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Ich versichere in der vorliegenden Diplomarbeit nur die angeführten Quellen verwendet und die Arbeit an keiner anderen Universität als Prüfungsarbeit eingereicht zu haben.

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FOR
MY BELOVED ONES

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ABSTRACT

The increasing amount of money marketers spend every year on building distinctive brand images and promoting these via advertising results in a constantly growing creativity and ever new alternatives in positioning brands. Hence, marketers as well as academics face an unmanageable complexity in brand positioning alternatives. This is not a new issue in international marketing, but there has already been a long discussion about brand positioning and applied positioning alternatives. Various models and positioning classification schemes were derived during the last 30 to 40 years for the sake of clarity. However, there still is confusion about which positioning alternatives are state-of-the-art and whether outdated positioning alternatives should ever be discarded. Furthermore with the increasing number of positioning alternatives used by marketers today, questions about usage patterns throughout different product categories or markets rise.

This thesis seeks to address the issue by investigating both – existing positioning classification schemes and currently applied positioning alternatives. On the one hand it builds upon existing literature and classification schemes and seeks to derive a generally applicable and all encompassing positioning typology. On the other hand an empirical analysis of positioning alternatives as depicted in print advertisements seeks to ensure that no state-of-the-art positioning element is left out from the typology and that outdated alternatives are abject. Within the empirical study it is further investigated if marketers show certain patterns in positioning across various product categories or markets.

Analyses of existing positioning classification schemes and current positioning alternatives from print advertisements resulted in the development of a complexity-reducing positioning classification scheme. It was revealed that both positioning alternatives from outdated, hence, incomplete typologies as well as positioning elements not yet included in any classification are currently applied by marketers. Thus, the empirical investigation of print advertisements allows concluding that usage patterns of positioning alternatives vary in frequency and way of execution between goods and services, furthermore across different product categories and markets. The findings also allow giving recommendations to optimize impact of future positioning.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Positioning is viewed to be the heart of marketing strategy (Keller, 2003), thus is one of the most important activities in marketing brands and companies today. The concept of positioning is viewed as the foundation of business strategy (Wind, 1982; Day et al., 1990). Positioning is defined as designing a company's offering and image to occupy a certain place in the mind of target consumers, whereas the end-result is the successful creation of a consumer-focused value proposition. Consequently this is the reason why consumers buy the product (Kotler, 2003, p. 308). It addresses the question of how is one product or brand different from others (Crawford, 1985). The concept of positioning has a huge impact on the financial performance of a brand (Ries and Trout, 1986; Day et al., 1990) as well as on brand equity (Keller, 2003). Research (Brooksbank, 1994) showed that companies which perform positioning well are more successful in the long run than those that do not.

The concept of positioning can be divided into strategic (market) positioning (i.e. identifying and selecting a market which represents business potential, targeting vulnerable competitors, and devising a strategy to compete (DiMingo, 1988)) and psychological (brand) positioning (i.e. forging a product identity based on strategic (market) positioning and using the tools of communication to move the prospect toward the buying position (DiMingo, 1988)), whereas the following research focuses on the latter. Brand positioning (in the following also simply referred to as "positioning") is all about finding the proper location in the minds of target consumers, so that they think of the product in a desired way (Keller, 2003). Sound positioning clarifies for consumers what the offered brand is all about (Keller, 2003). Therefore a product's position is central to consumers' perceptions and choice decisions (Aaker and Shansby, 1982) and also implies a consistent program for the whole marketing mix. Managers establish valuable positions for their products in the minds of their target consumers, otherwise (i.e. if the position is indistinguishable from others) prospects have no reason to buy (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). The concept of positioning gets ever more crucial for the successful promotion of products, as products (especially FMCG) themselves become more similar and interchangeable (Frazer, 1983). Positioning your product means being heard in a communication overloaded world (Ries and Trout, 1986).

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The term and concept is considered to account for an essential part of modern marketing among researchers (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Park et al., 1986; Porter, 1996; Wind, 1982; Frazer, 1983; Kotler, 2003) and practitioners alike (Ries and Trout, 1986; Trout and Rivkin, 1996). Still positioning is not always deliberately utilized by marketers who sometimes do not seem to be familiar with the term of positioning at all (Brooksbank, 1994) and assign different meanings to the concept of positioning (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Despite the confusion and disagreement as to the meaning of the concept a majority of authors support the definition by Kotler (2003, p. 308):

“Positioning is the act of designing the company’s offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market.”

In this context a positioning strategy is the attempt to move a brand or product towards the desired position in the consumer’s mind in relation to competitors (Dillon et al., 1986). Despite the importance and heavy use of positioning, most literature and work is of conceptual, rather descriptive kind (Wind, 1982; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Ries and Trout, 1986). Different positioning typologies (i.e. systematic classifications of positioning alternatives according to common characteristics (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004)) which are tools to conceptualize and categorize different positioning strategies were developed over time. Some of these are conceptual in nature (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Ries and Trout, 1986) others with rather limited empirical evidence (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004), and again, others which were based on managerial experience and views (Frazer, 1983; Arnott, 1992). Despite the existence of various typologies, consistency on an all applicable typology of positioning strategies in the area of consumer marketing is missing.

Existing typologies are either incomplete (e.g. Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Ries and Trout, 1986), not state-of-the-art (for instance Crawford, 1985) or not applicable across different product categories (e.g. Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). Crawford’s comprehensive typology (1985) may be outdated, as the range of choices to position a brand is continuously expanding (Crawford, 1985). New positioning strategies evolve over time in search for competitive advantage; hence, any claim within a positioning strategy needs to be rechecked at a later date (Easingwood and Mahajan,

1989). Furthermore, most of them are conceptually derived (see Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004); however, they do not always contain positioning elements from other existing typologies. Another lack in current literature and research is that there is hardly any knowledge about positioning strategies employed by global brands. Are brands positioned along the same positioning alternatives across markets? Do positions exist within product classes which are already heavily occupied and therefore not helpful in differentiation anymore?

The aim of this work is to empirically document positioning strategies as applied by global brands in today's consumer markets. Specifically, after giving a review of available literature about the concept of positioning and existing positioning typologies, a comprehensive positioning classification scheme categorizing the elements along which brands can be positioned is conceptually derived. The applicability of this positioning typology is further empirically tested investigating positioning alternatives as depicted in print advertisements. In addition, the classification scheme is expanded and/ or reduced by elements encountered/ not encountered in the course of this content analysis of advertisements. Finally today's positioning practices as applied in print advertisements are documented and managerial recommendations of best positioning practices are derived.

In the following chapter a brief conceptual background on positioning is provided, followed by an exploration of the positioning process as part of the segmentation, targeting and positioning sequence (STP model). Finally existing typologies are introduced and respective strength and weaknesses are discussed.

2 REVIEW OF EXISTING LITERATURE

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF POSITIONING

Although there is a wealth of literature about positioning, the concept itself is still subject to confusion (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; DiMingo, 1988). There are several guidelines and best practices which marketers need to be aware of in positioning their products and brands. But before going into detail about the process of positioning it is necessary to clarify what positioning is. To best understand the concept, a distinction can be made “between true market positioning and its logical antecedent – psychological positioning” (DiMingo, 1988, p. 34). There is a vast variety of definitions available in literature supporting the existence of these two subcategories of positioning – in the following referred to as strategic vs. brand positioning. Nevertheless neither marketers nor practitioners agree on a widely accepted definition, hence you will find a broad overview of diverse definitions with a focus on brand positioning as the research at hand deals with this domain (see **table 1**).

2.1.1 Definitions

Table 1 Definitions of positioning		
Positioning	Author, Year, Page	Definition
Strategic positioning	Porter, 1996, p. 62	Strategic positioning “... means performing different activities from rivals’ or performing similar activities in different ways.”
Strategic positioning	Jobber, 2007, p. 313	“The choice of target market (where the company wishes to compete) and differential advantage (how the company wishes to compete).”
Brand positioning	Day, 1984, p. 92	“Product positioning refers to the customer’s perceptions of the place a product or brand occupies in a given market segment. “
Brand	Ries and Trout, 1986,	“Positioning is not what you do to a product.

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positioning	p. 19	Positioning is what you do to the mind of the prospect. That is, you position the product in the mind of the prospect”,
Brand positioning	Friedmann and Lessig, 1987, p. 266	“...the key factor in product positioning is the position or image of a firm’s product in the consumer’s mind. ...the evaluation is based upon the consumer’s subjective perception of the brand rather than upon an objective brand profile.”
Brand positioning	Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989, p. 207	“A position refers to the place a product or service occupies in a given market. In particular, it describes the position or image of the firm’s product in the consumer’s mind.”
Brand positioning	Quelch, 1991, p. 190	“Positioning is a management concept of where a product or service should stand in the marketplace relative to competitive products and services.”
Brand positioning	Arnott, 1992, p. 111-114	Positioning “is the deliberate, proactive, iterative process of defining, measuring, modifying and monitoring consumer perceptions of a marketable offering
Brand positioning	Trout and Rivkin, 1996, p. 54	“Positioning is simply concentrating on an idea – or even a word – that defines the company in the minds of consumers.”
Brand positioning	Evans et al., 1996, p. 168	“Positioning is therefore the process of designing an image and value so that consumers within the target segment understand what the company or brand stands for in relation to its competitors.”
Brand positioning	Wilson and Gilligan, 1997, p. 302	“... is the process of designing an image and value so that the consumer within the target segment understands what the company or brand stand for in relation to its competitors.”
Brand	Keller, 2003, p. 119	“Positioning is all about identifying the optimal

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Positioning		location of a brand and its competitors in the minds of consumers to maximize potential benefit to the firm.”
Brand Positioning	Kotler, 2003, p. 308	“Positioning is the act of designing the company’s offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market. The end-result of positioning is the successful creation of a customer-focused value proposition, a cogent reason why the target market should buy the product.”
Brand positioning	Kapferer, 2004, p. 99	“Positioning a brand means emphasizing the distinct characteristics that make it different from its competitors and appealing to the public.”
Brand positioning	Day et al., 1990, p. 387	“Positioning, the place a product occupies in a given market – as perceived by its target segment(s) – is the product’s reason for being, the reason why consumers buy it. “

So the definition which I derive therefore reads as follows.

“Positioning is the process of creating a unique image or value proposition to occupy a distinctive place in the minds of the target market by emphasizing a differential advantage of the product relatively to competitors to generate a profit for the brand.”

Consequently, it can be distinguished between two broad concepts of positioning, whereas the distinction is drawn based on the place where positioning happens – the marketplace vs. the consumer’s mind (Evans et al., 1996). The two distinct approaches to positioning are strategic (market) positioning and brand (psychological) positioning (DiMingo, 1988; Ellson, 2004). Both concepts are interdependent whereas one affects the other (Evans et al., 1996).

2.1.2 Strategic (Market) Positioning

Strategic (market) positioning is “the process of identifying and selecting a market or segment that represents business potential, targeting vulnerable competitors, and devising a strategy to compete” (DiMingo, 1988, p. 35). In this respect strategy refers to “the creation of a unique and valuable position, involving a different set of activities” (Porter, 1998, p. 55). Consequently strategic positioning involves making trade-offs, i.e. managers need to decide what to focus on. It is about combining a different set of activities as rivals whereas all activities need to fit, complement one another and reinforce each other in order to reduce costs, increase differentiation and create a high degree of sustainability to deliver a unique mix of values (Porter, 1996). Market positioning is viewed as an a priori act of brand (psychological) positioning, it is about the determination of strategy (Ellson, 2004), thus, it is ahead of segmentation, targeting and brand positioning. It is sustained by the capabilities and competencies of a company (Ellson, 2004).

Strategic positioning is said to provide the identity and direction by specifying how a business intends to compete in the markets it wants to serve, and the results it wants to achieve (Day, 1990). It is a means of matching resources, skills and competencies to the changing environment (Porter, 1979). Therefore it is essential to know what the market wants, what your own and your competitors’ strengths are and to utmost meet market requirements better than any company (DiMingo, 1988). “Competence and therefore core strengths are the rationale for a company’s ability to deliver superior value... The rule for positioning therefore is to play your own game and resist temptations to try to be all things to all people“, (Czepiel, 1992, p. 129). Ellson (2004) suggests that the consistency between interests and competencies of the business and the target market is possibly the source of strategic positioning. Therefore he concludes in his 2004 research that the recognition of capability and preference in an organization, a decision of whom or what the company is, should happen before the process of segmenting or targeting is initiated. Ellson (2004) views this a priori approach central to strategic positioning. “The starting point for the formulation of strategy should be a statement of identity and purpose of defining what it is capable of doing rather than a definition based upon the needs that the business seeks to satisfy” (Ellson, 2004, p. 48).

Furthermore it stems from three distinct sources. A strategic position may be based on (1) producing a subset of an industry's products or service (variety-based positioning), (2) serving most of the needs of your target group (needs-based positioning as IKEA applies it) or (3) segmenting prospects according to their accessibility (access-based positioning) (Porter, 1996).

However attention needs to be paid not to confuse and mix up the concepts of strategic (market) positioning and the broader concept of corporate strategy or more specific concepts (such as brand positioning) (Brooksbank, 1994). The strategic perspective is a longer-term approach to operational plans and promotional props; it rather represents the real company, its culture and personality as suggested by company history, than a glimpse of how it wishes to be perceived by others (Ellson, 2004). Hence, strategic market positioning sets the direction for operational positioning.

2.1.3 Operational (Brand) Positioning

(interchangeably referred to as “brand positioning” , “psychological positioning” or simply “positioning”). In contrast to strategic positioning, it deals with “forging a distinctive corporate or product identity closely based on market positioning factors and then using the tools of communication to move the prospect toward the buying position” (DiMingo, 1988, p. 35). Brand positioning is viewed as a powerful marketing tool in competitive warfare (Ries and Trout, 1986; Park et al., 1986; Ellson, 2004).

Contrary to strategic positioning, which focuses on building capabilities to defend against competitive forces (Porter, 1979), the focus of brand positioning lies on consumer attitudes and perceptions (Ellson, 2004). Not what happens to the product, but what marketers do in the minds of consumers is crucial in brand positioning (Ries and Trout, 1986). Brand positioning involves finding the proper location in the minds of prospects in order for them to think of the brand or products in the desired way (Keller, 2003). The objective is to highlight characteristics which differentiate a product from competitive offerings and make it appealing to the target group (Kapferer, 1998) by creating associations which favorably change consumer perceptions.

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Identical products may be perceived as different after being successfully positioned (Evans et al., 1996; Day et al., 1990). Market-determined values are translated into clear language and images to install a product or brand in the consumer's mind (DiMingo, 1988). Look at United Airlines for instance: after heavy customer research the company found out that friendly service was a way to differentiate from other airlines. The result was their successful campaign "Fly the friendly skies" where United Airlines breathed life into the abstract thought. Consequently psychological positioning is informed by the content of strategic (market) positioning (DiMingo, 1988), they are interdependent.

DiMingo (1988) further suggests that the strategic market position previously formed is communicated through transportation tools such as packaging, advertising, public relations as well as sales promotion. For successful communication the whole marketing mix conveys the correct positioning message (Evans et al., 1996). A quality positioning, for instance, has impact on product, price, distribution, and promotion, as all 4 P's convey the high-quality message (product – quality ingredients, price – higher price, place – distribution via selected outlets only, promotion – benefits and values related to quality, and even packaging – exclusive material).

Brand positioning aims at making a brand to be perceived unique, likeably, trustworthy and different. In more detail, Keller (2003) suggests to emphasize both points of difference and points of parity. The focus lies on communicating points of difference which are strong, favorable, unique brand associations based on any type of attribute or benefit for a brand. Consumers believe not to find these in competitive offerings (Keller, 2003). However, marketers should not neglect points of parity associations (similarities) a brand has with competitive offerings. These are associations which consumers view as being mandatory to be part of a certain product category (Keller, 2003).

Keller (2003) further advocates that points of difference can be broadly classified to be either functional and performance-related or abstract, image-related considerations. With this distinction and classification Keller is not alone, there are also approaches by other authors (Crask and Laskey, 1990; Evans et al., 1996; Park et al., 1986) which follow a somewhat similar comparison, but use different naming. This means in detail that the classification into functional and emotional positioning, which Keller applies to

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differentiation as the basis for positioning, is also applied to positioning as a whole by other authors (Crask and Laskey, 1990; Claeys et al., 1995; Laskey et al., 1995; Evans et al., 1996). “A brand concept is a firm-selected brand meaning derived from basic consumer needs (functional, symbolic and experiential)” (Park et al., 1986, p. 136). Therefore consumer needs are next to a company’s internal situation (resources, image, current product lines) the most crucial factor for selecting the brand concept and positioning.

Brand positioning based on benefits which are related to consumers’ hedonic needs and values, imagery, symbolism and lifestyle, is referred to as emotional or transformational positioning (Evans et al., 1996). Products are also bought to fulfill internally generated needs (Park et al., 1986), e.g. for reasons of ego gratification, social acceptance and sensory stimulation (Claeys et al., 1995). The consumer aspires to be linked to a certain group or self-image by purchasing the brand, practical usage is merely incidental (Bhat and Reddy, 1998). Consequently product evaluation is for a big amount influenced by emotion and affect as suggested by Claeys et al. (1995).

Whereas if the benefit refers to the attribute or a bundle of attributes which cause the benefit, Evans et al. (1996) talk about functional or informational positioning. “Products are bought for utilitarian needs, where the main focus lies on functional performance”, (Claeys et al., 1995, p. 194). “A brand with a functional concept is defined as one designed to solve externally generated consumption needs” (Park et al., 1986, p. 136). Therefore information is processed cognitively with no or little emotion and consumers look for factual brand cues (Crask and Laskey, 1990) to subjectively position the brand in their mind.

The decision about which needs (functional or emotional) brand positioning should be based on (as subordinate level) limits the scope of positioning strategies and impacts the development of the marketing plan, consequently also the perceived brand position (Park et al., 1986). **Figure 1** illustrates how the single positioning concepts are interrelated to form the complete concept of positioning.

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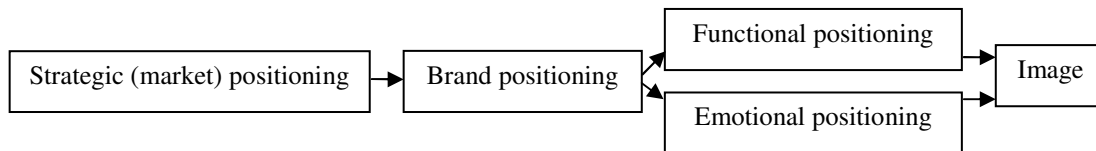


Figure 1: The concept of positioning

The terms of image, positioning and differentiation which were frequently used in the previous lines are closely related to each other. Brand image can be defined as “perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory” (Keller, 1993, p. 3). Consequently, brand image is on the receiver’s (the consumer’s) side, it refers to the way in which the target group decodes all the signals emanating from products and communication covered by the brand (Kapferer, 2004). Image is about which values a product, brand or company represents according to consumers’ perceptions. It is made up of both the consumer’s subjective knowledge and experiences as well as valuations (Scheuch, 2007) “derived from the total set of brand-related activities engaged by the firm”, (Park et al., 1986, p. 135). A well-communicated image intends to support and establish a brand’s position; brand image further protects a brand’s position from competition (Park et al., 1986). The goal is to meet market requirements and satisfy consumer needs through the development of one (or more) benefit(s) or a value package perceived by consumers through the brand’s image (Levy, 1959).

Image is part of the positioning process by helping to communicate benefits and values (Evans et al., 1996). But positioning “differs from the older term image in that it implies a frame of reference, the reference point usually being the competition”, (Aaker and Shansby, 1982, p. 56). Consequently a brand or product can never be positioned alone (Evans et al., 1996), therefore it is suggested that consumers always compare a product with alike competitive offerings and the positions they claim according to their subjective perceptions (Aaker, 1992). Consumers hold subjective mental maps of every product category based on actual usage, beliefs and/ or associations about the brands derived from exposure to advertisements about the brand (Dillon et al., 1986). The location of a brand within the map is referred to as a brand’s position (Aaker, 1992; Dillon et al., 1986).

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As can be concluded differentiation is strongly linked to the position a brand has in relation to competitors, it is the reason why consumers position a product in a certain way. "Product differentiation is the practical part of positioning goods and services so that they are recognizably different from their competitors as measured in terms of their positions on the product space, the map of competitive brand positions", (Czinkota and Kotabe; 2001; p. 206). Differentiation is the consumer's basis for choosing a certain brand over another; its purpose is to convey a unique image in consumers' minds (Aaker, 2003). As Kotler, Keller and Bliemel (2007, p. 402) put it "differentiation is the assessment of different characteristics of objects of comparison by the consumer in the target market". Hence, differentiation can be either real (the product is objectively different – physical and/ or non-physical – from other competing ones) or imagined/ perceived by consumers (differences perceived by consumers do not necessarily equal objective differences) (Evans et al., 1996).

2.2 THE POSITIONING PROCESS

2.2.1 The STP Model

After providing an understanding of the different kinds of positioning (i.e. strategic vs. brand positioning) and their purpose let us turn to the process of brand positioning itself. Brand positioning is viewed as part of the segmentation, targeting and positioning model (STP) by a vast part of researchers (Evans et al., 1996; Kotler, 2003; Crawford, 1985; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Myers, 1996; Friedmann and Lessig, 1987). The model can be viewed as the basis for marketing strategy as a whole (Kotler, 2003; Aaker and Shansby, 1982).

A sequence of three steps is involved, whereas the first one is referred to as market segmentation (Kotler, 2003; Friedmann and Lessig, 1987; Evans et al., 1996). "Market segmentation is the act of dividing a market into a number of mutually exclusive submarkets", (Friedmann and Lessig, 1987, p. 266). It is of utmost importance to investigate your customers in order to identify important product associations they have and then group consumers into segments according to their associations (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Wind (1982) emphasizes the role of segmentation in the positioning

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process by stating “in view of the heterogeneous nature of every market, the real value of product positioning is revealed only when the positioning is coupled with an appropriate market segmentation strategy”, (Wind, 1982, p. 79). Segments should be homogenous within, heterogeneous between, targetable by the marketing mix and viable in commercial terms (Brooksbank, 1994). Evans and Berman (1985) suggest the use of a helpful tool in this regard – the TARGET model, which is a six step process to segment and select target markets:

1. *Target a generic market.* Companies have to decide which generic needs they wish to fill. The company focuses a larger market than it aspires to serve, but therefore avoids to overlook attractive market segments.
2. *Analyze benefits desired* in the generic market.
3. *Remove qualifying benefits.* As segments cannot productively be formed based on general benefits everyone desires, those benefits need to be excluded and removed.
4. *Group remaining benefits into segments.*
5. *Enumerate consumer characteristics of segments.* The marketer therefore gets a profile of the typical consumer of each segment.
6. *Target a segment.* A marketing mix tailored to the needs, wants and values of the target market is developed to cultivate a certain market segment.

As a brand cannot mean everything to everyone, it is suggested to concentrate on the segments a brand can satisfy in a superior way (Kotler, 2003; Aaker and Shansby, 1982). This further means that a company targets those consumers whose needs it can satisfy better than any other company according to its strengths (Brooksbank, 1994). “From a marketing strategy point of view, selection of the appropriate target market is paramount to developing successful marketing programs”, (Evans et al., 1996, p. 158). Market targeting is therefore the second step of the STP model. Various segments previously identified are evaluated to determine in which segments a brand or product should compete (Friedmann and Lessig, 1987). Segments are investigated economically (Aaker and Shansby, 1982) according to their size, resources required to penetrate them, company strengths and weaknesses, presence of competitors and comparative advantage (Friedmann and Lessig, 1987).

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The final step of the STP model is brand positioning, i.e. to develop marketing programs for the targeted segments (Evans et al., 1996; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982). The objective is to decide on the position within the target market which the brand wants to occupy, what it means and how it differs and is superior from competitive offerings, how it is perceived in the minds of consumers (Crawford, 1985; Evans et al., 1996; Myers, 1996; Kotler, 2003). The key issue in positioning is the (subjective) image a brand has in its target's mind, as every consumer evaluates purchase alternatives by examining the extent to which they satisfy personal buying criteria (Friedmann and Lessig, 1987). Therefore the psychological meaning, i.e. a person's subjective perception and affective reaction to stimuli (Friedmann and Lessig, 1987), a product has for each consumer is critical.

Positioning literature suggests two phases in positioning – (1) association with a product category and (2) differentiation from competitive brands within the category (Punj and Moon, 2002; Keller, 1998). Positioning focuses on ideas already existing in peoples' minds remodels them and links them to form new associations (Ries and Trout, 1986). The main objective of each brand during the first phase, the association phase, is to enter the customer's consideration set (Urban et al., 1993; Punj and Moon, 2002) by defining the category with which the brand ought to be associated. Category membership is created by communicating shared associations and linkages between the product and the relevant category.

Furthermore a brand needs to decide on how to differentiate from competitive offerings (Punj and Moon, 2002) to reach a clear position and to influence consumer response. Prospects turn into consumers (i.e. buy the product) if they hold favorable, strong and unique brand associations (Keller, 1993). "If a brand fails to develop or maintain differentiation, consumers have no basis for choosing it over others", (Aaker, 2003, p. 83). Thus, it is critical to decide in detail on the basis of differentiation, companies must build competitive advantages and benefits (Evans et al., 1996). This way meaningful and valuable differences are added to distinguish a brand from competitors (Kotler, 2003). It is crucial to communicate a unique selling proposition, a differential advantage which gives target consumers a coherent reason to buy the brand (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Ries and Trout, 1986; Keller, 1993; Kotler, 2003). Therefore it is not sufficient to only communicate the same features as competitors (Myers, 1996) and to

establish category membership, but to distinguish the offering in a superior way to finally occupy a niche in the consumer's mind (Ries and Trout, 1986). It is the marketer's responsibility to find the optimal balance between the level of association with the respective product category and the level of differentiation from competitive offerings (Punj and Moon, 2002).

To reach a clear position a brand needs to decide on which and how many ideas (e.g. benefits, features) to convey in its positioning to its target group (Kotler, 2003). Ries and Trout (1986) suggest having one consistent positioning message in order for the communication to be easier and clearer, to get heard in an over communicated world where the average person is faced with hundreds of advertising messages and slogans each day. Promoting a single position, a USP (unique selling proposition) further increases brand recall (Kotler, 2003). Still claiming multiple positions/ highlighting more than one idea through positioning is frequently necessary to be successful. Certain features are already viewed as standards in some product categories (such as airbags or ABS in the automobile industry), so brands cannot successfully differentiate along them anymore.

However, when increasing the number of claimed benefits, companies risk the loss of clear positioning (Kotler, 2003). Underpositioning – where the positioning statement is too vague, consumers have little idea what the brand stands for, overpositioning – consumers have too narrow an image of the brand, they fail to recognize the full breath of service, confused positioning – buyers are unsure of what the brand stands for resulting from changing brand positioning too frequently or making too many different claims, and doubtful positioning – where consumers hardly believe the brand claims in view of the brand's features, price or manufacturer, (Kotler, 2003; Evans et al., 1996) are the four major positioning errors.

2.2.2 The Process of Positioning

The process of positioning itself consists of the following steps, whereas it is recommended to first complete segmentation and targeting (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Evans et al., 1996; Myers, 1996)

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1. Identify/ analyze competitors and the market
2. Determine on competitors' positions as perceived by consumers and on benefits desired by customers
3. Determine on differential advantages/ benefits to deliver and select the customers to target
4. Select and monitor the desired position

(1) Numerous authors emphasize to start the process of positioning with identifying competitors and analyzing the market as a whole (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Evans et al., 1996; Myers, 1996). In a majority of markets there is a primary group of competitors and one or even more secondary competitors (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982). A car producer selling limousines might have other brands specialized in limousines as primary competitor, companies offering SUVs but also other means of transport (such as train or bike) represent the secondary set of competitors.

(2) Furthermore it is necessary to determine how competitors are perceived and evaluated by consumers which then leads to determining competitors' positions with respect to the relevant product associations and with respect to each other (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). This step can be supported by positioning analysis, which is comprised of different statistical methods illustrating a brand's relevant attributes in relation to competitors, e.g. in the form of perceptual maps (Myers, 1996; Wind, 1982; Evans et al., 1996; Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Various statistical methods such as discriminant analysis, conjoint analysis, multidimensional scaling, factor analysis or correspondence analysis (Myers, 1996; Wind, 1982; Aaker and Shansby, 1982) are used to derive perceptual maps which provide managers with insights on which positions are occupied by competitors and which one to target. Perceptual maps show the position of competitive offerings in a "virtual space" which tries to represent the way they are perceived by consumers (Myers, 1996; Evans et al., 1996; Aaker and Shansby, 1982). However, not only the positions of competitive offerings need to be considered and analyzed, but attention should also be paid to positions of the same company in regard to other products within the same product line (Wind, 1982). Additional analysis of the internal situation (culture, know how etc.) is suggested (Wind, 1982).

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(3) Evans et al. (1996) stress to apply the IDU model to determine on the differential advantages and benefits to deliver and select the customers to target. After having identified differential advantages, which should be unique features or skills, based on something valuable and sustainable to consumers (Brooksbank, 1994), Evans et al. (1996) suggest to deliver and emphasize those benefits which support successful positioning by being most unique and valuable to customers.

(4) Finally brand managers need to select a position and monitor it over time (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Please see **figure 2** for a graphic overview of the process of positioning.

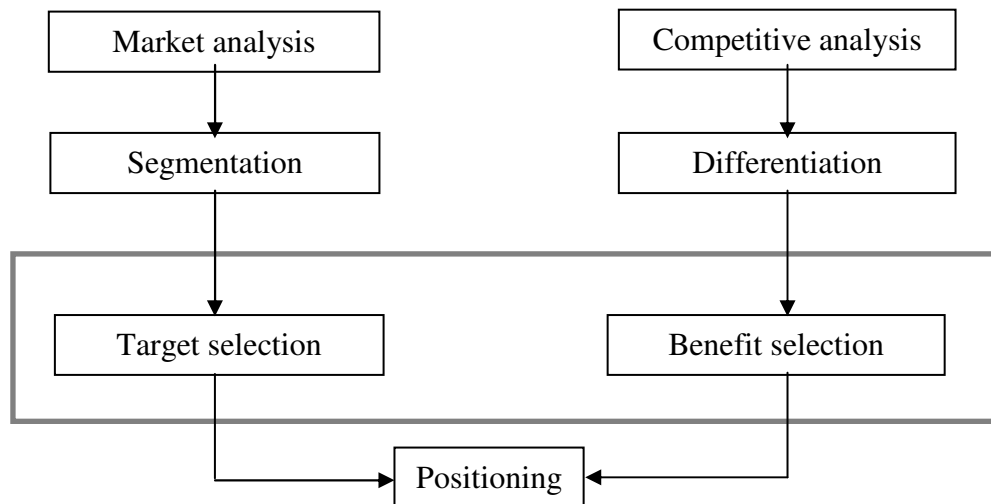


Figure 2: Process of positioning (Evans et al., 1996, p. 183, Fig. 7.10)

Once it is clear to the marketer which position to grab, a clear positioning strategy is formed which is used as a focus for the consistent and supportive development of the marketing program (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). To effectively communicate the brand positioning, a positioning statement should be formed within the marketing plan or program (Kotler, 2003; Kapferer, 2004). The positioning statement is „a statement that summarizes company or brand positioning – it takes this form: To (target segment and need) our (brand) is (concept) that (point of difference)”, (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008, p. 210). A positioning statement consequently is a blueprint defining what a product does, who it does it for, when and where it can be used, which product category it belongs to and how it differs from competitors. This positioning claim is suggested to be brief enough to be frequently repeated in advertising (Myers, 1996). A fictive example of a positioning statement could be “To working people who can’t get out of

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their office during operating hours easy banking is the bank that you can visit any time from any where in the world.” As can be seen positioning statements first associate a brand to a certain product category (as in the example above banks) to then demonstrate the points of difference to other group members (accessible anytime anywhere) (Kotler, 2003).

Once a company has developed a clear positioning statement, it needs to communicate that position to the desired target group as effective as possible. The marketing mix as well as all available transportation tools (PR, packaging, advertising, sales promotions, word-of-mouth etc.) are supposed to support and communicate the desired position and associations (Keller, 1993; Evans et al., 1996; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; DiMingo, 1988; Kotler, 2003; Crawford, 1985). Easingwood and Mahajan (1989, p. 207) even state that “everything the company does that impacts the customer’s perception should be designed to develop the desired position.”

The original (positioning began as a concept in advertising; Crawford, 1985), and most important tool for communicating and building the brand position is believed to be advertising (Ries and Trout, 1986). Positioning should be underlying each advertisement (Ries and Trout, 1986; Crawford, 1985). “Advertising serves in large part as a vehicle for positioning a brand”, (Dillon et al., 1986, p.29). For advertisements to be effective they should be combined of a positioning statement supported and strengthened by artwork (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). The creative work serves as an attention “grabber” to then direct the consumer’s attention towards the positioning statement. An advertisement without clear positioning is believed to be on the one side a waste of money, as they might hardly get realized by prospects and customers in this communication intense world (Ries and Trout, 1986), and on the other side supports the devolvement of price-driven brands (Clancy, 2001).

2.2.3 The Role of Means-End Chain

After having decided on a positioning strategy the marketer communicates the particular position via advertisements and other means of communication to the consumer who then forms associations about the brand depending on what was emphasized within the

advertisements, depending on the particular positioning strategy. **Figure 3** illustrates how positioning strategies impact consumers' brand perceptions.

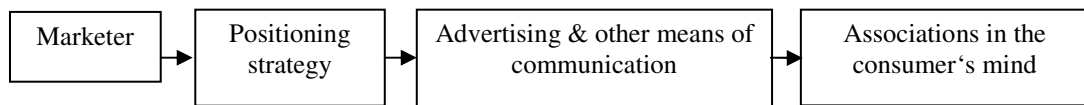


Figure 3: A positioning strategy's impact on consumer brand perceptions

The most common and most frequently applied positioning strategies involve associating a brand with certain brand characteristics, attributes and benefits. These are in the consumer's mind further interlinked to indirect feelings. Also related to this chain are values which are derived from benefits and therefore are the last element in this chain – the means-end chain (Gutman, 1982; Olson and Reynolds, 1983; Vriens and Hofstede, 2000). It provides marketers and researchers with an understanding of the meanings products have for consumers (see **figure 4**). “The means-end chain establishes a link between tangible attributes of a product (i.e. means) and the individual and social needs of consumers, such as benefits and values (i.e. ends)”, thus provides a basis for brand positioning in general (Vriens and Hofstede, 2000, p. 6). Means-end chains provide an explanation for how products “facilitate the achievement of desired end states”, (Gutman, 1982, p. 60). Consequently the means-end chain model provides marketers with the opportunity to position products by using means (physical aspects of products, i.e. attributes) through advertising which links the consumption of products to the achievement of desired ends (valued end states) (Gutman, 1982).

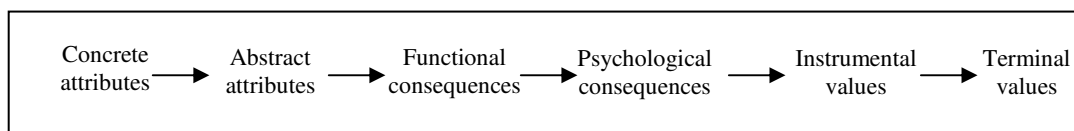


Figure 4: Means-end structures (Olson and Reynolds, 1983)

2.3 THE POSITIONING TYPOLOGY

So the question “How do managers actually position their brands? How do they create the desired position in the consumer's mind?” arises. This, of course, is not bringing up any new, unknown issues in positioning, but researchers (Aaker and Shansby, 1982;

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Wind, 1982; Frazer, 1983; Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Laskey et al., 1989; Aaker, 1991; Hooley et al., 1998; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Kapferer, 2004) and practitioners (Ries and Trout, 1986) have long discussed positioning alternatives and tried to categorize them in various classifications (i.e. “defined as the ordering of entities into groups or classes on the basis of their similarity”; Bailey, 1994, p.1). Classifications as the end result of the process can either be unidimensional, i.e. based on only one characteristic, or multidimensional, i.e. based on more than one characteristic. Two different kinds of classifications are typologies and taxonomies. The former is referred to as a conceptual and multidimensional classification with labels or names in their cells (Bailey, 1994). The latter “is similar to a typology, and in fact many people use the two terms interchangeably”, (Bailey, 1994, p. 6). But the basic difference between the two types of classifications is that typologies are conceptual whereas taxonomies are empirical. An exception to this is the consecutive identification of empirical cases for conceptual typologies (Bailey, 1994). The term typology is applied in social sciences whereas taxonomies are more frequently found in natural science. When speaking of different kinds of classification schemes within this paper, the term typology is used, as researchers of positioning classifications schemes generally rather refer to their work as typologies, no matter whether empirically backed or not.

Though there have long been scientific discussions about positioning typologies, there is no consensus on an all-applicable, state-of-the-art classification scheme which describes and contains current positioning alternatives applied by managers and is capable of identifying positioning strategies available today.

In the following please find a table (**table 2**) containing the most important taxonomies and typologies of positioning alternatives retrieved in a broad literature review. They were frequently cited by authors (Frazer, 1983; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004) discussing positioning and its alternatives. In the next section you can find a brief discussion of each positioning typology.

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Table 2 Overview of existing positioning typologies		
Author	Derived	Positioning alternative, i.e. base
Brown and Sims (1976)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Problems solved, (2) Usage situation, (3) Users, (4) Competitors
Aaker and Shansby (1982)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Attributes, (2) Price/ quality, (3) Use or application, (4) User, (5) Product class, (6) Competition
Wind (1982)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Features, (2) Benefits, (3) Usage occasion, (4) User, (5) Competition, (6) Product class dissociation
Frazer (1983)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Generic, (2) Pre-emptive positioning, (3) USP, (4) Brand image, (5) Positioning, (6) Resonance, (7) Anomalous/ affective resonance
Crawford (1985)	Empirical	(1) Features, (2) Benefits, (3) Nonpareil, (4) Parentage, (5) Manufacture, (6) Target, (7) Rank, (8) Endorsement, (9) Experience, (10) Predecessor, (11) Competitor
Ries and Trout (1986)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Market leader, (2) Follower, (3) Reposition the competition, (4) Use the name, (5) Line extension (use of the house name)
Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Empirical on services only	(1) Reputation and capabilities of the organization, (2) Service augmentation, (3) People advantage, (4) Package the service offering, (5) Technology, (6) Better accessibility, (7) Customization, (8) Complete product line
Laskey et al. (1989)	Empirical	(1) Comparative, (2) USP, (3) Pre-emptive, (4) Hyperbole, (5) Generic-informational, (6) User image, (7) Brand image, (8) Usage occasion, (9) Generic-transformational
Aaker (1991)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Features, (2) Intangible attributes, (3) Benefits, (4) Price, (5) Usage, (6) User, (7) Celebrity/ person, (8) Lifestyle/ personality, (9) Product class, (10) Competitors, (11) Country/ region

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Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Sensory factors, (2) Price, (3) Usage, (4) User, (5) Process, (6) Association/ comparison, (7) People, (8) Access, (9) Experience, (10) Communication, (11) Assurance, (12) Reliability, (13) Empathy, (14) Innovation, (15) Technology, (16) Social accountability
Hooley et al. (1998)	Conceptual/ descriptive (strategic only)	(1) Price, (2) Quality, (3) Rapid innovation, (4) Superior service, (5) Differentiated benefits, (6) Tailored offering
Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Empirical	(1) Pricing, (2) Easy to do business, (3) Personal contact, (4) Product performance, (5) Range of offerings, (6) Presence, (7) Safety, (8) Leadership, (9) Distinct identity, (10) Status, (11) Country identity, (12) Differentiation, (13) Attractiveness
Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Empirical	(1) Top of the range, (2) Service, (3) Value for money, (4) Reliability, (5) Attractive, (6) COO, (7) Name, (8) Social class
Kapferer (2004)	Conceptual/ descriptive	(1) Attribute, (2) Objective benefit, (3) Subjective benefit, (4) Aspect of brand personality, (5) Imaginary, imagery and meaning, (6) Consumer type 'deep' values or mission

Looking at above cited typologies one can group and distinguish among them according to four different criteria: (1) for which kind of products the typology is developed to be employed, i.e. goods and/ or services (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989); (2) whether the typology is applicable to and derived for business and/ or consumer markets (Kalafatis et al., 2000); (3) the way researchers derived (and tested) the corresponding typologies, i.e. conceptually or empirically; (4) in case that the typology was derived empirically, it can further be distinguished at which level the researchers tried to capture and categorize positioning, i.e. at the consumer level (measuring consumer perceptions) (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004) or at an executional level judging from "surface" similarities of advertisements (where two vastly different strategies might be lumped together based on the fact of humorous execution) or at the managerial/advertorial level, seeking to categorize the positioning strategy alternative which lies behind execution

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and allows researchers to see more deeply into the intention of the manager (Frazer, 1983; Kalafatis et al., 2000);. Please see **table 3** for an overview of the different aims and purposes each classification serves.

Table 3 Existing positioning typologies grouped according to (1) how they were derived (2) what kind of strategies they aim to classify												
Grouping criteria	Development			Level of analysis				Product kind			Target market	
	Conceptual	Empirical	Consumer	Execution	Managerial	Goods	Services	Consum	Business			
Positioning classifications												
Brown and Sims (1976)	X					X		X				
Aaker and Shansby (1982)	X					X		X				
Wind (1982)	X					X		X				
Frazer (1983)	X	X			X	X		X				
Crawford (1985)		X		X		X	X	X				X
Ries and Trout (1986)	X					X	X	X				X
Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	X	X		X			X					
Laskey et al. (1989)	X			X		X		X				
Aaker (1991)	X					X		X				
Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	X								X			
Hooley et al. (1998)	X											
Kalafatis et al. (2000)		X			X				X			X
Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)		X	X							X		
Kapferer (2004)	X									X		

2.4 EXITING POSITIONING TYPOLOGIES

2.4.1 Aaker and Shansby (1982) vs. Wind (1982)

“Sophisticated analysis of all the positioning alternatives can, and should, be done”, (Aaker and Shansby, 1982, p. 56). Parallel with this insight, Aaker and Shansby (1982) conceptually derived their positioning typology by providing an understanding of some ways a positioning strategy can be conceived (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). The authors discuss six bases to positioning strategy (the terms “positioning alternative” and “positioning strategy” are used interchangeably) which are for a big part also covered by Wind’s conceptually derived typology (1982) and Brown’s and Sims’ earlier conceptual work (1976).

