defined as SMART objectives. An Ansoff Matrix will often be used as a planning tool here together with information from tools and research carried out during the "Where are we now stage"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How are we going to get there?		
Having established the objectives the company will decide on the appropriate Marketing Mix to achieve the objectives. Simply this will involve making decisions about each of the 4 Ps which will form the right balance of informing (promotion) the Market about the availability (place) of the appropriate product at the right price to induce customers to take advantage of the proposition	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How do we know that we have been successful?		
Having launched the Marketing Plan it is important that companies measure the success by ensuring that indicators are measured. Typically these could be sales figures, profit figures, income figures or customer satisfaction surveys.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Every Marketing Strategy and Plan will be different but it is important that the plans are based on more than gut instinct and using the models and tools in this booklet in the way described in this section should ensure that you do not go too far wrong. • •		