(1) Aaker and Shansby (1982) and Wind (1982) suggest that positioning by attribute is most frequently used. Wind (1982) refers to the element as positioning on specific product features, where the product is associated with one or more attribute(s), product feature(s) or customer benefit(s). According to Wind (1982), this can also range from specific tangible benefits (as VW’s “Think Small”) to more abstract features (such as Avis “We Try Harder”). (2) Closely related to positioning by attribute is positioning by price/ quality. As Aaker and Shansby (1982) perceive this alternative as extremely useful and pervasive, they consider it a separate dimension. Brands offering more in terms of higher quality and value signal this with a higher price. (3) Further it is possible for products to be associated with a certain use or application (Brown and Sims, 1976; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982) (4) or a certain product user (Brown and Sims, 1976; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982). Cosmetic companies seem to frequently use models, personalities or specific lifestyle profiles to position their products (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). (5) According to Aaker and Shansby (1982), managers also position their products along a certain product class; they therefore emphasize product class associations (e.g. some margarines position themselves with respect to butter). (5a) Contrary to this, Wind (1982) emphasizes product class dissociations, which is thought to be especially useful for introducing a new product differing from typical products in an established category. (6) Finally, Brown and Sims (1976), Aaker and Shansby (1982) as well as Wind (1982) highlight positioning with

respect to a competitor, since a well-established competitor's image can be used to help communicate another image referenced to it (your product's image). This positioning alternative is supported by comparative advertising, where a competitor is explicitly named and compared on attributes (Aaker and Shansby, 1982).

The typologies by Aaker and Shansby (1982) and Wind (1982) are quite helpful to provide a common understanding and brief overview of the most discussed positioning alternatives, but as they are more than 25 years old and especially because they are only conceptually derived without ever being tested empirically their applicability is questionable. As confirmed by more recent studies (Kalafatis et al., 2000) the positioning elements derived from literature at that point in time are outdated, partly not state-of-the-art anymore and incomplete. Even Aaker and Shansby (1982) themselves slightly indicate that there is more to come and that their work gives some first impressions of what is done in positioning strategies. "A *first* step in understanding the scope of positioning alternatives is to consider *some* of the ways that a positioning strategy can be conceived and implemented", (Aaker and Shansby, 1982, p. 56-57). Due to advances in advertising and marketing, it is very likely that new positioning strategies have evolved which were not used in the early 80's.

2.4.2 Frazer (1983)

An early typology which unlike most other typologies (such as Crawford, 1985) does not aim at comparing advertising campaigns based on their similarity in execution (design of artwork and slogans), but rather tries to capture the advertiser's intention for creative strategy was derived by Frazer (1983). The author conceptually developed his typology from literature, but also from analysis of commercials and conversations with advertising people and managers (Frazer, 1983).

Seven positioning bases (a positioning base is a component of the classification scheme which refers to the way in which a positioning strategy or alternative is acted out or translated to the consumer) suiting certain market conditions in the consumer goods field are emphasized in this typology. (1) The generic strategy can successfully be applied by marketers with an extremely high market share or monopolistic characteristics. The aim of the positioning element is to stimulate demand for the whole

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product category a brand belongs to (Frazer, 1983). Consequently, an extremely large share of the rise in demand is accounted for by the market leader (such as Bell with its long distance calls campaign “Reach out and touch someone”). (2) Frazer (1983) further points out to the pre-emptive strategy, where the marketer of a certain product emphasizes a benefit or attribute common to all products in the category as first and as being unique. This approach seems to be somewhat similar to the “Pioneer positioning” outlined in other positioning typologies such as that of Ries and Trout (1986), as marketers applying this strategy appear to have to be the first and only ones within their product category to do so. (3) Positioning based on physical differentiation is referred to as unique selling proposition strategy (USP) (Frazer, 1983). Products are associated with a meaningful, distinctive, consumer benefit based on a unique physical product characteristic. (4) The counterpart to USP is brand image strategy, where superiority of rather homogenous, low-technology goods with little physical differentiation is claimed via differentiation based on factors extrinsic to the product itself i.e. psychological differentiation. (5) The so called “positioning strategy” is, according to Frazer (1983), a separate positioning alternative where it is required to give the product a place in the consumer’s mind relative to competition. If there was not any relation to competitors, it would either be a USP or brand image strategy (Frazer, 1983). (6) Further highlighted within Frazer’s typology is the resonance strategy where the experience of the consumer is the main focus for sale. Hence, advertisements present circumstances, emotions and situations which find counterparts in target consumer’s experiences. (7) Finally, Frazer (1983) emphasizes positioning based on the anomalous/ affective strategy, where the aim is to make contact with the consumer at an emotional level. This positioning alternative is based on grabbing the attention and involvement of consumers resulting from the ambiguity of ads.

“This tool (the positioning typology) suggests a different sort of taxonomy than has previously been available. Much general advertising research has compared advertising campaigns based on executional similarity”, (Frazer, 1983, p. 41). But Frazer aims at digging deeper, as he believes that through his typology “researchers see more deeply into the intentions of the advertiser, rather than make superficial comparisons based on surface similarities” (Frazer, 1983, p. 41). Frazer’s typology (1983) investigates what is beneath the executional surface of advertisements and tries to categorize the managerial perspective of creative strategies. Still to get an overall picture of positioning elements

and to see positioning strategies from the same point of view as consumers, it seems to be required to rather investigate the way positioning alternatives are actually executed than how managers want them to be perceived. It even appears that the way positioning strategies are executed in advertisements is more important than managerial implications, as consumers only see the advertisements as they are executed, not as they are intended to be. Furthermore I suggest that typologies which are only conceptually derived and not tested empirically (such as Frazer, 1983) are frequently hard to apply in real life. Laskey et al. (1989) support this statement as they had problems categorizing advertisements according to Frazer's typology.

2.4.3 Laskey et al. (1989)

Laskey et al. (1989) realized that with Frazer's typology "problems of exclusivity of categories and consistency of classification arose", (Laskey et al., 1989, p. 37). But as they generally found Frazer's classification scheme to have considerable intuitive appeal, it was used as a basic conceptual framework in deriving their own typology of message strategies (creative execution was not incorporated into typology development). Laskey et al. (1989) developed a two-stage approach – advertisements are (1) placed in a basic category (informational vs. transformational), (2) belong to one subcategory – which facilitates analysis of advertisements and, in a later step, allows for more precise classifications.

With the help of content analysis of commercials, the authors empirically derived five informational positioning bases and four transformational ones. (1) Laskey et al. (1989) refer to "comparative" positioning to what Frazer (1983) calls "positioning strategy", i.e. when a brand is explicitly compared to a competitor on informational components (such as attributes or benefits). (2) USP (is similar to Frazer's, 1983, construct). (3) Ads with pre-emptive positioning are factually based and objectively verifiable – without any claims of uniqueness and mentioning of competitors. Hence, the authors do not agree with Frazer's definition of pre-emptive advertising. (4) Laskey et al. (1989) derived another positioning element to maintain exhaustiveness of the typology not contained in Frazer's typology, namely hyperbole positioning. Ads with the general appearance of being factually based, but on a closer look, are build around exaggerated claims in most cases, which are not objectively verifiable such as "Best hamburger in

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the world” fall into this category (whereas according to Frazer, 1983 they follow the pre-emptive strategy). (5) The Generic-informational approach is comparable to Frazer’s generic strategy.

The last four positioning bases are transformational, meaning that they are not information-based, but associate the experience of using the advertised brand with psychological characteristics (Laskey et al., 1989). (6) User image positioning – derived from Frazer’s (1983) resonance strategy – focuses on brand users and their lifestyles. (7) Contrary to the latter element, is brand image positioning (comparable to Frazer’s, 1983, construct), where the focus lies on the brand itself and the aim is to convey a brand personality. (8) When a use occasion is the basis for positioning, marketers try to create an association between the product and a certain situation where the product might be used. (9) Laskey et al. (1989) refer to generic-transformational positioning elements when the focus of creative strategy is on the product class (rather than the advertised brand) and the commercial is clearly transformational (such as the “Reach out and touch someone” campaign for long-distance-calls which could be broadcasted by any telephone company).

It seems that to obtain a complete picture of the use of positioning bases and to see positioning strategies from the same angle as consumers, it is necessary to analyze the execution of positioning alternatives by means of both main message and artwork, rather than main messages alone like Laskey et al. (1989) did.

2.4.4 Ries and Trout (1986)

Beside all the positioning typologies derived by academics, the very well-known marketing practitioners Ries and Trout (1986), who are frequently cited as having initiated the era of positioning with their collection of articles published in the journal “Advertising Age” in 1972, derived a framework of positioning recommendations for marketers. Six suggestions on how marketers might best position their products resulted from their work.

(1) To become a leader in a certain product category Ries and Trout (1986) suggest that it is almost a prerequisite to be the first in the people’s mind, to be the first brand to

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offer a certain product (like Coca with cola). (2) If a brand is not the first one in the respective product category, but is a follower, it can as well profit by following the phrase “chercher le creneau”, i.e. looking for the hole and filling it. The claim of a follower position is a “contrast-position” to the leader (Avis publicly accepted to be no.2 in their campaign “We try harder”). This “contrast-position” when compared to other positioning typologies (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Aaker, 1991) has big similarities with competitor positioning. (3) If your product was not the first in consumers’ minds and if marketers cannot find an unoccupied niche in the market anymore, Ries and Trout (1986) suggest repositioning competition. (4) Furthermore the influence of the brand name on the success of the brand is not to be underestimated by marketers. Ries and Trout (1986) argue to select a name which already indicates and begins the positioning process. Head & Shoulders Shampoo already tells the consumer the major benefit of the product which is of high importance for the positioning success. (5) While “line extension is usually a mistake” (Ries and Trout, 1986, p. 112), broadening the base and extending the application of the original product works according to Ries and Trout (1986) as is seen in Johnson & Johnson’s mild baby shampoo which was later also promoted for adults who frequently wash their hair.

When comparing the work of Ries and Trout (1986) to typologies such as the profound work of Crawford (1985), one realizes that they are thought of as suggestions and best-practice; when compared to typologies they appear rudimentary and incomplete. The scientific process of devising the framework is questionable, as it is based primarily on personal experience, opinions and the author’s best knowledge backed with some examples.

2.4.5 Crawford (1985) vs. Aaker (1991) vs. Kapferer (2004)

Proof that positioning alternatives suggested by researchers until that time, were not complete was provided in an empirical study by Crawford (1985). The author suggests the existence of a completely new and revolutionary positioning category, which he refers to as surrogate positioning. “Surrogate means substitute – where something substitutes for something else. ... The marketer does not describe the features/ benefits, but instead says something about the product that permits the reader/ listener to reach

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individual conclusions”, (Crawford, 1985, p. 247). Within this new category he reclassifies already identified and known positioning bases such as usage situation, though the majority of categorized bases are new. The author derives his positioning typology from content analysis of over 500 print advertisements for all kinds of products (goods as well as services for consumer and/ or business markets). A big part of the positioning bases he suggests was later picked up in the conceptual work of Aaker (1991) and Kapferer (2004) who both derived comparable/ similar positioning elements. Crawford’s typology (1985) has three major categories and nine subcategories which are described and compared to Aaker’s (1991) and Kapferer’s (2004) work in the following.

(1) All three authors emphasize positioning along features, whereas Crawford (1985) defines feature positioning as much that an aspect, evident or hidden, mostly tangible, of the product itself which is emphasized. Aaker (1991) further divides feature positioning into positioning along tangible product features and intangible attributes, consequently he believes that positioning along the price (which can also be viewed as an intangible attribute) is applied so frequently that he specifies it as a distinct base. (2) Benefit positioning highlights a way in which the consumer gains from the product. The authors distinguish between direct and indirect benefits (Crawford, 1985), though Aaker (1991) and Kapferer (2004) refer to them as rational vs. psychological benefits and objective vs. subjective benefits, respectively. (3) Surrogate positioning has, according to Crawford (1985), nine positioning bases. (a) Marketers may position their products as the top quality one without equal (such as Jaguar cars) which Crawford (1985) refers to as nonpareil positioning. (b) In several ads the origin – where the product comes from and who makes it – is emphasized. This positioning base which is referred to as parentage positioning can be used with regard to (Crawford, 1985): the specific brand, the company and/ or a specific person. Marketers assume that the product quality can be inferred from that parentage. (c) Manufacture positioning highlights the way a product was made (Crawford, 1985). This positioning base encompasses three elements which marketers can emphasize: the manufacturing process, certain ingredients and a special design. (d) Target positioning is a further positioning alternative applied by marketers, which emphasizes that a product was made especially for people like you (therefore it has whatever attributes you want/ need). Crawford (1985) distinguishes between end-use (e.g. a tire for people who drive on wet roads), demographic, psychographic and

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behavioural user positioning. Aaker (1991) supports this position as he too claims that marketers try to build associations between certain usage situations and a brand. Aaker (1991) as well as Kapferer (2004) approve end-user/ consumer type positioning, but in contrast to Crawford (1985), they do not distinguish between end-users along any dimensions. (e) According to Crawford's (1985) typology yet another positioning basis is positioning along a "rank", where it is claimed that a product is the best selling one. (f) Another possibility to position your product is endorsement, in which people who are respected by the target audience (you) say that the product is good. Endorsers could be experts or people to be emulated (Crawford, 1985). Aaker (1991) backs this argument by emphasizing that products are frequently associated with celebrities/ persons who improve the credibility of the product/ position. (g) "Experience" is another base along which products can be positioned. Crawford (1985) distinguishes among experience in other markets, bandwagon and experience from the number of years in a business. (h) When applying positioning with regard to a competitor, i.e. saying that your product is just like a competitive product (Crawford, 1982; Aaker, 1991) or using a competitor's product to convey your image (Aaker, 1991), the explicit or implicit frame of reference always is competition. (i) Finally, predecessor positioning highlights that the product is comparable to an earlier product which consumers liked (Crawford, 1985). Take Ford's positioning of the Thunderbird against its 30-year-ago classic or the new VW beetle, for instance. This positioning base is supposed to capture the tool of family branding.

Aaker (1991) suggests further positions to the dimensions in common with Crawford's typology (1985) which partly encompass previously established positioning elements from other authors: (1) the author emphasizes that consumers also associate a brand with a certain personality (traits) which marketers exploit for positioning. This concept is supported by Kapferer (2004) who also highlights the existence of this positioning approach. (2) Positioning by product class (see also Aaker and Shansby, 1982). (3) Positioning along the country-of-origin of a brand, where the country image as being specialized in certain industries is emphasized (Aaker, 1991).

Kapferer (2004) further advocates that brands are positioned with the help of associations with certain imaginaries, imageries and meanings such as the Wild West for Marlboro or Old New England for Ralph Lauren. But this positioning base may also

be put into the same category as Crawford's target-lifestyle position (1985). Finally, Kapferer (2004) stresses positioning along a brand's deep values/ a mission (such as Nike's core statement of sports mentality or Nestlé's maternal love).

Crawford's typology seems to be one of the most complete typologies derived so far, since even decades after his work several positioning elements of his typology are supported through more recent work (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994), as also demonstrated by comparing the typologies of Crawford (1985), Aaker (1991) and Kapferer (2004). Crawford (1985) was the first author to empirically derive a positioning typology. "We have never had an empirical summary of positioning practice" (Crawford, 1985, p. 244). Still 20 years after his work particular advancements in marketing and branding have occurred; consequently the state-of-the-art of the typology can be queried. Even Crawford (1985, p. 253) states "The range of choices is expanding and will probably continue to do so". Aaker (1991) and Kapferer (2004) use similar positioning elements to Crawford's typology, which can be regarded as a conceptual support for Crawford's work (1985). But it can be questioned whether Aaker's (1991) and Kapferer's (2004) typologies provide profound insight into positioning alternatives, as being conceptually derived they are only descriptive and not approved empirically.

2.4.6 Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)

Another typology derived for the service industry (more specifically the financial services sector) was developed by Easingwood and Mahajan (1989), whose work is conceptually derived in a two-step process from deductions of the theory of services (from the marketing implications of the special services attributes of intangibility, heterogeneity and simultaneity). First, the consequences of the special characteristics of services are briefly described to later broaden these marketing implications to provide the basis of positioning alternatives for financial services.

The authors ended up with eight positioning bases whereas two are derived from the service characteristic of intangibility. (1) Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) refer to positioning by organization when marketers especially emphasize the reputation and special capabilities of the organisation itself. This base is used in regard to the expertise

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position, reliability position (e.g. supported by the company's size), innovativeness position (e.g. supported by being leader in new product introduction) and/ or performance position. (2) Positioning by service augmentation, which occurs either through the augmentation of the product itself, or the provision of extra service. Furthermore, derived from heterogeneity of service are (3) the "people advantage" position, which highlights that the company's staff is better trained and motivated than competitor's staff, (4) the "package the service offering" position (i.e. assembling a mix of services for a client), and (5) the technology position, which claims the superior use of technology (especially information technology) for the customer's benefit (e.g., faster services or standardized production processes). Finally, deduced from the service characteristic of simultaneity are positioning bases promoting (6) better accessibility for customers (e.g. by building up a branch network), (7) customization (there is the opportunity of designing the service to match individual needs, since the customer frequently needs to be present during the service production), and (8) a complete product line. This involves offering a complete product line in a certain business area, so that customers are not "forced" to go to a competitor.

Although each positioning element is illustrated with examples of print advertisements from the insurance sector, Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) provide only little empirical evidence to prove the validity and completeness of their typology. The last point is even highlighted by the authors themselves "... it is not possible to claim that the eight proposed positions represent all possible positions", (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989, p. 216). Furthermore, as the typology is derived from the theory of services (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989), it is evident that the resulting elements are only applicable to services, though they appear to be amplifications of some of Wind's positioning elements (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). Still the authors' study does not massively support the development of a typology applicable towards different product categories and industries.

2.4.7 Arnott and Easingwood (1994)

The hypothetical typology of Arnott and Easingwood (1994) was also developed for categorizing positioning alternatives in the services sector. The authors intended to conceptually derive a composite positioning typology from all existing typologies until

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that time. This analysis produced an initial list of 39 bases which were after deeper scrutiny reduced to 16 bases. Most of those were identical with elements previously discussed.

The typology incorporates the following elements: (1) Positioning along sensory factors “covers those aspects of a service that can be directly perceived via any of the consumer’s five senses”, (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994). (2) The authors refer to positioning along price (compare Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991) in its most general form and include such consumer relevant variables as incentives and bonuses. (3) Positioning according to usage (compare Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Aaker, 1991) is also included into the typology though its application in a service context is questioned by Arnott and Easingwood (1994). (4) Positioning according to the end-user (compare Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Aaker, 1991) concerns the consumer’s peer groups or role models using the product. (5) When positioning a product through associations/ comparison (compare positioning by product class associations by Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Aaker, 1991) marketers link the product to one within the consumer’s experience or compare it to other products by emphasizing positive or negative relationships. (6) The authors bring forward the process, i.e. emphasizing the process of service delivery by highlighting the match to consumer needs, as a distinct positioning element (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994). (7) Highlighting a company’s well-trained people as service producers (compare Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989) is suggested as another positioning base. (8) Stressing easy access to the service (compare Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989) is a further alternative. (9) Some companies may highlight their experience (compare Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989) in a certain industry for positioning which is suggested to be measured in terms of time, size, sales figures, parentage etc. (10) Emphasizing the way in which a company communicates with consumers and the competitive advantage the company has in that area (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) is believed to be a distinct positioning base. (11) When applying the assurance position, marketers try to relate their products to safety and believability (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994). (12) The positioning base of reliability (compare Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989) stresses keeping promises, dependability and accuracy. (13) Positioning along empathy (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) means to show the consumer that you understand him. There might be an overlap of this base

with the end-user positioning just mentioned, as it seems critical for both approaches to have a certain level of understanding the consumer. (14) Highlighting a company's innovativeness by stressing new product development is another positioning base mainly derived from the work of Easingwood and Mahajan (1989). (15) Positioning along a technology advance is also derived from Easingwood and Mahajan (1989). Finally, (16) a positioning base which was not identified previously is positioning along a company's social accountability, i.e. emphasizing a company's attitude towards ethical issues (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994).

As the positioning typology suggested by Arnott and Easingwood (1994) is derived from literature of existing typologies, it provides a broad overview of positioning bases up to the year 1994. Still it does not bring many novelties, give new impulses, nor does it explain each positioning base in detail, but it is a conceptual summary of existing typologies in respect to the service industry. It clearly lacks empirical evidence to approve and generalize its applicability.

2.4.8 Kalafatis et al. (2000)

A positioning typology following Crawford's example and therefore being empirically derived and validated results from the work of Kalafatis et al. (2000) in the area of business marketing. They felt that there was a lack of empirically developed, reliable positioning typologies allowing the development of normative guidelines. "Some of the most widely referred typologies such as those of Aaker and Shansby (1982) or Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) are purely conceptual, while others, e.g. Crawford (1985) and Arnott (1992) reflect mainly managerial ... perspectives", (Kalafatis et al., 2000, p. 418). Contrary to other pieces of research, the authors do not focus on brands but chose companies as the unit of analysis, as they investigate the business market where product positioning is believed to be less developed than in consumer markets (Kalafatis et al., 2000).

After conducting a cross sectional survey with marketing directors 13 positioning alternatives were identified, whereas the main differentiating constructs were (1) leadership (compare Crawford, 1985, rank positioning), (2) safety, where the stability and the long standing of a provider is promoted (3) presence (compare Crawford, 1985,

nonpareil positioning), (4) range of offerings, (5) product performance, (6) personal contact, i.e. good service provision, (7) easy to do business, i.e. familiar procedures and suitable arrangements and (8) pricing; next to (9) distinct identity, i.e. differentiation, branding, (10) status, i.e. top of the range – which seems to overlap with presence positioning, (11) country identity (compare Aaker, 1991, country-of-origin positioning), (12) differentiation, i.e. common/ middle range, and (13) attractiveness, i.e. eye catching ads.

Although Kalafatis et al. (2000) intended to derive a conceptually sound positioning typology for business markets (which according to their views, is also applicable in consumer markets, which is in no point empirically proven) the typology appears to include overlapping categories (such as the presence and status constructs). Furthermore, the typology seems to primarily categorize the intended positioning rather than the actual positioning of businesses, as depicted in marketing communications, since only executives were included into the analysis.

2.4.9 Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)

Yet another typology not derived from advertisements is that of Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) who devised their typology from consumers' perceptions of products themselves. Though Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) empirically developed the first consumer-derived typology, the results of their work cannot be generalized. Reasons therefore are that (1) the typology is based on consumers' vocabulary regarding descriptions of their perceptions about products' features, attributes and benefits in terms of issues important to them when evaluating products and (2) that consumers were asked to only think of statements describing ten different products (TVs, beers and cars, hairdressers, retail stores, plastic cards, furniture, washing powder, airlines and hotels). A typology stemming from statements describing perceptions of features, attributes and benefits of ten products cannot be generalizable (reliability might be important when purchasing a car, but not when shopping for chewing gum). The eight positioning bases which resulted from Blankson's and Kalafatis' work are illustrated in table 2.3.1.

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The remaining positioning typologies derived so far (such as Hooley et al., 1998) are hard to compare against other existing typologies, since their results are on the one side to a big part quite bewildering, on the other side typologies (Hooley et al., 1998) do not focus on positioning strategies as perceived through advertising. Hooley et al. (1998) rather derive positioning strategies as the fit between the chosen market targets and the competencies of the company. Therefore the elements are not discussed in more detail here, but still included into the typology deriving process of the following chapters to ensure a broad and sound starting base for the new typology.

Inspecting **table 4** which briefly summarizes and highlights the points of criticism towards the discussed typologies, you will realize that various classification schemes lack – regardless of their date of origin – empirical evidence, topicality (in terms of being complete and up-to-date) as well as applicability across product categories. The new positioning typology which is to be generated in the subsequent chapter attempts to overcome these main concerns and aims to classify positioning alternatives as applied in consumer markets. It is conceptually derived and empirically tested via content analysis of various products' print advertisements from consumer magazines over a time period of two years.

Table 4 Overview of criticism towards existing typologies						
Points of criticism	No/ limited empirical evidence	Intended positioning	Consumer-perceived positioning	Not applicable across product categories	Incomplete/ not state-of-the-art	
Positioning classifications						
Brown and Sims (1976)	X				X	
Aaker and Shansby (1982)	X				X	
Wind (1982)	X				X	
Frazer (1983)	X	X			X	
Crawford (1985)					X	
Ries and Trout (1986)	X				X	
Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	X			X		
Laskey et al. (1989)					X	
Aaker (1991)	X				X	
Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	X			X		
Kalafatis et al. (2000)		X		X		
Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)			X	X		
Kapferer (2004)	X				X	

3 DERIVING A NEW POSITIONING TYPOLOGY

Having reviewed the vast literature about different kinds of positioning classification schemes it can be concluded that there is neither a positioning typology nor an empirically derived positioning taxonomy which is broadly accepted by all researchers and practitioners as complete, state-of-the-art classification scheme to categorize positioning alternatives available and applied today. Consequently, I now turn to the main aim of this work – the deriving of a sound typology for positioning alternatives in consumer markets.

The procedure adopted for deriving this state-of-the-art, consumer-products positioning typology incorporates (1) the conceptual collection of positioning strategies as depicted in literature, (2) the classification of each single base into homogenous groups or classes, (3) the definition of each class (i.e. positioning base), its outlines to other classes and the identification of subclasses (i.e. positioning elements) in order to derive a typology, (4) the empirical test of the positioning classification scheme (i.e. typology) and the identification of empirical cases of each positioning alternative by means of content analysis print advertisements to verify and derive a complete typology, and finally when required by the empirical test (5) positioning bases and/ or elements will be added or rejected from the typology to keep it as accurate as possible. This process is in accordance with on the one side Bailey's indicator level (1994) suggesting a combined conceptual/ empirical approach to classification. On the other side the procedure of deriving the classification scheme is in alignment with the work of Parkinson and Totterdell (1999).

Bailey (1994) highlights three levels of analysis encompassed in classification procedures: (1) the conceptual level where only theoretical concepts are classified (see positioning classifications of Wind, 1982; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Kapferer, 2004), (2) the empirical level where only empirical entities and cases are classified (compare the work of Crawford, 1985; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004) and (3) the combined conceptual/empirical level or indicator level, as he refers to it, where first there is a conceptual classification devised to then identify empirical examples of some/all categories (Bailey, 1994). The classification procedure applied within this work as depicted and detailed later is based on the combined conceptual/ empirical approach

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which means that first a purely conceptual typology is constructed and then empirical examples for all or some cells (positioning elements) are identified. This classical strategy can be seen as a deductive strategy (Bailey, 1994).

The aim of any classification scheme, be it typology or taxonomy, is to reduce a complex reality to a small number of groups or categories in order to make them accessible and understandable (Kluge and Kelle, 1999). To end up with a sound typology, it is important to follow principle guidelines for classification which are to maximize (1) within-group homogeneity and (2) between-group heterogeneity (Bailey, 1994). This means that the categories which are formed need to be as distinct (not overlapping) as possible, whereas all members of a category need to be as alike as possible, i.e. groups need to be exhaustive and mutually exclusive (Laskey et al., 1989) meaning that there needs to be an appropriate (and only one appropriate) group for each entity.

The right amount of parsimony needs to be found in order for the classification scheme to be operational. However, remaining parsimonious is “tempered by the fact that the fewer the number of categories, the more dissimilar are the items likely to be in the category” (Laskey et a., 1989, p. 36). Furthermore, the secret of a good classification scheme is “the ability to ascertain the key or fundamental characteristics on which the classification is to be based” (Bailey, 1994, p. 2) which in the case of positioning is the underlying positioning strategy of advertisements as depicted by the artwork and messages of print ads.

The positioning typology which is to be derived has several purposes and functions: (1) to give an overview of and describe all positioning alternatives available and used in today’s consumer markets, (2) to reduce the complexity of positioning strategies by classifying them according to a certain, limited number of variables, (3) to identify similarities and differences among cases and to group them for further analysis, (4) to indicate relationships between and frequencies of use of single positioning elements, once empirical cases are identified and classified within the typology, (5) to allow to compare each positioning base and element with one another, and finally (6) to ensure versatility of the typology so that it is applicable to diverse product categories within consumer markets.

The manageability of the typology should always be kept in mind during the process of development (Bailey, 1994). It is a main function of any classification scheme to be easily applied and efficiently used. However, if some typologies still seem unmanageable and hard to implement, one has to simply think of how hard and confusing it was before (Bailey, 1994).

Another danger which should be considered during typology development, is that merely conceptual typologies are likely to treat theoretical constructs (such as a certain positioning base or element), which do not exist empirically, as real (Bailey, 1994). Thus care must be taken when specifying the single positioning bases.

So after conceptually deriving a positioning classification scheme, cases are compared to allocate them to respective bases and elements. Consequently, care must be taken, since each case can be compared according to different criteria or key dimensions, whereas different criteria would lead to the development and assignment of different bases (and therefore different typologies) (Kluge and Kelle, 1999). Thus, while conceptually deriving a typology as well as while empirically confirming positioning elements, it is important to bear in mind along which key dimensions the positioning bases and elements in the advertisements are supposed to be tested.

But before starting the process of classification, let us consider some basics which should always be kept in mind when deriving a classification scheme and when later describing each class and its subclasses, i.e. positioning bases and elements. “Any classificatory activity must be preceded by ... an investigation of the basic notions, e.g. by answering the following interrelated questions”, (Diday et al., 1994, p. 4).

- What is a class, i.e. a positioning base?
- Which characteristics or properties determine a positioning strategy?
- Which structural relationships may exist between positioning alternatives, i.e. their respective bases?
- What overall purpose should be attained by the typology?

So basically it needs to be kept in mind that the typology serves to describe, group and conceptually demarcate positioning strategies as applied in today’s consumer markets.

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Same as any other classification scheme, it will be made up of different classes and subclasses, referred to as positioning bases and elements respectively, which aim to represent single positioning strategies grouped together according to the similarity of their underlying positioning concepts. Both advertising messages and artwork of advertisements are analyzed to infer any positioning strategy.

The development of the positioning typology was conducted in accordance with the work of Bailey (1994) and Parkinson and Totterdell (1999). Please see **figure 5** for an overview of the process.

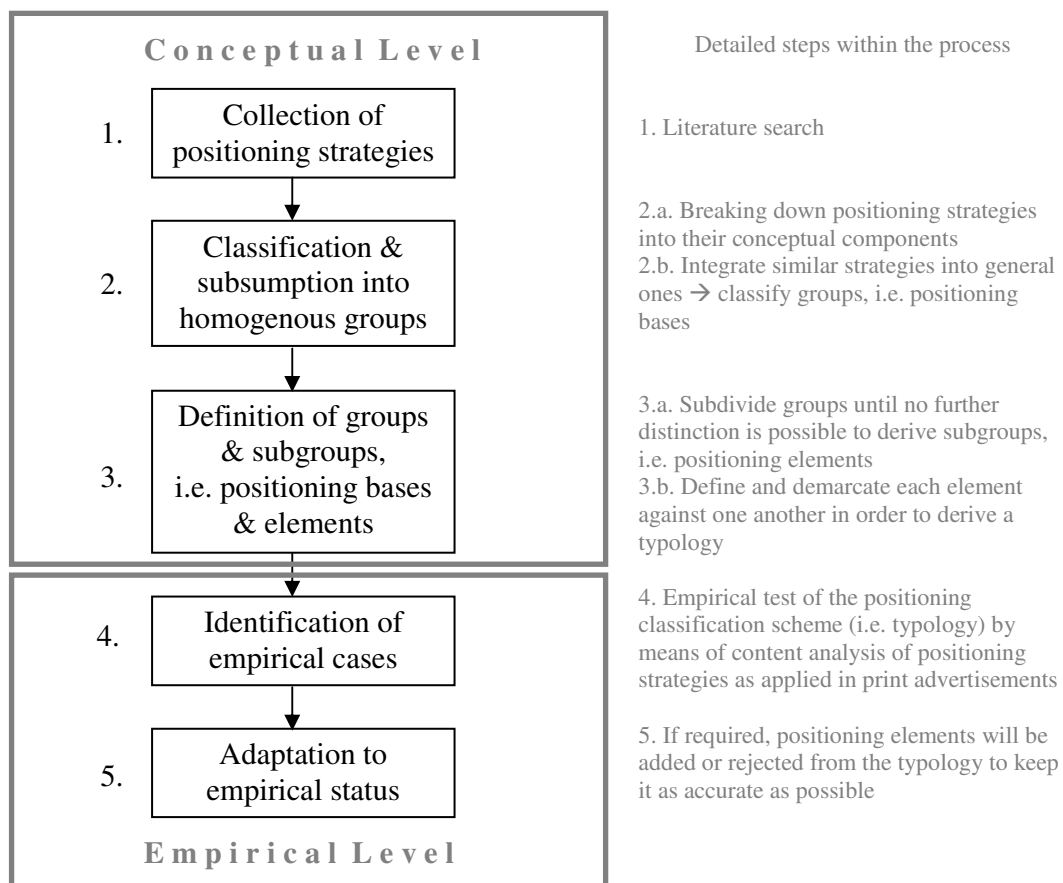


Figure 5: Process of classification scheme development (in accordance with Bailey, 1994, and Parkinson and Totterdell, 1999)

3.1 COLLECTION OF POSITIONING STRATEGIES

The first stage of typology development comprised the collection of an extensive list of positioning strategies. In accordance with Parkinson's and Totterdell's work (1999), who also initiated the development of their typology with collecting available and applied strategies, this first phase of the classification process was started. As typology development in Bailey's (1994) combined approach is mainly conceptual, existing positioning typologies even those which were not derived from an advertising context in consumer markets (such as Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001 2004; Kalafatis et al., 2000; and purely conceptual typologies such as Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Kapferer, 2000; as well as best-practice suggestions Ries and Trout, 1986), were taken as a starting point for the development of the new typology. When reviewing literature the potential variety of positioning strategies seems to be almost infinite, as any activity employed in advertising and aimed at differentiating a brand and creating a value proposition for the customer can be seen as attempt to position the focal brand. Thus a vast array of positioning elements describing slightly different strategies was included, as the aim of this step is to capture the diversity of positioning strategies. However, it appears probable that these strategies can be classified into a clear number of groups, i.e. positioning bases.

The collection of positioning bases and elements from different typologies and taxonomies (Brown and Sims, 1976; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Ries and Trout, 1986; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Aaker, 1991; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Hooley et al., 1998; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis et al., 2001 2004; Kapferer, 2004) resulted in the inclusion of a total of 100 positioning elements. The results of the work of Laskey et al. (1989) and especially Frazer (1983) were not included at this step of the process of typology development, as Frazer's focus was not so much on how positioning strategies were executed via advertising or as consumers perceive product positions, but on the strategy, which lies behind execution, as pursued by managers (Frazer, 1983). However, the work of Laskey et al. (1989), who had developed a refined and more accurate version of Frazer's typology, was consulted in step 3 when definitions of positioning elements were derived and explained in great detail. All positioning bases from remaining typologies – even when basically describing the same element (e.g. positioning by attribute) with slightly different

definitions and wording – were collected and incorporated to capture even slightly different meanings of a single positioning alternative. Consequently, the typology comprised, for instance, six positioning elements with slightly different definitions each describing positioning along attributes. For an overview of the starting point of the new typology see appendix A.

3.2 CLASSIFICATION AND SUBSUMPTION

Some descriptions of positioning strategies referred to more than one kind of activity such as Aaker and Shansby's (1982, p. 57) definition of attribute positioning "associating a product with an attribute, a product feature, or customer benefit". Hence, these descriptions of positioning strategies were broken down into their constituent parts (Parkinson and Totterdell, 1999). In the case of the description just cited, this meant that it was split up into attribute and benefit positioning. This procedure of splitting up descriptions of positioning alternatives was applied to various elements.

To then create a more exclusive and less complex overview of positioning strategies, those descriptions of positioning alternatives which were apparently closely related and conceptually found to be similar were combined and integrated into more general groups (Parkinson and Totterdell, 1999), so called positioning bases. The positioning base of positioning by product class, for instance, was made up of originally four slightly different descriptions by Aaker and Shansby (1982), Aaker (1991), Wind (1982) and Arnott and Easingwood (1994). They were all combined and subsumed under the umbrella term and description of positioning by product class.

After this step the new typology ends up with 37 positioning elements, which means that 63 elements have been merged to either higher-order positioning elements (e.g. Aaker's intangible attribute positioning definition is subordinated to the more general base "attribute positioning") or with positioning elements which resemble each other in their original description (e.g. the new "attribute positioning" construct is further combined of (1) Kapferer's (2004) and Aaker and Shansby's (1982) attribute positioning definition, and (2) Wind's (1982), Crawford's (1985) and Aaker's (1991) feature positioning definition and (3) the positioning elements of Arnott and

Easingwood (1994), Kalafatis et al. (2000) and Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) concerned with descriptions of a product's aspects).

Some positioning elements (such as "Distinct identity" and "Differentiation", Kalafatis et al., 2000; "Selectivity", Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004) were already excluded from typology development at this stage of the process, as they were not adequately defined and explained by their authors and therefore it could not be assured that they were correctly integrated into the new typology. However, if during the empirical test of the typology it was found that positioning elements conceptually related to these actually exist, then they are adopted in step 5 of the typology development process.

As several positioning elements were joined to more general ones within this step, the latter ones are likely to become more fragmented and detailed in the following phases. Therefore positioning bases with corresponding elements may emerge.

3.3 DEFINITION OF POSITIONING BASES AND ELEMENTS

For the third step, the last step of the conceptual part of the process, Parkinson and Totterdell (1999) suggest categorizing strategies starting with broadly defined groupings, and then working downward to subdividing low level groupings until no other distinctions can be made. These tasks are completed simultaneously with the editing of bases and elements, as for now, the typology contains several positioning bases which do not yet have a clear and single definition. Therefore all combined positioning strategies need to be refined to produce a common definition. The focus shifts from strategy generation to element editing. A single definition for each element is devised and, further, in accordance with Parkinson and Totterdell (1999), some positioning strategies are classified into one group with higher level positioning strategies (such as "reliability" is, for example, part of the element of "abstract attributes" which again is a part of the positioning base of attribute positioning). Other elements such as "Use the name" were eliminated from the typology as they turned out to be nothing more than suggestions or best practices. Categorizing and further subdividing each positioning strategy resulted in 24 distinctive positioning bases which are described in detail in appendix B.

By conducting a comprehensive literature review additional positioning bases were identified which have not yet been included in existing typologies and taxonomies (i.e. which do not match other elements of existing positioning typologies). These were included due to their overall relevance in positioning practice. Herewith on the one side already included positioning elements were further detailed and elaborated to clearly define them and distinguish them from other elements, and on the other side the positioning typology was enlarged to today's positioning practice as applied on a global scope. Consequently a profound basis to develop a state-of-the art positioning typology is ensured.

In appendix C each element of the positioning typology as it is at this stage of the positioning typology development process is clearly described which helps to better understand the content of each element and should additionally ease its application for coding (i.e. categorization tasks).

3.4 EMPIRICAL TEST

Finally the conceptually derived positioning classification needs to be empirically tested to confirm its applicability and reliability as well as to improve its accuracy where necessary (Bailey, 1994; Parkinson and Totterdell, 1999). Therefore positioning claims of 959 print advertisements in ten different product categories (cars, fashion, food, health care and beauty products, high-tech products and household appliances, snacks and beverages, sports equipment, watches, financial services and services offered by airlines; all discussed in detail in chapter 5.2.1.) were investigated via content analysis with the aim to allocate each positioning claim into exactly one of the positioning classification's categories. Hence, to empirically prove that the derived classification scheme covers all of today's positioning practices.

Applicability. It can be stated that the aim, to categorize all positioning claims, was achieved. However, positioning intentions, if there were any, of 21 out of 959 advertisements could not be detected. This equals a percentage of 2.2% of brands which are not positioned. Compared to the latest study of this kind which was made by Crawford (1985), this is an improvement in the ability to classify brand positioning of 23.8% (in Crawford's study from a total of 26% of ads no positioning statements could

be deduced). However, these 2.2% of ads are either not positioned at all or their positioning messages are so weak and diffuse that no claim can be deduced. In both cases managers would not “do the product much good if it is so vague, we could not find it” (Crawford, 1985, p. 246). Ads which were classified as “not positioned” contained in some cases mere lists of product attributes which cannot be regarded as positioning.

Reliability. “To perform reliability tests, analysts require data in addition to the data whose reliability is in question. These are called reliability data, and analysts obtain them by duplicating their research efforts under various conditions” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 212). Hence, reliability of classification schemes tested via content analysis is usually confirmed by having more than one analyst perform the analysis and to ensure as high of an agreement among coders about categorizing the content as possible (Riffe et al., 1998). Thus, achieving reliability in content analysis starts with defining the classification’s categories with the help of a code book and then brief analysts to apply those definitions to the content. “The process ends with the assessment of reliability through coder reliability tests”, (Riffe et al., 1998, p. 105) which indicates numerically how well concept definitions have controlled the assignment of content to the appropriate analytic categories.

The first steps were well followed within the study at hand (as is detailed in chapter 5), but due to the fact that resources were limited and no more than one analyst and coder was available the duplication of data was impossible. Hence, the confirmation of the positioning scheme’s reliability is still born out.

Accuracy. During the process of analysis it became evident that some positioning elements could be further subdivided whereas other positioning elements turned out to be too narrowly defined for the practical application of the classification scheme. To start with the former phenomenon, claims of abstract attributes were, as already indicated by Snelders and Schormans (2004), empirically found to contain two different kinds of attributes – functional and symbolic ones. The former contains abstract attributes which relate to a product’s functional aspects and frequently contain the combined meaning of several concrete attributes (such as quality or reliability). Abstract symbolic attributes deal with other, more hedonic aspects of the product (Snelders and

Schormans, 2004). As this differentiation between the two types of abstract attributes showed apparent at a very early stage of the coding process, it was incorporated into the classification scheme.

Furthermore at a far later stage of content analysis, it actually showed that marketers differentiate between different kinds of experience, i.e. other market and years in business, when using it as a positioning claim. This is actually already indicated by literature (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) where it is distinguished between seven different areas of expertise (other market, bandwagon, years/ time in business, size of business, sales volumes, parentage and credibility). However, initially this narrow and detailed definition was declined because according to previous experience and analysis of positioning claims, marketers did not differentiate between multiple sources of experience in their claims. As this differentiation within experience crystallized only at the end of the coding process, it was not incorporated into the analysis any more. Hence, it is only respected in the definition of the positioning classification's element of experience positioning in chapter 4.3.9.

In contrast to the above positioning bases which were initially not detailed enough, thus, had to be added, there are two positioning bases which are apparently too narrow for the practical application of the classification scheme. Hence, some of their respective elements were either not at all or only to a very limited amount used. The former was the case for the positioning element of company parentage, which has the purpose to relate the focal product to the company it is produced by. Due to its non-usage within the sample of 959 advertisements, it is concluded to be of no (or very limited) relevance in current positioning practice and hence, removed from the positioning base of parentage positioning (see chapter 4.3.3.).

Another positioning element which was actually only used in a single advertisement and therefore indicates to be of minor relevance in today's positioning practices is positioning by uniqueness. Hence, for the development of future positioning classification schemes it is recommended to be merged with the positioning element of superiority which also is classified under the respective positioning base of nonpareil positioning.

4 THE NEW POSITIONING TYPOLOGY

Finally the new positioning typology consists of 14 bases and 32 elements. The current chapter is dedicated to the definition of each positioning element and its demarcation against other positioning alternatives. The definitions and descriptions you can find in the following portray the perfect criterion type, i.e. the perfect positioning alternative in its purest and most dominant form, possessing all relevant features of the focal positioning element by further exhibiting extreme clarity on them (Bailey, 1994). It is further attempted to illustrate positioning elements with the help of representative examples from the advertising context. “But how often is the perfect specimen found empirically?”, (Bailey, 1994, p.19). Hence, empirical examples from our less-than-perfect world are employed to highlight real life applications of ideal types, i.e. positioning elements, “as they could not be found empirically in their conceptual purity” (Bailey, 1994, p. 19).

According to the resulting classification and further in accordance to Crawford’s model work (1985), the elaborated classification scheme distinguishes between three higher-level positioning categories: positioning by (1) attributes, (2) customer benefits and (3) surrogates. They are all described in great detail in the following subchapters.

4.1 ATTRIBUTE POSITIONING

The definition of attribute positioning of this typology is derived in accordance with the work of Aaker and Shansby (1982), Crawford (1985) and Kapferer (2004) and reads as follows.

Attribute positioning focuses on associating a product with a differentiating attribute or a product feature, whereas a feature is some aspect of the product itself – a characteristic evident or hidden, usually tangible though it need not be. Therefore attribute positioning can range from (1) specific product features, i.e. evident characteristics of the product (such as size, colour or price) to (2) more abstract attributes, i.e. frequently hidden, intangible aspects of the product which can be classified as (a) functional (referring to functional aspects of the product such as quality,

safety, reliability, performance, innovation or customization) and (b) symbolic (referring to hedonic aspects of the product such as elegance, design, luxury).

Positioning brands along the attributes they possess has been common practice since the early days of positioning and therefore is believed to be the most frequently used positioning practice (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Evans et al., 1996) especially for industrial products (Wind, 1982) where main differentiating strategies relate to hard-choice criteria such as product performance or pricing (Kalafatis et al., 2000). Consequently there is vast literature about attribute positioning (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Ries and Trout, 1986; Laskey et al., 1989; Aaker, 1991; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Evans et al., 1996; Kalra and Goodstein, 1998; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004; Kotler, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; and Snelders and Schoormans, 2004) though not all authors refer to it using this name but substitutes such as feature positioning (Wind, 1982). Aaker and Shansby (1982) as well as Wind (1982) are among the first authors to mention this positioning element within their respective typologies. Their definitions as well as Crawford's consideration (1985) that features need not necessarily be tangible and Aaker's distinction (1991) between tangible and intangible attributes (also shared by other authors such as Kotler, 2003; Kapferer, 2004) influenced the attribute positioning element derived for this typology heavily. This means that attribute positioning within this typology is viewed in a quite broad context: tangible features as well as more abstract attributes both fall into the category of attribute positioning. So to develop a clear typology with mutually exclusive bases and elements the positioning base of attribute positioning needs further sub-categorization. The elements are conceptually based on the work of Aaker (1991) and are referred to as (1) product features (an evident, objectively verifiable characteristic of the product) and (2) abstract attributes ("hidden", intangible aspects of the product).

4.1.1 Concrete Features vs. Abstract Attributes

The parallel existence of both concrete and abstract attributes within this positioning base allows also merging and including positioning elements such as Aaker and Shansby's (1982) positioning by price and quality, Hooley et al. (1998) positioning by quality as well as innovation positioning by Easingwood and Mahajan (1989), Arnott and Easingwood (1994) or Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004). But how can concrete

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attributes and abstract features be clearly distinguished from one another? Where to draw the line? The work of Snelders and Schormans (2004) provides detailed insight into the framework and composition of abstract attributes and concludes that when relating to functional aspects of a product abstract attributes “are inclusive of concrete attributes. For a much larger part, however, abstract attributes are unconnected with concrete attributes, and they, deal with other, more hedonic aspects of the product” (Snelders and Schormans, 2004, p. 814) which then is referred to as symbolic abstract attributes within the typology at hand.

Marketers need to pay attention, as according to criticism of Vriens and Hofstede (2000) in highly complex markets (such as the high-tech market – cameras, computers or financial services) concrete attribute positioning does not work well, since all the product information is simply overwhelming for the consumer. Furthermore there are markets where product performance of different brands has become very similar (as in the FMCG market) which implies that positioning on attributes (even multiple attributes) may not be effective.

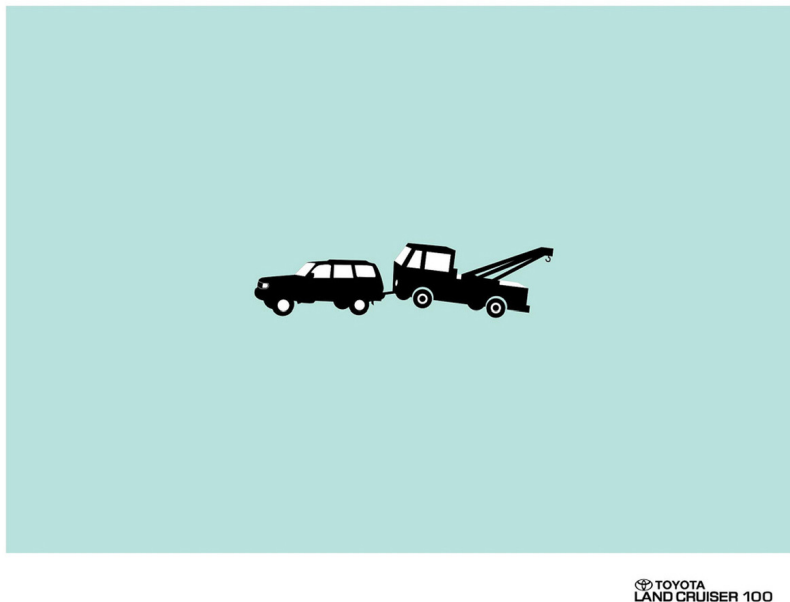


Figure 6: TOYOTA ad, www.adsoftheworld.com, Feb 07, 2008

to the base of attribute positioning, marketers need to obviously associate a brand with one (or a few) certain attribute(s) or product feature(s) such as in the print ad of Toyota where nothing but product reliability is emphasized (see **figure 6**).

To clearly assign the positioning strategy applied in a print ad to the positioning base of attribute positioning it is not enough to merely list a number of attributes (Crawford, 1985). But to singly allocate a positioning strategy

4.2 BENEFIT POSITIONING

Benefit positioning as within this typology is incorporated in most of the existing typologies (Brown and Sims, 1976; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Laskey et al., 1989, 1995; Aaker, 1991; Hooley et al., 1998; Kotler, 2003; and Kapferer, 2004). The definition of benefit positioning is heavily influenced by the model work of Crawford (1985). Benefit positioning focuses on ...

...associating a product with a benefit (by translating abstract attributes and concrete features into how they benefit the consumer), whereas a benefit is some way in which a consumer gains from the purchase or use of a product. It can be distinguished between (1) direct benefits resulting right from product use or purchase, (2) indirect benefits which are follow-on results of a direct benefit (such as feelings triggered by the use or purchase), (3) functional benefits attaining to solve utilitarian problems and (4) emotional benefits aiming to satisfy symbolic or experiential needs .

4.2.1 Direct vs. Indirect Benefits

Several authors such as Crawford (1985), Aaker (1991) or Kapferer (2004) distinguish between direct and indirect benefits. In different classification schemes direct benefits are referred to as rational (closely related to product attributes) or objective benefits and indirect benefits as psychological (relating to feelings triggered by the rational benefit which have further impact on building brand attitudes) or subjective benefits (Aaker, 1991, and Kapferer, 2004, respectively). It is indicated by previous studies that companies employ positioning along indirect benefits quite rarely compared to direct ones (Crawford, 1985), but advertisements emphasizing both direct and indirect (rational and psychological) benefits are believed to be far more effective than advertisements emphasizing only one kind of benefit (Aaker, 1991).

4.2.2 Functional vs. Emotional Benefits

Benefits can further be distinguished according to what kind of needs they aim to satisfy (Bhat and Reddy, 1998). Authors (Park et al., 1986; Bhat and Reddy, 1998; Campbell,

2002; Orth et al., 2004) distinguish between various kinds of benefits whereas the three main kinds stemming from certain needs are functional vs. symbolic vs. experiential benefits.

(1) Functional benefits correspond to intrinsic advantages of a product and product-related attributes (Keller, 1993), as they stem from/ aim to satisfy utilitarian problem-



Figure 7: dyson „No loss of suction“ ad, www.cameronmoll.com/archives, Feb 14, 2008

solving needs. For an illustration of positioning along direct functional benefits please see the Dyson advertisement emphasizing the benefit to always maintain full suction power (figure 7). In contrast to this (2) symbolic benefits “are the more extrinsic advantages of product or service consumption. They usually correspond to non-product-related attributes and relate to underlying needs for social approval or personal expression and outer-directed self-esteem”, (Campbell, 2002, p. 32). (3) Experiential benefits correspond to the feelings evoked by the product and aim to satisfy such needs as sensory pleasure or variety (Park et al., 1986).

As you realize the latter two kinds of benefits are closely linked to emotions and feelings which gives reason to subsume them under one element – emotional benefits. More recent work (Orth et al., 2004) supports the existence of these two kinds of benefits. Further it puts forward that the distinction between the different kinds of benefits is even more detailed. But as close conceptual examination and the subsequent empirical study will show these more detailed benefits can be subsumed to the two main dimensions, therefore they are not discussed in more detail here, neither are they included into the positioning base of benefit positioning.

Positioning along an emotional benefit has always been known and applied by marketers of luxury goods, but “the appeal to the heart instead of the head is now increasing in a wide range of markets” (Mahajan and Wind, 2002, p. 36). Therefore emotional benefit positioning is mainly discussed by researchers and practitioners within the past decade (Thompson et al., 2006). By making advertising messages more vague and emotions more vivid, emotional benefit positioning appeals to feelings instead of rational decision making (Mahajan and Wind, 2002). The goal herewith is to develop strong and meaningful emotional bonds with consumers to participate in their lives and memories and to become part of their social network (Atkin, 2004). To achieve this, marketers need to show special sensitivity and sure instinct in understanding their target group’s dreams and desires.

A great benefit of linking consumers emotionally to a brand is that once the emotional link is established and consumers are emotionally satisfied, they are more loyal to the brand and less price-sensitive (Mahajan and Wind, 2002). But marketers should bear in mind that emotional benefit positioning is somewhat more risky than positioning appealing to the head, as emotions and affect are rather sensitive to differences in interpretation. So the danger of misinterpretation is even higher when positioning a brand cross-culturally (Mahajan and Wind, 2002).

Mahajan and Wind (2002) especially suggest emotional benefit positioning for big-ticket items and technologically complex products, as for instance, it is far more comfortable and easier to buy a car which makes the owner look smart than to read all the fine print product details. Several car producers apply this positioning element such as Skoda with their slogan “simply clever” or VW Beetle associating with fun (see **figure 8**). Thus especially commodity products which have only few attributes to cognitively differentiate from each other, successfully apply emotional benefit positioning. Furthermore the application of this positioning element is rather effective for services, credence goods, familiar products and multiple generations of a product and unmentionable products (such as funeral services or hygiene products) (Mahajan and Wind, 2002).



Figure 8: VW Beetle – Drive a smile, Woman, 2006

Concluding it remains to state that benefit positioning is believed to be more effective than positioning along attributes only (Wind, 1982), as it highlights the way in which the

consumer gains from a product's attributes. Hence, benefit positioning is closely related to the element of attribute positioning, though benefits are more vague and interpretative (Crawford, 1985).

When analyzing advertisements, it may frequently seem hard to distinguish between attribute and benefit positioning. The line appears to be thin, as in attribute positioning "the benefit of the abstract attribute may be implied, but the difference that is claimed is clearly a feature difference" (Crawford, 1985, p. 247). It may further pose some difficulties to determine the positioning element where a specific feature (such as low price or flavour) yields a flip-side benefit (such as low cost or taste). In this case one need to pay attention to which of either is actually emphasized (Crawford, 1985).

4.3 SURROGATE POSITIONING

The first two positioning elements of this typology – attribute and benefit positioning – are especially well explored by academics and researchers as indicated by the vast literature available on the topic. Crawford (1985) subsumes all remaining positioning alternatives under the term of "surrogate positioning". This positioning category refers to positioning elements which substitute with the help of the claims they make for the marketer's description of attributes and benefits. As a consequence claims within advertisements allow for each single consumer to reach individual conclusions about the

product (Crawford, 1985). This makes surrogate positioning rather effective and powerful; it appears to be tailor-made for prospects and consumers.

Within the typology at hand a vast array of different positioning elements can be identified which match the characteristics of and therefore fall under the category of surrogate positioning. Please find them below, ordered according to their usage frequency in print advertisements and starting with the most frequently used one.

4.3.1 Positioning by Endorsement

The definition of positioning by endorsement reads ...

... claims of extrinsic cues which let the consumer infer the brand's superiority through associating the focal brand to extrinsic cues such as (1) statements of experts, (2) celebrities, (3) lead users, (4) unrelated events/ disciplines and (5) brand personality traits.

Consumers perceive a product positioned by endorsement as superior “because people you (they) respect say it’s good” (Crawford, 1985, p. 248). Consequently endorsement positioning is on the one hand especially “valuable for products with experience or credence attributes, where consumers are unable to evaluate the product without initial purchase or consulting an expert” (Dean, 1999, p. 3), and on the other hand it seems of great service when products are purchased for self-expressive and symbolic purposes and social desirability needs (Batra and Homer, 2004).

The approach of endorsement is based on meaning transfer, where meaning is drawn from the culturally constituted world, transferred to a product and then again drawn from the product and transferred to the consumer (McCracken, 1986). McCracken (1986) as well as Batra and Homer (2004) view advertising as an instrument of meaning transfer and therefore emphasize that “endorsers can be seen as conduits of cultural meaning transfer” (Batra and Homer, 2004, p. 319). Consequently when applying the theory of meaning transfer to endorsement positioning, the goal is to transfer the image and associations of the endorser to a brand (Aaker, 1991) and subsequently to the consumer. This might be a reason for consumers to prefer brands matching their own

personality and style (Batra and Homer, 2004). According to Crawford (1985) a product can be endorsed either through the opinion of an expert/ jury or through a person to be emulated. But within the typology at hand endorsement positioning is even further subcategorized, it can be distinguished between (1) experts/ jury, (2) celebrity endorsers, (3) lead users, (4) unrelated personalities/ events (such as sponsorships)/ disciplines, and (5) brand personality.

Ein starker Auftritt, der die Presse begeistert:
der neue Jaguar XJ 2.7 L Twin Turbo Diesel.

Das Katzenhafte, das Elegante, auch im Fahrgefühl, der XJ vermittelt es noch immer.
Wir jetzt erst recht.

„Unter den Luxuslimousinen mit Dieselmotor ist der Jaguar XJ mit Abstand am leiseesten, wie Messungen des TÜV ergaben.“

„XJ-Fahrer können ihre Vorurteile bezüglich Diesel über Bord werfen.“

ab 589 €/Monat*

Mehr Informationen unter Tel. 0180 55757 (0,12 €/Min.) oder www.jaguar.de

JAGUAR

Figure 9: Jaguar XJ 2.7 L Twin Turbo Diesel, DER SPIEGEL, 2006

Positioning by endorsement of experts. Independent organizations, experts or juries specialized in ranking and rating certain product categories (such as the Euro NCAP rating cars' safety in an industry comparison) are trusted by consumers and high in expertise in their field. Therefore they are highly effective as endorsers (Dean, 1999). This theory can be backed by considering some practical examples such as Oral-B which is promoted as the “toothbrush most frequently recommended by dentists” or the jaguar advertisement in **figure 9** where citations of opinions about the car from expert magazines are published.

The distinction between expert endorsement positioning and nonpareil positioning may appear ambiguous and hard at first glance, as in both positioning alternatives superiority is emphasized. However, what makes the difference rather clear is the way in which this transcendence is highlighted. Claims of superiority in the case of nonpareil positioning are rarely objectively verifiable, they are hardly ever factually based, but marketers simply claim overall brand transcendence. In contrast to this, supremacy in expert endorsements is always factually based, as a neutral jury or unbiased experts rate the brand along objectively verifiable criteria.

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The positioning element at hand is further not to be confused with positioning by rank which highlights nothing but a leadership in sales figures (as is detailed in the following section). So for the positioning strategy of a print advertisement to be classified as endorsed by an expert or a jury such a person or institution needs to be explicitly named and its mere quote has to allow for consumers to infer brand's superiority.

Positioning by celebrity endorsement. Enormous amounts of money are spent each year on celebrity endorsement contracts (Hsu and McDonald, 2002), which illustrates that celebrity endorsement is a quite popular positioning strategy (Kalra and Goodstein, 1998). Herewith the individual associations of the celebrity are transferred to the brand the celebrity is related to. Thus, a position beyond that established by attributes is created and the focal brand is perceived as more distinctive by consumers (Kalra and Goodstein, 1998).

Furthermore celebrity endorsement is emphasized to have a positive impact on consumer attention, recall, evaluations as well as purchase intention (Hsu and McDonald, 2002). The match between accessible endorser association and attributes associated with the brand “enhances consumers attitudes under conditions of high issue-relevant elaboration”, (Kirmani and Shiv, 1998, p. 44).



Figure 10: Nicole Kidman for CHANEL N°5 and Brad Pitt for TAGHeuer, www.chanel.com and www.tagheuer.com, Jan 31, 2008

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For associations and meaning transfer between the brand and a celebrity to be evoked, it may actually even be sufficient for marketers to simply display the celebrity on an advertisement. This rather unobtrusive way seems to be quite frequently applied in practice. Just think of advertisements for perfume, watches or other luxury goods (see **figure 10**).

Positioning by endorsement through a lead user. Lead users (defined as people who use the sponsoring brand on a constant professional basis) – just like experts – have the potential to contribute to a brand’s credibility. Though not officially accredited, their constant achievements within their special fields, make them to be perceived as experts in their respective areas. Thus, they provide especially compelling testimonials for brands which have contributed to their performance and success (Stone et al., 2003).

Consumers trust the judgment of lead users (Aaker, 1991). If LeBron James, following one of the most successful careers as professional Basketball player in the NBA, trusts Nike to produce high quality basketball shoes, then consumers are very likely to infer the superiority of these shoes compared to competitive offerings. Would a legend like LeBron James wear other than the best shoes on the market?

As you may realize from the Nike ad displayed in **figure 11**, it is sufficient for successful positioning along lead users to simply present the lead user on the same ad as the brand. However, if the athlete or, more general, the lead user does not truly support the brand in real life, i.e. does not wear or use the shoes during games, consumers might soon realize this and the positioning strategy is very likely to fail (Aaker, 1991). Aaker



Figure 11: Professional basketball player LeBron James for Nike, www.nytimes.com, Jan 31, 2008

(1991) emphasizes that marketers like to apply lead user positioning especially for products where the functional aspect plays a major role.

The three above named positioning elements (i.e. expert, celebrity endorser and lead user positioning) can be summarized under the term of third-party endorsements, i.e. recommendations by a neutral third party – neither the sponsoring brand, nor the ordinary consumer (Dean, 1999). They are a type of extrinsic cue which is frequently used by consumers to infer belief and product attributes (Dean, 1999). In order for third-party endorsements to positively influence product perceptions, endorsers need to be rated rather high in expertise, trustworthiness and perceived social value (such as physical attractiveness, social status, similarity to the observer etc.) (Dean, 1999; Batra and Homer, 2004). Furthermore Batra and Homer (2004) suggest that the personality of an endorser should try to reinforce related personality beliefs about the brand if they are typical for the brand's product category, i.e. an endorser's attributes are relevant to the scheme held by consumers for the brand's product category. No matter what kind of third-party endorsement is applied, the endorser should incur some kind of "cost", in terms of loss of reputation or similar in case that the endorsement is misleading (Dean, 1999).

Positioning by endorsement of unrelated events or disciplines. But the person associated to a brand does not necessarily need to be a celebrity, neither does he/ she need to be real (Aaker, 1991) or related to the product category of the brand (consider for instance Mr. Clean, alias Meister Proper in German-speaking countries or Michelin's Bib). Actually it is not even a prerogative for the "endorser" to be a person, but frequently marketers associate with an unrelated story, discipline or event (Dean, 1999).

Compared to third-party endorsements the position of the brand is switched from being the object of endorsement to being the endorser itself. But just as with third party endorsement this positioning element also works with the help of associations. Dean (1999) suggests that consumers having a positive valuation or sentiment towards an event or discipline sponsored by brand X are likely to also positively perceive the sponsoring brand X. Once this linkage is created, the theory of "halo effects" emphasizes that consumers will consequently also perceive products of the brand

positively or even superior to competitors (Dean, 1999). For this kind of image transfer to successfully take place, it is recommended that the sponsoring brand and the

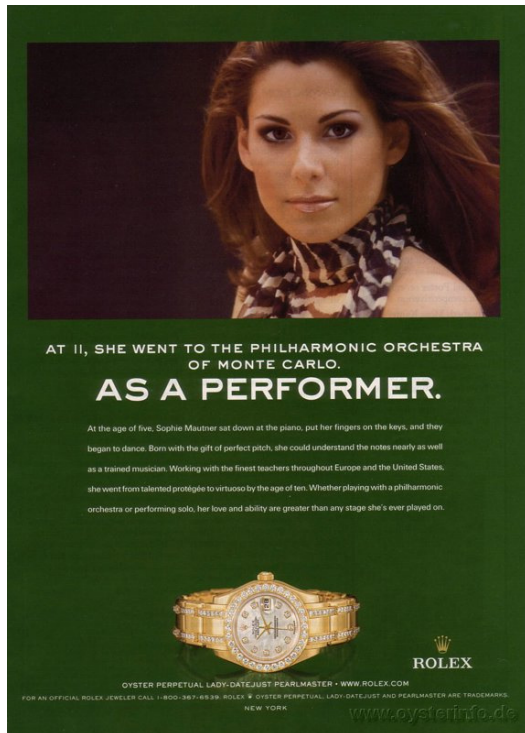


Figure 12: ROLEX Oyster Perpetual Lady-Datejust, www.oysterinfo.de, Feb 18, 2008

unrelated event/ discipline match each other, i.e. have some points of similarity (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999).

ROLEX likes to apply this positioning strategy. As is illustrated with the print advertisement in **figure 12**, they associate to stories of exceptional success from the background of a rather unrelated discipline, e.g. music (in **figure 12** emphasizing the extraordinary career progression of musician Sophie Mautner). The aim of this positioning strategy is that consumers associate the same kind of extraordinary success with the brand.

Positioning by brand personality. Furthermore marketers create associations about a brand which make the brand as unique as a real life personality (Aaker, 1991) in order to differentiate it from competition (Aaker, 1997). As the claims within advertisements emphasize associations of certain character traits and demographics with a brand, this subcategory of endorsement positioning is referred to as positioning by brand personality.

Consumers perceive brands to have distinctive character traits and personality criteria. Thus perceived brand personality is not merely influenced by the marketers' claims, but is also heavily impacted by consumers themselves (Phau and Lau, 2001) who generally prefer the brand. Brand personalities are meant to enable consumers to express themselves. Thus, "the greater the congruity between the human characteristics that consistently and distinctively describe an individual's actual or ideal self and those that describe a brand, the greater the preference for the brand", (Aaker, 1997, p. 348). In contrast to third-party endorsements and target positioning by user the focus of this positioning alternative is on the brand itself (Laskey et al., 1989). "A well-established



Figure 13: Patek Philippe Ref. 5146J, www.patek.com, Feb 03, 2008

brand personality can result in increased preference and usage, higher emotional ties to brand, trust and loyalty”, (Ramaseshan and Tsao, 2007, p. 459).

The watch brand Patek Philippe has applied this positioning alternative for almost ten years now. They focus on the unique and special relationship between father and son as well as tradition which is intrinsically linked to their brand via their positioning statement “You never actually own a Patek Philippe. You merely look after it for the next generation” (see **figure 13**).

4.3.2 Positioning by Target

Positioning by product user is heavily discussed in literature (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Laskey et al., 1989, 1995; Aaker, 1991; Arnold, 1992; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Kotler, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; Brandtner, 2005) and therefore impacted the formation of the definition for this positioning element which reads as follows.

Positioning by target refers to associating a product with a profiled user or a certain target group. Target groups are distinguished according to (1) the way in which they use or apply a product (end-use), referring to and associating with the situation where the product is best used (the product is made for a certain end-use), (2) demographic variables (such as age, gender, social grade, family composition, ethnicity, geographic location profile), (3) psychographic variables (such as lifestyle, personality, self-concept) and (4) behavioural variables.

Marketers applying target positioning show empathy and understanding for the consumer, which is intended to give reason for the consumer to prefer a product over other brands which are not specialized in serving certain niches (Brandtner, 2005). On the one side, targeted consumers easily identify with and relate to the brand, but on the other side, target positioning can also narrow down the market by decreasing possibilities for expansion (Aaker, 1991). As competition gets harsher, companies try to identify target groups which they can specialize in (Brandtner, 2005). “The basic idea is that the product must have whatever attributes you want, since it was prepared especially for you”, (Crawford, 1985, p. 248). The product is made just for YOU (Arnold, 1992). Consequently the main focus of advertisements applying target positioning is on the consumer, on persons using the brand, their activities and interests, jobs and lifestyles (Laskey et al., 1989).

Literature (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Laskey et al., 1989, 1995; Aaker, 1991; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Evans et al., 1996; Brandtner, 2005; Kotler, 2003) divides target positioning into: (a) positioning by product use or application and (b) positioning by user, whereas within this typology, as also in Crawford’s model work (1985) and Keller’s paper (1993), the latter element is further sub-classified into (1) demographic, (2) psychographic and (3) behavioral target positioning.

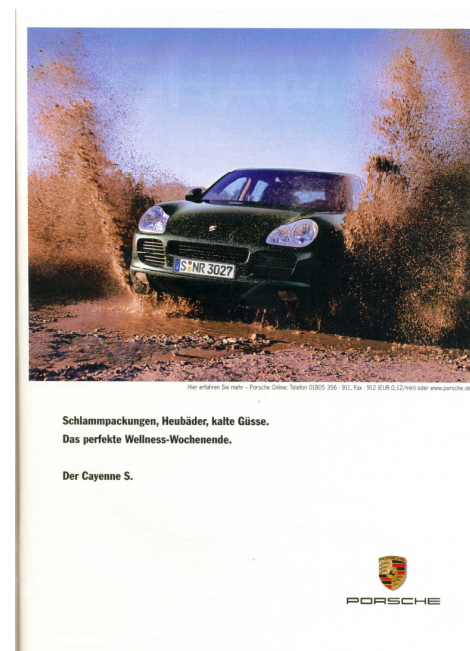


Figure 14: Porsche Cayenne, Der Spiegel (2005)

Target positioning by end-use. Positioning by usage or application focuses primarily on the experience of using the brand (Laskey et al., 1989) and is derived from the fact that consumers seek different benefits based on different consumption occasions (Evans et al., 1996). The strategy of end-use positioning focuses on associating a product with a specific usage or application which it is best for, i.e. the situation where the product is ideally used as indicated by literature (Brown and Sims, 1976; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Laskey et al., 1989, 1995;

Aaker, 1991; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Evans et al., 1996; Brandtner, 2005; Kotler, 2003). This may be based on the time of day, week or year, the location, type of activity or other (Keller, 1993). Consequently, advertisements applying this positioning element state that the product of interest is made especially for the explicitly claimed end-use as the Porsche Cayenne ad in **figure 14** demonstrates verbally and graphically by emphasizing that the car is made for all kinds of weather and soil.

Marketers also like to utilize the possibility of positioning their product against a certain (new kind of) use when the so far penetrated markets are saturated (Wansink and Ray, 1996) and products become almost identical, cannot be distinguished along attributes and benefits anymore (Brown and Sims, 1976). In this case companies (like ARM & HAMMER Baking Soda or Gatorade) like to apply usage positioning as a second or third position (additional to benefit positioning for instance) to expand their market (Brown and Sims, 1976; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991; Evans et al., 1996; Wansink and Ray, 1996). However, this does by no means indicate that positioning by use is not applied as single positioning.

Demographic target positioning. Target positioning further can take the form of

targeting a group of consumers according to their demographic profile. This element aims at associating a product with a target group (Aaker and Shansby, 1982) characterized according to demographic variables (Crawford, 1985; Myers, 1996) as, for instance, age, gender, social grade, family composition, ethnicity or geographic location profile (Evans et al., 1996).



Figure 15: IWC ad (2002), www.wirzwerbung.ch, January 30, 2008

Let's take Ginger Ale for instance, Cadbury was very successfully targeting non-alcohol drinking adults with their slogan "For when your tastes grow up" (Aaker, 1991). Another more recent example are IWC ads targeted specifically at men (see **figure 15**).

Psychographic target positioning. Marketers cannot only target their consumers along demographic variables, but another alternative in target positioning is positioning along psychographic profiles (Crawford, 1985; Evans et al., 1996). In this case advertisements seek “to portray products in the context of an idealized and desirable lifestyle” (Englis and Solomon, 1995, p. 13). Associations between a brand and their consumers, who are distinguished according to their lifestyles, personality variables and self-concept, interests, activities and opinions (Evans et al., 1996) are built.

This serves two purposes and has different affects on consumers: On the one side consumers being part of the targeted group realize that the brand is made for people leading their particular lifestyle (great congruence between product-user-image and consumers’ actual self-image), consequently they may purchase the brand (as it is made especially for them). On the other side people who wish to lead the portrayed lifestyle, which the product is associated to, may also buy the brand in order to be associated with this lifestyle (great congruence between product-user-image and consumers’ ideal self-image) (Johar and Sirgy, 1991; Englis and Soloman, 1995).



Figure 16: SONY vaio „be like no other“, www.abouttheimage.com, Jan. 30, 2008

This positioning element is also simply referred to as lifestyle positioning (Plummer, 1974), as lifestyle information is “employed to position a product based on the inferences drawn from the portrait of the consumers both in terms of basic needs and how the product fits in his life”, (Plummer, 1974, p. 36). A typical example for target positioning by the psychographic variable of lifestyle and personality is SONY’s ad emphasizing that their notebook brand “vain” is for individualistic people who want to demonstrate their uniqueness and individualism (see **figure 16**).

Behavioral target positioning. Finally literature (Crawford, 1985; Myers, 1996) suggests target positioning along behavioral variables where consumer behavior is used for brand positioning (Alpert and Gatty, 1969). A brand is associated to consumers who show a certain behavior such as heavy use of a product or brand. Miller Lite positioned their beer as best for the “heavy beer drinker” and Johnson & Johnson extended the market for their mild baby shampoo and targeted people who wash their hair frequently (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). A more recent example is Isostar positioning its energy drinks as targeted at people who win (see **figure 17**).

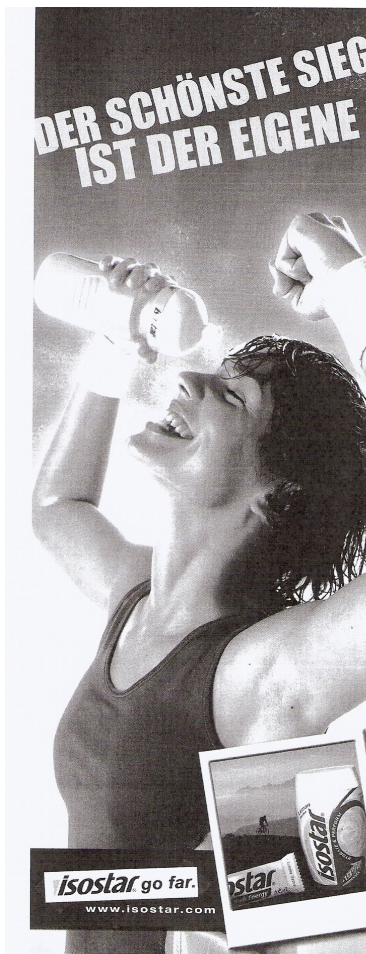


Figure 17: Isostar Energy drink, LAUFSPORT MARATHON, 2007

It is often hard to distinguish between psychographic positioning on the one side and behavioral positioning on the other side. Some authors such as Alpert and Gatty (1969) even subsume the two alternatives referring to the combined positioning strategy as “behavioral life-style positioning”. Nevertheless, within this typology the two elements are kept separate, as they actually intend to distinguish consumers according to different kinds of variables, i.e. lifestyle vs. behavior (as not related to any lifestyle or other characteristics).

Furthermore it is important to clearly distinguish between target positioning and benefit positioning, as in target positioning also the benefits suitable for the implied target group might be indicated. But the big difference is that target positioning actually associates with a certain target group and consequently the benefits which might be implicitly (or explicitly) signified are only relevant for that target group. Nobody but members of the target group view the highlighted consequences of the product as benefits. It is mainly the heavy beer drinkers who dislike the fill-up feeling of ordinary beer and prefer and/ or view the lightness of Miller Lite as a benefit.

Concluding it remains to highlight that certain authors (such as Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) consider target positioning of rather limited use in a service context, whereas in the goods environment it is evidently successfully applied as positioning element (Crawford, 1985).

4.3.3 Parentage Positioning

This typology's parentage positioning element is defined as ...

... claims about where the product comes from, i.e. that a product is made (1) by a certain brand, (2) by a specific person or (3) emphasizing specific corporate associations.

Consumers' global evaluations of a company's activities and therefore their corporate associations (all information about the company which consumers hold) are, in consistency with social psychology, suggested to have an impact on consumers' company, brand and product judgments (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Brown and Dacin, 1997). The strength with which corporate associations influence especially product evaluations seems to be related to the risk consumers perceive in purchasing the focal brand (Gürhan-Canli and Batra, 2004). When perceived risk is high, consumers tend to rely more heavily on different kinds of company associations. Corporate associations held by consumers form a sustainable competitive advantage (Brown and Dacin, 1997).

Thus, simply emphasizing who produced/ designed the product enhances consumers' quality and prestige perceptions. The brand, company or person or diverse corporate associations such as ethical (i.e. social, environmental, political) issues constitute the main reason of the purchase decision. The first and only author to discuss and analyze the approach of parentage positioning as such was Crawford in his revolutionary work "A New Positioning Typology" (1985). Brands positioned in respect to the parentage position emphasize where they come from, more detailed who makes them or performs them (Crawford, 1985). Crawford, who mainly influenced the development of parentage positioning within this typology, distinguishes between three subcategories within this element (1) brand, (2) company and (3) person. Advertisements are categorized according to who/ what is emphasized to have important impact on the production and

design of the product. No matter which subcategory is applied, consumers are thought to perceive product attributes and benefits from that parentage (Crawford, 1985).

Parentage positioning by brand. Marketing managers emphasize the relation between the sponsoring product and the brand it belongs to in their positioning strategy, as they “feel that the product’s quality can be assumed from the parentage of the brand“, (Crawford, 1985, p. 248). Hence, it seems that the theory of family branding and brand extensions are an antecedent of this positioning element. At least, they also capitalize on the brand image of the core brand to positively affect consumer evaluations of brand extensions (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993). This approach could be effectively applied when a strong mono brand is used to launch related brands. Unilever’s Persil

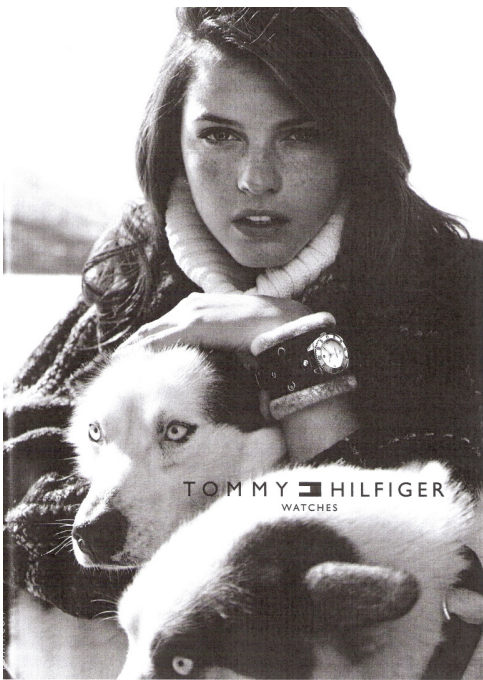


Figure 18: Tommy Hilfiger watches, woman, 2006

dishwashing liquid ranks among mono brands extended in this way (Laforet and Saunders, 1994). Brand positioning is likely to be applied in advertisements of fashion and beauty products. In this scenario frequently the only claim which is made is the brand name under which the product is launched (see **figure 18** where the only claim is that the watch is made by Tommy Hilfiger).

So for the empirical analysis performed to confirm this typology this means that all print advertisements clearly associating a product as a whole with a brand are classified under the positioning element of brand parentage.

Parentage positioning by company. “Some focused companies, like Shell, Kellogg, and Heinz, have made their company names synonymous with a product class. These corporate brand names appear as the only brand identity, as in Heinz ketchup, or along with another brand name” (Laforet and Saunders, 1994, p. 67) such as Kellogg’s Toppas or Nestlé Fitness. Marketers hope to convey certain associations (such as quality) consumers hold regarding to the company to the product. Consumers are meant to infer brand characteristics from the company parentage.

Although this positioning element is cited in literature (Crawford, 1985) and empirically confirmed to be used (Crawford, 1985), it is excluded from the positioning classification at hand, as during analysis it proved to be not applied in any positioning claim.

Brands applying positioning by company or brand parentage are according to Laforet and Saunders (1994) referred to as endorsed brands, as these products are supported by respectively the company or family brand behind them. This is supposed to ease the new product's acceptance by consumers (Aaker and Keller, 1990). However, these positioning elements have absolutely nothing in common with the positioning base of endorsement (which is described in detail in chapter 4.3.1.).



Figure 19: Roberto Cavalli for H&M, www.fashionista.com/, Dec 13, 2007

Parentage positioning by person. When H&M had Karl Lagerfeld, Madonna or Roberto Cavalla design their collection (see ad in **figure 19**), it was clear that consumers would buy the products because they were designed by the respective persons and consequently consumers inferred/ perceived them to be of high quality and special design.

Different to positioning via third-party endorsements (see chapter 4.3.1.) consumers infer product characteristics not because certain personalities say the brand is good, but because the brand was made by a specific person. So this very person, who was previously not related or associated to the brand, is included into the process of production or design and therefore puts his/ her label on the brand.

Parentage positioning by corporate associations. Parentage positioning along corporate associations refers to

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claims about a company's attitude and/ or activities on (1) ethical issues (such as social, political, environmental matters) or (2) consumer type 'deep' values.

Associations consumers hold about a brand or company in general are related to a company's overall actions, they are not limited to their products and brands, consequently authors (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Gürhan-Canli and Batra, 2004) consider all global actions a company makes when speaking of corporate associations. Therefore consumer's perceptions of a company's stance on (1) ethical issues and (2) consumer type deep values are positioning possibilities when highlighting corporate associations (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Kapferer, 2004; Gürhan-Canli and Batra, 2004).

The first sub-element to be mentioned here is positioning on ethical issues, referred to as positioning on corporate social responsibility (CSR). It manages "consumer's perceptions of a company's stance on ethical issues; be they social, political or environmental" (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) and therefore reflects the company's actions and status on these societal obligations (Brown and Dacin, 1997). CSR associations are frequently not related to a company's main business and products but they help to enhance liking and trustworthiness of the company (Aaker, 1996; Brown and Dacin, 1997). CSR programs connecting with corporate vision and the corporate

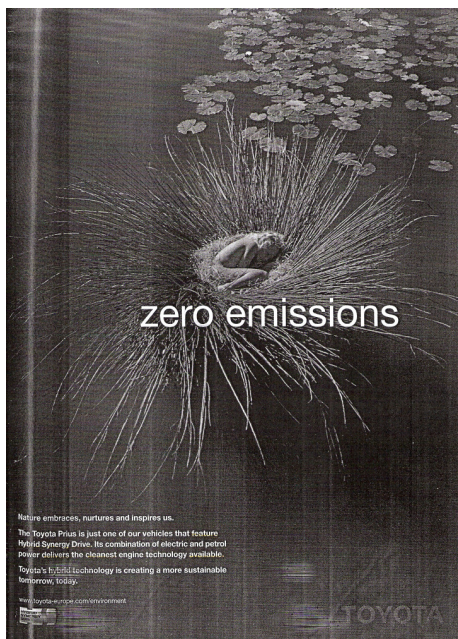


Figure 20: Toyota Prius,
The economist 2005

brand are likely to have positive effects on the brand's reputation (Argenti and Druckenmiller, 2004). Gürhan-Canli and Batra (2004) highlight that associations of CSR as the only corporate associations are excluded from the effect that they only influence purchase decisions when perceived risk is high. Companies positioning themselves on CSR associations are emphasized to benefit "through their positive relationships to the corporate evaluation herewith established" (Brown and Dacin, 1997, p. 73). An up-to-date example of this subcategory is the position Toyota occupies with its hybrid vehicle "Prius" (see **figure 20**).

To be absolutely clear for the content analysis of print advertisements, it stays to clarify that all advertisements emphasizing a positive relation towards ethical issues are categorized under the element of CSR positioning, no matter if the CSR association is directly (such as in the production process, a benefit etc.) or indirectly (such as in supporting handicapped people, minorities etc.) related to the product.

Corporate associations can further be centered on the company's mission statement, core task or aim (Kapferer, 2004). In this case marketers communicate the brand's deep values, i.e. what the brand is all about. Real life examples are Nestlé emphasizing maternal love or Nike's sports mentality. But as this kind of corporate association is mainly reflected in corporate- and not in product advertisements, it is not expected to find clear empirical support or evidence for this strategy. However, for the sake of completeness and the integrity of the typology advertisements emphasizing a brand's deep values and mission are categorized as belonging to this positioning element.

4.3.4 Positioning by Manufacture

Manufacture positioning is referred to as ...

... claims emphasizing how the product was made, creating differential advantage by pointing to the way the brand was made by highlighting (1) the process in which it was manufactured, (2) the technology/ innovation applied during production which may further enhance the (use of the) product, and (3) the quality and skills of the people involved in the production of the product.

Crawford (1985), as the first author to discuss and therefore to define positioning by manufacture, impacted the definition of the positioning base within this typology. He highlights that marketers applying this positioning element make claims about "how the product was made" (Crawford, 1985, p. 248) and emphasizes three different alternatives of manufacture positioning within his typology (1) manufacturing process, (2) ingredients of the brand and (3) design or technology applied in the product. Only two of his elements (process and technology) were adopted within this typology, since emphasizing ingredients of a brand can be clearly categorized within the positioning

base of attribute positioning and overlaps need to be strictly avoided in creating classification schemes.

Positioning along the manufacturing process. When positioning in respect to the

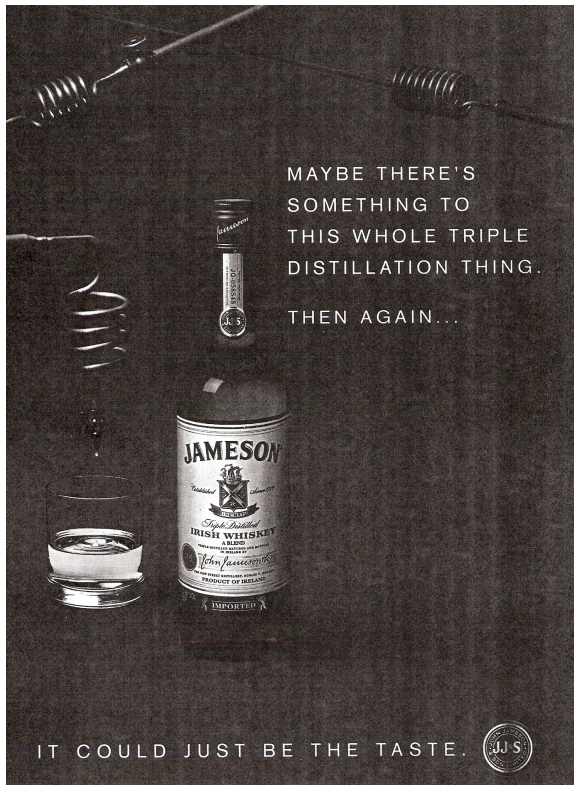


Figure 21: Jameson Irish Whiskey, Sports Illustrated, 2005

manufacturing process, marketers aim to differentiate their brands by saying that they apply a special process for factoring their products such as Wagner states that their pizza is stone-oven made or Zotter (Austrian chocolate) claims that their chocolate is manufactured by hand (Brandtner, 2005). Service suppliers can further highlight the matching of the service delivery process with the consumer's needs (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994). These are all claims referring to and highlighting the working of products. Consequently consumers are to perceive the high quality (or other attributes, benefits etc.) from the way (i.e. the

process) in which the product is manufactured. Please see **figure 21** where Jameson highlights the fact that their whiskey is triple distilled and hence, has great taste (where as the great taste is emphasized as the consequence of the manufacturing process).

Positioning along the manufacturing technology. Crawford (1985) further suggests the existence of a technology sub-element to manufacture positioning. Advertisements claiming their brands superiority through the technology or innovation applied such as the Audi slogan "Vorsprung durch Technik" (Crawford, 1985) fall under this element. The positioning approach of technology and/ or innovation is also discussed by several other authors (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Hooley et al., 1998) who highlight the importance of its use in the service environment. Companies like to position themselves as innovative by being the leader in new product development (which is neither to be confused with positioning by rank where the focus

lies on a leadership in terms of sales, nor with positioning by superiority which emphasizes the overall supremacy of a brand), proving that they can adapt to changes of market and consumer needs quickly (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Hooley et al., 1998). Furthermore technology can industrialize and consequently standardize the production of services, e.g. hard technology such as ATMs (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989), to better match consumer needs (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994). Thus, “technology can be leveraged to gain competitive advantage”, (Shocker et al., 1994, p. 151) which is a major concern of brand positioning in general. Rolex positions their watches along the element of manufacturing



Figure 22: ROLEX Oyster Perpetual Explorer II, DER SPIEGEL, 2006

technology approach by highlighting that they invented special machines just for the production of the Oyster Perpetual Explorer II. They further claim not to know any barriers when it comes to manufacture and workmanship of their watches (see **figure 22**).

Positioning along manufacturing people. As the production of goods and services frequently tends to be rather people-intense, companies (especially service providers, but also retail sections of good suppliers) can further position themselves as being superior to competition by the advantage they have through their people working for them supplying/ generating the product, especially services (Hooley et al., 1998). Company staff has an important impact on consumer perceptions of quality and the like, consequently companies can “translate this into a formal program of careful selection, training and monitoring of its contact personnel” (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989, p. 213). Consumer perceptions of a brand (especially that possessing intangible characteristics such as services) depend for a major part on interactions with staff (de

Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003), as frequently personnel is the only point of contact between consumer and brand (Dibb and Simkin, 1993; McDonald et al., 2001). Hence marketers particularly emphasize the special characteristics of the people involved into the production and delivery of the brand. Therefore the third subcategory of the positioning element of manufacture is positioning in respect to people.

Applying this approach marketers claim, for instance, that their staff pays special



Figure 23: Austrian Airlines, flight service, DER SPIEGEL, 2007

attention to consumers, considers them as important and consequently is extremely friendly (Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004). This subcategory encompasses “all claims over which consumers perceive the company staff to have some level of control” (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994, p. 3), to be well trained, motivated and skilled. This positioning alternative is frequently found in positioning goods therewith emphasizing such things as the skills of engineers. But especially in services positioning along the staff’s abilities and special traits is applied (see **figure 23** where Austrian Airlines claims the friendliness of its staff).

4.3.5 Positioning by Product Class

The element of positioning by product class within this typology is defined as ...

... linking the product to one within the consumer’s experience (1) towards a standard, i.e. associating a product with a certain product class, or (2) away from a standard, i.e. dissociate (especially new) products which differ from typical products in an established category from existing ones.

Positioning a brand along the product category (i.e. “characterized by a set of associations that include specific beliefs about any member in the category in addition to overall attitudes toward all members in the category”, Keller, 1993, p. 6) it belongs to is heavily discussed throughout literature (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Aaker, 1991; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Evans et al., 1996; and Brandtner, 2005). Authors distinguish between two kinds of product class positioning. On the one side there is (1) product class association (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991) and on the other side you find (2) product class dissociation (Wind, 1982; Evans et al. 1996; Brandtner, 2005). Consequently when applying positioning by product class, marketers link a product “to one within the consumer’s experience, i.e. making inter- or intra-industry, company, or product comparisons by ranking or rating or emphasizing positive (i.e. towards a standard) or negative (i.e. away from a standard) relationships “, (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994, p.3).

Product class association. Associating a brand with a certain product category is frequently applied by marketers who introduce a new product which is related to an

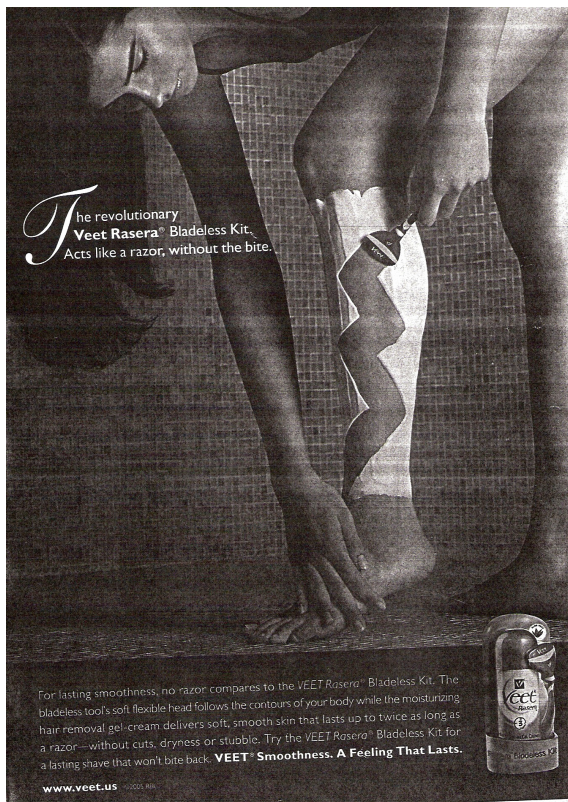


Figure 24: Veet Rasera Bladeless Kit, „acts like a razor without the bite“, Cosmopolitan 2006

existing category. Hence, to successfully associate to an existing product category, marketers need to highlight similarities of the focal brand and the product category in order to be included into the consumer’s consideration set (Punj and Moon, 2000). However, mere association is not enough for a positioning success. An important objective beside product class association is to differentiate in some point from the existing product category (Punj and Moon, 2000). **Figure 24** shows how the Veet depilatory set consisting of crème and a tool associates to razors by pointing out

similarities with razors in general to then emphasize its benefits compared to razors. Another, rather classical example is margarine being positioned with respect to butter (Aaker and Shansby, 1982).

Product class dissociation. Frequently it is more effective to position a new brand away/ apart from an existing product category, especially when the brand differs from typical products in an established category (Wind, 1982; Evans et al., 1996; Brandtner, 2005). Therewith differences can be effectively highlighted. If marketers want to seize category-effects and advantages, it is suggested that they “invent” a new product



Figure 25: BMW „Drive like pilots fly“, Der Spiegel, 2006

category (position their product as distinct from existing typical products) which makes sense for consumers (Brandtner, 2005). But inventing a new product category is rather impossible to code in the process of content analysis, as acceptance of a new product category does not happen but after a certain time consumers had to get used to it and accept it. The “Uncola” campaign is a classical example highlighting the application of product class dissociation (Wind, 1982). However a rather recent illustration of product class dissociation is shown in the BMW ad (**figure 25**) by dissociating driving a BMW from driving towards flying.

As managers frequently use attributes and benefits for product class associations and dissociations, it is crucial to clearly distinguish between on the one side positioning along attributes or benefits and on the other side positioning by product class. When the latter is employed, there is always a clear focus on associating with/ against a certain product class which is nothing but supported by shared/ distinct characteristics such as attributes and benefits. But in attribute or benefit positioning the focus lies on the product feature or customer benefit respectively.

4.3.6 Positioning by Origin

“Products are made in places”, (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 4). Their geographic origins can be anything from a city, to a region, to the world. Thus, the term “made in” frequently does not hold true, but should be substituted by “designed in”, “assembled in”, “invented in” and the like.

Almost every country is associated with a certain image (i.e. the “result of people’s perception of them (countries) and phenomena around them” Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 5) in each individual’s mind. These images lead to stereotyping, i.e. the “generalization abstracted from a limited number of observations about an object” (which is, in the case at hand, the country or region), (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 6).

Positioning by product-country images. Countries and regions can represent strong symbols for respective associations to products, resources and capabilities (Aaker, 1991). Take Germany for example, which evokes the associations of beer, engineering or excellent craftsmanship (cars) within consumers’ minds or consider “Chinese silk”, “Brazilian coffee” and “Italian design”. Hence marketers use this effect to their advantage and differentiate along this characteristic. Positioning by product-country origin is defined as...

... all kinds of claims positively linking a brand with the strengths of its (country of) origin.

It is suggested that effects of country images in their role as origins of products, known as the country-of-origin (COO) effect, have different kinds of impact on consumer evaluations (Keller, 1993) and perceptions of products depending on the context (e.g. nationality of consumer, product category, country-of-origin of the product, animosity) (Aaker, 1991). However, consumers use COO information as cues, i.e. as halo, to infer brand characteristics such as product quality, status and acceptability (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993).



Figure 26: VW emphasizing its German heritage, www.nytimes.com, Jan 31, 2008

One of the major purposes country-of-origin information serves in relation to products is as an extrinsic cue which may further become part of the brand's total image (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). Hence, brands can definitely profit from associations countries evoke in regard to certain products and industry branches, whereas the effects are regulated/ influenced by the actors' (company, consumer, product class) patriotism, national interests etc. German car brands successfully apply COO positioning as can be seen in **figure 26** You might even think of the Audi slogan as published in the US "Vorsprung durch Technik" – the German language strongly highlights the brand's German origins.

Country of origin information can be provided to consumers in various forms (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993) such as (1) directly embedded into the brand or company name (e.g. Austrian Airlines) or (2) indirectly indicated through the brand or company name (such as Volkswagen or Billabong), (3) promoted expressively (e.g. IKEA, VW ad in **figure 26**), (4) associated with well-known representative symbols (linguistic, visual, aural) of the COO (e.g. use of German language in **figure 26**). However, these distinctions are quite detailed and therefore will not be considered during content analysis.

Global consumer culture positioning (GCCP). Positioning by origin does not only include positioning by COO, but in today's interconnected world there is also a variety of global brands whose aim it is to evoke a "world origin" image (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). Hence, both elements are summarized in one positioning base within the typology at hand. Brands emphasize their "globalness" position with the help of global consumer culture. GCCP is defined as ...

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... claims which allow “identifying the brand as symbol of a given global culture” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77).

Consumer culture positioning becomes especially important in today’s globalized world (Alden et al., 1999), as there are new opportunities for marketing brands to global consumer segments. Clusters of countries share pan-regional cultural characteristics (Steenkamp, 2001), which can serve as evidence for evolving global cultures. “These cultures are less crystallized as yet and are shared not so much between countries as between particular individuals within countries”, (Steenkamp, 2001, p. 37). Thus, at the same time as global segments evolve, a global consumer culture is built through sharing such things as product categories, brands, consumption activities or mass media (especially Internet and TV channels) worldwide. So positioning a brand in relation to global consumer culture is a great opportunity to target growing cross-country and cross-cultural segments such as teenagers or business people whose members frequently purchase products to reinforce their membership in the global segment, to reinforce their self-image (Friedman, 1990).

These target groups perceive brand globalness as a superior characteristic of a brand and attribute higher quality, prestige and psychological benefits (such as cosmopolitanism, sophistications and modernity ascribed to the brand and after purchase also associated with its users) to brands positioned as part of the global culture (Steenkamp et al., 2003). With GCCP consumers infer a brand as being the symbol of a given global culture (Alden et al., 1999) by using meaning transfer (McCracken, 1986) (as explained in detail earlier and only briefly defined here: “cultural meaning is drawn from a



Figure 27: United Colors of Benetton ad campaign (1989), www.benettongroup.com, Dec 27, 2007

culturally constituted world and transferred to a consumer good. Then the meaning is drawn from the object and transferred to an individual consumer.” McCracken, 1986, p. 71). Great examples for this positioning element are Benetton advertisements which

usually have extremely high publicity due to showing different aspects uniting humankind (see **figure 27**).

From the work of Alden et al. (1999) it can further be concluded that global consumer culture positioning is most frequently applied in product categories which contain the “same” products across countries (such as high-tech goods).

Local vs. foreign consumer culture positioning. Opposed to positioning a brand in relation to global cultural symbols, marketers can contrast through local and foreign consumer culture positioning (Alden et al., 1999).

As the name implies with local consumer culture positioning (LCCP) *marketers relate the focal brand to local cultural meanings which is reflected by the local culture’s norms and identities, by claiming that it is produced locally for local people or by showing that it is consumed by locals* (Alden et al., 1999).



Figure 28: Renault Mégane,
DER SPIEGEL, 2006

Local marketers compete against brands positioned along GCC by applying local cultural capital and by positioning based on deeper understanding of the local cultural characteristics (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Thus, consumers may infer LCC brands to be more in line with their (quality) needs. The strategy of local consumer culture positioning is frequently applied in the food and services sector as indicated by the work of Alden et al. (1999). However, the example of **figure 28** comes from the car industry, where the French car producer Renault relates to an important and well-known tradition of the German culture, the “deutsche Reinheitsgebot” and hence, is positioned along the local culture.

Foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP) refers to *claims about the focal brand to be typical and specific of a certain foreign culture*, so that the brand’s user groups and

personalities are associated to that foreign culture (Alden et al., 1999). Singapore Airlines applies this positioning alternative in their global campaign “Singapore Girl”.

The three above named positioning elements, i.e. global, local and foreign consumer culture positioning, focus on the use of verbal, thematic and visual signs or aesthetic styles in advertising to associate the brand to the respective culture. Each positioning element does not necessarily exclude the other (Alden et al., 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003). But a brand such as Coca-Cola applies a GCC positioning outside the United States, but inside its country-of-origin it is perceived to be positioned along local cultural values. However, the positive effect global and foreign brands have on consumers is moderated by each consumer’s attitude towards the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign made goods (i.e. by consumer ethnocentrism) (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

4.3.7 Nonpareil Positioning

In contrast to Crawford’s typology (1985) which also incorporates the element of nonpareil positioning, the element at hand does not merely include claims of superiority, but also claims of uniqueness. The two constructs – superiority and uniqueness – are not too distinct, as they both aim to give consumers reason to perceive the sponsoring brand as superior to competitors by (1) simply claiming overall superiority and by (2) uniqueness of a certain attribute or benefit.

Superiority. Positioning in respect to superiority is referred to as...

...claims of superiority and/ or prestige ascribed to offerings, e.g. premium, without equal, upper class, top of the range, status, prestigious, posh, well-known.

Marketers referring to their products as the best, the top quality one, without equal (Crawford, 1985) apply a nonpareil position through claiming overall brand superiority. Note that positioning strategies emphasizing the superiority of a certain product attribute are therefore not considered under the element of nonpareil positioning, but fall under the positioning base of attribute positioning. A claim of overall superiority does not necessarily need to be factually based and objectively verifiable (Laskey et al.,



Figure 29: Opel Signum 2.2 DIRECT „Wer ist der Beste im ganzen Land?“, Der Spiegel, 2005

1989). This can be well observed considering the Mercedes slogan “engineered like no other car in the world” or by taking a look at the Opel advertisement (**figure 29**) whose main message says that the Opel Signum 2.2 DIRECT is “the best car of the country”. Both are good examples for this positioning element. Positioning in respect to superiority can be viewed as a chain of reasoning of brand positioning itself, as brand positioning actually involves establishing associations in consumers’ minds by differentiating the brand through superiority over competition (Keller and Lehman, 2006).

Emphasizing superiority, prestige and status is especially popular in consumer markets (Crawford, 1985; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004). Crawford (1985), analyzing business as well as consumer markets within his study, and Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) consequently heavily influenced the definition of nonpareil positioning in respect to superiority within this typology.

Uniqueness. Claims or assertions of uniqueness are the focus of the latter positioning element of the base of nonpareil positioning. Within the typology at hand it is defined as

...

...explicit claims of uniqueness ascribed to the brand which may further involve a product feature, attribute or benefit.

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As was indicated in the earlier chapter about positioning theory of this paper, a main component of brand positioning is creating a sustainable competitive advantage or



Figure 30: Wempe Chronometer, DER SPIEGEL, 2006

unique selling proposition (Keller, 1993; Krishnan, 1996) in order to effectively differentiate from competitors (McDowell, 2004). This is supposed to give consumers a cogent reason to buy a particular brand (Aaker, 1982; Wind, 1982; Ries and Trout, 1986). So emphasizing uniqueness within the positioning strategy can be seen as a logical consequence of brand positioning theory. The presence of uniqueness associations implies superiority over competitive offerings (Keller, 1993), “if a brand wants to thrive it must offer a unique proposition to consumers” (Dyson et al., 1996, p. 15). So does Wempe by claiming to offer the currently one and only German wristlet chronometer (see **figure 30**).

Within their 1995 study, where Laskey et al. compared several positioning strategies (among them two which can be compared to the two dimensions of nonpareil positioning of this typology) in relation to persuasiveness, it was found that uniqueness positioning had an advantage over the remaining positioning strategies. This point is further supported by Myers (1996) who emphasizes that it is not enough for successful positioning to be better than competitors on some aspects but to be unique.

However, due to the small number of positioning claims applying the positioning element of uniqueness within the analysis (only in 1 out of 959 advertisements), it is suggested to merge the elements of uniqueness and superiority in future positioning classification schemes.

4.3.8 Pioneer Positioning

Positioning as a market pioneer within the typology refers to ...

... all kinds of claims about the company being the first one to sell/ commercialize a brand in a product category.

“History shows that the first brand into the brain, on the average, gets twice the long-term market share of the number two brand and twice again as much as the number three brand” (Ries and Trout, 1986, p. 43). This statement needs to be read with caution, as it holds true only if a brand is first in a new category. But if a leader like Coca-Cola enters the market of cherry cokes, they fall way behind Dr. Pepper who pioneered this niche.

Pioneers appear to have an advantage over follower brands as consumers learn about a new product category through experience with this one brand (or a very limited set of brands) – the pioneer (Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1988) and consequently consumers’ category definition is expected to depend on early product experiences with the pioneering brand. The pioneer is perceived to be the prototype of its product category (Kardes et al., 1993), hence serves as (preferred) standard of comparison. Follower brands showing very similar attributes are often seen as mere copy cats. So products positioned as “the original” on the one side claim their “being real and true” and on the other side reposition competitors to being weak copies of them (Brandtner, 2005).

Preference and attention for the pioneering brand is generally higher than for later entrants, as information about the product is novel and innovative to consumers which consequently makes it rather attention drawing and memorable (Kardes et al., 1993). As consumers tend to learn more about and have higher confidence in pioneers than followers, they also hold more favorable evaluations about first-movers.

Furthermore pioneering brands profit from the fact that consumers already know their product and whether it works or not. Therefore the perceived risk of trying an unfamiliar follower brand is perceived as relatively high, since the follower may not possess as much expertise and trustworthiness as a pioneer (Niedrich and Swain, 2003).

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So to induce a first use or trial later entrants may need to offer some extra benefits (such as lower price) (Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1988).

Moreover, as the pioneering brand has a generally favorable image (authenticity, ingenuity, trustworthiness), the pioneer may more closely match the consumer's ideal self-image than follower brands do (Alpert and Kamins, 1995). Consumers are said to purchase brands best fitting their self-concept. "In other words, people like to see themselves more like pioneers than followers", (Alpert and Kamins, 1995, p. 37).

The advantages gained herewith can persist for decades and frequently result in relatively high market shares (Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1988; Kardes et al., 1993; Alpert and Kamins, 1995). In extreme cases pioneering brands become even identical with the product category such as "labello" for lip balm (in Austria) and "Tixo" (in Austria) or "Scotch tape" (in the US) for transparent adhesive tape.

It is suggested for pioneering brands to reinforce their position within their advertisements such as Coca-Cola does with their slogan "the real thing" (Ries and Trout, 1986; Niedrich and Swain, 2003), Jeep has emphasized the suffix "The original" (see **figure 31**) for years in Austria to successfully benefit from the pioneer advantage. As previous research shows consumers may have their difficulties identifying pioneering brands (Alpert and Kamins, 1995). Carpenter and Nakamoto (1988) suggest especially framing consumer perceptions and preferences before followers enter the product category.



Figure 31: Jeep "The original",
www.coloribus.com/admirror, Jan 31, 2008

So concluding it remains to summarize that all ads emphasizing that a brand is the first one of its kind, the first one of a certain product category are classified under the positioning element of pioneer positioning.

4.3.9 Positioning by Experience

Experts and specialists are valued higher than all-rounders (Brandtner, 2005). Marketers realized this fact quite early and used it to position their brands along their accumulated corporate experience (Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) – as specialists in a certain sector or area (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). Therefore positioning by experience is defined as ...

... *“claims about a brand’s long or frequent use attests to its desirable attributes”* (Crawford, 1985, p. 248).

Authors (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994) distinguish between different areas of expertise within the positioning element of experience: (1) other market, (2) bandwagon and (3) years; and further emphasize that experience can be measured in terms of time, size, numbers sold, parentage, credibility and the like.

It appears that positioning along experience is of special value for services marketing, since it was especially discussed in literature within the service background (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994). Furthermore the special characteristics of services (such as intangibility) demand for marketers to capitalize on clues associated with their successful existence and physical evidence to communicate their value.

Crawford (1985) empirically derived the elements of other market, bandwagon and years to the experience base. He indicates in his work that (ad 1) marketers claim to already have experience in other, mostly familiar markets (such as Nuprin’s extensive use in the prescription market), and that (ad 2) marketers claim their products are relied on by many users to initiate a band wagon effect, and finally he indicates that (ad 3)

claims about business experience also rely on the years a brand is already “in business” (such as Lufthansa claims in **figure 32**).



Figure 32: Lufthansa claims its experience, www.lufthansa.com, April 23, 2007

Crawford's definition of positioning along a brand's experience (as cited earlier) is adopted within the typology at hand, though before the empirical analysis it was not further distinguished between different elements (experience from other markets and experience from time in business) of this positioning base. From previous experience and earlier analysis of positioning claims it was not believed that different kinds of experience positioning would be found in the empirical test of the typology. However, since the content analysis of print advertisements significantly proves that different ways to claim experience are actually applied, the typology was a posteriori expanded by the respective elements. This could not be respected within the analysis, as it only showed evident versus the end of the coding process. The adapted definition of experience positioning hence reads as follows...

... *“claims about a brand's long or frequent use attests to its desirable attributes”*, (Crawford, 1985, p. 248) (1) *within other markets or* (2) *within its time in business.*

4.3.10 Positioning by Rank/ Leader

The definition for positioning by rank is derived in accordance with Crawford (1985). All advertisements to which the below-mentioned definition applies are classified as positioned by rank. The definition of market leader positioning refers to ...

...*claims emphasizing the brand as the best-selling or the market leader in a certain product category.*

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“We are the best selling brand in product category X.” “Y is market leader of its product category.” These are slogans quite familiar to every one of us. But why do brands claim their superiority in sales to the consumer? Though consumers often know which brand is leader, companies apply positioning by rank (Crawford, 1985; Kalafatis et al., 2000) and explicitly mention it. People like to be geared to what others think (Brandtner, 2005). Therefore purchasing the leading brand within a product category is a rather secure decision for consumers.

Leaders are judged to be superior to followers (Brandtner, 2005). Market leadership is perceived to be an important quality indicator (Dean, 1999; Kamins et al., 2003), hence the image of market leaders is perceived as favorable. A big market share indicates widespread acceptance to consumers which further signals superior quality. Why else would a majority of consumers buy a certain brand, if it was not for its superiority vis-à-vis competitive offerings? “Thus market leadership is seen as a favorable characteristic”, (Kamins and Alpert, 2004, p. 150) along which a brand can successfully differentiate and position itself.

Research showed that consumers perceived market leaders even more favorable than brands which pioneered a product category in terms of overall attitude and purchase intention (Kamins et al., 2003). So since market or category leadership drives the consumer to perceive the focal brand more favorable on a significant basis, it is highly recommended by Kamins et al. (2003) to educate the market by communicating the leadership status. For a practical illustration of positioning by rank, take a look at the TOYOTA ad in **figure 33** saying that the COROLLA is the most frequently bought car in the world.



Figure 33: TOYOTA COROLLA „30 million buyers can’t be wrong“, Woman, 2005

Consumer's herd instinct further influences purchase decisions and brand perceptions in such a way that they are very likely to infer valuable characteristics from brands which are bought and therefore trusted by a vast number of consumers (Brandtner, 2005). This point is also supported by Ries and Trout (1986) who emphasize that consumers are far more comfortable with an order or ranking which everybody knows and accepts. This phenomenon is further referred to as "bandwagon effect of psychological benefit from using and being seen using a popular brand" (Kamins et al., 2003, p. 814).

4.3.11 Positioning with Respect to Competitors

Competitor positioning within this typology is defined as ...

... comparing two or more brands (not necessarily by specifically mentioning them) of the same product class in terms of (1) associating with a major brand, or in terms of (2) direct comparison by claiming superiority over a competitor.

Association. With associations – be they explicit or implicit – marketers can exploit the established image of a competitor to communicate the image of the sponsoring brand referenced to it (Aaker and Shansby, 1982, Wind, 1982; Aaker, 1991). The aim of this subcategory is to relate to a competitor by creating associations and to further point out that the sponsored brand is just as good as and/ or just like the competitive offering (Brown and Sims, 1976; Crawford, 1985). Associating with a competitor (who in most cases is a dominant competitor or product category leader) is frequently applied by smaller brands or products difficult to evaluate (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Once consumers know that a brand is like the market leader, they are likely to infer the characteristics the focal brand possesses.

Estée Lauder associates her anti-wrinkle products with Botox, with the assumption that consumers infer that the brand is just as good as the competitive product (see **figure 34**). Another, rather classical, example is the Savin advertisement from the 1980'ies "What do Xerox and IBM copiers have most in common? Both are most commonly replaced by the Savin 780", which successfully demonstrates the application of positioning by associating to competitors (Crawford, 1985).



Figure 34: Estée Lauder, Cosmopolitan 2006

Positioning by associating to a competitor should never be confused with positioning by associating to a product class, as the latter alternative is more general referring not to a distinct competitor but the product category as a whole. The aim of positioning by associating to a dominant competitor is to have the consumer infer that the focal brand possesses the same characteristics as the competitive brand it relates to. Hence, it may be seen as a substitute.

Direct comparison. Furthermore marketers can directly compare to competitive offerings in the same product category (Grewal et al., 1997) to more easily differentiate and claim superiority (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Consequently positioning in respect to a competitor by direct comparison has the aim to differentiate from a distinct competitive offering (Ries and Trout, 1986; Aaker, 1991) and emphasize to be better on a certain dimension (Wilkie and Ferris, 1975; Evans et al., 1996; Kotler, 2003). For a claim of superiority vis-à-vis a competitor to be effective and credible Ries and Trout (1986) emphasize to reposition competition on an attribute which is valuable to consumers, whereas Wilkie and Farris (1975) additionally suggest that an independent organization could be cited as the supplier of data (this positioning approach then would not only be classified as positioning by direct comparison, but it would be a rather mixed positioning. More details on this subject in chapter 4.4.).

As can be realized, one needs to pay attention not to mix up the tool of positioning by direct comparison, i.e. a claim of superiority *vis-à-vis a competitor*, with other respective positioning alternatives, i.e. nonpareil positioning or even attribute positioning. The main distinction to the element of positioning by superiority (see chapter 4.3.7.) is that there the *mere supremacy* of a brand (not single attributes) stands in the limelight *without being compared* to competitors. Whereas with competitor

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comparisons the claim is significantly on being better in some way than the competitive offering (see **figure 35** Philips comparing their product to Oral-B).

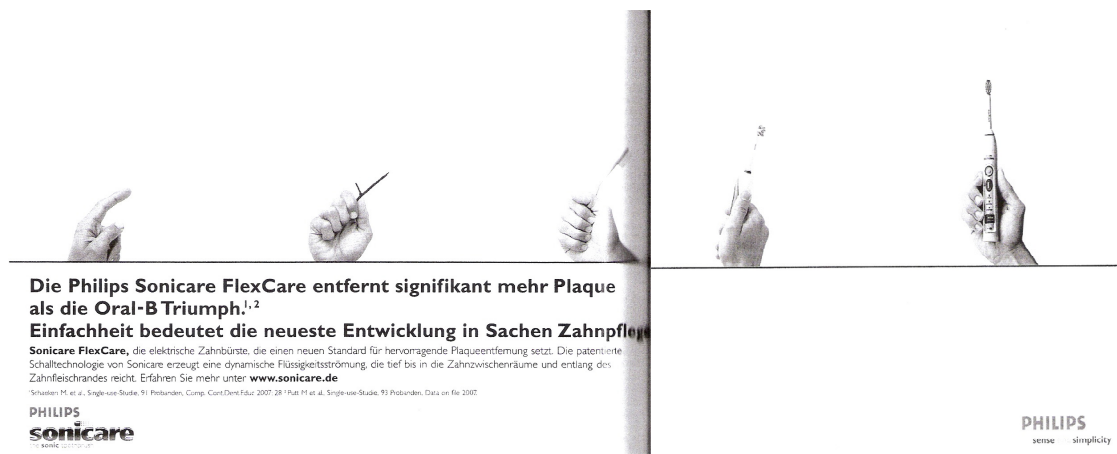


Figure 35: Philips Sonicare FlexCare, DER SPIEGEL, 2007

“In most positioning strategies, an explicit or implicit frame of reference is the competition”, (Aaker and Shansby, 1982, p. 58; Evans et al., 1996, p. 177). However, it was just in the early seventies that positioning your brand with respect to a competitor as the dominant aspect of strategy became popular (Wilkie and Farris, 1975). This way, marketers not only have the chance to associate and compare to competitors, but they can further benefit from the increased attention they might grab from consumers, as not only users of the sponsoring brand but also of the competitive offering pay attention (Wilkie and Farris, 1975). Therefore any form of positioning in relation to a competitor can be aided by comparative advertising (Wilkie and Farris, 1975; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991) (i.e. where the competitor is explicitly mentioned and the overall thrust is on comparison, Laskey et al., 1989). However, new brands comparing to established ones appear to benefit the most from comparative advertising (Grewal et al., 1997).

Researchers actually do not always agree on whether comparative advertising serves more to differentiate your brand on a certain attribute (Wilkie and Farris, 1975; Pechmann and Ratneshwar, 1991) or to associate a minor brand to a major player within the product category (Pechmann and Ratneshwar, 1991; Kalra and Goodstein, 1998). However, comparative advertising, where superiority of typical brand attributes is claimed, seems to both create associations for the attributes not featured in the advertisement and differentiate along the featured attributes (by lowering the

comparison brand' s rating on these) (Pechmann and Ratneshwar, 1991). But if familiar brands want to differentiate from a well-established brand along an atypical attribute it is rather effective to differentiate through indirect comparison. Consumers consequently categorize the advertised brand in a different/ new product category (Pechmann and Ratneshwar, 1991). However, during the process of coding only the fact if an advertisement compares directly (explicitly) with a competitor or indirect (implicitly) will be captured.

4.3.12 Predecessor Positioning

The positioning element of predecessor positioning is defined as...

... all kinds of claims relating the focal brand to an earlier version of itself.

Frequently the next generation of a product is higher valued than the predecessor (Brandtner, 2005). This holds true especially for high-technology products, since nobody likes buying out-of-date products or services. So what marketers do is that they position their brand as part of a product line to apply the same position over years, if not decades (such as Gillette who initially offered razors with one blade and now introduced the new "Gillette Fusion" with a total of five blades). Marketers therewith aim at keeping ongoing relationships with customers and further try to satisfy all needs in a particular area (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989).

Advantages are that, as awareness for the brand already exists (Keller, 1993), the new brand is quickly related to the earlier product which was a success and therefore sales might flash instantly (Ries and Trout, 1986). If these (next generation) products are marketed in conjunction to their successful older editions (Brandtner, 2005), it is referred to as positioning by predecessor.

Positioning by predecessor is somewhat linked to experience positioning as one could say that a brand is expert or has proven experience in producing a certain good or service, since it has already produced an alike product which was well accepted and liked by consumers. So with predecessor positioning marketers claim that a product or brand "is comparable (in some way) to an earlier product that you (the consumers)

liked” (Crawford, 1985, p. 248). With this kind of positioning the attitude and associations towards the preceding product are transferred to the focal brand. A recent example is Volkswagen’s positioning of the new VW Beetle which is positioned in relation to its predecessor hit model of the 1960’ies (see **figure 36**).

Furthermore predecessor positioning seems to be closely related to family branding, as Crawford (1985) even emphasizes that it captures the tool of family branding, “that is a company placing the same brand name on all products in a product line”, (Milewicz and



Figure 36: The new VW Beetle „Less flower more power“, www.cartype.com, Dec 25, 2007

Herbig, 1994, p. 39). Thus, it benefits from consumers’ instant recognition through the halo effect of the brand’s established associations and reputation (especially positive quality associations) (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995).

The product is supposed to gain from family branding, i.e. the strategy of predecessor positioning, through instant and relatively high perceived credibility and visibility (Milewicz and Herbig, 1994). The same brand name serves consumers as a predictive cue for product performance (Keller, 1993), as core brand associations are very likely to be transferred to the “new” brand. Hence, perceived risk is lower and purchase intention is increased (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995).

For the subsequent empirical analysis it remains to be clarified that the simple cue on an advertisement referring to a brand’s newness or improved formula/ performance is not sufficient a claim to categorize it as positioned as predecessor.

4.4 SIMULTANEOUS APPLICATION OF MULTIPLE POSITIONS

Though a high number of authors dealt with positioning alternatives over time (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Frazer, 1983; Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Laskey et al., 1989; Aaker, 1991; Arnott and Easingwood, 1994; Hooley et al., 1998; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001; Kapferer, 2004), only a few of them (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Aaker, 1991) made suggestions about how many positioning strategies to emphasize to successfully position a brand in the consumer's mind.

Although there is belief (Ries and Trout, 1986) that good positions are straight forward, it does not necessarily imply that they must be one-dimensional (in terms of emphasizing only one positioning element at a time) (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). Markets become ever more competitive which implies that it is difficult to establish and maintain a clear advantage in one dimension. According to Aaker and Shansby (1982) and Wind (1982) it is quite possible for products to have multiple positioning strategies, though an increasing number involves obvious difficulties and risks (Aaker and Shansby, 1982) as implementation of various strategies is generally more complex. The more positioning elements are emphasized, the higher the danger to create a confused image (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991).

However, when applying a combination of positions, it is recommended to emphasize positions which are mutually supporting (Easingwood and Mahanjan, 1989; Aaker, 1991). Easingwood and Mahajan (1989, p. 208) further point out that "companies also emphasize different mixes of positions to appeal to different segments" which is also supported by other publications (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991). Actually Bhat and Reddy (1998) provided empirical evidence that brands, e.g. Nike, Converse and Apple computers, manage to successfully position their products on both the functional and the emotional dimension.

Still, once a position is chosen, it should remain the same over the life of a product, though specific positioning elements (which may change over time as circumstances change) are needed to differentiate a brand from competitive offerings with the same concept (Park et al., 1986). Furthermore marketers have the possibility to expand the

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target market by positioning a product along different elements (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Aaker, 1991).

5 EMPIRICAL STUDY

Before going into detail about the empirical study let me outline the purpose of the empirical investigation, the motives to apply content analysis of print advertisements as mode of investigation and why print advertisements were chosen as unit of analysis within this study.

5.1 STUDY PURPOSE

The main aim of this study is to provide an empirical documentation of positioning practices as they are applied in global markets today. For this purpose a positioning typology was conceptually developed as documented in the previous chapter, thus it is essential to test its applicability across product categories, its completeness and reliability on real life data. For detailed insight into this part of the research, which is actually the last step of the typology development process, please go to chapter 3.4., as the current chapter rather focuses on the empirical documentation of positioning strategies as applied by marketers today.

Hence, the following research questions will be addressed within the subsequent analysis:

Question 1 (Q1): How do marketers communicate the positions they claim for their brands? Does the artwork clearly support the positioning message or is it nothing more than an attention grabber? Is there a difference in positioning between product categories (especially services vs. goods)?

Previous empirical studies on positioning did not agree on the role allocation of advertising message and artwork. Reasons therefore seem to be diverse: On the one hand, some studies (such as Laskey et al., 1989) did not account for advertising as a whole but focused on main message content only. On the other hand, those studies (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989) which considered both – the print ad's positioning statement and the artwork – during their analysis did not reach the same conclusions. Though Crawford (1985) confirmed that 68% of positioning claims

were supported by the advertisement's artwork, Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) do not clearly specify whether or not marketers use artwork as a supporting device for their positioning claims. They argue that artwork should rather be applied as an attention grabber to minimize confusion over exactly what a position is. However, this disagreement could also point to a difference in the use of artwork between advertisements promoting goods and services.

Question 2 (Q2): Are all positioning categories and positioning elements applied equally? Are there any clustered or heavily occupied positions? Do certain product categories tend to apply a certain (or a limited number of) position(s)? Can differences in positioning goods and services be denoted from the empirical analysis?

Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) confirm the assumption that not all positioning elements are applied equally, as there were several positions (such as the "extra service" position) within their examined set of ads which were overcrowded. It is then recommended to either support these crowded positions effectively or to occupy underexploited positions. Crawford's model study on positioning practices (1985) empirically supports that positioning bases and elements are not applied equally often.

However, according to his work the different positioning categories (feature vs. benefit vs. surrogates) are almost equally applied (19% vs. 32% vs. 23% respectively). But there are apparently vast differences in positioning practices between certain product categories. At least Crawford (1985) uncovers that services (intangibles as he refers to it) are far more likely to be positioned along features than goods (tangibles) (services : goods = 17% : 28%).

The difference in positioning between goods and services is to some part plausible, as the latter possesses distinctive characteristics making it different from physical goods (intangibility, perishability, inseparability, variability and ownership). So apart from a few authors who have written to the contrary (Buttle, 1986), most researchers view positioning of services more complex than positioning of goods (Ennew et al., 1993). According to Blankson and Kalafatis (1999) there are two schools of thoughts when it comes to providing explanation about the issue of adopting positioning alternatives in

services. “While the first school of thought claims that positioning in services need not be different from that of physical goods due to their similarities with services (Cowell, 1989), the second school of thought argues that since services are unique from physical goods in their characteristics, they warrant a different approach in their positioning strategies (Zeithaml, 1981)”, (Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999, p. 107).

Thus, it still remains to be closer investigated whether these or comparable differences also exist between other product categories and to which extent.

Question 3 (Q3): Are brands clearly positioned along one element only? Do marketers apply such strategies as mixed or dominant positioning?

Unfortunately most of the typologies which were backed empirically (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989) only investigated a brand’s position along a single dimension, but neglected the fact that some products are positioned along more than one element. Rolex watches for instance are frequently positioned along their usage situation (e.g. sailing) and a celebrity endorser or unconnected event. Cosmetic companies often have their product’s benefits highlighted by a celebrity (e.g. Leatitia Casta for L’Oreal). Only Kalafatis et al. (2000) who had developed a two-stage approach to classify messages tried to capture the primary focus of advertisements before putting it into further subcategories.

Hence, the subsequent content analysis of print advertisements does not only consider various positioning alternatives emphasized within a single ad, but also captures the extent to which each positioning element is highlighted, i.e. is it the one and only positioning element emphasized in the ad (single positioning), are two or more positioning alternatives pointed out to the same extent (mixed positioning), or is one of several positioning elements emphasized more heavily than the others (dominant positioning).

Question 4 (Q4): Do brands’ positions vary across geographic markets? Are there any differences in positioning practices between the two country groupings?

So far researchers have only to a very limited extent investigated if there are differences in positioning practices across geographic areas, neither was any research to my knowledge done to clarify potential reasons for such differences. The one and only piece of positioning research including advertisements originating from different countries was conducted by Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) who analyzed a rather limited number of ads from the US and UK insurance sector. However, they did not analyze ads for differences in positioning approaches across countries, hence, they did not make any inferences in that matter.

In contrast to differences in positioning according to different locations, positioning over time was already investigated in more detail by Crawford (1985) who reviewed shampoo ads of three years to analyze positioning patterns over time. 64% of investigated brands did not change their position during the three years of the study. “This is commitment, the effective way to use positioning”, (Crawford, 1985, p. 251). Also Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) recommend keeping positions over the medium and long run.

As differences in positioning across geographic markets are less researched than differences in positioning due to time passed, the current study focuses on investigating the former.

Question 5 (Q5): Can recommendations for marketers be made towards claiming still rather unoccupied positions?

With this last research question the authoress turns to marketers and managers in order to provide them with managerial implications from the research and summarizes the findings which impact daily positioning practices most.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

To answer these questions and gain detailed insight into how marketers actually position their brands it is essential to analyze the media used to communicate products' positioning claims, i.e. any form of advertising. Analyzing advertisements allows on the one hand focusing on the position as it is actually claimed, neither as it was intended by

the marketer nor as it may be perceived by consumers; on the other hand it is possible to circumvent eventual problems of interviewing marketing professionals about positioning strategies themselves (no hunting of brand managers, no confidentiality issues and the like arise).

So the focus needs to be on investigating different forms of advertisements used to position brands. But as advertising as such is too broad of a term and too widespread of a unit of analysis (it contains among others TV commercials, online ads, OOH posters, print advertisements etc.), this study focuses on only one form of advertisement which, in accordance to existing brand positioning studies (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Alden et al., 1999), are print advertisements. A major advantage is that print ads are readily available to consumers as well as researchers and also heavily used by marketers for brand communication.

The method of analysis applied for investigating print advertisements, i.e. content analysis, is chosen based on the sound and widely accepted research of Crawford (1985), Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) as well as Alden et al. (1999). Each ad is coded independently with the help of the previously discussed positioning classification scheme by one expert coder who also has developed the classification scheme. All advertisements contained an illustration and a main positioning claim.

5.2.1 Data Making – Sampling

To effectively analyze and document today's positioning alternatives, print ads from different types of magazines and products were investigated. As the findings need to be as objective and generalizable as possible, magazines from different fields of interest, which subsequently target a broad range of consumers and offer a wide range of different kinds of products, were included into the sampling process. Following the model research of Crawford (1985) print ads are collected from a sample of general interest and news magazines, sports magazines and lifestyle/ women's magazines.

To investigate positioning on a global scope and to compare positioning practices across countries, it is crucial to investigate print advertisements from different countries and cultural backgrounds. Hence, this study's sampling frame comprises ads from two

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country/ culture groupings (1) Austria and Germany versus (2) the USA. Magazines from the named countries were included because the countries are equally developed on an economic as well as on a social level. Therefore it is suggested that differences in positioning practices can mainly be attributed to cultural differences. The magazines finally included into the study rank among some of the best-known, most prestigious and largest magazines from both country groupings.

The Austrian/ German magazine sample comprises of (1) “DER SPIEGEL”, a German general interest and news magazine, (2) “Sportmagazin”, an Austrian sports magazine, (3) “LaufsportMarathon” which is an Austrian special interest magazine for running and (4) the Austrian lifestyle magazine “Woman”. Magazines published in English language included in the sample are (1) the US general interest and news weekly “Newsweek”, (2) the well-known US sports magazine “Sports Illustrated”, (3) “Runner’s World”, a US special interest magazine for recreational running and (4) the US edition of “Cosmopolitan”, the best-selling lifestyle magazine.

The time frame for sampling ads from DER SPIEGEL, Sportmagazin, Laufsport Marathon, Woman and Newsweek was set between January 2006 and December 2007; ads from Sports Illustrated, Runner’s World and Cosmopolitan were sampled between January 2005 and December 2006. So all ads were collected within two years time, which is a fair period of time to trace changes in positioning a product and to trace general trends in positioning practices. Since some of the magazines in the study are weekly magazines, others are published on monthly or bimonthly bases and as not all issues were equally accessible for the research, a convenience sample was drawn. Magazine issues were included into the sample according to their availability in diverse libraries (library of “Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien”, “Österreichische National Bibliothek” and “Grande Bibliothèque”, Montréal (Bibliothèque et Archives nationaux du Québec)).

However, not all ads from available issues were included for analysis, but only those which were at least a third of a page in size promoting a specific product. This way it was ensured that the advertisement was of major importance to the company and that consequently sustainable effort was put into the positioning strategy. Furthermore all kinds of brand image or company image ads were excluded from analysis.

332 ads were collected from the January, March, May, July, October and December 2006 issues and February, April, June, August, October and December 2007 issues of DER SPIEGEL which is the biggest German news weekly distributed worldwide. It consists of an average of 140 to 200 pages with a content to advertising ratio of 2:1 and a coverage of 6.08 million people (1,006,634 copies) (www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DerSpiegel, accessed March 05, 2008; <http://www.media.spiegel.de/spiegel>, accessed March 05, 2008). The magazine's content is focused on worldwide political and social events with a special section for German news, therefore has a rather well-educated target readership (45% of readers have A-levels and 19% work in executive positions) (<http://www.media.spiegel.de/spiegel>, accessed March 05, 2008). 54% of readers range within the age segment of 20 to 49 year-olds. Furthermore DER SPIEGEL readers have a rather high purchase power (53% of readers possess a net household income of over EUR 2,500.- per month).

The US counterpart to the weekly German newsmagazine is Newsweek which is similar in style and presentation. Newsweek is distributed in eleven editions throughout the US and internationally (to a total of more than 190 countries). The magazine reaches more than 23 million people worldwide and has a circulation of 3,160,000 copies (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Newsweek>, March 05, 2008). In the US alone over 19 million people read 2,600,000 copies of the magazine each week whereas about 57% of them are aged between 18 and 49 (<http://www.newsweekmediakit.com/newsite/us/index.shtml>, accessed March 05, 2008). While 42% of American readers graduated college, almost half of the readers (45%) follow a professional career or occupy a management position, thus 49% of the readership earn a monthly household income of EUR 4,100.- (USD 75,000.- per year). Hence, the target audience is rather similar to that of DER SPIEGEL, which provides the ideal prerequisites to compare print ads and investigate whether differences in positioning due to cultural differences occur. 66 ads were collected from issues of the Newsweek magazine between January and September 2006 and between January and June as well as October to December 2007.

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Since it is of high importance to analyze print ads from different magazines, targeting different readerships, publications from different fields of interest were included into the study. Within the category of general sports magazines Austria's monthly Sportmagazin was investigated. Its content comprises insider information, touching portraits of world class athletes, deep interviews and exciting reports to the latest events in sports. Sportmagazin has a circulation of 45,000 copies and reaches 292,000 readers which equal a net coverage of 4.2% of Austria's population (<http://www.vsm.at/index.php?id=6>, accessed March 05, 2008). The main group of readers counts men up to 39 years old (9.4% of Austrian males within the named age range) disposing of a rather high income and education (ABC1) but there is also a comparably high percentage (8.5%) of young readers (14-24 years) (http://www.vsm.at/pdf/Tarif_Sportmagazin08.pdf, accessed March 05, 2008). 176 ads were collected from every second issue of the magazine in 2006 and each but the January issue of the Sportmagazin in 2007.

For a fair representation of North American general sports magazines the weekly Sports Illustrated was included into the sampling process. With a total circulation of 3,250,912 copies (December 2005) and more than 20 million readers (of which almost 16 million – 79% are men) it is the largest American sports weekly (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sports_illustrated, accessed March 06, 2008). The age of almost 75% of its target audience lies within the range of 18 to 49 years, and 37% of the readers dispose of a monthly household income of EUR 4,100.- (USD 75,000.- per year), but only about 30% of readers graduated college and follow a professional career or hold a management position (around 25%; (http://samediakit.com/media/property/download/research/si_research.pdf, accessed March 06, 2008). The sample drawn from the Sports Illustrated issues between 2005 and 2006 amounted 39 ads.

Beside these general sports magazines, two special interest magazines with a focus on running were included into the analysis. On the one side the Austrian Laufsport Marathon, published nine times per year with a circulation of 20,000 copies and coverage of 70,000 readers, was analyzed (www.laufsport-marathon.at, accessed March 06, 2008). The title is the leading special interest magazine in its domain in Austria. Target readers are sports and wellness-oriented adults aged from 14 to 49 years from

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rather high educational and income levels (ABC1) with a special interest in running, walking, triathlon and a healthy diet. (http://www.lwwerbeagentur.at/lwmedia/lsp_media.asp, accessed March 09, 2007). A sample of 37 ads was drawn from all 2006 and 2007 issues of the Laufsport Marathon, but the January and February 2007 issues.

On the other side print ads of Runner's World, a globally circulated monthly US magazine for recreational runners were investigated within the research. With a circulation of 630,000 copies Runner's World reaches 2,219,000 readers. The target audience consists of an almost equal number of men and women (54% versus 46%) who have a median age of 40.5 years and a comparably high median household income of EUR 4,800.- per month (USD 88,402.- per year; www.mriplus.com and http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Runner%27s_World, accessed March 09, 2007). 27 ads were sampled from 2005 and 2006 issues of Runner's World.

Finally the last category of magazines analyzed within the study were women's and lifestyle magazines. The Austrian bimonthly magazine woman with 571,000 readers (of which 85% are female) reaches 8.2% of the Austrian population. Each issue has a circulation of 230,437 copies and has 20 to 49 year-old consumers as their main target group (67.1% of readers with a focus on women in their twenties – 12.4%), furthermore about 30% of all readers have a university degree. Approximately 57.4% of readers belong to the income level of ABC1 (approximately 48% possess a net household income of more than EUR 2,500.- per month), (<http://www.news.at/newsmedia/>, accessed March 06, 2008), but only about 39% of the target audience occupy a leading/directing position. 235 ads were collected from one of Woman's issues every second month in 2006 and an issue of each month (but January, February and April) in 2007.

Within the Anglo-American area Cosmopolitan magazine with a circulation of 2,916,000 copies was added to the study. The title traditionally discusses such topics as fashion, beauty, sex, fitness and celebrity gossip (<http://www.cosmmediakit.com/r5/home.asp>, accessed March 06, 2008). It is published every month and read by 16,969,000 people in more than 100 countries. Its readership is made up of mainly women (86% of readers) between 18 and 34 years old (almost 60%). Though almost 64% of the female target group attended college, the

median household income amounts merely EUR 3,000.- per month (USD 55,000.- per year) which is rather low compared to income levels of other magazine's target groups. (www.cosmomediakit.com, accessed March 06, 2008). A sample of 47 ads was drawn and included into the study from 2005 and 2006.

As this study targets investigating positioning alternatives of brands within the consumer market, the focus during the sampling process was on advertisements targeting end-consumers. But this still leaves an unmanageable number of print advertisements, which resulted in further restricting the sample to only those ads promoting products from one of the following product categories: (1) cars, (2) fashion clothing, (3) foods, (4) health care/ beauty, (5) high-tech products/ appliances, (6) services, (7) snacks and beverages (8) sports equipment, (9) watches and (10) airlines.

These product classes were chosen since brands within these categories generally operate on a global level which enables cross-country comparison. Hence, they are well-known and widely recognized, and they utmost represent different types of products towards which consumers show different levels of involvement and different kinds of information processing or purchase reasons (Vaughn, 1986).

Vaughn (1980) identifies four categories of products and allocates each good and service to a category according to two characteristics (1) consumer involvement and (2) information processing. "Consumer involvement suggests a continuum of consumer interest in products and services", (Vaughn, 1980, p. 29). It is high for products involving high risk (such as money cost, newness, social value, or ego support) and personal relevance (Ratchford, 1987) in their purchase decision. In contrast to this, involvement is low for products consumers perceive little risk for or have little interest in (Vaughn, 1980). The second characteristic according to which products can be categorized is the way in which consumers process product information. Information processing happens in everybody's mind which is two folded into a left (think) and a right (feel) side. Thus advertising response varies depending upon the thinking or feeling communication task involved. Vaughn (1980) also views thinking and feeling on a continuum. Hence, certain product purchase decisions involve a lot of logical thinking and trade off between different alternatives, other decisions are taken for emotional reasons. Also a mix of both is possible (Vaughn, 1980).

Thus, it can be seen as a logical consequence that marketers of products from the different categories also need to apply different positioning strategies and advertising planning to successfully appeal to consumers. The so called FCB Grid, a planning model considering the two previously named dimensions for distinguishing between products, identifies a total of four kinds of products and respective marketing implications (Vaughn, 1986).

(1) High consumer involvement and economic considerations, thinking (rational decision criteria in general) are bound to big-ticket items such as the study's product categories of cars, financial services, and high-tech products or appliances. "This implies a large need of information because of the importance of the product and thinking issues related to it", (Vaughn, 1980, p. 30). A product's functional aspect and the satisfaction of utilitarian needs are crucial to consumers, therefore informative advertising is needed (Ratchford, 1987). According to this theory it can be expected that advertisements for cars, services and high-tech products will rather be positioned along features and benefits emphasizing the functional nature of the products.

(2) Whereas in the second category Vaughn (1986) lists those product purchases for which consumers show a high level of involvement on an emotional basis. Specific product information is not as valued by the consumer as the overall feelings and attitude related to the brand. These products are bought for ego-related reasons such as self-esteem and require a rather emotional communication (Ratchford, 1987). Within the study at hand the product categories of health care/ beauty (such as perfumes), fashion clothing and watches fall into this section. Thus the authoress anticipates the mentioned product categories to be positioned along emotional benefits or surrogate bases such as endorsement (especially celebrity endorsement) or even nonpareil or parentage positioning.

(3) Furthermore products low on involvement and thinking are products towards which consumers are likely to show some routine purchase behavior and exhibit buying habits for convenience (Vaughn, 1986). Still information is perceived as a point of difference (Vaughn, 1980). Advertisements have the purpose to trigger an exploratory trial purchase, create and reinforce purchase habits of such commodity products as certain

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foods and beverages (apparently especially those which are bought for health or diet reasons) or certain personal care products such as shower gels. Products within this category might consequently be especially positioned along a functional attribute or benefit.

(4) Finally purchase decisions which are low on involvement though emotionally driven correspond to peer-oriented products satisfying personal taste, “life’s little pleasures” (Vaughn, 1986, p. 58). Some kinds of food and beverages, such as candy snacks, beer, liquors or soft drinks for instance, fall into this category. These products are consumed in groups and consumers aim to achieve social acceptance from peers by purchasing/ consuming these brands. Positioning along the base of target positioning (especially life style) may be primarily used within this category.

Due to these differences the suitability of the different kinds of products, i.e. cars, fashion clothing, foods, health care/ beauty, high-tech products/ appliances, services, snacks and beverages, sports equipment, watches, and airlines for testing all different kinds of positioning alternatives and for detecting differences in positioning practices between product categories is assumed.

All together 1,305 ads were collected from four Austrian/ German magazines and four American magazines. The sample size of each product category was generated in respect to the incidence rate of ads for the respective product category in the chosen magazines. Please contact the authoress for a detailed list of sampled print advertisements, specifying the ad’s origin, the advertised company and brand/ product.

The ads which were to be included into the study were photocopied in black and white from previous named libraries in order for the coder not to be biased by the color of the artwork during content analysis. Print ads promoting the same product applying the same positioning claim were excluded from the study. This way it was ensured that no duplicate ads occurred and that ads promoting the same brand differed at least by 50% of positioning claims. This way of proceeding resulted in an unequally distributed sample size between Austrian/ German and US advertisements, as Austrian ads were analyzed prior to the US sample and therefore several US ads were eliminated from the original sample as their positioning claims were already captured for analysis within the

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Austrian sample. Hence, a total of 77 advertisements (or 8% of the final sample) were eliminated. Furthermore due to the hindered and accordingly low accessibility of US magazines, the US sample (179 ads) does not contain an equally big number of advertisements as the Austrian one (780 ads). However, the allocation of ads between product categories is for some product classes such as health care and beauty-, high-tech products or sports equipment comparable as you can see in the pie chart below (see **figure 37**).

The total number of advertisements analyzed within the study finally amounts to 959, whereas 34.6% of advertisements originate from DER SPIEGEL, 24.5% are from woman, 18.4% are from Sportmagazin, 6.9% of ads originate from the US weekly Newsweek, 4.9% of the sample are from COSMOPOLITAN, 4.1% from Sports Illustrated, and 3.9% and 2.8% of all ads were analyzed from LAUFSPORT MARATHON and RUNNER'S WORLD respectively.

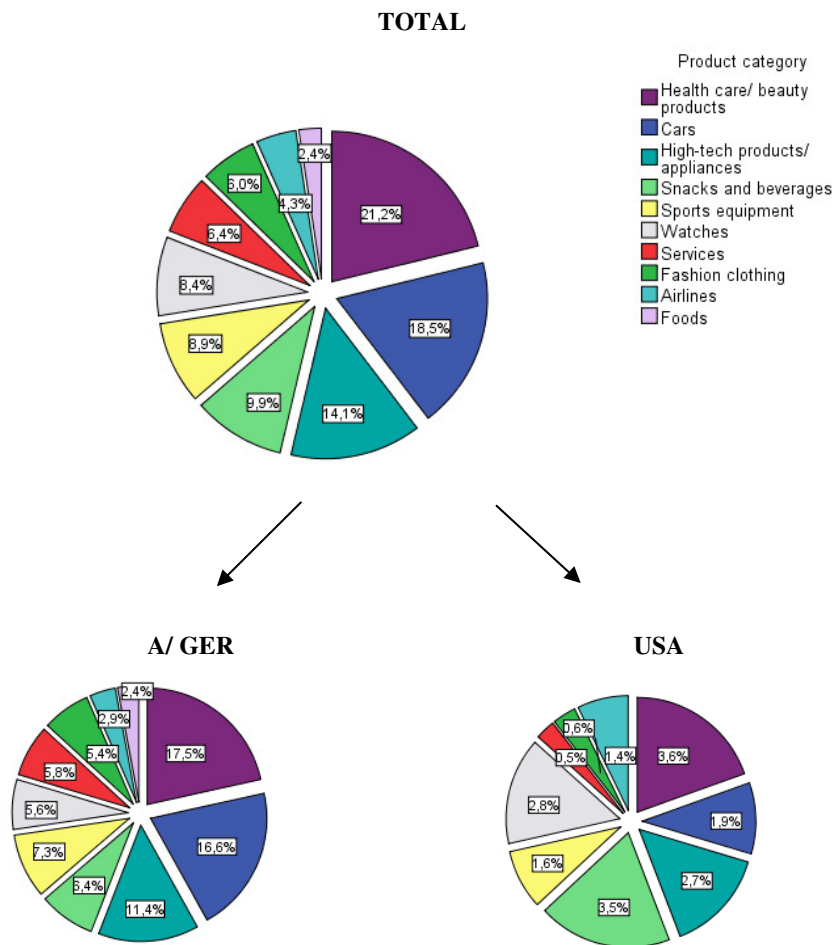


Figure 37: Distribution of ads between product categories

5.2.2 Content Analysis – Coding

As already indicated the sampled print advertisements were investigated by applying content analysis, which is a “research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use”, (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 32). Thus abductive inferences, i.e. analyst’s interpretations of statistical findings, provide new insight into and better understanding of positioning practices by answering the previously raised research questions. Furthermore they can inform practical actions (Krippendorff, 2004).

In the case of the study at hand the derived positioning classifications scheme is used as tool to code and explain the positioning practices of the sampled print advertisements. Thus, the previously stated rules of the positioning typology are applied rather mechanically for mapping textual (and pictorial) units into the terms of a data language. The advertisement as a whole (advertising message as well as artwork) represents the unit of analysis of the study at hand, whereas the fine print is generally neglected. All the steps within the study including the coding were undertaken by the same person, the authoress herself, which is supposed to provide consistency throughout the research by ensuring a profound background of the coder and a high level of familiarity with the subject of positioning practices. Furthermore a code book (see appendix D) was developed in the course of investigation to guarantee the reproducibility of and consistency throughout the content analysis and to prevent ambiguity from entering the analysis.

Within the process of content analysis and coding the focus was on diverse parts of each advertisement. (1) Each ad (which is later also referred to as recording unit) was assigned a serial number of the recording unit to be able to match the advertisement to the corresponding data even after analysis. (2) Furthermore references to where the recording units (i.e. the advertisements) originated from were included into the gathered data. (3) Information was collected on a brand and product level to later compare positioning practices across product categories. (4) However, the main focus was on advertising messages which were classified with the help of the new positioning typology. (5) After analyzing the position claimed in each advertisement’s message, the ad’s artwork was investigated to conclude whether or not the positioning approach was

consistent throughout the whole advertisement. Each ad's information was gathered, coded and analyzed in the statistical software program SPSS 16.

5.3 RESEARCH RESULTS

Due to the nominal nature of the data gathered from content analysis, the results were derived and abduced by descriptively analyzing the collected data and visualizing these results with the help of pie charts, stacked bar charts and data overviews.

As already discussed in detail in chapter 3.4 the results for testing the applicability of the typology were rather satisfying, as only 2.19% of all advertisements could not be classified according to the typology, i.e. 2.19% of ads did not claim any detectable position at all.

5.3.1 Question 1 (Q1)

How do marketers communicate the positions they claim for their brands? Does the artwork clearly support the positioning message or is it nothing more than an attention grabber? Is there a difference between product categories (especially services vs. goods)?

A slight trend can be abduced from the total sample concerning the way in which positions are communicated to the target audience, as a slightly higher percentage of positions claimed in print ads is not only emphasized via the advertising's main message and/ or supporting claims, but also with the help of and in line with its artwork. However, the numbers (see **figure 38**) are rather ambiguous, as they are only 2.5 percentage points apart. According to the research results of the total sample, there are on the one side 51.2% of ads where artwork is used as a tool to support positioning. This is actually in line with the work of Crawford (1985) who, however, had far clearer results (68% of ads had artwork supporting positioning). On the other side, in 48.7% of ads artwork is mainly used to grab the readers' attention and direct it towards the main message and position, by for instance showing the product in some form (45.5%).

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So similarly to the work of Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) who did not specify whether artwork is used to support positioning or whether its function is to be a mere attention grabber, the result from analyzing the overall sample within this research cannot be clearly generalized but should be taken as an indicator that the majority of artworks are supporting the claimed position. Generally it can be concluded that there is at least some form of artwork in almost 100% of ads sampled (only 1 car advertisement out of a total of 959 advertisements did not show any artwork at all).

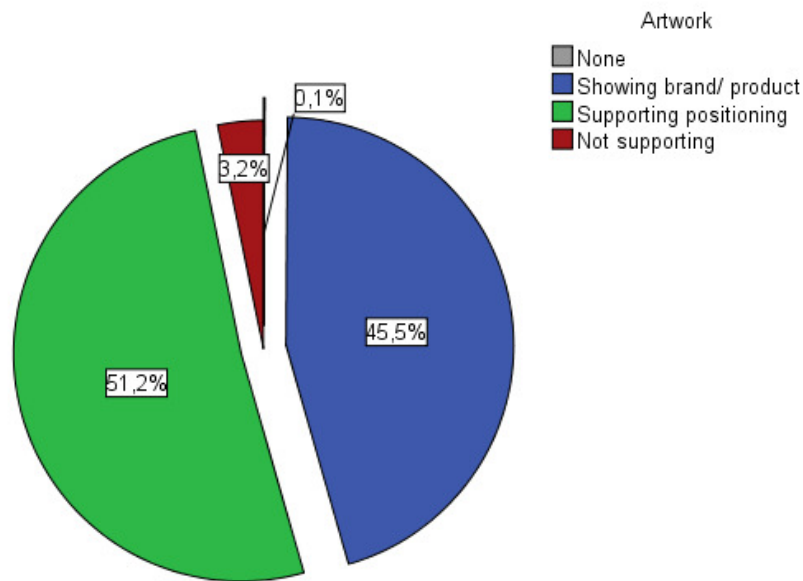


Figure 38: The role of artwork in positioning - total sample

The indicator for the trend of the artwork's major role as supporting device for positioning claims in advertisements is especially strengthened and backed up by looking at the role of artwork in advertising services (see **table 5**), where in 59.8% of advertisements artwork supports the position emphasized in the advertising message. However, in services also a rather high percentage of artwork (30.4%) is actually not supporting the claimed position at all; neither do these advertisements show the product (it needs to be noted here that it is actually quite impossible to show the product in the services sector, except for hybrid products such as the service provided by airlines). But the artworks function then is clearly to evoke interest and grab attention.

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	None	Supporting positioning	Showing brand/product	Not supporting
SERVICES	-	59.8%	9.8%	30.4%
Airlines	-	63.4%	19.5%	17.1%
Financial services	-	57.4%	3.3%	39.3%
GOODS	0.1%	50.2%	48.7%	-
Watches	-	65.4%	34.6%	-
High-tech products & appliances	-	63.7%	36.3%	-
Food	-	52.2%	47.8%	-
Fashion	-	48.3%	51.7%	-
Cars	0.6%	47.5%	52.0%	-
Health care & beauty	-	45.3%	54.7%	-
Snacks & beverages	-	43.2%	56.8%	-
Sports equipment	-	40.0%	60.0%	-

Table 5: Overview of the role of artwork in positioning per product category

Hence, it can be concluded that artwork has a rather dual capacity; its function is both to support the position claimed in an advertisement and to attract the readers' attention. However, especially in advertising intangibles and product categories requiring high consumer involvement such as high-tech goods/ household appliances or watches (see figure 5.3.1.2.) the focus of artwork is apparently on supporting the product's position, whereas product categories traditionally require rather low consumer involvement, but emotional involvement such as snacks and beverages, sports equipment, clothes or health care and beauty products like perfumes (product category 3 and especially 4 of Vaughn's (1986) FCB grid) do not show this tendency.

5.3.2 Question 2 (Q2)

Are all positioning categories and positioning elements applied equally? Are there any clustered or heavily occupied positions? Do certain product categories tend to apply a certain (or a limited number of) position(s)? Can differences in positioning goods and services be denoted from the empirical analysis?

Looking at the total sample, the most frequently applied positioning category is surrogate positioning with 41.8% of all positioning claims (see **figure 39**). Benefit positioning which accounts for one third of total claims does not rank too far behind in usage frequency. Attribute positioning clearly is the least used positioning category with only around 25% of investigated ads being classified in this type. Comparing these practices to the positioning habits Crawford analyzed back in 1985 (compare to Crawford's research of 1985: benefits – 32% vs. surrogates – 23% vs. attributes – 19%), it can be realized that the use of surrogate elements in positioning has become extremely familiar and popular in advertising. But also attribute claims have increased by a noticeable amount. However, these shifts did not happen at the expense of any positioning category positioning but advertisements without positioning almost vanished.

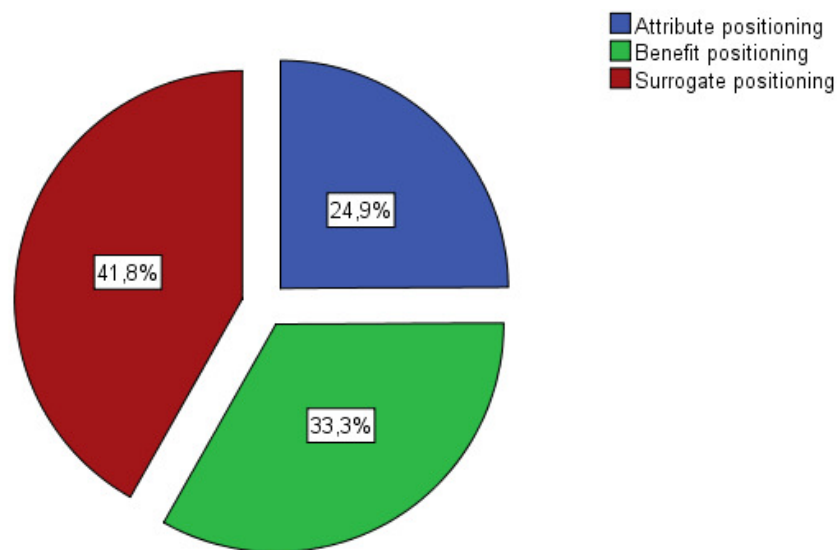


Figure 39: Frequency of use of positioning categories - total sample

Surrogate positioning practices. However, investigating service advertisements (which are in this sample ads for financial services and ads for the services offered by airlines) separately from goods advertisements a clear difference becomes apparent. Services in general are – at the cost of surrogate positioning – still far more frequently positioned along benefits than goods are (41.3% vs. 32.3%) (see **table 6**).

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	Attribute positioning	Benefit positioning	Surrogate positioning
SERVICES	24.1%	41.3%	34.6%
Financial services	15.2%	41.6%	43.3%
Airlines	38.9%	40.7%	20.4%
GOODS	25.0%	32.3%	42.7%
Watches	14.0%	19.5%	66.5%
Fashion	11.4%	24.4%	64.2%
Health care & beauty	13.0%	38.4%	48.6%
Sports equipment	21.7%	36.3%	42.0%
Snacks & beverages	38.0%	21.8%	40.2%
Food	31.7%	31.7%	36.6%
Cars	36.8%	28.0%	35.2%
High-tech products & appliances	27.8%	41.8%	30.4%

Table 6: Overview of the frequency of use of positioning categories per product category

When comparing the percentages of surrogate positioning within the service sample, it becomes obvious that it is actually marketers of airline companies which deny applying surrogate positioning with a rather low percentage being positioned along surrogates (20.4% versus 43.3% in financial services) (see **table 6**). Hence, surrogate positioning is deliberately applied with at least one third of investigated ads being positioned along this category throughout all product classes except for hybrid products such as flights.

Furthermore especially products which are not so much of a necessity but more of a luxury tend to be very frequently positioned along surrogates – please look at **table 6** for the numbers (watches – 66.5%, fashion – 64.2%, and healthcare and beauty products – 48.6%).

The most frequently applied surrogate positioning base in total is endorsement positioning with a total of 26.8% or 152 ads, followed by target positioning (25.3%).

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This is very different to the practices Crawford described in 1985 where the two bases are only ranked as 4 and 5 in terms of usage frequency. The total ranking of surrogate positioning bases according to their frequency of being claimed is (1) endorsement positioning (152 ads make up 26.8%), (2) target positioning (144 ads or 25.3%), (3) parentage positioning (109 ads or 19.2%), (4) manufacture positioning (37 ads or 6.5%), (5) positioning by product class (34 ads or 6%), (6) positioning by origin (24 ads or 4.3%), (7) nonpareil positioning (22 ads or 3.9%), (8) pioneer positioning and experience positioning (15 ads 2.6% each), (9) rank/ leader positioning (6 ads or 1.1%), (10) positioning along competition (5 ads making up for 0.9%) and (11) predecessor positioning (4 ads or 0.7%) (see **figure 40** for details). So the most common claims in brand positioning today are endorsement, target and parentage positioning. The top five positioning elements applied in surrogate positioning are positioning by (1) brand parentage (15.9%), (2) end-usage (13.6%), (3) an unrelated event/ discipline (9.2%), (4) celebrity endorsement (7.9%) and (5) psychographic user profile (5.6%).

Hence, the surrogate base applied most frequently in Crawford's study in 1985 – nonpareil positioning – today only makes up for 3.9% of surrogate positions (previously 5%). Furthermore a positioning element which was already applied in print advertisements back in 1985 is parentage positioning, i.e. company parentage. But although the element dates back to Crawford's work, it was not found to be claimed today, at least not within the sampled advertisements.

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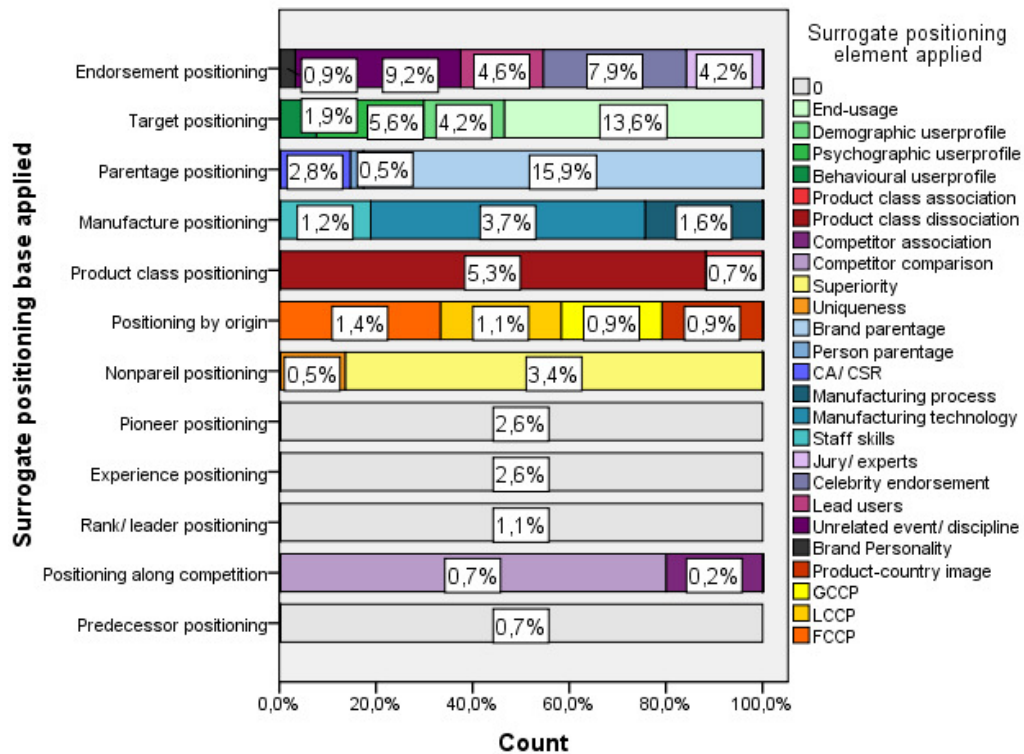


Figure 40: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning bases and respective elements - total sample

When comparing surrogate bases applied for positioning services versus goods, several differences are apparent. Compared to brand positioning in general, product class positioning plays a relatively high role in positioning services (16.3% vs. 6%) (see **figure 41**). But also positioning by experience and by rank/leader which are rarely claimed in goods advertisements (2.3% and 0.8% respectively; see **figure 44**) is more than twice as important in positioning services (7% and 4.7%). Furthermore positioning by origin is rather important (rank 3 in frequency) and often claimed in service advertisements.

The increase in use of these positioning elements appears to be the marketers' attempt to overcome the special characteristics of services (such as intangibility, perishability, variability). In contrast to this, target positioning is relatively seldom claimed compared to goods advertisements (9.3% service- vs. 26.7% of good ads). Endorsement and manufacture positioning seem to play a similar role in positioning services as in brand positioning in general. Though not all variations of these two bases are emphasized, endorsement claims are still most frequently used and manufacture positioning remains on rank 4 in frequency of application.

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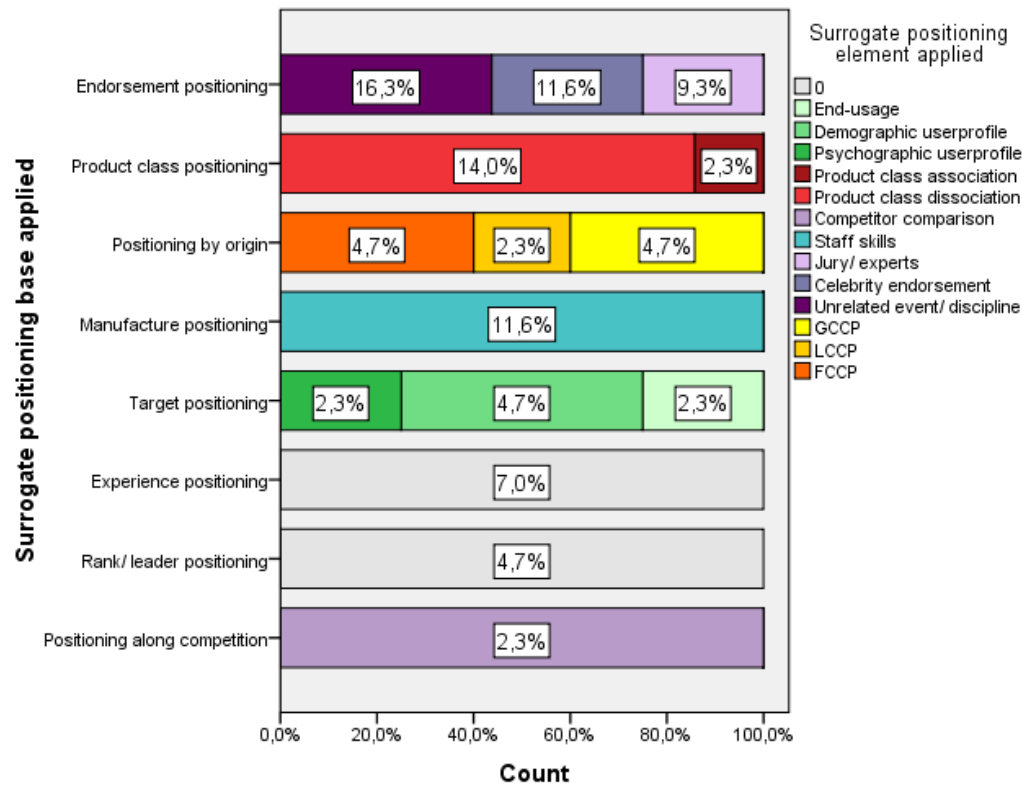


Figure 41: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - service sample

Several positioning bases (i.e. parentage positioning, nonpareil positioning, pioneer positioning, predecessor positioning) and elements (i.e. positioning along a brand personality and lead user, positioning by product-country images, positioning by manufacturing process and technology, positioning along behavioral variables, positioning along competitor association) are not claimed at all in advertising services.

Inspecting the group of service advertisements in more detail, one realizes that each group – airline and financial service advertisements – has their special characteristics. Positioning by origin, ranked on 2 according to usage frequency of surrogate claims in financial services, appears to be rather important as does positioning by experience (9.7% of surrogate financial service positions). Also target positioning plays a bigger role in financial service positioning than in positioning services in general (rank 3 versus rank 5 in usage frequency). In contrast to this positioning along a competitor is not emphasized at all (see **figure 42**). Product class positioning is emphasized rather seldom (6.4% of financial service ads vs. 16.3% of overall service advertisements).

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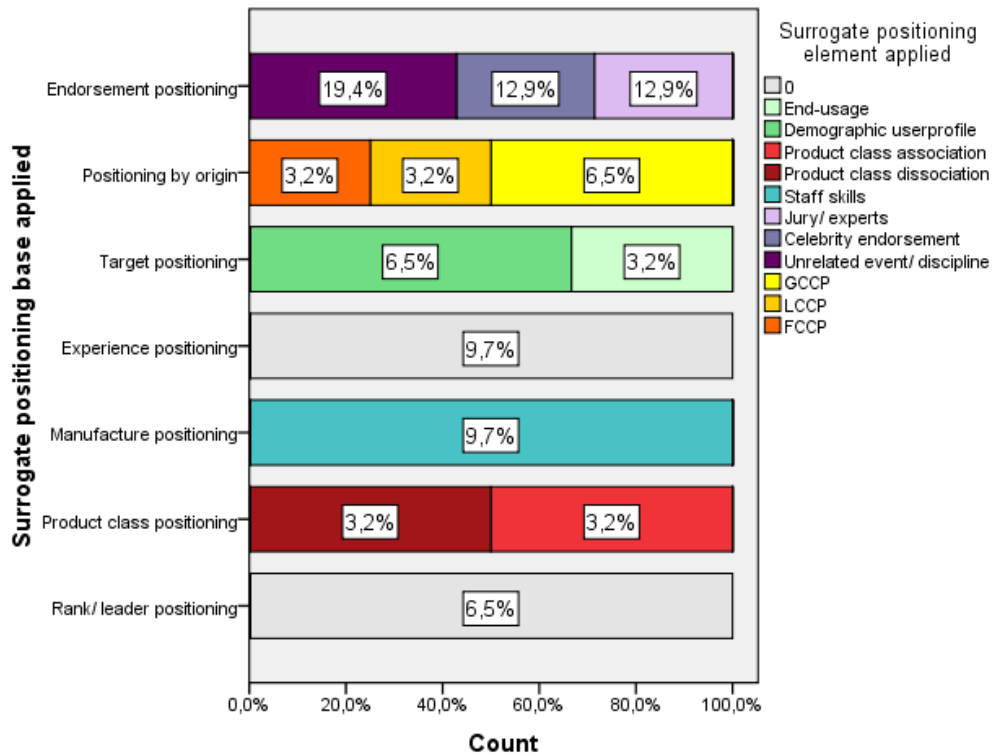


Figure 42: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - financial service advertisements

This stands very much in contrast to the positioning practices within the airline industry where 41.7% of analyzed ads with surrogate positioning show to use positioning by product class dissociation and 16.7% of airlines emphasize their staff's skills (manufacture positioning). Furthermore a specialty in airline positioning appears to be positioning along competition, or more clearly competitor comparison (applied in 8.3% of surrogate airline ads and only 0.6% of all surrogate goods advertisements). A surprising difference to financial service positioning was that airlines do not build on their business experience or market leadership when it comes to the main positioning message. Another characteristic of airline positioning seems to be that when positioning by origin mainly (if not only) foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP) is emphasized which probably has the purpose of emphasizing that a certain airline has specialized their service for a distinct geographic area.

It can apparently be generalized that those surrogate positioning bases which are applied in airline advertisements are emphasized rather unidirectional, meaning that in a majority of ads only one respective positioning element is claimed (i.e. product class positioning → dissociation, manufacture positioning → staff skills, target positioning →

psychographic positioning, competitor positioning → comparison, positioning by origin → FCCP). For detailed numbers on positioning airline services please see **figure 43**.

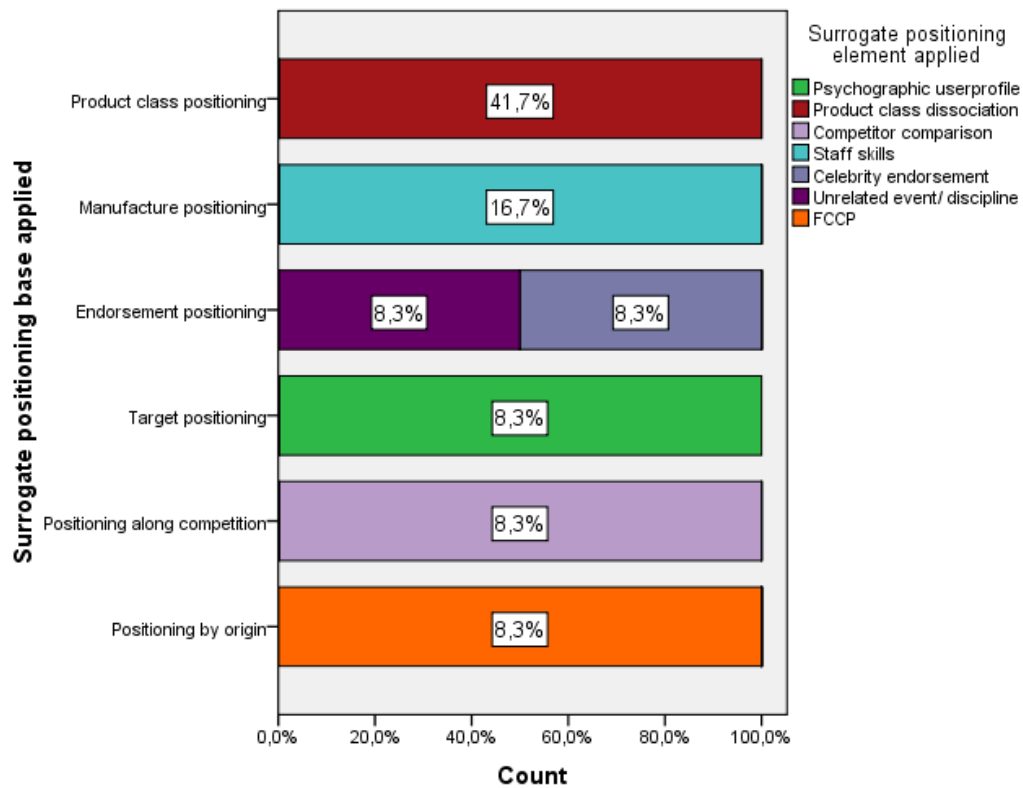


Figure 43: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - airline advertisements

Hence, the positioning bases of parentage-, nonpareil-, predecessor- and pioneer positioning and the elements of positioning along manufacture process and technology, lead users and brand personality appear to be used especially in goods advertisements. But also target positioning plays a more important role in positioning goods (26.7%) than in positioning services (9.3%) (compare **figures 44** and **41**). The increased use of the mentioned positioning bases is at the cost of product class positioning and positioning by origin which are only applied in 5.2% and 3.7% of good advertisements respectively. In total it remains to be highlighted that in respect to the surrogate category, brand positioning for goods appears to be far more diverse than brand positioning for services.

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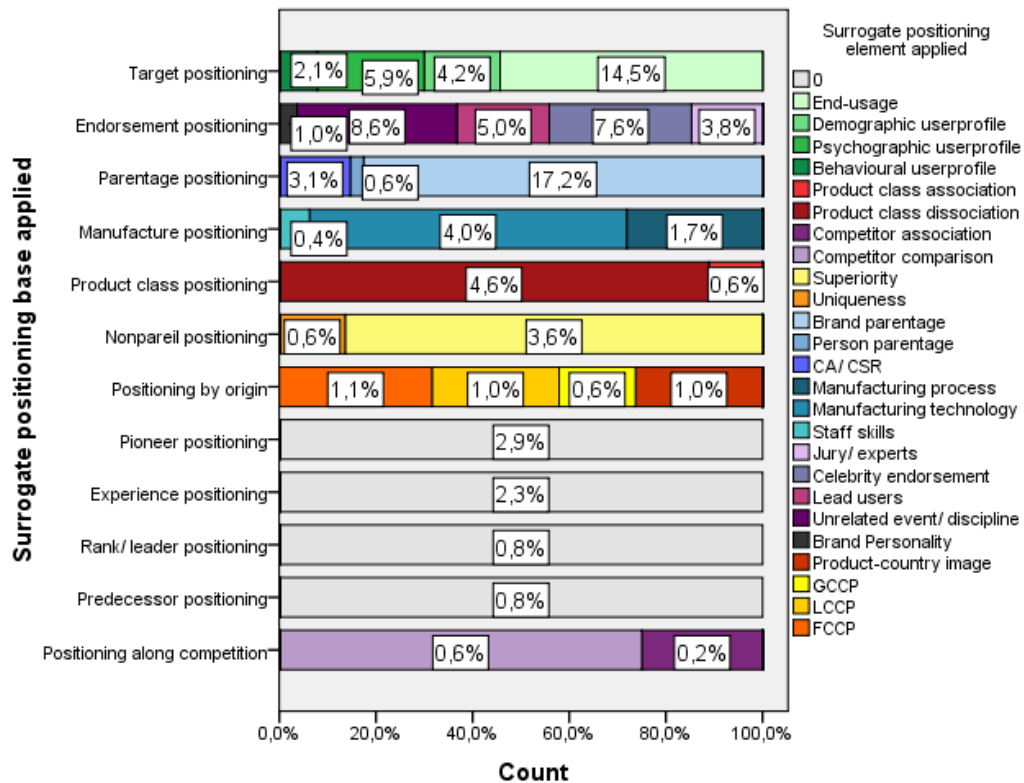


Figure 44: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - goods sample

Nevertheless, when looking at the different product categories in particular, certain positioning clusters emerge within each category, meaning that positioning practices of certain product categories seem to be limited to particular positioning bases and elements. This is especially apparent for advertisements of the product categories of fashion clothing and foods.

This does not necessarily indicate that the top three positioning bases become less important as can be seen in fashion ads, but however they change rank. So in clothing and fashion parentage positioning is by far the most frequently applied surrogate base with 68.1% of ads being positioned by the parentage of their brand or a certain person (see **figure 45**). All other bases fall way behind whereas target positioning with only two of its respective elements – positioning by end-usage and psychographic characteristics (i.e. lifestyle positioning) are on rank 2 (10.7%). Still rather commonly used are endorsement and manufacture positioning with 8.5% of fashion ads each. But also here marketers do not apply the full range of known elements (i.e. brand personality, lead user and jury/ experts endorsement as well as manufacturing process and positioning along staff skills are not claimed at all). 2.1% of ads are positioned

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along the pioneer status and the origin of each brand, whereas only positioning along the product-country image is emphasized within the latter base.

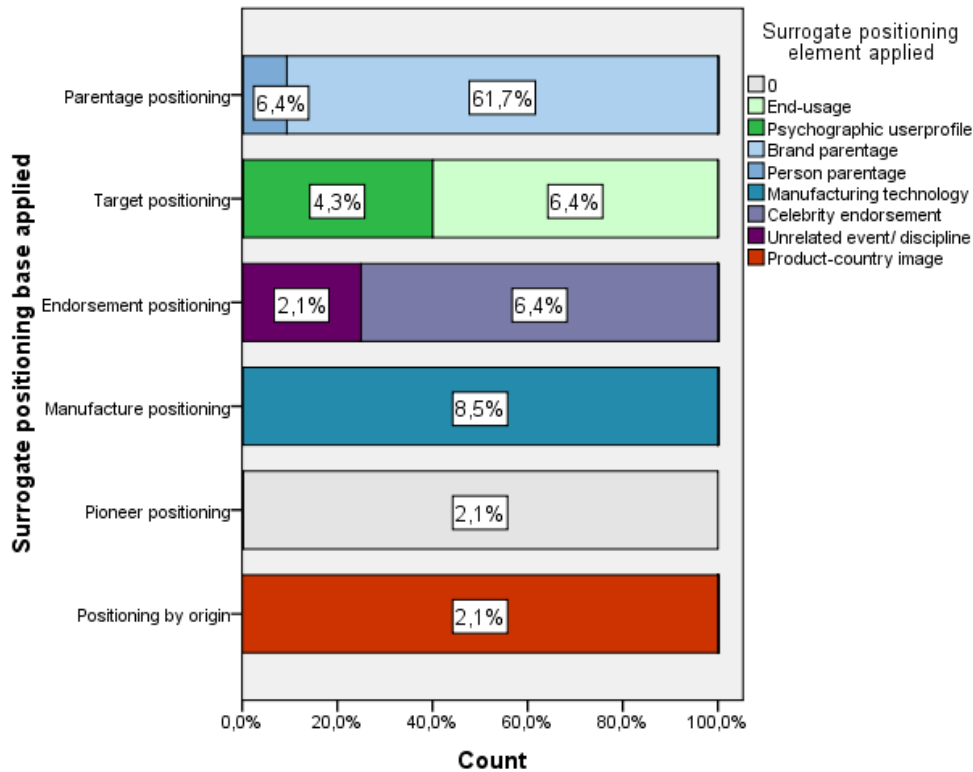


Figure 45: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - fashion advertisements

Though the distribution of claimed positioning bases is more harmonized in advertising foods (35.7% target positioning, 21.4% nonpareil positioning, 21.4% positioning by origin, 7.1% positioning along parentage, product class, and endorsement each; compare **figure 46**) than in fashion ads (68.1%, 10.7%, 8.5%, 2.1%), the number of positioning elements applied is still rather limited. The choice of positioning elements within this product class was surprising, or against expectations, since products which were positioned along their origin were, for instance, not claimed to be locally produced, as was expected by the authoress, but they were all positioned along foreign consumer cultures. Furthermore it was surprising that in 7.1% of food advertisements it was claimed that brands produce their goods under corporately responsible conditions.

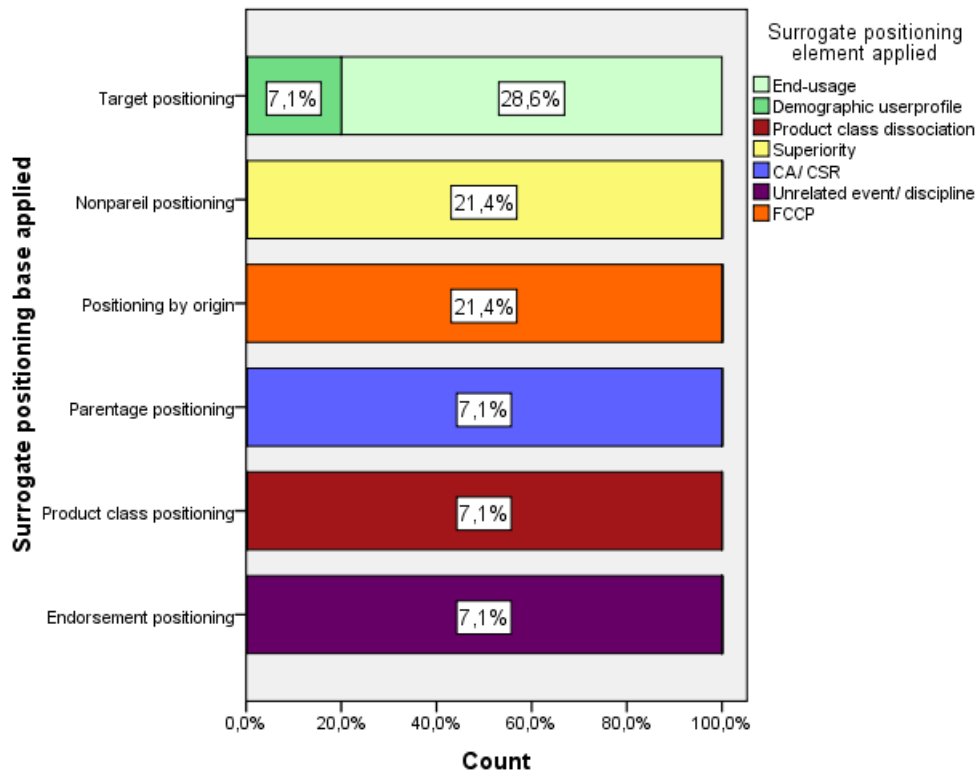


Figure 46: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - food advertisements

The product categories of snacks, high-tech goods, sports equipment and healthcare products are positioned along a broader range of positioning bases and elements than the analyzed food advertisements. However, marketers are still far from drawing from plentiful resources. In positioning snacks and beverages the bases of parentage positioning (11.5%), manufacture positioning (9.6%), nonpareil positioning (5.8%), product class positioning (1.9%) and positioning along competition (1.9%) are each focused on only one of their several elements (see **figure 47**). Contrary to this, within the claims of target-, endorsement- and origin positioning in snack and beverage ads diverse respective positioning elements are emphasized. Target positioning claims – with 40.3% the most frequently applied positioning base in surrogate positioning of snacks and beverages – contain 19.2% end-usage claims, 17.3% claims about the target group’s lifestyle and 3.8% claims which describe the target user’s behavior. Within claimed endorsements 15.4% referred to unrelated events or disciplines (e.g. a sporting event which is sponsored by a product) and 1.9% were made by celebrities and experts respectively. Positioning by origin was in contrast to the ranking of the total goods sample on rank 4 in the category at hand. A total of 5.8% of surrogate snack ads were positioned along a foreign consumer culture, but contrary to claims within food advertisements also product-country images and LCC were emphasized (1.9% each).

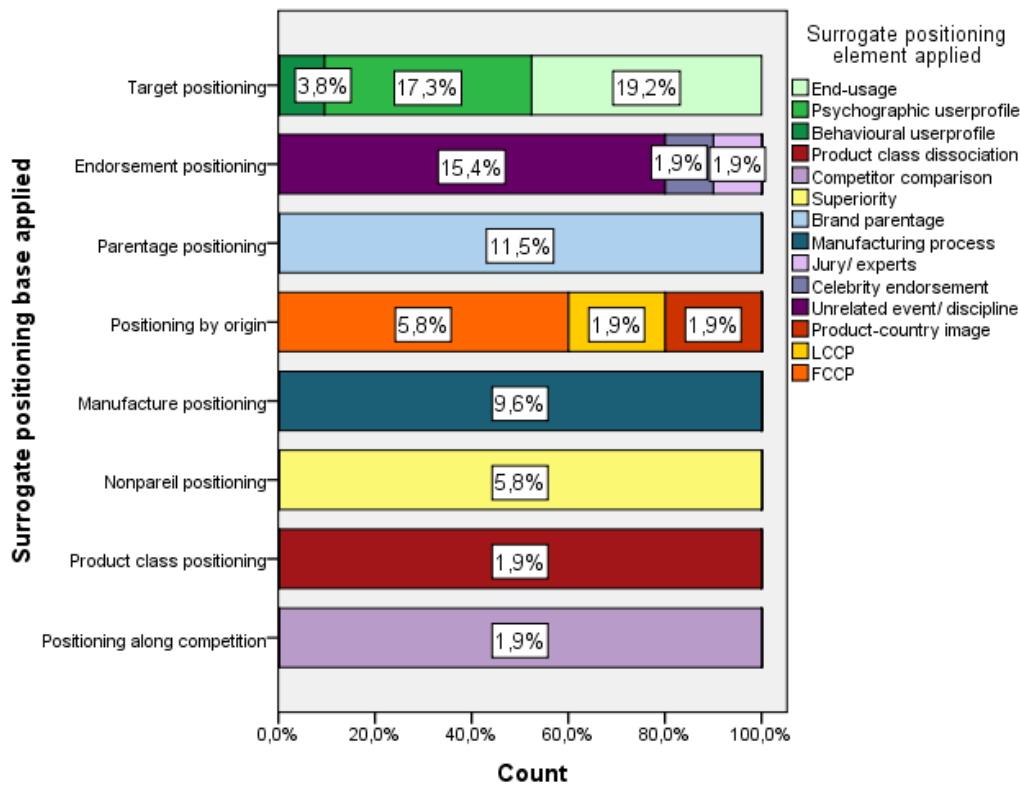


Figure 47: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - snack and beverage advertisements

Positioning in sports equipment and sporting goods is rather one-sided, as almost 50% of advertisements within this category claim their position via endorsement (49.1%) (see **figure 48**). In 32.1% of ads lead users are used to highlight a product’s position and performance, whereas 13.2% of products get connected to unrelated events (sponsorships fall under this positioning element) and merely 3.8% are positioned by experts. A positioning element which is, compared to the total goods sample, frequently used in positioning sports goods is target positioning via behavioural variables (2.1% in total goods vs. 9.4% in sporting equipment). But also a product’s pioneer status is willingly emphasized (2.9% versus 11.3%). Sporting goods and equipment are further positioned along their manufacturing process (1.9%) and technology (5.7%), CSR (1.9%) and brand parentage (3.8%), predecessor models product class dissociations and their superiority (3.8% each), whereas brand parentage is relatively rarely claimed in comparison to the overall sample of goods ads (17.2%).

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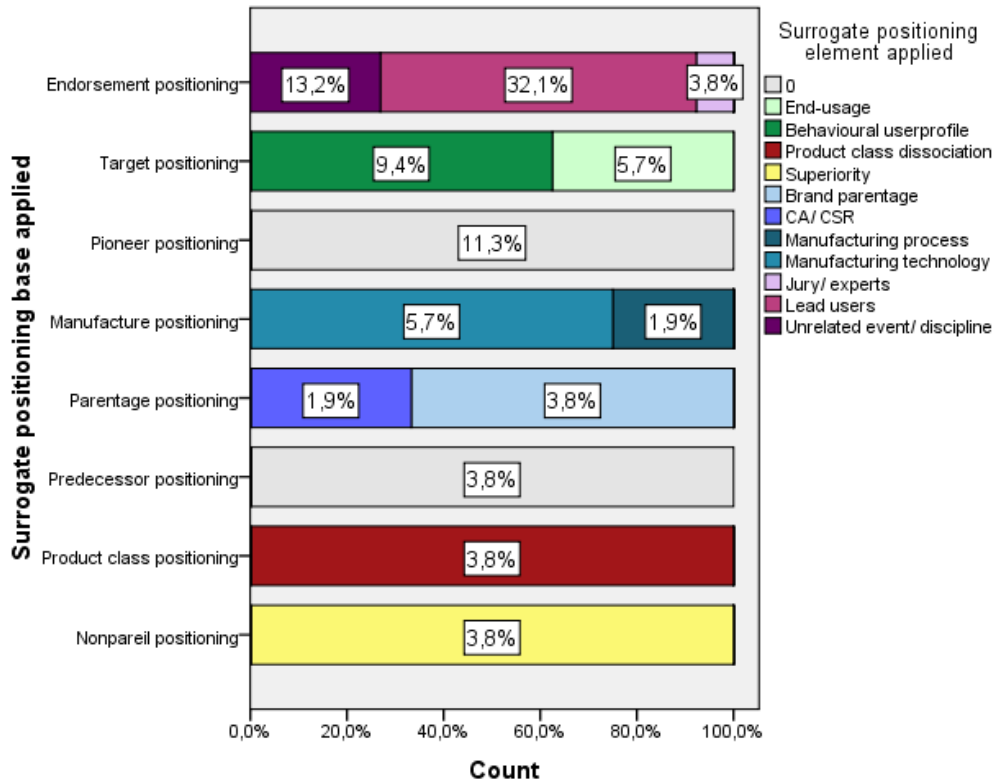


Figure 48: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - sports equipment advertisements

In positioning health care and beauty products claims from diverse positioning bases are emphasized, but only in target-, endorsements and product class positioning more than one respective element is claimed (see **figure 49**). In total positioning health care and beauty products seems to be quite focused on three bases – target positioning (34%), parentage positioning (28.1%) and endorsement positioning (22.1%). Hence, these three bases make up more than three quarters of health care and beauty products advertisements. All other bases appear to have little importance and/ or values for marketers of health care and beauty products because each of these bases does not account for more than 3% of surrogate health care ads.

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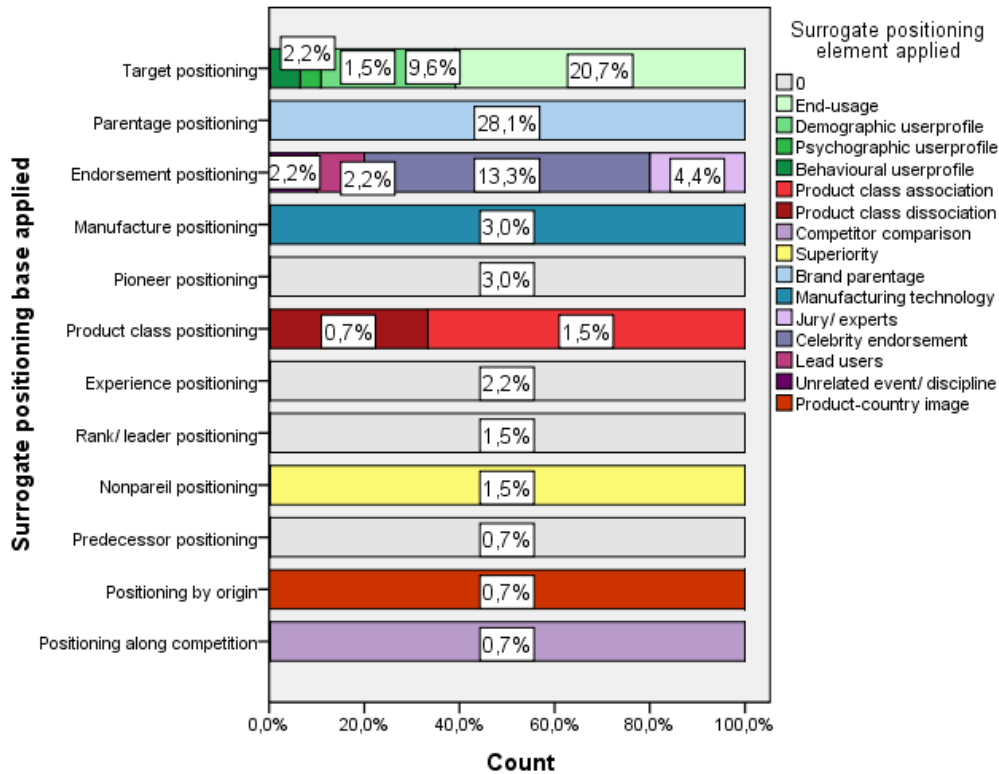


Figure 49: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - health care/ beauty advertisements

When analyzing positioning practices within the product class of high-tech goods and household appliances it can be realized that the trend of emphasizing only one element of a positioning base is not as strong as in previous product groups. The claims of four bases (product class-, manufacture-, origin-, and competition positioning) still focus on only one of their elements, but another four bases (target-, endorsement-, parentage-, and nonpareil positioning) claim diverse elements. Product class positioning, i.e. product class dissociation, is quite frequently used in positioning high-tech goods (14.3% of ads which make it the third most frequently used positioning base and second most frequently used positioning element in high-tech advertisements). Other characteristics of positioning high-tech goods are on the one side that if applying manufacture positioning marketers focus on highlighting a special technology of the device and on the other side marketers relate the product to the global consumer culture in 100% of the cases of positioning by origin. Most willingly emphasized positioning elements are end-use (23.2%), product class dissociation (14.3%), lifestyle positioning (10.7%) and celebrity endorsement and positioning along an unrelated event (8.9% each). For details see **figure 50**.

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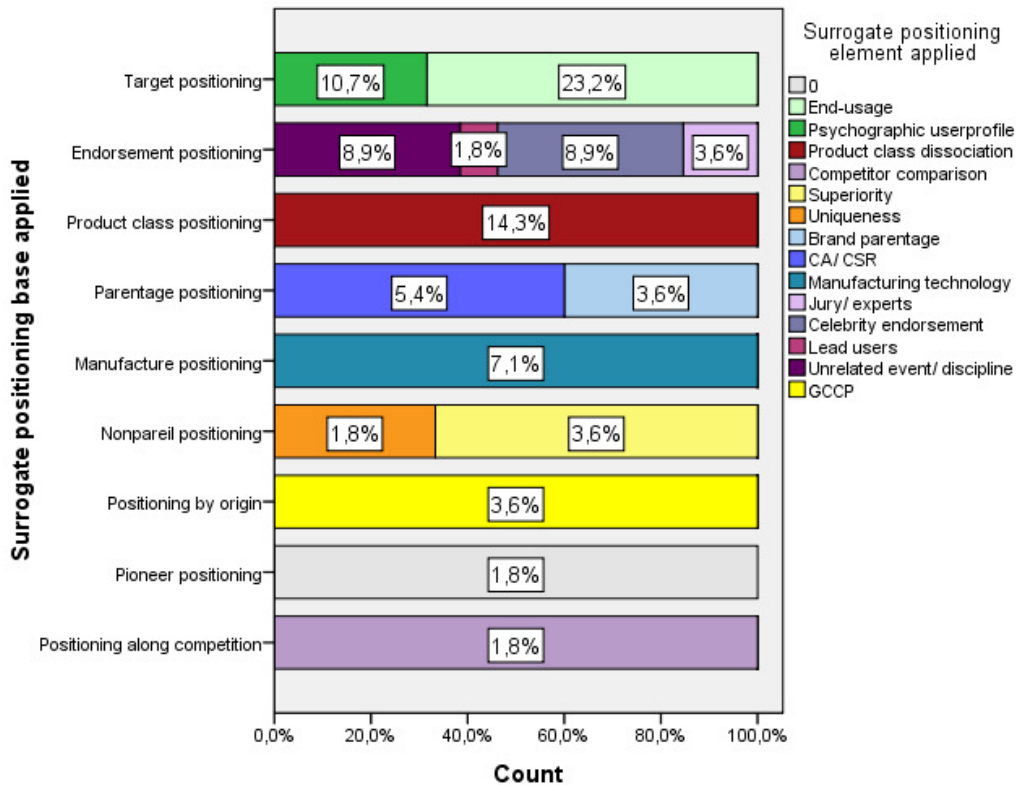


Figure 50: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - high-tech product/ appliance advertisements

Advertisements of the last two product categories – watches and cars – contain positioning claims from diverse bases claiming multiple positioning elements. Hence, within the claimed endorsement positions – the number one base emphasized in advertising watches (see **figure 51**) – four of its five respective elements are emphasized (brand personality – 7.1%, unrelated discipline or event – 18.6%, lead users – 7.1% and celebrity endorsers – 14.3%). But also in target positioning as applied in watch ads three of its four elements are applied (lifestyle – 2.9%, demographic user profiles – 4.3% and end-usage – 5.7%). All together the positioning practices which were found to be claimed most frequently in watch advertisements are relating the product to an unconnected discipline (18.6%), highlighting the brand it belongs to (15.7%), celebrity endorsements (14.3%), emphasizing a certain brand personality, lead user endorsement and highlighting the manufacturing technology (7.1% each) and relating the product to a specific kind of end-usage or emphasizing the brand’s overall experience (5.7% each). The latter is in 22.7% of ads additionally to the claim also supported and strengthened by suffixes to brand slogans which highlight, for instance, the number of years in business. A fact which might surprise attentive readers of watch advertisements is that when claiming positioning by origin, the watch is related to

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global consumer culture (1.4%) not to product-country images or foreign consumer culture. However, this does not mean that watches are not related to the countries they are produced in – typically Switzerland, France or Germany. But this connection is not emphasized in the claimed position but in another suffix to the brand name or slogan, i.e. 32% of sampled watch advertisements relate to the typical country of origin in their slogans and brand names.

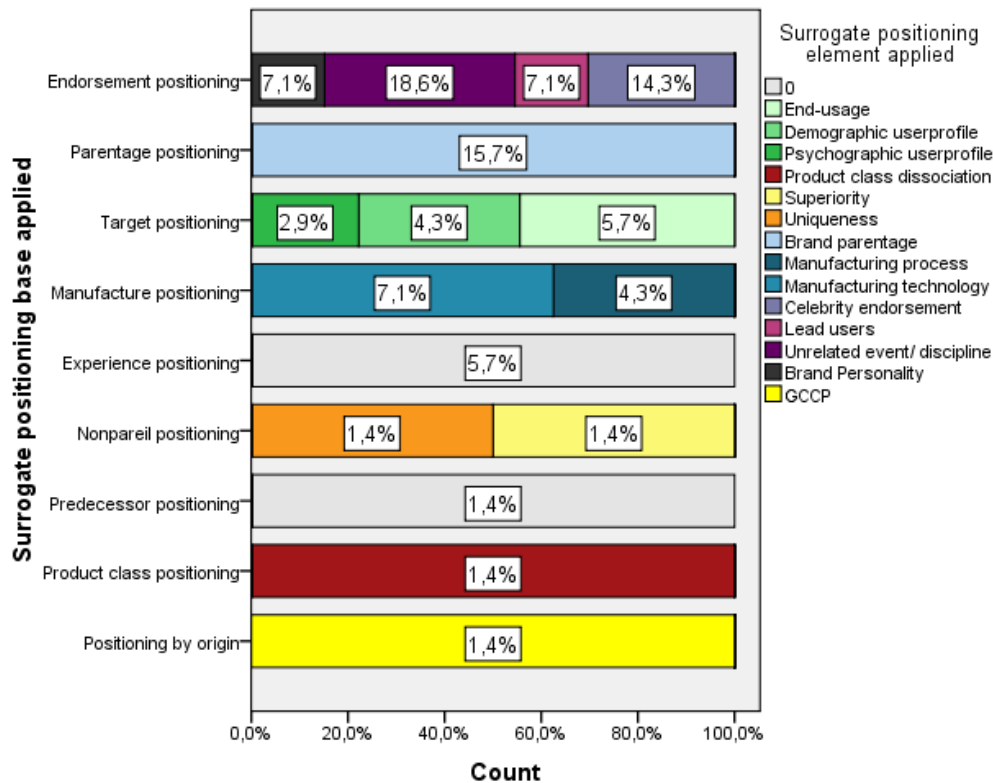


Figure 51: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - watch advertisements

Finally, although in the sample of car advertisements the percentage of surrogate positions is among the lowest, almost the whole surrogate positioning range is found to be emphasized there (except for predecessor positioning) (see **figure 52**). The usage frequency and hence the importance of each positioning base and element is quite similar to the overall goods sample. An exception however, is manufacture positioning which only makes up for 3.1% of positioning claims in car ads (vs. 6.1% in all good ads). Furthermore CSR apparently is very often emphasized (11.3% in positioning cars vs. 3.1% in overall good ads) which actually reflects the trend that consumer start to consider environmental friendliness as important. The top claimed positioning messages include end-usage, CSR (11.3% each), lifestyle and product class dissociation (10.3%

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each), experts endorsement (9.3%), connection to an unrelated event (7.2%), superiority (6.2%) and demographic user profiles and experience positioning (5.2% each). Positioning by origin is applied rather often in car advertisements (6.2% car ads vs. 3.7% of goods ads), whereas marketers rely on consumers' product-country images and especially in ads for German cars on local/ foreign consumer culture positioning (as Germany is popular for its engineering).

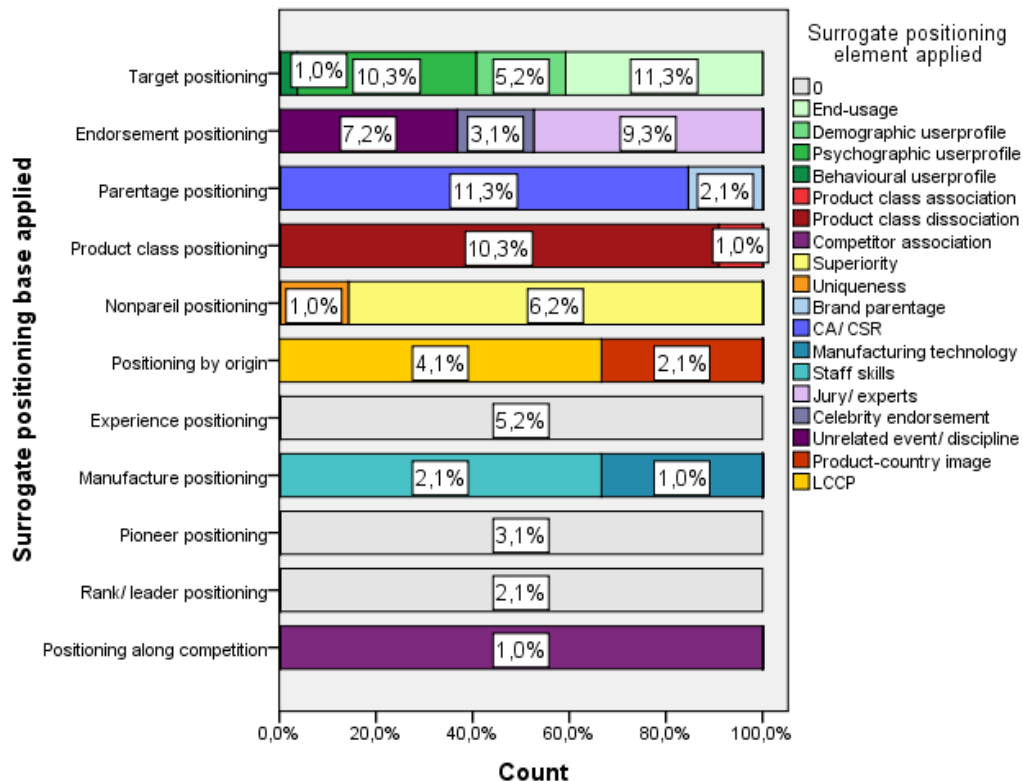


Figure 52: Frequency of use of surrogate positioning options - car advertisements

Practices in benefit positioning. Although benefit positioning is the second most applied positioning category as a whole, only airline companies and high-tech products apply it as their number one positioning category with 40.7% and 41.8% of ads being positioned along benefits (see **figure 39**). But also in the categories of sports equipment, financial services, and healthcare (see all **figure 39**) there are more than the average number (33.2%) of ads positioned along benefits.

As discussed in chapter 4.2. there are different kinds of benefits, i.e. functional and emotional ones, as well as direct or indirect ones. As an advertisement can contain multiple benefit claims, it is consequently possible that one advertisement contains

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functional and emotional benefits which are either a direct and/ or indirect consequence of the product purchase/ usage. The majority of benefit claims are made indicating the direct advantage which the consumer has from the product, i.e. 81.2% of benefit claims are direct benefits (see **figure 53**). Claims highlighting indirect benefits are more rarely observed – only in 13.9% of advertisements where benefit positioning is applied. This big gap and difference between the numbers of benefit claims being direct versus indirect consequences of product usage may be due to the fact that marketers want their positioning messages to be clearly and quickly understood by consumers. As the connection of indirect benefits to the product is not necessarily apparent, marketers might fear to be misunderstood when claiming indirect benefits. Hence, there are 4.9% of ads with benefit claims which emphasize both direct and indirect benefits.

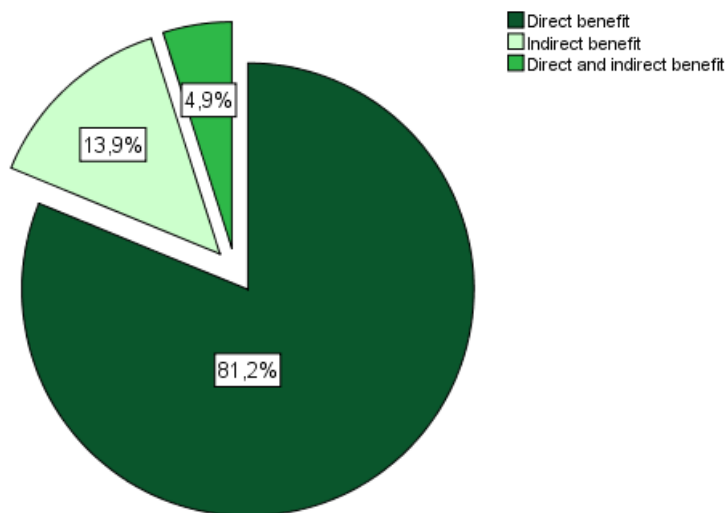


Figure 53: Benefits as direct vs. indirect consequence of product purchase - total sample

But the above mentioned numbers are only summarizing what happens in the total sample. However, when looking at the different product categories (see **table 7** for details), there are quite some differences in positioning practices of benefit positioning. Hence, direct benefits make up the majority of benefit claims in all product categories, but watch advertisements. Generally it can be observed that product categories which are rated high on feelings (involve emotions when deciding about the purchase) according to Vaughn's FCB grid (1986), i.e. watches, snacks, fashion and beauty

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products, tend to emphasize indirect benefits at a higher rate than those products traditionally involving rational decisions. Comparing services to goods in respect to direct benefit positioning, one realizes that services tend to be more frequently positioned along direct benefits than goods (87.1% vs. 80.3%). This may well be due to their special characteristics and to, hence, reduce the consumer's uncertainty and insecurity which is especially high in purchasing services.

	Direct benefit	Indirect benefit	Both
SERVICES	87.1%	8.1%	4.8%
Financial services	90.2%	4.9%	4.9%
Airlines	81.0%	14.3%	4.8%
GOODS	80.3%	14.8%	4.9%
Sports equipment	94.6%	5.4%	-
Food	91.7%	8.3%	-
High-tech products & appliances	89.4%	5.9%	4.7%
Cars	82.7%	11.1%	6.2%
Health care & beauty	75.2%	17.7%	7.1%
Fashion	68.8%	31.2%	-
Snacks & beverages	65.4%	26.9%	7.7%
Watches	46.7%	53.3%	-

Table 7: Overview of positioning practices in benefit positioning per product category

Marketers further differentiate between highlighting functional and emotional benefits. More than half of the advertisements where benefits are emphasized claim a functional benefit (53.0%, see **figure 54**), attaining to solve a utilitarian problem. About one third (32.4%) emphasizes to aim at satisfying symbolic, experiential and/ or emotional needs. This ratio between functional and emotional benefits implies that the traditional approach of benefit positioning, i.e. claiming functional benefits, is still the more frequently used one. Within 14.5% of benefit positioning both – functional as well as emotional – advantages of the advertised product are emphasized simultaneously.

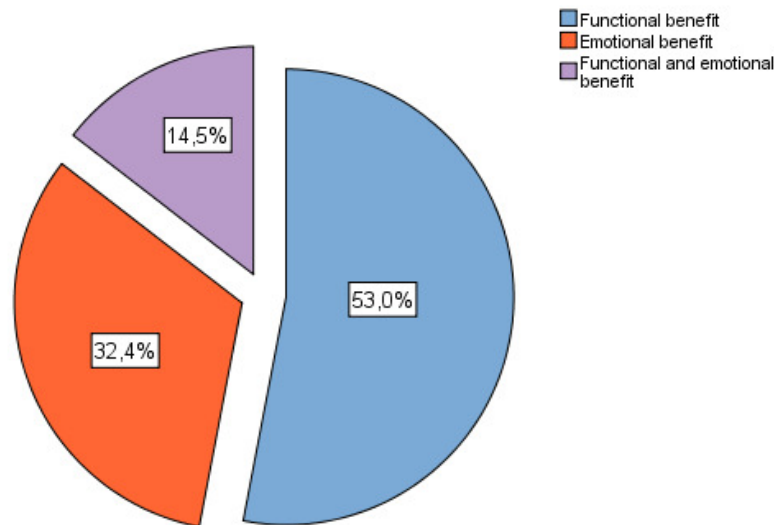


Figure 54: Frequency of use of different kinds of benefits - total sample

Looking at product category differences in the distribution of the usage of functional vs. emotional benefits in positioning, one again clearly realizes that products which can be found on the think side of the FCB grid are positioned differently than those from the feel side. Product categories requiring rather rational purchase decisions which are bought for rational motives are positioned mainly along functional benefits (see **table 8**): Benefits emphasized in services positioning are to 82.3% of functional kind; furthermore, 72.9% of high-tech products and household appliances positioned along a benefit highlight a functional benefit. Also benefits highlighted in advertising sports equipment concentrate on emphasizing how the consumer gains in a functional way from product usage (in 70.3% of benefits positioning a functional benefit is claimed).

In contrast to this, those categories where emotions or extrinsic advantages of product usage play an important role, i.e. watches, snacks and beverages, cars, and beauty products, are obviously dominated by emotional benefit positioning (for exact numbers please see **table 8**). Emotional benefit positioning is further rather prominent in product categories where a good portion of products can be seen as luxury rather than necessity, i.e. watches, cars and beauty products. But also in fashion a comparably big portion of benefit positions claim emotional benefits (37.5%). Nevertheless in fashion clothing the

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majority of emphasized benefits is functional, which might be due to the fact that a lot of fashion clothing also has (besides its symbolic benefits) functional advantages for the user (e.g. Geox). The product category where the most balanced ratio between positioning along functional and emotional benefits can be found is cars (43.2% vs. 48.1%) which is also not clearly classified on one or the other side of the think-feel continuum of Vaughn's (1986) FCB grid.

	Functional benefit	Emotional benefit	Both
SERVICES	82.3%	14.5%	3.2%
Financial services	87.8%	9.8%	2.4%
Airlines	71.4%	23.8%	4.6%
GOODS	48.3%	35.3%	16.4%
High-tech products & appliances	72.9%	14.1%	12.9%
Sports equipment	70.3%	18.9%	10.8%
Fashion	56.2%	37.5%	6.2%
Food	50.0%	33.3%	16.7%
Cars	43.2%	48.1%	8.6%
Watches	40.0%	60.0%	-
Snacks & beverages	34.6%	50.0%	15.4%
Health care & beauty	29.2%	40.7%	30.1%

Table 8: Overview of the kinds of benefit positioning elements emphasized per product category

Practices in attribute positioning. Positioning along attributes appears to play a rather small role in positioning most of the analyzed product categories, which does not imply that it has no importance at all. There are actually product classes where marketers emphasize a product's attributes more frequently than in the average advertisement. Hence, 36.8% of car-, 31.7% of food-, 38% of snack and beverage- and 38.9% of airline advertisements are positioned along one or more attributes. Furthermore cars are the only product category under investigation which is actually to a majority positioned along attributes (36.8%) (see **table 6**).

Investigating different attribute claims it can be realized that there are two different kinds or two respective positioning elements: concrete attribute positioning vs. abstract attribute positioning. The former one covers the majority of attribute positioning claims (58.2%), whereas abstract attributes are emphasized in only one third (32.4%) of all attribute claims within the overall sample (see **figure 55**). In 9.4% of advertisements applying attribute positioning both types were claimed.

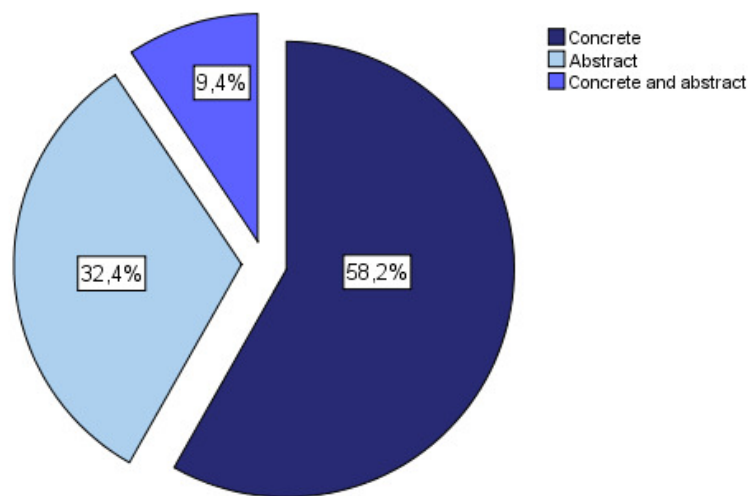


Figure 55: Frequency of use of different kinds of attributes - total sample

The results of analysing the total sample can be generalized across all product categories but sports equipment and watches where attributes emphasized are to a majority of abstract nature – 55.0% of attribute positioning in sports equipment and 55.6% of attribute positioning in watches (see **table 9**). Contrarily, attribute positioning in food and fashion advertisements focuses to more than 75% on concrete attributes (87.5% and 80.0% respectively), the categories of high-tech -, beauty- products, snacks and beverages and cars also have more than 50% of attribute positioning in concrete attributes. Only half of the categories follow the positioning approach to apply both concrete and abstract attributes which can be compared to the ratio of categories applying direct and/ or indirect benefits where four categories did not apply both kinds of benefits at the same time (compare **table 7**).

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Looking closer at concrete attribute positioning, one realizes that within the majority of product categories one single concrete attribute is highlighted. This may be due to the fact that the reader of any advertisement is much more likely to remember this one attribute claimed than to remember several different attributes. Beside this, claiming different attributes can also confuse the consumer or create a fuzzy image.

	Concrete attribute	Abstract attribute	Both
SERVICES	71.9%	21.9%	6.2%
Financial services	83.3%	16.7%	-
Airlines	65.0%	25.0%	10.0%
GOODS	56.2%	33.9%	9.8%
Food	87.5%	12.5%	-
Fashion	80.0%	20.0%	-
High-tech products & appliances	64.1%	20.5%	15.4%
Health care & beauty	62.1%	37.9%	-
Snacks & beverages	56.4%	33.3%	10.3%
Cars	52.0%	36.0%	12%
Watches	44.4%	55.6%	-
Sports equipment	35.0%	55.0%	10.0%

Table 9: Overview of the kinds of attribute positioning elements emphasized per product category

During analysis abstract attributes could be further subclassified into functional and symbolic ones (for details see chapter 3.4.), whereas the majority of abstract attribute claims were functional (58.7%, see **figure 56**) But still almost one third of abstract attribute claims were purely symbolic and 13.5% of advertisements with abstract attribute positioning claimed both functional and symbolic product attributes.

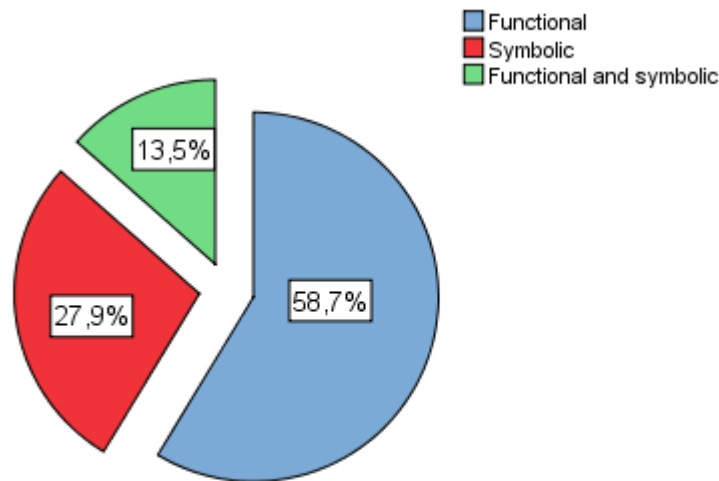


Figure 56: Kind of abstract attribute emphasized - total sample

But contrary to previous results in attribute positioning, the findings of the total sample cannot be generalized at all. There are product categories where purely functional attributes make up for 100% of abstract attribute claims (financial services and food), but there are also categories not claiming pure functional abstract attributes at all (watches and fashion, see **table 10**). A scheme which can be tracked is that in product categories where the product actually can enhance the consumer's social status and acceptance a fairly high percentage of symbolic attributes is emphasized, i.e. watches (80% plus 20%), fashion (0 plus 100%), cars (33.3% plus 16.7%), high-tech products (50%). In advertising services only an extremely low rate of symbolic attributes is claimed (financial service ads 0% and airline ads 16.7%).

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	Functional attribute	Symbolic attribute	Both
SERVICES	87.5%	12.5%	-
Financial services	100.0%	-	-
Airlines	83.3%	16.7%	-
GOODS	56.2%	29.2%	14.6%
Food	100.0%	-	-
Sports equipment	83.3%	8.3%	8.4%
Health care & beauty	70.0%	20.0%	10.0%
Snacks & beverages	64.7%	11.8%	23.5%
High-tech products & appliances	50.0%	50.0%	-
Cars	50.0%	33.3%	16.7%
Watches	-	80.0%	20.0%
Fashion	-	-	100.0%

Table 10: Overview of the kind of abstract attribute claimed in attribute positioning per product category

As can be seen from the detailed analysis positioning elements and even positioning categories are applied equally neither throughout the total sample nor in single product categories. But clustered positions emerge. To summarize, it can be highlighted that generally surrogate positioning is applied most frequently with its positioning bases of target-, endorsement- and parentage positioning and the respective elements of end-usage, celebrity endorsement and brand parentage. Benefit positioning is the runner up, especially often emphasizing direct functional benefits. Attributes are claimed least frequently, however, when claimed marketers emphasized concrete attributes more often than functional abstract attributes.

As indicated above there are also vast differences in positioning goods and services, not to speak about single product categories. In advertising goods marketers focus on surrogate positioning, whereas in advertising services benefit positioning plays the major role. Furthermore those surrogate positioning bases which are emphasized

(endorsement-, product class- and positioning by origin) are quite different from the ones which are generally emphasized.

Inspecting each product category's special and for the category typical positioning characteristics it further crystallizes: (1) Cars are mainly positioned along attributes and the benefits used there are, in contrast to the overall sample, mainly of the emotional kind. (2) In abstract attribute positioning of fashion, there are always both functional and symbolic abstract attributes claimed. (3) Benefits claimed in positioning health care and beauty products as well as snacks and beverages are, contrary to the overall results, mainly emotional. (4) The frequency of using product class positioning is above-average in positioning high-tech products and household appliances. Furthermore abstract attributes claimed in this category are in equal parts functional and symbolic. (5) Positioning by origin is very frequently applied in advertising financial services and (6) the positioning bases of product class and manufacture are used most often among all surrogate positioning options in print advertisements of airlines. (7) Sports equipment brands, in contrast to other product categories, often claim to possess pioneer status. Furthermore the majority of attributes emphasized there are abstract which is very unusual. (8) When looking at positioning watches abstract (symbolic) attributes are claimed more often than concrete ones due to the fact that there are more indirect emotional benefits.

As illustrated above, differences in positioning product categories are vast and positioning elements are not equally often emphasized.

5.3.3 Question 3 (Q3)

Are brands clearly positioned along one element only? Do marketers apply such strategies as mixed or dominant positioning?

As the strength of claims in brand positioning was not investigated in detail in previous studies, there is the need to do that within the analysis at hand. Hence, it is distinguished between single, dominant, mixed and supporting positioning whereas within single positioning only one positioning claim or positioning element is emphasized. But in dominant positioning, there are at least two different claims; one being more heavily

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emphasized, (i.e. the dominant claim) than the other (i.e. the supporting claim). However, if all claims are equally strong, it is referred to as mixed positioning.

The majority of claimed positioning elements within the overall sample of advertisements are emphasized as single (one and only) position within the ad (60.3% of all ads, see **figure 57**). If there were two or more positioning claims emphasized in the same ad, the strength of claims was more frequently equally strong, i.e. mixed positioning was more willingly applied than dominant positioning (21.6% vs. 16.0%). Only in a total of 2.2% of ads (compare to 26% of advertisements in Crawford's study in 1985) no positioning claim or message could be retrieved and deduced. However, it could well be that marketers had actually intended a position, but "it wouldn't do the product much good if it was so vague" it could not be found (Crawford, 1985, p. 246).

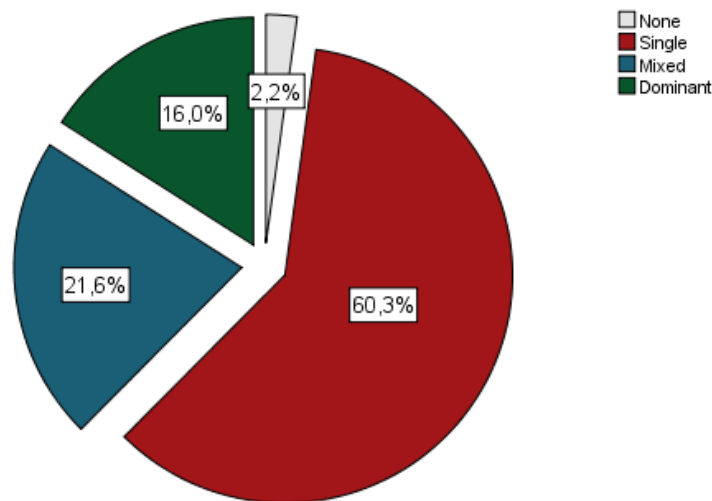


Figure 57: Strength of brand positioning claims - total sample

When dividing the advertisements by product kind into goods and service ads, the ratio between the different strengths of claimed positioning elements does not vary remarkably (see **table 11**). However, when inspecting each product category separately, there are differences in positioning practices. In airline ads dominant positioning is almost twice as often applied as in financial service ads (19.5% vs. 11.5%); consequently mixed positioning is far more popular in advertising financial service.

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Furthermore dominant positioning has only very limited usage in product categories where single positioning has the most importance, i.e. in watches and fashion. Apparently these are categories which are frequently bought for satisfying symbolic needs (at least symbolic abstract attributes are comparably often emphasized). Single positioning is applied below average in car and food advertisements where therefore dominant positioning claims are rather common (27.1% and 26.1% respectively). Mixed positioning seems to be rather likely to be applied to more than 25% across several categories (financial services, fashion, health care and beauty and food).

	Single positioning	Dominant positioning	Mixed positioning	Supporting positioning
SERVICES	59.8%	14.7%	22.5%	2.9%
Airlines	61.0%	19.5%	14.6%	4.9%
Financial services	59.0%	11.5%	27.9%	1.6%
GOODS	60.3%	16.1%	21.5%	2.1%
Watches	72.8%	3.7%	22.2%	1.2%
Fashion	67.2%	3.4%	27.6%	1.7%
High-tech products & appliances	64.4%	19.3%	14.1%	2.2%
Snacks & beverages	64.2%	12.6%	17.9%	5.3%
Sports equipment	61.2%	15.3%	20.0%	3.5%
Health care & beauty	58.1%	13.8%	27.6%	0.5%
Cars	51.4%	27.1%	19.2%	2.3%
Food	43.5%	26.1%	30.4%	-

Table 11: Overview of the strength of brand positioning claims per category

Strength of attribute claims. When looking at the strength or type of attribute claims within the total sample, a clear trend or usage tendency can be detected. A bit more than one third (34.0%) of attribute claims has the full attention of the target group, as they are applied as single position. Another third (30.9%) of attribute claims is emphasized to support a dominant position. Finally the last third of claims in attribute positioning is applied as mixed position with other claims. Attributes are hardly ever (3.9% of attribute claims) part of the main positioning message when more than one claim is highlighted. For details see **figure 58**.

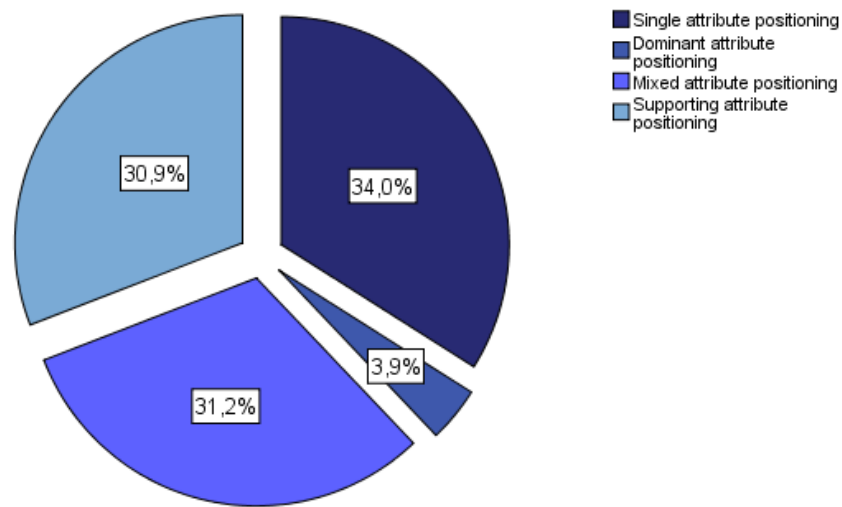


Figure 58: Strength of attribute claims - total sample

The findings of the total sample, i.e. about one third single positioning, one third mixed positioning and one third supporting positioning, cannot be generalized across product categories, not even across product kinds (services vs. goods). In positioning services attributes tend to be more frequently used for single (45.0% and 41.7%) or mixed positioning (25.0% and 50.0%) and rather little to support another position (15.0% and 8.3%) (see **table 12**).

In inspecting the different categories of goods analyzed, extreme differences in the strength of attribute claims are found. Attributes claimed in snacks and beverage advertisements are to almost 50% single claims, whereas in food ads 50% of attribute claims are emphasized to actually support a different position. In 4 out of 10 product categories attributes were not claimed as the dominant position at all, in these categories (i.e. financial services, watches, fashion and food) a comparably high percentage of attribute claims fell into mixed and/or supporting positioning. In car advertisements attribute claims were applied in all four levels of strength, however, what varies compared to the total sample is that the majority of attribute claims of car ads is actually used as a support for other positions. In advertising sports equipment and healthcare and

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beauty products with the help of attributes marketers like to equally emphasize attribute claims mixed with other positions (40.0% and 51.7% vs. 31.2% of the total sample).

	Single positioning	Dominant positioning	Mixed positioning	Supporting positioning
SERVICES	43.8%	9.4%	34.4%	12.5%
Airlines	45.0%	15.0%	25.0%	15.0%
Financial services	41.7%	-	50.0%	8.3%
GOODS	32.6%	3.1%	30.8%	33.5%
Snacks & beverages	46.2%	5.1%	28.2%	20.5%
High-tech products & appliances	35.9%	2.6%	25.6%	35.9%
Sports equipment	35.0%	5.0%	40.0%	20.0%
Watches	33.3%	-	44.4%	22.2%
Cars	29.3%	2.7%	20.0%	48.0%
Health care & beauty	24.1%	3.4%	51.7%	20.7%
Fashion	20.0%	-	60.0%	20.0%
Food	12.5%	-	37.5%	50.0%

Table 12: Overview of the strength of attribute claims per product category

Strength of benefit claims. In benefit positioning single positioning is clearly most often used with almost 50% of benefit claims (see **figure 59**). About a third of benefit claims (28.9%) is emphasized equally heavily with other claims, i.e. as mixed positioning. Dominant positioning is applied more than twice as often compared to attribute positioning with 16.8% of benefit claims being the dominant claim. The tale light in the strength of benefit positioning claims is supporting positioning with no more than 7.8% of total benefit claims.

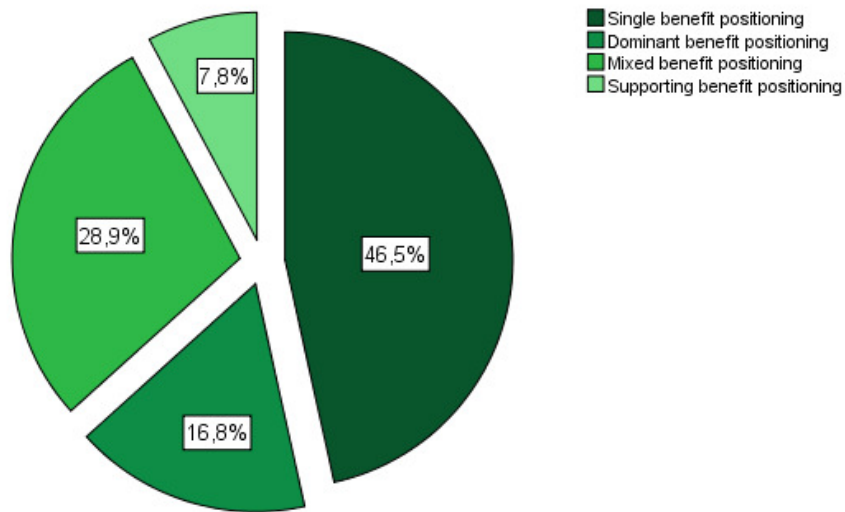


Figure 59: Strength of benefit claims - total sample

Just as in the overall sample single benefit positioning is also applied heavily across all product categories (more than 40% of benefit claims have single positioning in each category) except for food advertisements where they only make up for 25% (see **table 13**). Furthermore single benefit positioning is especially often applied in high-tech products and fashion. The least claimed type of positioning in benefits, supporting positioning is not claimed at all in 4 out of 10 product categories (i.e. financial services, fashion, snacks and beverages and food). Dominant benefit positioning is – compared to the average – rather frequently used in advertising food, cars and snacks and beverages (33.3%, 25.9% and 23.1% vs. 16.8%). In contrast to this, it is seldom applied in positioning sports equipment with only 8.1% and - just like in attribute positioning - not at all claimed in the category of watches. Therefore mixed and supporting positioning is emphasized within this category above-average (40% and 13.3% vs. 28.9% and 7.8%). Mixed benefit positioning is furthermore claimed far above-average in the category of food. Contrarily, it is rarely used in high-tech products and household appliances as well as cars.

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	Single positioning	Dominant positioning	Mixed positioning	Supporting positioning
SERVICES	50.0%	14.5%	30.6%	4.8%
Financial services	51.2%	17.1%	31.7%	-
Airlines	47.6%	9.5%	28.6%	14.3%
GOODS	46.0%	17.1%	28.3%	8.6%
High-tech products & appliances	56.5%	15.3%	18.8%	9.4%
Fashion	50.0%	12.5%	37.5%	-
Watches	46.7%	-	40.0%	13.3%
Health care & beauty	45.1%	15.0%	31.9%	8%
Sports equipment	43.2%	8.1%	32.4%	16.2%
Snacks & beverages	42.3%	23.1%	34.6%	-
Cars	40.7%	25.9%	23.5%	9.9%
Food	25.0%	33.3%	41.7%	-

Table 13: Overview of the strength of benefit claims per product category

Strength of surrogate claims. The ratio of the different types of surrogate positioning looks quite similar to that of benefit positioning. Therefore most commonly applied in surrogates is single positioning, followed by mixed and dominant positioning, with supporting positioning at the tail end (for details please see **figure 60**). Single positioning seems to play an extremely important role as more than half of all surrogate claims (51.7%) fall into this category. Another rather big part – almost one third, i.e. 28.5% – of surrogate claims is emphasized equally strong with other claims. Dominant and supporting positioning claims amount each for around 10% of surrogate positions.

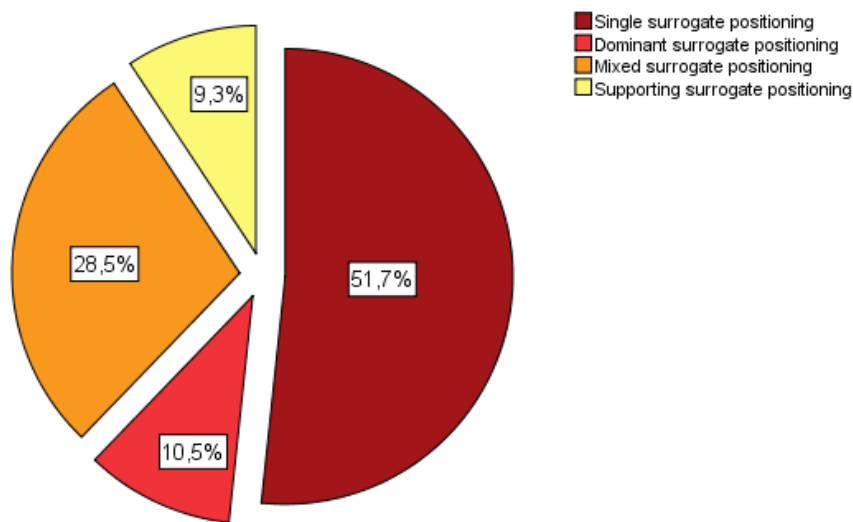


Figure 60: Strength of surrogate claims - total sample

Although these general results somewhat mirror what is going on in each product category, several differences can be tracked. As a consequence it can be realized that pure surrogate positioning is not very popular in positioning financial services and cars (35.5% and 39.8% vs. 51.7% of the total sample, see **table 14**). But also in positioning food and health care and beauty products single surrogate positioning is used below-average. In contrast to this categories relying a lot on single surrogate positioning are watches (70%), fashion (63.8%) and snacks and beverages (63.5%); in all of these categories feelings and emotions are involved in the purchase decision (Vaughn, 1986). Mixed positioning is used above-average in those categories where single positioning is applied below-average, i.e. in product categories of financial services, health care, food and cars, and vice-versa. Another difference between services and goods appears to be that in services supporting surrogate positioning ranks on three (20.9%) and dominant positioning on four with 7% according to usage whereas in goods it is the other way around in most categories (but not in snacks/ beverages and health care). Surprisingly there is again one type of positioning which is not claimed at all in watch ads. However, in surrogates this is not is dominant but supporting positioning.

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	Single positioning	Dominant positioning	Mixed positioning	Supporting positioning
SERVICES	41.9%	7.0%	30.2%	20.9%
Airlines	58.3%	16.7%	8.3%	16.7%
Financial services	35.5%	3.2%	38.7%	22.6%
GOODS	52.5%	11.0%	28.1%	8.4%
Watches	70.0%	5.7%	24.3%	-
Fashion	63.8%	6.4%	27.7%	2.1%
Snacks & beverages	63.5%	5.8%	21.2%	9.6%
Sports equipment	56.6%	15.1%	20.8%	7.5%
High-tech products & appliances	50.0%	14.3%	21.4%	14.3%
Health care & beauty	44.9%	8.8%	34.6%	11.8%
Food	42.9%	7.1%	42.9%	7.1%
Cars	39.8%	19.4%	31.6%	9.2%

Table 14: Overview of the strength of surrogate claims per product category

Above analysis reveals very well that on the one side not all positioning claims are equally strong, but can be classified into single-, dominant-, mixed- and supporting claims. On the other side the investigation documented that there are certain trends towards how strong claims from each positioning category are. Hence, attribute claims are, for instance, least frequently claimed as single positioning (34% vs. 46.5% and 51.7%) but in certain product categories (like cars or food) they are to a majority used to support other claims.

5.3.4 Question 4 (Q4)

Do brands' positions vary across geographic markets? Are there any differences in positioning practices between the two country groupings?

When comparing positioning practices between country groupings where magazines originated from, i.e. between the Austrian/ German market and the US market, no surprising differences were revealed. Though there are minor differences in the frequency of usage of each positioning category, these are not bigger than 6.3% (see

figure 61). In both markets surrogate positioning dominates and attribute positioning is used rather little. This trend is even stronger in US print advertisements than it is in Austrian/ German ones.

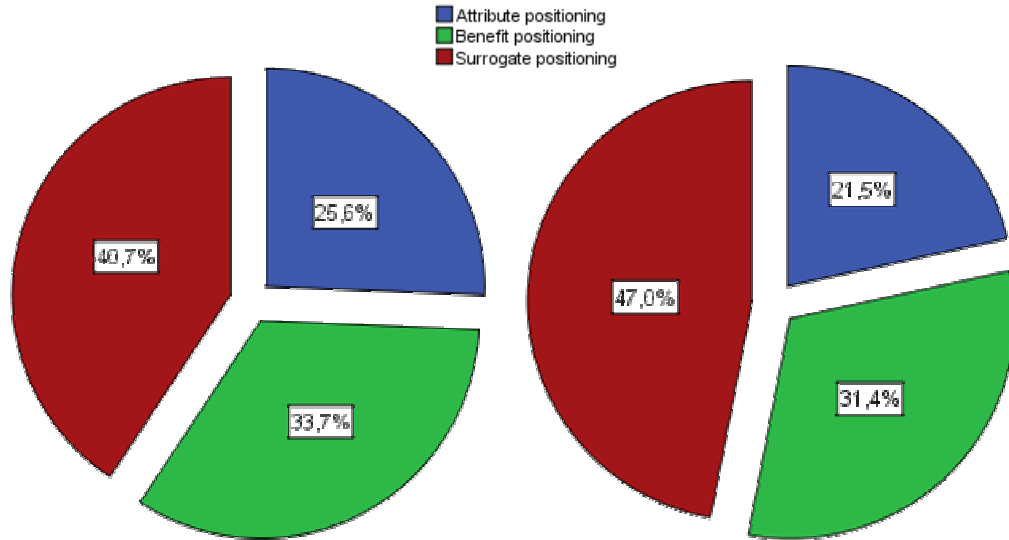


Figure 61: Positioning categories - AUT/ GER sample vs. US sample

Surrogate positioning. Inspecting the most frequently applied category, surrogate positioning, there are quite some differences between the two country clusters. Although surrogate positioning is more frequently used in the US sample of advertisements, the variety of positioning bases and elements used in the Austrian and German sample is higher. Rank and leader positioning were not applied in any of the sampled US ads, neither were the elements of person parentage, staff skills, product-country-image, LCCP, uniqueness, and competitor association. The three top ranked surrogate positioning bases were in both countries target-, endorsement-, and parentage positioning (see **figures 62 and 63**). However the order was not exactly the same. While target positioning is ranked as first in Austria (26.2%), it is only number two in the US sample (22.0%). Austria's number two – endorsement positioning (24.7%) – ranks as clear number one in the US (34.9%). A similar situation is found when inspecting product class positioning and manufacture positioning across the two country clusters. The latter slightly leads with 6.7% product class positioning (5.5%) in Austria, whereas product class positioning is more popular than manufacture positioning in the US (8.2% vs. 5.5%).

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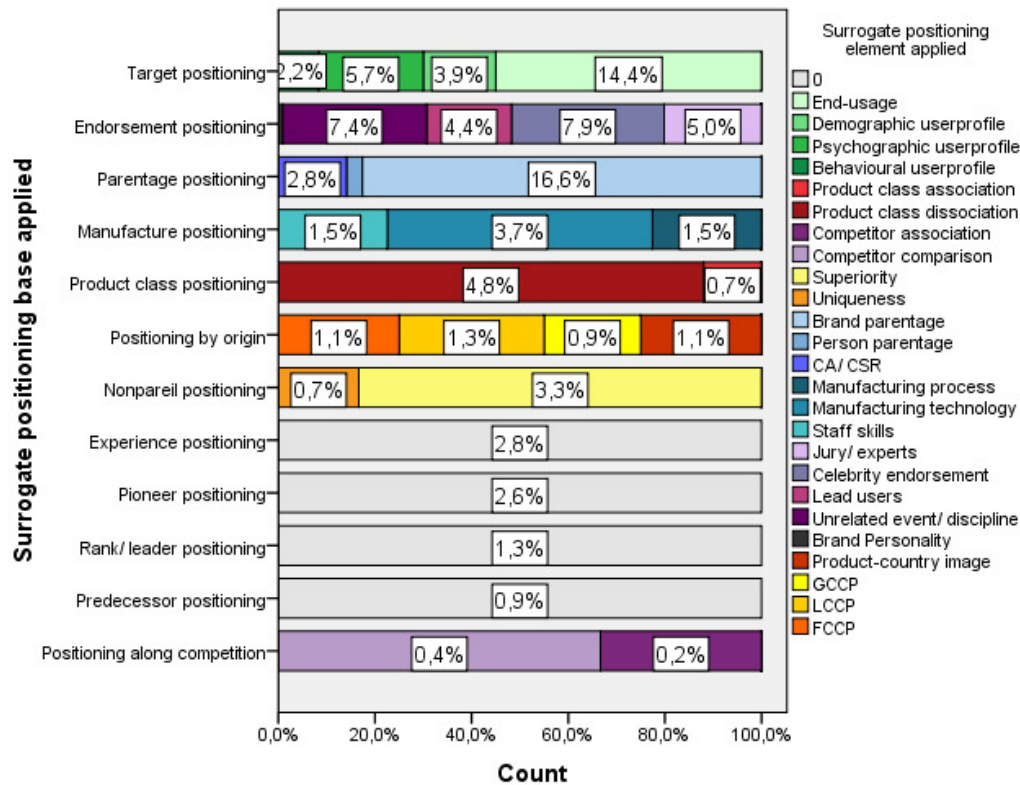


Figure 62: Applied surrogate positioning bases and elements - AUT/ GER sample

The most commonly applied elements in the Austrian/ German sample are positioning by brand parentage (16.6%), by end-usage (14.4%), by celebrity endorsement (7.9%), by an unrelated event or discipline (7.4%) and by lifestyle (5.7%). Very similar positioning elements, but in a different ranking order were most frequently highlighted in US magazines. Products in US ads were mostly positioned by an unrelated event or discipline (16.5%), by brand parentage (12.8%), by end-usage (10.1%), by celebrity endorsement (8.3%) and – different to the Austrian/ German ranking – product class dissociation (7.3%). For all numbers and more details please see **figures 62 and 63**.

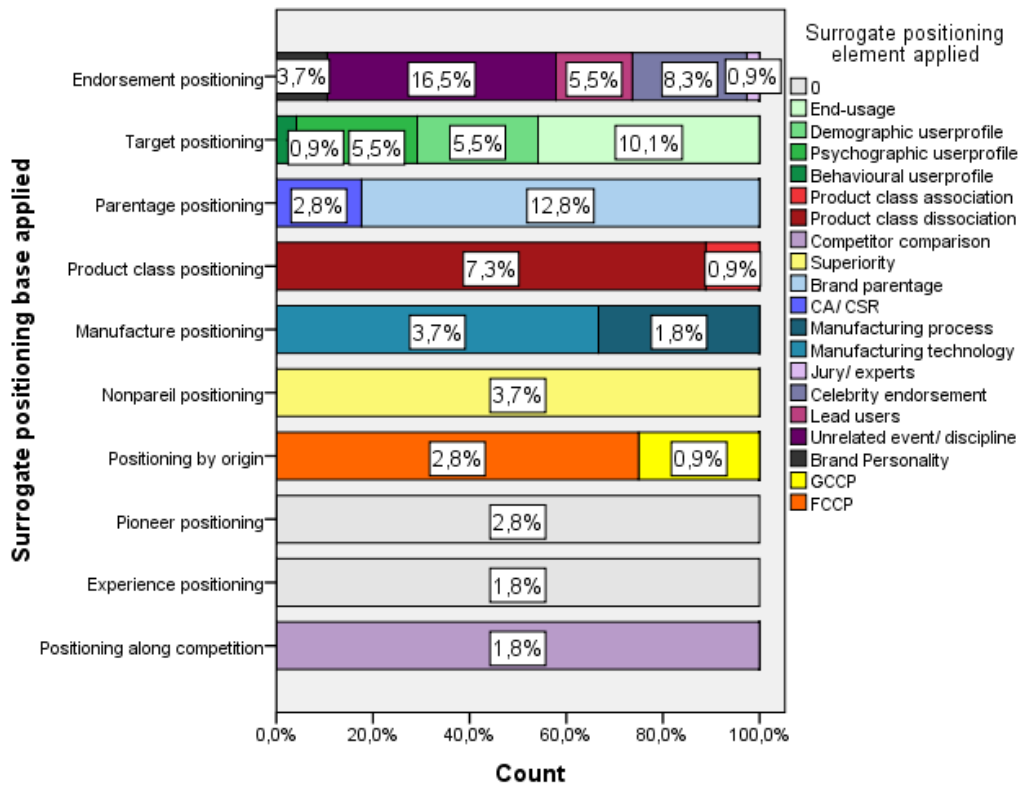


Figure 63: Applied surrogate positioning bases and elements - US sample

Benefit and attribute positioning. In benefit positioning the practices seem to be rather similar in both country groupings. 53% of benefits fall into the category of functional claims in magazines from each geographical area and 32% of Austrian and 35% of US benefit claims are emotional. Also marketers from both countries focus on highlighting direct benefits, however, it needs to be pointed out that in the USA indirect benefits are applied slightly more willingly than in Austria/ Germany (19% vs. 13%). For details on percentages please see **table 15**.

Within the least used positioning category, attribute positioning, it can be generalized across both country groupings that concrete attributes (Austria 59%, USA 54%) are emphasized more often than abstract ones (Austria 30%, USA 44%; see **table 15**). However, abstract attributes are far more willingly applied in US magazines than in their Austrian or German counterparts. Furthermore in US advertisements there are rarely both types of attributes claimed (only 3% vs. 6% in Austria/ Germany). In abstract attribute positioning marketers of both geographical areas generally focus on highlighting functional attributes, but in US magazines the ratio of symbolic attributes is higher than in Austria/ Germany (33% vs. 28%). Again US marketers are reluctant to

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use both types of abstract attributes at the same time (only 6% vs. 15% in Austria). When claiming concrete attributes there is an emphasis on single attributes which is even stronger in the US than in the European sample.

AUT/ GER				USA				
Concrete attribute positioning		Abstract attribute positioning		Concrete attribute positioning		Abstract attribute positioning		Concrete and abstract a. p.
59.0%		30.4%		53.8%		43.6%		2.6%
Single attribute	Multiple attributes	Functional attributes	Symbolic attributes	Single attribute	Multiple attributes	Functional attribute	Symbolic attribute	Functional and symbolic a.
60.5%	39.5%	58.1%	26.7%	68.2%	31.8%	61.1%	33.3%	5.6%
Direct benefits		Indirect benefits		Direct benefits		Indirect benefits		Direct and indirect b.
82.1%		12.7%		76.9%		19.2%		3.8%
Functional benefits		Emotional benefits		Functional benefits		Emotional benefits		Functional and emotional b.
53.1%		32.0%		52.6%		34.6%		12.8%

Table 15: Overview of attribute and benefit positioning of the AUT/ GER vs. US sample

5.3.5 Question 5 (Q5)

Can recommendations for marketers be made towards claiming still rather unoccupied positions?

From above detailed analysis it is confirmed that positioning elements are not used equally often and furthermore certain positioning bases and/ or elements are especially applied in positioning specific product categories. Hence, to stand out from competitive products within the same category brands are recommended to be positioned along those elements which were neglected so far. In general the following elements and bases account for that: predecessor positioning, competitor association and comparison, rank/ leader positioning, experience positioning, pioneer positioning, nonpareil positioning and positioning which relates the product to any kind of origin or consumer culture. But also certain elements which belong to willingly used positioning bases are neglected (such as product class association, manufacturing process and staff skills, person parentage, behavioural positioning as well as brand personality). Surrogate elements are especially recommended for brand positioning, as they allow marketers to tailor-make positioning claims so that consumers feel addressed right away (Crawford, 1985). But also certain kinds of benefit or attribute claims have the potential to catch the consumer's attention. Hence, indirect benefits are hardly claimed (13.9% only) and have the potential to communicate far more than the immediate, thus obvious benefit a consumer gains from the product. Also emotional positioning lacks on a total still behind functional benefit positioning and may help a brand to stick out from competitors. Similar holds true for attribute positioning, where abstract attributes (especially symbolic abstract attributes) currently fall behind in usage for positioning, consequently can, where appropriate to use, make a brand more appealing to consumers.

But, since positioning practices vary by product category, these general suggestions for effective and outstanding brand positioning cannot be translated one-to-one across diverse product categories. For positioning cars it is suggested to focus more heavily on surrogate positioning (currently only 35.2% of car ads involve surrogate positioning) and within this category to especially enlarge current positioning alternatives to predecessor positioning, positioning along competitors, rank-, experience- and

manufacture positioning to get away from the heavily occupied positioning bases of target-, endorsement and parentage positioning.

In positioning fashion and clothing, several surrogate elements are underrepresented although a high percentage of ads are positioned within this category (64.2%). Hence, positioning by predecessor, along competition, by rank or leader, by experience, emphasizing the brand's nonpareil and by product class are not used at all and offer potential for positioning fashion in the future. Furthermore positioning by origin and pioneer positioning are applied only to a limit of around 2% of surrogate claims in positioning fashion. Thus also by simply applying emotional benefit or abstract attribute positioning fashion brands can stick out, because most of the claimed benefits are currently of functional kind and claimed attributes are mostly concrete.

Similarly to positioning fashion, also in positioning food only a very limited number of positioning bases and respective elements are applied. Therefore it can be recommended to use bases which are rarely applied in this category at present, which are predecessor-, rank-, pioneer-, experience-, manufacture-, and competitor positioning. Emotional benefit positioning of food bears further positioning potential, as only one third of benefits claimed in food ads are classified as emotional.

For positioning products from the health care and beauty sector, the whole range of positioning bases is currently applied, which is rather seldom the case as can be realized from positioning practices in other product categories. However, except for target-, parentage- and endorsement positioning (which are the most frequently used bases) no more than 3% of all surrogate claims can be classified under each positioning base. Hence, it is recommended to increase usage of all positioning elements but those corresponding to the top three bases. Other unoccupied positions which have the potential to enhance successful positioning of beauty products are claims of indirect emotional benefits; they are still rather underrepresented within benefit positioning.

The recommendations for positioning high-tech products and household appliances are to expand the currently applied surrogate positioning alternatives by also using predecessor-, rank, and experience positioning and to intensify the usage of competitor related claims, pioneer claims, positioning by origin and nonpareil positioning.

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Furthermore marketers are well advised to use multiple positioning elements from each of the positioning bases and to not only focus on one or a few. Possibly positioning by claiming indirect benefits is a further option; at least as of today only 5.9% of benefit claims in this category emphasize an indirect benefit.

Today's service positioning is limited to seven surrogate positioning bases which indicates that marketers have a good chance of claiming still unoccupied positions. Any positioning element of predecessor-, competitor-, pioneer-, nonpareil- and parentage positioning is still unoccupied and ideal for outstanding future positioning claims. Furthermore attribute positioning which currently only accounts for 15.2% of positioning claims in this category may be perceived as rather unique as it is used seldom these days.

In positioning snacks and beverages, benefits have the highest future potential for successful positioning. They are currently only used in about 20% of all positioning claims within the category. Consumers may even perceive brands as more unique and standing out from surrogate positioned products if marketers emphasize functional benefits rather than emotional ones, as the former are somewhat neglected in this category at the moment. But also in surrogate positioning improvements towards a more unique positioning can be achieved. A first step therefore might be to enlarge the range of surrogate positioning bases by positioning by rank/ leader, experience-, predecessor- and pioneer claims. More focus on product class positioning and positioning along competition can be a further step.

For improving and diversifying the positioning of sports equipment, it is recommended to increase concrete attribute claims and claims of indirect emotional benefits; these two elements are currently rather underrepresented. As are also the surrogate bases of predecessor-, product class- and nonpareil positioning. Furthermore claims about competitors (either associations or comparisons), the brand's cumulated experience, pioneer and/ or leader status as well as the brand's reference to a certain origin or consumer culture can help to ensure a positioning the sports equipment brand can stick out with from competitors.

Positioning claims of watch advertisements would probably stick out if they referred to product attributes (especially functional abstract attributes) and/ or benefits, since currently a major number of watches are positioned along surrogates. Still also within current surrogate claims there is room for improvement. Marketers can make their brands stand out from the crowd by emphasizing their leader or pioneer status, comparing or associating to competitors, relating to their origins, associating/ dissociating to a certain product class within the segment, claiming the product's predecessor status or its exceptional standards (nonpareil), emphasizing its CA/ CSR or person parentage as well as jury or expert statements about the brand.

Future positioning claims of airline companies and their products are suggested to focus much more on surrogate claims. This positioning category is rather neglected up to this day since its frequency of usage is below-average (only around 20% of all airline ads). Hence the possibilities for surrogate claims in airline positioning are vast: predecessor-, leader-, experience-, pioneer- and nonpareil positioning; but also claims of CA/ CSR, the target group's demographic or behavioural profile, competitor and product class associations and expert statements or claims of brand personality.

5.4 LIMITATIONS

Though the study at hand has provided valuable insights into current positioning practices, it still offers room for improvements and future research on the topic of brand positioning.

To begin with the weak areas of the derived positioning typology, it needs to be stated that though the typology offers the possibility to perfectly group current positioning practices as applied in print advertising, it may at first and/ or for outsiders appear complex and hard to implement. Even certain researchers might raise their voices and criticize the typology's complex applicability, as already Crawford's work was reviewed with a lot of criticism by Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004). But this complexity is due to the overall complexity of the topic itself and the way positioning alternatives have evolved and still do so over time. Hence, one can under no circumstances be parsimonious in terms of merging classification categories when deriving a typology. Otherwise the classification schemes versatility and accuracy

would suffer (Laskey et al., 1989). However, bearing in mind what the situation was like before, i.e. having a vast array of different positioning typologies – some targeted at classifying positioning claims for goods others aiming to classify positioning of services only – a clear improvement in terms of manageability and straightforwardness was achieved (Bailey, 1994) by this complete, conceptually derived and empirically tested positioning typology.

A major limitation of the positioning typology's empirical test is the missing proof of the classification scheme's reliability. Although all conditions for developing a reliable positioning typology were fulfilled, i.e. (1) classification categories were carefully defined and demarcated against one another with the help of literature, (2) a code book was developed to assist in future content analysis and assure the replicability of the gathered data and (3) the classification scheme was empirically tested and proved applicable, the final reliability test and reproduction of data was not possible due to limited resources. This urgently needs to be completed in future research to prove final and complete reliability of the positioning typology.

Furthermore due to limited resources sampling could not be carried out to an equal amount in both country groupings as well as in each product category. Consequently the sample contains far more advertisements from Austrian and German magazines (81.3%) than from US magazines (18.6%). Also product categories are unequally represented within the sample, hence, one need to be careful not to jump to premature conclusions. Another issue of sampling is that ads from the two country groupings were not sampled during the same time frame, but shifted by one year (Austria/ Germany – 2006, 2007; USA – 2005, 2006). So for future research the sampling process is suggested to be adapted.

6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite its lacks and limitations, the current work has contributed to reducing the complex nature of positioning by (1) supplying a great overview and (2) detailed definitions of and insights into today's positioning alternatives, (3) further grouping them into a complete classification scheme according to their similarities and differences, and (4) ensuring the versatility of this classification across product categories, to finally (5) provide insights into current positioning practices on an international scope and (6) derive managerial recommendations for future brand positioning.

Theoretical contributions. Having completed this research allows to conclude that a structurally robust and all applicable (i.e. across product categories) state-of-the-art positioning typology for consumer markets exists again. The proposed classification scheme possesses due to its categories' sound definitions and clear demarcations against one another explanatory and predictive powers. Consequently, this made it possible to deliver empirical insights about current positioning practices across different product categories and geographical areas.

However, this is certainly not the top of the ceiling, but several areas of positioning still lack sufficient research, hence, need to be investigated in detail. Even the research at hand generates further questions as to whether the derived typology is also applicable for different kinds of advertisements (such as TV-commercials for instance) or different kinds of markets like business to business markets. What Kalafatis et al. (2000) simply argue – without any empirical evidence – i.e. that their positioning typology (originally developed for industrial markets) is further implementable in a consumer market setting, needs to be empirically tested before it can be stated for the proposed typology.

Furthermore as already indicated by Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) it is up-to-date neglected to derive a consumer-based positioning typology capturing the consumer's perception of positioning strategies across diverse product categories. Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) may have intended to derive one like this; however, they failed to develop one which is versatile and accurate.

CONCLUSION

Hence, in a further step the deviation of positioning as intended by marketers, actual positioning and the positioning as perceived by the consumer may arouse interest since this is still a disregarded area of research. Potentials for investigation might be among others whether (how big of a) deviation exists and how (due to which reasons) it emerges.

Managerial contributions. “Managerially, it is clear that positioning must be a central element of marketing” (Kalafatis et al., 2000, p. 429) and the results presented here are viewed as offering important guidelines for the management of future positioning activities. First, they highlight differences in positioning across product categories and prove that there is not a single positioning element which absolutely dominates positioning in consumer markets. Second, they point to a few positioning bases which are preferably applied by marketers to finally advise managers that in order to stick out from competitors, where adequate, those positioning alternatives which are less frequently used need to be exploited to their full potential.

Hence, marketers continuously attempt to develop new positions bringing competitive advantage which challenge the value of the proposed positioning framework on an ongoing bases (Crawford, 1985; Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989). Thus, the need to develop robust positioning typologies exists also in the future and will make the typology derived within this research subject to further examination and cross-validation.

Important information for providing marketers with profound recommendations for future positioning deals with how consumers perceive and respond to each positioning element. Do they feel especially addressed when target positioning is applied? Do consumers trust claims of simple superiority or do they challenge these? Are certain positions better accepted in advertising special kinds of products? These kinds of information still need to be derived from future analysis to make even more accurate and detailed suggestions for marketing and positioning goods and services, but this is yet another piece of research.

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8 APPENDIX

8.1 APPENDIX A

Collection of positioning strategies for typology development.

	Positioning element	Author (Year)	Definition	Example
1	Attributes	Aaker and Shansby (1982)	Associating a product with an attribute, a product feature, or customer benefit.	Toyota → economy and reliability, Fiat → European craftsmanship
2	Attributes	Kapferer (2004)	Positioning along a differentiating attribute	25% moisturizing cream in Dove, the smoothness and bite of Mars bars
3	Intangible attributes	Aaker (1991)	Associating a product with more general attributes such as quality, innovation or technological leadership	: Zeiss charges a relatively high price for sunglasses as it has a leading role in optics, people simply believe they are better
4	Innovation	Hooley et al. (1998)	Position on the basis of innovation or speed-to-market especially where markets are changing rapidly because of technological development	Dell computers selling directly to businesses, Dyson Dual vacuum cleaners
5	Innovation	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Consumer's perception of a company's creativity, new products etc.	
6	Reliability	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Keeping promises, dependability, accuracy etc	

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7	Reliability	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Perceived to describe issues of durability, warranty, safety and reliability of an offering	
8	Quality	Hooley et al. (1998)	High quality through effective internal controls, technological competence, customer bonding etc.	Marks & Spencer, Mercedes, Audi
9	Safety	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Stable, long-standing provider, safe warranties	
10	Product performance	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Satisfaction from usage of products, product reliability, good quality products	
11	Features	Wind (1982)	Positioning a product by its performance on specific product attributes, it can range from specific tangible benefits to more abstract features	VW → "Think small", Avis → "We try harder"
12	Features	Crawford (1985)	A feature is some aspect of the product itself – a characteristic evident or hidden, usually tangible though it need not be (not translated into how it benefits the user).	
13	Features	Aaker (1991)	Associating a product with a certain feature or attribute	Crest → anti-cavity, Saratoga water → small bubbles and light bottle

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	Price/ quality	Aaker and Shansby (1982)	A higher price serves to signal higher quality	Bloomingdales
14	Price	Aaker (1991)	Reasonable price, value for money and affordability are perceived to describe this construct	
15	Value for money	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Associating a product with a certain relative price range	Low-price category of beers: Stroh's Old Milwaukee
16	Price	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Includes variables such as incentives, bonuses, discounts, allowances etc.	
17	Price	Hooley et al. (1998)	For price-sensitive customer segments	Skoda Felicia's target group of over-mortgaged, post-thatcherite individuals)
18	Pricing	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Reasonable, affordable prices, value for money	
19	Benefits	Wind (1982)	Linked to product feature positioning, also describes benefit	Crest's → anti-cavity
20	Benefits	Crawford (1985)	A benefit is some way in which a user gains from the product, more vague and interpretive not necessarily directly	Direct benefit → "we save you time", indirect benefit → sex appeal from the beautiful hair a shampoo gives you

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			related to product features. Direct benefits vs. indirect benefits (follow-on result of a direct benefit)	
22	Benefits	Aaker (1991)	Advantages resulting from product features are highlighted → rational benefits closely linked to features → psychological benefits refer to the feelings triggered by the purchase/ use	Avanti shampoo → with protein (feature) → gives you bouncing hair (rational benefit) → feel more self-assured (psychological benefit)
23	Benefits	Hookey et al. (1998)	Identifying alternative benefit segments within the market and focusing on providing what they want	Fairy Liquid → Fairy Excel Plus (washes dishes and is mild to hands), Yamaha pianos playing recorded music
24	Problems solved	Brown and Sims (1976)	To satisfy a set of consumer desires marketers need to go for the core requirement	Crest satisfies the core requirement of cavity prevention
25	Objective benefit	Kapferer (2004)		iMac is user-friendly, Dell offers unbeatable value for money
26	Subjective benefit	Kapferer (2004)		You feel secure with IBM.
27	Use or application	Aaker and Shansby (1982)	Associating a product with a use or application	Campbell's soup, Bell "Reach out and touch someone", Arm & Hammer baking soda

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28	Usage occasion	Brown and Sims (1976)	Positioning a product against a use	Arm & Hammer → baking soda deodorizing refrigerators
29	Usage occasion	Wind (1982)	Positioning for a specific usage occasion	Campbell → soups for cooking, Michelob → weekend beer
30	Usage occasion	Aaker (1991)	Associating a brand with a certain use or application	Campbell soups, "Reach out and touch someone"
31	Usage occasion	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Refers to the situation where the product might be used	
32	User	Brown and Sims (1976)		
33	User	Aaker and Shansby (1982)	Associating a product with a user or a class of users	Cosmetic companies – models and personalities, Miller Lite, Johnson & Johnson shampoo
34	User	Wind (1982)	Users are profiled	The Pepsi Generation, Breakfast of Champions
35	User	Aaker (1991)	Associating a brand with a certain user type/ target group	Cadbury's Ginger Ale "F or when your tastes grow up", Miller Lite
36	User	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Concerns the user's peer group or role models using the product	

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37	Product class	Aaker and Shansby (1982)	Product class associations	Margarines position themselves in respect with butter
38	Product class	Aaker (1991)	Associating a product with a certain product class	Margarine → butter, 7-Up → “Uncola”
39	Product class dissociation	Wind (1982)	Effective when introducing a new product which differs from typical products in an established category	7-Up → “Un-Cola” position, lead-free gasoline
40	Competition	Brown and Sims (1976)	Positioning against the dominant competitor	Honeywell calling themselves “The other computer company” without having to say that IBM is their competitor
41	Competition	Aaker and Shansby (1982)	Making the reference to a competitor	Avis → “We are number 2, so we try harder”
42	Competition	Wind (1982)	Making the reference to a competitor – implicitly or explicitly	Avis → “We are number 2, so we try harder”, Savin → “What do Xerox and IBM copiers have most in common? Both are most commonly replaced by the Savin 780”
43	Competition	Crawford (1985)	It is just or almost like another product you know/ like	Savin
44	Competition	Aaker (1991)	Having competition as a frame of reference – implicitly or explicitly	Avis “We try harder”

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45	Association/ comparison	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Linking the product to one within the consumer's experience towards a standard or away from a standard	
46	Nonpareil	Crawford (1985)	Top quality, without equal	Jaguar cars
47	Top of the range	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Perceptions of prestige ascribed to offerings, i.e. upper class, top of the range, status, prestigious, posh	
48	Parentage	Crawford (1985)	Where it comes from, who makes it → brand → company → person	Cadillac Kodak diskette The Living Planet – must be a great book David Attenborough wrote it
49	Manufacture	Crawford (1985)	How the product was made → process → ingredients → design	Jack Daniel's whiskey is charcoal mellowed Fruit of the Loom – pure cotton Audi – engineering
50	Process	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Matching of the delivery process with the consumer's needs or perceived needs	
51	Technology	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Industrialize production process with technology and IT	Aetna, US
52	Technology	Arnott and Easingwood	Company's perceived ability to match	

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		(1994)	their technology and perceived use of technology to the needs and wants of consumers	
53	Target	Crawford (1985)	<p>The product is made for YOU</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → end-use → demographic → psychographic → behavioural 	<p>Vector tire for people who drive on wet roads</p> <p>Republic Airlines for the business traveller</p> <p>Michelob Light for “people who want it all”</p> <p>Hagar’s Gallery line for men who work out a lot – “fit for the fit”</p> <p>Pepsi → adventure, innovation, growth,</p> <p>Coca-Cola → patriotism, family</p> <p>Mystery of the Bacardi bat, Jack Daniel’s macho, Axe/ Linux is cool</p> <p>Hertz</p> <p>Doctors using Preparation H</p> <p>Farah Fawcett shampoo</p> <p>Nike basketball shoes → Michael Jordan,</p> <p>Marlboro → Marlboro man</p>
54	Lifestyle/ personality	Aaker (1991)	Emphasizing the personality of a brand and its traits	
55	Aspect of brand personality	Kapferer (2004)		
56	Rank	Crawford (1985)	Best selling	
57	Endorsement	Crawford (1985)	<p>People you respect say the product is good</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → expert → person to be emulated 	
58	Celebrity/ person	Aaker (1991)	Transferring the associations people hold for a certain person to a brand by having	

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			the brand associated to the particular person	
59	Experience	Crawford (1985)	<p>Long use attests to attributes</p> <p>→ other market</p> <p>→ bandwagon</p> <p>→ years</p>	<p>Nuprin's extensive use in the prescription market</p> <p>Stuart Hall's executive line of business accessories is relied on by many business professionals</p> <p>AT & T's Yellow Pages</p>
60	Experience	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	<p>Consumer's perception of the experience of industry and company, measurable in terms of time, size, sales figures, percentage, credibility etc.</p>	
61	Predecessor	Crawford (1985)	<p>Comparable to an earlier product you liked</p>	<p>Ford → Thunderbird against its 30-year old classic</p>
62	Market leader	Ries and Trout (1986)	<p>Being the first to offer a product, to get into people's mind</p>	<p>Coca-Cola, GM, Hertz</p>
63	Leadership	Kalafatis et al (2000)	<p>Market leaders, well-known name</p>	
64	Follower	Ries and Trout (1986)	<p>Look for the hole</p> <p>→ size</p> <p>→ price</p>	<p>VW → Beetle</p> <p>Michelob → premium-priced beer</p> <p>Old Milwaukee → low-priced beer</p>

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65	Reposition the competition	Ries and Trout (1986)	To get into people's mind which is already occupied by competitive brands, marketers have to reposition competition first.	Tylenol attacked Aspirin, Stolichnaya → American vodkas
66	Use the name	Ries and Trout (1986)	The name should already initiate the positioning process and tell the consumer what the product is all about.	Head & Shoulders shampoo, Intensive Care skin lotion, DieHard batteries
67	Brand name	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Name of offering, leaders in the market, extra features, choice, wide range	
68	Line extension (use of the house name)	Ries and Trout (1986)	Taking the name of an established brand and using it on a new one only works for small-volume and -budget products, highly competitive businesses such as commodity products, distributed by sales reps.	
69	Complete product line	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	To keep ongoing relationships with customers, companies try to satisfy all needs in a particular business area.	Continental insurance, UK
70	Reputation and capabilities of the organization	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Companies promoting their own reputation as something tangible/ factual → expertise position	Chubb, US

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			<p>→ reliability/ safety position</p> <p>→ innovative/ responsive position</p> <p>→ performance position</p>	<p>Supported on the basis of size: Northbrook Property and Casualty Insurance Company, US</p> <p>Leadership position in new product introduction: Excess Combined Liability, UK</p> <p>Being voted “Insurance Fund Manager of the Year”: Scottish Life, UK</p>
71	Service augmentation	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	<p>→ via augmentation of the product itself</p> <p>→ provision of extra service</p>	<p>Minster Insurance, UK</p> <p>North American Re, US</p>
72	Superior service	Hookey et al. (1998)	Positioning on the basis of offering superior or tailored service	Otis elevators → OTISLINE
73	Service	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	The variables “impressive service, personal attention, consider people as important and friendly” are perceived to represent good service provided by the firm.	
74	People advantage	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Having better people, being better trained and motivated, promoting skilled specialists	The New England, US
75	People	Arnott and Easingwood	Encompassing all variables over which	

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		(1994)	consumers perceive the contact staff to have some level of control	
76	Personal contact	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Personal attention, consider people as important, impressive service, good service provision, friendly	
77	Package the service offering	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Effective pre-packaging with all essentials included but without too many nonessentials.	Sun Alliance, UK
78	Better accessibility	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Make access easy with the help of a branch network	Mondial, UK
79	Access	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Place or distribution, easy access	
80	Customization	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	Opportunity to design the product to match each user's particular requirements.	Legal & General, UK
81	Tailored offering	Hookey et al. (1998)	Offering products tailored to the requirements of individual customers	Mercedes → Smart car, Levi Strauss → taking consumer's measures and sending them to factory to produce a unique pair of jeans
82	Country/ region	Aaker (1991)	Brands can profit from associations countries evoke in regard to certain	Stolichnaya vodka → RUS, Finlandia → FIN, Absolut → SWE

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			products and industry branches	
83	Country identity	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Country-of-origin of management, patriotism, represents national interests	
84	COO	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Patriotism, country-of-origin	
85	Sensory factors	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Covers aspects of a product which can be directly perceived via one of the consumer's five senses	
86	Communication	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Consumer's perception of a company's communication (advertising, promotion, editorial, word-of-mouth etc)	
87	Assurance	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Encompasses variables such as safety and believability	
88	Empathy	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Understanding the consumer	
89	Social accountability	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Consumer's perception of a company's stance on ethical issues (social, political or environmental)	
90	Imaginary, imagery and meaning	Kapferer (2004)	The realm of the imaginary, imagery and meaning	The American wild west → Marlboro, Old New England → Ralph Lauren
91	'deep' values or mission	Kapferer (2004)	Consumer types deep values or even a	Deep values: Nike's sports mentality,

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			mission	Nestlé's maternal love Mission: The Body Shop, Virgin
92	Easy to do business	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Convenient to do business with, familiar procedures, suitable arrangements, comfortable	
93	Range of offerings	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Choice of products offered, extra features offered, wide range of products	
94	Presence	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Better than others, superior and well-known	
95	Distinct identity	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Differentiation, own brands	
96	Attractiveness	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Attractive, cool, elegant, sophisticated, eye-catching ads	
97	Attractiveness	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Related to how attractive or elegant an offering is, are the variables "good aesthetics, attractive, cool, elegant"	
98	Status	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Upper class, posh, status, top of the range, prestigious	
99	Differentiation	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Common, discriminatory, middle range, non selective	
100	Selectivity	Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	"Discriminatory, non-selective, high principles" are perceived to denote.	aspects of the individual nature of consumers

8.2 APPENDIX B

Draft of the positioning typology.

	Positioning element	Author (Year)	Definition	Sub-elements	Example
1	Attributes	Aaker and Shansby (1982) Wind (1982) Crawford (1985) Ries and Trout (1986) Aaker (1991) Arnott and Easingwood (1994) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004) Kapferer (2004)	Associating a product with a specific differentiating product feature, with more general/ abstract attributes	(1) Features: an evident characteristic of the product (price, size) (2) Abstract attributes: a "hidden", intangible aspect of the product (attractiveness, coolness, reliability, quality, safety, innovativeness, accuracy, product performance of offering)	Toyota → economy and reliability, Fiat → European craftsmanship 25% moisturizing cream in Dove, the smoothness and bite of Mars bars Zeiss charges a relatively high price for sunglasses as it has a leading role in optics, people simply believe they are better VW → "Think small", Avis → "We try harder" Crest → anti-cavity, Saratoga water → small

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					bubbles and light bottle
2	Assurance	Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Encompasses variables such as believability		
3	Benefits	Brown and Sims (1976) Aaker and Shansby (1982) Wind (1982) Crawford (1985) Aaker (1991) Hooley et al. (1998) Kapferer (2004)	A benefit is some way in which a user gains from the product and its attributes, more vague and interpretive not necessarily directly related to product features.	(1) Direct benefit => Rational benefits (closely linked to features) => Objective benefit (2) Indirect benefit (follow-on-result of a direct benefit) => psychological benefits (feelings triggered by the purchase/ use) => subjective benefit	Direct benefit: Crest's → anti-cavity, Avis → "We try harder", VW → "Think small", Fairy Liquid → Fairy Excel Plus (washes dishes and is mild to hands), Yamaha pianos playing recorded music, objective: iMac is user-friendly, Dell offers unbeatable value for money Indirect benefit → sex appeal from the beautiful hair a shampoo gives you, subjective benefit: You feel secure with IBM Avanti shampoo → with protein (feature) → gives

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4	Target	<p>Brown and Sims (1976) Aaker and Shansby (1982) Wind (1982) Crawford (1985) Aaker (1991) Arnott and Easingwood (1994) Kapferer (2004)</p>	<p>Understanding the consumer, the product is made for YOU.</p>	<p>(1) End-use: associating a product with the situation where the product might be used (2) User: associating a product with a user or a type of users, whereas users are profiled → (a) demographic → (b) psychographic → (c) behavioural</p>	<p>you bouncing hair (rational benefit) → feel more self-assured (psychological benefit)</p> <p>Use: "Reach out and touch someone", Arm & Hammer baking soda, Campbell → soups for cooking, Michelob → weekend beer, Vector tire for people who drive on wet roads, Elmex is positioned along the time of the day when you use it, "The night belongs to Michelob"</p> <p>Demographic: Republic Airlines for the business traveller, Cadbury's Ginger Ale "For when your tastes grow up", Skoda Felicia → target group of over-mortgaged, post-thatcherite</p>
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					<p>individuals, "Kinder" chocolate for kids, The Pepsi Generation Psychographic: Michelob Light for "people who want it all", Lifestyle: American Wild West → Marlboro, Old New England → Ralph Lauren, Breakfast of Champions Behavioural: Hagar's Gallery line for men who work out a lot – "fit for the fit", Johnson & Johnson shampoo → people who frequently wash hair, Miller Lite → the heavy beer drinker</p>
5	Product class	Aaker and Shansby (1982) Wind (1982)	Linking the product to one within the consumer's experience towards a standard (1) or away from a	(1) Associations: associating a product with a certain product class	Associations: Margarine position themselves in respect with butter

		standard (2).	<p>Aaker (1991) Arnott and Easingwood (1994)</p>	<p>(2) Dissociations: effective when introducing a new product which differs from typical products in an established category</p>	<p>Dissociations: 7-Up → "Uncola" lead-free gasoline</p>
6	Competition	Making the reference to a competitor	<p>Brown and Sims (1976) Aaker and Shansby (1982) Wind (1982) Crawford (1985) Ries and Trout (1986) Aaker (1991)</p>	<p>(1) Association: positioning against the dominant competitor → (a) implicitly → (b) explicitly (2) Direct comparison: it is just or almost like another product you know/ like</p>	<p>Implicit association: Honeywell calling themselves "The other computer company" without having to say that IBM is their competitor, Avis → "We are number 2, so we try harder" Direct comparison: Savin → "What do Xerox and IBM copiers have most in common? Both are most commonly replaced by the Savin 780", Tylenol attacked Aspirin, Stolichnaya → American</p>

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						vodkas
7	Nonpareil	Crawford (1985) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Perceptions of prestige ascribed to offerings; top quality, without equal			Jaguar cars
8	Parentage	Crawford (1985) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Where it comes from, who makes it, frequently indicated by the name of offering	(1) Brand (2) Company (3) Person	Brand: Cadillac Company: Kodak diskette Person: The Living Planet – must be a great book David Attenborough wrote it	
9	Manufacture	Crawford (1985) Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) Arnott and Easingwood (1994) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	How the product was made	(1) Process: matching of the process with the consumer's needs (2) Ingredients (3) Design (4) Technology: Industrialize production process with technology and IT; Company's perceived ability to match their technology and perceived use of	Process: Jack Daniel's whiskey is charcoal mellowed Ingredients: Fruit of the Loom – pure cotton Design: Audi – engineering Technology: Aetna, US The New England, US	

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10	Brand personality	Aaker (1991) Kapferer (2004)	Emphasizing the personality of a brand and its traits	technology to the needs and wants of consumers (5) People: Encompassing all variables over which consumers perceive the contact staff to have some level of control and emphasizing to have better people, being better trained and motivated, promoting skilled specialists.	Pepsi → adventure, innovation, growth, Coca-Cola → patriotism, family, mystery of the Bacardi bat, Jack Daniel's macho, Axe/ Linux is cool
11	Rank	Crawford (1985) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Best selling, market leaders		Hertz

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12	Endorsement	Crawford (1985) Aaker (1991)	People you respect say the product is good	(1) Expert/ jury (2) Celebrity: transferring the associations people hold for a certain person to a brand by having the brand associated to the particular person	Expert: doctors using Preparation H Celebrity: Farah Fawcett shampoo, Nike basketball shoes → Michael Jordan, Marlboro → Marlboro man
13	Experience	Crawford (1985) Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Long use attests to attributes and consumer's perception of the experience of industry and company, measurable in terms of	(1) Other market/ parentage (2) Bandwagon (3) Years (4) Size (5) Sales figures	Other market: Nuprin's extensive use in the prescription market Bandwagon: Stuart Hall's executive line of business accessories is relied on by many business professionals Years: AT & T's Yellow Pages
14	Predecessor	Crawford (1985)	Comparable to an earlier product you liked		Ford → Thunderbird against its 30-year old classic
15	Pioneer	Ries and Trout (1986)	Being the first to offer a product, to get into people's mind		Coca-Cola, GM, Hertz
16	Brand name	Ries and Trout (1986) Blankson and Kalafatis	The name of offering should already initiate the positioning		Head & Shoulders shampoo, Intensive Care skin lotion,

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		(2001, 2004)	process and tell the consumer what the product is all about.		DieHard batteries
17	Product line	Ries and Trout (1986) Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Taking the name of an established brand and using it on a new one companies try to satisfy all needs in a particular business area	(1) Wide range of products (2) Pre-packaging of products: all essentials included but without too many nonessentials	Continental insurance, UK ; Sun Alliance, UK
18	Customer relationships	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	To keep ongoing relationships with customers		Continental insurance, UK
19	Service augmentation	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) Hooley et al. (1998) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Positioning on the basis of offering extra service.		Minster Insurance, UK North American Re, US Otis elevators → OTISLINE
20	Better accessibility	Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) Arnott and Easingwood (1994)	Make access easy with the help of a branch network		Mondial, UK

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21	Country/ region	Aaker (1991) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (2001, 2004)	Brands can profit from associations countries evoke in regard to certain products and industry branches	Country-of-origin	Stolichnaya vodka → RUS, Finlandia → FIN, Absolut → SWE
22	Communication	Arnott and Easingwood (1994) Kalafatis (2000)	Consumer's perception of a company's communication		advertising, promotion, editorial, word-of-mouth etc.
23	Corporate associations	Arnott and Easingwood (1994) Kapferer (2004)		(1) CSR: Consumer's perception of a company's stance on ethical issues (social, political or environmental) which can be reflected by a company's mission (2) Consumer type deep values	Mission: The Body Shop – no animal experiments and only fair ingredients, Virgin Deep values: Nike's sports mentality, Nestlé's maternal love
24	Easy to do business	Kalafatis et al. (2000)	Convenient to do business with, familiar procedures, suitable arrangements, comfortable		

8.3 APPENDIX C

The final positioning typology.

Positioning category	Positioning base	Definition	Positioning element	Example
Attribute Positioning	Attributes	associating a product with a differentiating attribute or a product feature, whereas a feature is some aspect of the product itself – a characteristic evident or hidden, usually tangible though it need not be. Therefore attribute positioning can range from	<p>(1) specific product features, i.e. evident characteristics of the product (such as size, colour or price) to</p> <p>(2) more abstract attributes, i.e. frequently hidden, intangible aspects of the product which can be classified as (a) functional (referring to functional aspects of the product such as quality, safety, reliability, performance, innovation or customization) and (b) symbolic (referring to hedonic aspects of the product such as elegance, design, luxury).</p>	<p>Specific: VW Beetle positioned as a small car → “Think small”, Saratoga water → small bubbles and light bottle, Michelob → premium-priced beer, 25% moisturizing cream in Dove</p> <p>Abstract: Toyota → economy and reliability, reliability supported on the basis of company size: Northbrook Property and Casualty Insurance Company, US; the smoothness and bite of Mars bars, customization: Mercedes → Smart car, Levi Strauss → taking consumer’s measures and sending them to factory to produce a unique pair of jeans.</p>

Benefit positioning	Benefits	Associating a product with a benefit (by translating abstract attributes and concrete features into how they benefit the consumer), whereas a benefit is some way in which a consumer gains from the purchase or use of a product. It can be distinguished between	(1) direct benefits resulting right from product use or purchase, (2) indirect benefits which are follow-on results of a direct benefit (such as feelings triggered by the use or purchase), (3) functional benefits attaining to solve utilitarian problems and (4) emotional benefits aiming to satisfy symbolic or experiential needs	<p>“we save you time”, Crest’s → anti-cavity, iMac is user-friendly Avanti shampoo → with protein (feature) → gives you bouncing hair (direct benefit) → feel more self-assured (indirect benefit)</p> <p>Indirect benefit: You feel secure with IBM Avanti shampoo → with protein (feature) → gives you bouncing hair (direct benefit) → feel more self-assured (indirect benefit)</p> <p>Dyson “No Loss of Suction.”</p> <p>VW Beetle “Drive a smile”</p>
Surrogate Positioning	Target	Associating a product with a profiled user or a certain target group. Target groups are distinguished according to	(1) the way in which they use or apply a product (end-use), referring to and associating with the situation where the product is best used (the product is made for a certain end-use)	<p>Arm & Hammer baking soda, Vector tire for people who drive on wet roads, Elmex is positioned along the time of the day when you use it, “The night belongs to Michelob”</p>

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		<p>(2) demographic variables (such as age, gender, social grade, family composition, ethnicity, geographic location profile),</p> <p>(3) psychographic variables (such as lifestyle, personality, self-concept) and</p> <p>(4) behavioural variables</p>	<p>Demographic: Republic Airlines for the business traveller, Cadbury's Ginger Ale "For when your tastes grow up", Skoda Felicia → target group of over-mortgaged, post-thatcherite individuals, "Kinder" chocolate for kids, IWC – watches for men</p> <p>Psychographic: Michelob Light for "people who want it all", Lifestyle: American Wild West → Marlboro, Old New England → Ralph Lauren, Skoda – cars for intelligent people</p> <p>Behavioural: Hagar's Gallery line for men who work out a lot – "fit for the fit", Johnson & Johnson shampoo → people who frequently wash their hair, Miller Lite → for the heavy beer drinker</p>
Product class	linking the product to one within the consumer's experience	(1) towards a standard, i.e. associating a product with a certain product class,	Association: Margarine → butter, Veet Rasera Bladeless Kit "acts like

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			or	a razor without the bite"
			(2) away from a standard, i.e. dissociate (especially new) products which differ from typical products in an established category from existing ones	Dissociation: 7-Up → "Un-Cola", BMW "Drive like pilots fly"
Competition	comparing two or more brands (not necessarily by specifically mentioning them) of the same product class in terms of		(1) associating with a major brand, or	Association: Savin → "What do Xerox and IBM copiers have most in common? Both are most commonly replaced by the Savin 780", Honeywell calling themselves "The other computer company" without having to say that IBM is their competitor, Estée Lauder associating her anti-wrinkle product with Botox
			(2) direct comparison by claiming superiority over a competitor.	Direct: Tylenol attacked Aspirin, Stolichnaya → American vodkas

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	Nonpareil		<p>Superiority: claims of superiority and/or prestige ascribed to offerings, e.g. premium, without equal, upper class, top of the range, status, prestigious, posh, well-known</p> <p>Uniqueness: explicit claims of uniqueness ascribed to the brand which may further involve a product feature, attribute or benefit</p>	<p>Superiority: Jaguar cars, "Best darn hamburger in the whole wide world", "No other brand gives you more", Mercedes – "engineered like no other car in the world"</p> <p>Uniqueness:</p>
Parentage	<p>claims about where the product comes from, i.e. that a product is made by ...</p> <p>The emphasized brand/ personality name/ CA is the reason to buy</p>	<p>(1) a certain brand</p> <p>(2) a specific person or</p> <p>(3) emphasizing specific corporate associations: claims about a company's attitude and/ or activities on (1) ethical issues (such as social, political, environmental matters) or (2) consumer type 'deep' values.</p>	<p>Cadillac</p> <p>The Living Planet – must be a great book David Attenborough wrote it, Roberto Cavalli for H&M</p> <p>Toyota Prius, Body Shop</p>	

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<p>claims emphasizing how the product was made, creating differential advantage by pointing to the way the brand was made by highlighting</p>	<p>(1) the process in which it was manufactured</p> <p>Process: Jack Daniel's whiskey is charcoal mellowed, Wagner Pizzas → stone oven made, Zotter chocolate → "handgeschöpft"</p>
<p>(2) the technology/ innovation applied during production which may further enhance the (use of) product</p>	<p>Technology: Audi – Vorsprung durch Technik, Aetna, US</p>
<p>(3) the quality and skills of the people involved in the production of the product</p>	<p>People: Otis elevators → OTISLINE</p>
<p>Manufacture</p>	<p>(1) statements of experts, → makes claims believable and is often used to support other elements</p> <p>doctors using Preparation H, Being voted "Insurance Fund Manager of the Year": Scottish Life, UK, Grey Goose → "Rated the no. 1 tasting vodka in the world", Calgon → "Von führenden Waschmittelherstellern empfohlen", cars – favourable safety ratings from the Euro NCAP</p>
<p>Endorsement</p> <p>Claims of extrinsic cues which let the consumer infer the brand's superiority through associating the focal brand to the following extrinsic cues such as</p>	<p>(2) celebrities,</p> <p>Nicole Kidman – Chanel 5, Brad Pitt – TAGHeuer</p>

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			(3) lead users, Nike basketball shoes → Lebron James	
			(4) unrelated events/ disciplines and ROLEX: associating with great musicians	
			(5) brand personality traits Brand personality: Pepsi → adventure, innovation, growth, Coca-Cola → patriotism, family, Bacardi bat → mystery, Jack Daniel's → macho, Axe/ Linux → cool, Patek Philippe – tradition	
Rank/ leader	claims emphasizing the brand as the best-selling or the market leader in a certain product category.		Hertz, Ford – the bestselling truck in America, Toyota Corolla “30 million buyers can't be wrong”	
Pioneer/ original	all kinds of claims about the company being the first one to sell/ commercialize a brand in a product category		Coca-Cola “the real thing”, Kleenex, Tixol/ Scotch tape, labello, Jeep “the original”	
Experience	claims about a brand's “long or frequent use attests to its desirable attributes” (Crawford, 1985, p. 248)		Nuprin's extensive use in the prescription market	
			(2) within its time in business	50 years Lufthansa

8.4 APPENDIX D

Codebook

- Record differences in font size by the kind of positioning (dominant, mixed, supporting)
 - Biggest font: dominant positioning claim
 - Fonts in smaller sizes: supporting positioning claims
 - Different claims in same font size: mixed positioning

- How to code
 - Design: abstract symbolic attribute
 - Noblesse: abstract symbolic attribute
 - Luxury: abstract symbolic attribute
 - Safety: abstract functional attribute or functional benefit (depending on whether it is claimed as part of the product – “the notebook is safe” – or as way to benefit from product – “they feel safe”)
 - Innovation: functional benefit (see ad 51)
 - 1st class ...: superiority
 - 2nd rank in car registration in GER (dt.: Autozulassungen): rank
 - With ... technology: concrete attribute (“Miele Dampfgarer mit Vitasteam Technologie” for instance)
 - Tailor-made: abstract functional attribute
 - Emotions such as fun, pleasure or love: emotional benefit
 - Patents: manufacturing technology
 - Roger Federer promoting coffee: celebrity endorser
 - Roger Federer promoting Nike sports equipment: lead user

- Comparisons
 - Ad for cell phone saying “hit the hole-in-one. Hit the right impression”: unrelated story

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→ Ad for TV set saying “jewellery for the home”: product class dissociation

- ? May be incorporated/ extended to the positioning typology ?

→ Measurable differences in positioning claims along experience

- 6 ads claimed to have a lot of experience due to the years in business
- 5 ads claimed to profit from experience made in a related market

→ Not respected a kind of endorsement positioning

- “97% of women say ...” (see ad 627)

8.5 APPENDIX E

German Abstract

Das Ergebnis des ständig steigenden Betrags, den Marketer jährlich für ein differenzierbares Markenimage und die Bewerbung eben dieses ausgeben, ist in der hohen Kreativität von Werbungen und den immer neuen Positionierungsalternativen zu sehen. Dies resultiert jedoch sowohl für Marketer als auch für Akademiker in einer immer größeren Zahl damit verbundenen unüberschaubaren Komplexität der Positionierungsalternativen, was allerdings kein unerforschter Bereich im internationalen Marketing ist. Um Licht in dieses Dunkel zu bringen wurden in den vergangenen 30 bis 40 Jahren unterschiedlichste Klassifikationsschema aufgestellt. Trotzdem besteht nach wie vor Unklarheit darüber, welche Positionierungsstrategien am neuesten Stand der Dinge sind und ob alte Positionierungsmodelle verworfen werden sollten. Darüber hinaus stellt sich durch die steigende Anzahl der Strategien die Frage, ob Marketer verschiedener Produktkategorien oder Märkte unterschiedliche Positionierungspraktiken an Tag legen.

Diese Diplomarbeit versucht das Problemfeld zu untersuchen indem sowohl existierende Positionierungsklassifikationen als auch momentan angewendete Positionierungsstrategien untersucht werden. So wird anhand bestehender Literatur eine allgemein anwendbare und all umfassende Positionierungstypologie entwickelt, welche mit Hilfe einer empirischen Analyse von Print-Werbung vervollständigt wird. Außerdem werden aktuelle Positionierungspraktiken innerhalb der empirischen Studie untersucht.

Das Ergebnis der konzeptuellen und der empirischen Analyse war ein die Komplexität aktueller Positionierungsstrategien reduzierendes Klassifikationsschema, das sowohl aus bestehenden, bereits als veraltet geltenden, und modernen Positionierungsalternativen besteht. Außerdem verdeutlichte die empirische Studie sehr wohl, dass es nicht nur zwischen Gütern und Dienstleistungen, sondern auch in den unterschiedlichen Produktkategorien verschiedene Positionierungspraktiken gibt. Schließlich ist es möglich Empfehlungen für zukünftige erfolgreiche Positionierungsmöglichkeiten abzugeben.

8.6 APPENDIX F

Curriculum Vitae

IMPORTANT DATES

Name Astrid Scheithauer
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EDUCATION

1993-2001 Bundesgymnasium und Bundesrealgymnasium Klosterneuburg
1989-1992 Öffentliche Volksschule Kritzendorf

CURRENTLY STUDYING

Since 2001 International Business administration with emphasis on
International Marketing at the University of Vienna, Centre for
Business Studies:
Thesis “An Empirical Documentation of Positioning Practices Used by
Global Brands”

EMPLOYMENT

2008 Reckitt Benckiser Austria GmbH; Assistant Brand Manager
2007-2008 UNIPORT – Das Karriereservice der Universität Wien;
Marketing Assistant
2006-2007 Investkredit Bank AG; corporate communications department
2005-2006 Nike G.m.b.H.; Marketing Intern
2002-2004 Schülerhilfe; English and Latin tutor; Klosterneuburg, Austria

LANGUAGES

German native language
English business knowledge
French everyday and business knowledge